1 Climatological variations of total alkalinity and total dissolved inorganic carbon in the

- 2 Mediterranean Sea surface waters
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#### 24 Abstract

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26 A compilation of several cruises data from 1998 to 2013 was used to derive polynomial fits 27 that estimate total alkalinity  $(A_T)$  and total dissolved inorganic carbon  $(C_T)$  from 28 measurements of salinity and temperature in the Mediterranean Sea surface waters. The 29 optimal equations were chosen based on the 10-fold cross validation results and revealed that 30 a second and third order polynomials fit the  $A_T$  and  $C_T$  data respectively. The  $A_T$  surface fit yielded a root mean square error (RMSE) of  $\pm$  10.6  $\mu$ mol.kg<sup>-1</sup>, and salinity and temperature 31 contribute to 96% of the variability. Furthermore we present the first annual mean C<sub>T</sub> 32 parameterization for the Mediterranean Sea surface waters with a RMSE of  $\pm$  14.3  $\mu$ mol.kg<sup>-1</sup>. 33 Excluding the marginal seas of the Adriatic and the Aegean, these equations can be used to 34 35 estimate A<sub>T</sub> and C<sub>T</sub> in case of the lack of measurements. The identified empirical equations were applied on the quarter degree climatologies of temperature and salinity, available from 36 the World Ocean Atlas 2013. The seven years averages (2005-2012) showed that  $A_T$  and  $C_T$ 37 38 have similar patterns with an increasing Eastward gradient. The variability is influenced by 39 the inflow of cold Atlantic waters through the Strait of Gibraltar and by the oligotrophic and 40 thermohaline gradient that characterize the Mediterranean Sea. The summer-winter 41 seasonality was also mapped and showed different patterns for A<sub>T</sub> and C<sub>T</sub>. During the winter, the A<sub>T</sub> and C<sub>T</sub> concentrations were higher in the Western than in the Eastern basin. The 42 opposite was observed in the summer where the Eastern basin was marked by higher A<sub>T</sub> and 43 44  $C_{T}$  concentrations than in winter. The strong evaporation that takes place in this season along 45 with the ultra-oligotrophy of the Eastern basin determines the increase of both A<sub>T</sub> and C<sub>T</sub> 46 concentrations.

48 Keywords: Mediterranean Sea; Carbonate System; Surface Waters; Empirical Modeling;
49 Seasonal Variations

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#### 1. Introduction

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The role of the ocean in mitigating climate change is well known as it absorbs about 2 Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup> of anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> (Wanninkhof et al., 2013). Worldwide measurements of surface seawater CO<sub>2</sub> properties are being conducted as they are important for advancing our understanding of the carbon cycle and the underlying processes controlling it. For instance, the buffer capacity of the CO<sub>2</sub> system varies with temperature, the distribution of total inorganic carbon and total alkalinity (Omta et al., 2011).

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60 Our understanding of the open-ocean  $CO_2$  dynamics has drastically improved over the years 61 (Rödenbeck et al., 2013; Sabine et al., 2004; Takahashi et al., 2009; Watson and Orr, 2003). 62 However our understanding of marginal seas such as the Mediterranean remains poor due to 63 the limited measurements combined with the enhanced complexity of the land-ocean 64 interactions. In the Mediterranean Sea, available measurements of the carbonate system are 65 still scarce and only available in specific regions such as the Alboran sea (Copin-Montégut, 1993), the Gibraltar Strait (Santana-Casiano et al., 2002), the Dyfamed time-series in the 66 67 Ligurian Sea (Bégovic and Copin-Montégut, 2002; Copin-Montégut and Bégovic, 2002; 68 Touratier and Goyet, 2009) and the Otranto Strait (Krasakopoulou et al., 2011). Large 69 geographical distribution of  $CO_2$  data are often confined to cruises with a short sampling 70 period (Álvarez et al., 2014; Goyet et al., 2015; Rivaro et al., 2010; Schneider et al., 2007; Touratier et al., 2012). Numerical models have provided some insights of the carbon 71 72 dynamics in the Mediterranean Sea (Cossarini et al., 2015; D'Ortenzio et al., 2008; Louanchi 73 et al., 2009), but it remains important to constrain the system from in situ measurements to 74 validate their output.

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76 The scarcity of the CO<sub>2</sub> system measurements in the Mediterranean Sea make it difficult to 77 constrain the CO<sub>2</sub> uptake in this landlocked area and also limits our understanding of the 78 magnitude and mechanisms driving the natural variability on the ocean carbon system 79 (Touratier and Goyet, 2009). Empirical modeling has been successfully used to study the 80 marine carbon biogeochemical processes such as the estimation of biologically produced  $O_2$ 81 in the mixed layer (Keeling et al., 1993), estimation of global inventories of anthropogenic 82 CO<sub>2</sub> (Sabine et al., 2004) and estimation of the CaCO<sub>3</sub> cycle (Koeve et al., 2014). Empirical 83 algorithms were also used to relate limited A<sub>T</sub> and C<sub>T</sub> measurements to more widely available 84 physical parameters such as salinity and temperature (Bakker et al., 1999; Ishii et al., 2004; 85 Lee et al., 2006). The A<sub>T</sub> and C<sub>T</sub> fields can then be used to calculate pCO<sub>2</sub> fields and thus 86 predict the CO<sub>2</sub> flux across the air-sea interface (McNeil et al., 2007).

