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Abstract: Water samples (0-200 m) were collected in a coastal area of the Ross Sea in January 2014, to evaluate the physical and biological forcing on the carbonate system at the mesoscale (distance between stations of 5-10 km). Remote sensing supported the determination of the sampling strategy and helped positioning each sampling station. Total alkalinity, pH, dissolved oxygen, phytoplankton pigments and composition were investigated in combination with measurements of temperature, salinity and current speed. Total inorganic carbon, sea water CO2 partial pressure, and the saturation grade for calcite and aragonite were calculated from the measured total alkalinity and pH. In addition, continuous measurements of atmospheric CO2 concentration were completed. LADCP measurements revealed the presence of a significant change in current speed and direction that corresponded to a clearly defined front characterized by gradients in both temperature and salinity. Phytoplankton biomass was relatively high at all stations and the highest values of Chlorophyll-a were found between 20 to 50 m, with the dominant taxonomic group being haptophyceae. The carbonate system properties in surface waters exhibited mesoscale variability with a horizontal length scale of about 10 km. Sea-ice melt, through the input of low salinity water, results in a dilution of the total alkalinity and inorganic carbon, but our observations suggest that phytoplankton activity was the major forcing of the distribution of the carbonate system variables. Higher CO3-, Ω and pH in the surface layer were found where the highest values of Chlorophyll-a were observed. The calculated ApCO2 pattern follows both MODIS data and in situ Chlorophyll-a measurements, and the estimated CO2, fluxes ranged from -0.5 \pm 0.4 to -31.0 \pm 6.4 mmol m-2 d-1. The large range observed in the fluxes is due to both the spatial variability of sea water pCO2 and to the episodic winds experienced.

1	Physical and biological forcing of mesoscale variability in the carbonate system of the Ross
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25 Abstract

26 Water samples (0-200 m) were collected in a coastal area of the Ross Sea in January 2014 to evaluate the physical and biological forcing on the carbonate system at the mesoscale (distance 27 28 between stations of 5-10 km). Remote sensing supported the determination of the sampling strategy 29 and helped positioning each sampling station. Total alkalinity, pH, dissolved oxygen, phytoplankton 30 pigments and composition were investigated in combination with measurements of temperature, 31 salinity and current speed. Total inorganic carbon, sea water CO_2 partial pressure and the saturation 32 state (Ω) for calcite and aragonite were calculated from the measured total alkalinity and pH. In 33 addition, continuous measurements of atmospheric CO₂ concentration were completed. LADCP 34 measurements revealed the presence of a significant change in current speed and direction that corresponded to a clearly defined front characterized by gradients in both temperature and salinity. 35 36 Phytoplankton biomass was relatively high at all stations and the highest values of Chlorophyll-a 37 were found between 20 to 50 m, with the dominant taxonomic group being haptophyceae. The 38 carbonate system properties in surface waters exhibited mesoscale variability with a horizontal 39 length scale of about 10 km. Sea-ice melt, through the input of low salinity water, results in a 40 dilution of the total alkalinity and inorganic carbon but our observations suggest that phytoplankton 41 activity was the major forcing of the distribution of the carbonate system variables. Higher CO_3 , Ω 42 and pH in the surface layer were found where the highest values of Chlorophyll-a were observed. 43 The calculated ΔpCO_2 pattern follows both MODIS data and in situ Chlorophyll-a measurements, and the estimated CO₂ fluxes ranged from -0.5 \pm 0.4 to -31.0 \pm 6.4 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹. The large range 44 observed in the fluxes is due to both the spatial variability of sea water pCO₂ and to the episodic 45 46 winds experienced.

48 **1. Introduction**

49 The Ross Sea is one of the most productive regions of the Southern Ocean, exhibiting high 50 levels of biomass and primary production, and high flows of biogenic material accumulations on the 51 continental shelf (Smith and Gordon, 1997; Saggiomo et al., 1998 and 2002; Armand et al., 2005; 52 Arrigo et al., 2008; Smith and Comiso, 2008; Catalano et al., 2010). Ocean colour imagery shows 53 that the phytoplankton blooms are spatially extremely variable in the Ross Sea, even when the 54 surface waters are ice free (Reddy and Arrigo, 2006). In fact, the Ross Sea is characterized by a 55 complex array of ecosystems, each contributing differently to the primary production processes at the basin scale (Peloquin and Smith, 2007). Many differences are known to exist between 56 57 coastal/offshore waters and thickness of the Upper Mixed Layer (UML) relative to the composition 58 of phytoplankton, as well as in the origin and development of the blooms and transfer of C within 59 the food web (Saggiomo et al., 2002; Mangoni et al., 2004; Smith et al., 2010).

60 Phytoplankton blooms occur during the austral spring and summer, especially in the waters 61 next to marginal ice zones, within polynyas, and on continental shelves (Sullivan et al, 1993; Moore 62 and Abbott, 2000; Saggiomo et al., 2002; Garrity et al 2005; Reddy and Arrigo, 2006; Mangoni et 63 al., 2009a). Furthermore, a restricted number of functional groups contribute to this productivity 64 and dominance varies at different temporal and spatial scales (Mangoni et al., 2004; Smith et al., 2010). The two dominant functional groups in the Ross Sea, diatoms and haptophytes (mainly 65 66 *Phaeocystis antarctica*) have different temporal and spatial distributions, with *P. antarctica* 67 generally dominating in spring in water columns with deeper vertical mixing and diatoms 68 dominating in more stratified summer conditions (Arrigo et al., 1999; Goffart et al., 2000; Di Tullio 69 et al., 2003; Smith et al., 2014). The phytoplankton blooms are dominated by diatoms such as 70 Fragilariopsis and Pseudonitzschia species (Leventer and Dunbar, 1996; Saggiomo et al., 2000; 71 Armand et al., 2005). Diatoms account for about 75% of the primary production in the Southern 72 Ocean, regulate the cycle of silicon and support most food webs in the Antarctic (Knox, 1994;

73 Tréguer et al., 1995; Smith and Asper, 2001; Mangoni et al., 2004). However, Smith et al. (2011a) 74 estimated diatom production in the southern Ross Sea to average ca. 40% per year. P. antarctica occurs in colonial form, but also as solitary cells, and the two forms have distinct ecological roles. It 75 76 is known that the colonial haptophytes *P. antarctica* typically bloom in austral spring and reach 77 high abundance (Tremblay and Smith, 2007; Smith et al., 2014), and disappear rapidly from the 78 water column after reaching seasonal maximum (Smith et al., 2011a). The colonies of *P. antarctica* 79 are not preferred by most of herbivorous micro- and meso-zooplankton and are removed through 80 sinking and aggregation (Verity and Smetacek, 1996; Caron et al., 2000; DiTullio et al., 2000; 81 Haberman et al., 2003). Therefore, the relative abundance of diatoms or *P. antarctica* can play an 82 important role in shaping its food web and can influence the export of carbon to depth (Di Tullio et 83 al., 2000; Sweeney et al., 2000; Schoemann et al., 2005; Smith et al., 2014). 84 The Ross Sea is an important region in the global carbon cycle and air-sea carbon dioxide 85 fluxes (Arrigo et al., 1999; Arrigo et al., 2008; Mangoni et al., 2009b; Catalano et al., 2010; 86 Iudicone et al., 2011). A modelling study has shown that the Ross Sea shelf waters are a strong trap 87 for CO₂ due to high productivity, intense winds, high ventilation rates and extensive winter sea ice 88 cover (Arrigo et al., 2008). The same study also confirmed that the Ross Sea has an important role 89 in the anthropogenic CO₂ (CO_{2antr}) sequestration (Caldeira and Duffy, 2000; Sabine et al., 2004;

Sandrini et al., 2007), as Antarctic Bottom Water (AABW) production occurs in the area (Orsi and
Wiederwohl, 2009).

