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HYDRAULIC CHARACTERISTICS OF, AND GROUND-WATER FLOW IN, COAL-BEARING ROCKS OF SOUTHWESTERN VIRGINIA

U.S. GEOLOGICAL SURVEY
Open-File Report 91-250





Prepared in cooperation with the

VIRGINIA DEPARTMENT OF MINES, MINERALS, AND ENERGY, DIVISION OF MINED LAND RECLAMATION and the POWELL RIVER PROJECT

# CONVERSION FACTORS, ABBREVIATIONS, AND VERTICAL DATUM

Multiply	By	To Obtain
	Length	
inch (in.) foot (ft) mile (mi) foot per mile (ft/mi)	25.4 0.3048 1.609 0.1894	millimeter meter kilometer meter per kilometer
	<u>Area</u>	
square mile (mi²)	2.590	square kilometer
	Weight	
ton, short	0.9072	metric ton
	Hydraulic conductivity	
cubic foot per day per square foot [(ft'/d)/ft']	0.3048	cubic meter per day per square meter
	Transmissivity	
cubic foot per day per square foot per foot of aquifer thickness [(ft³/d)/ft²]ft	0.09290	cubic meter per day per square meter per meter of aquifer thickness

Temperature in degrees Celsius (°C) can be converted to degrees Fahrenheit (°F) as follows:

$$^{\circ}F = (1.8 \times ^{\circ}C) + 32$$

Sea Level: In this report sea level refers to the National Geodetic Vertical Datum of 1929 (NGVD of 1929)--a geodetic datum derived from a general adjustment of the first-order level nets of both the United States and Canada, formerly called Sea Level Datum of 1929.

Hydraulic conductivity and transmissivity: In this report, hydraulic conductivity is reported in feet per day (ft/d), a mathmatical reduction of the unit cubic foot per day per square foot [(ft³/d)/ft³]. Transmissivity is reported in feet square per day (ft²/d), a mathmatical reduction of the unit cubic feet per day per square foot times feet of aquifer thickness ([(ft³/d)/ft²]ft).

Specific conductance is expressed in microsiemens per centimeter (µS/cm) at 25 degrees Celsius.

For dimensions expressed in this report, M equals mass, L equals distance, and T equals time.

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Richmond, Virginia

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### HYDRAULIC CHARACTERISTICS OF, AND GROUND-WATER FLOW IN,

#### COAL-BEARING ROCKS OF SOUTHWESTERN VIRGINIA

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### **ABSTRACT**

This report presents the results of a study by the U.S. Geological Survey, in cooperation with the Virginia Department of Mines, Minerals, and Energy, Division of Mined Land Reclamation and the Powell River Project, to describe the hydraulic characteristics of major water-bearing zones in the coal-bearing rocks of southwestern Virginia and to develop a conceptual model of the ground-water-flow system. Aquifer testing in 1987 and 1988 of 9-foot intervals in coal-exploration core holes indicates that transmissivity decreases with increasing depth. Most rock types are permeable to a depth of approximately 100 feet; however, only coal seams are consistently permeable (transmissivity greater than 0.001 feet square per day) at depths greater than 200 feet. Constant-head injection testing of rock intervals adjacent to coal seams usually indicated lower values of transmissivity than those values obtained when coal seams were isolated within the test interval; thus, large values of horizontal hydraulic conductivity at depth are associated with coal seams.

Potentiometric-head measurements indicate that high topographic areas (ridges) function as recharge areas; water infiltrates through the surface, percolates into regolith, and flows downward and laterally through fractures in the shallow bedrock. Hydraulic conductivity decreases with increasing depth, and ground water flows primarily in the lateral direction along fractures or bedding planes or through coal seams. If vertical hydraulic conductivity is negligible, ground water continues to flow laterally, discharging as springs or seeps on hillslopes. Where vertical hydraulic conductivity is appreciable, ground water follows a stair-step path through the regolith, fractures, bedding planes, and coal seams, discharging to streams and (or) recharging coal seams at depth.

