

# Surficial Geology

# Casco Quadrangle, Maine

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Funding for the preparation of this map was provided in part by the U. S. Geological Survey STATEMAP Program, Cooperative Agreement No. 99HQAG0119.



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**Open-File No. 00-141**  
**2000**

For additional information,  
see Open-File Report 00-142.

## 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 were 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 Casco 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 retreating as early as 21,000 years ago, soon after it reached its southernmost position on Long Island (Sirkki, 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.

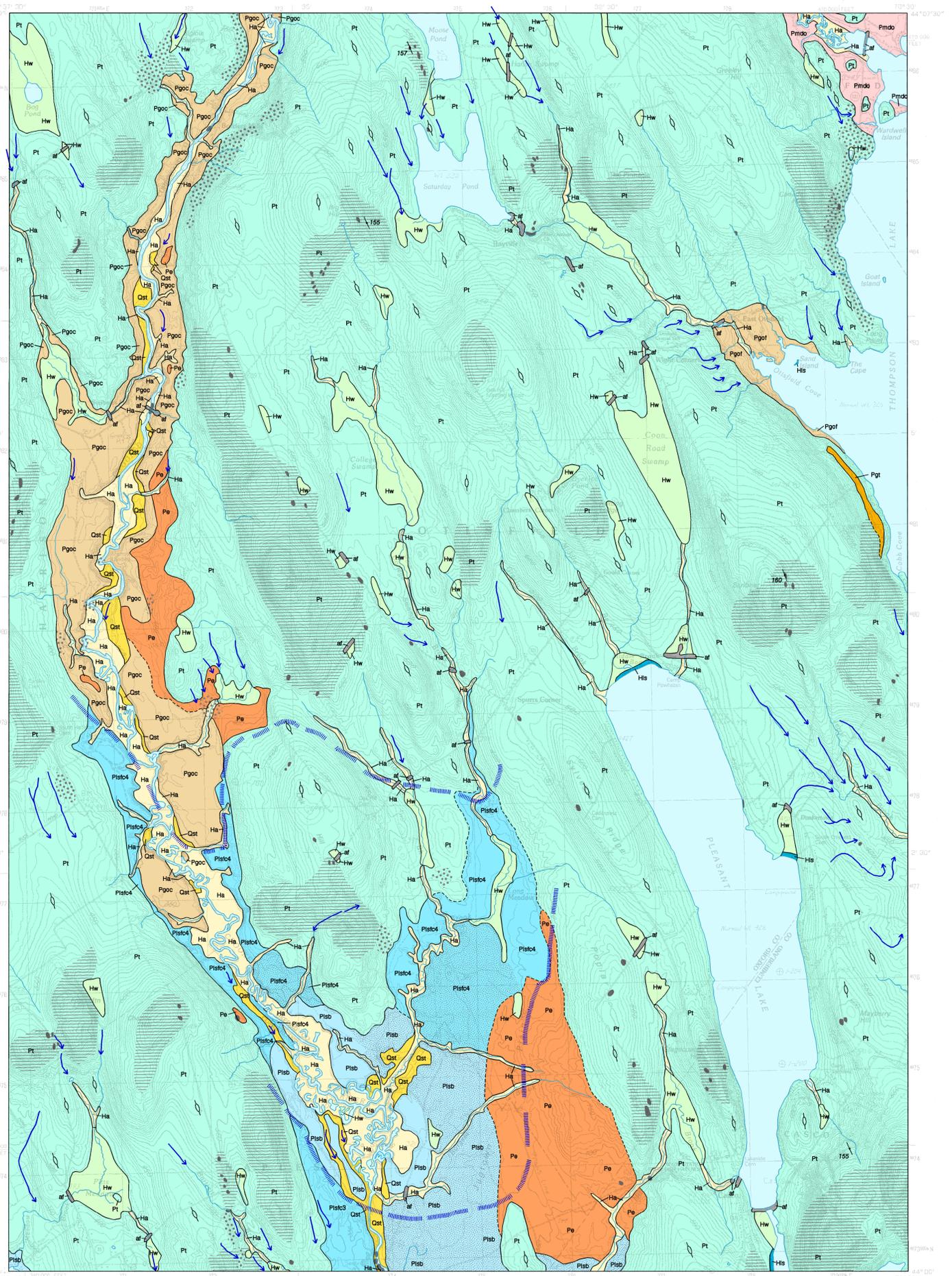
Meltwater streams deposited sand and gravel in tunnels within the ice. These deposits remained as ridges (eskers) when the surrounding ice disappeared (Figure 5). Maine's esker systems can be traced for up to 100 miles, and are among the longest in the country.

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.

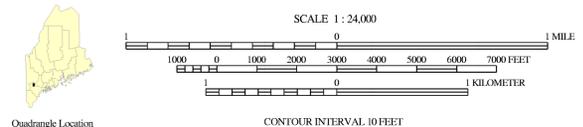
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- Sirkki, J., 1986. Pleistocene stratigraphy of Long Island, New York. In Caldwell, D. W. (editor), *The Wisconsin stage of the first geological district, eastern New York*. New York State Museum, Bull. 455, p. 6-21.
- Stone, B. D., and Borns, H. W., 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.



