



1 **Acidification, deoxygenation, nutrient and biomasses decline in a** 2 **warming Mediterranean Sea**

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4 Marco Reale¹, Gianpiero Cossarini¹, Paolo Lazzari¹, Tomas Lovato², Giorgio Bolzon¹, Simona
5 Masina², Cosimo Solidoro¹, Stefano Salon¹

- 6 1. National Institute of Oceanography and Applied Geophysics - OGS, Trieste, Italy
7 2. Fondazione Centro euro-Mediterraneo sui Cambiamenti Climatici, CMCC, Ocean Modeling
8 and Data Assimilation Division, Bologna, Italy

9
10 *Correspondence to:* Marco Reale (mreale@inogs.it) and Stefano Salon (ssalon@inogs.it)

11
12 **Abstract.** The projected warming, nutrient decline, changes in net primary production, deoxygenation and acidification
13 of the global ocean will dramatically affect marine ecosystems during the 21st century. Here we assess the climate change-
14 related impacts in the marine ecosystems of the Mediterranean Sea in the middle and at the end of the 21st century using
15 high-resolution projections of the physical and biogeochemical state of the basin under the Representative Concentration
16 Pathways (RCPs) 4.5 and 8.5. The analysis shows significant changes in the dissolved nutrient content of the euphotic
17 and intermediate layers of the basin, net primary production, phytoplankton respiration and carbon stock (including
18 phytoplankton, zooplankton, bacterial biomass and particulate organic matter). The projections also show a uniform
19 surface and subsurface reduction in the oxygen concentration driven by the warming of the water column and by the
20 increase in respiration. Moreover, we observe an acidification in the upper water column, linked to the increase in the
21 dissolved inorganic carbon content of the water column due to CO₂ absorption from the atmosphere and the increase in
22 respiration. The projected changes are stronger in the eastern Mediterranean due to the limited influence, in that part of
23 the basin, of the exchanges in the Strait of Gibraltar.

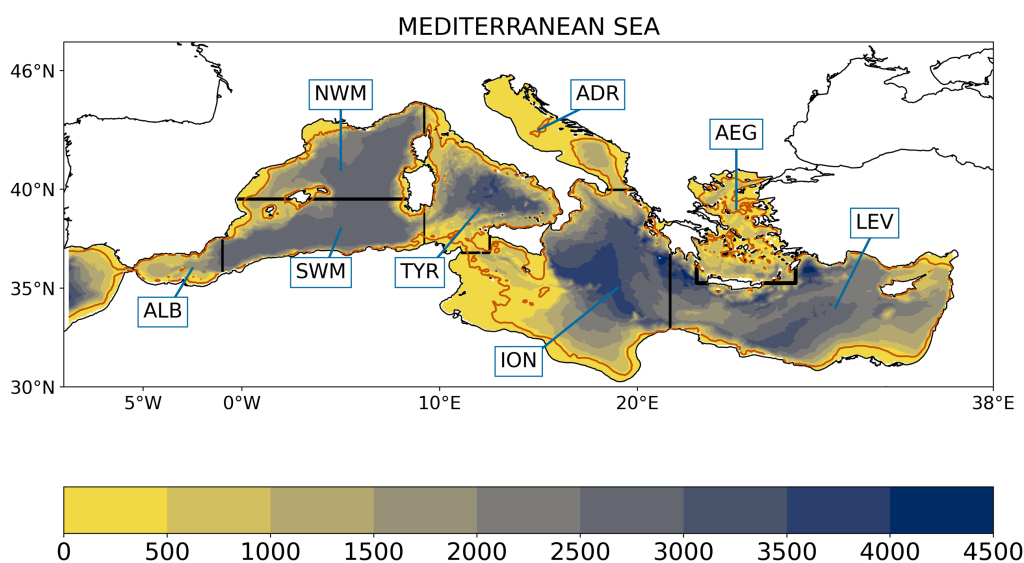
24 25 **1. Introduction**

26
27 The Mediterranean Sea (Fig. 1) is a mid-latitude semi-enclosed basin surrounded by the continental areas of Southern
28 Europe, Northern Africa and the Middle East. The basin is characterized by a thermohaline circulation composed of three
29 distinctive cells. The first is an open cell associated with the inflow of the Atlantic Water (AW) at the Gibraltar Strait
30 (which undergoes a progressive increase in salinity due to evaporation becoming Modified Atlantic Water, or MAW) and
31 the formation of Levantine Intermediate Water (LIW) in the Eastern basin (Lascazatos, 1993; Nittis and Lascazatos, 1998).
32 The other two are closed cells associated with deep water formation processes occurring in the Gulf of Lions (located in
33 the Northern Western Mediterranean, Fig.1; Somot et al., 2018 and reference therein) and in the Adriatic Sea (Fig. 1;
34 Mantziafou and Lascazatos 2004, 2008; Schroeder et al., 2012 and references therein).

35
36 Future climate projections for the Mediterranean region based on different emission scenarios show, at the end of the 21st
37 century, (i) a reduction in precipitation and a general warming of the area (e.g., Giorgi, 2006; Diffenbaugh et al., 2007;
38 Giorgi and Lionello, 2008; Dubois et al., 2012; Lionello et al., 2012; Planton et al., 2012; Gualdi et al., 2013; MedEEC,



39 2020), (ii) a warming of seawater (Somot et al., 2006; Adloff et al., 2015; Soto-Navarro et al., 2020; MedECC, 2020),
40 and (iii) a consistent weakening in the thermohaline circulation and an increase in the stratification index throughout the
41 basin (Somot et al., 2006; Adloff et al., 2015; Soto-Navarro et al., 2020) and an increase in frequency and severity of
42 atmospheric and marine heat waves (Galli et al., 2017; Darmaraki et al., 2019). Conversely, the future evolution of sea
43 surface salinity in the Mediterranean Sea and the sign of its change are still uncertain due to the role played by rivers and
44 Gibraltar Strait exchanges (Adloff et al., 2015; Soto-Navarro et al., 2020; MedECC, 2020).



45
46 **Fig.1 Mediterranean Sea bathymetry (in m), the Atlantic buffer zone and relative sub-basins considered in the analysis:**
47 **Albanian Sea (ALB), Southern Western Mediterranean (SWM), Tyrrhenian (TYR), Adriatic Sea (ADR), Ionian Sea (ION),**
48 **Aegean Sea (AEG), Levantine basin (LEV). The dark orange line marks the 200m isobath in the model domain.**

49
50 From a biogeochemical point of view, the Mediterranean Sea is considered as an oligotrophic (ultraoligotrophic in its
51 eastern part) basin (Bethoux et al., 1998; Moutin and Raimbault, 2002; Siokou-Frangou et al., 2010; Lazzari et al., 2012).
52 It is characterized by low productivity levels and an east-west trophic gradient (Crise et al., 1999; D'Ortenzio and Ribera
53 d'Alcala 2009; Lazzari et al., 2012) which results from the superposition of different mechanisms such as the biological
54 pump, the estuarine inverse circulation, and the position of nitrate (NO₃) and phosphate (PO₄) sources (Crise et al., 1999;
55 Crispi et al., 2001). The only exceptions to the oligotrophy of the basin are some areas (Gulf of Lions, Strait of Sicily,
56 Algerian coastlines, Southern Adriatic Sea, Ionian Sea, Aegean Sea and Rhodes Gyre) where strong vertical mixing and
57 upwelling phenomena associated with air-sea interactions and wind stress forcing enrich the surface in nutrients, so
58 favouring phytoplankton rapid growth (or bloom) mostly in the late winter-early spring period (D'Ortenzio and Ribera
59 d'Alcala, 2009). A proxy widely adopted to detect phytoplankton bloom is the surface concentration of chlorophyll-a that
60 is characterized by relative high values in specific open sea/coastal areas, where it is linked to the physical forcing and
61 river inflow (D'Ortenzio and Ribera d'Alcala, 2009; Lazzari et al., 2012; Herrmann et al., 2013; Auger et al., 2014;



62 Richon et al., 2018; Di Biagio et al., 2019; Reale et al., 2020a). The open sea chlorophyll-a vertical dynamics follows a
63 seasonal cycle with winter-early spring surface blooms, and summer onset of a deep chlorophyll maximum (DCM) which
64 deepens from approximately 50 m in the western areas to 100 m in the eastern areas (e.g. Lazzari et al., 2012; Macias et
65 al., 2014; Lavigne et al., 2015).

66

67 Due to the strong links between ocean/atmosphere dynamics and biogeochemical patterns, it has to be expected that future
68 climate change will have relevant impacts on the biogeochemistry and, in turn, on the marine ecosystem dynamics of the
69 Mediterranean Sea. In fact, all the projected physical changes for the region will likely affect vertical mixing and reduce
70 the nutrient supply into the euphotic layer of the Mediterranean Sea (e.g. Richon et al., 2019), which is essential for
71 phytoplankton dynamics and productivity, with possible impacts on the biogeochemical carbon cycle and CO₂ exchange
72 with the atmosphere (e.g., Lazzari et al., 2012; Cossarini et al., 2015; Canu et al., 2015; Solidoro et al., 2021).

73

74 An assessment of the effects of climate change on the biogeochemistry and marine ecosystem dynamics of the
75 Mediterranean Sea has been considered thus far only in a limited number of studies, all focusing on high emission
76 scenarios. Lazzari et al. (2014) found a negative change in the plankton biomass in response to A1B climate change,
77 resulting from an increase of productivity and community respiration. On the other hand, Moullec et al. (2019) under
78 RCP8.5 emission scenario found an increase in both phytoplankton biomass and net primary production by the end of the
79 21st century. Macias et al. (2015) show that, under emission scenarios RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 and despite a significant
80 observed warming trend, the mean integrated primary production rate in the entire basin will remain almost unchanged
81 in the 21st century. However, they pointed out some peculiar spatial differences in the basin such as an increase in the
82 oligotrophy of the western basin due to a surface density decrease and an increase in net primary production in the eastern
83 basin due to the increased density. Richon et al. (2019) observed, under the A2 emission scenario, an accumulation of
84 nitrate in the basin and a reduction of 10% in net primary productivity by 2090, with a peak of 50% in specific areas
85 (including the Aegean Sea). On the other hand, no tendencies in the phosphorus were observed. Pagès et al. (2020)
86 showed, under emission scenario RCP8.5, a decline (stronger in NO₃ than PO₄) in the nutrient concentration at the surface
87 of the basin due to the increase in the vertical stratification and that the Mediterranean Sea will become less productive
88 (14% decrease in integrated primary production in both western and eastern basins) and will be characterized by a
89 reduction (22% in the western basin and 38% in the eastern basin) in large phytoplankton species abundance in favour of
90 small organisms. All these changes will mainly affect the western basin, while the eastern basin will be less impacted
91 (Pagès et al., 2020). Solidoro et al. (2021) discussed the evolution of the carbon cycling, budgets and fluxes of the basin
92 under the A2 scenario, highlighting an increase in the trophodynamic carbon fluxes and showing, at the same time, that
93 the increment in the plankton primary production will be more than compensated by the increase in the ecosystem total
94 respiration, which corresponds to a decrease of the total living carbon and oxygen in the epipelagic layer. Moreover, the
95 work also projected an increase of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) pool and quantified for the first time the related
96 acidification of the basin, a process that might significantly alter the Mediterranean ecosystems (Zunino et al., 2017;
97 2019) and their capability to provide ecosystem services (Zunino et al., 2021).

98

99 All of these previous works demonstrate that the dynamics of the marine ecosystem may be affected directly and indirectly
100 by climate change. The warming, acidification and changes in the vertical distribution of the oxygen, nutrient
101 concentration and net primary production related to water column stratification are all potential marine stressors affecting
102 marine organisms and ecosystem dynamics (see Kwiatkowski et al., 2020 for a review about the synergistic effects among



103 potential marine stressors). Moreover, a proper simulation of these marine stressors and related impacts require the
104 adoption of suitable horizontal and vertical resolutions. In fact, it has been shown that meso- and submesoscale structures
105 of the Mediterranean circulation influence indeed the biogeochemical dynamics of many areas of the basin (Richon et al.,
106 2019), while the vertical resolution affects the features of the simulated stratification and subsurface ventilation pathways
107 (see Kwiatkowski et al., 2020 and reference therein for a review).

108

109 These considerations emphasize the importance of providing eddy-resolving future projections of the Mediterranean Sea
110 biogeochemistry that further extend the analysis of the climate change-related impacts in the marine ecosystems of the
111 basin under different emission scenarios. These projections, to the best of the authors' knowledge, have not been analysed
112 so far in the region and that might be used in future studies specifically focused on the analysis of climate change impact
113 on specific organisms, habitats and/or local areas.

114

115 Therefore, here we assess the climate change-related impacts in the marine ecosystems of the Mediterranean Sea in the
116 middle and at the end of the 21st century using eddy-resolving projections (1/16° and 70 vertical levels) of the physical
117 and biogeochemical state of the basin under emission scenarios RCP4.5 and RCP8.5. These projections are derived from
118 the offline coupling between the physical model MFS16 and the transport-reaction model OGSTM-BFM. We focus on
119 21st century projected changes in dissolved nutrients and oxygen, net primary production, respiration, living/nonliving
120 organic matter, plankton and bacterial biomass, and particulate organic matter (POC). Moreover, the response of the basin
121 to the increasing atmospheric CO₂ concentrations is thoroughly investigated. The observed changes are correlated with
122 changes in the physical forcing in the region.

123

124 The article is organized as follows: the MFS16-OGSTM-BFM system along with the physical forcing used to drive the
125 biogeochemical scenarios, initial and boundary conditions and numerical experiments are described in Section 2. Section
126 3 discusses the projected changes in climate change-related impacts in the marine ecosystems of the Mediterranean basin.
127 Finally, Section 4 summarizes and discusses the results of this work, together with their uncertainties, paving the way for
128 possible future research avenues.

129

130 **2. Data and Methods**

131

132 The biogeochemical projections of the Mediterranean Sea state during the 21st century have been produced by driving
133 the transport-reaction model OGSTM-BFM (Lazzari et al., 2012) with the 3D outputs of the physical model MFS16
134 (Oddo et al., 2009) through an off-line coupling. In fact, the physical model MFS16 supplies to the OGSTM-BFM the
135 temporal evolution of daily horizontal and vertical current velocities, vertical eddy diffusivity, potential temperature,
136 salinity, and surface data for solar shortwave irradiance and wind stress. The resulting transport processes affecting the
137 concentration of biogeochemical tracers (advection, vertical diffusion and sinking) are computed by OGSTM, which is a
138 modified version of the OPA tracer model (Foujols et al., 2000). The temporal evolution of biogeochemical processes is
139 computed by the Biogeochemical Flux Model (BFM; Vichi et al., 2015).

140

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142



143 **2.1. The MFS16 physical model**

144

145 MFS16 is the Mediterranean configuration of the NEMO modelling system (Madec, 2008; see also [http://www.nemo-](http://www.nemo-ocean.eu)
146 [ocean.eu](http://www.nemo-ocean.eu), version 3.4) and constitutes the climate implementation of the Mediterranean Ocean Forecasting System (Oddo
147 et al., 2009; Lovato et al., 2013).

148

149 The model domain covers the whole Mediterranean Sea and part of the neighboring Atlantic Ocean region (Fig.1) with a
150 horizontal grid resolution of $1/16^\circ$ (~6.5 km) and 72 unevenly spaced vertical levels (ranging from 3 m at the surface
151 down to 600 m in the deeper layers). The model computes the air-sea fluxes of water, momentum and heat using specific
152 bulk formulae tuned for the Mediterranean Sea (Oddo et al., 2009) applied to the atmospheric fields obtained from the
153 atmosphere-ocean general circulation model CMCC-CM (Scoccimarro et al., 2011).

