

LOUISIANA BARRIER ISLAND EROSION STUDY

**ATLAS OF
SHORELINE CHANGES IN LOUISIANA
FROM 1853 TO 1989**



**U.S. GEOLOGICAL SURVEY
MISCELLANEOUS INVESTIGATIONS SERIES I-2150-A**

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**ATLAS OF SHORELINE CHANGES IN LOUISIANA
FROM 1853 to 1989**

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The Louisiana Barrier Island Erosion Study, a cooperative investigation between the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) and the Louisiana Geological Survey (LGS), focused on the processes and geological conditions responsible for the widespread erosion of Louisiana's delta-plain *coast*. Many people within the two organizations participated in the preparation of this atlas, which is one of several products of the study.

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Foreword


It is with pleasure that we present this Atlas of Shoreline Changes. This atlas is one of many products of the Louisiana Barrier Island Erosion Study, conducted jointly by the U.S. Geological Survey and the Louisiana Geological Survey over the past five years. It demonstrates the positive results that are possible when Federal and State agencies work together to solve problems that concern many segments of the population.

The erosion of our Nation's coasts and the degradation and loss of valuable wetlands affect all of us. Coastal businesses and homeowners endure the immediate consequences. But when one individual suffers, many suffer indirectly through higher prices, insurance premiums, and taxes. Diminished coasts and wetlands also affect those who value them as wildlife habitat, as abundant food resources, and as recreational areas.

Cooperative efforts, such as the Louisiana Barrier Island Erosion Study, allow the pooling of knowledge and resources. As a result, planners and decision makers, who must determine courses of remedial action, receive critical information expeditiously. This atlas is a small but important contribution to the information transfer process. We trust that it will provide not only evidence of the dramatic effects of coastal erosion and wetland loss in Louisiana but also understanding to those who must deal with mitigation approaches that will benefit society as a whole.



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An Introduction to Coastal Erosion And Wetlands Loss Research

S. Jeffress Williams and Asbury H. Sallenger, Jr.

COASTAL EROSION AND WETLANDS LOSS

Louisiana leads the Nation in coastal erosion and wetlands loss. In places, erosion of the barrier islands, which lie offshore of the estuaries and wetlands and separate them from the open marine environment, exceeds 20 m/yr (Penland and Boyd, 1981; McBride and others, 1989). Within the past 100 years, Louisiana's barrier islands have decreased on average in area by more than 40 percent, and some islands have lost 75 percent of their area (Penland and Boyd, 1981). A few of the islands are expected to disappear within the next three decades; their absence will contribute to further loss and deterioration of wetlands and back-barrier estuaries (McBride and others, 1989).

Louisiana contains 25 percent of the vegetated wetlands and 40 percent of the tidal wetlands in the 48 conterminous states. These coastal wetland environments, which include associated bays and estuaries, support a harvest of renewable natural resources with an estimated annual value of over \$1 billion (Turner and Cahoon, 1987). Louisiana also has the highest rate of wetlands loss: 80 percent of the Nation's total loss of wetlands has occurred in this state. Several scientists have estimated the rate of wetlands loss in the Mississippi River delta plain to be more than 100 km²/yr (Gagliano and others, 1981). Since 1956, over 2,500 km² of freshwater wetlands in Louisiana have been eroded or converted to other habitats. If these rates continue, an estimated 4,000 km² of wetlands will be lost in the next 50 years.

The physical processes that cause barrier island erosion and wetlands loss are complex, varied, and poorly understood. There is much debate in technical and academic communities about which of the many contributing processes, both natural and human-induced, are the most significant. There is further controversy over some of the proposed measures to alleviate coastal land loss. Much of the discussion focuses on the reliability of predicted results of a given management, restoration, or erosion mitigation technique. With a better understanding of the processes that cause barrier island erosion and wetland loss, such predictions will become more accurate, and a clearer consensus of how to reduce and mitigate land loss is likely to appear.

The U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) is undertaking two studies of coastal erosion and wetlands loss in Louisiana. The first, the Louisiana Barrier Island Erosion Study, is a cooperative effort with the Louisiana Geological Survey. Begun in fiscal year 1986, the study, as described in Sallenger and Williams (1989), will be completed in fiscal year 1990. During fiscal year 1988, Congress directed the USGS, jointly with the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, to develop a study plan extending the ongoing barrier island research to include coastal wetlands processes.

This plan resulted in the Louisiana Wetlands Loss Study, which was begun in the latter part of fiscal year 1988. The wetlands study is scheduled for completion in 1993. This introduction discusses the role of USGS research in understanding the processes of shoreline erosion and wetlands loss, followed by an overview of the study and an atlas summary

ROLE OF USGS RESEARCH IN COASTAL EROSION AND WETLANDS LOSS MITIGATION

The two current USGS Louisiana studies focus on developing a better understanding of the processes that cause coastal erosion and wetlands loss, particularly the rapid deterioration of Louisiana's barrier islands, estuaries, and associated wetlands environments. With a better understanding of these processes, the ability to predict erosion and wetlands loss should improve. More accurate predictions will, in turn, allow for proper management of coastal resources, such as setting new construction a safe distance from an eroding shoreline. Improved predictions will also allow for better assessments of the utility of different mitigation schemes. For instance, increased understanding of the processes that force sediment and freshwater dispersal over wetlands will make possible more accurate assessments of the practicality and usefulness of large-scale freshwater sediment diversions from the Mississippi River. Understanding the processes responsible for barrier island erosion will also aid in evaluating the relative merits of beach nourishment techniques and using hard coastal engineering structures.

While the USGS conducts relevant research on coastal erosion and land loss, other Federal and State agencies design and construct projects and otherwise implement measures for management of the coastal zone and for mitigation of coastal erosion or wetlands loss. The State of Louisiana, through Article 6 of the Second Extraordinary Session of the 1989 Louisiana Legislature, created the Wetlands Conservation and Restoration Authority within the Office of the Governor, the Office of Coastal Restoration and Management within the Department of Natural Resources, and the statutorily dedicated Wetlands Conservation and Restoration Fund. In March 1990, the Louisiana Wetlands Conservation and Restoration Authority submitted the Coastal Wetlands Conservation and Restoration Plan to the State House and Senate Natural Resource Committees for their approval. This plan proposed both short- and long-term projects to conserve, restore, enhance, and create vegetated wetlands. Also, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers has completed the first phase of the Louisiana Coastal Comprehensive Wetlands Plan to mitigate land loss in Louisiana. In the second phase, the Corps of Engineers is working with appropriate Federal and State agencies, including the USGS, to assess the cost and utility of engineering projects to mitigate land loss.

Most scientists agree that some proposed projects and policies already are supported by an information base sufficient to justify their being undertaken now, without further research. However, for many potential projects, such as the use of hard engineering structures on beaches and large freshwater and sediment diversions, existing information is not sufficient, and decision making and planning will benefit from additional field investigations. Mitigation and control of coastal erosion and wetlands loss thus can be approached through a two-pronged effort. The appropriate Federal and State agencies could implement projects about which sufficient information already exists. At the same time, relevant research should continue on critical processes; this will allow incremental improvement in both erosion and land loss mitigation techniques and in evaluating the success of the implemented projects. The State of Louisiana, through the Wetlands Conservation and Restoration Authority, has provided its recommendations for both action and further research to the Louisiana Legislature in accord with this approach.

OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The Louisiana Barrier Island Erosion Study covers the barrier islands in the delta-plain region of coastal Louisiana. The study focuses on three overlapping elements: geologic framework and development of the barrier islands, processes of barrier island erosion, and transfer and application of results. The first step in identifying erosion processes was to establish the shallow geologic framework within which the barriers formed, eroded, and migrated landward. This analysis, which relies on both stratigraphy and geomorphology, is the basis for a regional model of erosion that incorporates many processes. The study focuses on the important processes that are not well understood but that are approachable experimentally: sea-level rise, storm overwash, onshore-offshore movement of sand, and longshore sediment transport. The methods include direct measurement of waves and currents during storms, computer modeling, and a compilation of historical patterns of erosion and accretion. The results of the study are directly applicable to various practical problems. For example, a better understanding of the rates at which sand is removed from beaches is crucial to determining how often an artificially nourished beach will need to be replenished. Investigations of the geologic framework within which the barriers formed lead to the identification and assessment of offshore sand

resources that can be used for beach nourishment, as well as a greater capacity to accurately forecast future shoreline positions and coastal conditions.

A particularly important finding is the role of barrier islands in protecting the wetlands, bays, and estuaries behind the islands. Barrier islands help reduce wave energy at the margin of wetlands and thus limit mechanical erosion. Barriers also limit storm surge heights and retard saltwater intrusion. The bays between Louisiana's barriers and wetlands are ecologically productive and would be significantly altered if the barriers erode away. Proposals have been made to restore and protect Louisiana's barrier islands in order to preserve estuaries and reduce wetlands loss, but until now there has not been enough information about the erosion processes to make a thorough assessment of their significance. For example, the Corps of Engineers, in a limited feasibility study, estimated that protecting the island of Grand Terre with engineering techniques would limit wetlands loss by 10 percent. This reconnaissance study, based on a modest computer modeling effort, was suitable for problem identification, but not for making the policy decision to proceed nor for developing details of engineering design. The results of the present USGS study will fill that gap by quantitatively assessing the importance of barriers protecting

back-barrier wetland and estuary environments.

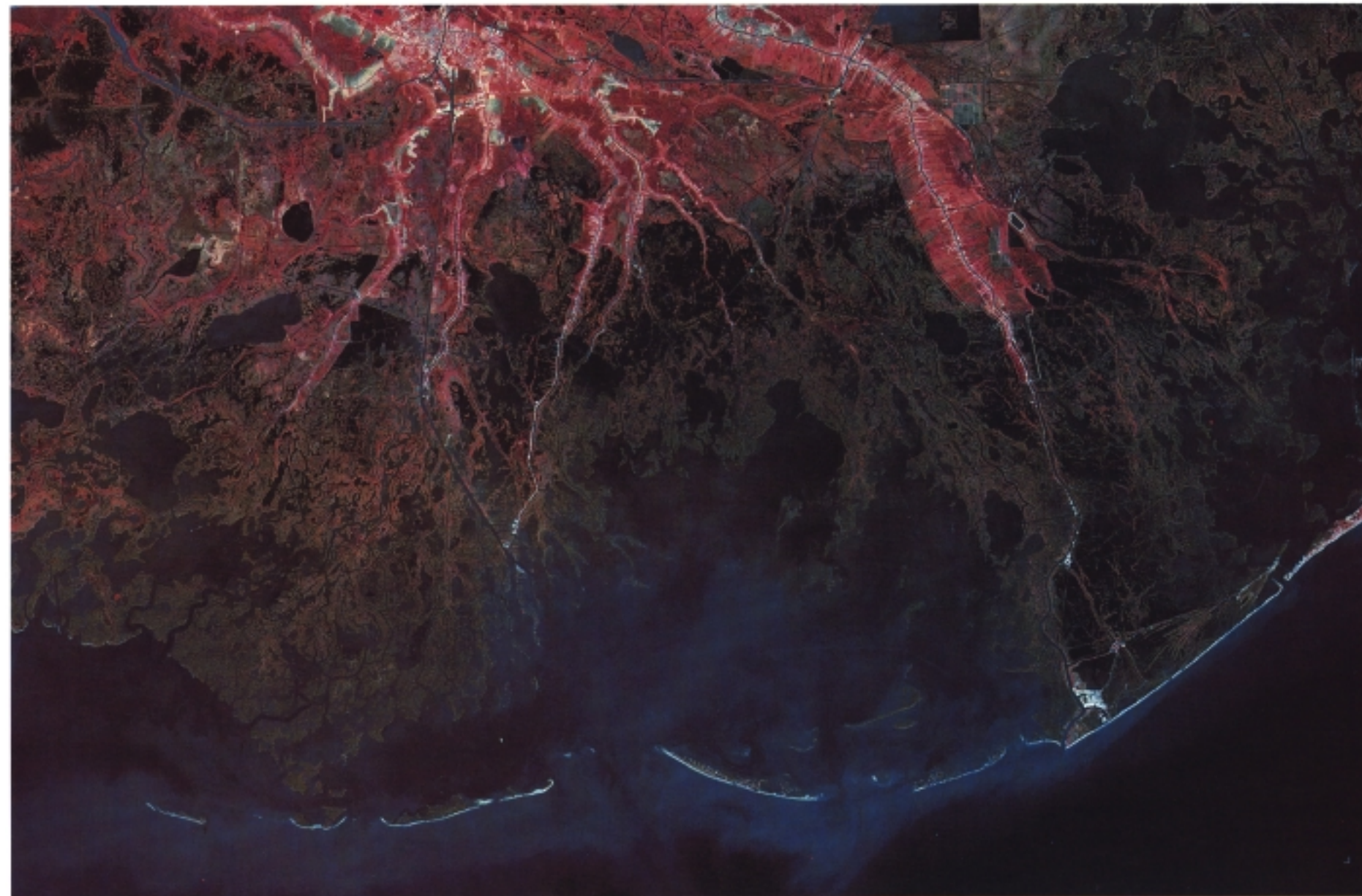
ATLAS SUMMARY AND RESEARCH STUDY RESULTS

This is the first in a series of three atlases and a set of scientific reports and publications that will present the results of the Louisiana Barrier Island Erosion Study. This atlas examines the magnitude and impact of historic shoreline change on the physical and cultural landscape of Louisiana's barrier islands. The ensuing chapters discuss coastal geomorphology and barrier island research in Louisiana over the past 40 years (Chapter 1) and cultural resources in Louisiana's coastal zone (Chapter 2). In Chapter 3, the Louisiana barrier shoreline is depicted in a vertical aerial photo mosaic, and Chapter 4 concludes with an extensive and quantitative compilation of shoreline changes from 1853 to 1989.

Two subsequent atlases will illustrate historical changes in offshore bathymetry (I-2150-B), and the shallow geologic framework (I-2150-C). Along with the series of atlases, which will present the data in maps and graphics with limited interpretation, several narrative reports, to be released as papers and maps, in the scientific literature, will summarize the study's scientific findings. Those reports will discuss the application of the

study's results to the practical problems of erosion and land loss mitigation. This information will contribute to the basic data sets and technical knowledge needed by Federal, State, and local agencies to formulate realistic and cost-effective approaches to coastal restoration and erosion mitigation. In addition, the presentation of the research results in scientific forums and public programs increases the awareness of the public and scientific community that erosion in Louisiana is widespread and a serious problem.

Landsat-5 image of the South Central delta-plain coast of Louisiana by the U.S. Geological Survey as part of the New Orleans, Louisiana Satellite Image Map Folio no. LA1137, 1986 image.



Chapter 1 Barrier Island Erosion and Wetland Loss in Louisiana

by Shea Penland, S. Jeffress Williams, Donald W. Davis, Asbury H. Sallenger, Jr. and C. G. Groat



FIGURE 1.—Coastal erosion and accretion on the U.S. Gulf Coast between 1974 and 1988. (Continued from 114)

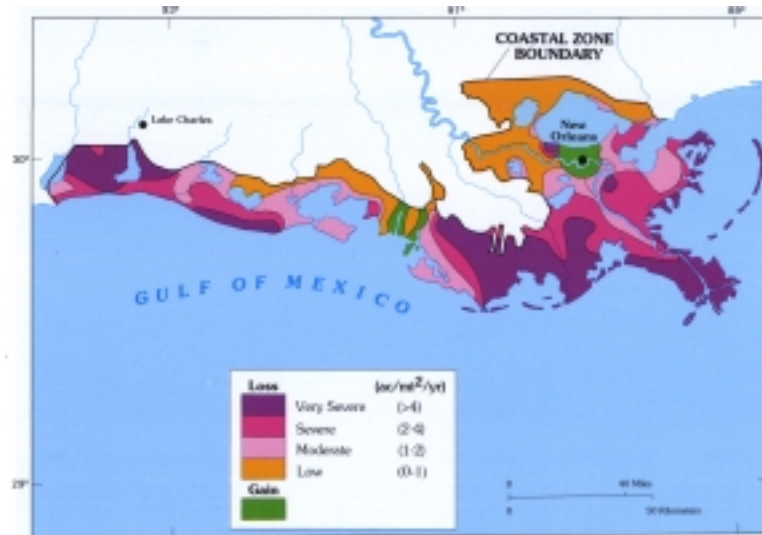


FIGURE 2.—Coastal land loss in Louisiana, 1955-1978 (redrawn and adapted from van Beek and Meyer-Arensch, 1982, p. 16).

TABLE 1.—Contributors to coastal land loss in Louisiana

| Natural | Human-induced |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Delta cycle process | Flood control |
| Subsidence | Canal dredging |
| Estuary | Pipelines |
| Saltwater intrusion | Subsurface fluid withdrawal |
| Storm impact | Slime disposal |
| Water logging | Water pollution |
| Geosynclinal downwarping | Reboicing |
| Herbivory | |

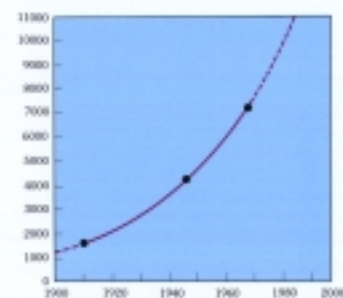


FIGURE 4.—Coastal land loss, in ha/yr, in Louisiana's Mississippi River delta plain, 1955-1978. (data from Gagliano and others, 1981, p. 238).

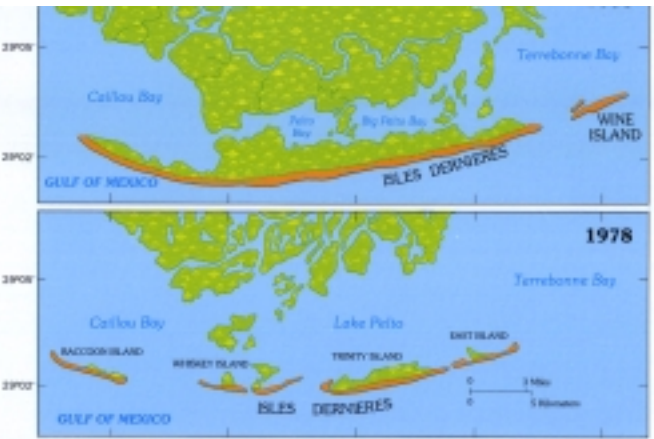


FIGURE 3.—Shoreline change in the Isles Dernieres, 1853-1978 (redrawn and adapted, by permission, from Penland and Boyd, 1981, p. 234; © 1981 by IEEE).

TABLE 2.—Solutions to Louisiana's coastal land loss problem

| Tactics | Relative costs |
|----------------------------------|----------------|
| Strategic management and retreat | \$\$\$\$ |
| Sediment diversions | \$\$\$ |
| Marsh management | \$\$ |
| Coastal erosion control | \$ |
| Research and development | ¢ |

(Reprinted from Penland and others, 1990a, p. 686.)

INTRODUCTION

Coastal erosion and wetland loss are serious and widespread national problems with long-term economic and social consequences (fig. 1). The highest rates of erosion and wetland loss in the United States, and possibly the world, are found in coastal Louisiana (Morgan and Larimore, 1957; Gagliano and van Beek, 1970; Adams and others, 1978; Gosselink and others, 1979; Craig and others, 1980; Wicker, 1980; Sasser and others, 1986; Walker and others, 1987; Coleman and Roberts, 1989; Britsch and Kemp, 1990, Dunbar and others, 1990; Penland and others, 1990a; Williams and others, 1990). Louisiana's barrier systems protect an extensive estuarine system from offshore waves and saltwater intrusion from the Gulf of Mexico, but these islands are being rapidly eroded (Peyronnin, 1962; Penland and Boyd, 1981, 1982; Morgan and Morgan, 1983). The disappearance of Louisiana's barrier systems will result in the destruction of the large estuarine bay systems and the acceleration of wetland loss.

Coastal land loss severely impacts the fur, fish, and waterfowl industries, valued at an estimated \$1 billion per year, as well as the environmental quality and public safety of south Louisiana's citizens (Gagliano and van Beek, 1970; Gosselink, 1984; Turner and Cahoon, 1987; Chabreck, 1988; Davis, 1990a; Davis, 1990b). In addition, the region's renewable resource base depends on the habitat provided by the fragile estuarine ecosystems. Understanding the geomorphological processes, both natural and human-induced (table 1), that control barrier island erosion, estuarine deterioration, and wetland loss in Louisiana is essential to evaluating the performance of the various restoration, protection, and management methods currently envisioned or employed (Penland and others, 1990a).

The challenge of coping with and combatting coastal erosion and wetland loss grows as the Gulf Coast population becomes more concentrated and dependent upon coastal areas. The Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) and National Research Council (NRC) have predicted that the rates of sea level rise will increase over the next century, which will result in dramatically accelerated coastal land loss (Barth and Titus, 1984; National Research Council, 1987). Because of its geologic setting, Louisiana provides a worst-case scenario for the future coastal conditions predicted by the EPA and NRC. More importantly, Louisiana's coastal problems illustrate the importance of understanding the processes driving coastal land loss. Many solutions to coastal land loss problems emphasize stopping the result of the geologic process and give inadequate consideration to the process itself. This approach results in engineering solutions that rely on expensive brute force rather than more sophisticated, less expensive approaches that operate in concert with natural processes revealed by scientific study (Penland and Suter, 1988a). This lack of understanding leads to oversimplified concepts and the false hope that easy solutions exist. A key objective of the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) and Louisiana Geological Survey (LGS) cooperative coastal research program is to improve our knowledge and understanding of the processes and patterns of coastal land loss in order to help develop a strategy to conserve and restore coastal Louisiana.

COASTAL LAND LOSS

Behind Louisiana's protective barrier systems lie extensive estuaries that are rapidly disintegrating because of pond development, bay expansion, coastal erosion, and human impacts (Morgan, 1967). The chronic problem of wetland loss in Louisiana is well documented but poorly understood (Wicker 1980; Britsch and Kemp, 1990; Dunbar and others, 1990). Previous studies show that coastal land loss has persisted and accelerated since the 1900's. Much speculation and debate in the research, governmental, and environmental communities surrounds the issue of coastal land loss, the natural and human-induced processes that drive coastal change, and the strategy for coastal protection and restoration (table 2) (Penland and others, 1990a).

Coastal land loss is the result of a set of processes that convert land to water. Coastal **change** is a more complex concept. It describes the set of processes driving the conversion of one geomorphic habitat type into another. Coastal land loss and change typically involve first the conversion of vegetated wetlands to an estuarine water body, followed by barrier system destruction and the conversion of the estuarine water bodies to less productive open water. There are two major types of coastal land loss: coastal erosion and wetland loss. Coastal erosion is the retreat of the shoreline along the exposed coasts of large lakes, bays, and the Gulf of Mexico. In contrast, wetland loss is the development of ponds and lakes in the interior wetlands and the expansion of large coastal bays behind the barrier islands and mainland shoreline (Penland and others, 1990a).

COASTAL EROSION

Shoreline change in Louisiana averages -4.2 m/yr with a standard deviation of 3.3 and a range of +3.4 to -15.3 m/yr (U.S. Geological Survey, 1988) (table B1 in appendix B). This is the average of long-term (over 50-year) conditions per unit length of 600 km of shoreline. The average Gulf of Mexico shoreline change rate is -1.8 m/yr, the highest in the United States. By comparison, the Atlantic is being eroded at an average rate of 0.8 m/yr, while the Pacific coast is relatively stable with an average rate of change of 0.0 m/yr (U.S. Geological Survey, 1988). Most coastal erosion in Louisiana is concentrated on the barrier systems that front the Mississippi River delta plain (fig. 2).

Coastal erosion is not a steady process; bursts of erosion occur during and after the passage of major cold fronts, tropical storms, and hurricanes (Harper, 1977; Penland and Ritchie, 1979; Dingler and Reiss, 1988; Ritchie and Penland, 1988; Dingler and Reiss, 1990). Field measurements have documented 20-30 m of coastal erosion during a single 3- to 4-day storm. These major storms produce energetic overwash conditions that erode the beach and produce a lower-relief barrier landscape (Penland and others, 1989a; Penland and others, 1990a). This beach erosion has resulted in a significant (41 percent) decrease in the total area of Louisiana's barrier islands, from 98.6 km² in 1880 to 57.8 km² in 1980—a rate of 0.41 km²/yr (Penland and Boyd, 1982).

The Isles Dernieres, in Terrebonne Parish, have the highest rate of coastal erosion of any Louisiana barrier system (fig. 3). From 1890 to 1988, the Isles Dernieres shoreline was eroded 1,644 m at an average rate of 16.8 m/yr. The most erosion took place in the central barrier island arc at Whiskey Island, where the beach retreated a total of 2,573 m at an average rate of 26.3 m/yr. This erosion resulted in a 77 percent decrease in the total area of the Isles Dernieres, from 3,360 ha in 1890 to 771 ha in 1988—an average rate of 26.4 ha/yr (Penland and Boyd, 1981; McBride and others, 1989a). Of immediate threat to Louisiana, and particularly to Terrebonne and Lafourche parishes, is the predicted loss of the Isles Dernieres by the early 21st century. Coastal erosion is expected to destroy East Island first, by 1998, and Trinity Island ultimately, by 2007. After the Isles Dernieres are destroyed, the stability and quality of the Terrebonne Bay barrier-built estuary and the associated coastal wetlands will be dramatically diminished (Penland and others, 1990a).

WETLAND LOSS

Louisiana contains at least 40 percent of the Nation's coastal wetlands, but is suffering 80 percent of its wetland loss. Most of the 4,697,100 ha of coastal wetlands found in the continental United States (except the Great Lakes area) lie along the Atlantic coast (52.7 percent) and the northern Gulf of Mexico (45.8 percent). Louisiana contains 55.5 percent of the northern Gulf of Mexico's coastal wetlands, or 1,193,900 ha (Alexander and others, 1986; Reyer and others, 1988) (table B2 in appendix B).

Within Louisiana, the Mississippi River delta plain comprises 995,694 ha of salt marsh, fresh marsh, and swamp, representing 74 percent of the State's coastal wetlands. The chenier plain accounts for the remaining 26 percent or 347,593 ha. Cameron Parish (on the chenier plain) has the largest expanses of salt and fresh marsh of a single parish, a total of 302,033 ha. Terrebonne Parish has the delta plain's largest expanse of coastal wetlands, with 233,711 ha, followed by Plaquemines Parish with 167,980 ha, Lafourche Parish with 118,224 ha, and St. Bernard Parish, with 104,906 ha (Alexander and others, 1986) (table B3 in appendix B). Louisiana's wetland parishes constitute the single largest concentration of coastal marshes in the contiguous United States.

The current rate of coastal land loss in south Louisiana is estimated to be over 12,000 ha/yr; 80 percent of the loss occurs in the delta plain (fig. 4) and 20 percent in the chenier plain (Gosselink and others, 1979; Gagliano and others, 1981). Previous studies indicate that the rate of coastal land loss has accelerated over the last 75 years. Rates of loss within the delta plain alone have increased from 1,735 ha/yr in 1913, to 4,092 ha/yr in 1946, to 7,278 ha/yr in 1967, and finally to 10,205 ha/yr in 1980. In 1978, it was estimated that accelerating coastal land loss would destroy Lafourche Parish in 205 years, St. Bernard Parish in 152 years, Terrebonne Parish in 102 years, and Plaquemines Parish in 52 years (Gagliano and others, 1981).

New research indicates that coastal land loss is proceeding more slowly now than it did in the 1970's; further, today's loss rate is lower than it was expected to be. Britsch and Kemp's (1990) mapping study of coastal land loss used 50 15-minute USGS quadrangle maps of the Mississippi River delta plain and 1932-1933 U.S. Coast and Geodetic Survey Air Photo Compilation sheets (1:20,000 original scale) for interpretation for 1956-1958, 1974, and 1983. Coastal land loss rate curves were generated for each quadrangle and the entire delta plain. This study showed that rates increased after the 1930's from 3,339 ha/yr during the 1956-1958 period to 7,257 ha/yr in 1974 (Britsch and Kemp, 1990). After 1974, the land loss rate decreased to 5,949 ha/yr in 1983 (fig. 5). This rate corresponds closely to those measured by Gagliano and others (1981) through 1967; however, the maximum land loss rate for 1978 exceeded the maximum land loss rate from Britsch and Kemp (1990) for 1974.

LOUISIANA BARRIER SYSTEMS

Bayou Lafourche

The Bayou Lafourche barrier system forms the seaward geologic framework of the eastern Terrebonne and western Barataria basins in Terrebonne, Lafourche, and Jefferson parishes; the system consists of Timbalier Island, East Timbalier Island, the Caminada-Moreau Headland, Caillou Island, and Grand Isle (fig. 11). The system stretches over 60 km between Cat Island Pass and Barataria Pass, enclosing Timbalier Bay and Caminada Bay (Penland and others, 1986b). Little Pass Timbalier, Raccoon Pass, and Caminada Pass connect these back-barrier water bodies with the Gulf of Mexico. The Caminada-Moreau Headland is a low-profile mainland beach with marsh and mangrove cropping out on the lower beach face, reflecting rapid shoreline retreat.

Over the last 300 years, erosion of the Caminada-Moreau Headland has supplied sand for barrier island development. The amount of sediment in the surf zone increases downdrift to the east and west away from the central headland, leading to the development of higher-relief washover terraces (fig. 12). These landforms eventually coalesce farther downdrift to form a higher, more continuous dune terrace, and a continuous foredune ridge on the margins of the Caminada-Moreau Headland. Continuous dunes are also found on the downdrift ends of the Timbalier Islands and Grand Isle. The Caminada spit is attached to the eastern side of this abandoned deltaic headland. The Timbalier Islands and Grand Isle also are laterally-migrating, flanking barrier islands built by recurved spit processes.

Flanking barrier islands typically are formed through a series of processes that includes recurved spit building, longshore spit extension, subsequent hurricane impact and breaching, and island formation. The morphology of Timbalier Island and Grand Isle reflects the geomorphic imprint of the recurved spit process. The recent (1887-1978) history of the Bayou Lafourche barrier system illustrates erosion of the central headland with concurrent development and lateral migration of the flanking barrier islands (fig. 13).

Plaquemines

The Plaquemines barrier system, which derives its name from the abandoned Plaquemines distributary network of the Modern delta complex, forms the seaward geologic framework of the eastern Barataria basin in Jefferson and Plaquemines parishes (fig. 14). The system is 40-50 km long and consists of the Grand Terre Islands attached to the Robinson Bayou and Grand Bayou headlands and Shell Island attached to the Dry Cypress Bayou headland. It encloses Barataria Bay, Bay Ronquille, Bay La Mer, Bastian Bay, and many other smaller water bodies. Barataria Pass, Pass Abel, Quatre Bayou Pass, Pass Ronquille, Pass La Mer, Chaland Pass, Grand Bayou Pass, and Schofield Pass are the major tidal inlets that connect the back-barrier areas with the Gulf of Mexico. The morphology varies from washover flats and terraces concentrated in headland areas to dunes and dune terraces concentrated on the flanking barrier islands (Ritchie and others, 1990).

Grand Terre is the largest flanking barrier island of the Plaquemines barrier system. Erosion of the Bayou Robinson and Grand Bayou headlands over the last 400 years has supplied sand for the northwest extension of Grand Terre across the southern entrance to the Barataria basin. Repeated hurricanes and barrier island breaching, combined with an increasing tidal prism in Barataria Bay, has led to the development of Pass Abel and Quatre Bayou Pass over the last 100 years, dividing Grand Terre (fig. 15).

Shell Island is the second-largest flanking barrier island in the Plaquemines system. Enclosing Bastian Bay, Shell Island at one time protected this prolific oyster ground from the direct influence of the Gulf of Mexico. With construction of the Empire jetties and placement of a shore-parallel pipeline system, the natural pattern of sediment transport was disrupted, leading to the breaching of Shell Island by Hurricane Bob in 1979. In recent years, this breach has been dramatically enlarged, allowing open water to destroy much of the Bastian Bay oyster grounds (fig. 16).

Isles Dernieres

The Isles Dernieres barrier system forms the seaward geologic framework of the southwestern Terrebonne basin in Terrebonne Parish (fig. 17). "Isle Derniere" means Last Island in Cajun French and was used in the 1800's to describe a single large island not separated by tidal inlets. Today, the plural form, Isles Dernieres, is used to account for the multiple islands and tidal inlets. The barrier island arc consists of four main islands: Raccoon Island, Whiskey Island, Trinity Island, and East Island. More than 30 km long, the Isles Dernieres enclose Caillou Bay, Lake Peltó, and Terrebonne Bay, which are connected to the Gulf of Mexico by Boca Caillou, Coupe Colin, Whiskey Pass, Coupe Carmen, Coupe Juan, Wine Island Pass, and Cat Island Pass. Whiskey Island and Trinity Island are dominated by washover flats and terraces (Ritchie and others, 1989). Raccoon Island is dominated by washover and dune terraces and East Island by dune terraces and continuous dunes.

The Isles Dernieres barrier system originated from the erosion of the Bayou Petit Caillou headland distributaries and beach ridges over the last 600-800 years (Penland and others, 1985; Penland and others, 1987a). Coastal changes in the Caillou headland observed between 1853 and 1978 illustrate the transition from an erosional headland into a barrier island arc (see fig. 9). In 1853, Peltó and Big Peltó bays separated the Caillou headland and the flanking barriers from the mainland by a narrow tidal channel less than 500 m wide. By 1978, the size of these bays had increased three-fold and they had coalesced to form Lake Peltó. During this period, the Gulf shoreline of the Caillou headland eroded landward over 1 km. The Isles Dernieres now lie several kilometers seaward of the retreating mainland, and at current rates, they will be destroyed by 2007 (McBride and others, 1989a).

Chandeleur

The Chandeleur barrier island arc forms the seaward geologic framework of the St. Bernard delta complex (Treadwell, 1955; Penland and others, 1985; Suter and others, 1988). It encloses the Mississippi River delta plain's largest barrier-built estuary (fig. 18). Over 75 km long, the Chandeleur Islands enclose Breton Sound and Chandeleur Sound in Plaquemines and St. Bernard parishes, and incorporate Chandeleur Island, Curlew Island, Grand Gosier Island (north and south) and Breton Island (north and south). The tidal inlets separating the southern islands include Pass Curlew, Grand Gosier Pass, and Breton Island Pass. The Chandeleur Islands derive their name from the Catholic candle mass, which was performed on the islands several hundred years ago.

The Chandeleur Islands are the oldest transgressive barrier island arc found on the Mississippi River delta plain and are the product of the erosion of the St. Bernard delta complex over the last 1,500 years. The arc's asymmetric shape is the result of its oblique orientation to the dominant southeast wave approach, which leads to the northward transport of sediment. Toward the north, the Chandeleur Islands' morphology is dominated by large washover fans and flood-tidal deltas separated by hummocky dune fields. The islands' wide beaches, with multiple bars in the surf zone, reflect an abundance of sediment. To the south, island widths narrow, heights decrease, and washover channels and fans give way to discontinuous washover terraces and flats. Farther south, the island arc fragments into a series of small, ephemeral islands and shoals separated by tidal inlets.

The Chandeleur Islands have historically retreated landward, undergoing fragmentation by hurricane impact and subsequent rebuilding (fig. 19). Chandeleur and Breton sounds average 3-5 m deep and separate the Chandeleur Island arc from the retreating mainland shoreline by a lagoon more than 20 km wide.



FIGURE 11.— Coastal environments of the Bayou Lafourche barrier system (redrawn from Penland and others, 1986b, p. 19).

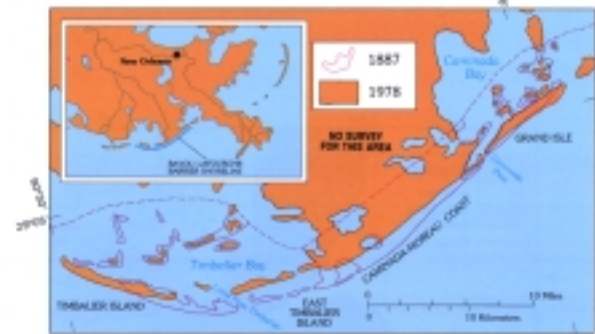


FIGURE 13.— Shoreline change along the Bayou Lafourche barrier system, 1887-1978 (redrawn from Penland and Boyd, 1985, p. 89).



FIGURE 14.— Coastal environments of the Plaquemines barrier system (redrawn, by permission, from Boyd and Penland, 1988, p. 449, © 1988 by the Gulf Coast Association of Geological Societies).

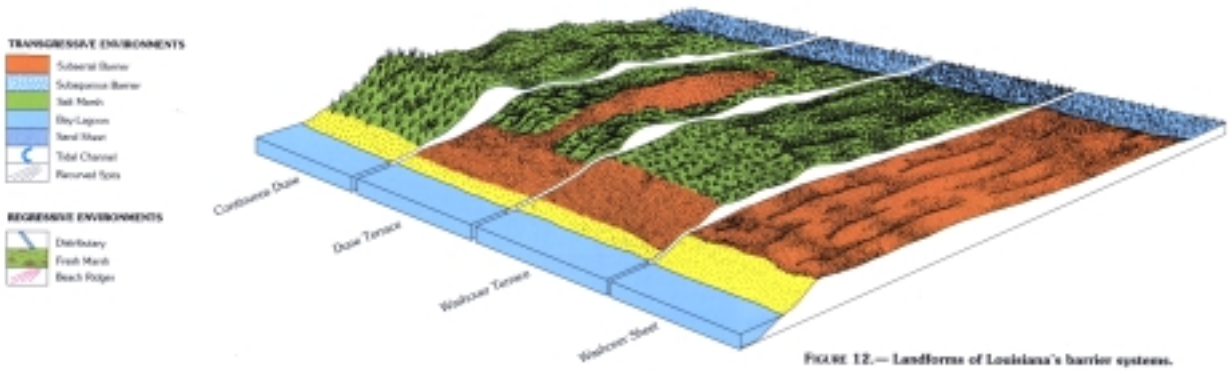


FIGURE 12.— Landforms of Louisiana's barrier systems.

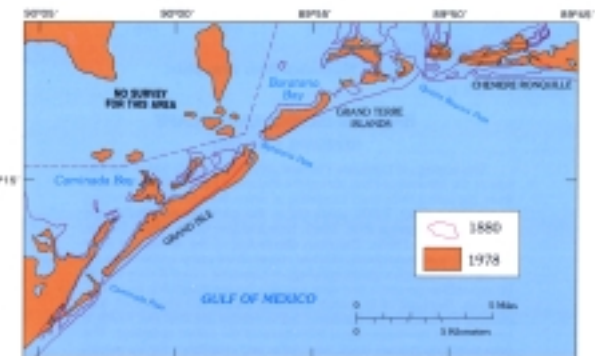


FIGURE 15.— Shoreline change at Grand Terre, 1880-1978 (redrawn, by permission, from Penland and Suter, 1988a, p. 335, © 1988 by the Gulf Coast Association of Geological Societies).

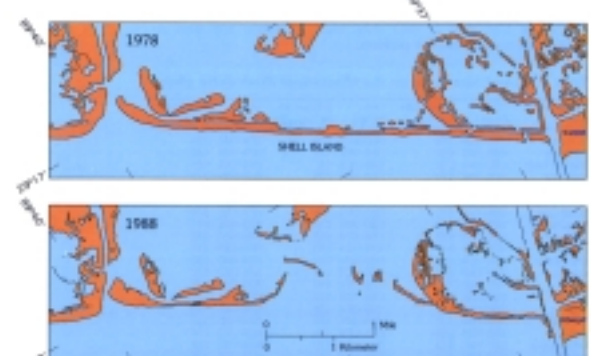


FIGURE 16.— Shoreline change at Shell Island, 1978-1988 (redrawn, by permission, from Penland and Suter, 1988a, p. 337, © 1988 by the Gulf Coast Association of Geological Societies).

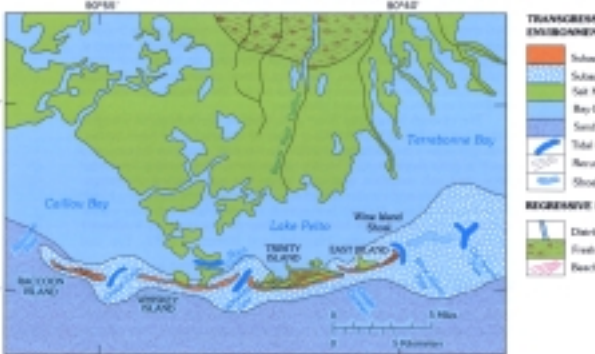


FIGURE 17.— Coastal environments of the Isles Dernieres barrier system (redrawn and adopted, by permission, from Penland and Suter, 1983, p. 370, © 1988 by the Gulf Coast Association of Geological Societies).

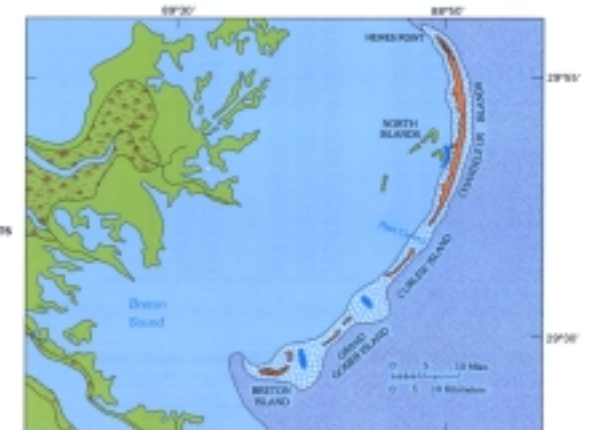


FIGURE 18.— Coastal environments of the Chandeleur barrier system (redrawn, by permission, from Penland and others, 1988a, p. 909, © 1988 by the Society of Economic Paleontologists and Mineralogists).

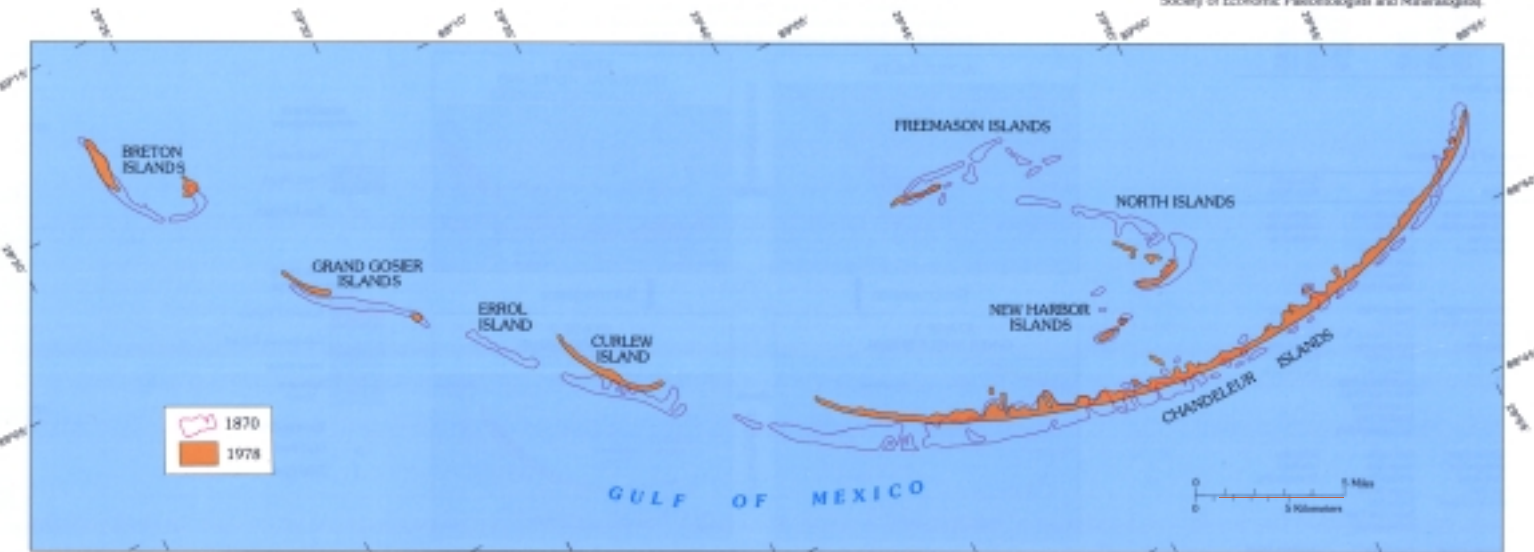


FIGURE 19.— Shoreline change on the Chandeleur Islands, 1870-1978 (redrawn, by permission, from Penland and others, 1985, p. 220, © 1985 by Elsevier Science Publishers).

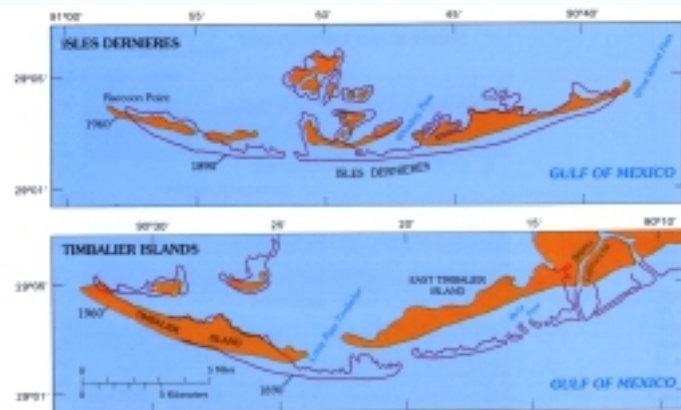


FIGURE 20.— Shoreline change on the Isles Dernieres and Timbalier Islands between 1890 and 1960 (redrawn, by permission, from Peyromin, 1962; © 1962 by the American Society of Civil Engineers).



FIGURE 21.— Rate of shoreline change in eastern Louisiana, 1812-1954 and 1954-1969 (redrawn from Morgan and Morgan, 1983, p. 111).

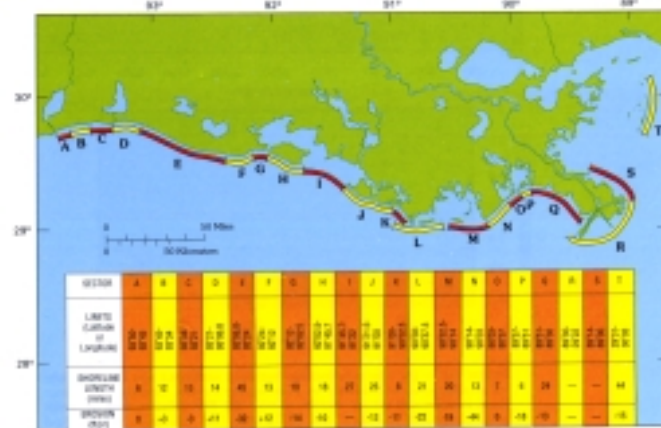


FIGURE 22.— Natural sectors used to evaluate shoreline and areal change on Louisiana's coast (redrawn from Morgan and Morgan, 1983, p. 14).

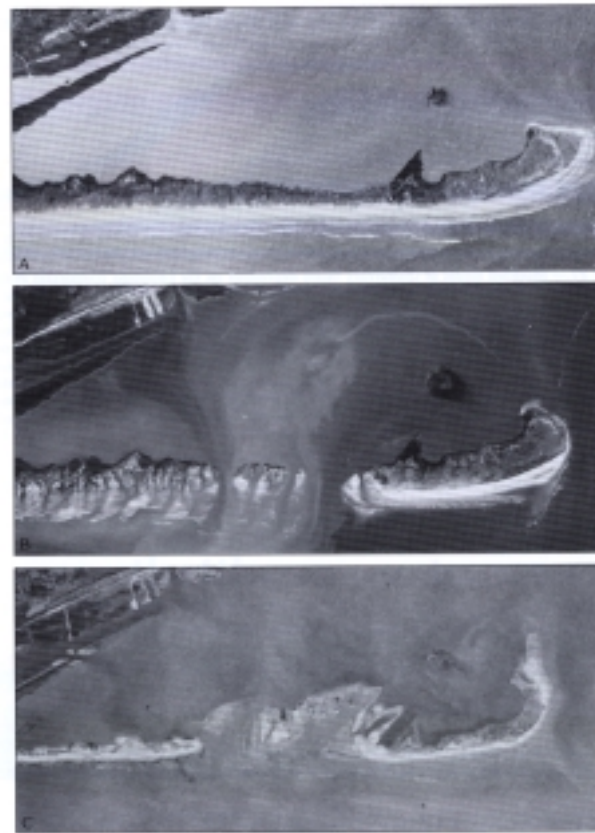


FIGURE 24.— Historical breaching at the Caminada spit. (A) Pre-breach conditions in 1950. (B) After Hurricane Flossy in 1956; note the pattern of seaward-oriented overwash features. (C) After Hurricane Betsy in 1965; note the pattern of landward-oriented overwash features. (Photos from U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, New Orleans District.)

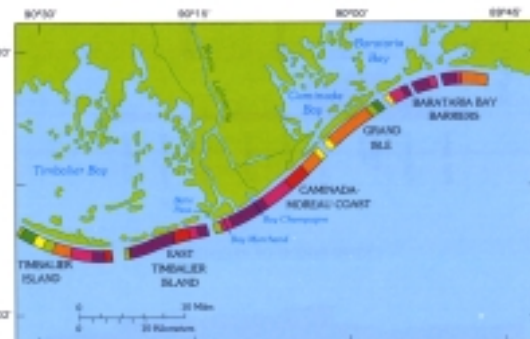


FIGURE 23.— Distribution and rate of shoreline change on the Bayou Lafourche barrier system (redrawn from Penland and Boyd, 1982, p. 254).

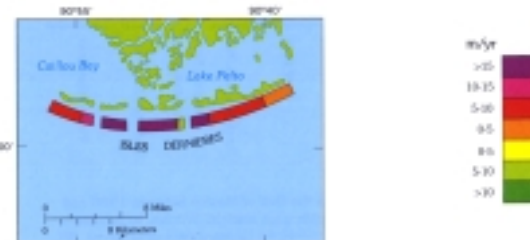


FIGURE 25.— Distribution and rate of shoreline change for the Isles Dernieres barrier system (redrawn from Penland and Boyd, 1982, p. 32).

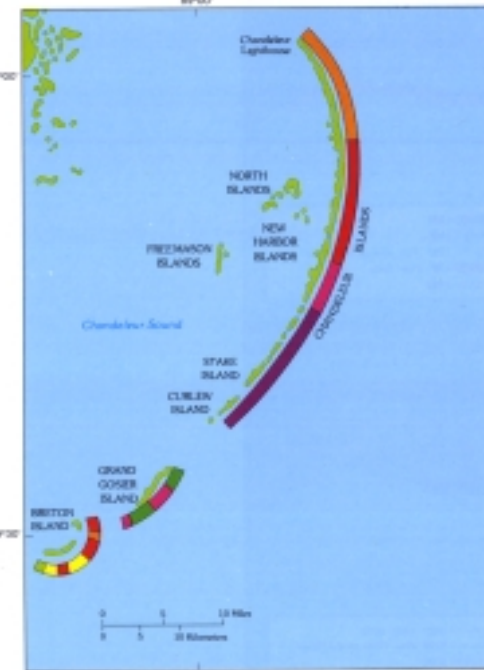


FIGURE 26.— Distribution and rate of shoreline change for the Chandeleur barrier system (redrawn from Penland and Boyd, 1982, p. 34).

BARRIER ISLAND EROSION RESEARCH

PREVIOUS RESEARCH U.S. Army Corps of Engineers

The U.S. Army Corps of Engineers has conducted several regional planning studies since the 1930's to facilitate the design of beach erosion projects. The Corps of Engineers' first detailed barrier island erosion study was conducted for Grand Isle in 1936; subsequent coastal erosion reports were issued for Grand Isle in 1955, 1962, 1972, and 1980 (U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, 1936, 1978, 1980). All of these investigations analyzed the erosion conditions along the coast, reviewed the causative processes, and proposed and analyzed several designs for beach protection.

The most comprehensive study of Grand Isle was the 1980 Corps of Engineers report, which contains extensive information on coastal erosion, coastal processes, sand resources, and designs for the Corps of Engineers' beach erosion and hurricane protection project, which was built in 1984. Combe and Soileau (1987) reported on the successful performance of this project at Grand Isle during and after Hurricanes Danny Elena, and Juan in 1985.

Another series of studies concentrated on coastal geomorphology, shallow subsurface geology, coastal processes, and coastal erosion in the area between Racoon Point and Belle Pass, which includes the Isles Dernieres and the Timbalier Islands (Peyromin, 1962). It was reported that at Belle Pass the coast had been eroded 2,027 m between 1890 and 1960 (fig. 20). The Timbalier Islands were reported to be undergoing erosion at the rate of 10-30 m/yr, and the Isles Dernieres at a rate of 8-10 m/yr. Peyromin (1962) estimated that the total material lost from these islands between 1890 and 1954 was 84,100,000 m³ at a rate of net loss of 1,911,500 m³/yr. Peyromin (1962) concluded that the barrier islands between Racoon Point and Belle Pass are important defenses against sea attack on the mainland, and recommended beach nourishment as the most viable remedial action.

The Corps of Engineers updated the 1962 Racoon Point-to-Belle Pass report in 1975 (U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, 1975a). The shoreline change history was updated from 1959 to 1969; beach erosion had accelerated and the land loss rates were placed at 60 ha/yr. This report also evaluated a variety of erosion control scenarios, including no action, beach nourishment, barrier restoration, and building rock seawalls. The recommended plan was the construction of earthen dikes designed to close existing breaches in the barrier islands, and a maintenance procedure to close future breaches. The Corps of Engineers (1975a) estimated that this project would preserve more than 1,950 ha of marshlands over the next 10 years. Another Corps of Engineers (1975b) report indicated that, if the barrier islands were left unprotected, the Isles Dernieres and Timbalier Islands would continue to deteriorate and wetland loss could approach 16,500 ha of marshland over the next 50 years.

The Corps of Engineers' first comprehensive inventory of the coastal erosion problem in Louisiana was part of a national shoreline study of the extent and nature of shoreline erosion, which culminated in the publication of an atlas (U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, 1971). The atlas identified the physical characteristics of the Louisiana shoreline, historical changes, and the ownership and use of the coastal areas.

Louisiana Attorney General

The first comprehensive study of coastal erosion in Louisiana was conducted by Morgan and Larimore (1957) for the Office of the Attorney General of the State of Louisiana (Morgan, 1955). At the time, Louisiana was engaged in a dispute with the Federal government about the ownership of offshore oil and gas rights. The study aimed to document the historical trends in coastal change in order to establish the position of the State's 1812 shoreline, which was critical in determining Louisiana's three-mile limit.

The study used historical cartographic data dating back to 1838 from the U.S. Coast and Geodetic Survey (formerly the U.S. Coastal Survey and currently the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration [NOAA]), the USGS, the Corps of Engineers, and the State of Louisiana. Aerial photographs from 1932 and 1954 were analyzed to update the historical maps. Measurements of shoreline change were made at intervals of one minute of longitude from the Texas border to the Mississippi border. For continuity, all maps were enlarged or reduced to a common scale of 1:20,000.

The erosion rates around the Mississippi River delta plain ranged from 2.8 to 18.9 m/yr (Morgan and Larimore, 1957). Only the mouth of the Mississippi River was mapped as accretional. The most severe erosion was taking place on the Timbalier Islands and the Caminada-Moreau Headland. Morgan and Larimore (1957) interpreted the regional variation in shoreline change as a function of geologic control due to natural subsidence. Because young deltas subside faster than older ones, the higher rates of coastal erosion were found on recently abandoned delta complexes.

Using newer aerial photography and the same method of analysis, Morgan and Morgan (1983) updated that study to 1969 (figs. 21 and 22). Measurements were again made every minute of longitude and supplemented with measurements of changes in land area. The average shoreline erosion rate in Louisiana between 1932 and 1954 was measured at 2.0 m/yr (Morgan and Larimore, 1957); it increased to 5.2 m/yr between 1954 and 1969 (Morgan and Morgan, 1983). The loss of land area followed a similar pattern. Morgan and Morgan (1983) calculated a loss rate of 144.4 ha/yr to shoreline erosion between 1932 and 1954 and an increase in the rate to 171.4 ha/yr for the 1954-1969 period. This increase represents a change from 0.5 ha/yr per mile of coast (1932-1954) to 0.6 ha/yr per mile of coast (1954-1969). The erosion rates on the barrier islands from the Isles Dernieres and the Timbalier Islands as far east as the Caminada-Moreau Headland slowed from 11.2 to 7.0 m/yr and from 18.9 to 11.3 m/yr, respectively. In contrast, the erosion rates in the Barataria Bight and Chandeleur Islands increased from 4.9 to 5.2 m/yr and from 4.2 to 5.5 m/yr, respectively. Morgan and Morgan (1983) suggested that the increasing rates of erosion were associated with areas of more extensive human impacts.

Louisiana Department of Transportation and Development

Using the same methods, Adams and others (1978) updated the Morgan and Larimore (1957) study from 1954 to 1974, to make the third statewide assessment of shoreline change. The study was subdivided into eight management units to assess the patterns of erosion and accretion along lake shores, tidal inlets, and interior marshes. The Terrebonne and Barataria basin shorelines were found to be subject to the most erosion in the State; they retreated 207 m between 1954 and 1969 at a rate of 13.8 m/yr. Erosion on the Chandeleur Islands was found to be proceeding at a slower rate, 5.4 m/yr.

Louisiana Department of Natural Resources

The first comprehensive study focusing on Louisiana's barrier islands was conducted by the Laboratory for Wetland Soils and Sediments at Louisiana State University between 1978 and 1983 under the sponsorship of NOAA's Office of Coastal Zone Management (Mendelsohn and others, 1986). The analysis of shoreline change was based on two independent sets of data. Changes in Gulf shoreline positions were derived by applying the Orthogonal Grid Mapping System technique to a series of historical aerial photographs and National Ocean Survey T-charts; this produced a high-water line location for every 100 m of shoreline (Shabica and others, 1984). The data base for the Chandeleur Islands included eight sets of imagery for the 1922-1978 period; the rest of Louisiana's barrier islands were covered by 12 sets of imagery from 1934 to 1978. The second data set was obtained by digitizing the surface area of each barrier island on the Louisiana coast. This method analyzed U.S. Coast and Geodetic Survey maps for 1869-1956 together with a series of land cover maps (scale 1:50,000) based on 1979 aerial photography. The results were presented as a time series of variation in island area (Penland and Boyd, 1981, 1982).

The most serious shoreline erosion problems identified were along the Caminada-Moreau Headland, where erosion rates ranged from 10 to 20 m/yr (fig. 23). The highest rate of shoreline retreat measured for the 44-year period was 22.3 m/yr in the vicinity of Bays Marchand and Champagne. Erosion rates decreased eastward to 9.6 m/yr at Bayou Moreau. Field measurements made along the Caminada-Moreau Headland in 1979 showed that tropical cyclones eroded the shoreline more than 40 m over 70 percent of the total erosion for that year (Penland and Boyd, 1982).

Erosion rates in the Belle Pass area were found to have averaged 18.6 m/yr before 1954; after that, shoreline erosion slowed, and switched to accretion after 1969. In 1934, jetties 150 m long and 60 m wide were built at Belle Pass to improve the navigation channel at Bayou Lafourche. The jetty system had little effect on the local sediment dispersal pattern; the shoreline continued to be eroded at rates averaging 18 m/yr, with no significant updrift sand accumulation. In fact, the system had to be extended landward several times to keep pace with the retreating shoreline. In 1968, however, the jetties were expanded to 220 m long and 140 m wide and the channel was dredged to a depth of 6 m, expanded to a width of 90 m, and extended 2 km offshore. After that, sedimentation began taking place along the eastern side of Belle Pass. Since 1969, accretion rates there have averaged 5.5 m/yr; the area is a sink for material that would otherwise be transported farther west to the Timbalier Islands (Dantin and others, 1978).

Timbalier Island and East Timbalier Island are the western-flanking barriers of the Caminada-Moreau Headland. East Timbalier Island, a marginal recurved spit, is being eroded at a rate of over 15 m/yr. Updrift erosion and downdrift accretion cause the rapid lateral migration of these islands. Timbalier Island, for example, has been eroded on its updrift end at an average rate of 18.6 m/yr. Downdrift, erosion decreases and switches to accretion at the western end, averaging 17.4 m/yr.

Between 1935 and 1956, the combined area of the Timbalier Islands increased, reflecting the low frequency of tropical storms during that period. After 1956, the area of both islands began decreasing rapidly. These reductions were determined to be a result of the extension of the jetties at Belle Pass and the seawall along East Timbalier Island. The structures interrupted the transport of sediment from its source within the Caminada-Moreau Headland (Penland and Boyd, 1982).

East of the Caminada-Moreau Headland, the rates of shoreline change were found to vary from 5 m/yr of erosion on the west where the Caminada spit is attached to the erosional headland, to near stability adjacent to Caminada Pass. This pattern of shoreline change reflects the increasing sediment abundance in the nearshore zone, downdrift toward Grand Isle. The Caminada spit was breached several times in this century by hurricane landfall; the major breaches were caused by Hurricane Flossy in 1956 and Hurricane Betsy in 1965 (fig. 24). These breaches were unstable and filled rapidly because of the ready supply of sediment from the Caminada-Moreau Headland (Penland and Boyd, 1982).

Before 1972, the western end of Grand Isle adjacent to Caminada Pass had been eroded, while accretion had occurred on its downdrift, eastern end at Barataria Pass. With construction of the jetty system on the western shore of Caminada Pass in 1973, the west-end erosion temporarily stopped. Before jetty construction at Barataria Pass in 1958, the eastern end of Grand Isle had accreted 3-6 m/yr; after that it increased to over 10 m/yr. The land area of Grand Isle increased from 7.8 km² in 1956 to 8.8 km² in 1978. This increase has been attributed to repeated beach nourishment projects and to the construction of the Barataria Pass and Caminada Pass jetties (Penland and Boyd, 1982).

The highest erosion rates found within the Isles Dernieres (over 15 m/yr) were along the central portion of the island arc (fig. 25). Downdrift, erosion rates decreased to approximately 5 m/yr. Because no coastal structures have been built in the Isles Dernieres, the sediment dispersal system is undisturbed. The island area has decreased steadily from 34.8 km² in 1887 to 10.2 km² in 1979 (Penland and Boyd, 1982).

The pattern of shoreline change in the Chandeleur Islands is the result of their oblique orientation to the dominant wave approach. Erosion rates exceed 15 m/yr on the southern end of the islands. Northward, beach erosion rates decrease to about 5 m/yr at the Chandeleur lighthouse (Penland and Boyd, 1982) (fig. 26).

Periodically, hurricanes destroy the southernmost areas of the Chandeleur Islands, and are followed by the partial reemergence and rebuilding of the islands. Between 1869 and 1924, nine tropical cyclones made landfall, but only two were above force 2 in strength. These hurricanes resulted in a slight decrease in island area. Between 1925 and 1950, five tropical cyclones made landfall, but only one was of hurricane force. During this period, the island area increased slightly. Between 1950 and 1969, a rapid decrease in island area (from 29.7 to 21 km²) was observed—the result of the landfall of five major hurricanes, one of which was Camille, a force 5 storm. Between 1969 and 1979, when few hurricanes occurred, the island area increased again (Penland and Boyd, 1982).

A report to the Louisiana Department of Natural Resources (van Beek and Meyer-Arendt, 1982) analyzed the processes of coastal land loss, Louisiana's coastal geomorphology, erosion and accretion patterns, and potential remedial measures. Maps were constructed to depict the variability in annual shoreline change from 1955 to 1978, structural modifications, physical characteristics, shorefront use, hydrologic units, and place names. The barrier islands were described as "hot spots" of coastal erosion in Louisiana. The average rates of shoreline change calculated for Louisiana's barrier systems were: Isles Dernieres, -11.8 m/yr; Timbalier Islands, -12.1 m/yr; the Caminada-Moreau Headland, -12.7 m/yr; Grand Isle +1.8 m/yr; the Plaquemines barrier system, -8.0 m/yr; and the Chandeleur Islands, -10 m/yr. The report concluded that Louisiana's barrier systems provide important protection for human life and property, and for the renewable resources of the remaining estuarine wetlands. Beach nourishment, barrier restoration using fill, the creation of back-barrier marshes, and revegetation projects were recommended as the most cost-effective remedial actions (van Beek and Meyer-Arendt, 1982).

CURRENT USGS-LGS RESEARCH IN LOUISIANA

In 1982, in response to the seriousness of the State's coastal land loss problems, the LGS began a program of basic and applied coastal geomorphological and geologic research. This included the inventory of coastal resources; provision of technical assistance to local, State, and Federal agencies; sharing geoscience information about coastal land loss in Louisiana and the Gulf of Mexico; and assessing various coastal protection and restoration practices. It was realized from the start that the formulation and implementation of effective policies and practices to create, restore, and protect Louisiana's coastal zone would be hindered until a sufficient understanding of the causes and processes of coastal land loss in Louisiana was acquired.

Since 1982, the LGS has been working cooperatively with the USGS to conduct geologic framework studies to assess the hard mineral resources available for projects to control coastal erosion. In 1986, the USGS entered into a cooperative research effort on barrier erosion with the LGS and the Coastal Studies Institute at Louisiana State University (Sallenger and others, 1987, 1989). In 1988 the USGS expanded its effort in Louisiana by directing new research aimed at the critical processes of wetland loss, as well as establishing the Louisiana Coastal Geographic Information System Network (Sallenger and Williams, 1989; Williams and Sallenger, 1990). The current program focuses not only on research on coastal geomorphology, geology, and land loss but also on the transfer of the research results through scientific journals, conference proceedings, in-house publications, geographic information system (GIS) networks, field trips, and organized symposia.

The framework studies have focused on the evolution of coastal Louisiana during the Quaternary (figs. 27 and 28). The history of sea level fluctuations was delineated and correlated with the development of Wisconsin and Holocene shelf-phase and shelf-margin deltas for the Mississippi River by means of high-resolution seismic surveys combined with vibracores and deep borings (Boyd and Penland, 1984; Suter and Berryhill, 1985; Suter and others, 1985; Suter, 1986a, b; Tye, 1986; Tye and Kisters, 1986; Penland and others, 1987a; Suter and others, 1987; Suter, 1987; Berryhill and Suter, 1987; Boyd and Penland, 1988; Penland and Suter, 1989; Kindinger, 1989; Kindinger and others, 1989; Boyd and others, 1989a; Boyd and others, 1989b; Penland and others, 1989b; Penland, 1990; McBride and others, 1990).

Within the Mississippi River delta plain, emphasis has been placed on understanding the transgressive phase of the delta-cycle process and in particular the formation and evolution of barrier systems (Penland and others, 1985; Suter and Penland, 1987a; Penland and others, 1988a; Suter and others, 1988; Dingler and Reiss, 1989). A thorough stratigraphic analysis of Louisiana's barrier systems led to the development of new depositional models explaining the sedimentary sequences, facies structure, and patterns of coastal evolution found in the transgressive depositional systems of the Mississippi River delta plain (figs. 9 and 29). Of particular interest have been the sedimentary and botanical factors that affect the formation of coastal marshes as well as the contribution of organic and inorganic sediment in maintaining the surface elevation of marshes against the effects of subsidence and eustasy (Kisters and Bailey, 1983; Kisters and others, 1987; Kisters, 1987; Penland and others, 1988b; Kisters, 1989). Kisters (1989) developed a model describing the dynamics of vertical marsh accretion as it relates to the formation of wetland peats in the Barataria basin (fig. 30).

The LGS houses an extensive collection of high-resolution seismic and vibracore data from coastal Louisiana to the seaward margin of the continental shelf. The collection contains more than 15,000 km of Geopulse, Uniboom, and 3.5-kHz subbottom seismic profiles, and over 500 vibracores from the delta and chenier plains and the inner continental shelf of Louisiana.

The accurate mapping of coastal changes is fundamental to any coastal research program. Using zoom transfer photogrammetry combined with computer mapping and GIS technology, LGS has developed a precise system for accurately documenting coastal erosion and wetland loss in Louisiana and the Gulf of Mexico (McBride, 1989a, b; McBride and others, 1989a). To complement the coastal mapping system, LGS uses airborne videotape surveys to map high-resolution geomorphic changes, storm impacts, and oil spills. Since 1984, LGS has conducted an aerial videotape survey of coastal Louisiana each summer and of Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama, and Florida after the impact of hurricanes Danny, Elena, Juan, Florence, and Gilbert (fig. 31) (Penland and others, 1986c; Penland and others, 1987b, c, d, e; Penland and others, 1988c; McBride and others, 1989b; Penland and others, 1989c, d). These surveys are the baseline for monitoring both natural and human-caused geomorphic changes along the coast. Aerial videotapes have also been made of the Mississippi River delta and chenier plains from the interior wetlands to the Gulf of Mexico. The videotape surveys are housed in an archive at the LGS and facilities are available for public viewing.

The rates of subsidence and relative sea level rise, the primary causes of coastal land loss in Louisiana, have been determined using tide gages, geodetic leveling lines, and radiocarbon data (Ramsey and Moslow, 1987; Penland and others, 1988b; Penland and others, 1989e; Ramsey and Penland, 1989; Nakashima and Loudon, 1989; Penland and Ramsey, 1990). The rates of relative sea level rise range from 0.9-1.3 cm/yr on the delta plain to 0.4-0.6 cm/yr on the chenier plain (fig. 32). The thickness of the Holocene sequence and the relative age of the sediment appear to be the regional controls of subsidence (fig. 33).

