



XBT data collected along the Southern Ocean “chokepoint” between New Zealand and Antarctica, 1994-2024

Giuseppe Aulicino^{*,1,2}, Antonino Ian Ferola¹, Laura Fortunato¹, Giorgio Budillon^{1,3}, Pasquale Castagno^{3,4}, Pierpaolo Falco^{3,5}, Giannetta Fusco^{1,3}, Naomi Krauzig^{3,5}, Giancarlo Spezie^{1,3}, Enrico Zambianchi^{1,3}, Yuri Cotroneo^{*,1,3}

¹ Dipartimento di Scienze e Tecnologie, Università degli Studi di Napoli “Parthenope”, Napoli, 80143, Italy

² Istituto di Scienze Polari, Consiglio Nazionale delle Ricerche, Bologna, 40129, Italy

³ Consorzio Nazionale Interuniversitario per le Scienze del Mare (CoNISMa), Roma, 00196, Italy

⁴ Dipartimento di Scienze Matematiche e Informatiche, Scienze Fisiche e Scienze della Terra, Università degli Studi di Messina, 98122, Italy

⁵ Dipartimento di Scienze della Vita e dell’Ambiente, Università Politecnica delle Marche, Ancona, 60131, Italy

* Correspondence to: Giuseppe Aulicino (giuseppe.aulicino@uniparthenope.it); Yuri Cotroneo (yuri.cotroneo@uniparthenope.it)

Abstract. This study presents the water column temperature data collected during several cruises on board the *Italica*, *Araon* and *Laura Bassi* research vessels, in the framework of the Climatic Long-term Interaction for the Mass balance in Antarctica (CLIMA), Southern Ocean Chokepoints Italian Contribution (SOChIC), and Marine Observatory of the Ross Sea (MORSea) projects, funded by the Italian National Antarctic Research Program (PNRA). Data were collected between New Zealand and the Ross Sea during the austral summers from 1994/1995 to 2023/2024. Across this chokepoint of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current, XBT Sippican T7 probes were launched with a regular 20 km sampling, providing temperature profiles with a vertical resolution of 65 cm and a maximum nominal depth of 760 m. All temperature profiles underwent a rigorous quality control, including a general malfunctioning verification, the removal of spikes, the consistency check of adjacent profiles, the comparison to regional oceanographic features and satellite altimetry observations, and a final visual check by operator. Data quality checks led us to discard about 12% of acquired XBT measurements. This dataset contributes to the improvement of our understanding of Southern Ocean features, being highly valuable for studies focusing on climate variability, especially across the Antarctic Circumpolar Current and its fronts. Furthermore, we expect that the collected XBT data will serve as a useful tool for the calibration and validation of recent satellite observations and for the improvement of Southern Ocean oceanographic simulations.



36 **1 Introduction**

37 The temperature of the ocean is one of the key parameters identified by the Global Climate Observing
38 System (GCOS) as being essential for climate studies (World Meteorological Organization, 2016).
39 Together with salinity values, ocean temperatures are necessary to identify and trace the main water
40 masses and monitor their evolution at different spatial and temporal scales.

41 On the larger scales, collecting oceanic temperature and salinity data is of paramount importance to
42 the study of the global thermohaline circulation, which plays a pivotal role in Earth's climate system.
43 The Southern Ocean (SO) plays a fundamental role in this circulation (Gille, 1994; Rintoul, 2018),
44 as some of the global thermohaline circulation "engines" are located near the Antarctic coast,
45 associated with polynya areas (Morales Maqueda et al., 2004; Aulicino & Wadhams, 2022). At
46 smaller scales, temperature data can be used to describe the vertical structure of the ocean (e.g., the
47 thermocline depth and its variability), to locate fronts between different water masses, determine the
48 ocean heat content and volume transport, and to identify meso- and sub-mesoscale ocean dynamics.
49 The main current in the SO is the Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC), which is its primary source
50 of heat, nutrients and momentum (Sokolov & Rintoul, 2009a, 2009b). The ACC is one of the largest
51 currents on the planet, flowing from west to east and isolating the Antarctic continent, which makes
52 it strongly dependent on the SO conditions. Additionally, the Antarctic ecosystem is very fragile and
53 temperature-dependent, which highlights the importance of monitoring physical changes in the ocean
54 that surrounds it (Convey & Peck, 2019). Therefore, monitoring the SO and its temperature is
55 essential for improving our knowledge of the processes driving the Antarctic variability and the global
56 climate balance (Rintoul, 2018; Armour et al., 2016).

57 Despite its importance, SO has consistently faced a scarcity of in situ observations due to its remote
58 location and the extreme weather conditions, which often hinder research activities to be carried out
59 on site. The measurements are further limited by the seasonal sea ice presence that inhibits the
60 navigation and the data collection. Additionally, in situ data collection is often conducted with
61 instruments and probes used from ships travelling at their normal speed (e.g., Expendable
62 BathyThermographs – XBT), without the possibility to perform classical full depth CTD casts that
63 require ship stops. The advent of the international ARGO program increased significantly the number
64 of hydrographic observations available in the SO throughout all seasons (Roemmich et al., 2022).
65 However, Lagrangian floats do not allow the collection of information along repeated monitoring
66 lines.

67 Accordingly, many steps have been taken over time to obtain ocean temperature data through remote
68 sensing. Satellite data provide valuable insights about the upper ocean, especially when considering
69 that the surface layer is closely related to fundamental phenomena (e.g., ocean-atmosphere physical



70 and biogeochemical interactions, fronts, currents, meanders, eddies) impacting the large-scale
71 circulation and the meso- and small-scale characteristics of the ocean (e.g., McGillicuddy, 2016;
72 Cotroneo et al., 2016; Seo et al., 2023). Additional information about the water column can also be
73 retrieved from numerical models (e.g., Downes et al., 2015) and 3D reconstructions inferred through
74 machine learning and statistical techniques applied to satellite observations, such as sea surface
75 temperature (e.g., Buongiorno Nardelli et al., 2020). Nonetheless, in-situ measurements are
76 indispensable for achieving the necessary precision and depth coverage. In addition, they provide
77 critical ground-truth for the calibration and validation of satellite retrievals of surface variables, and
78 the improvement of data acquisition algorithms (Aulicino et al., 2022). It is therefore evident that the
79 collection of in-situ data is essential for monitoring ocean temperature.

