

1 **Expanding seawater carbon dioxide and methane measuring capabilities with a Seaglider**

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17 **Abstract**

18 Warming, ocean acidification, and deoxygenation are increasingly putting pressure on
19 marine ecosystems. At the same time, thawing permafrost and decomposing hydrates in Arctic
20 shelf seas may release large amounts of methane (CH₄) into the water column, which could
21 accelerate local ocean acidification and contribute to climate change. The key parameters to
22 observing and understanding these complex processes and feedback mechanisms are vastly
23 undersampled throughout the oceans. We developed carbon dioxide (CO₂) and CH₄ gliders,
24 including standard operational procedures with the goal that CO₂ and CH₄ measurements become
25 more common for glider operations. The Seagliders with integrated Contros HydroC CO₂ or CH₄
26 sensors also include conductivity, temperature, depth, oxygen, chlorophyll-a, backscatter, and
27 fluorescent dissolved organic matter sensors. Communication via satellite allows for near-real
28 time data transmission, sensor adjustments, and adaptive sampling. Several sea trials with the
29 CO₂ Seaglider in the Gulf of Alaska and data evaluation with discrete water and underway
30 samples suggest near ‘weather quality’ CO₂ data as defined by the Global Ocean Acidification
31 Network. A winter mission in Resurrection Bay, Alaska provided first insights into the water
32 column inorganic carbon dynamics during this otherwise undersampled season. The CH₄
33 Seaglider passed its flight trials in Resurrection Bay, yet needs to be tested during a field mission
34 in an area with CH₄ concentrations beyond background noise. Both sensing systems are available
35 to the science community through the industry partners (Advanced Offshore Operations and -4H-
36 JENA engineering GmbH) of this project.

37

38 **1. Introduction**

39 Understanding the distribution and dynamics of carbon dioxide (CO₂) and methane (CH₄)
40 in the ocean is crucial for predicting and mitigating climate change and ocean acidification
41 impacts. Within the ocean, CO₂ levels (measured as the partial pressure of CO₂, *p*CO₂ and/or
42 fugacity of CO₂) are spatially and temporally variable as they are influenced by a myriad of
43 highly dynamic physical, chemical, and biological processes. On top of this natural variability,
44 the ocean has absorbed about one third of the CO₂ emitted by humans since the industrial
45 revolution (Sabine et al., 2004; Gruber et al., 2019). In doing so, it has played an important role
46 in mitigating climate change (Sabine and Tanhua, 2010). However, both the oceanic uptake of
47 anthropogenic CO₂ and climate change are altering the distribution of oceanic CO₂ and are
48 causing ocean acidification (Doney et al., 2009; Qi et al., 2022; Woosley and Millero, 2020). At
49 the same time, the oceans are warming and losing oxygen (Johnson and Lyman, 2020; Breitburg
50 et al., 2018), increasing the stress on marine ecosystems. As these long-term changes unfold,
51 marine heat waves, and high acidity or low oxygen extreme events will last longer, become more
52 intense, and happen more often and at the same time (Laufkötter et al., 2020; Gruber et al., 2021;
53 Hauri et al., 2024). Negative effects on certain organisms are even stronger if exposed to a
54 combination of different stressors (Breitberg et al., 2015; Kroeker et al., 2017).

55 Over 100 years, CH₄ possesses a global warming potential approximately 28 times
56 greater than that of CO₂ (IPCC AR5; Myhre et al., 2013). Sediments along the seafloor at
57 continental margins contain large amounts of CH₄, with about ten times as much carbon as the
58 atmosphere (Kessler, 2014). CH₄ is biologically produced in anoxic sediments and the surface
59 mixed layer or released from geological sources like hydrocarbon seeps and degrading methane
60 hydrate deposits (Barnes and Goldberg; Du et al, Skarke 2014). This powerful greenhouse gas is
61 emitted to the atmosphere through bubbling (ebullition) or diffusive gas transfer (Reeburgh,

62 2007; McGinnis et al., 2006), which is limited by rapid oxidation to CO₂ during transport
63 through the water column (Leonte et al., 2017). CH₄ occurs generally at low levels (background
64 concentrations) throughout oceans, unless close to a source. Positive feedback mechanisms, like
65 warming induced CH₄ seepage from destabilizing hydrates and thawing subsea permafrost, may
66 further accelerate ocean acidification and climate change (Garcia-Tigreros et al., 2021; Sparrow
67 et al., 2018; Shakhova et al., 2010; Rees et al., 2022).

68 To effectively observe and understand the complex processes and feedback mechanisms
69 regulating Earth's systems, certain key parameters, defined by the Global Ocean Observing
70 System as essential ocean variables, must be measured accurately. However, these variables are
71 often vastly undersampled across time and space due to traditional sampling methods, which rely
72 mainly on discrete water sample collections from dedicated research cruises, underway
73 measurements from transiting vessels, or time series measurements from in situ sensors on fixed
74 moorings. Although biogeochemical sensors deployed on autonomous platforms like moorings
75 and Argo floats have become more prevalent, challenges such as high power requirements,
76 sensor size, and data quality hinder their widespread use on underwater gliders. Autonomous,
77 spatially resolved surface measurements of *p*CO₂ and pH are collected using wave gliders and
78 sail drones (Chavez et al., 2018; Nickford et al., 2022; Manley and Willcox, 2010). The state-of-
79 the-art biogeochemical (BGC) Argo floats measure variables like pH, O₂, NO₃, chlorophyll-a,
80 suspended particles, and downwelling irradiance in subsurface waters (Claustre et al., 2020).
81 These floats can last several years at low sampling resolutions, such as a 2000-meter depth
82 profile every ten days, or they can be programmed for high-resolution and shallow sampling.
83 They can even sample beneath seasonal sea ice (Briggs et al., 2018). Despite their capabilities,

84 their trajectory is hard to control, and they are usually not recovered after their mission, which
85 prevents sensor calibration and post-mission corrections.

86 Ocean gliders autonomously collect water column data along planned waypoints, which
87 allows for controlled exploration and adaptive sampling. To date, pH is the only carbon system
88 parameter that has been successfully integrated into ocean gliders (Hemming et al., 2017; Saba et
89 al., 2019; Possenti et al., 2021; Takeshita et al., 2021). The most promising results came from
90 ISFET based pH sensors (Saba et al., 2019; Wright-Fairbanks et al., 2020; Takeshita et al.,
91 2021). However, ISFET-based pH sensors require significant conditioning periods before
92 deployment, suffer from biofouling, require annual cleaning and calibration at the manufacturer,
93 and careful discrete sample collection at deployment and recovery to characterize and correct for
94 sensor drift (Thompson et al., 2021). There have been few attempts to integrate $p\text{CO}_2$ sensors
95 into gliders (Hemming et al., 2017; Hauri et al., 2018; von Oppeln-Bronikowski et al., 2021).
96 Hemming et al. (2017) did not publish the data because of low quality. Von Oppeln-Bronikowski
97 et al. (2021) integrated an Aanderaa CO_2 optode that measures $p\text{CO}_2$ by detecting the
98 luminescent quenching response from a CO_2 -sensitive membrane with a Slocum G2 glider but
99 suffered from instability, thermal-lag issues, variable conditioning periods (4 days to 1 month),
100 large offsets (> 1000 uatm), nonlinear temperature-dependent response time, and a high
101 dependence on prior foil calibration. Hauri et al. (2018) integrated the Pro Oceanus Mini Pro
102 CO_2 sensor with a Slocum G2. However, the Pro Oceanus Mini Pro CO_2 sensor used at the time
103 did not withstand the pressure changes imposed by glider missions. The Franatech METS CH_4
104 sensor has been integrated into Alseamar SeaExplorer and Teledyne Slocum gliders and
105 successfully used to generate concentration maps of a methane seep in a semi-quantitative way
106 (Meurer et al., 2021).

107 Here we integrated modified versions of the Contros HydroC CO₂ and CH₄ sensors with
108 a Seaglider® (registered trademark of the University of Washington). We discuss details of the
109 physical and software integration, present CO₂ and CH₄ data from tank experiments, evaluate the
110 quality of *p*CO₂ data collected during CO₂ Seaglider missions, and discuss highlights from
111 missions in Resurrection Bay, Alaska.

112

113 **2. Methods**

114 2.1 CO₂ Seaglider

115 We integrated a modified version (Seaglider (SG) HydroC CO₂) of the CONTROS
116 HydroC™ CO₂ sensor (-4H-JENA engineering GmbH, Kiel, Germany) with a Seaglider M1
117 (Figure 1 a and b). The Seaglider M1 was specifically designed for long endurance missions in
118 deep waters to 1000 m depth. The HydroC CO₂ sensor was outfitted with a semi-permeable
119 TOUGH membrane (Pinnau and Toy, 1996) that equilibrated dissolved CO₂ between the ambient
120 seawater and the headspace of the sensor, where the gas concentration was determined by
121 nondispersive infrared (NDIR) spectrometry.

122 Since the equilibration time (response time) of membrane-based sensors is affected by the
123 exchange of the water mass in front of the sensor head, we installed a Seabird Electronics (SBE)
124 5M pump next to the SG HydroC CO₂ sensor using tubing to transfer seawater from outside the
125 glider fairing to the membrane surface (Figure 1a). The response time was determined at the
126 manufacturer, verified in the field, and then used to correct for hysteresis during the post-
127 processing phase (see Section 2.7.2).

128 The form factor of the HydroC CO₂™ sensor and Seaglider were changed to achieve an
129 internal integration of the sensor with the Seaglider. The standard high-performance HydroC

130 CO₂TM sensor was changed from ø 89 x 380 mm to ø 136 x 294 mm by rearranging the gas-cycle
131 components and the control unit (Figure 1c). This new SG HydroC CO₂ sensor is available in
132 polyoxymethylene (POM) cladding rated to 300 m or a titanium housing rated to 1000 m to
133 provide a choice between a coastal mission and an offshore deeper mission. Use of the titanium
134 housing required a syntactic foam housing to compensate for the weight, whereas the POM
135 housing was integrated into the glider with simple brackets (Figure 2). Despite these adjustments
136 to the size of the sensor, to our knowledge, it is still the largest and heaviest sensor that has been
137 integrated with a Seaglider to date. The forward fairing of the Seaglider was extended by 40 cm
138 with a fiberglass cylindrical extension to create internal wet payload space for the sensor, pump,
139 and cables (Figure 1 a and b). The sensor was mounted with the membrane facing aft to ensure
140 that potential bubbles within the internal tubing of the sensor could escape the system during the
141 downcast of the first dive. In situ comparison of the orientation of the sensor and close
142 examination of *p*CO₂ and internal pressure data suggested the highest data quality was achieved
143 with this mounting design.