Permeable coal seams probably underlie valleys in the region; however, aquifer-test data indicate that the horizontal hydraulic conductivity of coal is a function of depth and probably decreases under ridges because of increased overburden pressures. Ground water beneath valleys that does not discharge to streams probably flows downgradient as underflow beneath the streams. Topographic relief in the area provides large hydraulic head differences (greater than 300 feet in some instances) for the ground-water-flow system. Transmissivity data from the range of depths tested during this study indicate that most ground-water flow takes place at moderate depths (less than 300 feet), and that little deep regional ground-water flow occurs.

#### INTRODUCTION

The coal fields of southwestern Virginia produced 42 million short tons of bituminous coal in 1986. The average annual coal production for the period 1981-86 was 41 million short tons. This amounts to about 4.5 percent of the annual coal production in the United States. The estimated coal reserves of the study area are 9.5 billion short tons, which is approximately 1.3 percent of the total bituminous coal reserves of the United States (Hessley and others, 1986). Coal-mining operations in the area include underground mining (81 percent) and surface mining (19 percent).

The U.S. Census Bureau (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1980) estimates that 34 percent of the population in the study area (106,415) depends on the coal-mining industry for income. Coal mining is a high-paying industry, accounting for 41 percent of personal income in the study area.

As of 1990, little quantitative information is available to document the effects of coal mining on the ground-water-flow system of the coal fields. Mining can alter flow patterns, increase the flow between and (or) within aquifers<sup>1</sup>, and affect spring discharges and stream base flows. Mining can also change the natural chemistry of the ground water.

The U.S. Congress enacted the Surface Mining Control and Reclamation Act (PL95-87) in 1977. The Act requires coal-mine operators to quantify and, if necessary, monitor ground water in mined areas. Ground-water information is commonly unavailable because the expense and technical requirements of ground-water monitoring and testing programs limit the collection of baseline data for mine planning and reclamation programs.

Most ground-water testing programs in the past have consisted of open-hole aquifer tests and composite water-quality sampling. Data from these types of aquifer tests and chemical analyses represent the composite influence of all rock types and aquifers penetrated by the borehole. These data do not allow an evaluation of the effects of individual rock types or water-bearing zones on the hydrology and water quality of the ground-water system. The absence of aquifer-specific data limits the ability to regulate present mine operations and hinders planning for future mining, domestic, and industrial growth.

Larson and Powell (1986) estimated the hydraulic characteristics and water quality of individual aquifers, in Buchanan and Dickenson Counties, Virginia, by isolating selected test intervals with controlled drilling and grouting procedures. This method was successful but expensive and impractical on a regional scale. Wright (1985) showed that straddle packers could be used to isolate and test specific intervals in coal-exploration core holes.

In 1985, a cooperative program among the Virginia Department of Mines, Minerals, and Energy, Division of Mined Land Reclamation; the Powell River Project; and the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) was organized to (1) study the ground water of the coal fields of southwestern Virginia, (2) to provide a data base for use in determining the possible effects of coal mining and land reclamation on the ground-water-flow system, and (3) to aid state or local water-resources officials or managers in planning for industrial and domestic water use. The USGS was designated the principal investigator, and the Virginia Department of Mines, Minerals, and Energy, Division of Mined Land Reclamation provided geological and mine-operations information. Coal-mine operators, many of whom are cooperators with the Powell River Project, allowed the USGS to conduct hydraulic tests and collect water samples for analysis from their coal-exploration core holes.

#### Purpose and Scope

This report describes the hydraulic characteristics of major water-bearing zones in the coal-bearing rocks of southwestern Virginia and presents a conceptual model of the ground-water-flow system. The results of hydraulic testing conducted in 349 test intervals in 43 coal-exploration core holes located in the coal fields of southwestern Virginia are presented. Hydraulic testing with a pneumatic straddle-packer assembly provided a means for determining **potentiometric head** and **transmissivity**. During 1987 and 1988, testing was conducted in exploration core holes drilled by area coal-mining companies. An average of 10 test intervals were selected for hydraulic analysis in each core hole after evaluating core samples and

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Terms in bold type are defined in glossary.

borehole geophysical logs. Analysis of hydraulic data from these test intervals produced 367 values of transmissivity and 134 values of potentiometric head that were used to develop a conceptual model of the ground-water-flow system.

