

Chapter 4: Sea Level Rise and Implications for Low Lying Islands, Coasts and Communities Supplementary Material

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Table of Contents

SM4.1	Sea Level in the Geologic Past	2
SM4.1.1	<i>Mid-Pliocene Warm Period</i>	2
SM4.1.2	<i>Last Interglacial</i>	3
SM4.2	SROCC Extreme Water Level Data	5
SM4.2.1	<i>Mean Sea Level Projections</i>	5
SM4.2.2	<i>Amplification Factors</i>	5
SM4.3	Risks of Impact Assessment	6
SM4.3.1	<i>Overview of the Methodological Protocol</i>	6
SM4.3.2	<i>Metrics</i>	6
SM4.3.3	<i>Scenarios for the Future</i>	7
SM4.3.4	<i>Metrics Scoring According to Their Contribution to Risk, for the Present Day and in the Future</i>	9
SM4.3.5	<i>Aggregated Scores per Geography, Sea Level Rise Scenario and Adaptation Scenario</i>	10
SM4.3.6	<i>Case Study Examples</i>	11
SM4.3.7	<i>Final Results</i>	12
SM4.3.8	<i>Rationale for Scoring per Geography</i>	14
References		25

SM4.1 Sea Level in the Geologic Past

Here we provide additional background related to Section 4.2.2 on the recent advances and ongoing difficulties in relating changes in GMSL during the Mid Pliocene Warm Period (MPWP) and Last Interglacial (LIG) to global mean temperature and ice-sheet sensitivity.

SM4.1.1 Mid-Pliocene Warm Period

The mid-Pliocene Warm Period (mPWP) is far beyond the limit of ice cores, but various techniques have been developed to reconstruct Pliocene carbon dioxide (CO₂) concentrations from sediment archives. Geochemically based estimates published since AR5 (Badger et al., 2013; Martínez-Botí et al., 2015) range from 250 to 450 ppmv (parts per million by volume), with central estimates (300–400 ppmv) similar to or slightly lower than current levels. Consistency between different and independent geochemical techniques (stable carbon isotopes of algal alkenones (Zhang et al., 2013) and the boron isotopic composition of planktic foraminifera (Martínez-Botí et al., 2015) and inverse modelling techniques relating CO₂ changes to ocean temperature and ice volume (Stap et al., 2016), support the assessment of AR5 (Masson-Delmotte et al., 2013) that mPWP CO₂ concentrations were 300–450 ppmv. Some estimates based on the stomata of fossil leaves and needles (Hu et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2015) find evidence for values below 300 ppmv, but with considerable uncertainty. Despite these relatively modest CO₂ concentrations, mid-Pliocene global mean temperature peaked between 2°C to 4°C above pre-industrial (Haywood et al., 2016), in part due to the long timescales allowing the Earth system to approach equilibrium with the elevated radiative forcing. Seasonal temperatures and precipitation during the mPWP are deemed analogous to a RCP4.5 future climate state beyond 2040 (Burke et al., 2018). However, the strength of polar amplification during the mid-Pliocene and magnitude, timing, and duration of orbitally paced atmospheric and oceanic warming, important for evaluating the sensitivity of the Greenland and Antarctica ice sheets, remain uncertain (Haywood et al., 2016; Dolan et al., 2018).

Most sea-level estimates for the mPWP period are considerably higher than at present. A recent compilation by Dutton et al. (2015a) argues that GMSL was at least 6 m higher, but with few constraints on the maximum. AR5 (Masson-Delmotte et al., 2013) assessed the maximum to be 14 m, with *high confidence* that it did not exceed 20 m. Post depositional processes influencing paleo-shoreline reconstructions, including GIA (Raymo et al., 2011) and dynamic topography, the vertical movement of the Earth's surface in response to mantle dynamics, continue to produce considerable uncertainty in Pliocene sea-level reconstructions. GMSL <20 m higher than today appear the most consistent with data corrected for GIA and dynamic topography Rovere et al. (2014), however higher estimates exist. For example, a sea-level record based on a combination of geochemical data and a water-exchange/salinity model of the Mediterranean Sea (Rohling et al., 2014) supports several tens of meters of Pliocene sea-level variability and peak levels >30 m above present sea level. These values are similar to Miller et al. (2012) who reported GMSL 22 ± 5 m (*likely* range) higher than today, based on a combination of sedimentological water-depth estimates along continental margins, corrected for subsidence and loading, coral atolls, and the geochemistry of marine sediments including changes in the oxygen isotopic composition ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) of fossil foraminiferal calcite (a record of past ocean temperature and ice volume), and trace metal ratios (used to isolate the temperature component of the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ signal). Mid-to-late Pliocene sea level (Naish and Wilson, 2009), and Antarctic ice-sheet variability in particular, has been associated with 41-kyr orbital obliquity cycles (changes in the Earth's axial tilt that control the magnitude of seasonality) and ~20-kyr precession cycles (Naish et al., 2009; Patterson et al., 2014) that control the seasonal timing of perihelion. The partitioning of Pliocene sea-level changes driven by greenhouse gas forcing, orbital forcing, and internal climate system feedbacks is not exactly known (Stap et al., 2018), further complicating any direct comparisons between mid-Pliocene GMSL maxima, changing on orbital (multi-millennial) timescales, and near-term future changes.

Since AR5, updated oxygen isotope mass balance calculations comparing the isotopic composition of the modern and Pliocene ocean (Winnick and Caves, 2015), suggest Pliocene sea level was only ~9–13.5 m above modern with a relatively small 2–4.5 m contribution from East Antarctica in addition to West Antarctica and Greenland. However, the isotope approach relies on uncertain assumptions regarding the isotopic composition of Greenland and Antarctic ice sheets in the warmer Pliocene (Gasson et al., 2016), and the relative contribution of ice volume versus ocean temperature in the isotopic changes. Furthermore, the

technique relies on the average of multiple isotope records (Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005) with limited temporal resolution that might not represent the full range of Pliocene isotope and ice-volume variability. Additional complications come from isotope data themselves, because they could contain systematic “diagenetic” errors that could strongly bias relationships between isotope values and sea-level (Raymo et al., 2018). The apparent lack of an East Antarctic contribution to Pliocene sea level suggested by Winnick and Caves (2015) also contradicts more direct geological evidence from the Antarctic margin, recording cyclic retreat of the East Antarctic margin into the deep Wilkes subglacial basin (Cook et al., 2013; Patterson et al., 2014; Bertram et al., 2018). Subsequent work, using isotope-enabled climate and ice sheet models to constrain the isotope mass balance problem concluded that an Antarctic contribution to mid-Pliocene GMSL of 13 meters is consistent with the isotope records (Gasson et al., 2016). This higher GMSL estimate implies that up to ~10 m of sea level rise could have been contributed by East Antarctica, in better agreement with the emerging geological records from the East Antarctic margin (Cook et al., 2013; Patterson et al., 2014; Bertram et al., 2018).

Shakun et al. (2018) measured cosmogenic nuclide concentrations in Antarctic-proximal marine sediment cores and concluded that extensive East Antarctic subaerial land surfaces were not exposed during the Pliocene, implying that only marine-based ice was lost. Assuming all the marine-based ice in West Antarctica (equivalent to 3.3 m GMSL) (Bamber et al., 2009) and East Antarctica (~19.2 m) (Fretwell et al., 2013) was vulnerable to mid-Pliocene warmth, this places an upper bound on Antarctica’s potential contribution to sea level of ~22.5 meters, with the potential for another ~7.4 m of GMSL rise from Greenland (Morlighem et al., 2017). This sums to a total of about 30 meters, but only if Greenland and Antarctic ice sheets were retreated at the same time. Koenig et al. (2014) simulated the GIS response to Pliocene warmth and reduced Arctic sea ice and found near complete loss of the ice sheet, equivalent to 5.8 m GMSL rise, is possible. An ice-sheet modelling study including both the Greenland and Antarctic ice sheets de Boer et al. (2017b) yields a maximum combined ice-sheet contribution to Pliocene sea level of 13.3 m. Their results show that the ice sheets in Greenland and Antarctica responded out of phase as a consequence of precessional orbital forcing (Raymo et al., 2006). The anti-phasing of Northern versus Southern Hemispheric ice sheets (de Boer et al., 2017a) is an important emerging issue, because the expansion of ice in one hemisphere during a mid-Pliocene sea level high stand would consequently require a larger sea-level contribution from the other hemisphere than indicated by the rise in GMSL. Orbital anti-phasing of ice volume on Antarctica and Greenland also reduces the maximum potential GMSL rise. For example, assuming the GIS was comparable to its modern state while marine-based in Antarctica was fully retreated would result in <25 m of GMSL rise.

Recent ice sheet modelling studies of mid-Pliocene ice loss on Antarctica (Austermann et al., 2015; Yamane et al., 2015; DeConto and Pollard, 2016) range widely, between 5.4 and 17.8 m sea-level equivalent. A model intercomparison study (de Boer et al., 2015) indicates that the largest uncertainty in modelling the mPWP is related to the mass balance forcing of Antarctic ice sheet models. Subsequently, an ice sheet model including new, but uncertain parameterizations of glaciological processes, including the influence of surface meltwater on crevasse penetration and ice shelf collapse, and calving of marine-terminating ice cliffs (MICI; see Cross-Chapter Box 8 in Chapter 3) demonstrates the potential for considerable Pliocene ice loss in East Antarctica, in addition to West Antarctica (Pollard et al., 2015; DeConto and Pollard, 2016). Golledge et al. (2017) demonstrated that ocean melt at grounding lines is capable of causing Pliocene ice retreat in East Antarctic basins. In this case, the model uses a sub-grid melt scheme that applies melt under partially grounded grid cells. This numerical treatment increases the model’s sensitivity to ocean forcing, although the validity of the approach remains uncertain (Yu et al., 2017; Seroussi and Morlighem, 2018). Antarctic bedrock underlying the ice sheet has probably evolved since the Pliocene (Aitken et al., 2016; Colleoni et al., 2018), contributing additional uncertainty to the paleo ice-sheet simulations, but this has yet to be fully explored with ice sheet models. Given the ongoing uncertainties in mid-Pliocene sea-level reconstructions, the wide range of ice sheet model results, and unknown partitioning of greenhouse gas versus orbital forcing of ice sheet loss, we have *low confidence* in mPWP sea-level as a guide for future sea-level or for quantitative validation of ice sheet models.

SM4.1.2 Last Interglacial

Global mean temperatures during the LIG were not as warm as the mPWP and only slightly warmer (+0.5–1.0 °C) than preindustrial (Capron et al., 2014; Dutton et al., 2015a; Fischer et al., 2018). Sea surface

temperatures were comparable to today (Hoffman et al., 2017). Despite the minimal warmth relative to today's climate, GMSL was considerably higher (Kopp et al., 2009). Climate models indicate a small (0.35–0.4 m) contribution to GMSL from ocean thermal expansion during the LIG (McKay et al., 2011; Goelzer et al., 2016), implicating land ice as the dominant source of the elevated sea levels. Dutton et al. (2015a) present an updated review of Eemian sea level based on geological indicators, indicating that global mean sea level was 6 to 9 m higher than today. This is in line with an earlier probabilistic estimate of Kopp et al. (2009), based on a global compilation of GMSL data. Considerable uncertainty remains however, as demonstrated by Düsterhus et al. (2016), who applied data assimilation techniques including GIA corrections to the same LIG dataset used by Kopp et al. (2009). They found good agreement (7.5 ± 1.1 m *likely* range) with Kopp et al. (2009) and Dutton et al. (2015a), but only when certain statistical assumptions and model inputs were used. Estimates of peak LIG sea level were found to be especially sensitive to the assumed ice history before and after the LIG, as found in other studies (Lambeck et al., 2012; Dendy et al., 2017). One plausible ice history used by Düsterhus et al. (2016) increased their central estimate to 14.7 m. Austermann et al. (2017) compared a compilation of last interglacial (LIG) shoreline indicators with dynamic topography simulations. They found that vertical surface motions driven by mantle convection can produce several meters of uncertainty in LIG sea level estimates, but their mean and most probable estimates of 6.7 m and 6.4 m are broadly in line with other previous estimates.

