Aquifer and Aquifer Recharge Mapping of the Town of Bristol

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The Anticline, Jonathan Blake

During the field seasons of 2012-2014, the Vermont Geological Survey and partner from Norwich University conducted bedrock and surficial geological mapping in the Bristol and South Mountain quadrangles in Addison County that was funded by the U.S. Geological Survey STATEMAP program. The purpose of this study was to develop an understanding of groundwater resources in the Town of Bristol. The Town of Bristol straddles the boundary between these two quadrangles and the first goal of this study was to assemble separate bedrock and surficial geologic maps for the town. In order to complete the surficial geologic map, a database of accurately-located domestic and public water wells in the area was constructed by integrating land parcel information at the Bristol Town Clerk's Office with well data from the digital database of well information at the Vermont Department of Environmental Conservation. This accurately-located well database was also used in concert with the bedrock and surficial maps to produce "derivative" maps, which bear on the hydrogeology of Bristol.

The list of maps that are associated with this report is below. Detailed descriptions of these maps follow this Table of Contents.

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Authors: Jonathan J. Kim, Marjorie H. Gale, Kevin Chu, Malayika Cincotta, and Laura Cuccio

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Plate 1- Bedrock Geologic Map of the Town of Bristol

The Town of Bristol straddles a major ancient fault boundary that separates the Green Mountains from the Champlain Valley. This tectonic boundary, which is called the Hinesburg Thrust Fault, runs ~north-south from Franklin County to the Green Mountain National Forest in Bristol, a distance of \sim 75 kilometers. This fault formed during the Taconian Orogeny (mountain-building event) in the Ordovician Period, ~450-460 million years ago, when an island complex collided with ancient eastern North America (Laurentia).

Bristol can basically be divided into two groups of formations: 1) those that run from the northeastern-most to the southeastern-most parts of town and 2) those that comprise the rest of town. The rock formations that comprise the hanging wall (see legend on Plate 1) are from oldest to youngest the Mount Holly Complex, Pinnacle, Forestdale, Fairfield Pond formations, and a small part of the Cheshire Formation. The foot wall rocks (see legend on Plate 1) consist of the Cheshire and Dunham formations. Hanging wall rocks make up the upper part/ plate of the Hinesburg Thrust Fault whereas foot wall rocks make up the lower part/plate of this fault. In very general terms, the Hinesburg Thrust is located east and uphill of Route 116, except in the Bristol town center. See the cross-section, which is a hypothesized cut through the earth based on surface information, to see what the Hinesburg Thrust looks like in three-dimensions.

During orogenies, the faulting and folding increases the temperature and pressure of the rocks involved and new minerals may grow and align themselves in planes called foliations; this general process is called metamorphism. The hanging wall rocks are truly metamorphic rocks whereas the footwall rocks are termed weakly-metamorphosed sedimentary rocks. The thrust faulting, where the hanging wall rocks were pushed westward over foot wall rocks, was succeeded by two episodes of folding that likely occurred during the Devonian Acadian Orogeny (~390-375) millions years ago.

The Dunham Formation, which is found in the foot wall, is a dolostone composed primarily of dolomite. Dolostones were once limestones that were altered by the introduction of magnesium after they were deposited. In Bristol, the valleys are primarily dolostone because it is relatively easy to erode. Because dolostones also contain considerable calcium, the soils that developed on them are very rich and suitable for farming.

The ridges on the easternmost side of town are held up by metamorphic rocks of the Pinnacle, Fairfield Pond, and Mount Holly Complex, whereas the ridges to the west of this are composed of Cheshire Formation quartzites. The rocks in these ridges are very resistant to erosion and therefore stand high compared to the easily-eroded dolostones of the valleys. The Cheshire Formation ridges are anticlines (up folds with the oldest rocks in the center) and the Dunham Formation dolostones are complementary synclines (down folds with the youngest rocks in the center) in the valleys. The huge anticlines and synclines can be seen the cross-section on Plate 1. Local overlooks like "Bristol Cliffs" and "Deer Leap" are in the Cheshire Formation quartzite.

