Sea Level Rise in Europe: Summary for Policy Makers

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Abstract

Sea Level Rise (SLR) is a global concern for low-lying coastal areas, including many European coasts. The

- 25 European Knowledge Hub on Sea Level Rise (KH-SLR), an initiative by JPI Climate and JPI Oceans, has developed its first Assessment Report (SLRE1) to address the challenges posed by SLR in Europe. The report's target audience includes national and sub-national bodies focused on research and policy advice for coastal management and climate adaptation, as well as European experts who contribute to shaping policy frameworks and collecting information at a pan-European scale. This report, preceded by a series of targeted surveys and
- 30 workshops with researchers and stakeholders (e.g. coastal decision makers), has synthesized the current scientific knowledge on SLR drivers, impacts and policies at local, national, and European basin scales. It provides in-depth and basin-specific analyses on local sea level changes, compared to relevant global assessments of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC). In addition, it identified critical knowledge gaps needed to support the development of actionable information. The Summary for Policy Makers
- 35 (SPM) distils the key findings of the SLRE1, presenting information specific to the six European basins:

Mediterranean and Black Sea, North Sea, Baltic Sea, Atlantic and Arctic basins. The SPM highlights basinspecific trends, vulnerabilities, and potential impacts, while also orienting future requirements.

Key statements from the First Assessment Report on Sea Level Rise in Europe

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- *Sea level rise is a chronic hazard that is addressed in the governance of environmental and economic development of European coastal regions in all surrounding sea basins (section 5, 5.1, 5.2, 5.3, 5.4, 5.5).*
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- *The mean rate of European absolute sea level rise slightly exceeds the global mean trend and is* 45 *accelerating. Regional variability is large, with lower (or negative) relative sea level rise in some Baltic regions due to vertical land movements and effects of loss of land ice masses. Future sea level rise rates are very uncertain and depend greatly on emission scenarios. Higher relative sea level rates are expected in the southern areas (section 2, 2.3, 2.4, 2.5).*
- *Sea level rise has several coastal impacts (such as increased likelihood of floods, shoreline retreat by* 50 *coastal erosion, freshwater shortages by saltwater intrusion). Other human interventions can exacerbate these impacts, such as reduced sediment supplies due to streamflow obstructions, urbanization and habitat loss in exposed coastal areas, lack of sustainable groundwater strategies, or ageing coastal infrastructure (section 3.1, 3.2).*
- *Values of sea level rise considered in the management of coastal developments vary across countries,* 55 *and depend on socio-economic developments in coastal areas, environmental constraints and options to take measures against negative sea level rise impacts. Many countries have mainstreamed sea level rise in national and regional policies for climate adaptation, and (marine) spatial planning and environmental conservation (section 4.3, 5.1)*
- *Selection of options against adverse sea level rise impacts usually must strike a balance between* 60 *multiple objectives, available time windows, and long-term implications. Uncertainty in future sea level rise and socio-economic developments require long term flexibility by adopting an iterative decision process and monitoring progress in reaching policy objectives (section 4.2, 4.3).*
- *Many measures to reduce adverse sea level rise impacts exist, classified in broad categories (accommodate, protect, advance and retreat). They include hard (engineering) and soft (nature based)* 65 *infrastructure measures, upgrading or restoring existing coastal assets (such as dikes) or resources (such as aquifer recharge), preventive (such as early warnings) or recovery (such as insurance) measures, and changes in land occupation (such as managed retreat) (section 4.1, 4.3).*

1. Assessment Scope and Stakeholder Needs for European SLR information

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1.1 Scope of the assessment

Despite the global threat of sea level rise (SLR), Europe faces disparities in understanding and applying sea level science, evaluating its impacts, and devising effective adaptation strategies. The European Knowledge Hub on Sea Level Rise (KH-SLR), a joint effort between JPI Climate and JPI Oceans, compiled a first 75 assessment report based on an extensive scoping process defining its outline and identifying critical knowledge gaps. It aims to provide easy access to usable knowledge on regional-local sea level change in Europe and enabling policy makers to make well-informed decisions regarding protective and adaptive measures. The assessment of SLR for the six European basins is intended to provide additional value that complements global (e.g., IPCC) and national assessments (also see Pinardi et al., 2024, this volume).