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Previous empirical approaches to constrain A<sub>T</sub> in the Mediterranean Sea have only covered
selected cruises (Schneider et al., 2007; Touratier and Goyet, 2009) or local areas such as the
Dyfamed time-series station or the Strait of Gibraltar (Copin-Montégut, 1993; Santana-

91 Casiano et al., 2002). As for C<sub>T</sub>, empirical models have only been applied to data below the

mixed layer depth (MLD) following the equation of Goyet and Davis (1997) at the Dyfamed

93 time series station (Touratier and Goyet, 2009) or using the composite dataset from Meteor 51/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2 1/2

94 51/2 and Dyfamed (Touratier and Goyet, 2011). Also Lovato and Vichi (2015) proposed an

optimal multiple linear model for  $C_T$  using the Meteor 84/3 full water colum data. To the best of our knowledge the reconstruction of  $C_T$  in surface waters has not been yet performed in the

- 97 Mediterranean Sea. This is probably due to the lack of measurements available for previous
- 98 studies to capture the more complex interplay of biological, physical and solubility processes
- 99 that drive  $C_T$  variability in the surface waters.
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In this study we have compiled  $CO_2$  system measurements from 14 cruises between 1995 and 2013, that allowed us to constrain an improved and new empirical algorithms for  $A_T$  and  $C_T$ in the Mediterranean Sea surface waters. We also evaluated the spatial and seasonal variability of the carbon system in the Mediterranean Sea surface waters, by mapping the 2005-2012 annual and seasonal averages of surface  $A_T$  and  $C_T$  using the quarter degree climatologies of salinity and temperature from the World Ocean Atlas 2013 (WOA13).

- 107 108
- 2. Methods
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# 2.1. Surface $A_T$ and $C_T$ data in the Mediterranean Sea

Between 1998 and 2013, there have been multiple research cruises sampling the seawater properties throughout the Mediterranean Sea. This includes parameters of the carbonate system more specifically  $A_T$ , pH and  $C_T$  and physico-chemical properties of in situ salinity, and temperature. In this study we have compiled surface water samples between 0 and 10 m depth, totaling 490 and 426 measurements for  $A_T$  and  $C_T$  respectively (Table 1).

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# 2.2. Polynomial model for fitting $\mathbf{A}_T$ and $\mathbf{C}_T$ data

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Two polynomial equations for fitting  $A_T$  or  $C_T$  from salinity (S) alone or combined with sea 120 surface temperature (T) in the surface waters (0 - 10 m) of the Mediterranean Sea were 121 122 chosen from the results of the 10-fold cross validation method (Breiman, 1996; Stone, 1974). This type of analysis was previously performed by Lee et al. (2006) for general relationships 123 of  $A_T$  with salinity and temperature. This model validation technique is performed by 124 randomly portioning the dataset into 10 equal subsamples. One subsample is used as the 125 validation data, and the 9 remaining subsamples are used as training data. The cross 126 127 validation process is then repeated 10 times, with each of the 10 subsamples used exactly 128 once as the validation data. In this manner, all observations are used both for training and 129 validation, and each observation is used for validation only once. The best fit is chosen by 130 computing the residuals from each regression model, and computing independently the 131 performance of the selected optimal polynomial on the remaining subsets.

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133 The analysis was applied for polynomials of order 1 to 3, and the optimal equation was134 chosen based on the lowest Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) and the highest coefficient of

determination  $(r^2)$ . High-order polynomials (4 and above) were discarded because they can be oscillatory between the data points, leading to a poorer fit to the data.

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138 The dataset consists of 490 and 400 data points for A<sub>T</sub> and C<sub>T</sub>, respectively (Table 1). To ensure the same spatial and temporal coverage of the polynomial fits, the same training 139 140 dataset was retained for both A<sub>T</sub> and C<sub>T</sub>. This was performed by selecting stations were both 141 parameters were simultaneously measured; yielding 360 data points (Figure 1). To validate the general use of the proposed parameterizations we tested the algorithms with 142 143 measurements which are not included in the fits (Validation dataset). For A<sub>T</sub>, the validation dataset consists of 130 data points which are formed from the testing subset of the 10<sup>th</sup> fold 144 145 (40 data points), and from cruises where  $A_T$  was measured without accompanying  $C_T$  (90 data points). For C<sub>T</sub>, the validation dataset is the same as the testing subset of the 10<sup>th</sup> fold (40 data 146 147 points).

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## 2.3. Climatological and seasonal mapping of $A_{T}$ and $C_{T}$

**3.1.** Fitting A<sub>T</sub> in the Mediterranean Sea surface waters

The climatological and seasonal averages of salinity (Zweng et al., 2013) and temperature (Locarnini et al., 2013) in 1/4\*1/4 degree grid cells were downloaded from the World Ocean Atlas 2013 (WOA13). The seven years averages (2005-2012) and the summer-winter seasonality of A<sub>T</sub> and C<sub>T</sub> fields were mapped at 5 m depth by applying the respective derived algorithms in their appropriate ranges of S and T. The summer seasonality is defined as the average of the months of July, August and September. The winter seasonality is defined as the average of the months of January, February, and March.

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#### 3. Results and Discussion

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In the surface ocean the  $A_T$  variability is controlled by freshwater addition or the effect of evaporation, and salinity contributes to more than 80% of the  $A_T$  variability (Millero et al., 1998). In the Mediterranean Sea, several studies have shown that the relationship between  $A_T$ and S is linear (Copin-Montégut, 1993; Copin-Montégut and Bégovic, 2002; Hassoun et al., 2015b; Rivaro et al., 2010; Schneider et al., 2007). In other studies, the sea surface temperature (T) has been included as an additional proxy for changes in surface water  $A_T$ related to convective mixing (Lee et al., 2006; Touratier and Goyet, 2011).

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171 The results of the 10-fold cross validation analysis revealed that the optimal model for  $A_T$  is a 172 second order polynomial in which  $A_T$  is fitted to both S and T (Eq 1).

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$$A_T = 2558.4 + 49.83(S - 38.2) - 3.89(T - 18) - 3.12(S - 38.2)^2 - 1.06(T - 18)^2$$
 (1)  
175 Valid for  $T > 13$  °C and  $36.30 < S < 39.65$   
176  $n = 375; r^2 = 0.96; RMSE = 10.6 \ \mu mol.kg^{-1}$ 

178 A linear relationship between  $A_T$  and S yields a higher RMSE (14.5  $\mu$ mol.kg<sup>-1</sup>) and a lower r<sup>2</sup> 179 (0.91) than Eq (1). In a semi-enclosed basin such as the Mediterranean Sea, the insulation and 180 high evaporation as well as the input of rivers and little precipitation leads to a negative 181 freshwater balance (Rohling et al., 2009). The resulting anti-estuarine thermohaline 182 circulation could explain the contribution of temperature to the  $A_T$  variability (Touratier and 183 Goyet, 2011).