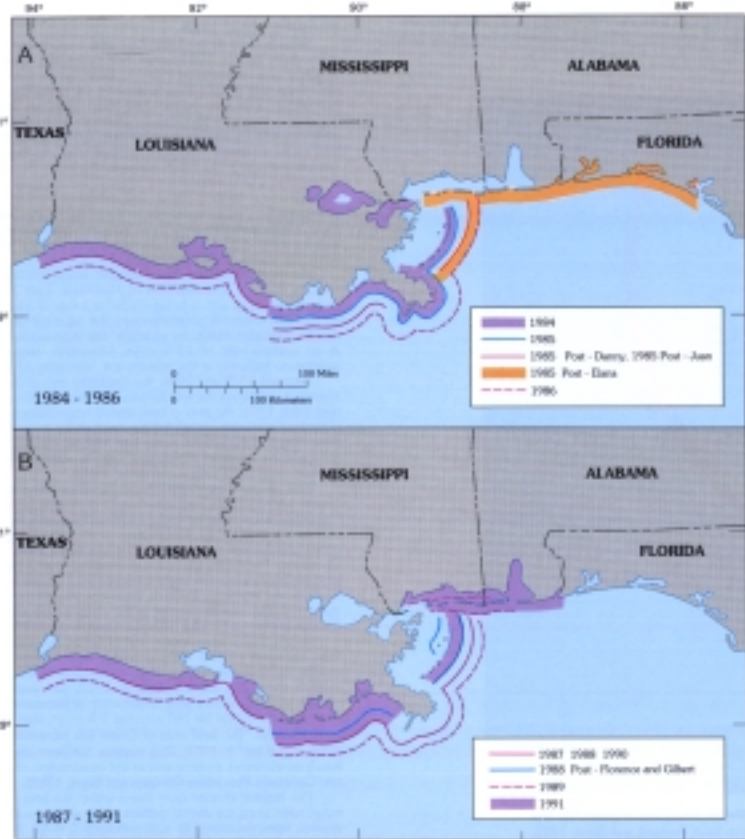


FIGURE 31.- Location of Louisiana Geological Survey aerial videotape surveys in Louisiana and the northern Gulf of Mexico, (A) 1984-1986; (B) 1987-1991.

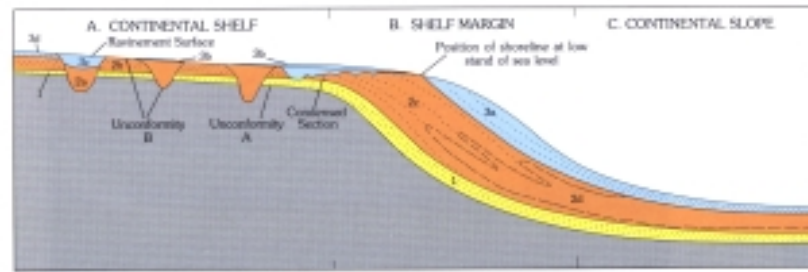


FIGURE 27.- Idealized model of Quaternary facies deposition on the Louisiana continental shelf. (1) Transgressive and aggradational deposits from previous sea-level rise. (2) Sediments associated with regressive phase of cycle: (a) fluvial and distributary channel fill; (b) shelf-phase deltaic deposits; (c) shelf-margin deltaic deposits; (d) mass transport deposits resulting from instabilities in shelf-margin deltas. (3) Sediments primarily associated with rising sea level: (a) fine-grained sediments relating to deltaic deposition during initial sea level rise and (or) abandonment of delta; (b) transgressive sands reworked from coarse-grained deltaic and alluvial deposits; (c) transgressive fluvial and estuarine sediments within fluvial channels; (d) aggradational deposits, thin on outer shelf, thickening landward. Application of the concepts of Vall and others (1977) produces a depositional sequence consisting of 1, 2b, 2c, 2d, and 3d; an overlying sequence incorporates 2a, 3a, 3b, and 3c. Unconformities A and B represent lowstand surfaces modified by shoreface erosion during transgression—drawn, by permission, from Suter and others, 1987, p. 203; © 1987 by the Society of Economic Paleontologists and Mineralogists.

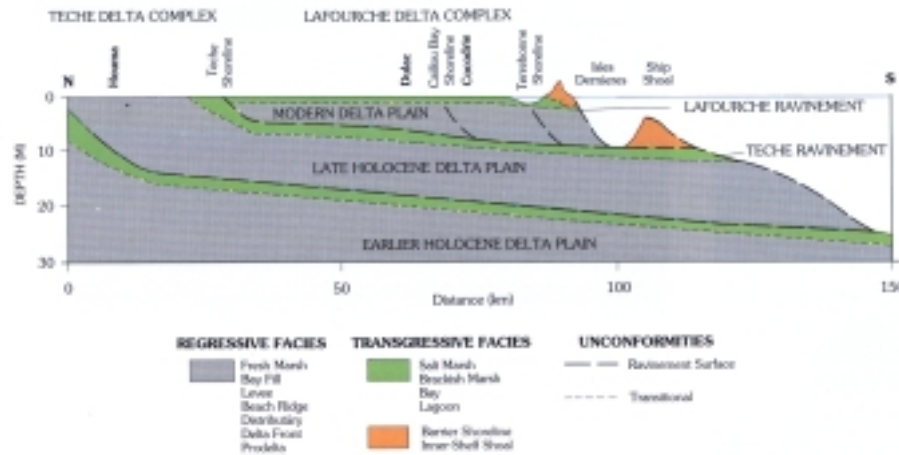


FIGURE 28.- Idealized model of the development of shelf-phase delta plains of the Mississippi River during the Holocene transgression (reprinted, by permission, from Penland and others, 1987a, p. 1696; © 1987 by the American Society of Civil Engineers).

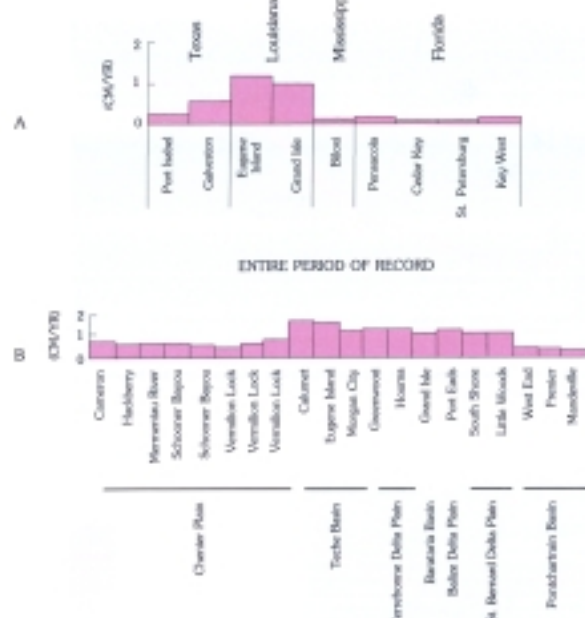


FIGURE 32.- (A) Relative sea level rise in the Gulf of Mexico between 1908 and 1983, based on National Ocean Survey tide gage stations—drawn, by permission, from Penland and others, 1989e, p. 50; © 1989 by the Louisiana Geological Survey. (B) Relative sea level rise in Louisiana between 1931 and 1983, based on Corps of Engineers tide gage stations—drawn, by permission, from Penland and others, 1989e, p. 51; © 1989 by the Louisiana Geological Survey.

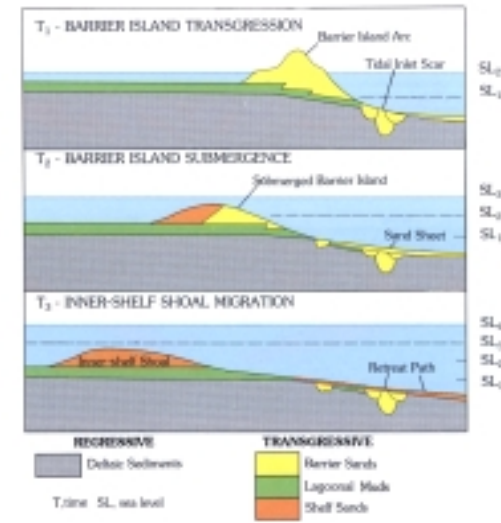


FIGURE 29.- A model of transgressive submergence of the process of shoreline and shelf sand generation on the Mississippi River delta plain. Transgression occurs when the shoreline migrates landward in response to delta abandonment, leading to erosion and reworking during shoreline and shoreface retreat. Submergence occurs when the depth of water increases as a result of eustatic, isostatic, or tectonic processes—drawn, by permission, from Penland and others, 1988a, p. 947; © 1988 by the Society of Sedimentary Geology.

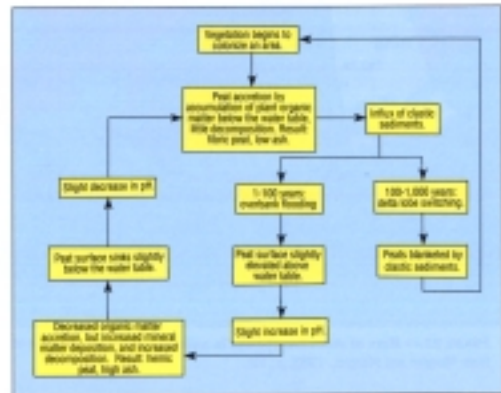


FIGURE 30.- Model of marsh accretion in the Barataria basin (redrawn, by permission, from Kisters, 1989, p. 110; © 1989 by the Society of Sedimentary Geology).

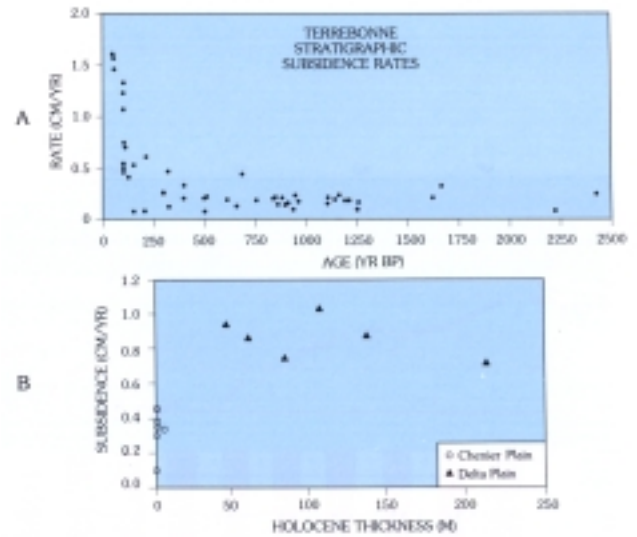


FIGURE 33.- (A) The relationship between sediment age and the rate of stratigraphic subsidence in Terrebonne Parish, Louisiana—drawn from Penland and others, 1988b, p. 95. (B) The relationship between rate of relative sea level rise (RSL) based on tide gage records and the thickness of the Holocene sediments at the referenced station location. Note that the highest rates correlate to the thickest Holocene areas in the Mississippi River delta plain—drawn, by permission, from Penland and Ramsey, 1990, p. 340; © 1990 by the Coastal Education and Research Foundation.

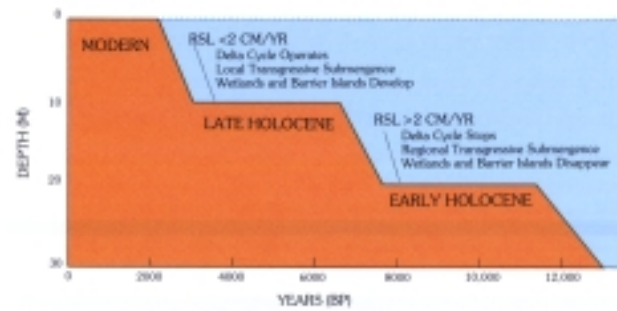


FIGURE 34.— The relationship between changes in relative sea level (RSL) and coastal stability in the Mississippi River delta plain during the last stages of the Holocene transgression.

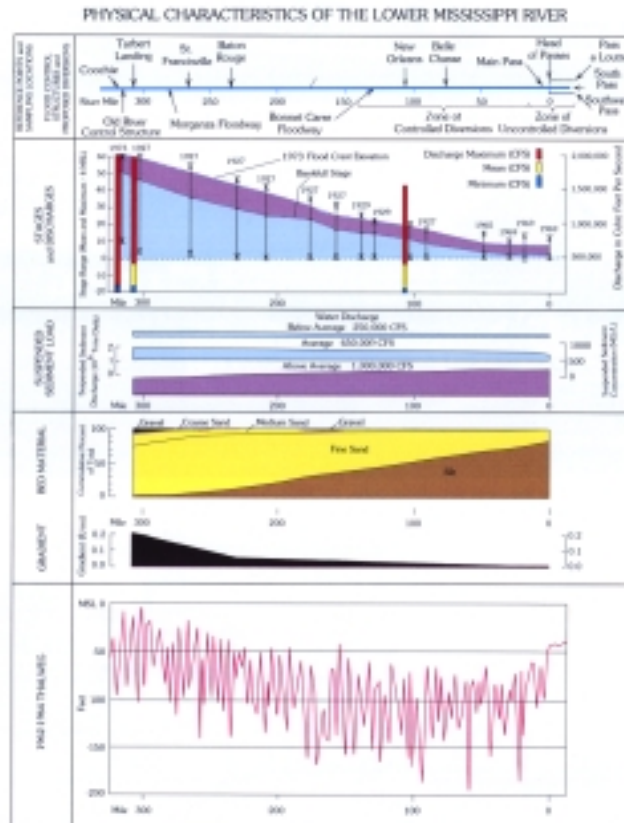


FIGURE 37.— Physical characteristics of the lower Mississippi River alluvial valley and delta plain (redrawn, by permission, from Mossa, 1988, p. 305; © 1988 by the Gulf Coast Association of Geological Societies).

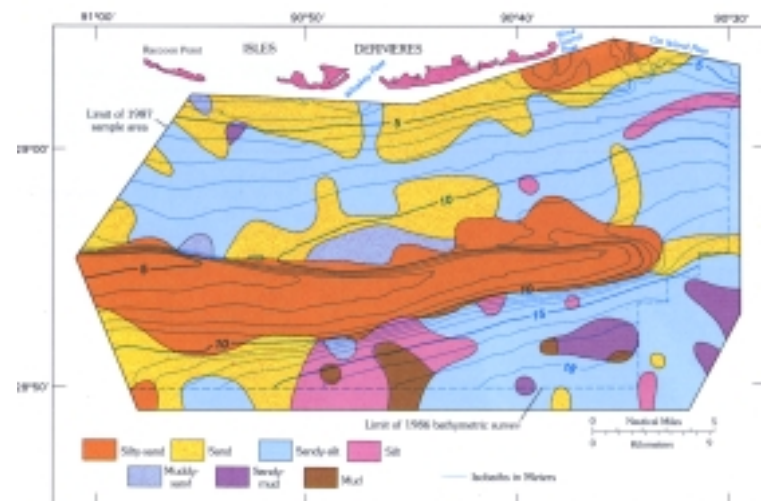


FIGURE 38.— Seven major sediment facies of the inner shelf off south-central Louisiana (redrawn, by permission, from Williams and others, 1989a, p. 573; © 1989 by the Gulf Coast Association of Geological Societies).

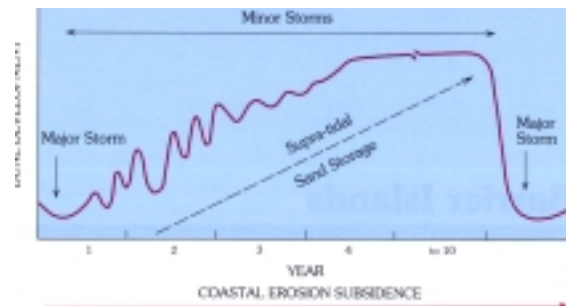


FIGURE 35.— Model of sand dune development in Louisiana as a function of storms and the return period of hurricane impact. Increasing volume of supratidal sand storage leads to dune development and revegetation, increasing the stability of the barrier shoreline. Major storms are hurricanes; minor storms are cold fronts (redrawn, by permission, from Ritchie and Penland, 1988, p. 121; © 1988 by Elsevier Science Publishers).

The geologic studies of the barrier systems and continental shelf revealed the occurrence of several stillstands in sea level during the last stages of the Holocene transgression. Three major delta plains have been identified to date, each separated by a maximum flooding or ravinement surface that was the product of a significant rise in sea level. It appears that whenever relative sea level rises rapidly (over 2 cm/yr) for centuries, the delta cycle process of the Mississippi River stops, and the wetlands, estuarine bays, and barrier islands gradually disappear. In contrast, it appears that whenever relative sea level rise rates drop below 2 cm/yr, the delta cycle process creates new wetlands, estuarine bays, and barrier islands (fig. 34). The implication of this pattern, in light of the EPA and NRC scenarios for future sea level rise, is that the delta and chenier plains of the Mississippi River already are in a cycle of coastal land loss; if the rate of sea level rise approaches 3 cm/yr over the next century as predicted, drastic changes in the coastal area can be expected.

Overwash processes associated with cold fronts, tropical storms, and hurricanes are important contributors to beach erosion. High rates of sediment transport, and dramatic landscape changes (Ritchie and Penland, 1988; Dingle and Reiss, 1988; Penland and others, 1989a; Ritchie and Penland, 1989; Dingle and Reiss, 1990; Ritchie and Penland, 1990a). Because sand dunes provide protection from storm surge and high-energy wave impacts, understanding their formative processes and vegetation dynamics is critical to the development of effective sediment management practices (Ritchie and others, 1989; Ritchie and Penland, 1990b; Ritchie and others, 1990). Extensive field work over the last decade has documented a predictable pattern of storm impact, beach erosion, overwash, and sand dune development controlled by frequent minor cold fronts, infrequent major hurricanes, and sand supply (fig. 35).

A sediment budget analysis of barrier island erosion and deposition between Racoon Point and Sandy Point is in progress to determine the volume of sediment transported and the regional trends of dispersal (Jaffe and others, 1988; Jaffe and others, 1989; Williams and others, 1989a). The sediment budget analysis compares historical bathymetric surveys with new ones conducted by the USGS to determine the volumetric trends in erosion or deposition on the seafloor and shoreline changes (fig. 36). The results will aid in the development of effective sediment management practices for the barrier systems.

In order to better understand the availability of water and sediment, Mossa (1988, 1989) has investigated the discharge-and-sediment dynamics of the lower Mississippi River system. The study shows that optimum conditions for diverting surplus fresh water and sediment from the Mississippi River occur in winter and spring (Mossa and Roberts, 1990). The use of diversions will require different management strategies during high and low flow years due to the physical characteristics of the Mississippi River (fig. 37). During years with high discharges, the sediment concentration and load maxima typically precede discharge maxima by several months. By the time the maxima discharge peaks, the sediment load is greatly reduced. In low-discharge years, the highest suspended sediment concentrations and loads closely coincide with the discharge maxima.

The performance and impact of coastal structures have been investigated to determine the best approach to coastal erosion control. The results indicate that projects using sediment and vegetation in beach nourishment and shoreline restoration projects are the most cost-effective (Mossa and others, 1985; Penland and others, 1986d; Nakashima and others, 1987; Nakashima, 1988, 1989; Penland and Suter, 1988a; Mossa and Nakashima, 1989).

For controlling coastal erosion, the location, quality, and quantity of sediment resources must be known. High resolution seismic surveys, using vibrocores to ground truth the interpretations, were used to define the availability of sediment resources for barrier island erosion control. To support the subsurface sand resource mapping, extensive surficial sediment surveys were conducted between Racoon Point, Sandy Point, and offshore to Ship Shoal in order to map the surface texture distribution (Circe' and Holland, 1987, 1988; Circe' and others, 1988, 1989; Williams and others, 1989b). Seven major surficial sediment facies were identified and mapped by collecting sediment samples from selected sites throughout the region (fig. 38).

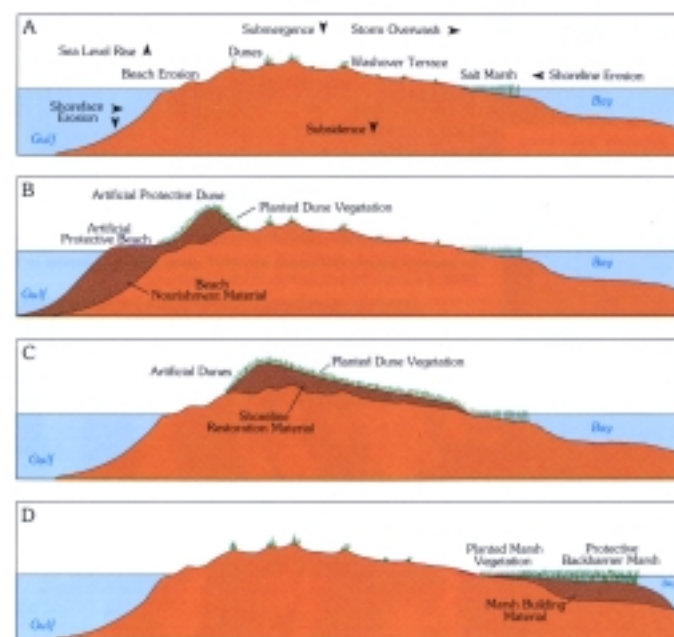


FIGURE 39.— Three designs for using sediment and vegetation to preserve and protect Louisiana's barrier systems. (A) Barrier island erosion problems. (B) Beach nourishment. (C) Barrier island restoration. (D) Back-barrier marsh building.

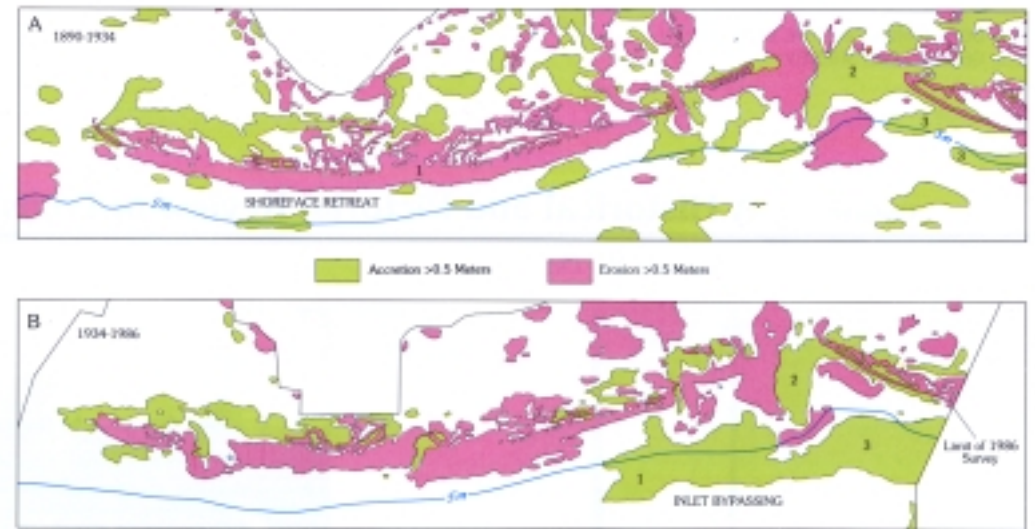


FIGURE 36.— Seafloor and island changes along the lakes Derrieres barrier system (a)1890-1934; (b)1934-1986. (1) Shoreface erosion; (2) sediment deposited from longshore transport in shallow water close to Timberlake Island; (3) sediment deposited from longshore transport offshore of Timberlake Island. The 5-m depth contour is from 1986 (redrawn, by permission, from Jaffe and others, 1989, p. 407; © 1989 by the Gulf Coast Association of Geological Societies).

New research results must be made available in forms that decision-makers can understand and use. One of the goals of the cooperative LGS and USGS coastal research program is to make information available in the form of atlases, journal papers, and conference proceedings. This atlas of Louisiana shoreline change between 1853 and 1989 builds on previous work by Morgan and Larimore (1957), Morgan and Morgan (1983), Adams and others (1978), Penland and Boyd (1981, 1982), van Beek and Meyer-Arendt (1982), McBride and others (1989a), and the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers (1975, 1978, 1980). The information and new research results presented are the most accurate analysis to date of barrier island changes surrounding the Mississippi River delta plain in Louisiana. The chapters in this atlas are intended to provide the reader with insight to the geomorphology, geology, and resources of Louisiana's barrier systems as well as the status of previous research and current USGSLGS research on the coastal land loss problem.

Sediment can be used in three ways: beach nourishment, shoreline restoration, and back-barrier marsh building (fig. 39). Beach nourishment projects are intended for developed shorelines, such as Grand Isle, which have an existing infrastructure that must be protected from beach erosion and storm impacts. Shoreline restoration and back-barrier marsh building are for uninhabited barrier islands; they aim to restore habitat integrity in order to preserve the estuary protected by a barrier system. The sediment resource inventory documented that there is enough material available for the foreseeable future to protect and restore Louisiana's barrier systems (Suter and Penland, 1987b; Penland and Suter, 1988b; Penland and others, 1988d; Williams and Penland, 1988; Suter and others, 1989; Penland and others, 1990b, c).

COASTAL RESEARCH SUMMARY

Louisiana's coastal land loss crisis cannot be managed effectively until the patterns of coastal change and the factors that influence them are understood. The search for this knowledge has been the theme of coastal research in Louisiana over the last half century, and is the continuing objective of the LGS and USGS coastal research programs today. The studies have concentrated on identifying the land loss problem; analyzing the geologic framework and accompanying coastal processes, including the dynamics of vegetation and sediment loss; and assessing the feasibility of erosion control projects. All of this work aims to develop new geoscience information useful for developing management policies and strategies.

Louisiana's coastal land loss problem is becoming more severe because of global climate changes that are causing the rate of worldwide sea level rise to accelerate. At the same time, both the population and industrial development are moving onto the fragile barrier-built estuaries and low-lying deltaic wetlands, which are at the highest risk. The management of Louisiana's coastal zone over the next century will require a compromise between these socioeconomic demands and the protection and restoration of sensitive coastal environmental resources.

Continued ignorance of or disregard for the geologic processes that continually reshape Louisiana's coastal zone will result in the failure of any comprehensive coastal protection or restoration plan. Predicting the performance of projects to control coastal land loss and assessing likely future coastal conditions requires an understanding of how a particular coastal environment has formed and what natural changes have taken place in recent geologic history. To make wise decisions, coastal planners, engineers, and managers as well as political decisionmakers and the public must be made aware of the new results of scientific investigations so that they can understand the range of management approaches and the associated social, financial, and environmental costs as well as the risks associated with each approach. Cooperation is necessary among federal, state, and local agencies to ensure that scientific information and expertise is applied to site-specific projects.

Recommended citation for this chapter:

Penland, Shea, Williams, S. J., Davis, D. W., Sallenger, A. H., Jr., and Groat, C. G., 1992, Barrier island erosion and wetland loss in Louisiana, in Williams, S. J., Penland, Shea, and Sallenger, A. H., Jr., eds., Louisiana barrier island erosion study-atlas of barrier shoreline changes in Louisiana from 1853 to 1989; U.S. Geological Survey Miscellaneous Investigations Series I-2150-A, p. 2-7.

Chapter 2 **A Historical and Pictorial Review of Louisiana's Barrier Islands**

by Donald W. Davis



A two-master sailing lugger going to market. Shallow-draft boats often had to be pulled with tow ropes attached to a horse, mule, or man—a process called cordalling, ca. 1940; Louisiana State Library, Louisiana Collection, WPA Photographic Archived.



Fisherman's wife baking bread in an outdoor oven (*paix chaud* is a *houillage four de campagne*) at Cheviere Caminada, 1891; National Archives, Negative No. 22-PCD-36. Oyster loggers and skills at Grand Isle, 1891; National Archives, Negative No. 22-PCD-31. Typical palmetto (*Sabal wisoo*) home built by the residents of Cheviere Caminada, Louisiana's largest pre-1900 coastal community, 1891; National Archives, Negative No. 22-PCD-40.



Harvesting oysters from beds in Terrebonne Parish, ca. 1920; Randolph Beart Collection, Houma, Louisiana.



Typical isolated Basotier Bay oyster camp, ca. 1935; Louisiana State Library, Louisiana Collection, WPA Photographic Archived.



The belief that quality fans come only from cold climates was unfounded. Louisiana's marshes were one of North America's preeminent fan-producing regions, ca. 1930; Louisiana State Library, Louisiana Collection, WPA Photographic Archived.



Grand Isle children, no date; Louisiana State Library, Louisiana Collection, WPA Photographic Archived.



Many Houma Indians lived in raised structures, close to and facing the bayou. This family's home on Lower Bayou Grand Callee is one example, no date; Louisiana State Library, Louisiana Collection, WPA Photographic Archived.



Louisiana's oyster beds were so prolific that oystermen from Mississippi harvested the sites for canning plants at Biloxi, no date; Anthony V. Rogovin, Louisiana State Library, Louisiana Photographic Archived.



Before the arrival of the Yugoslavians, those engaged in the oyster business were Italians and Sicilians, no date; Ferville Wiers, Louisiana State Library, Louisiana Photographic Archived.



Using hand-woven china baskets to unload shrimp at a Terrebonne Parish drying platform, ca. 1920; Randolph Beart Collection, Houma, Louisiana.



An isolated marsh settlement provided quick and easy access to harvesting areas, ca. 1920; Randolph Beart Collection, Houma, Louisiana.



Four large tarpon caught in the inland waters of Terrebonne Parish, ca. 1924; Randolph Beart Collection, Houma, Louisiana.



Harvests such as this allowed Louisiana to adopt the nickname "Sportsman's Paradise," ca. 1920; Randolph Beart Collection, Houma, Louisiana.

**SETTLING
LOUISIANA'S COASTAL FRINGE**

The Gulf of Mexico's northern coast is dominated by a series of barrier islands separated by water bodies less than 10 meters deep. This 870-kilometer chain parallels the Gulf Coast and represents nearly 35 percent of the United States' barrier islands (Ringold and Clark, 1980).

Most of these islands and adjacent peninsulas have a cross section composed of several shore-parallel environments. Typically, the nearshore zone is identified by a system of bars and troughs parallel to the strandline. The active beach has a moderate sand slope, but grasses cover the dunes that customarily frame the foreshore berms. An island's midsection is frequently a series of beach ridges and intervening swales, covered by salt-tolerant vegetation, scattered shrubs, and clusters of trees. Marsh tidal-flat ecosystems, as well as mangrove communities, lie on the bay-shore side (Vincent and others, 1976; Davis and others, 1987). These features vary in physiography and cross-sectional profile according to the amount and type of eolian material, winds, tides, and the frequency of hurricanes. The same natural laws of beach-barrier dynamics, however, apply equally, regardless of the barrier's location. Unfortunately, human uses do not follow such an orderly pattern: whether in Louisiana, Maine, North Carolina, Florida, or Texas, people introduce to the existing physical and biological systems an additional complex set of variables.

The Gulf of Mexico barrier islands have served humanity since the seventeenth century when farmers discovered that cattle released on barrier islands would forage and reproduce. Eventually, settlers moved onto the barrier islands following an annual-use cycle-making a living using the different renewable resources that were available from season to season. In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, the islands were used for military bases, small settlements, hotels, and other recreation endeavors, such as lavish hunting clubs and camps.

The sea has reclaimed human features repeatedly, but they have been rebuilt. Like lemmings, people continue to move toward the boundary between the land and water to see and hear the ocean, regardless of the consequences. Coastal citizens, especially those on the barrier islands, are at the mercy of hurricanes, northeasters, and other storms.

The conflict that results from the incompatibility of human and natural processes is most evident when the barrier islands are overrun by hurricanes that generate walls of water over six meters high. Often storms hit the shoreline with such intensity that they sweep far inland and destroy homes, businesses, and public buildings; frequently, nothing is spared.

Along the Atlantic and Gulf coasts today, millions of Americans are exposed to hurricanes. Many live on barrier islands: their homes and businesses are particularly vulnerable because they live dangerously close to

Two physiographic provinces dominate the natural setting: the chenier and delta plains. The former extends from a site near High Island, Texas, eastward to Marsh Island, Louisiana, and has a relatively smooth and typical shoreline. Near the shoreface, the chenier plain (from the French, chene, meaning oak) is fronted by mudflats and backed by marsh with an intervening series of beach ridges capped with live oak trees (*Quercus virginiana*) (Howe and others, 1935). The delta plain is east of Marsh Island; within its boundaries lie more than 7,000 years of deltaic morphology. Numerous bays, lakes, and barrier islands characterize its highly irregular shoreline.

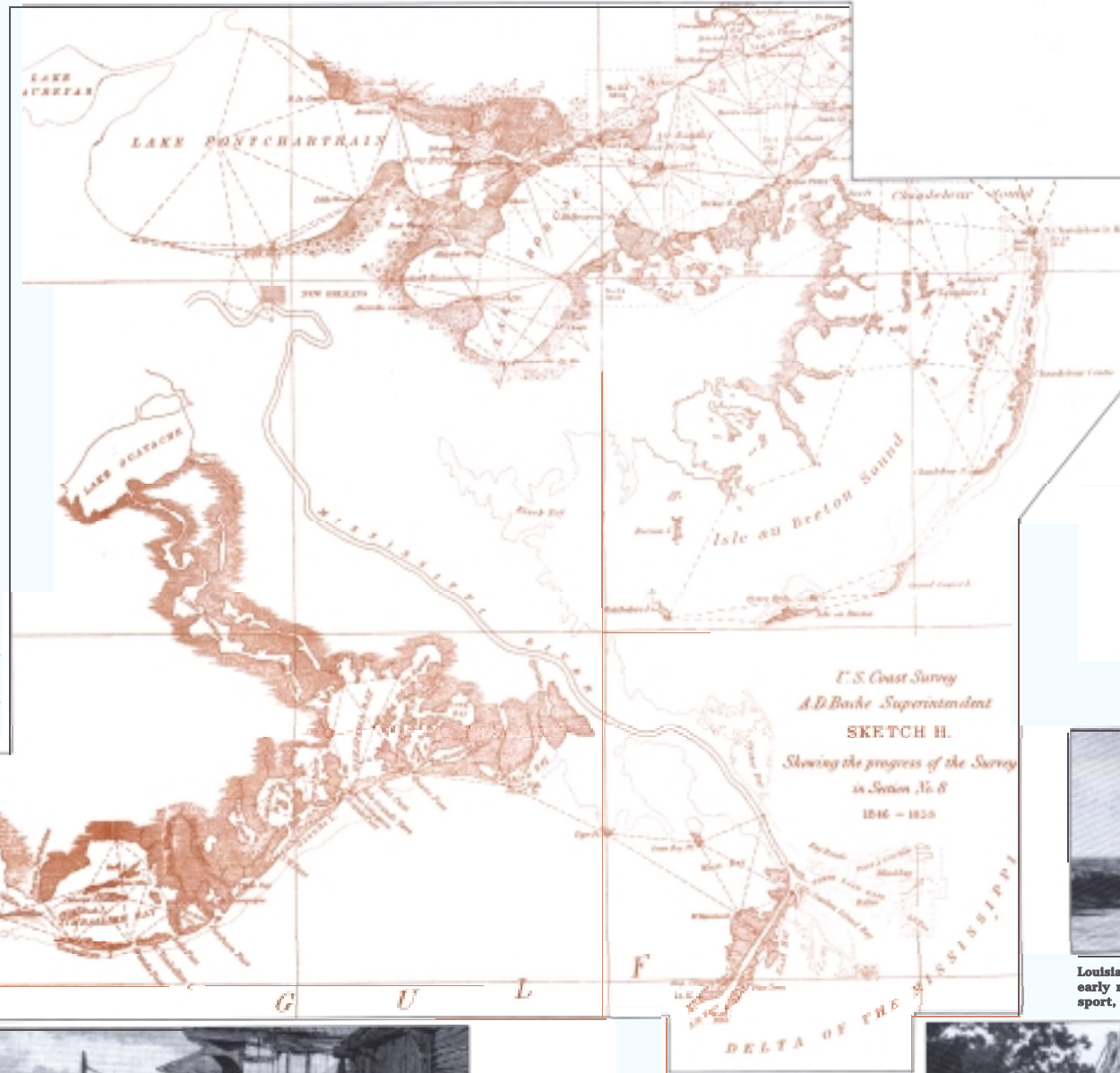
Barrier islands and marshes absorb wave energy and help retard natural or storm-induced erosion. The islands serve as the first line of defense against destructive hurricanes and storms and therefore receive the full force of their impacts. Washover fans, new tidal passes, diminished dunes, rearranged beaches, and general profile changes, via accretion, deposition, and erosion, are by-products of the passage of a hurricane. The islands are in a constant state of change. Moore (1899, p. 73) noted

The topographical changes in the region between Timbalier and Terrebonne bays are quite extensive and rapid, and islands were observed there in all stages of destruction, some of them cut into pieces, others barely showing above the water, and still others whose former positions were marked merely by shoals or by dead brush projecting above the surface.

Barrier islands are bulwarks that protect the valuable wetlands and slow a storm's forward momentum, but the damage can still be catastrophic. In fact, since the 1950's over \$20 billion in property losses due to hurricanes have been assessed in the United States, with the barrier islands absorbing the initial punishment (Ringold and Clark, 1980; Daily Comet, 1985; Wang, 1990). Although Louisiana's coast does not have a barrier island 50 kilometers long, such as Galveston Island, Texas, the Chandeleurs, Grand Isle, Grand Terre, Timbalier, and Isles Dernieres (Last Island) are important settlement sites.

Unlike those on most coasts, Louisiana's barriers are not completely developed. Grand Isle is the exception: even so, it does not possess an extensive array of hotels, motels, high-rise buildings, or single-family residences. The permanent and seasonal recreational population nevertheless is in danger because Louisiana's coast is particularly sensitive to storm damage. Before 1985, Hurricanes Betsy and Camille severely damaged Louisiana's coast. In 1985, Louisiana became the first state to be struck by three hurricanes in one year—Danny, Elena, and Juan.

Barrier island residents have been susceptible to dangerous weather for over two centuries. Villages, recreational hotels, and scattered trapper-fisher-hunter camps are part of the barrier islands' folklore. Pirates, bootleggers, smugglers, and others have used these islands. Scattered recreational dwellings and petroleum-related industries now dominate the barrier islands' human-made landscape.



Oystermen often built homes on bird-like wooden legs, two meters above the water; oyster shells thrown around the camp created an artificial island, 1940; Justin F. Bordenave, ed., Jefferson Parish Yearly Review, Special Collections Division, Hill Memorial Library, Louisiana State University Libraries, p. 72.

**LOUISIANA BARRIER ISLAND EROSION STUDY
ATLAS OF SHORELINE CHANGES I-2150-A**



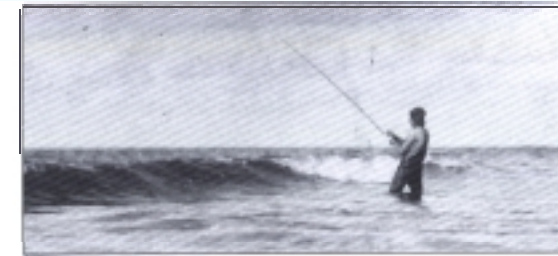
An oysterman tonging oysters into a bote—a flat-bottom boat with a blunt bow and stem, ca. 1920; (Randolph Bazel Collection, Houma, Louisiana).



Under full sail, a Louisiana oyster lugger moved easily across the inland waterways, no date; National Archives, Negative No. 22-FC-D-30).



Muskrat and nutria were trapped in Louisiana's marshes to provide nearly 60 percent of the nation's fur harvest, ca. 1930; (Louisiana Department of Wild Life and Fisheries, Photographic Archives).



Louisiana's barrier islands have served as a recreational resource since the early nineteenth century. Surf fishing at Timbalier Island was a popular sport, ca. 1920; (Randolph Bazel Collection, Houma, Louisiana).



Louisiana's trapper-farmer-fisher folk built their homes from indigenous materials to create functional structures; these were covered with polesetto and equipped with barrel cisterns, ca. 1910; (Sexton Collection, Smithsonian Institution, Photo No. 1536).



The St. Bernard Parish community of St. Malo, elevated above the marsh "muck." Asian immigrants used plaster boxes and "night soils" to raise fresh vegetables. Rain water from roof drainage was collected in barrels, no date; (Harper's Weekly, March 31, 1883, p. 197).

the water's edge. The citizens of northwest Florida, for example, thought they were immune to dangerous storms; they were incorrect. In 1975, Hurricane Eloise struck the Florida Panhandle: numerous beach-front buildings—believed to be hurricane proof—were "toppled like dominoes" (Frank, 1976, p. 221), inadequate building codes and improper construction techniques were responsible for the extensive destruction of beach-front property (Frank, 1976).

LOUISIANA'S COASTAL LOWLANDS

Near-featureless marshes and adjacent water bodies span the Louisiana coast and vary in width from 25 to 80 kilometers. Exposed salt domes are over 40 meters above the sea-level marshes. There is less than a four-meter height difference between the marsh and adjacent natural levees, cheniers, and beaches, and one meter in elevation can provide firm, habitable land.

**LOUISIANA'S SETTLEMENT HISTORY:
FROM NATURAL LEVEES TO MARSHES
TO BARRIER ISLANDS**

Louisiana's coastal lowlands have been occupied for 12,000 to 14,000 years. During that time the adjacent alluvial wetlands have supported a range of cultures and settlements which include prehistoric Indian sites, and Yugoslavian, Chinese, Italian, and Acadian communities (Johnson, 1831). Prehistoric Indians settled the dry land adjacent to many of the region's water bodies. Over 500 of these relic encampments, distinguished by middens (shell mounds), have been located and mapped. The region's settlement and economic history has, in fact, been generally dictated by the availability or unavailability of high ground. From barrier islands to beaches, natural levees, cheniers, coteaux (hills or ridges), bays, and estuaries, people have had to adjust to floods, subsidence, hurricane-induced storm surges, and sea level rise.

Settlement clusters were scattered throughout the wetlands, along the shoreline, and on the barrier islands by the late 1800's. Mauvais Bois, a small community south of Houma, was located on a levee remnant approximately 10 kilometers long and 75 meters wide and supported an economy based on agriculture, fishing, and trapping. At Mauvais Bois and other coastal communities, cattle ranged the open marsh. In contrast, Camardelle inhabitants at Barataria Bay were totally dependent upon seasonal fishing and trapping because there was no space available for agriculture. Camardelle citizens lived on wharves and houseboats and took their homes with them, even if the dwellings had to be dismantled, as seasonal activities changed.

The elevated community of Manila Village was supported entirely by the shrimp industry. Cheniere Caminada was dominated by trapper-hunter-fisher folk, groups who based their subsistence economy on the annual changes in the seasons and who cultivated small gardens to add to the quality of their diet (figure 1). Cheniere Caminada had a school, a church, and several stores, facilities usually unavailable in marsh communities.

By the mid-1800's Louisiana's wetlands supported over 150 communities that were connected to the settlers' resource areas, markets, and supply sources by well-defined routes of circulation—the region's natural and human-made waterways. One of the earliest sites was Cheniere Caminada—a community just across the Caminada Bay from Grand Isle, which served as a harbor for net fishermen.

Because the marshes were devoid of "high" land, the region's narrow riverine strips became the focal point for settlement. A settlement pattern developed from the region's distinctive deltaic morphology. With time, this dense, unorganized network of distributary ridge, wetland, and barrier island communities became a large, isolated, and permanent population. Each settlement was economically homogeneous in that all inhabitants were supported by variations of the same means of making a living. The hamlets' farmer-trapper-fisher folk were aware of their environment and developed skills that allowed them to harvest the local wildlife.

THE ETHNIC MIX

The Spanish, French, Italians, Yugoslavians, Irish, Germans, Cubans, Greeks, Latin Americans, and Chinese settled within Louisiana's coastal lowlands. The foreign fishing population was larger than any other in the Gulf states (Collins and Smith, 1893). Based on its cultural heritage, each group interpreted the environment differently. Louisiana exhibits, therefore, a distinctive ethnic and cultural heterogeneity, but the French are the biggest and oldest ethnic group.

French and German peasant (habitant) farmers first settled along the Mississippi River in the Cote des Allemands (German Coast) (American States Papers, 1803). As early as 1718 the area was settled by people enticed into moving to Louisiana from France by the propaganda of John Law's Mississippi Company. They were generally the more prosperous and better educated class living in Louisiana (Bertrand and Beale, 1965). These urban dwellers enjoyed the fine goods offered to them by the privateer Jean Lafitte, whose barrier island fortress was one of the earliest settlements on Louisiana's coast.

After deportation from British-controlled Nova Scotia in September 1755, nearly 4,000 refugee Acadians also migrated to Louisiana and settled the alluvial wetlands. These people continued to arrive in small groups from 1760 to 1790 (Detro and Davis, 1974). The Acadians were accustomed to working the land and settled on the prairies, cheniers, bayous, marshes, swamps, and barrier islands in south central and southeastern Louisiana. They were French-speaking Roman Catholics who provided south Louisiana with its own unique ethnic community. Eventually the Acadians abandoned French as a written language. Their language is no longer spoken in France, and many of the family surnames survive there only in historical literature.

The Acadians enjoyed the isolation provided by south Louisiana's physical geography. Their communities were accessible by means of winding streams called bayous (from the Choctaw bayuk, or creek) and close to fishing, hunting, trapping, and agricultural areas. The rich alluvial soil of the Mississippi valley, the area's abundant hide- and fur-bearing animals, and the easily harvested aquatic life were infinitely attractive to the Acadians, who were also trappers and net fishermen (Evans, 1963).

Besides the French, a group of Yugoslavian oyster fishermen settled along the bayous, bays, and lakes southeast of New Orleans. Chinese and Filipinos built shrimp-dyeing communities in the estuaries. British, French, and Americans settled the barrier islands. By the early 1830's, a relatively dense network of settlements was functioning at isolated points within the marsh. The barrier islands—Grand Isle, Grand Terre, Cheniere Caminada, Isles Dernieres, and the Chandeleur Islands—had established their own identities.

Throughout the wetlands' waterways, red-sailed luggers, isolated palmetto-covered houses, or the rustic, cypress-gray gables of Chinese camps or lake dwellers were a part of the visual landscape (Sampson, 1893). Although many considered the wetlands valuable only for their intrinsic qualities, Acadians, Yugoslavians, Chinese, Italians, and others recognized the coastal lowlands for their resources and were able to make a living from them through trapping, shrimping, and oystering.

**ISLES DERNIERES:
LOUISIANA'S FIRST COASTAL RESORT**

Isles Dernieres was:

no ordinary island, but the proudest summering place of the Old South a private little world dedicated to fine living. Here, to the massive, two-story hotel in the myrtle-shadowed village at the island's western tip, and to the hundreds of graceful houses decorating 25 miles of beach, wealthy planters and merchants, who bore the most illustrious names in all Louisiana, brought their families to escape the summer heat and to live according to the unchanging code of French and Spanish ancestors. (Deutschman, 1949, p. 143)

In the early 1850's Isles Dernieres, known also and especially historically as Last Island and located at the southern fringe of Terrebonne Parish, was about "thirty miles [48 kilometers] long and half a mile [0.9 kilometers] in width" (Daily Delta [New Orleans], 1850). The wooded island was the site of about half a dozen light-framed summer cottages on Village Bayou. Erected on posts stuck in the sand, they were not built to withstand the force of a hurricane, but the visitors were only concerned about enjoying the relaxed atmosphere of the island (Silas, 1890).

The houses are fine, particularly those of Lawyer Maskell and Captain Muggah. These houses serve for the reception of visitors during the summer season, at which time the enjoyers of elegant leisure flock to the isle in great number, and not as a dernier resort, but for the veritable purpose of enjoying themselves. (Daily Delta [New Orleans], 1850, p. 2)

Isles Dernieres was one of Louisiana's first coastal recreation sites. Families came to swim, fish, hunt, and enjoy the tranquility (Liddell, 1851). Most visitors to the resort were wealthy planters from the Lafourche and Atakapa areas. "It was a delightful place to escape the summer heat, enjoy the sea breeze" (Wales, 1854), and listen to the "skill and taste of the old German, whose violin furnished exquisite music" (Pugh 1881, p. 3). The extensive beach served as a shell road where "one's buggy whirled over it with a softness, and airy, swinging motion, that is perfectly intoxicating" (The Daily Picayune [New Orleans], 1852, p. 1). The Village Bayou on the bay side of the island provided a safe place for packet steamers and sailboats to land. In fact, as early as 1848 Louisiana requested its legislative delegation to lobby for a lighthouse at the west end of the island to improve the navigation of the State's western coast (Johnson, 1848).

Two hotels, the Ocean House and Captain Muggah's Hotel, or the Muggah Billiard House, provided rooms for guests. The Ocean House was equipped with a bar, amiable accommodations, a billiard table, and tennis alley. Captain Muggah built cabins on the beach as alternate facilities to his hotel (Pugh, 1881). A large public livery stable housed the guests' horses and buggies.

THE 1856 LAST ISLAND HURRICANE

Sunday, August 10, 1856, the island resort was destroyed by the Last Island hurricane. During the storm every solid object became a mobile battering ram, destroying nearly all the structures on the island. Many families were lost; about half of the island's population survived. In the legends of coastal Louisiana, over 400 people attended a Sunday ball at the hotel on Village Bayou at which the Creole aristocracy "danced until they died" in the hurricane.

With time, stories of the disaster became part of the region's folklore. For example, through a blend of fact and fiction, the two hotels were visualized as one. Consequently, numerous imaginary embellishments of the Isles Dernieres legend crystallized in Lafcadio Hearn's book, *Chita: A Memory of Last Island*, which purports to document the storm.

Newspaper accounts of the period reported that from 260 to 300 people died (Ellis, no date). Entire families were swept off the island. Some rode out the storm on floating debris and were rescued 24 kilometers from the resort (Schlatre, 1937). Horses, cattle, and fish lay strewn about the island among the human victims. At the center of the island, one small hut and several head of cattle survived the storm (Cole, 1892a). Property loss was estimated at over \$100,000 (Ludlum, 1963). Because earlier reports were revised as more survivors were located, the final death toll was about 140 persons (Ludlum, 1963).

From that time the wind blew a perfect hurricane; every house upon the island giving way, one after another, until nothing remained. At this moment everyone sought the most elevated point on the island, exerting themselves at the same time to avoid the fragments of buildings, which were scattered in every direction by the wind. Many persons were wounded; some mortally. The water at this time (about 2 o'clock P.M.) commenced rising so rapidly from the bay side, that there could no longer be any doubt that the island would be submerged. The scene at this moment forbids description. Men, women, and children were seen running in every direction, in search of some means of salvation. The violence of the wind, together with the rain, which fell like hail, and the sand blinded their eyes, prevented many from reaching the objects they had aimed at. (Ludlum, 1963, p. 166)

It was a gloomy sight, not a house or shelter standing. The hull of the steamer and a number of sailing boats stranded on the island near where the hotel had stood, and some 260 or 300 people had been drowned every one was busy all day looking for and buying the bodies which had been drowned, others collecting provisions and getting something to eat, others fixing up things to make it a little more comfortable. In the meantime we had fitted out a boat and dispatched it to the Atchafalaya to report our condition. (Ellis, no date, p. 8)

The steamer Star made semi-weekly trips from the railroad station in Bayou Boeuf, down the Atchafalaya River through Four League Bay, to the Isles Dernieres resort. On Sunday morning, August 10, 1856, the Star approached Isles Dernieres after a difficult journey from Morgan City, a trip that required two men to steer the vessel. She anchored in Village Bayou behind the Muggah's Hotel. During the hurricane a part of the pier gave way, and the steamer parted her moorings and slowly drifted towards the island. Those on board were ordered below. Soon the steamboat's chimneys, pilot house, and hurricane deck were gone, leaving only the hull (Ellis, no date). The wreck drifted toward the island and lodged itself in a turtle enclosure for the remainder of the storm (The Daily Picayune [New Orleans], 1856b). Approximately 250 to 275 people survived in the hull of the Star, without its body, firmly trapped in the sand, more would have perished (The Daily Picayune [New Orleans], 1856a).

The destruction from the Last Island hurricane was complete, but the storm documented the value of the island itself. Isles Dernieres absorbed the storm's winds, waves, and high water; the islands on the backside were protected and did not receive as great an impact. Bayside damage was minimal. At nearby Caillou Island, in Terrebonne Bay, the water only rose about 1.5 meters. The people on these inner islands were saved from the storm's full force. They were inconvenienced but not killed (New Orleans Christian Advocate, 1856).

HURRICANES IN THE COASTAL ZONE

Coastal Louisiana's climate is generally described as humid subtropical: warm summers and mild winters are the rule. Winter extremes, when they occur, are a product of cold fronts that can change the daily weather quickly. In the summer and fall, normal conditions can be dramatically altered by the periodic arrival of hurricanes.

Caribbean history is punctuated by hurricanes; even the name is derived from the Caribbean Indians' storm-god Huracan. By nature, hurricanes are unpredictable and can change direction abruptly. Between May and November, hurricanes move in a north-northwest direction across the Atlantic Ocean. In the Gulf of Mexico, they are most active in August, September, and October.

Hurricanes are always of concern to humans; they carry high winds, extremely low pressures, vast quantities of precipitation, and large storm surges. The Saffir-Simpson scale, originated in 1972 by Herbert Saffir, consulting engineer for Dade County Florida, and Robert Simpson, former director of the National Hurricane Center, indicates on a scale of 1 to 5 the damage potential from different wind speeds and storm-surge heights (table 1). The 12 deadliest hurricanes of this century were all category 4 or 5 (extreme to catastrophic). Most Louisiana hurricanes are category 2 or 3 (moderate to extensive damage) storms.

TABLE 1.—Saffir-Simpson scale of damage potential.

| Scale Number | Central Pressure (mbars) | Wind (mi/hr) | Surge (feet) | Damage |
|--------------|--------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| 1 | >980 | 119-153 | 1.3-1.5 | Minimal |
| 2 | 965-979 | 154-177 | 1.6-2.4 | Moderate |
| 3 | 945-964 | 178-209 | 2.5-3.6 | Extreme |
| 4 | 920-944 | >210-250 | 3.7-5.4 | Catastrophic |
| 5 | <920 | >250 | >6.4 | Catastrophic |

In reports of hurricane damages, two Louisiana storms are mentioned repeatedly: Betsy (1965) and Camille (1969). When Betsy struck the Louisiana coast, it had already left in its wake \$119 million in damages to Florida. This fast-moving storm was highly erratic; it could not be predicted accurately because it changed course frequently. Because of this, officials took the precaution of evacuating an estimated 250,000 residents from unprotected areas. Betsy's 200 km/hr winds approached shore, its waves battering Grand Isle; approximately 90 percent of southeastern Louisiana's residents evacuated.

The storm's aftermath resulted in at least \$700 million in insured damages—\$650 million in Louisiana, the remainder in Florida, Mississippi, and Alabama. Uninsured flood damages pushed the final figure over the \$1 billion mark. Seventy-four people died in Louisiana, most from drowning.

Four years later, Hurricane Camille, one of only three category 5 hurricanes to enter the Gulf of Mexico in this century, took aim on the Louisiana-Mississippi coast. Camille was a compact storm, only 80 kilometers wide, with 320 km/hr winds, a six-meter storm surge and 75 centimeters of rain. This system made landfall near Pass Christian and Bay St. Louis, Mississippi. Its destructive intensity established financial and wind-speed records. Camille left 259 people dead and \$1 billion in property damage.

Before Betsy and Camille, two catastrophic storms occurred in the barrier islands. The first, in 1856, destroyed the recreation-oriented community at Isles Dernieres, and the second, in 1893, displaced nearly 1,500 families at Cheniere Caminada.

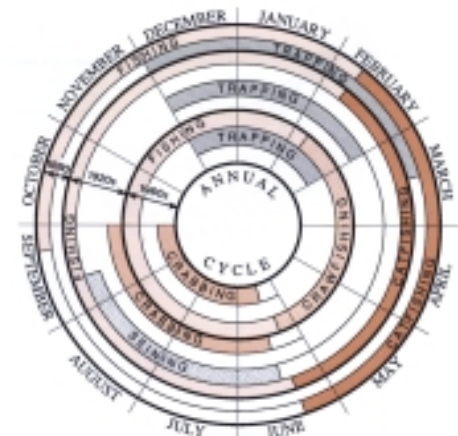
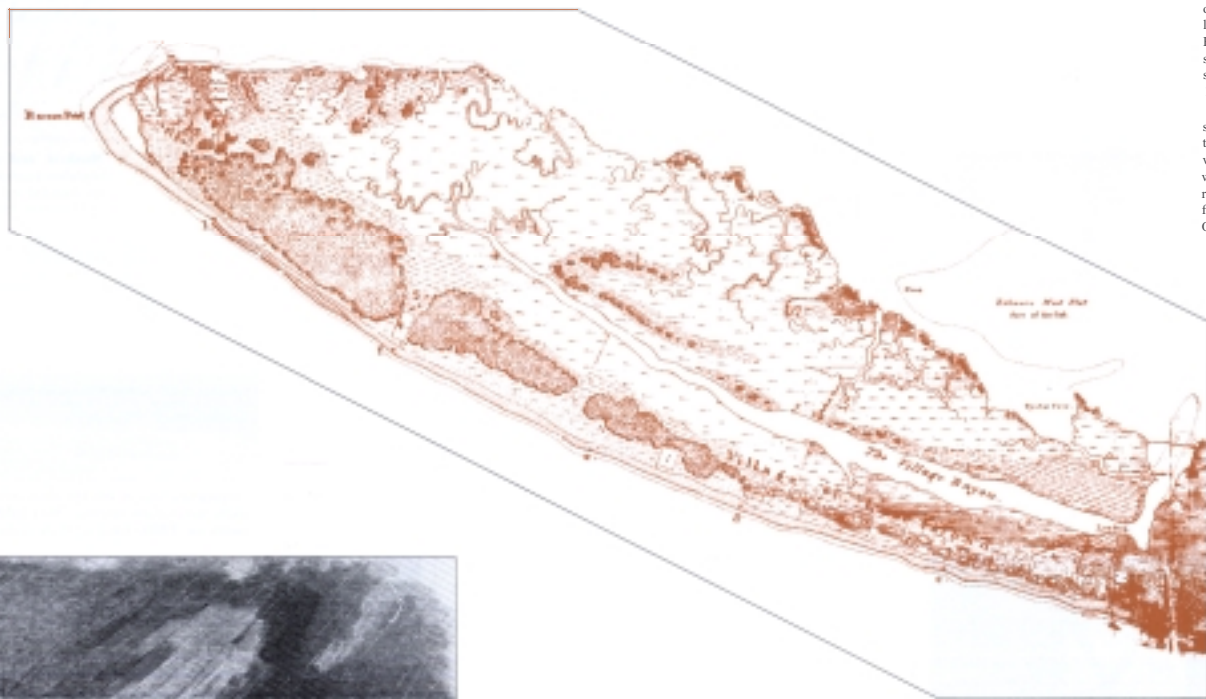


FIGURE 1.—Annual-use cycle of marshlands people in Louisiana. The fishing season included oystering and shrimping as well. Modified from Comeaux, 1972.



United States Coast Survey, A. D. Baché, Superintendent, Western Part of the Isles Dernieres, February 1853 by F. H. Gerdner, scale 1:10,000.



In 1853 Isles Dernieres' (Last Island) Village Bayou was destroyed by a hurricane that inundated Louisiana's first coastal recreation site, ca. 1856. (Frank Leslie's Illustrated Weekly, Historic New Orleans Collection, Museum/Research Center, Accession No. 1974.25.4.66)



Two hotels, the Ocean House and The Muggah Billiard House, were lost because the wind and water rose from the 1856 hurricane. ca. 1856. (Frank Leslie's Illustrated Weekly, Historic New Orleans Collection, Museum/Research Center, Accession No. 1974.25.4.65)

Grand Isle (1904)
GRAND ISLE.
GRAND ISLE AND BARATARIA PACKET
Steamer GRAND ISLE,
M. McInnes, Master.
Leaves head of Canal Street at 7:00 a.m.
EVERY TUESDAY via Company Canal, and
EVERY SATURDAY via Sola's Canal, re-
turning Monday and Thursday via Company
Canal. Special accommodations to excursion pas-
sengers. For freight and passage apply on board.
2-11-04

Haber, Leonard. 1959. Advertisements of Lower Mississippi River Steamboats, 1812-1920. West Barrington, Rhode Island. The Steamship Historical Society of America, p. 29.



Bayou Rigging loading at Grand Isle, ca. 1933; (Pen and ink postcard drawing by George Izvolksy)



Ca. 1933; (Pen and ink postcard drawing by George Izvolksy)



Home of Nez Coupo, descendant of one of Jean Lafitte's lieutenants, ca. 1933; (Pen and ink postcard drawing by George Izvolksy)

Joe Weore (1885)
GRAND ISLE.
GRAND ISLE—THE FINE
HOTELS, COTTAGE HOUSES AND
PACKS—
JOE WEORE,
A. E. HOTEL, MASTER. FROM ERMA, GUY.
Leaves EVERY TUESDAY, THURSDAY AND
SATURDAY from the foot of the Canal Street
at 8 A. M. every week, and returning MONDAY, WED-
NESDAY and FRIDAY via Company's
Canal. Fare 25; meals extra. Reservations every
Saturday. Fare paid with minimum meals at
the hotel and on board of the boat, etc.
WYF-12

Haber, Leonard. 1959. Advertisements of Lower Mississippi River Steamboats, 1812-1920. West Barrington, Rhode Island. The Steamship Historical Society of America, p. 36.



Typical early Grand Isle home, built on the highest portion of the island for added hurricane protection, no date; (Louisiana State Library, Louisiana Collection, WPA Photographic Archived)



Horse-drawn carts were the principal means of transportation on Grand Isle, no date; (Louisiana State Library, Louisiana Collection, WPA Photographic Archived)



Bayou Rigging provided a safe and convenient harbor for the working and sporting boats looking for a safe anchorage at Grand Isle, ca. 1939; (in Justin F. Bordarave, ed., Jefferson Parish Yearly Review, Special Collections Division, Hill Memorial Library, Louisiana State University Libraries, p. 54)



When a road and bridge were completed to Grand Isle, it became a favorite summer and weekend resort, July 4, 1938; (Forville Weas, Louisiana State Library, Louisiana Photographic Archived)



A day at the beach on Grand Isle, no date; (Louisiana State Library, Louisiana Collection, WPA Photographic Archived)



Grand Isle bathers leave their cars at the water's edge on hard packed sands, while they enjoy playing in the surf, 1940; (in Justin F. Bordarave, ed., Jefferson Parish Yearly Review, Special Collections Division, Hill Memorial Library, Louisiana State University Libraries, p. 77)



Palm-lined Ludwig's Lane on Grand Isle, ca. 1933; (Pen and ink postcard drawing by George Izvolksy)



Grand Isle oyster boats, ca. 1933; (Pen and ink postcard drawing by George Izvolksy)



A group of Grand Isle bathers modeling the latest in swimwear, ca. 1890; (Historic New Orleans Collection, Museum/Research Center, Accession No. 1961.238.14)



Within the oak thicket at the center of Grand Isle, the local farm community established orange groves, caudiflower fields, and blackberry patches, 1943; (in Justin F. Bordarave, ed., Jefferson Parish Yearly Review, Special Collections Division, Hill Memorial Library, Louisiana State University Libraries)

GRAND ISLE: A POTPOURRI OF USES

The history of Grand Isle is not as spectacular as that of Isles Dernieres, Cheniere Caminada, or Grand Terre. It was like all of south Louisiana's coastal settlements, isolated. To survive economically, the island's inhabitants supported themselves through various industries that included seafood canning, agriculture, and turtle farming (Davis, 1990).

Grand Isle's first major economic activity was the sugar business. By 1830, four sugar plantations were in operation; this established the island as an agricultural base. These plantations were owned by Samuel Britton Bennett, Alexander and Charles Lesseps and John B. Lepretre, Pleasant Branch Cocke, and Francois Rigaud (House Document, 1832).

The center of the island had always been protected to some degree from the full force of a hurricane and was therefore of agricultural interest. The eastern end of the island was under the ownership of Francois Rigaud (House Document, 1832). The island's western end was claimed in 1833 by Samuel Britton Bennett (Swanson, 1975). The middle was divided between the Lesseps/Lepretre and Cocke interests.

A sugarhouse, mills, small homes, carpenter shop, stables, draining machine, cotton gin and press, blacksmith shop, slave quarters, and other buildings were a part of the island's plantation morphology. Sugar and cotton were the principal crops, but sugar was always primary (Swanson, 1975).

Grand Isle citizens lived in wood-framed cottages without electricity, modern plumbing, or evening newspaper, but the fishermen and vegetable farmers considered them comfortable. These were simple folk houses with little wasted space. Below the window sill on many homes there was a sloping shelf called a *tablettes a chaudiere*, or "dish-washing shelf," large enough to hold a stout dish pan. While washing the dishes, *Maman* kept her eye on everything that happened in the yard and on the road.

The oriental pink-to-faded-red-sailed fishing boats called luggers were a common sight in the Barataria estuary and were steered with a rudder by Malay fishermen or French oystermen (Sampsel, 1893). Piled on board the vessels were big bell-shaped bamboo baskets covered with Spanish moss (Tillandsia usneoides), lashed with ribbons of latania (palmetto), and filled with the day's harvest of shrimp, oysters, fish, or crabs (Cole, 1892a). As a rule, fishermen received about half the retail price for their catch. Grand Isle, one of the fishermen's supply points, eventually developed into an important recreational site. Spanish moss, itself an important regional product, was collected, ginned, and sold for furniture or mattress stuffing. There was, in fact, a large trade in the moss along the area's inland waterways (Saxon, 1942).

THE RECREATIONAL RESORT

After the Civil War, Grand Isle became a mecca for fishing, recreation, and farming; visitors endured untold hardships because getting to the island was difficult. It took 12 or more hours to reach it through narrow canals scarcely wider than the passenger

steamboat. This problem was resolved upon completion of the New Orleans, Fort Jackson and Grand Island Railroad, which travelled down the Mississippi's west bank to Socola's Canal at Myrtle Grove plantation. Passengers were loaded onto a steamboat that carried them the rest of the way. The entire trip took about five hours (Ross, 1889a). Although there was some thought of building a railroad to the island to lessen the travel time, this idea never materialized.

Excursion packets from New Orleans were available aboard numerous steamboats of the era. For \$7.50 per person, a room could be reserved for an overnight packet (New Orleans Times, 1866). By 1861, there was daily service to the island via the Emma McSweeney and the Fort Jackson and Grand Isle Railroad (The Times-Democrat [New Orleans], 1891b). A well-established pattern of summer visitation evolved. Plans were made to expand the island's facilities and make it even more attractive for guests (Meyer-Arendt, 1985). In addition, the steamer St. Nicholas provided passenger service three times a week from New Orleans to the island (Tveys, 1867).

In the late nineteenth century, Grand Isle attracted summer vacationers who wanted to enjoy the island's beaches and escape the heat and "yellow jack" (malaria) that plagued New Orleans. The epidemic of 1878 caused numerous families to take refuge on Grand Isle (Ross, 1889a).

THE ISLAND'S ECONOMIC BASE

Within the oak thicket at the center of the island, the local farm community eventually established orange groves, cauliflower fields, and blackberry patches. John Ludwig, one of the island's earliest leaders, recognized that the sandy loam soil could be used to produce mel-

ons, cucumbers, cauliflower, and other commodities (House Document, 1917). The soil, however, could not be cultivated by conventional means, so Ludwig introduced the idea of using high hills with deep furrows to ensure proper drainage. To utilize Ludwig's technique, the islanders built new levees on the island's bay side and repaired those that had been damaged by storms. To keep out salt water, flood gates were installed.

Grand Isle citizens went into the truck-farming business and used shrimp bran to fertilize the new fields (Swanson, 1975). These farms were quite successful and often shipped to northern markets between 35,000 and 50,000 bushels of cucumbers a year (Thompson, 1944). Orange groves were planted so close to the Gulf they rarely froze, and the island's cauliflower reached northern markets before that of any other producing region.

Even though farms were established, farmers still endured the uncertainty of getting their products to market before other producers. Heavy losses were often incurred because perishable items could not be shipped to New Orleans during sustained periods of low water (House Document, 1917).

The Grand Isle and Yugoslavian fishermen gained some notoriety for the oyster beds established in Barataria Bay. On Bayou Brule, a packing plant was constructed from a renovated building used by the New Orleans' World Exposition in 1884. Unfortunately, the enterprise failed, and the harvest was sent to "Lugger Bay," a small area of water on the Mississippi River across from the French market in New Orleans.

By the early 1900's, the island was served by a large number of stern-wheel gasoline boats. The Tulane, Hazel Nevada, and J. S. & B. made the New Orleans-Grand Isle run once or twice a week to carry freight and passengers to the island. These boats and the local luggers carried shrimp, dried shrimp, shrimp bran, crabs, fish, diamond-back terrapin, game, cucumbers, squash, beans, tomatoes, oysters, corn, and furs to the New Orleans market (House Document, 1917).

THE ISLAND'S RESIDENT TURTLE HERD

In the 1890's, John Ludwig, Jr., established on Grand Isle what was reputed to have been the world's largest terrapin farm, valued at over \$50,000 (House Document, 1917). The turtle business was established to meet the needs of the restaurant trade (True, 1884b). The diamond-back terrapin (*Malacoclemmys palustris*) was a highly prized food and was cooked according to a Maryland or Philadelphia recipe for a stew garnished with vegetables and spices. Nationwide, the best market was Philadelphia, but turtles were sold in large numbers in many other cities (True, 1884b). Grand Isle turtles were sold to customers in New York, Baltimore, Washington D.C., and Boston (Housley, 1913).

