Mean Sea Level: The Effect of the Rise in the Environment

Ibrahim Opeyemi Isiaka¹, Kingsley Odinakachukwu Ndukwe¹, Ufomba Samuel Chibuike²
¹Department of Surveying and Geoinformatics, the Federal University of Technology, Akure, Nigeria (isiakaiboheem@gmail.com, akachukwu344@gmail.com)
²Department of Agricultural and Bio-Resource Engineering, the Federal University of Technology, Minna, Nigeria (jacobssamue57@gmail.com)
Correspondance: isiakaiboheem@gmail.com

Abstract
Mean sea level is a significant phenomenon in geodetic science and oceanography. The sea level has experienced an unprecedented rise recently, and this increase can be attributed to various human-induced activities (anthropogenic factors) ranging from deforestation to the burning of fossil fuels and population increases. Several factors cause sea level rise. It has been identified that the thermal expansion of ocean water and the melting of glaciers add to the volume of water, causing global sea level to rise, whereas phenomena such as ocean current, wind, and pressure are responsible for the regional sea level rise. This paper identifies climate change and global warming as the drivers of some factors causing sea level to rise. The effect of sea-level rise has resulted in the loss of agricultural lands, the destruction of transportation infrastructure, the loss of lands in coastal zones and migration, and the death of some aquatic animals due to saltwater intrusion. In this paper, we reviewed several pieces of literature published between 2017 and 2021 on sea-level rise and the cascading impacts of sea-level rise in various world areas. The papers reviewed bordered on the mean sea level rise from different geographical areas on Earth and the monitoring of sea-level rise using different techniques. Some recommendations were also proposed for consideration.

Keywords: Mean Sea Level, Agriculture, Coastal Flooding and Transportation
Received: May 18th, 2023 / Accepted: August 01st, 2023 / Online: August 5th, 2023

I. INTRODUCTION
According to Benjamin [1], over the coming decades, the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) has identified sea level rise as a crucial issue facing the areas within the coastal regions in its fifth assessment report. Moreover, the most vulnerable of impact of this sea-level rise are the low-lying islands and the densely populated coastal areas; such impacts include coastal erosion, saltwater intrusion, loss of coastal wetlands, and dearth of agricultural activities due to storm surges and overflowing of the natural water bodies. From the early 20th century, a rise of about 16-21 cm of the global mean sea level had been reported, with over 7 cm of this occurring since 1993 [2-4]. There is a close relationship between the mean sea level and the Geoid. The Geoid which is the surface of equipotential that approximately coincides with the mean sea level. Thus, Geoid takes its shape from the impact of rock densities on sea level. Unlike the 2D horizontal coordinates observed while making reference to referring the ellipsoid, the mean sea level, a function of height (bathymetric heights), is measured and mapped concerning the Geoid [5]. Hence, monitoring sea level is a vital task by environmental and Earth scientists.

According to Abdul-Lateef and Naheem [4], the global mean sea level rise could be attributed to the thermal expansion of water bodies and the melting of ice glaciers, while the regional sea level rise is due to the interplay of tides. The effects of this sea-level rise have had some negative impact on the environment which seemingly had affected the lives of man. Man and his environment are inseparable as the environment serves as that space where man and other organisms carry out their activities. If anything happens to this environment, it will have some implication on the lives of the man and other organisms. This review aims to highlight the effect of the average sea level rise and point out some recommendations. The aim was achieved by reviewing recent papers on mean sea level rise, the effect of sea level on estuaries, transportation, agriculture, and coastal wetlands loss.