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185 The residuals of training dataset used to generate the second order polynomial fit for A<sub>T</sub> are presented in Figure 2a. Most of the  $A_T$  residuals (340 over 375) were within a range of  $\pm 15$ 186  $\mu$ mol.kg<sup>-1</sup> (1  $\sigma$ ). However 35 residuals over were high up to  $\pm$  30  $\mu$ mol.kg<sup>-1</sup> (1  $\sigma$ ). Applying 187 the A<sub>T</sub> algorithm to the testing dataset (Figure 2b), yields a mean residual of  $0.91 \pm 10.30$ 188  $\mu$ mol.kg<sup>-1</sup> (1  $\sigma$ ), and only 6 data points have residuals higher than  $\pm$  15  $\mu$ mol.kg<sup>-1</sup> (1  $\sigma$ ). 189 Furthermore, to make sure that the  $A_T$  algorithm does not overfit the data, we tested the 190 191 difference in means between the RMSE and residuals between the training set compared to 192 the testing set. The results show that for both RMSE and mean residual, we cannot reject the 193 null hypothesis (that assumes equals means) between the training and validation datasets 194 (Table 2).

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196 The comparison of the RMSE as reported by other studies with that of Eq (1) does not 197 indicate if the parameterization developed here has advanced or not on previous attempts in the Mediterranean Sea. In that order, we independently applied each of the previous 198 199 equations on the same training dataset used to develop Eq (1) and then computed the RMSE and  $r^2$  for every one (Table 3). The results show that Eq (1) has a lower RMSE and a higher  $r^2$ 200 201 than all of the parameterizations presented in Table 3. For instance, the general relationship 202 of Lee et al. (2006) applied to the dataset of this study yields an RMSE as high as  $\pm 40.50$ µmol.kg<sup>-1</sup>. The RMSE of other studies developed strictly in the Mediterranean Sea varied 203 from  $\pm$  13.81 to  $\pm$  26.11 µmol.kg<sup>-1</sup> using the equations of Touratier and Goyet (2011) and 204 205 Schneider et al. (2007) respectively.

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By applying directly the previous parameterizations to our training dataset, the calculated 207 RMSE are significantly higher than the ones reported in their respective studies. For instance 208 the reported RMSE in Lee et al. (2006) for sub-tropical oceanic regions is  $\pm 8 \,\mu\text{mol.kg}^{-1}$  and 209 that of Schneider et al. (2007) for the Meteor 51/2 cruise is  $\pm 4.2 \text{ }\mu\text{mol.kg}^{-1}$ . This shows that 210 211 previous models were constrained by their spatial coverage, time span and used datasets. In 212 fact the previous equations were calculated in local areas such as the Alboran Sea (Copin-213 Montégut, 1993), the Strait of Gibraltar (Santana-Casiano et al., 2002) or the Dyfamed Site 214 (Copin-Montégut and Bégovic, 2002; Touratier and Goyet, 2009). On a large scale, equations 215 were applied using limited datasets such as the Meteor 51/2 cruise in October-November 2001 (Schneider et al., 2007), the Transmed cruise in May-June 2007 (Rivaro et al., 2010) or 216 217 the Meteor 51/2 and the Dyfamed time series station (Touratier and Goyet, 2011).

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The proposed algorithm including surface data from multiple cruises, and on a large time span, presents a more representative relationship to estimate  $A_T$  from S and T than the previously presented equations (Table 3). In Equation 1, T and S contribute to 96% of the  $A_T$  variability and the RMSE of  $\pm 10.6 \ \mu mol.kg^{-1}$  presents a significant improvement of the spatial and temporal estimations of A<sub>T</sub> in the Mediterranean Sea surface waters (Mean difference t-test, H = 1; p = 0.04).

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#### **3.2.** Fitting C<sub>T</sub> in the Mediterranean Sea surface waters

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The surface  $C_T$  concentrations are influenced by lateral and vertical mixing, photosynthesis, oxidation of organic matter and changes in temperature and salinity (Poisson et al., 1993; Takahashi et al., 1993). All these processes are directly or indirectly correlated with seasurface temperature (Lee et al., 2000). Hence, the parameterization of  $C_T$  includes both physical (S and T) and/or biological parameters (Bakker et al., 1999; Bates et al., 2006; Koffi et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2000; Sasse et al., 2013).

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235 The results of the 10-fold cross validation analysis showed that a first order polynome fits  $C_T$ to S and T with an RMSE of 16.25  $\mu$ mol.kg<sup>-1</sup> and r<sup>2</sup> = 0.87. These values are comparable to 236 the RMSE and  $r^2$  found by previous empirical approaches applied in the Eastern Atlantic 237 (Bakker et al., 1999; Koffi et al., 2010). However we found that a third order polynome 238 improved the RMSE and  $r^2$  of the equation compared to the first order fit (Eq 2). Hence we 239 240 will retain the large dataset used to develop Eq (2), where temperature and salinity explain 241 90% of the C<sub>T</sub> variability encountered in the Mediterranean Sea surface waters. The remaining 10% could be attributed to the biological and air-sea exchange contributions to the 242 243 C<sub>T</sub> variability.

244

245  $C_T = 2234 + 38.15(S - 38.2) - 14.38(T - 17.7) - 4.48(S - 38.2)^2 - 1.43(S - 38.2)(T - 17.7) + 9.62(T - 17.7)^2 - 1.10(S - 38.2)^3 + 3.53(T - 17.7)(S - 38.2)^2 + 3.53(T - 17.7)(S -$ 

247  $1.47(S-38.2)(T-17.7)^2 - 4.61(T-17.7)^3$ 

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The  $C_T$  parameterization developed in this study (Eq 2) showed a higher uncertainty than that of  $A_T$  regarding both RMSE and  $r^2$ . The estimation of  $C_T$  in the mixed layer adds a high uncertainty due to the seasonal variability (Sabine et al., 2004). Also in the  $C_T$  are directly affected by air-sea exchange, and their concentrations will increase in response to the oceanic uptake of anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub>.