The relative contributions to peak GMSL from the loss of Greenland versus Antarctic ice remains difficult to quantify from geological indicators. Kopp et al. (2009) argue for two highstands within the LIG with the first peak attributable to Antarctica; however, the shape of the LIG sea-level curve continues to be contested (Rovere et al., 2016). Some field sites exhibit evidence of multiple peaks in sea level, including multiple generations of reef growth in the Seychelles, the Yucatan peninsula, and the Bahamas among other sites (Blanchon et al., 2009; Vyverberg et al., 2018), but debate remains over the interpretation of this evidence. Barlow et al. (2018) argue that a sea level oscillation of >4 m is not plausible, but they do not rule out the possibility of smaller, meter-scale oscillations with the LIG. The role of Greenland versus Antarctica ice sheet in this variability is not known with sufficient certainty to allow an assessment.

Atmospheric modelling results remain too inconsistent to provide definitive guidance on Greenland climate during the LIG. Surface mass balance varies strongly among atmospheric models with different resolutions and surface mass balance schemes (Plach et al., 2018), and different mass balance forcings produce very different spatial patterns of GIS retreat (Colleoni et al., 2014). Proxy climate reconstructions and the magnitude of LIG summer warming over the GIS also continue to be contested (Goelzer et al., 2016). Ice cores in north-central Greenland and lake archives in northwest Greenland indicate summer temperatures >6°C warmer than preindustrial (Landais et al., 2016; Yau et al., 2016; McFarlin et al., 2018), but this large increase in summer temperature is compatible with limited ice retreat in ice sheet models (Dahl-Jensen et al., 2013; Landais et al., 2016; Yau et al., 2016), or ice cores and internal ice layer imaging by radar (Dahl-Jensen et al., 2013) indicating the persistent presence of an extensive GIS through the LIG. This suggests the GIS was either insensitive to LIG temperature changes, temperatures inferred from ice core oxygen isotope records are overestimated, or they were short lived. Bierman et al. (2016) used cosmogenic ^{10}Be and ^{26}Al of marine sediments to argue that large ice caps have persisted in east Greenland during the last 7.5 Myr. Data from ^{10}Be and ^{26}Al measurements of sediments below the ice suggest extensive, episodic ice-free conditions in Greenland's interior (Schaefer et al., 2016), but the duration and frequency of such events are unknown. Whether these geological findings are compatible depends on the extent and thickness of the LIG ice sheet.

Simulations with coupled climate-ice sheet models of Greenland indicate a GIS contribution to LIG sea-level rise of only up to 50 mm SLC per century (Helsen et al., 2013), a total contribution to LIG sea level of as little as 0.75 m (Quiquet et al., 2013), and probably not more than 2.5 m (Helsen et al., 2013; Stone et al., 2013; Colleoni et al., 2014). In contrast, the modelling study of (Yau et al., 2016) yields a higher central estimate of 5.1 m, but with a poor fit between simulated and observed climate and surface elevation at Greenland ice core locations. While the modelling studies simulate a large range of maximum GIS retreat, they consistently indicate very little retreat early in the LIG and peak ice loss late in the interglacial around 123–122 ka (Helsen et al., 2013; Quiquet et al., 2013; Goelzer et al., 2016; Yau et al., 2016). This implies that Antarctica was the dominant contributor to the early LIG highstand that began around 129 (Dutton et al., 2015b), in agreement with Kopp et al. (2009), and recent ice modelling studies (DeConto and Pollard, 2016; Goelzer et al., 2016).

Antarctic ice cores and proxy sea-surface temperature records in the Southern Ocean indicate $<2^{\circ}\text{C}$ warming in the early interglacial (Capron et al., 2014). If Antarctica was the dominant source of GMSL rise early in the LIG, this would indicate a highly sensitive Antarctic ice sheet to relatively modest climate forcing. Subsurface ocean warming and sub-ice melt rates could have played an important role in marine-based ice loss in Antarctica (Fogwill et al., 2014; Sutter et al., 2016), but their evolution through the LIG remain virtually unknown. Additional uncertainty is driven by the lack of direct evidence of WAIS retreat, and increasing recognition that maximum ice retreat in Greenland and Antarctica, was controlled in part by Interhemispheric differences in the strength of polar amplification (Stap et al., 2018) and time-evolving changes in Earth's orbit over the course of the LIG, were not synchronous (Goelzer et al., 2016; de Boer et al., 2017a). Given these ongoing uncertainties in the relative contributions of the Greenland versus Antarctic Ice Sheet to GMSL as the LIG evolved, and poor constraints on local atmospheric temperatures and ice-proximal ocean conditions, an assessment of each ice sheet's sensitivity to a given climate forcing cannot be made.

GMSL high-stands during past warm periods have been used to calibrate ice sheet model physical parameters, with the models subsequently applied to future climate scenarios (DeConto and Pollard, 2016). However, relatively small differences in the assumed paleo GMSL estimates can have a large impact on the future projections (Kopp et al., 2017; Edwards et al., 2019). Furthermore, the paleoclimate forcing applied to the ice sheet models is itself highly uncertain. In sum, we have *low confidence* in the utility of mPWP and LIG GMSL as direct guides on future sea-level or their validation of ice sheet models.

SM4.2 SROCC Extreme Water Level Data

These files contain the underlying data for the SROCC extreme water level data (Chapter 4, Figures 4.10, 4.11 and 4.12)

SM4.2.1 Mean Sea Level Projections

The six `scn_xx_xxxx.nc` files contain the mean sea level (MSL) projections presented in Figure 4.10. The first number in each filename denotes the RCP scenario (`scn_26_xxxx.nc=RCP2.6` etc.), and the second number denotes the time frame (`scn_xx_2050.nc` is 2046-2065 and `scn_xx_2100.nc` is 2081-2100). The files are in netCDF format, which can be opened with matlab, python (netCDF\$ package), GMT, and ncview. Each file contains four variables:

x: longitude (degrees)

y: latitude (degrees)

mean: mean sea level change relative to 1986-2005 (in meters)

sterr: standard error of the MSL projection (in meters)

SM4.2.2 Amplification Factors

The file 'station_projections.xlsx' contains the projected changes in the amplification factors as presented in Figure 4.12. Each scenario and time frame has its own worksheet in the excel file. The worksheet each contain the following columns:

Name: station name from the GESLA2 database

Longitude: the longitude of the station

Latitude: the latitude of the station

MSL change (mean): Projected MSL change at the station's location in meters

MSL change (standard error): Associated standard error of the projected MSL change at the station location in meters

AF (5th pct): 5th percentile amplification factor of the present-day 100-year event.

AF (50th pct): 50th percentile (or median) amplification factor of the present-day 100-year event.

AF (95th pct): 95th percentile amplification factor of the present-day 100-year event.

The last worksheet named "GPD parameters" contains the parameters for the GPD fit underlying the fits presented in Figure 4.11.

Name: station name from the GESLA2 database

Longitude: the longitude of the station
 Latitude: the latitude of the station
 Location parameter: location parameter of the GPD fit
 Scale (5th pct): 5th percentile scale parameter
 Scale (50th pct): 50th percentile (or median) scale parameter
 Scale (95th pct): 95th percentile scale parameter
 Shape (5th pct): 5th percentile shape parameter
 Shape (50th pct): 50th percentile (or median) shape parameter
 Shape (95th pct): 95th percentile shape parameter

SM4.3 Risks of Impact Assessment

SM4.3.1 Overview of the Methodological Protocol

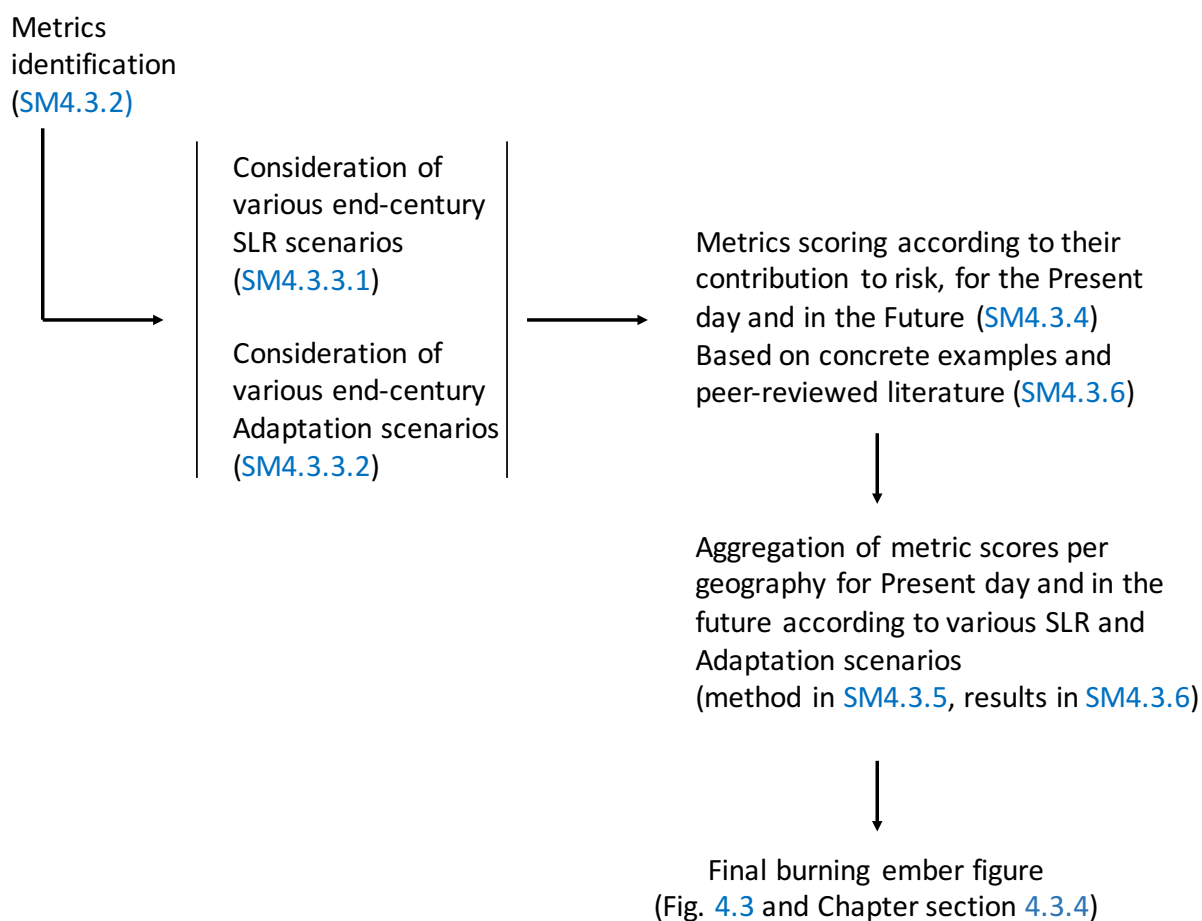


Figure SM4.1: The general approach for building geography-centred burning embers.