Fishermen caught the animals in their nets, but to meet the industry's needs, a consistent source of diamond-back terrapin was needed. The turtle farm, "three low barns, separated by a road [that] look almost identical with the barns of a well-appointed race track" (Housley, 1913, p. 1), solved this problem. The barns had a low silhouette with protective latticework on the ends, a hinged roof, and floors covered with less than one-half meter of water. Encircling the ponds were small earthen levees designed to let the turtles sun themselves (Housley, 1913).

These pens, or stables, housed about 20,000 female and 5,000 male turtles. The females were used for breeding and market, while the males' only worth was breeding. When the female's bottom shell was 15 centimeters long, her market value would be from \$1.00 to \$1.50, while the male's was rarely over 25 cents (Housley, 1913). Turtles were of some commercial value for their meat and eggs. One turtle, for example, could weigh over 200 kilograms and yield 1,000 eggs (Fountain, 1966).

Although others went into the industry, Ludwig bought them out and controlled the business in Louisiana. Grand Isle was the major source for terrapin, but the industry was widespread. In 1900, one dealer on Deer Island, Mississippi, had a herd of over 5,000.

At Grand Isle, many families collected turtles for Ludwig's farm. Often dogs were used to point to where the terrapin were hiding. Besides raising his own locally caught turtles, Ludwig kept turtles shipped from other wholesalers. Dealers in New York and Philadelphia shipped their terrapins south in the fall because the cold northern winters were often fatal. A barrel of turtles could be stabled at the Ludwig farm for \$10 a season (Housley, 1913).



This open-air *tablettes a chaudiere*, or dish-washing shelf, was strong enough to hold a stout dish pan, ca. 1947; (in Justin F. Bordenave, ed., *Jefferson Parish Yearly Review*, Special Collections Division, Hill Memorial Library, Louisiana State University Libraries, p. 68).



A net being repaired on Grand Isle, ca. 1947; (in Justin F. Bordenave, ed., *Jefferson Parish Yearly Review*, Special Collections Division, Hill Memorial Library, Louisiana State University Libraries, p. 69).



Grand Isle harbor scene, ca. 1940; (Historic New Orleans Collection, Museum/Research Center, Accession No. 1976.22.3).

Col. D.S. Cage (1870)

GRAND ISLE.

For Grand Isle,
The swift passenger steamer

COL. D.S. CAGE,
Capt. Frank Meyer, Hill House, Clerk
will make regular trips to the above popular water-
ing place, leaving the head of Harpoot's Canal on TUESDAY
MAY, and SATURDAY at 8 o'clock A. M. Pass-
engers and freight rate by on this steamer leaving
normally an alternate for small or passage and
a large amount of freight, advertising rates

Huber, Leonard, 1959, Advertisements of *Lower Mississippi River Steamboats, 1812-1920*, West Barrington, Rhode Island, The Steamship Historical Society of America, p. 13.

C. D. Jr. (1854)

FOR THE COAST AND LA-
ROUEN.—Twice a week from New Or-
leans.—The Steamer **C. D. Jr.** will
leave New Orleans on TUESDAY at 10 o'clock
A. M., and arrive at LA-ROUEN on
FRIDAY at 10 o'clock A. M. The
steamer will carry passengers and freight
at 10 o'clock A. M., and Monday at 8 A. M. For freight or pas-
sage, apply on board or to
AGENTS, New Orleans.

THE INTERIOR AND PLANTING.—The steamer **C. D. Jr.**
will leave New Orleans on TUESDAY at 10 o'clock
A. M., and arrive at LA-ROUEN on
FRIDAY at 10 o'clock A. M. The
steamer will carry passengers and freight
at 10 o'clock A. M., and Monday at 8 A. M. For freight or pas-
sage, apply on board or to
AGENTS, New Orleans.

Huber, Leonard, 1959, Advertisements of *Lower Mississippi River Steamboats, 1812-1920*, West Barrington, Rhode Island, The Steamship Historical Society of America, p. 16.



The Kranz Hotel was partially destroyed in the 1893 hurricane, ca. 1893; (Historic New Orleans Collection, Museum/Research Center, Accession No. 1981.238.17)



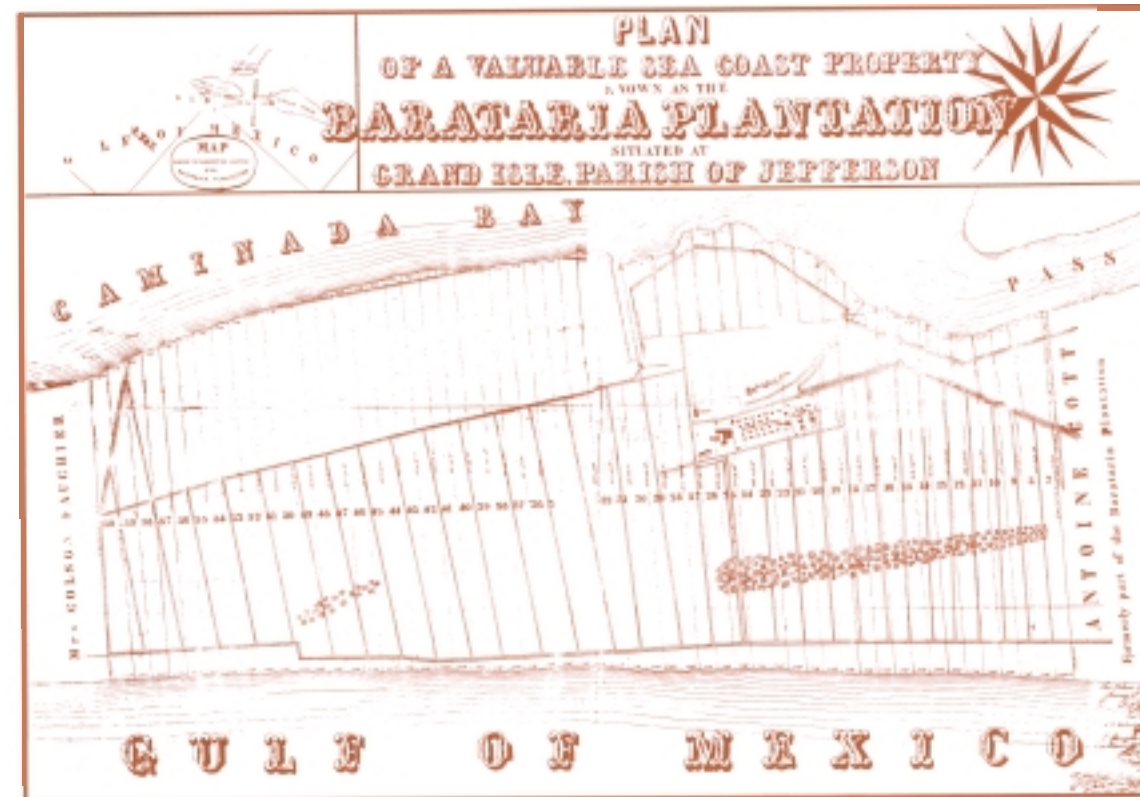
The row cottages that made up the Kranz Hotel, no date; (Historic New Orleans Collection, Museum/Research Center, Accession No. 1981.251.13).



The 1893 hurricane severely damaged The Ocean Club. Built for an estimated \$100,000, the facility was never rebuilt in its original grand manner, ca. 1893; (in Mark Forrest, *Wasted by Wind and Water: a Historical and Pictorial Sketch of the Gulf Disaster*, Milwaukee, Art Gravure and Etching Company, Louisiana Lower Mississippi Valley Collections, Hill Memorial Library, Louisiana State University Libraries).



The main avenue of the Kranz Hotel complex showing the rail line used by mule carts to move people to the beach and the steamboat landing, ca. 1890; (Historic New Orleans Collection, Museum/Research Center, Accession No. 1982.862).



GRAND ISLE HOTELS AND HURRICANES

There were three hotels on Grand Isle during the late 1800's: the Kranz Hotel, Hotel Herwig, and the Ocean Club. As is the case today, the beach was the focus of the island's tourist trade, but the island's shoreline was in motion then also. A 1878 survey indicated the island's shoreface was subject to intermittent erosion and accretion. Besides that, there was also a constant threat from hurricanes (see appendix A). All the hotels were wrecked by the storm of 1893. In addition, the steamer Joe Webre, which made regular runs to the island, washed onto the island and "crashed to her death squarely across the tracks of the streetcar line that ran from the Kranz's Grand Isle Hotel to the beach" (Van Pelt, 1943, p. 8)—"a mass of broken timbers, fit only for firewood" (Forrest, no date, p. 6). Of the estimated 650 people on the island, 25 were killed (Sampsell, 1893).

THE KRANZ HOTEL

At Grand Isle's west end lay the Kranz hotel and its associated cottages. The villa was about one kilometer from the Gulf. Cole (1892a, p. 12) described the island's first hotel as an

old, popular, well known resort, built like a plantation quarters, in a series of [38] cottages along a grassy street. At one end a ballroom, at the other a dining hall. One is out of sight of the surf and the sea; but three times a day a tram car runs down to the beach where the bathhouses are.

Mule carts were used to unload the steamers that made regular trips to Grand Isle, and to convey guests to the beach during prescribed bathing hours—5:00 a.m., noon, and 6:00 p.m. (Ross, 1889a). A partial inventory of the hotel's property reveals there were three carts used in this shuttle service (Grand Isle Hotel, no date).

In a report in the *Daily Picayune*, Mr. Kranz (The *Daily Picayune* [New Orleans], 1893) stated:

I am 70 years old, and for many years have owned the Grand Isle Hotel. I am a widower with four children. On the night of the storm I was at home. I did not expect that anything serious would happen. The wind rose and blew hard. At 11 o'clock it changed and blew from northwest to southwest at intervals of fifteen minutes thereafter. In about half a hour the water on the grounds around the hotel was fully five feet deep. A terrible gust of wind struck the house and knocked it over. A portion of the guiding fell on me, and for a time I thought our last hour had come. Fortunately, the water continued to rise, and in about ten minutes I felt the weight pressing heavily upon my body gradually removed. I was lying on a beam. It was [w]ashed away from under the house, the water carrying me with it for a distance of twenty-five feet. I was sick and became unconscious, for several hours I did not know what had occurred to me. When I regained consciousness I was still clinging to the beam ... I received very serious injuries. In my feeble condition I returned to what had been the hotel, but out of the thirty-eight cottages which formerly stood there only twenty were left. There was not a particle of food to be found, everything had been washed away, including all the wearing apparel. I estimate my loss at from \$75,000 to \$100,000.

THE OCEAN CLUB

The Ocean Club hotel, built for an estimated \$100,000, lay broadside to the Gulf. Investors had grand plans for the property. The hotel was designed to be one of the "most commodious and imposing buildings along the Gulf" (Grand Isle, 1891, p. 3) and to rival or surpass the resort hotels at Newport, Saratoga, and Niagara Falls (The *Daily Picayune*-New Orleans, 1866). Photographs from the period indicate the investors met their goal; it was a most impressive structure. The hotel, in fact, marked the beginning of the island's resort cycle (Meyer-Arendt, 1985). Three times a week the steamer St. *Nicholas* carried to the island people interested in leisure-time pursuits (Tieys, 1867).

The two-story building took the shape of a large letter "E" (New Orleans *Daily Picayune*, 1891). With the hotel's long axis parallel to the Gulf, all rooms faced the surf zone. Supported by nearly 300 pilings, the hotel contained 160 bedrooms, two parlors, two dining halls, a billiard hall, a card room, a reading room, pantries, kitchen, and a laundry, and was illuminated by 320 gas lights. The dining hall alone could accommodate 250 guests. The middle section of the "E" was the "en" suite for the hotel's stockholders and was described as "most luxurious" (New Orleans *Daily Picayune*, 1891; The *Times-Democrat* [New Orleans], 1891a). The building was constructed with double framing that required over 180,000 meters of lumber. Like Fort Livingston, the Ocean Club served as a landmark for fishermen returning to the island (New Orleans *Daily Picayune*, 1891).

A two-story addition to the front of the building was planned. This structure would have been at right angles to the main building and extended to the beach. A 40-meter hall would have connected the main building to an immense over-water pavilion, which would have provided a covered walk to the Gulf. Bathrooms were designed into the first floor. The new structure was expected to increase the hotel's capacity to 1,000 guests (New Orleans *Daily Picayune*, 1891). However, the 1893 hurricane mined these plans permanently. Like the hotels on Isles Dernieres, it was damaged severely—never to be rebuilt in its original grand manner.

A storm in 1888 partially inundated the island. Stories circulated around New Orleans that Grand Isle's residents took refuge in Fort Livingston. The storm was described as being the most violent since the Last Island hurricane of 1856. When news of the storm's damage reached New Orleans, reporters wrote: "The rain fell in torrents and the hurricane was as severe as can be imagined" (The *Daily Picayune* [New Orleans], 1888, p. 1). The hotel and its associated cottages survived. Beach bathhouses were demolished and washed away, but quickly rebuilt (The *Picayune* [New Orleans], 1888; Cole, 1892a). Within days after the storm, the resort was back in operation with the *Joe Webre* bringing guests to the island on a regular basis. Five years after the 1888 storm, the enterprise had to be abandoned. Transportation to the island was not quick and easy. Those who could afford the \$50 a month room rate were unaccustomed to enduring the hardships of the long rail and boat trip to the resort (Cole, 1892a).



The Kranz Hotel was Grand Isle's first major hotel and was described as an "old, popular, well known resort, built like a plantation quarters, in a series of [38] cottages along a grassy street" (Cole, 1892a, p. 12), no date; (Historic New Orleans Collection, Museum/Research Center, Accession No. 1981.251.11).



Grand Isle tram clearly visible in a small, covered bridge, ca. 1890; (Historic New Orleans Collection, Museum/Research Center, Accession No. 1981.251.14).



The Grand Isle steamer *Joe Webre* lay across the tracks of the Kranz Hotel's streetcar line after the 1893 hurricane, ca. 1893; (in Mark Forrest, *Wasted by Wind and Water: a Historical and Pictorial Sketch of the Gulf Disaster*, Milwaukee, Art Gravure and Etching Company, Louisiana and Lower Mississippi Valley Collections, Hill Memorial Library, Louisiana State University Libraries).



Fort Livingston saw no military action, but from its inception in the 1840's, it was at war with the elements, ca. 1935; Forville Winans, Louisiana State Library, Louisiana Photographic Archives).

**GRAND TERRE:
HOME OF PIRATES AND PLANTATIONS**

THE HOME OF JEAN LAFITTE THE PIRATE

In the 1800's, Louisiana's coastal lowlands were ideally suited for smugglers. The land was inadequately mapped; consequently, government agents who were unfamiliar with the Barataria Bay water system easily became lost, and a skilled smuggler could outmaneuver his pursuers. Isolated ridges, or Indian middens, were utilized to unload contraband. Louisiana's geographical position was nearly perfect for the storage and movement of illicit foreign merchandise (Davis, 1990).

The privateer Jean Lafitte established a base on Grand Terre. By 1810, New Orleans newspapers reported that the privateers had captured a "richly laden" Spanish ship, removed her guns, and built a shore battery to protect their base of operations (The Louisiana Gazette-New Orleans, 1810). These beach cannon emplacements fortified the site. The "first smugglers' convention [was] held there [Grand Terre] in 1805" (DeGrummond, 1961, p. 4).

Over 30 privateer captains called Grand Terre, Grand Isle, and Cheniere Caminada their home. With 120- to 130-ton brigs and schooners, manned by crews of 90 to 200 men, the island's population often swelled to 3,000 (DeGrummond, 1961). Lafitte also had a base at Cat Island, the home of from 500 to 600 men who were protected by a 14-gun brig sunk in the pass (Gilbert, 1814). In 1814, there was a force of five or six armed vessels at Cat Island, each carrying from 12 to 14 guns and 60 to 90 men.

The region profited from the "legalized" pillage practiced by the Barataria pirates. The harbor at Grand Terre served as a rallying point for the Gulf privateers' fast-sailing schooners, which were armed for victory over their adversaries. Newspapers reported that numerous New Orleans businessmen sailed to the island to acquire good bargains (The Louisiana Gazette-New Orleans, 1814a). Several huts and a storehouse were constructed to display the captured booty.

As the English closed the French-controlled Caribbean ports, more contraband was shipped to Grand Terre. Great quantities of foreign merchandise accumulated on the island and were distributed to the New Orleans market. To meet the demand for storage space, Lafitte acquired a warehouse in New Orleans and built one in Donaldsonville. At Grand Terre, 40 warehouses were built along with slave pens, dwellings, a hospital, and an improved fort (DeGrummond, 1961).

At times, the only prudent means of disposing of merchandise was to hold a public auction (Gilbert, 1814). The warehouses attracted merchants and traders who used large pirogues to make the three-day journey to Lafitte's market at Grand Terre. The entrepreneurs purchased their goods cheaply, then retailed them at a large profit: the privateers were better with sword, cutlass, and cannon than with matters of business.

A fleet of small vessels was constantly moving these resold goods into the "Crescent City." The practice was "illegal" but ignored by most of the authorities (Daily Delta [New Orleans], 1854). Hard currency was scarce in New Orleans, so these goods became part of the city's better economy.

In 1814, the United States Navy sent an expedition to stop the privateers. They captured all of their buildings and effectively terminated privateering on the Louisiana coast (The Louisiana Gazette-New Orleans, 1814b).

GRAND TERRE SUGAR PLANTATION

In 1795, Francois Mayronne purchased the Grand Terre sugar plantation from Joseph Andoeza, who claimed ownership of the island from a Spanish land grant. By 1823 Jean-Baptiste Moussier owned Grand Terre. Sixty-nine slaves worked this sugar plantation, which was valued at \$38,000 and included a sugarhouse, draining house, steam engine, dwelling house, slave cabins, and other outbuildings (Chamberlain, 1942). In 1831 a hurricane completely inundated the island with water six meters deep. Two sugarhouses and the sugar cane in the field were blown down. The corn crop was destroyed, and the island's residents were forced to seek shelter in "their boats and canoes" (The Daily Picayune [New Orleans] 1863, p. 3).

The Moussier family sold the island but retained most of the western tip—the future site of Fort Livingston. By the mid-nineteenth century, the eastern two-thirds of the island were under the control of F. G. and L. E. Forstall. In 1845 this property produced 300,000 lbs of sugar, but after the Civil War the plantation was abandoned because cheap field hands were no longer available.

Jose Llulla bought most of the island, and until his death in 1888, he lived a quiet life raising cattle on Grand Terre. With the success of Grand Isle's hotels, several businessmen were convinced they could convert the former home of Jean Lafitte into a tourist attraction. They bought the Llulla estate for \$2,500 intending "to divide it up into building sites for themselves and hold the remainder" (New Orleans Times-Democrat, 1893, p. 9). These investors believed that "if the railroad extends seven miles [11 kilometers] toward the bay they will have a small bonanza" (New Orleans Times-Democrat, 1893, p. 9). However, the railroad was never built, no hotel was constructed, and the island reverted to its original form.



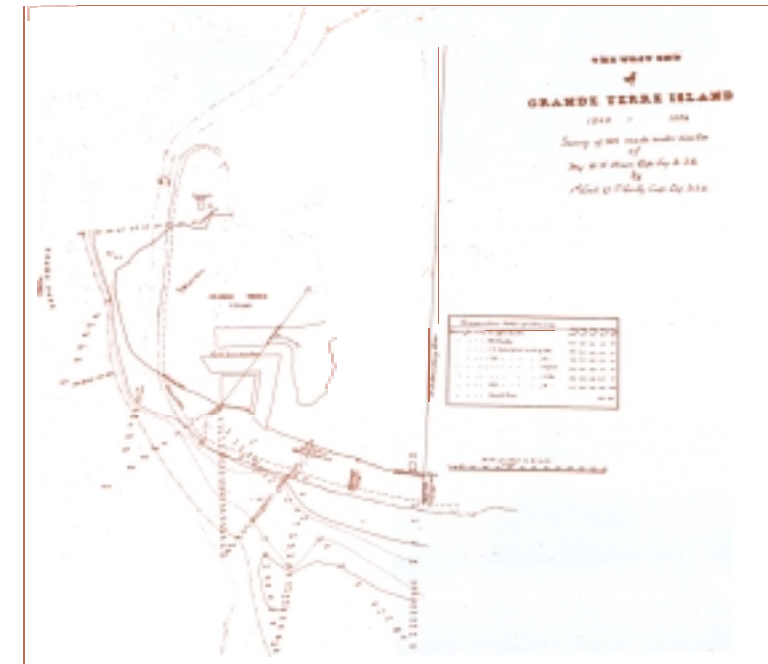
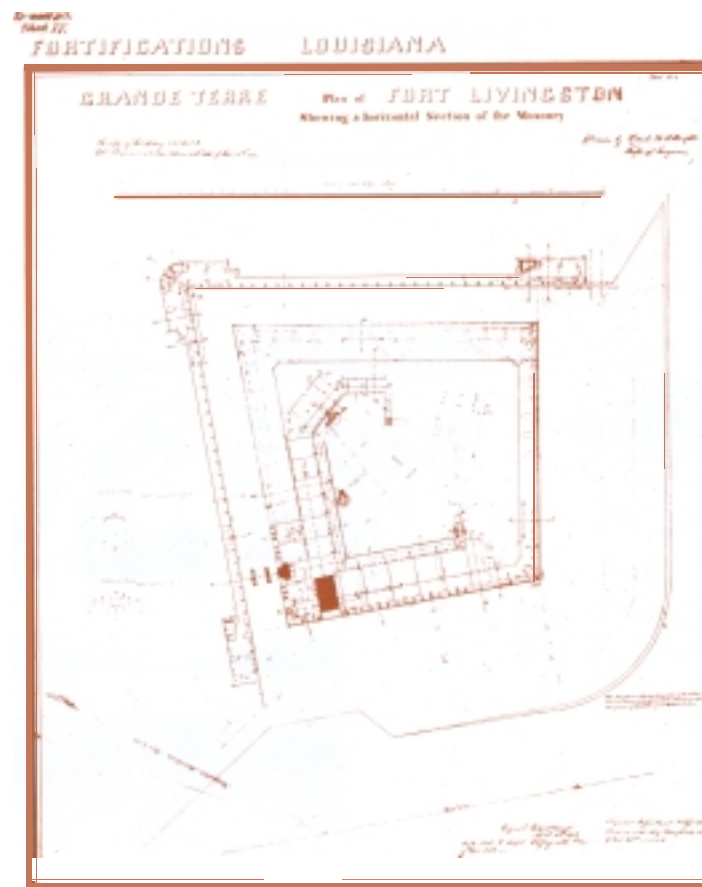
By the mid-1930's the western end of Grand Terre was eroded to the point where the surf was pounding on Fort Livingston's outside walls, date: (Fonville Winans, Louisiana State Library, Louisiana Photographic Archives).



To build Fort Livingston, brick was shipped to the site from the Mississippi Gulf coast. Shells removed from Indian middens were also utilized. With time and the elements the structure became a derelict relic of the past, ca. 1933: (Pen and ink postcard drawing by George Izvolsky).

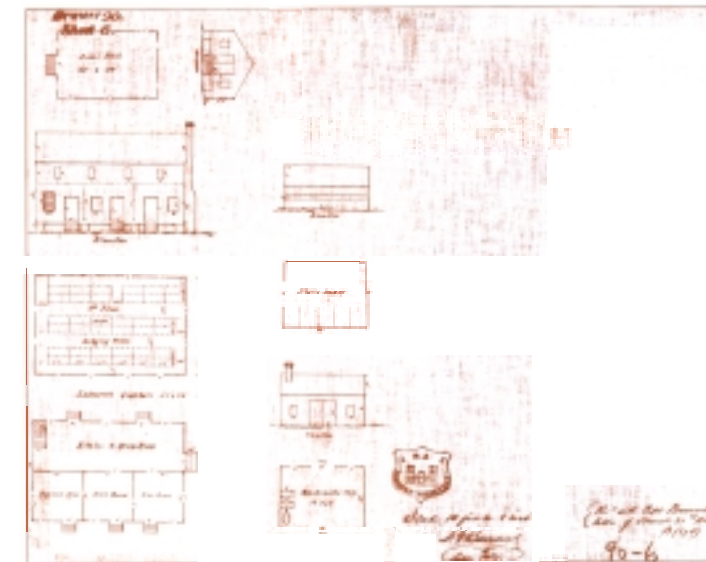
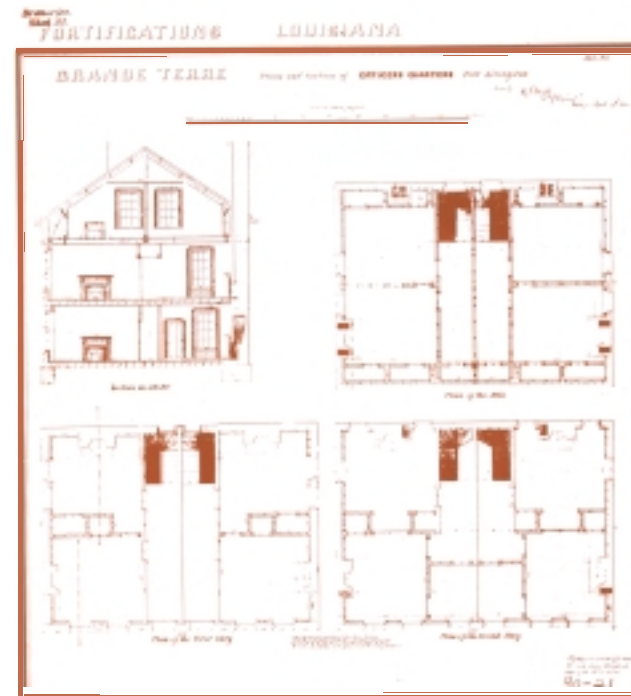
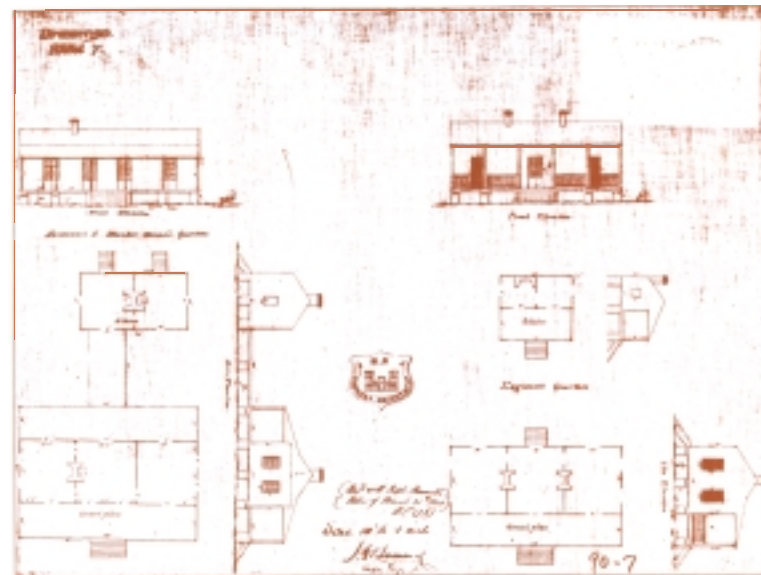


Erosion at the eastern end of Grande Terre Island, 1840-1854: (National Archives, Record Group 77, Drawer 90, Sheet 34).



Erosion at the western end of Grande Terre Island, 1840-1886: (National Archives, Record Group 77, Drawer 90, Sheet 44).

Floor Plan of Fort Livingston





In 1893 a hurricane swept Cheniere Caminada almost clean-four homes survived, no date: (Frank Leslie's Illustrated Weekly, October 26, 1893, p. 269, Biloxi Public Library Archives).



Cheniere Caminada's Our Lady of Lourdes church, 1891: (National Archives, Negative No. 22-FCD-39).



Fisherman's wife next to a typical south Louisiana outdoor (bousillage) oven, which could hold up to 15 loaves of bread at a time, 1891: (National Archives, Negative No. 22-FCD-37).



Leon Theriot's sail-powered lugger Neptune flying the French flag, near Cheniere Caminada, 1891: (National Archives, Negative No. 22-FCD-32).



Father Grima, the Breton priest responsible for building the Catholic Church on Cheniere Caminada, no date: (Harper's Weekly, October 21, 1893, p. 1,000, Biloxi Public Library Archives).

Cheniere Caminada: The Disappearance Of A Community



After the 1893 hurricane, the dead were buried in shallow graves, no date: (Frank Leslie's Illustrated Weekly, October 26, 1893, p. 269, the Biloxi Public Library Archives).



The palmetto-covered Chinese camp at Bayou Andre, where 63 people were lost during the 1893 hurricane, 1893: (Harper's Weekly, October 21, 1893, p. 1,000, Biloxi Public Library Archives).



Typical Cheniere Caminada Creole houses, surrounded by a cypress pique fence, 1891: (National Archives, Negative No. 22-FCD-33).



Steamboats were used to bring supplies to Louisiana's coastal fishermen, 1891: (National Archives, Negative No. 22-FCD-246).



John Meralina, a Barataria Bay Malay fisherman, rescued eight persons after the 1893 storm, no date: (Harper's Weekly, October 21, 1893, p. 1,000, Biloxi Public Library Archives).



Grand Isle's Kranz Hotel was depicted as a total loss in this line drawing, no date: (Frank Leslie's Illustrated Weekly, October 26, 1893, p. 269, Biloxi Public Library Archives).



Cheniere Caminada fishermen, 1891: (National Archives, Negative No. 22-FCD-42).



The folk architecture of Cheniere Caminada included palmetto-covered structures built with techniques learned from the indigenous Indian population. Cast nets were hung on the fence to dry, 1891: (National Archives, Negative No. 22-FCD-41).



Of Louisiana's folk boats, the esquif, or skiff, is the most easily distinguished. This sail- and oar-powered boat from Cheniere Caminada would have been identified locally as a peniche, chaloupe, or galere, 1891: (National Archives, Negative No. 22-FCD-47).

CHENIERE CAMINADA

Cheniere Caminada lifts its comb of roof and gray gable and soft-colored adobe chimneys from out the clumps and clouds of the chinaberry tree. Along the shores in the water shallows the fishermen have hung their long seines to dry. (Cole, 1892a, p. 12)

At the west end of Grand Isle, less than a mile across the Caminada Bay, was the "Isle of Cheniere," or "Island of Chetimachas" (Public Lands, 1836). The island, valued at nearly \$20,000 and worked by about 50 slaves, was an operating plantation in 1836 (Swanson, 1975). By 1890 Cheniere Caminada (from the French, meaning *a roadway through oaks*) was an important fishing settlement and the most densely populated community on Louisiana's barrier islands with its ownership roots dating back to 1763 (Public Lands, 1836). It had a cosmopolitan ambience, made up of Yugoslavians, Italians, Chinese, Malays, and a few blacks (Sampsel, 1893).

The island was a thriving hamlet with a population of 1,471. About 250-450 small, gray, pleasant homes were stretched side by side in two long lines-one faced Caminada Pass parallel to the Gulf shore and a short distance from the beach, the other fronted Caminada Bay. Space was precious, so the homes were set close together-as dense as urban row housing (Cole, 1892b).

The palmetto-covered, bousillage homes were spartan but neat, with brick dust floors and huge fireplaces. The smell of coffee was always in the air-"black as sin, hot as the hinges of hell, and strong as revival religion" (Frost, 1939, p. 76). Fences were made of driftwood stuck into the ground (Cole, 1892b). Homemade outdoor ovens, located behind the homes and often in a grove of orange trees, were used to bake water-buck&sized loaves of bread (pain chaud)-12 to 15 at a time; it was some of the "best bread you ever ate" (Lanski, 1943). A Breton priest, Father Grima, built a high, narrow, brown and yellow Gothic church on the island and dedicated it Our Lady of Lourdes (Cole, 1892b). There were also nine grocery stores; each sold seines, castnets, sails, and oil coats, items the native fishermen considered essential (Cole, 1892b). All of Cheniere Caminada's outside needs were met by either these grocery stores or by supply boats that came through the Barataria water system from New Orleans (Van Pelt, 1943).

The chief form of entertainment on Cheniere Caminada was a ball held on Saturday nights. Admission was free to the locals, and soft drinks, gumbo, and coffee were sold, along with a regional specialty, boiled mullet or meul bouille. Guests could attend these functions for 25 cents, which guaranteed a supper with red wine (Cole, 1892b).

Decked in front of each home were the long, shallow boats that under sail were well adapted to both the legal and illegal activities of the fishermen. Jake Kilrain, John L. Sullivan, Buffalo Bill, II Destino, and Nativita di Caminada were stenciled on the bows of these boats. Boats were the net fishermen's transportation. It is quite possible that many of these net fishermen were descendants of the crews of the privateer Jean Lafitte.

Cheniere Caminada was a thriving community. Its population primarily harvested the region's renewable resources: shrimp, oysters, crabs, and fin fish. They practiced their seasonal occupations in virtual isolation. These net fishermen would leave their homes, often for months, to sail to their winter camps where they harvested various aquatic species. Shrimp, oysters, and crabs were shipped to New Orleans and consumed by the city's hotels, restaurants, and steamboats or exported to other markets.

LOUISIANA'S WORST HURRICANE DISASTER

The 1893 storm destroyed Cheniere Caminada. Four homes remained, and these were filled with crowds of survivors (The Weekly Thibodaux Sentinel, 1893b). The land was swept clean, and the death toll varied from 779 to 822, with only 696 people surviving (The Weekly Thibodaux Sentinel, 1893b). Some survivors drifted nearly 100 kilometers across the Gulf to Southwest Pass. There were 78 people in one home; the house collapsed, killing 74 (The Weekly Thibodaux Sentinel, 1893a). Dead were everywhere; the odor endured. Often coffins and separate graves were unavailable, so bodies were buried where they were found. There were so many dead, the graves of those who were recognizable were aligned like the rows in a plowed field (Sampsel, 1893; The Weekly Thibodaux Sentinel, 1893a). Those who survived saved themselves by using timber, roofs, and doors-anything that floated-for rafts. Of the island's fishing schooners and red-sail luggers, only the *Good Mother* and *Counter* survived (The Daily Picayune [New Orleans], 1893). The storm also took its toll on Grand Isle and many shrimp platforms in Barataria Bay, such as at Bayou Andre, Bird Island, and Bayou Dufond. Relief boats from New Orleans brought supplies and ice to be melted for drinking water; crew members were appalled by the destruction (Van Pelt, 1943).

After the hurricane, Cheniere Caminada was abandoned. Some people eventually returned, but their new community was destroyed by a 1915 hurricane (Baker, 1946).



One of the few houses that partially survived the 1893 storm, no date: (in Mark Forrest, *Wasted by Wind and Water: a Historical and Pictorial Sketch of the Gulf Disaster*, Milwaukee, Art Gravure and Etching Company, Louisiana and Lower Mississippi Valley Collections, Hill Memorial Library, Louisiana State University Libraries).



Sixty-two people survived the Cheniere Caminada disaster under the roof of this collapsed shed, no date: (in Mark Forrest, *Wasted by Wind and Water: a Historical and Pictorial Sketch of the Gulf Disaster*, Milwaukee, Art Gravure and Etching Company, Louisiana and Lower Mississippi Valley Collections, Hill Memorial Library, Louisiana State University Libraries).



Out of a population of about 1,500 people, more than half did not survive; dead were everywhere, no date: (in Mark Forrest, *Wasted by Wind and Water: a Historical and Pictorial Sketch of the Gulf Disaster*, Milwaukee, Art Gravure and Etching Company, Louisiana and Lower Mississippi Valley Collections, Hill Memorial Library, Louisiana State University Libraries).



Wash day at a shrimp fisherman's home at Cheniere Caminada, with the Catholic church and other structures in the background, 1892: National Archives, Negative No. 22-FC-34).



Relief steamer, surrounded by loggers, taking supplies to the survivors of the 1893 hurricane, no date: (in Mark Forrest, *Wasted by Wind and Water: a Historical and Pictorial Sketch of the Gulf Disaster*, Milwaukee, Art Gravure and Etching Company, Louisiana and Lower Mississippi Valley Collections, Hill Memorial Library, Louisiana State University Libraries).



Part of the aftermath of the Cheniere Caminada hurricane, date: (in Mark Forrest, *Wasted by Wind and Water: a Historical and Pictorial Sketch of the Gulf Disaster*, Milwaukee, Art Gravure and Etching Company, Louisiana and Lower Mississippi Valley Collections, Hill Memorial Library, Louisiana State University Libraries).



Grand Isle fishermen, burned by thousands of days of exposure to the sun, vividly describe the history of the area's hardy inhabitants, ca. 1940: (in Justin F. Bordenave, ed., Jefferson Parish Yearly Review, Special Collections Division, Hill Memorial Library, Louisiana State University Libraries, p. 50).



A racing hull designed and built in Houma. Annual races were held at Sea Breeze—a community that has been eroded away, ca. 1930: (Randolph Bazet Collection, Houma, Louisiana).



Successfully tonging oysters from Louisiana's prolific oyster beds, no date: (Louisiana Department of Wildlife and Fisheries, Photographic Archives).

Wetlands Harvest



Scooping up blue crabs in Barataria Bay, 1930: (Fonville Winans, Louisiana State Library, Louisiana Photographic Archives).



To maintain navigability many bays were dredged, or canals were cut to connect existing waterways. The dredge Eclipse was active in Lafourche and Terrebonne parishes, no date: (Historic Lafourche Collection, Allen Ellender Memorial Library Archives, Nicholls State University, Thibodaux, Louisiana).



A fishing boat rendezvous, ca. 1920: (Randolph Bazet Collection, Houma, Louisiana).



Fishing has always been a popular recreational activity along Louisiana's coast, no date: (Louisiana Department of Wildlife and Fisheries, Photographic Archives).



December, January, and February were the traditional trapping months. The animal's pelt was fleshed, washed, stretched, and dried, no date: (Louisiana Department of Wildlife and Fisheries, Photographic Archives).



Trappers built rough-hewn camps in the marsh to efficiently harvest their leases during the winter season. Entire families moved into these settlements—schools closed because most of the students were working their families' trapping lines, 1930: (Louisiana Department of Wildlife and Fisheries, Photographic Archives).



A successful shrimp harvest, ca. 1920: (Randolph Bazet Collection, Houma, Louisiana).



The Louisiana prouge (pettyaugre) draws so little water it is said to "float on a heavy dew." This shallow-draft folk boat became an indispensable tool to the coastal dweller, ca. 1935: (in Channing Stowell, ed., Jefferson Parish Yearly Review, Special Collections Division, Hill Memorial Library, Louisiana State University Libraries, p. 54).



In the late 1800's and early 1900's market hunters and sportsmen harvested thousands of birds and millions of eggs for restaurants, glue manufacturers, photographic films, and the millinery trade, ca. 1920: (Randolph Bazet Collection, Houma, Louisiana).



In the late 1800's, one hunter could market more than 1,000 alligator hides annually, ca. 1905: (Louisiana State Library, Louisiana Photographic Archives, WPA Photographic Archives).



Crab fisherman, ca. 1930: (Fonville Winans, Louisiana State Library, Louisiana Photographic Archives).



Mixed Houmas at Little Bayou, Louisiana, 1907: (Smithsonian Institution, Photo No. 14287)



A trainasse machine cut the narrow-pirogue trails that allowed trappers access to their trapping areas, 1969: (Donald Davis Collection, Baton Rouge, Louisiana).



To effectively harvest the marsh, trappers built isolated camps near the areas they trapped, 1947: (Todd Webb, Louisiana State Library, Louisiana Photographic Archives).



The Louisiana muskrat, ca. 1940: (Louisiana Department of Wild Life and Fisheries, Photographic Archives)

WETLANDS TRAPPING IN FRENCH LOUISIANA

Trapping, one of the oldest means for obtaining food and clothing, originally was a profession confined primarily to the taiga and tundra regions of northern Alaska and Canada. Once alligator (Alligator mississippiensis), mink (Mustela vison), otter (Lutra canadensis), and raccoon (Procyon lotor) were recognized as valuable hide- and fur-bearing animals, the belief that quality furs came only from cold climates was dispelled. Within 150 years Louisiana marshes became North America's preeminent fur-producing region. By the early twentieth century, Louisiana's annual harvest was greater than that of Alaska and Canada combined. Louisiana's wetlands were considered an important and easily exploited wildlife habitat (Ashbrook, 1953; O'Neil, 1965).

Before the 1914-22 increase in fur prices from 8 to 50 cents a pelt (Chatterton, 1944), hunting was more profitable than trapping; a brace of ducks sold for 25 cents. Locals changed their winter subsistence activity from hunting to trapping because of the 500 percent increase in fur prices.

Ten years later approximately 20,000 people were involved in Louisiana's essentially uncontrolled trapping industry. A trapper set lines on any land that suited him because he was concerned with productivity, not property ownership. To work this land a trapper went into the marsh with his entire family. Children lived on the trapping lines and returned to school after the three-month season to "catch back" their studies (Frost, 1939).

Marsh dwellers used cane poles to mark their trapping areas and brought order to what could have been chaos. Once staked out, individual plots were respected. Ditches were cut to gain access to the marsh. A trainasse or ditch, could be used to cross someone else's claim, but traps were never set on another person's land (Davis, 1976). It was folk law that trapping grounds were honored and divided according to families: often husband and wife trapped different parcels. When fur prices increased, people from outside the area became involved in the industry (Davis, 1973). These outsiders competed for the choice trapping areas. This disregard for individual rights culminated in a trapper's war in St. Bernard and Plaquemines parishes (Washburn, 1951).

To remedy the situation, the State intervened and established a controlled harvest; pelts were, for the first time, graded to determine their value. In addition, landowners assigned individual trappers parcels of land, and licensed trappers, free-lancers, and bootleggers were unable to work the land easily. Competition and poaching by outlaws and outsiders were eliminated (Washburn, 1951). Arrangements with landowners varied; generally, a trapper worked on a 50-50 basis. When furs were scarce, a 65-35 share was negotiated, with the trapper receiving 65 percent (Frost, 1939).

With the increased value of furs, trappers spent more time in the marsh, so they lived on their trapping leases in small, one- or two-room, palmetto-thatched huts called camps, crude by today's standards but adequate and always clean. The huts were copies of the houses built on the natural ridges by many native Americans. There was no need for a larger structure because trapping families

spent most of their time outdoors.

The camps evolved into more permanent structures with wood-burning or butane stoves to supply heat, white-gas or kerosene lantern lights, and cistern water (Gary and Davis, 1979). These camps were rough-hewn buildings but actively used only in December, January, and February, so they were quite adequate. Everything required at the camp was hauled in by boat (Daspi, 1948). Large boats provided access, but motorized pirogues and mudboats allowed the trapper to increase his trapping from 150 to 400 traps by increasing the territory covered (O'Neil and Linscombe, 1975).

At the camp the pelts were fleshed, washed, stretched, and dried. They were then sold to a local buyer who sold to one of the Louisiana fur dealers. Trapping was and is a labor-intensive industry. In fact, the method employed in trapping and handling the fur has changed little since the invention of the steel trap by Sewell Newhouse in the mid-1800's (O'Neil, 1969).

MUSKRAT AND NUTRIA

Beaver, otter, and mink did not account for Louisiana's trapping growth; it was a result rather of the willingness of the local population to exploit the region's unique resources: muskrat (*Onychia zibethicus zibethicus*) and nutria (*Myocastor coypus*).

Before the late 1800's the muskrat ranged as far south as southeastern Arkansas, but by 1900, it had become a permanent resident of Louisiana's marshes (O'Neil, 1949). Although it inhabited the wetlands, Arthur (1931) and O'Neil (1949) found no documentation linking muskrats to the early French fur trade. Fur buyers were interested in buffalo (*Bison bison*) and the American beaver (*Castor canadensis*). Muskrat pelts were offered to northern markets in 1870, but wholesalers considered them useless. By 1914, however, pelt prices increased. The animal was on the fur market and became the State's number one fur product, a title it eventually lost to the nutria (Chatterton, 1944).

To increase their marketability, muskrat pelts were often specially treated, and sold under the label French Seal or Hudson Seal (Chatterton, 1944). With time, the muskrat gained prestige under its own name. Because each pelt has three distinct colors: black (stripe down the back), light golden brown (sides), and silver (body), they could be used for three different garments (Murchison, 1978).

A muskrat builds its house, made of woven marsh grass and plastered with mud, 1.2 to 1.5 meters above the marsh surface, from which it can forage into the surrounding terrain. These houses are the keys to production because they identify the muskrat's brackish water habitat.

The Argentinian coypu, or nutria, was inadvertently introduced into the Louisiana wetlands in 1938 and is now well established throughout the State. The rodent first was considered a nuisance because it was heavy to carry out of the marsh, difficult to skin, and confined to a single area, but with increased prices, attitudes changed (Dozier and Ashbrook, 1950). By the early 1950's, trappers were harvesting nearly 80,000 pelts annually. Six years later, over 500,000 pelts were processed, a significant increase in less than 20 years (Davis, 1978). During that time, nutria pelts generated over \$7 million a year and represented about half of the State's fur income—all from a dozen coypu that escaped captivity (Daspi, 1950).



A trapper "flashing" the day's catch, no date (from the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, New Orleans District, Photographic Archives).



At one time, Louisiana produced more fur than the remainder of the United States and Canada combined, 1984: (Donald Davis Collection, Baton Rouge, Louisiana)



In a good year, a trapper would harvest from 50 to 200 animals a day. When brought back to camp, muskrat and nutria had to be cleaned immediately, ca. 1930: (Louisiana Department of Wild Life and Fisheries, Photographic Archives).



The Argentinean coypu, or nutria, was accidentally introduced into Louisiana's coastal lowlands, where it has proliferated, 1986: (Donald Davis Collection, Baton Rouge, Louisiana).



Mule carts were used to transport pirogues to access points, ca. 1930: (Randolph Bazet Collection, Houma, Louisiana).



Once an endangered species, the alligator has been reestablished in the wetlands. Each September, Louisiana has a controlled alligator hunt, 1988: (Donald Davis Collection, Baton Rouge, Louisiana)



At the turn of the century, pirogues were used to harvest the swamps, ca. 1900: (courtesy of Milton Newton, Louisiana State University Department of Geography and Anthropology, Bowie Lumber Company Collection).



Palmetto homes were a visible part of the wetlands landscape, 1910: (Swanton Collection, Smithsonian Institution, Photo No. 244).



Once dried, pelts were graded and sold to local buyers, ca. 1920: (Randolph Bazet Collection, Houma, Louisiana).



In some places, an isolated trapping village was constructed to meet the needs of several families, ca. 1930: (Louisiana Department of Wild Life and Fisheries, Photographic Archives).



For over 100 years Louisiana's waterpeople have harvested oysters from the State's estuarine habitats, ca. 1940: (Louisiana State Library, Louisiana Collection, WPA Photographic Archives).



To facilitate processing, oyster shops often were built on isolated sites near the oyster beds. This shop was located in the Terrebonne-Timbalier complex, south of Houma, ca. 1920: (Randolph Bazet Collection, Houma, Louisiana).



Fishermen often sold their oysters, crabs, or shrimp to larger boats, so they could remain at work, rather than losing time travelling to market, 1891: (National Archives, Negative No. 22-FCD-247).



In Terrebonne Parish, at Boudreaux Canal on Bayou Pettit Callou, Andrew St. Martin built an oyster-shucking plant to quickly process the region's harvest, 1911: (Randolph Bazet Collection, Houma, Louisiana).



Although New Orleans was recognized as Louisiana's principal oyster market, oyster-shucking houses were built in many delta-plain communities. Houma developed into one of these regional centers, no date: (Randolph Bazet Collection, Houma, Louisiana).



Eight members of the Descarcadores, a quasi-organization of Sicilians and Italians that controlled the unloading of New Orleans' oyster vessels, 1891: (National Archives, Negative No. 22-FCD-266).



In 1887, the oyster industry was well established in coastal Louisiana. Approximately 200 luggers, employing more than 600 men, supplied New Orleans' Ligger Bay with oysters, 1891: (National Archives, Negative No. 22-FCD-17).



Historically, movement through the coastal wetlands presented people with a special challenge and resulted in development of unique folk boats. The shallow-draft, self-driven Louisiana lugger became the preferred working vessel of the region's fishermen, 1891: (National Archives, Negative Number 22-FCD-32).



Oyster luggers at the New Orleans' French Market, 1891: (National Archives, Negative No. 22-FCD-18).



Locks at Empire allowed oyster luggers to move easily between the Mississippi River and the estuarine complex west of the river, ca. 1938: (Forville Winans, Louisiana State Library, Louisiana Photographic Archives).

LOUISIANA'S PROLIFIC OYSTERBEDS

Estuarine-dependent oystermen rely almost totally on one species, the American oyster (*Crassostrea virginica*). At the turn of the century, Louisiana and Mississippi were leaders in the production of this important bivalve. To harvest their oysters, Louisiana's watermen leased the right to harvest the state's water bottoms. Isolated settlements were established to watch the leases to ensure that poachers would not disturb the tonging grounds.

To exploit the beds, oystermen used a pair of tongs, which resembled two long-handled rakes tied so the teeth were facing each other. Leaning out over their luggers, oystermen spread and lowered their tongs into the water. The opened tongs were shoved into the reef and forced closed, grabbing several bivalve clusters. The oystermen then dumped their catches into their boats. One man would tong and another would cull the undersized product. This process was repeated until the boat was full, the catch too small, or darkness or bad weather set in and forced the men to return to camp. Using this technique, oystermen could harvest 20 barrels a day.

Tongs were eventually replaced by the oyster dredge—a large basket-like framework with curved teeth that was dragged through the beds to snag the oysters. With this new technology, the harvest increased. Luggers were customized with a false deck and temporary sides to accommodate the expanded catch. The dredge's deck became an extension of the vessel's hold and could carry from 50 to 80 barrels of oysters (Zacharie, 1898; Prindiville, 1955). The watermen who lived near their beds used small boats to work their leases, but sold to owners of larger boats. In this way, they could remain at work, rather than lose time traveling to the market.

Eight boats from the Barataria communities of Bayou Cook, Bayou Chalous, and Four Bayous unloaded their catches in New Orleans every week. Thirty luggers delivered the harvest from Southwest Pass and Salina. From the Timbalier region another 15 luggers transported their harvest to the city from "considerable villages composed of rude camps of the oystermen built upon piles on the sea marsh" (Moore, 1899, p. 71). In all, an estimated 4,000 people were involved, directly or indirectly, in the oyster trade (Sterns, 1887).

By 1887 approximately 200 luggers, employing over 600 men, supplied New Orleans' Ligger Bay with oysters (Sterns, 1887). These sailing vessels delivered from 50,000 to 125,000 barrels annually; a barrel held approximately 200 pounds of oysters and sold for \$2.00 to \$3.50. Wholesalers paid 40 cents for a sack of oysters and transported them to New Orleans where city vendors sold them for about 70 cents a sack—a profit of almost 75 percent (Ross, 1889b).

Each boat was unloaded by stevedores, who controlled the discharge of New Orleans' cargo. A quasi-organization of Sicilians and Italians was solely responsible for unloading the oyster vessels (Sterns, 1887) and overseeing the crews that worked the docks.

Competition between Louisiana and Mississippi over the oyster beds east of the Mississippi River became so keen, men were accused of being "oyster pirates." Using a fleet of lumber schooners capable of carrying from 1,000 to 2,000 barrels a trip, Mississippi-based watermen reportedly harvested hundreds of schooner loads of St. Bernard Parish oysters (Zacharie, 1898). The issue became a heated one, and in 1905, armed boats began patrolling the State boundary to ensure that only licensed fishermen were exploiting Louisiana's oyster beds (Fountain, 1985). Bohemians manned Biloxi schooners that operated for weeks in the marshes of the Mississippi River delta country—often illegally in Louisiana waters (Fountain, 1966).

Predators were also a problem. To protect the beds from schools of drum or sheepshead, which could devour hundreds of barrels of oysters in a single night, pens were constructed of old seine supported on pickets or hardware cloth (Zacharie, 1898). At times lines with rags attached to them were used to frighten the fish away.

OYSTERING IN BAYOU COUNTRY

Jack's Camp, Camp Malnomme, and Bayou Landry were important harvesting sites in the barrier-island-protected leases of south central Louisiana. Small fishing villages were near these sites. Oysters harvested in one area sometimes were used to restock other beds. In this way, oystermen accumulated catches that would warrant a trip to the New Orleans' market. Fishermen worked beds at the Chandeleur Islands, Bayou Cook, Grand Bayou, Bayou Lachute, Timbalier Bay, Isles Dernieres, Barataria Bay, Wine Island Lake, Vermilion Bay, and Calcasieu Lake. Bayou Cook oysters were generally considered the State's best (Zacharie, 1898). Prized oysters were also being harvested in Lake Felicity, Lake Barre (especially at Mud, Hatchet, and Muddy Bayous), and Bay Jocko (Moore, 1899).

In the late 1800's there were at least 20 camps along Grand Bayou du Large between the Gulf of Mexico and Sister Lake. Oyster camps were also located on Pelican Lake, and the Timbalier region's oyster grounds were quite productive. Even with a relatively small number of people working the beds, Sister Lake alone yielded from 4 to 8 barrels of oysters per day (Moore, 1899). It is a region that continues to save the oyster industry well.



A pair of tongs resembling two long-handled rakes tied so their teeth were facing each other was used to harvest Louisiana's oyster beds, ca. 1930: (Forville Winans, Louisiana State Library, Louisiana Photographic Archives).



Shrimp used in the shrimp-drying business were boiled in a hypersaline solution. When removed from the vats, the shrimp were taken by wooden wheelbarrows to the platform's drying area, ca. 1920: (Randolph Bazet Collection, Houma, Louisiana).



At the southern limit of Dupre Cut-Off canal in Barataria Bay was the shrimp-drying settlement of Manila Village. Dominated by a large platform, this was the largest shrimp-drying community in Louisiana's alluvial wetlands, 1938: (Fonville Winans, Louisiana State Library, Louisiana Photographic Archives)



Manila Village's buildings and wharf, built over the shallow water on hand-driven pilings, were used to unload the newly arrived unprocessed shrimp, no date: (Louisiana State Library, Louisiana Collection, WPA Photographic Archives)



Hand-woven china baskets, along with wheelbarrows, were used to move shrimp around the platform, no date: (Louisiana State Library, Louisiana Collection, WPA Photographic Archives)

SHRIMP DRYING: AN ANCIENT CHINESE ART

The shrimp-drying procedure used in Louisiana originated in the Orient and diffused to Louisiana from the United States' west coast. In 1871, Chinese immigrants began to harvest San Francisco Bay shrimp (Jordan, 1887; Bonnot, 1932). These fishermen were quite successful and found it profitable to supply the markets with shrimp at three cents a kilogram. "From the very start they dried the bulk of their catch for the Oriental export trade. The shrimp industry quickly grew to large proportions and fishing was carried on at many places in San Francisco Bay" (Scofield, 1919, p. 2). By 1873, Chinese migrants from California had introduced the lucrative sun-dried-shrimp process to Louisiana, hoping to duplicate the profits generated from the San Francisco Bay enterprises as well.

Shrimp-drying villages were well-organized hamlets established to overcome the early problems of food preservation in Louisiana. The sites were dominated by large, undulating, wooden platform-a term which locally had two meanings; one referred to the drying area only, the other included the associated support structures as well.

Shrimp in Louisiana had been a source of income and a basic food item since the colonial period. As early as 1718, the Dutch historian A. S. Le Page Du Pratz, stated

The Shrimps are diminutive crayfish usually about three inches long, and of the size of the little finger in other countries they are generally found in the sea in Louisiana you will meet with great numbers of them more than a hundred leagues up the rivers. (Le Page Du Pratz, 1774, p. 277)

Le Page Du Pratz also noted that shrimp were not limited to the sea. Indeed, the majority of shrimp used in the sun-drying process was caught in Louisiana's inland waters. As a result, Barataria, Timbalier, Terrebonne, Cailou, and Atchafalaya bays, and Breton and Chandeleur sounds are important to the production of marketable shrimp. These estuarine or estuarine-like areas also served as settlements because before ice and modern freezing techniques were available, shrimp caught in these fishing grounds were taken to one of the nearby platforms to be dried, packaged, and sold.

There are conflicting reports on the original practitioner of his art in Louisiana: it was either Lee Yeun, Chen Kee, or Lee Yim (Adkins, 1973). Although the person responsible for starting his occupation is apparently lost to history, it is fairly well agreed that the first crude drying platform was built on the

south side of the mouth of Grand Bayou in Barataria Bay, at a site later to be Cabinash. This camp was originally used in an effort to sun

dry oysters, but when this proved to be impractical the men began to dry shrimp. (Padgett, 1960, p. 142)

Louisiana Land Office records show that in the early 1880's Oriental immigrants purchased, for \$1.25 a hectare, several small islands in Barataria Bay for platform sites (Adkins, 1973). These tracts were ideally suited for this purpose. By 1885, the industry was well established when

Yee Foo was issued Patent Number 310-811 for a process to sun-dry shrimp. Actually, the Chinese have used this method for preserving shrimp and other animal foods for centuries, but the patent made the process and established method of food preservation. (Love, 1967, p. 58)

Originally, the primary market for dried shrimp was the large Oriental communities on the Pacific coast: nearly \$100,000 in dried products a year were shipped there from each camp (Cole, 1892a). As production increased, distribution expanded to the Far East: the greatest volume was exported to China, the Philippine Islands, and Hawaii. Smaller quantities were shipped to the West Indies and South America (U.S. Department of Interior, 1950).

PLATFORM SETTLEMENTS

Settlements at Bassa Bassa, Manila Village, Camp Dewey, Chenier Dufon, Cabinash, Fifi Islands, and Bayou Brulleau were established for shrimp preservation and shipment to the various markets. In Barataria Bay there were six or more of these camps, occupied by hundreds of people (House Document, 1917).

Most of the shrimp seining was done by the French, the Chinese, or the Malays. Although Oriental peoples dominated the platform population, other ethnic groups also were involved. Platform crews frequently were a melange of representatives from water-oriented cultures. As many as 15 seine crews and a year-round platform population of about 100 contributed to a maximum of 500 people living on one platform. Most did not leave these isolated settlements because they were in this country illegally. It is rumored that some were smuggled into Louisiana by commercial fishermen who placed the aliens in barrels to bring them through coastal waters.

THE GEAR REQUIRED

In Louisiana's inland waters shrimp fishermen used the sail-driven Louisiana lugger. This vessel used lugsails—quadrilateral sails that bend upon a yard that crosses the mast obliquely. Effective in Louisiana, the boat never diffused from its area of

origin, the State's inside waters. Prior to motor-powered vessels this was the major craft used to harvest platform shrimp.

Before the introduction of the otter trawl, most of the catches were taken with haul seines operated by a single boat with a crew of from 8 to 20 men (Cole, 1892a; Johnson and Linder, 1934). Barataria seines were some of the largest in the world. Local informants claim that a good crew could harvest up to 900 kilograms a day. At times the catch was so great, a platform would work continuously to keep up with its seine crews.

Seines were efficient, but the otter trawl, introduced in 1917, revolutionized shrimping and increased production.

The haul seine could be used only in shallow waters, requiring a large crew. It could be operated for only a limited time during the summer and fall months, the otter trawl was adaptable for use over a much greater range, could be operated with fewer men, yielded a greater production per man, and was a much more efficient type of gear. With its introduction, entirely new fishing grounds were opened up and a rapid expansion of the fishery followed. (Padgett, 1960, p. 147)

In 1930, the total shrimp harvest in Louisiana was over 13 million kilograms, nearly twice that of the preceding year (Padgett, 1960). Catch statistics normally fluctuate, but this increase in harvest was attributed directly to the acceptance and use of the otter trawl, the availability of ice, and improved boats.

Coastal fishermen used a rig called a butterfly net (in French, *poupien*) with haul seines and otter trawls—invented to provide smaller and cheaper shrimp to the sun-drying industry (Love, 1967). These nets were mounted on boats and wharves, rigged on iron-pipe frames from 2.1 to 4 m², and equipped with small mesh bags about five meters long.



To insure uniform dehydration, the shrimp were spread evenly over the cypress platform's surface with wooden rakes, no date: (Louisiana State Library, Louisiana Collection, WPA Photographic Archives)



Most shrimp-drying platforms were constructed with cypress. The size of the drying surface varied with each site, but most had a capacity of 1,000 baskets of shrimp—about 50,000 kg, ca. 1920: (Randolph Bazet Collection, Houma, Louisiana)



When the shrimp were thoroughly dried, the heads and shells were removed by laborers who "danced the shrimp" in shoes wrapped with cloths or sacks, ca. 1920: (Randolph Bazet Collection, Houma, Louisiana)



From isolated platform sites, waterpeople depended on their luggers to harvest the region's renewable resources, 1891: (National Archives, Negative No. 22-FCO-47)



The Chandeleur lighthouse after the 1893 hurricane, October 1, 1893: (National Archives, Negative No. 26-LG-35-4E).



Chandeleur lighthouse and the outbuildings that survived the 1893 storm, 1893: (National Archives, Negative No. 26-LG-35-47G).



Point-Au-Fer lighthouse, ca. 1945: (National Archives, Negative No. 26-5-686).



The "floating" Chandeleur lighthouse after the 1893 storm leveled the island, ca. 1893: (National Archives, Negative No. 26-LG-35-47A).



Oyster Bayou lighthouse, ca. 1945: (National Archives, Negative No. 26-5-756).



After the 1893 hurricane, the Chandeleur lighthouse was replaced by a steel tower, ca. 1945: (National Archives, Negative No. 26-5-153).



Travelling the Mississippi River has always required navigational aids. The Southwest Pass lighthouse, connected by a boardwalk, guided ships into the river's navigable channel, October 8, 1815: (National Archives, Negative No. 26-LG-39-32Q).



The unique architecture of the wood-framed Southwest Pass lighthouse, ca. 1890: (National Archives, Negative No. 26-LG-39-14).

THE COMMUNITY OF BALIZE

To safely navigate the Mississippi River, a lighthouse and community, Balize (from the French word balise, meaning beacon), were established near the mouth of the river's northeast pass. When the French first occupied Balize in 1722, it was a little flat island the locals called Toulouse (Roland, 1740): boats used a five-meter channel there to gain access to the Mississippi River.

In 1803, Balize was composed of "a small block-house and some huts of the pilots, who reside only here" (American State Papers, 1803, p. 347). The structures were erected on piles; the community was so narrow there was no room to cultivate a garden. Goods had to be imported at three to four times their normal retail cost.

By 1815 traffic on the Mississippi had become so great a lighthouse was needed at the access point to the river (Louisiana Gazette, 1815). Twenty-thousand dollars was appropriated in 1812, but with the end of the War of 1812, it was deemed an unnecessary expenditure. Local interests still favored its construction, however. New Orleans "in strict truth, is the emporium of Western America; and the [Mississippi] is not a mere local avenue of trade and navigation" (Magruder, 1815, p. 2). The city's Gulf of Mexico trade depended on safe passage into the Mississippi River. This argument prevailed, but justifying the Federal expenditure was a difficult task. The lighthouse was built eventually at Southwest Pass.

In 1851, the community was large enough to put on a ball for a number of ladies from New Orleans and all of the "belles of the Pass and Balize" (Daily Delta [New Orleans], 1851, p. 2). One account notes

the village had three large grocery stores and a dry goods store, a large church where services were held every Sunday and a good-sized town hall

There were houses on both sides of the bayou, some of them two stories in height, and the town was full of children. We had two schools for them. There were fine shell roads around the Balize and levees to protect it from the Mississippi River

It was a large settlement and there were possibly a thousand people there when it was abandoned. Fifty bar pilots made their headquarters in the village, and nearly everybody trapped, fished or had oyster beds (New Orleans Times-Picayune, 1921, p. 12)

This community, like all of those along the coast, had to endure the hardships of hurricanes. In 1741 the French government was informed

that the battery at the Balize was so much damaged that, if attacked, it could be carried by four gunboats. There was such a scarcity of everything that a cask of common wine was sold for five hundred livres of Spanish money, and eight hundred livres in the currency of the colony, and the rest in proportion. As to flour, it could be commanded by no price, as there was not to be had. (The Daily Picayune-New Orleans, 1863, p. 3)

In addition, there were

many families reduced to such a state of destitution that fathers, when they rise in the morning, do not know where they will get the food required by their children. (The Daily Picayune-New Orleans, 1863, p. 3)

In 1831, a storm destroyed the "pretty little village" (Daily Delta [New Orleans], 1846, p. 2). Logs as long as 15 meters battered the community's homes, wharves, and fences. The storm surge was knee-deep in many homes. Gardens were covered with salt water and destroyed (Daily Delta [New Orleans], 1846).

In the hurricane of 1860, the water rose nearly two meters and washed away nine homes, three look-out houses and assorted boats and sheds. The telegraph house survived, but a number of flatboats used as homes were destroyed. Several "large house, more than half finished" floated away, and two buildings "belonging to and occupied by fishermen were destroyed" (New Orleans Daily Crescent, 1860, p. 1).

Balize was utilized for 150 years; during that time, the Spanish spent over 20,000 pounds sterling to fortify the position (New Orleans Times-Picayune, 1921). About 1865, a crevasse diverted the flow of the Mississippi River away from Balize (New Orleans Times-Picayune, 1921). Bar pilots were forced to move to Pilottown Bayou because Southwest Pass was used to gain access to the Mississippi. In a short time Balize was completely deserted. Eventually, the land subsided, so that the town hall, church, shell road, homes, and tombs were below sea level-captured by the Gulf of Mexico.



In order to safely navigate the Mississippi River, a lighthouse was built near the mouth of the river's northeast pass, at the community of Balize (from the French word balise, meaning beacon), no date: Louisiana State Library, Louisiana Collection, Photographic Archives).



The Mississippi River's Pass-a-Loutre lighthouse before the 1893 storm, 1893: (National Archives, Negative No. 26-LG-37-17C).



The substantial lighthouse that served traffic navigating Southwest Pass, 1890: (National Archives, Negative No. 26-LG-39-34).



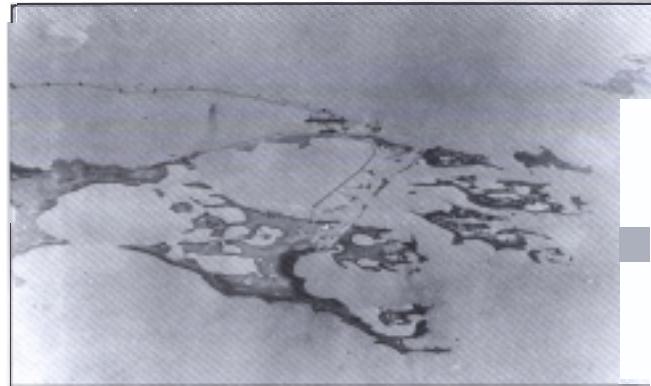
The community associated with the South Pass lighthouse, with ships anchored in the channel, ca. 1893: (National Archives, Negative No. 26-LG-39-28A).



Barataria Bay lighthouse on the western end of Grand Terre, before the October 1893 hurricane, 1893: (National Archives, Negative No. 26-LG-34-10B).



Barataria Bay lighthouse after the 1893 storm. The picket fence and big house were destroyed. The light sustained only minor damage, December 18, 1893: (National Archives, Negative No. 26-LG-34-10A).



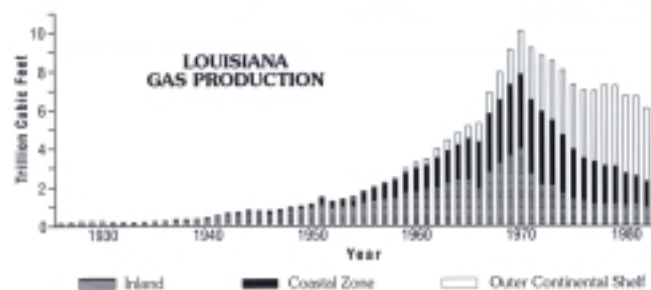
Drilling in coastal Louisiana has had a significant impact on the wetlands, no date: (Bernard Davis Collection, Houma, Louisiana).



At Leoville, along Bayou Lafourche, the marsh was blanketed with oil wells, ca. 1938: (Fonville Winans, Louisiana State Library, Louisiana Photographic Archives)



Seismic crews used marsh buggies to run their profiles, ca. 1950: (Louisiana Department of Wild Life and Fisheries, Photographic Archives)



From Lindstedt, D.M. and others, 1991, History of oil and gas development in coastal Louisiana: Resource Information Series No. 7, Baton Rouge, Louisiana, Louisiana Geological Survey.



Petroleum exploration was relatively easy in the peats and mucks of the coastal marshes, 1935: (Randolph Bazet Collection, Houma, Louisiana).

THE WETLANDS' MINERAL FLUIDS

Since World War II, Louisiana's coastal lowlands have seen rapid economic growth, much of which can be attributed directly to development of its hydrocarbon resources. In the 1600's, sailors exploring the Texas and Louisiana coasts reported oil floating on the Gulf's surface. This seepage was an early clue to the enormous reserves locked in a geosyncline, or fold in the bedrock below the land and sea surfaces from Mississippi to Texas.

Commercial oil production began in Titusville, Pennsylvania, in 1856; 50 years later, wildcatters were drilling in South Louisiana. In 1901, W. Scott Heywood completed south Louisiana's first producing oil well in Jennings. Even with this discovery, oilmen ignored the wetlands for over 20 years; they favored north Louisiana's more easily exploited fields.