144 One of the advantages of using ocean gliders for ocean observing is the ability for real-
145 time communication of data and commands between the pilot and the glider. To take advantage
146 of this, modifications were needed to allow two-way communication between the Seaglider
147 firmware and the HydroC firmware. The Seaglider firmware has a feature to allow easy
148 integration of “logging devices,” which provides a way to build commands for the pilot on land
149 to switch the sensor on and off and change sampling strategy during the mission (on/off below or
150 above certain depth) when it comes to the surface for a communication session. The Seaglider
151 firmware can also automatically set the clock of the sensor on request at every surfacing and
152 send small samples of the data stream via Iridium along with the standard sensor data. This

153 required the writing and testing of a driver file (CNF file). However, to take full advantage of the
154 ability of the HydroC, a more-advanced electronic integration was carried out using Smart
155 Interoperable Real-time Maritime Assembly (SIRMA™, registered trademark of Cyprus Subsea
156 Consulting and Services, C.S.C.S., Ltd.). This small programmable electronic circuit contained
157 hardware elements to adapt the sensor power and communication requirements to those available
158 on the host platform. It also allowed for separate storage and processing capabilities to
159 supplement the main host processor that controls the flight, sampling, and telecommunications of
160 the host. Most importantly here, it was programmed to relay pilot commands to the SG HydroC
161 CO₂ for the built-in “zero” function, which isolated the internal gas circuit until there was no
162 CO₂ present, measured the concentration signal, and assigned a zero value. Then the gas circuit
163 was exposed to the headspace behind the diffusion membrane for in situ sampling. SIRMA was
164 also programmed to extract raw data from the HydroC and calculate the bin average of some of
165 the output fields, which were useful for real-time mission adaptation and confirmation of sensor
166 operation. Three levels of output were allowed, depending on how much surfacing time could be
167 tolerated before continuing the mission (Baud rate for Iridium is very low, on the order of 4800
168 bps). More detailed information can be found in the CO₂ Seaglider SOP (Irving et al., 2024).

169 In addition to the HydroC CO₂ sensor, the CO₂ Seaglider carried an Aanderaa 4831F
170 optode, a compact optical oxygen sensor, which works on the principle of luminescence
171 quenching by oxygen. The 4831F was equipped with a fast response sensing foil with a well-
172 characterized response time of 8 seconds. The Aanderaa optode measured absolute oxygen
173 concentration and percentage saturation. It is the most widely used on ocean gliders and has been
174 integrated into both Slocum and Seagliders (OceanGliders Oxygen SOP, 2024; Bittig et al.,
175 2018). The OceanGliders community has developed a Standard Operating Procedure (SOP) that

176 details everything from mounting, calibration, available sensors, piloting tips, and response time
177 correction, to post-processing (OceanGliders Oxygen SOP, 2024). The CO₂ Seaglider was also
178 outfitted with an SBE CT sail and Wetlabs Ecopuck measuring chlorophyll fluorescence at 695
179 nm.

180

181 **2.2 CH₄ Seaglider**

182 We also integrated a modified version of the CONTROS HydroC CH₄ sensor (-4H-JENA
183 engineering GmbH, Kiel, Germany) with the Seaglider. The manufacturer's published
184 uncertainty of the HydroC CH₄ sensor is 2 μatm or ± 3 %, whichever is greater . The SG HydroC
185 CH₄ sensor had the same form factor as the SG HydroC CO₂ sensor. However, it was 0.5 kg
186 heavier due to its Tunable Diode Laser Absorption Spectroscopy (TDLAS) component, so the
187 SG HydroC CH₄ had to be integrated with changes to the glider's ballast.

188

189 **2.3 Spring and winter CO₂ Seaglider missions**

190 Both versions of the CO₂ Seaglider (rated to 300 m versus 1000 m) were tested in
191 separate missions (Figure 3, Table S1) in spring (53 dives, May 4 – 7, 2022, Figure 5) and winter
192 (310 dives, February 8 – 21, 2023, Figure 6). The 300 m version with integrated POM housing
193 was tested during a five-day-long mission in May 2022. The glider followed along a transect
194 within Resurrection Bay. CTD casts near the glider path allowed for in-depth evaluation of the
195 data quality. The 1000 m depth-rated CO₂ Seaglider with integrated titanium housing was tested
196 in February 2023. Estimated energy consumption during the CO₂ Seaglider missions was 19 out
197 of 135 Ah and 75 out of 120 Ah for the 24 V which powered the SG HydroC CO₂ sensor battery
198 for the spring and winter missions, respectively. Before the February mission, the on board

199 modem was replaced with a newer model, with different input voltage requirements, which were
200 probably not met as the mission evolved. As a result, the glider could not communicate and was
201 lost. While this was an unfortunate mistake, the loss of the glider had nothing to do with the
202 HydroC CO₂ integration.

203

204 **2.4 Tank experiments**

205 Shortly before the May 2022 glider mission, the glider was kept in a flow-through tank at
206 the Alutiiq Pride Marine Institute for roughly 12 h for cross-calibration purposes. The flow-
207 through tank was fed with water from about 75 m depth and 91 m from the laboratory into
208 Resurrection Bay, near a freshwater source. During the tank experiment, SG HydroC CO₂T-
209 0718-001 (Figure 4b, blue line) was integrated into the Seaglider, and SG HydroC CO₂T-0422-
210 001 (Figure 4b, black line) and the SG HydroC CH₄ (Figure 4c) sensors were secured next to the
211 Seaglider. The water was kept in motion with a circulation pump. Triplicate discrete water
212 samples for dissolved inorganic carbon, pH, and CH₄ analysis were taken every four hours
213 (Table 1).

214

215 **2.5 Rosette package**

216 One of the SG HydroC CO₂ sensors (CO₂T-0422-001) was installed on an SBE-55 frame
217 ECO water sampler with six 4-liter sample bottles (Seabird Scientific) during the May 2022 trials
218 (Tables 2 and 3, Figure 7 and S1). The SBE-55 and SG HydroC CO₂ were powered by an SBE-
219 33 carousel deck unit. The SG HydroC CO₂ interfered with the communication stream and
220 thereby prevented real-time data acquisition and control of the SBE-55, however data were
221 internally logged. The depth of the rosette package was monitored directly on the winch and the

222 timing of firing of the sample bottles, after an approximate 15-minute hovering period (to allow
223 for equilibration), was programmed in advance based on time intervals. On May 3 (Table 2,
224 Figure 7) only samples from the upper 20 m of the water column were usable due to issues with
225 manually measuring the depths and the sample collection. On May 7 (Table 3, Figure S1) two
226 bottles that were intended to be fired while the rosette was stationary at depth, were instead fired
227 while the rosette was in motion.

228

229 **2.6 Discrete water samples**

230 2.6.1 Inorganic carbon chemistry

231 Discrete seawater samples were collected for sensor validation in two different cases in
232 May of 2022. Firstly, samples were taken alongside two SG HydroC CO₂ sensors during a tank
233 experiment at the Alutiiq Pride Marine Institute (Figure 4b, Table 1), from adjacent sample
234 bottles (Figure 1d). Secondly, samples were taken from bottles during a CTD cast within 1 km
235 and 4 hours of the HydroC measuring *p*CO₂ on the glider while conducting dives (Section 3.2).

236 Inorganic carbon sampling in the Gulf of Alaska's glaciated coastal regions required
237 methodological variations from open-ocean best practices to ensure that suspended mineral
238 particles do not compromise the instrumentation and/or bias measurements between sample
239 collection and analysis (Sejr et al., 2011). Given this, the discrete seawater samples were filtered
240 (replaceable 0.45 µm filter in a 47 mm polycarbonate in-line filter) with a peristaltic pump
241 straight from the Niskin bottles (see Bockmon and Dickson (2014) for detailed method), or tank,
242 into pre-cleaned 500 mL borosilicate bottles, and poisoned with 200 µL mercuric chloride
243 (HgCl₂) (Dickson et al., 2007). Samples were transported and stored at room temperature before
244 analysis. Samples were opened immediately (< 10 minutes) before concurrent analyses of pH

245 and DIC to limit gas exchange with ambient lab conditions. Samples were analyzed for DIC
246 using an Apollo SciTech, LLC Dissolved Inorganic Carbon Analyzer model AS-C6. All species
247 of dissolved inorganic carbon in a sample were converted to CO₂ by the addition of a strong acid.
248 The CO₂ gas was then purged from the sample through a drying system. The concentration of
249 CO₂ gas was measured using a non-dispersive infrared gas analyzer, the LI-7000 CO₂/H₂O
250 Analyzer. This method required Certified Reference Material (CRM, Batch #198 from A.
251 Dickson's Certified Reference Materials Laboratory) to create a three-point calibration line. The
252 calibration line was used to quantify the total amount of CO₂ in the sample as the integrated area
253 under the concentration-time curve. Apollo SciTech recommendations to improve analytical
254 accuracy were followed and included bubbling of CO₂ off the acid daily, allowing the analyzer to
255 warm up for at least 2 hours before measurements begin, measuring a set of standards at the
256 beginning and end of each day and every 9 samples, using Ultra High Purity (UHP) N₂ gas, and
257 filtering the N₂ gas with a PTFE filter, CO₂ scrubber (Ascarite II) and H₂O scrubber
258 (Mg(ClO₄)₂).

259 Samples were analyzed spectrophotometrically for pH with a CONTROS HydroFIA pH
260 (Aßmann et al., 2011) operating in discrete measurement mode using unpurified m-Cresol Purple
261 (mCP) as the indicator dye (Clayton and Byrne, 1993). Sample temperature was stabilized at
262 25C±0.01 during measurements using Peltier elements and 5 repetitive measurements were
263 taken for each sample. At the beginning of each day, the HydroFIA pH underwent a conditioning
264 period using seawater with similar properties until values stabilized. CRMs (known TA and DIC
265 concentration, Batch #198 from A. Dickson's Certified Reference Materials Laboratory) were
266 measured at the beginning and end of the day, as well as every 9 samples.

267 All data processing and analyses were done using an in-house MATLAB routine. In situ
268 pH and $p\text{CO}_2^{\text{disc}}$ were calculated from input pair pH_{lab} and DIC using CO2SYSv3 (Sharp et al.,
269 2023) with dissociation constants for carbonic acid of Sulpis et al. (2020), bisulfate of (Dickson,
270 1990), hydrofluoric acid of Perez and Fraga, (1987), and the boron-to-chlorinity ratio of (Lee et
271 al., 2010). Sulpis et al. (2020) found that the carbonic acid dissociation constants of Lueker et al.
272 (2000) may underestimate $p\text{CO}_2$ in cold regions (below $\sim 8^\circ\text{C}$) and, therefore, overestimate pH
273 and CO_3^{2-} . Differences between discrete $p\text{CO}_2$ calculated with the carbonic acid dissociation
274 constants by Lueker et al. (2000) (the standard in synthesis data products (e.g., Jiang et al., 2021,
275 Lauvset et al., 2022, Metzl et al., 2024) and the HydroC $p\text{CO}_2$ from the tank experiment were
276 found to be on average $4.6 \mu\text{atm}$ (1.6 %) and $4.2 \mu\text{atm}$ (0.7 %) greater for SN0422 and SN0718,
277 respectively, when compared with discrete $p\text{CO}_2$ based on carbonic acid dissociation constants
278 by Sulpis et al. (2020).

279 Discrete $p\text{CO}_2$ uncertainty (u_c) was calculated as the combined standard uncertainty from
280 *errors.m* (Orr et al., 2018) that propagates input uncertainties. Input uncertainties for pH_{lab} and
281 DIC were the standard uncertainties, defined as the square root of the sum of the squared random
282 uncertainty component plus the squared systematic uncertainty components. For pH_{lab} the
283 random uncertainty was the sample precision, or standard deviation of the measurements. For
284 DIC, the random uncertainty was the propagated error calculated with the first-order Taylor
285 series expansion (Equation 1, Orr et al. (2018)) and assuming the correlation term was zero for
286 the conversion of molarity ($\mu\text{moles l}^{-1}$) to molality ($\mu\text{moles kg}^{-1}$). Systematic uncertainty
287 components were the uncertainty in the CRM used for instrument offset and drift correction, and
288 the published instrument accuracy, or if available, the daily instrument accuracy as defined
289 below. Daily instrument accuracy was defined as the maximum difference between the known

290 CRM concentration, and the measured CRM concentration after data were corrected for
291 instrument drift and offset of all available CRM's not used in the instrument drift and offset
292 calculation. CRM pH_{lab} "known" values were calculated using CO2SYSv3 (Sharp et al., 2023)
293 with inputs pH and DIC. Nutrient concentrations (SiO_4^{-2} , PO_4^{-3}) were assumed to be negligible in
294 the CO2SYS calculations (e.g. DeGrandpre et al., 2019; Vergara-Jara et al., 2019; Islam et al.,
295 2017).