SM4.3.2 Metrics

Table SM4.1 below provides a synthesis of the metrics used to assess both observed impacts (Present day) and projected risks (end-century). These metrics are proxies reflecting some developments in the chapter, i.e. damages to people, the built environment and land due to coastal flooding and erosion (Sections 4.3.3.2, 4.3.3.3); impacts of water resources salinization (Section 4.3.3.4); and threats to ecosystems and ecosystem services (Section 4.3.3.5) and to human activities (4.3.3.6). More specifically, and in line with the IPCC risk framework (Cross-Chapter Box 1 in Chapter 1) that considers risk at the crossroads of Hazards, Exposure and Vulnerability:

- Exposure and Vulnerability drivers are reflected by the density of assets (M1) and the degree of degradation of natural buffer ecosystems (M2);
- Hazards are reflected by the importance of coastal flooding (M3), coastal erosion (M4) and salinization (M5).
- Adaptation is reflected by hard and nature-based coastal protection (M6 and M7, respectively), retreat measures (M8) and measures to limit subsidence (M9).

Table SM4.1: Metrics used to assess risk and adaptation measures.

Metrics
<p>M1. Density of assets (population, buildings, infrastructure)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <u>Justification</u>: Section 4.3.2.2, Cross-Chapter Box 9 • <u>Scenario considered</u> for the 21st century: relatively stable density levels over the century (one scenario among others). The potential for decrease in assets density is considered through M8.
<p>M2. Level of degradation of marine and terrestrial natural buffers</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <u>Justification</u>: Sections 4.3.2.3 and 4.3.3.5. Natural buffers considered here are marine (coral reefs, mangroves, wetlands, sea ice; Section 4.3.3.5, 5.3) and terrestrial (beaches, dune systems, vegetation; Sections 4.3.3.3, 5.3.3) • <u>Scenario considered</u> for the 21st century: continued degradation at the same pace than recent trends.
<p>M3. Relative extend of coastal flooding</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <u>Justification</u>: Section 4.3.3.2
<p>M4. Degree of coastal erosion (beaches and/dune systems) or permafrost thaw</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <u>Justification</u>: Section 4.3.3.3, Cross-Chapter Box 9
<p>M5. Degree of salinisation of groundwater lenses, soils and surface waters</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <u>Justification</u>: Section 4.3.3.4. Water resources considered here are not only for freshwater consumption, but also for agriculture, so that the impact of salinisation on aquifers have consequences on the whole resource system. Yet, sea level rise is one of the two main controlling natural factors of aquifers volume and quality, together with precipitations; and even a low rise in sea level can have substantial effects on aquifers, especially in atoll island contexts.
<p>M6. Implementation level of adequately calibrated hard engineered coastal defences</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <u>Justification</u>: Section 4.4.2.2
<p>M7. Implementation level of restoration of degraded ecosystems, or creation of new natural buffers areas</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <u>Justification</u>: Sections 4.4.2.2 and 4.4.2.3
<p>M8. Implementation level of coastal retreat</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <u>Justification</u>: Section 4.4.2.6, Cross-Chapter Box 9. The assessment takes into consideration the specific physical constrains of each archetypal geography. In particular, while megacities and deltas have a hinterland for relocation within the territorial system, land scarcity in atoll islands implies that relocation can take place within the island if needs for relocation are moderate, but should be either in another neighbouring island or in artificially raised islands in the case of higher relocation levels. In addition, this metric refers to planned retreat aiming at reducing the exposure of people, assets and infrastructure, and not to spontaneous retreat by individuals or small communities.
<p>M9. Limit subsidence</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <u>Justification</u>: Sections 4.4.2.2, 4.4.2.5

The approach consists of assessing the potential contribution of each of these metrics to risk reduction or increase (SM4.3.4) by the end of the century, and according to various SLR and Adaptation scenarios (SM4.3.3). This assessment is based on a semi-qualitative expert judgment informed by peer-reviewed literature on real-world case studies.

SM4.3.3 Scenarios for the Future

SM4.3.3.1 Three Sea Level Rise Scenarios

In line with the specific scope of Chapter 4 (i.e., « Sea Level Rise and Implications for Low Lying Islands, Coasts and Communities »), this assessment focusses on the additional risks due to SLR trends and does not

account for changes in extreme event climatology (waves, cyclones, etc.; Sections 4.2.3.4.1 to 4.2.3.4.3, 6.3.1.1 to 6.3.1.3). This would imply much larger risk than assessed here as, for example, this chapter however shows that events that are rare today will become more frequent in the future.

Risk transitions are located using end-century Global Mean Sea Level (GMSL) rise (thereafter, SLR, in 2100) relative to Present day (1986–2005), and the approximate nature of these transitions was signalled in part by using the following values: +43cm for mean SROCC RCP2.6 (range 0.29–0.59m); +84cm for mean SROCC RCP8.5 (range 0.61–1.10m), and +110cm for the SROCC RCP8.5 upper end of the *likely* range. See the main text for details (Table 4.3, Section 4.2.3.2).

In this exercise, GMSL serves as a representation of different possible climate change scenarios (see Panel A in Figure 4.3, Section 4.1.2). The assessment of additional risks due to SLR on specific geographies is developed not against GMSL, but against various levels of end-century relative sea level rise (RSL) in order to allow a geographically accurate approach (Panel B, Fig. 4.3). Accordingly, RSL is considered for each of the real-world case studies used for assessing risk to archetypal geographies (SM4.3.6; Table SM4.2; see coloured blocs in Panel B of Figures 4.3 and SM4.3.4), as well as in average per archetypal geographies (Table SM4.2, see coloured dotted lines in Panel B of Figures 4.3 and SM4.3.4).

Table SM4.2: Relative sea level rise by 2100 at the real-world case studies (*italics*) and per archetypal geographies.

Location		SROCC RCP2.6	SROCC RCP8.5		GIA
		Median	Median	Upper end (>95%)	
Megacities	<i>New York</i>	<i>0.55</i>	<i>1.02</i>	<i>1.53</i>	<i>0.09</i>
	<i>Rotterdam</i>	<i>0.39</i>	<i>0.82</i>	<i>1.23</i>	<i>0</i>
	<i>Shanghai</i>	<i>0.42</i>	<i>0.84</i>	<i>1.29</i>	<i>-0.03</i>
	Mean	0.45	0.89	1.35	/
Urban atoll islands	<i>South Tarawa</i>	<i>0.49</i>	<i>0.92</i>	<i>1.32</i>	<i>-0.02</i>
	<i>Funafuti</i>	<i>0.49</i>	<i>0.91</i>	<i>1.33</i>	<i>-0.01</i>
	<i>Male'</i>	<i>0.46</i>	<i>0.92</i>	<i>1.32</i>	<i>-0.01</i>
	Mean	0.48	0.92	1.32	/
Large tropical agricultural deltas	<i>Mekong</i>	<i>0.43</i>	<i>0.84</i>	<i>1.23</i>	<i>-0.04</i>
	<i>Ganges-Brahmaputra</i>	<i>0.33</i>	<i>0.74</i>	<i>1.08</i>	<i>-0.04</i>
	Mean	0.38	0.79	1.16	/
Arctic coastal communities <i>(remote from regions of rapid glacial-isostatic adjustment)</i>	<i>Bykovskiy</i>	<i>0.34</i>	<i>0.79</i>	<i>1.17</i>	<i>-0.01</i>
	<i>Shismaref</i>	<i>0.40</i>	<i>0.81</i>	<i>1.13</i>	<i>0.07</i>
	<i>Kivalina</i>	<i>0.37</i>	<i>0.77</i>	<i>1.10</i>	<i>0.06</i>
	<i>Tuktoyaktuk</i>	<i>0.39</i>	<i>0.77</i>	<i>1.09</i>	<i>0.18</i>
	<i>Shingle Point</i>	<i>0.40</i>	<i>0.76</i>	<i>1.10</i>	<i>0.17</i>
	Mean	0.38	0.78	1.12	/

N.B.: RSL includes vertical land movements, both uplift (e.g. due to tectonics) and subsidence. The causes of subsidence are both natural (e.g., tectonics, glacio-isostatic adjustment (GIA), sediment compaction) and human-induced (e.g., oil/gas/water extraction, mining activities). All of these causes are captured in RSL observations, but not in SROCC RSL projections that only include GIA and the regional gravitational, rotational and deformational responses (Section 4.2.3.4.1) to ice mass loss. Anthropogenic subsidence especially is not included in the SROCC RSL projections (Section 4.2.3.4.1): although acknowledged to be important at many locations, especially in deltas and megacities, it is challenging to project to the end of the century due to the influence of human interventions (important factor in the locations considered in this assessment). As a result, SROCC RSL projections only include the GIA component, the mass loss of glaciers and ice sheets, and oceans, including their spatial patterns.

SM4.3.3.2 Two Adaptation Scenarios

Two adaptation scenarios are considered:

(A) “No-to-moderate adaptation” (see Panel B in Figure 4.3) represents a business-as-usual scenario where no major additional adaptation efforts compared to today are implemented. That is, neither substantial intensification of current actions nor new types of actions, e.g., only moderate raising of existing protections in high-density areas or sporadic episodes of coastal retreat or beach nourishment where largescale efforts are not already underway.

(B) “High adaptation” represents the opposite situation, i.e. an ambitious combination of both incremental and transformational adaptation that leads to significant additional efforts compared to today. Examples of measures are: relocation of entire districts in a megacity, or creation/restoration of beach-dune systems at a significant scale. Here, we assume adaptation implemented at its full potential, i.e., the extent of adaptation that is technologically possible, with little financial, social and political barriers.

Table SM4.3 below summarizes the assessment framework (and based on SM4.3.2 an SM4.3.3), where **Red** refers to sea-level rise scenarios and **Green** refers to adaptation scenarios.

Table SM4.3: The assessment framework (metrics, SLR scenarios, Adaptation scenarios).

Sea level rise by 2100 (compared to the Present day, 1986-2005)	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	M6	M7	M8	M9	Aggregated risk level
	Density of assets	Ecosystem degradation	Coastal flooding	Coastal erosion	Salinisation	Hard defences	Ecosystem restoration	Retreat	Limit subsidence	
Present day	score	score	score	score	score	score	score	score	score	score
+43cm by end-century (A)	score	score	score	score	score	score	score	score	score	score
+43cm by end-century (B)	score	score	score	score	score	score	score	score	score	score
+84cm by end-century (A)	score	score	score	score	score	score	score	score	score	score
+84cm by end-century (B)	score	score	score	score	score	score	score	score	score	score
+110cm by end-century (A)	score	score	score	score	score	score	score	score	score	score
+110cm by end-century (B)	score	score	score	score	score	score	score	score	score	score

SM4.3.4 Metrics Scoring According to Their Contribution to Risk, for the Present Day and in the Future

SM4.3.4.1 Scoring Risk for the Present Day

Coastal risk gradient ranges from Undetectable to Very High (Panel A in Figure SM4.2 below). When including transitions, 7 levels are reported (Undetectable, Undetectable to Moderate, Moderate, Moderate to High, High, High to Very High, Very High) that describe a scoring scale going from 0 to +6, as shown in Panel B in Figure SM4.2. Based on the above-mentioned semi-qualitative expert judgment, a score is attributed to each metric to reflect its contribution to current coastal risk. Positive and negative scores describe contributions to increasing or decreasing risk, respectively.

