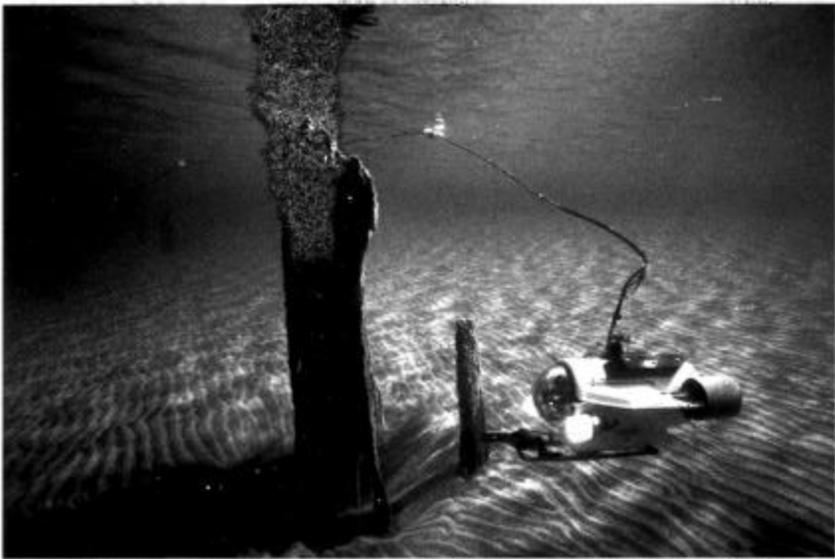
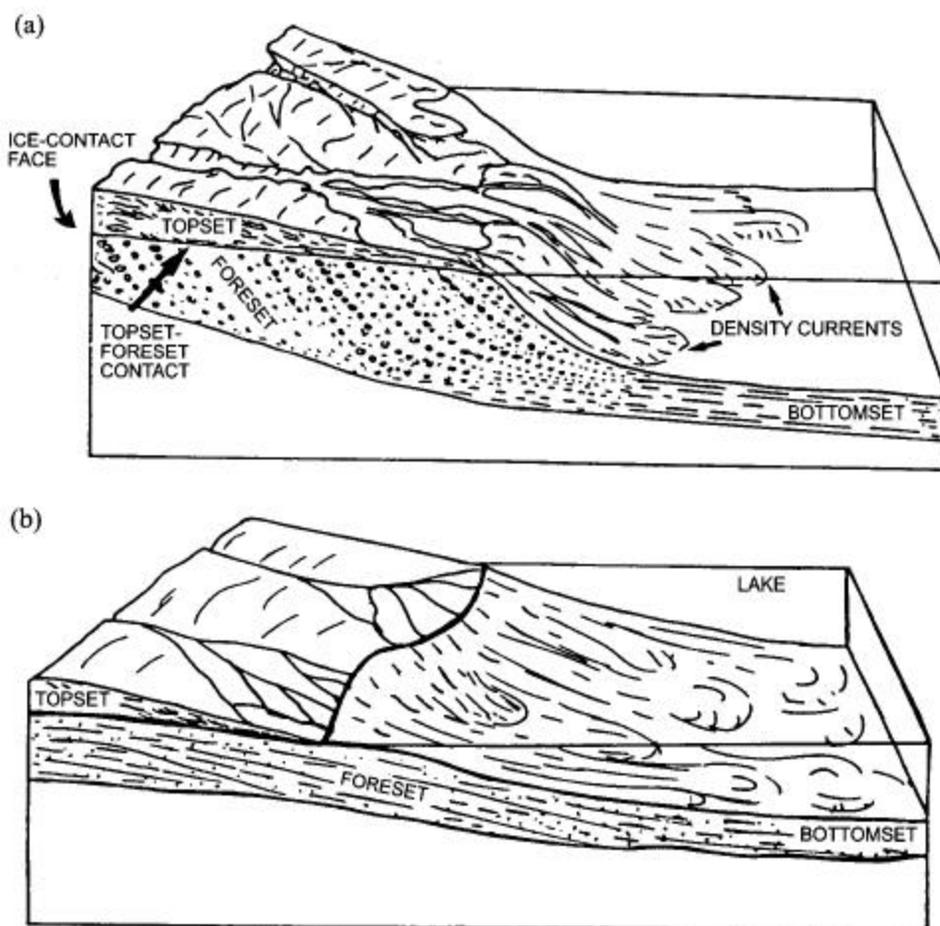


Figure 4-4. Submerged trees indicating former lower lake levels. From Linstrom et al. (2000).