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1.2 Stakeholder consultation

1.2.1 Online Survey

An online survey targeting stakeholders involved in coastal planning and in research was conducted to assess 85 the availability and use of SLR information, impacts of SLR, and adaptation strategies and policy implications of SLR. Responses were received from 200 stakeholder participants, with 94% from 23 European and 6% from 8 non-European countries, with participants' professional backgrounds separated into two groups. The first group (labeled as "government") consists of potential users of SLR information for policy design and implementation, usually professionals in public regional and national governance and in private industry with 90 advisory roles, and was represented by about one third of the respondents. The second group (labeled as "research") consists of information providers, and consists primarily of academic research staff (about two third of the respondents) (see Figure 2, Jiménez et al., 2024, this volume). Major outcomes of the survey are summarized in the text below (also see Jiménez et al., 2024, section 3.1, this volume).

95 **Availability of SLR Information**

Approximately 32% of respondents indicated a lack of essential regional to local data and information on SLR, with disparities across different sea basins and stakeholder groups. Overall, global sea level projections were most accessible and used. Information gaps primarily revolve around regional SLR projections, uncertainties and ice sheet mass loss contributions, highlighting the need for better projections related to long-term SLR and

- 100 comprehensive understanding. Government and scientist respondents identified gaps with slight variations in perspectives and priorities. Government respondents prioritize precise regional projections as the ultimate product, crucial for fulfilling their responsibilities, with uncertainty estimation being a significant concern. Scientists, however, prioritize a comprehensive understanding of factors influencing regional projections, considering these insights as the final goal, with a strong focus on the factors contributing to uncertainty.
- 105 Improving local SLR projections, understanding the impact on extreme water levels, and addressing coastal erosion were all deemed important.

Impacts of SLR

Shoreline erosion emerged as a dominant concern in all basins except the Arctic, highlighting the critical role 110 of beaches in regional economies. Due to this, other significant impacts are outlined, such as increased flooding, damage to infrastructure, and groundwater salinization, with notable disparities across sea basins. Challenges persist due to the absence of high-quality impact assessments, particularly in the Black Sea and Arctic basins.

Adaptation to SLR

- 115 The survey results show that many stakeholders deem existing adaptation plans to be inadequate, with scientists being more critical than government respondents. Flexibility of existing adaptation strategies in the face of SLRinduced impacts is considered insufficient, highlighting the need for adaptive planning approaches. SLR impacts that were mostly neglected by stakeholders including those on coastal ecosystems, coastal urban planning frameworks, river discharge characteristics, and freshwater management.
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Respondents unanimously agree on the usefulness of IPCC reports for informing policy and decision-making. Identified needs encompass periodic updates to SLR projections, comprehensive impact assessments, and enhanced exploration of adaptation strategies to mitigate SLR impacts on coastal communities (people living, working and residing in coastal zones) and ecosystems. Additionally, allocating resources for research and data

125 collection to improve evidence-based and adaptive policymaking was deemed necessary. Collaboration among government agencies, research institutions, and stakeholders to develop and implement effective adaptation measures was emphasized.

Policy implications include the recognition of the value of incorporating Nature Based Solutions (NBS) in 130 coastal adaptation plans, although their implementation requires rigorous evaluation and evidence of long-term sustainability under site-specific circumstances.

1.2.2 Online Workshops

The SLRE1 also reports on four online scoping workshops focusing on specific European sea basins, which 135 gathered insights from stakeholders, policymakers, and experts, furthering the understandings from the survey. Major outcomes of the workshop are summarized in the text below (also see Jiménez et al., 2024, section 3.2, this volume).

For all European sea basins, the workshops identified significant data and information gaps, particularly in 140 climate projections that capture local processes and coastline details. Notably, there is insufficient resolution in estuaries and a lack of data on human activities, alongside the need for a robust data delivery and quality control system. The workshops also highlighted the need for a solid methodology to assess the effectiveness of coastal adaptation measures and to develop Integrated Coastal Zone Management and/or Maritime Spatial Planning that incorporates sea-level rise policies. Additionally, both scientists and policymakers emphasized the

145 importance of community engagement and effective communication strategies. More details on the specific needs for each European basin are given in Jiménez et al. (2024), this volume.

2. Past, present and future sea level

- 150 The SLRE1 delves into observed and projected SLR and extreme sea level (ESL) in European basins. Despite some variability in SLR trends between European basins, satellite altimetry shows a consistent upward trend in basin averaged sea level and for the past thirty years, slightly above global mean SLR. Relative sea level rise (RSLR), which considers human-induced subsidence, and vertical land motion due to past and contemporary land ice mass loss, present more contrasted trends across European seas, including a relative sea level fall in the
- 155 uplifting northern Baltic Sea.