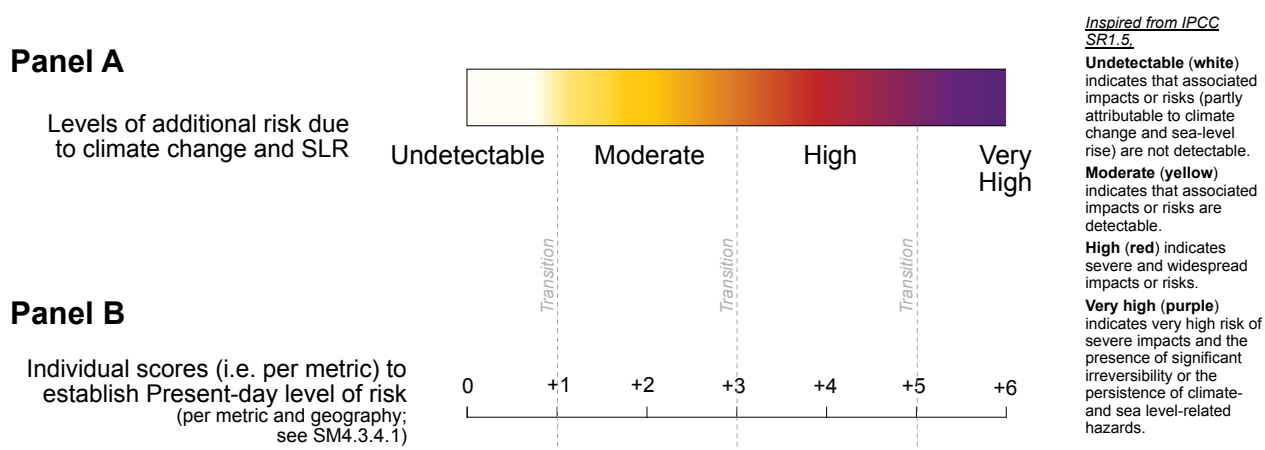


Figure SM4.2: Scoring scale for assessing Present day risk.

SM4.3.4.2 Scoring Coastal Risk for the End-century (Under Various SLR Scenario and Adaptation Scenarios)

Table SM4.4 below schematically quantifies the potential additional contribution of each metric to future coastal risk (increase or reduction; positive or negative scores, respectively). Respective contributions in a +43cm(A) scenario are compared to the Present-day (1986–2005); so that +43cm(A) scores are additional to the Present-day ones. In the same way, and to highlight cumulative effects across SLR and Adaptation scenarios, metrics’ contributions in the +84cm and +110cm scenarios are compared to scores for the +43cm and +84cm scenarios, respectively; so that +84cm and +110cm scores are additional to the +43cm and +84cm ones, respectively.

In parallel, the adaptation scenario (B) scores are most of the time based on the scenario (A) scores of the same SLR scenario. For example, the scores for +43cm(B) describe the contribution of the implementation of adaptation measures (M6, M7, M8, M9) to the reduction of risk level at the +43cm(A).

The scoring relies on a semi-qualitative expert judgment based on real-world case studies described in peer-reviewed literature. Final assessment for each geography is presented in SM4.3.7.

Table SM4.4: Scoring methodology for assessing future risk.

Additional contribution of the metric to end-century coastal risk level	(A) No-to-moderate adaptation	(B) High Adaptation
No effect	[+0]	[+0]
Increases risk	[+1] – Low additional contribution [+2] – Substantial additional contribution [+3] – Very substantial additional contribution	[+1] – Low additional contribution [+2] – Substantial additional contribution [+3] – Very substantial additional contribution
Decreases risk	[-1] – Low additional contribution [-2] – Substantial additional contribution [-3] – Very substantial additional contribution	[-1] – Low additional contribution [-2] – Substantial additional contribution [-3] – Very substantial additional contribution

SM4.3.5 Aggregated Scores per Geography, Sea Level Rise Scenario and Adaptation Scenario

Figure SM4.3 builds on Figure SM4.2 to describe the equivalence between coastal risk levels (according to the IPCC frame, Panel A in Figure SM4.3) and the assessment scores per criteria (Panel B).

Four main steps for calculating future coastal risk levels are:

- Step 1 – For each metric, estimation of the **current contribution to coastal risk**, based on the 0–6 scale described in SM4.3.4.1 (see also Panel B in Figure SM4.3).
- Step 2 – Each **metric’s additional contribution to coastal risk** under various end-century SLR and Adaptation scenarios is assessed based on the scoring scale presented in Table SM4.4. Scores for the +43cm(A) scenario are based on Present day (1986–2005) scores. Scores for the +84cm(A) and +110cm(A) scenarios are calculated based on the +43cm(A) and +84cm(A) scores, respectively, and in order to reflect a cumulative effect of contributions to coastal risk as sea level rises. In parallel, the adaptation scenario (B) scores are most of the time based on the scenario (A) scores of the same SLR scenario. For example, the scores for +43cm(B) describe the contribution of the implementation of adaptation measures (metrics M6 to M8) to the reduction of the +43cm(A) risk level.
- Step 3 – **Aggregated levels of coastal risk for the Present Day** – These risk levels result from the aggregation (i.e., addition without weighting) of the 9 metrics’ individual scores developed in step 1. The range for Present day (1986–2005) aggregated scores goes from 0 (i.e., undetectable contribution to risk for all metrics) to 30 (i.e. very high contribution to risk for all metrics). The equivalence in terms of risk level is based on the risk scale used in previous IPCC assessments (see panel B of Figure SM4.3).
- Step 4 – **Aggregated levels of coastal risk for the Future** – Risk levels by the end of the century and for different SLR (A) and adaptation (B) scenarios result from the aggregation (i.e., addition without weighting) of the 9 metrics’ individual scores developed in step 2. The range for Future aggregated scores goes from 0 to 75 (i.e., respectively undetectable and very high contribution to risk for all metrics); this calculation is based on the combination of min./max. Present day (1986–2005) aggregated scores with additional contributions to risk for each metric (see sheet 2 in SM4.3 datafile). To consider the wide range of possible aggregated scores implies to consider situations that are already at Very High risk and where each additional cm of SLR pushes the risk level to extreme limits, i.e., beyond “Very High”. According to this, we added another level of risk to the usual IPCC risk scale, and that describes “Extremely High” risk (see black-purple in Panel A of Figure SM4.3). In that way, the approach is standardized among the geographies, although it is acknowledged that, for example, atolls islands and Arctic communities do not have significant (if any) space for action under M9, as well as salinization (M5) is not an issue for megacities.

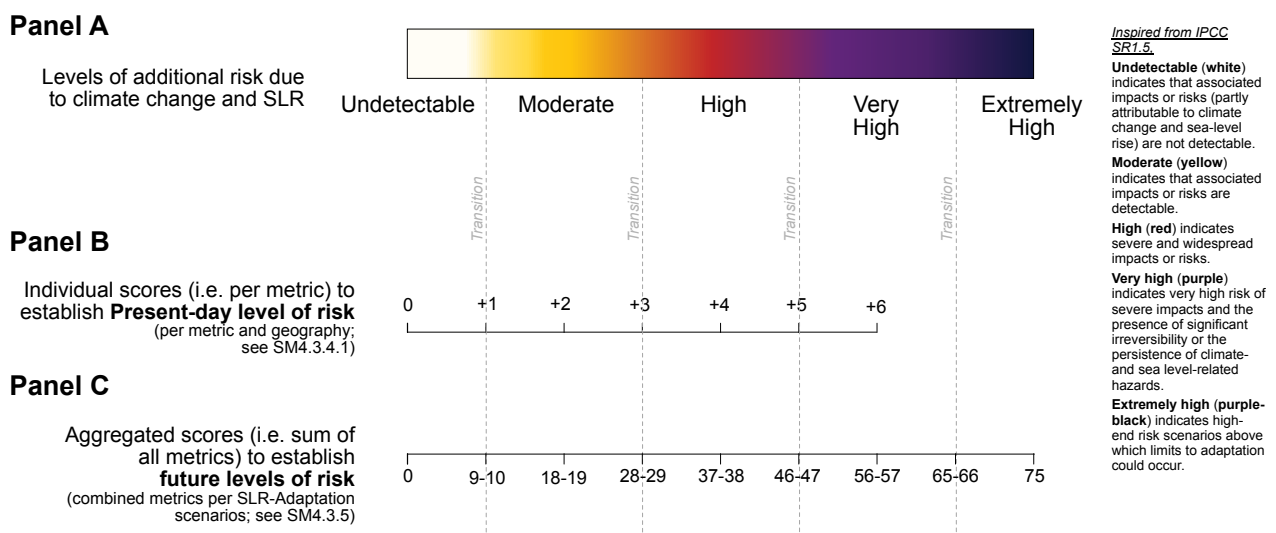


Figure SM4.3: Scoring scale for assessing future risk.

SM4.3.6 Case Study Examples

The assessment of coastal risk for each geography (megacities, urban atoll islands, large tropical agricultural deltas, Arctic communities remote from regions of rapid glacial-isostatic adjustment) is based on the findings of Chapter 4 as well as on the collective expert judgment of the authors (Lead Authors and Contributing

Authors). This semi-qualitative expert judgment has been informed by using, for each archetypal geography, a set of real-world local case studies that have been described in the peer-reviewed literature (Table SM4.5).

Table SM4.5: Real-world case studies used in the assessment of current and future coastal risk.

Archetypal geography	Case studies used for background information	Main authors involved
Megacities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - New York City (USA) - Rotterdam (The Netherlands) - Shanghai (China) <p><i>N.B.: insights from Box 4.1 have also been considered.</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Maya Buchanan (USA), CA - Michael Oppenheimer (USA), CLA
Urban atoll islands	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Male' (Maldives) - South Tarawa main islands (Kiribati) - Funafuti (Tuvalu) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Virginie Duvat (France), CA - Alexandre Magnan (France), LA
Large tropical agricultural deltas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Mekong Delta - Ganges-Brahmaputra 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Fabrice Renaud (UK), CA - Zita Sebesvari (Hungary/Germany), LA
Arctic communities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Bykovskiy, Russia - Shismaref, Alaska, USA - Kivalina, Alaska, USA - Tuktoyaktuk, Canada - Shingle Point, Canada <p><i>N.B.: these case studies have been selected because they are remote from regions of rapid glacial-isostatic adjustment..</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Donald Forbes (Canada), CA - James Ford (UK), CA

Scale considered:

- **Megacities:** the coastal fringe
- **Urban atoll islands:** the whole island system, i.e. capital islands of atoll nations
- **Large tropical agricultural deltas:** considered as a whole, and not only their coastal fringe, for three main reasons:
 - i) SLR will contribute in some deltas (e.g., tidal deltas) in increased salinity intrusion inland – so the direct impacts will be not only on the coastal fringes;
 - ii) Some of the adaptation measures are easier if we consider a whole delta system: e.g. basin-scale water (sediment) management (with all the inherent difficulties of course), but also in terms of retreat (migration);
 - iii) Delta level planning (e.g., the Mekong) already incorporates various delta-wide development scenarios, a couple of which are “do not protect too much” and thus convert to saline livelihoods (aquaculture, more salt tolerant crop varieties) and preserve a freshwater environment.
- **Arctic communities:** the whole community system

See supporting material in SM4.3.8

SM4.3.7 Final Results

The SM4.3 datafile provides the full assessment database describing all the scores for each metric and each geography. The final results are reported in Table SM4.6 below.

Equivalences between final scores and risk levels as described in section SM4.3.5 and Figure SM4.4 below.

Table SM4.6: Final aggregated levels of risk for each geography and according to various SLR and Adaptation scenarios. Text in black describes the Present Day as well as the “No-to-Moderate adaptation” scenarios for the future. Text in blue describes the “High adaptation” scenarios.