# Location of Study Area

The study area is located in southwestern Virginia (pl. 1), encompassing approximately 1,500 mi<sup>2</sup>. Approximately one-third of the study area lies within the Jefferson National Forest. The study area includes all of Wise, Dickenson, and Buchanan Counties, and parts of Lee, Scott, Russell, and Tazewell Counties. The area is bounded by the State of Kentucky on the northwest, the State of West Virginia on the northeast, and the Clinch River Valley on the southeast. The southwestern boundary is the southwestern extent of the Virginia Appalachian Plateau physiographic province.

### Climate

The climate of the study area is central temperate. Temperatures normally range from -10 to 94°F with an average annual temperature of 54°F (National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, 1986). Monthly average temperatures range from a minimum of 33°F in January to a maximum of 72°F in July. The number of frost-free days varies with elevation; but on the average, the first freeze of the season occurs in late October and the last freeze occurs in early May. Precipitation varies with location and elevation but averages 41 in. annually in Wise County, including 15 to 30 in. of snow. Precipitation is distributed evenly throughout the year, with a maximum of 3 to 4 in. per month in the spring and early summer and a minimum of 2 to 3 in. per month during the fall.

# **Physiography**

The study area lies within the southern Appalachian Plateau physiographic province. Elevations range from 845 ft above sea level where the Levisa Fork river flows into Kentucky to 4,223 ft above sea level on High Knob Mountain (pl. 1). The area supports extensive, dense deciduous forests and some evergreens. The rock strata generally are flat lying but have been heavily dissected by rivers, resulting in a rugged topography of narrow valleys and steep hillslopes with little or no bottomland. Ridge tops are 600 to 1,000 ft above the stream bottoms. The southern part of the study area is drained by the Powell and Clinch Rivers, which are part of the Tennessee River basin. The northern part is drained by the Levisa Fork, Cranes Nest, McClure, Pound, and Russell Fork Rivers, which are part of the Big Sandy River basin. Two large reservoirs, the John W. Flannagan Reservoir and the North Fork Pound River Lake, supply water for industrial and domestic purposes.

#### Acknowledgments

The authors appreciate the cooperation of the Powell River Project and its participating coal companies that allowed borehole geophysical logging and hydraulic testing in their coal-exploration core holes. Special thanks are given to J. Roger Jones of Pyxis-Paramont Coal Company and Kenneth R. Roddenberry of Westmoreland Coal Company for their support during early stages of the fieldwork. We also thank C.B. Slemp, Director of the Powell River Project; Danny R. Brown, Commissioner of the Virginia Department of Mines, Minerals, and Energy, Division of Mined Land Reclamation; and Conrad T. Spangler, Chief Engineer of the Virginia Department of Mines, Minerals, and Energy, Division of Mined Land Reclamation who supported and guided this project to its successful completion.

#### GEOLOGIC SETTING

Extensive geologic mapping in the coal fields of southwestern Virginia has recently been conducted by the geologists of the Virginia Department of Mines, Minerals, and Energy, Division of Mineral Resources. The study area is underlain at relatively shallow depth by the Lee, Pocahontas, New River, and Norton Formations; the Gladeville Sandstone; and the Wise and Harlan Formations. These formations consist of Late Mississippian-age and Pennsylvanian-age sandstone, siltstone, shale, and coal. The sediments were deposited in a system of deltaic swamps, barrier islands, and lagoons, and were constantly reworked by rivers, streams, and ocean currents (Miller, 1974). These sediments were deposited in a slowly subsiding basin along the edge of an inland sea, that once covered what is now western Kentucky. Elevated land southeast of the sea drained to the northwest where sequences of sand, silt, and organic matter were deposited to form the Lee, Pocahontas, and New River Formations. During times of decreased sediment influx, swamp conditions prevailed in places, resulting in the thick coal seams of the Pocahontas Formation.

Lower Pennsylvanian sandstones that dominate the Lee Formation were deposited during three transgressions of the sea. Each transgression advanced farther southeast than the previous. These sandstones were derived from barrier bars of coarse, clean, quartz materials that were subject to reworking by wave action and longshore currents (Englund, 1979, p. C18).