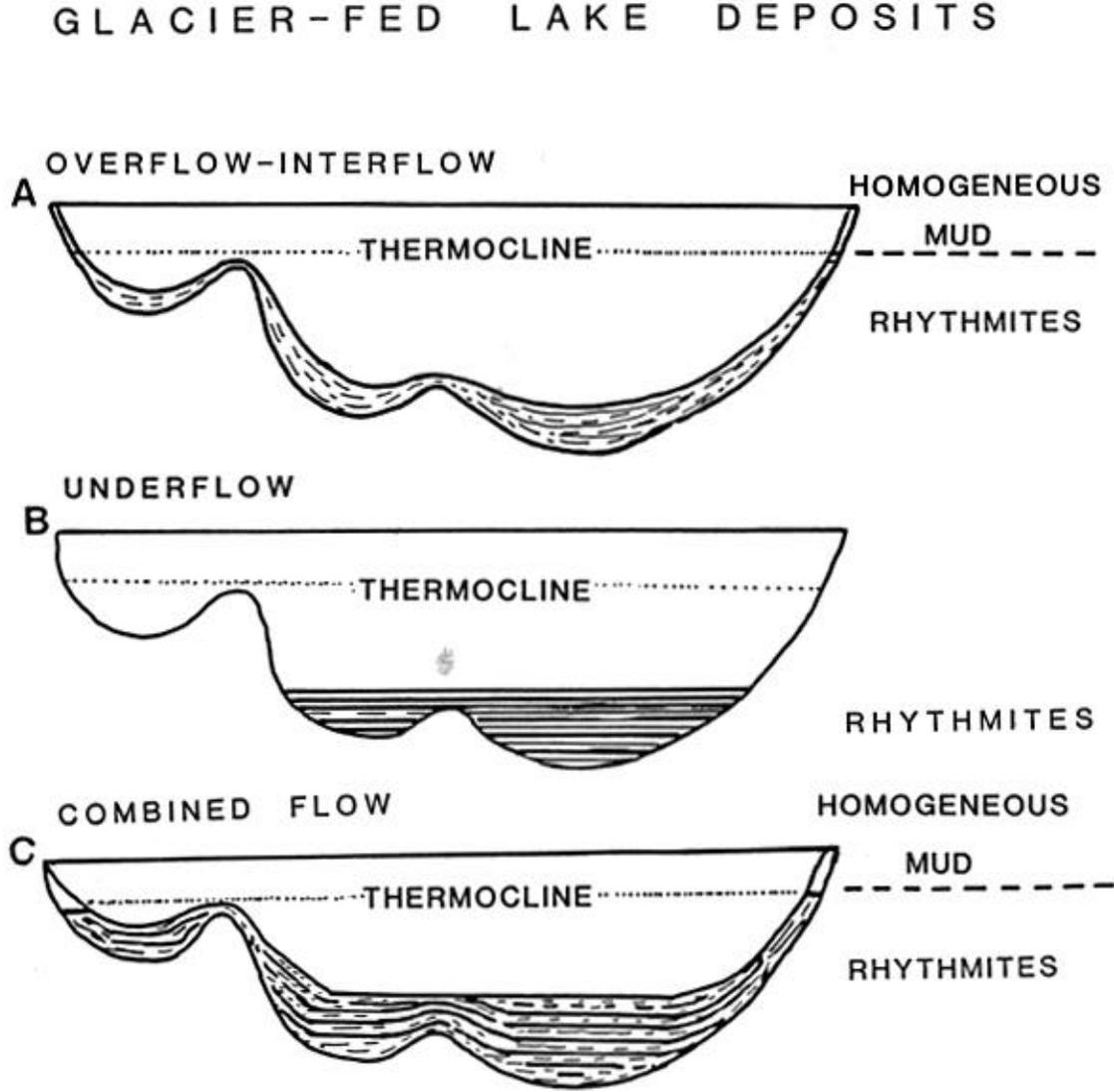
An understanding of the depositional processes aids in determining the geometry of the deposits. For the purpose of this study, two end members of deltaic systems are examined: proximal and distal (Figure 4-5). Deposition in the proximal deltaic environment is characterized by rapid deposition of coarse sediment where streams discharge into the low energy environment of the lake. This deposition results in periodic oversteepening and collapse along the delta front; the collapse produces surge type, density driven, sediment rich flows that transport material downgradient and into the more distal basin (Ashley 2002). Coarser material from the surge-type events is deposited along the cascading face, forming delta foresets, while the finer-grained material is transported into the deeper basin at turbidites and forms bottomsets. As the delta front progrades into the lake through successive deposition of foresets, fluvial deposition in the subaerial environment results in gradual aggradation and the formation of topsets. Such surge deposits would also have been interbedded with underflow and suspension settling deposits, especially in the bottomsets. Deposition in such an environment forms the typical "Gilbert Type" delta.

Figure 4-5. Ice-contact depositional environments from Ashley (2002). (a) Coarse-grained delta with high-angle foresets deposited in a “proximal” setting. Density underflows can be generated by inflowing meltwater or by foreset slumps. (b) Fine-grained delta, with low angle foresets that can form in the distal portion of an ice-contact delta or where the delta is separated from the ice by an outwash stream.



The distal deltaic environment is characterized by inflow from streams with a finer grained sediment load. Much of the sediment in such an environment can be transported into the lake in a coherent flow. The dynamics of the flows are dictated by the density stratification of the lake and relative density of the inflow (controlled by water temperature and sediment concentration). Inflow that is denser than the ambient lake water will flow along the lake bottom as an underflow (Ashley 1985). Lighter inflow will form interflows or overflows depending on where they achieve neutral buoyancy in the lake. In the case of underflows, the sediment is transported into the basin and pools in the topographic lows; sedimentation effectively bypasses bathymetric highs (Figure 4-6). Sediment in the overflows and interflows is released through suspension settling, which forms a blanket deposit that thins over highs and thickens in the lows.

