

# Impacts of Hurricane Mathew on adjacent developed and undeveloped barrier islands in southeastern North Carolina

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## Impacts of Hurricane Matthew on adjacent developed and undeveloped barrier islands in southeastern North Carolina

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1 **Impacts of Hurricane Matthew on adjacent developed**  
2 **and undeveloped barrier islands in southeastern**  
3 **North Carolina**

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12  
13 **Abstract:** High-magnitude storms such as hurricanes can cause significant and potentially long-  
14 lasting morphological coastal change, particularly along low-lying barrier islands. This study  
15 investigated the impacts of Hurricane Matthew (2016) on neighboring undeveloped Masonboro  
16 Island reserve and engineered/nourished Wrightsville Beach barrier islands, located in southeast  
17 North Carolina. Using a combination of high-resolution pre- and post-storm RTK-GPS beach surveys,  
18 coupled with direct observations, storm surge calculations and aerial imagery, a range of contrasting  
19 storm-induced coastal changes and impact regimes were identified across the two adjacent barriers.  
20 Storm impacts were especially pronounced across low-lying undeveloped central/southern  
21 Masonboro Island, which was dominated by significant overwash processes, leading to landward  
22 directed barrier crest migration. In contrast, only short-lived and minor collision with the base was  
23 observed at Wrightsville Beach, where storm impacts were dominated by a swash storm regime

24 resulting in significant beach erosion. Field- and aerial based observations match well with modeled  
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2  
3 25 storm surge height calculations. This study offers a real-time example of how geomorphologically  
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5 26 different neighboring islands respond to specific storm events, and how storm impact regime type  
6  
7 27 and duration helps explain differences in barrier responses. Similar storm impacts are likely at other  
8  
9  
10 28 locations with comparable barrier island settings and differing coastal management approaches.

11  
12  
13 29 **Keywords:** storms; overwash; coastal erosion; RTK-GPS; beach profiles; frontal dunes, NERRS  
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## 20 21 22 32 1. Introduction

23  
24 33 High-magnitude storms such as hurricanes are known to cause significant impacts on low-lying coastal  
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27 34 regions (Hayes, 2005). Impacts can range from minor swash-induced beach erosion to complete  
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29 35 inundation and potential disintegration of entire barrier island systems (Sallenger, 2000). The severity  
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31  
32 36 of coastal storm impacts is most often determined by the magnitude of the event, especially significant  
33  
34 37 wave heights ( $H_s$ ) and storm surge levels (Fritz *et al.*, 2007) and its interaction with the morphology of  
35  
36 38 the coastal barrier (Sallenger, 2000). Coastal geomorphology, shoreline orientation and storm  
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38  
39 39 trajectories, in addition to local characteristics like sand supply, beach width and underlying geology,  
40  
41 40 also undoubtedly play an important role in explaining site-specific, storm-induced coastal changes  
42  
43 41 (Orford and Carter, 1982; Riggs *et al.*, 1995; Theiler *et al.*, 1995; Backstrom *et al.*, 2008; Long *et al.*, 2014;  
44  
45 42 Backstrom *et al.*, 2015; Hapke *et al.*, 2016).

46  
47  
48 43 There are numerous studies of hurricane-induced coastal impacts on developed and undeveloped  
49  
50 44 barrier islands. Some examples include the coasts of Louisiana (e.g. Stone *et al.*, 1997), Florida (Wang  
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52  
53 45 *et al.*, 2020; Bacopoulos and Clark, 2020) and the northeast coast of the United States (Williams, 2015).  
54  
55 46 Several studies have also shown how differing coastal management strategies influence the  
56  
57  
58 47 morphologic evolution of adjacent barrier islands, e.g. along the Gulf coast of Florida (Elko and Davis,  
59  
60 48 2004), Ocean City/Assateague Island in Maryland (McNamara and Werner, 2008), Florida (Bacopoulos  
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49 and Clark, 2020) and even locally along southeast North Carolina (USACE, 2000; White and Wang,  
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2  
3 50 2003). These studies tend to show higher retreat rates for undeveloped barrier islands compared to  
4  
5 51 developed ones, especially those which are periodically renourished.

7 52 Hurricane Matthew was one of the strongest Atlantic hurricanes of the 2016 season, causing  
8  
9 53 significant coastal devastation across the Caribbean and the southeast coast of the United States, before  
10  
11 54 eventually making landfall near the North Carolina/South Carolina border as a Category 1 hurricane.  
12  
13 55 The main objective of this study was to examine and compare the direct coastal impacts of Hurricane  
14  
15 56 Matthew on two adjacent barrier islands near Wilmington, North Carolina; Wrightsville Beach, which  
16  
17 57 is developed and periodically re-nourished and adjacent Masonboro Island, an undeveloped and  
18  
19 58 protected natural reserve. The geomorphological differences, contrasting coastal management  
20  
21 59 approaches and bordering nature of the two islands make this an important study to understand site-  
22  
23 60 specific storm responses between neighboring developed and undeveloped barrier islands.  
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## 31 62 **2. Study Area**

### 33 63 **2.1 Regional Geologic and Oceanographic Setting**

36 64 Wrightsville Beach and Masonboro Island are located along the high-energy, southwest flank of  
37  
38 65 Onslow Bay, North Carolina (Figure 1). This moderate to high-energy embayment is dominated by a  
39  
40 66 series of north-south orientated transgressive barrier islands separated by tidal inlets. The barrier  
41  
42 67 islands are mostly low-lying and narrow, with the landward side often bordering marsh-filled lagoons.  
43  
44 68 The coastal and shoreface sections are underlain by Late Cretaceous to Pleistocene aged units,  
45  
46 69 comprising a mix of Oligocene siltstone, Plio-Pleistocene limestones and late Pleistocene *Coquina*  
47  
48 70 outcrops (Snyder *et al.*, 1994). The southern part of Onslow Bay is relatively sediment poor, with  
49  
50 71 numerous offshore rock outcrops or 'hard bottoms' which are prevalent in the region (Cleary *et al.*,  
51  
52 72 1996). The sandy barrier beaches are primarily composed of a combination of fine to medium quartz  
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73 sand and carbonate shells and gravels, although larger limestone and siltstone lithoclasts are also  
74 deposited on the beach, especially after storm events.

75 Regional sediment transport is predominantly from north to south, although some northward  
76 driven longshore transport does occur during the summer months and episodic nor'easters in the  
77 winter. The numerous tidal inlets often trap the dominant southward moving sediment, resulting in  
78 wide accumulations of sand on either side of the inlets, depending on ebb channel orientation and the  
79 location of the offshore delta.

80 The southeast coast of North Carolina lies in the direct path of Atlantic tropical cyclones and  
81 nor'easters. Some notable hurricanes which have directly impacted the region include Hazel (Cat 4,  
82 1954), Bertha (Cat 2, 1996), Fran (Cat 3, 1996), Floyd (Cat 2, 1999) and Matthew (Cat 1, 2016). More  
83 recently, the region has also been impacted by hurricanes Florence (Cat 1, 2018), Dorian (Cat 2, 2019)  
84 and Isaias (Cat 1, 2020).

85 Average significant wave heights and dominant wave periods, based on 10 years of local wave  
86 buoy observations ([www.CORMP.org/ILM2](http://www.CORMP.org/ILM2)), are 0.93 m and 7.7 s, respectively. Storm-driven  
87 significant wave heights can reach 5.0 m, with up to 18-20 s peak wave periods. According to NOAA  
88 tide station #8658163, located in Wrightsville Beach, this part of Onslow Bay is microtidal, with a mean  
89 tidal range of 1.2 m.

