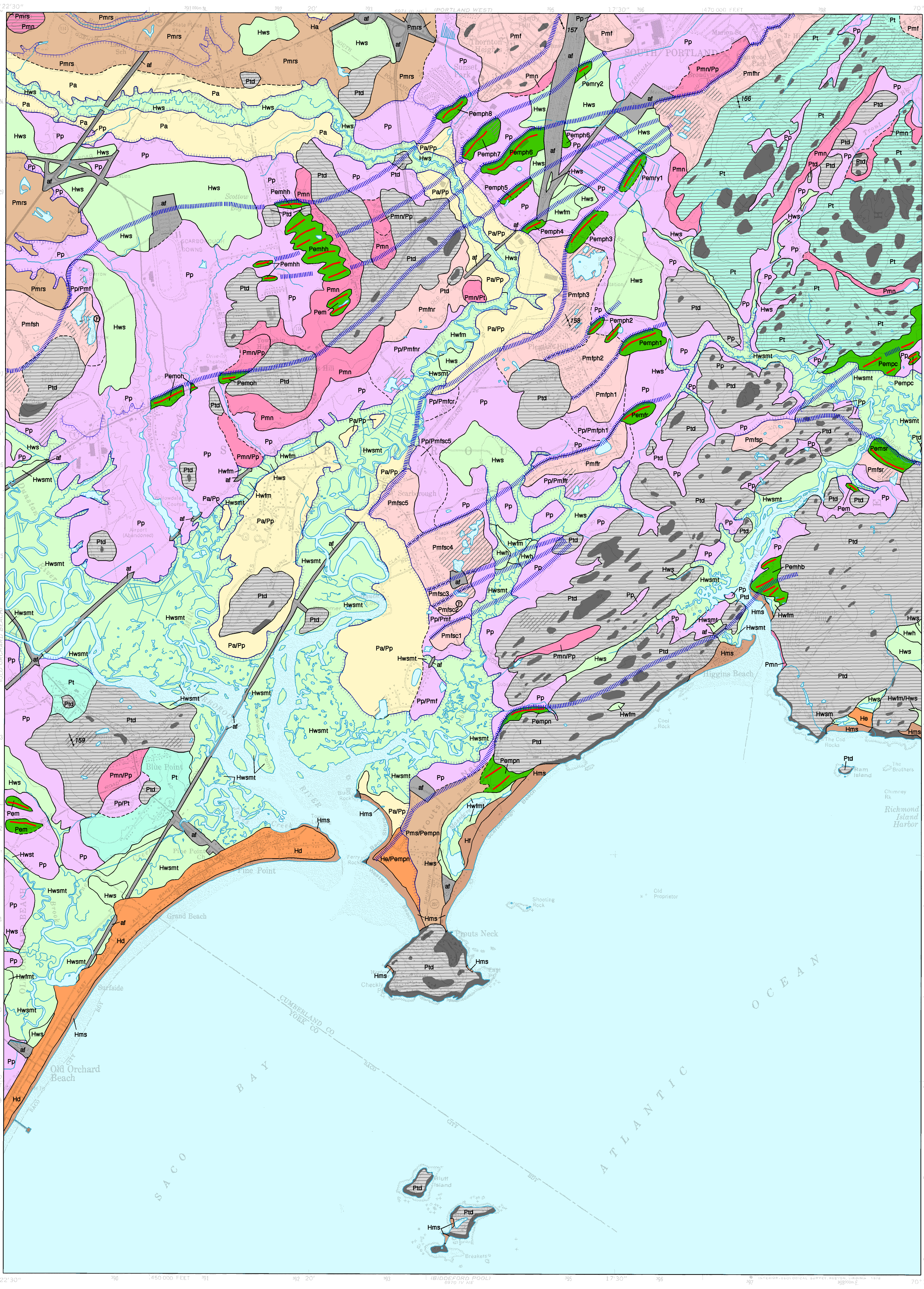
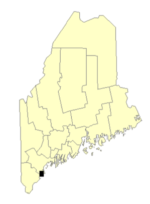
Surficial Geology



SOURCES OF INFORMATION

Surficial geologic mapping by J. Michael Clinch and Woodrow B. Thompson completed during the 1987 field season; funding for this work provided by the U.S. Geological Survey COGEOMAP program. Wetlands data provided in part by Cornelia C. Cameron, U.S. Geological Survey, 1988. Geologic unit designations and contacts revised and matched to adjacent quadrangles in 1999 by MGS geologists.



Quadrangle Location

SCALE 1 : 24,000

1 MILE

1000 0 1000 2000 3000 4000 5000 6000 7000 FEET

1 KILOMETER

CONTOUR INTERVAL 20 FEET

TRUE NORTH

Topographic base from U.S. Geological Survey Prouts Neck 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.

Prouts Neck Quadrangle, Maine

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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-A0381.

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Open-File No. 99-97
1999

For additional information, see Open-File Report 99-128.

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 Prouts Neck 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

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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.

Legend

af — **Artificial fill** - Includes landfills, highway and railroad embankments, and dredge spoil areas. These units are mapped only where they are resolvable using the contour lines on the map, or where they define the limits of wetland units. Minor artificial fill is present in virtually all developed areas of the quadrangle.