Relative sea level will rise throughout the 21st century over European Seas, except in the northern Baltic Sea and parts of the European Arctic. Under a very high emission scenario, a 1-m SLR is projected to occur over most European coasts south of 60°N during the first half of the 22nd century. Because of the large inertia of ice sheets and of the deep ocean, sea level is committed to rise for centuries to millennia, in European seas. A major 160 uncertainty for SLR projections relates to the Greenland and Antarctic ice mass loss and related tipping points.

The frequency at which historical centennial water levels are reached is projected to amplify along most European coasts in the coming decades, especially in the southern European Seas, implying the need for more adaptation measures. Higher-resolution sea level projections are needed, together with information on local drivers of extreme sea levels (including tides, waves, storm surges). European wide drivers of past mean and 165 extreme sea level, as well as future projections of these are provided for each of the assessed basins.

2.1 Eastern Atlantic

Drivers of Past Mean and Extreme Sea Level

The north-eastern Atlantic Ocean basin, concerning Portugal, Spain, France, the UK, and Ireland, features strong 170 bathymetric gradients, energetic tides, waves and storm surges notably due to the North Atlantic mid-latitude storm track. Rates of SLR have accelerated over the past century. Regional patterns of relative SLR are mostly explained by ocean current changes and mass loss from Greenland ice sheet and mountain glaciers. Climate variability such as the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) significantly affects storminess and atmospheric pressure patterns impacting the frequency and intensity of extreme sea level events, particularly storm surges.

175 The highest extreme water levels (50-yr return period) of European Seas are reached in the north-eastern Atlantic.

Projections on Mean and Extreme Sea Level

Projections for the 21st century suggest that relative sea level over European seas will rise (close to) the fastest 180 along the coasts of the north-eastern Atlantic (see Table 3, Melet et al., 2024*,* this volume). Relative SLR in this region will closely track the global mean, with some variations in rates across sea basins. SLR, driven by global mean thermal expansion, salinity and ocean circulation changes, remains the primary contributor to relative SLR along the European Atlantic coast. Changes in ocean circulation patterns, such as the intensification of currents, are projected to influence mean and extreme wave conditions, affecting coastal flooding and erosion.

- 185 Projections indicate a decrease in significant wave height and period along European coasts, leading to a reduction in wave setup and runup, with the potential exception of the Baltic Sea. Non-linear interactions between SLR, tides, and storm surges can be substantial in the north-eastern Atlantic and are anticipated to have substantial impacts on coastal water levels, with implications for coastal resilience and adaptation measures (see Melet et al., 2024, section 6.1, this volume).
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2.2 North Sea

Drivers of Past Mean and Extreme Sea Level

- The North Sea, bordered by several European countries, experiences a predominant cyclonic ocean circulation 195 due to prevailing westerly winds. It receives warm, saline water from the North Atlantic, and cooler, fresher water from the Baltic Sea, resulting in complex dynamics. Relative SLR in the North Sea is largely driven by temperature, salinity and current changes. Spatially varying rates of relative SLR are also substantially influenced by factors such as ice mass loss, and subsidence, with the highest rates of relative SLR found in the south-eastern North Sea. Interannual variations of sea level are mostly driven by variability in local winds and 200 surface atmospheric pressure. Sea levels in the North Sea are known to experience large changes over time. Astronomical tides significantly influence water levels, with the largest tidal ranges observed along the UK east coast. Large non-linear interactions between the tidal and non-tidal components of water level are especially important in the southern North Sea. Changes in waves, tides and storm surges have been observed, influenced by historical trends in mean sea level, changes of ocean stratification, and non-linear interactions between water 205 level components.
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Projections on Mean and Extreme Sea Level

Projections suggest that $21st$ century relative SLR in the North Sea will vary spatially, with higher rates in the southern parts of the basin, with spatial differences influenced by factors like past and present terrestrial ice 210 mass loss. Changes in SLR, due to temperature, salinity and currents, are projected to be relatively uniform across the North Sea. However, uncertainty stemming from factors like the resolution of global climate models (GCMs) and local dynamics are still large. There are likely to be more ESL events due to SLR, which will affect coastal communities, but the increase in frequency of ESL is smaller than in other European Seas. The impact of SLR on storm surges, tides, and waves is significant, particularly in shallow areas, necessitating adaptive 215 coastal management strategies. While the effect of changes in storminess on ESLs remains uncertain, studies agree that mean SLR itself is the primary driver of change in the North Sea (see Melet et al., 2024, section 6.2, this volume).