154

155 The open boundary conditions in the Atlantic region for the physical variables (zonal/meridional component of current
156 velocity, sea surface height, temperature and salinity) were derived from the ocean component of the CMCC-CM coupled
157 model, while the riverine freshwater discharges and fluxes in the Dardanelles Strait were provided by the hydrological
158 component of the same coupled model (Gualdi et al., 2013). The initial conditions of the Mediterranean Sea were obtained
159 from the gridded temperature and salinity data produced by the SeaDataNet infrastructure (<http://www.seadatanet.org/>).
160 The model was initially spun-up for 25 years under present climate conditions and then scenario simulations were
161 performed over the 2005-2100 period.

162

163 **2.2. The OGSTM-BFM transport-reaction model**

164

165 The OGSTM-BFM transport-reaction model is based on the coupling of a transport model (OGSTM) based on the OPA
166 system (Foujols et al., 2000) and the BFM biogeochemical reactor. OGSTM-BFM is fully described in Lazzari et al.
167 (2012, 2016), where it was used to simulate chlorophyll-a, primary production and nutrient dynamics of the Mediterranean
168 Sea for the 1998-2004 period.

169

170 The OGSTM transport model resolves the advection, vertical diffusion and the sinking terms of the biogeochemical
171 tracers. The temporal scheme of OGSTM is an explicit forward temporal scheme for the advection and horizontal
172 diffusion terms, whereas an implicit time scheme is adopted for the vertical diffusion. The BFM biogeochemical reactor
173 considers co-occurring effects of multi-nutrient interactions and energy/material fluxes through the classical food chain
174 and the microbial food web which are both very important in the Mediterranean Sea (Bethoux et al., 1998). BFM has
175 been extensively applied to the studies of the dynamics of dissolved nutrients, chlorophyll-a and net primary production
176 in the Mediterranean Sea (Lazzari et al., 2012; 2016; Di Biagio et al., 2019; Reale et al., 2020a), marine carbon
177 sequestration and alkalinity (Canu et al., 2015; Cossarini et al., 2015; Butenschön et al., 2021), impacts of climate change
178 on the biogeochemical dynamics of marine ecosystems (Lazzari et al., 2014; Lamon et al., 2014; Solidoro et al., 2021),
179 influence of large-scale atmospheric circulation patterns on nutrient dynamics (Reale et al., 2020b) and operational short-
180 term forecasts for the Mediterranean Sea biogeochemistry (Teruzzi et al. 2018; 2019; Salon et al., 2019). The version
181 adopted here is the v5.

182



183 The model simulates the biogeochemical cycles of carbon, nitrogen, phosphorus and silicon through dissolved forms and
184 living organic and nonliving organic compartments (labile, semi-labile and semi-refractory organic matter). Moreover, it
185 presently includes nine plankton functional types (PFTs), meant to be representative of diatoms, flagellates,
186 picophytoplankton, dinoflagellates, carnivorous and omnivorous mesozooplankton, bacteria, heterotrophic
187 nanoflagellates and microzooplankton. It also simulates the carbonate system dynamics, by solving the set of physical-
188 chemical equilibria related to alkalinity (ALK) and dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) chemical reaction (Cossarini et al.,
189 2015). Alkalinity variability is driven by processes that alter the ion concentration in seawater (nitrification,
190 denitrification, uptake and release of nitrate, ammonia and phosphate by plankton cells, and precipitation and dissolution
191 of CaCO₃, see Wolf-Gladrow et al., 2007). DIC dynamics are driven by biological processes (photosynthesis and
192 respiration, precipitation and dissolution of CaCO₃) and physical processes (CO₂ exchanges at the air-sea interface and,
193 as for all the other biogeochemical tracers, dilution-concentration due to evaporation minus precipitation processes).

194

195 **2.3. Initial and boundary conditions for the biogeochemistry**

196

197 The initial conditions for the dissolved oxygen, nutrient, silicate and carbonate system variables are based on Medar-
198 Medatlas dataset, as described in Cossarini et al. (2015) and Salon et al. (2019).

199 Boundary conditions are adopted to represent the external supply of biogeochemical tracers from the Gibraltar Strait and
200 the Mediterranean rivers into the basin. The exchanges of nutrients and other biogeochemical tracers in the Gibraltar
201 Strait are achieved by relaxing the 3D fields in the Atlantic buffer zone (Fig. 1) to average vertical profiles which, for
202 dissolved oxygen, phosphate, nitrate and silicate, refer to Salon et al. (2019) while alkalinity is based on what was
203 described in Cossarini et al. (2015). These profiles do not consider a seasonal cycle or a future temporal evolution, with
204 DIC as the only exception, which is prescribed from a global ocean-climate simulation under RCP8.5 emission scenario
205 performed within the framework of the CMIP5 project (Taylor et al., 2012) and based on the CMCC-CESM modeling
206 system (Vichi et al., 2011). Riverine inputs of phosphate, nitrate, dissolved oxygen, alkalinity and DIC are based on the
207 PERSEUS FP7-287600 project dataset (Van Apeldoorn and Bouwman, 2014) and, also in this case, do not include
208 temporal evolution in the future scenarios.

209 As observed in previous works (e.g. Richon et al., 2019), a transient scenario for the evolution of the atmospheric
210 deposition of nitrogen and phosphorus over the Mediterranean Sea is presently not available. Following Di Biagio et al.
211 (2019) and Reale et al. (2020a), the atmospheric deposition of phosphate and nitrate is parametrized as a mass flux at the
212 surface and is set for the entire basin equal to 4780 Mmol year⁻¹ for phosphate and 81275 Mmol year⁻¹ for nitrate.
213 Additional boundary conditions consider the sequestration of inorganic compounds in the marine sediment at the seabed.

214

215 Finally, the Representative Common Pathway (RCP) 4.5 and 8.5 emission scenarios (Moss et al., 2010) were used to
216 force the coupled physical-biogeochemical MFS16-OGSTM-BFM system. RCP4.5 represents an intermediate scenario
217 in which CO₂ emissions peak around 2040 (causing the maximum increase in CO₂ concentration), and then decline (with
218 a resulting CO₂ concentration plateau) while the RCP8.5 represents the worst-case scenario, in which CO₂ emissions will
219 continue to increase throughout the 21st century, and the pCO₂ concentration will rise to more than 1200 ppm at the end
220 of the 21st century (IPCC, 2014).

221

222



223

224 **2.4. Simulations protocol and set-up**

225

226 Long-term simulations can be affected by drifts in state variables due to the imbalance among boundary conditions,
227 transport processes and internal element cycle formulations of the biogeochemical model. Therefore, a specific simulation
228 protocol, based on the use of a control/scenario pairs of simulation, has been implemented in order to disentangle the
229 climate change signal from spurious signals (Solidoro et al., 2021). The protocol consists of a control simulation (CTRL)
230 of 95 years and two 95-year biogeochemical scenario simulations, RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 (Fig.S1 in the supplementary
231 materials), which adopt as initial conditions the resulting final fields from a spin-up simulation. The CTRL repeatedly
232 reproduces an average condition corresponding to the 2005–2014 period looped over the remaining 2015-2100 period for
233 both physical forcing and river discharge (Fig. S1). The difference between each biogeochemical scenario and the CTRL
234 provides the future evolution of a biogeochemical variable due to climate forcing.

235

236 In the simulation protocol we consider, under a specific emission scenario and in the CTRL, the monthly 3D time series
237 of the following variables (X_{bio}): dissolved nutrients and oxygen, chlorophyll-a, net primary production, phytoplankton
238 respiration, organic matter, plankton and bacterial biomass, POC, DIC and pH. The monthly dissolved nutrients and
239 oxygen, organic matter, bacterial biomass, POC, DIC and pH were then vertically averaged over two separate key depth
240 levels: the surface zone and the intermediate zone. The first one spans the upper 100 m of the water column, which
241 represents the location of MAW and the euphotic layer of the basin where most biological activity is concentrated, and
242 where we expect that climate change impacts are the largest. The second one covers the 200-600 m interval, which
243 includes the location of LIW. Only in the case of plankton biomass and chlorophyll-a, the spatial average is limited to the
244 first 100 m of the water column, where the plankton biological activity is mostly concentrated. Finally, for the net primary
245 production and phytoplankton respiration instead of an average, we consider a vertical integral over the first 200 m of the
246 water column (Lazzari et al., 2012).

247

248 From the resulting 2D monthly time series of X_{bio} , we computed the time series of yearly average for the scenario and the
249 CTRL respectively, $X(k)_{SCEN}$ and $X(k)_{CTRL}$ respectively with $k = 2005, \dots, 2099$. As we observed that the model drift
250 present in the CTRL is linear in time, we consider $X(k)_{CTRL}$ as the time series built using a linear regression applied to the
251 original $X(k)_{CTRL}$. Then, we defined the time series $X_{evo}(k)_{SCEN}$ (with $k = 2005, \dots, 2099$) as:

$$252 \quad X_{evo}(k)_{SCEN} = X_{SCEN} + [X(k)_{SCEN} - X(k)_{CTRL}] \quad (1)$$

253 where X_{SCEN} is the average of $X(k)_{SCEN}$ over the 2005-2020 period (hereafter the PRESENT, Fig.S1). $X_{evo}(k)_{SCEN}$ is meant
254 to show the temporal evolution (starting from a mean present climate state and filtering from drifts, unbalanced boundary
255 conditions and model errors) of X_{bio} in a specific layer of the water column during the 21st century under a specific
256 emission scenario. The time series of the anomalies of $X_{evo}(k)_{SCEN}$ with respect to the PRESENT (hereafter
257 $X_{anom}(k)_{SCEN}$) is defined as:

258

$$259 \quad X_{anom}(k)_{SCEN} = X_{evo}(k)_{SCEN} - X_{evo_{SCEN-PRESENT}} \quad (2)$$

260

261 where $X_{evo_{SCEN-PRESENT}}$ is the average of $X_{evo}(k)_{SCEN}$ in the PRESENT. Hereafter, if not differently specified, all the shown
262 concentration time series will be represented by $X_{anom}(k)_{SCEN}$.



263 To characterize the spatial distribution and the variability of these anomalies within the Mediterranean Sea during the
264 21st century, we consider their horizontally averages in each subbasin defined in Fig. 1, and then in the whole
265 Mediterranean basin scale, in the western Mediterranean ($WMED=(ALB+SWM+NWM+TYR)/4$) and in the eastern
266 Mediterranean ($EMED=(ION+LEV)/2$). Moreover, we considered (Fig. S1) two 20-year periods: 2040-2059 (hereafter
267 MID-FUTURE) and 2080-2099 (hereafter FAR-FUTURE), which allow for a robust average computation by removing
268 the effects of the interannual variability. To point out the average anomaly of each variable in each period with respect to
269 the PRESENT we define the metric X_{period} . Being the MID-FUTURE or FAR-FUTURE periods, the average anomalies of
270 the two periods with respect to the PRESENT (in %) are named as $X_{\text{MID-FUTURE}}$ and $X_{\text{FAR-FUTURE}}$, respectively, and are computed
271 as:

$$272 \quad X_{\text{MID-FUTURE}}=100*(\text{evo}_{\text{SCEN-MID-FUTURE}}-\text{evo}_{\text{SCEN-PRESENT}})/\text{evo}_{\text{SCEN-PRESENT}}(3)$$

$$273 \quad X_{\text{FAR-FUTURE}}=100*(\text{evo}_{\text{SCEN-FAR-FUTURE}}-\text{evo}_{\text{SCEN-PRESENT}})/\text{evo}_{\text{SCEN-PRESENT}}(4)$$

274 where $\text{evo}_{\text{SCEN-MID-FUTURE}}$, $\text{evo}_{\text{SCEN-FAR-FUTURE}}$ and $\text{evo}_{\text{SCEN-PRESENT}}$ are the averages of $X_{\text{evo}(k)}_{\text{SCEN}}$ for the MID-FUTURE, FAR-FUTURE
275 and PRESENT periods, respectively. Hereafter, if not differently specified, all the concentrations shown in the maps are
276 represented by $X_{\text{MID-FUTURE}}$ and $X_{\text{FAR-FUTURE}}$.

277

278 3. Results

279

280 3.1 Evaluation of the MFS16-OGSTM-BFM control simulation for the present climate

281

282 MFS16 modelling system performances under present climate conditions were previously analysed, showing that the
283 main characteristics of the Mediterranean Sea circulation and spatial patterns, mean values and standard deviations of
284 temperature and salinity at different depths in the basin were reliably reproduced (Lovato et al., 2013; Galli et al., 2017).
285 Moreover, the physical reanalysis dataset produced by MFS16 within the Copernicus Marine Environmental Marine
286 Service (CMEMS) (Simoncelli et al., 2019) has already been coupled to the transport-reaction model OGSTM-BFM
287 to carry out a reanalysis for the Mediterranean Sea biogeochemistry (Teruzzi et al., 2019). The latter is a biogeochemical
288 dataset covering the 1999-2015 period at 1/16° resolution, which is already used for validating different biogeochemical
289 simulations in the Mediterranean Sea such as those based on MEDMIT12-BFM (Di Biagio et al., 2019) and RegCM-ES
290 (Reale et al., 2020a) modelling systems. This dataset has been recently upgraded, refining the resolution to 1/24 degree
291 and extending the period to 2019 (Teruzzi et al., 2021).

292

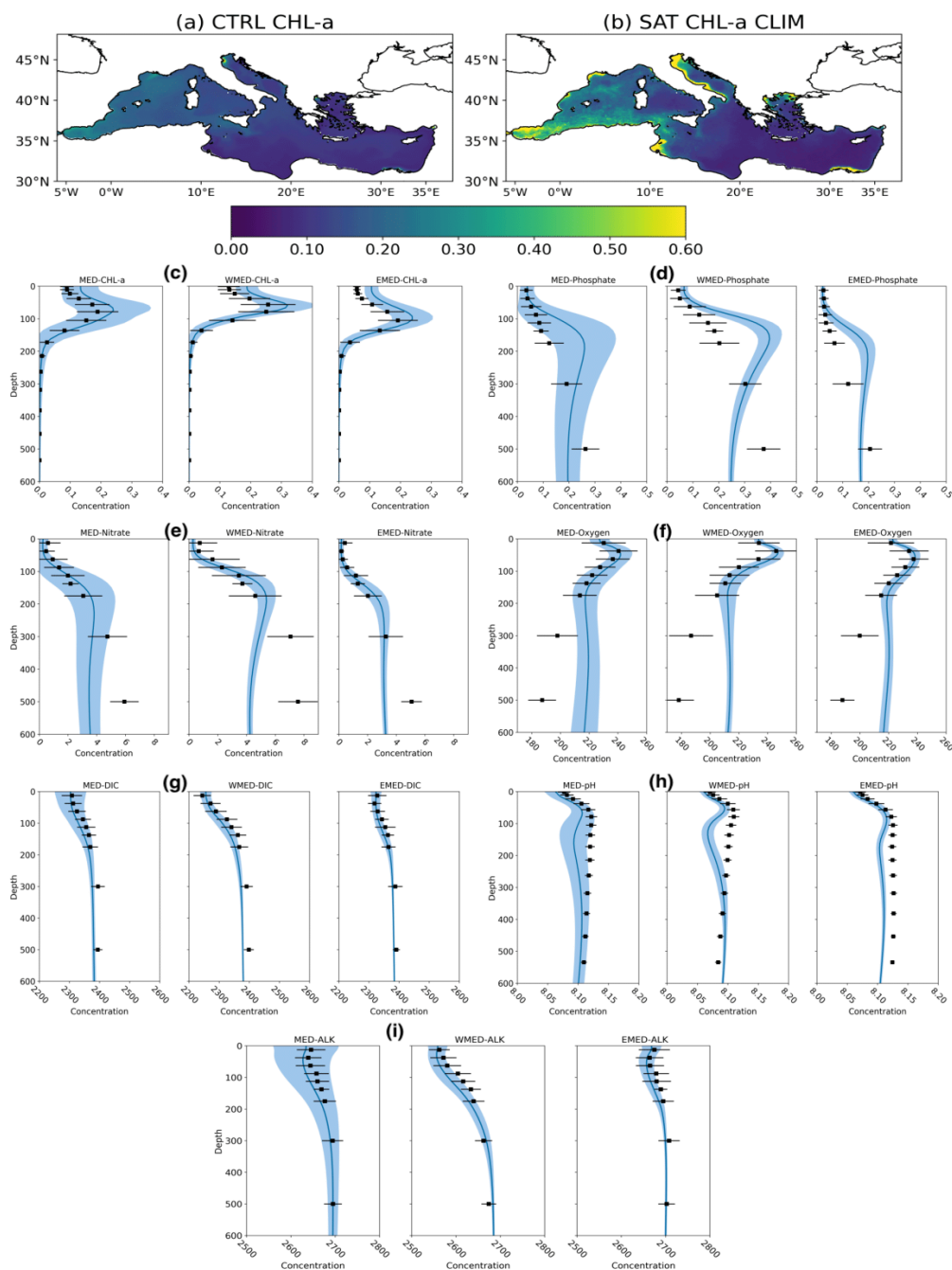
293 To date, no future climate biogeochemical projection of the Mediterranean Sea has been performed through this offline
294 coupling.