90

## 91 **2.2 Wrightsville Beach (Island) and Masonboro Island**

92 Wrightsville Beach is a 7.5 km long by approximately 500 m wide, well-developed barrier island  
93 located in southeast North Carolina (Figure 1). Wrightsville Beach is arguably one of the most  
94 engineered beaches in the USA in terms of sand placement, with the first nourishment taking place as  
95 early as 1965 (USACE, 2019). This initial project was followed by 1.1 million m<sup>3</sup> (1.4 million yd<sup>3</sup>) of  
96 sand placement in 1970 and complete restoration in 1980/1981. The Water Resources Development

1 97 Act of 1986 extended the beach nourishment for 50 years through 2036, with a 4-year recurring cycle.  
2  
3  
4 98 To date, eight projects have been completed since 1986, with an average of 600,000 m<sup>3</sup> (780,000 yd<sup>3</sup>)  
5  
6 99 per nourishment (USACE, 2019), for a cumulative volume of 9.7 million m<sup>3</sup> (12.7 million yd<sup>3</sup>) since  
7  
8  
9  
10 100 1965. The most recent beach nourishment took place in the spring of 2018, with the placement of  
11  
12 101 approximately 651,000 m<sup>3</sup> (852,000 yd<sup>3</sup>) of sand across the central reaches of the island (pers. com  
13  
14  
15 102 Stephen Fabian, USACE). Initially, sand for beach nourishment was dredged from the adjacent Banks  
16  
17  
18 103 Channel; however, since 1981 it has been obtained from Masonboro Inlet, a dual jettied inlet system  
19  
20  
21 104 which forms Wrightsville Beach's southern boundary and which separates it from Masonboro Island  
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23  
24 105 (Figure 1).

25  
26  
27 106 Beach nourishment has resulted in overall long-term accretion for Wrightsville Beach, with rates  
28  
29 107 of about +0.5 to +2.0 meters per year (NCDCM, 2019). Wrightsville Beach is flanked to the north by  
30  
31  
32 108 Mason Inlet, a small rapidly migrating tidal inlet system which was artificially relocated (and  
33  
34 109 stabilized) approximately one kilometer to the north in 2002 (Cleary and Fitzgerald, 2003). The far north  
35  
36 110 end of Wrightsville Beach is classified as an Inlet Hazard Area (IHA) due to the unpredictable nature  
37  
38  
39 111 of sediment transport processes associated with Mason Inlet.

40  
41 112 Maximum elevations along Wrightsville Beach are close to 5.4 m. The northern and southern parts of  
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43  
44 113 the island have wide, vegetated dune systems and are protected as bird-nesting sanctuaries. The central  
45  
46 114 part of the island is fully developed, comprising a mix of single-family homes, motels, hotels and  
47  
48 115 commercial developments. This study focused on the northern, central and southern sections of  
49  
50  
51 116 Wrightsville Beach, corresponding to WB01, WB02 and WB03 respectively, from north to south (Figure  
52  
53 117 1).

54  
55  
56 118 Masonboro Island is a 13 km long, low-lying, narrow and undeveloped barrier-island located just south  
57  
58 119 of Wrightsville Beach (Figure 1). Masonboro is one of 29 protected coastal sites that forms part of the  
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120 National Estuarine Research Reserve System (NERRS), a network of coastal sites 'designated to protect  
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2  
3 121 and study estuarine systems.' Established *via* the Coastal Zone Management Act, the reserves comprise  
4  
5 122 a partnership program between NOAA and the respective coastal states. The four main management  
6  
7 123 priorities of the reserve system are: stewardship, research, training and education. Development is  
8  
9  
10 124 strictly prohibited and other anthropogenic activities are strongly regulated.

11  
12 125 The far northern and southern ends of the island have only been nourished a few times with minimal  
13  
14 126 volumes of sand, as part of adjacent inlet maintenance projects, and not nearly to the same extent as  
15  
16 127 Wrightsville Beach to the north. Masonboro Island is separated in the south from Carolina Beach Inlet,  
17  
18 128 which forms the northern boundary of Carolina Beach, which is also well-developed and periodically  
19  
20  
21 129 re-nourished. Maximum elevations across Masonboro Island range from approximately 5.0 m in the  
22  
23  
24 130 north (associated with the northern jetty inlet fillet) to near 2.5 m along the central and southern parts  
25  
26 131 of the island, which form the focus of this work. Dune erosion, overwash processes, barrier breaching  
27  
28 132 and washover are a common occurrence on Masonboro Island, especially during storm-induced  
29  
30  
31 133 inundation and surge events (Cleary and Hosier, 1979; Cleary *et al.*, 1993; Doughty *et al.*, 2006). Most  
32  
33 134 beach sediments are composed of a combination fine-grained, reworked residual quartz and/or fine- to  
34  
35  
36 135 coarse-grained carbonate clasts, derived from bio-erosion of offshore hard bottom reefs, which are  
37  
38 136 prevalent along the shoreface and further offshore (Cleary and Pilkey, 1968; Riggs *et al.*, 1995). Average  
39  
40  
41 137 annual beach erosion rates are high, reaching up to 10 m/year in some locations (Cleary and Hosier,  
42  
43 138 1979; Doughty *et al.*, 2006; NCDRCM, 2019). According to the North Carolina Department of Coastal  
44  
45 139 Management (NCDRCM, 2019) the northern 300 m of Masonboro Island, situated in the lee of the jetty,  
46  
47  
48 140 is stable to accreting. However, the rest of the island is eroding rapidly, with rates ranging from about  
49  
50 141 1-3 m / year, increasing southwards. The far south end of Masonboro Island, also classified as an Inlet  
51  
52 142 Hazard Area associated with Carolina Beach Inlet, has erosion rates as high as 10 m/year based on long-  
53  
54  
55 143 term comparisons from 1933 (NCDRCM, 2019). This study examined three locations on Masonboro  
56  
57 144 Island, corresponding to central MB01 & MB02 and southern MB03, from north to south, respectively  
58  
59 145 (Figure 1).  
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1 146 **Insert Figure 1 and caption**

2  
3 147 **2.3 Hurricane Matthew**

4  
5 148 Hurricane Matthew initially formed as a tropical storm off the coast of Barbados on Sep 29th, 2016. By  
6  
7  
8 149 October 1<sup>st</sup> it had reached peak Category 5 status, with a minimum central pressure of 940mb and  
9  
10 150 sustained winds of 71.5 m/s (160 mph) as it skirted off the northeast coast of Venezuela (Figure 2). It  
11  
12 151 maintained Category 4 status as it turned north and made its way across Haiti and Cuba, before  
13  
14 152 reaching the Bahamas as a Category 3 hurricane. Matthew maintained major hurricane status as it  
15  
16 153 moved northward along and just offshore the Florida coast before finally making landfall on October  
17  
18 154 8<sup>th</sup> near McClellanville, South Carolina as a Category 1 storm with 33.5 m/s (75 mph) winds (Figure 2).  
19  
20 155 It crossed into the south coast of North Carolina later on the same day, maintaining Category 1 status  
21  
22 156 and 33.5 m/s (75 mph) winds before finally exiting into the North Atlantic as a post-tropical storm on  
23  
24 157 Oct 8<sup>th</sup>.  
25  
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29 158

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32 159 **Insert Figure 2 and caption**

33  
34  
35  
36 160 **2.3.1 Hurricane Matthew - Meteorological and Oceanographic Data**

