

1 3. Recent (mainly 200 years) and current climate change

2 3.4. Baltic Sea

3 **3.4.1 Marine circulation and stratification**

4 by Jüri Elken, Andreas Lehmann, Kai Myrberg

5  
6 **Introduction**

- 7 • Recent aspects
- 8 ○ *Figure 0 – Baltic Sea map (topography and locations)*
- 9 • Data sources, normalization issues

10  
11 **3.4.1.1. Trends and variations in water temperature**

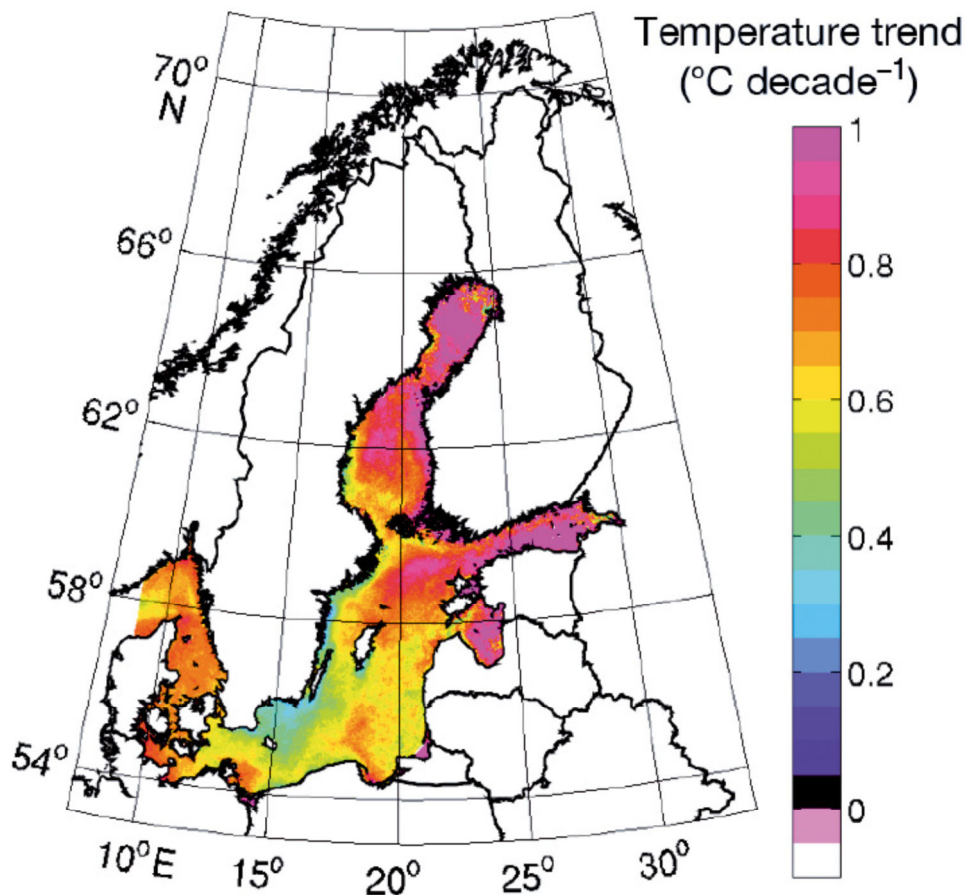
12  
13 The Baltic Sea is well stratified, with a seasonal cycle of temperature superimposed on  
14 the more or less permanent salinity stratification in the deeper layers. While atmospheric heat  
15 fluxes have typical response time in water temperature and sea ice about a year, then response  
16 in salinity is governed mainly by lateral transport processes, resulting together with diapycnal  
17 mixing in response times of many decades (*e.g.* Stigebrandt and Gustafsson, 2003, Omstedt  
18 and Hansson, 2006). Cold waters, formed during the winter, extend down to the halocline  
19 which has typical depths 60-80 m in the Baltic Proper. During the summer, when seasonal  
20 thermocline develops at the depths of about 20 m, the underlying cold intermediate layer  
21 keeps, as a general rule, the memory of the severity of the previous winter. Accordingly, the  
22 summer (July-August) temperature of the intermediate cold layer is well correlated with the  
23 surface (down to the halocline) temperature in March (Hinrichsen et al, 2007). Deeper waters,  
24 found below the halocline, are formed mainly by the lateral advection of saline waters of the  
25 North Sea origin entraining on its route the ambient waters from the above layers. Below 100  
26 m, temperature variation range in the Gotland Deep is only 5 °C (from 3 °C to 8 °C),  
27 compared to the surface range up to 25 °C. According to the Baltic Sea hypsographic curves  
28 (Leppäranta and Myrberg, 2009), the volume of deep layers below 100 m is only about 12%  
29 of the whole sea volume (21 205 km<sup>3</sup>) and the contribution of lateral heat advection to the  
30 overall Baltic Sea heat content is small.

31 Detected recent air temperature increase, especially in the Baltic Sea region (*e.g.*  
32 Luterbacher et al. 2004), should have a response in the water temperature increase, due to the  
33 above considerations. Indeed, MacKenzie and Schiedek (2007a) state that since the 1860s a  
34 record warming of the Baltic and North Seas has occurred during the recent decades. They  
35 used the data from daily monitoring at a few historical locations as well as the data from  
36 irregular open sea sampling, and they applied advanced data homogeneity and spatial  
37 synchrony matching procedures to ensure the data quality for climate analysis purposes  
38 (MacKenzie and Schiedek, 2007b). The results from the analysis show that there is little  
39 evidence of a gradual linear increase or decrease in sea surface temperature since the mid-late  
40 1800s. There have been earlier warmer periods in the mid-late 1800s and in the mid-1900s.  
41 However, since about 1985 the warming of surface waters is evident by all the datasets in all  
42 the seasons and also as the annual mean values. The probability of extremely warm winters  
43 and summers has increased since the 1990s by two- to fourfold. MacKenzie and Schiedek  
44 (2007a) argue that summer warming rates are nearly triple those that could be expected from  
45 the increase of observed air temperature. In contrast to this and many other studies, Håkanson  
46 and Lindgren (2008) conclude from a simple treatment of raw irregular HELCOM data 1974-  
47 2005 that “there is no increase in surface-water temperatures in the Baltic Proper, but rather a  
48 weak opposite trend”. We note here the importance of careful statistical preprocessing of  
49 irregular sampling data, when estimating the multi-decadal variations of a variable with high  
50 seasonal amplitude. Madsen and Højerslev (2009) have shown on the basis of daily routine

51 lightship observations in Danish waters during 1900-1998 that in Drogden the mean  
52 temperature was at the end of the period by 0.7 °C higher than ever observed earlier. In the  
53 recent period since 1990s warming of surface layers is also evident on the basis of  
54 independent datasets near the Lithuanian coast (Dailidienė et al, 2011), recently as 0.3-0.9 °C  
55 decade<sup>-1</sup>. The changes are more complex in the Gulfs of Finland (Liblik and Lips, 2011) and  
56 Riga (Kotta et al, 2009), since seasonal and/or annual mean temperatures undergo strong  
57 interannual variations, usually related to the atmospheric circulation patterns reflected as  
58 NAO and/or BSI indices (e.g. Lehmann et al, 2011).

59 Details of sea surface temperature variations can be well resolved by remote sensing  
60 from satellites, using infrared AVHRR and MODIS sensors. Regular satellite coverage is  
61 available in the Baltic Sea region since the mid-1980s. Although single remote sensing  
62 images are frequently disturbed by cloud coverage, skin layer uncertainties and other factors,  
63 the monthly mean temperature from the remote sensing data agree well with those from the  
64 *in-situ* measurements in the offshore sea areas (Siegel et al, 2006; Bratke et al, 2010).  
65 Lehmann et al (2011) estimated from the remote sensing data 1990-2008 highest linear trend  
66 of annually mean SST – up to 1 °C decade<sup>-1</sup> in the northern part of the Bothnian Bay, but high  
67 increase is found also in the Gulfs of Finland and Riga and in the Northern Baltic Proper (Fig.  
68 3.4.1.). Warming of surface waters is lowest north from the Bornholm up to and along the  
69 Swedish coast, probably due to an increase of the frequency of coastal upwelling. Bratke et  
70 al (2010) considered also seasonal cycles during 1986-2006 and found highest positive trend -  
71 more than 2 °C decade<sup>-1</sup> in August, in the Bothnian Sea and the Northern Baltic Proper. At the  
72 same time, mean temperature in March decreased, by the highest rate in the Gulf of Riga and  
73 eastern part of the Baltic Proper. Siegel et al (2006) found highest increasing trend in the  
74 Bothnian Sea in July (more than 3 °C decade<sup>-1</sup>), and in the Arkona and Gotland Sea in August  
75 and September (about 1.5 °C decade<sup>-1</sup>). The above trend estimates, based on the data from  
76 remote sensing, agree in general well with the trends determined from the independent *in-situ*  
77 observations of sea surface temperature.

