

A committed fourfold increase in ocean oxygen loss

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25 The earth system is not in equilibrium with current levels of atmospheric CO₂ that have
26 experienced an increasingly rapid growth since the beginning of the industrial
27 revolution in mid-19th century, with about half of all anthropogenic CO₂ produced until
28 today emitted during the past 35 years only. Theory and models nevertheless predict
29 that global mean surface temperatures would stop rising further and remain relatively
30 stable for many decades to centuries once CO₂ emissions are stopped¹⁻³. This is also
31 implicit in the concept of transient climate response to cumulative CO₂ emissions
32 (TCRE^{4,5}), which provides the scientific rationale for relating temperature targets to
33 remaining carbon budgets. Since its mentioning in the Paris Agreement in 2015, the goal
34 of achieving net zero CO₂ emissions in order to stabilize global mean surface
35 temperatures has gained substantial traction in climate politics and scenario
36 development. Accomplishing this goal is sometimes regarded as also stopping the
37 increase in climate damages.

38

39 However, even though global-mean surface temperatures are expected to remain stable
40 when CO₂ emissions are stopped, many components of the Earth system will continue to
41 respond to the anthropogenic perturbation with their inherent response timescales and
42 inertia, possibly producing harm long after emissions are stopped. Heat as well as
43 carbon and freshwater will continue to be redistributed among the different planetary
44 reservoirs, in particular atmosphere, land, ocean and cryosphere. The uptake of CO₂ by
45 the ocean essentially gives rise to a slow multi-centennial decline of atmospheric CO₂
46 and the associated radiative forcing. According to current models, the remaining
47 radiative forcing during this phase of ocean adjustment to the anthropogenic
48 perturbation is closely balanced by oceanic heat uptake³. The relative stability of global-
49 mean surface temperatures upon ending CO₂ emissions thus comes at the expense of

50 increasing acidification and warming of the deep ocean⁶. Thermal expansion results in
51 committed sea-level rise^{7,8} that will be enhanced further by committed melting of inland
52 ice^{9,10}. First studies have looked at committed changes in terrestrial ecosystems¹¹. Here
53 we investigate committed changes in marine oxygen levels that are already declining at
54 alarming pace^{12,13}, and that act, together with warming and acidification, as key
55 stressors on marine ecosystems¹⁴. Such committed changes will also have to be
56 accounted for when assessing damages caused by anthropogenic CO₂ emissions, even if
57 they materialize well after emissions are stopped and global mean surface air
58 temperatures have stabilized.

59

60 **Committed change in oceanic oxygen inventory**

61 A numerical Earth system model of intermediate complexity¹⁵ that is well calibrated to
62 simulate observed climate properties and oxygen distributions¹⁶ is employed to
63 examine what would happen if CO₂ emissions were stopped end of year 2020. Forced
64 with historical CO₂ emissions until 2010 and emissions corresponding to the Reference
65 Concentration Pathway (RCP) 8.5 high-emission scenario¹⁷ until year 2020, the model
66 simulates atmospheric CO₂ levels of 411 μ atm and global annual-mean surface air
67 temperatures 1.03°C above pre-industrial in year 2020, in agreement with observations.
68 After emissions are stopped end of 2020, simulated surface air temperatures increase by
69 another 0.04°C within 7 years before slowly leveling off at about 0.01°C above year-2020
70 temperatures towards the end of the 21st century and staying within $\pm 0.02^\circ\text{C}$ at this
71 level until year 2650 (Figure 1a).

72

73 A major deep-convection event in the Southern Ocean after year 2650 sets off a
74 substantial release of heat and CO₂ from the ocean to the atmosphere and surface air

75 temperatures rise abruptly by 0.4°C within 50 years. Such deep convection events have
76 been found in a number of climate models under equilibrium¹⁸ and continued CO₂
77 emission pathways¹⁹. In the zero-emission commitment scenario investigated here, the
78 combination of stabilized surface temperatures with warming subsurface waters of
79 North Atlantic origin eventually renders stratification unstable in the Southern Ocean,
80 triggering deep convective overturning after year 2650. This leads to enhanced
81 ventilation of the deep ocean from the south and an eventual re-oxygenation of the deep
82 ocean also seen under continued emissions^{20,21}. Simulated globally-averaged ocean
83 temperature increases from a pre-industrial value of 3.07°C to 3.23°C in year 2020 and
84 shows continued warming to 3.70°C until year 2650, followed by a subsequent gradual
85 cooling to 3.56°C in year 3000 (Figure 1a).

86
87 There is substantial uncertainty, requiring further study, about the relative roles in heat
88 and fresh-water forcings and the degree of realism in simulated Southern Ocean
89 processes in current climate models¹⁹. Therefore, we here focus our analysis of
90 committed changes on the time until year 2650, by which all model properties show an
91 asymptotic adjustment to the stabilized surface temperatures. For the present study, we
92 regard subsequent effects associated with the still poorly understood enigmatic deep-
93 convection event in the model's Southern Ocean as a plausible but as yet uncertain
94 tipping element in the climate system.

95
96 The stabilization of global-mean surface air temperatures after emissions stop end of
97 year 2020 (Figure 1a) is a result of the ocean continuing to take up heat and CO₂ (ref.3)
98 (Figure 1b). The committed future uptake of CO₂ from the atmosphere (720 Gt CO₂ until
99 2650) is larger than all the CO₂ the ocean has taken up until 2020 (634 Gt CO₂), whereas

100 the committed future ocean heat uptake until year 2650 (2.7×10^{24} J) is even three times
101 as large as the heat taken up until year 2020 (0.9×10^{24}), leading to another 16 cm of
102 unavoidable thermobaric global sea level rise. The simulated oceanic oxygen inventory
103 declines by 5.0 Pmol O₂ (1.8 %) from pre-industrial year 1800 to 2020. This is consistent
104 with the decline found in other Earth system models²², but somewhat slower than
105 inferred from observations that suggest a 4.8 ± 2.1 Pmol decline between 1960 and
106 2010 alone¹². The simulated oxygen decline continues for several hundred years after
107 stopping emissions in 2020 and asymptotically reaches a total loss of 20.3 Pmol O₂ until
108 year 2650 (Figure 1b), corresponding to 7.4 % of the pre-industrial oxygen inventory.
109 Similar to the magnitude of the committed heat uptake, the committed oxygen loss is
110 more than three times as large as the oxygen loss that has occurred until the emissions
111 stop end of year 2020.

112

113 There is a close proportionality of global ocean heat gain and oxygen loss until year
114 2650 (extended data Figure S1) with a ratio of 5.7 ± 0.9 nmol J⁻¹, consistent with earlier
115 observational estimates of thermocline oxygen losses²³. The total oxygen loss is 3 to 4
116 times larger than the direct solubility effect of warming shown in form of an abiotic
117 oxygen tracer in Figure 1b. Only the Southern Ocean deep convection event after year
118 2650 breaks this proportionality by bringing large volumes of deep waters with a high
119 share of accumulated respiratory oxygen deficit into contact with the atmosphere and
120 thereby increasing the marine oxygen inventory without dominant changes to the
121 solubility-driven oxygen component (Figure 1b).

122

123

124 **Patterns and processes**

125 Despite the tight correlation of global-ocean heat uptake and oxygen loss, regional
126 patterns of warming and deoxygenation are very different. Until year 2020, zonally
127 averaged ocean warming is largest in the mid and low-latitude near-surface waters
128 (Figure 2c) with vertically averaged warming being most prominent along the western
129 boundary of the North Atlantic (Figure 2a) where deep western boundary currents
130 transport warming North Atlantic Deep Water southward. Oxygen loss, on the other
131 hand, is most pronounced in the deep water formation regions in the Southern Ocean
132 and North Atlantic (Figures 2b,d). Similar to many other models, there is even a slight
133 oxygen gain in the tropical thermocline that is in conflict with observations and deemed
134 attributable to the model's failure to correctly reproduce temporal changes in the wind
135 field¹⁶.

136
137 The committed ocean warming between years 2020 and 2650 by about half a degree
138 Celsius is relatively homogeneous in the subsurface waters (Figure 2g), but largest in the
139 North Atlantic, where the overturning circulation ensures rapid spreading of warmer
140 waters throughout the basin (Figure 2e). Surface waters in immediate contact with the
141 stabilized surface air temperatures show very little change in both temperatures and
142 oxygen concentrations. There are, however, considerable regional differences in the
143 magnitude of committed oxygen changes in the ocean interior. Committed oxygen loss is
144 largest around Antarctica and in bottom and deep waters throughout the world ocean
145 (Figures 2f,h), where oxygen concentrations decline by typically 30 mmol/m³. The
146 Atlantic shows little changes and, in some regions, even an oxygen increase due to the
147 slowly increasing ventilation via the formation of North Atlantic Deep Water and the
148 strengthening meridional overturning circulation (contours in Figure 2h).