37  
38  
39 161 Local continuously recorded meteorological and oceanographic data were obtained from the ILM2  
40  
41 162 offshore wave and weather buoy, operated by the Coastal Ocean Research Monitoring Program  
42  
43 163 ([www.CORMP.org/ILM2](http://www.CORMP.org/ILM2)) at UNC-Wilmington. The buoy is located approximately 10 km east and  
44  
45 164 offshore of Masonboro Island, in 15.2 m water depths. Peak significant wave heights ( $H_s$ ) measured at  
46  
47 165 ILM2 during Matthew reached 4.97 m (Figure 3), with corresponding wave periods of 11 s on the  
48  
49 166 morning of October 8<sup>th</sup>. It is important to point out that the wave heights from Matthew were the largest  
50  
51 167 recorded by the local buoy since the station became operational in 2008, making it the most significant  
52  
53 168 storm in well over a decade to impact this part of North Carolina. Wave periods ranged from a  
54  
55  
56  
57 169 minimum of 4 s, when the eye was located closest to the study area, to a maximum of 15 s as the storm  
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170 moved away from the North Carolina coast. At the height of the storm, local maximum recorded wind  
171 speeds were 22 m/s (49 mph), switching from the south to the north as the center of the storm crossed  
172 the southern North Carolina coast, with barometric pressure dropping to 985 mb at the peak of the  
173 storm (Figure 3).

174  
175 **Insert Figure 3 and caption**  
176

177 Local storm surge and tide data, comprising part of regional southeast Hurricane Matthew storm  
178 investigations undertaken by the US Geological Survey (USGS), were also available for this study.  
179 Maximum storm surge measured at the Wrightsville Beach NOAA tide gauge reached 1.34 m  
180 above NAVD 88, and peak storm-tide high-water marks measured by the USGS, which reflected  
181 the combined storm-surge and wave forcing, reached 3.35 m at Wrightsville Beach  
182 (NCNEW18014) and 4.18 m further south at Carolina Beach (NCNEW18339) on October 8th  
183 (Frantz *et al.*, 2016). Due to the undeveloped nature and difficulty of accessing Masonboro Island,  
184 no site-specific storm high-water mark observations were available. However, it is reasonable to  
185 assume similar peak storm water levels between 3.5 and 4 meters across Masonboro Island at the  
186 height of the storm.

187

### 188 3. Data Sources and Methods

189 High-resolution pre- and post-storm site visits to Wrightsville Beach and Masonboro Island were  
190 undertaken on Sep 29<sup>th</sup>/Oct 2<sup>nd</sup> and Oct 10<sup>th</sup>/14<sup>th</sup> respectively, approximately one week before and one  
191 week after Hurricane Matthew made landfall. The ability to capture high-resolution beach profiles

192 within a few days before and after the storm provided an excellent dataset with which to evaluate the  
193 direct morphological impacts from the category 1 hurricane.

194 Cross-shore beach elevation surveys were recorded at six separate beach locations, representing  
195 northern (WB01), central (WB02) and southern (WB03) parts of Wrightsville Beach and central (MB01  
196 & MB02) and southern (MB03) sections of Masonboro Island (refer to Figure 1). Elevation data were  
197 measured at low tide using a high-resolution Trimble R10 series real-time kinematic (RTK)-GPS survey  
198 system, with position and elevation accuracies of approximately  $\pm 2 - 5$  centimeters. The RTK surveys  
199 were set on 'continuous topo' mode, with elevation data collected every 2.0 meters along the profiles.  
200 Post-storm transects were surveyed by occupying the same pre-storm profile locations, resulting in  
201 spatially accurate and comparable pre- and post-storm transects. For Wrightsville Beach, the surveyed  
202 profiles extended from approximately the low water line, across the berm, and as far as the dune base  
203 (extended dune and back barrier topography of the profiles, presented in Figure 5, was obtained from  
204 a 2016 USACE Lidar survey and merged with the RTK-GPS data). The profiles for Masonboro Island  
205 extended across the entire width of the island, from approximately low tide as far landward as the  
206 back-barrier lagoon. A total of five parallel survey lines, with 25 m line spacing and up to 120 m in  
207 length, were collected for each of the six representative beach locations. Real-time corrections for the  
208 RTK-GPS were obtained from a nearby Continuously Operating Reference Station (CORS at  
209 <https://geodesy.noaa.gov/CORS/>), a network of stations operated by the US National Geodetic Survey.  
210 All beach elevation data were collected in NC State Plane (meters), relative to NAVD 88. Site visits also  
211 included over 100 pre- and post-storm GPS-enabled digital photos, capturing direct impacts of the  
212 storm shortly before and after landfall at all six locations. The profiles and photographs were  
213 complemented with high-resolution post-storm aerial photography collected by NOAA's Remote  
214 Sensing Division 'to support NOAA national security and emergency response requirements.'

215 An assessment of storm-response was based on Sallenger's (2000) Storm Impact Scale.  
216 Characterization and computing of the hydrodynamic forcing was performed by adopting: i) real-time  
217 water level data collected at NOAA's tide gauge, located off Wrightsville Beach and ii) wave data

218 obtained from the CORMP ILM2 offshore wave buoy. Based on the time series of wave height and  
219 water level, maximum water levels were calculated for the period between the 7<sup>th</sup> and the 10<sup>th</sup> of  
220 October, with extreme runup ( $R_2$ ) computed according to Stockdon et al (2006). Computations were  
221 performed from the continuous offshore ILM2 deep water wave measurements using standard linear  
222 wave theory. Beach face slope was obtained for each of the six pre-storm RTK survey locations at both  
223 barrier islands.

224

## 225 4. Results

226 The high-resolution monitoring of pre-storm and post-storm morphological changes across  
227 Wrightsville Beach and Masonboro Island enabled a detailed characterization of storm impacts and  
228 an identification of the primary morphodynamic mechanisms of storm-induced erosion. Overall,  
229 despite the close proximity of the study sites, Hurricane Matthew induced significantly different  
230 responses at each barrier island. Wrightsville Beach was subjected to only minor impacts to the dune  
231 and beach berm, while at Masonboro Island erosion was widespread and impacted the entire barrier,  
232 from the beach face to the backbarrier margin. The results for each study area and profile are  
233 presented in the following sections, detailing the dominant morphological changes observed visually  
234 during the field surveys and quantified through the barrier profile measurements and computed  
235 hydrodynamic forcing.

236

### 237 4.1 Wrightsville Beach

238 In terms of main impacts caused by Hurricane Matthew in Wrightsville Beach, the results from the  
239 monitoring program indicate that these were mostly limited to: i) minor dune erosion and scarping and

1 240 ii) berm removal and profile straightening. These were relatively consistent along the three sections  
2 surveyed, as outlined in Figures 4 and 5.  
3

#### 4 242 4.1.1 North Wrightsville Beach WB01

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9 243 WB01 comprises the old location of Mason Inlet, situated within a defined Inlet Hazard Area. At the  
10  
11 244 time of the pre-storm survey visit, the forebeach was wide and relatively flat, backed by a

12  
13  
14 245 discontinuous and low elevation frontal dune ridge with moderate to low vegetation cover (Figure

15  
16 246 4A). A post-storm site visit on October 13<sup>th</sup> showed that storm-induced surge only reached as far as

17  
18  
19 247 the base of the frontal dunes, resulting in minor erosion and scarping, coupled with vegetation loss

20  
21 248 and/or burial from sediment deposition (Figure 4B). There was no evidence of dune breaching,

22  
23 249 channelization or overwash at the site which is consistent with extreme water levels computed for

24  
25  
26 250 this profile which indicate that only swash and collision impacts were likely to be observed (Figure 5).

