



Sea level & Consequences

Anastasiia Babenko
Mirosław Banach
Rujan Shakya
Sofia Delgado

12 - 01 - 2021

INTRODUCTION

To what extent did climate change contribute to sea-level rise in the past?

How much will global mean sea level increase in the future?

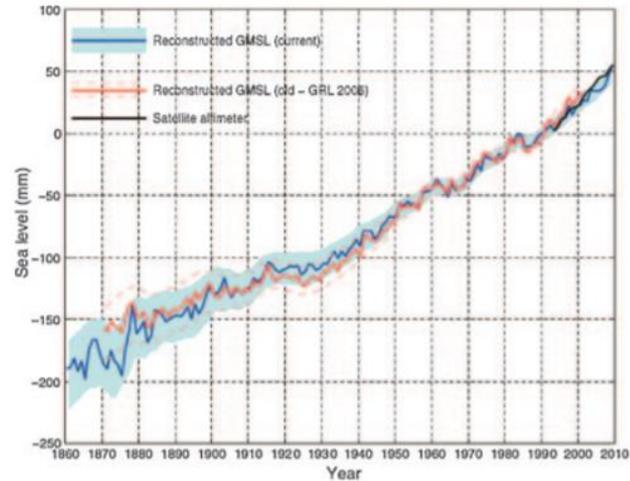
How serious are the impacts?



Agenda

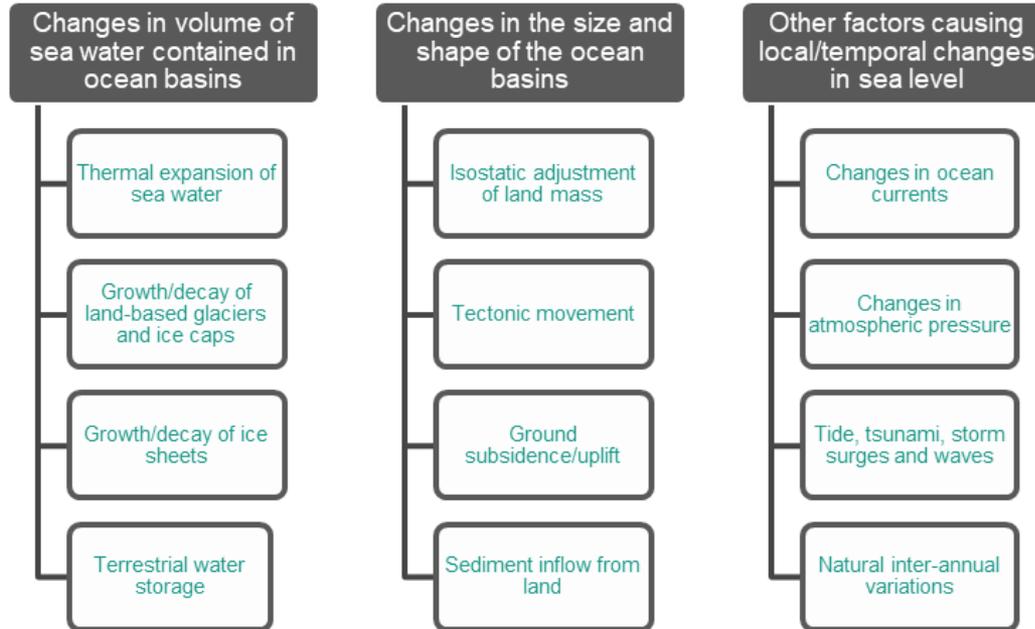
- Sea-level fluctuation in the past;
- General causes of the sea level rise;
- High Mountain and Polar regions;
- Coast and Ocean regions;
- Extremes and abrupt or irreversible changes in the ocean and cryosphere in a changing climate

Sea-level rise since the end of 19th century



Global mean sea level from 1860 to 2009

Factors causing changes in sea level





HIGH
MOUNTAINS

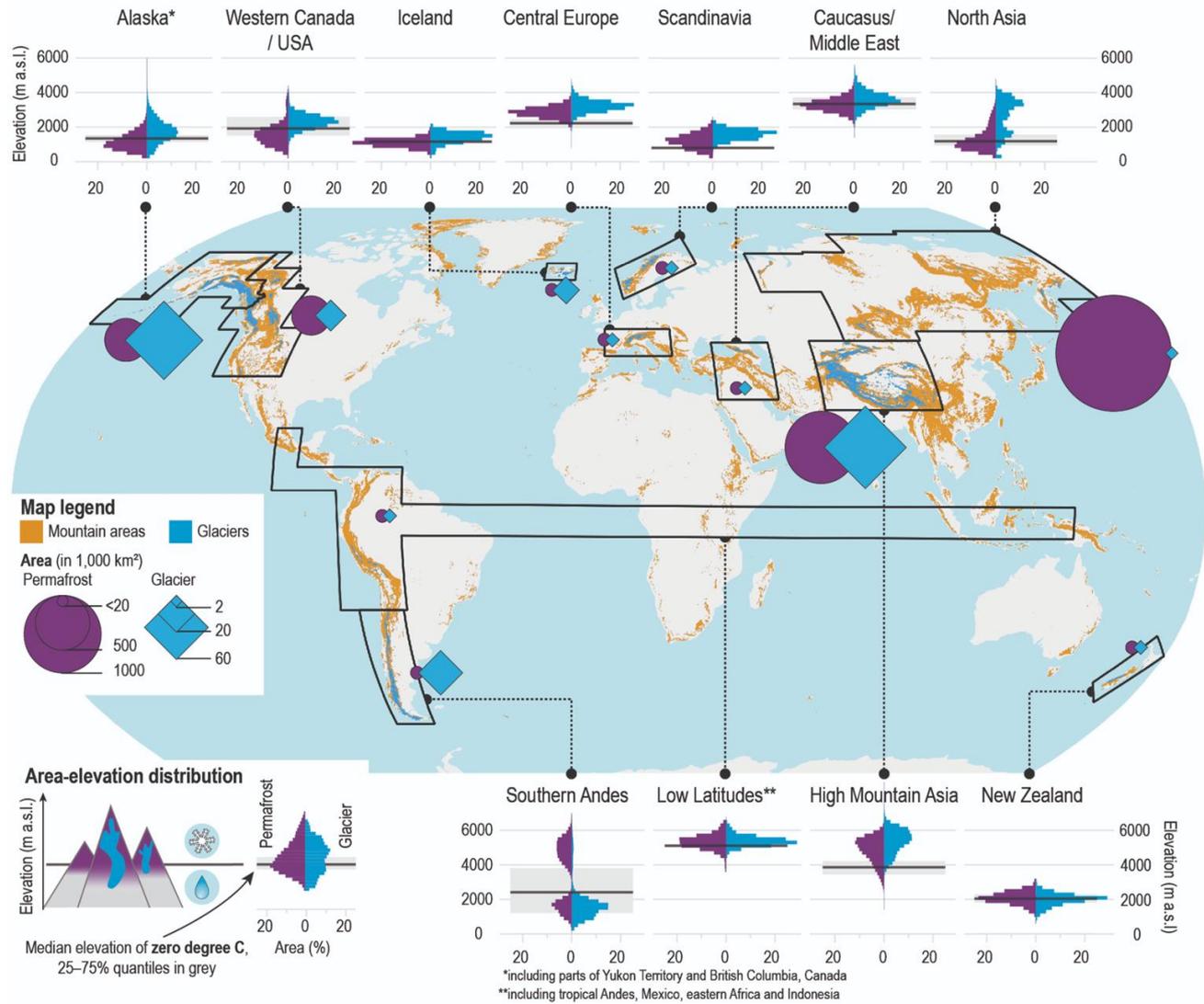
POLAR REGIONS

Mountains & Glaciers

cryosphere (snow, glaciers, permafrost, lake and river ice)

High mountain regions:
 rugged terrain, low-temperature climate regime, steep slopes, institutional and spatial remoteness.

roughly 10% of global population.



Observations

general warming (European Alps, Scandinavia, Mongolia, the Tien Shan and the Tibetan Plateau)

permafrost degradation (Tibetan Plateau)

Table 2.1 | Observed changes in permafrost mean annual ground temperature (MAGT) in mountain regions. Values are based on individual boreholes or ensembles of several boreholes. The MAGT refers to the last year in a period and is taken from a depth of 10–20 m unless the borehole is shallower. Region names refer to Figure 2.1. Numbers in brackets indicate how many sites are summarised for a particular surface type and area; the underscored value is an average. Elevation is metres above sea level (m a.s.l.).

Region	Elevation [m a.s.l.]	Surface Type	Period	MAGT [°C]	MAGT trend [°C per decade]	Reference
Global	>1,000	various (28)	2006–2017	not specified	0.2 ± 0.05	Biskaborn et al. (2019)
European Alps	2,500–3,000	debris or coarse blocks (>10)	1987–2005 2006–2017	>-3 >-3	0.0–0.2 0.0–0.6	PERMOS (2016) Noetzli et al. (2018)
	3,500–4,000	bedrock (4)	2008–2017	>-5.5	0.0–1.0	Pogliotti et al. (2015) Magnin et al. (2015) Noetzli et al. (2018)
Scandinavia	1,402–1,505	moraine (3)	1999–2009	0 to - 0.5	0.0–0.2	Isaksen et al. (2011)
	1,500–1,894	bedrock (2)	1999–2009	-2.7	0.5	Christiansen et al. (2010)
High Mountain Asia (Tien Shan)	~3,330	bare soil (2)	1974–2009	-0.5 to - 0.1	0.3–0.6	Zhao et al. (2010)
	3,500	meadow (1)	1992–2011	-1.1	0.4	Liu et al. (2017)
High Mountain Asia (Tibetan Plateau)	~4,650	meadow (6)	2002–2012	-1.52 to - 0.41	0.08–0.24	Wu et al. (2015)
	~4,650	steppe (3)	2002–2012	-0.79 to - 0.17		Wu et al. (2015)
	~4,650	bare soil (1)	2003–2012	-0.22	0.15	Wu et al. (2015)
	4,500–5,000	unknown (6)	2002–2011	-1.5 to - 0.16	0.08–0.24	Peng et al. (2015)
North Asia (Mongolia)	1,350–2,050	steppe (6)	2000–2009	-0.06 to - 1.54	0.2–0.3	Zhao et al. (2010)

Table 2.2 | Observed changes of active-layer thickness (ALT) in mountain regions. Numbers in brackets indicate how many sites are summarised for a particular surface type and area. Region names refer to Figure 2.1. Elevation is metres above sea level (m a.s.l.).

