

Global climate change and the Baltic Sea ecosystem: direct and indirect effects on species, communities and ecosystem functioning

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1 Abstract

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3 Climate change has multiple effects on Baltic Sea species, communities and ecosystem
4 functioning, through changes in physical and biogeochemical environmental characteristics
5 of the sea. Associated indirect and secondary effects on species interactions, trophic
6 dynamics and ecosystem function are expected to be significant. We review studies
7 investigating species-, population- and ecosystem-level effects of abiotic factors that may
8 change due to global climate change, such as temperature, salinity, oxygen, pH, nutrient
9 levels, and the more indirect biogeochemical and food web processes, primarily based on
10 peer-reviewed literature published since 2010.

11 For phytoplankton, clear symptoms of climate change, such as prolongation of the
12 growing season are evident, and can be explained by the warming, but otherwise climate
13 effects vary from species to species and area to area. Several modelling studies project a
14 decrease of phytoplankton bloom in spring and an increase in cyanobacteria blooms in
15 summer. The associated increase in N:P ratio may contribute to maintaining the ‘vicious
16 circle of eutrophication’. However, uncertainties remain because some field studies claim that
17 cyanobacteria have not increased and some experimental studies show that responses of
18 cyanobacteria to temperature, salinity and pH vary from species to species. An increase of
19 riverine DOM may also decrease primary production, but the relative importance of this
20 process in different sea areas is not well known. Bacteria growth is favoured by increasing
21 temperature and DOM, but complex effects in the microbial [loop-food web](#) are probable.

22 Warming of seawater in spring also speeds up zooplankton growth and shortens the time lag
23 between phytoplankton and zooplankton peaks, which may lead to decreasing of
24 phytoplankton in spring. In summer, a shift towards smaller size zooplankton and a decline of
25 marine copepod species has been projected.

26 In deep benthic communities, continued eutrophication promotes high sedimentation
27 and keeps food conditions for zoobenthos good. If nutrient abatement proceeds, improving
28 oxygen conditions will first increase zoobenthos biomass but the subsequent decrease of
29 sedimenting matter will disrupt the pelagic-benthic coupling and lead to a decreased
30 zoobenthos biomass. In the shallower photic systems, heatwaves may produce
31 eutrophication-like effects, e.g., overgrowth of bladderwrack by epiphytes, due to a trophic
32 cascade. If salinity also declines, marine species such as bladderwrack, eelgrass and blue
33 mussel may decline. Freshwater vascular plants will be favoured but they cannot replace
34 macroalgae on rocky substrates. Consequently also invertebrates and fish benefiting from
35 macroalgal belts may suffer. Climate induced changes in the environment also favour
36 establishment of non-indigenous species, potentially affecting food web dynamics in the
37 Baltic Sea.

38 As for fish, salinity decline and continuing of hypoxia is projected to keep cod stocks
39 low, whereas the increasing temperature has been projected to favour sprat and certain coastal
40 fish. Regime shifts and cascading effects have been observed in both pelagic and benthic
41 systems, as a result of several climatic and environmental effects acting synergistically.

42 Knowledge gaps include uncertainties in projecting the future salinity level as well as
43 stratification, and potential rate of internal loading, under different climate forcings. This
44 weakens our ability to project how pelagic productivity, fish populations and macroalgal
45 communities may change in the future. 3D ecosystem models, food web models and 2D
46 species distribution models would benefit from integration, but progress is slowed down by
47 scale problems and inability of models to consider the complex interactions between species.
48 Experimental work should be better integrated into empirical and modelling studies of food
49 web dynamics, to get a more comprehensive view of the responses of the pelagic and benthic
50 systems to climate change, from bacteria to fish. Also, to better understand the effects of
51 climate change on biodiversity of the Baltic Sea, more emphasis should be placed on studies
52 of shallow photic environments.

53 The fate of the Baltic Sea ecosystem will depend on various intertwined environmental
54 factors, and on development of the society. Climate change will probably delay the effects of
55 nutrient abatement and tend to keep the ecosystem in its 'novel' state. Several modelling

56 studies however conclude that nutrient reductions will be a stronger driver for ecosystem
57 functioning of the Baltic Sea than climate change. Such studies highlight the importance of
58 studying the Baltic Sea as an interlinked socio-ecological system.

59

60 **Keywords:** Climate change, biodiversity, species, communities, food webs, ecosystem
61 functioning, Baltic Sea

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64 **1. Introduction**

65

66 Global climate change affects the marine ecosystem through ocean warming, acidification,
67 deoxygenation and through changes in nutrient loading and water circulation, which may all
68 impact marine biological processes from genes to populations, communities, and ecosystems
69 (Brierley and Kingsford, 2009; Henson et al., 2017). The biological consequences range from
70 shifts in species abundance and distributions, changes in dispersal patterns and modification
71 of species interactions to altered food webs and decreasing ocean productivity (Hoegh-
72 Guldberg and Bruno, 2010; Philippart et al., 2011; Doney et al., 2012; Burrows et al., 2019).
73 The changes in biological processes also affect marine ecosystem services and threaten
74 human food security, especially in the most vulnerable areas (Barange et al., 2014).

75 Climate change has multiple effects also on the Baltic Sea, impacting species,
76 communities, and ecosystem functioning. As in the ocean, the effects are usually mediated
77 via climate affected oceanographic or biogeochemical processes and via associated indirect
78 effects on species interactions, trophic dynamics, and ecosystem function mechanisms. These
79 potentially affect the biota inhabiting the Baltic Sea, as well as the human society (Paasche et
80 al., 2015; Hyytiäinen et al., 2019; Pihlainen et al., 2020; Stenseth et al., 2020).

81 The effects of climate change on the Baltic Sea ecosystem may differ from those
82 projected for the oceanic areas as the Baltic Sea differs in many respects from the oceans and
83 even from the coastal ecosystems surrounding the other regional seas and oceans. The
84 communities of the Baltic Sea are formed of a peculiar combination of marine, limnetic and
85 brackishwater taxa. The long winter and the strong seasonal cycle give the area sub-arctic
86 properties, especially in the northern areas. The Baltic Sea has also been shown to warm up
87 faster than most other sea areas of the world (Belkin, 2009; Sherman et al., 2009), albeit with
88 large differences between sub-basins (Kniebusch et al., 2019; Dutheil et al., 2021). The Baltic
89 Sea is also strongly affected by its watershed, which is more than four times larger than its

90 surface area and is inhabited by ca. 85 million people (Omran and Negm, 2020). The marine
91 ecosystem therefore receives excess nutrients and other elements and contaminants from the
92 land via rivers, through the air, and by leaking from the sediments of the Baltic Sea.
93 Furthermore, the irregular inflows of more saline and oxic North Sea water, which at specific
94 basin-wide weather conditions enter the Baltic sea through the Danish Straits (Matthäus and
95 Schinke, 1994; Lehmann et al., 2022) and influence the state and functioning of the Baltic
96 Sea.

97 All these pathways of chemical elements and oceanographic and biogeochemical
98 processes may be affected by global climate change and the quasi-cyclic climate phenomena
99 such as the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO). It has also been suggested that impacts and
100 symptoms of global climate change are accumulating faster in the Baltic Sea than in other
101 coastal areas of the oceans, and that Baltic Sea thus can be considered as “a time machine for
102 the future coastal ocean” (Reusch et al., 2018).

103 However, attribution of the observed ecosystem changes to global (anthropogenic)
104 climate change is challenging because of the multiple synergistic effects between climate and
105 other environmental drivers, such as eutrophication, harmful substances, habitat modification,
106 fishing and introduction of non-indigenous species, which all may have strong impacts on
107 ecosystems and their functioning in time and space (Reusch et al., 2018; Stenseth et al., 2020;
108 Bonsdorff, 2021). Therefore, profound knowledge of the mechanisms and processes
109 governing Baltic Sea ecosystem under climate change are vital for the understanding and
110 management of the Baltic Sea (Reusch et al., 2018; Bonsdorff, 2021; Blenckner et al., 2021).

111 The overall effects of climate change on the Baltic Sea have been reviewed in earlier
112 synthesis-studies (The BACC Author Team, 2008; The BACC II Author Team, 2015), in
113 which also climate impacts on the marine ecosystem were assessed (Dippner et al., 2008;
114 Viitasalo et al., 2015). Since then, a wealth of field, experimental and modelling studies have
115 shed more light onto the complex interactions between the climate change and the Baltic Sea
116 system (Meier et al., 2022b).

117 In this paper, we review research on climate change effects on the Baltic Sea species,
118 habitats, and ecosystem functioning, primarily based on research published in 2010—2021.
119 We include both studies investigating direct effects of climate related parameters on
120 organisms, as well as studies that investigate the more indirect processes affecting the
121 structure and functioning of the Baltic Sea ecosystem through biogeochemistry and food web
122 interactions. Evidence is compiled from empirical field studies that show past changes and
123 responses of species, populations, and communities to climate-affected parameters such as

124 temperature, salinity, oxygen and pH. A large number of experimental studies, investigating
 125 species responses to the same parameters in micro- or mesocosms, are reviewed. Studies
 126 investigating the complex effects of climate change on the interactions between species and
 127 trophic groups, i.e., phytoplankton, bacteria, cyanobacteria, zooplankton, and fish, as well as
 128 algae or vascular plants and invertebrates grazing on them, are also analysed. Modelling
 129 studies, based on coupled oceanographic-biogeochemical models or other types of species-
 130 level or food web models, are reviewed. Based on the published research we draw
 131 conclusions about the role of climate driven environmental variables on shaping the structure
 132 and functioning of the Baltic Sea ecosystem and identify knowledge gaps and current issues
 133 of dissensus. Areas in need of more research are recommended.

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136 2. Definitions

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138 We review studies that shed light to the possible climate effects on the Baltic Sea ecosystem,
 139 by studying oceanographic and biogeochemical parameters which have been projected to
 140 change due to climate change. As such changes may be affected by both anthropogenic
 141 global climate change and by natural climate variations, it is first necessary to define certain
 142 key terms used in this review.

143 By *global climate change* we refer to the past and contemporary increase in global
 144 temperature, caused by anthropogenic emissions of CO₂ and other greenhouse gases, and its
 145 effects on various climatic as well as oceanographic and biogeochemical parameters. By
 146 *climate change*, in turn, we refer to a large-scale shift in climatic parameters affecting the
 147 Baltic Sea region, that may be caused either by global climate change, by cyclic climate
 148 fluctuations (such as North Atlantic Oscillation, NAO) or by irregular or stochastic variation
 149 in climate parameters. We are not referring to considering short-term (between-year or
 150 seasonal) weather patterns weather variations, but mainly include studies consider that attempt
 151 to reveal organisms' responses to longer term (several years – decades) variability in climate.

152 For *ecosystem functioning* we use Tilman's (2001) definition, "the rate, level, or
 153 temporal dynamics of one or more ecosystem processes such as primary production, total
 154 plant biomass, or nutrient gain, loss, or concentration". By *functional diversity* we mean "the
 155 range and value of those species and organismal traits that influence ecosystem functioning"
 156 (Tilman, 2001). A *functional group*, is "a set of species that have similar traits and that thus
 157 are likely to be similar in their effects on ecosystem functioning" (Tilman, 2001).

Kommentout [VM1]: R2:
 r. 150 Variation between year is weather variations as climate
 variations are defined as differences between 30-year periods

158 With *biogeochemical processes*, we refer to various biogeochemical cycles and
159 processes, which often involve cycling and transfer of allochthonous or autochthonous essential
160 nutrients and/or minerals and organic carbon, and which are either driven or influence
161 biological activity in species. With *trophic dynamics* we refer to interactions between trophic
162 levels or functional groups, such as phytoplankton, bacteria, cyanobacteria, nano- and
163 microflagellates, micro-, meso- and microzooplankton, zoobenthos and fish, as well as algae
164 and vascular plants and invertebrates living amongst them.

165 *Trophic efficiency* is defined as “the efficiency of energy flow between trophic levels,
166 and is the percentage of energy from a trophic level that is used by the organisms of the next
167 trophic level for growth and reproduction” (Hine, 2019).

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170 3. Review methods

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172 The search for relevant papers was implemented mainly using Web of Science (WoS)
173 website tool (<https://apps.webofknowledge.com/>), maintained by Clarivate. The search was
174 focused on years 2010-2021 and was performed using several search terms in various
175 combinations. These included (always) “Baltic Sea” and (in various combinations) “climate”,
176 “climate change”, “global climate change”, “marine ecosystem”, “temperature”, “salinity”,
177 “acidification” and “pH”, as well as taxonomic groups such as “phytoplankton”,
178 “cyanobacteria”, “bacteria”, “zooplankton”, “microzooplankton”, “mesozooplankton”,
179 “flagellates”, “macroalgae”, “zoobenthos”, “benthic animals” and “fish” as well as
180 “microbial loop”. Marine birds and mammals were not included. The words were used as
181 both search terms Title and Topic, and several reference lists were derived and merged.

182 Some papers from 2021 and 2022 were found and downloaded with an unstructured
183 search performed with Google Scholar, as this website tool includes more recent publications
184 than WoS. In some cases, references before 2010 were also included, if it was necessary to
185 back up the statements with older studies.

186 The search resulted in 500+ papers, of which many were not relevant with the current
187 review, i.e., were not concerning effects of climate change on species, habitats or ecosystem
188 functioning in the Baltic Sea. The most relevant studies were saved into library groups of
189 EndNote X9.2 reference management software (Clarivate Analytics), and the contents were
190 scrutinized in more detail.

191 Because of the focus period, 2010-2021, the review is not a full systematic review of all
 192 research done on climate change effects on the Baltic Sea ecosystem this far. Also, certain
 193 taxonomic groups [and study types](#) were less thoroughly reviewed than others. Fish studies in
 194 particular were not comprehensively scrutinized, because the complex responses of fish
 195 populations to climate, eutrophication and fisheries have recently been addressed by a large
 196 number of studies and would merit their own review. [Also, we have not reviewed all](#)
 197 [experimental studies that have dealt with environmental variables that may change with](#)
 198 [climate change](#). Our goal is to highlight the variety of field, experimental and modelling
 199 studies and to summarise what can be concluded from the recent evidence on the possible
 200 effects of climate change on the Baltic Sea.

Kommentoinut [VM2]: R2 General comments:
 The fact that many more mesocosm studies relevant for climate-change effect has been reported need to be clarified and preferably some references added. Also, clarify that just a selected number of studies using defined test variables are presented in table 1

201

202

203 4. Effects on species and communities

204

205 4.1. Phytoplankton

206

207 Climate change may have direct effects on the physiology and phenology on phytoplankton,
 208 through physical and chemical parameters, and indirectly through hydrodynamics, e.g.,
 209 stratification, and availability of light and nutrients. Top-down forces, i.e., grazing on
 210 phytoplankton, may also be modified in various ways if grazer populations change.

211 The growing season of phytoplankton has been significantly prolonged with warming
 212 temperatures during the recent past decades. A satellite-based study suggested that the length
 213 of the period with chlorophyll concentration of at least 3 mg m⁻³ has in the Baltic Sea
 214 doubled, from 110 days in 1998 to 220 days in 2013 (Kahru et al., 2016). Another study
 215 using phytoplankton sampling data from the Bay of Mecklenburg, western Baltic Sea,
 216 confirmed that the phytoplankton growing season, which in 1988—1992 on average lasted
 217 from March to August, now (2014-2017), now extends from February to December
 218 (Wasmund et al., 2019), with a longer gap between the spring and late summer peaks. This
 219 prolongation was tentatively explained by increased sunshine in spring and higher
 220 temperature in the autumn, inducing changes in species composition and settling rates of
 221 phytoplankton, remineralization of organic matter by bacteria, and grazing rates by
 222 zooplankton (Wasmund et al., 2019).

