

# Rising coastal groundwater as a result of sea-level rise will influence contaminated coastal sites and underground infrastructure

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May 25, 2023

## Abstract

Sea-level rise (SLR) will cause coastal groundwater to rise in many coastal urban environments. Inundation of contaminated soils by groundwater rise (GWR) will alter the physical, biological, and geochemical conditions that influence the fate and transport of existing contaminants. These transformed products can be more toxic and/or more mobile under future conditions driven by SLR and GWR. We reviewed the vulnerability of contaminated sites to GWR in a US national database and in a case comparison with the San Francisco Bay region to estimate the risk of rising groundwater to human and ecosystem health. The results show that 326 sites in the US Superfund program may be vulnerable to changes in groundwater depth or flow direction as a result of SLR, representing 18.1 million hectares of contaminated land. In the San Francisco Bay Area, we found that GWR is predicted to impact twice as much land area as inundation from SLR, and 5,282 additional state-managed sites of contamination may be vulnerable to inundation from GWR in a 1.0 m SLR scenario. Increases of only a few centimeters of elevation can mobilize soil contaminants, alter flow directions in a heterogeneous urban environment with underground pipes and utility trenches, and result in new exposure pathways. Pumping for flood protection will elevate the saltwater interface, changing groundwater salinity and mobilizing metals in soil. Socially vulnerable communities are disproportionately exposed to this risk at both the national scale and in a regional comparison with the San Francisco Bay Area.

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1  
2 **Rising coastal groundwater as a result of sea-level rise will influence contaminated**  
3 **coastal sites and underground infrastructure**  
4

5 **K. Hill<sup>1</sup>, D. Hirschfeld<sup>2</sup>, C. Lindquist<sup>1</sup>, F. Cook<sup>2, 3, 4</sup>, and S. Warner<sup>3, 4</sup>**

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11 **Key Points:**

- 12 ● Rising sea levels will cause rising groundwater to inundate some coastal contaminated  
13 sites, mobilizing pollutants and causing corrosion.
- 14 ● We found 326 Superfund sites that may be at risk nationally, and 5,282 state managed  
15 sites in a San Francisco Bay area comparison.
- 16 ● Socially vulnerable communities are disproportionately exposed to this hazard, via  
17 impacts on indoor air, foundations and infrastructure.

18  
19 **Abstract**

20 Sea-level rise (SLR) will cause coastal groundwater to rise in many coastal urban environments.  
21 Inundation of contaminated soils by groundwater rise (GWR) will alter the physical, biological,  
22 and geochemical conditions that influence the fate and transport of existing contaminants. These  
23 transformed products can be more toxic and/or more mobile under future conditions driven by  
24 SLR and GWR. We reviewed the vulnerability of contaminated sites to GWR in a US national  
25 database and in a case comparison with the San Francisco Bay region to estimate the risk of  
26 rising groundwater to human and ecosystem health. The results show that 326 sites in the US  
27 Superfund program may be vulnerable to changes in groundwater depth or flow direction as a  
28 result of SLR, representing 18.1 million hectares of contaminated land. In the San Francisco Bay  
29 Area, we found that GWR is predicted to impact twice as much land area as inundation from  
30 SLR, and 5,282 additional state-managed sites of contamination may be vulnerable to inundation  
31 from GWR in a 1.0 m SLR scenario. Increases of only a few centimeters of elevation can  
32 mobilize soil contaminants, alter flow directions in a heterogeneous urban environment with  
33 underground pipes and utility trenches, and result in new exposure pathways. Pumping for flood  
34 protection will elevate the saltwater interface, changing groundwater salinity and mobilizing  
35 metals in soil. Socially vulnerable communities are disproportionately exposed to this risk at  
36 both the national scale and in a regional comparison with the San Francisco Bay Area.

37

38

## 39 Plain Language Summary

40 We estimated the number of sites with known contamination in the US Superfund program at the  
41 national scale and found 326 Superfund sites that may be exposed to inundation from below as  
42 rising sea levels push groundwater higher along the coast. California, North Carolina, Virginia  
43 and New York have the largest area of federally-managed contaminated land that may be  
44 exposed. Thousands of additional sites are managed by state agencies. We conducted a  
45 comparison in the San Francisco Bay Area that included state-managed sites.

46 We found that 5,297 sites in the San Francisco region may be exposed to rising groundwater  
47 with SLR of 1.0 m, including 1,480 open sites, and an additional 3,817 closed sites that may  
48 contain residual contaminants. If the ratio of Superfund to state-managed sites in this region  
49 (1:352) holds, the number of at-risk contaminated sites nationally would be 115,000.

50 Low-income residents and people of color are disproportionately represented near these sites and  
51 therefore may face higher risks. Additional sub-regional research is urgently needed to  
52 understand these exposures. Interactions will occur between the salinity of rising coastal  
53 groundwater and shallow pumping, affecting infrastructure and building foundations. Adaptation  
54 plans must consider rising groundwater to avoid widespread failures.

## 55 1 Introduction

56 Higher sea levels and human adaptation actions can influence the elevation, discharge  
57 rates, and flow direction of unconfined coastal groundwater all around the world (Michael,  
58 Russoniello, and Byron 2013). Future sea levels are predicted to rise significantly in urban areas  
59 along the US coast (Sweet et al. 2022). Coastal cities have been designed for today's  
60 groundwater elevations, using the assumption that water supply pipes, sanitary sewers, storm  
61 sewers, electrical conduits, and even building foundations will either be dry or seasonally  
62 submerged in fresh groundwater. Future performance of critical infrastructure at the building and  
63 district scales is threatened by pressure and salinity changes associated with rising coastal  
64 groundwater (Tansel and Zhang 2022; Parkinson 2021; Habel et al. 2020; Hummel, Berry, and  
65 Stacey 2018; Noi and Nitivattananon 2015).

66 Coastal sediment, soil, and groundwater are frequently contaminated with chemicals that  
67 can threaten human and ecosystem health (Burman et al. 2022; Carter and Kalman 2020).  
68 Previous studies have identified substantial zones of mixing between fresh groundwater and  
69 ocean-derived or influenced groundwater that may strongly affect aqueous geochemical cycles  
70 and coastal water quality (Sawyer et al. 2015). A recent study estimated the number of hazardous  
71 sites that are exposed to SLR and GWR in California, and the social vulnerability of people  
72 nearby (Cushing et al 2023). However, the number of sites defined as exposed may be too low  
73 by an order of magnitude if groundwater processes are not considered using an appropriate  
74 conceptual model. No previous studies have estimated the number or area of contaminated sites  
75 that may be exposed to rising groundwater nationally in the US, or the number and  
76 characteristics of people who may be vulnerable to exposure along the US coast. In addition, no  
77 previous work has compared the national US number of sites to a detailed regional case to  
78 estimate the total number of sites managed by non-federal agencies.