78



79  
80  
81 **Fig. 3.4.1.** Linear trend of the annual mean sea surface temperature based on infrared  
82 satellite data (1990 to 2008) provided by the Federal Maritime and Hydrographic  
83 Agency (BSH), Hamburg. (Lehmann et al, 2011).  
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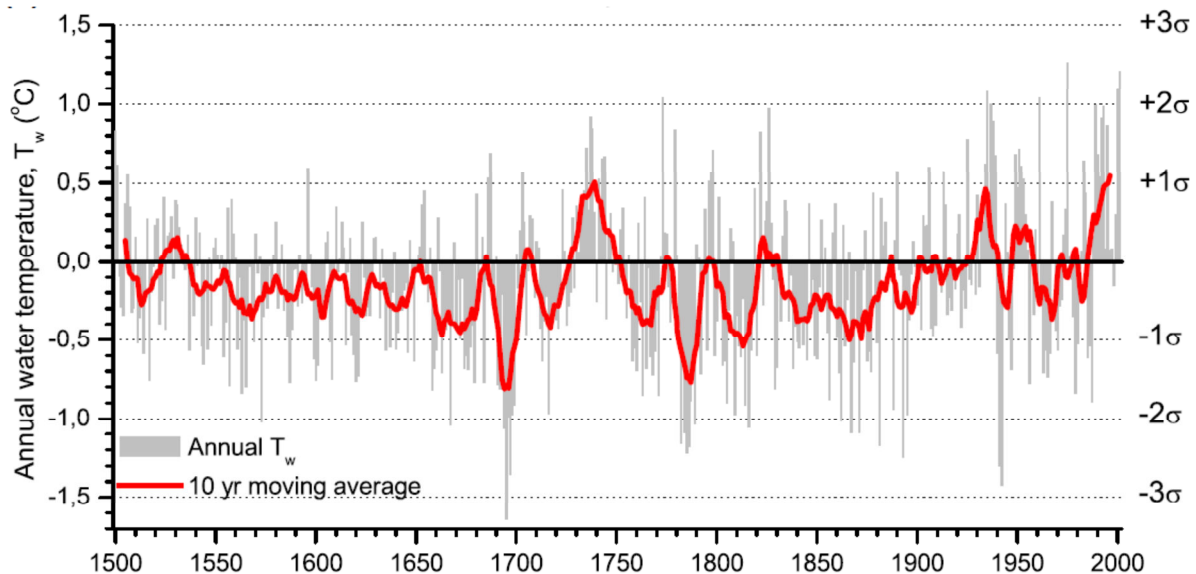
85 Temperature of the deep water in the Baltic Proper is determined mainly by the lateral  
86 spreading of the submerged saline water of the North Sea origin, reflecting the surface  
87 thermal conditions during the deep water formation. Mohrholz et al (2006) have found that in  
88 the Bornholm basin the mean temperature of the halocline during the period 1989-2004 has  
89 increased by about 1 °C compared to the longer period 1950-2004. They argue that this  
90 halocline temperature increase is caused by the more frequent warm summer inflows since the  
91 1990s.

92 An increase was found also in the annual minimum temperature of the cold  
93 intermediate layer, lying between the seasonal thermocline and the halocline. Regarding the  
94 Bornholm Basin, Mohrholz et al (2006) have found a  $R^2 = 0.61$  correlation with the NAO  
95 winter index. In the light of the detected regime shift of NAO index since 1988, when positive  
96 values (increased westerly winds) started to dominate, the intermediate layer temperature  
97 variations were interpreted as a “regime shift” increase by about 1 °C (Mohrholz et al, 2006,  
98 Hinrichsen et al, 2007). In the Gulf of Finland, Liblik and Lips (2011) have found  $R^2 = 0.81$   
99 correlation between the cold intermediate layer temperature and the winter BSI.

100 It is a very intriguing task to reconstruct the past changes of climate elements and  
101 compare with the ongoing changes. Based on the climate reconstruction since 1500  
102 (Luterbacher et al, 2004), Hansson and Omstedt (2008) made a reconstruction of the Baltic  
103 Sea water temperature and ice conditions for the period 1500-2001 using the PROBE-Baltic  
104 model with complete heat fluxes. For the period since 1893, they used also more detailed

105 forcing data from the NORDKLIM database. Annually mean water temperatures (Fig. 3.4.2),  
106 averaged over the whole sea domain (both by area and depths) reveal as a decadal moving  
107 average cold anomalies down to  $-0.7\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  in the 1690s and 1780s, and warm anomalies up to  
108  $0.5\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  in the 1730s, 1930s and 1990s. The sea water warming during the present period is  
109 comparable in magnitude to that in the 1930s and in the first half of the 18<sup>th</sup> century. The  
110 results of the study suggest that the sea water is experiencing presently the climate change that  
111 lies within the range of changes during the past 500 years. // Discuss relation to the long-  
112 period air temperature change, air temperature shows that recent period is the warmest since  
113 1500 //

114



115

116

117 **Fig. 3.4.2.** Anomalies of the annual and decadal moving average of the modeled Baltic  
118 Sea spatially mean water temperature over the 1500–2001 period. The dotted  
119 horizontal lines are the standard deviations of the water temperature during the  
120 standard period 1900–1999. (Hansson and Omstedt, 2008).

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### 124 3.4.1.2. Changes in salinity, stratification and water exchange

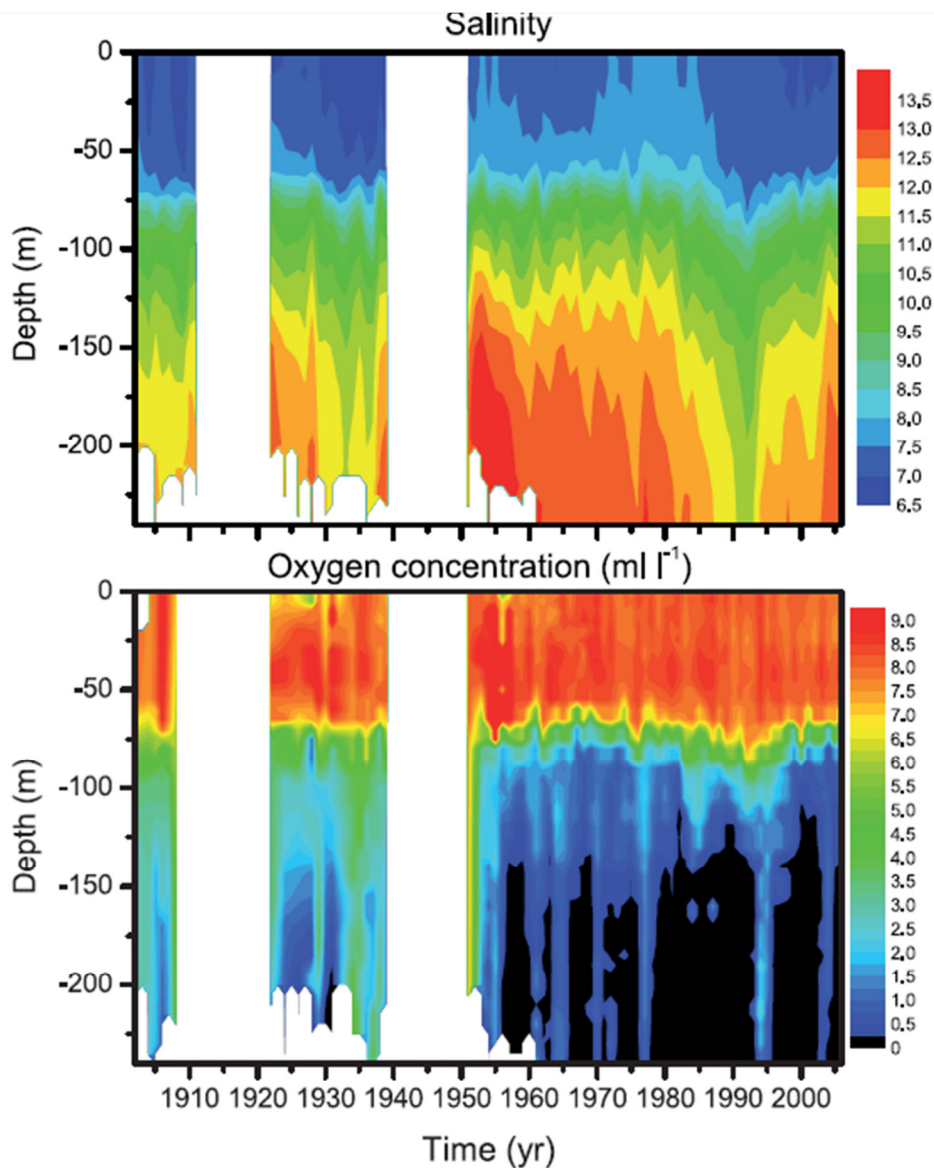
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126 While thermal response of the Baltic Sea is similar to a large lake, freshwater  
127 discharge from the land and restricted water exchange with the North Sea create strong  
128 salinity stratification, accompanied by along-basin gradients like in estuaries and fjords.  
129 Although the water exchange with the North Sea is very intermittent – Major Baltic Inflows  
130 (MBIs, Matthäus and Franck, 1992) carrying large volumes of abnormally high saline water  
131 occur sporadically, the overall salt content of the sea depends mainly on the atmospheric net  
132 precipitation and river discharge, revealing higher salinity during the wet periods and lower  
133 salinity during the dry periods (Winsor et al, 2001, Meier and Kauker, 2003, Gustafsson and  
134 Omstedt, 2009).

