Maryland’s Plan to Adapt to Saltwater Intrusion and Salinization

Prepared by the Maryland Department of Planning
December 2019
Acknowledgements

The following are individuals and organizations who provided feedback and guidance on the plan:

**Maryland Department of Planning**
Robert McCord, Secretary
Sandra Schrader, Deputy Secretary
Pat Keller, Assistant Secretary
Chuck Boyd, Director, Planning Services
Adam Gruzs, Chief of Staff
Jason Dubow, Manager, Resource Conservation and Management Unit, primary author
Deborah Herr Cornwell, Resource Conservation Planner, primary author

**State Agency Saltwater Intrusion Workgroup**
Jason Dubow, Manager, Resource Conservation & Management Unit, primary author
Deborah Herr Cornwell, Resource Conservation Planner, primary author
David Andreasen, Program Chief, Hydrogeology and Hydrology Program, Maryland Geological Survey (MGS), contributing author
Suzanne Dorsey, Assistant Secretary, Maryland Department of the Environment (MDE)
John Grace, Chief, Source Protection and Appropriation Division, MDE
Kimberly Grubert, Planner, Chesapeake and Coastal Service, Maryland Department of Natural Resources (DNR)
Sasha Land, Coastal Planner-Local Resilience, Chesapeake and Coastal Service, DNR
Catherine McCall, Director, Office of Coastal and Ocean Management, Chesapeake and Coastal Service, DNR
Kate McClure, Coastal Climate Specialist, University of Maryland Sea Grant
Fredrika Moser, Director, University of Maryland Sea Grant
Danielle Naundorf, intern, University of Maryland Harry R. Hughes Center for Agro-Ecology
Dave Nemazie, Chief of Staff, University of Maryland Center for Environmental Science (UMCES)
Richard Ortt, Jr., Director and State Geologist, MGS
Susan Payne, Coordinator, Ecosystem Markets and Certainty Programs, Maryland Department of Agriculture (MDA)
Matthew Rowe, Assistant Director, Water and Science Administration, MDE
Andrew Staley, Hydrogeologist, MGS, contributing author

**Front cover image source:** Integration and Application Network at the University of Maryland Center for Environmental Science (UMCES-IAN)
Scientific and Technical Workgroup, Maryland Commission on Climate Change

Peter Goodwin, President, UMCES, Chair
Ghassem Asrar, Director, Joint Global Change Research Institute
Donald Boesch, Professor and President Emeritus, UMCES
Belay Demoz, Director, Joint Center for Earth Systems Technology University of Maryland at College Park (UMCP)
Eric Davidson, Director, Appalachian Laboratory, UMCES
Russell Dickerson, Professor, Department of Atmospheric and Oceanic Science, UMCP
Charles Glass, Assistant Secretary for Policy Analysis & Planning, Maryland Department of Transportation (MDOT)
Jane Kirschling, Dean, University of Maryland School of Nursing, University of Maryland at Baltimore (UMB)
Gerrit Knaap, Director, National Center for Smart Growth Research and Education, UMCP
Feranndo Miralles-Wilhelm, Chair, Department of Atmospheric and Oceanic Science, UMCP
Amir Sapkota, Professor, Maryland Institute for Applied Environmental Health, UMCP
Adel Shirmohammadi, Associate Dean for Research and Associate Director of Maryland Agricultural Experiment Station, UMCP
David Vanko, Dean, Jess & Mildred Fisher College of Science & Mathematics, Towson University
Eric Wachsman, Director, Maryland Energy Innovation Institute, UMCP

Additional Technical Reviewers

Elliott Campbell, Director, Center for Economic and Social Science, Chesapeake and Coastal Service, DNR
Michelle Canick, Conservation Project Manager, The Nature Conservancy MD/DC Chapter
Steve Culberson, IEP Lead Scientist, Delta Science Program, Delta Stewardship Council
Bill Dehn, Supervisor, Well Construction and Water Quality Program, Anne Arundel County Department of Health
Kyle Derby, Research Coordinator, Chesapeake Bay National Estuarine Research Reserve, DNR
Rebecca Epanchin-Niell, Fellow, Resources for the Future, contributing author
Keryn Geden, Assistant Professor, Biological Sciences, George Washington University, contributing author
Megan Granato, Senior Program Director, Chesapeake and Coastal Service, DNR
Amy Jacobs, Agricultural Program Director, The Nature Conservancy MD/DC Chapter
Saeid Kasraei, Manager, Water Supply Program, MDE
Margaret McGinty, Biologist, Fishing and Boating Services, DNR
Thomas McKenna, Hydrogeologist, Delaware Geological Survey
Joshua Parker, Licensed Environmental Health Specialist, Kent County Health Department
Gary Setzer, Senior Advisor, MDE
Kate Tully, Assistant Professor of Agroecology, Dept. of Plant Science and Landscape Architecture, UMCP, contributing author
Angel Willey, Biologist, Fishing and Boating Services, DNR
Stakeholder Reviewers
Jim Bass, Coastal Resilience Program Manager, Eastern Shore Land Conservancy
Erik Myers, Vice President, Climate and Water Sustainability, The Conservation Fund
Holly Porter, Executive Director, Delmarva Poultry Industry
Alison Prost, Maryland Executive Director, Chesapeake Bay Foundation

Interviewees and/or Conference Call Participants
David Andreasen, Program Chief, Hydrogeology and Hydrology Program, MGS, contributing author
Michelle Canick, Conservation Project Manager, The Nature Conservancy MD/DC Chapter
Katherine Charbonneau, Executive Director, Maryland Critical Area Commission
Patricia Delgado, Superintendent, Jug Bay Wetlands Sanctuary
Keryn Geden, Assistant Professor, Biological Sciences, George Washington University, contributing author
John Grace, Chief, Source Protection and Appropriation Division, MDE
Anne Hairston-Strang, Associate Director, Maryland Forest Service, DNR
David Hollinger, Director, U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) Northeast Regional Climate Hub
Matt Hurd, Regional Forester, Maryland Forest Service, DNR
Jay Lund, Professor, Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, University of California-Davis
Steve McNulty, Director, USDA Southeast Climate Hub
Christopher Miller, Conservation Agronomist, USDA-NRCS, Liaison to the USDA Northeast and Southeast Climate Hubs
Greg Noe, Research Ecologist, USGS-Virginia
Richard Ortt, Jr., Director and State Geologist, Maryland Geological Survey
Matthew Pajerowski, Supervisory Hydrologist, USGS Maryland, Delaware, DC Water Science Center
Kate Spidalieri, Institute Associate, Georgetown Climate Center
Andrew Staley, Hydrogeologist, Maryland Geological Survey, contributing author
Kate Tully, Assistant Professor of Agroecology, Dept. of Plant Science and Landscape Architecture, UMCP, contributing author
Sara Via, Professor and Climate Extension Specialist, Department of Entomology and University of Maryland Extension, UMCP

Citation
Acronyms

ARWG – MCCC Adaptation and Resiliency Workgroup
COMAR – Code of Maryland Regulations
DNR – Maryland Department of Natural Resources
GWU – George Washington University
IAN – UMCES Integration and Application Network
IEP – Interagency Ecological Program, Delta Stewardship Council
MCCC – Maryland Commission on Climate Change
MDA – Maryland Department of Agriculture
MDE – Maryland Department of the Environment
MGD – million gallons per day
mg/L – milligrams per liter
MGS – Maryland Geological Survey
PMT – Phosphorus Management Tool
ppt – parts per thousand
RFF – Resources for the Future
SIVI – saltwater intrusion vulnerability index
SLAMM – Sea Level Affecting Marshes Model
SMCL – Secondary Maximum Contaminant Level
STWG – MCCC Scientific and Technical Workgroup
SWI – saltwater intrusion
TDS – total dissolved solids
UMCES – University of Maryland Center for Environmental Science
UMD – University of Maryland
USDA – United States Department of Agriculture
EPA – United States Environmental Protection Agency
USGS – United States Geological Survey
Executive Summary

Under Chapter 628 of the 2018 Laws of Maryland, the Maryland General Assembly tasked the Maryland Department of Planning (Planning) to “establish a plan to adapt to saltwater intrusion,” in consultation with the Maryland Departments of Natural Resources, Environment and Agriculture, by Dec. 15, 2019, and to update the plan at least once every five years. Although not specified in the law, Planning intends to submit the plan, and any updates to the Governor and the General Assembly.

To obtain guidance regarding the plan, Planning established and led a state agency workgroup, which included the Departments of Natural Resources (including the Maryland Geological Survey), Environment, and Agriculture, as well as the University of Maryland, including the Center for Environmental Science, Maryland Sea Grant, and the Harry R. Hughes Center for Agro-Ecology.

Planning completed extensive research and conducted interviews with subject matter experts to better understand how saltwater intrusion and salinization currently affects Maryland, how saltwater intrusion is expected to worsen over time due to climate change, which resources are at risk, which adaptation measures are currently used or could be explored in the future, and what additional research is recommended to better understand the issue, and to better inform needed adaptation measures.

Planning identified many universities and organizations within all levels of government, both inside and outside of Maryland, that are initiating or already conducting monitoring, research, analysis, modeling and outreach regarding saltwater intrusion and salinization. One of the challenges and purposes of this plan is to capture the lessons learned and detailed knowledge generated by these organizations, as well as the needs they have identified as essential to make further progress in addressing this issue. Considerable efforts to study saltwater intrusion and salinization and to develop possible adaptation measures are underway. This plan, although not exhaustive, aims to document and consolidate the findings and recommendations of these initiatives. Planning presents this plan, resulting from the cooperation and collaboration of many state agency, university, and other partners, as the first state-level report on this issue. The plan is a first step towards better understanding and addressing saltwater intrusion and salinization in Maryland.

As Planning conducted its research, the department quickly determined the extensive breadth, technical nature, and complexity of this issue. To varying degrees, saltwater intrusion and salinization already impacts Maryland’s groundwater, surface waters, wetlands, coastal forests, agriculture and infrastructure; however, there is currently no comprehensive understanding of all of the areas currently at risk, and limited knowledge of which areas are at risk in the future. To determine current and future areas at risk, extensive research, modeling and monitoring is recommended.

1 In this document, “saltwater intrusion” is used to describe the movement of saltwater into aquifers, while the term “salinization” is used to describe the process by which water-soluble salts accumulate in fresh surface waters or in soils within agricultural land, wetlands, and coastal forests.
Saltwater intrusion and salinization have varying impacts on different resources, with different abilities to overcome those impacts with adaptation measures. For example, most agricultural land heavily impacted by salt currently cannot be farmed. Until alternative salt-tolerant crops are found, one option is to allow the land to transition to tidal saltmarsh since this provides ecosystem services and the potential for some economic benefit (e.g., through the sale of conservation easements, rental for hunting, and/or carbon sequestration credits if a regional carbon market is established). Anecdotes from Eastern Shore farmers clearly show that salinization of Maryland farmland is happening; however, the extent of the issue

---

**How Climate Change Increases Saltwater Intrusion And Salinization Impacts In Maryland**

Climate change and subsidence increases saltwater intrusion and salinization within Maryland’s coastal areas through both long term and episodic events:

Sea level rise* steadily is bringing more brackish water from Maryland’s estuaries, tidal tributaries, and the ocean:

- on to the land;
- farther upstream; and
- farther inland underground into surficial groundwater aquifers.

Tides and storms periodically bring brackish water from Maryland’s estuaries, tidal tributaries, and the ocean onto the land and farther upstream. Climate change is increasing the frequency, and intensity of storms and flooding.

Also, as sea level rises, low-lying land becomes more difficult to drain due to higher groundwater levels in relation to coastal waters. The reduced drainage results in less removal of accumulated salt from the land over time.

These impacts are mitigated or worsened by heavier precipitation or drought, respectively, both of which are occurring more often due to climate change. Other factors, such as the use of groundwater, the application of road salt, and the use of engineering controls, also affect salinity in Maryland’s waters.

Collectively, the increased salinity has already made some of Maryland’s coastal farmland unusable, and is altering the ecological landscape of Maryland’s wetlands and coastal forests. Those who depend upon Maryland’s coastal groundwater and surface waters for agricultural irrigation or drinking water will need to remain vigilant of increased salinity. Planners focused on Chesapeake Bay restoration and greenhouse gas mitigation will need to track changes in phosphorus loads and methane emissions resulting from the changing landscape to ensure restoration plans are well-informed.

Without a plan of action, including assessments of vulnerability, monitoring of environmental change, the development of forecasting tools, and adoption of effective adaptation measures, Maryland could lose valuable resources and land types, leading to economic, social, and environmental challenges.

* The most recent sea level rise projections for Maryland indicate the likely potential for sea level to rise as much as an additional 1.6 feet by 2050 and as much as an additional 4.2 feet (or as much as an additional 3.0 feet if the goals of the Paris Climate Agreement are achieved) by 2100. See Boesch, D.F., et al. “Sea-level Rise: Projections for Maryland 2018,” University of Maryland Center for Environmental Science, 2018.
is currently unknown. On the other hand, groundwater impacted by saltwater intrusion has several adaptation measures available. The Maryland Geological Survey and the Department of Environment have provided several examples of public water systems in Maryland that have addressed saltwater intrusion within groundwater through adaptation measures. Although there is a cost, these adaptation measures for water systems are relatively easy to implement.

Planning identified many unanswered questions regarding current and future impacts of saltwater intrusion and salinization in Maryland. Some examples include:

▸ How will sea level rise affect the extent of brackish water currently in the Chesapeake Bay and Maryland’s Coastal Bays?
▸ How will the salinization of surface waters affect the rate and extent of saltwater intrusion within Maryland’s groundwater aquifers?
▸ How will the extensive ditch network within farmland and wetlands on Maryland’s Eastern Shore affect the movement of saltwater over time?
▸ Which particular water users (public and individual drinking water users, agricultural irrigators, etc.) in Maryland are at risk?
▸ Where are the locations of agricultural land, wetlands, coastal forests, and infrastructure that are at risk and how will these lands and at-risk areas change over time?
▸ Do adjacent lands exist to allow for the migration of at-risk land types over time?
▸ How significant and/or extensive are the current and forecasted impacts (economic, social, environmental) of saltwater intrusion and salinization for each resource?
▸ What is the cost to local communities, with or without adaptation?

The plan is organized by each resource understood to be impacted by saltwater intrusion or salinization in Maryland, including groundwater aquifers, surface waters, agriculture, wetlands, coastal forests, and infrastructure. Each chapter describes the following for each resource:

▸ The scientific context for how saltwater moves within the physical environment and how it impacts different resources;
▸ The current knowledge of impacts, threats, and concerns regarding saltwater intrusion and salinization, and how climate change is expected to worsen those threats and concerns over time;
▸ Additional research recommended, based on current understanding of knowledge gaps; and
▸ Possible adaptation strategies.

Given that the plan must be updated at least once every 5 years, and given the number and extent of additional research recommended and adaptation strategies to explore, this plan proposes a long term implementation approach that continues the state-level saltwater intrusion workgroup, identifies timeframes for each action, and reports annually to existing state commissions on progress. This approach is discussed further in the Long Term Implementation chapter.
Research Needs

Based on guidance from technical experts, stakeholders and the state agency workgroup, the following research steps are recommended. More details specific to each resource or land type are found in the individual chapters of this plan and Appendix A. The research will increase the understanding of saltwater intrusion, and salinization impacts and processes in aquifers, surface waters, agricultural land, wetlands, coastal forests and infrastructure in Maryland, and will inform adaptation and management approaches.

Step 1: Reach consensus among data collectors from different levels of government, academia, nongovernmental organizations and others regarding methodology, including equipment used, and needed data categories.

