



## 1 Climate Change in the Baltic Sea Region: A Summary

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48 **Abstract.** Based on the Baltic Earth Assessment Reports of this thematic issue in Earth System Dynamics and  
49 recent peer-reviewed literature, current knowledge about the effects of global warming on past and future changes  
50 in climate of the Baltic Sea region is summarized and assessed. The study is an update of the Second Assessment  
51 of Climate Change (BACC II) published in 2015 and focusses on the atmosphere, land, cryosphere, ocean,  
52 sediments and the terrestrial and marine biosphere. Based on the summaries of the recent knowledge gained in  
53 paleo-, historical and future regional climate research, we find that the main conclusions from earlier assessments  
54 remain still valid. However, new long-term, homogenous observational records, e.g. for Scandinavian glacier  
55 inventories, sea-level driven saltwater inflows, so-called Major Baltic Inflows, and phytoplankton species  
56 distribution and new scenario simulations with improved models, e.g. for glaciers, lake ice and marine food web,  
57 have become available. In many cases, uncertainties can now be better estimated than before, because more models  
58 can be included in the ensembles, especially for the Baltic Sea. With the help of coupled models, feedbacks  
59 between several components of the Earth System have been studied and multiple driver studies were performed,  
60 e.g. projections of the food web that include fisheries, eutrophication and climate change. New data sets and  
61 projections have led to a revised understanding of changes in some variables such as salinity. Furthermore, it has  
62 become evident that natural variability, in particular for the ocean on multidecadal time scales, is greater than  
63 previously estimated, challenging our ability to detect observed and projected changes in climate. In this context,  
64 the first paleoclimate simulations regionalized for the Baltic Sea region are instructive. Hence, estimated  
65 uncertainties for the projections of many variables increased. In addition to the well-known influence of the North  
66 Atlantic Oscillation, it was found that also other low-frequency modes of internal variability, such as the Atlantic  
67 Multidecadal Variability, have profound effects on the climate of the Baltic Sea region. Challenges were also  
68 identified, such as the systematic discrepancy between future cloudiness trends in global and regional models and  
69 the difficulty of confidently attributing large observed changes in marine ecosystems to climate change. Finally,  
70 we compare our results with other coastal sea assessments, such as the North Sea Region Climate Change  
71 Assessment (NOSCCA) and find that the effects of climate change on the Baltic Sea differ from those on the North  
72 Sea, since Baltic Sea oceanography and ecosystems are very different from other coastal seas such as the North  
73 Sea. While the North Sea dynamics is dominated by tides, the Baltic Sea is characterized by brackish water, a  
74 perennial vertical stratification in the southern sub-basins and a seasonal sea ice cover in the northern sub-basins.

75 During the time in which this paper was prepared, shortly before submission, Christian Dieterich passed away  
76 (1964-2021). This sad event marked the end of the life of a distinguished oceanographer and climate scientist who  
77 made important contributions to the climate modeling of the Baltic Sea, North Sea and North Atlantic regions.  
78 This paper is dedicated to him.

## 79 **1 Introduction**

### 80 **1.1 Overview**

81 In this study, the results concerning climate change of the various articles of this thematic issue, the so-called  
82 Baltic Earth Assessment Reports (BEARs) coordinated by the Baltic Earth program<sup>1</sup> (Meier et al., 2014), and other  
83 relevant literature are summarized and assessed. We focus on the knowledge gained during 2013-2020 about past,  
84 present and future climate changes in the Baltic Sea region. The methodology of all BEARs follows the earlier  
85 assessments of climate change in the Baltic Sea region (BACC Author Team, 2008; BACC II Author Team, 2015).  
86 The aim of this review is to inform and update scientists, policymakers and stakeholders about recent research  
87 results. The focus is on the atmosphere, hydrosphere, cryosphere, lithosphere and biosphere. In contrast to the  
88 earlier assessments, we do not investigate the impact of climate change on human society. We start (Section 1)  
89 with a summary of key messages from the earlier assessments of climate change in the Baltic Sea region, a  
90 description of the Baltic Sea region and its climate, a comparison of the Baltic Sea with other coastal seas and a  
91 summary of current knowledge on global climate change assessed in the latest Intergovernmental Panel on Climate  
92 Change (IPCC) reports. In Section 2, the methods for the literature assessment, climate model data and uncertainty

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<sup>1</sup> <https://baltic.earth>



93 estimates are outlined. In Section 3, the results of the assessment for selected variables (Table 1) under past  
94 (paleoclimate), present (historical period with instrumental data) and future (until 2100) climate conditions are  
95 presented, *inter alia* by summarizing the results in various papers of this special issue by Lehmann et al. (2021),  
96 Kuliński et al. (2021), Rutgersson et al. (2021), Weisse et al. (2021), Gröger et al. (2021a), Christensen et al.  
97 (2021), Meier et al. (2021a) and Viitasalo (2021) and by other relevant review studies. In Section 4, the interactions  
98 of climate with other anthropogenic drivers are summarized from Reckermann et al., 2021. As the adjacent North  
99 Sea has different physical characteristics and topographical features but is located in a similar climatic zone as the  
100 Baltic Sea, we compare the results of this assessment with the results of the North Sea Region Climate Change  
101 Assessment (NOSCCA; Quante and Colijn, 2016; Section 5). Knowledge gaps (Section 6), key messages (Section  
102 7) and conclusions (Section 8) finalize the study.

### 103 **1.2 The BACC and BEAR projects**

104 This assessment is an update to the two BACC books, published as comprehensive textbooks in 2008 and 2015  
105 (BACC Author Team, 2008; BACC II Author Team, 2015). The acronym BACC (**BALTEX Assessment of**  
106 **Climate Change**) refers to the Baltic Earth pre-cursor programme BALTEX (Baltic Sea Experiment; Reckermann  
107 et al., 2011). From the beginning, BALTEX tried to approach three basic questions: 1. What is the evidence for  
108 past and present regional climate change? 2. What are the model projections for future regional climate change?  
109 3. Which impacts can we already observe in terrestrial and marine ecosystems?

110

111 First ideas for a comprehensive appraisal of the current knowledge on climate change and its impact on the Baltic  
112 Sea region evolved in 2004 as it became evident that there was a demand for this, in particular by the Baltic Marine  
113 Environment Protection Commission, the Helsinki Commission (HELCOM; BALTEX, 2005). A steering group  
114 of leading experts from the Baltic Sea region was enlisted, which elaborated a grand chapter structure at several  
115 preparatory workshops and meetings and also recruited a group of lead authors. In total, more than 80 scientists  
116 from 12 countries and all relevant scientific disciplines contributed to the first regional climate change assessment  
117 (BACC Author Team, 2008), which underwent a rigorous review process.

118

119 In 2011, a second edition of the BACC book was initiated as an update, but also as a complement to the first book,  
120 by including new topics like an overview of changes since the last glaciation, and a new section on regional drivers  
121 and attribution. The Second Assessment of Climate Change for the Baltic Sea Basin (BACC II Author Team,  
122 2015) was published in 2015, used the same procedures and principles, but with a new steering and author group,  
123 and under the auspices of Baltic Earth, the successor of BALTEX. Close collaboration with HELCOM was  
124 envisaged from the very beginning, with HELCOM using material from both BACC assessments for their own  
125 climate change assessment reports (HELCOM, 2007; 2013b).

126

127 In 2018, the Baltic Earth Science Steering Group decided to produce a series of new assessment reports, the  
128 BEARs, on the current Baltic Earth Grand Challenges, Earth System models and projections for the Baltic Sea  
129 Region. The BEARs are comprehensive, peer-reviewed review articles in journal format, and the update to BACC  
130 II (this article) is one of the ten envisaged contributions summarizing the current knowledge on regional climate  
131 change and its impacts, knowledge gaps and advice for future work. For further details about our knowledge on  
132 climate change, the reader is referred to the other BEARs. The close collaboration with HELCOM is continued in



133 the joint HELCOM-Baltic Earth Expert Network of Climate Change (EN CLIME), which was assembled to  
134 produce a Baltic Earth – HELCOM Climate Change Fact Sheet for the Baltic Sea region<sup>2</sup>.

135

136 Hence, this thematic issue comprises nine BEARs and, in addition, this summary of the current knowledge about  
137 past, present and future climate changes for the Baltic Sea region (“BACC III”). Below a few key-words  
138 characterizing the BEARs’ contents are listed:

- 139 1. Salinity dynamics of the Baltic Sea (Lehmann et al., 2021): water and energy cycles with focus on Baltic  
140 Sea salinity during past climate variability, meteorological patterns at various space and time scales and  
141 mesoscale variability in precipitation, variations in river runoff and various types of inflows of saline  
142 water, exchange of water masses between various sub-basins and vertical mixing processes. The paper  
143 also includes the observed trends of salinity during the last >100 years.
- 144 2. Baltic Earth Assessment Report on the biogeochemistry of the Baltic Sea (Kuliński et al., 2021): terrestrial  
145 biogeochemical processes and nutrient loads to the Baltic Sea, transformations of C, N, P in the coastal  
146 zone, organic matter production and remineralization, oxygen availability, burial and turnover of C, N, P  
147 in the sediments, the Baltic Sea CO<sub>2</sub> system and seawater acidification, role of specific microorganisms  
148 in Baltic Sea biogeochemistry, interactions between biogeochemical processes and chemical  
149 contaminants.
- 150 3. Natural Hazards and Extreme Events in the Baltic Sea region (Rutgersson et al., 2021): extremes in wind,  
151 waves, and sea level, sea-effect snowfall, river floods, hot and cold spells in the atmosphere, marine heat  
152 waves, droughts, ice seasons, ice ridging, phytoplankton blooms and some implications of extreme events  
153 for society (including forest fires, coastal flooding, offshore wind mills and shipping).
- 154 4. Sea Level Dynamics and Coastal Erosion in the Baltic Sea Region (Weisse et al., 2021): sea level  
155 dynamics and coastal erosion in past and future climates. The current knowledge about the diverse  
156 processes affecting mean and extreme sea level changes is assessed.
- 157 5. Coupled regional Earth system modelling in the Baltic Sea Region (Gröger et al., 2021a): status report  
158 on coupled regional Earth system modeling with focus on the coupling between atmosphere and ocean,  
159 atmosphere and land surface including dynamic vegetation, ocean, sea ice and waves and atmosphere and  
160 hydrological components to close the water cycle.
- 161 6. Atmospheric regional climate projections for the Baltic Sea Region until 2100 (Christensen et al., 2021):  
162 comparison of coupled and uncoupled regional future climate model projections. As the number of  
163 atmospheric scenario simulations of the Euro-CORDEX program (Kjellström et al., 2018; Teichmann et  
164 al., 2018; Jacob et al., 2018) is large, uncertainties can be better estimated and the effects of mitigation  
165 measures can be better addressed compared to earlier assessments.
- 166 7. Oceanographic regional climate projections for the Baltic Sea until 2100 (Meier et al., 2021a): new  
167 projections with a coupled physical-biogeochemical ocean model of future climate considering global sea  
168 level rise, regional climate change and nutrient input scenarios are compared with previous studies and  
169 the differences are explained by differing scenario assumptions and experimental setups.

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<sup>2</sup> <https://helcom.fi/helcom-at-work/groups/state-and-conservation/en-clime/>,  
[https://baltic.earth/projects/en\\_clime/index.php.en](https://baltic.earth/projects/en_clime/index.php.en)



- 170 8. Climate change and the Baltic Sea ecosystem: direct and indirect effects on species, communities and  
171 ecosystem function (Viitasalo, 2021): impact of past and future climate changes on the marine ecosystem.  
172 9. Human impacts and their interactions in the Baltic Sea region (Reckermann et al., 2021): interlinkages of  
173 factors controlling environmental changes. Changing climate is only one of the many anthropogenic and  
174 natural impacts that effect the environment. Other investigated factors are coastal processes, hypoxia,  
175 acidification, submarine groundwater discharge, marine ecosystems, non-indigenous species, land use  
176 and land cover (called natural) and agriculture and nutrient loads, aquaculture, fisheries, river regulations  
177 and restorations, offshore wind farms, shipping, chemical contaminants, unexploded and dumped warfare  
178 agents, marine litter and microplastics, tourism, and coastal management (called human-induced).

### 179 **1.3 Summary of BACC I and II key messages**

180 Quotation by the BACC II Author Team (2015):

181 “The key findings of the BACC I assessment were as follows:

- 182 • The Baltic Sea region is warming, and the warming is almost certain to continue throughout the twenty-first  
183 century.  
184 • It is plausible that the warming is at least partly related to anthropogenic factors.  
185 • So far, and as is likely to be the case for the next few decades, the signal is limited to temperature and to directly  
186 related variables, such as ice conditions.  
187 • Changes in the hydrological cycle are expected to become obvious in the coming decades.  
188 • The regional warming is almost certain to have a variety of effects on terrestrial and marine ecosystems—some  
189 will be more predictable (such as the changes in phenology) than others.

190

191 The key findings of the BACC II assessment [...] are as follows:

- 192 1. The results of the BACC I assessment remain valid.  
193 2. Significant additional material has been found and assessed. Some previously contested issues have been  
194 resolved (such as trends in sea-surface temperature).  
195 3. The use of multi-model ensembles seems to be a major improvement; there are first detection studies, but  
196 attribution is still weak.  
197 4. Regional climate models still suffer from biases related to the heat and water balances. The effect of  
198 changing atmospheric aerosol load to date cannot be described; first efforts at describing the effect of  
199 land-use change have now been done.  
200 5. Data homogeneity is still a problem and is sometimes not taken seriously enough.  
201 6. The issue of multiple drivers on ecosystems and socioeconomics is recognized, but more efforts to deal  
202 with them are needed.  
203 7. In many cases, the relative importance of different drivers of change, not only climate change, needs to  
204 be evaluated (e.g. atmospheric and aquatic pollution and eutrophication, overfishing, and changes in land  
205 cover).  
206 8. Estimates of future concentrations and deposition of substances such as sulphur and nitrogen oxides,  
207 ammonia/ammonium, ozone, and carbon dioxide depend on future emissions and climate conditions.  
208 Atmospheric warming seems relatively less important than changes in emissions. The specification of



- 209 future emissions is plausibly the biggest source of uncertainty when attempting to project future  
210 deposition or ocean acidification.
- 211 9. In the narrow coastal zone, the combination of climate change and land uplift acting together creates a  
212 particularly challenging situation for plant and animal communities in terms of adaptation to changing  
213 environmental conditions.
- 214 10. Climate change is a compounding factor for major drivers of changes in freshwater biogeochemistry, but  
215 evidence is still often based on small-scale studies in time and space. The effect of climate change cannot  
216 yet be quantified on a basin-wide scale.
- 217 11. Climate model scenarios show a tendency towards future reduced salinity, but due to the large bias in the  
218 water balance projections, it is still uncertain whether the Baltic Sea will become less or more saline.
- 219 12. Scenario simulations suggest that the Baltic Sea water may become more acidic in the future. Increased  
220 oxygen deficiency, increased temperature, changed salinity, and increased ocean acidification are  
221 expected to affect the marine ecosystem in various ways and may erode the resilience of the ecosystem.
- 222 13. When addressing climate change impacts on, for example, forestry, agriculture, urban complexes, and the  
223 marine environment in the Baltic Sea basin, a broad perspective is needed which considers not only  
224 climate change but also other significant factors such as changes in emissions, demographic and economic  
225 changes, and changes in land use.
- 226 14. Palaeoecological ‘proxy’ data indicate that the major change in anthropogenic land cover in the Baltic  
227 Sea catchment area occurred more than two thousand years ago. Climate model studies indicate that past  
228 anthropogenic land-cover change had a significant impact on past climate in the northern hemisphere and  
229 the Baltic Sea region, but there is no evidence that land cover change since AD 1850 was even partly  
230 responsible for driving the recent climate warming.”
- 231 For comparison, the findings of this assessment study can be found in Section 8.

## 232 **1.4 Baltic Sea region characteristics**

### 233 **1.4.1 Climate variability of the Baltic Sea Region**

234 The Baltic Sea region (including the Kattegat) is located between maritime temperate and continental sub-arctic  
235 climate zones, in the latitude–longitude box 54°N–66°N × 9°E–30°E (Fig. 1). The climate of the Baltic Sea region  
236 has a large variability due to the opposing effects of moist and relatively mild marine air flows from the North  
237 Atlantic Ocean and the Eurasian continental climate. The regional weather regimes varies depending on the exact  
238 location of the polar front and the strength of the westerlies, and both seasonal and interannual variations are  
239 considerable. The westerlies are particularly important in winter, when the temperature difference between the  
240 marine and continental air masses is large.

241

242 The southern and western parts of the Baltic Sea belong to the Central European mild climate zone in the westerly  
243 circulation. The northern part locates at the polar front and the winter climate is cold and dry due to cold arctic air  
244 outbreaks from the east. In terms of classical meteorology, during winter the polar front fluctuates over the Baltic  
245 Sea region but during summer it is located farther to the north. Depending on the particular year, the central part  
246 of the Baltic Sea can be either on the mild or the cold side of the polar front. The temperature difference between  
247 winter and summer is much larger in the north. During warm summers and cold winters the air pressure field is



248 smooth and winds are weak, and blocking high pressure situations are common. During such periods, the weather  
249 can be very stable for several weeks.

250

251 The climate of the Baltic Sea region is strongly influenced by the large-scale atmospheric variability (e.g.  
252 Andersson, 2002; Tinz, 1996; Meier and Kauker, 2003; Omstedt and Chen, 2001; Zorita and Laine, 2000;  
253 Lehmann et al., 2002). In particular, the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO), blocking and, on longer time scales,  
254 circulation patterns related to the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO) play important roles for the climate of  
255 the Baltic Sea region. The AMO consists of an unforced component which is the result of atmosphere-ocean  
256 interactions (e.g. Wills et al., 2018) and a forced component such as volcanic eruptions (Mann et al., 2021; Mann  
257 et al., 2020). However, the relative importance of its forced and unforced components is still debated (Mann et al.,  
258 2021).

259

260 The NAO is the dominant mode of near-surface pressure variability over the North Atlantic and its influence is  
261 strongest in winter (Hurrell et al., 2003), when it accounts for almost one-third of the sea level pressure (SLP)  
262 variance (e.g. Kauker and Meier, 2003). During the positive (negative) phase of the NAO the Icelandic Low and  
263 Azores High pressure systems are stronger (weaker), leading to a stronger (weaker) than normal westerly flow  
264 (Hurrell, 1995). Positive NAO phases are associated with mild temperatures and increased precipitation and  
265 storminess whereas negative NAO phases are characterized by warm summers, cold winters, and less precipitation  
266 (Hurrell et al., 2003). Increasing winter temperatures in the Baltic Sea have also been linked to an observed shift  
267 in the storm tracks (BACC II Author Team, 2015). There is a large interannual to interdecadal variability in the  
268 NAO, reflecting interactions with and changes in surface properties, including sea surface temperature (SST) and  
269 sea ice cover. This makes it difficult to detect a possible long-term trend in the NAO.

270

271 Atmospheric blocking occurs when persistent high pressure systems interrupt the normally westerly flow over the  
272 middle and high latitudes, e.g. the North Atlantic. By redirecting the pathways of midlatitude cyclones, blockings  
273 lead to negative precipitation anomalies in the region of the blocking anticyclone and positive anomalies in the  
274 surrounding areas (Sousa et al., 2017). In this way, blockings can also be associated with extreme events such as  
275 heavy precipitation (Lenggenhager and Martius, 2019) or drought (Schubert et al., 2014).

276

277 The AMO describes fluctuations in North Atlantic sea surface temperature (SST) with a period of 50-90 years  
278 (Knight et al., 2006). Thus only a few distinct AMO phases have been observed in the 150-year instrumental  
279 record. However, a recent model study suggests that variations in the AMO may influence atmospheric circulation  
280 that leads to additional precipitation over the Baltic Sea region (Börgel et al., 2018). Further, it was found that the  
281 AMO altered the zonal position of the NAO and affected the regional imprint of the NAO for the Baltic Sea region  
282 (Börgel et al., 2020).

#### 283 **1.4.2 A unique brackish water basin**

284 The Baltic Sea is a unique brackish water basin in the World Ocean which has a salinity less than 24.7 g kg<sup>-1</sup> in all  
285 areas (Leppäranta and Myrberg, 2009; Voipio, 1981; Maggaard and Rheinheimer, 1974; Feistel et al., 2008;  
286 Omstedt et al., 2014). The sea is very shallow (with a mean depth of only 54 m), and can be characterized as a  
287 number of sub-basins (Fig. 2). The Baltic Sea has the only connection to the North Sea through the Danish straits



288 (Fig. 2). The exchange of water between the Baltic Sea and North Sea through the narrow straits is quite limited.  
289 The Baltic Sea has a positive fresh water balance with an average salinity of about  $7.4 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$  – this being only one-  
290 fifth the salinity of the World Ocean, thus water masses are brackish. The Baltic Sea is located between mild  
291 maritime and continental sub-arctic climate zones and partly ice-covered in every winter. However, it is completely  
292 frozen over only during extremely cold winters. The highly variable coastal geomorphology and the extended  
293 archipelago areas make the Baltic Sea unique (see Section 5).

294

295 The World Ocean has only four large brackish water basins (Leppäranta and Myrberg, 2009). These are from the  
296 largest to the smallest the Black Sea (Ivanov and Belokopytov, 2013) located between Europe and Asia Minor, the  
297 Baltic Sea, the Gulf of Ob in the Kara Sea (Volkov et al., 2002) and the Chesapeake Bay (Kjerfve, 1988), on the  
298 east coast of the United States of America. All these sea areas developed into brackish water basins during the  
299 Holocene. During the most recent (Weichselian) glaciation period the Black Sea was a freshwater lake, the Baltic  
300 Sea and the Gulf of Ob were under the Eurasian ice sheet, and the Chesapeake Bay was a river valley (Leppäranta  
301 and Myrberg, 2009). The mean depth of the Black Sea is 1200 m, and due to the strong salinity stratification and  
302 extremely slow deep water renewal the water masses below 200 m are anoxic. The Sea of Azov in the north-  
303 eastern part of the Black Sea is often frozen during the winter. The Gulf of Ob is the long (800 km), narrow estuary  
304 of the River Ob in the Kara Sea in the Russian Arctic, and ice-covered in winter. Finally, Chesapeake Bay is a  
305 small, very shallow basin and a drowned river valley or ria, in the humid subtropical climate zone, with hot  
306 summers and ice formation in river mouths in some winters.

307

308 Table 2 gives basic information of the brackish water seas and other basins comparable with the Baltic Sea. Most  
309 similar to the brackish water seas is Hudson Bay (Roff and Legendre, 1986). It is an oceanic, semi-enclosed basin  
310 with a positive fresh water balance, and a salinity of about  $30 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ . In contrast, small Mediterranean seas with a  
311 negative fresh water balance and salinities above  $40 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$  are found in the tropical zone; e.g. the Red Sea and  
312 Persian Gulf. The largest lakes are comparable in size to the Baltic Sea, and the Caspian Sea is even larger in  
313 volume.

314

315 The Baltic Sea basin is a very old geomorphological depression. Prior to the Weichselian glaciation this basin  
316 contained the Eem Sea, which extended from the North Sea to the Barents Sea, making Fennoscandia an island.  
317 At the end of the Weichselian glaciation, 13,500 years ago, the Baltic Ice Lake was formed by glacier meltwater.  
318 During the Holocene fresh and brackish phases followed dictated by the balance of glacier retreats and  
319 progressions, land uplift and eustatic changes of the global sea level (Tikkanen and Oksanen, 2002). The present  
320 brackish phase commenced 7000 years ago, and since about 2000 years ago the salinity has been close to the  
321 present level. Postglacial land uplift has slowly changed the Baltic Sea landscape, making it possible to observe  
322 how land rises from the sea and how terrestrial life gradually takes over. People living in the region have adapted  
323 to this slow long-term change.

#### 324 **1.4.3 The Baltic Sea - a specific European sea**

325 The basic features of the European seas reveal key differences, in areal extent, depth profile, salinity level, fresh  
326 water budget, climate, and tidal motions (Table 3). The Baltic Sea and the North Sea are shallow, with a mean  
327 depth of less than 100 m; the Baltic can be described as a “coastal sea”, with a mean depth of only 54 m. The Black





328 Sea and the Mediterranean Sea are much deeper, with mean depths of approximately 1200 m and 1500 m,  
329 respectively, whereas the North-East Atlantic reaches the full oceanic depth of ca. 4 km, fringed by much shallower  
330 continental shelf areas, at about 400 m. These depth differences influence, among other things, the mixing of the  
331 water column, variability in temperature, and distribution of benthic ecosystems (Myrberg et al., 2019).

332

333 Among the European Seas, the Baltic Sea physics stands out in terms of its small tidal amplitudes, low salinity,  
334 strong stratification and anoxic conditions. Additionally, frequent and spatially extensive upwelling and regular  
335 seasonal ice cover are typical of the Baltic Sea (Leppäranta and Myrberg, 2009). To summarize:

- 336 ● The Baltic Sea is permanently stratified due to a large salinity (density) difference between the fresh upper  
337 layer and the more saline bottom layer. This limits ventilation, leading to oxygen deficiency in the bottom  
338 layer. For instance in autumn 2016, some 70 000 km<sup>2</sup> of the seabed experienced permanent hypoxia.  
339 Irregular Major Baltic Inflows (MBIs; Matthäus and Franck, 1992; Mohrholz, 2018) are the main  
340 mechanism transporting oxygen-rich waters from the North Sea to Baltic Sea deeps. The associated salt  
341 transport in turn intensifies vertical stratification and eventually enlarges hypoxic area (Conley et al.,  
342 2002).
- 343 ● In the small, semi-enclosed Baltic Sea, almost any winds are likely to blow parallel to some section of  
344 the coast and thus cause coastal upwelling. At the Swedish south-western coast, upwelling occurs 25-40  
345 % of time (Lehmann et al., 2012). At times, about one third of the entire Baltic Sea may be under the  
346 influence of upwelling.
- 347 ● Among European seas, ice is a unique feature of the Baltic Sea that strongly limits air-sea interaction and  
348 modifies the Baltic Sea ecosystem in many ways.

349

350 The salinity in the Baltic Sea is not only an oceanographic variable as in other more ventilated seas, but also  
351 integrates the complete water and energy cycles, with their specific Baltic Sea features. Baltic Sea salinity, and  
352 especially its low basic value and the large variations, is also an elementary factor controlling the marine  
353 ecosystem. The salinity dynamics is governed by several factors: net precipitation, river runoff, surface outflow of  
354 brackish Baltic Sea water and the compensating deep inflow of higher salinity water from the Kattegat. The latter  
355 is strongly controlled by the prevailing atmospheric forcing conditions. Due to freshwater supply from the Baltic  
356 Sea catchment area and due to the limited water exchange with the World Ocean, surface salinity varies from > 20  
357 g kg<sup>-1</sup> in Kattegat to < 2 g kg<sup>-1</sup> in the Bothnian Bay and is close to zero at the mouth of the River Neva, in the  
358 easternmost end of the Gulf of Finland. In the vertical direction, the dynamics of the Baltic Sea is characterized  
359 by a permanent, two-layer system because of a pronounced, perennial vertical gradient in salinity. In summer, a  
360 shallow thermocline is also formed, complicating the vertical structure.

### 361 **1.5 Global climate change**

362 In the following, a brief overview is given of the latest global climate assessments, based on the IPCC Fifth  
363 Assessment Report (AR5; IPCC, 2014b) and results so far available from the current Coupled Model  
364 Intercomparison Project (CMIP) phase 6 (Eyring et al., 2016). The focus is on large-scale changes in climate that  
365 are of particular relevance for the Baltic Sea region (mainly North Atlantic, Arctic). Furthermore, whenever  
366 feasible, changes are described in terms of pattern scaling which relies on the fact that for many quantities the  
367 geographical change patterns are sufficiently consistent across models and scenarios to emerge from the



368 background noise (IPCC, 2014a). Hence, changes in e.g. local temperatures can be scaled to changes per °C of  
369 global mean temperature change relative to 1981-2005 (Christensen et al., 2019).

370

371 Our future climate change assessment relies on the concentration driven scenarios RCP2.6, RCP4.5 and RCP8.5  
372 from the CMIP5 suite (RCP = Representative Concentration Pathway), corresponding to changes in radiative  
373 forcing for the 21st century. Hence, policy targeted goals inspired by the United Nations Framework Convention  
374 on Climate Change (UNFCCC; United Nations Climate Change, 2015) to limit global mean warming below 2.0  
375 or 1.5°C compared to preindustrial level, i.e. prior to the 20<sup>th</sup> century (the Paris Agreement, PA), are not considered  
376 in many scenario simulations but referred to studies within the Euro-CORDEX framework (Kjellström et al., 2018;  
377 Teichmann et al., 2018; Jacob et al., 2018) and for a broader region. In order to achieve the goal of a significant  
378 reduction of the risks and impacts of climate change, the Paris Agreement commits the participating countries to  
379 aim “to reach global peaking of greenhouse gas emissions as soon as possible” and “to undertake rapid reductions  
380 thereafter in accordance with best available science, so as to achieve a balance between anthropogenic emissions  
381 by sources and removals by sinks of greenhouse gases in the second half of this century”. Furthermore, the  
382 countries “should take action to conserve and enhance, as appropriate, sinks and reservoirs of greenhouse gases  
383 [...], including forests”.

384

385 RCP8.5 is a totally unmitigated scenario and assumes a radiative forcing of +8.3 W m<sup>-2</sup> in year 2100, as compared  
386 to the preindustrial period. Assumptions for RCP8.5 are described in Riahi et al. (2011). RCP8.5 has been criticized  
387 because it assumes continued use of coal for energy production translating into too high greenhouse gas emissions.  
388 Moderate mitigation actions are reflected by RCP4.5 (Thomson et al., 2011), and RCP2.6 was developed for  
389 effective mitigation scenarios aiming at limiting global mean warming to ~+2°C (van Vuuren et al., 2011). With  
390 respect to global development, RCP2.6 and RCP8.5 might be unrealistic (Hausfather and Peters, 2020). However,  
391 both scenarios can be used as envelopes of plausible pathways of future greenhouse gas emissions.

392

393 Confidence levels expressing evidence and agreement are provided following the definitions of the IPCC (see  
394 Method Section 2.3).

## 395 **1.5.1 Atmosphere**

### 396 **1.5.1.1 Surface air temperature**

397 For the three considered scenarios, the IPCC AR5 (IPCC, 2014a; 2014b; Collins et al., 2013) reported a likely  
398 increase in global mean air temperature for the period 2081-2100 relative to 1986-2005 in the likely range (5<sup>th</sup> to  
399 95<sup>th</sup> percentile of CMIP5 models) between 0.3 to 1.7°C (RCP2.6), 1.1 to 2.6°C (RCP4.5), and 2.6 to 4.8°C  
400 (RCP8.5). The corresponding mean changes are 1.0°C (RCP2.6), 1.8°C (RCP4.5) and 3.7°C (RCP8.5; IPCC,  
401 2014b).

402

403 The large-scale geographical patterns of change remain stable among CMIP5 models and are consistent with the  
404 results of the IPCC AR4. The dominant feature is a strong warming of the Arctic north of 67.5 °N that exceeds  
405 global mean warming by a factor 2.2 to 2.4. The Arctic warming is strongest for the winter season, when sea ice  
406 retreat and reduced snow cover provide positive feedbacks (Arctic amplification), and weakest in summer, when  
407 melting sea ice consumes latent heat and the ice free ocean absorbs heat (IPCC, 2014b). Besides these



408 thermodynamic processes, the lateral transport of latent heat into the Arctic increases under global warming.  
409 Weakest warming is found over the Southern Ocean and in the North Atlantic south of Greenland with minimum  
410 values per degree global warming of about  $0.25^{\circ}\text{C }^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$  (Fig. 12.10 in IPCC, 2014b). This is partly due to a deeper  
411 ocean mixed layer that promotes vigorous oceanic heat uptake in these regions compared to others. Generally,  
412 land masses warm at a rate 1.4 to 1.7 times more than open ocean regions, leading to a pronounced land-sea pattern  
413 in the temperature anomaly and indicating to a lower effective heat capacity of continents compared to the ocean.

#### 414 1.5.1.2 Precipitation

415 Projected global precipitation changes scale nearly linear with global mean temperature changes and range from  
416  $+0.05 \text{ mm d}^{-1}$  or  $\sim 2\%$  (RCP2.6) to  $0.15 \text{ mm d}^{-1}$  or  $\sim 5\%$  (RCP8.5; IPCC, 2014a). As a result of an accelerated  
417 global water cycle, the contrast between dry and wet regions in annual mean precipitation increases. Likewise,  
418 there is high confidence that the contrast between wet and dry seasons will become more pronounced (IPCC,  
419 2014a). In the mid to high latitudes, yearly mean precipitation generally increases, with the strongest response  
420 over the Arctic, exceeding almost everywhere  $+12\% ^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$ .

421

422 Precipitation changes vary greatly among models. Under RCP8.5, high latitude land masses will likely get more  
423 precipitation, due to higher moisture content of the lower atmosphere and an increased moisture transport from the  
424 tropics (IPCC, 2014a). In the northern hemisphere the poleward branch of the Hadley Cell will expand further  
425 north, causing a northward expansion of the subtropical dry zone and reducing precipitation in affected regions.  
426 Further dynamical changes probably include a poleward shift of mid-latitude storm tracks (Seager et al., 2010;  
427 Scheff and Frierson, 2012) which is, however, of low confidence, especially for the North Atlantic region (IPCC,  
428 2014a).

#### 429 1.5.2 Cryosphere

430 The IPCC AR5 postulates a reduction of average February Arctic sea ice extent ranging from 8% for RCP2.6 to  
431 34% for RCP8.5. For the monthly mean summer minimum in September, reductions range from 43% for RCP2.6  
432 to 94% for RCP8.5. These values are given medium confidence, because of biases in the simulation of present day  
433 trends and a large spread across models. For September, ice free conditions are reached before 2090 in 90 % of all  
434 CMIP5 models.

435

436 The permafrost area is projected to decrease in a likely range from  $24 \pm 16\%$  for RCP2.6 to  $69 \pm 20\%$  for RCP8.5.

437

438 Arctic autumn and spring snow cover are projected to decrease by 5–10%, under RCP2.6, and 20–35% under  
439 RCP8.5 (high confidence). In high mountain areas, projected decreases in mean winter snow depth are in a likely  
440 range of 10–40 % for RCP2.6 and 50–90% for RCP8.5. The likely range of projected inland glacier mass  
441 reductions (ice sheets excluded) between 2015 and 2100 varies from  $18 \pm 7\%$  for RCP2.6 to  $36 \pm 11\%$  for RCP8.5.  
442 Regions with mostly smaller glaciers (e.g. Central Europe, Scandinavia) are projected to lose over 80% of their  
443 current ice mass by 2100 under RCP8.5 (medium confidence), with many glaciers disappearing regardless of future  
444 emissions (very high confidence).



445 **1.5.3 Ocean**

446 **1.5.3.1 Sea level**

447 For 2081-2100, global mean sea level (GMSL) is projected to rise between 0.40 m under RCP2.6 (likely range  
448 0.26-0.55m) and 0.63 m under RCP8.5 (likely range 0.45-0.82 m) relative to 1986-2005 (IPCC, 2014a; their  
449 Chapter 13, Table 13.5). In all scenarios, thermal expansion gives the largest contribution to GMSL rise,  
450 accounting for about 30 to 55% of the projections. Glaciers are the next largest contributor, accounting for about  
451 15-35%. By 2100, the Greenland Ice Sheet's projected contribution to GMSL rise is 0.07 m (likely range 0.04–  
452 0.12 m) under RCP2.6, and 0.15 m (likely range 0.08–0.27 m) under RCP8.5. The Antarctic Ice Sheet is projected  
453 to contribute 0.04 m (likely range 0.01–0.11 m) under RCP2.6, and 0.12 m (likely range 0.03–0.28 m) under  
454 RCP8.5. Uncertainties concerning the melting of ice sheets are, however, intensively discussed (Bamber et al.,  
455 2019).

456

457 Based on the same suite of model projections from CMIP5, the IPCC Special Report on the Ocean and Cryosphere  
458 in a Changing Climate (IPCC, 2019a) has updated these numbers by including new estimates of the contribution  
459 from Antarctica, for which new ice-sheet modelling results were available (Oppenheimer et al., 2019). While the  
460 differences in projected changes until 2100 are small for RCP2.6, projected changes for RCP8.5 increased by about  
461 10 cm compared to AR5 (see Section 3.3.5.4).

462 **1.5.3.2 Water temperature and salinity**

463 By the end of the century, the projected global ocean warming ranges from about 1°C (RCP2.6) to more than 3°C  
464 (RCP8.5) at the surface and from 0.5°C (RCP2.6) to 1.5°C (RCP8.5) at a depth of 1km. The subtropical waters of  
465 the Southern Ocean and the North Atlantic are projected to become saltier, whereas almost all other regions  
466 become fresher, in particular the northern North Atlantic (IPCC, 2014a). The freshening at high latitudes in the  
467 North Atlantic and Arctic basin is consistent with a weaker Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC),  
468 and a decline in the volume of sea ice, as well as with the intensified water cycles (IPCC, 2019a).

469

470 By the end of the century, the annual mean stratification of the top 200 m (averaged between 60°S–60°N, relative  
471 to 1986–2005) is projected to increase in the very likely range of 1–9% for RCP2.6 and 12–30% for RCP8.5  
472 (IPCC, 2019a).

473 **1.5.3.3 Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation**

474 Based on the CMIP5 models, the AMOC is estimated to be reduced by 11% (1 to 24%) under RCP2.6 and 34%  
475 (12 to 54%) under RCP8.5. There is low confidence in the projected evolution of the AMOC beyond the 21st  
476 century (IPCC, 2014a).

477 **1.5.4 Marine biosphere**

478 By 2081-2100, net primary productivity relative to 2006-2015 will very likely decline by 4–11% for RCP8.5, due  
479 to the combined effects of warming, stratification, light, nutrients and predation, with regional variations between  
480 low and high latitudes (IPCC, 2019a).

481



482 Globally, and relative to 2006–2015, the oxygen content of the ocean by 2081–2100 is very likely to decline by  
483 1.6–2.0% for the RCP2.6 scenario, or by 3.2–3.7% for the RCP8.5 scenario (IPCC, 2019a). While warming is the  
484 primary driver of deoxygenation in the open ocean, eutrophication is projected to increase in estuaries due to  
485 human activities and due to intensified precipitation, which increase riverine nitrogen loads under both RCP2.6  
486 and RCP8.5 scenarios, both by mid-century (2031–2060) and later (2071–2100; Sinha et al., 2017). Moreover,  
487 stronger stratification in estuaries due to warming is expected to increase the risk of hypoxia by reducing vertical  
488 mixing (IPCC, 2019a; Hallett et al., 2018; Warwick et al., 2018; Du et al., 2018).

#### 489 **1.5.5 Coupled Model Intercomparison Project**

490 Future climate change assessments like the coming IPCC sixth Assessment Report AR6 (due 2021/2022), will rely  
491 on a new generation of Earth System Models (ESMs), developed during CMIP6, which offers a wider range of  
492 scenarios than during CMIP5. In particular, scenarios aiming to limit global warming to 1.5°C and 2.0°C and  
493 overshoot scenarios including negative emissions in the second part of the century will be available.

494

495 A subset of current CMIP6 models have been shown to be more sensitive to greenhouse gases than previous  
496 generations of CMIP models. Thus, the estimated response to an instantaneous doubling of CO<sub>2</sub> (equilibrium  
497 climate sensitivity, ECS) is higher in CMIP6 models (1.8 – 5.6°C) than in CMIP5 models (1.5 – 4.5°C) and their  
498 predecessors (Meehl et al., 2020). Indeed, the first transient simulations with the CMIP6 EC-Earth ESM found  
499 stronger warming than with earlier versions, with about half of the increase attributed to differences between  
500 CMIP5 and CMIP6 greenhouse gas forcing (Wyser et al., 2020).

501

502 However, it turns out that models with the highest projected warmings fail to capture past warming trends well,  
503 and therefore recent studies argue that those models should not be used for climate assessments and policy  
504 decisions (Forster et al., 2020; Nijssen et al., 2019; Tokarska et al., 2020; Brunner et al., 2020). Furthermore,  
505 systematic errors in many CMIP5 and CMIP6 models prevent the simulation of the observed 1951–2014 summer  
506 warming trend in Western Europe, and that neither higher resolution nor better representation of the sea surface is  
507 likely to improve this (Boé et al., 2020).

## 508 **2 Methods**

### 509 **2.1 Assessment of literature**

510 33 variables representing the components of the Earth system (atmosphere, land, terrestrial biosphere, cryosphere,  
511 ocean and sediment, marine biosphere) of the Baltic Sea region were selected (Table 1) and with respect to past,  
512 present and future climate changes corresponding scientific peer-reviewed publications and reports of scientific  
513 institutes since 2013 were assessed by 48 experts (see the section about author contributions). The year 2013 was  
514 chosen as a starting point because earlier material was included in the last assessment by the BACC II Author  
515 Team (2015). Information about climate change available in the BEARs (Section 2.1) was summarized and cross-  
516 references can be found in Table 1.

517

518 For the selected 33 variables and even more general, knowledge gaps (Section 6) and key messages (Section 7) as  
519 well as overall conclusions (Section 8) were formulated. Key messages, new compared to the results of the BACC



520 II Author Team (2015), were marked. The identified changes of the selected variables of the Earth system and  
521 their uncertainties, following the definitions of the IPCC reports as outlined in Section 2.3, are summarized in  
522 Table 10. The attribution of a changing variable to climate change, here the deterministic response to changes in  
523 external anthropogenic forcing such as greenhouse gas and aerosol emissions, is illustrated by Figure 34. This  
524 study does not claim to be complete, neither with regard to the importance of the limited selection of variables for  
525 the Earth system nor with regard to the discussed and assessed publications.

526

527 The assessment was done without influence from any political, economic or ideological group or party. The results  
528 of the BEARs including this summary about climate change impacts in the Baltic Sea region were used by the  
529 joint HELCOM-Baltic Earth Expert Network of Climate Change (EN CLIME) for the compilation of a Climate  
530 Change Fact Sheet for the Baltic Sea region.

531

532 For further details about the assessment methods, the reader is referred to the BACC Author Team (2008) and the  
533 BACC II Author Team (2015).

## 534 **2.2 Proxy data, instrumental measurements and climate model data**

535 In addition to selected figures that are reproduced from the literature, for the assessment previously published  
536 datasets were analyzed and discussed.

### 537 **2.2.1 Past climate**

538 For the Holocene climate evolution, paleo-pollen data with a decadal resolution, reconstructing seasonal  
539 temperature and precipitation changes compared to preindustrial climate (Mauri et al., 2015), were analyzed (Fig.  
540 3). More accurate tree-ring data, resolving annual summer mean temperatures, are available for the past  
541 millennium (Luterbacher et al., 2016) and have been discussed here (Fig. 4). For further details, the reader is  
542 referred to Section 3.1.2.

### 543 **2.2.2 Present climate**

544 Historical station data of sea level pressure and sea surface temperature (SST) were used to calculate climate  
545 indices such as the NAO (sea level pressure differences, Fig. 5) and the AMO (SST anomalies, Fig. 6), describing  
546 decadal to multidecadal variability of the large-scale atmosphere circulation. Furthermore, selected records of  
547 variables such as air temperature (Fig. 8), river runoff (Fig. 10), land nutrient inputs (Fig. 11, Table 5), glacier  
548 masses (Fig. 12, Table 6), maximum sea ice extent (Fig. 14), ice thickness data (Figs. 15 and 16), length of the ice  
549 season (Fig. 17), sea level (Fig. 24) and gridded data sets of air temperature, e.g. the land-based CRUTEM4 data  
550 (Jones et al., 2012; Fig. 7, Table 5), and of precipitation, e.g. Copernicus data (Fig. 9), were analyzed.

551

552 For the Baltic Sea, intensive environmental monitoring started more than 100 years ago. Since 1898 an agreement  
553 between various Baltic Sea countries on simultaneous investigations on a regular basis at a few selected deep  
554 stations was signed and 1902 the International Council of the Exploration of the Sea (ICES) started its work.  
555 Examples from the national monitoring programs for water temperature (Figs. 18, 19, 20) and salinity (Figs. 21  
556 and 22) are shown, illustrating climate variability and climate change of the Baltic Sea.

557



558 In addition, some institutes such as the Swedish Meteorological and Hydrological Institute (SMHI) provide  
559 environmental/climate indices, e.g. averaged sea level station data corrected for land uplift (Fig. 23) and hypoxic  
560 and anoxic areas (Fig. 25).

561

562 Since 1979 satellite data have become available, complementing traditional Earth observing systems and having  
563 the advantage of spatially high resolution (e.g. Karlsson and Devasthale, 2018).

564

565 Atmospheric reanalysis products, i.e. the combination of model data and observations (e.g. NCEP/NCAR, ERA40,  
566 ERA-Interim, ERA5, UERRA), were important for calculating water and energy budgets of the Baltic Sea region  
567 (BACC Author Team, 2008; BACC II Author Team, 2015). More recently, also ocean reanalysis products have  
568 been developed (e.g. Liu et al., 2017; Axell et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2019) and were, for instance, used for the  
569 evaluation of models (e.g. Placke et al., 2018).

570

571 Furthermore, various gridded datasets for North Sea SSTs exist and were compared (Fig. 33).

572

573 All data sets presented here are publicly online available. For further details on various datasets, the reader is  
574 referred to Rutgersson et al. (2021).

### 575 **2.2.3 Future climate**

576 For the BEARs, regionalizations of Global Climate Models (GCMs) or ESMs from CMIP3 and CMIP5 analyzed  
577 by (IPCC, 2014b) and (IPCC, 2019b) are assessed. The scenario simulations of CMIP5 are driven by greenhouse  
578 gas concentration scenarios, the Representative Concentration Pathways, RCP2.6, 4.5 and 8.5 (see Section 1.5).

579

580 Uncoupled atmospheric regional climate simulations for the 21<sup>st</sup> century from the Euro-CORDEX framework,  
581 calculated with several Regional Climate Models (RCMs) and global ESMs were analyzed by Christensen et al.  
582 (2021) and conclusions are summarized here.

583

584 Furthermore, coupled atmosphere – sea ice – ocean simulations for the Baltic Sea and North Sea regions with one,  
585 so-called Regional Climate System Model (RCSM, Dieterich et al., 2013; Bülow et al., 2014; Dieterich et al.,  
586 2019; Wang et al., 2015; Gröger et al., 2015; Gröger et al., 2019; Gröger et al., 2021b) driven by eight ESMs and  
587 three greenhouse gas concentration scenarios, i.e. RCP2.6, 4.5 and 8.5, were compared by (Christensen et al.,  
588 2021). In this study, we present figures of these consistent results from the coupled atmosphere-ice-ocean scenario  
589 simulations, e.g. for air temperature and precipitation (Fig. 26, Tables 7 and 8), and for sea surface temperature  
590 (Fig. 29, Table 9). The state-of-the-art of coupled modeling is discussed by Gröger et al. (2021a). For further  
591 details about the comparison between coupled and uncoupled scenario simulations, the reader is referred to  
592 Christensen et al. (2021).

593

594 Novel compared to the assessment by the BACC II Author Team (2015) are high-resolution projections of glacier  
595 masses including Scandinavian glaciers (Hock et al., 2019). In Figure 27 results are reproduced.

596



597 Oceanographic regional climate model projections for the Baltic Sea until 2100 driven by the atmospheric surface  
598 fields of the above mentioned RCM by Dieterich et al. (2019) have been developed and analyzed by Saraiva et  
599 al. (2019a; 2019b) and Meier et al. (2021a; 2021b). In Meier et al. (2021b), global sea level rise was also  
600 considered, a driver of the Baltic Sea climate variability that were previously neglected (cf. Hordoir et al., 2015;  
601 Arneborg, 2016; Meier et al., 2017). Here, we compare the latest scenario simulation results by Saraiva et al.  
602 (2019b) with previous projections by Meier et al. (2011a; 2011c) for, e.g. SST, sea surface and bottom salinities,  
603 sea level (Fig. 30), bottom oxygen concentration (Fig. 31), and Secchi depth (Fig. 32),  
604

605 For further details about the latest oceanographic regional climate model projections for the Baltic Sea, the reader  
606 is referred to Meier et al. (2021a).

### 607 **2.3 Uncertainty estimates**

608 Uncertainties of future projections were estimated following the IPCC (2014a) guidance note for lead authors of  
609 the Fifth Assessment Report on consistent treatment of uncertainties (Mastrandrea et al., 2010). These uncertainty  
610 estimates are based upon a matrix of consensus and evidence reported in the literature. For the high confidence of  
611 a statement, high levels of both consensus and cases of evidence are required.

612  
613 In this assessment, we applied a three-level confidence scale measuring low, medium and high confidence of  
614 identified climate changes (as defined in Section 2.1) of the selected 33 Earth system variables according to current  
615 knowledge (Table 10). We assessed the sign of a change but not its magnitude. Only detected or projected changes  
616 undoubtedly attributed to climate change were considered and synthesized in Figure 34. Changes likely not caused  
617 by increasing greenhouse gas concentrations or changing aerosol emissions were not considered. Other external  
618 drivers of climate variability are internal “random” variations of the climate system, land use, eutrophication,  
619 contaminants, litter, river regulations, fishery, aquaculture, underwater noise, traffic, spatial planning, etc. (see  
620 Reckermann et al., 2021).

621  
622 Key messages of this assessment that are new compared to the previous assessment by the BACC II Author Team  
623 (2015) are specially marked (Section 7).

## 624 **3 Current state of knowledge**

### 625 **3.1 Past climate change**

#### 626 **3.1.1 Key messages from previous assessments**

627 Climate variations may be triggered by changes in drivers external to the climate system or may be due to internal  
628 processes that reflect the non-linear, chaotic interactions between the different components of the climate system.  
629 The analysis of past climate variations is, therefore, useful for two purposes. One is to estimate the reaction of the  
630 climate to changes in the external forcing. The second is to better understand the mechanisms of internal climate  
631 variations. Since future climate change will include a mixture of both types of climate variations, the analysis of  
632 past climate variations is also necessary for better estimations of future climate change.

633





634 The past climate of the Baltic Sea region can be reconstructed from paleo-pollen and dendroclimatological records,  
635 with different time resolutions and degrees of accuracy. Paleo-pollen in lake sediments give information about the  
636 dominant plant species of a certain period. Combining the environmental ranges of those species in terms of annual  
637 maximum temperatures, minimum temperatures and total annual precipitation allows an approximate  
638 reconstruction of past climate conditions over the past millennia, with time resolutions of a few decades (e.g. Kühl  
639 et al., 2002). Dendroclimatological data of tree ring widths, wood density and sometimes also carbon and oxygen  
640 isotopic composition in tree-rings can be dated as exactly as at annual scales.

641

642 As described by the BACC II Author Team (2015), the climate history of the Baltic Sea region during the  
643 Holocene, i.e. the last 12000 years, involved very large climate changes, much larger than those during the 20<sup>th</sup>  
644 century. These climate changes were caused by strong changes in external forcing factors, in particular the Earth's  
645 orbit. These changes first brought about a warming that terminated the Last Ice Age about 13000 years BP, then  
646 caused a period of very warm temperatures (~ 3°C above preindustrial levels) centered around 6000 years BP (the  
647 Holocene Thermal Maximum), followed by a slow temperature decline towards preindustrial levels. During this  
648 long period, other shorter-lived climate events, with durations of a few centuries, caused abrupt drops of  
649 temperature. These events, e.g. the Younger Dryas (12000 years BP) or the 8.2K event (8200 years BP) were  
650 possibly related to abrupt changes in the North Atlantic circulation, when sudden melting of portions of the  
651 remnants of the North American ice-sheet disturbed the circulation of the North Atlantic Ocean and disrupted the  
652 poleward heat transport.

653

654 In general, annual precipitation is believed to have changed with the slow multicentennial-scale changes in  
655 temperature. Warmer periods, in particular the Mid-Holocene Optimum, tended to be wetter, although the regional  
656 heterogeneity may have been larger than for temperature.

657

658 Following the end of the last glaciation, the coastlines of the Baltic Sea underwent changes due to the interplay  
659 between the rising global sea-level and the local rebound of the Earth's crust after the disappearance of the  
660 Fennoscandian ice sheet. The weight of this ice sheet depressed Fennoscandia by about 500 meters, and its slow,  
661 viscous rebound continues today, with a rate of about 10 mm year<sup>-1</sup> at the northern Baltic Sea coast. Due to this  
662 interplay, the Baltic Sea experienced periods of open or closed connections to the North Sea that governed the  
663 transport of salinity and heat and the nature of the Baltic Sea ecosystems (Groß et al., 2018).

664

665 The climate evolution during more recent historical times – the past 1000 years (Section 3.1.3) - can be  
666 reconstructed with better accuracy and higher time resolution due to better dendrochronological data availability.  
667 These data show the imprint of the Medieval Warm Period (approx. 900-1350 AD), the Little Ice Age  
668 (approx. 1550-1850 AD) and the Contemporary Warm Period (1850-present) on the Baltic Sea region. These  
669 periods were likely caused by changes in the external forcing (volcanic eruptions and solar radiation), and during  
670 the Contemporary Warm Period also by the increase in anthropogenic greenhouse gases (Hegerl et al., 2003).

671

672 In the Baltic Sea, this succession of warm-cold-warm temperatures was accompanied by changes in the deep water  
673 oxygen content, with low oxygen conditions in warmer periods (next section). The reasons for these oxygen



674 variations are still not fully understood, but may be relevant for the future, should future warming also cause lower  
675 oxygen concentrations.

### 676 **3.1.2 New paleoclimate reconstructions**

677 Since the publication of the BACC II report (BACC II Author Team, 2015), new reconstructions of the evolution  
678 of the European climate over the Holocene and over the past millennium have become available. Like previous  
679 reconstructions, the new ones are based on paleo-pollen data and now comprise summer and winter temperatures  
680 and summer and winter precipitation. They are available for 1000-year time segments (Mauri et al., 2015). The  
681 reconstructions of the late-spring-summer temperature evolution over the past millennium are based on  
682 dendroclimatological data, as the previous reconstructions, but they are now based on wood density measurements,  
683 which reflect the slow climate variations better than tree-ring width. These reconstructions are available for  
684 Western Europe from 755 AD onwards (Luterbacher et al., 2016). In this study, only the results for a regular  
685 geographical box approximately covering the Baltic Sea region are discussed.

686

687 In addition, new regional climate simulations since the publication of the BACC II report better demonstrate the  
688 connections between the Baltic Sea and North Atlantic climates on multidecadal timescales (Börgel et al., 2018;  
689 Börgel et al., 2020; Kniebusch et al., 2019a).

### 690 **3.1.3 Holocene climate evolution**

691 The picture of the Holocene climate evolution from the BACC II report (BACC II Author Team, 2015) is  
692 essentially confirmed, but the regional details are now clearer (Mauri et al., 2015). Between 7000 and 5000 years  
693 BP, the Baltic Sea region (especially the western Baltic Sea) experienced a period with summer temperatures about  
694 2.5-3°C warmer than in the preindustrial reference period (before the 20<sup>th</sup> century). However, according to these  
695 reconstructions, the Eastern Baltic Sea region (Finland and the Baltic Republics) did not experience a Mid-  
696 Holocene Optimum in summer, when temperatures were similar to the preindustrial period. In contrast, winter  
697 temperatures showed a clear Mid-Holocene Optimum over the whole Baltic Sea region, lasting about 8000-4000  
698 BP, with winter temperatures roughly 3°C warmer than during the preindustrial period. In the eastern Baltic Sea,  
699 winter temperatures were even slightly higher, especially between 6000-5000 BP. As a result, annual mean  
700 temperatures during the millennia of the Mid-Holocene optimum, were generally warmer than in the preindustrial  
701 period. This warming was limited to the winter in the eastern Baltic Sea, where the amplitude of the annual  
702 temperature cycle was clearly lower than in the preindustrial period.

703

704 The warm temperatures in the Baltic Sea region during the Mid-Holocene-Optimum, are not surprising, and  
705 basically agree with the previous review (BACC II Author Team, 2015). They also agree with evidence from  
706 regions further north, indicating that the Arctic Ocean in summer may have been ice-free during this period  
707 (Jakobsson et al., 2010). These findings do not contradict the anthropogenic effect on climate observed during  
708 recent decades. During the Mid-Holocene Optimum, the orbital configuration of the Earth was different and  
709 favored warmer temperatures at northern high latitudes, especially in summer, as explained later. For the analysis  
710 of climate impacts on ecosystems it is relevant that high latitudes were exposed to warm temperatures and reduced  
711 sea-ice cover just a few millennia ago. However, at that time temperature changed at a much slower pace – around  
712 2-3°C over several millennia – compared to present and projected rates of about 2°C in just a few decades.