II. METHODS
In this paper, there are 28 journal articles and conference papers were collected, reviewed, selected, sorted, compiled, and analyzed to investigate the causes and the effect of sea-level rise. These selected papers were restricted to those published between 2017 and 2021. The papers were not restricted to just a specific geographical region, they spread all over different countries, and the primary source of the articles collected is Google scholar.
| S/N | Title of Paper and Authors | Aim of Paper |
|-----|---------------------------|--------------|
| 1   | Coastal wetland loss, consequences, and challenges for restoration by Xiuzhen Li, Richard Bellerby, Christopher Craft, and Sarah E. Widney. | To provide a comprehensive understanding of the importance of coastal wetlands, their current status of losses and consequences at different regions, and challenges faced for restoration |
| 2   | Coastal wetland adaptation to sea level rise: Quantifying the potential for landward migration and coastal squeeze by Sinéad M. Borchert, Michael J. Ovland, Nicholas M. Enwright, Keren T. Griffith. | To quantify and compare the area available for landward migration of tidal saline wetlands and the area where urban development is expected to prevent migration for 39 estuaries along the wetland-rich USA Gulf of Mexico coast. |
| 3   | U.S. Pacific coastal wetland resilience and vulnerability to sea-level rise by Karen Thorne, Glen MacDonald, Glenn Guntenspergen, Richard Ambrose, Kevin Buffington, Bruce Dugger, Chase Freeman, Christopher Janousek, Lauren Brown, Jordan Rosencranz, James Holmquist, John Smol, Kathryn Hargan, John Takewaki. | To evaluate both the vertical and horizontal response of tidal wetlands to projected changes in the rate of sea-level rise (SLR) across 14 estuaries along the Pacific coast of the continental United States. |
| 4   | Coastal Wetland Resilience, Accelerated Sea-Level Rise, and the Importance of Timescale by Torbjorn E. Tornqvist, Donald R. Cahoon, James T. Morris and John W. Day. | To examine the conflicting results as to whether coastal wetlands can keep up with present-day and future sea-level rise with a focus on a timescale |
| 5   | Sea-Level Rise and Shoreline Changes Along an Open Sandy Coast: Case Study of Gulf of Taranto, Italy by Giovanni Scicchitano, Franco Sabatier, Giovanni Siccinitano, Arcangelo Piccielli, Maurilio Milella, Antonio Vecchio, Marco Anzidei and Giuseppe Mastronuzzi | To develop a submission model of the relative sea-level rise scenario estimated for the coastal plain on the Gulf of Taranto by 2100 |
| 6   | Sea level prediction using ARIMA, SVR and LSTM neural network: assessing the impact of ensemble Ocean-Atmospheric processes on models’ accuracy by Abdul-Latif Balogun & Naheem Adedeji | To integrate a broad spectrum of ocean-atmospheric variables to predict sea-level variation along West Peninsular Malaysia coastline using machine learning and deep learning techniques |
| 7   | Coastal Structures as Beach Erosion Control and Sea Level Rise Adaptation in Malaysia: A Review by Ahmad Hadi Mohamad Rashidi, Mohamad Hidayat Jamal, Mohamad Zaki Hassan, Siti Saliah, Mohd Sendeck, Syazana Lyana Mohd Sofie 1 and Mohd Radzi Abd Hamid | To review selected coastal protection structures along the shoreline of Malaysia as an erosion control measure and sea-level rise adaptation based on coastal management strategies. |
| 8   | Relative Sea-Level Rise and Potential Submergence Risk for 2100 on 16 Coastal Plains of the Mediterranean Sea by Fabrizio Antonioli, Giovanni De Falco, Valeria Lo Presti, Lorenzo Moretti, Giovanni Scardino, Marco Anzidei, Davide Bonaldo, Sandro Carniel, Gabriele Leoni, Stefano Furlani, Antonella Marsico, Marcello Petitta, Giovanni Randazzo, Giovanni Scicchitano and Giuseppe Mastronuzzi. | To carry out a multidisciplinary study is to provide the first maps of sea-level rise scenarios for 2100 for the IPCC RCP 8.5 and Rahmstorf (2007) projections for the above affected coastal zones, which are the locations of tourist resorts, railways, airports and heritage sites |
| 9   | A Systematic Review of Civil and Environmental Infrastructures for Coastal Adaptation to Sea Level Rise by Hadi Nazarnia, Mohammad Nazarnia, Hadi Sarmasti, W. Olivia Willa. | To present a meta-analysis and review of existing literature on the impacts of SLR on civil infrastructure. |
| 10  | Assessment of Climate Change Impacts on Sea Surface Temperatures and Sea Level Rise—The Arabian Gulf by Mohamed E. Hencher | investigates the change in the sea surface temperatures (SST) in the Gulf as a proxy to the global warming during the last 16 years |
| 11  | Investigation of transient sea level rise impacts on water quality of unconfined shallow coastal aquifers by A. Ranjan, C. Cherubini, and A. Saber. | To analyse the impacts of 1 m gradual and instantaneous sea-level rise combined with pumping activity on seawater wedge toe location in a shallow coastal aquifer located in the southern shores of the Caspian Sea. |
| 12  | Review of sea-level rise science, information and services in Bangladesh by Benjamin Harrison | To provide a baseline indication of the available sea-level rise information in Bangladesh and the use of sea-level rise information for vulnerability, impact, and adaptation studies. |
| 13  | Economy-wide effects of coastal flooding due to sea-level rise: a multi-model simultaneous treatment of mitigation, adaptation, and residual impacts by Thomas Schinko, Laurent Drozet, Zoi Vrontisi, Andries Hof, Jochen Hinkel, Junko Mochizuki, Valentina Bosetti, Kostas Fragiadakis, Deltef van Vuuren, and Daniel Lincke | To present a multi-model assessment of the macroeconomic impacts of coastal flooding due to sea-level rise and the respective economy-wide implications of adaptation measures for two greenhouse gas (GHG) concentration targets, namely the Representative Concentration Pathways (RCP)2.6 and RCP4.5, and subsequent temperature increases. |
| 14  | GPS Imaging of Global Vertical Land Motion for Studies of Sea Level Rise by William C. Hammond, Geoffrey Blewitt, Corné Kreemer, and R. Steven Nerem. | To estimate the rates and patterns of vertical land motion (VLM) on all locations on Earth’s land surface using GPS Imaging |
| 15  | The Impact of Sea-Level Rise on Urban Properties in Tampa Due to Climate Change by Weiwei Xie, Bo Tang, and Qingmin Meng | To investigate parcel-level property impacts, using a specific coastal city, Tampa, Florida, USA, as an empirical study |
| 16  | Building Capacity For Climate Adaptation Assessing the Vulnerability of Transportation Infrastructure to Sea Level Rise for Safety Enhancement in RITI Communities by Shen, Susan and Shim, Dayea | To understand different communities’ perceived travel challenges with coastal flooding, the social sensitivity to different types of challenges, and the priorities and concerns regarding the access to various types of resources, to support decision making that improves communities’ safe access to highly valued resources and activities. |
| 17  | Global Warming and Sea Level Rising: Impact on Agriculture and Food Security in South Coastal Region of Bangladesh by M. A. Awal and M. A. H. Khan | To analyse the effect of global warming and sea-level rise on the agriculture and food security in southern coastal areas of Bangladesh |
| 18  | The impact of flooding on road transport: A depth-disruption function by Maria Pregnoalato, Alistair Ford, Sean M. Wilkinson, Richard J. Dawson. | To develop a relationship between depth of standing water and vehicle speed. |
| 19  | Key factors influencing the general passenger transport dynamics using the ADI/transport model by Shivika Mittal, Hancheng Dai, Shinichiro Fujimoto, Tatsuya Hanaka, Rumen Zhang. | To improve the transport sector representation in AIM/CGE, by soft-linking the bottom-up type transport model, named ADI/Transport, which uses the MNL-type equation to incorporate the mitigation options related to travel behavior. |
| 20  | Comparing impacts of climate change and mitigation on global agriculture by 2050 by Hans van Meijl, Petr Havlik, Hermann Lotze-Campen, Elke Stelfest, Peter Witze, Ignacio Perez Domínguez. | To present a set of alternative scenarios by different models, harmonized with respect to basic model assumptions, to assess the range of potential economic impacts of climate change on the agricultural sector by 2050, as well as the economic consequences of stringent global emission mitigation efforts (e.g. bioenergy use, afforestation, reduction of methane and nitrous oxide emissions in agriculture) aiming to stabilize global warming at 2 °C by the end of the century under different SSPs. |
| 21  | Demand for Ports to 2030: Climate Policy, Growing Trade and the Impacts of Sea-Level Rise by Susan E. Hanson and Robert J. Nicholls. | To estimate the current and future area and costs for ports based on the handling of seaborne freight at national and regional levels under future climate-oriented scenarios |
| 22  | Monitoring of Changes in Land Use/Land Cover in Syria from 2010 to 2018 Using Multitemporal Landsat Imagery and GISMohamed by Ali Mohamed, Julian Anders, and Christoph Schneider | To examine the impacts of the armed conflict in Syria, which began in mid-2011, and the related social and economic crisis on LULC between 2010 and 2018 |
| 23  | Development of intertidal flats in the Dutch Wadden Sea in response to a rising sea level: Spatial differentiation and sensitivity to the rate of sea level rise by Ymke Huismans, Ad van der Spek, Qurin Lodder, Robert Zijlstra, Edwin Elias, Zheng Bing Wang. | To provide insight into how the process of drowning proceeds in time, how sensitive it is to the rate of SLR and which spatial differentiation may be expected. |
### III. SEE LEVEL RISE