Between 1901 and 1923, only eight fields were discovered in south Louisiana because accessibility was a problem. Wetland exploration and development required a fleet of amphibious vessels. Everything had to float or fly, so conventional methods were impractical.

As geophysics and its new technologies emerged, promising fields were investigated. Also, required floating equipment was refined and further developed. In the 1930's, petroleum engineers moved aggressively into Louisiana's swamps and marshes. Systematic exploration required a well-developed infrastructure of support facilities on high ground. These logistic support sites were essential in providing the supplies drilling crews required, and evolved with the industry gradually changing the area's demographic character.

To gain access to promising exploration sites, powerful suction and bucket dredges excavated navigable channels into well locations. The one-well, one-canal system evolved into an interlocking network of human-made channels, and often over 30,000 m³ of material were removed per kilometer to open the wetlands to hydrocarbon exploration.

In less than a century, the complex canal system has become a dominant part of the State's coastal geography and has expanded into well-defined, but unplanned, patterns. The canal system met the industry's needs and evolved into the most visible structural modification of the coastal zone. As oil exploration and development moved across the coastal lowlands, virtually no section of the coast was spared canalization.

Gaining access to well sites was a relatively simple matter because the wetlands' waterlogged soils were easy to channelize. Dredging contractors encountered few problems. Drilling engineers, however, were frustrated by the hydric soil's low weight-bearing capabilities and were forced to rethink their drilling methods because the marsh lands would only support 1,200 kg/m². Wooden mats did work in some shallow water areas, but they were cumbersome. Piling were used in open water, but drilling preparation was a labor- and time-intensive operation. Conventional equipment was too heavy to work in this environment. The industry needed a floating drilling platform.

In 1932, the Texas Company developed a patented submersible drilling barge. Equipped with a derrick, this vessel could drill easily on the extensive leases petroleum firms obtained in south Louisiana. Within 10 years, over 70 oil and gas fields were developed in Louisiana's delta country.

With the advent of World War II, the industry was well established; new fields were added constantly to the regional inventory. Wildcatters intensified their efforts in the tidal flatlands and backwater swamps. New wetland technology spurred some of this development, but the word was getting out about the impressive exploration results in south Louisiana. Nearly one out of every three wells drilled produced marketable hydrocarbons. Early pessimism turned to unbridled optimism.

By the mid-1940's it was apparent that operations on a "sea of mud" were no different from those on a sea of water. From a rather quiet beginning in 1947, when the first oil well out of sight of land was completed, the search for offshore hydrocarbons grew rapidly. Expectations were exceeded, particularly in the 1950's when the marine technological revolution began. Boat builders used diesel rather than gasoline; steel hulls rather than wooden-hulled boats were added to the support fleet. Shipyard fabricated vessels that operated in the Gulf of Mexico's hostile waters.

Onshore and offshore, the industry expanded rapidly. Early wildcatters and major firms who discovered the mineral fluids trapped below Louisiana's alluvial wetlands were right; the region was a significant hydrocarbon province. Over 25,000 wells onshore and at least 3,000 drilling and production platforms offshore made Louisiana's coastal lowlands one of the county's dominant forces within the oil and natural gas industry.



After the discovery of easily recoverable and marketable petroleum and natural gas, the marsh became a labyrinth of petroleum-oriented facilities, ca. 1940: (Bernard Davis Collection, Houma, Louisiana).



First oil well in Houma, Louisiana, March 18, 1927: (Bernard Davis Collection, Houma, Louisiana).

Recommended citation for this chapter:
Davis, D. W., 1992, A historical and pictorial review of Louisiana's barrier islands, in Williams, S. J., Penland, Shyu, and Sallenger, A. H., Jr., eds., Louisiana barrier island erosion study—Atlas of barrier shoreline changes in Louisiana from 1853 to 1989: U.S. Geological Survey Miscellaneous Investigations Series I-2150-A, p. 8-23.



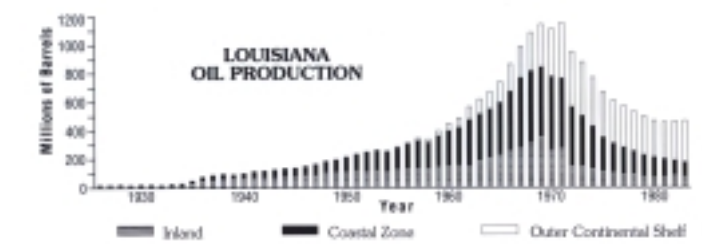
After purchasing a fleet of airplanes used to carry mail from ships anchored in the delta to New Orleans, Texaco became a pioneer in using aircraft to support their marsh operations, ca. 1930: (Bernard Davis Collection, Houma, Louisiana).



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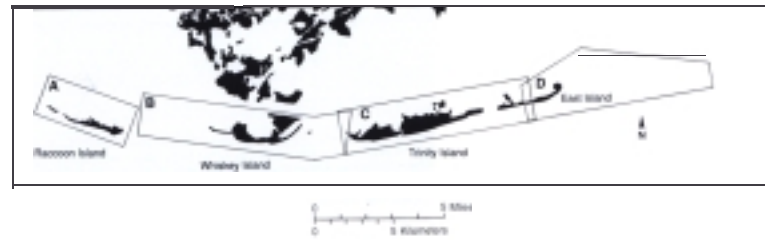
From Lindstedt, D.M. and others, 1991, History of oil and gas development in coastal Louisiana: Resource Information Series No. 7, Baton Rouge, Louisiana, Louisiana Geological Survey.

Chapter 3 Aerial Photographic Mosaics of Louisiana's Barrier Shoreline

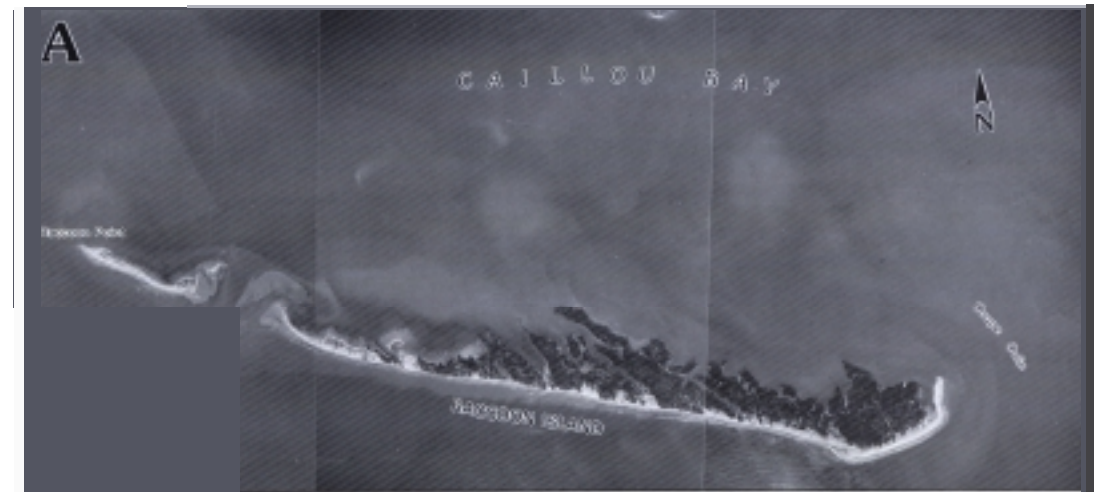
by Karen A. Westphal and Shea Penland

These mosaics introduce the viewer to the geomorphology of Louisiana's barrier shoreline. They are assembled from vertical aerial photography at a scale of 1:15,000 but reproduced here at 1:24,000. The shoreline is divided into four sections and presented sequentially from west to east (Isles Dernieres, Bayou Lafourche, and Plaquemines shorelines) and south to north (Chandeleur Islands shoreline). Some overlap has been provided for continuity of the image. Significant place names for islands, tidal inlets, bays, bayous, towns, and a variety of human-made structures and other human impacts are indicated.

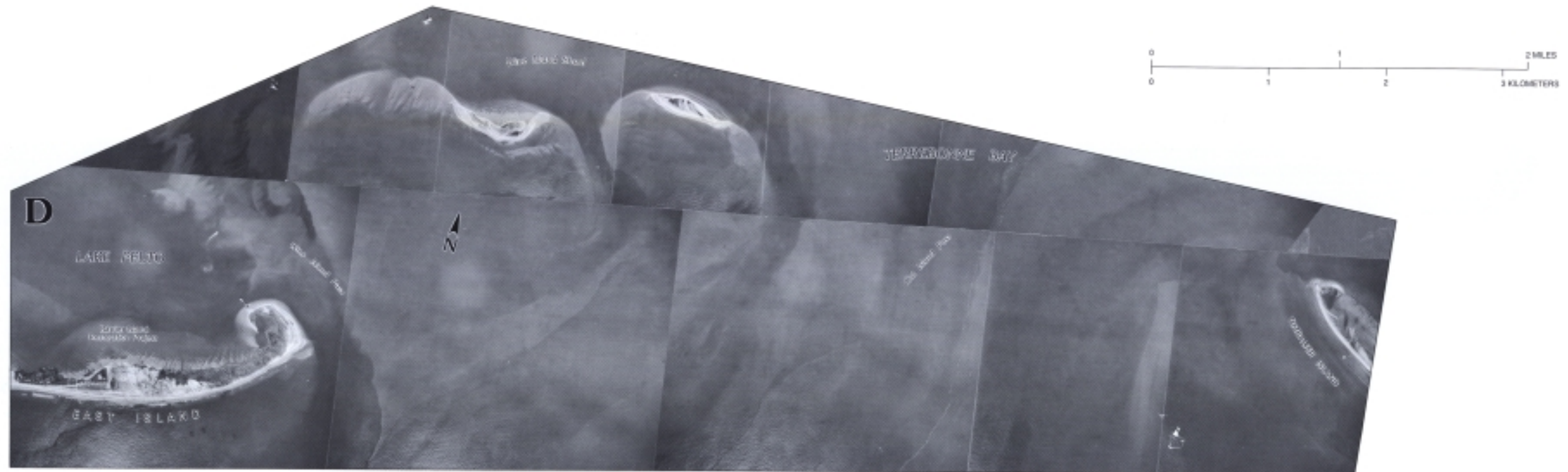
The photographs for the barrier shoreline west of the Mississippi River mouth between Raccoon Point and Sandy Point, except for Grand Isle, were taken on January 21, 1988. Grand Isle was photographed on October 15, 1986. The viewer is encouraged to examine these mosaics carefully to better understand the character of the marshes, dunes, washover, and tidal inlet features, as well as the imprint of human activity on the landscape of Louisiana's barrier shoreline.



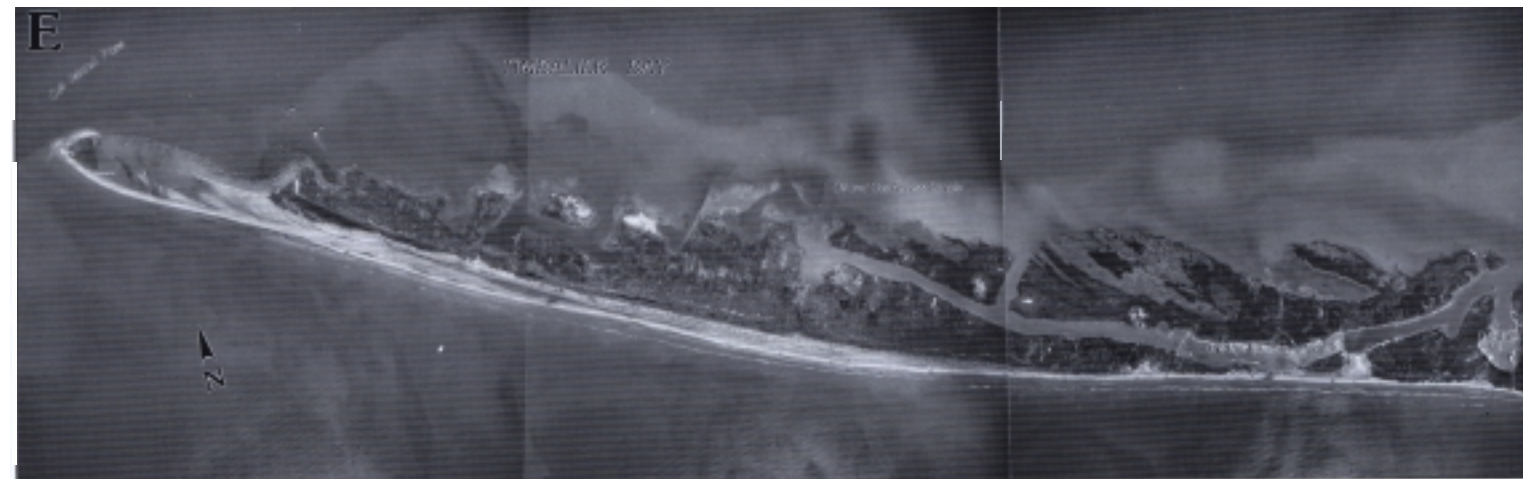
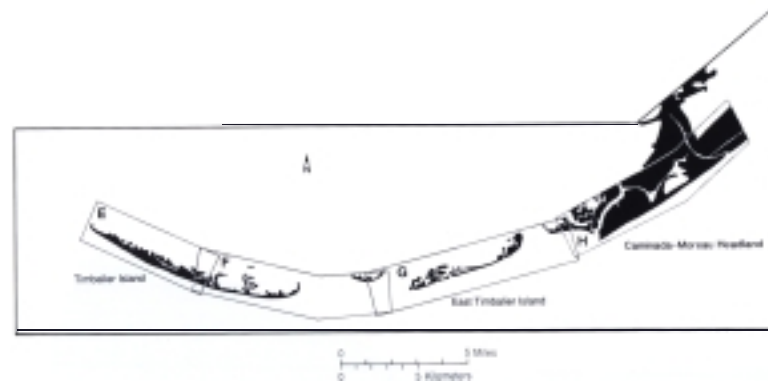
Isles Dernieres Barrier System



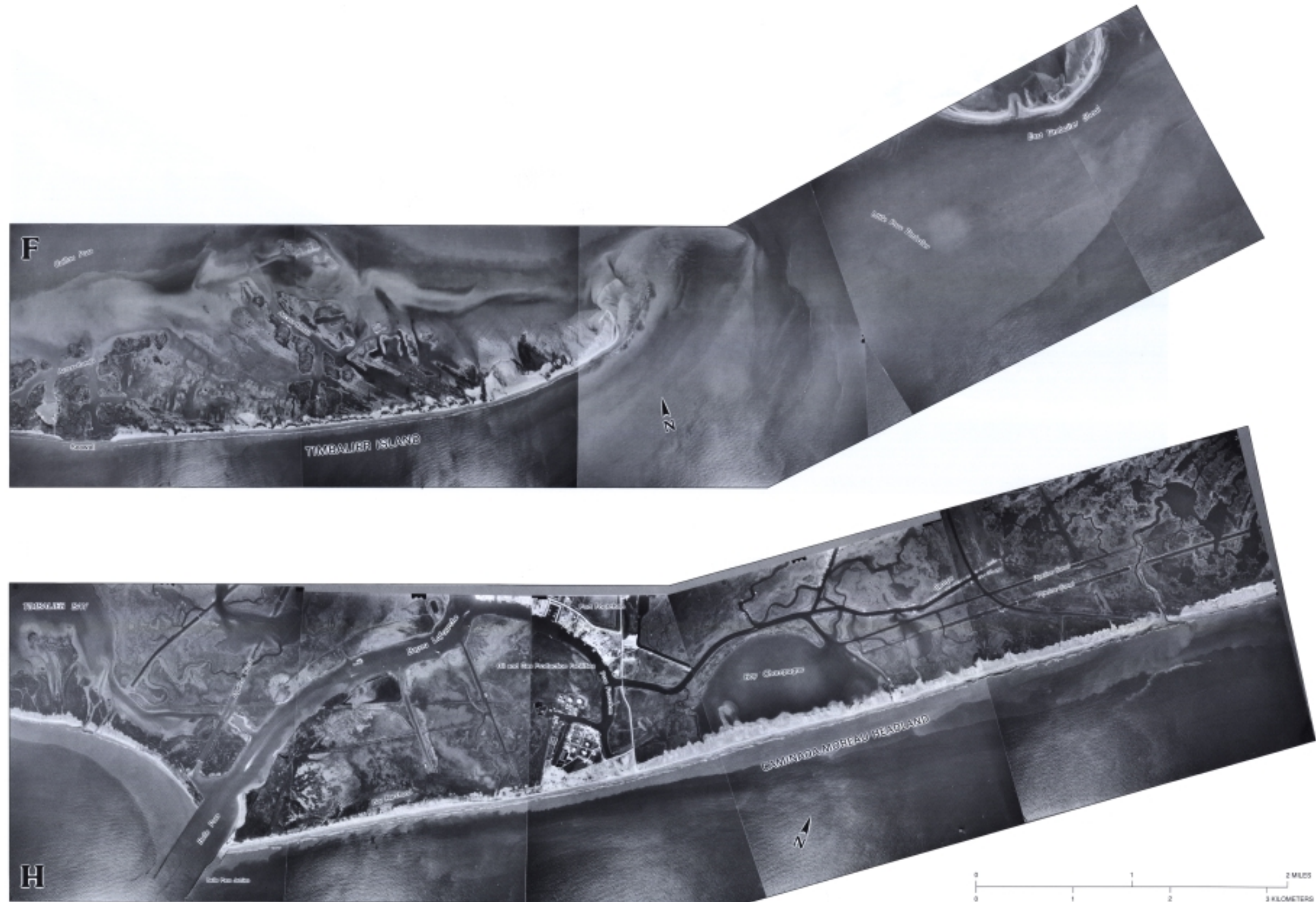
Isles Dernieres Barrier System



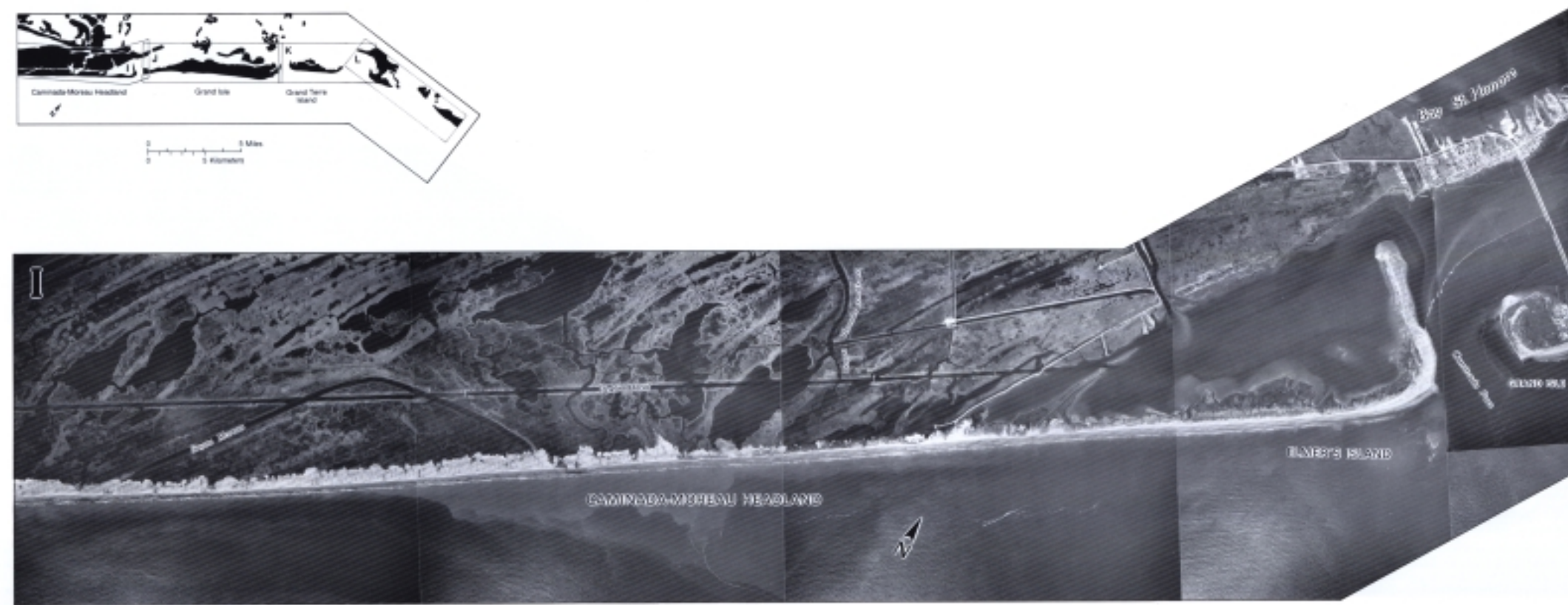
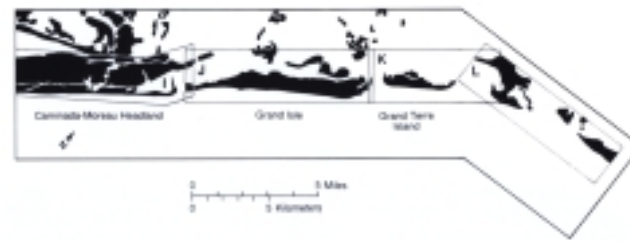
Bayou Lafourche Barrier System



Bayou Lafourche Barrier System



Bayou Lafourche Barrier System



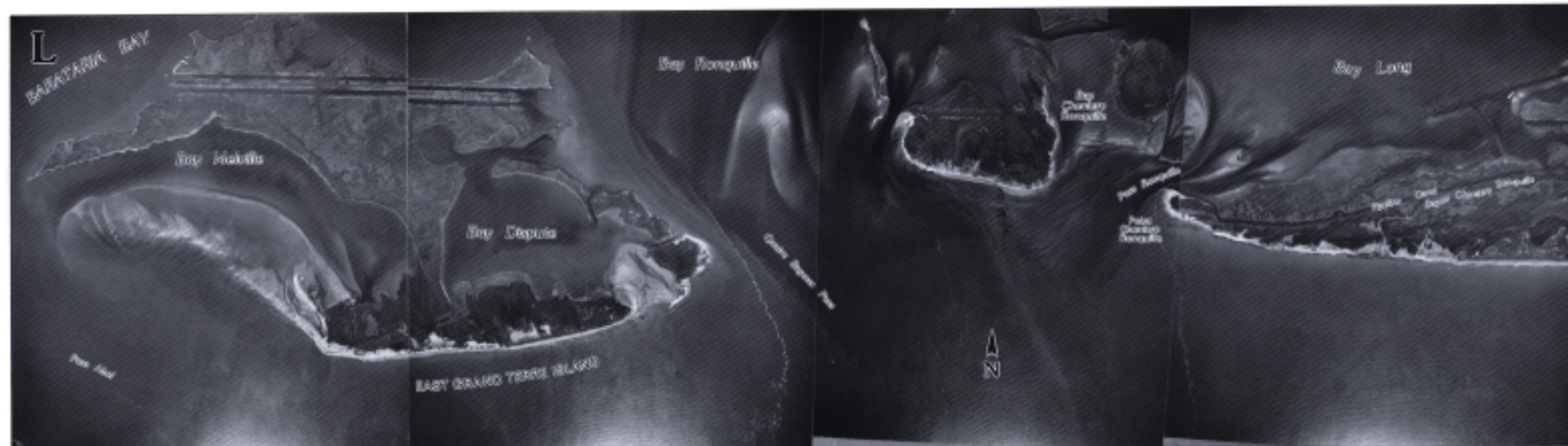
Plaquemines Barrier System



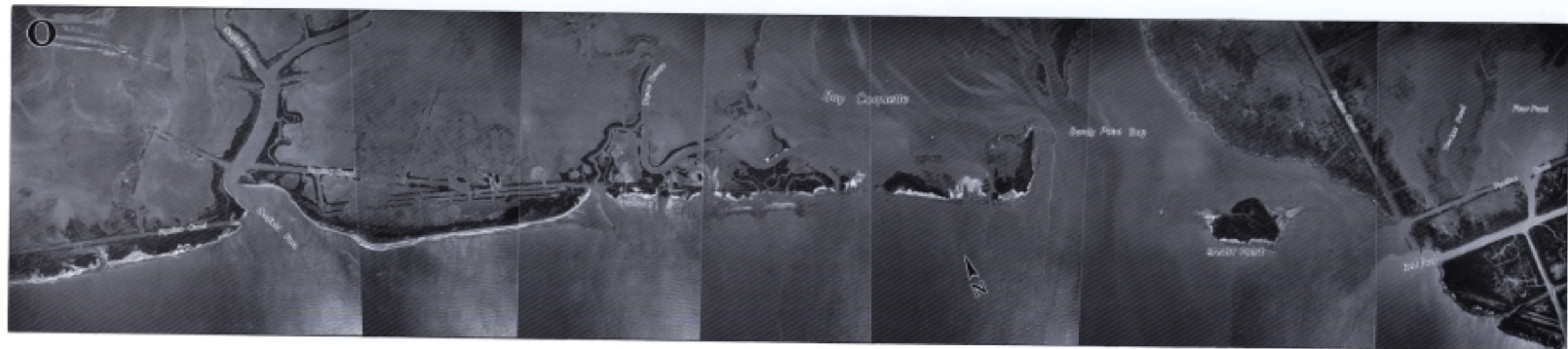
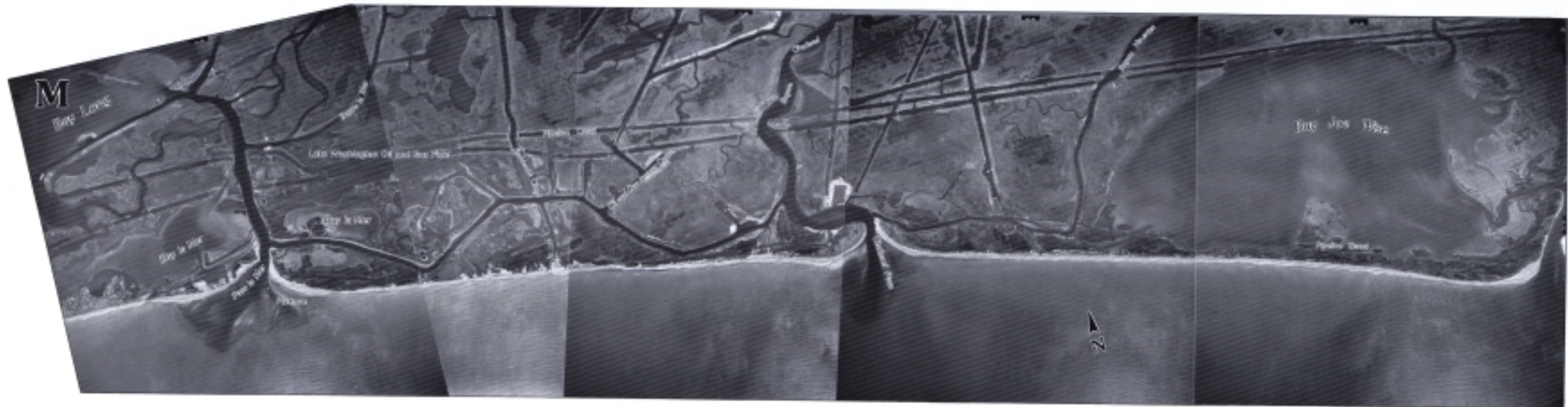
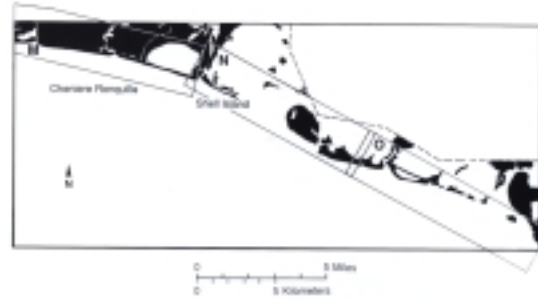
Bayou Lafourche Barrier System



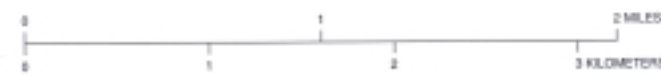
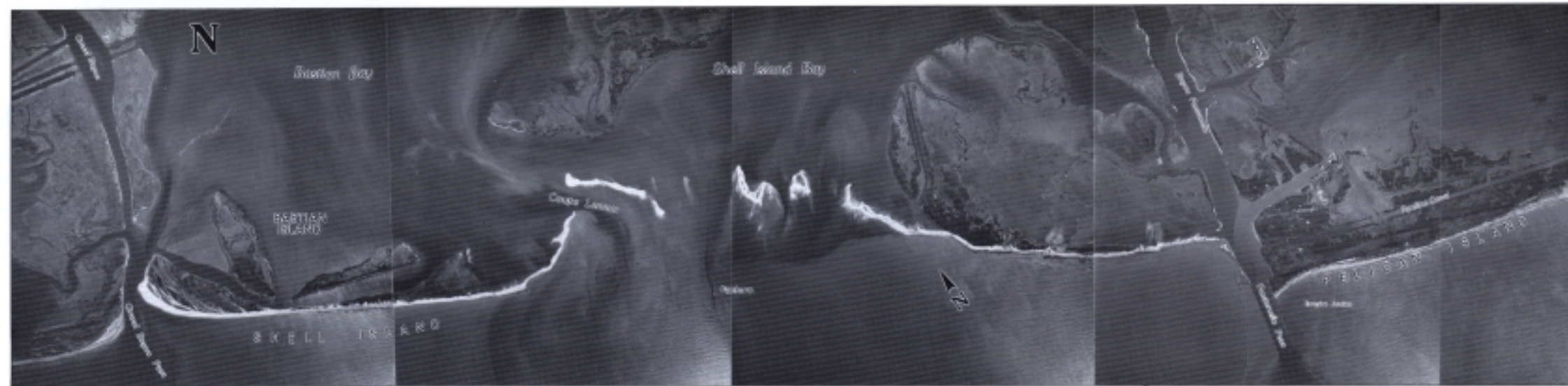
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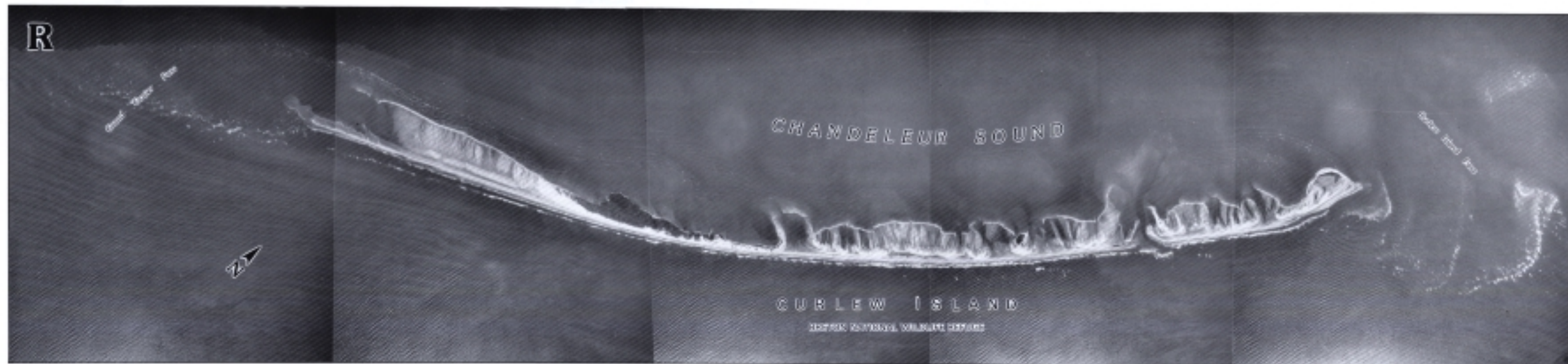
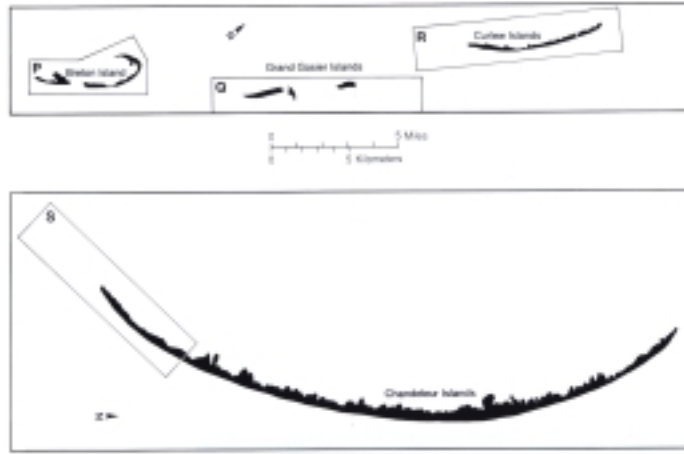
Plaquemines Barrier System



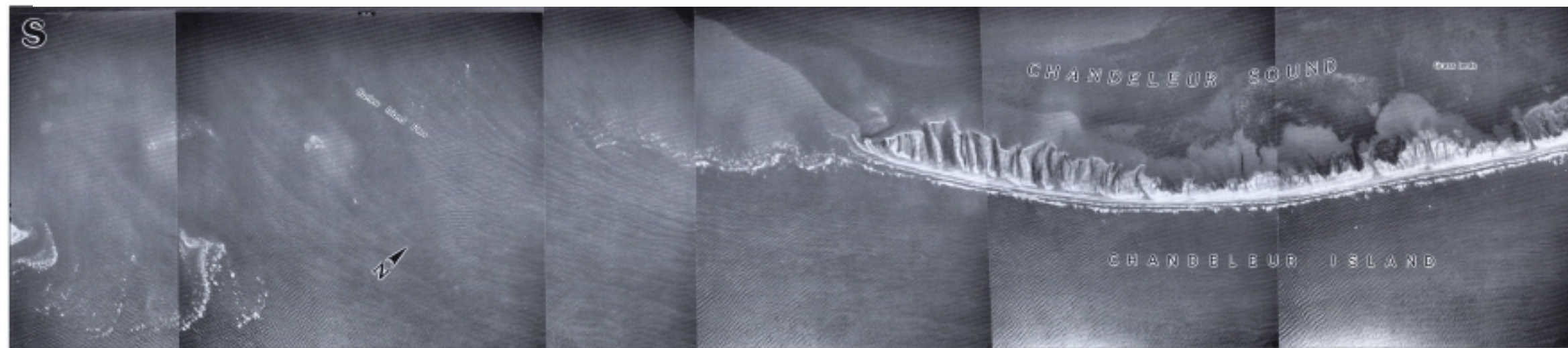
Plaquemines Barrier System



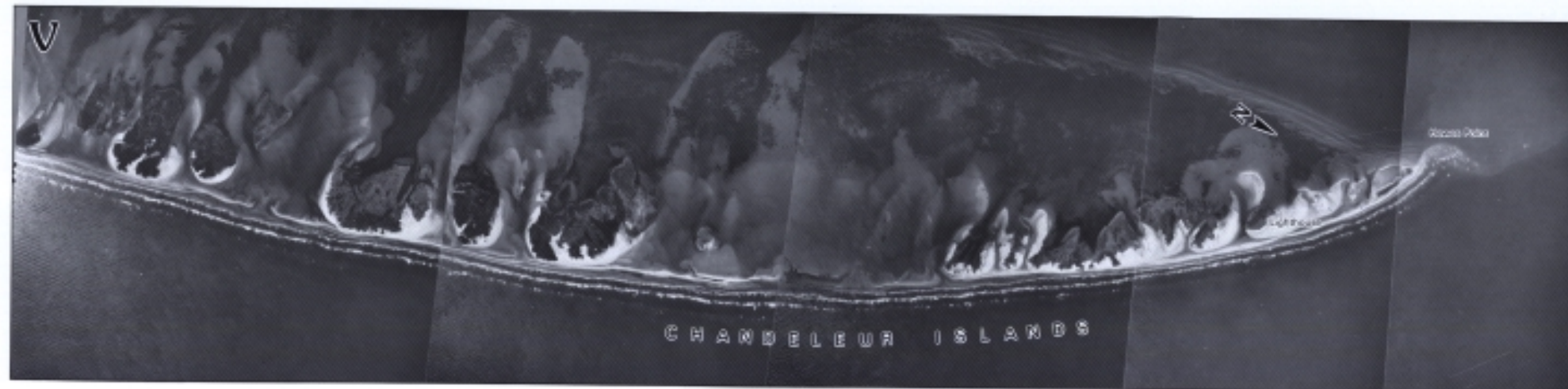
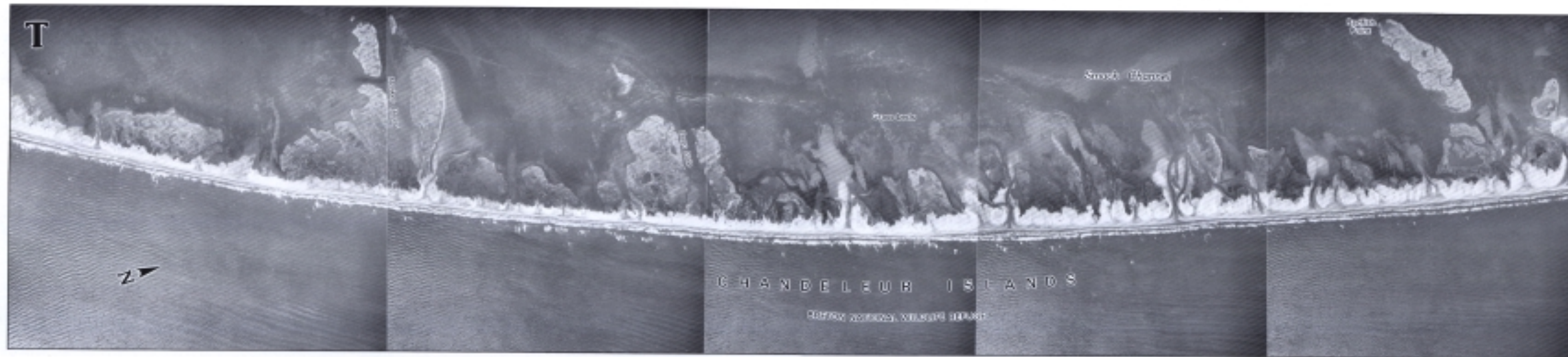
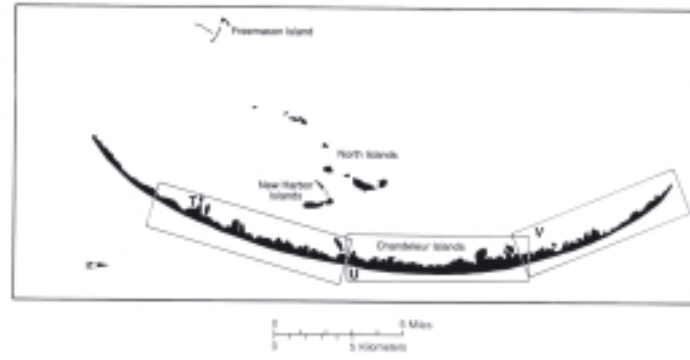
Chandeleur Islands Barrier System



Chandeleur Islands Barrier System



Chandeleur Islands Barrier System



Chandeleur Islands Barrier System



Recommended citation for this chapter:
Westphal, K. A., and Penland, Shea, 1991, Aerial photographic mosaics of Louisiana's barrier shoreline, in Williams, S. J., Penland, Shea, and Sallenger, A. H., Jr., eds., Louisiana barrier island erosion study-atlas of barrier shoreline changes in Louisiana from 1853 to 1989: U.S. Geological Survey Miscellaneous Investigations Series I-2150-A, p. 24-35.

Chapter 4 Analysis of Barrier Shoreline Change in Louisiana from 1853 to 1989

by Randolph A. McBride, Shea Penland, Matteson W. Hiland, S. Jeffress Williams, Karen A. Westphal, Bruce E. Jaffe, and Asbury H. Sallenger, Jr.

INTRODUCTION

Sandy, open-ocean barrier shorelines commonly exhibit rapid movement in response to natural and human forces. Unconsolidated beach sediment can respond instantly to winter storms and tropical cyclones (Hayes, 1967; Leatherman and others, 1977; Nummedal and others, 1980; Penland and others, 1980; Sexton and Moslow, 1981; Kahn and Roberts, 1982; Byrnes and Gingerich, 1987; Leatherman, 1987; Roberts and others, 1987; Ritchie and Penland, 1988; Penland and others, 1989a) or gradually to normal wave and current processes and relative sea level fluctuations (Morgan and Larimore, 1957; Penland and Boyd, 1981; Griffin and Henry, 1983; Morgan and Morgan, 1983; Everts and others, 1983; May and others, 1983; Shabica and others, 1984; Byrnes and others, 1989; Foster and Savage, 1989a, b; Anders and Reed, 1989; McBride and others, 1989a). Access canals, levees, oil and gas activities, seawalls, and jetties are just a few of the human disturbances that have exacerbated the rapid shoreline change problem in Louisiana (Larson and others, 1980; van Beek and Meyer-Arendt, 1982; Davis, 1986; Meyer-Arendt and Davis, 1988; Davis, 1990). Together these factors control the evolution of Louisiana's barrier shoreline.

The Louisiana coastline is extremely low lying (<3 m) and consists of unconsolidated sediment deposited by the Mississippi River during the past 8,000 years (Fisk, 1944; Kolb and Van Lopik, 1966; Frazier, 1967; Coleman, 1988). Louisiana's outer coast, which directly borders the Gulf of Mexico, extends from the Texas border at Sabine Pass to the Mississippi

border at the mouth of the Pearl River and is approximately 624 km long (fig. 1). If measured around the numerous bays and estuaries, however, the shoreline is about 1,488 km long (Morgan and Larimore, 1957). Located along the Mississippi River delta plain are four barrier systems totalling about 240 km. These systems formed in response to reworking of abandoned deltas and play an integral role in the evolution of Louisiana's complex deltaic estuarine system (Penland and others, 1988). These features provide the first line of defense against destructive nearshore processes that would otherwise directly impact productive estuarine environments in the coastal zone. Each kilometer of barrier shoreline in Louisiana protects approximately 30 km² of estuarine habitat in the delta plain. Louisiana's four barrier systems are the Isles Dernieres, Bayou Lafourche (Timbalier and East Timbalier islands, Caminada-Moreau Headland, and Grand Isle), Plaquemines, and Chandeleur Islands (north and south) (fig. 1). The largest proportion of these systems is dominated by barrier islands, as defined by Oertel (1985), with a much smaller proportion characterized by abandoned deltaic headlands. This chapter presents methods and procedures for mapping shoreline change with cartographic data sources and near-vertical aerial photography; accurate maps of shoreline change along barrier systems of Louisiana from 1853 to 1989; and a quantitative compilation of linear, area, and width measurements and their rates of change. In addition, it identifies long-term trends for predicting future coastal change in response to wind, waves, and water level.

SHORELINE MAPPING

With the implementation of computer processing and computer cartography, shoreline mapping techniques have evolved extensively over the past 10 years. Powerful mapping and geographic information system (GIS) software packages for personal computers and work stations have revolutionized traditional cartographic techniques. However, computers and mapping software are only as good as the data sources utilized. Computer technology enables coastal scientists to produce maps faster and more precisely, but for mapping shoreline change, the most important step is accurately interpreting the high-water shoreline position on aerial photography. An inaccurately delineated shoreline will remain inaccurate regardless of the precision of the computer mapping system.

Prior to the use of aerial photography, the high-water shoreline was measured using standard field surveying techniques (Shalowitz, 1964). Much care was taken to ensure accurate measurements representing this boundary, but these data were neither continuous nor synoptic due to time- and labor-intensive collection procedures. Monitoring the high-water-line position from aerial photographs is continuous and regionally synoptic, but interpretation of location is more subjective than direct measurement. Accurate delineation of the land-water interface depends on a thorough understanding of coastal processes and human activities, and their effects on the coastline.

Compilation of shoreline change maps involves a variety of techniques and different data sources, which include maps, charts, aerial pho-

tographs, and satellite imagery (Karo, 1961; Shalowitz, 1964; Morton, 1977, 1979; Dolan and Hayden, 1978; Dolan and others, 1979, 1980; Leatherman, 1983; Clow and Leatherman, 1984; Shabica and others, 1984; Ritchie and others, 1988; Byrnes and others, 1989; McBride, 1989a, b; Anders and Byrnes, 1991). Differing scales, datums, projections, ellipsoids, and coordinate systems complicate the superimposition of these data. Furthermore, other potential errors are inherent to all shoreline mapping projects (table 1). Recognizing and minimizing these problems ensure more accurate shoreline change data. The following sections discuss the methods, materials, techniques, and sources of error associated with shoreline mapping along the Louisiana barrier shoreline.

MATERIALS AND TECHNIQUES

Shorelines compiled in this atlas were derived from either topographic or near-vertical aerial surveys conducted between 1853 and 1989 (table 2). The high-water line is used as the official shoreline on cartographic data (Shalowitz, 1964; Anders and Byrnes, 1991) and is interpreted and determined on near-vertical aerial photographs according to the location of the wet- and dry-beach contact or the high-water debris line. Because the upper foreshore represents the landward limit of influence by normal wave and current processes, the high-water line is the most appropriate reference for measuring change in shoreline position (Langfelder and others, 1968). Fortunately, it is also the steepest portion of the foreshore, and a small change in water elevation produces a relatively small horizontal

displacement of the shoreline.

Several primary data sources were used to establish a shoreline change data base for the barrier systems. Shoreline data compiled prior to 1951 were digitized directly from mylar-based topographic sheets (T-sheets) published by the U.S. Coast and Geodetic Survey, currently known as the National Ocean Service (NOS) within the National Oceanic and Atmo-

Table 1.—Potential errors associated with shoreline mapping (modified from Anders and Byrnes, 1991)

| ACCURACY | | PRECISION |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Maps and Charts | Aerial Photographs | |
| scale | interpretation of high-water line | location of high-water line |
| horizontal datum changes | location of control points | digitizing equipment |
| sketch/trace | quality of control points | horizontal data consistency |
| surveying standards | aircraft tilt and pitch | media consistency |
| publication standards | altitude changes (scale) | operator consistency |
| photogrammetric standards | topographic relief | |
| datum | negatives vs. contact prints | |
| ellipsoid | | |

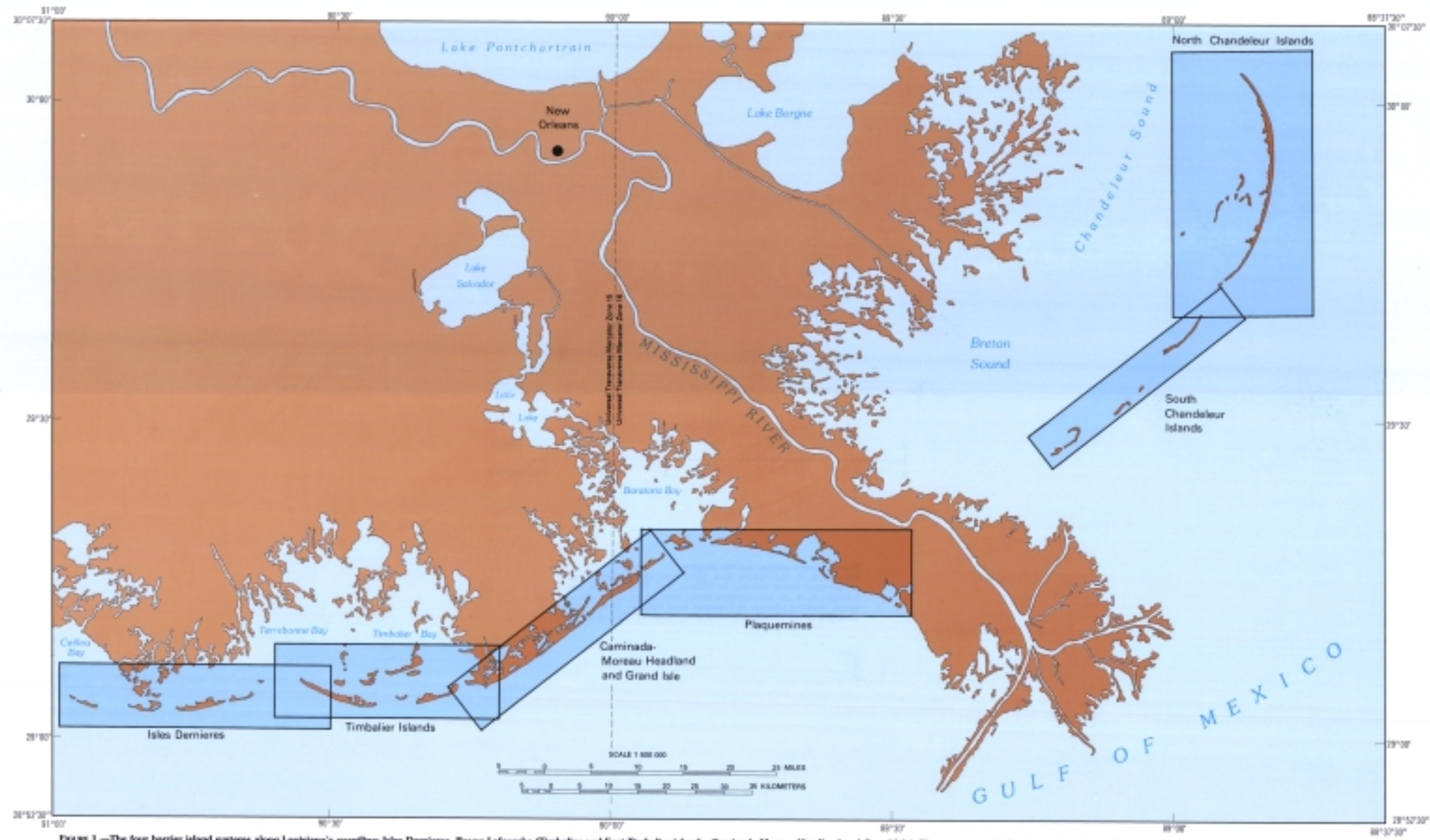


FIGURE 1.—The four barrier island systems along Louisiana's coastline: Isles Dernieres, Bayou Lafourche (Timbalier and East Timbalier islands, Caminada-Moreau Headland and Grand Isle), Plaquemines, and Chandeleur Islands (north and south).

Isles Dernieres Barrier System-1853 to 1988

Isles Dernieres is located about 100 km west of the mouth of the Mississippi River and about 120 km southwest of New Orleans (fig. 1). The island arc is 36 km long and extends from Racoon Point to Wine Island Shoal (chapter 1, fig. 17). Tidal inlet development has fragmented the Isles Dernieres into an arc comprising five smaller islands: Racoon, Whiskey, Trinity, and East islands and Wine Island Shoal. These islands range from 0.25 to 2 km wide and are separated by five tidal inlets: Coupe Colin, Whiskey Pass, Coupe Carmen, Coupe Juan, and Wine Island Pass. The inlets range from 0.3 to 6.0 km wide and are 2 to 16 m deep. The barrier shoreline is undergoing rapid geomorphologic change and severe coastal erosion (Peyronnin, 1962; Kwon, 1969; Neese, 1982; Penland and others, 1985, 1989a; McBride and others, 1989a; Ritchie and others, 1989; Dingier and Reiss, 1990).

Maps presented in this section show morphologic changes along the Isles Dernieres for the years 1853, 1887, 1906, 1934, 1956, 1978, and 1988. All maps referenced in the text are labelled by date. Although the 1853 shoreline represents a reconnaissance of the area surveyed by the U.S. Coast and Geodetic Survey at a scale of 1:200,000, the map provides important morphologic information. This source of information, however, was not used for quantitative purposes. The gulf side was surveyed in 1887, and the remaining bay side was finished in 1906. Because these surveys were incomplete, the 1887 and 1906 shorelines were combined and are referred to as the 1890's shoreline. Linear, area, and width measurements were obtained, and rates of change were calculated to determine the extent of modification for the 134-year period.

BARRIER SYSTEM MORPHOLOGY

Isles Dernieres experienced significant erosion and fragmentation between 1853 and 1988. In 1853, the barrier island arc was a continuous shoreline except for Wine Island, which was located to the east of Wine Island Pass (1853 map). By 1887, an unnamed tidal inlet had developed

along the island's west central portion. Meanwhile, submergence enlarged Lake Pelto to result in marsh deterioration (1890's map).

By 1934, Whiskey Pass had formed in the center portion of Isles Dernieres, possibly in response to major hurricanes that struck the Louisiana coast in 1909, 1915, and 1926 (1934 map) (Neumann and others, 1985). Between 1934 and 1956, Coupe Colin developed to the west of the unnamed tidal inlet (1956 map). Continued widening of existing tidal inlets and further deterioration of the interior marsh caused significant land loss and landscape change. As a result of Hurricane Carmen, Coupe Carmen formed on the eastern portion of the arc (1978 map). Along the western Isles Dernieres, the land area between Coupe Colin and the unnamed inlet became subaqueous, and most of Wine Island had become a shallow sandy shoal. The inlet referred to as Coupe Juan emerged when Hurricane Juan (1985) breached Isles Dernieres east of Coupe Carmen. By 1988, the once continuous barrier island had deteriorated into five narrow barrier islands separated by wide tidal inlets (1988 map).

SHORELINE MOVEMENT

The Isles Dernieres shoreline is one of the most rapidly deteriorating barrier shorelines in the United States. A comparison of shoreline positions is made for five periods: 1890's vs. 1934, 1934 vs. 1956, 1956 vs. 1978, 1978 vs. 1988, and 1890's vs. 1988. The magnitude of change, island width, and rate of change were obtained from 184 shore-normal transects at approximately 15-second intervals of longitude along both the gulf and bay shorelines (transects map, tables 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7).

The average rate of bayside change was 0.8 m/yr between 1906 and 1934, while the average gulfside rate of change for Isles Dernieres between 1887 and 1934 was -11.7m/yr (tables 5 and 7). The gulfside rate decreased to -7.8 m/yr between 1934 and 1956, and the gulf and bay shorelines remained relatively constant through 1978. The gulfside rate, however, increased to -19.2 m/yr between 1978 and 1988, and the rate

of bay shoreline retreat increased to 5.2 m/yr, presumably in response to repeated hurricane impacts in 1985 (figs. 5 and 6) (see Penland and others, 1989a).

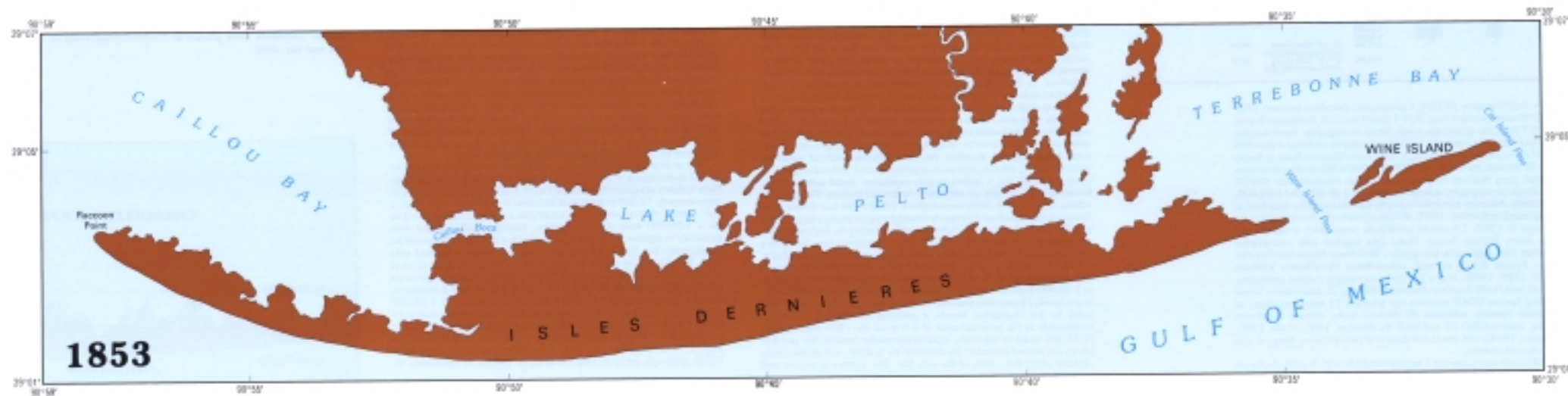
The 1890's vs. 1988 map illustrates land loss and summarizes cumulative quantitative changes along the gulf and bay shorelines. The gulf shoreline retreated between 1887 and 1988, except for the eastern end of East Island, and movement ranged from 3.4 to -23.2 m/yr to produce an average rate of -11.1 m/yr (table 7). Between 1906 and 1988, the rate of bay shoreline change ranged from 23.5 to -4.9 m/yr, with an average retreat rate of -0.6 m/yr (table 5). As a result, the gulf and bay shorelines are converging.

AREA AND WIDTH CHANGE

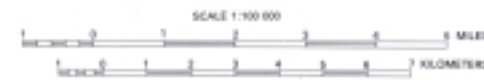
Changes in island area are a function of length and width adjustments in the barrier system. For the 1890's map, island width along the barrier arc ranged between 52 and 3,203 m (table 6). In general, the barrier island arc was narrower at both ends and widest in the middle, with an average width of 1,171 m. The average rate of land loss between the 1890's and 1934 was 35.8 ha/yr (table 8). By 1934, the complex had narrowed to 815 m wide. Slow but steady deterioration of the system continued through 1978 when its average width decreased to 585 m. The average rate of land loss decreased to a low of 9.8 ha/yr between 1956 and 1978. Island width decreased dramatically between 1978 and 1988 to result in an average width of 375 m and an increase in land loss to 47.2 ha/yr (fig. 7). This period of high rate of area loss included Hurricanes Danny and Juan in 1985.

Erosion of the gulf and bay shorelines is causing the island to narrow. From the 1890's to 1988, the barrier width decreased 796 m (figs. 8 and 9). This represents an average narrowing rate of 8.6 m/yr for approximately the last century. Similarly, the area of Isles Dernieres decreased continuously from 3,532 ha in the 1890's to 771 ha in 1988 (fig. 10). This is a land loss of 78 percent or 2,761 ha at an average rate of 28.2 ha/yr (table 8).

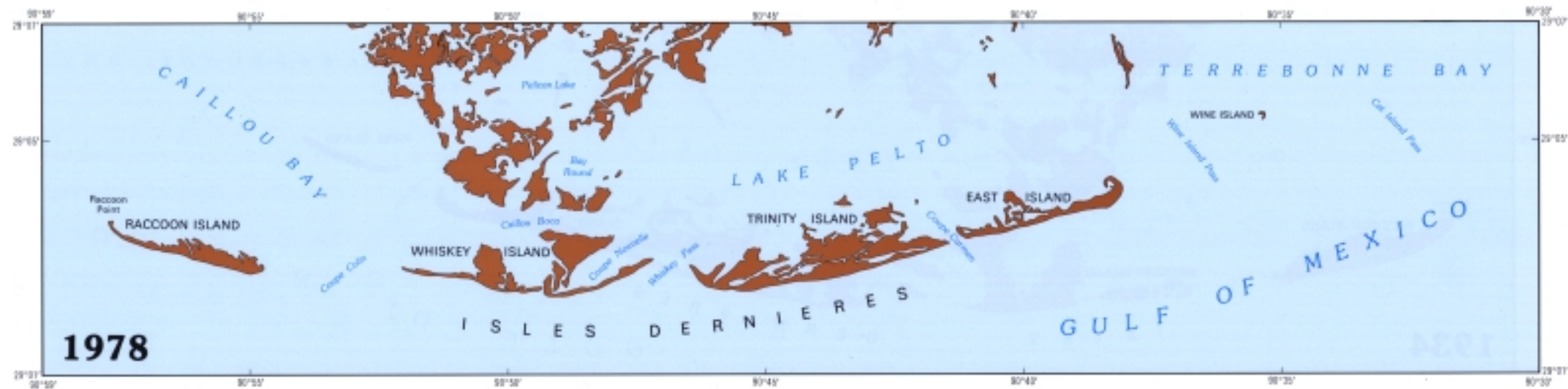
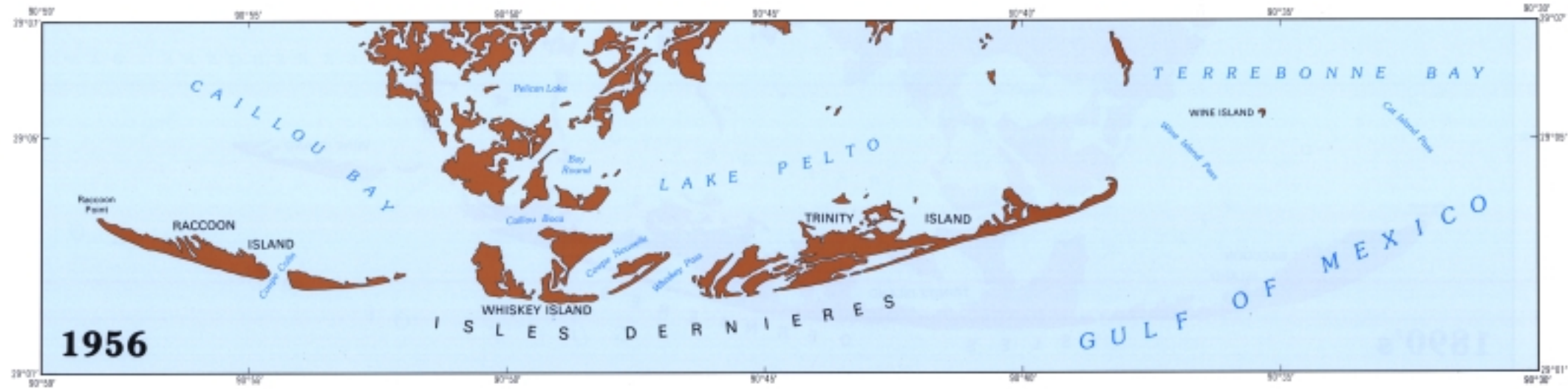
• Historic Shorelines •



Isles Dernieres



Isles Dernieres



Isles Dernieres



FIGURE 5.—Average gulfside rate of change along Isles Dernieres between 1887 and 1988.

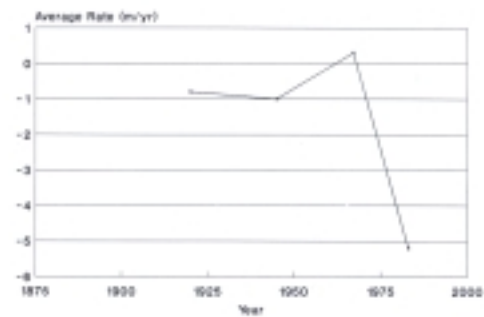


FIGURE 6.—Average bayside rate of change along Isles Dernieres between 1906 and 1988.

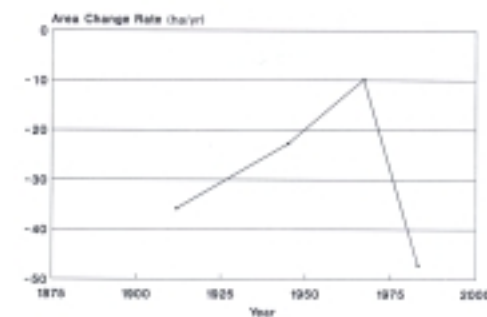


FIGURE 7.—Rate of area change for Isles Dernieres between the 1890's and 1988.

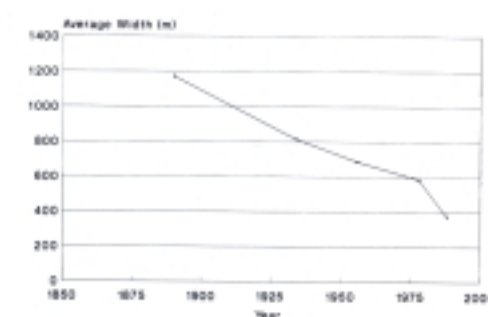
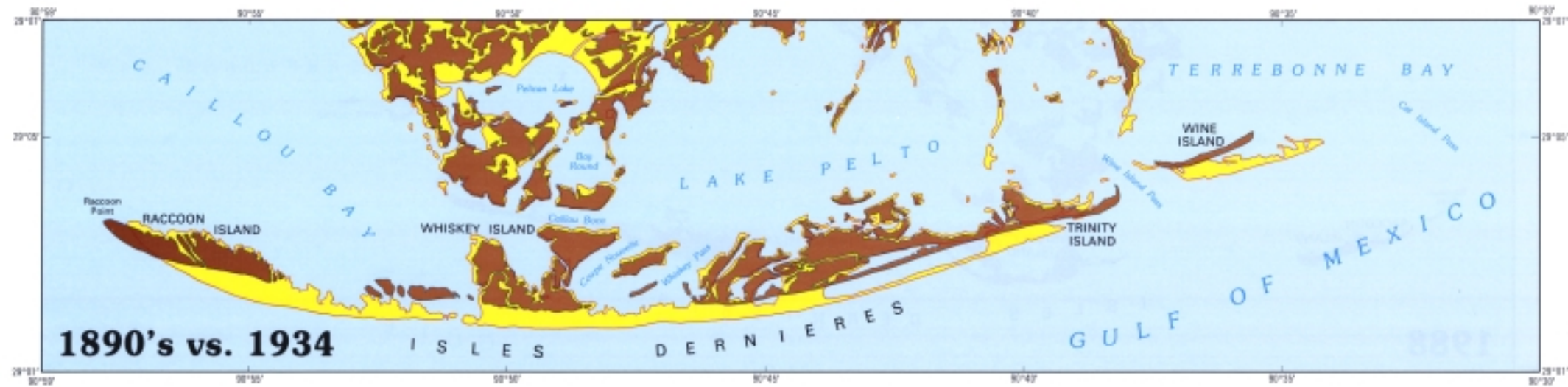


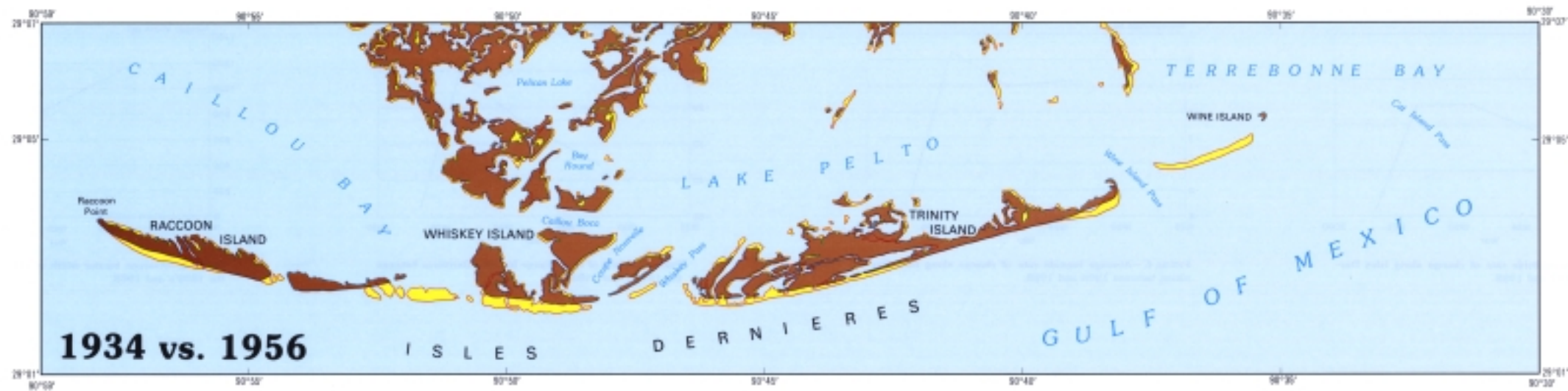
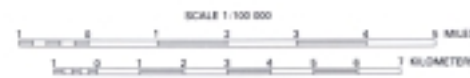
FIGURE 8.—Average barrier width of Isles Dernieres between the 1890's and 1988.