79 Military bases, commercial sites such as fueling stations and cleaning facilities, industrial  
80 sites including oil refineries and chemical manufacturing, and transportation hubs such as air and

81 shipping port facilities have left a legacy of contaminated land in coastal areas. The types of  
82 contaminants present on these sites are diverse: heavy metals, volatile organic compounds  
83 (VOC's), pesticides and herbicides, persistent organic pollutants, radioisotopes, and unexploded  
84 military ordnance. Contaminated earth materials including soil, sediment, and bedrock have  
85 typically been left in place and capped with low-permeability materials to exclude rainwater  
86 infiltration and isolate or immobilize contaminants (Palermo 1998). Site-scale biological,  
87 chemical, and other physical remedies have been developed and applied over the past 30 years  
88 (Warner et al. 2023). Although many *in situ* caps have not performed as intended due to the  
89 heterogeneity of site conditions and unanticipated interactions with contaminant chemistry (Pu et  
90 al. 2021), cost and environmental impact comparisons with removal actions have led to the  
91 widespread use of these *in situ* soil caps and treatment strategies instead of soil removal for  
92 treatment off-site or sequestration (Hou 2020). These site-by-site comparisons of costs and  
93 environmental impacts have not yet included the risk of rising coastal groundwater as a  
94 consequence of sea level rise.

95 In US law, the Comprehensive Environmental Response, Compensation, and Liability  
96 Act (CERCLA), also known as Superfund, authorizes government to respond to releases or  
97 threatened releases of hazardous substances into the environment (CERCLA 1980).  
98 Contaminated sites listed on the Superfund program's National Priorities List (NPL), maintained  
99 by the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), received special funding for remediation  
100 and community engagement (Summers, Lamper and Buck 2021). However, Superfund sites are  
101 not necessarily contaminated with more dangerous chemicals than other sites managed by US  
102 state agencies. Most US contaminated sites are managed by state or local agencies that receive  
103 their authority to require investigation, clean-up and monitoring of both public and private sites  
104 from CERCLA. Under this authority, the spatial and temporal patterns of groundwater and  
105 chemical concentrations in soil and groundwater at contaminated sites are typically studied only  
106 within the boundaries of the legal parcel where the contamination has been identified. The often  
107 slow and iterative cycles of investigation, monitoring, negotiations and court proceedings with  
108 private owners, and remediation can take several decades, leaving many sites effectively un-  
109 remediated (Summers, Lamper and Buck 2021).

110 A rising sea surface can alter the elevation, discharge rates or flow directions of  
111 groundwater in the saturated zone (Bjerklie 2012; Rotzoll and Fletcher 2012; Michael,  
112 Russoniello, and Byron 2013; Abarca et al. 2013; Gonnee, Mulligan, and Charette 2013; Plane  
113 and Hill 2017, Plane, Hill and May 2019; Befus et al. 2020). As groundwater rises and  
114 inundation of soil occurs, contaminants may be transformed and mobilized (Yuan et al 2023). As  
115 contaminants are mobilized, these new flows can create unexpected exposure pathways for  
116 humans and aquatic ecosystems. For example, underground utility trenches and pipes can  
117 become conduits for the volatile component of organic chemicals, potentially introducing these  
118 contaminants into indoor air via cracked plumbing seals or openings in building foundations  
119 (Roghani et al. 2021). Additionally, the changed hydrologic and biogeochemical conditions from  
120 rising groundwater may impair the intended performance of remedies and risk-management  
121 approaches for contaminated soil and groundwater (Warner et al. 2023).

122 Increased pumping to protect low-elevation land or buildings can raise the saltwater  
123 interface by tens of meters (Werner, Jakovovic and Simmons 2009; de Louw et al 2013;  
124 Jakovovic et al 2016; Kim, Yoon and Lee 2019). Increasing chloride and sulfate concentrations  
125 can mobilize metals in contaminated soils (Acosta et al 2011; Wen et al 2019; Yuan et al 2023).

126 Aquatic organisms are sensitive to metals such as arsenic, lead and chromium that are common  
127 at contaminated sites (Peakall and Burger 2003). In addition, tidally influenced groundwater  
128 cycles may remove fines in backfill under water supply pipes, destabilizing pipes at the joints.  
129 Higher groundwater also has significant impacts on sewer pipes, infiltrating and reducing their  
130 conveyance capacity and producing increased surface flooding (Habel et al. 2020). Finally, the  
131 inland and upwards movement of saline groundwater increases corrosion rates for underground  
132 utilities and structural foundations, presenting serious risks to human health and safety from  
133 structural failures (Parkinson 2021; Abdelhafez, Ellingwood and Mahmood 2022; Tansel and  
134 Zhang 2022).

135 Maps of shallow unconfined groundwater at the regional or urban district scale do not yet  
136 exist for most coastal urban areas. In response to the need for planned adaptation to sea level  
137 rise, new maps of current depth-to-water for unconfined, shallow coastal groundwater have been  
138 produced in some metropolitan areas, such as the San Francisco Bay region (Plane and Hill  
139 2017; Plane, Hill, and May 2019) and for the entire California coast (Befus et al. 2020). Similar  
140 maps have been produced in Miami-Dade County, Florida, and Hampton Roads, Virginia, to  
141 support adaptation planning. In addition, process-based projections of rising groundwater in  
142 relation to sea level have been produced using numerical groundwater software such as  
143 MODFLOW (Befus et al 2020; Habel et al 2017; Bjerklie et al 2012) using various assumptions  
144 about hydraulic conductivity to represent the heterogeneity of hydrogeologic conditions. Unlike  
145 empirical maps of past and current groundwater depth, these process-based modeling studies  
146 offer opportunities to predict and identify critical thresholds for groundwater elevation in relation  
147 to rising sea level. Process-based models also support investigations of saline groundwater  
148 movement, allow evaluation of whether and how groundwater flow directions may change, and  
149 can estimate the magnitude of increase in discharge rates for surface streams.

150 To date, no study has estimated how many contaminated sites in the lower 23 US coastal  
151 states may be vulnerable to a rise in unconfined coastal groundwater. This represents a new and  
152 critical adaptation planning concern for all sites with legacy contamination. A previous study has  
153 evaluated risks of direct surface inundation by rising sea level at contaminated sites managed by  
154 federal agencies on the eastern and Gulf coasts of the US (Carter and Kalman 2020). Another  
155 recent study looked at the threats that federal NPL sites face from a wide range of natural  
156 hazards across the US (Summers, Lamper and Buck 2021), but did not include rising  
157 groundwater. While studies have begun to map and quantify the risk of surface flooding at  
158 contaminated sites and to map the potential for emergent groundwater as a component of  
159 compound flooding (Rahimi et al. 2020; Burman et al. 2022), the scale of the risk of inundation  
160 from below has not yet been systematically assessed outside of California. A recent California  
161 study by Cushing et al (2023) used topographic overlay methods that did not consider the depth  
162 of the actual contaminants or infrastructure conveyance pathways in the soil, in relation to the  
163 depth of the groundwater.

164 These gaps in the current literature prevent public agencies from effectively protecting  
165 people, ecosystems and public infrastructure assets from sea level rise hazards. One recent  
166 investigation found that coastal urban planning does not yet consider the risk of rising  
167 groundwater as a consequence of rising sea level (Hirschfeld, Hill, and Plane 2021), although  
168 this has been changing in the San Francisco Bay Area as a result of community-level advocacy,  
169 sustained media coverage and active public agency leadership. Globally, urban planners and  
170 engineers typically intend to use levees to protect vulnerable districts from surface flooding.

171 Planners and engineers are often unaware that groundwater can rise on the inland side of the  
172 levee, causing health and infrastructure problems before emerging at the surface as flooding  
173 (Hirschfeld et al 2023). In the US, the threat of contaminant mobilization by rising groundwater  
174 is of particular concern since people with greater social vulnerability than is typical of the US  
175 population are more likely to live near contaminated sites (Carter and Kalman 2020).

