1 A new conceptual framework for assessing the physical state of the 2 Baltic Sea

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7 Abstract.

- 8 AClimate change is placing growing pressure on all parts of the ocean, increasing the need for regular information to support 9 regional assessments and inform policy and decision-making. Understanding not only what is changing and where, but also 10 why, is essential for effective response and meaningful action. To answer this need a new conceptual framework for the 11 assessment of the physical state of the general natural water basin was introduced and then tested for the Baltic Sea. The 12 model approach is based on major process characteristics of the Baltic Sea and includes the analysis of mutual variability of 13 well established climate indicators such as ocean heat content (OHC), freshwater content (FWC), subsurface temperature and 14 salinity, and combined with atmospheric forcing functions along with salt transport across the open boundaries as well as 15 river runoff. The A random forest model was used as the main analyses tool to highlightenable statistical dependencies 16 between state variables and potential forcing factors. Results showreveal a distinct ocean-clear 30-year warming trend in the 17 Baltic Sea over a 30-year period, which covaried at, closely linked on an interannual scale withto 2-meter air temperature at 18 2-meter height, evaporation, and wind stress magnitude. The study highlights that interannual variations in temperature and 19 salinity within the vertically extended halocline are key drivers of changes in OHC and FWC in the Baltic Sea. Interannual changes of FWC were are explained by large volume saline water inflows, net precipitation and zonal wind stress. This 21 framework also offers a new perspective of the potential impact of a shallowing mixed layer depth, resulting from sustained 22 sensible heat flux changes at the air-sea interface, on salt export and the overall reduction of FWC in the Baltic Sea. The 23 study brought up that interannual variations of temperature and salinity within the vertically extended haloeline layer are 24 major contributors to the OHC and FWC changes in the Baltic Sea. This new framework could be applied to other 25 geographical regions or future datasets, providing consistent information for a basin-wide monitoring tool that tracks the 26 state and variability of the sea. Such a tool could be integrated into regional climate and environmental assessments.
- 27 ¶
- 28 **Short Summary.** In the last three decades, the Baltic Sea has experienced an increase in temperature and salinity. This trend 29 aligns with the broader pattern of atmospheric warming. The significant warming and the yearly fluctuations in the ocean's
- 30 heat content in the Baltic Sea are largely explained by subsurface temperature variations in the upper 100-meter layer, which
- 31 includes the seasonal thermocline and the permanent halocline. These fluctuations are influenced by factors such as air

- 32 temperature, evaporation, and the magnitude of wind stress. The changes in the sea's liquid freshwater content are primarily 33 driven by salinity shifts within the halocline layer, which extends vertically from 40 to 120 meters depth. However, salinity 34 changes in the upper layer play a minor role in the yearly variability of the freshwater content. The inflow of saline water, 35 overall precipitation, and zonal wind stress are the principal factors affecting the freshwater content changes in the Baltic 36 Sea.
- 37 ∰

38 1 Introduction

39 Amidst global Human-induced greenhouse gas emissions are warming, increased air Earth's climate, causing ocean 40 temperatures have led to higher ocean water temperatures rise and theice to melt of land-based ice globally (IPCC, 2021). 41 The former increase in ocean water temperatures has eaused induced a rise in Ocean Heat Content (OHC), while the latter and 42 ice melt on land has introduced significant amounts of freshwater into the ocean, contributing to the rise in global sea levels. 43 In 2023, there was an exceptional increase in global average sea surface temperature overreached a record high relative to 44 the 1973–2024 baseline period 1973-2024 (McGrath et al., 2024), and OHC reached unprecedented global ocean heat content 45 climbed to record levels (Cheng et al., 2024). In the Baltic Sea, the temperature trends for the period 1850-2008 show fast 46 warming at the surface ($\sim 0.06 \text{ K decade}^{-1}$) and bottom ($> 0.04 \text{ K decade}^{-1}$), and slow in the intermediate layers (< 0.04 K47 decade⁻¹) (Dutheil et al., 2023). Surface warming has progressively increased over time, primarily due to the sensible heat 48 flux and latent heat flux (Kniebusch et al., 2019a). Trends in Fresh Water Content (FWC) are not as consistent globally as 49 those of OHC (Boyer et al., 2007), although the rise in global sea level is widely acknowledged (Frederikse et al., 2020). 50 Salinity patterns differ across various ocean regions of the world (Skliris et al., 2014), with the North Atlantic-North Pacific 51 salinity contrast increasing by 5.9% ± 0.6% since 1965 (Lu et al., 2024). At a regional scale in the Baltic Sea, FWC has 52 shown a significant downward trend over the last 30 years (Raudsepp et al., 2023). WindsorWinsor et al. (2001) 53 demonstrated that long-term variations in highlighted the cumulative impact of riverine input on the Baltic's freshwater 54 content (FWC) of the Baltic Sea are closely linked to accumulated changes in river runoff. Building on this work, budget, 55 while Rodhe and Winsor (2002) concluded that underscored the recycling importance of Baltic Scaepisodic saltwater inflows 56 in renewing deep water at the junction between the Baltic Sea and the North Sea is a crucial process in determining the sea's 57 salinity. An increase in freshwater supply to the Baltic Sea will intensify the regional water recycling, resulting in 58 lower salinity, and vice versa.

59 The analysis of the physical state of natural water basins typically focuses on the evolution and spatial distribution of 60 temperature and salinity and corresponding uncertainty estimations (Lindestroem et al. 2012), which are essential ocean 61 variables (EOV, Lindestroem et al. 2012). These variables are four dimensional and therefore provide spatially and 62 temporarily resolved description of the state of the water body. Meanwhile, OHC and FWC are vital integral characteristics

63 of the ocean, indicative of a water body's energy and mass, respectively. OHC offers a comprehensive view of oceanic heat 64 storage, crucial for evaluating climate change impacts, energy budgets, and long-term trends (Forster et al., 2024). FWC 65 represents the mass of the freshwater relative to the total mass of a water parcel with a given salinity (see Raudsepp et al., 66 2023). The increase of net precipitation over land and sea areas, decrease of the ice cover and increase of river runoff are the 67 main components of the global hydrological cycle that increase FWC in the ocean (Boyer et al., 2007; Cheng et al., 2020; Yu 68 et al., 2020). While OHC is a well-established indicator in ocean and climate research, its counterpart, ocean FWC, has 69 received less attention.

We propose a new conceptual framework for assessing the physical state of the Baltic Sea by integrating multiple physical and statistical approaches (Fig. 1). The framework is based on two main physical indicators: OHC and FWC. These indicators are used to describe the energy and mass balance of the Baltic Sea. The study identifies the major variables affecting these indicatorsOHC and FWC serve as integrative indicators of the Baltic Sea's physical state, analogous to essential climate indicators (IPCC, 2021; Forster et al., 2025). The OHC and FWC are well-established measures (IPCC, 2021; Forster et al., 2025), which we integrate into a unified assessment framework with additional analysis layers - vertical distribution and statistical inference to assess the Baltic Sea's state and are central to understanding its energy and mass balance. OHC reflects the vertically integrated heat stored in the water column and is primarily influenced by surface heat fluxes, vertical mixing, and subsurface temperature changes (Forster et al., 2025). FWC quantifies the deviation of the water column's salinity from a reference value and serves as a measure of accumulated freshwater (Durack, 2015; Raudsepp et al., 2023). It is affected by net precipitation, river runoff, evaporation, and saltwater intrusions from the North Sea. In this study, these indicators are integrated into a unified assessment framework that includes both their vertical structure and statistical inference layers. The study identifies the importance of these major variables affecting the OHC and FWC, including subsurface temperature, salinity, atmospheric forcing factors, and salt transport.

The framework follows a three-stage process: time-series analysis, depth-based variability analysis and eausalstatistical relationships using machine learning. The initial phase consists of calculating the time series of OHC and FWC for the entire Baltic Sea. This provides insights into long-term trends and interannual variability. In basins covered partially by sea ice, the annual mean ice extent (MIE) is considered an important integral characteristic. The next step examines the horizontally averaged vertical distribution of temperature (for OHC) and salinity (for FWC) to determine which depth ranges contribute the most to their variations. While this does not directly attribute causal links, the vertical profiles of temperature and salinity provide strong indications of which forcing factors might be responsible for changes in OHC and FWC. The final stage integrates forcing functions and ocean state characteristics to identify eausal relationships. A-statistical dependencies between them, using a Random Forest (RF) model to probe potential drivers of variability. A RF model is employed to highlight statistical dependencies between oceanic state variables and external forcing mechanisms. This machine-learning approach enables the identification of general patterns in the temporal evolution of the Baltic Sea's physical state. The main reason we introduced the RF models is to determine, in a data-driven way, the relative importance of different depth layers

96 and forcing factors on the variability of OHC and FWC. The RF approach offers a flexible means to handle non-linear 97 relationships and multiple predictors simultaneously.