223 The spring species communities have also shifted from dominance of early blooming
 224 diatoms to later blooming dinoflagellates and the mixotrophic ciliate *Mesodinium rubrum*

225 (Klais et al., 2011; Hällfors et al., 2013; Kuosa et al., 2017; Hjerne et al., 2019), probably due
226 to changes in climate and weather patterns, including ice cover, solar irradiation and wind
227 conditions (Klais et al., 2013; Hjerne et al., 2019). In the long-term data, variable results can
228 be seen, according to area and dominating species group. For instance, spring phytoplankton
229 biomass increased in the Baltic Proper but decreased in the Belt Sea area (1979-2005); both
230 areas showed antagonism between communities dominated by diatoms or dinoflagellates, and
231 the trends were therefore oscillating rather than linear (Wasmund et al., 2011). Symptoms of
232 a regime shift were identified, and changes were attributed to approximately 10-year
233 fluctuations in temperature, salinity, and nutrients. A linkage to global climate change was
234 not detected (Wasmund et al., 2011).

235 Some studies have attributed the springtime shifts in phytoplankton phenology and
236 community structure to changes in environmental conditions driven by global climate change.
237 A fifteen-year study (2000-2014) using FerryBox observations, covering the area between
238 Helsinki (Gulf of Finland) and Travemünde (Mecklenburg Bight), confirmed that spring
239 bloom intensity was mainly determined by winter nutrient concentration, while bloom timing
240 and duration co-varied with meteorological conditions. The authors conclude that the bloom
241 magnitude has been affected by the reduction of nutrient loading from land, while bloom
242 phenology can also be modified by global climate change affecting seasonal oceanographic
243 and biogeochemical processes (Groetsch et al., 2016).

244 It has also been suggested that, in the future climate, higher temperatures and less ice
245 will cause an earlier bloom of both diatoms and dinoflagellates, with increased dinoflagellate
246 dominance (Hjerne et al., 2019). Experimental (mesocosm) evidence supports findings that
247 warming up of water and changes in light conditions will accelerate the spring bloom, induce
248 a decline in peak biomass and favour small size cells, either directly or via increased grazing
249 by copepods (Sommer et al., 2012). On the other hand, this development may be
250 counteracted by increases of windiness and cloudiness, which have also been projected by
251 certain modelling studies (Hjerne et al., 2019). Recent studies have however indicated that
252 the projections for spring and summer wind and radiation are uncertain (Christensen et al.,
253 2022), and future weather changes and associated spring bloom dynamics therefore remain
254 obscure.

255 Climate change effects, i.e., temperature increase, salinity decline and acidification
256 have been shown to have variable results on the toxic dinoflagellate *Alexandrium ostenfeldii*.
257 Generally, the growth rates, as well as saxitoxin production, increased with higher
258 temperature and elevated pCO₂, but the responses were variable between strains (Kremp et

259 al., 2012; Kremp et al., 2016). In contrast, temperature or salinity changes did not have a
260 significant effect on cyst germination of this species (Jerney et al., 2019).

261 Climate change also increases concentration of water carbon dioxide, a compound
262 necessary for primary production, and ocean acidification (OA) could therefore enhance
263 productivity of phytoplankton. However, the results of experimental studies investigating
264 effects of pCO₂ on phytoplankton are variable. The biomass of southern Baltic autumn
265 phytoplankton (kept in 1400-L indoor mesocosms for 21 days) increased when pCO₂ was
266 increased from 439 ppm to 1040 ppm, also under warm conditions (Sommer et al., 2015). In
267 other experiments, OA had little effects on community composition, fatty acid composition or
268 biovolumes of phytoplankton in spring or autumn (Paul et al., 2015; Bermudez et al., 2016;
269 Olofsson et al., 2019). Even when (positive) effects were detected, they were mainly caused
270 by an associated decrease of grazing by copepod nauplii in low temperature treatments (Paul
271 et al., 2016).

272 There are also studies that have indicated a connection between phytoplankton and the
273 North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO). A decline in the intensity of NAO in the 1990s was
274 suggested to have caused by less cloudy conditions, giving more irradiance, and less windy
275 conditions, inducing stronger stratification of surface water (Hjerne et al., 2019). If the shifts
276 are driven by variations in NAO or the Baltic Sea Index (BSI, a regional index similar to the
277 NAO), they may be temporary and reversable, whereas shifts caused by global climate
278 change may be more enduring.

279 In the northern Baltic Proper, Åland Sea and the Gulf of Finland, the biomasses of
280 Chrysophyceae, Prymnesiophyceae and Cyanophyceae have increased and the phytoplankton
281 biomass maximum, which in the 1980's was in spring and mainly consisted of diatoms, is
282 now in July-August and is dominated by filamentous cyanobacteria (Suikkanen et al., 2013).
283 This shift was explained by a complex interaction between eutrophication, climate induced
284 warming, and increased top-down pressure, as well as changes in DIN:DIP ratio in summer
285 (Suikkanen et al., 2013). In the Gulf of Bothnia, a gradual decline in salinity was also an
286 important factor for phytoplankton community change in 1979 to 2012 (Kuosa et al., 2017).

287 It is obvious that climatic influences are intertwined with other processes and
288 parameters affecting phytoplankton, especially anthropogenic nutrient loading from land and
289 internal loading of nutrients from the sediments. There is however a discrepancy on the
290 relative effects of eutrophication, climate change and other environmental and anthropogenic
291 factors in explaining past variations in phytoplankton communities and biomass. Also,

292 several studies have identified complex variations in phytoplankton communities that cannot
293 be easily explained by any of the studied factors or environmental parameters.

294 A study comparing historic phytoplankton communities from 1903-1911 with the
295 present ones (1993-2005) in the northern Baltic Proper and the Gulf of Finland observed an
296 undefined “period effect”, characterized by a decline of diatoms and increase of
297 dinoflagellates, that was not well explained by the available environmental variables
298 (temperature, salinity, and general regional climatological data). Although data on
299 biogeochemical parameters was not available for the period 1903-1911, the authors
300 interpreted the observed community change as evidence of the direct and/or indirect influence
301 of eutrophication (Hällfors et al., 2013).

302 A study investigating summer phytoplankton time series (HELCOM monitoring 1979-
303 2012) across the Baltic Sea found that there were no common interannual patterns. Instead,
304 the class trends, e.g. that of cryptophytes, may be affected by anomalies in the BSI, although
305 a mechanistic explanation for the relationship could not be found (Griffiths et al., 2020).
306 Other studies did not find any explanation for the observed changes in the biovolumes of
307 different taxa, e.g. decrease of diatoms and increase of certain dinoflagellate taxa, and
308 concluded that phytoplankton community in the Baltic Sea is not in a steady state (Olli et al.,
309 2011), or noted that stochastic dynamics at local scales confound any commonalities between
310 phytoplankton groups (Griffiths et al., 2020).

311 To sum up, the past changes in phytoplankton community composition have been very
312 variable, and usually cannot be explained by a single factor. Some clear signs of climate
313 change, such as prolongation of the growing season are evident, and can be explained by the
314 warming and associated biogeochemical processes, but the changes in species and
315 communities vary from area to area and have multiple reasons, including climate change,
316 changes in nutrient dynamics, as well as changes in trophic interactions.

317

318 4.2. Cyanobacteria

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320 Filamentous diazotrophic cyanobacteria benefit from warm temperatures and stratified water,
321 and they tend to bloom during the hottest and calmest periods of summer (Munkes et al.,
322 2021). Several modelling studies suggest that the climate induced increase in stratification
323 (Liblik and Lips, 2019), together with potentially increasing hypoxia, and consequent release
324 of phosphorus from the anoxic sediments, will increase cyanobacteria blooms in the Baltic

Kommentoinut [VM3]: R2:
r. 293 The reported period is wrong.

325 Sea (Meier et al., 2011a; Neumann et al., 2012; Chust et al., 2014; Lessin et al., 2014;
326 Andersson et al., 2015; Ryabchenko et al., 2016).

327 Many field studies have also stated that cyanobacteria have already increased along
328 with the warming of the Baltic Sea. In the northern Baltic Proper, Åland Sea and the Gulf of
329 Finland, the biomasses of Cyanophyceae have increased, which has been explained by an
330 interaction between warming, eutrophication and increased top-down pressure on species of
331 the spring bloom, as well as changes in DIN:DIP ratio in summer (Suikkanen et al., 2013).

332 Also, in the Gulf of Bothnia, eutrophication and cyanobacteria have increased in
333 summer (Fleming-Lehtinen et al., 2015; Kuosa et al., 2017), and extensive cyanobacteria
334 blooms have in the past few years been detected with satellite methods in the Bothnian Sea,
335 an area usually devoid of such phenomena (unpublished monitoring and satellite records
336 collected by the Finnish Environment Institute). The increase of cyanobacteria in the
337 Bothnian Sea has been attributed to an increased freshwater flow and, since 2000, to an
338 increased intrusion of more saline and phosphorus rich Baltic Proper water into the Bothnian
339 Sea. These changes have increased stratification, lowered oxygen conditions, and led to a
340 decline in N:P ratio of the Bothnian Sea, which has favoured the development of
341 cyanobacteria blooms in the area (Rolff and Elfwing, 2015; Ahlgren et al., 2017; Kuosa et al.,
342 2017)

343 It has also been suggested that the various drivers of climate change may contribute to
344 increase blooms and toxicity of [cyanobacteria in the Baltic Seaspecies such as the](#)
345 [dinoflagellate *Alexandrium ostenfeldii* \(Kremp et al., 2012; Kremp et al., 2016; Jerney et al.,](#)
346 [2019\)](#). Also, ~~For instance,~~ the intracellular toxin concentration of the cyanobacterium
347 *Dolichospermum* sp. may increase with elevated temperature (+4°C) (Brutemark et al., 2015;
348 Wulff et al., 2018) and with decreased salinity (from 6 to 3) (Wulff et al., 2018). As toxins of
349 both dinoflagellates (Sopanen et al., 2011) and cyanobacteria (Karjalainen et al., 2006;
350 Karjalainen et al., 2007; Engström-Öst et al., 2017) can accumulate in Baltic Sea zooplankton
351 and induce lower grazing rates and higher mortality, these studies suggest that toxic
352 dinoflagellates and filamentous cyanobacteria may get, due to their toxic effects and
353 unpalatability, a competitive advantage over diatoms and other phytoplankton in a future
354 Baltic Sea.

355 A few long-term studies have not found an increase in cyanobacteria during the past.
356 Two recent studies compiling monitoring data from the Baltic Sea for 1979-2012 (Griffiths et
357 al., 2020) and 1979-2017 (Olofsson et al., 2020) did not find any evidence for an overall
358 increase of diazotrophic filamentous cyanobacteria during this period. Biovolume of the

359 hepatotoxic *Nodularia spumigena* did not change, and that of the non-toxic *Aphanizomenon*
360 sp. increased in the north and declined in the south (Olofsson et al., 2020). Also, a study that
361 compared years 1903-1911 and 1993-2005 concluded that cyanophyte biomass has not
362 increased in summer and have decreased in spring and autumn (Hällfors et al., 2013). It has
363 been suggested that, although cyanobacteria do prefer warmer temperatures, the effect of
364 ongoing warming can better be seen in changes in phenology of cyanobacteria rather than as
365 an increase of biomass (Griffiths et al., 2020). Also, a connection between the amount of
366 cyanobacteria and the Baltic Sea Index has been identified (Griffiths et al., 2020).

367 Hypothetically, ocean acidification could benefit cyanobacteria through increased
368 availability of carbon dioxide in water. The available studies do not give a definitive answer,
369 however. When pCO₂ was experimentally increased, the production of single-celled
370 cyanobacterium *Cyanothece* increased, while that of *Nodularia* sp. decreased (Eichner et al.,
371 2014). Also, increase of temperature from 16 to 18—20 °C, led to an earlier peak of
372 cyanobacteria, while the biomass of cyanobacteria, especially that of nitrogen-fixer
373 *Dolichospermum* sp. declined (Berner et al., 2018). Further, in mesocosm studies an increase
374 of pCO₂ (from 360 to 2030 µatm) coupled with an increase in water temperature (from 16.6
375 to 22.4 °C) had a *negative* impact on the biomass of the diatrotrophic cyanobacteria
376 *Nodularia spumigena* (in 1400-L mesocosms, 28 days) (Paul et al., 2018). Another
377 experimental study (using 75 ml cell culture flasks), investigating the effects of increased
378 temperature (from 12 to 16 °C), decreased salinity (from 7 to 4), and elevated pCO₂ (from
379 380 to 960 ppm), found that only temperature had an effect on biovolume and photosynthetic
380 activity of *Nodularia spumigena* and *Aphanizomenon* sp. (Karlberg and Wulff, 2013). The
381 two species however had antagonistic effects on each other: biovolumes were lower when
382 grown together than when grown separately, indicating species interactions.

383 If the biomasses of *Nodularia* sp. and *Dolichospermum* decrease due to increased
384 acidification, nitrogen input into the Baltic Sea as well as carbon export to heterotrophic
385 bacteria via cyanobacteria might decline (Eichner et al., 2014; Berner et al., 2018). This could
386 however be balanced by the potential increase of *Cyanothece*, which is also a nitrogen-fixer
387 (Eichner et al., 2014).

388 To sum up, there are species specific responses to climate change and associated
389 oceanographic parameters within cyanobacteria. Several field and modelling studies suggest
390 that the climate induced increase in [temperature and](#) stratification, together with increasing
391 hypoxia and release of phosphorus from the sediments, has increased cyanobacteria biomass
392 and will continue to favour cyanobacteria blooms also in the future . However, the results of

393 certain empirical and experimental studies give a more multifaceted picture of cyanobacteria
394 response to climate change. The past increase of cyanobacteria is not as obvious as might be
395 expected, responses vary from species to species, and processes affecting amount of
396 cyanobacteria in the Baltic Sea can be modified, counteracted, or amplified by various
397 environmental processes and food web interactions.

398

399 **4.3. ~~Zooplankton~~Mesozooplankton**

400

401 The Baltic Sea mesozooplankton species originate either from marine or freshwater
402 environments, and some are typically brackishwater. It is therefore plausible that they
403 respond to long-term variations in oceanographic parameters. Several field studies have
404 confirmed that marine copepod species (e.g., *Pseudocalanus* spp. and *Temora longicornis*)
405 declined during the 1980s and 1990s, while euryhaline and limnetic, smaller-sized copepod
406 species (*Acartia* spp. and *Eurytemora* spp.) increased in abundance (Suikkanen et al., 2013;
407 Hänninen et al., 2015), and the decline of marine taxa has usually been proposed to be linked
408 to a decrease of salinity (Suikkanen et al., 2013; Hänninen et al., 2015). It has also been
409 experimentally shown that close to the physiological tolerance limit for salinity (below 7
410 psu), respiration of copepods (*Acartia longiremis*) increases and feeding rate decreases (in
411 610 ml bottles, 24 h experiments), indicating a disruption of the energetic balance under low
412 salinity (Dutz and Christensen, 2018).

413 Environmental impacts on the physiology of the more sensitive species may also affect
414 the reproductive success of zooplankton (Möller et al., 2015). The increase of euryhaline taxa
415 has been, directly or indirectly, attributed to the temperature increase (Mäkinen et al., 2017).
416 It has also been suggested that species that reside in the upper water layers, such as the
417 copepod *Acartia* sp., are mostly affected by temperature driven increase in food availability,
418 whereas species inhabiting the deep layers, such as older stages of *Pseudocalanus acuspes*,
419 are more dependent on salinity and predation pressure (Otto et al., 2014a; Otto et al., 2014b;
420 Mäkinen et al., 2017).

421 The effects of climate-driven variations in temperature and ocean acidification (OA) on
422 zooplankton have been studied experimentally. In *Acartia* sp., warming decreased egg
423 viability, nauplii development and adult survival (in 1.2-L bottles, during 60-hours) (Vehmaa
424 et al., 2013). In other experiments, both warming (Garzke et al., 2015) and OA (Vehmaa et
425 al., 2016) had negative effects on adult female size. This suggests that the projected warming

426 combined with ocean acidification may have negative effects on the populations of these
427 copepods in the future Baltic Sea.

428 Changes in zooplankton functional groups, such as a shift from raptorially and
429 suspension-feeding copepods and cladocerans to a dominance by small filter-feeding rotifers
430 and cladocerans, have also been shown as results of warming (Suikkanen et al., 2013;
431 Jansson et al., 2020). OA also promoted the growth of suspension-feeding cladocerans,
432 because of a CO₂ driven increase of cyanobacteria (Lischka et al., 2017).