Isles Dernieres

• Shoreline Change and Land Loss •

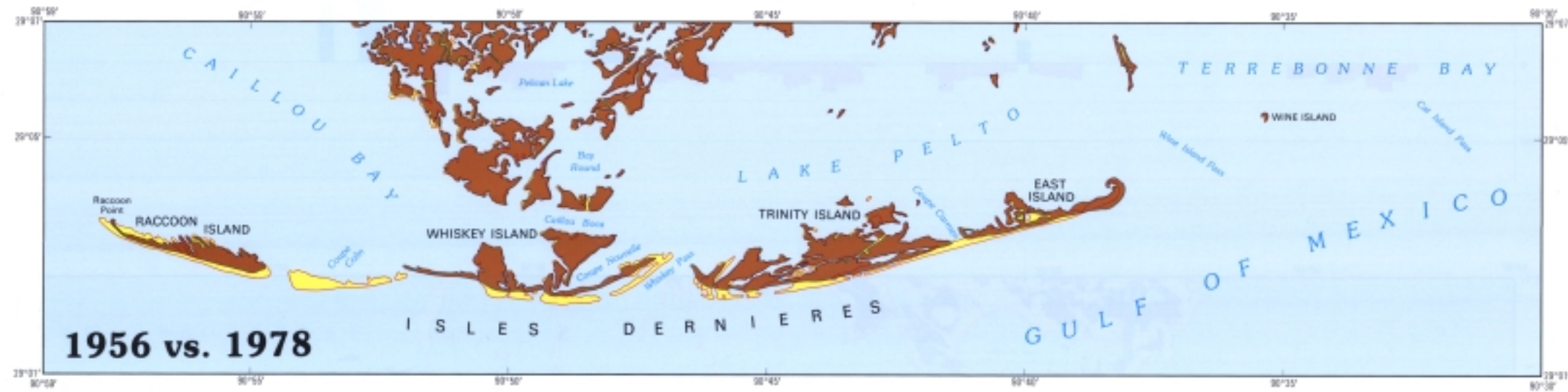


— 1890's
— 1934



— 1934
— 1956

Isles Dernieres



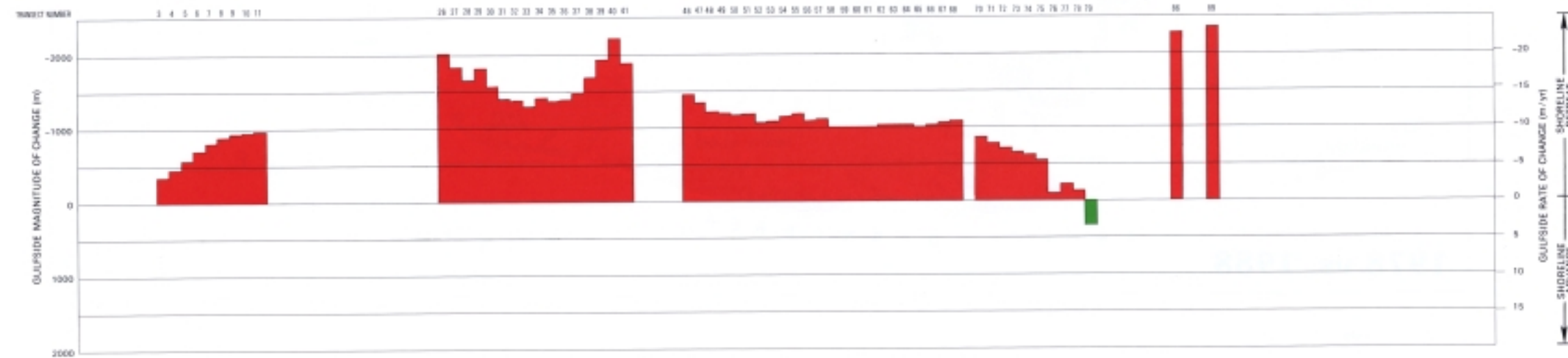
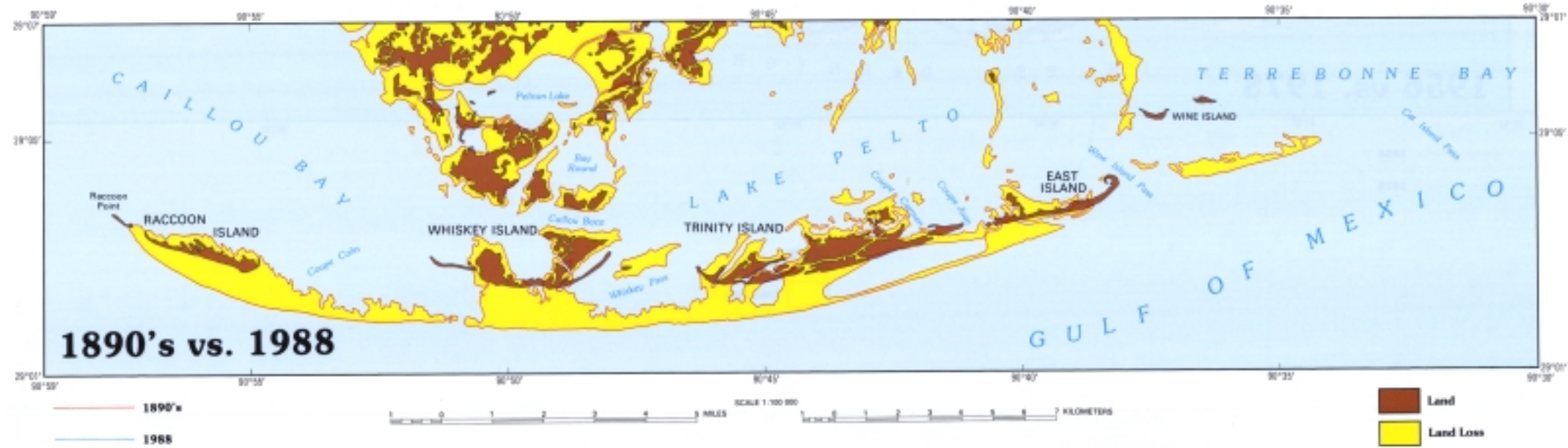
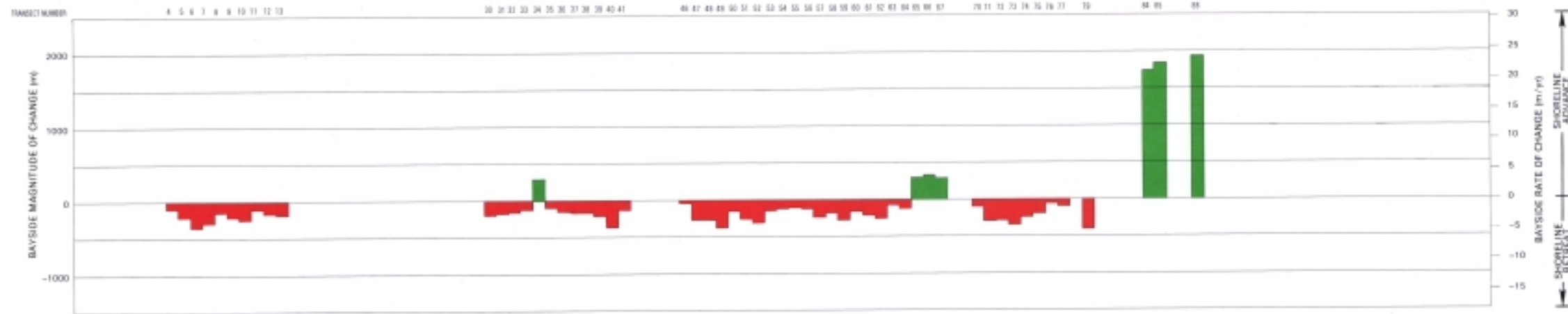
— 1956
— 1978

■ Land
■ Land Loss



— 1978
— 1988

Isles Dernieres



Isles Dernieres

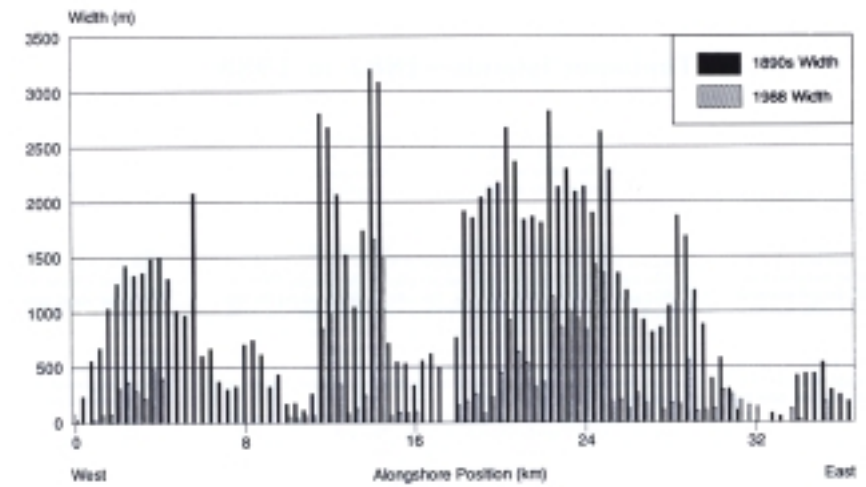


FIGURE 9.—Comparison of the 1890's and 1988 barrier widths for Isles Dernieres.

TABLE 8.—Area changes for Isles Dernieres from the 1890's to 1988

| Date | Area (ha) | Change (ha) | % Change | Rate (ha/yr) | Projected Date of Disappearance |
|--------|-----------|-------------|----------|--------------|---------------------------------|
| 1890's | 3,532 | | | | |
| 1934 | 1,968 | -1,574 | -45% | -36.6 | 1989 |
| 1934 | 1,958 | | | | |
| 1966 | 1,468 | -500 | -26% | -22.7 | 2020 |
| 1966 | 1,458 | | | | |
| 1978 | 1,243 | -215 | -15% | -9.8 | 2106 |
| 1978 | 1,243 | | | | |
| 1988 | 771 | -472 | -38% | -47.2 | 2004 |
| 1890's | 3,532 | | | | |
| 1988 | 771 | -2,761 | -78% | -28.2 | 2016 |

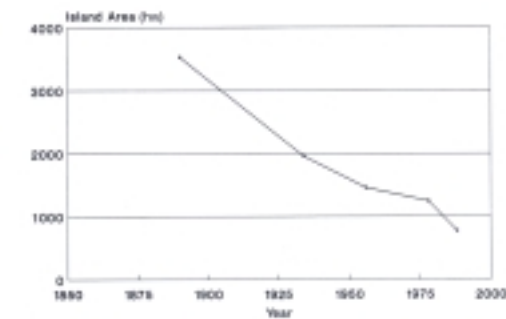


FIGURE 10.—Area change for Isles Dernieres between the 1890's and 1988.

Bayou Lafourche Barrier System

The Bayou Lafourche barrier system lies about 75 km west of the mouth of the Mississippi River and about 80 km south of New Orleans. The system encompasses Timbalier and East Timbalier islands, Caminada-Moreau Headland, and Grand Isle (fig. 1). The shoreline is approximately 65 km long and extends east from Cat Island Pass to Barataria Pass (chapter 1, fig. 11). Timbalier and East Timbalier islands, and Grand Isle are downdrift flanking barrier islands located to the west and east, respectively, of the Caminada-Moreau erosional headland. These islands range from 0.2 to 1.2 km wide. Cat Island Pass, Little Pass Timbalier, Raccoon Pass, Belle Pass, Caminada Pass, and Barataria Pass connect the Gulf of Mexico to Terrebonne, Timbalier, Caminada, and Barataria bays. Belle Pass represents the distal end of the abandoned Bayou Lafourche distributary system. The Bayou Lafourche barrier system is dominated by landward and lateral movement. Inadequate sediment supply, subsidence, and storm and human impacts are the major factors causing shoreline

change in this region (Mossa and others, 1985; Penland and others, 1986; Ritchie and Penland, 1988; McBride, 1989b).

The Bayou Lafourche shoreline is divided into two sections: the Timbalier Islands and the Caminada-Moreau Headland and Grand Isle. The Timbalier Islands extend east from Cat Island Pass to Belle Pass and consist of Timbalier and East Timbalier islands (Peyronnin, 1962; Kwon, 1969; Isacks, 1989). The Caminada-Moreau Headland and Grand Isle extend from Raccoon Pass to Barataria Pass (Kwon, 1969; Conaster, 1971; Harper, 1977; Gerdes, 1982; Shamban, 1982; Jeffrey, 1984; Combe and Soileau, 1987; Ritchie and Penland, 1990a, b). Maps presented show shoreline change for both sections in the years 1887, 1934, 1956, 1978, and 1988. From these maps, magnitude of shoreline movement, width, and island area measurements were obtained, and rates of change were calculated to determine the extent and rapidity of change to the barrier system.

Timbalier Islands-1887 to 1988

Morphology

The Timbalier Islands have experienced more lateral morphological change than any other island in Louisiana. In 1887, the barrier shoreline included Caillou, Timbalier, and East Timbalier islands (1887 map). At that time, Caillou Pass separated Caillou and Timbalier islands. In 1934, Caillou Pass was partially blocked by the westward lateral migration of Timbalier Island; Little Pass Timbalier was much wider; and Raccoon Pass consisted of a series of breaches (1934 map). By 1956, Timbalier Island completely shielded Caillou Pass, and Caillou Pass evolved into a back-barrier channel (1956 map). Timbalier Island continued to migrate west while other areas only experienced land loss because of mangrove die-offs during the hard freezes of 1983 and 1985 (1978 and 1988 maps).

Shoreline Movement

Comparisons of shoreline position are made for the periods 1887 vs. 1934, 1934 vs. 1956, 1956 vs. 1978, 1978 vs. 1988, and 1887 vs. 1988. Shoreline position and barrier width were monitored at 164 shore-normal transects along the gulf and bay shorelines (transects map; tables 9, 10, 11, 12, and 13).

Timbalier and East Timbalier islands were examined separately to provide a more accurate representation of barrier shoreline response to dominant coastal processes. Both islands formed as a result of lateral spit accretion and breaching; however, once formed, the mechanisms by which they migrated differed. Washover processes caused East Timbalier Island to rapidly migrate landward. In contrast, Timbalier Island continued migrating west in response to local processes (wind and waves). Therefore, the western end of the island grows laterally at the expense of erosion on the eastern end. Moreover, the dominance of lateral migration was enhanced by the width and elevation of the west-central portion of Timbalier Island, which inhibited washover processes from transporting sediment across the island to the bay shoreline.

Timbalier Island

Along its gulf side, Timbalier Island generally exhibits a lower average rate of change because erosion on the east and accretion on the west cancel each other. More importantly, Timbalier Island is rapidly migrating west while its length slowly decreases (table 14). The average rate of change for Timbalier Island between 1887 and 1934 along the gulf shoreline was only -1.4 m/yr; the average bayside rate of change was -2.9 m/yr (tables 11 and 13). This average gulfside rate of change decreased slightly to -1.2 m/yr, while the average bayside rate of seaward-directed movement decreased slightly to -2.1 m/yr. Between 1956 and 1978, the gulf shoreline migrated landward at an increased average rate of -3.1 m/yr and then increased over twofold to -7.0 m/yr between 1978 and 1988 (fig. 11). For the period 1956 to 1978, the average bayside rate further decreased to -1.3 m/yr; however, between 1978 and 1988, the average rate escalated over tenfold to -14.1 m/yr (fig. 12). The rate of change along the bay indicates a net seaward movement, causing the gulf and bay sides to converge slowly.

East Timbalier Island

Rates of gulf and bayside movement are much higher along East Timbalier Island than Timbalier Island and, in fact, are the highest in the United States. The average gulfside rate of change for East Timbalier Island was -44.4 m/yr between 1887 and 1934 but decreased by about eightfold to -5.5 m/yr between 1934 and 1956 (table 13). Since 1956, the average rate of shoreline retreat has increased steadily to -16.2 m/yr and -21.2 m/yr for the periods 1956 vs. 1978 and 1978 vs. 1988, respectively (fig. 13).

Along the bay side, the average rate of change decreased continuously from 45.1 to 18.3, 15.8, and -1.2 m/yr for the periods 1887 vs. 1934, 1934 vs. 1956, 1956 vs. 1978, and 1978 vs. 1988, respectively (fig. 14, table 11). This suggests a slow reversal in the natural and human processes along the back-barrier shoreline. Washover processes probably swept sand

across the island and caused the bay shoreline to migrate landward at a rate consistent with gulfside retreat. At some point, after the construction of seawalls on the island in the late 1950's, this natural process was terminated, and the bay shoreline experienced recession.

Timbalier Islands Summary

The average change rate along the gulf shoreline was -16.3 m/yr between 1887 and 1934, but decreased to -3.8 m/yr between 1934 and 1956 (table 13). Migration increased steadily for the periods 1956 vs. 1978 and 1978 vs. 1988 (fig. 15). The rate of change along the bay shoreline was net progradational at 12.4 m/yr between 1887 and 1934 (table 11). This rate declined by half to 5.6 m/yr for the period 1934 vs. 1956 and raised slightly to 7.1 m/yr between 1956 and 1978. For the period 1978 to 1988, bayside change remained relatively constant at -7.8 m/yr; however, a reversal in direction resulted in extensive changes in back-barrier morphology (fig. 16).

The 1887 vs. 1988 map presents cumulative shoreline position changes for the Timbalier Islands shoreline. The gulf shoreline of the Timbalier Islands experienced landward movement, except for the western end of Timbalier Island which exhibited lateral accretion. Gulfside change rates were highest along East Timbalier Island and the eastern end of Timbalier Island.

The magnitude and direction of bay shoreline movement depends on island width and geomorphology, with low and narrow areas exhibiting the greatest change. The western end of Timbalier Island is undergoing lateral migration by spit-building processes at the expense of erosion along the eastern end. Between 1887 and 1988, the eastern and western ends of Timbalier Island migrated rapidly to the west (table 14).

Area and Width Change

Area change becomes more meaningful along the Timbalier Islands because of the dominance of lateral versus cross-shore sediment transport

Extreme amounts of lateral migration characterize Timbalier Island; therefore, area and width measurements are probably better indicators of change than data derived from shore-normal transects.

Timbalier Island

In 1887, the average width of Timbalier Island was 1,341 m, and by 1934, the barrier island narrowed to 946 m (table 12). Between 1887 and 1934, the rate of area change was -8.8 ha/yr (table 15). The average width of Timbalier Island decreased to 916 m by 1956. Between 1956 and 1978, the island grew at a rate of 3.8 ha/yr; however, island width decreased to 850 m by 1978. This land gain indicates that, while narrowing, Timbalier Island increased its length by spit processes. For the period 1978 to 1988, Timbalier Island experienced rapid land loss (fig. 17). During this period, island width decreased by over 50 percent to result in an average width of 415 m. This trend will eventually lead to fragmentation because storms easily overwash and breach inlets across narrow islands.

The average width of Timbalier Island decreased 926 m between 1887 and 1988, an average island narrowing rate of 9.2 m/yr (fig. 18). During the period, the area of Timbalier Island decreased from 1,485 to 542 ha (fig. 19, table 15).

East Timbalier Island

East Timbalier has experienced extreme changes in island area and width. In 1887, its width ranged from 80 to 649 m, with an average width of 283 m (table 12). The rate of area change between 1887 and 1934 was -2.1 ha/yr (fig. 20, table 16). By 1934, the width ranged between 94 and 441 m, with an average width that narrowed to 248 m. The rate of area change increased to 14.5 ha/yr between 1934 and 1956 to result in land gain. By 1956, average island width dramatically increased to 506 m with a range between 118 and 1,240 m. Land gain continued between 1956

and 1978 but slowed to 3.7 ha/yr. This land gain was reflected in a continual increase to 547 m wide by 1978. Island area showed a sharp decline between 1978 and 1988 with a loss of 257 ha, a 52 percent decrease at an average rate of -25.7 ha/yr.

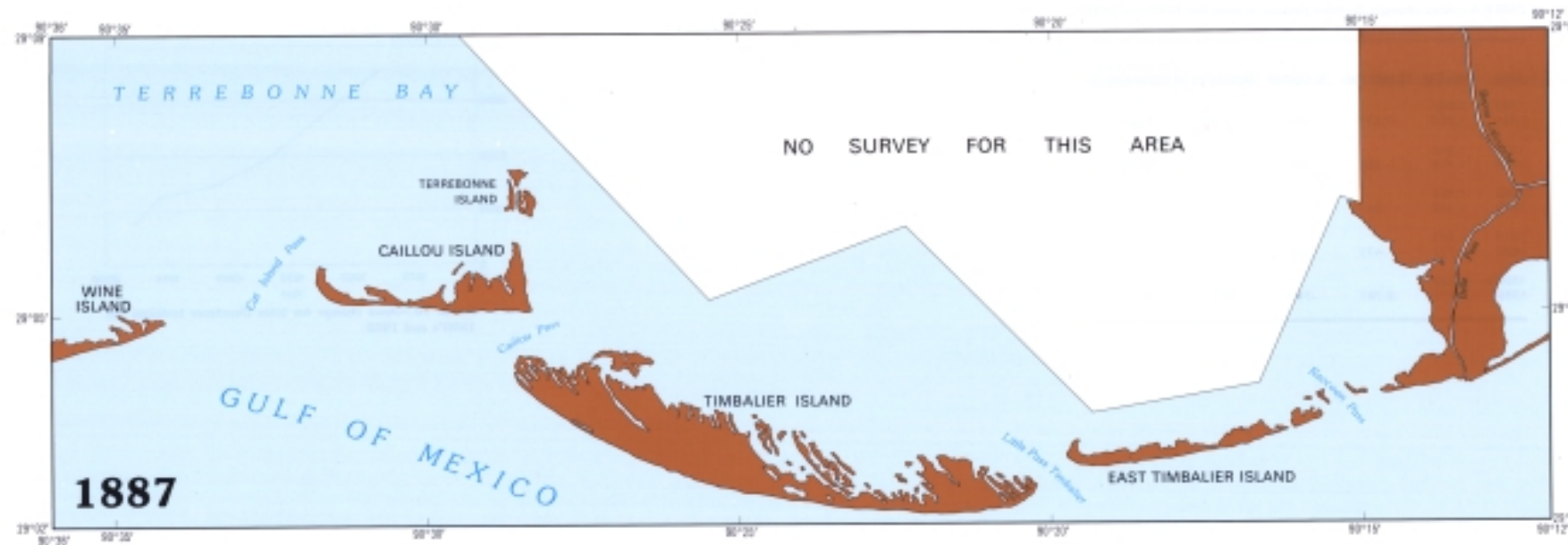
Average width along East Timbalier Island increased from 283 m in 1887 to 333 m in 1988 (fig. 21, table 12). This represents an average widening of 0.5 m/yr. Likewise, the island exhibited a slight area increase between 1887 and 1988, with major fluctuations (fig. 22). Overall, East Timbalier Island has conserved land area to show a slight land gain (table 16).

Timbalier Islands Summary

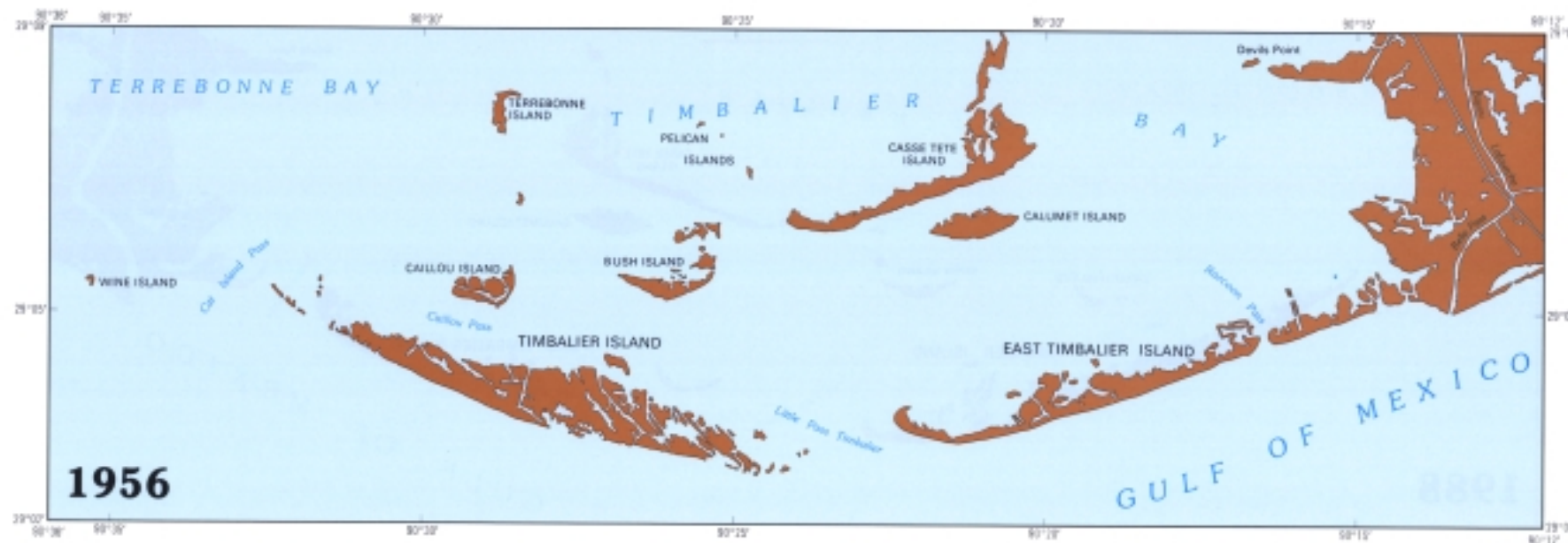
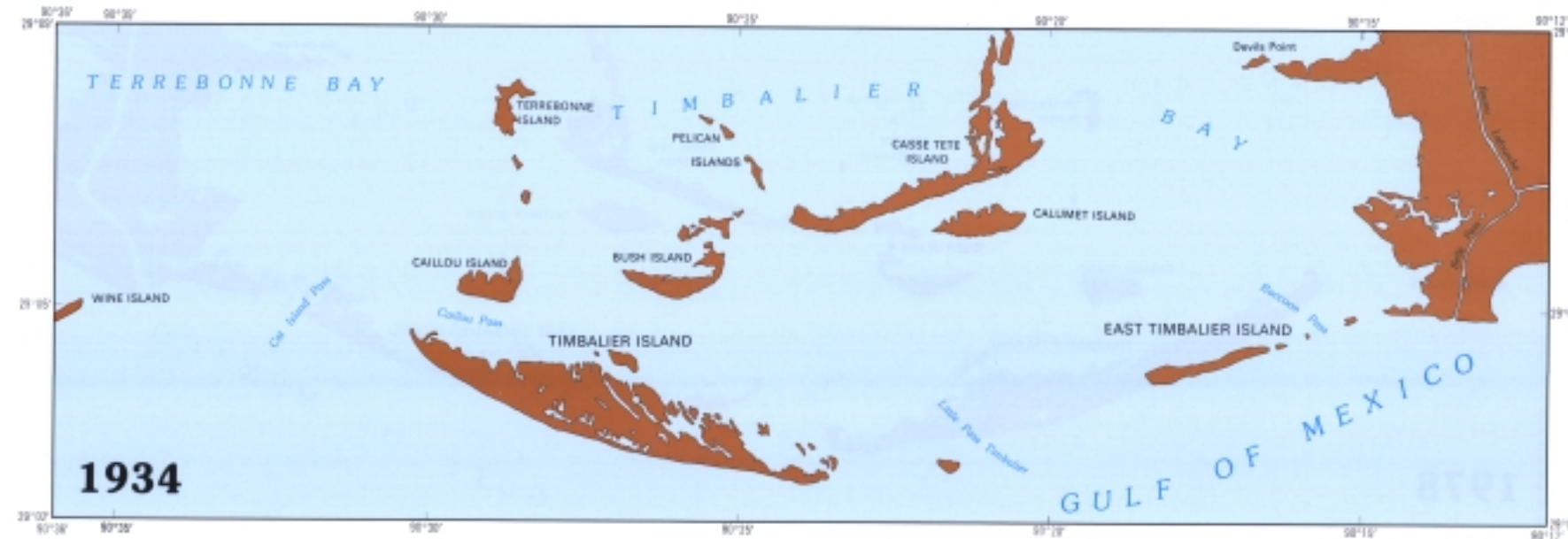
In 1887, island width along the Timbalier Islands ranged between 80 and 2,355 m, with an average width of 945 m (table 12). By 1934, average width narrowed to between 94 and 1,906 m with an average width of 756 m. The average rate of area change for this period was -10.9 ha/yr (table 17). The average rate of area change reversed from land loss to land gain between 1934 and 1956 to 7.5 ha/yr, stabilized at 7.6 ha/yr between 1956 and 1978 but dramatically increased -71.5 ha/yr between 1978 and 1988 (fig. 23). The average width of the barrier islands decreased continuously from 1956 to 1988 (fig. 24). Although barrier width narrowed between 1934 and 1978, the islands experienced land gain because rapid lateral spit accretion is capable of depositing sediment faster than the narrowing process can remove it. High land loss rates occurred between 1978 and 1988 primarily because Hurricanes Danny and Juan struck the area in 1985 (Case, 1986). During this short time, 715 ha were lost.

Combined area of the Timbalier Islands has decreased 897 ha from 1887 to 1988 (fig. 24, table 17). Shoreline changes between 1887 and 1988 along the gulf and bay shorelines caused the Timbalier Islands to narrow 5.6 m/yr (fig. 25, table 12). Barrier island widths for 1887 and 1988 are shown in figure 26.

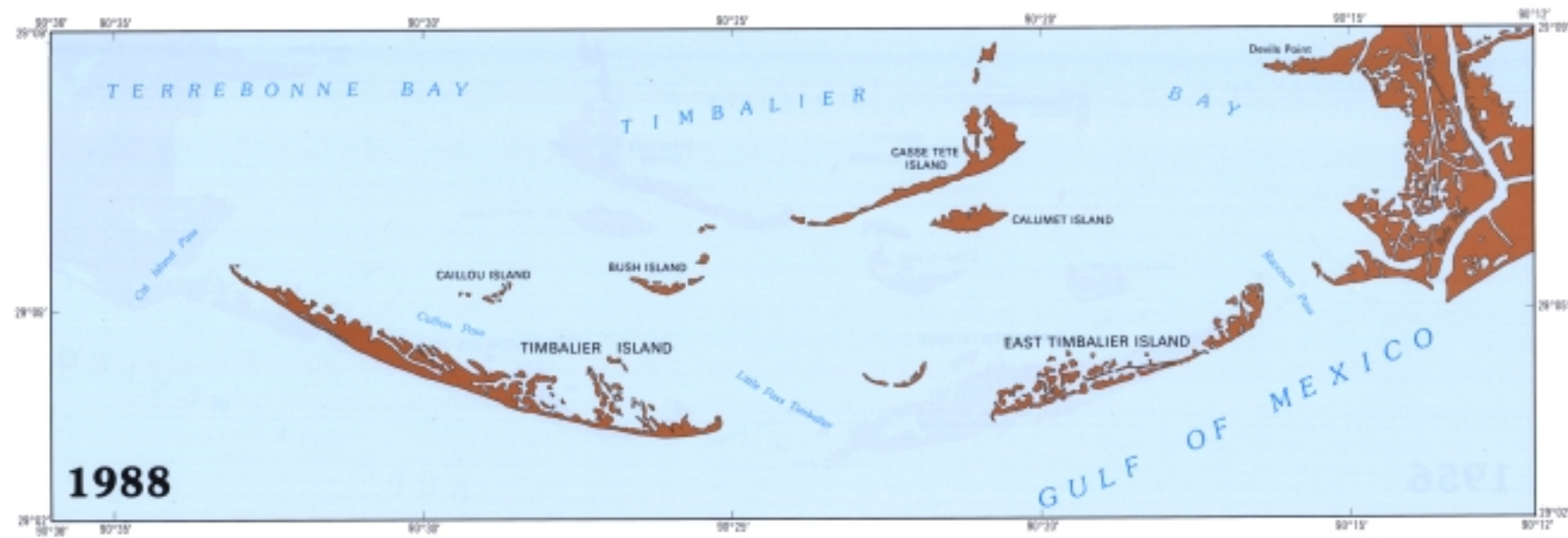
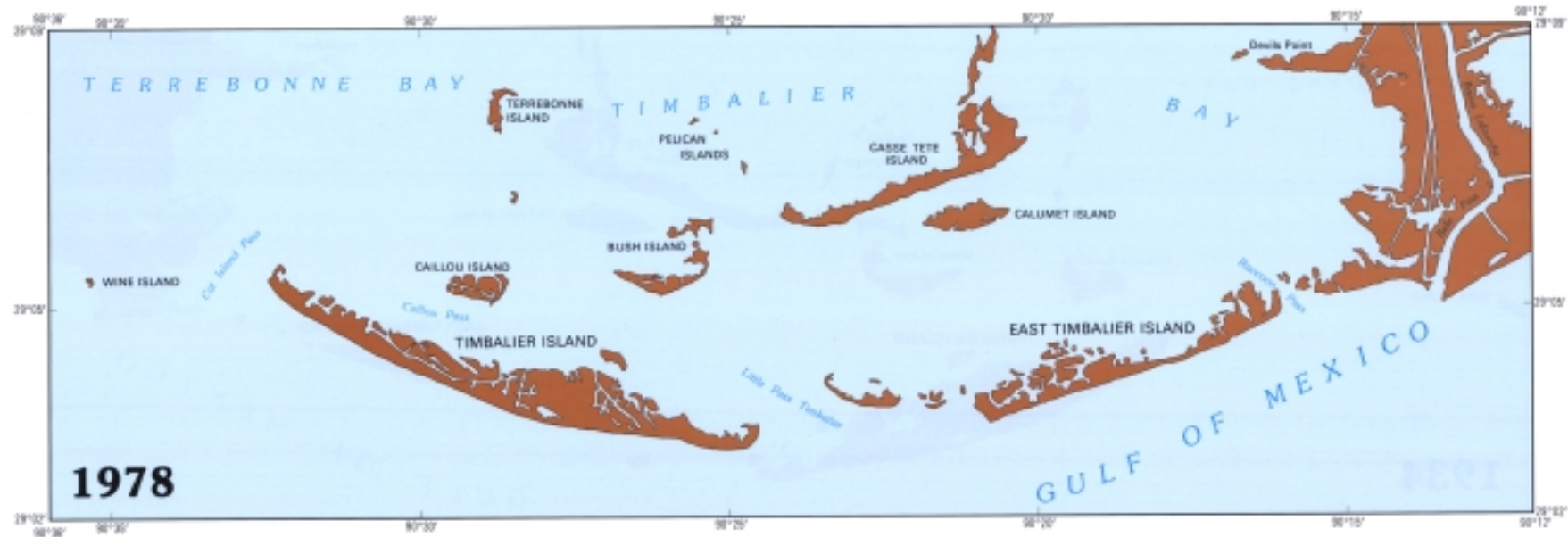
• Historic Shorelines •



Timbalier Islands



Timbalier Islands



Timbalier Islands

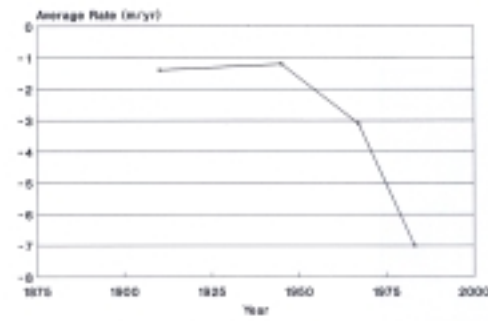


FIGURE 11.—Average gulfside rate of change between 1887 and 1988 along Timbalier Island.

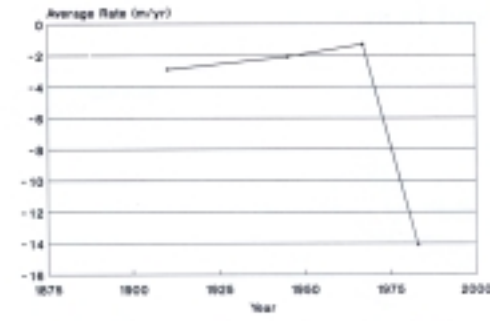


FIGURE 12.—Average bayside rate of change between 1887 and 1988 along Timbalier Island.

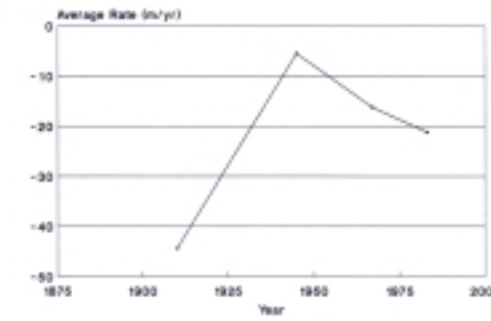


FIGURE 13.—Average gulfside rate of change between 1887 and 1988 along East Timbalier Island.

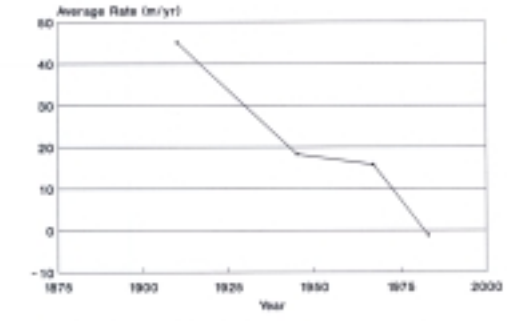


FIGURE 14.—Average bayside rate of change between 1887 and 1988 along East Timbalier Island.

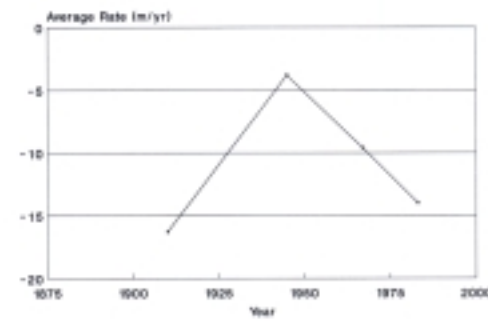


FIGURE 15.—Average gulfside rate of change between 1887 and 1988 along the Timbalier Islands shoreline.

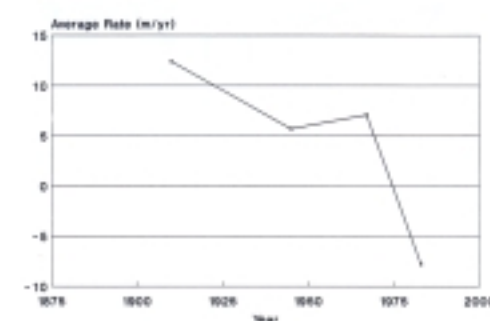


FIGURE 16.—Average bayside rate of change between 1887 and 1988 along the Timbalier Islands shoreline.



FIGURE 17.—Rate of area change between 1887 and 1988 of Timbalier Island.

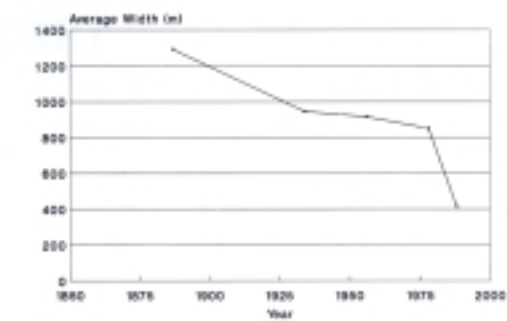


FIGURE 18.—Average barrier width between 1887 and 1988 of Timbalier Island.



FIGURE 19.—Area changes of Timbalier Island between 1887 and 1988.

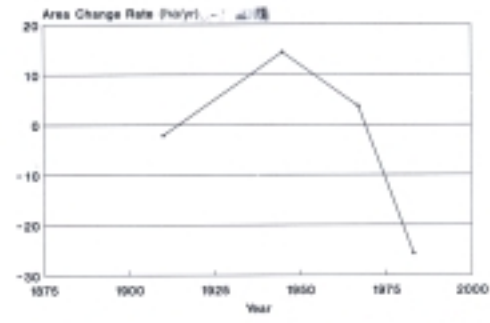


FIGURE 20.—Rate of area change between 1887 and 1988 for East Timbalier Island.

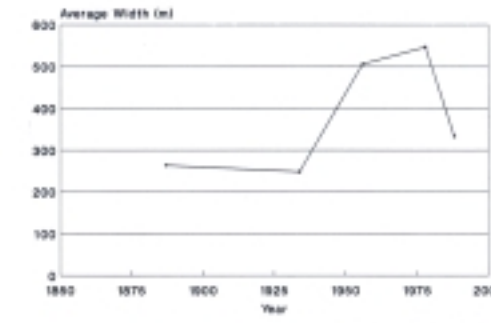


FIGURE 21.—Average barrier width between 1887 and 1988 for East Timbalier Island.

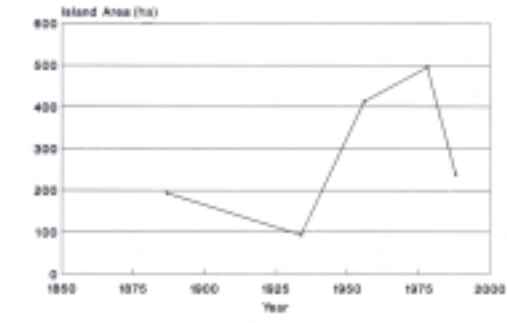
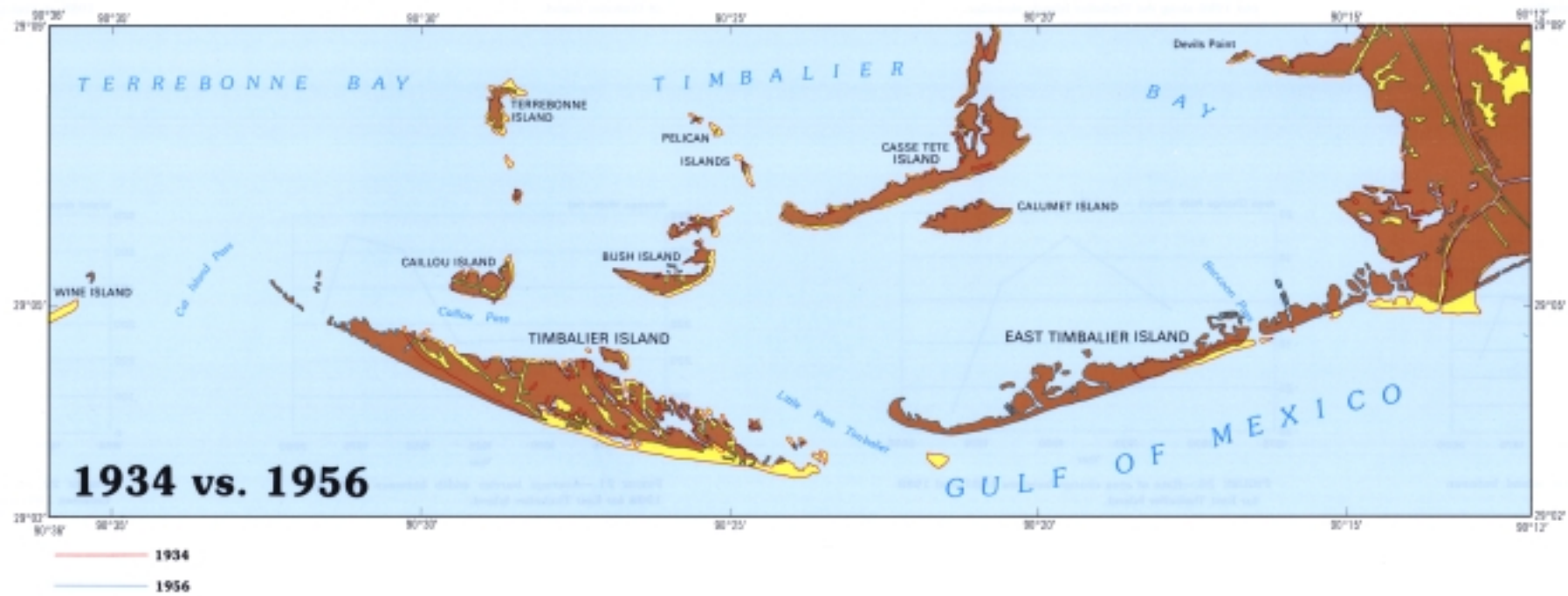
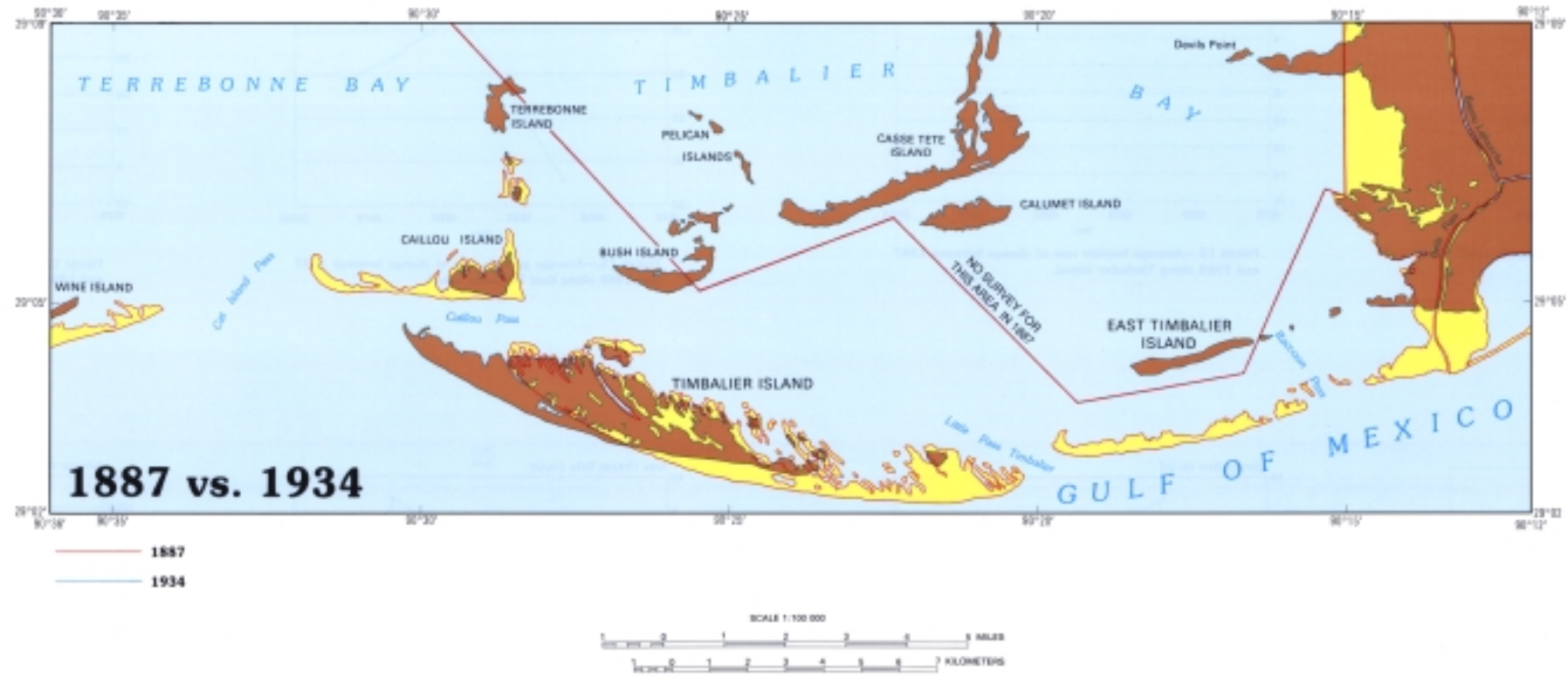


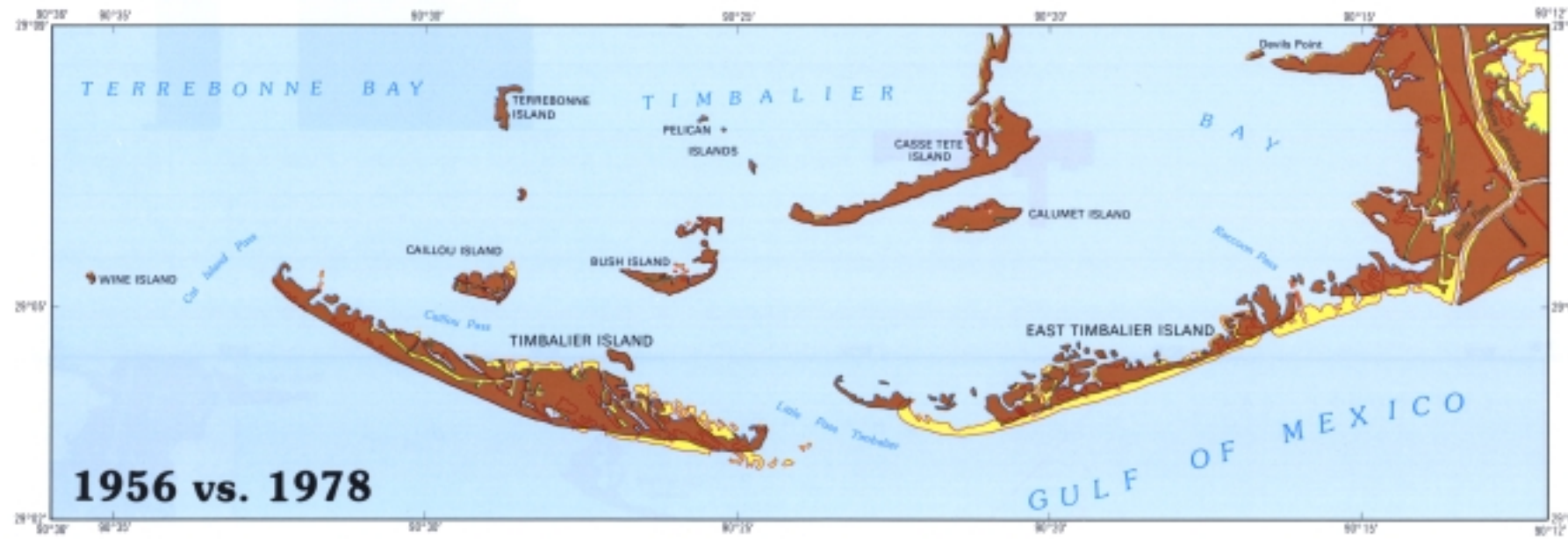
FIGURE 22.—Area changes of East Timbalier Island between 1887 and 1988.

Timbalier Islands

• Shoreline Change and Land Loss •



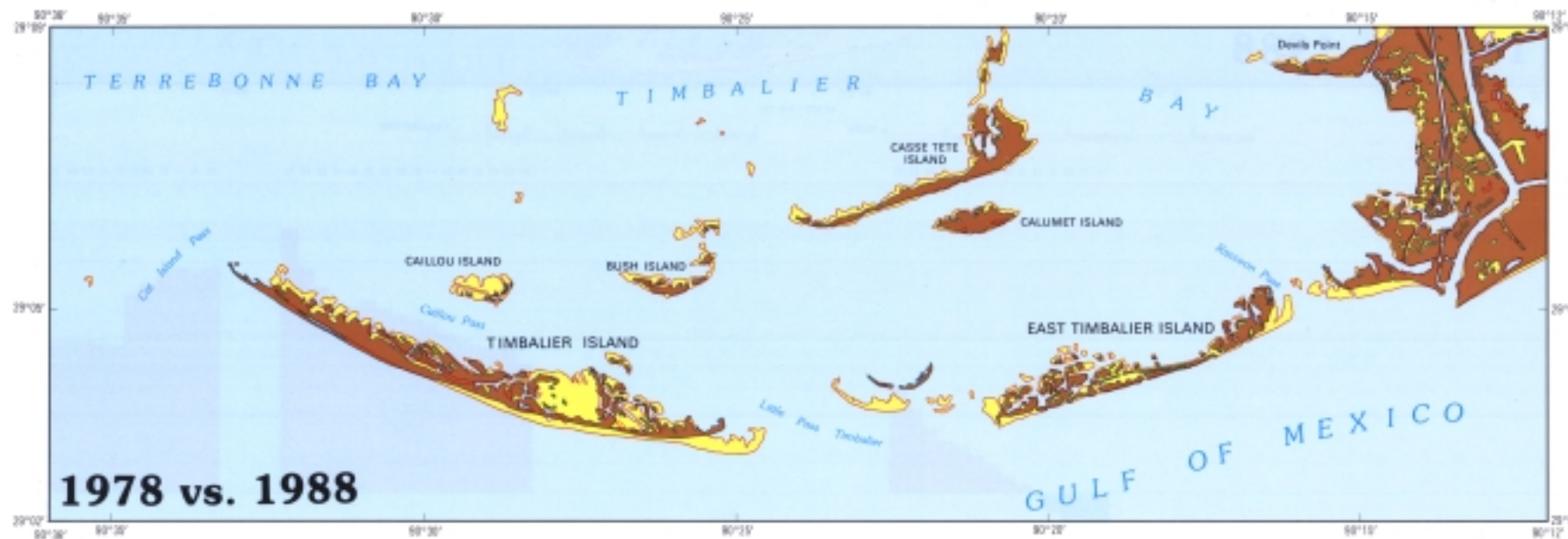
Timbalier Islands



1956 vs. 1978

— 1956
— 1978

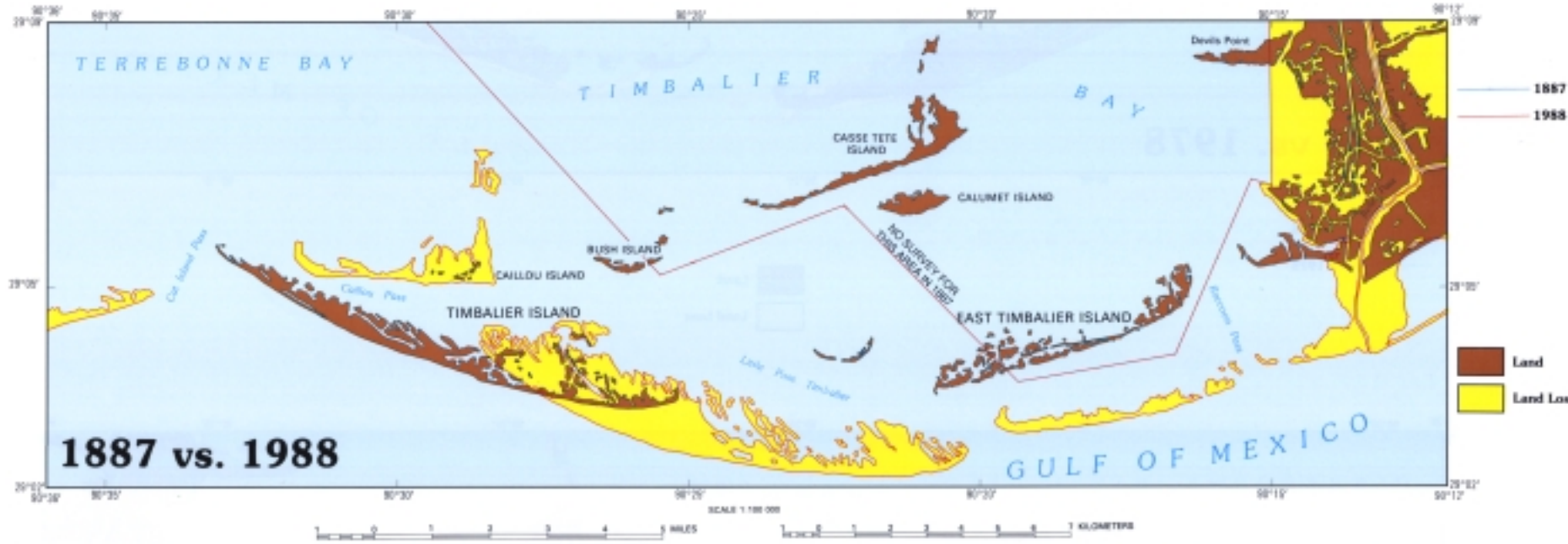
Land
Land Loss



1978 vs. 1988

— 1978
— 1988

Timbalier Islands



Timbalier Islands

TABLE 9.—Timbalier Islands bayside magnitude of change (meters)

| Transect # | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 25 | 26 | 27 | 28 | 29 | 30 | 31 | 32 | 33 | 34 | 35 | 36 | 37 | 38 | 39 | 40 | 41 | 42 | 43 | 44 | 45 | 46 | 47 | 48 | | | |
|------------|-------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Y | 1887 - 1934 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | |
| D | 1934 - 1956 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |
| F | 1956 - 1978 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | |
| S | 1978 - 1988 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | |

| Transect # | 49 | 50 | 51 | 52 | 53 | 54 | 55 | 56 | 57 | 58 | 59 | 60 | 61 | 62 | 63 | 64 | 65 | 66 | 67 | 68 | 69 | 70 | 71 | 72 | 73 | 74 | 75 | 76 | 77 | 78 | 79 | 80 | 81 | 82 | 83 | 84 | 85 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|------------|-------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Y | 1887 - 1934 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |
| D | 1934 - 1956 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |
| F | 1956 - 1978 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |
| S | 1978 - 1988 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |

| Timbalier Island bayside summary | | | | | | East Timbalier Island bayside summary | | | | | | Timbalier Islands bayside summary | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|-------|--------|-------|-------------|-------|---------------------------------------|-------------|-------|--------|-------------|-------|-----------------------------------|-----|-------------|-------|-------------|--------|------|-------|----|
| Years | Sum | Avg | STD | Total Range | Count | Years | Sum | Avg | STD | Total Range | Count | Years | Sum | Avg | STD | Total Range | Count | | | |
| 1887 - 1934 | -387 | -136.0 | 83.7 | 31 | -338 | 21 | 1887 - 1934 | 16697 | 2117.4 | 93.7 | 2847 | 1881 | 8 | 1887 - 1934 | 16889 | 844.5 | 1824.9 | 2287 | -328 | 88 |
| 1934 - 1956 | -1244 | -48.1 | 86.9 | 62 | -549 | 27 | 1934 - 1956 | 4034 | 403.4 | 318.3 | 788 | -41 | 30 | 1934 - 1956 | 4910 | 122.8 | 330.6 | 1124 | -348 | 40 |
| 1956 - 1978 | -884 | -28.6 | 281.7 | 688 | -847 | 20 | 1956 - 1978 | 10084 | 347.6 | 358.9 | 1812 | -189 | 29 | 1956 - 1978 | 8787 | 188.3 | 347.3 | 1012 | -847 | 63 |
| 1978 - 1988 | -4216 | -140.6 | 287.8 | 832 | -1237 | 30 | 1978 - 1988 | -288 | -12.2 | 214.2 | 411 | -813 | 24 | 1978 - 1988 | -4888 | -19.2 | 247.7 | 522 | -1237 | 57 |
| 1887 - 1988 | -7087 | -285.9 | 218.7 | -140 | -1478 | 14 | 1887 - 1988 | 41247 | 2428.3 | 428.9 | 3202 | 1788 | 17 | 1887 - 1988 | 40117 | 1178.9 | 1811.8 | 3302 | -1478 | 34 |

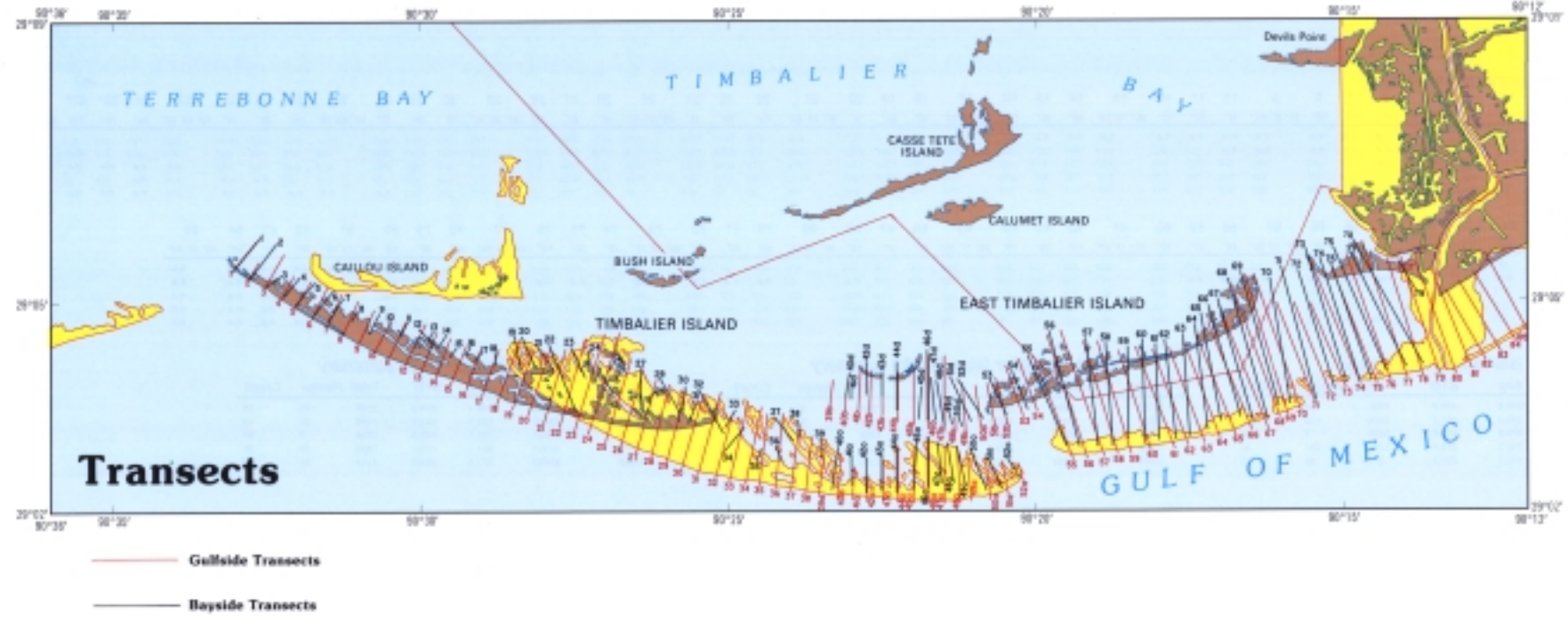


TABLE 10.—Timbalier Islands gulfside magnitude of change (meters)

| Transect # | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 25 | 26 | 27 | 28 | 29 | 30 | 31 | 32 | 33 | 34 | 35 | 36 | 37 | 38 | 39 | 40 | 41 | 42 | 43 | 44 | 45 | 46 | 47 | 48 | | |
|------------|-------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Y | 1887 - 1934 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |
| D | 1934 - 1956 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |
| F | 1956 - 1978 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |
| S | 1978 - 1988 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |

| Transect # | 49 | 50 | 51 | 52 | 53 | 54 | 55 | 56 | 57 | 58 | 59 | 60 | 61 | 62 | 63 | 64 | 65 | 66 | 67 | 68 | 69 | 70 | 71 | 72 | 73 | 74 | 75 | 76 | 77 | 78 | 79 | 80 | 81 | 82 | 83 | 84 | 85 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|------------|-------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Y | 1887 - 1934 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |
| D | 1934 - 1956 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |
| F | 1956 - 1978 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |
| S | 1978 - 1988 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |

| Timbalier Island gulfside summary | | | | | | East Timbalier Island gulfside summary | | | | | | Timbalier Islands gulfside summary | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|-------|--------|-------|-------------|-------|--|-------------|--------|---------|-------------|-------|------------------------------------|-----|-------------|--------|-------------|--------|-----|-------|----|
| Years | Sum | Avg | STD | Total Range | Count | Years | Sum | Avg | STD | Total Range | Count | Years | Sum | Avg | STD | Total Range | Count | | | |
| 1887 - 1934 | -1432 | -68.1 | 688.8 | 832 | -888 | 22 | 1887 - 1934 | -18765 | -2097.2 | 64.8 | -1978 | -2138 | 8 | 1887 - 1934 | -20197 | -803.8 | 1982.8 | 859 | -2150 | 40 |
| 1934 - 1956 | -808 | -25.3 | 250.8 | 738 | -321 | 28 | 1934 - 1956 | -1208 | -120.8 | 87.8 | 87 | -308 | 18 | 1934 - 1956 | -4078 | -87.2 | 265.8 | 738 | -818 | 48 |
| 1956 - 1978 | -2144 | -68.2 | 170.2 | 78 | -398 | 31 | 1956 - 1978 | -11842 | -386.2 | 288.8 | -81 | -1148 | 31 | 1956 - 1978 | -14482 | -264.8 | 283.7 | 81 | -1148 | 31 |
| 1978 - 1988 | -2636 | -105.3 | 188.2 | 278 | -648 | 28 | 1978 - 1988 | -5730 | -212.3 | 287.5 | 48 | -648 | 27 | 1978 - 1988 | -8808 | -130.8 | 227.8 | 278 | -648 | 66 |
| 1887 - 1988 | -3280 | -128.5 | 800.3 | 808 | -1398 | 14 | 1887 - 1988 | -41802 | -2583.9 | 430.8 | -1647 | -3388 | 18 | 1887 - 1988 | -68828 | -1805.5 | 1989.7 | 808 | -3388 | 41 |

Timbalier Islands



FIGURE 23.—Rate of area change between 1887 and 1988 for the Timbalier Islands.

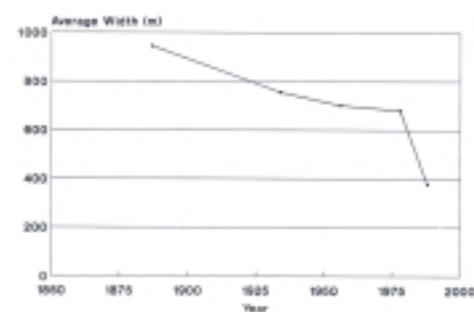


FIGURE 24.—Average barrier width between 1887 and 1988 for the Timbalier Islands shoreline.

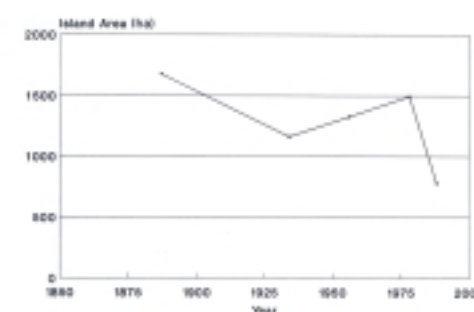


FIGURE 25.—Area changes between 1887 and 1988 for the Timbalier Islands.

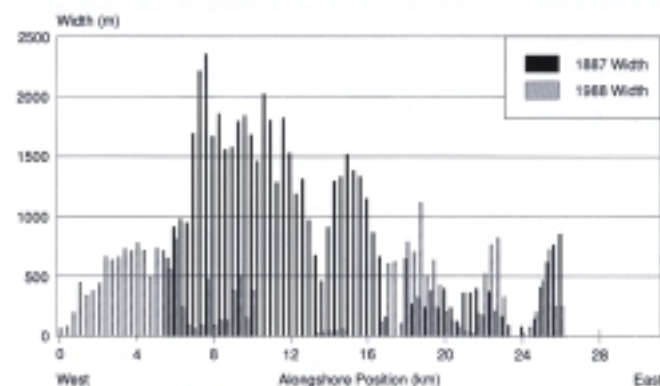


FIGURE 26.—Comparison of barrier widths between 1887 and 1988 for the Timbalier Islands shoreline.

TABLE 14.—Lateral and length change of Timbalier Island

| Lateral Migration | | | | |
|------------------------|-------------|------------|-------------|------------|
| Date (Number of Years) | West End(m) | Rate(m/yr) | East End(m) | Rate(m/yr) |
| 1887-1934 (47) | 2,843 | 60.5 | 5,207 | 110.8 |
| 1934-1956 (22) | 3,715 | 168.9 | 743 | 33.8 |
| 1956-1978 (22) | 83 | 3.8 | 1,232 | 56.0 |
| 1978-1988 (10) | 1,164 | 116.4 | 1,083 | 108.3 |
| 1887-1988 (101) | 7,785 | 77.2 | 8,245 | 81.6 |

| Length of Island | | | |
|------------------|-----------|-----------|----------------------|
| Date | Length(m) | Change(m) | Rate of Change(m/yr) |
| 1887 | 13,982 | N.A. | N.A. |
| 1934 | 11,651 | -2,301 | -49.0 |
| 1956 | 14,646 | 2,995 | 136.1 |
| 1978 | 13,477 | -1,169 | -53.1 |
| 1988 | 13,569 | -2 | -0.2 |
| 1887-1988 | | -383 | -3.8 |

TABLE 15.—Area changes for Timbalier Island from 1887 to 1988

| Date | Area (ha) | Change (ha) | % Change | Rate (ha/yr) | Projected Date of Disappearance |
|------|-----------|-------------|----------|--------------|---------------------------------|
| 1887 | 1,465 | | | | |
| 1934 | 1,071 | -414 | -28% | -6.8 | 2058 |
| 1934 | 1,071 | | | | |
| 1956 | 915 | -156 | -15% | -7.1 | 2085 |
| 1956 | 915 | | | | |
| 1978 | 860 | 64 | 9% | 3.8 | N.A. |
| 1978 | 860 | | | | |
| 1988 | 542 | -457 | -46% | -45.7 | 2000 |
| 1887 | 1,465 | | | | |
| 1988 | 542 | -843 | -64% | -8.3 | 2048 |

TABLE 16.—Area changes for East Timbalier Island from 1887 to 1988

| Date | Area (ha) | Change (ha) | % Change | Rate (ha/yr) | Projected Date of Disappearance |
|------|-----------|-------------|----------|--------------|---------------------------------|
| 1887 | 193 | | | | |
| 1934 | 93 | -100 | -52% | -2.1 | 1978 |
| 1934 | 93 | | | | |
| 1956 | 413 | 320 | 344% | 14.5 | N.A. |
| 1956 | 413 | | | | |
| 1978 | 495 | 82 | 20% | 3.7 | N.A. |
| 1978 | 495 | | | | |
| 1988 | 238 | -257 | -52% | -25.7 | 1997 |
| 1887 | 193 | | | | |
| 1988 | 238 | 45 | 23% | 0.4 | N.A. |

TABLE 17.—Area changes for the Timbalier Islands from 1887 to 1988

| Date | Area (ha) | Change (ha) | % Change | Rate (ha/yr) | Projected Date of Disappearance |
|------|-----------|-------------|----------|--------------|---------------------------------|
| 1887 | 1,677 | | | | |
| 1934 | 1,184 | -513 | -31% | -10.9 | 2041 |
| 1934 | 1,184 | | | | |
| 1956 | 1,328 | 16 | 14% | 7.5 | N.A. |
| 1956 | 1,328 | | | | |
| 1978 | 1,495 | 167 | 12% | 7.0 | N.A. |
| 1978 | 1,495 | | | | |
| 1988 | 790 | -715 | -48% | -71.5 | 1999 |
| 1887 | 1,677 | | | | |
| 1988 | 790 | -887 | -53% | -8.9 | 2076 |

Caminada-Moreau Headland and Grand Isle-1887 to 1988

CAMINADA-MOREAU HEADLAND AND GRAND ISLE

Morphology

In 1887, several tidal inlets and former distributaries segmented Caminada-Moreau Headland and Grand Isle. Raccoon Pass formed the western boundary and has been open continuously from pre-1887 to present (1887 map). No major changes in morphology had occurred by 1934, except for the barriers fronting Bay Marchand, which were mapped as intertidal features and therefore do not appear on the 1934 map.