Region	Elevation [m a.s.l.]	Surface Type	Period	ALT in last year [m]	ALT trend [cm per decade]	Reference
Scandinavia	353–507	peatland (9)	1978–2006 1997–2006	~0.65–0.85	7–13 13–20	Åkerman and Johansson (2008)
European Alps	2,500–2,910	bedrock (4)	2000–2014	4.2–5.2	10–100	PERMOS (2016)
High Mountain Asia (Tien Shan)	3,500	meadow (1)	1992–2011	1.70	19	Liu et al. (2017)
High Mountain Asia (Tibetan Plateau)	4,629–4,665	meadow (6)	2002–2012	2.11–2.3	34.8–45.7	Wu et al. (2015)
	4,638–4,645	steppe (3)	2002–2012	2.54–3.03	39.6–67.2	Wu et al. (2015)
	4,635	bare soil (1)	2002–2012	3.38	18.9	Wu et al. (2015)
	4,848	meadow	2006–2014	1.92–2.72	15.2–54	Lin et al. (2016)

1. Mean Annual Ground Temp (MAGT)
2.Active Layer Thickness (ALT)

Impacts | Risks



- Changes in river runoff
- Water quality

Key impacts and Vulnerability:

- Hydropower
- Agriculture
- Drinking water supply

- Unstable slopes, landslides and glacier instabilities
- Snow avalanches
- Floods
- Other Combined hazards and cascading events

Challenges to Farmers and local Population, Ecosystems, Cultural values and Human well-being



Polar Regions, People and the Planet

Atmospheric feedbacks: connect polar cryosphere and ocean change to the global climate system

Snow frozen ground: affect landscapes, people, their culture(Arctic) and climate

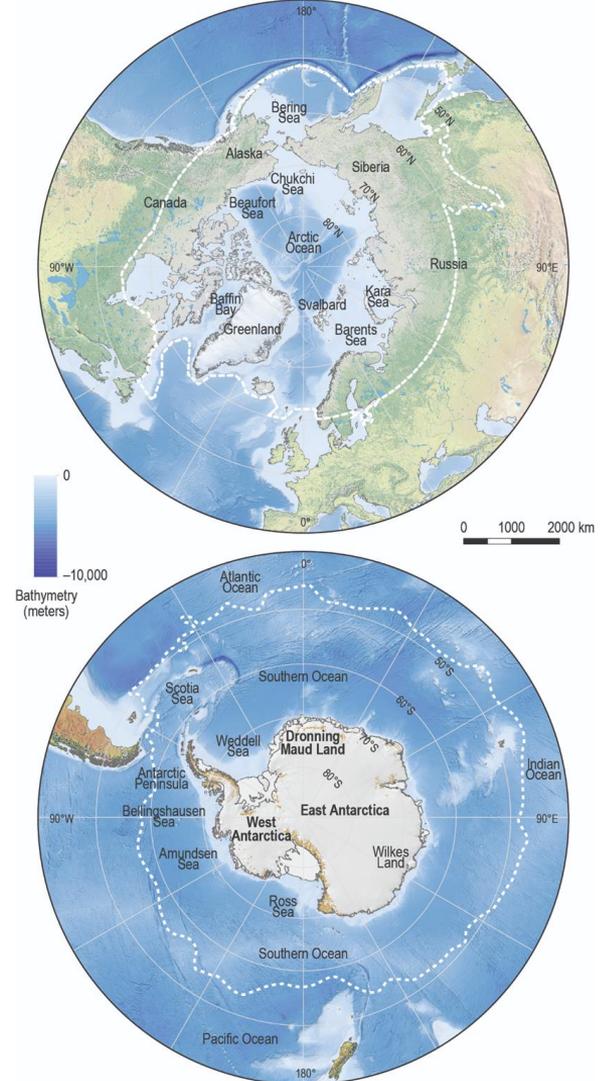
Ocean circulation: influenced globally by polar processes and affects drawdown of atmospheric heat and carbon

Ice sheets and glaciers: discharge freshwater that influences ocean circulation, ecosystems and sea level

Sea ice: influence climate weather, marine ecosystems and humans activities

Marine ecosystems: vulnerable to climate change

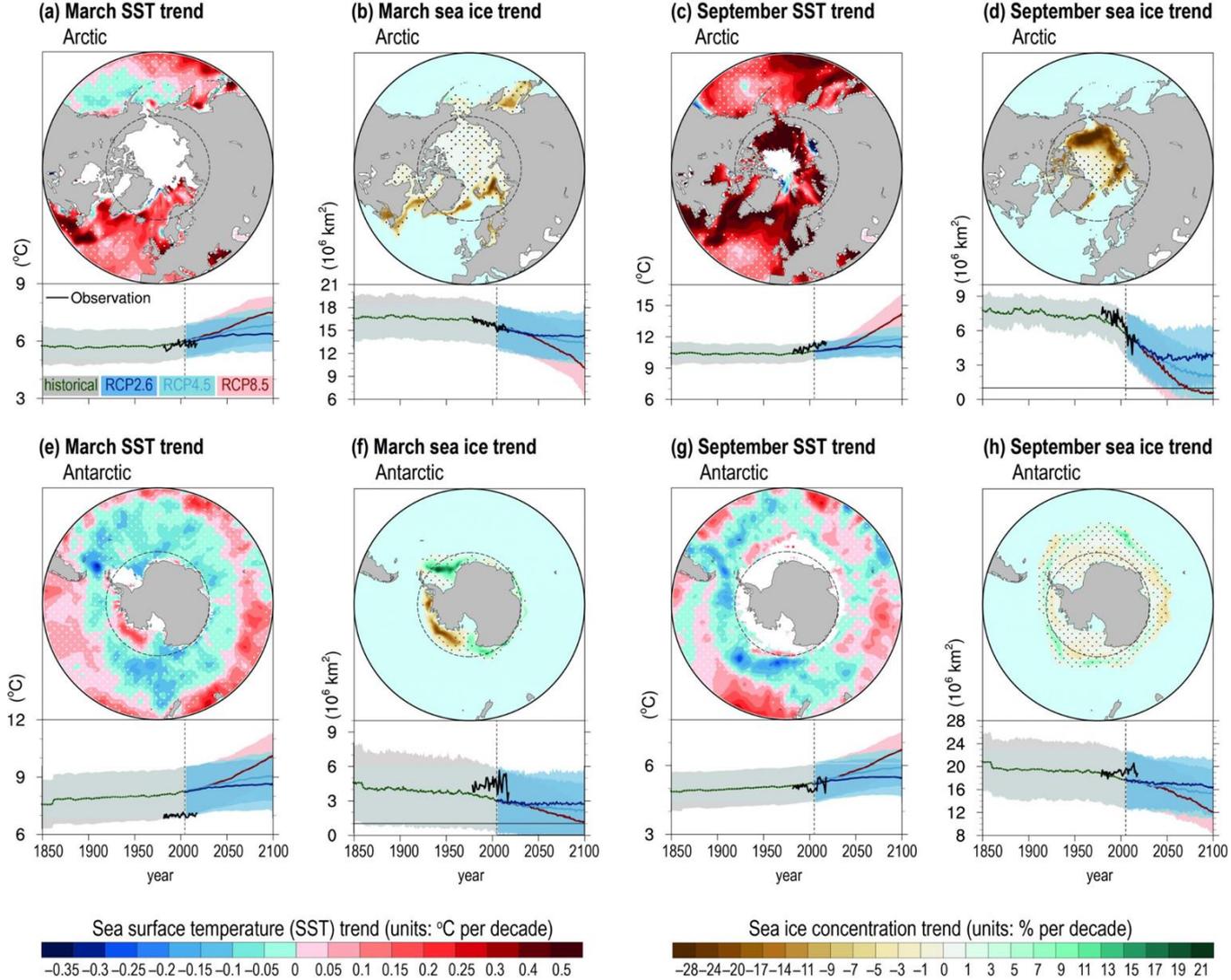
Terrestrial ecosystems: provide for people and contain unique biodiversity affected by climate change



changes are largest in summer and smallest in winter, with the strongest trends in September.

warming trends have continued: August trends for 1982–2017 reveal summer mixed layer temperatures increasing at about 0.5°C per decade over large sectors of the Arctic basin that are ice-free in summer

the ensemble mean across multiple models show a decrease in total Antarctic sea ice extent during the satellite era, in contrast to the lack of any observed trend





An aerial photograph of a beach. The left side shows vibrant turquoise waves with white foam crashing onto a light-colored sandy shore. The right side shows the smooth, undisturbed sand of the beach. The overall scene is bright and clear.

Coast & Ocean Regions

Projected impacts

Coastal cities and megacities

-New York City, Tokyo, Jakarta, Mumbai, Shanghai, Lagos and Cairo

Risks:

- Economic (monetary value)
- Urban
- Social



Small islands

Tuvalu (Oceania)

Loss and damage of territory:

- Ocean acidification
- Storms
- Floods
- Hurricanes

-Uninhabitable before the middle of the 21st century

- Near future problems: land, soils and freshwater availability
- Tourism and recreation



<https://bi.im-g.pl/im/2/7990/z7990462V,Atol-Funafuti-i-stolica-Tuvalu---Vaiaku.jpg>

Arctic coasts

Norway's Lofoten archipelago

Impacts:

- Economy
- Local cultural identity, self-sufficiency of the land (fish and seabird population)
- Decrease in seasonal sea ice extent = reduction of protection of the land

-‘Indigenous peoples (...) have been pushed into marginalised territories that are more sensitive to climate impacts’
(Ford et al., 2016: 350)



https://assets.simpleviewcms.com/simpleview/image/upload/c_limit,h_1200,q_75,w_1200/v1/clients/norway/2000_1000Henningsv_r_Bryggehotell_Classic_Norway_Christer_Olsen_Photo_82a94e68-bf34-4571-b14a-ee781eb41eea.jpg

Subsidence caused by human activities

Jakarta, Indonesia

Jakarta is sinking up to 6.7 inches per year due to excessive groundwater pumping

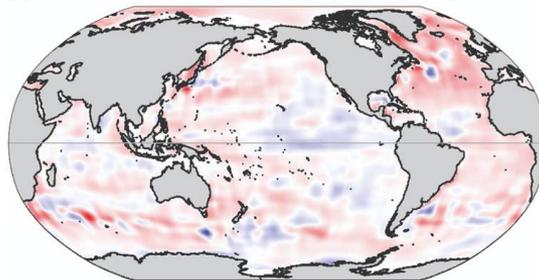
Much of the city could be underwater by 2050



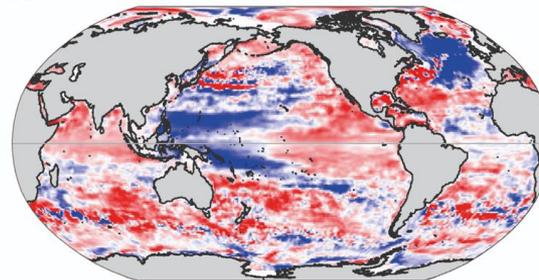
Changing ocean and biodiversity

Heat

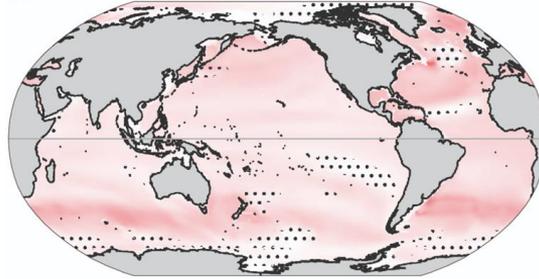
(a) Inferred from Observations (1971–1990) to (1998–2017)



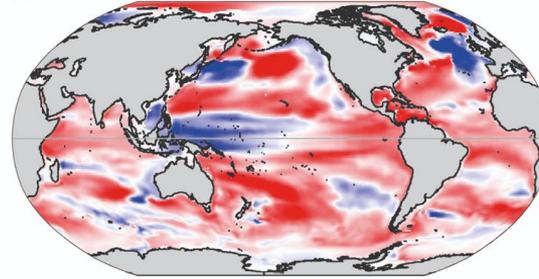
(d) Inferred from Observations (2005–2009) to (2013–2017)



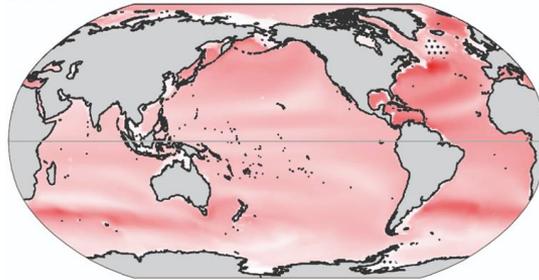
(b) CMIP5 Ensemble Mean (1971–1990) to (1998–2017)



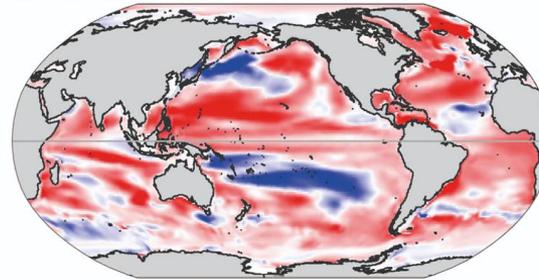
(e) CCSM Realization #1 (2005–2009) to (2013–2017)



(c) CMIP5 Ensemble Mean (1986–2005) to (2081–2100)