27  
28 251 Although collision with the dune was computed based on the combination of morphological and

29  
30 252 hydrodynamic data, i) the prevalence of a short duration collision regime and ii) the maximum

31  
32 253 extreme water level ( $R_{High}$ ) only exceeded the base of the dune by a few centimeters (Table 1),

33  
34  
35 254 supports the negligible storm impacts on the dune but consistent erosion of the beach under a swash

36  
37  
38 255 storm impact regime in WB01.

39  
40  
41 256 Pre-storm beach profile RTK data showed a near-horizontal to convex profile shape, with a low-relief

42  
43 257 30 m wide berm extending from the frontal dunes, and maximum and minimum elevations of 1.77 m

44  
45  
46 258 and -0.10 m (NAVD 88), respectively (Figure 5). Post-storm RTK profiles showed moderate erosion

47  
48 259 across most of the beach, with the beach changing from an accretional convex to erosional concave

49  
50  
51 260 profile shape, attributed to the removal of the pre-storm berm under a swash impact regime. The

52  
53 261 seaward and landward margins of the beach had minimal post-storm change (Figure 5).

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1 263 **Insert Figure 4 and caption**

2  
3  
4 264 **Insert Figure 5 and caption**

5  
6 265

7  
8 266 4.1.2. Central Wrightsville Beach WB02

9  
10 267 WB02 is located along the central part of the island, where mostly single-family or multi-story homes  
11  
12  
13 268 are located. Pre-storm observations showed a wide, almost horizontal berm that dropped steeply  
14  
15 269 towards the water near the high-tide line (Figure 4C). Post-storm observations revealed a much  
16  
17 270 steeper beach across the length of the profile, in addition to storm-induced deposition of shell gravel  
18  
19  
20 271 onto the beach (Figure 4D). The previously wide, flat berm was eroded. There was no evidence of  
21  
22 272 dune erosion or scarping at the landward margin; instead fine-grained sand was deposited in the  
23  
24  
25 273 backshore region, near the base of the dunes. Similar to WB01, while the computed storm impact  
26  
27 274 parameters indicate minimal occurrence of a collision regime, this was short lived (Table 1). Although  
28  
29 275 extreme water levels exceeded the base of the dune at WB02 (Figure 5), the post-storm beach profile  
30  
31  
32 276 suggests that the impact of the storm at the dune base was accretional rather than erosional. A  
33  
34 277 comparison of pre- and post-storm RTK profiles confirmed significant berm erosion, profile  
35  
36 278 straightening and steepening (Figure 5), which are consistent with the long duration of the swash  
37  
38  
39 279 storm impact regime (Table 1). The maximum storm-induced vertical erosion was close to 1.0 m at the  
40  
41 280 seaward cusp of the berm. The morphological changes observed also support some backshore and  
42  
43  
44 281 intertidal accretion, with the material likely derived from erosion of the pre-existing berm.

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46 282

47  
48 283 4.1.3 Southern Wrightsville Beach WB03

49  
50 284 This location is adjacent to Oceanic Pier and situated just north of the undeveloped bird sanctuary  
51  
52  
53 285 which comprises the southern part of Wrightsville Beach. The post-storm survey revealed no obvious  
54  
55  
56 286 dune impacts at this southern location (Figures 4E and 4F). Extreme water levels did not exceed the  
57  
58 287 base of the frontal dunes, as shown by the lack of storm debris (wrack) and no visible dune erosion or  
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288 scarping. Survey and visual observations are supported by computed storm impact regimes, since  
289 only swash regime was estimated for this section of Wrightsville Beach (Table 1).  
290 Pre- and post-storm beach profiles comparisons confirmed minimal storm-induced change (Figure 5),  
291 especially compared to WB01 and WB02 further north. Maximum vertical erosion was ~60 cm near  
292 the central part of the beach, resulting in a slightly more concave-shaped beach after the storm. There  
293 was no change along the backshore or dune base, confirming that extreme water levels ( $R_{High}$ ) did not  
294 extend as far up the beach. The eroded berm material may have been transported seaward and  
295 redistributed along the intertidal area, shown by the 50 cm post-storm deposition at the seaward end  
296 (Figure 5).

297

## 298 4.2 Masonboro Island.

299 The impacts of Hurricane Matthew on Masonboro Island were far more significant than those  
300 observed across Wrightsville Beach, especially across the central and southern sections of the island.  
301 The main geomorphological impacts included severe dune erosion, cross-barrier channel incision,  
302 formation of temporary inlets, washover fan deposition across much of the back barrier, exposure of  
303 older underlying geological units and an overall lowering and shoreward extension of the island.

### 304 4.2.1 Central Masonboro Island MB01 and MB02

305 These two locations are analyzed jointly because of their similar geomorphological  
306 characteristics and identical storm response. Pre-storm observations revealed a low-elevation,  
307 continuous to semi-continuous and moderately vegetated dune system backing the main beach  
308 (Figure 6A). There was evidence of previously overwashed sections, comprising narrow, infilled  
309 channels with minimal vegetation growth, which often extended across the width of the island  
310 (Figure 6B).

1 311 A post-storm site visit, approximately one week after Hurricane Matthew, revealed significant  
2  
3 312 impacts to the beach, dunes and back-barrier areas at both locations. The intertidal beach was  
4  
5 313 significantly narrower and steeper and often overlain with coarse shell hash, shell fragments and  
6  
7 314 whole shells. The majority of the frontal dunes were severely eroded and vegetation cover was either  
8  
9  
10 315 stripped or buried (Figure 6C). Channel breaching was also widespread, especially where previously  
11  
12 316 infilled channels had been identified earlier (Figure 6D). The landward margin of the island had fresh  
13  
14 317 washover fans and terraces which extended into the adjacent marsh (Figure 6E). Coastal impacts were  
15  
16 318 particularly notable near MB02, comprising some of the lowest elevations along Masonboro Island.  
17  
18  
19 319 Other obvious storm impacts included exposure of underlying humate sandstone on the forebeach  
20  
21 320 (Figure 6F), in addition to boulder-sized clasts of peat and *coquina* which were scattered across the  
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23  
24 321 island. Pre-storm elevations of the foredunes ranged from approximately 3.4 m to 2.6 m for MB01 and  
25  
26 322 MB02, respectively (Figure 7). The total width of the island at these locations was 90-100 m, with the  
27  
28 323 longer profile corresponding to MB01. The upper beach face and frontal dune was significantly  
29  
30 324 steeper compared to the sub-horizontal back-barrier region behind the main dune system. The  
31  
32  
33 325 landward margins of the beach often dropped steeply into the marshes at the back end of the island  
34  
35  
36 326 (Figure 7).

37  
38 327 Post-storm results showed significant, up to 50 cm, erosion of the dune crest (Figure 7),  
39  
40 328 supporting the idea that MB01 and MB02 were subjected to collision and overwash regimes for  
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42  
43 329 substantial periods of time (Table 1). While collision dominated, overwash was prevalent during  
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45 330 periods of 2:00 to 4:30 hours at MB01 and MB02, respectively. The eroded dune crest sediment was  
46  
47 331 redistributed landward in the form of washover fans and/or sheet deposits (Figure 6C and 6E) though  
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49  
50 332 some eroded dune sand may have been deposited on the beach face, seaward of the dunes, due to  
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52 333 backwash and/or outwash processes. Post-storm results also showed an overall landward translation  
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55 334 of the barrier by approximately 2 to 5 meters, corresponding to the fresh washover terraces on the  
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57 335 landward side of the island.

