1	Improving the characterisation of Quaternary deposits for groundwater
2	vulnerability assessments using maps of recharge and attenuation potential
3	K J Griffiths ¹ , A M MacDonald ² , N S Robins ¹ , J Merritt ² , S J Booth ³ , D Johnson ⁴ and P J
4	McConvey ⁵
5	¹ British Geological Survey, Maclean Building, Crowmarsh Gifford, Wallingford, Oxon OX10 8BB kjgr@bgs.ac.uk
6	² British Geological Survey, Murchison House, West Mains Road, Edinburgh EH9 3LA
7	³ British Geological Survey, Kingsley Dunham Centre, Keyworth, Nottingham NG12 5GG
8	⁴ Environment Agency, Sapphire East, 550 Streetsbrook Road, Solihull, West Midlands, B91 1QT
9	⁵ Geological Survey of Northern Ireland, Colby House, Stranmillis Court, Belfast BT9 5BF

10 Abstract

11 Assessing aquifer vulnerability is difficult for bedrock aquifers concealed by highly variable 12 superficial deposits such as glacial till. Many current groundwater vulnerability maps, and the 13 geological maps on which they are based, do not adequately account for regional and vertical 14 variations in the characteristics of superficial deposits. A new methodology for characterising 15 recharge potential and contaminant retardation potential of superficial deposits is presented here 16 which captures primary geological and hydrogeological expert knowledge in a systematic 17 manner. The method modifies existing superficial geology maps using Quaternary domains and 18 their descriptions, bedrock lithology, thickness of superficial deposits and applies additional 19 information on superficial geology and bedrock lithology. Central to the methodology is a matrix 20 which enables local geological and hydrogeological knowledge to be incorporated in a 21 systematic and traceable manner. The scale-independent methodology has been piloted at 22 1:625 000 scale to produce maps of recharge and attenuation potential for Great Britain. 23 Preliminary verification against several indicators (HOST data, the Scottish vulnerability 24 screening tool, and nitrate data) has been encouraging. The method is being used by the Environment Agency as part of its vulnerability assessments for the characterization of
groundwater bodies as required by the Water Framework Directive (Council of European
Communities 2000).

Quaternary superficial deposits cover approximately 90% of the British landmass. Superficial deposits, of which glacial till is a major component, moderate potential recharge to underlying bedrock aquifers and are an important influence on vulnerability to pollution through their ability to attenuate pollutants. Superficial deposits also influence groundwater quality (Shand et al. 2007). Characterisation of these deposits and the processes occurring within them is critical to the assessment of groundwater vulnerability and the characterisation of groundwater bodies required by the Water Framework Directive (Council of European Communities 2000).

Groundwater vulnerability maps for England and Wales were first developed for the National 36 Rivers Authority in the early 1990s and are still in use today, mainly as a planning tool. The 37 38 maps are at 1: 100 000 scale and cover all of England and Wales (Palmer et al. 1995). These maps classify the dominant soil strata above the saturated aquifer as the vulnerability indicator, 39 40 recognising a matrix of three aquifer classes (weakly, moderately and highly permeable, 41 although on the England and Wales maps this was transposed to non, minor and major aquifer) 42 and three soil leaching potential classes (high, medium and low). The groundwater vulnerability 43 maps for England and Wales do not consider travel time to the water table because depth to 44 water was not then generally available on a regional basis (Robins et al. 1994). Furthermore, 45 they were designed for a conservative pollutant that would not degrade in the unsaturated zone 46 (Palmer et al. 1995).

47 Similar maps were produced for Scotland and Northern Ireland, but have recently been replaced 48 as part of the Water Framework Directive characterisation work. New groundwater vulnerability 49 screening layers were produced for Scotland at an effective scale of 1: 100 000 (Ó Dochartaigh 50 et al. 2005), and for Northern Ireland at 1:250 000 scale (Ball et al. 2005), in which the 51 underlying bedrock aquifer class does not directly influence the 'vulnerability' rating.

52 In Ireland, a slightly different approach to vulnerability mapping has been adopted (Daly and 53 Warren 1998; Misstear and Daly 2000). The topsoil was not taken into account but superficial 54 cover (known as subsoil in Ireland) is the main feature of the maps, whereas in the original England and Wales vulnerability maps it was generally only considered as a secondary feature.
The Irish approach also considers the nature of the recharge, i.e. whether it is point or diffuse.