149

150 The different patterns of committed warming and deoxygenation can be explained by
151 the direct impact of biological respiration and water residence times on interior-ocean
152 oxygen concentrations, but not on temperatures. While the solubility-driven oxygen
153 changes tightly follow the patterns of ocean warming (Figure S2a,b), the more sluggish
154 overturning circulation leads to increases in simulated bottom and deep-water ideal age
155 by several hundred years by year 2650 (Figure S3). The export of organic matter out of
156 the surface ocean increases by about 4% between year 2020 and 2650 (Figure S4). Since
157 remineralization rates increase with increasing temperatures, remineralization tends to
158 move to slightly shallower depths under ocean warming. The combined effect of an
159 increase in export production and a shoaling of remineralization is little committed
160 change in respiratory oxygen consumption in the deep ocean (Figure S5). According to
161 these model results, the committed loss of marine oxygen is predominantly caused by
162 changes in ocean physics.

163

164 While ocean warming directly determines the solubility-driven oxygen loss, which, in
165 the model, maintains a roughly 30% share of total deoxygenation all the way to year
166 2650 (Figure 1b), the majority of the committed oxygen loss is a result of the increase in
167 water residence time particularly in the deep Southern Ocean and the North Pacific
168 (Figure S3c). These waters are relatively well oxygenated ($O_2 > 150 \text{ mmol m}^{-3}$), whereas
169 low oxygen waters, sometimes called hypoxic ($O_2 < 70 \text{ mmol m}^{-3}$) or suboxic ($O_2 < 5$
170 mmol m^{-3}), are generally found at depths shallower than a few hundred meters. Between
171 years 2020 and 2650, the volume of hypoxic and suboxic waters shows only a relatively
172 small and steady committed increases by 8% and 15%, respectively. This is small
173 compared to the 150% increase seen in an extended multi-millennial RCP 8.5 scenario²⁰.

174

175 **Implications**

176 Committed oxygen loss generates the largest decline in oxygen concentrations in deep
177 waters (Figure 2h) at oxygen concentrations relatively high compared to oxygen
178 minimum zones typically located at a depth of a few hundred meters. Largest committed
179 volumetric changes are simulated for waters with oxygen concentrations in the range
180 between 230 and 270 mmol m⁻³, that lose more than half of their volume between years
181 2020 and 2650, on the expense of volume gains at lower oxygen classes between 200
182 and 230 mmol m⁻³ and 130 to 180 mmol m⁻³ (Figure 3). Though relatively little is known
183 about deep-ocean ecosystems and their sensitivity to oxygen change, it is likely that
184 animals have evolved to optimally exploit ambient oxygen levels²⁵. Thus, any loss of
185 oxygen is expected to reduce habitats of individual species. The rate of oxygen decline is
186 small, on average about 5 mmol m⁻³ per 100 years until year 2650, but, according to the
187 model, unavoidable even if CO₂ emissions were stopped end of year 2020. The generally
188 low natural variability in the properties of deep water masses may make their
189 ecosystems more vulnerable to oxygen changes than near-surface systems that are
190 naturally exposed to large seasonal and interannual oxygen fluctuations. The speed of
191 model-derived anthropogenic warming relative to natural variability has recently been
192 identified to be largest in mid and deep waters²⁶. This would directly translate to the
193 solubility-driven component of oxygen decline. Given that the solubility contributes less
194 (<20%) than average (30%) to total oxygen loss in the deep waters (Figure S2c), the
195 velocity of oxygen change can be expected to be even larger than that of warming.

196

197 A metabolic index²⁷ defined as the ratio of O₂ supply to the temperature-dependent
198 resting O₂ demand of an organism (see methods) and indicator of metabolically viable

199 marine environments, declines by 10% to 25% over much of the deep ocean below 2000
200 m between year 2020 and 2650 (Figure 4). Almost all of this reduction in the metabolic
201 index results from oxygen decline. With species generally evolved such that their
202 physiological capacity for oxygen supply matches the maximum evolved demand at the
203 available oxygen pressure^{25,28}, an oxygen decline of this magnitude can be expected to
204 have substantial impacts on the still poorly explored deep ocean fauna. This calls for
205 efforts to explore the baseline of these systems before the unavoidable change will hit. A
206 future recovery of oxygen concentrations as predicted by climate models after many
207 hundred years of warming-induced deep-ocean deoxygenation^{20,21} will come too late for
208 many organisms. If RCP 8.5 CO₂ emissions continue until year 2100 and decrease
209 linearly to zero in year 2300 as assumed in earlier studies with the same model²⁰, the
210 marine oxygen loss will be even 2.5 times higher until year 2650.

211

212 On a positive note, present-day oxygen minimum zones in the upper few hundred
213 meters experience, on average, only little change once CO₂ emissions are stopped
214 (Figures 2h and 3b). This indicates that rapid emission reduction can halt the increasing
215 threat of deoxygenation in the upper ocean that holds much of the known biodiversity
216 and provides the main ocean ecosystem services deemed societally relevant. For deep
217 waters of the ocean, however, there is little hope that even an immediate stop of CO₂
218 emissions will avert a drastic decline in oxygen concentrations, significantly reducing
219 metabolically viable habitats of deep-sea animals. The deep ocean appears committed to
220 turning into an as yet unrecognized area where the slogan of the American Lung
221 Association “If you can’t breathe, nothing else matters” will become reality for centuries
222 to come.

223

224 **Data availability**

225 The data presented in the paper are from model simulations described in the Methods.

226 The data will be made available before publication and can also be obtained from the

227 author upon reasonable request.

228

229 **Code availability**

230 All model and analysis code will be made available before publication.

231

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236 **Author contributions:** AO designed and carried out the model runs and wrote the

237 paper.

238

239 **Competing interests:** The author declares no competing interests.

240

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332

333 **Methods**

334 The University of Victoria (UVic) Earth System Climate Model¹⁵, version 2.8, is employed
335 in the configuration described by ref.20. The ocean component is a fully three-
336 dimensional primitive-equation model with nineteen levels in the vertical ranging from
337 50 m near the surface to 500 m in the deep. It contains a simple marine ecosystem
338 model including the two major nutrients nitrate and phosphate and two phytoplankton
339 classes, nitrogen fixers and other phytoplankton, the former being limited by phosphate
340 only. The micronutrient iron is not explicitly included in the model, which nevertheless
341 achieves a reasonable fit to observed biogeochemical tracer distributions for the tuned
342 biological parameters and mixing parameterizations²⁹. For the assumed molar
343 stoichiometry of C:N:P:–O₂ = 112:16:1:169.6, organic matter is degraded by aerobic
344 remineralization (–O₂:PO₄ = 169.6) as long as sufficient dissolved oxygen is available. In
345 regions where oxygen concentrations fall below a threshold of 5 mmol O₂ m⁻³, nitrate is
346 used as electron acceptor (denitrification, –NO₃:PO₄ = 119.68, see ref.30). No other

347 electron acceptors are simulated and remineralization stops whenever nitrate runs out,
348 which does not happen in the model runs used here.

349

350 The ocean component is coupled to a single-level energy-moisture balance model of the
351 atmosphere, a dynamic-thermodynamic sea ice component and a terrestrial vegetation
352 and carbon-cycle component. Continental ice sheets are prescribed and kept fixed in the
353 present configuration. All model components use a common horizontal resolution of
354 1.8° latitude times 3.6° longitude. The current model version does not consider any
355 fluxes across the water-sediment interface and also does not account for fluxes related
356 to weathering on land. Oceanic phosphorus is thus strictly conserved. Because the
357 atmosphere contains about a hundred times as much oxygen as the ocean, any feedback
358 of marine oxygen changes on atmospheric oxygen is neglected as in earlier studies (e.g.
359 ref.20).

360

361 The model is spun up for more than ten thousand years under preindustrial
362 atmospheric CO_2 and forced with historical CO_2 emissions from year 1765 until 2010
363 and emissions corresponding to the Reference Concentration Pathway (RCP) 8.5 high-
364 emission scenario¹⁷ until year 2020. Solar forcing follows astronomical parameters and
365 the atmospheric composition is assumed constant except for CO_2 . In the idealized model
366 scenario aimed at studying the zero emissions commitment³¹, CO_2 emissions are
367 abruptly stopped at the end of year 2020 and kept zero thereafter until the end of the
368 model run in year 3000. In model simulations that also stop emissions of non- CO_2
369 greenhouse gases and aerosols, the climate warms for a few years in response to the
370 negative radiative forcing associated with the rapid decline of short-lived atmospheric
371 aerosols, before a more gradual cooling sets in due to the decline in non- CO_2 greenhouse

372 gases. After about a century, the response in such models is largely dominated by the
373 long-lived CO₂ and global mean temperatures converge to those obtained under
374 elimination of CO₂ emissions alone³². Similar configurations of this model have been
375 employed in earlier investigations of committed warming³³ and committed sea-level
376 rise³⁴.