98 Our proposed framework integrates the analysis of OHC and FWC by considering both their bulk integral values and their 99 vertical distributions, allowing for the identification of key depth ranges contributing to their variability – which goes beyond 100 other similar frameworks. Unlike the GOOS EOV framework (https://goosocean.org/), which focuses on structured global 101 ocean monitoring without machine learning-based eausalstatistical analysis, our approach explicitly incorporates machine 102 learning to identify potential drivers of variability. Compared to the IPCC Climate and Ocean Monitoring Framework (IPCC 103 AR6 (2021) Ocean Observations Chapter https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg1/), which relies on dynamical climate models 104 for global-scale processes, our framework is designed for regional-scale Baltic Sea analysis, offering a more localized and 105 detailed assessment. Finally, while the NASA Salinity and Heat Budget Analysis (NASA Salinity Budget Project 106 https://podaac.jpl.nasa.gov) is largely empirical and focused on global salinity and heat transport, our approach provides a 107 structured three-stage methodology, incorporating not only empirical analysis but also a cause-and-effect exploration using 108 machine learning. This makes our framework uniquely suited for regional climate monitoring and actionable insights into the 109 physical state of the Baltic Sea.

110 This conceptual framework is designed as an indicator-based approach relevant to policymakers. It enables the monitoring of

111 climate change impacts on the Baltic Sea while maintaining a balance between scientific rigor and practical accessibility. The

112 framework is not meant to serve as a comprehensive dynamical model but rather as a scientifically robust tool for assessing

113 the state of the Baltic Sea and guiding regional management decisions.

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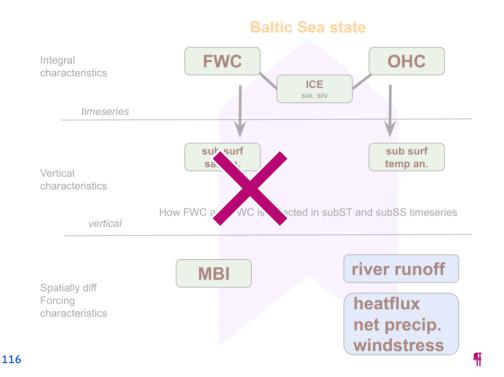


Figure 1: Conceptual Scheme of the Baltic Sea State parameters.

118 The study aims to evaluate a framework for assessing the physical state of the Baltic Sea by integrating annual mean values 119 of OHC, FWC, subsurface temperature and salinity, atmospheric forcing functions, salt transport, and river runoff. The 120 objective is to use a data-driven RF approach as the primary analysis tool to parse out nonlinear relationships and feature 121 importances from a broad dataset. This study introduces an integrative, basin-wide approach, defining the entire Baltic Sea 122 as a single water body for analysis. It computes a time series of total OHC and FWC for the whole sea. Rather than focusing 123 solely on local variations, the methodology emphasizes these integrated indices as representations of the sea's overall state. 124 This holistic integration marks a shift from the segmented or localized analyses of the past.¶

The Baltic Sea is recognized for its spatially pronounced heterogeneous structure. Its various subregions may exhibit distinct temporal variations in key state variables and overall dynamics, making it a complex environment for testing the conceptual framework. The Baltic Sea, a shallow marginal sea in northeastern Europe, is characterized by its hydrographic fields and sea ice conditions (Leppäranta and Myrberg, 2009). Salinity levels are affected by saline water inflows from the North Sea through the Danish straits, riverine freshwater inputs, and net precipitation (Lehmann et al., 2022). Major Baltic Inflows, which introduce saline and oxygen-rich water, are sporadic and unpredictable (Mohrholz, 2018). Temperature fields are influenced by the heat exchange with the atmosphere. The residence time of the Baltic Sea's water is several decades long (Meier et al., 2022). The vertical salinity stratification is defined by the halocline's depth, featuring a well-mixed surface layer and a slightly stratified layer beneath. Water temperature plays a crucial role in forming secondary stratification related

134 to the temperature of the upper mixed layer. Seasonal temperature cycles lead to partial freezing of the Baltic Sea in winter.

135 Changes in sea ice extent over time are a vital indicator of climate change for the area. A reduction in maximum ice extent

136 impacts the sea's vertical stratification and the seasonal trends in ocean heat and freshwater content (Raudsepp et al., 2022;

137 2023). Despite global warming, there has not been a significant increase in the Baltic Sea's relative sea level (Ranasinghe et

138 al., 2021), which instead shows a strong seasonal cycle.

139 This conceptual framework is designed as an indicator-based approach relevant to policymakers. OHC and FWC distill 140 complex, high-dimensional data (many temperature and salinity profiles) into two easy-to-interpret indices of the Baltic 141 Sea's thermal and haline state. This kind of simplification is valuable for decision-makers who require clear, high-level 142 indicators. However, interpretation is also necessary—and this becomes particularly challenging at the regional scale, where 143 a variety of interacting processes, including long-term changes, are at play. The framework not only delivers time series and 144 regular statistical assessments, but also provides a structured path toward meaningful interpretation by focusing directly on 145 the main drivers of change. Understanding not just what is changing and where, but also why it is happening, is essential for 146 taking informed action and gaining a comprehensive view of the system. The framework enables the monitoring of climate 147 change impacts on the Baltic Sea while maintaining a balance between scientific rigor and practical accessibility. It is not 148 meant to serve as a comprehensive dynamical model but rather as a tool for assessing the state of the Baltic Sea and guiding 149 regional management decisions. The framework is grounded in well-established physical quantities and validated by 150 statistical analysis, which ensures that its findings are consistent and credible.

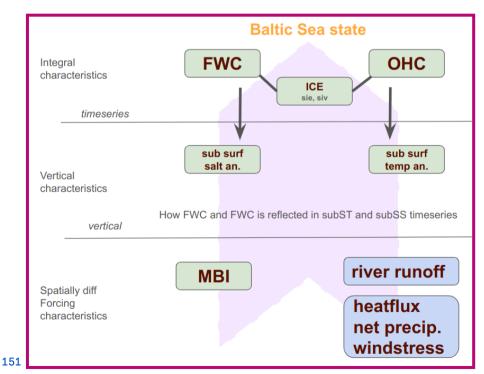


Figure 1: Conceptual Scheme of the Baltic Sea State parameters illustrating the interplay among key indicators: ocean heat content (OHC), freshwater content (FWC), sea ice extent (SIE), sea ice volume (SIV), subsurface temperature (subST), subsurface salinity (subSS), and major Baltic inflows (MBI). Changes in OHC and FWC drive variations in sea ice cover and subsurface conditions, while episodic MBI events inject saline water into deep layers, altering subsurface salinity and temperature. Together, these processes shape the overall state of the Baltic Sea.

157 The study aims to present a framework for assessing the physical state of the Baltic Sea by integrating annual mean values of 158 OHC, FWC, subsurface temperature and salinity, atmospheric forcing functions, salt transport, and river runoff. The 159 objective is to use a data-driven RF approach as the primary analysis tool to parse out nonlinear relationships and feature 160 importances from a broad dataset. This study introduces an integrative, basin-wide approach, defining the entire Baltic Sea 161 as a single water body for analysis. It computes a time series of total OHC and FWC for the whole sea. Unlike previous 162 approaches that focus mainly on local variations, this methodology prioritizes integrated indices that capture the sea's overall 163 state. This holistic perspective represents a fundamental shift away from fragmented, localized analyses toward a 164 comprehensive understanding of ocean dynamics, making the framework uniquely suited to inform large-scale assessments 165 and decision-making.