57 Superficial cover material posed a significant problem in developing the original vulnerability 58 maps for England and Wales. Where a superficial cover occurs as a granular deposit and where 59 it is saturated it was depicted as an intergranular aquifer. Wherever till is greater than 5 m thick, 60 it was assumed to be of sufficiently low permeability to protect the underlying aquifer and was 61 depicted as a stippled area denoting likely protection subject to field checking of the cover 62 material. Glacial till may vary in composition from silty clay to sandy silt over limited horizontal and vertical distances, with corresponding variations in permeability. It may also be fractured or 63 64 incised.

Improved information on the lithology, variability and thickness of superficial material is the desired next step for improved aquifer vulnerability assessments (e.g. McMillan et al. 2000; Ó Dochartaigh et al. 2005; Fitzsimons and Misstear 2006). Current geological maps of superficial deposits alone are not suitable for determining groundwater vulnerability, since superficial deposits within a particular mapped unit may vary significantly in composition, not only on a local or regional scale but also on a national scale (Anon. 2004).

71 This paper describes a new methodology for supporting assessment of groundwater vulnerability 72 on a nationwide basis using improved characterisation of the superficial deposits. Figure 1 73 illustrates how this method seeks to improve groundwater vulnerability assessments through the 74 incorporation of Quaternary domain conceptual models, local geological and hydrogeological knowledge, national datasets including estimates of drift thickness (part of BGS's GeoSure 75 76 national dataset on natural ground instability across Great Britain) and site specific information 77 (e.g. boreholes and site investigation reports). Amalgamation of all existing information and 78 knowledge regarding the properties of the superficial deposits enables national maps of recharge 79 potential and attenuation potential to be produced. In this initial phase these maps provide 80 national coverage at 1:625 000 scale but more detailed maps i.e. 1:50 000 scale are being

81 produced by the Environment Agency which has recently adopted the method described in this 82 paper. Additionally, the maps should evolve to incorporate new information, allowing the 83 vulnerability classifications to be refined and improved.

Figure 1. The available resources for improving the hydrogeological characterisation of thesuperficial deposits.

86

87 The influence of superficial deposits on bedrock hydrogeology

88 Superficial deposits influence the vulnerability of bedrock groundwater in two main ways (see 89 Figure 2). Firstly, they affect the recharge potential (Rushton 2005): the volume of water or 90 pollutant that can travel through the superficial deposits to the bedrock aquifer below. The 91 relative recharge potential relates to the superficial deposits and does not reflect whether the 92 underlying aquifer (in particular bedrock) could physically accept a high, moderate or even low 93 amount of recharge (poorly productive fractured bedrock aquifers underlie a significant 94 proportion of Great Britain and their ability to accept recharge due to low storage and 95 transmissivity can be significantly restricted). Secondly, superficial deposits have a large impact 96 on the potential attenuation of pollutants. Superficial deposits may often reduce the vulnerability 97 of an underlying aquifer to pollution by increasing both the travel time for pollutants to reach the 98 water table, allowing time for degradation of some contaminants, and also retarding 99 contaminants through sorption on clay surfaces or organic material.

Figure 2 Factors influencing recharge and attenuation in the sub-surface. The methodology
described in this paper is concerned only with the processes in the superficial deposits.

102 Recharge

Recharge through superficial deposits is largely determined by the thickness of the deposits,
lithology, vertical fracturing and the architecture of the sediments. Investigations of the
characteristics of low permeability superficial deposits in North America concluded that recharge

106 can occur through all Quaternary deposits, even where matrix permeability is very low (Keller et 107 al. 1988; van der Kamp 2001). In Great Britain it is consistently reported that recharge occurs 108 through glacial till (Klink et al. 1997; Foster 1998; Marks et al. 2004; Cuthbert 2005). Both 109 Rushton (2005) and Fitzsimons and Misstear (2006) identify an important factor for recharge as 110 the prevailing hydraulic gradient between till and underlying aquifer. Soley and Heathcote (1998) observed recharge of 36 mm a⁻¹ through till on interfluves in East Anglia, decreasing to 111 10 mm a⁻¹ in areas of thicker cover where the underlying Cretaceous Chalk bedrock aquifer is 112 113 locally confined.

The role of superficial deposit thickness and permeability in controlling recharge was highlighted by Daly and Warren (1998) in the context of vulnerability mapping guidelines for Ireland and further developed by Misstear et al. (2009). As unsaturated permeability can only be measured experimentally, grain size is often used as an indicator. Primary permeability may also be enhanced by weathering and fracture development (Gerber et al. 2001).

