

## GENERAL COMMENTS

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I thank the authors for responding to my previous remarks in their revised manuscript. Largely the changes that they have made are satisfactory. They have fixed equation (2), using variances instead of standard deviations. They have also changed their figures to show variances rather than standard deviations.

We thank the referee again for the careful review, which lead to substantial improvement of our manuscript.

Furthermore, they now go beyond just mentioning the mean state, touching on how results change when that is included in the analysis. Unfortunately, their demonstration of the importance of the mean state comes too late and is too brief. Appearing only as a glimpse in the middle of the Discussion section, many readers may well miss it. I think it should be expanded upon further and presented in the first part of the Results section. Right now it seems to come as only an afterthought in the Discussion, a peculiar place given that it is the change in the mean state that is the dominant factor controlling the change in actual extreme events for both  $[H^+]$  and  $\Omega A$ .

We now present the results of extremes relative to a fixed baseline at the beginning of the results section (section 3.1) and have expanded the associated paragraph. Furthermore, we now included these results in the abstract and added a paragraph to the introduction that outlines the different existing definitions of extremes and added relevant references:

“Changes in extremes can arise from changes in the mean, variability, or shape of the probability distribution (Coles, 2001). There exists no general accepted definition of an extreme event beyond the common understanding that an extreme is rare (Pörtner et al., 2019). As a result, many different approaches exist to define extreme events (Smith, 2011). If a relative threshold (e.g. quantile) is used to define an extreme event, it is important to distinguish between extreme events that are defined with respect to a fixed reference period or baseline, or if the reference period or baseline moves with time. If the baseline is fixed, the changes in the mean state as well as changes in variability and higher moments of the distribution contribute to changes in extreme events (e.g. Fischer and Knutti 2015; Frölicher et al. 2018, Oliver 2018). However, if a shifting baseline is used, changes in the mean state do not contribute to changes in extreme events (Stephenson, 2008; Seneviratne et al., 2012; Zscheischler and Seneviratne, 2017; Cheung and Frölicher, 2020; Vogel et al., 2020). In this case, changes in extremes arise solely due to changes in variability and higher moments of the distribution (Oliver et al., 2019). This latter definition ensures that values are not considered extreme solely because the baseline changes under climate change (Jacox, 2019; Oliver et al., 2019). Whether extreme events should be defined with respect to a fixed baseline or with respect to a shifting baseline depends on the scientific question. For example, the shifting-baseline approach may be more appropriate when the ecosystems under consideration are likely able to adapt to the mean changes, but not to changes in variability (Seneviratne et al., 2012; Oliver et al., 2019). Here, we use both approaches, with a special focus on the analysis of ocean acidity extremes with respect to shifting baselines.”

In an attempt to fix previous confusion, another reviewer suggested that the authors should generally replace "extreme event" with "extreme variability event", and the authors have complied. Although well intentioned, when I read the revised manuscript, the ambiguity of this term, or rather what the authors mean by it, seems to stand out. While "variability" refers to an oscillation over a given period involving both highs and lows, "extreme event" refers to the time or times at which a high or low threshold is surpassed.

A search with Google Scholar reveals no precedent for use of "extreme variability event" in climate science. Although it has been used in astrophysics in several published papers, the meaning is different. It is only used to refer to events with high variability. It is never used, in any field as far as I can tell, to refer to a maximum or a minimum generated by that variability crossing a upper or lower limit (after removal of the mean), i.e., the meaning intended by the authors. Due to this confusion and lack of precedent, that term should be avoided here. More careful wording is still needed.

We carefully revised all sentences that used this expression. In the newly written paragraph of the introduction, we present the different existing definitions of extreme events. Previous studies defined extreme events either relative to a fixed or shifting baseline, e.g. IPCC Special Report on Extremes (Seneviratne et al. 2012) or Jacox (2019). Therefore, the term 'extreme events' was used when using a fixed baseline as well as when using a shifting baseline. To avoid any confusion, we now clearly state throughout the manuscript including the subsection headers, if extremes are defined to a fixed or shifting baseline. We also reduced the usage of the term 'extreme event' to the necessary minimum.

Unfortunately to fix this ambiguity is not so simple. Sentences and sometimes full paragraphs will need to be revised on a case-by-case basis. In the specific comments below, I give a couple of examples of how the authors could rewrite a sentence (L33-34) and a paragraph (L346-352) to avoid this confusing 3-word term. Other specific comments also address how to improve some related passages, while elsewhere I leave it to the authors make the relevant improvements.

We thank the reviewer for providing us some concrete suggestions on how to rewrite the sentences. We have carefully revised the entire manuscript.

Overall then, I recommend that the revised manuscript be further improved by expanding on the section concerning relative importance of the changing mean state, moving that expanded subsection up to the beginning of the Results section, and clarifying all passages where the authors currently used "extreme variability event" or similar ambiguous terminology (see specific comments).

We followed the reviewers' recommendations by expanding the discussion of acidity extremes defined with respect to a fixed baseline, by moving this section to the beginning of the results section, and by improving the terminology. We also added a paragraph to the introduction that embeds our extreme event definitions (fixed and shifting baseline) in the existing literature.

## SPECIFIC COMMENTS

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### GLOBAL changes:

- In some places the authors still use "daily" instead of "daily mean" (e.g., L133, 134, 159) Changed in L133, L134, additionally in L217, L258, L496, L506, L507 (previous manuscript version), and in the caption of figure 1. We haven't found the word 'daily' on L. 159.

- replace "GFDL ESM2M" with "the GFDL ESM2M model". Added clarity is needed at least for non-modelers. Readers tend to skip around in a paper and may well miss the original definition. Changed throughout the manuscript.

### TITLE

I am confused by the title. The use of "extremes" appears misleading because the paper does not actually focus on extreme events.

We think that using the term 'extremes' is appropriate. Extremes can be defined relative to a fixed or shifting baseline. This has been described and highlighted in several IPCC reports including

chapter 3 of the IPCC Special Report on Managing the Risks of Extreme Events and Disasters to Advance Climate Change Adaptation (SREX; Seneviratne et al. 2012). We added a new paragraph to the introduction to clarify the terminology, but kept the word in the title.

## ABSTRACT

L1: I'd suggest to change "extremely" to "relatively". The sentence then becomes more subtle and avoids word repetition.

Changed.

L2-3: For a clearer and less verbose sentence, I'd suggest to change the last half to "not only due to changes in the long-term mean but also changes in short-term variability."

Changed.

L5: The phrase "changes in variability on variability-driven ocean acidity extreme events" is not clear. A common but wrong interpretation from readers could be how variability contributes to extreme events in the context of the dominant role of the changing mean state. The term "variability-driven ... extreme events" does not clearly indicate that the changes in the mean state are ignored and that the focus is actually not on extreme events but rather changes in extremes generated by variability alone.

We now clarify in the abstract and throughout the manuscript that when extremes are defined with respect to the preindustrial baseline the mean changes are the main reason for changes in extremes. Furthermore, we clarify that mean changes do not contribute to changes in extremes when defining extremes with respect to a shifting baseline. We write "When defining extremes relative to a fixed preindustrial baseline, the projected increase in mean [H<sup>+</sup>] causes the entire surface ocean to reach a near-permanent acidity extreme state by 2030 under both the low and high CO<sub>2</sub> emission scenario. When defining extremes relative to a shifting baseline (i.e., neglecting the changes in mean [H<sup>+</sup>]), ocean acidity extremes are also projected to increase because of the simulated increase in [H<sup>+</sup>] variability, (...)"

L8: same problem as just above with the term "variability driven extreme events"

We now avoid this wording and call them 'extreme events'. In addition, we clarified throughout the manuscript if the extremes are defined to a fixed or shifting baseline.

L10: ambiguous use of "extreme event".

We now clearly state if the extreme events is defined to a fixed or shifting baseline.

L12: change "variability extremes" to something like "the associated increased maxima from that variability alone"

We have now removed the reference to extreme events in this sentence and just write "Increases in H<sup>+</sup> variability arise predominantly from increases in the sensitivity of H<sup>+</sup> to variations in its drivers (i.e., carbon, alkalinity, and temperature) due to the increase in oceanic anthropogenic carbon."

L13-14: This sentence regarding OmegaA is open to misinterpretation due to the ambiguous term "variability driven extremes" and the opposing effects from changes in variability and changes in mean state on actual OmegaA extreme events. As space seems to be lacking to get into enough detail, I would suggest simply to delete this sentence.

We deleted the sentence.

L15: change "will" to "may"

Changed.

## 1. INTRODUCTION:

L23: change "formation of [HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>] from [CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>]" to "conversion of [CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>] to [HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>]"  
Changed.

L33-34:

\* What qualifies as "extremely low"? Would it not be better to say "much lower than usual" because it is the relative difference that matters?

Changed.

\* Does not variability also lead to extremely high values of pH and OmegaA not only low values? As phrased, the statement is one-sided.

Yes, an increase in variability also leads to extremely high values of pH and OmegaA. We now explicitly write that we define extreme events to feature low values: "...during which ocean pH and/or OmegaA are much lower than usual".

The problem is the term "extreme variability events", which implies changes in both highs and lows. While variability refers to oscillation over a given period, "extreme" and "event" refer to a moment in time when a threshold is surpassed (as mentioned in the General Comments). To remedy the problem, I would suggest to change the following sentence from

"Superimposed onto the long-term decadal- to centennial-scale ocean acidification trend are short-term extreme variability events on daily to monthly timescales, during which ocean pH and/or  $\Omega$  are extremely low (...). These events ..."

to something like

"Superimposed onto the long-term trend are lows and highs in pH and  $\Omega$ A that will be modified as short-term variability changes (...). Lows from extreme variability ..."

We thank for pointing out the difficulties with the sentence and rewrote it to: "Superimposed onto the long-term decadal- to centennial-scale ocean acidification trend are short-term extreme events on daily to monthly timescales during which ocean pH and/or OmegaA are much lower than usual". We think that avoiding "extreme variability event" and defining extremes to feature low values solves the problem.

L42: This sentence does not seem to make sense since "extreme variability events" are anomalies relative to a long-term mean and mean pH conditions are not anomalies. Perhaps the authors mean "changes in mean pH"? In any case, "extreme variability events" is ambiguous and should be avoided.

We replaced 'extreme variability events' by 'extreme events'. We now write: "Such extreme events may have pH levels that are much lower than the mean pH conditions projected for the near future (Hofmann et al., 2011)."

L46: change "variability extremes" to "variability". That is, "variability extremes" refers to when variability is high or low but not the min or max generated by that variability (anomaly relative to the mean).

We replaced 'variability extremes' with 'variability and extremes'

L50: delete "events"

We now write “Furthermore, if the frequency and intensity of short-term extreme events strongly increase, ...”.

L51: "saturation" is when  $\Omega_A = 1$ . "Supersaturation" is the word used when  $\Omega_A > 1$ . We changed it to “from calcium carbonate supersaturation to undersaturation”.

L53:

\* insert "ion" after "carbonate"

Done.

\* "several days of aragonite undersaturation" is unclear and open to misinterpretation. Change to "several days of being exposed to waters which are undersaturated with respect to aragonite".

Changed.

L60:

- Please tone it down a bit by changing "of critical importance" to "important"

Changed.

- suggest to change "and the changes therein" to "and how that will change"

Changed.

L75: change "impose changes in" to "affect"

Changed.

## 2 METHODS

### 2.1 MODEL & EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

L120: delete "long"

Changed.

### 2.2 ANALYSIS METHODS

The word "METHODS" seems unnecessary since this subsection is already in the METHODS section.

Changed.

#### 2.2.1 EXTREME EVENT DEFINITION AND CHARACTERIZATION

L132: "sulfate" ions? The authors' definition of the  $[H^+]$  total scale is wrong.

Changed 'sulfate ions' to 'hydrogen sulfate ions'.

L133:

\* change "daily" to "daily mean"

Changed.

\* change from "a one-in-a-hundred days event" to "occurring once every 100 days."

Changed.

L135-136:

\* I do not buy this statement, as written, as justification for using relative thresholds over absolute threshold. Absolute thresholds can be determined as a function of a regionally (or grid-cell) varying baseline (preindustrial conditions here).

Absolute thresholds are, to our knowledge, usually used when referring to a fixed, often global threshold, such as for example a calcium carbonate saturation state of 1. A relative definition of extreme events based on quantiles of the local distributions ensures the same preindustrial event frequency across regions. We clarified: “In contrast to absolute thresholds, relative thresholds, such as those used here, take into account regional differences in the variables mean state, variance, and higher moments. Events that are defined based on relative thresholds have the same occurrence probability across the globe in the period in which they are defined (e.g. preindustrial period; see also Frölicher et al. (2018)).”

\* "statistical properties" is vague.

The term was removed from the manuscript (see above).

L136-138: I don't follow. Biases in simulated variables also alter the definition of model-defined absolute thresholds if they are regionally varying.

We deleted the sentence to avoid confusion.

L138: "extreme events" is ambiguous.

The sentence was removed from the manuscript (see above).

L135-138: It seems that the authors are trying to use the last 4 lines of this paragraph to justify their choice of studying only the effects from variability and ignoring the changes in the mean state, but the text is not clear nor convincing. Moreover, the text only exposes the advantages. The other side of the story is that an analysis of the relative thresholds has little to do with actual "extreme events" (the authors' own term in the last sentence) when changes in the mean state are dominant (the case here for [H+] and  $\Omega_A$ ).

We think that the paragraph was not written in a clear way. The paragraph intended to distinguish extreme events based on relative thresholds from those based on absolute thresholds. Our intention was not to discuss the (dis)advantages of applying a fixed or shifted baseline for the analysis. We clarified: “In contrast to absolute thresholds, relative thresholds, such as those used here, take into account regional differences in the variables mean state, variance, and higher moments. Events that are defined based on relative thresholds have the same occurrence probability across the globe in the period in which they are defined (e.g. preindustrial period; see also Frölicher et al. (2018)).”

### 2.2.3 TAYLOR DECONVOLUTION METHOD TO IDENTIFY MECHANISTIC CONTROLS OF [H+] AND $\Omega_A$ VARIABILITY CHANGES

This 13-word subsection title is too detailed. Please change it to something simpler such as "Taylor expansion". The first sentence of this section provides the more detailed complementary information.

We changed the subsection title to: “Taylor expansion of H+ and OmegaA variability changes”.

L198: twice in this sentence, we see "drivers" modifying a noun. It should actually be "drivers' " because in both cases it is a plural possessive.

Changed.

L199: The sentence "We do so by calculating the full Taylor series ... up to the fifth order." will confuse readers for 2 reasons:

\* no Taylor series is "full" (in practice there is always truncation of higher order terms)

Since Equation 2 is a polynomial of fifth order in the sensitivities, standard deviations, and correlation coefficients, its Taylor series only has five orders (all higher orders are zero). The expression 'full' was intended to express that all non-vanishing orders were taken into account. We

removed the details about the Taylor expansion as it may be rather confusing at this point. See also below.

\* Mentioning an "order" in a sentence about a Taylor series should refer to the order of the Taylor series. But the authors' Taylor series equation is only 1st order. It does not even include terms with 2nd derivatives as needed for a 2nd order Taylor series. After looking at Appendix C, I understand a little more about what the authors might be trying to say, but it would be necessary to separate the two different meanings for "order" in 2 separate sentences. Better yet, avoid all confusion by not even mentioning fifth order here. It is not critical to the text, at least not in this section.

We agree with the reviewer that mentioning orders might lead to confusion in this context since Equation 2 builds on Equation 1 that is a first order Taylor expansion. We removed the reference to 'order' at this point.

L200-204: Appendix C should be mentioned earlier. Its first mention does not come until ten lines later (L214), so readers will struggle trying to make sense out of the authors' introduction of the 4 new terms, which are not so simple after all.

We included a reference to Appendix C in L199 (previous manuscript version, now L225).

L207: Eq 3 is verbose. Eliminating the H+ subscript would be an improvement and make it more general. Making that change would mean that the authors should also generalize parts of the previous text, including for example changing the end of the sentence on line 201 to "overall change in variance for each of H+ and  $\Omega A (\Delta\sigma^2)$ "

While we agree that the formula would be more elegant and easier to read without the subscript, we think that it is more consistent and precise to keep the subscript for two reasons: 1) we denote the drivers variance with the variable name in the subscript and think that it is more consistent to do it the same way for H+ and OmegaA. 2) We decompose variance changes in H+ and in OmegaA in section 3.5. We think that it is easier to distinguish the two from each other when keeping the subscript.

L208-210: This sentence seems out of place. First it mentions Figs 8-10 too early (before Fig. 3 is introduced). More importantly, the concern turns out to be minor since the authors show that the grey and black lines generally agree well. I suggest to move the idea of the agreement to the the caption of Fig. 8 or to the text that discusses the results from those figures.

As suggested we moved the sentence to the caption of Figure 8 (which is now Figure 9).

L212-214: The mathematical terms are becoming even more verbose. Again, removing the H+ subscript would help.

As suggested below, we now also show the contributions to the four terms in Equation 3 arising from AT and CT as well as from AT, CT, and T. To not introduce more symbols, we decided to drop the formalism introduced in L212-214. We now write "We also assess the contributions to the four components from CT alone, from CT and AT, and from CT, AT, and T." Similarly, the corresponding section in appendix C was revised.

## 2.3 MODEL EVALUATION

L227: "co2sys" should be capitalized (all letters).

Changed.

L236: simplify the parenthetical statement to just "(Appendix D)"

Changed.

~L247:

Fig 3 (contents): The Landschutzer data product does not extend all the way up to 90°N. Please modify the label of the northernmost band accordingly. Also the Southern Ocean does not extend all the way down to 90°S.

The labels were changed from 80°N to 75°S.

Fig 3 (caption): Change the cumbersome phrase ". (c,d) The same as (a,b), but for  $\Omega A$ ." to "along with the same for c) data-based  $\Omega A$  and d) simulated  $\Omega A$ ." Other figure captions also have the same type of cumbersome phrase and should be improved in the same way.

We changed all figure captions accordingly.

L249: insert "seasonal amplitude of" before " $\Omega A$ ".

Changed.

L257: delete "rather".

Changed.

### 3 RESULTS

L264: change "was" to "were"

Changed.

L262-265: Four "we" on 4 consecutive lines is a bit too much.

This paragraph was changed in the revised manuscript.

#### 3.1 GLOBAL CHANGES IN OCEAN ACIDITY VARIABILITY EXTREMES

Inconsistent terminology:

Fig. 4:

\* panel a title: "Yearly extreme days"

\* caption: "frequency"

--vs.--

Fig. 11:

\* caption: "number of extreme event days per year"

--vs--

Fig. 5: "Yearly OmegaA Extreme Days"

We now consistently name this extreme event metric as 'yearly extreme days' throughout the manuscript. In Fig. 5, we write Yearly Extreme Days (OmegaA) so that the reader can distinguish the figure more easily from those for [H+].

Line 297: delete "only"

Changed.

line 303: change "long" to "longer"

Changed.

line 307: insert "period" after "historical" and insert "during" between "and" & "the"

Changed.

line 310: delete "It should be noted that".

Deleted.



### 3.2 REGIONAL CHANGES IN OCEAN ACIDITY VARIABILITY EXTREMES

L314-327: This paragraph is weak because it only quantifies absolute changes. We also need to know the numbers for what were the percent changes relative to the preindustrial reference.

We now also state the relative changes.

L342: change "similar as" to "similar to"

Changed.

L340-345: It would be nice to remind readers that you are discussing results for [H+].

We added a reference to [H+] in L343 (previous manuscript version, now L386).

(2) L346-352: This paragraph is particularly confusing because (a) it relies on the ambiguous term "extreme variability event" and (b) its conclusions (an "improvement" with time due to declining variability alone) are opposite to those for a real "extreme event" (a "worsening" with time, i.e., for  $\Omega A$  where the long-term declining mean dominates the signal). Here is the authors' text:

"While the decline in mean  $\Omega A$  generally leads to lower values in  $\Omega A$ , extreme variability events in  $\Omega A$  are projected to become less frequent throughout most of the ocean (89% of surface area under RCP8.5 at the end of the 21st century; Figure 5c). In many regions, extreme variability events in  $\Omega A$  are projected to disappear by 2081-2100 under the RCP8.5 scenario (grey regions in Figure 5c). However, the frequency of surface  $\Omega A$  variability extremes is projected to increase by 10 or more days per year in the subtropical gyres, especially in the western parts of the subtropical gyres. At depth, no extreme variability events are projected for most of the ocean during 2081-2100 under RCP8.5 (Figure 5d)."

I would suggest that the authors try to lead readers more by the hand while avoiding the term "extreme variability event". As food for thought, here is an attempt to make this paragraph clearer:

"Although the long-term mean of surface  $\Omega A$  declines, so generally does its projected variability. Thus after removing the mean, there is also a decline in the number of days per year when the variations lead to levels that are below the reference threshold (1st percentile from the preindustrial variability distribution with the mean removed). That decline in frequency is evident over 89% of the ocean; by 2081-2100 under RCP8.5 the low reference threshold is never reached over most of the ocean (grey regions in Figure 5c). Conversely, in the subtropical gyres the low threshold is crossed with increasing frequency, reaching 10 or more days per year during 2081-2100 under RCP8.5. Simultaneously, at 200 m, the corresponding low reference threshold is never reached over most of the ocean (Figure 5d)."

The paragraph has been revised to: "While the decline in mean OmegaA generally leads to lower values in OmegaA and therefore extreme events are becoming more frequent when defined with respect to a fixed preindustrial baseline (Section 3.1), extreme events in OmegaA are projected to become less frequent throughout most of the ocean when defined with respect a shifting baseline (89% of surface area under RCP8.5 at the end of the 21st century; Figure 6c). In many regions, extreme events in OmegaA are projected to disappear by 2081-2100 under the RCP8.5 scenario (grey regions in Figure 6c) when defined with respect to a shifting baseline. However, the number of yearly extreme days in OmegaA is projected to increase by 10 or more in the subtropical gyres, especially in the western parts of the subtropical gyres. At 200 m depth, no extreme events are projected for most of the ocean during 2081-2100 under RCP8.5 (Figure 6d)."

### 3.3 DECOMPOSING [H+ ] VARIABILITY CHANGES INTO INTERANNUAL, SEASONAL, AND SUBANNUAL VARIABILITY CHANGES

This subsection title is verbose. It should be changed to something like "Decomposition of temporal variability"

We changed it to: "Decomposition of temporal variability in [H+]"

L355: change "We therefore decompose" to "Thus we decomposed"

Changed.

L356: change "overall" to "generally"

Changed.

L360: "preindustrial" is a period, while "the end of this century" is a point in time. "Preindustrial" is also an adjective and should be modifying something? This issue seems a common mistake in this manuscript.

We rewrote it to "Over the 1861-2100 period following the RCP8.5 scenario from 2006 to 2100".

L364:

- "extreme variability event days" is a confusing term.

- Do the authors really mean "extreme events"?

We have removed all references to extreme events in section 3.3 (except for the introductory sentence to the section)

L360-367: It would be easier to understand if the authors would just refer to increasing variability or variance rather than getting into the messy "extreme" terms, which they use currently. This paragraph only discusses Fig. 7, and that figure only shows the variance. The word "extreme" seems entirely unnecessary throughout this paragraph.

We have removed the references to extreme events.

For the same reasons as mentioned just above, I would also suggest the following:

\* L370: change "variability extremes" to "variability"

\* L374 and 378: change "extreme variability events" to "variability"

\* L377: delete "extremes"

We have removed the references to extreme events.

Also

\* L373: change "types of variability" to "time components of variability"

\* L377: change "variability types" to "time components of variability"

Changed.

#### 3.4 DRIVERS OF [H+] AND $\Omega$ A VARIABILITY CHANGES

L390: delete "northern and southern". As no other "high latitudes" exist other than in the north and south. Thus, these 3 words are unnecessary.

Agreed and deleted.

L394: insert "The" before "GFDL" and insert "model" after "ESM2M"

Inserted.

L396:

\* insert "to" after "leads"

\* change "very" to "more"

Changed.

L397: "This" what?