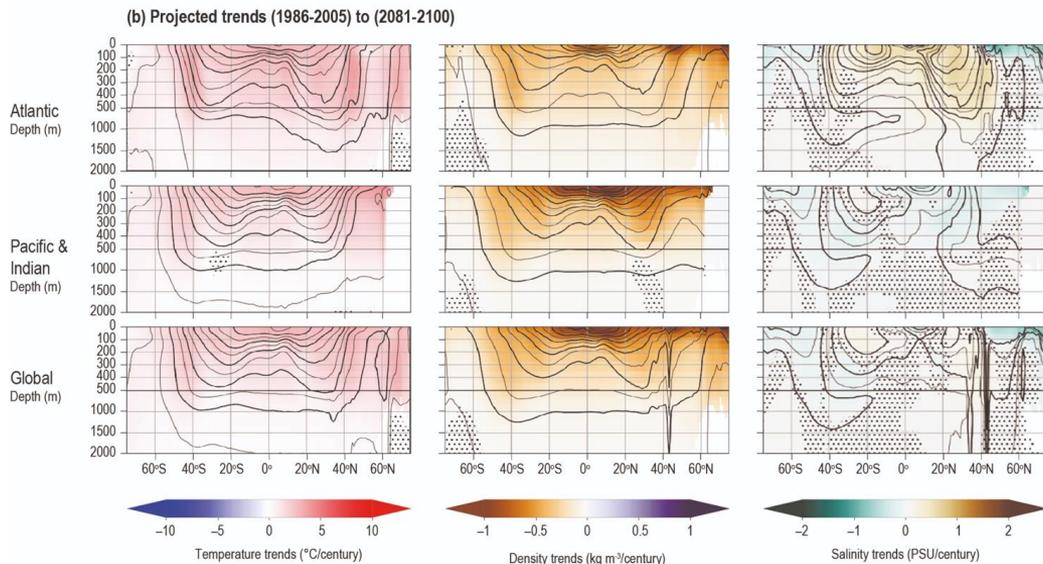
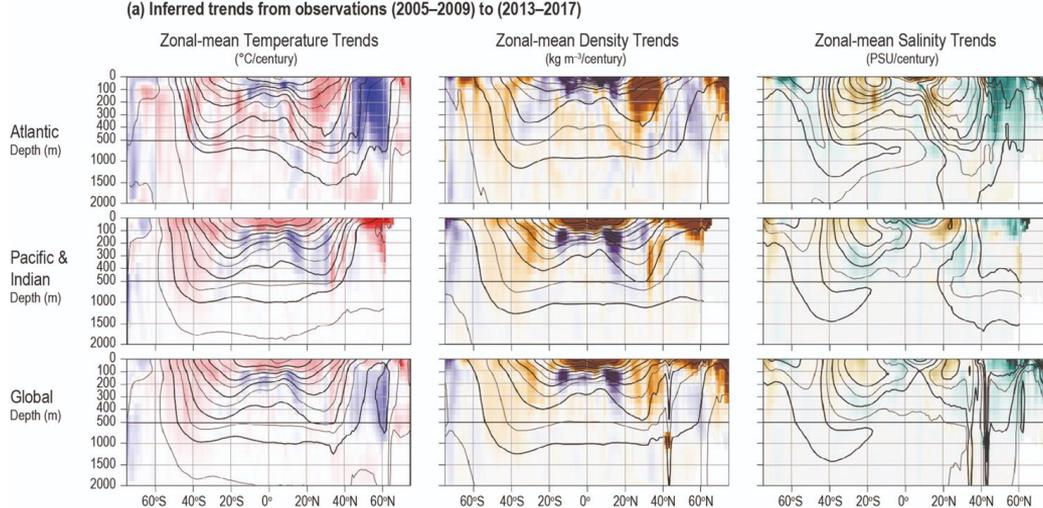


(f) CCSM Realization #2 (2005–2009) to (2013–2017)



0 m – 700 m Ocean Heat Uptake (W/m^2)

Temperature, Salinity and Density.



Changing coastal ecosystems and biodiversity

Salinisation - Estuaries and vegetated wetlands (Blue carbon)



2.



1.



3.

1. Salt marshals
2. Mangrove forests
3. Subtidal seagrass meadows

Globally, between 20–90% of existing coastal wetland area is projected to be lost by 2100

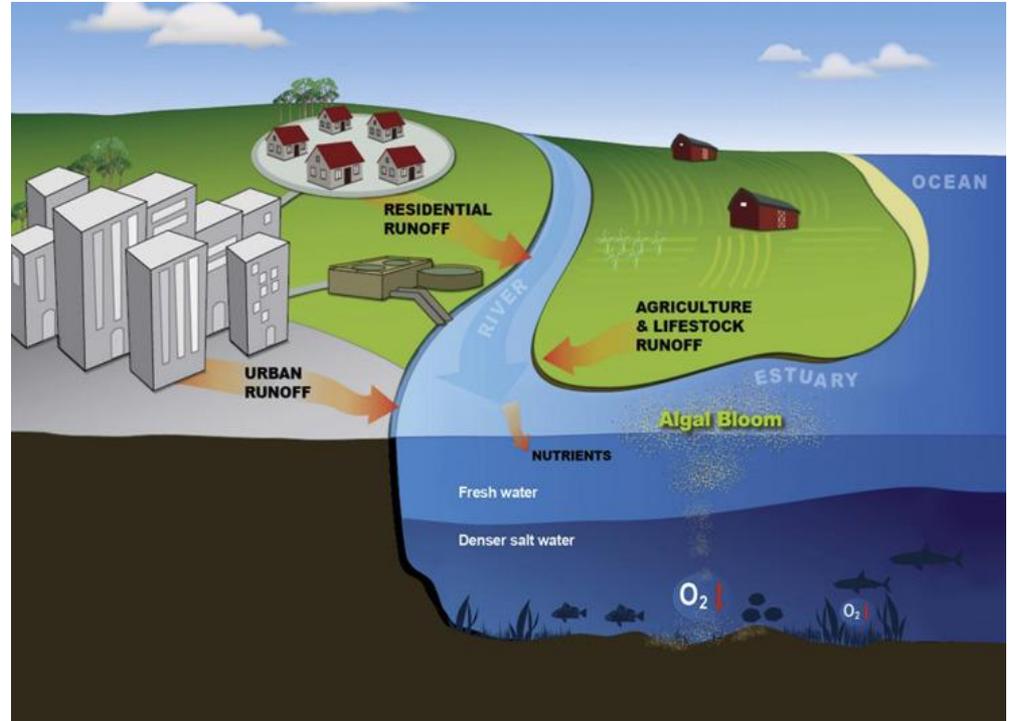
<https://coast.noaa.gov/data/estuaries/img/curriculum-climate-extension-slide-1-1168.png>

https://www.nature.scot/sites/default/files/styles/max_1300x1300/public/2017-07/Norhton-D11065.jpg?itok=xYJGm0U

http://site-547756.mozfiles.com/files/547756/medium/Mangrove_Swamp_Wetlands-1.jpg

https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/4/45/Sanc0209_-_Flickr_-_NOAA_Photo_Library.jpg

Oxygen-depleted dead zones



<https://ars.els-cdn.com/content/image/3-s2.0-B9780128050521000218-f24-03-9780128050521.jpg>

Ecosystems at high risks

Coral reefs and rocky shores

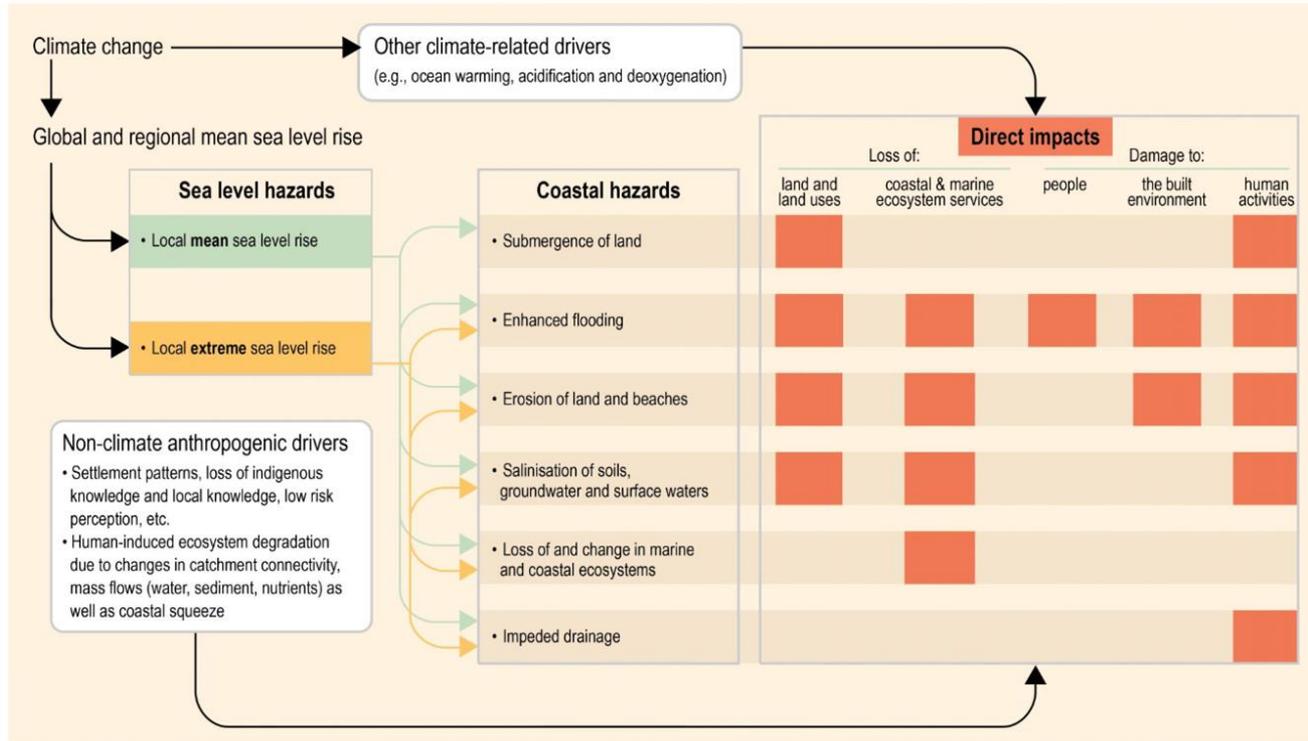


https://coral.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/09/CoralReef_FrenchPolynesia-1024x681.jpg



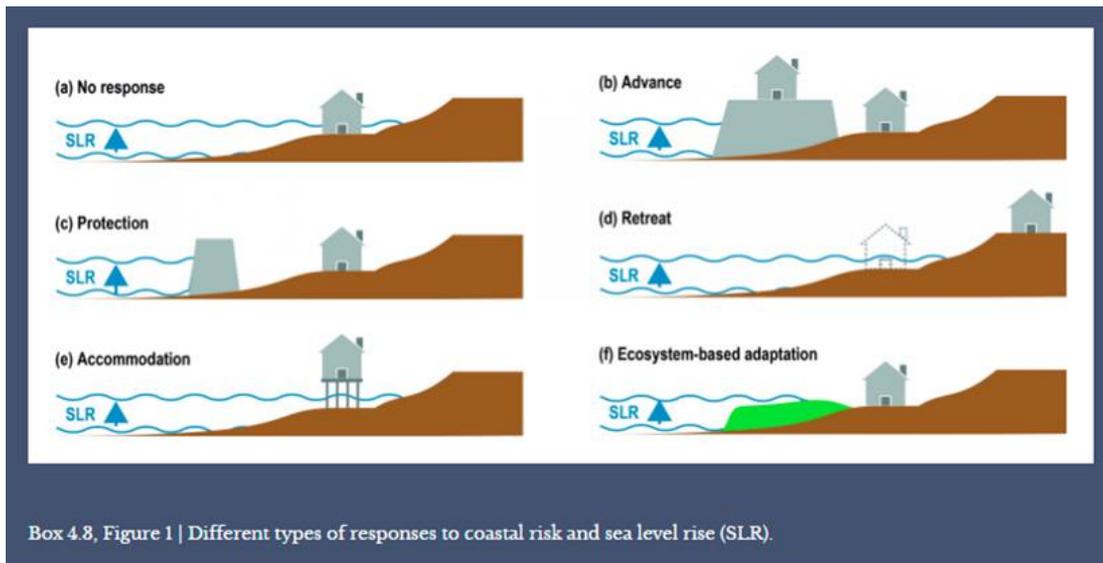
<https://teara.govt.nz/files/p2655enz.jpg>

Figure 4.13 | Overview of the main cascading effects of sea level rise (SLR). Styles and colours of lines (left hand side: light/dark blue; right hand side: dotted/undotted and orange/green/dark yellow/purple/turquoise) and boxes are used only for the readability of the figure.