Step 2: Create, and revise over time, an information repository by compiling available, geographically specific, and updated data on:

- Current and past status of resources and land types.
- Natural and anthropogenic processes influencing saltwater intrusion and salinization.
- Locations and extent of other factors (e.g., ditch network, abandoned wells) that impact resources and land types.
- Available areas for (and barriers to) migration of coastal wetlands and forests.
- Adaptation measures or other actions (e.g., policies, regulations, resource management practices) being taken by landowners, government, etc., that impact the status of resources and land types.
- Effectiveness and outcomes (benefits and drawbacks) of particular adaptation measures.

Step 3: Take appropriate actions with the information repository.

Step 4a: When adequate information, including financial analyses of actions (and the cost of inaction), and other expected benefits and drawbacks, is available to initiate decision-making, implement adaptation/management technologies, policies, programs, projects and plans.

Step 4b: When additional information is needed before the next stage of decision-making, implement study plans to fill knowledge gaps.

Step 5: Improve/refine the information repository (Step 2) with additional knowledge (from Step 4b), and then continue to Step 3.

The above research steps are meant to incorporate the following concept of adaptive management:

“Adaptive management is a strategy that provides for making management decisions under uncertain conditions using the best available science rather than repeatedly delaying action until more information is available. Adaptive management allows for continuous learning resulting in management decisions based on what was learned, rather than adopting...
a management strategy and implementing it without regard for scientific feedback or monitoring. Adaptive management is an approach to resources management that increases the likelihood of success in obtaining goals in a manner that is both economical and effective because it provides flexibility and feedback to manage natural resources in the face of often considerable uncertainty.”

To address these research needs, the state envisions that the scientific community (and in some cases, government agencies), will take the lead in completing this research while other agencies will supply data to the researchers. Moving forward, the state-level saltwater intrusion workgroup will engage with all sectors, nongovernmental organizations, academic organizations and communities to raise awareness, share information, and encourage progress. Workgroup actions could include the development of annual workplans, as well as overarching strategies to coordinate research efforts, implement an adaptive management approach, and identify innovative funding approaches (e.g., private and public funding).

Key governmental and nongovernmental partners to address data needs, and in some cases research, are listed in the Technical and Financial Resources section of Appendix A.

Setting priorities among the research needs is difficult given that all of the resources and land types impacted by saltwater intrusion or salinization are valuable; however, the following criteria in combination can be used to achieve this goal:

▸ Assist people who already are being impacted
▸ Focus on resources and land types that are currently being impacted significantly
▸ Focus on resources and land types that are most at risk
▸ Focus on resources and land types that have the highest value (health, economic, social, environmental)

Given these criteria, research in Maryland would initially be prioritized as follows:

▸ Agriculture
▸ Wetlands and coastal forests
▸ Surface waters (drinking water, irrigation, aquatic resources)
▸ Aquifers (drinking water, irrigation)

As research continues and new information is learned about impacts and risks, including the costs of inaction, priorities would be reassessed. Also, continued updates of sea level rise projections over time will be critical for informing management decisions, especially given that sea level rise is currently accelerating and is expected to continue to accelerate over time.³

---

2 Delta Stewardship Council, “The Delta Plan: Ensuring a reliable water supply for California, a healthy Delta ecosystem, and a place of enduring value,” Appendix 1b, 2013.

Adaptation Measures

Adaptation measures are actions that individuals, government, businesses, and nongovernmental organizations can implement to reduce the vulnerability or impact of climate change, including from saltwater intrusion and salinization, on resources and land types.

This plan identifies possible adaptation measures based on input from the State agency workgroup, subject matter experts, and stakeholders. Some adaptation measures are recommended now to address ongoing saltwater intrusion and salinization impacts, others are available now on an as-needed basis, while several could be explored further to determine their feasibility or utility in Maryland.

Overall, the State should pursue a reasonable response rather than a rush to regulate. Feedback and guidance could be gathered from stakeholders regarding innovative approaches and strengths and weaknesses of possible adaptation technologies, policies, programs, projects and plans, as well as the identification of possible roles for stakeholders in implementing likely adaptation measures.

Adaptation measures recommended now:

Farmers/Agricultural Land

1. Develop a report that presents specifics for how to establish and implement conservation easements in Maryland that facilitate transitional land uses (e.g., saltmarsh) for salt-impacted farmland.
2. Establish additional education and assistance for farmers to address and prepare for salinization.
3. Promote the use of more sophisticated water control structures to prevent the inflow of saline waters into field drainage systems.

Wetlands

1. Develop a statewide wetland adaptation plan, which would include identifying opportunities for migration of coastal wetlands, and in some cases, measures to make high priority wetlands more resilient.

Coastal Forests

1. Facilitate alternative uses for inundated forest land, such as promoting sika deer or duck hunting.
2. Establish additional education and assistance for forest landowners to address and prepare for salinization, including development of a landowners’ outreach program.
Adaptation measures already available as needed:

Aquifers and surface water users

1. Continue to implement existing regulations that limit saltwater contamination of freshwater supplies in coastal areas by ensuring that wells do not become a conduit for saltwater.
2. Shift water sources (e.g., to unaffected confined aquifers or surface waters) by adjusting water withdrawals from the existing water source or developing a balanced use of deeper aquifers.
3. Increase water treatment capabilities (desalinization, reverse osmosis, distillation, and deionization).
4. Request additional analysis and/or monitoring when permits are requested for water management strategy areas.
5. Consider water conservation measures when water withdrawal requests are evaluated.

Farmers/Agricultural Land

1. Pursue federal subsidized crop insurance.

Coastal Forests

1. Work with a licensed forester to develop and/or update Forest Stewardship Plans to obtain guidance on the appropriate timing of harvests.
2. Replace dead trees with salt-tolerant shrubs and grasses.
3. Increase the width of forest buffers along shorelines and streams.

Adaptation measures that could be explored further to determine their feasibility or utility in Maryland:

Aquifers and Surface Water Users

1. Apply a proven, sound scientific approach to create a hydraulic barrier against saltwater intrusion.
2. Create recharge basins to replenish surficial aquifer with freshwater.

Farmers/Agricultural Land

1. Find and then use salt-tolerant crops (e.g., sorghum) that have market potential.
Technical and Financial Resources

Government agencies and some nongovernmental organizations have technical and/or financial resources to assist landowners, water suppliers, farmers, households and others in Maryland with responding to and planning for sea level rise and other hazards influenced by climate change. Some also have specialized knowledge and experience in dealing with saltwater intrusion and/or salinization. A list of these resources is included in Appendix A.

Communications and Outreach

To ensure communities, farmers and landowners are aware of the threat of saltwater intrusion and salinization, as well as the availability of technical and financial resources, the state could develop a communications and outreach plan that makes use of existing avenues and programs, including the University of Maryland Extension, Soil Conservation Districts, local environmental health departments, University of Maryland Sea Grant, Maryland Climate Leadership Academy, and the Education, Communication and Outreach Working Group of the Maryland Commission on Climate Change.
Climate change increases saltwater intrusion and salinization within Maryland’s coastal areas through both long-term and episodic events. Sea level rise is steadily bringing more brackish water from Maryland’s estuaries, tidal tributaries, and the ocean onto the land, farther upstream, and farther inland underground into surficial groundwater aquifers. As sea level rises, low-lying land becomes more difficult to drain due to higher groundwater levels in relation to coastal waters. The reduced drainage results in less removal of accumulated salt from the land over time.

Tides and storms periodically bring brackish water from Maryland’s estuaries, tidal tributaries, and the ocean onto the land and farther upstream. Climate change is increasing the intensity of storms and flooding. Collectively, the increased salinity has already made some of Maryland’s coastal farmland unusable and is altering the ecological landscape of Maryland’s wetlands and coastal forests. Without a plan of action, including assessments of vulnerability, monitoring of environmental change, the development of forecasting tools, and adoption of effective adaptation measures, Maryland could lose valuable resources and land types, leading to economic, social, and environmental challenges.
Introduction

Much of Maryland is surrounded by saltwater

Maryland is divided into the western and eastern shores by the Chesapeake Bay, whose waters are a combination of freshwater and seawater with varying levels of salinity depending on location, season, and depth. These brackish waters are also found in the major rivers and streams, and smaller tributaries for much of their length. In addition, the easternmost border of Maryland -- Fenwick (Ocean City) and Assateague Islands -- are barrier islands surrounded by the Atlantic Ocean on one side and the brackish Coastal Bays fronting the eastern shore of Worcester County on the other.

Saltwater intrusion is already occurring in Maryland and is impacting portions of the State

These salty waters already impact the natural and human-made resources that they move into, both aboveground and belowground. Aboveground, the plant species composition of wetlands, for example, differs depending on the salinity level of surrounding surface waters. Belowground, the portions of Maryland’s shallow, unconfined aquifers adjacent to salty surface waters have a freshwater-saltwater transition zone within the groundwater that is a gradation from fresh to saline water. In addition, small portions of Maryland’s deeper, confined freshwater aquifers adjacent to salty surface waters occasionally are impacted by saltwater intrusion, usually due to human activities (e.g., overpumping) occurring near hydrological pathways that already exist through overlying geological formations (e.g., a break in a clay confining unit).

What is “saltwater intrusion”? What is saltwater?

Under Section 3-1001 of the Natural Resources Article, “saltwater intrusion” means the movement of brackish water -- water with a total dissolved-solid (TDS) concentration greater than or equal to 1,000 milligrams per liter (mg/L) -- into freshwater, including into surface waters, aquifers, and water within soils. Historically, saltwater intrusion has been used to describe the movement of saltwater into aquifers only. In this report, saltwater intrusion is used to describe the movement of saltwater into aquifers, while the term “salinization” is used to describe the process by which water-soluble salts accumulate in fresh surface waters or in soils within agricultural land, wetlands, and coastal forests.

---


5 “The dissolved solids concentration in water is the sum of all the substances, organic and inorganic, dissolved in water. This also is referred to as ‘total dissolved solids’, or TDS. Calcium, magnesium, sodium, potassium, bicarbonate, sulfate, chloride, nitrate, and silica typically make up most of the dissolved solids in water. Combinations of these ions—sodium and chloride, for example—form salts, and salinity is another term commonly used to describe the dissolved solids content of water.” USGS, “Chloride, Salinity, and Dissolved Solids,” [Online]. Available: usgs.gov/mission-areas/water-resources/science/chloride-salinity-and-dissolved-solids. [Accessed 17 November 2019].
Freshwaters typically contain less than 1,000 mg/L TDS. A TDS concentration of 1,000 to 3,000 mg/L is considered slightly saline, 3,000 to 10,000 mg/L is considered moderately saline, and 10,000 to 35,000 mg/L is considered very saline. For comparison, seawater typically has a TDS concentration of 35,000 mg/L.

Whether within groundwater or within surface waters, saltwater intrusion and salinization look similar: the freshwater-saltwater transition zone is gradational (anywhere from a few feet to thousands of feet in length), with freshwater atop the saltwater (since freshwater is less dense than saltwater) along a gradient, and with an increase in average salt concentration seaward from the land or towards downstream.

How does the definition of saltwater intrusion affect the content of this plan? How does the title of the bill affect the content of this plan? What are the mechanisms for the movement of saltwater into the state’s resources? Which resource impacts does the plan discuss?

Since Maryland’s statutory definition of saltwater intrusion includes the movement of saltwater into surface waters, aquifers and soils, this plan discusses the impact of saltwater to Maryland’s agricultural lands; coastal forests; freshwater and brackish wetlands; and water supply sources (rivers, streams and aquifers, whether for municipal, domestic, irrigation or commercial use). Although not required, this plan also briefly discusses the impact of salinization or saltwater intrusion on infrastructure (roads, wells, septic systems and electric systems).

Chapter 628 of the 2018 Laws of Maryland, which created the requirement for a Maryland plan to adapt to saltwater intrusion, is titled “Sea Level Rise Inundation and Coastal Flooding – Construction, Adaptation, and Mitigation;” therefore, this plan focuses not only on saltwater intrusion that already occurs, but also considers expected future impacts of worsening saltwater intrusion due to climate change. In addition, given the focus of Chapter 628 on sea level rise and flooding, anthropogenic sources of salt (e.g., road salts), although also a growing concern, are not the primary focus of this plan. On the other hand, since anthropogenic actions can worsen saltwater intrusion, they are considered as contributing factors in connection with saltwater intrusion due to climate change. Lastly, although the title of the law only references sea level rise and coastal flooding (whether from tides or storms), which will bring more salt from the ocean or estuaries directly onto the land as well as below ground further into aquifers, changing precipitation patterns also are considered in this plan, since these can push the freshwater-saltwater transition zone landward or seaward (for example, drought can limit freshwater flows, which moves the transition zone landward).


What are the projections for sea level rise in Maryland?

In the U.S., the Chesapeake Bay region is the third most vulnerable area to sea level rise, with Louisiana and southern Florida ranked first and second, respectively.\(^9\) Maryland’s coastal plain, in addition to being relatively flat-lying, is subsiding due to long-term glacial adjustment effects. Over the past 100 years, due to the combination of global sea level rise and regional land subsidence, historic tidal records show that sea level has risen in Maryland by approximately one foot within the Chesapeake Bay.\(^10\) Sea level rise associated with climate change will continue to add to the change associated with glacial adjustment. The most recent sea level rise projections for Maryland indicate the likely potential for sea level to rise as much as an additional 1.6 feet by 2050, and as much as an additional 4.2 feet (or as much as an additional 3.0 feet if the goals of the Paris Climate Agreement are achieved) by 2100.\(^11\) Also, sea level rise is accelerating over time.\(^12\) Lands and waters inundated by sea level rise will become impacted by salinity; in addition, lands further inland also will become impacted by salinity due to saltier groundwater being wicked toward the land surface and the episodic movement of coastal waters upstream, including into ditches and over land during tides and storms of differing intensities.

How quickly are climate change impacts causing saltwater intrusion and salinization? How reversible are the effects?

Sea level rise is occurring and accelerating now and will continue to do so into the future. The salinity effects from sea level rise could potentially be mitigated to some extent but cannot be reversed. Coastal storms and associated flooding occur several times each year, but are increasing in intensity and frequency over time.\(^13\) Depending on the intensity of coastal storms, salinity effects due to overwash of tidal waters onto land can last for several months.\(^14\) The frequency of droughts occur every few years in Maryland and can sometimes last as long as a year,\(^15\) causing worsened salinity impacts due to reduced freshwater flows during those times, but reverses once precipitation returns to normal. Conversely, periods of excessive precipitation mitigate salinity impacts.

---

10 Ibid.
12 Ibid.
Research, monitoring, modeling and adaptation measures are recommended

Additional research, monitoring and modeling needs are recommended, as well as a variety of potential approaches through which Maryland could prepare for and adapt to saltwater intrusion.

For each impacted resource, the plan identifies research priorities. Saltwater intrusion is a complex issue; therefore, in Maryland, additional research and modeling is recommended to determine:

- Where are saltwater intrusion and salinization already occurring?
- What are the principal pathways through which saltwater intrusion and salinization are occurring?
- How quickly are saltwater intrusion and salinization occurring, and how long will salt-impacted resources stay above water as sea level rises?
- Where will saltwater intrusion and salinization occur in the future due to sea level rise and other worsening climate change impacts, such as storms, flooding, and changing rates of precipitation?
- Which adaptation measures make the most sense for particular resources and land types?
- Which adaptation measures are most appropriate for water suppliers and agricultural water users?
- What decision-making tools are useful to assess the costs and benefits of particular adaptation measures?
- What additional programs and policies, and/or financial and technical assistance, could facilitate adaptation?

The list of potential adaptation approaches in this plan range from efforts to protect resources from saltwater impacts to efforts to revise land use and resource management approaches to accept and adapt to saltwater intrusion. Some of the adaptation approaches would be assessed to determine their relevance to Maryland while other approaches might be too expensive in comparison to the expected benefit.

Also, different adaptation approaches will differ in their potential costs and benefits to landowners, as well as the expected returns to society. The state could assess these and consult with constituents as it considers different adaptation approaches.