377

378 In the configuration employed here, eutrophication via runoff or atmospheric deposition
379 of nutrients is not considered, and ocean deoxygenation is thus entirely caused by
380 effects related to anthropogenic CO₂ emissions. Anthropogenic effects of atmospheric
381 nitrogen deposition have been studied elsewhere and found small compared to the
382 ongoing warming-driven deoxygenation (e.g. refs. 35,36) as a result of stabilizing
383 feedbacks in the nitrogen cycle³⁷.

384

385 The metabolic index Φ (ref.27) is defined as the ratio of O₂ supply to the temperature-
386 dependent resting O₂ demand of an organism, and it combines temperature and pO₂ as
387 indicators of metabolically viable marine environments. Here, only changes of Φ are
388 considered³⁷ employing the scripts provided by ref.39:

389

390
$$\frac{\Delta\Phi(t, t_0)}{\Phi(t_0)} = \frac{pO_2(t)}{pO_2(t_0)} \exp\left(\frac{E_0}{k_B} \left[\frac{1}{T(t)} - \frac{1}{T(t_0)} \right]\right) - 1$$

391

392 Here, E_0 describes the temperature sensitivity of the resting metabolic rate, which is
393 different for different species. Here, the species average of ref.28 is taken ($E_0 = 0.69$ eV).

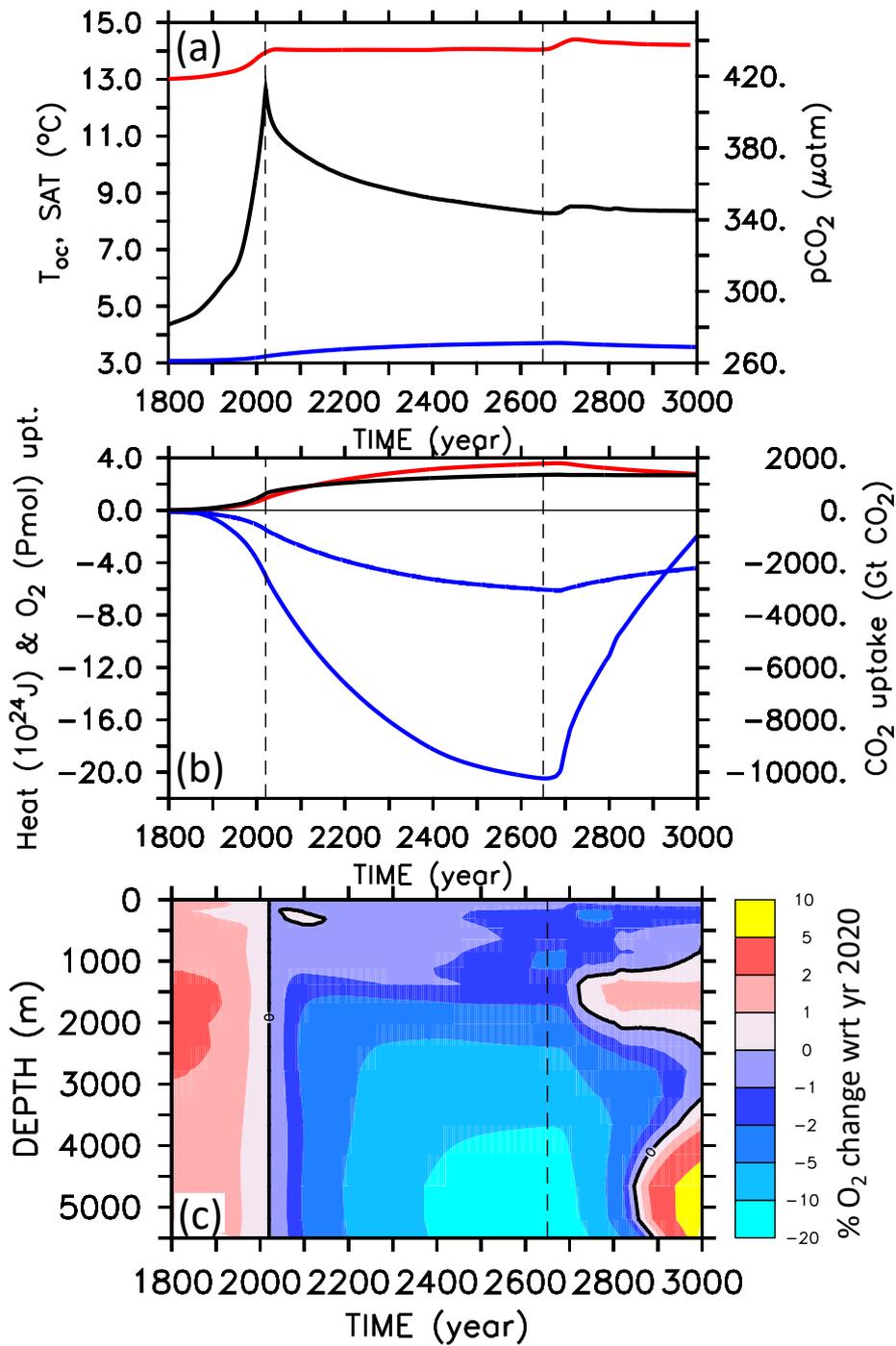
394 Parameter k_B is the Boltzmann constant, pO_2 partial pressure of oxygen.

395

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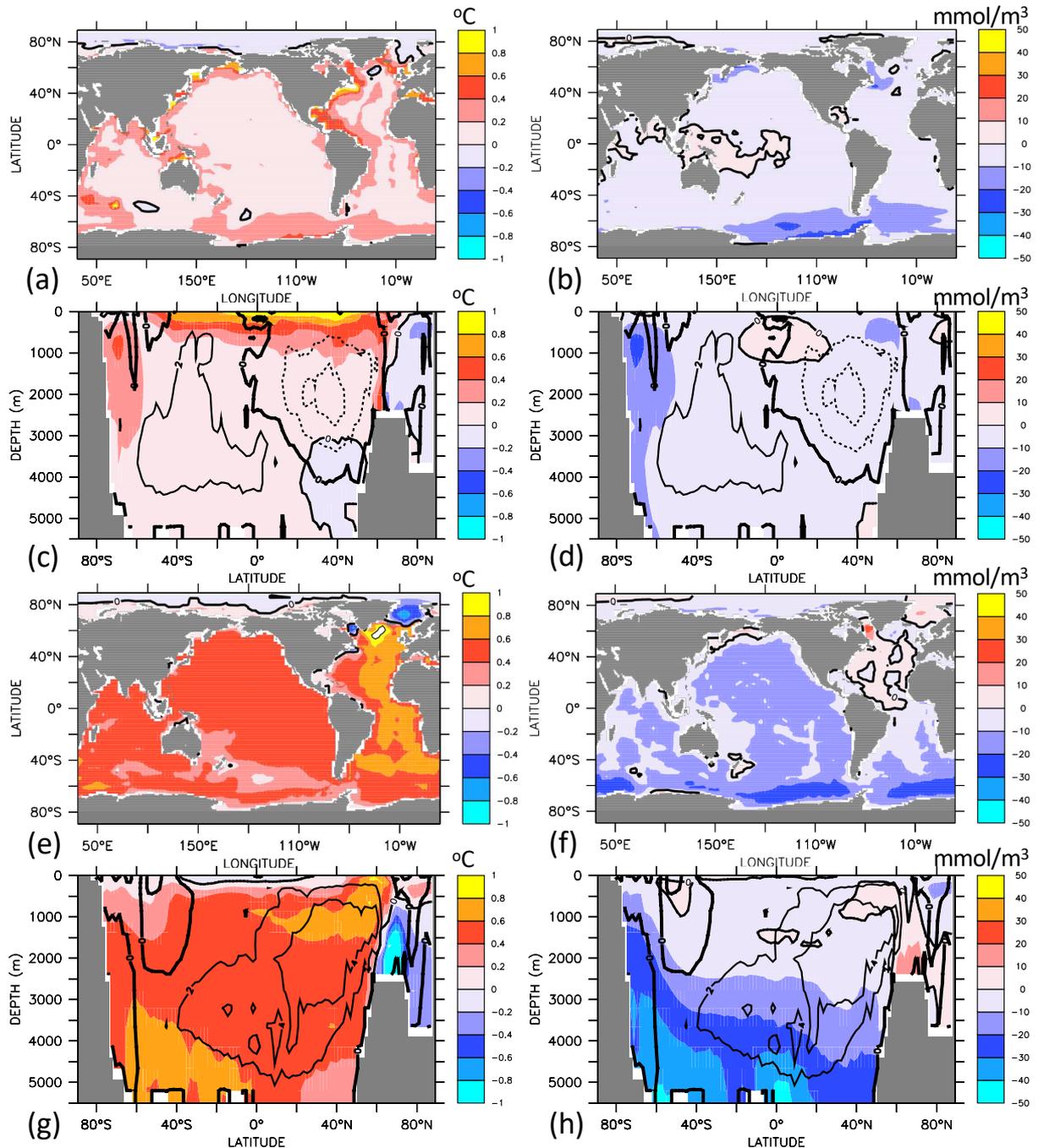
437 Figure 1 (a) Simulated global annual-mean surface air temperature (SAT, red),