295

296 Figure 2 a,b shows the surface average chlorophyll-a (Chl-a) concentrations (upper 10 m) from the CTRL run compared
297 with a climatology based on satellite data available from CMEMS (Colella et al., 2016). The model correctly reproduces
298 the areas in the Mediterranean region characterized by relatively high values of Chl-a: the Alboran Sea, the Gulf of Lions,
299 the coastal areas of the Adriatic Sea, and the Strait of Sicily. Moreover, the CTRL simulation captures the west-east
300 trophic gradient of Chl-a, whose existence has been pointed out in previous works (D'Ortenzio and Ribera d'Alcala,
301 2003; Lazzari et al., 2012; Colella et al., 2016; Richon et al., 2019; Di Biagio et al. 2019; Reale et al., 2020a). On the
302 other hand, we observe a general underestimation of approximately 50% of the Chl-a signal throughout the basin and in



303 the coastal areas probably associated with insufficient river load (Richon et al., 2019; Reale et al., 2020a) and with the
304 tendency of satellite Chl-a measures to be systematically overestimated in the coastal areas with respect to “in situ”
305 observations due to the presence of particulate suspended matter in the water column (Claustre et al., 2002; Morel et
306 Gentili, 2009). Figure 2 also shows the average vertical profiles of Chl-a (c), PO₄ (d), NO₃ (e), dissolved oxygen (f), DIC
307 (g), pH (h) and Alkalinity (i) in the CTRL compared with the recent CMEMS reanalysis (only for Chl-a and pH, Teruzzi
308 et al., 2021) and EMODNET datasets (Buga et al., 2018). The model captures the DCM location, the west-east trophic
309 gradient in the basin, the shape of the vertical profiles, the nutricline depths and low nutrient surface concentrations. Mean
310 simulated values in the first 0-200 m are quite realistic in all the variables. After the spin-up, the simulation reaches a
311 steady state for all the variables in the intermediate/deep layers (not shown). These initial conditions show biases for
312 nutrients and oxygen at a depth of 600 m of approximately 30% lower and 15% higher respectively, than the observations
313 (Fig.2). These biases in the initial conditions come from the spin-up simulation that allows the largest part of the model
314 drifts to be removed. Biases are still present in both the CTRL and scenario simulations while the eventually still-present
315 drifts in the CTRL are by far lower than the climate signal.



316
 317 Fig.2 Average Chl-a in the first 10m in CTRL (a) for the period 2005-2020 and CMEMS-SAT (b) together with CTRL average
 318 vertical profiles (blue lines) for the period 2005-2020 of Chl-a (c,mg m⁻³), PO₄ (d, mmol m⁻³), NO₃ (e, mmol m⁻³), Dissolved
 319 oxygen (f, mmol m⁻³), DIC (g, umol kg⁻¹), pH(h) and Alkalinity (i, umol kg⁻¹). The light blue areas represent the spatial standard



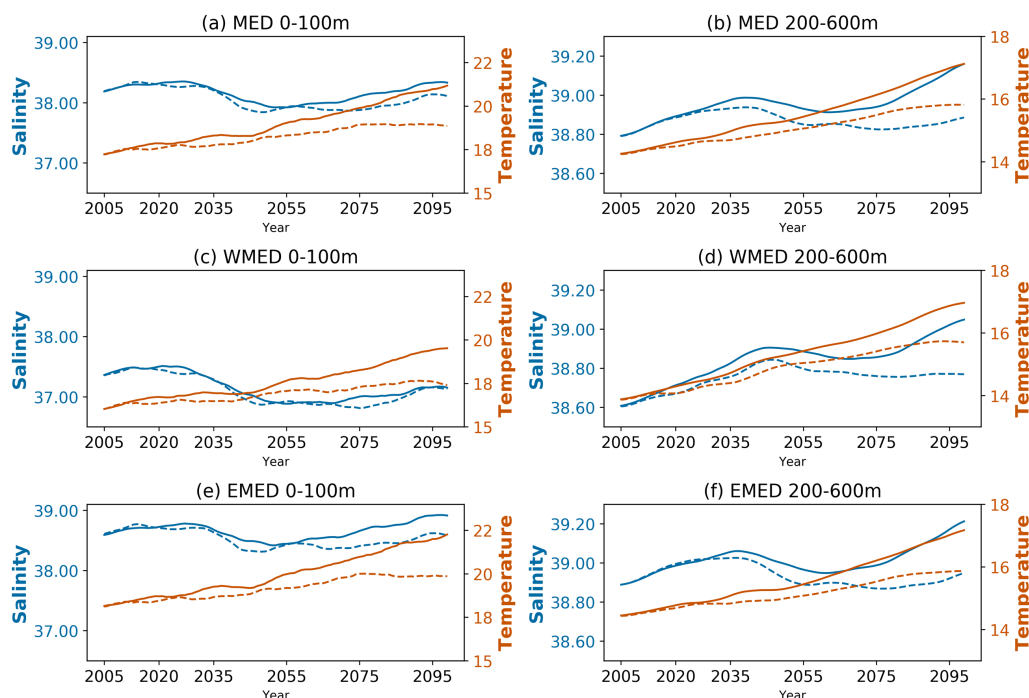
320 deviation of the monthly modelled data. The modelled data are compared with CMEMS reanalysis (Chl-a and pH) and
321 observations provided by EMODnet (PO₄, NO₃, Dissolved oxygen, DIC, Alkalinity): annual mean (black squares) and related
322 standard deviations (black bars).
323

324 3.2 Evolution of the thermohaline properties and circulation of the Mediterranean Sea in the 21st century 325

326 Mean temperature and salinity evolution between 0-100 m and 200-600 m in the 2005-2099 period under the RCP4.5 and
327 RCP8.5 scenarios in the whole Mediterranean Sea and in the western and eastern basins, are shown in Fig. 3. A warming
328 of the surface and intermediate layers is observed at the basin scale and in both the western and eastern basins, whose
329 magnitude (approximately 3°C in the RCP8.5 scenario), agrees with what has already been observed in recent modelling
330 studies based on single/multimodel ensembles (e.g., Adloff et al., 2015; Soto-Navarro et al., 2020).

331
332 On the other hand, the salinity in the surface layer at basin scale and in the eastern basin is characterized by a decrease
333 between 2020 and 2050 followed by a constant increase (stronger in the RCP8.5 scenario) until the end of the 21st century.
334 An increase in salinity also occurs in the intermediate layer both at the basin scale and in the two main subbasins.
335 Conversely, after 2050, the western basin shows a freshening of the surface layer with respect to the beginning of the
336 century, in agreement with what was already observed by Soto-Navarro et al. (2020). Similar to the seawater temperature,
337 the variation in salinity is strongly dependent on the emission scenario with more intense anomalies, both negative and
338 positive, under RCP8.5 conditions (as observed in previous modelling studies as Soto-Navarro et al., 2020).

339
340
341



342
343 **Fig.3 - Yearly timeseries for the period 2005-2099 of Salinity (blue) and Temperature (dark orange, in C) under the emission**
344 **scenarios RCP8.5 (solid line) and RCP4.5 (dashed line) in the Mediterranean Sea (MED, a-b), Western Mediterranean**
345 **(WMED, c-d) and Eastern Mediterranean (EMED, e-f) for the layers 0-100 m (left column) and 200-600 m (right column). The**
346 **yearly timeseries have been smoothed using 10-years running mean.**

347
348 The spatial distribution of temperature and salinity variations in the surface layer (Fig. S2 in the supplementary materials)
349 shows a comparable basin-scale warming in RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 in the MID-FUTURE (the difference is less than 2%)
350 and a doubled FAR-FUTURE variation in RCP8.5 (17-20%) with respect to RCP4.5 (8-12%), with the north western
351 Mediterranean, Tyrrhenian, Adriatic, Ionian, Aegean Sea and Levantine being the most affected subbasins. Similar
352 relative variations are observed in the intermediate layer (Fig. S2).

353
354 General freshening/salting of the upper/intermediate layers is observed over the entire basin during the MID-FUTURE
355 period (Fig. S3 in the supplementary materials). In the FAR-FUTURE the freshening of the surface is still present at the
356 basin scale in the RCP4.5 scenario (although it is reduced with respect to the MID-FUTURE) and in the western basin in
357 the RCP8.5 scenario. Moreover, an increase in salinity is observed in the Adriatic Sea (in both scenarios) and in the
358 eastern basin under RCP8.5. The decrease in salinity in the 21st century in the western basin is driven by the salinity
359 values imposed in the Atlantic buffer zone (Lovato et al., 2013), while the salting of the eastern basin is linked to the
360 increased freshwater deficit in the area (e.g., Gualdi et al., 2013; Soto-Navarro et al., 2020). In the intermediate layer, the
361 situation is reversed: while in RCP8.5, the entire basin experiences an increase in the salinity associated with the increase
362 in salinity in the surface water of the eastern basin, in RCP4.5, the eastern basin experiences a slight decrease in salinity
363 associated again with the freshening of surface water. In fact, at the surface, both signals are transported by vertical mixing
364 to the intermediate layers of the eastern basin influencing the salinity of the newly formed LIW.



365 Figure 4 shows the temporal evolution of the Mediterranean thermohaline circulation during the 21st century using the
366 zonal overturning stream function (Myers and Haines, 2002; Somot et al., 2006). The thermohaline circulation of the
367 basin in the PRESENT is composed of two cells, similar to the outcomes of the historical reference experiments described
368 in Adloff et al. (2015) and Waldman et al. (2018). The first cell extends from the surface to 800 m, with a clockwise
369 circulation associated with MAW moving eastwards and LIW moving westwards. The second cell is located between 500
370 and 2500 m in the eastern Mediterranean with a counterclockwise circulation associated with the Eastern Mediterranean
371 Deep Water (EMDW) moving eastwards and LIW moving westwards.

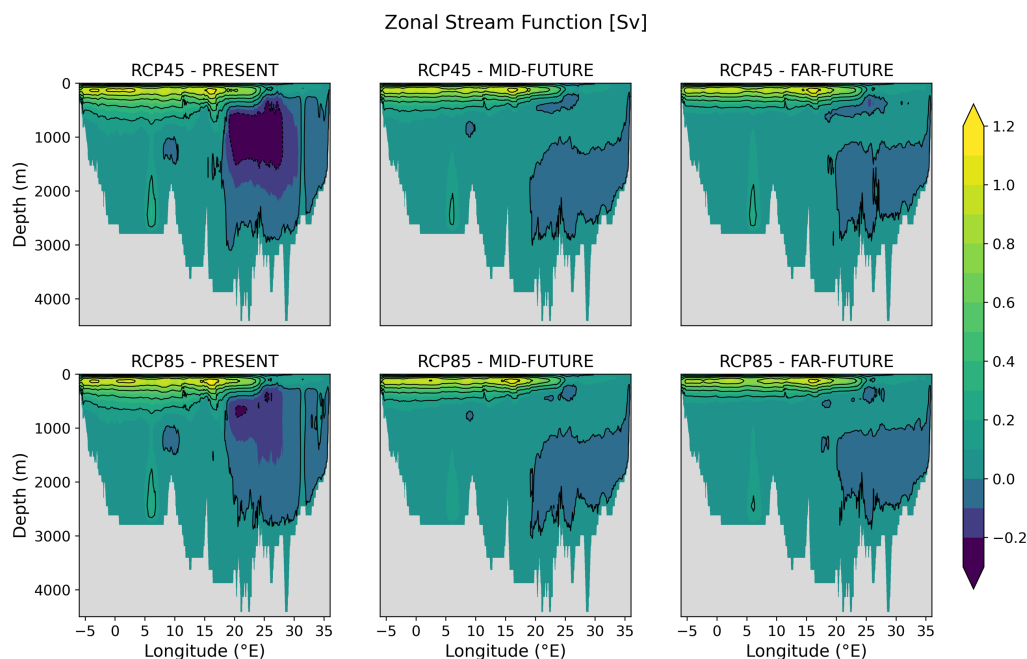
372

373 Under the two scenarios, during the MID-FUTURE period there is an evident weakening of both cells and a reduction of
374 the thickness of the upper layer cell and the eastern basin cell (less than -0.1 Sv), which splits into two sub-cells. By the
375 end of the century both cells show a similar behaviour, whereas in the RCP4.5 scenario, the eastern cell is slightly more
376 intense. The weakening of the zonal overturning stream function is similar to previous findings of Somot et al. (2006)
377 and Adloff et al. (2015). As the Mediterranean thermohaline circulation is driven by both deep and intermediate water
378 formation processes, the overall weakening of both cells is a direct consequence of the increase in the vertical stratification
379 of the water column. In fact, the evolution of the winter maximum mixed layer depth in key convective areas of the
380 Mediterranean Sea, such as the Gulf of Lions, Southern Adriatic, Aegean Sea and Levantine basin (Fig. S4 in the
381 supplementary materials), shows a progressive decrease in the intensity of the open ocean convection after 2030. Only
382 for the Aegean Sea, are the changes in the winter mixed layer maximum depth less marked, with the occurrence of some
383 maxima around 2080 (in RCP8.5) or after 2090 (in RCP4.5), which could correspond to a future tendency of the
384 thermohaline circulation of the Eastern basin to produce EMT-like events (Adloff et al., 2015).

385

386 The projected overall weakening of the Mediterranean thermohaline circulation leads to a reduction in the exchanges of
387 biogeochemical properties between the western and eastern basins through the Sicily strait at both the surface and
388 intermediate levels (Fig.S5 in the supplementary materials) and to a reduced ventilation of intermediate/deep waters
389 (Adloff et al., 2015).