2.3 European Arctic

Drivers of Past Mean and Extreme Sea Level

- 220 Vertical land motion (VLM) is a significant driver of relative sea level change in the European Arctic, bordering Iceland and parts of Norway, attributed to past ice mass loss. Ongoing ice mass loss on Iceland and Svalbard also contributes to local land uplift. Recent studies highlight widespread VLM in the European Arctic due to ice mass loss from Greenland, and an overall rising trend in sea level. Sea level observations are challenging due to the remote location of the European Arctic and limited number of tide gauges, and to hampered satellite 225 measurements.
	- **Projections on Mean and Extreme Sea Level**

Projections suggest that the European Arctic will experience a below global average SLR, mainly due to land uplift effects, particularly from Arctic glaciers and the Greenland ice sheet melting. Consequently, a 0.5 or 1.0 m SLR will be reached later in the future in the European Arctic than in other European seas (see Figure 11, in

230 Melet et al., 2024, this volume). However, temperature, salinity and current driven SLR in the Arctic is expected to be larger than the global average, primarily due to ocean freshening. Projections indicate uncertainties regarding changes in storm surges and waves, but future wave climate projections generally indicate a lower mean significant wave height in the northeast Atlantic sector. Receding sea ice cover will result in higher waves in the northwestern part of the Norwegian and Barents Seas (see Melet et al., 2024, section 6.3, this volume).

235 **2.4 Mediterranean Sea and Black Sea**

Drivers of Past Mean and Extreme Sea Level

The Mediterranean Sea, connected to the Atlantic Ocean via the Strait of Gibraltar, experiences sea level changes driven primarily by mass contributions at basin scale, while the temperature and salinity components 240 explains a significant portion of variance at sub-basin scale. Interannual to decadal basin averaged sea level variability correlates with the nearby Atlantic, while regional deviations result from ocean circulation, heat redistribution, and air-sea momentum fluxes. Storm surges, due to North Atlantic atmospheric cyclones and to medicanes, and seiches are especially important for ESL in the microtidal Mediterranean Sea. VLM can be locally important.

245 The Black Sea, receiving freshwater from the Danube, Dnieper and Don River basins primarily, presents much lower salinity than the Mediterranean. Most of the SLR in this basin appears primarily related to salinity reduction rather than temperature increases. Coastal VLM is a relatively minor contributor to relative SLR in the Black Sea compared to other basins.

Projections on Mean and Extreme Sea Level

250 Multi-model ensemble projections for the Mediterranean Sea suggest basin-average rates of SLR by 2100 that are amongst the highest for European Seas (see Table 3, in Melet et al., 2024*,* this volume). The Black Sea's projected relative SLR has been scarcely assessed but is expected to be within a range of $\pm 20\%$ of global mean SLR. Mean SLR will be the dominant driver of increasing coastal ESLs during the 21st century. Storm surges and wind waves are projected to undergo small and mostly negative changes in southern Europe by 2100. 255 Additionally, future changes in medicanes (extratropical cyclones), and meteotsunamis (high-frequency oceanic waves due to rapid atmospheric pressure changes), are anticipated due to increased sea surface temperatures and altered atmospheric circulation patterns, with potential implications for coastal hazards. The projected increase in the frequency and amplitude of ESL is the largest in the Mediterranean Sea among the European Seas (see Figure 12, in Melet et al., 2024; also see Melet et al., 2024, section 6.4, this volume).

260 **2.5 Baltic Sea**

Drivers of Past Mean and Extreme Sea Level

The Baltic Sea is characterized by its semi-enclosed and shallow nature. The North Atlantic Oscillation plays a significant role in the climate variability of the basin, impacting wind patterns and sea level fluctuations. The 265 Baltic Sea experiences pronounced seasonal variations in sea level. At time scales longer than a month, mean sea level in the Baltic Sea approximately follows the sea level in Kattegat, outside the Baltic Sea, but with larger variance at the northern and eastern most bays. SLR in the southern Baltic Sea approximately follows the projected global mean SLR (or slightly less) but land uplift due to ice mass loss is particularly significant in

northern sub-basins, leading to a relative mean sea level fall there. Storm surges, amplified by westerly winds, 270 pose threats to low-lying coastal areas. Tides have relatively low amplitudes and ESLs in the Baltic Sea are caused by pronounced atmospheric cyclones that sometimes interact with seiches on daily time scales and with volume changes on weekly time scales.