Since the late 19th century and the early 20th century, the sea level has been rising due to the increase in the global temperature and researchers at NOAA have predicted that the sea level will continuously increase during the 21st century, even at a higher rate [6, 7]. The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (2007) estimated that in the 20th century, the global sea level rose by an average of 1.7 ± 0.5 mm per year. Between 1961 and 2003, Over 40 percent of the observed sea-level rise have been attributed to the warmer climate causing expansion of ocean water and the melting of ice sheets [7]. The fifth IPCC conservative report [7, 8] projects that by the end of this century, the Earth will experience a further sea-level rise of between 0.26m and 0.82m. Some semi-empirical models have even predicted an even higher rate of between 1m to 1.5 m by 2100 [7, 9, 10]. Bloetscher, et al. [11] noted that by proximity, the Inhabitants of the coastal zones are at more risk of sea-level rise because of coastal erosion, saltwater intrusion, and storm surge. These zones have a high groundwater level given the soil’s low holding capacity, increasing the risk of groundwater flooding [7, 11-13].

Rising sea levels can affect sustainable development such as the energy systems, transportation facilities, agricultural lands, water infrastructures, etc., in the coastal areas due to the low capacity of the soil to absorb precipitation [7, 10, 14]. Exposing coastal areas to economic and ecological vulnerabilities [7, 15]. Coastal flooding could cost 4.5 percent of the global economy of the world each year by 2200 [16]. Flooding could be one of the most devastating natural hazards worldwide due to its ruin of human lives and properties.