438 atmospheric pCO₂ (black) and ocean mean temperature (Toc, blue). (b) Change in

439 ocean inventory of heat (red), CO₂ (black), dissolved oxygen (O₂, blue) and its

440 abiotic (solubility) component (abiotO₂, dashed blue) with respect to year 1800.

441 (c) Change in laterally integrated oxygen concentration as a function of depth
442 over time, expressed in percent change relative to year 2020. Vertical dashed
443 black lines mark then end of year 2020 when emissions stop and the end of the
444 evaluation period in year 2650, just before the onset of the Southern Ocean deep
445 convection event.
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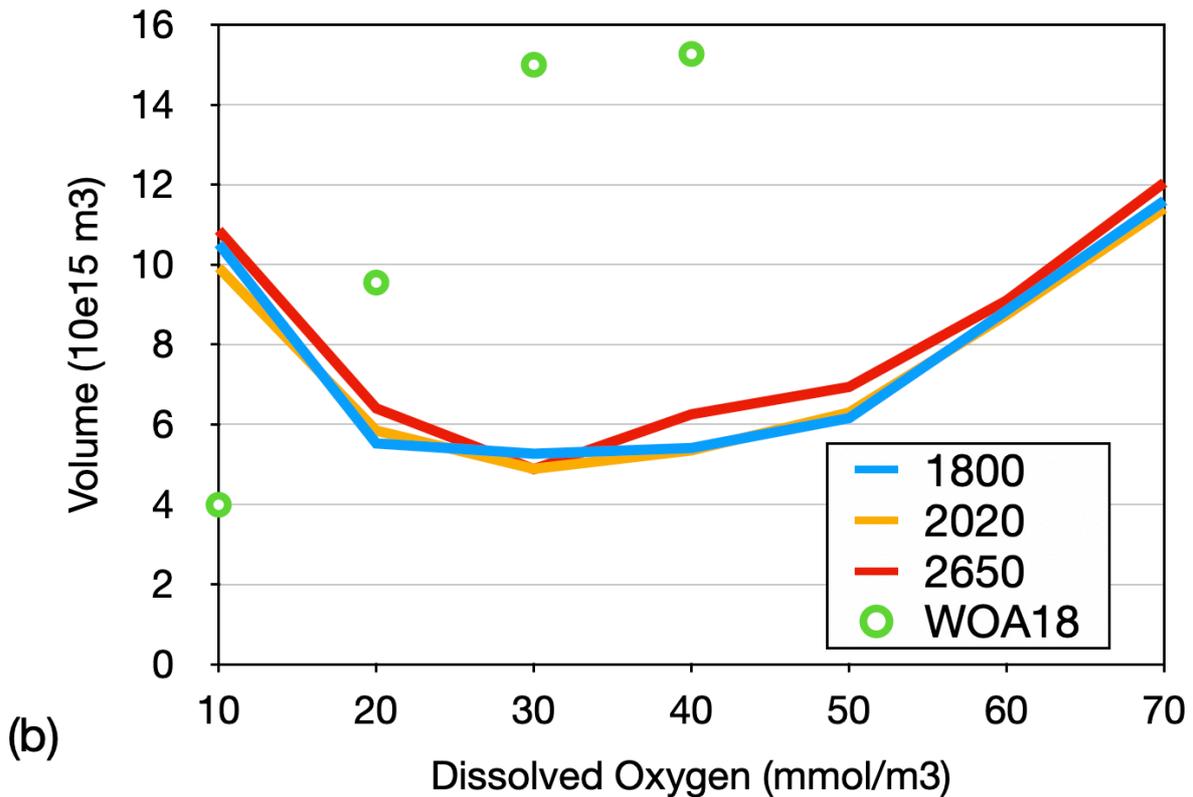
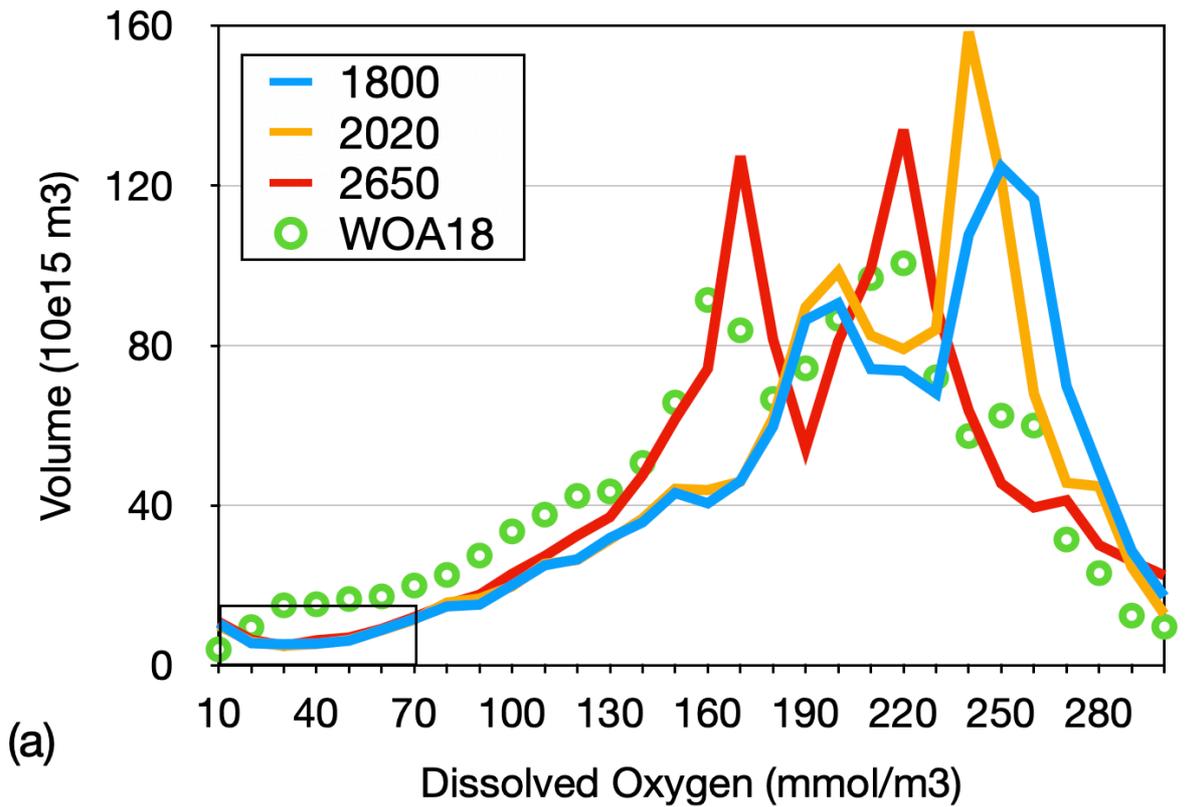
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Figure 2: Simulated change in temperature (left column) and oxygen (right column). (a,b) vertically averaged difference year 2020 minus 1800, (c,d) zonally averaged year 2020 minus year 1800, (e,f) vertically averaged difference year 2020 minus year 2650, and (g,h) zonally averaged difference year 2650 minus 2020. Contour lines indicate changes in the zonally averaged overturning stream function, with 2 Sv spacing of the iso-contours.

