

Oceanographic regional climate projections for the Baltic Sea until 2100

H. E. Markus Meier^{1,2}, Christian Dieterich^{2,†}, Matthias Gröger¹, Cyril Dutheil¹, Florian Börgel¹, Kseniia Safonova¹, Ole B. Christensen³ and Erik Kjellström²

¹Department of Physical Oceanography and Instrumentation, Leibniz Institute for Baltic Sea Research Warnemünde, Rostock, 18119, Germany

²Research and Development Department, Swedish Meteorological and Hydrological Institute, Norrköping, 601 76, Sweden

³Danish Climate Center, Danish Meteorological Institute, Copenhagen, Denmark

[†]Deceased

Correspondence to: H.E. Markus Meier (markus.meier@io-warnemuende.de)

Abstract. ~~Recently performed scenario simulations for the Baltic Sea including marine biogeochemistry were analyzed and compared with earlier published projections.~~ The Baltic Sea, located in northern Europe, is a semi-enclosed, shallow and tide-less sea with seasonal sea-ice cover in its northern sub-basins, ~~and its~~ long water residence time ~~causing contributes to~~ oxygen depletion in the bottom water of ~~the its~~ southern sub-basins. ~~With the help of~~ In this study, recently performed scenario simulations for the Baltic Sea including marine biogeochemistry were analysed and compared with earlier published projections. Specifically, dynamical downscaling using a regionally coupled atmosphere-ocean climate model ~~was used to regionalise,~~ four global Earth System Models ~~were regionalized.~~ ~~As~~ However, as the regional climate model does not include components ~~for the representing~~ terrestrial and marine biogeochemistry, an additional catchment and ~~a~~ coupled physical-biogeochemical model for the Baltic Sea were ~~use included.~~ In addition to Previous scenario simulations, ~~and scenarios taking into account~~ the impact of various water levels ~~were scenarios was examined as well.~~ According to the projections, ~~compared to the present climate, suggest~~ higher water temperatures, a shallower mixed layer with ~~a~~ sharper thermocline during summer, ~~reduced less~~ sea-ice cover and ~~intensified greater~~ mixing in the northern Baltic Sea during winter ~~can be expected compared to present climate.~~ Both ~~the~~ frequency and ~~the~~ duration of marine heat waves ~~would will~~ increase significantly, ~~in particular in the coastal zone of the southern Baltic Sea (except in regions with frequent upwellings).~~ Nonetheless, due to the uncertainties in ~~the~~ projections ~~of regarding the regional winds, the water cycle and the global sea level rise, robust and statistically significant salinity changes cannot could not be identified.~~ The impact of ~~a~~ changing climate on biogeochemical cycling is ~~predicted to be~~ considerable but ~~in any cases still~~ smaller than ~~the impact of that of~~ plausible nutrient input changes. Implementing the proposed Baltic Sea Action Plan, a nutrient input abatement plan for the entire catchment area, would result in a significantly improved ecological status of the Baltic Sea, ~~including reductions in the and reduced size of the~~ hypoxic area also in ~~a~~ future climate, ~~strengthening which in turn would increase~~ the resilience of the Baltic Sea against anticipated ~~future~~ climate change. While our findings ~~about regarding~~ changes ~~in in variables of the heat cycle variables~~ mainly confirm earlier scenario simulations, ~~earlier projections for salinity and biogeochemical cycles they~~ differ substantially ~~from earlier projections of salinity and biogeochemical cycles, because of different~~ due to differences in experimental setups and ~~different in~~ bioavailable nutrient input scenarios ~~for bioavailable nutrients.~~

During the time in which preparation of this paper was prepared, shortly before its submission, Christian Dieterich passed away (1964–2021). This sad event marked the end of the life of a distinguished oceanographer and climate scientist who made important contributions to the climate modelling of for the Baltic Sea, North Sea and North Atlantic regions.

1 Introduction

The Baltic Sea is a shallow, semi-enclosed sea with a mean depth of 54 m located in northern Europe (Fig. 1). It has a mean depth of 54 m but due to the its strongly varying bottom topography, the Baltic Sea it can be divided into a number of several sub-basins, with limited transports between sub-basins them (Sjöberg, 1992). In particular, the water exchange between the Baltic Sea and with the North Sea is hampered because of two shallow sills located in narrow channels connecting the Baltic Sea with the North Sea these two water bodies. Thus, large saltwater inflows occur only sporadically, on average once per year, mainly during the winter season but never during summer (Mohrholz, 2018). Furthermore, because the Baltic Sea is embedded into within a catchment area that is about four times larger than the Baltic Sea surface, with a large annual freshwater inputs are large relative to the volume of the Baltic Sea (Bergström and Carlsson, 1994), causing large horizontal and vertical salinity gradients (Fonselius and Valderrama, 2003). The volume of the Baltic Sea is $\sim 21,700 \text{ km}^3$ (Sjöberg, 1992) and the turnover time of the total freshwater supply ($\sim 16,000 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$) is 35 years (Meier and Kauker, 2003). These features contribute to strong horizontal and vertical salinity gradients in the Balti Sea (Fonselius and Valderrama, 2003).

Moreover, due to its location and physical characteristics, especially such as the long water-residence time, the Baltic Sea is vulnerable to external pressures, such as including eutrophication, pollution, or and global warming (e.g., Jutterström et al., 2014). The volume of the Baltic Sea amounts to $21,700 \text{ km}^3$ (Sjöberg, 1992) and consequently the turnover time of the total freshwater supply of about $16,000 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ is 35 years (Meier and Kauker, 2003) is about 40 years. Using Ocean circulation modelling, has shown that the time scale of the salinity response to changes in atmospheric and hydrological forcing was estimated at about is 20 years (Meier, 2006).

In the early 21st century, about Some 85 million people, in 14 countries, currently were living live in the catchment area of the Baltic Sea, representing a considerable and anthropogenic pressure for on the marine ecosystem is accordingly high (HELCOM, 2018). Insufficiently treated wastewater, emissions of pollutant emissions, overfishing, habitat degradation, and intensive marine traffic, including such as oil transport, s put place a heavy burden on the ecosystem of the Baltic Sea ecosystem (Reckermann et al., 2021). One example consequence is the oxygen depletion of the Baltic Sea's deep waters, with the consequence of dead seasuch that bottom areas lacking lack higher forms of life forms (e.g., Carstensen et al., 2014; Meier et al., 2018b). In 2018, the area of the dead bottoms was equal to the size that of the Republic of Ireland, with an area of about $\sim 73,000 \text{ km}^2$, which is about one sixth of the sea surface area of the Baltic Sea. Bottom oxygen of Oxygen depletion in the deeper parts of the Baltic Sea is depleted because of arise from the the limited ventilation of those waters of the deep water and because of the accelerated oxygen consumption due to that accompanies the remineralization of organic matter (Meier et

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al., 2018b). Hence, nutrient input abatement strategies, ~~the so-called~~ such as the Baltic Sea Action Plan (BSAP), ~~were have been discussed proposed~~ (HELCOM, 2007), ~~and with~~ projections ~~of their impact are~~ requested by stakeholders such as the Helsinki Commission (HELCOM) or national environmental protection agencies¹.

Projections ~~for of~~ the Baltic Sea's climate at the end of the 21st century were among the first to be made for coastal seas worldwide (Meier and Saraiva, 2020). Already at the beginning of the 2000s, the first scenario simulations, ~~based upon dynamical downscaling (Fig. 2)~~ were carried out for selected time slices in present and future climates (e.g., Haapala et al., 2001; Meier, 2002a, b; Omstedt et al., 2000; ~~Rummukainen et al., 2004~~). ~~The In the~~ dynamical downscaling approach ~~used for those simulations, utilizes~~ regional climate models (RCMs) ~~were employed~~ to refine ~~the predictions of~~ global climate change to regional and local scales, ~~in this case for of~~ the Baltic Sea (e.g., Rummukainen et al., 2004; Döscher et al., 2002). However, ~~these those~~ first projections were based ~~on scenarios consisting of on~~ a single global climate model (GCM) and a single greenhouse gas (GHG) concentration ~~scenario~~ (150% increase in equivalent CO₂ concentration in the atmosphere in ~~the~~ future ~~climate compared to vs. the~~ historical climate) and only covered 10-year time slices. ~~After These very first initial attempts, were therefore followed by~~ more advanced scenario simulations using mini-ensembles (e.g., Döscher and Meier, 2004; Meier et al., 2004b; Meier et al., 2004a; Räisänen et al., 2004) and centennial-long simulations ~~were carried out~~ (e.g., Meier, 2006; Meier et al., 2006; Meier et al., ~~2011a~~2011c; Table 1). However, the latter studies considered only monthly mean changes ~~of in~~ the future ~~climate compared to vs. the~~ present climate, applying ~~the a~~ so-called delta approach, ~~while~~ neglecting possible changes in inter-annual variability. From these oceanographic studies it was concluded that "mean annual sea surface temperatures (SSTs) could increase by some 2 to 4°C by the end of the 21st century. Ice extent in the sea would then decrease by some 50 to 80%. The average salinity of the Baltic Sea could range between present day values and decreases of as much as 45%. However, it should be noted that these oceanographic findings, with the exception of salinity, are based upon only four regional scenario simulations using two emissions scenarios and two global models" (BACC Author Team, 2008).

For the second assessment of climate change in the Baltic Sea region (BACC II Author Team, 2015), continuously integrated transient simulations from present to future climates became available, ~~and even including included~~ marine biogeochemical modules (e.g., Eilola et al., 2013; Friedland et al., 2012; Gräwe and Burchard, 2012; Gräwe et al., 2013; Gröger et al., 2019; Gröger et al., 2021b; Holt et al., 2016; Kuznetsov and Neumann, 2013; Meier et al., ~~2011a~~2011b; Meier et al., ~~2011b~~2011c; Meier et al., 2012a; Meier et al., 2012c; Meier et al., 2012d; Neumann, 2010; Neumann et al., 2012; Omstedt et al., 2012; Pushpadas et al., 2015; Ryabchenko et al., 2016; Skogen et al., 2014) and higher trophic levels (e.g., Bauer et al., 2019; Ehmsten et al., 2020; Gogina et al., 2020; Holopainen et al., 2016; MacKenzie et al., 2012; Niiranen et al., 2013; Vuorinen et al., 2015; Weigel et al., 2015). The BACC II Author Team (2015) concluded that "recent studies confirm the findings of the first assessment of climate change in the Baltic Sea basin". ~~A Detailed key messages were finding of that their report was that~~ "No clear tendencies in saltwater transport were found. However, the uncertainty in salinity projections is likely to be large due to biases in atmospheric and hydrological models. Although wind speed is projected to increase over sea, especially over areas with diminishing ice cover, no significant trend was found in potential energy ..." (a measure of energy to homogenize the water column). "In accordance with earlier results, it was found that sea-level rise has greater

¹<https://helcom.fi/helcom-at-work/events/events-2021/ccfs-launch/>

118 potential to increase surge levels in the Baltic Sea than does increased wind speed. In contrast to the first BACC
119 assessment (BACC Author Team, 2008), the findings reported in this chapter are based on multi-model ensemble
120 scenario simulations using several GHG emissions scenarios and Baltic Sea models. However, it is very likely that
121 estimates of uncertainty caused by biases in GCMs are still underestimated in most studies” (BACC II Author
122 Team, 2015).

123
124 Since the early 21st century, transient simulations for the period 1960–2100 using regional ocean (Holt et al., 2016;
125 Pushpadas et al., 2015) and regionally coupled atmosphere–ocean models, so-called Regional Climate System
126 Models (RCSMs; Bülow et al., 2014; Dieterich et al., 2019; Gröger et al., 2019; Gröger et al., 2021b), have also
127 been available for the entire, combined Baltic Sea and North Sea system. An overview was given by (Schrum et
128 al., 2016) as part of the North Sea Region Climate Change Assessment Report (NOSCCA, Quante and Colijn,
129 2016) and by Gröger et al. (2021a) within the Baltic Earth Assessment Report (BEAR) project (this thematic
130 issue).

131
132 There is a notable difference in the salinity projections between the first two assessments (BACC Author Team,
133 2008; BACC II Author Team, 2015) and recent scenario simulations (Meier et al., 2021). While the first Baltic
134 Sea scenario simulations, driven by nine RCMs and five GCMs, showed a pronounced negative ensemble mean
135 change in salinity because two of the involved GCMs showed included a significant increase in the mean west
136 wind component (Meier et al., 2006). These, such pronounced changes in the large-scale atmospheric circulation
137 were not observed in a feature of later studies anymore (Saraiva et al., 2019a). However, note that as the natural
138 variability is was poorly sampled, and these finding differences might be just by chance may be coincidental.

139
140 The large spread in river discharge did not decrease between the various studies, ranging between from –8% and
141 to +26% (Meier et al., 2006; 2021). As Since global sea level rise projections were corrected in more recent
142 assessments the projected rates of global sea level rise (SLR) were revised upwards towards higher rates (e.g.,
143 IPCC, 2019a; Bamber et al., 2019), recent scenario simulations for the Baltic Sea also considered a rise in sea level
144 rise (Meier et al., 2021). As a consequence of compensating effects of the competing drivers of salinity changes,
145 i.e. wind, freshwater input and sea level, future salinity changes are were predicted to be only small (Table 2).

146
147 The aim of this study is to In the following, we provide an overview over of the projections performed since 2013,
148 i.e. after the last assessment of climate change for the Baltic Sea basin, and to compare recent results with previous
149 findings by the BACC II Author Team (2015). We focus on projections for the marine environment, both from
150 both physicals and biogeochemical perspectives. stry. Variables such as Among the analysed variables are
151 temperature, salinity, oxygen, phosphate, nitrate, phytoplankton concentration, primary production, nitrogen
152 fixation, hypoxic area and Secchi depth (measuring water transparency) are analyzed. An accompanied
153 accompanying study by Christensen et al. (2021) investigated atmospheric projections in the Baltic Sea region.
154 For an overview on of the development of RCSMs and their applications, the reader is referred to Gröger et al.
155 (2021a). For the In our comparisons between of the various studies of scenario simulations, we analyze analyse
156 only published data (Table 1), with a. We focus the analysis on two recently generated sets of scenario simulations,
157 henceforth called; BalticAPP and CLIMSEA (Table 1, see Saraiva et al., 2019a, b; Meier et al., 2019a; 2021).
158 These are, that we compared with the previous, henceforth called ECOSUPPORT scenario simulations (Meier et

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al., 2014); ~~which were~~ assessed by the BACC II Author Team (2015). ~~Efforts of investigating~~ Investigations of the impact of climate change on ~~the Baltic Sea~~ primary production ~~in the Baltic Sea without utilizing a regional climate model that did not utilise a RCM~~ (Holt et al., 2016; Pushpadas et al., 2015) are not addressed ~~in this study herein~~. ~~nor are~~ Also nutrient input reduction scenarios under present climate, e.g. ~~as~~ described by Friedland et al. (2021); ~~are not considered~~. To our knowledge, further coordinated experiments ~~of aimed at~~ projections for the coupled physical-biogeochemical system of the Baltic Sea after 2013 ~~were have~~ not ~~been~~ published. Uncoordinated scenario simulations performed prior to 2013 (including Ryabchenko et al., 2016) and their uncertainties were previously discussed by Meier et al. (2018a; 2019b).

The paper is ~~organized~~ ~~organised~~ as follows. In Section 2, the dynamical downscaling method, the catchment and Baltic Sea models, the experimental setup and the ~~analysis~~ ~~analytical~~ strategy are introduced. In Section 3, ~~the for~~ historical and future climates results of the three ~~sets of~~ scenario simulations, ECOSUPPORT, BalticAPP and CLIMSEA, are compared. ~~In Tables 1, 3 and 4; provide an overview about of these (Tables 3 and 4) and other (Table 1) scenario simulations from the literature is provided. A consideration of knowledge gaps and a summary of our findings finalize conclude~~ the study. ~~Acronyms used in this study are explained defined in Table 5.~~

2 Methods

2.1 Regionalization-Regionalisation of a changing climate

Dieterich et al. (2019) produced an ensemble of scenario simulations with a coupled RCM, called RCA4-NEMO. ~~RCA4-NEMO, which~~ was introduced by Wang et al. (2015). Gröger et al. (2019; 2021b); and Dieterich et al. (2019) ~~have~~ validated and ~~analyzed~~ ~~analysed~~ the different aspects of the RCA4-NEMO ensemble discussed here ~~in~~. The atmospheric component, RCA4 (~~Rosby Centre Atmosphere model Version 4~~), was run at a resolution of 0.22° ~~degrees~~ and 40 ~~vertical~~ levels in the EURO-CORDEX domain (Jacob et al., 2014), ~~and the~~ ~~Coupled to it is~~ the coupled North Sea-Baltic Sea model NEMO (~~Nucleus for European Modelling of the Ocean~~) at a resolution of two nautical miles (3.7 km) and 56 levels. The two components of the RCM are coupled by sending ~~sea surface data of~~ sea level pressure, energy, mass and momentum fluxes every ~~three hours~~ 3 h from the atmosphere to the ocean ~~model~~. ~~Vice versa~~ Conversely, the atmosphere ~~model~~ receives ~~data of at the same frequency~~ sea and ice surface temperatures and the sea-ice fraction and albedo ~~at the same frequency~~.

This RCM ~~has been~~ ~~was~~ applied to downscale eight different Earth System Models (ESMs), ~~each one~~ driven by three Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs) ~~each~~. For the Baltic Sea projections, four ESMs (MPI-ESM-LR, EC-Earth, IPSL-CM5A-MR, HadGEM2-ES; see Gröger et al. (2019) ~~with and~~ references for the ESMs therein) and the GHG concentration scenarios RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 were selected (Table 3). The four ESMs were part of the Fifth Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP5; Taylor et al., 2012) and their results were assessed ~~by in~~ the Fifth IPCC Assessment Report (AR5; IPCC, 2013).

Surface variables of the atmospheric component were saved at hourly to 6-hourly ~~frequency~~ ~~frequencies~~ to allow for an analysis of means and extremes in present and future climates. As RCA4-NEMO does not contain model

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components for ~~the~~ terrestrial and marine biogeochemistry, two additional models forced with the atmospheric surface fields of RCA4-NEMO, i.e. a catchment and a marine ecosystem model, were employed (Fig. 2).

For the ECOSUPPORT scenario simulations, ~~the~~ dynamical downscaling was performed with the regional Rossby Centre Atmosphere Ocean (RCOA) model (Döscher et al., 2002). RCOA consists of the atmospheric component RCA3 (Samuelsson et al., 2011) and the oceanic component RCO (Meier et al., 2003; Meier, 2007), with horizontal grid resolutions of 25 km and six nautical miles (11.1 km), respectively. In the vertical, the ocean model ~~had~~ has 41 levels with ~~varying~~ layer thicknesses ranging between 3 m close to the surface and 12 m at 250 m depth. The latter was the maximum depth in the model.

2.2 Catchment models

In BalticAPP/CLIMSEA and ECOSUPPORT, ~~t~~he catchment model E-HYPE (Hydrological Predictions for the Environment, <http://hypeweb.smhi.se>), a process-based, high-resolution multi-basin model applied for Europe (Hundecha et al., 2016; Donnelly et al., 2017), and a statistical hydrological model STAT (Meier et al., 2012c), ~~respectively,~~ were respectively applied to calculate river runoff and nutrient inputs under changing climate but without considering land surface changes. ~~While the~~ The statistical model calculates river runoff ~~from as~~ precipitation minus evaporation over the catchment area, ~~river-borne nutrient inputs were~~ are estimated ~~from as~~ the product of a given nutrient concentration and the statistically derived volume flow (Gustafsson et al., 2011; Meier et al., 2012c).

In CLIMSEA, two nutrient input scenarios, defining plausible future pathways of nutrient inputs from rivers, point sources and atmospheric deposition, i.e. the BSAP and reference (REF) scenarios (Saraiva et al., 2019a; b), ~~were~~ are used (Fig. 3). In BalticAPP, nutrient input scenarios followed BSAP, REF and ~~W~~ worst Case (WORST) scenarios (Saraiva et al., 2019a; b; Pihlainen et al., 2020). Finally, in ECOSUPPORT, instead of WORST a business-as-usual (BAU) scenario ~~was~~ is applied (Gustafsson et al., 2011; Meier et al., ~~2011a~~ 2011b).

-In the BSAP scenario in CLIMSEA and BalticAPP, nutrient inputs linearly decrease from ~~the actual~~ current values in 2012 (i.e., the average for 2010–2012) to the maximum allowable input in 2020, defined by the mitigation plan. ~~After that~~ Thereafter, the nutrient inputs remain constant until the end of the century. A similar temporal evolution ~~was~~ is defined in ECOSUPPORT but with a reference period ~~of 1997–2003~~ (Gustafsson et al., 2011; their Fig. 3.1).

-In the REF scenario, in CLIMSEA and BalticAPP, ~~the~~ were ~~are~~ calculated by using E-HYPE, ~~which that~~ considers the impact of changing river flow on nutrient inputs but ~~that neglected~~ neglects any changes in land use or socioeconomic development. These inputs correspond ~~on average~~ approximately to the observed mean inputs during the period 2010–~~2012~~.

-The two additional, above-mentioned scenarios on future projections, BAU and WORST, ~~are~~ note ~~cannot be~~ compared because the corresponding input assumptions differ (see Meier et al., 2018a). However, both are ~~characterized~~ characterised by population growth and intensified agricultural practices such as land cover changes

235 and fertilizer-fertiliser use (HELCOM, 2007; Zandersen et al., 2019; Pihlainen et al., 2020). and are only discussed
236 In this study they are discussed only for the sake of completeness.

237
238 Comparing A comparison of the historical (1980–2005) and future (2072–2097) periods reveals that the
239 reductions in nutrient inputs under the BSAP scenario are smaller in ECOSUPPORT than in BalticAPP and
240 CLIMSEA (Meier et al., 2018a; their Fig. 3). In ECOSUPPORT and BalticAPP/CLIMSEA using the same
241 physical-biogeochemical model RCO-SCOBI, input changes of bioavailable phosphorus amount to –11 ktons
242 (Model A in Meier et al., 2018a) and –34 ktons (Model C in Meier et al., 2018a); respectively (Table 6).
243 Corresponding figures for input changes in bioavailable nitrogen are –230 and –269 ktons. In Table 6, also lists
244 the calculated changes for the other two biogeochemical models in ECOSUPPORT, BALTSEM (Model F in Meier
245 et al., 2018a) and MOM-ERGOM (Model D in Meier et al., 2018a), and for the REF scenarios are listed,
246 confirming. A comparison confirms the considerable differences between ECOSUPPORT and
247 BalticAPP/CLIMSEA scenario simulations. In the next section, the Baltic Sea models are introduced.