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1 337 **Insert Figure 6 and caption**

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3  
4 338 **Insert Figure 7 and caption**

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9 340 4.2.2 Southern Masonboro Island MB03

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12 341 This southernmost study site, located within an identified Inlet Hazard Area, had the widest and

13 342 most continuous dune system compared to the study areas further north. Pre-storm surveys revealed

14  
15 343 a long, wide beach face and extensive berm (Figure 6G). The frontal and main dunes were well-

16  
17 344 vegetated, as was the back barrier region which extended as far landward as the marsh. Post-storm

18  
19 345 observations showed minor change, mostly confined to the foredunes and foreshore. The beach berm

20 346 narrowed in response to the storm (Figure 7), coupled with limited dune erosion (Figure 6H). Survey

21  
22 347 observations were consistent with a swash impact regime and minor, though significant, duration of

23  
24 348 the collision regime (Table 1). While the modeled maximum extreme water level reached an elevation

25 349 of only a few centimetres lower than the dune crest, this part of the island was not overtopped during

26  
27 350 Matthew, which is supported by field data which showed that the frontal dune crest had not been

28  
29 351 impacted or eroded by the storm surge. Morphological change was mostly limited to the foreshore

30 352 and foredunes, as indicated by the occurrence of swash and collision regimes, with maximum vertical

31  
32 353 erosion of about 80 cm. The berm was cut back by approximately 20 m, with corresponding minor

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34 354 dune scarping. No morphological change was measured at, or landward, of the 3.25 m high frontal

35 355 dune ridge (Figure 7).

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49 356 **Insert Table 1 and caption**

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53 357 **5. Discussion**

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56 358 The coastal impacts from Hurricane Matthew across the two adjacent barrier islands were

57  
58 359 significantly different in most cases. Impacts to Wrightsville Beach were mostly limited to forebeach

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1 360 erosion, berm removal, profile straightening and minor frontal dune scarping. No overwash was  
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3 361 evident anywhere along the island, and in some cases calculated storm-induced extreme water levels  
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5 362 ( $R_{\text{High}}$ ) did not even reach the dune base, especially near the southern section of the barrier. In contrast,  
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7 363 central/southern Masonboro's MB01 and MB02 locations had significant geomorphological impacts,  
8  
9 364 including overwash of the foredune, severe erosion and scarping, channel incision, overwash fan  
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11 365 deposition and exposure of older underlying geological units. The fundamental differences in storm  
12  
13 366 impact across the two adjacent islands are attributed to a number of reasons, including: type and  
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15 367 duration of different storm impact regimes, which are related to differences in island and beach width;  
16  
17 368 the height and continuity of the existing frontal dune system and, importantly, the contrasting applied  
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19 369 coastal management strategies between Masonboro Island reserve and engineered/re-nourished and  
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21 370 developed Wrightsville Beach. These are summarized in Table 2.  
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29 372 **Insert Table 2 and caption**  
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36 375 The spatial differences in Matthew's storm response are in many cases attributed to the height,  
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38 376 width and continuity of the foredune ridge, in addition to beach width, at each location. The width and  
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40 377 elevation of frontal dunes play a critical role in whether storm response results in an overwash regime  
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42 378 or less severe dune erosion and offshore sediment transport (Sallenger, 2000; Houser *et al.*, 2008; Matias  
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44 379 *et al.*, 2014). According to the USGS, peak storm-induced high-water marks, which reflect the combined  
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46 380 forcing of storm-surge and extreme wave runup, reached 3.35 m at Wrightsville Beach and 4.18 m in  
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48 381 Carolina Beach, south of Masonboro Island. These values are similar to the maximum extreme  
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50 382 computed wave levels ( $R_{\text{High}}$ ) of 3.19 m and 3.11 m for profiles WB03 and MB03 respectively (Table 1).  
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52 383 The location of USGS measurements and survey profiles in this study are not the same, so differences  
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54 384 of a few centimeters to 1 m are to be expected given alongshore variation in nearshore bathymetry and  
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56 385 barrier configuration in different sectors.  
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1 386 The relatively low and discontinuous dune ridge along MB01 and MB02, with maximum  
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3 387 elevations of approximately +2.5 m NAVD 88, combined with chronic historical overwash, makes this  
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5 388 part of the island particularly susceptible to future and potentially more severe storm impacts, and sea  
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7 389 level rise, resulting in channel incision and net landward migration through classic barrier-island  
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10 390 rollover mechanisms (Leatherman, 1983). High resolution aerial storm imagery collected by NOAA  
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12 391 shortly after Hurricane Matthew shows the recent introduction washover fans and the narrow nature  
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14 392 of Masonboro Island, especially between MB01 and MB02 (Figure 8A). The post-storm aerial imagery  
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16 393 confirmed significant dune erosion, localized breaching and overwash from the storm, consistent with  
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19 394 extensive periods during which overwash and collision storm regimes dominated (Table 1). In some  
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21 395 locations, the dry beach was no wider than 10 meters. In contrast, extreme water levels from Matthew  
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24 396 barely reached the base of the dunes along southern Wrightsville Beach (Figure 8B), with only short  
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26 397 periods during which a collision storm regime was prevalent. There is no doubt that the  
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29 398 central/southern section of Masonboro Island is particularly susceptible to future storm-induced  
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31 399 overwash, chronic erosion and the possibility of permanent breaching. This would be likely if a more  
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33 400 intense, or slower-moving hurricane impacts the area, increasing both the magnitude and duration of  
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36 401 the more extreme storm impact regimes. The fact that Masonboro Island is a protected island reserve  
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38 402 would imply that no emergency inlet infilling or nourishment would be undertaken, similar to breaches  
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41 403 in Fire Island (New York) following Hurricane Sandy in 2012 (Hapke et al., 2013) or after Hurricane  
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43 404 Hugo impacted undeveloped Cape Island, South Carolina in 1989 (Sexton and Hayes, 1991).

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**Insert Figure 8 and caption**

49  
50 407 The higher foredune ridges and wider beach at WB02 and WB03 along Wrightsville Beach and  
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53 408 MB03 along southern Masonboro Island prevented the occurrence of overwash, since Hurricane  
54  
55 409 Matthew's extreme water levels were not high enough to exceed and extend beyond the more robust  
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58 410 dune systems. As a result, storm impacts at Wrightsville Beach were restricted to short-lived collision  
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60 411 but extensive swash storm regimes. Presently, the more stable northern and southern sections of  
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1 412 Masonboro Island are more resilient to storm impacts, resulting in barrier-island stability or minor  
2 erosion, rather than extensive storm-induced overwash as seen along the central parts of the island.  
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4 413  
5 414 Ongoing long-term coastal change, increasing storm frequency (this part of NC has now been impacted  
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7 415 by four hurricanes between 2016 and 2020), coupled with increasing sea levels, will most likely  
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9 416 contribute to accelerated retreat rates for central/southern Masonboro Island, and potentially create a  
10  
11 417 lateral 'offset' from areas further north and south over time (Figure 9). Long-term chronic erosion rates,  
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13 418 as high as 10/year (NCDENR, 2019), that have been measured for decades along Masonboro Island,  
14  
15 419 coupled with the fragile and narrow nature of the barrier, point towards faster landward (rollover)  
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17 420 migration and erosion compared to other adjacent areas. Other low-lying, undeveloped and chronically  
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19 421 eroding barrier islands are facing similar rapid landward retreat through overwash processes and  
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21 422 inundation during storms.  
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24 423 Sallenger (2000) categorized storm impacts for barrier islands based on morphological features, storm  
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26 424 surge and wave forcing. The Storm Impact Scale ranged from swash, to collision, overwash and  
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28 425 inundation, depending on the severity of storm impacts. Application of Sallenger's model to  
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30 426 Wrightsville Beach confirms that impacts were predominantly in the swash regime, with minor  
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32 427 collision during short periods of time. RTK surveys and post-storm observations confirm that most  
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34 428 impacts were limited to the swash zone and berm erosion, with only minor frontal dune erosion and  
35  
36 429 scarping. Similar impacts were observed at MB03 in the southern extremity of Masonboro Island,  
37  
38 430 comprising higher dunes and a wider beach, but in this location, more prolonged collision enhanced  
39  
40 431 changes in the upper part of the beach profile and foredune face. The impact regimes during Hurricane  
41  
42 432 Mathew in the central section of Masonboro Island (MB01 and MB02) were more severe, not only by a  
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44 433 more extensive duration of the collision regime, but also because the overwash regime was prevalent  
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46 434 during short, but significant periods, resulting in significant dune crest erosion, washover deposition  
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48 435 and net landward migration of the barrier. These results point to an important, and not often recognized  
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50 436 aspect that the magnitude, but also duration of extreme storm impacts, has a significant impact in  
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52 437 storm-induced coastal response. Morphological parameters such as dune height, dune aspect ratio or  
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438 beach width (e.g. Long et al., 2014; Itzkin et al., in review) are fundamental characteristics to determine  
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3 439 storm impacts, but the temporal persistence of specific regimes also needs to be considered for a better  
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5 440 understanding and prediction of coastal changes driven by storm events (Beuzen et al., 2019).  
6