Climate change has become a subject of attraction as research has shown that climate conditions are changing at an accelerated rate. As one of the influences of climate change, sea-level rise has become an insistent threat to the environment and sustainable development [7]. Global warming and Climate change refer to the change in the Earth weather pattern due to increasing global temperature, which has a long term effect on the earth surface, leading to the disappearing of the glaciers and ice sheets around the world, resulting in drastic changes in the Earth’s climate [16, 17]. The rate of the rise depends on future global warming and the rate of expansion and melting, rising sea increase the risk of coastal erosion, saltwater intrusion and may cause vulnerable communities to lose essential resources and services [7]. The factors affecting the regional sea-level rise are different from those of the global sea-level rise because, at a local level, ocean currents and wind are factors that pattern the sea level rise whereas, at a global scale, it is mostly thermal expansion and the melting of glaciers [1, 18]. Ocean parameters such as sea surface temperature, sea surface salinity and mean sea level pressure have been identified to be the predominant drivers of sea-level change in some regions like Willingdon Island in India [4]. On the other side, atmospheric parameters like air temperature, wind speed, cloud cover, evaporation rate play the major role in other areas like the Red Sea [15, 19]. Global sea-level rise is the most obvious manifestation of climate change in the ocean and will ultimately affect every coastal state and nation on the planet. Even a slight increase in sea level can be catastrophic to the coastal areas.

### Fig. 1. Some of the factors inducing Mean Sea Level Rise

Activities causing global warming include those human-induced activities such as the felling of forest trees, bush burning, and burning fossils. However, not limited to this mention, all these activities release carbon dioxide into the atmosphere. Carbon dioxide in the atmosphere naturally helps keep the atmosphere warm, but when in excess, it causes an increase in the atmospheric temperature. The results aside, the biodiversity effects also add significantly to global warming by releasing Carbon dioxide into the atmosphere. Forest trees help to regulate the atmospheric temperature by absorbing Carbon
dioxide, but when trees have been cut down to create space for various land uses they can no longer absorb Carbon dioxide and if left to decompose or burn release Carbon dioxide into the atmosphere. Also, with population increase comes the high demand of space from persons for shelter, the need to construct more roads, schools, hospitals, and more need for woods forcing deforestation. Not minding the high rate of Carbon dioxide that these humans will also release through respiration.

The Global warming caused by these human-induced and natural occurrences subjects the large ice land to melt and also rising temperature of the ocean causing expansion of the water body. The complexity and interconnected nature of the earth system mean that global warming is causing a myriad of diverse effects, with one being its effects on the melting of the ice sheets causing the sea level to rise and create a less stable and habitable environment for life. Thus to manage the mean sea level rise, it will be pertinent to address the issue of global warming as it is the bridge linking the effects of human and nature-induced factors to increased atmospheric temperature.

IV. EFFECTS OF SEA-LEVEL RISE IN THE ENVIRONMENT

From 1990 to 2019, the thermal expansion of seawater and melting of ice sheets and glaciers contributed to about half of the sea level rise. The average rate of sea-level rise was estimated to vary from 1.4 to 2 mm yr\(^{-1}\) during the last century. Our estimation, however, is about 4 mm yr\(^{-1}\) up to the year 2090 after considering the future scenarios [20]. This increased sea level will damage properties and shake up the biodiversity and the general ecosystem in coastal areas, with a fairly plain topography. The effects of sea level rise on the environment have been highlighted below:

A. Transportation

Infrastructure networks are sometimes regarded as the major components that make up cities (developed, developing, or underdeveloped). In other words, transport networks have gone a long way to help improve and support the safety and wealth of communities, especially in the context of a global economy increasingly reliant on the mobility of goods, information, and people but changes in the climate has affected this transport system [8, 21]. Studies have shown that climate change and the rapid development of cities, are together joining forces in putting the inbuilt environment at risk [8]. The rise in sea level affects the transportation activities of an ecosystem, and these effects can be observed in air transport, rails, road transport, and tunnel transport as well as navigation through ships and boats.

In the aviation aspect of transportation, some areas in the world have several airports located very close to coastal areas where levees or embankment fortifications may become very difficult and costly to maintain as the climate continues to change. Therefore, runways and other structures are vulnerable to flooding when the sea level rises. This impact will cause loss of revenue to the aviation manager and might incur debt and increased costs to reconstruct the damages.

Railways often cut across wet areas in the coastal zone in rail transportation. Some railways can be so low significantly smaller short line railways, that they are prone to flooding, and the beds may be vulnerable to sinking due to peat oxidation reaction. When peat soil is exposed to oxygen, they compact, causing a vertical downward movement of the base of the rail tracks resulting in the sinking of the railways. In the case of tunnels, the hydraulic pressure of the tunnel walls increases as the water table rises as a result of sea-level rise, which subjects the tunnels to the vulnerability of flooding.