166 2 Data and methods

167 Table 1: Product Table

Product ref. no.	Product ID & type	Data access	Documentation
1	BALTICSEA_MULTIYEA R_PHY_003_011; Numerical models	EU Copernicus Marine Service Product (2023);	Quality Information Document (QUID): Panteleit et al. (2023); Product User Manual (PUM): Ringgaard et al. (2024)
2	ERA5; Numerical models	Copernicus Climate Change Service (2023)	Product reference: Hersbach et al., 2023 Journal article: Hersbach et al., 2020
3	E-HYPE; Numerical models	SMHI	Donnelly et al., 2016

168 2.1 Oceanographic and atmospheric data

169 The Baltic Sea physics reanalysis multi-year product (BAL-MYP; Table 1 product referenceref. no. 1) is derived from the 170 ocean model NEMO v4.0 (Gurvan et al., 2019). It assimilates satellite observations of sea surface temperature (SST) (EU 171 Copernicus Marine Service Product, 2022) and in-situ temperature and salinity profiles from the ICES database (ICES Bottle 172 and low-resolution CTD dataset, 2022). The model data is provided on a grid with a horizontal resolution of 1 nautical mile,

173 including 56 vertical layers, covering the entire Baltic Sea and the transition zone to the North Sea. The dataset covers the 174 period from 1993 to 2023, with the model setup detailed in the Product User Manual (PUM, Ringgaard et al., 2024).

The BAL-MYP has been extensively validated, as documented in the Quality Information Document (QuIDQUID; Panteleit 176 et al., 2023), focusing on the period from 1st January 1993 to 31st December 2018. Additionally, the BAL-MYP data were evaluated using a clustering method with the K-means algorithm (Raudsepp and Maljutenko, 2022), which provided insights into the reanalysis accuracy by categorising errors (Lindenthal et al., 2023). Fifty-seven percent of the data are clustered with a bias of dS=-0.40 g/kg and dT=-0.02 °C, encompassing 57% of all data points with RMSE S=0.92 g/kg and T=0.54 °C. These points are distributed throughout the Baltic Sea. Clusters with high positive and negative temperature biases account for 11% and 8% of total points, respectively, with marginal salinity biases and relatively even spatial distributions across the Baltic Sea. Twenty-six percent of the points have low temperature but high salinity errors, both negative and positive, predominantly located in the southwestern Baltic Sea, indicating occasional underestimation or overestimation of the inflow/outflow salinity.

185 Given its spatial coverage and validated accuracy, the BAL-MYP reanalysis (Table 1, product ref. no. 1) provides a reliable 186 basis for calculating integrated environmental indicators such as OHC and FWC, which are essential for large-scale climate 187 assessments.OHC offers a comprehensive view of oceanic heat storage, crucial for evaluating climate change impacts, 188 energy budgets, and long-term trends (Forster et al., 2024). OHC directly reflects Earth's energy imbalance, making it a key 189 metric for tracking global warming, unlike basin-averaged temperature, which lacks a direct connection to energy budgets 190 (von Schuckmann et al., 2016, 2023). Consequently, OHC is prioritized in climate models and international assessments 191 (IPCC, 2019) due to its direct relationship with anthropogenic forcing and its predictive value for future climate scenarios. 192 The daily OHC has been computed for each model grid cell from reanalysis (product referenceref. no. 1), following the 193 methodology of Meyssignac et al. (2019)

194 OHC = $\rho * cp * (T +273.15)$ (1),

195 where ρ is the density of seawater calculated following the TEOS10 (IOC et al. 2010), cp is specific heat capacity calculated 196 as a third order polynomial function of salinity and temperature according to Millero et al. (1973), T is daily temperature.

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198 Ocean FWC is deemed more significant than mean salinity for understanding climate dynamics and ocean processes. FWC 199 provides a holistic measure of freshwater storage and its effects on ocean circulation, climate, and sea-level rise (Solomon et 200 al., 2021; Fukumori et al., 2021). It directly measures freshwater inputs (e.g., ice melt, river runoff, rainfall) or losses (e.g., 201 evaporation), whereas mean salinity only indicates the average salt concentration, ignoring volume (Hoffman et al., 2023). A 202 minor salinity change over a large water volume could signify a substantial freshwater flux, which mean salinity alone would 203 not reveal (Schauer and Losch, 2019). The FWC was calculated at each grid point and day as Boyer et al. (2007)

204 FWC = $\rho(\text{Sref, Tref, p}) / \rho(0, \text{Tref, p}) \cdot (\text{Sref - S}) / S$ (2)

205 The three-dimensional temperature (Tref) and salinity (Sref) fields are temporal averages over the period of 1993–2023. A 206 detailed description of the calculation procedure is available in Raudsepp et al. (2023). The OHC and FWC were calculated 207 by spatially integrating the gridded OHC, (1), and FWC, (2), over the Baltic Sea, and then the annual mean OHC and FWC values were calculated from these daily values.

209 The Mixed Layer Depth (MLD), also referred to as the Upper Mixed Layer (UML), was included in the analysis using data 210 from a multi-year reanalysis product (Table 1, Ref.product ref. no. 1). The MLD was calculated based on density 211 stratification following the method of de Boyer Montégut et al. (2004), which defines MLD as the depth at which seawater 212 density deviates from the reference density at 10 m depth by a specified threshold. For the Baltic Sea, this threshold was 213 adjusted to 0.03 kg/m³ to better represent the characteristics of the regional upper mixed layer (Panteleit et al., 2023).

214 Atmospheric data for the RF input (Atm8) were obtained from the ERA5 reanalysis (Table 1-product ref. no. 2) for the 215 period 1993–2023. The parameters (8 in total) included 2-meter air temperature, total precipitation, evaporation, wind stress 216 magnitude, and the x- and y-components of wind stress, along with total cloud cover and surface net solar radiation. The 217 time series for the annual mean values of these atmospheric parameters were computed as horizontal averages across the 218 Baltic Sea region: (8 °E - 33 °E and 52 °N - 68 °N).

219 Additionally, total river runoff to the Baltic Sea (RNF) (product ref. no. 3) and a proxy for saltwater inflows — represented 220 by bottom salinity in the Bornholm Basin (SOB) (product ref. no. 1) — were included as external forcing factors. These 221 variables capture key hydrological and oceanographic influences not fully accounted for by atmospheric drivers alone, and 222 contribute to a more comprehensive assessment of interannual variability in FWC.

223 Horizontally average temperature and salinity profiles calculated from the BAL-MYP (product ref. no. 1) at 42 different 224 depth layers (shown on Fig. 3) and Baltic Sea domain (13 °E - 31 °E and 53 °N - 66 °N; excluding the Skagerrak strait) were 225 used as predictors in two of the RF models. The rationale for using the full vertical profiles is to allow the model to identify 226 which depth layers most strongly influence the total OHC or FWC. Instead of assuming a priori which depths matter, the RF 227 can learn this from data: if variations at a particular depth are consistently associated with changes in total OHC/FWC, the 228 model's feature importance for that depth will be high.

229 2.2 Random Forest

230 Random Forest (RF) is an ensemble learning method predominantly used for classification and regression tasks (Breiman, 231 2001). It functions by building multiple decision trees during the training phase and outputs the class that is the mode of the 232 classes (classification) or the mean prediction (regression) of the individual trees. This method enhances accuracy and helps 233 prevent overfitting, thus making it resilient to noise in the dataset. RF proves to be highly effective in analyzing complex 234 interactions between variables, such as the relationships between marine state variables and atmospheric parameters. Its

235 effectiveness is due to its capability to manage high-dimensional data and its resistance to outliers and noise, which are 236 prevalent in environmental datasets. Additionally, RF is adept at detecting nonlinear relationships between predictor 237 variables (atmospheric parameters) and response variables (marine state variables), which linear models often overlook.

238 In the context of an RF model, feature importance is a technique that identifies the most influential input features (variables) 239 in predicting the output variable. The importance of each feature is determined by the decrease in model accuracy when the 240 data for that feature is permuted, while all other features remain unchanged. If permuting a feature's values significantly 241 increases the model's error, that feature is deemed crucial for the model's predictions. This approach aids in discerning the 242 contribution of each feature to the model's decision-making process and in identifying key atmospheric parameters that 243 significantly impact marine state variables. A positive value for a feature implies that permuting that predictor variable's 244 values raises the model's prediction error, indicating the variable's importance for the model's predictive accuracy. A higher 245 positive value suggests greater reliance on that variable by the model.

246 In this study we have trained the four different RF models to fit the OHC and FWC annual average timeseries from annual 247 average predictor variables with the hyperparameter configurations shown in Table 2. Two models are trained to predict the 248 OHC and FWC values from the set of the meteorological variables (*var* suffix) and two from the horizontally averaged 249 temperature and salinity profiles (*zax* suffix). atmospheric variables (VAR arguments). The OHC model uses only 250 atmospheric input variables, whereas the FWC model includes, in addition to atmospheric variables, two external predictors: 251 total river runoff to the Baltic Sea and bottom salinity in the Bornholm Basin. In addition, two more models are trained to 252 predict OHC and FWC using horizontally averaged temperature and salinity profiles (Z argument). To study variability 253 independent of long-term trends, all input variables and target time series used in the VAR models were linearly detrended 254 prior to training. This ensures the models capture interannual to decadal fluctuations rather than long-term changes.