7 441 The results from this study are generally in line with previous geomorphological studies of  
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10 442 Masonboro Island, which identified a cyclical pattern of storm-induced overwash, profile lowering and  
11  
12 443 channel breaching, followed by slow frontal dune recovery and vegetation growth (Hosier and Cleary,  
13  
14 444 1977; Cleary and Hosier, 1979). The small geological headland located near the center of the island,  
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16 445 which is occasionally exposed during storm events, may act as a hinge, causing the northern half of  
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18  
19 446 Masonboro to be more resilient to storms, compared to locations further south (pers. com W.J. Cleary).  
20  
21 447 The differing long-term chronic erosion rates identified along Masonboro by the NCDCM (2019)  
22  
23 448 supports this hypothesis. Comparable geomorphological dune erosion and overwash of low-lying  
24  
25 449 barriers exposed to high-magnitude storm events are common and well-documented at various  
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27  
28 450 locations, including along the Gulf of Mexico, Atlantic and Caribbean coasts (e.g. Bush, 1991; Sexton  
29  
30 451 and Hayes, 1991; Tedesco *et al.*, 1995; Morton and Sallenger, 2003; Wang *et al.*, 2006; Houser *et al.*, 2008).  
31  
32  
33 452 Leatherman (1983) found that overwash processes can be expected across Atlantic coast barrier islands  
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35 453 which are less than 200 meters wide. Most of Masonboro Island is less than 200 m wide, making it  
36  
37 454 particularly susceptible to overwash events and inundation during high-energy storms such as  
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40 455 hurricanes. In contrast, Wrightsville Beach is of higher elevation, wider (up to 500 m in many cases)  
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42 456 and periodically renourished, which precludes significant dune erosion and overwash even during  
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45 457 moderate storm events.  
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48 458 There was evidence of numerous washover deposits and overwash channel incisions across the  
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50 459 central/southern part of Masonboro Island. Post-storm observations revealed several temporary  
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52 460 breaches, up to 25 m wide and 0.5 m deep, extending across the width of the island. Similar storm-  
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54 461 induced washover channel incisions and temporary inlets have been documented at numerous barrier  
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57 462 islands across the eastern United States, including for example Masonboro Island (Hosier and Cleary,  
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59 463 1977), Topsail Island, NC (Cleary, 1994); Biscayne Bay (Tedesco et al., 1995), Cape Romain (Sexton and  
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1 464 Hayes, 1991) and Cape Cod (Maio et al., 2016). Following Hurricane Matthew, boulder-sized peat  
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3 465 blocks and 'coquina' lithoclasts were deposited across Masonboro Island, testifying to the high-energy,  
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5 466 onshore directed sediment transport associated with the storm. An underlying outcrop of Oligocene  
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7 467 siltstone was also exposed on the lower beach face, which is known to periodically crop out after  
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10 468 moderate to large storm events. The combination of peat boulders and outcropping underlying  
11  
12 469 geological units confirm the thin nature of modern Holocene sediments on Masonboro Island (Cleary,  
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14 470 1994; Riggs *et al.*, 1995; Cleary *et al.*, 2000). The limited nature, and low lying, surficial sand deposits are  
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16  
17 471 partly responsible for the long-term chronic erosion rates, limiting the island from growing in elevation  
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19 472 and fully recovering between storm events. In contrast, Wrightsville Beach continues to accrete due to  
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21  
22 473 a combination of wide, vegetated dune systems and long-term periodic beach nourishments.

23  
24 474 In summary, the contrasting geomorphological/physical characteristics and coastal management  
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26 475 objectives of both islands has resulted in vastly different storm responses, supporting the growing body  
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29 476 of work highlighting the complex, distinct but often interconnected dynamics of developed and  
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31 477 undeveloped coastlines (USACE, 2000; Lazarus et al., 2016).

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36 479 **Insert Figure 9 and caption**

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## 41 42 43 481 **6. Conclusions**

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47 482 This study provided important insights into hurricane impacts on two adjacent barrier islands  
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49 483 with contrasting physical characteristics and coastal management strategies. The ability to capture high  
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52 484 resolution RTK/GPS beach elevation data shortly before and after the storm, coupled with site visits,  
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54 485 photographic records, and analysis of spatially and temporally variable extreme water levels, has  
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56 486 shown that the storm impact responses were directly related to the prevalence of different storm impact  
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59 487 regimes and linked to the different physical characteristics of each island. Although Hurricane Matthew  
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488 was a relatively minor hurricane (though it was the most severe storm since locally continuous wave  
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3 489 buoy data have been collected since 2008) impacts across the two adjacent barrier islands were highly  
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5 490 variable. Developed and periodically renourished Wrightsville Beach had minimal impacts to the  
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7 491 integrity of the island. The wide and robust accretionary dune ridge that exists along northern  
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10 492 Masonboro Island (in the lee of the jetty) and along far southern Masonboro, makes these flanking areas  
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12 493 currently more resilient to storms. However, the low elevation and narrow nature of central and  
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14 494 southern Masonboro Island, coupled with a discontinuous, low elevation frontal dune system and  
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16 495 chronic long-term erosion rates, makes this part of the island reserve particularly susceptible to future  
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18 496 storms. The tenuous nature of the island will likely result in continued profile lowering and rapid  
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21 497 landward migration, coupled with the possibility of temporary, or even permanent breaching. Other  
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24 498 similar examples of low-lying protected barrier islands which are threatened by increasing sea levels,  
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26 499 and increasingly more frequent storms, are likely to display similar geomorphological responses and  
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29 500 coastal change patterns. The different coastal management strategies that are adopted for barrier  
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31 501 islands along the east coast of the USA, and elsewhere, will have an impact on future island evolution  
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33 502 and local barrier landscapes, especially during and after high magnitude storm events.  
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36 503

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45  
46  
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48  
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50  
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52  
53  
54 510 significantly improving the current version.  
55

56  
57 511 Open access to datasets by the USGS, NOAA, USACE, CORMP is greatly appreciated.  
58