*Valid for T > 13 °C and 36.30 < S < 39.65* 

 $n = 375, r^2 = 0.90; RMSE = 14.3 \mu mol.kg^{-1}$ 

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Previous models accounted for the anthropogenic biases in the  $C_T$  measurements by 257 calculating the C<sub>T</sub> rate of increase (Bates, 2007; Lee et al., 2000; Sasse et al., 2013; 258 Takahashi et al., 2014). However in a study, Lee et al. (2000) also did not correct the  $C_T$ 259 260 concentrations for regions above 30° latitude such as the Mediterranean Sea. In the following 261 we will assess the importance of accounting or not for anthropogenic biases in the  $C_T$ 262 measurements. In that order we dowloaded the monthly atmospheric  $pCO_2$  concentrations measured from 1999 to 2013 at the Lampedusa Island Station (Italy) from the World Data 263 264 Center for Green House Gases (http://ds.data.jma.go.jp/gmd/wdcgg/). Following the method described by Sasse et al. (2013), we corrected the C<sub>T</sub> measurements to the nominal year of 265

(2)

- 266 2005 and applied the same 10-fold cross validation analysis using data with and without 267 anthropogenic  $C_{\rm T}$  corrections. We found that the RMSE of the  $C_{\rm T}$  model trained using 268 measurements with anthropogenic corrections is 13.9 µmol.kg<sup>-1</sup>, which is not significantly 269 different from the model trained using measurements without anthropogenic corrections (Eq 270 2; RMSE = 14.3 µmol.kg<sup>-1</sup>).
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The yearly increase of  $C_T$  concentrations is difficult to assess due to the wide spatial distribution of the training dataset used to generate Eq (2). Hence we will refer to the monthly  $C_T$  concentrations measured between 1998 and 2013 at the Dyfamed time-series station. We found that the rate of increase in  $C_T$  concentrations at the Dyfamed site was 0.99 µmol.kg<sup>-1</sup>.yr<sup>-1</sup> (Figure 3), which is consistent with the anthropogenic  $C_T$  correction rate used in the previous studies of Lee et al. (2000), Bates (2007) and Sasse et al. (2013).

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The rate of increase in  $C_T$  concentrations of 0.99 µmol.kg<sup>-1</sup>.yr<sup>-1</sup> as well as the RMSE difference of  $\pm$  0.4 µmol.kg<sup>-1</sup> between the two models (with or without anthropogenic corrections) are both smaller than the uncertainty of the  $C_T$  measurements of at least  $\pm$  2 µmol.kg<sup>-1</sup> (Millero, 2007). A recent study also showed that the uncertainty of the  $C_T$ measurements can be significantly higher than  $\pm$  2 µmol.kg<sup>-1</sup>, as most laboratories reported values of  $C_T$  for the measures that were within a range of  $\pm$  10 µmol.kg<sup>-1</sup> of the stated value (Bockmon and Dickson, 2015).

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Between 1998 and 2013, the C<sub>T</sub> concentrations measured at the Dyfamed time-series station 287 showed a slightly increasing trend ( $r^2 = 0.05$ ). The increase in C<sub>T</sub> concentrations in response 288 to elevated atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, was masked by the high seasonal variations. For example, 289 during the year 1999 the variation in  $C_T$  concentrations reached as high as 100  $\mu$ mol.kg<sup>-1</sup> 290 (Figure 4a). Also there is a clear seasonal cycle of C<sub>T</sub> in the Dyfamed station (Figure 4b). In 291 292 the summer, the  $C_T$  starts to increase gradually to reach a maximum of 2320 µmol.kg<sup>-1</sup> during the winter season, after which a gradual decrease is observed to reach a minimum of 2200 293 µmol.kg<sup>-1</sup> by the end of spring. The seasonal cycle can be explained by the counter effect of 294 temperature and biology on the C<sub>T</sub> variations. During the spring, the increasing effect of 295 warming of pCO<sub>2</sub> is counteracted by the photosynthetic activity that lowers the C<sub>T</sub>. During 296 the winter, the decreasing effect of cooling on  $pCO_2$  is counteracted by the upwelling of deep 297 298 waters rich in C<sub>T</sub> (Hood and Merlivat, 2001; Takahashi et al., 1993). This shows that the C<sub>T</sub> 299 concentrations were more affected by the seasonal variations than by anthropogenic forcing. 300

301 Considering the small differences in the RMSE obtained by the two models, the uncertainties 302 in the  $C_T$  measurements and the clear signal of the seasonal variations; no corrections were 303 made to account for the rising atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. Also the dynamic 304 overturning circulation in the Mediterranean Sea plays an effective role in absorbing the 305 anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> and transports it from the surface to the interior of the basins (Hassoun et 306 al., 2015a; Lee et al., 2011).

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308 The residuals of the dataset used to generate the third order polynomial fit for  $C_T$  are 309 presented in Figure 5a. Most of the  $C_T$  residuals (330 over 360) were within a range of  $\pm 18$ 

 $\mu$ mol.kg<sup>-1</sup> (1  $\sigma$ ). In contrast only few residuals (12 over 360) reached up to  $\pm$  50  $\mu$ mol.kg<sup>-1</sup> (1 310  $\sigma$ ). Applying the C<sub>T</sub> algorithm to the testing dataset (Figure 5b), yields a mean residual of 4.5 311  $\pm$  17 µmol.kg<sup>-1</sup> (1  $\sigma$ ) which is close to the uncertainties of our C<sub>T</sub> relationship. The high 312 residuals observed in this study are consistent with the results of the optimal multiple linear 313 314 regression performed by Lovato and Vichi (2015), where the largest discrepancies between 315 observations and reconstructed data were detected at the surface layer with RMSE higher than  $\pm$  20 µmol.kg<sup>-1</sup>. To make sure that the C<sub>T</sub> algorithm does not overfit the data, we 316 conducted the same analysis performed on the A<sub>T</sub> datasets. The results show that for both 317 318 RMSE and mean residual, we cannot reject the null hypothesis (that assumes equals means) 319 between the training and validation datasets (Table 4).