80 To this aim, the University of Naples Parthenope has been taking part since 1994 in the organization
81 and execution of several oceanographic campaigns along the PX36 monitoring line in the Pacific
82 sector of the SO, i.e., between New Zealand and the Ross Sea, in the framework of the Italian National
83 Antarctic Research Program (PNRA). During each expedition, XBT launches were carried out,
84 collecting ocean temperature data from surface to a maximum of about 760m depth (Falco et al.,
85 2022). This study presents the collected XBT dataset, which significantly contributes to the
86 accessibility of extensive ocean temperature data.

87 In this paper, the methodologies used for data collection and quality control (QC) are described in
88 Section 2; the results and the discussion are reported in Section 3; the data record details and the
89 conclusions are summarized in Section 4.

90



91 **2 Data and methods**

92 **2.1 The XBT dataset**

93 An XBT system is composed of several key components: an expendable ballistic probe that descends
 94 into seawater; a data acquisition device that records an electrical signal and converts it into usable
 95 numerical data (with the support of a computer unit); a double copper wire that connects the falling
 96 probe to the acquisition device (Goni et al., 2019; Parks et al., 2022; Simoncelli et al., 2024). As the
 97 probe descends through the water column, temperature measurements are acquired using a Negative
 98 Temperature Coefficient (NTC) thermistor mounted on the probe zinc nose, which alters its resistance
 99 in response to the seawater temperature it comes into contact with. The insulated copper wire is
 100 unwound simultaneously by two spools, i.e., clockwise on the ship and counterclockwise in the falling
 101 probe. This technique decouples the XBT vertical descent through the seawater from the ship
 102 translational motion (Simoncelli et al., 2024). Data recording continues until the wire breaks or the
 103 recording is terminated by the operator. The depth associated with a temperature measurement is not
 104 sensed directly because XBT probes do not contain pressure sensors. Instead, it is estimated using a
 105 phenomenological Fall Rate Equation (FRE) provided by the manufacturer, with coefficients that
 106 vary based on the probe type.

107 The uncertainties on temperature and pressure values make the XBT probe accuracy be generally
 108 rated to $\pm 0.10^{\circ}\text{C}$ (Parks et al., 2022), although differences can be retrieved depending on the
 109 manufacturer and the manufacturing date of different devices (Cowley and Krummel, 2022).
 110 Consequently, some crucial information should be always provided with any XBT dataset for
 111 subsequent optimal use of the measurements, including a complete description of the system
 112 characteristics in the metadata (e.g., probe type, fall rate coefficients, data originator, platform).

113
 114 We present here the dataset of water column temperatures collected in the Pacific sector of the
 115 Southern Ocean through XBT casts during several research cruises on board the Italian research
 116 vessels “Italica” and “Laura Bassi” and the Korean icebreaker “Araon” (see Table 1). These activities
 117 were carried out in the framework of the Italian PNRA by several scientific projects, e.g., Climatic
 118 Long-term Interaction for the Mass balance in Antarctica (CLIMA), Southern Ocean observing
 119 system and Chokepoints Italian Contribution (SOChIC) and Marine Observatory in the Ross Sea
 120 (MORSea).

121 The XBT casts were carried out during the austral summers between 1994/1995 and 2023/2024,
 122 mainly in January and February (Figure 1), using Sippican T7 probes providing temperature profiles
 123 with a vertical resolution of 65 cm and a maximum nominal depth of 760 m. Only during the
 124 1994/1995 (PNRA X) and 1995/1996 (PNRA XI) cruises some Sippican T5 probes were used,



125 reaching a maximum depth of 1830 m, as reported in the campaign metadata information (Table 2).
126 The majority of transects were completed in 5-6 days and provide a synoptic picture of the thermal
127 structure of the upper SO across its Pacific Sector (Figure 2). A regular 20 km sampling rate was
128 adopted with occasional increased sampling frequency over the main frontal regions of the ACC.

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130 **Table 1.** List of scientific cruises included in this dataset carried out between November 1994 and January 2024

Cruise name	R/V	Start date	End date	Latitude	Longitude
PNRA X	ITALICA	03 November 1994	02 March 1995	47.00 - 74.99°S	172.02°E - 175.90°W
PNRA XI	ITALICA	07 January 1996	18 February 1996	48.66 - 72.01°S	173.56°E - 179.79°E
PNRA XII	ITALICA	26 January 1997	19 February 1997	46.17 - 74.69°S	166.24°E - 179.82°E
PNRA XIII	ITALICA	23 November 1997	06 March 1998	46.25 - 72.71°S	171.39°E - 179.43°W
PNRA XIV	ITALICA	05 January 1999	11 January 1999	48.07 - 69.00°S	173.70°E - 178.55°E
PNRA XV	ITALICA	07 January 2000	18 February 2000	49.17 - 69.83°S	173.13°E - 178.41°E
PNRA XVI	ITALICA	06 January 2001	26 February 2001	48.75 - 75.94°S	170.59°E - 179.72°E
PNRA XVII	ITALICA	24 December 2001	31 December 2001	48.50 - 69.30°S	160.39°E - 178.01°E
PNRA XVIII	ITALICA	06 January 2003	11 January 2003	48.00 - 71.26°S	172.93°E - 177.47°E
PNRA XIX	ITALICA	24 December 2003	28 December 2003	46.36 - 66.17°S	173.81°E - 179.99°E
PNRA XX	ITALICA	01 January 2005	06 January 2005	48.03 - 70.49°S	174.22°E - 178.38°E
PNRA XXI	ITALICA	01 January 2006	04 January 2006	48.03 - 66.50°S	174.59°E - 179.93°E
PNRA XXII	ITALICA	05 February 2007	10 February 2007	47.23 - 71.99°S	170.86°E - 174.26°E
PNRA XXIII	ITALICA	16 January 2008	21 January 2008	47.50 - 68.99°S	174.18°E - 178.63°E
PNRA XXV	ITALICA	25 January 2010	29 January 2010	46.38 - 70.00°S	173.63°E - 178.00°E
PNRA XXVII	ITALICA	13 January 2012	19 January 2012	47.85 - 65.96°S	172.03°E - 176.54°E
PNRA XXVIII	ARAON	24 January 2013	06 February 2013	47.20 - 68.5°S	158.30°E - 177.00°E
PNRA XXIX	ITALICA	30 December 2013	18 February 2014	48.01 - 78.83°S	167.07°E - 175.84°W
PNRA XXX	ARAON	02 January 2015	10 January 2015	47.99 - 73.22°S	157.02°E - 173.81°E
PNRA XXXI	ITALICA	16 January 2016	28 January 2016	47.49 - 72.40°S	171.56°E - 175.00°E
PNRA XXXII	ITALICA	31 December 2016	05 January 2017	48.01 - 68.77°S	174.09°E - 179.85°W
PNRA XXXIV	ARAON	08 February 2019	12 February 2019	47.99 - 69.75°S	166.79°E - 170.87°E
PNRA XXXV	LAURA BASSI	07 January 2020	12 January 2020	48.01 - 69.25°S	172.97°E - 178.84°E
PNRA XXXVI	LAURA BASSI	25 December 2020	02 January 2021	46.96 - 73.39°S	172.82°E - 175.89°E
PNRA XXXVII	LAURA BASSI	08 January 2022	26 January 2022	47.54 - 76.35°S	171.20°E - 177.58°W
PNRA XXXVIII	LAURA BASSI	06 January 2023	12 January 2023	46.56 - 72.27°S	169.40°E - 178.70°E
PNRA XXXIX	LAURA BASSI	07 January 2024	12 January 2024	48.20 - 70.00 °S	166.30 °E – 176.40°E