Throughout the ocean, mesoscale processes (on spatial scales of 10-100 km and temporal ranges from hours to days) have first-order impacts on phytoplankton physiochemical controls, and are critical in determining growth patterns and distribution; however, the mechanisms responsible for this variability are not yet well understood (Kaufman et al., 2014). The circulation of the Antarctic Surface Water (AASW) in the Ross Sea is affected by the presence of small-scale structures such as eddies, fronts and filaments. These mesoscale structures can penetrate deep below

98 the ocean surface layer and hence influence the intensity of the bloom by supplying nutrients and 99 trace elements, such as iron, to surface waters (Sweeney et al., 2003; McGillicuddy et al., 2007). 100 Little is known about the effects of mesoscale structures on the carbonate system and the airsea CO₂ fluxes and carbon export (Chen et al., 2008: González-Dávila et al., 2003 and 2006; 101 102 Omand et al., 2015). The main features of the carbonate system in the Ross Sea have been 103 described, showing both a large spatial and seasonal variability (Manno et al., 2007; Sandrini, et al., 104 2007; Rivaro et al., 2014). Therefore, the investigation of the mesoscale physical and biological 105 forcing that determine the carbonate system variability is of particular importance to predict future 106 modifications associated with climate change in the Ross Sea. 107 The primary objective of the RoME (Ross Sea Mesoscale Experiment) was to document the 108 mesoscale distribution and spatial - temporal variability of biogeochemical properties of the upper 109 200 m layers in the Ross Sea with a horizontal resolution of 5 - 10 km. To this purpose, RoME 110 used a combination of remote sensing and high resolution ship measurements during a cruise in the 111 austral summer 2013-14, as part of the Italian National Program of Research in Antarctica (PNRA -112 Programma Nazionale di Ricerca in Antartide). Remote sensing supported both the determination of 113 our sampling strategy and the placement of in situ stations. In this paper we investigate the role

114 played by physical and biological processes on the mesoscale variability of the carbonate system

115 and on the local air-sea CO_2 flux in a coastal area.

116

117 **2. Materials and Methods**

118 **2.1** Sampling strategy and water sampling

In situ data were collected aboard the R/V Italica, as part of the PNRA – RoME. Twelve
stations consisting of 5-7 depths (2–200 m) were sampled from 26 to 28 January 2014 within the
mesoscale RoME 2 survey (Fig. 1 A). Surface and intermediate layers were sampled in all stations,
while sampling to the bottom layer was completed at stations 33, 36, 39, 43 and 45. The position of

123 the stations was chosen based on MODIS (Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer) Aqua 124 and Terra satellites level-2 products relative to the previous 12/24 hours. Sea surface temperature (SST) and chlorophyll-a concentration (Chl-a) maps at 1 km resolution (Fig.1 B-C) were generated, 125 126 analyzed and transmitted to the ship to allow sampling of both high and low chlorophyll regions. 127 Sampling depths were chosen according to the fluorescence profiles. Station 35 was reoccupied 128 after 2 days (station 45). Hydrological casts and water sampling were carried out using a SBE 9/11 129 Plus CTD, with dual temperature and conductivity sensors, coupled with a SBE 32 plastic coated 130 carousel sampler, on which 24 12-L Niskin bottles were mounted. A couple of Lowered Acoustic 131 Doppler Current Profiler (LADCP) was deployed together with the CTD to obtain current fields every 10 m from the surface to the maximum depth sampled. Tidal component has been 132 133 successively removed according to Erofeeva et al. (2005).

134 2.2 Analytical procedures

135 2.2.1 Dissolved oxygen, phytoplankton pigments, taxonomic composition and maximum quantum
136 yield of PSII.

137 Dissolved oxygen (O₂) was measured by the Winkler method using automated micro-titrations

138 (Grasshoff, 1983) with a potentiometric detection of the end point using a Methohm 719

139 titroprocessor. The measurement precision was $\pm 0.5 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$.

140 Samples (4 L) for the determination of phytoplankton were collected at five or six depths from 141 0-100 m. Subsamples were analyzed for total biomass, size-fractionated Chl-a and composition 142 determined by spectrofluorometric and HPLC analyses, respectively, and by microscopic analysis. 143 Fractionation of phytoplankton was performed by serial filtration (see Mangoni et al., 2004). The 144 filters for spectrofluorometric analyses of Chl-a and phaeopigments were stored at -80°C and analyzed with a Varian Eclipse spectrofluorometer (Holm Hansen et al., 1965). The instrument was 145 146 checked daily with a Chl-a standard solution (from Anacystis nidulans; Sigma). For HPLC pigment 147 analysis, two-three L of seawater were filtered under low light through Whatman GFF filters (47

148 mm), quickly frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80 °C until analysis. Pigment separation was 149 performed by Hewlett Packard HPLC (mod. 1100) according to Vidussi el al. (1996). Calibrations used 20 pigments provided by the International Agency for ¹⁴C Determination, VKI Water Quality 150 Institute. Calculation of the relative abundance of various phytoplankton groups from the pigment 151 152 concentrations was completed using CHEMTAX (Mackey et al., 1996). Samples for phytoplankton 153 identification were collected at four different depths according to florescence profile and preserved 154 with formaldehyde (4% final concentration). Cell counts were performed with an inverted light 155 microscope (Zeiss Axiophot) according to the Utermöhl method (Utermöhl, 1958). At same four depths, electron transport rate (ETR) vs. irradiance curves were performed with a Phyto-PAM 156 157 fluorometer (Walz GmbH, Effeltrich, Germany). The maximum quantum yield (F_V/F_m) of 158 photochemical energy conversion in PSII was determined (Schreiber et al., 1994 and 1995).