176 This study assessed the number of contaminated sites in the US Superfund program that  
177 may be exposed to rising coastal groundwater in the contiguous US and used a case comparison  
178 with the San Francisco Bay Area to estimate the total number. We used topographic data to  
179 estimate groundwater levels in coastal regions and identified the boundaries of highly  
180 contaminated soil areas using US EPA's Superfund site map database. In the San Francisco Bay  
181 Area comparison, two separate state databases provided the locations of contaminated sites using  
182 street addresses. These sites typically have been treated and/or capped from above but have little  
183 or no protection from changes in subsurface flows.

184 We compared these site locations to maps by Befus et al (2020) that used a process-based  
185 model to estimate groundwater rise along the California coast in two sea level rise scenarios, 0.5  
186 m and 1.0 m. The 2020 Befus et al. study concluded that the San Francisco Bay region has  
187 extensive areas where shallow unconfined groundwater will rise with sea level. Although levees  
188 and seawalls are currently in use and more are planned, emergent groundwater will continue to  
189 present significant risks on the inland side of such coastal structures. Pumping frequently occurs  
190 as a response to high groundwater, elevating the salt water interface and creating new inundation  
191 and salinity conditions in some contaminated soils, along with risks of substantial land  
192 subsidence (Jakovovich et al 2016; Kim, Yoon and Lee 2019).

## 193 **2 Methods**

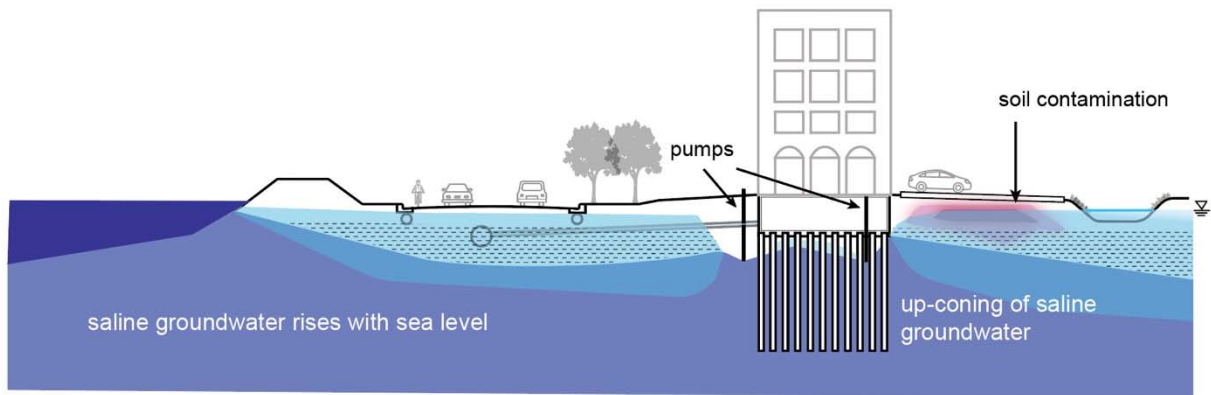
### 194 **2.1 Conceptual Models for Contaminated Sites**

195 Models of coastal groundwater and contaminant movement are rarely constructed as a  
196 synthesis that includes tidal effects on a range of geochemical conditions, interactions with urban  
197 infrastructure or heterogeneous fill materials, and contaminant movement (Warner et al 2023).  
198 Yet these conditions can be highly altered by rising sea levels and infiltrating sea water,  
199 depending on the hydrogeologic environment (Pratt et al 2022). The dominant conceptual model  
200 of advection-dispersion for contaminant transport in groundwater has failed to predict the field  
201 behavior of tracers at highly monitored sites, leading to arguments for advection-diffusion as the  
202 dominant processes (Hadley and Newell 2014). In advection-diffusion, sediment grains are  
203 conceptualized as tiny baffles that induce vertical diffusion as well as lateral dispersion. The  
204 relative dominance of vertical or horizontal contaminant movement may also be influenced by  
205 the hydraulic pressure response during tidal dynamics, potentially arguing for greater  
206 consideration of diffusion as a significant process in coastal contaminant flows.

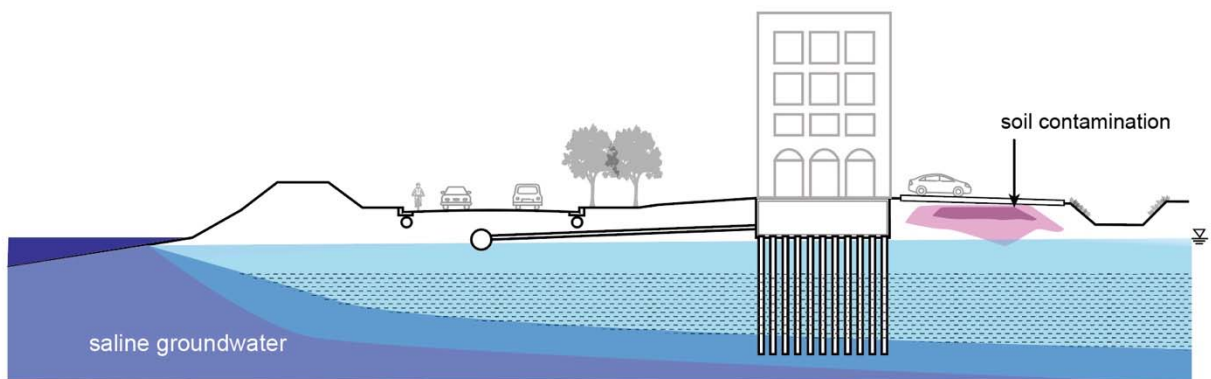
207 A synthetic conceptual model is needed of groundwater dynamics at coastal urban sites  
208 with increasing rates of sea level rise. It must represent heterogeneous conditions with significant  
209 anthropomorphic influences, including urban development activities such as parcel-scale  
210 pumping to protect individual structures, water and sewer pipes placed in tidally-influenced  
211 groundwater, deferred maintenance of pipe systems and building foundations, and the use of  
212 treatment or containment strategies at coastal landfills and other contaminated sites that include  
213 permeable and impermeable barriers, pumping, and injection of materials. In addition to current

214 activities, urban fill was historically placed in large quantities in urban coastal areas. Adding fill  
 215 produced large areas with highly variable hydraulic conductivities as a result of the diverse and  
 216 disorganized material constituents, and heavy traffic corridors with compacted soils can elevate  
 217 groundwater levels on their upgradient side (Plane, Hill, May 2019).

218 To account for an increased sea level, this conceptual model must also represent  
 219 hydrological changes that will impact urban conditions, including geochemical interaction with  
 220 contaminated soils that could lead to mobilization of contaminants (Pratt et al 2023), increased  
 221 salinization that accelerates corrosion of conduits and building materials, increased liquefaction  
 222 risks, changes in hydrostatic pressure, and increased groundwater discharge to streams and  
 223 underground pipes (Biswas et al 2018). Successful design and management decisions for  
 224 infrastructure systems and individual building sites must consider these physical and chemical  
 225 drivers. Ignoring these drivers could lead to loss of life in extreme precipitation or seismic events  
 226 and increase both human and ecosystem health risks from exposure to contaminants.  
 227 Maintenance and replacement costs for infrastructure systems are also likely to increase.



Future conditions with rising sea level and rising groundwater.



Current conditions in coastal cities with protective levees.