713

714 For precipitation, the new reconstructions give a regionally more nuanced view of climate evolution during the  
715 Holocene. The BACC II report (BACC II Author Team, 2015) indicated that warmer climates were generally more  
716 humid. The new reconstructions (Mauri et al., 2015) modulate this vision and constrain the wetter conditions to  
717 the eastern Baltic Sea region, both in summer and winter seasons, with a stronger signal in winter. Precipitation  
718 anomalies in the eastern Baltic Sea region were of the order of + 1-2 mm month<sup>-1</sup> relative to preindustrial climate.  
719 In the western Baltic Sea region, the Mid-Holocene Optimum tended to be slightly drier than the preindustrial  
720 reference period both in summer and winter, with precipitation deficits of the order of 1-2 mm month<sup>-1</sup>.

721

722 The main external forcing that drove the millennial climate evolution over the Holocene Period is the changing  
723 orbital configuration of the Earth (the so-called Milanković cycles), as explained in the BACC-II report (BACC II  
724 Author Team, 2015), and especially the variation in the time of the year of the perihelion (when Earth is nearest  
725 to the sun). The perihelion is now at the beginning of January, but ~10000 BP it was in July. This changes the  
726 seasonal distribution of solar insolation and determines the rate of melting of winter snow and its possible survival  
727 into the next winter. The solar insolation at 60°N at the top of the atmosphere during the Holocene, derived from  
728 Laskar et al. (2004) is depicted in Figure 3. The shift of the perihelion from summer to winter diminishes summer  
729 insolation - and in principle summer temperature - and increases winter insolation during the past few millennia.  
730 The long-term evolution of temperatures would, however, not be a linear response to the long-term evolution of  
731 the seasonal insolation. For instance, the presence or absence of ice-sheets may influence the timing of the response  
732 to increasing insolation during the early Holocene, delaying the Holocene temperature maximum with respect to  
733 the annual insolation maximum. In wintertime, the insolation is rather weak, so that its effect may be overwhelmed  
734 by other factors, such as changes in the large-scale atmospheric and oceanic heat transports.

735

736 For the last IPCC report, the mid-Holocene climate was simulated with 14 global Earth System models within  
737 CMIP (Schmidt et al., 2011). These models were essentially the same as those used for future climate projections,  
738 although in some cases with a few simplifications required by limitations in computer power and by the long  
739 timescales involved. These models were driven by known external forcings, including the orbital forcing. The  
740 common evaluation of these simulations with reconstructions helps to interpret the reconstructions and sheds light  
741 on model limitations. An important aspect in this comparison was that the spatial resolution of global models was  
742 relatively coarse, about 2 x 2 degrees longitude x latitude, so that smaller details within the Baltic Sea region  
743 cannot be properly represented.

744

745 The simulations showed some agreements with the reconstructions, but also clear, not yet resolved disagreements  
746 (Mauri et al., 2014). In summer, all models showed temperatures 2-3°C warmer during the Mid-Holocene  
747 Optimum than in the preindustrial climate (Fig. 3). However, no model showed the gradient with clearer warming  
748 in the western Baltic Sea, seen in the reconstructions. For wintertime, the disagreement was much clearer. Whereas  
749 reconstructions show a clear warming over the whole region, the 14 models displayed widely varying patterns of  
750 temperature change. Only three models agreed with the reconstructions. For precipitation, the models disagreed  
751 with the west (wet) – east (dry) dipole shown by the reconstructions for summer and winter precipitation (Fig. 3).  
752 Not a single simulation showed this pattern of summer precipitation change, and in general the simulated  
753 precipitation deviations were much smaller than in the reconstructions. This disagreement regarding temperature



754 (especially in winter) and precipitation, known as the mid-Holocene conundrum, is not unique for the Baltic Sea  
755 region, but was also found for the Mediterranean (Mauri et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2014). Errors in the applied external  
756 (orbital) forcing can be ruled out, as this forcing can be accurately calculated during this period. The reasons for  
757 the disagreement are still unknown. They may involve the influence of chaotic internal climate variations (unlikely  
758 over such long time scales), model deficiencies, or reconstruction uncertainties.

### 759 3.1.4 The past millennium

760 For shorter periods closer to the present, like the past one or two millennia, the data available for reconstructing  
761 past climate are denser and more accurate. Abundant dendroclimatological information is available, dated to the  
762 exact year, in contrast to the uncertain decadal-scale dating of paleo-pollen data. Recently, temperature  
763 reconstructions for Western Europe, spatially resolved and approximately covering the last 1200 years, have  
764 become available (Luterbacher et al., 2016) and are presented here in some detail for the Baltic Sea region. These  
765 data are based on analysis of wood density in tree rings. Wood density is more sensitive to growing season  
766 temperature than tree-ring width. In addition, tree-ring width variations usually contain too weak multidecadal  
767 scale variations, even when the year-to-year variations in temperature may be well captured. This makes wood  
768 density a better proxy for temperature reconstructions at these latitudes.

769  
770 Figure 4 shows the reconstructed growing-season temperature (spring-early summer) for the period 755-2000 AD,  
771 averaged over the Baltic Sea region, based on the European reconstructions by Luterbacher et al. (2016). The  
772 reconstructed temperature displays warmer conditions around 950 AD, confirmed also by the previous pollen-  
773 based reconstructions (Mauri et al., 2015), colder conditions between 1200 and 1850 AD, followed by the recent  
774 warming. This temperature evolution confirms that presented by the BACC II Author Team (2015). The relative  
775 temperature difference between the Medieval Warm Period and the Contemporary Warm Period (mid 20<sup>th</sup> century)  
776 agree within their respective uncertainties. According to these reconstructions, the Little Ice Age was on average  
777 about 0.8 °C colder than the 20<sup>th</sup> century.

778  
779 There is no new analysis of the causes of this temperature evolution specific for the Baltic Sea region. For Europe  
780 as a whole, for which the reconstructions display a similar temporal pattern, the main identified forcings were  
781 volcanic activity - more intense during the Little Ice Age and weaker during the Medieval Warm Period - and solar  
782 activity, with roughly the reverse temporal signal (Luterbacher et al., 2016). With industrialization, greenhouse  
783 gases have become dominant.

784  
785 The CMIP5 project also included simulations of the past millennium with Earth System Models, although with  
786 fewer models than for the mid-Holocene. These simulations have been compared with the temperature  
787 reconstructions for Europe, in general yielding agreement. However, for the Baltic Sea region, the simulated  
788 temperature changes tend to be smaller, especially for the transition between the Medieval Warm Period and the  
789 Little Ice Age, with a modelled temperature difference of only ~0.2°C (compare with Figure 4 by Luterbacher et  
790 al., 2016).

791  
792 Climate fluctuations are driven not only by the external forcings but also by chaotic internal dynamics of the Earth  
793 system. Regional climate simulations indicate that North Atlantic temperature variability influences Baltic Sea



794 temperatures (Kniebusch et al., 2019a) and precipitation (Börgel et al., 2018). North Atlantic temperatures tend to  
795 fluctuate internally at multidecadal timescales, the AMO, and influences the atmospheric circulation of the Baltic  
796 Sea region. Further, the interaction between internal modes of climate variability has recently been identified as a  
797 key driver for the state of the Baltic Sea. Internal fluctuations in the North Atlantic are likely to influence the  
798 spatial position of the NAO, affecting the regional importance of this climate mode for the Baltic Sea (Börgel et  
799 al., 2020).

800

801 Climate simulations also indicate an impact of internally driven climate variability on the frequency of wind  
802 extremes. In the present climate, the wintertime wind regime in the Baltic Sea is linked to the NAO, but at the  
803 longer time scales of the preindustrial period, variations in wind extremes appear related neither to the mean wind  
804 conditions nor to the external climate forcings (Bierstedt et al., 2015). In the recent centuries, the main driver of  
805 trends of wind extremes over land appears to be land-use changes such as de- and reforestation (Bierstedt et al.,  
806 2015; Gröger et al., 2021a, and references therein).

807

808 An important question is how North Atlantic variations can influence the state of the Baltic Sea, especially its  
809 oxygen conditions, since freshwater input and water temperature (less strongly) affect the stratification of the water  
810 column, and therefore the exchange of oxygen between the surface and deeper layers. Temperature also modulates  
811 algal blooms and thus dissolved oxygen, when bacteria use oxygen to decompose dead algae. Analysis of sediment  
812 cores indicated that the mid-Holocene Optimum, the Roman Period (2000 BP), and the Medieval Warm Period  
813 were all periods of oxygen deficiency at the bottom of the Baltic Sea. Low oxygen conditions are also observed  
814 during the Contemporary Warm Period, unique in their extent on a thousand year perspective (Norbäck Ivarsson  
815 et al., 2019, and references therein). Hence, factors other than temperature, like nutrients input into the Baltic Sea,  
816 can also affect oxygen conditions, and thus the reasons for those hypoxic phases during the past millennia are not  
817 yet completely clear (Schimanke et al., 2012). It had been suggested that agricultural nutrient input was large  
818 enough to influence oxygen conditions already during the Medieval Warm Period, perhaps also modulated by  
819 changes in river runoff due to the described climate fluctuations (Zillén and Conley, 2010). However, a detailed  
820 analysis of new sediments records find little evidence of anthropogenic eutrophication before the industrial period  
821 (Norbäck Ivarsson et al., 2019; Ning et al., 2018; van Helmond et al., 2018). In view of the large temperature  
822 increases projected for this region in the next decades, further study of the influence of climate on oxygen  
823 conditions is warranted.

### 824 **3.2 Present climate change**

825 This section assesses our knowledge of Baltic Sea region climate variability during the past ~200 years, based on  
826 instrumental records, model based reconstructions and reanalyses. We focus on changes in means, extremes, trends  
827 and decadal to multidecadal climate variability.

#### 828 **3.2.1 Atmosphere**

##### 829 **3.2.1.1 Large-scale atmospheric circulation**

830 Long-term trends in NAO could not be detected (e.g. Deser et al., 2017; Marshall et al., 2020). For the period  
831 1960-1990, a positive trend in NAO, with more zonal circulation, mild and wet winters and increased storminess  
832 in central and Northern Europe was found (Hurrell et al., 2003; Gillett et al., 2013; Ruosteenoja et al., 2020).



833 However, after the mid-1990s, there was a tendency towards more negative NAO indices, i.e. a more meridional  
834 circulation and more cold spells in winter (Fig. 5).

835

836 There is no consensus on how strongly the interannual NAO variability is forced externally (Stephenson et al.,  
837 2000; Feldstein, 2002; Rennert and Wallace, 2009). Several external forcing mechanisms have been proposed,  
838 most prominently SST (Rodwell et al., 1999; Marshall et al., 2001) and sea ice in the Arctic (Strong and  
839 Magnusdottir, 2011; Peings and Magnusdottir, 2016; Kim et al., 2014; Nakamura et al., 2015). Other authors  
840 (Screen et al., 2013; Sun et al., 2016; Boland et al., 2017) found no dependence on sea-ice extent. Furthermore,  
841 the impact of changes in the Arctic on midlatitude dynamics are still under debate (Dethloff et al., 2006; Francis  
842 and Vavrus, 2012; Barnes, 2013; Cattiaux and Cassou, 2013; Vihma, 2017).

843

844 A weakening of the zonal wind, eddy kinetic energy and amplitude of Rossby waves in summer (Coumou et al.,  
845 2015) as well as an increased waviness of the jet stream associated with Arctic warming (Francis and Vavrus,  
846 2015) in winter have been identified, which may be linked to an increase in blocking frequencies. Blackport and  
847 Screen (2020) argued that previously observed correlations between surface temperature gradients and the  
848 amplitude of Rossby waves have broken down in recent years. Therefore, previously observed correlations may  
849 have to be reinterpreted as internal variability. On the other hand, it has been shown that observed trends in  
850 blocking are sensitive to the choice of the blocking index, and that there is a huge natural variability that  
851 complicates the detection of forced trends (Woollings et al., 2018), compromising the robustness of observed  
852 changes in blocking.

853

854 With ongoing global warming, the Arctic will warm faster than the rest of the earth. This decrease of the poleward  
855 temperature gradient will tend to weaken the westerlies and increase the likelihood of blockings. On the other  
856 hand, maximum warming (compared to other tropospheric levels) will occur just below the tropical tropopause  
857 due to the enhanced release of latent heat, which tends to increase the poleward gradient, strengthen upper-level  
858 westerlies and affect the vertical stability, thus altering the vertical shear in midlatitudes. It is not clear which of  
859 these two factors will have the largest effect on the jet streams (Stendel et al., 2021).

860

861 The atmospheric circulation over Europe naturally varies significantly on decadal time scales (Dong et al., 2017;  
862 Ravestein et al., 2018). Proposed drivers for these circulation changes include polar and tropical amplification,  
863 stratospheric dynamics and the AMOC (Haarsma et al., 2015; Shepherd et al., 2018; Zappa and Shepherd, 2017).

864 The attribution of drivers is more straightforward for local changes, in particular for the soil-moisture feedback,  
865 for which an enhancement of heat waves due to a lack of soil moisture has been demonstrated (Seneviratne et al.,  
866 2013; Teuling, 2018; Whan et al., 2015). Räisänen (2019) found only a weak effect of circulation changes on the  
867 observed annual mean temperature trends in Finland, but circulation changes have considerably modified the  
868 trends in individual months. In particular, circulation changes explain the lack of observed warming in June, the  
869 very modest warming in October in southern Finland, and about a half of the very large warming in December.

870

871 As part of its natural variability, the North Atlantic warmed from the late 1970s to 2014 (Fig. 6). Recently, the  
872 AMO began transitioning to a negative phase again (Frajka-Williams et al., 2017). Paleoclimate reconstructions  
873 and model simulations suggest that the AMO might change its dominant frequency over time (Knudsen et al.,



874 2011; Wang et al., 2017). The impact of the AMO on climate is, however, independent of its frequency (Börgel et  
875 al., 2018; Börgel et al., 2020). Its influence on regional climate has been analyzed in several studies (Enfield et al.,  
876 2001; Knight et al., 2006; Sutton and Hodson, 2005; Ting et al., 2011; Casanueva et al., 2014; Ruprich-Robert et  
877 al., 2017; Peings and Magnusdottir, 2014), some dealing with the Baltic Sea (Börgel et al., 2018; Börgel et al.,  
878 2020; Kniebusch et al., 2019a). Kniebusch et al. (2019a) suggested that the influence of the AMO on temperature  
879 during 1980–2008 might have been at least as strong as that induced by humans (IPCC, 2014b).

### 880 3.2.1.2 Air temperature

881 A significant increase in surface air temperature in the Baltic Sea region during the last century has been shown  
882 previously (e.g. BACC Author Team, 2008; Rutgersson et al., 2014; BACC II Author Team, 2015). The  
883 temperature increase was not monotonous but accompanied by large multidecadal variations that divided the 20th  
884 century into three main phases: (1) warming from the beginning of the century until the 1930s; (2) slight cooling  
885 until 1960s; and (3) a distinct warming during the last decades of the time series that has continued also during  
886 2014–2020 (Figs. 7 and 8 and Table 4).

887

888 Linear trends of the annual mean temperature anomalies during 1878–2020 were  $0.10\text{ °C decade}^{-1}$  north of  $60^{\circ}\text{N}$   
889 as well as south of  $60^{\circ}\text{N}$  in the Baltic Sea region. This is larger than the global mean temperature trend and slightly  
890 larger compared to the earlier BACC reports. Over the Baltic Sea surface air temperature trends were smaller than  
891 over land. During 1856–2005, surface air temperature over the Baltic Sea increased by  $0.06$  and  $0.08\text{ °C decade}^{-1}$   
892 in the central Baltic Sea and in the Bothnian Bay, respectively (Kniebusch et al., 2019a).

893

894 There is a large variability in annual and seasonal mean temperatures, in particularly during winter, but the  
895 warming is seen for all seasons (being largest during spring in the northern part of the region).

896

897 Both daily minimum and daily maximum temperatures have increased. A decrease in the daily temperature range  
898 (DTR) have been observed in many regions of the world, but there is no clear signal for the entire Baltic Sea region  
899 (see for example, Jaagus et al., 2014, for DTR analysis of the Baltic countries).

900 These changes have also resulted in seasonality changes: the growing season has lengthened by about 5 days  
901  $\text{decade}^{-1}$  in the period 1965–2016 (Cornes et al., 2019). From this follows that the cold season has become shorter.

902

903 Extreme air temperatures can be high or low, but extended periods of extreme temperatures (spells or waves) are  
904 often the most influential. Averaged over land areas, warm spell duration increased during recent decades  
905 (Rutgersson et al., 2021). For some regions, the average annual days defined as warm spells increased from 6–8  
906 to 14 during recent decades. Along with more frequent and longer warm spells came decreases in the frequency,  
907 duration and severity of cold spells, based both on observations (Easterling et al., 2016) and model results. The  
908 length of the frost season and the annual number of frost days also decreased (Sillmann et al., 2013).

### 909 3.2.1.3 Solar radiation and cloudiness

910 Multidecadal variations of solar radiation at the Earth's surface, called “dimming” and “brightening”, have been  
911 observed in Europe and other parts of the world, particularly in the northern hemisphere (Wild et al., 2005; Wild,  
912 2012; Wild et al., 2017).



913

914 One of the world's longest time series of global radiation, i.e. incoming solar radiation at the Earth's surface, is  
915 from Stockholm, where measurements started in 1922. Recently, a first attempt to homogenize this time series was  
916 made by Josefsson (2019). No significant trend was found over the whole time series, but there were large  
917 variations over one to three decades. Other long time series of global radiation in Northern Europe are from  
918 Potsdam, Germany, (Wild et al., 2021), and Tõravere, Estonia, (Russak, 2009). All three time series show a  
919 minimum in global radiation around the mid-1980s. Then a clear increase or "brightening" of about 5-8% followed,  
920 until at least 2005. Before the 1980s minimum there was a period of "dimming" at all stations but with differences  
921 in the details. In Potsdam, there was rather stable dimming all the time from the late 1940s. In Tõravere, there was  
922 a maximum dimming around mid-1960s, while Stockholm recorded high values both around 1950 and 1970, with  
923 a minimum dimming in between. The data also suggest an early brightening in Stockholm time series, but this is  
924 still uncertain, especially before 1950.

925

926 Current twentieth century reanalyses models provide results for surface solar radiation. However, most of them  
927 fail to capture multidecadal surface radiation variability in central and southern Europe (Wohland et al., 2020).  
928 The model CERA20C, which shows best results for central and southern Europe still gives questionable results  
929 over Scandinavia, showing a weak increase instead of a decrease in surface solar radiation during the presumed  
930 dimming period before 1980.

931

932 Satellite data allowing analyses of cloudiness and solar radiation at the Earth's surface are available since the early  
933 1980s. For Europe, important work has been done within the EUMETSAT Satellite Application Facility on  
934 Climate Monitoring (CM SAF). Several satellite data records have been validated and used in climate studies (e.g.  
935 Urraca et al., 2017; Pfeifroth et al., 2018). At the highest latitudes of the Baltic Sea region there are however larger  
936 uncertainties (Riihelä et al., 2015) or often no data at all, due to low standing Sun and slant viewing geometry from  
937 the satellites.

938

939 The satellite data only cover the latest brightening period observed at ground-based stations in Europe. While the  
940 geographical patterns of global average cloud conditions agree well among several satellite cloud-data sets, there  
941 are clear differences in the distribution and size of trends (Karlsson and Devasthale, 2018). However, there seems  
942 to be consensus on a decreasing trend in total cloud fraction of about 1-2% per decade over the Baltic Sea region  
943 during 1984-2009.

944

945 Recent CM SAF satellite products on solar irradiance at the Earth's surface, the SARA-2 and CLARA-A2  
946 datasets, both agree well with station data according to Pfeifroth et al. (2018). In many cases this holds both for  
947 climatological averages and for trend detection. The average trend for the period 1983-2015 is about +3 W m<sup>-2</sup>  
948 decade<sup>-1</sup> both at the stations closest to the Baltic Sea and in the SARA-2 dataset. The three long-term stations  
949 mentioned above are all used as reference stations for the satellite data validation. For example, the on-going  
950 monitoring at stations spread over all Sweden show an average increase of about 8% (corresponding to +4 W m<sup>-2</sup>  
951 decade<sup>-1</sup>) from 1983 until 2005-2006 (SMHI, 2021). In later years the solar radiation leveled off, but *inter alia* the  
952 extremely sunny 2018 in Northern Europe contributed to keeping the trend increasing over time.

953





954 The multidecadal variations in the solar radiation at the Earth's surface were most probably caused by a  
955 combination of changes in cloudiness and in anthropogenic aerosols. Which of the two drivers is the largest  
956 contribution is still an open question, and might differ among regions. Aerosol concentrations over Northern  
957 Europe decreased during the brightening period from the mid-80s onwards (Ruckstuhl et al., 2008; Russak, 2009;  
958 Markowicz and Uscka-Kowalkowska, 2015; Glantz et al., 2019). Russak (2009) considered changes in cloudiness  
959 caused by variations in atmospheric circulation to be the most important factor in Estonia, but aerosol changes also  
960 played a role. In an early study of the modern radiation measurements in Sweden the strong increase in solar  
961 radiation 1983-1997 was also accompanied by a clear decrease in total cloud cover, especially during the half-year  
962 of summer (Persson, 1999). The satellite datasets SARA-2 and CLARA-A2 where both derived using an aerosol  
963 climatology as input. This underlines the important role of changes in cloudiness for surface solar radiation. Stjern  
964 et al. (2009) also stressed the importance of the contribution of clouds and the atmospheric circulation for dimming  
965 and brightening periods in Northern Europe.

966

967 Other studies, e.g. Ruckstuhl et al. (2008) and Wild et al. (2021), concluded that aerosol effects under clear skies  
968 is the main contributor to the multidecadal variations of solar radiation in central Europe. Aerosol-induced  
969 multidecadal variations in surface solar radiation could be expected also over oceans (Wild, 2016), but long-term  
970 measurements are lacking. The interaction between aerosols and clouds, the indirect aerosol effects, needs also be  
971 better understood and quantified.

#### 972 **3.2.1.4 Precipitation**

973 During the twentieth century in the Baltic Sea region, changes in precipitation were spatially more variable than  
974 for temperature (BACC II Author Team, 2015). Irregularly distributed precipitation measurement stations make it  
975 difficult to determine statistically significant trends and regime shifts. Sweden shows an overall wetting trend since  
976 the 1900s, in particular since the mid 20<sup>th</sup> century (Chen et al., 2020). In Finland, the overall increase detected for  
977 1961-2010 is neither regionally consistent nor always statistically significant (Aalto et al., 2016). The same holds  
978 for the Baltic States (Jaagus et al., 2018). In the south of the Baltic Sea region, changes were small and not  
979 significant. Nevertheless, precipitation averaged over the Baltic Sea catchment area has increased since 1950 due  
980 to an increase in winter (Fig. 9).

981

982 The number of heavy precipitation days is largest in summer. Compared to southern Europe, precipitation extremes  
983 in the Baltic Sea region are not as intense, with daily amounts typically ranging from 8 to 20 mm (Cardell et al.,  
984 2020). Extreme precipitation intensity increased during the period 1960-2018. An index for the maximum annual  
985 five consecutive days of precipitation (Rx5d) shows significant increases of up to 5 mm per decade over the eastern  
986 part of the Baltic Sea catchment (EEA, 2019b). The change is more pronounced in winter than in summer.

#### 987 **3.2.1.5 Wind**

988 In situ observations allow direct analysis of winds, in particular over sea (e.g. Woodruff et al., 2011). However, in  
989 situ measurements, especially over land, are often locally influenced, and inhomogeneities make the  
990 straightforward use of such data difficult, even for recent decades. Therefore, many studies use reanalyses rather  
991 than direct wind observations. But analysis of storm-track activity for longer periods using reanalysis data suffers  
992 necessarily from uncertainties associated with changing data assimilation and observations before and after the



993 introduction of satellites, resulting in large variations of storm-track changes across assessments (Wang et al.,  
994 2016; Chang and Yau, 2016).

995

996 Owing to inherent inhomogeneities and the large climate variability in the Baltic Sea region, it is unclear whether  
997 there is a general trend in wind speed in the recent climate. Results regarding changes or trends in the wind climate  
998 are strongly dependent on period and region considered (Feser et al., 2015). Due to the strong link to large-scale  
999 atmospheric variability over the North Atlantic, conclusions about changes over the Baltic Sea region are perhaps  
1000 best made in a wider spatial context, considering *inter alia* the NAO.

1001

1002 Recent trend estimates for the total number of cyclones over the Northern Hemisphere extratropics during 1979-  
1003 2010 revealed a large spread across the reanalysis products, strong seasonal differences, as well as decadal-scale  
1004 variability (Tilina et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2016; Chang et al., 2016; Matthews et al., 2016; Chang et al., 2012).  
1005 Common to all reanalysis datasets is a weak upward trend in the number of moderately deep and shallow cyclones  
1006 (7 to 11% per decade for both winter and summer), but a decrease in the number of deep cyclones, in particular  
1007 for the period 1989-2010. Chang et al. (2016) reported a minor reduction in cyclone activity in the Northern  
1008 Hemisphere summer due to a decrease in baroclinic instability as a consequence of Arctic temperatures rising  
1009 faster than at low latitudes. Chang et al. (2012) also noticed that state-of-the art models (CMIP5) generally  
1010 underestimate this trend. In the Northern Hemisphere winter, recent studies reported a decrease in storm track  
1011 activity related to Arctic warming (Ceppi and Hartmann, 2015; Shaw et al., 2016; Wills et al., 2019; Stendel et al.,  
1012 2021).

1013

1014 Despite large decadal variations, there is still a positive trend in the number of deep cyclones (< 980 hPa) over the  
1015 last six decades, which is consistent with results based on the NCEP reanalysis since 1958 over the northern North  
1016 Atlantic Ocean (Lehmann et al., 2011). Using an analogue-based field reconstruction of daily pressure fields over  
1017 central to Northern Europe (Schenk and Zorita, 2012), the increase in deep lows over the region might be  
1018 unprecedented since 1850 (Schenk, 2015). However, for limited areas the conclusions were rather uncertain.

1019

1020 The effect of differential temperature trends on storm tracks has been recently addressed, both in terms of upper  
1021 tropospheric tropical warming (Zappa and Shepherd, 2017) and lower tropospheric Arctic amplification (Wang et  
1022 al., 2017), including the direct role of Arctic sea-ice loss (Zappa et al., 2018), and a possible interaction of these  
1023 factors (Shaw et al., 2016). The remote and local SST influence has been further examined by Ciasto et al. (2016),  
1024 who confirmed the sensitivity of the storm tracks to the SST trends generated by the models and suggested that  
1025 the primary greenhouse gas influence on storm track changes was indirect, acting through its influence on SSTs.  
1026 The importance of the stratospheric polar vortex for storm track changes has received more attention (Zappa and  
1027 Shepherd, 2017). In an aqua planet simulation, Sinclair et al. (2020) found a decrease in the number of extratropical  
1028 cyclones and a poleward and downstream displacement due to an increase in diabatic heating.

#### 1029 **3.2.1.6 Air pollution, air quality and atmospheric nutrient deposition**

1030 Air pollution continues to significantly impair the health of the European population, particularly in urban areas.  
1031 Brandt et al. (2013) estimated the total number of premature deaths due to air pollution in Europe in the year 2000  
1032 to be ~680 000 year<sup>-1</sup>. Although this number was predicted to decrease to approximately 450 000 by 2020, it is



1033 still a matter of grave concern. Particulate matter concentrations were reported to be the primary reason for adverse  
1034 health effects. Estimates indicated that PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations in 2016 were responsible for ~412 000 premature  
1035 deaths in Europe, due to long-term exposure (EEA, 2019a).

1036

1037 The state of air pollution is often expressed as air quality, when human health is in focus. The ambient air quality  
1038 in the Baltic Sea region is dominated by anthropogenic emissions, and natural emissions play only a minor role.  
1039 These emissions show an overall decreasing trend in recent years (EEA, 2019a), as reflected in the ambient  
1040 concentrations reported in the EMEP status report (EMEP, 2018). To quantify air quality concentrations of certain  
1041 gases and particulate matter are used as measures. The general conclusions in the field of air quality reported by  
1042 the BACC II Author Team (2015) still hold today, i.e. that land-based emissions and concentrations of major  
1043 constituents continue to decrease due to emission control measures, with the possible exception of certain  
1044 emissions from the shipping sector. Sulphur emissions from shipping have continued to decrease strongly in the  
1045 Baltic Sea from 2015, due to much lower limit values for the sulphur content of ship fuel in the emission control  
1046 areas. A noticeable decrease in nitrogen emissions due to the newly (2021) implemented nitrogen emission control  
1047 area (NECA) is expected in the next decade.

1048

1049 In Europe, the pollutants most harmful to human health are particulate matter (PM), nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) and  
1050 ground-level ozone (O<sub>3</sub>). About 14% of the EU-28 urban population was exposed to O<sub>3</sub> concentrations above the  
1051 EU target value threshold (EEA, 2019a). When compared to other European countries, air pollution was relatively  
1052 low in Scandinavia, exception for a few urban traffic hotspots, with annual mean NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations elevated to  
1053 near the limit value (EEA, 2019b). In this comparison, Northern Germany is located in the lower mid-field, while  
1054 northern Poland is among the more polluted countries, especially with PM. Biomonitoring samples analyzed for  
1055 toxic metals by Schröder et al. (2016) tended to show lowest concentrations in Northern Europe.

1056

1057 Contributions to air pollution and pollutant deposition in coastal areas by shipping can be substantial. Major  
1058 pollutants from shipping are SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub> and PM (including black carbon). The BACC II assessment estimated  
1059 emissions from shipping in the Baltic Sea region. Several studies have recently been published, including Jonson  
1060 et al. (2015), Claremar et al. (2017), and Karl et al. (2019b), which use chemistry transport models to predicted  
1061 ambient concentrations from known emissions. They show, as expected, that the highest air pollution  
1062 concentrations due to ship exhaust are found near major shipping lanes and harbors, but also that considerable  
1063 concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub> and PM reach populated land areas. This effect is pronounced in the south-western Baltic  
1064 Sea area (Quante et al., 2021). Exact numbers from such modelling should still be interpreted with care, as shown  
1065 by Karl et al. (2019a), who compared output from three state-of-the-art chemistry transport models for the Baltic  
1066 Sea area.

1067

1068 The most important recent change in shipping emissions in the North and Baltic seas are due to the 2015  
1069 strengthening of the fuel sulphur content limit for the Sulphur Emission Control Areas (SECAs), by lowering the  
1070 maximum allowed sulphur content from 1 to 0.1%. Model calculations indicate large reductions in sulphur  
1071 deposition in countries bordering these two sea areas after the implementation of the lowered sulphur limit (Gauss  
1072 et al., 2017). Barregard et al. (2019) estimated the contribution of Baltic Sea shipping emissions to PM<sub>2.5</sub> before  
1073 2014 and after 2016 the new SECA regulation of marine fuel sulphur was implemented. These authors also



1074 estimated human exposure to PM<sub>2.5</sub> from shipping and its health effects in the countries around the Baltic Sea.  
1075 They concluded that PM<sub>2.5</sub> emissions from Baltic Sea shipping, and resulting health impacts decreased  
1076 substantially after the 2015 SECA regulation. Population exposure studies estimating the influence of shipping  
1077 emissions for selected Baltic Sea harbor cities were published for Rostock, Riga and Gdańsk–Gdynia by Ramacher  
1078 et al. (2019) and for Gothenburg by Tang et al. (2020). Ramacher et al. (2019) found that shipping emissions  
1079 strongly influence NO<sub>2</sub> exposure in the port areas (50–80 %), while the average influence in home, work and other  
1080 environments is lower (3–14 %) but still with strong influence close to the ports. It should, however, be noted that  
1081 reduction of sulphur emissions to the atmosphere by the use of new cleaning techniques (e.g. open loop scrubbers)  
1082 can increase the risk of acidification and marine pollution (Turner et al., 2017; 2018).

1083

1084 Johansson et al. (2020) published a first comprehensive assessment of emissions from leisure boats in the Baltic  
1085 Sea. While the modeled NO<sub>x</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> emissions from leisure boats are clearly lower than those from commercial  
1086 shipping, these first estimates suggest that carbon monoxide (CO) emissions from leisure boats equal 70 % of the  
1087 registered shipping emissions and non-methane volatile organic carbon (NMVOC) emissions equal 160 %. It  
1088 should be noted that most of the leisure boat emissions occur in summer, and often occur near areas for nature  
1089 conservation and tourism. Most of these emissions can be attributed to Swedish, Finnish and Danish leisure boats,  
1090 but the leisure boat fleet has the potential for large future increases also in Russia, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and  
1091 Poland.

1092

1093 Air pollution leads to environmental degradation by affecting natural ecosystems and biodiversity. Ground-level  
1094 ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) can damage crops, forests and other vegetation, impairing growth and reducing biodiversity. According  
1095 to a recent study by Proietti et al. (2021), assessed trends of the O<sub>3</sub> mean concentration in Northern Europe were  
1096 not statistically significant for the time period from 2000 to 2014. The annual mean ozone concentration is reported  
1097 to be slightly below 35 ppb, as compared to 43 to 45 ppb in the Mediterranean Region, for which a significant  
1098 decreasing trend is found. The exposure index AOT40 (sum of the hourly exceedances above 40 ppb, for daylight  
1099 hours during the growing season) significantly declined in all European regions except for Northern Europe, for  
1100 which a positive but not significant trend is seen. On the nation level among the six European countries showing  
1101 a positive trend were Denmark, Germany, Sweden (Proietti et al., 2021). A clear difference in trends between rural  
1102 sites and other station typologies is found for Europe for the period 2000 to 2017. I.e. for traffic sites a substantial  
1103 increase of annual mean O<sub>3</sub> concentration was observed, in contrast to rural stations, for which a slight decrease  
1104 was found (Colette and Rouïl, 2020). Regarding the monitored population exposed to ozone all countries in Europe  
1105 show a decrease from 2000 to 2014 (NDGT60 > 25 days per year; Fleming et al., 2018).

1106

1107 Harmful exposure and impacts of air pollutants on ecosystems are assessed using the concept of critical loads  
1108 (CLs; Nilsson and Grennfelt, 1988). The CL is the amount of pollutants that an ecosystem can tolerate without  
1109 risking unacceptable damage. The most harmful air pollutants in terms of damage to ecosystems in addition to O<sub>3</sub>  
1110 are ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) and nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub>). It is estimated that about 62% of the European ecosystem area is  
1111 still exposed to high levels of NO<sub>x</sub>, leading to exceedances of CLs for eutrophication in all countries in 2016  
1112 (EEA, 2019a). Hotspots of exceedances of CLs for acidification in 2016 were the Netherlands and its borders with  
1113 Germany and Belgium, southern Germany and also Czechia. However, most of Europe including the Baltic Sea  
1114 region did not exceed the CLs for acidification (EEA, 2019a).



1115

1116 Since the 1980s, the total nitrogen deposition on the Baltic Sea has decreased substantially, due to an overall  
1117 reduction of European emissions, but emission and deposition reductions have stalled since the mid-2000s (Colette  
1118 et al., 2015; Gauss et al., 2021). Atmospheric phosphorus deposition remains highly uncertain in amount and trends  
1119 (HELCOM, 2015; Kanakidou et al., 2018; Ruoho-Airola et al., 2012).

1120

1121 Air quality and climate interact in several ways. On the one hand, air pollutants can affect climate both directly  
1122 and indirectly by changing the radiative balance of the atmosphere. On the other hand, climate change alters  
1123 meteorological conditions, which may affect concentrations of air pollutants via several pathways, since air quality  
1124 is strongly dependent on weather (Jacob and Winner, 2009). The effects of important meteorological and climate  
1125 variables on surface O<sub>3</sub> and PM were discussed in a comprehensive review by Doherty et al. (2017). The  
1126 connection between high temperatures and increased ground-level ozone concentrations is well established.  
1127 Increases in temperature related to climate change (i.e. during heat waves) are expected to lead to higher ozone  
1128 concentrations in certain regions with the required precursor concentrations. Other important meteorological  
1129 factors influencing air pollution concentrations are a possible change in the number of midlatitude cyclones and  
1130 in the number of occurrences and duration of stagnant weather conditions (Jacob and Winner, 2009).

### 1131 **3.2.2 Land**

#### 1132 **3.2.2.1 River discharge**

1133 The total river discharge to the Baltic Sea is approximately 14,000 m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> (Bergström and Carlsson, 1994). This is  
1134 substantially more than the direct net precipitation (precipitation minus evaporation) on the Baltic Sea itself, which  
1135 has been estimated at 1,000-2,000 m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> (Meier and Kauker, 2003; Meier and Döschner, 2002; Meier et al., 2019d),  
1136 see also the discussion by Leppäranta and Myrberg, (2009). In other words, most of the fresh water entering the  
1137 Baltic Sea comes from the terrestrial part of the catchment. Therefore, the fresh water input to the Baltic Sea cannot  
1138 be described entirely with only climatic parameters. Non-climatic drivers of runoff include river regulation by  
1139 dams and reservoirs, land-use changes in the catchment, and water uptake for irrigation. Although dams are known  
1140 to have altered the seasonality of discharge (e.g. McClelland et al., 2004; Adam et al., 2007; Adam and  
1141 Lettenmaier, 2008), they do not seem to be responsible for annual discharge changes. In the long-term, net  
1142 precipitation over the catchment area and river runoff are strongly correlated (Meier and Kauker, 2003).

1143

1144 For the period 1850-2008, the total river discharge from the Baltic Sea catchment area, reconstructed from  
1145 observations (Bergström and Carlsson, 1994; Cyberski et al., 2000; Hansson et al., 2011; Mikulski, 1986) and  
1146 hydrological model results (Graham, 1999), showed no statistically significant trend but a pronounced  
1147 multidecadal variability, with a period of about 30 years (Meier et al., 2019d). Furthermore, summed river flow  
1148 observations in the period 1900-2018 (Lindström, 2019) and a historical reconstruction of the annual river  
1149 discharge for the past 500 years showed no statistically significant trend either (Hansson et al., 2011). However,  
1150 river runoff from northern Sweden, a part of the catchment area of the Bothnian Bay, significantly increased since  
1151 the 1980s compared to 1911-2018 (Lindström, 2019).

1152

1153 There are indeed substantial regional and decadal variations in the river flow. Stahl et al. (2010) studied near-  
1154 natural rivers of Europe over the period 1942-2004 and found a clear overall pattern of positive trends in annual



1155 streamflow in the northern areas. (Kniebusch et al., 2019b) also identified a statistically significant positive trend  
1156 in the river discharge to the Bothnian Bay for 1921-2004. In Estonian rivers, regime shifts in annual specific runoff  
1157 corresponded to the alternation of wet and dry periods (Jaagus et al., 2017). A dry period started in 1963/1964,  
1158 followed by a wet period from 1978, with the latest dry period commencing at the beginning of the 21st century.

1159

1160 For the period 1920-2005, positive trends in stream flow at stations of a pan-Nordic dataset dominate annual mean,  
1161 winter and spring figures whereas summer trends are statistically not significant (Wilson et al., 2010). A clear  
1162 signal of earlier snow-melt floods and a tendency towards more severe summer droughts in southern and eastern  
1163 Norway were found.

1164

1165 The observed temperature increases have affected stream flow in the northern Baltic Sea region for 1920-2002 in  
1166 a manner corresponding well to the projected consequences of a continued rise in global temperature (Hisdal et  
1167 al., 2010). Regarding precipitation, however, the regional impacts of both the observed and projected changes on  
1168 stream flow are still unclear.

1169

1170 In the northern Baltic Sea region, all the way south to the Gulf of Finland, runoff is strongly linked to the climate  
1171 indices air temperature, wind and rotational circulation components. In the southern region, runoff is associated  
1172 more with the strength and torque of the cyclonic or anticyclonic pressure systems (Hansson et al., 2011).

1173

1174 In the Baltic states (Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia), changes in streamflow over the 20th century showed a  
1175 redistribution of runoff over the year, with a significant increase in winter and a tendency for decreasing spring  
1176 floods (Reihan et al., 2007; Sarauskiene et al., 2015; Jaagus et al., 2017). A similar winter trend was found also  
1177 for the reconstructed river discharge to the entire Baltic Sea since the 1970s (Meier and Kauker, 2003).

1178

1179 For the period 1911-2010, a trend of observed annual maximum daily flows in Sweden could not be detected  
1180 (Arheimer and Lindström, 2015). However, in particular the annual minimum daily flows in northern Sweden  
1181 considerably increased in the period 1911-2018 (Lindström, 2019). Analyzing a pan-European database, Blöschl  
1182 et al. (2017) showed that river floods over the past five decades occurred earlier in spring due to (1) an earlier  
1183 spring snow melt in northeastern Europe, (2) delayed winter storms associated with polar warming around the  
1184 North Sea, and (3) earlier soil moisture maxima in Western Europe.

### 1185 **3.2.2.2 Land nutrient inputs**

1186 The Baltic Sea catchment area of 1.7 million km<sup>2</sup>, which is more than four times larger than the sea surface area  
1187 (cf. Fig. 1), is populated by over 84 million inhabitants. Stretching between 49° - 69°N and 10° - 38°E, the  
1188 catchment exhibits significant gradients in both natural (precipitation, river discharge, temperature, etc.) and  
1189 anthropogenic (population density and occupation, agricultural and industrial development, etc.) environmental  
1190 factors. These factors change both in time (phenological changes, long-term trends and lags due to land cover  
1191 processes) and space (north-south gradients in climate and land use, east-west gradients in socio-economic features  
1192 and climate) thus determining heterogeneity and variation of land nutrient inputs that drive long-term  
1193 eutrophication of the Baltic Sea (Savchuk, 2018, and references therein; Kuliński et al., 2021).

1194



1195 Estimates of nutrient inputs had been attempted since the 1980s (e.g. Larsson et al., 1985; Stålnacke et al., 1999)  
1196 and are now being compiled within a permanent process of the HELCOM Pollution Load Compilation (PLC, e.g.  
1197 HELCOM, 2019). However, these data officially reported to HELCOM by the participating riparian states have  
1198 been and still are suffering from gaps and inconsistencies. Therefore, the “best available estimates” have been  
1199 reconstructed in attempts to both fill in such gaps and correct possible sources of inconsistencies (Savchuk et al.,  
1200 2012; the present study based on Svendsen and Gustafsson, 2020). For long-term studies of the Baltic Sea  
1201 ecosystem, a historical reconstruction of nutrient inputs since 1850 is available (Gustafsson et al., 2012).

1202

1203 According to HELCOM (2018a; Savchuk, 2018) and updated estimates (HELCOM, 2018c), substantial reductions  
1204 of land nutrient inputs, comprising riverine inputs and direct point sources at the coast, have been achieved since  
1205 the 1980s (Fig. 11, Table 5). Since there are no statistically significant trends in annual river discharge (Section  
1206 3.2.2.1), these reductions are attributed to socio-economic development, including expansion of the wastewater  
1207 treatment and reduction of atmospheric nitrogen deposition (Gauss et al., 2021) over the entire Baltic Sea drainage  
1208 basin, and not to climate related effects (HELCOM, 2018a; Svendsen and Gustafsson, 2020). As an example, the  
1209 coastal point sources of TN and TP decreased three- and ten-fold, respectively, comparing to the 1990s (Savchuk  
1210 et al., 2012) and today contribute to the Baltic Sea less nutrients than they did in 1900 (Savchuk et al., 2008;  
1211 Kuliński et al., 2021).

1212

1213 Agriculture is the main source of anthropogenic diffuse nutrient inputs, which comprise 47% of the riverine  
1214 nitrogen and 36% of the riverine phosphorus inputs (HELCOM, 2018c). In turn, mineral fertilizer dominates the  
1215 anthropogenic nutrient inputs to the Baltic Sea catchment, in particular in its intensely farmed southern part (Hong  
1216 et al., 2017). However, during 2000-2010 only about 17% of the net anthropogenic nitrogen and only about 4.7%  
1217 of the net anthropogenic phosphorus input to the catchment are currently exported with rivers to the sea (Hong et  
1218 al., 2017). While denitrification might have removed part of the nitrogen applied in agriculture, the remaining  
1219 phosphorus has accumulated in the drainage basin. A global budget estimated that agriculture has increased the  
1220 soil storage of phosphorus in the drainage basin by 50 Mt during 1900-2010 (Bouwman et al., 2013) and a regional  
1221 approach calculated an increase by 40 Mt during 1900-2013 (McCrackin et al., 2018). However, McCrackin et al.  
1222 (2018) estimated that about 60% of these phosphorus inputs were retained in a stable pool and did not contribute  
1223 noticeably to the riverine export. About 40% accumulated in a mobile pool with a residence time of 27 years.  
1224 McCrackin et al. (2018) suggested that leakage from this mobile legacy pool is, though slowly declining, the  
1225 dominant source of present riverine phosphorus inputs.

### 1226 3.2.3 Terrestrial biosphere

#### 1227 *Previous assessments*

1228 The comprehensive review of climate-related changes in terrestrial ecosystems in the first BACC report (BACC  
1229 Author Team, 2008), Smith et al. (2008) concluded that climate change during the preceding 30-50 years had  
1230 already caused measurable changes in terrestrial ecosystems in the Baltic Sea region, e.g. an advancement of spring  
1231 phenological phases in some plants, upslope displacement of the alpine tree-line and increased land-surface  
1232 greenness in response to improved growth conditions and a richer CO<sub>2</sub> supply. But as nearly all ecosystems in the  
1233 region were managed to some extent, the climate impacts might be alleviated or intensified by human  
1234 interventions, e.g. by choosing favorable tree species in forestry. The observed trends were expected to continue



1235 for at least several decades, assuming that continued future increases in the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration will  
1236 cause continued warming.

1237

1238 In the second BACC report (BACC II Author Team, 2015), climate effects on terrestrial ecosystems were less in  
1239 focus, with a section related to forests and natural vegetation in the chapter on environmental impacts on coastal  
1240 ecosystems, birds and forests (Niemelä et al., 2015) and as part of the chapter on socioeconomic impacts on forestry  
1241 and agriculture (Krug et al., 2015). On the other hand, the second BACC report also considered anthropogenic  
1242 land-cover changes as a driver of regional climate change (Gaillard et al., 2015). Niemelä et al. (2015) concluded  
1243 that the observed positive effects of climate change on forest growth would continue, in particular for boreal forest  
1244 stands that benefitted more than temperate forest stands. The species composition of natural vegetation in the  
1245 Baltic Sea region was expected to undergo changes, with a predominantly northward shift of the hemiboreal and  
1246 temperate mixed forests. Terrestrial carbon storage was likely to increase in the region, but land-use change could  
1247 play an important modifying role, affecting this storage both positively and negatively. Krug et al. (2015)  
1248 concluded that there were regional differences in how the vulnerability and productivity of forestry systems were  
1249 affected by climate change, with the southern and eastern parts of the Baltic Sea region likely to experience reduced  
1250 production and the northern and western parts increased production. Gaillard et al. (2015) found no indication that  
1251 deforestation in the Baltic Sea region since 1850 could have been a major cause of the observed climate warming.

1252

1253 Acknowledging the importance of the land component in the climate system, the IPCC recently published its  
1254 special report entitled ‘Climate Change and Land’ on climate change, desertification land degradation, sustainable  
1255 land management, food security, and greenhouse gas fluxes in terrestrial ecosystems (IPCC, 2019b). This is  
1256 because land, including its water bodies, provides the basis for human livelihoods and well-being through primary  
1257 productivity, the supply of food, freshwater, and multiple other ecosystem services.

#### 1258 *Biophysical and biogeochemical interactions*

1259 The land surface and its terrestrial ecosystems in the Baltic Sea region interact with the atmosphere and are, thus,  
1260 coupled to the local and regional climate. These interactions determine the exchanges of heat, water and  
1261 momentum between the land surface and the atmosphere via biophysical processes, the exchange of greenhouse  
1262 gases, e.g. CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O, and emissions of black carbon, aerosol precursors, e.g. biogenic volatile  
1263 compounds, or organic carbon aerosols via biogeochemical processes, altering the atmospheric composition.

1264 The nature of the biophysical and biogeochemical interactions between the land surface and the atmosphere and  
1265 their effects on climate are studied by comparing the effects of forests with that of open land, e.g. grassland,  
1266 pastures or cropland (e.g. Bonan, 2016). Details on the nature of these feedbacks are given in Gröger et al. (2021b).

1267 On average, across the globe, forests absorb atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and, thus, reduce net radiation and have a cooling  
1268 effect on climate. In equilibrium, forest ecosystems, are expected to be carbon neutral, with carbon loss through  
1269 phenological turnover, mortality and decomposition over large areas on average matching plant productivity. CO<sub>2</sub>  
1270 fertilization is considered a strong driver for the terrestrial carbon sink, but demographic recovery following past  
1271 land use, e.g. afforestation and replanting of harvested forest stands, likely provides an equally important  
1272 explanation for net carbon uptake by forests in industrialized regions of North America, Europe and Asia (Pugh et





1273 al., 2019). Deforestation, on the other hand, can lead to a release of carbon and to an increase in net radiation and,  
1274 thus, has a warming effect on climate (Friedlingstein et al., 2020, and references therein). In contrast to the  
1275 biophysical effects described above and some of the other biogeochemical interactions, the biogeochemical  
1276 interactions associated with the carbon cycle have global impacts and operate at very long time scales.

#### 1277 *Anthropogenic land-use and land cover changes*

1278 Using remote sensing data, Jin et al. (2019) investigated recent trends in springtime plant phenology in the Baltic  
1279 Sea region and the sensitivities of phenological trends to temperature and precipitation, in spring, winter and  
1280 summer. Considering the entire region and combining all vegetation types, the authors found an advancement of  
1281 the growing season by 0.30 day year<sup>-1</sup> over the period 2000-2016. The advancement was particularly strong for  
1282 evergreen needle-leaved forests (0.47 day year<sup>-1</sup>) and weaker for cropland and grassland (0.14 day year<sup>-1</sup>).  
1283 Evergreen needle-leaved forests, together with deciduous broadleaf forests, dominate the northern part of the Baltic  
1284 Sea region, while the southern part is mainly grassland and cropland. Jin et al. (2019) found that the most important  
1285 driver of the advancement of the growing season is spring mean temperature, with an advancement rate of 2.47  
1286 day (°C)<sup>-1</sup> of spring warming, considering the entire area and all vegetation types. Spring drying could further  
1287 increase the advancement rate by 0.18 day cm<sup>-1</sup>. While the sensitivity of the start of the growing season to climate  
1288 conditions in spring is comparable for the entire Baltic Sea region, the sensitivity to climate conditions in the  
1289 summer and winter seasons differs between the northern and southern parts of the region. In both seasons an  
1290 increase in the mean temperature was found to advance the growing season in the southern part of the Baltic Sea  
1291 region but to delay the start of the growing season in the northern part, in contrast to the spring warming. These  
1292 sensitivities were markedly stronger for summer than for winter. These trends in plant phenology in spring result  
1293 in changes of the land cover early in the year, thus affecting climate through biophysical and biogeochemical  
1294 interactions with the atmosphere.

1295 Observations reveal a local impact of changes in forest cover on near-surface temperatures, due to biophysical  
1296 effects that depend on the geographical latitude, roughly separating the boreal regions and the temperate zone of  
1297 the Northern Hemisphere. When investigating the effects of small-scale clearings at sites in the Americas and Asia,  
1298 Zhang et al. (2014a) found on both continents that annual mean temperatures cooled over open land north of about  
1299 35°N and warmed south of this latitude. Changes in forest cover have, however, different effects on daily minimum  
1300 and daily maximum temperatures. Zhang et al. (2014a) found that the warming effect over open land south of  
1301 35°N was related to an increase in daily maximum temperatures, with little change in daily minimum temperatures,  
1302 while the cooling effect to the north was due to a decrease in daily minimum temperatures. Lee et al. (2011) showed  
1303 consistent results for North America, where the cooling effect of 0.85±0.44°C over non-forested areas north of  
1304 45°N was due to a decrease in daily minimum temperatures, associated with the reduced roughness length. At  
1305 night, open land cools more than forests, regardless of geographical latitude. This is confirmed by Alkama and  
1306 Cescatti (2016), who analyzed the impacts of recent losses in forest cover on near-surface and land-surface  
1307 temperatures in the boreal zone. For both, the authors found cooling trends in daily minimum and warming trends  
1308 in daily maximum temperatures in response to deforestation and opposite tendencies after afforestation. These  
1309 effects were somewhat stronger for land-surface temperatures than air temperatures.



1310 Regional Climate Models (RCMs) have been used to investigate the biophysical effects of changes in forest cover  
1311 on climate in Europe. Strandberg and Kjellström (2019), for instance, used simulations with the Rossby Centre  
1312 Atmosphere (RCA) RCM to assess the climate effect of maximal afforestation or deforestation in Europe, focusing  
1313 on seasonal mean temperatures and precipitation, as well as daily temperature extremes. Maximum afforestation  
1314 and deforestation were inferred from a simulation with the LPJ-GUESS dynamical vegetation model, providing a  
1315 map for potential natural forest cover for Europe in equilibrium with present-day climate (Gröger et al., 2021a).  
1316 To effect maximum afforestation, present-day land cover classes, which represent considerable agricultural  
1317 activity in Europe (particularly in western, central and southern Europe), were replaced by the potential natural  
1318 forest cover. In the case of deforestation, on the other hand, the potential natural forest cover was converted to  
1319 grassland in the model.

1320 The simulations indicated that afforestation in Europe generally increased evapotranspiration, which, in turn, led  
1321 to colder near-surface temperatures. In western, central and southern Europe, the cooling in winter due to  
1322 afforestation was between 0.5 and 2.5°C. The cooling effect was somewhat stronger in summer, exceeding 2.5°C  
1323 in large parts of western and southeastern Europe. Deforestation had the opposite effect, warmer near-surface  
1324 temperatures due to decreased evapotranspiration, typically in the range between 0.5 and 2°C in western and  
1325 central Europe and reaching up to 3°C in southeastern Europe. In regions with low evapotranspiration, however,  
1326 changes in the surface albedo were relatively more important for temperatures. During summer, warming by  
1327 deforestation affected the entire Baltic Sea region (in the range between 0.5 and 1.5°C), while the cooling  
1328 associated with afforestation only affected its southern part. Over parts of Scandinavia, afforestation actually  
1329 resulted in a slight warming of about 0.5°C. In winter, the cooling effect of afforestation was only evident over the  
1330 southern part of the Baltic Sea region, while deforestation had no effect on winter temperatures.

1331 Strandberg and Kjellström (2019) found relatively strong biophysical effects of afforestation or deforestation in  
1332 Europe on daily maximum temperatures in summer. Deforestation markedly increased daily maximum  
1333 temperatures over the entire Baltic Sea region (typically between 2 and 6°C), while afforestation lowered daily  
1334 maximum temperatures in the southern part of the region by about 2 to 6°C and slightly increased over parts of  
1335 Scandinavia. In contrast to its cooling effect on mean winter temperatures, afforestation lead to a warming of the  
1336 daily minimum temperatures in the southern part of the Baltic Sea region in the range between 2 and 6°C.

1337 In a similar study with the Regional Model (REMO) RCM, Gálos et al. (2013) investigated the biophysical effects  
1338 of afforestation in Europe on climate, and also compared these effects to the climatic changes expected from future  
1339 global warming. Potential afforestation was implemented by specifying deciduous forest cover at all vegetated  
1340 areas that were not covered by forests at the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, mainly in western, Central and Eastern Europe.  
1341 Given the strong historical deforestation in Central Europe, there is potential for rather extensive afforestation in  
1342 the southern part of the Baltic Sea region, but lesser potential in the northern part, i.e. Scandinavia and Finland.  
1343 The results indicated a cooling effect of the re-established forests in boreal summer exceeding 0.3°C, mainly  
1344 related to increased evapotranspiration from the trees, in combination with intensified fluxes of latent heat due to  
1345 stronger vertical mixing (see above). The stronger latent heat fluxes also enhanced precipitation by more than 10%  
1346 in some regions. These effects of potential afforestation counteracted the projected future changes in climate, i.e.  
1347 somewhat reduced the magnitude of the pronounced future warming and markedly reduced the future drying in  
1348 the boreal summer. In some cases, such as in northern Germany, the enhanced precipitation was found to



1349 completely offset the drying effect of future warming. More recent results (Meier et al., 2021c) have used rain-  
1350 gauge data to estimate precipitation changes induced by land cover change. Meier et al. (2021c) created a statistical  
1351 model to show that reforestation of agricultural land can increase precipitation locally, especially in winter, and  
1352 were able to separate the effects on both local and downwind precipitation regionally and seasonally. They also  
1353 found that climate change induced summer precipitation reductions could be offset by reforestation, with a  
1354 particularly strong effect in southwest Europe, though their analyses also indicate small precipitation increases in  
1355 the Baltic Sea region, relative to a baseline scenario with no land cover change, consistent with the results of Gálos  
1356 et al. (2013).