159

2.2.2 A_T and pH measurements

160 Water samples for total alkalinity (A_T) and pH analyses were collected in 500-mL borosilicate 161 glass bottles using standard procedures (DOE, 2007). The samples were poisoned in the container 162 with saturated HgCl₂ to stop biological activity. Samples were then stored in dark, cold $(+4^{\circ}C)$ conditions. A_T and pH were measured using the methods described in Rivaro et al. (2010). pH was 163 164 expressed on the pH total scale (i.e. $[H^+]$ as moles per kilogram of seawater, pH_T), which was 165 determined using a potentiometric method that employed a combination glass/reference electrode 166 with an NTC temperature sensor. The Tris(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane (TRIS) buffer used to 167 standardize the pH electrode was prepared according to standard methods (DOE, 2007). The 168 salinity of the TRIS buffer was 35. Both the TRIS buffer and the seawater samples were brought to 169 the same temperature (25 ± 0.1 °C) using a thermostatic water bath before the measurements were 170 completed. The pH_T values at 25°C were then recalculated at in situ temperature and pressure conditions (pH in situ). The accuracy and precision of A_T measurements were evaluated using the 171 172 CRM batch 123 provided by A. G. Dickson (Scripps Institution of Oceanography). The precision

173 for A_T measures was $\pm 4.0 \ \mu mol \ kg^{-1}$ and the recovery was 99.8%. The precision of the pH 174 measurement was ± 0.007 units and it was evaluated by repeated analysis of the A_T certified 175 material.

176 2.3 Auxiliary carbonate system parameters calculation

The CO₂SYS program (CO₂-Sys, Pierrot et al., 2006) was used to calculate the total inorganic carbon (C_T), the sea water CO₂ partial pressure (pCO_{2SW}), the saturation state for calcite (Ω_{Ca}) and aragonite (Ω_{Ar}) from the measured A_T and pH. Equilibrium constants of CO₂ (K₁ and K₂) of Millero (2007) and total hydrogen ion scale (mol kg_{SW}⁻¹) for pH were used for the calculation. The estimated probable errors for the calculated parameters of the carbon system, using pH and A_T as input measurements, are ± 3.8 µmol kg⁻¹ and ± 2.1 µatm, for C_T and pCO₂, respectively.

183 **2.4** Atmospheric CO₂ measurements and sea-air CO₂ fluxes calculation.

Continuous measurements of atmospheric CO₂ concentrations (pCO_{2atm}) were conducted 184 185 throughout RoME 2 by a Siemens Ultramat 5E analyzer (Ori et al., 1996). The measurement system 186 is based on the comparison between signals from two infrared absorbing cells, one filled with a flux 187 of synthetic air with constant CO₂ concentrations (~ 380 µatm) and the other filled with the air 188 sample. The air sample was carefully dried by a cold trap (t <-40°C). The instrument was calibrated 189 using the WMO-X85 scale with working standards of 385 and 447 µatm determined at the Monte 190 Cimone Observatory (Sestola, Italy). CO₂ concentrations were acquired at 0.5 Hz frequency and 191 processed to remove spikes due to the possible contamination from the ship during the CTD 192 stations. The data were then filtered to consider only data with winds blowing from $-90^{\circ}/+90^{\circ}$ with 193 respect to the air inlet at the ship's bow. For CO₂ flux calculations, pCO_{2atm} concentration for each 194 station was obtained as average of at least 1200 values, then the data was corrected to 100% 195 humidity at in situ sea surface temperature (SST) and salinity (SSS). The sea-air CO₂ flux (F, in mmol $m^{-2} d^{-1}$) was computed as 196 197 $F = ks(\Delta pCO_2)$ (1)

- 198 where k is the CO₂ gas transfer velocity (cm h^{-1}), s is the solubility of CO₂ (mol kg⁻¹ atm⁻¹) and
- 199 ΔpCO_2 is the difference between the pCO_{2SW} and the pCO_{2atm}. Ship-based wind speed data at 10 m
- 200 height (u) were used for the calculation of the gas transfer velocity (k) according to Wanninkhof
- 201 formulation (1992):
- 202 $kCO_2 = 0.31u^2 (660/ScCO_2)^{0.5}$ (2)
- 203 where $ScCO_2$ is the Schmidt number for CO_2 .

204 2.5 Ancillary data

205 Melt water percentage in the surface layer (MW%) was calculated from the difference 206 between the salinity measured at the surface (S_{meas}) and at greater depth (S_{deep} , i.e., 200 m), and 207 assuming an average sea-ice salinity of 6 (Rivaro et al., 2012 and 2014):

208 MW%=
$$(1 - \frac{S_{meas} - 6}{S_{deep} - 6})$$
*100. (3)

209 Mixed Layer Depth (MLD) was estimated to be the depth at which an increase of in situ density (σ_t) 210 >0.05 over 5 m was observed.

211 **3. Results**

212 3.1 Physical properties

The θ /S diagram (Fig.2) shows the presence of characteristic Ross Sea water masses. The 213 214 surface layer from 30 to 50 m is occupied by a local expression of Antarctic Surface Water (AASW). AASW is the relatively light surface water showing a large range of temperatures (~-1.8 215 $^{\circ}$ C to +1 $^{\circ}$ C) and salinities (from <34.00 to ~ 34.50), because it lies at the air/sea-ice interface (Orsi 216 217 and Wiederwohl, 2009). In our study indeed, the AASW core was found at about 50 m, with salinity values close to 34.6 and potential density values lower than 27.9 kg m⁻³. These values are 218 219 slightly saltier, colder and denser than expected for typical AASW and more similar to Modified 220 Circumpolar Deep Water (MCDW) core parameters. However, O₂ content (see Fig.2) shows high oxygen concentrations, precluding the presence of MCDW. Differences from AASW typical values 221

are probably due to local conditions. Summer insulation and ice melt are also responsible for theincreased temperatures and lower salinities of the surface layer (shallower than 30 m).

224 The variability observed in surface layers is not found in the intermediate and deep layers (from 100 to 1000 m) that are occupied by High Salinity Shelf Water (HSSW) and Ice Shelf Water 225 226 (ISW). HSSW is characterized by a salinity maximum greater than 34.7, potential temperature near the freezing point and potential density greater than 27.9 kg m⁻³ (Budillon et al., 2003; Rivaro et al., 227 228 2014). The coldest water mass identified during the experiment is the local ISW (Budillon and 229 Spezie, 2000) with potential temperatures below the freezing point and salinity of about 34.7. 230 A frontal zone was observed along with a convergence (black dashed line in Fig.3) between two 231 circulation systems and is characterized by abrupt variation of temperature and salinity (see also 232 section 4.3, Fig. 9 A and B). Fresh and cold water masses, possibly influenced by melting and then 233 driven offshore by eastwards currents, are only observed at stations 41, 43, 44 on the western side 234 of the front. Stations 34 and 35/45 show T and S characteristics intermediate between coastal and 235 eastern water masses. The existence of this front is also evident in terms of U and V components of 236 the observed currents (Fig.9 C and D). The general current pattern is sketched in Fig.3, whereas a 237 specific section will be discussed in section 4.3. LADCP measurements reveal the presence of a 238 significant gradient across the frontal line as well as an inversion of resulting current directions just 239 east of station 35/45, as confirmed by the analysis of geostrophic currents derived from CTD data 240 (not shown). Finally, the absence of any upwelling signal (see section 4.3) associated with the 241 presence of a cyclonic circulation in the middle of the study area seems to confirm the existence of 242 a meridionally oriented front near 165.6°E.