228

229 **Figure 1.** A synthetic conceptual model of rising coastal groundwater interacting with soil  
 230 constituents, soil chemistry, urban infrastructure, and pumping. Current conditions are shown in  
 231 the lower diagram and future conditions in the upper diagram. Dark blue represents ocean water,  
 232 medium blue is saline groundwater with a diffusion zone, light blue represents fresh

233 groundwater. Small horizontal dashes in the light blue zone represent anoxic groundwater  
234 conditions, and pink represents contaminated soil. Under future conditions, building foundations  
235 are exposed to more corrosive saline groundwater, particularly if pumping occurs and causes up-  
236 coning in the saltwater interface. Soil contaminants may be inundated by oxic, anoxic and saline  
237 groundwater. The sanitary sewer under the road and connected to the building, as well as the  
238 storm drains, may be infiltrated and have reduced capacity. Creek water levels will increase as  
239 groundwater discharge increases.

240 We propose the use of a synthetic conceptual model (Figure 1) that includes critical  
241 chemical and structural relationships affected by rising and increasingly saline groundwater. It  
242 represents the depth of fresh groundwater, which can increase liquefaction risk in seismic events;  
243 inundation of pipes and catch basins that impact infrastructure performance; the saltwater  
244 interface, which will rise in relation to sea level and will exhibit up-coning as a response to  
245 pumping, accelerating corrosion rates of foundations and pipes; and inundation of previously dry  
246 contaminated soils by groundwater. These interactions may occur even if shoreline levees are  
247 constructed. This synthetic conceptual model allows regulatory agencies, property owners, urban  
248 planners and infrastructure managers to anticipate future conditions at contaminated sites and  
249 make choices that consider the interactions of changes in these physical systems with adaptation  
250 strategies such as pumping.

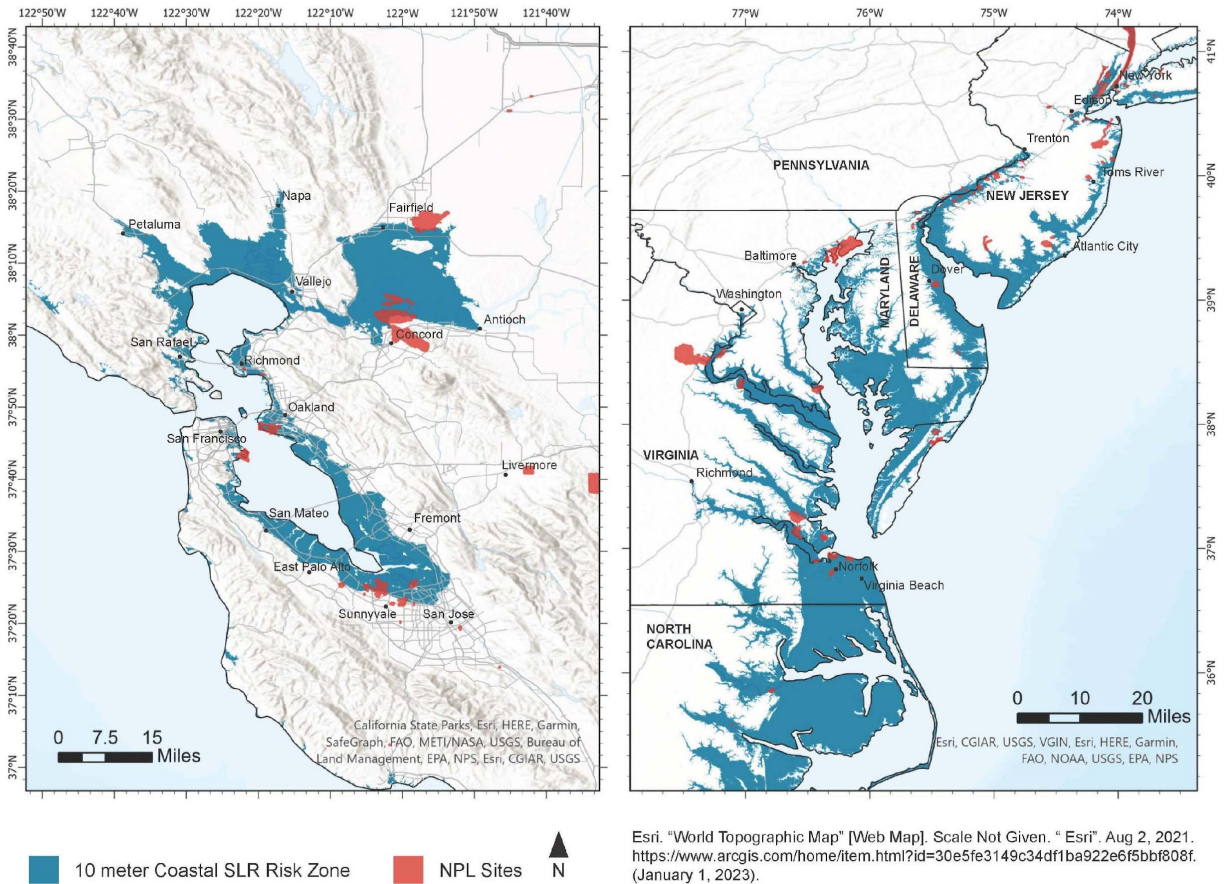
## 251 2.2 National Assessment of Exposed and Contaminated Sites

252 To identify all Superfund sites that may be exposed to potential coastal groundwater  
253 inundation or influence from changed groundwater flow directions, we delineated coastal areas  
254 where groundwater conditions may be affected by a rising sea surface. Such coastal areas include  
255 the 23 mainland US states that are influenced by tidal flows (see Table 2). Rather than estimate  
256 exposure using distance from the tidal shoreline, we used elevation derived from digital elevation  
257 model (DEM) data provided by NOAA (Office of Coastal Management, 2023). This data was  
258 subsequently used to create two continuous coastal datasets (one for the US East and Gulf coasts,  
259 and one for the West coast). We then identified all areas of land below 10 meters of elevation as  
260 potentially exposed to rising groundwater. Elevation was selected as a key parameter rather than  
261 distance from the shoreline to recognize the important role topography plays in the relationship  
262 between rising sea levels and groundwater (Befus et al 2020). This approach is intended as a  
263 rapid assessment method designed to capture all sites with potential exposure since it can be  
264 applied to extensive and complex coastal areas where process-based groundwater maps are not  
265 yet available. The area within 10 meters of mean sea level is shown in Figure 2 for the San  
266 Francisco Bay Area (A) and Chesapeake Bay (B) to draw attention to the extensive areas at risk  
267 from rising groundwater in low-lying estuary environments.

268 Next, we overlaid a national dataset of US EPA Superfund contamination boundaries  
269 onto our map of coastal land located within approximately 10 meters of mean sea level. For this  
270 analysis we relied on a map dataset created by Shared Enterprise Geodata and Services (SEGS)  
271 for the EPA. This dataset contains polygons that define the Operable Unit and represent the  
272 current understanding of the full extent of contamination (US EPA, 2021), and includes 1,852  
273 Superfund sites throughout the United States. For the purposes of our analysis, we included sites  
274 that are considered either open (ie, actively being investigated or remediated) or closed (where  
275 investigation and remediation activities are considered complete). Sites that are administratively  
276 closed often contain residual contamination (de la Cruz et al 2014). We identified all Superfund



277 sites that are fully or partially located within the topographic coastal risk area, and identified the  
 278 specific contaminants located at each site based on the Contaminant of Concern Data for  
 279 Decision Documents by Media, FYs 1982-2020 (US EPA, 2022). We categorized the sites as  
 280 having (a) only volatile organic compounds (VOC's), (b) only metals, or (c) a mixture of  
 281 pollutants that included both these types of materials as well as unusual components such as  
 282 unexploded ordinances. (See Supplementary materials.)