Plate 2- Surficial Geologic Map of Bristol

The surficial geologic map shows the unconsolidated sediments that lie above the bedrock. This map was developed by combining information on bedrock and surficial material exposures with water well logs and geotechnical boring logs. See the Description of Map Units on the plate for a complete discussion of these materials. Newly available topographic data derived from airborne lidar (**li**ght **d**istance **a**nd **r**anging) has been of great utility for mapping and interpretation of the surficial deposits and landforms in the study area and has enabled us to produce improved glacial lake shoreline projections.

Glacial striations and other ice-motion indicators are abundant in the uplands of the town. Striations generally indicate ice motions ranging from 120 to 195°, with those from 135 to 165° being the most common. The massive quartzites of the Cheshire Formation appear to be so hard that although they commonly show glacial polish, striations are somewhat rare. Chattermarks were seen at several sites and stoss-and-lee bedrock landforms (including roche moutonées) are common. Crag and tail landforms southeast of the town have an average orientation of 154°, which is consistent with the dominant striations. At several sites short, fine striations trending roughly east-west are seen. Although these clearly crosscut the dominant striations, the movement direction is uncertain. It seems most likely that these were formed by late ice moving in a westerly direction off of the crest of the Green Mountains (Ackerley and Larsen, 1987).

Glacial till is widespread throughout the study area, ranging from very thin and scattered till in the midst of the abundant bedrock outcrops on the higher parts of the mountains to thick till deposits with very few bedrock outcrops in the Green Mountain National Forest in the vicinity of Upper Notch Road. Several benches composed of till are visible on the mountain slopes. These are far above the regional glacial lake levels

and may represent ice-marginal positions. This idea is supported by the numerous meltwater channels seen on the lidar terrain data and in the field.

The combination of scattered ice-contact sand and gravel deposits and areas of thick till in the Upper Notch Road area in the southern part of town suggests stagnation of residual ice in this part of the study area.

The prominent terrace at Bristol Village has a composite origin, with much of the deeper sand and gravel deposits appearing to be of kame terrace origin. The early kame terrace deposits may well have played a role in impounding the waters of glacial Lake Bristol. In Coveville time, and later in Upper Fort Ann time, this was the location of a large delta formed by the entry of the waters of the New Haven River into the lakes. The river subsequently cut down through the delta and kame terrace deposits.

A complex bench of sand and gravel deposits extends from Bristol Village south along the western flank of South Mountain down to East Middlebury (Axelson, 1981). Environments of deposition on this bench include kame terrace, ice-contact (kame) delta, lacustrine delta and shoreline, and alluvial fan. An ice-contact delta deposit formed in the narrow gap between South Mountain on the east and The Cobble on the west as meltwater entered the Coveville stage of Lake Vermont. For this site to have functioned as a spillway, the ice margin must have extended west from The Cobble. As the ice margin continued to retreat north during the Coveville, stage, meltwater would no longer be impounded by the Cobble and the delta would have been abandoned.

Glacial lake deposits are common on many of the prominent terraces and in the lowlands of the town. These range from coarse-grained delta and shoreline deposits composed of sand and gravel to fine-grained lake bottom deposits composed of silt and clay. The earliest lake deposits are to be found in the New Haven River valley in the northeastern portion of the study area. Mapping by Franzi (1988) and as part of this study showed an extensive series of glacial lake deposits and associated fluvial deposits in the valley of Baldwin Brook to the north. Delta deposits in the New Haven River valley to the northwest of West Lincoln appear to correlate with the youngest of the Lake Bristol deposits, which may have been graded to the kame terrace deposits at Bristol Village.

