

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
 UNITED STATES GEOLOGICAL SURVEY
 CHARLES D. WALCOTT, DIRECTOR

GEOLOGIC ATLAS

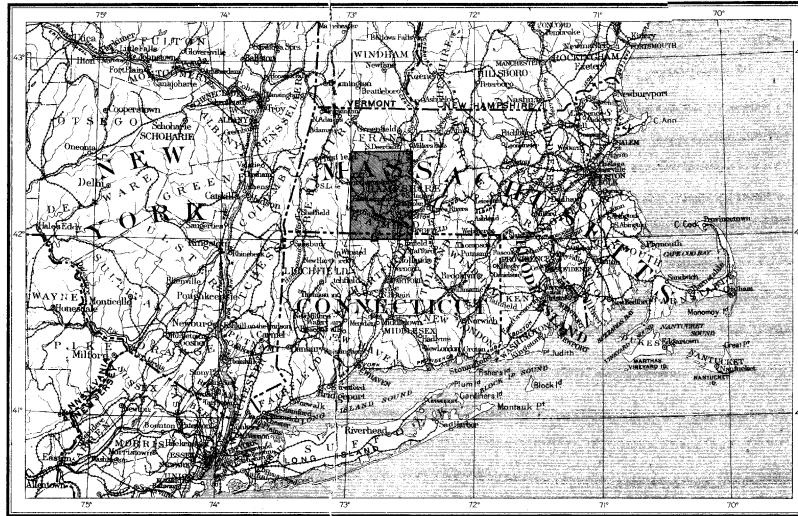
OF THE

UNITED STATES

HOLYOKE FOLIO

MASSACHUSETTS - CONNECTICUT

INDEX MAP



SCALE 40 MILES-1 INCH



AREA OF THE HOLYOKE FOLIO

LIST OF SHEETS

DESCRIPTION	TOPOGRAPHY	HISTORICAL GEOLOGY	SURFICIAL GEOLOGY	ECONOMIC GEOLOGY
		STRUCTURE SECTIONS		
FOLIO 50		LIBRARY EDITION		HOLYOKE

WASHINGTON, D. C.

ENGRAVED AND PRINTED BY THE U. S. GEOLOGICAL SURVEY

BAILEY WILLIS, EDITOR OF GEOLOGIC MAPS S. J. KUBEL, CHIEF ENGRAVER

1898

EXPLANATION.

The Geological Survey is making a geologic map of the United States, which necessitates the preparation of a topographic base map. The two are being issued together in the form of an atlas, the parts of which are called folios. Each folio consists of a topographic base map and geologic maps of a small area of country, together with explanatory and descriptive texts.

THE TOPOGRAPHIC MAP.

The features represented on the topographic map are of three distinct kinds: (1) inequalities of surface, called *relief*, as plains, plateaus, valleys, hills, and mountains; (2) distribution of water, called *drainage*, as streams, lakes, and swamps; (3) the works of man, called *culture*, as roads, railroads, boundaries, villages, and cities.

Relief.—All elevations are measured from mean sea-level. The heights of many points are accurately determined, and those which are most important are given on the map in figures. It is desirable, however, to give the elevation of all parts of the area mapped, to delineate the horizontal outline, or contour, of all slopes, and to indicate their grade or degree of steepness. This is done by lines connecting points of equal elevation above mean sea-level, the lines being drawn at regular vertical intervals. These lines are called *contours*, and the uniform vertical space between each two contours is called the *contour interval*. Contours and elevations are printed in brown.

The manner in which contours express elevation, form, and grade is shown in the following sketch and corresponding contour map:

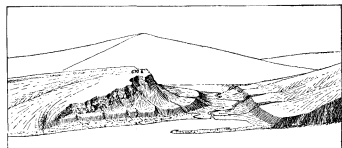


Fig. 1.—Ideal sketch and corresponding contour map.

The sketch represents a river valley between two hills. In the foreground is the sea, with a bay which is partly closed by a hooked sand-bar. On each side of the valley is a terrace. From the terrace on the right a hill rises gradually, while from that on the left the ground ascends steeply in a precipice. Contrasted with this precipice is the gentle descent of the left-hand slope. In the map each of these features is indicated, directly beneath its position in the sketch, by contours. The following explanation may make clearer the manner in which contours delineate elevation, form, and grade:

1. A contour indicates approximately a certain height above sea-level. In this illustration the contour interval is 50 feet; therefore the contours are drawn at 50, 100, 150, 200 feet, and so on, above sea-level. Along the contour at 250 feet lie all points of the surface 250 feet above sea; and similarly with any other contour. In the space between any two contours are found all elevations above the lower and below the higher contour. Thus the contour at 150 feet falls just below the edge of the terrace, while that at 200 feet lies above the terrace; therefore all points on the terrace are shown to be more than 150 but less than 200 feet above sea. The summit of the higher hill is stated to be 670 feet above sea; accordingly the contour at 650 feet surrounds it. In this illustration nearly all the contours are numbered. Where this is not possible, certain contours—say every fifth one—are accentuated and numbered; the heights of others may then be ascertained by counting up or down from a numbered contour.

2. Contours define the forms of slopes. Since contours are continuous horizontal lines conforming to the surface of the ground, they wind smoothly about smooth surfaces, recede into all reentrant angles of ravines, and project in passing about prominences. The relations of contour curves and angles to forms of the landscape can be traced in the map and sketch.

3. Contours show the approximate grade of any slope. The vertical space between two contours is the same, whether they lie along a cliff or on a gentle slope; but to rise a given height on a gentle slope one must go farther than on a steep slope, and therefore contours are far apart on gentle slopes and near together on steep ones.

For a flat or gently undulating country a small contour interval is used; for a steep or mountainous country a large interval is necessary. The smallest interval used on the atlas sheets of the Geological Survey is 5 feet. This is used for regions like the Mississippi delta and the Dismal Swamp. In mapping great mountain masses, like those in Colorado, the interval may be 250 feet. For intermediate relief contour intervals of 10, 20, 25, 50, and 100 feet are used.

Drainage.—Watercourses are indicated by blue lines. If the stream flows the year round the line is drawn unbroken, but if the channel is dry a part of the year the line is broken or dotted. Where a stream sinks and reappears at the surface, the supposed underground course is shown by a broken blue line. Lakes, marshes, and other bodies of water are also shown in blue, by appropriate conventional signs.

Culture.—The works of man, such as roads, railroads, and towns, together with boundaries of townships, counties, and States, and artificial details, are printed in black.

Scales.—The area of the United States (excluding Alaska) is about 3,025,000 square miles. On a map with the scale of 1 mile to the inch this would cover 3,025,000 square inches, and to accommodate it the paper dimensions would need to be about 240 by 180 feet. Each square mile of ground surface would be represented by a square inch of map surface, and one linear mile on the ground would be represented by a linear inch on the map. This relation between distance in nature and corresponding distance on the map is called the scale of the map. In this case it is "1 mile to an inch." The scale may be expressed also by a fraction, of which the numerator is a length on the map and the denominator the corresponding length in nature expressed in the same unit. Thus, as there are 63,360 inches in a mile, the scale "1 mile to an inch" is expressed by $\frac{1}{63,360}$. Both of these methods are used on the maps of the Geological Survey.

Three scales are used on the atlas sheets of the Geological Survey; the smallest is $\frac{1}{250,000}$, the intermediate $\frac{1}{125,000}$, and the largest $\frac{1}{62,500}$. These correspond approximately to 4 miles, 2 miles, and 1 mile on the ground to an inch on the map. On the scale $\frac{1}{250,000}$ a square inch of map surface represents and corresponds nearly to 1 square mile; on the scale $\frac{1}{125,000}$, to about 4 square miles; and on the scale $\frac{1}{62,500}$, to about 16 square miles. At the bottom of each atlas sheet the scale is expressed in three different ways, one being a graduated line representing miles and parts of miles in English inches, another indicating distance in the metric system, and a third giving the fractional scale.

Atlas sheets and quadrangles.—The map is being published in atlas sheets of convenient size, which are bounded by parallels and meridians. The corresponding four-cornered portions of territory are called *quadrangles*. Each sheet on the scale of $\frac{1}{250,000}$ contains one square degree, i. e., a degree of latitude by a degree of longitude; each sheet on the scale of $\frac{1}{125,000}$ contains one-quarter of a square degree; each sheet on the scale of $\frac{1}{62,500}$ contains one-sixteenth of a square degree. The areas of the corresponding quadrangles are about 4000, 1000, and 250 square miles, respectively.

The atlas sheets, being only parts of one map of the United States, are laid out without regard to the boundary lines of the States, counties, or townships. To each sheet, and to the quadrangle it represents, is given the name of some well-known

town or natural feature within its limits, and at the sides and corners of each sheet the names of adjacent sheets, if published, are printed.

Uses of the topographic sheet.—Within the limits of scale the topographic sheet is an accurate and characteristic delineation of the relief, drainage, and culture of the district represented. Viewing the landscape, map in hand, every characteristic feature of sufficient magnitude should be recognizable. It should guide the traveler; serve the investor or owner who desires to ascertain the position and surroundings of property to be bought or sold; save the engineer preliminary surveys in locating roads, railways, and irrigation ditches; provide educational material for schools and homes; and serve many of the purposes of a map for local reference.

THE GEOLOGIC MAP.

The maps representing areal geology show by colors and conventional signs, on the topographic base map, the distribution of rock formations on the surface of the earth, and the structure-section map shows their underground relations, as far as known, and in such detail as the scale permits.

KINDS OF ROCKS.

Rocks are of many kinds. The original crust of the earth was probably composed of *igneous rocks*, and all other rocks have been derived from them in one way or another.

Atmospheric agencies gradually break up igneous rocks, forming superficial, or *surficial*, deposits of clay, sand, and gravel. Deposits of this class have been formed on land surfaces since the earliest geologic time. Through the transporting agencies of streams the surficial materials of all ages and origins are carried to the sea, where, along with material derived from the land by the action of the waves on the coast, they form *sedimentary rocks*. These are usually hardened into conglomerate, sandstone, shale, and limestone, but they may remain unconsolidated and still be called "rocks" by the geologist, though popularly known as gravel, sand, and clay.

From time to time in geologic history igneous and sedimentary rocks have been deeply buried, consolidated, and raised again above the surface of the water. In these processes, through the agencies of pressure, movement, and chemical action, they are often greatly altered, and in this condition they are called *metamorphic rocks*.

Igneous rocks.—These are rocks which have cooled and consolidated from a liquid state. As has been explained, sedimentary rocks were deposited on the original igneous rocks. Through the igneous and sedimentary rocks of all ages molten material has from time to time been forced upward to or near the surface, and there consolidated. When the channels or vents into which this molten material is forced do not reach the surface, it either consolidates in cracks or fissures crossing the bedding planes, thus forming dikes, or else spreads out between the strata in large bodies, called sills or laccoliths. Such rocks are called *intrusive*. Within their rock enclosures they cool slowly, and hence are generally of crystalline texture. When the channels reach the surface the lavas often flow out and build up volcanoes. These lavas cool rapidly in the air, acquiring a glassy or, more often, a partially crystalline condition. They are usually more or less porous. The igneous rocks thus formed upon the surface are called *extrusive*. Explosive action often accompanies volcanic eruptions, causing ejections of dust or ash and larger fragments. These materials when consolidated constitute breccias, agglomerates, and tuffs. The ash when carried into lakes or seas may become stratified, so as to have the structure of sedimentary rocks.

The age of an igneous rock is often difficult or impossible to determine. When it cuts across a sedimentary rock, it is younger than that rock, and when a sedimentary rock is deposited over it, the igneous rock is the older.

Under the influence of dynamic and chemical forces an igneous rock may be metamorphosed. The alteration may involve only a rearrangement of its minute particles or it may be accompanied by a change in chemical and mineralogic composition. Further, the structure of the rock may be

changed by the development of planes of division, so that it splits in one direction more easily than in others. Thus a granite may pass into a gneiss, and from that into a mica-schist.

Sedimentary rocks.—These comprise all rocks which have been deposited under water, whether in sea, lake, or stream. They form a very large part of the dry land.

When the materials of which sedimentary rocks are composed are carried as solid particles by water and deposited as gravel, sand, or mud, the deposit is called a *mechanical sediment*. These may become hardened into conglomerate, sandstone, or shale. When the material is carried in solution by the water and is deposited without the aid of life, it is called a *chemical sediment*; if deposited with the aid of life, it is called an *organic sediment*. The more important rocks formed from chemical and organic deposits are limestone, chert, gypsum, salt, iron ore, peat, lignite, and coal. Any one of the above sedimentary deposits may be separately formed, or the different materials may be intermingled in many ways, producing a great variety of rocks.

Sedimentary rocks are usually made up of layers or beds which can be easily separated. These layers are called *strata*. Rocks deposited in successive layers are said to be stratified.

The surface of the earth is not fixed, as it seems to be; it very slowly rises or sinks over wide expanses, and as it rises or subsides the shore-lines of the ocean are changed: areas of deposition may rise above the water and become land areas, and land areas may sink below the water and become areas of deposition. If North America were gradually to sink a thousand feet the sea would flow over the Atlantic coast and the Mississippi and Ohio valleys from the Gulf of Mexico to the Great Lakes; the Appalachian Mountains would become an archipelago, and the ocean's shore would traverse Wisconsin, Iowa, and Kansas, and extend thence to Texas. More extensive changes than this have repeatedly occurred in the past.

The character of the original sediments may be changed by chemical and dynamic action so as to produce *metamorphic rocks*. In the metamorphism of a sedimentary rock, just as in the metamorphism of an igneous rock, the substances of which it is composed may enter into new combinations, or new substances may be added. When these processes are complete the sedimentary rock becomes crystalline. Such changes transform sandstone to quartzite, limestone to marble, and modify other rocks according to their composition. A system of parallel division planes is often produced, which may cross the original beds or strata at any angle. Rocks divided by such planes are called *slates* or *schists*.

Rocks of any period of the earth's history may be more or less altered, but the younger formations have generally escaped marked metamorphism, and the oldest sediments known, though generally the most altered, in some localities remain essentially unchanged.

Surficial rocks.—These embrace the soils, clays, sands, gravels, and boulders that cover the surface, whether derived from the breaking up or disintegration of the underlying rocks by atmospheric agencies or from glacial action. Surficial rocks that are due to disintegration are produced chiefly by the action of air, water, frost, animals, and plants. They consist mainly of the least soluble parts of the rocks, which remain after the more soluble parts have been leached out, and hence are known as residual products. Soils and sub-soils are the most important. Residual accumulations are often washed or blown into valleys or other depressions, where they lodge and form deposits that grade into the sedimentary class. Surficial rocks that are due to glacial action are formed of the products of disintegration, together with boulders and fragments of rock rubbed from the surface and ground together. These are spread irregularly over the territory occupied by the ice, and form a mixture of clay, pebbles, and boulders which is known as till. It may occur as a sheet or be bunched into hills and ridges, forming moraines, drumlins, and other special forms. Much of this mixed material was washed away from the ice, assorted by water, and re-deposited as beds or trains of sand and clay, thus

forming another gradation into sedimentary deposits. Some of this glacial wash was deposited in tunnels and channels in the ice, and forms characteristic ridges and mounds of sand and gravel, known as osars, or eskers, and kames. The material deposited by the ice is called glacial drift; that washed from the ice onto the adjacent land is called modified drift. It is usual also to class as surficial rocks the deposits of the sea and of lakes and rivers that were made at the same time as the ice deposit.