---

The Scientific and Technical Workgroup and the Adaptation and Resiliency Workgroup of the Maryland Commission on Climate Change developed the 2010 Maryland Phase II Adaptation Strategy\textsuperscript{17} to recommend adaptation strategies to reduce Maryland’s vulnerability to sea level rise, increased temperature, and changes in precipitation due to climate change. Although the plan did not focus on increased saltwater intrusion and salinization, several adaptation strategies from the plan could be considered, such as:

- Identifying opportunities to support the transition of farm and agricultural practices.
- Strengthening applied research, risk communication, and technical support [to farmers and foresters].
- Encouraging MDA to work with partners including farm credit and insurance operations to conduct a vulnerability assessment, and establish priorities for increased education, funding, and risk management efforts to support transitions for vulnerable farmers.
- Developing new protection and conservation mechanisms to promote adaptation stewardship activities on private lands.
- Exploring the development of a Climate Change Adaptation Easement, which could either work in concert with existing DNR and MDA easement programs or independently. Such an easement could be used to incentivize landowners to implement specific adaptation stewardship activities (e.g., living shoreline, increased storm buffer, wetland migration transition zone) on private lands.
- Restoring critical bay and aquatic habitats to enhance resilience.
- Promoting demand management and water conservation practices.
- Expanding MDE’s work with local jurisdictions and water suppliers to promote water conservation, encourage the use of best management practices that reduce demand, and advance the use of water reuse technologies.

Lastly, based on an analysis of research, monitoring and modeling needs and potential adaptation measures, the plan proposes a research study plan to make progress in answering the questions raised and identifying the most promising adaptation measures.

Aquifers

Resource

Saltwater intrusion in aquifers is a long-standing issue that has been studied for many years; however, climate change is intensifying this threat. Fifty years ago, the American Society of Civil Engineers established a Task Committee on Saltwater Intrusion, which published the results of its nationwide survey of saltwater intrusion within aquifers of the U.S.\(^\text{18}\) That study indicated that saltwater intrusion, including within Maryland, is almost always due to human activities, such as groundwater pumping or construction projects that inadvertently remove a natural barrier between freshwater and saltwater.

Today, climate change presents an additional threat to Maryland’s aquifers, although hydrogeologists in Maryland have been aware of this threat for many years: in 1958, the Maryland Geological Survey published data documenting sea level rise in the Chesapeake Bay and its likely impact of saltwater intrusion into Maryland’s aquifers.\(^\text{19}\) Those who depend upon Maryland’s coastal groundwater for agricultural irrigation or drinking water will need to remain vigilant of possible increases in salinity over time.

The Atlantic Coastal Plain region (see Figure 3) is the only geographic and geological area in Maryland where saltwater intrusion of aquifers can occur. Underground, 16 aquifers and 14 confining units are recognized; 14 of these are confined artesian aquifers and two are water-table aquifers. Predominantly sandy and gravelly layers, capable of yielding water to wells, form the aquifers while fine-grained layers (silts and clays) impede the flow of water and form confining units (see Figure 1).

Drivers of Saltwater Intrusion

Saltwater naturally intrudes into Maryland’s aquifers wherever the aquifers are in direct hydraulic connection with saline or brackish tidal waters and aquifer head gradients, which generally define the direction and slope of groundwater movement, trend below sea level landward. Hydraulic connections with salty tidal waters occur in shallow, unconfined (water table) aquifers and less frequently in deeper, confined aquifers. When saltwater intrusion occurs in confined aquifers, saltwater intrudes through natural erosional channels in the overlying clay layers or through “leaky” clay layers. This can occur within the outcrop or subcrop, where aquifer materials of confined aquifers are exposed at the surface or below the surface, respectively.\(^\text{20}\)

---


Groundwater withdrawals also can lead to saltwater intrusion whenever pumping of water occurs in a portion of the aquifer that already has or is near saline water, and where a pathway exists connecting the saltwater to freshwater (see Figure 2 below). As groundwater pumping lowers aquifer heads (water levels) below sea level, the freshwater-saltwater transition zone can move close enough to the well to allow for saltwater intrusion into the water source.\(^{22}\) How far this intrusion extends into the aquifers depends in part on the freshwater head in the aquifer, and the degree to which pumping has lowered the freshwater head relative to sea level.

Saltwater is also naturally present in Maryland’s deeper aquifers, predominantly on the Eastern Shore, as a result of cyclic movement of saltwater responding to large-scale sea level fluctuations probably during the late Tertiary and Quaternary periods.\(^{23}\) Repeated advance and retreat of the salty groundwater over geologic time caused the saltwater and freshwater to mix.

---


Fresh water flows off the land and into the water table and tributaries. Tides and storms periodically bring brackish water from Maryland's estuaries, tidal tributaries, and the ocean onto the land, further upstream, and further inland underground.

The use of groundwater depletes fresh groundwater and creates cones of depression around wells, leaving room for increased inflow of brackish water. Runoff containing road salt further increases the salinity of fresh groundwater.

Climate change is increasing the intensity of storms and flooding. Sea level rise is bringing more brackish water onto the land, further upstream, and further inland underground into surficial ground waters. As sea level rises, low-lying land becomes more difficult to drain due to higher groundwater, resulting in less removal of salt from the land over time.

Figure 2. Impact of Human Influence and Sea Level Rise on Saltwater Intrusion (UMCES-IAN)
As sea level rises, the extent of tidal, brackish surface waters within the Chesapeake Bay, Coastal Bays, and Atlantic Ocean expands both upstream and landward above and below the ground, which in turn increases saltwater intrusion into aquifers. In addition, changes in precipitation due to climate change can affect the extent of saltwater intrusion into aquifers. During periods of drought, the decreased flow of precipitation into surface waters and groundwater allows the freshwater-saltwater transition zone to expand landward, while during periods of increased precipitation, the transition zone will recede.24

Lastly, as heat increases due to climate change, demand for water is likely to increase, placing more stress on the aquifer system and resulting in lower groundwater levels,25 which creates a greater likelihood of saltwater intrusion.

**Threats, Concerns and Impacts**

Maryland’s unique rules governing the withdrawal of water prohibit MDE from granting a water appropriation and use permit that causes or contributes to saltwater intrusion into a freshwater aquifer (see COMAR 26.17.06.06.D.(8)). The MDE policy of incorporating climate change vulnerabilities into the Water Appropriation and Use Permit has significantly reduced the risk of saltwater intrusion due to overpumping. Maryland can prevent this type of saltwater intrusion into larger Maryland water supplies by implementing a comprehensive “One Water” approach. The ability to implement this depends on having better information and forecasts regarding saltwater intrusion and coastal aquifers.

The research recommendations in this chapter would facilitate state implementation of COMAR 26.17.06.06.D.(8), allowing for earlier detection of saltwater intrusion, and quicker pursuit and identification of alternative water sources.

Detection of saltwater intrusion is needed to inform decision-making by water regulators, users, and suppliers. Currently, salt (sodium chloride) is not a frequent water-quality test constituent when new or replacement private wells are permitted in Maryland’s coastal plain; however, in some counties in Maryland’s coastal plain, county environmental health departments do test wells, including domestic wells, in select areas for chloride. Public groundwater drinking systems in Maryland are required to test for chloride whenever a new source is constructed, although there is no ongoing chloride monitoring except in special cases. On the other hand, sodium is routinely tested for and also can be used as a surrogate for saltwater in most aquifers. TDS and specific conductance, which can be used to help identify the presence of brackish and salty water, are tested sporadically in both public water systems and domestic wells in Maryland. Ultimately, the presence of salt in wells used for drinking water can be detected by the taste of the water. In irrigation or industrial wells, salt may be detected by damaged crops or infrastructure, such as reduced crop yield or corroded pipes.26

---


26 Government of Western Australia, Department of Primary Industries and Regional Development, “Water salinity...
Most of Maryland’s groundwater users rely on aquifers that are not impacted by saltwater intrusion.

These include aquifers that are either far from tidal waters (e.g., Piedmont aquifers) or are within deeper, confined aquifers in the coastal plain that for the most part are protected from saltwater intrusion by overlying, low permeability clay layers.

There are however, some Maryland groundwater users within the coastal plain who rely on aquifers that are at risk of saltwater intrusion. Generally, Maryland’s unconfined aquifer is at a low risk of saltwater intrusion now; however, the portion of the unconfined aquifer that will be inundated by sea level rise will be at greater risk of having saltwater intrusion in the future.

Overall, within Maryland’s coastal plain in areas closest to tidal waters, both the shallow unconfined aquifers (the surficial aquifer on the Eastern Shore and the Surficial Lowland aquifer in southern Maryland), and some portions of the deeper confined aquifers are at greater risk of saltwater intrusion; however, proximity to the coast within the surficial aquifer does not automatically mean that a use in that area is at risk of saltwater intrusion.

---


28 David Andreasen, MGS, personal communication, 22 May 2019.
The two risk factors for Maryland’s surficial aquifer withdrawals are proximity to salty surface water and a hydraulic gradient toward the withdrawal. Also, since groundwater, and the saltwater-freshwater interface, moves slowly, the head gradient would have to persist over a relatively long period to create a risk. A high withdrawal rate relative to the rate of recharge (whether in the unconfined or confined aquifers) does not indicate by itself that an aquifer is at risk of saltwater intrusion. Maryland currently does not have hydraulic heads mapped for determining gradients for all aquifers.\(^9\) Appendix C provides a sense of Marylanders’ use of the surficial aquifer compared to other, less vulnerable water supplies. Those figures, however, do not provide any indication at this time of how many of these water users are at risk.

**The exact number of Maryland groundwater users that are at risk due to increasing saltwater intrusion due to climate change is currently unknown.**

Map 1 shows the areas of Maryland at risk of inundation and potential saltwater intrusion as sea level rises. Inundation caused by sea level rise would advance brackish water in coastal aquifers landward, which could accelerate rates of saltwater intrusion into aquifers already experiencing saltwater intrusion or result in intrusion in areas currently containing fresh groundwater. Although sea level rise would increase the potential for saltwater intrusion, landward movement will depend in part on the degree to which groundwater withdrawals have lowered aquifer heads below sea level, as well as changes in precipitation, runoff, and recharge that may occur within coastal watersheds as a part of climate change. For example, increased freshwater runoff could counterbalance the landward movement of saltwater. On the other hand, rising sea levels might also cause upstream migration of saltwater in coastal tributaries, flooding of low-lying areas (beyond those indicated in Map 1), and submergence of coastal unconfined aquifers.

A limitation of Map 1 is that it does not account for the extensive ditch systems that exist in many areas of Maryland’s coastal plain. Agricultural, roadside, mosquito, and residential ditches all can bring saltwater further inland. To account for saltwater intrusion vulnerability due to ditch systems, future modeling in Maryland could make use of a saltwater intrusion vulnerability index (SIVI).\(^{30}\) The SIVI considers, for each small geographic unit (pixel), elevation above sea level, and the ability of expected freshwater flows within ditches and natural waterways to counteract the inland movement of brackish waters.

\(^{29}\) David Andreasen, MGS, personal communication, 22 May 2019.

Maryland’s confined aquifers are at lower risk, even with the amount of sea level rise forecasted this century, because of overlying, low permeability clay layers that act as a hydraulic barrier to flow.

The rate of flow through the confining layer is controlled by the permeability of the clay and the hydraulic gradient across the confining layer. If the permeability of the clay is very low, and therefore an effective confining layer, a slight increase in head gradient (e.g., as a result of a 4-foot rise in sea level) will increase velocity, but the rate will remain very low. At this time, Maryland can only identify which water systems dependent on confined aquifers have already dealt with, and for the most part have so far successively adapted to, saltwater intrusion issues (see Appendix C), with an understanding that sea level rise likely will present a further challenge for these particular systems over time.

31 David Andreasen, MGS, personal communication, 22 May 2019.
Map 1. Areas of Maryland at risk of inundation and possible saltwater intrusion as sea levels rise. Source: NOAA Office for Coastal Management, 2017, coast.noaa.gov/slrdata/; County Boundaries: MD iMAP, SHA; Base Map: Esri.
The last comprehensive study of Maryland's coastal plain aquifer system, both unconfined and confined, was completed in 2013 by MGS; however, that work did not include an investigation of saltwater intrusion. More localized mapping of saltwater intrusion in specific aquifers within certain locations has also been conducted over the past decades by the Maryland Geological and U.S. Geological surveys.

Aside from those few specific locations and aquifers of documented saltwater intrusion in Maryland, the extent of salty groundwater in Maryland’s coastal plain aquifers remains largely unknown.

Therefore, mapping the current occurrence of saltwater intrusion in Maryland’s coastal plain aquifers is critically important for preparing for future saltwater intrusion problems by developing baseline data.

Reports, studies or anecdotes of saltwater intrusion occurring in Maryland in other groundwater systems, whether household wells, agricultural irrigation wells, or other purposes, are still unknown. For example, the extent of complaints due to saltwater intrusion from households, farmers or businesses using wells within the coastal plain is unknown. Additional research, such as interviews with local health officials, soil conservation districts, well contractors, and local economic development officials, to identify the extent of complaints of saltwater intrusion could be helpful.

The economic impact of saltwater intrusion in aquifers is the added cost of adaptation measures to ensure an adequate and safe water supply, such as the construction of new or replacement wells in deeper or alternative aquifers, the removal of salt by reverse osmosis, or the use of cement grout and flood-proof caps to prevent saltwater infiltration. The continued use of groundwater with elevated salt content can result in costs associated with damaged cropland if used for irrigation, damaged plumbing and infrastructure if used for either domestic or municipal supply, and damage to some types of equipment if used for industrial supply.

Although there is a health impact from drinking salty water associated with high sodium levels, generally people stop drinking water once it becomes too salty. The World Health Organization, for example, indicates that water becomes unpalatable at TDS levels greater than about 1,000 mg/L. In extreme hypothetical cases, however, some households might drink salty water due to the economic expense of adaptation measures such as drilling a new well, or purchasing bottled water. Also, although the presence of high chlorides or TDS does not legally require the drilling of a new well, some households might not report an impacted well out of fear that

---

other contaminants could be found that would require the closure of the well.

The EPA standard for chloride in drinking water is a Secondary Maximum Contaminant Level (SMCL) of 250 mg/L. An SMCL is a water quality standard for nuisance substances; neither sodium nor chloride have a health-based standard that must be achieved within drinking water.\(^{36}\) On the other hand, EPA recommends no more than 20 mg/L of sodium for individuals on a 500 milligrams-per-day restricted sodium diet,\(^{37}\) such as those with severe hypertension or diabetes, or renal dialysis patients.\(^{38}\) For these individuals, testing well water on a more frequent basis and providing treatment technology to reduce salt will be an added expense to help limit salt intake.

### Additional Research

Significant research has been conducted over the years such as developing numerical groundwater-flow and solute transport models to predict future changes to the saltwater-freshwater interface in select aquifers, and monitoring to detect changes in chloride concentrations in targeted areas/aquifers. While this research has provided valuable information to water managers, the extent of saltwater intrusion in many of Maryland’s coastal plain aquifers remains unknown. Additionally, there is presently a lack of tools (flow and transport models) and monitoring networks to effectively track, forecast and manage saltwater intrusion as groundwater withdrawals continue or increase and sea level rises. A comprehensive assessment of the potential for saltwater intrusion is lacking because data is not available.\(^{39}\)

Due to this lack of information about the current and forecasted extent of saltwater intrusion in Maryland’s coastal plain aquifers, and the current and forecasted extent of salinization within Maryland’s surface waters, the number of Maryland residents, farmers and businesses depending on water supplies at risk of saltwater intrusion is unknown. Certain areas of aquifers and surface waters may be at greater risk.

Several county and municipal water suppliers in Maryland rely on the surficial aquifer,\(^{40}\) which generally is more vulnerable to saltwater intrusion than Maryland’s confined aquifers; however, additional research (e.g., determining aquifer head gradients) is recommended to evaluate whether any of these supplies are at increased risk of saltwater intrusion due to climate change. See Appendix C.