390



391

392 **Fig. 4 - Mediterranean Sea zonal stream function annual mean (in Sv) averaged over the PRESENT (2005-2020), MID-**
393 **FUTURE (2040-2059) and FAR-FUTURE (2080-2099) periods under RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios.**

394

395 3.3 Spatial and temporal evolution of nutrients, dissolved oxygen and chl-a concentrations

396

397 Figures 5 and 6 show the spatial distribution of the magnitude and signs of the changes that will affect the dissolved
398 nutrient concentrations during the 21st century. In the FAR-FUTURE, the decreases in PO₄ and NO₃ concentrations in the
399 0-100 m layer under the RCP8.5 scenario are almost double (approximately 13% and 20% for PO₄ and NO₃, respectively)
400 with respect to those observed in the RCP4.5 (approximately 7% and 13%) and are particularly marked in the Levantine
401 basin, in the Aegean Sea and in the Tyrrhenian Sea. On the other hand, an overall increase (stronger in NO₃ than PO₄) is
402 observed in the Northern Adriatic Sea and in many other coastal areas influenced by river dynamics. This signal can be
403 explained by the increase in vertical stratification and the decrease in river discharges (Gualdi et al., 2013) which results
404 in a higher concentration of the nutrients at the river mouths. The increase in the Northern Adriatic is counterbalanced by
405 a decrease in the Southern Adriatic associated with the reduced vertical mixing in the water column and reduced inflow
406 of nutrients through the Otranto Strait (Fig. S6 in the supplementary materials). Moreover, the two scenarios show some
407 significant changes in the dissolved nutrient concentrations at local scale (brown patches) in the Alboran Sea and in the
408 southern Ionian associated with changes in the intensity of mesoscale circulation (eddies) of both areas and in the intensity
409 and spatial structure of the mid-Ionian jet (not shown).

410

411 In contrast to the general decreasing nutrient content of the upper layer, the intermediate layer in both scenarios shows a
412 strong (milder) increase in nutrient concentration in the southern Aegean Sea (Levantine basin, northwestern



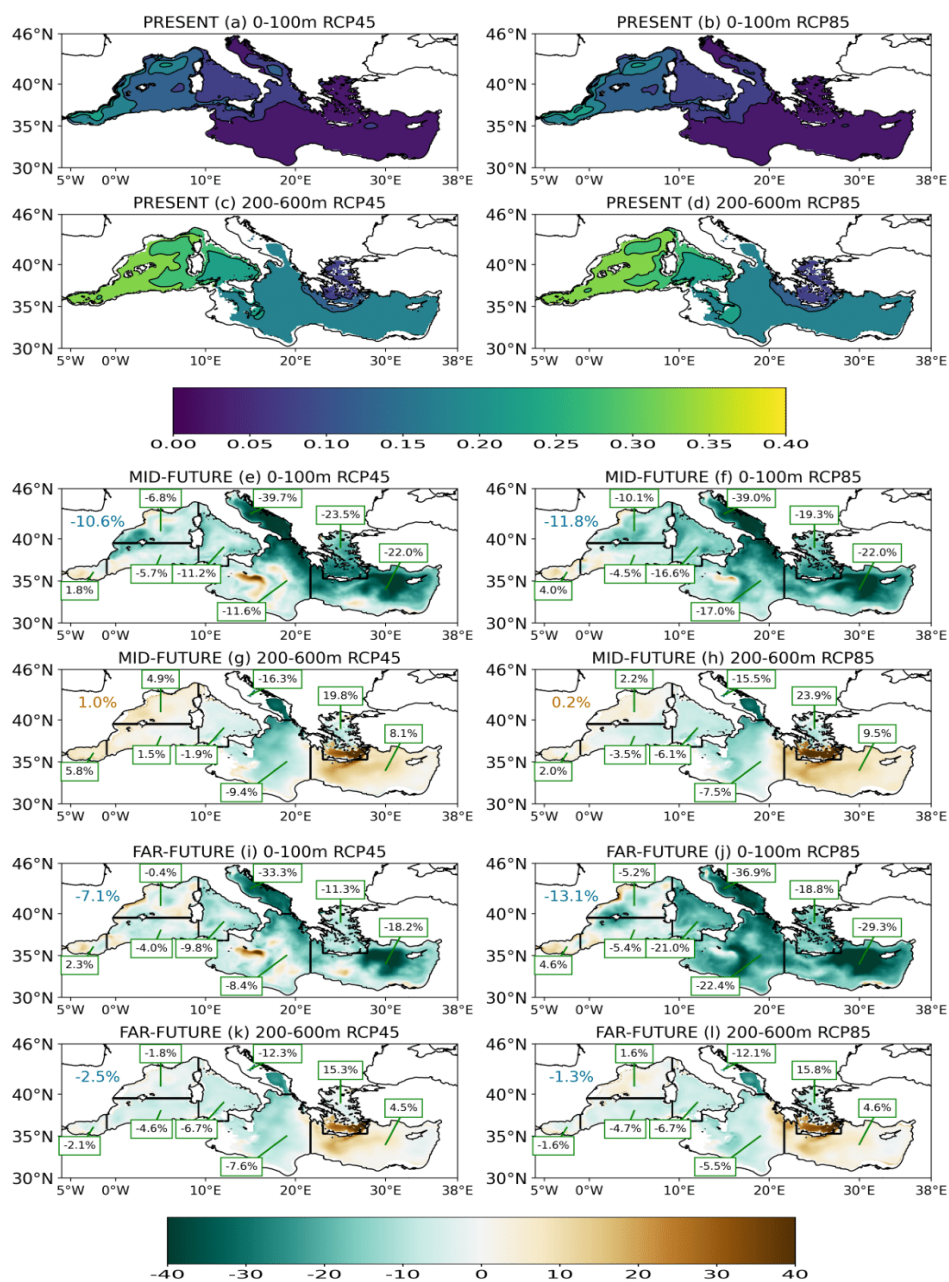
413 Mediterranean and Alboran Sea) in the 21st century driven by the reduced vertical mixing, which tends to increase the
414 nutrient content of the intermediate layers. The Tyrrhenian, Ionian and Southern Adriatic Seas are, in turn, characterized
415 by a permanent negative anomaly. In the first two areas, the anomaly can be associated with the decrease in the westward
416 transport of nutrients in the intermediate layers through the Sicily Strait (consequences of the weakening of the zonal
417 stream function discussed in Section 3.2, Fig. S5), while in the Adriatic Sea, the observed changes are driven by the
418 increase in the nutrient export in the intermediate layer through the Otranto Strait (Fig.S6). In the northwestern
419 Mediterranean the observed positive anomalies become weaker and even negative in the FAR-FUTURE under the
420 RCP4.5 emission scenario, likely due to some convective events that take place between 2080 and 2100, as shown in Fig.
421 S4.

422

423



PO₄

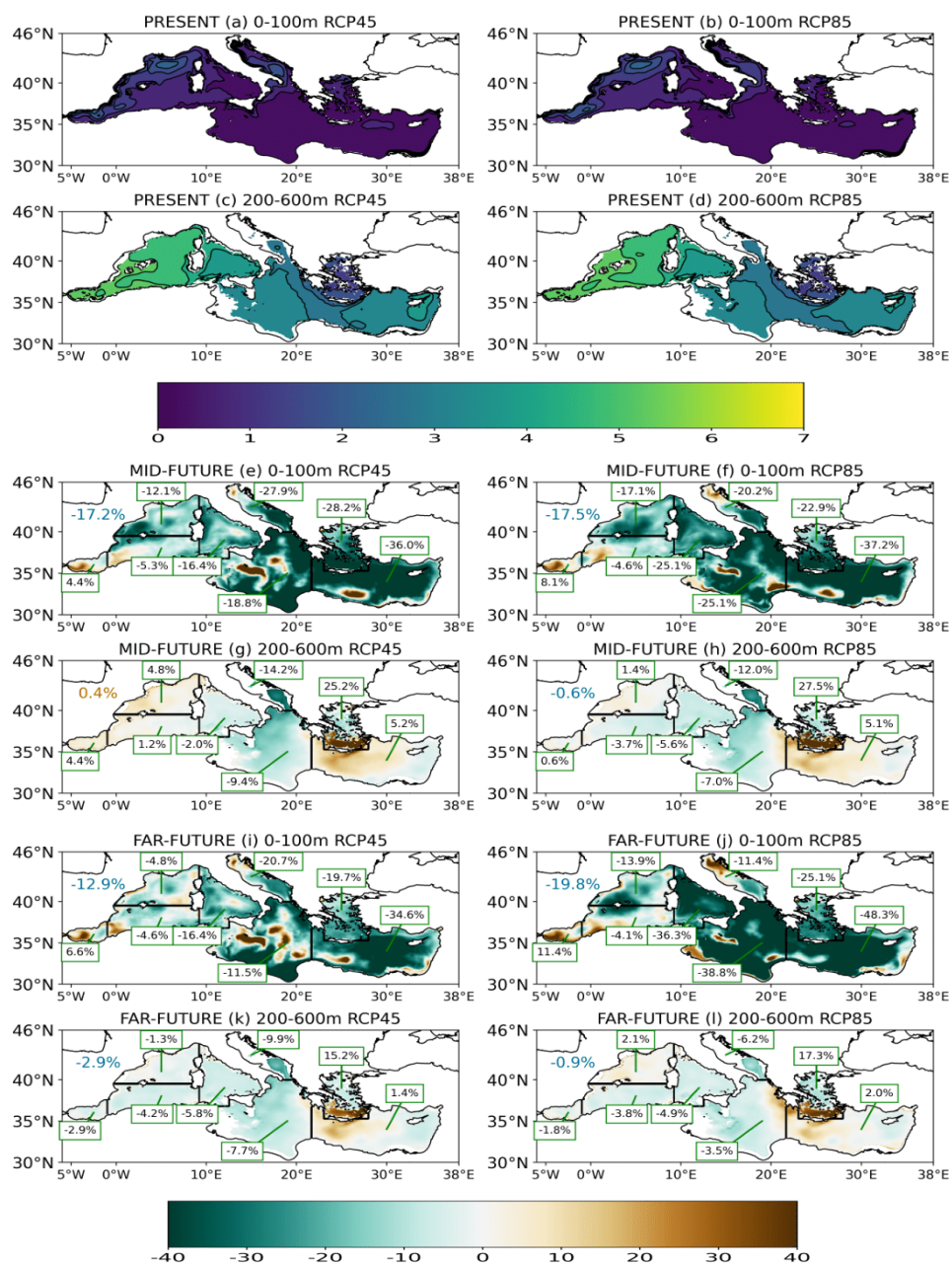


424

425 **Fig. 5 - Phosphate (in mmol m^{-3}) in first 0-100m and 200-600m in the present period (2005-2020, a,b, c,d), in MID future (e,f,g,h)**
 426 **and FAR-FUTURE (i,j,k,l) variations in the RCP4.5 scenario (left column) and RCP8.5 (right column). The value located over**
 427 **the Iberian Peninsula is the average variation on basin scale in blue/dark orange if it is negative/positive.**
 428



NO₃

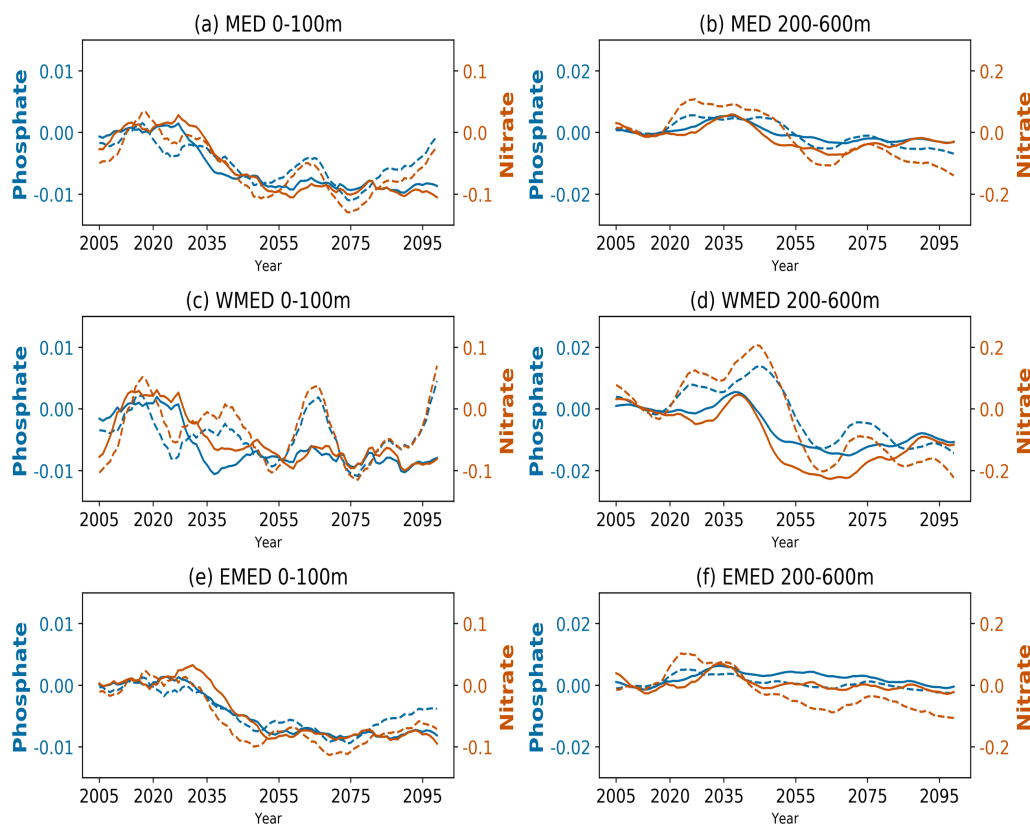


429
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 431
 432
 433

Fig.6 - as Fig.5 but for Nitrate (in mmol m^{-3})



434 The temporal evolution of the mean concentrations of PO₄ and NO₃ in the RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 simulations between 0-
435 100 m and 200-600 m in the Mediterranean Sea and its western and eastern basins for the 2005-2099 period is shown in
436 Fig. 7. In the RCP8.5 scenario, PO₄ and NO₃ concentrations within the euphotic layer of both subbasins are substantially
437 stable for the first 30 simulated years, while a marked decline occurs after 2030-2035, with values of 0.01 and 0.1 mmol
438 m⁻³ (compared to the beginning of the century) respectively, which is followed by a steady evolution of the concentration
439 values until the end of the century. The same behaviour is observed in RCP4.5, except for a recovery that takes place at
440 the end of the century in correspondence to an increase in the nutrient inflow at the Gibraltar strait (Fig. S7 in the
441 supplementary materials). The observed decline is timely in phase with the weakening of the zonal stream function
442 discussed in Fig. 4, further pointing out the importance of vertical mixing in driving the temporal variability of nutrients
443 in the euphotic layer. From this point of view, some relative maxima of both nutrient concentrations in the western and
444 eastern basins are observed for RCP4.5 in the 2015-2040 period (Fig. 5 c,d), associated with strong ocean convective
445 events taking place in the Gulf of Lions and Levantine basin (Fig. S4). The peak in both the nutrients concentration,
446 between 2055 and 2075, in RCP4.5 timely corresponds to a peak in the inflow of nutrients at the Gibraltar strait (Fig. S7).
447 Additionally, the intermediate layer of the western basin, in both scenarios, after 2035 experiences by a negative tendency
448 in the nutrient concentration which is greater than 0.01 mmol m⁻³ for PO₄ and 0.1 mmol m⁻³ NO₃, related to a reduced
449 westward transport of nutrients associated with LIW (Fig.S5).
450
451
452