AGES OF ROCKS.

Rocks are further distinguished according to their relative ages, for they were not formed all at one time, but from age to age in the earth's history. Classification by age is independent of origin; igneous, sedimentary, and surficial rocks may be of the same age.

When the predominant material of a rock mass is essentially the same, and it is bounded by rocks of different materials, it is convenient to call the mass throughout its extent a *formation*, and such a formation is the unit of geologic mapping.

Several formations considered together are designated a *system*. The time taken for the deposition of a formation is called an *epoch*, and the time taken for that of a system, or some larger fraction of a system, a *period*. The rocks are mapped by formations, and the formations are classified into systems. The rocks composing a system and the time taken for its deposition are given the same name, as, for instance, Cambrian system, Cambrian period.

As sedimentary deposits or strata accumulate the younger rest on those that are older, and the relative ages of the deposits may be discovered by observing their relative positions. This relationship holds except in regions of intense disturbance; sometimes in such regions the disturbance of the beds has been so great that their position is reversed, and it is often difficult to determine the relative ages of the beds from their positions; then *fossils*, or the remains of plants and animals, are guides to show which of two or more formations is the oldest.

Strata often contain the remains of plants and animals which lived in the sea or were washed from the land into lakes or seas or were buried in surficial deposits on the land. Rocks that contain the remains of life are called fossiliferous. By studying these remains, or fossils, it has been found that the species of each period of the earth's history have to a great extent differed from those of other periods. Only the simpler kinds of marine life existed when the oldest fossiliferous rocks were deposited. From time to time more complex kinds developed, and as the simpler ones lived on in modified forms life became more varied. But during each period there lived peculiar forms, which did not exist in earlier times and have not existed since; these are characteristic types, and they define the age of any bed of rock in which they are found. Other types passed on from period to period, and thus linked the systems together, forming a chain of life from the time of the oldest fossiliferous rocks to the present.

When two formations are remote one from the other and it is impossible to observe their relative positions, the characteristic fossil types found in them may determine which was deposited first.

Fossil remains found in the rocks of different areas, provinces, and continents, afford the most important means for combining local histories into a general earth history.

Colors and patterns.—To show the relative ages of strata, the history of the sedimentary rocks is divided into periods. The names of the periods in proper order (from new to old), with the color or colors and symbol assigned to each, are given in the table in the next column. The names of certain subdivisions of the periods, frequently used in geologic writings, are bracketed against the appropriate period name.

To distinguish the sedimentary formations of any one period from those of another the patterns for the formations of each period are printed in the appropriate period-color, with the exception of the first (Pleistocene) and the last (Archean).

the Pleistocene and the Archean, are distinguished from one another by different patterns, made of parallel straight lines. Two tints of the period-color are used: a pale tint (the underprint) is printed evenly over the whole surface representing the period; a dark tint (the overprint) is used on the different patterns representing formations.

PERIOD.	SYMBOL.	COLOR.
Pleistocene	P	Any colors.
Neocene { Pliocene	N	Bluffs.
{ Miocene		
Eocene (including Oligocene)	E	Olive-browns.
Cretaceous	K	Olive-greens.
Juratrias { Jurassic	J	Blue-greens.
{ Triassic		
Carboniferous (including Permian)	C	Blues.
Devonian	D	Blue-purple.
Silurian (including Ordovician)	S	Red-purple.
Cambrian	C	Pinks.
Algonkian	A	Orange-browns.
Archean	R	Any colors.

Each formation is furthermore given a letter-symbol of the period. In the case of a sedimentary formation of uncertain age the pattern is printed on white ground in the color of the period to which the formation is supposed to belong, the letter-symbol of the period being omitted.

The number and extent of surficial formations of the Pleistocene render them so important that, to distinguish them from those of other periods and from the igneous rocks, patterns of dots and circles, printed in any colors, are used.

The origin of the Archean rocks is not fully settled. Many of them are certainly igneous. Whether sedimentary rocks are also included is not determined. The Archean rocks, and all metamorphic rocks of unknown origin, of whatever age, are represented on the maps by patterns consisting of short dashes irregularly placed. These are printed in any color, and may be darker or lighter than the background. If the rock is a schist the dashes or hachures may be arranged in wavy parallel lines. If the rock is known to be of sedimentary origin the hachure patterns may be combined with the parallel-line patterns of sedimentary formations. If the metamorphic rock is recognized as having been originally igneous, the hachures may be combined with the igneous pattern.

Known igneous formations are represented by patterns of triangles or rhombs printed in any brilliant color. If the formation is of known age the letter-symbol of the formation is preceded by the capital letter-symbol of the proper period. If the age of the formation is unknown the letter-symbol consists of small letters which suggest the name of the rocks.

THE VARIOUS GEOLOGIC SHEETS.

Historical geology sheet.—This sheet shows the areas occupied by the various formations. On the margin is a *legend*, which is the key to the map. To ascertain the meaning of any particular colored pattern and its letter-symbol on the map the reader should look for that color, pattern, and symbol in the legend, where he will find the name and description of the formation. If it is desired to find any given formation, its name should be sought in the legend and its color and pattern noted, when the areas on the map corresponding in color and pattern may be traced out.

The legend is also a partial statement of the geologic history. In it the symbols and names are arranged, in columnar form, according to the origin of the formations—surficial, sedimentary, and igneous—and within each group they are placed in the order of age, so far as known, the youngest at the top.

Economic geology sheet.—This sheet represents the distribution of useful minerals, the occurrence of artesian water, or other facts of economic interest, showing their relations to the features of topography and to the geologic formations. All the formations which appear on the historical geology sheet are shown on this sheet by fainter color-patterns. The areal geology, thus printed, affords a subdued background upon which the areas of productive formations may be emphasized by strong colors. A symbol for mines is introduced at each occurrence, accompanied by the name of the principal mineral mined or of the stone quarried.

Structure-section sheet.—This sheet exhibits the

In cliffs, canyons, shafts, and other natural and artificial cuttings, the relations of different beds to one another may be seen. Any cutting which exhibits these relations is called a *section*, and the same name is applied to a diagram representing the relations. The arrangement of rocks in the earth is the earth's *structure*, and a section exhibiting this arrangement is called a *structure section*.

The geologist is not limited, however, to the natural and artificial cuttings for his information concerning the earth's structure. Knowing the manner of the formation of rocks, and having traced out the relations among beds on the surface, he can infer their relative positions after they pass beneath the surface, draw sections which represent the structure of the earth to a considerable depth, and construct a diagram exhibiting what would be seen in the side of a cutting many miles long and several thousand feet deep. This is illustrated in the following figure:

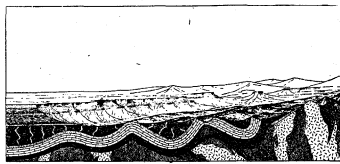


Fig. 2.—Sketch showing a vertical section in the front of the picture, with a landscape beyond.

The figure represents a landscape which is cut off sharply in the foreground by a vertical plane that cuts a section so as to show the underground relations of the rocks.

The kinds of rock are indicated in the section by appropriate symbols of lines, dots, and dashes. These symbols admit of much variation, but the following are generally used in sections to represent the commoner kinds of rock:

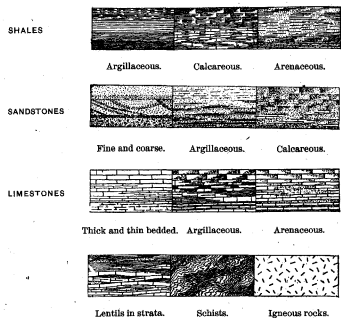


Fig. 3.—Symbols used to represent different kinds of rock.

The plateau in fig. 2 presents toward the lower land an escarpment, or front, which is made up of sandstones, forming the cliffs, and shales, constituting the slopes, as shown at the extreme left of the section.

The broad belt of lower land is traversed by several ridges, which are seen in the section to correspond to beds of sandstone that rise to the surface. The upturned edges of these beds form the ridges, and the intermediate valleys follow the outcrops of limestone and calcareous shales.

Where the edges of the strata appear at the surface their thickness can be measured and the angles at which they dip below the surface can be observed. Thus their positions underground can be inferred.

When strata which are thus inclined are traced underground in mining, or by inference, it is frequently observed that they form troughs or arches, such as the section shows. But these sandstones, shales, and limestones were deposited beneath the sea in nearly flat sheets. That they are now bent and folded is regarded as proof that forces exist which have from time to time caused the earth's surface to wrinkle along certain zones.

On the right of the sketch the section is composed of schists which are traversed by masses of igneous rock. The schists are much contorted and their arrangement underground can not be inferred. Hence that portion of the section delineates what is probably true but is not

In fig. 2 there are three sets of formations, distinguished by their underground relations. The first of these, seen at the left of the section, is the set of sandstones and shales, which lie in a horizontal position. These sedimentary strata are now high above the sea, forming a plateau, and their change of elevation shows that a portion of the earth's mass has swelled upward from a lower to a higher level. The strata of this set are parallel, a relation which is called *conformable*.

The second set of formations consists of strata which form arches and troughs. These strata were once continuous, but the crests of the arches have been removed by degradation. The beds, like those of the first set, are conformable.

The horizontal strata of the plateau rest upon the upturned, eroded edges of the beds of the second set at the left of the section. The overlying deposits are, from their positions, evidently younger than the underlying formations, and the bending and degradation of the older strata must have occurred between the deposition of the older beds and the accumulation of the younger. When younger strata thus rest upon an eroded surface of older strata the relation between the two is an *unconformable* one, and their surface of contact is an *unconformity*.

The third set of formations consists of crystalline schists and igneous rocks. At some period of their history the schists were plicated by pressure and traversed by eruptions of molten rock. But this pressure and intrusion of igneous rocks have not affected the overlying strata of the second set. Thus it is evident that an interval of considerable duration elapsed between the formation of the schists and the beginning of deposition of the strata of the second set. During this interval the schists suffered metamorphism; they were the scene of eruptive activity; and they were deeply eroded. The contact between the second and third sets, marking a time interval between two periods of rock formation, is another unconformity.

The section and landscape in fig. 2 are ideal, but they illustrate relations which actually occur. The sections in the structure-section sheet are related to the maps as the section in the figure is related to the landscape. The profiles of the surface in the section correspond to the actual slopes of the ground along the section line, and the depth of any mineral-producing or water-bearing stratum which appears in the section may be measured from the surface by using the scale of the map.

Columnar-section sheet.—This sheet contains a concise description of the rock formations which occur in the quadrangle. The diagrams and verbal statements form a summary of the facts relating to the character of the rocks, to the thicknesses of the formations, and to the order of accumulation of successive deposits.

The rocks are described under the corresponding heading, and their characters are indicated in the columnar diagrams by appropriate symbols. The thicknesses of formations are given under the heading "Thickness in feet," in figures which state the least and greatest measurements. The average thickness of each formation is shown in the column, which is drawn to a scale—usually 1000 feet to 1 inch. The order of accumulation of the sediments is shown in the columnar arrangement: the oldest formation is placed at the bottom of the column, the youngest at the top, and igneous rocks or other formations, when present, are indicated in their proper relations.

The formations are combined into systems which correspond with the periods of geologic history. Thus the ages of the rocks are shown, and also the total thickness of each system.

The intervals of time which correspond to events of uplift and degradation and constitute interruptions of deposition of sediments may be indicated graphically or by the word "unconformity," printed in the columnar section.

Each formation shown in the columnar section is accompanied by its name, a description of its character, and its letter-symbol as used in the maps and their legends.

CHARLES D. WALCOTT,

Director.

OUTLINES OF THE GEOLOGY OF WESTERN MASSACHUSETTS.

TOPOGRAPHY.

In order to follow this general description, which is applicable to territory extending beyond the limits of the Holyoke quadrangle, the reader is referred to the following topographic sheets of western Massachusetts: Greylock, Hawley, Greenfield, Becket, Chesterfield, Northampton, Sandisfield, Granville, and Springfield, all on a scale of 1 mile to 1 inch.

The Green Mountain range passes across the State of Massachusetts, between the valleys of the Connecticut River on the east and the Housatonic and Hoosic rivers on the west. It does not here include mountains of great height, as in Vermont, but is a broad plateau. On the west it is bounded by a high, steep, and continuous scarp; on the east it descends by a more gradual and undulating slope. The western crest has an elevation of about 2000 feet. The surface is deeply cut by narrow valleys, with a few rounded hills rising to inconsiderable heights above the average level.

The western and more elevated portion of this plateau lies along the eastern edge of Berkshire County and forms part of the Berkshire Hills, but the greater part of the upland occupies the western half of Franklin, Hampshire, and Hampden counties. Its western edge is a continuous divide from which nearly all its drainage is into the Connecticut. Only at one place, in Hinsdale, does this line of watershed make a large bend to the east so as to throw a considerable area of upland drainage to the west into the Housatonic.

The plateau is traversed in deep and narrow valleys by the main streams and branches of two principal rivers, the Deerfield and the Westfield. The Deerfield River, entering from Vermont with a southwest-erly course, turns abruptly eastward. At the bend is now the eastern entrance to the Hoosac Tunnel. The Agawam or Westfield River gathers its waters by three convergent streams: the Westfield River, flowing south from near the valley of the Deerfield; the Middle Fork of the Westfield, flowing south by east; and the West Fork of the Westfield, flowing southeast. The last-named stream rises in a gap in the crest of the plateau edge between Becket and Hinsdale. This gap is in fact a deep canyon, ample for the occupancy of a considerable river, in the swampy bottom of which the headwaters of the Westfield gather to flow east and those of the Housatonic to flow west. It is clear that this canyon was not made by the streams that now start there, but by a large river heading far to the west and flowing eastwardly.

The features of this plateau—its general uniformity of slope when considered as a whole, the hills rising above its surface, the valleys incised in its plain—these features and their relations record episodes in the development of the present landscape.

For example, the canyon at the headwaters of the Westfield River stands like a broken aqueduct opening above the Housatonic Valley. The river which carved the canyon had its source in the west beyond the latter valley and flowed over a surface high above that valley's level. To restore this condition the Housatonic Valley must be supposed filled to the plane of the eastward-sloping plateau. The narrow valleys of the Deerfield, the Westfield, and their tributaries may be conceived to have been filled in like manner. Thus there is restored an extensive plain, the original form from which the dissected plateau of the present time has been worked out. The greater breadth and depth of the Housatonic Valley, which is carved in limestone, as compared with the narrow Deerfield and Westfield valleys, which are cut in gneiss, are due to the fact that limestone offers much less resistance to erosion than does gneiss. It is the habit of streams to adjust their courses to lines of least resistance, along which the deeper channels are excavated. The relations of the Housatonic and Westfield rivers afford a striking illustration of this habit.