1357 In a more regionalized study, Gao et al. (2014) applied the REMO RCM to investigate the biophysical effects of  
1358 peatland forestation in Finland before (1920) and after drainage (2000s). In Finland, as in other northern European  
1359 countries, vast areas of naturally tree-less or sparsely tree-covered peatland were drained for timber production in  
1360 the second half of the 20th century. The total peatland area of Finland was estimated to be 9.7 million ha in the  
1361 1950s, but at the beginning of the 21st century the area of peatland drained for forestry was estimated to 5.5 million  
1362 ha. The authors found that the peatland forestation caused warming in spring, i.e. during the snow-melt season,  
1363 and slight cooling in the growing season (May through October). The spring warming was mainly caused by  
1364 decreased surface albedo and the cooling in the growing season by increased evapotranspiration.

### 1365 **3.2.4 Cryosphere**

#### 1366 **3.2.4.1 Snow**

1367 In the Baltic Sea region, snow cover is an important feature that greatly affects cold season weather conditions. It  
1368 is characterized by very high interannual and spatial variability. Snow cover is a sensitive indicator of climate  
1369 change, and its variations are closely related to air temperature in many regions. General climate warming is  
1370 expected to reduce snow cover. Several thaw periods now interrupt snow cover, making it less stable. Total winter  
1371 snowfall in Northern Europe is projected to decrease, but is still expected to increase in mid-winter in the very  
1372 coldest regions (Räisänen, 2016).

1373

1374 Previous climate change assessments demonstrated a number of snow-cover trends in recent decades in the Baltic  
1375 Sea region (BACC Author Team, 2008; BACC II Author Team, 2015). A decrease in snow cover was observed  
1376 in the south, while an increase in snow storage and duration of snow cover was detected in the north-east, and in  
1377 the Scandinavian mountains. The spring snow melt has become earlier in most of the region. As a result, the spring  
1378 maximum river discharge has become smaller and earlier, in many regions shifting from April to March.

1379

1380 Recent investigations confirm these results. Snow cover in the Northern Hemisphere has decreased since mid-20<sup>th</sup>  
1381 century (IPCC, 2014a), as also shown by satellite measurements (Estilow et al., 2015). The largest decline in the  
1382 extent of snow cover has been observed in March-April and also in summer. Using the satellite-based NOAA-  
1383 CDR data for the period 1970–2019, it was shown that the annual snow cover fraction has reduced over most areas  
1384 of the Northern Hemisphere by up to 2% decade<sup>-1</sup> (Zhu et al., 2021). Thereby, the annual snow cover area has  
1385 reduced by  $2 \times 10^5 \text{ km}^2 \text{ decade}^{-1}$ .

1386



1387 In 1980–2008, snow-cover duration in Northern Europe decreased by about 3-7 days per decade, and the trend  
1388 was significant at many stations (Peng et al., 2013). Most of the reduction happened in spring, with the end-date  
1389 of snow cover five days earlier per decade, on average (Peng et al., 2013). Snow-cover variability over Europe is  
1390 closely related to temperature fluctuations, which, in turn, are determined by large-scale atmospheric circulation  
1391 during the cold season (Ye and Lau, 2017). A recent study of European snow-depth data in 1951–2017  
1392 demonstrated an accelerated decrease after the 1980s (Fontrodona Bach et al., 2018), with an average decline,  
1393 excluding the coldest climates, of 12.2% per decade for mean snow depth and 11.4% per decade for its maximum.  
1394 A decreasing trend in snow density was detected in the eastern Baltic Sea region in 1966–2008 (Zhong et al.,  
1395 2014).

1396

1397 In Poland, rather large changes in snow cover parameters were found for 1952–2013 (Szwed et al., 2017). The  
1398 duration of snow cover decreased in almost the whole country but this change is mostly not statistically significant.  
1399 The total reduction in snow cover duration was 1–3 weeks over the 62 years, but the mean and maximum snow  
1400 depths did not change. The start date of snow cover has not changed, but the end date moved slightly earlier (Szwed  
1401 et al., 2017). A recent study found a statistically significant decreasing trends in snow cover duration as well as of  
1402 in snow depth, based on 40 Polish stations in 1967–2020 (Tomczyk et al., 2021). The trend values for the number  
1403 of days with snow cover were from -3.5 to -4.9 days per decade.

1404

1405 The snow-cover regime at 57 stations in the eastern Baltic Sea region (Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia) in 1961–  
1406 2015 was analyzed by Rimkus et al. (2018). The mean decrease in snow-cover duration was 3.3 days per decade,  
1407 and was statistically significant at 35% of the measuring sites, mostly in the southern part of the region. There  
1408 were no trends in maximum snow depth. An earlier study for Lithuania found similar results (Rimkus et al., 2014).

1409

1410 A detailed study of snow cover data at 22 stations in Estonia during the period 1950/51–2015/16 revealed  
1411 remarkable decreasing trends (Viru and Jaagus, 2020). Snow-cover duration decreased significantly at 16 stations,  
1412 and the mean decrease was 4 days per decade. Start dates for permanent snow cover had a non-significant tendency  
1413 to occur later. Permanent snow cover had a statistically significant trend to end earlier at almost all stations. There  
1414 were no overall trends in maximum snow depth in Estonia in 1951–2016 (Viru and Jaagus, 2020).

1415

1416 Significant decreases in snow depth parameters were found in Finland in recent decades (Aalto et al., 2016;  
1417 Luomaranta et al., 2019). Regional differences were substantial. In 1961–2014, the largest decrease in snow depth  
1418 occurred in the southern, western and central parts of Finland in late winter and early spring. In northern Finland,  
1419 a decrease in snow depth was most evident in spring, with no change in the winter months, even though the amount  
1420 of solid precipitation was found to increase in December–February (Luomaranta et al., 2019). Winter mean snow  
1421 depth (Jylhä et al., 2014) as well as the annual maximum snow depth (Lehtonen, 2015) has decreased significantly  
1422 at many stations in southern Finland. At the same time, the annual maximum snow depth has not changed in  
1423 Finnish Lapland (Lépy and Pasanen, 2017; Merkouriadi et al., 2017).

1424

1425 For the century 1909–2008, a general decrease was detected in many snow-cover parameters at three stations in  
1426 different parts of Finland (Irannezhad et al., 2016). A sharp decline in annual peak snow-water equivalent was  
1427 detected since 1959. The period of permanent snow cover shortened by 21–32 days per century.



1428

1429 A decline in snow cover parameters was found also in Norway for 1961–2010 (Dyrrdal et al., 2012; Rizzi et al.,  
1430 2017).

#### 1431 **3.2.4.2 Glaciers**

1432 A recent basic inventory of Scandinavian glaciers is available through the Randolph Glacier Inventory (RGI  
1433 Consortium, 2017; Pfeffer et al., 2014), a collection of digital outlines of the world's glaciers prepared to meet the  
1434 needs of the Fifth IPCC Assessment Report (IPCC, 2014b; Vaughan et al., 2014). It has since been updated in  
1435 support of the IPCC Special Report on the Ocean and Cryosphere in a Changing Climate (IPCC, 2019a; Hock et  
1436 al., 2019). Of the 3417 Scandinavian glaciers reported in the Randolph Glacier Inventory (v6.0), 365, with a  
1437 combined area of c. 360 km<sup>2</sup>, lie within the Baltic Sea Drainage Basin as defined by (Vogt et al., 2007; Vogt et  
1438 al., 2008; all in the Scandinavian mountains). The combined glacier volume estimate (following Farinotti et al.,  
1439 2019) for the Scandinavian glaciers reported in Hock et al. (Hock et al., 2019) is  $0.7 \pm 0.2$  mm global sea level  
1440 equivalent or  $254 \pm 72$  Gt. The rate of mass loss for all Scandinavian glaciers (not only in the Baltic Sea Drainage  
1441 Basin) for the period 2006-2015 is  $2 \pm 1$  Gt year<sup>-1</sup> corresponding to a negligible  $0.01 \pm 0.00$  mm year<sup>-1</sup> of global  
1442 sea level rise equivalent, yet with potential importance for local streamflow (Hock et al., 2019; Zemp et al., 2019).  
1443 With a 90-100% likelihood, atmospheric warming is the primary driver of glacier mass loss (Hock et al., 2019).

1444

1445 Most of the 365 glaciers in the Baltic Sea Drainage Basin are in Sweden (c. 72% by number, c. 75% by area), with  
1446 the remaining ones in Norway. Both Sweden and Norway do nationally coordinated glacier monitoring, with the  
1447 most recent results summarized in the Global Glacier Change Bulletin (GGCB) No. 3 (World Glacier Monitoring  
1448 Service, 2020; Zemp et al., 2020) as, among others, glacier mass balance changes. A glacier mass balance year  
1449 usually covers the period from September 1<sup>st</sup> to August 31<sup>st</sup> in the subsequent year. The GGCB includes four  
1450 Swedish glaciers, two of which (Rabots glaciär and Storglaciären in the Kebnekaise Massif, which has the world's  
1451 longest continuous mass balance record, starting in 1945/46) are so-called reference glaciers, meaning that their  
1452 dynamics are not dominated by non-climatically driven dynamics such as calving or surging, and that more than  
1453 30 years of ongoing measurements are available (Fig. 12). In Table 6, mass balances of the Swedish GGCB glaciers  
1454 following World Glacier Monitoring Service (2020) are summarized. None of the Norwegian GGCB glaciers are  
1455 in the Baltic Sea drainage basin.

1456

1457 These with time increasingly negative mass balances coincide with globally increasing air temperatures, with the  
1458 latest six years, 2015–2020, the warmest since instrumental recording began (World Meteorological Organization,  
1459 2020). Regional and local deviations in mass loss from that expected from long-term global warming is, however,  
1460 expected. The slightly positive mass balances for Märmaglaciär, Storglaciären and Riuojekna in 2016/2017 is the  
1461 result of a cold summer, explained by the glacier mass balance years starting on September 1, and that the summer  
1462 months (June, July, August) included in the 2016/2017 balance are therefore June, July, and August 2017 – a  
1463 period during which average air temperature at Tarfala Research Station was measured to 5.8°C, compared to  
1464 6.4°C and 7.4°C in the previous and subsequent mass balance periods (Swedish Infrastructure for Ecosystem  
1465 Science, 2020; World Glacier Monitoring Service, 2020).

1466



1467 The ice summit of Kebnekaise Sydtopp (South Peak) lost its status as Sweden's highest in September 2019 and  
1468 2020 when due to melting of its ice-covered summit its elevation dropped below that of the rocky, non-ice-covered  
1469 Kebnekaise Nordtopp (North Peak; Stockholm University - Department of Physical Geography, 2017, 2019,  
1470 2020).

#### 1471 **3.2.4.3 Permafrost**

1472 The drainage basin of the Bothnian Bay is characterized by low mean annual air temperatures and includes boreal  
1473 forest and mountain ecosystems as well as large peatland areas. In this region, permafrost — ground frozen for at  
1474 least two consecutive years — exists in high alpine environments and in peatlands. While almost all Baltic Sea  
1475 Drainage Basin permafrost is found in the Bothnian Bay catchment, some isolated occurrences of permafrost are  
1476 found in the upper reaches of Alpine rivers further south (mainly Umeälven headwaters). Permafrost is a thermal  
1477 state of ground, rock, soil or sediment, and occurs in regions with low mean annual air temperatures (MAAT).  
1478 Temperature is the strongest control on permafrost, but thin winter snow depth also favors permafrost aggradation  
1479 and stability. In alpine permafrost, insolation is an important factor. In the upper Torne River catchment, incoming  
1480 shortwave summer radiation causes a difference in the altitude of alpine permafrost (permafrost  $p > 0.8$ ) from 850  
1481 m a.s.l. on shaded slopes to 1100 m a.s.l. on south-facing slopes (Ridefelt et al., 2008). In lowland areas, permafrost  
1482 is more likely to form and persist in peatlands, where the low thermal conductivity of peat insulates the ground  
1483 from warm summer air (Seppälä, 1986). Mire complexes with palsas, elevated peat mounds with an ice-rich  
1484 permafrost core, are the most common form of lowland permafrost in the Baltic Sea drainage basin (Luoto et al.,  
1485 2004). Palsa mires in the Baltic Sea basin are predominantly found in regions with MAAT  $< -3^{\circ}\text{C}$  and low mean  
1486 annual precipitation (often  $< 450$  mm), based on the 1961-1990 climate period (Fronzek et al., 2006).

1487

1488 Earlier maps of northern hemisphere permafrost extent showed relatively extensive Fennoscandian permafrost,  
1489 especially in Alpine regions (Brown et al., 1997). Recent advances in permafrost modeling reveal a more nuanced  
1490 picture, where permafrost is spatially patchy, persisting at high elevations and in lowland regions with low  
1491 precipitation and large expanses of peat plateaus (Obu et al., 2019; Gislås et al., 2017). Consistent with observation  
1492 of permafrost warming and thawing (Biskaborn et al., 2019), models project substantial permafrost losses in recent  
1493 decades. High resolution modelling (1 km pixels) driven by remotely sensed land surface temperature showed that  
1494 c. 6,200 km<sup>2</sup> of permafrost in 1997, was reduced to 4,800 km<sup>2</sup> in 2018 (Obu et al., 2020). Most of this loss is  
1495 modeled alpine permafrost (here defined as  $> 700$  m a.s.l.) decreasing from 4,700 to 3,700 km<sup>2</sup>, while lowland  
1496 permafrost has decreased from 1,500 km<sup>2</sup> to 1,100 km<sup>2</sup> (Fig. 13).

#### 1497 **3.2.4.4 Sea ice**

##### 1498 *Introduction*

1499 Sea ice is an essential indicator of climate change and variability in the Baltic Sea region. Not only does existence  
1500 of sea ice indicate the general severity of the winter due to its close correlation with winter air temperature, but in  
1501 addition parameters such as annual maximum sea-ice extent of the Baltic Sea (MIB), duration of ice season and  
1502 maximum thickness of level ice have been monitored regularly in the Baltic Sea since the late 19<sup>th</sup> century.

1503

1504 The BACC II Author Team (2015) concluded that all sea-ice observations demonstrated large inter-annual  
1505 variations, but with a long-term, statistically significant trend to milder ice conditions that is projected to continue



1506 (Fig. 14). In this section, we review recent ice-climate research in the Baltic Sea and provide updated figures on  
1507 sea ice trends and projections that largely confirm previous conclusions.

1508

1509 An important indicator of advancing climate change in the Baltic Sea region is that two of the latest five ice winters  
1510 have been extremely mild (2015-2020). In winter 2015, the Bothnian Bay was never fully covered by ice (with a  
1511 MIB of 51 000 km<sup>2</sup>), the first such extreme winter observed with certainty. The winter of 2020 was even milder,  
1512 with a MIB of only 37 000 km<sup>2</sup>, the lowest value in a time series that began in 1720.

1513

#### 1514 *Sea-ice conditions in the Baltic Sea*

1515 On recent average, the northern sea areas of the Baltic Sea are ice-covered every year, from December to May.  
1516 During the mildest winters, only the Bothnian Bay (in a few years even only partially) and coastal zones of other  
1517 basins are ice-covered. In the past, the entire Baltic Sea was ice-covered only in the most severe winters, e.g. 1940,  
1518 1942 and 1947 (Vihma and Haapala, 2009).

1519

1520 In the fast ice regions near the coast, sea ice grows by thermodynamic processes only. Maximum sea ice thickness  
1521 in the fast ice regions typically amounts to 40 – 70 cm in the Bothnian Bay and 10 – 40 cm in the Bothnian Sea,  
1522 Gulf of Finland and Gulf of Riga. Ice thickness is regularly monitored at tens of fast ice sites.

1523

1524 Observations of sea-ice thickness in drift ice are much more limited. A recent study combined all airborne  
1525 electromagnetic ice thickness measurement in the Bothnian Bay and derived the first estimate of basin-scale ice  
1526 thickness distribution in the Baltic Sea (Fig. 15; Ronkainen et al., 2018). An important finding of that study was  
1527 that mean ice thickness in drift ice regions is greater than the thickness of fast ice, and also greater than the ice  
1528 thickness indicated on the ice charts. As expected, the data showed large inter-annual variability, but temporal and  
1529 spatial coverage was not sufficient for conclusion on changes in drift ice thickness.

1530

1531 Individual ice ridges caused by compression and shearing of ice drift can be 30 meters thick. The largest gradients  
1532 in ice motion are found in the coastal zone (Leppäranta et al., 2012), where mean ice thickness over several km<sup>2</sup>  
1533 can be 1-3 meters (Ronkainen et al., 2018).

1534

1535 In some circumstances, sea ice can accumulate towards the coast and cause spectacular on-shore ridges or ride-up  
1536 of several hundred meters from shore to land, causing damage to build structures (Leppäranta, 2013). Such events  
1537 have been observed in exposed coastal regions where the stability of fast ice can be overcome by combinations of  
1538 storms, currents and water level (Leppäranta, 2013). In the Bothnian Bay, such events can occur regardless of the  
1539 severity of ice seasons. In the southern Baltic Sea, on-shore ice has been common during severe winters. During  
1540 the last ten years, such events were observed in 2010, 2011, 2012 and 2019 (Girjatowicz and Łabuz, 2020).

1541

#### 1542 *Observed changes*

1543 Long-term changes of the MIB (Seinä and Palosuo, 1996; Niskanen et al., 2009) are shown in Figure 14. The trend  
1544 of the MIB during the last 100 years (1921-2020) is -6,400 km<sup>2</sup> per decade. This is almost twice the trend reported  
1545 by the BACC II Author Team (2015), based on the period 1910-2011. Since 1987 no severe ice winters and since



1546 2012 only average, mild or extremely mild winters have been observed. The latter sea-ice conditions explain the  
1547 accelerated trend after 2011.

1548

1549 The recent 30-year period (1991-2020) is definitely the mildest since 1720 (Uotila et al., 2015). The probability  
1550 distribution of the MIB has shifted towards zero, with severe winters very rare (Fig. 14). The 30-year mean MIB  
1551 is now  $139 \cdot 10^3 \text{ km}^2$  and the winter 2021 with a MIB of  $127 \cdot 10^3 \text{ km}^2$  on 15 February 2021 (Jouni Vainio, FMI,  
1552 personal communication) was close to this mean. During the second mildest 30-year period (1909-1938), the  
1553 average MIB was  $184 \cdot 10^3 \text{ km}^2$  and during the last 100 years it was  $182 \cdot 10^3 \text{ km}^2$ . The shape of the MIB probability  
1554 distribution has changed, also indicating a change in sea-ice extremes. According to the ice season classification  
1555 (Seinä and Palosuo, 1996), the recent 30-year period includes only one severe or extremely severe ice winter and  
1556 13 mild or extremely mild ice winters.

1557

1558 Present ice conditions differ from the past to the extent that Rjazin and Pärn (2020) even suggested defining this  
1559 change as a regime shift. They analyzed changes in sea ice extent and air temperature in the Baltic Sea in 1982 –  
1560 2016, using a method of splitting the time series in two and concluded that a regime shift towards milder ice  
1561 conditions occurred in 2006-2007.

1562

1563 Other studies complement these and BACC II conclusions. Kiani et al. (2018) examined the influence of  
1564 atmospheric changes on ice roads between Oulu and Hailuoto. They used air temperature data to calculate freezing  
1565 and thawing degree days and found that freezing degree days decreased and thawing degree days increased  
1566 significantly during 1974 – 2009. As a consequence, the ice road season started later and ended earlier.

1567

1568 Merkouriadi and Leppäranta (2014) analyzed ice thickness and freezing and breakup dates collected at Tvärminne  
1569 Zoological Station, at the entrance to the Gulf of Finland. They found a decrease of almost 30 days in the ice-  
1570 covered period and a reduction of 8 cm in maximum annual ice thickness in the last 40 years. Laakso et al. (2018)  
1571 used observations from the Utö Atmospheric and Marine Research station during 1914-2016 and concluded that  
1572 the length of the ice season has decreased from 10-70 days before 1988 to 0-35 days after 1988 in the northern  
1573 Baltic Sea proper. Figures 16 and 17 show level-ice thickness at Kemi and Loviisa and the length of the ice season  
1574 at Kemi, Loviisa and Utö. All graphs show statistically significant decreasing trends, except level-ice thickness at  
1575 station Kemi, which was probably be influenced by snow cover or changes in measurement location.

#### 1576 **3.2.4.5 Lake ice**

1577 The recent change in ice phenology is probably the single most important climatically induced alteration in lake  
1578 environments within the Baltic Sea catchment. New literature demonstrates almost unanimously significant  
1579 changes towards earlier ice break-up, later freeze-up, and shorter duration of ice cover across the Baltic Sea  
1580 catchment, apart from the coldest climate regime in Lapland. The available centennial data indicate that the ice-  
1581 cover duration has decreased by several days per century, whereas the intensified warming in recent decades has  
1582 produced a similar change per decade (Efremova et al., 2013; Filazzola et al., 2020; Kļaviņš et al., 2016; Knoll et  
1583 al., 2019; Korhonen, 2019; Lopez et al., 2019; Nöges and Nöges, 2014; O'Reilly et al., 2015; Ptak et al., 2020;  
1584 Sharma et al., 2016; Sharma et al., 2020; Wrzesiński et al., 2015). Some lakes have, however, responded only  
1585 weakly to the warming trend, such a lake Peipsi in Estonia, probably due to increasing snowfall. In individual





1586 years, a positive wintertime NAO seems to be an important factor causing a short ice-cover duration. Among the  
1587 main properties that affect the ice cover of individual lakes are size, depth, and shoreline complexity.

### 1588 **3.2.5 Ocean and marine sediments**

#### 1589 **3.2.5.1 Water temperature**

1590 The main driver of annual mean water temperature variations and long-term changes is air temperature (Meier et  
1591 al., 2019d; 2019c; Kniebusch et al., 2019a). Baltic Sea water temperature has risen fastest at the sea surface (Meier  
1592 et al., 2021a). With time the heat spreads downward through different processes, such as lateral inflows, vertical  
1593 down-welling and diffusion, and eventually the whole water column warms up, with smallest trends in the cold  
1594 intermediate layer between the thermo- and halocline (Meier et al., 2021a).

1595

1596 Since the 1980s, marginal seas around the globe have warmed faster than the global ocean (Belkin, 2009), and the  
1597 Baltic Sea has warmed the most (Belkin, 2009). Climate change and decadal variability led to an annual mean,  
1598 area averaged increase in Baltic Sea SST of  $+0.59^{\circ}\text{C decade}^{-1}$  for 1990-2018 (Siegel and Gerth, 2019) and of  
1599  $+0.5^{\circ}\text{C decade}^{-1}$  for 1982-2013 (Stramska and Białogrodzka, 2015). Both figures were derived from satellite data.  
1600 In accordance with earlier investigations (BACC Author Team, 2008; BACC II Author Team, 2015), SST  
1601 variability in winter can be linked to the NAO (Stramska and Białogrodzka, 2015). However, the spatial maps of  
1602 SST trends by Stramska and Białogrodzka (2015) differ from those by Lehmann et al. (2011), perhaps because of  
1603 the differing horizontal resolution of the satellite data products. Linear trends for the Baltic Sea during 1982-2012  
1604 of  $0.41^{\circ}\text{C decade}^{-1}$  are slightly larger than  $0.37^{\circ}\text{C decade}^{-1}$  for the North Sea (Høyer and Karagali, 2016).

1605

1606 Using monitoring data, Liblik and Lips (2019) found that the upper layer has warmed by  $0.3\text{--}0.6^{\circ}\text{C decade}^{-1}$  and  
1607 the sub-halocline deep layer by  $0.4\text{--}0.6^{\circ}\text{C decade}^{-1}$  in most of the Baltic Sea during 1982-2016. The total warming  
1608 in the whole Baltic Sea was  $1.07^{\circ}\text{C}$  over 35 years, approximately twice that of the upper 100 m in the Atlantic  
1609 Ocean.

1610

1611 During 1856–2005, the reconstructed Baltic Sea average, annual mean SST increased by 0.03 and  $0.06^{\circ}\text{C decade}^{-1}$   
1612 <sup>1</sup> in the northeastern and southwestern areas, respectively (Kniebusch et al., 2019a). The largest SST increase  
1613 trends were found in the summer season in the northern Baltic Sea (Bothnian Bay). Bottom water temperature  
1614 trends were smaller than SST trends, with the largest increase in the Bornholm Basin. Independent monitoring  
1615 data support the results of the long-term reconstruction (Figs. 18 and 19), see also Meier et al. (2019c; 2019d). The  
1616 largest SST warming occurred in summer (May to September), while trends in winter were smaller (Kniebusch et  
1617 al., 2019a; Liblik and Lips, 2019).

1618

1619 During the more recent period of 1978–2007, the annual mean SST trend was tenfold higher, with a mean of  $0.4^{\circ}\text{C}$   
1620  $\text{decade}^{-1}$  (Kniebusch et al., 2019a). Trends increased more in the northeastern areas than in the southwestern, and  
1621 exceeded the contemporary trends in air temperature. See also MARNET station data at Darss Sill and Arkona  
1622 Deep in the southwestern Baltic Sea (Fig. 20).

1623

1624 The seasonal ice cover clearly plays an important role in the Baltic Sea by decoupling the ocean and the atmosphere  
1625 in winter and spring. Hence, the large trends in air temperature in winter were not reflected by the SST trends



1626 because the air temperature was still below the freezing point. During the melting period, the ice-albedo feedback  
1627 led to larger trends in SST than during the ice-covered period, because of a prolonged warming period of sea water.  
1628

1629 It has been suggested that the accelerated warming in 1982-2006 might partly be explained by a dominance of the  
1630 positive phase of the AMO (Kniebusch et al., 2019a). Historical eutrophication re-distributed the heat in the ocean  
1631 by warming the surface layer more than the underlying layers, in particular during spring and summer, because  
1632 the increased water turbidity caused an enhanced absorption of sunlight at the sea surface. However, modeling  
1633 studies suggest that the historical eutrophication had no impact on SST trends (Löptien and Meier, 2011).

1634

1635 The summer of 2018 was the warmest on instrumental record in Europe, and also the warmest summer in the past  
1636 30 years in the southern half of the Baltic Sea (Naumann et al., 2019), with surface-water temperatures 4-5°C  
1637 above the 1990-2018 long-term mean. This heat wave was also observed in the bottom temperatures (Humborg et  
1638 al., 2019). However, systematic studies on changes in heat waves are not available.

#### 1639 **3.2.5.2 Salinity and saltwater inflows**

1640 During the last decade, many new insights have been gained about the salt balance of the Baltic Sea and the  
1641 dynamics of inflow and mixing processes. The Major Baltic Inflow (MBI) in December 2014, in particular,  
1642 triggered new investigations and is by far the most intensively observed and modeled inflow event. Pathways and  
1643 timing of the inflowing water were tracked by observations (Mohrholz et al., 2015), and numerical modelling  
1644 (Gräwe et al., 2015) could reproduce the salt mass and volume of the inflow, calculated from observations. The  
1645 inflow was found to be barotropic (pressure) controlled in the Danish straits but dominated by baroclinic (density  
1646 stratification) processes on the further pathway into the Baltic proper. At the Bornholm Gat and the Słupsk Furrow  
1647 the water exchange showed the clear two-layer flow pattern of an estuarine circulation. The inflow-related studies  
1648 were underpinned by theoretical work based on the famous Knudsen Relation (Knudsen, 1900) for estuarine  
1649 exchange flow, and its extension to total exchange flow by Burchard et al. (2018). The contribution of the inflowing  
1650 saline water to the spatial distribution of salt and the total salt budget depends essentially on mixing with ambient  
1651 brackish waters. In the course of the inflow path, the character of the mixing process between the deep salty layer  
1652 and the brackish water above changes with increasing depth and decreasing current velocities. In the entrance area  
1653 the mixing is dominated by entrainment of brackish water into the eastward spreading saline bottom water, due to  
1654 turbulence generated by shear instability. The sills between the consecutive Baltic basins are particular mixing  
1655 hotspots (Neumann et al., 2017). In the deeper basins of the Baltic proper, boundary mixing driven by the  
1656 interaction of currents and internal waves with the topography, and mixing processes at sill overflows contribute  
1657 to the upward salinity flux (Reissmann et al., 2009). Mixing in the eastern Gotland Basin was investigated during  
1658 the Baltic Sea Tracer Experiment (BATRE). Using an inert tracer gas, the basin-scale vertical diffusivities were  
1659 estimated to  $10^{-5} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , whereas the diffusivities in the basins interior were one order of magnitude lower  
1660 (Holtermann et al., 2012). This finding holds also for the inflow of saline water in course of an MBI (Holtermann  
1661 et al., 2017). The interior mixing is often controlled by double diffusive convection that leads to a typical stair-  
1662 case-like vertical stratification structure (Umlauf et al., 2018). The crucial role of boundary mixing at the basin  
1663 rim was confirmed by Holtermann and Umlauf (2012), and Lappe and Umlauf (2016). Both studies identified  
1664 near-boundary turbulence as the key processes for basin-scale mixing. Main energy sources for boundary mixing  
1665 are basin-scale topographic waves, deep rim currents, and near-inertial waves.



1666

1667 The temporal statistics of barotropic saline inflows was reviewed by Mohrholz (2018). In contrast to earlier  
1668 investigations he found no long-term trend in inflow frequency, but a pronounced multidecadal variability of 25  
1669 to 30 years. Lehmann and Post (2015) and Lehmann et al. (2017) who studied the frequency and intensity of large  
1670 volume changes in the Baltic Sea due to inflows, likewise could not find a long-term trend. The distinction between  
1671 MBIs and smaller inflows is artificial and does not correspond to the frequency distribution of the inflows, which  
1672 shows an exponential decrease in frequency with increasing inflow intensity (Mohrholz, 2018). The classical MBIs  
1673 are only responsible for about 20% of the total salt input, while the rest is accounted for by medium and small  
1674 inflows with much less pronounced interannual variability.

1675

1676 Paleoclimate simulations covering nearly the recent millennium (Schimanke and Meier, 2016) have provided new  
1677 insights into the long-term behavior of the mean salinity of the Baltic Sea. In accordance with previous historical  
1678 reconstruction studies (Schimanke and Meier, 2016; Meier and Kauker, 2003), Schimanke and Meier (2016)  
1679 identified river discharge, net precipitation and zonal winds as main drivers of the decadal variability in Baltic Sea  
1680 salinity. However, their relative contributions are not constant. Extreme periods with strong salinity decrease for  
1681 about 10 years occurred once per century. Thus, the long stagnation period from 1976 to 1992 was obviously a  
1682 rare but natural event, although its extreme duration might be caused by anthropogenic effects. The Baltic Sea  
1683 salinity also has a natural centennial variability. Based on the same numerical simulations, Börgel et al. (2018)  
1684 could show a strong coherence between the AMO climate mode and river runoff on timescales between 60 and  
1685 180 years. Accordingly, the Baltic Sea salinity and the AMO are correlated, probably due to the dominating impact  
1686 of river discharge on salinity. The river runoff leads salinity changes by about 20 years during the entire modeling  
1687 period of 850 years. Schimanke and Meier (2016) reported a similar lag of 15 years between river runoff and Baltic  
1688 Sea salinity.

1689

1690 According to model results, multidecadal variations in runoff (Gailiusis et al., 2011; Meier et al., 2019d) explain  
1691 about half the long-term variability of volume-averaged Baltic Sea salinity (Meier and Kauker, 2003). Radtke et  
1692 al. (2020) found that the direct dilution effect was only responsible for about one fourth of the multidecadal  
1693 variability and proposed a link between river runoff and inflow activity. Furthermore, they found that the influence  
1694 of vertical turbulent mixing is small. Salt water inflows contribute to the multidecadal salinity variability, in  
1695 particular for the bottom layer salinity. The positive trend of river runoff in the northern catchment area led to a  
1696 significant increase in the North-South salinity gradient in the Baltic Sea surface water layer (Kniebusch et al.,  
1697 2019b). Additionally, their model based study revealed a multidecadal oscillation of salinity, river runoff and  
1698 saltwater inflows of about 30 years, consistent with the long term observations.

1699

1700 From observations during 1982–2016, Liblik and Lips (2019) detected decreasing surface (see also Vuorinen et  
1701 al., 2015) and increasing bottom salinities, but no long term trend in the total salt budget were found (cf. Fig. 21).  
1702 Both temperature and salinity contribute to strengthening of the vertical stratification. Enhanced freshwater fluxes  
1703 combined with higher deep water salinities intensify the vertical density gradient throughout the year.



1704 **3.2.5.3 Stratification and overturning circulation**

1705 A direct consequence of increasing stratification is that mixing weakens between well ventilated surface waters  
1706 and badly ventilated deep waters weakens, making the Baltic Sea vulnerable to deoxygenation of bottom waters  
1707 (Conley et al., 2002). An increase in seasonal thermal stratification (e.g. Gröger et al., 2019) can additionally lower  
1708 the vertical nutrient transport from deeper layers to the euphotic zone, thereby limiting nutrient supply and  
1709 potentially affecting algal and cyanobacterial blooms, at least at the species level. The latter potential effect has  
1710 not yet been thoroughly investigated. However, the hypothesis was supported by the results of Lips and Lips (2008)  
1711 who found a correlation between cyanobacteria bloom intensity in the Gulf of Finland and the frequency of  
1712 upwelling events along both coasts.

1713

1714 Since the start of regular salinity measurements at the end of the 19th century, the haline stratification has been  
1715 dominated by sporadic inflows from the adjacent North Sea and variations in river discharge (Fig. 22). While no  
1716 long-term trends could be demonstrated in Baltic Sea salinity during 1921-2004 (Kniebusch et al., 2019b) or in  
1717 halocline depth during 1961-2007 (Väli et al., 2013), a trend towards increased horizontal salinity difference  
1718 between the northern and southern Baltic Sea was found during 1921-2004 (Kniebusch et al., 2019b). Modeling  
1719 studies by Kniebusch et al. (2019b) attributed this trend to increased river runoff from the northernmost catchment  
1720 area. Stratification increased in most of the Baltic Sea during 1982-2016, with the seasonal thermocline  
1721 strengthening by 0.33–0.39 kg m<sup>-3</sup> and the perennial halocline by 0.70–0.88 kg m<sup>-3</sup> (Liblik and Lips, 2019).

1722

1723 Sensitivity studies with a numerical model suggest that the basin-wide overturning circulation will decrease if the  
1724 climate warms or when river runoff increases, but will tend to increase if global sea level rises (Placke et al., 2021).  
1725 However, historical multidecadal variations of the overturning circulation are mainly wind-driven. Multidecadal  
1726 variations in neither river runoff nor saltwater inflow had an impact, according to Placke et al. (2021).

1727 **3.2.5.4 Sea level**

1728 For the era of continuously operated satellite altimetry, absolute mean sea level (relative to the reference geoid)  
1729 increased in the Baltic Sea. Available estimates vary depending on the exact period considered, but are broadly  
1730 consistent with or slightly above the global average (3-4 mm year<sup>-1</sup>; Oppenheimer et al., 2019; Nerem et al., 2018).  
1731 For the period 1992-2012, Stramska and Chudziak (2013) estimated an increase of 3.3 mm year<sup>-1</sup>, and for the  
1732 period 1993-2015 Madsen et al. (2019a) an increase of 4 mm year<sup>-1</sup> in the Baltic Sea absolute mean sea level. For  
1733 the period 1886/1889-2018, the analysis of Swedish mareograph data suggest a sea level rise of about 1-2 mm  
1734 year<sup>-1</sup> (Figs. 23 and 24). Passaro et al. (2021) showed that the increase is not uniform across the Baltic Sea but  
1735 varies between about 2 mm year<sup>-1</sup> in the western Baltic Sea and more than 5 mm year<sup>-1</sup> in the Gulf of Bothnia for  
1736 the period 1995-2019. The acceleration of sea level rise in the Baltic Sea was studied by Hünicke and Zorita  
1737 (2016). They found that present acceleration is small and could only be detected through averaging of observations.

1738

1739 Sea level changes relative to the coast are more complex, since land is rising in the northern Baltic Sea, by up to  
1740 about 8 mm year<sup>-1</sup>, and sinking in the southern Baltic Sea, by about 1 mm year<sup>-1</sup> (Hünicke et al., 2015; Groh et al.,  
1741 2017). In addition to the global mechanisms (thermal expansion due to warming and land-ice melting), sea level  
1742 changes in the Baltic Sea are also affected by the changes in atmospheric circulation, water inflow from the North  
1743 Sea, and changes in the freshwater budget (river runoff, precipitation and evaporation). Precipitation and river



1744 runoff are linked to westerly winds and affect salinity and the salinity gradient across the Baltic Sea (Kniebusch  
1745 et al., 2019b) and thus the sea level height and its gradient. Stronger than normal westerly winds are associated  
1746 with increased transports across the Danish straits which leads to an increase in Baltic mean sea level. The  
1747 correlations between sea level height and westerly wind are higher in the eastern and northern parts and lower in  
1748 the southern and western parts of the Baltic Sea. Westerly winds in the region became more intense until the early  
1749 1990s, but have weakened somewhat thereafter (Feser et al., 2015). Over longer periods, no significant long-term  
1750 trend is detected (Feser et al., 2015).

1751  
1752 The Baltic mean sea level shows a pronounced seasonal cycle with a minimum in spring and maxima in late  
1753 summer (in 1900-1930) or winter (in 1970-1998). According to Hünicke and Zorita (2008), the amplitude of the  
1754 seasonal cycle increased over the 20th century. Other authors found different periods without systematic long-term  
1755 trends (Barbosa and Donner, 2016) or even regional decreases (Männikus et al., 2020).

1756  
1757 Baltic sea level extremes are caused by strong atmospheric cyclones, or more seldom by wind-induced  
1758 meteotsunamis (Pellikka et al., 2020) and seiches (Neumann, 1941; Wübbler and Krauss, 1979). Cyclones are  
1759 associated with strong winds that cause coastal storm surges over one or two days, and if their pathway is aligned  
1760 along the west-east direction, cyclones may also increase the total volume of the Baltic Sea over one week by  
1761 pushing in water masses from the North Sea into the Baltic Sea. Coastal storm surges can then reach 20 cm above  
1762 the spatially averaged level (Weisse and Weidemann, 2017), in the eastern Gulf of Finland in Neva Bay even more.  
1763 Extreme sea levels over a predefined threshold become more frequent with rising mean sea level (Pindsoo and  
1764 Soomere, 2020). In addition, model results and analysis of observations indicate that atmospheric forcing is  
1765 responsible for the long-term increases in storm surges in some localized areas of the eastern Baltic Sea (Ribeiro  
1766 et al., 2014). The presence of sea-ice impedes the development of extreme sea levels by shielding the ocean surface  
1767 from forcing by the wind, and coastal ice protects the coast from erosion by extreme sea levels.

1768  
1769 Storm surges caused by strong onshore winds represent a substantial hazard for the low-lying parts of the Baltic  
1770 Sea coast, in particular, the southwestern parts (Wolski et al., 2014), the Gulf of Finland (e.g. Suursaar and Sooäär,  
1771 2016), the Gulf of Riga (e.g. Männikus et al., 2019), and the Gulf of Bothnia (Averkiev and Klevanny, 2010).  
1772 Highest surges were reported for the Gulf of Finland (about 4 m in 1824) and the western Baltic Sea (more than 3  
1773 m in 1871, Wolski and Wiśniewski, 2020). For the Gulf of Riga and the western Baltic Sea values around 2 and  
1774 1-1.5 m are frequent, respectively (Wolski and Wiśniewski, 2020). Hundred-year storm surges are higher (up to  
1775 2.4 m) at the inner end of the basins, furthest away from the Baltic proper, than in center of the Baltic Sea (up to  
1776 1.2 m). No consistent long-term trend for an increase in extreme sea levels relative to the mean sea level of the  
1777 Baltic Sea has been found, in agreement with earlier assessments (BACC II Author Team, 2015). This finding is  
1778 supported by paleoclimate model studies that show no influence on extremes sea levels in the North Sea in warmer  
1779 climate periods compared to colder periods (Lang and Mikolajewicz, 2019), and by recent studies of sea level  
1780 records that suggest a pronounced decadal to multidecadal variability in storm surges relative to the mean sea level  
1781 (Marcos et al., 2015; Marcos and Woodworth, 2017; Wahl and Chambers, 2016). Although (Ribeiro et al., 2014)  
1782 argued for an increase in annual maximum sea level during 1916-2005, especially in the northern Baltic Sea, and  
1783 attributed the trends to changes in wind, these results were likely affected by the long-term internal variability.



1784 Furthermore, extreme sea level in the Gulf of Finland, especially in Neva Bay, are very sensitive to the position of  
1785 storm tracks (Suursaar and Sooäär, 2007).

#### 1786 **3.2.5.5 Waves**

1787 Instrumental wave measurements in the Baltic Sea have been made since the 1970s, first as measurement  
1788 campaigns and since the 1990s as continuous monitoring (e.g. Broman et al., 2006; Tuomi et al., 2011). As the  
1789 spatial coverage of wave measurements is still quite sparse, and there are long-term data from few locations only,  
1790 wave hindcasts have become a valuable tool for estimating the Baltic Sea wave climate (e.g. Björkqvist et al.,  
1791 2018). Lately, satellite altimeter measurements have been used to estimate the changes in the Baltic Sea wave  
1792 climate (Kudryavtseva and Soomere, 2017).

1793

1794 Hindcast studies (e.g. Räämet and Soomere, 2010; Tuomi et al., 2011; Björkqvist et al., 2020) are in good  
1795 agreement, and estimate the annual mean significant wave height (SWH) at 0.5-1.5 m in the open sea areas of the  
1796 Baltic Sea. Wave growth in the Baltic Sea is hampered by the shape and small size of the basins. The highest mean  
1797 values are recorded in the Baltic proper, with the longest and widest fetches. The gulfs have less severe wave  
1798 climates (Björkqvist et al., 2020). In addition, wave growth in the northern Baltic Sea in winter is limited by the  
1799 seasonal ice cover, leading to considerably lower mean and maximum values of SWH in the northernmost Gulf of  
1800 Bothnia and the easternmost Gulf of Finland.

1801

1802 Although the measurement and hindcast periods have so far been quite short, some studies have also analyzed  
1803 trends in Baltic Sea SWH. For example, Soomere and Räämet (2011) and Kudryavtseva and Soomere (2017)  
1804 suggest an increasing trend in SWH since the 1990s, but results are site-specific and so far rather inconclusive.

1805

1806 The seasonal wave climate is driven by the wind climate. The highest mean and maximum values of SWH are  
1807 reached in autumn and winter, while summer typically has the mildest wave climate. In sub-basins with long ice  
1808 season and large ice extent, such as the Bothnian Bay, the seasonal variation in the SWH is slightly different, since  
1809 waves are damped by the ice.

1810

1811 So far the Northern Baltic proper (NBP) holds the record measured value of Baltic SWH. In December 2004 a  
1812 SWH of 8.2 m was measured by the NBP wave buoy, with a highest individual wave of c. 14 m (Tuomi et al.,  
1813 2011; Björkqvist et al., 2018). As the spatial coverage of the wave measurements has increased and milder ice  
1814 winters have allowed late autumn and even winter measurements also in the northern parts of the Baltic Sea, 8 m  
1815 SWH has been measured also in the Bothnian Sea, in January 2019. Björkqvist et al. (2020) estimated a return  
1816 period of 104 years for this event in the present climate. Hindcast statistics have suggested that even higher  
1817 maximum values between 9.5 – 10.5 m may occur in areas and times for which wave buoy measurements are not  
1818 available (Soomere et al., 2008; Tuomi et al., 2011; Björkqvist et al., 2018).

#### 1819 **3.2.5.6 Sedimentation and coastal erosion**

1820 The Glacial Isostatic Adjustment and eustatic sea level change impose a first-order control on Baltic Sea coastal  
1821 landscape change (Harff et al., 2007). In the subsiding southern Baltic Sea region, wind-driven coastal currents



1822 and waves are the major drivers for erosion and sedimentation, especially along the sandy and clayey sections of  
1823 sandy beaches, dunes and soft moraine cliffs (Zhang et al., 2015; Harff et al., 2017).

1824

1825 Owing to spatial variation in aero- and hydrodynamic conditions (winds, waves and longshore currents) and  
1826 underlying geological structure (lithology, sediment composition), a diversity of morphological patterns have  
1827 developed along the Baltic Sea coast. Because of the dominant westerly winds that blow 60% of the year (Zhang  
1828 et al., 2011) and a sheltering by land in the west, wind-waves are larger in the south-eastern Baltic Sea than in the  
1829 south-western. As a result, sediment transport and dune development are more active and dynamic along the south-  
1830 eastern coast. Thus, the largest coastal dunes are found along the Polish coast, with wave length >100 m and height  
1831 > 20 m (Ludwig, 2017), while dunes along the German coast normally have wave length less than 60 m and height  
1832 below 6 m (e.g. Lampe and Lampe, 2018) . Under conditions favorable for wind-driven sand accumulation along  
1833 sandy Baltic Sea coasts, a typical cross-shore profile features one or several foredune ridges, generally with a  
1834 height of between 3 and 12 m above the mean sea level (Zhang et al., 2015; Łabuz et al., 2018). At the backshore  
1835 behind the established foredune ridges, drifting or stabilized dunes in transgressive forms, mainly parabolic or  
1836 barchanoid types, are commonly developed. The source of sediment for dune development includes fluvio-glacial  
1837 sands from eroded cliffs, river-discharged sands, and older eroded dunes (Łabuz, 2015).

1838

1839 Because the wind-wave energy increases from west to east, so does erosion along the Baltic Sea coast. The mean  
1840 annual erosional rate of the soft moraine cliffs and sandy dunes along the north side of the southwestern Baltic Sea  
1841 coast (southern Sweden and Denmark) is 1-2 m, larger than 0.4-1 m along the south side of the southwestern Baltic  
1842 Sea coast (Germany). Erosion along the southern Baltic Sea coast increases eastward, with a mean annual rate of  
1843 0.5-1.5 m in Poland, and 0.5-4 m in Latvia, Lithuania and Russia (BACC II Author Team, 2015). Severe coastal  
1844 erosion in the Baltic Sea region is often caused by storms. The maximal storm-induced erosion increases eastward  
1845 from 2-3 m year<sup>-1</sup> at the southwestern Baltic Sea coast (southern Sweden, Denmark and Germany) to 3-6 m year<sup>-1</sup>  
1846 along the Polish coast, and ~10 m year<sup>-1</sup> along the coast of Lithuania and Russia (Kaliningrad). Each storm can  
1847 erode soft Latvian cliffs 3–6 m, with a maximum of up to 20–30 m locally. Many sandy beaches along the Gulf of  
1848 Finland have recently been severely damaged by frequent storm surges, despite extensive protective measures  
1849 (BACC II Author Team, 2015).

1850

1851 The prevailing wind-wave pattern controls the spatial variations of not only coastline change rates but also  
1852 submarine morphologies (Deng et al., 2019). In the southwestern Baltic Sea coast where wind-wave energy is  
1853 relatively small, nearshore submarine morphology is generally featured by smooth transition from beach-  
1854 dunes/moraine cliffs to deeper water perturbed by one or two longshore bars. Morphological perturbations (e.g.  
1855 the number and amplitude of longshore bars and rip current channels) become increasingly larger toward the east  
1856 due to increased wind-wave energy. The wave incidence angle also impacts the nearshore submarine morphology,  
1857 with in general a smaller angle leading to a larger morphological heterogeneity, i.e. a larger amplitude of  
1858 perturbations. The amplitude of nearshore morphological perturbations may significantly affect coastal erosion  
1859 because rip currents act as efficient conduit for offshore sediment transport, despite that they only occur  
1860 sporadically along the Baltic Sea coast (Schönhofer and Dudkowska, 2021).

1861



1862 The sediments eroded from the soft moraine cliffs are composed of grain sizes from clay to pebbles. The fine-  
1863 grained sediments are mostly transported outwards to the deeper seafloor (i.e. the Baltic Sea basins), either  
1864 suspended in the water column or in a concentrated benthic fluffy layer (Emeis et al., 2002). Eroded fine-grained  
1865 sediments from the moraine cliffs have been found to contribute to a major portion (40-70%) of the Holocene  
1866 deposits in the muddy Baltic Sea basins (Porz et al., 2021). Coarser material, such as sands, stays mostly nearshore,  
1867 partly in the water, partly transported onto the beach and the dunes (Deng et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2015).

### 1868 **3.2.5.7 Marine carbonate system and biogeochemistry**

1869 Studies summarized in BACC II showed that nitrate and phosphate concentrations in winter surface water of the  
1870 Baltic proper had increased by a factor of about three in the second half of the twentieth century, and reached a  
1871 peak between 1980 and 1990. This change was consistent with the enhanced nutrients inputs to the Baltic Sea and  
1872 caused eutrophication in the affected basin. Based on the available CO<sub>2</sub> system data, it has been estimated that the  
1873 net ecosystem production in the Baltic Sea has increased since the 1930s by a factor of about 2.5. Increase in net  
1874 ecosystem production and poor ventilation of the deep water layers due to the permanent stratification of the water  
1875 column caused significant expansion of the anoxic and hypoxic areas in the Baltic Sea. Since the 1980s, nutrients  
1876 inputs to the Baltic Sea have decreased. This led to a decrease in winter surface-water nitrate concentrations. No  
1877 decrease was, however, observed for phosphate, due to the long residence time of P in the Baltic Sea and reduced  
1878 P storage in oxygen-deficient sediments by binding to Fe-oxyhydroxides.

#### 1879 **3.2.5.7.1 Oxygen and nutrients**

1880 In the Baltic Sea, hypoxia (oxygen deficiency) and even anoxia has expanded considerably since the first oxygen  
1881 measurements in 1898 (Gustafsson et al., 2012; Carstensen et al., 2014a; Fig. 25). In 2016, the maximum hypoxia  
1882 area was about 70,000 km<sup>2</sup>, almost the combined area of Belgium and the Netherlands, whereas it was presumably  
1883 very small or even absent 150 years ago (Carstensen et al., 2014b; Carstensen et al., 2014a; Meier et al., 2019c;  
1884 2019d). Hypoxia was caused mainly by increasing land nutrient inputs and atmospheric deposition that led to  
1885 eutrophication of the Baltic Sea (Andersen et al., 2017; Savchuk, 2018). The impacts of other drivers like observed  
1886 warming and eustatic sea level rise were smaller, but still important (Carstensen et al., 2014a; Meier et al., 2019c).  
1887 On annual to decadal time scales, halocline variations also had considerable influence on the hypoxic area (Conley  
1888 et al., 2002; Väli et al., 2013).

1889  
1890 Besides its detrimental effects on biota, hypoxia is responsible for the redox alterations of nitrogen and phosphorus  
1891 integral stocks reaching in the Baltic proper hundreds of thousand tonnes annually: the DIN pool is being depleted  
1892 by denitrification, while the DIP pool increases due to phosphate release in the water and sediment anoxic  
1893 environments (e.g. Savchuk, 2010; 2018 and references therein). Resulting changes of nitrate and phosphate  
1894 concentrations at the upper boundary of the halocline affect also neighboring gulfs, exporting to the Bothnian Sea  
1895 and Gulf of Finland waters with elevated phosphorus concentration (Rolff and Elfving, 2015; Lehtoranta et al.,  
1896 2017; Savchuk, 2018).

1897  
1898 Despite the decrease of land nutrient inputs after the 1980s, the extent of hypoxia in the Baltic Sea remains  
1899 unaltered. This is due to the long response time of the system to reductions in N and P inputs. According to recent  
1900 computations, the residence times for TN and TP in the water and sediments of the Baltic Sea combined are 9 and





1901 49 years, respectively (Gustafsson et al., 2017; Savchuk, 2018). Furthermore, recently observed oxygen  
1902 consumption rates in the Baltic Sea are higher than earlier observed, shortening oxygen relieves from natural  
1903 ventilation by oxygen-rich saltwater intrusions from the North Sea (Meier et al., 2018b). Although sediments are  
1904 still the most important sinks of oxygen in the Baltic Sea, the increased rates of oxygen consumption was largely  
1905 driven by water column processes with, for instance, bacterial nitrification as the most prominent. Also  
1906 zooplankton and higher trophic level respiration were suggested to contribute more to oxygen consumption than  
1907 30 years ago (Meier et al., 2018b). However, the importance of the latter processes is still unknown. The present  
1908 total oxygen consumption rate in the water column below 60 m depth in the Baltic proper, Gulf of Riga and Gulf  
1909 of Finland is estimated to be about five times that in the period 1850-1950 (Meier et al., 2018b).

1910

1911 Hypoxia remains an important problem also in the Baltic Sea coastal zone (Conley et al., 2011). Coastal hypoxia  
1912 most often has episodic or temporary character and is driven by the seasonal variations in organic matter supply,  
1913 advective transports and water column stratification (Carstensen and Conley, 2019). The latter is mostly caused  
1914 by seasonal temperature changes, but may in some areas be due to occasional inflows of saltier water and lower  
1915 winds during summer, changing the vertical stratification. The coastal regions most affected by hypoxia are  
1916 estuaries in the Danish straits and parts of Swedish and Finnish archipelagos located in the Baltic proper and Gulf  
1917 of Bothnia (Conley et al., 2011). In contrast, hypoxia is rare along the southern and south-eastern coastline (from  
1918 Poland to Estonia) due to enhanced water circulation as well as in the less productive coastal zone of the northern  
1919 Baltic Sea. Despite the recently reduced nutrient inputs, bottom water oxygen concentrations have improved only  
1920 in a few coastal ecosystems that have experienced the largest reductions (for instance in the Stockholm  
1921 Archipelago). In most of the 33 coastal sites, evaluated by Caballero-Alfonso et al. (2015), oxygen conditions have  
1922 deteriorated, especially along the Danish and Finnish coasts. This finding was explained as a coupled effect of  
1923 climate changes, especially warming, which reduces oxygen solubility in water and strengthens thermal  
1924 stratification as well as a delay of the system in responding to nutrient reduction.

1925

1926 N and P are removed from the Baltic Sea by burial in sediments, but much N is also lost by denitrification  
1927 (Gustafsson et al., 2017). Coastal regions constitute an efficient nutrient filter (Almroth-Rosell et al., 2016; Asmala  
1928 et al., 2017) that remove about 16% of N (by denitrification) and as much as 53% of P (by burial) delivered from  
1929 land (Asmala et al., 2017). The filter effect of the coastal zone is, however, highly diverse. Denitrification rates  
1930 are highest in lagoons that receive large inputs of nitrate and labile organic material, while P is most efficiently  
1931 buried in archipelagos (Carstensen et al., 2020). Additionally, Hoikkala et al. (2015) argued that dissolved organic  
1932 matter (DOM) plays an important role for nutrient cycling in the Baltic Sea, since more than 25% of bioavailable  
1933 nutrients in riverine inputs and surface waters can be in organic form.

1934

1935 Furthermore, the exchange of nutrients between the coastal zone and the open sea (Eilola et al., 2012) and the role  
1936 of MBIs for the phosphorus cycling (Eilola et al., 2014) were analyzed. Eilola et al. (2014) concluded that the  
1937 overall impact of MBIs on the annual uplift of nutrients from below the halocline to the surface waters is small  
1938 because vertical transports are comparably large also during periods without MBIs. Instead, phosphorus released  
1939 from the sediments between 60 and 100 m depth in the eastern Gotland Basin contributes to the eutrophication,  
1940 especially in the coastal regions of the eastern Baltic proper.

1941



1942 The cycling between nutrients and phytoplankton biomass was studied by Hieronymus et al. (2018) who found a  
1943 regime shift between nutrient-limited phytoplankton variations before 1950 and a less nutrient-limited regime after  
1944 1950, with a larger impact of other variations such as those in water temperature.