Progress and adaptation

- Advance
- Protection
- Retreat
- Accommodation
- Ecosystem-based adaptation (EbA)



Preventing floods

Bangkok, Thailand

Bangkok is sinking at a rate of more than 1 centimeter a year
Estimated below sea level by 2030, according to The Guardian

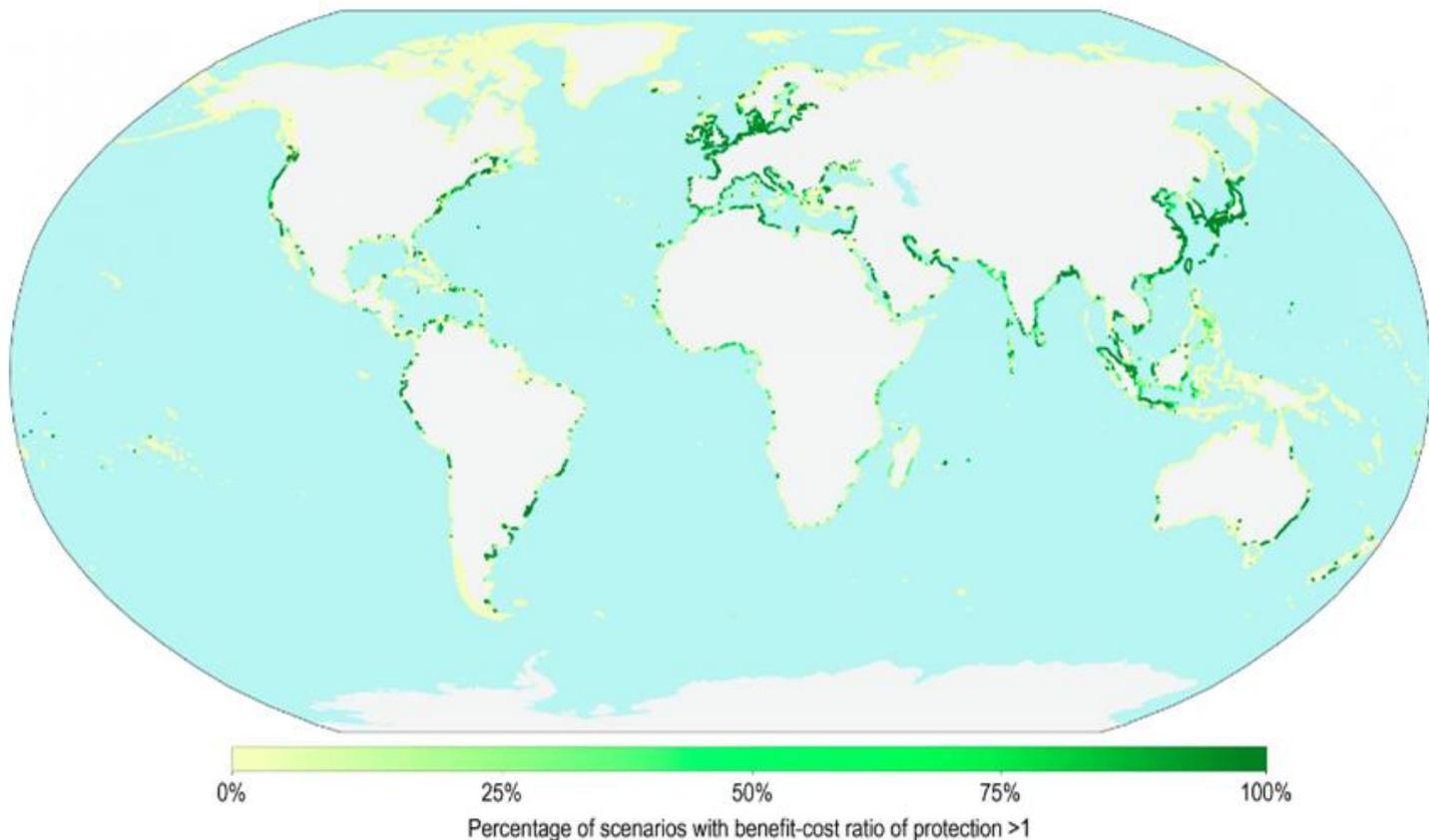
To help prevent flooding, especially during rainy season,
an architecture firm built an 11-acre park that can hold up to 1 million gallons of rainwater

Chulalongkorn University Centenary Park

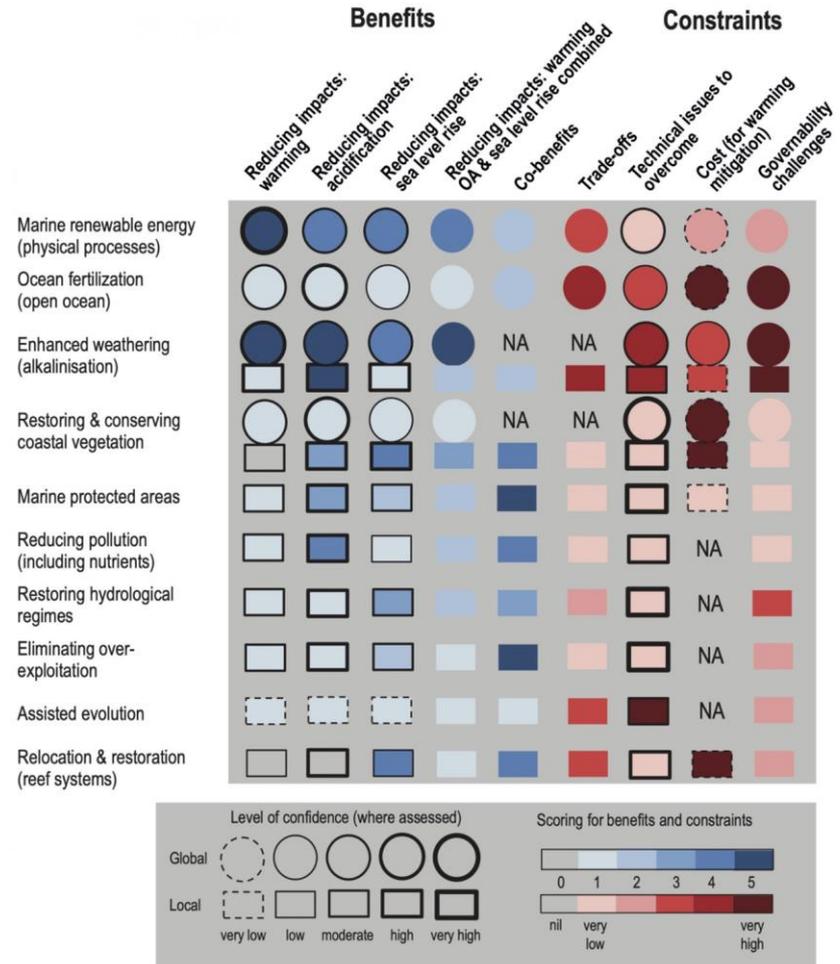


<https://worldlandscapearchitect.com/chulalongkorn-centenary-park-green-infrastructure-for-the-city-of-bangkok/#.YdubB9VKjIV>

Figure 4.14 | Economic robustness of coastal protection under sea level rise (SLR) scenarios from 0.3–2.0 m, the five Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs) and discount rates of up to 6%. Coastlines are coloured according to the percentage of scenarios under which the benefit-cost ratio of protection (reduced flood risk divided by the cost of protection) [...]



Potential benefits and constraints of ocean-based risk-reduction options using natural processes, from literature-based expert assessments by Gattuso et al. (2018). Mitigation effectiveness was quantified relative to Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP)8.5



Overview

“Climate-change induced GMSL (global mean sea level) rise is caused by thermal expansion of ocean water and ocean mass gain, the latter primarily due to a decrease in land-ice mass”

“The combination of gradual change of mean sea level with ESL (extreme sea level) events such as tides, surges and waves causes coastal impacts”

Preparing for future SLR:

- Manage and reduce anthropogenic subsidence.
- Improve observational systems (tide gauges, wave buoys and remote sensing techniques), because in many places around the world current frequencies and intensities of ESL events are not well understood due to a lack of observational data.
- Ecosystem-based adaptation
- Accommodation to reduce vulnerability of coastal residents, human activities, ecosystems and the built environment

Nevertheless

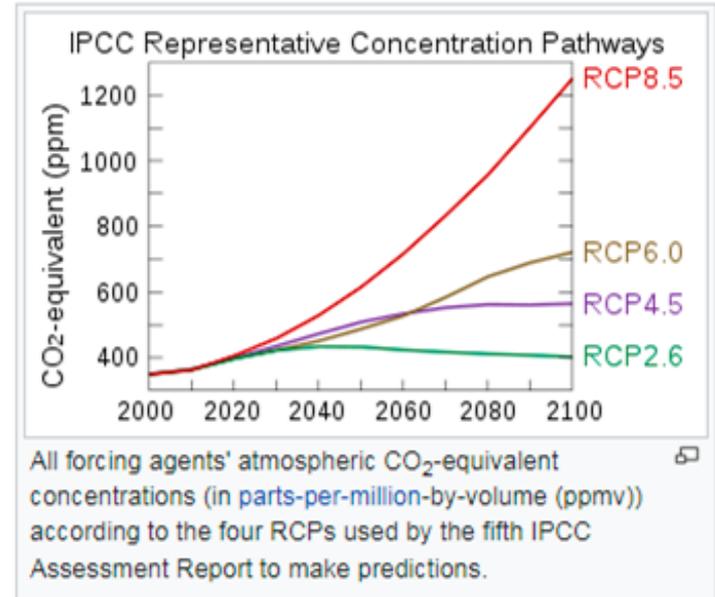
Up to 2050, uncertainty in climate change-driven future sea level is relatively small, which provides a robust basis for short-term (≤ 30 years) adaptation planning. GMSL will rise between 0.24 m under RCP2.6 and 0.32 m under RCP8.5

References: <https://www.ipcc.ch/srocc/chapter/chapter-4-sea-level-rise-and-implications-for-low-lying-islands-coasts-and-communities/>

<https://www.ipcc.ch/srocc/chapter/chapter-5/>

<https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2019/09/11-sinking-cities-that-could-soon-be-underwater/>

RCP: Representative Concentration Pathways



**EXTREMES AND ABRUPT
OR IRREVERSIBLE CHANGES
IN THE OCEAN
AND CRYOSPHERE
IN A CHANGING CLIMATE**



Extreme weather/climate event:

An event that is rare at a particular place and time of year. Definitions of 'rare' vary, but an extreme event would normally be as rare as or rarer than the 10th percentile of a probability function estimated from observations.



Abrupt climate change:

A large-scale change in the climate system that takes place over a few decades or less, persists (or is anticipated to persist) for at least a few decades, and causes substantial disruptions in human and natural systems.



Irreversibility:

A perturbed state of a dynamical system is defined as irreversible on a given timescale, if the recovery timescale from this state due to natural processes is significantly longer than the time it takes for the system to reach this perturbed state.

In the context of IPCC report and the Climate Change, the recovery time scale is hundreds to thousands of years.



Tipping point:

A level of change in system properties beyond which a system reorganizes and does not return to the initial state even if the drivers of the change are abated.



Compound events

refer to the combination of multiple drivers and/or hazards that contribute to societal or environmental risks.

Cascading impacts

from extreme weather/climate events occur when an extreme hazard generates a sequence of secondary events in natural and human systems that result in physical, natural, social or economic disruption, whereby the resulting impact is significantly larger than the initial impact.