### SOURCES OF INFORMATION

Surficial geologic mapping of the Casco quadrangle was conducted by Carol T. Hildreth during the 1999 field season. Funding for this work was provided by the U. S. Geological Survey STATEMAP Program and the Maine Geological Survey, Department of Conservation.



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

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

- NOTE:** A very thin, discontinuous layer of windblown sand and silt, generally mixed with underlying glacial deposits by frost action and bioturbation, is present near the ground surface over much of the map area but is not shown.
- af** Artificial fill - Man-made. Material varies from natural sand and gravel to quarry waste to sanitary landfill. Includes highway and railroad embankments and dredge spoil areas. This material is mapped only where it can be identified using the topographic contour lines. Minor artificial fill is present in virtually all developed areas of the quadrangle. Thickness of fill varies.
  - Ha** Stream alluvium (Holocene) - Sand, silt, gravel, and muck in flood plains along present rivers and streams. As much as 3 m (10 ft) thick. Extent of alluvium indicates most areas flooded in the past that may be subject to future flooding. In places, this unit is indistinguishable from grades into, or is interbedded with freshwater wetlands deposits (Hw).
  - Hw** Freshwater wetland deposit (Holocene) - Muck, peat, silt, and sand. Generally 0.5 to 3 m (1 to 10 ft) thick. In places, this unit is indistinguishable from grades into, or is interbedded with stream alluvium (Ha).
  - Hs** Modern beach deposit - Sand and/or gravel with silt in places developed along the present and prehistoric shorelines of lakes and ponds. Most extensive and thickest on larger lakes, 0.5 to 2 m (1 to 6 ft) thick. Includes spit deposits and may include dune deposits.
  - Qst** Stream terrace deposit (Holocene and Late Pleistocene) - Sand, silt, gravel, and occasional muck on terraces cut into glacial deposits in the Crooked River valley. In places, two to four distinct terrace levels exist. They are all lumped into one unit here. These terraces formed in part during late-glacial time during the draining of glacial Lake Sebago. From 0.5 to 5 m (1 to 15 ft) thick.
  - Pe** Eolian deposit (Pleistocene) - Fine- to medium-grained, well-sorted sand. Found as small dunes on a variety of older glacial deposits (shown by dotted pattern in areas where relatively abundant but thin and equal or less than 1 m (3 ft) thick). Deposited after glacial Lake Sebago regressed from the area and left many fine-grained lake-bottom sediments exposed to wind erosion and transport before vegetation established itself and anchored the deposits. Most are found east of the Crooked River, which indicates they were deposited by prevailing westerly winds.

- Plsib** Glacial Lake Sebago bottom deposit (Pleistocene) - Massive to stratified and cross-stratified sand (generally fine- to medium-grained) and massive to laminated silt and silt clay. Locally may contain boulders, sand, and gravel. Found as a blanket deposit over bedrock and older glacial sediments. Deposited at bottom of glacial Lake Sebago during glacial and late-glacial time. Deposits of this unit occupy the lowest elevations in the quadrangle. Variable thickness, generally 0.5-2.1 m (1-70 ft).
- Pgoc** Glaciofluvial and glaciolacustrine deposits of the Crooked River (Pleistocene) - Sand, silt, gravel, and mud. Consists of undifferentiated outwash and lake deposits graded to glacial Lake Sebago. In places overlain by unmapped thin dune deposits. Variable thickness, generally 0.5-1.5 meters (1-50 ft).
- Plsfc** Glaciofluvial and glaciolacustrine fan deposits of the Crooked River valley (Pleistocene) - Sand, silt, and minor gravel deposited in contact with or beyond the adjacent ice as ice-channeled fillings, kame-terrace or kame-delta deposits, and most commonly as lacustrine fan deposits laid down by meltwater that flowed south into glacial Lake Sebago. Differentiated from surrounding similar materials by evidence of ice contact, including faults and/or kettle holes, as well as forest bedding. Depressions in the surfaces of all these deposits, some of which are kettle holes, are filled with up to 3 m (10 ft) of silt-clay varves. Kettle holes in these deposits above the projected glacial Lake Sebago level are filled with windblown silt and fine sand.
- Plsfc<sub>4</sub>** Lacustrine fan, kame-terrace, and kame-delta deposits. The easternmost outwash includes an ice-contact lacustrine fan at an elevation of 110+ m (360+ ft) and contains forest beds that dip southwest, but no topset beds. Deposits are as much as 15 m (50 ft) thick.
- Plsfc<sub>3</sub>** Lacustrine fan, kame-terrace, and kame-delta deposits. The western bed of outwash of Plsfc<sub>3</sub> was built as a kame-terrace delta at an elevation of 110+ m (360 ft) near Tea Swamp. Deposits are as much as 18 m (60 ft) thick.
- Pmnd** Glaciomarine delta - Sand and gravel outwash delta, deposited in north end of Thompson Lake valley.
- Pgof** Glaciofluvial fan deposits in East Otisfield area (Pleistocene) - Sand, silt, gravel, and mud. Consists of outwash fan deposits that may have been graded to the contemporary sea level in the Thompson Lake valley. Thickness varies 0.5-7 m (1-20 ft).
- Pgt** Undifferentiated glacial deposits of Thompson Lake area - Sand, silt, and gravel. Consists of thin deposits on a narrow shelf area on the west shore of the lake. Thickness varies from 0.2 m (0.5 ft).