#### 1945 **3.2.5.7.2 Marine CO<sub>2</sub> system**

1946 The marine CO<sub>2</sub> system in the Baltic Sea is greatly influenced by the production and remineralization of organic  
1947 matter, as well as inputs of organic and inorganic carbon from land (Kuliński et al., 2017). The combination of all  
1948 these factors makes Baltic Sea pH and partial pressure of CO<sub>2</sub> (pCO<sub>2</sub>) highly variable in space and time (Carstensen  
1949 and Duarte, 2019). The Baltic Sea surface water is in almost permanent pCO<sub>2</sub> disequilibrium with the atmosphere  
1950 throughout the year (Schneider and Müller, 2018). In spring and summer, the surface seawater is undersaturated  
1951 with respect to atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, as a consequence of biological production and the shallowing mixed layer depth.  
1952 Thus, seawater pCO<sub>2</sub> typically has two minima corresponding to the spring bloom and the mid-summer nitrogen  
1953 fixation period. In autumn and winter, pCO<sub>2</sub> increases due to shifting balance between autotrophy and heterotrophy  
1954 and entrainment of deeper CO<sub>2</sub>-rich waters.

1955

1956 Remineralization of terrestrial organic matter plays an important role in shaping pCO<sub>2</sub> fields in the Baltic Sea.  
1957 Kuliński et al. (2016) found that about 20% of the dissolved organic carbon (DOC) delivered from the Vistula and  
1958 Odra rivers is bioavailable, while Gustafsson et al. (2014) even estimated that 56% of allochthonous (originating  
1959 outside the Baltic Sea) DOC is remineralized in the Baltic Sea. High inputs of terrestrial organic matter that is  
1960 subsequently partially remineralized in seawater turned the basins most affected by riverine runoff (Gulf of  
1961 Bothnia, Gulf of Finland, Gulf of Riga) to net CO<sub>2</sub> sources to the atmosphere in the period 1980-2005. This  
1962 outgassing was more than compensated by the high CO<sub>2</sub> uptake in the open Baltic proper. In 1980-2005, the whole  
1963 Baltic Sea was found to be on average a minor sink for atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, absorbing  $4.3 \pm 3.9 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , with  
1964 the rate of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> exchange highly sensitive to the inputs of terrestrial organic matter (Gustafsson et al.,  
1965 2014).

1966

1967 The high seasonal variability of pCO<sub>2</sub>, enhanced by eutrophication, causes large seasonal fluctuations in surface  
1968 water pH, amounting to about 0.5 in the central Baltic Sea (Kuliński et al., 2017) and even more, often exceeding  
1969 1, in productive coastal ecosystems (Carstensen and Duarte, 2019; Stokowski et al., 2021). Furthermore, low total  
1970 alkalinity (A<sub>T</sub>, measures buffer capacity), prominent in the northern basins, makes the Baltic Sea potentially  
1971 vulnerable to Ocean Acidification (OA), i.e. pH decrease caused by rising pCO<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere and thus also  
1972 in seawater. However, Müller et al. (2016) showed that A<sub>T</sub> in the Baltic Sea has increased over time, which may  
1973 partly be due to increasing inputs from land (Duarte et al., 2013). The highest trend,  $7.0 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , found in  
1974 the Gulf of Bothnia, almost entirely mitigates the pH drop expected from rising pCO<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere alone. In  
1975 the southern Baltic Sea, the A<sub>T</sub> increase is lower ( $3.4 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) and reduces OA by about half. High seasonal  
1976 pH variability, increasing A<sub>T</sub> and variable productivity imply that OA is not measurable in the central and northern  
1977 Baltic Sea. In the Danish Straits, where no A<sub>T</sub> increase has been detected (Müller et al., 2016), a mean pH decrease  
1978 of  $0.004 \text{ yr}^{-1}$  was identified in coastal waters in the period of 1972-2016 (Carstensen et al., 2018), approximately  
1979 twice the ocean trend.

1980



1981 Recent studies showed that the Baltic Sea CO<sub>2</sub> system functions differently from the open ocean waters. These  
1982 differences include a large CO<sub>2</sub> input from remineralization of terrestrial organic matter (Gustafsson et al., 2014),  
1983 a considerable contribution by organic alkalinity (Kuliński et al., 2014; Ulfsbo et al., 2015; Hammer et al., 2017),  
1984 A<sub>T</sub> generation under hypoxic and anoxic conditions (Gustafsson et al., 2019; Łukawska-Matuszewska and Graca,  
1985 2018), and a borate-alkalinity anomaly (Kuliński et al., 2018), making modeling a challenge. Due to the insufficient  
1986 understanding of the processes involved, state-of-the-art biogeochemical models cannot yet reproduce the positive  
1987 A<sub>T</sub> trend in the Baltic Sea.

## 1988 **3.2.6 Marine biosphere**

### 1989 **3.2.6.1 Pelagic habitats**

#### 1990 **3.2.6.1.1 Microbial communities**

1991 Microbial communities respond to increases in sea surface temperature and river runoff that enhance metabolism  
1992 and augment the amount of substrate available for bacteria. By using long time-series from 1994 to 2006, increased  
1993 input of riverine dissolved organic matter (DOM) in the Bothnian Bay and Bothnian Sea was shown to suppress  
1994 phytoplankton biomass production and shift the carbon flow towards microbial heterotrophy (Wikner and  
1995 Andersson, 2012; Paczkowska et al., 2020). (Berner et al., 2018) presented further evidence of changes in marine  
1996 microbial communities.

#### 1997 **3.2.6.1.2 Phytoplankton and cyanobacteria**

1998 The phytoplankton growing season has become considerably prolonged in recent decades (Kahru et al., 2016;  
1999 Groetsch et al., 2016; Hjerne et al., 2019; Wasmund et al., 2019). In the Baltic proper, the duration of the growing  
2000 season arbitrarily indicated by a threshold of 3 mg Chl m<sup>-3</sup> of a satellite-derived chlorophyll has doubled from  
2001 approximately 110 days in 1998 to 220 days in 2013 (Kahru et al., 2016). In the western Baltic Sea, it now extends  
2002 from February to December (Wasmund et al., 2019). Wasmund et al. (2019) analyzed data on chlorophyll a and  
2003 microscopically determined biomass from 1988-2017 and found an earlier start of the growing season, which  
2004 correlated with a slight increase in sunshine duration in spring, and a later end to the growing season, which  
2005 correlated with warmer water in autumn. The shifts in the spring and autumn blooms led to a prolongation of the  
2006 summer biomass minimum. However, time series were rather short (30 years) and trends in irradiance might be  
2007 caused by internal variability (see Section 3.2.1.3). The spring phytoplankton communities have shifted from a  
2008 preponderance of early-blooming diatoms to dominance by later-blooming dinoflagellates (Wasmund, 2017;  
2009 Wasmund et al., 2017) and the autotrophic ciliate *Mesodinium rubrum* (Klais et al., 2011; Hällfors et al., 2013;  
2010 Hjerne et al., 2019), perhaps due to reduced ice thickness and increased winter wind-speed since the 1970s (Klais  
2011 et al., 2013). Wasmund (2017) suggested that the decline in the ratio between diatom and dinoflagellate biomasses  
2012 between 1984 and 1991 was caused by warmer winters. Confidence in these results is, however, low.

2013  
2014 In summer, the amount of cyanobacteria has increased and the phytoplankton biomass maximum, which in the  
2015 1980s was in spring, is now in July-August. This shift has been explained by a complex interaction between  
2016 warming, eutrophication and increased top-down pressure (Suikkanen et al., 2013). There are, however, different  
2017 opinions concerning the relative effects of eutrophication and climate on changes in phytoplankton biomass and  
2018 community composition. In the long-term data, results vary according to area and species group (Wasmund et al.,



2019 2011; Groetsch et al., 2016). Some studies saw evidence of eutrophication effects, modified by climate-induced  
2020 variations in temperature and salinity (Hällfors et al., 2013; Olofsson et al., 2020). Others found no explanation  
2021 for the gradual change in community composition, and concluded that the Baltic Sea phytoplankton community is  
2022 not in a steady state (Olli et al., 2011; Griffiths et al., 2020).

2023

2024 Cyanobacteria accumulations derived from satellite data for 1979-2018 show both short-term (two to three year)  
2025 oscillations and decadal-scale variations (Kahru and Elmgren, 2014; Kahru et al., 2018; Kahru et al., 2020).  
2026 Cyanobacteria accumulations in the Baltic proper were common in the 1970s and early 1980s, but rare during  
2027 1985–1990. They increased again starting in 1991 and, especially since 1998. In the 1980s, the annual chlorophyll  
2028 maximum in the Baltic proper was caused by the spring diatom bloom, but has in recent decades shifted to the  
2029 summer cyanobacteria bloom in July; the timing of this bloom has also advanced by about 20 days, from the end  
2030 to the beginning of July (Kahru et al., 2016).

2031

2032 In the Baltic proper, the hypoxia-induced decrease in N:P ratio and increase of phosphate pool left over in the  
2033 surface layer after the spring bloom led to intensification of the “vicious circle” (Vahtera et al., 2007), further  
2034 augmented by increasing water temperature, and resulted in conspicuous expansion of the surface diazotrophic  
2035 cyanobacteria accumulations, covering in the 21<sup>st</sup> century 150-200 thousand square kilometers (e.g. Kahru and  
2036 Elmgren, 2014; Savchuk, 2018, and references therein). Although mechanisms of the interannual oscillations of  
2037 two to three years remain unexplained (Kahru et al., 2018), there is a strong correlation of the accumulations with  
2038 hypoxia-related biogeochemical variables and water temperature at the decadal scale of five to twenty years (Kahru  
2039 et al., 2020). In the Bothnia Sea, the decreased nitrogen import and increased phosphorus import from the Baltic  
2040 proper has shifted the nutrient balance and made cyanobacteria accumulations a permanent feature (Kahru and  
2041 Elmgren, 2014; Kuosa et al., 2017) and probably also increased production and sedimentation (Ahlgren et al.,  
2042 2017; Kahru et al., 2018; Kahru et al., 2020; Kuosa et al., 2017; Lehtoranta et al., 2017; Rolff and Elfving, 2015;  
2043 Savchuk, 2010; Vahtera et al., 2007).

2044

2045 Experimental evidence supports the idea that climate change can and will drive changes in the pelagic primary  
2046 production (Sommer et al., 2012), and a thorough review of benthic-pelagic coupling in the Baltic Sea  
2047 demonstrates ecosystem-wide consequences of altered pelagic primary production (Griffiths et al., 2017).

#### 2048 **3.2.6.1.3 Zooplankton**

2049 Several studies have confirmed that marine copepod species have declined in abundance since the 1980s, while  
2050 euryhaline or limnetic, often small species have increased (Hänninen et al., 2015; Suikkanen et al., 2013; Kortsch  
2051 et al., 2021). The observed decline of marine taxa has been linked to the reduction in surface-water salinity since  
2052 the 1980s (Vuorinen et al., 2015), whereas the increase of brackish-water taxa has been positively influenced by  
2053 the temperature increase, directly or indirectly (Mäkinen et al., 2017). Small-scale effects on individual species  
2054 may affect reproductive success, and hence influence both populations and communities (Möller et al., 2015).



2055 **3.2.6.2 Benthic habitats**

2056 **3.2.6.2.1 Macroalgae and vascular plants**

2057 Long-term changes in Baltic Sea macroalgae and charophytes have been attributed to changes in salinity, wind  
2058 exposure, nutrient availability and water transparency (Gubelit, 2015; Blindow et al., 2016; Rinne and Salovius-  
2059 Laurén, 2020), and biotic interactions may also play a role (Haavisto and Jormalainen, 2014; Korpinen et al.,  
2060 2007). The long-term decrease of water transparency from 1936 to 2017 has been estimated to have reduced sea  
2061 floor areas in the northern Baltic Sea favorable for *Fucus* spp. by 45% (Sahla et al., 2020). Overall, it is expected  
2062 that climate change and its interaction with other environmental factors (e.g. eutrophication) will cause complex  
2063 responses and influence carbon storage in both macroalgae and vascular plants in the Baltic Sea (Jonsson et al.,  
2064 2018; Takolander et al., 2017; Röhr et al., 2016; Perry et al., 2019; Salo et al., 2020; Bobsien et al., 2021).

2065 **3.2.6.2.2 Zoobenthos**

2066 Soft-sediment benthic communities depend on variables that are influenced by climatic variability. On the south-  
2067 western coast of Finland, amphipods have been replaced by Baltic clam *Limecola balthica* and the invasive  
2068 polychaetes *Marenzelleria* spp., a change attributed to an increase in near-bottom temperature and fluctuations in  
2069 salinity and oxygen (Rousi et al., 2013). Variations of zoobenthos in the Åland archipelago during 1983-2012 were  
2070 associated with a salinity decline (Snickars et al., 2015), and effects related to climate change have acted as drivers  
2071 for the long-term progression of zoobenthic communities (Rousi et al., 2019; Weigel et al., 2015; Ehrnsten et al.,  
2072 2020).

2073 **3.2.6.3 Non-indigenous species**

2074 Numerous non-indigenous species have gained a stronghold in the Baltic Sea ecosystem during the past few  
2075 decades, and in many cases these species have wider tolerance-ranges than the native ones, thus making them  
2076 highly competitive under changing climate including warmer, and possibly less saline water, further impacted by  
2077 other drivers such as eutrophication. The ecological impacts of these species may vary from filling vacant  
2078 ecological niches to potentially outcompeting native species, and thus influencing the entire food web structure  
2079 and functioning (Weigel et al., 2015; Griffiths et al., 2017; Ojaveer et al., 2017).

2080 **3.2.6.4 Fish**

2081 Sprat and herring in the Baltic Sea are influenced by multiple factors, including fisheries, predation, food  
2082 availability and climatic variations. Sprat has benefited from the seawater warming (Voss et al., 2011). In 1990-  
2083 2020, sprat populations were affected both by climate and top-down control, i.e. fisheries and predation by cod  
2084 (Eero et al., 2016). In the 1980s, overfishing and a partly climate change-induced decline in suitable spawning  
2085 habitat, ‘reproductive volume’, interacted to drastically reduce the cod population (Hinrichsen et al., 2011; Casini  
2086 et al., 2016), with cascade effects on its main prey, sprat and herring, as well as zooplankton (Casini et al., 2008).  
2087

2088 The various effects of temperature and salinity on sprat and cod also resulted in a spatial mismatch between these  
2089 species, which contributed to an increase of sprat stocks (Reusch et al., 2018). The freshening of the Baltic Sea  
2090 surface water, with the associated decline in marine copepods (Hänninen et al., 2015), contributed to a halving of  
2091 weight-at-age of 3-year old herring, from 50–70 g in the late 1970s to 25–30 g in 2000s (Dippner et al., 2019).



2092

2093 Among coastal fish, pikeperch (*Sander lucioperca*) has recently expanded its distribution northwards along the  
2094 coasts of the Bothnian Sea, apparently aided by warmer waters (Pekcan-Hekim et al., 2011). For many coastal  
2095 piscivores (perch, pike, pike-perch), as well as for cyprinids, coastal eutrophication is, however, equally or more  
2096 important than climate (Bergström et al., 2016; Snickars et al., 2015). Long-term studies illustrate that it is hard  
2097 to disentangle abiotic and biotic interactions, e.g. between fish and their food (benthos), and climate-related drivers  
2098 thus appear significant on a multidecadal time-scale across a large spatial scale (Törnroos et al., 2019).

### 2099 **3.2.6.5 Marine mammals**

2100 The breeding distributions of the ice-breeding seals in the Baltic Sea have evolved with ice coverage, with the  
2101 seals breeding where and when ice optimal for breeding occurs. Breeding ringed seals need ice throughout their  
2102 relatively long lactation period (>6 weeks), and also use ice as moulting habitat. Ringed seals prefer compact or  
2103 consolidated pack ice as it provides cavities and snowdrifts suitable for the construction of the lairs, most  
2104 importantly the breeding lair (Sundqvist et al., 2012).

2105

2106 Sea ice changes, along with implementation of specific management- and protection measures, have had a rapid  
2107 influence on the populations of several Baltic Sea mammal populations, in particular seals (Reusch et al., 2018).  
2108 Reusch et al. (2018) attributed these changes also to reduced exposure to harmful substances and increases in  
2109 overall fish stocks as a consequence of eutrophication (including reduced stocks of several commercial fish  
2110 species). Thus, specific climate change-related impacts on seals are hard to establish, although reconstructions of  
2111 distributional histories since the last glaciation have been attempted for some seal species (Ukkonen et al., 2014).

2112

2113 The availability of suitable breeding ice for ringed seals in the Bothnian Bay is decreasing (Section 3.2.4.4). The  
2114 breeding success of ringed seal was probably reduced by the exceptionally mild winter of 2007-2008 (Jüssi, 2012)  
2115 and several similar or even milder ice-winters have followed (Ilmatieteen laitos, 2020). The winters 2019–2020,  
2116 2007–2008 and 2014–2015 are the mildest in the annual ice cover statistics for the Baltic Sea (Uotila et al., 2015).  
2117 The southern breeding populations of the ringed seal in the Gulf of Finland, the Gulf of Riga and Archipelago Sea  
2118 are already facing the challenges of milder winters: the ice covered area during the breeding season has been  
2119 reduced and overlying snow for breeding lairs has been absent from the southern areas of the ringed seal breeding  
2120 range in most winters of the past decade (Ilmatieteen laitos, 2020). Thus, the only available breeding ice in the  
2121 Gulf of Finland in 2020 was found very near St. Petersburg (Halkka, 2020).

2122

2123 For grey seals, the lower availability of suitable breeding ice in its core distribution area has led to more breeding  
2124 on land in areas where drift ice used to be found (Jüssi et al., 2008). Grey seals are known to gather to breed in  
2125 certain sea areas regardless of the winter severity, so some land colonies may become overpopulated. As an  
2126 example, in 2016, 3,000 grey seal pups were born on three islets in the northern Gulf of Riga.

2127

2128 Flooding of seal haul-outs due to sea level rise will first occur in the southernmost Baltic Sea, where relative sea  
2129 level rise will be most rapid (EEA, 2019c), and haul-out sites are mainly low sand or shingle banks. In Kattegat,  
2130 relative sea level rise is estimated to be lower, and while the haul-outs in the western part are low sand and shingle  
2131 banks similar to those in the southern Baltic Sea, haul-outs in eastern Kattegat are skerries with a higher profile.



2132 In the central and northern Baltic Sea, haul-outs are mainly skerries and here relative sea level rise is estimated to  
2133 be low or even negative in the 21st century (EEA, 2019c). Yet, in recent history, winter storm surges have been  
2134 observed to flood grey seal breeding colonies and push limited ice with ringed seal pups onto shore in the Gulf of  
2135 Riga and Pärnu Bay. In the southern Baltic Sea and western Kattegat, increasing sea levels may turn parts of larger  
2136 islands or previously inhabited islands into suitable seal haul-outs, but this is hard to project and depends, among  
2137 other things, on the future management and protection of such areas.

2138

2139 Sea levels in the southern Baltic Sea have been rising at up to 3 mm year<sup>-1</sup> since the 1970s (EEA, 2019c) and the  
2140 available haul-out areas have thus seen reductions already. However, during this time, the relevant harbour and  
2141 grey seal populations have been recovering at high rates from past depletion (HELCOM, 2018b), with no  
2142 documented or suspected effects of rising sea levels published.

2143

2144 The only cetacean resident in the Baltic Sea, the harbour porpoise (*Phocoena phocoena*), is a wide-spread species  
2145 and seems to be rather tolerant of different temperatures as well as habitats. There are harbour porpoise populations  
2146 in the waters around Greenland as well as along the coast of the Iberian Peninsula, Morocco, West Sahara and in  
2147 the Black Sea. However, the Baltic proper harbour porpoise population has been shown to differ genetically (Lah  
2148 et al., 2016) and morphologically (Galatius et al., 2012) from neighbouring populations, which may imply local  
2149 adaptations that we are currently unaware of. Sea ice limits the range available to the Baltic proper harbour  
2150 porpoise population since they need to come to the surface to breathe every 1-5 minutes. Hence, a decreasing ice  
2151 cover is likely to increase the available range for the population. However, a change in the prey community  
2152 resulting from climate-change related factors could potentially have serious effects on this critically endangered  
2153 (Hammond et al., 2008) population of a small whale, which is dependent on constant access to prey (Wisniewska  
2154 et al., 2016).

#### 2155 **3.2.6.6 Waterbirds**

2156 The winter distribution of many waterbirds has extended northwards in response to the increase in temperature  
2157 and the decreasing extent of sea ice cover. This can be observed as an overall increase in winter abundance of  
2158 waterbirds, because part of the population of some species (mainly diving ducks) that formerly wintered further to  
2159 the southwest now remain in the Baltic Sea (Pavón-Jordán et al., 2019). Many species show decreasing trends in  
2160 abundance in the southern parts of their wintering ranges (typically in western and southern Europe) but increases  
2161 near the northern edge of their distribution, typically the Baltic Sea region (MacLean et al., 2008; Skov et al., 2011;  
2162 Aarvak et al., 2013; Lehikoinen et al., 2013; Pavón-Jordán et al., 2015; Nilsson and Haas, 2016; Marchowski et  
2163 al., 2017; Fox et al., 2019). Similar shifts are seen in species that traditionally wintered in the Baltic Sea, but  
2164 currently show declining wintering numbers there, as part of the population now winters in the White, Barents and  
2165 Kara seas (Fox et al., 2019).

2166

2167 Although the community composition changes rapidly, the changes are not fast enough to track the thermal isocline  
2168 shifts (Devictor et al., 2012; Gaget et al., 2021). How species respond to changes in winter temperature seems,  
2169 however, to be highly species- or group-specific (Pavón-Jordán et al., 2019). Many species now winter closer to  
2170 their breeding areas, shortening migration distances (Lehikoinen et al., 2006; Rainio et al., 2006; Gunnarsson et  
2171 al., 2012).



2172

2173 Mainly owing to milder spring temperatures and related effects on vegetation and prey, many waterbirds migrate  
2174 earlier in spring (Rainio et al., 2006), and hence arrive earlier in the breeding area (Vähätalo et al., 2004), and  
2175 some also start breeding earlier (van der Jeugd et al., 2009). Delayed autumn migrations have also been noted, but  
2176 their relation to climate change is less clear (Lehikoinen and Jaatinen, 2012).

2177

2178 Earlier loss of sea ice was found to improve pre-breeding body condition of female common eiders, leading to  
2179 increasing fledging success in offspring (Lehikoinen et al., 2006). On the other hand, algal blooms promoted by  
2180 higher seawater temperature has in some cases caused low quality in bivalve prey for common eiders, leading  
2181 more birds to skip breeding (Larsson et al., 2014). Warmer seawater in winter also increases the energy expenditure  
2182 of mussels, thus directly reducing their quality as prey for eiders (Waldeck and Larsson, 2013).

2183

2184 Most Baltic Sea waterbird species are migratory and affected by climate change also outside the Baltic Sea region,  
2185 in the Arctic (breeding season) and in southern Europe and western Africa (wintering; Fox et al., 2015). This is  
2186 important, given that climate warming is most pronounced in the Arctic and northern Eurasia and above average  
2187 also in southern Europe and northern Africa (Allen et al., 2018).

### 2188 **3.2.6.7 Marine food webs**

2189 The entire marine food web of the Baltic Sea has been greatly impacted by climate change-related drivers that  
2190 have altered the physical environment and the physiological tolerance limits of several species, by causing micro-  
2191 evolution of Baltic Sea species, and by interactive effects of climate change with other environmental drivers, such  
2192 as eutrophication and hypoxia/anoxia (Niiranen et al., 2013; Wikner and Andersson, 2012; Schmidt et al., 2020;  
2193 Pecuchet et al., 2020).

2194

2195 Integrated approaches encompassing all of the ecosystem-components discussed above, are needed in order to  
2196 understand and manage the linkages between large-scale and long-term changes driven by synergistic impacts of  
2197 over-arching climate change-related physical and chemical drivers in combination with other factors such as  
2198 eutrophication, which may complicate human adaptation to the changing marine ecosystem (Blenckner et al.,  
2199 2015; Stenseth et al., 2020; Bonsdorff, 2021).

## 2200 **3.3 Future climate change**

### 2201 **3.3.1 Atmosphere**

#### 2202 **3.3.1.1 Large-scale atmospheric circulation**

2203 In the future, the NAO is very likely to continue to exhibit large natural variations, similar to those observed in the  
2204 past. In response to global warming, it is likely to become slightly more positive on average (Knudsen et al., 2011).  
2205 Trends in the intensity and persistence of blocking remain uncertain (IPCC, 2014b). The AMO is expected to be  
2206 very sensitive even to weak global warming, shortening the time scale of its response and weakening in amplitude  
2207 (Wu et al., 2018; Wu and Liu, 2020). This will likely reduce the decadal variability of SSTs in the Northern  
2208 Hemisphere. Recent studies indicate a degree of decadal predictability for blocking and the NAO influenced by  
2209 the AMO (Athanasiadis et al., 2020; Wills et al., 2018; Jackson et al., 2015).





2210 **3.3.1.2 Air temperature**

2211 Table 7 lists the air temperature changes over the Baltic Sea catchment area and the Baltic Sea calculated from an  
2212 ensemble of regional coupled atmosphere-ocean simulations (Gröger et al., 2021b). Due to the ice/snow-albedo  
2213 feedback, warming is larger in winter than in summer, and the land is warming faster than the Baltic Sea (Fig.  
2214 26a). Due to its proximity to the Arctic, the Baltic Sea region including both land and sea is warming faster than  
2215 the global mean figures (Section 1.5.1.1). The surface air temperature increase is expected to be largest in the  
2216 northern Baltic Sea region especially in winter. These statements are true for both uncoupled atmosphere  
2217 (Christensen et al., 2021) and coupled atmosphere-ocean regional climate simulations (Gröger et al., 2019; Gröger  
2218 et al., 2021b).

2219

2220 For RCP2.6, the global annual mean surface air temperature change averaged over the simulations is 1.0°C. The  
2221 corresponding global changes for RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 are 1.9 and 3.5°C, respectively. Over land in the Baltic Sea  
2222 region, the warming is larger in each of the three scenarios, amounting to 1.5, 2.6 and 4.3°C, respectively (Table  
2223 7). Over the Baltic Sea, the increase is slightly smaller than over land (1.4, 2.4 and 3.9°C, respectively) but still  
2224 larger than the corresponding global mean increase in surface air temperature. The latter result was expected and  
2225 found in coupled atmosphere-ocean scenario simulations (Table 7), but not in all atmosphere-only runs  
2226 (Christensen et al., 2021).

2227

2228 *Extreme Air temperatures:*

2229 Changes in daily minimum and maximum temperatures have similar spatial patterns as the mean air temperature  
2230 changes, with the expected greater warming for minimum temperature (Christensen et al., 2021). According to  
2231 Christensen et al. (2021) and previous studies (BACC II Author Team, 2015), the latter result is explained by the  
2232 reduced outgoing long-wave radiation under increased greenhouse gas concentrations. The long-wave radiation  
2233 acts to cool the surface, especially when the ground is warmer than the air, e.g. during winter and during nights.  
2234 The number of hot spells are projected to increase, in particular in the southern Baltic Sea region (Gröger et al.,  
2235 2021b). In coupled atmosphere-ocean simulations, the strongest increases in the annual mean number of  
2236 consecutive days of tropical nights and the annual maximum number of tropical nights (with temperature above  
2237 20°C all night) in the Baltic Sea region were projected to occur over the open sea (Gröger et al., 2021b). In contrast,  
2238 projections of tropical nights with atmosphere-only models show no significant change (Gröger et al., 2021b;  
2239 Meier et al., 2019a). Due to the sea ice/snow albedo feedback, the largest decline in the number of frost days was  
2240 projected to occur over the northeastern Baltic Sea region, i.e. northern Scandinavia and adjacent northern Russia  
2241 (Gröger et al., 2021b).

2242 **3.3.1.3 Solar radiation and cloudiness**

2243 There are a few studies on projected future solar radiation over Europe. Global climate models of the CMIP5  
2244 generation indicated an increase in surface solar radiation, highest over southern Europe and decreasing towards  
2245 north, but still with a slight increase over the Baltic Sea (Bartók et al., 2017; Müller et al., 2019). However, some  
2246 regional climate models instead showed a decrease in surface solar radiation over the Baltic Sea area, in winter by  
2247 about 10% over most of the catchment (Bartók et al., 2017; Christensen et al., 2021). This change was largely  
2248 attributed to increasing future cloud-cover, due to a more zonal airflow, and was accompanied by increased winter



2249 precipitation. Thus, there are large differences in modelled surface solar radiation between global and regional  
2250 models (Bartók et al., 2017). Unknown future aerosol emissions add to the uncertainty.

2251

2252 Global mean energy balance components have improved with every new climate model generation. For the latest  
2253 CMIP6, models show good agreement for clear sky shortwave energy fluxes in today's climate, both between  
2254 models and compared to reference data (Wild et al., 2021). However, there are still substantial discrepancies among  
2255 the various CMIP6 models in their representation of several of the global annual mean energy balance components,  
2256 and the inter-model spread increases further on regional, seasonal and diurnal scales. Thus, future changes in solar  
2257 radiation and cloudiness remain highly uncertain, not least on the regional scale.

#### 2258 **3.3.1.4 Precipitation**

2259 Precipitation in winter and spring is projected to increase over the entire Baltic Sea catchment, while summer  
2260 precipitation is projected to increase in the northern half of the basin only (Christensen et al., 2021). In the south,  
2261 summer precipitation is projected to change very little, although with a large spread between different models  
2262 including both increases and decreases. The projected increase in the north is a rather robust feature among the  
2263 regional climate models but with a large spread in the amount. Ensemble mean precipitation changes from coupled  
2264 atmosphere-ocean simulations are summarized in Table 8. For the Baltic Sea catchment area, projected annual  
2265 mean precipitation changes for the three RCP scenarios amount to 5, 9 and 15% (Table 8) and are much larger  
2266 than global averages (Section 1.5.1.2). Over the Baltic Sea, the changes are similar than over the land area (6, 8  
2267 and 16%).

2268

2269 Expressed by the Clausius-Clapeyron equation, warming increases the potential for extreme precipitation due to  
2270 intensification of the hydrological cycle associated with the growth of atmospheric moisture content. For Northern  
2271 Europe, regional climate models indicate an overall increase in the frequency and intensity of heavy precipitation  
2272 events in all seasons and longer wet and dry spells (Christensen and Kjellström, 2018; Rajczak and Schär, 2017;  
2273 Christensen et al., 2021, and references therein). The largest increase in the number of high precipitation days is  
2274 projected for autumn. The number of drought events per year are expected to decrease, while their length is  
2275 expected to increase (Christensen and Kjellström, 2018). Changes in more extreme events, like 10-, 20- or 50-year  
2276 events, are less certain.

#### 2277 **3.3.1.5 Wind**

2278 In general, projected changes in wind speed over the Baltic Sea region are not robust among Earth System Models  
2279 (Kjellström et al., 2018; Gröger et al., 2021b). However, Ruosteenoja et al. (2019) found in CMIP5 projections a  
2280 slight but significant wind speed increase in autumn and a decrease in spring over Europe and the North Atlantic.  
2281 Furthermore, over sea areas where the ice cover is projected to diminish on average, such as the Bothnian Sea and  
2282 the eastern Gulf of Finland, the mean wind is projected to increase systematically because of a warmer sea surface  
2283 and reduced stability of the planetary boundary layer (Meier et al., 2011c; Gröger et al., 2021b; Räisänen, 2017).

2284

2285 Projection of the future behavior of extratropical cyclones are uncertain because changes in several drivers result  
2286 in opposite effects on cyclone activity. With global warming, the lower troposphere temperature gradient between  
2287 low and high latitudes decreases due to polar amplification. Near the tropopause and in the lower stratosphere, the



2288 opposite is true, thus implying changes in baroclinicity (Grise and Polvani, 2014; Shaw et al., 2016; Stendel et al.,  
2289 2021). An increase in water vapour enhances diabatic heating and tends to increase the intensity of extratropical  
2290 cyclones (Willison et al., 2015; Shaw et al., 2016) and contribute to their propagation further poleward (Tamarin-  
2291 Brodsky and Kaspi, 2017; Tamarin and Kaspi, 2017). The opposite is true in parts of the North Atlantic region,  
2292 e.g. south of Greenland. For this region the North-South gradient is increasing, as the weakest warming in the  
2293 entire Northern Hemisphere is over ocean areas south of Greenland. North of this local minimum the opposite is  
2294 true. The increase in the North-South gradient over the North Atlantic may be responsible for some Earth System  
2295 Models showing an intensification of the low pressure activity and thereby high wind speed over a region from  
2296 the British Isles and through parts of north-central Europe (Leckebusch and Ulbrich, 2004; Ulbrich et al., 2008).  
2297 These projections have been confirmed by (Harvey et al., 2012). They compared the ensemble storm track response  
2298 of CMIP3 and CMIP5 model simulations and found that both projections show an increase in storm activity in the  
2299 midlatitudes, with a smaller spread in the CMIP5 simulations. In contrast to CMIP3, the CMIP5 ensemble showed  
2300 a significant decrease in cyclone track density north of 60°N. Hence, pre-CMIP3 and CMIP3 studies showed a  
2301 clear poleward shift of the North Atlantic storm track (e.g. Fischer-Bruns et al., 2005; Yin, 2005; Bengtsson et al.,  
2302 2009), whereas the CMIP5 ensemble predicts only an eastward extension of the North Atlantic storm track (Zappa  
2303 et al., 2013). The newest generation of models from CMIP6 resulted in significant reduction of biases in storm  
2304 track representation compared to CMIP3 and CMIP5, but the response to climate change is quite similar compared  
2305 to the previous assessments (Harvey et al., 2020). The eastward extension of the North Atlantic storm track seems  
2306 to be a robust result as it is found in pre-CMIP3, CMIP3 and CMIP5 simulations (Feser et al., 2015).

2307

2308 In summary, there is no clear consensus among climate change projections in how changes in frequency and/or  
2309 intensity of extratropical cyclones will affect the Baltic Sea region (Räisänen, 2017). However, in future climate  
2310 the frequency of severe wind gusts in summer associated with thunderstorms may increase (Rädler et al., 2019).

### 2311 3.3.1.6 Air pollution, air quality and atmospheric nutrient deposition

2312 The main conclusions by the BACC II Author Team (2015) concerning projections of air quality in the Baltic Sea  
2313 region still hold. The main factor determining future air quality in the region is regional emissions of air pollutants,  
2314 not changes in meteorological factors related to climate change or in intercontinental pollution transport (see e.g.  
2315 Langner et al., 2012; Hedegaard et al., 2013).

2316

2317 Recent post-BACC II air quality modelling studies for the Baltic Sea area are Colette et al. (2013), Varotsos et al.  
2318 (2013), Colette et al. (2015), Hendriks et al. (2016), and Watson et al. (2016). They concentrate mainly on  
2319 particulate matter (PM) and ground-level ozone (O<sub>3</sub>), the pollutants most likely to be affected by changing climate  
2320 parameters. They agree with current day air quality trends in that the Baltic Sea region in general is less exposed  
2321 to air pollution than the rest of Europe.

2322

2323 Jacob and Winner (2009) showed that climate change is likely to increase ground-level ozone in central and  
2324 southern Europe. In a meta-analysis, Colette et al. (2015) assessed the significance and robustness of the impact  
2325 of climate change on European ground-level ozone based on 25 model projections, including some driven by SRES  
2326 (Special Report on Emission Scenarios by Nakicenovic et al., 2000) and RCP scenarios. They indicate that an  
2327 increase in ground-level ozone is not expected for the Baltic Sea region. A latitudinal gradient was found from



2328 increase in large parts of continental Europe (+ 5 ppbv), but a small decrease over Scandinavia (up to -1 ppbv).  
2329 Studies that explicitly compared the magnitude of projected climate and anthropogenic emission changes (Langner  
2330 et al., 2012; Colette et al., 2013; Varotsos et al., 2013) all confirmed that changes in emission of ozone precursors  
2331 (NO<sub>x</sub>, VOCs) had the larger effect. For Northern Europe, Varotsos et al. (2013) estimated that reductions in snow  
2332 cover and solar radiation in a SRES A1B scenario lead to an ozone decrease of about 2 ppb by 2050, compared to  
2333 present conditions.

2334  
2335 Varotsos et al. (2013) stress the importance of future biogenic isoprene emissions for ozone concentrations. In the  
2336 2050 climate, increases in ozone concentrations are associated with increased biogenic isoprene emissions due to  
2337 increased temperatures, whereas increased water vapour over the sea, as well as increased wind speeds, are  
2338 associated with decreases. Hendriks et al. (2016) emphasise that isoprene emissions may increase significantly in  
2339 coming decades if short-rotation coppice plantations are greatly expanded, to meet the increased biofuel demand  
2340 resulting from the EU decarbonisation targets. They investigate the competing effects of anticipated trends in land  
2341 use, anthropogenic emissions of ozone precursors and climate change on European ground-level ozone  
2342 concentrations and related health and environmental effects by 2050. They found that increased ozone  
2343 concentrations and associated health damage caused by a warming climate (+ 2 to 5°C across Europe in summer)  
2344 might be more than the reduction that can be achieved by cutting emissions of anthropogenic ozone precursors in  
2345 Europe.

2346  
2347 Orru et al. (2013, 2019) and Geels et al. (2015) studied the effect of climate change on ozone-related mortality in  
2348 Europe. Orru et al. (2019) present their results on country level, including all Baltic Sea EU-countries. They  
2349 conclude that although mortality related to ground-level ozone is projected to be lower in the future (mainly due  
2350 to decrease precursor emissions), the reduction could have been larger, without climate change and an increasingly  
2351 susceptible population.

2352  
2353 In parts of the Baltic Sea region, a considerable air pollution is due to shipping. Ship traffic in the region is  
2354 projected to increase over the coming decades, which could lead to larger emissions (i.e. NO<sub>x</sub> and PM) than today,  
2355 unless stricter air quality regulations counter this potential trend. For the Baltic Sea, a nitrogen emission control  
2356 area (NECA) will become effective in 2021. Karl et al. (2019a) designed future scenarios to study the effect of  
2357 current and planned regulations of ship emissions and the expected fuel efficiency development on air quality in  
2358 the Baltic Sea region. They showed that in a business-as-usual scenario for 2040 (SECA-0.1% and fuel efficiency  
2359 regulation effective starting in 2015), the introduction of the NECA will reduce NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from ship traffic  
2360 in the Baltic Sea by about 80% in 2040. The reduction in NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from shipping translates to a ~60%  
2361 decrease in NO<sub>2</sub> summer mean concentrations in a wide corridor around the ship routes. The coastal population of  
2362 northern Germany, Denmark and western Sweden will be exposed to less NO<sub>2</sub> in 2040 due to the introduction of  
2363 the NECA. With lower atmospheric NO<sub>x</sub> levels, less ozone will be formed, and the estimated daily maximum O<sub>3</sub>  
2364 concentration over the Baltic Sea in summer 2040 will on average be 6% lower than without the NECA. Compared  
2365 to today, the introduction of the NECA will also reduce ship-related PM<sub>2.5</sub> emissions by 72% by 2040, compared  
2366 to -48% without the NECA. Simulated nitrogen deposition on the Baltic Sea decreases 40-44% on average between  
2367 2012 and 2040. A similar study by Jonson et al. (2019) estimated that the contributions of Baltic Sea shipping to



2368 NO<sub>2</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations, and to the deposition of nitrogen, will be reduced by 40-50 % from 2016 to 2030,  
2369 mainly as a result of NECA.

### 2370 **3.3.2 Land**

#### 2371 **3.3.2.1 River discharge**

2372 Climate change is likely to have a clear influence on the seasonal river flow regime, as a direct response to changes  
2373 in air temperature, precipitation and evapotranspiration (BACC II Author Team, 2015; Blöschl et al., 2017).

2374

2375 For areas in the northern Baltic Sea region presently characterized by spring floods due to snow melt, the floods  
2376 are likely to occur earlier in the year and their magnitude is likely to decrease owing to less snowfall, shorter snow  
2377 accumulation period, and repeated melting during winter. As a consequence, sediment transport and the risk of  
2378 inundation are likely to decrease.

2379

2380 In the southern part of the Baltic Sea region, increasing winter precipitation is projected to result in increased river  
2381 discharge in winter. In addition, groundwater recharge is projected to increase in areas where infiltration capacity  
2382 is not currently exceeded, resulting in higher groundwater levels. Decreasing precipitation combined with rising  
2383 temperature and evapotranspiration during summer is projected to result in drying of the root zone, increasing  
2384 demands for irrigation in the southern Baltic Sea region.

2385

2386 Projections with a process-oriented hydrological model suggested that, under the RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios,  
2387 the total river flow during 2069-2098 relative to 1976-2005 will increase 1-21% and 6-20%, respectively,  
2388 illustrating the large uncertainty in hydrological projections (Saraiva et al., 2019a; Meier et al., 2021b). According  
2389 to these and previous projections, the increase of river flow will mainly take place in the north, while total river  
2390 flow to the south will decrease (Stonevičius et al., 2017; Šarauskiene et al., 2017). Winter flow will increase due  
2391 to intermittent melting (Stonevičius et al., 2017). Projected discharge changes attributed to increasing air  
2392 temperature are reflected in observed trends (Section 3.2.2.1), whereas changes attributed to increasing  
2393 precipitation are necessarily not (Wilson et al., 2010).

2394

2395 Since the publication of BACC II (BACC II Author Team, 2015), ensemble sizes of scenario simulations with  
2396 hydrological models have increased, enabling the estimate of uncertainties in projections (e.g. Roudier et al., 2016;  
2397 Donnelly et al., 2017). Donnelly et al. (2014) focused on projecting changes in discharge to the Baltic Sea, by  
2398 using a semi-distributed conceptual hydrological model for the BSDB (Balt-HYPE), combined with a small  
2399 ensemble of climate projections under the SRES A1B and A2 scenarios. Results showed an increased overall  
2400 discharge to the Baltic Sea, with a seasonal shift towards higher winter and lower summer flows and diminished  
2401 seasonal snow-melt peaks. Efforts were made to assess the uncertainty in the model chain, and change magnitudes  
2402 were shown to be within the range of the overall uncertainty estimates, highlighting the importance of such  
2403 uncertainty assessments in effect studies to frame the quantitative model results.

2404

2405 Arheimer and Lindström (2015) studied future changes in annual maximum and minimum daily flows. Their  
2406 projections suggested that snow-driven spring floods in the northern–central part of Sweden may occur about one



2407 month earlier than today and rain-driven floods in the southern part of Sweden may become more frequent. The  
2408 boundary between the two flood regimes is projected to shift northward.

2409

2410 Past observations (see Section 3.2.2.1) and future projections (e.g. Graham, 2004) suggest a temporal shift in the  
2411 seasonality of the river discharge, with decreasing flow in spring/summer and increasing flow in winter. Global  
2412 warming and river regulation due to hydropower production cause similar changes. However, in snow-fed rivers  
2413 globally the impact of climate change is projected to be minor compared to river regulation (Arheimer et al., 2017).

### 2414 3.3.2.2 Land nutrient inputs

2415 Projected changes in riverine discharge and nutrient inputs from the Baltic Sea Drainage Basin (BSDB) to Baltic  
2416 Sea coastal waters have been studied using a number of modelling frameworks in recent years. Projecting the  
2417 regional effects of future climate and environmental change on hydrology and nutrient turnover poses challenges  
2418 in terms of (i) the complex nature of the modelled system, including human influence on riverine nutrient inputs  
2419 and transport processes alike, which necessitates long projection model chains and leads to uncertainty in modelled  
2420 hydrologically driven responses, and (ii) the significance of changes in human behaviour, e.g. in terms of land  
2421 management, population, or nutrient emissions from point sources, which adds complexity to the formulation  
2422 scenarios for future change, on top of the climate change signal. Hydrological impact studies in the BSDB (and  
2423 elsewhere) therefore often explicitly use simplifying assumptions in order to reduce complexity of the modelled  
2424 system and to put focus on certain aspects of impacts of projected changes.

2425

2426 Hesse et al. (2015) also reported increasing discharges in a similar model study of the Vistula lagoon catchment,  
2427 using a hydrological model (SWIM), which also allows for nutrient load assessment, and climate change impact  
2428 modelling based on a climate model ensemble. On average, results showed decreasing trends for nitrogen and  
2429 phosphorus inputs, but a wide range of projections with individual ensemble members.

2430

2431 Hägg et al. (2014) used a split model approach to project changes in TN and TP inputs to Baltic Sea sub-basins.  
2432 Changes in discharge were estimated with a hydrological model (CSIM) combined with a climate projection  
2433 ensemble, which sampled a range of climate model and emission scenario combinations. Inputs were then  
2434 calculated with a statistical model, based on modelled discharges and population as a proxy for human nutrient  
2435 emissions, combining population change assumptions with climate projections. Results showed a general trend  
2436 towards higher nutrient inputs across the region as a result of climate change, and a significant (i.e. potentially  
2437 trend-changing) influence of human adaptation scenarios, particularly in the southern half of the BSDB.

2438

2439 Øygarden et al. (2014) used measurements in a number of small agricultural catchments to establish functional  
2440 relationships between precipitation, runoff, and N losses from agricultural land, and qualitatively related their  
2441 findings to projected precipitation changes across the BSDB under climate change scenarios, as well as to  
2442 mitigation measures to counter the climate-driven effects. The analyses showed a positive relationship between  
2443 runoff and N losses as well as between rainfall intensity and N losses, but stressed the wide range of feedback  
2444 loops possible between climate change effects and adaptation measures, through management or policy changes.  
2445 Such data-driven approaches avoid uncertainties related to effect-model chains at the expense of direct BSDB-  
2446 wide quantitative effect projections.



2447

2448 The potential effects of socio-economic adaptation under climate change conditions were investigated by Huttunen  
2449 et al. (2015) in a study of Finnish catchments draining to the Baltic Sea. A national nutrient load model (VEMALA)  
2450 was combined with a mini-ensemble of climate effects, and then a number of agricultural adaptation scenarios  
2451 were derived, based on crop yield and policy changes, and an economic model (DREMFIA) was used to translate  
2452 scenario assumptions to changes in the nutrient load model for evaluation of effects. On average, increased  
2453 precipitation led to increased annual discharge and a shift from spring to winter peaks, with total nitrogen (TN)  
2454 and total phosphorus (TP) inputs increasing with the discharge. Here, adaptation scenarios had less effect than  
2455 climate change, with some regional variation, but significantly different load reductions were found among  
2456 assessed adaptation strategies, leading to the conclusion that adaptation measures are important for overall climate  
2457 change effect mitigation in the region.

2458

2459 The relative importance of management decisions for TN and TP load effects was studied also by Bartosova et al.  
2460 (2019), using the hydrological model E-HYPE on the full BSDB. The ensemble approach combined climate and  
2461 socioeconomic pathways based on IPCC fifth assessment data (Zandersen et al., 2019), where socioeconomic  
2462 changes were directly translated into changes of the effect model setup. The influence of socioeconomic adaptation  
2463 choices on nutrient inputs to the Baltic Sea were shown to be in the same magnitude range as climate effects, thus  
2464 indicating the importance of effective mitigation strategies for the region. In order to increase this efficiency,  
2465 Refsgaard et al. (2019) developed and explored the concept of spatially differentiated measures for TN load  
2466 reductions in the BSDB, based on the realization that measures are not uniformly efficient over large area, and  
2467 should therefore not be uniformly applied either.

### 2468 3.3.3 Terrestrial biosphere

2469 In the following, we focus on the European drought in 2018, to study the impact of very warm conditions on the  
2470 terrestrial ecosystem, and on projections for the terrestrial ecosystems in the Arctic, because of the particularly  
2471 strong climate warming in the Arctic and potentially strong feedbacks from the release of CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> in the  
2472 northernmost part of the Baltic Sea region. Finally, we discuss mitigation scenarios for land use and land-cover  
2473 changes associated with the Paris Agreement.

#### 2474 *Terrestrial ecosystems in the European drought year 2018*

2475 The summer of 2018 saw extremely anomalous weather conditions over Europe, with high temperatures  
2476 everywhere, as well as low precipitation and high incoming radiation in western, central and Northern Europe  
2477 (Peters et al., 2020). These extreme weather conditions resulted in severe drought (indicated by soil moisture  
2478 anomalies) in western, central and Northern Europe, including the entire Baltic Sea region. The impacts of the  
2479 severe drought and heatwave in Europe in 2018 were investigated in a series of papers, ranging from individual  
2480 sites to the continental scale (Peters et al., 2020).

2481 Graf et al. (2020) studied the effects of the 2018 drought conditions on the annual energy balance at the land  
2482 surface, in particular the balance between sensible and latent heat fluxes, across different terrestrial ecosystems at  
2483 various sites in Europe. Graf et al. (2020) found a 9% higher incoming solar radiation compared to their reference  
2484 period across the drought-affected sites. The outgoing shortwave radiation mostly followed the incoming radiation,



2485 with an increase of 11.5%, indicating a small increase in surface albedo. The incoming longwave radiation, on the  
2486 other hand, did not change significantly, indicating that effects of higher atmospheric temperatures and reduced  
2487 cloudiness cancelled out, while outgoing longwave radiation increased by 1.3% as a result of higher land surface  
2488 temperatures. Overall, the net radiation increased by 6.3% due to the extreme drought conditions. As for the non-  
2489 radiative surface energy fluxes, the sensible heat flux showed a strong increase by 32%, while the latent heat fluxes  
2490 did not change significantly on average. Graf et al. (2020) attributed the negligible effect on latent heat fluxes to  
2491 the opposing roles of increased grass reference evapotranspiration on the one hand and soil water depletion,  
2492 stomatal closure and plant development on the other. Evapotranspiration increased where and when sufficient  
2493 water was available and later decreased only where stored soil water was depleted. As a consequence, latent heat  
2494 fluxes typically decreased at sites with a severe precipitation deficit, but often increased at sites with a comparable  
2495 surplus of grass reference evapotranspiration but only a moderate precipitation deficit. Consistent with this,  
2496 peatlands were identified as the only ecosystem with very strong increases in latent heat fluxes but insignificant  
2497 changes in sensible heat fluxes under drought conditions. Crop sites, on the other hand, showed significant  
2498 decreases in latent heat fluxes.

2499 Lindroth et al. (2020) analysed the impact of the drought on Scandinavian forests, based on 11 forest ecosystem  
2500 sites differing in species composition, i.e. spruce, pine, mixed and deciduous. Compared to their reference year, in  
2501 2018 the forest ecosystem showed a slight decrease in evaporation at two of the sites, was nearly unchanged at  
2502 most sites and increased at two sites with pine forest. At the same time, the mean surface conductance during the  
2503 growing season was reduced 40-60% and the evaporative demand increased 15-65% due to the warm and dry  
2504 weather conditions. The annual net ecosystem productivity (NEP) decreased at most sites, but the reasons differed.  
2505 At some sites, the NEP decrease was due to an increase in ecosystem respiration (RE), while at others both RE  
2506 and the gross primary productivity (GPP) decreased, with the decrease in GPP exceeding that in RE. At six sites,  
2507 the annual NEP decreased by over 50 g C m<sup>-2</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> in 2018. Across all sites considered, NEP anomalies varied  
2508 from -389 to +74 g C m<sup>-2</sup> year<sup>-1</sup>. A multi-linear regression analysis revealed that the anomalous NEP could to a  
2509 very large extent (93%) be explained by anomalous heterotrophic respiration and reduced precipitation, with most  
2510 of the variation (77%) due to the heterotrophic component.

2511 Rinne et al. (2020) studied the effects of the drought on greenhouse gas exchange in five northern mire ecosystems  
2512 in Sweden and Finland. Due to low precipitation and high temperatures, the water table sank in most of the mires.  
2513 This led not only to a lower CO<sub>2</sub> uptake, but also to lower CH<sub>4</sub> emissions by the ecosystems. Three out of the five  
2514 mires switched from sinks to sources of CO<sub>2</sub>. Estimates of the radiative forcing expected from the drought-related  
2515 changes in greenhouse gas fluxes indicated an initial cooling effect due to the reduced CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, lasting up  
2516 to several decades, followed by a warming caused by the lower CO<sub>2</sub> uptake. However, it is unknown whether these  
2517 results can be generalized to all wetlands of the Baltic Sea region.

#### 2518 *Terrestrial ecosystems in the Arctic region*

2519 Climate warming has been particularly strong at high northern latitudes, and climate change projections indicate  
2520 that this trend will continue, due to the anticipated increase in anthropogenic climate forcing. This strong warming  
2521 is expected to have major consequences for terrestrial ecosystems in Arctic and sub-Arctic regions.





2522 Zhang et al. (2013) used the Arctic version of a dynamic global vegetation model (LPJ-GUESS, Smith et al.,  
2523 2001), forced with a regionalized climate scenario (A1B anthropogenic emission scenario), to investigate land  
2524 surface feedbacks from vegetation shifts and biogeochemical cycling in terrestrial ecosystems under future climate  
2525 warming. They found marked changes in vegetation by the second half of the 21st century (2051-2080), i.e. a  
2526 poleward advance of the boundary between forests and tundra, expansion of tundra covered with tall shrubs and a  
2527 shift from deciduous trees, e.g. birch, to evergreen boreal coniferous forest. These changes in vegetation were  
2528 associated with decreases in surface albedo, particularly in winter due to the snow-masking effect, and with  
2529 increases in evapotranspiration. The reduced surface albedo would tend to enhance the projected warming (positive  
2530 feedback), while increased evapotranspiration would dampen it (negative effect). The terrestrial ecosystems  
2531 continued to act as carbon sinks during the 21st century, but at diminished rates in the second half of the century.  
2532 The initial increase in carbon sequestration, due to a longer growing season and CO<sub>2</sub> fertilisation, could be reduced  
2533 and eventually reversed by increased soil respiration and greater CO<sub>2</sub> release from increased wildfires. Peatlands  
2534 were identified as hotspots of CH<sub>4</sub> release, which would further enhance the projected warming (positive  
2535 feedback).

2536 Using a regional Earth System Model (RCA-GUESS; Smith et al., 2011) over the Arctic region, Zhang et al.  
2537 (2014b) investigated the role that the biophysical effects of the projected future changes of the land surface play  
2538 for the terrestrial carbon sink in the Arctic region under a future climate scenario based on a high emission scenario  
2539 (RCP8.5). Two simulations were performed to determine the role of the biophysical interactions, one with and one  
2540 without the biophysical feedbacks resulting from the simulated climatic changes to the terrestrial ecosystems in  
2541 the model. In both simulations the Arctic terrestrial ecosystems continued to sequester carbon until the 2060-  
2542 2070s, after which they were projected to turn into weak sources of carbon, due to increased soil respiration and  
2543 biomass burning. The biophysical effects were found to markedly enhance the terrestrial ecosystem carbon sink,  
2544 particularly in the tundra areas. Two opposing feedback mechanisms, mediated by changes in surface albedo and  
2545 evapotranspiration, contributed to the additional carbon sequestration. The decreased surface albedo in winter and  
2546 spring notably amplified warming in spring (positive feedback), while the increased evapotranspiration led to a  
2547 marked cooling during summer (negative feedback). These feedbacks stimulated vegetation growth due to an  
2548 earlier start of the growing season, leading to changes in woody plant species and the distribution of vegetation.  
2549 In a later study, Zhang et al. (2018) found that these biophysical feedbacks play essential roles also in climate  
2550 scenario simulations with weaker anthropogenic climate forcing.

#### 2551 *Mitigation*

2552 The beneficial effects of carbon sequestration by forest ecosystems on climate change may be reinforced,  
2553 counteracted or even offset by management-induced changes in surface albedo, land-surface roughness, emissions  
2554 of biogenic volatile compounds, transpiration and sensible heat flux (see above). Luyssaert et al. (2018)  
2555 investigated the trade-offs associated with using European forests to meet the climate objectives in the Paris  
2556 Agreement. A central argument of this study was that the agreement requires more than that forest management  
2557 should dampen the rise in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and reduce the radiative imbalance at the top of the atmosphere. The  
2558 authors suggested two additional targets, that forest management should neither increase the near-surface  
2559 temperature nor decrease precipitation, because climate effects arising from the changes in the terrestrial biosphere  
2560 would make adaptation to climate change more demanding. Analysing different forest management portfolios in



2561 Europe designed to maximize the carbon sink, maximize the forest albedo or reduce near-surface temperatures,  
2562 Luysaert et al. (2018) found that only the portfolio designed to reduce near-surface temperatures accomplished  
2563 two of the objectives, i.e. to dampen the rise in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and to reduce near-surface temperatures. This  
2564 portfolio featured a decrease in the area of coniferous forest in favour of a considerable increase in the area of  
2565 deciduous forest in Northern Europe, from 130,000 to 480,000 km<sup>2</sup>.