Flash flood is a problem that is peculiar to road networks, especially in urban areas where the soil surface is non-porous. Therefore, any rainfall, be it little or heavy, would cause the land to overflow water. This, as a result, would lead to drainages exceeding their capacity forcing the water to cover the roadways, making it almost impossible for vehicles to move [8]. Recent studies have shown that roads are among the most common cause of death, especially during flooding periods, due to vehicles being driven through flooded roadways [8, 22].

Also, as the sea level rises, the groundwater is expected to rise and they will intersect in the unbound layers of coastal road infrastructure thus reducing the service life of pavements. Road surface performance is affected by parameters influenced by climate especially temperature and moisture contents of the road surface sub-layer. As the sea level rise with the groundwater, they intersect the unbound layers in some locations reducing the road surface life span. Also, the useful life span of a pavement structure decreases with an increase in the percentage of time the unbound layers are saturated [23].

Navigation through sea/oceans, sea level rise makes water deeper, allowing deeper draft vessels to navigate a particular channel. When saltwater advances upstream, it can alter the point at which flocculation leads to sedimentation and the creation of shallows. Thus, decreasing the clearance under the bridge. This will impede the passage of boats underneath a bridge, especially when a small boat is passing underneath a very small bridge with a clearance of less than one foot. Docks, jetties, and other offshore facilities are on the water's edge, making them quite vulnerable to flooding. Though these facilities were constructed at an elevation higher than the mean sea level, they are left at suboptimal elevations with the rise in sea level.

B. Salt/Sea Water Intrusion

The major supplier of freshwater globally is groundwater and freshwater globally is of limited amount. Unfortunately, this
very little amount of freshwater becomes subjected to salt/seawater intrusion [24–28]. Sea level rise and tidal fluctuations induced by global warming will result in increased saltwater intrusion into freshwater bodies, invariably affecting groundwater quality [27, 29]. Recently, some studies have shown that the predicted sea-level rise by the year 2100 will be between 0.2m and 0.8m, which will cause extensive flooding of coastal regions [9, 27]. Langevin and Daussman [30] anticipated that they would be a 1.5km increase in the seawater wedge toe penetration in Broward County’s unconfined aquifer and 0.4km saltwater intrusion in the Nile Delta’s confined aquifer if the sea level increase of 0.5m in Florida’s coastal aquifer. Eriksson, et al. [31], investigated the saltwater intrusion of freshwater wells regarding sea-level rise on the Swedish island of Oland. They studied the area using a GIS map with 2m sea level rise case study. The research focused on both the inundation of wells and saltwater intrusion into freshwater wells. Approximately 5% of the land area and 3% of the wells are at inundation risk which were ascertained on the generated risk map. Over 17% of the wells were categorized as being at high risk and 64% of them at medium risk, and they suggested digging new wells in low-risk zones to supply freshwater [32].

A rise in sea level will allow saltwater to drop down inland and upstream in rivers posing a great danger to aquatic plants and animals, especially those intolerant to salt water and threatening human usage of the water. Salinity increment will cause a shift in salt-sensitive habitat and could thus affect the distribution of the ocean ecosystem. Saltwater intrusion will decrease water quality, thereby making it unsuitable for industrial, agricultural, drinking, and whatever purposes it is meant for.

C. Agriculture

Climate change has always had a vital role in crop and grassland yielding. When the negative impacts of rising mean sea level caused by climate change and global warming hit the agricultural land, grazing tends to become more difficult because grassland is relatively favored by climate change than crops [33, 34]. A 0.1 m to 0.5 m rise in sea level as predicted by most of the estimates by the middle of this century will pose a significant threat to the agriculture and livelihoods of people in low-lying coastal areas of the world [35]. If this happens, we might just be edging to an era of hunger and starvation. On the issue of crop productivity, crops cultivated on relatively flat lands in coastal areas in conjunction with an increase in sea level become vulnerable to flooding and pest attacks. The flood water will wash away the crops and cause permanent inundation of such farm areas. The increase in mean sea level threatens to inundate farmlands and cause fresh groundwater to become salty in the coming decades and centuries. Aside from the fact that crop production would be drastically affected, livestock rearing and aquaculture would not be excluded as it now produces more seafood than wild capture fisheries.

D. Coastal Wetland Loss

Coastal wetlands, which mainly include areas of coral reefs, salt marsh, seagrass beds, and mangroves, make up one of the most valuable ecosystems of the planet [36, 37], but the sea level rise has been a significant threat to the removal of this ecosystem. As a result of the increasing global temperature leading to thermal expansion of the oceans and melting of glaciers and ice sheets, the sea level rise is expected to accelerate [38, 39]. Coastal wetlands are particularly defenseless to accelerated sea level rise [38, 40, 41]. Coastal wetlands are highly productive in protecting human health, well-being, and the society including flood reduction, erosion control, carbon sequestration, recreational centers, reducing the effect of storm surges, and maintenance of productive coastal fisheries [36, 38, 42]. As the sea level rise accelerates, coastal wetland resources could be lost.