Belle Pass, Pass Fourchon, and Bayou Moreau segment the central headland area. Caminada Pass lies between the large, well-developed Caminada spit (locally known as Elmer's Island) to the west and Grand Isle to the east. Grand Isle is a classic drumstick-shaped barrier island with a narrow western end that widens to the east and becomes bulbous on the eastern end. It is the only barrier island in Louisiana commercially and residentially developed (Meyer-Arendt, 1987). Barataria Pass, the deepest tidal inlet along the Louisiana coastline (>40 m in 1989), forms the eastern boundary and is the primary tidal inlet that connects Barataria Bay to the Gulf of Mexico.

By 1956, the land area fronting Lake Champagne was breached as the shoreline retreated (1956 map). Bay Marchand decreased over 70 percent in response to shoreline retreat. Moreover, the downdrift offset west of Belle Pass began to develop. The 1978 shoreline depicts the widening of Bayou Lafourche and Pass Fourchon, while the downdrift offset is more acute (1978 map). Shoreline retreat has reduced Bay Marchand to a small pond and intercepted Bayou Moreau to segment the distributary. By 1988, shoreline retreat had removed large quantities of sediment from the central headland area. This sediment was transported downdrift to Grand Isle but blocked from reaching the Timbalier Islands by the Belle Pass jetties, causing the magnitude of downdrift offset to increase west of Belle Pass. Bay Champagne experienced extensive size reductions, while Bay Marchand is close to complete disappearance. Bayou Moreau now intersects the shoreline in three different locations, and numerous dredge canals dissect the coastal landscape.

Shoreline Movement

Shoreline change was measured at 91 shore-normal transects along the gulf and bay shorelines (transects map; tables 18, 19, 20, 21, and 22). Shoreline change measurements were taken along the gulf shoreline, but bayside measurements were possible only along Caminada spit because no bay shoreline exists to the west.

Caminada-Moreau Headland

The Caminada-Moreau Headland has experienced some of the highest rates of shoreline movement along the Louisiana coastline. Between 1887 and 1934, the average gulfside rate of change was -15.8 m/yr, but this rate gradually decreased to -11.5 m/yr and -9.5 m/yr for the periods 1934 to 1956 and 1956 to 1978, respectively (fig. 27, table 22). The average rate of coastal retreat increased to -13.6 m/yr between 1978 and 1988. The rapid landward movement of the shoreline along the Caminada-Moreau Headland has caused large quantities of sediment to be eroded from this segment. Most of the sediment is transported laterally or offshore, and a smaller percentage has moved landward by overwash processes. In contrast to barrier island shorelines, the Caminada-Moreau Headland consists predominately of cohesive deltaic sediment and a large, sandy beach ridge plain with no back-barrier lagoon or bay, except for a small water body behind Caminada spit. The average rate of bayside movement slowed along Caminada spit from shoreline advance to more stable conditions (fig. 28, table 20).

Grand Isle

Grand Isle is characterized by shoreline retreat and advance along the gulf side, which balances migration directions. The average rate of gulfside change was -0.9 m/yr between 1887 and 1934, with stable or slightly increasing shoreline advance rates of 0.0 m/yr, 2.5 m/yr, and 5.2 m/yr for the periods 1934 to 1956, 1956 to 1978, and 1978 to 1988, respectively (fig. 29, table 22). For 101 years, the gulf shoreline has experienced retreat along its western end while remaining relatively stationary at its midsection and accreting seaward on its eastern end. These trends show that Grand Isle is slowly rotating clockwise around a stable midpoint, a result of net longshore sediment transport that becomes captured by Barataria Pass. The Barataria Pass tidal inlet system is a large sediment sink storing most of its sand as a large ebb-tidal delta. Shoreline advance at the eastern end of Grand Isle is directly related to this ebb-tidal delta (Shamban, 1982). Average bayside rates of change showed slowly increasing rates of shoreline retreat between 1887 and 1988 (fig. 30, table 20). The bay shoreline experienced the greatest erosion to the west and slowly decreased to the east with stable conditions at the eastern end.

Caminada-Moreau Headland and Grand Isle Summary

The average rate of gulfside change between 1887 and 1934 was -10.1 m/yr (table 22). The average rate decreased to -7.2 m/yr between 1934 and 1956 and to -4.9 m/yr between 1956 and 1978. This trend was interrupted when the average gulfside rate increased to -6.5 m/yr between

1978 and 1988 (fig. 31). These rates reveal shoreline retreat of the gulf side except on the eastern end of Grand Isle, which exhibits seaward progradation. The average bayside rate of change for the periods 1887 vs. 1934, 1934 vs. 1956, and 1956 vs. 1978 indicates that only migration direction has changed (fig. 32, table 20). Between 1934 and 1956, average shoreline movement along the bay reversed direction from landward to seaward. The rate of change slowly increased seaward to -3.0 m/yr between 1978 and 1988.

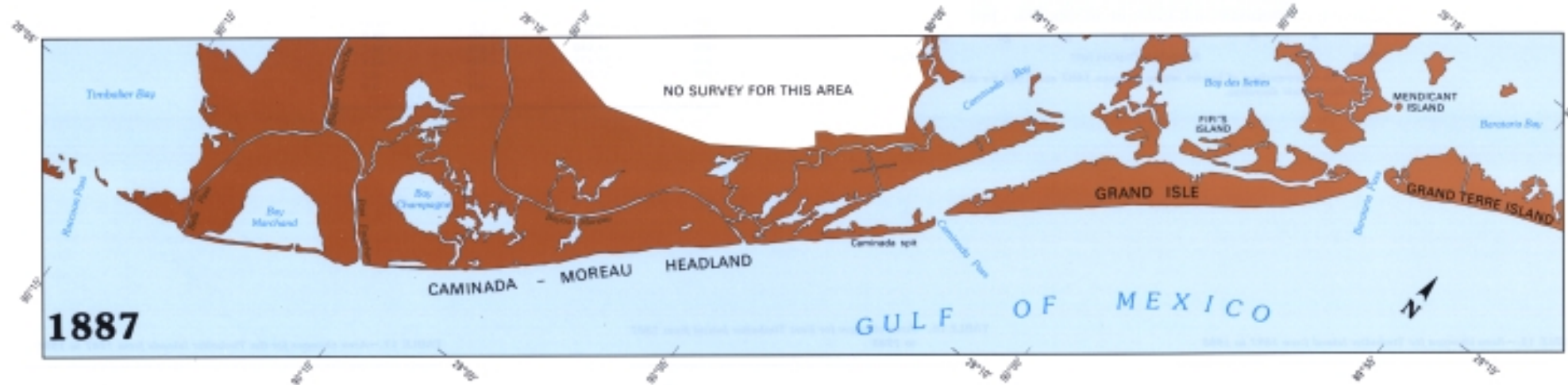
The 1887 vs. 1988 map illustrates land loss and summarizes the cumulative measured changes along the gulf and bay shorelines. The rate of change between 1887 and 1988 along the gulf side of the Caminada-Moreau Headland and Grand Isle ranged from 6.2 to -20 m/yr, with an average change rate of -7.9 m/yr (table 22). The rate of change along the bay between 1887 and 1988 ranged from 7.0 to -13.0 m/yr with an average change rate of 0.1 m/yr (table 20).

Area and Width Change at Grand Isle

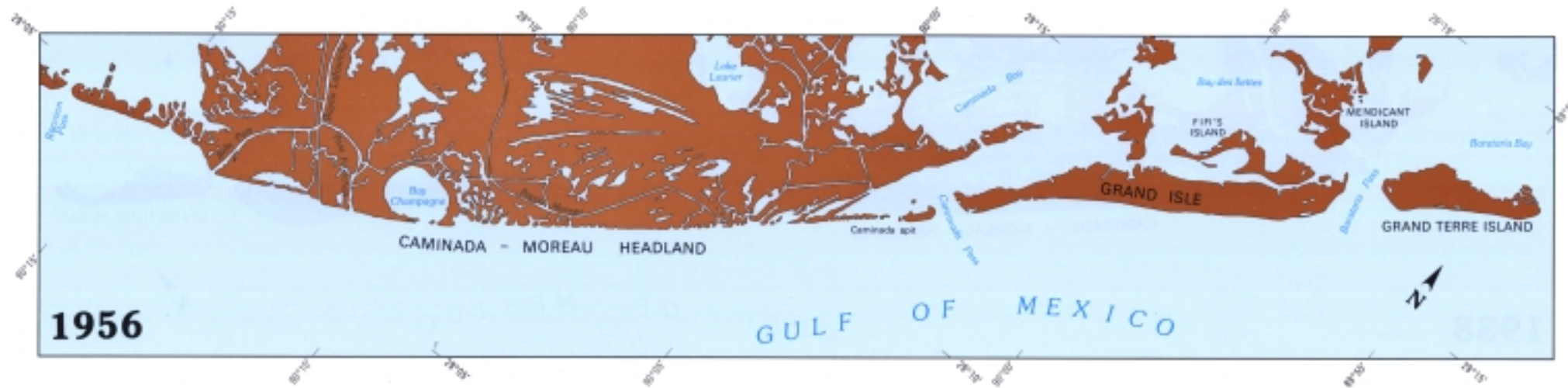
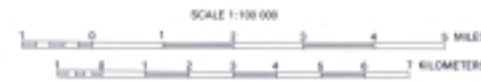
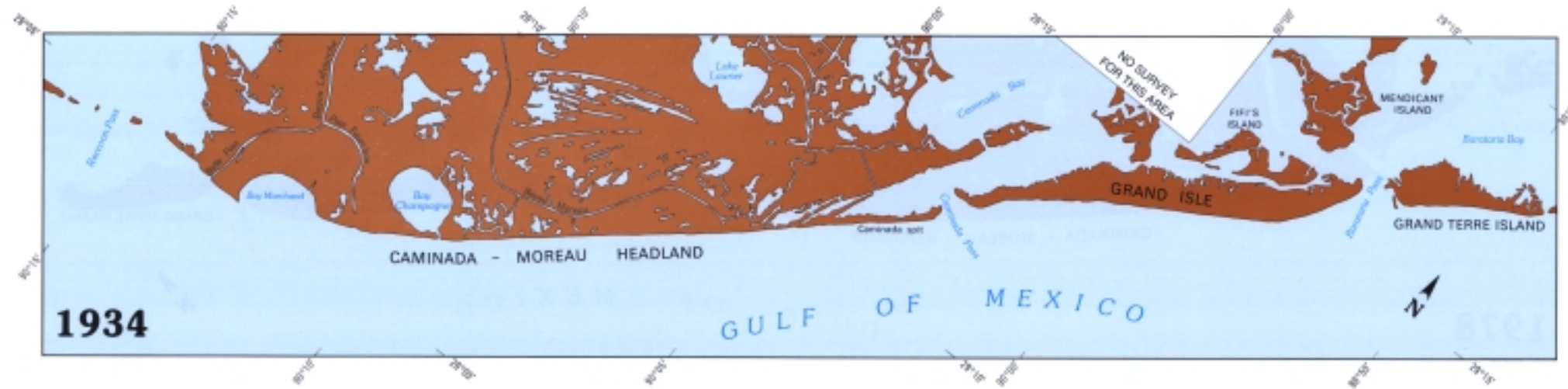
In 1887, Grand Isle ranged from 301 to 1,451 m wide, with an average width of 882 m (table 21). The average rate of land loss between 1887 and 1934 was 2.3 ha/yr (table 23). By 1934, the island had narrowed to an average width of 841 m; widths ranged between 302 and 1,186 m. Between 1934 and 1956, the average rate of area change underwent land loss but slowed slightly to 1.6 ha/yr. Similarly, the average width continued to decrease to 821 m by 1956. Between 1956 and 1978, land loss reversed at an average rate of 1.0 ha/yr, and by 1978, the average width increased to 851 m. Land gain continued at a rate of 1.1 ha/yr between 1978 and 1988 (fig. 33). Numerous coastal engineering activities (beach restoration and replenishment projects) began along Grand Isle in the mid-1950's, and changes in island area and width possibly reflect these human alterations, especially the extensive 1984 dune restoration project conducted by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers (Adams and others, 1976; Combe and Soileau, 1987).

Overall, Grand Isle experienced only a slight decrease in area from 1,059 to 960 ha between 1887 and 1988 (fig. 34). Compared with other barrier islands along the Louisiana coast, the area of Grand Isle has remained relatively stable. For the period 1887 to 1988, the average width of Grand Isle is essentially stable, ranging between 821 and 882 m (fig. 35, table 21). Barrier widths for the Grand Isle area between 1887 and 1988 are shown in figure 36.

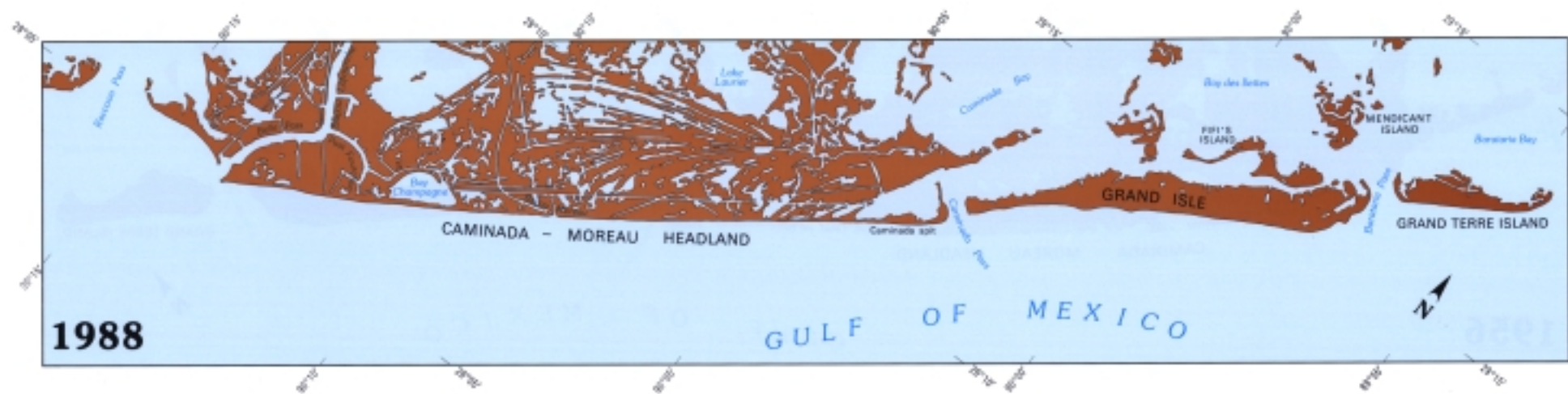
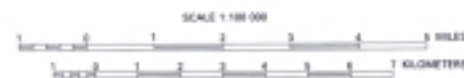
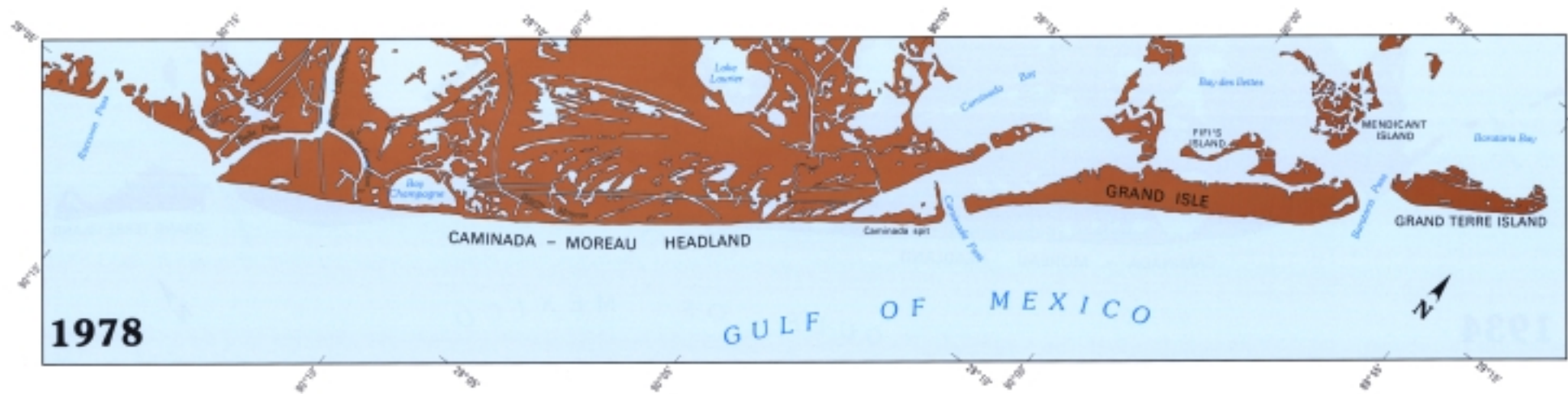
• Historic Shorelines.



Caminada - Moreau Headland and Grand Isle



Caminada - Moreau Headland and Grand Isle



Caminada - Moreau Headland and Grand Isle



FIGURE 27.—Average gulfside rate of change along the Caminada-Moreau Headland between 1887 and 1988.

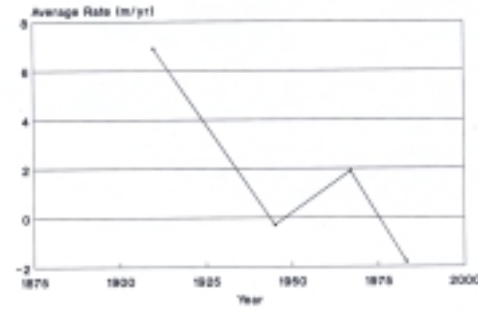


FIGURE 28.—Average bayside rate of change along the Caminada-Moreau Headland between 1887 and 1988.

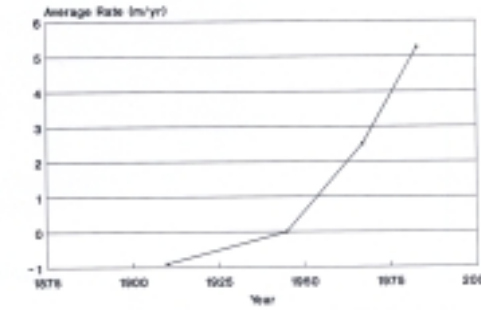


FIGURE 29.—Average gulfside rate of change along Grand Isle between 1887 and 1988.

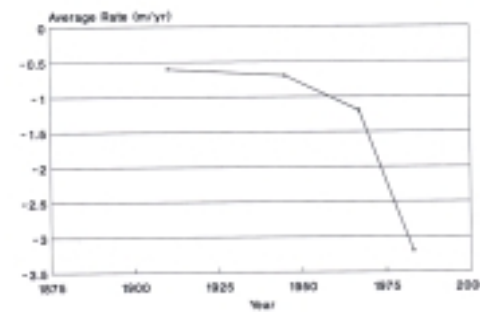


FIGURE 30.—Average bayside rate of change along Grand Isle between 1887 and 1988.

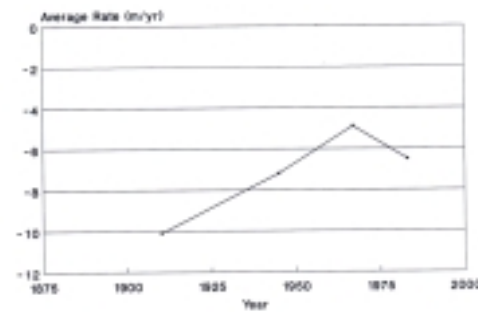


FIGURE 31.—Average gulfside rate of change between 1887 and 1988 for the Caminada-Moreau Headland and Grand Isle shoreline.

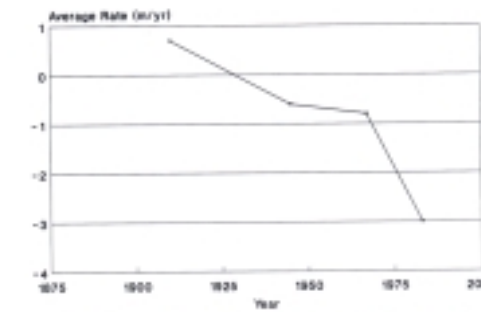


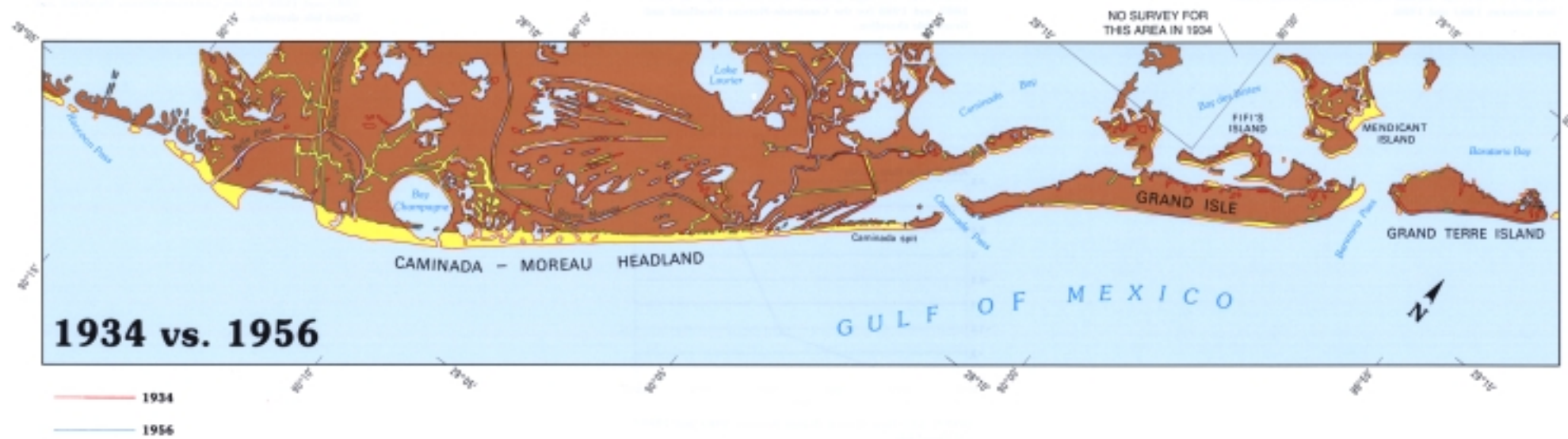
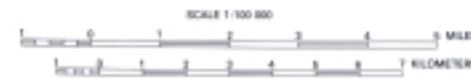
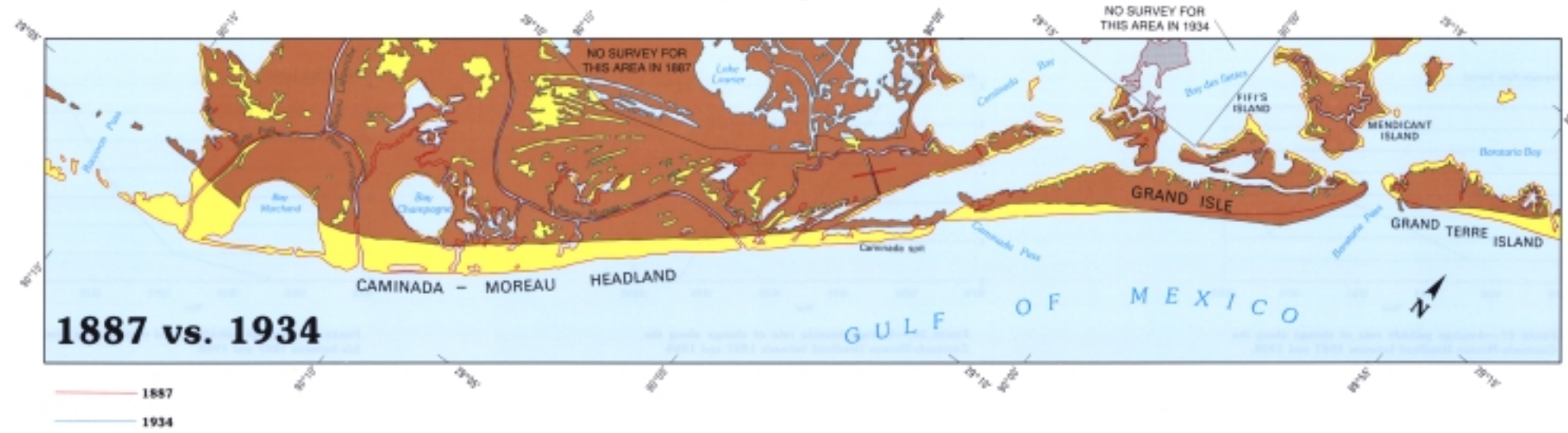
FIGURE 32.—Average bayside rate of change between 1887 and 1988 for the Caminada-Moreau Headland and Grand Isle shoreline.



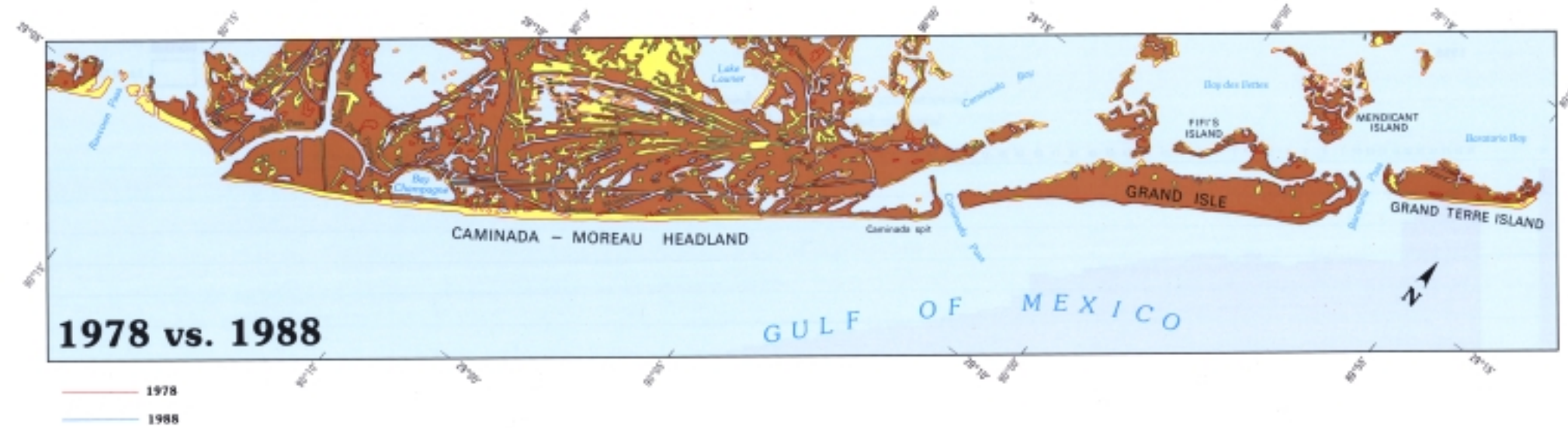
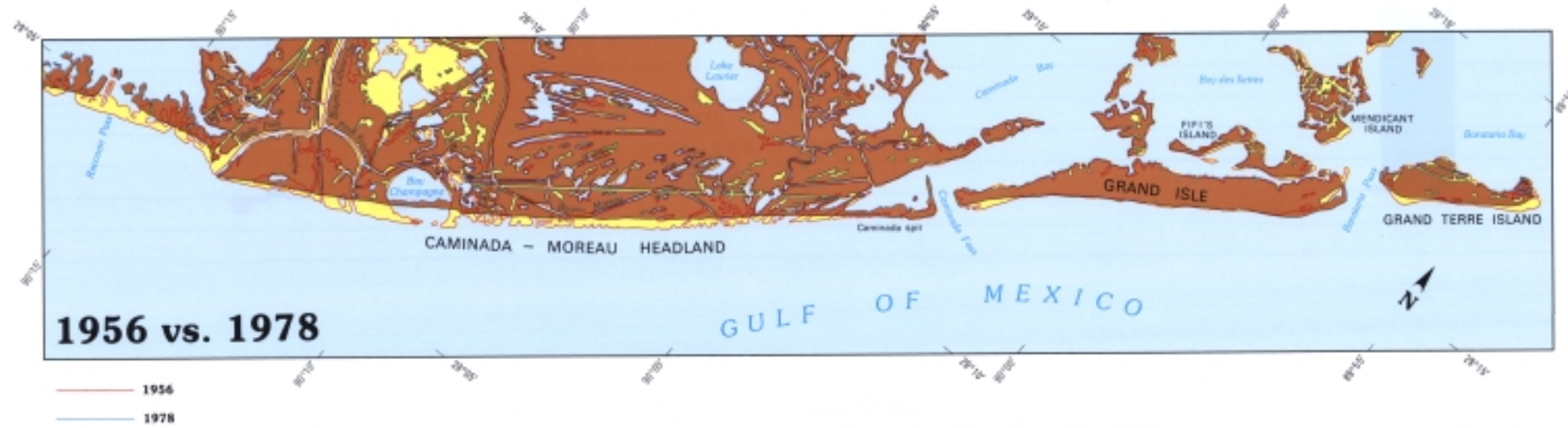
FIGURE 33.—Rate of area change between 1887 and 1988 of Grand Isle.

Caminada - Moreau Headland and Grand Isle

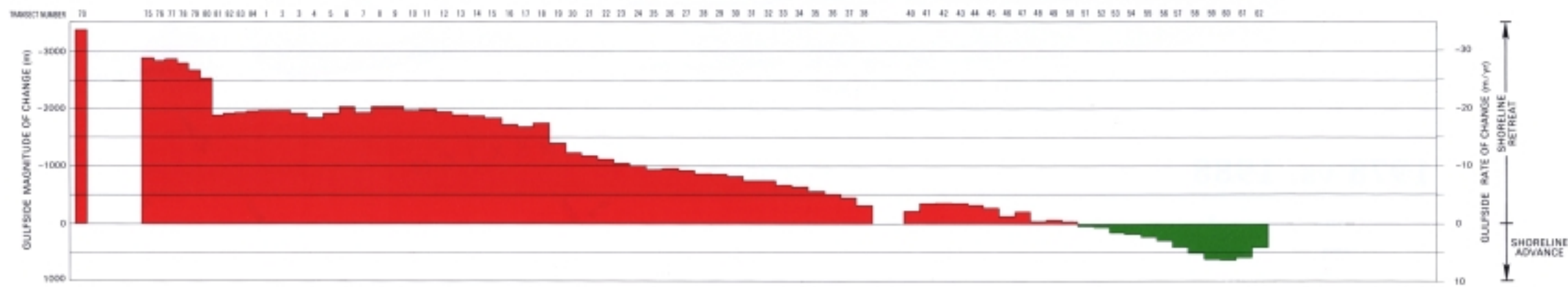
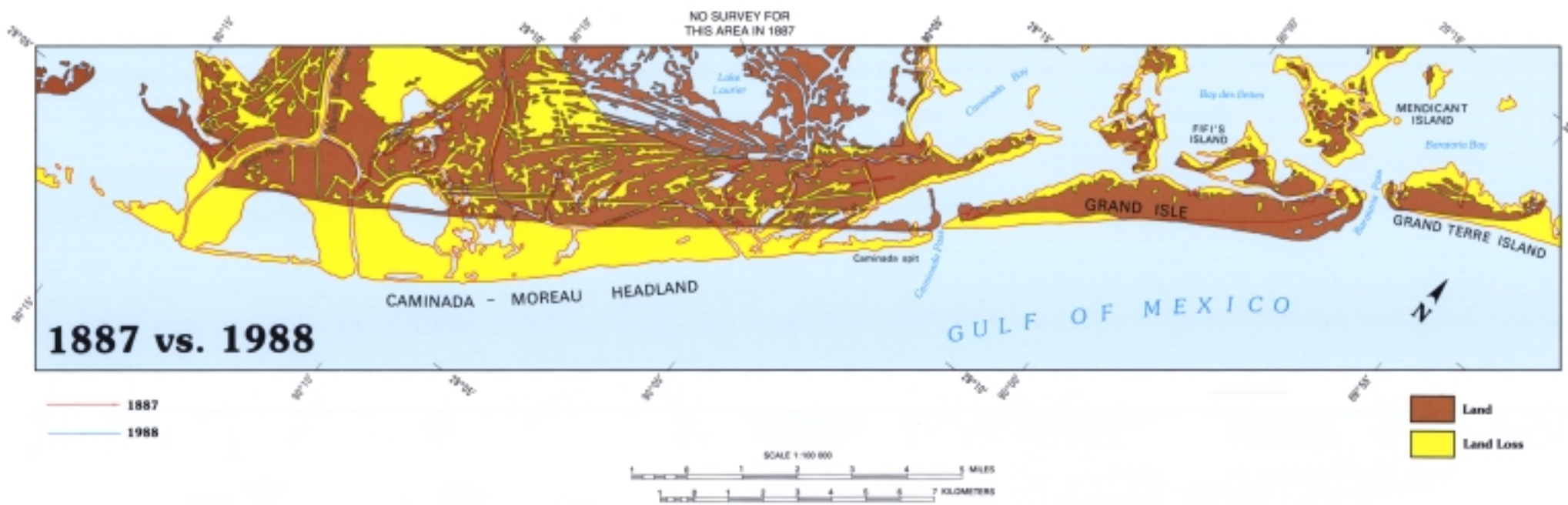
• Shoreline Change and Land Loss •



Caminada - Moreau Headland and Grand Isle



Caminada - Moreau Headland and Grand Isle



Caminada - Moreau Headland and Grand Isle

TABLE 20.—Caminada-Moreau headland and Grand Isle bayside rate of change (meters per year)

| Transect # | Transect coordinate | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 25 | 26 | 27 | 28 | 29 | 30 | 31 | 32 | 33 | 34 | 35 | 36 | 37 | 38 | 39 | 40 | 41 | 42 | 43 | | | | | |
|------------|---------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Y | 1887 - 1934 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | | |
| Ø | 1934 - 1956 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |
| Ø | 1956 - 1978 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |
| Ø | 1978 - 1988 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |
| Ø | 1887 - 1988 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |

| Transect # | Transect coordinate | 44 | 45 | 46 | 47 | 48 | 49 | 50 | 51 | 52 | 53 | 54 | 55 | 56 | 57 | 58 | 59 | 60 | 61 | 62 |
|------------|---------------------|------|-------|-------|------|------|-------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Y | 1887 - 1934 | -0.9 | -4.9 | -1.0 | -0.8 | -0.7 | -0.2 | -1.7 | -0.7 | -0.1 | -0.8 | -0.4 | 0.3 | -0.2 | -0.2 | 0.1 | 0 | -0.2 | -0.8 | |
| Ø | 1934 - 1956 | -1.4 | 2.0 | -0.9 | 1.3 | -0.2 | 1.1 | 1.5 | 3.2 | -3.4 | -0.1 | -1.2 | 0.8 | -0.7 | 0.6 | 0.7 | 1.0 | 7.9 | -0.9 | -4.9 |
| Ø | 1956 - 1978 | -0.8 | -0.4 | -1.2 | -0.2 | -0.8 | 0.1 | -0.8 | -0.8 | -0.8 | 0.0 | -0.0 | -0.8 | -1.0 | -0.8 | -1.0 | -1.4 | -1.0 | -1.4 | 0.0 |
| Ø | 1978 - 1988 | -0.2 | -11.2 | -19.0 | -8.5 | -4.6 | -11.5 | -1.8 | -0.8 | -0.7 | -3.8 | -0.8 | -1.3 | 0.2 | -0.8 | 0.0 | 0 | -0.8 | -0.2 | 0.4 |
| Ø | 1887 - 1988 | -2.7 | -2.8 | -2.1 | -1.9 | -1.4 | -1.0 | -0.8 | -1.4 | -0.8 | -2.1 | -2.0 | -0.2 | -0.2 | -0.2 | 0 | 1.0 | -0.8 | -2.4 | |

| Caminada-Moreau headland bayside summary | | | | | | Grand Isle bayside summary | | | | | | Caminada-Moreau headland and Grand Isle bayside summary | | | | | | | | |
|--|------|------|-----|-------------|-------|----------------------------|-------------|-------|------|-------------|-------|---|-----|-------------|-------|-------------|-------|------|-------|----|
| Years | Sum | Avg | STD | Total Range | Count | Years | Sum | Avg | STD | Total Range | Count | Years | Sum | Avg | STD | Total Range | Count | | | |
| 1887 - 1934 | 34.0 | 8.9 | 1.8 | 9.8 | 4.4 | 0 | 1887 - 1934 | -16.8 | -0.6 | 2.7 | 10.4 | -4.9 | 24 | 1887 - 1934 | 18.0 | 0.7 | 3.8 | 10.4 | -4.9 | 29 |
| 1934 - 1956 | -1.1 | -0.3 | 0.4 | 0.2 | -0.9 | 4 | 1934 - 1956 | -16.9 | -0.7 | 0.4 | 7.8 | -0.8 | 24 | 1934 - 1956 | -17.0 | -0.6 | 3.1 | 7.8 | -0.8 | 26 |
| 1956 - 1978 | 7.7 | 1.9 | 0.8 | 7.8 | -6.4 | 4 | 1956 - 1978 | -28.9 | -1.2 | 1.8 | 3.8 | -0.8 | 26 | 1956 - 1978 | -22.1 | -0.8 | 2.3 | 7.8 | -0.8 | 26 |
| 1978 - 1988 | -8.8 | -1.8 | 1.4 | 0.4 | -3.7 | 6 | 1978 - 1988 | -77.1 | -3.2 | 6.8 | 0.8 | -13.0 | 24 | 1978 - 1988 | -68.9 | -3.0 | 4.3 | 0.8 | -13.0 | 29 |
| 1887 - 1988 | 20.8 | 4.1 | 1.8 | 7.8 | 1.8 | 8 | 1887 - 1988 | -54.8 | -1.0 | 1.3 | 2.8 | -0.8 | 24 | 1887 - 1988 | -4.3 | -0.1 | 2.4 | 7.8 | -13.0 | 29 |

TABLE 21.—Caminada-Moreau headland and Grand Isle width measurements (meters)

| Transect # | Transect coordinate | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 25 | 26 | 27 | 28 | 29 | 30 | 31 | 32 | 33 | 34 | 35 | 36 | 37 | 38 | 39 | 40 | 41 | 42 | 43 | | | | | |
|------------|---------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Y | 1887 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | |
| Ø | 1934 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |
| Ø | 1956 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |
| Ø | 1978 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |
| Ø | 1988 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |

| Transect # | Transect coordinate | 44 | 45 | 46 | 47 | 48 | 49 | 50 | 51 | 52 | 53 | 54 | 55 | 56 | 57 | 58 | 59 | 60 | 61 | 62 |
|------------|---------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-----|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-----|
| Y | 1887 | 1080 | 1171 | 1223 | 1251 | 1300 | 1201 | 1254 | 1211 | 989 | 1006 | 938 | 420 | 828 | 632 | 952 | 800 | 418 | 771 | 688 |
| Ø | 1934 | 850 | 724 | 980 | 1038 | 941 | 1188 | 1149 | 1012 | 982 | 1120 | 1103 | 1021 | 1123 | 930 | 878 | 843 | 842 | 880 | 772 |
| Ø | 1956 | 645 | 659 | 911 | 1118 | 890 | 1094 | 1223 | 1020 | 955 | 938 | 1148 | 1083 | 1011 | 901 | 892 | 850 | 810 | 828 | 491 |
| Ø | 1978 | 649 | 704 | 907 | 1178 | 887 | 1186 | 1234 | 953 | 911 | 849 | 880 | 984 | 1001 | 951 | 828 | 892 | 1024 | 1718 | 608 |
| Ø | 1988 | 428 | 613 | 971 | 1038 | 898 | 1141 | 1172 | 917 | 828 | 898 | 908 | 1027 | 1118 | 1030 | 1080 | 1148 | 1188 | 1208 | 682 |

| Caminada-Moreau headland width summary | | | | | | Grand Isle width summary | | | | | | Caminada-Moreau headland and Grand Isle width summary | | | | | | | | |
|--|------|-------|-------|-------------|-------|--------------------------|------|-------|-------|-------------|-------|---|-----|------|-------|-------------|-------|------|-----|----|
| Years | Sum | Avg | STD | Total Range | Count | Years | Sum | Avg | STD | Total Range | Count | Years | Sum | Avg | STD | Total Range | Count | | | |
| 1887 | 1084 | 252.9 | 111.4 | 481 | 4.4 | 0 | 1887 | 21177 | 662.4 | 294.5 | 1461 | 301 | 24 | 1887 | 22441 | 755.8 | 381.2 | 1461 | 146 | 29 |
| 1934 | 974 | 194.8 | 46.8 | 348 | 122 | 5 | 1934 | 18051 | 641.3 | 278.6 | 1180 | 300 | 29 | 1934 | 20285 | 728.8 | 383.1 | 1180 | 122 | 28 |
| 1956 | 637 | 127.4 | 44.8 | 193 | 64 | 5 | 1956 | 18891 | 625.9 | 282.5 | 1223 | 316 | 29 | 1956 | 18818 | 607.1 | 381.1 | 1223 | 64 | 28 |
| 1978 | 1080 | 216.0 | 86.7 | 588 | 119 | 5 | 1978 | 18778 | 651.1 | 384.1 | 1264 | 278 | 29 | 1978 | 20640 | 727.2 | 388.8 | 1264 | 119 | 28 |
| 1988 | 821 | 164.2 | 80.4 | 314 | 69 | 5 | 1988 | 20071 | 627.7 | 318.1 | 1208 | 238 | 29 | 1988 | 20472 | 746.4 | 387.5 | 1461 | 99 | 28 |

TABLE 22.—Caminada-Moreau headland and Grand Isle gulfside rate of change (meters per year)

| Transect # | Transect coordinate | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 25 | 26 | 27 | 28 | 29 | 30 | 31 | 32 | 33 | 34 | 35 | 36 | 37 | 38 | 39 | 40 | 41 | 42 | 43 | |
|------------|---------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|------|-------|-------|-------|------|-------|-------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Y | 1887 - 1934 | -0.1 | -0.3 | -0.7 | -0.5 | -0.1 | -0.3 | -0.9 | -1.4 | -0.3 | 1.2 | 1.9 | 2.2 | 4.1 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.9 | 0.1 | 4.9 | 3.0 | 1.9 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ø | 1934 - 1956 | 15.0 | 17.0 | 0.1 | -15.2 | -20.0 | -23.7 | -22.8 | -20.0 | -28.2 | -19.2 | -28.8 | -19.8 | -20.0 | -29.8 | -20.8 | -17.0 | -18.7 | -15.1 | -13.0 | -12.0 | -11.0 | -9.1 | -6.5 | -7.3 | -12.3 | -11.2 | -10.4 | -8.0 | -13.9 | -13.9 | -5.7 | -4.3 | -3.9 | -6.0 | -6.2 | -3.7 | -2.8 | 0 | n.a. | 7.7 | 7.0 | 6.2 | 1.8 | |
| Ø | 1956 - 1978 | -0.5 | -0.3 | -0.3 | -0.7 | -1.8 | -1.8 | -1.4 | -1.2 | -2.2 | -2.3 | -2.1 | -1.8 | -2.0 | -2.8 | -1.5 | -1.0 | -1.2 | -1.1 | -1.0 | -0.6 | -0.7 | -0.8 | -1.1 | -1.4 | -1.2 | -0.5 | -0.5 | -0.5 | -0.6 | -0.5 | -1.4 | -0.7 | -0.5 | -0.4 | -1.0 | 1.8 | 0.7 | 1.8 | 0.7 | n.a. | -4.5 | -8.9 | -2.8 | 1.8 |
| Ø | 1978 - 1988 | -0.2 | -0.7 | -0.2 | -1.0 | -1.2 | -1.4 | -1.2 | -1.7 | -1.8 | -1.6 | -1.5 | -1.2 | -1.5 | -1.1 | -2.0 | -2.3 | -2.4 | -2.5 | -2.6 | -2.1 | -1.9 | -1.9 | -0.7 | -1.4 | -1.5 | -1.3 | -1.4 | -1.7 | -1.1 | -0.7 | -0.1 | -0.2 | -0.2 | -0.8 | -0.5 | -0.2 | -0.5 | -0.8 | -0.5 | n.a. | 1.1 | 3.1 | -0.2 | -1.2 |
| Ø | 1887 - 1988 | -18.5 | -18.4 | -16.8 | -15.2 | -16.9 | -20.0 | -19.1 | -20.0 | -20.0 | -19.8 | -19.2 | -18.7 | -18.4 | -18.2 | -17.0 | -18.6 | -17.2 | -13.8 | -12.1 | -11.8 | -11.0 | -11.2 | -11.2 | -9.8 | -9.3 | -9.0 | -8.1 | -8.0 | -8.2 | -8.1 | -7.2 | -7.3 | -6.8 | -6.2 | -6.4 | -4.9 | -4.2 | -2.8 | n.a. | -2.0 | -3.2 | -3.4 | -3.3 | |

| Transect # | Transect coordinate | 44 | 45 | 46 | 47 | 48 | 49 | 50 | 51 | 52 | 53 | 54 | 55 | 56 | 57 | 58 | 59 | 60 | 61 | 62 |
|------------|---------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Y | 1887 - 1934 | -0.8 | -0.8 | -0.7 | -0.3 | -0.9 | -1.4 | -0.3 | 1.2 | 1.9 | 2.2 | 4.1 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.9 | 0.1 | 4.9 | 3.0 | 1.9 |
| Ø | 1934 - 1956 | -1.0 | -0.8 | -0.4 | 0 | -1.5 | -0.9 | 1.6 | 1.0 | -1.9 | -1.8 | -1.4 | -2.0 | -4.2 | -2.8 | -0.1 | -0.2 | 4.1 | -0.8 | -7.2 |
| Ø | 1956 - 1978 | 1.5 | 3.2 | 2.0 | 3.0 | 3.4 | 2.1 | -0.2 | -0.4 | -0.3 | 0.1 | -0.8 | 0 | 0.3 | 3.3 | 3.0 | 3.0 | 8.2 | 18.1 | 21.8 |
| Ø | 1978 - 1988 | 3.3 | 4.9 | 14.1 | 0.2 | 2.7 | -0.8 | -1.8 | -2.8 | 3.0 | 4.0 | 4.2 | 7.6 | 11.7 | 9.8 | 11.3 | 14.0 | 18.7 | 12.7 | 1.0 |
| Ø | 1887 - 1988 | -0.2 | -0.4 | -1.2 | -1.8 | -0.2 | -0.5 | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 1.0 | 1.9 | 2.3 | 3.8 | 4.1 | 5.0 | 8.1 | 8.2 | 5.6 | 4.7 |

| Caminada-Moreau headland gulfside summary | | | | | | Grand Isle gulfside summary | | | | | | Caminada-Moreau headland and Grand Isle gulfside summary | | | | | |
|---|-----|-----|-----|-------------|-------|-----------------------------|-----|-----|-----|-------------|-------|--|-----|-----|-----|-------------|-------|
| Years | Sum | Avg | STD | Total Range | Count | Years | Sum | Avg | STD | Total Range | Count | Years | Sum | Avg | STD | Total Range | Count |
| 1887 - 1934 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Caminada - Moreau Headland and Grand Isle

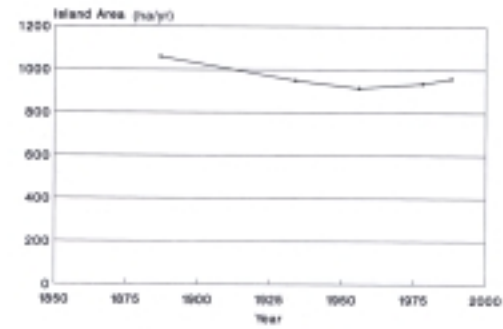


FIGURE 34.—Area changes between 1887 and 1988 of Grand Isle.



FIGURE 35.—Average barrier width of Grand Isle between 1887 and 1988.

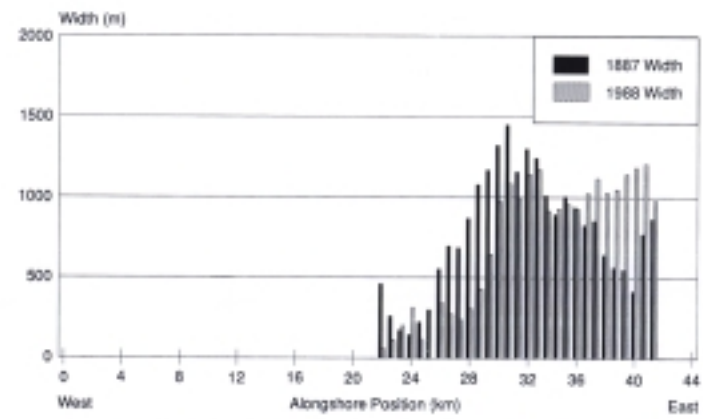


FIGURE 36.—Comparison of barrier widths for 1887 and 1988 for the Caminada-Moreau Headland and Grand Isle shoreline.

TABLE 23.—Area changes for Grand Isle from 1887 to 1988

| Date | Area (ha) | Change (ha) | % Change | Rate (ha/yr) | Projected Date of Disappearance |
|------|-----------|-------------|----------|--------------|---------------------------------|
| 1887 | 1,069 | | | | |
| 1934 | 950 | -109 | -10% | -2.3 | 2347 |
| 1934 | 950 | | | | |
| 1956 | 915 | -35 | -4% | -1.8 | 2528 |
| 1956 | 915 | | | | |
| 1978 | 936 | 21 | 2% | 1.0 | N.A. |
| 1978 | 936 | | | | |
| 1988 | 980 | 24 | 3% | 1.1 | N.A. |
| 1887 | 1,059 | | | | |
| 1988 | 980 | -59 | -6% | -1.0 | 2948 |

Plaquemines Barrier System- 1884 to 1988

The Plaquemines barrier shoreline lies about 45 km northwest of the mouth of the Mississippi River and about 80 km south-southeast of New Orleans (fig. 1). The arcuate barrier system is approximately 48 km long, forms the eastern flank of Barataria Bight, and extends from Grand Terre Islands to Sandy Point (chapter 1, fig. 14). The Plaquemines barrier shoreline consists of the Grand Terre Islands (west, central, and east), Cheniere Ronquille, the Bay La Mer area, Bay Joe Wise spit, Bastian Island, Shell Island, Pelican Island, and Sandy Point. These islands and spits range from 0.02 to 0.9 km wide. Barataria Pass, Pass Abel, Quatre Bayoux Pass, Pass Ronquille, Pass La Mer, Chaland Pass, Grand Bayou Pass, Coupe Bob, Fontanelle Pass, Scofield Bayou, and Dry Cypress Bayou Pass are some of the numerous tidal inlets and bayous that segment the shoreline. In addition, an extensive network of pipeline canals fragment the shoreline's landscape. The Plaquemines shoreline has undergone severe coastal erosion and land loss, primarily from a lack of sediment supply, rapid subsidence, and storm and human impacts (Adams, 1970; Adams and others, 1976; Howard, 1982; Mossa and others, 1985; Penland and Suter, 1988; Levin, 1990; Ritchie and others, 1990). Maps presented depict changes along the shoreline during the years 1884, 1932, 1956, 1973, and 1988. From these maps, linear, area, and width measurements were obtained, and rates of change were calculated to determine the amount and rapidity of change that has occurred.

MORPHOLOGY

In 1884, Plaquemines' morphology was influenced by several tidal inlets and passes, such as Barataria Pass, Quatre Bayoux Pass, Pass La Mer, Chaland Pass, Grand Bayou Pass, and two unnamed passes at both ends of Lanoux Island (1884 map). Grand Terre Island was a large and continuous barrier island that extended from Barataria Pass to Quatre Bayoux Pass. The remainder of the shoreline was dominated by deltaic headlands associated with Robinson Bayou, Grand Bayou, and Dry Cypress Bayou and flanking barrier islands and spits. Lanoux Island was a long and narrow barrier island with bulbous ends, which suggests longshore sediment transport at both ends and an erosional center portion. By 1932, Grand Terre Island was breached, and Pass Ronquille opened east

of Quatre Bayoux Pass (1932 map). Chaland Pass had widened substantially, and Lanoux Island was breached by an unnamed tidal inlet at its eastern end welded to the mainland shoreline. Moreover, an opening developed west of Sandy Point to form Sandy Point Island. By 1956, the Grand Terre area had deteriorated and separated into three smaller barriers (1956 map). Lanoux Island, currently known as Shell Island, welded onto the mainland shoreline and evolved into a long, narrow spit. Fontanelle Pass was dredged, and Scofield Bayou developed naturally, forming two new entrances along the shoreline.

By 1973, Grand Terre Island was reduced to less than half its original size with only fragmentary island remnants remaining between Pass Abel and Quatre Bayoux Pass (1973 map). This fragmentary nature of the shoreline had developed between Pass Abel and Chaland Pass. Jetties at Fontanelle Pass (known as Empire jetties) blocked longshore sediment transport to the west-northwest, and a downdrift offset occurred. Large volumes of sand deposited against the updrift jetty to the east caused seaward advance, while the area to the west experienced inadequate sediment supply and shoreline recession. The Plaquemines shoreline appears to be reaching a complete breakdown in the coastal system (1988 map). The Grand Terre Islands no longer form a protective barrier for Barataria Bay. Submergence, a decreasing sediment supply, and human impacts have caused large areas of back-barrier marsh to be converted to open water (Britsch and Kemp, 1990). In 1979, Hurricane Bob breached Shell Island (Coupe Bob), and the island further deteriorated (see Neumann and others, 1985).

SHORELINE MOVEMENT

Magnitude and rate of change, as well as island width for the Plaquemines coast, were derived from 149 shore-normal transects along the gulf and bay shorelines (transects map; tables 24, 25, 26, 27, and 28). Comparisons of shoreline position are made for the periods 1884 vs. 1932, 1932 vs. 1956, 1956 vs. 1973, 1973 vs. 1988, and 1884 vs. 1988. Proximity of the shore-normal transects to entrances (tidal inlets) is also provided.

The average rate of change between 1884 and 1932 along the gulf shoreline was -5.5 m/yr. This average rate decreased to -4.1 and -3.2 m/yr for the periods 1932 and 1956, and 1956 and 1973, respectively. However, the rate increased threefold to -9.9 m/yr between 1973 and 1988 (fig. 37, table 28). This period coincides with the occurrence of Hurricanes Bob (1979) and Juan (1985). The impacts of these hurricanes on the fragile Plaquemines shoreline probably contributed to the increased rate of retreat of the gulf shoreline over the last 15 years.

The bayside rate of change between 1884 and 1932 averaged 2.2 m/yr (table 26). From 1932 to 1956, the shoreline continued to migrate landward at a slower rate of 0.2 m/yr and reversed directions to increase to -2.3 m/yr between 1956 and 1973. Bayside movement reversed again to migrate landward at 3.7 m/yr between 1973 and 1988 (fig. 38). A sudden reverse of the bay shoreline landward suggests storm impacts (hurricanes or cold fronts). Elevated water levels associated with storms carry sediment across islands and deposit it as washover along the bay shoreline to result in shoreline progradation. Hurricanes Bob and Juan directly impacted the Plaquemines shoreline and produced washover deposits (Neumann and others, 1985; Case, 1986; Penland and others, 1987, 1989c; Ritchie and others, 1990).

The 1884 vs. 1988 map illustrates land loss and quantitative changes for the Plaquemines barrier system. The rate of gulfside change along individual transects ranged from 1.9 to -15.6 m/yr (table 28). Three locations exhibited stable or accretionary trends: west Grand Terre Island, west Shell Island, and the land east of Fontanelle Pass. Grand Terre and Shell islands experienced accretion from spit processes, but the land east of Fontanelle Pass is on the updrift side of the Empire jetties, which capture sediment in the longshore transport system. The average gulfside rate of change was -5.5 m/yr (table 28), and the bayside rate of change ranged from 12.5 to -4.7 m/yr, with an average rate of 0.4 m/yr (table 26). The average width narrowed from 487 to 263 m between 1884 and 1988 (fig. 39, table 27) because the gulf shoreline migrated landward about five times faster than the bay shoreline (-5.5 m/yr vs. 0.4 m/yr, respectively). Barrier widths for 1884 and 1988 are shown in figure 40.

AREA AND WIDTH CHANGE

Coalescing deltaic headlands with numerous spits dominate the Plaquemines shoreline. Therefore Grand Terre and Shell islands are the only locations along the Plaquemines coast where true area calculations could be obtained.

Grand Terre

In 1884, the area of Grand Terre was 1,699 ha with an average width of 909 m (tables 27 and 29). By 1932, both area and width decreased to 1,058 ha and 701 m, respectively. The average rate of land loss between 1884 and 1932 was 13.4 ha/yr, a 38 percent decrease in island area. By 1956, the area of Grand Terre was 901 ha and the average width 670 m. As width decreases in response to gulf and bayside erosion, area decreases. Between 1932 and 1956, the average rate of change decreased 15 percent to -6.5 ha/yr. By 1973, area had contracted further to 675 ha, while island width decreased to 608 m. Between 1956 and 1973, area decreased by 25 percent, or an average rate of 13.3 ha/yr. Between 1973 and 1988, the rate of land loss slowed slightly to -10.8 ha/yr (fig. 41).

Overall, the area of Grand Terre Island decreased 1,186 ha at a rate of 11.4 ha/yr between 1884 and 1988 (fig. 42, table 29). Island width decreased from 909 to 530 m, an average island narrowing rate of 3.6 m/yr (fig. 43).

Shell Island

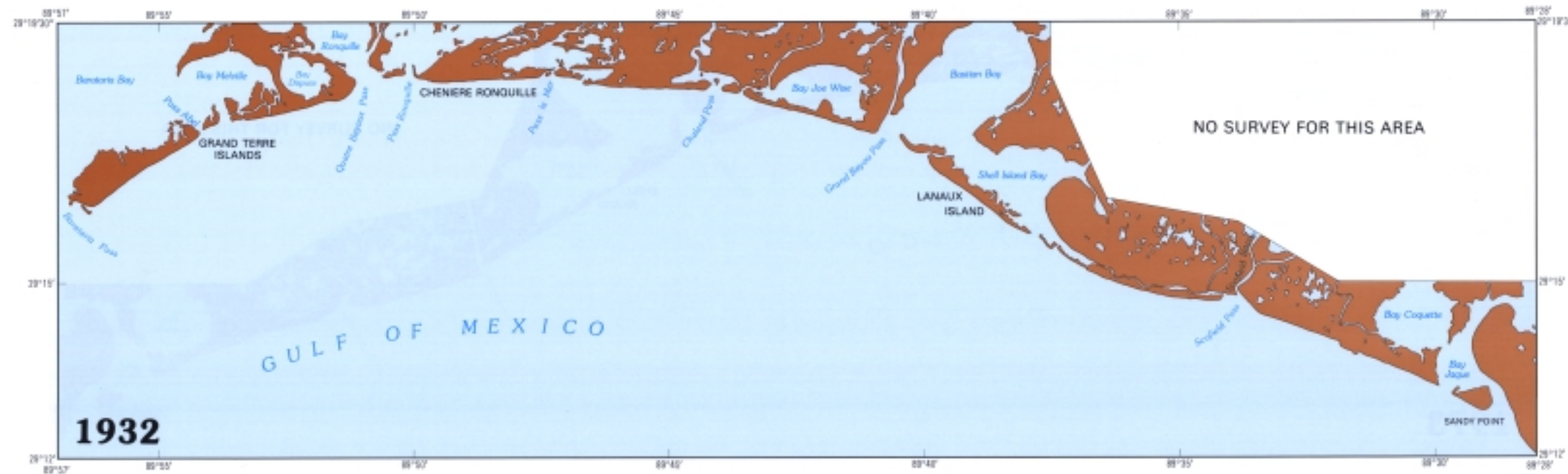
In 1884, the area of Shell Island was 127 ha with an average width of 136 m (tables 27 and 30). By 1932, area and width increased to 175 ha and 247 m as the island grew in size at a rate of 1.0 ha/yr (fig. 44). Between 1932 and 1956, the rate of change slowed to 0.1 ha/yr. Area remained relatively stable at 178 ha, while the width showed an increase to 269 m. By 1973, the size of the island decreased to 144 ha at a rate of 2.0 ha/yr. Similarly, island width narrowed to 207 m. The land loss rate further increased to -5.0 ha/yr between 1973 and 1988 as both area and width experienced nearly a 50 percent decrease to 69 ha and 105 m, respectively.

Shell Island decreased 46 percent between 1884 and 1988 (fig. 45, table 30). Its width decreased 55 m to represent an average narrowing rate of 0.5 m/yr for the last 104 years (fig. 46).

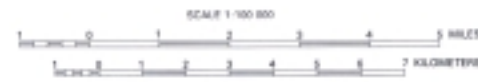
• Historic Shorelines.



Plaquemines



Plaquemines



Plaquemines

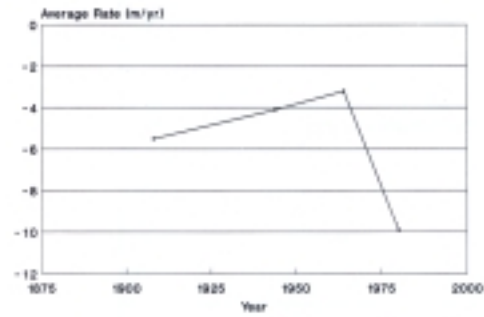


FIGURE 37.—Average gulfside rate of change along the Plaquemines shoreline between 1884 and 1988.

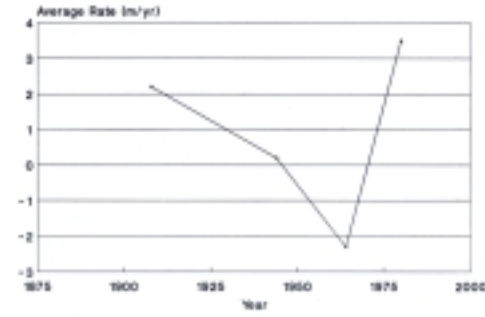


FIGURE 38.—Average beachside rate of change along the Plaquemines shoreline between 1884 and 1988.

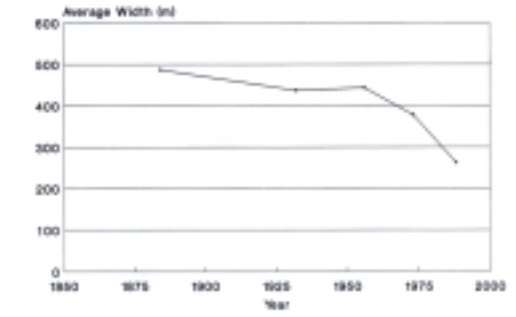


FIGURE 39.—Average barrier width of the Plaquemines shoreline between 1884 and 1988.

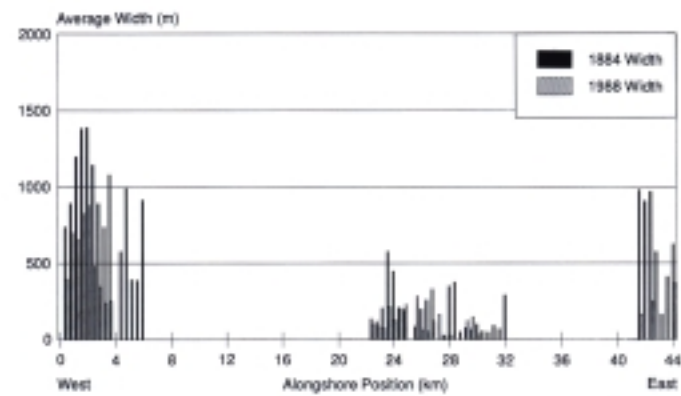


FIGURE 40.—Comparison of the 1884 and 1988 barrier widths along the Plaquemines shoreline.

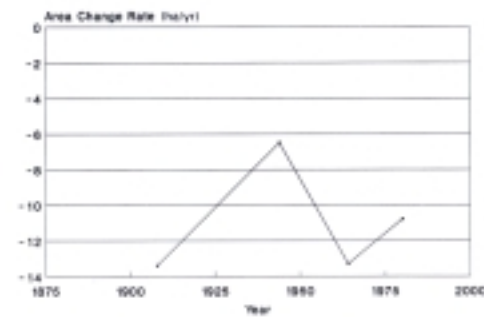


FIGURE 41.—Rate of area change for the Grand Terre Islands between 1884 and 1988.