297 percentage relative to the population living in the buffer zone by replicating methods used by  
 298 Carter and Kalman (2020).

299 2.3 San Francisco Bay Comparison with Superfund and State-Managed Sites

300 We used a similar study of the San Francisco Bay Area to estimate the number of state-  
 301 managed contaminated sites that may be exposed to rising coastal groundwater, in addition to  
 302 Superfund sites. State-managed sites are not necessarily less hazardous than federal Superfund  
 303 sites and are far more numerous. A database of Superfund sites alone does not include thousands  
 304 of contaminated sites in the San Francisco Bay Area, and a similar situation exists in other  
 305 regions. It may be possible to establish a more realistic initial estimate of the number of exposed  
 306 contaminated sites in US coastal areas using a ratio of Superfund sites to state-managed sites.  
 307

DTSC (Envirostor)		WRCB (GeoTracker)	
<i>Included</i>	<i>Excluded</i>	<i>Included</i>	<i>Excluded</i>
Border Zone/Haz Waste Evaluation	Calmortgage	NPDES	Sampling Point
Corrective Action		Cleanup Program Site	Non-Case
Evaluation		Land Disposal Site	UIC
Federal Superfund		LUST Cleanup Site	Project
Historical		Military Cleanup Site	Well Stimulation Project
Military Evaluation		Military Privatized Site	
School Clean Up		Military UST Site	
School Investigation		Other Oil and Gas	
State Response			
Tiered Permit			
Voluntary Cleanup			

308

309 **Table 1.** The types of contaminated sites included in this study are listed here. We included all  
 310 sites that currently have or have had contamination, or are being investigated for contamination,  
 311 using categories from the two California databases maintained by DTSC (Department of Toxic  
 312 Substance Control) and WRCB (Water Resources Control Board).  
 313

314 A comprehensive set of contaminated sites was prepared by combining the sites from the  
 315 two separate publicly available statewide databases of contaminated sites: Envirostor, which is  
 316 managed by California Environmental Protection Agency (CalEPA), Department of Toxic  
 317 Substance Control (DTSC), and GeoTracker, which is developed and maintained by the CalEPA

318 State Water Resources Control Board (SWRCB) (CA WRCB 2023). Most sites listed in these  
319 two databases are unique, but for historical reasons related to the timing of when a given site was  
320 regulated by a prior agency, a small number are contained in both databases. We removed  
321 duplicate site listings or location errors from the data sets, then combined the data sets to create  
322 the first comprehensive map of contaminated sites in the region. Because some sites may be  
323 closed administratively but still contain residual contamination, we included both active and  
324 closed sites in this combined dataset. Former military, landfill, industrial and commercial sites  
325 are included on this list that contain radioisotopes, volatile organic compounds (VOC's), heavy  
326 metals, and municipal household wastes, among other contaminants. The sites range in size from  
327 multiple hectares to a single parcel with a leaky underground fuel tank.

328 We used current and projected groundwater head from Befus et al (2020) to represent  
329 both current and future groundwater levels in the San Francisco Bay Area, with SLR scenarios of  
330 0.5 m and 1.0 m. Befus et al (2020) produced groundwater elevation maps for a range of  
331 hydraulic conductivities (0.1 Kh, 1.0 Kh and 10.0 Kh). We selected the value of 1.0 Kh to  
332 represent what may be an average condition in a heterogeneous geomorphic region that includes  
333 artificial fill and compacted road and railroad beds, as well as Holocene alluvial fans, sand dunes  
334 and paleochannels. The modeled groundwater surfaces in Befus et al (2020) indicate that  
335 approximately twice as much land area in the Bay Area will be affected by rising groundwater in  
336 comparison to direct inundation with 1.0 m of SLR. In eight of the nine counties of the region,  
337 more land area will be affected by rising groundwater than by direct inundation in both SLR  
338 scenarios. Santa Clara County is the only part of the San Francisco Bay Area where more land  
339 will be affected by direct inundation than by rising groundwater in both SLR scenarios (see  
340 Supplemental materials).

341 Next, we identified the contaminated sites in this combined dataset that are currently  
342 located over shallow groundwater. We defined shallow groundwater as groundwater within  
343 approximately 3 m of the surface for two reasons: first, additional sediment has been placed on  
344 many of the larger contaminated sites, without raising the remaining soil contamination which  
345 remains close to the saturated zone; and second, because sanitary sewer pipes and other utilities  
346 are typically located within 3 m of the ground surface. Pipes and trenches create exposure  
347 pathways that can make building occupants vulnerable to VOC mobilization and health impacts  
348 (Roghani et al 2021).

349 We limited our analysis to areas where at least 0.10 m of groundwater rise is predicted in  
350 either the 0.5m or 1.0m SLR scenarios (Befus et al 2020). Given the relatively low resolution of  
351 the groundwater surface produced by their statewide study, we questioned the significance of  
352 very small changes in elevation and omitted those areas from our defined zones of rising  
353 groundwater.

354 Our final question for comparison with the national results was whether socially  
355 vulnerable communities are more exposed to risks from this emerging hazard than the general  
356 population of the San Francisco Bay Area. In a recent study, the San Francisco Bay Conservation  
357 and Development Commission (BCDC) assigned ordinal social vulnerability scores to census  
358 blocks across the entire region using variables such as income, education, and race (BCDC  
359 2020). We used Kendall's tau to test the strength of the association between the number of  
360 exposed contaminated sites per hectare and BCDC's four ranked categories of social  
361 vulnerability using IBM SPSS Statistics (version 27).

362 **3 Results**

## 363 3.1 National Assessment of Exposed Contaminated Sites

364 Table 2 summarizes the data for all 23 coastal states in the contiguous United States. The  
 365 table shows the total coastal area for each state we identified as at risk, the number of NPL sites  
 366 that intersect with the at-risk coastal area, the area of those NPL sites, and the ratio of the area of  
 367 Superfund sites to the area of coastal lowlands we defined as at risk (i.e., less than 10 meters  
 368 above mean sea level in elevation). Across the 23 coastal states in the contiguous United States,  
 369 we found that approximately 18 million hectares of land are at elevations low enough to  
 370 potentially be impacted by groundwater rise along coastal corridors.

371 Louisiana, Florida, and Texas have the greatest amount of land area at risk with 4.5, 3.8,  
 372 and 2.3 million hectares, respectively. A total of 326 Superfund sites are completely or partially  
 373 contained within this at-risk area, covering nearly 300,000 hectares in all 23 coastal states  
 374 studied. When the land area of at-risk contaminated soils on Superfund sites is compared to the  
 375 total area of at-risk coastal land, California, New York, and New Hampshire have the highest  
 376 proportional risks (24%, 21%, and 13% respectively). Southern and Gulf coast states have the  
 377 lowest risk, since South Carolina, Mississippi, Texas, Georgia and Louisiana all have less than  
 378 0.5% of their at-risk coastal land included in Superfund contamination area. With the exception  
 379 of Mississippi, this is partly due to these states' large areas of low-elevation coastal land.