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321 Considering the high uncertainties of the  $C_T$  measurements, the seasonal variations and the 322 anthropogenic forcing; Eq (2) presents the first parametrization for  $C_T$  in the Mediterranean 323 Sea surface waters, with an RMSE of  $\pm 14.3 \ \mu mol.kg^{-1}$  (1  $\sigma$ ) and a r<sup>2</sup> = 0.90 (Eq 2).

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#### 3.3. Spatial and seasonal variability of A<sub>T</sub> and C<sub>T</sub> in surface waters

325 326

327 The ranges of the 2005-2012 average annual climatologies of the World Ocean Atlas 2013 328 (WOA13) are from 35.91 to 39.50 for S and from 16.50 °C to 23.57 °C for T (Locarnini et al., 329 2013; Zweng et al., 2013). However a wider range is observed for the seasonal climatologies, especially during the winter season where T ranges from 9.05 °C to 18.43 °C. The estimations 330 of  $A_T$  and  $C_T$  in surface waters from Eq (1) and (2) respectively are only applicable in the 331 332 appropriate ranges of T > 13 °C and 36.3 < S < 39.65. Hence the surface waters A<sub>T</sub> and C<sub>T</sub> concentrations were mapped only where T and S were within the validity range of Eq (1) and 333 334 (2) respectively. Excluding few near-shore areas and the influence of cold Atlantic Waters in 335 winter, the ranges in which Eq (1) and Eq (2) can be applied are within those of the 336 climatological products of T and S of the WOA13 (Figure 6). 337

The mapped climatologies for 2005-2012 at 5m depth show a strong increase in the Eastward gradient for both  $A_T$  and  $C_T$  with the highest concentrations always found in the Eastern Mediterranean (Figure 7). The minimum values of 2400 µmol.kg<sup>-1</sup> for  $A_T$  and 2100 µmol.kg<sup>-1</sup> for  $C_T$  are found near the Strait of Gibraltar and the maximum values of 2650 µmol.kg<sup>-1</sup> and 2300 µmol.kg<sup>-1</sup> are found in the Levantine and Aegean sub-basin for  $A_T$  and  $C_T$  respectively.

343

The  $A_T$  parameterization of this study detects a clear signature of the alkaline waters entering through the Strait of Gibraltar that remains traceable to the Strait of Sicily as also shown by Cossarini et al. (2015). In the Eastern basin the positive balance between evaporation and precipitation contributes to the increasing surface  $A_T$ . Local effects from some coastal areas such as the Gulf of Gabes and riverine inputs from the Rhone and Po River are also detected.

349

350 Our results for surface  $A_T$  have a similar spatial pattern and range as the annual climatology

of Cossarini et al. (2015) which simulates surface  $A_T$  values from 2400 to 2700  $\mu$ mol.kg<sup>-1</sup>. The main difference is marked in the upper ends of the Adriatic and Aegean sub-basins

- where our algorithm predicts  $A_T$  values around 2400-2500 µmol.kg<sup>-1</sup>, whereas the analysis of
  - 8

- Cossarini et al. (2015) yields a maximum of 2700 µmol.kg<sup>-1</sup> in these regions. Regressions in regions of river input indicate a negative correlation between alkalinity and salinity (Luchetta et al., 2010). Hence, Eastern marginal seas such as the Adriatic and Aegean sub-basins have
- 357 high A<sub>T</sub> concentrations due to the freshwater inputs (Cantoni et al., 2012; Souvermezoglou et
- al., 2010). This shows the sensitivity of our algorithms to temperature and salinity especially
- in areas that are more influenced by continental inputs such as the Po River and inputs of theDardanelle in the northern Adriatic and northern Aegean respectively (Figure 7a).
- 360
- 361

362 At the surface, the basin wide distributions of C<sub>T</sub> are affected by physical processes and their 363 gradient is similar to that of  $A_T$  (Figure 7b). The lowest  $C_T$  concentrations are found in the zone of the inflowing Atlantic water and increases toward the East in part due to evaporation 364 365 as also shown by Schneider et al. (2010). Our results for surface C<sub>T</sub> have a similar range as the optimal linear regression performed by Lovato and Vichi (2015) which estimates surface 366  $C_T$  values from 2180 to 2260  $\mu$ mol.kg<sup>-1</sup>. Moreover, the results show that the Mediterranean 367 Sea is characterized by  $C_T$  values that are much higher (100–200  $\mu$ mol.kg<sup>-1</sup> higher) than 368 those observed in the Atlantic Ocean at the same latitude (Key et al., 2004). 369

370

371 Overall the Western basin has a lower surface  $C_T$  content than the Eastern basin which could 372 be explained by the Eastward decrease of the Mediterranean Sea trophic gradient (Lazzari et 373 al., 2012). The higher rate of inorganic carbon consumption by photosynthesis in the Western 374 basin can lead to the depletion of  $C_T$  in the surface waters, whereas the ultra-oligotrophic 375 state in the Eastern basin can lead to a high remineralization rate that consumes oxygen and 376 enriches surface waters with  $C_T$  (Moutin and Raimbault, 2002).