The plain in which these valleys are carved is being destroyed because it is elevated. The streams, having fall, are able to carry away loosened rock material, and they also use it as a tool with which to cut their

channels deeper. It is obvious that these existing conditions under which the plain is being destroyed are not those under which it was formed.

To gain an idea of the manner of development of the once level surface of the plateau, we may conceive the present process of gradual wearing down carried to completion. When the streams shall have carved away the elevations now existing, the plateau and hills will be reduced to a surface of very gentle slope, rising gradually from sea level. Such a plain is called a *penplain*, or, when worn to a uniform surface at the lowest altitude above sea, a *base-level*. In the course of development of such a penplain the sea may encroach upon its area. To the limits of the encroachment the waves cut away all low hills and fill hollows, producing a plain which is even more uniform than any stage of the penplain of erosion, except perhaps the extreme case of a base-level. Such a wave-smoothed surface is called a plain of *marine gradation*.

The former plain of the Green Mountain plateau may still be recognized by one who stands upon its surface and scans the horizontal sky line which represents it on a level with his position. It extended evenly westward from the Berkshire Hills over the now deep Housatonic-Hoosic Valley, to touch the crest lines of the Taconic Mountains, which lie along the western boundary of Massachusetts. Down this surface flowed the rivers which cut the upper canyon of the Westfield Valley in Washington and the Farmington Valley in Otis. Those who have most carefully studied the aspects of the plateau are agreed that it was once a penplain, worn down by frost, rains, and streams. They differ as to what part marine gradation may have played in modifying its surface. In any case it formerly extended from the sea by a gentle slope to moderate altitudes. It has been raised to its present elevation by earth movements, and these were no doubt as gradual as they were extensive and mighty.

To follow the history of the landscape of western Massachusetts still further back into the past, we must appeal to the rocks as guides. Their record is transcribed under the next head, "General geology," but something of it may appropriately be sketched here.

The carving of the old penplain of the Green Mountain plateau occurred during and before the so-called Cretaceous period of geological history. This period was, relatively speaking, only a short portion of the later history of the earth. In the process of leveling, elevations of some amount were removed. We are interested to know what was their magnitude. From this Cretaceous land and from that of the preceding period, the Juratrias, sediments were carried down to the sea and deposited in extensive beds, of which some part still remains as sandstones and shales. The volume of these deposits indicates that the hills which were destroyed in the process were of great bulk; perhaps they were mountains. But there is another line of evidence. The rocks of the Green Mountain plateau contain minerals and are characterized by fissile structures that develop only under great pressure, such as exists deep in the earth. Hence it is known that these rocks which are now at the surface were buried several thousand feet at least. The upward movement of the earth's crust which raised them, as the old penplain was being carved, was the growth of a mountain range. That range was destroyed in making the penplain, and the present range of the Green Mountains has grown on its site by renewed elevation and subsequent erosion. Thus two generations of mountains are recognized, and it may be that they were preceded by earlier ranges. Moreover, the history of the rocks themselves goes still further back, to periods when the sea prevailed over the region.

GENERAL GEOLOGY.

The rock masses which make up the structure of the Green Mountain plateau are of many varieties. They have been brought into their present relations by repeated action of physical and chemical forces, and the resulting architecture is very intricate. In the following paragraphs the general relations of the rock masses and the outlines of geological history will be stated. The

details of fact which constitute the record are described in the essay relating to each quadrangle.

The greater portion of the rocks of the Green Mountains in Massachusetts were once horizontal beds of gravels, sands, clays, and marls, which became consolidated into conglomerates, sandstones, shales, and limestones. They began to accumulate at a time remote in the geological past, when the region was invaded by the sea. There had been land of an extent not now known. It subsided and the sea spread over it. During the occupation of the district by the waters, which was prolonged, there were changes in the height of the land and the position of the shore line about the submerged area, and the sediments deposited in the sea varied accordingly. In these deposits were doubtless buried, as fossils, some of the early forms of life of the Cambrian and Silurian types. Eruptions of igneous rocks also occurred and caused the intercalation of various lavas with the sediments.

In adjustments of the earth's form during subsequent ages, down to and including the Carboniferous period, the Cambrian and Silurian rocks were subjected to chemical reactions and to pressures sufficiently powerful to disguise or obliterate the original structure of the rocks.

The sheets of sediment changed form in a manner which can best be compared to the crumpling of sheets of paper. The pressures to which the beds were subjected were greatest from east to west. They therefore forced the beds into folds running north and south. The folds developed as alternate arches and troughs; as the compression continued they were pinched together, so that many of the beds which had previously extended in a horizontal attitude came to stand vertical or nearly so. From such positions they were pressed over westward, overturned, and many of the folds laid in an eastward-sloping attitude. The folds were of various sizes, ranging from microscopic plications to arches several miles across. In the deeper portions of the whole mass the rocks were so confined, yet forced to move by such pressures, that they were squeezed and thrust one fold upon another. Where this occurred on a minute scale, as it did throughout the Green Mountains, the rocks are divided into thin laminae, which sometimes differ from the original layers in the sand and clay, and are therefore called schists.

In the course of this process fresh minerals crystallized everywhere. In the more clayey sediments the growth of minerals gave character to the schist, which is now called by the name of the distinctive mineral, as mica-schist. The more purely quartzose deposits were cemented by quartz, forming the dense rock called quartzite. Limestones crystallized to marbles, or, when they were clayey, into schists containing pyroxene, hornblende, and other silicates. The volcanic rocks have been altered into hornblende-schist and chlorite-schist, serpentine, and soapstone; and they may have furnished the iron for small beds of hematite and magnetite. All this is expressed in saying that the rocks are metamorphic rocks or crystalline schists.

In the processes of mountain growth and removal, portions of the folded rocks which were deeply buried have come to form the surface. The upper parts of the greater folds have been worn off. Thus the cut edges of the upturned beds are now exposed, and any one bed appears at the surface repeatedly. An illustration of folded and partially eroded beds in simple relations is given in fig. 2 of the Explanation on the inside pages of the cover. The more complex relations of the schists of the Green Mountain region are illustrated in the Structure-Section sheet of the accompanying folio. The greater folds have been traced by observing the dips of the beds and by identifying the recurrence of such beds as the amphibolite in the Hawley schist. The minor folds are too numerous to be made out, and the original thickness of the strata can not be determined with accuracy.

In the accompanying columnar section, fig. 1, is given the full column of the geological formations in the area here described. On comparing with this list the legend on the border of each sheet, the distribution and relative importance of each formation will appear clearly. In this table the

formations stand in their proper relative positions, the oldest at the bottom.

ALGONKIAN PERIOD.

In the usage adopted in this atlas the term "Archean" is applied to those most ancient crystalline rocks which form part of the original crust of the earth and which antedate and underlie the oldest sedimentary rocks. Used in this sense there may not be any Archean rocks in the region. The name "Algonkian" is applied to all sedimentary rocks up to the base of the Cambrian, which rocks are at present without known distinctive fauna and are usually highly crystalline. The Algonkian period, as here used, is therefore equivalent to the later portion of the Azoic of Lyell, the Eozoic of Dawson, and the Archean of Dana.

Washington gneiss.—The oldest rocks of this region appear at the surface in oval areas surrounded by younger strata. They have been laid bare by erosion of the beds which once deeply covered them. The line of these ovals extends south from the Hoosac Tunnel along the crest of the plateau. The rocks belong to the oldest sedimentary system, the Algonkian, and are highly crystalline. They consist of firm, coarse gneisses which contain minerals and possess structures

not formed in the later rocks, and thick beds of coarse and highly crystalline limestones with many minerals, some of which are rarely found in later limestones, as chondrodite, wernerite, dark pyroxene and hornblende, and coarsely crystallized graphite. Considerable beds of pyrrhotite, magnetite, and graphite also occur.

Because of the presence of these heavy limestones, which were probably of marine organic origin, we may assume that the whole series, except possibly the hornblende-gneiss of East Lee, was sedimentary, but we know nothing of the limits of the sea in which the strata were spread.

CAMBRIAN PERIOD.

Becket gneiss and Cheshire quartzite.—The rocks of the Algonkian period had grown old; they had assumed a highly crystalline texture, had been strongly folded and deeply eroded, and through many ages had stood as dry land, while the atmospheric waters had softened and disintegrated them to a very great depth. Then the land sank and the waters of the Cambrian sea advanced rapidly over it, coming apparently from the southwest. All the Algonkian rocks of this region were submerged, and beyond a shore line much farther east the dry land of the period extended where are now the waters of the north Atlantic. Such a broad advance of the waters upon the land is called technically a *transgression*. These waters in their progress over the sinking land washed the softened rocks into clean quartz beach sands, clayey and feldspathic sands, and pebble beds, and these became consolidated into sandstones, feldspathic sandstones, and conglomerates. They are now metamorphosed, the first into quartzite, and the other two into a gneiss in which, in many places, the traces of pebbles can still be seen. These rocks, part gneiss, part conglomerate, can often be seen to rest on the upturned edges of the older Algonkian gneiss. The coarse deposits formed near the eastern shore grade westward with considerable rapidity into the Stockbridge limestone, which indicates that the shallow water became deeper and clearer a short distance to the west, where the calcareous deposits gathered. Just beyond the limits of the region under consideration the rock has furnished fossils belonging to the first assemblage of organic forms yet discovered.

SILURIAN PERIOD.

Hoosac schist.—Beneath a sea which was probably still expanding beyond the shores which bounded it in Cambrian time, fine-grained sediment accumulated during the early part of the Silurian period. As compared with the older Becket gneiss, the finer grain of the sediment and the absence of iron and potash indicate more perfect sorting of the materials derived from adjacent lands. Such sorting is accomplished by waves and by currents which carry the finer material farther from shore. The resulting sandstone has now become a hydrated mica-schist,

Quadrangles referred to.

Origin of the rocks.

The most ancient rocks of this region, pre-Cambrian, are probably not Archean.

Evolution of the former plateau.

The great Cambrian transgression.

Green Mountain range, location and description.

Chemical and physical changes of Cambrian and Silurian rocks.

Changes of altitude in sheets of sediment.

Oldest sedimentary rocks—gneisses and limestones.

Berkshire Hills, the western portion of Green Mountain plateau.

Principal stream systems of the plateau.

Landscape of earlier geological periods.

Growth of new minerals.

Transgression of Cambrian sea and resultant deposits of sediment.

Uniformity of slope, hills and valleys of the plateau.

Restoration of former plateau surface—a plain.

Dissection of elevated plain.

which often contains newly formed feldspathic minerals, particularly albite. It has received the name Hoosac schist, as most appropriate for its whole extent in Massachusetts, but it corresponds to the Green Mountain gneiss of C. B. Adams, in the Vermont Survey. This schist is probably of about the same age as the upper portion of the Stockbridge limestone to the west, and is partly upper Cambrian and partly lower Silurian, though the rock is so uniform throughout from top to bottom that no dividing line can be drawn.

Rowe schist.—By a gradual transition from one kind of rock to another, the uppermost bed of the Hoosac schist changes in a few feet into the overlying Rowe schist. This is the rock that occurs in the region around the east portal of the Hoosac Tunnel and extends south across the State in a broad band which crosses the Boston and Albany Railroad between Middlefield station and the Chester town line.

The Rowe schist is a monotonous rock made up of quartz and a white mica called muscovite. It is usually nearly all quartz, though the mica seems the more important mineral because it is spread in thin scales on the surfaces of the layers. The mica easily becomes hydrated, changing to the variety called sericite or hydromica, which feels greasy, like talc. The rock is then a sericite- or hydromica-schist, and, like the Hoosac and Savoy schists in a similar condition, has been called talcooid or talc-schist. In some occurrences the Rowe schist contains garnets and chlorite, and then can not be distinguished from the Savoy schist above. The fact that the rock is largely free from feldspathic and iron-bearing minerals, which develop from the clayey portion of a sediment, and is composed chiefly of quartz, indicates that its materials had originally been more thoroughly waterworn and sorted even than those of the preceding deposits. It may be that during the Rowe epoch the broader expanse of the sea gave the waves more efficient action on the sands of that ancient shore, or that the materials had more than once passed through the line of breakers during fluctuations of the shore line before they came to rest in the Rowe deposits.

The Hoosac and Rowe schists represent a great thickness of sediments which accumulated not very far from shore, and therefore in waters that were comparatively shallow. We must then suppose that the bottom of the sea in which these deposits were gathering was steadily sinking a little faster than the sediments accumulated, and, from the gradual transition, that this sedimentation went on without interruption at the time of passage from the older to the newer formation.

Chester amphibolite.—In the sequence of strata the Rowe schist is followed by a formation which is peculiar in its character and mineral associations. It is a thin-bedded, greenish-black, heavy rock, consisting of matted needles of hornblende in a ground of quartz and plagioclase-feldspar grains. Such a rock is called an amphibolite or hornblende-schist. It is a formation generally of no great thickness, and, being tilted on edge in the present position of the rocks, it appears as a narrow band. It is named from the unique emery bed at Chester, which occurs in it.

The mineral character of this formation is variable. As it is followed southward the amphibolite changes several times locally into a serpentine, abounding in dolomite. In the great bed in Middlefield the serpentine retains the amphibolite structure, and there is an abrupt change from serpentine to amphibolite. In Chester the eastern border of the amphibolite is skirted by a bed of emery. From Blandford southward the amphibolite gradually gives place to enstatitic dolomite, serpentine, and steatite.

These mineral associations may have had their origin partly in lavas and volcanic fragmental deposits or in beds of ferruginous magnesian limestone. It would appear that they were derived chiefly from impure limestone, with a possible admixture of basic eruptives, but the relative importance of these factors is undetermined. As a limestone occupying a place between the sandy Rowe and Savoy deposits, the formation testifies to the presence of deeper waters over the area and the existence of conditions favorable to calcareous deposition.

Savoy schist.—The Savoy rock is a sericite-schist like the Rowe schist. It is usually of finer grain and more micaceous, and it more generally

carries large garnets, which are surrounded by films of green chlorite. Blotches of chlorite formed from garnets are also common in the rock. Beds of hornblende-schist appear more abundantly than in the Rowe schist. The Savoy schist

stretches in a broad band eastward from the Chester hornblende zone, and is crushed into many folds, which in this wooded country covered with glacial clays can rarely be unraveled. The thickness of the formation can therefore not be determined definitely, but the deposit was of great

volume and, like the material of the Rowe schist, consisted of well-sorted sediment.