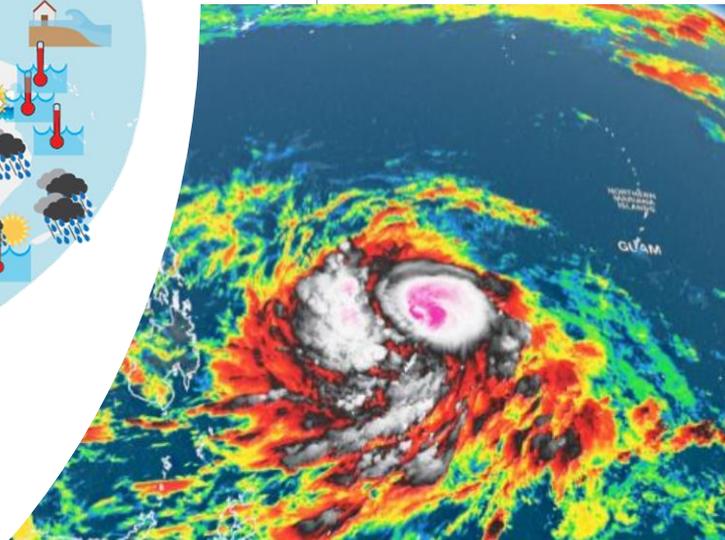
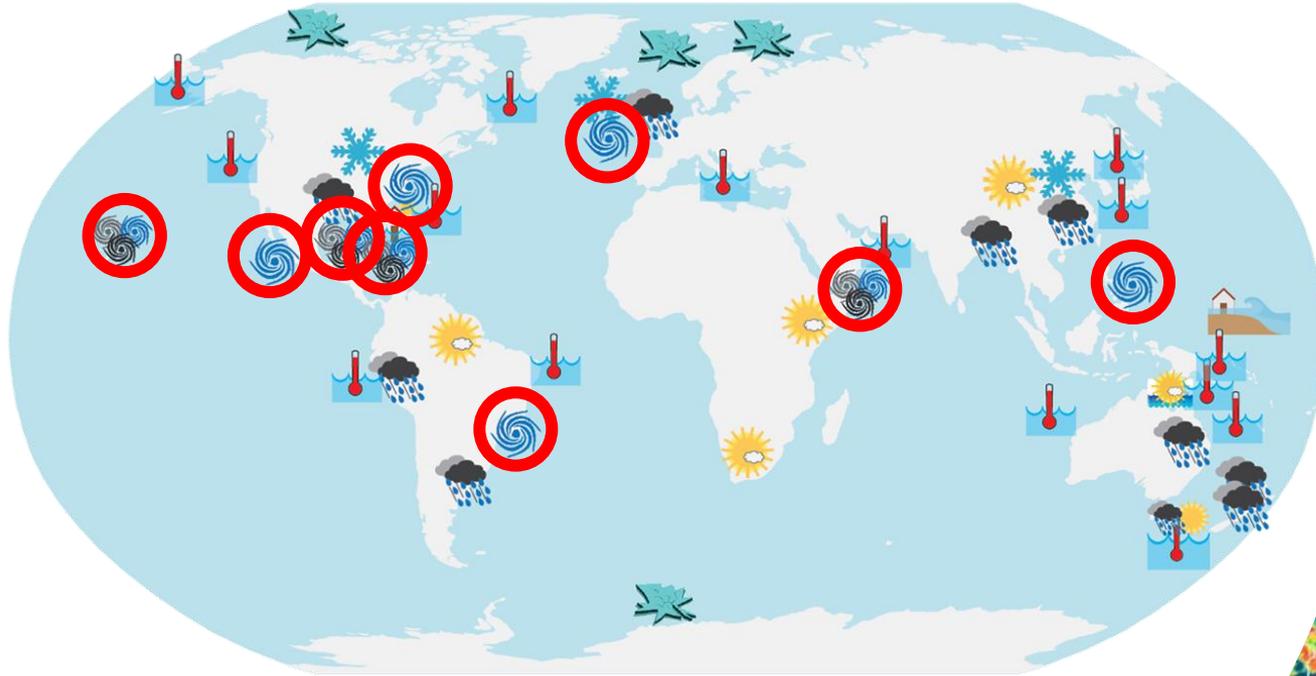


**EXTREMES AND ABRUPT
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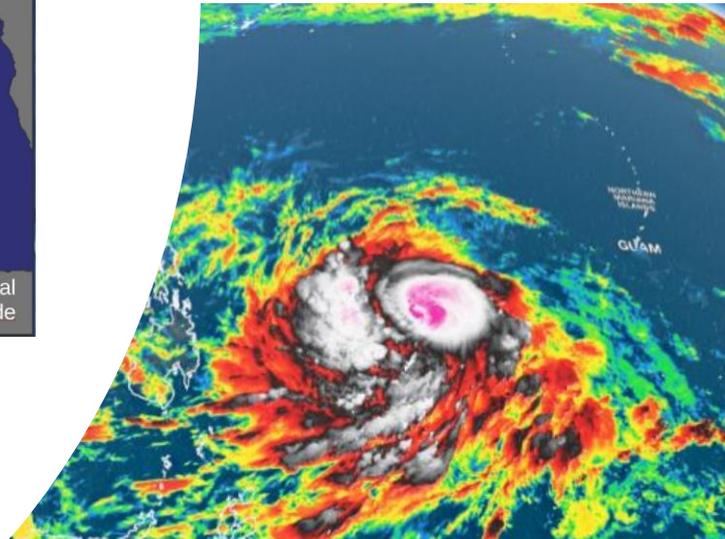
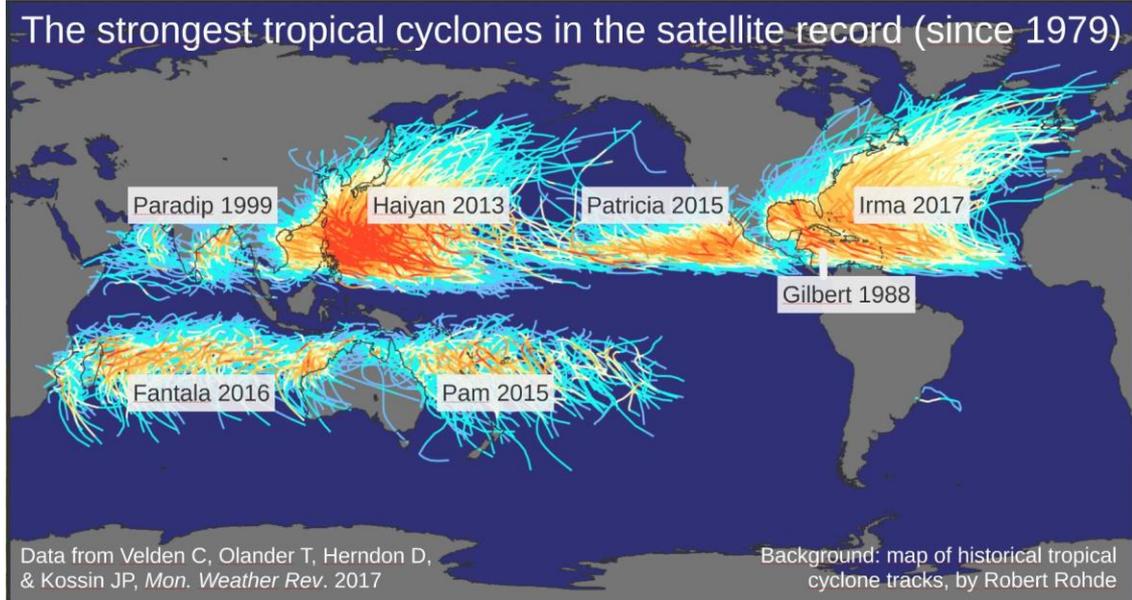
WHAT WE CAN SEE?