59  
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514

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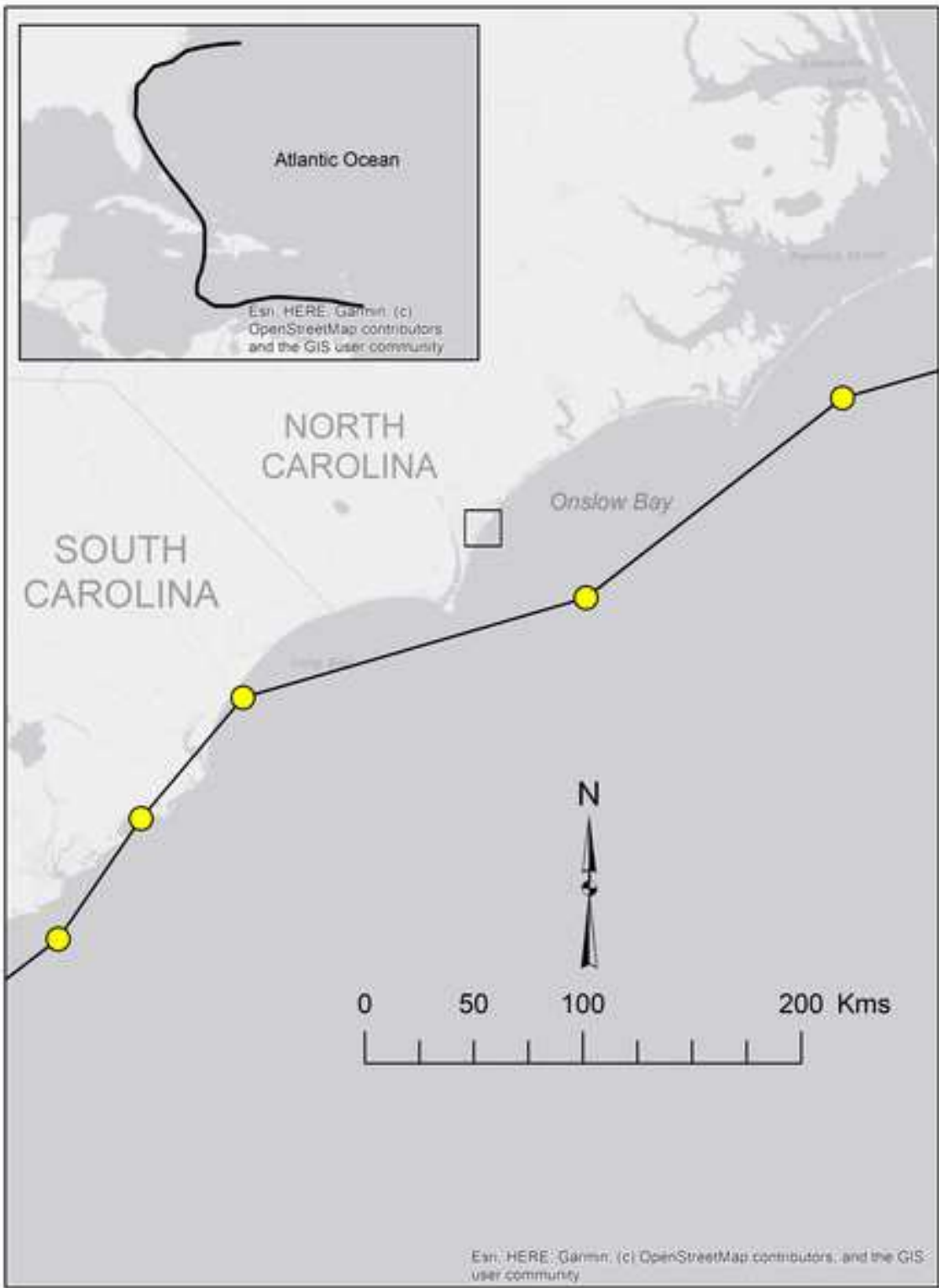
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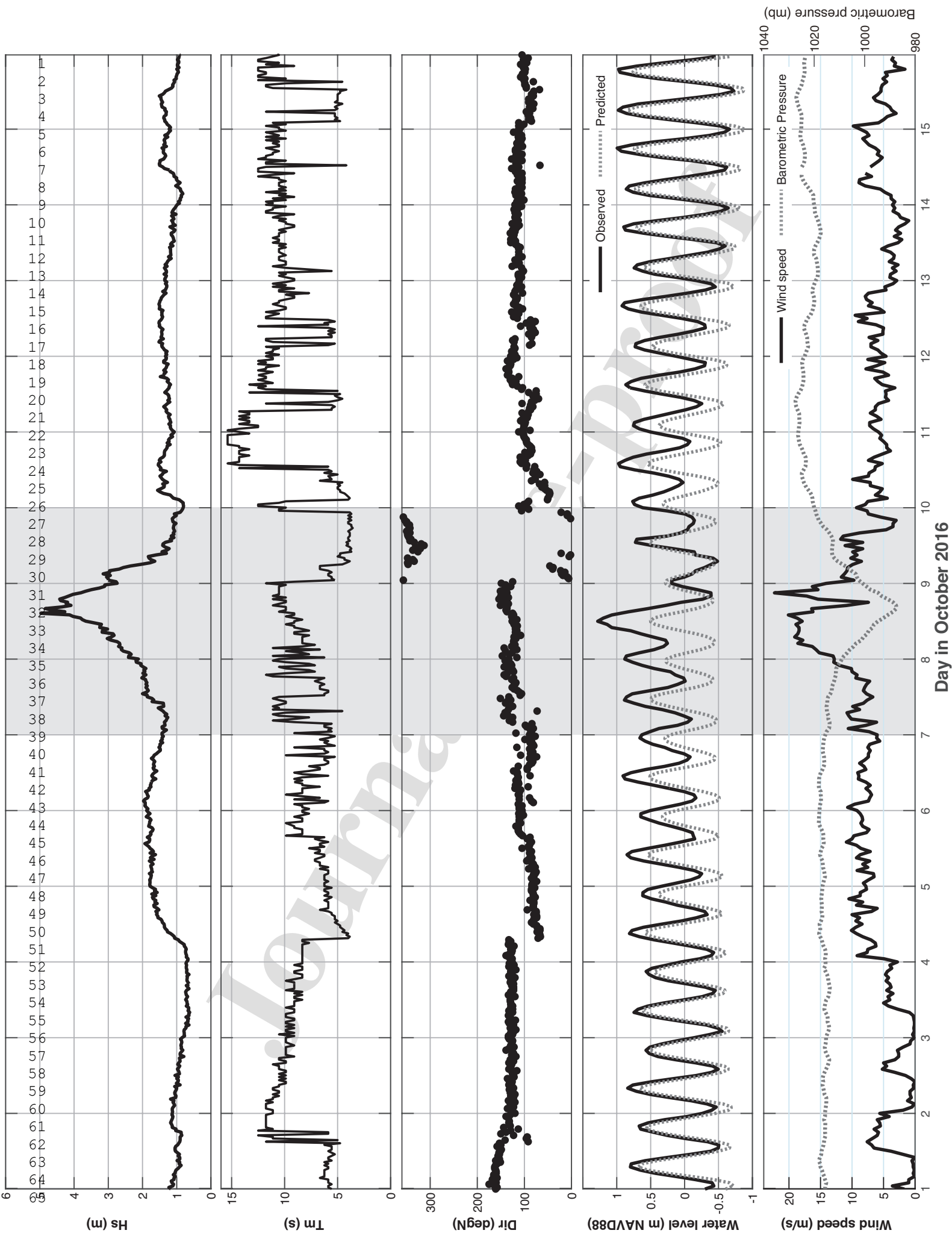
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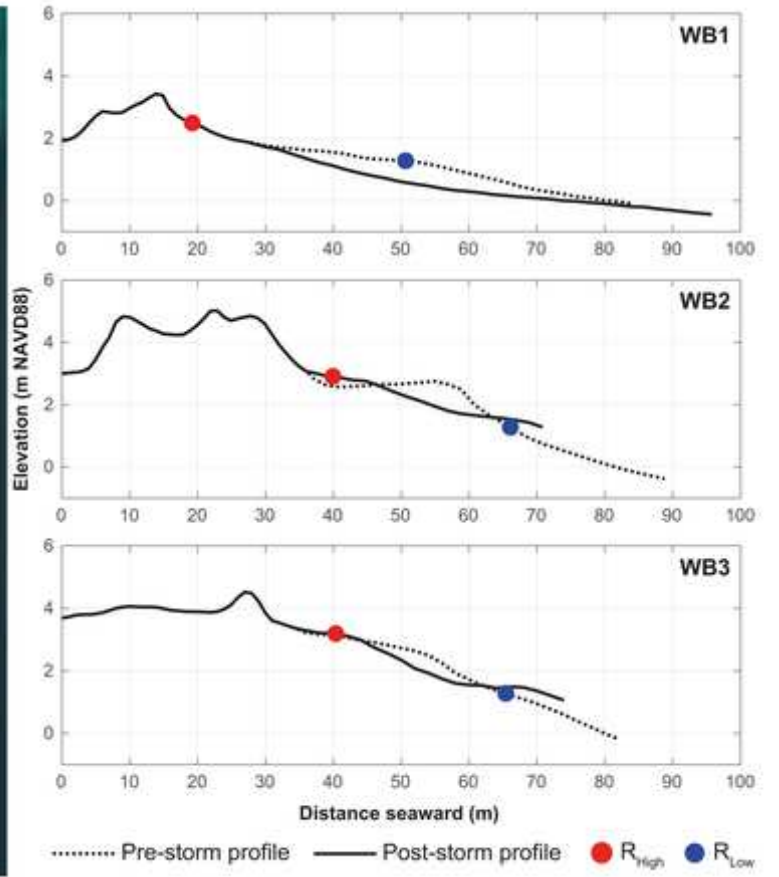
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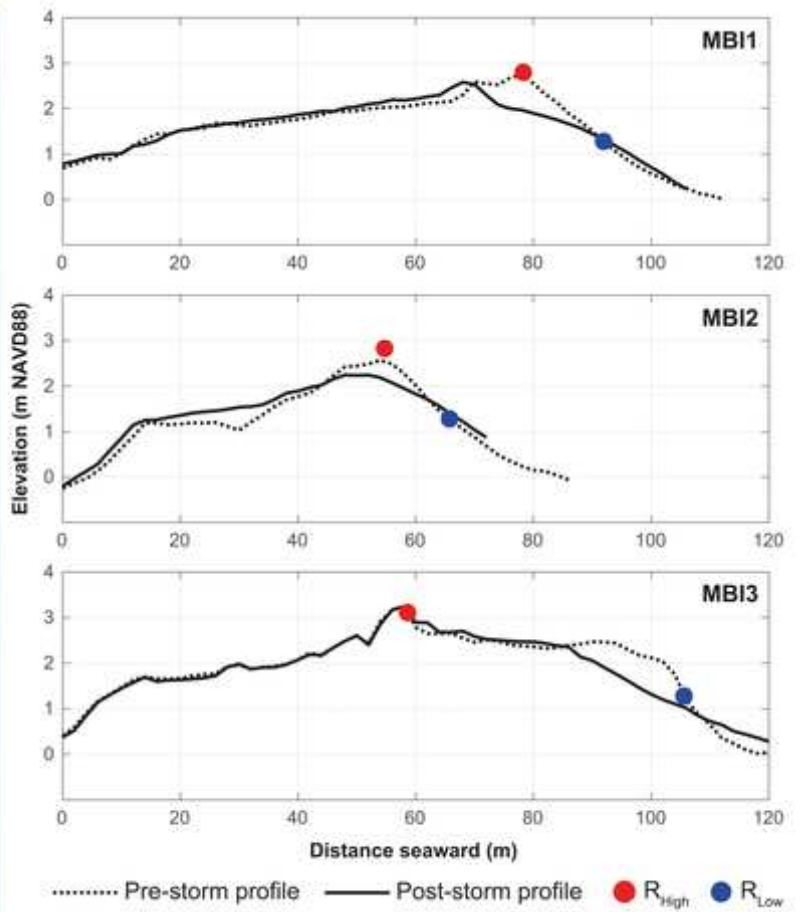
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**Table 1.** Synthesis of morphological change parameters, storm impact scale variables and duration of storm impact regimes during Hurricane Mathew in the surveyed profiles.