Projections of the isostatically tilted shorelines of the Coveville and the Upper and Lower Fort Ann Stages of glacial Lake Vermont using the shoreline data of Rayburn (2004) indicate that all three lakes inundated the lowlands west of South Mountain. This area is dominated by fine-grained lake deposits in the low areas interspersed with knobs and ridges of thin till and bedrock.

Areas of wave-washed till are seen on some of the slopes in the western half of the study area below the Coveville level.

Extensive aprons and fans of colluvium and talus are found at the bases of the high, steep slopes in the quadrangle. The largest talus aprons are found on the west flank of South Mountain. These features indicate that rockfall has been an important

geomorphic process in shaping the mountain flanks since the retreat of the glaciers. Freshly fallen boulders were observed in several locations and residents report that rockfalls are common in some locations.

A large alluvial fan has developed at the mouth of Notch Brook where it exits the mountains south of Bristol. Several smaller alluvial fans, some of which are clearly still occasionally active, are found at the mouths of steep tributaries.

Extensive areas of Holocene stream terrace deposits and Holocene alluvium are found in the valley bottoms. The stream terrace deposits are old stream deposits that are now many feet above the modern floodplains. They formed after the glacial lakes drained and streams began to cut down through the lake deposits and ice-contact deposits. Modern stream deposits are mapped as alluvium.

Cross-sections through the surficial materials are shown in Figure 1. These show schematic views of the thickness and distribution of surficial deposits below the land surface. The cross section locations are shown on Plate 2.

Plate 3- Wells and Borings

This map shows the locations of wells and borings used in the construction of the surficial geologic map (Plate 2) and several of the plates that follow.

The private water well data was obtained from the Vermont Agency of Natural Resources Natural Resource Locator [\(http://www.anr.state.vt.us/dec/maps.htm](http://www.anr.state.vt.us/dec/maps.htm) , last accessed on June 23, 2015). Due to problems with the accuracy of locations for many of the older wells, the analysis was limited to newer wells that included either GPS coordinates or E911 addresses and older wells that had their locations verified by checks of town records or by knowledgeable residents.

Information on borings was obtained from the Materials and Research Division of the Vermont Agency of Transportation, Hodges (1967), and Mack (1995). Locations of Public Water Supplies are also shown.

Plate 4- Depth to Bedrock

This map shows depth to bedrock (also known as depth of overburden) by means of approximate contour lines and by scaled map symbols. See Plate 6 for a discussion of how the thickness of the surficial materials influences their potential as aquifers.

The contour lines were drawn using the wells and borings shown in Plate 3 and the bedrock locations and locations of surficial materials exposures that were used in construction of the bedrock and surficial maps in Plates 1 and 2. The lines are at depths of 20, 40, 60, 80, 100, and 200 feet. The depth to bedrock at individual wells is shown by

the green dots, which increase in size as the depth increases. Depth to bedrock is also shown for the borings, although many of these did not penetrate all the way to bedrock and thus give only a minimum value (indicated by ">" ahead of the depth figure).

Contouring is limited to those areas with sufficient wells and borings. Thus, only the 20-foot contour is shown in much of the northwestern part of town and contours are not shown in the southeastern part of the town (which is largely within the Green Mountain National Forest). Although individual wells exceed 200 feet to bedrock in the vicinity of the village center, the density of data only allows the 200-foot contour to be drawn in the southwestern portion of the town.

Plate 5- Hydrogeologic Classification of Well Logs

The purpose of the hydrogeologic classification is to rank how easily ground water can move through the surficial materials. The classification is made using water well logs and is based almost entirely on the coarseness of the surficial materials, with the assumption that ground water will be able to flow easier through coarser materials than through finer ones (Table 1). Interpretations based on this data will be shown on other plates in this report.

Relatively thin, coarse-grained surface horizons that are less than about 20 feet thick are ignored in this classification as they are likely to be of little importance either as significant aquifers or as barriers to prevent or slow infiltration of ground water. In the classification below a "thick" surface horizon measures 20 feet or more.