Over 60% of sea animals have to stay in the coastal wetlands at some point in their life cycle, and over 90% of these fisheries are harvested from the coastal zone [43, 44]. Mangroves and salt marshes protect the coasts and invaluable lives and treasures behind them. Dahdouh-Guebas, et al. [45] showed the significant difference between damage with and without mangroves after the Indian Ocean tsunami occurred in December 2014. Areas behind true mangroves were largely unaffected, while the cryptically degraded area dominated by associate species was destroyed. Villages protected by wider mangroves on the coast had significantly fewer deaths than ones with narrower or no mangroves [44, 46].

The loss of these wetlands will reduce the amount of harvested sea animals, low revenue and discourage going into fish farming. Sea level rise is one of the potential threats to coastal wetlands. The loss of wetlands will cause the loss of all its related ecological services for humans and society. Serious consequences of the loss of coastal wetlands include coastal flooding, erosion, economic disruption, and biodiversity decrease.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper focuses on the impact rising sea levels have had on the environment and with global warming in play, sea levels will continue to increase, thereby posing a major risk to cities, banks, hospitals, farmlands, ponds, organic landscapes, tourist destinations, beaches, and groundwater. In totality, many researchers have worked on the effects of sea-level rise and this sea-level rise has left the world with many economic and physical losses. Therefore, there is a growing need to address the issue of sea-level rise.

However, certain damages have already been inflicted on the environment, requiring humans to adapt to the situation. Also, further research should be channeled towards how to tackle the effects and develop models for better prediction of future occurrence of the disasters caused by mean sea level rise.

VI. RECOMMENDATION

The actual effect of sea-level rise depends on what people do in response to the initial effects. With Global warming being in the center of the sea level rise, although, some other phenomenon has been attributed to this rise, like ocean currents, groundwater removal, subsidence et cetera. Protecting people structures, road infrastructures, farmlands, ponds and property as sea level continues to rise in the years ahead will be one of the most significant engineering challenges in the coming decades. Based on the study of the effects of sea-level rise, the
following recommendations were made. However, the recommendations were suggested on tackling sea level rise and include addressing the issue of global warming.

1. Climate change education should be introduced to student curriculum from their elementary schools.

2. Construction of dikes and levees along coastal areas to serve as sea walls and the deformation study should be monitored at appropriate intervals using GNSS and GIS for the analysis.

3. Artificial intelligence techniques such as Deep Learning and Machine Learning should be introduced into the study of sea level rise to better understand the trends of the data and future predictions.

4. The present sea level and the predicted future rise should be considered when constructing buildings for residential purposes. Also, buildings/structures should always be higher than the road level to prevent draining of water from roads into building areas, thereby washing them away.

5. The emission of greenhouse gases should be guided by law to reduce their release into the atmosphere.

6. Dredging activities should be encouraged after flooding so that the organic depth of the oceans is regained for better and smooth navigation of boats.

7. The roads should be constructed with space for a very sophisticated drainage system and waterways shouldn’t be blocked.

8. Building along waterways should be demolished and relocated to some better place.

9. Planting of mangroves and other vegetation in areas in order to control erosion.

10. The field of data science and artificial intelligence can be used to understand the global warming data better, and note the major causes of the climate warming and thus, suitable models can be built for predicting future occurrence.

11. GIS and other satellite data can also be used to monitor damages caused by this rise in sea level in order to manage the disaster if it has happened properly. Also, GIS can be used to analyse the area where roads, structures and lives are prone to sea-level rise effects so that immediate actions such as the evacuation of persons and properties can be taken.

12. Authorities should monitor removal of groundwater through drilling wells or boreholes water systems.

13. Light detection and ranging (LIDAR) is a system that can produce high-quality topography maps. These maps are beneficial for predicting inundation in coastal regions due to SLR. The prediction could be helpful in the management policy of coastal lines.

REFERENCES

[1] H. Benjamin, "Review of sea-level rise science, information and services in Bangladesh," 2020, 2020.

[2] S. Giovanni et al., "Sea-level rise and shoreline changes along an open sandy coast: case study of gulf of Taranto, Italy," Water, vol. 12, no. 1414, pp. 1-22, 2020 2020, doi: 10.3390/w121051414.

[3] M. Jonathan et al., "Concepts and terminology for sea level: mean, variability and change, both local and global," Surveys in geophysics, 2019 2019, doi: 10.1007/110712-019-09525-2.

[4] B. Abdul-Lateef and A. Naheem, "Sea level prediction using ARIMA, SVR and LSTM neural network: assessing the impact of ensemble Ocean-Atmospheric processes on models’ accuracy," Geomatics, Natural Hazards and Risk, vol. 12, no. 1, pp. 653–674, 2021 2021.

[5] F. K. Jayne, E. Mohamed, S. D. Jo, M. J. Jennifer, and K. Paul, "Assessing the effects of rising groundwater from sea level rise on the service life of pavements in coastal road infrastructure," Transportation Research Record: Journal of the Transportation Research Board, vol. 2639, pp. 1–10, 2017 2017.

