

1 PLEASE NOTE THAT THIS DOCUMENT COMBINES THE AUTHOR'S
2 RESPONSE AND THE ANNOTATED MANUSCRIPT

3 **Anonymous Referee #1**

4

5 Review of Gehlen et al.

6

7 We thank the reviewer for his comments and suggestions. We reply to each point below.

8

9 This manuscript uses a suite of climate models to predict future changes in pH in deep waters
10 of the North Atlantic. These are then superimposed on the distribution of seamounts and
11 canyons to predict biodiversity threats in 2100. Approximately 17% of the seafloor below 500
12 m is predicted to experience pH declines of 0.2 pH units. The tremendous stability of
13 conditions in deep water and historical changes recorded in the geologic record, suggest this
14 amount of pH decline is potentially dangerous to deep-ocean biodiversity.

15 The modeling component of this paper seems sound, although this is not my area of expertise.
16 Work by others including some of the co-authors have predicted seafloor changes in
17 temperature, pH, POC flux and oxygen (Bopp et al. 2013, and pointed out impacts on deep
18 biodiversity (Mora et al. 2013). This paper might want to devote more space to
19 acknowledging and reviewing that earlier work.

20 We acknowledge the study by Mora et al. (2013) in the introduction section by adding a
21 sentence. Line 106 reads: "The study complements assessments by Bopp et al. (2013) and
22 Mora et al. (2013) which evaluated large-scale average pH reductions in response to the same
23 RCP pathways, but without a detailed discussion of spatial patterns and their link to
24 circulation."

25

26 Has a similar approach been taken with warming or oxygen?

27 Mora and co-workers took a multiple stressors approach including temperature and oxygen.
28 Cocco et al. (2013) investigated changes in CO₂ and O₂ in response to a high emission
29 scenario in a set of Earth System Models. We chose to focus on pH only. The North Atlantic

30 is an area of deep water formation and the water column is well oxygenated at present and,
31 according to model projections, will remain so in the future.

32 Please consider the following issues and suggestions:

33

34 Please provide the justification for selection of a 500 m upper limit of analysis. This is not an
35 upper limit for deep-water corals or sponges is it?

36 The selection of 500 m as an upper limit for analysis follows from model considerations. This
37 study uses output from coarse resolution global ocean models that do not fully resolve
38 processes on the shelf or upper slope. Digitised topographies as used in general circulation
39 models usually average over fine resolution digital data sets by averaging the fine resolution
40 data for use in the coarse grid. Therefore, along the continental shelf break model
41 topographies at around 500 m depth would include also shallower areas, but these cannot be
42 resolved as such.

43

44 It seems that a significant component of deep biodiversity may fall between 200-500 m.

45 We agree that there is significant biodiversity between 200 and 500m. However, we wish to
46 maintain the upper limit due to the reasons as outlined above.

47

48 Do the effects of a 0.2 or 0.3 pH unit decline depend on the baseline or starting point?

49 We thank the reviewer for raising this issue.

50 The pH is defined as the negative logarithm of the hydrogen ion concentration ($[H^+]$). From
51 the basic properties of logarithms it follows that the difference in pH equals the logarithm of
52 the ratio of hydrogen ion concentrations. For a given pH change, the change in $[H^+]$, $\Delta[H^+]$ is
53 a linear function of the initial hydrogen ion concentration ($[H^+]_i$) as $\Delta[H^+] = [H^+]_i$
54 $((1/10^{\Delta pH}) - 1)$. Hence, the larger the initial $[H^+]$, the larger the perturbation. We illustrate this
55 point with an additional supplementary figure representing on panel (a) the observed pH at
56 depth and on panel (b) the change in $[H^+]$ corresponding to a pH reduction by 0.2 units.

57 The dependence of the absolute change in $[H^+]$ on the starting point cautions against a
58 simplistic analysis of pH changes, be it in numerical or laboratory experiments. Contrasting

59 shallow and deep environments highlight that absolute changes in $[H^+]$ are amplified at depth,
60 that is for environments of low natural variability.

61 In addition to adding a new figure to the supplementary material, we inserted the following
62 text on 186: “The pH is defined as the negative logarithm of the hydrogen ion concentration
63 ($[H^+]$). From the basic properties of logarithms it follows that the difference in pH equals the
64 logarithm of the ratio of hydrogen ion concentrations. For a given pH change, the change in
65 $[H^+]$, $\Delta[H^+]$, is a linear function of the initial hydrogen ion concentration ($[H^+]_i$) as $\Delta[H^+] =$
66 $[H^+]_i ((1/10^{\Delta pH}) - 1)$. Hence, the larger the initial $[H^+]$, the larger the perturbation (Fig. S1).
67 Contrasting shallow and deep environments highlights that absolute changes in $[H^+]$ are
68 amplified at depth or any threshold, that is for environments of low natural variability.”

69

70 What are the absolute pH values at 500, 1000, 2000 m in the deep Atlantic Ocean?

71 The absolute mean values of pH in the deep Atlantic:

72 500 m = 8.015 ; 1000 m = 7.999; 2000 m = 7.994

73 We decided not to include a pH profile. Its evolution with depth is illustrated on Figure S1,
74 top panel.

75

76 Is anything known about natural pH variability in the deep Atlantic and how this changes with
77 water depth, latitude or region?

78 To our best knowledge, the only published time-series data resolving seasonal variability of
79 pH at different depths across the water column (from 10 m to 3500 m) is by González-Dávila
80 et al. (2010).

81

82 There is limited discussion of the mechanisms by which pH might affect biodiversity. Is it
83 through effects on calcification? Acid-base regulation? Energetics (which are discussed
84 somewhat)?

85 We amended this section of the discussion (lines 397 to 417) so it is more specific and says :
86 “Our knowledge of the ecology of deep benthic communities is still limited and impacts of
87 pH changes on these communities are difficult to evaluate owing to lack of experimental and

88 observational data. Rapid changes in pH will likely lead to disruption of extracellular acid-
89 base balance, impedance of calcification and other physiological effects in deep-water
90 organisms, and whatever acclimation is required may have increased energetic costs
91 (Widdicombe and Spicer, 2008) – e.g. for metabolism/maintenance, growth, reproduction –
92 and could extend to increases in mortality of both adults and juveniles. Changes at the
93 individual and population level will inevitably lead to more widespread ecosystem and
94 community level changes and potential shifts in biodiversity (Hendriks et al., 2010) and
95 ecosystem functioning (Danovaro et al., 2008). Biodiversity reductions could arise from a loss
96 of species, functional, or even taxonomic groups sensitive to pH change. The ecological
97 implications of pH change could be more severe if keystone or habitat-forming species are
98 impacted (Widdicombe and Spicer, 2008), which seems likely (Guinotte et al., 2006). These
99 effects may be likely exacerbated in the presence of other stressors (Walther et al., 2009),
100 such as global warming and projected reductions in deep-sea food supply (Bopp et al., 2013),
101 as well as elevated resource exploitation and pollution. In particular, reductions in food
102 supply to deep benthic communities are projected to result in a decrease in biomass and a shift
103 towards smaller sized organisms (Jones et al., 2013). These changes will modify energy
104 transfer rates through benthic food webs and may leave communities more susceptible to pH
105 reductions. We propose these and future model projections to be taken into account when
106 defining long-term preservation and management approaches to deep-sea ecosystems.”

107

108 If corals are of major concern, please discuss what a 0.2 or 0.3 pH decline corresponds to with
109 regard to aragonite saturation state.

110 We chose to mention corals as merely an example group of interest among many, and
111 deliberately chose not to assess changes in aragonite saturation state to maintain an
112 ecosystem-wide focus. Several studies have addressed decreases in saturation state and
113 impacts on cold-water corals. We intend, with this study, to broaden the discussion on
114 impacts of ocean acidification to other communities than calcifiers. The tight control of pH at
115 the cellular scale is an important prerequisite of proper cell functioning and mechanisms of
116 pH control are ubiquitous across many taxa. pH is thus a master variable for biological
117 systems.

118

119 It would be appropriate to also calculate and map changes in Omega (aragonite) and
120 determine what fraction of the seamounts or canyons will be exposed to specific omega
121 decline levels. It may be that we have more knowledge of saturation state requirements than
122 pH tolerances.

123 As stated above, impacts of decreasing aragonite saturation states on calcifiers were the focus
124 of numerous previous studies. From the point of view of biological conservation, pH is the
125 more universal environmental variable as it is not specific to a particular group of organisms.

126

127 Several assumptions seem to be made: One is that there is no adaptation potential. . . . Over
128 the next 85 years – is this what the authors believe?