119 Where fractures occur in superficial deposits, e.g. in a fractured till, gravity by-pass flow may 120 occur and may be the dominant flow mechanism (Cuthbert 2005), although mainly restricted to 121 the uppermost 3 m in Ireland (Misstear et al. 2008). Studies of glacial till in situ for waste 122 disposal often indicate the importance of fracturing which can increase permeability by 1 - 3123 orders of magnitude. These fractures are most common at shallow depths (<10 m) in oxidised 124 and weathered deposits, but can also be found at greater depths (10 - 30 m) (Keller et al. 1988; 125 Frederica 1990; van der Kamp 2001; Cuthbert 2005). Presence of fractures will, therefore, have 126 an important bearing on recharge potential and the methodology considers this on a subjective 127 basis.

On rare occasions, superficial deposits may increase the vulnerability of groundwater to pollution through focussed recharge draining from the periphery of the deposits and leading to the development of localised karst-like features in carbonate aquifers where runoff from superficial deposits may be acidic (MacDonald et al. 1998).

133 Attenuation

134 The processes promoting contaminant attenuation depend on the type of soil and rock, the types 135 of contaminant and the associated activity. Attenuation is generally most active in the soil, 136 where bacterial activity is greatest. The unsaturated zone, is nevertheless, of importance as it 137 represents the most widespread line of defence against pollution of groundwater (e.g. Rodvang 138 and Simpkins 2001). The key indicators in the unsaturated zone relate to the process of sorption, 139 ion exchange, filtration and precipitation. Of these, ion exchange is the main overall process, the 140 others being dependent on the nature of the pollutant as much as the nature of the unsaturated 141 zone medium. In this way a single value describing the potential for the medium to attract 142 cations, the cation exchange capacity (CEC), is the most useful parameter in assigning its 143 attenuation potential. CEC describes the process of attracting cations to a negatively charged 144 surface - usually clay minerals (Appelo and Postma 1993). However, CEC values are 145 commonly not available for the vadose zone and not universally available for the soil zone. It is 146 useful, therefore, to use clay mineral content of the vadose zone as a surrogate for CEC.

147 A second part of the attenuation process is controlled by the availability of carbon as a catalyst 148 for adsorption and precipitation in the medium (Smith and Lerner 2007). Thus the two key 149 indicators used to derive the attenuation potential of the superficial material making up the 150 vadose zone are clay mineral and organic contents.

151 Increased travel time can help the progression of attenuation processes in the Quaternary 152 deposits and allow time for the contaminants to degrade. Therefore, vertical permeability and 153 thickness are also factors to be considered (Foster 1998).

154

155 Quaternary domains mapping

Subdivision of the Quaternary has always been problematic. Although an approach to standardisation of mapping is currently being promoted by the BGS (Anon. 2004; McMillan 2005), to date there has not been a standard approach for Great Britain. The traditional stratigraphic subdivision of the Quaternary paid little regard to either the processes under which deposition took place or the lithologies that were deposited (see Figure 3 for 1:625 000 Quaternary map).

162 Figure 3 Superficial deposits of Great Britain at 1:625 000 scale (copyright BGS).

163 An alternative approach to classification is to define characteristic regional provinces which can 164 be subdivided into smaller domains (Anon. 2004). The landmass may be divided into two 165 provinces, Glaciated and Non-glaciated based on landscape evolution, geomorphology and the 166 nature and distribution of superficial deposits. The Glaciated province includes upland and 167 lowland Britain and the whole of Northern Ireland. In this province much of the Quaternary 168 record has been removed or modified by subaerial erosion and successive Quaternary 169 glaciations. In the Non-glaciated Province, which lies to the south of the southern limit of the 170 Anglian glaciation, there remains a more complete record of the processes of weathering, erosion 171 and deposition which were driven by climate changes throughout the Quaternary (Anon. 2004).

Within the two main Provinces, eleven domains have been differentiated (Figure 4), based partly on their geomorphology and assemblages of superficial deposits and partly on genetic linkages to the surface processes which formed them. A number of domains have been subdivided into subdomains (40 in total) to allow for local variations which largely relate to the characteristics of the underlying bedrock, especially in southern England.