Profile	Profile erosion		Storm Impact Scale				Storm Impact regimes <sup>3</sup>		
	V <sub>max</sub> (m)	H <sub>berm</sub> (m)	D <sub>High</sub> (m)	D <sub>Low</sub> (m)	R <sub>High</sub> (m)	R <sub>Low</sub> (m)	Overwash (h)	Collision (h)	Swash (h)
WB01	-0.7	-15.4	3.43	2.43	2.49	1.28	0	1:30	70:30
WB02	-0.8	-10.8	5.02	2.63	2.91		0	3:00	69:00
WB03	-0.6	-5.8	4.52	3.60	3.19		0	0	72:00
MI01	-0.8	-10.2 <sup>1</sup>	2.74	2.08 <sup>2</sup>	2.80		2:00	9:30	60:30
MI02	-0.4	-6.0 <sup>1</sup>	2.57	1.71 <sup>2</sup>	2.83		4:30	15:30	52:00
MI03	-0.8	-11.7	3.25	2.65	3.11		0	6:30	65:30

<sup>1</sup> indicates dune crest erosion, as no discernible berm is identified in the pre-storm profiles.

<sup>2</sup> indicates an estimate based the post-storm profile, as no discernible dune based is identified in the pre-storm profiles.

<sup>3</sup> duration of each storm impact regime for the 72-hour period between 07/10/2016 and 09/10/2016

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**Table 2.** A comparison of geomorphological differences, long-term erosion rates and coastal management strategies for Wrightsville Beach and Masonboro Island.

<b>Parameter</b>	<b>Wrightsville Beach</b>	<b>Masonboro Island</b>
<b>Maximum width</b>	500 meters (central part of island).	300 m (north end). Less than 200 m wide along most of island.
<b>Hurricane Matthew Storm Impacts</b>	Berm and minor frontal dune erosion, some scarping. Impacts mostly limited to main beach. Dunes mostly intact.	Berm erosion, significant dune erosion, scarping, overwash and channelization, exposure of underlying geological units, back-barrier deposition, landward translation of profile in some instances.
<b>Maximum Height of Dunes (m, NAVD 88)</b>	5.5 m	3.5 m
<b>Dune Front Continuity &amp; Vegetation</b>	Wide, continuous and vegetated.	Narrow, semi-continuous and partially vegetated. Existing partially infilled breaches from previous storms.
<b>Coastal Management Strategy</b>	Four-year cycle of beach nourishment at least through 2036. Ongoing since 1965. Setbacks determined based on coastal structure type.	No regular beach nourishment – occasional minimal sand placement on north and south end, associated with inlet maintenance. Part of protected (NERRS) reserve system. Development prohibited.
<b>Long-term erosion rates (NCDCM, 2019)</b>	Stable to accreting.	Apart from far north end, chronically eroding, from 1 to 10 m/yr. Highest erosion rates along narrow, central section of island.