Surficial deposits that are less than about 40 feet in **total** thickness are not considered to be good candidates for surficial aquifers. Even if such deposits can supply sufficient yields during dry seasons, they are quite likely to be at risk from contamination from surface waters.

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Table 1. Hydrogeologic classification of water well logs.

- 10 Thick section of fine-grained stratified deposits over silt-to-clay-matrix till or directly over bedrock.
- 11 Thick section of silt-to-clay-matrix till.
- 12 Thin surficial deposits or no surficial deposits overlying bedrock. Includes the very common case of thin till over bedrock. Generally less than 40 feet thick.
- 13 Other. Commonly, this is a thick section of surficial deposits with either no details of stratigraphy or highly variable stratigraphy.

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-999 Problem record. Usually due to location being suspect.

Plate 6- Surficial Aquifer Potential

This map uses the hydrogeologic classification of private water well logs shown on Plate 5 to estimate the surficial aquifer potential of the surficial deposits in the town. Wells in Hydrogeologic Classes 0, 1, 2, 3, and 5 were assigned a high potential, those in Classes 6 and 7 were assigned a moderate potential, and those in Classes 8 through 12 were assigned a low potential. There were no wells assigned to Class 4, which would have a high potential.

The wells that end in the surficial deposits (often called "gravel wells") are shown on the plate and their yields (in gallons per minute) provide a means of checking the accuracy of the class assignments. Although the yields are estimates by the drillers and are of limited accuracy, they are indeed generally high where the classes are ranked as moderate or high.

Refer to the explanation of Plate 5 for details of the classification. Note that these estimates are based solely on water well logs and that subsurface conditions vary markedly from well to well.

Plate 7- Well (Bedrock) Yield Map for the Town of Bristol

Bristol can basically be divided into two groups of formations: 1) those that run from the northeastern-most to the southeastern-most parts of town and 2) those that comprise the rest of town. The rock formations that comprise the hanging wall (see legend on Plate 7) are from oldest to youngest the Mount Holly Complex, Pinnacle, Forestdale, Fairfield Pond formations, and a small part of the Cheshire Formation. The foot wall rocks (see legend on Plate 7) consist of the Cheshire and Dunham formations. Hanging wall rocks make up the upper part/ plate of a fault called the Hinesburg Thrust Fault whereas foot wall rocks make up the lower part/plate of this fault.

There are considerable differences in average wells yield, overburden thickness, and well depth between hanging wall and foot wall rocks. The map in Plate 7 shows

individual well locations with their yields scaled by the size of the dots, with larger dots representing higher yields and vice versa.

For example, A) The average overburden for a foot wall well $(62')$ is \sim 2.3 times that of a hanging wall well (27')(see the column graph on Plate 7); B) The average yield of a hanging wall well (7 gpm) is only \sim 25% that of a foot wall well (29 gpm)(see the column graph on Plate 7); and C) The average depth for a hanging wall well is $416'$ whereas that of a foot wall well is only 245' (see column graph on Plate 7).

In summary, on average, wells that are completed in foot wall wall rocks have higher yields, shallower depths, and deeper overburden than those completed in the hanging wall rocks.

Plate 8- Map that Constrains Recharge, Discharge, and Generalized Groundwater Flow Directions in the Town of Bristol

This map shows the general factors that may influence the recharge of groundwater to the bedrock aquifer such as bedrock outcrops (ledges) exposed at the surface, glacial till thickness, and topography. Wherever bedrock is exposed at the ground surface, it is possible for rainwater or water running on the ground surface to flow downward (recharge) to the bedrock aquifer, if open cracks or "beds" are present in the rock.

Glacial till is composed of pebbles, sand, silt, and clay that were left behind on the ground surface by the glacier as it melted thousands of years ago. Glacial till was generally deposited in areas of higher elevation. Whenever glacial till is thin (<10' thick with interspersed outcrops of bedrock), rainwater or water flowing along the ground surface may percolate downward through the till to the bedrock below and enter (recharge) the bedrock aquifer through open cracks or "beds". If glacial till is thick (>10' thick with no interspersed bedrock), downward flow of water can still occur, but this percolation takes longer because of the thicker till.