248 2.3 Baltic Sea models

249 In this This study, used the data from three different Baltic Sea models were used. The Swedish Coastal and Ocean
250 Biogeochemical model coupled to the Rossby Centre Ocean model coupled physical-biogeochemical ocean model
251 (RCO-SCOBI) was is driven by the atmospheric surface field data calculated by either RCAO or RCA4-NEMO
252 and by the river runoff and nutrient input scenarios derived from either STAT or E-HYPE projections and
253 atmospheric deposition (Fig. 2). Atmospheric depositions were are assumed to be constant at the observed levels
254 during 2010–2012 or reduced as in the BSAP (Fig. 3). RCO is a Bryan-Cox-Semtner-type ocean circulation model
255 with horizontal and vertical grid resolutions of 3.76 km and 3 m; respectively (Meier et al., 1999; 2003; Meier,
256 2001; 2007). SCOBI is a biogeochemical module of the nutrient-phytoplankton-zooplankton-detritus (NPZD)
257 type, considering; it considers state variables such as phosphate, nitrate, ammonium, oxygen concentration, the
258 phytoplankton concentrations of three algal types (diatoms, flagellates and others, cyanobacteria) and detritus
259 (Eilola et al., 2009; Almroth-Rosell et al., 2011; 2015). RCO-SCOBI was has been used in many Baltic Sea climate
260 applications (for an overview see Meier and Saraiva, 2020), evaluated with respect to measurements and compared
261 with other Baltic Sea models (Eilola et al., 2011; Placke et al., 2018; Meier et al., 2018a).

262
263 Also the The Ecological ReGional Ocean Model (ERGOM, see www.ergom.net) is a marine biogeochemical model
264 coupled with an ocean general circulation model and a Hibler-type sea-ice model (MOM, Griffies, 2004); its with
265 about the same complexity is roughly the same as that as of the RCO-SCOBI model. The horizontal resolution of
266 the model is with about ~5.6 km and thus somewhat coarser than in that of RCO-SCOBI but, at least in the surface
267 layer, the its vertical resolution is higher, i.e. 1.5 m in the upper 30 m and below that depth gradually increasing to
268 up to as high as 5 m (Neumann et al., 2012).

269
270 The Baltic sea Long-Term large-Scale Eutrophication Model (BALTSEM) spatially resolves the Baltic Sea
271 spatially into 13 dynamically interconnected and horizontally averaged sub-basins with high vertical resolution
272 (Gustafsson et al., 2012). For further details about of these and other available Baltic Sea ecosystem models the
273 reader is referred to Meier et al. (2018a).

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275 2.4 Scenario simulations

276 In CLIMSEA, we ~~have~~ analysed ~~an the~~ ensemble of 48 RCO-SCOBI scenario simulations for the period 1976–
 277 2098 (Table 3) that was produced following the dynamical downscaling approach described in ~~the~~ Sections 2.1–
 278 2.3 (Fig. 2) and presented ~~by in~~ Meier et al. (2021). ~~Contrary to~~ ~~Unlike in~~ previous studies (Meier et al.,
 279 2011a, 2011b; Saraiva et al., 2019a), the CLIMSEA scenario simulations also consider various scenarios of global
 280 sea level rise (SLR). ~~In the three SLR scenarios starting from the year 2005 that were applied by~~ Meier et al.
 281 (2021) ~~applied three SLR scenarios starting from the year 2005. In these scenarios, by the year 2100 the projected~~
 282 ~~the~~ mean sea level changes relative to the seabed ~~projected by the year 2100 are~~: (scenario 1) 0 m, (scenario 2)
 283 the ensemble mean of RCP4.5 (0.54 m) and RCP8.5 (0.90 m) IPCC projections (IPCC, 2019b; Hieronymus and
 284 Kalén, 2020) and (scenario 3) the 95th percentiles of the ~~low-lowest case~~ (1.26 m, here combined with RCP4.5)
 285 and ~~high-case~~ ~~highest case~~ (2.34 m, here combined with RCP8.5) scenarios following Bamber et al. (2019; Table
 286 3). ~~By A~~ deepening of the water depth at all grid points every 10 years ~~increases~~ the relative sea level linearly
 287 ~~increased~~. The spatially varying land uplift was not considered. For details, the reader is referred to (Meier et al.,
 288 2021).

289
 290 The CLIMSEA ensemble simulations ~~were are~~ compared with earlier ensemble scenario simulations by Meier et
 291 al. (2011a, 2011b; 2012c) and Neumann et al. (2012) ~~using, called (ECOSUPPORT)~~, and by Saraiva et al. (2019a,
 292 b) and Meier et al. (2019a) ~~using, called (BalticAPP)~~. Both ~~sets of scenario simulations, ECOSUPPORT and~~
 293 ~~BalticAPP, applied rely on a similar~~ downscaling approach ~~similar to that as used for in~~ the CLIMSEA projections
 294 (Fig. 2). However, the scenario simulations of ECOSUPPORT ~~were are~~ based upon different global and regional
 295 climate models, three coupled physical-biogeochemical models for the Baltic Sea and previous GHG emission
 296 scenarios as detailed by the Fourth IPCC Assessment Report (AR4; Table 1). Compared to BalticAPP, the
 297 CLIMSEA ensemble ~~was is~~ enlarged by three SLR scenarios (Table 3) whereas previous projections assumed ~~that~~
 298 ~~no change in~~ the mean sea level relative to the seabed ~~will not change~~. The ~~need for including inclusion of~~ SLR
 299 scenarios ~~is based upon followed~~ the finding that the relative sea level above the sills in the entrance area limits the
 300 transport and controls salinity in the entire Baltic Sea (Meier et al., 2017). As the relative SLR during the period
 301 1915–2014 was estimated to be 0–1 mm year⁻¹, resulting from the net effect of past eustatic SLR and land uplift
 302 (Madsen et al., 2019), a ~~lowest-case~~ ~~optimistic~~ scenario for the future would be ~~an unchanged relative a~~ water
 303 level above the sills ~~that is relatively unchanged~~ (Meier et al., 2021). In CLIMSEA, mean and high~~est~~-case
 304 scenarios follow the median values of ~~the~~ RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 ensembles ~~reported by (~~Oppenheimer et al. (2019)
 305 and the 95th percentiles of ~~the~~ ~~lowest-~~ and high~~est~~-case scenarios ~~by of~~ Bamber et al. (2019; Table 3).

306 2.5 Analysis

307 Evaluation of the historical period

308 ~~To evaluate~~ ~~In this study, the~~ model results of the BalticAPP and CLIMSEA scenario simulations during the
 309 historical period ~~were evaluated by calculating the~~, annual and seasonal mean biases during the historical period
 310 ~~between obtained with~~ RCO-SCOBI simulations and reanalysis data (Liu et al., 2017) ~~were calculated~~. Liu et al.
 311 (2017) ~~utilized the Ensemble Optimal Interpolation (EnOI) method to assimilate integrate observed profiles of~~

temperature, salinity and the concentrations of oxygen, ammonium, nitrate and phosphate from determined by the Swedish environmental monitoring program into the RCO-SCOBI model. As the reanalysis data are available for the period 1971–1999, we limited the our bias calculations of biases to 1976–1999, the overlap period between the historical period of the scenario simulations and the reanalysis data. Model data of historical periods of BalticAPP and ECOSUPPORT scenario simulations were evaluated by Saraiva et al. (2019a, b) and Meier et al. (2011a, 2011b; 2012c, d), respectively.

Mixed-layer depth

The mixed-layer depth (MLD) was calculated following de Boyer Montégut et al. (2004), utilizing using a threshold value for the difference between the near-surface water temperature at 10 m depth and the temperature at the MLD of $\Delta T = 0.2^\circ\text{C}$.

Secchi depth

Secchi depth (SD_d) is a measure of water transparency and is calculated from $SD_d = 1.7/k(\text{PAR})$, where $k(\text{PAR})$ is the coefficient of underwater attenuation of the photosynthetically available radiation (Kratzer et al., 2003). Factors controlling $k(\text{PAR})$ in the RCO-SCOBI model were are the concentrations of phytoplankton and detritus. In addition, salinity was is used in one of the other Baltic Sea models (MOM-ERGOM) of the ECOSUPPORT scenario simulations ensemble as a proxy of the spatio-temporal dynamics of coloured dissolved organic matter (CDOM) or yellow substances.

Trends

First, the monthly average of SST was computed from the model output every 48 hours. Then The linear trend was then calculated with using the Theil-Sen estimator (Theil, 1950; Sen, 1968). The trend computed with this method is was the median of the slopes determined by all pairs of sample points. The advantage of this computationally expensive method is that it is much less sensitive to outliers. The significance of the SST trends was evaluated from a Mann-Kendall non-parametric test with a threshold of 95%. The SST trends were computed by season and annually. In this last case In the latter case, the annual cycle is was removed before computing the linear trend was computed.

Following Kniebusch et al. (2019), a we performed a ranking analysis was performed to determine identify the which atmospheric drivers others than air temperature that are most important for the monthly variability of SST in each ESM forcing of the CLIMSEA data set and in both the RCP scenarios; RCP4.5 and RCP8.5. The SST trend is dominated by the trend in air temperature. Thus, to partly eliminate cancel the air temperature effect on SST, the differences between residuals the SSTs and from a linear regression model fitting between the the SSTs and to the surface atmosphere temperatures (SATs) were was calculated was subtracted from the SST. Then This was followed by applying a cross-correlation analysis of the residual SSTs was applied to determine the main factor driving the SST trend. For each grid point and variable (i.e. cloudiness, latent heat flux, and u-v wind components), the explained variance was calculated and the variable explaining the most variance was identified.

Marine heat waves

During the past recent decades, the Baltic Sea region has warmed up faster than either the global mean warming (Rutgersson et al., 2015; Kniebusch et al., 2019) and/or any other coastal sea (Belkin, 2009), making this region it prone to marine heat waves (MHWs). Indeed, short periods of abnormally high water temperatures have recently been documented for the Baltic Sea (Suursaar, 2020). MHWs can be defined with reference to the mean climatology (e.g. the 90th, 95th, 98th percentile temperature) or by temperatures exceeding absolute temperature thresholds, to be defined with respect to the end-user applications (Hobday et al., 2018). In most cases, MHWs are defined by the number of periods, their intensity, and their duration and for the specific purposes (Hobday et al., 2018). In this study, we here only focus on the general impact of climate change addressing and the sensitivity of ecosystem dynamics. Hence, since an appropriate definition of metrics for MHWs suitable for the Baltic is lacking. In the following, MHWs are defined herein as periods of consecutive days with an SST $\geq -20^{\circ}\text{C}$ lasting for at least 10 consecutive days to better reflect the sensitivity of ecosystem dynamics. For comparison, we showed also MHWs defined as periods of SST exceeding the 95th percentile of the SST distribution also lasting for at least 10 consecutive days.

3 Results

3.1 Historical period

3.1.1 Water temperature

The climate of the Baltic Sea region varies considerably, due to maritime and continental weather regimes. For the period 1970–1999, the annual mean SST amounts to was about -7.8°C (Fig. 4). The mean seasonal cycle of the SST is pronounced, and thus, every winter, the northern Baltic Sea, including the Bothnian Bay, Bothnian Sea and the eastern Gulf of Finland, is on average typically covered by sea ice covered every winter (not shown). Due to the its large latitudinal extension, the Baltic Sea is characterized characterised during all seasons throughout the year by a distinct SST difference between the colder northern and warmer southern sub-basins (Fig. 4). In the southern Baltic Sea, there is also a pronounced west–east temperature gradient, mainly during summer and autumn, which reflects the large-scale cyclonic circulation that transports adveets warmer, and more saline southern waters along the eastern coast and colder, less saline northern waters of northern origin at along the western side (see Gröger et al., 2019, their Suppl. Mat. S1; Fig. 4).

On average, during the historical period 1976–2005, the climate in the CLIMSEA climate simulations is warmer are warmer compared to than the climate according to the reanalysis data (Fig. 4). In particular, During spring and summer, the shallow coastal zone of the northern and eastern Baltic Sea is is too warm. The spatially averaged biases during winter, spring, summer, and autumn and in the annual mean amount to are 0.8, 0.9, 0.8, 1.0 and 0.9°C . The reason for the warm bias is likely a bias of the RCSM. If driven by the reanalysis data ERA-40 (Uppala et al., 2005), RCA4-NEMO systematically overestimates water temperatures and underestimates sea-ice cover in the Baltic Sea during for the historical period 1976–2005 (Gröger et al., 2019; their Suppl. Mat. S1).

In the ECOSUPPORT scenario simulations, there is also a systematic warm bias of the RCAO driven by GCMs at the lateral boundaries, particularly resulting in too warm such that winter water temperatures are too warm and

too low sea-ice cover is too low (Meier et al., 2011a, 2011d, 2012c, d). While these biases are occur found in all three applied Baltic Sea models (Table 3) forced with the RCM atmospheric surface fields, in the simulations driven with by regionalized regionalised reanalysis data (ERA-40) showed smaller the mean biases are smaller (Eilola et al., 2011).

3.1.2 Mixed-layer depth

Figure 5 shows the seasonal MLD cycle calculated after de Boyer Montégut et al. (2004). A deeper MLD with pronounced west-east gradients is seen over the characterises the open ocean, with pronounced west-east gradients. This is related to the predominant south-westerly wind regime, with the larger wind fetches and higher significant wave heights in the eastern Gotland Basin causing wave-induced vertical mixing. Furthermore, a positive sea-atmosphere temperature contrast favours favours higher wind speeds ("positive winter thermal feedback loop"; Gröger et al., 2015; 2021b). In spring, a weakening wind regime, which lowering reduces heat exchange (thereby turning from with a shift from heat loss to heat gain), and together with the increased solar irradiance leads to a thinner MLD in the southern Baltic Sea while in the northern part melting sea ice and subsequent thermal convection and wind-induced mixing still maintain a MLDs > 50 m in the sea's northern part. During summer, the when atmosphere-ocean dynamics is are weakest, leading to a pronounced thermocline develops and shallowest-MLDs are shallowest (the so-called "summer thermal short circuit"; Gröger et al., 2021b). During autumn, the atmosphere cools faster than the Earth's surface, and land masses cool faster than the open sea areas. Because of the These increased thermal contrasts differences result in a stronger, the large-scale wind regime strengthens with a positive feedback on the MLD.

The ensemble model mean in CLIMSEA reproduces this these dynamics and the spatial pattern relatively well. During the cold season, however, the MLD is somewhat shallower in the simulation smaller than in the reanalysis data by of Liu et al. (2017). This may be the result of the air-sea coupling. Gröger et al. (2015, 2021b) have demonstrated that the complex thermal air-sea feedbacks in winter are less well represented by stand-alone ocean models do not very well than by represent the complex thermal air-sea feedbacks in winter as fully coupled ocean-atmosphere GCMs. This can result in SST biases and a too-shallow MLDs (Gröger et al., 2015; Figure Fig. 7a therein; Gröger et al., 2021b). However, the real reason causes of for the underestimated winter MLD are unknown.

In the literature, MLDs in the ECOSUPPORT scenario simulations have not been analyzed analysed.

3.1.3 Marine heat waves

Baltic Sea MHWs are here defined herein as periods of >10 days duration with during which 1) the SST higher than is > 20°C and 2) the SST exceed sing the 95th percentile temperature. Figure 6 compares the The CLIMSEA climate model ensemble mean with and the reanalysis data set generated by the same model are compared in Figure 6 (Liu et al., 2017).

The first index for MHW indexes uses a fixed threshold focusing more on that emphasises the environmental impact of the heat waves. In particular, diazotrophic nitrogen fixation becomes effective at higher temperatures. The

spatial pattern of such-MHWs is strongly related to the simulated SST. Figure 6a shows that such periods MHWs are mostly absent in the open sea of the Baltic proper and further north in the Gulf of Bothnia. MHWs, but they are most highly abundant in shallow marginal bays like such as the Gulf of Finland and Gulf of Riga as well as along the coasts. The RCO ensemble mean produces The MHWs produced by the RCO ensemble mean are generally more frequent MHWs and MHWs and of longer duration than those of the reanalysis data set. Furthermore, the coastal signature of high abundance extends more extends further offshore (Fig. 6a). In case of For the Belt Sea and Bay of Lübeck, this leads to considerable deviations from the reanalysis data set.

The second index is based on a reference climatology, which is taken here defined as that of 1976–1999. The number of MHWs (Fig. 6c) correlates is negatively correlated to with their average duration (Fig. 6d). This is somewhat more pronounced in the reanalysis data set. In general, the patterns obtained with the reanalysis data and the RCO show are similar patterns but the amplitude of spatial variance is higher in the reanalysis data former (Fig. 6c), which assimilated as it includes small-scale regional observations. The duration of MHWs In the RCO (Fig. 6d), MHWs is highest in the open sea are of the longest duration, where with wind events are probably the main process interrupting heat waves their interruption likely due to the vertical mixing induced by wind events by induced vertical mixing.

Since MHWs are predominantly a summer phenomenon in the Baltic Sea are predominantly a summer phenomenon, the stability of the seasonal thermocline is likely a key element in the their dynamics of MHWs and such that processes related to favoring vertical mixing can be considered a benchmark in the models ability to simulate MHW their simulation by the models. Taking into account Given that mixing is highly parameterized parameterised in current ocean models, the RCO reproduces the spatial patterns of the number and average duration of MHW reasonably well.

In the literature, MHWs in the ECOSUPPORT scenario simulations have not been analyzed analysed.

3.1.4 Salinity

The annual mean sea surface salinity (SSS) distribution shows a large north–south gradient mirroring both the input of freshwater from rivers, mostly located in the northern catchment area, and saltwater inflows from the North Sea (Fig. 7). The SSS drops from about 20 g kg⁻¹ in the Kattegat to < 2 g kg⁻¹ in the northern Bothnian Bay and eastern Gulf of Finland. For the period 1970–to–1999, the annual mean SSS of the Baltic Sea including the Kattegat amounts to about was ~7.3 g kg⁻¹. Occasionally big Large inflows of heavy saltwater from the Kattegat occasionally ventilate the bottom water of the Baltic Sea, filling its deeper regions (Fig. 7). Due to almost absent As tides are almost absent, mixing is limited and such that the water column is characterized characterised by a pronounced vertical gradient in salinity, and consequently also in density, between the sea surface and the bottom.

Probably due to differences in the data of the hydrological model (E-HYPE) data compared to observations, in the CLIMSEA climate models SSS in the coastal zone and in the Kattegat is on average lower in the CLIMSEA climate models compared to than in the reanalysis data by of Liu et al. (2017) (Fig. 7). The spatially averaged,

annual mean bias amounts to -0.4 g kg^{-1} . In the climate models, Bottom salinities in the Belt Sea, Great Belt area and the Gotland Basin (most pronounced especially in the northwestern part) are considerably higher and in the Bornholm Basin considerably lower in the climate models than in the reanalysis data (Fig. 7). The spatially averaged, annual mean bias amounts to $+0.3 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$. Hence, the vertical stratification in the Belt Sea, Great Belt area and the Gotland Basin is also larger in the climate models than in the reanalysis data, because the difference between surface and bottom salinities is a good proxy for the vertical stratification.

In the ECOSUPPORT scenario simulations, in the entire Baltic Sea SSS was overestimated in the entire Baltic Sea, in particular in the northern and eastern Baltic Sea regions (Meier et al., 2011b, 2011c; 2012c). In the northern and eastern Baltic Sea both, also the ensemble mean bottom salinity and vertical stratification were also overestimated while the bottom salinity in the eastern Gotland Basin was well reproduced (Meier et al., 2012c).

3.1.5 Sea level

Due to the seasonal cycle in wind speed, with wind directions predominantly from the southwest, the sea level in the Baltic Sea varies considerably throughout the year, with the highest sea levels of about ($\sim 40 \text{ cm}$), measured relative to the Kattegat, occurring during winter, at the northern coasts in of the Bothnian Bay and at the eastern coasts in of the Gulf of Finland (Fig. 7). For the period 1976 to 1999, the annual mean sea level in the Nordic height system 1960 (NH60) as determined by Ekman and Mäkinen (1996) amounts to about $\sim 16 \text{ cm}$, with a horizontal north-south difference of about $\sim 35 \text{ cm}$ (not shown). This sea level slope is explained by the lighter brackish water in the northeastern Baltic Sea compared to that in the Kattegat and by the mean wind coming from the southwesterly direction, which pushes the water to the north and to the east (Meier et al., 2004a).

The differences in the mean sea level between the CLIMSEA climate models and the reanalysis data are small (Fig. 7) and the spatially averaged, winter mean bias amounts to only $+0.6 \text{ cm}$ only. Sea levels in some parts of the coastal zone such as the western Bothnian Sea are higher in the climate models compared to that in the reanalysis data, probably due to lower salinities. The negative sea level bias in the eastern Gotland Basin suggests an intensified, basin-wide cyclonic gyre. The seasonal cycle of the ensemble mean sea level is relatively well simulated, but with an overestimated sea level in early spring and an underestimated sea level in summer at all investigated tide gauge locations compared to both observations and to a hindcast simulation driven by regionalized ERA40 data (Fig. 8).

In the ECOSUPPORT scenario simulations, sea levels were not systematically analyzed. In one of the three models (RCO-SCOB1), seasonal mean biases were comparable to the biases in the CLIMSEA scenario simulations were found (Meier et al., 2011a).

3.1.6 Oxygen concentration and hypoxic area

Since the 1950s, nutrient inputs into the Baltic Sea have increased due to population growth and intensified fertilizer-fertiliser use in agriculture (Gustafsson et al., 2012; Fig. 3). Nutrient inputs reached their peak in the 1980s and but have steadily declined thereafter until the early 21st century as a consequence of following the

implementation of nutrient input abatement strategies. Nonetheless, since the 1960s, the bottom water of the Baltic Sea below the permanent halocline ~~is has been characterized-characterised~~ by oxygen depletion and large-scale hypoxia (Figs. 9 and 22).