135

136 The Gotland Deep is a representative location for describing the salinity and  
137 stratification of the whole Baltic Sea. Indeed, changes of mean salinity, calculated from the  
138 data of the Gotland Deep only, match with 2% difference the changes calculated from the data  
over all the sub-basins (Winsor et al, 2001). The observations (Fig. 3.4.3) reflect decrease of

139 salinity during the recent period, starting from the end of 1980s. Such low-salinity periods  
140 occurred also in the 1900s and 1930s and to a less extent in the 1960s.  
141  
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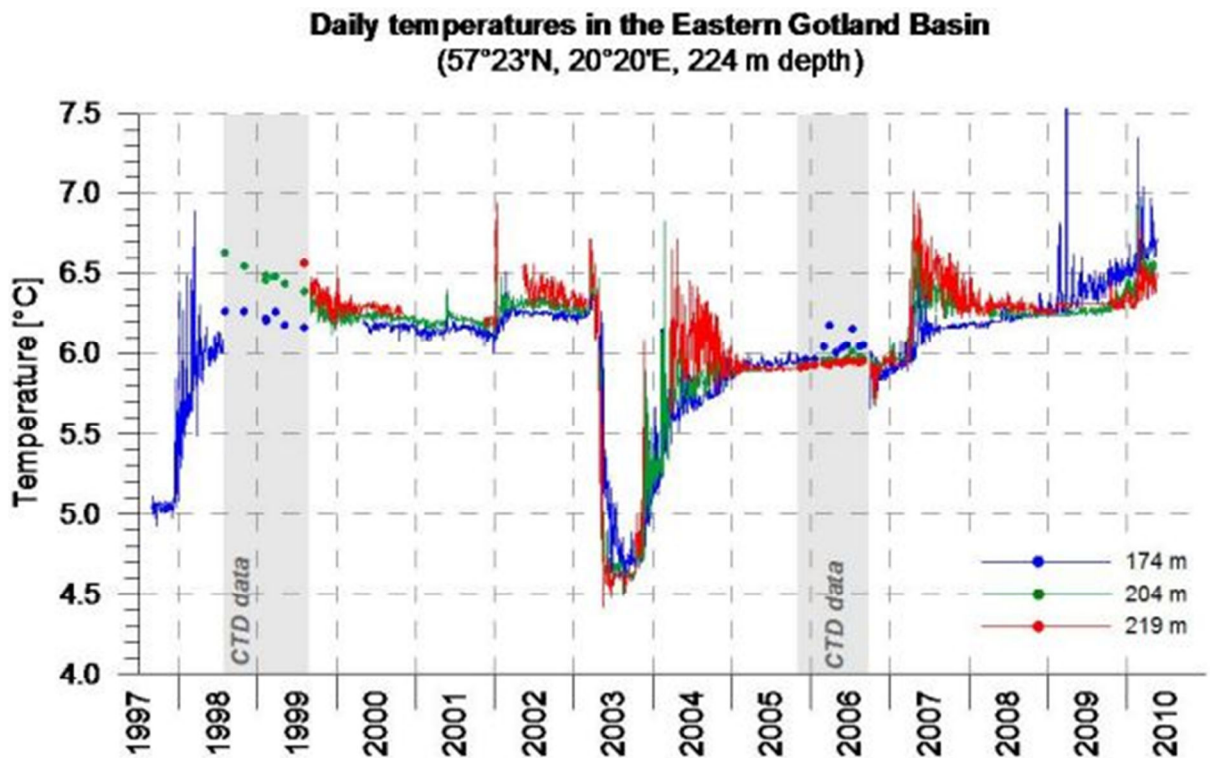
143  
144  
145 **Fig. 3.4.3.** Observed salinity and oxygen concentration in the Gotland Deep. // Now  
146 taken from Gustafsson and Omstedt, 2009; to be redrawn with most recent data.  
147 Perhaps a line/dot graph with vertically mean salinity could be also useful. May be  
148 oxygen can be omitted? //  
149

150 Salinity and stratification of the deep layers is highly affected by the occurrence of  
151 Major Baltic Inflows of the North Sea water, requiring specific wind fields over Northern  
152 Europe: it occurs when high pressure over the Baltic region with easterly winds is followed by  
153 several weeks of strong zonal wind and pressure fields over the North Atlantic and Europe  
154 (e.g. Lehmann et al, 2002, Matthäus et al, 2008). During the history of observations since the  
155 1900s, the strongest inflow took place in late November-December of 1951 (e.g. Madsen and  
156 Højerslev, 2009). During the inflow culmination, the sea level difference between Gedser and  
157 Hornbæk was up to 1.5 m and the normal saline stratification in the Kattegat and the strait

158 area was collapsed by several weeks. New high saline water reaches the deep layers of the  
159 Gotland Basin with a delay up to a year (*e.g.* Kõuts and Omstedt, 1993, Matthäus et al, 2008),  
160 as can be seen also from Fig. 3.4.3. The inflow in 1977 was followed by an exceptionally long  
161 stagnation period, when until the next inflow in 1993 the saline stratification (bottom to  
162 surface salinity difference) decreased by about one and half times. A quite extensive  
163 stagnation period occurred also in the 1920s and 1930s, after the very strong inflow in winter  
164 1921/1922, coinciding with the transfer of the wet period to a dry period over the drainage  
165 basin. Based on the water age calculation, Meier (2005) identified in addition a stagnation  
166 period exceeding 8 years in 1950s/1960s, also during the wet to dry period transition.

167 Since 1994, when the stratification strength was brought up to a nearly normal level of  
168 the 1960s and 1970s, the stagnation in terms of oxygen deficiency of the near bottom waters  
169 continued (Conley et al, 2009). Besides the smaller inflows, a series of larger inflows  
170 occurred. When usual barotropic (vertically uniform transport over the entrance sills) inflows  
171 occur in winter and spring, advecting the relatively cold water with high oxygen content, then  
172 the recent large inflows in 1997 and summer 2003 were of two-layer (baroclinic) origin that  
173 transported high-saline, but warm and low-oxygen water to the deep layers of the Baltic  
174 (Feistel et al, 2006). The inflow activity is well visible on the temperature daily records of the  
175 deep layers in the Gotland Deep (Fig. 3.4.4). The low temperatures apparent in the figure  
176 during 2003 reflect the normal barotropic inflow in winter 2002/2003, described in many  
177 papers (*e.g.* overview Matthäus et al, 2008, Leppäranta and Myrberg, 2009).

178



179

180

181 **Fig. 3.4.4.** Temperature series August 1997- May 2010 of the Eastern Gotland Basin  
182 mooring near the Gotland Deep at 174, 204 and 219 m depth. No important inflow  
183 events occurred since 2003. Thus, the stagnation period lasting since 2004/2005 is  
184 intensified. Some recent baroclinic inflows in 2006 and barotropic inflows in 2007 and  
185 2009 changed the deep water temperatures and improved the oxygen situation in the  
186 southern Baltic slightly, but not in the deeps around Gotland. From Feistel et al, 2006,  
187 updated from HELCOM Indicator Fact Sheets 2010, Online.