---


\(^{40}\) John Grace, MDE, personal communication, 2 January 2019.
The following research (mapping, forecasting, monitoring) tasks are recommended within the next 5 years (prior to the 2024 saltwater intrusion plan update) to adequately address the risk of saltwater intrusion to Maryland’s coastal plain aquifers:

**Near term (1-2 years)**

**Assess available data.** There are many data sets in existing governmental (federal, state, and local) and academic databases that can be obtained and analyzed. Obtaining and assessing the data would help identify knowledge gaps. Compiling the data (both groundwater and surface water) into a single database would be helpful.

**Assess potential vulnerability.** To identify vulnerable aquifers, consider an assessment of withdrawal by sector, initial estimates of hydraulic gradients, and a study of recharge rates. To identify vulnerable water users of the surficial aquifer, overlay groundwater appropriation permits and locations of domestic wells, which must be estimated using water service areas from county water/sewer plans and data on improved parcels, with sea level rise inundation areas. Problem areas such as improperly constructed or improperly abandoned wells also could be identified. Conduct status and trends analyses.

**Identify areas where more research and data is needed.** Based on an assessment of the available data, areas and aquifers where more information is required could be targeted, as well as knowledge gaps in the aquifer framework, processes of saltwater intrusion, and forecasting.

**Develop study plans.** Detailed study plans are suggested to effectively and efficiently design and target research and quantify required resources (funding, staffing, etc.).

**Strengthen the partnership with county health departments and offer technical assistance with existing local databases.** Local health department databases house volumes of information and local program managers have a working knowledge of water issues. Local health departments can use additional funding and support to export local information effectively. Disparate formats among county health department databases should be standardized to allow for more effective data export and compilation.

**Mid term (2-4 years)**

**Map freshwater-saltwater interface, develop aquifer head maps, refine aquifer framework.** To help assess future impacts of sea level rise, the present extent of saltwater intrusion in each of Maryland’s coastal plain aquifers could be mapped. To assess the potential for groundwater withdrawals to induce saltwater intrusion, current aquifer potentiometric surfaces (groundwater levels) could be mapped as well. Lastly, additional information on the aquifer framework (structure) will also be helpful to better understand potential pathways for intrusion to the deeper, confined aquifers.
Develop monitoring networks for saltwater intrusion. A robust monitoring well network is suggested to detect changes in the freshwater-saltwater interface as sea level rises and changes occur in groundwater withdrawals. The monitoring network could also assist calibrating groundwater-flow and solute transport models, and in developing and evaluating future management strategies. Identify emerging technologies that could be deployed to better track salinities.

Identify risks. To plan for future adaptation, a full accounting of freshwater supplies (groundwater and surface water), farmland, coastal wetlands, and infrastructure “at risk” of saltwater intrusion is recommended. This analysis could estimate the extent of the risk (the product of the probability of occurrence and the magnitude of the consequence), and assess the level of effort and cost to reverse or prevent damage.

Long term (4-5 years)

Develop forecast models. To help plan for and adapt to the effects of saltwater intrusion, detailed forecast models (groundwater-flow and solute transport models) could help predict the future extent of intrusion into groundwater and surface water. To identify vulnerable water users of confined aquifers, modeling can be used.

Inform adaptation and management plans. This can include a study of reverse osmosis costs now and in the future, the improvement of business sector, and especially agricultural, awareness of the need for water conservation, and the value of investing in technology and adopting practices that reduce water use. Also, after assessing and creating an inventory of existing wells located in floodplains, owners of these wells could be encouraged to bring existing wellheads up to specified standards.

Adaptation

As noted earlier in this chapter, Maryland’s unique regulations governing the withdrawal of water prohibit MDE from granting a water appropriation and use permit that causes or contributes to saltwater intrusion into a freshwater aquifer (see COMAR 26.17.06.06.D.(8)). The MDE policy of incorporating climate change vulnerabilities into the Water Appropriation and Use Permit has significantly reduced the risk of saltwater intrusion due to overpumping. Maryland can prevent this type of saltwater intrusion into larger Maryland water supplies by implementing a comprehensive “One Water” approach. Also, the ability to successfully implement this depends on having better information and forecasts regarding saltwater intrusion and coastal aquifers. This requires forward-looking supply models that consider forecasted climate change impacts (sea level rise, saltwater intrusion, etc.) and the identification of vulnerable areas.

Maryland rules already mandate some specific adaptation measures:

1. Wells must be constructed at least 2 feet above grade in flood-prone areas (COMAR 26.04.04.21.C).
2. Flood resistant caps, which include a gasket that forms a waterproof seal, on wells must be used in flood-prone areas (COMAR 26.04.04.21.G).
3. Bentonite grout (sodium bentonite derived from clay, commonly used to surround well casings to prevent contaminants from mixing with well water) is prohibited where groundwater is at 1,000 mg/l of TDS (COMAR 26.04.04.19.C(2)(b)), given that brackish water reduces the viscosity, and therefore, the effectiveness of the grout.

Together, these can limit saltwater contamination of freshwater supplies in coastal areas by ensuring that wells do not become a conduit for saltwater into aquifers. However, the ability to successfully apply these measures depends on understanding the location and depth of future water levels, both above and below ground.\(^\text{41}\)

Adaptation measures are not only useful to prevent saltwater intrusion, such measures also can address existing problem areas. Existing problem areas include improperly abandoned or improperly constructed wells such as:

1. Within confined aquifers, abandoned or existing wells grouted with bentonite that have not been perforated and sealed with cement to the confining unit.
2. Within either unconfined or confined aquifers, wells that were never abandoned that are now, due to land subsidence/erosion, in the water.
3. Within confined aquifers, wells in known saltwater intrusion areas that are not currently being grouted with cement.\(^\text{42}\)

Maryland water users, whether individual property owners, farmers, industry or local government, have several existing adaptation approaches to adjust to saltwater intrusion, including shifting water sources (e.g., to unaffected confined aquifers or surface waters) or adjusting water withdrawals from the existing water source. For water suppliers, increasing water treatment capabilities is another adaptation option to allow for the removal of salinity.\(^\text{43}\)

Of the few documented cases of saltwater intrusion into water suppliers in Maryland, adaptation measures have been successfully used at Annapolis Neck/Mayo Peninsula, Kent Island, and Ocean City to ensure an adequate and safe water supply (please note: adaptation measures also have been used at Indian Head, but monitoring is needed to show whether those measures have succeeded). Adaptation measures used to address saltwater intrusion in those instances included modifying water withdrawals from the impacted aquifer and developing a balanced use of deeper aquifers.

MDE has identified a few water management strategy areas\(^\text{44}\) that are at risk from saltwater

\(^{41}\) John Grace, MDE, personal communication, 10 September 2018.
\(^{42}\) John Boris, MDE, personal communication, 14 November 2018.
\(^{44}\) The MDE water management strategy areas currently listed for saltwater intrusion in Maryland are: (1) Aquia aquifer on Kent Island in Queen Anne’s County (groundwater in the Aquia along the western edge of Kent Island adjacent to the Bay has locations of elevated chloride); (2) Patapsco aquifer on Indian Head peninsula (Charles County) has had elevated chloride in the past; (3) Aquia aquifer (shallow surficial aquifer at this location) on Annapolis Neck and Mayo Peninsula (Anne Arundel County) has had areas of elevated chloride; (4) Surficial aquifer in West Ocean City (Worcester County) - St. Martins River - no documented elevated chloride - concern is for potential due to the connectivity of Columbia aquifer to the Atlantic Coastal Bays and the water level trend observed from 1994 through 2005 (John Grace, MDE, personal communication, 4 December 2018).
intrusion. The designation results in special groundwater management considerations, including limiting withdrawals in a certain aquifer, directing withdrawals to a different aquifer, or additional analysis and/or monitoring when permits are requested for these areas.\textsuperscript{45}

Among Maryland’s jurisdictions, Ocean City has completed the most planning concerning adaptation measures for adjusting to saltwater intrusion. MGS estimates that the town’s water will increase in salinity approximately 15\% by 2025 due to increased groundwater pumping to accommodate higher water demands.\textsuperscript{46} Model-predicted maximum chloride concentrations, however, remain mostly below the SMCL for chloride. Over the long term, the town is considering the potential for desalinization facilities to remove salt from the groundwater; estimates show these facilities would cost up to $25 million. Over the near term, the town intends to continue to install replacement pumping wells with spacing between wells that is large enough to spread pumping centers in an effort to minimize saltwater intrusion, and reduce usage of any wells (within its 22-well system) that indicate chloride levels of 250 parts per million.\textsuperscript{47} The MDE appropriation permit issued to Ocean City requires monitoring of chloride levels, and tracking of water use from individual wells so that trends can be properly observed and usage can be focused on sources that reduce potential for higher chloride levels.\textsuperscript{48} Also in the near term, the town will seek to encourage the use of water conservation measures to reduce the drawdown of its groundwater supplies, which also can help prevent saltwater intrusion.\textsuperscript{49} This effort appears to be working; water withdrawal data shows that Ocean City is withdrawing less water per year in the past 5 years than in the previous two decades, and the annual total for 2017 and 2018 are similar to withdrawals in 1985 and 1986.\textsuperscript{50}

Other adaptation measures might not be applicable in Maryland due to the cost, the number of ratepayers available within the water service area to help pay for the measure, and/or hydrogeography. Examples include injection of freshwater (treated wastewater) to create a hydraulic barrier against saltwater intrusion (Orange County, California) and the use of recharge basins to replenish the threatened unconfined surficial aquifer with freshwater (Long Island, New York).\textsuperscript{51} On the other hand, if project benefits can be increased by providing additional services, such measures could potentially be worth the cost (e.g., recharge basins managed for shoreline protection, wildlife and/or recreational benefits).

For households using individual wells, potential adaptation measures include reverse osmosis,
distillation and deionization; however, each method has its drawbacks, such as cost and environmental hazards.\textsuperscript{52}

Lastly, the reuse of treated effluent and greywater in accordance with MDE’s policies can reduce or minimize saltwater intrusion impacts by reducing groundwater drawdown within Maryland’s aquifers.

Surface Waters

Resource

As noted in the introduction, Maryland is divided into the western shore and the eastern shore by the estuarine Chesapeake Bay, and its tributaries are brackish for significant portions of their length.

Fenwick (Ocean City) and Assateague Islands, the easternmost border of Maryland, are barrier islands surrounded by the Atlantic Ocean and the brackish Coastal Bays, which front the eastern shore of Worcester County.

In addition to their significant economic, environmental, cultural and recreational value, some tidal freshwater surface waters of the Chesapeake Bay also are used, to some extent, for water supply. Those who depend upon Maryland’s coastal surface waters for agricultural irrigation, drinking water or fish and shellfish resources will need to remain vigilant of impacts from possible increases in salinity over time.

Drivers of Salinization

The primary climate change drivers of salinization of Maryland’s surface waters include:

▸ Sea level rise, which is steadily moving the existing freshwater-saltwater transition zone further upstream.

▸ Changing precipitation patterns that periodically move the freshwater-saltwater transition zone further upstream (during periods of drought) or further downstream (during periods of higher than normal precipitation creating higher freshwater discharge).

▸ Changes to tides, winds, waves, storm surge, and estuary shape and topography. 53

Also, human actions, such as dam construction, water diversions, and land use change, can increase the amount of freshwater that enters the state’s tidal surface waters, which also can affect the freshwater-saltwater transition zone.

Threats

*The majority of Maryland’s surface water users rely on water bodies that would not be impacted by salinization due to sea level rise.*

These include the water supplies in the Potomac River Basin, the Washington Suburban Sanitary Commission’s reservoir on the Patuxent River, and the three Baltimore City reservoirs. On the other hand, public water suppliers on the tidal Susquehanna River and the nearby North East River may be vulnerable to salinization as the freshwater-saltwater transition zone moves upstream within the Chesapeake Bay.

---

This increased salinization may impact other surface water users, including farmers withdrawing from tidal streams and rivers (particularly on the Eastern Shore such as the Choptank and Tuckahoe rivers), golf courses withdrawing from tidal streams, and power plants and industries using tidal water for non-contact cooling.

Research needs and adaptation measures to assist these water users are unique to the individual setting as the factors influencing salinization are site-specific and the challenge of dealing with increased salinity depends on the type of use.

There will be an economic impact of some extent for surface water users to adapt to saltwater intrusion. At this time, the amount of impact is unknown.

In addition to impacts on water supply, salinization of surface waters may have pronounced impacts on aquatic habitat and attendant communities. Studies of increased salinity in freshwater habitats have documented declines in fish diversity, indicated potential losses in benthic invertebrate species, and raised concerns over indirect impacts to fish health and reproduction. While salinization from sea level rise can be detrimental to freshwater habitats, it can extend habitat for estuarine species. Strong freshets like those of 2017 and 2018, extended freshwater beyond its typical range and lowered salinities in oyster habitat causing increased mortality.

The state could consider these types of extreme weather events (pro and con) when assessing resource management options in response to salinization.

**Additional Research**

The following research (mapping, forecasting, monitoring) is recommended within the next 5 years (prior to the 2024 saltwater intrusion plan update) to adequately address the risk of salinization to water users of surface waters in Maryland:

**Near term (0-2 years)**

**Identify currently vulnerable water users.** Map the locations of intake pipes (surface water appropriation permits) relative to the current salt freshwater-saltwater transition zone.

**Identify and catalog ditches.** Having high-resolution geographic data on the location, depth and extent of ditches (agricultural, wetland, etc.) could help researchers better estimate and understand the upstream movement of saltwater within Maryland surface waters.


Review system-wide approach for monitoring surface water salinity to detect long term changes. This could include a statistical review of the experimental design of any necessary supplemental monitoring, and will also allow for model calibration and validation. Conduct status and trends analyses using this information.

### Mid term (2-4 years)

**Conduct research to inform the development of a forecast model.** Given the complexity of the movement of surface waters in the Chesapeake Bay, the Coastal Bays, the tidal tributaries, and the Atlantic Ocean, additional research is needed to inform the development of a forecast model to predict how the freshwater-saltwater transition zone will change in the future due to climate change. This effort could be completed in conjunction with modeling ecological impacts of salinization of surface waters to wetlands and forests.

**Increase the state’s understanding of the impact of surface water modification projects on the freshwater-saltwater interface.** Determining the impacts, in combination with sea level rise, of existing large-scale surface water modification projects, such as the Chesapeake-Delaware Canal and the shipping channels to Baltimore Harbor, could be a research priority. Surface water modification projects can increase saltwater intrusion by decreasing the distance for saltwater to reach fresher waters. 58

### Long term (4-5 years)

**Develop a forecast model.** Risks to tidal surface water users depend on modeling of the freshwater-saltwater transition zone. The state has not mapped the future freshwater-saltwater transition zone due to sea level rise; modeling, as well as field data to calibrate the models, is recommended to inform this type of mapping.

**Identify future vulnerable water users.** To identify vulnerable water users of the surface waters, overlay the future freshwater-saltwater transition zone (due to climate change) with existing and likely future surface water appropriation permits (intake pipes).

### Adaptation

The adaptation measures for surface water users impacted by saltwater intrusion are similar to those for aquifers (see Aquifer chapter): modify the use of the surface water, obtain other sources of water, or employ technologies to reduce the amount of salt or to tolerate the salt. Given the challenges of developing robust predictive models, including the significant amount of time and resources to devote to their development, moving forward with some adaptation measures could be helpful even before such models are complete.

---

Agriculture

Resource

Agriculture, forestry, fishing and hunting together contribute over $1 billion in gross state product, with a total market value of $2.2 billion in products sold.\(^5\) Farming on the Eastern Shore is largely devoted to the poultry industry, including houses that grow over 300 million birds annually. In 2017, over 300,000 acres of corn were planted on the Eastern Shore, with most of it being used for poultry feed.\(^6\)

The Eastern Shore is one of the oldest farming communities in the nation, dating back to the mid-1600s, with some lands being farmed by the same family since that time. Over the years, agricultural lands along the edges of the Chesapeake Bay have cultivated tomatoes, peppers and green beans, but recently, production has shifted to corn and soybeans for animal feed.