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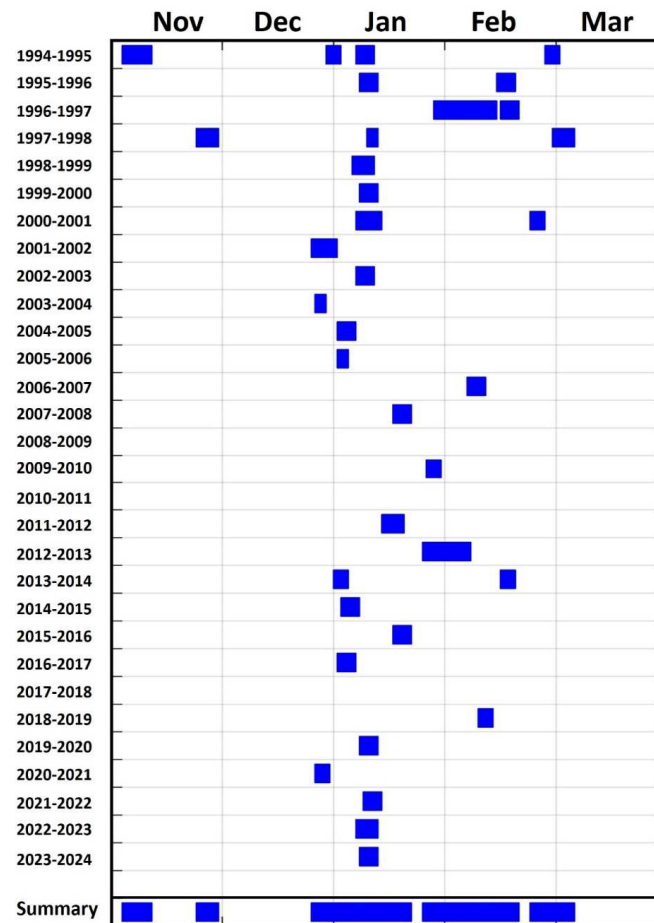


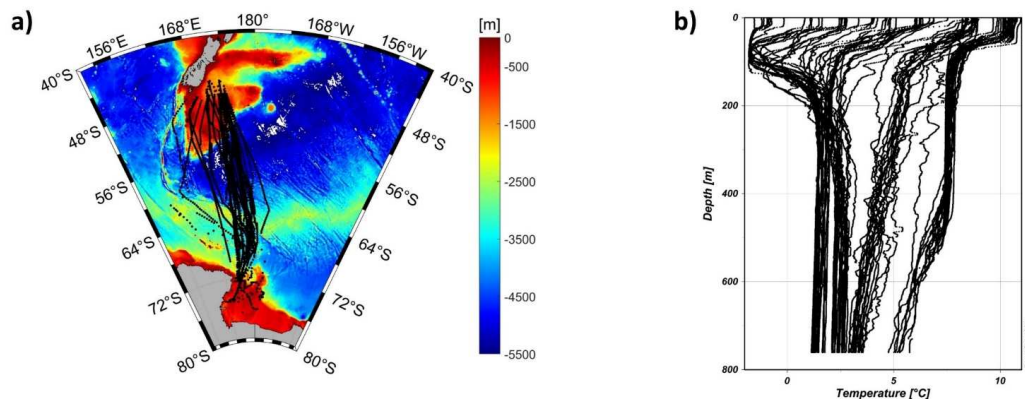
Figure 1. Temporal distribution of the oceanographic campaigns conducted along the New Zealand-Antarctica “chokepoint” between 1994 and 2024.

Table 2. Characteristics of the different XBT probes used in this study: nominal depth guaranteed by Sippican; maximum ship speed suggested by Sippican for an optimal drop; coefficients of Fall Rate Equation $D(t) = At - Bt^2$ used for depth calculation provided by the manufacturer; amount of ZAMAK, copper and plastic for each probe type (adapted from Simoncelli et al., 2024)

Probe type	Max rated depth (m)	Max ship speed (knots)	FRE coeff A (ms ⁻¹)	FRE coeff B (ms ⁻¹)	ZAMAK (kg)	Plastic (kg)	Copper (kg)
Sippican T5	1830	6	6.828	0.00182	0.613	0.125	0.357
Sippican T7	760	15	6.691	0.00225	0.576	0.052	0.240



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146 **Figure 2. a)** Map of the Southern Ocean area between New Zealand and Antarctica. The black dots represent the position
147 of all XBT launches carried out between December 1994 and January 2024. **b)** An example of temperature vertical profiles
148 collected through XBT across the New Zealand – Ross Sea chokepoint during the XXXV Italian Antarctic Expedition.