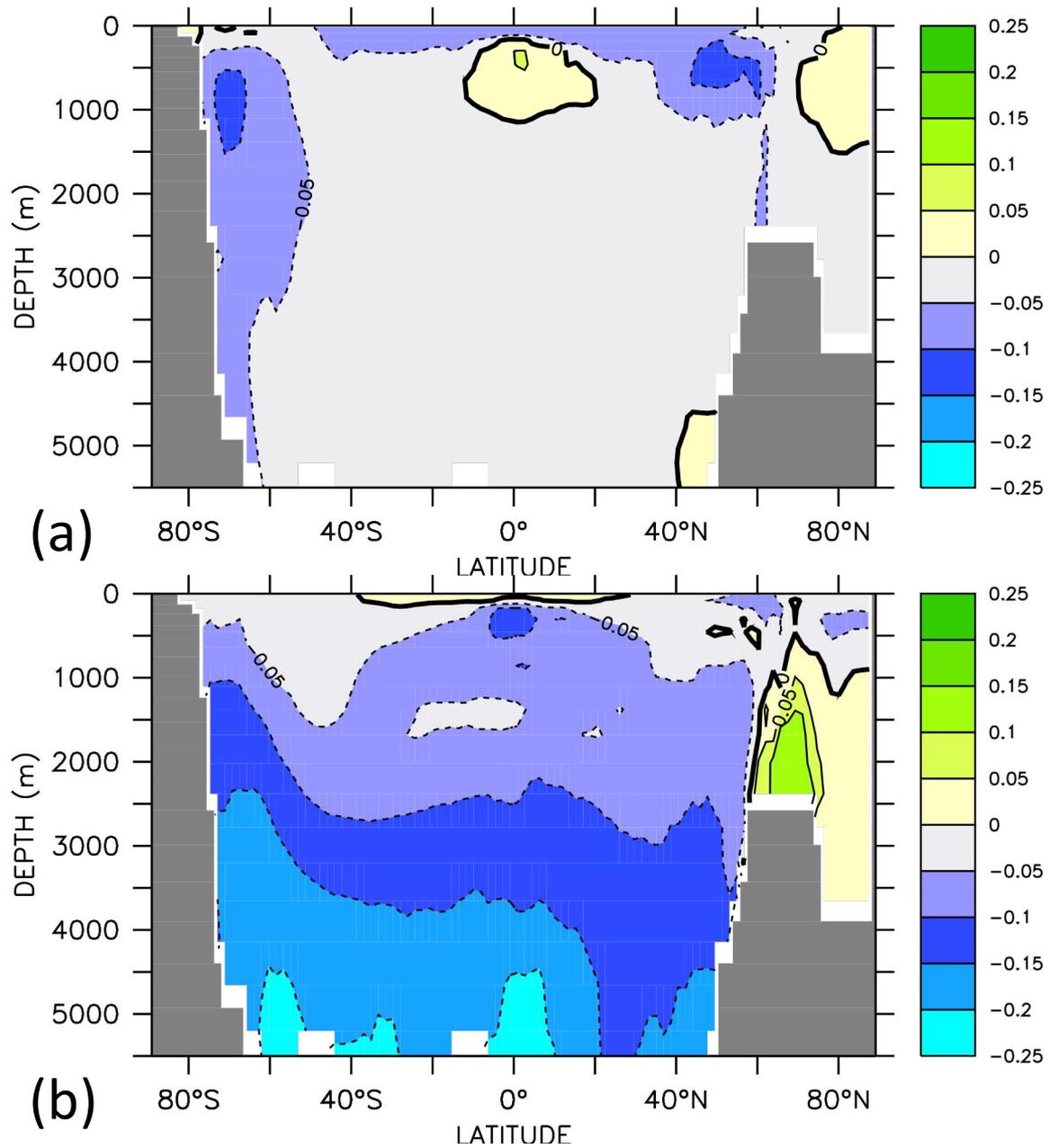


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455 Figure 3. Simulated water volume (10^{15} m^3) binned according to oxygen concentration

456 with bin width of 10 mmol m^{-3} . Blue refers to year 1800, orange to year 2020 and red to

457 year 2650. Circles refer to the data of the World Ocean Atlas 2018 (ref.24).

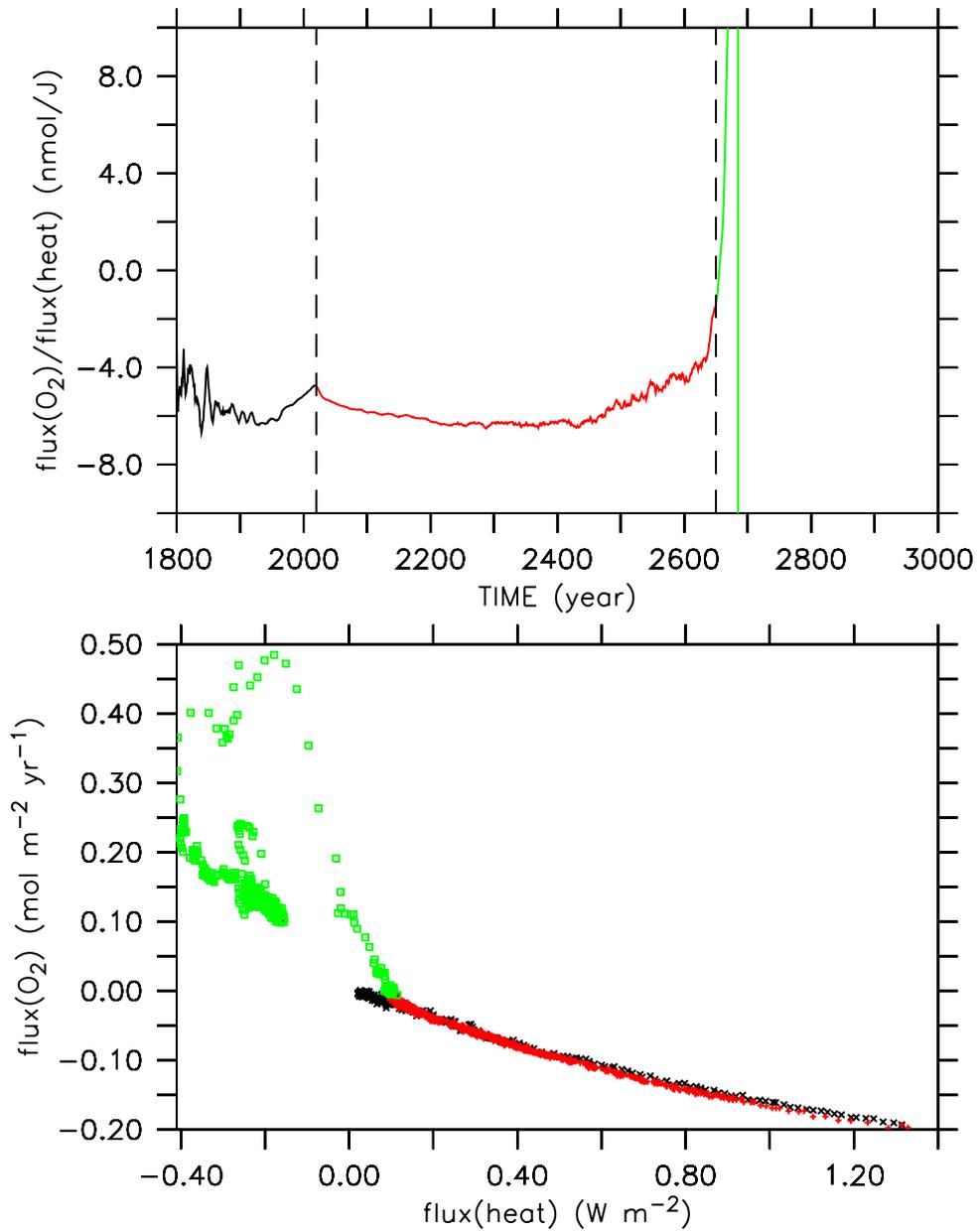


458

459 Figure 4. Zonally averaged relative changes in the metabolic index Φ (see text) for (a)

460 year 2020 with respect to year 1800, (b) year 2650 with respect to year 2020.