Due to a combination of land subsidence and sea level rise, the mid-Atlantic is experiencing some of the highest rates of relative elevation change in the world,\(^6\) and particularly affected are the low-lying and shallow sloping lands of the Eastern Shore of Maryland. Indeed, climate change is easily observed on the shores of the Bay as the high tide lines have crept across the salt marshes, over the banks of tidal ditches, and onto upland areas.

Drivers of Salinization

Periodic episodes of salinization can occur years in advance of permanent inundation from sea level rise, due to (1) the frequency and magnitude of storms and tides, such as from surges and “king tides” (perigean spring tides), (2) drought, (3) water use (e.g., surface and groundwater withdrawals), and (4) hydrologic connectivity of streams, creeks, and agricultural ditch networks.\(^6\)

On the Eastern Shore, salinization is already occurring on large swaths of agricultural lands as ditches overflow and salty groundwater is wicked toward the land surface. In fact, while ditches were installed to remove water from fields, in the face of sea level rise, they may be serving the reverse purpose, serving as a conduit connecting the surface waters of the Chesapeake Bay to uplands. Saltwater floods the lands, and when it infiltrates and/or recedes, it often leaves a visible crust of salt on the soil surface and bare patches that ring fields where no crops or plants can grow.


60 USDA National Agricultural Statistics Service, State Agriculture Overview, Maryland.


Threats, Concerns, and Impacts

The Eastern Shore of Maryland supports a major poultry industry, which produces around 300 million broiler chickens per year.\(^{63}\) Poultry litter is a valuable source of nutrients applied to agricultural cropland as a fertilizer. Any phosphorus not utilized by the crops that remains in the soil is known as legacy phosphorus. For years, agronomists made recommendations based on the understanding that phosphorus remains bound in the soil. However, current understanding is that inundated conditions, including saltwater inundation, create conditions where the legacy phosphorus may be released into solution and transported out of agricultural fields to creeks and coastal wetlands. In areas at risk for saltwater inundation near coastlines, these nutrients may be released with the tide cycles. Ongoing research is evaluating the potential for increased phosphorus loading from areas impacted by saltwater intrusion and the effects of this on local waters.

Long-standing regulations in Maryland require farmers to follow nutrient management plans that specify how much fertilizer, manure or other nutrient sources may be safely applied to crops to achieve yields and prevent excess nutrients from impacting waterways. In addition, the Phosphorus Management Tool (PMT) adopted in 2015, and being phased in through 2022 provides a methodology for assessing the risk of phosphorus loss from farm fields and determining whether to restrict phosphorus applications or the use of animal manure. For fields that exceed set thresholds for the PMT, future phosphorus application will be limited or not permitted, and techniques will be implemented to remove some of the excess phosphorus or draw it down slowly. Techniques include changing crops, managing soil pH or expanding the use of nitrogen-fixing cover crops. The sensitivity of crops to salinity must be taken into account when considering these techniques within soils vulnerable to saltwater.

Few crops can grow in sustained conditions of greater than 2 ppt salinity.\(^{64}\) However, salinity levels can reach as high as 35 ppt on salt-affected fields in the Eastern Shore.\(^{65}\) The typical rotation of corn-soy-wheat is intolerant of these salinity levels.

Additional Research

Understanding and modeling the future impacts of saltwater intrusion is an intricate process that involves the hydrology of groundwater, land elevation, sea level rise and other factors. The research addressing the agricultural resource will likely overlap and build upon research for other resource sectors.

---


The following research (mapping, forecasting, monitoring) is recommended within the next 5 years (prior to the 2024 saltwater intrusion plan update) to adequately address the risk of saltwater intrusion to farmers in Maryland:

**Near term (0-2 years):**

**Improve maps of past, current, and future salinization.** Determining current and forecasting future salinization will help farmers better evaluate what land is of higher value, and what land is or will be of lesser value for farming.\(^{66}\) Assess the vulnerability of Maryland’s farms and overall coastal ecosystems to saltwater intrusion via surficial drainage networks by developing a SIVI.

**Track salinity shifts in wells and streams.** Track the link between sea level rise and the landward migration of saltwater. Conduct status and trends analyses using this information.\(^{67}\)

**Mid term (2-4 years):**

**Create an ability to track real-time sea level rise and identify areas of declining crop health and opportunities for inland migration of coastal wetlands.** In other words, determine where it is best to yield to sea level rise and to allow agricultural land to revert to beneficial wetlands.\(^{68}\)

**Explore transitional crops and land uses, including the development of tidal wetland habitat.** This effort would focus in areas greatly affected by saltwater intrusion and unproductive for farming.\(^{69}\)

**Investigate alternative crops, soil amendments, and farming practices.** These alternatives would reduce the economic loss from saltwater intrusion for affected farmers by addressing the impacts on farm profitability, nutrient runoff and ecosystem benefits.\(^{70}\) Develop tools for farmers to facilitate decisions on whether and when to plant certain crops, and when to pursue particular adaptation practices.

**Long term (4-5 years):**

**Complete a comprehensive analysis of adaptation strategies.** Obtain a better understanding of how adaptation strategies may help capture or prevent nutrient runoff in the Chesapeake Bay; examine trade-offs of different strategies, barriers and incentives for farmer adoption of those strategies; explore economic and environmental trade-offs of alternative adaptation strategies; consider how agricultural adaptation strategies and policies affect farmers and other ecosystem values in coastal Maryland.\(^{71}\)

\(^{66}\) Currently being studied by Kate Tully, UMD; Keryn Gedan, GWU; Becky Epanchin-Niell, RFF.

\(^{67}\) Currently being studied by Scott Andres, Delaware Geological Survey.

\(^{68}\) Currently being studied by Jeff Allenby, Chesapeake Conservancy, and by Kate Tully, UMD.

\(^{69}\) Currently being studied by Keryn Gedan, GWU.

\(^{70}\) Currently being studied by Kate Tully, UMD; Keryn Gedan, GWU; Becky Epanchin-Neill, RFF.

\(^{71}\) Currently being studied by Kate Tully, UMD; Keryn Gedan, GWU; Becky Epanchin-Neill, RFF.
Adaptation

One of the effects of saltwater intrusion is a decline in crop productivity. Using an alternative crop that is more salt-tolerant may hold promise for cultivation on these lands.

In addition to alternative crops, transitional land uses are another pathway for retiring marginal farm lands. For example, saltwater-affected farmland may be set aside or planted for recreation and wildlife benefits. Given concern in the region for the drowning and habitat loss of tidal wetlands, which is another side effect of sea level rise (see Wetlands chapter), the gradual transition of marginal farmlands to tidal wetlands could be preferred to retain the ecosystem services that tidal wetlands provide the region.\(^2\) Fallow, salt-damaged farmland is colonized by wetland plants, as well as agricultural weeds, within a single year. Within the following few years, the plant communities of these lands begin to resemble natural wetlands.\(^3\) The invasive lineage of the common reed, *Phragmites australis*, is a threat for salt-affected farmland, as it is for natural wetland migration corridors. This species outcompetes native plants and provides less valuable habitat for wildlife species that depend on the tidal wetlands.

Federal subsidized crop insurance may also play an important, but conflicting role, as agricultural communities adapt to climate change.\(^4\) While subsidized insurance may reduce the uncertainty about potential income loss from the effects of saltwater intrusion that result in reduced crop yields, it may also delay the decision to shift to a salt-tolerant crop since it provides a financial safety net for crop failure of the predominant salt-sensitive crops. Additionally, farmers may be reluctant to share concerns about saltwater intrusion due to the effects on their property values.


\(^3\) Gedan, K., unpublished data.

Coastal Wetlands

Resource

Of Maryland’s roughly 6 million acres, about 10% are wetlands: more than half are freshwater wetlands (both tidal and nontidal), while the remainder are coastal brackish wetlands. In Maryland, coastal freshwater and coastal brackish wetlands occur within the coastal plain as part of the Chesapeake Bay and Coastal Bays ecosystems, including along their associated tidal tributaries.75

Aside from providing water quality benefits through pollution filtration, wetlands provide a large number of other ecosystem services, such as flood protection, aquatic and terrestrial wildlife habitat, and shoreline stabilization, as well as human and cultural services, such as the provision of harvestable natural resources and recreational opportunities.76 DNR estimates that coastal wetlands provide the highest per acre ecosystem values of any land type.77

Drivers of Salinization

Saltwater intrusion/inundation has been identified as the primary cause of wetland losses in the mid-Atlantic region in recent decades.78 Both coastal freshwater wetlands and coastal brackish wetlands are vulnerable to salinization. These wetlands exist either directly along Maryland’s coastal or riverine shorelines or in some areas further landward from coastal salt marshes. When these types of wetlands experience sufficient saltwater stress (from sea level rise, coastal storms, etc.), wetland plants die, and they then become open water, a mudflat, or a saltmarsh. If the amount of saltwater stress is less, these wetland types can recover, but this will depend on several physical and ecological factors, such as the likelihood of dispersal of seeds of freshwater or brackish wetland plants to repopulate the area, especially before saltmarsh plants become established first, and the amount of saltwater trapped and prevented from flowing off site by roads or levees.79 Also, drought, in combination with saltwater intrusion, can result in rapid declines in the diversity of coastal wetland species and their ability to regenerate.80

76 Ibid.
77 Elliot Campbell, DNR, personal communication, 1 July 2019.
80 Ibid. (cites Desantis et al. 2007).
Even in the absence of climate change, a variety of natural events, such as storm surge, hurricanes and drought, as well as human actions, such as dam construction, water diversions, and land use change, can bring saltwater into coastal freshwater and brackish wetlands, or reduce the amount of freshwater reaching these wetlands.\textsuperscript{81} Aside from groundwater, input of water into wetlands can come from direct precipitation, stream flow, overbank flow from streams and rivers, surface runoff or tides.\textsuperscript{82}

Another human action -- artificial drainages (canals, ditches and drains), common in many counties -- increases the amount of land vulnerable to saltwater intrusion. By lowering the overall elevation of drained lands, and by creating large-scale hydrological effects as a result of rerouting water flows, artificial drainages increase saltwater intrusion not only in areas adjacent to canals, ditches and drains, but also in nearby areas without artificial drainage.\textsuperscript{83} A study in eastern North Carolina -- a coastal plain region similar to Maryland’s Eastern Shore in elevation, saltwater proximity, and the extent of artificial drainages -- identified wetlands as the most vulnerable to saltwater intrusion among all land use types.\textsuperscript{84}

On the other hand, a certain amount of coastal freshwater wetlands and coastal brackish wetlands will migrate landward over time as sea level rises: that is, as these wetlands disappear or transition to saltmarshes, as sea level rises, formerly dry land will become wet and will transition into new freshwater or brackish wetlands. The ability for wetlands to migrate depends on whether human-made barriers, such as bulkheads or berms, or impervious cover such as roads, prevent upland areas from becoming wet enough to support new freshwater or brackish wetlands.

**Threats, Concerns, and Impacts**

Although certain existing wetlands will be lost due to saltwater intrusion, as sea level rises a certain amount of new freshwater and brackish wetlands will be gained (through wetland migration) and new saltmarsh will be created as well. The benefits of these new wetlands could possibly offset impacts from the loss of existing wetlands.

Loss of freshwater and brackish wetlands may lead to a decline in the abundance and biodiversity of animal species within the Chesapeake Bay and Coastal Bays watersheds that depend on these wetlands, along with a decline in the abundance of plants that make up freshwater and brackish wetlands. For example, researchers identified fewer freshwater wetland-dependent fish species within portions of Blackwater National Wildlife Refuge impacted by sea level rise and saltwater intrusion.\textsuperscript{85}

\textsuperscript{81} Ibid.


\textsuperscript{84} Ibid.

\textsuperscript{85} Love, J.W., Gill, J. and Newhard, J.J, “Saltwater intrusion impacts fish diversity and distribution in the Blackwater
Saltwater intrusion also reduces the primary production of existing coastal freshwater wetlands; as salinity stress increases, above and belowground biomass of wetland plants decreases. Less primary production leads to less accretion of wetland soils, which as sea level rises increases vulnerability to flooding and further saltwater intrusion.

Saltwater intrusion also alters biogeochemical cycles. For example, saltwater intrusion leads to increased desorption of inorganic nitrogen and phosphorus from wetland soils, which can contribute to water quality problems. The effect of saltwater intrusion on methane and carbon dioxide emissions from wetlands needs to be studied further. Also, although a typical effect of saltwater intrusion of wetlands is decreased carbon storage, the scientific community has not reached consensus on this issue; a recent study shows that intrusion of alkaline saltwater may lead to increased carbon sequestration in freshwater wetlands.

**Additional Research**

The following research (mapping, forecasting, monitoring) is recommended within the next 5 years (prior to the 2024 saltwater intrusion plan update) to adequately address the risk of saltwater intrusion to Maryland’s wetlands:

**Near term (1-2 years)**

**Determine how sea level rise and saltwater intrusion will change the types and amounts of wetlands in Maryland.** DNR completed an assessment in 2011 of future wetland loss due to sea level rise using the Sea Level Affecting Marshes Model (SLAMM); see the Sea Level Rise Vulnerable Wetlands layer in the Maryland Coastal Atlas. The total loss and change in type of wetlands due to sea level rise or saltwater intrusion should be reevaluated and the risk assessed. The state could update its 2011 analysis of the loss of wetlands due to sea level rise, and could perform a similar and additive analysis on the loss and change in type of wetlands due to saltwater intrusion. In the Blackwater 2100 plan, the SLAMM model was used to identify future changes in tidal wetland area and habitat type within Blackwater National Wildlife Refuge. Other factors that might not be taken into account sufficiently by the SLAMM model could be considered as well: (e.g., understanding the relationship between saltwater intrusion and saltmarsh elevation change (saltmarsh accretion rate) is important, given that a lower rate of elevation change in tidal freshwater wetlands would mean they may more quickly become inundated due to sea level rise.)

---


88 Ibid.

89 Ibid.


92 A. H. Baldwin, M. S. Kearney and J. C. Cornwell, University of Maryland, “Forecasting the response of tidal freshwater marshes to increasing salinity and higher tides due to sea level rise,” Funded Projects, National Institute
Identify priority existing wetlands at risk and adaptation actions. Once vulnerable wetlands are identified, the state could update its 2009 study that prioritized which of Maryland's coastal wetlands to target for protection or restoration – see mde.maryland.gov/programs/Water/WetlandsandWaterways/AboutWetlands/Pages/prioritizingareas.aspx – incorporating new knowledge regarding ecosystem service values of particular areas in Maryland – see dnr.maryland.gov/ccs/Pages/Ecosystem-Services.aspx – and which of these wetlands may be able to migrate further inland (if migration corridors exist) or to be lost or transformed to saltmarsh.

Mid term (3-4 years)

Determine the economic and environmental impact of the future landscape of wetland types and amounts in Maryland. Although a certain amount of existing wetlands will be lost due to sea level rise or saltwater intrusion, new wetlands will be created. On the other hand, newly migrated wetland areas could differ in function than existing wetlands due to the speed that the landscape is changing and the character of adjacent upland land uses. A forecast to determine the economic and environmental impact of the future landscape of wetlands in Maryland would be useful. Developing the forecast depends on understanding the impact of surficial groundwater use on Maryland’s wetlands. If an aquifer is overused, this can lead to reduced delivery of freshwater to certain coastal wetlands, which can further increase saltwater impacts. Groundwater use in most wetland systems plays a larger role than sea level rise in driving saltwater intrusion,\textsuperscript{93} whether this is the case in Maryland could be explored. If this is the case, then Maryland could explore the utility and impact of modifications to groundwater withdrawals from the surficial aquifer. Aside from groundwater, input of water into wetlands can come from direct precipitation, stream flow, overbank flow from streams and rivers, surface runoff or tides.\textsuperscript{94}

Long term (4-5 years)

Assess the impact of the future changes to Maryland’s wetlands on state greenhouse gas mitigation and Chesapeake Bay restoration efforts. According to a recent synthesis paper on salinization impacts on wetlands,\textsuperscript{95} understanding the effects of saltwater intrusion on wetlands on carbon dioxide and methane emissions, and on the overall carbon balance of wetlands, will "require systematic investigations of multiple steps regulating organic matter breakdown." A 2011 Maryland study found that saltmarshes had significantly lower methane emissions than other wetlands, but higher and more variable methane emissions in brackish


wetlands. Also, the rate of loss of nitrogen and phosphorus from affected wetland soils, as well as from affected agricultural soils, due to saltwater intrusion, needs to be determined, in conjunction with the rate of uptake of these nutrients due to migrating wetlands and new saltmarsh. Once this is determined, modelers could determine how to best modify the Chesapeake Bay model to assess what type of nutrient loading change, if any, would occur.

