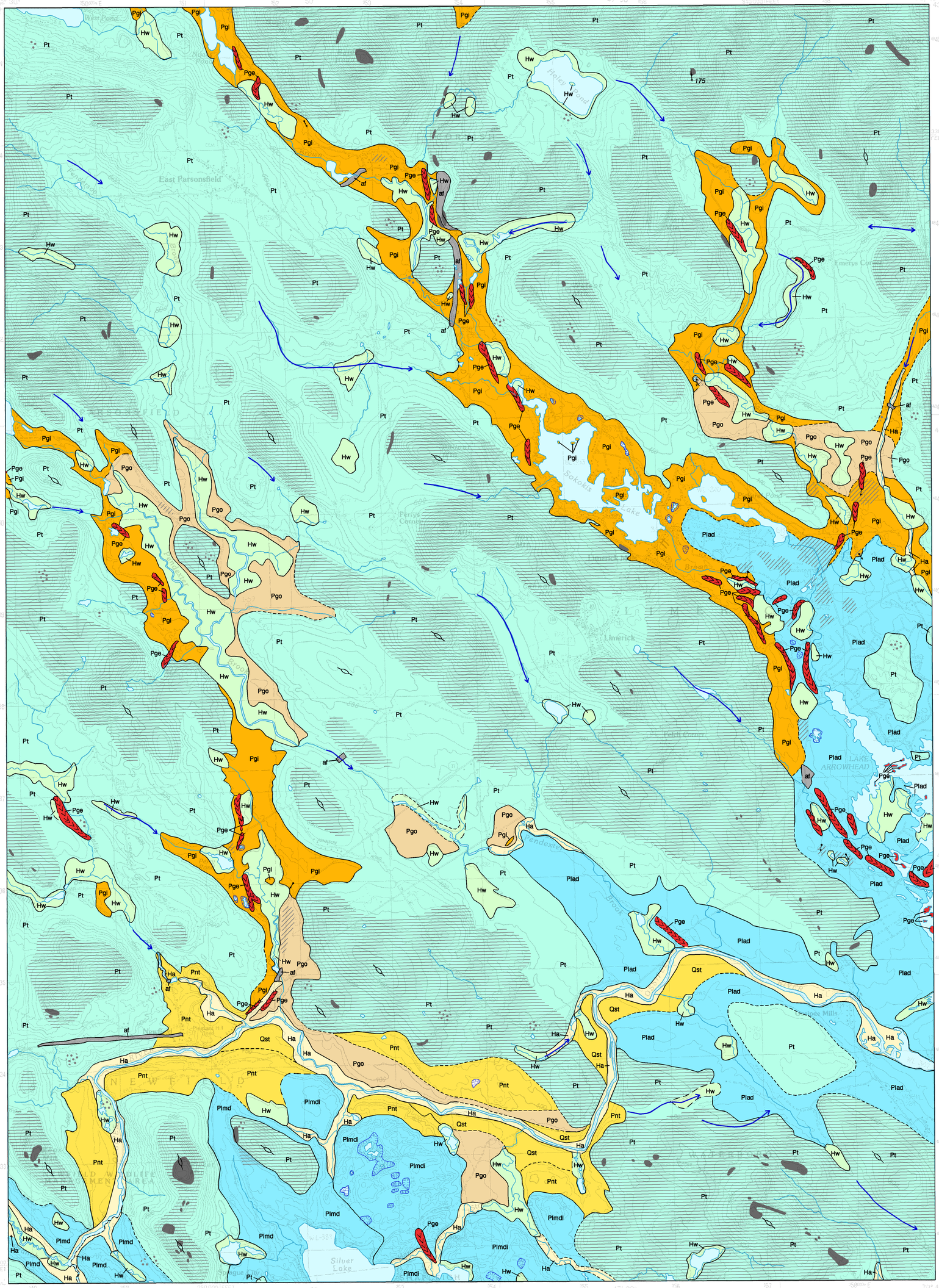
# Surficial Geology




### SOURCES OF INFORMATION

Surficial geologic mapping by Thom Wilch completed during the 1992 field season; funding for this work provided by the U. S. Geological Survey COGEOMAP program. Geologic unit designations and contacts revised and matched to adjacent quadrangles in 1999 by MGS geologists.

Quadrangle Location

SCALE 1 : 24,000

1 0 1 MILE

1000 0 1000 2000 3000 4000 5000 6000 7000 FEET

1 0 1 KILOMETER

CONTOUR INTERVAL 20 FEET

TRUE NORTH

Topographic base from U.S. Geological Survey Limerick quadrangle, scale 1:24,000 using standard U.S. Geological Survey topographic map symbols.