### 2566 3.3.4 Cryosphere

#### 2567 3.3.4.1 Snow

2568 There is agreement among models that the average amount of snow accumulated in winter will decrease by over  
2569 70% in most of the Baltic Sea region. The high Scandinavian mountains, where the warming temperature will not  
2570 reach the freezing point as often as in lower-lying regions, are an exception (Christensen et al., 2021). The  
2571 reduction in snow amount is slightly larger than in maps presented by the BACC II Author Team (2015), which is  
2572 consistent with the stronger average warming projected in the RCP8.5 scenario, compared to the SRES A1B  
2573 scenario analyzed by the BACC II Author Team (2015).

2574

2575 For Poland, two additional downscaling experiments were made to produce reliable high-resolution climate  
2576 projections of precipitation and temperature, using the RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios (Szwed et al., 2019). The  
2577 results were used as input to a snow model (seNorge), to transform bias-adjusted daily temperature and  
2578 precipitation into daily snow conditions. The snow model projected future snow depth to decrease in autumn,  
2579 winter and spring, in both the near and far future. The maximum snow depth was projected to decrease 15-20%  
2580 by 2021-2050 and at least double that decrease by 2071–2100 (Szwed et al., 2019).

#### 2581 3.3.4.2 Glaciers

2582 The Special Report on the Ocean and Cryosphere in a Changing Climate (IPCC, 2019a) provides the most recent  
2583 assessment of future projected glacier mass reduction under various RCPs, and treats Scandinavian glaciers  
2584 separately (Hock et al., 2019). Previous projections, summarized in the Fifth Assessment Report of the IPCC  
2585 (IPCC, 2014a; Vaughan et al., 2014), did not specifically focus on Scandinavian glaciers.

2586

2587 By 2100, likely (i.e. with a likelihood of 60-100%) mass losses for high-mountain glaciers are 22-44% (RCP2.6)  
2588 to 37-57% (RCP8.5) of their mass in 2015. These losses exceed global projections for glacier mass loss of 18 ±  
2589 7% for RCP2.6, and 36 ± 11% for RCP8.5 (likely ranges, IPCC, 2019a). Glaciers in Scandinavia will lose over  
2590 80% of their current mass by 2100 under RCP8.5 (medium confidence), and many are projected to disappear,  
2591 regardless of future emission scenarios (Fig. 27). Furthermore, river runoff from glaciers is projected to change  
2592 regardless of emission scenario (high confidence), and to result in increased average winter runoff (high  
2593 confidence) and in earlier spring peaks (high confidence; Hock et al., 2019).

2594

2595 Projections of future glacier mass loss depend crucially on climate projections providing surface air temperature  
2596 and precipitation as forcing factors in process-based glacier models. For high mountain glaciers, such as those  
2597 along the Scandinavian mountains that drain into the Baltic Sea, this is challenging, as the interplay of regional  
2598 effects such as high-mountain meteorology and elevation-dependent warming (Wang et al., 2016; Qixiang et al.,  
2599 2018) with global climate is poorly understood (Hock et al., 2019). Surface air temperatures in mountain regions



2600 are projected to increase at an average rate of  $0.3 \pm 0.2^\circ\text{C}$  per decade until 2050 (very high confidence), i.e. faster  
2601 than the present global average of  $0.2 \pm 0.1^\circ\text{C}$  (Hock et al., 2019). Beyond 2050, and depending on the emission  
2602 scenario, air surface temperatures in high mountain regions are projected to either stabilize at the 2015-2050 rate  
2603 or to increase further (IPCC, 2019a).

2604

2605 Projected changes in surface air temperature for the period 2071–2100 (compared to 1971–2000, under various  
2606 emission scenarios) for the part of the Baltic Sea Drainage Basin that extends along the Scandinavian mountains  
2607 (SMHI, 2020; Kjellström et al., 2016) will be of great importance for the assessment of future mass loss from  
2608 glaciers draining into the Baltic Sea.

#### 2609 **3.3.4.3 Permafrost**

2610 Due to recent warming more than 20% of the permafrost in the region was already lost in 1997-2018 (Figure 13;  
2611 Obu et al., 2020). As warming increases, so will loss of permafrost (Section 1.5.2). Global projections show very  
2612 limited permafrost in the region already at  $+2^\circ\text{C}$  (Chadburn et al., 2017), but global projection (including Chadburn  
2613 et al., 2017) do not account for peatland permafrost, which can persist for centuries outside of its climate  
2614 equilibrium (Osterkamp and Romanovsky, 1999). Much of the permafrost in Baltic Sea region was very close to  
2615 its climatic boundary even before the recent acceleration of climate warming. Much of the lowland permafrost in  
2616 palsas and peat plateaus in this region is very close to the  $0^\circ\text{C}$  thawing point, and is likely relict permafrost,  
2617 persisting from the Little Ice Age (Sannel et al., 2016). Observations also show that lowland permafrost thaw has  
2618 been going on for decades (Åkerman and Johansson, 2008). Preliminary analyses of permafrost loss in 1997-2018  
2619 suggests that this was roughly equally divided between alpine and lowland permafrost (22 and 24%, respectively,  
2620 Figure 13), in agreement with projections of loss of all types of Baltic permafrost in the future.

2621

2622 Permafrost thaw by climate warming is known to affect river runoff and its loads of carbon, nutrients and  
2623 contaminants, such as mercury (Schuster et al., 2018; Vonk et al., 2015). The local effect of permafrost thaw in  
2624 alpine headwaters can be significant (Lyon et al., 2009), but in the Baltic Sea Basin alpine permafrost thaw will  
2625 likely have limited influence on the characteristics of river transport at their mouths on the Baltic Sea. This is  
2626 because the alpine permafrost in the Baltic Sea drainage basin mainly affects solid bedrock or regolith, with almost  
2627 no soil organic matter stored in permafrost (Fuchs et al., 2015). Thaw of permafrost in peatlands affects soils with  
2628 very large stocks of organic material, and has been suggested to cause large losses of peat carbon and nutrients  
2629 into aquatic ecosystems (Hugelius et al., 2020). However, these projections are highly uncertain and based on  
2630 studies of peatland thaw chronosequences in North America that may not be applicable to Fennoscandian  
2631 permafrost peatlands (though see Tang et al., 2018).

2632

2633 The extent of permafrost in the Baltic Sea drainage basin may decrease significantly in this century, and depending  
2634 on which warming trajectory the Earth takes, may disappear altogether in the coming century. The thaw of alpine  
2635 permafrost will have little effect on flows of water, carbon and nutrients to the Baltic Sea. Thawing peatlands may  
2636 increase the loads of carbon, nutrients and mercury to the Baltic Sea, but these projections remain highly uncertain.



2637 **3.3.4.4 Sea ice**

2638 Two new projections for sea ice in the Baltic Sea have been produced after BACC II (BACC II Author Team,  
2639 2015). Luomaranta et al. (2014) used simplified regression and analytical models to estimate changes in sea-ice  
2640 extent (Fig. 28) and fast-ice thickness. Due to their less demanding computational approach, they could base  
2641 estimates on 28 CMIP5 models. As in the Arctic Ocean (Section 1.5.2), maximum annual ice extent and thickness  
2642 were both estimated to decline in the future, but some sea ice will still form every year, even by the end of the  
2643 century, in agreement with earlier studies (e.g. Haapala et al., 2001; Meier, 2002; Meier et al., 2004a). Under the  
2644 RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios, the modelled mean maximum ice thicknesses in Kemi were projected to be 60 cm  
2645 and nearly 40 cm, respectively, in 2081-2090. However, under the RCP8.5 scenario, two models projected Kemi  
2646 to be ice-free.

2647  
2648 Höglund et al. (2017) used a more advanced approach to examine changes in sea ice conditions with a coupled  
2649 ice-ocean model (Hordoir et al., 2019; Pemberton et al., 2017). They used downscaled atmospheric data from the  
2650 EC-Earth and the Max Planck Institute Earth System models and simulated the response of the ice for the RCP4.5  
2651 and RCP8.5 projections. Average annual maximum ice extent at the end of the century was projected to be 90 –  
2652 100 10<sup>3</sup> km<sup>2</sup> and 30 – 40 10<sup>3</sup> km<sup>2</sup>, for the medium and high emission scenarios, respectively, and ice thickness to  
2653 decrease 3 – 6 cm decade<sup>-1</sup>. Höglund et al. (2017) also projected the mobility of the ice to increase, but with little  
2654 effect on future ridged ice production.

2655 **3.3.4.5 Lake ice**

2656 The latest model experiments demonstrate that the Baltic Sea catchment will experience a substantial reduction in  
2657 lake ice cover in the future, with many lakes becoming ice covered only intermittently (Maberly et al., 2020;  
2658 Sharma et al., 2019; Sharma et al., 2021; Shatwell et al., 2019). This change will commence in the south and move  
2659 northwards gradually. Lithuanian and Latvian lakes will lose their ice cover after +2°C warming, and further  
2660 warming will gradually move winter ice loss northwards, so that at +8°C warming, only lakes in northernmost  
2661 Lapland will retain a winter ice cover (Maberly et al., 2020; Sharma et al., 2019; Sharma et al., 2021; Shatwell et  
2662 al., 2019).

2663 **3.3.5 Ocean and marine sediments**

2664 **3.3.5.1 Water temperature**

2665 Ocean temperatures are rising at accelerating rates (IPCC, 2019a; Section 1.5.3.2). For the end of this century,  
2666 scenarios for the Baltic Sea project a sea surface temperature increase of 1.1°C (0.8-1.6°C, RCP2.6) to 3.2°C (2.5-  
2667 4.1°C, RCP8.5) compared to 1976-2005 (Gröger et al., 2019; Gröger et al., 2021b), see Table 9. In brackets, the  
2668 ensemble spreads indicated by the 5<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup> percentiles are listed. These changes are slightly larger than the  
2669 projected global sea surface temperature changes (Section 1.5.3.2). Other ensembles than the one by Gröger et al.  
2670 (2019) give similar results that vary between 1.9°C (RCP4.5) and 2.9°C (RCP8.5) for the ensemble mean  
2671 temperature increase (Meier et al., 2021b; see also Meier and Saraiva, 2020). By the end of the century, sea surface  
2672 temperature changes for the RCP8.5 scenarios significantly exceed natural variability. Largest open-sea warming  
2673 is found in summer in the northern Baltic Sea, due to earlier melting of the sea ice (Figs. 29 and 30). Even higher



2674 warming of +2–6°C (the range denotes RCP2.6 and RCP8.5 scenarios) is projected for the Curonian Lagoon by  
2675 the year 2100 (Jakimavičius et al., 2018).

2676

2677 The main driver of interannual variations of monthly mean sea surface temperature is air temperature, through the  
2678 sensible heat fluxes (Meier et al., 2021a). The second most important drivers are cloudiness over the open sea and  
2679 latent heat and meridional and zonal wind velocities over coastal areas, the latter probably because of upwelling  
2680 (Meier et al., 2021a). In the vertical, the surface layer is warming more than the winter water, which is sandwiched  
2681 between the surface layer and the halocline. Hence, the spring and summer thermoclines are getting more intense  
2682 (Gröger et al., 2019). Water temperature trends in the deep water of those sub-basins such as Bornholm Basin and  
2683 Gotland Basin that are sporadically ventilated by salt water inflows originating from surface water are projected  
2684 to be elevated as well (Meier et al., 2021a). Projected changes of the vertical water temperature distribution are  
2685 similar than those observed since 1850 (Kniebusch et al., 2019a).

2686

2687 For extreme events, projections suggest, inter alia, more tropical nights over the Baltic Sea, increasing the risk of  
2688 record-breaking water temperatures (Meier et al., 2019a).

#### 2689 **3.3.5.2 Salinity and saltwater inflows**

2690 Future changes in salinity will depend on changes in the wind fields over the Baltic Sea region (Lass and Matthäus,  
2691 1996), river runoff from the Baltic Sea catchment (Schinke and Matthäus, 1998) and mean sea level rise relative  
2692 to the seabed of the sills in the entrance area (Meier et al., 2017; Meier et al., 2021b). A projected increase in river  
2693 runoff will tend to decrease salinity, but sea level rise will have the opposing effect of tending to increase salinity,  
2694 because the water level above the sills at the Baltic Sea entrance would be higher, increasing the cross-sectional  
2695 area of the Danish straits. As a result, saltwater imports from Kattegat would be larger. A 0.5 m higher sea level  
2696 relative to the sill bottom at the end of the century would increase estimated Gotland Deep surface salinity by 0.7  
2697 g kg<sup>-1</sup> and bottom salinity by 0.9 g kg<sup>-1</sup> (Meier et al., 2017; Meier et al., 2021b). Due to the large uncertainty in  
2698 projected changes in wind fields over the Baltic Sea region (Section 3.3.1.5), in changes of the freshwater supply  
2699 from the catchment (section 3.3.2.1) and in global sea level rise (Section 3.3.5.4), salinity projections show a wide  
2700 spread. No robust changes were identified because the two main drivers, river runoff and sea level rise,  
2701 approximately compensate each other (Meier et al., 2021b). According to Saraiva et al. (2019b) river runoff would  
2702 increase by about 1 to 21% at the end of the century depending on the climate model under both RCP4.5 and  
2703 RCP8.5, in the ensemble mean causing a decrease in surface and bottom salinity at Gotland Deep of about 0.6–0.7  
2704 g kg<sup>-1</sup>, with a large spread among the ensemble members. Assuming a negligible global sea level rise, the intensity  
2705 and frequency of MBIs were projected to slightly increase due to changes in the wind fields (Schimanke et al.,  
2706 2014). Hence, in ensemble studies that considered all potential drivers, no significant change in salinity were  
2707 projected as the ensemble mean (Meier et al., 2021b). In case of salinity, global climate model uncertainty was  
2708 identified to be the largest of all uncertainties (Meier et al., 2021b).

#### 2709 **3.3.5.3 Stratification and overturning circulation**

2710 Model based estimations of future stratification are still rare and depend critically on how well the models project  
2711 changes in the three-dimensional distributions of temperature and salinity. A first systematic attempt using a high  
2712 resolution coupled ocean - atmosphere model and five different global climate models (Gröger et al., 2019)



2713 explored future stratification under RCP8.5. They assumed a 10% increase in river runoff (approximately the  
2714 ensemble mean in Saraiva et al., 2019b) and an unchanged mean sea level in the North Sea at the end of the  
2715 century. The ensemble consistently indicated a basin-wide intensification of the pycnocline (by 9–35%) for nearly  
2716 the whole Baltic Sea, and a shallowing of the pycnocline depth in most regions, except the Gulf of Bothnia (Gröger  
2717 et al., 2019). The area with a pycnocline intensity  $> 0.05 \text{ kg m}^{-3}\text{m}^{-1}$  increased 23-100%. The warm season  
2718 thermocline likewise intensified in nearly the entire Baltic Sea (Gröger et al., 2019).

2719

2720 All ensemble members indicate a strengthening of the zonal, wind driven near-surface overturning circulation in  
2721 the southwestern Baltic Sea towards the end of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, whereas the zonal overturning at depth is reduced  
2722 by ~ 25% (Gröger et al., 2019). In the Baltic proper, the meridional overturning shows no clear climate change  
2723 signal. However, three out of five ensemble members indicate at least a northward expansion of the main  
2724 overturning cell. In the Bothnian Sea, all ensemble members show a significant weakening of the meridional  
2725 overturning.

2726

2727 As the study by Gröger et al. (2019) and previous projections (e.g. Meier et al., 2006) do not consider global sea  
2728 level rise, these scenario simulations are no longer considered plausible (Meier et al., 2021a; 2021b). Considering  
2729 all drivers of changes in salinity in the Baltic Sea (wind, river runoff, global sea level rise), neither the haline  
2730 induced stratification nor the overturning circulation is projected to change systematically among climate models  
2731 (Meier et al., 2021a). It was found that under a RCP4.5 or RCP8.5 scenario a linearly rising mean sea level by the  
2732 figures suggested by IPCC (2019b) would approximately counteract the effects of projected river runoff increases  
2733 and wind changes on salinity.

#### 2734 3.3.5.4 Sea level

2735 Global mean and thus Baltic Sea level will continue to rise at an increasing rate. During this century, melting ice  
2736 sheets in Antarctica and Greenland are expected to contribute more to the total sea level than in the past (e.g.  
2737 Mitrovica et al., 2018). The fingerprints from melting ice sheets in Antarctica on sea level rise will be more  
2738 pronounced in the northern hemisphere and introduce large uncertainties for Baltic sea level rise. Furthermore, the  
2739 sea level in shelf seas such as the Baltic Sea will rise more strongly than one would expect from the thermostatic  
2740 expansion of the local water column only, due to spill-over effects from the open ocean (Landerer et al., 2007;  
2741 Bingham and Hughes, 2012). In addition, the long-term rate of coastal land rise is not easy to estimate accurately,  
2742 due to the limited length of Global Positioning System (GPS) measurements, and frequently revised geological  
2743 model values.

2744

2745 Estimates for the ensemble mean global sea level rise by 2100 ranged from 43 cm (RCP2.6) to 84 cm (RCP8.5),  
2746 with likely ranges of 29-56 cm and 61-110 cm, respectively (IPCC, 2019a), cf. Section 1.5.3.1. In particular for  
2747 RCP8.5, sea level rise projections by the fifth IPCC assessment report (IPCC, 2014a) somewhat differ from the  
2748 more recent Special Report on the Ocean and Cryosphere in a Changing Climate (IPCC, 2019a) because of the  
2749 updated contribution from Antarctica based upon new ice-sheet modeling.

2750

2751 The projected sea level rise relative to land in the Baltic Sea entrance area was estimated to about 80% of the  
2752 global rate (Grinsted et al., 2015; Grinsted, 2015). These results were confirmed by other studies (e.g. Kopp et al.,



2753 2014) and summarized by Pellikka et al. (2020) who found a regional ensemble mean absolute sea level rise of  
2754 87% of the global sea level rise. Altogether, considering land uplift and eustatic sea level rise, very likely ranges  
2755 (5-95% probability) of relative sea level change under the most pessimistic IPCC emissions scenario (RCP8.5)  
2756 were projected to, e.g. 29-162 cm in Copenhagen (median 68 cm), -13 -117 cm in Stockholm (median 25 cm), and  
2757 21-151cm in St. Petersburg (median 59 cm) (Grinsted et al., 2015). For coastal sites in the northern Baltic Sea,  
2758 relative sea level changes in the Gulf of Finland in 2000–2100 were projected to be +29 cm (–22 to+92 cm), –5  
2759 cm (–66 to+65 cm) for the Bothnian Sea, and –27 cm (–72 to +28 cm) for the Bothnian Bay, where the land uplift  
2760 is larger (Johansson et al., 2014). The ranges in the latter study were estimated from the 5% and 95% cumulative  
2761 probabilities considering several published scenarios from the third and fourth IPCC assessment reports. In a recent  
2762 study based upon IPCC (2019a), Hieronymus and Kalén (2020) also estimated a sea-level fall in the northern  
2763 Baltic Sea and a 70 cm rise in the south by 2100. These upper bounds of the sea level rise projections imply a very  
2764 strong future acceleration of present rates. Current observations seems to show an acceleration, but its present  
2765 magnitude is still small (Hünicke and Zorita, 2016; see Section 3.2.5.4).

2766  
2767 Recent efforts since the IPCC AR5 report (IPCC, 2014a) that focused on the contribution of Antarctic ice sheets  
2768 to global mean sea level rise have shown that the interaction of warming ocean water, melting the ice sheets from  
2769 below can lead to instabilities in the ice sheet dynamics. The ice sheets flowing from land into the ocean are in  
2770 contact with the ocean floor out to the grounding line. From there on outward the ocean is melting the ice from  
2771 below and the ice sheets become thinner and lighter. If the weight of the ice sheet becomes less than the weight of  
2772 the ocean water it replaces, it floats up and away. The grounding line retreats inland where the ice sheet is thicker  
2773 and the ice flow larger and reinforces the ice loss (Mercer, 1978). This and related feedback loops could lead to an  
2774 extra meter of sea level rise until the end of the century (e.g. Sweet et al., 2017). The most recent estimates based  
2775 on expert judgement (Bamber et al., 2019) for global mean sea level rise in 2100 relative to 2000, including these  
2776 potential contributions (including land water storage) are 69 cm and 111 cm for low and high sea level scenarios,  
2777 respectively. For the high sea level scenario the likely range (5 to 95%) is between 62 cm and 238 cm.

2778  
2779 Future changes in sea level extremes in the Baltic Sea depend on future changes in mean sea level and future  
2780 developments in large-scale atmospheric conditions associated with changing wind patterns. Model projections  
2781 disagree regarding atmospheric circulation changes and therefore their relevance for extreme future sea levels  
2782 remains unclear (Räisänen, 2017). Absolute mean sea levels will continue to rise in the entire Baltic Sea, but exact  
2783 rates remain uncertain and depend on models and greenhouse gas emission scenarios (Grinsted, 2015; Hieronymus  
2784 and Kalén, 2020). Relative sea level changes will strongly vary across the Baltic Sea because of the existing spatial  
2785 gradient in glacial isostatic adjustment and the spatial inhomogeneity associated with the uncertain relative  
2786 contributions of melting from Antarctica and Greenland (e.g. Hieronymus and Kalén, 2020). For the Baltic Sea,  
2787 changing mean sea levels are expected to have larger effects on future extremes than changing atmospheric  
2788 circulation (Gräwe and Burchard, 2012). Sea ice loss in the future will further directly expose the northern Baltic  
2789 coastline to stronger storm surges.

2790  
2791 Recent projections of extreme sea levels along Europe’s coasts have considered all drivers by linear superposition,  
2792 i.e. absolute mean sea level rise and land uplift, tides (small in the Baltic Sea), storm surges and waves  
2793 (Vousdoukas et al., 2016; Vousdoukas et al., 2017). The results suggest that extreme sea levels will increase more



2794 than the mean sea level, due to small changes in the large-scale atmospheric circulation, such as a northward shift  
2795 of the Northern Hemisphere storm tracks and westerlies, and increases in the NAO/AO (IPCC, 2014b). These  
2796 changes in the large-scale atmospheric circulation of the Baltic Sea region are, however, not robust among GCMs,  
2797 giving the projections of extreme sea levels by Vousdoukas et al. (2016; 2017) low confidence.

### 2798 3.3.5.5 Waves

2799 The few existing wave climate projections for the Baltic Sea indicate an increase in the mean wave conditions,  
2800 either in the whole area (Groll et al., 2017) or in its northern part (Bonaduce et al., 2019). This increase in the mean  
2801 conditions has been linked to two main drivers: 1) increased wind speeds and 2) reduced seasonal ice cover.

2802

2803 Groll et al. (2017) projected wave climate at the end of 21<sup>st</sup> century, based on two different scenarios. They found  
2804 a slight increase in the median wind speeds for most of the Baltic Sea area, which led to an increase of up to 15 %  
2805 in median Significant Wave Height (SWH). Using only one climate scenario, Bonaduce et al. (2019) found that  
2806 decreased wind speed in the southern Baltic Sea led to a decrease in mean SWH, whereas increased wind speeds  
2807 in the north, especially in winter, led to increased mean SWH. As neither study used multi-model ensembles of  
2808 scenario simulations (an exception for the western Baltic Sea is the work by Dreier et al. (2021), and there is high  
2809 uncertainty in the projected wind speeds and directions, which is not attributed to the decline in ice cover, the  
2810 results may not be representative. The projected changes in SWH estimates are therefore inconclusive.

2811

2812 Ruosteenoja et al. (2019) estimated based CMIP5 simulations that in future, mean and extreme scalar wind speeds  
2813 are not likely to significantly change in the Baltic Sea area. Hence, mean wave conditions would not change. They  
2814 also estimated that frequency of strong westerly winds will increase while strong easterly winds will become less  
2815 common. These type of changes might have more significance on the frequency of extreme SWH values and their  
2816 spatial patterns.

2817

2818 For extreme values, these studies give even less reliable results. The results of Groll et al. (2017), Suursaar et al.  
2819 (2016) and Bonaduce et al. (2019) all indicated large spatial variability in how the projected extremes changed. In  
2820 addition to the wind speed, extreme values are quite sensitive to wind direction, since fetch varies with direction  
2821 due to the geometry of the Baltic Sea. Mäll et al. (2020) simulated how wave conditions during three historical  
2822 Baltic Sea storms would change under climate change conditions. The results showed slight, but not significant  
2823 changes in extreme SWH values during the storms.

2824

2825 Future changes in seasonal sea-ice conditions in the northern Baltic Sea are more reliable, and their effect on the  
2826 wave climate easier to estimate (Rutgersson et al., 2021). Mild ice winters have already become common, and new  
2827 records of lowest annual maximum ice extent have been recorded. In the Baltic Sea, the ice season partly overlaps  
2828 with the seasons of the strongest winds, namely autumn and winter. The mean and extreme values of SWH are  
2829 therefore expected to increase in areas like the Bothnian Sea, which now typically has ice cover in winter, but will  
2830 have loose it in the future Baltic Sea climate.





2831 **3.3.5.6 Sedimentation and coastal erosion**

2832 As a consequence of the probably accelerating sea level rise, coastal erosion will increase regionally, to fill the  
2833 increased underwater accommodation space. How much erosion will increase will depend not only on the rate of  
2834 sea level rise, but also on the intensity of storms (Zhang et al., 2017).

2835  
2836 Coastal erosion, accretion and alongshore sediment transport are primarily controlled by winds and wind-induced  
2837 waves in the Baltic Sea. Projecting the future rate of coastal erosion or accretion in the Baltic Sea is highly  
2838 uncertain because of a lack of consensus in the prediction of future storms. Neglecting potential change in future  
2839 storms and assuming an intermediate sea level rise scenario (RCP4.5), an increment of 0.1-0.3 m year<sup>-1</sup> in coastline  
2840 erosion has been projected for some parts of the southern Baltic Sea coast (Zhang et al., 2017; Deng et al., 2015).  
2841 Due to the prevailing westerly winds, the dominant sediment transport will continue to be eastwards along most  
2842 of the southern Baltic Sea coast, but with high variability along coastal sections with a small incidence angle of  
2843 incoming wind-waves (Dudzińska-Nowak, 2017). It has been found that even a minor climate-change-driven  
2844 rotation of the predominant wind directions over the Baltic Sea may substantially alter the structural patterns and  
2845 pathways of wave-driven transport along large sections of the coastline (Viška and Soomere, 2013).

2846  
2847 The presence of sea ice is an important factor moderating coastal erosion. Storm surges and wave run-up on the  
2848 beach are much higher in ice-free periods than when there is even partial ice cover. The hydrodynamic forces are  
2849 particularly effective in reshaping the shoreline when there is no ice and sediment is mobile (Ryabchuk et al.,  
2850 2011). Due to global warming, both the area and duration of ice cover in the Baltic Sea will be reduced in future  
2851 (Section 3.3.4.4), thus increasing coastal erosion.

2852  
2853 Foredunes will likely continue to form on prograding coasts, but at rates influenced by the accelerating sea-level  
2854 rise (Zhang et al., 2017). Foredunes may tend to become higher, but with reduced prograding rate and wavelength,  
2855 if sea level rise is accelerated or storm frequency increased. If the wind-wave climate is stable, the height of coastal  
2856 foredunes on a prograding coast remains stable or increases linearly with a low to intermediate rate (<1.5 mm year<sup>-1</sup>)  
2857 of sea level rise. An accelerating rate of sea level rise and/or changing storm frequency will lead to a nonlinear  
2858 growth in height (following a quadratic or a higher power law; Zhang et al., 2017; Lampe and Lampe, 2018). The  
2859 critical threshold that separates linear and non-linear foredune growth in response to sea level rise is likely to be  
2860 reached before 2050 in the RCP8.5 scenario (Zhang et al., 2017).

2861  
2862 Anthropogenic influence imposes further uncertainty in sediment transport and coastal erosion. Sediment transport  
2863 and coastal erosion are relevant for coastal management, construction and protection strategies. In general two  
2864 main types of management strategies exist for the Baltic Sea coast: 1) coastal protection by soft or hard measures;  
2865 and 2) adaptation to coastal change, accepting that in some places the coast would be left in its natural state (BACC  
2866 II Author Team, 2015). However, administrative efforts for coastal protection differ among Baltic Sea countries,  
2867 even between neighboring states or nations. It has been found that engineering structures (e.g. piers, seawalls) may  
2868 influence coastline change at a much larger spatial scale than the dimension of the structure itself.



2869 **3.3.5.7 Marine carbonate system and biogeochemistry**

2870 The BACC II Author Team (2015) concluded that model simulations indicated that climate change has a potential  
2871 to intensify eutrophication in the Baltic Sea. However, they also showed that the implementation of nutrient load  
2872 reductions according to the Baltic Sea Action Plan (BSAP, HELCOM, 2013a) may not only mitigate this effect  
2873 but may slightly decrease hypoxic and anoxic areas in the Baltic Sea, because the nutrient load abatement strategy  
2874 of the BSAP did not take the effect of climate change into account. In contrast, the business as usual nutrients  
2875 input scenario may increase by about 30% hypoxic area and even more than double the area affected by anoxia by  
2876 2100.

2877  
2878 As atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> rises, so will the concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> in the Baltic Sea surface water. This will influence the  
2879 mean future pH, while eutrophication and enhanced organic matter production/remineralization will increase the  
2880 amplitude of daily and seasonal pH fluctuations without much affecting the mean values. It was also shown that  
2881 pH in the Baltic Sea surface water will decrease, in the worst-case emission scenario (atmospheric pCO<sub>2</sub> of 850  
2882 ppm) the pH will drop by about 0.40 by 2100, while the decrease in a more optimistic emission scenario (550 ppm)  
2883 will be smaller, about 0.26.

2884 **3.3.5.7.1 Oxygen and nutrients**

2885 Projected warming and global mean sea level rise may worsen eutrophication and oxygen depletion in the Baltic  
2886 Sea by reducing air-sea fluxes and vertical transports of oxygen in the water column, intensifying internal nutrient  
2887 cycling, and increasing river-borne nutrient loads due to increased river runoff (Meier et al., 2011a; Meier et al.,  
2888 2012b; Meier et al., 2012c). However, the future response of deep-water oxygen conditions will depend mainly on  
2889 nutrient loads from land (Saraiva et al., 2019a, b; Meier et al., 2021b; cf. Fig. 31). In contrast to the global ocean  
2890 (see Section 1.5.4), future nutrient supplies will have a relatively larger effect on oxygen conditions and primary  
2891 production than warming. With high nutrient loads, the changing climate will have a considerable negative effect,  
2892 but if loads are kept low, climate effects can be small or negligible. Scenario simulations suggest that full  
2893 implementation of the nutrient load reductions required by BSAP will significantly improve the eutrophication  
2894 status of the Baltic Sea, irrespective of the driving global climate model (Saraiva et al., 2019b; Meier et al., 2021b)  
2895 and regional coupled climate-environmental model (Meier et al., 2018a). Despite large uncertainties of future  
2896 projections, modeling studies suggested that the future Baltic Sea ecosystem may unprecedentedly change  
2897 compared to the past 150 years (Meier et al., 2012a).

2898  
2899 By the end of the century (2069-2098), the ensemble mean hypoxic area is projected to change only slightly under  
2900 reference (-14% for RCP4.5 and -5% for RCP8.5) and high (-2% for RCP4.5 and +5% for RCP8.5) nutrient load  
2901 scenarios, compared to 1976-2005 (Saraiva et al., 2019b). Nutrient loads in the reference scenario are the average  
2902 loads in 2010-2012. The high, or worst, scenario assumes changes caused by a 'fossil-fuelled development',  
2903 coupled to increasing river runoff (Saraiva et al., 2019a). Changes in nitrogen and phosphorus loads were estimated  
2904 from assumptions on regional population growth, changes in agricultural practices, such as land and fertilizer use,  
2905 and developments in sewage treatment (Zandersen et al., 2019; Pihlainen et al., 2020). Under the BSAP scenario,  
2906 the ensemble mean hypoxic area will be reduced by 50-60% at the end of the century, in comparison with 1976-  
2907 2005 (Saraiva et al., 2019a). The relative reductions in hypoxic area may decrease with increasing sea level (Meier  
2908 et al., 2021b).



2909

2910 In the same model ensemble (Saraiva et al., 2019a), BSAP implementation is projected to reduce the water column  
2911 phosphate pool in the Baltic Sea by 59% (RCP4.5) and 56% (RCP8.5) by the end of the century, and even the  
2912 reference loads would lead to a decline by 24% (RCP4.5) and 18% (RCP8.5). Also, a larger ensemble (Meier et  
2913 al., 2018a) of 8 biogeochemical models forced by outputs of 7 ESMs downscaled by 4 different RCMs projected  
2914 that the BSAP reduced phosphate concentrations in the Baltic proper, Gulf of Finland and Bothnian Sea despite  
2915 climate change, with largest reductions in surface concentrations by approximately  $3 \text{ mmol m}^{-3}$  in the Gulf of  
2916 Finland. Present day nutrient loads led to small increases in surface phosphate concentration in the Baltic proper,  
2917 a small decline in the Gulf of Finland and little change in Bothnian Sea and Bothnian Bay. Little change was  
2918 predicted for DIN concentrations in the Baltic proper, whereas simulations showed an increase in the Gulf of  
2919 Finland and the Bothnian Sea, regardless whether nutrient loads were kept at present level or whether loads were  
2920 reduced.

2921

2922 Furthermore, future projections suggested that the sea-ice decline in the northern Baltic Sea may have considerable  
2923 consequences for the marine biogeochemistry, because of changing underwater light conditions and wave climate  
2924 (Eilola et al., 2013). Eilola et al. (2013) found that, by the end of the century, the spring bloom would start by up  
2925 to one month earlier and winds and wave-induced resuspension would increase, causing an increased transport of  
2926 nutrients from the productive coastal zone into the deeper areas.

2927

2928 For the Baltic proper, the internal nutrient cycling and exchanges between shallow and deeper waters were  
2929 projected to be intensified, and the internal removal of phosphorus may become weaker in future climate (Eilola  
2930 et al., 2012). These effects may counteract the efforts of planned nutrient input reductions.

2931

2932 Uncertainties in projections from Baltic Sea ecosystem models have recently been systematically assessed for the  
2933 first time (Meier et al., 2018a; Meier et al., 2019b; Meier and Saraiva, 2020; Meier et al., 2021b). One of the larger  
2934 sources of uncertainty is biases in global and regional climate models, in particular concerning global mean sea  
2935 level rise and regional water cycling (Meier et al., 2019b). The mechanism behind the correlation between large-  
2936 scale meteorological conditions in the different climate periods and oxygen conditions in the Baltic Sea is not well  
2937 understood and subject to ongoing research. With respect to nutrient concentrations, also uncertainties in  
2938 conditions at the North Sea boundary as well as difficulties in simulating the long-term response of the Baltic Sea  
2939 biogeochemical system to changes in nutrient inputs, play a role.

2940

2941 Under the BSAP scenario, mean nitrogen fixation would decrease (Meier et al., 2021b) and record-breaking  
2942 cyanobacteria blooms may no longer occur in the future, but record-breaking events may reappear at the end of  
2943 the century in a business-as-usual nutrient load scenario (Meier et al., 2019a).

#### 2944 **3.3.5.7.2 Marine CO<sub>2</sub> system**

2945 The rising atmospheric pCO<sub>2</sub> due to anthropogenic emissions will increase the mean pCO<sub>2</sub> of surface seawater and  
2946 thus has the potential to lower the pH. However, the magnitude of pH changes will also depend on the development  
2947 of total alkalinity concentrations (A<sub>T</sub>; Omstedt et al., 2012). Future A<sub>T</sub> changes in the Baltic Sea will be shaped by  
2948 both external inputs (riverine runoff and inflows from the North Sea) and internal generation. The latter is due to



2949 biogeochemical processes of organic matter production and remineralization, especially under euxinic conditions.  
2950 Kuznetsov and Neumann (2013), who used  $A_T$  as a tracer in a model (no internal processes included) showed that  
2951 on average  $A_T$  in surface Baltic Sea waters should decrease by about  $150 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  by 2100, a change  
2952 corresponding to an assumed decrease in salinity. Simulations by Gustafsson et al. (2019) that include most of the  
2953 biogeochemical processes affecting  $A_T$  (except S burial and Fe-oxide availability) showed that  $A_T$  in the central  
2954 Baltic Sea in the “business as usual” scenario will first increase, by about  $100 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  by 2050, and then revert  
2955 to present levels by 2100. If BSAP is implemented,  $A_T$  will decrease by about  $150 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  in 2100 from present  
2956 levels. Irrespective of the nutrient load scenario, pH is eventually expected to decrease in the central Baltic Sea  
2957 due to anthropogenic  $\text{CO}_2$  emissions. Assuming the A1B  $\text{CO}_2$  emission scenario ( $\text{pCO}_2$  increase to  $700 \mu\text{atm}$  by  
2958 2100), pH will drop to about 7.9 and 7.8 under “business as usual” and BSAP scenarios, respectively.

### 2959 3.3.6 Marine biosphere

#### 2960 3.3.6.1 Pelagic habitats

##### 2961 3.3.6.1.1 Microbial communities

2962 The effects of climate change on microbes and the functioning of the microbial loop have been studied by  
2963 experiments in which temperature, salinity, dissolved organic matter (DOM), and ocean acidification (OA) were  
2964 manipulated. In general, microbial activity and biomass increased with increasing DOM and temperature  
2965 (Ducklow et al., 2009), but effects can be mixed. For instance, an increase in DOM in the northern Gulf of Bothnia  
2966 enhanced the abundance of bacteria, whereas a temperature increase (from 12 to  $15^\circ\text{C}$ ) decreased their abundance,  
2967 probably due to a simultaneous increase of bacterivorous flagellates (Nydahl et al., 2013).

2968

2969 In the southern Baltic Sea the impact of OA was limited, and the bacterial community responded primarily to  
2970 temperature and phytoplankton succession (Bergen et al., 2016). In experiments where  $\text{CO}_2$  was increased and  
2971 salinity decreased (from 6 to 3), heterotrophic bacteria declined (Wulff et al., 2018). In experiments with increasing  
2972 temperature (from 16 to  $18\text{--}20^\circ\text{C}$ ) and reduced salinity (from 6.9 to  $5.9 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ ), the Baltic proper microbial  
2973 community also showed mixed responses, probably due to indirect food web effects (Berner et al., 2018).

##### 2974 3.3.6.1.2 Phytoplankton and cyanobacteria

2975 The projected increase in precipitation is expected to increase nutrient loads, especially into the northern Baltic  
2976 Sea (Huttunen et al., 2015), and together with increased internal loading of nutrients, several modelling studies  
2977 project an increased phytoplankton biomass by the end of the century (Meier et al., 2012b; Meier et al., 2012c;  
2978 Skogen et al., 2014; Ryabchenko et al., 2016).

2979

2980 Several mesocosm studies have investigated the effects of warming on southern Baltic Sea phytoplankton  
2981 communities. Warming accelerated the phytoplankton spring bloom and increased primary productivity (Sommer  
2982 and Lewandowska, 2011; Lewandowska et al., 2012; Paul et al., 2015). The total phytoplankton biomass still  
2983 decreased, due to negative effects of warming on nutrient flux (Lewandowska et al., 2012; Lewandowska et al.,  
2984 2014).

2985



2986 Ocean acidification (OA) may enhance phytoplankton productivity by increasing the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the  
2987 water. The biomass of southern Baltic Sea autumn phytoplankton increased in mesocosms simulating OA  
2988 (Sommer et al., 2015). In many experiments OA had, however, little effect on phytoplankton community  
2989 composition, fatty acid composition or biovolume in spring or autumn (Paul et al., 2015; Bermúdez et al., 2016;  
2990 Olofsson et al., 2019).

2991  
2992 It has been suggested that climate change may increase the blooming of toxic species, such as the dinoflagellate  
2993 *Alexandrium ostenfeldii* (Kremp et al., 2012; Kremp et al., 2016) and the cyanobacterium *Dolichospermum* sp.  
2994 (Brutemark et al., 2015; Wulff et al., 2018). There are also contradictory results, indicating that OA and warming  
2995 may decrease the biomass of *Nodularia* sp. and *Dolichospermum* sp. (Eichner et al., 2014; Berner et al., 2018).  
2996 Several modelling studies project increases in cyanobacteria in the warmer and more stratified future Baltic Sea  
2997 (Meier et al., 2011b; Andersson et al., 2015; Neumann et al., 2012; Chust et al., 2014; Hense et al., 2013), but  
2998 other modelling studies project that the environmental state of the Baltic Sea will be significantly improved, and  
2999 extreme cyanobacteria blooms will no longer occur if BSAP is fully implemented (Meier et al., 2018a; Meier et  
3000 al., 2019a; Saraiva et al., 2019a; see Figure 32).

### 3001 **3.3.6.1.3 Zooplankton**

3002 The effects of increasing temperature and ocean acidification (OA) on zooplankton have been studied  
3003 experimentally. In *Acartia* sp., a dominant copepod in the northern Baltic Sea, warming decreased egg viability,  
3004 nauplii development and adult survival, and both warming and OA had negative effects on adult female size  
3005 (Garzke et al., 2015; Vehmaa et al., 2016; Vehmaa et al., 2013).

3006  
3007 In contrast, the effects of climate change on microzooplankton (MZP) seem to be mostly beneficial. Warming  
3008 improved the growth rate of southern Baltic Sea MZP, which led to a reduced time-lag between phytoplankton  
3009 and MZP maxima, improving the food supply to microzooplankton in warm conditions (Horn et al., 2015). (Aberle  
3010 et al., 2015) showed that while protozooplankton escaped predation by slower growing copepods at low  
3011 temperatures, at warmer temperatures small ciliates in particular became more strongly controlled by copepod  
3012 predation.

### 3013 **3.3.6.2 Benthic habitats**

#### 3014 **3.3.6.2.1 Macroalgae and vascular plants**

3015 The effects of climate change on bladder wrack, *Fucus vesiculosus*, have been studied in a number of experiments.  
3016 Ocean acidification (OA) appears to have a relatively small effect on macroalgae (Al-Janabi et al., 2016; Wahl et  
3017 al., 2020), while temperature effects can be significant. The effects of increasing temperature are not linear,  
3018 however. Growth or photosynthesis is not impaired under projected temperature increase (from 15 to 17.5°C) but  
3019 at extreme temperatures (27 to 29°C), photosynthesis declines, growth ceases and necrosis starts (Graiff et al.,  
3020 2015; Takolander et al., 2017). In very low salinity (2.5 g kg<sup>-1</sup>), sexual reproduction of *F. vesiculosus* ceases  
3021 (Rothäusler et al., 2018).

3022  
3023 The direct and indirect effects of changes in temperature, salinity and pH may alter the geographic distribution of  
3024 many species in the Baltic Sea. Retreat of marine species has been predicted for bladder wrack, eelgrass and blue



3025 mussel, and up to 50 other species affiliated to these keystone species (Vuorinen et al., 2015). Species distribution  
3026 modelling has indicated that a decrease of bladder wrack will have large effects on the biodiversity and functioning  
3027 of the shallow-water communities of the northern Baltic Sea (Jonsson et al., 2018; Kotta et al., 2019). The  
3028 responses of eelgrass, *Zostera marina*, to climate change and eutrophication mitigation have recently been modeled  
3029 by Bobsien et al. (2021).

3030

3031 Experiments on climate change effects have been made also with other macroalgae and vascular plants. Thus, OA  
3032 increased the growth of the opportunistic green alga *Ulva intestinalis* in the Gulf of Riga (Pajusalu et al., 2013;  
3033 Pajusalu et al., 2016). Other studies showed that charophyte photosynthesis increased under high pCO<sub>2</sub>, whereas  
3034 eelgrass did not respond to the elevated pCO<sub>2</sub> alone (Pajusalu et al., 2015). Salinity decline is projected to decrease  
3035 the distribution of *Z. marina* and the red alga *Furcellaria lumbricalis*, whereas warming will probably favour  
3036 charophytes (Torn et al., 2020).

#### 3037 **3.3.6.2.2 Zoobenthos**

3038 The effects of warming on invertebrates are non-linear. Respiration and growth of the isopod *Idotea balthica*  
3039 increased up to 20°C, and then decreased at 25°C (Ito et al., 2019). Many marine invertebrates, including isopods,  
3040 will also directly and indirectly suffer from decreasing salinity (Kotta et al., 2019; Rugiu et al., 2017), as well as  
3041 ocean acidification (OA). The size and time to settlement of the pelagic larvae of the Baltic clam *Limecola balthica*  
3042 (syn *Macoma balthica*) increased with OA, suggesting a developmental delay (Jansson et al., 2016), whereas OA  
3043 had no effect on the isopod *Saduria entomon* (Jakubowska et al., 2013) or larvae of the barnacle *Amphibalanus*  
3044 *improvisus* (Pansch et al., 2012).

3045

3046 Several modelling studies have estimated the relative effects of hydrodynamics, oxygen and food availability on  
3047 Baltic Sea zoobenthos. In previously hypoxic areas, benthic biomass was projected to increase (until 2100) by up  
3048 to 200% after re-oxygenating bottom waters, whereas in permanently oxygenated areas macrofauna may decrease  
3049 by 35% due to lowered food supply to the benthic ecosystem (Timmermann et al., 2012). It has, however, been  
3050 concluded that nutrient reductions will be a stronger driver for Baltic Sea ecosystem than climate change (Friedland  
3051 et al., 2012; Niiranen et al., 2013; Ehrnsten et al., 2019). These studies suggest that benthic-pelagic coupling will  
3052 weaken in a warmer and less eutrophic Baltic Sea, resulting in gradually decreasing benthic biomass (Ehrnsten et  
3053 al., 2020).

#### 3054 **3.3.6.3 Non-indigenous species**

3055 It is often suggested that climate change will favour invasions by non-indigenous species worldwide (Jones and  
3056 Cheung, 2014). It has been shown that non-native benthic species typically occur in areas with reduced salinity,  
3057 high temperatures, high proportion of soft seabed and low wave exposure, whereas most native species show an  
3058 opposite pattern (Jänes et al., 2017). Modelled temperature and salinity scenarios suggests an increase of Ponto-  
3059 Caspian cladocerans in the pelagic community, and an increase in dreissenid bivalves, amphipods and mysids in  
3060 the benthos of coastal areas in the northern Baltic Sea by 2100 (Holopainen et al., 2016). Disentangling factors  
3061 facilitating establishment of non-native species demands long-term surveys, and data from multiple environments  
3062 in order to distinguish climate-related effects from other ecosystem-level drivers (Bailey et al., 2020). In addition,  
3063 studies on changing connectivity are needed (e.g. Jonsson et al., 2020).



3064 **3.3.6.4 Fish**

3065 Climate change may affect Baltic Sea fish through effects on water temperature, salinity, oxygen and pH, as well  
3066 as nutrient loads, which indirectly affect food availability for fish. The responses of cod larvae to ocean  
3067 acidification and warming have been studied experimentally. Some studies found no effect on hatching, survival  
3068 or development rates of cod larvae (Frommel et al., 2013), while in others mortality of cod larvae doubled when  
3069 exposed to high-end OA projections (RCP8.5). Several modelling studies however project low abundances of cod  
3070 towards the end of the century, due to continued poor oxygen conditions (Niiranen et al., 2013; Wählström et al.,  
3071 2020).

3072  
3073 Climate change may also be positive for fish stocks. Warmer spring and summer temperatures have been projected  
3074 to increase productivity of sprat (Voss et al., 2011; MacKenzie et al., 2012; Niiranen et al., 2013). For herring,  
3075 results are more varied: both increase (Bartolino et al., 2014) and a short-term decrease (Niiranen et al., 2013)  
3076 have been projected.

3077  
3078 Multi-species modelling has also emphasized the role of climate for cod stocks. If fishing is intense but climate  
3079 remains unchanged, cod declines, but not very dramatically, while if climate change proceeds as projected, cod  
3080 disappeared in two models out of seven, even with the current low fishing effort (Gårdmark et al., 2013). Different  
3081 scenarios yield very different outcomes, however. A medium CO<sub>2</sub> concentration scenario (RCP4.5), low nutrients  
3082 and sustainable fisheries resulted in high numbers of cod and flounder, while high emissions (RCP8.5) and high  
3083 nutrient loads resulted in high abundance of sprat (Bauer et al., 2018; Bauer et al., 2019). All these studies assumed  
3084 a more or less pronounced decrease in salinity.

3085 **3.3.6.5 Marine mammals**

3086 *Ringed seal and grey seal – sea ice*

3087 Climate change is projected to drastically reduce the extent of seasonal sea ice in the Baltic Sea (Luomaranta et  
3088 al., 2014; Meier, 2006; Meier, 2015; Meier et al., 2004b). At the end of the 21st century, ice will probably in most  
3089 years be confined to the Bothnian Bay, the eastern Gulf of Finland, the Archipelago sea, and the Moonsund (Sound  
3090 between the Estonian mainland and the offshore western islands Saaremaa, Hiiumaa, Muhu and Vormsi) and  
3091 eastern parts of the Gulf of Riga such as Pärnu Bay (Meier et al., 2004b), with corresponding changes in the  
3092 breeding and moulting distribution of ringed seals. Aside from these projections, ice cover has been even more  
3093 limited in all the southern areas in recent years. Extirpation of one or more of the three southern breeding ringed  
3094 seal populations is possible (Sundqvist et al., 2012; Meier et al., 2004b).

3095  
3096 The ringed seal is an obligatory ice breeder that digs lairs in the snowdrifts on offshore ice for protection of the  
3097 pup (e.g. Smith and Stirling, 1975). The Baltic grey seal prefers loose floes of drift ice (Hook et al., 1972), but can  
3098 also breed on land (Jüssi et al., 2008). Overall pup survival in land breeding grey seals is probably lower than for  
3099 ice breeders (Jüssi et al., 2008). Absence or low quality of sea ice will adversely affect pup survival and quality in  
3100 ice-breeding seals. The effects can be seen by the end of the breeding season, and beyond (Jüssi et al., 2008). Grey  
3101 and ringed seals are capital breeders, i.e., their pup quality depends on effective transfer of maternal energy (fatty  
3102 milk) during a short, intensive lactation period. Timing of birth for both species is strongly adapted to the  
3103 availability of the optimal breeding platform, sea ice. The height of the pupping season is around February-early



3104 March, when the extent and strength of the sea-ice is usually greatest. The immediate breeding success can be  
3105 defined as survival and quality of the offspring at the end of the breeding season, but breeding conditions may  
3106 have population consequences by affecting the survival and fitness of the pups throughout their lives (McNamara  
3107 and Houston, 1996; Kauhala and Kurkilahti, 2020). A warming climate with higher air and water temperatures  
3108 will decrease the extent of ice-cover, the ice thickness and the overlaying snow-cover as well as the stability and  
3109 duration of the ice.

3110

3111 Loss of habitat is critical for reproductive success of the ice-associated seals, especially the ringed seal, and can  
3112 eventually lead to local population decreases and changes in breeding distribution, starting in the southernmost  
3113 parts of its range. The ringed seal populations breeding in the Gulf of Finland, Gulf of Riga and Archipelago Sea  
3114 (SW-Finland) are already small and vulnerable to any negative changes in habitat quality.

3115

#### 3116 *Harbour seal and grey seal – flooding of haul-outs*

3117 Harbour seals and grey seals rely on undisturbed haul-out areas for key life cycle events such as breeding, moulting  
3118 and resting (Allen et al., 1984; Thompson, 1989; Watts, 1996; Reeder et al., 2003). In the southern Baltic Sea,  
3119 relative sea levels have risen by 1 to 3 mm per year over the interval 1970-2016 (section 3.2.5.4), and increased  
3120 rates of sea level rise are expected in the future (EEA, 2019c; Grinsted, 2015). A low emissions scenario for the  
3121 21st century projects an additional sea-level rise of 0.29-0.59 m, a high emissions scenario an extra 0.61-1.10 m,  
3122 but substantially higher values cannot be ruled out (Grinsted, 2015; IPCC, 2019a). A high emission scenario is  
3123 thus likely to flood all current seal haul-outs in the southern Baltic Sea and many important localities in Kattegat,  
3124 while under a low emission scenario, most haul-outs in the southern Baltic Sea will be flooded, while others will  
3125 be reduced to small fractions of their current area. In the northern and central Baltic Sea and eastern Kattegat  
3126 archipelago areas, seals will have alternative islets and skerries and are not likely to be affected to the same degree  
3127 as in the south and in eastern Kattegat. In parts of the Gulf of Bothnia, relative sealevels may even fall, due to  
3128 post-glacial rebound (EEA, 2019c).

3129

#### 3130 *Harbour porpoise*

3131 There are no direct studies of the effects of climate change on harbour porpoises in the Baltic Sea, hence the  
3132 following is based mostly on informed guesswork and on a few studies in other areas. There are a multitude of  
3133 ways that changes in one parameter can affect others and we do not currently have the knowledge to predict the  
3134 cumulative effects this might have on the Baltic Sea harbour porpoise population.

3135

3136 Harbour porpoises are present from Greenland to the African coast and the Black Sea and seem to have a rather  
3137 wide thermal tolerance. Therefore, even though it is predicted that we will see a 1.2-3.2° increase in SST in the  
3138 Baltic Sea (Section 3.3.5.1), it seems unlikely that this will directly affect harbour porpoise distribution, unless the  
3139 Baltic Sea harbour porpoise is specifically adapted to colder temperatures. If this is the case, a northwards range  
3140 shift might occur. With the expected future decrease in sea ice extent, the winter habitat available for the harbour  
3141 porpoise in the northern Baltic Sea would increase.

3142

3143 Harbour porpoises are small cetaceans with limited capacity to store energy that mostly live in cold environments.  
3144 Hence, they need to eat almost constantly (Read and Hohn, 1995; Wisniewska et al., 2016) and are therefore





3145 expected to be tightly dependent on their prey (Sveegaard et al., 2012). Their main prey species in the Baltic proper  
3146 are cod (at least before the recent cod stock collapse), sprat, herring, gobies and sand eel (where present). Climate-  
3147 induced changes in for example SST, fronts, stratification and to some degree currents will affect the distribution,  
3148 abundance and possibly the quality of prey species, and in turn the harbour porpoise population. Their distribution  
3149 may shift as they follow their prey, and potential food shortages might lead to starvation, with possible population  
3150 effects.

3151  
3152 It has been hypothesized that the susceptibility of marine mammals to disease may increase as temperature  
3153 increases. Higher temperatures can increase pathogen development and survival rates, facilitate transmission  
3154 among individuals and increase individual susceptibility to disease. The negative effects of disease as well as  
3155 environmental contaminants on individual fitness will obviously worsen if the animal is also under nutritional  
3156 stress.

3157  
3158 *Seals and changes in the distribution of prey species*

3159 Any large alteration of the ecosystem can affect the distribution of seals if there are climate-related changes in the  
3160 abundance and distribution of their main prey species, such as herring, sprat and cod, as is possible with climate  
3161 change. Such changes in top consumer distribution have been modeled in other sea areas, such as the UK  
3162 continental shelf, where the current distribution of harbour seals did not match well the projected future distribution  
3163 of their prey (Sadykova et al. 2020). There are large differences in salinity between Baltic Sea models (Saraiva et  
3164 al., 2019b), and other factors such as temperature, eutrophication, predation and competition also affect fish  
3165 distributions. Thus, future changes in abundance and distribution of seal prey species, such as herring and cod, are  
3166 hard to predict (Dippner et al., 2008; Lindegren et al., 2010; Vuorinen et al., 2015; Dippner et al., 2019).

### 3167 **3.3.6.6 Waterbirds**

3168 Climate change scenarios agree in projecting a strong temperature increase in the Arctic and sub-Arctic. This will  
3169 likely cause a northward expansion of species ranges, with colonization by new breeding and wintering species,  
3170 as well as local species declines following migration of populations to ice-free northern waters (Pavón-Jordán et  
3171 al., 2019; Fox et al., 2019).

3172  
3173 If salinity in the Baltic Sea decreases, invertebrate species serving as prey for waterbirds (e.g. blue mussels for  
3174 common eiders) are likely to change in distribution, body size and quality as food, with consequences for the  
3175 distribution, reproduction and survival of the waterbirds that eat them (Fox et al., 2015). Predicting the  
3176 consequences of climate change for piscivorous seabirds is complex, because effects are not uniform among Baltic  
3177 Sea fish species. For example, expected increase of recruitment and abundance in an important prey species (sprat;  
3178 MacKenzie et al., 2012; Lindegren et al., 2012) as well as declining numbers of large piscivorous fish (cod) may  
3179 favour fish-eating birds, although management efforts to improve cod stocks may counteract the expected increase  
3180 in sprat and lead to population declines of their main bird predator, the common guillemot (Kadin et al., 2019).  
3181 Herring, another important prey species, is reported to be negatively affected by decreasing salinity (declining  
3182 energy content; Rajasilta et al., 2018).