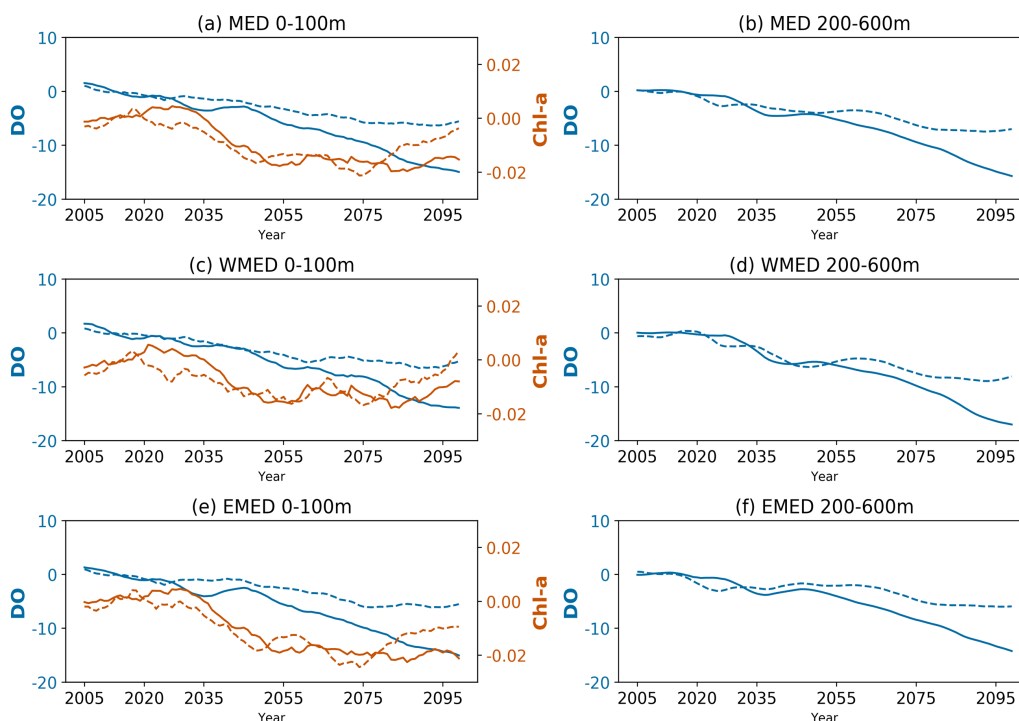


453

454 **Fig.7 - Yearly timeseries for the period 2005-2099 of Phosphate (blue, in mmol m^{-3}) and Nitrate (dark orange, in mmol m^{-3})**
455 **anomalies for the emission scenario RCP8.5 (solid line) and RCP4.5 (dashed line) in the Mediterranean Sea (MED, a-b),**
456 **Western Mediterranean (WMED, c-d) and Eastern Mediterranean (EMED, e-f) for the layer 0-100m (left column) and 200-**
457 **600m (right column).**

458

459 The temporal evolution of chlorophyll-a in the two scenarios is similar to what was observed in the case of dissolved
460 nutrients, with a high interannual variability, a decrease after 2030-2035 of approximately 0.03 mg m^{-3} and a stable signal
461 until the end of the century, with RCP4.5 as the only exception, where a recovery is again observed (Fig.8). In the eastern
462 Mediterranean the decrease is of the same magnitude as that observed at the basin scale, while in the western basin the
463 chl-a signal appears substantially stable with respect to the present.



464

465 **Fig. 8 as Fig.5 but for Dissolved Oxygen (blue, in mmol m^{-3}) and Chlorophyll-a (dark orange, in mg m^{-3})**

466

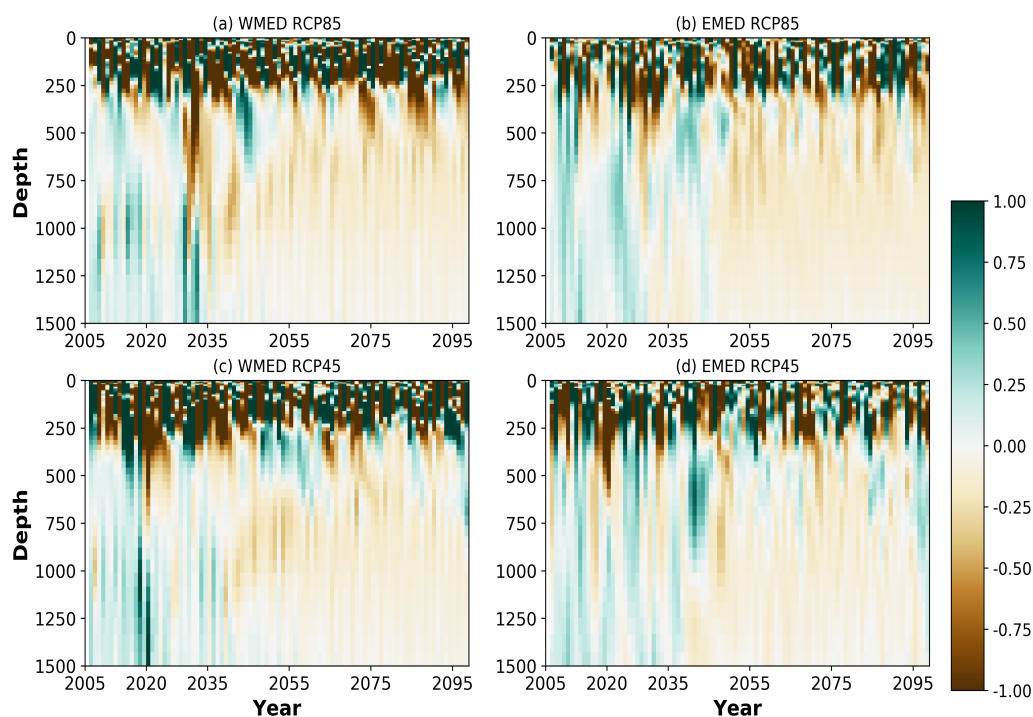
467 During the 21st century, a continuous decrease in the oxygen concentration is projected in both scenarios in the
468 Mediterranean Sea (Fig. 8). Under the RCP8.5 emission scenario, the concentration of the dissolved oxygen in the upper
469 layer decreases by approximately 15 mmol m^{-3} , which is three times the value observed in the RCP4.5 scenario (Fig. 8).
470 The decrease in dissolved oxygen is rather uniform in both the horizontal and vertical directions in all the subbasins, with
471 values that are double in RCP8.5 (in percentages) with respect to those observed under RCP4.5 (Fig. S8, see the
472 supplementary material). For example, the decrease in the oxygen solubility in the Levantine basin in the FAR-FUTURE
473 is approximately equal to 6% under the RCP8.5 emission scenario and 3% under the RCP4.5 emission scenario. In
474 northwestern Mediterranean, these values are approximately 7% and 3% respectively. The projected decreases in both
475 scenarios are usually lower in the Alboran Sea and Southern Western Mediterranean with respect to the rest of the basin,
476 as a consequence of the damping effect driven by the oxygen values imposed at the Gibraltar Strait.

477

478 The uniform decrease in the oxygen surface concentration observed in Fig. S8 is spatially coherent with the increase in
479 the temperature shown in Fig. S4, confirming the importance of temperature in driving the solubility of the oxygen in the
480 marine environment. Moreover, we also found a decrease in the oxygen inflow (not shown) through the Gibraltar Strait
481 and an overall increase in community respiration (see the analysis related to the phytoplankton respiration in section 3.4),
482 which represent additional factors explaining the observed changes. Western subbasins and deep convection areas are the
483 regions that show the highest decrease of oxygen in the intermediate layer, with again the magnitude of the observed
484 signal depending on the scenario that is considered (Fig. S8) and related to the reduction in vertical processes intensity.
485 The effect of the increased stratification on the oxygen vertical distribution is clearly shown in Figure 9. Under RCP8.5



486 (Fig.9 a,b), the progressive decline of oxygen concentration is timely corresponding to the progressive decrease in the
487 maximum mixed layer depth (Fig. S4) and weakening of the zonal stream function (Fig.4) discussed in Section 3.2. On
488 the other hand, under RCP4.5 emission scenario, some events of deep transport of oxygen, that dumped the decline in the
489 oxygen concentration, can be recognized in both the subbasins (for example towards the end of the 21st century).



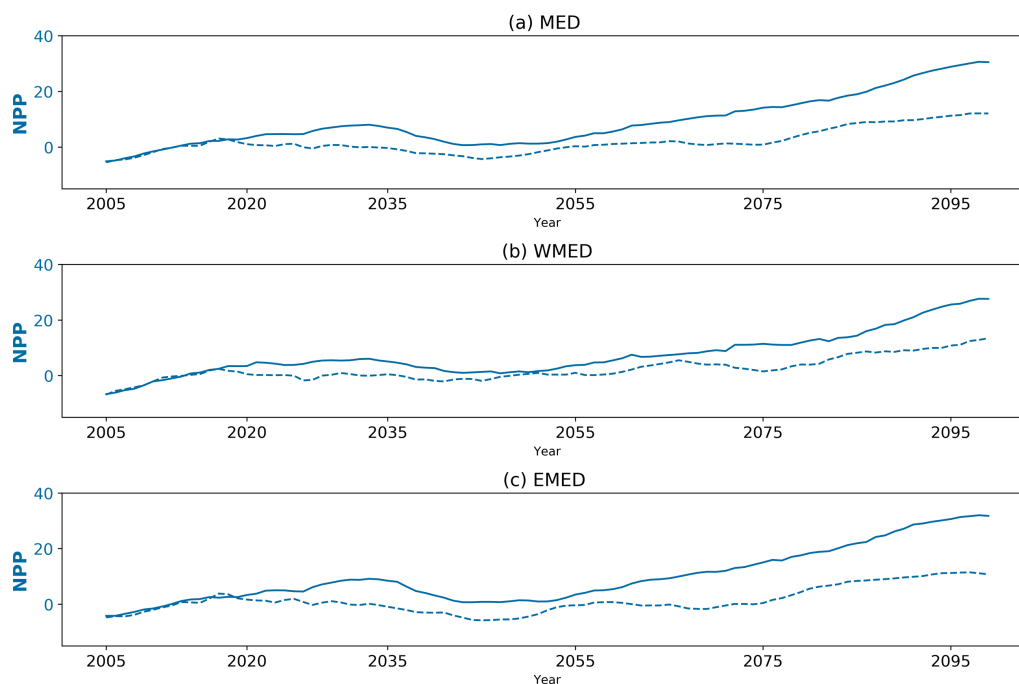
490
491 **Fig.9 Annual rate of change of Dissolved Oxygen ($\text{mmol m}^{-3} \text{ year}^{-1}$) in the western (a,c) and eastern (b,d) Mediterranean Sea in**
492 **RCP8.5 (a,b) and RCP4.5 (c,d).**

493

494 3.4 Spatial and temporal evolution of net primary production and living/nonliving organic matter

495

496 The warming of the water column and the increase in vertical stratification affect the metabolic rate of ecosystem
497 processes including CO_2 fixation and community respiration. In fact, a basin-wide increase in net primary production
498 (NPP) starting after 2035 and proceeding until the end of the simulations, is projected in both the scenarios (Fig. 10). In
499 the RCP8.5 scenario the NPP increase is greater than $20 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$, which is a value that is more than double with
500 respect to the values observed in the RCP4.5 simulation.



501

502 **Fig.10 - Yearly time-series for the period 2005-2099 of Integrated net primary production (blue, in $\text{gC m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$) anomalies**
503 **for the emission scenario RCP8.5 (solid line) and RCP4.5 (dashed line) in the Mediterranean Sea (MED, a), Western**
504 **Mediterranean (WMED, b) and Eastern Mediterranean (c) for the first 200 m. The yearly timeseries have been smoothed using**
505 **10-years running mean.**

506

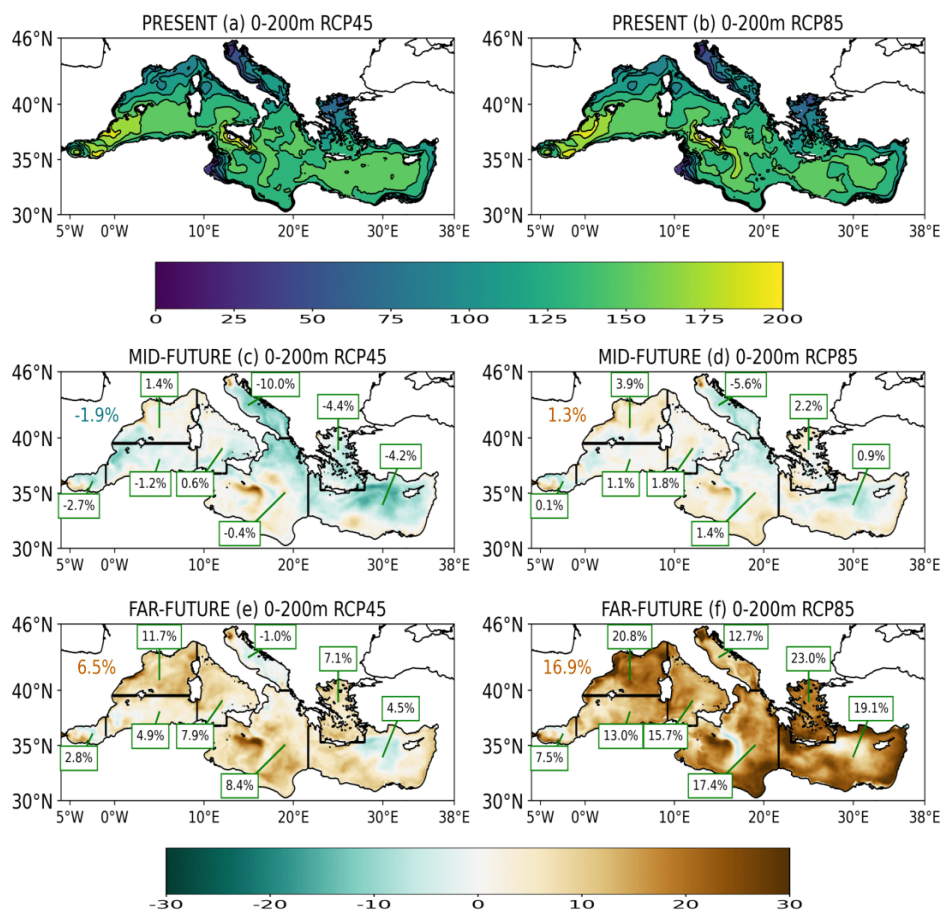
507 The distribution of the sign of the NPP changes is not uniform across the basin and between the simulations (Fig.12). In
508 the MID-FUTURE in both scenarios the only areas that experience an increase in the NPP with respect to the beginning
509 of the century are the northwestern Mediterranean, the Tyrrhenian Sea, the northern Adriatic Sea, part of the Ionian Sea
510 and of the Levantine basin. Conversely, the rest of the Adriatic Sea, part of the Northern Ionian Sea and the Rhodes Gyre
511 areas show negative anomalies. The Aegean Sea shows a rather opposite behaviour with a positive/negative anomaly in
512 RCP8.5/RCP4.5. In the FAR-FUTURE, corresponding to a more pronounced warming of the basin, the NPP increase is
513 quite uniform throughout the entire basin and is equal to 17% in RCP8.5, which is more than twice that observed in the
514 RCP4.5 (approximately 7%). Under the RCP8.5 emission scenario there is a 7%-23% increase in NPP throughout the
515 basin, with the highest values observed in the northwestern Mediterranean, Aegean Sea and Levantine basin (similar
516 results, although with lower rates, were found at the end of the 21st century by Solidoro et al., 2021). Conversely, under
517 the RCP4.5 scenario, the Adriatic Sea is still characterized by a negative anomaly (-1%), while for the rest of the basin
518 the sign of the anomaly is positive, with the greatest values observed in the northwestern Mediterranean (approximately
519 12%, which is almost half of the variation observed in the RCP8.5 scenario). In both scenarios there is still a negative
520 anomaly in the Rhodes gyre area, which is extremely weak in RCP8.5. Both negative anomalies are temporally consistent
521 with some convective events taking place in both areas after 2080 and shown in Fig. S4.