243 **3.2** Chemical and biological properties

The A_T and the C_T (Table 1) ranged between 2313 and 2365 µmol kg⁻¹ and 2017 and 2266 µmol kg⁻¹, respectively, with the lowest values at the surface in agreement with previous Ross Sea data (Joint Global Ocean Flux Survey (JGOFS) Antarctic Environment and Southern Ocean Process 247 Study (AESOPS) in the Ross Sea http://usjgofs.whoi.edu/jg/dir/jgofs/southern/nbp97_8/;

http://usjgofs.whoi.edu/jg/dir/jgofs/ southern/nbp97_3/; Sandrini et al., 2007; Rivaro et al., 2014; 248 249 DeJong et al., 2015). The pH ranged between 8.42 and 7.96, with the highest values at the surface 250 and decreasing values with depth. As expected, C_T and A_T correlate significantly and positively 251 with the distribution of salinity (r = 0.79 and 0.92, respectively). A strong positive correlation was 252 observed between the A_T and C_T (r =0.61, n = 61), and a negative correlation was found between 253 pH and $C_T(r = -0.98, n = 61)$. The surface pCO_{2SW} values were well below the atmospheric values 254 (cf. Table 3), ranging from 146 to 236 µatm, and a general increase was observed with depth to 450 µatm at 200 m. They are comparable but slightly lower than those reported in the western region of 255 256 the Ross Sea (DeJong et al., 2015). All of the samples are oversaturated with respect to calcite and 257 aragonite, but near corrosive level of Ω_{Ar} (~1.0) is found only in the deepest samples collected at 258 stations 39 and 43 (1080 and 775 m, respectively). The O₂ concentration decreased from the surface 259 to 200 m at each station. In some stations (34, 36, 41, 43 and 45), values in the upper 20 m (from 10.4 to 12.6 mg L^{-1}) were above the saturation level (104-113%). 260

Total phytoplankton biomass Chl-a at the surface ranged from 0.90 to 2.56 mg m⁻³ (average 261 1.52) with integrated values ranging from 115 to 371 mg Chl-a m⁻² (average 232) (Table 2). The 262 surface Chl-a concentrations were correlated ($r^2=0.98$) with those throughout the top 0–100-m only 263 264 for the stations 34, 35, 36, 43 and 45. Chl-a concentrations within the water column varied between 0.58 and 3.79 mg m⁻³, with the highest value found at station 41 at 30 m. The highest values of Chl-265 a were found in the layer between 20 to 50 m. The percentage contribution of different size classes 266 267 to phytoplankton biomass showed an evident predominance of the micro-phytoplankton fraction (> 268 20 µm) of about 73% (±11). The variability of major function groups (CHEMTAX analysis) along 269 the water column during the entire sampling period is reported in Fig. 4. The maximum diatom biomass occurred only above 25 m, whereas haptophytes dominated the phytoplankton 270 271 communities below 30 m. The taxonomic analyses as well as CHEMTAX analysis underline the

dominance of haptophytes and diatoms that make up 90 % of the phytoplankton assemblages. The
haptophytes were represented primarily by colonial *Phaeocystis antarctica* while *Fraglariopsis*spp., *Pseudo-nitzschia* spp. and *Cylindrotheca closterium* were the most abundant diatom species.
All stations were characterized by a similar vertical structure of phytoplankton. It is important to
note that the diatom assemblages in the upper layer of stations 33, 34, 41, 43, 44, 45 were
constituted by large cells with empty frustules and in senescent status.

The phytoplankton physiological status varied throughout the water column. The maximum quantum yield (F_v/F_m) in the upper layer changed from 0.19 to 0.49 (mean 0.33 ± 0.07). In the deep layer (below 30 m), the maximum quantum yield varied from 0.22 to 0.75 (mean 0.42 ± 0.13); the highest value was detected at 35 m at station 45 where *P. antarctica* represents the 97 % of cell counts (Light Microscope, LM) of phytoplankton assemblages. Additionally, it is worth to mention the F_v/F_m value of 0.52 observed at 80 m in station 43, where *P.antarctica* represents the 98% of cell counts.

285 **4. Discussion**

286 4.1 Mesoscale drivers affecting the carbonate system chemistry in surface water

287 The carbonate system properties in surface water exhibited mesoscale variability with a horizontal length scale of about 10 km, which could be connected to both physical and biological 288 289 forcing. The melting of the sea ice plays an important role in controlling the summer AASW 290 physical and chemical features in the Ross Sea. The RoME cruise was characterized by largely icefree conditions over most of the southern Ross Sea. Solar heating encourages sea ice melting with 291 292 the formation of shallow UML. To evaluate the effect of the sea ice melt on the physical and 293 chemical properties at the surface, we calculated the percentage of melt water (MW%) which varied 294 from 0.9 % (in station 40, where the salinity reached the highest surface value of 34.43) to 3.1% (at 295 station 44, where the lowest salinity of 33.78 was measured) with a mean value of 2.1%. The UML 296 depth and irradiance are two of the main factors affecting phytoplankton and its dynamics, as the

297 presence of a shallow pycnocline keeps phytoplankton in the euphotic layer (Mitchell and Holm-298 Hansen, 1991; Arrigo et al., 1999). The UML depth plays a role in determining the dominant 299 species in the Ross Sea area. In fact, diatoms are usually most abundant in areas of shallower mixed 300 layer depth and more stratified waters (Arrigo et al., 1999; Arrigo, 2007; Smith et al., 2010). A very 301 shallow UML was calculated for the sampled stations $(16 \pm 5 \text{ m})$, comparable to other data reported 302 for coastal areas of the Ross Sea (Saggiomo et al., 2002; Massolo et al., 2009). The smallest value 303 occurred at station 44 (7 m), whereas the deepest was at stations 35 and 39 (23 and 24 m, 304 respectively). Therefore, when our survey took place, the area was characterized by 305 hydrographically favourable conditions for diatom growth, as it was confirmed by the CHEMTAX 306 analysis. The phytoplankton distribution we observed (maximum diatom biomass above 25 m and 307 haptophytes dominating the phytoplankton communities below 30 m) is in agreement with Arrigo et 308 al. (1999) and Annett et al. (2010), who suggested that deep mixing promotes growth of P. 309 antarctica as a result of its ability to adapt to a large range of irradiance levels (Arrigo et al., 1999). 310 Conversely, a stratified water column favours diatoms, which are better adapted to higher light 311 levels, such that they accumulate in stratified and in shallow-mixed layer regions, such as typically 312 are found near ice edges (Arrigo et al., 1999; Arrigo et al., 2000; Goffart et al.; 2000, Smith et al., 313 2010).

Wind speed is an important factor in controlling the energy that is transferred into the ocean and results in vertical mixing (Smith et al., 2011b), therefore we could expect slightly deeper UML where highest wind speed are recorded. However, in our study, no significant differences of the UML were found between the investigated stations depending on the wind speed. On the contrary, the significant negative correlation between MW% and UML (Pearson's r =-0.76, p = 0.05) emphasizes the importance of ice melt in inducing stratification.