The use of industry, firm, or local government names on this map is for location purposes only and does not impute responsibility for any present or potential effects on the natural resources.

**Ha** — **Alluvium** - Fine to coarse sand and gravel deposited on flood plains of rivers and brooks. Most alluvium deposits are associated with the Little Ossipee River. Alluvium deposits often interfinger with wetland deposits.

**Hw** — **Wetland** - Peat, muck, silt, and sand. Poorly drained areas, often with standing water present. Vegetation ranges from variable tree cover to dominant freshwater grasses. Swamps and marshes not differentiated.

**Qst / Pgo / Pnt** — **Stream terrace** - Well-sorted, stratified sand and gravel deposited by glacial meltwater and postglacial streams occurs as terraces in valleys. The Newfield terrace (Pnt), outwash (Pgo), and postglacial stream terraces (Qst) record three stages of base-level lowering in the Little Ossipee River drainage.

**Plad / Plmdi / Plmd** — **Glaciolacustrine delta** - Gravel and very well sorted sand deposited in temporary glacial lakes. Flat-lying delta deposits near Newfield (Plmd) are associated with Glacial Lake Mousam; delta deposits near Limerick Mills and Ossipee Mills (Plad) are associated with Glacial Lake Arrowhead. Hummocky delta deposits near Newfield (Plmdi) are associated with ice-contact collapse at the head of Glacial Lake Mousam.

**Pgi** — **Ice-contact deposit** - Variably sorted sand and gravel deposited in contact with glacial ice. Deposits often exhibit collapse structures. Includes areas of hummocky topography and terraces.

**Pge** — **Esker** - Elongate ridge of stratified sand and gravel deposited in subglacial meltwater tunnel. Chevrons mark crest of esker and point in direction of glacial meltwater flow.

**Pt** — **Till** - Very poorly sorted, weakly to non-stratified diamicton composed of boulder to pebble-size clasts in a silty to sandy matrix. Includes both a loose ablation till and indurated lodgement till.

**Thin drift areas** - Surficial deposits, mainly till, that have thicknesses generally less than 10 feet (3 m). These areas often have abundant rock outcrops.

**Bedrock** - Exposed rock outcrops. Gray dots and patches delineate individual outcrops.

**af** — **Artificial fill** - Original topography and deposits obscured by artificially deposited till, sand and gravel, rock, or refuse. Includes landfill and construction sites.

**Gravel pit** - Active or inactive pit, generally in sand and gravel. Original topography of these areas has been obscured by pit operation.

**Contact** - Indicates boundary between adjacent map units, dashed where inferred.

**Meltwater channel** - Channel eroded by glacial meltwater stream. Arrow indicates probable flow direction.

**Boulder field** - Area of many large boulders.

**Kettle** - Depression created by melting of glacial ice.

**135** — **Glacial striation or groove** - Arrow shows direction of former ice movement. Dot marks point of observation.

**Meltwater flow direction** - Arrow indicates direction of meltwater flow inferred from dip of cross-bedding or clast imbrication. Tip of arrow marks point of observation.

**Streamlined hill** - Glacially streamlined till or bedrock hill that has been elongated in direction of ice flow.

Note: Map units are presented in a general stratigraphic order from youngest to oldest. The unit abbreviations generally include a capitalized one-letter prefix to designate the age of the deposit: P = Pleistocene; Q = Quaternary; H = Holocene (postglacial).

### USES OF SURFICIAL GEOLOGY MAPS

A surficial geology map shows all the loose materials such as till (commonly called hardpan), sand and gravel, or clay, which overlie solid ledge (bedrock). Bedrock outcrops and areas of abundant bedrock outcrops are shown on the map, but varieties of the bedrock are not distinguished (refer to bedrock geology map). Most of the surficial materials are deposits formed by glacial and deglacial processes during the last stage of continental glaciation, which began about 25,000 years ago. The remainder of the surficial deposits are the products of postglacial geologic processes, such as river floodplains, or are attributed to human activity, such as fill or other land-modifying features.

The map shows the areal distribution of the different types of glacial features, deposits, and landforms as described in the map explanation. Features such as striations and moraines can be used to reconstruct the movement and position of the glacier and its margin, especially as the ice sheet melted. Other ancient features include shorelines and deposits of glacial lakes or the glacial sea, now long gone from the state. This glacial geologic history of the quadrangle is useful to the larger understanding of past earth climate, and how our region of the world underwent recent geologically significant climatic and environmental changes. We may then be able to use this knowledge in anticipation of future similar changes for long-term planning efforts, such as coastal development or waste disposal.