Detailed domain assessment has yet to be made for Northern Ireland but a preliminary review
identified six domains, the most extensive of which is the Till dominant domain which covers 80
% of the land surface of Northern Ireland. The Till dominant domain (TD) is subdivided into two
sub-domains, TD1 and TD2 on the basis of the proportion of till to rock near surface.

181 Figure 4 Map of the eleven main Quaternary Domains as identified by Anon. (2004). The
182 boundaries of the sub domains are also outlined.

183 Methodology

Systematic use of additional information and expert knowledge has been applied to reinterpret the existing superficial deposits geological map (Figure 5). Central to the method is a data matrix. Within the matrix, the expert geological knowledge is captured and then re-interpreted by hydrogeologists in terms of recharge potential and attenuation.

Figure 5 An outline of the methodology described in this paper to develop recharge and attenuation potential maps by using expert knowledge to interpret existing superficial geology maps.

191 The first step is to overlay the eleven Quaternary Domains (see Figure 4) on top of the digital 192 Superficial Deposits Geological Map (the method is scale-independent but for the purposes of a 193 trial it was applied at 1: 625 000 scale). This allows the origin and thus possible nature of, for 194 example, sandy till in the Scottish Highlands and clayey till mapped in East Anglia to be 195 identified as separate entities. For each domain there follows a description of the associated 196 landforms, lithological deposits and depositional processes. This information is developed into a 197 description of the likely hydrogeological processes pertaining to each domain, and uses case 198 study information where available to support this analysis. These descriptions serve two 199 purposes: they are there to inform users of the methodology about the characteristics of the 200 domains, and they provide background information to assist in classifying lithological units 201 within each domain.

The matrix describes the recharge and attenuation potential for each geological unit in each domain. This has been done by asking geological experts a series of questions for the deposits in each domain (Table 1). The matrix provides a framework for meaningful and systematic discussion between hydrogeologists and Quaternary geologists. The lithology of glacial till is governed across much of Great Britain by the nature of the bedrock. Glaciers scoured material from bedrock and in general did not move it far before depositing it to form till. In consequence, glacial tills developed on sandstones or coarse crystalline rocks tend to be sandy and permeable, while those developed on mudstones or strata such as the Coal Measures are clay rich and have low permeability. The matrix describes whether the lithology of the till within a particular domain largely reflects the bedrock lithology. If it does, the soil parent map (a simplified geological map based on bedrock lithology) was used to determine recharge potential and attenuation.

Table 1. Framework for discussion between Quaternary geological experts and hydrogeologists

215 Assessment of recharge potential has been made largely on the basis of the composition and 216 grain size of the deposits, and the likelihood of encountering continuous low permeability layers. 217 For most of the lithotypes the composition is likely to vary and the assessments have been based 218 on the relative proportions of the different grades of material. The recharge potential is based on 219 the perceived permeability of the deposits. Recharge potential assessments were made as High 220 (H), Medium (M) or Low (L) and a rationale for the assessments provided. This assessment is 221 carried out twice, both for the majority (primary) situation and for a subordinate (secondary) 222 situation; for example, the primary recharge potential through clayey till is Low but the 223 secondary potential where the till is locally more granular may be Medium. At this stage the 224 fracturing has not been considered – but a general likelihood of fracturing can be indicated by 225 the thickness of the deposits (see below). There is no quantification of the amount of recharge 226 that the deposits could transmit, merely an assessment of their relative ability to transmit 227 infiltrating water (recharge) in general. The method does not take into account other known 228 elements of recharge processes such as the effects of runoff from less permeable deposits with 229 focussed recharge around the periphery and does not consider the thickness of the deposit.

Assessment of the attenuation capacity has been made by estimating the presence of clay minerals (as a surrogate for cation exchange capacity) and organic material such as peat. The soil cover is not assessed – just the likely clay and organic material within the superficial deposit. 233 The same primary and secondary classification is also made for attenuation potential although 234 many primary and secondary classifications may be the same. Peat, for example, has High 235 primary and High secondary attenuation potential. In this way the primary classification relates 236 to the predominant lithology within each lithotype. For example, an alluvial deposit may be 237 predominantly sand and gravel, but there may also be minor clay layers within that deposit. The 238 predominant (primary) attenuation potential is low, however, where clays are present the 239 (secondary) attenuation potential is high. It is, therefore, the interpreted understanding of the 240 nature and variability of the superficial geological deposit which generates the assessment of 241 recharge and attenuation potential.