461 **Extended Data**



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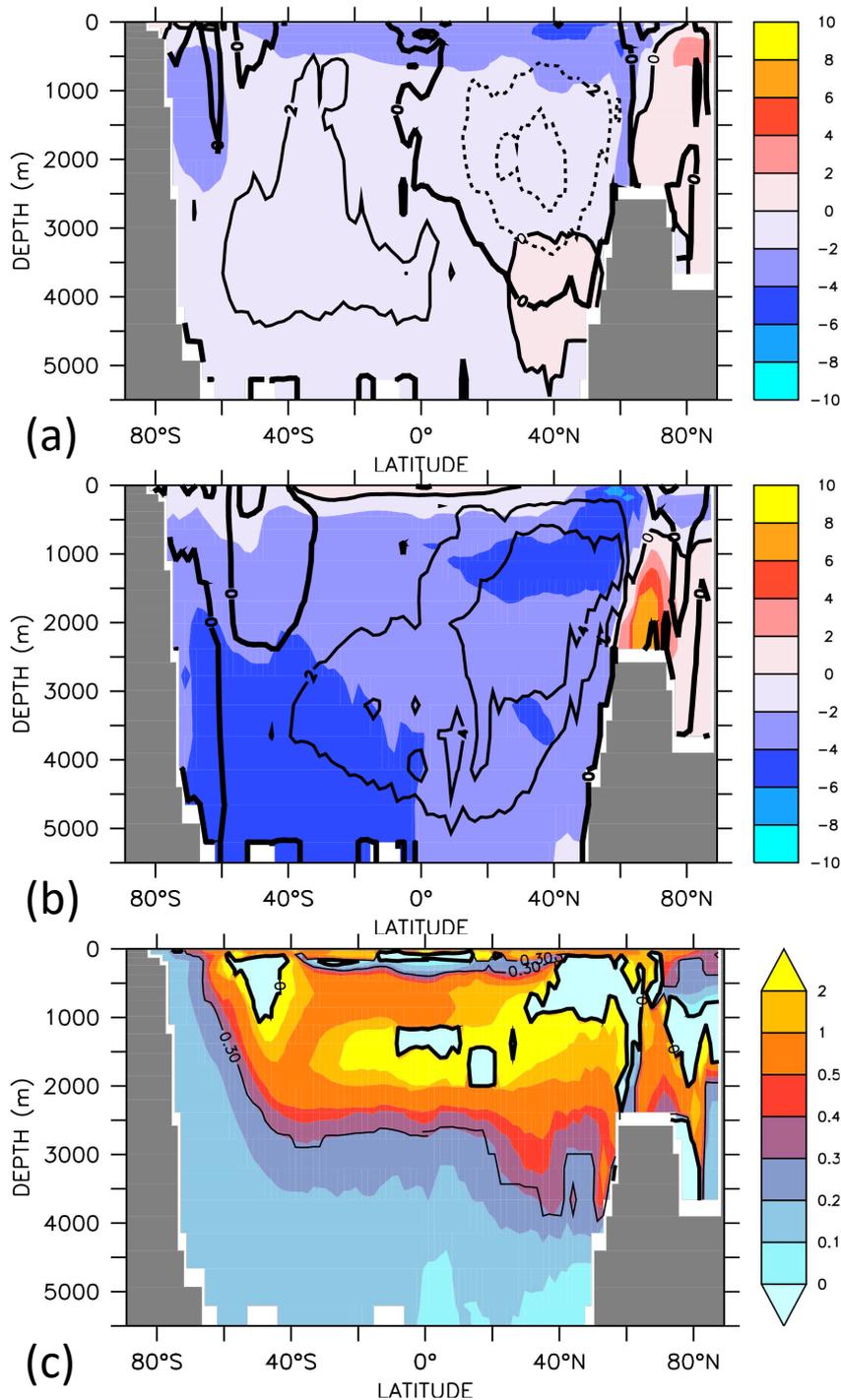
463 Figure S1: Top: Ratio of simulated annual-mean global air-sea fluxes of oxygen and heat,

464 with positive fluxes directed into the ocean. Color code refers to the periods 1800-2020

465 (black), 2021-2650 (red), and 2651-3000 (green). Bottom: Annual mean air-sea oxygen

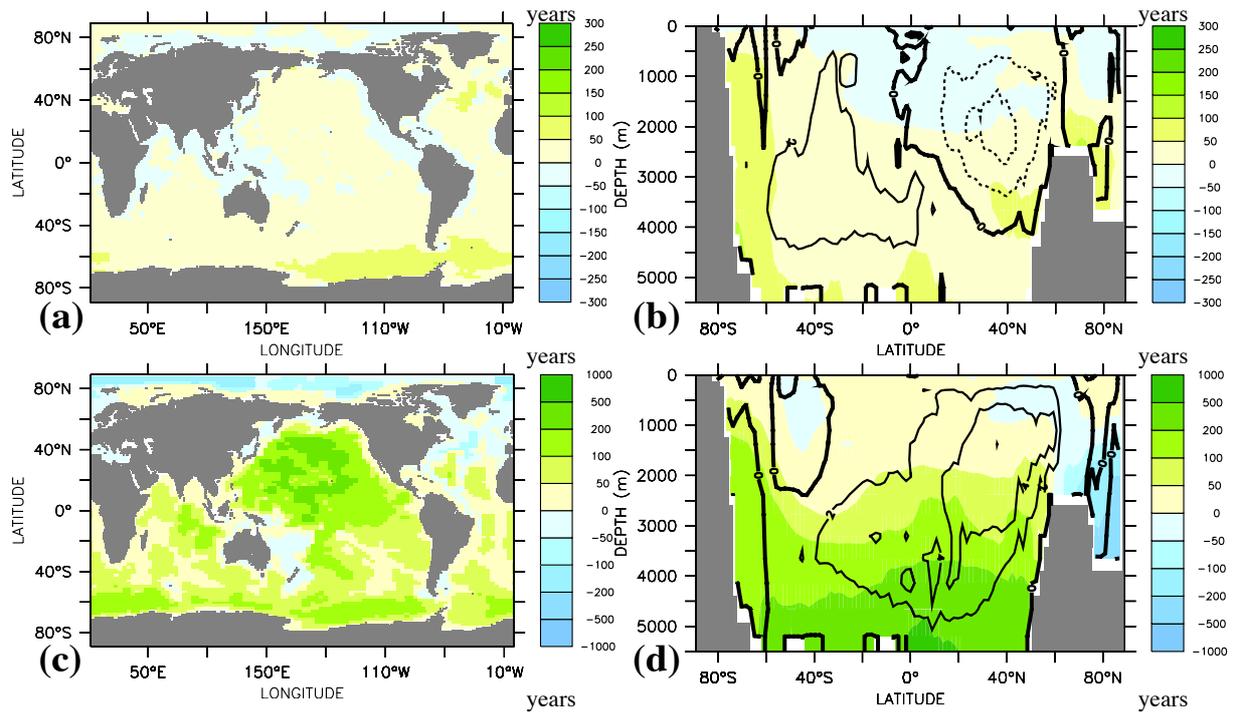
466 fluxes versus heat fluxes.

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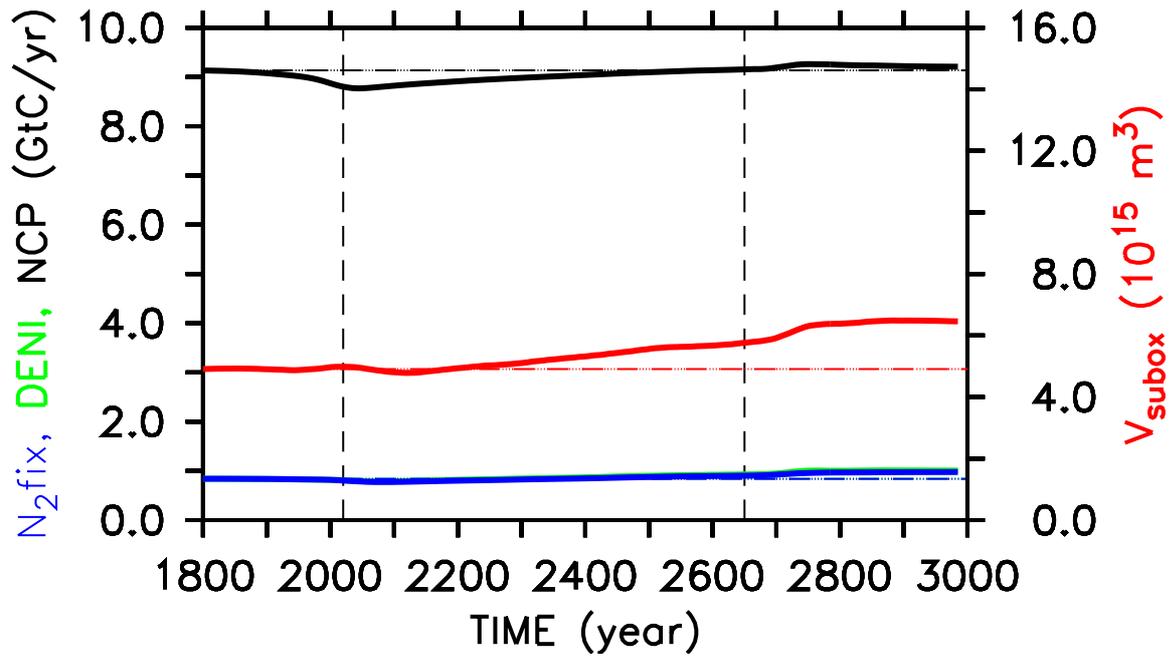
469 Figure S2. Zonally averaged change in the abiotic oxygen tracer (a) year 2020 minus
 470 year 1800, (b) year 2650 minus year 2020. Units are mmol/m^3 . Contours are changes in
 471 the overturning stream function (units Sv, with increments of 2 Sv) over the same time
 472 intervals. (c) Ratio of zonally averaged change in abiotic oxygen to zonally averaged
 473 change in oxygen (year 2650 minus year 2020). The 0.3 isoline indicates the global
 474 mean ratio.