296

297 2.6.2 Methane

298 Two sets of triplicate pCH_4 discrete water samples were collected during the tank
299 experiment for an initial evaluation of the SG HydroC CH_4 sensor (Figure 4c, Table 1). Seawater
300 was filtered from the tank into 250 mL vials. The vials were closed with a rubber stopper, topped
301 with an aluminum cap, and closed with a crimp immediately. A dry and clean syringe was
302 flushed with 10 mL of N_2 gas twice. The third fill was kept, and the syringe valve was closed. N_2
303 was then injected into the headspace while simultaneously pulling 10 mL seawater out of the vial
304 using a second syringe. 50 μ L mercuric chloride ($HgCl_2$) were added to the vial, which was then
305 shaken for about a minute and put into a fridge at 4°C for over 12 h to equilibrate the headspace.
306 The samples were then sent to the Kessler analytical laboratory at the University of Rochester for
307 analysis.

308

309 2.7 Data post-processing

310 2.7.1 pCO_2 post-processing

311 SG HydroC CO_2 data were post-processed using Jupyter Notebook scripts developed by -4H-
312 JENA engineering GmbH at the original resolution (2 seconds). SG HydroC CO_2 (SG HydroC

313 CO2T-0422-001) data from the tank experiment (Table 1, Figure 4) and rosette mounted CTD
314 casts (Table 2 and 3, Figure 7 and S1) were post-processed to correct for baseline drift (change in
315 the zero signal reference) and span drift (changes in the sensor's concentration dependent
316 characteristics) using pre- and post-calibration coefficients interpolated over the
317 deployment ([Fietzek et al., 2014](#)). For the May 2022 Seaglider integrated SG HydroC
318 CO₂ sensor (SG HydroC CO2T-0718-001, Table 3, Figures 8 and 9), data were post-processed
319 with pre-calibration coefficients only (no span drift correction) because the sensor was damaged
320 during the return shipment for post-calibration. Differences between sensors remained low
321 despite the difference in processing, with a mean difference during the tank experiment of $2.1 \pm$
322 $1.0 \mu\text{atm}$ (0.9%) and median difference of $2.0 \pm 1.0 \mu\text{atm}$ (0.9%) (Table 1, Figure 4b).

323 The $p\text{CO}_2$ data from February 2023 was collected with a sensor that was factory calibrated two
324 weeks prior to deployment (SG HydroC CO2T-0422-001) but were not post-processed because a
325 required parameter (p_NDIR) was not relayed in real-time and the glider was lost. Lack of post-
326 calibration most likely had no negative effect on the quality of data since the HydroC was only
327 collecting data for ~4 days during the spring mission and ~2 days during the winter mission.

328 HydroC $p\text{CO}_2$ and $p\text{CO}_2^{\text{RTC}}$ data at the original resolution (2 s) and RTC resolution (8 s)
329 were linearly interpolated onto the Seaglider timestamp and 1-meter binned data were calculated
330 by first averaging 1 meter (+/- 0.5 m) upcast and downcast data independently, linearly
331 interpolating over gaps, then averaging the interpolated 1-meter binned upcast and downcast
332 together.

333

334 *2.7.2 Response time correction*

335 The ability to determine the in situ response time (τ_{63} of the HydroC, which took into
336 account membrane characteristics and the rate of water exchange over the membrane, i.e.
337 pump characteristics) of the sensor made correction for hysteresis through data post processing
338 possible. This is critical for a sensor operating on profiling platforms, especially in the Gulf of
339 Alaska, where strong environmental gradients were encountered. Fiedler et al. (2013) used a
340 CONTROS HydroCTM CO₂ with a silicone, polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) membrane and
341 reported a linear response time dependency on water temperature on the order of one second per
342 one °C. For this study, the SG HydroC CO₂ sensors were deployed with the new robust TOUGH
343 membrane, which had Teflon AF2400 as the active separation layer with a low temperature
344 dependence on the permeability coefficient (Pinnau and Toy, 1996). Response times determined
345 during calibration at -4H-JENA were used for response time correction (RTC) and found to be
346 106 seconds for the HydroC mounted on the rosette in May 2022 and 108 seconds when it was
347 integrated into the Seaglider in February 2023 (HydroC CO2T-0422-001). The response time of
348 the HydroC integrated into the Seaglider in May 2022 (HydroC CO2T-0718-001) was 109
349 seconds. Since field verification of the response time was recommended to ensure the highest
350 quality post-processed data product (because τ_{63} can be affected by the speed of water exchange
351 across the membrane (e.g. pump speed, tube length, etc.)), we verified the sensor response time
352 at deployment. After the glider was stationary for approximately 15 minutes, a zeroing interval
353 was performed with the HydroC CO₂. The response time was determined by reviewing the time
354 it took for the signal to recover to the ambient concentration. Our in situ response time tests were
355 suggested to be within 5 seconds of the response time found during calibration (not shown).
356 Before RTC was applied, HydroC CO₂ data were smoothed using a quadratic regression
357 (MATLAB's smoothdata.m function with the loess method) over a 2-minute window. This was

358 done to eliminate erroneous spikes in the RTC signal while retaining the original 2-second
359 resolution of the $p\text{CO}_2$ data. The RTC resolution of 8 seconds was determined with the L-curve
360 analysis included in the publicly available code from Dølven et al. (2022). The Dølven et al.
361 (2022) RTC method was used because it produced more realistic profiles than an RTC method
362 (Miloshevich et al., 2004, not shown) previously used for HydroC CO_2 correction from a
363 profiling float (Fielder et al. 2013). In addition, Dølven et al. (2022) developed their algorithm
364 with equilibrium-based sensors in mind and was proven with a sensor with a long response time
365 (HydroC CH_4 $\tau_{63} \cong 23$ minutes).

366

367 2.7.3 $p\text{CH}_4$ post-processing

368 SG HydroC $p\text{CH}_4$ data were response time corrected using a τ_{63} of 43 minutes (Dølven et
369 al., 2022; Figure 4c, blue line). Before RTC was applied, HydroC CH_4 data were smoothed using
370 a quadratic regression (MATLAB's smoothdata.m function with the Loess method) over a 2-
371 minute window to avoid erroneous spikes in the RTC data while retaining the original 2-second
372 resolution of the $p\text{CH}_4$ data. The RTC resolution of 30 seconds was determined with the L-curve
373 analysis included in the publicly available code from Dølven et al. (2022). Discrete CH_4 samples
374 were collected during the tank experiment (Table 1; Figure 4c red diamonds) and analyzed at
375 John Kessler's laboratory at the University of Rochester. Discrete CH_4 sample values were
376 converted from the concentration of dissolved gas in water (mol L^{-1}) to partial pressure ($p\text{CH}_4^{\text{disc}}$,
377 μatm) using the solubility coefficient following Sarmiento and Gruber (2006). $p\text{CH}_4^{\text{disc}}$
378 uncertainty (u ; Table 1; Figure 4c red error bars) was calculated as the square root of the sum of
379 the squared 1) mean of the standard deviations from each sample as returned from the lab and 2)
380 the standard deviation of the triplicates.

381

382 **3. Results**

383 **3.1 Glider flight**

384 Despite the large payload and major changes to the vehicle fairing, the glider was able to
385 “fly” properly, allowing the desired undisturbed flow to meet the sensor's requirements. Example
386 flight profiles with the POM and Titanium integrated sensors are shown in Figures 5 and 6,
387 respectively. Pitch and vertical velocity are in the stable range, and roughly symmetric between
388 downcast and upcast, indicating a nearly balanced glider. Heading varies around the targeted
389 value as the roll adjusted to heading errors. It should be noted that this level of variability is
390 typical of standard Seagliders. Operating Seagliders in shallow water (< 200 m) is risky because
391 of the likelihood of meeting depth-averaged currents of the same order of magnitude as the
392 vehicle speed. A typical single dive cycle of downcast and upcast shows that the sensor data are
393 free of noise that could be expected if there were recirculated water from the glider meeting the
394 sensors. The expected endurance of the CO₂ Seaglider is around 18 days and 15 days for the
395 CH₄ Seaglider with constant sampling at full depth.

396

397 **3.2 CO₂ Seaglider data evaluation**

398 The quality of the CO₂ Seaglider data was thoroughly tested with discrete measurements
399 during a tank experiment, nearby CTD cast, and glider missions.

400

401 **3.2.1 Tank experiment**

402 Discrete water samples show good agreement with the SG HydroC CO₂ sensors (Figure
403 4b, Table 1). The values of discrete water samples represent the average of triplicate samples

404 (Figure 4c, red diamonds). Differences between the SG HydroC CO₂ sensors remained low, with
405 a mean difference during the tank experiment of $2.1 \pm 1.0 \mu\text{atm}$ (0.9 %) and median difference of
406 $2.0 \mu\text{atm}$ (0.9 %; Table 1). Percent differences (Eq. 1) between the SG HydroC CO₂ sensors and
407 discrete water samples collected in the tank were between 0.3 and 1.9 % (Table 1, Figure 4).

$$408 \quad \% \text{ difference} = \frac{|pCO_2^{\text{HydroC}} - pCO_2^{\text{disc}}|}{(pCO_2^{\text{HydroC}} + pCO_2^{\text{disc}})} / 2 * 100\% \quad (\text{Equation 1})$$

409

410 3.2.2 Profiling experiment

411 Rosette-based profiles with the SG HydroC CO₂ sensor in combination with discrete
412 water samples were used to test and evaluate the response correction algorithm by Dølven et al.
413 (2022). The rosette was lowered into the water and kept at different depths for about 20 minutes
414 at a time (Figure 7a and Figure S1a). Sample bottles were programmed to collect seawater
415 toward the end of each hovering period. pCO_2 measured with the HydroC ranged from $218 \mu\text{atm}$
416 at the surface to $411 \mu\text{atm}$ at 80 m depth on May 3 (Figure 7b) and $231 \mu\text{atm}$ at the surface to
417 $382 \mu\text{atm}$ at 77 m depth on May 7 (Figure S1). Differences between the rosette mounted SG
418 HydroC CO₂ sensor and discrete samples ranged from $-3.3 \mu\text{atm}$ (1.4 %) to $8.2 \mu\text{atm}$ (3.4 %)
419 with a lowest percent difference of 0.6 % (Table 2) on May 3 and from $-5.7 \mu\text{atm}$ (1.6 %) to 12.1
420 μatm (3.8 %) with a lowest percent difference of 0.3 % (Table 3) on May 7.

421

422 3.2.3 Data evaluation during CO₂ Seaglider mission

423 The quality of the pCO_2 data from the CO₂ Seaglider was further evaluated during a 3-
424 day long sea trial mission in spring 2022 in Resurrection Bay, Alaska (Figure 3).