- Pt** Till (Pleistocene) - Light- to dark-gray, nonsorted to poorly sorted mixture of clay, silt, sand, pebbles, cobbles, and boulders; a predominantly sandy diamict containing some gravel. Generally underlies most other deposits. Thickness varies and generally is less than 6 m (20 ft), but may exceed 30 m (100 ft) under drumlins and streamlined hills. Many streamlined hills in this area are bedrock-cored.
- Bedrock exposures. Not all individual outcrops are shown on the map. Gray dots indicate individual outcrops, ruled pattern indicates areas of abundant exposures and areas where surficial deposits are generally less than 3 m (10 ft) thick. Mapped in part from aerial photography, soil surveys (Hedstrom, 1974), and previous geologic maps (Thompson, 1977).
- Contact - Boundary between map units. Dashed where very approximate.
- Direction of glacial meltwater or meteoric water flow over outwash or till deposit.
- Glacial striation. Point of observation is at dot. Number indicates azimuth (in degrees) of former ice-flow direction.
- Drumlin form or streamlined hill. Symbol is parallel to direction of glacial ice movement.
- Area of many large boulders.
- Area where older sediments are overlain by thin (typically less than 1 m) deposits of dune sand.
- Inferred approximate ice-frontal position at time of deposition of meltwater deposits.

### REFERENCES

- Hedstrom, G., 1974. Soil survey of Cumberland County, Maine: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Soil Conservation Service Soil Survey, 94 p.
- Thompson, W. B., 1977. Reconnaissance surficial geology of the Norway quadrangle, Maine Geological Survey, Open-File Map 77-34, scale 1:62,500.

### 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 the 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

- Hildreth, C. T., 2000. Surficial geology of the Casco 7.5' quadrangle, Maine: Maine Geological Survey, Open-File Report 00-142.
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- Thompson, W. B., Cronson, K. J., Borns, H. W., Jr., and Anderson, 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.

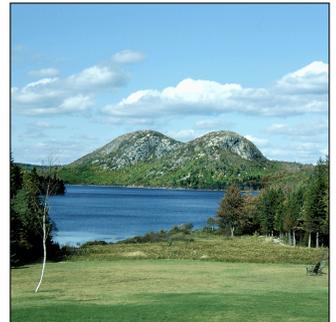


Figure 1: "The Bubbles" and Jordan Pond in Acadia National Park. These hills and valleys were sculpted by glacial erosion. The pond was dammed behind a moraine ridge during retreat of the ice sheet.



Figure 2: Dagger'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.

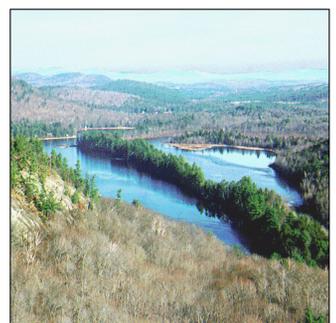


Figure 5: Esker cutting across Kezar Five Ponds, Watford. The ridge consists of sand and gravel deposited by meltwater flowing in a tunnel beneath glacial ice.

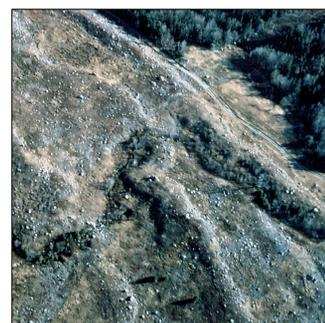


Figure 6: Aerial view of moraine ridges in blueberry field, Sedgwick (note dirt road in upper right for scale). Each bouldery ridge marks a position of the retreating glacier margin. The ice receded from right to left.

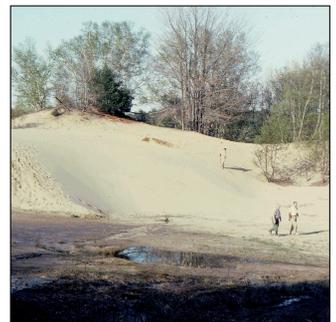


Figure 7: Sand dune in Wayne. This and other "deserts" in Maine formed as windblown sand in late-glacial time blew sand out of valleys, often depositing it as dune fields on hillsides downwind. Some dunes were reactivated in historical time when grazing animals stripped the vegetation cover.



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