188

189 In the sub-regional scale of salinity and stratification changes, many aspects are  
190 important in the context of ecological status and environmental and climatic impacts. When  
191 saline waters enter the Baltic, the halocline is lifted up and this signal is dynamically  
192 transferred to the downstream basins (Meier, 2007). Upstream from the Gotland Deep, the  
193 variations in the southwestern Baltic are in general of higher amplitude since along the deep  
194 water spreading pathway the variations are damped due to a wide range of mixing processes  
195 (*e.g.* Reissmann et al, 2009). In the Bornholm Basin, a buffering deep basin in the western  
196 part of the sea, major inflows fill the whole part of the Stolpe Sill level (60 m). The deep  
197 temperature changes (Mohrholz et al, 2006) are well in agreement with the changes in the  
198 Gotland Deep. The variations of bottom salinity anomalies in the Bornholm Basin during  
199 1961-2000 (Neumann and Schernewski, 2008) show a range from -1.8 psu (1982) to 2.0 psu  
200 (1994), with no significant trend although a slight recent salinity increase could be identified.  
201 In the Lithuanian part of the Baltic Proper deep water area, Dailidienė et al (2008) have  
202 reported for the period 1984-2005 a strengthening of stratification: decrease of surface salinity  
203 and increase of deep water salinity

204 In the Gulf of Finland, a sub-region with a free connection to the Baltic Proper and  
205 highest freshwater discharge per unit sea volume, the salinity and stratification changes in  
206 general follow that of the Baltic Proper, but are not fully synchronous (*e.g.* Zorita and Laine,  
207 2000). Laine et al (2007) have shown on the basis of monitoring data from the period 1965-  
208 2000 a continuous decrease in salinity and density stratification until the early 1990s, after  
209 which a slight increase took place again. Based on the independent data set from 1987-2008,  
210 Liblik and Lips (2011) obtained that the summertime deep salinities have increased after the  
211 1993 major inflow by about 2 psu. Despite the increased mean stratification strength,  
212 ventilation of deep waters is still effective and the annual mean oxygen concentrations remain  
213 higher than during the 1960s and 1970s (Laine et al, 2007). Reasons for still effective  
214 ventilation can be found from the decreased ice coverage, favoring wind mixing (Vermaat and  
215 Bouwer, 2009) and increased frequency of temporal winter-time stratification collapse at  
216 stronger southwesterly winds due to straining effects on estuarine gradients (Elken et al,  
217 2012).

218 Reconstruction of annually mean salinities since 1500 (Hansson and Gustafsson, 2011)  
219 has shown that salinity has slowly increased by 0.5 psu since 1500, peaking in the middle of  
220 18<sup>th</sup> century. The present salinity values are nearly as high as estimated for this earlier  
221 maximum salinity period. Historically, there have been several fresher periods when the mean  
222 salinity decreased from the maximum value of about 7.8 psu to about 6.5 psu. They also  
223 found a negative correlation between oxygen and salinity, indicating that the major, upper,  
224 part of the water column was more efficiently ventilated when the Baltic Sea was in a fresher  
225 state.

226

### 227 **3.4.1.3. Circulation and transport patterns and processes**

228

#### 229 General characteristics of surface circulation

230

231 There are four mechanisms to induce currents in the Baltic Sea: wind-stress at the sea-  
232 surface, surface pressure gradient, thermohaline horizontal gradient of density and tidal  
233 forces. The currents are steered furthermore by the Coriolis-acceleration, topography and  
234 friction. Voluminous river runoffs can produce local changes in the sea-level height and  
235 consequently also in currents. Due to the small size of the Baltic Sea basins, friction caused  
236 by the bottom and shores damp the currents remarkably. The general circulation is typical for  
237 a stratified system. Inflowing waters into a basin are placed at the depth where the ambient

238 water has an equal density. So, the fresher water goes into the upper layer and the more salty  
239 water masses go into a certain lower layer.

240 In the longest time-scale—from several months to years—a baroclinic, wind-  
241 independent basic circulation appears. This is due to the positive fresh water balance and the  
242 resulting large horizontal gradient of salinity. The fresh waters leave the Baltic Sea in the  
243 near-surface layers whereas the inflow of saline water masses takes place in the lower layer.

244 In short time-scales (1–10 days) the currents are mostly caused by the wind stress. Due  
245 to the large variability of the winds, the resulting long-term wind-driven mean circulation is  
246 weak, and transient currents are one order of magnitude larger than the average ones. Drift  
247 currents produce in coastal areas upwelling and downwelling features that are affected by  
248 Kelvin-type waves. The water body is laterally mixed by mesoscale eddies and deep-water  
249 circulation (see, e.g., Fennel and Sturm, 1992; Lass and Talpsepp, 1993; Raudsepp, 1998;  
250 Stigebrandt et al. 2002; and Elken and Matthäus, 2008). In the time-scale from 1 hour to 1  
251 day, there are several periodic dynamical processes. The most important are inertial  
252 oscillations (13.2–14.5 hours) and seiches (less than 40 hours). For details see Leppäranta and  
253 Myrberg (2009).

254 In conclusion of the processes affecting the long-term mean surface circulation, the  
255 observed outcome in the Baltic Sea is based on non-linear combination of the wind-  
256 independent baroclinic mean circulation and the mean wind-driven circulation. Which one is  
257 more important is difficult to answer in case of such a non-linear system. This depends on the  
258 case studied and on the time-scale under investigation.

259

#### 260 Recent findings of surface circulation system and related processes.

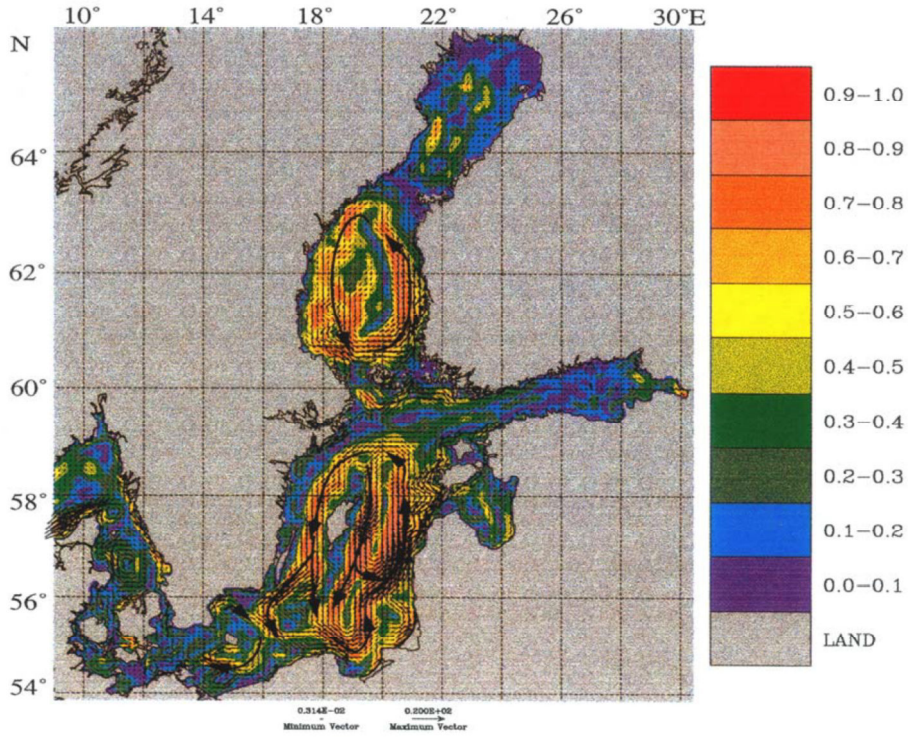
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262 Mean circulation of the entire Baltic Sea was modelled recently by Meier (2007). The  
263 results (Fig. 3.4.5) confirm the main characteristics of the early findings of Palmén (1930) and  
264 the outcome of numerical modelling (Lehmann and Hinrichsen, 2000, Lehmann et al, 2002)  
265 but gives also new fine-scale characteristics. The mean transports above and below the  
266 halocline confirm the existence of strong cyclonic gyres both in the Baltic proper and in the  
267 Sea of Bothnia; these circulations have a high stability. In the Eastern Gotland Basin high  
268 transports are found around the Gotland Deep. It comes out that the strength and persistency  
269 of currents is lower in the Gulf of Riga, Gulf of Finland and Bay of Bothnia when comparing  
270 with the Baltic Sea proper. This might be due to the impact of ice during the winter. Close to  
271 the Swedish coast an intense southward-directed flow becomes visible, being a part of the  
272 cyclonic gyre of the Baltic Sea proper. This flow is directed into the Bornholm Basins and to  
273 the Arkona Basin. The main flow crosses the central Arkona Basin and bifurcates north of the  
274 Rügen Island. One branch leaves the Baltic Sea at the Darss Sill and the flow continues  
275 through the Belt Sea and the Great Belt. The other branch recirculates and forms a cyclonic  
276 gyre in the Arkona Basin. Also a flow follows the Swedish coast into the Öresund and  
277 Kattegat. In the lower layer the flow follows very much the topography, from the Darss Sill  
278 into the Arkona Basin and further towards the Bornholm Channel passing Rügen Island. The  
279 deep waters flow further to the Bornholm Deep and into the Stolpe Channel with a high  
280 persistency. East of the Stolpe Channel the main flow is directed along the southwestern slope  
281 of the Gdańsk Deep. In the Gotland Deep the flow is characterised by cyclonic gyres. The  
282 water masses furthermore have a cyclonic gyre which finally leads part of the water to flow  
283 into the western Gotland Basin. The mean circulation is likely variable over the longer  
284 periods, with changes in the character of wind forcing, heat fluxes and ice extent, freshwater  
285 discharge and inflow activity. Jedrasik et al. (2008) have shown on the basis of hindcast of the  
286 period 1958-2001 that yearly averaged surface velocities (mean over the whole sea area)  
287 increased by  $0.21 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  per 10 years and 20-m velocities by  $0.06 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  per 10 years. Based