Thickness can be important to recharge and attenuation potential in several ways: very thin deposits may be discontinuous, thinner deposits may be fractured throughout whereas increased travel times through a thicker deposit allow more time for degradation of contaminants. Rather than including thickness implicitly within the assessment (as part of the rating) it was left to be included explicitly as a separate layer as required. Five categories were chosen:

- Absent, or not sufficiently thick to be mapped.
- 1 3 m superficial deposits can be variable or discontinuous, recharge may occur in holes within the cover.
- 3 10 m tills can be fractured within the upper 10 m, therefore, where the till is less
 than 10 m thick there is a higher potential for bypass flow with higher recharge potential
 and lower attenuation potential.
- 10 30 m fracture and bypass flow can occur but are less likely.
- more than 30 m thick. There is a greater chance of heterogeneity and saturated deposits,
 including tills, are likely to behave as aquifers in their own right unless the entire
 sequence is impermeable.

257 Central to the methodology is the assignment of glacial till lithologies derived from bedrock 258 lithology for various Quaternary Domains. Table 2 shows the attenuation and recharge potential 259 predicted for superficial material derived from each of 15 generic bedrock types. A variety of 260 bedrock lithologies fall under the Sedimentary Mixed classification and the attenuation and recharge potential properties are variable within this category. The values are amended wherever 261 262 the properties of the Sedimentary Mixed bedrock are known. The general rule of underlying 263 bedrock directly influencing overlying till properties is not universal, and exceptions are captured in the matrix, for example, the till cover along parts of the north-east coast of England 264 265 is smeared with low permeability marine clays which reduce the recharge potential from Medium to Low. Other exceptions occur where two ice sheets converge, e.g. the Irish Sea Ice 266 267 and the Welsh Ice meet and interdigitate over central Wales, and a similar situation is present 268 over much of East Anglia where one till may overlie another. In these instances, especially 269 where the till is thick, the younger deposits in the sequence may bear little relationship to the 270 underlying bedrock.

Table 2 Generic classification of superficial cover based on underlying bedrock lithology (L –
Low, M – Medium, H – High)

The rationale for each classification is given in the matrix so that the assessment is transparent. Revisions can be made as local users add their knowledge to the matrix. The classifications and maps can mature and evolve as more data are incorporated.

276

277 GIS application of the methodology

The different geological datasets (superficial deposits, Quaternary Domains and bedrock geology) and the data matrix were integrated to create 1: 625 000 recharge and attenuation potential maps using AccessTM and ArcGISTM (version 9.1) (Figure 6). Analyses for Northern Ireland have not been presented because of the preliminary nature of the domains mapping. The shapefile of superficial deposits at 1: 625 000 scale was used as the main layer. Each polygon within this shapefile was attributed with the domain/sub domain into which it falls (Figure 4).
Where the superficial polygon intersected more than one domain it was divided accordingly. The
resulting polygons were then attributed according to the bedrock classifications, again splitting
them if more than one bedrock type was intercepted (Table 2).

287 Figure 6 Process diagram of GIS application of the methodology.

Once the polygons had been created, recharge and attenuation potential were assigned to each polygon based on the classifications given in the matrix table for all the lithotypes within each domain. Modifications were made where local variations had been noted by the geologist in their assessment, e.g. to distinguish between low permeability clayey silt and clay 'carse' type beach deposits and more permeable raised beach deposits, both identified only as coastal deposits on the superficial deposits map. The classification for the underlying bedrock type was used (with exceptions, where known) where the lithotype was till.

The output contains nine categories for both recharge and attenuation potential which show the natural variability displayed by combining the primary and secondary classifications. The nine classes (as primary classification/secondary classification) for both recharge and attenuation potential are: HH, HM, HL, MH, MM, ML, LH, LM and LL.

Each shape file was converted into a grid or raster file of 1 km^2 grid size to provide recharge potential (Figure 7) and attenuation (Figure 8). Where two or more classifications occurred within the 1 km^2 , a majority rule was applied (i.e. the dominant classification was assigned to the whole grid square). Two grids are available, one for recharge potential and the other for attenuation potential.

Figure 7 Map of recharge potential using 1:625 000 data. For high recharge potential, more
water would be expected to pass through the superficial deposits. Information on the thickness
of the deposits is not incorporated.

Figure 8 Map of attenuation potential using 1:625 000 scale data. For high attenuation,
negligible contamination is expected through the superficial deposits. Information on drift
thickness is not incorporated.