129 To our knowledge, there is very little (if any information) available on the adaptation
130 potential of deep sea fauna to ocean acidification. There is a pressing need for further
131 biological studies. We do not want to speculate, but rather answer a precise question that is
132 'likelihood of pH changes affecting deep seafloor'

133

134 Do they expect any synergistic interaction with declining oxygen?

135 This study focuses on the deep North Atlantic, a well-ventilated sub-region of the world
136 ocean. Despite a projected increase in stratification, the region will remain well-oxygenated in
137 the future. This is explicitly stated in the revised version by adding “The North Atlantic is a
138 well-ventilated region of the world ocean and, despite a projected increase in stratification,
139 will remain well-oxygenated in the future (Bopp et al., 2013).” (line 104)

140

141 Additional points and considerations that could enhance this work.

142 a) Are there actual biodiversity data to show that seamount and canyon biodiversity is higher
143 than other settings (continental slope, mid-ocean ridges, vents, basins, fjords, carbonate
144 mounds, or other features).

145 We do not infer that the biodiversity of seamounts and canyons is higher than in other
146 settings. We assess pH reductions over the seafloor without discrimination of particular
147 habitats first. We then selected these features as representative examples of specific deep sea
148 environments.

149 We modified the last sentences of the final paragraph of the introduction (lines 110 to 117)
150 section is modified to: “Future multi-model projections of pH changes over the seafloor are
151 analysed with reference to this threshold and without discrimination of particular habitats
152 first. Next, model results are put into the perspective of ecosystem conservation by evaluating
153 changes in pH against the distribution of seamounts and deep-sea canyons. These features are
154 known as sites of high-biodiversity deep-sea ecosystems, such as cold-water corals and
155 sponge communities (ICES, 2007; Clark MR et al., 2010; De Leo et al., 2010) and are
156 selected as representative examples of deep sea environments. “

157

158 b) What fraction of the deep-ocean corals occur on canyons and seamounts as opposed to
159 other features (slopes, mounds, mid ocean ridges etc.)?

160 We did not detail the distribution of cold water corals, as they were not the focus of this study.

161

162 Would the major messages change if these other settings were considered?

163 It is unlikely that major messages would change given that the ecosystem level response at
164 canyons and seamounts was the focus of the present work rather than the coral group
165 specifically. However, we already assessed impacts on the global deep sea floor as well, which
166 should provide relevant information for the curious reader.

167

168 c) The beginning of the paper could do more to justify why the focus is on biodiversity and
169 not, for example on fisheries? Habitat support or other

170 ecosystem services? Is biodiversity being used as a proxy for something else?

171 While we appreciate the importance of fisheries as a critical sector of living marine resource
172 sciences, biodiversity is a value by itself and one of the seven criteria retained for the
173 identification of « ecologically or biologically significant areas » (EBSA) by the 10th
174 Convention of the Parties (COP) to the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) (see
175 Annex 1 to CBD CoP Decision IX/20 ; CBD, 2008a). These criteria are proposed as a
176 framework for identifying Marine Protected Areas.

177

178 d) What is the support for extracting thresholds from the paleoceanographic literature? The
179 time scales seem wrong for comparison with current change. Why wouldn't a 0.1 pH decline
180 over 100 years be more significant than a 0.2 pH decline over thousands or tens of thousands
181 of years?

182 Done. Thank you for pointing out some ambiguities in the original text. We explicitly state
183 now the implication of paleoceanographic pH data. We modified the text to point out that we
184 consider time scales from multi-annual to millions of years. We do not suggest that a 0.1 pH
185 decline over 100 years is more significant/relevant than a 0.2 pH decline over thousands of
186 years. The text reads now (lines 237 to 250): "Many past episodes of climate change occurred
187 over significantly longer time-scales than the current anthropogenic perturbation of the
188 climate system, allowing carbonate compensation to keep deep-water pH close to constant
189 (Hönisch et al., 2008). This is corroborated by computing pH reduction over glacial-
190 interglacial cycles for a North Atlantic site. Decadal-to-centennial changes are addressed by
191 fresh-water hosing model experiments to simulate effects of circulation changes associated
192 with rapid Heinrich and Dansgaard Oeschger events. In both cases, pH reductions are below
193 0.15 pH units. Similarly, a small amplitude of natural temporal pH variability at depth
194 emerges from a multi-annual time series stations (González-Dávila et al., 2010) and the
195 analysis of the long pre-industrial simulation "piControl" (Fig. S2 in the Supplement). In
196 summary, natural pH variations on multi-annual, decadal-to-century, and longer time scales
197 were likely smaller than 0.2 pH units on the regional-to-basin scale in the deep Atlantic and at
198 least for the past million years. This suggests that small pH variations of up to 0.2 pH units do
199 not present a risk for marine life."

200

201 Summary: This paper addresses issues relevant to Biogeosciences, and presents original data,
202 although the general concept of predicting change and superimposing this on bathymetry is
203 not entirely novel. The writing is generally clear and the authors provide a strong case to
204 substantiate their interpretations. The methods are valid but the assumption that a 0.2 unit
205 decline in pH will alter deep-sea biodiversity remains to be tested broadly.

206 We agree with the reviewer.

207

208 Technical Corrections:

209 technical corrections have been taken into account while preparing the revised manuscript.

210

211 Pg 8609 line 9 the deep benthic environment; also. . .You don't actually report real
212 consequences.

213 We agree and modified the sentence to: "We report on major pH reductions over the deep
214 North Atlantic seafloor (depth > 500 m) and deep-sea biodiversity hotspots, such as
215 seamounts and canyons."

216

217 Pg 8610 line 4 – Mora et al. 2013 should be cited as considering consequences of OA in deep
218 water.

219 Done

220

221 Pg 8610 line 7 deep sea is only hyphenated when used as a double adjective.

222 Corrected

223

224 Pg 8610 line 9 I question whether mineral extraction is dominant in the deep-sea – it has not
225 really happened yet.

226 We agree with the reviewer that at present only few leases have been granted for mining. One
227 example is the lease granted to Nautilus Minerals Inc. for the exploitation of polymetallic
228 massive sulphide deposits in the territorial waters of Papua New Guinea. We will modify the
229 sentence to "While waste disposal, fishing and, in the future, mineral extraction are well-
230 recognized as human pressures ...".

231

232 Pg 8610 line 18. Need a citation after. . . taxa.

233 Done

234

235 Pg 8618 line 18 please define what depths are mean by 'deep water'

236 Throughout all of the manuscript, pH reductions are reported for depths exceeding 500 m
237 below sea surface. I is stated on p8612, line 15.

238

239 Pg 8619 line 16 please define what is meant by ‘climate change’ – is this warming?

240 We added the definition to line 5 “... physical (climate change, defined here as physical
241 changes in response to warming) ...”

242

243 Pg 8620 line 26. Other good citations include Buhl-Mortensen et al. 2010 (Marine Ecology)
244 and other papers by that author.

245 Done

246

247 Pg 8621 line 10. So given the threat to deep protected areas – what do the authors recommend
248 be done? Set aside larger protected areas? Avoid climate change-impacted areas?

249 The only appropriate reaction would be to curb down CO2 emissions.

250

251 Fig. 4 Can you comment on the biology in the regions shown in orange with greatest pH
252 change?

253 The area with the greatest pH change (in orange) extends around much of the Atlantic margin.
254 This covers a range of depths and climatic zones and has a highly variable biology. Coupled
255 to this, we have very limited data on the fauna of large areas of the deep sea. This means that
256 we would not like to make any generalising statement about the biology of the area with
257 greatest change. To do this properly would be a new study (or serveral) in its own right.

258

259 **Anonymous Referee #2**

260 Received and published: 10 September 2014

261 The article “Projected pH reductions by 2100 might put deep North Atlantic biodiversity at
262 risk.”, by Gehlen et al., tries to evaluate the potential impacts of ocean acidification on deep-
263 sea ecosystems by modeling the effects of the IPCC AR5 Representative Concentration

264 Pathways on an ensemble of seven Earth system models. The work is compelling and
265 original, and the issue addressed of the utmost importance for fellow scientists and
266 policymakers alike. The article itself is competently written, clear and based on good
267 bibliographic support. The work should be accepted for publication, with only the minor
268 changes listed below.

269

270 We thank the reviewer for the positive evaluation of our study. We corrected typos and edited
271 the text for clarity during revisions following the recommendations. We modified Figure 5.

272

273 195- Where it reads “Atlantic Meridional Overturning” it should read “Atlantic Meridional
274 Overturning”

275 Done

276 240- The phrase “Projected pH reductionsTime-series of atmospheric. . .” should be
277 corrected.

278 Done

279 263- The phrase “. . .that is transfer of. . .” should be edited for clarity.

280 Figure 5 - The symbols used are too similar at that size, and the use of the same color is
281 visually confusing when they overlap. A change in either or both is suggested.

282 Done

283 617- The explanation regarding the different hue of the circles should also be applied to the
284 diamonds.