380

State	EPA Region	Coastal SLR Risk Area (Hectares)	Number of Superfund Sites at risk of SLR	Superfund Site Area (Hectares)	Percentage Superfund Area / Coastal SLR Risk Area
Maine	1	123,584	3	1,421	1.15%
New Hampshire	1	13,488	1	1,699	12.60%
Massachusetts	1	160,854	8	10,299	6.40%
Rhode Island	1	30,563	3	1,156	3.78%
Connecticut	1	61,785	2	374	0.61%
New York	2	178,156	19	37,121	20.84%
New Jersey	2	382,655	54	12,961	3.39%
Delaware	3	198,157	16	1,773	0.89%
Pennsylvania	3	25,184	9	177	0.70%
Maryland	3	716,998	11	20,971	2.92%
District of Columbia	3	4,415	1	31	0.71%
Virginia	3	823,338	17	41,659	5.06%
North Carolina	4	1,806,062	13	46,485	2.57%
South Carolina	4	1,188,518	8	3,230	0.27%
Georgia	4	703,006	4	387	0.06%
Florida	4	3,813,313	51	18,854	0.49%
Alabama	4	265,172	5	1,907	0.72%

Mississippi	4	213,801	2	450	0.21%
Louisiana	6	4,465,579	19	819	0.02%
Texas	6	2,257,767	23	3,500	0.16%
California	9	293,723	27	70,520	24.01%
Oregon	10	162,387	6	3,587	2.21%
Washington	10	208,551	24	16,186	7.76%
<b>TOTAL:</b>		<b>18,097,055</b>	<b>326</b>	<b>295,568</b>	

381

382 **Table 2.** This table lists the number of exposed Superfund sites by US EPA region, along with  
383 the hectares of each coastal risk area, number of superfund sites in each coastal risk area, the area  
384 of contaminated land at each Superfund site, and the proportion of Superfund land area to coastal  
385 risk area for each of the 23 coastal states in the United States (excluding Alaska and Hawai'i).  
386 Total summary numbers are provided at the bottom of the table. The states are listed starting in  
387 the northeast and moving south, then west, then north, around the coastline of the contiguous  
388 United States. States are clustered by US EPA region.

389 Superfund site exposure for socially vulnerable populations is shown in Table 3. For each  
390 US state and three buffer distances from Superfund boundaries (1km, 3km, and 5km), Table 3  
391 contains the percent of the total exposed population that is non-white (left) and living in extreme  
392 poverty (right). Colors highlight low percentages (blue) and high percentages (red) relative to the  
393 range within the study area. A smaller percentage of people who may be exposed are non-white  
394 in the US Northeast (Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island & Connecticut). Our  
395 results show that in the District of Columbia, Virginia, Georgia, Mississippi, Louisiana, and  
396 California, higher percentages of residents who may be exposed to these risks are non-white, at  
397 more than 50%.

398 People in extreme poverty represent a lower percentage of those who may be exposed to  
399 risks from rising groundwater near Superfund sites, relative to the percentages of non-white  
400 residents. The highest percentage of people in extreme poverty who may be exposed is 22%  
401 (Georgia), while for non-white residents it is 73% (District of Columbia). Except for Texas,  
402 southern US states have higher percentages of people in extreme poverty who may be exposed to  
403 risks of rising groundwater at Superfund sites. West coast states have a relatively low percentage  
404 of people in extreme poverty who may be exposed to the risk of rising groundwater at Superfund  
405 sites.

State	% of people of color			% of people in poverty		
	1km	3km	5km	1km	3km	5km
Maine	12%	9%	7%	12%	11%	10%
New Hampshire	9%	9%	9%	11%	8%	8%
Massachusetts	29%	25%	24%	14%	11%	9%
Rhode Island	26%	15%	13%	10%	8%	7%
Connecticut	19%	27%	31%	5%	7%	8%
New York	37%	42%	44%	9%	10%	10%
New Jersey	40%	46%	46%	10%	9%	9%
Delaware	36%	40%	42%	11%	9%	9%

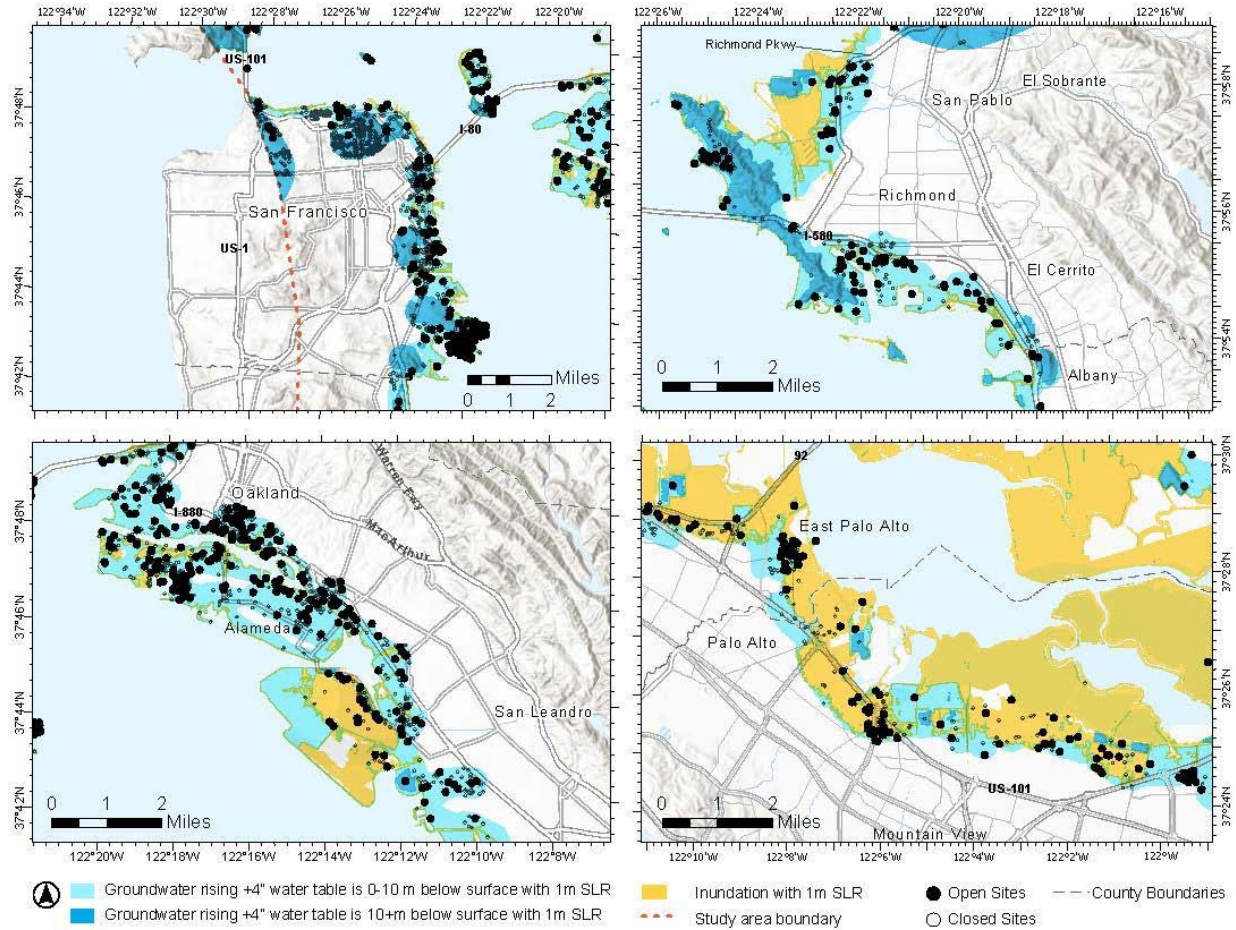
Pennsylvania	64%	47%	47%	15%	11%	11%
Maryland	40%	45%	50%	8%	9%	10%
District of Columbia	54%	64%	73%	9%	10%	11%
Virginia	67%	62%	59%	13%	12%	11%
North Carolina	32%	34%	34%	7%	10%	10%
South Carolina	41%	44%	44%	11%	13%	12%
Georgia	51%	64%	62%	22%	17%	17%
Florida	49%	48%	46%	16%	14%	13%
Alabama	29%	35%	40%	13%	14%	14%
Mississippi	59%	64%	57%	17%	17%	16%
Louisiana	60%	55%	55%	21%	18%	17%
Texas	34%	35%	35%	9%	9%	9%
California	55%	55%	55%	4%	4%	5%
Oregon	23%	23%	22%	6%	7%	7%
Washington	34%	39%	37%	7%	8%	8%