Sea level rise by 2100 (compared to the Present day, 1986-2005)	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	M6	M7	M8	M9	Aggregated risk level
	Density of assets	Ecosystem degradation	Coastal flooding	Coastal erosion	Salinisation	Hard defences	Ecosystem restoration	Retreat	Limit subsidence	
Megacities										
Present day	6	1	2	1	0	-3	0	-1	0	6 – Undetectable to Moderate
+43cm (A)	7	2	4	2	0	-1	0	-1	0	13 – Moderate
+43cm (B)	6	1	1	1	0	-3	0	0	0	6 – Undetectable to Moderate
+84cm (A)	10	4	7	3	0	0	0	-2	0	22 – Moderate to High
+84cm (B)	6	1	2	1	0	-3	0	0	0	7 – Undetectable to Moderate
+110cm (A)	12	5	10	3	0	0	0	-3	0	27 – Moderate to High
+110cm (B)	8	2	4	1	0	-2	0	-1	0	12 – Moderate
Urban Atoll Islands										
Present day	5	5	5	4	2	-2	-1	0	0	18 – Moderate
+43cm (A)	7	7	8	6	4	-2	-1	0	0	29 – Moderate to High
+43cm (B)	7	7	8	6	4	-4	-3	-3	0	22 – Moderate to High
+84cm (A)	10	9	11	8	6	-2	-1	0	0	41 – High to Very High
+84cm (B)	10	9	11	8	6	-4	0	-6	0	34 – High
+110cm (A)	13	11	14	10	8	-2	-1	0	0	53 – Very High
+110cm (B)	13	11	14	10	8	-4	0	-9	0	43 – High to Very High
Large tropical agricultural deltas										
Present day	4	3	3	2	2	-2	-1	0	0	12 – Moderate
+43cm (A)	4	4	5	3	4	-2	-1	0	0	18 – Moderate
+43cm (B)	4	4	5	3	4	-3	-3	0	-2	14 – Moderate
+84cm (A)	4	5	8	5	6	-2	-1	0	0	26 – Moderate to High
+84cm (B)	4	5	8	5	6	-4	-2	-3	-1	19 – Moderate
+110cm (A)	4	5	11	7	8	-2	-1	0	0	33 – High
+110cm (B)	4	5	11	7	8	-5	-1	-3	0	27 – Moderate to High
Arctic coastal communities (remote from regions of rapid glacial-isostatic adjustment)										
Present day	4	5	4	5	2	-1	0	-1	0	18 – Moderate
+43cm (A)	5	7	6	8	2	-1	0	-1	0	26 – Moderate to High
+43cm (B)	5	7	6	7	2	-2	0	-2	0	23 – Moderate to High
+84cm (A)	6	10	8	11	3	-1	0	-1	0	36 – High
+84cm (B)	6	10	8	10	3	-3	0	-4	0	30 – High
+110cm (A)	7	11	9	12	3	-1	0	-1	0	40 – High to Very High
+110cm (B)	7	11	9	11	3	-3	0	-4	0	35 – High to very High

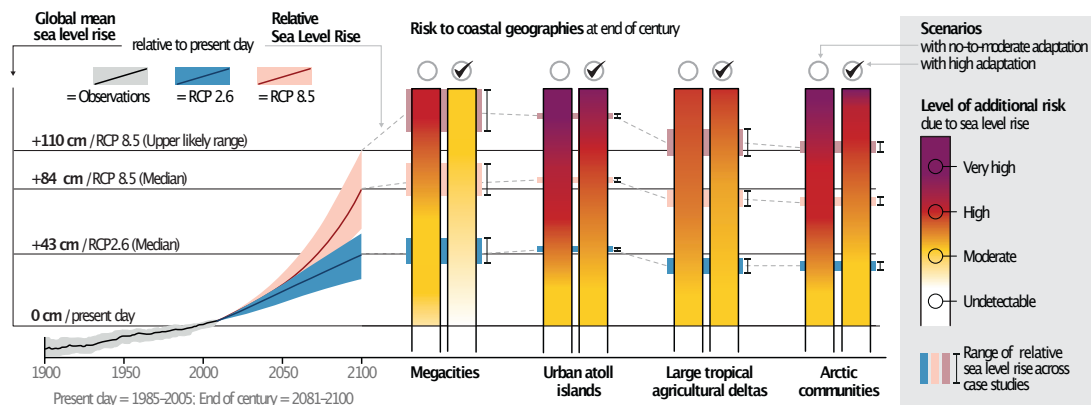


Figure SM4.4: Additional risks from SLR on low-lying coastal geographies by the end of the 21st century (see Figure 4.3 and caption in the main text, as well as Section 4.3.4 for synthetic methodological advances and brief analysis of the results).

SM4.3.8 Rationale for Scoring per Geography

SM4.3.8.1 Megacities

See Section 4.3.4.2.1 and Sheet 1 of the SM4.3 datafile. Main references used for the Megacities case study include Vellinga (2009), Delta Programme (2015), Zhou et al. (2016), Hinkel et al. (2018), Xian et al. (2018), along with those in Box 4.1.

SM4.3.8.2 Urban Atoll Islands

See complementary information in Section 4.3.4.2.1 and Sheet 1 of the SM4.3 datafile.

The urban atoll islands considered in this analysis are the capital islands (or groups of islands) of three atoll nations in the Pacific and Indian Oceans: Fongafale (Funafuti Atoll, Tuvalu), the South Tarawa Urban District (Tarawa Atoll, Kiribati) and Male' (North Kaafu Atoll, Maldives). Atoll island countries present a quite unique situation around the world as the Present and Future of their populations largely depend on the responses of coral reefs to climate change and induced changes in the ocean (Hughes et al., 2017; Perry et al., 2018). As atoll islands in general, urban atoll islands have low elevation (<4 m above mean sea level) and are mainly composed of reef-derived unconsolidated material.

Urban atoll islands present a critical situation for these countries. On the one hand, they are the main economic and demographic centres at the country scale, thereby often concentrating most human assets and critical infrastructure (airports, main harbours). On the other hand, they illustrate the prominence of anthropogenic-driven disturbances to atoll island capacity to naturally adjust to ocean climate-related changes, and SLR in particular. Human disturbances affect the critical services provided by the reef-island system, in particular the coastal protection service delivered by the reef ecosystem and beach. This service consists of wave energy attenuation, which reduces wave-induced flooding and coastal erosion, and sediment provision by the reef ecosystem to the island, which is critical to island persistence over time through continuous adjustment to waves and SLR through sediment reorganisation (McLean and Kench, 2015; Quataert et al., 2015; Elliff and Silva, 2017; Storlazzi et al., 2018).

Three critical controlling factors of the future habitability of these islands are the density of assets exposed to climate-induced coastal hazards (metric M1), marine flooding (M3) and coastal erosion (M4). These critical controlling factors are interlinked with ecosystem response to ocean-climate related pressures and the effects (detrimental or beneficial) of human activities. The following assessment takes this into consideration.

Present day

M1: Human-driven disturbances to the natural reef-island system are inherent to high populations densities and unplanned urban development. In countries such as the Maldives, Tuvalu and Kiribati, the capital atolls and island host between around a third (in the Maldives) and half (in Tuvalu and Kiribati) of the national population. This translates into high levels of population density: ~65,700 inh. km⁻² in Male' (GoM-MoT 2014), ~4,200 inh. km⁻² in Funafuti Atoll (McCubbin et al., 2015), ~3,200 inh. km⁻² in South Tarawa (McIver et al., 2015). This all the more contributes to risk that as illustrated in Tuvalu and Kiribati, settlements concentrate on the lagoon side, i.e., very low-lying (<1.80 m in elevation, e.g., South Tarawa)(Duvat, 2013) and therefore flood-prone, side of islands. The capital islands also often host the main critical infrastructures of the country, especially international airports and main harbours, which are critical for the economy and more broadly the opening up to the World. Together, high population densities and the concentration of critical infrastructure in naturally low-lying areas substantially contribute to coastal risk (Duvat et al., 2013). ⇒ Final score of [5].

M2: The main ecosystems considered here are coral reefs, mangroves and sandy beaches. It is acknowledged that today, the degradation of marine and coastal ecosystems that serve as natural buffers is high in urban atoll islands due, for example, to mangrove clearing in South Tarawa (Duvat, 2013) or to human-induced coral reef degradation through land reclamation in Male' (Naylor, 2015). As a result, the above-mentioned coastal protection service is most often already seriously undermined, with implications in terms of increasing coastal risk. ⇒ Final score of [5].

- M3:** High to Very High flooding risk today for all the case studies. Extreme sea levels (including during high tides) already generate flooding events on relatively large parts of islands. Experiences are reported in Male' (Wadey et al., 2017) and Funafuti (Yamano et al., 2007; McCubbin et al., 2015). Flooding is a major risk in atoll island environments as flooding events often cause substantial damages to human assets (e.g., destruction of roads, coastal protection structures and airstrips), as well as they have cascading effects on livelihoods, for example as a result of groundwater and soil salinization. Land scarcity in atoll environments exacerbates the importance of such damages and cascading impacts. ⇒ Final score of [5].
- M4:** Coastal erosion is already a major concern along some non-armoured shoreline sections in urban islands in South Tarawa, Kiribati (Duvat, 2013) and Fongafale, Tuvalu (Onaka et al., 2017). It is not the case in Male', Maldives, where surrounding fortifications occupy almost all the shoreline from several decades (Naylor, 2015). In urban islands, coastal erosion occurring on non-fixed shoreline sections is generally attributed to the disruption of natural processes by human disturbances, in particular land reclamation, causeway construction aimed at connecting nearby islands and sediment extraction from beaches, reef flats and shallow lagoons (Biribo and Woodroffe, 2013; Duvat, 2013; Duvat et al., 2013; Donner and Webber, 2014; McLean and Kench, 2015; Duvat, 2019). ⇒ Final score of [4].
- M5:** Salinization already affects groundwater lenses in atoll islands, especially as a result of overwash events (Terry and Chui, 2012; Hoeke et al., 2013; Oberle et al., 2017). While the population of Male' relies on desalinated seawater, groundwater lenses still provide water for human consumption and agricultural purposes in South Tarawa, for example (Bailey et al., 2014; Post et al., 2018). This explains variable contributions of groundwater lens salinization to risk depending on the urban atoll island considered. Despite increasing rainwater harvesting, groundwater lenses remain a primary source of domestic freshwater in South Tarawa, which advocates for their sustainable management (White and Falkland, 2010; Post et al., 2018). N.B.: attribution of groundwater lens salinization to SLR however remain unclear (Section 4.3.3.1). Therefore, a score of [+2] which reflects a moderate contribution of salinization to risk. ⇒ Final score of [2].
- M6:** Some existing hard protection in all of the case studies. The quality of such coastal defences is however highly variable between the case studies, from appropriate engineered to poorly designed structures. Male' constitutes an exception in urbanized atoll environments as it surrounded by massive engineered structures, especially breakwaters and rock revetments (Naylor, 2015). However, although these appropriate engineered structures substantially contribute to reduce risk (i.e., individual score of -4), they don't totally eliminate the flooding hazard. At the opposite, in South Tarawa urban islands, adequate structures are seldom, with poorly designed handmade structures prevailing along the coast (Duvat, 2013; Duvat et al., 2013), therefore an individual score of [-2]. Funafuti presents a similar situation to the one of South Tarawa (Onaka et al., 2017). ⇒ Final score of [-2].
- M7:** Today, measures to protect/restore natural buffers are still limited in urban atoll contexts. A well-known example is mangrove replanting in the eastern lagoon part of South Tarawa (Donner and Webber, 2014), but such examples remain limited in the literature. ⇒ Final score of [-1].
- M8:** Today, the level of implementation of retreat measures aiming at reducing the exposure of people, assets and infrastructure remains sporadic and unplanned in urban atoll islands. Accordingly, we estimated undetectable contribution to today's coastal risk reduction. ⇒ Final score of [0].
- M9:** Not considered for urban atoll islands.