To optimize the performance of the RF models while ensuring robustness and generalizability, a set of hyperparameters was selected based on best practices outlined by Probst et al. (2019), along with and based on sensitivity analysis conducted for the number and depth of the trees (Fig A2). The minimum leaf size (MinLS) was set to 1, allowing the trees to fully grow and capture complex data patterns. The number of predictors to sample at each split (Pred2Samp) was dynamically determined as one-third of the total number of predictors, tackling a balance between feature randomness and predictive strength. This approach promotes diversity among trees while preventing excessive correlation. The number of trees (NumTrees) in each RF model was set to 100, providing sufficient ensemble stability while maintaining computational efficiency. (Appendix 2). Since this study employs RF models to investigate nonlinear relationships between predictors and state variables, we use the entire dataset (all available data) as the training set to maximize the models' ability to learn patterns. To further enhance predictive reliability, assess uncertainty, and evaluate the stability of both predictions and feature importances, an ensemble of 150 independently trained RF models was constructed.

We employed MATLAB's TreeBagger function to assess the feature importance of atmospheric predictors on marine state variables. The 'OOBPermutedPredictorDeltaError' method, a robust metric from MATLAB's TreeBagger, quantifies each predictor's importance via the out-of-bag (OOB) prediction error. This involves permuting each variable's values across OOB observations for each tree. The resulting change in prediction error from these permutations is calculated for each tree. These measures are averaged across all trees and normalised by the standard deviation of the changes, providing a standardised score that highlights the variables with the most significant impact on predictive accuracy. Averaging the feature importance scores across all 150-models in ensembles minimises the noise and variability from any single model's training, offering a more consistent and dependable indication of each atmospheric parameter's contribution to predicting marine state variables. A larger importance value means that permuting (randomizing) that predictor greatly degrades model accuracy, indicating the predictor was influential. Conversely, near-zero or negative importance means that randomizing the predictor had little effect or even slightly improved the model's error, suggesting the predictor is not informative (or that its influence is redundant or noisy).

278 **Table 2.** Hyperparameter configurations for different Random forest models

Table 2. Hyperparameter configurations and validation for different Random forest models. All models use the same Random Forest configuration: number of trees set to 100 and forest ensemble size to 150. The variable number of predictors to sample at each split (Pred2Samp) is set $\frac{2}{3}$ of the number of input parameters. The minimum leaf size is fixed at 1. 282 Asterisks (*) indicate RF models applied to variability using detrended VARiables. Models performance is shown by means of pearson correlation coefficient (CC) and root mean square difference (RMSD).

Model	NumTrees Predictors	MinLSPred2S amp	Pred2Sam pCC	EnsRMSD
RF_OHCzaxOHC (Z)	100 Tprof_42 ¹	1 14	14 0.986	150 0.0016
RF_OHCvarFWC (Z)	100 Sprof_42 ¹	+ 14	3 0.973	150 0.004
RF_ FWCzax OHC (VAR)*	100ATM_8 ²	± 3	14 0.9012	150 0.3432
RF_ FWCvar FW C(VAR)*	100ATM_8 ² +RNF ³ +SOB ⁴	1 4	4 0.8994	150 0.3624

²⁸⁴

- 286 ¹Tprof_42, Sprof_42: Horizontally averaged annual mean temperature and salinity profiles at 42 depth levels (Fig 3).
- 287 ²ATM_8: Horizontally averaged annual mean values of eight atmospheric variables.
- 288 ³RNF: Total annual river runoff into the Baltic Sea.
- 289 ⁴SOB: Annual mean bottom salinity in the Bornholm Basin.

^{285 ¶}

290 3 Results

291 Both OHC and FWC display a statistically significant linear trend, as shown in Figure 2. Using a z-score time series allows 292 for the comparison of trends per year (trend*) and data distributions without the influence of their units. OHC shows an 293 increasing trend* of 0.089±0.025, while FWC exhibits a decreasing trend* of -0.092±0.023, both comparable in magnitude 294 (Table 3). The corresponding absolute values are 0.34±0.095 W/m² for OHC and -36.99±9.20 km³/year for FWC (Table 3). 295 Between 1993 and 2003, OHC and FWC varied similarly, both rising and falling concurrently (blue dots in Fig. 2). After this 296 period, their patterns diverged (yellow and red dots in Fig. 2). Interannual variations of the annual mean sea ice extent and 297 OHC are strongly correlated but in opposite phases (not shown). Among the forcing functions, the 2-meter air temperature 298 shows a distinct positive trend (Fig. 2), albeit weaker than the trends of OHC and FWC (Table 3). The air temperature over 299 the Baltic Sea area has risen with trend* of 0.074±0.031 (Table 3). Surface net solar radiation has a weaker but still 300 significant positive trend* of 0.058±0.035, and the evaporation time series shows a negative trend* of -0.041±0.039 (Fig. 2, 301 Table 3). Other atmospheric variables did not exhibit statistically significant trends (Fig. 2). Correlation coefficients among 302 various atmospheric datasets were generally low (Table 4). The two highest correlation coefficients, 0.76 and 0.73, are 303 between wind stress magnitude and its zonal component, indicating a predominance of westerly airflow over the Baltic Sea, 304 and between 2-meter air temperature and surface net solar radiation, respectively. The low correlations suggest a weak 305 statistical relationship between the annual mean atmospheric parameters, supporting the inclusion of all forcing functions in 306 the RF model.

307 **Table 3.** Linear annual trend values of z-scored time series (trend*), standard deviation (STD), linear trend of physical value 308 (Unit/year, except for OHC) and mean value (mean) of original time series. *OHC*: ocean heat content, *FWC*: fresh water 309 content, *T2*: 2 metre temperature, *TP*: total precipitation, *EVAP*: evaporation, *Wstr*: windstress, *WUstr*: windstress u 310 component, *WVstr*: windstress v component, *TCC*: total cloud cover, *SSR*: surface net solar radiation, *RNF*: river runoff.

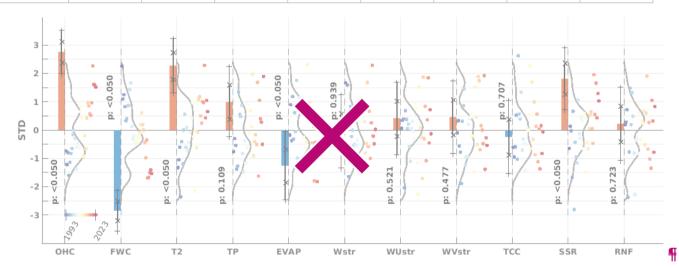
Variable:	ОНС	FWC	T2	TP	EVAP	Wstr	WUstr	WVstr	TCC	SSR	RNF
Unit	MJ/m^2	km³	°C	m/y	m/y	N/m²	N/m²	N/m²	1	W/m²	m³/s
trend*:	$\begin{array}{ccc} 0.089 & \pm \\ 0.025 & \end{array}$	-0.092 ± 0.023	$\begin{array}{ccc} 0.074 & \pm \\ 0.031 & \end{array}$	0.032 ± 0.04	-0.041 ± 0.039	-0.0016 ± 0.0418	0.013 ± 0.041	0.015 ± 0.041	-0.0077 ± 0.0417	0.058 ± 0.035	0.0073 ± 0.0417
STD:	122.02	402.00	0.73	0.071	0.041	0.0056	0.0100	0.0072	0.0226	3.16	1,687.92
trend:	0.344 (W/m²)	-36.987	0.054	0.0023	-0.0016	-8.85 ×10 ⁻⁶	1.32 ×10 ⁻⁴	1.05 ×10 ⁻⁴	-1.75 ×10 ⁻⁴	0.18	12.31
mean:	60.20	-63.73	7.65	0.73	-0.55	0.0999	0.0244	0.0138	0.6493	113.92	17,807.77

311 ¶

312 **Table 4.** Correlations coefficients (lower triangle) and StandardErrors (Gnambs, 2023) (upper triangle) of atmospheric 313 parameters. Correlation coefficients which pass two-tailed t-test at 95% confidence are in bold. *OHC*: ocean heat content,

FWC: fresh water content, *T2*: 2 metre temperature, *TP*: total precipitation, *EVAP*: evaporation, *Wstr*: wind stress magnitude, 315 *WUstr*: wind stress u component, *WVstr*: wind stress v component, *TCC*: total cloud cover, *SSR*: surface net solar radiation.