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151 2.3 Quality Control

152 Various types of malfunctions can affect XBT measurements and result in inaccurate temperature
153 readings within the temperature profile. These faults can appear as a spike in a single recorded value
154 or affect the temperature across a range of depths. Moreover, some issues can create errors that mimic
155 real phenomena, such as temperature inversions or fronts (Parks et al., 2022). Sometimes, profiles
156 can be corrected by deleting or filtering sections of the original data. However, an accurate quality
157 control procedure must be implemented before any data is discarded or manipulated. Additionally, a
158 flagging scheme is generally applied to provide XBT dataset users with quality indicators of the
159 oceanographic data.

160 Quality flags (QFs) are essential for enabling users to filter the XBT dataset according to the specific
161 quality requirements for the intended use. Several flagging scheme exist in agreement with
162 recommendations provided by the Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission of UNESCO
163 (IOC, 2013). In this study we follow the suggestions provided by the Global Temperature and Salinity
164 Profile Program (GTSP) of the NOAA-NCEI (<https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/products/global-temperature-and-salinity-profile-programme>) resulting in the flagging scheme summarized in Table
165 3 for indicating the quality of each temperature and depth data point.

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Table 3. The Quality Flags (QF) assigned to the XBT data

QF	Quality	Description
0	No QC	No quality control has been performed on this data.
1	Good data	The data is good. No malfunctions have been identified and consistency with real phenomena has been verified.
2	Probably good data	Minor malfunctions present which are small or correctable without affecting overall data quality. Some features (probably real) are present but these are unconfirmed.
3	Probably bad data	Data are suspect and present unusual features which are inconsistent with real phenomena, Data remains potentially correctable.
4	Bad data	The data appears erroneous. Evident errors are identified and there is no likelihood of correction.

The assignment of QFs is the result of a series of quality control (QC) tests for both temperature and depth data which are used to get a reliable quality check of the temperature measurements collected through our XBTs and of the retrieved depths. Results of each test allowed to insert the relative flag to the corresponding measurement according to the scheme shown in Table 3. QF=1 is assigned when all the tests pass and QF=4 when at least one test fails. For temperature, more detailed checks are performed, including a final visual check, allowing us to introduce QF=2 and QF=3 for probably good and probably bad data, respectively (as detailed below).

Overall, the QC procedures applied to our dataset follow recommendations previously suggested by NOAA, developed and refined in the last three decades (Bailey et al., 1994; Daneshzadeh et al., 1995; Cowley and Krummel, 2022; Parks et al., 2022; Tan et al., 2023). These procedures include several steps undertaken in a top-down manner, as temperature data are measured from the surface down, and faults that occur at a given depth may impact on deeper data (Parks et al., 2022).

First, each XBT profile was tested for invalid metadata information, such as the correct time, cast position and any other possible operator errors, using a sequence of independent checks. All identified errors in date and time were corrected accordingly, with the support of the XBT launch clipboards provided by operators on board. No errors were found concerning the position of the casts after the comparison of latitudes and longitudes against gridded GEBCO 2 x 2 minutes bathymetry (GEBCO Compilation Group, 2023). The check of unrealistic positions was also performed using the calculation of vessel speed from profile date and time and an upper general threshold of 20 knots (since most of the launches are realized by ships travelling in the range of 10/15 knots). Additionally, the depth values of each XBT profile were compared to the last good depth value provided by the operators (QF=1 is assigned to shallower depth values, otherwise they are flagged as QF=4).



Then, all the vertical temperature profiles were checked for nominal maximum depth (760 m), and carefully inspected to identify malfunctions, coherence to regional oceanographic features, drop-to-drop consistency along the cruise track, and presence of unusual features. In this context, the main difficulty is usually found in distinguishing a common malfunction from a regional oceanographic feature (i.e., unexpected increase of temperature southward or along the water column). Consequently, unusual features were cross-validated by comparison to repeated (within 15 minutes) or neighbouring profiles from the same voyage and eventually to available Austral summer ARGO observations over the study area. To this aim, we took again advantage of XBT launch clipboards, in which operators notified any instrument malfunctions, adverse weather conditions, sea ice presence and local bottom depth. In particular, the bottom depth was relevant to constraining XBT data profiles at the right elevations, especially when approaching shallow waters (QF=1 is assigned to values shallower than bottom depth, otherwise they are flagged as QF=4). When the clipboard was not available, we relied instead on the GEBCO 2 x 2 minutes bathymetry (GEBCO et al., 2023), which resulted the most correspondent to the in situ reported depths over the area and period of study. Additionally, a gross filter was applied to all the XBT profiles using a series of temperature thresholds that vary on four vertical layers, as reported in Table 4. The thresholds were defined through the use of ARGO data collected in the study area between 2004 and 2023. QF=4 was applied to data exceeding the thresholds of $\pm 0.5^{\circ}\text{C}$.

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214 **Table 4.** Temperature thresholds applied to XBT profiles, defined in four levels.

Depth range (m)	Temperature minimum ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	Temperature maximum ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)
0 - 100	-1.866	14.698
100 - 250	-1.865	11.093
250 - 500	0.068	8.717
500 - 760	0.826	8.266

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Several studies assess that the XBT measurements near the sea surface may be considered unreliable due to the stabilization of motion and thermal adaptation to the surrounding environment (e.g. Bailey et al., 1994; Cowley and Krummel, 2022; Simoncelli et al., 2024). They also suggest that the first acceptable value is at about 4 m depth and that the data user must be carefully informed in order to exclude suspect surface values from scientific analyses. Here, we opted for providing all the original measurements annotating their quality, as resulting from a dedicated test on the initial part of each profile. This test calculates the differences between the value recorded at time $t = 0.6$ s (about 4 m



depth) and shallower measurements, classifying them based on the standard uncertainty on temperature attributable to an XBT probe ($0.10\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$) as a metric (Simoncelli et al., 2024). Therefore, temperature data are assigned QF=1 if the difference is less than or equal to standard deviation (std); QF=2 if it is comprised between std and $2*\text{std}$; QF=3 if it is comprised between $2*\text{std}$ and $3*\text{std}$; and QF=4 if it is higher than $3*\text{std}$.