Surficial geology maps are often best used in conjunction with related maps such as surficial materials maps or significant sand and gravel aquifer maps for anyone wanting to know what lies beneath the land surface. For example, these maps may aid in the search for water supplies, or economically important deposits such as sand and gravel for aggregate or clay for bricks or pottery. Environmental issues such as the location of a suitable landfill site or the possible spread of contaminants are directly related to surficial geology. Construction projects such as locating new roads, excavating foundations, or siting new homes may be better planned with a good knowledge of the surficial geology of the site. Refer to the list of related publications below.

### OTHER SOURCES OF INFORMATION


1. Wilch, T., 1999, Surficial geology of the Limerick 7.5-minute quadrangle, York County, Maine: Maine Geological Survey, Open-File Report 99-120, 7 p.
2. Wilch, T., 1998, Surficial materials of the Limerick quadrangle, Maine: Maine Geological Survey, Open-File Map 98-170.
3. Neil, C. D., 1998, Significant sand and gravel aquifers of the Limerick quadrangle, Maine: Maine Geological Survey, Open-File Map 98-136.
4. Thompson, W. B., 1979, Surficial geology handbook for coastal Maine: Maine Geological Survey, 68 p. (out of print)
5. Thompson, W. B., and Borns, H. W., Jr., 1985, Surficial geologic map of Maine: Maine Geological Survey, scale 1:500,000.
6. Thompson, W. B., Crossen, K. J., Borns, H. W., Jr., and Andersen, B. G., 1989, Glaciomarine deltas of Maine and their relation to late Pleistocene-Holocene crustal movements, *in* Anderson, W. A., and Borns, H. W., Jr. (eds.), Neotectonics of Maine: Maine Geological Survey, Bulletin 40, p. 43-67.


# Limerick Quadrangle, Maine


Surficial geologic mapping by
**Thom Wilch**

Digital cartography by:
**Robert A. Johnston**

**Robert G. Marvinney**
*State Geologist*

Cartographic design and editing by:
**Robert D. Tucker**



Funding for the preparation of this map was provided in part by the U.S. Geological Survey Cooperative Geological Mapping (COGEOMAP) Program, Cooperative Agreement No. 14-08-0001-A0868.



**Maine Geological Survey**

**Address:** 22 State House Station, Augusta, Maine 04333
**Telephone:** 207-287-2801 **E-mail:** mgs@state.me.us
**Home page:** http://www.state.me.us/doc/nrimc/nrimc.htm



**Open-File No. 99-89**
**1999**

For additional information, see Open-File Report 99-120.


### SURFICIAL GEOLOGY OF MAINE

Continental glaciers like the ice sheet now covering Antarctica probably extended across Maine several times during the Pleistocene Epoch, between about 1.5 million and 10,000 years ago. The slow-moving ice superficially changed the landscape as it scraped over mountains and valleys (**Figure 1**), eroding and transporting boulders and other rock debris for miles (**Figure 2**). The sediments that cover much of Maine are largely the product of glaciation. Glacial ice deposited some of these materials, while others washed into the sea or accumulated in meltwater streams and lakes as the ice receded. Earlier stream patterns were disrupted, creating hundreds of ponds and lakes across the state. The map at left shows the pattern of glacial sediments in the Limerick quadrangle.

The most recent "Ice Age" in Maine began about 25,000 years ago, when an ice sheet spread southward over New England (Stone and Borns, 1986). During its peak, the ice was several thousand feet thick and covered the highest mountains in the state. The weight of this huge glacier actually caused the land surface to sink hundreds of feet. Rock debris frozen into the base of the glacier abraded the bedrock surface over which the ice flowed. The grooves and fine scratches (striations) resulting from this scraping process are often seen on freshly exposed bedrock, and they are important indicators of the direction of ice movement (**Figure 3**). Erosion and sediment deposition by the ice sheet combined to give a streamlined shape to many hills, with their long dimension parallel to the direction of ice flow. Some of these hills (drumlins) are composed of dense glacial sediment (till) plastered under great pressure beneath the ice.

A warming climate forced the ice sheet to start receding as early as 21,000 years ago, soon after it reached its southernmost position on Long Island (Sirkin, 1986). The edge of the glacier withdrew from the continental shelf east of Long Island and reached the present position of the Maine coast by 13,800 years ago (Dorion, 1993). Even though the weight of the ice was removed from the land surface, the Earth's crust did not immediately spring back to its normal level. As a result, the sea flooded much of southern Maine as the glacier retreated to the northwest. Ocean waters extended far up the Kennebec and Penobscot valleys, reaching present elevations of up to 420 feet in the central part of the state.