Hawley schist.—A formation consisting of highly ferruginous minerals is distinguishable above the Savoy schist. The prevailing rock is a soft, chloritic schist abounding in carbonates of iron and magnesia, and in black hornblende needles, which are often gathered in sheaves on the faces of slabs. These sheaves are called *fasciculite*. Many bands of hornblende-schist, some of great thickness, can be traced for long distances. The abundance of iron contained in this formation suggests the possibility that it represents a period of volcanic activity, but no trace of a distinctly volcanic rock can be found in it. A concentration of iron in sediments may have been due to conditions favorable for the separation of iron carbonate as a constituent of calcareous deposits. It may be, also, that a part of the ferruginous Chester formation had become subject to erosion and thus furnished the material for these well-bedded iron-bearing strata of the Hawley schist.

An interesting similarity may be traced between the sequence of formations of Cambrian and Silurian age thus far described and the succession of formations of the Juratrias period in the Connecticut Valley. The later history can be more accurately read and serves to suggest the events of the earlier. In the Juratrias period a rapidly encroaching sea spread the coarse debris of granite, forming a feldspathic conglomerate, which if metamorphosed would resemble the Becket gneiss. Finer feldspathic sandstones followed in the Juratrias sequence, and these would readily be altered to rocks like the Hoosac and Rowe schists. The trap sheets and broad-spread tuff beds of the Connecticut Valley may have had their earlier representatives in the Chester amphibolite. The ferruginous formation in each of the two periods is followed by light-colored rocks—light-buff sandstones in the Juratrias and the Savoy schist in the Silurian; but later the iron of the traps affected the color of the upper sandstones of the Juratrias, coloring them dark red; and similarly the Hawley schists may be rich in iron because the ferruginous rocks of the Chester contributed to their deposit. Suggestive as this correspondence of characteristics in the two periods is, it is not to be supposed that history repeated itself very closely. Diverse processes under different conditions may produce similar results, and the facts described are not so peculiar as to admit of one interpretation only.

Goshen schist.—The schists described above, from the Hoosac upward, have been called the talcose schists by the earlier geologists. The Goshen and succeeding formations were called by them the calciferous mica-schist. They are much less metamorphosed than the older strata. This is indicated by the presence of abundant carbonaceous material, by the smaller size of the newly formed minerals, and by the retention in good degree of the original structure of the clayey sandstones from which they were formed.

The Goshen schist is altered from its original condition by the abundant growth of a white mica among the sand grains of which it was at first mainly composed, and the whole is darkened by a fine, coaly dust. In this are thickly spread small garnets, staurolites, and spangles of black mica set across the bedding. It breaks in flags a few inches thick, which are much used for sidewalks. Many beds are almost purely quartzose and are used for scythestones.

Conway schist.—This formation is distinguished from the one below by the intense corrugation of the schists and by abundant beds of a black, coaly and micaceous limestone, which have changed at the top and bottom into hornblende-schist for a few inches in depth. Blocks of this limestone weather into peculiar forms, like anvils and plowshares, the top and bottom being the resistant schist, the central shaft the easily dissolved limestone. Several thick beds of hornblende-schist are also found in this formation. The limestone and hornblende-schist distinguish it from the Goshen, in which these rocks are wanting. Eastwardly the rock changes into a coarse, rusty muscovite-biotite-schist, often somewhat feldspathic. In the extreme south it maintains this character and assumes the aspect of a bedded granite or gneiss. This is due to the prevalence of true eruptive granite, from which, while it was still hot, alkaline solutions penetrated the schist,

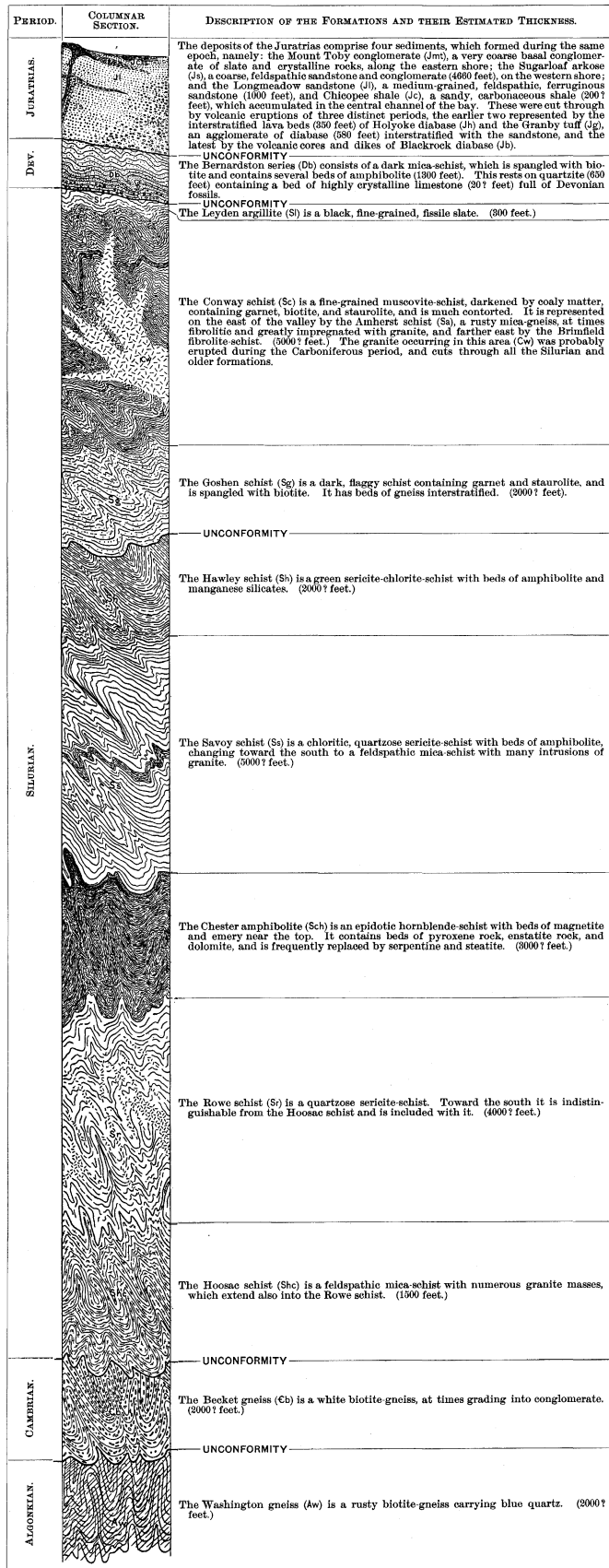


FIG. 1.—GENERALIZED SECTION OF THE ROCKS OF WESTERN MASSACHUSETTS, SHOWING THEIR SEQUENCE AND PRESENT COMPRESSED STRUCTURE.

producing feldspars. The rock here becomes comparatively barren of accessory minerals, though cyanite occurs near the base of the bed in fine crystals.

The Goshen and Conway schists occupy an area wider than that of all the other formations combined, but the two contract suddenly and do not reach the southern border of the State.

Leyden argillite.—This slaty rock is widely spread in Vermont, and enters Massachusetts in Leyden, occupying the whole of the town. It passes south beneath the Juratrias sandstones in Greenfield and Deerfield, and reappears in Whately, where it is cut off on the south by the eruptive tonalite. It is the least altered rock of the Paleozoic column. Originally a black mud rock, it is now a black slate composed of a felt of microscopic scales of mica inclosing small grains of original quartz and much coaly matter, derived from the organic bodies it once contained. When most changed small pustules indicate the beginning of garnets or black mica crystals, and it is often netted with quartz veins. It is highly corrugated, and where by pressure a cleavage structure was produced it makes good roofing slate. At its contact with the eruptives it is changed into a chialotite-schist, or even a chlorite-gneiss.

The deposits of the Goshen and Conway schists and Leyden argillite make a continuous series, separated from formations below and above by considerable unconformities. They doubtless were laid down in a sea having boundaries and history different from those before and after it. Their limits on the south and west are successively narrower, the Leyden, the latest of the three, lying within the Conway, and the Conway within the Goshen, the oldest. Hence it may be inferred that the sea had shrunk northeastward, or that the land had expanded in that direction, during the corresponding epochs.

DEVONIAN PERIOD.

Bernardston formation.—Next above the Leyden argillite occurs a conglomerate composed in part of pebbles derived from that formation and deposited upon it near their source. Such a bed is called a basal conglomerate. In order that they should produce such pebbles, the Leyden strata must have hardened and been raised to form a shore line against which broke the waves of the Devonian sea. Quartz veins also had developed in the argillite. These changes imply the lapse of considerable time between the Leyden epoch and that during which the sedimentary deposits were continued by the return of the sea over this area. The pebble beds mark the fourth unconformity in the Paleozoic history of the province, the Cambrian transgression having been the first, the break at the base of the Silurian the second, and that separating the Hawley and Goshen schists the third. The basal conglomerate and the deposits succeeding it were spread over Bernardston and Vernon and are known as the Bernardston formation. They are now greatly altered; the pebbles have been mashed as if they had been soft metal, and the whole conglomerate is locally changed to gneiss. The gneiss grades up into thick beds of quartzite, upon the faces of which there is much newly formed mica. Beds of limestone inclosed in these quartzites still contain upper Devonian corals, crinoids, brachiopods, and other shells, although the rock is so coarse-grained that cleavage pieces of calcite more than an inch across can sometimes be split from it.

Above these altered sandstones and limestones comes a series that was once composed of clayey beds with interposed limestone beds. The former have been changed into mica-schists and the latter into thick strata of hornblende-schist.

CARBONIFEROUS PERIOD.

There are no sedimentary rocks of Carboniferous date known in western Massachusetts, although they occur in the eastern part of the State about Narragansett Bay and near Worcester. If such beds were deposited here they have been entirely removed by erosion. It is more probable that the region had been raised above sea after the deposition of the Bernardston Devonian formation, and formed part of the extensive Carboniferous continent.

In tracing the history of the Paleozoic age from

the Cambrian period to the Carboniferous, it has been noted that the older Algonkian rocks were more metamorphosed than the succeeding Cambrian deposits; that the Cambrian and early Silurian formations, including the Hawley schist, had suffered more disturbance than had the strata of later Silurian age; and that the Devonian beds were less altered than any of the older rocks. The degree of metamorphism serves to distinguish these several groups of formations, and marks the fact that the earlier ones were repeatedly disturbed, folded, and mashed in successive earth movements. Such movements raised land areas, possibly to mountainous altitudes, at several epochs during the Silurian and Devonian periods. During or near the close of the Carboniferous period, however, occurred the culminating movements which, to a still higher degree, folded and metamorphosed all the older rocks. It is associated in time and effect with movements

which affected the entire Appalachian mountain system and in New England were followed by intrusions of granitic igneous rocks among the sedimentary formations. The granites are composed of quartz, potash feldspar, and mica or hornblende. On account of the proportionately large amount of quartz which they contain they are called acid rocks. They are thus contrasted with the so-called basic igneous rocks, which contain little or no quartz and much iron, such as the Juratrias diabase described below.

The acid granitic rocks, while intensely heated, melted or forced their way up through the already folded strata in huge domes several miles across, which sent out a multitude of dikes, like branches, into the surrounding schists. The rocks now at the surface were probably intruded at considerable depth, but have been since uncovered by deep denudation. Their domes extend along the eastern border of the valley from near the Deerfield River to the south line of the State.

The central portion of one of them, extending from near Whately to Northampton, is more basic than the others and is called tonalite. Bordering this is a granite containing black mica, and outside this is a granite containing both black and white micas. These extensive areas of granite and the bordering rock have been greatly cracked and the fissures occupied by coarse granite or pegmatite veins, which have been formed largely by the intervention of water, and around the edge of the whole complex mass these veins carry many fine and rare minerals. Still farther out is a zone of immense quartz veins.

JURATRIAS PERIOD.

The events of the Paleozoic age, constituting a prolonged history of geographic changes, had come to a close, and a land not greatly unlike the present in general configuration had been established, when a new sedimentary record was begun in a bay occupying the position of the Connecticut Valley in Connecticut and Massachusetts. The shores of the bay were the west scarp of the Worcester County plateau on the east and the east scarp of the Green Mountain plateau on the west, and extended from near Brattleboro, Vermont, to New Haven, Connecticut. The sea waters rose to a considerable height above the present level of the bordering plateaus, and spread sediments brought in from these elevated regions on either side of the bay. The shoreward sediments on the east are represented by the Mount Toby conglomerates, and the Sugarloaf formation is the synchronous deposit formed along the western shore. The Longmeadow sandstone was deposited in the shallower and quieter off-shore area, and in the central zone of this latter area, where the basin was widest, the still finer Chicopee shale was laid down. All these deposits are partly contemporaneous sediments, differing as the strength of the current and the character of the shore rocks affected them. Strong tides, like those of the Bay of Fundy, seem to have swept up the west side of the bay, carrying the material of the granitic shore rocks far north, to rest against a shore made of the dark schists, and the return currents ran along the east shore, carrying the eastern shoreward south, while quieter waters and shifting currents spread the sediments in the central area.

The accumulation of sediments was interrupted by an eruption of lava through a fissure in the earth's crust, which opened along the bottom of the basin. The lava flowed east and west on the

bottom of the bay, as tar oozes and spreads from a crack, and solidified in a sheet which may have been 2 or 3 miles wide and about 400 feet thick in its central part. This is the main sheet or Holyoke diabase. The sheet was soon covered with sand layers, but its thickness was such that it had shallowed the waters to near tide level, and thus occasioned extensive mud flats. This was an area suitable for the formation and preservation of unique records of the life of the time. The curiously shaped and often huge reptiles of that age wandered over the mud exposed at low tide, and their footprints, being covered by the deposit of the next flood tide, constitute the so called "bird tracks" which have been found in such great numbers and perfection.

The sands had reached a considerable thickness over the first trap bed when a second outflow of the trap followed, represented by the posterior bed or Hampden diabase. Immediately after the outflow of this sheet an explosive eruption took place, and blocks of diabase and pulverized lava were spread by the waters over a broad area, forming the Granby tuff bed. A third period of volcanic activity followed, during which a line of small volcanoes broke out along the old fissure beneath the bay. The area was next the scene of dislocations or faults, by which the mass of sedimentary and volcanic rocks was divided into great blocks, often extending north and south. The blocks slipped one past another along nearly vertical planes. In these dislocations the strata were generally tilted eastward.

Upon the map the faults which bound these blocks are clearly indicated where they cross the trap ridges. They are approximately parallel, and run about N. 20° E., crossing the trap ridges at very small angles. They are doubtless equally abundant over the rest of the district, but the sandstones include no peculiar bed which can be identified for long distances, and are so largely covered that the faults can not be traced. Because of the unequal tilting of these blocks the outcrop of the main sheet has a peculiar, lobed appearance, and the eastern sheet is broken into parts widely separated from each other. In these movements, associated perhaps with general uplift of the area, the bay became land and the rocks were exposed to erosion.