Groundwater flows from higher elevations toward lower elevations under the influence of gravity and also flows from higher pressure to lower pressure. On the map, green arrows show the direction groundwater will travel from higher elevations to lower elevations under the influence of gravity alone. Generally, recharge areas are at higher elevations whereas discharge areas are valley bottoms.

The static water level (SWL) is the level that groundwater will rise to in a well based on the upward pressure from the aquifer. It is usually measured in feet below the ground surface. Well drillers measure the SWL after they have finished drilling a well. The SWL was not measured in many wells in Bristol so it is not possible to construct a "water table" (piezometric surface) contour map. This map shows the location of all accurately-located wells in the Town of Bristol that have an SWL. The SWL is the distance in feet below the ground surface to the "water table".

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Figure 1a. Cross-section A-A'. See Plate 2 for location.

Figure 1b. Cross-section B-B'. See Plate 2 for location.

- ! **Outcrop locations from Kim et al. (2013; 2014)**
- ^X **Outcrop locations modified fromTauvers (1982)**
- # **Outcrop locations modified from Dipietro (1983)**
- " **Outcrop locations modified from Smith, J.(unpublished)**
- **Outcrop locations modified from DelloRusso and Stanley (2006)** i seri
- **F** \uparrow **Thrust fault** (teeth on hanging wall)

Vermont Geological Survey Open File Map VG15-1 Plate 1

Bedrock Geologic Map of theTown of Bristol, Addison County, Vermont

Authors: Jonathan Kim, Marjorie Gale, Kevin Chu, Malayika Cincotta, and Laura Cuccio

Explanation of Map Symbols

Ratcliffe, N.M., Stanley, R.S, Gale, M.H., Thompson, P.J., and Walsh, G.J., 2011, Bedrock Geologic Map of Vermont: USGS Scientific Investigations Map 3184, 3 sheets, scale 1:100,000.

Tauvers, P., 1982, Bedrock Geology of the Lincoln Area, Vermont: Vermont Geological Survey Special Bulletin #2, 5p.

Explanation of Structural Symbols

Mount Holly Complex Pink gray, light gray, and greenish white, fine to coarse grained quartz, plagioclase gneiss with varying amounts of sericite, chlorite, microcline and biotite. Other minor minerals include epidote, apatite, calcite, garnet, tourmaline, rutile, zircon, magnetite and sphene. (Y1,2bg of Ratcliffe and others, 2011) Massive, light blue to gray weathered quartzite with minor amounts of sericite, biotite, chlorite, plagioclase, rutile and opagues. Interbedded with tourmaline chloritoid schist (Ymht). (Middle to Early Mesoproterozoic Y2q of Ratcliffe and others, 2011) **Mesoproterozoic** CZpuc Lustrous green chloritic phyllite and mis grained metagray Ymhg Ymhq

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Published by: Vermont Geological Survey, Marjorie Gale, State Geologist

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Vermont Geological Survey Open File Report VG15-1, Plate 2

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Vermont Geological Survey Open File Report VG15-1, Plate 2 . .

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Vermont Geological Survey Open File Report VG15-1, Plate 4

Thus, only the 20-foot contour is shown in much of the northwestern part

Vermont Geological Survey Open File Report VG15-1, Plate 5

- Thick, coarse-grained, stratified deposits over till over coarse-
- 1 Fine-grained stratified deposits over coarse-grained stratified
- Fine-grained stratified deposits over coarse-grained stratified
-
-
-
-
-
-
-
- 10 Thick section of fine-grained stratified deposits over silt-to-clay-
-
- 12 Thin surficial deposits or no surficial deposits overlying bedrock.
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