We changed the sentence to: "In the low-to-mid latitudes and in particular in the Atlantic Ocean, mean surface  $A_T$  is projected to increase (Figure A4) and therefore dampens the overall increase in..".

L403: "that following" is confusing. Changing those 2 words to "increases" would be better if that is what is meant. Unclear.

We replaced "that following" by "the increases"

L407: "would else"? What does that mean?

We rewrote: "The latter contribution is large in the high latitudes, where mean changes alone would lead to a strong increase."

L409: simplify "a large part" to "much"

Changed.

L410: change "golden" to "gold"

Changed.

Figure 8: Panel (h), the zonal mean plot, is very important but also very busy. The authors try to plot too much information, 8 lines, which is even more confusing because of some overlap (green and gold). I would suggest to make a separate zonal mean figure, where a first panel shows only the first 6 lines, and subsequent panels break down contributions to each term (total, s, sigma, s-sigma, rho) from the different components (CT, AT, T, and S). This would also help the authors to clarify their text on L403-412, which currently (without such added information) seems to suffer from the common a priori concept that only CT matters. If the authors feel that adding a separate zonal mean figure, would result in too many figures, I would suggest that the suggested zonal mean figure should be kept in the main body of the paper and that the maps should then be moved to an Appendix or Supplement.

We followed the referees' recommendation and created separate zonal-mean figures for Figures 8 and 9 (now Figures 9 and 10). The first panel shows the simulated variance change and the contribution of the four components as well as the sum of the four contributions. Panels 2-5 show the contribution to the four components from CT alone, from CT+AT, and from CT, AT, and T. We removed the maps from the manuscript.

Figure 9: Panel (h) the same comments made just above concerning Fig. 8 also apply to Fig. 9. In addition, it is hard to distinguish the 2 blue colored lines, especially because they are generally so close together. Furthermore, it is bothersome that the choice of axis limits cuts off the largest variability seen across large zonal bands.

We readjusted the y-axis limits and changed the colors.

Figure 10: The line color for each of the different components should be made entirely consistent with those used in Figs. 8 and 9. Currently they are not.

We changed the colors in the panels a) of the new zonal-mean versions of Figures 8 & 9 (which are now Figures 9 & 10) so that they agree now with the colors in this figure.

L434: change "similar relative" to "secondary". Otherwise, the authors are imposing on the readers to recall what was said about  $[H^+]$ , which they may not have read or may have forgotten amidst a wealth of other information.

Changed.

## DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

L436: I would recommend to delete "and conclusions" in this section title. By default, the Discussion includes the conclusions if there is no separate Conclusions section. Actually, modern science readers seem to often prefer to have a separate Conclusions section because with more and more papers to read, the tendency is to read only parts of a paper.

We have seen recently published papers in Biogeosciences using 'Discussion and Conclusions'. We therefore keep it as is, but leave it to editor to make the final decision.

L437: Please rephrase without using the confusing term "extreme variability events".

We replaced it by "extreme events".

L439: No, the manuscript does not focus on "extreme events" unlike what the authors state here. Rather it focuses on periods where variability is high. More precisely, after removing the dominant contribution from the change in the mean state it focuses on the resulting upper value (for H+) or the lower value (for OmegaA).

We added that we consider high [H+] and low OmegaA events. Please note that the first two paragraphs of the discussion section have been revised.

L440: suggest change "extreme variability events" to "extremes in variability"

Changed to "extreme events" as in other places in the manuscript.

L442: change "event characteristics" to "variability".

We keep it as is since the characteristics are mentioned in the sentence before and we refer to those.

L443-444: change "extreme variability events" to "variability"

Changed.

L446:

\* change "Extreme variability events" to "Extremes in variability". It would be even clearer to replace this sentence with "Variability of OmegaA is projected to decline in the future."

We rewrote this part to: "In contrast to [H+], variability of OmegaA is projected to decline in the future. Therefore, extreme events in OmegaA are projected to become less frequent in the future when defined with respect to a shifting baseline. The reason for the decline in variability is that OmegaA, unlike [H+], becomes less sensitive to variations in the drivers with the mean increase in CT. Furthermore, the projected reductions in the drivers' variabilities, mainly in CT, further reduce OmegaA variability."

\* change "it is because" to "The reason is that"

The sentence has been rewritten in response to the comment above.

L449:

- change "significantly add to the reduced occurrence of  $\Omega A$  variability extremes" to "further reduce  $\Omega A$  variability"

- To avoid ambiguity, "significantly" should not be used except when discussing statistical results. Even then it should be elaborated upon, with something along the lines of "statistically significant".

Changed as proposed.

L450: use of "extreme variability events" should be avoided. A more precise first sentence would be

"Here we analyzed how extremes driven only by variability change, i.e., after removing the long-term mean."

Changed.

L459: insert "model" before "projects"

Done.

L466: delete "very"

Done.

L469-470: I do not understand this sentence starting with "In other words". Either delete it or be clearer about what is being referring to. The authors have talked about 2 criteria, but it is not stated which criterion each of the numbers mentioned here is referring to.

Deleted.

Figure 13: (caption) delete "temporal"

Done.

L477: It is strange to cite Bednarsek for the meaning of  $\Omega A = 1$ . The meaning was defined well before that paper.

We agree and now cite Morse and Mackenzie, 1990

L479: change "the ones" to "those"

Done.

L482: insert "the" before "surface"

Done.

L492-493: The authors state the following:

"Here we show that the changes in the seasonal cycle of  $[H^+]$  translate into large increases in short-term extreme acidity events, at surface as well as at 200 m."

But where do the authors actually show this? From looking at their results, my impression is that the change in the mean state is by far the main reason why the extreme events in  $[H^+]$  increase, and that the effect from changes in the seasonal cycle is of second order. Please be quantitative.

We now write: "Here we show that the changes in the seasonal cycle of  $[H^+]$  translate into large increases in short-term extreme acidity events at surface as well as at 200m, when these events are defined with respect to a shifting baseline."

L495: "extreme variability events"? What is meant here? Rephrase.

We now write 'extreme events'.

L496:

\* What is meant by "temporal"?

Deleted.

\* Can the authors be more precise about what is meant by critical? Have not they shown that most of the variability will be captured with only monthly mean output?

We rewrote the sentence to: "In addition to earlier studies, we also show that changes in subannual variability, which are only partially resolved by monthly mean data, contribute to changes in extreme events in  $[H^+]$  under increasing atmospheric  $CO_2$ . Furthermore, show that the average duration of extreme events at the surface and in recent past conditions (1986-2005) is about 15 days. To resolve such events that last for days to weeks, it is critical to use daily mean output."

L502, L503, 521, ...

- replace occurrences of "GFDL ESM2M" with "the GFDL ESM2M model". Some readers will not be modelers. Any added clarity is worthwhile here. Acronyms are confusing and some readers will reach the Discussion before seeing the authors' definition of GFDL ESM2.

Changed throughout the manuscript.

L508, 509, 527, etc: Please rephrase around all occurrences of "extreme variability events"

L508, L509: replaced by 'variability'

L527:- replaced by 'extreme events'

L512: Break this sentence into 2 sentences, splitting it just after the 2nd "model".

Changed.

## APPENDIX B

L559: I would recommend to avoid footnotes entirely. They are generally frowned upon by journal editors and not even allowed in many journals for good reason.

In this case, we see complications when the footnote is split across pages, half of it appearing under another Appendix, and it does not get the Equations numbers correct. An easy solution is just to move the text and equations that are currently in the footnote to the body of the appropriate Appendix to which the footnote refers to. Adding a separate paragraph as an aside is not a problem.

We moved the footnotes to the text body.

L578: The authors will confuse readers by saying that their Taylor series is 5th order. It includes only 1st derivative and is thus a 1st order Taylor expansion. Saying things like "its Taylor series has five orders" is ambiguous. That should just be deleted. The order of a differential equation has a particular meaning. What the authors mean by order is not carefully defined. Perhaps they can find another term or carefully define what is meant.

As pointed out above, Equation 2 (and also Equation C4) are based on a first order Taylor expansion of  $H^+$  with respect to the drivers. However, Equation 2 is also a fifth order polynomial in the sensitivities, standard deviations, and correlation coefficients. We then analyzed the change in  $H^+$  variance (represented by Equation 2 and thus based on a first order Taylor expansion) resulting from the changes in the sensitivities, standard deviations, and correlation coefficients of the drivers. To do so, we calculated the Taylor series of Equation 2 in these variables. This series has five non-vanishing orders. It contains only first derivatives of  $H^+$  with respect to the drivers because the derivative itself is treated as a variable (the sensitivity). We revised the paragraph on the decomposition in Appendix C to: "We use Equation C4 and decompose the variability change between the preindustrial and 2081-2100 into the contributions from changes in  $s$ ,  $\sigma$ , and  $\rho$  based on a Taylor expansion. Since  $[H^+]$  variance represented by Equation C4 is a polynomial of fifth order in these variables, its Taylor series has five non-vanishing orders." and further "Furthermore, it should be noted that the resulting decomposition of  $[H^+]$  variance change only approximates the simulated variance change because it is based on Equation C4 that itself is based on a first order Taylor expansion of  $[H^+]$  with respect to the drivers."

## APPENDIX D:

L631: I think that this type of Data availability statement is no longer adequate for the journal Biogeosciences. My recent experience is that some model output will actually need to be made available up front without the requirement to first come back to the authors. The authors might want to check the latest author guidelines and consult with the editor.

We will make all data that are shown in the figures publicly available on ZENODO. Data availability statement has been changed accordingly.

L635: "significantly" is ambiguous.

Deleted.

Table A1: the table title should be placed at the top of the table. It should be short, unlike a figure caption.

We moved the title to the top of the Table and changed it to: "Simulated global ensemble-mean OmegaA extreme event characteristics, when extremes are defined with respect to a shifting baseline. Values in brackets denote ensemble minima and maxima."

Figure A1: "extreme [H+] days" is ambiguous as is "extreme [H+] variability events".

The caption was rewritten to "Simulated regional changes in [H+] extreme event characteristics between preindustrial and 2081-2100 following the RCP2.6 scenario. The extreme events are defined with respect to shifting baselines. Shown are the changes in yearly extreme days (a,b), maximal intensity (c,d), and duration (e,f). (...)"

=== END ===

# Increase in ocean acidity variability and extremes under increasing atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>

Friedrich A. Burger<sup>1,2</sup>, Thomas L. Frölicher<sup>1,2</sup>, and Jasmin G. John<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Climate and Environmental Physics, Physics Institute, University of Bern, Bern, Switzerland.

<sup>2</sup>Oeschger Centre for Climate Change Research, University of Bern, Bern, Switzerland.

<sup>3</sup>NOAA/Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory, Princeton, NJ, USA.

**Correspondence:** Friedrich A. Burger (friedrich.burger@climate.unibe.ch)

**Abstract.** Ocean acidity extreme events are short-term periods of ~~extremely~~relatively high [H<sup>+</sup>] concentrations. The uptake of anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions by the ocean is expected to lead to more frequent and intense ocean acidity extreme events, not only due to changes in the long-term ~~ocean acidification, mean~~ but also due to ~~increases in ocean acidity~~changes in short-term variability. Here, we use daily mean output from ~~ensemble simulations~~a five member ensemble simulation of a comprehensive Earth system model under ~~a~~ low and high CO<sub>2</sub> emission ~~scenario to isolate and quantify the impact of changes in variability on~~changes in variability-driven scenarios to quantify historical and future changes in ocean acidity extreme events. Globally When defining extremes relative to a fixed preindustrial baseline, the projected increase in mean [H<sup>+</sup>] causes the entire surface ocean to reach a near-permanent acidity extreme state by 2030 under both the low and high CO<sub>2</sub> emission scenarios. When defining extremes relative to a shifting baseline (i.e., neglecting the changes in mean [H<sup>+</sup>]), ocean acidity extremes are also projected to increase because of the simulated increase in [H<sup>+</sup>] variability, e.g., the number of days with ~~variability-driven extremely high~~extremely high surface [H<sup>+</sup>] conditions ~~for surface waters~~ is projected to increase by a factor of 14 by the end of the 21<sup>st</sup> century under ~~a~~the high CO<sub>2</sub> emission scenario relative to preindustrial levels. ~~The~~Furthermore, the duration of individual ~~variability-driven~~ extreme events is projected to triple, and the maximal intensity and the volume extent in the upper 200 m to quintuple. Similar changes are projected in the thermocline. ~~Under a low emission scenario, the large increases in ocean acidity extreme event characteristics are substantially reduced.~~ At surface, the changes increases in [H<sup>+</sup>] variability are mainly driven by increases in [H<sup>+</sup>] seasonality, whereas changes in ~~interannual variability are also important in the thermocline~~thermocline [H<sup>+</sup>] variability are more influenced by interannual variability. Increases in [H<sup>+</sup>] variability ~~and variability extremes~~ arise predominantly from increases in the sensitivity of [H<sup>+</sup>] to variations in its drivers (i.e., carbon, alkalinity, and temperature) due to the increase in oceanic anthropogenic carbon. ~~In contrast to H<sup>+</sup>, the occurrence of variability-driven extremes in low aragonite saturation state is projected to decrease.~~ The Under the low emission scenario, the increases in ocean acidity extreme event characteristics are substantially reduced. The projected increase in [H<sup>+</sup>] variability and ~~associated increase in extreme variability events superimposed onto the long-term ocean acidification trend will~~extremes may enhance the risk of severe and detrimental impacts on marine organisms, especially for those that are adapted to a more stable environment.



## 1 Introduction

25 Since the beginning of the industrial revolution, the ocean has absorbed about a quarter of the carbon dioxide ( $\text{CO}_2$ ) released by human activities [through burning fossil fuel and altering land use](#) (Friedlingstein et al., 2019). Oceanic uptake of anthropogenic  $\text{CO}_2$  slows global warming by reducing atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$ , but also leads to major changes in the chemical composition of seawater through acidification (Gattuso and Buddemeier, 2000; Caldeira and Wickett, 2003; Orr et al., 2005; Doney et al., 2009). When  $\text{CO}_2$  dissolves in seawater, it forms carbonic acid that dissociates into bicarbonate ( $[\text{HCO}_3^-]$ ) and

30 ~~carbonate ions ( $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ )~~, releasing hydrogen ions ( $[\text{H}^+]$ ) and thereby reducing pH ( $\text{pH} = -\log([\text{H}^+])$ ). The rise in  $[\text{H}^+]$  is partially buffered by the ~~formation of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  from conversion of carbonate ions ( $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$  to  $[\text{HCO}_3^-]$~~ . The associated decline in  $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$  reduces the calcium carbonate saturation state  $\Omega = [\text{Ca}^{2+}][\text{CO}_3^{2-}]/([\text{Ca}^{2+}][\text{CO}_3^{2-}]_{\text{sat}})$ , i.e., the product of calcium ( ~~$\text{Ca}^{2+}$~~ ) and carbonate ion concentrations relative to the product at saturation. Undersaturated waters with  $\Omega < 1$  are corrosive for calcium carbonate minerals. ~~The calcium carbonate~~ [Each type of calcium carbonate mineral has its individual](#)

35 saturation state  $\Omega$  ~~differs between different mineral forms of calcium carbonate, such as aragonite and calcite, which differ in their solubilities~~ [due to different solubilities, e.g.  \$\Omega\_C\$  for calcite and  \$\Omega\_A\$  for aragonite](#). Over the last four decades the surface ocean pH has declined by about 0.02 pH units per decade (Bindoff et al., 2019). Continued ~~carbon  $\text{CO}_2$~~  uptake by the ocean will further exacerbate ocean acidification in the near future (~~Caldeira and Wickett, 2003; Bindoff et al., 2019~~) [\(Caldeira and Wickett, 2003; Orr et al., 2005; Bindoff et al., 2019; Terhaar et al., 2020\)](#) with potential major consequences for

40 marine life (Doney et al., 2009) and ocean biogeochemical cycling (Gehlen et al., 2012).

Superimposed onto the long-term decadal- to centennial-scale ocean acidification trend are short-term extreme ~~variability~~ events on daily to monthly timescales, during which ocean pH and/or  $\Omega$  are ~~extremely low~~ [much lower than usual](#) (Hofmann et al., 2011; Joint et al., 2011; Hauri et al., 2013). These events can be driven by ~~a range of~~ different processes, such as ocean

45 mixing, biological production and remineralization, mineral dissolution, temperature and air-sea gas exchange variations, or a combination thereof (Lauvset et al., 2020). In eastern boundary upwelling systems, for example, short-term upwelling events and mesoscale processes can lead to low surface pH events and to short-term shoaling of the saturation horizon (i.e., the depth between the supersaturated upper ocean and the undersaturated deep ocean (Feely et al., 2008; Leinweber and Gruber, 2013)). Ocean pH can also rapidly change as a consequence of microbial activity (Joint et al., 2011). Phytoplankton blooms and accompanying respiration drastically increase the partial pressure of  $\text{CO}_2$  ( $p\text{CO}_2$ ) and reduce pH in the thermocline (Sarmiento and Gruber, 2006). Such extreme ~~variability~~ events may have pH levels that are much lower than the mean pH conditions projected for the near future (Hofmann et al., 2011).

Most of the scientific literature on ocean acidification has focused on gradual changes in the mean state in ocean chemistry

55 ~~(Orr et al., 2005; Bopp et al., 2013; Frölicher et al., 2016)~~ [\(Orr et al., 2005; Bopp et al., 2013; Frölicher et al., 2016; Terhaar et al., 2019b\)](#). However, to understand the full consequences of ocean acidification for marine organisms and ecosystem services, it is also necessary to understand how variability ~~and~~ extremes in ocean acidity change under increasing atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  (Kroeker

et al., 2020). The ability of marine organisms and ecosystems to adapt to ocean acidification may depend on whether the species have evolved in a chemically stable or a highly variable environment (Rivest et al., 2017; Cornwall et al., 2020). Furthermore, if the frequency and intensity of short-term extreme ~~variability events in ocean acidity events~~ strongly increase, in addition to the long-term acidification, some organisms may have difficulties to adapt, especially if key CO<sub>2</sub> system variables cross some critical thresholds, e.g. from calcium carbonate ~~saturation-supersaturation~~ to undersaturation. Key plankton species such as coccolithophores (Riebesell et al., 2000), foraminifera and pteropods (Bednaršek et al., 2012) were found to be adversely affected by low carbonate ion concentrations. After only several days of ~~aragonite-undersaturation~~being exposed to waters which are undersaturated with respect to aragonite, some species such as pteropods already show reduced calcification, growth and survival rates (~~Bednaršek et al., 2014; Kroeker et al., 2013~~)(Kroeker et al., 2013; Bednaršek et al., 2014). Carbonate system variability also plays a role in shaping the diversity and biomass of benthic communities (~~Kroeker et al., 2011; Hall-Spencer et al., 2008~~)(Hall-Spencer et al., 2008; Kroeker et al., 2011). In laboratory experiments in which deep-water corals are exposed to low-pH waters for a week, some corals exhibit reduced calcification, while recovery may be possible when the low-pH condition persists for six months, stressing the importance of high-frequency variability and short-term acidification events (Form and Riebesell, 2012). There is also growing evidence that the organism response to variability in ocean acidity could change with ocean acidification (Britton et al., 2016). Therefore, understanding the temporal variability of ocean carbonate chemistry and ~~the changes therein is of critical importance~~how that will change is important for understanding the impacts of ocean acidification on marine organisms and ecosystems (Hofmann et al., 2011).

75

Changes in extremes can arise from changes in the mean, variability, or shape of the probability distribution (Coles, 2001). There exists no general accepted definition of an extreme event beyond the common understanding that an extreme is rare (Pörtner et al., 2019). As a result, many different approaches exist to define extreme events (Smith, 2011). If a relative threshold (e.g. quantile) is used to define an extreme event, it is important to distinguish between extreme events that are defined with respect to a fixed reference period or baseline, or if the reference period or baseline moves with time. If the baseline is fixed, the changes in the mean state as well as changes in variability and higher moments of the distribution contribute to changes in extreme events (e.g. Fischer and Knutti, 2015; Frölicher et al., 2018; Oliver et al., 2018). However, if a shifting baseline is used, changes in the mean state do not contribute to changes in extreme events (e.g. Stephenson, 2008; Seneviratne et al., 2012; Zscheischle, 2012). In this case, changes in extremes arise solely due to changes in variability and higher moments of the distribution (Oliver et al., 2019). This latter definition ensures that values are not considered extreme solely because the baseline changes under climate change (Jacox, 2019; Oliver et al., 2019). Whether extreme events should be defined with respect to a fixed baseline or with respect to a shifting baseline depends on the scientific question. For example, the shifting-baseline approach may be more appropriate when the ecosystems under consideration are likely able to adapt to the mean changes, but not to changes in variability (Seneviratne et al., 2012; Oliver et al., 2019). Here, we use both approaches, with a special focus on the analysis of ocean acidity extremes with respect to shifting baselines.

90

Under continued long-term ocean acidification (i.e., changes in the mean), one can expect that extreme events in  $[H^+]$  and  $\Omega_2$ , when defined with respect to a fixed reference period or baseline, will become more frequent and intense (Hauri et al., 2013). In addition to the changes in the mean, recent studies suggest that the seasonal cycles in  $[H^+]$  and  $\Omega$  are also strongly modulated under elevated atmospheric  $CO_2$ . Higher background concentrations of dissolved inorganic carbon and warmer temperatures produce stronger departures from mean state values for a given change in pertinent physical or chemical drivers for  $[H^+]$  and weaker departures for  $\Omega$  (Kwiatkowski and Orr, 2018; Fassbender et al., 2018). Other studies have also addressed the changes in the seasonal cycle of  $pCO_2$  (Landschützer et al., 2018; Gallego et al., 2018; McNeil and Sasse, 2016; Rodgers et al., 2008; Hauck and Völker, 2015). Over the 21<sup>st</sup> century and under a high greenhouse gas emission scenario, Earth system model simulations project that the ~~winter-summer difference~~ seasonal amplitude in surface  $[H^+]$  will increase by 81%, whereas the seasonal amplitude for aragonite saturation state ( $\Omega_A$ ) is projected to decrease by 9% on global average (Kwiatkowski and Orr, 2018). Recent observational-based estimates as well as theoretical arguments support these projected increases in seasonality for  $[H^+]$  and  $pCO_2$  (Landschützer et al., 2018; Fassbender et al., 2018). ~~We can therefore expect that changes in variability may also impose changes in~~ Thus, when extremes are defined with respect to a shifting baseline (i.e., mean state changes are neglected), the frequency and intensity of extreme ~~acidity events~~  $[H^+]$  events will likely increase due to increases in variability.

Unlike for marine heatwaves (Frölicher et al., 2018; Collins et al., 2019) and extreme sea level events (Oppenheimer et al., 2019), little is known about the characteristics and changes of extreme ocean acidity events and if so, only on seasonal timescales (Kwiatkowski and Orr, 2018). A global view of how extreme events in ocean chemistry ~~due to changes in variability~~ will unfold in time and space and a mechanistic understanding of the relevant processes is currently missing. This knowledge gap is of particular concern as it is expected that extreme ~~variability~~ events in ocean acidity, defined with respect to both a fixed and a shifting baseline, are likely to become more frequent and intense under increasing atmospheric  $CO_2$ . Given the potential for profound impacts on marine ecosystems, quantifying trends and patterns of extreme ~~variability~~ events in ocean acidity is a pressing issue.

In this study, we use daily mean output of a five-member ensemble simulation under a low and high  $CO_2$  ~~emissions scenario with emission scenarios of~~ a comprehensive Earth system model to investigate how ~~changes in interannual, seasonal, and subannual variability under rising atmospheric  $CO_2$  levels affect~~ the occurrence, intensity, duration and volume of  $[H^+]$  and  $\Omega$  extreme ~~variability events~~ events change under rising atmospheric  $CO_2$  levels. Extreme events defined with respect to both a fixed preindustrial and a shifting baseline are assessed, but the main focus is on extremes with respect to a shifting baseline and how these are affected by variability changes.