Great quantities of sediment washed out of the melting ice and into the sea, which was in contact with the receding glacier margin. Sand and gravel accumulated as deltas (**Figure 4**) and submarine fans where streams discharged along the ice front, while the finer silt and clay dispersed across the ocean floor. The shells of clams, mussels, and other invertebrates are found in the glacial-marine clay that blankets lowland areas of southern Maine. Age dates on these fossils tell us that ocean waters covered parts of Maine until about 11,000 years ago, when the land surface rebounded as the weight of the ice sheet was removed.

Meltwater streams deposited sand and gravel in tunnels within the ice. These deposits remained as ridges (eskers) when the surrounding ice disappeared (**Figure 5**). Maine's esker systems can be traced for up to 100 miles, and are among the longest in the country.

Other sand and gravel deposits formed as mounds (kames) and terraces adjacent to melting ice, or as outwash in valleys in front of the glacier. Many of these water-laid deposits are well layered, in contrast to the chaotic mixture of boulders and sediment of all sizes (till) that was released from dirty ice without subsequent reworking. Ridges consisting of till or washed sediments (moraines) were constructed along the ice margin in places where the glacier was still actively flowing and conveying rock debris to its terminus. Moraine ridges are abundant in the zone of former marine submergence, where they are useful indicators of the pattern of ice retreat (**Figure 6**).

The last remnants of glacial ice probably were gone from Maine by 10,000 years ago. Large sand dunes accumulated in late-glacial time as winds picked up outwash sand and blew it onto the east sides of river valleys, such as the Androscoggin and Saco valleys (**Figure 7**). The modern stream network became established soon after deglaciation, and organic deposits began to form in peat bogs, marshes, and swamps. Tundra vegetation bordering the ice sheet was replaced by changing forest communities as the climate warmed (Davis and Jacobson, 1985). Geologic processes are by no means dormant today, however, since rivers and wave action modify the land (**Figure 8**), and worldwide sea level is gradually rising against Maine's coast.

### References Cited


Davis, R. B., and Jacobson, G. L., Jr., 1985, Late-glacial and early Holocene landscapes in northern New England and adjacent areas of Canada: Quaternary Research, v. 23, p. 341-368.

Dorion, C. C., 1993, A chronology of deglaciation and accompanying marine transgression in Maine: Geological Society of America, Abstracts with Programs, v. 25, no. 2, p. 12.

Sirkin, L., 1986, Pleistocene stratigraphy of Long Island, New York, *in* Caldwell, D. W. (editor), The Wisconsinan stage of the first geological district, eastern New York: New York State Museum, Bull. 455, p. 6-21.

Stone, B. D., and Borns, H. W., Jr., 1986, Pleistocene glacial and interglacial stratigraphy of New England, Long Island, and adjacent Georges Bank and Gulf of Maine, *in* Sibrava, V., Bowen, D. Q., and Richmond, G. M. (editors), Quaternary glaciations in the northern hemisphere: Quaternary Science Reviews, v. 5, p. 39-52.

**Figure 1:** "The Bubbles" and Jordan Pond in Acadia National Park. These hills and valleys were sculpted by glacial erosion. The pond was dammed behind a moraine ridge during retreat of the ice sheet.

**Figure 2:** Daggett's Rock in Phillips. This is the largest known glacially transported boulder in Maine. It is about 100 feet long and estimated to weigh 8,000 tons.

**Figure 3:** Granite ledge in Westbrook, showing polished and grooved surface resulting from glacial abrasion. The grooves and shape of the ledge indicate ice flow toward the southeast.

**Figure 4:** Glaciomarine delta in Franklin, formed by sand and gravel washing into the ocean from the glacier margin. The flat delta top marks approximate former sea level. Kettle hole in foreground was left by melting of ice.

**Figure 5:** Esker cutting across Kezar Five Ponds, Waterford. The ridge consists of sand and gravel deposited by meltwater flowing in a tunnel beneath glacial ice.

**Figure 6:** Aerial view of moraine ridges in blueberry field, Sedgwick (note dirt road in upper right for scale). Each bouldery ridge marks a position of the retreating glacier margin. The ice receded from right to left.

**Figure 7:** Sand dune in Wayne. This and other "deserts" in Maine formed as windstorms in late-glacial time blew sand out of valleys, often depositing it as dune fields on hillsides downwind. Some dunes were reactivated in historical time when grazing animals stripped the vegetation cover.

**Figure 8:** Songo River delta and Songo Beach, Sebago Lake State Park, Naples. These deposits are typical of geological features formed in Maine since the Ice Age.