~~Following-Consistent with the~~ stratification biases in the deeper sub-basins of the Baltic Sea, summer bottom oxygen concentrations in the Bornholm ~~B-basin are higher~~ and ~~those in the~~ Gotland ~~B-basins in~~ CLIMSEA/BalticAPP climate simulations ~~are higher and lower, respectively, in the CLIMSEA/BalticAPP climate simulations compared to than in~~ the reanalysis data ~~by of~~ Liu et al. (2017) (Fig. 9). ~~Hence, The~~ stronger vertical stratification, ~~especially at the halocline depth~~, hampers vertical fluxes of oxygen, causing prolonged residence times and lower bottom oxygen concentrations, ~~especially at the halocline depth of the Gotland Basin~~. Spatially averaged biases during winter, spring, summer, ~~and~~ autumn and ~~in~~ the annual mean are small but systematic; ~~and amount to -0.6, -0.7, -0.7, -0.5 and -0.6 mL L⁻¹ respectively.~~

In ~~the~~ ECOSUPPORT scenarios, the ensemble mean deep-water oxygen concentrations in the eastern Gotland Basin ~~and in the Gulf of Finland were is~~ slightly higher (but within the range of natural variability) and ~~that in the~~ Gulf of Finland significantly lower ~~compared to than determined from~~ observations, ~~respectively~~ (Meier et al., 2011a; 2012d).

3.1.7 Nutrient concentrations

Nutrients (i.e., phosphorus and nitrogen) ~~content~~ in the surface layer during winter ~~is are~~ a good indicator ~~for of~~ the intensity of the following spring bloom. ~~Highest-Sea-surface mean winter~~ concentrations ~~of winter mean of~~ phosphate and nitrate ~~are found are~~ highest in the coastal zone, in particular close to the mouths of the large rivers in the southern Baltic Sea that transport elevated inputs of nutrients into the sea (Fig. 9).

~~During-For~~ the historical period ~~of~~ 1976–1999, winter surface phosphate concentrations ~~in according to the~~ climate simulations are relatively close to ~~those of the~~ reanalysis data (Fig. 9). ~~The Considerably d~~ Different concentrations ~~are only differ substantially found only in those~~ coastal regions influenced by large rivers ~~probably due to differing inputs~~. Such regions are, for instance, ~~such as the coastal zone those~~ affected by ~~the~~ discharges of the Odra, Vistula and Pärnu rivers. Spatially averaged biases are largest during summer and autumn, ~~with an average bias and in summer amounted to of~~ +0.2 mmol P m⁻³ ~~in summer~~.

~~Similarly Likewise, simulated~~ winter surface nitrate concentrations ~~in the simulations~~ are close to ~~those in the~~ reanalysis data but ~~differed in~~ coastal regions ~~they differ~~ due to differences ~~in the~~ inputs from large rivers (Fig. 9). ~~This is exemplified by: In particular, larger differences are found in the~~ Gulf of Riga and ~~in the~~ eastern Gulf of Finland, ~~where the large differences between them are due to inputs influenced by from~~ the Neva River. Spatially averaged biases during winter, spring, summer, autumn and ~~in~~ the annual mean are rather small but systematic; ~~and amount to -1.1, -1.3, -0.5, -0.7 and -0.9 mmol N m⁻³ respectively.~~

In ~~the~~ ECOSUPPORT scenario simulations, ~~the~~ simulated profiles of phosphate, nitrate and ammonium ~~were are~~ within the range of observations ~~during for~~ 1978–2007, except ~~for in the case of~~ phosphate in the Gulf of Finland

(Meier et al., 2012d). According to hindcast simulations, ~~the biases in the~~ coupled physical-biogeochemical models ~~for of~~ the Baltic Sea ~~showed larger biases~~ relative to the standard deviations of observations ~~are larger in for~~ the northern Baltic Sea than ~~in for~~ the Baltic proper (Eilola et al., 2011).

3.1.8 Phytoplankton concentrations

During the period 1976–to 1999, ~~high concentrations of dense~~ phytoplankton blooms were confined to the coastal zone, ~~i.e.~~ the area with the highest nutrient concentrations (Fig. 10). Water transparency, measured by Secchi depth, is lower in the Baltic Sea ~~compared to than in~~ the open ocean (Fleming-Lehtinen and Laamanen, 2012), ~~and~~ for the period 1970–to 1999, the annual mean Secchi depth averaged for the entire Baltic Sea, including the Kattegat, ~~amounts to about was only ~6.6 m only. In the coastal zone,~~ The Secchi depth ~~is is also~~ much smaller ~~in the coastal zone~~ than in the open Baltic Sea (Fig. 10), ~~and Also~~ in the northern Baltic Sea, ~~Secchi depth is smaller~~ than in the Gotland Basin, ~~due attributable~~ to yellow substances originating from land (Fleming-Lehtinen and Laamanen, 2012).

~~Following Due to~~ nutrient concentration biases, ~~the simulated~~ annual mean surface phytoplankton concentrations ~~of the simulations~~ are close to ~~those of the~~ reanalysis data ~~by of~~ Liu et al. (2017) but ~~they~~ deviated in coastal regions (Fig. 10). Spatially averaged biases during winter, spring, summer, ~~and~~ autumn and ~~in~~ the annual mean are ~~relatively rather~~ small; ~~and amount to~~ +0.02, -0.1, -0.009, +0.06 and -0.008 mg ~~chlorophyll (Chl)~~ m^{-3} , ~~respectively. Note that in the reanalysis by data of Liu et al. (2017) assimilate incorporate nutrient and oxygen concentrations were assimilated but not chlorophyll data.~~

Similar results are ~~also~~ found for the mean biases ~~of in the~~ simulated Secchi depths (Fig. 10). ~~Furthermore, Secchi depths~~ In climate simulations, ~~Secchi depths~~ are systematically deeper in the regions south of Gotland ~~island and in at~~ the entrance to the Gulf of Finland (northeastern Gotland Basin) ~~than elsewhere in the Baltic Sea~~. Spatially averaged biases during winter, spring, summer ~~and~~ autumn and ~~in~~ the annual mean ~~amount to are~~ +0.2, +0.4, +0.06, +0.1 and +0.2 m; ~~respectively.~~

Compared to ~~the~~ Secchi depth data from HELCOM (HELCOM, 2013; their Table 4.3) and ~~Savchuk et al. ((Savchuk et al., 2006; their Table 3),~~ the CLIMSEA climate simulations under- and overestimate ~~the~~ Secchi depth in the southwestern and northern Baltic Sea; respectively, while in the Gotland Basin ~~the~~ model results ~~well fit the~~ observations ~~well~~ (Meier et al., 2019a).

In ~~the~~ ECOSUPPORT scenario simulations, Secchi depth ~~has not been is was not~~ ~~analyzed relative to compared~~ ~~with~~ observations.

3.1.9 Biogeochemical fluxes

An evaluation of biogeochemical fluxes, such as primary production and nitrogen fixation, is difficult because ~~of~~ ~~lacking~~ observations ~~are lacking~~. An exception is the study by Hieronymus et al., (2021), ~~who compared in which~~ historical simulations ~~were compared with~~ RCO-SCOB1 ~~were compared with in situ observations of nitrogen fixation. The RCO-SCOB1 model latter includes including~~ a cyanobacteria life cycle (CLC) model (Hense and

Beckmann, 2006; 2010) driven by reconstructed atmospheric and hydrological data ~~and combined with in situ observations of nitrogen fixation~~. Hieronymus et al. (2021) The authors found a satisfactory agreement, with the results mainly within the uncertainty range of the observations. However, simulated monthly mean nitrogen fixation during 1999–2008 showed a prolonged peak period in July and August ~~while-whereas according to the observations showed at the~~ peak ~~was more-mostly~~ confined to July. However, ~~it~~ should be noted that the RCO-SCOBI version ~~that has been used for~~ ~~used in the~~ scenario simulations discussed here (e.g., Saraiva et al., 2019a) ~~does~~ not contain a CLC model.

3.2 Future period

3.2.1 Water temperature

Annual and seasonal mean changes

In Figures 11 and 12 ~~and Table 7~~, annual and seasonal mean SST changes between 1976–2005 and 2069–2098 in RCO-SCOBI are depicted ~~and quantified, respectively~~. The maximum seasonal warming signal propagates between winter and summer from the Gulf of Finland via the Bothnian Sea into the Bothnian Bay (Fig. 11). Maximum warming occurs during summer in the Bothnian Sea and Bothnian Bay. ~~Comparing The seasonal patterns of~~ RCP4.5 and RCP8.5, ~~seasonal patterns~~ are similar although the warming is greater in ~~RCP8.5 compared to RCP4.5 the latter~~. As The SLR has almost no impact on SST changes. Hence, BalticAPP and CLIMSEA scenario simulations ~~yield similar~~ results ~~are similar~~ (not shown). The warming ~~level in according to~~ ECOSUPPORT is ~~in~~ between ~~the that predicted by~~ CLIMSEA/BalticAPP RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 results because the GHG emissions of the A1B scenario, which forces the ECOSUPPORT ensemble², are ~~in~~ between ~~those of~~ the RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios.

In the CLIMSEA/BalticAPP RCM projections, the annual mean SST changes in the Baltic Sea driven by four ESMs, i.e. MPI-ESM-LR, EC-EARTH, IPSL-CM5A-MR, HadGEM2-ES, under the RCP8.5 scenario ~~amount to~~ ~~+2.327~~, ~~+3.70~~, ~~+3.52~~ and ~~+4.67~~°C ~~respectively~~ (Gröger et al., 2019). Thus, the ensemble mean change is ~~+3.54~~°C. The corresponding ensemble mean change in the RCO-SCOBI scenario simulations is smaller, ~~and amount to~~ ~~+2.92~~°C. Different MLDs, vertical stratification and sea-ice cover in the two ocean models, RCO-SCOBI and NEMO, may explain the different responses. Indeed, ~~the a~~ comparison of the MLD between the two models reveals a ~~systematic~~ shallower MLD in the RCM ~~compared to than in~~ RCO-SCOBI (not shown), which ~~would argue~~ for a higher sensitivity of the RCM to climate warming.

While the spatial patterns of the SST changes in the scenario simulations of ECOSUPPORT (e.g., Meier et al., 2012c) and CLIMSEA (e.g., Saraiva et al., 2019b) ~~scenario simulations~~ are similar. However, the uncertainties due to the applied global (Meier et al., 2011a) or regional (Meier et al., 2012b) model ~~might be~~ in some cases considerable. ~~In particular~~ Of note is the summer ensemble range ~~caused by of the~~ various GCMs is

²One of the scenario simulations of ECOSUPPORT ~~was is~~ driven by the ~~generally warmer~~ A2 scenario, which due to higher GHG emissions ~~compared to is~~ ~~generally warmer than the~~ A1B scenario. However, this particular simulation of the ECHAM5—MPIOM GCM is exceptional and at the end of the 21st century the temperature is not much warmer than ~~that obtained with~~ the corresponding run ~~with based on~~ the same model under the A1B scenario.

notable significant (Meier et al., 2011a, 2011b). The differences in the magnitude of the warming are explained by the various GHG concentration scenarios (shown in Fig. 12).

Trends

Since SLR and nutrient input scenarios have a negligible impact on SST changes, only a comparison between the RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios in CLIMSEA/BalticAPP has been done and are compared. The multi-model mean of the annual mean SST trends averaged over the Baltic Sea is about $-0.18^{\circ}\text{C K decade}^{-1}$ and $-0.35^{\circ}\text{C K decade}^{-1}$ in the RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios, respectively (Fig. 13a, f). At the Baltic Sea scale, seasonal SST trends from based on annual values vary only slightly ($\pm 0.01^{\circ}\text{C K decade}^{-1}$ in both scenarios). However at the sub-basin scale, seasonal variations are much stronger, reaching $\pm 0.05^{\circ}\text{C K decade}^{-1}$ in the northern Baltic Sea, with a maximum in summer (Fig. 13). This summer maximum in the northern Baltic Sea can likely be explained by the projected decline in sea-ice cover in this season summer, as occurred during the period 1850–2008 period (Kniebusch et al., 2019).

As seen in Figure 14, the relative SST trends indicate that faster warming of the northern Baltic Sea will warm faster than the southern Baltic Sea ($0.02^{\circ}\text{C K decade}^{-1}$ and $0.04^{\circ}\text{C K decade}^{-1}$ in the RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios, respectively), with the largest trends, calculated over the entire period 2006–2099, reaching $\sim 0.24^{\circ}\text{C K decade}^{-1}$ and $\sim 0.45^{\circ}\text{C K decade}^{-1}$ in RCP4.5 and RCP8.5, respectively. However, a calculation of the SST trends by 30-year slice periods every 10 years over the entire period shows that annual SST trends are variable over time (not shown). The natural variability appears to modulate these trends, with successive periods of increasing and decreasing SST trends with over a period of about 30 years. For example, however, in the RCP8.5 scenario, SST trends gradually increase over the first 50 years of the period, reaching a maximum of $0.5^{\circ}\text{C K decade}^{-1}$ over the period between 2046 and 2075, before declining slightly from 2060 onwards. As in the RCP4.5 scenario, this is a result of the pronounced natural variability in this scenario as well. Despite the robustness of the spatial pattern of the SST trends (spatial pattern (p-value < 0.05 everywhere), the an analysis of SST trends for the four ESM forcings reveals an important dependency of SST trends on atmospheric forcings, with a spread of $\pm 0.06^{\circ}\text{C K decade}^{-1}$ from the multi-model mean in both scenarios (not shown).

At an annual timescale, it is well known that the variability of the air temperature, through the sensible heat fluxes, is the main driver of the Baltic Sea's SST (Kniebusch et al., 2019), as illustrated here by the high variance of SST explained by air temperature between of these two variables (between 0.85 and 0.95, Fig. 15). The minimum of variance explained is located in the Bothnian Bay, where the sea-ice cover isolates seawater from the air in winter.

To analyze the processes responsible for the SST trends were analysed using a rank analysis from of atmospheric variables (i.e. latent heat fluxes, cloud cover, and u-v wind components) was performed following Kniebusch et al. (2019; Fig. 16). The second parameter (after SAT) explaining the variability of in the SST differs according to the location and ESM. Nevertheless, in all ESMs and in both RCP scenarios, zonal and meridional wind components are the variables most correlated that best correlate with SST along most of the coastal areas, probably because of upwelling. In the open sea of the Baltic proper and in the Bothnian Bay, the second most important variable is cloudiness. This is also the case in the Bothnian Sea under the RCP4.5 scenario. However,

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in the RCP8.5 the second most important variable is at this location is the latent heat flux. The difference might be explained by is perhaps due to the absence of complete melting of the sea ice under RCP8.5, amplifying and therefore the amplified air-sea exchange, under RCP8.5.

In the vertical, temperature trends are largest in the surface layer compared to than in the Baltic Sea winter water of the Baltic Sea above the halocline, thus causing a more intense seasonal thermocline (see Section 3.2.2) with in which the largest trends are largest in spring and summer (not shown). Elevated trends are also found in the also characterise deep water, due to the influence of saltwater inflows that will be warmer in a future climate because the inflows they originate from the shallow entrance area and occur mainly in winter. Hence, the deep water below the halocline in those sub-basins that are sporadically ventilated by lateral saltwater inflows, such as the Bornholm Basin and the Gotland Basin, the deep water below the halocline will warm more than the overlaying intermediate layer water.

In the literature, trends in ECOSUPPORT scenario simulations were have not been analyzed analysed.

3.2.2 Mixed-layer depth

In Figure 17 shows the changes in the MLD are shown. During winter, reduced sea-ice cover in the Bothnian Sea and Bothnian Bay favours a widespread deepening of the MLD, in the Bothnian Sea and Bothnian Bay likely caused by wind-induced mixing, favours a widespread deepening of their MLDs. In spring, the most pronounced feature is a strong shallowing of the MLD in the Bothnian Sea, probably likely caused by attributable to the radiative fluxes that warm the surface layer and to less thermal convection (Hordoir and Meier, 2012). During the historical period, water temperatures are between 2.0 and 3.0 °C in this area were between 2.0 and 3.0 °C (Fig. 4). Thus, in the future, so surface water warming between 1.6 and 2.4 °C (Fig. 11) may hamper thermal convective mixing, in future.

The changes during summer are less pronounced. Contrary-In contrast to winter, there is an overall shallowing in the entire Baltic Sea is found. This is in agreement with a shallower, and more intense thermocline in warming scenarios, as suggested by Gröger et al. (2019), and it is a common feature among the projections, because the changes in wind speed are small (Christensen et al., 2021). The Autumn is primarily characterized characterised by a prolongation of the thermal stratification, leading to an overall shallower MLD compared to than during the historical period.

It was While (Hordoir et al., (-2018; 2019)- speculated that these changes in thermocline depth during summer might have an will impact on the vertical overturning circulation (Hordoir et al., 2018; 2019). However, the meridional overturning circulation in the Baltic proper does not show a clear signal but rather a northward expansion of the main overturning cell (Gröger et al., 2019). Indeed, the effect is expected to be small (Placke et al., 2021).

3.2.3 Marine heat waves

Figure 18 shows The number of MHWs within climatological 30-year time slices is shown in Figure 18. Under conditions of the historical climate conditions, MHWs are virtually absent in open ocean areas. They are most frequent in shallow regions and more abundant along the eastern (Baltic States) compared to the western (Swedish) coasts, which may reflect that the greater frequency of coastal upwelling events occur more frequent along the western compared to the eastern Baltic Sea coasts of the Baltic Sea. Even Already under the RCP4.5 scenario, wide areas of the Baltic proper are affected by MHWs roughly once a year. The strongest response is projected for the high-emission RCP8.5 scenario, and specifically in marginal basins like such as the Gulf of Riga or and the Gulf of Finland, where in the future MHWs would will occur 2–3 two or three times per year in future. Not only the frequency but also the average duration of the MHWs will increase with climate warming. Under RCP8.5, even in the open Gulf of Bothnia MHWs of ~20 days duration would will occur in even in the open Gulf of Bothnia future (Fig. 18). The This increase in MHWs in the Baltic Sea is likewise linked to an increased frequency of tropical nights in the Baltic Sea (Meier et al., 2019a; Gröger et al., 2021b).

Another way to analyze MHWs is to calculate can also be analysed by calculating them with respect to the 95th percentile temperature of the historical reference climate (Fig. 19). For the historical climate, the average duration of such periods MHWs is are in most regions less than is < 20–30 days, although in In the southern Baltic Sea, especially west of the Baltic proper, they MHWs are more frequent. The However, the climate change signal is characterized characterised by more frequent MHWs that are both more frequent and of longer duration. Already In RCP4.5, MHWs in the Baltic Sea occur at least every year. The strongest increase in frequency is near the coasts, whereas but their the average duration increases increases less compared to than in the open sea (Fig. 19). This is probably related to repeated cold-water entrainments from the open sea that interrupt warm periods because of the larger variability of in the coastal zone compared to than in the open sea. In addition, with their lower heat storage capacity, shallow areas are, due to their lower heat storage, more sensitive to cold weather events and the associated oceanic heat loss.

3.2.4 Salinity

In the CLIMSEA ensemble, salinity changes are not robust, i.e. the ensemble spread is larger than the signal (Meier et al., 2021). Under both RCP4.5 and RCP8.5, the ensemble mean salinity change signal is small compared to the ensemble spread because the impact on salinity of the projected increase in total river runoff from the entire catchment (Fig. 3) on salinity is approximately compensated by the impact of larger saltwater inflows due to the projected SLR (Table 8 not shown). The results would be about the same if only the IPCC mean SLRs are considered. Hence, compared to previous studies such as those by Meier et al. (2014a, 2011b; ECOSUPPORT) and Saraiva et al. (2019a; BalticAPP; Fig. 12), the ensemble mean salinity changes in CLIMSEA are much smaller (Table 8 not shown), and it is impossible to judge whether these changes will be positive or negative. In idealized sensitivity experiments performed with the RCO-SCOB1 model for the period 1850–2008 (Meier et al., 2017; 2019d), suggested that the change in the average Baltic Sea salinity (1988–2007) linearly increases linearly with sea level rise SLR with and at a rate of about ~1.4 g kg⁻¹ m⁻¹ (Table 9).

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729 3.2.5 Sea level

730 Following global sea level changes, SLR in the Baltic Sea will accelerate ~~in future~~ (Hünicke et al., 2015; Church
731 et al., 2013; Bamber et al., 2019; Oppenheimer et al., 2019; Weisse and Hünicke, 2019), albeit ~~at a~~ somewhat
732 slower ~~rate~~ than the global mean because of the remote impact of the melting Antarctic ice sheet (Grinsted, 2015).
733 ~~Changes in SLR in the North Atlantic (and the Baltic Sea) would will be larger resulting from in response to the~~
734 ~~melting of the Antarctic ice sheet compared to than to the melting of Greenland, due to gravitational effects.~~ For a
735 mid-range scenario, ~~Baltic SLR in the Baltic Sea~~ is projected to be ~87% of the global mean (Pellikka et al., 2020).
736 ~~Further,~~ Land uplift ~~will~~ partly compensates for the eustatic SLR, in particular in the northern Baltic Sea (e.g.; Hill
737 et al., 2010). In RCP2.6 and RCP8.5, the global mean sea level in 2100 is 43 cm and 84 cm higher, ~~respectively,~~
738 ~~compared to than during~~ the period 1986–2005 (Oppenheimer et al., 2019). For these two scenarios, likely ranges
739 ~~amount to are~~ 29–59 cm and 61–110 cm, ~~respectively.~~ ~~Assessing the ice sheet dynamics in more detail,~~ Bamber et
740 al. (2019) ~~assessed ice sheet dynamics in detail and subsequently estimated for low and high case scenarios~~
741 global-median SLRs ~~in 2100~~ of 69 cm and 111 cm ~~for low- and high-case scenarios in 2100,~~ respectively. ~~They~~
742 ~~found~~ Likely ranges ~~according to the authors of were~~ 49–98 cm and 79–174 cm and very likely ranges ~~of~~ 36–126
743 cm and 62–238 cm.

744
745 In BalticAPP and CLIMSEA scenario simulations, sea level changes are small (Fig. 12, ~~Table 8~~). ~~On the other~~
746 ~~hand,~~ sea level changes ~~whereas~~ in ECOSUPPORT scenario simulations ~~they~~ are larger, particularly in spring,
747 because one member of the multi-model ensemble considered ~~Archimedes' principle~~ (not shown). Note that ~~in~~
748 ~~Figure 12 the~~ sea level changes ~~shown in Figure 12~~ consider only changing river runoff, changing wind, and
749 melting sea ice ~~as~~ affecting the sea level ~~via according to~~ Archimedes' principle (only in the ECOSUPPORT
750 ensemble); ~~as whereas neither~~ the global mean SLR ~~and nor~~ land uplift ~~are not is~~ included, ~~and they~~ have to be
751 added (e.g.; Meier, 2006; Meier et al., 2004a).