The subsequent history of the region, during the later part of the Juratrias, the Cretaceous, Eocene, and Neocene periods, is recorded only in the aspects of the landscape. In Cretaceous time the heights of the Juratrias uplift were eroded to an extensive peneplain, which now forms the level of the Green Mountain plateau, as has already been explained. This plain is also represented in the crests of the trap ridges in the Connecticut Valley, the trap rock having maintained the level, while the soft sandstones surrounding it were worn away. In consequence of the elevation of the region after Cretaceous time and the activity of the ordinary atmospheric agents, the surface had been engraved nearly to its present relief of valleys and hills when the unusual conditions of the Glacial epoch were brought about. The history from the beginning of glaciation is described under the next heading.

PLEISTOCENE PERIOD.

Glacial epoch.—The landscapes of New England owe their generally rounded profiles to the effect of an ice sheet or continental glacier which spread over the region in recent geological time. The ice expanded from a center of accumulation in the Canadian Highlands, and the phenomena of ice erosion and deposition are widespread. Before the expansion of the ice sheet the relief of the region was essentially what it is now, but the rocks were deeply decayed and buried beneath clay and partly decomposed minerals. This layer the ice ground off and carried forward, distributing it as a peculiar stiff clay, or hardpan, containing a heterogeneous variety of boulders. Such a deposit, characteristically developed only under glaciers, is called *till*. Till extends as a thick sheet very generally covering the rocks of all the part of western Massachusetts. This deposit often thickens into very regular hills, which are elongate in the direction of the motion of the ice. They are called *drumlins*, or locally "hogbacks." They are marked features of the landscape in the valley, especially near Northfield and Northamp-

ton. They are formed beneath the ice as bars are formed beneath water. Where bare bosses remain the rocks are rounded and smoothed. They were also frequently scratched by stones dragged along in the bottom of the ice, and from these striæ the direction of the movement can be ascertained. The ice flowed over the plateau in a general course S. 35° E., and down the Connecticut Valley from north to south. Although this course lay across hills and valleys which present irregularities of several hundred feet, the ice was turned aside only locally by the most marked heights and depressions. Hence it is inferred that it must have been of very great thickness.

The till and glaciated rock surfaces in the Connecticut Valley are broadly covered by later sand and clay deposits formed during the epoch of glacial retreat, from flood waters of the Connecticut River. In the upland valleys similar deposits accumulated locally in lakes dammed by the ice.

Deposits of the epoch of glacial retreat.—After the ice had so far shrunk that parts of the ground were no longer covered, the abundant waters from its continued melting were drained off to the south-east, down the slope of the plateau.

The broad valley of the Connecticut was the main outlet of this drainage, and as the country then stood nearly 200 feet lower than now, the fall was slight and the waters spread in a succession of lakes. The central trap ridges divided the waters into three separate bodies, which I have called the Montague, Hadley, and Springfield lakes. The tributaries sent great sand and gravel deltas out into these lakes, and fine thin-laminated clays, in which arctic leaves are found, collected over their bottoms.

The fact that the drainage west of the Connecticut Valley was southeast, while the ice front of the great glacier retreated toward the northwest, favored the clearing out of the main channels of drainage and allowed the waters generally to flow off freely. Therefore, there were in that region few glacial lakes or streams emptying in directions now abandoned, but some such transient bodies of water have left the evidence of their former presence in flat-topped deposits of well-sorted sands and gravels over the surface of the plateau and at high levels along the valleys of the main streams. Thus by the damming of the Deerfield River near Shelburne Falls the waters of this stream were sent south across Buckland, Ashfield, and Williamsburg to join the Mill River and enter the Connecticut at Northampton, and the damming of the Westfield Little River sent the waters south across Granville and formed the broad sand flats that occupy that township. When the ice resting in the Housatonic Valley formed a dam across the Hinsdale, East Lee, and Tyringham valleys, glacial lakes were formed whose heavy sand beds are still thrown across these valleys. Many similar instances are mentioned in the description of the separate quadrangles.

With the disappearance of the ice from the drainage area of the Connecticut, the system of lakes shrank suddenly to the present river. The old shore lines of these lakes are now 380 feet above sea on the north line of the State, 300 feet at Northampton, 180 feet at the south line of the State, and down near sea level at New Haven. As fine clays were deposited over all the bottoms of the lakes, there can then have been but little current through them, and therefore little fall. Since then the land must have risen in the latitude of Northampton nearly 200 feet. This has given the Connecticut new power of erosion, and it has cut down through the lake beds and swung east and west, forming the beautiful terraces which border the stream and make much of the charm of the valley scenery. These terraces are the sites of many of the most attractive towns along the river. As the river has swung to and fro, it has built up the broad, rich meadows which make the best farming land of the district. The great deltas of Mill and Chicopee rivers had reached clear across the lake, so that when the lake gave place to the river the latter could not regain its pre-glacial bed, which is far east of and much lower than its present one. It therefore soon cut through the lake beds and came to the rock. Thus the waterfalls at Turners Falls and Holyoke were formed and the water power of the river was concentrated at these points. This has determined the sites of the largest industries in the valley.

Continuation of earth movements in the Carboniferous period.

Volcanic activity and records of animal life.

Carbonaceous clay deposits altered to argillite.

Granitic intrusions.

Goshen and Conway schists and Leyden argillite contemporaneous series.

Faulting of sedimentary and volcanic rocks.

Lakes and streams occasioned by the ice sheet.

Landscapes of post-Juratras periods.

Development of Connecticut embayment.

Character of the Devonian rocks.

Relations of conglomerates and brown sandstones.

Deposits beneath the ice.

Changes since the glacial epoch.

Deposits beneath the ice.

Basin in Massachusetts was occupied by three confluent lakes, whose extent within this quadrangle is shown in fig. 2. The northwest corner of the Springfield lake, between South Hadley and Springfield, extends into this quadrangle. The contrast in temperature north and south of the Holyoke Range was great, and the ice melted south of the mountain while it lingered north of it. Thus the Springfield lake was formed while the basin of the Hadley lake was still filled with ice. Waters flowed over the ice and through the notches, sweeping with them bodies of coarse sand, which were deposited in the northwestern part of the Springfield lake.

The great sand bar that stretches from Titans Pier to the north of Bachelor Brook, east of the Connecticut, is composed of sands that must have come through the Holyoke notch and over the surface of the ice covering the region north of Mount Holyoke. The reason for believing that the sands came over the ice is because they commence in the notches at levels above that reached by the Connecticut lakes, and because the plains north and west of the range are underlain at low level by fine clays, showing that in the Hadley lake there was no current able to move coarse sands southward through the notch.

Extensive sand plains stretch west from the old mouth of the Chicopee River at Collins station and cover almost the whole area across Chicopee, Springfield, and Longmeadow. The great plain now sinks from about 300 feet above sea in South Hadley to 200 feet in Longmeadow and Agawam, and its sands grow finer in the same direction because the distance from the center of supply increases in this direction. The Westfield plain just west of the notch of the Westfield River in the trap range stands 70 to 80 feet higher than the Agawam plain just east, because it stands nearer its source of supply—the Westfield River—which entered the lake west of Westfield, and was therefore filled to a higher level; and because there was small transfer of sediment through the narrow notch in the trap ridge.

These great lakes received fine sediments as well as coarse, and clays were deposited over all the central portions while the deltas advanced from the shores. Growing into the lake the deltas covered the clays, and the later erosion by the river discloses buff sands underlain by clay which rests on till. These clays are at least 160 feet thick in Northampton. They are in layers two-fifths of an inch thick, the lower portion of the finest clay, grading into very fine sandy clay in the upper part. The lower portion was deposited when the lake was frozen over, in winter; the upper, during the floods from the melting ice, in summer. Beneath the till are the Juratrias sandstones. Thus the beds of thin-laminated clays, which are worked for brick from Chicopee to Greenfield and in the Westfield basin, have been exposed in the bluffs formed by the wear of the rivers in the edge of the old lake deposits.

The slope of the lake beds across Springfield from Collin's bridge in the next quadrangle east down to the plains of Agawam is slight and gradual, and the surface is not divided by any scarp or marked slope. This indicates that the conditions of deposition were nearly uniform throughout the lake, and not, as in the Hadley lake, markedly different according to the material brought in by different streams.

The eastern shore bench of the Hadley lake lies along the flank of the Pelham Hills, just beyond the limits of the quadrangle.

The shore line was at the level of the post-office steps in Amherst. The College grounds and the Prospect street ridge formed an L-shaped island in the lake.

The eastern bench enters the quadrangle with the plains around North Amherst, which are the delta of Cushman Brook, which entered the lake near the upper Cushman mill. The great Florence plain, extending north into Hatfield and south into West Farms and Loudville and east to underlie all the settled portion of Northampton, is the delta of the Mill River. Its great size is due to the fact that it received the floods from the melting ice over the western hills, after the broad valley had become an open lake.

One must restore in imagination the sand worn away by the Mill River to form alluvial meadows, and think of the Florence plain continuous with the plain west of the deep river bottom. Looking west across the plain, the bowlder-covered shore hills rise suddenly from the sand level; looking east, the restored plain descends from 300 feet in Florence to 200 feet in Northampton, as if projected out into deeper waters. The material of this delta is fine, sorted and stratified sands and gravels, coarser near the mouth of the incoming stream at Leeds, finer toward the border from Northampton to Loudville. Many bowlder-strew islands rise above its level.

A great spur of land extends southeast from Mount Warner. It was once a long, curved bar, which sloped gently into the deeper waters of the lake. The conditions along the Bay road on the north slope of Mount Holyoke are present. As the ice melted back from the Holyoke Range, temporary lakes formed and filled with sand at a high level. The shore bench of the lake was worn at a lower level into these sands, and they were partly removed and spread by underflow in a long northward slope into the deeper waters of the lake.

Because of the greater width of the Hadley lake in its central portion, and because the north,

east, and south sides received no considerable tributaries, the lake basin was much less filled than the others.

The Southampton-Westfield Valley is occupied by a part of the south lobe of the Hadley lake, which is separated from the northern basin by islands of Juratrias sandstone. Sands brought into the lake by the Manhan River were spread at the highest water level, and joined with the great delta of the Westfield River. Thus the broad Hampden plains were formed. In the most sheltered part of the basin the sands surround the large depression of Hampton Pond.

Imagine the sands restored to the old level in the area subsequently eroded by the Westfield River and a great plain formed by the union of the Hampden plain north of the river and the Poverty plain south of the same. The plain, if thus restored, would now slope gradually southward from 200 feet above sea level to about 280 feet in the latitude of The Notch, and then rise again southward where the delta sands of the Westfield River extended across to abut against Proven Mountain. The name "Poverty plain" is an expressive one for these extensive and desolate reaches of coarse sand.

The shore bench of the Hadley lake adjoins the low lake bottom by a steep scarp along delta fronts, and by a long, easy slope where deltas did not form, as along the north foot of the Holyoke and Mount Tom ranges, or around the drumlins.

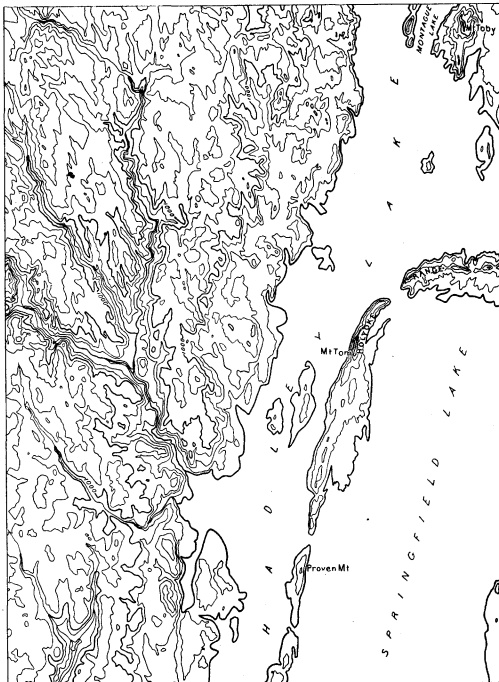


FIG. 2.—THE CONFLUENT GLACIAL LAKES OF THE CONNECTICUT VALLEY. A MAP OF THE HOLYOKE QUADRANGLE, SHOWING THE POSITION OF THE THREE GLACIAL LAKES WHICH OCCUPIED THE CONNECTICUT VALLEY DURING THE RETREAT OF THE ICE. THE TOPOGRAPHY OF THE LAND AREAS IS THAT OF THE PRESENT SURFACE, REPRESENTED IN CONTOURS OF 200-FOOT INTERVAL, REFERRED TO THE PRESENT SEA LEVEL AS A DATUM PLANE.

The stratified gravels, coarse near the mouth of the old streams, as at the head of the South Leverett plain, at Cushman's mills in North Amherst, and at Leeds, grow gradually finer away from the head of the delta, as across the Florence plain. In passing into the deeper and quieter waters of the lake the sand layers grade into the delicate sand films which part the clay layers.

With the rise of each spring flood a new layer of sand and gravel was carried across the delta flat, and the finest sand was spread in a thin layer far out across the lake bottom, dwindling in size of grain and thickness. In the winter the stagnating waters clarified themselves, and the layer of fat clay resulted. It is on the surface of these exceedingly thin sand layers that oyster leaves of *Viola palustris* L., *Vaccinium like oyscoccus* L., *V. uliginosum*, *Rhododendron lapponicum* Wahl., *Arctostaphylos alpina* Spr., *A. uva-ursi* Spr., *Oxyria digyna* Campd., *Salix cutteri* Tuck., and *Lycopodium selago* L., occur in the clays exposed along the river bank below Hadley, in the clay pits near the asylum in Northampton, at the Central Railroad station, and at the clay pits near Kellogg's plane factory in Amherst.

Oscillations of the ice front.—The advance and

retreat of the glacial ice in the Connecticut Valley were not a single event. Between the first advance marked by the lowest till, and the final retreat occurred several episodes of retreat and advance of greater or less extent and duration. These events are recorded in alternating beds of till and sands, which may vary from place to place and are not often completely exposed.

In the long cutting of the Canal Railroad extension near the Camp Meeting grounds on the north line of Northampton, the interlocking of the till and sand deposits showed clearly that the ice after receding from this point in the valley twice readvanced over it. The section indicated that the flat-topped shore bench may elsewhere also have a structure of unexpected complexity. The peak of a fine drumlin was uncovered, and from its south end a great morainic talus of coarse bowlders extended, the drumlin having been molded beneath the ice and the moraine being made afterward of coarse, loose material as the ice withdrew. Above these a layer of pink beach sands, at times 12 to 15 feet thick, was spread. These sands were wholly unlike the rapidly gathered glacial sands, being perfectly rounded and sorted. This represented the first period of recession of the ice, which may have been of considerable duration. A fine layer of till 4 or 5 feet thick was carried over this sand, contouring and eroding it for a long way south of the drumlin, and this marks the first readvance of the ice.

This was covered by heavy sands of the common high terrace type, 22 feet in thickness exposed, dipping southward 20 to 30 degrees in great sheets with strong cross bedding, and traceable south in unbroken exposure a quarter of a mile. Each great inclined sheet becomes horizontal and extends south, gradually thinning, and being continued as a film of sand between layers of fat clay, into which the sand grades.

ent into the soft deposits. Being in consequence loaded with sediment, it cut into its banks, first on one side and then on another, and thus meandered in increasing curves from side to side of the valley. In thus sweeping across the plain the river cut level benches, upon which its floods spread deposits of sand and silt.