406 **Table 3.** Exposure of socially vulnerable residents summarized by state and by distance from  
 407 Superfund sites. The percent of the exposed population that is non-white (left) or living in  
 408 extreme poverty (right) is represented within 1km, 3km, and 5km buffer distances from at-risk  
 409 Superfund sites. States are listed starting in the northeast and moving south, then west, then north  
 410 around the contiguous United States. States are clustered by EPA region. Colors indicate upper  
 411 and lower ends of the percentage ranges, with blue signifying relatively low percentages and red  
 412 representing relatively high percentages.

### 413 3.2 San Francisco Bay Area Comparison: Superfund and State-Managed Sites

414 We found 15 contaminated Superfund sites within the San Francisco Bay Area that may  
 415 be exposed to GWR in the 1.0m SLR scenario. We identified an additional 5,282 state-managed  
 416 sites in that same scenario where soil and/or groundwater currently or formerly contained  
 417 VOC's, heavy metals, radioisotopes, and other contaminant substances, establishing a ratio of  
 418 1:352 (Superfund sites to state-managed sites) in the San Francisco Bay region. Figure 3  
 419 provides examples of the density and location of contaminated sites in this urbanized area.





420

421 **Figure 3.** Maps of selected cities in the San Francisco Bay Area with Richmond at upper right,  
 422 Palo Alto at lower right, Oakland at lower left, and San Francisco at upper left. Known  
 423 contaminated sites (empty circles are open sites, filled black circles are closed sites) are shown  
 424 where groundwater is predicted to rise (blue) or inundation is predicted to occur (yellow) in the  
 425 1.0 m SLR scenario.

426

427

SF Bay Area County	0.5 m SLR	1.0 m SLR
Alameda	339 (745)	425 (954)
Contra Costa	191 (233)	245 (344)
Marin	79 (183)	88 (225)
Napa	24 (133)	27 (168)
San Francisco	225 (535)	237 (839)

San Mateo	156 (343)	211 (552)
Santa Clara	100 (121)	127 (172)
Solano	81 (364)	91 (448)
Sonoma	20 (92)	29 (115)
<b>Total by status</b>	1,215 (2,749)	1,480 (3,817)
<b>Total</b>	3,964	5,297

428 **Table 4.** Summary by county of the number and status of contaminated sites, including  
 429 Superfund sites, that are located over rising groundwater or inundated under the 0.5m and 1.0m  
 430 SLR scenarios. The number of closed sites is shown in parentheses, following the number of  
 431 open sites. The final total includes both open and closed sites.

432 Next, we estimated the number and density of potentially exposed sites in census blocks  
 433 by overlaying the map of contaminated sites exposed to rising groundwater onto a map of census  
 434 blocks, characterized by relative social vulnerability (BCDC 2020) (Table 5).  
 435

	Low SOVI	Moderate SOVI	High SOVI	Highest SOVI	Unrated Census Blocks
Open sites	549	368	280	142	165
Closed sites	1,627	805	724	406	181
Total area (ha)	177,790	55,860	8,363	5,010	7,586
Total sites	2,176	1,173	1,004	548	346
Site density (#/ha)	0.012	0.021	0.120	0.110	N/A

436 **Table 5.** Number and density of contaminated sites that may be exposed to rising groundwater  
 437 with 1.0 m SLR within census blocks characterized by low, medium, high and highest social  
 438 vulnerability (BCDC 2020). Site density includes both open and closed sites. A total of 165 open  
 439 sites are in census blocks with no documented residents (115) or in open water (50) with this  
 440 SLR scenario.

441 To test the relationship between the density of contaminated sites and social  
 442 vulnerability, we first combined the two top social vulnerability categories (“high” and  
 443 “highest”) to obtain a land area for the upper rank with the same order of magnitude as the area  
 444 for “moderate” SOVI. Using Kendall’s tau (IBM SPSS Statistics, v. 27), we found that the



445 correlation between the density of contaminated sites and increasing social vulnerability was  
446 positive and significant at the 0.01 level. Using only the density of open sites compared to these  
447 same three categories of social vulnerability, we found that the correlation was still positive and  
448 significant at the 0.01 level, suggesting that the process of remediating contaminated sites has not  
449 proceeded more quickly in areas with higher social vulnerability.

## 450 **5 Conclusions**

### 451 5.1 Implications of our results

452 A synthetic conceptual model is needed for contaminated sites that represents the full  
453 range of hazards in a changing climate including rising groundwater, changes in groundwater  
454 salinity and other chemical characteristics, and potential changes in groundwater flow direction.  
455 In the heterogeneous conditions of actual urban areas, groundwater flow directions, elevation and  
456 salinity will be altered by artificial soils, utility trenches, and pumping that occurs to protect  
457 subsurface structures from rising groundwater. Since contaminated soils will be impacted by  
458 physical and chemical changes at scales beyond the original parcel where contamination  
459 occurred, district-scale modeling will be needed to identify potential interactions and protect  
460 human and ecosystem health.

461 In our national assessment we found that potential exposure of Superfund sites to  
462 increases in groundwater elevations is widespread on the coast of the contiguous US. California,  
463 New York, and New Hampshire appear to have the highest proportional risks when we  
464 considered the area of exposed contaminated land vs. the total area of exposed low-elevation  
465 land in those states. California's elevated statewide risk of sea level rise impacts was also  
466 identified in a previous national study of coastal flooding that did not consider rising  
467 groundwater (Summers, Lamper and Buck 2021).

468 Our results for the contiguous US suggest that more low-income and non-white  
469 Americans may be exposed to the hazards associated with rising groundwater at Superfund sites.  
470 This is likely to be a result of historical and contemporary policies and market dynamics that  
471 influence housing choices and job opportunities in those communities, along with policy  
472 decisions that led to the geographic concentration of polluting land uses (Bullard 1994).

473 We found a ratio of at-risk Superfund sites (15) to potentially exposed state-managed  
474 sites in the San Francisco Bay Area (5,282) of 1:352. If this ratio is representative of other  
475 coastal regions, the total number of contaminated sites potentially exposed to rising groundwater  
476 in the contiguous US may be 114,752 or more. Given California's elevated exposure relative to  
477 other states, this estimate may be high. However, it is critical that all sites with potential  
478 exposure are identified so that trust can be built with local communities, as sites would be  
479 removed from the list as local investigations proceed instead of added.