	T2	TP	EVAP	Wstr	WUstr	WVstr	TCC	SSR
T2		0.19	0.17	0.17	0.15	0.14	0.15	0.09
TP	0.12		0.18	0.17	0.18	0.18	0.13	0.17
EVAP	-0.28	-0.18		0.19	0.18	0.16	0.19	0.15
Wstr	0.31	0.35	-0.10		0.08	0.15	0.18	0.19
WUstr	0.47	0.25	0.16	0.76		0.15	0.16	0.18
WVstr	0.48	0.16	0.37	0.43	0.43		0.19	0.19
TCC	-0.43	0.58	-0.04	-0.20	-0.42	-0.13		0.09
SSR	0.73	-0.31	-0.43	0.07	0.18	0.11	-0.73	



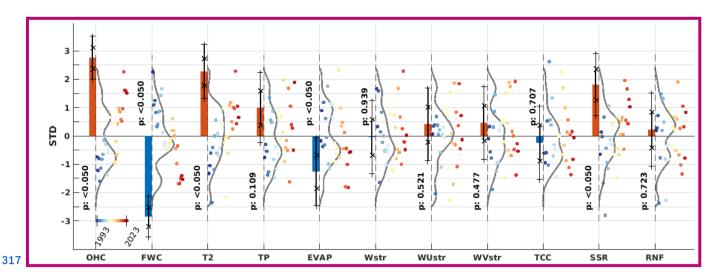


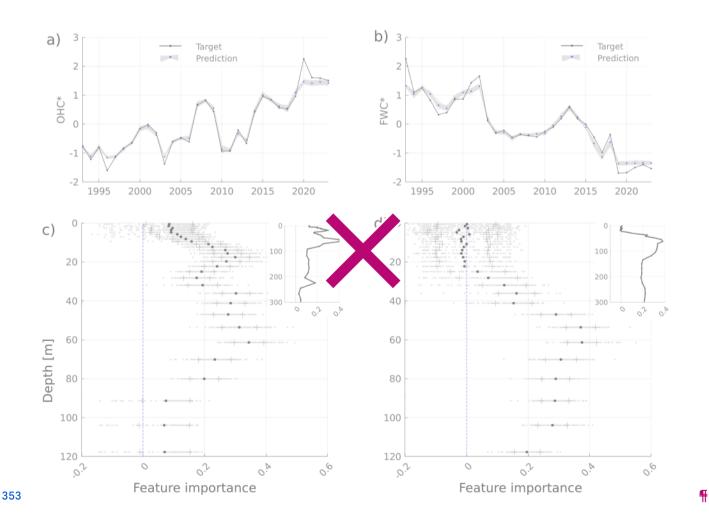
Figure 2: Trend analysis and probability distribution functions (PDFs) of the annual time series of standardized (*z-scores) Baltic Sea state and meteorological parameters. To the left of the dashed line, the period-normalized annual trend values (multiplied by the period length in years i.e. 30) are displayed as red (positive) and blue (negative) bars with corresponding p-values (95% confidence level), along with whiskers representing ±1 standard error (x ticks) and the 95% uncertainty range (+ ticks). On the right side from the dashed line, probability density functions (PDFs) are shown as the solid lines for the standardized time series, which are represented by colored dots. The color of the dots represents the year on a common color scale shown at the OHC variable.

For each dashed axis following variable stands *OHC*: ocean heat content, *FWC*: fresh water content, *T2*: 2 metre temperature, *TP*: total precipitation, *EVAP*: evaporation, *Wstr*: windstress, *WU/WVstr**,: windstress u and v component, *TCC*: total cloud cover, *SSR*: surface net solar radiation, *RNF*: river runoff.

328 In analyzing OHC variations, we use a RF_OHC(Z) model. (Table 2). This model employs horizontally averaged annual 329 temperature values at each depth level, derived from the depth levels of a multi-year product (Table 1- product ref. no. 1), as 330 input features. The RF model finely replicates the annual OHC time series (Fig 3a), with high correlation coefficient (0.986) 331 and a RMSD of the standardized time series at 0.0016. However, it did not capture the extreme OHC event in 2020 or the 332 low OHC extreme in 1996 (Fig. 3). Feature importance is significant within a depth range of 10-80 meters (Fig. 3b), with 333 two peaks at depths of 18 and 60 meters, aligning with the average depths of the seasonal thermocline and the permanent 334 halocline, respectively. This suggests that interannual OHC variations are mainly influenced by temperature changes within 335 these layers. Subsurface temperatures from 1993 to 2023 indicate warming trends of approximately 0.06 °C/year across all 336 depths (CMS 2024a). From 1993 to 1997, deep water temperatures remained relatively low (below 6 °C). Since 1998, deeper 337 waters have warmed, with temperatures above 7 °C occupying the layer below 100 meters since 2019. The water 338 temperature below the halocline has risen by about 2 °C since 1993, and the cold intermediate layer's temperature has also 339 increased during the 1993-2023 period.

340 A similar method is employed to elucidate the inter-annual fluctuations of FWC; using RF_FWC(Z) (Table 2), utilizing 341 horizontally averaged salinity at each depth level. The model's precision is slightly lower (Correlation: 0.973, RMSD of

342 standardized time series: 0.004) compared to that for OHC. The model consistently underperforms in predicting the FWC 343 peaks, encompassing both the lows and highs (Fig. 3c). The most notable features cover the depth range of 40-120 meters 344 (Fig. 3d), coinciding with a halocline layer and its vertical extensions to both shallower and deeper depth. The salinity levels 345 at the bottom layer are of secondary importance to the inter-annual variations of FWC in the Baltic Sea. The salinity in the 346 top 25-meter stratum exerts a minimal influence on FWC changes. The interannual variability of salinity in the upper stratum 347 is minor relative to the deeper stratum. The salinity gradient ascends steadily from zero at a depth of 25 meters to 0.04 g/kg 348 annually at 70 meters (CMS 2024b). The most marked trend, 0.045 g/kg per annum, occurs within the expanded halocline 349 layer extending from 70 to 150 meters. Notably, there is a slight dip in the salinity trend to 0.04 g/kg per annum between the 350 depths of 150 and 220 meters. While this reduction is slight, it indicates that salt influx into the expanded halocline layer is 351 more significant than into the deeper strata. A salinity trend of 0.05 g/kg annually is detected in the deepest stratum of the 352 Baltic Sea.



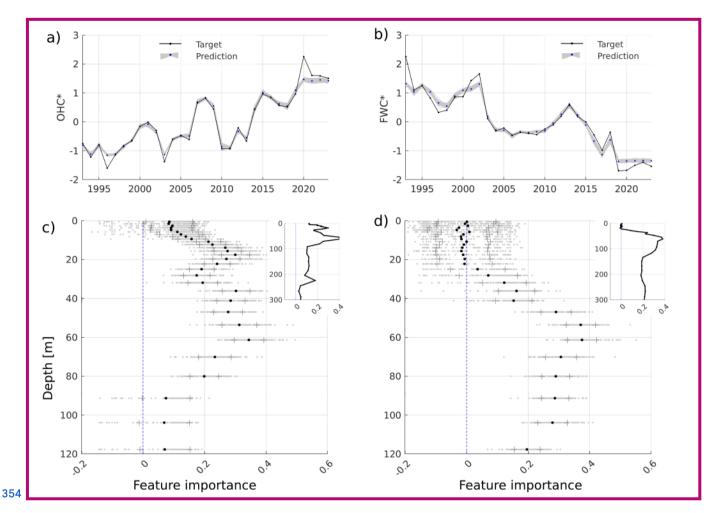


Figure 3: OHC* and FWC* ensemble predictions (ens. mean as blue dots) using the horizontal average salinity and temperature profiles (a), (b). The prediction features importance, with ensemble spread (1 STD shown with "+" marker), for each depth in the upper 120 m layer shown on c) and d) and for full depth range in the upper-right inset panels. All variables are z-scored.

359 Building a RF model targeting OHC and FWC timeseries with atmospheric forcing functions reveals the 2-meter air 360 temperature as the most significant contributor (Appendix 1). This correlation is physically plausible for OHC but less so for 361 FWC. The 2-meter air temperature affects the air-sea heat exchange via the sensible heat flux component. To further explore 362 the declining FWC trend, we examined interannual changes in the annual average upper mixed layer depth (MLD). In the 363 Baltic Sea, MLD varies widely across different areas and seasons. A shallowing of MLD is observed in the Baltic Proper and 364 to some extent in the Bothnian Sea, while a MLD deepening is noted in the Bothnian Bay, the Gulf of Finland, and the Gulf 365 of Riga. Typically, the Baltic Sea's stratification is influenced by salinity, although a seasonal thermocline forms across the 366 sea. In the northern and eastern basins, the dispersal of river water during spring and summer leads to the development of the

367 seasonal pycnocline. Conversely, in the southern Baltic Sea, the spread of river water is mostly restricted to the coastal areas, 368 so the mixed layer is less affected by the seasonal halocline.