The terrace sands are medium, buff sands, delicately cross-bedded by the fine variations of the current that spread them. A rich layer of loam or loess, often 8 feet thick, is spread over the surface of the completed meadow. It is the aggregate contribution of many floods, its bedding destroyed by wind, weather, and frost, and it forms the most fertile soil in Massachusetts. The river has swung far to the west, forming the broad Hatfield and Northampton meadows, and to the east building up the rich meadows of Sunderland and Hadley.

Above Holyoke the river quickly cut down to rock, and runs in a narrow rock-bordered channel. South of this it has built up the Williamsett meadow, swinging east to form the high, steep scarp that bounds the broad Westfield plain to the east, built by the lake. The Crowfoot Brook at the foot of this scarp is a good illustration of what is called below the repulsion of tributaries. In swinging westward from the foot of the scarp the river built the meadow up as a series of islands, and the tributaries found their way round the lower ends of these islands to join the river as far down stream as possible. The river then swung east to form the meadow south of Ashleyville, but was not able to go farther east because of rock near the bridge over Chicopee River.

South of Brightwood the terrace system is more complicated, and more interesting. The highest terrace made by the river on the east side follows the 100-foot contour line from Brightwood through the thickly settled parts of the city of Springfield, running just beneath the army grounds and ending near the mouth of the Peowee Brook. When formed the terrace was bounded outwardly by a smoothly curved scarp, which is now cut back by many small notches caused by springs and more deeply indented by the depression in which the Boston and Albany Railroad reaches the plain and by the Mill River. Each of the three principal streets running parallel to the river, Chestnut, Main, and Water streets, occupies the flat of a terrace formed by the Connecticut; and Round Hill, north of the Memorial Church, is a remnant of the 100-foot terrace which the stream has not worn away. The most probable explanation of this hill is that the Connecticut formerly flowed east of it, and bent westward toward Riverdale on the north and toward West Springfield on the south, forming an oxbow around this hill and then cutting off the oxbow in the neighborhood of the upper bridge and running west of the island.

In order to understand the complex and beautiful system of terraces around Springfield, one must suppose the old lake bottom restored. The 200-foot plain east of Liswells Hill in Agawam was then continuous with the 300-foot plain north of Mittenague, and the whole was continuous eastward at the same level over all the low ground of Agawam and West Springfield with the 200-foot plains north, east, and south of Springfield. It was an unbroken area of the same coarse sands found in the remnants that are left, and underlain by the same clays that now crop out everywhere from beneath these sands. The Connecticut, after the disappearance of the lake, ran down over the lowest part of the plain, not very far perhaps from its present course. It swung east, lowering its bed meanwhile, to its most easterly limit. It then ran at the 130-foot level from Riverdale south to the headwaters of Threemile Brook, and then southeastward to its present bed opposite Longmeadow station. It swung east again, building up the plain at the 120-foot level. This, as the oldest plain of the series, has suffered most from later erosion, but is well preserved about the head waters of Threemile Brook. The Westfield River then entered the Connecticut just east of Mittenague.

The stream then swung east until it formed the steep scarp east of Chestnut street from Brightwood to Peowee Brook, and swinging west again it formed the plain along the west edge of which this street runs and then deepened its channel to the 65-foot level to form the depression east of Round Hill. Then, as noted above, it seems to have swung westward on the north and south of Round Hill until the bends touched to the west of this hill and the stream transferred its bed suddenly to the west, leaving the hill an isolated portion of a plain at the 100-foot level of nearly the same age as the Chestnut street plain. At the time when the river flowed east of this hill, however, the plain of which its surface is a part stretched westward continuously, forming part of the plain on which Riverdale stands. The Connecticut, after forming this oxbow, moved west as far as Agawam village, and then bore east again to its present position, while the Westfield River lengthened eastward to keep in touch with the main stream, and swung north and south, carving its own terraces in the deposits formed by the Connecticut.

The southward course of Threemile Brook, as well as the peculiar course of the Westfield River below Mittenague, are cases of the repulsion of tributaries as described below.

A few rods north of the mouth of the Freshman River in the bank of the Connecticut south of Hadley, where a fresh exposure is maintained by the erosion of the river, two projections appear in the bank, marked by bluish-gray color in place of the buff of the sands. There are here exposed two cross sections of the old bed of the Freshman River, deeply covered by the valley loam, and they contain old leaf beds with many softened and flattened logs of wood. The following flora and fauna have been found there, which represent the climate of southern Canada:

<i>Ranunculus aquatilis</i> L.	<i>Quercus alba</i> L.
<i>Acer saccharinum</i> Wang.	<i>Quercus coccinea</i> Wang. var. <i>subulata</i> .
<i>Prunus virginiana</i> L.	<i>Fagus ferruginea</i> Ait.
<i>Platanus occidentalis</i> L.	<i>Betula alba</i> L.
<i>Juniperus cinerea</i> L.	<i>Carya amara</i> Nutt.
<i>Carya amara</i> Nutt.	

Five species of Coleoptera have been found, of which four have been described as new by Mr. S. H. Scudder in *Monograph XXIX, Geology of Old Hampshire County*.

The repulsion of tributaries.—The very great suddenness of the lowering of the lake waters to form the present river is most clearly marked in the unfilled Hadley lake. The deep slopes of the delta scarps

POST-GLACIAL EPOCH.

Alluvial terraces.—When the confluent lakes of the Connecticut Valley had been drained, the deposits of sand and clay accumulated in them were exposed to erosion by rains, brooks, and the Connecticut River. The Connecticut adopted a course along the lowest line of the lake bed, and

Terrace of the Connecticut River.

The Williamsett meadow.

Origin of the terraces around Springfield.

The Hadley lake bottom.

The old bed of the Freshman River.

Peculiarities in the Hadley lake area.

are quite intact down to the low clay flats, but a few feet above the modern terraces of the river and not notched by any terraces marking intermediate water stands. The streams along the whole eastern side of the lake from Mount Toby to the Holyoke notch run down across the old lake bottom in accordance with its slopes, but when they reach the edge of the scarp formed by the Connecticut River in its most easterly swing they bend south and take a course often for a long distance almost parallel to the Connecticut, as if repelled by the latter, and at last bend suddenly and enter the main stream at right angles. The reason for this is found in the mode of formation of the terrace flats of the Connecticut. As an island is formed across the mouth of a tributary by the receding river, the tributary lengthens downstream and occupies the groove between the island and the former bank, and when with the continued westward swing of the main stream another island is made outside of the first the stream flows still farther south between this and the bank. In this way the tributary is sometimes deflected several miles. This is especially true of the Long Plain Brook and the two brooks south, and of the Fort River. In the latter case the stream once ran much farther south than its present mouth, to the landing place of the Mount Holyoke steamer, and it was tapped at its present mouth by an eastward swing of the Connecticut. The meadow flats show in broad undulations the many islands by whose confluence they have been built.

Contrast between the Montague and Springfield lakes and the Hadley lake.—As detailed above, the sandstones were worn down by the ice to a low level in the Hadley lake and, protected by the trap ridges, remain at a much higher level in the other two. As a result the latter are "filled-up" lakes, while all the deposits were insufficient to fill the deep depressions of the Hadley lake. As a second result the Connecticut, on the decline of the waters, was pushed to the extreme western border of the former lakes by deltas, but found a low-water line down the center of the Hadley lake. As a third result, on commencing to lower its bed by erosion, the stream quickly struck rock in the two lakes, forming the Turners Falls in the Montague lake, and the Holyoke Falls in the Springfield lake, while in the Hadley lake it flows over clays far above the rock bottom. This agency has located all the water powers in the district. As a last result, the oscillations of the Connecticut were quickly ended by striking rock in the two lakes, and therefore only narrow meadows were formed and the sands have been left intact, while in the Hadley lake the swing has been 3½ miles to the east and 4 miles to the west, and the broad Northampton and Hatfield meadows have been formed on the west and the Hadley meadows on the east of the river. For this reason the terraces proper—that is the terraces formed by the swing of the river—are more extensive in Hadley lake than elsewhere, while the outward bounding scarp is lower and less impressive. The steep scarps west of Northfield street or east of Turners Falls in the Montague lake area, or the great scarp that bounds Crescent Hill in Springfield, are sharply contrasted with the low slope south of Bridge street in Northampton, or that halfway between Northampton and Amherst.

Oxbows.—The stream, swinging thus broadly in fine and perfectly homogeneous sediments, across the Hadley lake has been so nicely balanced that it has obeyed Ferrel's law that bodies in the north-

ern hemisphere tend to be deflected to the right by the revolution of the earth. It has thrown out and cut off seven great oxbows to the right, and formed two great bends in the same direction. In the same way the Freshman River, flowing over the same plain, has formed five times as many oxbows on the right side as on the left.

Dunes.—Where the prevailing west wind strikes the scarp which forms the east border of the meadows, the sands have been carried east in a marked line of dunes which stretch from the Northampton road in Hadley north to Sunderland, and a similar line extends west of Hatfield.

MINERAL RESOURCES.

Granite.—The fine granite worked by the Chester Granite Company at Chester comes from Becket, in the next quadrangle west of this. The Pomeroy Mountain granite, along the east border of the plateau, is generally too coarse grained for a building stone. Much fairly good rock of light color can be obtained, and is quarried considerably in Williamsburg and Florence. It is all, however, too far from the railroad. In the western part of the quadrangle there is only one outcrop of granite. This is the great Middlefield dike. The rock is blotched with white spots from the feldspar, and so would not give an even color, and is of rather coarse grain. It would furnish large blocks and is probably a durable rock. The dark tonalite of Hatfield has been quarried to a considerable extent for bridge work, especially for the railroads. It will furnish fine large blocks of durable stone, which, if the lighter shades were chosen, might be used for darker trimmings in connection with the Florence stone. This rock is used in Northampton for macadamizing. The quarry is located where the rock is considerably decomposed, and it is a rather poor road material.

Flagstone.—The quarries around Goshen, situated in the Goshen schist, formerly furnished many flagstones, which were used in Northampton and the other large towns in the valley. Large slabs can be obtained, which consist of mica-schist, with the surface slightly roughened by small garnets and staurolites.

Whetstone.—The rock marked "Whetstone" on the map is a gray, crisp, and gritty schist, with scales of red biotite scattered evenly through the mass and not parallel to any common plane. It was a sandstone in which the biotite scales have crystallized. Only a small part of the whetstone will furnish good scythestones. The best quarries are at the southwest base of Walnut Hill in Huntington, and at B. Shaw's in Cummington. The quarries have been worked at intervals since 1830. The scythestones are sold as "Quinnebaug stones" and are highly prized.

Feldspar and mica.—A series of dikes of a very coarse granite forms the outer fringe around the great granite areas which occupy the eastern edge of the plateau and just enter the quadrangle on the east. This series runs up the middle of the quadrangle and furnishes the rare minerals for which the region is noted. Around Knightsville the region has been worked for feldspar, and several dikes along this range may furnish merchantable feldspar and mica. The dikes on the north line of Blandford above the Pontoosic Flint Mills have been much worked, and the quartz and feldspar crushed at the mills. The mica is abundant but not of the largest size.

Quartz.—The same coarse granite veins have been worked for quartz, which is extensively crushed at the Pontoosic Mills and the mill in Ches-

ter, and is sold for polishing, making sandpaper, filtering, use in the manufacture of explosives, etc. The quartz is now more frequently obtained from large veins of pure quartz, which accompany and are of the same origin as the granite. These are found of great size between the two roads running south from Chester Center and about a mile east of Round Top.

Emery.—The great emery-magnetite bed in Chester has been mined for many years, first for iron and since 1864 for emery. The bed runs 6 miles along the east of the hornblende-schist, with a thickness much of the way of 4 to 16 feet. The magnetite, which is separated from the emery, after crushing, by batteries of magnets, does not seem to be utilized. Much of the time the mine has been allowed to lie idle, and emery from Asia Minor and corundum from the Southern States have been used in the mill instead. Recently the old mine has been reopened and supplied with new machinery.

Chromite.—Many small openings have been made in the search for chromic iron in the serpentine in Middlefield, especially a mile north of the point where the east boundary line of the mass crosses the river, and in the serpentine, at the "crater" in the north part of Blandford. There is much disseminated ore in the latter serpentine, but no indication of any considerable concentration of the ore.

Serpentine.—Nearly all the serpentines in the quadrangle are black and hard. That at the "crater" in the north of Blandford is pale green, compact, takes a fine polish, and could be used for ornamental work. The dolomitic limestone, filled with black spots and bars of black serpentine, often in stellate arrangement, which is quarried by the Westfield Marble Company mentioned above, promises to be of great value as a unique and attractive stone for interior decoration.

Lead and barite.—The mine at Loudville was opened before the Revolution, and was worked again in the second decade of this century. It was reopened during the Civil War by a new company, and a very expensive plant was brought together. The company soon failed, and the machinery was sold to the Chester Emery Company. The mine furnished galena with a good percentage of silver, zinc blende, and copper ores, the latter in small quantity in a gangue of quartz and barite. It is perhaps a greater object of interest to the mineralogist, because of the rare and interesting minerals it has furnished, than to the investor. The vein at Hatfield has been extensively worked by rude methods in a long line of deep pits. It is a barite-lead vein of the same character as the Loudville vein, but the barite is purer and more abundant, and it has been mined for this substance more than for the metals. The two veins in Leverett, which have been worked largely in the same rude way, are of the same kind as the others, but they are less promising.