285 Done

286

287 **Projected pH reductions by 2100 might put deep North Atlantic**
288 **biodiversity at risk.**

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314

315 **Abstract**

316 This study aims to evaluate the potential for impacts of ocean acidification on North Atlantic
317 deep-sea ecosystems in response to IPCC AR5 Representative Concentration Pathways
318 (RCP). Deep-sea biota is likely highly vulnerable to changes in seawater chemistry and
319 sensitive to moderate excursions in pH. Here we show, from seven fully-coupled Earth
320 system models, that for three out of four RCPs over 17% of the seafloor area below 500 m
321 depth in the North Atlantic sector will experience pH reductions exceeding -0.2 units by 2100.
322 Increased stratification in response to climate change partially alleviates the impact of ocean
323 acidification on deep benthic environment. ~~We report major potential consequences of pH~~
324 ~~reductions for deep-sea biodiversity hotspots, such as seamounts and canyons. We report on~~
325 ~~major pH reductions over the deep North Atlantic seafloor (depth > 500 m) and at important~~
326 ~~deep-sea features, such as seamounts and canyons.~~ By 2100 and under the high CO₂ scenario
327 RCP8.5 pH reductions exceeding -0.2, (respectively -0.3) units are projected in close to 23%
328 (~15%) of North Atlantic deep-sea canyons and ~8% (3%) of seamounts – including
329 seamounts proposed as sites of marine protected areas. The spatial pattern of impacts reflects
330 the depth of the pH perturbation and does not scale linearly with atmospheric CO₂
331 concentration. Impacts may cause negative changes of the same magnitude or exceeding the
332 current target of 10% of preservation of marine biomes set by the convention on biological
333 diversity implying that ocean acidification may offset benefits from conservation/management
334 strategies relying on the regulation of resource exploitation.

335

336 **Keywords: ocean acidification, climate change, deep-sea ecosystems**

337

338 1 Introduction

339 Global ocean anthropogenic carbon inventories suggest that the ocean has taken up $\sim 155 \pm$
340 31 PgC (10^{15} g of carbon) in 2010 (Khaliq et al. (2013)). This uptake of CO₂ is causing
341 profound changes in seawater chemistry resulting from increased hydrogen ion concentration
342 (decrease in pH, $\text{pH} = -\log_{10}[\text{H}^+]$) referred to as ocean acidification (IPCC, 2011).
343 Experimental and modelling studies provide compelling evidence that ocean acidification will
344 put marine ecosystems at risk (e.g. Orr et al., 2005; Kroeker et al., 2013). However, with the
345 exception of assessments focusing ~~mostly~~ on cold-water coral systems (Barry et al., 2005,
346 2013; Fleeger et al., 2006; Guinotte et al., 2006; Tittensor et al., 2010), quantifications of
347 biological ~~impacts~~~~consequences~~ of ocean acidification ~~have, to date, been limited_ mostly to~~
348 ~~the~~~~targeted~~ surface ocean or coastal environments (Kroeker et al., 2010).

349 –The aim of this study is to extend our understanding of broad scale impacts of ocean
350 acidification from the existing shallow water studies to focus specifically on deep-sea
351 ecosystems. The deep-sea is under increasing anthropogenic pressure as technological
352 advances allow exploitation of formerly inaccessible regions (Clauss and Hoog, 2002). While
353 waste disposal, fishing and, in the future, mineral extraction are well-recognized as dominant
354 human pressures (Ramirez-Llodra et al., 2011), expert assessments urge consideration of
355 climate change and ocean acidification impacts in future ecosystem conservation/management
356 strategies (Taranto et al., 2012; Billé et al., 2013).

357

358 While previous studies quantified changes in carbonate mineral saturation state as a measure
359 for potential detrimental impacts on deep calcifying communities (Guinotte et al., 2005, 2006;
360 Turley et al., 2007; Fautin et al., 2009), this model-based assessment uses pH. The tight
361 control of pH at the cellular scale is an important prerequisite of proper cell functioning and
362 mechanisms of pH control are ubiquitous across many taxa (Seibel and Walsh, 2003 and
363 references therein). Deep-sea organisms might be particularly vulnerable to changes in
364 seawater chemistry, at least in part owing to limitations on rate processes, caused by low
365 temperature (Childress, 1995; Seibel and Walsh, 2001) and possibly food availability
366 (Ramirez Llodra, 2002), as well as the environmental stability of their habitat in the past
367 (Barry et al., 2011; Seibel and Walsh, 2003). A recent review (Somero, 2012) highlights the
368 link between environmental stability and the capacity to acclimate to future changes in
369 environmental variables such as pH. According to this study, environmental stability might

370 impair the potential for acclimation. This stands in sharp contrast to shallow water or inter-
371 tidal organisms, which are adapted to a dynamic environment with large changes in
372 temperature and seawater chemistry (Hofmann et al., 2011; Duarte et al., 2013).

373

374 A model sensitivity study (Gehlen et al., 2008) suggested the potential for large pH reductions
375 (up to -0.6 pH units) in the deep North Atlantic. Regions of large pH reductions coincided
376 with areas of deep-water formation. Deep-water formation drives the rapid propagation of
377 surface-derived changes in carbonate chemistry to depth as underlined by high vertically-
378 integrated water column inventories of anthropogenic carbon (Sabine et al., 2014), as well as
379 and tritium, chlorofluorocarbon distributions (Doney and Jenkins, 1994). Gehlen et al. (2008)
380 used output from a single model and for a scenario following an atmospheric CO_2 increase of
381 1% per year over 140 years starting from an atmospheric CO_2 level of 286 ppm. This rate of
382 increase is about twice as large as the rate typical for a high-end IPCC concentration pathway.
383 The study did not include circulation changes in response to climate change.

384 Here we extend the study by Gehlen et al. (2008) by analysing pH projections from seven
385 Earth system models that contributed to the 5th Coupled Model Intercomparison Project
386 CMIP5 and for four different Representative Concentration Pathways (RCP, Van Vuuren et
387 al., 2011) ranging from a strong emission mitigation scenario (RCP2.6) to the high- CO_2
388 scenario RCP8.5.—_We assess the magnitude of deep-water pH reductions in the North
389 Atlantic (35°N - 75°N , 90°W - 180°W) over this century in response to atmospheric CO_2
390 increase and climate change. [The North Atlantic is a well-ventilated region of the world ocean
391 and, despite a projected increase in stratification, will remain well-oxygenated in the future
392 \(Bopp et al., 2013\). The study complements assessments by Bopp et al. \(2013\) and Mora et al.
393 \(2013\) which evaluated large-scale average pH reductions in response to the same RCP
394 pathways, but without a detailed discussion of spatial patterns and their link to circulation.](#) We
395 define a critical threshold for pH reductions based on evidence from paleo-oceanographic
396 studies, contemporary observations and model results. Future multi-model projections of pH
397 changes [over the seafloor](#) are analysed with reference to this threshold [and without
398 discrimination of particular habitats first.](#) ~~Finally~~[Next](#), model results are put into the
399 perspective of ecosystem conservation by evaluating changes in pH against the distribution of
400 seamounts and deep-sea canyons. [These features](#) are known as sites of high-biodiversity deep-
401 sea ecosystems, such as cold-water corals and sponge communities (ICES, 2007; Clark MR et

402 | al., 2010; De Leo et al., 2010) [and are selected as representative examples of deep sea](#)
403 | [environments](#).

404

405 | **2 Material and methods**

406 | **2.1 Earth system models**

407 | Our study draws on results from 2 types of Earth system models: (1) the Bern3D-LPJ carbon-
408 | cycle/climate model (Steinacher et al., 2013; Roth and Joos, 2013) and (2) seven fully-
409 | coupled three-dimensional atmosphere ocean climate models that participated in the 5th
410 | Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP5, Taylor et al., 2011) and contributed to the
411 | 5th Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC AR5). The
412 | Bern3D-LPJ is a model of intermediate complexity featuring a 3D geostrophic-balance ocean
413 | and 2D atmospheric energy and moisture-balance model. The cycle of carbon and related
414 | tracers is represented including prognostic formulations for marine production, a seafloor
415 | sediment, and a dynamic global vegetation model. This model is relatively cost-efficient
416 | compared to CMIP5 models. It is used to evaluate the order of magnitude of pH reductions
417 | associated with past abrupt climate change by analysing results from freshwater hosing
418 | experiments (Bryan 1986; Marchal et al., 1999; Matsumoto and Yokoyama, 2013) .

419

420 | Concerning the subset of CMIP5 models, we selected models for which 3D pH fields were
421 | available and that had been part of a published multi-model evaluation (Bopp et al., 2013).
422 | We analyse output for four future atmospheric CO₂ concentration scenarios (RCP), along with
423 | the corresponding pre-industrial control simulations, piControl. The nomenclature follows
424 | CMIP5 recommendations. Historical simulations cover the period between 1870 and 2005
425 | and are followed by climate change scenarios according to RCP8.5, RCP6.0, RCP4.5 and
426 | RCP2.6 from 2006 to 2100 (Van Vuuren et al., 2011; Moss et al., 2010). RCP identifiers refer
427 | to the additional radiative forcing as target for 2150 AD in the Integrated Assessment Models
428 | used to derive the RCP scenarios: RCP2.6, RCP4.5, RCP6.0 and RCP8.5 with corresponding
429 | atmospheric CO₂ levels of 421, 538, 670 and 936 ppm. Individual RCPs differ with respect to
430 | the temporal evolution of atmospheric CO₂ and range from a stringent emission mitigation
431 | RCP2.6 to the high-CO₂ scenario RCP8.5. The complete set of RCPs was not available for all

432 models. Please refer to Table S1 (supporting material) for model name, scenario and
433 references.