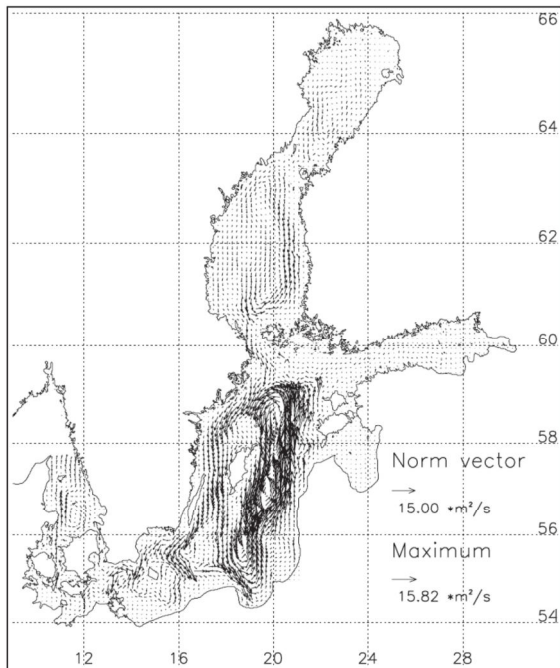


288 on the presented time series of annually mean current speeds, one may also interpret the  
 289 increase as a regime shift that occurred in the late 1980s.  
 290  
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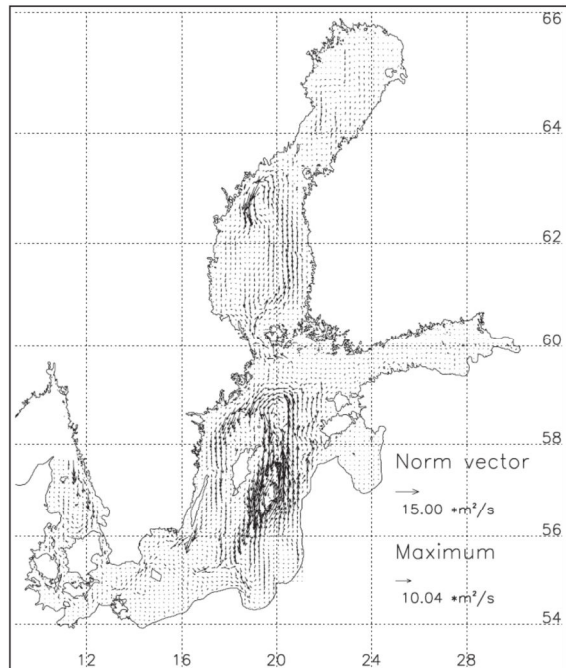
a)



b)



c)



292  
 293 **Fig.3.4.5.** Baltic Sea circulation as viewed from the modeling results. Average  
 294 barotropic currents (a) for 1992-1995 (in cm/s) with the flow stability contours (Lehmann and  
 295 Hinrichsen, 2000), and average transports per unit length (in  $\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$ ) for 1981-2004 above (b)  
 296 and below (c) the halocline (Meier, 2007).

297

298 For local detail investigations the mean circulation in the Gulf of Finland has been  
299 modeled by Andrejev and Myrberg (2004a,b). The cyclonic mean circulation in the Gulf of  
300 Finland generally is discernible but the resulting patterns and the persistency of the currents  
301 according to Andrejev et al. (2004a) deviate to some extent from the classical analyses by  
302 Witting (1912) and Palmén (1930). Both the mean and instantaneous circulation patterns in  
303 the Gulf of Finland contain numerous mesoscale eddies with a typical size clearly exceeding  
304 the internal Rossby-radius. The modeled circulation patterns reveal certain nontrivial and  
305 temporally and spatially varying vertical structures.

306 There have been some recent studies in the Gulf of Finland during the last few years,  
307 which partly support, but on the other hand in some cases give new, features of the circulation  
308 system. Elken et al. (2011) carried out the EOF (empirical orthogonal functions) analysis of  
309 hourly forecasts from the Baltic Sea operational HIROMB-SMHI model for the period 2006–  
310 2008. It is possible to distinguish two regions with a specific regime of circulation variability.  
311 The western region behaves like a wide channel. Dominant EOF modes at different sections  
312 have similar patterns and their time-dependent amplitudes are well correlated. A prevailing  
313 mode of currents (23%–42% of the variance) is barotropic (unidirectional over the whole  
314 section) and its oscillation (spectral peak at 24 h) is related to the water storage variation of  
315 the Gulf. A two-layer flow pattern (surface Ekman transport with deeper compensation flow,  
316 19%–22%) reveals both inertial and lower frequencies. Highest outflow of surface waters  
317 occurs during north-easterly winds. The eastern wider region has more complex flow  
318 dynamics and only patterns that are nearly uniform over the whole Gulf were detected here.  
319 On the sea surface, quasi-uniform drift currents are deflected on the average by 40° to the  
320 right from the wind direction and they cover 60% of the circulation variance. Sea level  
321 variability is heavily (98%) dominated by nearly uniform changes which are caused by the  
322 water storage variations of the Gulf. Sea level gradients contain the main axis (23%) and  
323 transverse (17%) components, forced by winds of the same direction. The flows below the  
324 surface are decomposed also into the main axis (24%–40%) and transverse (13%–16%)  
325 components that are correlated with the sea level gradients according to the geostrophic  
326 relations.

327 New detailed information was also gained by Lilover et al. (2011) of the Gulf of  
328 Finland. They performed current velocity observations on Naissaar Bank in northern Tallinn  
329 Bay, Gulf of Finland, for five weeks in late autumn 2008 using a bottom-mounted ADCP  
330 deployed at 8 m depth. Strong and variable, mainly southerly winds with speeds exceeding 10  
331  $\text{m s}^{-1}$  dominated in the area during 60% of the whole period. Bursts of seiche-driven currents  
332 with periods of 31, 24, 19.5, 16 and 11 h were observed after the passage of wind fronts.  
333 Inertial oscillations and diurnal tidal currents were relatively weak. The low-frequency current  
334 velocities gradually decreased toward the bottom at 3  $\text{cm s}^{-1}$  over 4-m distance. The  
335 magnitude of the complex correlation coefficient between the current and wind for the whole  
336 series was 0.69, but it was much higher (up to 0.90) within the shorter steady wind periods.  
337 The current was rotated ~35° to the right from the wind. As an exception, during one period a  
338 counterclockwise surface-to-bottom veering of the current vector was observed. A  
339 topographically steered flow was seen either along isobaths of the bank during strong winds  
340 or along the ‘channel’ at the entrance to Tallinn Bay.

341 Some new ideas were proposed by Soomere et al. (2011a) detailed study of circulation  
342 patterns and Lagrangian transport in the uppermost layer of the Gulf of Finland revealed  
343 several normally concealed features of surface circulation. For a certain years, a slow  
344 anticyclonic gyre may exist in the surface layer in the wide eastern and central part of the Gulf  
345 of Finland (Soomere et al. 2011a), reflecting a relatively weak coupling of the mostly Ekman-  
346 drift-driven surface-layer dynamics with that in the deeper layers. Semi-persistent (time scales

347 about a week, Viikmäe et al. 2010) patterns of rapid Lagrangian surface transport mostly  
348 follow the usually location of coastal currents but may stretch across the gulf during certain  
349 months and seasons (Soomere et al. 2011a).