320 The MW% also co-varied significantly and negatively with surface A_T (Pearson's r -0.96, p = 321 0.05) and C_T (Pearson's r - 0.72, p = 0.05), consistent with the fact that the distribution of surface 322 A_T and C_T is controlled by factors linked to salinity. Therefore, the addition of low salinity melt 323 water results in a dilution of the A_T and C_T. The A_T-C_T relationship can be used to determine 324 whether the cause of the variability is due to processes such as photosynthesis-respiration or CaCO₃ production-dissolution (Bates et al., 1998). To assess this, surface and subsurface (10-30 m) A_T and 325 326 C_T were normalized (A_T N and C_T N) to a constant salinity of 34.50 (roughly the average salinity of 327 the Ross Sea upper water column) to remove the effects of dilution from the melting sea ice (Dunbar et al., 2003). Photosynthesis and respiration can influence C_T but not A_T, whereas CaCO₃ 328 329 production-dissolution acts on both C_T and A_T at a ratio ranging between 1:1 and 1:2, depending on 330 the ratio of organic carbon production to CaCO₃ production (Robertson et al., 1994). A_T N and C_T N ranged from 2344 to 2373 μ mol kg⁻¹ and from 2063 to 2225 μ mol kg⁻¹, respectively. A_T N 331 variability was smaller (29 μ mol kg⁻¹) than C_TN variability (162 μ mol kg⁻¹) and was linearly 332 333 related to C_T N as follows:

334
$$A_T N = -0.118 + 2612 C_T N (r^2 = 0.57)$$
 (4).

335 This relationship indicates that photosynthesis-respiration, rather than CaCO₃ production-336 dissolution, controls C_T variability in surface and subsurface water. In fact, the A_TN:C_TN ratio is 337 close to the value found by Bakker et al. (2008) for the Weddell Sea and consistent with data 338 reported by Anderson and Sarmiento (1994) for organic matter production. Furthermore, the phytoplankton role in determining C_T concentration is confirmed by the high pH in corresponding 339 340 to the low C_T N values, as a result of the displacement of the carbonate equilibrium related to CO₂ 341 consumption (Fig. 5 A) and O₂ evolution (Fig. 5 B) and by the negative correlation between Chl-a 342 and C_TN.

343 Chl-a was used to investigate the role of biological CO_2 drawdown on the variability of the 344 carbonate system and Ω . Generally, the presence of water masses connected to sea-ice melting 345 results in low Ω due to dilution of $[CO_3^{2^-}]$ (Mattsdotter Björk et al., 2014). Nevertheless, our data 346 suggest that biological activity was the main cause for the observed Ω_{Ar} distribution. In fact, a

strong positive correlation was observed between Ω_{Ar} and Chl-a (r =0.77, n = 16) at the surface and 347 348 subsurface, with the highest Ω_{Ar} values (3.1 and 3.0) in those stations characterized by the highest 349 Chl-a and by the shallowest UML. CO_2 is removed in photosynthesis, leading to higher CO_3^- , 350 higher Ω_{Ar} , and increased pH where the highest values of Chl-a were recorded. A seasonal cycle of 351 Ω_{Ar} in the Ross Sea surface waters has been reported, with increasing values during the summer 352 months, because of the dominant control exerted by photosynthesis on the $C_{\rm T}$ (McNeil et al., 2010; 353 DeJong et al., 2015). Our Ω_{Ar} values (2.8 ± 0.2) are comparable to those reported by McNeil et al. 354 (2010) during the summer months (3 - 4) and higher than those found by DeJong et al. (2015) for the western Ross Sea (1.94 \pm 0.18) at the end of summer, when C_T concentrations would have 355 356 already increased. The effect of biological processes on the Ω_{Ar} has been reported over large spatial 357 and temporal scales (Mattsdotter Björk et al., 2014; DeJong et al., 2015), but mesoscale variations 358 such as those we found have never been reported. Based on these results, the distribution of the 359 carbonate system parameters in surface waters was largely controlled by phytoplankton activity. 360 Therefore, the dilution due to the melting sea ice had a small direct effect on Ω_{Ar} , but also an 361 indirect effect as well, given its importance on the UML and the stability of the water column.

362 4.2 Mesoscale physical and biological forcing on the local air-sea CO₂ flux

363 Surface pCO_{2SW} is controlled by SST, biological uptake of CO₂, remineralization of organic 364 carbon back to CO₂, air-sea CO₂ exchange and mixing with CO₂-rich waters from depth (Arrigo 365 and Van Dijken 2007). As surface waters stratify and the phytoplankton bloom intensifies during summer, the production of organic matter in the surface waters consumes C_T and makes pCO_{2SW} 366 367 decrease, potentially enhancing the uptake of CO₂ from the atmosphere. Surface pCO_{2SW} data were 368 below the atmospheric mean and had a large spatial variability (146-236 µatm), whereas the 369 measured pCO_{2atm} varied little (from 391.7 to 392.2 µatm). The pCO_{2SW} values show a small-scale 370 heterogeneity and are comparable to those reported for the Ross Sea surface waters during the 371 summer season (Bates et al, 1998; Sweeney, 2003; Tortell et al., 2011). Few recent articles have

quantified the length scales of surface gas and hydrographic variability in the Ross Sea using high 372 373 spatial resolution measurements (Hales and Takahashi, 2004; Tortell et al., 2011). In particular, our 374 data are consistent with the analysis of length-scale dependent pCO₂ variability in surface waters of 375 the Ross Sea polynya carried out by Tortell et al. (2011) who demonstrated that much of the spatial 376 variance in surface water gases occurred at scales of < 20 km. Therefore, the computed air-sea CO₂ 377 $(\Delta p CO_2)$ gradient was negative, corresponding to a net transfer of CO₂ from the atmosphere to the 378 ocean. The solubility is one pivotal mechanism in controlling the oceanic uptake of CO₂ across 379 much of the Southern Ocean, but in geographically limited areas where intense biological 380 production occurs, such as polynyas and other marginal ice zones or coastal areas, biological 381 processes become important for transferring CO₂ from the atmosphere to the ocean (Bates et al., 382 1998; Arrigo et al., 2008; Laika et al., 2009; Rivaro et al., 2014). However, it should be mentioned 383 that even though disequilibria occur, this does not mean that atmospheric CO_2 enters quickly the 384 ocean, as the time scale of air-sea exchange relative to drawdown are different. 385 The greatest air-sea CO₂ disequilibrium occurred at stations 34 and 44 (-241.6 µatm and -386 243.4 μ atm), corresponding to O₂ supersaturation (112-113%) and high pH_T values (8.42 at both 387 stations). MODIS SST and Chl-a maps indicated the occurrence of substantial production. 388 Specifically, satellite images captured a few hours before our sampling showed an inhomogeneous 389 chlorophyll distribution, with filaments characterized by chlorophyll concentrations higher (~1.4 mg m⁻³) than the surrounding water ($\sim 0.4 - 0.5$ mg m⁻³, Cf. Fig.1C). In particular, starting from 25th 390 391 January higher Chl-a concentrations were observed at stations 34 to 36. During the following days 392 this increase in Chl-a concentration assumed a horseshoe shape. In situ fluorescence measurements 393 were well correlated with satellite maps, despite the time and depth biases (Fig.1C and 7E). The 394 ΔpCO_2 pattern (Fig. 6A) parallels both satellite and in situ Chl-a measurements (Fig. 6B), which are 395 the most common proxy of phytoplankton biomass. The phytoplankton assemblage results from a 396 differential photosynthetic response of the two groups, with P. antarctica being able to

photosynthesize (and presumably grow) more effectively at lower irradiances than diatoms (Arrigo
et al., 1999). Also, the physiological state and light history of the phytoplankton communities have
to be considered.