We performed test experiments with the RF model, incorporating the upper mixed layer (UML) as an additional feature. We determined the annual mean UML depth across the Baltic Sea and specifically for the Eastern Gotland Basin. The decline in the UML depth was more significant in the Eastern Gotland Basin compared to the entire Baltic Sea. The UML depth in the Eastern Gotland Basin decreased from 30 meters in 1993 to 22 meters in 2023. The MLD feature became more significant than the 2-meter temperature in explaining the FWC when we considered the UML depth in the Eastern Gotland Basin. However, the results were contentious when we applied the average UML depth for the entire Baltic Sea. An increase in the 2-meter temperature may cause a shallower mixed layer, potentially reducing the mixing between the surface freshwater layer and the denser saline layer beneath.

377 By eliminating trends, we utilized RF models to identify the primary characteristics of the interannual fluctuations of OHC 378 and FWC. The ensemble mean forecast of RF_OHC(VAR)* (Table 2) effectively captures these interannual changes (Fig. 379 4a), evidenced by a correlation coefficient of 0.9012 and a RMSD of 0.3432. Factors such as 2-meter temperature, wind 380 stress, and evaporation significantly influence the interannual variability of OHC (Fig. 4c). Additionally, total cloud cover 381 and solar radiation have a minor impact on the shape of OHC.

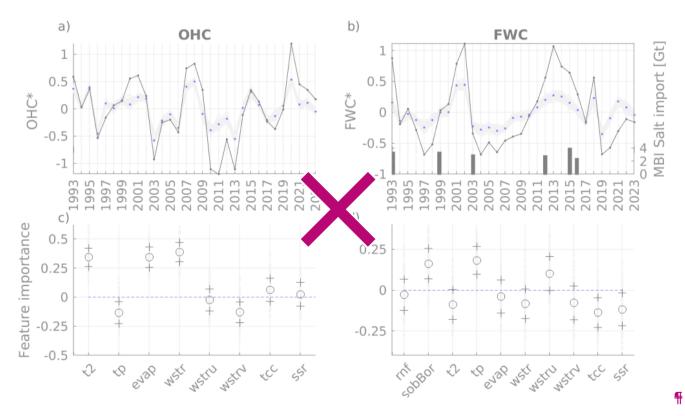
382 In the RF_FWC(VAR)* model, we incorporated bottom salinity from the Bornholm Basin as a supplementary feature. The 383 direct calculation of salt transport from model data across a section at the Baltic Sea entrance is error-prone. Utilizing daily 384 average cross-section velocities and salinities overlooks high-frequency fluctuations with considerable residual salt flux. The 385 model's precision in predicting accurate salinity levels at the Baltic Sea's entrance is quite low (Lindenthal et al., 2024). Time 386 series of bottom salinity changes in the Arkona and Bornholm Basins facilitate the tracking of the intermittent nature of 387 water inflow and outflow events. The Arkona Basin, being relatively shallow, is known for its dynamic nature regarding 388 volume and salt transport. Here, bottom salinity reflects the salinity shifts caused by inflow and outflow variations at the 389 Baltic Sea entrance. These variations mask the large volume inflows chiefly responsible for the Baltic Sea's salt influx, thus 390 not significantly affecting the Arkona Basin's bottom salinity over time. Conversely, the Bornholm Basin's greater depth 391 means its bottom salinity is less affected by the upper layer's varying salinity water movements. Hence, the Bornholm 392 Basin's bottom salinity serves as a more accurate indicator of the Baltic Sea's salt inflow. We also factored in the annual 393 average river runoff (Table 1 product ref. no. 3) into the Baltic Sea in our RF model.

394 The ensemble mean predictions of the RF_FWC(VAR)* are marginally less precise, with a correlation coefficient of 0.8994 395 and a root mean square difference of 0.3624. Notable peaks in the FWC occurred in 1993, 2002, and 2013, each followed by 396 a swift decline in subsequent years (Fig. 4b). The bottom salinity in the Bornholm Basin, serving—used here as an indicator 397 forof salt flux into the Baltic Sea,—along with total precipitation and the zonal wind component, are emerge as the primary 398 factors influencing the FWC's drivers of interannual variations in freshwater content (FWC) (Fig. 4d). RiverineIn contrast,

399 riverine freshwater discharge does not shows no significant impact on FWC variability at the FWC's interannual variations. A 400 reduction in FWC scale. Raudsepp et al. (2023) showed that there are multi-year periods when river runoff is in phase or out 401 of phase with the FWC as calculated for the whole Baltic Sea.

402 Notable FWC peaks occurred in 1993, 2002, and 2013, each followed by a rapid decline in subsequent years (Fig. 4b).
403 associated with an increase in water salinity. The rise in the Baltic Sea's salinity is attributed to the transportelevated FWC in
404 1993 reflects the end of a preceding stagnation period characterized by low salinity, which was interrupted by the Major
405 Baltic Inflow (MBI) of 1993 occurring at the end of that year. The gradual increases in FWC observed from 1997 to 2002
406 and from 2004 to 2013 represent periods during which the influence of earlier MBIs—specifically those of 1993 and
407 2002—on the basin's total salinity diminished over time.

408 Reductions in FWC are associated with increases in water salinity, driven primarily by the advection of saline water through 409 the Danish straits. The highest values of bottom salinity align with the Major Baltie Inflowsvalues correspond to the MBIs 410 that occurred at the end of 1993, 2002, and 2014. These inflows had a limited effect on annual FWC during the years of the 411 inflows themselves (1993 and 2002), with their primary impact becoming evident in the following years—1994 and 2003, 412 respectively. Although the 2014 MBI took place at the end of that year, an increase in deep-water salinity was already 413 underway prior to the event, leading to a decrease in FWC during 2014.



414

415 Finally, profiles of salinity, temperature, and dissolved oxygen concentration in the Gotland Basin from 1993 to 416 2023—sourced from the Copernicus Marine Service Baltic Sea in situ multiyear and near real-time observations 417 (INSITU_BAL_PHYBGCWAV_DISCRETE_MYNRT_013_032) (CMS, 2024c) —complement our analyses of OHC and 418 FWC by providing additional context on the evolution of the Baltic Sea's physical and biogeochemical conditions.

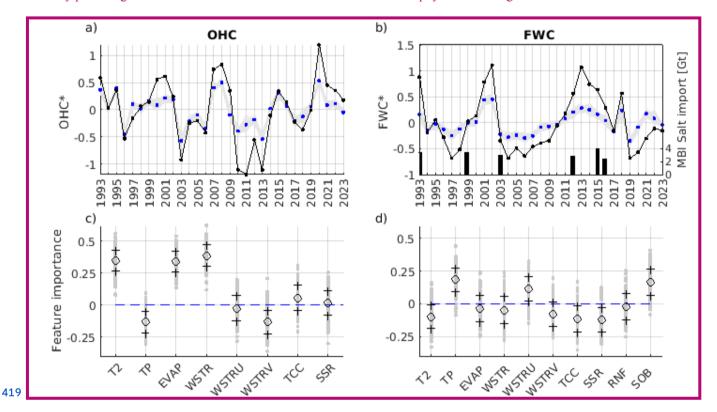


Figure 4: Time series of detrended OHC* (a) and FWC* (b) ensemble predictions (ens. mean as blue dots) using RF ensembles. Ensembles of corresponding models feature importances with ensemble spread ("+" markers corresponding to 1 STD) shown on (c) and (d) for OHC and FC respectively. All variables are z-scored. OHC: ocean heat content, FWC: fresh water content, T2: 2 metre temperature, TP: total precipitation, EVAP: evaporation, *Wstr*WSTR: windstress, *WU/WVstr*WSTRU and WSTRV: windstress u and v component, TCC: total cloud cover, SSR: surface net solar radiation, RNF: river runoff, *sobBor*SOB: bottom salinity in the deepest location of the Bornholm basin. Importance values are scaled by the permutation effect's standard deviation; positive values indicate reduced model performance when a predictor is permuted, while negative values reflect spurious performance improvements from permutation.