433 Furthermore, a switch from predominantly herbivorous feeding by copepods to
434 predation on ciliates has been observed in a field study in the southern and central Baltic Sea,
435 during cyanobacterial blooms (Loick-Wilde et al., 2019). This was caused by decomposing of
436 the otherwise unpalatable filamentous cyanobacteria, and an associated increase of the
437 bacteria, nanoflagellates and ciliates (Hogfors et al., 2014). Warming may also increase
438 zooplankton grazing on medium-large-sized algae, which could contribute to a change
439 towards smaller-sized phytoplankton species (Klauschies et al., 2012; Paul et al., 2015). It is
440 therefore possible that the dominant traits of zooplankton communities will change if climate-
441 induced warming and reduced salinity trends continue. It has also been suggested, from
442 experimental (mesocosm) evidence, that warming speeds up the growth of copepods but
443 leaves phytoplankton unaffected, which shortens the time lag between phyto- and
444 zooplankton. This may lead to a larger and earlier zooplankton peak and increase the
445 possibility of zooplankton controlling phytoplankton, which may lead to a reduced
446 phytoplankton biomass under warm temperature (Paul et al., 2016).

447 Sufficient supply of essential compounds such as amino acids (AA) produced by
448 phytoplankton and cyanobacteria is essential for the growth and productivity of zooplankton
449 grazers. A field study performed in the Baltic Proper shows that, during a warm summer,
450 thermophilic rotifers and cladocerans (e.g. *Bosmina* spp.) acquired ample AA through filter
451 feeding on the abundant diazotrophic cyanobacteria, whereas the temperate copepods (e.g.
452 copepods *Temora longicornis* and *Pseudocalanus* spp.) avoided the warm surface layer and
453 acquired AA mainly through sinking organic matter and/or via grazing on chemoautotroph
454 based microbial food web in the suboxic zone (Eglite et al., 2018). [Mesocosm experiments](#)
455 [have also demonstrated that a high bacterial production can maintain copepod production](#)
456 [\(Lefébure et al., 2013\), but that increased heterotrophy leads to a decreased fatty acid content](#)
457 [and lower individual weight of copepods](#) (Dahlgren et al., 2011). This may imply that
458 thermophilic zooplankton species, such as rotifers and certain cladocerans gain more AA than
459 copepods in a future warmer [and more stratified](#) Baltic Sea.

Kommentout [VM4]: R2 General comments:
The fact that many more mesocosm studies relevant for climate-
change effect has been reported need to be clarified and preferably
some references added.

460 Little is known on the adaptation capabilities of zooplankton against physicochemical
 461 stress, but some degree of temperature adaptation has been demonstrated experimentally for
 462 the copepod *Eurytemora affinis* (Karlsson and Winder, 2020). Interestingly, the adaptability
 463 was better in populations reared in warm temperatures ($\geq 17^{\circ}\text{C}$), which suggests that southern
 464 populations can better cope with increasing temperatures than the northern ones, and that the
 465 adaptation capability of all (surviving) populations may improve with proceeding climate
 466 change.

467 To sum up, a shift towards smaller size zooplankton and a stronger linkage between
 468 mesozooplankton and the microbial [loop-food web](#) is probable in a warmer Baltic Sea. A
 469 decline of certain marine species has also been projected, but this will depend on the future
 470 velocity of salinity decline, patterns of stratification, realized time lag between phyto- and
 471 zooplankton peaks, predation pressure by fish, and on the possible adaptation of zooplankton
 472 species to the subtle changes in salinity.

473

474 4.4. Bacteria and the microbial [loop-food web](#)

475

476 Bacteria are key components of the ecosystem, as they decompose organic material, and
 477 serve as food for heterotrophic nanoflagellates and the associated microbial [loop-food web](#).
 478 They affect the nutrient and carbon dynamics of the marine ecosystem and it is therefore
 479 possible that climate impacts on bacteria may radiate to the structure and functioning of the
 480 entire Baltic Sea ecosystem.

481 The effects of climate induced changes in environmental factors to pelagic bacteria and
 482 the other components of the microbial [loop-food web](#) have been studied experimentally. The
 483 effects of projected ocean acidification (OA) on bacteria have been studied alone and also in
 484 combination with with other abiotic variables, such as temperature (OAW) and salinity
 485 (OAS). OA alone had a limited impact on spring bloom microbial communities (sampled
 486 from the sea area around the island Öland in the Baltic Proper and kept in 100-liter
 487 mesocosms for 21 days), but when combined with increased temperature, certain bacterial
 488 phylotypes, such as [betaproteobacteria](#), increased. It was suggested that synergistic effects of
 489 increased temperature and acidification selectively promote growth of specific bacterial
 490 populations (Lindh et al., 2013). In the southern Baltic Sea (Kiel Bight) the impact of OA
 491 was studied in 1400-liter indoor mesocosms for 21-24 days. Acidification only affected few
 492 operational taxonomic units (OTUs), such as *Bacteroidetes* 'NS3a marine group', as the
 493 bacterial community mainly responded to temperature and phytoplankton succession.

Kommentout [VM5]: R2:

r. 467 I would avoid "loop" as having an unclear and even misleading meaning (instead "microbial (part of the) food web". How is "loop" justified? Microorganisms constitute the original food web in the biosphere and is an integral part of the modern food web. It both contribute to biomass flow and remove biomass by respiration. As most organisms.

Kommentout [VM6]: R2:

r. 481 Correct to "betaproteobacteria". Indeed, all "proteo" phrases need correction.

494 Depending on studied season and temperature treatment, Cyanobacteria, *Bacteroidetes*,
 495 Alphaproteobacteria and/or Gammaproteobacteria increased under OA (Bergen et al.,
 496 2016).

497 In an OAS experiment (4-liter aquaria, 12 days) using a natural summer
 498 microplanktonic community, the biovolume of heterotrophic bacteria declined when pCO₂
 499 was increased (from 380 to 960 µatm) and salinity was decreased (from 6 to 3 psu) (Wulff et
 500 al., 2018). In experiments done in the Baltic Proper (NW Gotland Sea, 25-liter microcosms
 501 for 23 days), where temperature was increased (from 16 to 18-20 °C) and salinity reduced
 502 (from 6.9 to 5.9 PSU), the microbial community showed mixed responses. No conclusive
 503 evidence of direct climate-induced change could be detected (Berner et al., 2018). At reduced
 504 salinity levels, certain Actinobacteria and *Bacteroidetes* OTUs increased, and the
 505 heterotrophic bacteria community resembled communities at high temperature, indicating
 506 synergistic effects of temperature and salinity. Biotic interactions were more dominant than
 507 abiotic ones, however. The largest increase in heterotrophic bacterial biomass was detected
 508 when filamentous cyanobacteria started to decay, regardless of temperature or salinity. It was
 509 suggested that this indirect coupling between heterotrophic bacteria and filamentous
 510 cyanobacteria is more important for bacterial communities than the direct effects of climate
 511 induced changes in temperature or salinity (Berner et al., 2018).

512 Experimental studies have demonstrated that complex food web responses to climate
 513 change may also arise. In Kvarnthe Quark, the Gulf of Bothnia, increase of dissolved
 514 organic matter (DOM) enhanced respiration and abundance of bacteria, whereas an increase
 515 of temperature (from 12 to 15 °C) induced a decrease of bacteria, probably due to an increase
 516 in bacterivorous flagellates (Nydahl et al., 2013). A complex response to warming was also
 517 demonstrated for different size classes of heterotrophic flagellates (HF). There was a
 518 succession from flagellates feeding on bacteria to omnivorous nanoflagellates preying upon
 519 other HF. This intraguild predation pattern probably dampened the response to experimental
 520 treatments (Moustaka-Gouni et al., 2016). [Mesocosm experiments done in the Gulf of
 521 Bothnia area have however demonstrated that increasing dissolved organic carbon \(DOC\)
 522 enhances bacterial production and leads to a promotion of heterotrophy \(Dahlgren et al.,
 523 2011; Andersson et al., 2013\).](#) ~~but that a~~ [Also mixing depth influences the ratio of
 524 heterotrophic to autotrophic production: with a shallow pycnocline, the autumn plankton
 525 community in the northern Bothnian Sea remained net-autotrophic irrespective of DOC,
 526 whereas with increased mixing depth and with added DOC the system became net-
 527 heterotrophic \(Båmstedt and Wikner, 2016\).](#)

Kommentoinut [VM7]: R2:
 r. 506 Please correct to "In the northern Quark, ..."

Kommentoinut [VM8]: R2 General comment:
 The fact that many more mesocosm studies relevant for climate-
 change effect has been reported need to be clarified and preferably
 some references added.

528 As for microzooplankton (MZP), the effects of OA and warming seem to be mostly
529 beneficial. OA does not have a negative effect on MZP, probably because estuarine MZP are
530 adapted to a large natural variability in pCO₂ (Horn et al., 2016). The abundance of the
531 mixotrophic ciliate *Mesodinium* sp. even increased in mesocosms with OA, because of
532 increase of its prey and food, e.g. picoeukaryotes, at higher CO₂ levels (Lischka et al., 2017).
533 In addition, warming improved the growth rate of MZP, and their biomass peaked earlier in
534 warm mesocosm treatments. This led to a reduced time-lag between MZP and phytoplankton
535 peaks, inducing a better food supply to microzooplankton in warm conditions (Horn et al.,
536 2016). The same applied to the MZP-copepod link: at low temperatures MZP escaped from
537 predation by slower growing copepods, whereas at higher temperatures especially small-sized
538 ciliates were more strongly controlled by copepod predation.

539 To sum up, different components of the microbial [loop-food web](#) show very variable
540 responses to climate induced changes in temperature, salinity, and pH. Bacteria growth is
541 generally favoured by increasing temperature, but mixed effects are common, and indirect
542 processes affecting decay and availability of organic matter, and abundances of species
543 predating on bacteria, are also important. This highlights the importance of considering the
544 effects of abiotic factors and the delicate indirect food web effects on the dynamics of the
545 microbial [loopfood web](#), and the pelagic ecosystem in general.

547 **4.5. Macroalgae and vascular plants**

548
549 Long-term changes in Baltic Sea macroalgae and charophytes have mostly been explained by
550 combined or synergistic effects of changes in salinity, wind exposure, nutrient availability
551 and water transparency (Gubelit, 2015; Blindow et al., 2016; Eveleens Maarse et al., 2020;
552 Rinne and Salovius-Laurén, 2020), as well as biotic interactions (Korpinen et al., 2007).

553 For the brown alga bladderwrack *Fucus* spp., light availability, which may also be
554 affected by partly climate-driven changes in eutrophication, affects their local coverage
555 (Lappalainen et al., 2019). A documented long-term decrease of water transparency in 1936
556 to 2017 has reduced favourable sea floor areas for *Fucus* spp. by 45% (Sahla et al., 2020),
557 and resulted in a halving of the depth range of *F. vesiculosus* in the Åland Islands (Eveleens
558 Maarse et al., 2020). For many shallow coastal ecosystems of the Baltic Sea, it has been
559 concluded that eutrophication is the most important pressure affecting the ecosystem
560 structure and functioning (Olsson et al., 2015). This is plausible, because of the strong
561 influence of anthropogenic nutrient loading in coastal areas (Vigouroux et al., 2021),

562 especially those that are prone to hypoxia due to complex topography (Virtanen et al.,
563 2018a), and which often are affected by internal loading of phosphorus from the sediment
564 (Puttonen et al., 2014; Puttonen et al., 2016).

565 The effects of anthropogenic eutrophication on macroalgae may however be amplified
566 or counteracted by climate induced changes in environmental parameters. Such interactions
567 are reviewed below.

568 The direct effects of climate induced changes in temperature, salinity and ocean
569 acidification (OA) on bladderwrack *Fucus vesiculosus* have been investigated by a number of
570 experimental studies. OA appears to have a relatively small effect on macroalgae (Al-Janabi
571 et al., 2016a; Wahl et al., 2019), while temperature effects may be significant. The impacts of
572 increasing temperature are not linear, however. Growth or photosynthesis is not impaired
573 under temperatures of 15 to 17.5 °C but at extreme temperatures, simulating heat waves of 27
574 to 29 °C, photosynthesis declines, growth ceases and necrosis starts (Graiff et al., 2015;
575 Takolander et al., 2017b). Necrosis is also enhanced by low salinity (4 PSU) (Takolander et
576 al., 2017b), and under very low salinity (2.5 PSU) the sexual reproduction of *F. vesiculosus*
577 ceases (Rothäusler et al., 2018; Rothäusler et al., 2019).

578 The timing of temperature stress is however important for the damage experienced by
579 algae. Experiments done with bladderwrack *Fucus vesiculosus* (in 1500-L tanks in Kiel, the
580 western Baltic Sea) showed that in the early and late summer warming of 1 to 5 °C above
581 ambient had mostly beneficial effects on bladderwrack, whereas in midsummer a similar
582 warming had negative effects (Wahl et al., 2021). During midsummer, the heat waves
583 surpassed the physiological tolerance limits of the species, with detrimental effects on
584 growth.

585 Ocean acidification combined with warming (OAW) may also act in concert with
586 hypoxia, in areas where upwellings bring hypoxic water close to the surface. In a three-day
587 experiment simulating an upwelling event, hypoxic water caused severe mortality of *Fucus*
588 germlings if they were already stressed by OAW (Al-Janabi et al., 2016b).

589 Climate induced decline in salinity may affect communities via its direct effect on the
590 physiology of individual populations and species. A retreat towards the south/south-west has
591 been predicted for marine species such as bladderwrack and eelgrass, and for species
592 affiliated to them (Vuorinen et al., 2015). Species distribution modelling studies have
593 suggested that this mainly salinity-induced decrease of bladderwrack will cause habitat
594 fragmentation with large effects on the biodiversity and ecosystem functioning of the shallow

595 water communities of the northern Baltic Sea (Takolander et al., 2017a; Jonsson et al., 2018;
596 Kotta et al., 2019).

597 It is not certain to what degree *Fucus vesiculosus* can adapt to the anticipated changes.
598 It has been suggested that Baltic marine species have, due to local adaptation, isolation and
599 genetic endemism, diminished potential for adaptation and therefore, an increased risk of
600 local extinction (Johannesson et al., 2011). E.g., *F. vesiculosus* has long generation time and
601 relatively restricted dispersal, and therefore the dispersal rate of locally adapted genotypes
602 may not keep pace with the projected velocity of salinity decline (Jonsson et al., 2018).
603 However, a growing body of evidence from experimental studies shows that *F. vesiculosus*
604 has phenotypic plasticity and tolerance against salinity change (Rothäusler et al., 2018; Rugiu
605 et al., 2018a, b), and genetic studies show that different sibling groups of *F. vesiculosus* have
606 different responses to environmental change, including OAW (Al-Janabi et al., 2016a; Al-
607 Janabi et al., 2016b). There may also be population-specific responses to different stressors,
608 especially if populations are genetically isolated. In a study performed in the Danish Straits,
609 certain populations of *F. vesiculosus* were only slightly affected by a salinity decline, while
610 others displayed clearer responses; one population even showed severe stress symptoms and
611 stopped growing (Kinnby et al., 2020).

612 It has also been shown that *Fucus radicans*, an endemic congener of *F. vesiculosus*,
613 which is tolerant to low salinity, might be able to occupy the niche of *F. vesiculosus* in the
614 northernmost Baltic if salinity declines (Rugiu et al., 2018a). If *F. radicans* can replace the
615 ecological functions of its congener, its increase may potentially delay or modify the most
616 drastic consequences of climate change on the invertebrate and fish species dependent on
617 bladderwrack belts. Changes in species interactions involved in climate induced
618 environmental changes are however very difficult to project. Some studies project a decrease
619 of grazers of *Fucus* spp. in the northern areas (Kotta et al., 2019), while others predict an
620 increase (Leidenberger et al., 2015).

621 Similar experiments on climate change effects as done with bladderwrack have also
622 been made with other macroalgae and certain vascular plants. In field mesocosm
623 experiments, OA increased the growth of the opportunistic green alga *Ulva intestinalis* in the
624 Kõiguste Bay, Gulf of Riga, Estonia (Pajusalu et al., 2013; Pajusalu et al., 2016). This
625 suggests that OA could favour such fast-growing species and induce an overgrowth of *Fucus*
626 sp. by annual green algae.