350 The statistical analysis of Lagrangian surface transport has been employed to identify  
351 the areas from which the drift of different substances to the coast is unlikely (Soomere et al.  
352 2011b). This transport is generally anisotropic and substances in the surface layer have  
353 generally a larger chance to reach the southern coast (Soomere et al. 2010) whereas there  
354 exists a wide area in the eastern, wide part of the gulf, surface-current-driven transport of  
355 passive tracers from which to either of the coasts is unlikely (Soomere et al. 2011c). The  
356 results, however, are highly sensitive with respect to the resolution of the underlying ocean  
357 model: the statistics of transport changes substantially when the resolution is increased from 2  
358 miles to 1 mile, and insignificantly depends on the further increase in the resolution (Andrejev  
359 et al. 2011).

360 Raudsepp et al. (2011) studied wind, flow and wave measurements in November-  
361 December in 2008 in the relatively narrow and shallow Suur Strait connecting the waters of  
362 the Väinameri and the Gulf of Riga. During the measurement period wind conditions were  
363 extremely variable, including a severe storm on 23 November. The flow speed along the strait  
364 varied between  $\pm 0.2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , except for the  $0.4 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  that occurred after the storm as a result of  
365 the sea level gradient. The mean and maximum significant wave heights were 0.53 m and 1.6  
366 m respectively. Because of their longer fetch, southerly winds generated higher waves in the  
367 strait than winds from the north. All wave events caused by the stronger southerly winds  
368 induced sediment resuspension, whereas the current-induced shear velocity slightly exceeded  
369 the critical value for resuspension only when the current speed was  $0.4 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ . A triple-nested  
370 two-dimensional high resolution (100 m in the Suur Strait) circulation model and the SWAN  
371 wave model were used to simulate water exchange in 2008 and the wave-induced shear  
372 velocity field in the Suur Strait respectively. Circulation model simulations demonstrated that  
373 water exchange was highly variable, that cumulative transport followed an evident seasonal  
374 cycle, and that there was an gross annual outflow of  $23 \text{ km}^3$  from the Gulf of Riga. The  
375 horizontal distribution of wave-induced shear velocity during the strong southerly wind event  
376 indicated large shear velocities and substantial horizontal variability. The shear velocities  
377 were less than the critical value for resuspension in the deep area of the Suur Strait.

378 A numerical simulation of the circulation of the whole Baltic Sea was performed for the  
379 period 1991–2000 with a special focus on the Gulf of Bothnia (Myrberg and Andrejev, 2006).  
380 Their results supported the traditional view of the cyclonic mean circulation in this basin. Its  
381 persistency ranges from 20 to 60% and is at largest close to coasts, as already showed a long  
382 time ago from observations by Witting (1912) and Palmén (1930). The calculations with a  
383 barotropic model of Myrberg and Andrejev (2006), with a fairly high horizontal resolution  
384 ( $3.4 \times 3.4 \text{ km}$ ), supported the idea that the main features of circulation can be reproduced with  
385 a barotropic, wind-driven model. However, the mean current velocities were clearly larger  
386 than those according to the Witting-Palmén results. The difference apparently comes from  
387 insufficient resolution of the early measurements that did not resolve meso-scale features,  
388 such as the quite pronounced differences in the speed and direction between the coastal and  
389 open sea currents. The persistency of the mean circulation was especially in the Sea of  
390 Bothnia close to the results by Lehmann and Hinrichsen (2000), who also used a barotropic  
391 model but for a different period.

### 392 393 Dynamics in the bottom layer 394

395 The interaction between the upper and lower layer is quite restricted in the Baltic Sea  
396 due to the strong stratification. In the Kattegat the dense North Sea originating waters form a

397 deep-water pool whereas the fresher Baltic waters are located in the surface layer. The deep  
398 water circulation is characterised by dense bottom currents in the inflowing saline water at the  
399 mouth area of the Baltic Sea. Convection and mechanical mixing, entrainment and vertical  
400 advection of water masses lead to interactions between the upper and lower layers in other  
401 parts of the Baltic Sea

402 Döös et al. (2004) has coined a new term “haline conveyor belt” to describe at general  
403 level the Baltic Sea circulation system. The water is effectively recirculating in the Baltic Sea  
404 even with the existing low-permeable halocline. The overturning circulation may be called the  
405 Baltic Sea haline conveyor belt (Döös et al., 2004) in analogy to the deep-water conveyor belt  
406 of the World Ocean. The vertical overturning circulation consist of many important factors:  
407 the gravity-driven dense bottom currents of the inflowing waters from the North Sea, the  
408 entrainment of ambient surface waters, mixing due to diffusion, interleaving of the inflowing  
409 water masses into the deep at the level of neutral buoyancy, vertical advection due to the  
410 conservation and upward entrainment of deep water into moving surface water in the northern  
411 Baltic Proper.

412 Elken et al. (2003, 2006) carried out investigations of the large halocline variation and  
413 related mesoscale and basin-scale processes in the Northern Gotland Basin – Gulf of Finland  
414 system. The authors suggest that long-lasting pulses of southwesterly winds cause an increase  
415 in the water volume of the Gulf of Finland. The resulting increase of the hydrostatic pressure  
416 in the gulf leads to an outflow of deep water. Such counter-estuarine transport weakens the  
417 stratification of water masses at the entrance of the Gulf of Finland. As a consequence, the  
418 same energy input leads to an intensified diapycnal mixing as compared with the classical  
419 situation at the entrance (strong upward vertical advection). Owing to the variable topography  
420 both in the Northern Gotland Basin and in the Gulf of Finland, the basin-scale barotropic  
421 flows are converted into baroclinic mesoscale motions with a large isopycnal displacement  
422 (more than 20 m within a distance of 10–20 km), which causes intra-halocline current speeds  
423 more than 20 cm/s. So, Elken et al. (2006) concluded that the near-bottom layers of the Gulf  
424 of Finland rather actively react to the wind forcing, a reasoning which considerably modifies  
425 the traditional concept of the partially decoupled lower layer dynamics of the Baltic Sea. The  
426 multitude of processes at the entrance of the Gulf of Finland certainly makes the modelling of  
427 the deep-water inflow extremely difficult. The internal wave activity is high, the production of  
428 strong eddies and topographically controlled local currents is frequent, and thus the diapycnal  
429 mixing is intense.

430

#### 431 Water age

432

433 The model simulations (Meier, 2007) were based on the idea that passive tracers are  
434 marking inflowing waters and in another case tracers are marking discharge from all Baltic  
435 rivers. It is shown according to a 96 year-run (using atmospheric forcing of 1980–2004) with  
436 tracers marking inflowing waters at the Darss Sill and the Drogden Sill.

437 In the case of inflowing waters from the Kattegat there are pronounced vertical and  
438 horizontal age gradients between the uppermost layers and the near-bottom layers. The spatial  
439 distribution shows also large differences in the water ages between the mouth area of the  
440 Baltic and the Bay of Bothnia. At the sea-surface the age of the Belt Sea water is smaller than  
441 14 years whereas in the northernmost Baltic Sea the water age is up to 40 years. In the bottom  
442 layers the water age is in general less than in the surface, e.g., in the Arkona Basin less than  
443 10 years. The halocline separates the water masses of the upper and lower layers that have in  
444 the Gotland Basins associated ages smaller or larger than 26 years. The west-east cross-  
445 section in the Gotland Sea confirms that the surface water has a larger age than the bottom

446 water and that the Western Gotland Basin is characterised by larger ages than the Eastern  
447 Gotland Basin due to the cyclonic circulation system.

448 For the tracer marking freshwater from all rivers the vertical age gradients in the  
449 Gotland Deep are much smaller than in the case of inflowing water from the Kattegat. This  
450 indicates an efficient re-circulation of fresh waters in the Baltic Sea. Such circulation is due to  
451 the downward tracer flux across the halocline caused by entrainment of the surface water into  
452 deep water balanced by the upward tracer flux in the interplay of vertical advection and  
453 diffusion. According to Meier (2007) the largest surface water mean ages, more than 30 years,  
454 are found in the central Gotland Basin and Belt Sea. Water with a small age is found only at  
455 narrow coastal area and in river mouths. At the bottom the mean ages are largest in the  
456 western Gotland Deep (about 36 years). At the halocline depth the age distribution is rather  
457 homogeneous in Baltic Sea Proper—an opposite situation in comparison with the age  
458 calculation based on inflowing waters where high spatial gradients are found.