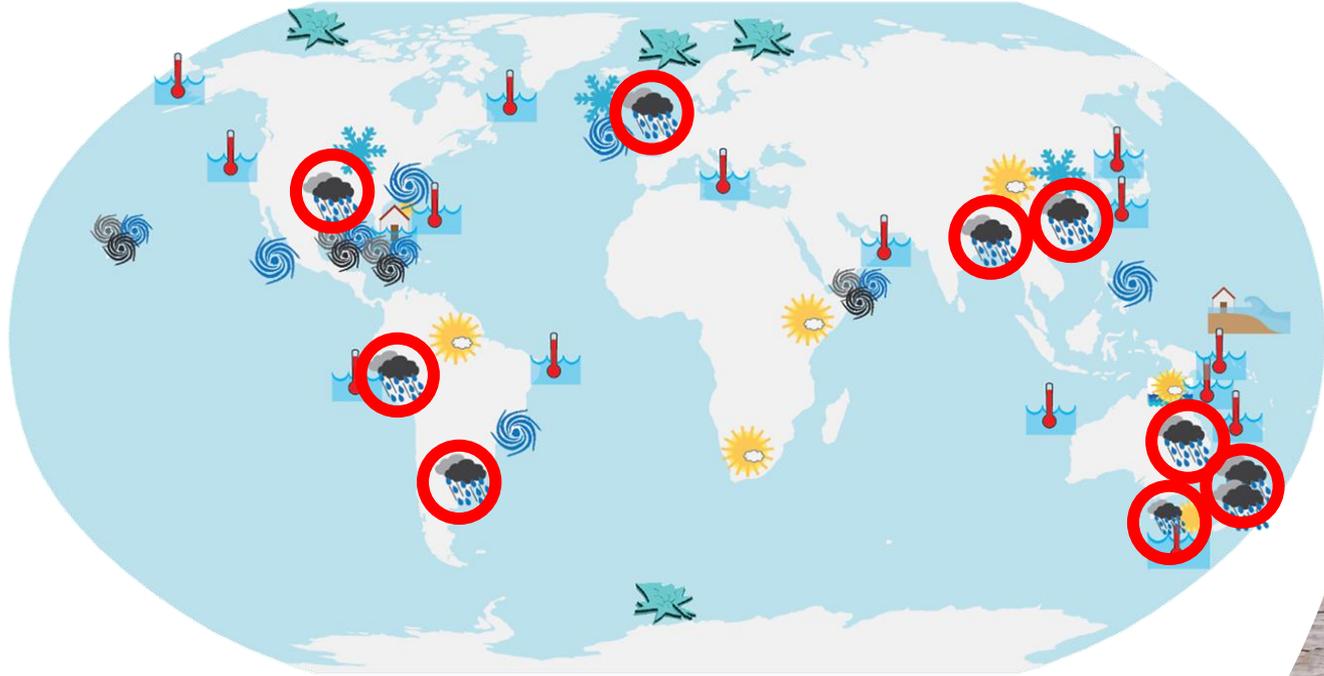
TROPICAL CYCLONES



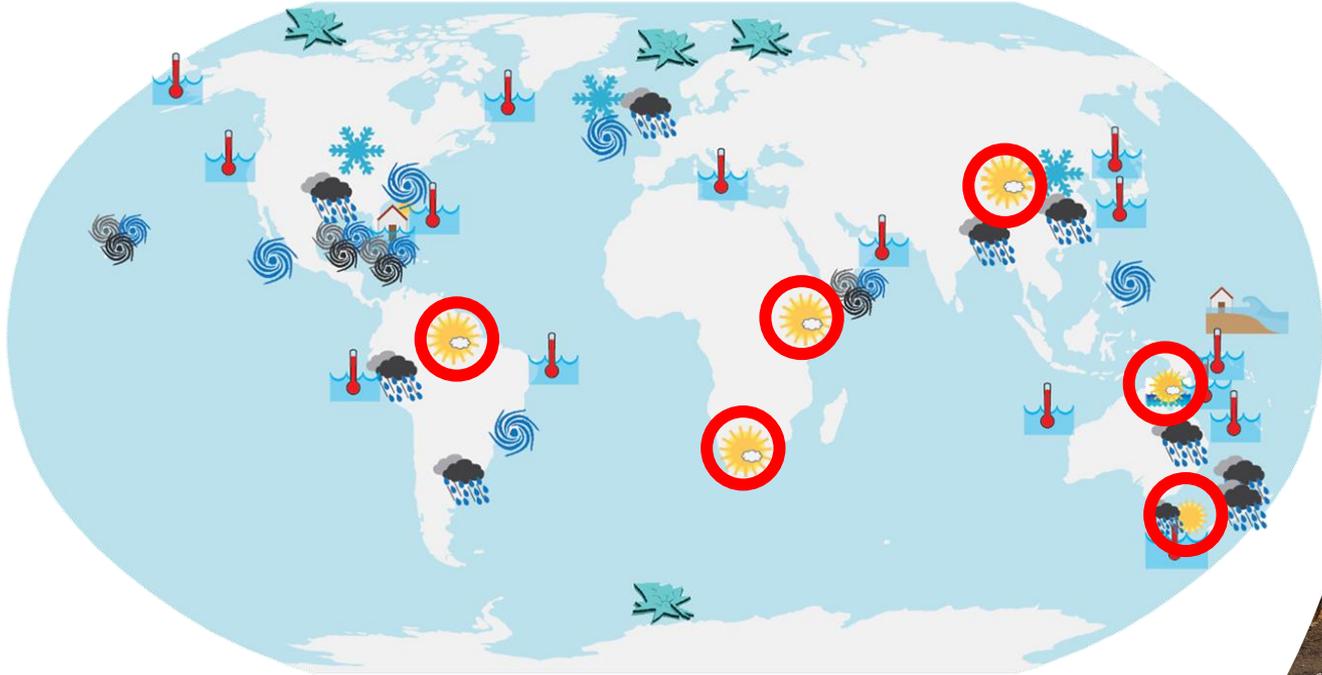
TROPICAL CYCLONES



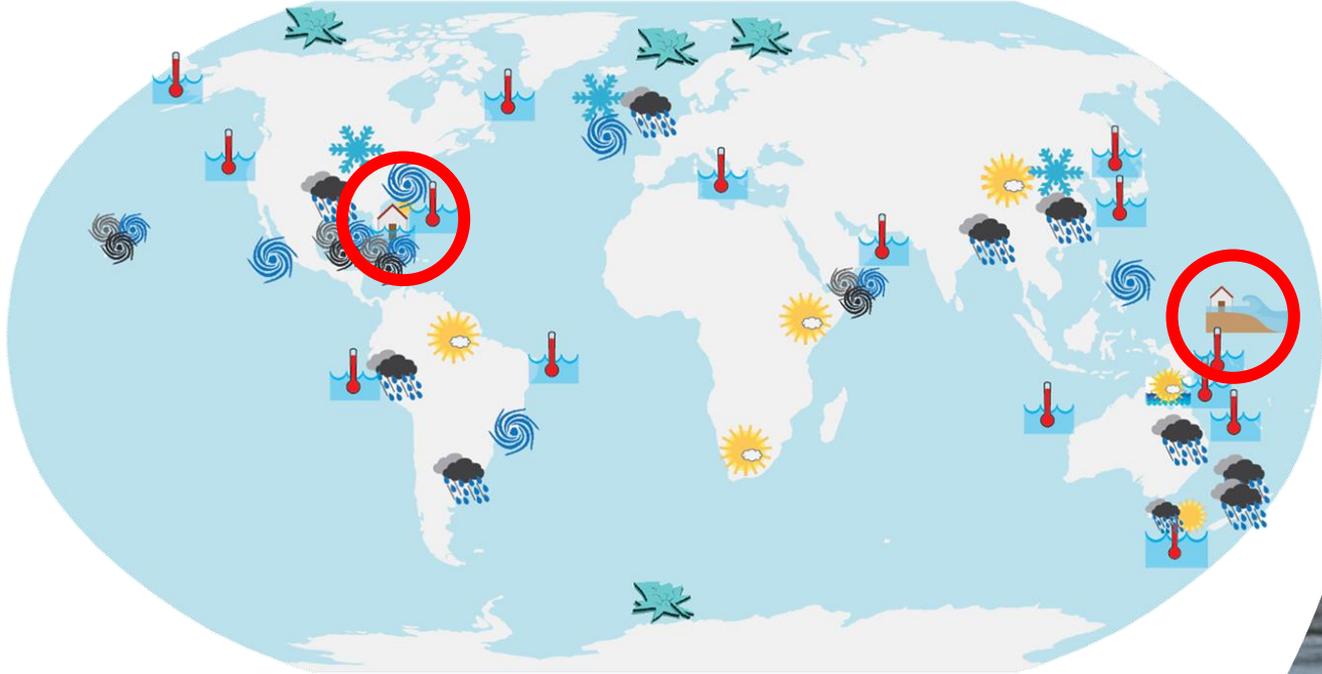
EXTREME RAINFALL



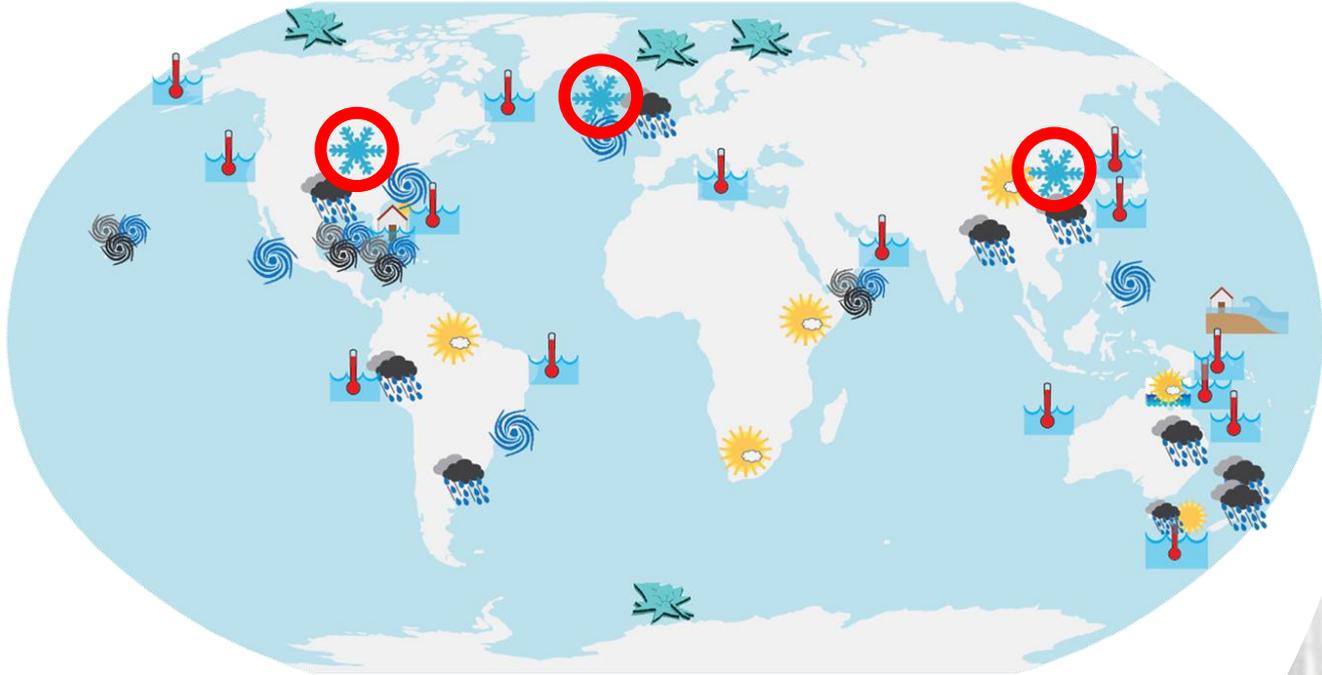
EXTREME DROUGHTS



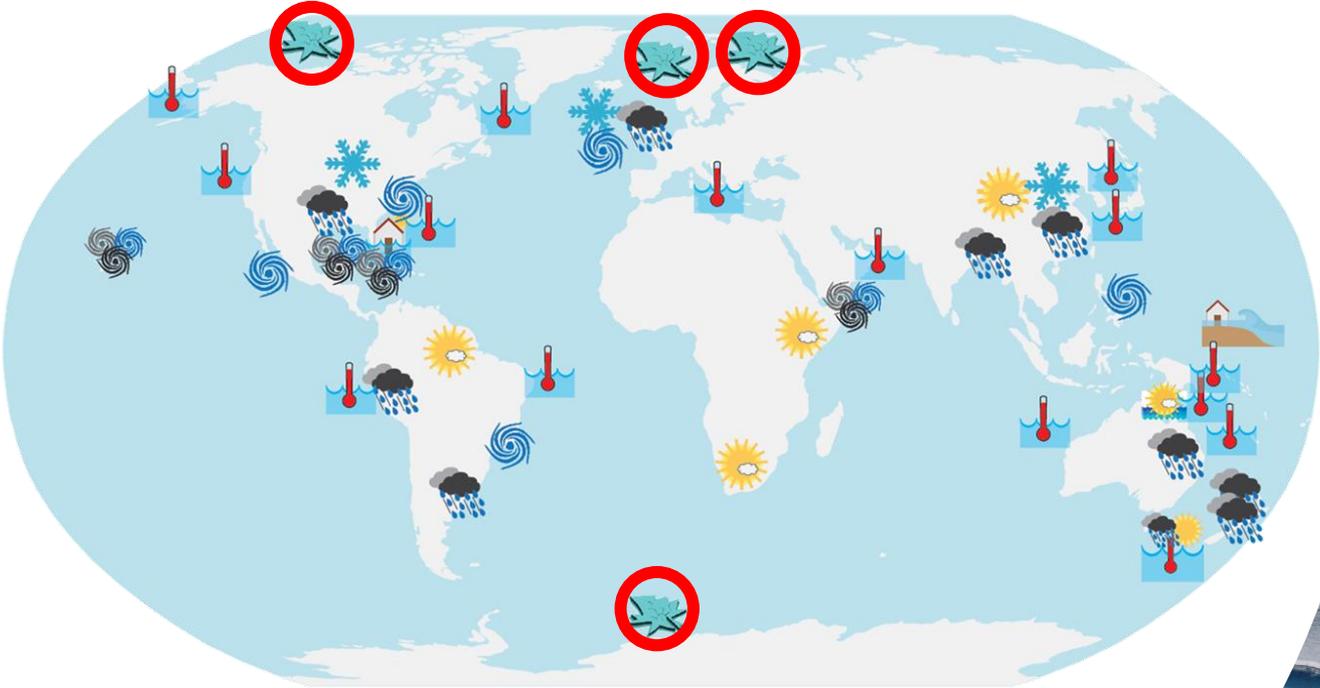
EXTREME TIDAL FLOODING EXTREME WAVE INDUCED FLOODING