## 2 Methods

### 2.1 Model & experimental design

The simulations used in this study were made with the fully coupled carbon-climate Earth system model developed at the NOAA Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory (GFDL ESM2M) (Dunne et al., 2012, 2013). ~~GFDL-ESM2M~~ The GFDL ESM2M model consists of ocean, atmosphere, sea-ice, and land modules, and includes land and ocean biogeochemistry. The ocean component is the Modular Ocean Model version 4p1 (MOM4p1), with a nominal 1° horizontal resolution increasing to 1/3° meridionally at the equator, with a tripolar grid north of 65°N, and with 50 vertical depth levels. The MOM4p1 model has a free surface ~~and~~, with the surface level ~~is~~-centered around about 5 m depth and the spacing between consecutive levels is about 10 m down to a depth of about 230 m (Griffies, 2009) with increasing spacing below. The dynamical sea-ice model uses the same tripolar grid as MOM4p1 (Winton, 2000). The Atmospheric Model version 2 (AM2) has a horizontal resolution of 2° × 2.5° with 24 vertical levels (Anderson et al., 2004). The Land Model version 3 (LM3) simulates the cycling of water, energy, and carbon ~~eyes~~-dynamically and uses the same horizontal grid as AM2 (Shevliakova et al., 2009).

The ocean biogeochemical and ecological component is version two of the Tracers of Ocean Phytoplankton with Allometric Zooplankton (TOPAZv2) module that parametrizes the cycling of carbon, nitrogen, phosphorus, silicon, iron, oxygen, alkalinity, lithogenic material, and surface sediment calcite (see supplementary material in Dunne et al. (2013)). TOPAZv2 includes three explicit phytoplankton groups: small, large, and diazotrophs, and one implicit zooplankton group. The ocean carbonate chemistry is based on the OCMIP2 parametrizations (Najjar and Orr, 1998). The dissociation constants for carbonic acid and bicarbonate ions are from Dickson and Millero (1987), which are based on Mehrbach et al. (1973), and the carbon dioxide solubility is calculated according to Weiss (1974). Total alkalinity in ~~ESM2M-TOPAZv2~~ includes contributions from phosphoric and silicic acids and their conjugate bases. TOPAZv2 also simulates diurnal variability in ocean physics as well as in phytoplankton growth. While diurnal variations in open ocean pH are therefore simulated to some extent, we do not expect the model to fully capture the high diurnal variability in seawater chemistry, especially in coastal regions with large biological activity, due to its relatively coarse resolution and simple biogeochemical model (Kwiatkowski et al., 2016; Hofmann et al., 2011).

We ran a five-member ensemble simulation covering the historical 1861-2005 period, followed by a high (RCP8.5; RCP: Representative Concentration Pathway) and a low greenhouse gas emission scenario (RCP2.6) over the 2006-2100 period with prescribed atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. RCP8.5 is a high emission scenario without effective climate policies, leading to continued and sustained growth in greenhouse gas emissions (Riahi et al., 2011). In the GFDL ESM2M model, global atmospheric surface temperature in the RCP8.5 ensemble is projected to increase by 3.24 (ensemble minimum: 3.17 - ensemble maximum: 3.28) °C between preindustrial and 2081-2100. The RCP2.6 scenario represents a low emission, high mitigation future (van Vuuren et al., 2011) with a simulated warming in the GFDL ESM2M model of 1.21 (1.18-1.26) °C ~~by the end of the~~ 21<sup>st</sup> century relative to preindustrial levels. The five ensemble members over the historical period were initialized from a multi-

century ~~long~~ preindustrial control simulation, that was extended with historical land-use over the 1700-1860 period (Sentman et al., 2011). The five ensemble members were generated by adding different ~~very small~~ SST disturbances of the order  $10^{-5}$  K to a surface grid cell in the Weddell Sea at  $70.5^{\circ}$  S,  $51.5^{\circ}$  W on January 1<sup>st</sup> 1861 (Wittenberg et al., 2014; Palter et al., 2018). Although the ocean biogeochemistry is not perturbed directly,  $[H^+]$  and  $\Omega$  differences between the ensemble members spread rapidly over the globe. On average, the ensemble members can be regarded as independent climate realizations after about three years of simulation for surface waters and about eight years at 200 m (Frölicher et al., 2020). Neither the choice of the perturbation location nor the choice of the perturbed variable has a discernible effect on the results presented here (Wittenberg et al., 2014). In addition, an accompanying 500-year preindustrial control simulation was performed.

## 2.2 Analysis methods

### 2.2.1 Extreme event definition and characterization

We analyze daily mean data of  $[H^+]$  and ~~the~~ aragonite saturation state  $\Omega_A$  in the upper 200 m of the water column.  $[H^+]$  is on the total scale and hence the sum of the concentrations of free protons and hydrogen sulfate ions. We define an event as a  $[H^+]$  extreme event when the daily mean  $[H^+]$  exceeds the 99<sup>th</sup> percentile, i.e. ~~a one-in-a-hundred-day event occurring once every 100 days~~. Similarly, we define a  $\Omega_A$  extreme event when the daily mean  $\Omega_A$  falls below the 1<sup>st</sup> percentile. The percentiles are calculated for each grid cell from daily mean data of the 500-year preindustrial control simulation. In contrast to absolute thresholds, relative thresholds, such as those used here, ~~allow the characterization of extreme events over regions with different statistical properties. In addition, biases in the simulated variables already alter the definition of relative thresholds and should thus have a smaller effect on projections of changes in extreme events based on these thresholds compared to projections based on absolute thresholds (see also Frölicher et al. (2018))~~ take into account regional differences in the variables mean state, variance, and higher moments. Events that are defined based on relative thresholds have the same occurrence probability across the globe in the period in which they are defined (e.g. preindustrial period; see also Frölicher et al. (2018)).

We assess changes in  $[H^+]$  and  $\Omega_A$  extreme events when they are defined with respect to both a fixed preindustrial baseline and a shifting baseline. Under the fixed baseline approach, the secular trends as well as changes in variability and the higher moments of the distribution impose changes in extreme events. Under the shifting baseline approach, which is the focus of this study, a value is considered extreme when it is much higher or lower than the baseline that undergoes changes due to secular trends in the variable. Thus, changes in the different extreme event characteristics are only caused by changes in variability and the higher moments of the distributions. To define the extreme events with respect to the shifting baselines, we subtract the secular trends in  $[H^+]$  and  $\Omega_A$  at each grid cell and in each individual ensemble member prior to the calculation of the different extreme event characteristics based on the preindustrial percentiles (Figure 1). The secular trend is calculated as the five-member ensemble mean, which has been additionally smoothed with a 365-day running mean to keep the seasonal signal in the data (further information in Appendix A). The removal of the secular trend ensures that the mean state in the processed data stays approximately constant while day-to-day to interannual variability can change over the simulation period (depicted

for one grid cell in Figure 1).

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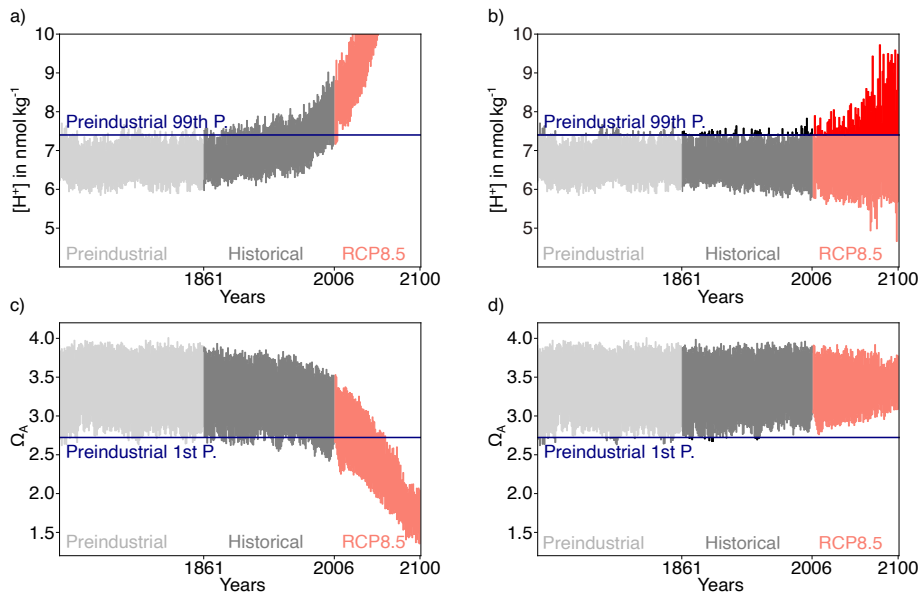
We calculate four extreme event metrics: (a) the ~~number of extreme event days per year~~ yearly extreme days (in days; number of days per year above the 99<sup>th</sup> percentile for  $[H^+]$  and below the 1<sup>st</sup> percentile for  $\Omega_A$ ), (b) the annual mean duration (in days; the average number of days above the 99<sup>th</sup> percentile for  $[H^+]$  and below the 1<sup>st</sup> percentile for  $\Omega_A$  of single events within a year), (c) the annual mean maximal intensity (in  $\text{nmol kg}^{-1}$  or  $\Omega_A$  unit; maximum  $[H^+]$  or  $\Omega_A$  anomalies with respect to the 195 percentile threshold over the duration of a single ocean acidification extreme event and then averaged over all events within a year), and (d) the mean volume covered by individual extreme events in the upper 200 m (in  $\text{km}^3$ ; mean volume of 3D clusters of connected grid cells that are above the 99<sup>th</sup> percentile for  $[H^+]$  or below the 1<sup>st</sup> percentile for  $\Omega_A$ , calculated using the *measure.label* function from the *scikit-image* library for *Python* for each day, these daily means are then averaged annually). The ~~number of~~ yearly extreme days, duration, and maximal intensity are calculated for individual grid cells at the surface and 200 200 at 200 m. While the truncation of extremes between years alters the results for duration and maximal intensity, it allows for the calculation of annual extreme event characteristics. We focus our analysis not only on the surface, but also on 200 m to study changes in extreme events within the thermocline, where most organisms susceptible to ocean acidification are found, such as reef-forming corals and calcifying phytoplankton.

205 ~~The aim of this study is to assess how changes in  $H^+$  and  $\Omega_A$  variability lead to changes in different extreme event characteristics. Therefore, we isolate the effect of changes in variability by subtracting the secular trends at each grid cell and in each individual ensemble member prior to the calculation of the different extreme event characteristics (Figure 1). The secular trend is calculated as the five-member ensemble mean, which has been additionally smoothed with a 365-day running mean to keep the seasonal signal in the data (further information in Appendix A). The removal of the secular trend ensures that the mean state in the processed data stays approximately constant while day-to-day to interannual variability can change over the simulation period (depicted for one grid cell in Figure 1). Thus, in our study, changes in the different extreme event characteristics are only caused by changes in variability and we call these events extreme variability events. In the Discussion section, we compare the simulated changes in extreme variability events to the total changes in extremes, which include changes due to secular trend in ocean acidity.~~

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### 2.2.2 Decomposition of $[H^+]$ variability into different variability components

~~In order to assess whether changes in low or high frequency variability cause changes in extreme variability events and their characteristics, we~~ We use three steps to decompose the total temporal variability in  $[H^+]$  into interannual, seasonal, and sub-annual variability (Figure 2). In a first step, we calculate the climatological seasonal cycle from the daily mean data by averaging 220 each calendar day over all years in the time period of interest. Seasonal variability is then identified with the time-series variance of this 365-day long seasonal cycle. ~~As described above, the~~ The secular trend in the daily mean data has been removed with the five-member ensemble mean before doing the analysis. In a second step, we subtract the seasonal cycle from the data and

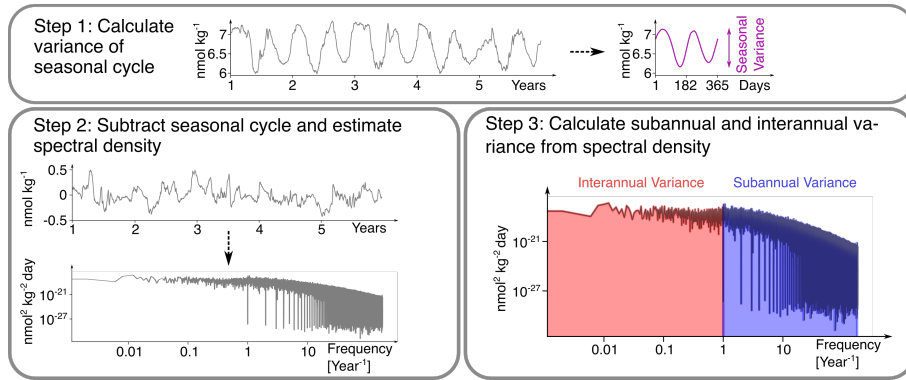


**Figure 1.** Simulated daily mean surface  $[H^+]$  (a) and  $\Omega_A$  (c) at  $40^\circ N$  and  $30^\circ W$  in the North Atlantic for one ensemble member over the preindustrial, the 1861-2005 historical period, and the 2006-2100 period under RCP8.5. ~~(b,d) Same~~ The same data as in (a,c) ~~but~~ the with subtracted ensemble-mean change changes with respect to the average of the 500-year long preindustrial control simulation has been subtracted is shown in panels (b,d). For  $[H^+]$ , the preindustrial 99<sup>th</sup> percentile threshold (horizontal blue line in panels (a) and (b) is increasingly exceeded even when subtracting the ensemble mean change, because  $[H^+]$  variability increases. In contrast, a reduction in  $\Omega_A$  variability leads to a reduced undershooting of the preindustrial 1<sup>st</sup> percentile (panel d).

estimate the spectral density (Chatfield, 1996) of this residual time series using the *periodogram* function from the *scipy.signal* python library. In a third step, we calculate the variance arising from variations on interannual and subannual timescales from the spectral density to obtain interannual and subannual variability (further information is given in Appendix B). Following this methodology, subannual variability comprises all variations in daily mean data with periodicities of less than a year that are not part of the seasonal cycle.

### 2.2.3 Taylor ~~deconvolution method to identify mechanistic controls~~ expansion of $[H^+]$ and $\Omega_A$ variability changes

To understand the processes behind the simulated changes in the variabilities of  $[H^+]$  variability and variability extremes and  $\Omega_A$ , we decompose these changes into contributions from changes in temperature (T), salinity (S), total alkalinity ( $A_T$ ), and total dissolved inorganic carbon ( $C_T$ ). Assuming linearity, the difference of  $[H^+]$  from its mean at time step  $i$  can be decomposed into contributions from the drivers by employing a first order Taylor expansion



**Figure 2.** The three-step decomposition of  $[\text{H}^+]$  variance into interannual, seasonal, and subannual variance, exemplified for a surface grid cell at  $40^\circ \text{N}$  and  $30^\circ \text{W}$  in the North Atlantic at preindustrial. In a first step, the climatological seasonal cycle is determined (over the whole period, only five years are depicted here) and its variance is calculated. Note that the seasonal cycle in this grid cell has two minima and maxima. In a second step, the spectral density of the anomalies with respect to the seasonal cycle is calculated. In a third step, interannual and subannual variance is estimated from the spectral density.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{H}^+(i) - \bar{\text{H}}^+ \simeq & \frac{\partial \text{H}^+}{\partial \text{C}_T} \Big|_{\bar{\text{C}}_T, \bar{\text{A}}_T, \bar{\text{T}}, \bar{\text{S}}} (\text{C}_T(i) - \bar{\text{C}}_T) + \frac{\partial \text{H}^+}{\partial \text{A}_T} \Big|_{\bar{\text{C}}_T, \bar{\text{A}}_T, \bar{\text{T}}, \bar{\text{S}}} (\text{A}_T(i) - \bar{\text{A}}_T) \\
 & + \frac{\partial \text{H}^+}{\partial \text{T}} \Big|_{\bar{\text{C}}_T, \bar{\text{A}}_T, \bar{\text{T}}, \bar{\text{S}}} (\text{T}(i) - \bar{\text{T}}) + \frac{\partial \text{H}^+}{\partial \text{S}} \Big|_{\bar{\text{C}}_T, \bar{\text{A}}_T, \bar{\text{T}}, \bar{\text{S}}} (\text{S}(i) - \bar{\text{S}}), \quad (1)
 \end{aligned}$$

and analogously for  $\Omega_A$ . The partial derivatives are evaluated at  $\bar{\text{T}}$ ,  $\bar{\text{S}}$ ,  $\bar{\text{C}}_T$ , and  $\bar{\text{A}}_T$ , *i.e.*, the temporal mean values of the drivers in the period of interest. While it is important to take into account the climatological total phosphate and total silicate concentrations for calculating the partial derivatives (Orr and Epitalon, 2015), one introduces only small errors by neglecting variations in phosphate and silicate. The partial derivatives in Equation 1 are evaluated using *Mocsy 2.0* (Orr and Epitalon, 2015).

Using the Taylor decomposition (Equation 1), one can for example express the seasonal variation in  $[\text{H}^+]$  as a function of the drivers' seasonal variations (Kwiatkowski and Orr, 2018). In this study however, we analyze the time-series variance of  $[\text{H}^+]$  and  $\Omega_A$  that also includes variability on other time scales (see Section 2.2.2) and the drivers of its changes. **By making From** the Taylor approximation (Equation 1) and **from** the definition of variance ([e.g. Coles \(2001\)](#)) ([e.g. Coles, 2001](#)), it follows that the variance of  $[\text{H}^+]$  can be written as a function of the partial derivatives with respect to the drivers (sensitivities), the standard



deviations of the drivers, and their pairwise correlation coefficients:

$$\begin{aligned}
\sigma_{\text{H}^+}^2 = & \left( \frac{\partial \text{H}^+}{\partial \text{C}_\text{T}} \right)^2 \sigma_{\text{C}_\text{T}}^2 + \left( \frac{\partial \text{H}^+}{\partial \text{A}_\text{T}} \right)^2 \sigma_{\text{A}_\text{T}}^2 + \left( \frac{\partial \text{H}^+}{\partial \text{T}} \right)^2 \sigma_{\text{T}}^2 + \left( \frac{\partial \text{H}^+}{\partial \text{S}} \right)^2 \sigma_{\text{S}}^2 \\
& + 2 \frac{\partial \text{H}^+}{\partial \text{C}_\text{T}} \frac{\partial \text{H}^+}{\partial \text{A}_\text{T}} \text{cov}(\text{C}_\text{T}, \text{A}_\text{T}) + 2 \frac{\partial \text{H}^+}{\partial \text{C}_\text{T}} \frac{\partial \text{H}^+}{\partial \text{T}} \text{cov}(\text{C}_\text{T}, \text{T}) \\
& + 2 \frac{\partial \text{H}^+}{\partial \text{C}_\text{T}} \frac{\partial \text{H}^+}{\partial \text{S}} \text{cov}(\text{C}_\text{T}, \text{S}) + 2 \frac{\partial \text{H}^+}{\partial \text{A}_\text{T}} \frac{\partial \text{H}^+}{\partial \text{T}} \text{cov}(\text{A}_\text{T}, \text{T}) \\
& + 2 \frac{\partial \text{H}^+}{\partial \text{A}_\text{T}} \frac{\partial \text{H}^+}{\partial \text{S}} \text{cov}(\text{A}_\text{T}, \text{S}) + 2 \frac{\partial \text{H}^+}{\partial \text{T}} \frac{\partial \text{H}^+}{\partial \text{S}} \text{cov}(\text{T}, \text{S}),
\end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

245 where the pairwise covariances are functions of the ~~variances~~ standard deviations and correlation coefficients according to  $\text{cov}(x, y) = \sigma_x \sigma_y \rho_{x, y}$  and the partial derivatives are again evaluated at the temporal mean values  $\bar{\text{T}}$ ,  $\bar{\text{S}}$ ,  $\bar{\text{C}}_\text{T}$ , and  $\bar{\text{A}}_\text{T}$ . This methodology has also been used to propagate uncertainties in carbonate system calculations (Dickson and Riley, 1978; Orr et al., 2018) and to identify drivers of potential predictability in carbonate system variables (Frölicher et al., 2020). Based on Equation 2 and the analogous result for  $\Omega_\text{A}$ , a change in variance ~~in-of~~ [H<sup>+</sup>] and  $\Omega_\text{A}$  can be attributed to changes in the

250 sensitivities that arise from changes in the drivers' mean states, to changes in the drivers' standard deviations, and to changes in the pairwise correlations between the drivers. We do so by calculating the ~~full~~ Taylor series of Equation 2 ~~that has contributions up to the fifth order~~ (further information in Appendix C). We then identify the [H<sup>+</sup>] variance change from mean changes in the drivers as the sum of all terms in the expansion that describe the contributions of sensitivity changes to the overall change in variance ( $\Delta_s \sigma_{\text{H}^+}^2$ ). Likewise, we identify the contribution from standard deviation changes in the drivers ( $\Delta_\sigma \sigma_{\text{H}^+}^2$ ). We further

255 group terms in the expansion that stem from simultaneous changes in the sensitivities and standard deviations ( $\Delta_{s\sigma} \sigma_{\text{H}^+}^2$ ) and the remaining terms that arise either from correlation changes alone or mixed contributions from correlation changes and changes in sensitivities and standard deviations ( $\Delta_{\rho+} \sigma_{\text{H}^+}^2$ ). Since these four components contain all terms in the Taylor series, they exactly reproduce a change in variance represented by Equation 2,

$$\Delta \sigma_{\text{H}^+}^2 = \Delta_s \sigma_{\text{H}^+}^2 + \Delta_\sigma \sigma_{\text{H}^+}^2 + \Delta_{s\sigma} \sigma_{\text{H}^+}^2 + \Delta_{\rho+} \sigma_{\text{H}^+}^2. \tag{3}$$

260 ~~However, Equation 2 itself is an approximation to the simulated H<sup>+</sup> and  $\Omega_\text{A}$  variance, leading to a small mismatch between the sum of the components introduced above and simulated variance change (black lines vs. grey dashed lines in the zonal mean plots in Figures 9, 10, and 11).~~

We also assess the contributions ~~from sensitivity changes arising only from mean changes in C<sub>T</sub> ( $\Delta_s \sigma_{\text{H}^+}^2 |_{\text{C}_\text{T}}$ ), the contribution from standard deviation changes in C<sub>T</sub> alone ( $\Delta_\sigma \sigma_{\text{H}^+}^2 |_{\text{C}_\text{T}}$ ), and the contribution from simultaneous mean and standard deviation~~

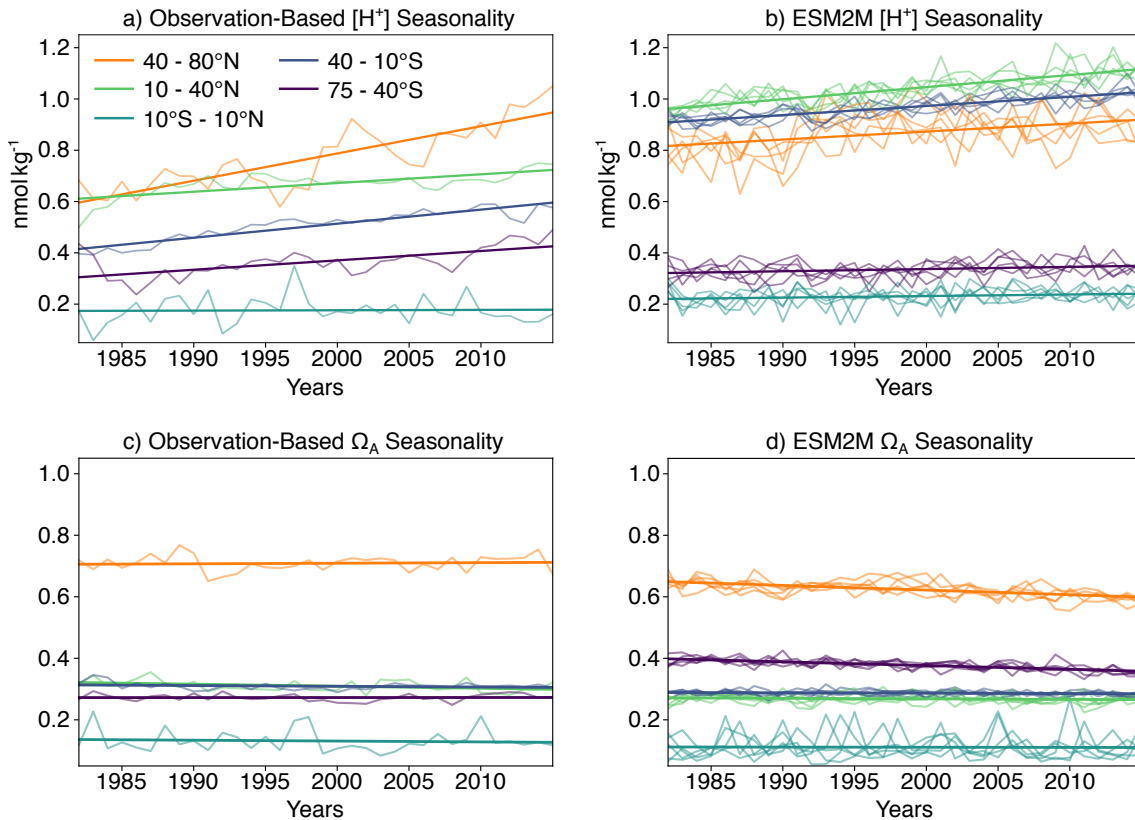
265 ~~changes in C<sub>T</sub> ( $\Delta_{s\sigma} \sigma_{\text{H}^+}^2 |_{\text{C}_\text{T}}$ ) to the four components from C<sub>T</sub> alone, from C<sub>T</sub> and A<sub>T</sub>, and from C<sub>T</sub>, A<sub>T</sub>, and T. The equivalent procedure is also used to decompose variance change in  $\Omega_\text{A}$ .~~ Further information on the decomposition is given in Appendix C.