627 Salinity decline is projected to decrease the distributional ranges of [the marine](#) eelgrass
628 *Zostera marina* and the red alga *Furcellaria lumbricalis* (Torn et al., 2020) The changing

629 environment poses an evolutionary risk for populations that live close to the limits of their
630 geographical ranges (Johannesson et al., 2011), including *Z. marina* (Billingham et al., 2003).
631 Indeed, mesocosm studies have indicated that, while OA has little effect on the eelgrass
632 *Zostera marina* (Pajusalu et al., 2015), they suffer from heatwaves in summer (Ehlers et al.,
633 2008) and elevated temperatures in winter-spring period (Sawall et al., 2021). On the other
634 hand, the viability of eelgrass beds also strongly depends on water clarity. A study performed
635 for the southernmost Baltic Sea coupled biogeochemical and species distribution modelling
636 to assess how projected wind fields, hydrodynamic conditions and nutrient abatement
637 scenarios affect the distribution of eelgrass *Z. marina* in the future (2062-2066). It was
638 concluded that nutrient reductions that fulfil the Baltic Sea Action Plan of the Helsinki
639 Commission (HELCOM BSAP) will lead to an expansion of eelgrass coverage, despite
640 potentially harmful effects on eelgrass distribution caused by the climate change (Bobsien et
641 al., 2021).

642 Certain species may be favoured by the projected climate change. Lowering of salinity
643 generally favours vascular plants originating from freshwater, and temperature increase
644 favours thermophilic species, such as charophytes (Torn et al., 2020). In mesocosm studies
645 made in Kõiguste Bay, photosynthesis of charophytes (*Chara aspera*, *C. tomentosa* and *C.*
646 *horrida*) increased under high pCO₂ treatments (Pajusalu et al., 2015), which suggests that
647 they may be favoured by ocean acidification.

648 To sum up, recent studies suggest that changes in species composition of macroalgae
649 and vascular plants are likely, due to temperature, pH, and salinity changes. Climate change,
650 in conjunction with other environmental changes (especially eutrophication) may also
651 influence carbon storage in both macroalgae and vascular plants in the Baltic Sea (Röhr et al.,
652 2016; Takolander et al., 2017a; Jonsson et al., 2018; Salo et al., 2020; Bobsien et al., 2021). It
653 has been projected that macroalgae will decline in hard bottoms and vascular plants increase
654 in the more sheltered soft bottom areas (Torn et al., 2020). Because algae and plants mostly
655 occupy different habitats, the possible increase of vascular plants or charophytes cannot
656 counteract the negative effects of the disappearance of macroalgae from hard bottom areas.
657 Consequently also the invertebrates, fish and birds benefiting from habitats formed by
658 macroalgae will suffer from the climate change.

659 As with other species groups, projecting the fate of macroalgae and vascular plants is
660 challenging. This is caused by the uncertainties in projections concerning salinity and
661 stratification (Lehmann et al., 2022), discrepancy on which physicochemical factors
662 determine the distribution of invertebrates, unknown adaptation capabilities of algae and

663 plants, and by uncertainties concerning future trophic interactions within macroalgae and
664 vascular plant communities.

665

666 **4.6. Benthic invertebrates**

667

668 Soft bottom benthic communities are dependent on several hydrographic and biogeochemical
669 variables, and parameters that change with climatic variations have been shown to drive the
670 long-term progression of zoobenthic communities (Weigel et al., 2015; Rousi et al., 2019;
671 Ehrnsten, 2020). In the SW coast of Finland, a drastic community change took place, with
672 amphipods being replaced by Baltic clam *Limecola balthica* and the non-indigenous
673 polychaete *Marenzelleria* spp. This major community change was explained by an increase in
674 near-bottom temperature and by fluctuations in salinity and oxygen (Rousi et al., 2013). In
675 the Åland Islands (northern Baltic Sea), zoobenthos variations in 1983-2012 were associated
676 with salinity decline, and environmentally driven shifts in the links between zoobenthos and
677 benthic-feeding fish assemblages were recorded (Snickars et al., 2015). Long-term climate-
678 induced shifts in zoobenthos and other trophic levels have also been described in various
679 parts of the Baltic Sea (Törnroos et al., 2019; Forsblom et al., 2021). In all these cases,
680 interactions between the physico-chemical climate-affected parameters and secondary
681 impacts (mainly eutrophication and/or hypoxia) have been identified.

682 Many marine invertebrates will directly and indirectly suffer from decreasing salinity.
683 In experiments simulating projected changes in temperature and salinity, the survival of the
684 isopod *Idotea balthica* decreased, albeit with differences between and within regions (Rugiu
685 et al., 2018c). Also, effects of warming on invertebrates are often non-linear, with stress
686 effects being manifested after a certain threshold. In experiments, respiration and growth of
687 the isopod *Idotea balthica* first increased until 20°C and then decreased at 25°C (Ito et al.,
688 2019). Heat waves, which have been projected to increase in frequency (Meier et al., 2019a),
689 may therefore pose a severe threat to sublittoral invertebrates (Pansch et al., 2018). Different
690 species show different responses to single and sequential heat waves, however, resulting in a
691 change in community structure. E.g., the bivalve *Limecola balthica* suffered from repeated
692 heat waves, whereas the sessile amphipod *Corophium* sp. benefited from them. The
693 polychaete *Polydora cornuta* seemed to get acclimated to heat waves when they were
694 repeated, showing some signs of adaptation. In general, heat waves favoured crawling or
695 burrowing predators and suspension feeders, while the abundance of detritivores decreased,
696 suggesting a climate-induced change in dominant zoobenthic traits (Pansch et al., 2018).

697 Ocean acidification has various effects on benthic invertebrates. The size and time to
698 settlement of pelagic larvae of the Baltic clam *Limecola/Macoma balthica* increased in
699 mesocosms (in the western Gulf of Finland) with OA, suggesting a developmental delay
700 (Jansson et al., 2016), while OA had no effects on larvae of the bay barnacle *Amphibalanus*
701 *improvisus* originating from Kiel Fjord, southern Baltic Sea (Pansch et al., 2012). Short (12
702 h) or long-term (2 week) exposures to OA did not have significant effects on the isopod
703 *Saduria entomon* either (Jakubowska et al., 2013). Controversial results were obtained for the
704 isopod *Idotea balthica*, from three different sea areas: North Sea, Kattegat, and the Baltic
705 Sea. The populations from the more oceanic and saline habitats were not significantly
706 affected by OA, while the Baltic Sea population showed 100 % mortality (Wood et al., 2014).
707 It was suggested that the Baltic *I. balthica* had higher levels of oxidative stress, and the
708 combined stress became lethal to them.

709 Several modelling studies have suggested that climate-induced changes in temperature,
710 salinity and eutrophication, affecting oxygen levels and food availability for benthos, drive
711 the development of benthic communities and their biomass in the future (Ehrnsten et al.,
712 2019a; Ehrnsten et al., 2019b). A physiological fauna model linked to a 3D coupled
713 hydrodynamic–ecological model projected that, in areas previously burdened by hypoxia,
714 benthic biomass will increase (until year 2100) by up to 200 % after re-oxygenating bottom
715 waters, whereas in permanently oxygenated areas the macrofauna biomass will decrease by
716 35 %, due to lowered food supply to the benthic ecosystem (Timmermann et al., 2012). In
717 another modelling study, zoobenthic production decreased in the coastal zones, and gradually
718 also in the more offshore areas, with increasing temperature and declining salinity and bottom
719 oxygen, regardless of the nutrient load scenarios (Weigel et al., 2015). The fate of zoobenthos
720 also depends on human intervention, i.e., success of nutrient reduction schemes. For instance,
721 it has been projected that, if the HELCOM BSAP will be implemented, the biomass of
722 benthic animals, and hence food for benthic-eating fish, will first increase and then decrease
723 (Ehrnsten et al., 2020).

724 There are very few modelling studies focusing on invertebrates inhabiting shallower
725 hard bottom habitats. One study, where experimental work and species distribution modelling
726 were combined, projected a decline of the isopod *Idothea balthica* in the future, mainly due
727 to the salinity-induced decline of its host macroalgae, *Fucus vesiculosus* (Kotta et al., 2019).
728 Another study reached quite different conclusions. Species distribution models combined
729 with oceanographic-biogeochemical scenarios for 2050 projected an increase in habitat
730 suitability for *Idotea balthica* and *I. chelipes*, and concluded that changes in temperature and

731 ice cover will be more important determinants for these species than changes in salinity
732 (Leidenberger et al., 2015).

733 One modelling study also investigated how *Saduria entomon*, a cold-water crustacean
734 that occupies brackish and limnic parts of the Baltic Sea, will be affected by climate change
735 and eutrophication (Gogina et al., 2020). The applied models project a net increase (and some
736 local declines) for *S. entomon*, and conclude that the positive effects of declining salinity will
737 override the effects of the two nutrient load scenarios (business as usual and BSAP). The
738 success of this species in the future warmer conditions is also facilitated by its good tolerance
739 for temperature changes.

740 It is notable that hypoxia, which is a key factor affecting zoobenthos, is by no means
741 limited to the deep basins of the Baltic Sea (Conley et al., 2011). Especially the archipelagos
742 of the northern Baltic Sea are, due to their complex topography and limited water exchange,
743 prone to hypoxia (Virtanen et al., 2018a). Increasing sea surface temperature will strengthen
744 stratification and enhance mineralization of organic matter by microbes, which may increase
745 the release of phosphorus from sediments (Puttonen et al., 2016) and lead to a “vicious circle
746 of eutrophication” (Vahtera et al., 2007). The sheltered archipelago areas and enclosed bays
747 may therefore become “climate change hotspots” (Queiros et al., 2021), where also
748 zoobenthic communities are most drastically changed.

749 To sum up, zoobenthic communities are affected by all environmental parameters that
750 are projected to change with climate change, i.e., temperature, salinity, pH and oxygen, as
751 well as benthic-pelagic coupling. However, the effects are not unidirectional and several
752 processes may amplify or counteract the possible changes. The magnitude of the future
753 salinity decline is unclear, and other factors, such as decreasing ice cover and changes in
754 future wind conditions (of which no consensus exists) may also affect nutrient and oxygen
755 dynamics of the Baltic Sea. Also, there may be feedback effects on sediment oxygen levels,
756 as different benthic species have different bioirrigation activities (Norkko et al., 2012; Guy-
757 Haim et al., 2018). Such processes, that are dependent of traits of a few species, may be of
758 particular importance in low-diversity systems such as the northern Baltic Sea (Gladstone-
759 Gallagher et al., 2021).

760

761 **4.7. Non-indigenous invertebrates**

762

763 It is often suggested that global climate change favours invasions of non-indigenous species
764 (NIS) worldwide (Jones and Cheung, 2015). This is plausible, because increase of

765 temperature will open new niches and induce a poleward shift of the ranges of species
766 inhabiting tropical and temperate sea areas. In the Baltic Sea, it has been shown that non-
767 native species typically occur in areas characterized by high temperatures, reduced salinity,
768 high proportion of soft seabed, and decreased wave exposure, whereas most native species
769 display an opposite pattern (Jänes et al., 2017). This suggest that the former areas are more
770 prone to climate induced range expansion of non-native species than the latter. This is
771 consistent with the hypothesis of climate change hotspots, which suggests that some coastal
772 areas may be more susceptible to effects of climate change than others (Queiros et al., 2021).

773 Modelled scenarios of temperature and salinity have been used to project how changes
774 in the abiotic environment could affect NIS already present in the Baltic Sea. One modelling
775 study suggests an increase of Ponto-Caspian cladocerans in the pelagic community and an
776 increase in dreissenid bivalves, amphipods and mysids in the coastal benthic areas of the
777 northern Baltic Sea until 2100 (Holopainen et al., 2016).

778 To sum up, the global climate change induces many environmental changes that may
779 favour establishment of NIS in the Baltic Sea. However, attribution of the observed
780 establishments to the climate change is difficult. It has even been claimed that there is no
781 conclusive evidence that NIS will gain significant advantage from environmental alterations
782 caused by climate change (Henseler et al., 2021). Stochastic processes related to maritime
783 transport and other types of human activities are obviously important for the chances of NIS
784 to be introduced and established into a given sea area. Long-term surveys, and comparisons
785 with areas where NIS have not been established, are needed to distinguish climate-related
786 effects from other ecosystem-level drivers (Bailey et al., 2020).

787

788 **4.8. Fish**

789

790 Fish populations in the Baltic Sea are influenced by various environmental and anthropogenic
791 factors, including nutrition, predation, habitat destruction, and fisheries, but also by climatic
792 variations.

793 Sprat probably benefits from global climate change, because increasing spring and
794 summer temperatures have in empirical studies been observed to increase survival of sprat
795 eggs and larvae (Voss et al., 2012) and in modelling studies to increase productivity and
796 biomass of sprat (Voss et al., 2011b; Mackenzie et al., 2012; Niiranen et al., 2013).

797 For herring the results are more variable. The growth rate of herring larvae is positively
798 affected by temperature (Hakala et al., 2003), but weight-at-age and stock biomass of herring

799 adults has in several studies been linked to the availability of food, mainly determined by the
800 abundance of marine copepods and competition with sprat (Flinkman et al., 1998; Möllmann
801 et al., 2003; Casini et al., 2011; Heikinheimo, 2011; Otto et al., 2014b). In modelling studies
802 both increase (Bartolino et al., 2014) and a short-term decrease (until 1950) (Niiranen et al.,
803 2013) of herring populations have been projected.

804 Both herring and sprat populations have probably benefited from the eutrophication
805 during the 1950s to 1980s (Eero et al., 2016), during the same period as the Baltic Sea
806 eutrophication status changed from good to poor (Andersen et al., 2017; Murray et al., 2019).
807 Since then, sprat biomass has varied independently of nutrient dynamics, and has been more
808 strongly affected by climatic variation and top-down control, i.e. cod predation and fisheries
809 (Eero et al., 2016).

810 Based on experimental and modelling studies, future climatic variations may affect
811 Baltic cod through their effects on water temperature, salinity, oxygen, and pH, as well as
812 nutrients, which indirectly affect both the availability and quality of food (Limburg and
813 Casini, 2019; Möllmann et al., 2021). The responses of cod larvae to ocean acidification
814 (OA), have been studied experimentally, also in combination with warming (OAW). In some
815 studies, no effects of OA or OAW on hatching, survival or development rates of cod larvae
816 were found (Frommel et al., 2013), while in others mortality of cod larvae doubled when they
817 were treated with high end projections of OA (based on RCP8.5). When the projected
818 increase of mortality was included into a stock-recruitment model, recruitment of western
819 Baltic cod declined to only 8 % of the baseline recruitment (Stiasny et al., 2016), [suggesting a](#)
820 [dramatic effect of OA on cod populations.](#)

821 A thorough review including long-term data and modelling demonstrated how
822 predation, fishing, eutrophication, and climate have sequentially affected eastern Baltic cod
823 during the past century (Eero et al., 2011). In the early decades of the 20th century, cod
824 reproduction was successful but seal predation and food availability kept the size of cod stock
825 at a moderate level. From the 1940s, fishing replaced seal predation in controlling cod
826 population, whereas the slowly increasing eutrophication had a minor positive influence on
827 cod spawning stock biomass in 1950s to 1970s. In the late 1970s, a series of large saline
828 inflows increased the salinity of the Baltic Sea and kept oxygen conditions in the deep basins
829 favourable for cod. Consequently, reproduction peaked in 1978-1982 and, as also fishing
830 pressure was temporarily low, the spawning stock biomass increased to a record-breaking
831 level of ca. 700,000 tonnes in 1980-1984 (Eero et al., 2011). After this peak period, cod stock
832 started to decline, due to a drastic reduction of the 'cod reproductive volume' (RV), water

833 layer sufficiently saline and oxic for survival of cod eggs and larvae. The decline of RV was
834 associated to a stagnation period with low oxygen, caused by a combination of anthropogenic
835 eutrophication and climate-induced paucity of major saline inflows. Since then, the
836 productivity of cod stocks has remained low (Eero et al., 2020), and also the average
837 maximum length of cod individuals has been constantly declining (Orio et al., 2021). The
838 reason for low growth may have been the low availability of both benthic and pelagic food
839 (Neuenfeldt et al., 2020). Alternatively, a long-term exposure to low oxygen conditions may
840 affect body chemistry (Limburg and Casini, 2019) and decrease digestion rate and food
841 consumption of cod (Brander, 2020). The physiological hypothesis is strengthened by the
842 observed increase in depth distribution of cod and consequent dwelling of cod in low oxygen
843 water (Casini et al., 2021).