+43(A)

- M1:** Even in the case of a relative stabilization of the population, densities will remain high in the future (see SM4.3.2). Due to the low-lying coasts of atoll islands and the concentration of settlements along the very low-lying lagoon coast of atoll islands such as South Tarawa, even stabilized densities would translate into a substantial increase (i.e. [+2] compared to Present day) of M1 contribution to risk even under a +43cm rise in sea level. ⇒ Final score of [+2] compared to the Present day.
- M2:** While this assessment focusses on the additional risks due to SLR, it is important to note that ocean acidification and warming will weaken the capacity of marine ecosystems, including coral reefs and mangroves, to cope with SLR (Van Hooonk et al., 2013; Pendleton et al., 2016; Perry and Morgan, 2017; Perry et al., 2018)(Sections 4.3.3.5, 5.3), which will in turn exacerbate the influence of SLR on coastal risk. ⇒ Final score of [+2] compared to the Present day.

- M3:** Important increase in risk of flooding compared to today is expected (Beetham et al., 2017; Storlazzi et al., 2018). ⇒ Final score: [+3] compared to Present day.
- M4:** Coastal erosion is expected to increase substantially even under relatively small rise in sea level, mainly due to the pursuing of current trends as well as the possible increase in human-driven disturbances (e.g., sand mining) that undermine the capacity of islands to adjust to ocean-climate related pressures (McLean and Kench, 2015; Duvat, 2019). Such a role of coastal erosion in risk increase will be important in South Tarawa and Funafuti, but not in Male' where the shoreline is almost entirely fixed by engineered coastal protection structures. ⇒ Final score: [+2] compared to Present day.
- M5:** Substantial increase in risk of groundwater salinization compared to today, as even small values of SLR are expected to significantly affect atoll islands aquifers (Bailey et al., 2016; Storlazzi et al., 2018). ⇒ Final score: [+2] compared to Present day.
- M6:** No major additional adaptation efforts compared to today. Same score as for Present day.
- M7:** No major additional adaptation efforts compared to today. Same score as for Present day.
- M8:** No major additional adaptation efforts compared to today. Same score as for Present day.
- M9:** Not considered for urban atoll islands.

+43(B)

- M1:** As for +43cm(A).
- M2:** As for +43cm(A).
- M3:** As for +43cm(A).
- M4:** As for +43cm(A).
- M5:** As for +43cm(A).
- M6:** Substantial additional contribution of appropriate engineered protection structures to decreasing risk, compared to business-as-usual interventions. While engineered protection structures will reduce risk of flooding especially, they will not necessarily prevent seawater infiltration due to the permeable nature of the island substratum. So even adequate coastal protection would probably not eliminate risk (Hinkel et al., 2018). ⇒ Final score: [-2] compared to +43cm(A).
- M7:** In a relatively moderate increase in sea level, substantial additional contribution of ecosystem restoration efforts to decreasing risk can be expected. Despite this, human- and climate-driven disturbances of these natural buffers will not be fully removed. As a result, the Present day natural buffering capacities of marine and coastal ecosystems cannot be fully recovered in the urban atoll island context, which prevents these ecosystems to have a very substantial contribution to risk reduction (i.e., [-3] compared to today). This reflects some irreversibility in human-driven ecosystem degradation in urban environments. ⇒ Final score: [-2] compared to +43cm(A).
- M8:** Very substantial additional contribution of proactive coastal retreat (e.g. first and second lines of buildings and infrastructures; associated with relocation either on the same island or to a nearby island exhibiting medium population densities) to decreasing risk compared to business-as-usual interventions. To the point that such a retreat can compensate the extent of coastal flooding and hence the level of associated damages to the built assets. ⇒ Final score: [-3] compared to +43cm(A).
- M9:** Not considered for urban atoll islands.

+84(A)

- M1:** Very substantial increased contribution to risk compared to +43cm(A) scenario. Very substantial additional contribution of high density to risk. ⇒ Final score [+3] compared to +43cm(A).
- M2:** Substantial increased contribution to risk compared to +43cm(A) scenario, due both to continued human-driven degradation of ecosystems –reminder: (A) scenarios considers no major additional adaptation efforts compared to today (SM4.3.3.2)– and the impacts of ocean warming and acidification. ⇒ Final score: [+2] compared to +43cm(A).
- M3:** Substantial increased contribution to risk compared to +43cm(A) scenario. This reflects the combination of very low-lying topographies with increased relative and extreme sea levels. ⇒ Final score: [+3] compared to +43cm(A).
- M4:** Substantial increased contribution to risk compared to +43cm(A) scenario. Accelerated erosion at all sites due to the fact that the sediment budget of islands will already be substantially affected under a +43cm rise in sea level, so that erosion trends continuation will result in less sediments being available at the coast in higher SLR scenarios. Final score: [+2] compared to +43cm (A).

- M5:** Massive effects on the volume and quality of groundwater lenses, surface waters and soils are to be expected in a SROCC RCP8.5 scenario, therefore substantial cumulative effect in terms of contribution to risk compared to +43cm(A). ⇒ Final score: [+2] compared to +43cm(A).
- M6:** No major additional adaptation efforts compared to today. Same score as for Present day.
- M7:** No major additional adaptation efforts compared to today. Same score as for Present day.
- M8:** No major additional adaptation efforts compared to today. Same score as for Present day.
- M9:** Not considered for urban atoll islands.

+84(B)

- M1:** As for 84cm(A).
- M2:** As for 84cm(A).
- M3:** As for 84cm(A).
- M4:** As for 84cm(A).
- M5:** As for 84cm(A).
- M6:** While the development of adequate engineered coastal defence structures will still provide some benefits in terms of risk reduction (e.g., flooding limitation, shoreline stabilization), these protection structures will not necessarily prevent seawater infiltration due to the permeable nature of the island substratum. So even adequate coastal protection will probably not eliminate risk (Hinkel et al., 2018). As a result, and given the very low elevation and the porous nature of urban islands, one can hypothesize that higher SLR scenarios would weaken the additional benefits of coastal protection structures –although huge uncertainty remains on such a hypothesis. ⇒ Final score: [-0] compared to +84cm(B).
- M7:** No more contribution to risk reduction in higher end-century SLR: the contribution of ecosystem restoration becomes obsolete as, for example, corals will face difficulties to keep-up with SLR and mangroves will lose habitats (Sections 4.3.3.5, 5.3). As a result, we considered a decreasing contribution to risk reduction. ⇒ Final score: [-1] compared to +84cm(A), i.e. [+1] compared to +43cm(B).
- M8:** More intense coastal retreat (e.g., >3 lines of buildings and infrastructures) will decrease risk, but in an atoll island context, such a level of retreat will face physical constraints due to land scarcity. To address this constraint, however, relocation to other islands in the same atoll can be envisaged (e.g. in Tarawa and Funafuti that still have many rural and uninhabited islands). In Kaafu Atoll, Maldives, where land is scarce (most islands are already settled or exploited, e.g. by resorts), additional artificially raised islands such as Hulhumale' could offer some opportunities. This highlights the potential cumulative benefits of a progressive shift in retreat approaches, from within the capital island to neighbouring or artificial islands. ⇒ Final score: [-3] compared to +43cm(B).
- M9:** Not considered for urban atoll islands.

+110(A)

- M1:** Same justification as for M1 under +43cm. Very substantial additional contribution of high densities compared to the +85cm situation. ⇒ Final score: [+3] compared to +84cm(A).
- M2:** Same justification as for M2 under +84cm. Substantial increased contribution to risk compared to +84cm(A) scenario, due both to continued human-driven degradation of the ecosystems and the impacts of ocean warming and acidification. ⇒ Final score: [+2] compared to +84cm(A).
- M3:** Same justification as for M3 under +84cm. Combination of very low-lying topographies with increased relative and extreme sea levels. Final score: [+3] compared to +84cm(A).
- M4:** Same justification as for M4 under +84cm. Beaches sediment budgets will already be substantially affected as SLR in the +84cm scenario, and the situation will become worst under higher SLR. As a result, less sediments will be available at the coast compared to the +84cm situation. ⇒ Final score: [+2] compared to +84cm(A).
- M5:** Same justification as for M5 under +84cm. Intense cumulative effects of reduction in both volume and quality for groundwater lenses, surface waters and soils, compared to the +84cm situation. ⇒ Final score: [+2] compared to +84cm(A).
- M6:** No major additional adaptation efforts compared to today. Same score as for Present day.
- M7:** No major additional adaptation efforts compared to today. Same score as for Present day.
- M8:** No major additional adaptation efforts compared to today. Same score as for Present day.
- M9:** Not considered for urban atoll islands.

+110(B)

M1: As for +110cm(A).

M2: As for +110cm(A).

M3: As for +110cm(A).

M4: As for +110cm(A).

M5: As for +110cm(A).

M6: Same as for ME +84cm(B): while the development of adequate coastal defence structures will still provide some benefits in terms of risk reduction (e.g., flooding limitation), protection structures will not necessarily prevent seawater infiltration due to the permeable nature of the island substratum. So even adequate coastal protection will probably not eliminate risk (Hinkel et al., 2018). As a result, and given the low elevation and porous nature of the islands, one can hypothesize that higher SLR scenarios would weaken the additional benefits of coastal protection structures –although huge uncertainty remains on such a hypothesis. ⇒ Final score: [-0] compared to +84cm(B).

M7: It is virtually certain that any climate change scenario resulting in a +110cm rise in sea-level will also generate significant changes in the ocean chemical parameters (temperature, pH). Accordingly, risks to ecosystems associated with such a scenario will be high to very high (Section 5.3.4). In the same line as in n+84cm(B), this results in a reduced contribution of this metric to risk reduction under the SROCC RCP8.5 upper end of the *likely* range. ⇒ Final score: [-1] compared to +110cm(A), i.e. [+1] compared to +84cm(B).

M8: The rationale is basically the same as for +84cm(B), except that land scarcity is exacerbated under a higher SLR scenario (i.e. higher potential loss of land). We however consider that the above-mentioned progressive shift in retreat approaches from within the capital island to neighbouring or artificial islands (see +84cm(B)) will remain relevant even under the SROCC RCP8.5 upper end of the *likely* range. ⇒ Final score: [-3] compared to +84cm(B).

M9: Not considered for urban atoll islands.

SM4.3.8.3 Large Tropical Agricultural Deltas

See complementary information in Section 4.3.4.2.1 and Sheet 1 of the SM4.3 datafile.

The deltas considered in this analysis are the Ganges-Brahmaputra-Meghna Delta and the Mekong River Delta. Both deltas are large (1st and 2nd largest deltas by area globally), low-lying and dominated by agricultural production. The risk assessment to SLR considers the entire delta area (not only the coastal fringe), for the following reasons:

- i) SLR will contribute in some deltas (e.g. tidal deltas) in increased salinity intrusion inland – so the direct impacts will be not only on the coastal fringes;
- ii) Some of the adaptation measures are easier if we consider a whole delta system: e.g. basin-scale water (sediment) management (with all the inherent difficulties of course), but also in terms of retreat (migration);
- iii) Delta level planning (e.g. the Mekong) already incorporates various delta-wide development scenarios, a couple of which are “do not protect too much” and thus convert to saline livelihoods (aquaculture, more salt tolerant crop varieties) and preserve a freshwater environment.

Other coastal river deltas with different characteristics will exhibit different risks to sea level rise related coastal hazards. Influencing factors are for example smaller ratio of coastal areas to full delta plain area (e.g. Limpopo delta, Mozambique), steeper slope (e.g. Red River delta Vietnam), higher share of urbanization (e.g. Nile delta, Egypt), megacity at the coast (e.g. Jakarta, Indonesia), lower population density (e.g. Orinoco delta, Venezuela), already strong protection (e.g. Rhine delta, Netherlands), and strong subsidence (e.g. Jakarta, Indonesia).