### 2.3 Model evaluation

The focus of our analysis is on changes in variability in  $[\text{H}^+]$  and  $\Omega_{\text{A}}$ . As observation-based daily [mean](#) data of the inorganic carbon chemistry at the global scale is not available, we limit the evaluation of the Earth system model simulation to the representation of the seasonal cycles of  $[\text{H}^+]$  and  $\Omega_{\text{A}}$ , and especially on its changes over the 1982-2015 period. We developed an observation-based dataset for surface monthly  $[\text{H}^+]$  and  $\Omega_{\text{A}}$  using monthly surface salinity, temperature,  $p\text{CO}_2$ , and  $A_{\text{T}}$  fields. Salinity and temperature data are taken from the Hadley Centre EN.4.2.1 analysis product (Good et al., 2013).  $A_{\text{T}}$  is then calculated using the *LIARv2* total alkalinity regression from salinity and temperature (Carter et al., 2018). For  $p\text{CO}_2$ , we use the neural-network-interpolated monthly data from Landschützer et al. (2016), which is based on SOCATv4 (Bakker et al., 2016). Although not fully capturing  $p\text{CO}_2$  variability in regions with only few observations (Landschützer et al., 2016), the  $p\text{CO}_2$  dataset appears to be generally well suited for analyzing  $p\text{CO}_2$  seasonality and changes therein (Landschützer et al., 2018). An exception is the Southern Ocean where data-based  $p\text{CO}_2$  products are uncertain due to sparse data in winter (Gray et al., 2018).  $[\text{H}^+]$  and  $\Omega_{\text{A}}$  are then calculated from salinity, temperature,  $A_{\text{T}}$ , and  $p\text{CO}_2$  using the *co2sys* [CO2SYS](#) carbonate chemistry package (van Heuven et al., 2011). Uncertainties in the derived seasonal cycles for  $[\text{H}^+]$  and  $\Omega_{\text{A}}$  that arise from uncertainties in the observation-based input variables are not quantified in this study.

In most regions, the GFDL ESM2M [model](#) captures the observation-based mean seasonal cycle in  $[\text{H}^+]$  and  $\Omega_{\text{A}}$  [quite](#) well, in particular for  $\Omega_{\text{A}}$  (the mean values of the seasonal amplitudes in Figure 3). However, potential biases in the mean seasonal amplitudes do not directly have an effect on projected changes in extreme events, as we base the extreme events definition on relative thresholds.

We then compare the simulated ensemble-mean trends in seasonal amplitude with the observation-based estimates ([further information on the methodology is given in](#) Appendix D). Similar [as for to](#) the mean seasonal cycle [results](#), the GFDL ESM2M [model](#) captures the observed trends in the seasonal  $[\text{H}^+]$  and  $\Omega_{\text{A}}$  amplitudes for different latitudinal bands over the 1982-2015 period relatively well (Figure 3). The ensemble-mean trends in the simulated seasonal  $[\text{H}^+]$  amplitudes are positive for all latitude bands (Figure 3, Table 1), consistent with the observation-based estimates. While the estimates for the simulated trends are significantly larger than zero for all latitude bands, this is not the case for the observation-based trends in the equatorial region ( $10^\circ\text{S} - 10^\circ\text{N}$ ) and the northern low latitudes ( $10^\circ\text{N} - 40^\circ\text{N}$ ) (Table 1). The simulated  $[\text{H}^+]$  seasonality trends are significantly smaller (with 90% confidence level) than estimated from observations in the northern high ( $40^\circ\text{N} - 90^\circ\text{N}$ ; orange thick lines in Figure 3a,b) and southern low latitudes ( $40^\circ\text{S} - 10^\circ\text{S}$ ; blue thick lines in Figure 3a,b), where the trends from the model ensemble are  $0.031 \pm 0.012 \text{ nmol kg}^{-1} \text{ decade}^{-1}$  and  $0.035 \pm 0.003 \text{ nmol kg}^{-1} \text{ decade}^{-1}$  per decade, compared to the observational-based trends of  $0.106 \pm 0.040 \text{ nmol kg}^{-1} \text{ decade}^{-1}$  and  $0.055 \pm 0.014 \text{ nmol kg}^{-1} \text{ decade}^{-1}$ , respectively. The simulated ensemble mean trends for the remaining latitude bands are not significantly different from the observation-based trend estimates.



**Figure 3.** (a,b) Seasonal amplitude of  $[H^+]$  (calculated as yearly maximum minus the yearly minimum after subtracting a cubic spline from the data) over the period 1982-2015 averaged over five different latitude bands for a) the observation-based estimate and b) the GFDL ESM2M model historical (1982-2005) and RCP8.5 (2006-2015) ensemble simulations. (c,d) The same as (a,b), but along with the same for data-based  $\Omega_A$  (c) and simulated  $\Omega_A$  (d). Linear trends in all panels are overlaid as thick lines. The linear trend of the simulated changes is calculated as the mean of the five individual ensemble trends.

For the seasonal amplitude of  $\Omega_A$ , we find a significant negative trend in the observation-based data in the northern low latitudes and significant negative trends in the simulations in the northern and southern high latitudes (Table 1). The negative trends in seasonal amplitude in the simulations are significantly different from the observation-based trends in the northern high latitudes ( $-0.015 \pm 0.004$  vs.  $0.002 \pm 0.009$   $\Omega_A$  units per decade) and in the southern high latitudes ( $-0.012 \pm 0.002$  vs.  $0.000 \pm 0.005$   $\Omega_A$  units per decade).

In summary, taking into account additional evaluations not shown here previous evaluations of the mean states of  $[H^+]$  and  $\Omega_A$  and the underlying drivers in the GFDL-ESM2M model (Bopp et al., 2013; Kwiatkowski and Orr, 2018), the model performs well against a number of key seasonal performance metrics. However, the model slightly underestimates past increases in seasonal amplitude of  $[H^+]$ , especially in the northern and southern high latitudes. In contrast to the observation-based data, the model also projects negative trends in the  $\Omega_A$  seasonal amplitude there. Nevertheless, the observation-based trends in

**Table 1.** Linear trends in seasonal amplitude of  $[H^+]$  (in  $\text{nmol kg}^{-1} \text{decade}^{-1}$ ) and  $\Omega_A$  (in  $10^{-3} \text{decade}^{-1}$ ) for five latitude bands over the period 1982-2015. Results are shown for the observational-based data (Obs.) and the five-member ensemble mean of the ESM2M model simulations (ESM2M) following the RCP8.5 scenario over 2006-2015. The range ( $\pm$ ) denotes the 90 % confidence interval.

Latitude	Obs. $[H^+]$	ESM2M $[H^+]$	Obs. $\Omega_A$	ESM2M $\Omega_A$
40°N - <del>90</del> 80°N	0.106 $\pm$ 0.040	0.031 $\pm$ 0.012	1.9 $\pm$ 8.7	-15.1 $\pm$ 3.8
10°N - 40°N	0.034 $\pm$ 0.034	0.047 $\pm$ 0.005	-6.7 $\pm$ 5.6	-1.8 $\pm$ 2.0
10°S-10°N	0.001 $\pm$ 0.016	0.006 $\pm$ 0.005	-2.8 $\pm$ 10.7	-0.5 $\pm$ 5.3
40°S - 10°S	0.055 $\pm$ 0.014	0.035 $\pm$ 0.003	-2.4 $\pm$ 5.1	-1.2 $\pm$ 1.2
<del>90</del> 75°S - 40°S	0.037 $\pm$ 0.028	0.009 $\pm$ 0.004	0.1 $\pm$ 4.8	-12.2 $\pm$ 1.7

~~Linear trends in seasonal amplitude of  $H^+$  (in  $\text{nmol kg}^{-1} \text{decade}^{-1}$ ) and  $\Omega_A$  (in  $10^{-3} \text{decade}^{-1}$ ) for five latitude bands over the period 1982-2015. Results are shown for the observational-based data (Obs.) and the five-member ensemble mean of the ESM2M simulations (ESM2M) following the RCP8.5 scenario over 2006-2015. The range ( $\pm$ ) denotes the 90 % confidence interval.~~

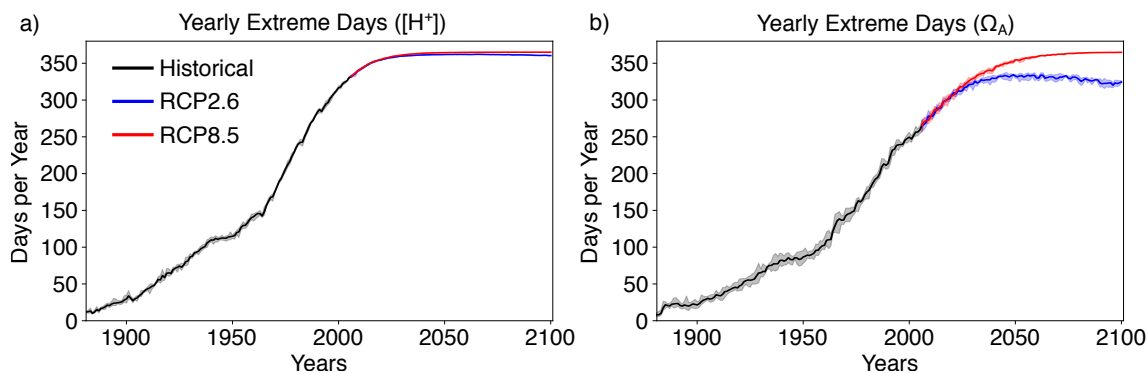
the northern and especially southern high latitudes are rather uncertain because winter time data is sparse there. Even though we lack the daily mean observational-based data to undertake a full assessment, it appears that the GFDL ESM2M model is adequate to assess changes in open ocean ~~ocean acidification extreme events~~ variability of  $[H^+]$  and  $\Omega_A$  and to assess changes  
 315 in extreme events that arise thereof.

### 3 Results

We ~~start by discussing first~~ briefly discuss the simulated changes in ~~different ocean acidity extreme variability event characteristics at the global scale~~ ( $[H^+]$  and  $\Omega_A$  extreme events when these events are defined with respect to a fixed preindustrial baseline period (Section 3.1). In Sections 3.2 and 3.3, these results are contrasted with changes in extremes that are defined with respect  
 320 to a shifting baseline, i.e. ~~grid-cell based characteristics are aggregated globally~~, before we analyze changes at the local to regional scale and identify the drivers of changes. We recall that the large secular increase in  $[H^+]$  and the large secular decrease in  $\Omega_A$  was removed for the analysis as we focus on changes in variability and their impact on extreme variability ~~event characteristics~~ where the secular trends do not alter extreme events. In Section 3.4, variability changes are decomposed into subannual, seasonal and interannual variability contributions. The processes leading to variability changes are analyzed in  
 325 Section 3.5.

#### 3.1 Global changes in extremes defined with respect to a fixed preindustrial baseline

When using the fixed preindustrial 99<sup>th</sup> and 1<sup>st</sup> percentiles to define extreme events in  $[H^+]$  and  $\Omega_A$ , respectively, large increases in the number of days with  $[H^+]$  and  $\Omega_A$  extremes are projected over the period 1861 to 2100 in both low and high  $\text{CO}_2$  emission scenarios (Figures 4 and A1). Over the historical period, the GFDL ESM2M model projects an increase in yearly extreme days  
 330 for surface  $[H^+]$  from 3.65 days per year at preindustrial to 299 days per year in 1986-2005. By year 2030 and under both  $\text{CO}_2$



**Figure 4.** Simulated globally averaged yearly extreme days defined with respect to a fixed baseline for  $[H^+]$  using the preindustrial 99<sup>th</sup> percentile (a) and for  $\Omega_A$  using the preindustrial 1<sup>st</sup> percentile (b). Shown are changes at the surface over the 1881-2100 period following historical (black lines) and future scenarios, RCP8.5 (red) and RCP2.6 (blue). The thick lines display the five-member ensemble means and the shaded areas represent the maximum and minimum ranges of the individual ensemble members.

emission scenarios, the surface ocean is projected to experience a 'near-permanent acidity extreme state', i.e.,  $[H^+]$  is more than 360 days per year above the preindustrial 99<sup>th</sup> percentile. Likewise, the average duration of events saturates at 365 days length and the intensity of events increases strongly, mainly reflecting the large increase in mean  $[H^+]$  (Figure A1). A similar, but slightly delayed evolution in the number, maximal intensity and duration of  $[H^+]$  extremes is simulated at 200 m (Figure A1).

335

Large increases in yearly extreme days are also projected for  $\Omega_A$  when using a fixed preindustrial 1<sup>st</sup> percentile as a baseline (Figure 4b). Similar to  $[H^+]$ , the entire surface ocean is projected to approach a permanent  $\Omega_A$  extreme state during the 21<sup>st</sup> under the RCP8.5 scenario. A near-permanent extreme state is projected by year 2062. In contrast to  $[H^+]$ , a permanent  $\Omega_A$  extreme state of the global ocean is avoided under the RCP2.6 scenario.

340

### 3.2 Global changes in ocean acidity variability extremes

#### 3.2 Global changes in extremes defined with respect to a shifting baseline

In preindustrial times, the GFDL-ESM2M suggests that an average surface  $[H^+]$  extreme variability event had a maximal intensity of  $0.08 \text{ nmol kg}^{-1}$  (Figure 5c, Table 2) and lasted 11 days (Figure 5e). Ocean acidity extremes in the upper 200 m occur with a typical volume of  $2.7 \cdot 10^3 \text{ km}^3$ , which is about 0.004% of the total ocean volume in the upper 200 m. Next, we investigate changes in  $[H^+]$  and  $\Omega_A$  extremes when the extreme events are defined with respect to a shifting (time-moving) baseline, i.e. changes in extremes arise only from changes in variability and higher moments of the distributions. The GFDL-ESM2M model projects large increases in the number, intensity, duration, and volume of  $[H^+]$  extreme events over the 1861-2100 period (Figure 5g). Over the historical period (from preindustrial to 1986-2005), the model projects that the num-

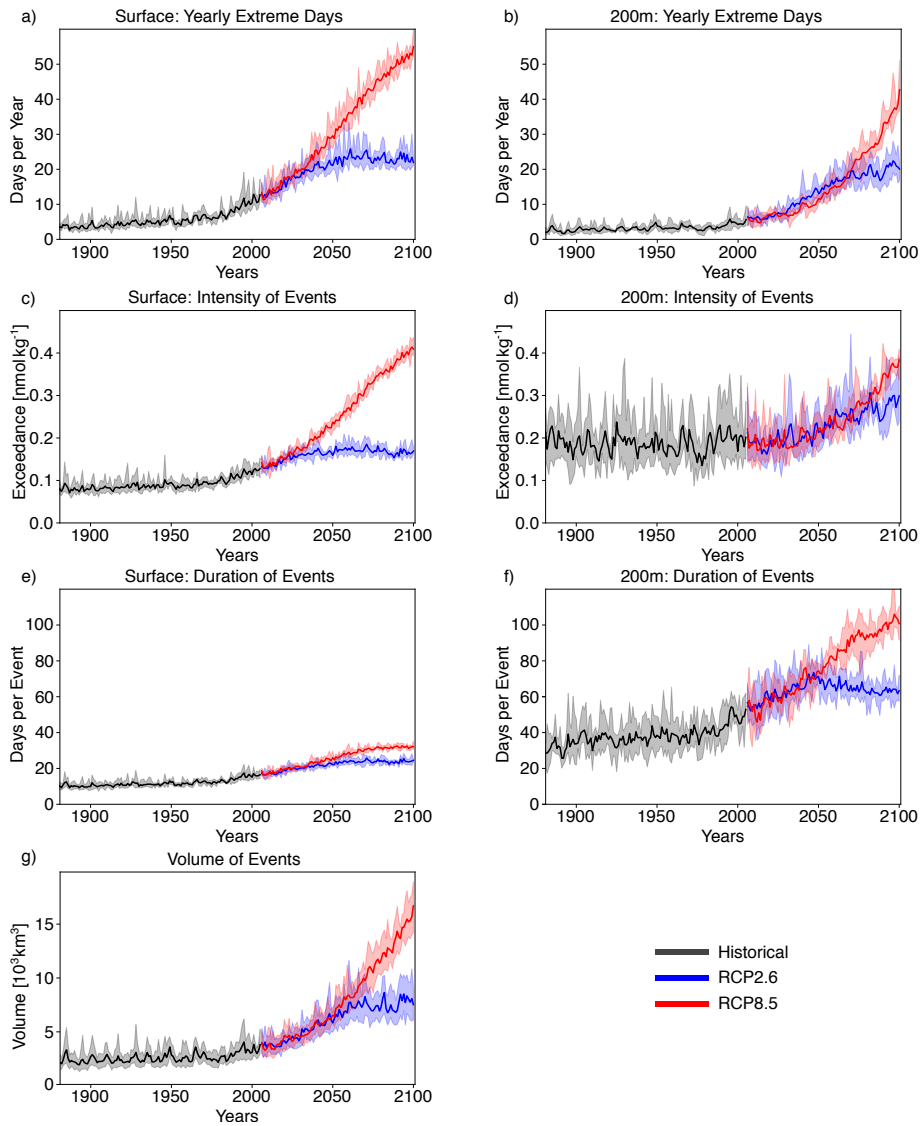
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350 ber of surface  $[H^+]$  extreme days increases from 3.65 days per year to 10.0 days per year (Figure 5a, ensemble ranges are given in Table 2). The maximal intensity ~~and duration are is~~ projected to increase from 0.08 nmol kg<sup>-1</sup> to 0.12 nmol kg<sup>-1</sup> ~~and~~ (Figure 5c, Table 2), and the duration from 11 days to 15 days (Figure 5e). Compared to preindustrial conditions, this corresponds to a 173% increase in number of days per year, a 44% increase in the maximal intensity and a 45% increase in the duration of  $[H^+]$  extreme ~~variability~~-events. The volume of individual events is projected to increase by 20% over the  
355 historical period, from a typical volume of  $2.7 \cdot 10^3 \text{ km}^3$ , which is about 0.004 % of the total ocean volume in the upper 200 m (Figure 5g), to  $3.2 \cdot 10^3 \text{ km}^3$ .

Over the 21<sup>st</sup> century, extreme ~~variability~~-events in ocean acidity, defined with respect to a shifting baseline, are projected to further increase in frequency, intensity, duration, and volume (Figure 5). By 2081-2100 under the RCP8.5 scenario, the number  
360 of  $[H^+]$  extreme days per year at surface is projected to increase to 50 days (corresponding to a 1273% increase relative to the preindustrial). The maximal intensity is projected to increase to 0.38 nmol kg<sup>-1</sup> (371% increase), the duration to 32 days (199% increase) and the volume to  $13.9 \cdot 10^3 \text{ km}^3$  (414% increase).

At 200 m, the  $[H^+]$  extreme ~~variability events~~ events in preindustrial conditions are in general more intense (0.17 nmol kg<sup>-1</sup>; Figure 5d) and longer-lasting (38 days; Figure 5f) than at surface ~~during preindustrial conditions~~. The stronger extreme events are caused by the overall larger variability at 200 m than at surface in the preindustrial. The longer duration is connected to the more pronounced contribution from interannual variability (see Section 3.4). However, projected relative changes over the historical period and the 21<sup>st</sup> century are smaller at 200 m than at surface and with larger year-to-year variations across the ensembles. Under ~~present-day recent past~~ conditions (1986-2005), the number of extreme days per year at 200 m is 4.3 days  
370 per year (corresponding to a 18% increase since preindustrial), the maximal intensity 0.20 nmol kg<sup>-1</sup> (18% increase), and the duration 46 days (21% increase). By the end of the 21<sup>st</sup> century under the RCP8.5 scenario, the number of  $[H^+]$  extreme days per year is projected to increase to 32.1 days per year, the maximal intensity to 0.34 nmol kg<sup>-1</sup> and the duration to 99 days. Notably, extreme ~~variability~~-events in  $[H^+]$  are projected to become less intense at 200 m than at surface (0.34 nmol kg<sup>-1</sup> vs. 0.38 nmol kg<sup>-1</sup>) by the end of the century under RCP8.5, even though they were more intense in preindustrial times at depth.  
375 In contrast, surface  $[H^+]$  extreme ~~variability~~-events remain shorter in duration at the end of the century than at 200 m.

Under the RCP2.6 scenario ~~and by the end of the century~~, the magnitude of changes in the different  $[H^+]$  extreme ~~variability event characteristics are substantially reduced compared to~~ event characteristics by the end of the century is substantially smaller than in the RCP8.5 scenario. This ~~reduction difference~~ is especially pronounced at the surface (blue lines in Figure 5).  
380 There, the number of extreme days per year, maximal intensity, and duration under the RCP2.6 are projected to be ~~only~~ 46% (44-47), 43% (43-44) and 75% (73-77) of that under the RCP8.5 scenario. At depth, the differences between the RCP2.6 and RCP8.5 scenario are less pronounced and only emerge in the second half of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. ~~In contrast~~ As opposed to the surface, the number of  $[H^+]$  extreme days per year and the maximal intensity at depth 200 m as well as the volume of events are projected to increase significantly even after the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration stabilizes in RCP2.6 around year 2050.



**Figure 5.** Simulated changes in globally averaged  $[H^+]$  extreme ~~variability~~-event characteristics over the ~~1861-2100~~ 1881-2100 period following historical (black lines) and future RCP8.5 (red) and RCP2.6 scenario (blue). ~~Frequency~~The extreme events are defined with respect to a shifting baseline. Yearly extreme days, maximal intensity, and duration are shown for the surface (a,c,e) and for 200 m (b,d,f). Volume is shown in (g). The thick lines display the five-member ensemble means and the shaded areas represent the maximum and minimum ranges of the individual ensemble members.

**Table 2.** Simulated global ensemble-mean  $[H^+]$  extreme event characteristics, when extremes are defined with respect to a shifting baseline. Values in brackets denote ensemble minima and maxima.