522

523



NET PRIMARY PRODUCTION



524
 525 **Fig. 11 - Integrated net primary production variation (in $\text{gC m}^{-2} \text{year}^{-1}$) in first 0-200m in the present period (2005-2020, a,b),**
 526 **MID future (c,d) and FAR-FUTURE (e,f) variations in the RCP4.5 scenario (left column) and RCP8.5 (right column). The**
 527 **value located over the Iberian Peninsula is the average variation on basin scale in blue/dark orange if it is negative/positive.**

528
 529 As shown by Lazzari et al. (2014) and Solidoro et al. (2021), the overall warming of the water column also results in an
 530 increase in community respiration. In agreement with that, Fig. S9 (see the supplementary materials) shows the spatial
 531 distribution of phytoplankton respiration (RESP) changes in the MID-FUTURE. It is possible to observe some differences
 532 with respect to NPP. In both scenarios, there is an overall decrease in the RESP with respect to the beginning of the 21st
 533 century, which is approximately equal to -4% in the RCP4.5 and -2% in the RCP8.5. Positive signals can be observed in
 534 both scenarios in the Northern Adriatic, most of the coastal areas of the Northern Western Mediterranean, Southern Ionian
 535 and part of the Levantine basin. As previously observed for NPP, the Adriatic Sea has an overall negative anomaly
 536 together with the area of the Rhodes gyre. The northwestern Mediterranean is the only area where the variation has an
 537 opposite sign in two scenarios: it is negative (-1.4%) in RCP4.5 and positive (approximately 1%) in RCP8.5. In the FAR-
 538 FUTURE the pattern of variation is coherent with that already observed in the NPP (Fig. 11). RESP increases at the end



539 of the 21st century over the entire basin of approximately 11% in RCP8.5, again more than doubling the value observed
540 in RCP4.5 (5%). In RCP8.5, the highest values are observed in the northwestern Mediterranean (this is also true for the
541 RCP4.5 scenario), Aegean Sea and Levantine basin. Under the RCP4.5 scenario, the Adriatic Sea, with the northern part
542 as the only exception, is still characterized by a negative anomaly.

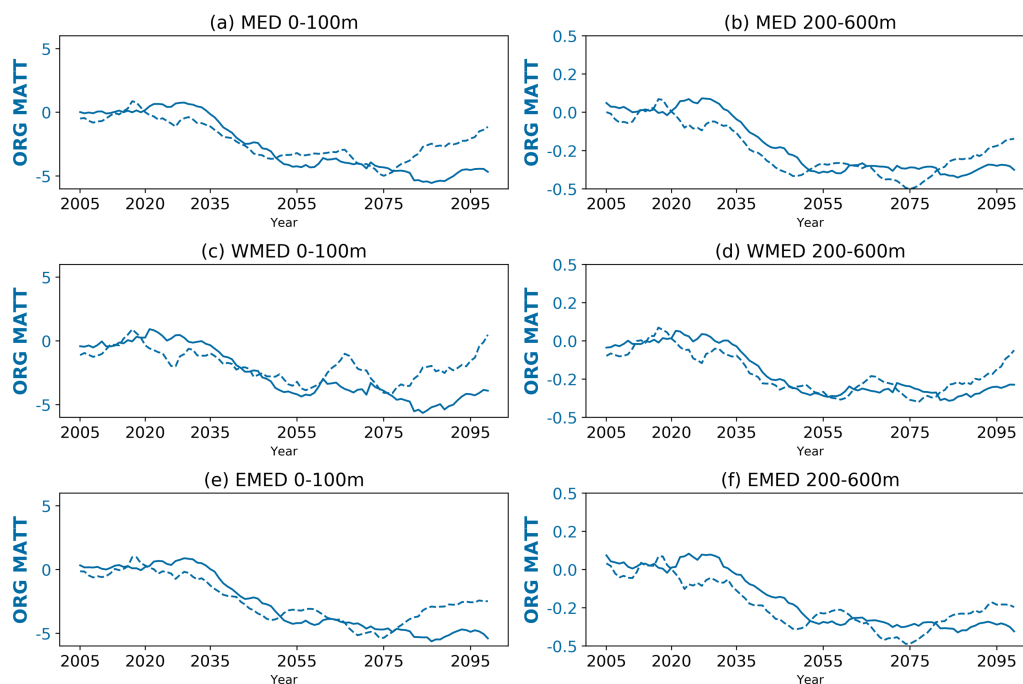
543

544 The overall increase in the respiration community and of the vertical stratification (which in turn affects the sinking
545 velocity of the particles) has a consequence on the decrease in the organic stock matter in the water column. The temporal
546 evolution of the carbon organic matter standing stock for the 2005-2099 in RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 simulations between 0-
547 100 m and 200-600 m in the whole Mediterranean and in its western and eastern basins is shown in Figure 12. The
548 behaviour of the carbon organic matter standing stock is similar to that observed in the dissolved nutrients, with a
549 substantially stable signal in the first 30 years of the 21st century and a decrease after 2030. In particular, RCP8.5 projects
550 a decline of approximately 5 mgC m^{-3} until the end of the century, while RCP4.5 shows a similar behaviour, despite a
551 recovery that is also present, in this case, at the end of the 21st century. In the intermediate layer, the decline after the
552 period 2030-2035 is approximately 0.3 mgC m^{-3} for the carbon stock, with another slight recovery observed in RCP4.5 at
553 the end of the century.

554

555 Similar dynamics are also observed for plankton (both phyto- and zoo-, Fig. 13), bacterial biomass and particulate organic
556 matter in the euphotic layer (Fig. 14). In the RCP8.5 simulation, the decrease of the phytoplankton (zooplankton) biomass
557 is approximately $2 (1.5) \text{ mgC m}^{-3}$ and appears to be stronger in the eastern basin than in western basin. Under RCP8.5 the
558 bacterial biomass is projected to decrease at the basin scale by the end of the century by approximately 0.5 mgC m^{-3} , by
559 0.2 mgC m^{-3} in the western basin and by 0.6 mgC m^{-3} in the eastern basin. Finally, the decline in particulate organic
560 matter is approximately 1.5 mgC m^{-3} at the basin scale, approximately 1 mgC m^{-3} in the western basin and approximately
561 2 mgC m^{-3} in the eastern basin. In the intermediate layer, the decline of the bacterial biomass in the entire basin is fairly
562 uniform and continuous until the end of the 21st century, with a variation of approximately of about 0.3 mgC m^{-3} with
563 respect to the beginning of the century. For the same layer, particulate organic matter declines after the period 2030-2035
564 but successively the signal remains substantially stable and, in particular in the western basin, has a tendency to recover
565 at the end of the century. In the RCP4.5 simulation for all these biogeochemical tracers, we observe a recovery in the
566 biomass at the end of the century and the observed change is approximately 50% with respect to the RCP8.5 scenario.

567



568

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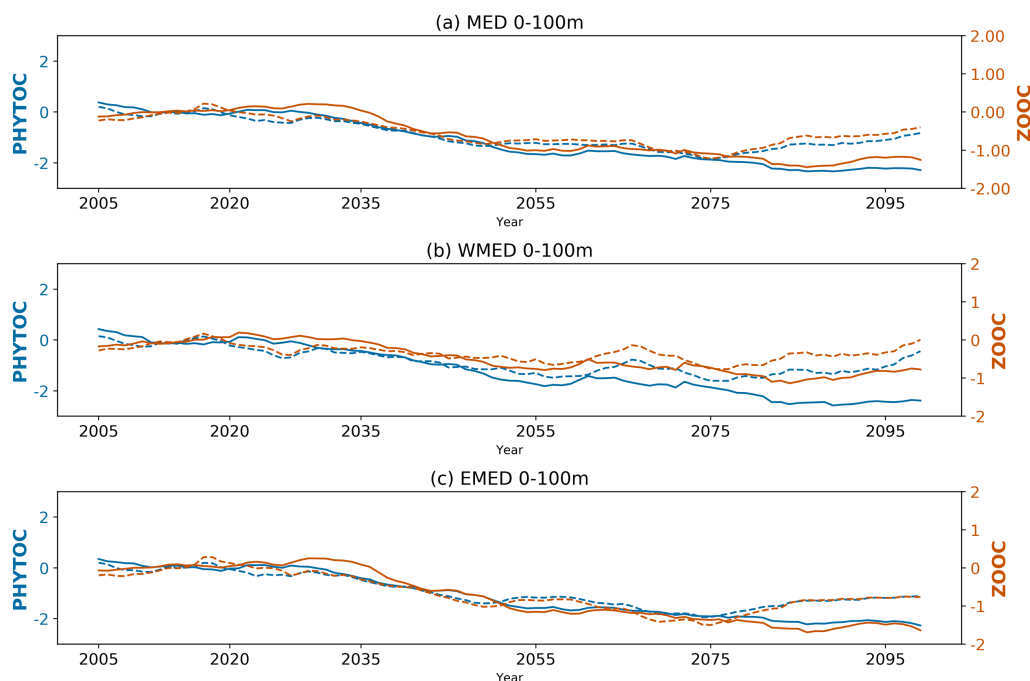
Fig. 12 - Yearly timeseries for the period 2005-2099 of Living/not Living organic Matter (in mgC m^{-3}) anomalies for the emission scenario RCP8.5 (solid line) and RCP4.5 (dashed line) in the Mediterranean Sea (MED, a-b), Western Mediterranean (WMED, c-d) and Eastern Mediterranean (EMED, e-f) for the layer 0-100m (left column) and 200-600m (right column) for the 2005-2099 period. The yearly timeseries have been smoothed using 10-years running mean.

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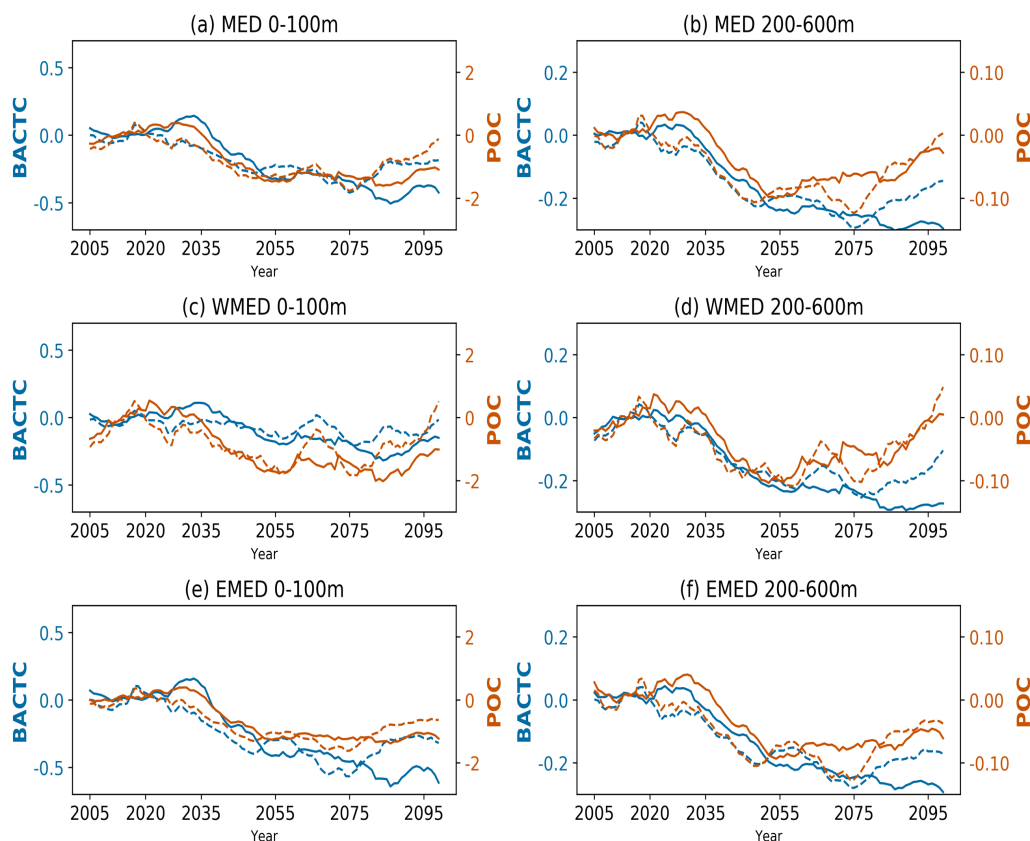
575

576 **Fig. 13 - Yearly timeseries of Phytoplankton biomass (blue, in mg m^{-3}) and Zooplankton (dark orange, in mg m^{-3}) anomalies**
577 **for the emission scenario RCP8.5 (solid line) and RCP4.5 (dashed line) in the Mediterranean Sea (MED, a), Western**
578 **Mediterranean (WMED, b) and Eastern Mediterranean (c) for the layer 0-100m and for the 2005-2099 period.**

579

580 In the two scenarios, in both MID-FUTURE and FAR-FUTURE the areas most affected by the decline of phytoplankton
581 (Fig. S10) and zooplankton (Fig. S11) biomass are mainly the sub-basins of the eastern Mediterranean Sea, namely the
582 Ionian Sea, the Aegean Sea and the Levantine basin and the Tyrrhenian Sea (only for the phytoplankton). Moreover, the
583 area of Rhodes gyre is characterized by a permanent negative anomaly (as already observed in the case of NPP and RESP,
584 consequences of the vertical convection phenomena in the area). Conversely, positive signals for both variables can be
585 observed only at the local scale in the Strait of Sicily and along the coast of the Northern Western Mediterranean (spatially
586 coherent with the positive variations of the PO, discussed in section 3.3). For the latter, the zooplankton biomass in the
587 North-Western Mediterranean increases by about 2% in the FAR-FUTURE under emission scenario RCP4.5.

588



589
590
591

Fig.14- As Fig.8 but for bacterial biomass (blue, in mg m^{-3}) and particulate organic matter (dark orange, in mg m^{-3})

592 Also, in the case of bacterial biomass (Fig. S12) and particulate organic matter (Fig. S13) the decline along the 21st
593 century will mostly affect the euphotic and the intermediate layers of the eastern basin in both MID- and FAR-FUTURE
594 with relative maxima observed in the Levantine basin (around 50% in the RCP8.5 scenario). This decline is related to an
595 increase of the respiration at community level, as observed for phytoplankton (Fig. S9). However, there are some
596 exceptions to the general decline of the bacterial biomass and particulate organic matter in the basin. For example, in the
597 Adriatic Sea, under scenario RCP8.5, the decrease of the bacterial biomass with respect to the beginning of the century
598 is only 1% with a slight positive anomaly appearing in the southern Adriatic at the end of 21st century (Fig. S12). In the
599 case of particulate organic matter, the Strait of Sicily and the Northern Adriatic are characterized by a permanent positive
600 signal in both layers and scenarios as observed before for PO_4 . Moreover, in RCP4.5 simulation in the FAR-FUTURE
601 period the North-Western Mediterranean shows an increase of the particulate organic matter content in the euphotic and
602 intermediate layers.