#### 459 Mixing

460  
461  
462 There is a long-term approximate advective-diffusive balance in the deep water  
463 (Stigebrandt, 2001). Advective supplies of new deep water tend to increase and diffusive  
464 flows tend to decrease the salinity. However, this is not in balance in shorter time-scales due  
465 to the discontinuous character of the advective supply of deep water. Since tides are usually  
466 small in the Baltic Sea, most of the energy sustaining turbulence in the deep-water pools must  
467 be provided by the wind.

468 Stigebrandt (1987, 2001) concluded, according to results of long-term modelling of the  
469 large-scale vertical circulation in the Baltic Sea Proper, that under contemporary conditions  
470 the basin-wide vertical diapycnal diffusivity (or diapycnal mixing coefficient) in the deep-  
471 water pools can be reasonable well described by

$$472 \quad \kappa = \min\left(\frac{\alpha}{N}, \kappa_{\max}\right)$$

473  
474 where  $\alpha$  and  $\kappa_{\max}$  are constants and  $N$  is the Brunt-Väisälä frequency. In his horizontally  
475 integrated model for the Baltic Sea Proper Stigebrandt (1987) tuned  $\alpha$  to equal  $2 \cdot 10^{-7} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$ .  
476 According to Meier et al. (2006)  $\alpha$  depends on energy fluxes from local sources, such as  
477 wind-driven inertial currents, Kelvin waves and other coastally trapped waves. This means  
478 that mixing near the coasts and near topographic slopes is more thorough than in the open sea.  
479 Axell (1998) found, based on measurements,  $\alpha = 1.5 \cdot 10^{-7} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$  and that there is seasonal  
480 variability as well. For  $N = 10^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  we have  $\alpha/N \sim 1.5 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , while normal level in  
481 mixed layer is  $10^{-3} - 10^{-2} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , which serves as a reference for  $\kappa_{\max}$ .

482 The processes interlinked to diapycnal mixing are not yet fully understood. A key  
483 question is to find the sources and paths for energy sustaining the turbulence. It has been  
484 anticipated that internal waves and their dissipation plays a key role in the transfer of energy  
485 down into the deep water. Several mechanisms may generate internal waves.

486 Lass et al. (2003) measured in DIAMIX-project dissipation rates and stratification  
487 between 10 and 120 metres depths during a 9-day experiment in the Eastern Gotland Basin.  
488 The main finding was that there are two well-separated turbulent regimes. The turbulence in  
489 the surface layer, as expected, was closely connected to the wind. However, in the strongly  
490 stratified deeper water turbulence was quite independent of the meteorological forcing at the  
491 sea-surface. The integrated production of the turbulent kinetic energy exceeded the energy  
492 loss of inertial oscillations in the surface layer suggesting that additional energy sinks might  
493 have been inertial wave radiation during geostrophic adjustment of coastal jets and mesoscale

494 eddies. The diapycnal mixing coefficient ( $\kappa$ ) of Stigebrandt (1987) was estimated to be  $7 \cdot 10^{-7}$   
495  $\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$ .

496 Until now the knowledge of the Baltic Sea mixing has been based on quite few  
497 publications as shown earlier here. An important recent summary was prepared by Reissmann  
498 et al. (2009). The review paper by Reissmann et al. (2009) summarizes the different  
499 mechanisms how mixing takes place in the Baltic Sea. One major process is caused by the  
500 episodic overflow of water over the sills into the Baltic Sea bringing through bottom currents  
501 in more saline waters, this leading to entrainment and interleaving of the incoming water  
502 masses to the level of neutral buoyancy (e.g. Lass and Mohrholz, 2003). Through this  
503 mechanism the Baltic deep waters are ventilated (e.g. Meier et al. 2006). Because of volume  
504 conservation, this process leads to uplift of waters masses in the central Baltic. Also mixing  
505 due to inertial waves and breaking of internal waves lead to enhanced vertical turbulent  
506 transport as does the effect due to Baltic Sea eddies (e.g. Lass et al. 2003). Also the coastal  
507 upwelling (Lehmann and Myrberg, 2008) plays a certain role. In addition to that the winter-  
508 time convection and wind-induced mixing takes place. However, these latter processes only  
509 affect in the layer above the halocline (see e.g. Leppäranta and Myrberg, 2009). In addition,  
510 the surface waves effect the vertical mixing directly through wave breaking and indirectly  
511 through Langmuir circulation (e.g. Smith, 1998). The effect of surface wave breaking is  
512 usually thought to penetrate to depths of only a few meters in the surface layer and it is often  
513 considered through the wind-speed-dependent (not the wave-dependent) friction velocity.  
514 Kantha and Clayson (2004) have shown (see also the Baltic case study by Kantha et al, 2010)  
515 that the Stokes production of turbulent kinetic energy in the mixed layer is of the same order  
516 of magnitude as the shear production and must therefore be included in mixed layer models.  
517 The Stokes drift together with mean shear generates Langmuir cells. Taking Langmuir  
518 circulations into account in the vertical turbulence schemes affects the deepening of the mixed  
519 layer (e.g. Ming and Garret, 1997 and Kukulka et al., 2010). Even though the small size of the  
520 Baltic Sea limits the growth of surface waves, the waves are high enough to be of significance  
521 even in the small sub-basins of the Baltic Sea (e.g. Soomere and Räämet, 2011 and Tuomi et  
522 al., 2011). Summer is typically the season with smallest mean and maximum values of  
523 significant wave height and winter highest (excluding the seasonally ice-covered areas).  
524 Importance of including the parameterization of internal waves and Langmuir circulations in  
525 the vertical turbulence schemes in multi-year simulations in the Baltic Sea has been shown by  
526 Axell (2002).

527 The dynamics of near-inertial motions (Van der Lee and Umlauf, 2011), and their  
528 relation to mixing, is investigated here with an extensive data set, including turbulence and  
529 high-resolution velocity observations from two cruises conducted in 2008 (summer) and 2010  
530 (winter) in the Bornholm Basin of the Baltic Sea. In the absence of tides, it is found that the  
531 basin-scale energetics are governed by inertial oscillations and low-mode near-inertial wave  
532 motions that are generated near the lateral slopes of the basin. These motions are shown to be  
533 associated with persistent narrow shear-bands, strongly correlated with bands of enhanced  
534 dissipation rates that are the major source of mixing inside the permanent halocline of the  
535 basin. In spite of different stratification, near-inertial wave structure, and atmospheric forcing  
536 during summer and winter conditions, respectively, the observed dissipation rates were found  
537 to scale with local shear and stratification in a nearly identical way. This scaling was different  
538 from the Gregg-Henyey-type models used for the open ocean, but largely consistent with the  
539 MacKinnon-Gregg scaling developed for the continental shelf.

540  
541 Rossby-radius  
542

543 The first baroclinic Rossby radius of deformation ( $R_1$ ) is a fundamental horizontal  
544 scale of mesoscale processes. This scale is important for planning both numerical modeling  
545 and study areas.  $R_1$  was computed on the basis of an 11-year series of high resolution CTD  
546 measurements collected during r/v "Oceania" cruises (Osiński, et al. 2010). The data set  
547 covered the three main basins of the Baltic Proper: the Bornholm Basin (BB), the Słupsk  
548 Furrow (SF) and the Gdańsk Basin (GB). The smallest mean value of  $R_1$  was found in the  
549 Gdańsk Basin (5.2 km), the largest one in the Bornholm Deep (7.3 km). The seasonal  
550 variability of  $R_1$  is lower in the western basin than in the eastern one. The seasonal cycle of  $R_1$   
551 may be broken by extreme events, e.g. main Baltic inflows (MBI) of saline water. The  
552 inflowing water rebuilds the vertical stratification in the southern Baltic Sea and dramatically  
553 changes the  $R_1$  values. The difference of  $R_1$  between a stagnation period and an inflow  
554 situation is shown on the basis of observations made during 2002–2003. The main inflow  
555 occurred in winter, after ten years of stagnation, and the very low values of  $R_1$  (about 4 km)  
556 changed to very high ones (more than 9 km).

557 Analysis of stagnation and saltwater inflow events may throw light on the value of  $R_1$   
558 in future climatic scenarios. The potential influence of climate change on Baltic Sea salinity,  
559 especially a decrease in MBI activity, may change the baroclinic Rossby radius of  
560 deformation and the mesoscale dynamics. Values of  $R_1$  are expected to be lower in the future  
561 climate than those measured nowadays.