Then, the XBT profiles were examined for the presence of spikes, unrealistic oscillations and unusually gradients in temperature data, as well as sharp variations toward negative or higher values, which could be caused by copper wire breaks. Data are mostly flagged as good (QF=1) or bad (QF=4) values. Nonetheless, suspect data are compared with neighbouring profiles and ARGO climatology over the study area, eventually assigning QF=1, QF=2 and QF=3 attributes. For example, QF=2 is used when an XBT profile presents a step-like feature that is not confirmed by a neighbouring profile but is consistent with similar features previously observed in the study region. QF=3 is used, instead, when XBT values exhibit suspect temperature values that cannot be confirmed by a neighbouring profile and occur in areas where there is no evidence of mesoscale structures (e.g., eddies or fronts). Nevertheless, an increase or decrease in temperature over large depth ranges compared to neighbouring profiles, can be also associated to an eddy, a frontal area or an intense current system. Therefore, QF=1 is applied when repeated profiles showing similar temperatures or archive data can confirm the feature. The larger scale description of ocean dynamics obtained through satellite altimetry was also used for controversial results to identify the presence of eddies and frontal systems affecting the temperature data.

However, some profiles might exhibit anomalous features that the described QC procedure could not detect as erroneous values. Therefore, an additional visual check was carried out for each individual cruise track and each vertical temperature profile to verify the assigned QF=2 and QF=3 flags and identify any residual anomalies in the positioning of the XBT launches or outliers in the data collection. This control was performed using the Ocean Data View (ODV) software (Schlitzer, 2023). Overall, the entire QC led us to discard about 12% of acquired XBT observations, which were flagged as bad or probably bad data (Figure 3).

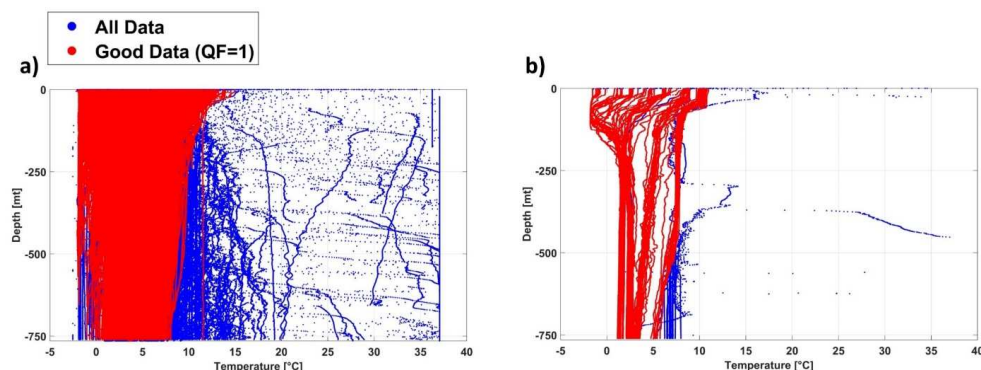
2.4 XBT data biases correction

Previous studies assessed that temperature biases and depth errors, due to inaccurate time conversion to depth through FRE, may affect XBT observations (e.g., Gouretski and Reseghetti, 2010; Cowley et al., 2013). Although a full comprehension of the origins of these issues is still pending, several experiments tried to quantify this bias by comparing XBT profiles with co-located CTD observations, demonstrating that XBT temperatures are usually warmer than reality (Gouretski and Reseghetti



258 2010; Cheng et al., 2014). Different possible causes of biases emerged, including mechanical (e.g.,
 259 probe type, manufacturer, year), external (e.g., launch height, meteo-marine conditions) and electrical
 260 (e.g., thermistor, wire) factors (Seaver and Kuleshov 1982; Green, 1984; Reverdin et al. 2009).
 261 Additionally, a decrease in fall rate was observed in cooler waters because of increased viscosity
 262 (Gouretski and Reseghetti 2010), making FRE corrections in the Southern Ocean extremely important
 263 (Cheng et al., 2014).
 264 To address these problems, several correction schemes have been proposed over the past few decades.
 265 A comprehensive list of related papers is available at [https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/products/xbt-](https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/products/xbt-corrections)
 266 [corrections](https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/products/xbt-corrections). Taking advantage of more than 220,000 XBT-CTD side-by-side pairs, Cheng et al.
 267 (2014) examined and compared existing methodologies, proposing a new correction scheme for
 268 historical XBT data for nine independent probe-type groups. Their study confirmed that depth error
 269 and pure temperature bias are temperature-dependent and may be influenced by the data acquisition
 270 and recording system. Moreover, the resulting scheme also considers that some biases affecting the
 271 XBT-derived temperature profiles vary with manufacturer/probe type and have been shown to be
 272 time dependent, and that depth correction varies with depth (Cheng et al. 2016).
 273 In our dataset, we apply this methodology, which includes corrections for both temperature and depth
 274 values based on calendar year, water temperature, and probe type, to provide bias-corrected XBT
 275 measurements (Cheng et al., 2014). A full description of the methodology and an update table of
 276 applied coefficients are available at https://www.nodc.noaa.gov/OC5/XBT_BIAS/ch-method.html
 277 and <http://www.ocean.iap.ac.cn/pages/dataService/dataService.html?navAnchor=dataService>.

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Figure 3. a) XBT observations collected between December 1994 and January 2024 over the New Zealand – Ross Sea
 chokepoint before (blue) and after (red) the quality check; **b)** An example of the quality check on the XBT data collected
 during the XXXV PNRA cruise.



3. Results and discussion

We believe this exceptional temperature dataset provides a valuable reservoir of high-resolution, independent, and trustworthy information. The dataset assumes notable significance, representing an extensive temporal series of data collected nearly every austral summer over the last 30 years, within the same oceanic sector of the SO and along the same monitoring transect (PX36). We exploited this information to provide 36 vertical sections of the ocean temperature, from the surface to about 800 m depth, along the New Zealand–Antarctica “chokepoint”. Figures representing the latitudinal sections of corrected XBT temperatures during each leg are available in the supplementary information (Figures S1).

The repeated temperature sections significantly enhance our understanding of ACC fronts and their evolution over the last three decades. A first application of the dataset is shown in Figure 4 where XBT observations collected during the XVIII PNRA expedition are used for the identification of the main ACC fronts positions: Northern Sub Antarctic Front (NSAF); Southern Sub Antarctic Front (SSAF); Polar Front (PF); Southern Antarctic Circumpolar Current (sACCf). The criteria used for identifying the fronts (Table 5) follow Budillon and Rintoul (2003), which compiles several hydrographic definitions (Botnikov, 1963; Belkin, 1990; Orsi et al., 1995; Rintoul et al., 1997). The SBdy of the ACC, usually described as the maximum southern extent of vertical maximum of $T > 1.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ at about 200 m (Orsi et al., 1995), is not described in this sector as its position is coincident with the sACCf position in most of the available temperature sections.