	PI	1986-2005	2081-2100 RCP2.6	2081-2100 RCP8.5
<del>Number Surf.-</del> <u>Yearly Extreme Days Surf. [Days per Year]</u>	3.65	9.97 (9.49-10.38)	22.87 (21.93-23.45)	50.12 (49.98-50.30)
200 m <u>[Days per Year]</u>	3.65	4.32 (3.72-5.09)	19.88 (16.96-22.53)	32.10 (30.91-34.75)
Duration Surf. <u>[Days]</u>	10.64	15.38 (15.04-15.72)	23.79 (23.40-24.11)	31.78 (31.23-32.13)
200 m <u>[Days]</u>	38.00	45.95 (42.84-49.96)	62.94 (60.49-66.11)	98.66 (95.06-102.01)
Maximal Intensity Surf. <u>[nmol kg<sup>-1</sup>]</u>	0.08	0.12 (0.11-0.12)	0.17 (0.16-0.17)	0.38 (0.37-0.39)
200 m <u>[nmol kg<sup>-1</sup>]</u>	0.17	0.20 (0.19-0.21)	0.28 (0.25-0.30)	0.34 (0.33-0.34)
Volume <u>[km<sup>3</sup>]</u>	2709	3247 (3082-3451)	7654 (6873-8464)	13927 (13836-14109)

~~Simulated global ensemble-mean  $H^+$  extreme variability event characteristics for the preindustrial (PI), present day (1986-2005), and the end of this century (2081-2100) for both RCP2.6 and RCP8.5. Numbers of yearly extreme days are given in days per year, durations in days, intensities in nmol kg<sup>-1</sup>, and volumes in km<sup>3</sup>. Values in brackets denote ensemble minima and maxima.~~

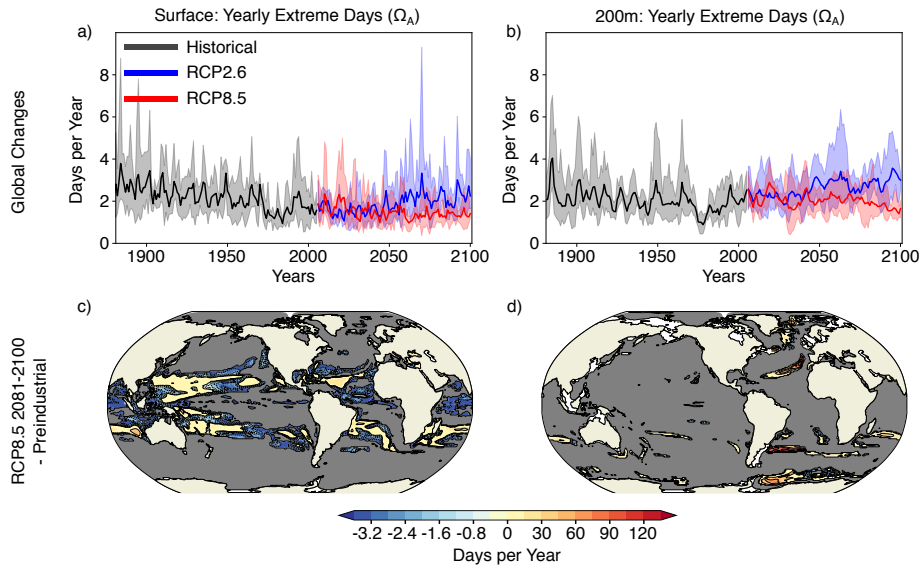
385 This delayed response at subsurface is due to the relatively slow surface-to-subsurface transport of carbon. However, this is not the case for the duration, which slightly decreases in the second half of the 21<sup>st</sup> century at depth (Figure 5f). This decrease in duration mainly occurs in the subtropics, where events generally last ~~long~~ longer (Figure A3b). It is connected to an increase in the contribution from high-frequency variability to total variability in those regions over that period.

390 In contrast to  $[H^+]$  extreme ~~variability~~ events, the ~~yearly number of  $\Omega_A$  extreme variability days~~ number of yearly extreme days in  $\Omega_A$  is projected to decrease over the historical ~~and period and during~~ the 21<sup>st</sup> century under both the RCP8.5 and RCP2.6 ~~scenario~~ scenarios (Figure 6a-b, Supplementary Table A1) when the extreme events are defined with respect to a shifting baseline. The number of surface  $\Omega_A$  extreme ~~variability~~ days per year by the end of this century is projected to be 63% smaller under RCP8.5 and 39% smaller under RCP2.6 than at preindustrial (ensemble ranges are given in Supplementary  
395 Table A1). Projected changes at depth are less pronounced than at surface, again with larger decreases under RCP8.5 than under RCP2.6. ~~It should be noted that, despite~~ Despite this decline in extreme ~~variability events~~ events when defined with respect to a shifting baseline, the long-term decline in the mean state of  $\Omega_A$  still leads to more frequent occurrence of ~~low values in extreme low  $\Omega_A$~~  (see Discussion section events when defined with respect to a fixed baseline (see Section 3.1)).

### 3.3 Regional changes in ~~ocean acidity variability~~ extremes defined with respect to a shifting baseline

400 Surface  $[H^+]$  ~~variability extremes~~ extremes that are defined with respect to shifting baselines are projected to become more frequent in 87% of the surface ocean area by the end of the 21<sup>st</sup> century under the RCP8.5 scenario. However, the projected changes in these ocean acidity extremes are not uniform over the globe (Figure 7; Supplementary Figure A3). The largest increases in the number of  $[H^+]$  extreme days per year are projected in the Arctic Ocean (up to +120 days per year), in the subtropical gyres (up to +60 days per year), in parts of the Southern Ocean and near Antarctica. There are also some regions





**Figure 6.** Simulated changes in the yearly number of  $\Omega_A$  extreme ~~variability~~-days. The extreme events are defined with respect to a shifting baseline. Panels (a-b) show the globally averaged simulated ~~number-of-yearly~~ extreme ~~variability~~-days ~~per-year~~ in  $\Omega_A$  from 1861-1881 to 2100 following historical (black lines) and future RCP2.6 (blue) and RCP8.5 (red) scenarios at (a) the surface and (ba) and 200 m (b). The thick lines display the five-member ensemble means and the shaded areas represent the maximum and minimum range of the individual ensemble members. Panels (c-d) show the simulated regional changes in ~~the-number-of-yearly~~ extreme ~~variability~~-days ~~per-year~~ in  $\Omega_A$  from preindustrial to 2081-2100 under the RCP8.5 scenario (e) at the surface and (dc) and at 200 m (d). Shown are changes averaged over all five ensemble members. The black lines highlight the pattern structure and grey colors represent regions where no ensemble member simulates ~~variability~~-extremes during 2081-2100.

405 including the eastern equatorial Pacific and parts of the Southern Ocean, where the number of yearly extreme days in surface  $[H^+]$  is projected to decrease. These are in general also the regions where the seasonality in  $[H^+]$  is projected to decrease (see section 3.4 below). The largest absolute changes in intensity of surface  $[H^+]$  ~~variability~~-extremes (Figure 7c) are projected for the subtropics, especially in the Northern Hemisphere. For example, events become up to 0.81  $\text{nmol kg}^{-1}$  more intense in the subtropical North Pacific and Atlantic. ~~Large changes are also~~, corresponding roughly to a 10-fold increase in intensity  
 410 with respect to the preindustrial period. The largest relative increases in intensity are projected for the Arctic Ocean, the North Atlantic, and around Antarctica, where more than 10-fold increases with respect to the preindustrial period are projected. Regions with large increases in the number of yearly extreme days tend to ~~show-also-also show~~ large increases in the duration of extreme ~~variability~~-events (Figure 7e). The Arctic Ocean is an exception. Although the number of yearly extreme days increases sharplystrongly, the increase in duration is not as pronounced. This is because extremes are already long-lasting, but  
 415 very rare at preindustrial times (Supplementary Figure A3). So even though extreme ~~variability~~-events are projected to occur each year by the end of the century under RCP8.5, the increase in duration is relatively small.

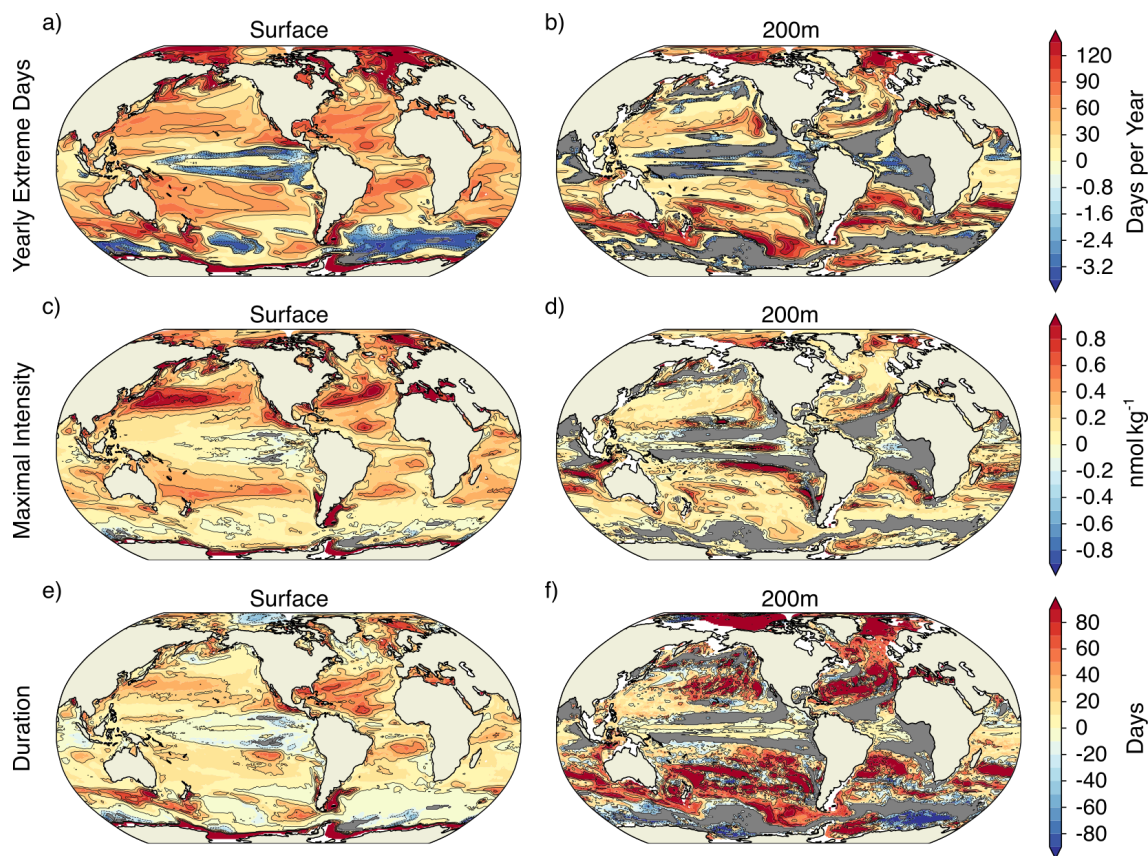
At 200 m, the projected pattern of changes in yearly extreme ~~event~~-days generally resembles that at the surface (Figure 7b). The largest increases in yearly extreme ~~event~~-days are projected for parts of the subtropics, the Southern Ocean, and the Arctic Ocean. In contrast to the surface,  $[H^+]$  ~~variability~~-extremes at 200 m are projected to become less frequent in the equatorial Atlantic, the northern Indian Ocean, the North Pacific and in large parts of the Southern Ocean. The regions indicating a decline in  $[H^+]$  ~~variability~~-extremes at depth include also some of the eastern boundary current systems, such as the the Humboldt, California, and Benguela Current systems. In most of these regions, extreme ~~variability~~-events are projected to disappear in the RCP8.5 scenario by the end of this century (grey regions in Figure 7b). The largest increases in subsurface event intensity are projected in the subtropics (Figure 7d), whereas the duration of  $[H^+]$  ~~variability~~-extremes is projected to increase strongly in many regions of the mid-to-high latitudes of both hemispheres (Figure 7f). The projected increases in duration at 200 m are much larger than at surface.

The increase in the number of extreme days per year, the maximal intensity, and the duration is smaller under RCP2.6 compared to RCP8.5 for most of the ocean (Supplementary Figure A2). The largest increases in occurrence of ~~variability~~-extremes under RCP2.6 are simulated for the Arctic Ocean, similar as to under RCP8.5, and for parts of the Southern Ocean. The regions in the Southern Ocean where the occurrence of extreme ~~variability events~~ events in  $[H^+]$  is projected to decrease largely overlap with those for RCP8.5, at surface and at depth. On the other hand, unlike under RCP8.5, a decrease in extreme ~~variability~~ event occurrence is only projected for a small fraction of the tropical oceans under RCP2.6.

While the decline in mean  $\Omega_A$  generally leads to lower values in  $\Omega_A$  ~~extreme variability and therefore extreme events are becoming more frequent when defined with respect to a fixed preindustrial baseline (Section 3.1), extreme~~ events in  $\Omega_A$  are projected to become less frequent throughout most of the ocean when defined with respect a shifting baseline (89% of surface area under RCP8.5 at the end of the 21<sup>st</sup> century; Figure 6c). In many regions, extreme ~~variability~~-events in  $\Omega_A$  are projected to disappear by 2081-2100 under the RCP8.5 scenario (grey regions in Figure 6c) when defined with respect to a shifting baseline. However, the frequency of surface number of yearly extreme days in  $\Omega_A$  ~~variability extremes~~ is projected to increase by 10 or more ~~days per year~~ in the subtropical gyres, especially in the western parts of the subtropical gyres. At 200 m depth, no extreme ~~variability~~-events are projected for most of the ocean during 2081-2100 under RCP8.5 (Figure 6d).

### 3.4 Decomposing Decomposition of temporal variability in $[H^+]$ variability changes into interannual, seasonal, and subannual variability changes

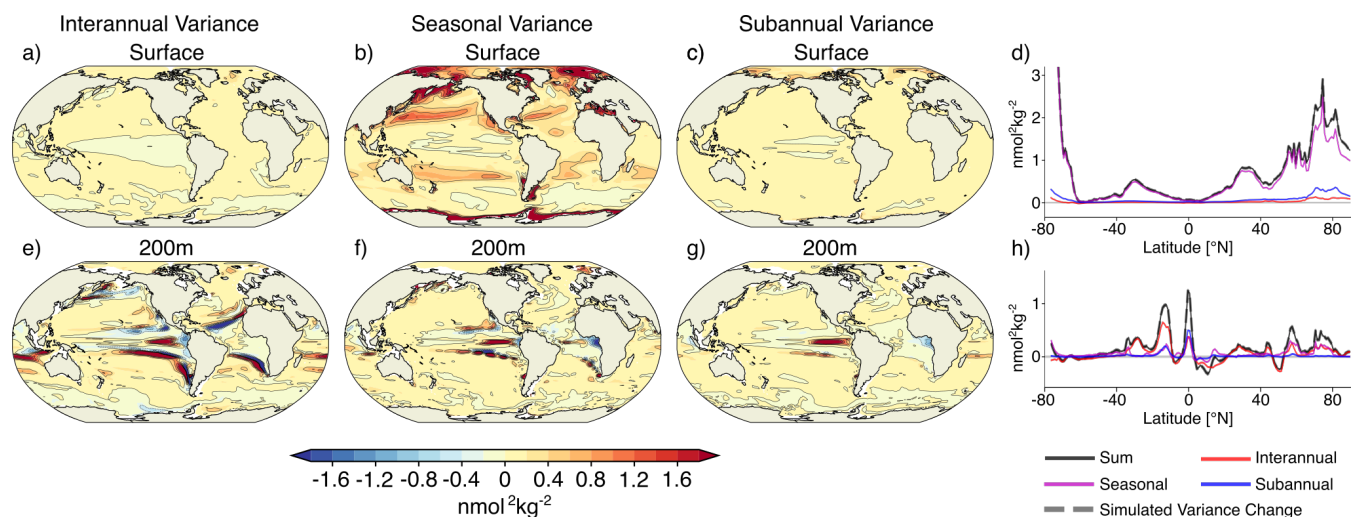
The ~~underlying~~ changes in  $[H^+]$  ~~variability extreme events defined with respect to a shifting baseline mainly result from changes in  $[H^+]$  variability. These variability changes~~ may arise from changes in interannual variability, seasonal variability, and subannual variability. ~~We therefore decompose~~ Thus we decomposed the total variability into these three components (see Section 2.2.2). For the preindustrial, the model simulates ~~overall generally~~ larger  $[H^+]$  variance at depth than at the surface (0.42  $\text{nmol}^2\text{kg}^{-2}$  vs. 0.15  $\text{nmol}^2\text{kg}^{-2}$ , not shown). Seasonality has the largest contribution at the surface (81 % of total variance). At 200 m, interannual variability has the largest contribution (63 %), and also subannual variability is more important



**Figure 7.** Simulated regional changes in  $[H^+]$  extreme ~~variability~~-event characteristics from preindustrial to the 2081-2100 period under the RCP8.5 scenario at surface and at depth for (a,b) the number of yearly extreme event days in days per year, (e,f), the maximal intensity of events in  $\text{nmol kg}^{-1}$  ~~;~~ and (c,d), and the duration of events in days (e,f). The extreme events are defined with respect to a shifting baseline. Shown are changes averaged over all five ensemble members. Grey colors represent areas, where no ~~variability~~-extremes occur during 2081-2100 and the black lines highlight pattern structures.

compared to the surface (15% vs. 8%).

455 ~~From preindustrial to the end of this century under~~ Over the 1861-2100 period following the RCP8.5 scenario from 2006 to  
2100, changes in seasonality clearly dominate the overall change in variability at surface with 87% contribution to the over-  
all variance change in the global mean (Figure 8b,d). Changes in interannual variability (3% contribution to overall variance  
change; Figure 8a,d) and subannual variability (10%; Figure 8c,d) play a minor role. The largest increases in variability for all  
three variability types are projected for the northern high latitudes, ~~where also the number of extreme variability event days~~  
~~increases most strongly. The increases in extreme events around~~. Around Antarctica and the southern end of South Amer-  
460 ica ~~(Figure 7a) are mainly caused by~~, large increases in seasonal variability are projected (Figure 8b). ~~The regions that are~~



**Figure 8.** Contribution to projected changes in  $[H^+]$  variance from interannual variability (a,e) ~~interannual variability~~, seasonal variability (b,f) ~~seasonal variability~~, and subannual variability (c,g) ~~subannual variability~~ between the preindustrial and the 2081-2100 period following the RCP8.5 scenario at surface and at 200 m. Shown are the ensemble mean changes. The black lines highlight the pattern structure. Zonal mean contributions are shown for the surface (d) and for 200 m (h). The sum of the three components (black lines) accurately reproduces the simulated variance change (grey dashed lines).

~~projected to experience a decline in variability extremes (Figure 7a) coincide with those of decreasing~~ In the tropical Pacific and parts of the Southern Ocean, decreases in ~~interannual and seasonal variability are projected~~ (Figure 8a,b).

In contrast to the surface, changes in interannual and to a lesser extent subannual variability at 200 m are also important for explaining the overall changes in  $[H^+]$  variability ~~extremes~~ (Figure 8e,g,h). Changes in interannual variability contribute most to overall variance change at the global scale (with 42% contribution). Seasonal variability changes are almost equally important (37%), and changes in subannual variability also contribute substantially to changes in total variability (20%). The patterns of variability changes are very similar across the three ~~types~~ temporal components of variability. The largest increases in  $[H^+]$  variability are simulated north and south of the equator. ~~In those regions the model also projects an increase in  $H^+$  extreme variability events (Figure 7b). Furthermore, these~~ These regions tend to be already more variable during the preindustrial (see Supplementary Figure A3a). However, the model also projects an increase in variability for ~~less variable regions at~~ regions that are less variable during the preindustrial, such as northern high latitudes, ~~leading to increases in variability extremes there.~~ All three ~~variability types~~ temporal components of variability are projected to decrease in the tropics and parts of the Southern Ocean, ~~where the occurrence of extreme variability events is projected to largely decrease (c.f. Figure 7b).~~ The variability decrease in those regions is most pronounced for interannual variability (Figure 8e).

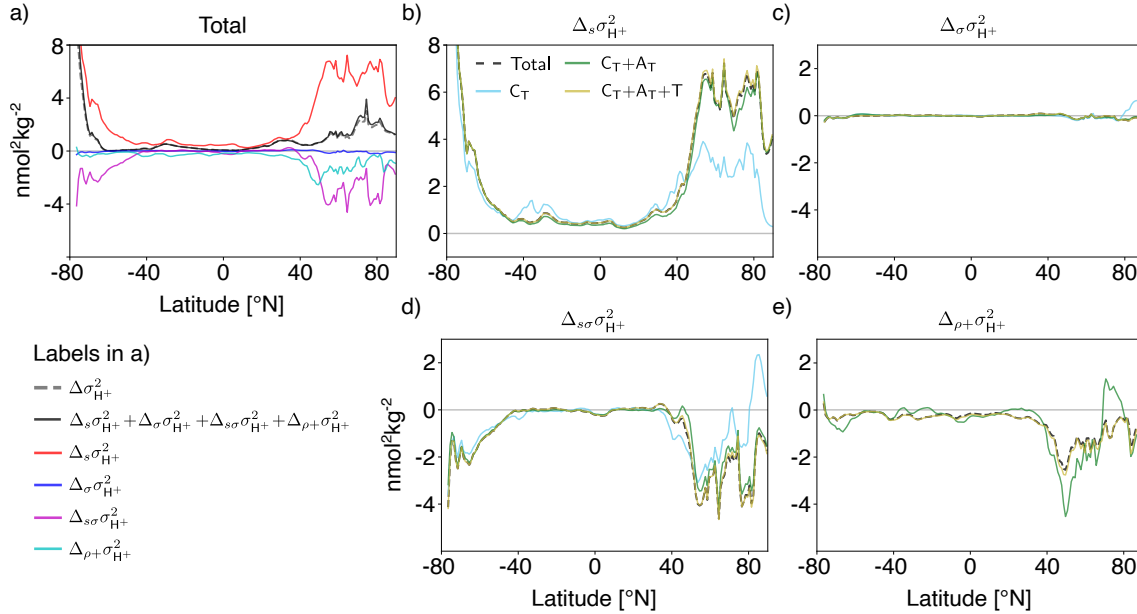
### 3.5 Drivers of $[H^+]$ and $\Omega_A$ variability changes

In this section, we investigate the drivers of changes in the drivers that cause the variability changes in  $[H^+]$  and  $\Omega_A$ . We Drivers are carbon ( $C_T$ ), alkalinity ( $A_T$ ), temperature, and salinity. To do so, we attribute changes in  $[H^+]$  and  $\Omega_A$  variability to four factors (see Section 2.2.3 for further details): (i) changes in the mean states of the drivers that control the sensitivities ( $\Delta_s \sigma_{H^+}^2$ ),  
480 (ii) changes in the variabilities of the drivers ( $\Delta_\sigma \sigma_{H^+}^2$ ), (iii) simultaneous changes in the mean states and variabilities of the drivers ( $\Delta_{s\sigma} \sigma_{H^+}^2$ ; this contribution arises because both mean states and variabilities change  $\bar{\cdot}$  and can neither be attributed to (i) nor (ii) alone), and (iv) changes in the correlations between the drivers, also including mixed contributions from correlation changes together with mean state and variability changes ( $\Delta_{\rho+} \sigma_{H^+}^2$ ). In other words, (iv) describes the change in variability that arises because the correlations between the drivers also change, and not only their mean states and variabilities.