400 Most literature supports that maximum quantum yield (F_V/F_m) is a good indicator of phytoplanktonic physiological status (Franklin et al., 2009; Petrou et al., 2011; Smith et al., 2011b; 401 402 Russo et al., 2015). Recently, measurements of the efficiency of photosystem PS II have become 403 widespread in biological oceanography to assess the physiological status of phytoplankton 404 communities. Absolute values of PS II efficiency depend to some extent on the measuring system, 405 but changes in PS II efficiency are assumed to reflect the 'photosynthetic health' of the 406 phytoplankton community, and to be affected mainly by cellular acclimations to changing abiotic 407 conditions (including nutrient availability, especially N and Fe) (Franklin et al., 2009; Smith et al., 408 2011b; Smith et al., 2013; Russo et al., 2015). This up-regulation of PS II was also previously 409 reported in sub-Antarctic Zones (in microcosm studies), where higher values were observed when 410 phytoplankton was not Fe limited (Petrou et al., 2011; van de Poll et al., 2005). For the Ross Sea, 411 Smith et al. (2013) reported that quantum yields of PS II were mostly higher in spring relative to summer, likely reflecting adaptations to lower irradiance in spring. Reduced F_V/F_m values (<0.4) 412 413 were detected in the upper 30 m in both seasons, with maximum values (0.55) observed below the 414 euphotic zone. Dominance of *P. antarctica* appears to be related to quicker photoacclimation to 415 changing light environments, whereas diatoms were dominant in shallow summer mixed layers, 416 which reflects their improved photosynthetic capacity at high irradiance levels. Decline in the 417 efficiency of PSII can be a function of the proportion of photosynthetically non-functional (dead) 418 cells in the mixture. In fact, some field studies indicate that phytoplankton communities can contain 419 large proportions of dead cells, and that these dead cells can, at times, be the most abundant fraction 420 in surface waters (van Boekel et al., 1992; Veldhuis et al., 2001). Franklin et al. (2009) reported that 421 in a number of species, mixtures in which 50% of the cells were dead had values of 0.5, similar to

values often found in natural assemblages. Our data show that in surface layer, where the large
diatoms (from 50 to 150 μm) prevail, the mean Fv/Fm is 0.33, may be due to limiting factors. In
fact, in several stations (33, 34, 41, 43, 44, 45) senescent diatoms were observed with empty
frustules. Probably the empty frustules represent the end-member of Fe limitation (such as death
cell). Fe limitation could be confirmed when data of Fe distribution and speciation collected in the
framework of the RoME activities will be available.

428 The region overall acted as a sink of CO₂, with fluxes ranging from -0.5 ± 0.4 to -31.0 ± 6.4 mmol $m^{-2} d^{-1}$ (Table 3). In particular, the CO₂ air-sea flux at stations 38, 39, 40 and 41 was several 429 times lower than other stations. The mean value $(-11.0 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1})$ is comparable to those we 430 already observed in the costal Terra Nova Bay (TNB) polynya (-12.7 and -15.4 mmol $m^{-2} d^{-1}$) 431 during the 2008 CLIMA Project survey (Rivaro et al., 2014). The TNB polynya, which is smaller 432 433 than the Ross Sea (RS) polynya, is also important in terms of productivity (Mangoni et al., 2004). 434 Phytoplankton abundance is maximal in late December, declines thereafter, but a secondary peak appears in mid-February and it is dominated by diatoms (Tremblay and Smith, 2007). Unfortunately 435 436 in CLIMA 2008 survey we could not directly confirm the phytoplanktonic drawdown on the pCO₂, 437 distribution, because neither chlorophyll-a sampling nor fluorescence measurements were performed. Nevertheless, primary productivity calculated from Sea WiFS data referred to the 438 investigated period allowed us to hypothesize that the phytoplanktonic drawdown made an 439 440 important contribution in determining the pCO₂ in the upper AAWS. The large range in fluxes 441 observed in the RoME 2 data is due to the significant short scale spatial variability of pCO_{2sw} 442 depending on biological activities and wind speed encountered during the survey. We are conscious that the investigated area is not necessarily representative of the average coastal Ross Sea. 443 444 Nevertheless, our data suggest that a high resolution analysis is needed to fully capture 445 biogeochemical heterogeneity in coastal surface waters of the Ross Sea with particular regards the 446 variance in air-sea CO₂ flux, which is important to predict future modifications in the carbonate

447 system associated with climate change in the Ross Sea.

As wind speed is the main driver of the air-sea flux, together with the ΔpCO_2 , the lowest 448 449 fluxes were calculated for those stations characterized by the weaker hourly averaged winds. In 450 contrast, the strongest CO_2 sink was observed at station 34 where low p CO_{2sw} high pH_T and high 451 wind speeds were observed. The revisited station (45) showed a slightly higher flux value with 452 respect to its first sampling (station 35). Enhanced flux is mostly due to a higher wind speed, because no increase of photosynthetic biomass, as represented by Chl-a values, is found after 48 453 454 hours. The importance of storms and their increased winds in the high-frequency (days) changes in CO_2 flux has been outlined by Arrigo and Van Dijken (2007), who investigated the air-sea 455 456 exchange of CO₂ in the southwestern Ross Sea for 1997–2003 using the Coupled Ice Atmosphere 457 Ocean (CIAO) model. The results showed that daily CO₂ flux reaches its seasonal maximum in 458 February and March of each year, coinciding with the late summer increase in wind speed at a time 459 when pCO_{2sw} is still well below atmospheric levels.

460 **4.3** Influence of the mesoscale physical forcing on the vertical distribution.

461 Our sampling pattern allowed us to analyze the mesoscale variability along several NW-SE 462 transects and one NE-SW section. After this, temperature and salinity data (stations 39, 40, 45, 41, 463 43) of a composed longitudinal transect from surface to 200 m depth have been analyzed (Fig. 7A 464 and B) T/S patterns highlight the presence of fresher and colder water in the western part of the 465 transect (stations 43, 41, 45), as well as saltier and warmer water in the east (stations 39, 40). The deepening of colder water at station 45 and the maximum eastward extension of fresher water 466 suggest that station 45 is next to a front, where a convergence between different waters could be 467 468 located. Sections of the current zonal and meridional components confirm this hypothesis. An 469 abrupt change in current direction is observed from station 41 to 40 both in terms of U (Fig. 7C) 470 and V components (Fig. 7D), suggesting the presence of a convergence, possibly associated with 471 the frontal position of station 45. Moreover, the calculation of geostrophic flow at several reference depths along the transect (not shown) confirms this pattern, showing a change in current directions
associated with the front. Results from all transects lead us to construct the general circulation of
the studied area as well as the front position (Fig. 3). The frontal zone near station 45 is reflected in
the distribution of the carbonate system properties.