752
753 In CLIMSEA, ~~there are no statistically significant pronounced~~ seasonal changes ~~relative to in~~ the SLR ~~do not exist~~
754 (Fig. 20). In both GHG concentration scenarios, ~~the~~ largest changes ~~of are~~ only about ± 5 cm ~~were found.~~ ~~According~~
755 ~~to these results,~~ ~~confirm that~~ systematic changes in the regional wind field ~~are small~~ (Christensen et al., 2021) ~~and~~
756 ~~Nonlinear effects are negligible small as well, i.e. mean sea level changes do not significantly differ between~~
757 ~~various SLR scenarios (not shown).~~ ~~Instead, in the projections, the mean absolute sea level in the Baltic Sea simply~~
758 ~~follows the mean sea level in the North Atlantic. However, the spatially inhomogeneous isostatic adjustment~~
759 ~~considerably will considerably~~ alter patterns of sea level changes relative to the sea floor.

760
761 ~~Due In response~~ to the global mean SLR, ~~the~~ sea level extremes in the Baltic Sea that are rare today will become
762 more common in the future (e.g.; Hieronymus and Kalén, 2020). However, changes in sea level extremes relative
763 to the mean sea level ~~are statistically will not be statistically~~ significant because wind velocities are projected to
764 remain unchanged (Christensen et al., 2021). ~~Exceptions are areas with sea ice decline because the planetary~~
765 ~~boundary will get less stable and wind speeds will increase (Meier et al., 2011b): The~~

766
767 ~~Exceptions are areas with sea ice decline since they are linked to a decreased in atmospheric stability~~
768 ~~accompanied by increased wind velocities, which follows from the result of increased in temperature and increased~~
769 ~~turbulent fluxes (Meier et al., 2011bc). These increases will mostly relate to translate as changes from calm to light~~

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wind conditions ~~whenas~~ the stable atmospheric boundary layer ~~getsbecomes~~ less stable. For stronger wind conditions related to high sea-level extremes, the impact of stratification effects on mixing is small. In addition, open water areas after sea-ice loss have a smaller surface roughness ~~compared-tothan~~ ice-covered areas, ~~alsowith~~ the reduced surface friction leading to an increase in wind velocities ~~because-of-reduced-surface-friction~~.

As sea level extremes also depend on the path of low-pressure systems (Lehmann et al., 2011; Suursaar and Sooäär, 2007), ~~which-that do-not-show-systematic-changes-in a~~ future climate ~~do not show systematic changes~~ (Christensen et al., 2021), changes in sea level extremes relative to the mean sea level are not expected. In addition, a large internal variability at low frequencies prevents the detection of climate-warming-related changes in sea level extremes (Lang and Mikolajewicz, 2019).

3.2.6 Oxygen concentration and hypoxic area

Bottom oxygen concentration

Projected ~~changes in~~ bottom oxygen concentrations ~~changes~~ differ considerably between ECOSUPPORT and BalticAPP/CLIMSEA scenario simulations, as illustrated for summer (Fig. 21, Table 10), whereas the differences between ~~the~~ BalticAPP (SLR = 0 cm) and CLIMSEA (SLR > 0 cm) scenarios are ~~relatively~~ smaller (Meier et al., 2021). The differences between ~~the~~ ECOSUPPORT and BalticAPP ensembles mainly reflect the different experimental setups of the simulations and the different nutrient input scenarios (Meier et al., 2018a). While in ~~the~~ shallow regions without a pronounced halocline future bottom oxygen concentrations decrease in all scenario simulations, due to ~~the the-reduced~~ lower oxygen saturation concentrations, in the deeper offshore regions with a halocline, changes in bottom oxygen concentration depend largely on the ~~applied~~ nutrient input scenario (Fig. 21). In ECOSUPPORT scenario simulations, ~~the~~ future bottom oxygen concentration decreases ~~significantly~~ in all scenarios ~~significantly~~ except under ~~the~~ BSAP, where ~~the-bottom-oxygen-concentrations-in the~~ deeper regions ~~it~~ ~~changes~~ only slightly ~~change~~ on average (cf. see Meier et al., 2011a, 2011b). By contrast, in ~~the~~ BalticAPP projections, ~~bottom-oxygen-concentrations-under the~~ BSAP ~~bottom oxygen concentrations increase-in the~~ deeper regions ~~increase considerably, considerably~~ regardless of the degree of warming (cf. see Saraiva et al., 2019a; Meier et al., 2011a, 2011b). Under RCP4.5, bottom oxygen concentrations increase even under ~~the nutrient inputs~~ of REF and WORST ~~nutrient inputs~~ whereas under RCP8.5 ~~predicts~~ slight reductions in the Bothnian Sea and southwestern Baltic Sea, in particular under WORST, ~~are found. These results are explained by the historical nutrient input reductions and the slow response of the Baltic Sea.~~ Similar results ~~are-were also~~ calculated for the CLIMSEA ensemble (cf. Meier et al., 2021).

The differences in the oxygen concentration changes between ~~the~~ ECOSUPPORT and BalticAPP/CLIMSEA ensembles ~~might~~ can be explained as follows. In ECOSUPPORT, ~~nutrient input-changes in nutrient input~~ relative to the historical period 1961–2006, ~~withincluding prescribed~~ the observed nutrient inputs averaged from the period 1995–2002, were applied (Gustafsson et al., 2011; Meier et al., 2011ab). ~~DuringFor~~ the historical period 1980–2002, these inputs ~~were~~ were lower than in BalticAPP/CLIMSEA scenario simulations because in the latter the observed monthly nutrient inputs, including the pronounced decline from the peak in the 1980s until the much lower recent values, were used as the forcing (Meier et al., 2018a). Furthermore, in ECOSUPPORT, future nutrient

inputs under the BSAP scenario were calculated as relative changes, resulting in higher future inputs than in BalticAPP/CLIMSEA, in which ~~applied~~ absolute values of the BSAP ~~were applied~~.

Hence, ~~in ECOSUPPORT under the BSAP the reductions nutrient input reductions~~ between future and historical nutrient inputs are smaller in ECOSUPPORT under the BSAP than in BalticAPP/CLIMSEA (Table 6) and ~~resulting~~ in a smaller response of ~~the~~ biogeochemical cycling. We argue that the more realistic historical simulation, including a spin-up since 1850, ~~underbased on~~ observed or reconstructed nutrient inputs as used ~~for~~ in the BalticAPP and CLIMSEA ensembles ~~would give~~ result in a ~~more realistic~~ model response that is more realistic compared to ~~than~~ that of the ECOSUPPORT scenario simulations.

Hypoxic area

In ECOSUPPORT, ~~the~~ hypoxic area is projected to increase under REF and BAU nutrient input scenarios (Meier et al., ~~2011a~~2011b). Only under BSAP, ~~is there~~ a slight decrease compared to the early 2000s ~~is found~~.

In CLIMSEA under REF, ~~the~~ hypoxic area is projected to ~~slightly~~ decrease ~~slightly~~ until about 2050, as a delayed response to nutrient input reductions, and then ~~to~~ increase again towards the end of the century, ~~likely~~ ~~ap~~resumably in response to ~~increased~~ nutrient inputs ~~increase~~ and warming (Fig. 22). Larger hypoxic areas are calculated under RCP8.5 than under RCP4.5. Under BSAP, ~~the~~ hypoxic area is projected to considerably decrease. At the end of the century, the size of ~~the~~ hypoxic area is ~~expected to be 22–between 78% and 22% smaller compared to~~ ~~than~~ the average size ~~of during~~ the period 1976–2005. ~~The This given range denotes~~ ~~represents~~ the results of the various scenario simulations ~~sense~~ ensemble members.

In accordance ~~to~~ with previous studies, such as Saraiva et al. (2019b) and Meier et al. (2021), ~~it was found that the~~ impact of warming (reduced oxygen solubility, increased internal nutrient cycling, increased riverine inputs) and ~~of increasing stratification (decreased ventilation) may amplify oxygen~~ will be an amplified depletion of oxygen, ~~enlarging that enlarges the hypoxia area in the Baltic Sea and partially counteracting~~ ~~ing~~ nutrient input abatement strategies such as the BSAP. However, in all available scenarios the impact of climate change is smaller than the impact of nutrient input changes.

3.2.7 Nutrient concentrations

While in ECOSUPPORT scenario simulations ~~of future climate the~~ projected ~~winter~~ surface phosphate concentrations ~~in winter~~ increase ~~in future climate~~ under all three nutrient input scenarios (except in the Gulf of Finland in BSAP), in BalticAPP projections ~~winter the~~ surface phosphate concentrations ~~in winter~~ decrease almost everywhere (except in the Odra Bight and adjacent areas in REF and WORST) (not shown). In contrast to ~~the~~ ~~spatial patterns of nearly ubiquitous changes in the~~ surface phosphate concentration ~~changes~~, larger nitrate concentration changes are usually confined to the coastal zone, ~~showing and differ in their varying signs of the~~ ~~changes~~. In ECOSUPPORT projections, ~~the increases in~~ winter surface nitrate concentrations ~~in REF and BAU~~ increase ~~in particular~~ are largest in the Gulf of Riga, ~~the~~ eastern Gulf of Finland; and along the eastern coasts of the Baltic proper ~~in REF and BAU~~ (not shown). In BalticAPP projections, ~~the increases in~~ ~~in~~ REF and WORST winter

surface nitrate concentrations in REF and WORST increase in particular are largest in the Bothnian Bay and the Odra Bight while concentrations decrease in the Gulf of Riga and the Vistula lagoon nitrate concentrations decrease. Overall, the differences in surface nutrient concentrations between the two sets of scenario simulationsensembles are considerable (not shown) and. These can be differences are explained by largely differing the large differences in nutrient inputs from land. Thus, while in ECOSUPPORT, the projected changes in inputs in ECOSUPPORT refer to the average inputs during 1995–2002, in BalticAPP scenario simulations the observed past-historical changes including include the a decline in nutrient inputs since the 1980s are considered (Meier et al., 2018a).

3.2.8 Phytoplankton concentrations

Annual mean changes in surface phytoplankton concentration (expressed as chlorophyll concentration) follow the changes in nutrient concentrations and are confined to the productive zone along the coasts (Fig. 23). In ECOSUPPORT projections, annual mean Secchi depths are decreasing decrease in all scenario simulations (see Fig. 24 and Table 117). On the other hand, in the BalticAPP projections, the area-averaged Secchi depths generally increase, except in the combination of combined RCP8.5 and BAU scenarios (Table 117), indicating a general improvement of the water quality in future compared to the present climate. The most striking changes occur in the BSAP scenario, showing in which the Secchi depth increases of by up to 2 m in the coastal zone of the eastern Baltic proper. Changes in stratification (illustrated by the differences between BalticAPP and CLIMSEA ensembles and between the CLIMSEA ensemble mean and high SLR scenarios) have only a minor impact on the water transparency response (Table 117). The overwhelming driver of Secchi depth the changes in the Secchi depth are nutrient input scenarios (illustrated by the differences between ECOSUPPORT and BalticAPP/CLIMSEA ensembles and highlighted by, in some cases, even contradictory signs in the changes).

3.2.9 Biogeochemical fluxes

In CLIMSEA under the BSAP, primary production and nitrogen fixation were are projected to considerably decrease in a future climate (Fig. 22). Under According to this scenario, the interannual variability would declines. Under REF, nitrogen fixation is projected to slightly decrease until about ~2050, as a delayed response to nutrient input reductions, and then to increase again towards the end of the century, likely a in response to increased nutrient inputs increase and warming. At the end of the century, both primary production and nitrogen fixation would will be at the same level as under current conditions. The impact of warming is larger under high thanas under low nutrient conditions (cf. Saraiva et al., 2019b).

3.2.10 Relation to the large-scale atmospheric circulation

The most dominant large-scale atmospheric pattern controlling the climate in the Baltic Sea region during winter is the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO; Hurrell, 1995). However, this relationship its influence is not stationary but depends on other modes of variability, such as the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO; Börgel et al., 2020). During the past climate, the relationship between the NAO index and regional climate variables in the Baltic Sea region, such as SST, changed over time (Vihma and Haapala, 2009; Omstedt and Chen, 2001; Hünicke and Zorita, 2006; Chen and Hellström, 1999; Meier and Kauker, 2002; Beranová and Huth, 2008).

883
 884 Figure 25 shows the calculated ensemble mean ~~winter (December–through–February)~~ NAO index for the period
 885 2006–2100. For the RCP4.5 emission scenario, ~~it is found that~~ the NAO shows high interannual variability. ~~By~~
 886 ~~applying~~Following a wavelet analysis, ~~it is found that~~ the calculated NAO index ~~contains~~ ~~exhibits some~~ decadal
 887 variability, which differs for every model (not shown). ~~By~~ ~~A comparison of~~ ~~comparing~~ RCP4.5 ~~and with~~ the high-
 888 emission scenario RCP8.5, ~~it can be seen~~ ~~shows~~ that the spread of the ensemble increases with ~~enlarged~~ ~~increasing~~
 889 ~~greenhouse gas~~GHG concentrations. Furthermore, Figure 25 ~~also shows~~ ~~depicts~~ the running correlation between
 890 the NAO index and the area-averaged SST. ~~Indeed, the~~ ~~The~~ correlation remains positive but it is not constant in
 891 time. ~~By~~ ~~comparing~~ ~~Also evident from a comparison of~~ RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 ~~it is found~~ ~~is~~ that there are no
 892 systematic changes ~~between in both the two~~ emission scenarios. ~~However, although~~ for RCP8.5 ~~a the ensemble~~
 893 ~~spread is~~ slightly larger ~~ensemble spread is found~~.

894 4 Knowledge gaps

895 ~~As~~ ~~In~~ ~~the largest set of scenario simulations of~~ this study, ~~the CLIMSEA ensemble~~, only four ESMs were
 896 ~~regionalized~~ ~~regionalised~~ using ~~only~~ one RCM; ~~consequently, this~~ ~~the CLIMSEA~~ ensemble is still too small to
 897 estimate ~~the~~ uncertainties caused by ESM and RCM differences. ~~It should be noted that~~ ~~While~~ ~~recently even~~ nine
 898 ESMs with the same RCM were ~~recently~~ ~~regionalized~~ ~~regionalised~~, ~~but without~~ ~~they did not include~~ running
 899 modules for ~~the~~ terrestrial and marine biogeochemistry (Gröger et al., 2021b), ~~such that these simulations were~~
 900 ~~therefore, we have~~ not considered ~~these simulations~~ in our assessment.

901
 902 ~~Furthermore, in this study~~ ~~the~~ ~~The~~ uncertainties related to unresolved physical and biogeochemical processes in the
 903 Baltic Sea and on land were ~~also~~ not considered, because only one Baltic Sea and one catchment model were used.
 904 Although the CLIMSEA ensemble is larger than the ensembles in previous studies, it is still too small to estimate
 905 all sources of uncertainty.

906
 907 In addition to the uncertainties related to global and regional climate and impact models, ~~the unknown~~ pathways
 908 of GHG and nutrient emissions ~~are thus far unknown and~~; the role of natural variability versus anthropogenic
 909 forcing is not well understood (Meier et al., 2018a; 2019b; 2021). Recent studies suggested that the impact of
 910 natural variability, such as the low-frequency AMO, is larger than hitherto estimated. For instance, ~~it was shown~~
 911 ~~that~~ in paleoclimate simulations the AMO ~~affects~~ ~~affected~~ Baltic Sea salinity ~~on at~~ time scales of 60–180 years
 912 (Börgel et al., 2018), which is longer than the simulation periods of available scenario simulations. Further ~~more~~,
 913 the AMO may ~~also~~ influence ~~the also the centers~~ ~~centres~~ of action of the NAO (Börgel et al., 2020). ~~The~~ Lateral
 914 tilting of the positions of ~~the~~ Icelandic Low and Azores High ~~explains the~~ ~~changes in the~~ correlation ~~changes~~
 915 between ~~the~~ NAO and regional variables such as water temperature, sea-ice cover and river runoff in the Baltic
 916 Sea region (Börgel et al., 2020). ~~Although there are~~ ~~Despite~~ indications that the AMO is affected by ~~various~~ climate
 917 states such as the Medieval Climate Anomaly and ~~the~~ Little Ice Age (Wang et al., 2017; Börgel et al., 2018), ~~it is~~
 918 ~~unknown~~ how future warming would affect these modes of climate variability ~~is unclear~~.

919
 920 ~~We have not analyzed~~ Changes in sea-ice cover ~~were not analysed in this study~~ because in the recent scenario
 921 simulations of the CLIMSEA ensemble sea-ice cover is systematically underestimated. However, we found that

future sea-ice cover is projected to be considerably reduced, with an on-average ice-free Bothnian Sea and western Gulf of Finland. Recent results by Höglund et al. (2017) confirmed earlier results by Meier (2002b) and Meier et al. (2011a; 2014), see BACC Author Team (2008).

Most noticeable are the differences in projected biogeochemical variables between ECOSUPPORT and BalticAPP/CLIMSEA ensembles. In ECOSUPPORT, nutrient input changes relative to the historical period 1961–2006 with prescribed observed nutrient inputs from the period 1995–2002 were applied (Gustafsson et al., 2011; Meier et al., 2011a). During the historical period 1980–2002, these inputs were lower than in BalticAPP/CLIMSEA scenario simulations because in the latter the observed monthly nutrient inputs including the pronounced decline from the peak in the 1980s until the much lower recent values were prescribed (Meier et al., 2018a). Hence, in ECOSUPPORT the nutrient input reductions under the BSAP between future and historical inputs are smaller than in BalticAPP/CLIMSEA resulting in a smaller response of the biogeochemical cycling. We argue that the more realistic historical simulation including a spinup since 1850 under observed or reconstructed nutrient inputs as used for the BalticAPP and CLIMSEA ensembles would give a more realistic model response compared to the ECOSUPPORT scenario simulations. However, not exactly known current and completely unknown future bioavailable nutrient inputs from land and atmosphere were classified as one of the biggest uncertainties (Meier et al., 2019b).

The various ensembles of the scenario simulation sets have in common that plausible nutrient input changes have a bigger impact on changes in biogeochemical variables, such as nutrients, phytoplankton and oxygen concentrations, than of either the projected changes in climate, such as warming, or changes in vertical stratification. The latter would be caused by freshwater increased freshwater inputs, SLR or changes in regional wind fields, assuming RCP4.5 or RCP8.5 scenarios. Long-term simulations of past climate supported these results. Although historical warming had an impact on the size of the present-day hypoxic area, model results suggested that the main reason for hypoxia in the Baltic Sea were is best explained by the increases in nutrient inputs due to population growth and intensified agriculture since 1950 (Gustafsson et al., 2012; Carstensen et al., 2014; Meier et al., 2012a; 2019c, d). Hypoxia was also observed during is also a feature of the Medieval Climate Anomaly (Zillén and Conley, 2010). However, a first preliminary attempt to simulate the past 1000 years paleoclimate modeling could not explain such the low-oxygen conditions without substantial increases in nutrient inputs (Schimanke et al., 2012). Thus, the sensitivity of state-of-the-art physical-biogeochemical models to various drivers might can be questioned and, apparently, it is clear that the models do not reproduce all important processes correctly.

As outlined in previous assessments, current and future bioavailable nutrient inputs from land and atmosphere are unknown and were consequently classified as one of the biggest largest uncertainties (Meier et al., 2019b). For a more detailed discussion of uncertainties in Baltic Sea projections, the reader is referred to Meier et al. (2018a; 2019b; 2021).

5 Summary

As shown in Section 3, the latest published scenario simulations confirm the findings of the first and second assessments of climate change in the Baltic Sea region (BACC Author Team, 2008; BACC II Author Team, 2015), namely that, in all projections driven by RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 and driven by four selected ESMs of CMIP5, water temperature is projected to increase and sea-ice cover to decrease significantly. In the two RCPGHG-concentration scenarios, the ensemble mean annual SST changes in SST between 1978–2007 and 2069–2098 amount to are 2°C and 3°C, respectively. Warming would enhance the stability across the seasonal thermocline and cause a shallower mixed layer depth (MLD) during summer would be shallower. During winter, however, the mixed layer in the northern Baltic Sea would be deeper, probably because of the declining sea-ice cover and the associated intensification of wind speed, waves and vertical mixing. Both the frequency and the duration of marine heat waves (MHWs) would increase significantly, in particular south of 60°N and in particular in the coastal zone (except in regions with frequent upwellings).

The projected spatial patterns of seasonal SST trends projected during for 2006–2099 are similar compared to those in historical reconstructions during of the period 1850–2008, although in most regions the magnitude of the trends are is larger. The largest trends were are found those in summer in the northern Baltic Sea (Bothnian Sea and Bothnian Bay) and thus in regions where under a warmer climate on average under a warmer climate sea ice would melt earlier or would even have disappeared disappear completely due to the ice-albedo feedback. This implies that, with increasing warming, SST trends in the northern Baltic Sea will get become larger relative to SST trends than those in the southern Baltic Sea. It follows accordingly, that in contrast to the present climate, wherein which mean SSTs considerably decline from south to north, in a future climate the north-south temperature gradient will weaken in future climate.

Contrary In contrast to previous scenario simulations, recent scenario simulations considered the impact of the global mean SLR on Baltic Sea salinity, causing which for the ensemble mean salinity would a more or less completely compensation of compensate for the effects of for the projected increasing river runoff. However, as future changes in all three drivers of salinity, i.e. (wind, runoff and SLR) are very highly uncertain, the spread in the salinity projections solely caused by of the various ESMs is larger than any signal.

In agreement with the earlier assessments, we conclude that SLR has a greater potential to increase surge levels in the Baltic Sea than does changing increased wind speed or changed wind direction. For the latter, there have been no statistically significant changes during the 21st century thus far were observed.