#### 562 **3.4.1.4. Sensitivity to changes in forcing**

563 Due to the ephemeral nature of the atmospheric conditions over the Baltic Sea, the  
564 flow field is highly variable, and thus, changes in the resulting circulation and upwelling are  
565 difficult to observe. However, three-dimensional models, forced by realistic atmospheric  
566 forcing conditions and river runoff have reached a state of accuracy that the highly fluctuating  
567 current field and the associated evolution of the temperature and salinity field can be  
568 realistically simulated. Changes in the characteristics of the large-scale atmospheric wind  
569 field over the central and eastern North Atlantic can be described by the North Atlantic  
570 Oscillation (NAO). The NAO is related to the strength and geographical positions of weather  
571 systems as they cross the North Atlantic and thus has a direct impact on the climate in Europe  
572 (Hurrell 1995). This is especially true under high NAO<sup>+</sup> conditions, where the spatial  
573 correlation length is extended to northern Europe. Under low NAO<sup>+</sup> or NAO<sup>-</sup> conditions, the  
574 spatial correlation length scale decreases, and the influence of the westerlies on northern  
575 Europe becomes small, so that the continental influence on the climate increases. However,  
576 the weakened influence of the westerlies for northern Europe is a precondition of outflow for  
577 the Baltic Sea. Thus, NAO<sup>-</sup> phases also have the potential to indirectly affect the circulation in  
578 the Baltic Sea and the water mass exchange with the North Sea (Lehmann et al. 2002). The  
579 linear correlation index between the volume exchange of the Baltic Sea and the NAO index is  
580 only  $r=0.28$  ( $r=0.49$  for the NAO winter index DJFM). A better relation of the local wind field  
581 over the Baltic Sea to the large-scale atmospheric circulation is given by the Baltic Sea Index  
582 (BSI) defined by Lehmann et al (2002). The NAO is significantly related to the BSI.  
583 Furthermore, the BSI is highly correlated with the storage variations of the Baltic Sea and the  
584 volume exchange with the Danish Sounds. For northern Europe, the NAO accounts for about  
585 50% of the dominant climate winter regimes, The 'Blocking' and 'Atlantic Ridge' regime  
586 accounts for another 27 and 23%, respectively (Hurrell and Deser 2009, Lehmann et al. 2011).  
587 The local BSI includes all 4 regimes and thus better describes the SLP variability over the  
588 Baltic Sea rather than the NAO alone.

589 Changes in the general wind conditions over the Baltic Sea lead to changes in typical  
590 upwelling zones and frequencies. In a statistical approach on upwelling based on satellite  
591  
592

593 data for the period 1990-2009 Lehmann et al. (2012) analysed location and upwelling  
594 frequencies along the Baltic Sea coast during the thermal stratified period of the year. Most  
595 frequent upwelling could be found along the Swedish east coast and the Finnish coast of the  
596 Gulf of Finland.

597 Generally, there was a positive trend of upwelling frequencies along the Swedish coast  
598 of the Baltic Sea and the Finnish coast of the Gulf of Finland and a negative trend along the  
599 Polish, Latvian and Estonian coast (Fig.3.4.6). This is in line with the warming trend of  
600 annual mean SST derived from infrared satellite images (1990–2008) presented in Lehmann  
601 et al. (2011). Smallest trends occurred along the east coast of Sweden  $0.3$  to  $0.5^{\circ}\text{C decade}^{-1}$   
602 compared to  $0.5$  to  $0.9^{\circ}\text{C decade}^{-1}$  in the central part of the Baltic Proper. They supposed that  
603 the decrease in the warming trend along the coast was due to increased upwelling connected  
604 with a shift in the dominant wind directions. The trend analysis of favorable wind conditions  
605 derived from wind station data May-September for the period 1990–2009 support this. There  
606 is a positive trend of south-westerly and westerly wind conditions along the Swedish coast  
607 and the Finnish coast of the Gulf of Finland and a corresponding negative trend along the east  
608 coast of the Baltic Proper and the Estonian coast of the Gulf of Finland and the Finnish coast  
609 of the Gulf of Bothnia. September contributes most to this trend, whereas in June and August  
610 a partially reverse of the trends occurs.

611 **Fig. 3.4.6.** Changes in upwelling frequencies. Figure missing at the moment.

612  
613  
614 In a three-dimensional modeling study Meier (2005) investigated the sensitivities of  
615 modeled salinity and age on freshwater supply, wind speed and amplitude of the sea level in  
616 Kattegat. In steady state the average salinity of the Baltic Sea is most sensitive to  
617 perturbations of freshwater inflow. Increased freshwater inflow and wind speed resulted both  
618 in decreased salinity. Whereas increased amplitude of the Kattegat sea level resulted in  
619 increased salinity. The average age was most sensitive to perturbations of the wind speed.  
620 Especially, decreased wind speed causes significantly increased age of the deepwater. Long-  
621 term changes of fresh- and salt water inflows and of low-frequent wind anomalies cause the  
622 Baltic Sea to drift into a new steady-state with altered salinity, stability and ventilation are  
623 approximately invariant. Thus, the timescale of perturbations needs to be long compared to  
624 the turn-over time of freshwater content. By contrast, long-term changes of the high frequent  
625 wind affect deepwater ventilation significantly.

626 Omstedt and Hansson (2006) analysed the Baltic Sea climate memory and response to  
627 change using both observations and modelling. Their findings can be summarized as follows.  
628 The averaged salinity of the Baltic Sea is non-linearly dependent on and strongly sensitive to  
629 changes in freshwater inflow. The annual maximum ice extent is strongly sensitive to changes  
630 in the winter air temperature over the Baltic Sea. It will become completely ice covered or ice  
631 free at Baltic Sea winter air temperatures of  $-6$  and  $2^{\circ}\text{C}$ , respectively. In the Baltic Sea climate  
632 system at least two important time scales need to be considered: one is associated with the  
633 water balance (salinity) and the e-folding time is approximately 33 years, while the other is  
634 associated with the heat balance and is approximately 1 year. Change in Baltic Sea annual  
635 mean water temperature is closely related to change in the air temperature above the sea.  
636 However, in climate warming experiments the water and air temperatures may differ due to  
637 changes in the surface heat balance components.

638 A study of climate change effects on the Baltic Sea ecosystem has been presented by  
639 Neumann (2010). Two regional data sets for greenhouse gas emission scenarios, A1B and B1,  
640 for the period 1960 to 2100, were used to force transient simulations with a 3D ecosystem  
641 model of the Baltic Sea. The results showed that the expected warming of the Baltic Sea is 1–  
642 4 K, with a decrease in salinity and a much reduced sea-ice cover in winter. Most of the



643 findings were consistent with an earlier study presented by Meier (2006). From the  
644 comparison of both studies it turned out, that the warming was similar in both studies, thus  
645 demonstrating that warming is a robust feature whereas the salinity decrease was differently  
646 pronounced, indicating salinity-change simulations remain relatively uncertain, albeit with a  
647 tendency towards reduced salinity. In addition, the season favoring cyanobacterial blooms is  
648 prolonged, with the spring bloom in the Northern Baltic Sea beginning earlier in the season,  
649 while the oxygen conditions in deep water are expected to improve slightly.

650 Hordoir and Meier (2011) analysed changes in future stratification in the upper part of  
651 the water column using a three-dimensional circulation ocean model. They found a switch  
652 between processes controlling the seasonal cycle of stratification in the Baltic sea at the end of  
653 twenty first century. Solely, the air temperature increase was responsible for increased  
654 stratification at the bottom of the mixed layer. As in present climate winter temperatures in  
655 the Baltic are often below the temperature of maximum density, warming causes thermal  
656 convection. Re-stratification during the beginning of spring is then triggered by the spreading  
657 of freshwater. This process is believed to be important for the onset of the spring bloom. In  
658 future climate, temperatures are expected to be usually higher than the temperature of  
659 maximum density and thermally induced stratification will start without prior thermal  
660 convection. Thus, freshwater controlled re-stratification during spring is not an important  
661 process anymore, and thus this changes in stratification might have an important impact on  
662 vertical nutrient fluxes and the intensity of the spring bloom in future. Changes in processes  
663 controlling the seasonal cycle of stratification also have been investigated by Demchenko et  
664 al. (2011). They found differences in the formation and evolution of seasonal structural  
665 thermal fronts after winters of different severity. Structural fronts are related to the  
666 temperature of density maximum. In spring the front advances northwards at a speed of about  
667 11-16 km d<sup>-1</sup> traversing the breadth of the Baltic Sea within 8 to 10 weeks. After severe  
668 winters the horizontal temperature gradient is much more pronounced and the traversal speed  
669 is reduced compared with mild winters.

670

671 ***Concluding remarks( to be written)***

672

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