434 **2.2 Deep-sea ecosystems**

435 This study uses datasets of seamounts (Yesson et al., 2011) and canyons (Harris and
436 Whiteway, 2011). For seamounts, these data include location, height and surface assuming a
437 conical shape. For canyons, the data consist of a high-resolution vector database of canyon
438 centre lines that was converted into a raster dataset of canyon presence (using ArcGIS v10)
439 for analysis. Data were projected on a 1°x1° regular grid.

440 **2.3 Post-treatment of model output and data**

441 **2.3.1 Post-treatment of CMIP5 model output**

442 Model output is interpolated on a regular grid of 1°x1° resolution. Anomalies are computed as
443 the difference between the decade 2090-2099 and the long-term mean of the pre-industrial
444 state. As the focus of this study is on impacts on benthic communities, we quantify pH
445 changes in the deepest model box over a topography range from 500 m to > 4500 m water
446 depth.

447 **2.3.2 Computation of the area of seamounts for impact assessment**

448 The area of North Atlantic seafloor impacted by ocean acidification is estimated on the basis
449 of individual grid cells for which the reduction in pH exceeded ≥ 0.2 or 0.3 units. The
450 impacted area follows as the integral of the area of these 1°x1° grid cells. The area of
451 seamounts with a pH reduction ≥ 0.2 or 0.3 units is computed based on distribution and height
452 assuming a conical shape (Danovaro et al., 2008, Yesson et al., 2011). The database provides
453 height above seafloor and base area. The area of the seamount (A) is given by:

$$454 \quad A = \pi r^2 \sqrt{r^2 + (h+h')^2} \quad \text{_____}(1)$$

455 where, r is the base radius of the seamount and h+h' is the height. The height impacted by a
456 pH reduction exceeding the threshold (h') is diagnosed from the depth of the pH anomaly
457 corresponding to the threshold. The radius of the seamount at the depth of the anomaly (r') is
458 obtained from the Thales theorem:

459 $\frac{r'}{r} = \frac{h'}{h}$ (2)

460 as: $r' = \frac{h'}{h} r$ (3)

461 The final expression of r' is the positive analytical solution of the fourth-order polynomial

462 $\frac{A^2}{p^2} = \frac{h^2}{h'^2} r'^2 \left(\frac{h^2}{h'^2} r'^2 + (h+h')^2 \right)$ (4)

463 as: $r' = \pm \frac{h'}{h} \left[\frac{1}{2} \left(-1 \pm \sqrt{\frac{4A^2}{p^2 h^2}} \right) \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$ (5)

464 The impacted area of the seamount (A^*) follows from the depth of pH anomaly as a function
465 of seamount height:

466 $A^* p \frac{h'}{h} \left[\frac{1}{2} \left(-1 + \sqrt{\frac{4A^2}{p^2 h^2}} \right) \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(h'^2 + \frac{h'^2}{h^2} \left[\frac{1}{2} \left(-1 + \sqrt{\frac{4A^2}{p^2 h^2}} \right) \right] \right)$ (6)

467 where A is the total surface area of the seamount.

468

469 3 Results and discussion

470 3.1 Environmental stability and critical threshold for pH reduction

471 Considering that environmental stability might impair the potential for acclimation, we
472 assessed pH changes over glacial-interglacial time scales and for past events of rapid climate
473 changes recognized for having driven major reorganizations in North Atlantic circulation and
474 carbonate chemistry.

475 The pH is defined as the negative logarithm of the hydrogen ion concentration ($[H^+]$). From
476 the basic properties of logarithms it follows that the difference in pH equals the logarithm of
477 the ratio of hydrogen ion concentrations. For a given pH change, the change in $[H^+]$, $\Delta[H^+]$, is
478 a linear function of the initial hydrogen ion concentration ($[H^+]_i$) as

479 $\Delta[H^+] = [H^+]_i ((1/10^{\Delta pH}) - 1)$. Hence, the larger the initial $[H^+]$, the larger the perturbation
480 (Fig. S1). Contrasting shallow and deep environments highlights that absolute changes in $[H^+]$
481 are amplified at depth for any threshold, that is for environments of low natural variability.

482 3.1.1 Glacial-interglacial time-scales

483 The paleo-record permits evaluation of environmental variability of the deep-ocean over the
484 past million years. Available evidence indicates a low variability over this time interval
485 (Elderfield et al., 2012; Yu et al., 2010; Yu et al., 2013). Changes in carbonate chemistry were
486 small in the deep-ocean compared to surface layers (Yu et al., 2010). Recent studies re-
487 evaluated deep-water pH changes between glacial to present (Sanyal et al., 1995), arguing that
488 carbonate compensation kept deep-water pH close to constant (Hönisch et al., 2008). We use
489 data available in Yu et al. (2010) (and associated supplementary material) and follow their
490 reasoning to infer DIC changes from $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and hence alkalinity, to compute associated
491 changes in pH for sediment core BOFS 8K (52.5 N, 22.1 W, 4,045 m). This pH change is
492 computed using CO2sys (<http://cdiac.ornl.gov/oceans/co2rprt.html>) with alkalinity and DIC
493 as input variables, along with temperature, depth, phosphate and silicate as (Yu et al., 2010).
494 We estimate a pH reduction of ~ 0.1 pH units for North Atlantic deep-water over the early
495 deglacial (17,500 to 14,500 years before present).

496 3.1.2 Rapid events associated with fresh-water release: Heinrich and 497 Dansgaard Oeschger events

498 Model experiments yield maximum pH reductions in North Atlantic deep-water below 0.15
499 pH units in response to a shut-down of the North Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation
500 (AMOC, Fig. 1). To realize an abrupt shutdown of the AMOC different durations of
501 freshwater perturbations in the North Atlantic on top of a pre-industrial steady state have been
502 tested releasing in total 3×10^{15} m³ freshwater (~ 9 m sea level equivalent). In terms of pH
503 changes in the North Atlantic region, the experiment with a 300 yr lasting freshwater forcing
504 of 0.33 Sv results in the strongest response (Fig. 1(a)). In these experiments, the cause of the
505 pH decrease is not high atmospheric CO₂ (CO₂ only increases a few ppm during the
506 freshwater experiment), but is mainly a result of the decrease in deep ocean ventilation. This
507 leads to the additional accumulation of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) by the respiration of
508 organic matter. Although alkalinity is also increased in the deep by the dissolution of
509 carbonate particles settling through the water column, it does not compensate the increase in
510 DIC leading to more acidic waters in the deep. The most extreme negative excursion of the
511 pH averaged over the deep (below 2000 m) Northern Atlantic (45° N – 65° N) occurs ~ 150
512 years after the end of the freshwater forcing with a decrease of ~ 0.13 pH units relative to the
513 unperturbed pre-industrial state (Fig. 1(b)). The pH-decrease does not exceed -0.18 pH units

514 in any of the individual grid boxes. In Figure 1 (c) and (d) the spatial distribution of the pH-
515 reduction averaged over years 400-450 (i.e., during the maximum of the pH decrease) is
516 shown in terms of pH anomalies at the seafloor and in a section through the Atlantic at
517 38.5°W.

518 3.1.3 Critical threshold for pH reductions

519 For the purpose of evaluating the potential for negative impacts on deep-sea benthic
520 environments, a critical threshold for pH reduction needs to be identified. Reductions of pH
521 exceeding the envelope set by past and present natural variability are considered as critical.
522 Paleo-evidence suggests that the deep-sea fauna has evolved under conditions of
523 environmental variability confined to a narrow range over the past million years (Yu et al.,
524 2010; Elderfield et al., 2012). Many past episodes of climate change occurred over
525 significantly longer time-scales than the current anthropogenic perturbation of the climate
526 system, allowing carbonate compensation to keep deep-water pH close to constant (Hönisch
527 et al., 2008). This is corroborated by computing pH reduction over glacial-interglacial cycles
528 for a North Atlantic site. Decadal-to-centennial changes are addressed by fresh-water hosing
529 model experiments to simulate effects of circulation changes associated with rapid Heinrich
530 and Dansgaard Oeschger events. In both cases, pH reductions are below 0.15 pH units.
531 Similarly, small amplitude natural temporal pH variability at depth emerges
532 from a multi-annual time series stations (González-Dávila et al., 2010) and the analysis of the
533 long pre-industrial simulation “piControl” (Fig. S2 in the Supplement). In summary, natural
534 pH variations on multi-annual, decadal-to-century, and longer time scales were likely smaller
535 than 0.2 pH units on the regional-to-basin scale in the deep Atlantic and at least for the past
536 million years. This suggests that pH variations of up to 0.1 to 0.2 pH units do not present a
537 risk for marine life.