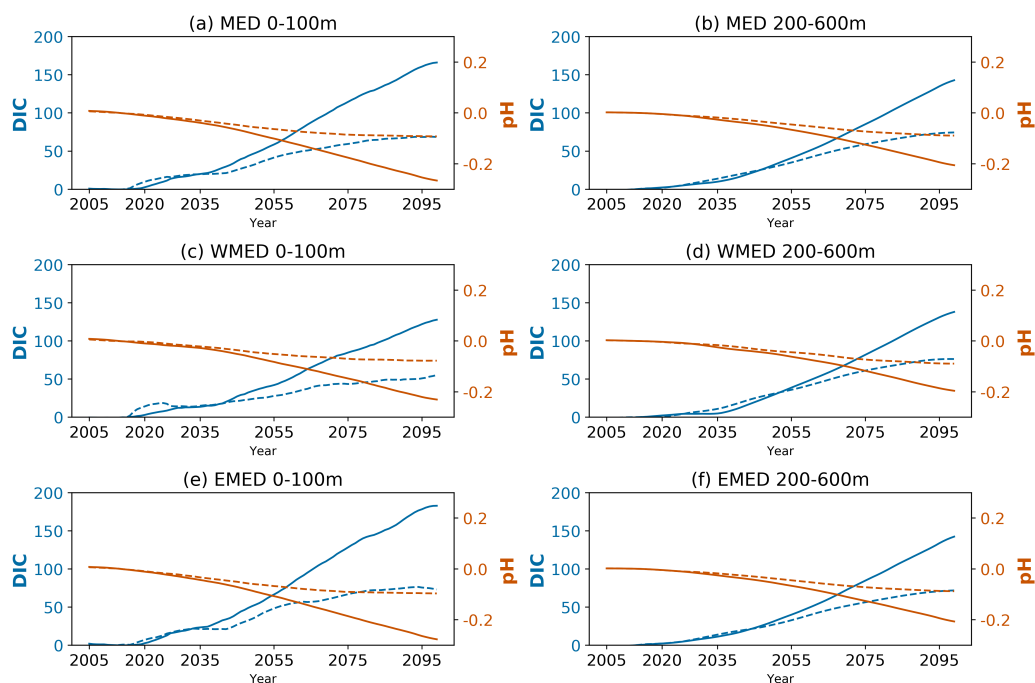
603

604 3.4 Spatial and temporal evolution of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) and pH

605



606 A basin-wide continuous increase in DIC is projected until the end of the 21st century, with a stronger signal observed in
 607 the RCP8.5 scenario (Fig. 15), and more specifically, in the eastern part of the Mediterranean basin. In fact, in the euphotic
 608 layer, the increase in DIC with respect to the beginning of the century is approximately $150 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ under RCP8.5 in
 609 the eastern basin, while it is approximately $120 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ in the western basin. Additionally, in the intermediate layer,
 610 DIC increases by approximately $120 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ with respect to the beginning of the century: this value is approximately
 611 the same for both the western and eastern basins and is double with respect to that observed in the RCP4.5 scenario.
 612



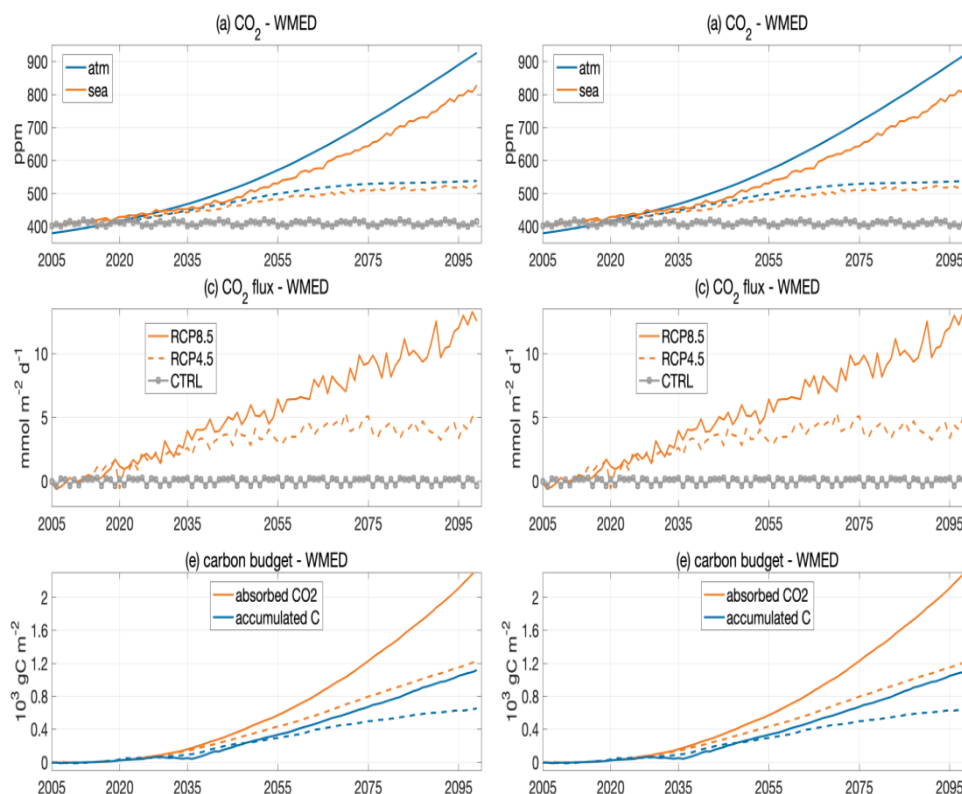
613
 614 **Fig. 15 - as Fig.14 but for Dissolved Inorganic Carbon (blue, in $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$) and pH (dark orange)**

616 Although community respiration can play a role in the increase in DIC, a predominant mechanism is represented by the
 617 air-sea CO_2 exchange. In fact, looking at the terms controlling the DIC increase, the air-sea CO_2 exchange shows an almost
 618 balanced condition in the present-day, which is consistent with the 1999-2015 reanalysis (Melaku Canu et al., 2015), and
 619 an increase throughout the 21st century as a consequence of the increase in atmospheric CO_2 (Fig. 16, a,d). The CO_2 flux
 620 increase is almost linear and is fairly in the two scenarios until 2050. Then, the RCP4.5 scenario shows smoothing in the
 621 second half of the century, which is consistent consistently with reduced atmospheric emissions, while the linear increase
 622 persists under RCP8.5 (Fig. 16, b,e).

623
 624 The two main Mediterranean sub-basins behave quite differently: the CO_2 air-sea sink is three times greater in the western
 625 part than in compared to the eastern part, reflecting the influence of both DIC and temperature spatial gradients (i.e.,
 626 higher values of DIC and temperature in the eastern basin). Disentangling the temperature and DIC contributions to the
 627 pCO_2 evolution reveals that the impact of the increase in temperature on saturation accounts for 25% of the total increase,
 628 while the remaining part is due to the DIC concentration increase. In the western part, a less pronounced temperature



629 effect (i.e., T increases slower in the western part) causes an undersaturation condition of $p\text{CO}_2$ (i.e., $p\text{CO}_2^{\text{sea}}$ lower than
630 $p\text{CO}_2^{\text{atm}}$ values) compared to the eastern condition triggering the much higher CO_2 absorption in the western Mediterranean.
631
632



633
634 **Fig.16 - Atmospheric and marine $p\text{CO}_2$ (a,d), CO_2 air-sea exchange (b,e) and cumulative CO_2 absorbed and accumulated in the**
635 **water column during the scenario simulations (c,f) in the western (a,b,c) and eastern (d,e,f) Mediterranean Sea. Two scenarios**
636 **RCP45 (dashed line) and RCP85 (continuous line) and control simulation (CTRL, gray line) are reported.**
637

638 As a result of the air-sea CO_2 sink, the RCP8.5 scenario shows a steady DIC accumulation after 2030 with values of 2
639 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$ in the first 600 m (500 m) of the water column for the western basin (eastern basin; Fig. 17).

640
641 The increase in DIC in the upper layer is approximately 1.5% and 2.5% in the western and eastern basins, respectively,
642 in the MID-FUTURE, and 5% and 7% in the FAR-FUTURE (not shown). In the 200-600 m layers, the DIC increase
643 follows the same pattern as that in the upper layer, but with smaller changes (i.e., approximately 1-2% less). Then, while
644 the DIC increase does not impact the water column below 1200 m in the western basin, DIC still accumulates until 2000
645 m in the eastern basin at a rate of almost $0.5 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$ (Fig. 17). Occasional events of deep transport of DIC can
646 be recognized (e.g. around the years 2035, 2045, 2085 and 2095, similar to what observed in case of oxygen in Fig.9) and

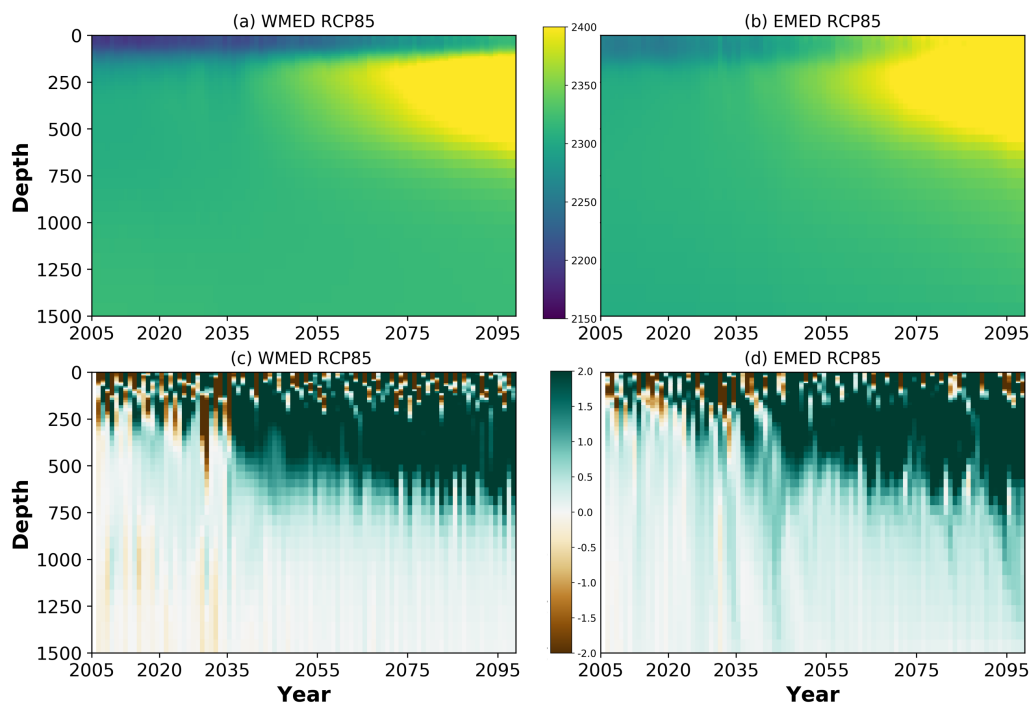


647 the water column results enriched down to 1000-1500 m with a rate of approximately $1 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$. In the surface
648 layer (i.e., first 50-100m), the interannual variability in atmospheric conditions (i.e., specific annual wind and temperature
649 seasonal cycles triggering the CO_2 fluxes) and winter mixing produces an irregular succession of positive and negative
650 annual changes, which can partially hide the long-term effect of the increase in atmospheric pCO_2 . Thus, the cumulative
651 sum of the CO_2 absorbed through air-sea exchanges and of the carbon accumulated in the water column (Fig. 16, c,f panel)
652 highlight the different behaviour of the two main subbasins. The western basin absorbs much more atmospheric CO_2 than
653 the eastern basin, with even larger differences in the RCP8.5 scenario. By the end of the RCP8.5 scenario, we observe
654 1.8 PgC of atmospheric CO_2 sink in the western subbasin while only 1 PgC in the eastern subbasin, consistent with what
655 the estimates discussed in Solidoro et al. (2021).

656

657 However, the fate of the absorbed carbon is quite different: the western basin accumulates only 0.85 PgC by the end of
658 RCP8.5, while 1.7 PgC are retained in the water column of the eastern basin. As shown in Figure 17 (lower panel) for the
659 RCP8.5 scenario, the eastern basin accumulates almost 2 moles of carbon for each atmospheric CO_2 mole absorbed (up
660 to 3 in the RCP4.5), while it is less than 0.5 for the western basin. The different efficiency is eventually triggered by the
661 thermohaline circulation change: the western Mediterranean carbon is partly exported to the northern Atlantic Ocean,
662 while an increased quota of carbon input from rivers and across the Sicily channel are retained in the eastern basin together
663 with the atmospheric CO_2 sink after the weakening of the thermohaline circulation (Fig.4). The RCP4.5 scenario shows
664 similar dynamics to RCP8.5, with rates of CO_2 absorption (Fig. 17) and of DIC accumulation almost halved, and the
665 impact of the interannual variability on surface layer dynamics much more amplified (not shown). As a result, the total
666 sequestered atmospheric CO_2 equals to 0.8 and 0.25 PgC in the western and eastern basins, while the increases of the
667 carbon pool are 0.5 PgC and 0.9 PgC, respectively.

668



669

670 **Fig. 17 - Hovmoeller diagram of DIC (umol kg^{-1} , panel a,b) and annual rate of change of DIC ($\text{umol kg}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$, panel c,d) in**
671 **the western (a,c) and eastern (b,d) Mediterranean Sea in RCP8.5 scenario.**

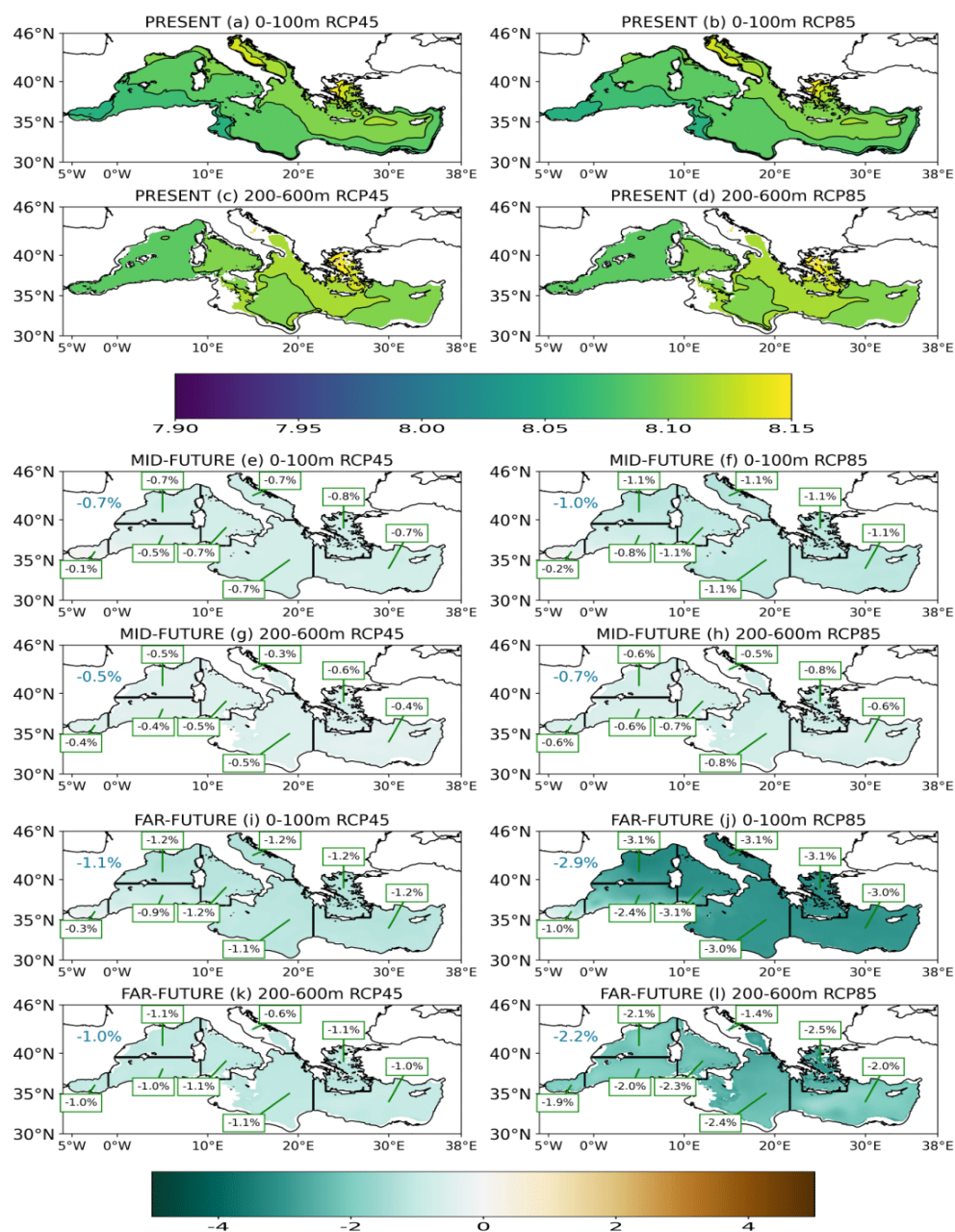
672

673 Consequently, to the CO_2 invasion and DIC increase, the change in the carbonic acid equilibrium causes a generalized
674 decrease in pH, as also shown in Solidoro et al. (2021) in the case of the A2 scenario. The change in pH, which is very
675 well correlated in time and space with the DIC change, is approximately 0.25 units by the end of the RCP8.5 scenario
676 (Fig. 18), but some differences are visible among subbasins. Larger decreases in pH are projected in the upper layer of
677 the Tyrrhenian Sea, Adriatic Sea and Aegean Sea and in the 200-600 m layers of the Tyrrhenian Sea, Ionian Sea and
678 Aegean Sea in the FAR-FUTURE (Fig. 18). RCP4.5, which follows RCP8.5 evolution until the MID-FUTURE period,
679 presents a decrease in pH that does not exceed 1.1-1.2% in both the upper and 200-600 m layers by the end of the century.