After deposition of the Lee, Pocahontas, and New River Formations, the depositional basin was uplifted and eroded. At the same time, the land to the northwest began to rise forming the Cincinnati arch (Stearn and others, 1979). Drainage from areas northwest and southeast of the basin deposited sediments that formed the Norton and overlying formations, such that, at the end of the Pennsylvanian Period, there existed a southeastward-thickening wedge of sediments (Englund, 1979, p. C4).

The Norton and overlying formations were deposited in a calm environment and do not contain the clean, coarse sandstones that dominate the underlying Lee Formation. The sandstones of the Norton and overlying formations are composed of fine-grained units such as the Gladeville Sandstone and McClure Sandstone Member of the Norton Formation. The presence of both fresh- and brackish-water fossils (Englund, 1979, p. C16) implies that sea level fluctuated during deposition of the Norton and Wise Formations.

After deposition, burial, and lithification of the Norton, Wise, and Harlan Formations, the rocks were subjected to lateral compressive forces. These forces produced the Pine Mountain thrust sheet and the broad, open folds that exist in the study area. The rocks within the Pine Mountain thrust sheet were transported an average of 4 to 6 mi from the southeast to their present location (McLoughlin, 1986, p. 5). As the thrust sheet moved northwestward, the leading edge was forced upward forming Pine Mountain. The thrust sheet rotated clockwise as it moved, extending southwestward and forming the Russell Fork fault (pl. 2). The Russell Fork fault divides the study area into two regions: (1) the relatively flat-lying rocks located northeast of the fault that have rotated about a fixed point in Buchanan County, and (2) the gently folded and faulted rocks located southwest of the fault that were moved as part of the Pine Mountain thrust sheet. The rocks in both regions are nearly flat-lying with an average northwest regional dip of 75 ft/mi (McLoughlin, 1986, p. 5).

Although rock deformation associated with thrusting is less in this area than in areas to the southeast, the rock strata is variably fractured. Stress relief is an important mechanism for fracturing at shallow depths (Wyrick and Borchers, 1981, p. 12). As erosion reduces overburden and downward compressional forces on valley bottoms, valley floors can arch upward; the upper beds arch more than lower ones. This differential arching causes bedding-plane partings and minor vertical fractures near the axis of the arch. Also, as erosion removes valley material, valley walls are subjected to unequal horizontal stresses--stresses that can cause vertical and horizontal fracturing along valley walls (Ferguson, 1967, p. 66). Fracturing and bedding-plane partings are important to the hydraulic conductivity of well-cemented sandstones, and thin-bedded rocks such as coal and siltstone. The distinct jointing found in coal seams is

termed "cleat." The more developed cleat defines the working face of a coal seam and is termed the "face cleat;" the less developed cleat, oriented at a large angle to the face cleat, is termed the "butt cleat" (Hessley and others, 1986). Coal seams commonly consist of several individual coal beds separated by thin inorganic layers; cleat does not cut across the clay or other inorganic layers between coal beds. The process by which cleat forms is unclear, however, the orientation of cleat is usually related to regional tectonic forces in an area. Cleat generally shows two preferred orientations—face cleat oriented perpendicular to axial trends of folds and butt cleat oriented parallel to axial trend of folds (Schubert, 1980, p. 66).

#### Lee Formation

The Lee Formation (Campbell, 1893) of Late Mississippian and Early Pennsylvanian age is dominated by three quartz-rich sandstone members (Miller, 1974) that form steep cliffs and ridges. Campbell (1894) described these sandstones as massive and conglomeratic with interbedded shales and two to six coal seams. The Lee Formation contains four Lower Pennsylvanian members: the Middlesboro, Hensley, Bee Rock Sandstone, and Naese Sandstone Members (Diffenbach, 1988). The Middlesboro Member, which is the most prominent and areally extensive member of the Lee Formation, disconformably overlies the Upper Mississippian Bluestone Formation. The Middlesboro Member is composed of two tongues of clean, light-gray, quartzose sandstone that thin and pinch-out to the southeast. The lower tongue extends across most of the study area and has a maximum thickness of 350 to 400 ft in the southwestern counties. The upper tongue, located approximately 450 ft above the lower tongue, has an average thickness of 100 to 150 ft and is not as areally extensive. The Middlesboro Member is replaced laterally by light to medium gray, feldspathic sandstone, siltstone, and coal of the Pocahontas and New River Formations (Nolde and Mitchell, 1984, p. 3).