3183



3184 A rising sea level will reduce the area of saltmarshes available for the breeding of waders and foraging by geese  
3185 (Clausen et al., 2013), and other coastal habitats would likewise be affected (Clausen and Clausen, 2014). Sea  
3186 level rise in combination with storms may cause loss by erosion of current coastal breeding habitats, and flood  
3187 breeding sites, thus affecting the breeding success of coastal waterbirds. Climate change can also be expected to  
3188 affect waterbirds in the Baltic Sea by changing the incidence of diseases and parasites (Fox et al., 2015).

### 3189 **3.3.6.7 Marine food webs**

3190 Climate change and other anthropogenic environmental drivers are expected to change entire marine food webs,  
3191 from coastal to off-shore, from shallow to deep, from pelagic to benthic (sedimentary), as species-distributions are  
3192 impacted, and key nodes and linkages in the food webs are altered or lost (Lindegren et al., 2010; Niiranen et al.,  
3193 2013; Leidenberger et al., 2015; Griffiths et al., 2017; Kotta et al., 2019; Gårdmark and Huss, 2020). These climate-  
3194 driven changes will also, when combined with societal changes, affect aquatic ecosystem services, for instance  
3195 future primary production (a supportive ecosystem service) and fish catches (a provisioning ecosystem service;  
3196 Hyttiäinen et al., 2021).

## 3197 **4 Interactions of climate with other anthropogenic drivers**

3198 The term “driver” in this section is defined as something affecting or being affected by another force. In this  
3199 respect, climate is a force affecting other drivers, e.g. land use or shipping. On the other hand, (regional) climate  
3200 may be affected by other drivers, e.g. land use or shipping. This section summarizes plausible two-way  
3201 dependencies that have been described in the literature. For a deeper analysis, see Reckermann et al. (2021).

3202

3203 Climate change affects air and water temperature as well as precipitation, with a clear impact on land use and land  
3204 cover. Growth conditions are affected by these changes, but also by political or management decisions, which may  
3205 in turn be influenced by climate change (Yli-Pelkonen, 2008). Agriculture is the most important land use in the  
3206 southern part of the Baltic Sea basin. Climate change strongly influences the choice of crops, as crops differ in  
3207 their requirements for water availability and soil type (Fronzek and Carter, 2007; Smith et al., 2008). Still, socio-  
3208 economic considerations may be even more important than climate in determining agricultural land use  
3209 (Rounsevell et al., 2005; Pihlainen et al., 2020).

3210

3211 Land use and cover can influence the regional climate, through geophysical (albedo) and biogeochemical (CO<sub>2</sub>  
3212 drawdown) effects. Bright surfaces like agricultural fields reflect more energy than dark surfaces, like forests and  
3213 open waters. Thus, the type of land cover may affect regional warming, but its relative contribution is disputed  
3214 (Gaillard et al., 2015; Strandberg and Kjellström, 2019). Increasing droughts with lower river flow at certain times  
3215 of the year may influence water management and shipping in regulated rivers, especially in the southern catchment  
3216 basins. On the other hand, extreme rain events may lead to inundations (Kundzewicz et al., 2005).

3217

3218 Climate change will strongly affect coastal structures through sea level rise and intensified coastal erosion. Storm  
3219 surges, which run up higher as sea level rises, as well as changed currents and sediment relocations will endanger  
3220 levees, groynes and other coastal structures, and have to be handled by coastal management (Le Cozannet et al.,  
3221 2017; Łabuz, 2015).



3222

3223 We can expect a considerable increase in offshore wind energy production worldwide, in order to counteract  
3224 climate warming. Although projections of future winds are uncertain, the number of off-shore wind farms can be  
3225 expected to increase due to the politically driven shift to renewable energies, and the limited space and low  
3226 acceptance for wind mills on land. Offshore wind farms may in turn affect the regional climate by absorbing  
3227 atmospheric energy on the regional scale (Akhtar et al., 2021), but the magnitude of this effect is uncertain  
3228 (Lundquist et al., 2019).

3229

3230 Shipping is affected by climate change. Perils at sea for ships are all climate sensitive, ranging from storms, waves,  
3231 currents, ice conditions, visibility to sea level affecting navigational fairways. Winter navigation will be facilitated  
3232 as drastically decreasing winter sea-ice cover is projected, but search and rescue missions in winter may increase  
3233 because engine power may in the future be adapted to the lower expected ice cover. Further aspects are a potential  
3234 increase in leisure boating, a potentially temperature-dependent functioning of antifouling paints, and different  
3235 noise propagation through warmer water. The efficiency of SO<sub>x</sub> scrubbing depends on the temperature, salinity  
3236 and pH of the seawater, and eventually ends up contaminating the Baltic Sea (Turner et al., 2018). Shipping itself  
3237 affects climate through combusting fossil fuels.

3238

3239 Coastal processes, e.g. erosion and the translocation of sediments through erosion, currents and accretion, are  
3240 affected by climate change though sea level rise and changes in storm frequency, severity and tracks (Defeo et al.,  
3241 2009).

3242

3243 Climate change affects the amount of nutrients entering the sea in precipitation and by land runoff, which in turn  
3244 is affected by precipitation, air temperature and runoff pattern, e.g. Arheimer et al. (2012) and Bartosova et al.  
3245 (2019). How fertilization practices, crops grown, and land use will change in response to climate change is largely  
3246 unknown. Climate-related changes in the Baltic Sea, like warmer temperatures, changed stratification and altered  
3247 ecosystems and biogeochemical pathways may change the fate of nutrients in the sea, e.g. Kuliński et al. (2021).

3248

3249 There is not much evidence of a direct climate influence on the quantity and quality of submarine groundwater  
3250 discharge, but considering the driving forces (topography-driven flow, wave set-up, precipitation, sea level rise  
3251 and convection), an effect is highly plausible, but its magnitude and relevance is unknown (e.g. Taniguchi et al.,  
3252 2019).

3253

3254 Fisheries are strongly affected by climate change through its effect on the resources, i.e. the commercially  
3255 interesting fish populations in the Baltic Sea, mostly cod, sprat and herring (Möllmann, 2019). Climate affects  
3256 salinity and temperature in the Baltic Sea, thereby influencing the productivity of several fish species (MacKenzie  
3257 and Schiedek, 2007; Köster et al., 2016), and the resources that fisheries exploit. Growth of planktivorous species  
3258 or life stages is also affected by climatic conditions that regulate zooplankton dynamics (Casini et al., 2011; Köster  
3259 et al., 2016).

3260

3261 Climatic change is a plausible driver for the migration and occurrence of non-indigenous species, although there  
3262 is little direct evidence. Shipping has been identified as a major vector for the introduction of new marine species



3263 into the Baltic Sea ecosystem, through ballast water or attachment to hulls or elimination of physical barriers (e.g.  
3264 though the construction of canals between water bodies; Ojaveer et al., 2017). A northward migration of terrestrial  
3265 (Smith et al., 2008) and marine species, including fish, is documented and expected to continue (MacKenzie and  
3266 Schiedek, 2007; Holopainen et al., 2016).

3267

3268 Climate change affects contaminants in the Baltic Sea through an array of processes, like partitioning between  
3269 environmental phase-pairs such as air-water, air-aerosols, air-soil, air-vegetation, leading to a different distribution  
3270 between environmental compartments (Macdonald et al., 2003). Atmospheric transport and air-water exchange  
3271 can be influenced by changes in wind fields and wind speeds (Lamon et al., 2009; Kong et al., 2014). Changing  
3272 precipitation patterns influence chemical transport via atmospheric deposition (rain dissolution and scavenging of  
3273 particles, (Armitage et al., 2011) and runoff, transporting terrestrial organic carbon (Ripszam et al., 2015). As ice-  
3274 cover of lakes and the sea decreases, more organic contaminants may volatilize to the atmosphere (Macdonald et  
3275 al., 2003; Undeman et al., 2015).

3276

3277 Dumped military ammunition threaten the Baltic Sea in the future, as poisonous substances are expected to leak  
3278 due to advanced corrosion of hulls and containers. This process may be affected by climate, as corrosion rates  
3279 depend on temperature and oxygen, so that warming and good ventilation of dumping sites can be expected to  
3280 enhance corrosion rates (Vanninen et al., 2020). This is an urgent problem since the location of the dumped military  
3281 material is only partially known.

3282

3283 There is no evident direct impact of climate change on marine litter or microplastics, but there may be a connection  
3284 via increased temperature- and photolysis-dependent rates of degradation and dissolution of microplastics, and on  
3285 distribution by currents.

## 3286 **5 Comparison with the North Sea region**

### 3287 **5.1 The North Sea region**

3288 Like the Baltic Sea basin, the North Sea region is both a precious natural environment and a place for settlement  
3289 and commerce for millions of people, with a rich cultural heritage. The North Sea is one of the world's richest  
3290 fishing grounds as well as one of the busiest seas with respect to shipping and infrastructure for oil and gas  
3291 extraction, and of enormous economic value. In recent years the area has also become a major site for wind energy,  
3292 with many large offshore wind farms.

3293

3294 As climate change is expected to have profound effects on North Sea ecosystems and economic development, an  
3295 independent, voluntary, international team of scientists from across the region compiled the North Sea Region  
3296 Climate Change Assessment (NOSCCA; Quante and Colijn, 2016). The NOSCCA approach is similar to BACC  
3297 in format and intention. The assessment provides a comprehensive overview of all aspects of a changing climate,  
3298 discussing a wide range of topics including past, current and future climate change, and climate-related changes  
3299 in marine, terrestrial and freshwater ecosystems. It also explores the impact of climate change on some socio-  
3300 economic sectors, such as fisheries, agriculture, coastal zone management, coastal protection, urban climate,  
3301 recreation/tourism, offshore activities/energy, and air pollution.



3302

3303 The North Sea is a semi-enclosed marginal sea of the North Atlantic Ocean, situated on the north-west European  
3304 shelf. It opens widely into the Atlantic Ocean at its northern boundary, with a smaller connection to the Atlantic  
3305 Ocean via the Dover Strait and English Channel in the south-west. To the east it connects to the Baltic Sea. The  
3306 Kattegat, a transition zone between the North and Baltic seas, is located between the Skagerrak and the Danish  
3307 straits. Comprehensive reviews of North Sea physical oceanography are provided by Otto et al. (1990), Rodhe  
3308 (1998) and Sündermann and Pohlmann (2011). Physical-chemical-biological interaction processes within the  
3309 North Sea are reviewed by Rodhe et al. (2006) and Emeis et al. (2015), and a description of the North Sea marine  
3310 ecosystem was compiled by McGlade (2002).

3311

3312 Among the most striking differences between the North and Baltic seas is the wide, direct opening of the North  
3313 Sea to the North Eastern Atlantic, allowing free exchange of matter, heat and momentum between the two seas.  
3314 As a result the North Sea water has a much higher salinity than the Baltic Sea. The North Sea dynamics are greatly  
3315 influenced by tides, while Baltic Sea tides are much weaker than in the North Sea, where tidal amplitudes vary  
3316 spatially from a few decimeters to several meters. In addition to the wind-driven circulation, which dominates the  
3317 mean cyclonic current system, North Sea tidal currents show non-vanishing residual currents (due to nonlinear  
3318 processes), which cannot be neglected. Tidal currents cause strong mixing. Low pressure systems often travel from  
3319 the Atlantic with minimum blockage and cause strong storm surges, which are the greatest potential natural hazards  
3320 for coastal communities in the North Sea region.

3321

3322 Only selected examples from NOSCCA will be presented here. In general, the North Sea region already  
3323 experiences a changing climate and projections indicate that further, partly accelerating, changes are to be expected  
3324 (warming of air and water, changing precipitation intensities and patterns, sea level rise, seawater acidification).  
3325 Changes in ecosystems (marine, coastal, terrestrial) are observed, and are projected to strengthen, with degree  
3326 depending on scenario. Observational as well as modelling studies have revealed a large natural variability in the  
3327 North Sea region (from annual to multidecadal time scales), making it difficult to identify regional climate change  
3328 signals and impacts for some parameters. Projecting regional climate change and impacts for the North Sea region  
3329 is currently limited by the small number of regional coupled model runs available and the lack of consistent  
3330 downscaling approaches, both for marine and terrestrial impacts. The wide spread in results from multi-model  
3331 ensembles indicates the present uncertainty in the amplitude and spatial pattern of the projected changes in sea  
3332 level, temperature, salinity and primary production. For moderate climate change, anthropogenic drivers such as  
3333 changes in land use, agricultural practice, river flow management or pollutant emissions often seem more  
3334 important for impacts on ecosystems than climate change.

### 3335 **5.2 A few selected and highly aggregated results from NOSCCA**

3336 *Atmosphere:* Observations reveal that the near-surface atmospheric temperature has increased everywhere in the  
3337 North Sea region, especially in spring and in the north. The rise was faster over land than over the sea. Linear  
3338 trends in the annual mean land temperature are about +0.39°C per decade for the period 1980–2010. Generally,  
3339 more warm extremes and fewer cold ones were observed. A north-eastward shift in storm tracks was observed, in  
3340 agreement with projections from climate models forced by increased greenhouse gas concentrations. Overall,  
3341 precipitation has increased in the northern North Sea region and decreased in the south, summers have become



3342 warmer and drier and winters have become wetter. Heavy precipitation events have become more extreme. A  
3343 marked further mean warming of 1.7–3.2°C is projected for the end of the 21st century (2071–2100, with respect  
3344 to 1971–2000) for different scenarios (RCP4.5 and RCP8.5, respectively), with stronger warming in winter than  
3345 in summer and particularly strong warming over southern Norway.

3346

3347 *North Sea:* There is strong evidence of surface warming in the North Sea, especially since the 1980s (Fig. 33).  
3348 Warming is greatest in the south-east, exceeding 1°C since the end of the 19th century. Absolute mean sea level  
3349 in the North Sea rose by about 1.6 mm/year over the past 100–120 years, in agreement with the global rise. The  
3350 North Sea is a sink for atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>); this uptake declined over the last decade, due to lower  
3351 pH and warmer water. Models consistently project the surface water to warm further by the end of the century (by  
3352 about 1–3°C; A1B scenario). Exact numbers are not given due to differences in spatial averaging and reference  
3353 periods from published studies. Coherent findings from published climate change studies include an overall rise  
3354 in sea level, an increase in ocean acidification and a decrease in primary production. Uncertainties are large for  
3355 projected changes in extreme sea level and waves as well as for decreases in net primary production, which range  
3356 from 1 to 36 %.

3357

3358 *Rivers:* To date, no significant trends in response to climate change are apparent for most individual rivers  
3359 discharging into the North Sea. Nevertheless, climate models project increased socio-economically important risks  
3360 for the region, due to more intense hydrological extremes in the North Sea region, such as flooding along rivers,  
3361 droughts and water scarcity. The exposure and vulnerability of cities in the North Sea region to changes in extreme  
3362 hydrometeorological and hydrological conditions are expected to increase, due to greater urban land use and rising  
3363 urban populations.

3364

3365 *Ecosystems:* Long-term knowledge from exploitation of the North Sea indicates that climate affects marine biota  
3366 in complex ways. Climate change influences the distribution of all taxa, but other factors (fishing, biological  
3367 interactions) are also important. The distribution and abundance of many species have changed. Warm-water  
3368 species have become more common and species richness has increased. Among coastal ecosystems, estuaries and  
3369 most mainland marshes will survive sea-level rise, while back-barrier salt marshes with lower suspended sediment  
3370 concentrations and tidal ranges are probably more vulnerable. Plant and animal communities can suffer habitat  
3371 loss in dunes and salt marshes through high wave energy, and are affected by changes in temperature and  
3372 precipitation and by atmospheric deposition of nitrogen. Lakes in the North Sea region have experienced a range  
3373 of physical, chemical and biological changes due to climatic drivers over past decades. Lake temperatures have  
3374 increased, ice-cover duration has decreased. For terrestrial ecosystems there is strong empirical evidence of  
3375 changes in phenology in many plant and animal taxa and northward range expansions of mobile heat-loving  
3376 animals. Climate change projections and effect studies suggest a northward shift of vegetation zones, with  
3377 terrestrial net primary production likely to increase in the North Sea region, due to warmer conditions and longer  
3378 growing seasons.

3379

3380 *Socio-economic effects:* The assessments of climate change effects on the different socio-economic sectors in the  
3381 North Sea region find that adaptation measures are essential for all of them, e.g. for coastal protection and in  
3382 agriculture. For North Sea fisheries, the rapid temperature rise is already being felt in terms of shifts in species



3383 distribution and variability in stock recruitment. In agriculture an increased risk of summer drought and associated  
3384 effects will be a challenge, particularly in the South. In general, extreme weather events are likely to more often  
3385 severely disrupt crop production. Offshore and onshore activities in the North Sea energy sector (dominated by  
3386 oil, gas and wind) are highly vulnerable to extreme weather events, in terms of extreme wave heights, storms and  
3387 storm surges. All coastal countries around the North Sea with areas vulnerable to flooding by storm surges are  
3388 preparing for the challenges expected due to climate change, but coastal protection strategies differ widely from  
3389 country to country. Due to uncertainty concerning the extent and timing of climate-driven impacts, current coastal  
3390 zone adaptation plans focus on no-regret measures.

### 3391 **5.3 Some differences in climate change effects between the North and Baltic Seas**

3392 Many of the climate change signals in the Baltic and North Seas show similar behaviours and trends. But there are  
3393 also some notable differences between the two regions, which are listed below. They are based on findings reported  
3394 in the appropriate chapters of the recent assessments BACC II (BACC II Author Team, 2015) and NOSCCA  
3395 (Quante and Colijn, 2016).

- 3396 • In recent decades, the surface air temperature in the Baltic Sea and North Sea regions rose in a similar  
3397 way, on the order of 1 °C in the past century. Projections of the surface air temperature as obtained by  
3398 Euro-CORDEX downscaling for a moderate scenario (RCP4.5) indicate a stronger winter and spring  
3399 warming (> 1 K) at the end of the century (2071-2100) relative to present day (1971-2000) for most parts  
3400 of the Baltic Sea region than for the western part of the North Sea region. In the summer and autumn  
3401 months the projected warming is at the same level.
- 3402 • The North Sea is vigorously ventilated by the Atlantic (overturning time ~1 to 4 years). Therefore, climate  
3403 change signals from the Atlantic are rapidly transferred to the North Sea, while climate change in the  
3404 North Sea can be expected to be damped by the large thermal inertia of the Atlantic Ocean. By contrast,  
3405 the Baltic Sea is more prone to changes in mean meteorological conditions as its connection to the World  
3406 Ocean is very narrow.
- 3407 • Projected changes in mean precipitation show a distinctive difference between the two sea regions for the  
3408 summer (JJA) and autumn months (SON). In the Baltic Sea region the mean precipitation for a RCP4.5  
3409 scenario is projected to increase for most land areas (5 to 25%), whereas no noticeable change (5 to -5%)  
3410 is projected along the western and southern shores of the North Sea region.
- 3411 • SST is currently rising and projected to rise further for both sea areas, but the spatial pattern of the SST  
3412 increase is different. In the southern North Sea SST rises more than in the northern North Sea, while SST  
3413 warming trends are higher in the north-eastern part of the Baltic Sea (Bothnian Sea and Gulf of Finland)  
3414 than in the southern part. These spatial differences are explained by water depth (North Sea) and the ice-  
3415 albedo feedback (Baltic Sea). In addition, the northern North Sea is affected by Atlantic water inflow at  
3416 the western side of the Norwegian trench.
- 3417 • The coastal regions of the North Sea experience increases in both mean sea level (MSL, as measured by  
3418 satellites) and relative mean sea level (RMSL, as measured by tide gauges). Trends in RMSL vary  
3419 significantly across the North Sea region due to the influence of vertical land movement (uplift in northern  
3420 Scotland, Norway and Denmark, and subsidence elsewhere). But the trend of RMSL is still positive  
3421 everywhere in the North Sea coasts. In contrast, sea levels relative to land along the northern Baltic Sea  
3422 coast are sinking because land levels continue rising, due to post-glacial rebound since the last ice age.



3423 The northern Baltic Sea will experience considerable land rise also in future. As a result, the sea level  
3424 will probably continue to decrease relative to land in this region. As positive trends in RMSL are more  
3425 relevant for coastal protection, all countries around the North Sea with coastal areas vulnerable to flooding  
3426 due to storm surges face similar challenges, while in the Baltic Sea region coastal protection is of greater  
3427 concern for the countries in the south.

- 3428 • The frequency of sea ice occurrence in the North Sea has decreased since about 1961, with a similar  
3429 development in the western Baltic Sea. In contrast, ice still forms in the northern Baltic Sea, where it will  
3430 remain a prominent feature for many years, covering about  $50$  to  $200 \times 10^3$  km<sup>2</sup>, with high interannual  
3431 variability, even though a linear trend of 2% decrease per decade is reported.

## 3432 6 Knowledge gaps and research needs

3433 Knowledge gaps and research needs have been intensively discussed within the grand challenge working groups  
3434 of Baltic Earth and are summarized by the BEARs (Lehmann et al., 2021; Kuliński et al., 2021; Rutger  
3435 2021; Weisse et al., 2021; Christensen et al., 2021; Gröger et al., 2021a; Meier et al., 2021a; Viitasalo, 2021;  
3436 Reckermann et al., 2021).

3437

3438 In summary, we conclude that the processes that control the variability of salinity in the Baltic Sea and its entire  
3439 water and energy cycles are still not fully understood (Lehmann et al., 2021). The time-dependence of the haline  
3440 stratification and its links to climate change are in special need of further study. Salinity dynamics is important for  
3441 its dominant role in stratification, concerning both mixing conditions and ecosystem composition and functioning.  
3442 The environmental and biological factors favoring certain biogeochemical pathways through complex interactions,  
3443 the pools of dissolved organic matter, and sediment biogeochemical processes are poorly understood (Kuliński et  
3444 al., 2021). Although initial studies on the coastal filter capacity have been made, coastal zone models for the entire  
3445 Baltic Sea and an overall estimate of bioavailable nutrients and carbon loads from land to the open sea do not exist  
3446 (Kuliński et al., 2021). Considering the large internal variability, investigations of changes in extremes are limited  
3447 because high-resolution observational time series are too short and model ensembles too small (Rutger  
3448 2021). Global mean sea level rise, land uplift and wind field changes control sea level of the Baltic. However, the  
3449 future evolution of these drivers, which are needed for projections, is rather uncertain (Weisse et al., 2021).  
3450 Furthermore, databases for coastline changes and erosion and basin-scale models of coastal change under sea-level  
3451 rise do not exist (Weisse et al., 2021).

3452

3453 Fully coupled regional ESMs for the Baltic Sea including the various compartments of the Earth system,  
3454 atmosphere, land, ocean, sea ice, waves, terrestrial and marine ecosystems are under development but are not yet  
3455 available for dynamical downscaling (Gröger et al., 2021a). The numerical estimation of water and energy cycles  
3456 suffers from both model deficiencies and natural variability. For climate projections, large ensembles of regional  
3457 atmosphere models are available but only one ensemble with 22 members utilized a coupled atmosphere-ice-ocean  
3458 model (Christensen et al., 2021). In the past, the ocean ensembles have had too few members to address well the  
3459 uncertainty related to the large multidecadal variability in the ocean (Meier et al., 2021a). Furthermore, the global  
3460 sea level rise needs to be considered when making salinity projections (Meier et al., 2021b). The large uncertainty  
3461 in future projections of salinity fundamentally affects the projections of the marine ecosystem (Viitasalo, 2021).





3462 The response of food web interactions to climate change are largely unknown. The uncertainties of scenario  
3463 simulations with coupled physical-biogeochemical ocean models were discussed by Meier et al. (2018a; 2019b;  
3464 2021b). They found that in addition to natural variability the largest uncertainties are caused by (i) poorly known  
3465 current bioavailable nutrient loads from land and atmosphere and uncertain assumptions about future loads, (ii)  
3466 uncertainties of models including global sea level rise, and (iii) poorly known long-term future greenhouse gas  
3467 emissions.

3468

3469 Finally, the regional Earth system is driven by multiple drivers, of which climate change is just one. Multi-driver  
3470 studies are just beginning to be made and only a few have yet been published (Reckermann et al., 2021).

3471

3472 In the following, we list a few selected knowledge gaps related to the variables addressed by this study.

### 3473 **6.1 Large-scale atmospheric circulation**

3474 The interactions between atmospheric modes of variability of importance for the Baltic Sea region are still not  
3475 well known. For instance, while climate models are able to simulate the main features of the NAO, the frequency  
3476 of blocking over the Euro-Atlantic sector is still underestimated (IPCC, 2014b). Since observational records are  
3477 relatively short, our understanding of the AMO and its possible changes depends largely on models, and these  
3478 cannot be reliably evaluated for time scales longer than the AMO period (Knight, 2009). However, while possible  
3479 changes in these climate phenomena do contribute to the uncertainty in near-term climate projections, they are not  
3480 the main driver of the projected warming over Europe by the end of the century (Cattiaux et al., 2013; IPCC,  
3481 2014b).

### 3482 **6.2 Air temperature**

3483 Temperature and its extremes are to a large extent determined by the large-scale circulation patterns. There is  
3484 limited knowledge primarily concerning changes in large-scale atmospheric circulation patterns in a changing  
3485 climate, as mirrored by climate model discrepancies. Nevertheless, the heat cycle of the Baltic Sea region is  
3486 probably better understood than the water cycle.

### 3487 **6.3 Solar radiation and cloudiness**

3488 Multidecadal variations in surface solar radiation (SSR) are generally not well captured by current climate model  
3489 simulations (Allen et al., 2013; Storelvmo et al., 2018). The extent to which the observed variations in SSR are  
3490 caused by natural variation in cloudiness induced by atmospheric dynamic variability (Stanhill et al., 2014; Parding  
3491 et al., 2014), or by anthropogenic aerosol emissions (Wild, 2012; Ruckstuhl et al., 2008; Philipona et al., 2009;  
3492 Storelvmo et al., 2018), or perhaps additional causes, is not understood. Future cloudiness trends in global and  
3493 regional models differ in their sign (Bartók et al., 2017).

### 3494 **6.4 Precipitation**

3495 Even if climate scenarios are becoming more frequent and there is now a growing ensemble of relatively high-  
3496 resolution regional climate scenarios for Europe, they still represent only a subset of the global climate model  
3497 projections assessed by the IPCC. This means that the uncertainties of future climate change in the Baltic Sea  
3498 region are not fully captured at the horizontal resolution needed for detailed studies of climate change effects in



3499 the region (Christensen et al., 2021). Very high-resolution so called “convective-permitting” climate models  
3500 operating at grid spacing of 1-3 km are lacking for the Baltic Sea region. In other regions, such models have better  
3501 agreed with observations of precipitation extremes and sometimes also given a larger climate change signal than  
3502 the more traditional “high-resolution” models operating at c. 10 km grid spacing (Christensen et al., 2021). Land  
3503 use change and cover, including changes in forests, can induce both local and downwind precipitation change  
3504 (Meier et al., 2021c), and need to be included in projections.

#### 3505 **6.5 Wind**

3506 Historical wind measurements suffer from inhomogeneity and records too short for detecting changes, considering  
3507 the large internal variability in the Baltic Sea region. Projected changes are not robust among the few available  
3508 downscaled ESMs.

#### 3509 **6.6 Air pollution**

3510 The spatially and time resolved air quality status of a region is often assessed by means of model systems, typically  
3511 with emission, meteorological and chemistry transport submodels. These model systems, used for the calculation  
3512 of atmospheric concentrations and deposition of pollutants, need further developments and validation.  
3513 Uncertainties are often connected to the emission segment of the modelling chain. Improvements of the  
3514 implemented time profiles for the different emission sectors are especially necessary (Matthias et al., 2018). For  
3515 projections of air quality with climate change models, more work is needed to establish a set of emission scenarios  
3516 for air pollutants consistent with regional socio-economic pathways, like those developed by Zandersen et al.  
3517 (2019). The shipping sector is currently a considerable source of air pollution in the Baltic Sea region. More  
3518 research and development is needed on new fuel types and emission factors for air pollutants, relevant for  
3519 politically and technologically driven abatement measures. To better address exposure and health impacts of  
3520 shipping emissions more studies are required like those of Ramacher et al. (2019) and Barregard et al. (2019),  
3521 especially at the harbour and city scale. Better knowledge and reduced uncertainties will improve quantification  
3522 of air pollution as part of the environmental imprint of shipping in the Baltic Sea region, as developed by  
3523 Moldanová et al. (2021).

#### 3524 **6.7 River discharge**

3525 Precipitation from regional atmosphere models is biased and the bias correction methods applied for hydrological  
3526 modeling affect the sensitivity of hydrological models to climate change (Donnelly et al., 2014). Natural variability  
3527 and model uncertainties may explain the large spread in current river discharge projections (Roudier et al., 2016;  
3528 Donnelly et al., 2017). The values of the parameters of a hydrological model are normally found through  
3529 calibration against historical data and are always associated with uncertainty. This uncertainty will translate into  
3530 uncertainty in the projected changes.

#### 3531 **6.8 Nutrient inputs from land**

3532 The time scales for exchange of the nutrient pools in soils are not well known (McCrackin et al., 2018). Long-term  
3533 observations do not exist. Future projections of river discharge and nutrient inputs in the Baltic Sea drainage basin  
3534 agree on key aspects (e.g. increased annual discharge), but also highlight the uncertainty of the projections. To  
3535 improve assessments, studies should be designed to allow explicit semi-quantitative comparisons of the effects of



3536 the incorporated change factors, e.g. climate, land management, policy. In the case of nitrogen inputs, the effect  
3537 of changes in anthropogenic atmospheric deposition should also be included in future projections.

#### 3538 **6.9 Terrestrial biosphere**

3539 Terrestrial ecosystems in the Baltic Sea region are governed by human activities, both changes in climate due to  
3540 anthropogenic climate forcing and anthropogenic changes in land use and land cover. In return, terrestrial  
3541 ecosystems affect climate by altering the composition and the energy and water cycles of the atmosphere.  
3542 Biophysical interactions between the land surface and the atmosphere have been incorporated into regional ESMs,  
3543 in order to assess the impacts of changes in land use and land cover on regional climate and terrestrial ecosystems.  
3544 Still, biogeochemical processes related to the carbon cycle are lacking, as are explicit forest management actions  
3545 (Lindeskog et al., 2021), while explicit descriptions of some disturbances (e.g. wildfires, major storms, insect  
3546 attacks) are under development in ESMs. Only when all these interactions are incorporated can the effects of  
3547 national or international (e.g. in the European Union) climate policies on regional climate and terrestrial  
3548 ecosystems be fully assessed for compliance with the goals of the Paris Agreement.

#### 3549 **6.10 Snow**

3550 A general decrease in snow-cover duration in the Baltic Sea region is well documented, especially for the southern  
3551 part. Changes in snow depth due to climate warming are much more unclear. Some evidence of increasing snow  
3552 depth in recent decades have been reported from the northern part of the study region and from mountainous areas.  
3553 Changes in sea-effect snowfall events during present climate are unknown.

#### 3554 **6.11 Glaciers**

3555 It is presently not known how glacier-fed lakes react to competing environmental drivers, such as the general  
3556 Arctic warming, and the simultaneous warming-triggered lake cooling caused by increased inflow of cold glacier  
3557 meltwater, potentially carrying high sediment, nutrient, and organic matter loads. Understanding changing lake  
3558 thermal regimes and vertical mixing dynamics as well as timing and duration of seasonal ice cover is important  
3559 because ecological, biological, chemical processes, including carbon-cycling, will be affected (Lundin et al., 2015;  
3560 Smol et al., 2005; Jansen et al., 2019). Since Scandinavian glaciers are predicted to decline 80% in volume by  
3561 2100 under RCP8.5, Scandinavian glacier-fed lakes could be used as natural observatories, where changes in  
3562 processes, timescales, and effects in response to competing drivers can be studied before they occur at other glacial  
3563 lake sites, where glaciers melt more slowly (Kirchner et al., 2021).

#### 3564 **6.12 Permafrost**

3565 Thawing permafrost peatlands may potentially release large amounts of organic matter, nutrients and greenhouse  
3566 gases to aquatic systems locally, but the timing and magnitude of such releases remain highly uncertain.

#### 3567 **6.13 Sea ice**

3568 While the extent of the sea ice cover is well observed, observations of ice thickness are scarce. Ice thickness is  
3569 regularly monitored only at a few coastal sites with fast ice. Long records of the various ice classes, such as ridged  
3570 ice, do not exist. Sea ice models do not represent sea ice classes correctly. Since the last assessment by the BACC  
3571 II Author Team (2015) only two new scenario simulation studies on sea ice were published.



3572 **6.14 Lake ice**

3573 Research is required to better understand the reasons for regional and temporal differences in the patterns of change  
3574 in lake ice phenology and its relationship to large-scale climatic forcing. There is a need to better understand how  
3575 loss of lake ice cover modifies gas exchange between lake and atmosphere, mixing of the water column,  
3576 biogeochemical cycling, and ecosystem structure and function. The socioeconomic and cultural importance of  
3577 winter ice also deserves further research.

3578 **6.15 Water temperature**

3579 The causes of the pronounced natural variability of Baltic Sea temperature and its connection to large-scale patterns  
3580 of climate variability is not well known. The occurrence of marine heatwaves is projected to increase. However,  
3581 only a few studies of their impacts on the marine ecosystem exists. Furthermore, sea surface temperature trends  
3582 also depend on coastal upwelling, which affects large areas of the Baltic Sea surface (Lehmann et al., 2012).  
3583 Projected changes in upwelling are, however, very uncertain (Meier et al., 2021a).

3584 **6.16 Salinity and saltwater inflows**

3585 Salinity change depends on wind, river discharge, net precipitation on the sea and global sea level rise. Due to  
3586 considerable uncertainty in all drivers and the different signs in the response of salinity to these drivers, the relative  
3587 uncertainty in salinity projections is large, and larger ensembles of scenario simulations are needed (Meier et al.,  
3588 2021b). This knowledge gap is compounded by the uncertainty of whether saltwater inflows from the North Sea  
3589 will change. As salinity is a very important variable for the circulation in the Baltic Sea and for the marine  
3590 ecosystem, projections for the Baltic Sea are a priority.

3591 **6.17 Stratification and overturning circulation**

3592 Stratification depends on mixing as well as on gradients in water temperature and salinity, making changes in  
3593 stratification uncertain. Mixing processes such as thermal and haline convection, entrainment, double diffusive  
3594 convection or boundary mixing are not fully understood. Initial results on the sensitivity of the vertical overturning  
3595 circulation rely on model studies only. Hence, more measurements on the fine-structure of horizontal and vertical  
3596 turbulence are needed.

3597 **6.18 Sea level**

3598 The regional variability of processes which drive sea-level changes, along with their uncertainties and relative  
3599 importance over different timescales, display long-term developments that still require an explanation and are a  
3600 challenge to planning by coastal communities (Hamlington et al., 2020). For instance, the annual cycle in Baltic  
3601 Sea mean sea level (winter maxima minus spring minima) shows a basin-wide widening in the period 1800-2000  
3602 (Hünicke and Zorita, 2008). The precise mechanisms responsible for this effect are not yet completely understood,  
3603 although it seems strongly controlled by atmospheric forcing (Barbosa and Donner, 2016). Furthermore, at the  
3604 longer time-scales relevant for anthropogenic climate change, Baltic Sea and North Atlantic sea levels are strongly  
3605 affected by the very uncertain future melting of the Antarctic ice sheet. Current estimates are mostly based on  
3606 heuristic expert knowledge, as models are still under development. This is probably the largest knowledge gap  
3607 affecting projections of future Baltic sea-level rise (Bamber et al., 2019). Finally, long-term relative sea level



3608 trends are strongly affected by the vertical land movement due to glacial isostatic adjustment. This can be as large  
3609 as, or even larger, than global sea-level rise. Currently, it is estimated from relatively short GPS measurements  
3610 and from geo-elastic models. Both are uncertain, as point GPS measurements are strongly affected by other  
3611 geological and anthropogenic effects on vertical land velocities and results from model geo-elastic models are  
3612 often revised. In addition, the glacial isostatic adjustment may affect the flow intensity of river runoff into the  
3613 northern Baltic Sea (coastal regions rising relative to inland regions), the effects of which, e.g. on salinity and  
3614 water levels, have not been explored.

#### 3615 **6.19 Waves**

3616 The lack of long-term instrumental wave measurements and gaps in the data due to the ice season complicate the  
3617 analysis of extreme values. Although wave hindcasts provide a good alternative, the accuracy naturally does not  
3618 match that of measured data. Furthermore, Björkqvist et al. (2020) showed that the calculation of return periods  
3619 of extreme events may depend on the sampling frequency. Adding sampling variability typical for in-situ  
3620 measurements to simulated hindcast data, will result in consistently shorter estimates of return periods for high  
3621 significant wave heights than using the original hindcast data.

#### 3622 **6.20 Sedimentation and coastal erosion**

3623 We lack a comprehensive understanding of alongshore sediment transport and its associated spatial and temporal  
3624 variability along the Baltic Sea coast. In general, an eastward transport dominates along most of the southern Baltic  
3625 Sea coast due to the prevailing westerly winds. However, the intensity of secondary transport induced by easterly  
3626 and northerly winds is much less understood. Its combination with storm surges will expose sand dunes and cliffs  
3627 to the greatest erosional impact, further complicating understanding (Musielak et al., 2017). Due to the orientation  
3628 of the coastline, transport along some parts of the Baltic Sea coastline is very sensitive to the angle of incidence  
3629 of the waves. For example, the incidence angle of westerly wind-waves at the western part of the Wolin Island in  
3630 Poland (Dudzińska-Nowak, 2017) and the coast of Lithuania and Latvia (Soomere et al., 2017) is very small and  
3631 even a slight change in the wind direction (e.g. by 10 degrees) could lead to a reversal of the direction of alongshore  
3632 transport. Coastline changes at these sections vary greatly, and will hence be extremely sensitive to future changes  
3633 in wind wave climate (Viška and Soomere, 2013). Another knowledge gap in understanding coastal erosion in  
3634 response to future climate change concerns the impact of water levels and the submergence of the beach. Water  
3635 level plays a key role in dune toe erosion and also limits aeolian sand transport on the beach. The relationship  
3636 between the intensity of the forcing (wave energy, run-up) and the morphological response (erosion at the beach  
3637 and dunes) during storms is not straightforward (Dudzińska-Nowak, 2017; Zhang et al., 2017). At some sites (e.g.  
3638 Miedzyzdroje), dune erosion is well correlated with maximum storm surge level and storm frequency, but at others  
3639 (e.g. Swinoujscie), the beach morphology is more important in determining the effect of erosion than the storm  
3640 surge level.

#### 3641 **6.21 Oxygen and nutrients**

3642 There are significant knowledge gaps related to the identification and quantification of oxygen sinks and sources  
3643 in the Baltic Sea. In particular, more understanding is required on the dynamics of seawater inflows from the North  
3644 Sea, the role of mixing processes in the ventilation of the deep water, rates of oxygen consumption in water column  
3645 and sediments and how they depend on climate change. Knowledge gaps also exist concerning the transport and



3646 transformations of DOM (including terrestrial DOM) and better quantification of the processes occurring in the  
3647 microbial loop is needed to understand the nutrient (but also C and O) dynamics in the Baltic Sea.

3648

3649 The direct effects of climate change are likely to be detectable first in the coastal zone, e.g. indicated by increasing  
3650 seasonal hypoxia due to warming. However, long-term records from the coastal zone are rare. More important  
3651 could be the intensification of the proposed hypoxia-related “vicious circle” in the Baltic proper, due to the  
3652 warming of both surface and deep-water layers in the Baltic proper (Savchuk, 2018; Meier et al., 2018b). The  
3653 consequent expansion of cyanobacteria blooms and increased nitrogen fixation in the Baltic proper and  
3654 neighboring basins could further counteract nitrogen load reductions and maintain hypoxia, with all its detrimental  
3655 effects. However, there are still no biogeochemical and ecosystem models capable of producing reliable long-term  
3656 scenario simulations of these processes, with sufficient confidence and precision (see Meier et al., 2018a; Meier  
3657 et al., 2019b).

## 3658 **6.22 Marine CO<sub>2</sub> system**

3659 Due to the high spatial and temporal variability of air-sea carbon fluxes, it is not known whether the Baltic Sea as  
3660 a whole is a net sink or a net source of CO<sub>2</sub>. The source of the alkalinity increase observed in the Baltic Sea is still  
3661 unclear. Plausible hypotheses indicate increased weathering in the catchment and processes related to anoxic  
3662 remineralization of organic matter. There is high uncertainty in quantifying sediment/water fluxes of C, N and P,  
3663 which are important bottlenecks for understanding the dynamics of the marine CO<sub>2</sub> system and the C, N, P and O<sub>2</sub>  
3664 cycling generally, especially in the deep water layers. The lack of system understanding is particularly evident in  
3665 the Gulf of Bothnia. Fransner et al. (2018) suggested that non-Redfieldian stoichiometry in phytoplankton  
3666 production could explain pCO<sub>2</sub> fields in these basins, but confirmation by observations is still lacking.

## 3667 **6.23 Marine biosphere**

### 3668 **6.23.1 Lower trophic levels**

3669 The summer cyanobacteria bloom in the Baltic proper, and increasingly in recent years in the Bothnian Sea, is  
3670 considered one of the main problems of Baltic Sea eutrophication, and the nitrogen fixation it carries out is an  
3671 important process in Baltic ecosystem models (Munkes et al., 2021). It has long been considered limited by the  
3672 availability of phosphorus (Larsson et al., 1985; Granéli et al., 1990). It is therefore remarkable that it is not  
3673 possible to predict inter-annual variations in cyanobacteria blooms observed by satellites from water chemistry  
3674 (Kahru et al., 2020).

3675

3676 There are significant knowledge gaps related to the quantification of nitrogen fixation and the fate of the fixed  
3677 nitrogen in the Baltic Sea pelagic zone. Direct nitrogen fixation measurements were until recently dogged by  
3678 method problems, and even if these are now hopefully largely resolved (Klawonn et al., 2015), the enormous  
3679 patchiness of cyanobacteria blooms remains a huge problem. The alternative approach of directly measuring the  
3680 increase in total combined nitrogen during the bloom (Larsson et al., 2001) requires very high precision, also  
3681 suffers from patchiness problems (Rolf et al., 2007), and has not been much used. Finally, the amount of nitrogen  
3682 fixed can be estimated by modelling, based on uptake of CO<sub>2</sub> or phosphorus and assuming a Redfield N:P or C:N  
3683 ratio. This theoretically highly attractive approach (Eggert and Schneider, 2015) is hampered by the possibility of



3684 non-Redfieldian ratios, and has made some biologists skeptical by predicting high nitrogen fixation in spring, when  
3685 there are not sufficient known nitrogen-fixing autotrophs in the water to carry out this nitrogen fixation.

3686

3687 While total nitrogen in the water column clearly increases during the summer cyanobacterial bloom, just a couple  
3688 of months later this increase seems largely to have disappeared, even though sediment traps find little evidence  
3689 that it has settled out of the upper mixed layer. Are sediment trap measurements gross underestimates, or are there  
3690 unidentified sites of denitrification or other overlooked nitrogen sinks in the water column? Nitrogen fixation is a  
3691 central process in Baltic ecosystem models, and better observationally based estimates of processes in the nitrogen  
3692 cycle are required for assessing their credibility (Munkes et al., 2021).

### 3693 **6.23.2 Marine mammals**

3694 Seal and porpoise foraging distribution and the relation of seals to haul-out sites is not well known. The  
3695 requirement of sea ice for successful breeding of ringed seals has not been sufficiently assessed. Land-breeding of  
3696 grey seals is not monitored regularly in most Baltic countries. The effects of interspecific competition on  
3697 distributions are not known. Range contraction can be conceptualized as three stages (Bates et al., 2014):  
3698 performance decline, population decrease and local extinction, all of which should be studied. For example, studies  
3699 on performance decline, such as physiological conditions that reduce reproductive potential (Helle, 1980; Jüssi et  
3700 al., 2008; Kauhala et al., 2017; Kauhala et al., 2019) are important (Bates et al., 2014). Breeding success of Baltic  
3701 Sea ringed seals in normal winters is poorly known, as the lairs in pack ice snowdrifts are rarely found. Likewise,  
3702 observations of the effects of poor ice-conditions on breeding success of ringed seals in mild winters are very  
3703 limited, but the lack of protection against harsh weather and predators is assumed to be highly negative.

### 3704 **6.23.3 Waterbirds**

3705 The complex interaction between many primary parameters affected by climate change makes it hard to identify  
3706 which environmental changes are actually causing changes in waterbird populations. It is currently not known in  
3707 detail how shifts in distribution and timing of migration match the availability and quality of food, and thus the  
3708 importance of potential temporal mismatches between food availability and requirements is unknown. In addition,  
3709 changes in waterbird distribution are likely to alter inter- and intraspecific competition. Resolving these issues  
3710 requires investigation of effects at other levels of the food web (e.g. loss of bivalves from areas of reduced salinity,  
3711 species and size-class composition of fish communities) and their consequences for waterbirds. So far, knowledge  
3712 of climate change effects on waterbirds in the Baltic Sea are mostly restricted to ducks (including diving and  
3713 dabbling ducks), with much less known for other quantitatively important components of the waterbird  
3714 community, i.e. divers, grebes, waders, gulls and auks. Interactions between fish and piscivorous waterbirds in  
3715 particular need more attention. Responses to climate change are likely to vary between waterbird species and  
3716 groups. There is still little information on which species are most affected (negatively or positively) by changes in  
3717 climatic conditions and the uncertainty is therefore large on how species in future waterbird assemblages will  
3718 interact and the consequences for the functioning of the Baltic Sea. To gain a better understanding on how single  
3719 species (or groups with similar ecology, often closely-related) will respond to climate change is critical for  
3720 projecting effects of climate change on waterbirds around the Baltic Sea.



3721 **6.23.4 Marine food webs**

3722 Some changes observed in marine food webs have been partly by attributed to warming, brightening and sea ice  
3723 decline on long time-scales. Other drivers, such as eutrophication or fisheries, may however predominate and many  
3724 records are too short to allow attributing the observed changes to climate change. Although effects of warming,  
3725 ocean acidification and dissolved organic matter on some ecosystem functions have been identified in mesocosm  
3726 experiments, changing food web interactions are still impossible to project. It is, however, important to include  
3727 the marine biosphere in management-strategies for tackling the complex interactive aspects of climate change-  
3728 related effects on the marine ecosystem and human adaptations to them (Andersson et al., 2015; Stenseth et al.,  
3729 2020).

3730 **7 Key messages**

3731 The following lists selected key messages from this assessment that either confirm the conclusions of previous  
3732 assessments or are novel (marked with NEW). The estimated level of confidence based upon agreement and  
3733 evidence (see Section 2.3) of each key message refers to whether a systematic change in the considered variable  
3734 was detected and attributed to climate change. Climate change is here defined as the change in climate due to  
3735 human impact only (BACC II Author Team, 2015; see Section 2.1). Key messages referring to observed or  
3736 simulated changes in the Baltic Sea region caused by other drivers than climate change (e.g. afforestation,  
3737 eutrophication, fisheries, etc.) are not classified by a confidence level. A summary of all key messages related to  
3738 climate change is presented in Table 10 and Figure 34.

3739 **7.1 Past climate changes**

- 3740
- 3741 • Large-scale circulation: The AMO has undergone frequency changes, but its influence on climate  
3742 variability in the Baltic Sea region remained similar, independent of the dominant frequency [NEW].
  - 3743 • Air temperature: During the Holocene, The Baltic Sea region experienced periods as warm as the 20th  
3744 century, such as the mid-Holocene Optimum and the Medieval Warm Period. The implied rate of change  
3745 was, however, much slower than the present. The past warming signal was regionally markedly  
3746 heterogeneous, mostly along a west-east gradient [NEW].
  - 3747 • Oxygen: The previous warm periods were accompanied by oxygen deficiency in the deeper waters of the  
3748 Baltic Sea, which cannot be attributed to eutrophication and was likely a result of climate forcing [NEW].

3748 **7.2 Present climate changes**

- 3749
- 3750 • Large-scale atmospheric circulation: Systematic changes in large-scale atmospheric circulation related to  
3751 climate change could not be detected [low confidence]. The AMO is an important driver of climate  
3752 variability in the Baltic Sea region, affecting *inter alia* the correlation of regional climate variables with  
3753 the NAO.
  - 3754 • Air temperature: Linear trends of the annual mean temperature anomalies during 1876–2018 were +0.10  
3755 °C decade<sup>-1</sup> north of 60°N and +0.09 °C decade<sup>-1</sup> south of 60°N in the Baltic Sea region [high confidence].  
3756 This is larger than the global mean temperature trend and slightly larger than estimated in the earlier  
3757 BACC reports [NEW]. The warm spell duration index has increased during 1950–2018 [medium  
3758 confidence]. Statistically significant decreases in winter cold spell duration index across the period 1979–





- 3758 2013 have been widespread in Norway and Sweden, but less prevalent in eastern Finland, while changes  
3759 in summer cold spell have been small in general [medium confidence].
- 3760 • Solar radiation and cloudiness: Various satellite data products suggest a small but robust decline in  
3761 cloudiness over the Baltic Sea region since the 1980s [low confidence, NEW]. However, whether this  
3762 signal is an indicator of a changing climate or due to internal variability is unknown.
- 3763 • Precipitation: Since 1950, annual mean precipitation has generally increased in the northern part of the  
3764 Baltic Sea region. There is some evidence of a long-term trend [low confidence]. However, long-term  
3765 records suffer from inhomogeneity due to the increasing number of rain gauges. Frequency and intensity  
3766 of heavy precipitation events have increased [medium confidence]. Drought frequency has increased  
3767 across southern Europe and most of central Europe since 1950, but decreased in many parts of Northern  
3768 Europe [low confidence].
- 3769 • Wind: Owing to the large internal variability, it is unclear whether there is an overall trend in mean wind  
3770 speed. There has been an increase in the number of deep cyclones over central and Northern Europe since  
3771 the late 1950s, but no evidence for a long-term trend [low confidence].
- 3772 • Air pollution: The influence of climate change on air pollution is small and undetectable, given the  
3773 dominance of other human activities [low confidence]. Land-based emissions are declining due to  
3774 emission control measures, but some emissions from the shipping sector may be increasing.
- 3775 • River discharge: For the period 1900-2008, no trend in total river discharge was found, but there was a  
3776 pronounced 30-year variability. Data for some rivers in the northern Baltic Sea catchment indicate a long-  
3777 term trend, but the confidence in these reconstructions is low. Since the 1970s, the total river winter  
3778 discharge is increasing, perhaps due to warming or river regulations [low confidence]. Due to earlier  
3779 snow-melt, driven by temperature increases in the region and a decreasing frequency of arctic air mass  
3780 advection, high flow events in the Baltic Sea region shifted from late March to February,. In Sweden,  
3781 trends in the magnitude of high flow events over the past 100 years are not statistically significant [low  
3782 confidence, NEW].
- 3783 • Riverine nutrient loads: The effect of changing climate on riverine nutrient loads is small and not  
3784 detectable [low confidence].
- 3785 • Terrestrial biosphere: Combining all vegetation types in the entire Baltic Sea region, satellite observations  
3786 suggest an advancement of the growing season by 0.30 day/year over the period 2000-2016. The most  
3787 important driver of the advancement of the growing season is spring mean temperature, with an  
3788 advancement rate of 2.47 day/°C of spring warming [medium confidence, NEW]. Observations and  
3789 model results suggest cooling trends in daily minimum and warming trends in daily maximum  
3790 temperatures in response to deforestation, and the opposite tendencies for afforestation. [NEW]
- 3791 • Snow: The decrease in snow cover has accelerated in recent decades, except in the mountain areas and  
3792 the north-eastern part of the Baltic Sea region [high confidence, NEW]. On average, the number of days  
3793 with snow cover has declined by 3–5 days per decade, [high confidence]. Mean and maximum snow  
3794 depth has also decreased, most clearly in the southern and central part of the region [high confidence].  
3795 Whether sea-effect snowfall events have changed is unknown [low confidence].
- 3796 • Glaciers: Inventories of all Scandinavian glaciers, available only since 2006, show that they have lost 20  
3797 Gt of ice (~8% of their total mass) during 2006-2015. Atmospheric warming is very likely the primary  
3798 driver of glacier mass loss [high confidence]. [NEW]



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- Permafrost: Recent warming has caused losses of over 20% of the original 6200 km<sup>2</sup> of permafrost in the Baltic Sea catchment area during 1997-2018 [medium confidence, NEW].
  - Sea ice: Long-term decreases in sea ice in the Baltic Sea have exceeded the large natural climatological variability and can only be attributed to global climate change [high confidence]. In addition, unprecedented mild ice seasons have occurred in the last ten years, and 100-year trends in sea ice cover showed an accelerated decline in 1921-2020 compared to 1910-2011 [high confidence, NEW].
  - Lake ice: Warming in the Baltic Sea catchment during recent decades has resulted in earlier ice break-up, later freeze-up, and hence shorter ice cover duration on the lakes in the region. [high confidence, NEW]
  - Water temperature: Monitoring data, satellite data and model-based historical reconstructions indicate an increase in annual mean sea surface temperature averaged over the Baltic Sea of 0.4–0.6 °C decade<sup>-1</sup> or ~1 – 2 °C since the 1980s [high confidence]. During 1856–2005, reconstructed SSTs increased by 0.03 and 0.06 °C decade<sup>-1</sup> in northeastern and southwestern areas, respectively. Hence, recent warming trends have accelerated tenfold [NEW]. Long-term measurements at Tvärminne, on the north coast of the Gulf of Finland, indicate that marine heat waves have increased since 1926 [low confidence].
  - Salinity and saltwater inflows: The record of major Baltic inflows (MBIs) has been revised and the earlier reported decreasing trend is now seen as artifactual. On centennial time-scales, there are no statistically significant trends in salinity averaged over the Baltic Sea (1920-2008) or in MBIs (1887-2017), but pronounced multidecadal variability, with a period of about 30 years. Model results suggest that a decade of decreasing salinity, like the 1983-1992 stagnation, happens about once a century due to natural variability. Due to increased river runoff in the northern catchment, the North-South gradient in sea surface salinity likely increased in 1900–2008 [low confidence, NEW].
  - Stratification and overturning circulation: No long-term trend in stratification was detected, but during 1982-2016 stratification increased in most of the Baltic Sea, with the seasonal thermocline and the perennial halocline strengthening by 0.33–0.39 and 0.70–0.88 kg m<sup>-3</sup>, respectively [low confidence, NEW].
  - Sea level: Since 1886 the mean sea level in the Baltic Sea relative to the geoid has increased by about 1-2 mm per year, similar to the global mean rate [high confidence]. However, in the northern Baltic Sea rapid land uplift causes a relative sea level decrease [high confidence]. Although an acceleration of the mean sea level rise at individual stations could not yet be detected, the all-station-average-record showed an almost statistically significant acceleration [low confidence, NEW]. Basin-wide, no statistically significant, long-term changes in extreme sea levels relative to the mean sea level of the Baltic Sea could be documented [low confidence, NEW].
  - Waves: Wave hindcasts and observations are too short for studies of climate-relevant trends [low confidence].
  - Sedimentation and coastal erosion: Dominance of mobile sediments makes the southern and eastern coasts more vulnerable to wind-wave induced transport than other Baltic Sea coasts [high confidence]. Prevailing westerly winds lead to mainly west-east sediment transport and an alternation of glacial till cliffs (sources), sandy beaches and spits (sinks). No statistically significant, long-term changes were found [low confidence, NEW].