425 Discrete water samples were taken in proximity (1 km and within 4 hours) of the downcast of
426 dive #51 (Figures 8 and 9a, Table 3). The response time corrected CO₂ Seaglider data compares
427 well with the discrete water samples (Figure 8), overestimating the discrete water samples
428 between 8.3 μatm (2.6 %) and 12.0 μatm (5.0 %) (Table 3). The mean difference between the
429 rosette mounted and Seaglider integrated SG HydroC CO₂ sensors during the May 7th cast at the
430 time of discrete samples was 8.5 μatm +/- 8.9 μatm (3.7 %). The larger difference between SG
431 HydroC CO₂ sensors compared to the difference during the tank experiment (see Section 3.2.1)
432 is unsurprising, given the spatial and temporal distance between sensors (Table 3). Collecting
433 more discrete samples throughout the water column and in closer proximity (within 100 m,
434 Thompson et al., 2021) to the CO₂ Seaglider conducting dives would allow a more tightly
435 constrained uncertainty estimate for response time corrected $p\text{CO}_2$ data collected on a glider and
436 should be a priority for future researchers.

437

438 **3.3 CH₄ Seaglider data evaluation**

439 3.3.1 Tank experiment

440 The SG HydroC CH₄ was also evaluated during the tank experiment described in section
441 2.4 (Figure 4c). Percent differences (Eq. 1) between discrete $p\text{CH}_4$ (average of triplicate samples)
442 and $p\text{CH}_4^{\text{RTC}}$ were 6.3 to 14.6 % (Table 1). During the experiment, there was a decrease in
443 salinity from 30.95 to 29.88 where $p\text{CO}_2$ decreased by 80 μatm . The corresponding $p\text{CH}_4^{\text{RTC}}$
444 signal decreased by 25.4 μatm from 32.3 to 6.9 μatm . Although the triplicate discrete $p\text{CH}_4$ water
445 samples were slightly lower than the sensor-measured $p\text{CH}_4$ values, they also reflected this step
446 change.

447

448 3.4 Winter and springtime $p\text{CO}_2$ in Resurrection Bay, Alaska

449 The surface-to-subsurface $p\text{CO}_2$ gradient is much larger in spring than in winter (Figure
450 10). During the early May mission, the average surface $p\text{CO}_{2,\text{Seaglider}}^{\text{RTC}}$ was $240.7 \pm 16.5 \mu\text{atm}$
451 (mean \pm standard deviation at 2 meters) with an average temperature of $5.8 \pm 0.4 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ (Figures
452 9 and 10). In February, surface $p\text{CO}_{2,\text{Seaglider}}^{\text{RTC}}$ was near atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$ ($427.4 \pm 13.0 \mu\text{atm}$,
453 temperature $4.1 \pm 0.3 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) and about $180 \mu\text{atm}$ higher than in May (Figures 10 and 11).
454 NOAA's moored sensor located in Sunny Cove ($59.911 \text{ }^\circ\text{N}$, $-149.35 \text{ }^\circ\text{W}$), near the CO_2 Seaglider
455 trial site, measured an average sea surface $p\text{CO}_2$ of $240.7 \pm 10.4 \mu\text{atm}$ during the time of the
456 May 2022 mission (Monacci et al., 2023), which compared remarkably well with the Seaglider
457 based measurements. A minimum of $140 \mu\text{atm}$ was measured in Sunny Cove in mid-April (3-day
458 average) (Figure 12, Monacci et al., 2023), suggesting that the peak of the spring bloom
459 happened three weeks before the May 2022 glider mission. Since we don't have salinity data
460 from the May CO_2 Seaglider mission (conductivity sensor failure), we cannot disentangle the
461 contributions of freshwater or primary production on the low surface $p\text{CO}_2$ values observed
462 (Figure 9). The moored sensor in Sunny Cove measured an average sea surface $p\text{CO}_2$ of 416.4
463 $\pm 4.2 \mu\text{atm}$ during the time of the February mission, straddling the atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$ values
464 (Monacci et al., 2023, Figure 12). Subsurface $p\text{CO}_{2,\text{Seaglider}}^{\text{RTC}}$ at 180 m was on average $545.6 \pm$
465 $16.9 \mu\text{atm}$ during the February mission and $518.2 \pm 37.4 \mu\text{atm}$ during the May 2022 mission
466 (Figure 10a). $p\text{CO}_2$ was much lower in May than in February throughout the upper water column
467 ($< 120 \text{ m}$), whereas there was not much of a seasonal difference at deeper depth. Some of the
468 fine scale features apparent in the May $p\text{CO}_2$ and O_2 profiles are likely due to various levels of
469 photosynthetic activity (Figure 10). As the glider transitioned into the open Gulf of Alaska
470 during the February mission, water with $\text{O}_2 < 150 \mu\text{M}$ shoaled into the upper 150 m of the water

471 column (Figure 11). Unfortunately, the HydroC CO₂ sensor was turned off at that stage of the
472 mission to conserve battery.

473

474 **4. Discussion**

475 The newly developed CO₂ Seaglider is the first of its kind to autonomously collect high
476 quality *p*CO₂ data. The tank and rosette experiments and in situ data evaluation suggest that the
477 post-processed data from the CO₂ Seaglider generally fall near the relative uncertainty of 2.5%,
478 which is a threshold defined as the “quality sufficient to identify relative spatial patterns and
479 short-term variation” (“weather quality”, Newton et al., 2015). This is the highest quality of
480 *p*CO₂ data that has been measured with a subsurface autonomous vehicle to this date and
481 therefore an important step towards filling the subsurface carbonate system data gap. -4H-JENA
482 is reassessing their sensor calibration methodology and data post-processing algorithm to further
483 improve the HydroC’s data accuracy.

484 The newly developed CO₂ Seaglider is suitable for data collection in open ocean or
485 coastal environments with bottom depths deeper than 300 m. However, the coastal Gulf of
486 Alaska is a highly dynamic environment, with strong freshwater and wind influence, and rugged
487 shallow (often < 200 m) bottom topography. Strong currents (up to 0.50 m s⁻¹) made the piloting
488 of the glider extremely difficult throughout the project and confirmed that the Seaglider cannot
489 reliably reach desired waypoints in these conditions. The current version of the CO₂ Seaglider is
490 also not suitable for operating in the coastal Gulf of Alaska in summer and early fall, due to
491 strong seasonal salinity gradients in this freshwater influenced area. Another issue we faced was
492 the fact that the forward-looking altimeter could not detect the Seafloor as it should in its
493 position behind the HydroC CO₂. In areas with detailed topography maps this would not be an

494 issue, but in the coastal Gulf of Alaska reliable topography information is not readily available
495 yet. An obvious next step is to integrate the SG HydroC CO₂ sensor into a newer glider platform,
496 such as the Seaglider SGX or Teledyne Slocum G3 glider. The extended energy bay, larger
497 buoyancy range, and thruster should make the operation of the coastal Slocum G3 with HydroC
498 sensors relatively easy and would allow for autonomous high-resolution water column
499 measurements of $p\text{CO}_2$ and $p\text{CH}_4$ in dynamic coastal environments. The integration of a HydroC
500 on a Slocum glider will require a custom-made wet-payload bay due to the size of this sensor.
501 For open ocean or deeper coastal regions, the integration with the Seaglider SGX, with 60%
502 higher energy capacity, would be effective and nearly identical to the work already done here.
503 The SG HydroC CH₄ was successfully integrated into the Seaglider as part of this project.
504 While tank experiments showed promising results, short field tests of the CH₄ Seaglider in
505 shallow water revealed low and patchy methane concentrations near the detection limit (not
506 shown). The CH₄ Seaglider requires further testing in environments with strong $p\text{CH}_4$ gradients
507 during longer and deeper dives (to allow for equilibration) to assess the accuracy of its
508 response time-corrected data in the field. The sensor's slow response time likely limits the glider
509 to providing qualitative rather than quantitative results. However, due to the scarcity of oceanic
510 CH₄ observations, deploying a CH₄ glider can help identify the location of methane sources and
511 guide the placement of in situ observations to conduct a more quantitative assessment of CH₄
512 fluxes and dynamics.

513 Ocean gliders are part of the Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission (IOC-
514 UNESCO) Global Ocean Observing System (GOOS) through the OceanGliders program
515 (<https://www.oceangliders.org/>). Like other elements of the GOOS coordinated by OceanOPs of
516 the Observation Coordination Group (floats, buoys, moorings, ships, and tide gauges),

517 OceanGliders contributes to “Ocean Observation for Climate, Ocean Health and Real Time
518 Services”. CO₂ gliders are perfectly suited to contribute data for understanding relevant
519 inorganic carbon processes in coastal shelf and boundary regions where mesoscale or sub-
520 mesoscale variability dominates. The current work can also serve as a first step to bring together
521 interested scientists and engineers to further develop and improve the capability of gliders to
522 measure high-quality data. OceanGliders supports this effort by promoting the formation of
523 volunteer international task teams, for which a task team could be requested for oceanographic
524 greenhouse gas research. By doing this, the visibility and availability of data will be improved as
525 well, since GOOS provides an interactive data platform for all its programs ([https://www.ocean-](https://www.ocean-ops.org/board)
526 [ops.org/board](https://www.ocean-ops.org/board)). An OceanGliders task team could also be linked with the GOOS-sponsored
527 Global Climate Observing System (GCOS: <https://gcos.wmo.int/en/home>) program through their
528 Ocean Observations Physics and Climate Panel (OOPC): ”a scientific expert advisory group
529 charged with making recommendations for a sustained global ocean observing system for
530 climate.”

531

532 **5. Concluding Thoughts**

533 Near real-time and high-resolution water column data that can be retrieved from gliders
534 outfitted with sensors measuring salinity, temperature, inorganic carbon system parameters,
535 oxygen, and *p*CH₄ are key to tackling a variety of today’s climate change-related issues. These
536 datasets will become instrumental in advancing biogeochemical model forecasting and early
537 warning systems for extreme heat, acidity, and oxygen compound events that affect coastal
538 subsistence communities, commercial fisheries, and mariculture. Furthermore, using
539 biogeochemical gliders to monitor the environment of tagged organisms (e.g. crabs, fish) would

540 provide insight into the organism's position and behavior relative to important environmental
541 drivers across susceptible ecosystems. Such biogeochemical glider data will help bridge in situ
542 chemical and biological measurements, and environmental change to impacts on biology, and
543 thereby fill an important research gap (Widdicomb et al., 2023). Potentially large natural and
544 anthropogenic sources of CH₄ may become contributors to climate change, and if oxidized, to
545 ocean acidification (Garcia-Tigreros et al., 2021; Sparrow et al., 2018; Shakhova et al., 2010;
546 Rees et al., 2022). These CH₄ sources need to be properly assessed and quantified, and if
547 characterized as anthropogenic origin, emitters must be held accountable (Goodman et al., 2022).
548 Once the combined HydroC CH₄/CO₂ is available it will provide a new tool to co-measure *p*CH₄
549 and *p*CO₂ and give valuable insight into these processes and feedback mechanisms. Other
550 advancing fields, such as marine Carbon Dioxide Removal (mCDR) and monitoring,
551 verification, and reporting (MRV) thereof will also need detailed knowledge of the distribution
552 of CO₂ in the water column (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine.
553 2022).

554 The CO₂ Seaglider has been extensively tested and is ready to be used in open ocean
555 environments. An important next step will be to integrate the HydroC CO₂ and CH₄ sensors into
556 a glider platform that reliably functions in shallow, and freshwater-affected coastal areas, such as
557 the Gulf of Alaska, to be able to fill the large spatial and temporal data gap in these highly
558 dynamic areas.

559

560 **Data availability**

561 The CO₂ Seaglider data is publicly available (Hauri et al., 2022; 2023). The HydroC-
562 specific SIRMA code and CNF file are available on Github (Cyprus-Subsea, 2024a and 2024b).

563 More detailed information on the HydroC – glider integration and operation can be found in the
564 CO₂ Seaglider Standard Operating Procedures (Irving et al., 2024).