**Complete a study to inform the development of a Maryland wetland adaptation plan.**
Given the many ecosystem services provided by coastal wetland: fisheries production, carbon sequestration, coastal erosion/shoreline stabilization, tourism and recreation, water quality, and biodiversity support, and the few studies that have quantified how these services change, the state could develop a Maryland-specific study of how these wetland ecosystem services could change (or not change) as saltwater intrusion increases, and as coastal wetlands migrate, are lost, or are transformed, over time. This type of study can inform policymakers and resource managers regarding the best types and locations for wetland restoration and management projects.

**Adaptation Measures**

Until a forecast of the future landscape of wetland types and amounts in Maryland due to sea level rise and/or saltwater intrusion is completed, the state will not know which existing high priority freshwater or brackish wetlands are threatened, whether corridors exist to allow for sufficient migration of coastal wetlands, and whether the state should focus any of its efforts on protecting certain high priority wetlands as climate change impacts continue.

Ultimately a Maryland wetland adaptation plan, which includes identifying opportunities for the migration of coastal wetlands, and in some cases, measures to make high priority wetlands more resilient would be beneficial. Appendix D discusses possible adaptation measures for protecting high priority wetlands in place.

---


98 Ibid. (cites Rugai and Kassenga 2014).
Collectively, the increased salinity has already made some of Maryland’s coastal farmland unusable, and is altering the ecological landscape of Maryland’s wetlands and coastal forests.
Coastal Forests

Resource

The mid-Atlantic coastal forests stretch from the eastern shores of Maryland and Delaware to just south of the Georgia-South Carolina border. In Maryland, this region follows along the Atlantic Ocean, coastal bays, and Chesapeake Bay coastlines on the relatively flat lower Atlantic Coastal Plain and extends inland to the edge of the Piedmont. On the Eastern Shore of Maryland, prominent coastal forest features are wetland and riparian. Maryland is host to over 300,000 acres of forested wetlands, with most of these wetland areas located around the Chesapeake Bay and to the east. In the southernmost counties, loblolly pine/shortleaf pine represent the most prevalent forest-type group, and the majority of the state’s loblolly pine (Pinus taeda) resource is found on the Eastern Shore.

Coastal forests are some of the most effective habitats for reducing flood impacts and risks to communities. These forests offer habitat for forest-dwelling species, protect drinking water, serve as buffers for rivers and bays against sedimentation and nutrient enrichment, and provide economic and other benefits.

Seventeen percent of Maryland’s forest lands are in wetland areas. The Lower Eastern Shore counties of Caroline, Dorchester, Wicomico, Worcester and Somerset are home to 61% of the forested wetland areas. Species composition is similar in Eastern Shore forested wetland and non-wetland areas: mainly red maple (Acer rubrum), American holly (Ilex opaca), black gum (Nyssa sylvatica) and loblolly pine; however, the relative dominance in terms of number of trees, is different. Black gum and loblolly pine are found in greater numbers within wetland areas since these species can grow in wetter environments and are more salt-tolerant than some of their competitors. The Eastern Shore is also the northernmost limit for bald cypress (Taxodium distichum).

Seventy-two percent of Maryland’s forest land is privately owned; private owners include individuals, families, corporations, and other private entities. The remaining 28% is in public ownership, with the largest public owner being the State of Maryland.

Timber plays a significant role in Maryland’s economy and the forestry industry has significant links to other industries. The forest products industry is the second largest employer on the Eastern Shore. Healthy, managed forests are linked to a healthy and resilient Chesapeake Bay; forest land losses increase the potential for a detrimental effect on restoration efforts for the Chesapeake Bay. The loss of forest lands to saltwater intrusion places additional stress on the forestry industry.

Drivers of Salinization

Over the past 100 years, sea levels have risen by 1 foot in Maryland, and recent projections indicate the likely potential for sea level to rise up to 1.6 feet by 2050, and up to 4.2 feet (or up to 3.0 feet if the goals of the Paris Climate Agreement are achieved) by 2100. The natural ecosystem transition along the upward slope from the shore from saltmarsh to coastal forest that has evolved over time is being impacted by the sea level rise moving the high tide mark inland. This relatively quick sea level rise does not allow time for woody vegetation to migrate, and the coastal forest tree species that are not salt tolerant are being lost to the saltwater.

As saltwater intrusion and salinization works its way into these low lying forested lands through groundwater and surface flooding, as well as land subsidence, the health of the trees is impacted by the increased salinity and shoreline erosion. In some cases, the edge of the wooded land will be eroded and trees no longer able to stand will topple over; decomposing toppled trees and stumps can become new transitioning salt marshes. The conversion of forest into saltmarshes creates new wetlands that feed and shelter fish and shellfish; so, while one ecosystem is in decline, another is rising. In non-erodible areas, for salt tolerant species such as loblolly pine, the impacts and decline in health may be slower while less salt tolerant species may decline quicker. The transition from forest to wetland can be highly uneven and dead standing trees can persist for decades. Depending on species, some may decompose while others are present for decades and result in a different wetland type. Where soils have become inundated with saltwater, the tree root networks collapse and then drown, creating “ghost forests.” During storm events and spring tide cycles, salt water floods further inland into the coastal forest, infiltrating and saturating the soils, and increasing soil salinity. Like the case with agricultural fields, the network of ditches originally designed to provide drainage of the landscape is now working as conduits, providing channels for the saltwater to reach further inland.

Threats, Concerns and Impacts

Due to saltwater intrusion, forests have converted to wetlands within the Chesapeake Bay watershed and the rate of conversion has increased over time.

The 2016 Maryland Forest Health Survey (completed through aerial survey by the Forest Pest Management Unit of MDA) identified 50,406 acres of forest on the Lower Eastern Shore affected by saltwater intrusion; most of the affected acres, 39,503, were in Dorchester County. In comparison to the 2013 survey, this was a significant increase when 18,117 acres were found to be affected and is thought to be due to increasing saltwater intrusion and

107 Over the past 100 years, 100,000 acres of forest in the Chesapeake Bay watershed have converted to wetlands and the rate of coastal forest loss is four times greater now than it was during the 1930s. As communicated by Matthew Kirwan in “‘Ghost forests’: What they are and why they’re becoming more common,” CBS News, August 1, 2017. [Online]. Available: cbsnews.com/news/ghost-forests-what-they-are-why-theyre-becoming-more-common/. [Accessed 17 November 2019].
Although these forests have not yet become saltmarshes, the survey identified different levels of damage to the tree canopy from very light to very severe. When the health of the coastal forest is weakened by saltwater intrusion, the wooded habitats are also more susceptible to infestations such as from the southern pine beetle.

The Eastern Shore of Maryland provides habitat for migratory birds and forest-dependent species that are considered “recovering species”: Delmarva fox squirrel (*Sciurus niger cinereus*), American bald eagle (*Haliaeetus leucocephalus*), and the migrant peregrine falcon (*Falco peregrinus*). There are several Lower Eastern Shore wildlife refuges, including Blackwater National Wildlife Refuge, that were designated to protect these important ecosystems. The visible signs of saltwater intrusion, “ghost forests” are easily recognized, especially around Dorchester County. Tree die off is also apparent in parts of Wicomico, Worcester and Somerset counties, although not as severe as Dorchester. Woodlands along some coastal areas of Maryland are failing to regrow because of increased flooding; this is occurring even when there are abundant seedlings and an open canopy, conditions that would generally result in woodland growth. Tree species that are sensitive to the increased levels of salt tend to die back and are replaced by fewer native species by more non-native species that are more salt tolerant. Invasive species such as *Phragmites australis* are an early colonizer of the “ghost forests,” quickly becoming the dominant plant species and outcompeting other vegetation.

During colonial times, the forests on the Delmarva Peninsula were heavily harvested for timber and agriculture. Many of the lands that have regenerated into today’s forests still show signs of human activity in the soil, where legacy nutrients from fertilizer applications are still detectable above natural concentrations. As these forest soils become intruded, excess nutrients may be unlocked from the soils and leach into adjacent waters while carbon stored in soil and tree biomass is lost, much of it eventually ending up in the atmosphere.

During rain events, stormwater runoff naturally drains and filters through these low-lying coastal forests; providing water storage. The coastal forests also protect upland areas from storm surges. As the condition of these ecosystems are degraded, the adjacent inland areas face higher risk of storm damage from coastal waters (the ability to buffer storm surges) as well as flooding from rain events.

Additional Research

The following research (mapping, forecasting, monitoring) is recommended within the next 5 years (prior to the 2024 saltwater intrusion plan update) to adequately address the risk of saltwater intrusion to Maryland’s coastal forests:

Near term (1-2 years)

Collect data on the degradation of coastal forests to help quantify the rate of increase in “ghost forests.” Partner with other organizations to identify appropriate techniques for managing the land to optimize woodland health; evaluate forest management for balance of forest services, wetland migration and other ecosystem services.115

Examine existing land cover change analyses available from researchers. Compile existing information and identify areas where changes to coastal forests have already occurred.

Conduct status and trends analyses using existing land cover data to determine coastal forest conditions, identify historical changes and determine the rate of conversion from coastal forest to “ghost forest.”

Develop a vulnerability index for forests prone to salinization. Building upon the existing land cover change and trend analyses, develop a vulnerability index to assist property owners in determining management options and opportunities.

Mid term (2-4 years)

Identify and track the effects of salinization on forest health, building upon the Maryland Forest Health Survey. Use high resolution imagery combined with cutting-edge automated feature extraction techniques to map tree canopy decline, assign mortality severity value to forest stands, and develop a web mapping decision support tool to provide quick and easy access to the information for resource managers, decision makers, and the public.116

Use LiDAR to identify forest areas with berms (berms assist with restricting the inland surface flow of saltwater). Assist landowners with identifying vulnerable forest lands and provide guidance on management decisions.

Work with Critical Area staff to develop guidelines for the removal of dead trees to support habitat for certain saltmarsh bird species (reduces predator threat)117 and evaluate establishment of phragmites in the transitioning habitat.

---

115 Proposed by Matt Hurd, DNR Forest Service.
116 Currently being studied by Heather Disque, MDA Forest Pest Management.
Long term (4+ years)

Study the resilience of more biodiverse coastal forest stands to saltwater intrusion to
determine if modified forest management approaches could reduce the overall vulnerability
of coastal forests to saltwater intrusion; examine the consequences and tradeoffs of the
different forest adaptation strategies for landowners and ecosystem services; and identify
potential barriers to implementation.

Adaptation

Several adaptation measures are recommended for evaluation to assist coastal forests and
forest landowners. Maryland’s coastal zone comprises a rich mosaic of different habitats,
including agricultural lands, coastal forests, salt marshes, brackish and freshwater wetlands,
and extensive riparian corridors. This diverse habitat is important to the Chesapeake Bay and
its spectrum of ecosystem services. The loss of coastal forest or reduction below minimum
thresholds could have a significant impact on individual species and quality of life. To help
ensure sufficient amounts and biodiversity of coastal forests, planning could be conducted
to enhance existing efforts by agencies, nongovernmental organizations and landowners
to evaluate the potential for migration or establishment of coastal forests and how the
landscape ecology will be impacted by these changes. Ideally this would lead to strategic land
conservation, which will allow coastal forest species to naturally migrate as conditions change.

In addition, state and/or nongovernmental organizations could provide additional education
and assistance for landowners, including development of an outreach program. Management
options for landowners include monitoring high-water line marks and salinity levels, replacing
dead trees with salt-tolerant shrubs and grasses, creating living shorelines, using natural
stabilization techniques to protect shorelines and streambanks, and increasing the width of
forest buffers along shorelines and streams. To help landowners continue to generate income
from the land as salinization occurs, assistance providers also could identify alternative uses
for inundated forest land, such as promoting sika deer and duck hunting. Assistance providers
also could encourage landowners who wish to harvest the timber from their lands to watch for
signs of saltwater intrusion and plan the harvest before the quality of the timber is affected.
Working with a licensed forester to develop and/or update their forest stewardship plan will
provide guidance on the appropriate timing of the harvest.


Infrastructure

Resource
When considering the effects of saltwater intrusion and salinization, there are various forms of infrastructure that have the potential to be affected. The visible infrastructure such as roadways, bridges, and utility poles can be easily seen, but there are others, such as underground utility lines (electric, water, and internet) and water intake pipes for water supplies.

Drivers of Salinization
As addressed in the previous chapters, saltwater is moving into the state’s surface waters and soils, moving into the various coastal habitats (wetlands and forests), and even resulting in raising the groundwater/surficial aquifer level (see Figure 4 below). Raising the water level of the surficial aquifer will affect septic system functions, and with elevated groundwater levels, basements in lower locations in the landscape will likely see flooding.

Threats, Concerns and Impacts
While there is limited documentation available on the impact of saltwater intrusion or salinization on infrastructure\textsuperscript{120}, and even less that specifically address Maryland’s infrastructure, there are issues identified in other coastal jurisdictions that can be considered.

The subsurface utilities and structures that interact with soil and water with increased salinity have the potential for accelerated degradation and corrosion. For example, both potable water and wastewater pipes are at risk of corrosion; a wastewater pipe failure could result in untreated wastewater being accidently diverted to a waterway.\textsuperscript{121}

With the rising shallow surficial aquifer levels, the inundated soils will affect the ability of designed drainage systems to treat and infiltrate stormwater runoff.\textsuperscript{122} Additionally, the increased groundwater inundation and higher groundwater elevation exerts uplifting forces on the buried infrastructure,\textsuperscript{123} increasing the risk of failure to the system.


Facilities that draw from surface waters (e.g., water treatment plants, energy generating plants) also have the potential for corrosion of pipes and mechanical systems as the freshwater/saltwater interface of surface waters moves inland. If biological treatment of water is used at a facility, the increased salinity could kill the beneficial bacteria.\footnote{A. Blumenau, et al., “Effects of Sea Level Rise on Water Treatment & Wastewater Treatment Facilities,” student project sponsored by the Massachusetts Department of Environmental Protection, Worcester Polytechnic Institute, 2011. [Online]. Available: citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.462.5321&rep=rep1&type=pdf. [Accessed 17 November 2019].}

**Additional Research**

A search of published literature and outreach to Maryland utilities resulted in limited documentation. Additional research and outreach is recommended to determine the risk, identify management plans that are already in place by local utilities, and develop guidance.

**Near term (1-2 years)**

**Identify facilities that currently use surface waters based on their location in the watershed.** Whether used for water treatment, in manufacturing operations, cooling systems, etc., determine the potential of impacts to systems.

**Identify existing underground infrastructure within the coastal plain** (i.e., wells, natural gas, energy transmission lines, internet, wastewater and water systems).

**Mid term (2-4 years)**

**Develop risk map identifying projected saltwater/freshwater interface.** To assist with long range, maintenance and operational planning, develop a map tool indicating the upstream limits of the interface.