[6] X. Weiwei, T. Bo, and M. Qingmin, "The impact of sea-level rise on urban properties in Tampa due to climate change," Water, vol. 14, no. 13, pp. 1-13, 2021 2021.

[7] S. Shen and D. Shim, "Building capacity for climate adaptation: assessing the vulnerability of transportation infrastructure to sea level rise for safety enhancement in RTI communities," Ph.D. Thesis, University of Alaska, 2022.

[8] P. Maria, F. Alistair, M. W. Sean, and J. D. Richard, "The impact of flooding on road transport: A depth-disruption function," Transportation Research Part D, vol. 55, pp. 67–81, 2017 2017.

[9] S. Rahmstorf, "A semi-empirical approach to projecting future sea-level rise," Science, vol. 315, no. 5810, pp. 368-370, 2007.

[10] A. S. Parris et al., "Global sea level rise scenarios for the United States National Climate Assessment," 2012.

[11] F. Bloetscher, T. Romah, L. Berry, N. H. Hammer, and M. A. Cahill, "Identification of physical transportation infrastructure vulnerable to sea level rise," Journal of Sustainable Development, vol. 5, no. 12, pp. 40, 2012.

[12] F. Bloetscher and T. Romah, "Tools for assessing sea level vulnerability," Journal of Water and Climate Change, vol. 6, no. 2, pp. 181-190, 2014, doi: 10.2166/wcc.2014.045.

[13] K. K. Fatah and Y. T. Mustafa, "Flood susceptibility mapping using an analytic hierarchy process model based on remote sensing and GIS approaches in Akre District, Kurdistan Region, Iraq," The Iraqi Geological Journal, pp. 123-151, 2022.

[14] T. R. Karl, J. M. Melillo, and T. C. Peterson, Global climate change impacts in the United States: a state of knowledge report from the US Global Change Research Program, Cambridge University Press, 2009.

[15] R. J. Nicholls and F. M. J. Hososemans, "Global Vulnerability Analysis," in Encyclopedia of Coastal Science, M. L. Schwartz Ed. Dordrecht: Springer Netherlands, 2005, pp. 486-491.

[16] W. Xie, "Impacts of Sea-Level Rise on Urban Properties in Tampa Due to Climate Change," MSc, Geosciences, Mississippi State University, Mississippi State University, 5383, 2021.

[17] E. C. J. Oliver, "Intraseasonal variability of sea level and circulation in the Gulf of Thailand: the role of the Madden–Julian Oscillation," Climate Dynamics, vol. 42, no. 1, pp. 401-416, 2014/01/01 2014, doi: 10.1007/s00382-012-1595-6.

[18] D. W. Fahey, S. J. Doherty, K. A. Hibbard, A. Romanou, and P. C. Taylor, "Physical drivers of climate change," in Climate Science Special Report: Fourth National Climate Assessment, Volume I, D. J. Wuebbles, D. W. Fahey, K. A. Hibbard, D. J. Dokken, B. C. Stewart, and T. K. Maycock Eds. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Global Change Research Program, 2017, pp. 73-113.

[19] K. Zubier and L. S. Eyouni, "Investigating the Role of Atmospheric Variables on Sea Level Variations in the Eastern Central Red Sea Using an Artificial Neural Network Approach," Oceanologia, vol. 62, no. 3, pp. 267-290, 2020/7/1 2020, doi: 10.1016/j.oceano.2020.02.002.

[20] I. Ismail, M. L. Husain, W. S. W. Abdullah, and R. Zakaria, "Modelling of Coastal Vulnerability Index Along the East Coast of Peninsular Malaysia due to Sea Level Rise Impact," JIP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science, vol. 1103, no. 1, p. 012011, 2022/11/01 2022, doi: 10.1088/1755-1315/1103/1/012011.
[21] J.-P. Rodrigue, *The geography of transport systems*. Routledge, 2020.

[22] S. N. Jonkman and L. Kelman, "An Analysis of the Causes and Circumstances of Flood Disaster Deaths," *Disasters*, vol. 29, no. 1, pp. 75-97, 2005, doi: https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-7760.2005.00275.x.

[23] H. Tönnisson, A. Kont, K. Orviku, Ü. Suursaar, R. Rivis, and V. Palginõmm, "Application of system approach framework for coastal zone management in Pärnu, SW Estonia," *Journal of Coastal Conservation*, vol. 23, no. 5, pp. 931-942, 2019. [Online]. Available: http://www.jstor.org/stable/45219375.

[24] H. A. Lošićica, T. J. Pingel, and E. S. García, "Sea Water Intrusion by Sea-Level Rise: Scenarios for the 21st Century," *Groundwater*, vol. 50, no. 1, pp. 37-47, 2012, doi: https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-6584.2011.00800.x.

[25] K. Werner, R. F. Spielhagen, D. Bauch, H. C. Hass, and E. S. Kandiano, *Sea surface temperature and salinity calculated for sediment core MSM05/5_712-2*, PANGAEA, doi: 10.1594/PANGAEA.810418.