565

566 **Author contributions**

567 C.H. and A.M. developed the research ideas and the proposal that funded this work. C.H.
568 led the fieldwork and writing of this manuscript. B.I. led the preparation for fieldwork and glider
569 data processing and analysis. D.H. led glider piloting for all trials. D.H. and E.A. assisted with
570 data processing, sensor programming, mechanical integration, glider ballasting, deployment, and
571 recovery. N.K. and J.K. provided technical support for the HydroC sensors. All authors
572 contributed to the writing of this manuscript.

573

574 **Competing interests**

575 Authors Hayes and Abdi are employed by AOOI and CSCS (respectively) and their
576 objective is to support the ocean research community by providing innovative, cutting-edge
577 observing technological solutions. These include autonomous platforms and related services in
578 unique configurations. Through the support of the National Science Foundation and the National
579 Oceanographic Partnership Program, AOOI was able to jointly develop the CO₂ and CH₄ gliders
580 and prove and improve the scientific utility of this approach. Authors Kinski and Kemme are
581 employed by -4H-JENA engineering GmbH, the manufacturer of the HydroC CO₂ and CH₄
582 sensors. The objective of -4H-JENA engineering GmbH is to provide best possible accuracy of
583 dissolved gas measurements on any platform and at any environmental condition. Intensive
584 collaboration with scientists is essential for the development of these products.

585

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951 **Tables**

952 **Table 1. Tank experiment.** Evaluation of SG HydroC CO₂ and SG HydroC CH₄ sensors
 953 compared to reference discrete $p\text{CO}_2^{\text{disc}}$ and $p\text{CH}_4^{\text{disc}}$. Units of $p\text{CO}_2$ and $p\text{CH}_4$ are μatm except
 954 when shown as percent difference in parenthesis (Equation 1). Columns with subscripts sn422
 955 and sn0718 indicate data from sensors HydroC CO2T-0422-001 and HydroC CO2T-0718-001,
 956 respectively. Superscript RTC indicates response time corrected values following Dølven et al.
 957 (2022). $p\text{CO}_2^{\text{disc}}$ and $p\text{CH}_4^{\text{disc}}$ values are the average of triplicate bottles and are shown in Figure
 958 4.

959

Triplicate Date Time (UTC)	$p\text{CO}_2^{\text{disc}} \pm$ uc (μatm)	$p\text{CO}_{2,\text{sn}422}^{\text{RTC}} -$ $p\text{CO}_2^{\text{disc}}$	$p\text{CO}_{2,\text{sn}0718}^{\text{RTC}} -$ $p\text{CO}_2^{\text{disc}}$	$p\text{CH}_4^{\text{disc}} \pm$ u (μatm)	$p\text{CH}_4^{\text{RTC}} -$ $p\text{CH}_4^{\text{disc}}$
5/2/2022 3:25	298.7 ± 10.2	-0.9 (0.3 %)	-	-	-
5/2/2022 7:32	227.1 ± 7.8	4.3 (1.9 %)	2.4 (1.1 %)	-	-
5/2/2022 11:27	223.3 ± 7.7	0.7 (0.3 %)	-2.6 (1.2 %)	-	-
5/2/2022 15:30	227.8 ± 7.9	-1.1 (0.5 %)	-3.3 (1.5 %)	-	-
5/2/2022 00:11	-	-	-	25.4 ± 2.1	4.0 (14.6 %)
5/2/2022 12:06	-	-	-	7.3 ± 1.3	0.5 (6.3 %)

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962 **Table 2. Profiling experiment.** Evaluation of SG HydroC CO₂ sensor compared to reference
 963 discrete $p\text{CO}_2^{\text{disc}}$. Units of $p\text{CO}_2$ are μatm except when shown as percent difference in
 964 parenthesis (Eq. 1). $p\text{CO}_2$ with subscripts sn422 indicate data from the HydroC installed on the
 965 rosette (HydroC CO2T-0422-001). The superscript RTC indicates response time corrected values
 966 following Dølven et al. (2022).

Discrete Date Time (UTC)	Discrete Depth (m)	$p\text{CO}_2^{\text{disc}} \pm \text{uc}$ (μatm)	$p\text{CO}_{2,\text{sn422}}^{\text{RTC}} - p\text{CO}_2^{\text{disc}}$
5/3/2022 21:21	2.5	214.5 ± 7.5	5.4 (2.5%)
5/3/2022 21:39	19.9	246.8 ± 8.5	1.6 (0.6 %)
5/3/2022 22:33	9.6	244.4 ± 8.5	-3.3 (1.4 %)
5/3/2022 22:34	9.7	234.7 ± 8.1	8.2 (3.4 %)

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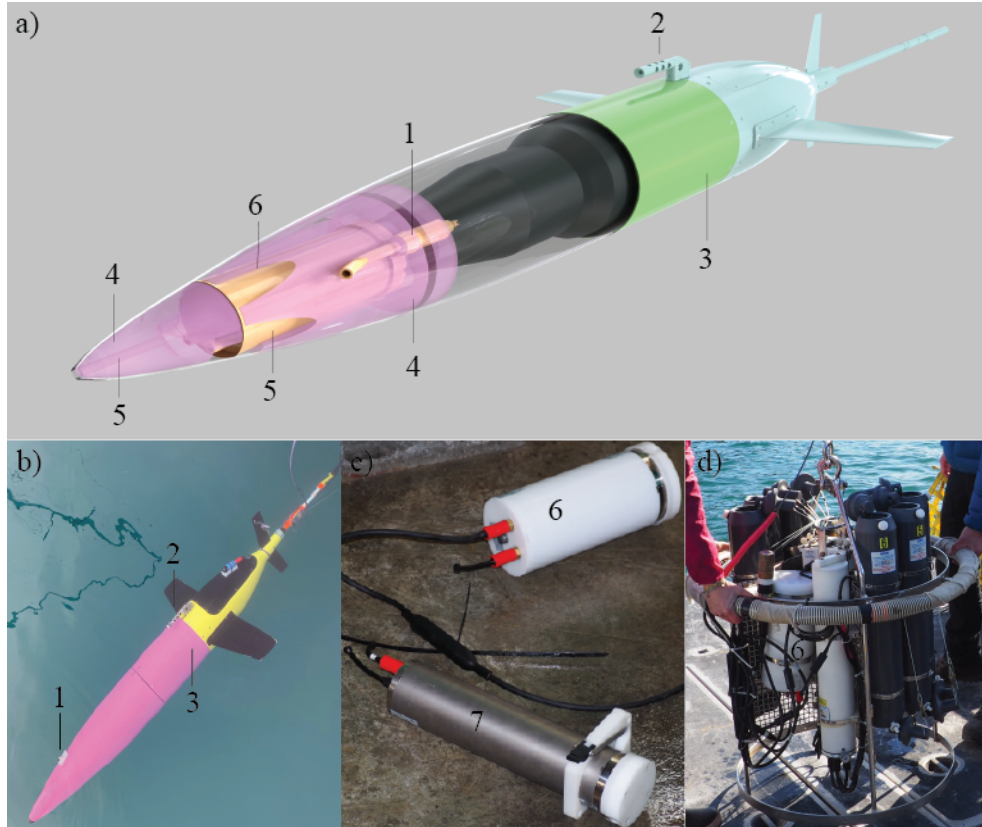
969 **Table 3. Seaglider HydroC evaluation with a nearby cast.** Evaluation of Seaglider integrated
 970 and rosette mounted SG HydroC CO₂ sensors compared to $p\text{CO}_2^{\text{disc}}$ collected from a nearby cast.
 971 Units of $p\text{CO}_2$ are μatm except when shown as percent difference in parenthesis (Eq. 1) and
 972 differences between $p\text{CO}_{2,\text{Seaglider}}^{\text{RTC}}$ were calculated with the average (upcast and downcast
 973 combined) 1-meter binned data. The superscript RTC indicates response time corrected values
 974 following Dølven et al. (2022), and subscripts Rosette and Seaglider indicate the SG HydroC
 975 CO₂ sensor mounted on the rosette (SG HydroC CO2T-0422-001) and integrated into the
 976 Seaglider (SG HydroC CO2T-0718-001), respectively. Time delay (HH:MM) and spatial
 977 distance (km) columns represent the distance between $p\text{CO}_{2,\text{Seaglider}}^{\text{RTC}}$ measured at the discrete
 978 depth and the discrete date time. The asterisk (*) indicates the comparison with $p\text{CO}_{2,\text{Rosette}}^{\text{RTC}}$
 979 taken as nearest in time before sensor zeroing (Figure S1).

Discrete Date Time (UTC)	Discrete Depth (m)	$p\text{CO}_2^{\text{disc}} \pm \text{uc}$ (μatm)	$p\text{CO}_{2,\text{Rosette}}^{\text{RTC}} - p\text{CO}_2^{\text{disc}}$	Delay (HH:MM)	Distance (km)	$p\text{CO}_{2,\text{Seaglider}}^{\text{RTC}} - p\text{CO}_2^{\text{disc}}$
5/7/2022 18:06	71.8	349.7 \pm 7.8	-5.7 (1.6 %)	02:47	0.4	10.2 (2.9 %)
5/7/2022 18:24	57.1	313.8 \pm 6.7	12.1 (3.8 %)	03:05	0.6	8.3 (2.6 %)
5/7/2022 18:42	19.8	285.3 \pm 6.1	0.8 (0.3 %)	03:23	0.8	8.6 (3.0 %)
5/7/2022 19:00	1.6	233.4 \pm 5.0	-2.3 (1.0 %)*	03:41	0.9	12.0 (5.0 %)

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982 **Figures**



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984 **Figure 1. CO₂ Seaglider.** CO₂ Seaglider a) schematic rendering and b) picture in Resurrection
985 Bay, Seward, Alaska, during a checkout dive on 6 February, 2023, before beginning the first
986 winter mission collecting high resolution *p*CO₂ data. Highlighted are 1) SeaBird 5M pump, 2)
987 conductivity and temperature sail, 3) extension, 4) syntactic foam, 5) water flow channels, and 6)
988 SG HydroC CO₂ in a titanium housing, enabling *p*CO₂ observations down to 1000 m. c) Picture
989 of new SG HydroC CO₂ in a POM housing (6, rated to 300 m depth) and original CONTROS
990 HydroC™ CO₂ (7). d) Picture of rosette set up for profiling experiment.