377

The magnitude of the seasonal variability between summer and winter for A<sub>T</sub> and C<sub>T</sub> is 378 379 shown in Figure 8. Unlike the seven years averages, the seasonal climatological variations 380 (2005-2012) of A<sub>T</sub> have different spatial patterns than those of C<sub>T</sub>. Overall the summerwinter time differences for A<sub>T</sub> have an increasing Eastward gradient (Figure 8a). The largest 381 magnitudes are marked in the Alboran Sea with differences reaching up to - 80 µmol.kg<sup>-1</sup>; the 382 negative difference implies that during the winter inflowing surface Atlantic water has higher 383 384  $A_T$  concentrations than in summer. Higher winter than summer time  $A_T$  concentrations are also observed in the Balearic, Ligurian and the South-Western Ionian sub-basins but with a 385 less pronounced seasonality (~ -30  $\mu$ mol.kg<sup>-1</sup>). For these three sub-basins, the C<sub>T</sub> has a higher 386 summer-winter magnitude than  $A_T$  (~ -70 µmol.kg<sup>-1</sup>). The winter cooling of surface waters 387 increases their density and promotes a mixing with deeper water. Thus, the enrichment in 388 389 winter time likely reflects the upwelling of deep waters that have accumulated A<sub>T</sub> and C<sub>T</sub> 390 from the remineralization of organic matter, respiration and the dissolution of CaCO<sub>3</sub>. The 391 seasonality is more pronounced for C<sub>T</sub>, which likely reflects the stronger response of C<sub>T</sub> to biological processes than  $A_T$  (Takahashi et al., 1993). 392

393

In the Algerian sub-basin and along the coasts of Tunisia and Libya, the seasonality is inversed with higher  $A_T$  and  $C_T$  concentrations prevailing in the summer. The African coast is an area of coastal downwelling during the winter season. However, during summer the coastal upwelling appears in response to turning of the wind near the coast toward the West 398 (Bakun and Agostini, 2001). In general, the magnitude of the A<sub>T</sub> seasonal variability is higher 399 in summer than in winter for the Eastern basin and more particularly in the Ionian and 400 Levantine sub-basins. During this season strong evaporation takes place and induce an 401 increase of  $A_T$  concentrations (Schneider et al., 2007). In the Eastern basin, the high evaporation during the summer has a smaller effect on the C<sub>T</sub>, and magnitudes reach their 402 403 maxima in the Levantine sub-basin ( $\sim + 20 \mu mol.kg^{-1}$ ). During winter time the Western basin and South East of Sicily appear to be dominated by higher C<sub>T</sub> concentrations than the rest of 404 405 the Eastern basin, where the summer  $C_T$  concentrations are prevailing (Figure 8b). During 406 winter the high C<sub>T</sub> concentrations that coincide with low SST in the Western basin, could 407 result from the deepening of the mixed layer and could be enhanced by the upwelling 408 associated with the Tramontane-Mistral winds that blow from the southern of France and 409 reach the Balearic Islands and the Spanish coast.

410

#### 411 Summary

412

The A<sub>T</sub> and C<sub>T</sub> algorithms are derived from a compilation of 490 and 426 quality controlled 413 414 surface measurements respectively, collected between 1999 and 2013 in the Mediterranean 415 Sea. A second order polynomial relating  $A_T$  to both S and T yielded a lower RMSE (± 10.4  $\mu$ mol.kg<sup>-1</sup>) and a higher r<sup>2</sup> (0.96) than a linear fit deriving A<sub>T</sub> from S alone. This confirmed 416 the important contribution of temperature to the A<sub>T</sub> variability. Hence, temperature should be 417 418 included in future algorithms to help better constrain the surface A<sub>T</sub> variations. The proposed 419 second order polynomial had a lower RMSE than other studies when we applied their 420 respective algorithms to the same training dataset. In this study we propose an improved and 421 more global relationship to estimate the A<sub>T</sub> spatial and temporal variations in the 422 Mediterranean Sea surface waters.

423

424 The C<sub>T</sub> parameterization is a first attempt to estimate the surface variations in the Mediterranean Sea. A third order polynomial is suggested to fit the C<sub>T</sub> to T and S with a 425 RMSE of  $\pm$  14.3 µmol.kg<sup>-1</sup>. The biological contributions to the C<sub>T</sub> variations were less 426 pronounced than the physical processes. The contributions of to the physical processes and 427 428 biology to the C<sub>T</sub> variability were 90 and 10 % respectively. In terms of anthropogenic forcing, the  $C_T$  rate of increase of 0.99 µmol.kg<sup>-1</sup>.yr<sup>-1</sup> was significantly lower than the 429 uncertainty of the measurements than can reach  $\pm$  10 µmol.kg<sup>-1</sup> between different 430 laboratories. Moreover the  $C_T$  concentrations were more affected by the seasonal variations 431 432 than the increase of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>.

433

We propose to use Equations (1) and (2) for the estimation of surface  $A_T$  and  $C_T$  in the Mediterranean Sea when salinity and temperature of the area are available and are in the appropriate ranges of the equations. However in the Eastern marginal seas especially the northern Adriatic and northern Aegean there is a need to develop a more specific equation that minimizes the errors in these areas. Hence, it is important to enrich the existing dataset by an extensive sampling program such as the Med-SHIP initiative (CIESM, 2012) in order to improve the modeling of the carbonate system over the whole Mediterranean Sea.

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444

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467

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**Table 1. List of available carbonate system datasets for the Mediterranean Sea** 

Dataset	Period	Area	Carbonate	Data	Reference
			system	points	
			parameters		
Prosope	Sep-Oct 1999	Mediterranean	$A_T$ and pH	20	Bégovic and Copin
		Sea			(2013)
Meteor	Oct-Nov 2001	Eastern	$A_T$ and $C_T$	16	Schneider and
51/2		Mediterranean			Roether (2007)
Meteor	Apr 2004	Southern	$A_T$ , $C_T$ and	16	Tanhua et al. (2012)
84/3		Mediterranean	pН		
Carbogib	2005-2006	Gibraltar	$A_T$ and pH	28	(Huertas, 2007a, b,
2-6		Strait			c, d, e)
Gift 1-3	2005-2006	Gibraltar	$A_T$ and pH	12	(Huertas, 2007f, g,
		Strait			h)
Transmed	Jun 2007	Eastern	$A_T$ and pH	20	Rivaro et al. (2010)
		Mediterranean			
Sesame	Mar - Apr	Northern	$A_T$ and $C_T$	16	SeaDataNet
IT-4	2008	Mediterranean			
Boum	Jun-Jul 2008	Mediterranean	$A_T$ and $C_T$	75	Touratier et al.
		Sea			(2012)
Pacific-	2007-2009	Mediterranean	$A_T$ and $C_T$	22	Hydes et al. (2012)
Celebes		Sea			
Moose-GE	May 2010	Ligurian Sea	$A_T$ and $C_T$	44	SeaDataNet
Hesperides	May 2013	Gibraltar	$A_{T}$	10	Perez et al. (2013)
		Strait			```´´
MedSeA	May 2013	Southern	$A_T$ and $C_T$	59	Goyet et al. (2015)
		Mediterranean			
Dyfamed	1998-2013	Ligurian Sea	$A_T$ and $C_T$	152	Oceanological
time-series					Observatory of
					Villefranche-sur-
					Mer