538 ~~Past episodes of climate change mostly occurred over significantly longer time-scales than~~
539 ~~the current anthropogenic perturbation of the climate system, allowing carbonate~~
540 ~~compensation to keep deep-water pH close to constant (Hönisch et al, 2008). This is~~
541 ~~corroborated by computing pH reduction over glacial-interglacial cycles for a North Atlantic~~
542 ~~site, as well as by model experiments simulating effects the fresh-water hosing associated~~
543 ~~with a rapid Heinrich and Dansgaard Oeschger events. In both cases, pH reductions are below~~
544 ~~0.15 pH units. Similarly, a small amplitude of natural temporal pH variability at depth~~

545 | ~~emerges from a multi-annual time series stations (González-Dávila et al., 2010) and the~~
546 | ~~analysis of the long pre-industrial simulation “piControl” (Fig. S1).~~

547

548 This leads us to define two thresholds for pH reduction between pre-industrial and the end of
549 the 21st century: -0.2 and -0.3 pH units. Both stand for pH reductions exceeding paleo-record-
550 based estimates of changes in North Atlantic deep-water chemistry over the past ten-thousand
551 years, as well as being much larger than the amplitude of natural temporal variability of pH in
552 the deep North Atlantic (González-Dávila et al., 2010). The first threshold (-0.2) is in line
553 with recommendations by environmental agencies (Schubert et al., 2006) following the
554 precautionary principle, and is reported to increase mortality of deep-sea benthic organisms
555 during in-situ exposure experiments (Barry et al., 2005). The second threshold (-0.3) allows to
556 bracket a range of changes spanning from a ~58% increase in hydrogen ion concentration up
557 to ~100%.

558

559 **3.2 Projections of pH reductions over the 21st century**

560 Time-series of atmospheric CO₂ (ppm) for three out of four IPCC RCP scenarios between
561 2006 and 2100 show an increase in CO₂ over this century, only RCP2.6 does not show a
562 general increase with time (Fig. 2 (a)). The corresponding simulated pH reductions for surface
563 and deep North Atlantic waters are presented on Fig. 2(a), respectively Fig. 2 (c). Projected
564 pH changes are indicated as multi-model mean along with the between-model spread.
565 Monitoring at time series stations reveals that the observed surface ocean pH decreases tracks
566 increasing atmospheric pCO₂ (Orr, 2011). This trend is confirmed by the decline in simulated
567 surface ocean pH (Fig. 2(b)) with a small between-model spread. In the surface ocean the
568 extent of ocean acidification is set by the atmospheric CO₂ trajectory, along with physical
569 climate change, namely warming and associated changes in ocean circulation and CO₂
570 thermodynamic properties. Surface waters, with high levels of dissolved anthropogenic CO₂
571 and characterised by low pH values, are entrained to the interior ocean during seasonal mixed
572 layer deepening and deep convection episodes. As a result, deep pH changes (Fig. 2 (c))
573 reflect atmospheric CO₂ to a lesser extent. Because the deep water formation differs between
574 models, the inter-model spread is significantly larger in deep waters than for the surface
575 ocean.

576

577 The spatial pattern of pH reductions is exemplified for RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 in Figure 3 (see
578 supplementary material, Fig. S23, for RCP2.6 and RCP6.0). Under RCP4.5 (Fig. 3(a) and
579 RCP8.5 (Fig. 3(b)), pH reductions crossing the -0.2 threshold are projected for continental
580 slopes and a latitudinal band extending from 55°N to 65°N. Since the pH perturbation
581 originates at the sea-surface, the continental slope and topographic heights (e.g. mid-Atlantic
582 ridge) experience the largest pH reductions. Increasing impact on the sea floor between
583 RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 for a threshold of -0.2 reflects the depth exposure to the pH perturbation
584 of continental slopes and the mid-Atlantic ridge. In summary, the spatial pattern is set by a
585 combination of topography and North Atlantic circulation pathways. It reflects, that is the
586 transfer of the surface born anomaly of pH to the ocean interior during deep water formation
587 and downstream transport away from convection sites by the deep western boundary current.

588

589 By the end of the twenty-first century, projected pH reductions (Table 1) cross the -0.2
590 threshold for all scenarios, but RCP2.6. For RCP2.6, deep-water pH reductions remain below
591 thresholds with likely limited impact on benthic environments. Under moderate RCP4.5, a
592 decrease in pH beyond -0.2 units is projected for large areas of the North Atlantic with about
593 16.7±4.2% of the sea floor area below 500 m being impacted. This estimate increases to
594 21.0±4.4% of the North Atlantic sea floor area under the most severe scenario (RCP8.5) and
595 is still 14.0±3.3% of the sea floor for a threshold of -0.3. The area impacted does not scale
596 linearly with atmospheric CO₂ (Table 1), but levels off at higher RCPs for threshold -0.2. The
597 -0.3 pH unit threshold (a 100% increase of [H⁺]) is not reached for RCP4.5 and only modest
598 impacts are projected for RCP6.0 (Table 1). We expect, however, an increase in impacted
599 area for all scenarios and pH thresholds beyond 2100 in response to legacy effects of CO₂
600 emissions and ongoing downward propagation of the pH perturbation (Frölicher and Joos,
601 2010).

602

603 3.2.1 Opposing effects of climate change and ocean acidification

604

605 The progression from RCP2.6 to RCP8.5 corresponds to a series of increasing geochemical
606 (atmospheric pCO₂) and physical (climate change, defined here as changes in ocean dynamics

607 | [in response to atmospheric warming](#)) forcing with opposing effects on deep ocean
608 acidification.

609 In order to distinguish between the physical and geochemical drivers of North Atlantic deep-
610 water acidification, we assessed two contrasting simulations available for two Earth system
611 models (GFDL-ESM2M and IPSL-CM5A-LR) for RCP4.5. The first simulation (Fig. 4 (a)
612 includes climate change effects on ocean circulation and geochemical effects on the seawater
613 CO₂ system in response to atmospheric pCO₂ increase (RCP4.5). In the second experiment
614 (Fig. 4(b)), the circulation and ocean physics are kept at pre-industrial conditions, but
615 atmospheric CO₂ levels following RCP4.5 are used to force ocean acidification
616 (RCP4.5/fixclim). The difference in pH between RCP4.5 and RCP4.5/fixclim (Fig. 4(c))
617 allows, at first order and within the limits of non-linearities (Schwinger et al., 2014), isolation
618 of the effect of climate change on pH changes. The negative differences in pH on panel (c)
619 indicate stronger acidification in RCP4.5/fixclim, and suggest a slight alleviation of ocean
620 acidification at depth and over the time-scale of this study by climate-change. In the
621 experiment where ocean circulation was held at pre-industrial condition (RCP4.5/fixclim)
622 there was a small increase in the area impacted by pH reductions for all thresholds (Table 1).
623 Largest differences in projected pH values between RCP4.5/fixclim and RCP4.5 co-occur
624 with large negative anomalies in winter mixed layer depth maxima in the Labrador Sea and
625 negative pH anomalies downstream of convection sites following the deep western boundary
626 current (Doney and Jenkins, 1994). This is in line with the projected enhancement of
627 stratification across the North Atlantic in response to increasing temperatures and freshening.
628 It will result in changes in winter mixed layer depth, deep convection and a decrease in the
629 Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (Mehl et al., 2007; Cheng et al., 2013). While
630 increasing atmospheric CO₂ reduces pH, increasing climate change reduces surface-to-deep
631 water exchange. In addition, topography modulates the extent of deep-water acidification. The
632 combination of climate-change, the non-linearities of the carbonate system and topography
633 explains the levelling-off of impacts in Table 1 for pH reductions exceeding -0.2.

634 3.2.2 Projected impacts on ecosystems

635

636 In order to evaluate the risk for specific benthic ecosystems to be affected by pH reductions,
637 we co-located seamounts (Figure 3, black dots) and deep-sea canyons (Figure 3, red dots) -

638 both of which are key habitats of high biodiversity - and pH changes for RCP4.5 and RCP8.5
639 separately computed from the multi-model mean (see supplementary material for RCP2.6 and
640 RCP6.0). To further the evaluation of potential impacts of pH reductions beyond pH
641 thresholds, we computed the area of seamounts for which a corresponding decrease is
642 projected. A significant proportion of these habitats will be impacted by pH reductions
643 exceeding -0.2 units by the end of the 21st century under moderate to high emission scenarios
644 (Fig. 5). The geographic pattern results in close to 22.5±5.3% (14.7±4.1%) of North Atlantic
645 deep-sea canyons and 7.7±3.6% (2.7±0.9%) of seamount ecosystems being exposed to pH
646 reductions exceeding -0.2 (-0.3) units under RCP8.5. Under the moderate scenario, RCP4.5,
647 model projections indicate that 21.8±6.0% of deep-sea canyons and 5.0±1.6% of seamounts
648 still will experience pH reductions exceeding the -0.2 threshold. The close to constant impact
649 reflects the use of a diagnostic that is based on counts of features being impacted, in addition
650 to the depth distribution and propagation of the pH anomaly.