In agreement with earlier studies, nutrient inputs changes in nutrient input according to of the BSAP or REF scenarios would will have a larger impact on biogeochemical cycling in the Baltic Sea than will a changing climate driven by RCP4.5 or RCP8.5 scenarios. Further more, the impact of climate change would will be more pronounced under higher than under lower nutrient conditions. Hence, without further nutrient input reductions, as suggested by the BSAP, eutrophication and oxygen depletion will worsen even. However, the response determined in recent studies differs considerably from the results of the responses reported in previous studies, considerably because of more plausible assumptions on regarding historical and future nutrient inputs, resulting, for instance, in sometimes In some cases this has led to opposite signs in the response of bottom oxygen concentrations. The new

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scenarios suggest that ~~the~~ implementation of the BSAP would lead to a significant improvement in the ecological status of the Baltic Sea regardless of the applied RCP scenario.

However, ~~as a new driver global SLR was recent~~ [this study](#) identified [SLR as a new global driver](#). Depending on the combination of SLR and RCP scenarios, ~~a significant~~ [the](#) impact on [the](#) bottom oxygen concentration ~~was found~~ [may be significant](#). A higher mean sea level relative to the seabed at the sills would cause increased saltwater inflows, [a](#) stronger vertical stratification in the Baltic Sea and [a](#) larger hypoxic area. The relationship between vertical stratification and [the size of the](#) hypoxic area was confirmed ~~by~~ [in](#) historical measurements. Nevertheless, recent studies suggested that the difference in future nutrient emissions between the BSAP and REF scenarios is a more important driver ~~of than the projected changes in climate with respect to~~ changes in hypoxic area, phytoplankton concentration, water transparency (~~expressed by~~ Secchi depth), primary production and nitrogen fixation ~~than projected changes in climate~~.

~~The~~ ~~The~~ ~~currently~~ available ensembles of scenario simulations are ~~now~~ larger than in previous studies. ~~Consequently, the uncertainty range covered by the assessed ESMs is larger resulting in a larger and, in turn, the spread of the results are also larger. It was shown that the uncertainty caused by ESM differences became now also larger.~~ However, the ensemble size might still be too small and ~~the~~ model uncertainty is very likely underestimated. ~~Further~~ [Moreover](#), natural variability might be a more important source of uncertainty than previously ~~considered for applications in the Baltic Sea~~ [estimated](#).

In ~~the~~ present climate, the climate variability of the Baltic Sea region during winter is dominated by the impact of the NAO. However, ~~during in the past climate~~ the correlation between ~~the~~ NAO and regional variables such as water temperature or sea ice varied in time. ~~These low-frequency changes in correlation were projected to continue and systematic changes in the influence of the large-scale atmospheric circulation on regional climate and in the NAO itself could not be detected, although a northward shift in the mean summer position of the westerlies at the end of the twenty-first century compared to the twentieth century was reported earlier (Gröger et al., 2019).~~ ~~These~~ [The](#) low-frequency changes in [this](#) correlation ~~were~~ [are](#) projected to continue. Furthermore, systematic changes in the influence of the large-scale atmospheric circulation on regional climate and on the NAO itself could not be detected. ~~However~~ [While](#) a northward shift in the mean summer position of the westerlies at the end of the ~~twenty-first~~ [21st](#) century compared to the ~~twentieth~~ [20th](#) century was reported ~~earlier~~ [\(Gröger et al., 2019\)](#). ~~This conclusion was drawn~~ [it was](#) based upon a [limited set of simulations with a few ESMs](#).

Acknowledgements

[During the preparation of this paper, shortly before its submission, our co-author, Christian Dieterich, passed away \(1964–2021\). This sad event marked the end of the life of a distinguished oceanographer and climate scientist who made important contributions to climate modelling for the Baltic Sea, North Sea and North Atlantic regions.](#)

This study belongs to the series of Baltic Earth Assessment Reports (BEARs) of the Baltic Earth Program (Earth System Science for the Baltic Sea Region). The work was financed by the Copernicus Marine Environment Monitoring Service through the CLIMSEA project (Regionally downscaled climate projections for the Baltic and

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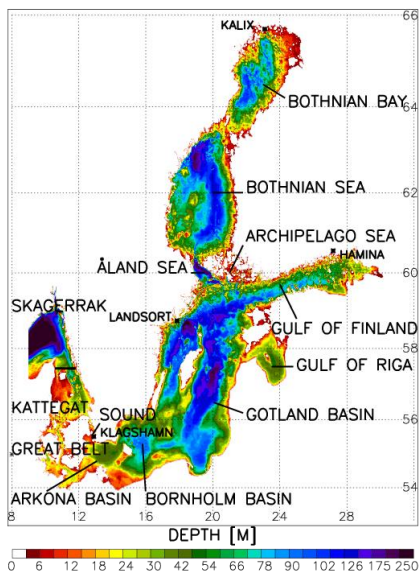
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1039 North seas, CMEMS 66-SE-CALL2: LOT4) and by the Swedish Research Council for Environment, Agricultural
1040 Sciences and Spatial Planning (Formas) through the ClimeMarine project within the framework of the National
1041 Research Programme for Climate (grant no. 2017-01949). Regional climate scenario simulations ~~have been~~were
1042 conducted on the Linux clusters Krypton, Bi, Triolith and Tetralith, all operated by the National Supercomputer
1043 Centre in Sweden (NSC, <http://www.nsc.liu.se/>). Resources on Triolith and Tetralith were funded by the Swedish
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1047 an earlier version of the manuscript.
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1050 **Figures**



1051

1052 **Figure 1:** Bottom topography of the Baltic Sea (depth in m). The Baltic proper comprises the Arkona Basin,
1053 Bornholm Basin and Gotland Basin. The border of the ~~analyzed~~analysed domain of the Baltic Sea models is shown
1054 as ~~a~~ black line in the northern Kattegat. ~~In addition, the~~The tide gauges Klagshamn (55.522°N, 12.894°E), Landsort
1055 (58.742°N, 17.865°E), Hamina (60.563°N, 27.179°E), and Kalix (65.697°N, 23.096°E) are ~~also shown~~depicted.

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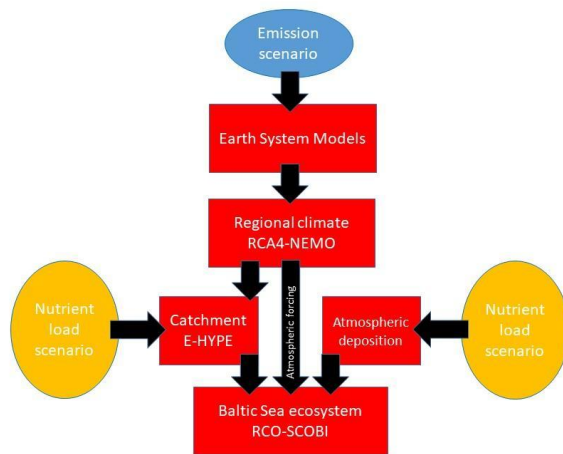


Figure 2. Dynamical downscaling approach for the Baltic Sea region. In Section 2, the The models for the various components of the Earth System are explained in Section 2. (Source: Meier et al., 2021)

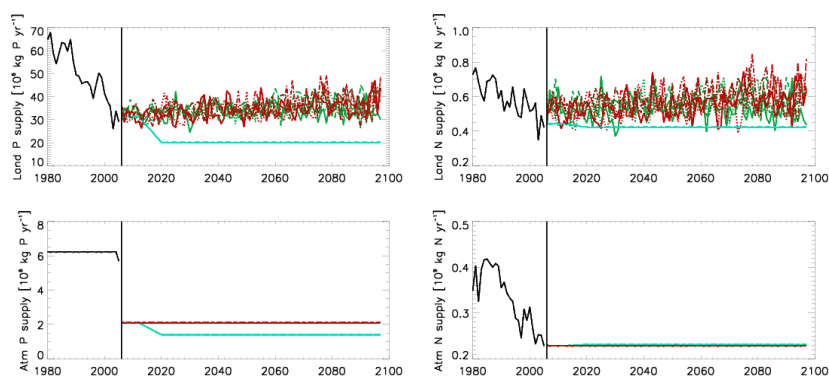
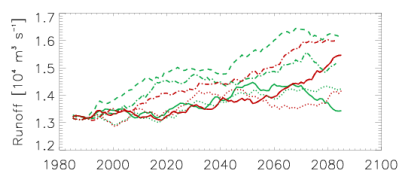


Figure 3. Projections of river discharge and nutrient inputs from land and atmosphere into the entire Baltic Sea ~~in~~ according to the BalticAPP and CLIMSEA scenario simulations. Upper panel: Low-pass filtered runoff data (in $\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$) using a cut-off period of 30 years ~~of in~~ four regionalized-regionalised Earth System models (ESMs ~~to~~ illustrated by different line types) under RCP4.5 (green) and RCP8.5 (red) scenarios. Lower panels: Bioavailable phosphorus (in $10^6 \text{ kg P year}^{-1}$, left panels) and nitrogen inputs (in $10^9 \text{ kg N year}^{-1}$, ~~year~~-right panels) from land (upper panels) and ~~the~~ atmosphere (lower panels) under RCP4.5, BSAP (blue), RCP4.5, REF (green), RCP8.5, BSAP (orange) and RCP8.5, REF (red) scenarios. Nutrient inputs during the historical period are depicted in black. The nutrient input scenario WORST of the BalticAPP scenario simulations (Saraiva et al., 2019a; their Fig. 4) ~~is not displayed, and neither are~~ the ECOSUPPORT nutrient input scenarios (Gustafsson et al., 2011; their Fig. 3.1) ~~are not displayed here~~. (Source: Meier et al., 2021)

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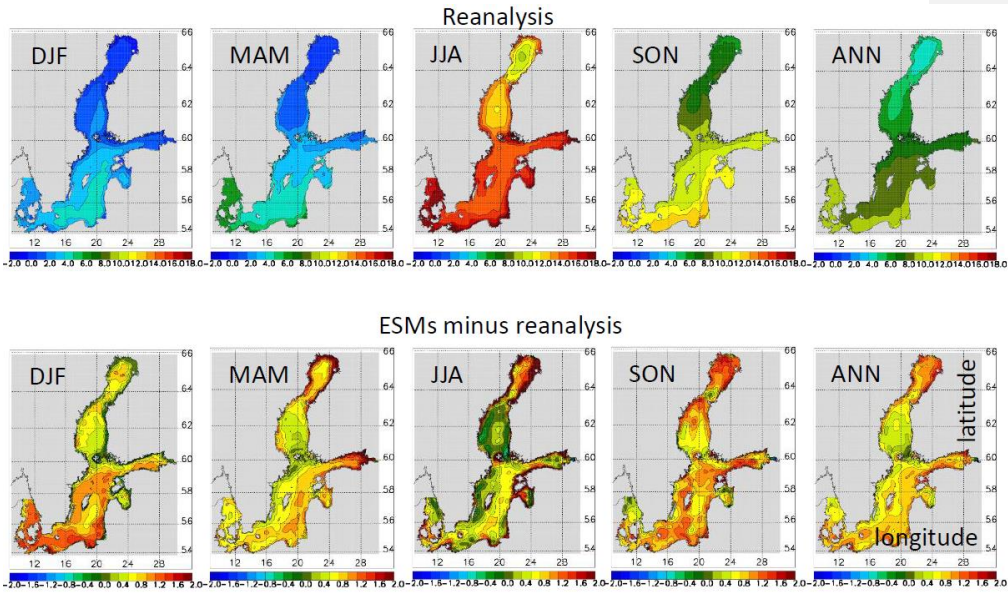


Figure 4: Upper panels: Annual and seasonal mean sea surface temperature (SST) in °C in a reanalysis of data during from 1970 to 1999 (Liu et al., 2017). Lower panels: Difference between the climatologies of the ensemble mean of the regionalized-regionalised ESMs used in BalticAPP (Saraiva et al., 2019a) and CLIMSEA (Meier et al., 2021) during the historical period (1976-2005) and those of the reanalysis data. From the left to the right panels: winter (December–February, DJF), spring (March–May, MAM), summer (June–August, JJA), autumn (September–November, SON) and annual (ANN) mean SSTs or SST differences are shown.

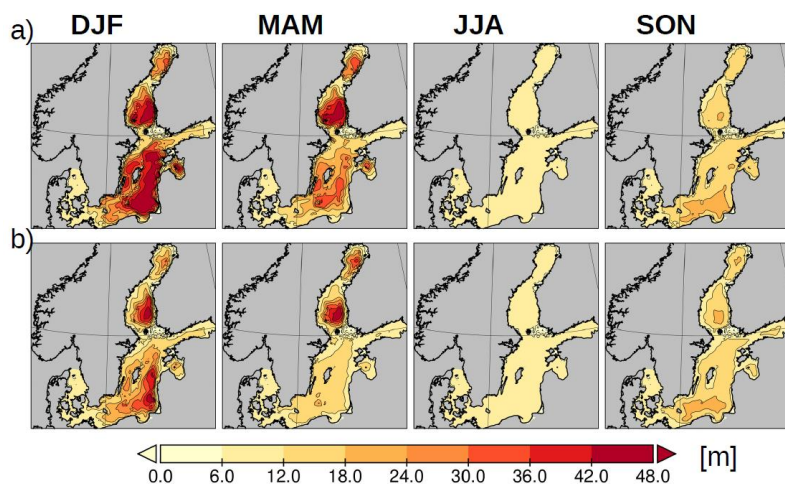


Figure 5: Mixed-layer thickness calculated according to the 0.03 kg m^{-3} criterion following (de Boyer Montégut et al., 2004). a) Reanalysis data (Liu et al., 2017). b) Ensemble mean over the four models (Saraiva et al., 2019a). Shown are the averages over during 1976–1999.

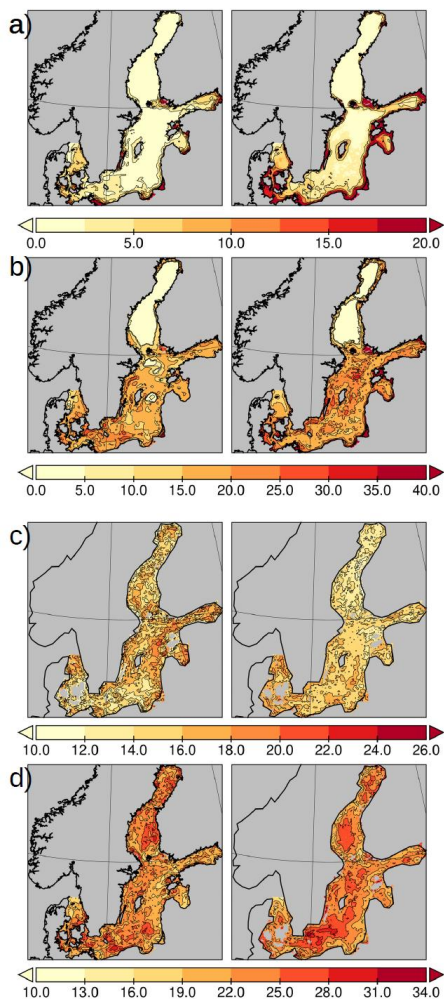


Figure 6: a) Number of >10-day periods where in which the sea surface temperature (SST) is >exceeds 20°C. b) Average duration of the periods displayed in a). c) Number of 10-day periods where in which the SST is >exceeds the 95th percentile. d) Average duration of the periods displayed in c). Left column: reanalysis data (Liu et al., 2017). Right column: ensemble mean of the scenario simulations driven by four ESMs (Saraiva et al., 2019a). The analysis period is 1976–1999. Note the different color scales used in c) and d).

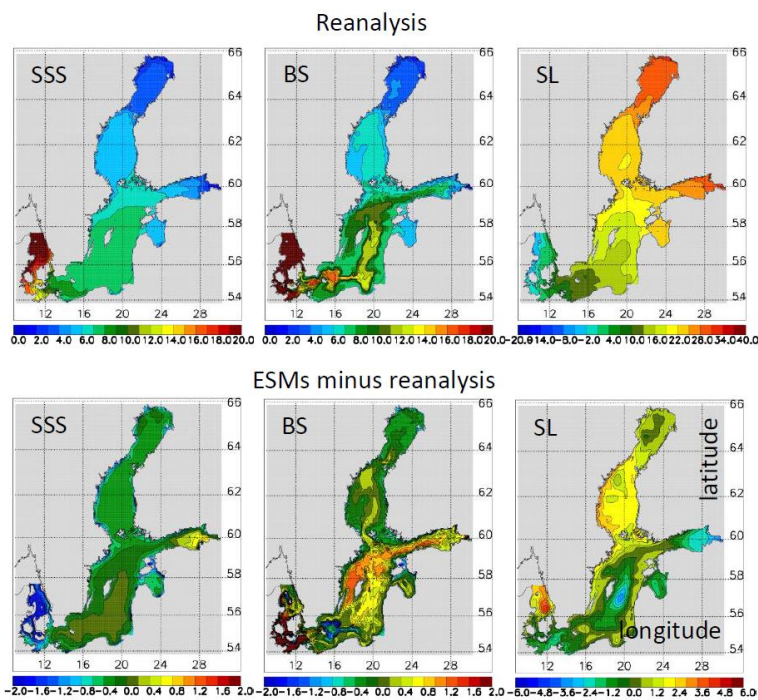


Figure 7: Upper panels: Annual mean sea surface salinity (SSS) and bottom salinity (BS) (in g kg⁻¹) and the winter (December–February) mean sea level (SL; in cm) in the reanalysis data during of 1971–1999 (Liu et al., 2017; from left to right). Note that the model results of the sea level are given in the Nordic height system 1960 (NH60) by Ekman and Mäkinen (1996). Lower panels: Difference between the climatologies of the ensemble mean of the regionalized-regionalised ESMs used in BalticAPP (Saraiva et al., 2019a) during the historical period (1976–2005) and those of the reanalysis data.

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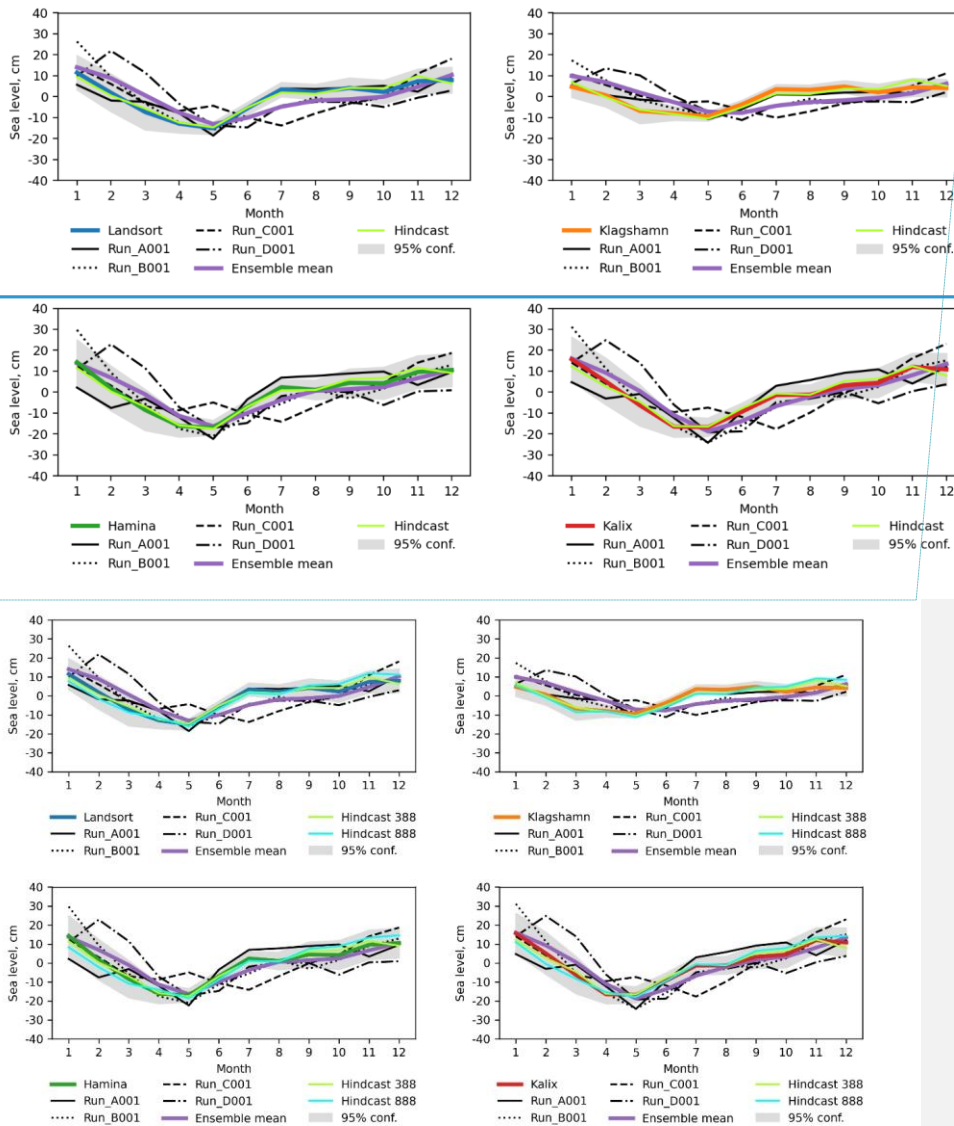
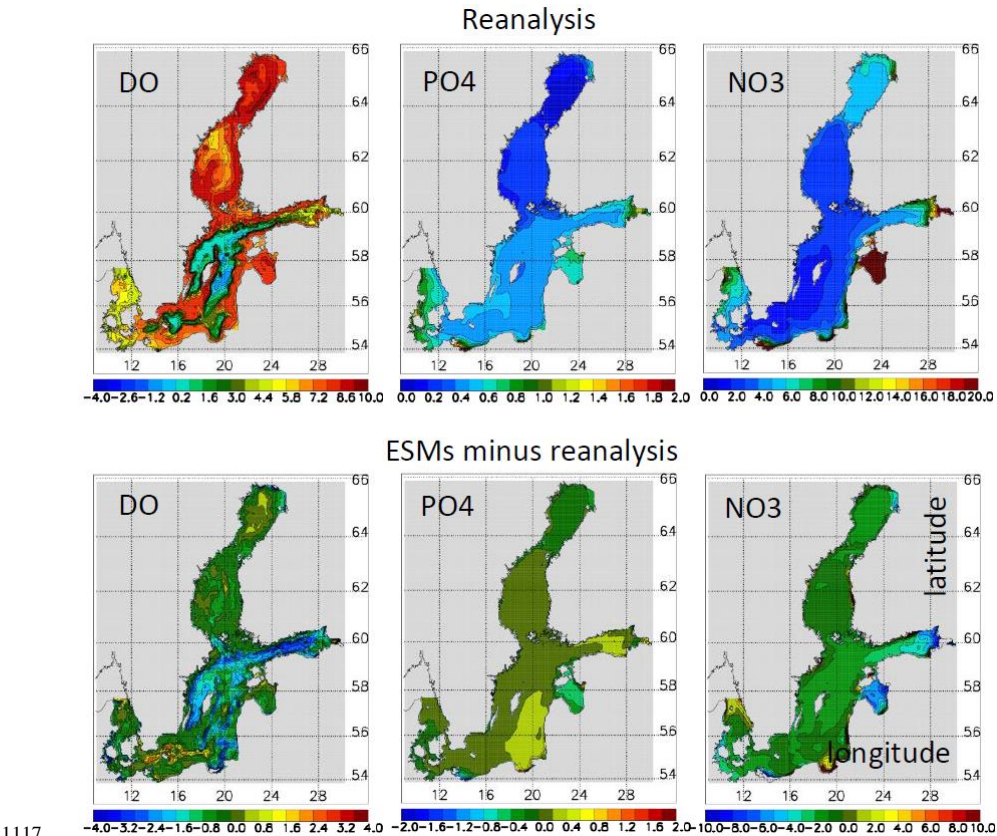


Figure 8: Monthly mean sea level according to a hindcast (driven by a regionalized regionalised reanalysis of atmospheric surface fields, i.e. RCA4 driven by ERA-40; Hindcast 388), reanalysis with the data assimilation by Liu et al. (2017) (Hindcast 888) and four climate simulations following (Saraiva et al. (2019a) (Run_A001, ..., Run_D001), the ensemble mean and observations for the historical period 1976–2005 at the sea level stations Klagshamn, Landsort, Hamina and Kalix (for the locations, see Figure 1). The 95% confidence interval of the observations is shown as a grey shaded area.