The Hensley Member of the Lee Formation contains an alternating sequence of sandstone, siltstone, shale, coal, and underclay. In areas where the overlying Bee Rock Sandstone Member, the upper member of the Lee Formation, is absent, strata equivalent to the Hensley Member are included in the Norton Formation (Englund, 1979, p. C14; Nolde, Virginia Department of Mines, Minerals, and Energy, Division of Mineral Resources, written commun., 1988, 1990).

The Bee Rock Sandstone Member of the Lee Formation is a 100 ft thick unit of quartzose, conglomeratic sandstone. Northeast, this member grades into the feldspathic McClure Sandstone Member of the Norton Formation. In the southwestern part of the study area, the Bee Rock Sandstone Member is overlain by the Naese Sandstone Member, which marks the upper boundary of the Lee Formation (Diffenbach, 1988). The coal seams evaluated during hydraulic testing in the Lee Formation include the Tiller, Jawbone, and Raven.

#### **Pocahontas Formation**

The Pocahontas Formation (Campbell, 1896) of Early Pennsylvanian age is a northwestward-thinning wedge-shaped rock unit of light gray, fine- to medium-grained, micaceous, feldspathic sandstone interbedded with medium to dark gray siltstone and coal (Miller, 1974). The Pocahontas Formation conformably overlies the Bluestone Formation of Late Mississippian age (Englund, 1979). The deep coal seams of the Pocahontas Formation are generally thicker than the coal seams of the younger Norton and Wise Formations. The coal seams of the Pocahontas Formation were not penetrated by any coal-exploration core holes and, therefore, their hydraulic properties were not evaluated.

#### **New River Formation**

The New River Formation (Fontaine, 1874) of Early Pennsylvanian age is a coal-bearing sequence of sandstone, siltstone, and shale. This formation is lithologically similar to the Pocahontas Formation except for the presence of light gray, fine- to coarse-grained quartzarenite and conglomeratic sandstone

that grades laterally into the Middlesboro Member of the Lee Formation (Englund, 1979, p. C15). The New River Formation conformably overlies the Pocahontas Formation and both are known for their numerous thick, low-sulfur coal seams. These coal seams are absent, or are much thinner, where the Pocahontas and New River Formations intertongue with the Lee Formation to the northwest. The coal seams evaluated during hydraulic testing in the New River Formation include the Lower Seaboard, Upper Seaboard, Castle, Tiller, and Jawbone.

#### **Norton Formation**

The Norton Formation (Campbell, 1893) of Early and Middle Pennsylvanian age consists of siltstone and shale, with some sandstone, coal, and underclay (Miller, 1974). The siltstone and shale are gray to dark gray, locally carbonaceous, sideritic, and thinly laminated. The sandstone is gray to light gray, fine-to medium-grained, clayey, silty, micaceous, and weakly cemented with silica. In the northwestern part of the study area, the Norton Formation has an average thickness of 750 to 800 ft, and the top of the Naese Sandstone Member is the lower boundary. In the southeastern part of the study area, the Norton Formation is up to 1,300 ft thick and contains sandstone and coal seams, which are included in the Lee Formation to the northwest. The base of the Norton Formation is defined as the top of the uppermost quartzarenite of the Lee Formation. From northwest to southeast this boundary is displaced downward as the quartzarenite bodies pinch-out, such that the boundary may be the top of the Naese Sandstone Member, the Bee Rock Sandstone Member, the upper part of the Middlesboro Member or the lower part of the Middlesboro Member. In extreme southeastern Buchanan County and in small areas of Russell and Tazewell Counties, the lower part of the Norton Formation is laterally equivalent to much of the New River Formation. The Norton Formation contains nine mineable coal seams (Campbell, 1896). The coal seams evaluated during hydraulic testing in the Norton Formation include the Kennedy, Bearwallow, Big Fork, Lower Banner, Upper Banner, Splashdam, Hagy, and Norton.