651

652 Seamounts and deep-sea canyons are known as hotspots of biodiversity and harbour a variety
653 of distinct communities including reef-building cold-water corals, soft coral gardens and
654 deep-sea sponge aggregations ([Buhl-Mortensen et al., 2010, 2012](#); Clark et al., 2010; De Leo
655 et al., 2010; ICES, 2007). Recent assessments reveal a high level of anthropogenic pressures
656 on these ecosystems (Clark et al., 2010, Ramirez-Llodra et al., 2011). While fishing and
657 resource extraction are recognized as the dominant human pressures at present and in the near
658 future, expert assessments highlight the need for an appropriate quantification of the impacts
659 of climate change and ocean acidification (Taranto et al., 2012). Present international
660 conservation targets aim at preserving 10% of marine biomes by 2020 (CBD, 2011).
661 Although not directly comparable to the outcome of model projections, it is nevertheless of
662 interest to confront this preservation target with model results suggesting that ~ 8% of North
663 Atlantic seamounts and 23% of canyons will experience a decrease in pH exceeding 0.2 pH
664 units by the year 2100 for the most severe scenario. Seamounts identified as marine protection
665 areas in the OSPAR region and excluding active venting sites (e.g. Josephine seamount,
666 36°40.02'N 14°15.00'W; Sedlo seamount, 40°12.8'N 26°15.8'W) fall within the area for which
667 these pH reductions are projected.

668

669 Our knowledge of the ecology of deep benthic communities is still limited and impacts of pH
670 changes on these communities are difficult to evaluate owing to lack of experimental and
671 observational data. Whatever acclimation to rapid changes in pH are required for deep-sea
672 organisms, they will often lead to increased energetic costs (Widdicombe and Spicer, 2008) –
673 e.g. for metabolism/maintenance, growth, reproduction – and could extend to increases in
674 mortality of both adults and juveniles. These effects may be likely exacerbated in the presence
675 of other stressors (Walther et al., 2009), such as global warming and projected reductions in
676 deep-sea food supply (Bopp et al., 2013), as well as elevated resource exploitation and
677 pollution. In particular, reductions in food supply to deep benthic communities are projected
678 to result in a decrease in biomass and a shift towards smaller sized organisms (Jones et al.,
679 2013). These changes will modify energy transfer rates through benthic food webs and may
680 leave communities more susceptible to pH reductions. Changes at the individual and
681 population level will inevitably lead to more widespread ecosystem and community level
682 changes and potential shifts in biodiversity (Hendriks et al., 2010) and ecosystem functioning
683 (Danovaro et al., 2008). We propose these and future model projections to be taken into
684 account when defining long-term preservation and management approaches to deep-sea
685 ecosystems. Our knowledge of the ecology of deep benthic communities is still limited and
686 impacts of pH changes on these communities are difficult to evaluate owing to lack of
687 experimental and observational data. Rapid changes in pH will likely lead to disruption of
688 extracellular acid-base balance, impedance of calcification and other physiological effects in
689 deep-water organisms, and whatever acclimation is required may have increased energetic
690 costs (Widdicombe and Spicer, 2008) – e.g. for metabolism/maintenance, growth,
691 reproduction – and could extend to increases in mortality of both adults and juveniles.
692 Changes at the individual and population level will inevitably lead to more widespread
693 ecosystem and community level changes and potential shifts in biodiversity (Hendriks et al.,
694 2010) and ecosystem functioning (Danovaro et al., 2008). Biodiversity reductions could arise
695 from a loss of species, functional, or even taxonomic groups sensitive to pH change. The
696 ecological implications of pH change could be more severe if keystone or habitat-forming
697 species are impacted (Widdicombe and Spicer, 2008), which seems likely (Guinotte et al.,
698 2006). These effects may be likely exacerbated in the presence of other stressors (Walther et
699 al., 2009), such as global warming and projected reductions in deep-sea food supply (Bopp et
700 al., 2013), as well as elevated resource exploitation and pollution. In particular, reductions in
701 food supply to deep benthic communities are projected to result in a decrease in biomass and

702 [a shift towards smaller sized organisms \(Jones et al., 2013\). These changes will modify](#)
703 [energy transfer rates through benthic food webs and may leave communities more susceptible](#)
704 [to pH reductions. We propose these and future model projections to be taken into account](#)
705 [when defining long-term preservation and management approaches to deep-sea ecosystems.](#)

706

707 **4 Conclusions**

708 This study assesses the potential for detrimental pH reduction to occur across the deep North
709 Atlantic by the end of the 21st century. It evaluates results from seven fully-coupled Earth
710 system models and for four representative concentration pathways ranging from RCP2.6 to
711 RCP8.5. In three out of the four scenarios, the multi-model analysis suggests that by 2100
712 over 17% of the seafloor area below 500m depth in the North Atlantic sector will experience
713 pH reductions exceeding -0.2 units. Enhanced stratification in response to warming and
714 freshening of surface waters slightly counteracts deep-water acidification. pH reductions co-
715 occur with sites of high deep-sea biodiversity such as seamounts and canyons. Model
716 projections indicate that by the end of this century and for the high CO₂ scenario RCP8.5,
717 close to 23% (~15%) of North Atlantic deep-sea canyons and ~8% (3%) of seamounts will
718 experience pH reductions exceeding -0.2 (-0.3) units. Seamounts proposed as sites of marine
719 protected areas are concerned by these pH reductions. The spatial pattern of impacts reflects
720 the depth of the pH perturbation and did not scale linearly with atmospheric CO₂
721 concentration. Impacts may cause negative changes of the same magnitude or exceeding the
722 current biodiversity target of 10% of preservation of marine biomes implying that ocean
723 acidification may offset benefits from conservation/management strategies relying on the
724 regulation of resource exploitation.

725

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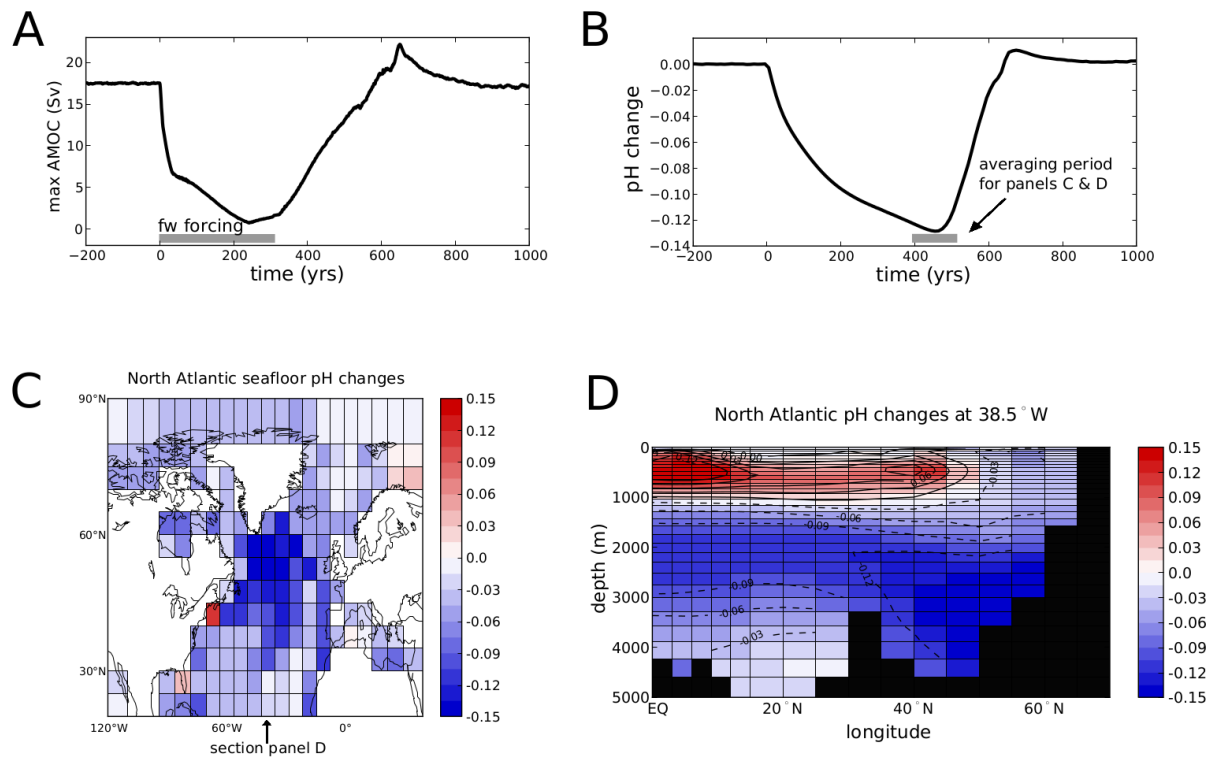
929 Table 1. Fraction of North Atlantic seafloor (35°N-75°N, 90°W-180°W) below 500 m
 930 experiencing a reduction in pH ≥ 0.2 , respectively ≥ 0.3 at the end of the 21st century.
 931 Fractions for multi-model mean and standard deviation are given in percentage of impacted
 932 surface area relative to the total surface seafloor area of the North Atlantic sector. n=number
 933 of simulations available at time of analysis for each RCP