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1118 **Figure 9:** Upper panels: Summer (June–August) mean bottom dissolved oxygen (DO) concentrations (in mL L^{-1}), winter (December–February) mean surface phosphate (PO_4) concentrations (in mmol P m^{-3}) and winter
1119 (December–February) mean surface nitrate (NO_3) concentrations (in mmol N m^{-3}) in the reanalysis data during
1120 of 1976–1999 (Liu et al., 2017). Negative oxygen concentration equivalents denote hydrogen sulfide/sulphide
1121 concentrations, with $1 \text{ mL H}_2\text{S L}^{-1} = -2 \text{ mL O}_2 \text{ L}^{-1}$. Nutrient concentrations are vertically averaged for the upper
1122 10 m. Lower panels: Difference between the climatologies of the ensemble mean of the ESMs (Saraiva et al.,
1123 2019a) and those of the reanalysis data during of the historical period (1976–2005).
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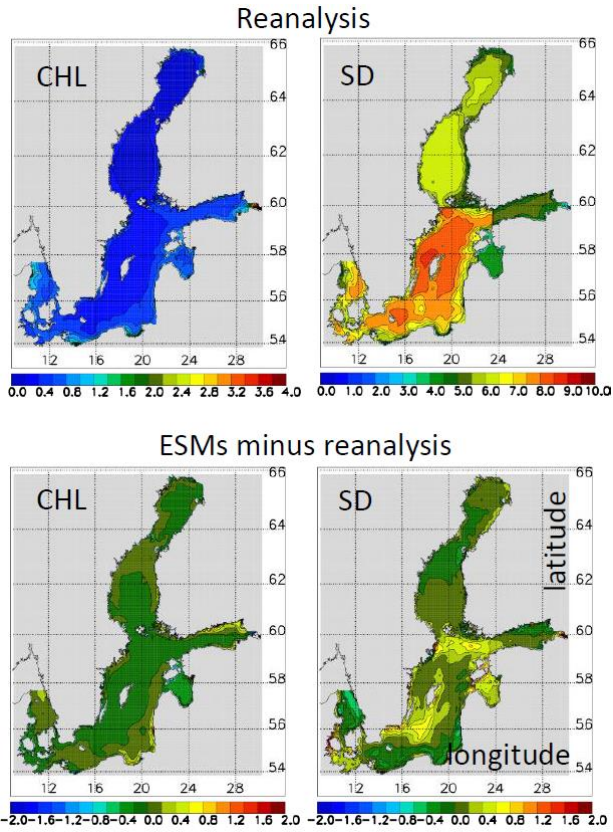


Figure 10: Upper panels: Annual mean phytoplankton concentrations (CHL; in mg Chl m^{-3}) and annual mean Secchi depth (SD; in cm) ~~in-of the~~ reanalysis data ~~during-for~~ 1976–1999 (Liu et al., 2017). Phytoplankton concentrations are vertically averaged for the upper 10 m. ~~As-Since for-in~~ the calculation of ~~the~~ Secchi depth as background only one value for the concentration of yellow substances per sub-basin is available, artificial borders between sub-basins become visible. Lower panels: Difference between ~~the~~ climatologies of the ensemble mean of the ESMs (Saraiva et al., 2019a) and ~~those of~~ the reanalysis data ~~during-for~~ the historical period (1976–2005).

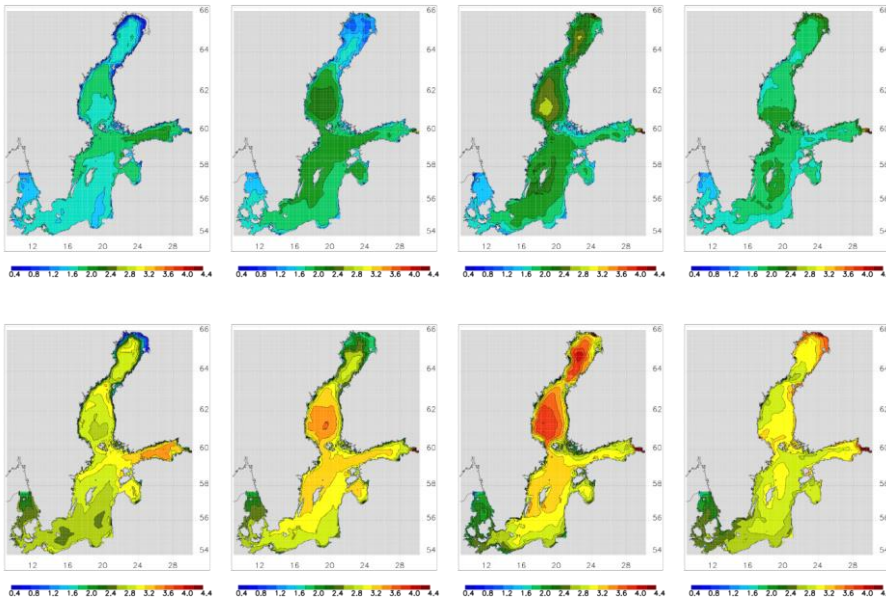


Figure 11. Changes in seasonal mean ~~sea surface temperatures~~SST as simulated by the CLIMSEA ensemble (Meier et al., 2021). From left to right, mean SST changes (in °C) in winter (December, January and February; DJF), spring (March, April and May; MAM), summer (June, July and August; JJA) and autumn (September, October and November; SON) ~~mean sea surface temperature changes (in °C)~~ between 1976–2005 and 2069–2098 under RCP4.5 (upper panels) and RCP8.5 (lower panels) ~~are shown~~.

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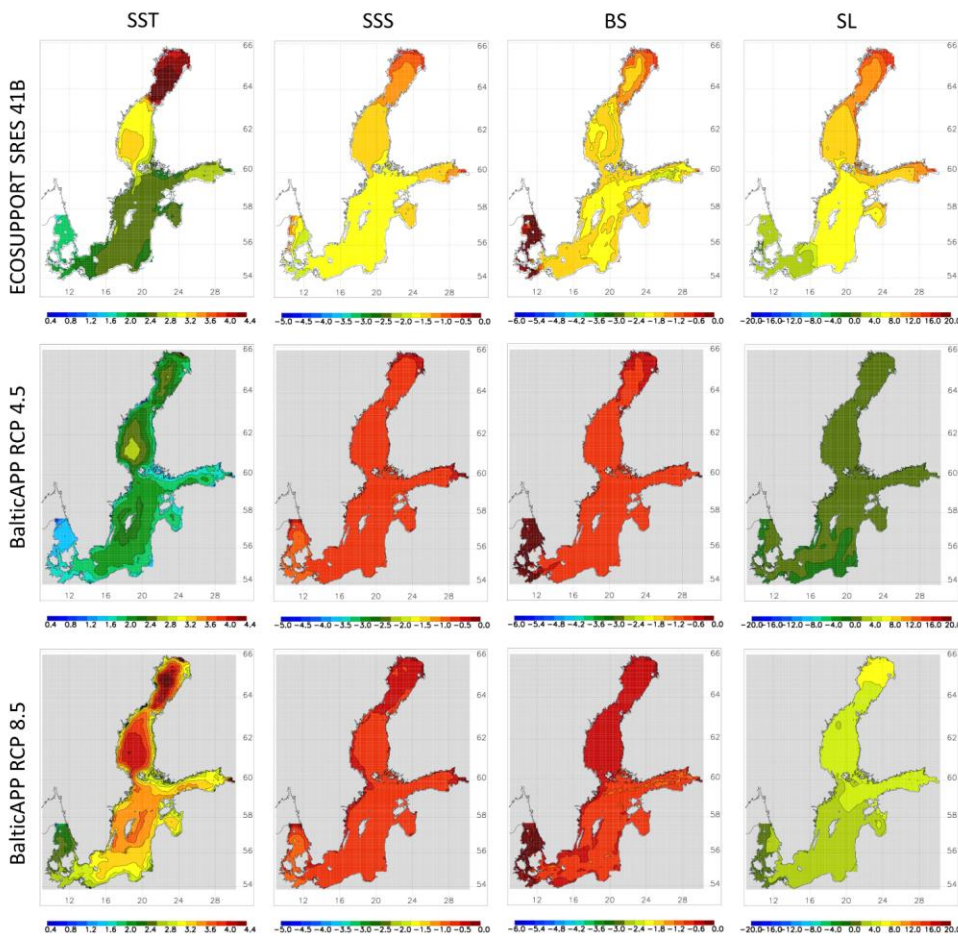


Figure 12: From left to right, changes of in the mean SST ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) in summer (June–August), the mean sea surface temperature (SST; $^{\circ}\text{C}$), annual mean sea surface salinity (SSS; g kg^{-1}), annual mean bottom salinity (BS; $\text{g kg}^{-1}\text{kg}^{-1}$), and winter (December–February) mean sea level (SL; cm) between 1978–2007 and 2069–2098 are shown. From top to bottom, the results of the ensembles ECOSUPPORT (white background, Meier et al., 2011a, 2011b), BalticAPP RCP4.5 (grey background, Saraiva et al., 2019a) and BalticAPP RCP8.5 (grey background, Saraiva et al., 2019a) are depicted.

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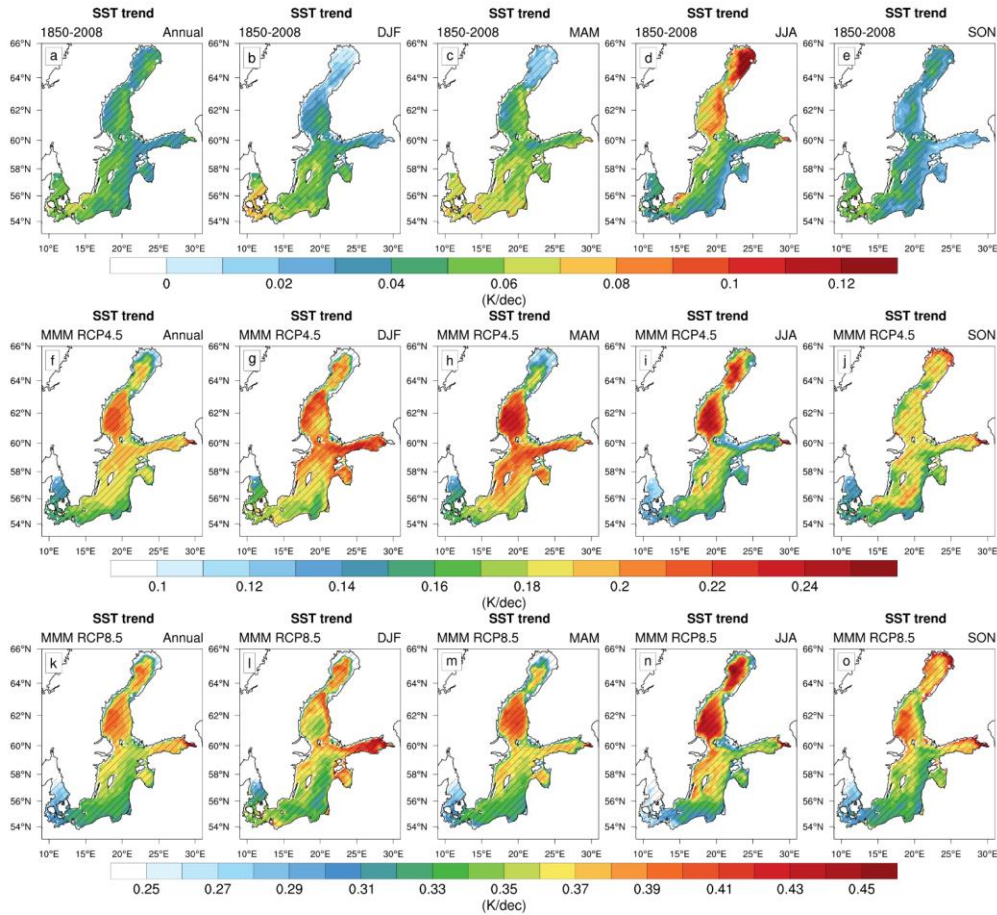


Figure 13: Multi-model mean (MMM) of annual (panels a, and f, k) and seasonal (panels b-e, and g-j, l-o) surface temperature (SST) trends (in $^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{decade}$) computed for the period 1850–2008 (top), 2006–2099 in RCP4.5 (middle) and RCP8.5 (bottom) scenario. Hatched areas represent the regions where the trend is statistically significant ($p\text{-value} < 0.05$, Mann-Kendall test). Data sources for historical reconstructions and projections are from Meier et al. (2019d) and Saraiva et al. (2019a), respectively.

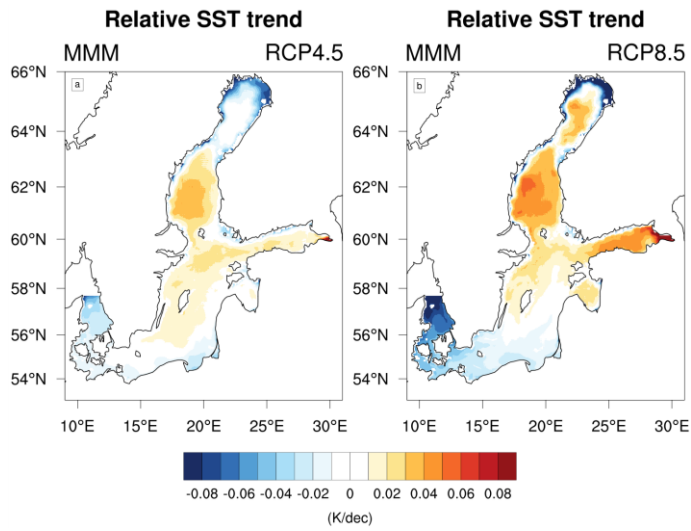
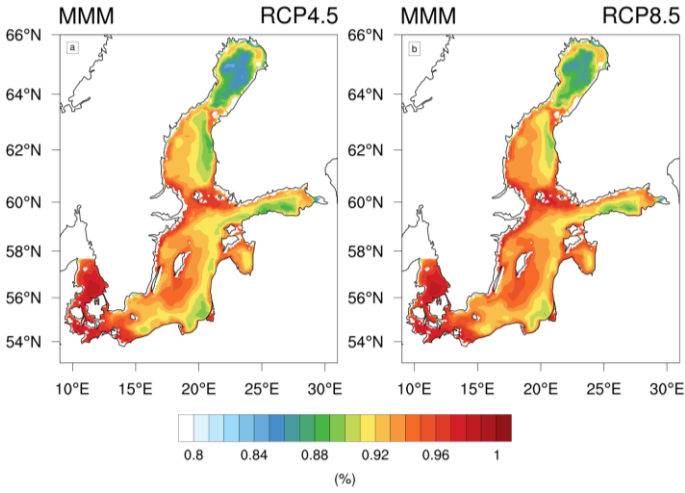


Figure 14: Multi-model mean (MMM) of the annual sea surface temperature (SST) trends relative to the spatial average (in $^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{decade}$) for a) RCP4.5 and b) RCP8.5 scenario simulations. (Data source: Saraiva et al., 2019a)

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Figure 15: Multi-model mean (MMM) explained variance (in percent) between the monthly mean sea surface temperature SST and the forcing air temperature over the period 2006–2099 period-in the a) RCP4.5 and b) RCP8.5 scenario simulations. (Data source: Saraiva et al., 2019a)

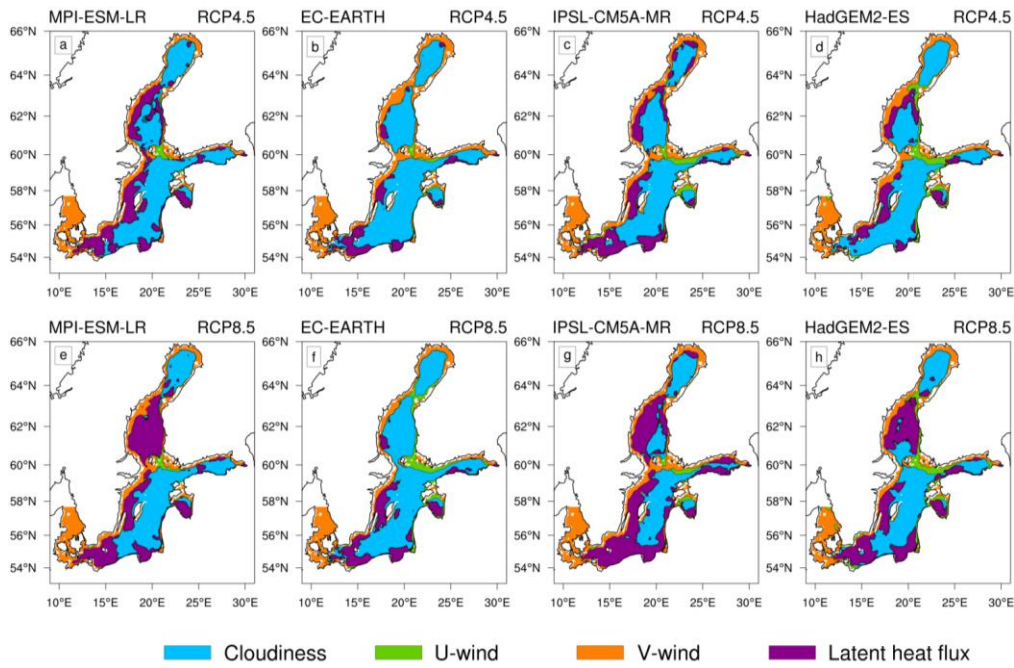


Figure 16: Results of the cross-correlation analysis of the detrended sea surface temperature (SST) (monthly mean is used) with the wind components, latent heat flux, and cloudiness. Maps of the atmospheric drivers with the highest cross-correlations in the RCP4.5 (top) and RCP8.5 (bottom) scenarios for various GCMs forcings (Saraiva et al., 2019a). From left to right: MPI-ESM-LR, EC-EARTH, IPSL-CM5A-MR, HadGEM2-ES.