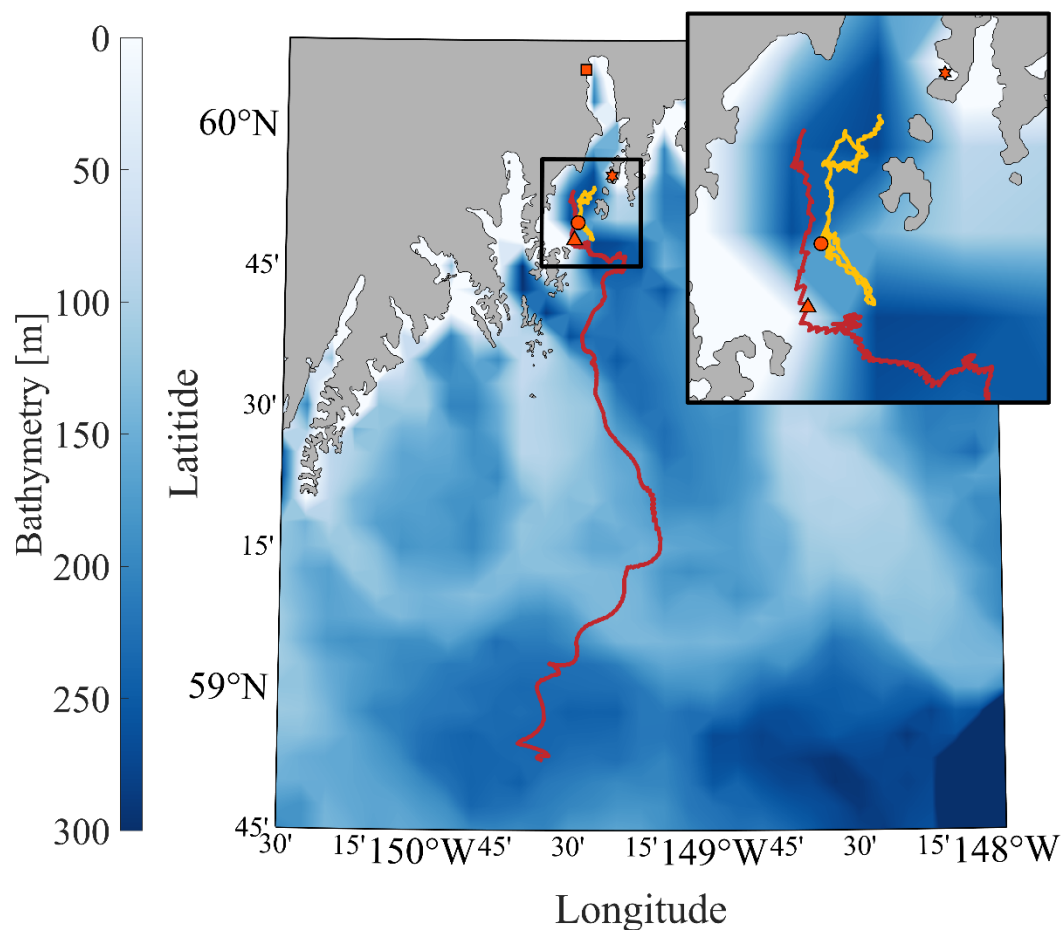


991

992 **Figure 2. SG HydroC CO₂ sensor mounting designs.** a) Titanium SG HydroC CO₂ (rated to

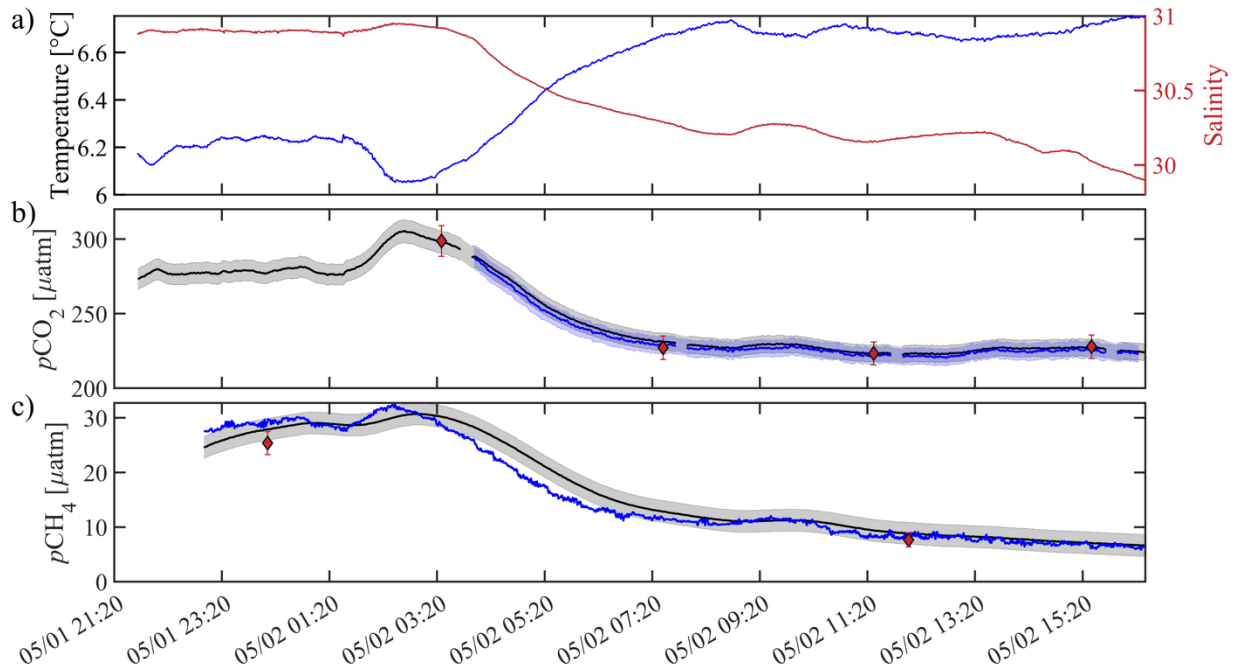
993 1000m) in a custom syntactic foam coat and b) POM SG HydroC CO₂ (rated to 300m) with

994 brackets.



995
 996 **Figure 3. Map of CO₂ Seaglider study area.** The bathymetry of the Gulf of Alaska is shown in
 997 color with zoomed in section of the head of Resurrection Bay (outlined black square and inset
 998 map). Tracks of the CO₂ Seaglider from the May 2022 and February 2023 missions are shown in
 999 yellow and red, respectively. Orange markers outlined in black show the location of the Alutiiq
 1000 Pride Marine Institute (square), National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration’s Gulf of
 1001 Alaska Ocean Acidification mooring (star), May 7th CTD cast (circle), and last location where
 1002 *p*CO₂ was collected during the February 2023 mission (triangle).

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1005 **Figure 4. Sensor validation during a tank experiment at the Alutiiq Pride Marine Institute**

1006 **on May 1 – 2, 2022.** a) temperature (blue line) and salinity (red line) from a recently calibrated

1007 Sea-Bird Scientific SBE37. b) black (blue) lines show $p\text{CO}_2$ in μatm from HydroC CO2T-0422-

1008 001 (HydroC CO2T-0718-001) with the shaded gray (blue) areas showing a relative uncertainty

1009 of 2.5% (weather quality goal; Newton et al., 2015). Black circles with red filling show discrete

1010 $p\text{CO}_2^{\text{disc}}$ with error bars showing the combined standard uncertainty from *errors.m* (Orr et al.,

1011 2018). HydroC $p\text{CO}_2$ data are shown at 1 minute resolution with a 2-minute moving median

1012 filter applied and have not been corrected for response time, but differences were negligible (<

1013 0.1 μatm). c) Black line shows $p\text{CH}_4$ in μatm from HydroC CH4T-0422-001 with the shaded

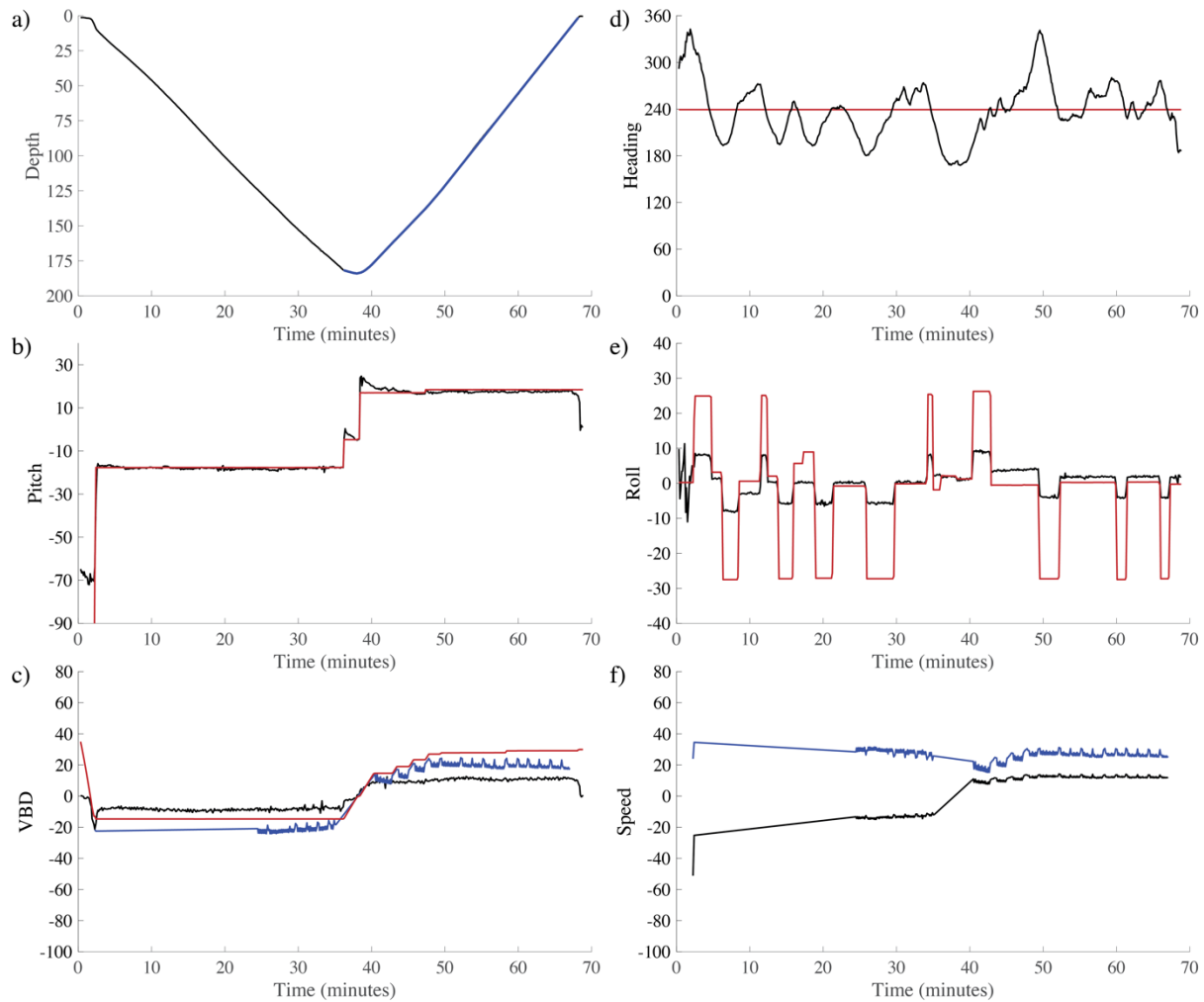
1014 gray bar showing an uncertainty of 2 μatm . The blue line is the response time corrected signal

1015 with a response time of 43 minutes following Dølven et al., (2022). HydroC $p\text{CH}_4$ data are

1016 shown at 1 minute resolution with a 2-minute moving median filter applied to the raw data and a