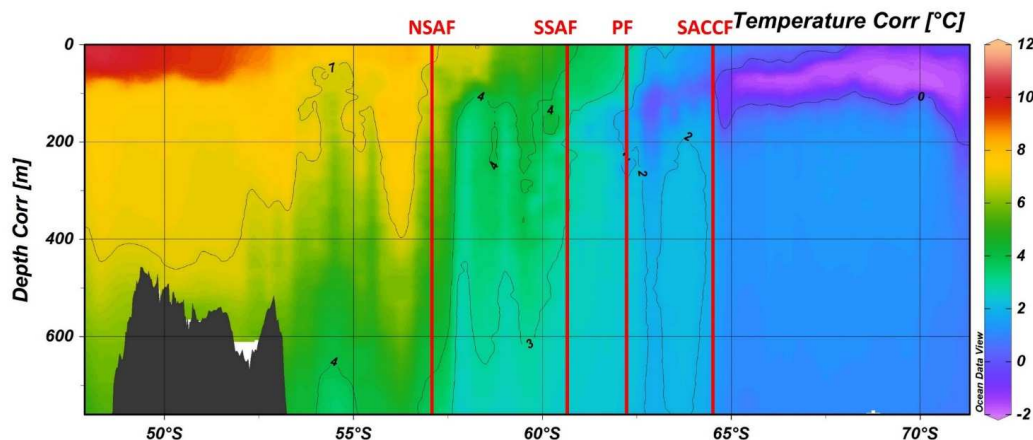


Figure 4. Temperature vertical section from XBT data collected during the XVIII PNRA expedition along the New Zealand–Antarctica “chokepoint” in which the vertical red lines represent the ACC main fronts positions: Northern Sub Antarctic Front (NSAF); Southern Sub Antarctic Front (SSAF); Polar Front (PF); Southern Antarctic Circumpolar Front (SACCf). The dark grey mask represents the bathymetry.



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313 **Table 5.** Criteria for front definitions (Adapted from Budillon & Rintoul, 2003)

Front	Definition	Reference
Southern Antarctic Circumpolar Current Front (sACCF)	$T > 1.8^{\circ}\text{C}$ along the T_{max} at depth > 500 m, farther north; $T < 0^{\circ}\text{C}$ along the T_{min} at depth < 150 m, farther south.	Orsi <i>et al.</i> 1995.
Polar Front (PF)	$T < 2^{\circ}\text{C}$ at 200 m, farther south.	Botnikov 1963, Orsi <i>et al.</i> 1995.
Subantarctic Front (SAF)	Maximum temperature gradient in the range $3\text{--}8^{\circ}\text{C}$ at 300 m.	Belkin 1990.
Northern Sub-Antarctic Front (NSAF)	Maximum temperature gradient in the range $4\text{--}7^{\circ}\text{C}$ at 300 m.	Rintoul <i>et al.</i> 1997.
Southern Sub-Antarctic Front (SSAF)	Maximum temperature gradient in the range $3\text{--}4^{\circ}\text{C}$ at 300 m.	Rintoul <i>et al.</i> 1997.

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316 The ACC fronts positions retrieved through XBT data also serve as ground truth for the validation of
 317 those retrieved through satellite altimetry (e.g., Sokolov and Rintoul 2009a, 2009b; Graham et al.,
 318 2012; Chapman, 2017), thereby enhancing the identification process of fronts within the SO. This is
 319 extremely desirable in region characterized by significant influenced by topographic steering, such
 320 as the area south of New Zealand where the presence of the Campbell Plateau severely affects the
 321 ACC path (Figure 5). To point out differences and similarities between ACC fronts positions
 322 identified through XBT and satellite observations, in Figure 5 we present a Sea Surface Height (SSH)
 323 map of the study area, averaged over the period covered by the temperature section in Figure 4 (about
 324 7 days). To identify the ACC fronts from satellite data, we applied the SSH isolines methodology that
 325 associates a specific value of SSH with each front. For the selection of these values, we relied on
 326 previous studies (Sokolov and Rintoul 2007, 2009a, 2009b) proving that the multiple jets of ACC
 327 fronts are consistently aligned with streamlines identified by nearly constant circumpolar values of
 328 SSH contours.

329 Furthermore, ACC fronts exhibit instabilities that give rise to the generation of eddies.
 330 Eddies, characterized as vortices pervading the ocean, assume a pivotal role, particularly within the
 331 SO, contributing significantly to the transfer of heat, nutrients, and momentum (e.g., Chelton et al.
 332 2011a; Falco and Zambianchi, 2011; Cotroneo et al., 2013; Trani et al., 2014; Rintoul, 2018; Menna
 333 et al., 2020). While altimetry proves valuable in gaining insights into surface eddy dynamics, it cannot
 334 provide information regarding vertical temperature variations within the eddy structure. Through the
 335 temperature sections derived from XBT data, we can discern the presence or absence of an eddy and
 336 get basic observations for the analysis of its heat content.

337 An example is provided in Figure 6 where we present the latitudinal section of temperatures observed
 338 during the return leg of the 2013-2014 Italian Antarctic expedition (PNRA XXIX). This section shows



the intrusion of a cold core eddy at about 53°S, next to the Campbell Plateau edge. The eddy is characterized by a maximum negative temperature anomaly (eddy's core) of about -4°C with respect to the surrounding water. This negative anomaly results in the formation of a depression in the SSH, also detectable in satellite imagery. In the SSH map shown in Figure 7, the cold core eddy is identified as a closed circle of the blue isoline associated with the SSAF.