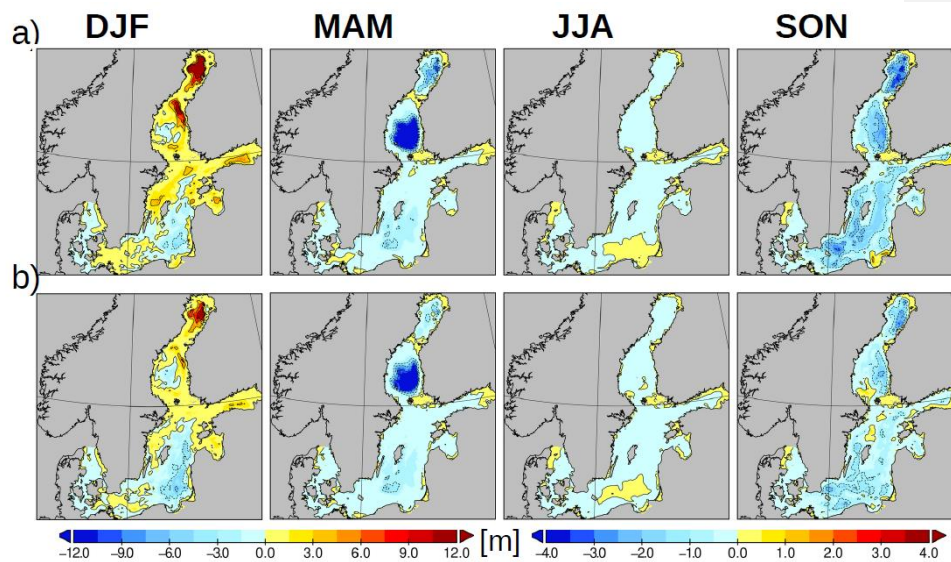
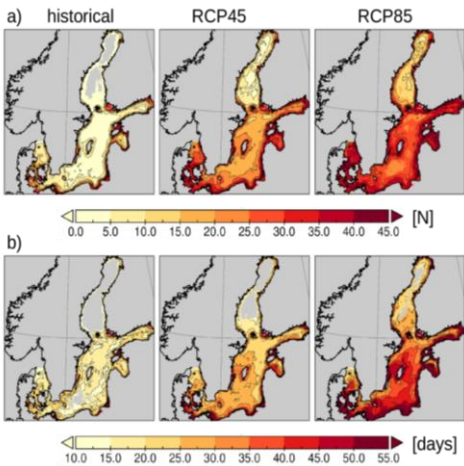


Figure 17. Mixed-layer depth calculated according to the 0.03 kg m^{-3} criterion of de Boyer Montégut et al. (2004). Shown are the ensemble average changes of four different ESMs between 1976–2005 and 2069–2098 with the mean sea-level rises a) 0.90 m (RCP8.5) and b) 0.54 m (RCP4.5). (Data source: Meier et al., 2021)

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1181 **Figure 18.** a) Number of heat waves (defined as the number of periods ≥ 10 days within which the water
1182 temperature $\geq 20^\circ\text{C}$) for historical (1976-2005), and future (2069-2098) climates. b) Average duration
1183 of the heat waves. Note that no temperature bias adjustment was done prior to the analysis. Shown are the ensemble
1184 averages of four different ESMs with the mean sea-level rises a) 0.54 m (RCP4.5) and b) 0.90 m (RCP8.5). (Data
1185 source: Meier et al., 2021)

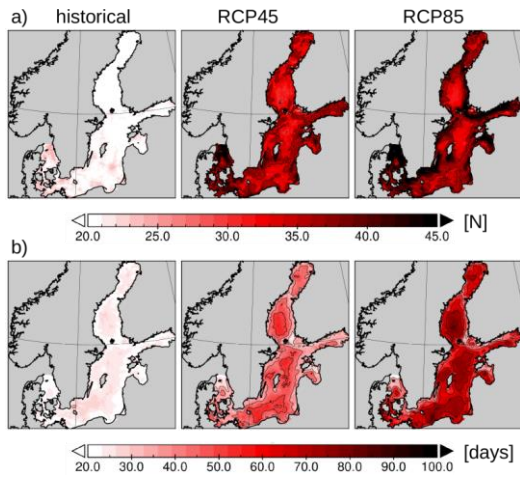
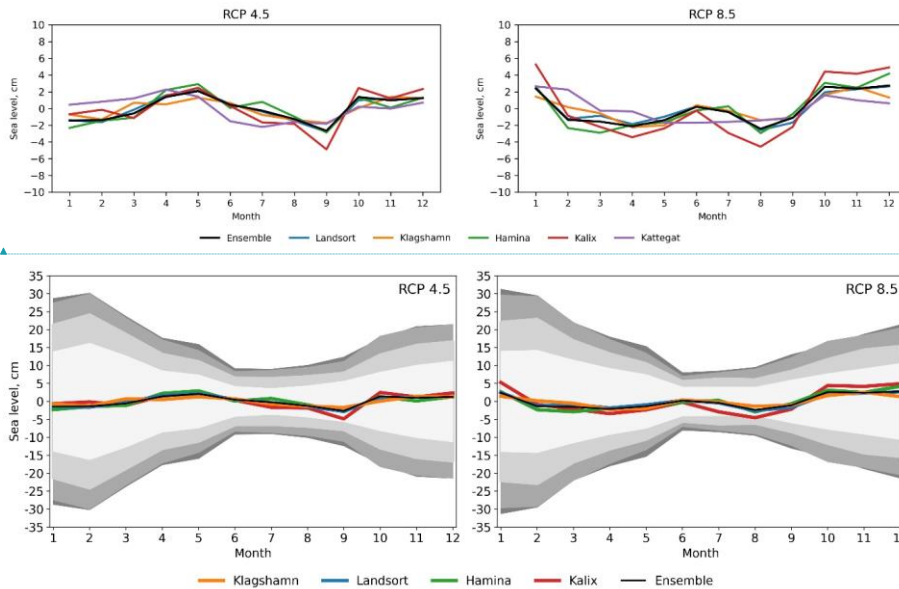


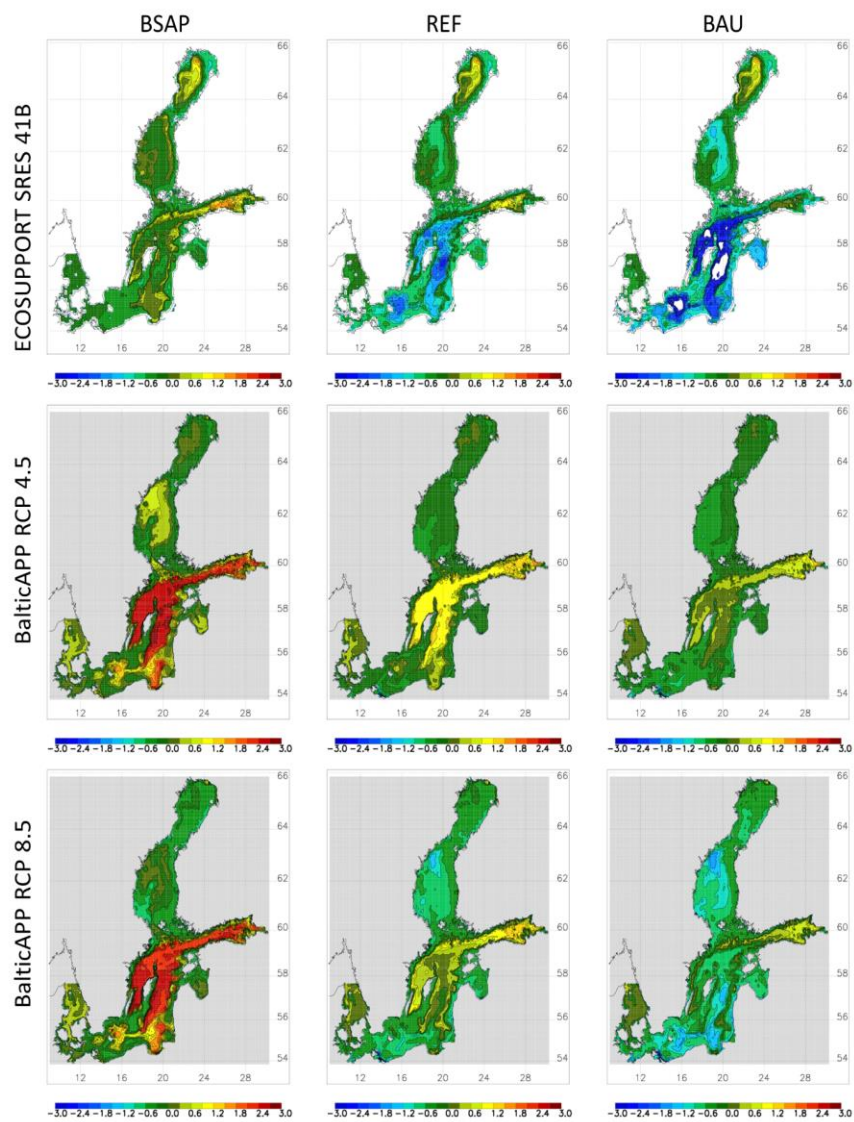
Figure 19. As Same as in Fig-ure 18 but for heat waves defined as periods of ≥ 10 days with-in which the water temperature \geq exceeded the 95th percentile of the historical reference temperature. (Data source: Meier et al., 2021)



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Figure 20: Monthly mean sea level changes between 1976–2005 and 2069–2098 at Klagshamn, Landsort, Hamina and Kalix and Kattegat (for the locations, see Figure 1) for RCP4.5 (left panel) and RCP8.5 (right panel). Shown are the changes relative to the mean sea level rise a) 0.54 m (RCP4.5) and b) 0.90 m (RCP8.5). Shaded areas in white to dark grey denote +/- two standard deviations at Klagshamn to Kalix respectively. The chosen model approach does not indicate any non-linear effects for scenarios with a larger sea level rise in sea level scenarios. (Data source: Meier et al., 2021)

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(b)

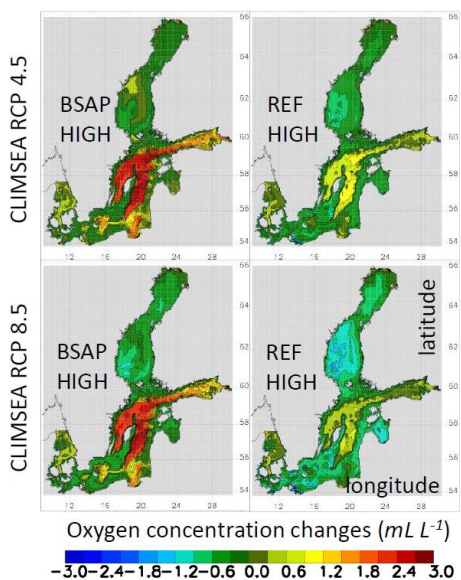
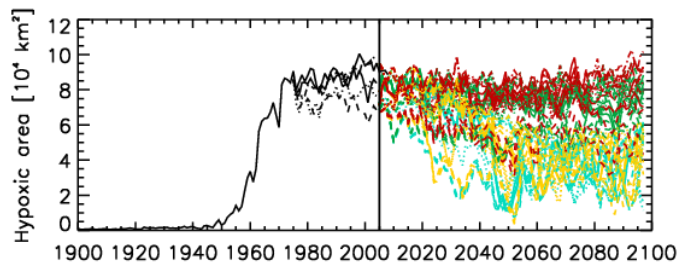
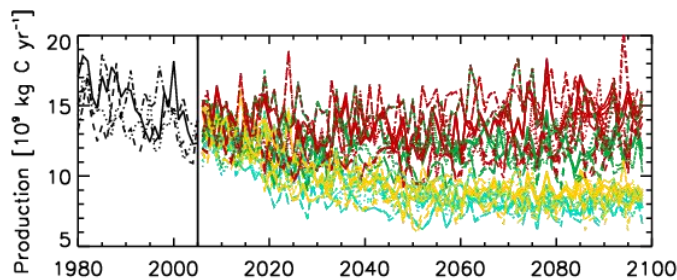


Figure 21: a) Ensemble mean changes in the summer (June–August) bottom dissolved oxygen concentration changes (mL L^{-1}) in summer (June–August) between 1978–2007 and 2069–2098. From left to right, the results of the nutrient input scenarios of the Baltic Sea Action Plan (BSAP), Reference (REF) and Business-As-Usual (BAU) are shown. From top to bottom, the results of the ensembles ECOSUPPORT (white background; Meier et al., 2011a, 2011b), BalticAPP RCP4.5 (grey background; Saraiva et al., 2019a) and BalticAPP RCP8.5 (grey background; Saraiva et al., 2019a) are depicted. b) As in panel a) but for CLIMSEA RCP4.5 (upper panels) and CLIMSEA RCP8.5 (lower panels) under the a high SLR sea level rise scenario, i.e. 1.26 m (RCP4.5) and 2.34 m (RCP8.5). Left and right columns show the BSAP and REF scenarios, respectively. (Source: Meier et al., 2021)

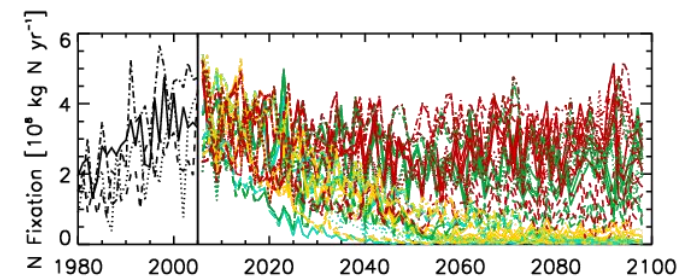
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1224 **Figure 22:** From top to bottom: hypoxic area (in km^2), volume-averaged primary production (in kg C year^{-1}) and
1225 volume-averaged nitrogen fixation (in kg N year^{-1}) for the entire Baltic Sea, including the Kattegat (see Fig. 1) in the historical (until 2005, black lines) and scenario simulations (after 2005, coloured lines) simulations
1226 driven by four regionalised ESMs (illustrated by different line types) under RCP4.5, BSAP (blue), RCP4.5, REF
1227 (green), RCP8.5, BSAP (orange) and RCP8.5, REF (red) scenarios. A spin-up simulation since 1850 was
1228 performed, as illustrated by the evolution of hypoxia. (Source: Meier et al., 2021)

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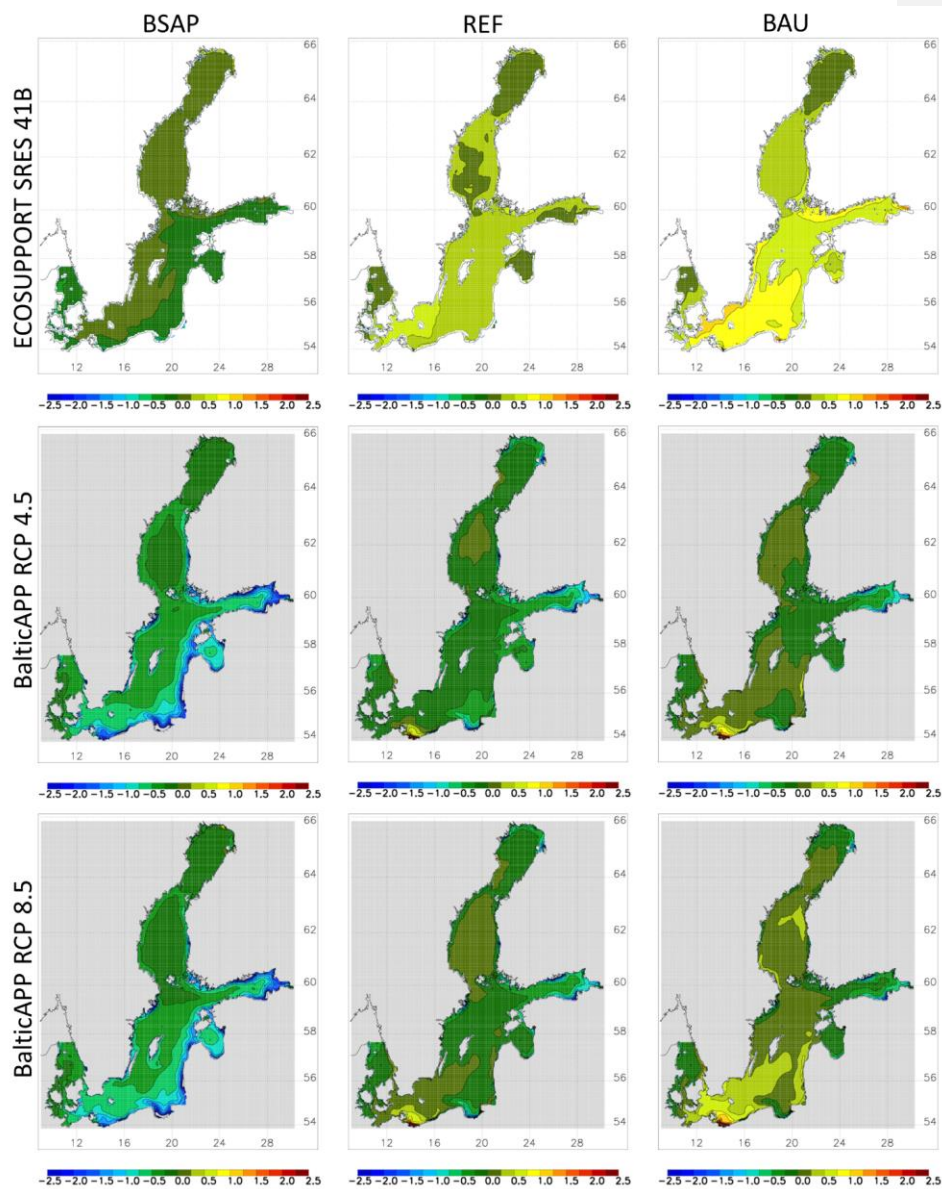


Figure 23: As in Figure 21a but for annual mean surface phytoplankton concentration changes (mg Chl m^{-3}). Concentrations are vertically averaged for the upper 10 m. (Source: Meier et al., 2011a; Saraiva et al., 2019a)

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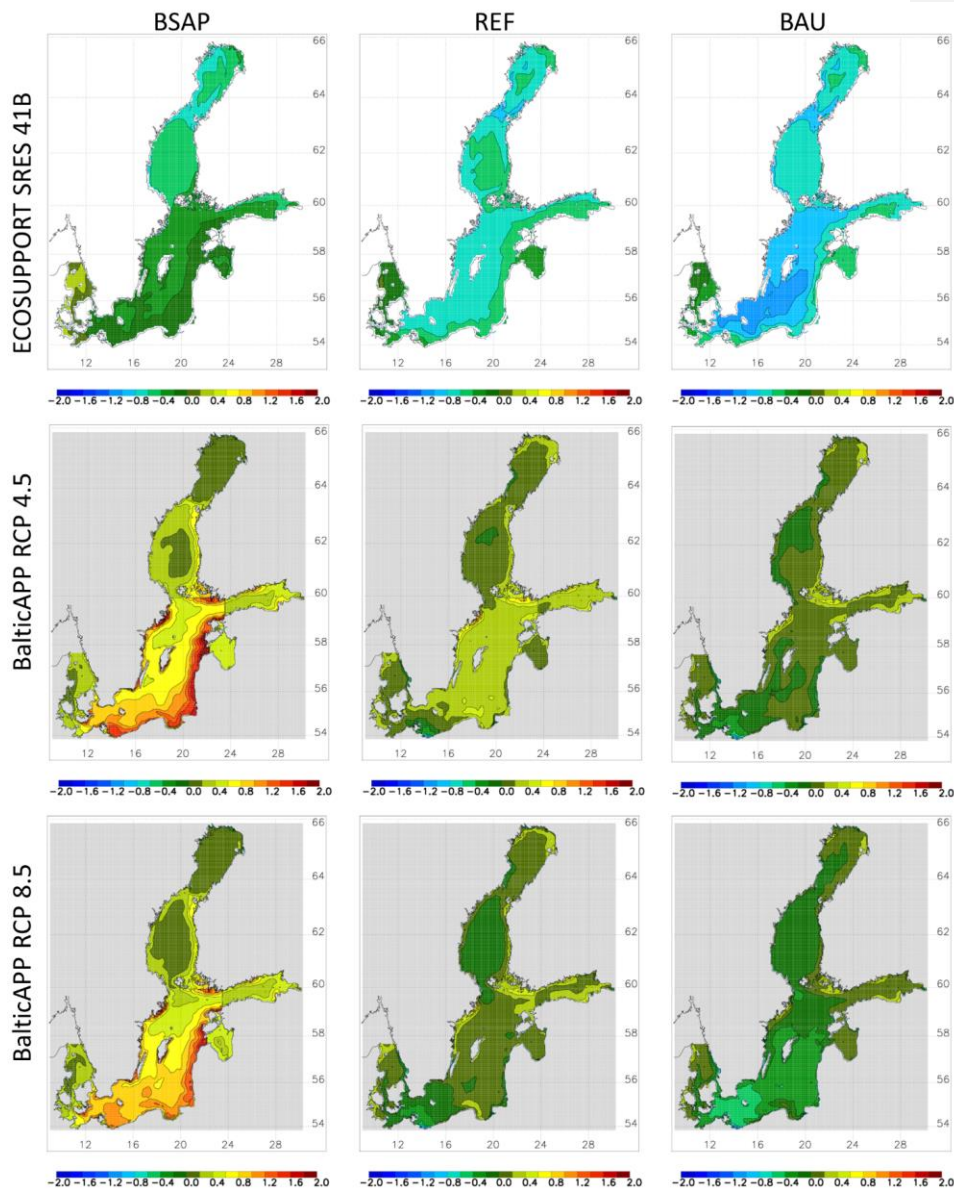


Figure 24. As in Figure 21a but for changes in the annual mean Secchi depth changes (m). (Source: Meier et al., 2011a; Saraiva et al., 2019a)

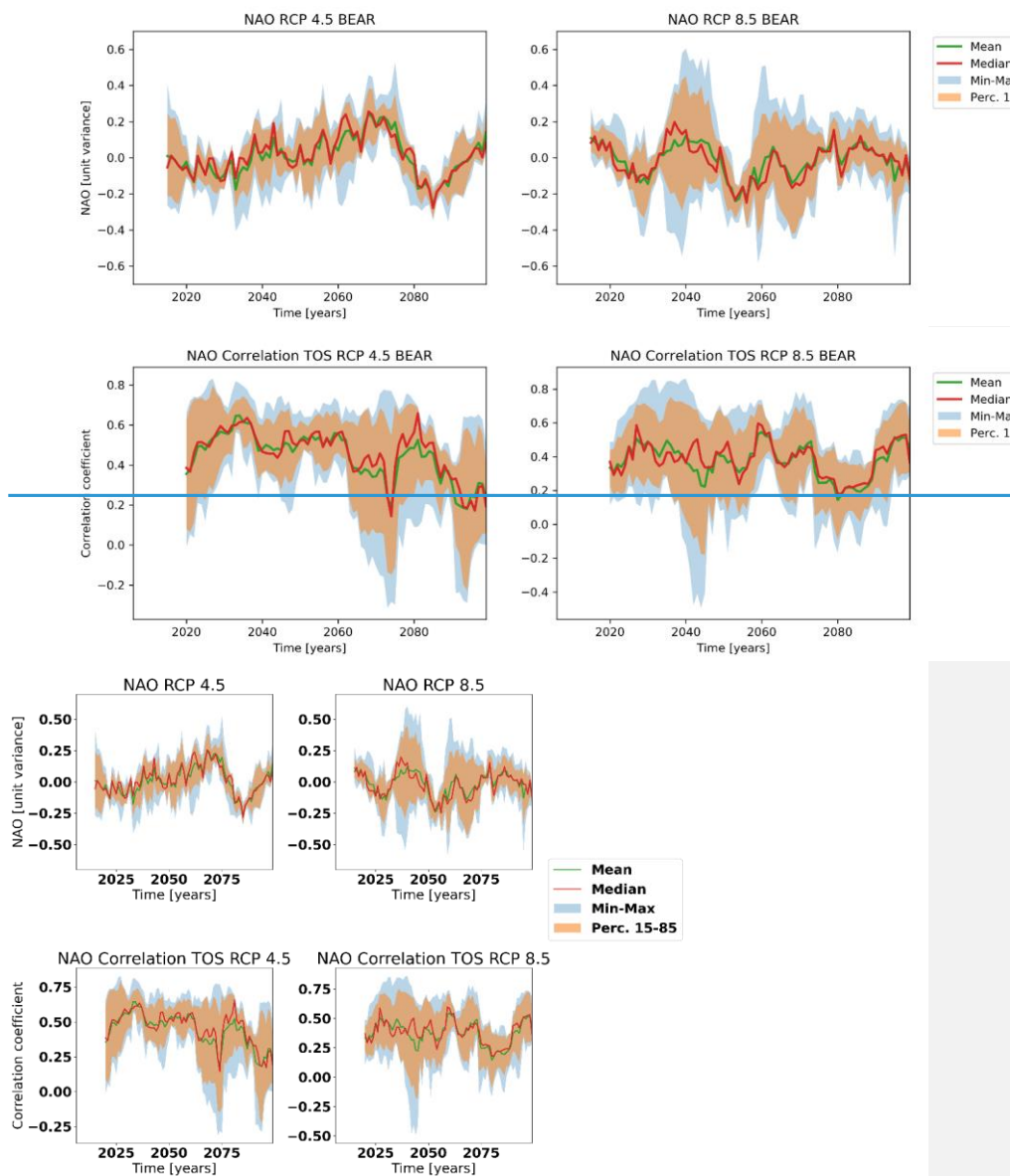


Figure 25. Ensemble 10-year running mean North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) index (upper panels) and 10-year running correlation between the NAO and area averaged sea surface temperature (SST) in the Baltic Sea (lower panels) under RCP4.5 (left panels) and RCP8.5 (right panels) scenarios. Depicted are winter (December through February) mean, median, minimum, maximum and 15th and 85th percentiles. (Data source: Meier et al., 2021)