Outputs and Validation

311 The national 1: 625 000 scale dataset of superficial deposits was used to provide national 312 coverage, albeit at a coarse scale, enough for proof of method. The output is at 1 km grid size. 313 Now that the methodology has been adopted by the Environment Agency larger scale data are 314 being used and a more meaningful output derived, however, the results so far are a guide for 315 comparison with existing perceptions of regional recharge and vulnerability of groundwater. 316 The current output should not, therefore, be applied to support specific environmental 317 judgements. The map outputs have been compared with a number of other datasets including 318 HOST data (Hydrology of Soil Types), the new groundwater vulnerability screening maps for 319 Scotland and the results from a number of regional studies on recharge through superficial 320 deposits. One of the best methods for testing the maps is also to compare the assessment of a 321 particular area with the experience and knowledge of local hydrogeologists.

HOST is a dataset which is based on the 1 x 1 km National Soil Map data together with data from the Centre for Ecology & Hydrology on the behaviour of river catchments (Boorman et al. 1995). There are 29 HOST classes, which describe the dominant pathways of water movement through the soil and substrate. Standard Percentage Runoff (SPR) is given for each HOST soil class. These were used to calculate an estimate of the Standard Percentage Infiltration (SPI) for each HOST class (100% - SPR = SPI).

The calculation of SPR is based on the analysis of flood event data, i.e. collated river flow and rainfall data for storm events. SPR is the percentage of rainfall that causes a short term increase in river flow at the catchment outlet and, therefore, the SPI is not directly comparable with infiltration. Nonetheless the SPI map provides an indication of the general response of different catchments to rainfall. In general there is a broad agreement between the datasets, but areas of till which have Sedimentary Mixed bedrock parent material offer a poor match suggesting thatadditional local knowledge input is desirable.

Figure 9 shows the results of the statistical comparison with the HOST data for SPI. There is broad agreement i.e. areas with lower percentage SPI have a greater proportion of superficial cover assigned as low recharge potential while those with higher percentage SPI have a greater proportion of high recharge potential superficial cover.

339 Figure 9 Plot of recharge potential against the HOST Standard Infiltration potential.

340 The recharge and attenuation potential maps were also compared with the vulnerability screening 341 maps of superficial deposits determined for Scotland (Ó Dochartaigh et al. 2005). The map of 342 attenuation potential shows a similar pattern to the Scottish vulnerability screening map for the 343 superficial deposits - low and medium values are prevalent over much of Scotland except where 344 peat or other clay/organic rich materials occur. There is particularly good agreement with the 345 lower vulnerability rating. There is also good agreement between the recharge potential map and 346 the superficial aquifer productivity maps generated for Scotland using pumping test data, HOST 347 data and expert knowledge (MacDonald et al. 2005).

The maps have also been examined against more detailed recharge studies reported in the 348 349 literature. For example, the East Anglian Till is known to permit little recharge to the underlying 350 Chalk, particularly in interfluve locations (Marks et al. 2004). Till has a significant impact on 351 recharge quantity and distribution to the underlying Chalk aquifer. Beneath the interfluves recharge appears to be lower than previous estimates of $20 - 40 \text{ mm a}^{-1}$ (Soley and Heathcote, 352 1998), maybe as low as 5 mm a⁻¹ (Marks et al. 2004). The recharge potential map (Figure 7) 353 354 shows that the Low Medium recharge potential classification is consistent with these studies. 355 Similarly in the Cheshire Basin, recharge to the unconfined Sherwood Sandstone aquifer has been estimated at approximately 350 mm a⁻¹, but where till cover is present, recharge to the 356 underlying aquifer is only about 52 mm a^{-1} (Vines 1984). These variations are reflected by 357

recharge potential classifications for the till covered areas of LM and LL and for the areas wheretill is absent recharge potential is classed as HM.

360 Initial testing of the output data layers against national nitrate concentrations in groundwater for 361 England and Wales (Johnson 2006) shows that the GIS output reflects the expected influence of 362 poorly permeable superficial deposits on nitrate fate and transport. However, the correlation is 363 weak in some places largely due to insufficient local detail.