Ha — **Stream alluvium** - Fine sand and silt with some gravel. Comprises flood plains along present streams and rivers. Extent of alluvium approximates areas of potential flooding.

Hd — **Dune deposits** - Sand dunes adjacent to modern beaches.

Hms — **Marine shoreline deposits** - Sand to gravel beaches.

Hf — **Marine spillover fans** - Formed during major storm events, located inland from Scarborough Beach.

He — **Eolian deposits** - Sand dunes located inland from modern beaches.

Hwsm — **Salt marshes*** - Located along the Scarborough River and its tributaries, and along the Spurwink River. Thin, non-commercial peat layers are present atop a mixture consisting of estuarine sands and muds.

Hws — **Swamp*** - With no peat present, distinguished from other wetlands by the presence of trees.

Hwh — **Heath** - With no peat present, distinguished from other wetlands by the absence of trees and the presence of shrubs.

Hwfm — **Freshwater marsh*** - With no peat present, distinguished from other wetlands by the presence of only grasses and sedges.

Pa — **Alluvium** - Coarse to fine alluvial sand in high terraces and overlying Presumpscot Formation clays, north and south of the Nonesuch River. (Pa/Pp) used when the sand thickness is less than 10 feet.

Pms — **Marine shoreline** - Beach and dune sands overlying the Prouts Neck end moraine (Pms/Pempn) Prouts Neck quadrangle. Beach morphology is poorly preserved, but sands are present along the ridge crest.

Pmn — **Nearshore deposits** - A wave reworked blanket of sand, fine gravel, or silty sand present along hillslopes and at the foot of these slopes. This unit is mapped only where it completely obscures the underlying materials and morphology.

Pmrs — **Marine regressive sand deposits** - Massive to stratified and cross-stratified, well sorted sand. May have gradational basal contact with Pp. Deposited during regressive phase of marine submergence.

Pp — **Presumpscot Formation** - Massive to laminated silty clays with rare dropstones and occasional shelly horizons, which overlies bedrock and till exposures, and is interbedded with and overlies end moraines and marine fan deposits.

Pem — **End moraines** - Linear ridges consisting of bedded sand and gravel interbedded with Presumpscot Formation silty clays and overlain by till on the ice proximal face of the moraine. Uncorrelated end moraines are labeled Pem, while those that can be used to reconstruct marine ice marginal positions are also given a local geographic name, listed below:

- Pempn - Prouts Neck end moraine
- Pemhb - Higgins Beach end moraine cluster
- Pemsr - Spurwink River end moraine
- Pempc - Pond Cove end moraine cluster
- Pemfr - Fogg Road end moraine
- Pemph$_x$ - Pleasant Hill end moraines 1 to 8
- Pemry$_x$ - Rigby Yard end moraines 1 and 2
- Pemoh - Oak Hill end moraine
- Pemhh - Hunnewell Hill end moraine cluster

Pmf — **Submarine fans** - Thick sand and gravel accumulations formed at the mouth of subglacial tunnels at Pleistocene ice margins. The sand and gravel is interbedded with and overlain by Presumpscot Formation clays at the distal edges of the fans, and interlayered with and overlain by tills at their ice-contact faces. Each fan, or group of fans has been assigned a unique geographic name, listed below:

- Pmfsc$_x$ - Scarborough Center marine fan 1 to 5
- Pmfsp - Sanford pit marine fan
- Pmfsr - Spurwink River marine fan
- Pmffr - Fogg Road marine fan
- Pmfph$_x$ - Pleasant Hill marine fans 1 to 3
- Pmfcr - Chamberlain Road marine fan
- Pmfhr - Highland Road marine fan
- Pmfnr - Nonesuch River marine fan
- Pmfsh - Scottow Hill marine fans

The correlations of these marine fan deposits and the end moraines are shown in Clinch and Thompson (1990).

Pt — **Till** - Gravelly to bouldery, sandy matrixed diamicton.

Ptd — **Thin drift areas** - Areas with less than ten feet of drift covering bedrock. Till overlies bedrock on hillslopes and ridge crests; Presumpscot Formation silty clays are present in depressions; and nearshore deposits may overlie till, Presumpscot Formation, and/or bedrock on hillslopes and at the base of these slopes.

Bedrock outcrops/thin drift areas - Gray areas are individual bedrock outcrops, with little or no surficial sediment cover. Ruled pattern indicates areas of abundant bedrock outcrop and/or areas where the mapped surficial sediments are generally less than 10 ft (3 m) thick.

Contact - boundary between map units. Dashed where very approximate.

Striations - observations made at dot.

End moraine crests

Terrace scarps

Mapped and inferred ice marginal positions

Areas where original topography is disturbed by excavation (chiefly gravel pits)

Marine fossil locality

*NOTE: Wetland symbols followed by "t" indicate areas where peat deposits probably do not constitute a significant commercial resource, either because they are thin (< 1.5 m), or they have an ash content greater than 25 percent. Symbols followed by "p" indicate peat deposits that are thicker (generally > 1.5 m), with ash content less than 25 percent, and thus may be suitable for commercial applications.

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

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