1247 Tables

1248 **Table 1.** Selected ensembles of the scenario simulations for the Baltic Sea carried out in international projects (AR
 1249 = IPCC Assessment Report, GCM = General Circulation Model, RCSM = Regional Climate System Model,
 1250 RCAO = Rossby Centre Atmosphere Ocean model, RCA4 = Rossby Centre Atmosphere model Version 4, NEMO
 1251 = Nucleus for European Modelling of the Ocean, REMO = Regional Model, MPIOM = Max Planck Institute
 1252 Ocean Model, HAMSOM = Hamburg Shelf Ocean Model)

Project	Swedish Regional Climate Modelling Program	Advanced modelling tool for scenarios of the Baltic Sea ECOSystem to SUPPORT decision making	Holocene saline water inflow changes into the Baltic Sea, ecosystem responses and future scenarios	Building predictive capability regarding the Baltic Sea organic/inorganic carbon and oxygen systems	Wellbeing from the Baltic Sea - applications combining natural science and economics	Impacts of Climate Change on Waterways and Navigation	Regionally downscaled climate projections for the Baltic and North Seas
Acronym	SWECLIM	ECOSUPPORT	INFLOW	Baltic-C	BalticAPP	KLIWAS	CLIMSEA
Duration	1997-2003	2009-2011	2009-2011	2009-2011	2015-2017	2009-2013	2018-2020
Project summaries	Rummukainen et al., 2004	Meier et al., 2014	Kotilainen et al., 2014	Omstedt et al., 2014	Saraiva et al., 2019a	Bülow et al., 2014	MeierDieterich et al., 2021
GCMs	AR3	AR4	AR4	AR4	AR5	AR4/AR5	AR5
RCSM	RCAO	RCAO	RCAO	RCA	RCA4-NEMO	REMO-MPIOM, REMO-HAMSOM, RCA4-NEMO	RCA4-NEMO
Horizontal resolution atmosphere/ocean	50 km/10.8 km	25 km/3.6 km	25 km/3.6 km and 50 km/3.6 km for paleoclimate	25 km /horizontally integrated	25 km /3.6 km	varying	25 km/3.6 km
Period(s)	1961-1990 and 2071-2100	1961-2099	1961-2099 and 950-1800 AD	1960-2100	1976-2100, improved initial conditions	1961-2099	1976-2100
Ocean model	One physical Baltic Sea model	Three physical-biogeochemical Baltic Sea models	See ECOSUPPORT	One physical-biogeochemical Baltic Sea model including the carbon cycle	One physical-biogeochemical Baltic Sea model	Two physical regional models with focus on the Baltic Sea and North Sea regions and one physical-biogeochemical ocean model	One physical-biogeochemical Baltic Sea model
References	Döscher and Meier, 2004; Meier et al., 2004a; Meier et al., 2004b	Meier et al., 2011a; 2011b; Meier et al., 2012c; Neumann et al., 2012	See ECOSUPPORT, Schimanke and Meier, 2016	Omstedt et al., 2012	Saraiva et al., 2019a, b; Meier et al., 2019b	Bülow et al., 2014; Gröger et al., 2019; Dieterich et al., 2019	Gröger et al., 2021b; Meier et al., 2021

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Table 2. Salinity projections assessed by the BACC Author Team (2008), BACC II Author Team (2015) and BEAR (this study). Salinity changes depend on the changes in the wind field (in particular, in the west wind component), river discharge and sea-level rise (SLR).

	West wind	River discharge (%)	Sea-level rise SLR	Salinity
BACC (2008)	Large increase	-8 to +26%	0	0 to -3.7 g kg ⁻¹
BACC II (2015)	Small increase	+15 to +22%	0	-1 to -2 g kg ⁻¹
BEAR (this study)	No significant change	+2 to +22%	Medium SLR +0.54 to +0.90 m	No robust change, with a considerable spread

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1260 **Table 3.** List of scenario simulations of three ensembles. From left to right, the columns show the Earth System
 1261 Model (ESM), the Regional Climate System Model (RCSM), the Baltic Sea Ecosystem Model, the greenhouse
 1262 gas (GHG) emission or concentration scenario, the nutrient input scenario, the sea-level rise (SLR) scenario and
 1263 the simulation period, including historical and scenario periods. ~~The four nutrient input scenarios were used: Baltic~~
 1264 ~~Sea Action Plan (BSAP), Reference (REF), Business-As-Usual (BAU) and Worst Case (WORST)-scenarios.~~ For
 1265 the three SLR scenarios in the CLIMSEA ensemble, the mean sea level changes at the end of the century are given
 1266 in meters.

ECOSUPPORT (28 scenario simulations, Meier et al., 2011a 2011b)						
ESM	RCSM	Baltic Sea Model	GHG scenario	Nutrient input scenario	SLR scenario	Period
HadCM3	RCAO	BALTSEM	A1B	BSAP/REF/BAU	0	1961–2099
ECHAM5/MPI-OM-r1	RCAO	BALTSEM	A1B	BSAP/REF/BAU	0	1961–2099
ECHAM5/MPI-OM-r3	RCAO	BALTSEM	A1B	BSAP/REF/BAU	0	1961–2099
ECHAM5/MPI-OM-r1	RCAO	BALTSEM	A2	BSAP/REF/BAU	0	1961–2099
HadCM3	RCAO	MOM-ERGOM	A1B	BSAP/REF	0	1961–2099
ECHAM5/MPI-OM-r1	RCAO	MOM-ERGOM	A1B	BSAP/REF	0	1961–2099
HadCM3	RCAO	RCO-SCOBI	A1B	BSAP/REF/BAU	0	1961–2099
ECHAM5/MPI-OM-r1	RCAO	RCO-SCOBI	A1B	BSAP/REF/BAU	0	1961–2099
ECHAM5/MPI-OM-r3	RCAO	RCO-SCOBI	A1B	BSAP/REF/BAU	0	1961–2099
ECHAM5/MPI-OM-r1	RCAO	RCO-SCOBI	A2	BSAP/REF/BAU	0	1961–2099
BalticAPP (21 scenario simulations, Saraiva et al., 2019a)						
MPI-ESM-LR	RCA4-NEMO	RCO-SCOBI	RCP4.5	BSAP/REF/WORST	0	1976–2099
MPI-ESM-LR	RCA4-NEMO	RCO-SCOBI	RCP8.5	BSAP/REF/WORST	0	1976–2099

EC-EARTH	RCA4-NEMO	RCO-SCOBI	RCP4.5	BSAP/REF/WORST	0	1976– 2099
EC-EARTH	RCA4-NEMO	RCO-SCOBI	RCP8.5	BSAP/REF/WORST	0	1976– 2099
IPSL-CM5A-MR	RCA4-NEMO	RCO-SCOBI	RCP4.5	BSAP/REF/WORST	0	1976– 2099
HadGEM2-ES	RCA4-NEMO	RCO-SCOBI	RCP4.5	BSAP/REF/WORST	0	1976– 2098
HadGEM2-ES	RCA4-NEMO	RCO-SCOBI	RCP8.5	BSAP/REF/WORST	0	1976– 2098
CLIMSEA (48 scenario simulations, Meier et al., 2021)						
MPI-ESM-LR	RCA4-NEMO	RCO-SCOBI	RCP4.5	BSAP/REF	0/0.54/1.26	1976– 2099
MPI-ESM-LR	RCA4-NEMO	RCO-SCOBI	RCP8.5	BSAP/REF	0/0.90/2.34	1976– 2099
EC-EARTH	RCA4-NEMO	RCO-SCOBI	RCP4.5	BSAP/REF	0/0.54/1.26	1976– 2099
EC-EARTH	RCA4-NEMO	RCO-SCOBI	RCP8.5	BSAP/REF	0/0.90/2.34	1976– 2099
IPSL-CM5A-MR	RCA4-NEMO	RCO-SCOBI	RCP4.5	BSAP/REF	0/0.54/1.26	1976– 2099
IPSL-CM5A-MR	RCA4-NEMO	RCO-SCOBI	RCP8.5	BSAP/REF	0/0.90/2.34	1976– 2099
HadGEM2-ES	RCA4-NEMO	RCO-SCOBI	RCP4.5	BSAP/REF	0/0.54/1.26	1976– 2098
HadGEM2-ES	RCA4-NEMO	RCO-SCOBI	RCP8.5	BSAP/REF	0/0.90/2.34	1976– 2098

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Table 4: Summary of the characteristics of the ECOSUPPORT, BalticAPP and CLIMSEA scenario simulations discussed in this study. For further details, the reader is referred to Tables 1 and 3. Acronyms are explained/defined in Table 5.

Acronym	Atmospheric forcing	GHG emission or concentration scenario	Hydrological forcing	Nutrient input scenario	Special features
ECOSUPPORT	Regionalized CMIP3 data, two GCMs	SRES A1B, A2	STAT	BSAP, REF, BAU	Three Baltic Sea models
BalticAPP	Regionalized CMIP5 data, four ESMs	RCP4.5, 8.5	E-HYPE	Revised scenarios BSAP, REF, WORST	Four ESMs
CLIMSEA	Regionalized CMIP5 data, four ESMs	RCP4.5, 8.5	E-HYPE	Revised scenarios BSAP, REF	SLR is considered

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Table 5. List of acronyms (in alphabetical order), their explanation/definitions and references in alphabetical order.

Acronym	Explanation/Definition	Comment	Reference
AMO	Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation	Mode of climate variability	Knight et al. (2005)
BACC	Assessment of climate change for the Baltic Sea basin	Regional climate change assessment	BACC Author Team (2008), BACC II Author Team (2015)
BalticAPP	Well-being from the Baltic Sea – applications combining natural science and economics	Climate modelling project for the Baltic Sea	Saraiva et al. (2019a)
BEAR	Baltic Earth assessment reports	Regional climate change assessment	https://baltic.earth
BSAP	Baltic Sea Action Plan	Nutrient load abatement strategy for the Baltic Sea	HELCOM (2013b)
BSAP, REF, BAU, WORST	Baltic Sea Action Plan, Reference, Business-As-Usual and WORST	Nutrient load scenarios	Meier et al. (2012a) , Saraiva et al. (2019b)
CLC	Cyanobacteria Life Cycle Model	Advanced biogeochemical model including a cyanobacteria life cycle	Hense and Beckmann (2006, 2010)
CLIMSEA	Regionally downscaled climate projections for the Baltic and North Seas	Climate modelling project for the Baltic Sea	Meier et al. (2021)
CMIP	Coupled Model Intercomparison Project of the World Climate Research Programme (WCRP)	In this study, GCM/ESM results from CMIP3 and CMIP5 were assessed	https://www.wcrp-climate.org/wgcm-cmip
EC-EARTH	European Countries Earth System Model	ESM, CMIP5	https://www.knmi.nl/home
ECHAM5-MPI-OM	Max Planck Institute Global Climate Model	GCM, CMIP3	Roeckner et al. (2006) , Jungclaus et al. (2006)
ECOSUPPORT	Advanced modeling/modelling tool for scenarios of the Baltic Sea ECOSystem to SUPPORT decision making	Climate modelling project for the Baltic Sea	Meier et al. (2014)
E-HYPE	Hydrological Predictions For The Environment applied for Europe	Process-based multi-basin model for the land surface	https://hypeweb.smhi.se/ , https://hypeweb.smhi.se/ , Arheimer et al. (2012) , Hundecha et al. (2016) , Donnelly et al. (2013) , Donnelly et al. (2017)

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ERA-40	40-year reanalysis of the European Centre for Medium Range Weather Forecast	Reanalysis data used, e.g. for instance as atmospheric forcing for ocean models	Uppala et al. (2005)
ESM	Earth System Model	Model applied for global climate simulations including the carbon cycle	Heavens et al. (2013)
EURO-CORDEX	Coordinated Downscaling Experiment: European Domain	High-resolution climate change projections for European impact research	Jacob et al. (2014), https://euro-cordex.net/
GCM	General Circulation Model	Model applied for global climate simulations	Meehl et al. (2004)
GHG	Greenhouse gas	Emission or concentration scenarios	Nakićenović et al. (2000), Moss et al. (2010), Van Vuuren et al. (2011)
HadCM3	Hadley Centre Global Climate Model	GCM, CMIP3	Gordon et al. (2000)
HadGEM2-ES	Hadley Centre Global Environment Model version 2: Earth System	ESM, CMIP5	http://www.metoffice.gov.uk
HELCOM	Helsinki Commission	Consists of the Baltic Sea countries and the European Union	https://helcom.fi
IOW	Leibniz Institute for Baltic Sea Research Warnemünde	German research institute	http://io-warnemuende.de
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel of Climate Change	PerformedGenerated assessment reports (AR) of past and future changes in 1990, 1995, 2001, 2008, 2013 inter alia based upon CMIP results	http://www.ipcc.ch
IPSL-CM5A-MR	Institut Pierre Simon Laplace Climate Model: Medium Resolution	ESM, CMIP5	http://cmc.ipsl.fr/
MPI-ESM-LR	Max Planck Institute Earth System Model: Low Resolution	ESM, CMIP5	https://www.mpimet.mpg.de
NAO	North Atlantic Oscillation	Mode of climate variability	Hurrell (1995)
NOSCCA	North Sea Region Climate Change Assessment Report	Regional climate change assessment	Quante and Colijn (2016)
RCA3	Rossby Centre Atmosphere Model version 3	Regional climate model	Samuelsson et al. (2011)

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RCA4-NEMO	Rossby CenterCentre Atmosphere model Version 4: —Nucleus for European Modelling of the Ocean	Coupled atmosphere-ocean model applied forto the Baltic Sea and North Sea	Dieterich et al. (2013), Wang et al. (2015), Kupiainen et al. (2014), Madec (2016)	Formatiert: Deutsch (Deutschland)
RCAO	Rossby Centre Atmosphere Ocean Model	Regional climate model	Döscher et al. (2002)	
RCM	Regional Climate Model	Regional atmosphere or coupled atmosphere-ocean model applied forto the dynamical downscaling of a changing climate	Giorgi (1990), Rummukainen (2010, 2016a), Rummukainen et al. (2015), Feser et al. (2011), Rockel (2015), Schrum (2017)	Formatiert: Schwedisch (Schweden) Formatiert: Deutsch (Deutschland)
RCO-SCOBI, BALTSEM, MOM-ERGOM	Model abbreviations	Coupled physical-biogeochemical models for the Baltic Sea	Meier et al. (2018a), their Tables 1 and 2 and references therein	Formatiert: Deutsch (Deutschland)
RCP	Representative Concentration Pathway	Greenhouse gas concentration scenario	Moss et al. (2010), Van Vuuren et al. (2011)	Formatiert: Schwedisch (Schweden)
RCSM	Regional Climate System Model	Regional coupled atmosphere — sea ice — ocean — wave — land surface — atmospheric chemistry — marine ecosystem model	Giorgi and Gao (2018)	
SRES	Special Report on Emission Scenarios	Described greenhouse gas emission scenarios, e.g. A1B, A2	Nakićenović et al. (2000)	
STAT	Hydrological model	Statistical model for river runoff calculated from precipitation and evaporation over land	Meier et al. (2012a)	

Table 6. Projected ensemble mean changes in total (land and atmosphere) bioavailable annual phosphorus (ΔP) and nitrogen (ΔN) inputs (in ktons) into the Baltic Sea between historical (1980–2005) and future (2072–2097) climates under the scenarios REF and BSAP (in ktons). (Source: Meier et al., 2018a; their Fig. 3)

Nutrient input scenario	REF		BSAP	
	ΔP	ΔN	ΔP	ΔN
ECOSUPPORT BALTSEM	+2	-17	-15	-208
ECOSUPPORT MOM-ERGOM	+1	-15	-8	-180
ECOSUPPORT RCO-SCOB1	+4	+72	-11	-230
BalticAPP/CLIMSEA RCO-SCOB1 (RCP4.5)	-18	-129	-34	-269

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Table 74. Ensemble mean changes in sea surface temperature (SST; in °C) in the ECOSUPPORT, BalticAPP RCP4.5, BalticAPP RCP8.5, CLIMSEA RCP4.5 and CLIMSEA RCP8.5 scenario simulations averaged for the Baltic Sea including the Kattegat (data sources: Meier et al., ~~2011a~~2011b; 2021; Saraiva et al., 2019a). (DJF = December, January, February, MAM = March, April, May, JJA = June, July, August, SON = September, October, November)

Δ SST	<u>Winter (DJF)</u>	<u>Spring (MAM)</u>	<u>Summer (JJA)</u>	<u>Autumn (SON)</u>	Annual mean
ECOSPPORT SRES A1B	<u>±2.5</u>	<u>±2.8</u>	<u>±2.8</u>	<u>±2.5</u>	<u>±2.6</u>
BalticAPP RCP4.5	<u>±1.7</u>	<u>±1.9</u>	<u>±2.0</u>	<u>±1.8</u>	<u>±1.8</u>
BalticAPP RCP8.5	<u>±2.9</u>	<u>±3.2</u>	<u>±3.3</u>	<u>±3.0</u>	<u>±3.1</u>
CLIMSEA RCP4.5	<u>±1.7</u>	<u>±1.9</u>	<u>±2.0</u>	<u>±1.9</u>	<u>±1.9</u>
CLIMSEA RCP8.5	<u>±2.8</u>	<u>±3.0</u>	<u>±3.0</u>	<u>±2.9</u>	<u>±2.9</u>

Table 85. Ensemble mean changes in annual mean sea surface salinity (SSS; in g kg⁻¹), annual mean bottom salinity (BS; in g kg⁻¹) and winter mean sea level (SL) relative to the global mean sea level (SL) (in cm) in ECOSUPPORT, BalticAPP RCP4.5, BalticAPP RCP8.5, CLIMSEA RCP4.5 and CLIMSEA RCP8.5 scenario simulations averaged for the Baltic Sea including the Kattegat. For CLIMSEA, both the ensemble mean and the high sea level scenarios are listed. In ECOSUPPORT and BalticAPP/CLIMSEA, the changes between 1978–2007 and 2069–2098 and between 1976–2005 and 2069–2098 were calculated, respectively. (Data sources: Meier et al., 2011a, 2011b; 2021; Saraiva et al., 2019a)

Annual/winter changes	ECOSUPPORT A1B/A2	BalticAPP RCP4.5	BalticAPP RCP8.5	CLIMSEA RCP4.5 mean	CLIMSEA RCP4.5 high	CLIMSEA RCP8.5 mean	CLIMSEA RCP8.5 high
Δ SSS	-1.5	-0.7	-0.6	-0.3	+0.2	-0.2	+0.6
Δ BS	-1.6	-0.6	-0.6	-0.0	+0.6	-0.0	+1.1
Δ SL	+5.5	+0.4	+3.7	+0.2	+0.1	+3.4	+3.2

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Table 9. Salinity changes averaged for the Baltic Sea in 1988–2007 relative to 1850 as a function of sea-level rise (SLR). In the reference simulation, the mean salinity amounts to 7.42 g kg^{-1} . In method 1, the increase in the water level was added to the first vertical grid box of the RCO-SCOB1 model, while in method 2 the increase in the water level was evenly divided between the first and second grid boxes.

SLR (in m)	-0.24	+0.5	+1.0	+1.5 (method 1)	+1.5 (method 2)
Salinity (in g kg^{-1})	-0.35	+0.71	+1.41	+2.10	+2.03

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Table 106. As in Table 85, but showing the ensemble mean changes in the summer mean bottom oxygen concentration (in mL L^{-1}) in ECOSUPPORT, BalticAPP RCP4.5, BalticAPP RCP8.5, CLIMSEA RCP4.5 and CLIMSEA RCP8.5 scenario simulations averaged for the Baltic Sea including the Kattegat. The projected changes depend on the nutrient input scenario: Baltic Sea Action Plan (BSAP), Reference (REF), and Business-As-Usual (BAU) or Worst Case (WORST). (Data sources: Meier et al., 2011ab; 2021; Saraiva et al., 2019a)

Summer changes	ECOSUPPORT A1B/A2	BalticAPP RCP4.5	BalticAPP RCP8.5	CLIMSEA RCP4.5 mean	CLIMSEA RCP4.5 high	CLIMSEA RCP8.5 mean	CLIMSEA RCP8.5 high
BSAP	-0.1	+0.6	+0.5	+0.6	+0.5	+0.4	+0.3
REF	-0.6	+0.1	-0.2	+0.0	-0.1	-0.2	-0.4
BAU/ WORST	-1.1	-0.1	-0.5	-	-	-	-
WORST	-	-0.1	-0.5	-	-	-	-

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Table 117. As in Table 85, but showing the ensemble mean changes in the annual Secchi depth (in m) in the ECOSUPPORT, BalticAPP RCP4.5, BalticAPP RCP8.5, CLIMSEA RCP4.5 and CLIMSEA RCP8.5 scenario simulations averaged for the Baltic Sea including the Kattegat. The projected changes depend on the nutrient input scenario: **Baltic Sea Action Plan (BSAP)**, **Reference (REF)**, and **Business As Usual (BAU)** or **Worst Case (WORST)**. (Data sources: Meier et al., 2014a, 2011b; 2021; Saraiva et al., 2019a)

Annual changes	ECOSUPPORT A1B/A2	BalticAPP RCP4.5	BalticAPP RCP8.5	CLIMSEA RCP4.5 mean	CLIMSEA RCP4.5 high	CLIMSEA RCP8.5 mean	CLIMSEA RCP8.5 high
BSAP	-0.34	+0.6	+0.65	+0.6	+0.6	+0.6	+0.6
REF	-0.6	+0.24	-0.12	+0.2	+0.2	+0.1	+0.1
BAU/ WORST	-0.84	-0.4	-0.5	-	-	-	-
<u>WORST</u>	-	0.1	-0.1	-	-	-	-

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