428 4. Discussion and Conclusions

429 We proposed a new conceptual framework in which the Baltic Sea's state is defined by two main factors: OHC and FWC. The
430 growing complexity of climate-driven changes in marine environments necessitates a comprehensive framework that
431 transcends traditional localized assessments. By integrating key indicators into holistic indices representing the overall state
432 of the sea, this approach advances beyond fragmented analyses to provide a coherent basis for regional evaluation. Such an

433 integrative methodology is essential for delivering actionable insights that can effectively inform policy and support 434 sustainable management of ocean resources.

435 OHC and FWC are established large-scale metrics widely used to track global ocean changes. Here we adapt these metrics to
436 the regional Baltic Sea and integrate them with additional analysis layers. This framework distinguishes itself by linking
437 these integral metrics with depth-resolved information and machine-learning-based attribution, which to our knowledge has
438 not been previously applied in the Baltic Sea context. OHC and FWC are proposed as key descriptors of the Baltic Sea's
439 physical state because they encapsulate the overall thermal and haline content of the entire basin. While temperature and
440 salinity at specific locations or layers provide detailed information, OHC and FWC offer a high-level integration of those
441 details. This integration is particularly useful for monitoring long term trends and basin wide changes, which is why we
442 argue that OHC and FWC effectively define the large-scale physical state. OHC and FWC reflect temperature and salinity
443 changes across the entire basin. OHC variations primarily follow surface layer temperature changes. The negative trend and
444 interannual variability in FWC are mainly driven by subsurface salinity changes, as surface salinity remains relatively stable
445 (Fig 3c,d). High feature importance values indicate the depths where temperature and salinity changes most closely align
446 with OHC and FWC variations, respectively.

We employed the RF model (Breiman, 2001) to link the atmospheric and hydrologic variables with the variability of OHC and FWC. Given the limited sample size of 31 annual observations, overfitting represents a potential concern in our modeling approach. To mitigate this, we employed an ensemble of 150 independently trained RF models, each with controlled tree complexity (e.g., limited depth, minimum leaf size). This ensemble strategy helps stabilize feature importance estimates and reduces prediction variance arising from random sampling effects, thereby enhancing the robustness of the results. Nonetheless, caution is warranted, as some predictor importances may reflect spurious correlations. Because our RF models were trained on the full time series (1993–2023) with no independent test period, the reported errors (based on OOB) could underestimate true predictive error. The results should thus be interpreted as patterns learned from the given dataset rather than as fully generalizable predictions. Future analyses could leverage extended reanalysis or model datasets (e.g., BMIP; Gröger et al., 2022) to independently validate the machine learning results, thereby strengthening confidence in the predictive skill of the proposed framework.

458 OHC and FWC are particularly useful for monitoring long-term trends and basin-wide changes, which is why we argue that 459 they effectively define the large-scale physical state. Indeed, our framework's indicators, total OHC and FWC of the Baltic 460 Sea, are integrative and require comprehensive observation or modeling efforts to compute in real-time. In situ monitoring of 461 the entire water column at sufficient spatial coverage is needed to directly measure OHC/FWC, which is more demanding 462 than, say, monitoring a few atmospheric indices. However, these integrated indices provide a succinct summary of the state 463 that individual predictors cannot fully capture. Advancements in remote sensing can help estimate these indices indirectly 464 (e.g. Kondeti and Palanisamy, 2025).

465 Our results confirm a long-term warming and salinization trend in the Baltic Sea, as evidenced by increasing OHC and a 466 slight decreasing trend in FWC (Table 3). At the same time, by removing these trends for the RF analysis, we isolated the 467 interannual variability and identified its drivers.

468 Our analysis across the entire Baltic Sea reveals the direct impact of atmospheric forcing on ocean warming. Moreover, this 469 framework provides new insights into the role of salt import/export in FWC's interannual variability, and draws on the 470 basin-wide decline of FWC, elevating the potential role of a flatting MLD from long-term sensible flux change at the air-sea 471 interface. Particularly, results reveal that the Baltic Sea has undergone substantial change over the past decade as evidenced 472 by the increase in OHC over the last thirty years.

473 Simultaneously, there has been a reduction in FWC, suggesting an increase in seawater salinity. The analysis of average 474 subsurface temperature and salinity indicates that interannual variations in OHC and FWC are mainly influenced by 475 temperature shifts in both the seasonal thermocline and permanent halocline and changes in salinity within the permanent 476 halocline. This highlights the critical need for a comprehensive framework while reporting on the state of the Baltic Sea, 477 allowing for the evaluation of basin-wide conditions, including its trends, interannual variations, and extremes, as well as the 478 factors driving these changes. Using this approach could prove to be a valuable asset for the science-policy interface, aiding 479 in regional evaluations of the sea state.

480 Previous studies have reported a positive trend in OHC and a negative trend in FWC (Raudsepp et al., 2022; 2023), along 481 with an inverse relationship between OHC and the maximum ice extent in the Baltic Sea (Raudsepp et al., 2022). The 482 increase in OHC has been attributed to the rising air temperature over the Baltic Sea, yet the decline in FWC remains largely 483 unexplained. Raudsepp et al. (2023) noted that neither salt transport to the Baltic Sea, net precipitation, nor total river runoff 484 accounted for the FWC's downward trend. Despite this, deepwater salinity in the central Baltic Sea has been increasing at a 485 rate of 0.2–0.25 g kg⁻¹ per decade (Lehmann et al., 2022). A basin-wide analysis linking FWC changes to atmospheric forces 486 revealed a relation with air temperature, a connection that is physically tenuous, prompting further investigation into other 487 factors. This led to the hypothesis that the decreasing trend in the upper mixed layer thickness in the Baltic Sea might be 488 influencing FWC changes. Over the last three decades, there has been a noticeable reduction in the upper mixed layer depth. 489 While it is plausible to suggest a dynamic relationship between the shrinking mixed layer depth and the decrease in FWC, 490 verifying this hypothesis requires more research than what is covered in the present study.

491 Interannual variations of OHC are influenced by air temperature, evaporation, and wind stress magnitude over the Baltic Sea 492 (Fig. 4). When considering the lesser impact of total cloud cover and surface net solar radiation, it becomes clear that air-sea 493 heat exchange primarily drives OHC changes in the Baltic Sea. Notably, the annual mean OHC parallels the long-term trend 494 of winter OHC in the Baltic Sea's upper 50-m layer and yearly maximum sea ice extent of the Baltic Sea (Raudsepp et al., 495 2022), highlighting the influencecoherence of seasonal ice cover onand OHC fluctuations. In seas with seasonal ice cover, 496 the characteristics of sea ice are crucial for determining the sea's physical state. Typically, the maximum sea ice extent in the

497 Baltic Sea indicates the severity of the winters (Uotila et al., 2015). Sea ice is vital for temporarily storing ocean heat and 498 freshwater, then releasing it back into the sea. (Raudsepp et al., 2022).

499 The interannual variations of FWC were associated with Major Baltic Inflows, overall precipitation, and zonal wind stress 500 (Fig. 4 d)). The signals of the MBIs are evident in the bottom salinity of the Bornholm Basin. Fig. 4 d) illustrates that 501 interannual variations in FWC are linked to the bottom salinity in the Bornholm Basin, which serves as a proxy for MBIs, as 502 well as zonal wind stress and net precipitation. Therefore, Fig. 4 d) highlights the drivers of FWC, while Fig. 3 d) 503 emphasizes the significance of halocline salinity's response to FWC. Consequently, we can infer that inflows from the North 504 Sea and net precipitation are responsible for changes in halocline salinity. Because MBIs are short-lived, our use of annual 505 mean wind is a coarse indicator. A high annual mean westerly wind might reflect a generally stormy winter with possible 506 inflows, but it will likely miss isolated inflow events that occur even in otherwise average years. Therefore, we interpret the 507 RF finding of 'zonal wind' importance (Fig. 4d) cautiously – it may be serving as a proxy for the cumulative effect of many 508 small inflows or sustained minor exchange rather than any single MBI. Meier and Kauker (2003) demonstrated that 509 increasing westerly winds could hinder the outflow of freshwater from the Baltic Sea, leading to decreased salt transport into 510 the sea. The second wind facilitating these inflows. However, we were unable to directly associate moderate and small 511 inflows from the North Sea with changes in halocline salinity. This aspect requires further investigation and precise 512 simulation of salt transport between the North Sea and the Baltic Sea, which is beyond the scope of the current study.