934

	n	pH reduction ≥ 0.2		pH reduction ≥ 0.3	
		mean (%)	std (%)	mean (%)	std (%)
RCP2.6	6	1.2	1.1	0.0	0.1
RCP4.5	7	16.7	4.2	0.6	0.5
RCP4.5/fixclim	2	18.1	n.a	0.8	n.a
RCP6.0	4	19.9	5.0	4.4	1.5
RCP8.5	7	21.0	4.4	14.0	3.3

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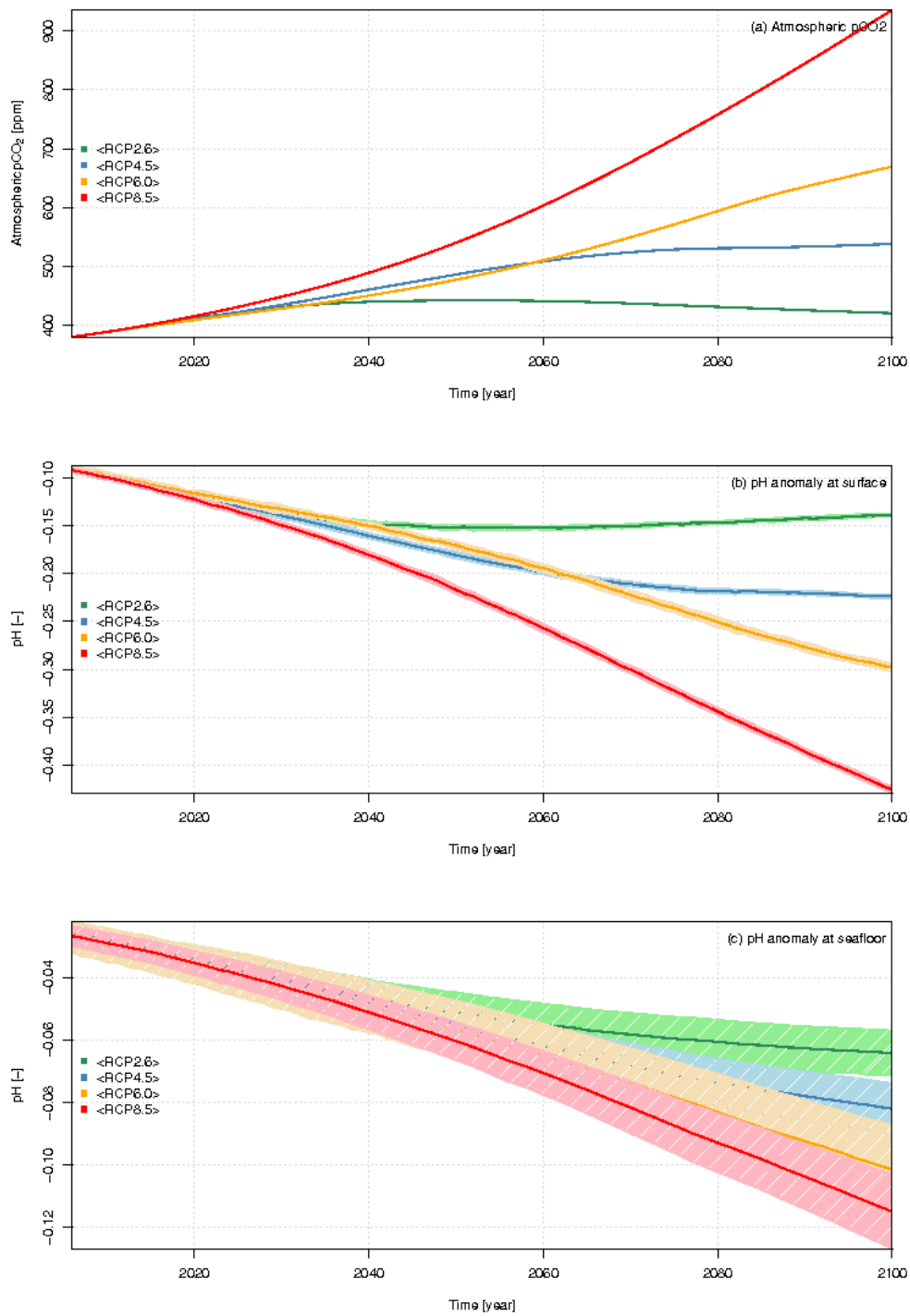


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939 Figure 1. North Atlantic freshwater hosing experiment. (a) Time series of strength of Atlantic
 940 Meridional Overturning Circulation (Sv), freshwater release occurred over 300 years (grey
 941 bar); (b) times series of pH change relative to pre-industrial averaged over the deep (below
 942 2000 m) Northern Atlantic (45° N – 65° N); (c) spatial distribution of the pH-reduction
 943 averaged over experiment years 400-450 (grey bar on panel (b)) in terms of pH anomalies
 944 relative to pre-industrial at the seafloor and (d) in a section through the Atlantic at 38.5°W.