680



pH



681
 682 Fig. 18 – pH in first 0-100m and 200-600m in the present period (2005-2020, a,b, c,d), MID future (e,f,g,h) and FAR-FUTURE
 683 (i, j,k,l) variations in the RCP4.5 scenario (left column) and RCP8.5 (right column). The value located over the Iberian
 684 Peninsula is the average variation on basin scale in blue/dark orange if it is negative/positive.
 685



686

687 **4. Discussions and conclusions**

688

689 In this study we use the coupled physical-biogeochemical model MFS16-OGSTM-BFM to simulate the biogeochemical
690 dynamics of the Mediterranean Sea during the 21st century under the two emission scenarios RCP8.5 and RCP4.5, and
691 to assess some climate-related impacts on the marine ecosystems of the basin.

692

693 To the best of the authors' knowledge this work is the first to focus on the Mediterranean Sea based on the projection of
694 the biogeochemical tracers dynamics under two different emission scenarios and with horizontal and vertical resolutions
695 (1/16° and 70 vertical levels) that are higher than those of previous works available in the scientific literature that focuses
696 on the area (e.g Lazzari et al., 2014; Macias et al., 2015; Richon et al., 2019; Pagès et al., 2020; Solidoro et al., 2021).
697 The use of eddy resolving higher horizontal and vertical resolutions allows a more detailed representation of the vertical
698 mixing and ocean convection processes, which play a fundamental role in the ventilation of the water column and in the
699 nutrient supply into the euphotic layer of the basin (Kwiatkowski et al., 2020). Moreover, the higher resolution represents
700 an advantage for the future assessment of climate change impacts on specific organisms, habitats or target areas.

701

702 The analysis of the thermohaline properties and circulation of the Mediterranean Sea under emission scenarios RCP4.5
703 and RCP8.5 showed an overall warming of the water column and a weakening of the thermohaline circulation cell, with
704 different parts of the basin being characterized by contrasting saltening and freshening conditions as a function of the
705 considered scenarios. Moreover, we observe an overall weakening of the open ocean convection in the most important
706 convective areas of the basin, with the only exception of the Aegean Sea, where episodes of deep convection similar to
707 the EMT could be observed at the end of the 21st century (see also Adloff et al., 2015). All the projected changes are in
708 agreement with those already depicted in recent model studies (e.g. Somot et al., 2006; Adloff et al., 2015; Waldman et
709 al., 2018; Soto-Navarro et al., 2020).

710

711 A comparison of the model outputs with available data in the present climate, together with previous studies performed
712 with the same model system, support the conclusion that the coupled model MFS16-OGSTM-BFM has reasonably good
713 ability in reproducing the main biogeochemical features of the Mediterranean Sea and can be used as a tool for assessing
714 the future biogeochemical dynamics of the basin and its changes in response to climate change. The use of bias-removing
715 protocol, often advocate as a good practice in climate studies, but rarely implemented in biogeochemical or ecosystem
716 projections (Solidoro et al., 2021), add further robustness to our results.

717

718 Our projections for the biogeochemical tracers and processes at the end of the 21st century shows several signals that are
719 in agreement with previous studies. The decrease in dissolved nutrients in the euphotic layer of the basin and in the
720 intermediate layer of the central part of the Mediterranean Sea, the increases in the net primary production and respiration,
721 the decline of the stocks of particulate carbon biomass (including phytoplankton, zooplankton, bacterial biomass and
722 particulate organic matter), the uniform surface and subsurface deoxygenation of the water column simulated in the
723 RCP8.5 scenario, are globally in agreement with the conclusions of previous regional and global case studies (e.g
724 Hermann et al., 2014; Lazzari et al., 2014; Macias et al., 2015; Moullec et al., 2019; Richon et al., 2019; Pagès et al.,



725 2020; Kwiatkowski et al., 2020; Solidoro et al., 2021). We also observe an increase in the dissolved inorganic carbon
726 content and acidity of the water column (Solidoro et al., 2021). The magnitude of the observed changes has been shown
727 to be scenario-dependent with the largest deviations from the present climate state observed in the RCP8.5 (worst-case)
728 scenario.

729

730 The decline in many biogeochemical tracers in the euphotic layer begins in the 2030-2035 period, in correspondence to
731 the weakening of the thermohaline circulation in the basin (Fig. 4), and it is particularly marked in the eastern basin. This
732 shows that the modification of the circulation resulting from future climate scenarios has substantial effects on the
733 biogeochemical properties of the basin. Changes in the thermohaline circulation of the basin also explain the increase in
734 the nutrient concentration in the intermediate layer of the Levantine basin, which is a result of the weakening of the
735 westward transport of nutrients through the Strait of Sicily (Fig.S5). Nevertheless, the increase in the concentration of
736 nutrients in the intermediate layers of both the western and Levantine basins can be also traced back to the reduced vertical
737 mixing resulting from the increase in the vertical stratification (Somot et al., 2006; Adloff et al., 2015; Richon et al.,
738 2019). The decline in the dissolved nutrients at the surface is comparable with that observed in Richon et al. (2019), the
739 latter also projecting an overall increase in the concentration of both nutrients at the surface after 2050, which is ascribed
740 by the authors to river and Gibraltar inputs that are not constant over time (as in our case) but are based on a global climate
741 scenario simulation. As highlighted by Richon et al. (2019), the sensitivity of the biogeochemical fluxes at the river loads
742 and Gibraltar exchanges is of paramount importance, and surely worthy of further investigation.

743

744 As already discussed in the introduction, many recent studies in the Mediterranean region have shown a different response
745 of integrated net primary production to climate change. In fact, this response may vary according to the sensitivity of the
746 assumptions (model equations) for primary production and recycling processes to changes in temperature (Moullec et al.,
747 2019). Our projections of primary productivity and biomass dynamics show how the warming of the water column and
748 consequent stratification have a direct impact on the ecosystem functioning by increasing the metabolic rates. Similar to
749 the results obtained in Lazzari et al. (2014) and Solidoro et al. (2021), the increase in metabolic rates augments both
750 primary productivity and respiration, but with the net effect of reducing living and nonliving particulate organic matter,
751 as suggested from theoretical considerations in O'Connor et al. (2011). The decoupled formulation of carbon uptake and
752 net growth in the BFM model induces a further mechanism related to how carbon is channelled in the food web. In fact,
753 the decrease in biomass is partially compensated by an increase in dissolved organic matter production in the basin by
754 the end of the century (Solidoro et al., 2021; results not shown here).

755

756 Surface and intermediate layer deoxygenation, which are driven by the projected warming and by the increase in the
757 respiration and reduced oxygen inflow in the Gibraltar Strait, is rather uniform throughout the basin (approximately -15
758 mmol m⁻³ in the worst scenario at the end of 21st century), showing that in this case, the climate forcing acts almost
759 uniformly over the Mediterranean Sea. Our basin-wide deoxygenation is comparable to trends observed on the global
760 scale CMIP6 simulations (Kwiatkowski et al., 2020) and on the Mediterranean scale by Powley et al. (2018). The latter,
761 using a box model, found a decrease in the oxygen content of the intermediate layer in the range of 2-9% as a consequence
762 of different projected changes in the solubility (due to the temperature increase) and in the thermohaline circulation of
763 the basin. Furthermore, our results show that deoxygenation is higher in the eastern than the western basin, where the
764 Atlantic boundary condition might have dumped the deoxygenation trend, and in several coastal areas such as the
765 Northern Adriatic (until -25 mmol m⁻³). As also observed by Powley et al. (2018), the main driver of deoxygenation is



766 the change in solubility, whereas changes in the circulation (i.e., weakening of the thermohaline circulation) should not
767 substantially affect deep ventilation, and it is unlikely to reach hypoxia conditions in the deep layer of the basin by the
768 end of the century. On the other hand, the greatest threat considering the oxygen water content might be linked to local
769 conditions of surface warming (such as in coastal areas).

770

771 This difference in the response to climate change between the western and eastern basins has been also observed for the
772 dissolved inorganic carbon accumulation and indeed reflects the influence of the exchanges in the Gibraltar Strait. Results
773 show that the western basin, while adsorbing greater quantities, accumulates only a half of the atmospheric carbon stored
774 by the eastern basin (1.85 PgC) because in the former the carbon is partly exported to the northern Atlantic Ocean, while
775 in the latter, it is also affected by a more intense reduction of the thermohaline circulation and therefore in the vertical
776 transport processes, the carbon is retained together with the atmospheric CO₂ sink. The overall accumulation of the CO₂
777 in the basin resulted in an acidification of the Mediterranean water with a decrease of pH of approximately 0.25 units,
778 which is slightly lower than the value (0.3) projected on a global scale (Kwiatkowski et al., 2020). Additionally, in our
779 case, the use of a high resolution for the biogeochemical projections has shown that in many coastal areas the observed
780 acidification is lower by approximately 8% with respect to the open ocean due to damping effects of alkalinity input from
781 the rivers (not shown here).

782

783 Similar to all previous modelling cited studies (e.g. Lazzari et al., 2014; Macias et al., 2018; Richon et al., 2019; Pagès et
784 al., 2020), some sources of uncertainties for our projections need to be considered. As discussed before, MFS16
785 adequately reproduces the distribution of key physical properties and the thermohaline circulation of the basin. On the
786 other hand, recent studies based on multi-model ensembles (Adloff et al., 2015; Richon et al., 2019; Soto-Navarro et al.,
787 2020) have suggested that atmospheric forcing and boundary conditions can strongly affect the dynamics of the basin,
788 particularly the vertical mixing, which plays a primary role in the distribution of nutrients in the euphotic layer, therefore
789 affecting the dynamics of low trophic levels. Additional sources of uncertainties in the modelling framework can be traced
790 to the BFM biogeochemical model. For instance, in the present climate the model clearly overestimates the chlorophyll-
791 a at the surface and, even more, the oxygen concentration below 200 m. These overestimations can be propagated by the
792 integration into the future projections.

793

794 Furthermore, the set-up of the boundary conditions, namely the atmospheric deposition at the surface, the rivers nutrient
795 loads and the vertical profiles in the Atlantic boundary can be very critical, especially in the land-locked Mediterranean
796 basin. In fact, in both RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 simulations we used present-day phosphate and nitrogen deposition, but
797 potential improvements could be achieved by the inclusion of more accurate deposition information derived from CMIP6
798 global estimates for the 21st century (O'Neill et al., 2016). Moreover, the biogeochemical dynamics of the Mediterranean
799 Sea is influenced by aerosol deposition (e.g. Richon et al., 2018, 2019), and thus, possible future changes in the deposition
800 of aerosols could influence the biogeochemistry of the basin and the nutrients concentration at the surface projected for
801 the 21st century and depicted in Section 3.3.

802

803 Similarly, the lack of river nutrient load projections under the prescribed emission scenarios can affect the projected
804 nutrient budget of the Mediterranean basin. We used a climatology derived from the Perseus project (see Section 2.3),
805 which is, to our knowledge, the most reliable information. Indeed, it is reasonable to assume that land-use and runoff
806 changes might impact future nutrient loads, although the magnitude and even the sign are presently unknown. Our river



807 runoff was based on projections (Gualdi et al., 2013; Section 2.1) which estimated an average decrease by the end of the
808 21st century. Thus, the increase of nutrients observed in Fig. 9 and Fig. 10 in the Northern Adriatic and several coastal
809 areas of the western basin can be partially related to the mismatch between a constant nutrient load and a decreasing
810 runoff. However, it might worth to remember that the amount of nutrients entering the basin through its boundaries
811 ultimately depends on the economic policies and land used/coverage scenarios and therefore they may be intrinsically
812 subjective.

813

814 With DIC as the only exception, for the 21st century, we used a single vertical profile based on the present-day condition
815 data and no future evolutions are considered for the boundary conditions at the Gibraltar Strait. If this approach allows to
816 point out the effects of the changes in the basin circulation on the nutrient budgets, it could miss the influence on nutrients
817 or other biogeochemical properties of a possible different future evolution of the exchanges in the Gibraltar Strait due to
818 changes in the tracer concentrations in the Atlantic Ocean. Recent physical simulations have shown an increase of 3.7%
819 in the surface flow at the Gibraltar Strait, which could imply an increase in the inflow of nutrients in the surface layer at
820 Gibraltar Strait (Richon et al., 2019; Pagès et al., 2020), thereby eventually damping the decrease in the nutrient
821 concentration at the surface projected for the 21st century. As previously observed, this could explain the observed
822 differences among different studies that analysed future projections of the biogeochemistry of the basin.

823

824 To conclude, we demonstrated that the methodology and results here presented, provide a robust picture of the evolution
825 of the Mediterranean Sea biogeochemistry for the 21st century. Clearly, the new generation of Regional Earth System
826 Coupled Models (RESM), with eddy resolving ocean models such the one exploited here, may partially reduce the
827 limitations of using external (and possibly misaligned) sources of information for atmospheric and land input to the ocean.
828 Indeed, by directly resolving the coupling between the Mediterranean Sea, the regional atmospheric domain and the
829 hydrological component, a regional earth system coupled model (e.g., as in Sitz et al., 2017, and Reale et al., 2020a)
830 allows the simulation of the different components of the climate system at the local scale, including aerosol and river
831 loads.

832

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839 “Scenarios for the Mediterranean Sea biogeochemistry in the 21st century” (MED21BIO) and the IscraC DYBIO,
840 EMED18 and MEDCL116.

841

842 **Data availability**

843 Data produced in the numerical experiments are available through the portal dds.cmcc.it

844

845 **Author contribution**



846 GC, PL, SS and CS conceived the study. They designed the experiments together with TL and MR. MR, GB and TL
847 performed the numerical simulations. MR, GC, SS, TL and PL performed the analysis of the simulation results. MR
848 prepared the first draft of the manuscript under the supervision of SS, GC and CS and with the contribution from all the
849 authors. All the authors discussed the results and contributed to the revision of the manuscript.

850

851 **Competing interest**

852 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

853

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