Figure 4-6. Spatial variations in lake-bottom deposits as a function of dispersal mechanisms. (a) overflow-interflow, (b) underflow, and (c) combination overflow-interflow and underflow. From Ashley (1985).



It must also be realized that there is the potential for significant deposition in front of the Hobart, Donner and Tahoe glaciers, which would have terminated in the lake for significant periods of time. Deposition during these times would have been characterized by proximal subaqueous fans (Rust and Romanelli 1975, Shaw 1985). Deposition in this environment would have dictated rapid accumulation of coarse-grained glaciofluvial sediments where the stream discharged from the ice margin. Debris flows initiated by oversteepening and subsequent collapse, as well as fluctuations in the ice margin, would have distributed coarse material away from the ice margin. Density driven underflows would also have transported sand and silt away from the glacier margin. An important aspect here is that the streams would have discharged at or near the lake floor and would have aggraded as an ice-contact fan. If aggradation was able to progress to lake level, then it would have prograded as a fan-delta. We will ignore further discussion of these complications for this report, understanding that the formation of some of the sand and gravel sequences observed at depth (e.g., Scott et al. 1978, Einarson 2003) were likely deposited in this manner.

During interglacial periods, as well as the early onset and late stages of glaciation, sedimentary processes in the lake would have been dominated by fine-grained deposition. As glaciers were growing and shrinking, sediment loads in the tributary streams would have climbed dramatically (Lawson 1993) resulting in rapid accumulation of silty deposits, especially in basins like that below South Lake Tahoe. In the interglacial periods proper, sedimentation rates would be similar to those of today. Sediment would have been delivered to the lakes in underfit streams with low sediment concentrations. Minor delta progradation may have occurred near the shoreline while suspension settling occurred away from the shore. The result would have been widespread, continuous fine-grained blankets of silt and clay. These deposits would have been thickest over topographic lows and thinning over highs. The blankets also would have pinched towards the basin margin where wave-based activity would have winnowed the fine and coarse sediment introduced from the shore.

Based on this discussion, the stratigraphic sequence below Meyers and South Lake Tahoe is characterized by the interbedding of fine-grained lake sediments with coarse-grained sand and gravel. The fan and delta sedimentation during the glacial period would have prograded through coalescing fans. This can be pictured as a series of stacked sand and gravel lobes, the migration of lobes reflecting changes in sediment delivery through braided outwash channels and distributary channels on the fan in order to fill adjacent lows. The result would be a wedge of coarse-grained material that becomes bracketed by fine-grained units representing “quiet” water conditions. This sequence should repeat itself for each successive glaciation until the depositional surface is subaerially exposed.

Development of Model Layers

A six-layer model was developed for conceptualizing the hydrogeology of the South Lake Tahoe and Meyers areas. The goal was to provide relatively high resolution in the upper 46 m (150 ft) and then lump deeper units to behave as a reservoir in the computations. The rationale behind this is that Scott et al. (1978) and Einarson (2003) have demonstrated that thick, continuous fine-grained units exist at depth. These units should impose considerable impedance

to vertical flow and therefore restrict flow contaminated by surface processes and anthropogenic inputs to the upper water bearing zones. Therefore, the upper 30 m (100 ft) were subdivided into four units of 8 m (25 ft) thickness. This first layer was used to account for higher groundwater elevations away from the shore. This layer was added that extended from 6243 to 6268 ft above m.s.l. Layers 2 through 6 are the layers which intersect Lake Tahoe, with the upper of these units starting at an elevation of 6243 ft above m.s.l. (the approximate water level at the “Y”). Layer 5 was 15-meter (50-foot) thick and all the remaining sequences were lumped into a deep zone that extends to bedrock. The bedrock configuration was extrapolated from Bergsohn (2003).

Within each of these zones, variations in hydraulic conductivity were estimated based on relative percentages of fines versus coarse sand and gravel. The stratigraphic information used to do this for South Lake Tahoe was extracted from the geologic cross sections in Scott et al. (1978). In the Meyers area, these data were extracted from stratigraphic interpretation based on borehole geophysical logs. The hydrologic conductivity was placed in seven groups for each layer as defined in Table 4-1 and shown in Appendix B (Fenske 2003).

Table 4-1. Hydrologic Conductivity Estimates (m/day) Initial Values Used

Unit	Description	Conductivity	
		Horizontal	Vertical
A	Bedrock	0.5	0.06
B	Clean sand and gravel	40	6
C	Sand and gravel with less than 25% fines	15	0.15
D	Silty Sand	1.5	0.06
E	25 to 50% fines	15	0.15
F	50 to 75% fines	1.5	0.006
G	Greater than 75% fines	0.03	0.003

Notes:

- 1 m/day = 3.2808 ft/day