**Develop adaptation measures and guidance based on the identified facilities.** From the list of identified facilities, categorize the types of water uses by facility and develop a guidance document for facility operators based on the different water uses.
Figure 4. Model-simulated increase in water levels in the surficial aquifer in response to a 3-foot increase (expected by 2100) in the current sea level position across the Northern Atlantic Coastal Plain aquifer system. 

Long Term Plan Implementation

State law requires Planning to update this plan every 5 years. Between 2020 and 2024, the department’s goal is to facilitate progress in addressing or evaluating the adaptation policies and research needs discussed in this plan. This will help the department to produce a 2024 Saltwater Intrusion and Salinization Plan that identifies with more specificity which additional strategies Maryland could implement to reduce the vulnerability of the state’s economy and resources to saltwater intrusion and salinization. Even without additional research, some adaptation policies discussed in this plan appear reasonable to pursue now.

Strategic approaches for funding the research are recommended. For example, some of the research needs could be addressed through collaboration with other states or with federal units, such as the USDA. Other research needs could be addressed through university researchers receiving grant funding.

Appendix A lists the different adaptation policies and research recommendations discussed in each chapter.

Appendix B lists additional adaptation policies occurring elsewhere within the nation and globally. These policies could be assessed further.

The state agency workgroup that guided the development of this plan will continue to meet to track progress and support implementation of the plan, develop an annual workplan to guide its efforts, and provide annual progress reports to the Maryland Commission on Climate Change, Chesapeake Bay Cabinet, Governor’s Intergovernmental Commission on Agriculture, and other applicable state bodies. The workgroup, led by Planning, will seek feedback from these organizations.

The state agency workgroup will hold periodic meetings and facilitate communications between university and private researchers, nongovernmental organizations, farmers and other landowners, and all branches of government. This approach will ensure that the state is up-to-date on current efforts, and that other organizations coordinate and identify priorities.

The workgroup should also help to inform the integrated development, implementation, and tracking of Maryland coastal adaptation measures by the Adaptation and Resiliency Workgroup of the Maryland Commission on Climate Change and the Maryland Resiliency Partnership. Models, monitoring and expertise across agencies could be shared to link saltwater intrusion and salinization to related coastal margin issues, such as wetland and forest migration corridors, agricultural sustainability, and stormwater management.

Different adaptation approaches will differ in their potential costs and benefits to landowners, as well as the expected returns to society. The state could assess these and consult with constituents as it considers different adaptation approaches.

As improved data, modeling and forecasting become available regarding saltwater intrusion and salinization, the information could be integrated within existing technical assistance tools available from the state, such as the DNR Coastal Atlas (dnr.maryland.gov/ccs/coastalatlas/Pages/default.aspx).
Appendix A: Summary of research needs and adaptation policies discussed in the plan, and available technical and financial resources

Research Needs

Based on guidance from technical experts, stakeholders and the state agency workgroup, the following research steps are recommended (more details specific to each resource or land type are found in the individual chapters of this plan). The research will increase the understanding of saltwater intrusion and salinization impacts and processes in aquifers, surface waters, agricultural land, wetlands, coastal forests and infrastructure in Maryland, and will inform adaptation and management approaches:

Step 1: Reach consensus among data collectors among different levels of government, academia, nongovernmental organizations and others regarding data collection methodology, including equipment used, and needed data categories.

Step 2: Create, and improve over time, an information repository by compiling available, geographically specific, and updated data on:

- Current and past status of resources and land types.
- Natural and anthropogenic processes influencing saltwater intrusion and salinization.
- Locations and extent of other factors (e.g., ditch network, abandoned wells) that impact resources and land types.
- Available areas for (and barriers to) migration of coastal wetlands and forests.
- Adaptation measures or other actions (e.g., policies, regulations, resource management practices) being taken by landowners, government, etc. that impact the status of resources and land types.
- Effectiveness and outcomes (benefits and drawbacks) of particular adaptation measures.

Step 3: Actions to take with the information repository include:

- Assess available information to identify where more data and research are needed.
- Develop study plans to fill knowledge gaps.
- Develop, refine and calibrate forecast models.
- Create/refine two-dimensional and three-dimensional maps and data layers (e.g., freshwater-saltwater interface, aquifer head maps, aquifer framework, ditch network, areas of declining crop health, “ghost forest” areas) to represent current and future conditions.
- Estimate the current and future vulnerability (extent, rate of loss, etc.) of the resource and of resource users, and the level of risk, including potential environmental and
economic impacts associated with that vulnerability.

- Identify priorities within different resources (e.g., particular high-value freshwater wetlands) to protect/restore.
- Identify barriers to success.
- Develop/refine adaptation/management technologies, policies, programs, projects and plans, including education and outreach approaches and decision-making tools for landowners. Analyses of adaptation approaches should consider potential watershed and other large-scale effects to avoid unanticipated impacts resulting from implementation.

Step 4a: When adequate information is available to initiate decision-making, implement adaptation/management technologies, policies, programs, projects and plans, informed by financial analyses of actions (and the cost of inaction) and other expected benefits and drawbacks.

Step 4b: When additional information is needed before the next stage of decision-making, implement study plans to fill knowledge gaps:

- Develop/expand monitoring networks and refine system-wide monitoring approach for saltwater intrusion and salinization.
- Complete scientific research studies to better understand natural and anthropogenic processes influencing saltwater intrusion and salinization (and the existing and potential extent and nature of environmental and economic impacts).
- Monitor adaptation measures or other actions being taken by landowners, government, etc. that impact the status of the resource.
- Monitor outcomes (benefits and drawbacks) resulting from implementation of particular adaptation/management measures.
- Assess the efficacy (and benefits and drawbacks) of new technologies and adaptation approaches.

Step 5: Improve/refine the information repository (Step 2) with additional knowledge (from Step 4b), and then continue to Step 3.

The above research steps are meant to incorporate the following concept of adaptive management:

“Adaptive management is a strategy that provides for making management decisions under uncertain conditions using the best available science rather than repeatedly delaying action until more information is available. Adaptive management allows for continuous learning resulting in management decisions based on what was learned, rather than adopting a management strategy and implementing it without regard for scientific feedback or monitoring. Adaptive management is an approach to resources management that increases the likelihood of success in obtaining goals in a manner that is both economical and effective because it provides flexibility and feedback to manage natural resources in the face of often considerable uncertainty.”

127 Delta Stewardship Council, “The Delta Plan: Ensuring a reliable water supply for California, a healthy Delta ecosystem, and a place of enduring value,” Appendix 1b, 2013.
The adaptive management approach can include the following categories and steps.

**Plan**

1. Define/redefine the problem
2. Establish management goals/objectives
3. Model linkages between objectives and proposed actions
4. Select actions (research, pilot or full-scale) and select performance measures

**Do**

5. Design and implement actions
6. Design and implement a monitoring plan

**Evaluate and respond**

7. Analyze, synthesize and evaluate
8. Communicate current understanding
9. Adapt (and then repeat the Plan process, adjusting items 1, 2, 3 and 4 as needed)

To address these research needs, the state envisions that the scientific community (and in some cases government agencies), will take the lead in completing this research while other government agencies will supply data to the researchers. Moving forward, the state-level saltwater intrusion workgroup will engage with all sectors, nongovernmental organizations, academic organizations and communities to raise awareness, share information, and encourage progress. Workgroup actions could include the development of annual workplans, as well as overarching strategies to coordinate research efforts, implement an adaptive management approach, and identify innovative funding approaches (e.g., private and public funding).

Key governmental and nongovernmental partners to address data needs, and in some cases research, are listed in the Technical and Financial Resources section below.

Setting priorities among the research needs is difficult given that all of the resources and land types impacted by saltwater intrusion or salinization are valuable; however, the following criteria, in combination, can be used to achieve this goal:

1. Assist people who already are being impacted
2. Focus on resources and land types that are currently being impacted significantly
3. Focus on resources and land types that are most at risk
4. Focus on resources and land types that have the highest value (health, economic, social, and environmental)

---

128 Ibid.
Given these criteria, research in Maryland would initially be prioritized as follows:

1. Agriculture
2. Wetlands and coastal forests
3. Surface waters (drinking water, irrigation, aquatic resources)
4. Aquifers (drinking water, irrigation)

As research continues, and new information learned about impacts and risks, including the costs of inaction, the priorities would be reassessed. Also, continued updates of sea level rise projections over time will be critical for informing management decisions, especially given that sea level rise is currently accelerating and is expected to continue to accelerate over time.129

**Adaptation Measures**

Adaptation measures are actions that individuals, government, businesses, and nongovernmental organizations can implement to reduce the vulnerability or impact of climate change, including from saltwater intrusion and salinization, on resources and land types.

This plan identifies possible adaptation measures based on input from the state agency workgroup, subject matter experts, and stakeholders. Some adaptation measures are recommended now to address ongoing saltwater intrusion and salinization impacts, others are available now on an as-needed basis, while several could be explored further to determine their feasibility or utility in Maryland.

Feedback and guidance could be gathered from stakeholders regarding innovative approaches and strengths and weaknesses of possible adaptation technologies, policies, programs, projects and plans, and to identify possible roles of stakeholders in implementing possible adaptation measures.

**Adaptation measures recommended now:**

**Farmers/Agricultural Land**

1. Develop a report that presents specifics for how to establish and implement conservation easements in Maryland that facilitate transitional land uses (e.g., saltmarsh) for salt-impacted farmland.
2. Establish additional education and assistance for farmers to address and prepare for salinization.
3. Promote the use of more sophisticated water control structures to prevent the inflow of saline waters into field drainage systems.

**Wetlands**

1. Develop a statewide wetland adaptation plan, which would include identifying opportunities for migration of coastal wetlands, and in some cases, measures to make high priority wetlands more resilient.

Coastal Forests

1. Facilitate alternative uses for inundated forest land, such as promoting sika deer or duck hunting.
2. Establish additional education and assistance for forest landowners to address and prepare for salinization, including development of a landowners outreach program.

Adaptation measures already available as needed:

Aquifers and surface water users

1. Continue to implement existing regulations that limit saltwater contamination of freshwater supplies in coastal areas by ensuring that wells do not become a conduit for saltwater.
2. Shift water sources (e.g., to unaffected confined aquifers or surface waters), adjusting water withdrawals from the existing water source, or developing a balanced use of deeper aquifers.
3. Increase water treatment capabilities (desalination, reverse osmosis, distillation, and deionization).
4. Request additional analysis and/or monitoring when permits are requested for water management strategy areas.
5. Consider water conservation measures when water withdrawal requests are evaluated.

Farmers/Agricultural Land

1. Pursue federal subsidized crop insurance.

Coastal Forests

1. Work with a licensed forester to develop and/or update Forest Stewardship Plans to obtain guidance on the appropriate timing of harvests.
2. Replace dead trees with salt-tolerant shrubs and grasses.
3. Increase the width of forest buffers along shorelines and streams

Adaptation measures that could be explored further to determine their feasibility or utility in Maryland:

Aquifers and Surface Water Users

1. Apply a proven sound scientific approach to create a hydraulic barrier against saltwater intrusion.
2. Create recharge basins to replenish surficial aquifer with freshwater.

Farmers/Agricultural Land

1. Find and then use salt-tolerant crops (e.g., sorghum) that have market potential.
Technical and Financial Resources

Government agencies and some nongovernmental organizations have technical and/or financial resources to assist landowners, water suppliers, farmers, households and others in Maryland with responding to and planning for sea level rise and other hazards influenced by climate change. Some also have specialized knowledge and experience in dealing with saltwater intrusion and/or salinization. For additional information and assistance, please contact:

- U.S. Department of Agriculture, Climate Hubs - climatehubs.usda.gov/
- U.S. Department of Agriculture, Natural Resources Conservation Service - nrcre USDA.gov/wps/portal/nrsc/site/national/home/
- National Oceanic and Atmospheric Association, Office of Coastal Management Digital Coast - coast.noaa.gov/digitalcoast/
- U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Climate Change Adaptation Resource Center - epa.gov/arc-x
- Maryland Department of Agriculture - mda.maryland.gov
- Maryland Department of Natural Resources, Forest Service - dnr.maryland.gov/forests
- Maryland Department of Natural Resources, Chesapeake and Coastal Service - dnr.maryland.gov/ccs
- Maryland Department of the Environment, Climate Change Program - mde.maryland.gov/programs/Air/ClimateChange
- Maryland Department of Health, Environmental Health Bureau - phpa.health.maryland.gov/OEhfp/Pages/environmental.aspx
- Maryland Department of Planning - planning.maryland.gov
- Maryland Department of Transportation, Environmental Programs - mdot.maryland.gov/newMDOT/Environmental_Programs/index.html
- University of Maryland Extension - extension.umd.edu/
- University of Maryland Sea Grant - mdsg.umd.edu
- University of Maryland Center for Environmental Science - umces.edu/
- University of Maryland College of Agriculture and Natural Resources, Plant Science & Landscape Architecture - psla.umd.edu/
- University of Maryland College of Agriculture and Natural Resources, Harry R. Hughes Center for Agro-Ecology - agr.umd.edu/research/research-and-education-centers-locations/harry-r-hughes-center-agro-ecology
- Local Soil Conservation Districts - mda.maryland.gov/resource_conservation/Pages/technical_assistance.aspx
- County Health Departments - health.maryland.gov/Pages/departments.aspx
- Eastern Shore Land Conservancy Coastal Resilience Program - eslc.org/people/
- The Nature Conservancy, Maryland/DC Chapter - nature.org/en-us/about-us/where-we-work/united-states/maryland-dc/
Communication and Outreach

To ensure communities, farmers and landowners are aware of the threat of saltwater intrusion and salinization, as well as the availability of technical and financial resources, the state could develop a communications and outreach plan that makes use of existing avenues and programs, including the University of Maryland Extension, soil conservation districts, local environmental health departments, the University of Maryland Sea Grant, the Maryland Climate Leadership Academy, and the Education, Communication and Outreach Working Group of the Maryland Commission on Climate Change.
Appendix B: Additional adaptation policies occurring elsewhere within the nation and globally

The following are research findings in support of Maryland’s saltwater intrusion plan from Danielle Naundorf, while an intern with the Harry R. Hughes Center for Agro-Ecology, regarding adaptation policies occurring outside of Maryland in response to saltwater intrusion and salinization.

Introduction

Saltwater intrusion (SWI) is an imminent issue affecting Maryland’s long term economic outcomes and the quality of life for its residents. By looking at tactics adopted by other states and countries, there may be lessons learned for Maryland to take the necessary steps to mitigate against this issue. This document is organized by the six main resources impacted – aquifers, agriculture, wetlands, coastal forests, aquatic species, and infrastructure.

Aquifers

Policy

One of the most common forms of mitigation included creating policy restrictions and innovations that attempt to control the amount of pumping from wells near coasts, and moderate water withdrawals. This has already been done to some extent in Maryland. An example is Kent Island, where the amount of withdrawal permits is fixed.

Innovative solutions have included creating “zoning” areas as done in Georgia where it allows for a more nuanced policy approach depending on different sub-regions. This could be useful in Maryland for allowing for more localized restrictions depending on the particular aquifer from which water is being drawn. Potential unintended consequences include communities feeling unfairly targeted, or reduced development in those regions most affected.

In 2014, Soquel Creek, California declared a groundwater emergency largely due to SWI. Because of this, the community began relocating wells away from the coast, and prompted an extensive study to assess the feasibility of artificial recharge.

Creating partnerships between government agencies, nonprofits, and citizen groups can help push mitigation efforts forward. For example, in 2009 the Pajaro Valley Water Management Agency worked with the city of Watsonville to open a water recycling plant in California. Also in California, “Pure Water Monterey” is a partnership between Monterey Regional Water Pollution Control Agency and the Monterey Peninsula to produce recycled water from industrial wastewater, farm drainage, and stormwater.