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477 Figure S3: Changes in vertically and zonally averaged water age for (a, b) year 2020
 478 minus year 1800, (c, d) year 2650 minus year 2020. Contours in (b) and (d) are changes
 479 in the overturning stream function (units Sv, with increments of 2 Sv) over the same
 480 time intervals.

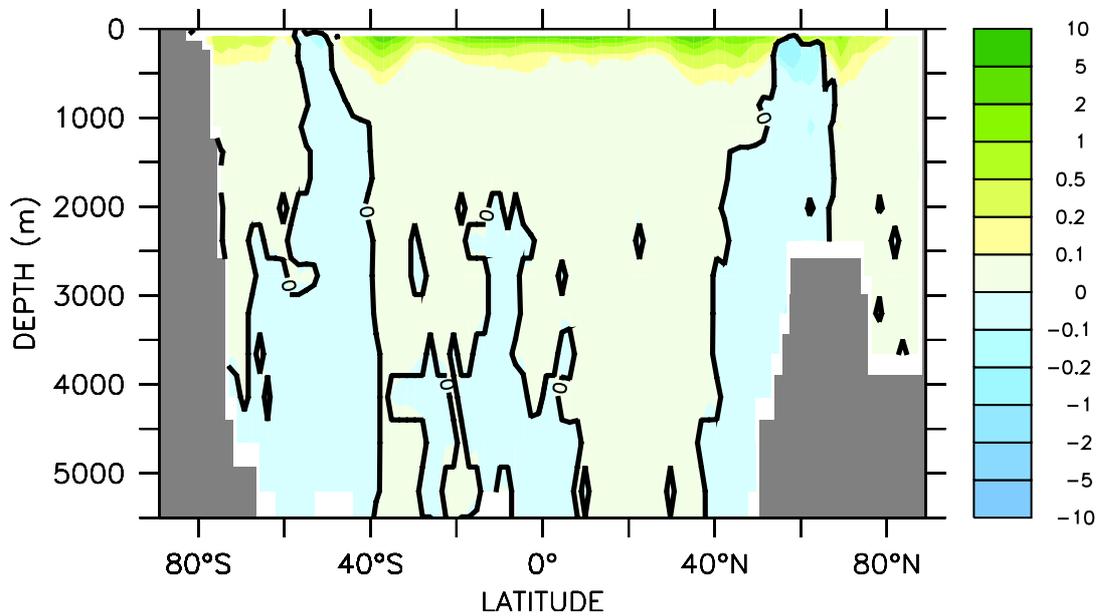
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483 Figure S4: Temporal evolution of globally integrated Net Community Production (NCP,
 484 black), denitrification (green), almost identical to nitrogen fixation (blue), and the
 485 volume of waters with oxygen concentrations lower than 5 mmol m^{-3} (red).

486



487

488 Figure S5: Zonally integrated difference in respiratory oxygen consumption, year 2650
 489 minus year 2020. Units are $\text{mmol O}_2 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ yr}^{-1}$.

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Figures

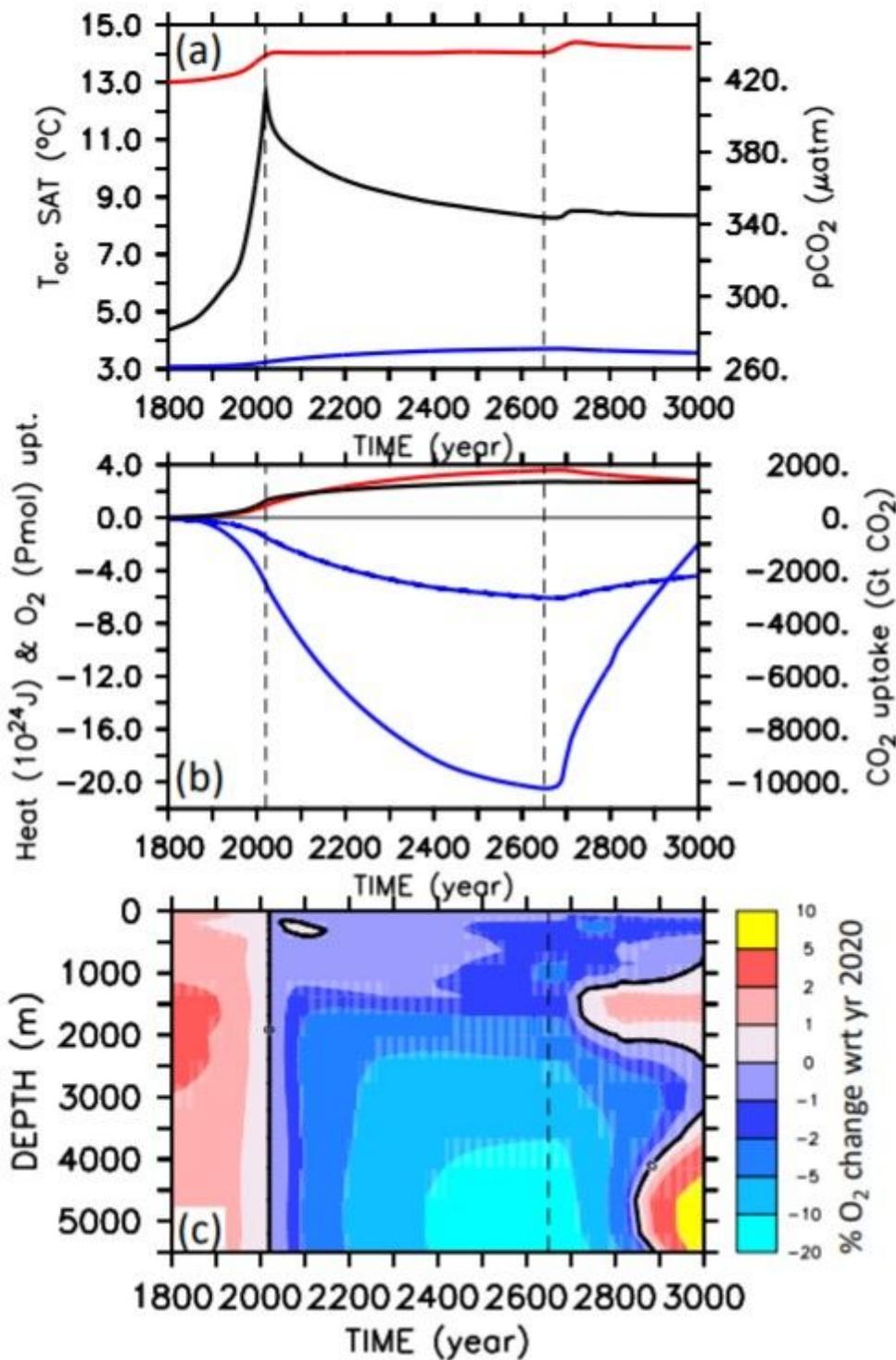


Figure 1

(a) Simulated global annual-mean surface air temperature (SAT, red), atmospheric pCO₂ (black) and ocean mean temperature (T_{oc}, blue). (b) Change in ocean inventory of heat (red), CO₂ uptake (black), dissolved oxygen (O₂, blue) and its abiotic (solubility) component (abiotO₂, dashed blue) with respect to year 1800.

% O₂ change wrt yr 2020 (c) Change in laterally integrated oxygen concentration as a function of depth over time, expressed in percent change relative to year 2020. Vertical dashed black lines mark then end of year 2020 when emissions stop and the end of the evaluation period in year 2650, just before the onset of the Southern Ocean deep convection event.