Major Baltic Inflows inflows are crucial in shaping the hydrophysical conditions of the central Baltic Sea's deep regions, statistically affecting marine ecology across various trophic levels (Bergen et al., 2018). Without Major Baltic Inflows, the deeper layers of the central Baltic become oxygen-depleted, leading to the emergence of hydrogen sulphide (as noted by Savehuk, 2018). Furthermore, increased water temperatures have hastened oxygen depletion, causing the hypoxic areas to expand (Safonova et al., 2024). Consequently, the ongoing reduction in FWC and the rise in OHC signal a growth in the hypoxic and anoxic zones within the Baltic Sea.

519 Meier and Kauker (2003) demonstrated that increasing westerly winds could hinder the outflow of freshwater from the Baltic 520 Sea, leading to decreased salt transport into the sea. While several studies have underscored a correlation of the Baltic Sea's 521 salinity with river runoff (Kniebusch et al., 2019b; Radtke et al., 2020; Lehmann et al., 2022), our research did not find this 522 connection.

523

The OHC exhibits oscillations displays quasi-periodic fluctuations with a period of approximately 5—7 years, reaching a high sextreme inwith 2020 and a low extreme in 2011 standing out as relative high and low points, respectively (Fig. 4). The period from elevated wintertime OHC in 2020 coincided with an unusually warm January to—March 2020 was notably warm period over the Northern Hemisphere (Schubert et al., 2022), which was evident in the Baltic Sea's winter OHC (Raudsepp et al., 2022). Additionally, the year 2020 was marked and was accompanied by an exceptionally high marine heatwave index

529 (Bashiri et al., 2024) and a significant large number of marine heatwave days (in the Baltic Sea (Bashiri et al., 2024; 530 Lindenthal et al., 2024). Conversely In contrast, 2011 sawfeatured the greatestmost extensive sea ice extent cover and volume 531 of recorded in the past three decades (Raudsepp et al., 2022). Notably, high extremes Similarly, certain peaks in FWC, such as 532 those observed in 2002 and 2013 (Fig. 4 b)), precede, align temporally with the years preceding Major Baltic Inflow events, 533 whereas low extremes, such as those Inflows, while declines in FWC, as seen in 1997 and 2019, follow several years 534 after occurred following such events. While these events specific years are highlighted as examples, they are not the basis for 535 broader conclusions but serve to illustrate patterns consistent with previous studies.

536

537 Global warming, with its increased frequency and intensity of extreme events, has had widespread negative impacts on 538 nature and significant socioeconomic repercussions (IPCC, 2021). Our methodology has highlighted the extremes of 539 interannual variability in OHC and FWC. In our study, we utilized the RF model to investigate the relationships between 540 changes in OHC and FWC and their potential drivers. Although the model pinpointed the primary factors, it failed to capture 541 the extremes (Gnecco et al., 2024), as illustrated in Fig. 4a,b. RF models tend to underperform when extreme values are not 542 well-represented in the training data, a common issue in ecological modeling and other practical applications (Fox et al., 543 2017). This can result in a bias where the model does not recognize or accurately predict rare but impactful events, such as 544 extreme weather conditions, uncommon species occurrences, or anomalies in financial markets (Fox et al., 2017). 545 Acknowledging this, we hypothesize that while primary forces set the stage for extreme events, these events themselves fall 546 outside the scope of standard interannual variability and stem from a distinct combination of forces. Consequently, it is 547 advantageous to analyze extreme events independently from typical interannual variations (Nontaga et al., 2020; Chen et al., 548 2021). To account for the variations in OHC and FWC, models other than RF, such as deep machine learning models, could 549 be employed, especially if the temporal resolution is monthly (e.g., Barzandeh et al., 2024) or finer, ensuring a representative 550 dataset is available. It should be noted that the Random Forest analysis reveals statistical connections rather than definitive 551 physical causation. We interpret these connections in light of known mechanisms to ensure they are plausible. Advancing 552 this methodology will further our comprehension of the causes behind extreme events, thereby improving our predictive 553 abilities.

A sustained decline in the Baltic Sea's FWC, indicating increasing salinity, could alert policymakers to intensified saltwater intrusion or reduced freshwater input, prompting investigation into inflow events or drought conditions. Conversely, an 556 ongoing rise in OHC is a clear signal of warming that can inform climate adaptation strategies. The concept of indicators such as used in this study for OHC and FC, plays an important role facilitating knowledge transfer at the science and policy interface (von Schuckmann et al., 2020; Evans et al., 2025). Integrated indices, OHC and FWC, could be incorporated into 559 regional climate and environmental assessments (HELCOM, 2023) as part of UNEP regional seas conventions (UNEP, 560 2024), aiding communication of change to stakeholders. Our framework based on an indicator-based approach yields

- 561 quantitative indicators (annual OHC, FWC, etc.) that can be tracked over time, much like other environmental indicators, to
- **562** gauge the Baltic Sea's response to climate variability and change.
- 563 This framework could be generalized or applied to other regions or to future data. After defining the region of interest and
- 564 preprocessing relevant data, the three-stage approach combining (i) analysis of OHC and FWC time series, (ii) examination
- 565 of their vertical distribution, and (iii) RF analysis of their drivers, could be applied.

567 Data Availability

568 This study is based on public databases and the references are listed in Table 1.

569 Author contribution

- 570 UR designed the conceptual framework for this study, interpreted the results, and wrote the initial manuscript. IM performed
- 571 the calculations of OHC and FWC, trained the RF models, and prepared the figures; IM also contributed to the manuscript
- 572 development. PL and KvS contributed to the design of the framework and the presentation of the results. All authors
- 573 contributed to writing and revising the manuscript.

574 Competing Interests

575 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

576 Disclaimer

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- 582 suitable alternatives, maintaining our commitment to delivering top-quality services.

583 Special issue statement

584 The paper belongs to the 9th edition of the Copernicus Marine Service Ocean State Report (OSR 9).

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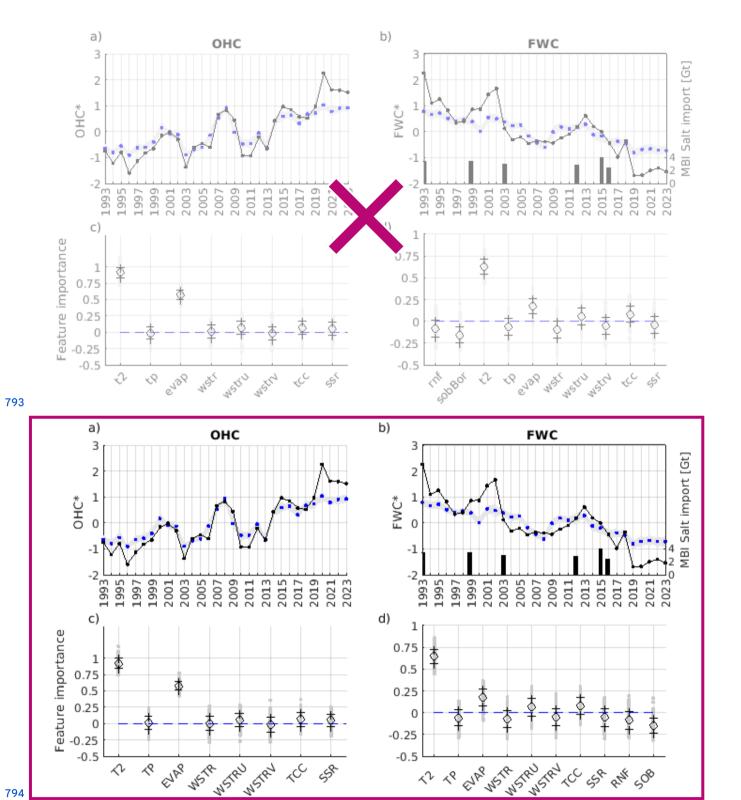
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789 Appendix 1

790 We also examined the fit of the trend-included time series and their correspondence with meteorological variables for OHC

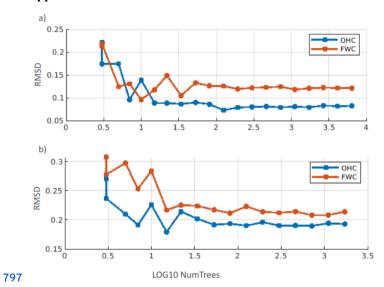
791 and FWC (Figure A1). The correlation coefficient and RMSD for the OHC model are 0.9537 and 0.4310, respectively; for

792 FWC model, they are 0.8897 and 0.5994.



795 Figure A1. Same as in Figure 4, but the RF_*var models are fit for the original FWC and OHC including trends.

796 Appendix 2



798 Figure A2. Random forest models for *zaxZAX a) and *varVAR b) sensitivity to log₁₀ of the number of trees (NumTrees) ¶
799