844 Several studies project low abundances of cod towards the end of the century, due to
845 the climate and eutrophication induced decrease of RV (Eero et al., 2011; Gårdmark et al.,
846 2013; Niiranen et al., 2013; Eero et al., 2020; Wåhlström et al., 2020). It has also been
847 speculated that seal predation could contribute to keeping cod stocks low. However, although
848 seal predation can cause damage to cod fisheries in coastal areas (Blomquist and Waldo,
849 2021), it has been concluded that the increased seal predation is a less important factor for the
850 future size of fish stocks in the Baltic Sea than climate, eutrophication and fisheries
851 (Mackenzie et al., 2011; Tomczak et al., 2021).

852 There is some disagreement on the effect of fisheries on cod stocks in the future.
853 Earlier studies suggested that fisheries limitations may well enable stock recovery even in a
854 'cod-hostile' environment (Cardinale and Svedäng, 2011; Heikinheimo, 2011). Certain recent
855 modelling studies have however been less optimistic, and projected that cod productivity will
856 remain low, due to the large impact of environmental drivers, especially oxygen and
857 availability of food (Eero et al., 2020). For the western Baltic cod (inhabiting the Danish
858 straits and the Arkona Sea) it has even been suggested that cod is now beyond a tipping point,
859 with severe ecological, economic, and social consequences. At a critical moment, fisheries
860 management failed to fully consider the changed environmental conditions, and climatic
861 factors now prevent the recovery of cod stocks (Möllmann et al., 2021).

862 Increasing seawater temperature has also made it possible for certain warm water
863 Atlantic species, such as anchovy (Alheit et al., 2012) and sole and turbot (Sparrevojn et al.,
864 2013) to occur more abundantly in Kattegat and the southernmost Baltic Sea. Such north- and
865 eastward migrations of these warm-water species may be caused by both global climate
866 change and by variations in the Northern Hemisphere temperature Anomalies (NHA), North

867 Atlantic Oscillation (NAO), the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO), as well as
868 contraction of the subpolar gyre (Alheit et al., 2012; Sparrevohn et al., 2013).

869 As for coastal freshwater fish, the distribution of pikeperch (*Sander lucioperca*)
870 expanded towards north along the coasts of the Bothnian Sea, apparently due to the warming
871 of waters (Pekcan-Hekim et al., 2011). For many coastal piscivores (perch, pike, pike-perch)
872 and cyprinids, eutrophication status of coastal waters is however a more important factor for
873 distribution than climatic variation (Snickars et al., 2015; Bergström et al., 2016). A long-
874 term study covering four decades (1970s to 2010s), made at different coastal areas of the
875 Baltic Sea, illustrated that it is hard to disentangle the effects of abiotic factors from biotic
876 interactions affecting fish and their benthic food-sources (Törnroos et al., 2019).

877 To sum up, temperature, salinity, oxygen and pH have a big impact on Baltic fish
878 recruitment and growth and, as all these variables respond to climatic variations, it seems
879 evident that fish communities in the Baltic Sea will undergo changes, with the open sea
880 ecosystem remaining clupeid dominated, and certain freshwater fish increasing in coastal
881 areas (Reusch et al., 2018; Stenseth et al., 2020; Möllmann et al., 2021). Together with other
882 environmental changes, especially eutrophication, changes in fish populations may lead to
883 altered food web dynamics (Eero et al., 2021), necessitating ecosystem-based management of
884 fisheries and socio-ecological adaptation (Woods et al., 2021).

885

886

887 5. Climate change and ecosystem structure and function

888

889 ~~As seen from the above studies,~~ The Baltic Sea ecosystem is impacted by climate induced
890 changes in the physical and biogeochemical environment in various ways. Climatic changes
891 affect species and populations directly and indirectly, also impacting micro-evolution of
892 species and having synergistic effects on other environmental drivers such as eutrophication
893 and hypoxia (Wikner and Andersson, 2012; Niiranen et al., 2013; Ehrnsten et al., 2020;
894 Pecuchet et al., 2020; Schmidt et al., 2020). In synergy, these impacts have already boosted
895 the emergence of 'novelty' in the system and profoundly altered pathways of energy (Ammar
896 et al., 2021). This development will probably continue, at least if the environmental
897 conditions of the Baltic Sea will continue to change as projected by modelling studies.

898 Below, recent findings regarding climate impacts on structure and functioning on the Baltic
899 Sea ecosystem are summarized.

900

901 **5.1. Projections of primary production and eutrophication**

902

903 For the global ocean it has been projected that climate change will decrease both primary and
 904 secondary production because of intensified stratification and decreased availability of
 905 nutrients in the surface layer (Blanchard et al., 2012; IPCC, 2019). The effects of climate
 906 change on the Baltic Sea ecosystem may however be different, because of the special
 907 hydrographical characteristics, peculiar communities, strong seasonal cycle, and the strong
 908 dependency of the Baltic Sea of both its watershed and the adjacent North Sea.

909 In the Baltic Sea, changes in ice conditions, water temperature, density stratification,
 910 and especially supply of nutrients through rivers and from the sediment, affect the nutrient
 911 dynamics and primary productivity in both coastal areas and the open sea. Different species
 912 however respond in different ways to changes in the environmental parameters, and both
 913 increases and decreases in primary production have been reported and projected along with
 914 climate induced changes in the environment.

915 Climate change will most probably mean milder winters and if soils remain thawed,
 916 more nutrients will leak from the terrestrial areas into the freshwater system. The nutrient
 917 load into the sea will probably increase, especially in the northern Baltic Sea where
 918 precipitation is probably increasing the most (Lessin et al., 2014; Huttunen et al., 2015;
 919 Christensen et al., 2022), but also in the southern Baltic Sea (Voss et al., 2011a). It has also
 920 been projected that the total phosphorus loading (from terrestrial areas of Finland) will
 921 increase relatively more than that of nitrogen (Huttunen et al., 2015) and, together with the
 922 internal loading of phosphorus from sediments (Lessin et al., 2014; Stigebrandt et al., 2014;
 923 Stigebrandt and Anderson, 2020), phosphorus availability to primary producers may increase.
 924 If the N:P ratio of the surface layer will decline, the spring bloom will decline and more
 925 excess phosphate will be available for the summer cyanobacteria communities after the
 926 spring bloom (Lessin et al., 2014). [This hypothesis concerns especially the Baltic Proper and](#)
 927 [the Gulf of Finland, perhaps also the southern Bothnian Sea.](#)

928 In the central Baltic Sea, increased spring water temperature causes, together with
 929 increased irradiation and enhanced wind-induced mixing of the surface-layer, an earlier but
 930 less intense spring bloom. In summer, in contrast, increase of temperature is coupled with
 931 increased thermal stratification, which is projected to favour production of cyanobacteria
 932 (Meier et al., 2011a; Neumann et al., 2012; Chust et al., 2014; Andersson et al., 2015).
 933 Intensified blooms of cyanobacteria are expected especially if hypoxia will prevail and
 934 internal loading will decrease the N:P ratio (Meier et al., 2011b; Funkey et al., 2014; Lessin

Kommentout [VM9]: R2:
 r 907-909 This is likely relevant for the Baltic proper and Kattegat
 but less for the Gulf of Bothnia. The potential effects of
 simultaneously increasing DOC discharge is neglected in the scenario
 proposed.

935 et al., 2014). If the biomass of diazotrophic cyanobacteria will increase, nitrogen fixation
936 could also increase, further contributing to the decrease in the N:P ratio (Lessin et al., 2014).

937 Several modelling studies project an increase in total phytoplankton concentration
938 (chlorophyll, in mg m^{-3}), until the end of the century, with the increase manifested especially
939 in summer (Meier et al., 2012a; Meier et al., 2012b; Lessin et al., 2014; Skogen et al., 2014;
940 Ryabchenko et al., 2016). As hypoxia and associated internal loading of phosphorus will
941 probably be enforced by global warming (Meier et al., 2019b; Tomczak et al., 2021), it has
942 even been suggested that this “vicious circle of eutrophication” (Vahtera et al., 2007), will
943 prevent the success of nutrient abatement measures, unless internal loading of phosphorus
944 will be reduced (Gustafsson et al., 2012; Stigebrandt and Anderson, 2020).

945 Nutrient abatement may however counteract climate effects. For instance ~~Interacting~~
946 ~~effects of nutrient abatement and climate were observed~~ in Kattegat ~~already~~ in mid 1990s, ~~-~~
947 ~~R~~eduction of nutrient loading led to a shift from a highly eutrophic state, characterized by
948 small phytoplankton species and low water transparency, to an improved state, with a larger
949 share of diatoms, decreased phytoplankton biomass and increase of water transparency
950 (Lindegren et al., 2012). An opposing trend has taken place in the Bothnian Sea. Because of
951 the lack of halocline and lower anthropogenic nutrient loading, the Bothnian Sea has this far
952 remained in a relatively good condition. However, since year 2000 also the Bothnian Sea has
953 shown symptoms of eutrophication (Kuosa et al., 2017), and also open sea cyanobacteria
954 blooms have in recent years become more common, due to a “leaking” of phosphorus rich
955 water from the central Baltic Sea through the Åland Sea (Rolff and Elfving, 2015; Ahlgren et
956 al., 2017). The connection of this process to climate change is not certain. Rather, the severe
957 hypoxia of the central Baltic Sea has brought the anoxic layer so close to the sill separating
958 the Baltic Proper from the Åland Sea that flow of nutrient rich water across the Åland Sea is
959 at times possible. Whether or not the proceeding climate change will amplify the ongoing
960 eutrophication of the Bothnian Sea remains to be seen, but if temperature stratification will
961 increase and N:P ratio continues to decline, this will create conditions that are favourable for
962 cyanobacteria blooms also in this relatively pristine sea area.

963 Several recent modelling studies conclude that nutrient abatement according to
964 HELCOM BSAP will in the long run counteract the climate induced increase in nutrient
965 loading and lead to decreased eutrophication (Meier et al., 2018; Ehrnsten et al., 2019b;
966 Murray et al., 2019; Pihlainen et al., 2020). Based on oceanographic-biogeochemical
967 modelling, it has also been suggested that hypoxia will eventually diminish (Meier et al.,
968 2021) and that extreme cyanobacteria blooms will no longer occur in the future, if nutrient

969 loadings will be lowered according to BSAP, despite the proceeding climate change (Meier et
970 al., 2019a).

971 To sum up, the fate of the level of primary production and level of eutrophication will
972 depend on various intertwined factors and processes, and on development of both climate and
973 the society. Changes in primary production will impact interactions between the main trophic
974 levels, i.e., phytoplankton, detritus and zoobenthos as well as detritivores, benthivores,
975 grazers, zooplanktivores and piscivores (Kiljunen et al., 2020; Kortsch et al., 2021).

976

977 5.2. Trophic efficiency and consequences to the secondary production

978

979 Recycling and build-up of carbon within the ecosystem determines the overall productivity
980 and biomass of different trophic levels. Several studies suggest fundamental changes in
981 trophic dynamics, and eventually in the pathways of carbon in the Baltic Sea.

982 A climate and nutrient load driven model reconstruction of the Baltic Sea state from
983 1850 to 2006 suggest that the shift from spring to summer primary production is
984 accompanied by an intensification of pelagic recycling of organic matter (Gustafsson et al.,
985 2012). In mesocosm studies warming accelerated (southern Baltic Sea) phytoplankton spring
986 bloom and increased carbon specific primary productivity (Sommer and Lewandowska,
987 2011; Sommer et al., 2012; Paul et al., 2016). The total phytoplankton biomass decreased,
988 because increased stratification decreased nutrient flux to the surface layer, however
989 (Lewandowska et al., 2012; Lewandowska et al., 2014). Furthermore, in stratified conditions
990 the relative importance of the microbial loop pathways of carbon through the microbial food
991 web increased because copepods switched to feed more on ciliates instead of phytoplankton.
992 ~~Decrease of ciliates in turn increased amount of, which probably releases~~ heterotrophic
993 nanoflagellates grazing on bacteria. Decrease of bacteria may reduce remineralization and
994 ~~also thus~~ decrease availability of nutrients for phytoplankton (Lewandowska et al., 2014). On
995 the other hand, decreaseing of bacteria would also diminishdecrease competition for
996 nutrients between bacteria and phytoplankton, which could counteract the negative effects of
997 diminishing remineralisation on phytoplankton.

998 It has also been projected that, in addition to nutrients, the flow of dissolved organic
999 matter (DOM) into the Baltic Sea will increase in the future climate (Voss et al., 2011a;
1000 Strååt et al., 2018). Precipitation will increase especially in the northern areas; and, by using
1001 long-term time series from 1994 to 2006, it was shown that climate change has increased
1002 discharge of terrestrial DOM into the ~~Bothnian Bay~~ middle part of the Gulf of Bothnia. This

Kommentoinut [VM10]: R2:
r.970-973. If flagellate pressure is released bacterioplankton would
increase. Please match with the scenario proposed in the last
sentence.
Also, "loop" preferably changed to "food web".

1003 provided additional substrate for bacteria, which maintained bacterial biomass production
 1004 despite reduced phytoplankton production~~increased accordingly~~ (Wikner and Andersson,
 1005 2012). This suggests that increased humic-rich river inflow may counteract climate change
 1006 induced eutrophication in the coastal waters (Andersson et al., 2013).

1007 Experimental studies have also demonstrated increased microbial activity and biomass
 1008 with increasing DOM and temperature (Ducklow et al., 2010), although different bacteria
 1009 taxa respond differently to the simultaneous increase of DOM and temperature (Lindh et al.,
 1010 2015). Increase of DOM and bacteria may be detrimental to primary production as bacteria
 1011 compete for nutrients with phytoplankton, and as the brownification of water reduces light
 1012 availability. Consequently, the carbon flow shifts towards microbial heterotrophy, which may
 1013 induce a decrease in both phytoplankton productivity and biomass and lead to a promotion of
 1014 the microbial food web and other heterotrophic organisms (Wikner and Andersson, 2012;
 1015 Andersson et al., 2013). Especially if stratification increases, cycling of carbon through the
 1016 microbial ~~loop~~ food web increases pelagic recycling and may also decrease vertical flux of
 1017 organic matter to zoobenthos (Ehrnsten et al., 2020).

1018 It has been suggested that climate change may also decrease fish productivity. In areas
 1019 where climate change increases the supply of allochthonous DOM into the system, and where
 1020 increasing stratification reduces the transport of nutrients from deeper waters, phytoplankton
 1021 production may decline and the trophic pathways from bacteria and flagellates through
 1022 ciliates to copepods may strengthen (Aberle et al., 2015). When the system shifts towards
 1023 heterotrophy, the food web efficiency declines (Båmstedt and Wikner, 2016), and if
 1024 zooplankton also becomes dominated by smaller sized plankton (Dahlgren et al., 2011;
 1025 Suikkanen et al., 2013; Jansson et al., 2020), there will be less suitable food available for
 1026 planktivorous fish. If also sedimentation of organic matter will be reduced, zoobenthos
 1027 production will decrease and there will be less food for benthic-eating fish. Eventually the
 1028 total fish production may decrease.

1029 Results of experimental studies have not equivocally confirmed this hypothesis. A
 1030 study performed in a large biotest area artificially heated by the cooling waters of the
 1031 Forsmark nuclear power plant, southern Bothnian Sea, found that warming of water may lead
 1032 to increased species turnover, and in decreased compositional stability of diatom, macrophyte
 1033 and invertebrate communities (Hillebrand et al., 2010). Certain mesocosm studies, simulating
 1034 effects of climate change in the pelagic ecosystem, have also found that the production and
 1035 biomass of both copepods and fish (three-spined sticklebacks) can remain high, because the
 1036 positive effects of increasing temperature and increasing availability of DOC ~~on copepod~~

Kommentout [VM11]: R2:
 r. 979. More correctly expressed "... maintained bacterial biomass
 production despite reduced phytoplankton production...".