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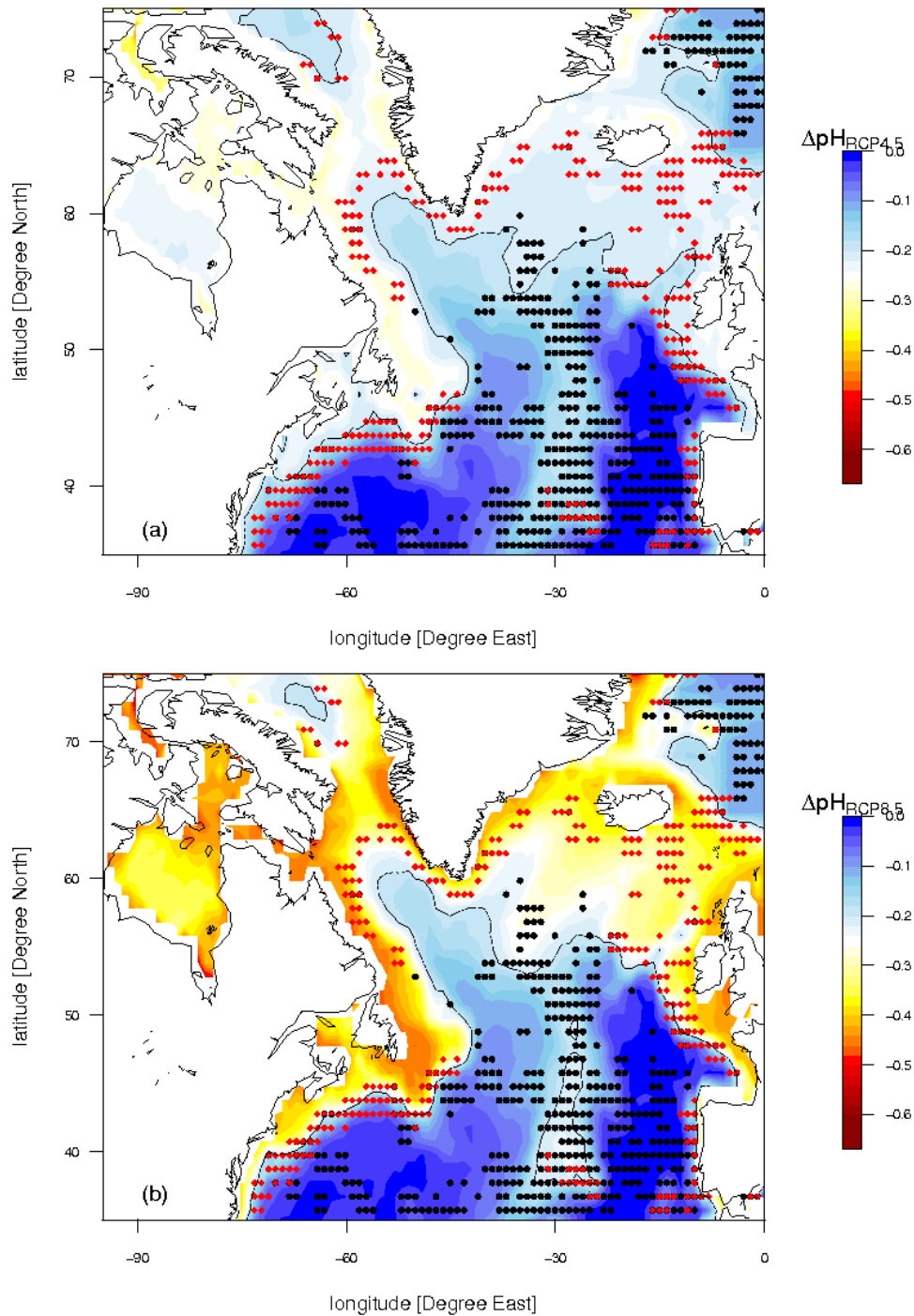
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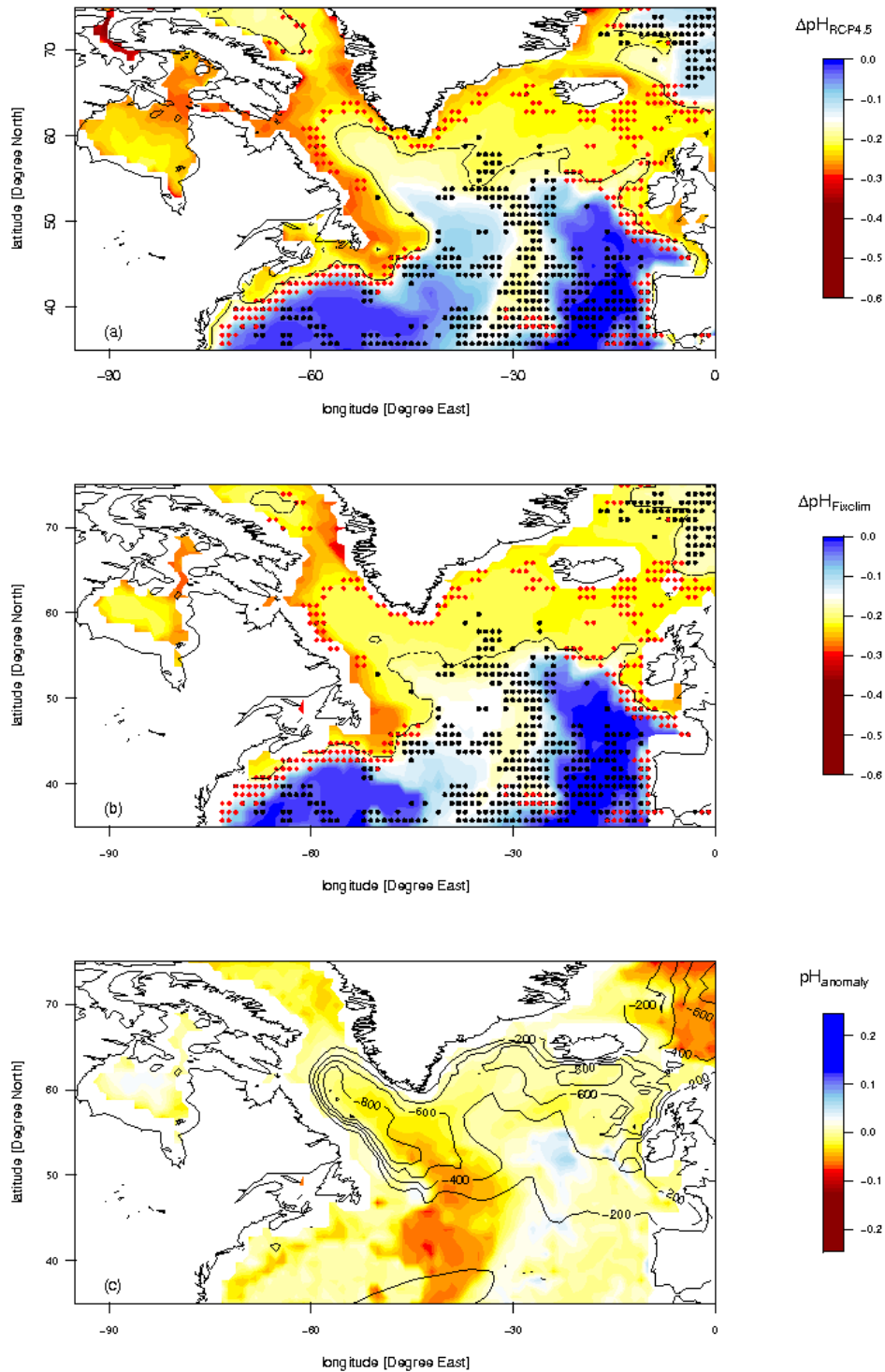
948 Figure 2. Time-series of (a) atmospheric CO₂ (ppm) for RCP2.6, RCP4.5, RCP6.0 and
 949 RCP8.5 scenarios between 2006 and 2100 and corresponding simulated average North
 950 Atlantic pH changes relative to the pre-industrial mean for (b) surface waters and (c) deep
 951 waters. Hatching indicates the 2.5%-97.5% confidence interval of multi-model averages.

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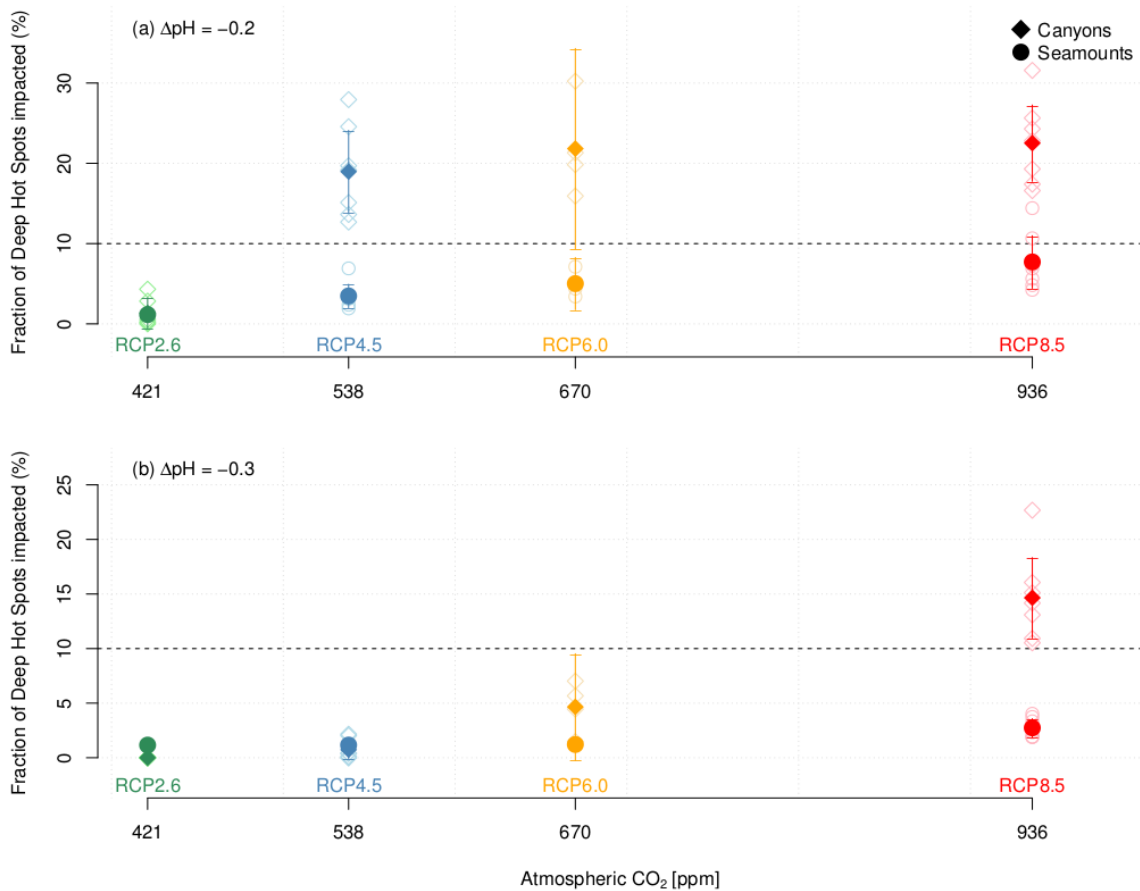
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954 Figure 3. Projected changes in pH between pre-industrial and the experiments forced by IPCC
 955 RCP scenarios by 2100. The panels show ensemble-mean differences in pH between the pre-
 956 industrial and the 2090-2100 average for (a) RCP4.5 and (b) RCP8.5. Locations of deep-sea
 957 canyons and seamounts are indicated as red and black symbols, respectively. The -0.2 pH
 958 contour line is plotted to delineate areas experiencing pH reductions beyond this threshold.



960 Figure 4. Projected changes in deep ocean pH between pre-industrial and experiments forced
 961 with RCP scenarios by 2100: (a) RCP4.5, (b) RCP4.5/fixclim, (c) difference in pH between
 962 (a) and (b) together with changes in maximum winter mixed layer depth (contour lines). The

963 change in pH is computed as the difference in mean pH between the pre-industrial and the
 964 2090-2100 average



966

967 Figure 5. Projected impacts on seamounts (circles) and canyons (diamonds) as a function of
 968 atmospheric CO₂ levels by year 2100 for pH reductions exceeding (a) -0.2 and (b) -0.3.
 969 Impact is computed as the fraction of the surface area affected by a reduction exceeding the
 970 threshold for seamounts, respectively as the number of canyons surrounded by waters for
 971 which the reduction in pH exceeding the threshold is projected. Model pH is the decadal mean
 972 (2090-2100). Note that the seamount and canyon multi-model averages for the RCP2.6
 973 scenario overlay each other. Light coloured circles: values obtained for each Earth system
 974 model; dark coloured circles: multi-model average for each scenario. Vertical and horizontal
 975 bars: 2.5%-97.5% confidence interval of multi-model averages.

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