485

The drivers' mean changes between the preindustrial and 2081-2100 under RCP8.5 cause a strong increase in surface  $[H^+]$  variability between the periods that, which is most pronounced in the northern and southern high latitudes ( $\Delta_s \sigma_{H^+}^2$ ; red line in Figure 9b, pink a, black dashed line in Figure 9hb). On global average, these variance changes due to the mean changes in the drivers ( $\Delta_s \sigma_{H^+}^2 = 1.3 \text{ nmol}^2 \text{ kg}^{-2}$ ) are much larger than the total simulated variance change in  $[H^+]$  ( $\Delta \sigma_{H^+}^2 = 0.5 \text{ nmol}^2 \text{ kg}^{-2}$ ,  
490 Figure 9a, dashed grey dashed grey or solid black line in Figure 9ha). In general, an increase in mean  $C_T$ , temperature, and salinity would lead to an increase in  $\Delta_s \sigma_{H^+}^2$ , whereas an increase in mean  $A_T$  would lead to a decrease. The GFDL ESM2M model projects an increase in mean  $C_T$  over the entire surface ocean (Supplementary Figure A5) a) due to the uptake of anthropogenic  $CO_2$  from the atmosphere, and therefore an increase  $\Delta_s \sigma_{H^+}^2 |_{C_T}$  (Figure 9f, green  $\Delta_s \sigma_{H^+}^2$  (light blue line in Figure 9hb)). In the high latitudes, a relatively small increase in mean  $C_T$  leads to a large increase in  $\Delta_s \sigma_{H^+}^2 |_{C_T} \Delta_s \sigma_{H^+}^2$ , because  $[H^+]$  is very  
495 more sensitive to changes in  $C_T$  due to the low buffer capacity there. Decreases in mean  $A_T$  further contributes contribute to the increase in  $\Delta_s \sigma_{H^+}^2$  (not shown). This is not the case in in the high latitudes (green line in Figure 9b). In the low-to-mid latitudes where and in particular in the Atlantic Ocean, mean surface  $A_T$  is projected to increase in particular in the Atlantic Ocean (Figure A5)  $\bar{\cdot}$  and therefore dampens slightly the overall increase in  $\Delta_s \sigma_{H^+}^2$  (green line in Figure 9b). The changes in  $A_T$  are largely due to changes in freshwater cycling that also manifest in salinity changes (Supplementary Figure A5, Carter  
500 et al. (2016)). Mean changes in temperature and salinity play a minor role for explaining the large increase in Increases in temperature additionally increase  $\Delta_s \sigma_{H^+}^2$  (not shown), mainly in the northern mid-to-high latitudes (gold line in Figure 9b), but the overall impact of mean changes in temperature, and especially salinity, is small.

Why is the increase in  $\Delta \sigma_{H^+}^2$  smaller than that following (grey dashed or black solid line in Figure 9a) smaller than the  
505 increase from the mean changes in the drivers (i.e.  $\Delta_s \sigma_{H^+}^2$ ; red line in Figure 9a)? In the high latitudes, the projected change in the variability of the drivers (Supplementary Figure A6) contributes negatively to the  $[H^+]$  variability change and counteracts to some degree the increase in  $\Delta_s \sigma_{H^+}^2$ . These variability changes alone would have a small impact imprint on  $\Delta_\sigma \sigma_{H^+}^2$  (blue line in Figure 9a; black dashed line in Figure 9c), but the variability changes dampen the increases from the mean changes ( $\Delta_{s\sigma} \sigma_{H^+}^2$ , magenta line in Figure 9a, black dashed line in Figure 9d). The latter contribution is large in regions the high latitudes, where



**Figure 9.** Decomposition of surface  $[H^+]$  variability changes into different drivers ( $C_T$ ,  $A_T$ , temperature, and salinity). Shown are changes from preindustrial to 2081-2100 following the RCP8.5 scenario. The simulated change in  $[H^+]$  variance ( $\Delta\sigma_{H^+}^2$ ) (a) is decomposed into the contribution from changes in the sensitivities that arise from changes in the drivers' mean values ( $\Delta_s\sigma_{H^+}^2$ ) (b), the contribution from changes in the drivers' standard deviations ( $\Delta_{\sigma}\sigma_{H^+}^2$ ) (c), the contribution from simultaneous changes in the sensitivities and the drivers' standard deviations ( $\Delta_{s\sigma}\sigma_{H^+}^2$ ) (d), and the contribution from correlation changes alone and together with simultaneous changes in correlations and sensitivities and standard deviations ( $\Delta_{\rho+}\sigma_{H^+}^2$ ) (e). Furthermore, the small mismatch between the contribution sum of the components (black line) and simulated variance change (grey dashed line) arises because the decomposition is based on Equation 2 that is an approximation to simulated  $[H^+]$  variance change. The contributions to these components from mean changes in  $C_T$  alone ( $\Delta_s\sigma_{H^+}^2|_{C_T}$ ) (light blue lines) and that, from standard deviation changes in  $C_T$  together with simultaneous changes in mean state and standard deviation of  $C_T A_T$  ( $\Delta_{\sigma}\sigma_{H^+}^2|_{C_T} + \Delta_{s\sigma}\sigma_{H^+}^2|_{C_T}$ , green lines), and from  $C_T$ ,  $A_T$  and temperature (gold lines) are shown. The black contours in a-g panels (b-e) highlight the pattern structures. The zonal mean contribution of panels a-g) is shown dashed black lines in panel h panels (b-e) show the total components that contain contributions from all four drivers.

510 mean changes ~~would else alone would~~ lead to a strong increase (see anticorrelated patterns in Figures 9b and d). In the high latitudes, decreases in  $C_T$  variability (Supplementary Figure A6a) together with increases in mean  $C_T$  (Supplementary Figure A5a) can explain ~~a large part much~~ of the negative contribution from  $\Delta_{s\sigma}\sigma_{H^+}^2$  (Figure 9g and golden light blue line in Figure 9hd). In the northern high latitudes, ~~also~~ mean and variability changes in  $A_T$  are ~~also~~ important for  $\Delta_{s\sigma}\sigma_{H^+}^2$  (~~not shown green line in Figure 9d~~). The additional contribution from changes in the correlations between the drivers ( $\Delta_{\rho+}\sigma_{H^+}^2$ ; cyan line in Figure 9ea)

515 also tends to contribute negatively to  $[H^+]$  variability changes, especially in the North Atlantic, ~~and changes in correlations with temperature play an important role~~ (gold line in Figure 9e). In summary, the increase in  $[H^+]$  variability at the surface is mainly caused by increases in mean  $C_T$ , attenuated by decreases in  $C_T$  variability in the high latitudes. Mean changes in  $A_T$  reinforce the increase in  $[H^+]$  variability in the northern high latitudes, but dampen the increase in the low latitudes.

520 At 200 m, the projected increase in  $\Delta\sigma_{H^+}^2$  (grey dashed or black solid line in Figure 10a) is also a result of the large increase due to the mean changes in the drivers ( $\Delta_s\sigma_{H^+}^2$ ; red line in Figure 10b; Supplementary Figure A5a; dashed black line in Figure 10b) and the decrease due to the interplay between mean changes and decreases in the variability ( $\Delta_{s\sigma}\sigma_{H^+}^2$ ; magenta line in Figure 10a, black dashed line in Figure 10d). Similar to the surface, the changes in mean and variability of  $C_T$  are the most important drivers of changes (Figure 10f,g; green and golden lines in Figure 10h). ~~Again, light blue lines in Figures 10b,d~~.

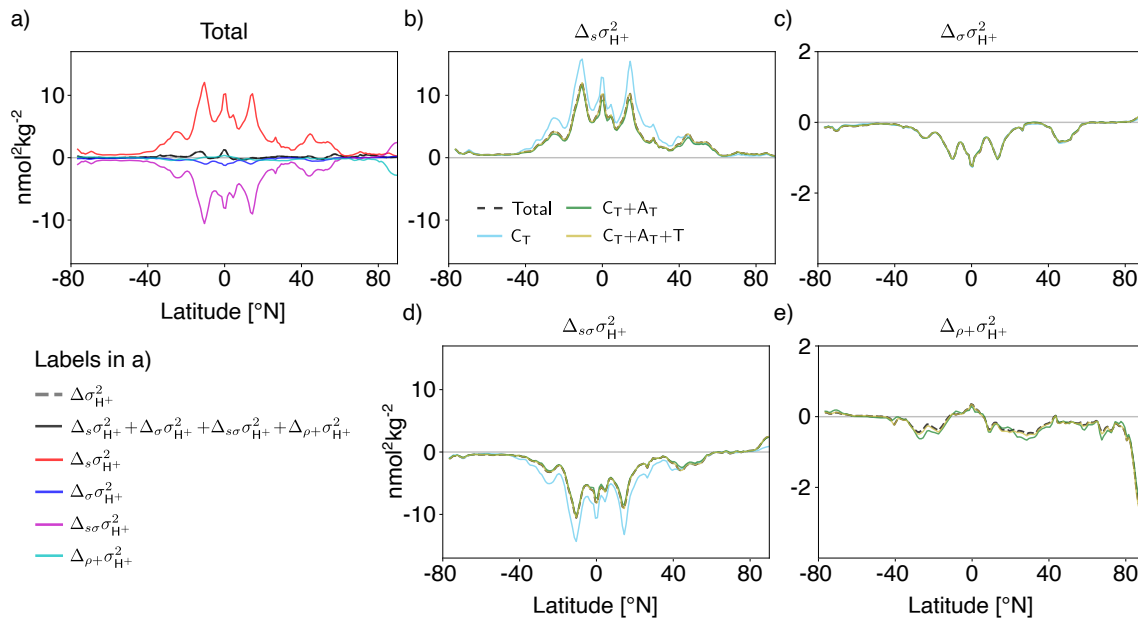
525 ~~Increases in mean  $A_T$  partially compensate the increase in  $[H^+]$  variability due to the increase in mean  $C_T$  (green lines in Figures 10b,d). Changes in  $[H^+]$  variability due to changes in temperature and salinity are of minor importance in most areas (not shown) small.~~ In contrast to the surface, ~~however~~, the individual compensating contributions to  $[H^+]$  variability change from mean ~~changes and simultaneous mean~~ and variability changes in the drivers, in particular those in  $C_T$ , are much larger at 200 m. The global average variance change due to the mean changes in the drivers ( $\Delta_s\sigma_{H^+}^2 = 3.7 \text{ nmol}^2\text{kg}^{-2}$ ) is much larger

530 than the overall simulated variance change ( $\Delta\sigma_{H^+}^2 = 0.1 \text{ nmol}^2\text{kg}^{-2}$ ). ~~The largest individual changes are projected for the southern edges of the subtropical gyres in the north and for the northern edges of the subtropical gyres in the south. There, the preindustrial background  $H^+$  variability is also the largest (Figure A4a). As a result, an increase in the sensitivities due to an increase in mean  $C_T$  has the largest effect there. The~~ contribution from changes in the correlations between the drivers is overall small (cyan line in Figure 10e and cyan line in a) and stems mainly from changes in the correlation between  $C_T$  and  $A_T$  (Figure 10h)-e). ~~Taken together, the increase in  $[H^+]$  variability at 200 m mainly arises from the balance between increase in mean  $C_T$  and decreases in  $C_T$  variability. Increases in mean  $A_T$  dampen these changes.~~

535

Unlike for  $[H^+]$ , both mean changes ( $\Delta_s\sigma_{\Omega}^2$ ; red lines in Figure 11) and variability changes in the drivers ( $\Delta_{\sigma}\sigma_{\Omega}^2$ ; blue lines in Figure 11) lead to a decrease in  $\Omega_A$  variability ( $\Delta\sigma_{\Omega}^2$ ; black dashed lines in Figure 11). At 200 m, variability changes are even the dominant driver for reductions in  $\Omega_A$  variability. Simultaneous changes in means and variabilities ( $\Delta_{s\sigma}\sigma_{\Omega}^2$ ; purple lines in Figure 11) contribute positively and dampen the reduction in  $\Omega_A$  variability from mean and variability changes alone.

540 Mean and variability changes in  $C_T$  are the main drivers for changes in  $\Omega_A$  variability as indicated by the tight relation between the dashed and solid red, blue, and purple lines in Figure 11, in particular at 200 m. An exception is the northern high latitudes, where  $A_T$  changes also play a substantial role at the surface (not shown). Correlation changes in the drivers ( $\Delta_{\rho+}\sigma_{\Omega}^2$ ; cyan



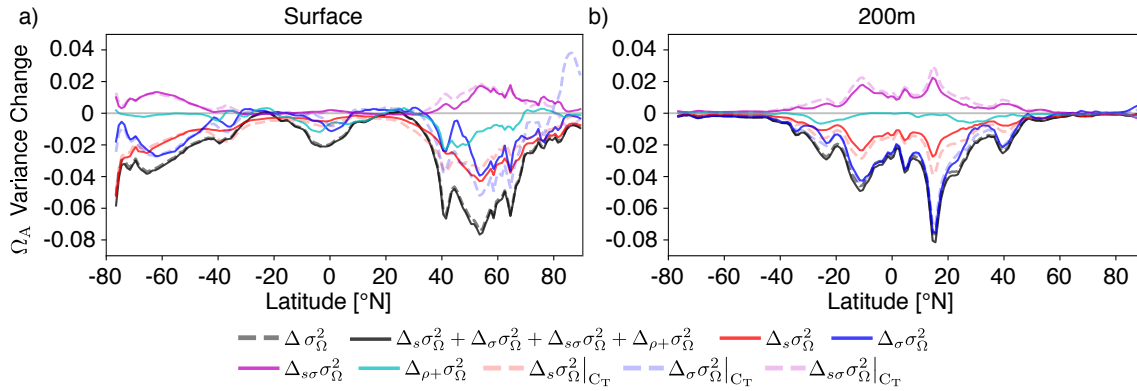
**Figure 10.** Same as Figure 9 but Decomposition of  $[H^+]$  variability changes at 200 m into different drivers ( $C_T$ ,  $A_T$ , temperature, and salinity). Shown are changes from preindustrial to 2081-2100 following the RCP8.5 scenario. The simulated change in  $[H^+]$  variance ( $\Delta\sigma_{H^+}^2$ ) is decomposed into the contribution from changes in the sensitivities that arise from changes in the drivers' mean values ( $\Delta_s\sigma_{H^+}^2$ ), the contribution from changes in the drivers' standard deviations ( $\Delta_\sigma\sigma_{H^+}^2$ ), the contribution from simultaneous changes in the sensitivities and the drivers' standard deviations ( $\Delta_{s\sigma}\sigma_{H^+}^2$ ), and the contribution from correlation changes alone together with simultaneous changes in correlations and sensitivities and standard deviations ( $\Delta_{\rho+}\sigma_{H^+}^2$ ) (a). The contributions to these components from changes in  $C_T$  alone (light blue lines), from changes in  $C_T$  and  $A_T$  (green lines), and from  $C_T$ ,  $A_T$  and temperature (gold lines) are shown in panels (b-e). The dashed black lines in panels (b-e) show the total components that contain contributions from all four drivers.

lines in Figure 11) are of similar relative importance as for  $H^+$  and again secondary importance and have the largest imprint in the northern mid-to-high latitudes at the surface.

#### 4 Discussion and conclusions

We provide a first quantification of the historical and future changes in extreme variability events in ocean acidity by analyzing daily mean 3D output from a 5-member ensemble simulation of a comprehensive Earth system model. In our analysis, we focus on changes in high  $[H^+]$  and low  $\Omega_A$  extreme events that arise only are defined with respect to a shifting baseline, where changes in extremes arise from changes in daily to interannual variability. Secular  $CO_2$  emission-induced trends in the mean state were removed from the model output before analyzing extremes under this approach. We show that extreme variability such extreme events in  $[H^+]$  are projected to become more frequent, longer lasting, more intense, and spatially more extensive under increasing atmospheric  $CO_2$  concentration, both at surface and also within the thermocline. These changes in  $H^+$  Under





**Figure 11.** Decomposition of  $\Omega_A$  variability changes into different drivers. The simulated zonal mean contribution to variance changes in  $\Omega_A$  (black dashed lines,  $\Delta\sigma_{\Omega}^2$ ) from preindustrial to 2081-2100 (RCP8.5) at the surface (a) and at 200 m (b). Shown is the contribution from sensitivity changes (due to mean changes in the drivers) (red lines,  $\Delta_s\sigma_{\Omega}^2$ ), standard deviation changes in the drivers (blue lines,  $\Delta_{\sigma}\sigma_{\Omega}^2$ ), simultaneous changes in sensitivities and standard deviations (purple lines,  $\Delta_{s\sigma}\sigma_{\Omega}^2$ ), and all contributions that involve changes in the drivers' correlations (cyan lines,  $\Delta_{\rho+}\sigma_{\Omega}^2$ ). Furthermore, contributions from mean changes, standard deviation changes and simultaneous mean and standard deviation changes in  $C_T$  alone are shown (dashed red, blue, and purple lines, respectively). **In contrast to Figures 9 and 10 and due to their large contribution, we also show the zonal mean contribution from variability changes in  $C_T$  alone here.**

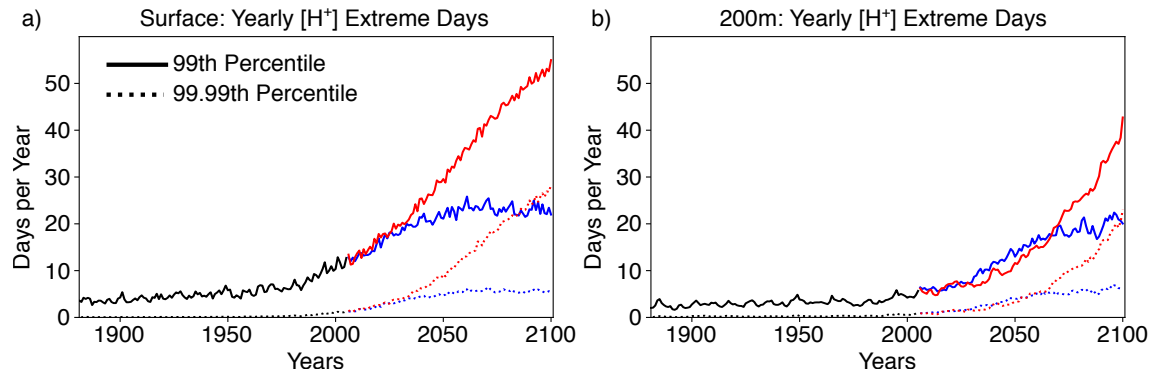
RCP2.6, the increase in these extreme event characteristics are substantially reduced under the RCP2.6 scenario compared to  
 555 is substantially smaller than under RCP8.5. The increase in  $[H^+]$  extreme variability events variability is a consequence of increased sensitivity of  $[H^+]$  to variations in its drivers. It is mainly driven by the projected increase in mean  $C_T$  and additionally altered by changes in  $C_T$  variability and  $A_T$  mean and variability as well as changes in the correlations between the drivers. Extreme variability In contrast to  $[H^+]$ , variability of  $\Omega_A$  is projected to decline in the future. Therefore, extreme events in  
 $\Omega_A$  are projected to become less frequent in the future. It is because when defined with respect to a shifting baseline. The  
 560 reason for the decline in variability is that  $\Omega_A$ , unlike  $[H^+]$ , becomes less sensitive to variations in the drivers with the mean increase in  $C_T$ . Furthermore, the projected reductions in the drivers' variabilities, mainly in  $C_T$ , significantly add to the reduced  
occurrence of further reduce  $\Omega_A$  variability extremes.

In this study, we analyze changes in extreme variability events that are defined relative to a shifting baseline. If the long-term  
 565 increase in ocean acidity and decrease in  $\Omega_A$  is taken into account, i.e. defining the extremes The analysis of extreme events  
defined with respect to a fixed preindustrial baseline (here the preindustrial 99<sup>th</sup> percentile for  $H^+$  and the preindustrial 1<sup>st</sup>  
percentile for  $\Omega_A$ ), the changes fixed preindustrial percentiles reveals that the secular trends in  $[H^+]$  and  $\Omega_A$  extremes are  
much larger (cyan lines in Figure 4). Under the RCP8.5 scenario, every day becomes an extreme event day in year 2051 at  
surface and in year 2067 at 200 m depth (Figure 4a). The model also projects are so large that they lead to year-round or almost  
 570 year-round extreme conditions for  $\Omega_A$  at the surface and at events in the upper 200 m over the entire globe by the end of the 21<sup>st</sup>  
century under RCP8.5 (Figure 4b). Comparing the two frameworks, even under the low-emission scenario RCP2.6. Extreme

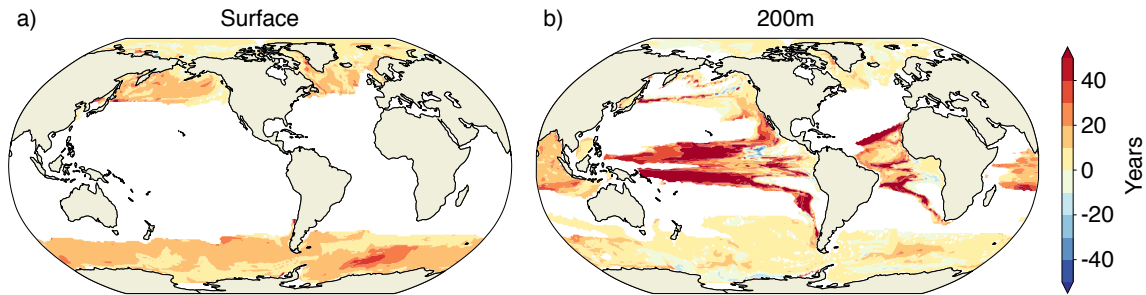
events are no longer temporally and spatially bounded events that arise due to the chaotic nature of the climate system, but describe a permanent new state. Under the fixed baseline approach, the relative contribution of changes in variability or higher moments of the distribution to the changes in the number of extremes is small. For example, the number of yearly extreme days for surface  $[H^+]$  extremes under present-day conditions, the annual number of extreme event days as defined in this study (i.e. with shifting baseline; black line in Figure 4) is on global average over the 1986-2005 period under the shifting-baseline approach is only 3.8 % of that also including the mean changes (i.e. with when defining the extreme events with respect to a fixed preindustrial baseline; cyan line in Figure 4). This fraction differs regionally and reaches, reaching more than 10 % in the North Pacific, the North Atlantic, and the Arctic Ocean. Interestingly, the GFDL-ESM2M projects that surface mean  $[H^+]$  overshoots the preindustrial 99<sup>th</sup> percentile in year 1975 on global average. Thereafter, higher variability actually reduces the number of extreme event days that are above the preindustrial percentile. Surface mean  $\Omega_A$  falls below the preindustrial 1<sup>st</sup> percentile in year 1990. After that, lower variability further increases the number of extreme event days below the preindustrial percentile. Simulated globally averaged number of extreme event days per year defined with a shifting baseline (black lines) and with a fixed preindustrial baseline (cyan lines) for  $H^+$  using the 99<sup>th</sup> percentile (a) and for  $\Omega_A$  using the 1<sup>st</sup> percentile (b) over the 1861-2100 period following the RCP8.5 scenario. Solid lines show results at the surface and dashed lines at 200 m. However, we recall here that the changes in the number of  $[H^+]$  extremes when defined with respect to a shifting baseline are large. These changes in variability may need to be taken into account when assessing the impacts of ocean acidity changes on marine organisms, especially when organisms are likely to adapt to the long-term mean changes, but not to changes in variability.

We use the 99<sup>th</sup> percentile of the distribution from a preindustrial simulation for the definition of an the extreme  $[H^+]$  variability event events (i.e., a one-in-a-hundred-days event at preindustrial levels), but the results may depend on the choice of this threshold. We tested the sensitivity of our results under the shifting-baseline approach by using also the 99.99<sup>th</sup> percentile threshold (i.e., a one-day-in-27.4-years event at preindustrial). The relative increase in the numbers of extreme  $[H^+]$  days per year is larger for these very rare variability rare extremes (Figure 12). For example, nearly every second day with  $[H^+]$  exceeding the 99<sup>th</sup> percentile (red solid lines in Figure 12) is also a day with  $[H^+]$  exceeding the 99.99<sup>th</sup> percentile (red dotted lines in Figure 12) by the end of the 21<sup>st</sup> century under RCP8.5, both at surface and at depth. In other words, an event that occurs every 27 years at preindustrial becomes almost as frequent in the future as an event that occurs every hundred days at preindustrial. As a result of this large relative increase in rare variability extremes, the model projects as many days with  $[H^+]$  exceeding the 99.99<sup>th</sup> percentile by the end of the century under RCP8.5 (red dotted lines in Figure 12) as it projects days exceeding the 99<sup>th</sup> percentile under RCP2.6 (blue solid lines in Figure 12).

The projected increase in  $[H^+]$  variability and decrease in  $\Omega_A$  variability also alters the occurrence of extreme events based on absolute thresholds. An often used threshold is  $\Omega_A = 1$  below which seawater is corrosive with respect to the calcium carbonate mineral aragonite (Bednaršek et al., 2012)(Morse and Mackenzie, 1990). We assess the influence of the general decline in  $\Omega_A$  variability at the time where a grid cell falls below  $\Omega_A = 1$  for the first time. To do so, we compare these times within



**Figure 12.** Globally averaged number of yearly extreme variability event days for  $[H^+]$  over the historical (black lines), RCP2.6 (blue), and RCP8.5 (red) simulations for the preindustrial 99<sup>th</sup> (solid lines) and 99.99<sup>th</sup> percentile (dotted lines) at (a) the surface and (b) and 200 m (b). The extreme events are defined with respect to shifting baselines.