1037 ~~production~~ override the negative effects of decreasing food web efficiency [on copepod](#)
1038 [production](#) (Lefébure et al., 2013).

1039 Furthermore, many Baltic Sea copepods are omnivorous and can opportunistically
1040 switch between suspension feeding on flagellates and raptorial feeding on ciliates (Kiørboe et
1041 al., 1996). Such a flexible feeding strategy stabilizes the system and can sustain copepod
1042 production even under lower phytoplankton production. This [flexibility, and the fact that](#)
1043 [heterotrophic production increases with high DOC availability](#), suggests that fish production
1044 may be supported even also when relatively more carbon flows through the microbial ~~loop~~
1045 [food web](#) (Lefébure et al., 2013).--

1046 To sum up, a reorganisation of pathways of carbon is possible in the Baltic Sea due to
1047 the climate change. The system is complex, however, due to several counter- and interacting
1048 processes and large uncertainties in key processes, such as stratification and nutrient loads
1049 from land and the sediments (Meier et al., 2019c; Saraiva et al., 2019). [and both increases and](#)
1050 [decreases of secondary producers have been demonstrated in field, experimental and](#)
1051 [modelling studies](#). The complexity of the system has been highlighted by a thorough review
1052 which illustrated how changes in benthic-pelagic coupling may induce ecosystem-wide
1053 consequences, via increasing sedimentation of organic matter inducing hypoxic conditions
1054 and internal loading of nutrients (Griffiths et al., 2017).

1055

1056 **5.3. Food web interactions in the sublittoral ecosystem**

1057

1058 If the climate change induces an increase in allochthonous nutrient loads, consequences can be
1059 expected in the communities of algae and vascular plants in the shallow photic zone. The
1060 shallow water food webs based on macroalgae and seagrasses may also be affected by the
1061 indirect effects of climate change, mediated through interactions between algae and their
1062 grazers.

1063 The effects of late summer heatwaves on algae and invertebrates living amongst
1064 bladderwrack *Fucus vesiculosus* have been studied by outdoor mesocosm experiments
1065 (Werner et al., 2016). A heatwave resulted in a collapse of invertebrate grazers, such as
1066 isopods and amphipods, which in turn released grazing on filamentous algae and resulted in
1067 overgrowth of *Fucus* by epiphytic algae. In the autumn and winter, when the biomass of
1068 epiphytes was lower, the process was reversed: warming resulted in intensified grazing on
1069 bladderwrack. Again, a significant reduction of *Fucus* biomass resulted (Werner et al., 2016).
1070 As for the microalgae (diatoms), growing on *Fucus* in spring, temperature effects were

1071 stronger than grazing effects, suggesting a positive overall effect of climate change on
1072 microalgae (Werner and Matthiessen, 2017).

1073 Similar results were obtained in an artificially heated biotest basin (Forsmark nuclear
1074 power plant) in the Gulf of Bothnia, where the biomass of the non-native gastropod grazer
1075 *Potamopyrgus*, gammarids and the snail *Theodoxus* was much higher than in the adjacent
1076 non-heated area. The community shift was mainly driven by direct temperature effects on
1077 invertebrates and by indirect effects of changes in vegetation cover (Salo et al., 2020).
1078 Cascading effects are also possible. In the same biotest basin, perch shifted from feeding on
1079 small fish to gammarid crustaceans, which released grazing pressure from filamentous algae
1080 (Svensson et al., 2017). If similar cascades take place in other coastal sea areas of the Baltic
1081 Sea as well, warming may promote the growth of filamentous algae and contribute to the
1082 decline of bladderwrack.

1083 Decline of bladderwrack will affect other ~~species trophic levels in various ways~~, due to
1084 declining availability to habitat and food (Takolander et al., 2017a; Jonsson et al., 2018;
1085 Kotta et al., 2019). Connectivity between bladderwrack populations as well as organisms
1086 inhabiting patches of bladderwrack may also decline (Jonsson et al., 2020; Virtanen et al.,
1087 2020). However, perhaps due to the complex biotic interactions in the sublittoral ecosystem,
1088 there are very few modelling studies that have attempted to project the fate of the algal and
1089 invertebrate communities inhabiting the shallow photic zone of the Baltic Sea. Only one
1090 study has used a combination of experimental work and modelling to study the effects of
1091 climate change on invertebrates. A decline of the isopod *Idothea baltica*, the main grazer of
1092 *Fucus* spp., was projected due to the decline of bladderwrack (Kotta et al., 2019).

1093 To sum up, temperature and salinity changes have been projected to affect species
1094 interactions in hard and soft bottoms in the sublittoral zone. Both summer heatwaves and cold
1095 season warming can induce novel trophic interactions that produce eutrophication-like
1096 effects, e.g., overgrowth of bladderwrack by epiphytes, in the photic zone dominated by
1097 macroalgae, even without an increase in nutrient loading. However, as macroalgae are very
1098 much dependent on water clarity, the future level of eutrophication will also affect the fate of
1099 the shallow water communities in the Baltic Sea. The complexity of the system, uncertainty
1100 of the oceanographic projections, and unknown adaptation capabilities of species, make it
1101 challenging to project the future food web interactions in the sublittoral ecosystem.

1102

1103 **5.4. Regime shifts**

1104

1105 In the 1980's a partly climate induced regime shift was recorded with drastic changes in the
1106 central Baltic food web, including phytoplankton, zooplankton and pelagic planktivores and
1107 their main predator, Baltic cod (Möllmann et al., 2009; Lindegren et al., 2010a). In 1980-
1108 2000, a decline in 'reproductive volume' (RV), contributed to the decline of cod population
1109 (Hinrichsen et al., 2011; Casini et al., 2016; Bartolino et al., 2017) and induced cascading
1110 effects on planktivorous fish as well as zooplankton (Casini et al., 2008). The different effects
1111 of temperature and salinity on sprat and cod (see above) also resulted in a spatial mismatch
1112 between these species, which further released sprat from cod predation and contributed to the
1113 increase of sprat stocks in the central Baltic Sea (Eero et al., 2012; Reusch et al., 2018). As
1114 herring is an inferior competitor for food, and food availability per individual declined, the
1115 condition of herring declined (Möllmann et al., 2003; Casini et al., 2010). Transition to a
1116 lower saline Baltic Sea, and associated decline of marine copepods (Hänninen et al., 2015),
1117 also contributed to the observed halving of (3-year old) herring weight-at-age, from 50–70 g
1118 in the late 1970s to 25–30 g in the 2000s (Dippner et al., 2019). The described regime shift
1119 has also been partly questioned, as the descriptions of the shift did not cover the entire food
1120 web (Yletyinen et al., 2016).

1121 A factor that has been less often considered when studying reasons of cod decline is the
1122 interaction with another benthic predator, flounder. Flounder may be both prey for larger cod
1123 and a competitor for the small and juvenile ones. Now that cod size has declined, cod
1124 predation on flounder has decreased, releasing competition for benthic food again. This has
1125 caused more spatial overlap between flounder populations and the remaining small sized cod,
1126 and created more intense competition between flounder and the small sized cod, further
1127 contributing to the decline in body condition of cod (Orio et al., 2020).

1128 Multi-species modelling studies have concluded that both fishing and climate strongly
1129 affects the size of cod stocks. If fishing is intense but climate remains unchanged, cod
1130 declines, but not very dramatically, while if climate change proceeds as projected (according
1131 to the intermediate-high A2 scenario), cod goes extinct in two models out of seven, even with
1132 present low fishing effort (Gårdmark et al., 2013). Different combinations of climate change
1133 and eutrophication scenarios may yield very different outcomes, however. Medium CO₂
1134 concentrations (RCP4.5), low nutrients and sustainable fisheries resulted in high biodiversity
1135 and high numbers of cod and flounder, while high emissions (RCP8.5) and high nutrient
1136 loads resulted in diminished biodiversity and high abundance of clupeids, especially sprat
1137 (Bauer et al., 2018; Bauer et al., 2019; Hyytiäinen et al., 2019).

1138 The above studies have mostly considered the ecosystem of the central Baltic. In other
1139 basins, the associated processes and species interactions may be different. E.g., in the
1140 Bothnian Bay, salinity was also a major driver for changes in populations of planktivorous
1141 fish, but the species involved were different. Here the decline of spawning-stock biomass of
1142 herring, observed in 1980-2013, was explained by a simultaneously increased competition
1143 with vendace, a limnic species that had increased with lowering salinity (Pekcan-Hekim et
1144 al., 2016).

1145 In Kattegat, the western Baltic Sea, where the ecosystem is more oceanic than in the
1146 other parts of the Baltic Sea, a regime shift was detected in mid 1990s. Here the shift was
1147 explained by both global climate change, cyclic climate phenomena, and by human
1148 intervention. First, a reduction of anthropogenic nutrient loading led into a shift from a
1149 eutrophic ecosystem state to an ecosystem characterized by decreasing phytoplankton and
1150 zooplankton biomass, dominance by small sized fish in the pelagial, an increase of
1151 macroalgae and filter-feeding molluscs on hard bottoms and other benthic animals in the soft
1152 sediments (Lindegren et al., 2012). Second, the positive phases of NAO and BSI enabled an
1153 inflow of oxygenized water from the North Sea, which improved conditions for zoobenthos,
1154 including the commercially important Norway lobster. A climate induced increase of sea
1155 surface temperatures contributed to the improved flatfish growth and survival in the shallow
1156 nursery areas (Lindegren et al., 2012). Decreasing fishing may also have contributed to the
1157 increase of gadoid and flatfish populations, but its relative importance is difficult to
1158 distinguish from other co-occurring effects.

1159 To sum up, regime shifts are usually a result of several environmental, climatic, and
1160 anthropogenic effects acting synergistically on the entire ecosystem. The climate driven
1161 changes in temperature and salinity have been identified as key drivers for the significant rise
1162 of 'novelty' in both abiotic conditions and biotic assemblages in several basins of the Baltic
1163 Sea (Ammar et al., 2021), but also human contribution, i.e., anthropogenic eutrophication or
1164 its alleviation have also contributed (Reusch et al., 2018). The recent research confirms that
1165 climate change induces multiple direct and indirect effects on species and communities and
1166 affects nutrient and carbon dynamics of the Baltic Sea ecosystem. However, despite the
1167 major structural changes, the overall food web complexity in the central Baltic Sea has
1168 remained surprisingly stable (Yletyinen et al., 2016). The relatively small changes may be
1169 explained by the fact that responses to climate change are not uniform or unidirectional, but
1170 vary from species group to another, within groups, and even between sibling species.
1171 Species-specific responses, many feedbacks, altered trophic pathways, and possibility of

1172 species level adaptation, make projections concerning the state of the ecosystem and trophic
1173 effects challenging.

1174

1175

1176 **6. Knowledge gaps**

1177

1178 The main challenge when analysing effects of climate change on ~~ecosystems~~ the Baltic Sea is
1179 the possible synergistic effects of climate with other environmental drivers, such as
1180 eutrophication, harmful substances, and introduction of non-indigenous species, which also
1181 may have profound impacts on ecosystems and their functioning (Reusch et al., 2018;
1182 Stenseth et al., 2020; Bonsdorff, 2021). Consequently there are numerous knowledge gaps,
1183 bottlenecks and issues of dissensus that weaken our ability to project the future biological
1184 processes, such as primary and secondary productivity, benthic-pelagic coupling and
1185 hypoxia, interactions between phytoplankton, zooplankton and fish populations, as well as
1186 geographic shifts in macroalgal and invertebrate communities.

1187 Attribution of the observed phenomena to climate change is challenging because of the
1188 collinear, intertwined and interacting processes. Especially difficult is to distinguish the
1189 effects of anthropogenic global climate change from those of quasi-cyclic phenomena, such
1190 as the NAO or BSI, or from other more stochastic variations in climate. This is partly due to
1191 the slow pace of climatic variations and time lags between physical and chemical variations
1192 and ecosystem responses. Quite few studies have investigated a period long enough to cover
1193 any larger number of NAO periods. Especially research into the long-term dynamics of the
1194 food webs is still scarce (Törnroos et al., 2019; Pecuchet et al., 2020; Kortsch et al., 2021).

1195 Field studies have ended up with different conclusions concerning past and present
1196 changes of the environment and the biota, and their causes, depending on time periods and
1197 data scrutinized. For instance, certain studies note that cyanobacteria have increased
1198 (Suikkanen et al., 2013; Kuosa et al., 2017), while others do not find proof for such a
1199 phenomenon (Griffiths et al., 2020; Olofsson et al., 2020). Different periods studied, sparse
1200 sampling, varying species responses, and changes in phenology rather than total biomass,
1201 may explain some of the discrepancies between studies. The tendency of filamentous
1202 cyanobacteria to float during calm weather may also bias our view on the total biomass
1203 cyanobacteria in the sea, especially if low wind periods become more frequent.

1204 Experimental studies are useful in pinpointing causative relationships, but their small
1205 spatial scales, short duration and simple food webs make upscaling of results to natural

1206 systems difficult. Experiments usually only last for a few days or weeks and study one or few
 1207 species at a time. Reproducing natural patterns of environmental variability is also
 1208 challenging. When mesocosms of hundreds of litres and natural communities are used, it may
 1209 be difficult to simulate seasonal processes extending over several life cycles of the studied
 1210 organisms. Even the most sophisticated multi-stressor experiments, which use levels of
 1211 environmental stressors projected by modelling studies, tend to use constant stress levels.

1212 Only a few mesocosm studies that have exposed the communities to near-natural
 1213 environmental conditions and have been able to shed light on the complex dynamics of the
 1214 Baltic Sea ecosystem, e.g., the functions-responses of the microbial loop-food web to under
 1215 changes of environmental variables affected by the climate change, variable levels of DOM,
 1216 temperature, salinity and ocean acidification. In studies made in the Gulf of Bothnia,
 1217 bacterial, phytoplankton and zooplankton production increased with additions of inorganic
 1218 carbon, and the systems remained net autotrophic. In contrast, when both nutrients and DOC
 1219 was increased, only bacterial and zooplankton production increased, driving the system to net
 1220 heterotrophy (Andersson et al., 2013; Båmstedt and Wikner, 2016) (Lindh et al., 2015;
 1221 Bergen et al., 2016). Increased heterotrophy led to a decreased fatty acid content and lower
 1222 individual weight in the zooplankton (Dahlgren et al., 2011). With the combined treatment of
 1223 elevated temperature and terrestrial nutrient loads, also fish production (of three-spined
 1224 sticklebacks) increased, with terrestrial and not autotrophic carbon being the main energy
 1225 source (Lefébure et al., 2013). The complex responses observed in such experiments indicate
 1226 that, to provide useful inferences about physiological and population-level responses of
 1227 organisms to climate change, experimental work should use full communities, apply
 1228 naturalistic exposure regimes, and investigate effects of stress at spatial and temporal scales
 1229 appropriate to the species studied (Gunderson et al., 2016).

1230 Ecosystem modelling using coupled oceanographic-biogeochemical models has
 1231 advanced greatly in the past 15 years, but significant challenges remain. Projections of sea
 1232 surface temperature and ice conditions can be held relatively reliable, but there are still large
 1233 uncertainties in projecting salinity, stratification, hypoxia and, hence, the rate of internal
 1234 loading (Meier et al., 2022a). Also, natural variability is a larger source of uncertainty in
 1235 future projections of hypoxia than previously understood (Meier et al., 2021). Because
 1236 salinity, stratification and oxygen strongly affect many Baltic Sea organisms, it is difficult to
 1237 project the fate of plankton and benthos communities with certainty. This uncertainty
 1238 concerns especially marine species, such as cod, bladderwrack, eelgrass, and blue mussel,
 1239 which in many studies have been projected to decrease in the northern basins of the Baltic

Kommentoinut [VM12]: R2:

r. 1182-1185 There are more valuable mesocosm studies so a "(e.g. Lindh et al. 2015...)" would be appropriate or better adding some more examples covering larger parts of the food web (some suggested below).

1240 Sea. Further, uncertainties are imposed by complex biogeochemical processes in the
1241 terrestrial and freshwater ecosystems, as well as by unknown development of national
1242 economies and farming practices (Huttunen et al., 2015), especially in coastal areas strongly
1243 affected by nutrient loading.