1 Draft Coastal Georgia Water and Wastewater Permitting Plan for Managing Salt Water Intrusion
2 Here Comes the Sea: The struggle to Keep the Ocean out of California’s Coastal Aquifers - Brett Walton, 8/23/15
3 Here Comes the Sea: The struggle to Keep the Ocean out of California’s Coastal Aquifers - Brett Walton, 8/23/15
In 2014, California passed the Sustainable Groundwater Management Act, which requires the state to take action. Even in areas where policy required action, it could take upwards of 15 years to implement a real program.\textsuperscript{4}

\textit{Artificial Recharge}

As is well documented, when the pumping rate exceeds natural recharge rate of aquifers, the incidence of SWI increases. An option to counteract SWI is to introduce artificial recharge. Some options include injecting freshwater or extracting saltwater, or a combination of both.

This technique was supported by multiple sources.\textsuperscript{5} This is an exciting option because it would allow residents to continue using existing land and wells. Maryland would need to do an assessment of what the costs would be compared to the benefits; however, this generally seems like a more affordable and sustainable option than using reverse osmosis or desalination.

\textit{Alternative Water Sources}

Using alternative water sources was frequently cited as a tool that states like California, and countries such as China and the Netherlands have used to decrease the pressure on aquifers. Examples include collecting rainwater, building pipelines to transport water from less stressed aquifers, and recycling used water. An example of this being done is Hilton Head Public Service District building a pipeline to the mainland in 1999 to bring water to the island.\textsuperscript{6}

\textit{Relocation or Redesign of Wells}

Placement of wells is also another contributor to SWI that can be addressed by either relocating or redesigning wells. It is also suggested that horizontal wells may be more efficient than vertical wells when paired with freshwater injection or saltwater extraction.\textsuperscript{7}

\textit{Physical Barriers}

Physical barriers are one of the most invasive methods of reducing the impact of saltwater intrusion. These barriers can be used to retain groundwater and inhibit SWI, and are notably used in Japan. In Italy, there were instances of using gypsum to create a physical barrier.\textsuperscript{8} This does not seem to be a likely or recommended solution for addressing SWI.

\textit{Agriculture}

\textit{Salt Tolerant Crops}

SWI affects crops by increasing the salinity and changing the nutrient composition in the soil. This issue can be addressed by growing more salt tolerant crops, such as sorghum. The Eastern Shore crop market developed alongside the poultry industry, which may make alternative crops less appealing. Some crops that have been highlighted from the Netherlands as salt-tolerant include potato, seakale, strawberry, and seaweed.\textsuperscript{9}

\begin{enumerate}
\item Saltwater Intrusion and agriculture: A Comparative Study between the Netherlands and China - Yuxin Duan, 2016
\item Saltwater Intrusion and agriculture: A Comparative Study between the Netherlands and China - Yuxin Duan, 2016
\end{enumerate}
Desalination Plants/ Water Reuse

Desalination plants allow water that is contaminated with salt to have the salt removed and reused. Desalination has been explored in Ocean City, Maryland but it is expensive, which may limit its viability.

There are other options for water reuse that were discussed in the aquifer section above. Opportunities such as water reuse by taking industrial water or water from large cities and repurposing it for agriculture irrigation, may be a viable solution to address increases in SWI due to water demands for irrigation.

There have also been examples for how rainwater harvest has been used in China to supplement irrigation needs. It is unclear how helpful this would be in Maryland on a wide scale.

Genetically Modified Crops

In Vietnam, there have been experiments with genetically modifying rice to be more salt-tolerant.\textsuperscript{10}

Wetlands

Controlled Conversion to Wetlands

Mitigation strategies for dealing with SWI in agricultural or residential areas often may be a controlled conversion to wetlands. That is, accepting that the land use will have to change and facilitating this conversion in the healthiest possible way.

Generally, addressing the issues that can exacerbate SWI, like overpumping and climate change, will work towards improving wetlands.

Coastal Forests

Like wetlands, there were not many transferable lessons from other states or countries, but some general mitigation strategies may help protect coastal forests.

Tidal Wetlands

Conversion of land to tidal wetlands may protect coastal forests from erosion and flooding. During more serious storm events, tidal wetlands can act as a buffer and protect coastal forests from being inundated with water containing high levels of salt. However, saltwater inundation is sometimes discussed separately from saltwater intrusion.

Physical Barriers

As discussed above, physical barriers can be used to reduce the impact of SWI. Barriers are invasive, but could be a viable solution to protect the most vulnerable coastal forests.

\textsuperscript{10} Saltwater Intrusion and agriculture: A Comparative Study between the Netherlands and China - Yuxin Duan, 2016
Aquatic Species

There were no recommendations found that directly addressed aquatic species. A more expansive literature review may find additional results.

Infrastructure

Adaptation in Construction

Saltwater can be incredibly damaging to infrastructure due to the corrosive effects of salt. It is suggested to build various coastal defenses like putting houses on stilts, and raising bridges and roads. There are also salt-tolerant concrete options that could be used for building more resilient infrastructure. Utilizing more salt-tolerant building materials is an obvious recommendation Maryland can pursue to mitigate against SWI damage.
Appendix C: More details about existing saltwater intrusion in aquifers and potential users at risk

Documented instances of saltwater intrusion into Maryland aquifers (both surficial and confined) have occurred in Anne Arundel, Charles, Harford, Dorchester, Queen Anne’s, Somerset, and St. Mary’s counties and Baltimore and Ocean cities (Table 1).

Table 1. Areas of documented saltwater intrusion in Maryland’s coastal plain.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Aquifer(s)</th>
<th>Status</th>
<th>Monitoring Activity</th>
<th>Nature of Intrusion</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Annapolis Neck/Mayo Peninsula</td>
<td>Aquia</td>
<td>Relatively stable interface</td>
<td>Sampled in 1988-90 and 2005; Mayo Peninsula sampled in 2018</td>
<td>Near shore unconfined</td>
<td>Fleck, et. al., 1996; Gemperline, et. al., 2018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Anne Arundel County)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baltimore Harbor</td>
<td>Patapsco,</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Pumping induced through aleochannel in confining layer in Baltimore Harbor and near shore unconfined</td>
<td>Chapelle and Kean, 1985; Atkinson, et. al., 1986</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Baltimore City)</td>
<td>Patuxent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian Head</td>
<td>Patapsco</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Pumping induced through aleochannel in confining layer in Potomac River and near shore unconfined</td>
<td>Hiortdahl, 1997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Charles County)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kent Island</td>
<td>Aquia</td>
<td>Trend lines remain stable with a mixture of no change, increasing, and slightly decreasing chloride concentrations</td>
<td>Monitored every four years (pre-2016 every year)</td>
<td>Pumping induced through aleochannel in confining layer beneath Chesapeake Bay</td>
<td>Drummond, 1988; Periodic unpublished reports</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Queen Anne’s County)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Miller et al. (EPA 660/2-74-056, 1974, Ground Water Contamination In The Northeast States) listed Dorchester, Harford and St. Mary’s counties as having areas of documented saltwater intrusion; however, information regarding the aquifers impacted, monitoring activity, the nature of intrusion, and the status of the issue are all unknown.**

Additionally, in Anne Arundel County, high levels of chlorides are also widespread throughout the deeper portion of the Aquia aquifer in Arnold, Annapolis, Edgewater, Mayo, Galesville, West River, Shadyside, Churchton, and Deale. High chloride levels affect the shallower portion of the Magothy Aquifer in Arnold, Annapolis, and Edgewater.130

Of the following water suppliers who make use of the surficial aquifer, MGS has periodically raised concerns about potential saltwater intrusion into the Chestertown water supply; however, the most recent county well report does not indicate that this is currently an issue.131;132 The following water supplies are not necessarily at risk of saltwater intrusion;

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Aquifer(s)</th>
<th>Status</th>
<th>Monitoring Activity</th>
<th>Nature of Intrusion</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ocean City</td>
<td>Ocean City, Manokin</td>
<td>Relatively stable to some increase in chloride concentration. General increase in chloride concentrations over time; however, chloride levels are treated to below secondary standards in water provided by the Town.</td>
<td>Monitored frequently</td>
<td>Upcoming from deeper strata. Pumping induced from Atlantic Ocean</td>
<td>Achmad and Wilson, 1983; Achmad and Bolton, 2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western Somerset County</td>
<td>Manokin</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Unflushed salty water from subcrop beneath Chesapeake Bay; possible pumping induced</td>
<td>Werkheiser, 1990</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

130 Bill Dehn, Anne Arundel County Department of Health, personal communication, 27 June 2019
Table 2. County and Municipal Water Suppliers in Maryland that rely on surficial aquifer water sources for at least part of their needs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Water Supplier</th>
<th>Surficial aquifer water source description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>City of Salisbury</td>
<td>Salisbury has two well fields (Paleochannel and Park well fields). The City maintains a weir across the South Prong of the Wicomico River at Route 12 (Snow Hill Road). The City’s Park wells are located adjacent to the ponded South Prong upstream of the weir. This weir elevation is about 3.3 ft above mean sea level. The weir separates the tidal water downstream from the freshwater in the South Prong of the Wicomico River and ensures that the water in the pond is fresh. The weir protects the City’s Park well field from tidal influences. The Paleochannel well field uses a significant amount of water from the surficial aquifer, but is not at risk from saltwater intrusion due to the distance from tidal waters.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chestertown</td>
<td>Chestertown uses the Aquia aquifer (which is unconfined in Chestertown) and also the Magothy aquifer. The well field is less than 1,000 feet from the Chester River. Historically, the Aquia aquifer has experienced problems with saltwater intrusion from the Chester River; however, utilization of the deeper, confined Magothy aquifer has helped to manage the problem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fruitland</td>
<td>The Town of Fruitland maintains a well field in the surficial aquifer adjacent to Morris Mill Pond at South Division Street.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hurlock</td>
<td>The Town of Hurlock maintains a well field in the surficial aquifer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sharptown</td>
<td>The Town of Sharptown maintains a well field in the surficial aquifer. Wells are more than 1,500 feet from the Nanticoke River.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vienna</td>
<td>The Town of Vienna maintains a well field in the surficial aquifer. Wells are about 3,000 feet from the Nanticoke River.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worcester County (Ocean Pines)</td>
<td>Worcester County provides water to the Community of Ocean Pines from the surficial aquifer. Wells are about 3,000 feet from the Shingle Landing Prong of the Saint Martins River.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Town of Berlin</td>
<td>The Town of Berlin maintains a well field in the surficial aquifer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worcester County (Briddletown)</td>
<td>Worcester County provides water to the community of Briddletown from the surficial aquifer. Wells are about a mile east of Berlin.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worcester County (Mystic Harbor)</td>
<td>Worcester County provides water to the community of Mystic Harbor from the Pocomoke aquifer, which at that location may be hydraulically connected to the surficial aquifer. Wells are about 3,500 feet from the Coastal Bays.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
however, given that they make use of the surficial aquifer, more focused study of these supplies (e.g., identifying hydraulic gradients) would be helpful.

The following statistics provide a sense of Marylanders’ use of the surficial aquifer compared to other, less vulnerable water supplies. The statistics, however, do not provide any indication at this time of how many of these water users are at risk.

In 2011, approximately 110 million gallons per day (MGD) of the surficial aquifer were permitted for use: 133 about 28 MGD in Dorchester County, and about 25, 24 and 20 MGD by Wicomico, Caroline and Worcester counties.134 The majority of the water withdrawn from the surficial aquifer is used for seasonal irrigation of farmland on Maryland’s Eastern Shore, although the surficial aquifer also is used by a number of Eastern Shore municipalities and many households using private wells.135

About 210,000 Maryland households in the coastal plain (of about 2.2 million households in Maryland as of 2015) rely on their own private water supply,136 either from the surficial aquifer (Eastern Shore) or confined aquifers (Southern Maryland).

Few of Maryland’s aquifers are likely to be predominantly salty;137 however, the last regional analysis and mapping of the extent of salty groundwater in Maryland’s coastal plain aquifers was completed in 1989.138 Subsequently, USGS conducted a regional assessment of the extent of saltwater intrusion in the Northern Atlantic Coastal Plain using data and published interpretations of chloride concentrations available since the previous 1989 study.139 More localized mapping of saltwater intrusion in specific aquifers within certain locations has also been conducted over the past decades by MGS and USGS.

Note: The surficial lowland aquifer in southern Maryland was used historically to a very limited extent for domestic supply,140 but it is not used much for water supply today. Its use today is likely almost non-existent.

---

134 Ibid.
135 Ibid.
Appendix D: Adaptation measures for protecting high priority wetlands in place

Adaptation measures are feasible in many situations where freshwater or brackish wetlands are impacted by saltwater intrusion, including proactive water management or wetlands restoration.\textsuperscript{141}

Some wetland adaptation measures are not likely to be applicable to Maryland. For example, dams in Maryland generally are used to either generate power or to create a reservoir for drinking water. As a result, no additional freshwater flows could be gained through modified dam management activities.\textsuperscript{142} Providing for additional freshwater flows to wetlands, for example, through modifying dam management activities, is an adaptation measure that is feasible for combating salinization of wetlands in other regions.\textsuperscript{143} That said, other methods for increasing freshwater flows to vulnerable wetlands or for maximizing recharge of aquifers underlying vulnerable wetlands could be examined. Examples of these methods include engineered structures, restoration projects, and improving soil health;\textsuperscript{144} however, some of these methods also can have unwanted ecological impacts.

Some adaptation measures might not provide sufficient benefit: for example, when considering the amount of time a particular area of wetland can be protected before eventual inundation by sea level rise compared to the cost. To illustrate this point, Blackwater National Wildlife Refuge installed a weir in 2007 to reduce saltwater flow into a portion of the refuge. The installation of the weir was completed to support fish communities dependent on freshwater wetlands by limiting saltwater intrusion (due to an existing canal).\textsuperscript{145} However, the approach of weir installation or similar measures to block saltwater intrusion occurring due to existing canals, culverts or tide gates within the refuge is not a part of the Blackwater 2100 plan, the most recent Blackwater National Wildlife Refuge plan to address forecasted climate change impacts, in part because almost all of the refuge’s existing wetlands are expected to be inundated by sea level rise by 2100, making such measures ultimately ineffective.\textsuperscript{146}

In another example where the costs might be higher than the benefits - at least at a larger, regional scale -- the use of water control structures within ditches might be too expensive to install and maintain within every ditch in areas with extensive drainage networks, such as the Lower Eastern Shore, in order to control saltwater intrusion. Also, water control structures, and particularly one-way flap gates, when overtopped with coastal saltwater during severe

\begin{flushright}
\textsuperscript{142} Bruce Michael, personal communication, 26 March 2019.
\textsuperscript{144} Ibid.
\end{flushright}
coastal storms may then in turn impede drainage of that saltwater.\textsuperscript{147} On the other hand, more sophisticated water control structures might be an important adaptation measure to at least protect the most vulnerable ecosystems to saltwater intrusion.\textsuperscript{148}

Thin sediment layer placement to increase wetland surface elevation and fill in eroded portions of wetlands can be a helpful adaptation measure depending on the potential for inundation by sea level rise and the resource value of the wetland.\textsuperscript{149} Gaining a better understanding of Maryland’s sediment load balance and wetland health/condition (including internal ponding) would help the state estimate the likelihood of wetlands requiring this type of intervention. Maryland might also want to establish a plan that outlines wetland adaptation actions to pursue following a hurricane or other severe storm. If certain vulnerable coastal freshwater and brackish wetlands in Maryland are unlikely to recover naturally after significant saltwater flooding, the state might want to take proactive measures (e.g., wetland plantings) to facilitate that recovery.\textsuperscript{150}

The value of a particular wetland adaptation measure depends on the costs and benefits, including the amount of time available before the wetland will be inundated by sea level rise, the resource value of the targeted wetland, and the likelihood of the value of the wetland being replaced through coastal wetland migration or transformation into saltmarsh. This means that sea level rise forecasts will impact decision-making regarding the value of a particular wetland adaptation measure. As sea level rise forecasts change, wetland adaptation plans should be revisited.

\textsuperscript{148} Ibid.