#### Table 2. Mean difference t-test for the $A_T$ algorithm between the training and validation datasets

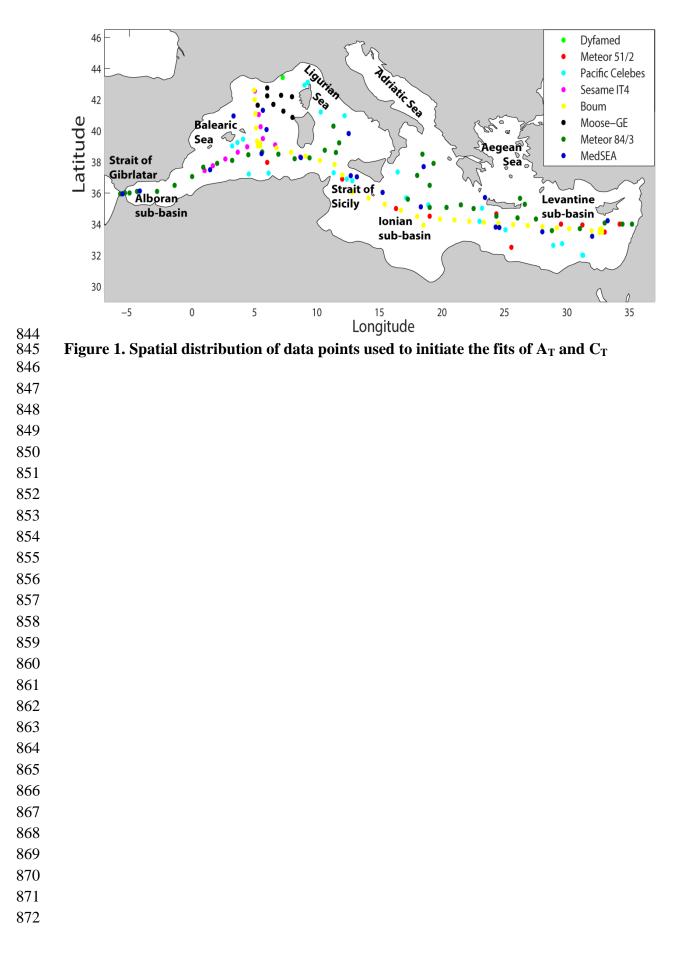
		Training dataset	Validation dataset	
	RMSE (µmol.kg <sup>-1</sup> )	10.60	10.34	Mean difference t-test:
				H = 0; p = 0.83
	Mean residual	$2.64e-13 \pm 10.57$	$0.91 \pm 10.30$	Mean difference t-test:
	$(\mu mol.kg^{-1})$			H = 0; p = 0.42
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# Table 3. Performance of the different parameterizations for the estimation of A<sub>T</sub> applied independently to the training dataset of this study

independently to the training dataset of this study					
Region	Parameterization	RMSE	$\mathbf{r}^2$	Reference	
		(µmol.kg <sup>-1</sup> )			
Alboran Sea	$A_{\rm T} = 94.85({\rm S}) - 1072.6$	± 16.61	0.92	Copin-Montégut (1993)	
Dyfamed site	$A_{\rm T} = 93.99({\rm S}) - 1038.1$	± 16.31	0.92	Copin-Montégut and Bégovic (2002)	
Strait of Gibraltar	$A_{\rm T} = 92.28({\rm S}) - 968.7$	± 16.48	0.92	Santana-Casiano et al. (2002)	
Mediterranean Sea	$A_{\rm T} = 73.7({\rm S}) - 285.7$	± 26.11	0.68	Schneider et al. (2007)	
Dyfamed site	$A_{\rm T} = 99.26({\rm S}) - 1238.4$	± 18.53	0.91	Touratier and Goyet (2009)	
Western Mediterranean	$A_{\rm T} = 95.25({\rm S}) - 1089.3$	± 16.97	0.92	Rivaro et al. (2010)	
Eastern Mediterranean	$A_{\rm T} = 80.04({\rm S}) - 499.8$	± 14.58	0.91	Kivalo et al. (2010)	
Mediterranean Sea	$\begin{array}{c} A_{T} = 1/(6.57*10^{-1})^{-1} \\ (5+1.77-10^{-2})/S - (5.93 - 10^{-4}(\ln\theta))/\theta^{2}) \end{array}$	± 13.81	0.92	Touratier and Goyet (2011)	
Global relationship (Sub-tropics)	$\begin{aligned} A_{T} &= 2305 + 58.66 (S - 35) + 2.32 (S - 35)^{2} + \\ 1.41 (T - 20) + 0.04 (T - 20)^{2} \end{aligned}$	± 40.50	0.26	Lee et al. (2006)	

# 810 Table 4. Mean difference t-test for the C<sub>T</sub> algorithm between the training and validation 811 datasets

		Training dataset	Validation dataset	
	RMSE (µmol.kg <sup>-1</sup> )	14.3	16.2	Mean difference t-test:
				H = 0; p = 0.04
	Mean residual	$-1.5e-12 \pm 14.2$	$4.5 \pm 17$	Mean difference t-test:
017	(µmol.kg <sup>-1</sup> )			H = 0; p = 0.06
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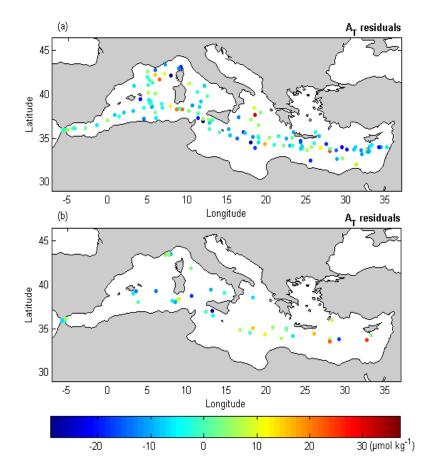