Projections on Mean and Extreme Sea Level

- 275 Projections of 21st century sea levels in the Baltic Sea are requiring high-resolution regional climate models due to the complex coastline and topography of the basin. Available projections suggest continued basin mean SLR in the Baltic Sea under medium and high emission scenarios, slightly below global mean SLR. Relative sea level will continue to exhibit a clear north-south gradient during the 21st century, with a relative sea level fall in the northern most Baltic Sea due to the effects of ice mass loss (see Figure 10, in Melet et al., 2024*,* this 280 volume). Future changes in ESL will depend on mean SLR, atmospheric circulation patterns, which remain uncertain, and wind changes. Sea ice loss due to warming is expected to increase sea level extremes in previously ice-covered regions, leading to higher wave heights, coastal erosion, and sediment resuspension. While some studies suggest a rise in extreme sea levels beyond mean sea level due to changes in atmospheric circulation,
- confidence in these projections remains limited due to inconsistencies between global climate model 285 projections. Due to land uplift, the lowest amplification factors of the frequencies of ESL in European seas are found in the northern Baltic Sea (see Melet et al., 2024, section 6.5, this volume).

3. Coastal flooding, erosion, and saltwater intrusion in Europe

The analysis of the primary impacts of SLR on Europe employs the Source-Pathway-Receptor-Consequence 290 framework and focuses on coastal flooding, coastal erosion, and saltwater intrusion.

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3.1 Impacts

3.1.1 Flooding

- 295 Coastal flooding, influenced by rising sea levels and various factors like storms, has profound impacts across Europe, causing social, economic, and environmental consequences. Despite high flood-defence standards, significant populations and assets remain vulnerable, especially in low-lying coastal flood plains. The risks are further escalated by aging infrastructure, urbanization in these areas and habitat loss. Compound flooding, resulting from combined factors like heavy rainfall, river overflow and storm surge, exacerbates these 300 challenges. The interplay of drivers like extreme coastal water levels, tides, storm surges and waves is receiving
- increasing attention in development of early warning and decision support tools.

Climate change intensifies coastal flooding, primarily through SLR, altering flood dynamics and increasing the likelihood of compound events. Efforts to address flooding involve a multi-faceted approach, including coastal 305 defences, habitat restoration, and enhanced flood forecasting.

Policy directives incorporating SLR risk assessments can help to improve flood management strategies. While extensive flood management infrastructure exists, challenges persist, especially with accelerating SLR. Effective adaptation measures and investments in flood resilience are essential to mitigate the growing risks 310 posed by coastal and compound flooding in Europe (see van de Wal et al., 2024, section 4, this volume).

3.1.2 Erosion

Extreme waves, storm surges and human activities influence coastal erosion, which governs over 8,200 km of European sandy beaches causing shoreline change. SLR and the reduction of river sediment supply due to 315 human developments and dams are main drivers of erosion.

While local sediment budgets and climate patterns (winds and atmospheric pressure changes) determine the specific sign and magnitude of shoreline changes, rising sea levels will negatively impact all coastlines by adding a background erosion rate to existing trends. Coastal erosion poses significant challenges for coastal 320 communities, leading to habitat loss, infrastructure damage, increased flood risk and compromising the sustainability of recreational beach use, thereby impacting the tourism sector.

Europe's coastline is heavily influenced by human activities and infrastructure. Human development along coastlines exacerbates erosion. Effective coastal management strategies must consider the complex interplay of 325 drivers contributing to erosion and shoreline change (see van de Wal et al., 2024, section 5, this volume).

3.1.3 Saltwater intrusion

Saltwater intrusion (SWI) is the encroachment of saltwater into freshwater resources, affecting both surface waters and groundwater. It poses significant challenges to agriculture, freshwater availability and coastal 330 communities' livelihoods due to salt damage to crops and health risks associated with saline drinking water. SWI reduces freshwater storage, impacts soil fertility, vegetation, freshwater species and ecosystem services, especially in deltaic regions and estuaries.