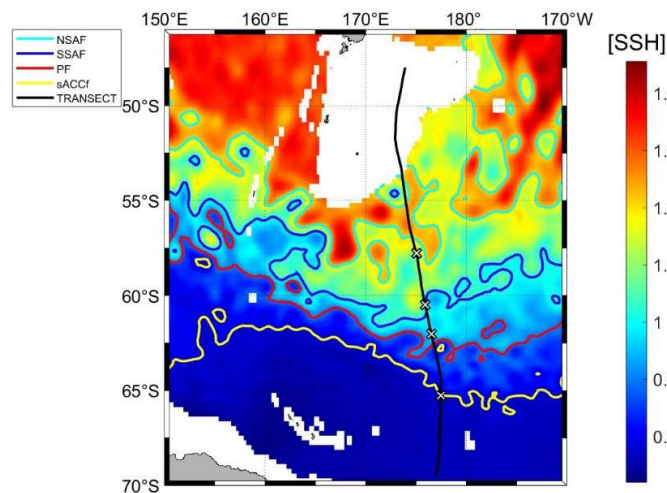


Figure 5. Altimetric map of SSH mediated throughout the XVIII PNRA expedition along the PX36 monitoring line. Contours of different colours identify the position of the main fronts of the ACC retrieved through SSH: NSAF in cyan; SSAF in blue; PF in red and sACCf in yellow. White crosses represent the position of the fronts derived from XBT data. The ship's route is represented by the black line.

Generally, the combined use of in situ observations and satellite data is crucial as it prevents errors in front positioning and eddy identification. Strong horizontal temperature gradients, often linked to eddies, could be misinterpreted as ACC fronts. Similarly, this approach allows us to distinguish eddies from other mesoscale structures, a difficult task when relying only on altimetry. XBT and satellite information are also complementary in providing valid terms of comparison, at different temporal and spatial scales (XBT at fine-scale; altimetry at meso- and large-scale), for numerical model products representing ocean circulation and eddies dynamics (e.g., Chen X. et al., 2024; Chen Z. et al., 2024).

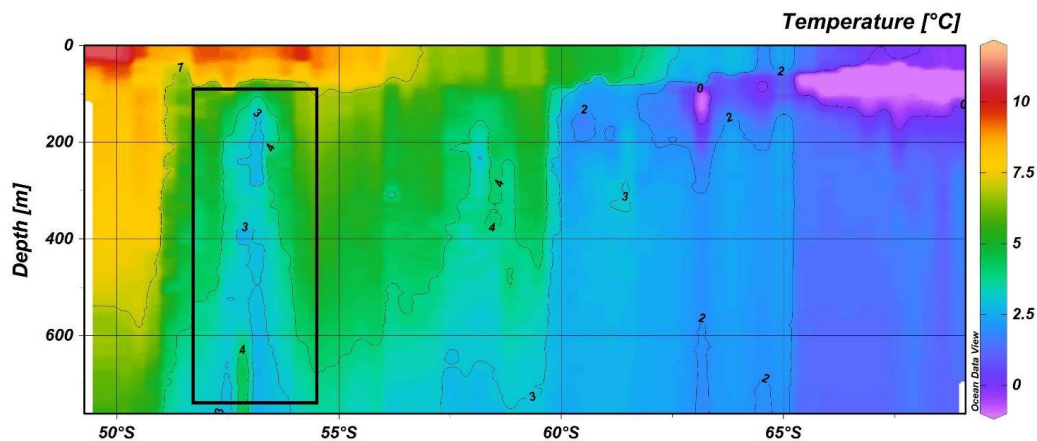


Figure 6. Temperature vertical section from XBT data collected during the XXIX PNRA expedition along the New Zealand–Antarctica “chokepoint” in which the black box identifies the position of an ACC’s cold core eddy.

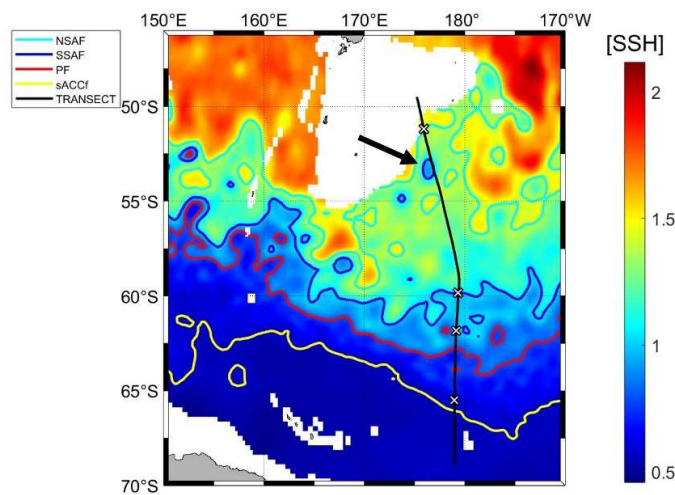


Figure 7. Altimetric map of SSH mediated throughout the XXIX PNRA expedition along the PX36 monitoring line. Contours of different colours identify the position of the main fronts of the ACC retrieved through SSH: NSAF in cyan; SSAF in blue; PF in red and sACCf in yellow. White crosses represent the position of the fronts derived from XBT data. The ship's route is represented by the black line. The black arrow indicates the observed cold core eddy.

4. Data availability

XBT data are publicly accessible in text format files through the NOAA-NCEI unrestricted repositories, as listed in Table 6. NCEI (National Centers for Environmental Information) serves as the official archive for data, metadata, and products collected and provided by NOAA (National



Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration). NCEI also hosts quality checked data by non-NOAA scientists and is regarded as one of the world's most comprehensive ocean, atmospheric and geophysical archives, with over 60 petabytes of data covering the full range of Earth's environmental systems and cycles.

Each XBT file includes the main variables summarized in Table 7, the relative metadata (i.e., probe type, software, manufacturer, fall rate coefficients, data originator, scientific project, platform) and a short description of the dataset. One file is created for each research cruise. The naming convention is xbt_ship_cruise_all_QC, where ship and cruise are identification names of the research vessel used for the XBT launch and the PNRA research expedition number, respectively, as in Table 1.