476 Higher pH and Ω_{Ar} and lower C_T and pCO_{2sw} occurred with the less saline waters of the 477 western part of the section which occupied a thicker layer (30-40 m) than in the eastern part (Fig. 478 8). Here we also observed O_2 supersaturation and higher Chl-a concentration (Table 2). As 479 previously stated, the surface phytoplankton was heavily dominated by diatoms relative to 480 haptophytes, whereas P. antarctica was numerically dominant immediately following deepening of 481 the mixed layer and determined the maximum values of Chl-a. Our data show that the physiological 482 status of the phytoplankton was different along the water column. Indeed, PS II efficiency increased 483 to 0.42 (\pm 0.13) in samples below 25 m simultaneously to an increase in the number of viable cells 484 dominated by haptophytes that appeared well adapted to a low light conditions. The higher values 485 of quantum yield were measured in the deep layer of stations 43 and 45 m, where P. antarctica 486 represent the 98 and 97 %, respectively of phytoplankton assemblages in absence of limiting 487 factors. A homogeneous distribution of C_T and other carbonate system properties was observed in 488 waters below 50 m with an increasing trend with depth. This trend is due to an increasing pCO_{2sw} , 489 which decreases the pH and the Ω_{Ar} .

The data demonstrate clearly that both physical and biogeochemical parameters vary with horizontal length scales lower than 40 km (approximately the length of the section). In particular, near the frontal zone at a given depth ($\sim 30 \text{ m}$) C_T vary by up to 50 µmol kg⁻¹ in lateral distance of only 15 km. Also, the data show that a higher variability in all the biogeochemical parameters extend vertically as deep as 50 m. Thus, while the effect of the frontal zone on the carbonate properties was visible in the surface and sub-surface layer, it is less evident in the deeper layer. Therefore, mesoscale variability can significantly affect the carbonate system properties and their distribution throughout the water column. The resolution of these short length scale distributions
provides insight into the biogeochemical dynamics which drive surface and subsurface variability.
The observed patterns and interpretation of water column properties from our observations would
have been markedly different if they were sampled at lower resolution.

501 Few studies of mesoscale variability in the Ross Sea have addressed short length scale 502 biogeochemical variability, mainly of phytoplankton biomass (Smith et al., 2011b; Kaufmann et al., 503 2014). Hales and Takahashi (2004) reported horizontal variability of meso- and submeso-scales 504 ranging from several to 30 km in biologically mediated properties (i.e., pCO₂, O₂, C_T and nutrients) 505 within the upper 140 m in the Ross Sea. Therefore, our variability is comparable to their 506 observations with regards to the horizontal scale, whereas it is greater with regards the vertical 507 scale. This difference could be ascribed to the sampled areas or to the sampling period. In fact our 508 study sampled a coastal area in summer, characterized by a shallow UML, whereas Hales and 509 Takahashi sampled the Ross Sea polynya in late spring, where deeper mixed layer depth can occur.

510 **5. Conclusion**

511 The importance of mesoscale variability in the distribution of the carbonate system properties 512 of the upper 200-m layers and in local air-sea CO₂ flux was investigated in a coastal area of the 513 Ross Sea. The sampling strategy adopted by RoME using a combination of remote sensing and high 514 resolution ship measurements, allowed us to describe environmental dynamics at a short length 515 resolution. Therefore, it could represent a viable strategy to resolve chemical and biological 516 mesoscale variability in selected areas. Satellite images revealed a number of small structures which 517 were confirmed by in-situ data. Our results document substantial spatial heterogeneity and complexity in surface water carbonate system properties and the magnitude of the CO₂ flux at a 518 519 horizontal length scale of about 10 km, emphasizing the importance of mesoscale events to regional 520 biogeochemistry. We believe that the resolution of these short length scale distributions provides 521 insight into the biogeochemical dynamics which drive surface and subsurface variability in the Ross

522 Sea. Indeed, predicting future surface Ω_{Ar} and estimating future CO₂ fluxes on a regional scale 523 require understanding of the mesoscale processes controlling the carbonate system.

The distribution of the carbonate system in surface waters was controlled primarily by phytoplankton activity rather than physical forcing, which, on the other hand, created the favourable conditions for the diatoms growth in the upper layer of the water column. The dominance of diatoms versus haptophytes is found to have particular implications for the ratios of nutrient drawdown and carbon (Sarmiento et al., 1998).

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Fig. 1. A) Map of the sampling stations from 26th to 28th January 2014. Station 35 was revisited after 24 hours (station 45). The insets show the region of study inside the Ross Sea.
B) The position of the sampled stations (blue circles) with respect to the MODIS SST. C) The position of the sampled stations (blue circles) with respect to the MODIS surface Chl - a. Satellite data retrieved from Aqua and Terra satellites level-2 data at 1 km resolution, relative to 25th (left) and 28th (right) January 2014.

- **Fig. 2.** Potential temperature/salinity (θ /S) diagram of the sampled stations. The colour scale refers to dissolved oxygen concentration (mg L⁻¹). The red line indicates the surface freezing point at different salinity values.
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Fig 3. A simplified scheme of the main currents acting in the study area during RoME 2. The
dimensionless blue and red arrows represent the integrated direction derived by LADCP
observations collected every 10 m from surface to maximum reached depth. The over imposed
dashed line and the grey arrows show the position of the described frontal structure and the main
current pattern, respectively.

Fig. 4. Vertical profiles of mean and standard deviation of the total biomass (Chl-a concentration)
 and of the principal functional groups (percentage contribution of diatoms and haptophytes) to the
 phytoplankton community by CHEMTAX analysis in all stations.

- Fig. 5. Scatter plot of 0-30 m layer normalized total alkalinity (A_T N) and normalized total
 inorganic carbon (C_T N). The colour scale refers to pH values (A) and O₂ saturation percentage (B).
- **Fig. 6.** Surface calculated ΔpCO_2 (pCO_{2SW} pCO_{2air}) (µatm) (A) and Chl-a (µg L⁻¹) distribution (B).

Fig. 7. Sections of temperature (A), salinity (B), zonal (C) and meridional (D) current components
and in situ fluorometer (E) from surface to 200 m depth along the transect across stations 39, 40, 45,
41, 43. The total section distance is 40 km and the maximum distance between consecutive stations
is 12 km.

- 910 **Fig.8.** Sections of C_T (A), pH (B), pCO₂ (C), Ω_{Ar} (D) and O₂ (E) across stations 39, 40, 45, 41, 43. 911 The total section distance is 40 km and the maximum distance between consecutive stations is 12 912 km.
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Table 1. Carbonate system and O₂ data from RoME 2 stations.