Trap.—The great ranges of trap that pass across this quadrangle will furnish in inexhaustible quantities the best road material, and it is hoped that the recent interest in better roads may create here an important industry. Springfield obtains stone for the city streets from a quarry in the main trap ridge, on the line between West Springfield and Westfield. It is only a question of transportation, and the four places where the railroads come nearest to the supply of good material are at the city quarry mentioned above, at Tatham station, where the Holyoke branch of the New York, New Haven

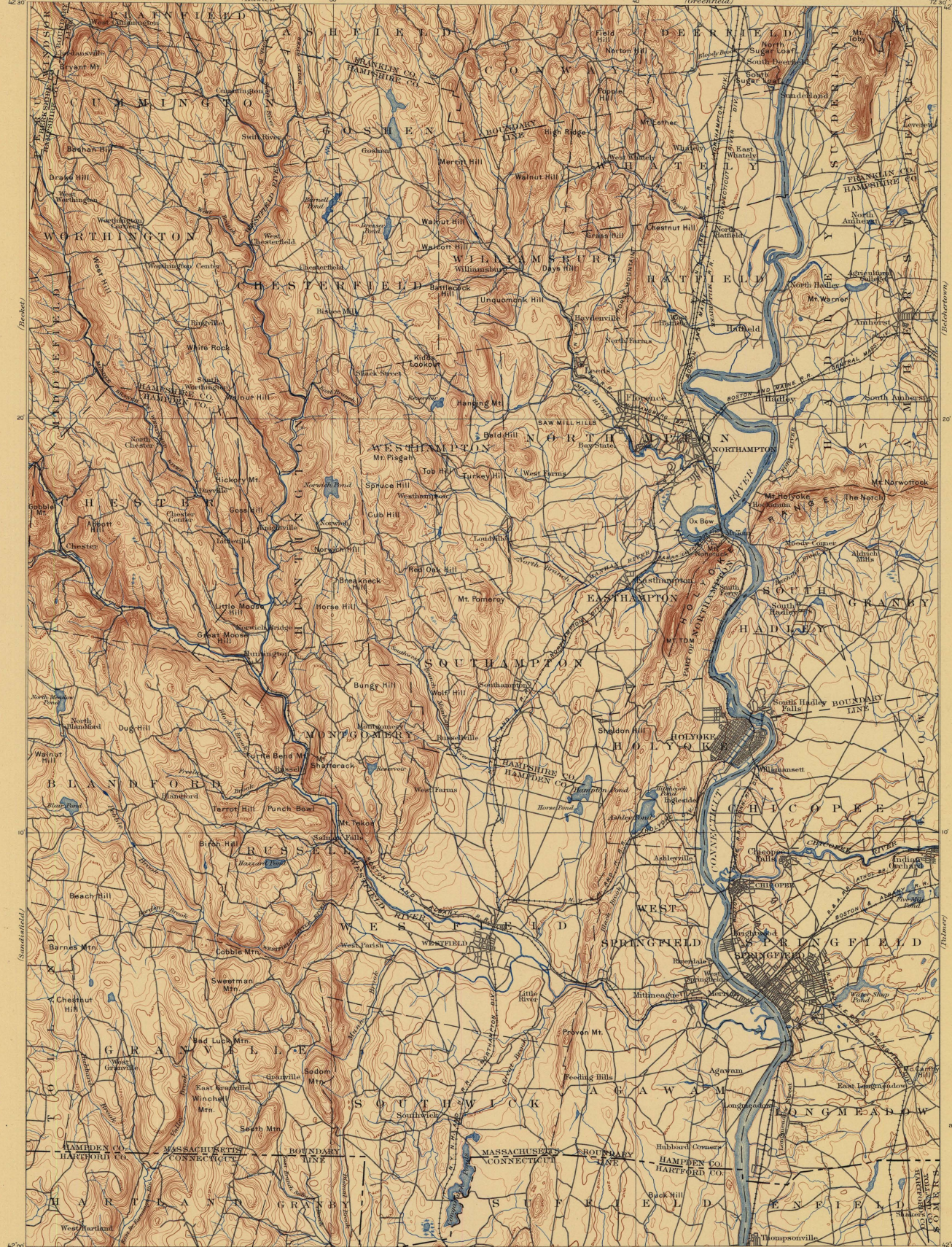
and Hartford Railroad crosses the two trap sheets, and near the Connecticut River below Mount Tom station. At the last place the material could be conveniently quarried and shot down to the level of the railroad, and this would furnish the city of Northampton with a better material than the rock now in use. Crushing plants have recently been erected in Easthampton at the foot of Mount Tom, and on a very extensive scale by the New England Trap Rock Company in the north of West Springfield, where the Holyoke branch of the New York, New Haven and Hartford Railroad crosses the main trap ridge. The works have a capacity of 700 tons a day, and can deliver the rock at 75 cents a ton on the cars.

Sandstone.—The line of quarries extending down the eastern border of the quadrangle from Indian Orchard southward represents an important industry. The Juratrias sandstones quarried here are extensively used for the finest buildings under the name of Longmeadow brownstone. East Longmeadow has grown to be a considerable town under the stimulus of this industry. The State was reported sixth in the production of sandstone in 1889, with an output of \$649,097, of which \$563,179 came from Hampden County, and practically all from the quarries mentioned above. The Saalsbury and Kibbe quarries, near East Longmeadow, furnish the greater portion of the product, and with the Carlisle quarry, near Sixteen Acres, sell their stone at 50 to 70 cents per foot at the quarry. The massive beds suitable for quarrying are about 10 feet thick and are followed above and below by thinner-bedded sandstones. The whole dips 10 or 15 degrees a little south of east. The Juratrias rock is generally of too coarse grain for use as a building stone. A quarry was opened a few years ago in the north part of South Hadley, on a buff sandstone of good grain and color and firm texture, and the town hall in Easthampton was in part constructed of it; but the rock owed its firmness to the proximity of a great mass of intrusive trap, which had baked it somewhat, and the useful stone was soon all quarried.

Clays.—Brick clays are so abundant upon this quadrangle that they have no value when they are situated away from the larger towns. All around Westfield and Greenfield basins and in the bluffs bordering the Connecticut River, the thin-bedded clays crop out in great force and are extensively worked, especially near Springfield and Chicopee Falls. At Amherst, Westfield, Easthampton, and Northampton are extensive brick kilns. The superincumbent sands are everywhere of a quality which renders them suitable to be used with the clay for brick making. An interesting deposit, apparently of considerable importance and value, has been opened at Blandford Center, a white pipe clay suitable for the finer kinds of brick and terra-cotta work. It seems to have been formed by the decomposition in pre-glacial times of the feldspar of one of the beds of very coarse and very feldspathic granite, like those worked for feldspar in the northern part of the town. It has been sheltered from the general erosion of the ice by the hills north of Blandford. An extensive plant has been built at Russell to work the clays. The product is of the first quality and has come into extensive use. The fine new high-school building in Northampton was constructed of the buff brick from this deposit.

B. K. EMERSON,
Geologist.

May, 1897.



LEGEND

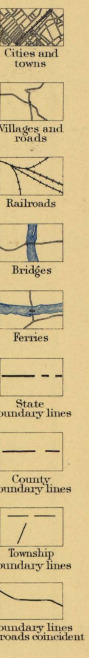
RELIEF
(printed in brown)



DRAINAGE
(printed in blue)

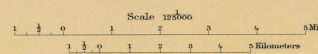


CULTURE
(printed in black)



Notes of adjoining published sheets are printed on the margin.

Henry Gannett, Chief Topographer.
Marcus Baker, Geographer in charge.
Triangulation by U.S. Coast and Geodetic Survey.
Topography by C. Arrick, C.C. Bassett, L.F. Cutler,
A. Karl, and H.L. Smyth.
Surveyed in 1886-87.



Scale 125000
Contour interval 40 feet.
Datum to mean sea level.
Edition of July 1897.

LEGEND

SEDIMENTARY ROCKS

(Areas of Sedimentary rocks are shown by patterns of parallel lines. The direction of parallel lines is indicated by short dashes combined with the parallel lines.)

- Chippewash shale**
(Black and red sandy shale)
- Langensnow sandstone**
(Reddish brown sandstone with shaly and shaly sandstone interbeds)
- Gravelly till**
(Loose agglomerate of fragments of boulders, pebbles, and cobbles, in a silty, sandy matrix)
- Sugarloaf alkali**
(Loose, friable, sand, coarse sand, and angular debris of granite)
- Mt. Toby conglomerate**
(Very coarse conglomerate composed largely of shaly fragments)
- Levinton argillite**
(Dark coarse shale or fine grained mica schist)
- Levinton argillite**
(Chloritic contact zone)
- Cowdry schist**
(Dark, granitic mica schist with little quartz, and with abundant mica and dark impure limestone and sandy quartzite)
- Amherst schist**
(Coarse, chloritic mica schist, with little quartz, and with abundant mica and dark impure limestone and sandy quartzite)
- Goslen schist**
(Chloritic mica schist with little quartz and abundant mica)
- Hawley schist**
(Sericite and chlorite schist with some beds of hornblende schist)
- Savoy schist**
(Sericite and chlorite schist with some beds of hornblende schist)
- Chester amphibolite**
(Dark, fine-grained hornblende schist in places changed to serpentine and omphacite)
- Rowe schist**
(Quartzose sericite schist)
- Hoosac schist**
(Sericite schist)
- Becket gneiss**
(Light gray, mica schist with some beds of hornblende schist)
- Washington gneiss**
(Dark, quartzose mica schist)
- ROCK MASSES**
(In various formations)
- Limestone**
(In Cowdry and Goslen schists)
- Quartzite**
(In Cowdry and Goslen schists)
- Gneiss**
(Hornblende mica schist, in places changed to amphibolite)
- Amphibolite**
(In Cowdry, Hawley, Savoy, and Hoosac schists)
- Kastatic rock, pyroxene rock, and dolomite**
(In Chester amphibolite)

LEGEND

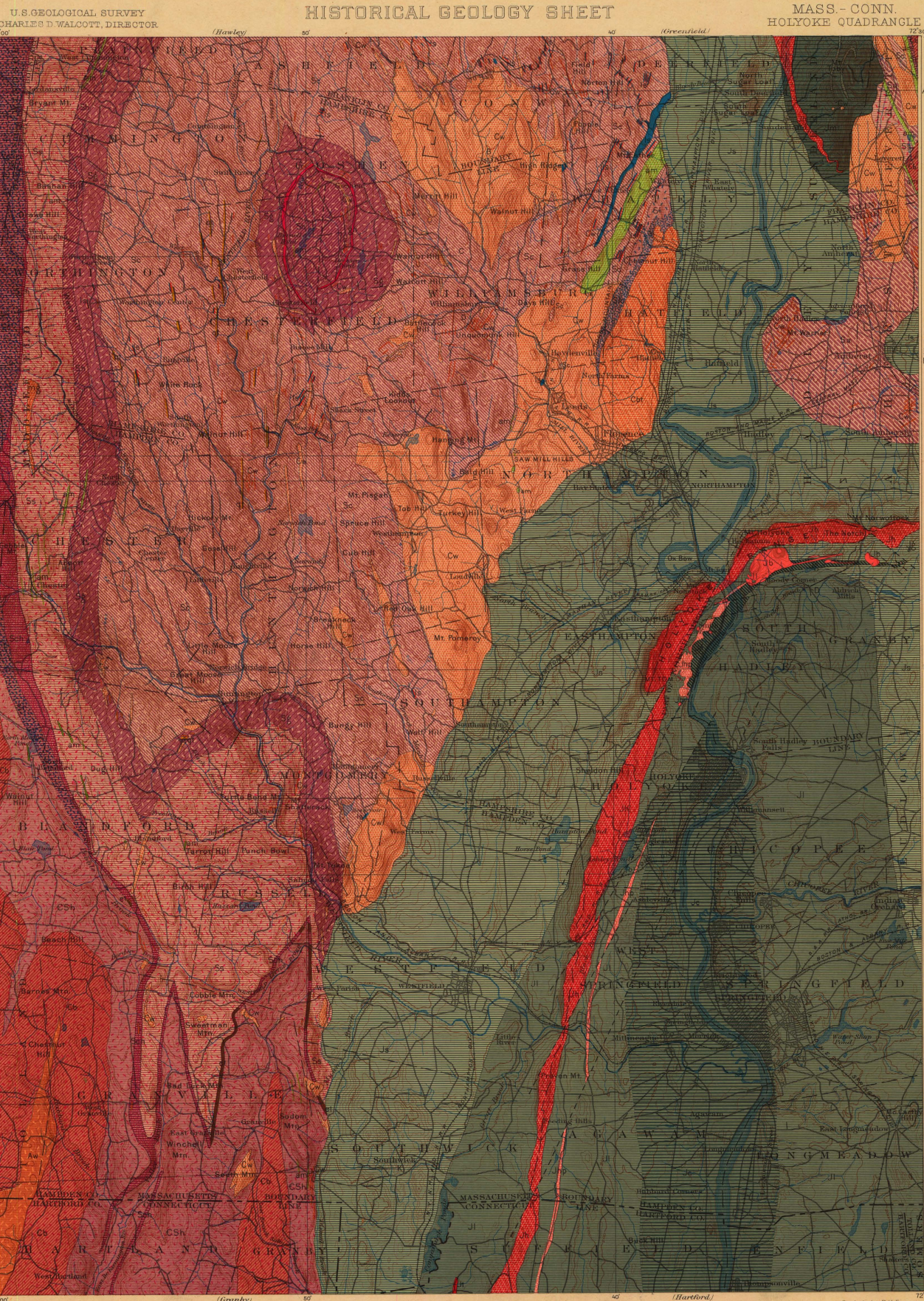
(continued)

IGNEOUS ROCKS

(Areas of igneous rocks are shown by patterns of triangles and rhombs.)

- Jb**
Blackrock diabase (interior)
- Jh**
Holyoke diabase (interior sheet of Plymouth, interbedded)
- Jt**
Talcott diabase (interior sheet of Ferris, interbedded)
- Jhp**
Hamden diabase (interior sheet of Ferris, interbedded)
- Cw**
Williamsburg granite (interior mass of granite, with magnetite and albite granitic veins)
- Cst**
Belchertown tonalite (granitoid mass, plagioclase hornblende rock)
- mg**
Middlefield granite (granitic mass, biotite granite)

Probable faults



Scale 1:25,000
 1 2 3 4 5 Miles
 1 2 3 4 5 Kilometers
 Contour Interval 40 Feet.
 Datum to mean Sea level.
 Edition of July 1898.

Henry Gannett, Chief Topographer.
 Marcus Baker, Geographer in charge.
 Triangulation by U.S. Coast and Geodetic Survey.
 Topography by C. Arrick, C. G. Bassett, L. F. Cutler,
 A. Karl, and H. L. Smyth.
 Surveyed in 1884-87.

Geology by B. K. Emerson.
 Surveyed 1875-1896.

LEGEND

SURFICIAL ROCKS

(Areas of surficial rocks are shown by patterns of dots and circles.)

sd
Sand dunes
(formed from sand derived from older deposits)

Terraces of Erosion

(Denotes not in older geological record and may be the result of the receding waters of the Connecticut and its tributaries)

br
Bars and incomplete terraces

ob
Old oxbows

os
Old stream beds

tr
Lowest complete terrace of the present level

ti
Higher terrace

tn
Highest normal terrace

POST-GLACIAL EPOCH
(Belchertown, Mass.)