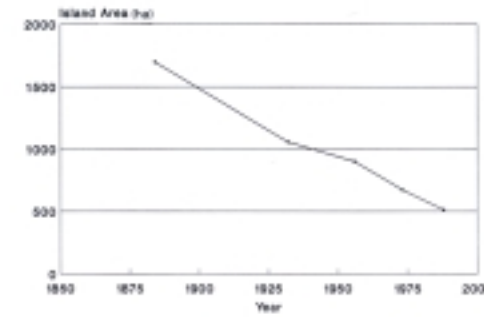
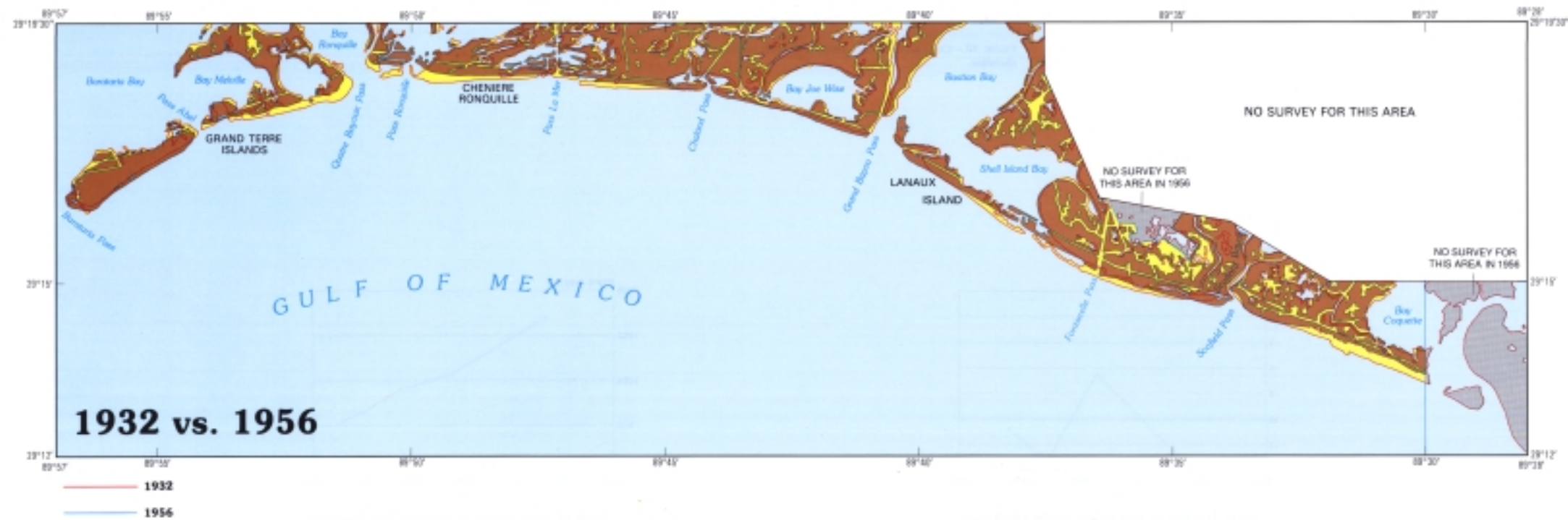
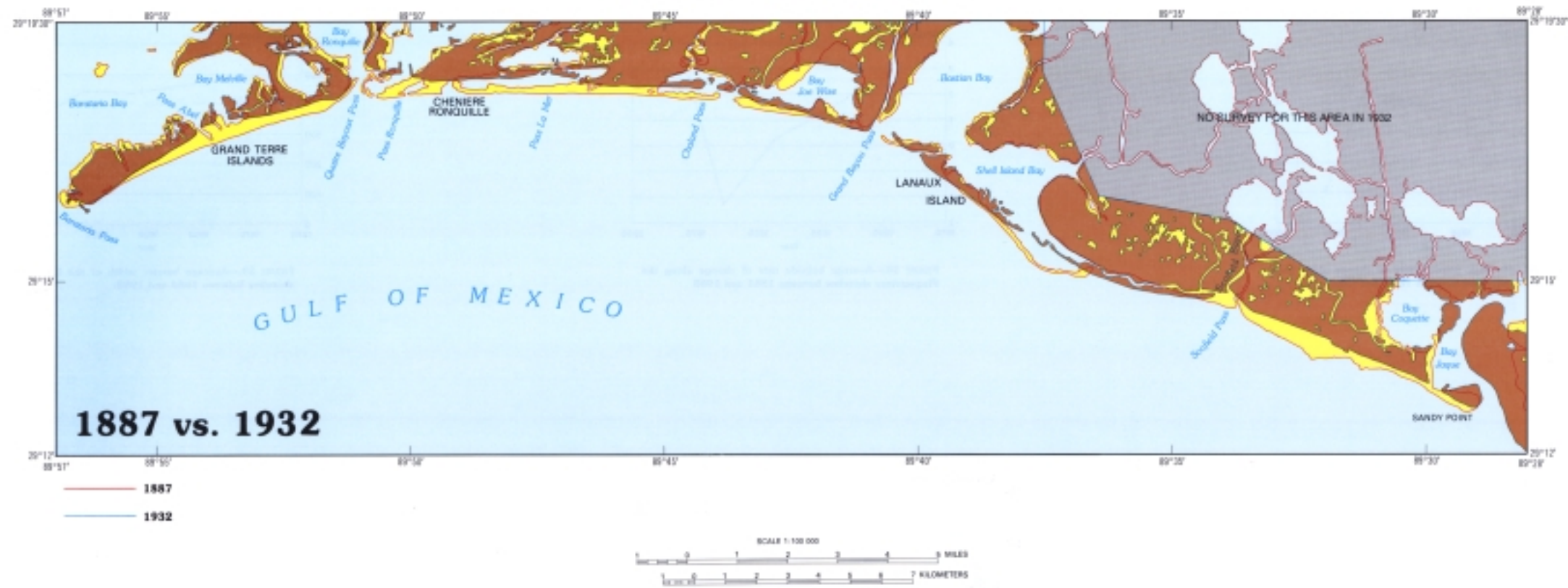


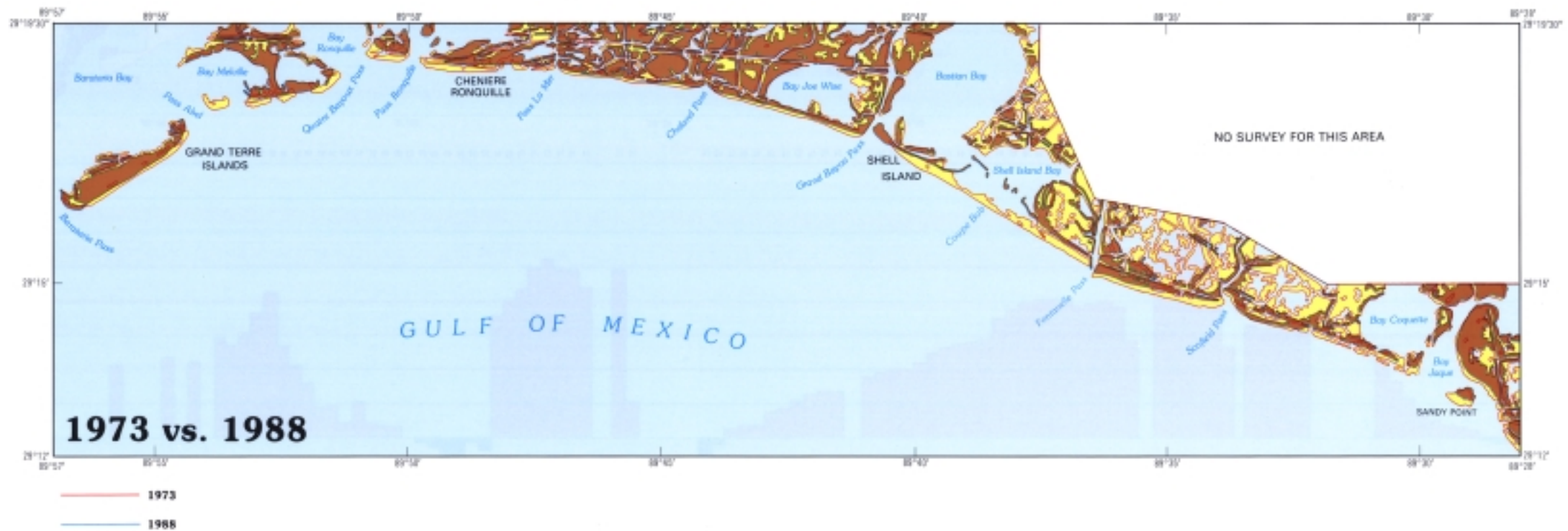
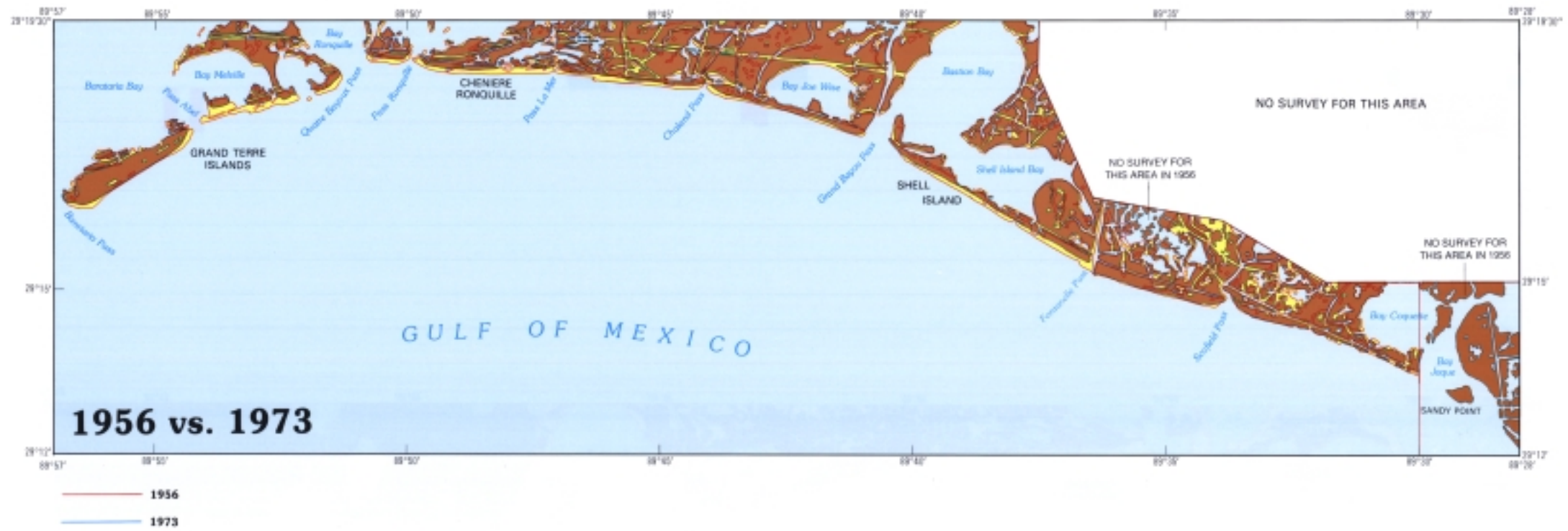
FIGURE 42.—Area changes for the Grand Terre Islands between 1884 and 1988.

Plaquemines

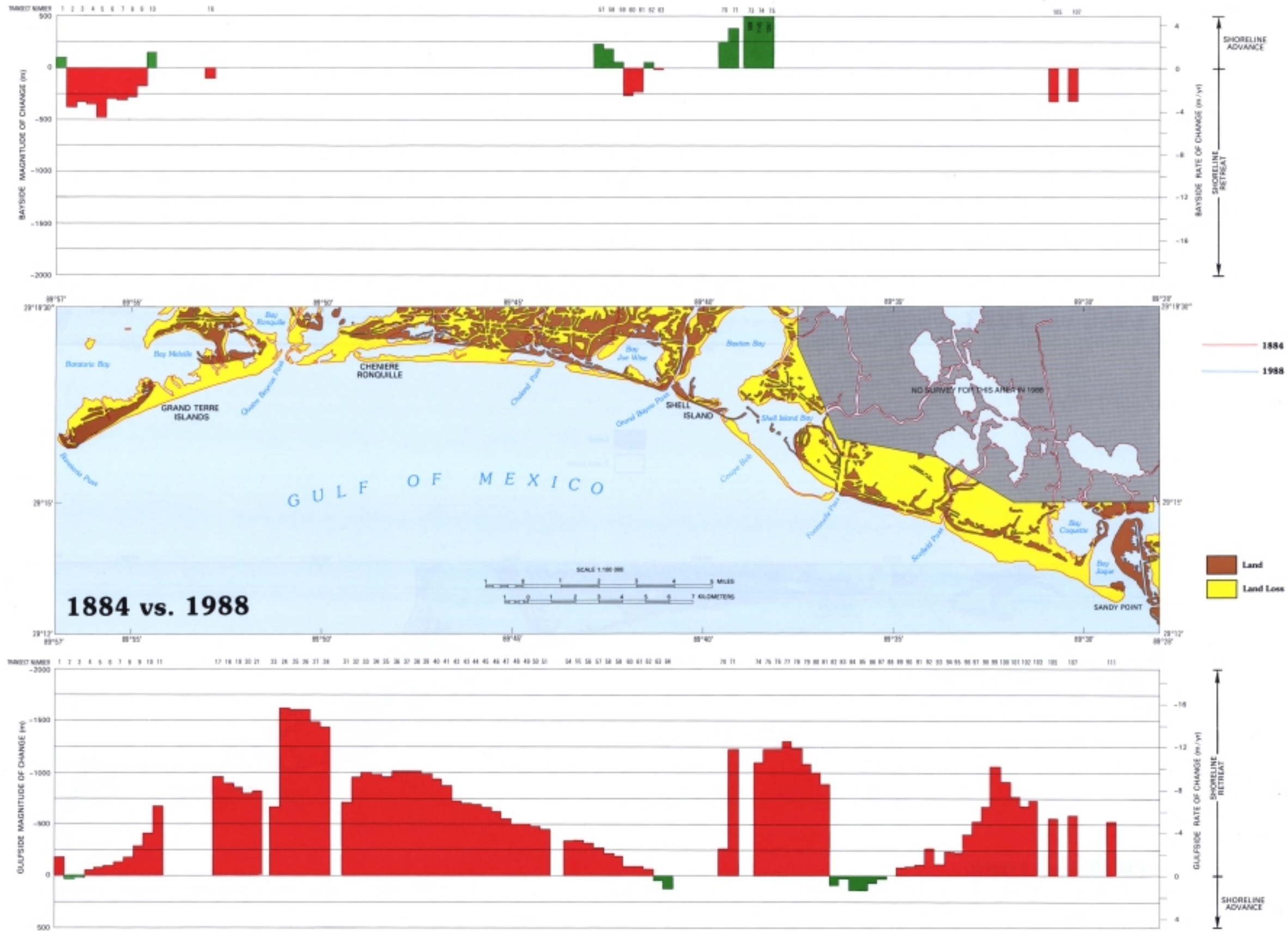
• Shoreline Change and Land Loss •



Plaquemines



Plaquemines



Plaquemines

TABLE 24 —Plaquemines bayside magnitude of change (meters)

| Transect # | Grand Terre Islands bayside summary | | | | | | | | | | | | Shell Island bayside summary | | | | | | Plaquemines bayside summary | | | | | |
|---------------------|-------------------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|------------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|-----------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|
| Transect coordinate | Years | | | | | | | | | | | | Years | | | | | | Years | | | | | |
| Y | Sum | | | | | | | | | | | | Sum | | | | | | Sum | | | | | |
| B | Avg | | | | | | | | | | | | Avg | | | | | | Avg | | | | | |
| T | STD | | | | | | | | | | | | STD | | | | | | STD | | | | | |
| S | Total Range | | | | | | | | | | | | Total Range | | | | | | Total Range | | | | | |
| | Count | | | | | | | | | | | | Count | | | | | | Count | | | | | |
| 1884 - 1932 | -398 | | | | | | | | | | | | 1684 - 1932 | | | | | | 1684 - 1932 | | | | | |
| 1932 - 1956 | -796 | | | | | | | | | | | | 1932 - 1956 | | | | | | 1932 - 1956 | | | | | |
| 1956 - 1973 | -455 | | | | | | | | | | | | 1956 - 1973 | | | | | | 1956 - 1973 | | | | | |
| 1973 - 1988 | -291 | | | | | | | | | | | | 1973 - 1988 | | | | | | 1973 - 1988 | | | | | |
| 1884 - 1988 | -2427 | | | | | | | | | | | | 1884 - 1988 | | | | | | 1884 - 1988 | | | | | |

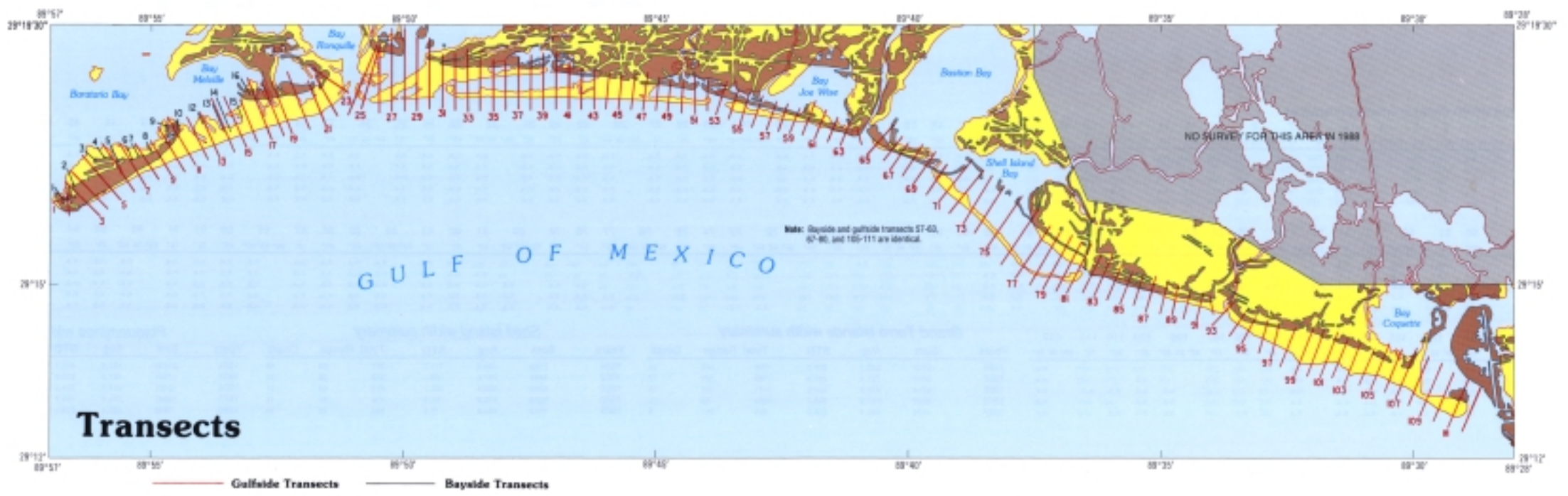


TABLE 25 —Plaquemines gulfside magnitude of change (meters)

| Transect # | Grand Terre Islands gulfside summary | | | | | | | | | | | | Shell Island gulfside summary | | | | | | Plaquemines gulfside summary | | | | | |
|---------------------|--------------------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|-------------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|------------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|
| Transect coordinate | Years | | | | | | | | | | | | Years | | | | | | Years | | | | | |
| Y | Sum | | | | | | | | | | | | Sum | | | | | | Sum | | | | | |
| B | Avg | | | | | | | | | | | | Avg | | | | | | Avg | | | | | |
| T | STD | | | | | | | | | | | | STD | | | | | | STD | | | | | |
| S | Total Range | | | | | | | | | | | | Total Range | | | | | | Total Range | | | | | |
| | Count | | | | | | | | | | | | Count | | | | | | Count | | | | | |
| 1884 - 1932 | -4617 | | | | | | | | | | | | 1884 - 1932 | | | | | | 1884 - 1932 | | | | | |
| 1932 - 1956 | -498 | | | | | | | | | | | | 1932 - 1956 | | | | | | 1932 - 1956 | | | | | |
| 1956 - 1973 | -2186 | | | | | | | | | | | | 1956 - 1973 | | | | | | 1956 - 1973 | | | | | |
| 1973 - 1988 | -1995 | | | | | | | | | | | | 1973 - 1988 | | | | | | 1973 - 1988 | | | | | |
| 1884 - 1988 | -8351 | | | | | | | | | | | | 1884 - 1988 | | | | | | 1884 - 1988 | | | | | |

See page 46 for explanation of numbers.

Plaquemines

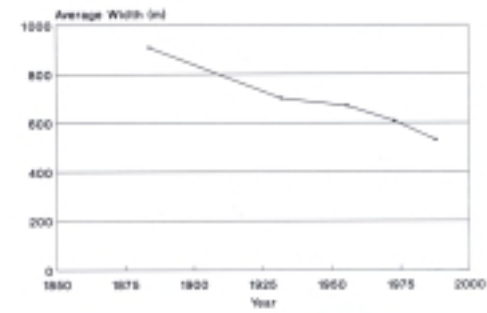


FIGURE 43.—Average barrier width of the Grand Terre Islands between 1884 and 1988.

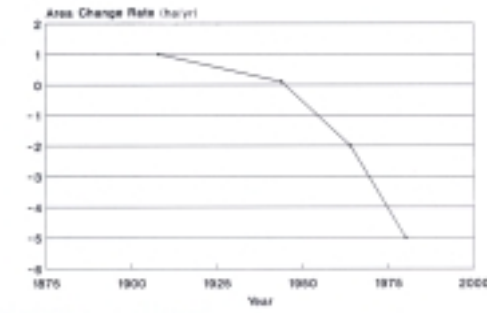


FIGURE 44.—Rate of area change of Shell Island between 1884 and 1988.

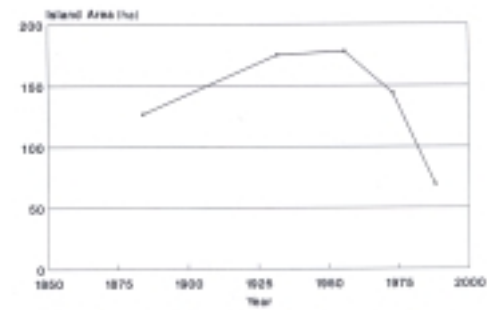


FIGURE 45.—Area changes of Shell Island between 1884 and 1988.



FIGURE 46.—Average barrier width of Shell Island between 1884 and 1988.

TABLE 29.—Area changes for Grand Terre Island from 1884 to 1988

| Date | Area (ft) | Change (ft) | % Change | Rate (ft/yr) | Projected Date of Disappearance |
|------|-----------|-------------|----------|--------------|---------------------------------|
| 1884 | 1,889 | | | | |
| 1932 | 1,056 | -841 | -38% | -13.4 | 2011 |
| 1932 | 1,056 | | | | |
| 1956 | 801 | -157 | -15% | -6.5 | 2086 |
| 1956 | 801 | | | | |
| 1973 | 675 | -226 | -25% | -13.3 | 2024 |
| 1973 | 675 | | | | |
| 1988 | 513 | -162 | -24% | -10.6 | 2096 |
| 1884 | 1,699 | | | | |
| 1988 | 513 | -1,186 | -70% | -11.4 | 2003 |

TABLE 30.—Area Changes for the Shell Island from 1884 to 1988

| Date | Area (ft) | Change (ft) | % Change | Rate (ft/yr) | Projected Date of Disappearance |
|------|-----------|-------------|----------|--------------|---------------------------------|
| 1884 | 127 | | | | |
| 1932 | 175 | 48 | 38% | 1.0 | N.A. |
| 1932 | 175 | | | | |
| 1956 | 178 | 3 | 0% | 0.1 | N.A. |
| 1956 | 178 | | | | |
| 1973 | 144 | -34 | -19% | -2.0 | 2045 |
| 1973 | 114 | | | | |
| 1988 | 69 | -75 | -52% | -5.0 | 2002 |
| 1884 | 127 | | | | |
| 1988 | 69 | -68 | -48% | -0.6 | 2100 |

Chandeleur Islands Barrier System

The Chandeleur Islands barrier system lies about 25 km north-northeast of the mouth of the Mississippi River and about 120 km east of New Orleans (fig. 1). This system extends south to north from Breton Island to Hewes Point (chapter 1, fig. 18). The Chandeleur Islands are the largest barrier island system along the Mississippi River delta plain and provide the seaward protective boundary for St. Bernard Parish (Kwon, 1969; Kahn, 1980; Nummedal and others, 1980; Kahn and Roberts, 1982; Penland and others, 1985; Suter and others, 1988; Ritchie and others, 1991). Three tidal inlets, Breton Island Pass, Grand Gosier Pass, and Curlew Island Pass, connect the Gulf of Mexico to Breton and Chandeleur sounds. For the purposes of this atlas, the Chandeleur Islands barrier system is divided into two sections: South Chandeleur Islands (Breton, Grand Gosier, and Curlew islands) and North Chandeleur Islands (New Harbor, North, and Freemason islands, and Chandeleur Island). The South Chandeleur Islands extend north from Breton Island to Curlew Island, and the North Chandeleur Islands extend from Curlew Island Pass to Hewes Point. Shoreline position, island width, and rate of change data were compiled for the South Chandeleur Islands from the years 1869, 1922, 1951, 1978, and 1989; the North Chandeleur Islands include the years 1855, 1922, 1951, 1978, and 1989.

South Chandeleur Islands-1869 to 1989

Morphology

The South Chandeleur Islands are fragmented into three groups of small ephemeral islands and shallow shoals that are separated by wide tidal inlets. In 1869, the barrier islands included Breton Island, Errol Island, and Curlew Island (1869 map). Grand Gosier, which currently lies between Breton Island and Curlew Island, was not mapped on the NOS T-sheet for this area. Either field surveyors accidentally missed the island, or the island did not exist at that time. Breton Island displayed a typical horseshoe shape that characterizes the island today, which suggests antecedent topographic control that anchors both ends. By 1922, all of the islands except Breton were reduced to small islands and shoals (1922 map). Additionally, Breton Island was breached, and two small shoals appeared between Breton and Errol islands. These features later corresponded to the north and south ends of Grand Gosier Island.

By 1951, Grand Gosier had evolved into a substantial barrier island apparently from two much smaller shoals (1951 map). Also, Errol Island was not present, leaving Curlew Island and the southern half of Stake Island to the north. The 1978 map depicts Breton and Grand Gosier islands as breached. The resistant ends of Breton Island are evident and tend to anchor the island. Grand Gosier Island evolved into two smaller islands known as north and south Grand Gosier islands, and Curlew Island was the single remaining barrier island to the north. By 1989, these three groups of islands had remained relatively intact (1989 map). The central portion of Breton Island remained susceptible to breaching, and the northern end of south Grand Gosier formed a unique recurved spit directed offshore. A large fetch is available across Breton and Chandeleur sounds capable of producing enough wave energy to form well-developed, barred beaches along the bay shorelines of south and north Grand Gosier islands and Curlew Island. On the northern end of south Grand Gosier, bayside wave energy may be more dominant than gulfside wave energy, thus producing the recurved spit.

Shoreline Movement

Shoreline change maps were constructed for the South Chandeleur Islands area. Shoreline movement and island width were derived from 120 shore-normal transects along the gulf and bay shorelines (transects map, tables 31, 32, 33, 34, and 35). Comparisons of shoreline position are made for the periods 1869 vs. 1922, 1922 vs. 1951, 1951 vs. 1978, 1978 vs. 1989, and 1869 vs. 1989.

The average rate of gulfside change for the South Chandeleur Islands between 1869 and 1922 was -11.3 m/yr (fig. 47, table 35). This rate decreased twofold to -5.7 m/yr between 1922 and 1951. Between 1951 and 1978, the rate increased to -16.6 m/yr and increased further to -19.7 m/yr between 1978 and 1989. Along the bay shoreline, the average rate of change was 8.8 m/yr between 1869 and 1922 and decreased to 5.9 m/yr between 1922 and 1951 (fig. 48, table 33). The rate increased to 9.8 and 19.8 m/yr for the periods 1951 to 1978 and 1978 to 1989, respectively. The South Chandeleur Islands are migrating landward along the gulf and bay shorelines because a good sediment supply exists, and the islands are narrow and low enough for this sediment to be transported across the island by washover processes.

The 1869 vs. 1989 map illustrates land loss and summarizes changes along the gulf and bay shorelines. Between 1869 and 1989, the average rate of change along the gulf shoreline ranged from 5.9 to -21.1 m/yr with an average rate of -11.6 m/yr (table 35). The gulf shoreline of the South Chandeleur Islands has undergone retreat over the last 120 years, except for the southern end of Breton Island, which experienced accretion. The bay-side rate of change ranged from 22.6 to -7.7 m/yr, with an average rate of 10.7 m/yr (table 33). The gulf shoreline is migrating landward about 1.0 m/yr faster than the bay shoreline (-11.6 m/yr vs. 10.7 m/yr), causing the barrier width to narrow as the islands retreat (fig. 49, table 34).

Area and Width Change

Breton Island

In 1869, the average width of Breton Island was 396 m, and the area was 332 ha (tables 34, and 36). This area decreased by 18 percent to 271 ha over the next 53 years, with a similar decrease in width to 320 m. The average rate of change between 1869 and 1922 was -1.2 ha/yr. However, by 1951, island area expanded to 291 ha at a rate of 0.7 ha/yr, but island width continued to narrow (292 m).

During the period 1951 to 1978, Breton Island experienced the greatest amount of area loss. Island area was reduced by 52 percent, with a loss of 150 ha at a rate of 5.4 ha/yr, and the average island width narrowed to 268 m. Because its center area was breached, the island lost its unconsolidated and highly mobile central portion to leave two resistant ends that did not experience much change. Between 1978 and 1989, Breton Island slowly recovered and actually experienced a 23-ha increase in area to 164 ha, reversing from land loss to land gain at a rate of 2.2 ha/yr. Interestingly, average width continued to decrease (199 m) even though area was increasing. This was possible because the breached central portion of Breton Island almost completely recovered to cause area gain. Average island width did not increase, however, because the recovered central portion had always been narrower than the resistant ends. Therefore, when the resistant ends suffered concurrent erosion, an overall decrease in width occurred.

Breton Island's area decreased between 1869 and 1989 from 332 to 164 ha (fig. 50, table 36). The average rates of area change fluctuated between -5.4 and 2.2 ha/yr, which indicate reversing periods between land loss and gain in response to the breaching and healing process along the central island portion (fig. 51). In contrast, the average width of Breton Island experienced a continuous decrease from 1869 to 1989 (fig. 52).

Grand Gosier and Curlew Islands

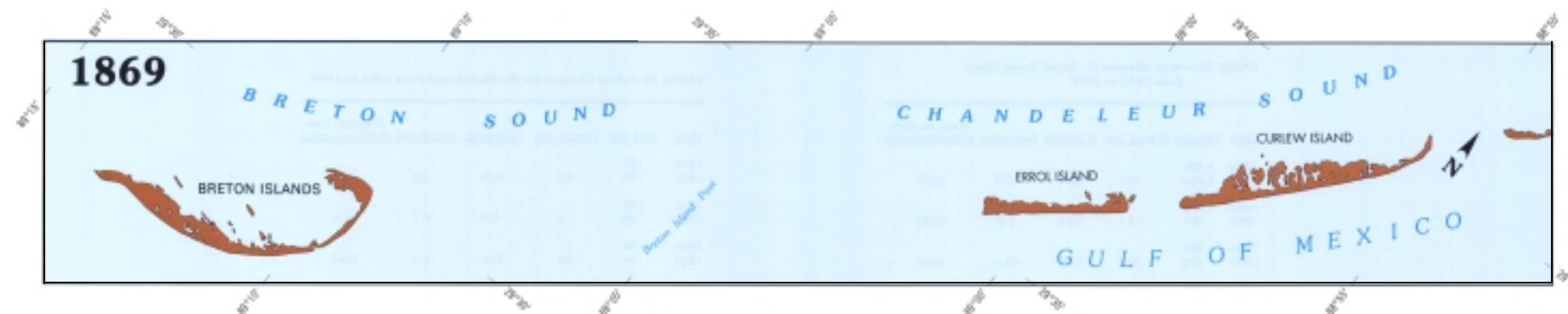
These barrier islands experienced extreme changes in configuration over the last 120 years, causing large fluctuations in average width and island area. In 1869, the average width was 423 m, and the area of Grand Gosier and Curlew islands was 453 ha (tables 34 and 37). By 1922, island area decreased dramatically to only 29 ha at an average rate of -8.0 ha/yr, and average island width was only 90 m (fig. 53). Tremendous land gain occurred by 1951 with island area expanding to 330 ha, a 1,038 percent increase at a rate of 10.4 ha/yr. Similarly, average width jumped 186 m to 276 m. Between 1951 and 1978, total area fell to 162 ha at a rate of 6.0 ha/yr. Changes in land area reversed again between 1978 and 1989, increasing 71 percent to 277 ha with a similar increase in island width to 249 m. For this period, Grand Gosier and Curlew islands experienced land gain at an average rate of 11.1 ha/yr.

Overall, the area of the islands declined between 1869 and 1989 from 453 to 277 ha (fig. 54). This is a total land loss of 39 percent at an average rate of -1.5 ha/yr (table 37). The rate of area change fluctuated between -8.0 to 11.1 ha/yr from 1869 to 1989, resulting in periods of land gain and loss similar to that of Breton Island (fig. 51). Likewise, average barrier width decreased from 423 m in 1869 to 249 m in 1989 (fig. 55). This signifies an average island narrowing rate of 1.5 m/yr between 1869 and 1989.

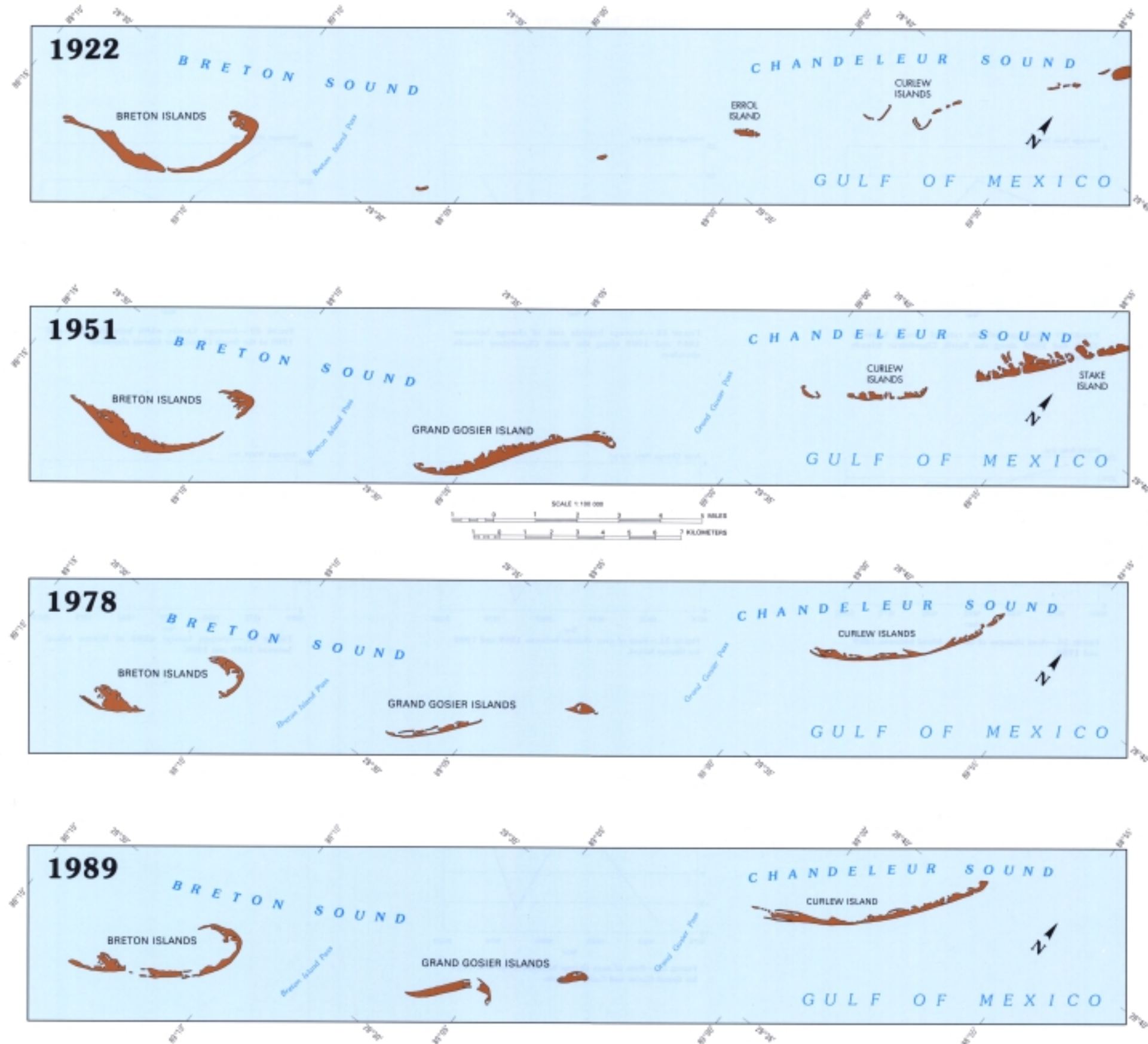
South Chandeleur Islands Summary

The area of the South Chandeleur Islands has shown an overall decline in area from 784 ha in 1869 to 441 ha in 1989 with fluctuations in the intervening years (fig. 56). A total loss of 343 ha, at an average loss rate of -2.9 ha/yr, has been determined (table 38). Interestingly, the average rate of area change fluctuated between -11.5 and 13.3 ha/yr from 1869 to 1989, showing cyclic periods of land gain during an overall trend of land loss (fig. 57). The barriers decreased in average width from 384 m in 1869 to 232 m in 1989. A comparison of barrier widths for 1869 and 1989 is shown in figure 58.

• Historic Shorelines •



South Chandeleur Islands



South Chandeleur Islands

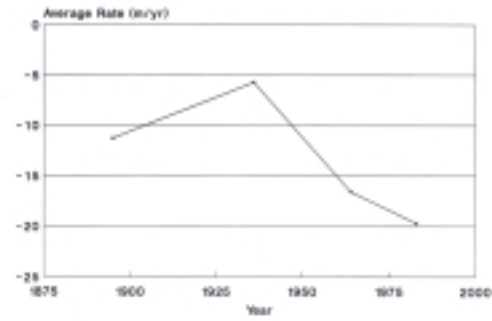


FIGURE 47.—Average gulfside rate of change between 1869 and 1989 along the South Chandeleur Islands shoreline.

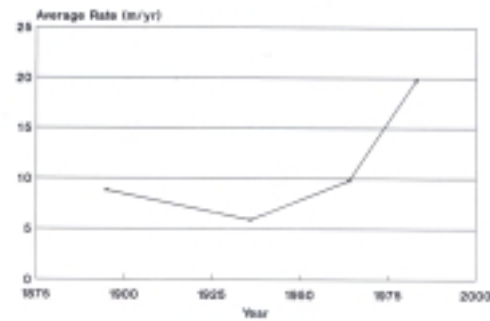


FIGURE 48.—Average bayside rate of change between 1869 and 1989 along the South Chandeleur Islands shoreline.

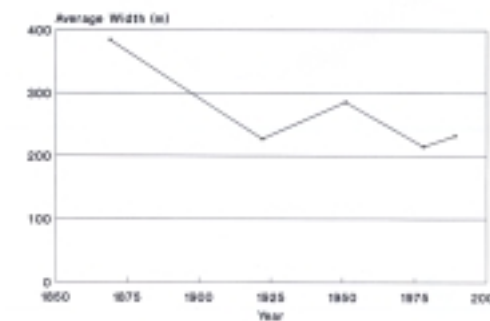


FIGURE 49.—Average barrier width between 1869 and 1989 of the South Chandeleur Islands shoreline.



FIGURE 50.—Area changes of Breton Island between 1869 and 1989.

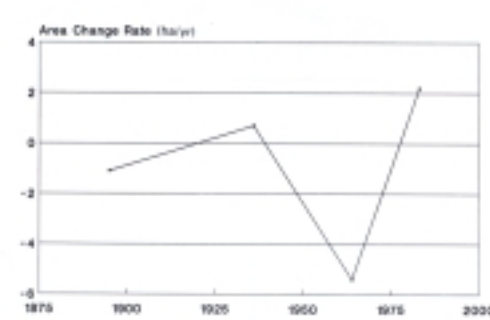


FIGURE 51.—Rate of area change between 1869 and 1989 for Breton Island.



FIGURE 52.—Average barrier width of Breton Island between 1869 and 1989.

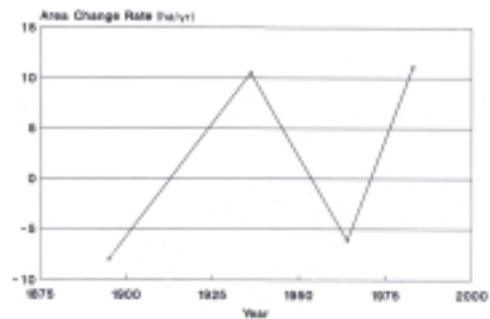
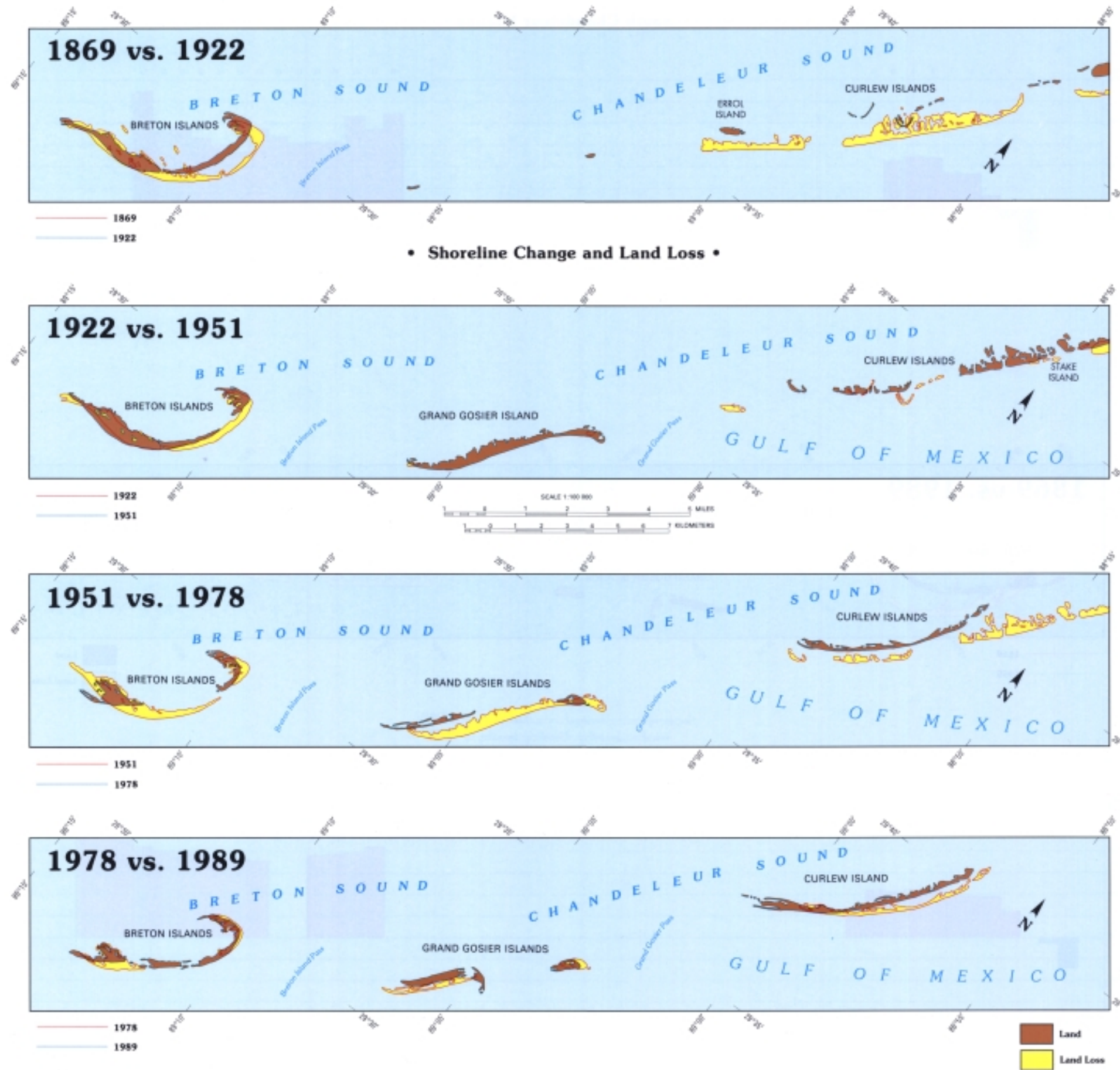
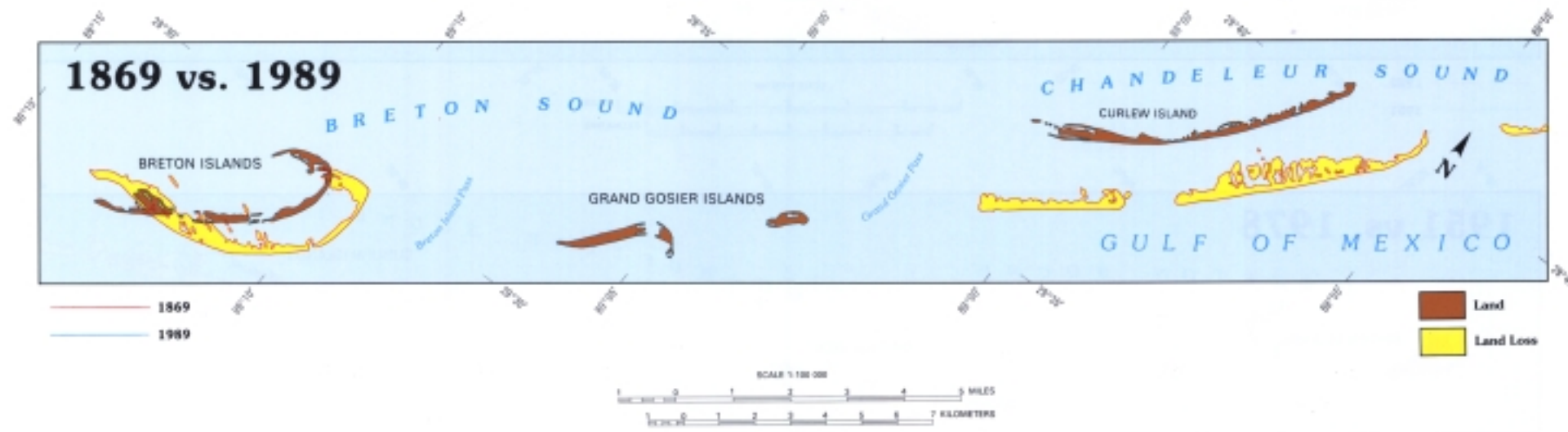


FIGURE 53.—Rate of area change between 1869 and 1989 for Grand Gosier and Carlew Islands.

South Chandeleur Islands



South Chandeaur Islands



South Chandeleur Islands

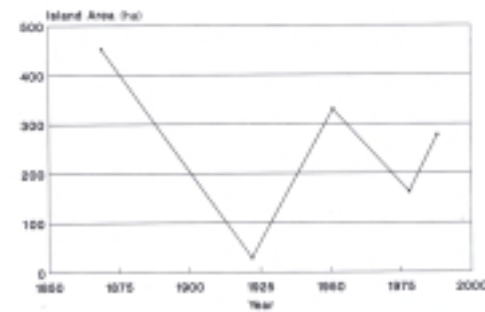


FIGURE 54.—Area changes of Grand Gosier and Curlew islands between 1869 and 1989.

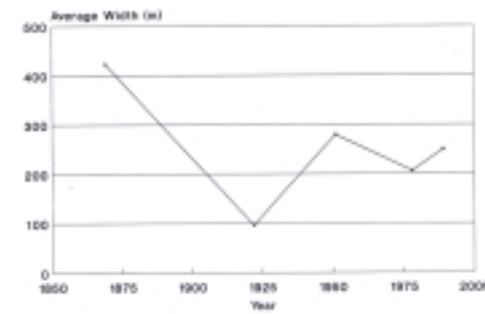


FIGURE 55.—Average barrier width of Grand Gosier and Curlew islands between 1869 and 1989.



FIGURE 56.—Area changes between 1869 and 1989 of the South Chandeleur Islands.

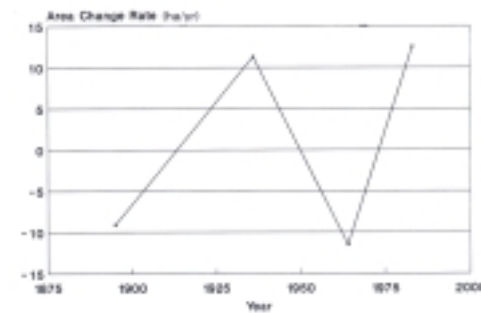


FIGURE 57.—Rate of area change between 1869 and 1989 for South Chandeleur Islands.

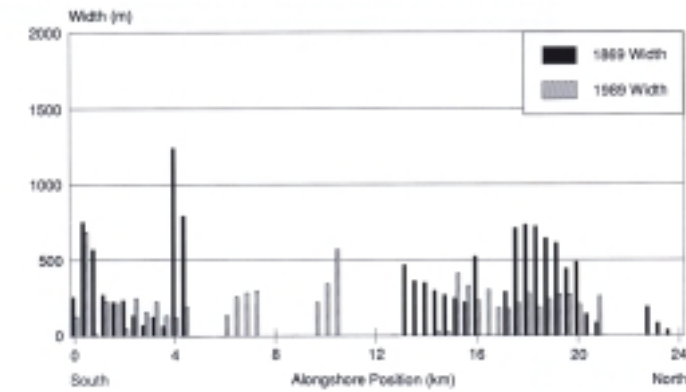


FIGURE 58.—Comparison of the 1869 and 1989 barrier widths along the South Chandeleur Islands shoreline.

TABLE 36.—Area changes for Breton Island from 1869 to 1989

| Date | Area (ha) | Change (ha) | % Change | Rate (ha/yr) | Projected Date of Disappearance |
|------|-----------|-------------|----------|--------------|---------------------------------|
| 1869 | 332 | | | | |
| 1922 | 271 | -61 | -18% | -1.2 | 2091 |
| 1922 | 271 | | | | |
| 1951 | 291 | 20 | 7% | 0.7 | N.A. |
| 1951 | 291 | | | | |
| 1978 | 141 | -150 | -52% | -5.4 | 2004 |
| 1978 | 141 | | | | |
| 1989 | 164 | 23 | 16% | 2.2 | N.A. |
| 1989 | 164 | | | | |
| 1989 | 222 | | | | |
| 1989 | 164 | -169 | -51% | -1.4 | 2106 |

TABLE 37.—Area changes of the Grand Gosier and Curlew islands from 1869 to 1989

| Date | Area (ha) | Change (ha) | % Change | Rate (ha/yr) | Projected Date of Disappearance |
|------|-----------|-------------|----------|--------------|---------------------------------|
| 1869 | 453 | | | | |
| 1922 | 29 | -424 | -94% | -8.0 | 1926 |
| 1922 | 29 | | | | |
| 1951 | 330 | 301 | 1,038% | 10.4 | N.A. |
| 1951 | 330 | | | | |
| 1978 | 162 | -168 | -51% | -6.0 | 2005 |
| 1978 | 162 | | | | |
| 1989 | 277 | 115 | 71% | 11.1 | N.A. |
| 1989 | 277 | | | | |
| 1989 | 453 | | | | |
| 1989 | 277 | -176 | -39% | -1.5 | 2174 |

TABLE 38.—Area changes of South Chandeleur Islands from 1869 to 1989

| Date | Area (ha) | Change (ha) | % Change | Rate (ha/yr) | Projected Date of Disappearance |
|------|-----------|-------------|----------|--------------|---------------------------------|
| 1869 | 794 | | | | |
| 1922 | 300 | -494 | -62% | -9.1 | 1966 |
| 1922 | 300 | | | | |
| 1951 | 624 | 324 | 108% | 11.3 | N.A. |
| 1951 | 624 | | | | |
| 1978 | 303 | -321 | -51% | -11.5 | 2003 |
| 1978 | 303 | | | | |
| 1989 | 441 | 138 | 46% | 13.3 | N.A. |
| 1989 | 441 | | | | |
| 1989 | 794 | | | | |
| 1989 | 441 | -343 | -44% | -2.9 | 2199 |

North Chandeleur Islands-1855 to 1989

Morphology

The North Chandeleur Islands are dominated by a large, arcuate-shaped barrier island that protects three groups of smaller, irregular-shaped islands that lie to the west. In 1855, Chandeleur Island was a fairly continuous barrier island except for breaches along the north-central portion of the shoreline (1855 map). One of the major breaches was known as Schooners Pass; its name indicates how the pass was utilized at the time. At the northern end lies Hewes Point, a large recurved spit complex, and the terminus of longshore sediment transport for the northern half of the barrier island arc. The gulf shoreline forms a smooth arc, but the bay shoreline is crenulate and dominated by washover fans and ebb-tidal deltas. In addition, two other prominent morphological features along the bay shoreline include Redfish Point and Monkey Bayou, interpreted as possible relict distributary systems of the St. Bernard delta. In 1922, several breaches along the north central island shoreline closed, except for three or four, the most prominent of which is still Schooners Pass (1922 map). At this point, the island arc was narrowest at both ends and widest in the central portion. Since then the southern end also has developed some surge channels. A detailed description of surge channels and other related storm impact features is provided by Boothroyd and others (1985). The back-barrier islands (North, New Harbor, and Freeman islands) are moving and deteriorating, especially Freeman Islands, which consist predominately of reworked oyster shells and are therefore, highly mobile.

By 1951, Schooners Pass had closed, but to the north an unnamed inlet remained opened (1951 map). The southern tip of the arc became detached to form Stake Island. Chandeleur Island suffered a devastating hurricane impact by Camille in 1969, which fragmented the arc into numerous smaller islands. However, by 1978, the arc had recovered, and all breaches healed. To the south, Stake and Palos islands disappeared, and the back-barrier islands underwent a major contraction. The 1988 map shows that Chandeleur Island has maintained its overall arcuate shape, smooth gulf shoreline, and highly irregular bay shoreline. Although the back-barrier islands remained, their shapes were very different and sizes greatly reduced.

Shoreline Movement

Comparisons of shoreline position along the North Chandeleur Islands are made for the periods 1855 vs. 1922, 1922 vs. 1951, 1951 vs. 1978, 1978 vs. 1989, and 1855 vs. 1989. Shoreline change is presented in terms of direction, magnitude, and rate of change, as well as island width. These were obtained from 172 shore-normal transects along the gulf and bay shorelines (transects map, tables 39, 40, 41, 42, and 43).

The average gulfside rate of change between 1855 and 1922 was -5.3 m/yr (table 43). This average rate slightly increased to -5.6 m/yr between 1922 and 1951 and increased nearly twofold to -10.0 m/yr between 1951 and 1978 (fig. 59). This doubling of the gulfside rate of change between 1951 and 1978 includes the impact of Hurricane Camille, a category 5 hurricane that made landfall in 1969 at Pass Christian, Miss., after crossing the Chandeleur Islands (Neumann and others, 1985). This large storm severely weakened the overall morphological structure of the Chandeleur Island system, making the arc more susceptible to subsequent storm events. For the period 1978 to 1989, the high average rate of gulfside movement was maintained and even increased to -12.2 m/yr (fig. 59). Contributing to this high rate of shoreline retreat were the impacts of Hurricane Frederic (1979) and Hurricanes Elena and Juan (1985) (Neumann and others, 1985; Case, 1986).

The bay shoreline also was migrating landward. For the period between 1855 and 1922, the average rate of change was 2.2 m/yr (fig. 60, table 41). This average rate increased over twofold to 5.4 m/yr between 1922 and 1951 but decreased to 3.3 m/yr for the period 1951 through 1978. Between 1978 and 1989, the average rate increased to 5.3 m/yr (fig. 60). For the past 134 years, the bay shoreline migrated landward primarily in response to washover deposition associated with extratropical and tropical storms.

The 1855 vs. 1989 map illustrates land loss for the North Chandeleur Islands and presents a quantitative summary of changes along the gulf and bay shorelines. The rate of change between 1855 and 1989 along the gulf shoreline ranged from -0.2 to -17.6 m/yr, with an average change rate of -6.5 m/yr (table 43). The rate of bayside change for the same period ranged between 15.0 and -2.0 m/yr with an average change rate of 2.9 m/yr (table 41). The gulf and bay shorelines are rapidly migrating

landward, but the gulf shoreline is migrating twice as fast (-6.5 m/yr vs. 2.9 m/yr), causing net deterioration of the islands.

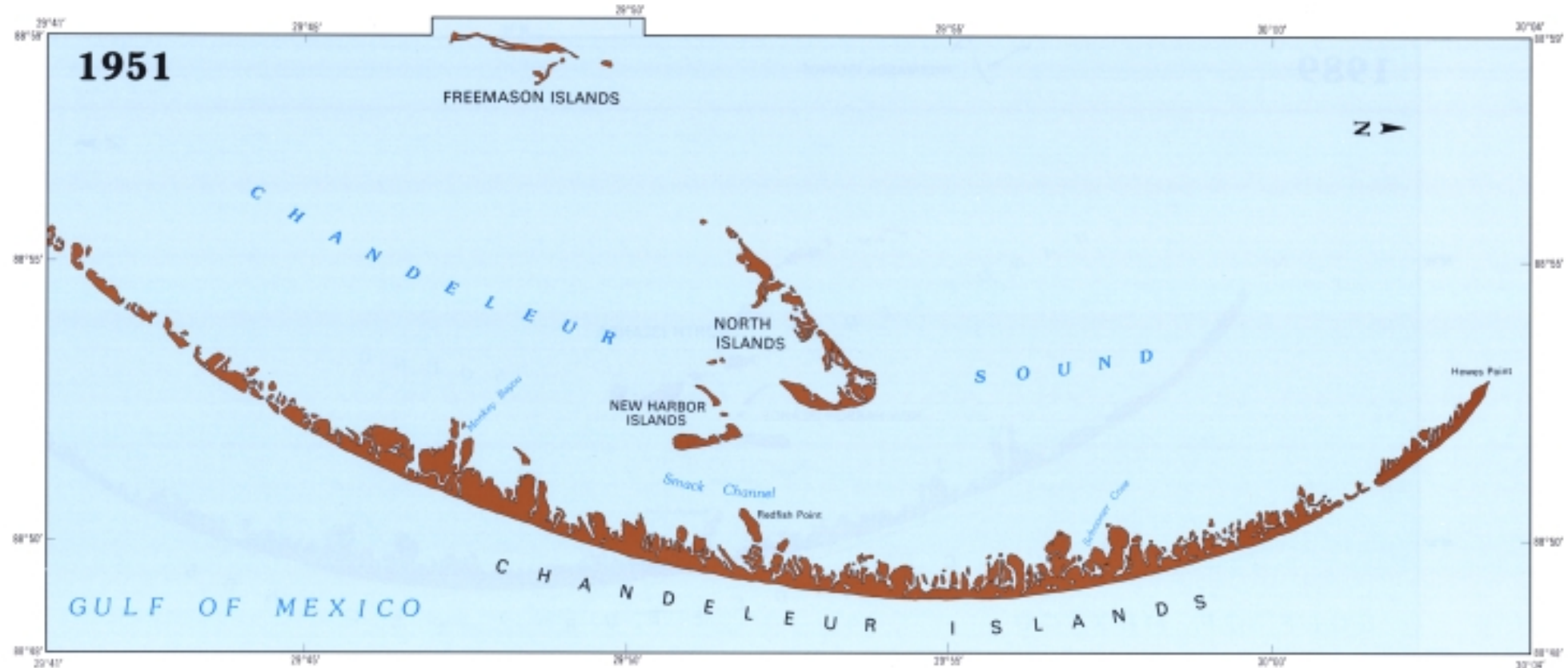
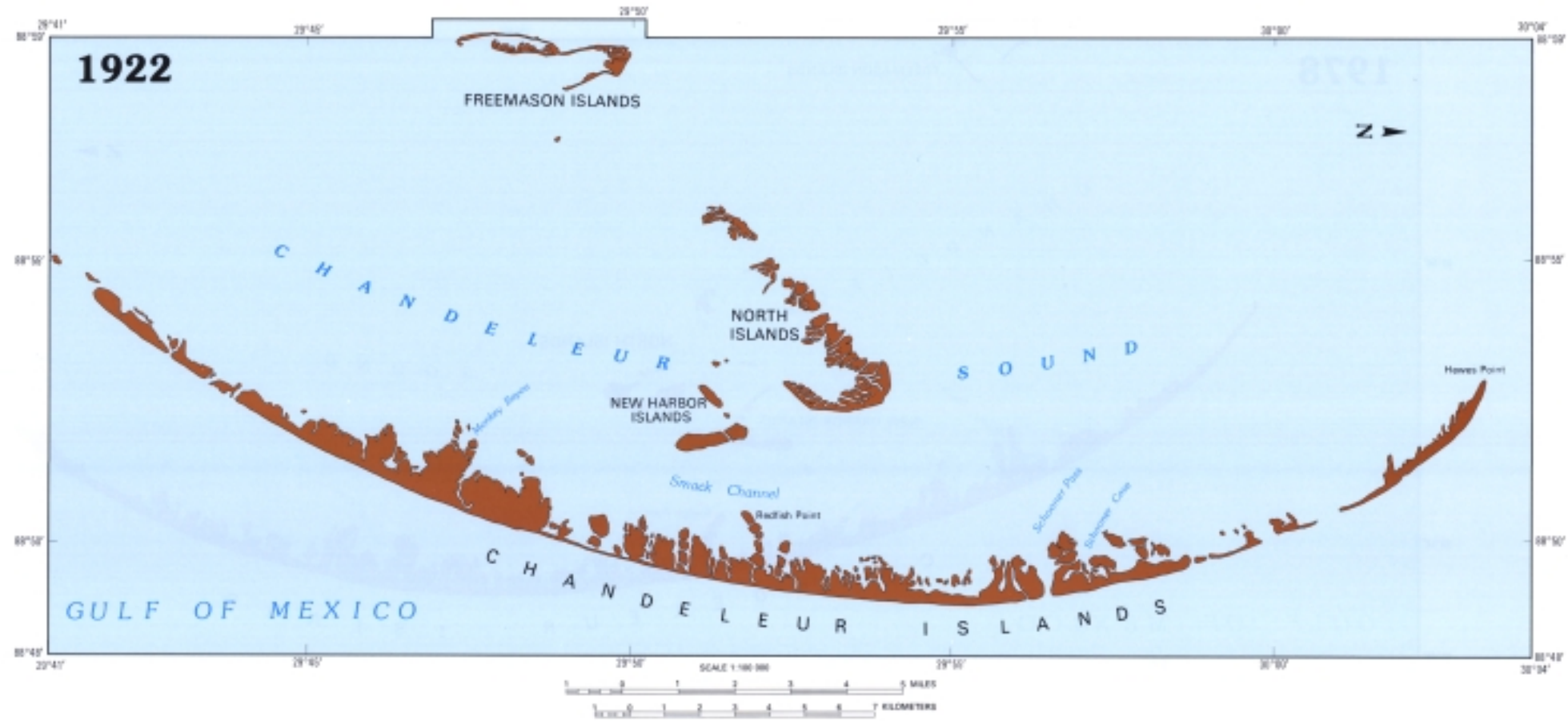
Area and Width Change

To better understand area changes, comparisons are made to general trends in barrier width (tables 42 and 44). In 1855, Chandeleur Island contained 2,763 ha of land with an average width of 941 m. By 1922, total area further decreased to 2,485 ha, while average width decreased to 670 m. During the period 1855 to 1922, the rate of area change was -4.1 ha/yr (fig. 61). However, by 1951, the island arc increased in area to 2,588 ha. This was consistent with an increase in average width to 678 m. For the period 1922 to 1951, the average rate of area change was 3.6 ha/yr, indicating a reverse from land loss to land gain. Not surprisingly, Chandeleur Island lost the most area between 1951 and 1978, which coincides with the impact of Hurricane Camille in 1969. The island arc lost 31 percent, or 792 ha, of its land area at a rate of -28.5 ha/yr. Correspondingly, average barrier width decreased to 506 m. By 1989, both area and width only slightly decreased to 1,749 ha and 475 m, respectively, and the rate of area change slowed to -4.5 ha/yr (fig. 61).

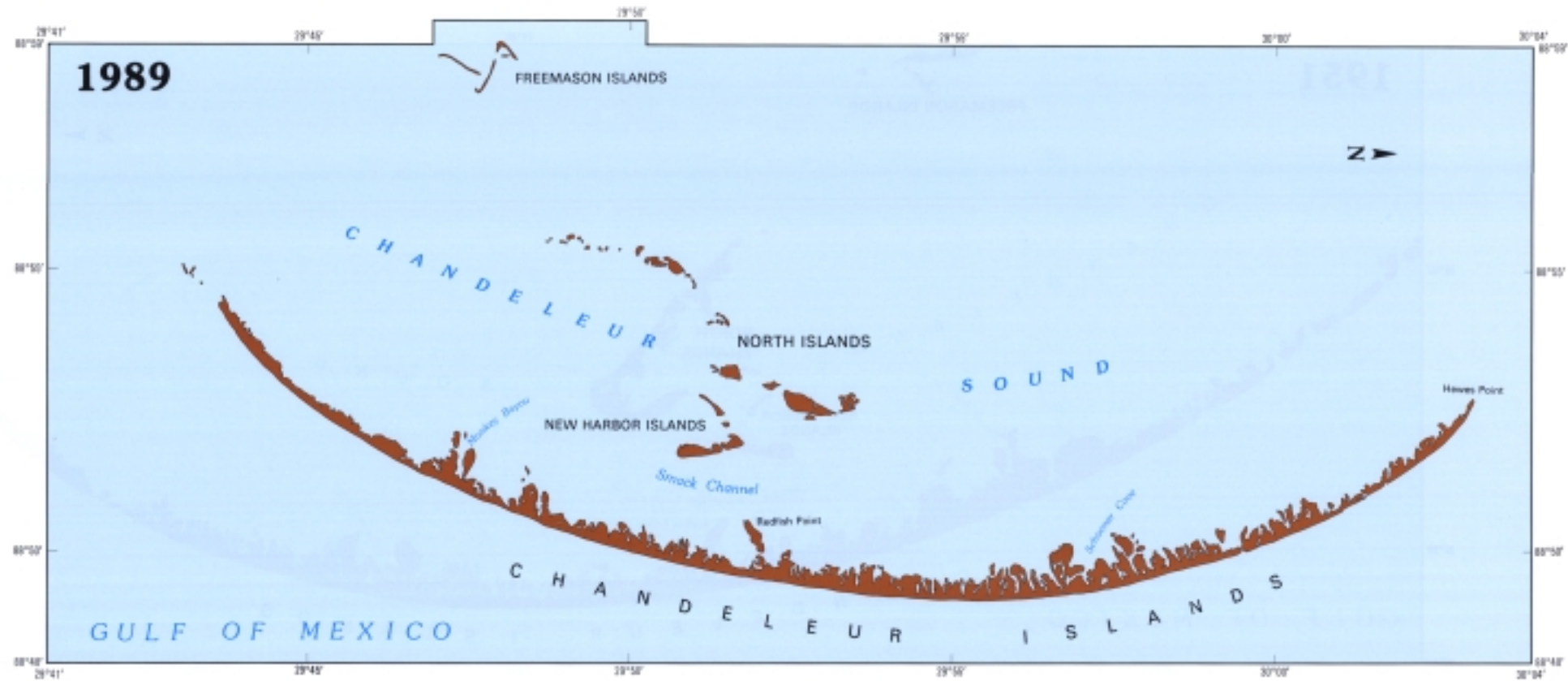
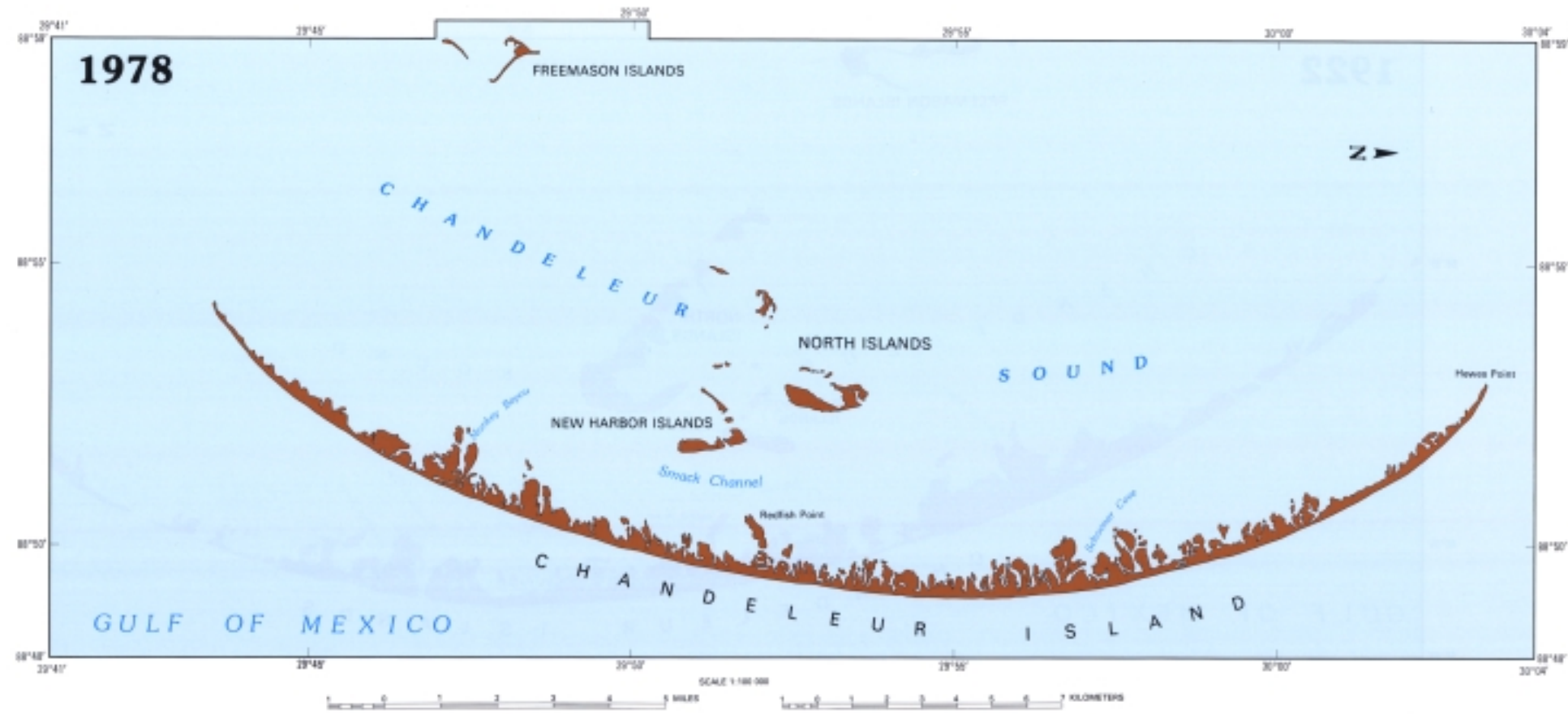
Over the last 134 years, Chandeleur Island has experienced a decrease in area from 2,763 to 1,749 ha (fig. 62, table 44), at an average loss rate of 7.6 ha/yr. This represents a 37 percent decrease in island area, most of which occurred between 1951 and 1978. Compared with other barrier islands along the Louisiana coast, the area of Chandeleur Island has decreased at a slower rate. Between 1855 and 1989, both the gulf and bay shorelines migrated landward. However, the gulf shoreline migrated landward more than twice as fast as the bay shoreline (-6.5 m/yr vs. 2.9 m/yr, respectively), causing island width to narrow (fig. 63, table 42). The barrier island decreased in average width from 941 m in 1855 to 475 m in 1989, representing an average narrowing rate of 3.5 m/yr for the past 134 years (fig. 63). Barrier widths for 1855 and 1989 are shown in figure 64. Meanwhile, area changes decreased for North and Freeman islands but remained stable for New Harbor Islands (tables 45, 46, and 47).



North Chandeleur Islands



North Chandeleur Islands



North Chandeleur Islands

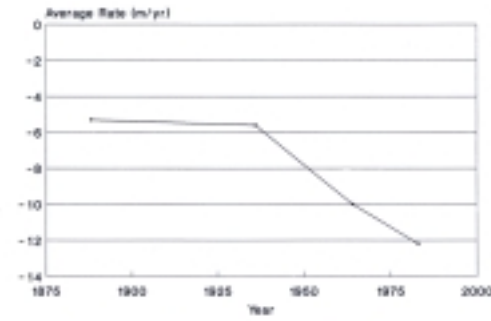


FIGURE 59.—Average gulfside rate of change between 1855 and 1989 along Chandeleur Island.

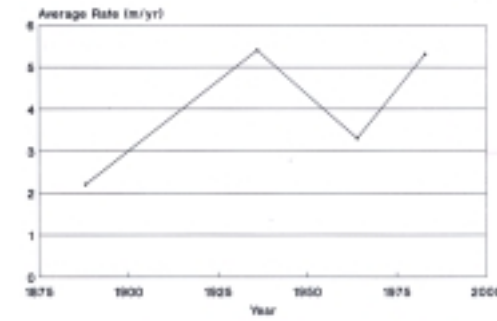


FIGURE 60.—Average bayside rate of change between 1855 and 1989 along Chandeleur Island.

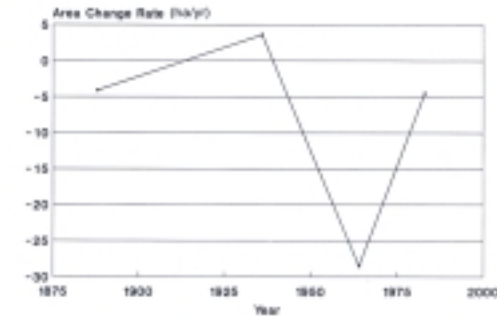


FIGURE 61.—Rate of area change between 1855 and 1989 of Chandeleur Island.