Station	Depth	A _T	pН	pCO ₂	CT	Ω	Ω	O ₂	O ₂
	(m)	(µmol kg ⁻¹)		(µatm)	(µmol kg ⁻¹)	Calcite	Aragonite	mg L ⁻¹	% sat
33	2	2351	8.25	236	2135	3.7	2.3	12.6	114
	18	2354	8.06	379	2234	2.3	1.4	9.4	79
	40	2352	8.09	348	2222	2.4	1.5	9.9	83
	80	2354.	8.05	384	2238	2.2	1.4	9.9	83
	120	2356.	8.06	378	2239	2.2	1.4	9.9	82
	135	2358	8.01	426	2257	2.0	1.2	9.2	77
	400	2355	7.98	445	2259	1.8	1.1	9.4	79
34	2	2337	8.42	148	2037	5.0	3.1	12.5	112
	10	2342	8.37	172	2070	4.5	2.8	12.3	111
	30	2365	8.24	243	2164	3.4	2.2	11.4	99
	60	2359	8.14	309	2204	2.8	1.7	10.7	91
	220	2352	8.15	292	2198	2.6	1.7	9.2	76
35	2	2350	8.40	156	2058	4.9	3.0	12.0	108
	35	2371	8.24	242	2168	3.5	2.2	11.5	101
	70	2357	8.10	338	2219	2.5	1.6	10.3	87
	110	2353	8.05	390	2238	2.2	1.4	10.0	84
	200	2349	8.00	428	2250	1.9	1.2	9.2	77
36	2	2333	8.32	194	2086	4.1	2.6	11.6	104
	10	2345	8.35	179	2081	4.4	2.8	12.0	108
	20	2343	8.32	196	2109	3.9	2.5	12.1	105
	40	2358	8.21	263	2173	3.2	2.0	11.5	100
	160	2350	8.00	431	2252	1.9	1.2	9.3	78
37	2	2332	8.38	165	2060	4.5	2.8	9.1	75
	25	2357	8.23	249	2164	3.3	2.1	11.8	105
	60	2350	7.96	479	2266	1.8	1.1	11.3	98
	80	2349	8.00	439	2253	1.9	1.2	9.2	77
	200	2344	8.00	430	2247	1.9	1.2	9.2	76
38	2	2315	8.34	185	2064	4.2	2.6	11.6	104
	37	2362	8.19	277	2184	3.1	1.9	11.1	97
	50	2351	8.06	377	2231	2.3	14	10.0	84
	100	2353	8.00	436	2256	2.0	12	9.0	75
	200	2339	8.00	431	2230	1.9	1.2	8.5	71
39	2	2349	8 30	206	2109	4.0	2.5	11 3	102
	20	2351	8.26	230	2136	3.6	2.5	11.0	98
	50	2351	8 1/	306	2193	2.8	1.5	10.8	94
	200	2331	7 98	454	2175	1.8	11	8.9	74
	1080	2333	7.90	420	2273	1.0	1.1	0.7	77
40	1080	2347	0.71	420	2240	1.0	1.0	7.2 12.1	100
40	2	2363	8.35	181	2097	4.4	2.8	12.1	1

	30	2365	8.20	268	2180	3.2	2.0	11.2	98
	60	2347	8.11	337	2207	2.5	1.6	10.5	89
	100	2342	7.99	443	2247	1.9	1.2	9.2	76
	200	2342	7.99	435	2246	1.9	1.2	9.1	75
41	2	2342	8.37	172	2072	4.5	2.8	12.2	109
	20	2349	8.35	181	2087	4.4	2.7	12.4	111
	30	2349	8.27	221	2130	3.7	2.3	11.7	103
	80	2344	8.04	396	2232	2.2	1.4	9.6	81
	200	2358	7.98	451	2266	1.9	1.2	9.3	77
43	2	2316	8.38	165	2044	4.5	2.8	11.8	106
	20	2338	8.33	188	2091	4.1	2.6	12.0	107
	40	2364	8.21	261	2175	3.2	2.0	11.6	101
	200	2352	8.01	423	2251	2.0	1.2	9.2	76
	775	2362	7.97	430	2264	1.7	1.1	9.4	78
44	2	2313	8.42	146	2017	4.9	3.1	12.6	113
	30	2360	8.10	342	2223	2.5	1.6	10.4	88
	100	2358	8.02	420	2254	2.0	1.3	9.7	81
	188	2351	8.02	415	2247	2.0	1.3	9.4	78
45	2	2341	8.34	186	2083	4.3	2.7	11.9	102
	10	2349	8.35	178	2083	4.4	2.8	12.1	109
	25	2360	8.33	188	2106	4.2	2.7	10.5	94
	100	2364	8.06	376	2244	2.3	1.4	10.0	83
	200	2352	8.01	419	2250	2.0	1.2	9.3	77
	701	2358	8.01	398	2250	1.8	1.2	9.5	79

Station	mg Chl a m ⁻³	mg Chl a m ⁻²
33	1.13	115
34	2.56	371
35	1.95	320
36	1.22	246
37	1.61	133
38	0.90	226
39	1.00	166
40	1.17	202
41	1.62	212
43	1.52	277
44	2.31	235
45	1.30	276

Table 2. Mean values of surface and integrated Chl-a in the 0-100 m layer.

Table 3. Atmospheric dry-pCO₂ (pCO₂ dry), atmospheric pCO₂ corrected to 100% humidity (pCO₂ wet), air–sea CO₂ gradient (Δ pCO₂) and calculated CO₂ flux (F).

Station	Wind speed (kts)	pCO ₂ dry (µatm)	pCO ₂ wet (µatm)	ΔpCO ₂ (µatm)	F (mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹)
33	21.7 ± 1.2	392.0	389.3	-153.2	-23.7 ± 2.8
34	19.6 ± 1.9	392.2	389.6	-241.6	-31.0 ± 6.4
35	11.4 ± 1.4	392.1	389.5	-233.6	-10.0 ± 2.6
36	13.3 ± 1.3	392.1	389.5	-195.9	-11.6 ± 2.4
37	10.5 ± 1.2	391.7	389.2	-224.3	-8.3 ± 2.1
38	8.7 ± 1.2	391.9	389.3	-204.6	-5.2 ± 1.5
39	8.3 ± 1.2	391.9	389.3	-183.1	-4.1 ± 1.3
40	4.7 ± 1.1	391.8	389.3	-208.1	-1.5 ± 0.8
41	2.8 ± 0.9	391.9	389.3	-217.6	-0.5 ± 0.4
43	12.8 ± 1.3	391.7	389.1	-224.4	-12.4 ± 2.6
44	11.2 ± 2.1	391.7	389.1	-243.0	-10.1 ± 4.2
45	14.5 ± 2.9	391.7	389.0	-203.5	-14.1 ± 6.2
1	1		1	1	1



A)



SST (°C)



B)



Chl-a (mg m⁻³)



C)



Fig. 2



Fig.3

Figure 4 Click here to download Figure(s): Fig. 4_Rivaro et al 180815.doc



Fig.4

Figure 5 Click here to download Figure(s): Fig.5_Rivaro et al180815.doc



B)

Fig.5



A)

Chl-a (mg m⁻³)



B)

Figure 7 Click here to download Figure(s): Fig.7_Rivaro et al180815.doc





Fig.7

Figure 8 Click here to download Figure(s): Fig.8_Rivaro et al180815.doc