The nitrate comparison indicated that key properties of the poorly permeable superficial deposits 364 365 that are required to predict nitrate concentration in groundwater are the overall coverage of the cover material (expressed as percentage cover per km^2) and its thickness, e.g. >10 m superficial 366 367 cover, both of which are available as digital datasets held by BGS. The importance of these 368 parameters varies according to the domain under consideration, e.g. depth of superficial deposits 369 is more important for the Till Dominant than for the Dissected Till domain. It is likely that both 370 these parameters need to be incorporated into the matrix if the characterisation of superficial 371 deposits is to be improved significantly.

372

373 Discussion

The methodology enables rapid assessment of the hydrogeological properties of superficial deposits on a national/regional scale. Use of the 1: 625 000 scale datasets provides a broad overview that is sufficient for proof of method. Now that the methodology is established it is intended that it should be applied to more detailed data. It is also intended that input of local knowledge will be invaluable for assessing the success of the methodology and improving the resultant maps where anomalies or shortfalls exist.

Inevitably there are a number of constraints imposed by the methodology. These include scale issues and use of classifications at 1: 625 000 scale which inevitably simplifies otherwise heterogeneous systems. However, the heterogeneity is captured by the primary and secondary estimates of recharge and attenuation potential, i.e. a highly variable 3D deposit is classed as HL, 384 while homogenous deposits may be HH. In addition it has only been possible to capture some of 385 the available three dimensional data in the matrix, for example, for the areas of thick superficial 386 deposits in the Cheshire Basin. Application at a larger scale will enable the characterisation of 387 the 3D data in more detail.

There are also mapping issues, for example, some areas of raised beach/estuarine deposits, particularly around the Wash, have been mapped as alluvium on the 1: 625 000 superficial geology map. For many areas moraine and till have not been subdivided and variations in the morphology and composition of these deposits have implications for permeability and attenuation potential. The matrix methodology is helpful here, since explanations can be made in the matrix by local experts so that these mapping issues can be overcome by adjusting classifications manually.

There is also the question of whether there are enough assessment categories. For some deposits a highly variable category may be more appropriate than a fixed descriptor. There is also an argument that thickness should be integrated into the classifications rather than examined as a separate dataset. These issues can be addressed readily in subsequent usage, given that the database can be modified easily.

The coarse scale used in the trial does not allow recharge and attenuation properties to be assessed confidently at local, or even small catchment scale. However, the methodology is essentially scale independent, and can be readily adapted to apply the most commonly used geological dataset at 1: 50 000 scale, although it should be considered that the quality and precise type of mapping varies from one area to another at that scale.

The methodology represents a means of capturing existing and developing geological knowledge and extracting relevant elements to improve conceptual hydrogeological understanding. The importance of this interaction between hydrogeologists and mapping geologists who have an extensive understanding of the nature and variability of superficial deposits in a particular area cannot be over-estimated. Further development of the associated GIS and incorporation of more 410 detailed data will allow application at local catchment/groundwater body scale. In addition, the 411 GIS could be used as an ongoing archive of local understanding and knowledge, the layers and 412 datasets developed complementing and enhancing existing vulnerability maps and water 413 resource models.

Although there are a number of additional datasets available, outputs need to be evaluated before they are formally incorporated into the assessment procedure. The initial testing provides a baseline from which to judge the relative improvement in outputs due to the inclusion of any new dataset into the method. New data sets could include: soils data, land drainage data, rock head elevation, nitrate monitoring and loading data, and seasonal variability of loading.

419

420 Conclusions

Superficial deposits have been evaluated using Quaternary domain classifications to provide improved geological and hydrogeological characterisation. Geological and hydrogeological data have been integrated with expert local geological and hydrogeological knowledge using a data matrix to provide improved assessment of the impact of superficial deposits on groundwater vulnerability. New groundwater vulnerability maps of recharge potential and attenuation potential within superficial cover material over bedrock aquifers have been developed at 1:625 000 scale.

428 A qualitative assessment of the results compares favourably with existing recharge studies and 429 regional hydrogeological knowledge. Favourable comparison with data from HOST provides a 430 quantitative assessment of the method. The methodology excludes direct consideration of the 431 soil zone and other intrinsic processes which are encapsulated in recharge estimation and in the 432 assessment of attenuation potential of the vadose zone. These exclusions do not impact on the 433 assessment for the superficial strata and the output is consistently robust.

As the methodology is scale independent it is recommended that it is applied at 1: 50 000 scale
subject to data licensing issues. This will enable more detailed characterisation and assessment

436 of groundwater vulnerability at a local level. Rescaling will also provide an opportunity to add437 additional components to the methodology as required.