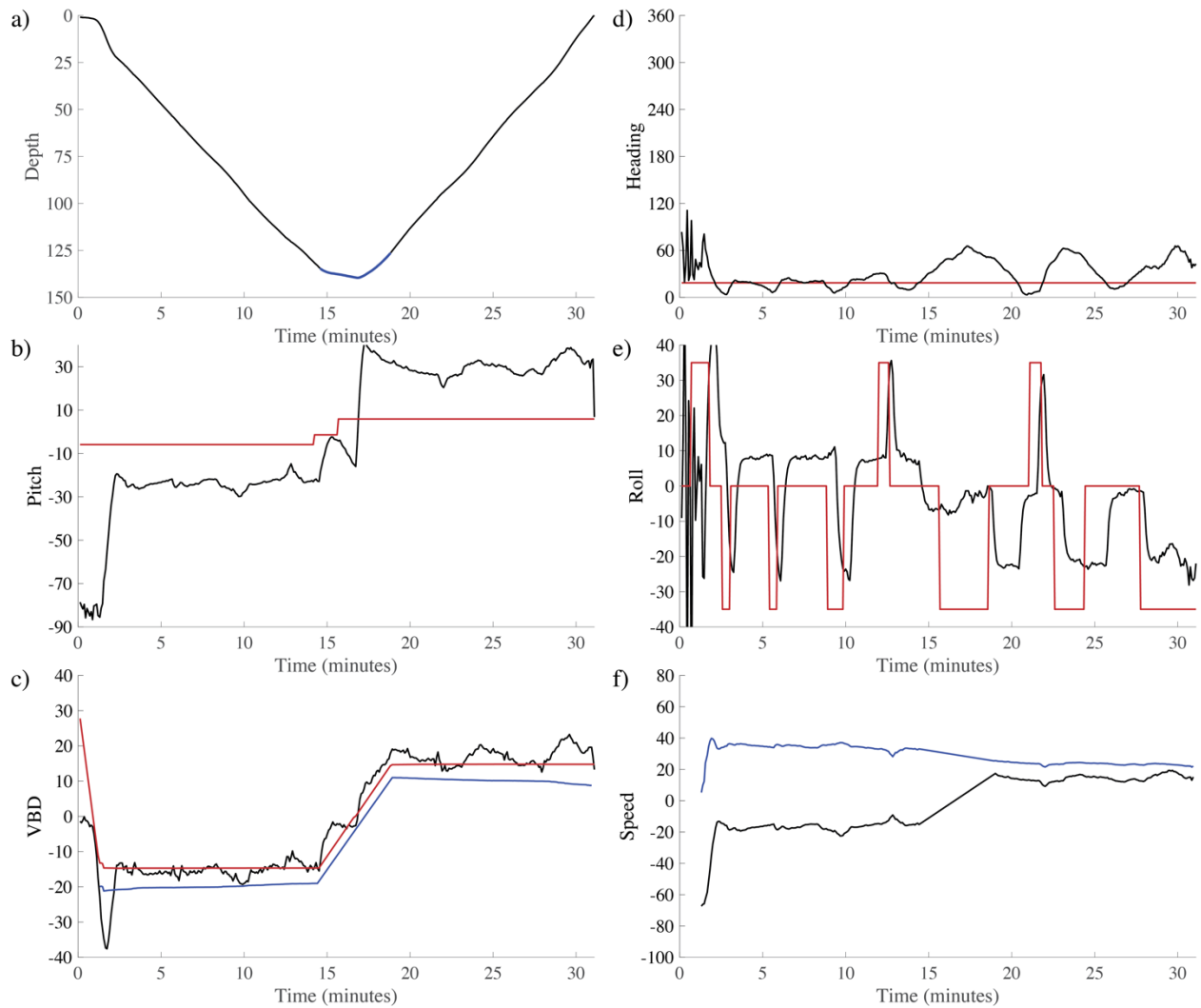
1017 10-minute moving median filter applied to the RTC data. Black diamonds with red filling show
1018 discrete $p\text{CH}_4^{\text{disc}}$ and all discrete values of $p\text{CO}_2^{\text{disc}}$ and $p\text{CH}_4^{\text{disc}}$ are the average of triplicate
1019 bottles.
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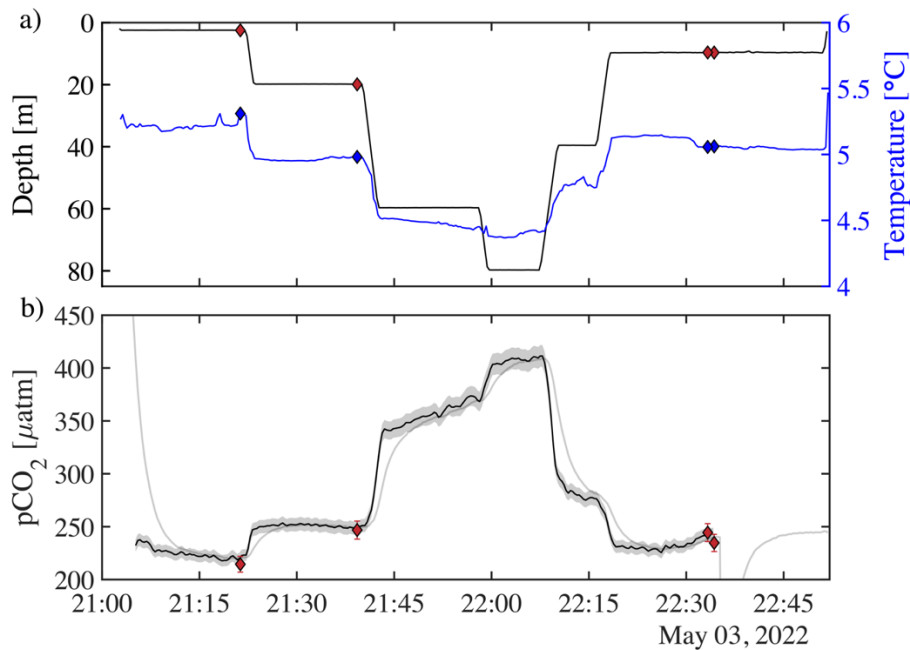


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1023 **Figure 5. Dive details for the 300 m rated CO₂ Seaglider (dive# 51).** a) Depth (black line,
1024 meters), b) pitch (black line, degrees) with pitch control (red line, mm of battery shift), c)
1025 Change in displacement of Variable Buoyancy Drive (VBD) (red line, units of 10 cc), vertical
1026 velocity from pressure measurements (black line, cm/s), and buoyancy (blue line, units of 10 g),
1027 d) heading in (desired red line, measured black line, degrees), e) roll (battery roll position red
1028 line, glider measured roll black line, degrees), and f) vertical speed (calculated from buoyancy
1029 and pitch, black line, cm/s) and horizontal speed (calculated from buoyancy and pitch, blue line,
1030 cm/s).



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 1032 **Figure 6. Dive details for the 1000 m rated CO₂ Seaglider (dive# 203).** a) Depth (black line,
 1033 meters), b) pitch (black line, degrees) with pitch control (red line, mm of battery shift), c)
 1034 Change in displacement of Variable Buoyancy Drive (VBD) (red line, units of 10 cc), vertical
 1035 velocity from pressure measurements (black line, cm/s), and buoyancy (blue line, units of 10 g),
 1036 d) Heading (desired heading red line, measured heading black line, degrees) e) roll (battery roll
 1037 position red line, glider measured roll black line, degrees), and f) vertical speed (calculated from
 1038 buoyancy and pitch, black line, cm/s) and horizontal speed in cm/s (calculated from buoyancy
 1039 and pitch, blue line, cm/s).

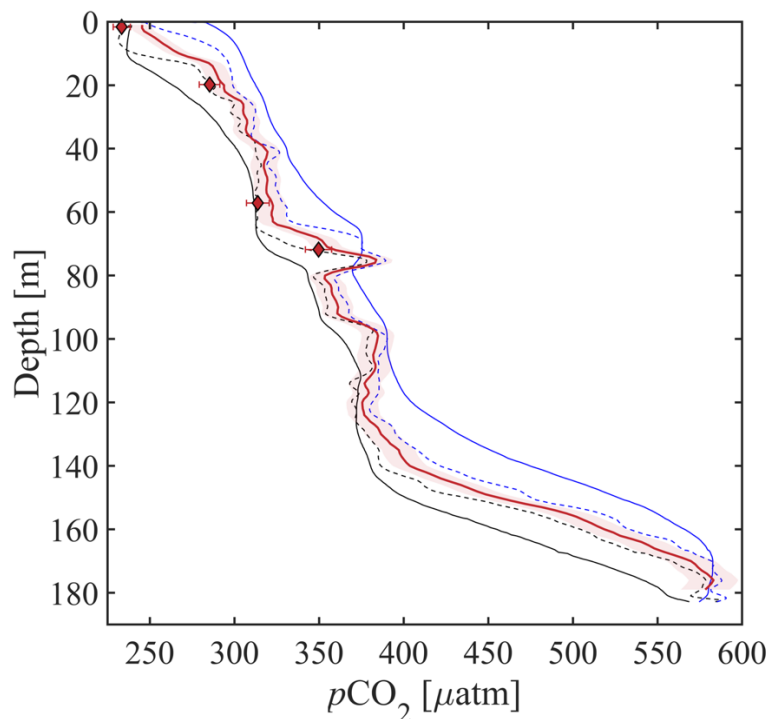


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1041 **Figure 7. Profiling experiments from May 3rd with HydroC CO2T-0422-001 sensor**
 1042 **mounted on the rosette.** a) Pressure vs time on the left (black) axis with diamonds showing
 1043 rosette CTD values of pressure (red filled diamond), and temperature vs time on the right (blue)
 1044 axis and temperature (blue filled diamond) at the time of the bottle fire. b) $p\text{CO}_2$ measured by
 1045 the rosette mounted SG HydroC CO_2 sensor as raw (gray line) and response time corrected
 1046 signal (thick black line; $p\text{CO}_{2,\text{sn}422}^{\text{RTC}}$ in Table 2) with shaded relative uncertainty of 2.5%
 1047 ($p\text{CO}_2^{\text{disc}}$ shown as red diamonds with vertical red error bars
 1048 showing combined standard uncertainty (Orr et al., 2018). Table 2 shows differences between
 1049 discrete $p\text{CO}_2^{\text{disc}}$ and $p\text{CO}_{2,\text{sn}422}^{\text{RTC}}$. The SG HydroC CO_2 sensor started a zeroing interval at
 1050 22:35 on May 3, 2022, so $p\text{CO}_{2,\text{sn}422}^{\text{RTC}}$ is not shown after that time but signal recovery can be
 1051 seen in the uncorrected signal (gray line).