**Figure 13.** The temporal difference in years between the first occurrence of aragonite undersaturation in the historical and RCP8.5 ensemble and a hypothetical simulation where variability does not change over the 1861-2100 period, but only the mean changes. Positive values (yellow and red) indicate a delayed onset of undersaturation resulting from declines in  $\Omega_A$  variability.

the historical and RCP8.5 ensemble to ~~the ones those~~ for the hypothetical case where  $\Omega_A$  variability stays at the preindustrial level but mean  $\Omega_A$  undergoes the ensemble mean evolution. We find that the decline in  $\Omega_A$  variability, which is observed in the historical and RCP8.5 ensemble, leads to an average delay of the first occurrence of undersaturation by about 11 years at the surface and about 16 years at 200 m. At the surface, these delays of undersaturation occur throughout the high latitudes (Figure 13a). At depth, the delays are most pronounced in the tropics (Figure 13b), but delays also occur in the high latitudes. Assuming unchanged seasonality, McNeil and Matear (2008) found that seasonal aragonite undersaturation of surface waters in the Southern Ocean may occur 30 years earlier than annual mean aragonite undersaturation. However, our simulation shows that the reduction in  $\Omega_A$  variability delays the onset of undersaturation by about 10 to 15 years in the Southern Ocean relative to a hypothetical simulation where variability does not change. Therefore, changes in variability need to be taken into account when projecting the onset of seasonal undersaturation, especially in the high latitudes and in the thermocline of the tropics.

Previous studies have shown that the seasonal cycle of surface ocean  $p\text{CO}_2$  will be strongly amplified under increasing atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  (Gallego et al., 2018; Landschützer et al., 2018; McNeil and Sasse, 2016) and that a similar amplification is expected for surface  $[\text{H}^+]$  (Kwiatkowski and Orr, 2018). Here we show that the changes in the seasonal cycle of  $[\text{H}^+]$  translate into large increases in short-term extreme acidity events  $\tau$  at surface as well as at 200 m, when these events are defined with respect to a shifting baseline. In addition to earlier studies, we also show that changes in subannual variability, which are only partially resolved by monthly mean data, contribute to changes in extreme events in  $[\text{H}^+]$  variability—events—under increasing atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  and. Furthermore, we show that the average duration of extreme variability—events at the surface and at present-day in recent past conditions (1986-2005) is about 15 days. It is therefore To resolve such events that last for days to weeks, it is critical to use daily temporal output to assess extreme events in ocean acidity mean output. Currently, ocean carbonate system variables from models that participate in the sixth phase of the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project are routinely stored with a monthly frequency on the Earth system grid (Jones et al., 2016). We therefore recommend to store and use high-frequency output to study extreme events in the ocean carbonate systems.

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Even though we consider our results as robust, a number of potential caveats remain. First, the horizontal resolution of the ocean model in the GFDL ESM2M model is rather coarse and cannot represent critical scales of small-scale circulation structures (e.g. Turi et al. (2018)) (e.g. Turi et al., 2018). In addition, the biogeochemical processes included in the GFDL ESM2M model are designed for the open ocean, but do not capture the highly variable coastal processes (Hofmann et al., 2011). High resolution ocean models with improved process representations are therefore needed to explore extreme events—variability in ocean carbonate chemistry, especially in coastal regions and smaller ocean basins, such as the Arctic (Terhaar et al., 2019a, b). Observation-based carbonate system data on daily time scale with daily mean resolution would also be necessary to thoroughly evaluate the models' capability to represent daily day-to-day variations in carbonate chemistry. Secondly, our results, in particular at the local scale, might depend on the model formulation. As the mean increases in  $C_T$  mainly drive the increases in extreme— $[\text{H}^+]$  variability events—(see Figure 9f), we expect that models with larger oceanic uptake of anthropogenic carbon show larger changes in extreme variability events—increases in  $[\text{H}^+]$  variability than models with lower anthropogenic carbon uptake. The GFDL ESM2M model matches observation-based estimates of historical global anthropogenic  $\text{CO}_2$  uptake relatively well, but still has difficulties in representing the regional patterns in storage (Frölicher et al., 2015). Therefore, the exact regional patterns of  $C_T$  changes may differ from model to model and further. Further studies focusing on the physical processes that lead to the regional  $C_T$  changes may help to better constrain the regional patterns in changes of acidity extremes—variability changes. In addition, it is currently rather uncertain how  $[\text{H}^+]$  and  $\Omega_A$  variability changes as a result of changes in the drivers' variabilities. We have demonstrated that this factor is particularly important at depth—for  $\Omega_A$  and for  $[\text{H}^+]$  and for  $\Omega_A$  at depth. It is well known that current Earth system models have imperfect or uncertain representations of ocean variability over a range of timescales (Frölicher et al., 2016; Resplandy et al., 2015; Keller et al., 2014) (Keller et al., 2014; Resplandy et al., 2015; Frölicher et al., 2016). A possible way forward would be to assess variability changes and changes in ocean acidity extreme events within a multi-model ensemble, which would likely provide upper and lower bounds of future changes in these events. Finally, it is assumed that physical and biogeochemical changes in the ocean will also

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increase diurnal variability. In particular in coastal areas, such diurnal variations can have amplitudes that are much larger than the projected changes over the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Hofmann et al., 2011). However, the GFDL ESM2M model does not fully resolve the diurnal variability. Future studies with Earth system models that resolve diurnal processes are needed to quantify changes in diurnal variability and the impacts of these changes on extreme acidity events.

Our results may also have important consequences for our understanding of the ~~impact~~ impacts of ocean acidification on marine organisms and ecosystems. The projected increase in the frequency and the duration of ocean acidity ~~variability~~ extremes implies that marine organisms will have less time to recover from high  $[H^+]$  events in the future. ~~The Organisms that can not adapt to the large long-term changes in mean  $[H^+]$  will likely be most impacted. However, even if organisms may be able to adapt to the long-term increase in  $[H^+]$ , the~~ large projected increase in  $[H^+]$  extreme ~~variability events in the open ocean events due to changes in variability~~ may push organisms and ecosystems to the limits of their resilience, especially those organisms that are commonly accustomed to a more steady environment ~~to the limits of their resilience~~. The risks for substantial ecosystem impacts are aggravated by the fact that the frequency and intensity of marine heatwaves are also projected to substantially increase (Frölicher et al., 2018), which also negatively impact marine ecosystems (Wernberg et al., 2016; Smale et al., 2019). The interactions of intensified multiple stressors ~~has~~ have the potential to influence marine ecosystems and the ocean's biogeochemical cycles in an unprecedented manner (Gruber, 2011). However, further research is needed to understand the combined impacts of short-term ocean acidity extremes and marine heatwaves on marine ecosystems.

In conclusion, our analysis shows that marine organisms and ecosystems are projected to be exposed to ~~less stable~~ more extreme  $[H^+]$  conditions in the future ~~with more frequent occurrences of variability-driven short-term extreme  $H^+$  conditions even when accounting for changes in the long-term mean~~. Such extremes events are projected to last longer, to be more intense and to cover larger volumes of seawater and therefore potentially add to the stress on organisms and ecosystems from the long-term increase in ocean acidity.

## Appendix A: Identifying and removing the secular trend in the model data

In ~~this study~~ Section 3.2 and 3.3, we analyze the changes in extreme ~~variability~~ events in  $[H^+]$  and  $\Omega_A$  that arise from day-to-day to interannual variability changes in these variables. We therefore need to remove the secular trends from the data prior to analysis. We estimate the secular trend in a simulation from the five-member ensemble mean, assuming that subannual and interannual to decadal variations in the individual ensemble members are phased randomly and do not imprint on the ensemble mean because they average out. A larger ensemble size would be necessary for this assumption to perfectly hold. However, this potential source of error does not qualitatively alter our results. We remove the seasonal cycle, here defined as the 365-day long mean evolution over the course of a year, from the ensemble means by smoothing the ensemble means with a 365-day running mean filter, i.e. by calculating the convolution of the time series with a rectangular window of length 365 and height  $1/365$ . This filter also removes variability on subannual and interannual timescales and thereby also reduces the error we make

due to the small ensemble size that is discussed above. We then subtract the running-mean-filtered ensemble means from the five ensemble members to remove the secular trends in the individual ensemble members.

## Appendix B: Identifying interannual and subannual variability

690 The spectral density describes how the variance in a time series is distributed over different frequencies  $\nu_j$ . It is proportional to the absolute value squared of the discrete Fourier transformation (DFT) of the time series. Defining the spectral density only for positive frequencies, it is given by

$$f(\nu_j) = 2 \frac{\Delta t^2}{T} \left| \sum_{k=1}^N x_k \cdot \exp(-i2\pi\nu_j \cdot \Delta t k) \right|^2, \quad (\text{B1})$$

with  $N$  the number of time steps,  $x_k$  the values of the time series at each time step,  $\Delta t$  the time interval between two time steps,  $T = N \cdot \Delta t$ , and the frequencies  $\nu_j = j/T$ . The autocovariance is the inverse Fourier transform of the spectral density  
695 (Wiener-Khinchine theorem, Chatfield (1996))<sup>1</sup>. In the continuous case, the theorem states

$$\gamma(\tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \tilde{f}(\nu) \exp(i2\pi\nu\tau) d\nu, \quad (\text{B2})$$

with the autocovariance function  $\gamma(\tau)$  and the spectral density  $\tilde{f}$  defined for positive and negative frequencies. Since the two-sided spectral density,  $\tilde{f}$ , is a real and even function, one can also use

$$\gamma(\tau) = \int_0^{\infty} f(\nu) \cos(2\pi\nu\tau) d\nu \quad (\text{B3})$$

700 with the one-sided spectral density  $f = 2 \cdot \tilde{f}$  that is used in this text. As a consequence, the variance within the time series, given by the autocovariance at lag zero, is obtained by integrating the spectral density over all positive frequencies,  $\sigma^2 = \int_0^{\infty} f(\nu) d\nu$ . For a discrete time series, where the maximal resolved frequency is given by  $\nu_{\max} = 1/2\Delta t$ , the identity reads

$$\sigma^2 = \sum_{j=0}^{N/2} f(\nu_j) \frac{1}{N\Delta t}. \quad (\text{B4})$$

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<sup>1</sup>~~In the continuous case, the theorem states~~

$$\gamma(\tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \tilde{f}(\nu) \exp(i2\pi\nu\tau) d\nu,$$

~~with the autocovariance function  $\gamma(\tau)$  and the spectral density  $\tilde{f}$  defined for positive and negative frequencies. Since the two-sided spectral density,  $\tilde{f}$ , is a real and even function, one can also use~~

$$\gamma(\tau) = \int_0^{\infty} f(\nu) \cos(2\pi\nu\tau) d\nu$$

~~with the one-sided spectral density  $f = 2 \cdot \tilde{f}$  that is used in this text.~~

Based on this equation, one can separate the contributions to variance from low-frequency and high-frequency variations. In this study, we determine interannual variability and subannual variability. Interannual variability is calculated by summing over the contributions to variance from all frequencies up to a cycle of once per year, i.e. by evaluating the sum up to  $i_{\text{cut}}$  for which  $\nu_{\text{cut}} = 1/365 \text{ day}^{-1}$ . Accordingly, subannual variability is obtained by evaluating the sum from  $i_{\text{cut}} + 1$  to  $N/2$ . Prior to this separation, the seasonal variability is removed from the data by subtracting the 365-day climatology.

### Appendix C: Decomposition of $[\text{H}^+]$ variance change

Following Equation 2 in the main text, the variance in  $[\text{H}^+]$  (or  $\Omega_A$ ) can be approximated as a function of the four sensitivities

$$\mathbf{s} = \left( \frac{\partial \text{H}^+}{\partial A_T}, \frac{\partial \text{H}^+}{\partial C_T}, \frac{\partial \text{H}^+}{\partial S}, \frac{\partial \text{H}^+}{\partial T} \right)^T \quad (\text{C1})$$

that in turn depend on the mean values of the drivers, the four standard deviations of the drivers

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = (\sigma_{A_T}, \sigma_{C_T}, \sigma_S, \sigma_T)^T, \quad (\text{C2})$$

and the six pairwise correlation coefficients, in matrix notation given by

$$\boldsymbol{\rho} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \rho_{AC} & \rho_{AS} & \rho_{AT} \\ \rho_{AC} & 1 & \rho_{CS} & \rho_{CT} \\ \rho_{AS} & \rho_{CS} & 1 & \rho_{ST} \\ \rho_{AT} & \rho_{CT} & \rho_{ST} & 1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (\text{C3})$$

Based on this notation, we can rewrite Equation 2 of the main text as

$$\sigma_{\text{H}^+}^2 = \sum_{i=1}^4 \sum_{j=1}^4 s_i s_j \sigma_i \sigma_j \rho_{ij}. \quad (\text{C4})$$

We use Equation C4 to decompose the variability change between the preindustrial and 2081-2100 into the contributions from changes in  $\mathbf{s}$ ,  $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ , and  $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ . Since it is based on a Taylor expansion, since  $[\text{H}^+]$  variance represented by Equation C4 is a polynomial of fifth order in these variables, its Taylor series has five non-vanishing orders. We use the drivers' standard deviations instead of their variances for the decomposition. With the latter, the Taylor expansion would have infinite terms and could not be decomposed exactly as it is done in the following. However, it would asymptotically lead to the same decomposition of  $[\text{H}^+]$  variance change into  $\Delta_s \sigma_{\text{H}^+}^2$ ,  $\Delta_\sigma \sigma_{\text{H}^+}^2$ ,  $\Delta_{s\sigma} \sigma_{\text{H}^+}^2$ , and  $\Delta_{\rho} \sigma_{\text{H}^+}^2$  that is presented below. Furthermore, it should be noted that the resulting decomposition of  $[\text{H}^+]$  variance change only approximates the simulated variance change because it is based on Equation C4 that itself is based on a first order Taylor expansion of  $[\text{H}^+]$  with respect to the drivers.

<sup>1</sup>We use the drivers' standard deviations instead of their variances for the decomposition. With the latter, the Taylor expansion would have infinite terms and could not be decomposed exactly as it is done in the following. However, it would asymptotically lead to the same decomposition of  $[\text{H}^+]$  variance change into  $\Delta_s \sigma_{\text{H}^+}^2$ ,  $\Delta_\sigma \sigma_{\text{H}^+}^2$ ,  $\Delta_{s\sigma} \sigma_{\text{H}^+}^2$ , and  $\Delta_{\rho} \sigma_{\text{H}^+}^2$  that is presented below.

In the following, all terms of the Taylor series are given. We denote the sum of first order terms that contain changes in the four sensitivities  $\Delta s_{1,\dots,4}$  by  $\Delta_s^{(1)}\sigma_{H+}^2$ , the sum of second order terms that contain changes in the sensitivities and standard deviations by  $\Delta_{s\sigma}^{(2)}\sigma_{H+}^2$ , and so on.

730 The first order is given by  $\Delta^{(1)}\sigma_{H+}^2 = \Delta_s^{(1)}\sigma_{H+}^2 + \Delta_\sigma^{(1)}\sigma_{H+}^2 + \Delta_\rho^{(1)}\sigma_{H+}^2$  with

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta_s^{(1)}\sigma_{H+}^2 &= 2 \sum_{k=1}^4 \sum_{j=1}^4 s_j \sigma_k \sigma_j \rho_{kj} \Delta s_k \\ \Delta_\sigma^{(1)}\sigma_{H+}^2 &= 2 \sum_{k=1}^4 \sum_{j=1}^4 s_k s_j \sigma_j \rho_{kj} \Delta \sigma_k \\ \Delta_\rho^{(1)}\sigma_{H+}^2 &= \sum_{k=1}^4 \sum_{l=1}^4 s_k s_l \sigma_k \sigma_l \Delta \rho_{kl}.\end{aligned}\tag{C5}$$

The second order contains

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta_{ss}^{(2)}\sigma_{H+}^2 &= \sum_{k=1}^4 \sum_{l=1}^4 \sigma_k \sigma_l \rho_{kl} \Delta s_k \Delta s_l \\ \Delta_{\sigma\sigma}^{(2)}\sigma_{H+}^2 &= \sum_{k=1}^4 \sum_{l=1}^4 s_k s_l \rho_{kl} \Delta \sigma_k \Delta \sigma_l \\ \Delta_{s\sigma}^{(2)}\sigma_{H+}^2 &= 2 \sum_{k=1}^4 \sum_{l=1}^4 (s_l \sigma_l \rho_{kl} \Delta s_k \Delta \sigma_k + s_l \sigma_k \rho_{kl} \Delta s_k \Delta \sigma_l) \\ \Delta_{s\rho}^{(2)}\sigma_{H+}^2 &= 2 \sum_{k=1}^4 \sum_{l=1}^4 s_l \sigma_k \sigma_l \Delta s_k \Delta \rho_{kl} \\ 735 \Delta_{\sigma\rho}^{(2)}\sigma_{H+}^2 &= 2 \sum_{k=1}^4 \sum_{l=1}^4 s_k s_l \sigma_l \Delta \sigma_k \Delta \rho_{kl}.\end{aligned}\tag{C6}$$

The third order terms read

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta_{sss}^{(3)}\sigma_{H+}^2 &= 2 \sum_{k=1}^4 \sum_{l=1}^4 \sigma_l \rho_{kl} \Delta s_k \Delta s_l \Delta \sigma_k \\ \Delta_{s\sigma\sigma}^{(3)}\sigma_{H+}^2 &= 2 \sum_{k=1}^4 \sum_{l=1}^4 s_l \rho_{kl} \Delta s_k \Delta \sigma_k \Delta \sigma_l \\ \Delta_{ss\rho}^{(3)}\sigma_{H+}^2 &= \sum_{k=1}^4 \sum_{l=1}^4 \sigma_k \sigma_l \Delta s_k \Delta s_l \Delta \rho_{kl} \\ \Delta_{\sigma\sigma\rho}^{(3)}\sigma_{H+}^2 &= \sum_{k=1}^4 \sum_{l=1}^4 s_k s_l \Delta \sigma_k \Delta \sigma_l \Delta \rho_{kl} \\ \Delta_{s\sigma\rho}^{(3)}\sigma_{H+}^2 &= 2 \sum_{k=1}^4 \sum_{l=1}^4 (s_l \sigma_k \Delta s_k \Delta \sigma_l \Delta \rho_{kl} + s_l \sigma_l \Delta s_k \Delta \sigma_k \Delta \rho_{kl}).\end{aligned}\tag{C7}$$



The fourth order reads

$$\begin{aligned}
740 \quad \Delta_{ss\sigma\sigma}^{(4)}\sigma_{H^+}^2 &= \sum_{k=1}^4 \sum_{l=1}^4 \rho_{kl} \Delta s_k \Delta s_l \Delta \sigma_k \Delta \sigma_l \\
\Delta_{ss\sigma\rho}^{(4)}\sigma_{H^+}^2 &= 2 \sum_{k=1}^4 \sum_{l=1}^4 \sigma_l \Delta s_k \Delta s_l \Delta \sigma_k \Delta \rho_{kl} \\
\Delta_{s\sigma\sigma\rho}^{(4)}\sigma_{H^+}^2 &= 2 \sum_{k=1}^4 \sum_{l=1}^4 s_l \Delta s_k \Delta \sigma_k \Delta \sigma_l \Delta \rho_{kl}
\end{aligned} \tag{C8}$$

and the fifth order is given by

$$\Delta_{ss\sigma\sigma\rho}^{(5)}\sigma_{H^+}^2 = \sum_{k=1}^4 \sum_{l=1}^4 \Delta s_k \Delta s_l \Delta \sigma_k \Delta \sigma_l \Delta \rho_{kl}. \tag{C9}$$

We identify the variance change from changes in the sensitivities as

$$745 \quad \Delta_s \sigma_{H^+}^2 = \Delta_s^{(1)} \sigma_{H^+}^2 + \Delta_{ss}^{(2)} \sigma_{H^+}^2, \tag{C10}$$

the change from standard deviation changes as

$$\Delta_\sigma \sigma_{H^+}^2 = \Delta_\sigma^{(1)} \sigma_{H^+}^2 + \Delta_{\sigma\sigma}^{(2)} \sigma_{H^+}^2, \tag{C11}$$

the change from simultaneous changes in sensitivities and standard deviations as

$$\Delta_{s\sigma} \sigma_{H^+}^2 = \Delta_{s\sigma}^{(2)} \sigma_{H^+}^2 + \Delta_{ss\sigma}^{(3)} \sigma_{H^+}^2 + \Delta_{s\sigma\sigma}^{(3)} \sigma_{H^+}^2 + \Delta_{ss\sigma\sigma}^{(4)} \sigma_{H^+}^2, \tag{C12}$$

750 and that from correlation changes and mixed contributions that include correlation changes as

$$\Delta_{\rho+} \sigma_{H^+}^2 = \Delta_{\rho}^{(1)} \sigma_{H^+}^2 + \Delta_{s\rho}^{(2)} \sigma_{H^+}^2 + \Delta_{\sigma\rho}^{(2)} \sigma_{H^+}^2 + \Delta_{ss\rho}^{(3)} \sigma_{H^+}^2 + \Delta_{\sigma s\rho}^{(3)} \sigma_{H^+}^2 + \Delta_{s\sigma\rho}^{(3)} \sigma_{H^+}^2 + \Delta_{ss\sigma\rho}^{(4)} \sigma_{H^+}^2 + \Delta_{s\sigma\sigma\rho}^{(4)} \sigma_{H^+}^2 + \Delta_{ss\sigma\sigma\rho}^{(5)} \sigma_{H^+}^2. \tag{C13}$$

Finally, we calculate  $\Delta_s \sigma_{H^+}^2 |_{C_T}$ ,  $\Delta_\sigma \sigma_{H^+}^2 |_{C_T}$ , and  $\Delta_{s\sigma} \sigma_{H^+}^2 |_{C_T}$ , the analogues for the analogues of Equations C10-C12 that only take into account changes in  $C_T$ , changes in  $C_T$  and  $A_T$ , and changes in  $C_T$ ,  $A_T$ , and  $T$ . This is done by calculating  $\Delta_{s_1, \dots, 4}$  only based on mean changes in  $C_T$  the considered variables and by setting the standard deviation changes for  $A_T$ ,  $S$ , and  $T$  in variables and correlation changes in pairs of variables that are not considered to zero.

#### Appendix D: Comparison of simulated ensemble-mean trends in seasonal amplitude to observation-based trends

We construct confidence intervals for the observation-based slope estimates following Hartmann et al. (2013). For the simulations, we use the arithmetic average of the five ensemble-member slope estimates as the estimator,

$$\hat{b} = \frac{1}{5} \sum_{k=1}^5 \hat{b}_k \tag{D1}$$

760 with estimated variance

$$\hat{\sigma}_{\hat{b}}^2 = \frac{1}{5^2} \sum_{k=1}^5 \hat{\sigma}_{b_k}^2. \quad (\text{D2})$$

We then construct the confidence interval for  $\hat{b}$  as

$$(\hat{b} - q \cdot \hat{\sigma}_{\hat{b}}, \hat{b} + q \cdot \hat{\sigma}_{\hat{b}}), \quad (\text{D3})$$

with  $q$  the  $(1+p)/2$ -quantile (we use  $p = 0.9$ ) of the  $t$ -distribution with  $5 \cdot (N - 2)$  degrees of freedom. We correct the sample  
 765 size  $N$  (34, the number of years we use for the fits) to a reduced sample size  $N_r$  when we find positive lag-one autocorrelation  
 in the residuals of the fits (data - linear regression model). Lag-one autocorrelation is estimated as the average of the five  
 ensemble-member lag-one autocorrelation estimates

$$\hat{\rho} = \frac{1}{5} \sum_{k=1}^5 \hat{\rho}_k. \quad (\text{D4})$$

and we obtain  $N_r = N \cdot (\hat{\rho} - 1)/(\hat{\rho} + 1)$ . Positive  $\hat{\rho}$  is only found in the northern high latitudes. This is in contrast to the  
 770 observation-based case, where we find large positive  $\hat{\rho}_o$  (up to 0.7) in the residuals of all latitude bands besides the tropical  
 region.