Human activities, including reduced river flows and urbanization, exacerbate SWI. Climate change intensifies 335 SWI drivers, including SLR and reduced freshwater supply, affecting hydrogeological interactions between groundwater, surface water and marine water. SWI's consequences encompass social, economic, and environmental aspects, including reduced drinking water reserves, agricultural losses, habitat degradation, and land subsidence. Anthropogenic interventions, such as flood barriers and managed aquifer recharge schemes, aim to mitigate SWI impacts by limiting saltwater intrusion and enhancing freshwater resources. Challenges

- 340 persist, including the effectiveness of engineered solutions during extreme events and the need for sustainable groundwater management strategies. Future projections indicate increasing and groundwater salinization and drinking water loss, underscoring the importance of integrated coastal management and adaptation measures to address SWI's multifaceted impacts on Europe's coastal regions (see van de Wal et al., 2024, section 6, this volume).
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3.2 Regional impact

While not all SLR impacts have been systematically assessed for each basin, an inventory of the main impacts covered within the report are summarized in the text below. The reader is advised not to consider that any 350 impacts not covered for a specific basin are not experienced, but rather a possible scope for future assessments

3.2.1 Eastern Atlantic

to fill these gaps.

Flooding: The Eastern Atlantic coastline is affected by coastal flooding due to SLR. Flood-defence standards 355 in many European countries along the Eastern Atlantic are among the highest in the world, indicating high importance of protection measures in this basin.

Coastal Erosion: Projections under different emission scenarios indicate a shoreline retreat along the Basque coast from 10-66 meters by the year 2100.

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Saltwater intrusion: Along the Atlantic coasts various cases of increased saltwater intrusion in the groundwater system are reported. Specifically, the Minho and Lima estuaries in the northern coast of Portugal are affected by SLR, leading to a transgression of the saltier front over several kilometres.

365 **3.2.2 North Sea**

Flooding: The North Sea coastline is significantly affected by coastal flooding due to SLR. Coastal cities such as those of Rotterdam, Hamburg, and London are vulnerable to compound flood events arising from storm surges, waves, river discharge, and heavy precipitation. Port operations may also be negatively affected by SLR. 370 *Saltwater intrusion*: Enhanced salinization is projected to be induced by SLR and climate change in several coastal locations in the North Sea. The text cites examples such as The Netherlands and Belgium, where coastal locations are facing increased saltwater intrusion due to SLR.

3.2.3 Mediterranean Sea and Black Sea

- 375 *Flooding*: The Mediterranean Sea coastline is highly vulnerable to SLR-induced coastal flooding. Specific locations such as the Gulf of Valencia, northwest Algeria, the Gulf of Lion, and the Adriatic coast of the Balkan Peninsula present an increased flood risk due to compounding features characterizing hydrometeorological hazards and coastlines.
- 380 *Coastal erosion*: Mediterranean beaches are particularly susceptible to the negative effects of SLR due to their relatively narrow width. Studies project significant erosion impacts on Mediterranean beaches, such as those in the Balearic Islands, with projections of at least 20% of beaches losing more than 50% of their surface area by the end of the $21st$ century.
- 385 *Saltwater intrusion*: There are significant impacts of saltwater intrusion on the Mediterranean basin. including through increased seawater infiltration in coastal aquifers. This has pronounced consequences on agricultural productivity and poses a threat to coastal ecosystems, including the potential loss of subtidal seagrass meadows.

3.2.4 Baltic Sea

390 *Flooding*: The vulnerability of coastal subtidal seagrass meadows and intertidal salt marshes to SLR is particularly high in microtidal areas in parts of the Baltic Sea coast.

Despite prior infrastructure investments, increased flood risk and losses are expected, particularly with higher SLR rates.

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4. Adaptation measures and decision-making principles

4.1 Key adaptation strategies

- 400 A wide range of adaptation measures and decision-making principles related to sea level rise and coastal hazards exist. Interventions and measures can be classified in four main adaptation strategies (see Galluccio et al., 2024, section 2.1.1, this volume):
- **'Accommodation'** refers to measures that enable coping with the consequences of sea level rise, such 405 as flood-proofing buildings and increasing resilience of critical infrastructure which reduce the vulnerability of coastal communities to SLR impacts. These measures encompass a range of approaches, from flood-proofed materials to early warning systems and climate risk insurance schemes.
- **'Protect' measures** aim to reduce coastal hazards through hard and soft defence mechanisms, as well 410 as the restoration and management of coastal ecosystems. Examples include dams and seawalls, artificial reefs, restoring marshes and other forms of Nature Based Solutions.
	- **'Advance' measures** involve creating or advancing new land to address coastal flooding and erosion, often through conservation and restoration efforts.
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- **'Retreat' measures** focus on reducing exposure to coastal hazards by relocating human activities, infrastructure or cities from high-risk to less exposed areas. This may involve planned relocation or managed realignment programs. Relocation strategies involve complex trade-offs between effective risk reduction and societal and economic costs.
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Please see Table 1 (Galluccio et al., 2024, this volume) listing the relevant adaptation measures, in response to SLR impacts, for different basins.