EXTREME COLD OR SNOW STORM



SEA ICE MELTING



**EXTREMES AND ABRUPT
OR IRREVERSIBLE CHANGES
IN THE OCEAN
AND CRYOSPHERE
IN A CHANGING CLIMATE**

**WHAT WE CAN NOT SEE
BUT SHALL BE WORRIED
ABOUT?**

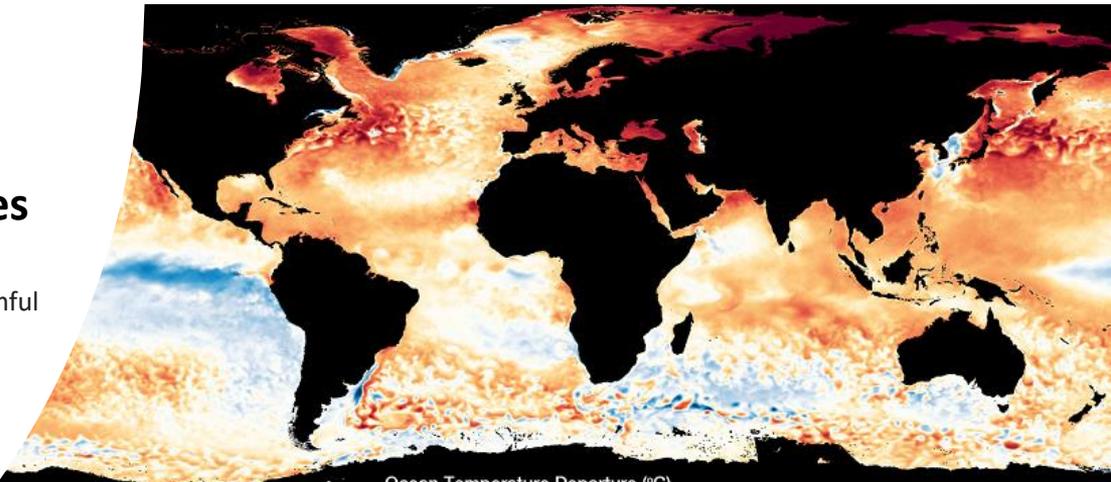
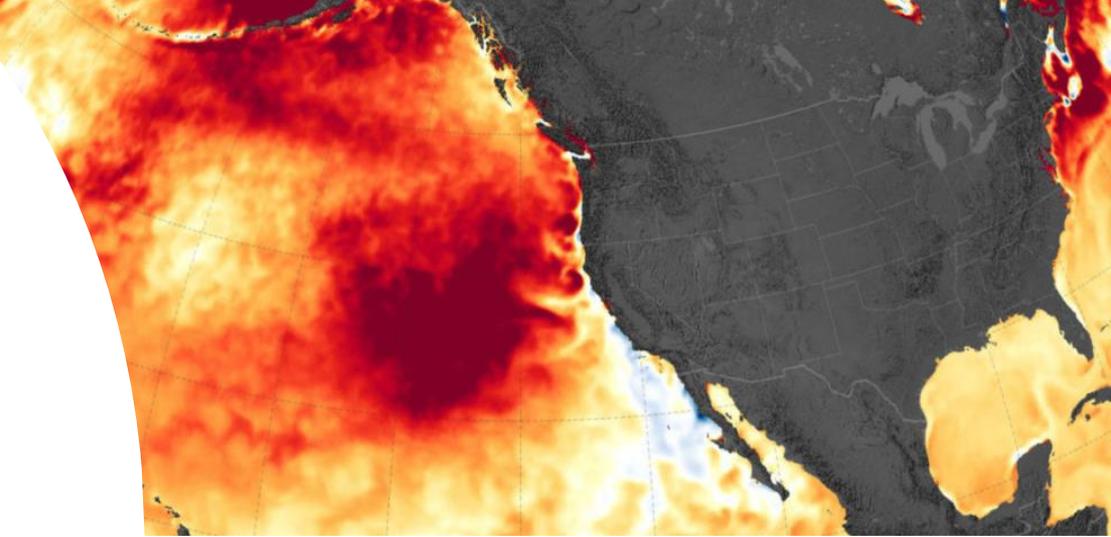


MARINE HEATWAVES INCREASE

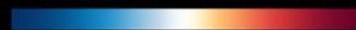
Reversible within decades to centuries

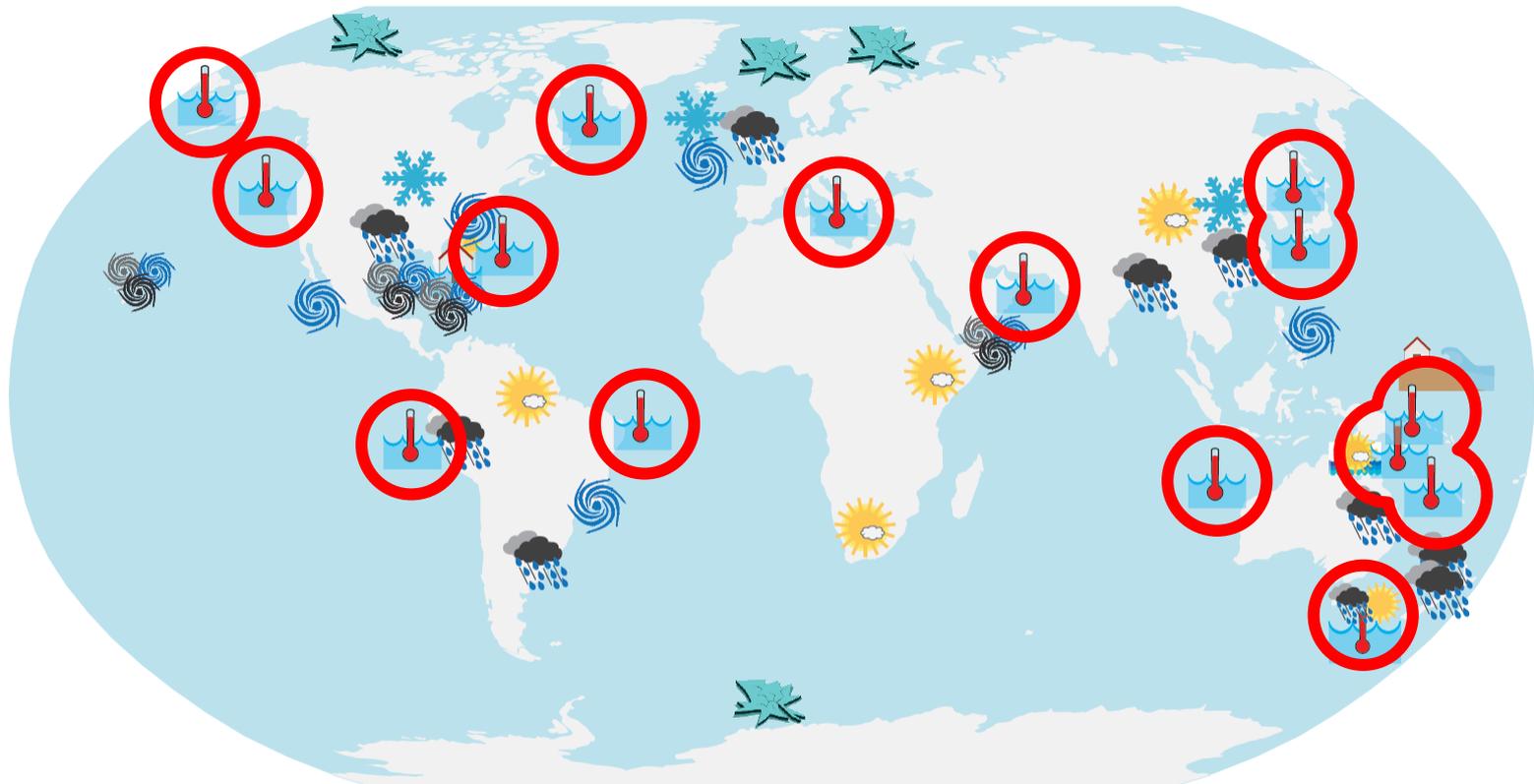
IMPACT:

Coral bleaching, loss of biodiversity and ecosystem services, harmful algal blooms, species redistribution



Ocean Temperature Departure (°C)





Cyclone



Extreme rainfall



Drought



Marine heatwave



Tidal flooding



Wave-induced flooding



Cold or snow storm



Sea ice minimum



Multiple cyclones

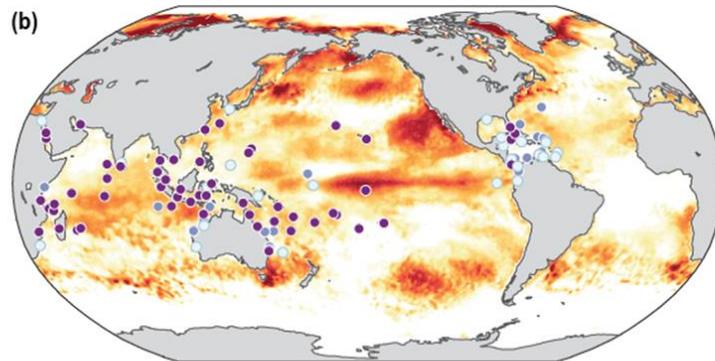
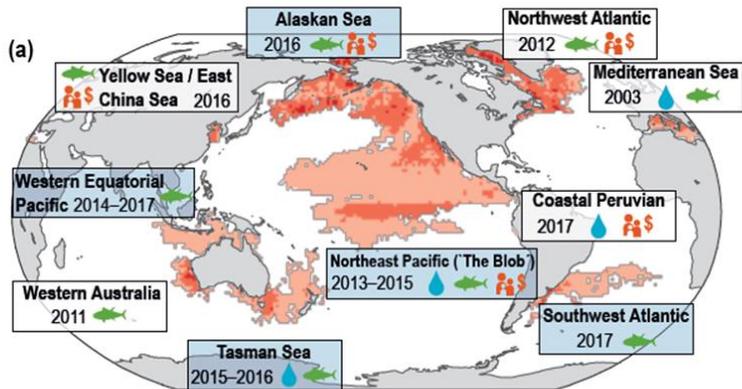


Drought, rainfall, marine heatwave



Drought, low sea levels

Compound events



Maximal intensity of marine heatwave ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)



Observed impacts attributed to marine heatwaves for:



Physical system over land



Marine ecosystems



Socio-economic and human systems

Attribution of extreme temperatures to anthropogenic climate change

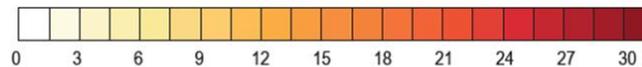


Likely or very likely



Unknown

Degree Heating Week ($^{\circ}\text{C}$ weeks)