1244 Ecosystem models rarely consider complex biological interactions and feedback
1245 effects, caused, e.g., by multi-species predatory or intraguild relationships. Inclusion of such
1246 effects would require parameterizing the 3D ecosystem models with experiments and results
1247 from multi-species food web models, that operate on the level populations rather than carbon
1248 flows. Also, models cannot at present consider potential adaptation capabilities of species, as
1249 little is known on them. Several recent studies have however pointed out that, e.g.,
1250 macroalgae (Rothäusler et al., 2018; Rugiu et al., 2018a) and zooplankton (Karlsson and
1251 Winder, 2020) have phenotypic plasticity and potential for adaptation against gradual
1252 changes in the abiotic environment.

1253 Food web models offer useful tools for assessing the relative effects of climate,
1254 eutrophication, and other human impacts, including fisheries, on the structure of the Baltic
1255 Sea ecosystem. They could potentially take into account characteristics of species and their
1256 responses to changes in the environment. The current models however mostly concern the
1257 pelagic ecosystems (e.g. cod-sprat-herring-zooplankton food web) and there are major gaps
1258 for key trophic groups, such as macrophytes and macrozoobenthos (Korpinen et al., 2022) as
1259 [well as the microbial food web](#).

1260 3D ecosystem models, food web models and 2D spatial modelling would benefit from
1261 integration. Species distribution models (SDMs) can be produced at a fine spatial scale, even
1262 a few tens of meters (Virtanen et al., 2018b), and in climate change studies they can be
1263 parametrized with 3D model results (Jonsson et al., 2018; Kotta et al., 2019). In the future,
1264 food web models involving relevant coastal taxa could also be used to fill in the missing links
1265 between the large scale (3D) processes and detailed spatial patterns identified by the 2D
1266 models.

1267 Assessing climate effects in a smaller spatial scale would be useful, because shallow
1268 and sheltered bays, lagoons and estuaries may be more susceptible to climate change effects
1269 than deeper offshore areas, and may appear as ‘climate change hotspots’, where climate
1270 change drives the ecosystem towards a new state (Queiros et al., 2021). The existing coupled
1271 oceanographic-biogeochemical modelling studies however typically have a horizontal
1272 resolution of 1 or 2 nautical miles (ca. 2 or 4 km) and thus cannot easily be used for
1273 projecting local variations in temperature, salinity and stratification within the archipelago or

Kommentout [VM13]: R2:
r. 1216 Please add “, microbial food web....”. Typically overlooked
in current models.

1274 inside estuaries. A bottleneck for high-resolution 3D models is the poor availability of high-
1275 resolution pan-Baltic bathymetries and forcing data (e.g. wind fields). For the SDMs, in turn,
1276 a major constraint is in many areas the poor availability of detailed species and habitat
1277 mapping data, as well as availability of high-resolution data on benthic substrates.
1278 Considering population level effects on spatial patterns of species would also require
1279 estimation of connectivity between sea areas, a research field that is also under-developed in
1280 the Baltic Sea (Berglund et al., 2012; Jonsson et al., 2020; Virtanen et al., 2020).
1281 Consequently no study this far has considered how the climate change affects microclimatic
1282 patterns in the Baltic Sea, and how different species and habitats may respond to such local
1283 variations.

1284 Due to the above challenges, there are certain discrepancies concerning our view on
1285 the effects of climate change on the structure and function of the Baltic Sea ecosystem. Some
1286 of these issues are highlighted below.

1287 Increased primary production and phytoplankton biomass (measured in chlorophyll a)
1288 have been projected by several modelling studies (Meier et al., 2012a; Skogen et al., 2014;
1289 Ryabchenko et al., 2016). Experimental studies however show that responses of
1290 phytoplankton to climate induced changes in temperature, salinity and pH are variable and
1291 can be modified by simultaneous changes in biogeochemical processes and zooplankton
1292 grazers (Paul et al., 2015; Sommer et al., 2015). Also, strengthening of stratification and
1293 simultaneous increase in riverine DOM loads may induce a decrease in phytoplankton
1294 production, at least in sea areas where rivers carry large DOM loads (Wikner and Andersson,
1295 2012). Presently it is not clear which of these processes determine primary production in
1296 different sea areas, or whether there are transition areas where the two processes balance each
1297 other, leading to no net change in primary production.

1298 Several ecosystem models also predict an increase of cyanobacteria. As cyanobacteria
1299 blooms are favoured by warm, stable and conditions and low N:P ratio (Munkes et al.,
1300 2021), increase of vigorous blooms and an increase in nitrogen fixation, could be expected.
1301 However, there are large differences in model projections, due to the unclear relationship
1302 between excess phosphorus and cyanobacteria growth, and the relation between bloom
1303 intensity and nitrogen fixation (Munkes et al., 2021). Cyanobacteria are also not a uniform
1304 group. Some cyanobacteria species benefit from increased temperature and acidification,
1305 whereas others suffer from them (Eichner et al., 2014; Berner et al., 2018; Paul et al., 2018).
1306 Further uncertainty is caused by unknown biological factors, such as stoichiometric elasticity,

1307 impact of viruses and grazers. Thus it is still challenging to project how biomasses of
1308 cyanobacteria and nitrogen fixation will develop in the future.

1309 Recent awareness of marine heatwaves and their potential impacts on the marine
1310 ecosystem has increased our knowledge on how climate change may impact pelagic, benthic,
1311 and littoral communities in the ocean (Pansch et al., 2018; Saha et al., 2020). More studies on
1312 the responses of pelagic and benthic organisms of the Baltic Sea to heat waves would
1313 increase our understanding of the population level consequences of short term variability in
1314 environmental parameters. Research on effects of climate change would also benefit from
1315 methodological diversity. E.g., more extensive use of biochemical and genetic methods, such
1316 as biomarkers (Turja et al., 2014; Turja et al., 2015; Villnäs et al., 2019), stable isotopes
1317 (Voss et al., 2000; Gorokhova et al., 2005; Morkune et al., 2016; Lienart et al., 2021),
1318 compound-specific isotope analyses (Ek et al., 2018; Weber et al., 2021) or metabarcoding
1319 (Leray and Knowlton, 2015; Bucklin et al., 2016; Klunder et al., 2021), as well as
1320 development of remote sensing methods (Huber et al., 2021), could yield novel information
1321 on stress levels experienced by organisms and environmental niches preferred by species.
1322 Such information would allow validation of the biogeochemical models under different
1323 environmental and climate scenarios.

1324 There is some bias in the focus organisms and habitats studied. While experiments on
1325 planktonic organisms and soft bottom animals are relatively abundant, experiments on
1326 macroalgae, vascular plants and invertebrates inhabiting hard bottoms are less abundant, and
1327 ~~combined experiments studies focusing on the entire food web~~ are scarce. In general,
1328 empirical and modelling studies focusing on climate effects on shallow photic habitats are
1329 less abundant than those on the pelagic and deep benthic habitats (Tedesco et al., 2016). Very
1330 few studies have investigated the shallow water ecosystems holistically, including macro- and
1331 microalgae, invertebrates and fish at the same time. Those that have done so, have revealed
1332 complex interactions and multiple feedbacks between species and ecosystem components
1333 (Svensson et al., 2017; Salo et al., 2020). Also, while there are ample monitoring data on
1334 pelagic and deep benthic communities, similar long-term records are very sporadic for
1335 communities associated with key habitat-forming species such as bladderwrack, eelgrass,
1336 blue mussel on hard bottoms, and vascular plants growing on soft sediments. This lack of
1337 empirical data and subsequent modelling studies hampers our understanding of the long-term
1338 responses of sublittoral communities to climate change.

1339 Furthermore, there is a large body of literature published on sea ice algae and sea ice
1340 ecology in the Baltic Sea (Granskog et al., 2006; Tedesco et al., 2017; Thomas et al., 2017),

1341 and all of them are relevant for studying winter ecology. However, few of them have directly
 1342 assessed the effects of climate change on ice ecology in the Baltic Sea. More empirical and
 1343 modelling studies including quantitative projections on the effect of diminishing sea ice to
 1344 biodiversity and functioning of the Baltic Sea ecosystem in winter and spring would therefore
 1345 be desirable.

1346 To sum up, there are still several significant knowledge gaps and issues of dissensus in
 1347 our understanding of the effects of climate change on the Baltic Sea ecosystem. To fill these
 1348 gaps, the results and conclusions from the experimental work should be better integrated into
 1349 the wider empirical and modelling studies of food web dynamics, and more emphasis should
 1350 be placed on studying effects of climate change on less studied environments, such as whole
 1351 the microbial food web, sea ice communities, and the sublittoral communities ecosystem.
 1352 Such studies would provide a more comprehensive view of the responses of the pelagic and
 1353 benthic systems to climate change in both the open sea and the benthic system, from bacteria
 1354 to fish (Kortsch et al., 2021). Also, continuation of both spatial mapping programs and long
 1355 term ecological studies is also will be crucial for validating experimental results and for
 1356 developing statistical ecosystem models, and will advanceing our understanding of
 1357 environmental and meteorological drivers of the Baltic Sea ecosystem on large spatial and
 1358 temporal scales.

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1360

1361 7. Conclusions

1362

1363 Climate change has an obvious potential to affect entire marine food webs, from coastal to
 1364 offshore areas, from shallow to deep, as well as from pelagic to benthic systems. Climate
 1365 change can also induce changes in species distributions and proportions, and key nodes and
 1366 linkages in the food webs may be altered or lost (Lindegren et al., 2010b; Niiranen et al.,
 1367 2013; Leidenberger et al., 2015; Griffiths et al., 2017; Kotta et al., 2019; Gårdmark and Huss,
 1368 2020). As many ecosystem services are dependent on the state of the entire ecosystem
 1369 (Hyytiäinen et al., 2019), a long-term decline in provision of ecosystem services to humans is
 1370 possible. It is therefore indispensable to increase our understanding of the consequences of
 1371 climate change on the socio-ecological system of the Baltic Sea and its surrounding marine
 1372 regions (Stenseth et al., 2020).

Kommentoinut [VM14]: R2:

r. 1308 I suggest to add: "Continuation and expansion of long term ecological studies in collaboration with environmental monitoring programs is also crucial for validating experimental results and advance our knowledge of environmental and meteorological drivers on large spatial and temporal scales."

1373 The direct and indirect effects of climate change-related parameters on species,
 1374 communities and the ecosystem are summarized in Table 1, based on research done since
 1375 2010. While results are variable, some conclusions can be drawn from the evidence this far.

1376 As for the eutrophication status of the Baltic Sea it can be concluded that the ecological
 1377 status of the Baltic Sea has not significantly improved despite a decrease in anthropogenic
 1378 nutrient loading since the 1980s (Fleming-Lehtinen et al., 2015; Andersen et al., 2017),
 1379 largely due to the pervasive internal loading (Murray et al., 2019; Stigebrandt and Anderson,
 1380 2020). Success of nutrient abatement largely determines the future state of the Baltic Sea
 1381 (Hyytiäinen et al., 2019; Ehrnsten et al., 2020), but climate change may delay, or even
 1382 counter the improvement of the ecosystem state (Bonsdorff, 2021).

1383 Climate induced increase of nutrient loading and enhancing of internal loading of
 1384 phosphorus have been hypothesized to promote phytoplankton and cyanobacteria production,
 1385 and to maintain the ‘vicious circle of eutrophication’ (Vahtera et al., 2007), and several
 1386 modelling studies indeed project an increase in both total phytoplankton biomass and
 1387 cyanobacteria blooms in the future (Meier et al., 2011a; Funkey et al., 2014).

1388 Eutrophication process may however be counteracted by various factors. Increase of
 1389 DOM flowing via the rivers may decrease both primary and secondary production, at least in
 1390 the ~~Bothnian Bay~~ Gulf of Bothnia (Wikner and Andersson, 2012; Andersson et al., 2013),
 1391 and certain cyanobacteria may be negatively affected by increased temperature and ocean
 1392 acidification (Paul et al., 2018). Thus, changes in structure and functioning of phytoplankton
 1393 and cyanobacteria communities are probable, but the narrative that the global climate change
 1394 will inevitably increase phytoplankton biomass and cyanobacteria blooms, and inevitably
 1395 amplify the eutrophication of the Baltic Sea, may be too simplistic and needs to be refined by
 1396 reconsidering the climate effects on food web processes and nutrient and carbon dynamics.

1397 Also for the deep benthic communities, climate change effects are not straightforward.
 1398 If salinity declines, the most marine species will suffer, but according to the latest analyses
 1399 undisputable evidence is lacking for a future decline in the salinity of the Baltic Sea
 1400 (Lehmann et al., 2022; Meier et al., 2022b). Improvement of oxygen conditions may first
 1401 promote higher zoobenthos biomasses but, eventually, increasing stratification will weaken
 1402 benthic-pelagic coupling and reduce food availability for benthic organisms. If also nutrient
 1403 abatement proceeds favourably, biomass of zoobenthos will start to decline (Ehrnsten et al.,
 1404 2020).

1405 In the shallower photic benthic systems, nutrient increase probably enhances
 1406 eutrophication, and, if salinity also declines, habitat-forming marine species, such as

Kommentoinut [VM15]: R2:
 r. 1340 Please change to "...the Gulf of Bothnia (...)" as demonstrated
 also in the Bothnian Sea.

1407 bladderwrack, eelgrass and blue mussel, probably decline in the northern Baltic Sea
1408 (Vuorinen et al., 2015; Jonsson et al., 2018; Kotta et al., 2019). As both eutrophication and
1409 increasing temperature favour filamentous algae, continued major changes in the sublittoral
1410 communities can be expected, including negative effects of such algal aggregations (Arroyo
1411 and Bonsdorff, 2016). Of particular concern is the potential loss from rocky substrates of the
1412 habitat forming bladderwrack and red macroalgae. Freshwater vascular plants will be
1413 favoured by freshening of the Baltic Sea, but they cannot replace the marine macroalgae on
1414 rocky sublittoral, because they only grow on soft substrates. On the other hand, salinity
1415 projections are still uncertain (Lehmann et al., 2022), and even if salinity declined, *Fucus*
1416 *vesiculosus* may be able to adapt to salinity changes (Rothäusler et al., 2018).

1417 As for fish, responses also depend on species. Salinity decline and hypoxia increase
1418 will most probably have negative consequences on cod stocks (Gårdmark et al., 2013),
1419 whereas the increasing temperature has been projected to favour sprat (Mackenzie et al.,
1420 2012) and certain coastal fish (Bergström et al., 2016). Again, as projections for salinity,
1421 stratification and oxygen levels are uncertain, the future fate of fish populations cannot be
1422 projected with certainty.

1423 The global climate change induces many environmental changes that may favour
1424 establishment of NIS in the Baltic Sea. Opportunistic and thermophilic species occupying
1425 soft sediments are the most probable winners. It is notable that it is extremely difficult to
1426 eradicate a marine NIS after it has found a suitable niche in the Baltic Sea. As the effects of
1427 NIS on both the ecosystem and the society are usually negative, their spreading should be
1428 prevented already before they enter the Baltic Sea, by effectively eradicating NIS from ballast
1429 waters of ships and other possible vectors.

1430 Climate change is obviously not the only factor determining the fate of the Baltic Sea in
1431 the future. Several modelling studies have concluded that nutrient reductions will be a
1432 stronger driver for ecosystem functions in the Baltic Sea than climate change (Friedland et
1433 al., 2012; Niiranen et al., 2013; Ehrnsten et al., 2019b; Pihlainen et al., 2020; Meier et al.,
1434 2021). In moderate nutrient loading scenarios also climate change will play a role, but under
1435 full implementation of BSAP, the environmental state of the Baltic Sea is projected to
1436 become significantly improved and hypoxia reduced by the end of the century (Meier et al.,
1437 2018; Saraiva et al., 2018, 2019; Meier et al., 2021). Despite the many uncertainties
1438 concerning the effects of climate and eutrophication on the state of the Baltic Sea (Munkes et
1439 al., 2021), it can be stated that continued abatement of anthropogenic nutrient loading.

1440 [combined with sustainable fisheries](#), seems to be the most reliable, albeit slow, measures to
1441 solve the grand challenges of the Baltic Sea (Meier et al., 2018; Murray et al., 2019).