[26] S. Mohd Sharip, M. Awang, and R. Ismail, "The effect of motivating language and management effectiveness: empirical evidence from Waqf institutions in Malaysia," *Journal of Islamic Accounting and Business Research*, vol. 13, no. 2, pp. 220-241, 2022.

[27] A. Ranjbar, C. Cherubini, and A. Saber, "Investigation of transient sea level rise impacts on water quality of unconfined shallow coastal aquifers," *International Journal of Environmental Science and Technology*, 2020 2020.

[28] W. H. Sulaiman and Y. T. Mustafa, "Geospatial Multi-Criteria Evaluation Using AHP–GIS to Delineate Groundwater Potential Zones in Zakho Basin, Kurdistan Region, Iraq," *Earth*, vol. 4, no. 3, pp. 655-675, 2023. [Online]. Available: https://www.mdpi.com/2673-4834/4/3/34.

[29] A. Sefelnasr and M. Sherif, "Impacts of Seawater Rise on Seawater Intrusion in the Nile Delta Aquifer, Egypt," *Groundwater*, vol. 52, no. 2, pp. 264-276, 2014, doi: https://doi.org/10.1111/gwat.12058.

[30] C. Langevin and A. Daussman, "Numerical simulation of saltwater intrusion in response to sea-level rise," in *Impacts of Global Climate Change*, 2005, pp. 1-8.

[31] M. Eriksson, K. Ebert, and J. Jarsjö, "Well salinization risk and effects of Baltic Sea level rise on the groundwater-dependent island of Öland, Sweden," *Water*, vol. 10, no. 2, p. 141, 2018.

[32] H. Nazarnia, M. Nazarnia, H. Sarmasti, and W. O. Wills, "A systematic review of civil and environmental infrastructures for coastal adaptation to sea level rise," *Civil engineering journal*, vol. 6, no. 7, pp. 1375-1399, 2020.

[33] V. Hans et al., "Comparing impacts of climate change and mitigation on global agriculture by 2050," *Environmental research letters*, vol. 13, no. 2018, p. 064021, 2018.

[34] Y. T. Mustafa, "Satellite Remote Sensing for Spatio-Temporal Estimation of Leaf Area Index in Heterogeneous Forests," *International Journal of Environmental Protection*, vol. 3, no. 4, p. 10, 2013.

[35] M. A. Awal and M. A. H. Khan, "Global warming and sea level rising: impact on agriculture and food security in southern coastal region of Bangladesh," *Asian Journal of Geographical Research*, vol. 3, no. 3, pp. 9-36, 2020 2020.

[36] R. Costanza et al., "Changes in the global value of ecosystem services," *Global Environmental Change*, vol. 26, pp. 152-158, 2014 2014.

[37] E. T. Torbjörn, R. C. Donald, T. M. James, and W. D. John, "Coastal wetland resilience, accelerated sea-level rise, and the importance of timescale," *AGU Advances*, 2021 2021, doi: 10.1029/2020AV000334.

[38] S. M. Borchert, M. J. Osland, N. M. Enwright, and K. T. Griffith, "Coastal wetland adaptation to sea level rise: Quantifying potential for landward migration and coastal squeeze," *Journal of Applied Ecology*, vol. 55, no. 6, pp. 2876-2887, 2018, doi: https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2664.13169.

[39] W. V. Sweet et al., NOAA/NOS Center for Operational Oceanographic Products and Services, 2017 2017.

[40] J. C. Ellison, "Vulnerability assessment of mangroves to climate change and sea-level rise impacts," *Wetlands Ecology and Management*, vol. 23, pp. 115-137, 2015.

[41] R. J. Nicholls and A. Cazenave, "Sea-level rise and its impact on coastal zones," *science*, vol. 328, no. 5985, pp. 1517-1520, 2010.

[42] P. A. Morgan, D. M. Burdick, and F. T. Short, "The functions and values of fringing salt marshes in northern New England, USA," *Estuaries and Coasts*, vol. 32, pp. 483-495, 2009.

[43] D. Hinrichsen, *Coastal waters of the world: trends, threats, and strategies*. Island Press, 2013.

[44] L. Xiuzhen, B. Richard, C. Christopher, and E. W. Sarah, "Coastal wetland loss, consequences, and challenges for restoration," *Anthropocene Coasts*, vol. 1, pp. 1-15, 2018 2018.

[45] F. Dahdouh-Guebas, L. P. Jayatissa, D. Di Nitto, J. O. Bosire, D. L. Seen, and N. Koedam, "How effective were mangroves as a defence against the recent tsunami?," *Current biology*, vol. 15, no. 12, pp. R443-R447, 2005.

[46] S. Das and J. R. Vincent, "Mangroves protected villages and reduced death toll during Indian super cyclone," *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, vol. 106, no. 18, pp. 7357-7360, 2009.