Although the method is constrained by the availability of data and local knowledge, one of its strengths is that it allows new information to be incorporated at a later date so that assessments are improved and validated. This will enable a flexible, holistic and dynamic approach to groundwater vulnerability assessments and ensure that they are based on the best available information. The methodology is currently being trialled by the Environment Agency.

443

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Figure 1 The available resources for improving the hydrogeological characterisation of the superficial deposits.

Figure 2 Factors influencing recharge and attenuation in the sub-surface. The methodology described in this paper is concerned only with the processes in the superficial deposits.

Figure 3 Superficial deposits of Great Britian at 1:625 000 scale (copyright BGS).

Figure 4Map of the eleven main Quaternary Domains as identified by QMT (2004).The boundaries of the sub domains are also outlined.

Figure 5 An outline of the methodology described in this paper to develop recharge and attenuation potential maps by using expert knowledge to interpret existing superficial geology maps.

Figure 6 Process diagram of GIS application of the methodology.

Figure 7 Map of recharge potential using 1:625 000 data. For high recharge potential, more water would be expected to pass through the superficial deposits. Information on the thickness of the deposits is not incorporated.

Figure 8 Map of attenuation potential using 1:625 000 scale data. For high attenuation, then negligible contamination is expected though the superficial deposits. Information on drift thickness is not incorporated.

Figure 9 Plot of recharge potential against the HOST Standard Infiltration potential.

Table 1Framework for discussion between Quaternary geological experts andhydrogeologists

Table 2Generic bedrock classification (L – Low, M – Medium, H – High)

Matrix fields to be completed on each mapped superficial deposit within each domain type	Assessor
General Description	
Map issues	
Sub-domains	ert
General Thickness	dxe
Architecture	al e
Lithology	gic
Clay content	olo
Organic content	Ge
Horizontal permeability	
Vertical permeability	
Primary adsorption potential	st
Secondary adsorption potential	ogi
Rationale for adsorption potential	eolo
Primary recharge potential	.0gc
Secondary recharge potential	ydı
Rationale for recharge rating	Н

Padroak alagsification	Attenuation Potential		Recharge Potential	
Bedrock classification	Primary	Secondary	Primary	Secondary
Chalk	Н	Μ	L	L
Crystalline	L	Μ	Н	Μ
Crystalline Coarse	L	Μ	Н	Μ
Crystalline Fine	Н	Μ	L	Μ
Metamorphic	Μ	Н	Μ	L
Meta Argillaceous	Н	L	L	Н
Meta Limestone	Μ	L	Μ	Μ
Meta Rudaceous	Μ	L	Μ	Н
Sedimentary Arenaceous	L	Μ	Н	Μ
Sedimentary Argillaceous	Н	Μ	L	L
Sedimentary Coal	Н	Μ	L	Μ
Sedimentary Limestone	Μ	L	L	Μ
Sedimentary Mixed	Μ	Μ	Μ	Μ
Sedimentary Rudaceous	Μ	Μ	Н	Μ
Volcanoclastic	L	Μ	Μ	Μ

Current situation

National geological map of the superficial deposits

Isolated case studies of groundwater movement through superficial deposits

Available Resources

Conceptual Models (Quaternary Domains)

Hydrogeologists

Regional Geologists

Information on thickness

Borehole InformationNational datasets (e.g. Soil, Groundwater Vulnerability maps, geochemical data

Desired Destination

National map of the attenuation potential of the superficial deposits National map of the recharge potential of the superficial deposits



Recharge

The hydraulic properties of the soil first helps to partition the effective rainfall into runoff and potential recharge.

The potential for the superficial deposits to accept recharge from the base of the soil is dependent on the primary permeability and porosity of the superficial deposits. Secondary features, such as the presence of fractures can also increase recharge potential.

Actual bedrock recharge depends partly on the properties of the bedrock. If the bedrock has low permeability and/or low storage, and cannot physically accept all the recharge, excess recharge may flow horizontally through the superficial deposits.

Attenuation

Much of the attenuation of contaminants occurs within the soil. In this biologically active zone contaminants can be subject to a range of chemical reactions, sorbed onto clays, or taken up by organic material.

Contaminants can be attenuated in the superficial deposits, by the presence of clay or organic material. The travel time is also important as this will give more time for attenuation to occur.

Some attenuation of contaminants can occur, but within the bedrock, dilution is generally the most significant factor.