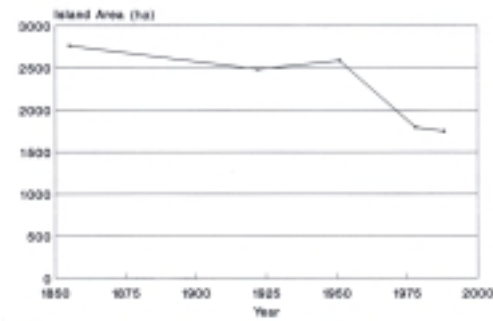


FIGURE 62.—Area changes between 1855 and 1989 of Chandeleur Island.



FIGURE 63.—Average barrier width between 1855 and 1989 along Chandeleur Island.

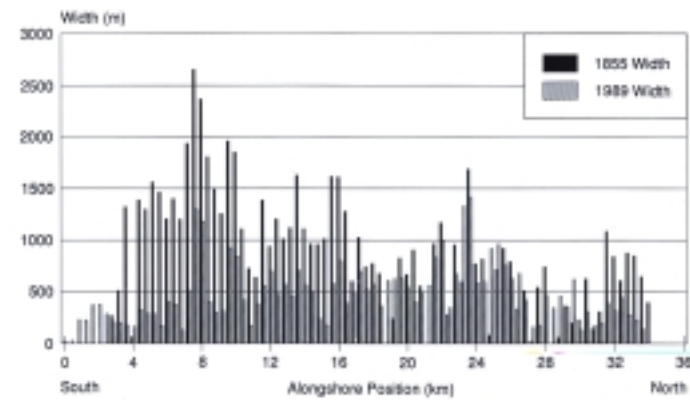
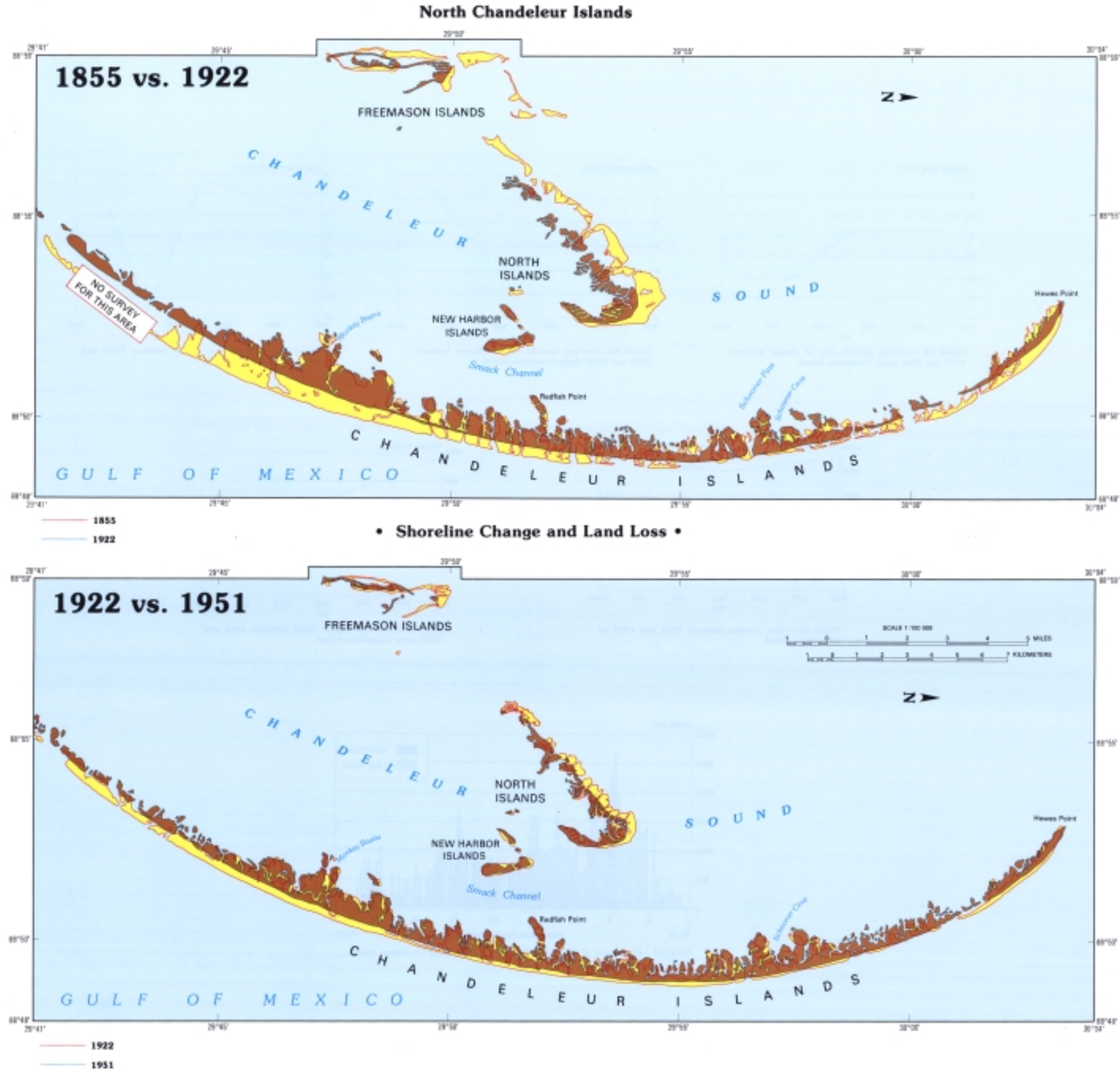
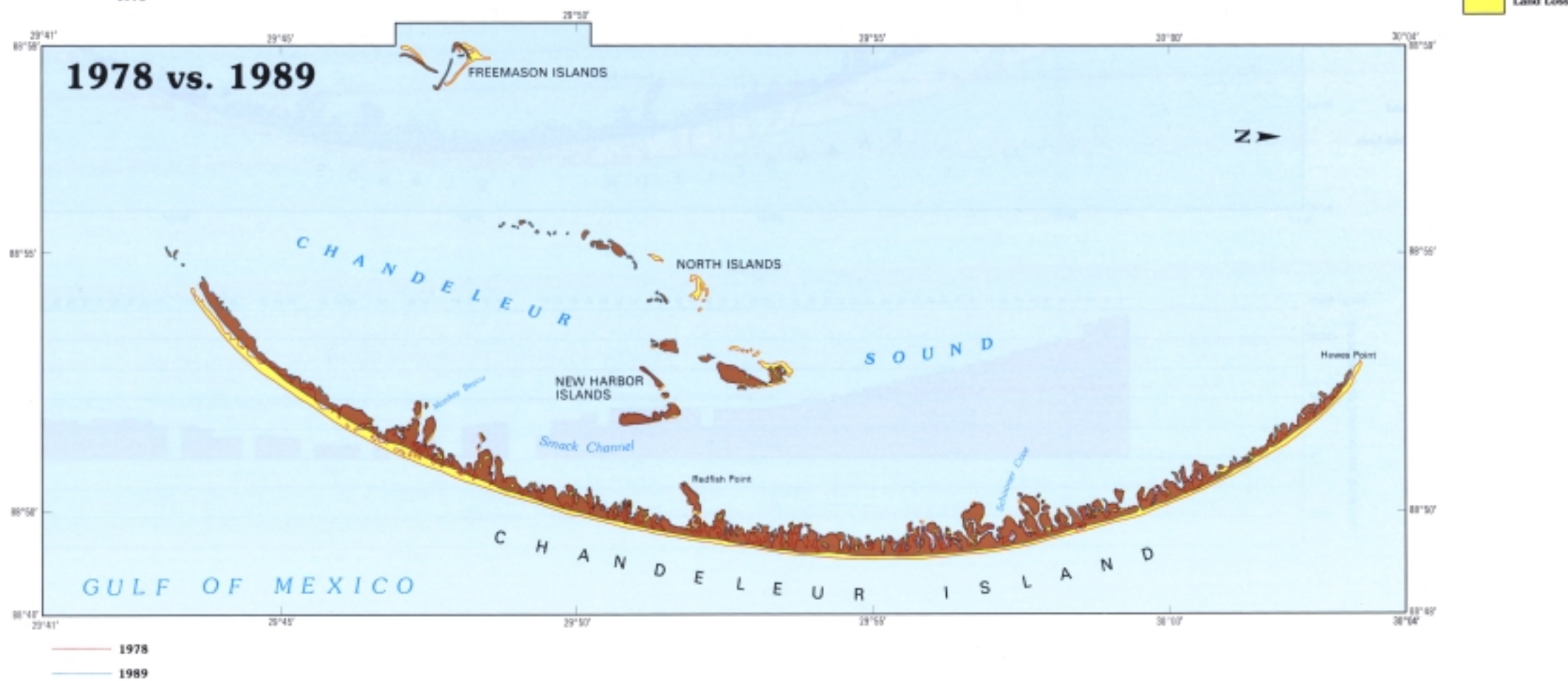
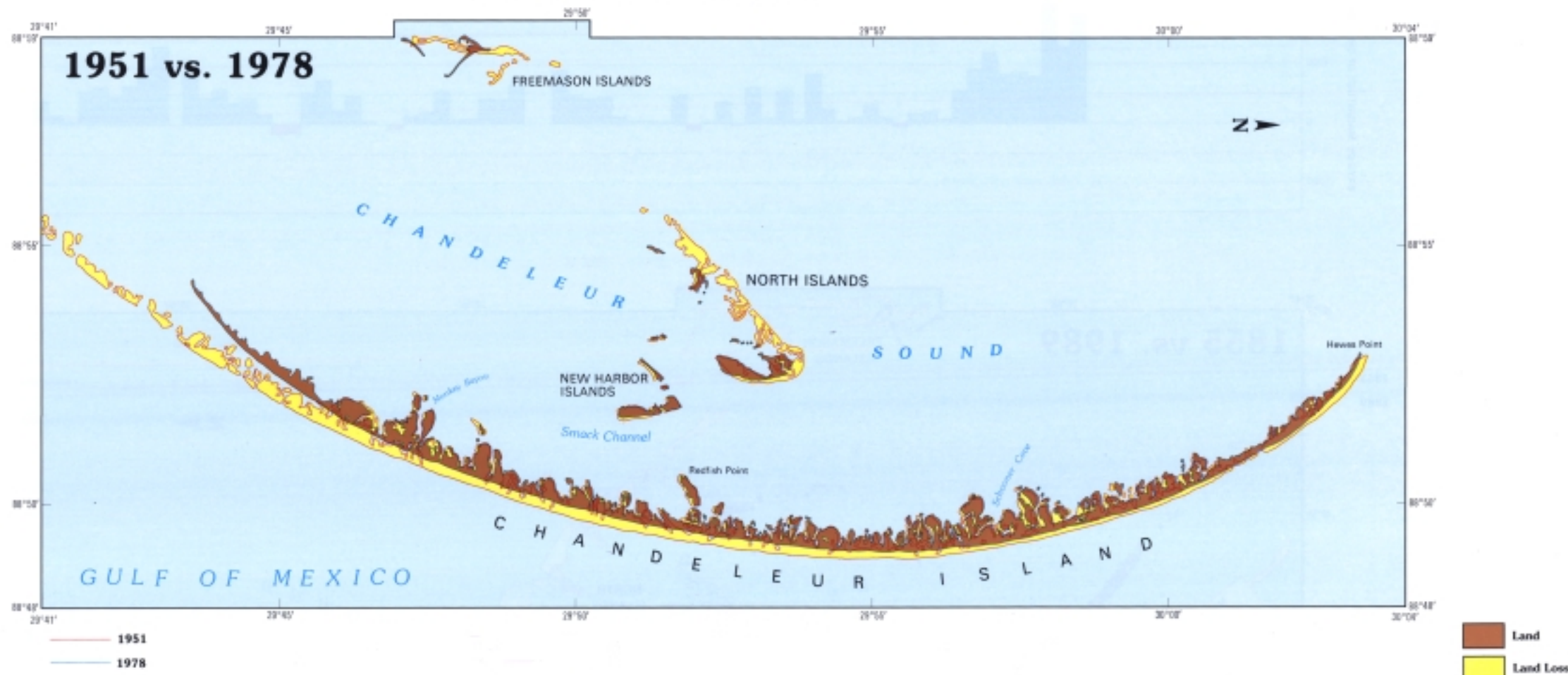


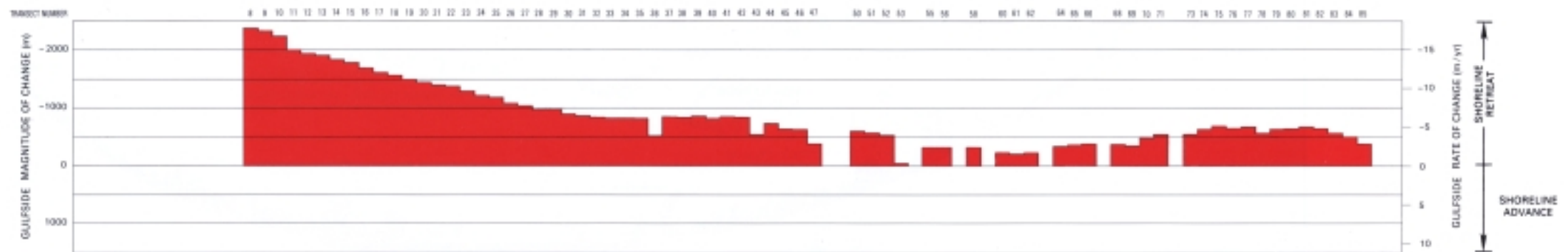
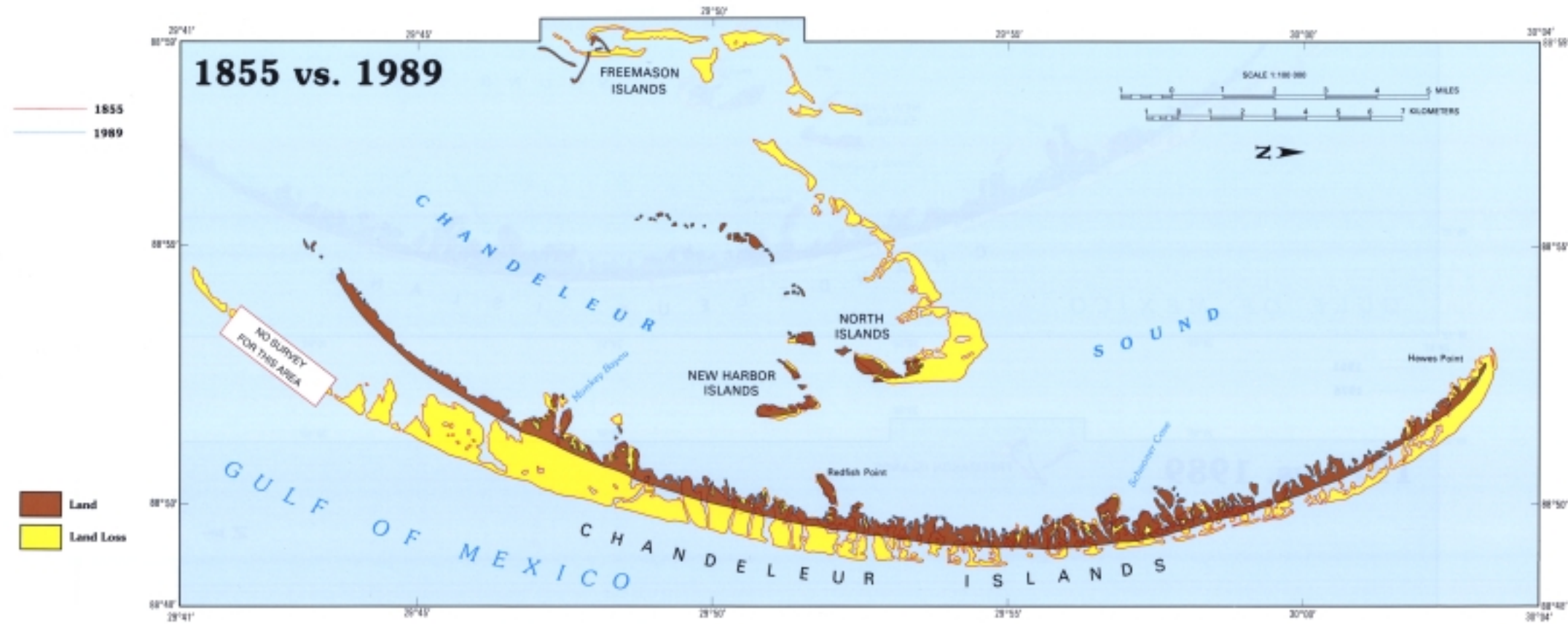
FIGURE 64.—Comparison of 1855 and 1989 barrier widths along Chandeleur Island.



North Chandeleur Islands



North Chandeleur Islands



North Chandeleur Islands

TABLE 43.—North Chandeleur Islands gulfside rate of change (meters per year)

| Transect # | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 25 | 26 | 27 | 28 | 29 | 30 | 31 | 32 | 33 | 34 | 35 | 36 | 37 | 38 | 39 | 40 | 41 | 42 | 43 | 44 | 45 | 46 | 47 | 48 | |
|---------------------|-----------|-------------|------|-------|-------------|-------|-------|-------|-------------|-------|-------|-------|-------------|-------|-------|-------|-------------|-------|-------|-------|-------------|-------|-------|-------|-------------|-------|-------|-------|-------------|-------|------|-------|-------------|-------|-------|-------|-------------|-------|------|-------|-------------|-------|------|------|-------------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Transect coordinate | | 29° 42' 15" | 30" | 48" | 29° 42' 00" | 15" | 30" | 48" | 29° 44' 00" | 15" | 30" | 48" | 29° 45' 00" | 15" | 30" | 48" | 29° 46' 00" | 15" | 30" | 48" | 29° 47' 00" | 15" | 30" | 48" | 29° 48' 00" | 15" | 30" | 48" | 29° 49' 00" | 15" | 30" | 48" | 29° 50' 00" | 15" | 30" | 48" | 29° 51' 00" | 15" | 30" | 48" | 29° 52' 00" | 15" | 30" | 48" | 29° 54' 00" | 15" | 30" | | | |
| Y | 1855-1922 | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | -11.7 | -14.9 | -16.9 | -12.8 | -12.4 | -12.2 | -12.5 | -12.8 | -11.7 | -15.9 | -10.5 | -9.0 | -8.5 | -9.7 | -9.2 | -9.2 | -7.8 | -7.2 | -7.5 | -7.3 | -6.8 | -5.0 | -5.4 | -4.9 | -5.1 | -4.8 | -4.4 | -4.6 | -2.2 | -3.2 | -4.8 | -5.8 | -4.8 | -4.9 | -5.2 | -7.0 | -4.2 | -2.8 | -3.3 | 2.2 | n.d. | |
| σ | 1922-1951 | -14.0 | n.d. | -15.7 | n.d. | -10.4 | -9.8 | -10.9 | -11.8 | -18.0 | -20.2 | -9.5 | -8.5 | -8.9 | -8.4 | -7.8 | -8.5 | -8.2 | -8.4 | -8.5 | -8.5 | -9.3 | -9.2 | -8.9 | -8.7 | -8.2 | -8.7 | -8.1 | -4.8 | -4.6 | -5.1 | -4.8 | -3.8 | -4.6 | -4.8 | -4.2 | -5.1 | -5.1 | -5.1 | -6.5 | -5.1 | -5.2 | -4.8 | -4.4 | -3.9 | -3.3 | -3.1 | -3.1 | -2.8 | |
| μ | 1951-1978 | n.d. | n.d. | -12.9 | n.d. | -8.4 | -9.8 | -20.2 | -7.8 | -21.9 | -25.9 | -23.7 | -21.5 | -23.5 | -18.3 | -18.7 | -18.0 | -13.7 | -12.8 | -13.9 | -8.9 | -8.8 | -8.2 | -8.9 | -8.8 | -8.7 | -8.3 | -8.7 | -9.3 | -13.5 | -9.9 | -9.8 | -10.3 | -10.1 | -11.1 | -10.0 | -9.2 | -8.0 | -9.4 | -8.6 | -7.8 | -8.8 | -9.2 | -8.7 | -8.8 | -8.8 | -7.9 | -8.2 | | |
| τ | 1978-1989 | n.d. | n.d. | -29.2 | -27.5 | -22.2 | -24.4 | -25.0 | -24.9 | -24.0 | -22.9 | -19.7 | -20.8 | -21.0 | -21.4 | -23.8 | -22.2 | -21.0 | -21.8 | -22.5 | -24.9 | -22.8 | -21.7 | -20.8 | -19.8 | -18.6 | -14.0 | -13.9 | -10.4 | -8.8 | -8.5 | -10.8 | -9.8 | -8.3 | -8.4 | -8.7 | -8.7 | -18.0 | -9.8 | -11.1 | -11.4 | -12.2 | -8.8 | -8.8 | -8.8 | -8.8 | -7.8 | -8.5 | -8.0 | -8.7 |
| δ | 1855-1989 | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | -17.6 | -17.3 | -16.8 | -12.9 | -14.2 | -14.1 | -13.7 | -13.3 | -12.5 | -11.9 | -11.4 | -11.1 | -10.7 | -10.4 | -10.1 | -9.8 | -9.2 | -8.7 | -8.0 | -7.8 | -7.2 | -7.1 | -6.8 | -6.3 | -6.2 | -6.1 | -6.0 | -6.0 | -5.8 | -5.8 | -6.3 | -6.4 | -6.0 | -6.2 | -6.2 | -5.9 | -5.5 | -4.6 | -4.6 | -2.8 | n.d. | |

Chandeleur Island gulfside summary

| Years | Sum | Avg | STD | Total Range | Count |
|-----------|---------|-------|-----|-------------|-------|
| 1855-1922 | -889.0 | -6.3 | 4.3 | 8.8 | 149 |
| 1922-1951 | -441.0 | -6.8 | 3.7 | 3.8 | 79 |
| 1951-1978 | -828.8 | -18.0 | 8.6 | -0.7 | 50 |
| 1978-1989 | -1011.8 | -12.2 | 8.8 | -0.7 | 80 |
| 1855-1989 | -487.4 | -6.3 | 4.1 | -0.2 | 76 |

TABLE 44.—Area changes for Chandeleur Island from 1855 to 1989

| Date | Area (ha) | Change (ha) | % Change | Rate (ha/yr) | Projected Date of Disappearance |
|------|-----------|-------------|----------|--------------|---------------------------------|
| 1855 | 2,763 | | | | |
| 1922 | 2,485 | -278 | -10% | -4.1 | 2528 |
| 1922 | 2,485 | | | | |
| 1951 | 2,588 | 103 | 4% | 3.6 | N.A. |
| 1951 | 2,588 | | | | |
| 1978 | 1,796 | -792 | -31% | -28.5 | 2041 |
| 1978 | 1,796 | | | | |
| 1989 | 1,749 | -47 | -3% | -4.5 | 2360 |
| 1989 | 1,749 | | | | |
| 1855 | 2,763 | | | | |
| 1989 | 1,749 | -1,014 | -37% | -7.6 | 2218 |

TABLE 46.—Area Changes of the New Harbor Islands from 1855 to 1989

| Date | Area (ha) | Change (ha) | % Change | Rate (ha/yr) | Projected Date of Disappearance |
|------|-----------|-------------|----------|--------------|---------------------------------|
| 1855 | 72 | | | | |
| 1922 | 94 | 22 | 31% | 0.3 | N.A. |
| 1922 | 94 | | | | |
| 1951 | 70 | -24 | -25% | -0.8 | 2039 |
| 1951 | 70 | | | | |
| 1978 | 63 | -7 | -10% | -0.3 | 2188 |
| 1978 | 63 | | | | |
| 1989 | 75 | 12 | 19% | 1.2 | N.A. |
| 1989 | 75 | | | | |
| 1855 | 72 | | | | |
| 1989 | 75 | 3 | 4% | .02 | N.A. |

TABLE 45.—Area changes of North Islands from 1855 to 1989

| Date | Area (ha) | Change (ha) | % Change | Rate (ha/yr) | Projected Date of Disappearance |
|------|-----------|-------------|----------|--------------|---------------------------------|
| 1855 | 589 | | | | |
| 1922 | 391 | -198 | -34% | -2.9 | 2057 |
| 1922 | 391 | | | | |
| 1951 | 290 | -101 | -26% | -3.9 | 2023 |
| 1951 | 290 | | | | |
| 1978 | 110 | -170 | -61% | -6.1 | 1996 |
| 1978 | 110 | | | | |
| 1989 | 109 | -1 | -1% | -0.1 | 3079 |
| 1989 | 109 | | | | |
| 1855 | 589 | | | | |
| 1989 | 109 | -480 | -81% | -3.6 | 2019 |

TABLE 47.—Area changes of the Freemonson Islands from 1855 to 1989

| Date | Area (ha) | Change (ha) | % Change | Rate (ha/yr) | Projected Date of Disappearance |
|------|-----------|-------------|----------|--------------|---------------------------------|
| 1855 | 218 | | | | |
| 1922 | 100 | -118 | -54% | -1.8 | 1978 |
| 1922 | 100 | | | | |
| 1951 | 52 | -48 | -48% | -1.7 | 1982 |
| 1951 | 52 | | | | |
| 1978 | 21 | -31 | -60% | -1.1 | 1997 |
| 1978 | 21 | | | | |
| 1989 | 12 | -9 | -43% | -0.9 | 2002 |
| 1989 | 12 | | | | |
| 1855 | 218 | | | | |
| 1989 | 12 | -206 | -94% | -1.5 | 1997 |

See page 46 for explanation of numbers.

CLASSIFICATION OF SHORELINE CHANGE

Classification of the distribution and rate of change along Louisiana's barrier shoreline has been compiled and presented in past studies (Morgan and Larimore, 1957; Adams and others, 1978; Penland and Boyd, 1981; Morgan and Morgan, 1983; Dolan and others, 1985; Britsch and Kemp, 1990). These studies, however, were compiled using various methodologies, techniques, time periods, scales, and accuracy standards, which may have led to inconsistencies. Furthermore, they neither use rectified aerial photography nor discuss total potential error in detail. This study differs from previous work because it is based on approximately 880 shore-normal transects derived from digital shorelines compiled from large-scale data sources (1:33,000 or larger) using the most advanced computer mapping technology available. Moreover, temporal data were comprehensive from the 1850's to 1989, providing both long-term and short-term rates of change, and spatial consistency was maintained among data sources (table 48).

Shoreline movement along Louisiana's barrier shoreline was divided into three broad categories based on direction and rate (m/yr) of change: shoreline advance, stability, and retreat (summary map). For this study, the terms advance and retreat were used to describe shoreline movement in contrast to the terms erosion and accretion, which imply volumetric changes. For example, retreating barrier islands can preserve volume when migrating landward (both the gulf and bay shorelines) and therefore, are not eroding but merely migrating.

Based on the adopted classification scheme, the summary map illustrates that the majority of Louisiana's barrier shoreline is suffering from high rates of coastal retreat. The Timbalier Islands section of the Bayou Lafourche barrier shoreline experienced the highest average rate of landward migration. The Plaquemines barrier system, however, experienced the lowest average rate of shoreline change at -5.5 m/yr between 1884 and 1988. Only six small areas had stable or advancing shorelines: the western portions of Timbalier, Grand Terre (Barataria Pass area), and Shell islands; the eastern portion of Grand Isle; the area east of Fontanelle Pass; and the southern portion of Breton Island. These stable or accretionary areas are related to spit processes in conjunction with an adjacent tidal entrance, except the area east of Fontanelle Pass, which is related to the capture of longshore sediment transport by jetties.

CONCLUSIONS

Louisiana's barrier island systems have undergone landward migration, area loss, and island narrowing as a result of a complex interaction among subsidence, sea level rise, wave processes, inadequate sediment supply, and intense human disturbance. Consequently, the structural continuity of the barrier shoreline weakens as the barrier islands narrow, fragment, and finally disappear. In the past 100 years, total barrier island area in Louisiana has declined 55% at a rate of 63 ha/yr. This deterioration will continue to destroy Louisiana's coastline until coastal restoration techniques that complement natural processes are implemented to restore and fortify the shoreline.

The Isles Dernieres barrier system experienced retreat rates along the gulf shoreline that averaged 11.1 m/yr between 1887 and 1988, while the bayside rate of change averaged -0.6 m/yr between 1906 and 1988. Erosion of the gulf and bay shorelines caused island width to narrow from 1,171 m in the 1890's to 375 m in 1988. Consequently, gulf and bay shorelines are converging to cause the core of the barrier island arc to remain essentially stationary through time. Moreover, the area of Isles Dernieres decreased from 3,532 ha in 1890's to 771 ha in 1988, which is a loss of 2,761 ha at a rate of 28.2 ha/yr. The 2,761-ha loss represents a 78 percent decrease in island area since the 1890's. If this rate of loss continues, Isles Dernieres is projected to disappear and evolve into a subaqueous, inner-shelf shoal by the year 2015.

The Timbalier Islands experienced landward migration along the gulf and bay shorelines at average rates of -15.2 m/yr and 11.7 m/yr, respectively. However, Timbalier and East Timbalier islands must be examined separately to provide a more accurate representation of shoreline movement in response to dominant coastal processes. Between 1887 and 1988, the gulf shoreline of Timbalier Island retreated landward at 5.0 m/yr while the bay shoreline migrated seaward at 2.4 m/yr. But more importantly, Timbalier Island migrated laterally by spit processes over 6.5 km to the west. Also, island width narrowed from 1,293 m in 1887 to 415 m in 1988. The area of Timbalier Island decreased from 1,485 ha in 1887 to 542 ha in 1988, which is a loss of 64 percent, or 943 ha, at a rate of 9.3 ha/yr. At this rate, Timbalier Island is not projected to disappear until the year 2046, but short-term rates indicate a more serious problem, with a projected disappearance date by the year 2000. East Timbalier Island experienced the highest gulfside retreat rate (-23.1 m/yr) for any barrier island shoreline, not only in Louisiana but in the county. Correspondingly, the bay shoreline raced landward as well, averaging 24.0 m/yr. Initially, the rapid rate of landward migration of the gulf and bay shorelines was caused

by washover processes, but extensive seawall construction beginning in the late 1950's terminated this process. Interestingly, width and area for East Timbalier Island increased between 1887 and 1988. Average island width increased from 264 to 333 m and area expanded from 193 ha in 1887 to 238 ha in 1988, which is a gain of 23 percent, or 45 ha, at a rate of 0.4 ha/yr.

Caminada-Moreau Headland and Grand Isle experienced shoreline retreat at an average gulfside rate of -7.9 m/yr between 1887 and 1988, while at the same time, the bay shoreline was essentially stable. However, for shoreline change analysis, this coastal segment was further divided into the Caminada-Moreau Headland and Grand Isle. The gulf shoreline of the Caminada-Moreau Headland averaged 13.3 m/yr of shoreline retreat between 1887 and 1988, while the bay shoreline advanced 4.1 m/yr for the same period. In contrast, the average gulfside rate of shoreline change along Grand Isle advanced 0.9 m/yr, while the bay shoreline retreated at an average rate of 1.0 m/yr. The average area of Grand Isle decreased only slightly from 1,059 to 960 ha between 1887 and 1988, which is a loss of only 9 percent at a rate of 1.0 ha/yr. At this rate, Grand Isle is projected to disappear in the year 2948. Average width for Grand Isle also showed stability, remaining constant at approximately 690 m. The eastern end of Grand Isle was the only portion along this barrier shoreline to experience shoreline advance. Beach replenishment probably contributed to Grand Isle's stability over the years.

The Plaquemines barrier system experienced the lowest rate of gulfside retreat, averaging 5.5 m/yr with a bayside rate of 0.4 m/yr between 1884 and 1988. Two islands along the Plaquemines shoreline were examined individually: Grand Terre and Shell. Grand Terre Islands migrated landward along the gulf shoreline at -3.9 m/yr for the period 1884 and 1988, while the bay shoreline migrated seaward at 2.2 m/yr. Therefore, the core of the island was stationary, causing the width to narrow from 909 to 530 m and the area to diminish from 1,699 ha in 1884 to 513 ha in 1988; this is a loss of 70 percent at a rate of 11.4 ha/yr. If this rate of land loss continues, Grand Terre Islands are projected to disappear by the year 2033. Shell Island migrated landward along the gulf shoreline more rapidly than Grand Terre Islands, averaging 6.0 m/yr. But, the bay shoreline also migrated landward at 3.4 m/yr, causing the entire island to migrate landward instead of maintaining a stationary position. The width of Shell Island narrowed from 177 to 122 m between 1884 and 1988 with a similar decrease in area from 127 to 69 ha. This is a loss of 46 percent at a rate of 0.6 ha/yr. If this long-term rate of land loss continues, Shell Island will not disappear until the early twenty-second century. However, the short-term rate loss of 5.0 ha/yr between 1973 and 1988 projects a disappearance date of 2002.

The South Chandealeur Islands underwent the second highest average rate of gulfside retreat between 1869 and 1989 at 11.6 m/yr, with the bay shoreline migrating landward also at a high rate of 10.7 m/yr. During rapid landward migration, average barrier width decreased from 384 to 232 m. Area decreased from 784 to 441 ha, representing a land loss of 44 percent, at a rate of 2.9 ha/yr. Individually, Breton Island migrated landward along the gulf and bay shorelines between 1869 and 1989 at -5.7 and 3.9 m/yr, respectively. Similarly, area was reduced from 332 to 164 ha, which is a 51 percent loss at an average rate of 1.4 ha/yr. For the same period, Grand Gosier and Curlew islands migrated landward at even higher rates along the gulf and bay shorelines at 16.2 and 15.0 m/yr, respectively. Area decreased from 453 to 277 ha, which is a 39 percent loss at an average rate of 1.5 ha/yr. Overall, the South Chandealeur Islands are narrowing as they rapidly migrate landward. This type of migration is similar to East Timbalier and Shell islands.

The North Chandealeur Islands are characterized by an average retreat rate of 6.5 m/yr along the gulf shoreline between 1855 and 1988. The bay shoreline migrated landward also but was twice as slow as the gulf shoreline at 2.9 m/yr. As a result, average island width narrowed by about 50 percent from 941 m in 1855 to 473 m in 1989, with a 37 percent decrease in island area from 2,763 to 1,749 ha. The total loss was 1,014 ha at an average rate of 7.6 ha/yr. Once again, the North Chandealeur Islands display a narrowing trend as they rapidly migrate landward similar to East Timbalier, Shell, and South Chandealeur islands.

Finally, the Louisiana barrier shoreline is dominated by two types of island evolution: *landward rollover* and *in-place breakup*. Landward rollover is dominated by washover processes capable of eroding and transporting sediment from the gulf shoreline, across the barrier island, and depositing this sediment along the bay shoreline; both the gulf and bay shorelines migrate landward. This appears to be associated with barrier islands having sufficient sediment to migrate landward under relative sea level rise (East Timbalier Island, 1887 to 1956; Chandealeur Island). When in-place breakup occurs, sediment is not transported across the entire barrier because there is an inadequate sediment supply and/or the barrier island is too wide to be completely overwashed. Seaward migration along the bayside shoreline occurs in response to wave activity (erosion) and subsidence. This type of evolution is associated with barrier island systems that are rapidly deteriorating and have short life expectancies (Isles Dernieres, Grand Terre Islands). Systems where in-place breakup occurs are the most critical areas of barrier island land loss and need the greatest attention.

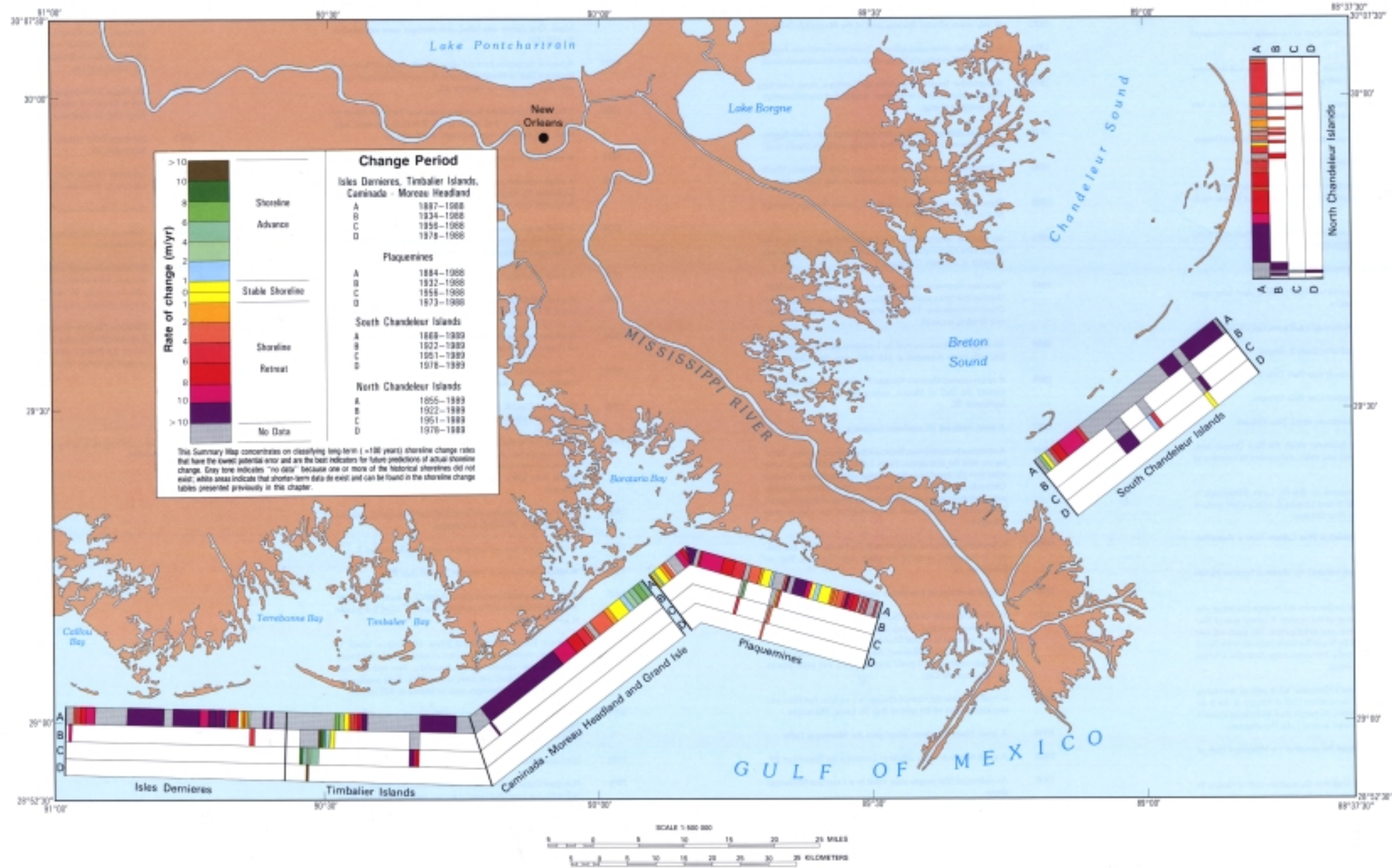
TABLE 48.—Summary of Louisiana's barrier island shoreline change statistics.

| BARRIER SYSTEM | ISLAND/BEACH | GULFSIDE SHORELINE CHANGE RATES (m/yr) | | | | | | ISLAND AREA CHANGE RATES (ha/yr) | | PROJECTED DATE OF DISAPPEARANCE (yr) | | BAYSIDE SHORELINE CHANGE RATES (m/yr) | | | | | | |
|------------------------|---|--|-------|---------------|---------------|-------|---------------|----------------------------------|--------------|--------------------------------------|--------------|---------------------------------------|------|-------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|---------------|
| | | Long Term* | | | Short Term** | | | Long Term* | Short Term** | Long Term* | Short Term** | Long Term* | | | Short Term** | | | |
| | | Avg. | STD | Total Range | Avg. | STD | Total Range | | | | | Avg. | STD | Total Range | Avg. | STD | Total Range | |
| 1. Isles Dernieres | | -11.1 | 5.2 | 3.4 / -23.2 | -19.2 | 12.7 | 6.0 / -64.3 | -28.2 | | 2015 | | -0.6 | 5.8 | 23.5 / -4.9 | -2.7 | 15.5 | 43.4 / -24.3 | |
| | Raccoon | -7.2 | 2.1 | -3.4 / -9.7 | -17.7 | 7.3 | -8.2 / -34.0 | -7.7 | | 1999 | | -2.4 | 0.9 | -1.2 / -4.3 | 2.0 | 16.1 | 31.4 / -21.9 | |
| | Whiskey | -16.3 | 2.6 | -12.9 / -22.0 | -30.1 | 16.3 | -11.6 / -64.3 | -3.7 | | 2042 | | -1.7 | 1.8 | 3.5 / -4.5 | 5.4 | 17.7 | 43.4 / -19.0 | |
| | Trinity | -11.0 | 1.2 | -9.8 / -14.4 | -17.8 | 4.5 | -9.9 / -25.3 | --- | | --- | | -1.6 | 2.3 | 4.0 / -4.6 | -8.4 | 12.5 | 38.4 / -24.3 | |
| | East | -4.8 | 3.9 | 3.4 / -10.7 | -8.7 | 9.5 | 6.0 / -21.0 | --- | | 1998 | | -2.7 | 1.4 | -0.7 / -4.9 | -8.8 | 7.0 | 0.1 / -24.2 | |
| | Wine | -22.9 | 0.4 | -22.5 / -23.2 | --- | --- | --- | -1.5 | | 1995 | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | |
| 2. Bayou Lafourche | Timbalier Islands | | -15.2 | 11.6 | 8.0 / -33.3 | -14.0 | 23.7 | 27.6 / -84.6 | -8.9 | | 2078 | | 11.7 | 15.0 | 32.7 / -14.6 | -7.8 | 24.8 | 52.2 / -122.7 |
| | | Timbalier | -2.4 | 5.9 | 8.0 / -13.0 | -7.0 | 16.5 | 27.6 / -84.0 | -9.3 | | 2046 | | -5.0 | 3.1 | -1.0 / -15.0 | -14.1 | 26.7 | 52.2 / -122.7 |
| | | East Timbalier | -23.1 | 4.4 | -16.3 / -33.3 | -21.2 | 28.7 | 4.6 / -84.6 | 0.4 | | --- | | 1997 | 24.0 | 4.3 | 33.0 / 19.0 | -1.2 | 21.4 |
| | Caminada-Moreau Headland and Grand Isle | | -7.9 | 8.4 | 6.2 / -20.0 | -6.5 | 11.5 | 16.7 / -42.0 | --- | | --- | | -0.1 | 2.4 | 7.0 / -2.8 | -3.0 | 4.3 | 5.5 / -13.0 |
| | | Grand Isle | -13.3 | 5.6 | -2.9 / -20.0 | -13.6 | 7.8 | -2.8 / -42.0 | --- | | --- | | 4.1 | 1.9 | 7.0 / 1.9 | -1.8 | 1.4 | 0.4 / -3.7 |
| 3. Plaquemines | | 0.9 | 3.1 | 6.2 / -3.4 | 5.2 | 5.7 | 16.7 / -3.5 | -1.0 | | 2948 | | -1.0 | 1.3 | 2.8 / -2.8 | -3.2 | 4.6 | 5.5 / -13.0 | |
| | Grand Terre | -5.5 | 4.5 | 1.9 / -15.6 | -9.9 | 11.1 | 14.9 / -70.1 | --- | | --- | | 0.4 | 4.5 | 12.5 / -4.7 | 3.7 | 17.8 | 66.1 / -19.8 | |
| | Shell | -3.9 | 2.5 | 1.9 / -8.2 | -7.9 | 6.5 | 5.9 / -15.6 | -11.4 | | 2033 | | -2.2 | 1.9 | 1.5 / -4.7 | -1.2 | 6.8 | 17.2 / -7.5 | |
| 4. Chandealeur Islands | South Chandealeur Islands | | -10.1 | 2.6 | -2.5 / -12.6 | -24.2 | 17.6 | -3.6 / -70.1 | -0.6 | | 2103 | | 7.9 | 12.0 | 12.5 / 3.4 | 20.6 | 12.4 | 66.1 / -1.1 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | Breton | -11.6 | 6.5 | 5.9 / -21.1 | -19.7 | 15.9 | 6.9 / -41.3 | -2.9 | | 2199 | | 10.7 | 6.9 | 32.6 / -7.7 | 19.8 | 20.8 | 60.1 / -8.9 |
| | | Grand Gosier | -5.7 | 4.7 | 5.9 / -9.2 | -4.1 | 10.2 | 3.8 / -23.7 | -1.4 | | 2106 | | 3.9 | 5.8 | 10.0 / -7.7 | -1.2 | 3.1 | 5.6 / -3.7 |
| | North Chandealeur Islands | Curlew | -16.2 | 3.3 | -6.1 / -21.1 | -23.9 | 14.5 | 6.9 / -41.3 | -1.5 | | 2174 | | 15.0 | 3.9 | 32.6 / 11.1 | 26.8 | 19.4 | 60.1 / -8.9 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | Chandealeur | -6.5 | 4.1 | -0.2 / -17.8 | -12.2 | 6.8 | -3.7 / -27.5 | -7.6 | | 2218 | 2360 | 2.9 | 3.3 | 15.0 / -2.0 | 5.3 | 11.9 | 46.1 / -5.0 |
| | | North | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | -3.6 | | 2019 | 3079 | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| New Harbor | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | 0.0 | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | |
| Freemason | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | -1.5 | | 1997 | 2002 | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | |

* Long Term = Shoreline record covering more than 100 years.
(except long-term island area rate for Whiskey Island - 54 years)

** Short Term = Shoreline record for the last 10 - 15 years.

Summary Map



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Appendix A Louisiana's Hurricane History

| YEAR | STORM | | | | |
|--------|--|------|--|------|--|
| | | 1867 | Galveston, Texas, and western Louisiana were devastated by this storm, but damage to south Louisiana's coastal communities was minor. | 1918 | An extreme storm killed 34 people and did \$5 million in damage to the communities in western Louisiana. |
| 1711 | A major three-day storm was reported in early September just south of Lake Pontchartrain. | | | 1920 | A small September hurricane crossed Louisiana's coast near Last Island. One person was killed, and damages were estimated at \$1,450,000. |
| 1722 | The first recorded great hurricane in Louisiana history occurred in September. | 1872 | A July storm affected the area east of the Mississippi Delta | | |
| 1723 | On September 11 a hurricane struck New Orleans and destroyed nearly all homes and buildings. | 1875 | A September storm came ashore in Texas and turned east through the middle of Louisiana; it had no direct effect on Louisiana's coast. | 1923 | A tropical depression from the eastern Pacific crossed Mexico and became a Gulf of Mexico hurricane. It crossed Louisiana's coast near Isles Dernieres on October 15. |
| 1772 | A storm disrupted shipping along the Mississippi River in late August and early September. | 1877 | A September hurricane paralleled the Louisiana coast from Isles Dernieres to the mouth of the river-a track that caused considerable shoreline change. | 1926 | A hurricane crossed the Louisiana coast near Timbalier Island on August 26 with a 3-m storm surge. Twenty-five people were killed, and damages were estimated at \$4 million. |
| 1776 | A minor storm did minimal damage to the buildings in New Orleans. | 1879 | Making landfall near Vermilion and Atchafalaya bays, a late-August, early-September hurricane did little damage along Louisiana's coast. | 1931 | A small July hurricane did minor damage to Louisiana's coast. |
| 1778 | A storm between October 7-10 destroyed Balize. | 1882 | A September hurricane affected the entire Gulf of Mexico. Winds at Port Eads, Louisiana, were recorded at over 145 km/hr. | 1932 | A small hurricane made landfall at Morgan City, Louisiana, on September 19. Another storm in October along the Louisiana and Mississippi Gulf coasts did minor damage. |
| 1779 | On August 12 a severe storm battered New Orleans and the surrounding region, destroying homes, ships and other human-made features. | 1885 | Three hurricanes brushed Louisiana's coastal margins between August 29 and October 2. | 1934 | A small storm crossed the Louisiana coast near Isles Dernieres on June 16 and was responsible for six deaths and \$2,605,000 in damages at Morgan City, Louisiana. |
| 1780 | An August 24 storm struck the Louisiana coast and sunk every ship anchored in the Mississippi. | 1886 | An October storm struck the Louisiana-Texas border. Fifty people were killed in Cameron Parish, and a 1-m storm surge was recorded at Cheniere Caminada. | 1936 | A small July hurricane did minor damage to Louisiana's coast. |
| 1781 | A mid-August storm passed near New Orleans. | 1887 | Seventeen hurricanes were recorded in the United States in 1887. One October storm made landfall in Louisiana and damaged New Orleans considerably. The city's levees were breached, and extensive flooding occurred. | 1937 | A small September hurricane did minor damage to Louisiana's coast, but dropped 42 cm of precipitation on New Orleans |
| 1793 | A mid-August storm passed near New Orleans, destroying crops and devastating rural areas. | | | 1938 | Hurricane-force winds battered the Louisiana and Texas coasts on August 14. Damage was estimated at \$243,000. |
| 1794 * | A mid-August storm devastated rural areas near New Orleans | 1888 | An August hurricane crossed the Louisiana coast near Vermilion Bay with winds measured at 145 km/hr near New Orleans. | 1939 | An estimated \$1.7 million in damages were assessed from New Orleans east as a result of a September 26 hurricane. |
| 1794 * | A storm struck the Louisiana coast in August. | 1889 | A storm crossed Mexico's Yucatan Peninsula, turned north, and crossed the Gulf of Mexico, nicking the Mississippi Delta on September 22. | 1940 | On August 7 and 8, the Louisiana and Texas coasts were lashed by hurricane winds and a 1-m storm surge. |
| 1800 | A mid-August storm passed near New Orleans | | | 1947 | Over 2.5 m of water flooded New Orleans from a September hurricane that tracked directly over New Orleans. It generated a surge that easily overtopped the region's protective levees. Thirty-five people were killed, and over \$100 million in damages were assessed. |
| 1811 | A mid-August storm passed near New Orleans | 1892 | A small hurricane hit southeast Louisiana. | 1948 | A September 4 hurricane made landfall near Grand Isle, Louisiana recorded nearly \$900,000 in damages. |
| 1812 * | A violent mid-August hurricane struck New Orleans. | 1893 | A storm made landfall near Barataria Bay without warning, allowing no time for evacuation. From 1,000 to 2,000 people were killed from the storm's two-day rampage. Communities at Cheniere Caminada and Grand Isle were hit hard. At least 150 fishing vessels were sunk and numerous shrimp-drying platforms and associated settlements were destroyed. Fort Livingston was also severely damaged. | 1949 | A minor storm crossed Louisiana's coast on September 4. |
| 1812 * | On August 19 a great hurricane struck the New Orleans area, destroyed the city's levees and ships, and resulted in a number of deaths. | 1897 | A September hurricane came through the Florida Keys and took aim at Louisiana, crossing the coast near Vermilion Bay on September 12. | 1954 | A minor storm crossed Vermilion Bay on July 29. |
| 1819 | Although primarily centered on Bay St. Louis, Mississippi, a July storm was also felt in east Louisiana, with a small amount of damage recorded in New Orleans. | 1898 | A small hurricane hit Louisiana's coast. | 1955 | A minor storm killed two people on August 1 along the Louisiana-Mississippi border. Another storm on August 27 killed four people in Louisiana. |
| 1821 | Little damage was recorded in New Orleans from a September storm. | 1900 | Six thousand people died on September 8 when a hurricane inundated Galveston Island, Texas, with a 6-m storm surge. Minimal damage occurred in coastal Louisiana, but the water rose over a meter in 10 minutes at Pilotown. Almost all of New Orleans' east bank was under water. Levees were breached, and water poured into the Crescent City. | 1956 | Hurricane Flossy struck Grand Island and Eugene Island in September, putting over two meters of water outside the levees protecting New Orleans' eastern boundary. Two and one half meters of water flowed over areas of Grand Isle. Eight people were killed, and property damages were estimated at \$22 million. |
| 1822 | In early July, a hurricane battered the shoreline between Mobile and New Orleans. | 1901 | A small hurricane did minimal damage in Louisiana, but there was considerable loss of life east of Bay St. Louis, Mississippi | 1957 | Hurricane Audrey's 4-m storm surge hit the coast near Calcasieu Pass on June 27. Many people refused to evacuate and over 500 died. Property damages were estimated at \$150 million. |
| 1831 | This storm, described as the Barbados to Louisiana Hurricane, was one of the great hurricanes of the century. It moved east of New Orleans, destroying homes and sinking ships. The death toll was estimated at 1,500. On the Isle of Barataria (believed to be Grand Isle) the storm's winds and a 2-m storm surge destroyed a fishing village and killed 150 people. | 1904 | A small November storm swept past the Mississippi Delta. | 1960 | Hurricane Ethel passed near the Mississippi Delta |
| 1837 | A storm called the "Racer's Hurricane" left a path of destruction over 3,000 km long in the northern Gulf of Mexico. In the inundated areas of New Orleans, six people died, and marine interests suffered considerable losses around Lake Pontchartrain. | 1905 | A small hurricane came ashore in Louisiana on September 29. | 1961 | Hurricane Carla, one of the most severe Gulf hurricanes, caused high tides and inundated many of the low-lying communities along Louisiana's coast with from 1-2 m of water. |
| 1846 | A rare April storm battered the mouth of the Mississippi River at Balize. | 1906 | An estimated 350 people were killed in a Louisiana-Mississippi storm. | 1964 | Hurricane Hilda hit Louisiana's coast in late September and early October. Hilda caused considerable damage to offshore and coastal oil installations and generated a surge height of 1.5 m at Grand Isle. The storm caused considerable damage to the beach at Grand Isle and cut through the western end of the island and Cheniere Caminada. |
| 1848 | Three hurricanes made landfall in the northern Gulf of Mexico. In early August, one storm moved up the Mississippi damaging crops, but property losses were apparently minimal. | 1909 | About 350 people died in September when a storm flooded most of the Louisiana coast with wind speeds of over 200 km/hr and a 5-m storm surge at Timbalier Island and the hamlet of Sea Breeze. The community at Manila Village was nearly demolished | | |
| 1855 | A September 15 storm destroyed the Gulf coast from Lake Pontchartrain to Gulf Shores. | 1915 | Two hundred seventy-five people died when a hurricane struck the Mississippi Delta on September 29. In New Orleans, 25,000 structures with an estimated value of \$13 million were damaged or destroyed. A 4-m storm surge was reported. Grand Isle's storm surge was estimated at three meters; nearly the entire island was under water. | | |
| 1856 | On Sunday, August 10, the Isles Dernieres storm decimated Louisiana's coast. The resort community at Isles Dernieres was destroyed, and approximately 400 people died. | 1916 | A small October storm affected the area east of the Mississippi Delta, but did minimal damage | | |
| 1860 | Three hurricanes struck the middle Gulf Coast in late summer and early fall. One of them inundated property adjacent to Lake Pontchartrain and was responsible for 13 deaths. | | | | |
| 1865 | A September storm concentrated its energy between Orange, Texas, and Cameron, Louisiana. | | | | |
| | | | | 1965 | Hurricane Betsy roared into southern Florida and Louisiana on September 8 with winds over 250 km/hr. Grand Isle was inundated with nearly a 3-m surge height. The entire island was covered, and nearly all buildings were swept away, demolished, or severely damaged. In southeast Louisiana, 81 people were killed, 17,600 injured, and 250,000 evacuated. The storm was responsible for over \$1.4 billion in damages within an inundated area that exceeded 1.2 million hectares. |
| | | | | 1969 | On August 17 Hurricane Camille-one of the most violent storms ever to hit the U.S. mainland-killed over 300 people. A 6-m storm surge was recorded near New Orleans. |
| | | | | 1971 | Hurricane Edith crossed the Louisiana coast near Cameron on September 16. |
| | | | | 1974 | Louisiana citizens from Eugene Island to Lake Charles were affected by Hurricane Carmen |
| | | | | 1977 | Hurricane Babe crossed Louisiana's coast near Point-Au-Fer. |
| | | | | 1979 | Hurricane Frederic ravaged southern Alabama, and Hurricane Bob hit Grand Isle. |
| | | | | 1985 | Six hurricanes made landfall in the United States. Danny, Elena, and Juan battered the Louisiana coast. These storms were responsible for at least \$4 billion in property damages. Three million coastal residents were evacuated. |
| | | | | 1988 | Hurricane Florence crossed the Mississippi Delta on September 8 and brought high water to Mississippi. Eight days later, Hurricane Gilbert hit Mexico with 300 km/hr winds. Its waves severely eroded Louisiana's barrier islands. |

* These accounts may refer to the same storm but the historical material is inconclusive.

Appendix B Coastal Erosion and Wetlands Loss Tables

TABLE B1.—Rate of shoreline change for U.S. coastal states and regions [Symbol used: —, no data]

| Region | Mean (m/yr) ¹ | Standard Deviation | Total Range | N ² |
|----------------|--------------------------|--------------------|---------------|----------------|
| Atlantic Coast | -0.8 | 3.2 | 25.5 to 24.8 | 810 |
| Maine | -0.4 | 0.6 | 1.9 to -0.5 | 16 |
| New Hampshire | 0.0 | — | -0.5 to -0.5 | 4 |
| Massachusetts | -0.9 | 1.9 | 4.5 to -4.5 | 40 |
| Rhode Island | -0.5 | 0.1 | -0.3 to -0.7 | 17 |
| New York | 0.1 | 3.0 | 19.0 to -2.2 | 42 |
| New Jersey | -1.0 | 5.4 | 25.5 to -15.0 | 39 |
| Delaware | 0.1 | 2.4 | 5.0 to -2.3 | 7 |
| Maryland | -1.5 | 3.0 | 1.3 to -8.8 | 9 |
| Virginia | -4.2 | 5.5 | 8.9 to -0.6 | 34 |
| North Carolina | -0.6 | 2.1 | 9.4 to -6.0 | 101 |
| South Carolina | -2.0 | 3.8 | 5.9 to -17.7 | 57 |
| Georgia | 0.7 | 2.8 | 5.8 to -4.0 | 31 |
| Florida | -0.1 | 1.2 | 5.0 to -2.9 | 106 |
| Gulf of Mexico | -1.0 | 2.7 | 8.0 to -15.3 | 358 |
| Florida | -0.4 | 1.6 | 8.0 to -4.5 | 118 |
| Alabama | -1.1 | 0.8 | 0.0 to -3.1 | 16 |
| Mississippi | -0.6 | 2.0 | 0.6 to -4.4 | 12 |
| Louisiana | -4.2 | 3.3 | 3.4 to -15.3 | 106 |
| Texas | -1.2 | 1.4 | 0.0 to -5.0 | 106 |
| Pacific Coast | 0.0 | 1.5 | 10.0 to -5.0 | 365 |
| California | -0.1 | 1.3 | 10.0 to -4.2 | 184 |
| Oregon | -0.1 | 1.4 | 5.0 to -5.0 | 86 |
| Washington | -0.5 | 2.2 | 5.0 to -3.9 | 46 |
| Alaska | -2.4 | 2.0 | 2.9 to -6.0 | 69 |

¹Negative values indicate erosion; positive values indicate accretion.
²Total number of 3-minute grid cells over which the statistics are calculated.
(Data from U.S. Geological Survey, 1988.)

TABLE B2.—Distribution of coastal wetlands in the United States [Symbol used: —, data not available]

| Region and State | Wetland Area (hectares) | | | |
|-----------------------|-------------------------|----------------|---------------|------------------|
| | Salt Marsh | Fresh Marsh | Total Pubs | Suweg |
| Northwest | | | | |
| Maine | 6,723 | 10,409 | 25,612 | 10,125 |
| New Hampshire | 3,036 | — | — | — |
| Massachusetts | 18,401 | 8,116 | 10,806 | 10,685 |
| Rhode Island | 3,200 | 0 | 0 | 23,126 |
| Connecticut | 6,723 | — | — | — |
| New York | 10,814 | 1,377 | — | — |
| Pennsylvania | 0 | 324 | 0 | 0 |
| New Jersey | 68,047 | 8,789 | 19,853 | 191,282 |
| Delaware | 31,631 | 2,878 | 4,577 | 48,917 |
| Maryland | 66,258 | 10,388 | 729 | 7,857 |
| Virginia | 61,682 | 8,190 | — | — |
| Subtotal | 207,594 | 48,357 | 65,408 | 292,451 |
| Southeast | | | | |
| North Carolina | 84,314 | 37,280 | — | 853,538 |
| South Carolina | 148,648 | 26,123 | — | — |
| Georgia | 151,582 | 12,758 | 3,848 | 115,830 |
| Florida (Atlantic) | 39,040 | 195,277 | — | 104,896 |
| Subtotal | 404,584 | 231,417 | 3,848 | 1,074,263 |
| Gulf of Mexico | | | | |
| Florida (Gulf) | 174,677 | 31,388 | — | 300,104 |
| Alabama | 5,913 | 4,293 | — | 81,277 |
| Mississippi | 25,620 | 1,820 | — | 30,780 |
| Louisiana | 788,183 | 278,964 | — | 177,068 |
| Texas | 158,112 | 31,874 | — | 16,522 |
| Subtotal | 1,072,685 | 348,139 | 0 | 678,578 |
| West Coast | | | | |
| California | 8,748 | 1,780 | 5,407 | 1,377 |
| Oregon | 7,614 | 2,552 | 10,286 | — |
| Washington | 9,599 | 7,128 | 891 | 11,626 |
| Subtotal | 25,961 | 11,460 | 16,524 | 13,283 |
| Total | 1,889,752 | 826,374 | 85,719 | 2,054,484 |
| (% of total) | (29) | (14) | (2) | (45) |

Data converted to metric units from Alexander and others (1988, p. 8). Sums of some columns or rows may not exactly equal totals shown because of the conversion procedure and subsequent rounding.

TABLE B3.—Distribution of U.S. coastal wetlands in the Gulf of Mexico [Symbol used: —, data not available]

| Region and State | County | Wetland Area (hectares) | | | |
|-----------------------------|------------------|-------------------------|-------------|----------------|------------------|
| | | Salt Marsh | Fresh Marsh | Pubs | Suweg |
| Gulf of Mexico | | | | | |
| Florida | | | | | |
| Bay | 2,893 | 332 | — | 17,358 | 29,373 |
| Charlotte | 4,927 | — | — | 6,628 | 11,765 |
| Citrus | 12,410 | — | — | 8,233 | 18,644 |
| Collier | 16,850 | — | — | 33,188 | 50,852 |
| DeSoto | 9,530 | — | — | 18,988 | 28,596 |
| Escambia | 1,162 | — | — | 5,378 | 6,477 |
| Franklin | 8,370 | 908 | — | 58,602 | 67,842 |
| Gulf | 296 | 2,652 | — | 47,998 | 50,917 |
| Hernando | 4,584 | — | — | 9,704 | 14,349 |
| Hillsborough | 989 | 233 | — | 3,740 | 4,966 |
| Jefferson | 1,048 | — | — | 7,363 | 8,211 |
| Lee | 5,151 | — | — | 17,485 | 23,236 |
| Levy | 15,081 | 85 | — | 5,319 | 21,285 |
| Manatee | 438 | 111 | — | 2,415 | 2,964 |
| Monroe | 64,613 | 35,364 | — | 89,885 | 189,812 |
| Okaloosa | 264 | — | — | 10,881 | 11,145 |
| Pasco | 1,901 | — | — | 1,347 | 2,648 |
| Pinellas | — | — | — | 2,421 | 2,421 |
| Santa Rosa | 3,217 | 18 | — | 16,099 | 19,333 |
| Seminole | 362 | — | — | 388 | 743 |
| Taylor | 9,685 | — | — | 18,628 | 28,312 |
| Walkeila | 7,335 | 723 | — | 3,455 | 12,714 |
| Walton | 1,488 | — | — | 12,665 | 14,353 |
| Subtotal | 174,983 | 37,308 | 0 | 300,130 | 589,190 |
| Alabama | | | | | |
| Baldwin | 1,601 | 2,899 | — | 42,489 | 46,940 |
| Mobile | 4,328 | 1,430 | — | 15,785 | 24,543 |
| Subtotal | 5,929 | 4,329 | 0 | 61,275 | 71,483 |
| Mississippi | | | | | |
| Hancock | 8,918 | 808 | — | 7,280 | 16,886 |
| Harrison | 3,248 | 203 | — | 2,228 | 5,679 |
| Jackson | 13,779 | 810 | — | 21,283 | 35,843 |
| Subtotal | 25,945 | 1,820 | 0 | 30,791 | 58,328 |
| Louisiana | | | | | |
| Assumption | 0 | 0 | — | 0 | 0 |
| Cameron | 147,070 | 115,138 | — | 83 | 282,281 |
| Iberville | 37,483 | 4,253 | — | 2,228 | 43,943 |
| Jefferson | 28,553 | 7,493 | — | 11,543 | 47,589 |
| Lafourche | 86,063 | 9,518 | — | 6,885 | 102,466 |
| Livingston | 0 | 0 | — | 608 | 608 |
| Orleans | 17,418 | 808 | — | 3,240 | 21,283 |
| Plaquemines | 117,048 | 18,435 | — | 10,125 | 145,588 |
| St. Bernard | 86,879 | 0 | — | 4,890 | 91,769 |
| St. Charles | 8,138 | 6,885 | — | 7,280 | 22,279 |
| St. James | 0 | 0 | — | 17,415 | 17,415 |
| St. John Bapt. | 2,030 | 1,820 | — | 25,716 | 29,570 |
| St. Mary | 7,898 | 39,885 | — | 36,885 | 82,658 |
| St. Tammany | 12,900 | 5,485 | — | 6,382 | 24,770 |
| Terrebonne | 9 | 9,885 | — | 22,275 | 27,358 |
| Tensas | 121,896 | 63,383 | — | 17,820 | 202,298 |
| Washington | 35,833 | 1,820 | — | 2,833 | 38,486 |
| Subtotal | 708,197 | 278,862 | 0 | 177,988 | 1,164,227 |
| Texas | | | | | |
| Aransas | 3,829 | 1,814 | — | — | 5,443 |
| Brewster | 17,707 | 2,333 | — | 1,296 | 20,736 |
| Cameron | 9,331 | 6,221 | — | — | 15,552 |
| Chambers | 25,142 | — | — | 259 | 25,402 |
| Galveston | 17,885 | — | — | — | 17,885 |
| Harris | 778 | 58 | — | 4,688 | 5,702 |
| Jackson | 1,286 | 1,286 | — | — | 2,990 |
| Jefferson | 54,881 | 4,438 | — | 1,555 | 60,853 |
| Kleberg | — | 4,088 | — | — | 4,666 |
| Matagorda | 13,219 | 1,037 | — | 778 | 15,034 |
| Nueces | — | 1,037 | — | — | 1,837 |
| Orange | 10,988 | 3,629 | — | 7,258 | 21,294 |
| Refugio | 1,588 | 1,588 | — | — | 3,710 |
| San Patricio | 2,333 | 2,333 | — | — | 4,895 |
| Victoria | 778 | 1,037 | — | — | 2,333 |
| Subtotal | 158,112 | 31,874 | 0 | 16,522 | 206,323 |
| Total Gulf of Mexico | 1,872,829 | 348,140 | 0 | 678,583 | 2,899,552 |

Data converted to metric units from Alexander and others (1988, p. 84). Sums of some columns or rows may not exactly equal totals shown because of the conversion procedure and subsequent rounding.

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Appendix A

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CONVERSION FACTORS

Measurements appearing in the text of the Atlas are generally given in metric units. Many of the illustrations and tables in the Atlas, however, are reprinted or only somewhat modified (with permission) from other published sources, some of which are copyrighted; therefore measurements in the cited material are presented in their original form. The following conversion table is provided to aid the reader in making conversions from metric to U.S. customary units and from U.S. customary to metric, as needed.

| U.S. customary to metric units | | |
|---|--------|---|
| Multiply | By | To obtain |
| inch (in) | 2.54 | centimeter (cm) |
| foot (ft) | 0.3048 | meter (m) |
| yard (yd) | 0.9144 | meter (m) |
| mile (mi) | 1.609 | kilometer (km) |
| square mile (sq mi or mi ²) | 2.59 | square kilometers (sq km or km ²) |
| acre | 4.047 | square meter (sq m or m ²) |
| square foot (ft ²) | 0.0929 | square meter (sq m) (30=10,000 m ²) |
| ton | 0.9072 | metric tonne (t) (3=1,000 kg) |
| quart (qt) | 0.9464 | liter (L) |
| gallon (gal) | 3.785 | liter (L) |
| barrel (bu) | 35.238 | liter (L) |
| degree Fahrenheit (°F) | (°) | degree Celsius (°C) |

| Metric to U.S. customary units | | |
|--|--------|---|
| centimeter (cm) | 0.3937 | inch (in) |
| meter (m) | 3.28 | foot (ft) |
| meter (m) | 1.094 | yard (yd) |
| kilometer (km) | 0.6214 | mile (mi) |
| square kilometer (sq km or km ²) | 0.3861 | square mile (sq mi or mi ²) |
| square meter (sq m or m ²) | 10.764 | square foot (sq ft or ft ²) |
| hectare (ha) (30= 10,000 m ²) | 0.4047 | acre (a) |
| metric tonne (t) | 1.102 | ton |
| liter (L) | 1.057 | quart (qt) |
| liter (L) | 0.264 | gallon (gal) |
| liter (L) | 0.204 | barrel (bu) |
| degree Celsius (°C) | (°) | degree Fahrenheit (°F) |

¹ Temp °F=1.8 K-459.67 ² Temp °F=1.8 temp+32