Table 6. XBT data repository list

Data set	DOI	Reference
PNRA X – 1st leg	https://doi.org/10.7289/v5rf5s9v	Cotroneo et al., 2018a
PNRA X – 2nd leg	https://doi.org/10.7289/v53r0r5z	Cotroneo et al., 2018b
PNRA XI	https://doi.org/10.7289/v5x065b9	Cotroneo et al., 2018c
PNRA XII	https://doi.org/10.7289/v5kd1w6b	Cotroneo et al., 2018d
PNRA XIII	https://doi.org/10.7289/v50863mf	Cotroneo et al., 2018e
PNRA XIV	https://doi.org/10.7289/v5mg7mtc	Cotroneo et al., 2018f
PNRA XV	https://doi.org/10.7289/v56d5r8p	Cotroneo et al., 2018g
PNRA XVI	https://doi.org/10.7289/v5s75dpg	Cotroneo et al., 2018h
PNRA XVII	https://doi.org/10.7289/v5ng4nzt	Cotroneo et al., 2018i
PNRA XVIII	https://doi.org/10.7289/v5qz289c	Cotroneo et al., 2018j
PNRA XIX	https://doi.org/10.7289/v5vq3113	Cotroneo et al., 2018k
PNRA XX	https://doi.org/10.7289/v5vh5m45	Cotroneo et al., 2018l
PNRA XXI	https://dx.doi.org/10.25921/hzcp-d813	Cotroneo et al., 2019
PNRA XXII	https://doi.org/10.25921/c8bm-xh74	Cotroneo et al., 2018m
PNRA XXIII	https://doi.org/10.25921/q29v-c980	Cotroneo et al., 2018n
PNRA XXV	https://doi.org/10.7289/v50r9mmm	Cotroneo et al., 2017°
PNRA XXVII	https://doi.org/10.7289/v54j0cbw	Cotroneo et al., 2017b
PNRA XXVIII	https://doi.org/10.25921/9YTS-P771	Cotroneo et al., 2018o
PNRA XXIX	https://doi.org/10.25921/220j-b370	Cotroneo et al., 2024a
PNRA XXX	https://doi.org/10.25921/9ph6-c102	Cotroneo et al., 2024b
PNRA XXXI	https://doi.org/10.25921/zf04-ch06	Cotroneo et al., 2024c
PNRA XXXII	https://doi.org/10.25921/vvmp-rr55	Cotroneo et al., 2024d
PNRA XXXIV	https://doi.org/10.25921/jeee-zf77	Cotroneo et al., 2024e
PNRA XXXV	https://doi.org/10.25921/lysg-dw94	Cotroneo et al., 2024f
PNRA XXXVI	https://doi.org/10.25921/aeg5-hw87	Cotroneo et al., 2024g
PNRA XXXVII	https://doi.org/10.25921/3mmd-tj60	Cotroneo et al., 2024h
PNRA XXXVIII	https://doi.org/10.25921/kte7-d058	Cotroneo et al., 2024i
PNRA XXXIX	https://doi.org/10.25921/jc13-ek97	Cotroneo et al., 2024l



385

386 **Table 7.** Name and description of the main variables included in the XBT text files.

Name of variable	Unit	Description
Cruise		Cruise name
Station		Identifier number of XBT deployment
Time	dd/mm/yyyy hh:mm	Date and time of XBT deployment
Latitude [degrees_north]	Decimal degree	Latitude of XBT deployment
Longitude [degrees_east]	Decimal degree	Longitude of XBT deployment
Temperature [°C]	Celsius degree	XBT temperature measurements
Depth [m]	Meters	Depth of the XBT temperature measurements
Bot. Depth [m]	Meters	Maximum depth of XBT measurements
QF	0 - 4	Quality flags of XBT measurements
Temperature Corr. [°C]	Celsius degree	Corrected XBT temperature measurements
Depth Corr. [m]	Meters	Corrected depth of the XBT temperature measurements

387

388

389 5. Conclusions

390 The SO is a key place for atmosphere–ocean physical and biogeochemical interactions at different
391 spatial and temporal scales (Falco and Zambianchi, 2011; Cerrone et al., 2017a, b; Buongiorno
392 Nardelli et al., 2017). However, despite their importance, processes in many areas of the SO are still
393 poorly known due to the scarcity of in situ measurements. This is particularly true for the ACC region
394 and its fronts, which are characterized by complex dynamics and intense eddy activity (Trani et al.,
395 2011; Cotroneo et al., 2013; Frenger et al., 2015, Menna et al., 2020; Ferola et al., 2023). To fill this
396 gap, all available measurements provide a significant contribution and should be shared within the
397 oceanographic community.

398 To this goal, here we present 36 vertical sections of XBT ocean temperature data collected between
399 New Zealand and the Ross Sea (PX36 line) during the Austral summers from 1994/1995 to
400 2022/2023. This dataset provides direct insights into the 0–800 m thermal characteristics of the Pacific
401 sector of the SO and complements data sourced from observing networks, drifters, ARGO floats and
402 glider fleets. It is also suitable to be combined with enhanced spatial and temporal scale remotely
403 sensed observations and numerical simulations. This comprehensive dataset lays a robust foundation
404 for a nuanced analysis of the key mechanisms governing thermohaline circulation in the SO and for
405 improving our knowledge of the physical and biogeochemical characteristics of the four-dimensional
406 ocean.

407 The continuation of this XBT collection over time, in the framework of the Italian PNRA research
408 expeditions to Antarctica, is particularly important due to the inherent challenges associated with data



acquisition in the SO and promises an increasingly comprehensive and detailed understanding of thermal variations in this specific maritime region.

Author contributions. GA, YC and AIF conceived and designed the manuscript. GA, YC, PC, PF, GF, GB, NK, GS, EZ and AIF collected the measurements and organized the XBT dataset. GA, YC, LF and AIF carried out the quality control analyses. All authors analysed the achieved results, contributed to the writing, and approved the final manuscript.

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

Acknowledgements. This study was made possible thanks to the contribution of the Climatic Long-term Interaction for the Mass balance in Antarctica (CLIMA), Southern Ocean Chokepoints Italian Contribution (SOChIC), Marine Observatory of the Ross Sea (MORSea), Effects of the east current on the Salinity variability in the Ross Sea (ESTRO) and Physical and biogeochemical tracing of water masses at source areas and export gates in the Ross Sea and impact on the Southern Ocean (SIGNATURE) projects, part of the Italian National Antarctic Research Program (PNRA). Special thanks go to Arturo De Alteris, Massimo De Stefano and Giovanni Zambardino who provided essential support to data acquisition, as well as to the captain, officers, and crew of the research vessels used for XBT launches.

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