1442 Several studies have focused on studying the effects of climate change on the future
1443 state of the Baltic Sea, and especially the ecosystem modelling studies already provide
1444 valuable results that are directly usable in decision making concerning mitigation of
1445 eutrophication under climate change. In contrast, studies concerning effects of climate change
1446 on biodiversity of the Baltic Sea are lagging behind, and are hampered by model uncertainties
1447 (e.g. for salinity) and by the current inability of models to consider the complex interactions
1448 between species and [multiple feedbacks between](#) trophic levels. Especially long-term and
1449 modelling studies focusing on shallow photic environments, which harbour the highest
1450 biodiversity in the Baltic Sea, are sparse. This is a major drawback in a situation where all
1451 major environmental policies, including UN Convention on Biological Diversity and EU
1452 Biodiversity Strategy for 2030, urge for halting the ongoing biodiversity loss. To designate
1453 effective measures to safeguard biodiversity, including a climate smart expansion of the
1454 protected area network, a better understanding of the effects of climate change on the
1455 sublittoral ecosystem is urgently needed.

1456 Knowledge of the mechanisms and processes governing Baltic Sea ecosystem under
1457 climate change have recently accumulated and already provide information that can be used
1458 to design adaptation tools and mitigation measures for the Baltic Sea (Reusch et al., 2018). It
1459 is necessary to continue studying the Baltic Sea as a socio-ecological system, responding to
1460 both environmental and societal changes (Bauer et al., 2018; Bauer et al., 2019; Hyytiäinen et
1461 al., 2019), and to continue the dialogue with human society, in order to attune to the future
1462 changes ultimately driven by the Ocean itself (Stenseth et al., 2020).

1463

1464

1465 **Author contributions.** MV prepared the manuscript with contributions from EB.

1466

1467 **Competing interests.** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

1468

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1475 [reviewers/peers for constructive comments significantly improving earlier versions of the](#)
1476 [manuscript.](#)
1477

1478
 1479 Table 1. Summary of research findings and conclusions on the anticipated effects of climate
 1480 change (CC) effects in the Baltic Sea for selected variables. The table only ~~includes shows~~
 1481 studies published in 2011-2021 ~~and a part of studies referred to in the text are not included.~~
 1482 For earlier studies, see Dippner et al. (2008) and Viitasalo et al. (2015). Observations,
 1483 experimental simulations, or modelled projections: T = temperature increase; S = salinity
 1484 decline; TSO₂ = temperature increase, salinity decline and/or oxygen decline; A =
 1485 acidification; AT = acidification and temperature increase; AS = acidification increase and
 1486 salinity decline; DOM = dissolved organic matter. EXP = experimental manipulations
 1487 /microcosms; MES = experimental manipulations /mesocosms; LTS = Long-term studies;
 1488 MOD = modelling studies; FIE = Field data. Empty fields indicate knowledge gaps.
 1489

Kommentout [VM16]: R2:

r. 1427 I suggest to specify "...in the Baltic Sea for selected test variables". Several studies referred to in the text, and some covering other test variables, are omitted.

Taxonomic group	T	S	TSO ₂	A	AT & AS	Other changes in physico-chemical environment	Interactions between trophic levels
Bacterial communities	EXP: Bacteria community changes under T (Bergen et al. 2016)	EXP: Drastic change in bacterial communities (Wulff et al. 2018)	EXP: Mixed responses to TS change in microbial community (Wulff et al. 2018)	EXP: Limited impact of A on bacteria (Bergen et al. 2016; Lindh et al. 2013)	EXP: Community change with AT (Lindh et al. 2013); EXP: Biovolume of bacterial communities decline with AS (Wulff et al. 2018)	MES: Different responses for increase of DOM and T in different bacteria taxa (Lindh et al. 2015); MES: Bacteria increase with DOC addition (Andersson et al. 2013)	EXP: T induced a decline in bacteria, due to increase of flagellates (Nydahl et al. 2013); EXP: Bacteria increase caused by decaying cyanobacteria (Berner et al. 2018)
Phytoplankton	LTS: Prolonged growing season under T (Kahru et al. 2016; Wasmund et al. 2019). Earlier and longer spring bloom (Sommer et al. 2012; Groetsch et al. 2016;	EXP: Growth rates of <i>A. ostensfeldii</i> declined at lowered S (Kremp et al. 2016) Toxicity of <i>A. ostensfeldii</i> may increase or decrease, depending on strain, under S	LTS: Eutrophication effects modified by climate-induced variations in T and S (Hällfors et al. 2013; Olofsson et al. 2020) and by Baltic Sea Index (Griffiths et al. 2020)	MES: Autumn phytoplankton biomass increased Sommer et al. 2015); EXP: No/minor effects on community composition, fatty acids or biovolumes of	MES: Autumn phytoplankton biomass increase with AT (Sommer et al. 2015); EXP: Growth and saxitoxin concentration of <i>Alexandrium ostensfeldii</i> increases	LTS: Shift from diatoms to dino-flagellates due to changes in sunshine, wind and ice conditions (Klais et al. 2011, 2013; Hällfors et al. 2013; Spilling et al. 2013; Kuosa et al.	MES: Phytoplankton on increases with increasing inorganic nutrients but not when also DOC is added (Andersson et al. 2013). MES: Warming increases zooplankton grazing on

	Wasmund et al. 2016) EXP: Growth of dino-flagellate <i>Alexandrium ostenfeldii</i> decreased under T (Kremp et al. 2016) EXP: Toxicity of <i>A. ostenfeldii</i> may increase or decrease, depending on strain, under T (Kremp et al. 2016) Germination of <i>A. ostenfeldii</i> resting cysts is unaffected by T (Jerney et al. 2019)	(Kremp et al. 2016) Germination of <i>A. ostenfeldii</i> resting cysts is unaffected by T (Jerney et al. 2019)		phytoplankton (Paul et al. 2015; Bermudez et al. 2016; Olofsson et al. 2019)	with AT (Kremp et al. 2012)	2017; Hjerne et al. 2019) MOD: Increased phytoplankton biomass caused by increase in nutrient availability (Meier et al. 2012a,b; Skogen et al. 2014; Ryabchenko et al. 2016); MOD: CC and nutrient reduction lead to a shift from pelagic to benthic primary production (Lindegren et al. 2012)	medium-sized algae which releases smaller algae from predation (Paul et al. 2015); EXP: Effects of AT modified by diminishing of grazing by copepods (Paul et al. 2016)
Cyano-bacteria	EXP: Earlier peak but lower biomass of cyanobacteria (Berner et al. 2018); LTS: Increase of cyanobacteria blooms in summer (Suikkanen et al. 2013); EXP: Toxicity of <i>Dolichospermum</i> sp. increases with T (Brutemark et al. 2015; Wulff et al. 2018)	LTS: community change caused by S decline in the Gulf of Bothnia (Kuosa et al. 2017); EXP: Toxicity of <i>Dolichospermum</i> sp. increases at low salinity (3-6 psu) (Wulff et al. 2018)		EXP: Production of single-celled cyanobacterium <i>Cyanothece</i> increases and that of filamentous <i>Nodularia</i> decreases under A (Eichner et al. 2014); EXP: Decline of cyanobacteria may induce a decline of nitrogen fixation (Eichner et al. 2014; Berner et al. 2018)	MES: AT has a negative impact on <i>Nodularia</i> biomass (Paul et al. 2018); EXP: Only T affects biovolume and photosynthetic activity of <i>Nodularia</i> and <i>Aphanizomenon</i> (Karlberg & Wulff 2013)	MOD: Cyanobacteria blooms will increase in the warmer and more stratified future (Meier et al. 2011a,b; Neumann et al. 2012; Chust et al. 2014; Funkey et al. 2014; Lessin et al. 2014; Andersson et al. 2015)	LTS: Shift to cyanobacteria dominance also attributed to changes in eutrophication and top-down pressure (Suikkanen et al. 2013)
Microzooplankton	MES: Growth rate			MES: No effect on	EXP: Community		MES: Positive

	of microzooplankton increased (Horn et al. 2016)			microzooplankton (Horn et al. 2016)	change with AT (Lindh et al. 2013); EXP: Biovolume of ciliates decline with AS (Wulff et al. 2018)		effect from A on the mixotrophic ciliate <i>Myrionecta (Mesodinium)</i> due to increase in food availability (Lischka et al. 2017)
Mesozooplankton	EXP: Decrease in copepod egg viability and nauplii development under T (Vehmaa et al. 2013); Decrease in copepod adult body size and survival (Vehmaa et al. 2013; Garzke et al. 2015); LTS: T favours cladocerans and rotifers (Jansson et al. 2020); EXP: Southern populations of copepod <i>Eurytemora affinis</i> can adapt to T (Karlsson & Winder 2020)	EXP: Respiration of copepod <i>Acartia longiremis</i> increases and feeding rate decreases at S below 7 psu (Dutz & Christensen 2018)	LTS: Decline of marine copepods due to S (Suikkanen et al. 2013; Hänninen et al. 2015); LTS: Increase of brackish copepods due to S and T (Mäkinen et al. 2017)	MES: A-duced decline in body size of adult copepods (Vehmaa et al. 2016);			MOD: Surface-dwelling copepods are favoured by T-induced increase in food (Otto et al. 2014a); MES: T induces a grazer-driven change to smaller-sized phytoplankton (Klausches et al. 2012; Paul et al. 2015); MES: At T copepods control microzooplankton (Horn et al. 2016); MES: T strengthens microbial loop-heterotrophic pathways of carbon through protozooplankton to copepods (Aberle et al. 2015) and induces a switch from bottom-up to top-down

							control (Paul et al. 2016); MES: Growth of cladocerans increases under A because of increase in food (Lischka et al. 2017) MES: Mesozooplankton production is maintained both with autotrophic and heterotrophic production (Andersson et al. 2013; Lefebure et al. 2013)
Macroalgae	EXP: At heat wave temperatures, photosynthesis declines, growth ceases and necrosis starts in bladderwrack (Graiff et al. 2017; Takolander et al. 2017b); MES: T is beneficial for <i>Fucus</i> in early and late summer, but harmful in mid-summer (Wahl et al. 2021)	EXP: Sexual reproduction of bladderwrack ceases at S (Rothäusler et al. 2018, 2019); MOD: Bladderwrack distribution will be restricted in the Baltic Sea (Vuorinen et al. 2015; Takolander et al. 2017a; Jonsson et al. 2018; Kotta et al. 2019); MOD: Red alga <i>Furcellaria</i> distribution will be restricted (Torn et al. 2020);		EXP: Generally small effects on macroalgae (Al-Janabi et al. 2016a; Wahl et al. 2019); EXP: Increase in growth of green alga <i>Ulva intestinalis</i> due to A (Pajusalu et al. 2013, 2016)	EXP: A-induced necrosis in bladderwrack is worsened by S (Takolander et al. 2017b); EXP: Upwelling of hypoxic water causes mortality of bladderwrack germlings under AT (Al-Janabi et al. 2016b)		MES: In spring, T induces overgrowth of bladderwrack by epiphytic diatoms (Werner & Matthiessen 2017); In summer, heatwave collapses grazers and results in overgrowth of bladderwrack by filamentous algae; in winter, T enhances grazing by invertebrates, resulting in decline of bladderwrack (Werner et al. 2016)

		EXP: Populations of <i>F.</i> <i>vesiculosus</i> show different responses to S (Kinnby et al. 2020)					
Vascular plants	MOD: Charophyte distribution increases under T (Torn et al. 2020); MES: Springtime heatwaves cause high mortality in eelgrass (Sawall et al. 2021)	MOD: Eelgrass distribution will be restricted by S (Torn et al. 2021)		EXP: No effect of A on eelgrass <i>Zostera</i> <i>marina</i> (Pajusalu et al. 2015)		MOD: Eelgrass distribution will be retained if nutrient abatement is implemen- ted, despite CC effects (Bobsien et al. 2021)	
Benthic animals	EXP: Non- linear response to T in isopod <i>Idothea</i> <i>balthica</i> (Ito et al. 2019); EXP: Heat waves induce a shift in community structure (Pansch et al. 2018); LTS: T increase induces a higher biomass of gammarid s and snails (Salo et al. 2020)	LTS: Salinity decline affected zoobenthos variations in Åland Islands (Snickars et al. 2015)	LTS: Long- term changes in physico- chemical parameters drive the variations in zoobenthos (Weigel et al. 2015; Rousi et al. 2019; Törnroos et al. 2019; Ehrnsten et al. 2020; Forsblom et al. 2021); LTS: Replace- ment of amphipods by Baltic clam and <i>Marenzelleria</i> sp. explained by TSO (Rousi et al. 2013); EXP: Survival of isopod <i>Idothea</i> <i>Baltica</i> decreases	EXP: Develop- ment of Baltic clam larvae slows down under A (Jansson et al. 2016); EXP: No effects of A on barnacle larvae (Pansch et al. 2012); EXP: No effects of A on isopod <i>Saduria</i> <i>entomon</i> (Jaku- bowska et al. 2013); EXP: No effect of A on isopod <i>Idothea</i> <i>balthica</i> in Kattegat but strong effects in the other parts of the Baltic Sea (Wood et al. 2014)		MOD: Climate- induced changes in physical and biogeo- chemical parameters will modify the response of zoobenthos to availability of food and oxygen (Timmer- mann et al. 2012; Ehrnsten et al. 2019a,b)	MOD: Abundance of isopod <i>Idothea</i> <i>baltica</i> will decline due to salinity- induced decline in bladder- wrack (Kotta et al. 2019)

			(Rugiu et al. 2018c); MOD: Biomass of Saduria entomon increases due to S (Gogina et al. 2020)				
Non-indigenous invertebrates	FIE: T induced higher biomass of gastropod <i>Potamopyrgus</i> (Salo et al. 2020)		MOD: Ponto-Caspian bivalves, amphipods and mysids will increase under TS in the coastal benthic areas (Holopainen et al. 2016); FIE: NIS establish in areas with high T and low S (Jänes et al. 2017)				
Fish	LTS: Sprat has benefited from T (Voss et al. 2011; MacKenzie et al. 2012; Eero et al. 2016); LTS: Warm water Atlantic species (e.g. anchovy, sole and turbot) occur in the western Baltic (Alheit 2012; Sparrevohn et al. 2013); MOD: Sprat productivity will increase with T (Voss et al. 2011; MacKenzie	LT: S and associated decline of marine copepods induced a halving of herring weight-at-age (Dippner et al. 2019); LTS/MOD: Different effects of T and S on sprat and cod cause a spatial mismatch between these species (Eero et al. 2012); LTS: Decline in S intensified resource competition between herring and	MOD: Cod reproductive volume will diminish towards the end of the century due to TSO (Niiranen et al. 2013; Wählström et al. 2020); FIELD, EXP & MOD: Digestion, food consumption, growth and maximum length of cod declines in low O conditions (Limburg et al. 2019; Brander et al. 2020;	EXP: No effect of A on cod larvae (Frommel et al. 2013); EXP: Mortality of cod larvae doubles when treated with RCP8.5 scenarios (Stiasny et al. 2016)	EXP: No effect on cod larvae with AT (Frommel et al. 2013)	LTS/MOD: cod declined due to the climate- and human-induced decrease of 'reproductive volume' (Gårdmark et al., 2013; Niiranen et al., 2013; Wählström et al., 2020).	MES: Stickleback production is maintained with elevated temperature and increased DOC loads (Lefébure et al. 2013); MOD: Climate-induced decoupling of benthic feeding fish from their food source (Törnroos et al. 2019); MOD: Herring stocks decrease in short term Niiranen et al. 2013); FIE: Perch

	et al. 2012; Pansch et al. 2012); MOD: Herring stocks will increase due to T (Bartolino et al., 2014); LTS: Pike-perch more abundant in the northernmost Baltic Sea due to T (Peckan-Hekim et al.2011)	vendace in the Bothnian Bay (Pekcan-Hekim et al. 2012)	Orio et al. 2021)				shift from feeding on small fish to gammarids, which releases grazing from filamentous algae (Svensson et al. 2017); LTS/MOD: Partly climate induced decline in cod stock caused a cascading effect on sprat, herring and zooplankton (Hinrichsen et al. 2011; Casini et al. 2016; Bartolino et al. 2017)
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