Terraces of Construction

(deposits of sand and clay in the crevasses behind the Connecticut valley)

bm
Lake bottom
(clay and fine sandstone of the deeper portions of the lake)

lb
Lower bars and river flats
(normal low level than the shore terraces)

ub
Upper bars and river flats
(deposits on the alluvial shore terraces)

sh
Lake shore beds
(normal high terrace)

dt
High delta sands
(above the normal lake level)

EPOCH OF GLACIAL RETREAT

Glacial Lake and River Beds

(lakes and streams west of the Connecticut dammed by ice on the east)

hg
Highest glacial lake beds

mg
Medial glacial lake beds

lg
Lowest glacial lake beds

hl
High lake deposits and moraine terraces
(containing gravel)

lc
Ice barriers
(showing the probable position of the ice front)

Direction of glacial streams

Glacial Deposits

ti
Till
(shown only in the valleys)

dm
Drumlins

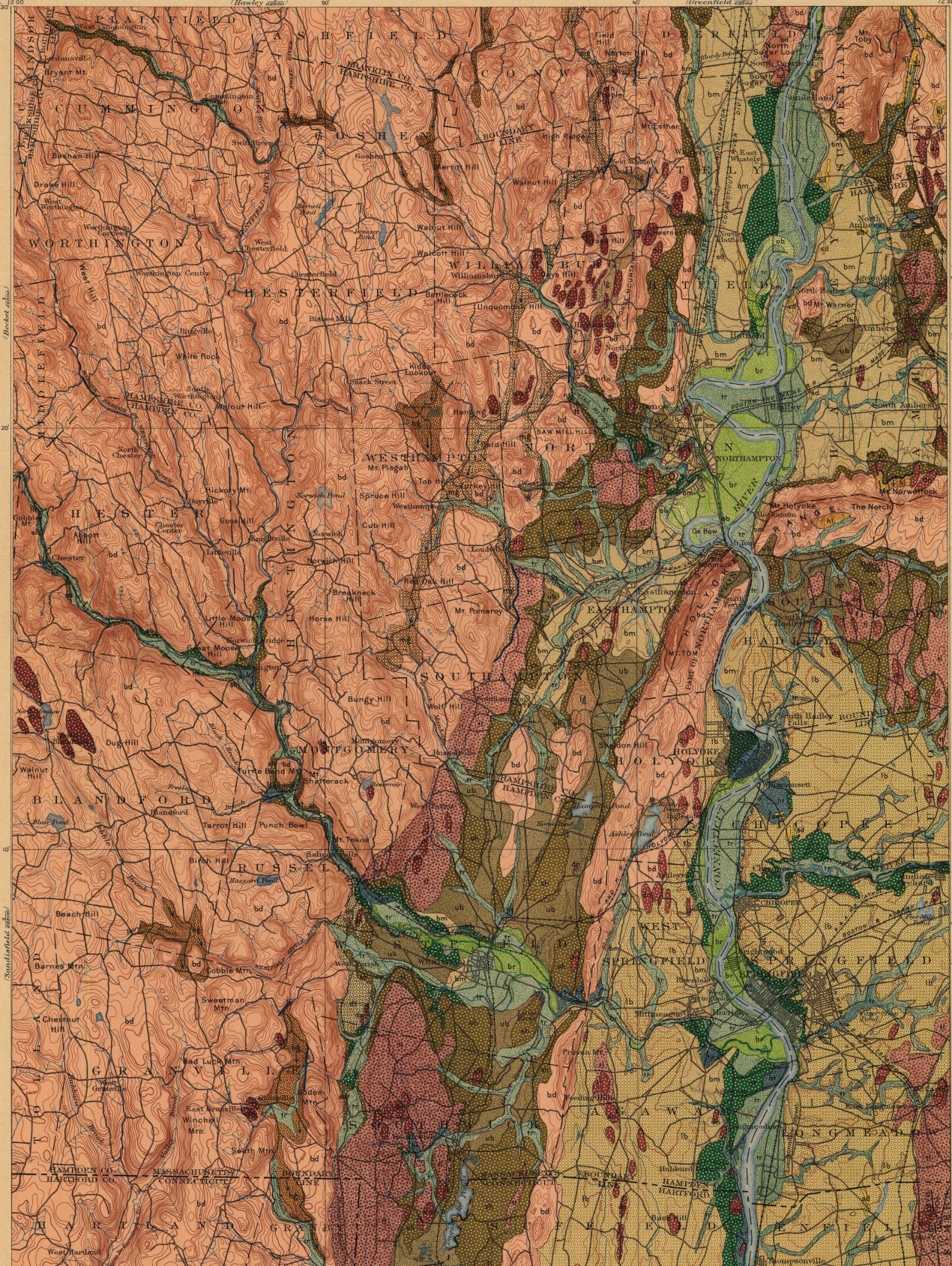
EPOCH OF GLACIAL OCCUPATION

SEDIMENTARY AND IGNEOUS ROCKS

bd
Bed rock
(in areas not covered by till)

PLEISTOCENE

PRE-PLEISTOCENE



Henry Gannett, Chief Topographer.
Marcus Baker, Geographer in charge.
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A. Karl, and H. L. Smyth.
Surveyed in 1884-87.

Scale 1:25,000
1/2 Miles
1/2 Kilometers
Contour interval 40 feet.
Datum is mean sea level.
Edition of Oct. 1898.

Geology by B. K. Emerson.
Surveyed in 1875-1886.

SEDIMENTARY ROCKS

Areas of Sedimentary rocks are shown by patterns of parallel lines. Metasandstone is indicated by short dashes combined with the parallel lines.

- Jc Chicopee shale (Black and red sandy shale)
 - Jl Longwood sandstone (reddish brown sandstone with some shaly part below water level)
 - Jg Granby tuff (loose conglomerate of gravel and sandstone)
 - Js Sugarloaf shales (loose flinty sandstone composed of angular debris of granite)
 - Jmt Mt. Toby conglomerate (very coarse conglomerate composed largely of fragments of granite)
 - Si1 Leyden argillite (dark coarse shale or fine grained sandstone)
 - Si2 Leyden argillite (shaly shale)
 - Sc Conway schist (dark grayish mica schist with black quartz and garnet of dark purple limestone and sandy quartz)
 - Sa Amherst schist (loose flinty and shaly argillite probably the equivalent of Conway schist)
 - Sg Goshen schist (diagenetic flaggy mica schist with black quartz)
 - Sh Hawley schist (loose and shaly mica schist with black quartz and body of hornblende schist)
 - Sa Savy schist (loose mica schist with garnet and chlorite locally developed)
 - Sch Chester amphibolite (dark flaggy hornblende schist in places changed to serpentine and mica)
 - S Rowe schist (quartzose mica schist)
 - CSH Hoosac schist (shaly mica schist)
 - Cb Bocket gneiss (loose mica schist with all trace of conglomerate; contains numerous masses of accreted gneiss or mica schist)
 - Aw Washington gneiss (loose mica schist slightly fibrous)
- ROCK MASSES (in various directions)
- lm Limestone (in Conway and Goshen schists)
 - qt Quartzite (in Conway and Goshen schists)
 - gn Gneiss (fine grained mica schist or hornblende schist)
 - am Amphibolite (in Conway, Rowe, and Hoosac schists)
 - et Enstatite rock, pyroxene rock, and dolomite (in Chester amphibolite)

LEGEND

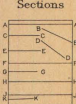
(continued)

IGNEOUS ROCKS

Areas of igneous rocks are shown by patterns of triangles and circles.

- Jb Blackrock diabase (intrusive)
- Jh Holyoke diabase (main sheet of typical interbedded)
- Jt Talcott diabase (interior sheet of typical interbedded)
- Jhp Hampden diabase (southern sheet of typical interbedded)
- CW Williamsburg gneiss (loose mica schist, granite, with pegmatite and calcite granitic veins)
- cbt Belchertown tonalite (granitic quartz, plagioclase, hornblende, mica)
- mg Middlefield granite (porphyritic biotite granite)

Probable faults

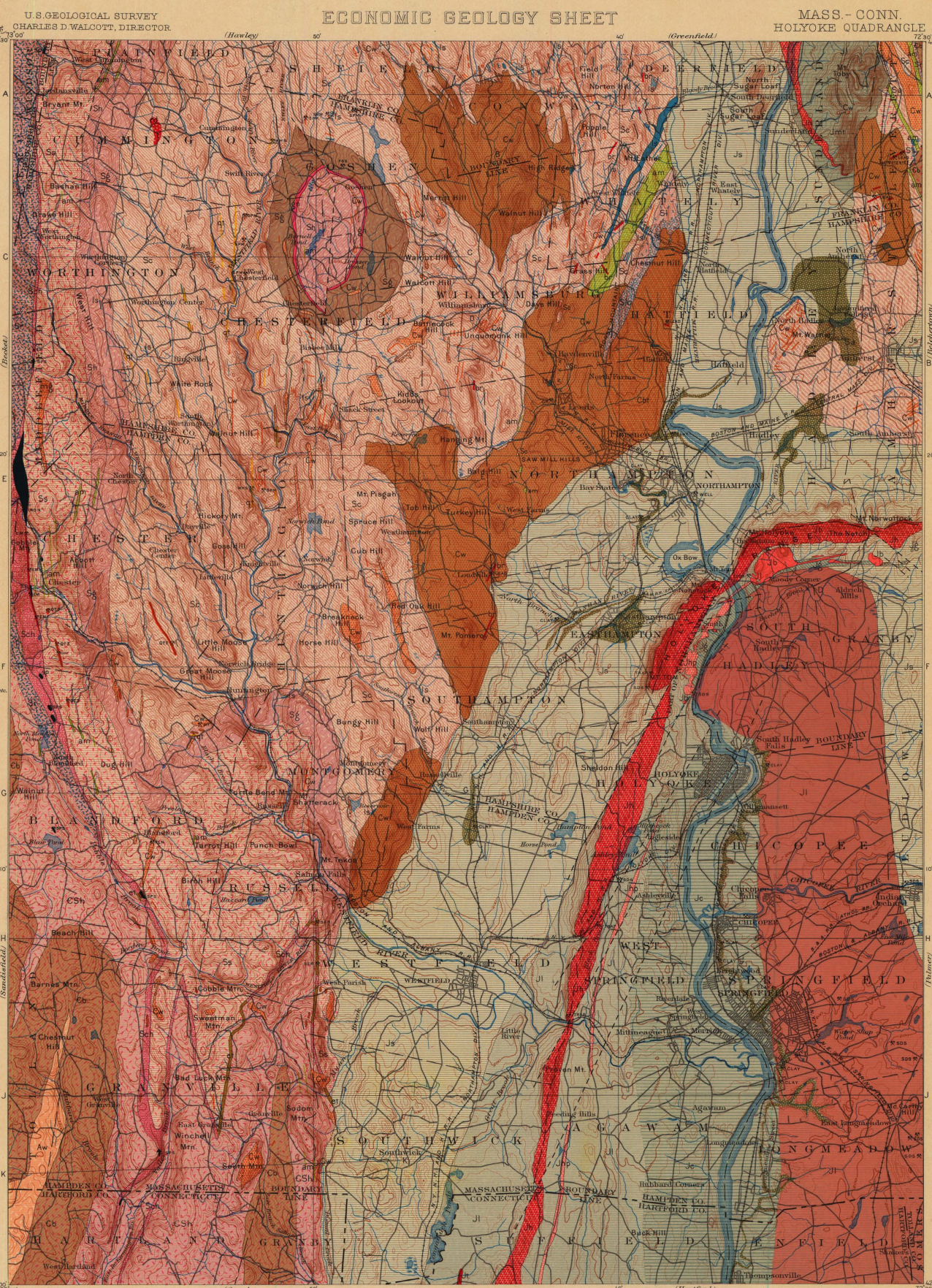


Mines and quarries

- REM Emerald magnetite
- RSB Sandstone for building
- RSR Serpentine used for building
- RSP Soapstone
- RSW Spodumene for lithias
- RSI Granite for building
- RWB Wollastonite
- RLD Lead and lead
- RII Iron Chromite iron
- RTP Trap Diabase for road ballast
- RLY Brick clay
- RLN Kiesel
- RII Mica and talc
- RGS Fluegas
- RW Well Artesian well
- X Prospect

Known productive formations

- Jl Brownstone (reddish brown Longwood sandstone, used for building)
- EM Emerald and magnetite (in Chester amphibolite)
- Sb Soapstone and serpentine (including black serpentine and red antique occurs in Rowe and Savy schist and Chester amphibolite)
- Cb Monumental granite (Bockel granite used for architectural and monumental purposes)
- CW, CM Building granite (Williamsburg granite and Belchertown tonalite, used for work of granite in high buildings)
- Sg Flagstones (loose mica schist used for flagging)
- RL Road ballast (diabase or trap rock)
- RLY Brick clay (clay of the Black River)
- RS Barite-galenite veins (lead)
- RTZ Quartz veins (silica)
- RD Rhyolite (loose basalt in the western part of the town used for ballast work)



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 A. Karl, and H. Smith.
 Surveyed in 1886-87.

Scale 1:25,000
 1 2 3 4 5 Miles
 0 1 2 3 4 Kilometers

Contour Interval 40 feet.
 Datum is mean sea level.
 Edition of July 1898.

Geology by B.K. Emerson
 Surveyed 1875-1895.

LEGEND

SEDIMENTARY ROCKS

Chic
shale
Chic
shale
(shaded red sandy shale)

Jl
Longmeadow
sandstone
*(reddish brown sand
with shallow water markings)*

Jg
Granby tuff
*(brown upper part of
tuffaceous sandstone
gradually into tuffaceous sandstone)*

Js
Sugarcorn
shale
*(brown shaly sandstone
above contact of the
granite of the granite)*

Jmt
Mt. Toby
conglomerate
*(grey coarse conglomerate
with fragments of
granite)*

Sl
Leyden
argillite
*(dark grey argillite
on the granite
mass)*

Slc
Leyden
argillite
(shaly argillite contact zone)

Sc
Conway
schist
*(dark grey schist
with thin layers of
dark purple limestone
and mica quartzite)*

Sa
Amherst
schist
*(brown shaly and
feldspathic schist
equivalent of Conway schist)*

Sg
Goshen
schist
*(dark grey schist
with mica and
quartzite)*

Sh
Hawley
schist
*(dark grey schist
with mica and
quartzite)*

Ss
Savoy
schist
*(dark grey schist
with mica and
quartzite)*

Sch
Chester
amphibolite
*(dark grey schist
with mica and
quartzite)*

Sr
Rowe
schist
*(dark grey schist
with mica and
quartzite)*

CSh
Hoosac
schist
*(dark grey schist
with mica and
quartzite)*

Cb
Becket
gneiss
*(light grey biotite
gneiss with
mica and quartzite)*

Aw
Washington
gneiss
*(dark grey gneiss
with mica and
quartzite)*

Aw
Washington
gneiss
*(dark grey gneiss
with mica and
quartzite)*

ls
Limestone
*(in Conway and
Goshen schists)*

qt
Quartzite
*(in Conway and
Goshen schists)*

gn
Gneiss
*(fine-grained biotite
gneiss with mica
and quartzite)*

am
Amphibolite
*(in Conway, Hawley, Savoy,
and Rowe schists)*

et
Enstatite
rock
pyroxene
rock
and
dolomite
(in Chester amphibolite)

Legend is continued on the left margin.



LEGEND (continued)
IGNEOUS ROCKS
SHEET SECTION SYMBOL SYMBOL
Blackrock diabase
Holyoke diabase
Talcott diabase
Hampden diabase
Williamsburg granite
Belchertown tonalite
Middlefield granite
Probable faults

Scale 1:25,000
Edition of July 1898
Geology by B.K. Emerson, Surveyed 1875-1896.