Severe bleaching

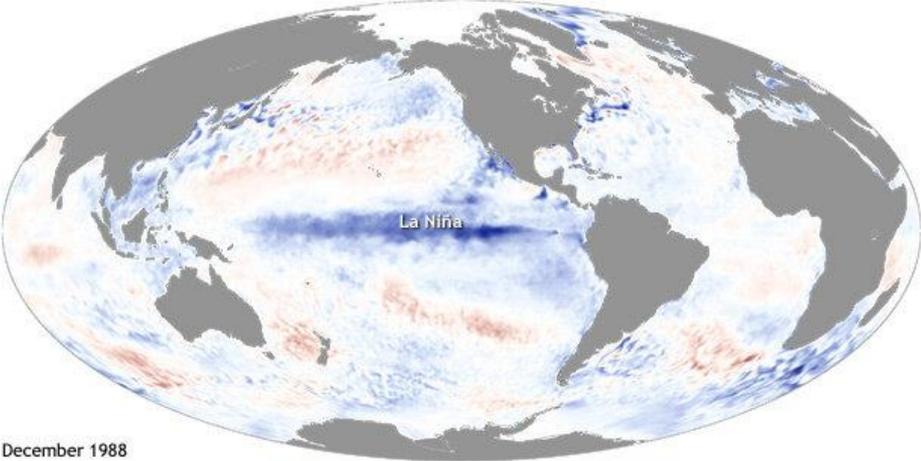


Moderate bleaching

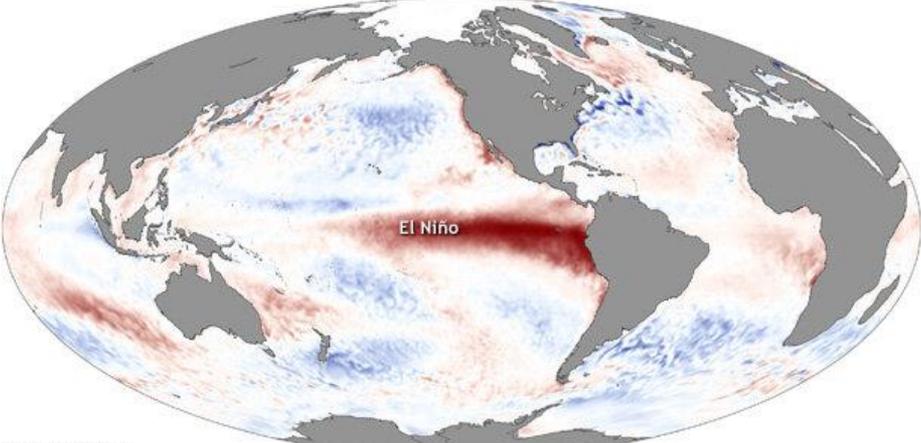


No substantial bleaching

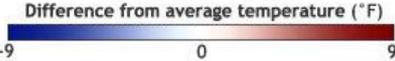
EXTREME EL NIÑO AND LA NIÑA



December 1988



December 1997



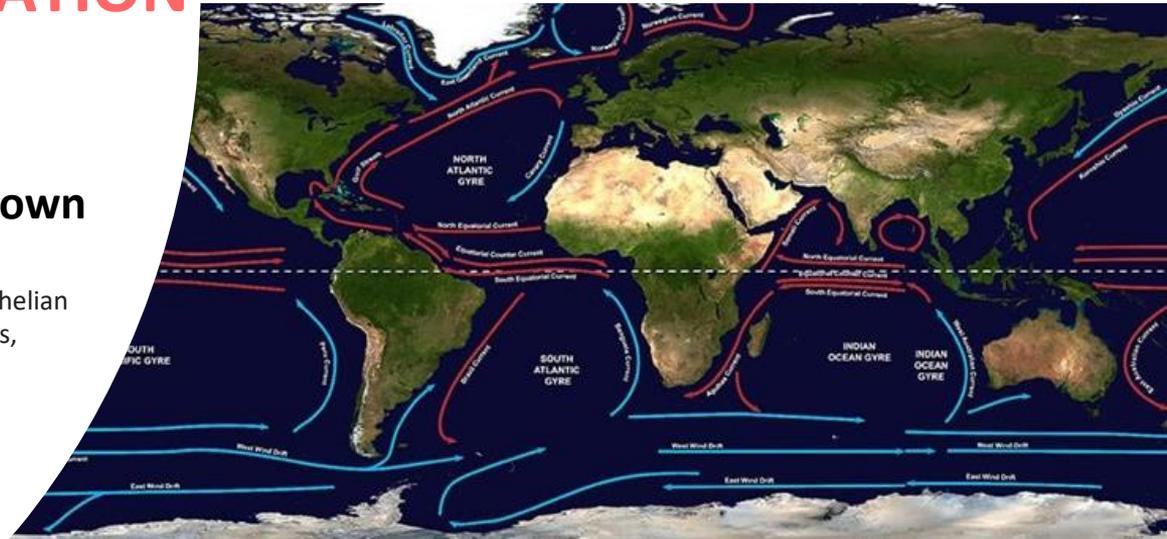
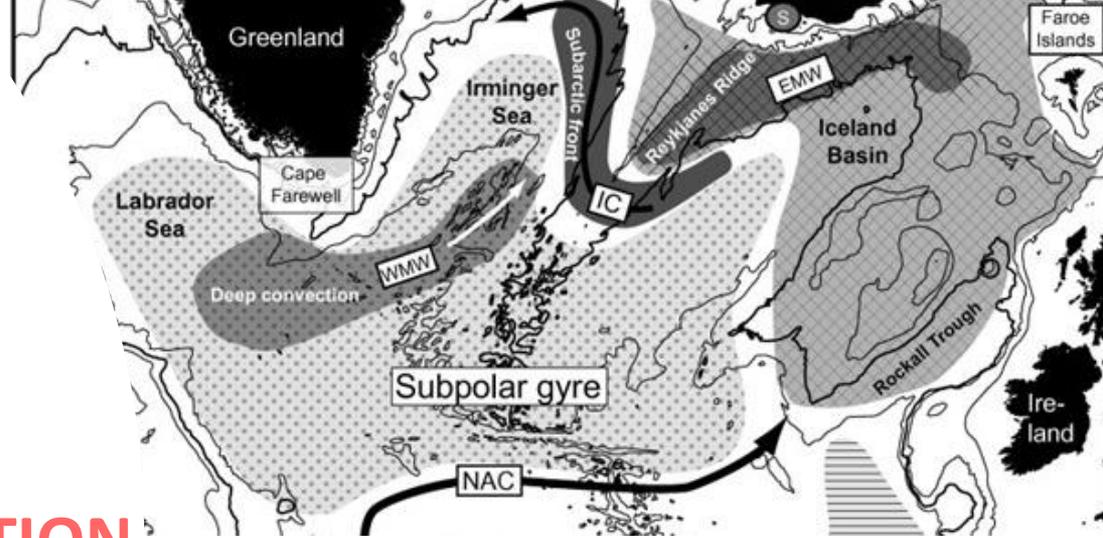
SUBPOLAR GYRE COOLING

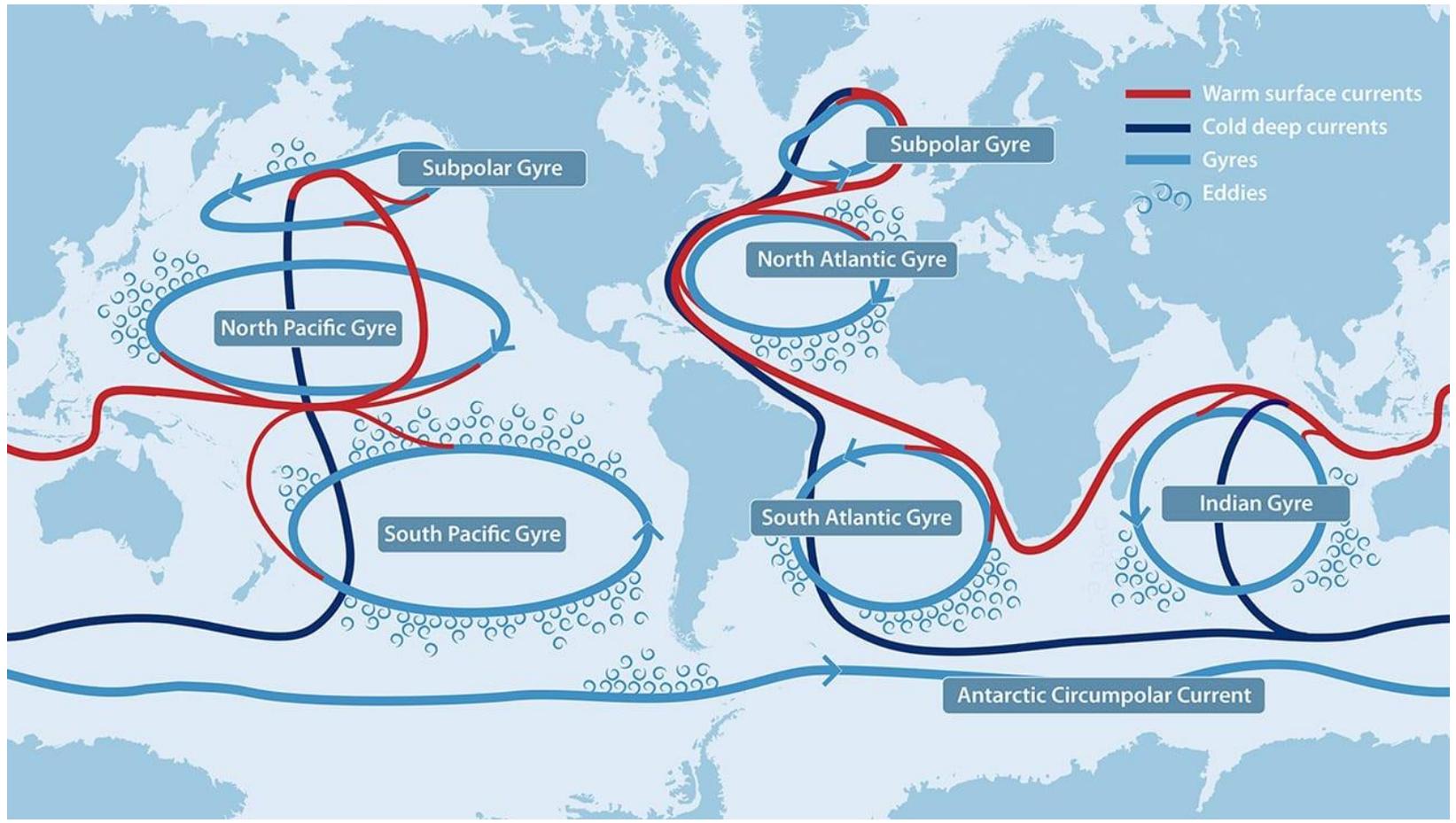
ATLANTIC MERIDIONAL OVERTURNING CIRCULATION (AMOC) COLLAPSE

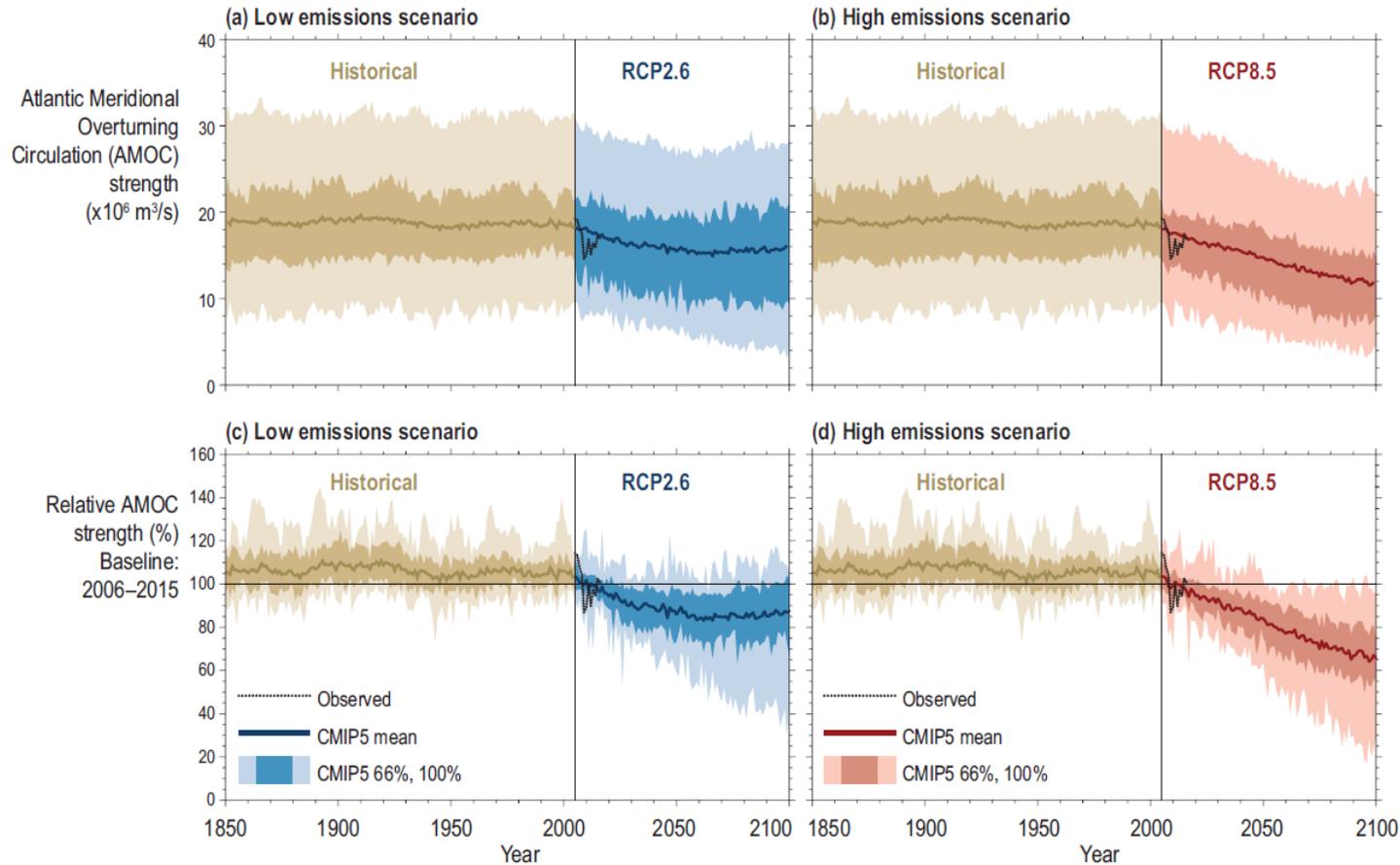
Irreversible within decades / unknown

IMPACT:

Widespread; increased winter storms in Europe, reduced Sahelian rainfall and agricultural capacity, variations in tropical storms, increased sea levels on Atlantic coasts









Physical system

-  Droughts
-  Temperature trend
-  Sea level rise
-  Cyclones frequency
-  Sea ice and snow
-  Precipitation and flooding
-  Storminess

Biological system

-  Vegetation
-  Marine ecosystems
-  Oxygenation
-  Oceanic carbon and acidification
-  Wetland methane

Human and managed systems

-  Agriculture and food production
-  Migration pressure due to degradation in livelihoods

Direction of the change

-  Increase
-  Decrease

Confidence in process understanding

-  High
-  Medium
-  Low

CONCLUSIONS?



The likelihood of rare,
extreme weather events
is increasing with each
kilogram of CO₂ emitted
into the atmosphere!

Prof. Szymon Malinowski



Thank you.