Present day

M1: Population densities are high in both deltas compared to average coastal population densities with 1,280 inh. km⁻² for the Ganges-Brahmaputra-Meghna (Ericson et al., 2006) and 433 inh. km⁻² for the Mekong delta (GSO, 2016). Asset densities are moderate as both deltas are agriculture-dominated (Hossain et al., 2018; Kondolf et al., 2018). Agricultural production contributes to GDP strongly (Smajgl et al., 2015; Hossain et al., 2018), thus agricultural fields are important assets. ⇒ The overall contribution of population and asset density to risk is moderate to high in the Mekong delta and high in the Ganges-Brahmaputra-Meghna. The overall risk is high [4].

- M2:** In both deltas, mangroves are partially cut (Ghosh et al., 2018; Veetil et al., 2018). Wetlands at the coast but also further inland are degraded (Quan et al., 2018; Rahman et al., 2018), floodplains are in many instances cut off from the river due to flood protection for agricultural fields by poldering or dykes (Rogers and Overeem, 2017; Ngan et al., 2018; Warner et al., 2018). ⇒ On the delta scale, the contribution of degraded coastal ecosystems to risk driven by SLR related hazards is moderate to high [3].
- M3:** Currently in both deltas riverine flooding dominates (Auerbach et al., 2015; Rahman and Rahman, 2015; Ngan et al., 2018). High tides and cyclones however can lead to considerable and sometimes catastrophic coastal flooding especially in the GBM delta (Auerbach et al., 2015) (Rahman and Rahman, 2015). Low flows in the river, dredging for sand and thus river bed deepening and subsidence leads to stronger intrusion of tidal flood water (Minderhoud et al., 2017; Shammi et al., 2017). In both deltas, subsidence is increasing the probability of flooding (Brown et al., 2018). ⇒ The contribution of coastal flooding to risk is currently moderate in the Mekong and high in the GBM when the entire delta is considered. ⇒ Overall score is moderate to high [3].
- M4:** Coastal and river bank erosion is already a serious problem in parts of both deltas (Anthony et al., 2015; Brown and Nicholls, 2015; Li et al., 2017), while other parts are prograding (Wilson and Goodbred Jr, 2015; Zoccarato et al., 2018). ⇒ Coastal erosion is happening but in light of the overall delta area, it only contributes moderately to the current delta risk when the entire delta plain is considered [2].
- M5:** Salinization is already happening in many aquifers, soils and surface water in the coastal parts of both deltas (Ayers et al., 2017; Minderhoud et al., 2017; Shammi et al., 2017). However, many communities also take advantage of the saline water for saline aquaculture (Smajgl et al., 2015; Rahman et al., 2018). Furthermore, salinity of water and soil resources did not yet reached a level, where it would contribute to risk significantly at the delta scale and it is still a coastal phenomenon (Smajgl et al., 2015; Ayers et al., 2017) although in some years salinity intrusion can reach far inland such as in 2015 in the Mekong delta (UNDP, 2016). Salinity is a threat for domestic water supply but currently rather localized in the coastal zone (Ayers et al., 2017; Kondolf et al., 2018). ⇒ The contribution of salinization to overall risk at the delta scale is currently moderate [2].
- M6:** Both deltas have a partial protection with hard engineered defences such as sluice gates to prevent flooding, polders and dykes in some coastal stretches (Smajgl et al., 2015; Rogers and Overeem, 2017; Warner et al., 2018). Coastal defences do not cover the entire coastline. ⇒ The contribution of hard engineered coastal defences to risk reduction is moderate today [2].
- M7:** Today, level of implementation of measures to protect/restore natural buffers is still limited. There are ongoing efforts in both deltas to restore mangroves for example (Quan et al., 2018; Rahman et al., 2018). ⇒ The overall scale of these measures is however rather small compared to the coastline length and thus the risk reduction effect is undetectable to moderate [1].
- M8:** Today, the implementation of planned retreat aiming at reducing the exposure of people, assets and infrastructure remains sporadic in the Mekong and GBM deltas. Coastal areas of the GMB delta are very dynamic and dynamic community responses are well known (e.g. relocations in the char-lands (Islam and Khan, 2018) but this is not a planned retreat. ⇒ Risk reduction by retreat measures is currently undetectable on the delta scale [0].
- M9:** Today, level of implementation of measures aiming at reducing subsidence is very low (Schmidt, 2015; Schmitt et al., 2017) although the first efforts to restrict groundwater extraction are underway. ⇒ Risk reduction by subsidence reduction is currently undetectable on the delta scale [0].

+43(A)

- M1:** Both deltas experience outmigration today (Huy and Nonneman, 2016; Adams and Kay, 2019) and this might increase in the future. Asset density might increase with economic development (Szabo et al., 2015; Hoang et al., 2018). ⇒ Overall, population and asset densities might remain high in the future, therefore we assume a similar contribution to risk under +43cm(A) than today [4].
- M2:** Compared to Present day and without enhanced adaptation action coastal ecosystems will be under increasing exposure to floods, erosion, cyclones, etc. (Li et al., 2017; Brown et al., 2018). Only when protected, sustainably managed and not squeezed, coastal ecosystems could keep up with SLR (Brown et al., 2018; Kondolf et al., 2018). ⇒ Without increased adaptation action and ecosystem management/protection, we assume an increase of risk mainly caused by further degradation [+1].

- M3:** Compared to Present day without increased adaptation action and no action to held subsidence, coastal flooding will contribute very substantially to increasing risk (Erban et al., 2014; Brown and Nicholls, 2015; Zoccarato et al., 2018). ⇒ The additional contribution to overall risk at the delta scale will be substantial [+2].
- M4:** Compared to Present day without increased adaptation action and no action to hold subsidence, coastal erosion will increase due to SLR, subsidence, increased wave action and extreme events (Schmitt et al., 2017; Dang et al., 2018). ⇒ The additional contribution to overall risk at the delta scale remains moderate given that large share of the delta area will not be directly affected [+1].
- M5:** If no action taken to increase adaptation and limit subsidence, salinization of coastal waters and soils will be significant (Vu et al., 2018; Zoccarato et al., 2018; Rakib et al., 2019). ⇒ Salinization will contribute to risk substantially with impacts on agriculture, water supply etc. [+2]
- M6:** No major additional adaptation efforts compared to today. Same score as for Present day.
- M7:** No major additional adaptation efforts compared to today. Same score as for Present day.
- M8:** No major additional adaptation efforts compared to today. Same score as for Present day.
- M9:** No major additional adaptation efforts compared to today. Same score as for Present day.

+43(B)

- M1:** As for +43cm(A).
- M2:** As for +43cm(A).
- M3:** As for +43cm(A).
- M4:** As for +43cm(A).
- M5:** As for +43cm(A).
- M6:** Additional contribution of enhanced adequately calibrated structures to decreasing risk, relative to business-as-usual interventions in the +43cm(A) scenario. The implementation of hybrid defences is assumed with strong contribution of ecosystem-based adaptation combined with hard engineered coastal defences (Melillo, 2014; Hill, 2015). ⇒ Overall, the risk reduction contribution of hard engineered measures remains moderate in this scenario on the delta scale [-1].
- M7:** Additional contribution of ecosystem restoration efforts to decreasing risk (Dasgupta et al., 2019; Nguyen and Parnell, 2019), relative to business-as-usual interventions in the +43cm(A) scenario in these agriculture dominated deltas (Schmitt et al., 2013; Van Cuong et al., 2015; Rahman et al., 2018). Despite this, human- and climate-driven disturbances on natural buffer ecosystems will not be fully removed as population and assets density will remain high in large tropical agricultural deltas (Davis et al., 2018; Uddin et al., 2019; Whitehead et al., 2019). ⇒ Overall, the risk reduction contribution of hard engineered measures remains moderate in this scenario on the delta scale [-2].
- M8:** It is assumed that hybrid protection effectively reduces the risk at +43cm SLR (Al Masud et al., 2018; Van Coppenolle et al., 2018), thus retreat will not contribute substantially to the reduction of risk at the delta scale. ⇒ Same as present day.
- M9:** It is assumed that measures to lower subsidence will contribute to reduce the risk at +43cm sea level rise. Since the reduction of subsidence would have impact on the risk level in large parts of the delta (Nicholls et al., 2016; Schmitt et al., 2017), risk reduction effects will be felt on large scale. ⇒ Substantial risk reduction on the delta scale [-2]

+84(A)

- M1:** As for +43(A).
- M2:** Without increased adaptation coastal ecosystems will be under increasing exposure to floods, erosion, cyclones etc. (Erban et al., 2014; Takagi et al., 2016). They will be largely degraded and will contribute to the increasing risk strongly at the coast and moderately on the delta scale. ⇒ Final score: [+1] compared to +43cm(A).
- M3:** Without increased adaptation action and no action to held subsidence, coastal flooding will contribute very substantially to increasing risk (Khan et al., 2013; Takagi et al., 2016; Carvalho and Wang, 2019). ⇒ Final score: [+3] compared to +43cm(A)
- M4:** Without increased adaptation action and no action to held subsidence coastal erosion will increase due to sea level rise (Erban et al., 2014; Uddin et al., 2019), subsidence, increased wave action and extreme events. The additional contribution to overall risk at the delta scale will be substantially stronger than with +43cm given that impacts will be felt more inland (Chen and Mueller, 2018; Vu et al., 2018). ⇒ Final score: [+2] compared to +43cm(A)

- M5:** Without increased no adaptation action and no action to held subsidence salinity intrusion will contribute substantially to risk as groundwater, soil and surface water will be salinized far inland. ⇒ Final score: [+2] compared to +43cm(A)
- M6:** No major additional adaptation efforts compared to today. Same score as for Present day.
- M7:** No major additional adaptation efforts compared to today. Same score as for Present day.
- M8:** No major additional adaptation efforts compared to today. Same score as for Present day.
- M9:** No major additional adaptation efforts compared to today. Same score as for Present day.

+84(B)

- M1:** As for +84cm(A).
- M2:** As for +84cm(A).
- M3:** As for +84cm(A).
- M4:** As for +84cm(A).
- M5:** As for +84cm(A).
- M6:** More engineered coastal defences will be implemented within the grey-green defence continuum (Yamamoto and Esteban, 2015). Risk reduction is substantial. ⇒ Final score: [-2] compared to +84cm(A).
- M7:** At 84cm SLR the role of coastal ecosystems in reducing risk will be limited (low additional contribution). ⇒ Final score: [-1] compared to +84cm(A).
- M8:** At 84cm SLR migration is assumed to take place and policies can help here greatly to reduce the risk (Chen and Mueller, 2018). Additional risk reduction potential is very substantial. ⇒ Final score: [-3] compared to +84cm(A).
- M9:** At 84cm SLR the share of subsidence reduction in reducing the overall risk is smaller than at +43cm SLR. ⇒ Final score: [-1] compared to +84cm(A).

+110(A)

- M1:** Same as for +84cm(A)
- M2:** Without increased adaptation coastal ecosystems will be largely destroyed already at +84cm (Schmitt et al., 2017; Mehvar et al., 2019; Mukul et al., 2019). No further increase in risk contribution is expected. ⇒ Final score: Same as at +84cm(A).
- M3:** Without increased adaptation action, coastal flooding will contribute very substantially to increasing risk at the entire delta level (Huong and Pathirana, 2013; Brown et al., 2018; Dang et al., 2018). ⇒ Final score: [+3] compared to +84cm(A)
- M4:** Without increased adaptation action coastal erosion will increase due to sea level rise (Anthony et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2017; Uddin et al., 2019), increased wave action and extreme events. The additional contribution to overall risk at the delta scale will be substantial and stronger than with +84cm given that impacts will be felt more inland. ⇒ Final score: [+2] compared to +84cm (A)
- M5:** With increased adaptation action salinity intrusion will contribute substantially to risk as groundwater, soil and surface water will be salinized far inland (Tran Anh et al., 2018; Rakib et al., 2019). It will strongly impact agriculture and water supply in the entire delta (Jiang et al., 2018; Timsina et al., 2018; Nhung et al., 2019). ⇒ Final score: [+3] compared to +84cm(A)
- M6:** No major additional adaptation efforts compared to today. Same score as for Present day.
- M7:** No major additional adaptation efforts compared to today. Same score as for Present day.
- M8:** No major additional adaptation efforts compared to today. Same score as for Present day.
- M9:** No major additional adaptation efforts compared to today. Same score as for Present day.