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- Oxygen and nutrients: Reconstructions of oxygen conditions in the Baltic Sea for the period 1898-2012 suggest a tenfold increase of the hypoxic area, with current values of up to 70,000 km<sup>2</sup>. This increase was attributed mainly to increased nutrient loads, with a minor contribution from climate warming [low confidence, NEW]. Furthermore, recently estimated oxygen consumption rates in the Baltic Sea are higher than observed before, reducing the duration of improved oxygen conditions after natural ventilation events by oxygen-enriched saltwater inflows.
  - Marine CO<sub>2</sub> system – air-sea exchange: In the period 1980-2005, sub-basins affected by high riverine runoff and related high loads of terrestrial organic matter (e.g. Gulf of Bothnia) were found to be on average a source of CO<sub>2</sub> to the atmosphere. This outgassing was more than compensated by the high CO<sub>2</sub> uptake by the open waters of the Baltic proper [medium confidence, NEW].
  - Marine CO<sub>2</sub> system – alkalinity: During 1900-2015, a long-term trend in alkalinity was observed, with largest increases in the Gulf of Bothnia, where it almost entirely cancelled the pH decrease expected from rising atmospheric pCO<sub>2</sub>. The smaller alkalinity increase in the southern Baltic Sea compensated ocean acidification by about 50%. Due to the high seasonal variability in pH, large interannual variability in productivity and the identified alkalinity trend, no acidification was measurable in the central and northern Baltic Sea [medium confidence, NEW].
  - Microbial communities: Long-term time series from 1994 to 2006 show that increased riverine dissolved organic matter suppresses phytoplankton biomass production and shifts the carbon flow towards heterotrophic microbes [low confidence, NEW].
  - Phytoplankton and cyanobacteria: The growing season for phytoplankton and cyanobacteria has lengthened significantly in the past few decades [medium confidence] and the ratio between diatom and dinoflagellate biomasses declined during the past century, probably due to warmer winters [low confidence, NEW]. The annual chlorophyll maximum, in the 1980s associated with the spring diatom bloom, has shifted to coincide with the summer cyanobacteria bloom [low confidence, NEW]. Although inter-annually oscillating, surface cyanobacteria accumulations became a recurrent summer feature of the southern Bothnian Sea in the 2010s [medium confidence, NEW].
  - Macroalgae: Long-term changes in Baltic Sea macroalgae and charophytes have been attributed to changes in salinity, wind exposure, nutrient availability and water transparency as well as biotic interactions [low confidence, NEW]. However, the role of climate change is unclear.
  - Zoobenthos: Increasing near-bottom temperature may partially explain the spreading of non-indigenous species, such as polychaetes of the genus *Marenzelleria*. The effects on zoobenthos are primarily synergistic, through e.g. eutrophication and hypoxia [low confidence, NEW].
  - Fish: Changes in temperature, salinity and species interactions can affect the stocks of cod, sprat and herring. However, the dominant driver is the fishery. For coastal fish, the distribution of pikeperch expanded northwards along the coasts of the Bothnian Sea, apparently due to the warming waters. For many coastal fish species eutrophication is, however, equally or more important than climate change [low confidence, NEW].
  - Marine mammals: Populations of ice-breeding seals, especially southern populations of the ringed seal, have likely suffered from the sea ice decline [medium confidence]. However, this is based on occasional ringed seal moult counts that indicating no population growth, while monitoring data on reproductive success are missing.



- 3880 • Waterbirds: Many waterbird species have shifted their wintering range northwards [high confidence].  
3881 They now migrate earlier in spring [medium confidence]. Effects of warming sea temperature are  
3882 inconsistent, because both positive and negative effects on foraging conditions and food quality have  
3883 been found [low confidence]. Most migrating Baltic Sea waterbirds are also affected by climate change  
3884 outside the Baltic Sea [medium confidence].
- 3885 • Marine food webs: Significant alterations in food web structure and functioning such as the shift from  
3886 early diatom to later dinoflagellate dominated blooms have been observed. However, the causes of these  
3887 changes are unknown [low confidence].

### 3888 7.3 Future climate changes

- 3889 • Large-scale circulation: Projections suggest a more zonal flow over Northern Europe and a northward  
3890 shift in the mean summer position of the westerlies at the end of the century [low confidence].
- 3891 • Air temperature: Coupled atmosphere-ocean regional climate models project an increase in annual mean  
3892 air temperature by between 1.5 and 4.3°C over the Baltic Sea catchment area at the end of the century.  
3893 The range indicates ensemble mean values for RCP2.6 and RCP8.5 scenarios. On average, air over  
3894 surrounding land will warm about 0.1 to 0.4°C more than the air over the Baltic Sea [high confidence,  
3895 NEW]. A bias-adjusted median estimate of increase in warm spell duration index in Scandinavia for the  
3896 period 2071-2100, compared to 1981-2010, was about 15 days under RCP8.5, with an uncertainty range  
3897 of about 5-20 days [medium confidence]. The cold spell duration index in Northern Europe is projected  
3898 to decrease in the future, with a likely range of from -5 to -8 days per year by 2071-2100, compared to  
3899 1971-2000 [medium confidence].
- 3900 • Solar radiation and cloudiness: Projections for solar radiation and cloudiness differ systematically in sign  
3901 between global and regional climate models, indicating high uncertainty [low confidence, NEW].
- 3902 • Precipitation: Annual mean precipitation is projected to increase over the entire Baltic Sea catchment at  
3903 the end of the century [medium confidence]. The signal is robust for winter among the various regional  
3904 climate models but is highly uncertain for summer in the south. The intensity and frequency of heavy  
3905 rainfall events are projected to increase. These increases are even larger for convection-resolving models  
3906 [high confidence, NEW]. Projections show that the number of dry days in the southern and central parts  
3907 of the Baltic Sea basin increases mainly in summer [low confidence].
- 3908 • Wind: Changes in wind over the Baltic Sea region are highly uncertain [low confidence]. Over sea areas  
3909 where the average ice cover is projected to diminish, such as the Bothnian Sea and the eastern Gulf of  
3910 Finland, the mean wind is projected to increase because of a warmer sea surface and reduced stability of  
3911 the planetary boundary layer [low confidence].
- 3912 • Air pollution: The impact of climate change on air quality and atmospheric deposition is smaller than the  
3913 assumed impact of future changes in emissions [low confidence].
- 3914 • River discharge: River runoff is projected to increase 2–22% in RCP4.5 and 7–22% in RCP8.5. River  
3915 discharge is projected to increase to the northern and decrease to the southern sub-basins [low  
3916 confidence]. High flows are projected to decrease in spring and increase in autumn and winter due to  
3917 earlier snow melt and more winter rain. Over much of continental Europe, an increase in intensity of high  
3918 flow events is projected with increasing temperature [low confidence].



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- Land nutrient inputs: The impact of climate change on land nutrient inputs is smaller than the impact of changes in land management, populations and nutrient point-source releases. In any given river, larger runoff would lead to larger nutrient inputs [low confidence].
  - Terrestrial growing season: Projections suggested that decreasing surface albedo in the Arctic region in winter and spring will notably amplify the future warming in spring (positive feedback), while the increased evapotranspiration will lead to a marked cooling during summer (negative feedback). These feedbacks will stimulate vegetation growth, due to an earlier start of the growing season, leading to compositional changes in woody plants and the distribution of vegetation. Arctic terrestrial ecosystems could continue to sequester carbon until the 2060-2070s, after which the terrestrial ecosystems are projected to turn into weak sources of carbon due to increased soil respiration and biomass burning [low confidence, NEW].
  - Terrestrial carbon sequestration: Mitigation scenarios that decrease the fraction of coniferous forest in favour of deciduous forest, and increase the area of deciduous forest in Northern Europe from 130,000 to 480,000 km<sup>2</sup>, were projected to reduce near-surface temperatures and give maximum carbon sequestration. [NEW]
  - Snow: Projections under RCP8.5 suggest a reduction of the average snow amount by more 70% for most areas, with the exception of the high Scandinavian mountains, where the warming temperature does not reach the freezing point as often as in lower-lying regions [high confidence]. Sea-effect snowfall events in future climate have not been investigated yet.
  - Glaciers: Scandinavian glaciers will lose more than 80% of their current mass by 2100 under RCP8.5, and many are projected to disappear, regardless of future emission scenarios [high confidence, NEW]. Furthermore, river runoff from glaciers is also projected to change regardless of the emission scenario, and to result in increased average winter runoff and in earlier spring peaks [high confidence, NEW].
  - Permafrost: In the future climate, the on-going loss of permafrost in the Baltic Sea catchment will very likely accelerate [high confidence].
  - Sea ice: Regional climate projections consistently project shrinking and thinning of Baltic Sea ice cover [high confidence], but still estimate that some ice will be formed even in mildest future winters. However, those estimates are based on a limited number of ensembles and may not represent future climate variability correctly.
  - Lake ice: The observed trends of earlier ice break-up, later freeze-up, and shorter ice cover duration on lakes in the region are projected to continue with future warming, and lakes with intermittent winter ice will consequently become increasingly abundant [high confidence, NEW].
  - Water temperature: Coupled atmosphere-ocean regional climate models project an increase in annual mean SST of between 1.2 and 3.2°C, averaged for the Baltic Sea the end of the century. The range indicates ensemble mean values for RCP2.6 and RCP8.5 scenarios. Warming will be largest in summer in the northern Baltic Sea [high confidence]. Under both RCP4.5 and RCP8.5, record-breaking summer mean SSTs were projected to increase at the end of the century [medium confidence, NEW]. However, due to the pronounced internal variability there might be decades in the near future without record-breaking events.
  - Salinity and saltwater inflows: An increase in river runoff or westerly winds will tend to decrease salinity, but a global sea level rise will tend to increase it, because an enlarged cross-sectional area of the Danish



- 3960 Straits will increase the saltwater imports from the Kattegat. Due to the large uncertainty in projected  
3961 river runoff, wind and global sea level rise, salinity projections show a wide spread, from increasing to  
3962 decreasing salinities, and no robust changes were identified [low confidence, NEW].
- 3963 • Stratification and overturning circulation: Considering all potential drivers of changes in salinity in the  
3964 Baltic Sea (wind, river runoff, net precipitation, global sea level rise), neither the haline-induced  
3965 stratification nor the overturning circulation is projected to change [low confidence, NEW]. Projections  
3966 consistently show that the seasonal thermocline during summer will intensify across nearly the whole  
3967 Baltic Sea [high confidence, NEW].
  - 3968 • Sea level: Future absolute sea level in the Baltic Sea will continue to rise with the global mean sea level  
3969 [high confidence]. Its regional manifestation is, however, modulated by the future melting of Antarctica,  
3970 which affects the Baltic Sea more strongly than the melting of Greenland [low confidence]. Using current  
3971 estimates, the regional mean sea level is projected to rise by about 87% of the global mean sea level. Land  
3972 uplift is roughly known but difficult to estimate accurately in practice, as many regional geological factors  
3973 blur the signature of the glacial isostatic adjustment. Trends in sea level extremes will be determined by  
3974 the changing mean sea level and possible future changes in storminess. The uncertainty in the latter driver  
3975 is very large [low confidence].
  - 3976 • Waves: The projected decrease in seasonal sea ice cover will have considerable effects on the wave  
3977 climate in the northernmost Baltic Sea [high confidence, NEW]. Otherwise, there are no conclusive  
3978 results on possible changes in the wave climate and wave extremes, because of the uncertainty about  
3979 changes in wind fields [low confidence].
  - 3980 • Sedimentation and coastal erosion: Changes in sea level, wind, waves and sea ice all affect sediment  
3981 transport and coastal erosion. Hence, available projections are highly uncertain [low confidence, NEW].
  - 3982 • Oxygen and nutrients: The future response of deep water oxygen conditions will mainly depend on future  
3983 nutrient inputs from land [medium confidence]. However, coastal hypoxia might increase due to warming  
3984 of the water in shallow areas [medium confidence]. Implementation of the BSAP will lead to declining  
3985 phosphorus concentrations [medium confidence, NEW].
  - 3986 • Marine CO<sub>2</sub> system: Due to anthropogenic emissions, atmospheric pCO<sub>2</sub> will rise, and consequently also  
3987 the mean pCO<sub>2</sub> of Baltic surface seawater, which has the potential to lower pH [high confidence].  
3988 However, the magnitude of the pH change also depends on alkalinity trends, which are highly uncertain  
3989 [low confidence]. Hence, projections for the Baltic Sea are different from the global ocean.
  - 3990 • Microbial communities: The impact of climate change on microbes and the functioning of the microbial  
3991 loop have been studied experimentally. In the northern Gulf of Bothnia, adding DOM increased the  
3992 abundance of bacteria, whereas a temperature increase (from 12 to 15°C) reduced their abundance [low  
3993 confidence, NEW].
  - 3994 • Phytoplankton and cyanobacteria: The effect of climate change on phytoplankton and cyanobacteria  
3995 blooms is larger under high nutrient concentrations, but nutrient loads are the dominant driver. If the  
3996 BSAP is fully implemented, the projected environmental status of the Baltic Sea will be significantly  
3997 improved, and extreme cyanobacteria blooms will be rare or absent [low confidence, NEW].
  - 3998 • Zooplankton: Experimental studies suggested improved conditions for microzooplankton due to warming  
3999 but negative effects on some larger zooplankton species [low confidence, NEW].



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- Macroalgae and vascular plants: The direct and indirect effects of changes in temperature, salinity and pH are likely to change the geographic distribution of Baltic Sea macrophytes. However, neither experimental studies nor past observed changes provide conclusive projections for the effects of climate change [low confidence, NEW].
  - Zoobenthos: In a warmer and less eutrophic Baltic Sea, benthic-pelagic coupling will be weaker, resulting in decreasing benthic biomass [low confidence, NEW].
  - Non-indigenous species: Climate change may favour invasions of non-indigenous species. However, it is impossible to project which species may enter the Baltic Sea in future [low confidence].
  - Fish: Projected changes in temperature and salinity will affect the stocks of cod, sprat and herring. However, nutrient loads and especially fishing mortality are also important drivers. Although multi-driver modeling studies have been performed, the impact of climate change is uncertain [low confidence, NEW].
  - Marine mammals: Mild winters are known to negatively affect Baltic ringed seals (*Phoca hispida botnica*) because without their sea ice lair, the pups are more vulnerable to weather and predators, and it has been projected that the growth rates of ringed seal populations will decline in the next 90 years. Also for grey seals (*Halichoerus grypus*), it has been suggested that reduced ice cover in combination with (partly climate-driven) changes in the food web, may affect their body condition and birth rate [low confidence].
  - Waterbirds: The northward distributional shifts of waterbirds are expected to continue [medium confidence]. Effects on waterbird food will be manifold, but consequences are difficult to predict [low confidence]. The rising sea level and erosion are expected to reduce the availability of breeding habitats [low confidence].
  - Marine food webs: Significant alterations in food web structure and functioning can be expected, since species distributions and abundances are expected to change with warming sea water. The consequences are difficult to project, as research into the long-term dynamics of food webs is still scarce [low confidence].

## 4025 **8 Concluding remarks**

4026 We found that

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1. The overall conclusions of the BACC I and BACC II assessments remain valid.
  2. However, new coupled models (atmosphere-ice-ocean, atmosphere-land), larger ensembles of scenario simulations (CORDEX), new mesocosm experiments (warming, ocean acidification, and dissolved organic matter), extended monitoring (glaciers, satellite data) and homogenized records of observations (MBIs) have led to new insights into past and future climate variability.
  3. Improved paleoclimate simulations of the Holocene, new dendroclimatological reconstructions of the past 1000 years and new climate regionalizations have added regional details (east-west gradients over the Baltic Sea region) and improved our understanding of internal variability (sea level extremes, stagnation periods) and the remote impact of low-frequency North Atlantic variability on the Baltic Sea region (AMO, Baltic Sea salinity). New sediment cores suggest that hypoxia during the Medieval Climate Anomaly was caused by climate variability, rather than by human influence, as claimed earlier.



- 4038 4. Natural variability of many variables of the Earth system is larger than previously realized, requiring  
4039 larger model ensembles for convincing future projections. Although the first, relatively large ensemble  
4040 of scenario simulations utilizing a regional coupled atmosphere-ice-ocean model has become available,  
4041 uncertainty estimates are still incomplete.
- 4042 5. New regional ESMs including additional components of the Earth system are under development.  
4043 However, the simulated water cycle is still biased.
- 4044 6. The first complex multiple-driver study with focus on present and future climates addressing for instance  
4045 eutrophication of the Baltic Sea, fisheries and climate change has become available and an overall  
4046 assessment of the various drivers in the Baltic Sea region is part of the BEARs. However, further research  
4047 on the interplay between drivers is needed.
- 4048 7. More research on changing extremes was performed, acknowledging that the impact of changing  
4049 extremes may be more important than that of changing means. However, most observational records are  
4050 either too short or too heterogeneous for statistical studies of extremes.
- 4051 8. The climate change signal is still confined to increases in observed air and water temperatures, to  
4052 decreases in sea and lake ice, snow cover, permafrost and glacier mass, to the rise in mean sea level, and  
4053 to variables directly related to temperature and the cryosphere, such as ringed seal habitats. Compared to  
4054 the previous BACC report, changes in air temperature, sea ice, snow cover and sea level were shown to  
4055 have accelerated.
- 4056 9. Intensive research on the land-sea interface focussing on the coastal filter has been performed and nutrient  
4057 retention in the coastal zone was estimated for the first time. Uncertainty concerning the bioavailability  
4058 of nutrient loads was identified as one of the foremost challenges for marine biogeochemistry. However,  
4059 a model for the entire Baltic Sea coastal zone is still missing and the effect of climate change on the  
4060 coastal filter capacity is still unknown.
- 4061 10. In contradiction to earlier results, observed MBIs have no declining trend. Due to the uncertainties in  
4062 projections of the regional wind, regional precipitation and evaporation, river discharge and global mean  
4063 sea level rise, projections of salinity in the Baltic Sea are uncertain and it remains unknown whether the  
4064 Baltic Sea will become less or more salty. As salinity is a crucial variable for the marine ecosystem and  
4065 for Baltic circulation, projections for the Baltic Sea as a whole are regarded as uncertain.
- 4066 11. The Baltic Sea may become more acidic in the future, but the decrease in pH may partly be compensated  
4067 by an alkalinity increase, as in the past. Hence, past changes in Baltic carbonate chemistry were different  
4068 from the global ocean acidification, and pH changes may differ also in future.
- 4069 12. Large marine food web changes were observed, which could partly be attributed to warming, brightening  
4070 and sea ice decline. However other factors also play important roles, and many records are too short for  
4071 attribution studies.

4072 **Author contributions**

Chapter	Title	Authors
1	<b>Introduction</b>	
1.1	Overview	H.E.M. Meier
1.2	The BACC process	M. Reckermann, H.E.M. Meier





1.3	Summary of BACC I and BACC II key messages	H.E.M. Meier
1.4	Baltic Sea Region characteristics	K. Myrberg
1.5	Global climate change	M. Gröger
2	<b>Methods</b>	
2.1	Assessment of literature	H.E.M. Meier
2.2	Climate model data	H.E.M. Meier
2.3	Uncertainty estimates	H.E.M. Meier
3	<b>Current state of knowledge</b>	
3.1	<b>Past climate change</b>	E. Zorita
3.2	<b>Present climate change</b>	
3.2.1	Present climate change - Atmosphere	
3.2.1.1	Large-scale circulation	M. Stendel, C. Frauen, F. Börgel, H.E.M. Meier, M. Kniebusch
3.2.1.2	Air temperature	A. Rutgersson
3.2.1.3	Solar radiation	T. Carlund, A. Rutgersson
3.2.1.4	Precipitation	J. Käyhkö, E. Kjellström
3.2.1.5	Wind	M. Stendel
3.2.1.6	Air pollution, air quality and atmospheric nutrient deposition	M. Quante
3.2.2	Present climate change - Land	
3.2.2.1	River discharge	J. Käyhkö, G. Lindström
3.2.2.2	Land nutrient inputs	O.P. Savchuk, B. Müller-Karulis
3.2.3	Terrestrial biosphere	W. May, P.A. Miller
3.2.4	Present climate change - Cryosphere	
3.2.4.1	Snow	J. Jaagus
3.2.4.2	Glaciers	N. Kirchner
3.2.4.3	Permafrost	G. Hugelius
3.2.4.4	Sea ice	J.J. Haapala
3.2.4.5	Lake ice	J. Käyhkö
3.2.5	Present climate change - Ocean and marine sediments	
3.2.5.1	Water temperature	C. Dieterich, H.E.M. Meier
3.2.5.2	Salinity and saltwater inflows	V. Mohrholz, H.E.M. Meier, K. Myrberg, A. Lehmann



3.2.5.3	Stratification and overturning circulation	M. Gröger, H.E.M. Meier, K. Myrberg
3.2.5.4	Sea level	B. Hünicke, E. Zorita, C. Dieterich, R. Weisse
3.2.5.5	Waves	L. Tuomi
3.2.5.6	Sedimentation and coastal erosion	W. Zhang
3.2.5.7	Marine carbonate and biogeochemistry	K. Kulinski, J. Carstensen, B. Müller-Karulis, O. Savchuk
3.2.6	Marine biosphere	M. Viitasalo, E. Bonsdorff, R. Elmgren, A. Galatius, M. Ahola, V. Dierschke, I. Carlen, M. Frederiksen, E. Gaget, A. Halkka, M. Jüssi, D. Pavon-Jordan
3.3	<b>Future climate change</b>	All
3.3.1	Future climate change - Atmosphere	
3.3.1.1	Large-scale circulation	A. Rutgersson, F. Börgel, C. Frauen
3.3.1.2	Air temperature	A. Rutgersson, E. Kjellström, O.B. Christensen
3.3.1.3	Solar radiation	A. Rutgersson, T. Carlund
3.3.1.4	Precipitation	E. Kjellström, O.B. Christensen
3.3.1.5	Wind	M. Stendel, H.E.M. Meier
3.3.1.6	Air pollution, air quality and atmospheric nutrient deposition	M. Quante
3.3.2	Future climate change - Land	
3.3.2.1	River discharge	J Käyhkö
3.3.2.2	Riverine nutrient loads	R. Capell, A. Bartosova
3.3.3	Terrestrial biosphere	W. May, P.A. Miller
3.3.4	Future climate change - Cryosphere	
3.3.4.1	Snow	O.B. Christensen
3.3.4.2	Glaciers	N. Kirchner
3.3.4.3	Permafrost	G. Hugelius
3.3.4.4	Sea ice	J.J. Haapala
3.3.4.5	Lake ice	J. Käyhkö
3.3.5	Future climate change – Ocean and marine sediments	
3.3.5.1	Water temperature	C. Dieterich, H.E.M. Meier, M. Gröger
3.3.5.2	Salinity and saltwater inflows	H.E.M. Meier
3.3.5.3	Stratification and overturning circulation	M. Gröger, C. Dieterich, H.E.M. Meier



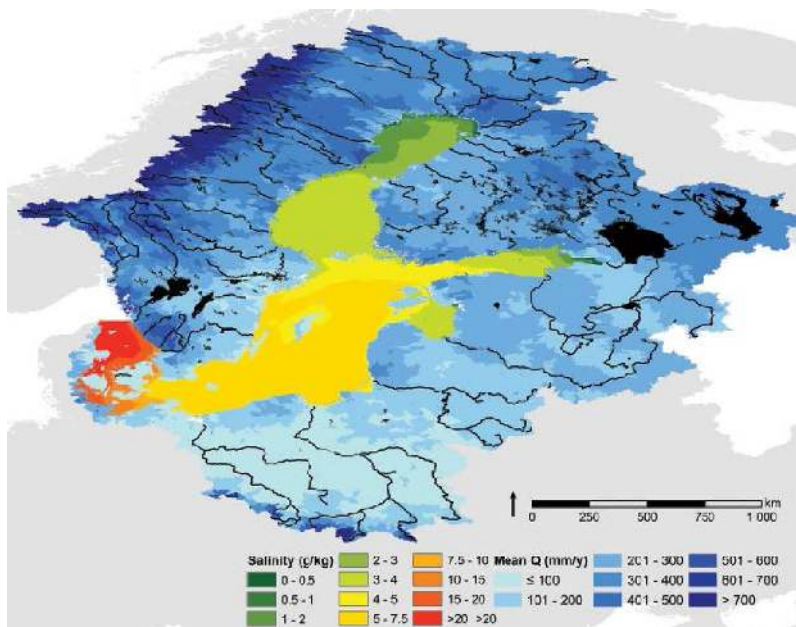
3.3.5.4	Sea level	B. Hünicke, E. Zorita, C. Dieterich, R. Weisse
3.3.5.5	Waves	L. Tuomi
3.3.5.6	Sedimentation and coastal erosion	W. Zhang
3.3.5.7	Marine carbonate and biogeochemistry	K. Kulinski, J. Carstensen, B. Müller-Karulis, O. Savchuk
3.3.6	Marine biosphere	M. Viitasalo, E. Bonsdorff, R. Elmgren, A. Galatius, M. Ahola, V. Dierschke, I. Carlen, M. Frederiksen, E. Gaget, A. Halkka, M. Jüssi, D. Pavon-Jordan
4	<b>Interactions with other drivers</b>	M. Reckermann
5	<b>Comparison with the North Sea region</b>	M. Quante
6	<b>Knowledge gaps</b>	H.E.M. Meier and All
7	<b>Key messages</b>	H.E.M. Meier and All
8	<b>Concluding remarks</b>	H.E.M. Meier and All
Figures and Tables	Analysis of observed time series	M. Kniebusch
Figures and Tables	Analysis of scenario simulations	M. Kniebusch, H.E.M. Meier, C. Dieterich, M. Gröger, O.P. Savchuk, G. Lindström, N. Kirchner, E. Zorita, G. Hugelius

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 4075 Earth program (Earth System Science for the Baltic Sea region, see <http://www.baltic.earth>). Glacier mass  
 4076 loss data were obtained from the SITES Data Portal (<https://data.fieldsites.se/portal/>, see World Glacier  
 4077 Monitoring Service (WGMS, 2020) and Swedish Infrastructure for Ecosystem Science (SITES, 2021a, b, c).  
 4078 We thank Berit Recklebe for technical support and preparation of the reference list.  
 4079



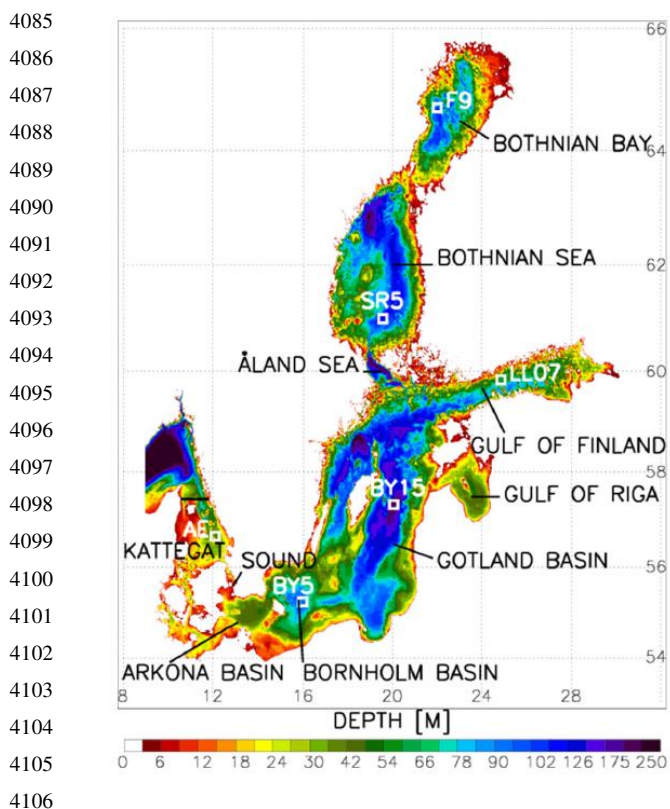
4080 **Figures**



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4082 **Figure 1:** The Baltic Sea and its catchment area, showing climatological mean salinity (in  $\text{g kg}^{-1}$ ) and river runoff  
4083 (in  $\text{mm year}^{-1}$ ). (Source: Meier et al., 2014)

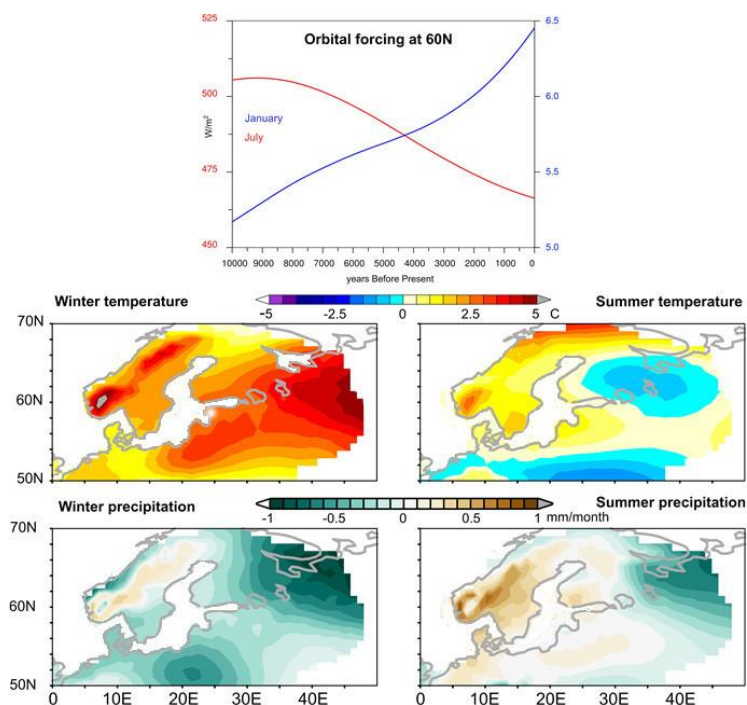
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4107 **Figure 2:** Bottom topography of the Baltic Sea and locations of the monitoring stations Arkona Deep (BY2),  
4108 Bornholm Deep (BY5), Gdansk Deep (BMPL1), Gotland Deep (BY15), Northern Deep (OMTF 0286), Landsort  
4109 Deep (BY15), and Åland Sea (F64). The Baltic proper comprises the Arkona Basin, Bornholm Basin and Gotland  
4110 Basin.  
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**Figure 3:** Orbital forcing (irradiance) at 60°N in January and July (derived from Laskar et al., 2004) and the

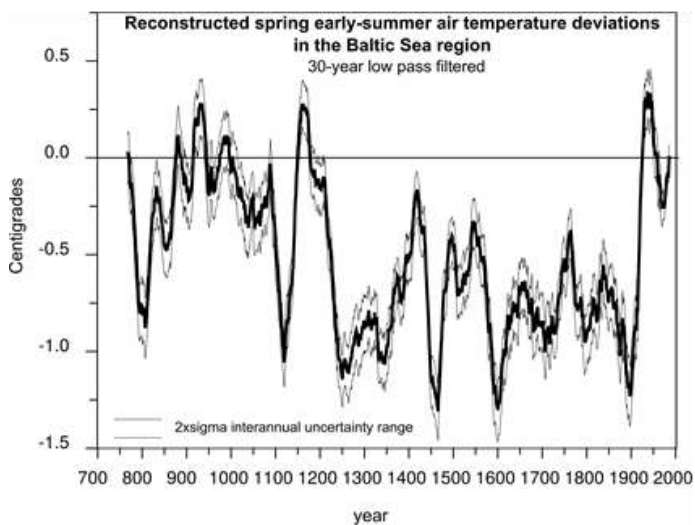
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anomalies of reconstructed seasonal temperature and precipitation compared to preindustrial climate (Mauri et al.,

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2015) in the Baltic Sea region at the Mid-Holocene Optimum (6000 before present).

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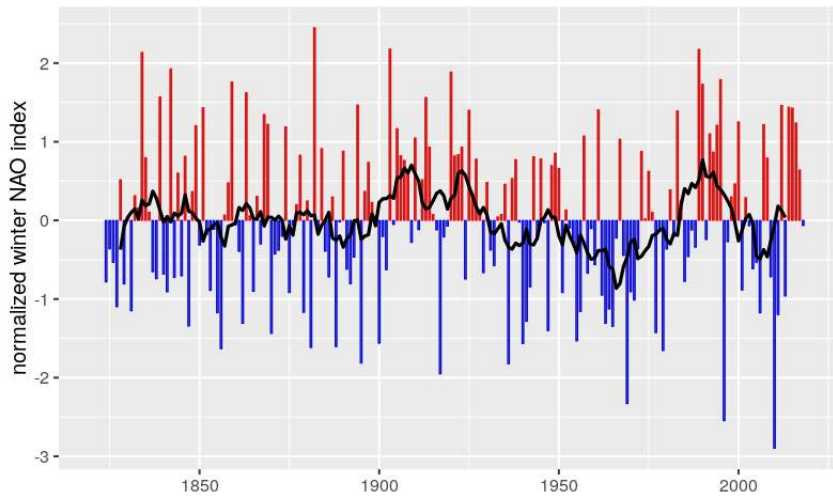
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**Figure 4:** Reconstructed spring-early-summer air temperature in the Baltic Sea region (land areas in the box 0-40°E x 55-70°N, deviations from the 20th century mean) derived from Luterbacher et al. (2016). The record is smoothed by a 30-year low-pass filter. The approximate uncertainty range has been estimated here from the data provided by the original publication at interannual and grid-cell scale.

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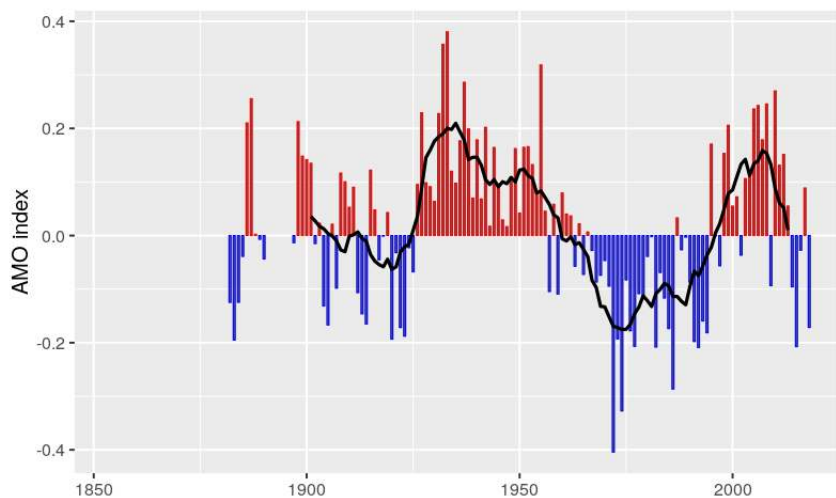
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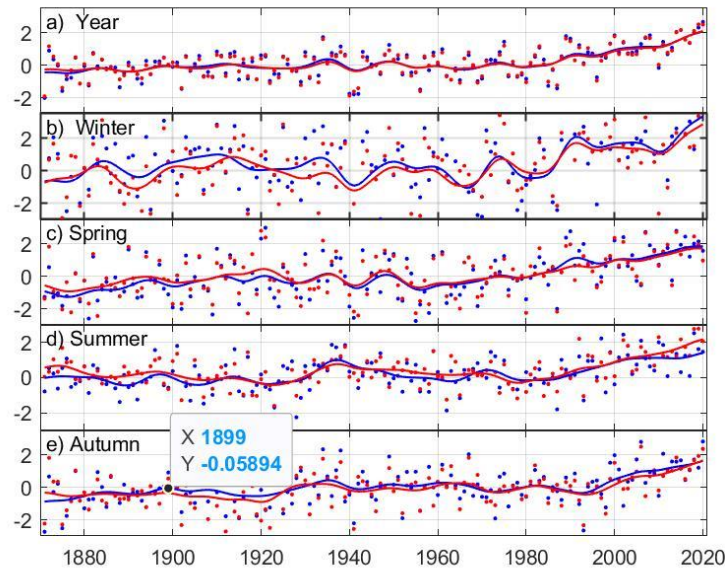
4126 **Figure 5:** Normalized winter (December through March; DJFM) mean NAO index during 1821/22-2018/19. Red:  
4127 positive, blue: negative, black: 10-year running mean. Normalization:  $(\text{data} - \text{mean}(\text{data})) / \text{standard deviation}(\text{data})$ .  
4128 (Data source: <https://crudata.uea.ac.uk/cru/data/nao/nao.dat>, compiled by Madline Kniebusch, Leibniz Institute for  
4129 Baltic Sea Research Warnemünde)

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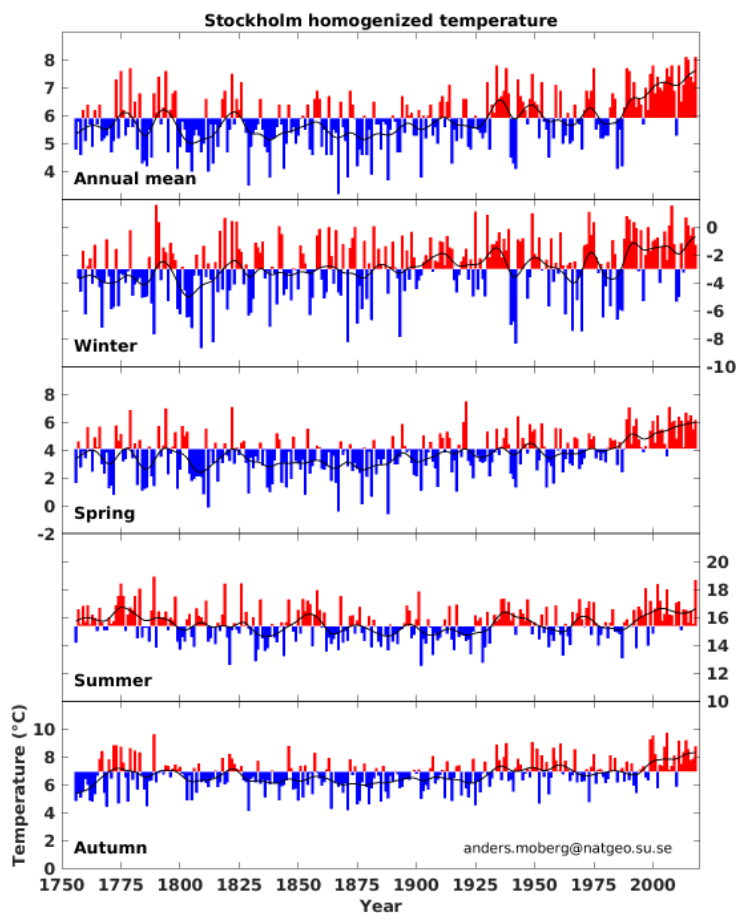
4131  
4132 **Figure 6:** Normalized annual mean AMO index during 1882-2018. Red: positive, blue: negative, black: 10-year  
4133 running mean. Normalization:  $(\text{data} - \text{mean}(\text{data})) / \text{standard deviation}(\text{data})$ . (Data source:  
4134 [https://climexp.knmi.nl/data/iamo\\_hadsst\\_ts.dat](https://climexp.knmi.nl/data/iamo_hadsst_ts.dat), compiled by Madline Kniebusch, Leibniz Institute for Baltic Sea  
4135 Research Warnemünde)  
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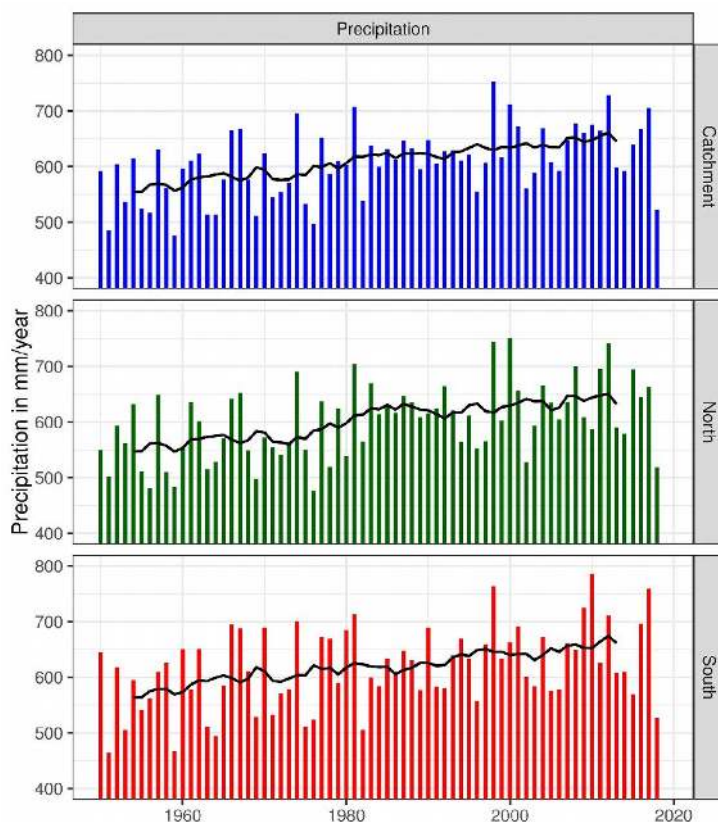
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4138 **Figure 7:** Annual and seasonal mean near-surface air temperature anomalies for the Baltic Sea basin for  
4139 1871–2020, taken from the CRUTEM4v dataset (Jones et al., 2012), compiled by Anna Rutgersson, Uppsala  
4140 University. Blue, red: Baltic Sea basin region north and south, respectively, of 60°N. Dots: individual years.  
4141 Smoothed curves: variability on timescales longer than 10 years.

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4144 **Figure 8:** Homogenized annual and seasonal mean temperature in Stockholm during 1756-2018 measured at Bolin  
4145 Centre, Stockholm. Each colored bar show the annual mean temperature, in red or blue, depending on whether the  
4146 temperature is above or below the average during the reference period 1961-1990. The black curve represents  
4147 smoothed 10-year mean temperatures. (Source: <https://bolin.su.se/data/stockholm-historical-temps-monthly>)  
4148



4149

4150 **Figure 9:** Mean annual precipitation over land in  $\text{mm year}^{-1}$  in the Baltic Sea catchment area during 1950-2018.

4151 Blue: whole catchment area, green: North of  $59^{\circ}\text{N}$ , Red: South of  $59^{\circ}\text{N}$ . Bars: annual sum, black: 10-year running

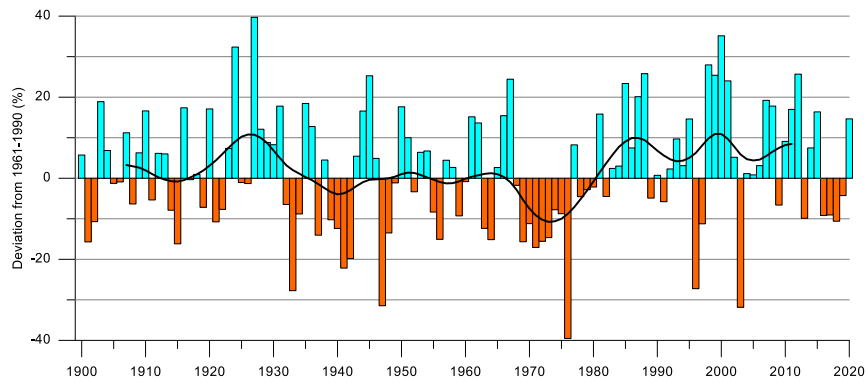
4152 mean. (Data source: [http://surfobs.climate.copernicus.eu/dataaccess/access\\_eobs.php#datafiles](http://surfobs.climate.copernicus.eu/dataaccess/access_eobs.php#datafiles), compiled by

4153 Madline Kniebusch, Leibniz Institute for Baltic Sea Research Warnemünde). Trends:  $1.44 \text{ mm year}^{-1}$  (total),  $1.51$

4154  $\text{mm year}^{-1}$  (North),  $1.37 \text{ mm year}^{-1}$  (South), significant on 99% using the phase-scrambling method (Kniebusch et

4155 al., 2019b).

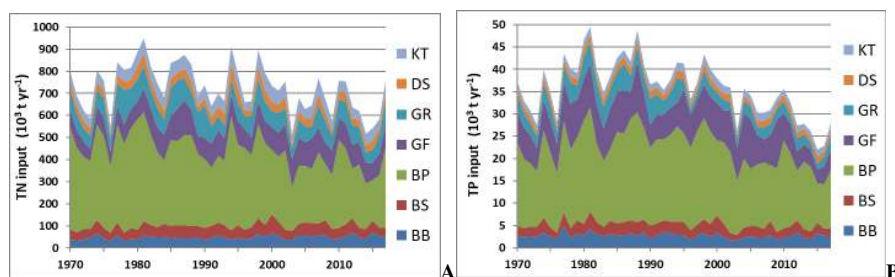
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4158 **Figure 10:** Area weighted river runoff anomalies relative to 1960-1990 (in %) from Sweden to the Baltic Sea. The  
4159 black solid curve denotes Gaussian filtered data with a standard deviation of three years. (Source: Göran  
4160 Lindström, Swedish Meteorological and Hydrological Institute).

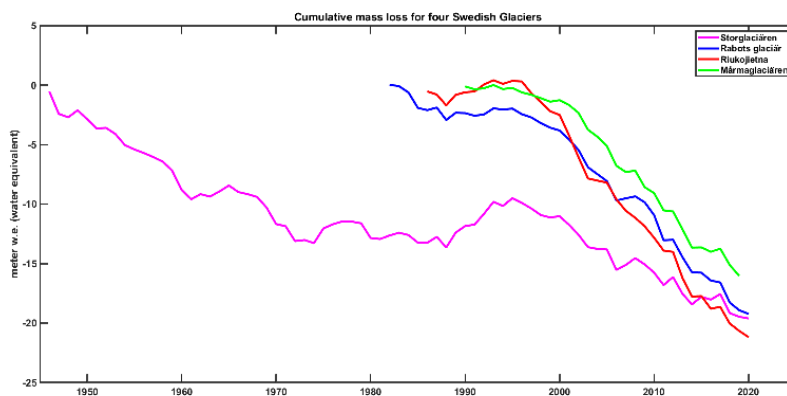
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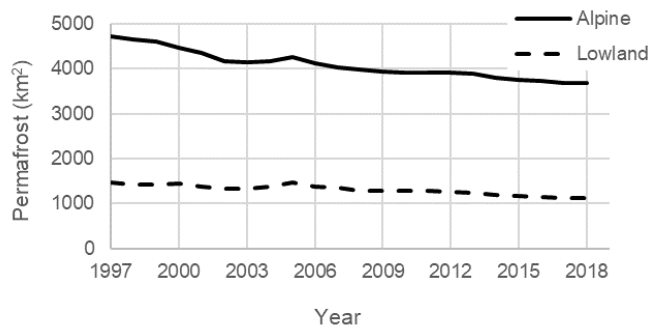
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4163 **Figure 11:** Long-term dynamics (1970–2017) of annual nitrogen (A) and phosphorus (B) land inputs to the major  
4164 Baltic Sea basins: BB - Bothnian Bay; BS – Bothnian Sea; BP - Baltic proper; GF - Gulf of Finland; GR - Gulf of  
4165 Riga; DS – Danish straits; KT – Kattegat. Time (years) is on the horizontal axis. (Source: O.P. Savchuk, Stockholm  
4166 University)

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4168  
4169 **Figure 12:** Cumulative mass loss for four Swedish glaciers: Storglaciären (since 1946), Rabots glaciär (since 1982,  
4170 no data for 2004 and 2007 and hence interpolated), Riukojietna (since 1986, data for 2004 interpolated), och  
4171 Mårnaglaciär (since 1990, no data for 2020). Data are accessible from the SITES Data Portal,  
4172 <https://data.fieldsites.se/portal/> (Swedish Infrastructure for Ecosystem Science, 2021a, c, b). (Source: Nina  
4173 Kirchner, Stockholm University)  
4174

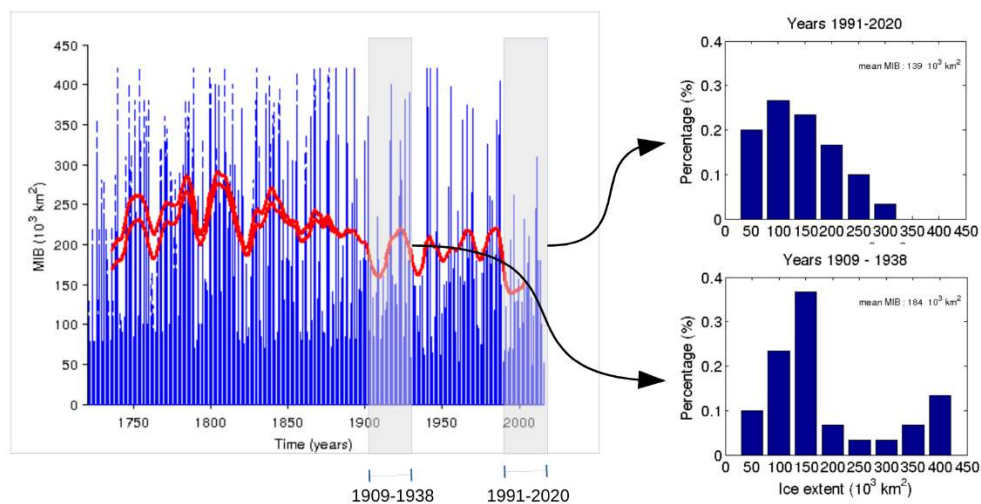


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4176 **Figure 13:** Modeled permafrost extent of alpine (> 700 m a.s.l.) and lowland permafrost for the years 1997-2018  
4177 in the Baltic Sea drainage basin. Permafrost data from (Obu et al., 2020), extent of catchment from (Hannerz and  
4178 Destouni, 2006) and elevation data from USGS Global Multi-resolution Terrain Elevation Data 2010  
4179 (GMTED2010). Analyses performed at 1 km resolution in an equal area projection. (Source: Gustav Hugelius,  
4180 Stockholm University)

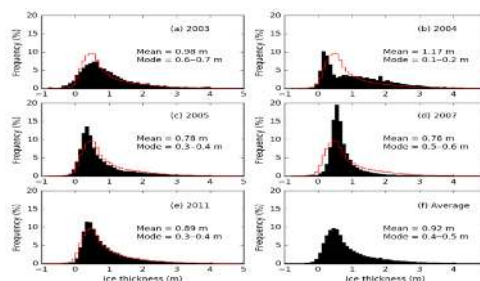
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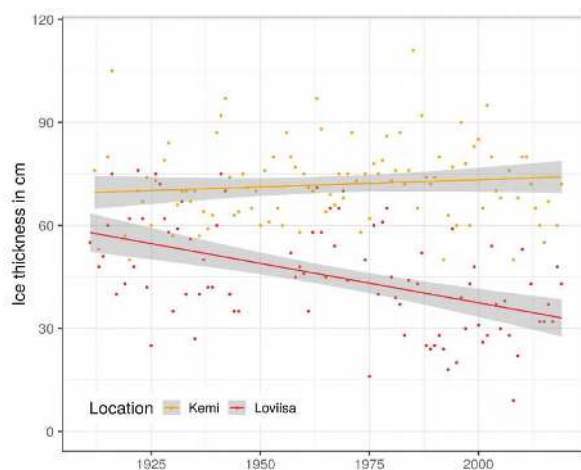
4183 **Figure 14:** Left: Annual maximum sea ice extent of the Baltic Sea (MIB) in km<sup>2</sup> during 1720-2020. Blue bars:  
4184 annual, red: 15-year running mean. Right: 30-year distribution functions of MIB during 1909-1938 and 1991-  
4185 2020. (Data sources: [https://www.eea.europa.eu/data-and-maps/daviz/maximum-extent-of-ice-cover-3#tab-](https://www.eea.europa.eu/data-and-maps/daviz/maximum-extent-of-ice-cover-3#tab-chart_1)  
4186 [chart\\_1](https://www.eea.europa.eu/data-and-maps/daviz/maximum-extent-of-ice-cover-3#tab-chart_1), website Finnish Meteorological Institute: <https://en.ilmatieteenlaitos.fi/ice-season-in-the-baltic-sea>).  
4187 (Source: Jari Haapala, Finnish Meteorological Institute)  
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4190 **Figure 15:** An average sea ice thickness distribution in the Bay of Bothnia. Statistics is based on helicopter  
4191 electromagnetic measurements conducted in winters 2003, 2004, 2005, 2007 and 2011 (Source: Ronkainen et al.,  
4192 2018).

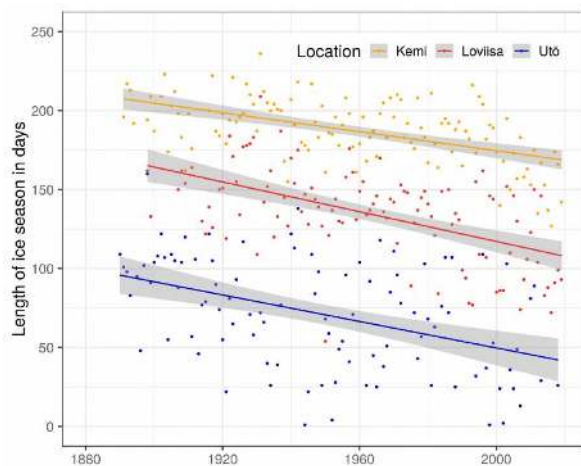
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4195 **Figure 16:** Level ice thickness at Kemi, Finland and Loviisa, Finland during 1912-2019. Points: annual mean  
4196 values, lines: linear trend with 95% confidence intervals (Data source: Jari Haapala, Finnish Meteorological  
4197 Institute).  
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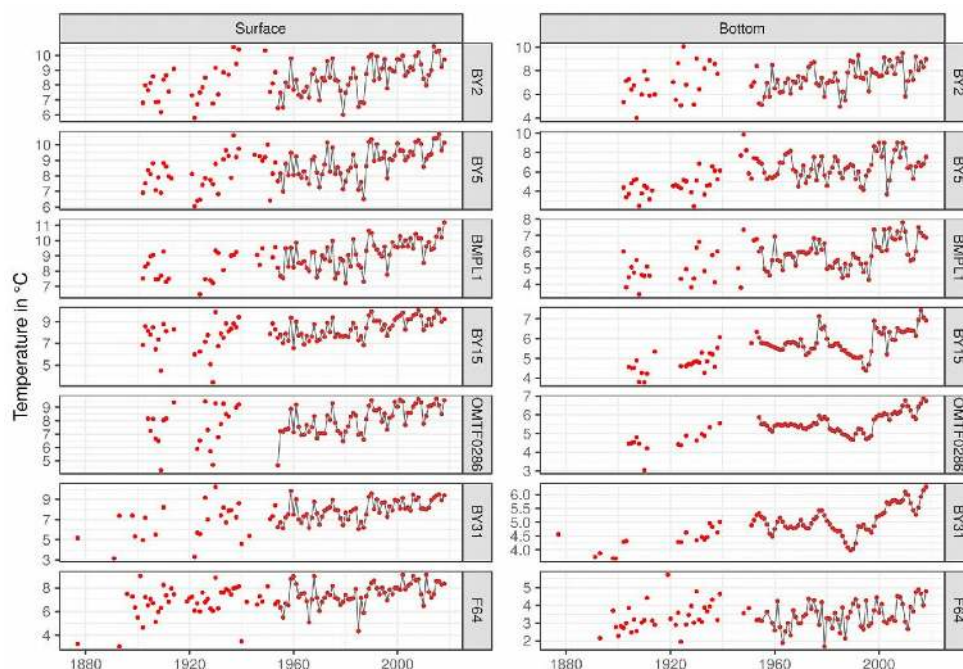
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**Figure 17:** Length of the ice season in days at Kemi, Loviisa and Utö (Finland) during 1890-2019. Points: annual mean, lines: linear trend with 95% confidence intervals (Data source: Jari Haapala, Finnish Meteorological Institute).