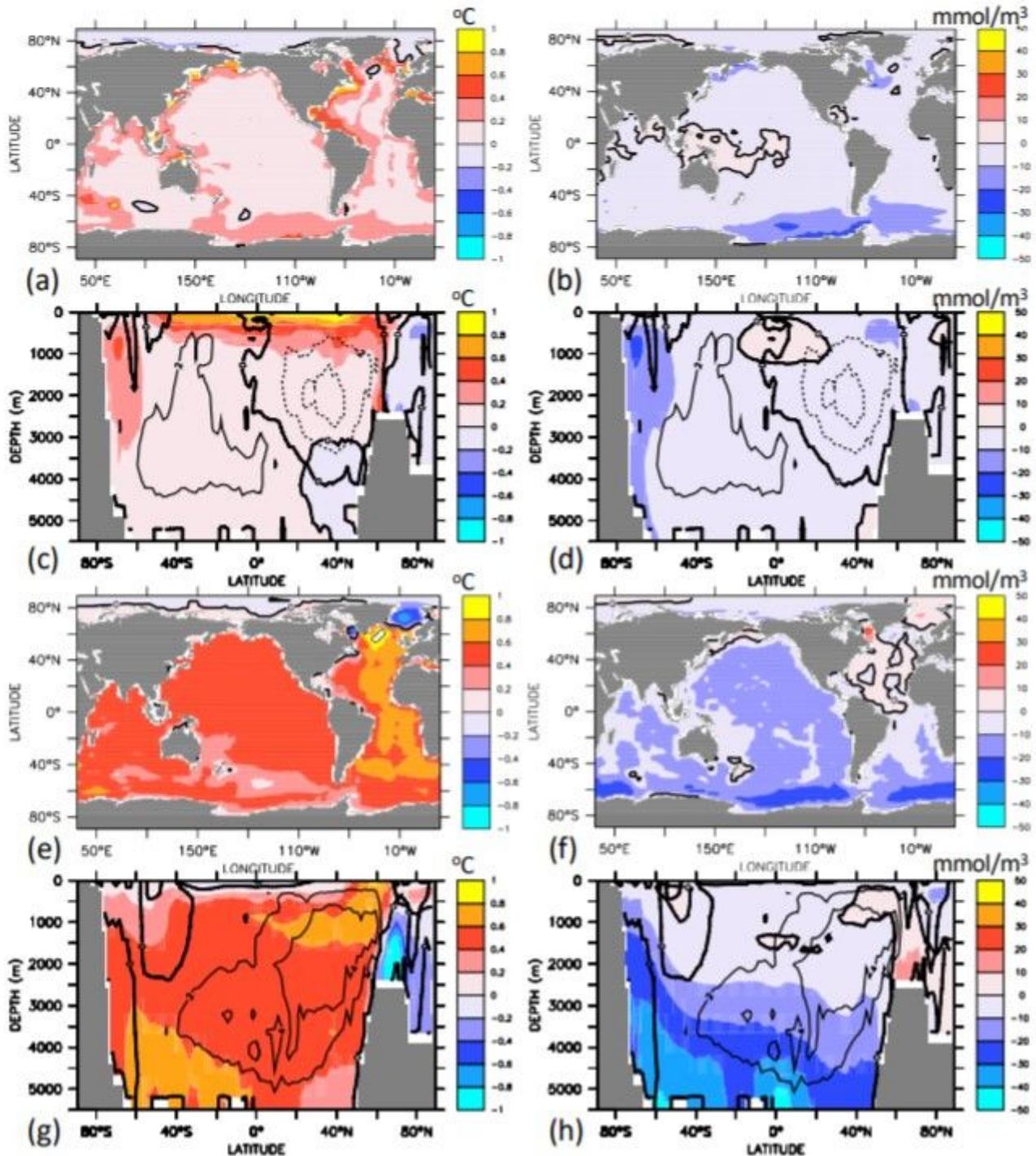


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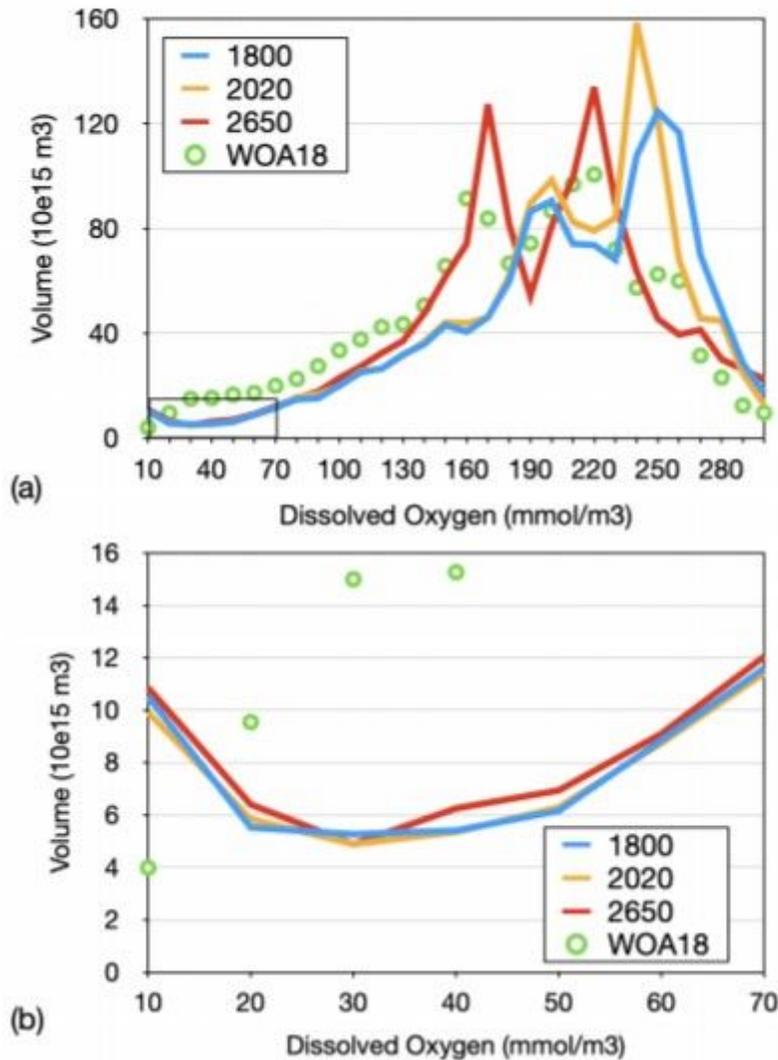


Figure 3

Simulated water volume (10^{15} m^3) binned according to oxygen concentration with bin width of 10 mmol m^{-3} . Blue refers to year 1800, orange to year 2020 and red to year 2650. Circles refer to the data of the World Ocean Atlas 2018 (ref.24)

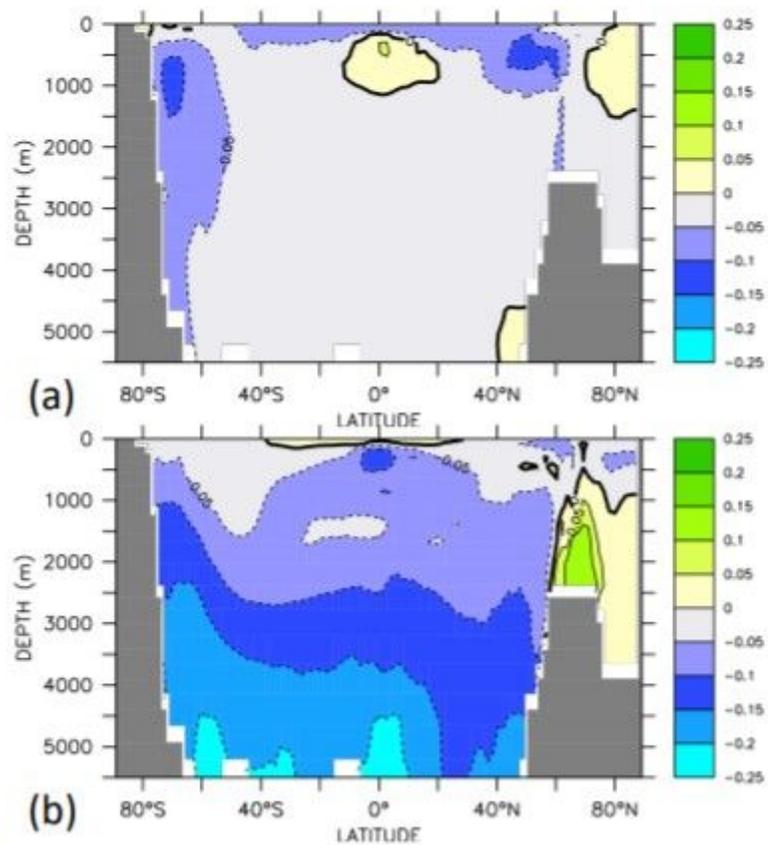


Figure 4

Zonally averaged relative changes in the metabolic index F (see text) for (a) year 2020 with respect to year 1800, (b) year 2650 with respect to year 2020.

Supplementary Files

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