For testing the significance of a difference between the simulation slope estimate  $\hat{b}$  and the observation-based estimate  $\hat{b}_o$ , we  
 use Welch's test that assumes different variances for the two estimates (Andrade and Estévez-Pérez, 2014). The variance of the  
 775 simulation slope estimate is calculated by dividing the ensemble-averaged slope variance by the ensemble size (Equation D2)  
 and is hence smaller than the observation-based slope variance. If the absolute value of the test statistic

$$\frac{\hat{b} - \hat{b}_o}{\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}_{\hat{b}}^2 + \hat{\sigma}_o}} \quad (\text{D5})$$

is larger than the  $(1+p)/2$ -quantile of the  $t$  distribution with (Andrade and Estévez-Pérez, 2014)

$$\frac{(\hat{\sigma}_{\hat{b}}^2 + \hat{\sigma}_{b_o}^2)^2}{\hat{\sigma}_{\hat{b}}^4 / (5 \cdot (N_r - 2)) + \hat{\sigma}_{b_o}^4 / (N_{r,o} - 2)} \quad (\text{D6})$$

780 degrees of freedom, we consider the observation-based and simulation slope to be different from each other with confidence  
 level  $p = 0.9$ .

*Data availability.* The GFDL ESM2M model data underlying the figures and analysis are available under following link on ZENODO: TO  
 BE INSERTED

*Author contributions.* FAB and TLF designed the study. FAB performed the simulations, assisted by TLF and JGJ. FAB performed the  
 785 analysis and wrote the initial manuscript. All authors contributed to the writing of the paper.

**Table A1.** Simulated global ensemble-mean  $\Omega_A$  extreme event characteristics, when extremes are defined with respect to a shifting baseline. Values in brackets denote ensemble minima and maxima.

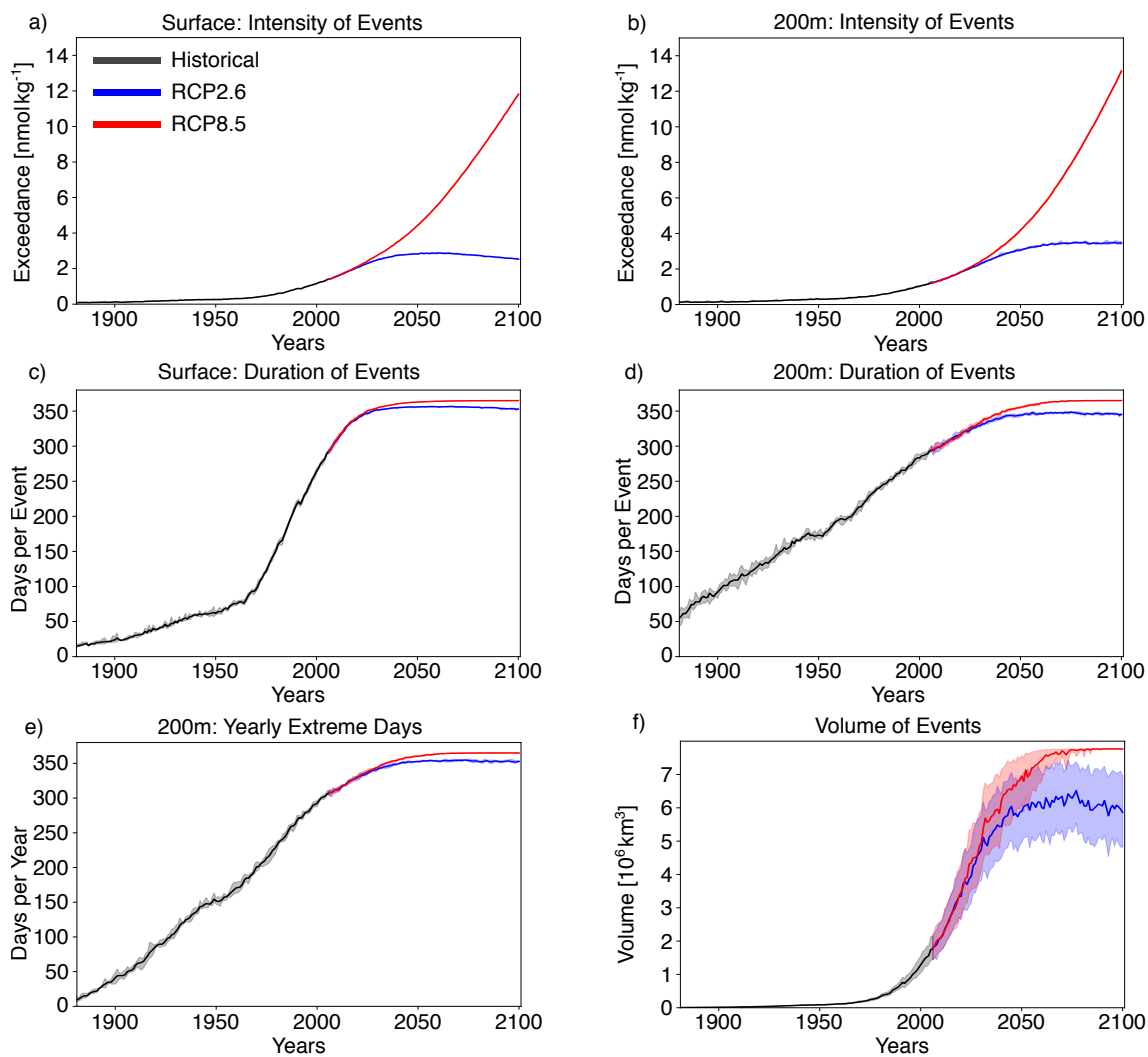
	PI	1986-2005	2081-2100 RCP2.6	2081-2100 RCP8.5
<del>Number Surf.</del> <u>Yearly Extreme Days Surf. [Days per Year]</u>	3.65	1.75 (1.50-2.20)	2.24 (1.86-2.93)	1.36 (1.09-1.69)
200 m <u>Days per Year</u>	3.65	1.98 (1.51-2.77)	3.01 (2.28-3.71)	1.72 (1.38-2.02)
Duration Surf. [ <u>Days</u> ]	19.70	17.84 (16.84-18.92)	19.37 (18.07-21.13)	29.28 (27.37-32.57)
200 m [ <u>Days</u> ]	38.61	66.06 (59.74-18.92)	98.71 (89.01-109.01)	111.56 (106.62-122.70)
Maximal Intensity Surf. [ <u><math>\times 10^{-3}</math></u> ]	2.92	3.42 (3.26-3.64)	3.21 (3.07-3.48)	1.51 (1.42-1.63)
200 m [ <u><math>\times 10^{-3}</math></u> ]	3.26	4.96 (3.87-6.67)	7.90 (6.05-11.06)	6.02 (2.85-9.13)
Volume [ <u><math>\text{km}^3</math></u> ]	3640	3158 (2888-3460)	3662 (3021-4215)	3378 (3086-3714)

~~Simulated global ensemble-mean  $\Omega_A$  extreme variability event characteristics for the preindustrial (PI), present day (1986-2005), and the end of this century (2081-2100) for both RCP2.6 and RCP8.5. Numbers of yearly extreme days are given in days per year, durations in days, intensities in  $10^{-3} \Omega_A$  units and volumes in  $\text{km}^3$ . Values in brackets denote ensemble minima and maxima.~~

*Competing interests.* All authors declare no competing interests.

*Disclaimer.* The work reflects only the authors' view; the European Commission and their executive agency are not responsible for any use that may be made of the information the work contains.

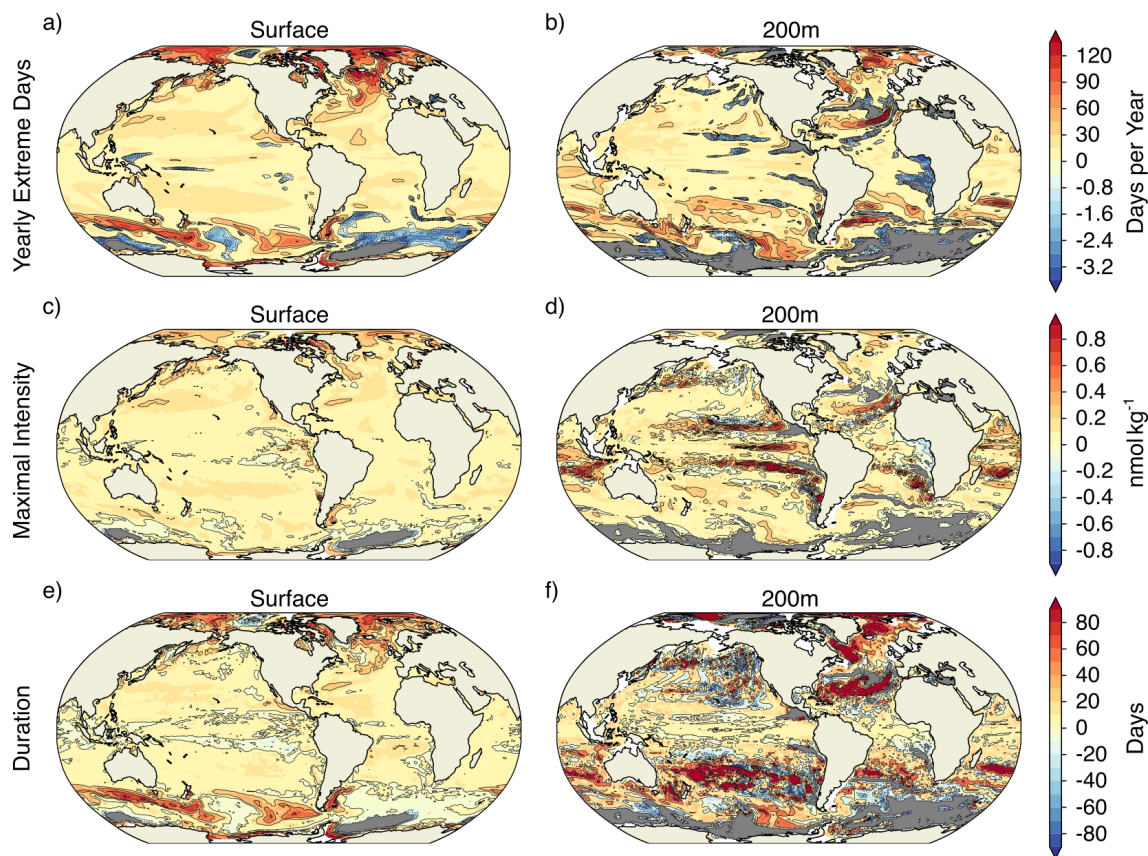
790 *Acknowledgements.* FAB and TLF have received funding the Swiss National Science Foundation (PP00P2\_170687) and from the European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme under grant agreement No 820989 (project COMFORT, Our common future ocean in the Earth system — quantifying coupled cycles of carbon, oxygen, and nutrients for determining and achieving safe operating spaces with respect to tipping points). FAB and TLF also thank the CSCS Swiss National Supercomputing Centre for computing resources. The authors thank Elizabeth Drenkard, Fortunat Joos, and Jens Terhaar for discussion and comments, and Rick Slater for the help in porting the ESM2M model code to CSCS.



**Figure A1.** Simulated globally averaged changes in  $[H^+]$  extreme events defined with respect to the fixed preindustrial baseline. Shown are changes over the 1861–2100 period following historical (black lines) and future RCP8.5 (red) and RCP2.6 scenario (blue) for maximal intensity at surface (a) and at 200 m (b), duration at surface (c) and at 200 m (d), yearly extreme days at 200 m (e), and volume in the upper 200 m (f). The thick lines display the five-member ensemble means and the shaded areas represent the maximum and minimum ranges of the individual ensemble members.

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**Figure A2.** Simulated regional changes in (a,b) ~~the number of extreme~~  $[\text{H}^+]$  ~~extreme event characteristics~~ between preindustrial and 2081-2100 following the RCP2.6 scenario. The extreme events are defined with respect to shifting baselines. Shown are the changes in yearly extreme days per year (a,b), maximal intensity (c,d) ~~the maximal intensity of extreme  $\text{H}^+$  variability events~~, and duration (e,f) ~~the duration of extreme  $\text{H}^+$  variability events~~ between preindustrial and 2081-2100 following the RCP2.6 scenario. Left panels show changes for the surface, whereas right panels show changes for 200 m. Shown are changes averaged over all five ensemble members. The black contours highlight the pattern structures. Grey areas represent areas with no ~~variability~~ extremes during 2081-2100.

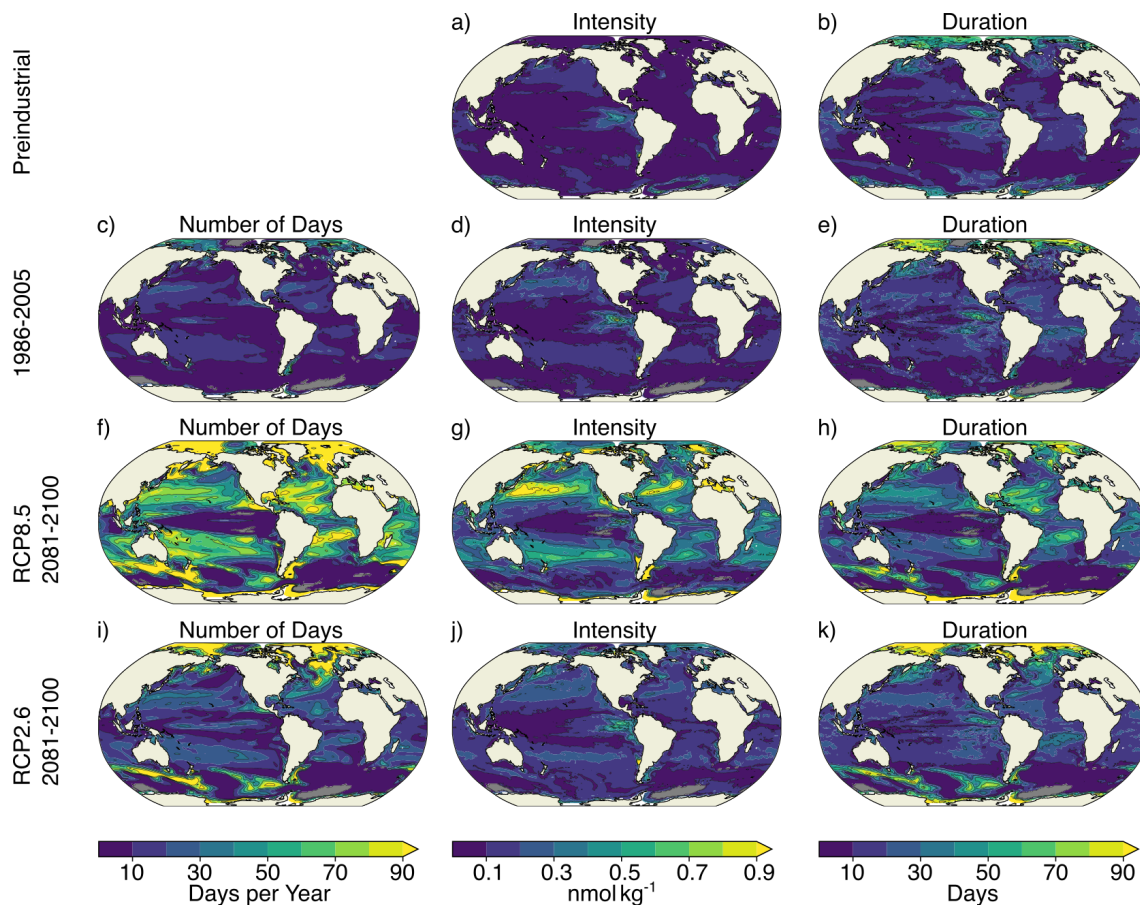
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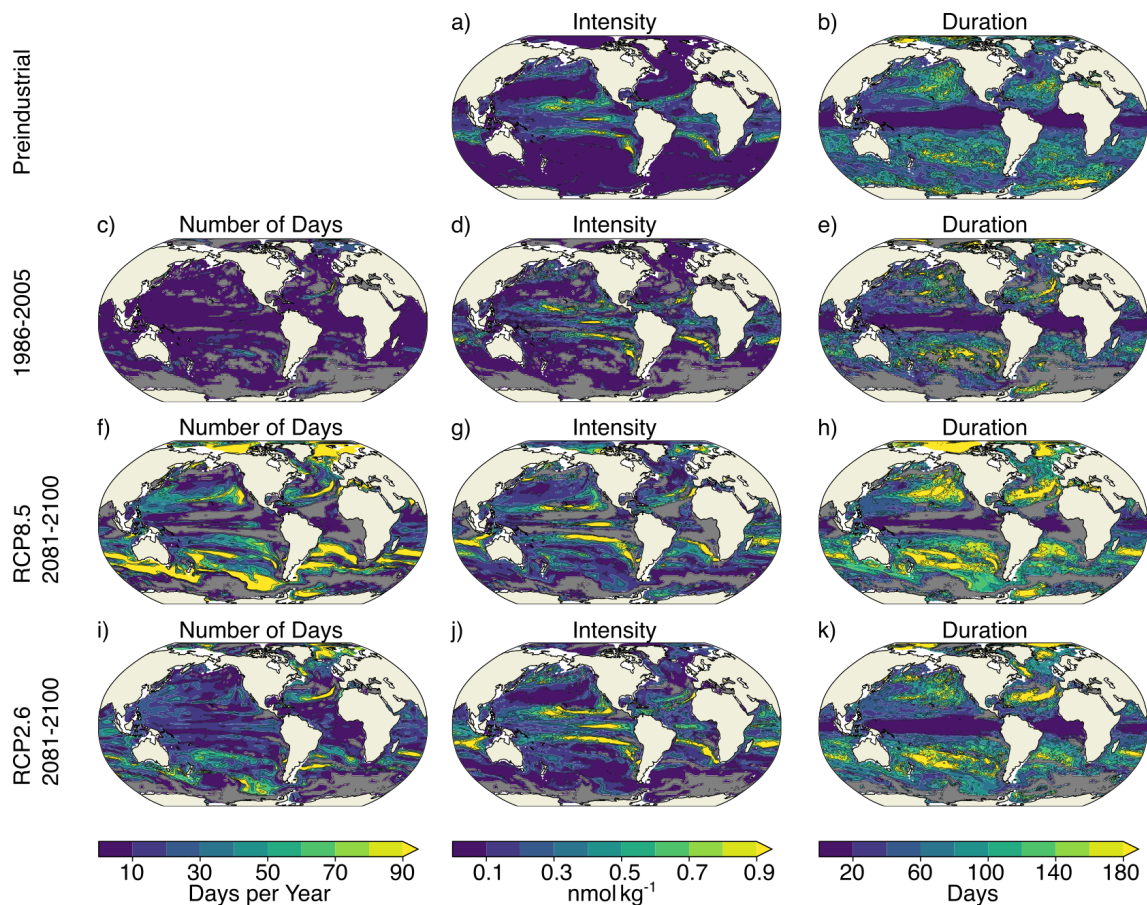
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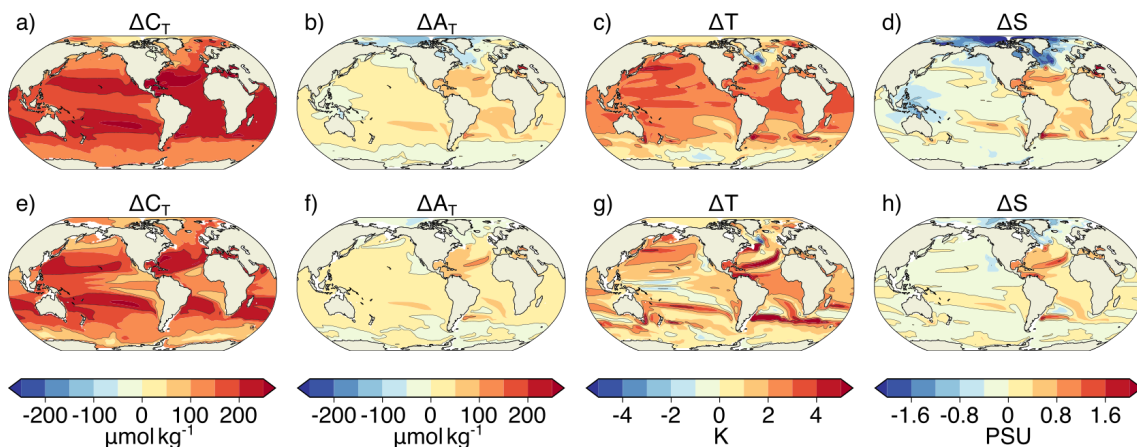
**Figure A3.** Simulated characteristics of surface  $[H^+]$  extreme **variability**-events for preindustrial (a,b), 1986-2005 ensemble mean (c-e), RCP8.5 2081-2100 ensemble mean (f-h), and RCP2.6 2081-2100 ensemble mean (i-k). The extreme events are defined with respect to shifting baselines. Grey colors represent regions where no ensemble member simulates **variability**-extremes. The black contours highlight the pattern structures.

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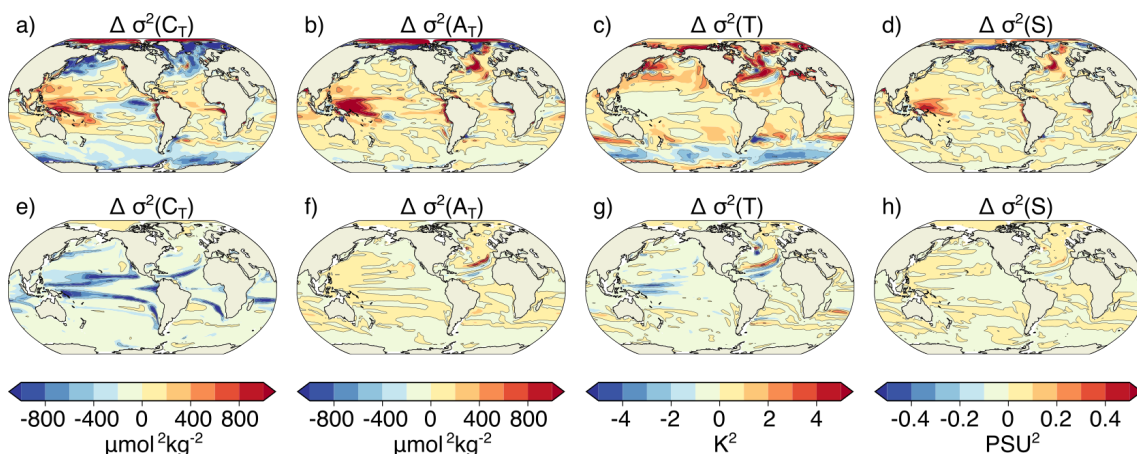


**Figure A4.** The same as Figure A3, but for Simulated characteristics of  $[H^+]$  extreme events at 200 m for preindustrial (a,b), 1986-2005 ensemble mean (c-e), RCP8.5 2081-2100 ensemble mean (f-h), and RCP2.6 2081-2100 ensemble mean (i-k). The color scale for the duration plots changed extreme events are defined with respect to that in Figure A3 shifting baselines. Grey colors represent regions where no ensemble member simulates extremes. The black contours highlight the pattern structures.

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**Figure A5.** Simulated ensemble mean changes in  $C_T$  (a,e),  $A_T$  (b,f),  $T$  (c,g), and  $S$  (d,h) from preindustrial to 2081-2100 following the RCP8.5 scenario. Shown are changes for (a-d) the surface and (e-h) at 200 m. The black contours highlight the pattern structures.



**Figure A6.** Simulated ensemble mean changes in the variances of  $C_T$  (a,e),  $A_T$  (b,f),  $T$  (c,g), and  $S$  (d,h) from preindustrial to 2081-2100 under the RCP8.5 scenario. Shown are changes for (a-d) the surface and (e-h) at 200 m. The black contours highlight the pattern structures.

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