4.2 Approaches for decision making

425 Coastal adaptation decision-making is complex, demanding thoughtful approaches to address uncertainties about future climate and societal developments. Coastal adaptation decisions involve selection of various options planned for implementation at different moments in the future. Policy analysis methods exist that systematically examine the sequential ordering and timing of adaptation decisions in the future, including their potential triggers, alternatives and long-term implications. A combination of participatory and analytical 430 methods is crucial in this process, fostering stakeholder cooperation and identifying suitable options.

Coastal adaptation decision-making is complex, demanding thoughtful approaches amidst uncertainties. Coastal adaptation decisions involve selection of various options implemented at different moments in the future. 410 Adaptation decision-making methods can be applied to analyse consecutive decision moments in time, including their potential triggers, alternatives and long-term implications. Participatory and analytical methods are crucial 435 in this process, fostering stakeholder cooperation and identifying suitable options.

Coastal adaptation decision processes usually have to strike a balance between multiple objectives, available measures, and uncertainties about future conditions and policy implications. Methods such as multi-criteria decision analysis (MCA) helps manage this complex balance by organizing decisions and highlighting preferences and priorities. Potential low regret measures can be identified that offer immediate benefits with 440 minimal costs, including awareness campaigns and preservation of landscapes with high societal support.

Inherent SLR uncertainties require flexibility and adaptability of strategies. Keeping future options open involves postponing long-term decisions where possible and implementing flexible measures that can be adjusted to changing conditions and available information. SLR affects current decisions with long-term

consequences, particularly in the domains of critical infrastructure and urban planning. Iterative revision of 445 decisions and monitoring progress enable timely adjustments, and the adoption of new policies as needed. Adopting a systematic approach to coastal adaptation decision-making ensures resilient and sustainable outcomes amidst evolving challenges. Methods like economic analyses, robust decision-making and adaptive policy planning aid in evaluating decision timing and strategic prioritization (see Galluccio et al., 2024, section 2.2, this volume).

450 **4.3 Assessment of regional adaptation**

In Europe, adaptation to SLR varies across different sea basins, and often includes a combination of strategies accommodate, protect, advance and/or retreat. All basins display examples of integration of traditional ("hard") engineering solutions with ecosystem-based ("soft") measures, community involvement in decision-making processes, and continuous monitoring and flexible management strategies through coastal and marine planning 455 instruments (see Galluccio et al. 2024, Table 1; and Galluccio et al., 2024, section 2.3, this volume).

4.3.1 Eastern Atlantic

Across the Atlantic Ocean Basin, countries are implementing a variety of adaptation measures, including naturebased solutions and improved spatial planning. Ecosystem-based protection measures such as cliff strengthening, and sand nourishment are prominent, alongside advance strategies like the regeneration of 460 beaches and artificial dune systems. Retreat measures, including the removal of constructions in flood-critical areas, are considered at various locations.

4.3.2 North Sea

In the North Sea Basin, most countries have integrated SLR information into coastal planning, employing a 465 combination of hard and soft protection measures such as dike upgrading, sand nourishment and managed retreat. Comprehensive strategies combine flood protection with maintaining a healthy freshwater system while enhancing societal and ecological values.

4.3.3 Mediterranean Sea

470 Mediterranean Sea Basin countries have advanced the mainstreaming of SLR information into national adaptation planning, e.g. in Spain and Italy. Soft protection measures, including sand nourishment, and coastal reforestation and the restoration of dunes and marshes, are emphasized along with large-scale adaptation initiatives in major urban areas like Venice (Italy) and Barcelona (Spain). Further, insurance is emerging as an accommodation measure to address SLR, e.g. in Spain and France.

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4.3.4 Black Sea

In the Black Sea Basin, efforts are directed towards developing monitoring and early warning systems, alongside upgrading coastal infrastructure to manage SLR and associated flood risks. Initiatives combining sand

nourishment, cliff stabilization, and artificial reef building are being implemented with the aim of reducing 480 erosion risks and enhancing resilience in the tourism sector.

4.3.5 Baltic Sea

In the Baltic Sea Basin, several nations have integrated SLR projections into spatial planning and land-use regulations. Protection measures, including upgrading coastal defences and implementing nature-based 485 solutions are being implemented and contribute to marine environment conservation and enhancing living marine resources.