480 As our San Francisco Bay case also demonstrated, analytical overlay methods that  
481 combine a topographic surface and a groundwater surface to identify exposed sites are  
482 inadequate where fill materials have been mounded on top of the original contaminated soils  
483 unless shallow groundwater is defined as 3m below the ground surface. This omission of  
484 potentially exposed sites would overlook most landfill sites, for example, as well as heavily  
485 contaminated military or industrial sites where the ground has been raised to create a higher  
486 elevation surface for new urban development. This type of raised surface is currently planned as

487 a base for dense new housing at highly contaminated shoreline sites in Richmond and San  
488 Francisco, California.

489 In the San Francisco Bay area, SLR and GWR modeling by Befus et al (2020) predicts  
490 that twice as much land will be affected by rising groundwater as the area that will be inundated  
491 directly by SLR. Other low-lying regions around the US and the world may experience similar  
492 proportional impacts, although this is mediated by geology and vertical land motion. In addition  
493 to soil contamination, underground infrastructure and building foundations in these regions are  
494 likely to be impacted by both fresh and saline groundwater. In contexts where inspections are  
495 rare and maintenance is often deferred, this could lead to harmful health impacts and risks of  
496 system failures.

497 The number of contaminated sites that may be exposed to rising groundwater in the San  
498 Francisco Bay case was higher than we expected. The potential for contaminants to be mobilized  
499 at these sites represents an important new public health hazard, in addition to the potential for  
500 negative impacts on nearshore water quality and ecosystems with federally threatened and  
501 endangered species, and on important fish and shellfish resources.

502 Our work indicates that policy changes will be needed at the state and federal levels in  
503 the US. In 2022, the San Francisco Regional Water Quality Control Board (RWQCB), a district  
504 of the State WRCB, changed its policy to require landfill operators to consider rising coastal  
505 groundwater. California's DTSC changed its statewide policy to require managers of  
506 contaminated sites to consider rising coastal groundwater as an impact on site conditions in early  
507 2023, without specifying how. The US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) has committed  
508 to considering the most recent climate science as it reviews site remedies every five years but has  
509 not specifically described how these reviews will identify risks or prepare for rising coastal  
510 groundwater (US EPA 2021). These changes must become more specific by requiring the  
511 necessary scientific investigations at the sub-regional and district scales and accelerating the  
512 review of existing site remedies.

## 513 5.2 Additional Research Needs

514 The results of our analyses provide an initial estimate of the number and area of  
515 Superfund sites threatened by changes in groundwater elevation in US coastal regions and  
516 indicate that the percentage of socially vulnerable residents near these sites is often high. Our  
517 rapid assessment method for the national scale and our use of statewide groundwater modeling  
518 projections in the San Francisco Bay area both point to the need for many localized studies to  
519 assess exposure risks more accurately using higher-resolution process-based models of  
520 groundwater elevation and dynamics. Our method does not account for specific ways in which  
521 groundwater elevations may change in heterogeneous settings, including different soil contexts  
522 and recharge conditions (Werner and Simmons 2009, Michael et al 2013). Much future work is  
523 needed to couple high-resolution groundwater and surface water models to simulate and identify  
524 thresholds of impact in sea-level rise scenarios using the regional projections of Sweet et al.  
525 (2022) or even more accurate local projections and offer higher-resolution representations of the  
526 dynamic threat of rising groundwater.

527 Studies that take advantage of continuous projections of SLR over time instead of single-  
528 year scenarios will provide further insight into the timing and progression of exposure to GWR  
529 at contaminated sites, highlighting temporal thresholds in exposure risks. These results could

530 help decision makers at the federal, regional, state and local levels identify sites that should be  
531 prioritized for protective investment or full clean-up actions. Hydraulic contaminant control  
532 measures, including a range of physical and chemical, active and passive approaches, will be  
533 necessary to control both groundwater and contaminant occurrence and migration. These control  
534 strategies will need to be coordinated at a sub-regional scale to avoid unexpected interactions and  
535 will require a change from current practice, in which both modeling and protective actions are  
536 considered on a parcel-by-parcel basis.

537 Future actions may also require cap and barrier materials that are durable and resilient  
538 under conditions of sea water inundation for periods that may be temporary or permanent. In  
539 cases where *in situ* management costs or technical challenges cannot be met, removal of  
540 contaminated soil and treatment or off-site sequestration may be required. These actions can  
541 create new environmental justice impacts that result from transport or landfilling. In any of these  
542 situations, new costs will impact owners and new funding mechanisms for remediation and  
543 management are likely to be required, particularly in locations with a high density of sites or  
544 extensive areas of contamination.

545 The most important methodological insight we gained is that regional or national-scale  
546 overlay analyses must use a greater groundwater depth as the threshold for inundation of  
547 contamination in soil because additional fill has often been mounded on contaminated sites,  
548 altering the topographic surface. The depth of the contaminants in the soil and the relationship of  
549 that depth to the saturated zone are the essential variables for process-based studies that consider  
550 the potential for rising groundwater to mobilize soil contaminants. Obtaining depth-to-  
551 contaminant information is much more difficult and may require investigators to automate  
552 acquisition of data from the extensive reports that exist for thousands of sites in each US region.  
553 Future studies will also benefit from automated methods for extrapolating contaminant  
554 movement, and spatial data for the locations of sewer pipes and other utility trenches that could  
555 allow VOC's to enter indoor air. These data acquisition challenges must be overcome to  
556 undertake more accurate process-based modeling at sub-regional scales, which is essential for  
557 identifying serious local health risks from contaminant inundation, mobilization, and flow  
558 direction in complex urbanized coastal systems.

## 559 **Acknowledgments**

560 We wish to acknowledge Ian Utz at the California Department of Toxic Substance  
561 Control for sharing some of his geo-referenced data with us, and for helpful discussions early in  
562 the development of this paper, along with the members of the Richmond South Shoreline  
563 Citizens Advisory Group, who shared information with us and helped us understand the history  
564 of their sites in California. We would also like to thank staff at the California Water Resources  
565 Control Board for helping us access and understand their dataset, GeoTracker, and for  
566 discussions early in the development of this paper. Jacob Carter and Casey Kalman from Union  
567 of Concerned Scientists provided helpful discussions in the development of the national scale  
568 analysis. Caroline Lindquist was supported during part of this project by the UC Berkeley Bay  
569 Area Water Quality Fellowship, and the Excellence in Landscape Design Award from the UC  
570 Berkeley Department of Landscape Architecture and Environmental Planning. Funding for  
571 Forest Cook was provided by Utah State University's Department of Landscape Architecture and  
572 Environmental Planning. We have no financial conflicts of interest with the results of this paper.

573

574 **Open Research**

575 US Census data used in this paper are available online (US Census Bureau, 2021). Digital  
576 Elevation Models used to identify exposed sites at the US national scale were obtained from  
577 NOAA (Office of Coastal Management, 2016). Superfund program site boundaries were  
578 produced by (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2023). The data layers are stored in the  
579 DataDryad repository (doi:10.6078/D15X4N, no registration is required) along with all  
580 Geographic Information System (ArcGIS) files used in the analyses. Model output from Befus et  
581 al (2020) predicting current and future groundwater elevations in the San Francisco Bay Area is  
582 available through the US Geological Survey link in the references below (USGS 2020). Data  
583 processing for Superfund data occurred in the RStudio programming environment using  
584 (RStudio 2020). Maps and figures were made with ArcGIS, produced by ESRI, Inc. (ESRI  
585 2022), or Adobe Illustrator (Adobe 2019).

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