+110(B)

- M1:** As for +110cm(A).
- M2:** As for +110cm(A).
- M3:** As for +110cm(A).
- M4:** As for +110cm(A).
- M5:** As for +110cm(A).
- M6:** Efforts towards the development of adequate coastal defence structures will provide substantial benefits in terms of risk reduction (Bhuiyan and Dutta, 2012; Danh and Khai, 2014). ⇒ Final score: [-3] compared to +110cm(A).

M7: At 110cm SLR the role of ecosystems in risk reduction is reduced (Doughty et al., 2019; Mukul et al., 2019), they provide only a low to non-detectable contribution to risk reduction. ⇒ Final score: [0] compared to +110cm(A).

M8: Coastal retreat has a substantial potential to contribute risk reduction due to restricted habitability, livelihood options in the remaining delta area (Bhuiyan and Dutta, 2012). ⇒ Final score: [-3] compared to +110cm(A).

M9: At +110cm, the share of subsidence reduction in reducing the overall risk is low (Payo et al., 2016; Zoccarato et al., 2018). ⇒ Final score: [-1] compared to +110cm(A).

SM4.3.8.4 Arctic Communities (Remote From Regions of Rapid Glacial-isostatic Adjustment)

See complementary information in Section 4.3.4.2.1 and Sheet 1 of the Excel SM4.3 datafile.

The communities considered in this analysis are small indigenous settlements located on the Arctic Coastal Plain. They lie on exposed coasts composed of unlithified ice-rich sediments in permafrost, all in areas of slow SLR, with seasonal sea ice and lengthening open-water seasons. More broadly in the Arctic, coastal communities with a variety of cultural, socio-economic and institutional characteristics, a wide range of population size from <150 (e.g. Sachs Harbour and Grise Fiord, Canada) to ~300,000 (Murmansk, Russian Federation), and a variety of coastal settings will exhibit different vulnerability (Forbes, 2011; Ford et al., 2016). In particular, communities located in areas of rapid glacio-isostatic adjustment, such that relative sea level projections are negative (falling sea level) for all realistic emission scenarios and pathways this century (James, 2014; James et al., 2015; Forbes et al., 2018), have very low sensitivity to sea level change. In this analysis, however, only selected Arctic communities remote from regions of rapid glacial-isostatic adjustment have been considered, more precisely:

- Bykovsky, Sakha Republic, Russian Federation (Lena Delta)
- Shishmaref, Alaska, USA
- Kivalina, Alaska, USA
- Shingle Point, Inuvialuit Settlement Region, Canada (Mackenzie Delta)
- Tuktoyaktuk, Inuvialuit Settlement Region, Canada (Mackenzie Delta)

Present day

M1: Shishmaref and Kivalina are located on low-lying barrier islands formed by wave action and highly susceptible to variations in sea level (Marino, 2012; Bronen and Chapin, 2013; Fang et al., 2018; Rolph et al., 2018). Erosion has always been a problem, there is limited space to build, and there are few locations if any with low exposure. Shingle Point is similarly situated on an active gravel spit. Tuktoyaktuk is partly built on low ground with very high concentrations of massive ice, leading to rapid shoreline erosion, and extensive areas are flooded by storm surges at present sea level. Bykovsky is mostly situated at higher elevation, but erosion is nevertheless a problem. ⇒ In such sensitive and constraining environments, the overall contribution of population and asset density to risk is considered rather high, i.e. score of [4].

M2: Accelerating permafrost thaw is promoting erosion of ice-rich sediments at Bykovsky and Tuktoyaktuk. In addition, sea ice and its decreasing extent, with a lengthening open-water season, provides less protection from storm impacts, particularly later in the year (Lantuit et al., 2011; Melvin et al., 2017). Furthermore, extensive critical ecosystems, especially the Lena and Mackenzie deltas, which provide food and other ecosystem services to nearby communities, are at risk today (Emmertson et al., 2007; Forbes, 2019). ⇒ Score [5]

M3: High flooding risk today for Kivalina, Shishmaref, Shingle Point, Tuktoyaktuk, and parts of the Mackenzie and Lena deltas (less so for Bykovsky). In Shishmaref, for example, 10 flooding events (1973-2015) resulted in emergency declarations (Solomon, 2005; Bronen and Chapin, 2013; Lamoureux et al., 2015; Albert et al., 2018; Fang et al., 2018; Irrgang et al., 2019). ⇒ Score [4]

M4: Rapid erosion of ice-rich slopes below residences and other amenities at Bykovsky (Myers, 2005; Lantuit et al., 2011; Vanderlinden et al., 2018); likewise at Shishmaref and Kivalina (Bronen and Chapin, 2013; Albert et al., 2018; Fang et al., 2018), and at Tuktoyaktuk and vicinity (Lamoureux et al., 2015; Ford et al., 2016). ⇒ Score [5]

M5: No evidence of salinisation issues in communities, but brackish water flooding of the outer Mackenzie Delta caused by a 1999 storm surge (a rare event due to upwelling ahead of the storm)

led to widespread die-off of vegetation with negative ecosystem impacts (Pisaric et al., 2011; Kokelj et al., 2012). ⇒ Score [2]

M6: Some existing hard protection in Shishmaref and Tuktoyaktuk (Marino, 2012; Bronen and Chapin, 2013; Lamoureux et al., 2015; Ford et al., 2016). ⇒ Score [-1]

M7: No evidence of attention to natural buffers. Not possible for sea ice. ⇒ Score [0]

M8: Recognition of the need for possible retreat from eroding bluff in Bykovsky (Vanderlinden et al., 2018) and similarly in Tuktoyaktuk, where some facilities (e.g. police, school) have already been relocated (Lamoureux et al., 2015). A new suburb has been established in Tuktoyaktuk but is unpopular because of isolation and there is a strong desire to maintain the historical settlement footprint. In Shishmaref and Kivalina, relocation and retreat policies have been discussed but not implemented, with many challenges identified (Marino, 2012; Bronen and Chapin, 2013; Marino and Lazrus, 2015; Albert et al., 2018). ⇒ Score [-1]

M9: Not considered for Arctic communities.

+43(A)

M1: Modest increase in exposed assets and reflection of population growth with few options to build new infrastructure (Hamilton et al., 2016).

M2: SLR effects exacerbated by increasing permafrost thaw and thermal degradation of ice-rich slopes with climate warming, and ongoing loss of sea ice. This results in increased risk to delta ecosystems (Vermaire et al., 2013; Lamoureux et al., 2015; Melvin et al., 2017; Vanderlinden et al., 2018; Forbes, 2019), and increased contribution of their degradation to risk reduction.

M3: Increased risk of coastal flooding in communities (except Bykovsky) and delta ecosystems; in Shishmaref, projected SLR and reduced ice cover are projected to increase flooding and erosion significantly (Melvin et al., 2017; Hoegh-Guldberg et al., 2018).

M4: As for M3, with erosion further accelerated by permafrost thaw (Lamoureux et al., 2015; Melvin et al., 2017).

M5: Possible risk of more extensive salinisation, e.g. in Mackenzie Delta.

M6: No major additional adaptation efforts compared to today. Same score as for Present day.

M7: Little can be done. No way to restore lost ice.

M8: Under (A) scenario, the significant cost and social capital required for relocation would limit retreat policies, and therefore no further risk reduction compared to today.

M9: Not considered for Arctic communities.

+43(B)

M1: As for +43cm(A).

M2: As for +43cm(A). Sea-ice loss and permafrost thaw projected to continue.

M3: As for +43cm(A).

M4: As for +43cm(A), but with some potential for erosion to be reduced by adaptation.

M5: As for +43cm(A).

M6: There are few opportunities even with current rates of change. Potential adaptations include shoreline protection or seawall construction, which may have some value in reducing flooding, but past experience is not encouraging and long-term effectiveness open to question (Sussman et al., 2014; Melvin et al., 2017; Fang et al., 2018). ⇒ Score [-1] compared to +43cm(A).

M7: As for +43cm(A).

M8: Limited governance stability or resources for action in Bykovsky (Vanderlinden et al., 2018), but overall, retreat could contribute to some risk reduction compared to scenario (A).

M9: Not considered for Arctic communities.

+84(A)

M1: Same rationale as for +43cm(A), with increase in exposed assets in some places and higher sea level making asset density more challenging.

M2: Exacerbation of permafrost thaw and thermal degradation of ice-rich slopes, increased risk to delta ecosystems including Lena Delta Wildlife Reserve and Kendall Island Bird Sanctuary, and ongoing loss of sea ice.

M3: Increased risk of flooding, particularly in the outer deltas (Fedorova et al., 2015; Forbes, 2019), with much more extensive flooding in Kivalina and Shishmaref (Melvin et al., 2017).

M4: Accelerated erosion at all sites.

M5: Risk of more extensive salinisation in Mackenzie Delta and potential impacts on barrier island settlements.

M6: No risk reduction anticipated for scenario (A) given challenges outlined above.

M7: No change, little attention to natural buffers, and no way to address some such as lost sea ice.

M8: As for +43cm(A).

M9: Not considered for Arctic communities.

+84(B)

M1: As for +84cm(A).

M2: As for +84cm(A).

M3: As for +84cm(A).

M4: As for +84cm(A).

M5: As for +84cm(A).

M6: Even under scenario (B) there are probably few additional options, but demands for more shore protection will be louder in Tuktoyaktuk. The effectiveness of hard-engineered protection structures may however be limited by permafrost thaw.

M7: As for +84cm(A).

M8: Possibly some local ad hoc action on retreat from eroding bluffs at Bykovsky, although lack of governance stability or effectiveness limits action (Vanderlinden et al., 2018); some additional relocation of assets will probably occur in Tuktoyaktuk and Shingle Point; SLR of this magnitude may provide additional impetus for community relocation in Shishmaref and Kivalina. Therefore: substantial effect on risk reduction compared to +43cm(B).

M9: Not considered for Arctic communities.

+110(A)

M1: Probable increase in exposed assets.

M2: Increased risk to delta ecosystems as well as ongoing deeper thaw and loss of sea ice. Possible natural aggradation of barrier islands and spits at Shishmaref, Kivalina, and Shingle Point (Irrgang et al., 2018), but would be accompanied by flooding and infrastructure damage.

M3: Increased risk of flooding (deltas and communities).

M4: Accelerated erosion at all sites.

M5: Enhanced risk in Mackenzie Delta.

M6: As for +84(A).

M7: As for +84(A).

M8: As for +84(A).

M9: Not considered for Arctic communities.

+110(B)

M1: As for +110cm(A).

M2: As for +110cm(A).

M3: As for +110cm(A).

M4: As for +110cm(A).

M5: As for +110cm(A).

M6: Enhanced shore protection at Tuktoyaktuk, but in Shishmaref and Kivalina there are probably few additional options for adaptation. As for +84cm(B), the effectiveness of hard-engineered protection structures may however be limited by permafrost thaw.

M7: As for +84cm(B).

M8: As for +84cm(B). While some further community-led relocation in Shishmaref and Kivalina, for example, offers a way to reduce risk, it also faces many barriers.

M9: Not considered for Arctic communities.

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