Figure 2. Map of the residuals of the A<sub>T</sub> algorithm (Eq 1) applied the (a) training and
(b) testing datasets



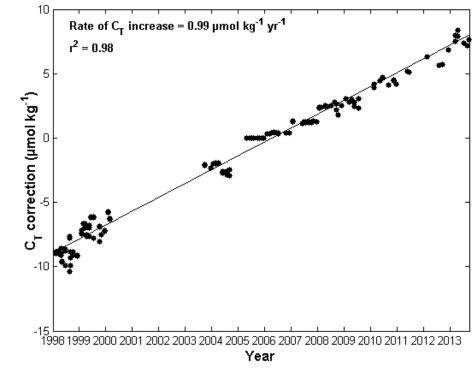


Figure 3. Rate of increase applied to correct the  $C_T$  measurements in reference to the

- year 2005

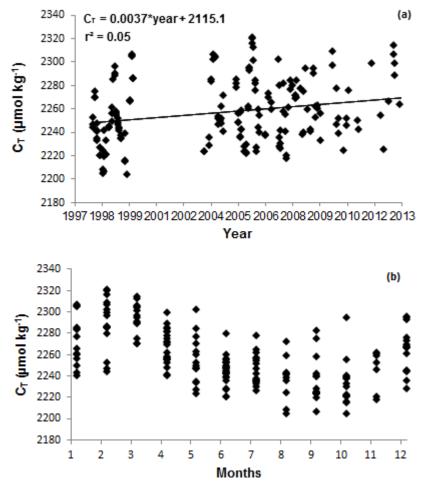


Figure 4. (a) Temporal and (b) seasonal variations of C<sub>T</sub> measured at the Dyfamed time series station between 1998 and 2013

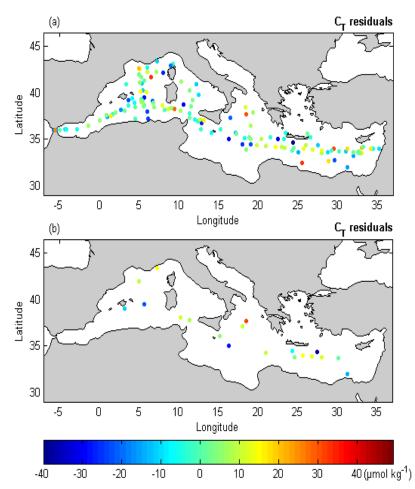
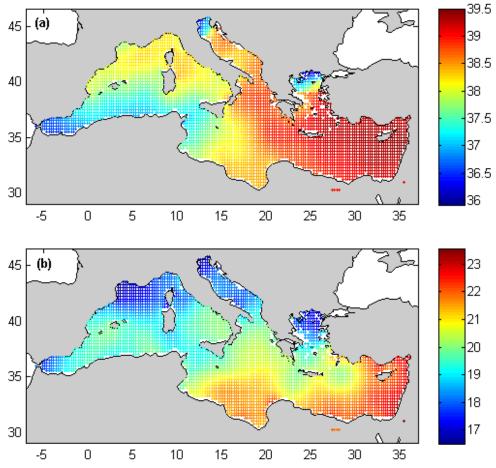
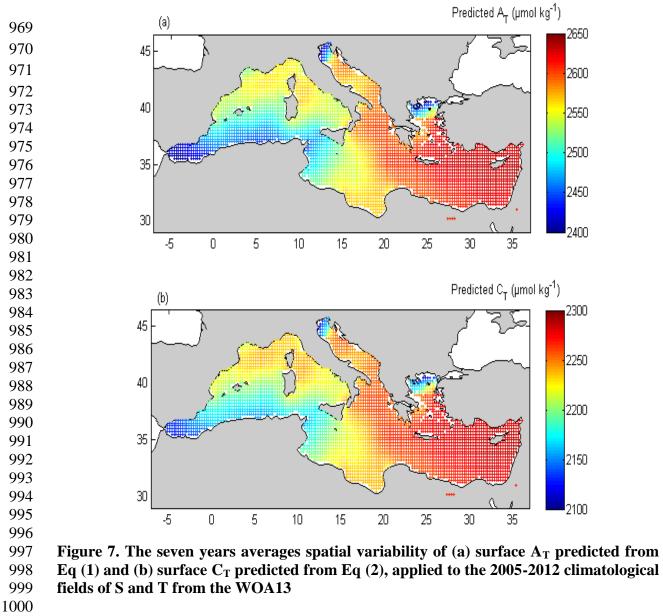
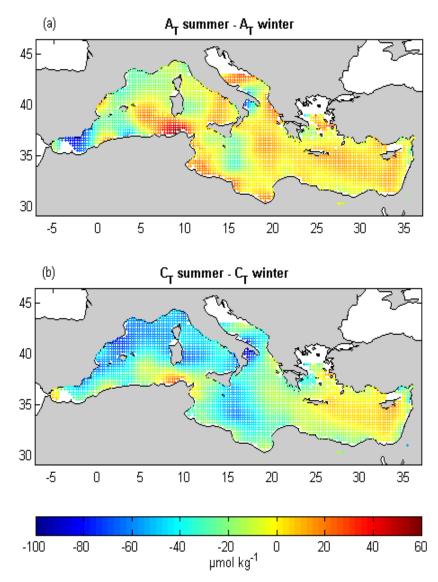


Figure 5. Comparison of the predicted C<sub>T</sub> values from the C<sub>T</sub> algorithm given in Eq (2)
 with measurements which are (a) included or (b) excluded when deriving the fit
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1017Figure 8. Distribution of the summer-winter differences of (a) surface  $A_T$  predicted1018from Eq (1) and (b) surface  $C_T$  predicted from Eq (2), applied to the 2005-20121019climatological fields of S and T from the WOA13