5. Governance Context and Challenges

The governance of coastal adaptation policies includes the institutional organization, stakeholder engagement and practice of decision-making, including the management of scientific knowledge, conflicting objectives and 490 interests, and incorporating a diversity of perspectives and views. Assessment of coastal adaptation governance does require the incorporation of the socio-economic and political contexts. In the SLRE1, this is carried out by reviewing relevant European coastal adaptation policy frameworks in place at regional and national levels and their contexts within each of the selected sea basins (see Bisaro et al., 2024, section 5.2, this volume).

5.1 Eastern Atlantic

495 The Eastern Atlantic basin encompass several vital economic sectors such as maritime tourism, shipping, and blue economy sectors including renewable energy and green port infrastructure. However, the basin also faces militarization and competition over natural resources and trade routes. This necessitates strategic engagement and cooperation from the European Union (EU) and its member states. With the rise in maritime activities, challenges related to sustainable development and resource management emerge. Policy interventions are 500 necessary to balance economic growth with environmental conservation. Atlantic Ocean Basin countries have adopted adaptation policy strategies, but challenges persist in addressing uncertainty in SLR and associated risks. Some countries incorporate SLR into their Maritime Spatial Planning, while others lack specific measures.

5.2 North Sea

The North Sea basin is witnessing heightened attention due to its vast energy reserves and potential for 505 renewable energy, notably offshore wind. The EU aims to leverage these resources for its energy transition to enhance economic growth and stability.

The North Sea basin hosts significant economic sectors like shipping, oil and gas and emerging sectors such as offshore wind energy. The EU aims to leverage these resources for its energy transition to enhance economic growth and stability. The North Sea Basin countries have reported SLR as a chronic hazard and adopted

510 adaptation policy strategies. Coastal adaptation measures vary and funding approaches differ substantially

among countries. Governance challenges include maintaining environmental sustainability amidst economic growth, while ensuring safe maritime activities and transitioning towards renewable energy sources.

5.3 European Arctic

The Arctic Ocean has become a geopolitical hotspot due to its rich energy resources and strategic positioning 515 to face the growing territorial competition. The EU is actively engaged in Arctic policy, focusing on sustainable development, climate resilience, and cooperation with indigenous populations amidst growing global competition.

The European Arctic faces economic opportunities in sectors like oil and gas, fishing as well as emerging sectors 520 including data centres and raw material extraction. Governance challenges include balancing economic development with environmental conservation, addressing demographic shifts and indigenous peoples' rights alongside industrial growth. In the Arctic Ocean Basin, Norway considers mid-range SLR scenarios in planning approaches, highlighting a proactive stance towards coastal adaptation.

5.4 Mediterranean Sea and Black Sea

- 525 The Mediterranean and Black Sea region host crucial economic sectors like tourism, fisheries, mariculture and emerging sectors like offshore energy. In addition, complex challenges are present, including migration, territorial disputes and energy security concerns. In its policies and recommendations, the EU emphasizes partnership and cooperation to address conflicts, promote stability, and mitigate environmental degradation in these critical basins.
- 530 Governance challenges include sustainable tourism management, ensuring seafood security and transitioning towards renewable energy sources to mitigate environmental degradation. The Mediterranean Sea Basin has regional instruments addressing coastal adaptation, albeit with limited effectiveness due to the absence of specific measures for SLR. In the Black Sea, regional instruments lack provisions for SLR and coastal adaptation.

535 **5.5 Baltic Sea**

The Baltic Sea basin features significant sectors such as shipping, fishing, and emerging sectors like offshore wind energy. However, the region also faces security challenges exacerbated by the Russia-Ukraine conflict and aggravated by its energy dependence. Efforts focus on diversifying energy sources, enhancing maritime security as well as promoting sustainable development through innovation and cooperation.

540 Other governance challenges involve addressing pollution concerns, sustainable resource management and promoting green technologies to reduce environmental impact. Baltic Sea Basin countries show varying levels of adoption of adaptation policies and measures addressing SLR. Maritime Spatial Planning is enforced across the basin, with some countries incorporating SLR into their plans.

Author Contributions

545 BvdH and NP coordinated the overall manuscript development and led the writing of the abstract. BvdH drafted the key messages following the abstract. KS and LGP contributed the initial drafts for Sections 1 through 5. Revision contributions were provided by JAJ, GW, and NP (Section 1); AM (Section 2), RvdW (Section 3), and GG and AB (Sections 4 and 5). All authors participated in the iterations and revisions of the manuscript.

Competing interests

550 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

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