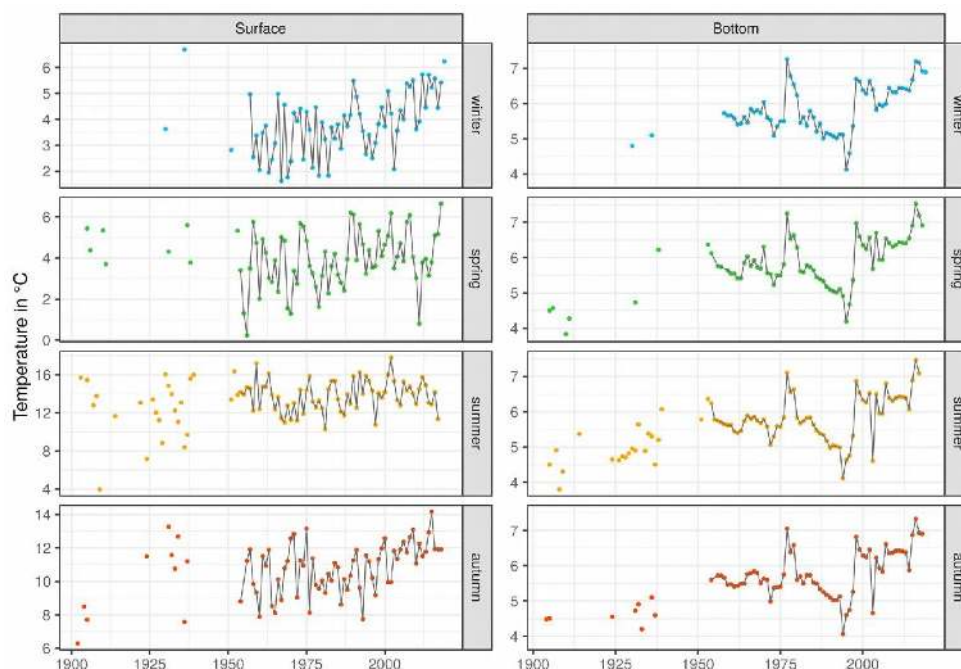
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4206 **Figure 18:** Annual mean values of de-seasonalized daily sea surface (left) and bottom (right) temperature (red  
4207 points) at seven monitoring stations during 1877-2018. For the location of the stations see Figure 2. The grey lines  
4208 show the period when every station has data for every year (1954-2018). For Figures 18, 19, 21 and 22, ICES data  
4209 (<https://ocean.ices.dk/HydChem/>) for temperature and salinity (bottle data, i.e. from specific depths) were used.  
4210 Post processing of the data was done following Radtke et al. (2020) in order to overcome possible seasonal biases  
4211 due to missing values in the observations. Therefore, gaps were statistically filled using a GAMM model (general  
4212 additive mixed models) taking the seasonality into account. (Source: Madline Kniebusch, Leibniz Institute for  
4213 Baltic Sea Research Warnemünde)  
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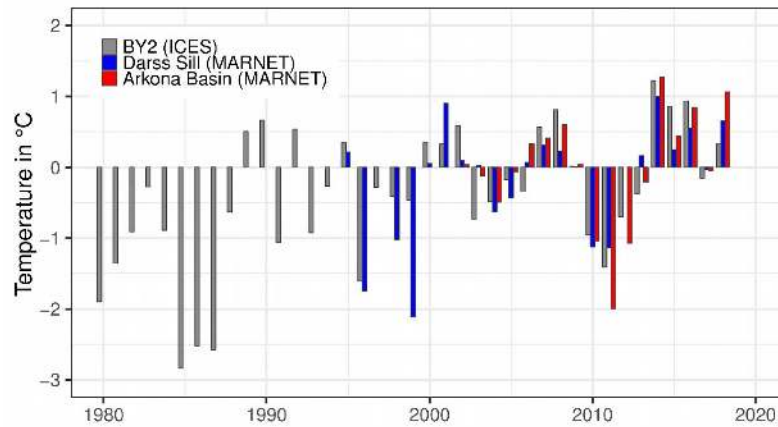
4216 **Figure 19:** Seasonal mean sea surface and bottom temperature values during 1877-2018 at Gotland Deep (BY15).

4217 Blue: winter, green: spring, yellow: summer and orange: autumn. The grey lines show the period when every

4218 station has data for every year (1954-2018). (Source: Madline Kniebusch, Leibniz Institute for Baltic Sea Research

4219 Warnemünde)

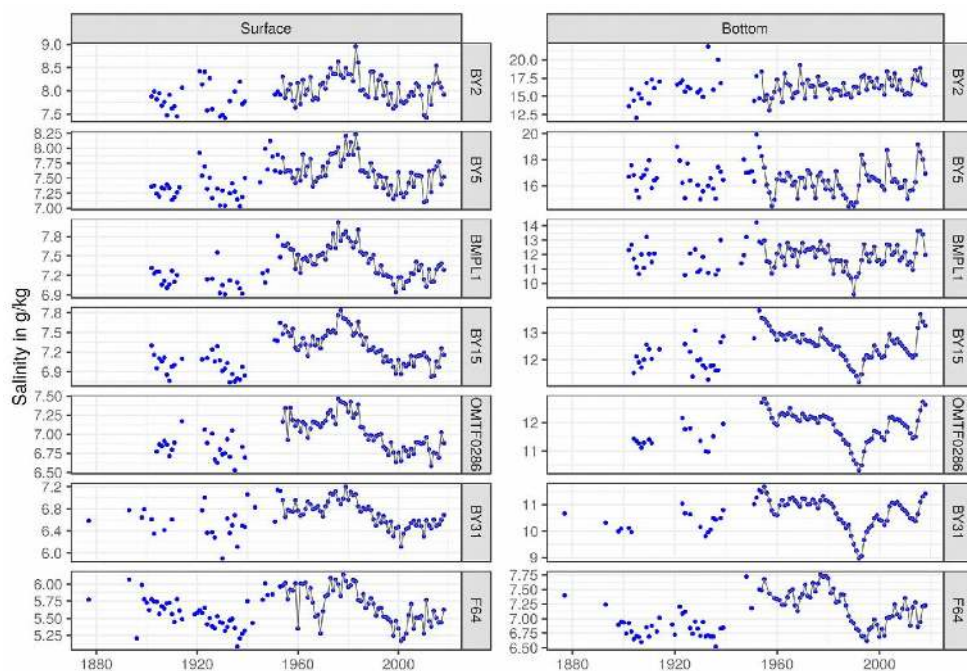
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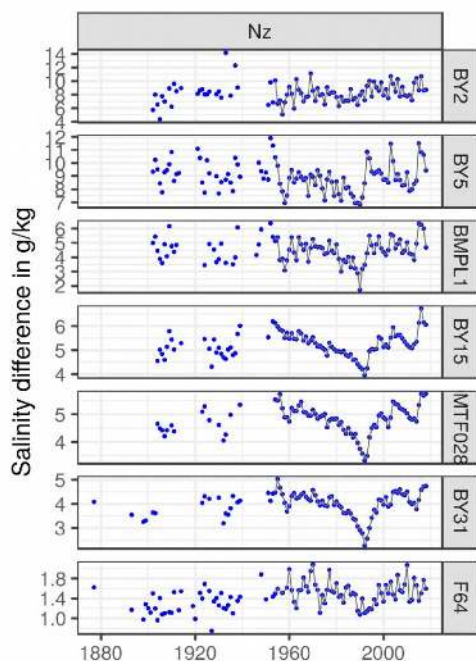
4222 **Figure 20:** Annual sea surface temperature anomalies to the reference period 2002-2018 of de-seasonalized  
4223 measurements at BY2 and the MARNET stations Darss Sill and Arkona Basin during 1980-2018. (Source:  
4224 Madline Kniebusch, Leibniz Institute for Baltic Sea Research Warnemünde)

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4226  
4227 **Figure 21:** Annual mean values of de-seasonalized daily sea surface (left) and bottom (right) salinity (blue points)  
4228 at seven important stations during 1877-2018. The grey lines show the period when every station has data for every  
4229 year (1954-2018). (Source: Madline Kniebusch, Leibniz Institute for Baltic Sea Research Warnemünde)  
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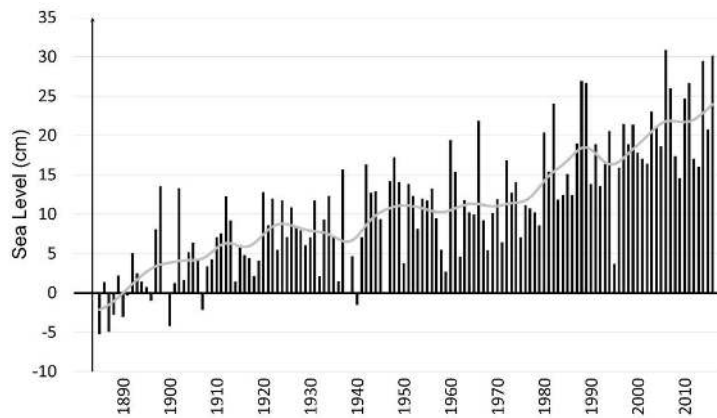




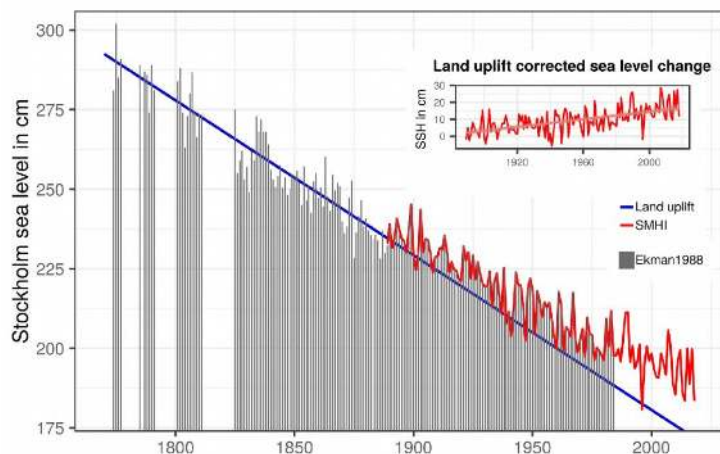
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4232 **Figure 22:** Difference between bottom and surface salinity as a measure for the vertical stratification (blue points)  
4233 during 1877-2018. Only time steps when both values were available are considered. The grey lines show the period  
4234 when every station has data for every year (1954-2018). (Source: Madline Kniebusch, Leibniz Institute for Baltic  
4235 Sea Research Warnemünde)

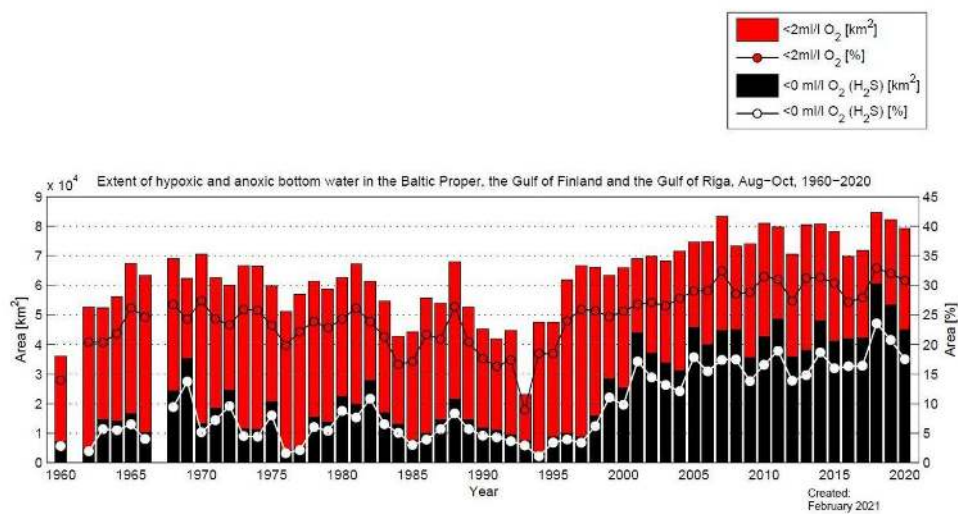
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4238 **Figure 23:** Annual mean sea level changes in centimeters for 14 Swedish mareographs since 1886. The data are  
4239 corrected for land uplift. The grey line shows a smoothed curve. (Source: Swedish Meteorological and  
4240 Hydrological Institute)  
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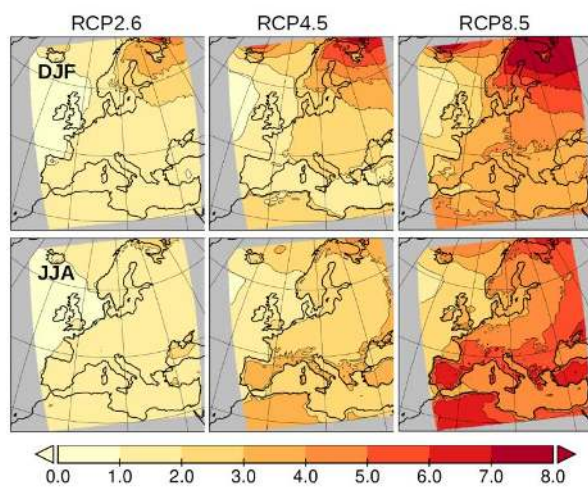


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4243 **Figure 24:** Annual mean sea level in Stockholm during 1774-2018. Grey bars: historic time series from Ekman  
4244 (1988), red: SMHI data (RH2000, 1889-2018), blue: trend computed for 1774-1884 (estimated land uplift: 4.9 mm  
4245 year<sup>-1</sup>) and extrapolated until 2018. The SMHI data has been bias corrected (mean difference during overlapping  
4246 time period) to make both time series comparable. Sea level rise of SMHI data corrected by estimated land uplift  
4247 amounts 1.13 mm year<sup>-1</sup> during 1889-2018. (Source: Madline Kniebusch, Leibniz Institute for Baltic Sea Research  
4248 Warnemünde)  
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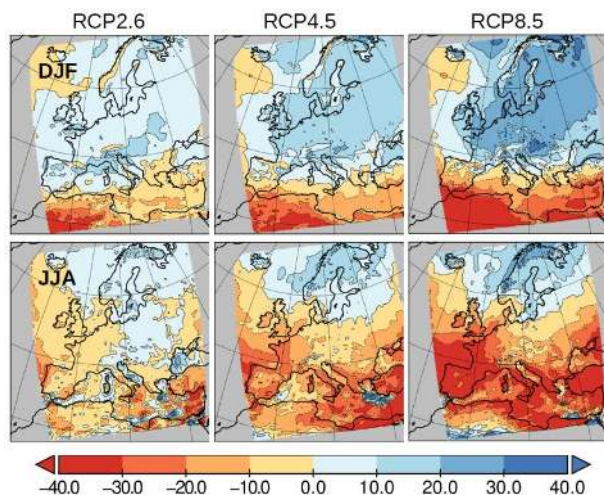
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4251 **Figure 25:** Extent of hypoxic ( $< 2 \text{ mL O}_2 \text{ L}^{-1}$ ) and anoxic ( $< 0 \text{ mL O}_2 \text{ L}^{-1}$ ) bottom water (in  $\text{km}^2$ ) in the Baltic  
4252 proper, Gulf of Finland and Gulf of Riga during cruise in August-October 1960-2020. (Source: Swedish  
4253 Meteorological and Hydrological Institute)



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T2m (2070-2099) minus (1970-1999)



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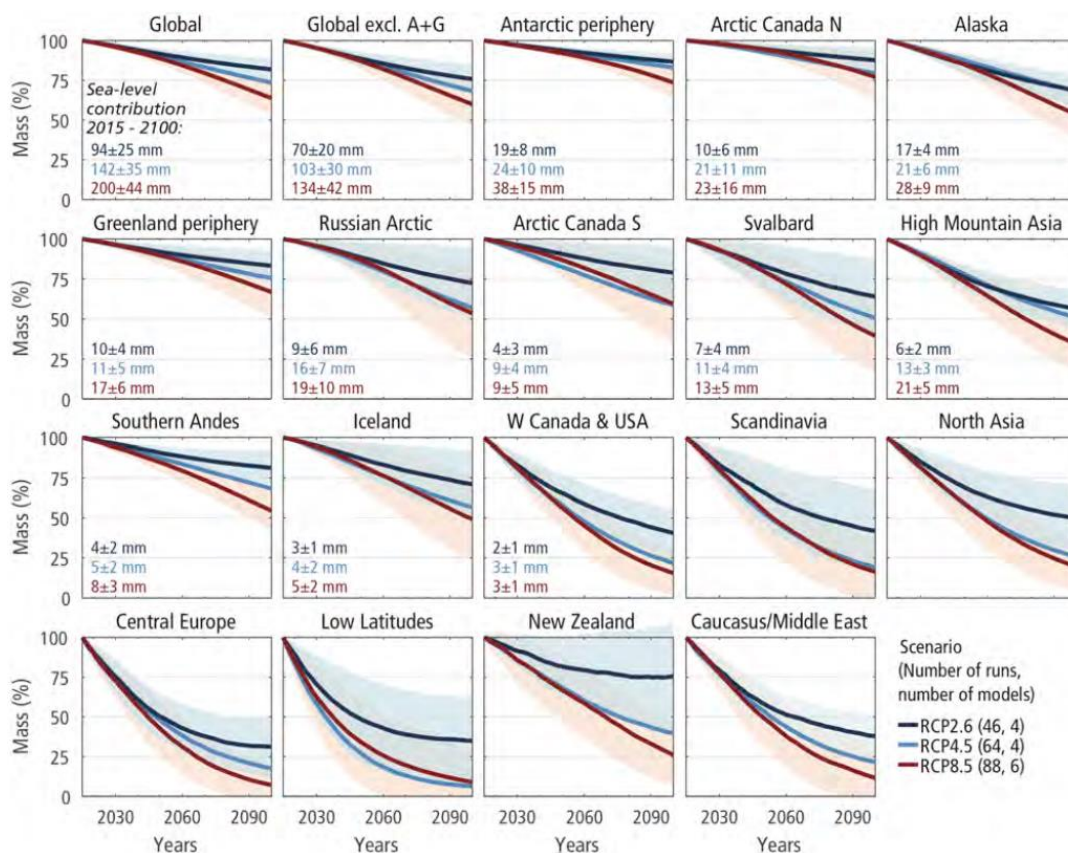
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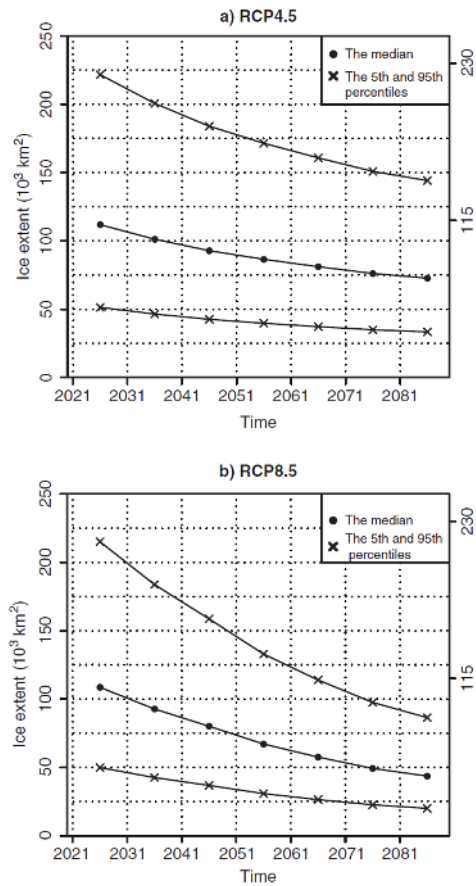
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**Figure 26:** (a) Ensemble mean 2 m air temperature change (°C) between 2070-2099 and 1970-1999 for winter (December through January, upper panels) and summer (June through August, lower panels) under RCP2.6, RCP4.5 and RCP8.5. (b) as (a) but for precipitation change (mm day<sup>-1</sup>). Eight different Earth System Models are used. (Data source: Gröger et al., 2021b)



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**Figure 27:** Mean projected glacier mass evolution between 2015 and 2100 relative to each region's glacier mass in 2015 (in %) and ± 1 standard deviation under RCP2.6, RCP4.5 and RCP8.5. (Source: Hock et al., 2019)



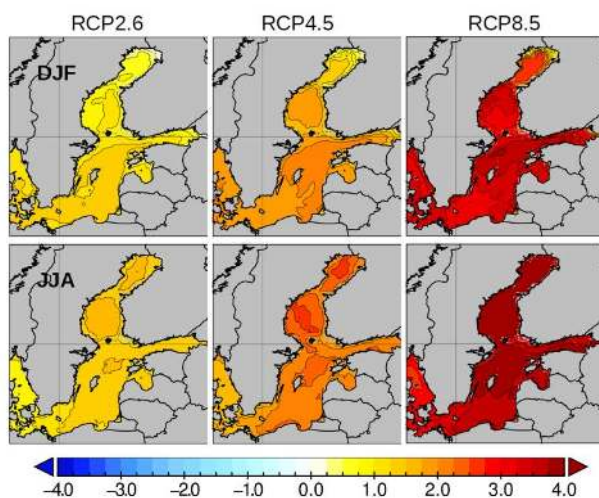
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4266 **Figure 28:** Median, 5<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup> percentiles of the annual maximum ice extent of the Baltic Sea estimated from 28

4267 CMIP5 models. The vertical axis shows upper class limits for mild and average ice winters. (a) RCP4.5, (b)

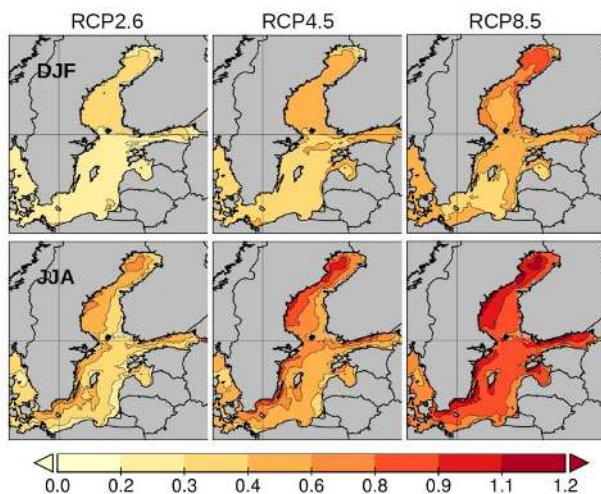
4268 RCP8.5. (Source: Luomaranta et al., 2014)

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SST (2070-2099) minus (1970-1999)

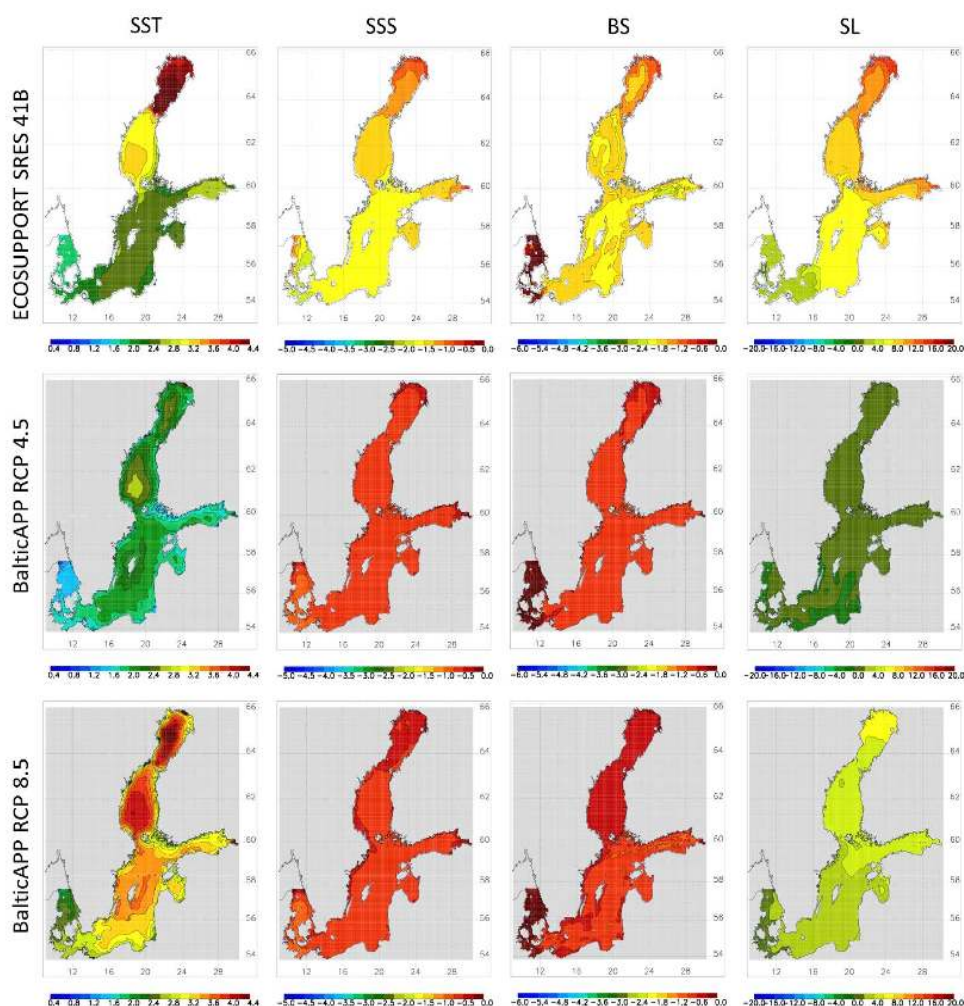


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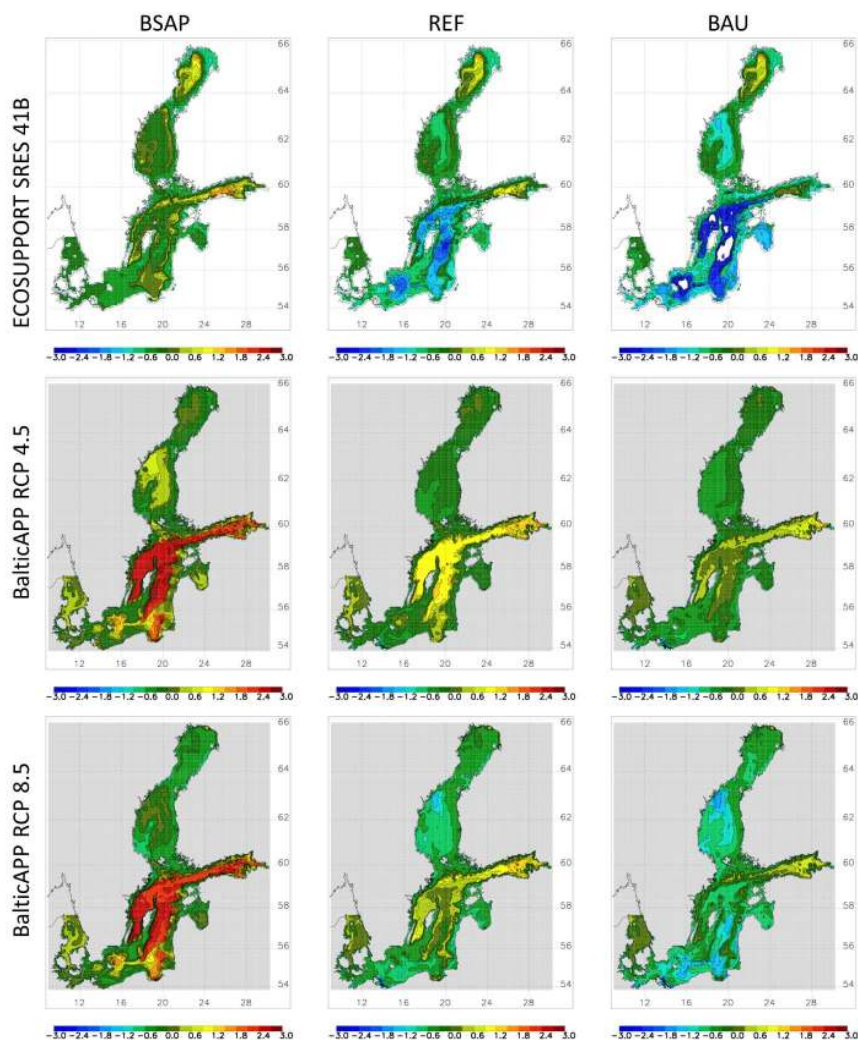
Standard deviation

4272 **Figure 29:** (a) Ensemble mean sea surface temperature change (°C) between 2070-2099 and 1970-1999 for winter  
4273 (December through January, upper panels) and summer (June through August, lower panels) under RCP2.6,  
4274 RCP4.5 and RCP8.5. (b) as (a) but for the standard deviation of the change, i.e. the ensemble spread (°C). Eight  
4275 different Earth System Models are used. (Source: Gröger et al., 2019)



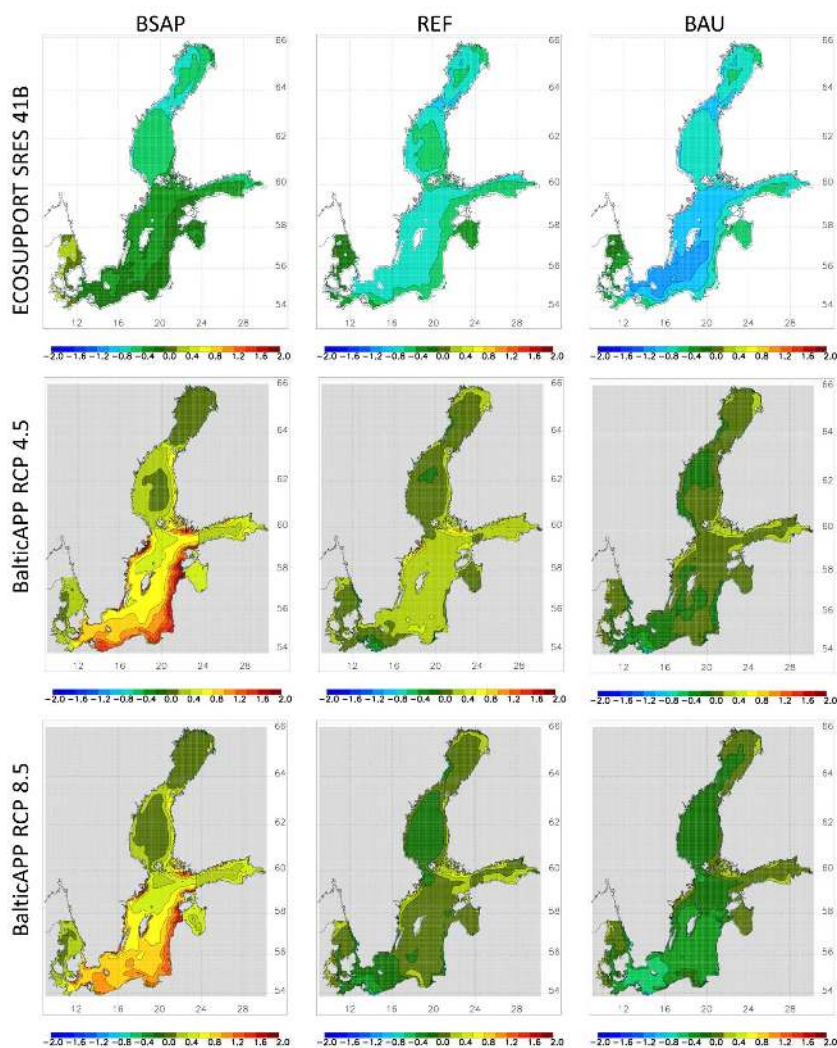


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 4277 **Figure 30:** From left to right changes of summer (June – August) mean sea surface temperature (SST; °C), annual  
 4278 mean sea surface salinity (SSS; g kg<sup>-1</sup>), annual mean bottom salinity (BS; g kg<sup>-1</sup>), and winter (December –  
 4279 February) mean sea level (SL; cm) between 1978-2007 and 2069-2098 are shown. From top to bottom results of  
 4280 the ensembles by Meier et al. (2011a) under the A1B/A2 greenhouse gas emission scenario (white background),  
 4281 and by Saraiva et al. (2019b), RCP 4.5 (grey background) and RCP 8.5 (grey background) are depicted.  
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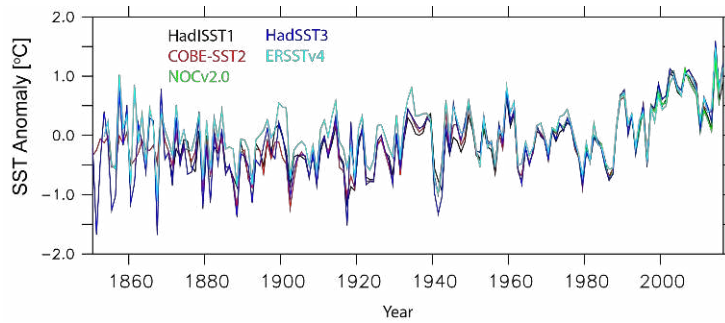
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**Figure 31:** Ensemble mean summer (June – August) bottom dissolved oxygen concentration changes ( $\text{mL L}^{-1}$ ) between 1978–2007 and 2069–2098. From left to right results of the nutrient load scenarios Baltic Sea Action Plan (BSAP), Reference (REF) and Business-As-Usual (BAU) are shown. From top to bottom results of the ensembles by Meier et al. (2011a) under the A1B/A2 greenhouse gas emission scenario (white background), and by Saraiva et al. (2019b), RCP 4.5 (grey background) and RCP 8.5 (grey background) are depicted.



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**Figure 32:** As Figure 30 but for annual mean Secchi depth changes (m). Secchi depth changes indicate changes in water transparency caused by phytoplankton and detritus concentration changes.



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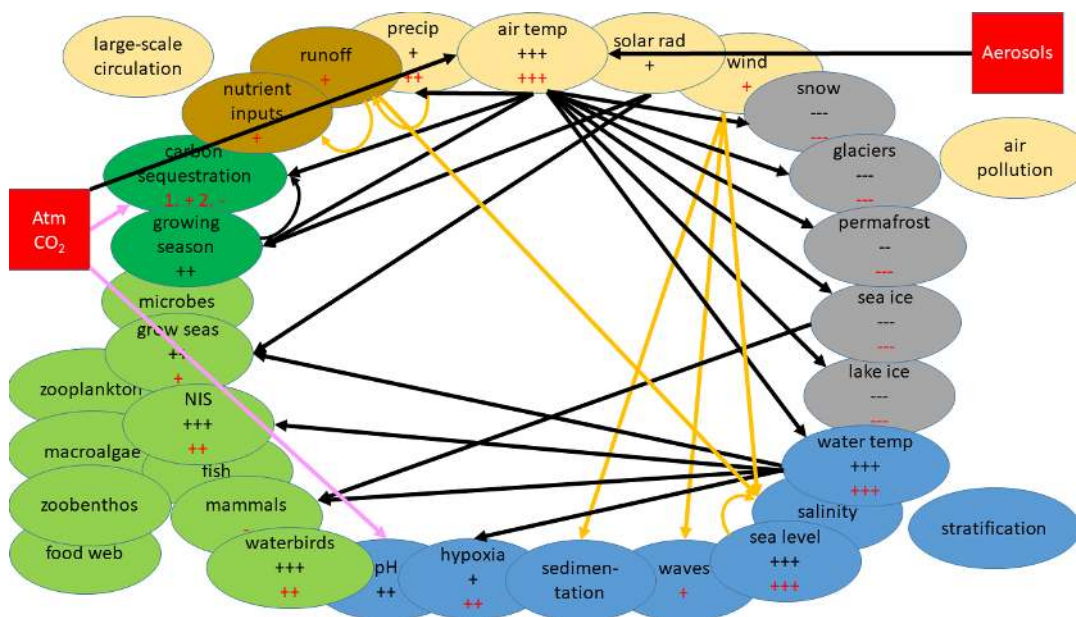
**Figure 33:** Sea surface temperature anomaly in the Greater North Sea region from 1870 to 2016 (relative to the mean 1971 to 2000), according to different data sets. (Huthnance et al., 2016), updated by Elizabeth Kent,

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Southampton)

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**Figure 34:** Synthesis of the knowledge on present and future climate changes. Shown are the anthropogenic climate changes in 33 Earth system variables (bubbles) of the atmosphere (yellow), land surface (brown), terrestrial biosphere (dark green), cryosphere (grey), ocean and sediment (blue), and marine biosphere (light green). The sign of a change (plus/minus) is shown together with the level of confidence denoted by the number of signs, i.e. one to three signs correspond to low, medium and high confidence levels, as the result of the literature assessment reflecting consensus and evidence following the IPCC definitions (Section 2.3). Sign colours indicate the direction of past (black) and future (red) changes following Table 10. Uncertain changes (+/-) are not displayed. Investigated external anthropogenic drivers of the Earth system are shown as red squares, i.e. greenhouse gases, in particular CO<sub>2</sub>, and aerosol emissions. Climate change attribution relationships with sufficiently high confidence are shown by arrows (black: heat cycle, orange: water cycle, pink: carbon cycle). Projections of carbon sequestration of Arctic terrestrial ecosystems for the 21<sup>st</sup> century showed first increased uptake and later a carbon source (Section 3.3.3), denoted by 1. + 2. -.



4313

4314 **Tables**

4315 **Table 1:** Variables of this assessment and further reference (1: Lehmann et al., 2021; 2: Kuliński et al., 2021; 3:  
 4316 Rutgersson et al., 2021; 4: Weisse et al., 2021; 5: Reckermann et al., 2021; 6: Gröger et al., 2021a; 7: Christensen  
 4317 et al., 2021; 8: Meier et al., 2021a; 9: Viitasalo, 2021)

Number	Variable	Past and present climates		Future climate	
Atmosphere					
1	Large-scale circulation	3.2.1.1	3	3.3.1.1	3, 7
2	Air temperature	3.1.2, 3.1.3, 3.1.4		3.3.1.2	7
	Warm spell	3.2.1.2	3		3
	Cold spell		3		3
3	Solar radiation and cloudiness	3.2.1.3		3.3.1.3	7
4	Precipitation	3.1.2, 3.1.3, 3.1.4		3.3.1.4	7
	Heavy precipitation	3.2.1.4	3		3
	Drought		3		3
5	Wind	3.2.1.5		3.3.1.5	7
	Storm		3		3
6	Air pollution, air quality and atmospheric deposition	3.2.1.6		3.3.1.6	
Land					
7	River discharge	3.2.2.1		3.3.2.1	8
	High flow		3		3
8	Land nutrient inputs	3.2.2.2		3.3.2.2	8
Terrestrial biosphere					
9	Land cover (forest, crops, grassland, peatland, mires)	3.2.3	6	3.3.3	
10	Carbon sequestration			3.3.3	
Cryosphere					
11	Snow	3.2.4.1		3.3.4.1	7
	Sea-effect snowfall		3		3
12	Glaciers	3.2.4.2		3.3.4.2	



13	Permafrost	3.2.4.3		3.3.4.3	
14	Sea ice	3.2.4.4		3.3.4.4	8
	Extreme mild winter		3		3
	Severe winter		3		3
	Ice ridging		3		3
15	Lake ice	3.2.4.5		3.3.4.5	
Ocean and marine sediments					
16	Water temperature	3.2.5.1		3.3.5.1	8
	Marine heat wave		3		3
17	Salinity and saltwater inflows	3.2.5.2	1	3.3.5.2	8
18	Stratification and overturning circulation	3.2.5.3	1	3.3.5.3	8
19	Sea level	3.2.5.4	4	3.3.5.4	8
	Sea level extreme		3		3
20	Waves	3.2.5.5	4	3.3.5.5	
	Extreme waves		3		3
21	Sedimentation and coastal erosion	3.2.5.6	4	3.3.5.6	
22	Oxygen and nutrients	3.1.4 3.2.5.7.1	2	3.3.5.7.1	8
23	Marine CO <sub>2</sub> system	3.2.5.7.2	2	3.3.5.7.2	
Marine biosphere					
24	Pelagic habitats: Microbial communities	3.2.6.1.1	2, 9	3.3.6.1.1	9
25	Pelagic habitats: Phytoplankton and cyanobacteria	3.2.6.1.2	2, 3, 9	3.3.6.1.2	3, 9
26	Pelagic habitats: Zooplankton	3.2.6.1.3	9	3.3.6.1.3	9
27	Benthic habitats: Macroalgae and vascular plants	3.2.6.2.1	9	3.3.6.2.1	9
28	Benthic habitats: Zoobenthos	3.2.6.2.2	9	3.3.6.2.2	9
29	Non-indigenous species	3.2.6.3	9	3.3.6.3	9
30	Fish	3.2.6.4	9	3.3.6.4	9



31	Marine mammals	3.2.6.5	9	3.3.6.5	9
32	Waterbirds	3.2.6.6	9	3.3.6.6	9
33	Marine food web	3.2.6.7	9	3.3.6.7	9

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4319 **Table 2:** Comparison of the Baltic Sea with other intra-continental seas and large lakes.

Basin	Area	Mean depth	Mean salinity	Fresh water budget	Ice cover on average	Location Centre
Unit	10 <sup>3</sup> km <sup>2</sup>	m	g kg <sup>-1</sup>			Lat Long

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Baltic Sea	393	54	7½	+	Half	60°N 20°E
Black Sea	436	1197	20	+	Northeast	43°N 35°E
Gulf of Ob	41	12	5	+	All	73°N 74°E
Chesapeake Bay	12	6	15	+	Shores	38°N 76°W
Hudson Bay	1232	128	30	+	All	58°N 85°W
Red Sea	438	491	40	–	None	22°N 38°E
Persian Gulf	239	25	40	–	None	27°N 52°E
Caspian Sea	374	211	12	0	North	43°N 50°E
Lake Superior	82	149	< 0.1	0	All	48°N 88°W

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4322 **Table 3:** The main characteristics of the physical features of the European Seas (Leppäranta and Myrberg, 2009;  
 4323 Sündermann and Pohlmann, 2011; www.ospar.org; British Oceanographic Data Centre). Greater North Sea –  
 4324 being the neighbouring sea area to the Baltic Sea - is shown as a sub-region of the NE-Atlantic, but other European  
 4325 sub-regions are not listed (from Myrberg et al., 2019).

Basin	Area 10 <sup>3</sup> km <sup>2</sup>	Mean depth m	Mean salinity g kg <sup>-1</sup>	Fresh water budget	Ice cover on average	Tides	Water residence time (years)
Baltic Sea	393	54	7.4	Pos.	37 % <sup>1)</sup>	Weak	40
Black Sea	422	1 200	18	Pos.	Northeast only	Weak	3 000
Greater North Sea	750	80	34–35	Pos.	No	Strong	Not applicable
Mediterranean Sea	2 970	1 500	38	Neg.	No	Weak/ Moderate	80-100
NE Atlantic shelf	13 500 <sup>2)</sup>	1 500	34–35	Not applicable	No	Strong	Not applicable
1) Mean maximal ice cover between 2000-2017, see Fig. 3.2.4.4.1							
2) defined as the OSPAR convention area, incl. the Greater North Sea							

4326



4327 **Table 4:** Linear surface air temperature trends ( $\text{K decade}^{-1}$ ) for the period 1876–2020 over the northern ( $>60^\circ\text{N}$ )  
4328 and southern ( $<60^\circ\text{N}$ ) Baltic Sea basin (1878–2020 is selected for comparison with (Rutgersson et al., 2014), with  
4329 an equally long time period). Bold: significance at  $p < 0.05$ . Data from the updated CRUTEM4v dataset (Jones et  
4330 al., 2012).

	Annual	Winter	Spring	Summer	Autumn
North	<b>0.10</b>	<b>0.11</b>	<b>0.14</b>	<b>0.08</b>	<b>0.08</b>
South	<b>0.10</b>	<b>0.13</b>	<b>0.10</b>	<b>0.09</b>	<b>0.09</b>

4331



4332 **Table 5:** Average (2013-2017) riverine and coastal nutrient inputs ( $10^3$  t N (P)  $\text{yr}^{-1}$ ) to the major basins of the  
4333 Baltic Sea (Source: Oleg P. Savchuk, Stockholm University). For abbreviated basin names see Figure 11.

	BB	BS	BP	GF	GR	DS	KT	Entire BS
TN river	48	40	251	85	73	32	46	575
TN coast	3.6	4.3	6.5	9.3	0.5	2.8	2.0	29
TP river	2.4	1.7	11.8	3.4	2.0	1.1	1.3	24.0
TP coast	0.1	0.2	0.5	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.1	1.6

4334



4335 **Table 6:** Mass balances for the Swedish glaciers Storglaciären, Rabots glaciär, Mårmarglaciär, and Riuokjietna.  
 4336 General references are given as footnotes in connection with balance years and long-term monitoring intervals,  
 4337 respectively. Selected specific references are given as footnotes in connection with the glacier names, and include  
 4338 also neighboring glaciers Kårsa glacier and Kebnepakteglaciär. (Source: Nina Kirchner, Stockholm University)

	Recent mass balance years. Gains and losses in mm w.e. (millimeter water equivalent). Note that the unit mm w.e. is interchangeable with the unit kg m <sup>-2</sup>			Long-term mass balance, losses per year in mm w.e.	
	2015/ 2016 <sup>3</sup>	2016/ 2017 <sup>3</sup>	2017/ 2018 <sup>3</sup>	1980-2010 <sup>4</sup>	1985-2015 <sup>5</sup>
Storglaciären <sup>6,7,8</sup>	-240	+470	-1600	-113	-153
Rabots glaciär <sup>9,10</sup>	-650	-170	-1680	-394	-465
Mårmarglaciär	-370	+260		-430	-460
Riuokjietna	-1060	+150		-592	-592

4339

<sup>3</sup> World Glacier Monitoring Service, 2020

<sup>4</sup> Blunden and Arendt, 2015

<sup>5</sup> Hartfield et al., 2018

<sup>6</sup> Mercer, 2016

<sup>7</sup> Holmlund and Holmlund, 2019

<sup>8</sup> Kirchner et al., 2019

<sup>9</sup> Brugger and Pankratz, 2015

<sup>10</sup> Williams et al., 2016



4340 **Table 7:** Air temperature ( $T_{2m}$ ) changes ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) between 1976 - 2005 and 2069 - 2098 averaged over each season and  
 4341 annual mean over the Baltic Sea catchment area and over the Baltic Sea calculated from nine regionalized ESMs  
 4342 (Data source: Gröger et al., 2021b, compiled by Christian Dieterich, Swedish Meteorological and Hydrological  
 4343 Institute). In addition to the ensemble mean change, the 5<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup> percentiles indicating the ensemble spread are  
 4344 listed (in brackets).

	Annual	Winter	Spring	Summer	Autumn
Total land					
RCP2.6	1.5 (1.2, 2.0)	2.1 (1.5, 3.3)	1.5 (1.2, 2.0)	1.3 (0.8, 2.1)	1.3 (0.9, 1.8)
RCP4.5	2.6 (1.6, 3.2)	3.2 (2.1, 4.2)	2.4 (1.5, 3.3)	2.1 (1.3, 3.1)	2.3 (1.4, 2.8)
RCP8.5	4.3 (3.5, 5.2)	5.0 (3.4, 6.3)	3.8 (3.1, 4.5)	3.7 (2.5, 5.0)	3.8 (2.6, 4.8)
Land north of 60°N					
RCP2.6	1.7 (1.4, 2.4)	2.5 (1.9, 3.1)	1.7 (1.2, 2.3)	1.4 (0.8, 2.3)	1.5 (1.1, 2.1)
RCP4.5	2.9 (2.0, 3.7)	4.0 (2.9, 5.0)	2.8 (1.8, 3.8)	2.3 (1.3, 3.4)	2.5 (1.7, 3.2)
RCP8.5	4.9 (3.9, 5.9)	6.0 (4.2, 7.5)	4.2 (3.5, 5.1)	3.9 (2.8, 5.1)	4.2 (2.9, 5.3)
Land south of 60°N					
RCP2.6	1.4 (1.0, 1.8)	1.7 (1.1, 3.4)	1.3 (0.9, 1.7)	1.3 (0.9, 1.9)	1.2 (0.7, 1.6)
RCP4.5	2.2 (1.3, 2.8)	2.6 (1.5, 4.0)	2.2 (1.3, 2.9)	2.0 (1.1, 3.0)	2.1 (1.2, 2.7)
RCP8.5	3.9 (3.2, 4.7)	4.2 (2.9, 5.7)	3.4 (2.9, 4.0)	3.5 (2.2, 4.9)	3.5 (2.3, 4.5)
Baltic Sea					
RCP2.6	1.4 (1.2, 1.9)	1.9 (1.3, 2.8)	1.5 (1.1, 1.9)	1.2 (0.6, 1.8)	1.2 (0.9, 1.7)
RCP4.5	2.4 (1.4, 2.9)	2.9 (1.8, 3.7)	2.5 (1.5, 3.1)	2.0 (1.2, 2.7)	2.1 (1.2, 2.7)
RCP8.5	3.9 (3.1, 4.8)	4.6 (3.2, 5.8)	3.9 (3.0, 4.9)	3.5 (2.4, 4.6)	3.6 (2.6, 4.6)

4345



4346 **Table 8:** Relative precipitation changes (%) between 1976 - 2005 and 2069 - 2098 averaged over each season and  
 4347 annual mean over the Baltic Sea catchment area and over the Baltic Sea calculated from nine regionalized ESMs  
 4348 (Data source: Gröger et al., 2021b, compiled by Christian Dieterich, Swedish Meteorological and Hydrological  
 4349 Institute). In addition to the ensemble mean change, the 5<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup> percentiles indicating the ensemble spread are  
 4350 listed (in brackets).

	Annual	Winter	Spring	Summer	Autumn
Total land					
RCP2.6	5 (2, 14)	7 (1, 22)	8 (2, 12)	3 (-2, 13)	4 (-4, 12)
RCP4.5	9 (6, 14)	12 (4, 24)	13 (8, 17)	4 (1, 11)	6 (-5, 12)
RCP8.5	15 (11, 22)	22 (11, 38)	20 (7, 26)	5 (-4, 15)	13 (-1, 18)
Land north of 60°N					
RCP2.6	6 (2, 15)	7 (2, 23)	8 (0, 13)	5 (1, 17)	5 (-5, 14)
RCP4.5	11 (7, 18)	13 (6, 27)	15 (2, 21)	9 (4, 14)	8 (-3, 17)
RCP8.5	19 (12, 30)	22 (12, 41)	24 (7, 35)	13 (-1, 30)	17 (1, 26)
Land south of 60°N					
RCP2.6	5 (0, 13)	7 (-1, 22)	7 (3, 13)	2 (-5, 10)	3 (-7, 11)
RCP4.5	7 (4, 11)	12 (1, 22)	12 (6, 20)	1 (-5, 11)	4 (-8, 11)
RCP8.5	12 (8, 18)	21 (9, 35)	18 (7, 26)	-1 (-14, 9)	9 (-3, 17)
Baltic Sea					
RCP2.6	6 (0, 15)	5 (-3, 15)	4 (-1, 8)	8 (0, 22)	5 (-3, 13)
RCP4.5	8 (3, 13)	9 (-4, 20)	11 (1, 17)	6 (-1, 16)	6 (-3, 15)
RCP8.5	16 (8, 23)	18 (3, 31)	19 (-3, 32)	10 (-9, 22)	15 (4, 26)

4351



4352 **Table 9:** Sea surface temperature (SST) changes (°C) between 1976 - 2005 and 2069 - 2098 averaged over each  
4353 season and annual mean over the Baltic Sea calculated from nine regionalized ESMs (Data source: Gröger et al.,  
4354 2021b, compiled by Christian Dieterich, Swedish Meteorological and Hydrological Institute). In addition to the  
4355 ensemble mean change, the 5<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup> percentiles indicating the ensemble spread are listed (in brackets).

Baltic Sea	Annual	Winter	Spring	Summer	Autumn
RCP2.6	1.1 (0.8, 1.6)	1.0 (0.9, 1.4)	1.1 (0.9, 1.6)	1.2 (0.6, 1.7)	0.9 (0.7, 1.6)
RCP4.5	1.8 (1.1, 2.5)	1.7 (1.0, 2.3)	1.9 (1.2, 2.6)	2.0 (1.2, 2.6)	1.8 (1.1, 2.4)
RCP8.5	3.2 (2.5, 4.1)	3.0 (2.3, 3.8)	3.2 (2.5, 3.9)	3.4 (2.4, 4.5)	3.1 (2.4, 4.1)

4356





4357 **Table 10:** Summary of key messages about the impact of global warming on selected variables. The sign of a  
 4358 change (plus/minus) is listed together with the level of confidence denoted by the number of signs, i.e. one to three  
 4359 signs correspond to low, medium and high confidence levels. +/- means no detected or projected change due to  
 4360 climate change. Key messages of this assessment that are new compared to the previous assessment by BACC II  
 4361 Author Team (2015) are marked and a brief explanation is provided in the neighboring column. (NA = North  
 4362 Atlantic)

Number	Variable	Present climates		Future climate	
Atmosphere					
1	Large-scale circulation	+/-	Remote influence of the multi-decadal variability in the NA on the Baltic Sea	+/-	Impact of warming Arctic with declining sea ice might be relevant
2	Air temperature	+++	Accelerated warming	+++	Greater confidence due to increased ensemble size, coupled atmosphere-ocean models
	Warm spell	++		++	
	Cold spell	--		--	
3	Solar radiation	+	Comparison between various satellite products	+/-	GCM and RCM systematically differ
4	Precipitation	+		++	convection-resolving models became available
	Heavy precipitation	++		+++	
	Drought north (south) of 59°N	-(+)		-(+)	
5	Wind	+/-		+	Small systematic increase in winter in the northern Baltic where the sea ice will melt
	Number of deep cyclones	+		+/-	
6	Air pollution, air quality and atmospheric deposition	+/-		+/-	
Land					
7	River discharge	+/-	Dataset of observed time series for the past century from Sweden merged with high-resolution dynamic model	+	Changing seasonality (decrease of river discharge in spring, increase in winter)
	High flow <sup>11</sup> in the north (south)	+/- (+/-)		-(+)	

<sup>11</sup> Based upon annual maximum river discharges of daily data for Sweden with 10- and 100-year repeat periods (Roudier et al., 2016) and for Finland with 100-year repeat period (Veijalainen et al., 2010)



			projections of the upcoming century		may affect the occurrence of floods <sup>12,13</sup>
8	Land nutrient inputs	+/-		+	
Terrestrial biosphere					
9	Growing season in the Baltic Sea region	++	Study based on satellite data available	+/-	No new study
10	Carbon sequestration in northern terrestrial ecosystems	+/-		+, later -	First increasing sinks. Weak sources of carbon after 2060-2070s due to increased soil respiration and biomass burning
Cryosphere					
11	Snow	---		---	
	Sea-effect snowfall	+/-		+/-	
12	Ice mass of glaciers	---	Since 2006 inventories of all Scandinavian glaciers have become available	---	High-resolution projections of Scandinavian glaciers available
13	Permafrost	--	High-resolution modeling	---	
14	Sea ice cover	---		---	
	Extreme mild winter	+++		+++	
	Extreme severe winter	---		---	
	Ice ridging	+/-		-	
15	Lake ice	---	Systematic assessment available	---	Projections for global lake ice available
Ocean and marine sediments					
16	Water temperature	+++	Accelerated warming	+++	
	Marine heat wave	+		+++	Increasing number of record-breaking summer mean SST events and number of heat waves
17	Salinity and saltwater inflows	+/-	Homogenous data of saltwater inflows, north-south salinity	+/-	Uncertainty sources of salinity due to wind, river discharge and global sea

<sup>12</sup> Roudier et al., 2016

<sup>13</sup> Veijalainen et al., 2010



			gradient has increased		level rise changes were assessed
18	Stratification and overturning circulation	+/-	Systematic study of monitoring data since the 1980s	+/-	Intensified seasonal thermoclines during summer but no change of the halocline and overturning circulation
19	Absolute sea level Storm surge relative to the mean sea level	+++ +/-	Paleoclimate study on sea level extremes did not show systematic changes in changing climate, dissensus in the literature <sup>14,15</sup>	+++ +/-	Dissensus in the literature <sup>16,17</sup>
20	Waves Extreme waves	+/- +/-		+ +	Small increase in winter in the northern Baltic Sea
21	Sedimentation and coastal erosion	+/-		+/-	First modeling studies available
22	Hypoxic area	+	Warming contributed to the historical spread of hypoxia in the deep water and in the coastal zone, sediment cores suggest that changing climate caused hypoxia during the Medieval Climate Anomaly instead of agriculture	++	Oxygen decline in the coastal zone due to warming
23	CO <sub>2</sub> uptake pH southern (northern) Baltic Sea	++ --(+/-)	New observations and modeling, positive alkalinity trends identified	+/- +/-	

<sup>14</sup> Ribeiro et al., 2014

<sup>15</sup> Marcos and Woodworth, 2017

<sup>16</sup> Vousdoukas et al., 2016

<sup>17</sup> Vousdoukas et al., 2017



Marine biosphere					
24	Microbial communities	+	In the northern Baltic Sea increased riverine dissolved organic matter suppressed phytoplankton biomass production and shifts the carbon flow towards microbial heterotrophy	+/-	Increase of dissolved organic matter and temperature will enhance and decrease the abundance of bacteria, respectively
25	growing season of phytoplankton (cyanobacteria)	++	new indicator for the environmental status developed	+/-	Warming causes prolonged and intensified cyanobacteria blooms but the nutrient control is dominating
	cyanobacteria biomass	+/-		+	
	ratio between diatom and dinoflagellate biomasses since 1901	-		+/-	
26	Zooplankton	+/-		+/-	Increasing microzooplankton biomass
27	Macroalgae and vascular plants	+/-	Systematic studies on benthic ecosystems	+/-	
28	Zoobenthos	+/-	Systematic studies on benthic ecosystems, spreading of non-indigenous such as polychaete <i>Marenzelleria</i> spp.	+/-	Weaker benthic-pelagic coupling and decreasing benthic biomass in a warmer and less eutrophic Baltic
29	Non-indigenous species	+		++	
30	Fish	+/-	Food web modeling including fisheries	+/-	Multi-driver (climate change, eutrophication,



					fisheries) food web projections were performed
31	Populations of marine mammals	+/-		-	
32	Waterbird migration	+++	Northward shift of the wintering range of waterbirds	++	Controlled by food availability
33	Marine food web	+/-		+/-	

4363



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