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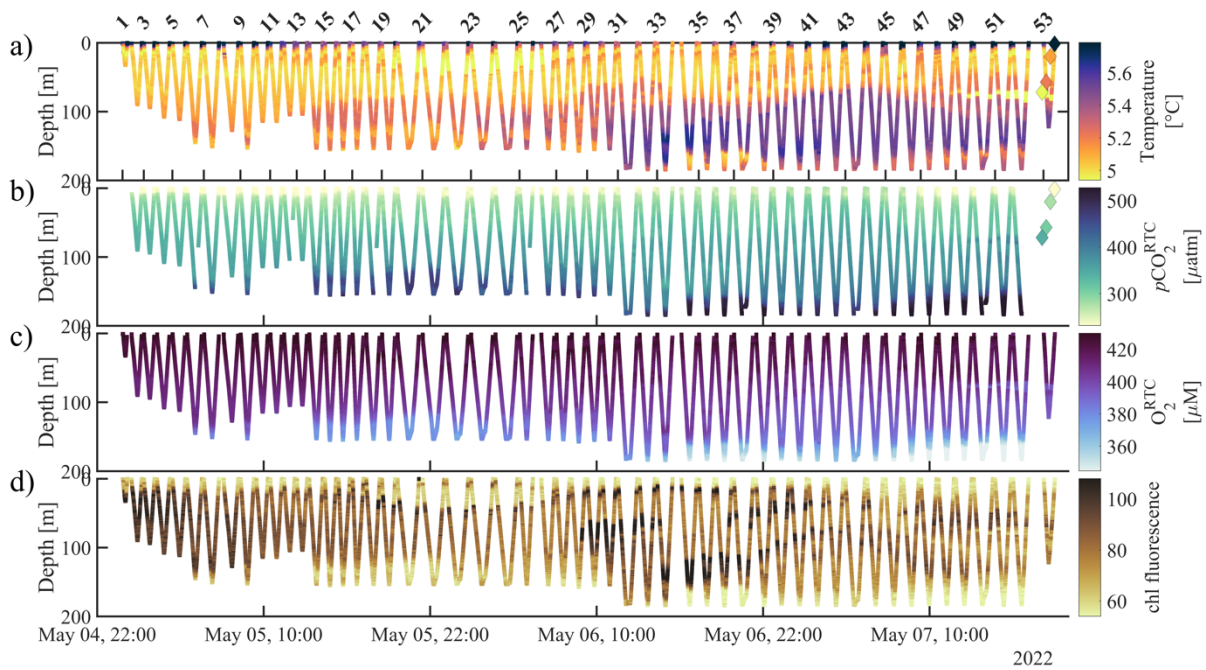


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1055 **Figure 8. CO_2 Seaglider data from a sea trial mission in May 2022 in Resurrection Bay,**
1056 **Seward, Alaska.** Depth profile of $p\text{CO}_2$ in μatm showing the original resolution smoothed $p\text{CO}_2$
1057 used in the RT correction (downcast = solid black, upcast = solid blue), RTC $p\text{CO}_2$ following
1058 Dølven et al. (2022) (dashed black line = downcast, dashed blue line = upcast), and 1-meter
1059 binned RTC profile (thick red line) with red shading showing the relative uncertainty of 2.5%.
1060 Discrete $p\text{CO}_2^{\text{disc}}$ shown as red diamonds with horizontal red error bars showing combined
1061 standard uncertainty (Orr et al., 2018). Differences between $p\text{CO}_2^{\text{disc}}$ and $p\text{CO}_{2,\text{Seaglider}}^{\text{RTC}}$ are
1062 shown in Table 3.

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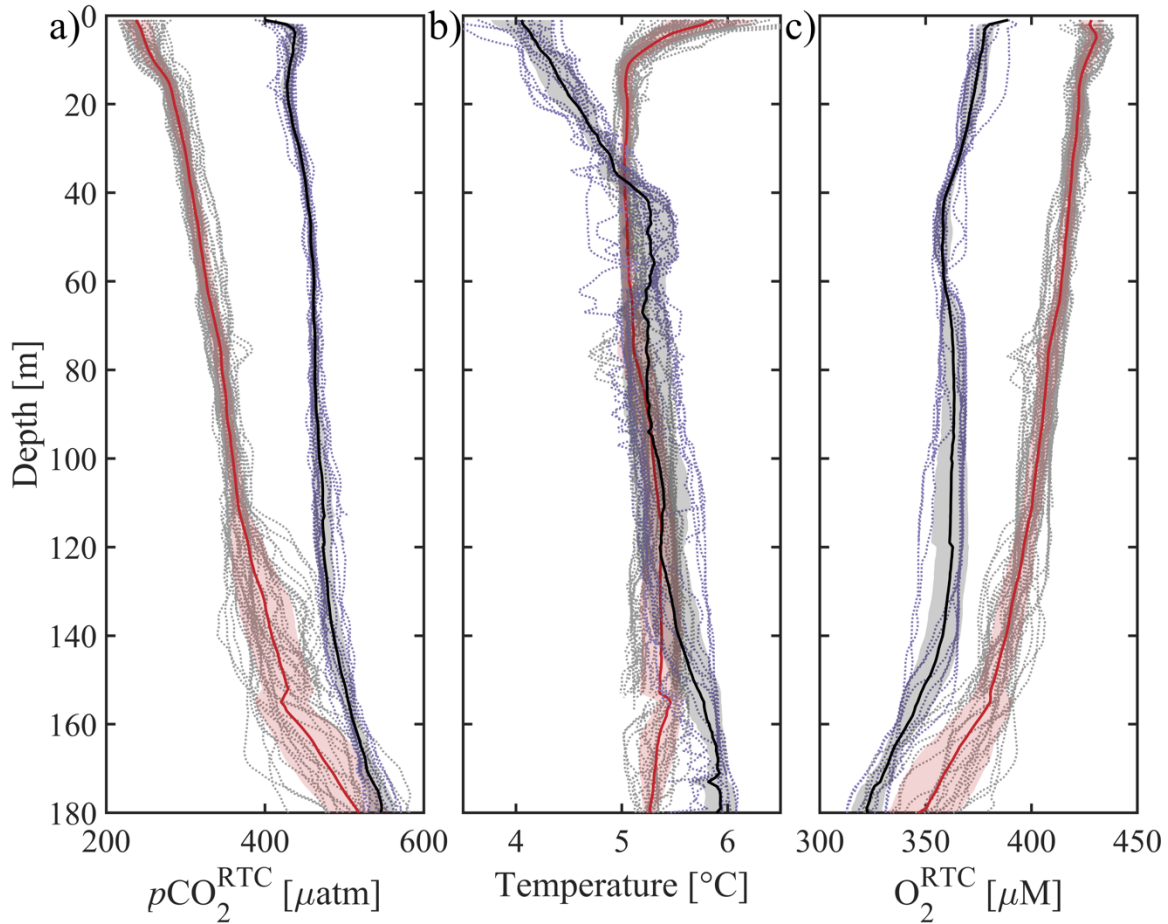
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1066 **Figure 9. CO₂ Seaglider data from a sea trial mission in spring 2022 in Resurrection Bay,**
 1067 **Seward, Alaska.** Depth profiles of a) Temperature [°C], b) RTC $p\text{CO}_2$ [μatm] c) RTC O_2 [μM],
 1068 and d) raw chlorophyll fluorescence. The diamonds show discrete values that were taken during
 1069 a CTD cast (Table 3).

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1073 **Figure 10. Averaged CO₂ Seaglider profiles from May 2022 and February 2023 missions in**

1074 **Resurrection Bay, Seward, Alaska.** Depth profiles of all 1-meter binned dives (dotted gray),

1075 average 1-meter binned dive from May 2022 mission (red thick line, dive#1-51, May 5, 2022

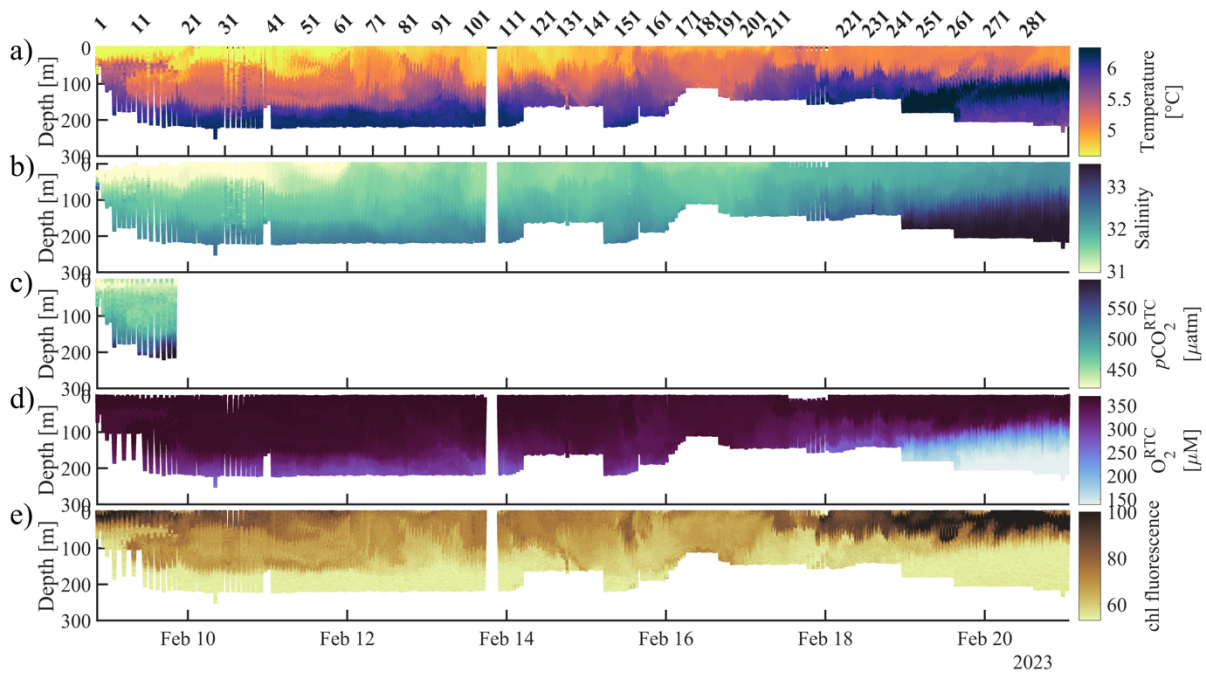
1076 00:01 to May, 7 2022 16:37) and February 2023 mission (black thick line, dive#1-17, February

1077 8, 2023 20:50 to February 9, 2023 19:54) with shading showing the standard deviation of the

1078 values in each bin added and subtracted from the average. a) Response time corrected $p\text{CO}_2$

1079 ($p\text{CO}_2^{\text{RTC}}$, μatm), b) temperature [$^{\circ}\text{C}$], and c) response time corrected oxygen (O_2^{RTC} , μM).

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1082 **Figure 11. CO₂ Seaglider data collected during the winter mission (February 8 - 21, 2023).**

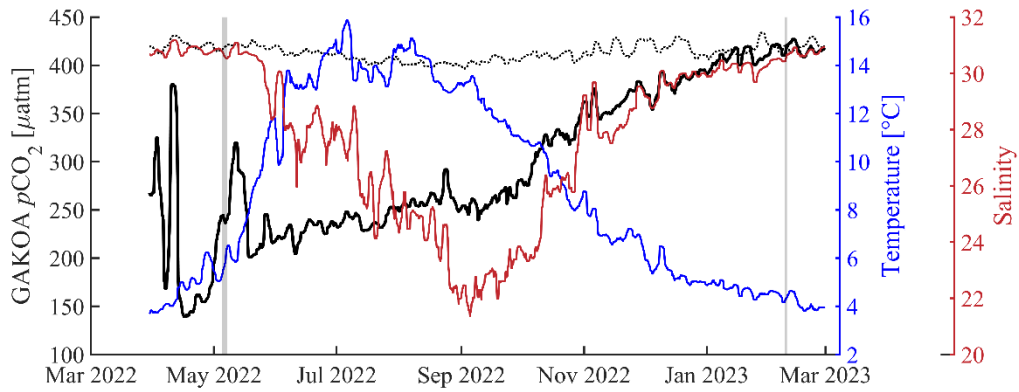
1083 Shown are a) temperature (°C), b) salinity, c) response time corrected $p\text{CO}_2$ ($p\text{CO}_2^{\text{RTC}}$, μatm), d)

1084 response time corrected oxygen (O_2^{RTC} , μM), and e) raw chlorophyll fluorescence (chl

1085 fluorescence) as time/dive number vs. pressure.

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1089 **Figure 12. National Oceanic Atmospheric Administration’s Gulf of Alaska ocean**
 1090 **acidification surface time-series from March 2022 - 2023.** Left axis sea surface (dotted black
 1091 line) and air (black line, 4 meter above sea level) pCO₂ [uatm] and right axes sea surface
 1092 temperature (blue, °C) and sea surface salinity (red). All data shown as 3 day running mean.
 1093 Vertical shaded gray areas highlight the CO₂ Seaglider missions in May 2022 and February
 1094 2023. The mooring is located at 59.911 °N, -149.35 °W (Monacci et al., 2023).

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