#### Gladeville Sandstone

The Gladeville Sandstone (Campbell, 1893) of Middle Pennsylvanian age is a gray, medium- to coarse-grained, massive, quartzose sandstone that may be locally conglomeratic. In the southern sections of Wise and Dickenson Counties, the resistant Gladeville forms numerous ridges and low plateaus. In the northern areas, the Gladeville thins and is absent in most of Dickenson and Buchanan Counties. The Gladeville conformably overlies the Norton Formation.

#### **Wise Formation**

The Wise Formation (Campbell, 1893) of Middle Pennsylvanian age is composed of siltstone, sandstone, shale, coal, and underclay, with two distinctive calcareous marine shale units. The siltstone and shale are medium to dark gray and the carbonaceous shale is commonly black. The sandstone is light gray, fine-to medium-grained, micaceous, and feldspathic. The Wise Formation contains several thick sandstone units, including the Clover Fork, Marcum Hollow, and Reynolds Sandstone Members. The two marine zones, equivalent to the Kendrick Shale of Jillson (1919) and the Magoffin beds of Morse (1931), are composed of fossiliferous limestone and calcareous siltstone. The Wise Formation conformably overlies the Gladeville Sandstone and reaches a thickness of 2,300 ft in the northwest, where the Wise is capped by the Harlan Formation (Campbell, 1893). To the southeast, erosion has removed most or all of the formation. Campbell (1893) noted that the Wise Formation contains up to 18 coal seams. The coal seams evaluated during hydraulic testing of the Wise Formation include the Dorchester, Lyons, Blair, Clintwood, Imboden, Kelly, Upper St. Charles, Wilson, Taggart Marker, Taggart, and Low Splint. The Harlan Formation was not tested.

#### STUDY METHODS

Hydraulic characteristics and ground-water flow in the coal fields of southwestern Virginia were investigated using data collected in existing core holes. These core holes were not purged or swabbed, and water was used as a drilling fluid. Core hole geophysical properties were logged, hydraulic tests were conducted using a packer assembly designed for small diameter core holes (fig. 1), and core hole water samples were obtained using an air-operated, reciprocating piston pump incorporated in the packer assembly.

# **Borehole Geophysical Logging**

Borehole geophysical logging of the coal-exploration core holes was conducted to (1) determine borehole rugosity and locate fractures, cavities, and clay pinchouts, (2) determine core hole water levels, and (3) select intervals for water-quality sampling and hydraulic testing with the packer assembly.

Caliper, natural-gamma, neutron, and fluid (temperature and resistivity) logs were obtained in the core holes. This information was commonly supplemented by a driller's log and core samples provided by the coal operator. Access to the core holes, the drillers' logs, and core samples was provided by the operators with the understanding that information concerning the thickness and grade of coal seams would remain confidential. The driller's and geophysical logs from a selected interval of a typical test hole (core hole 27) are shown in figure 2. The driller's log indicates the rock types penetrated by the core hole and the geophysical logs indicate typical probe responses to the various rock types.

The caliper log was used to determine borehole rugosity. As shown in figure 2, deviations in the caliper log sometimes occurred over coal seams. Fractures, cavities, and clay pinchouts can cause a rough, irregular borehole wall that can obstruct passage of the packer assembly. Inflation of the pneumatic packers over a rough section of a borehole probably will not isolate the zone because of leakage around the packers and could result in rupturing of the packers and loss of the entire assembly. Thus, the caliper log was helpful in deciding where to set the packer assembly in the core holes.

The combination of a natural-gamma and a neutron log provided an adequate lithologic profile of core holes and was particularly helpful where a driller's log was not available. Sandstone and siltstone generally produce mirrored deflections on natural-gamma and neutron logs (for example, sandstone has a low natural-gamma count and a high neutron count), whereas coal produces similar deflections on both logs (fig. 2).

The fluid-resistivity log was used to determine water levels in the core holes. Deviations in fluid logs can indicate intervals where water is entering or leaving a core hole; however, few deviations were observed in the fluid logs and flow intervals were usually not detected.

#### Water-Quality Sampling

It was difficult to collect a water sample from a test interval that accurately represented the quality of water in that interval alone. The high water pressure required to remove rock cuttings during core drilling forces drilling water into the permeable intervals of rock penetrated by the core hole. This drilling water may remain in the rocks for some time. After the drilling was completed, the open core hole allowed water to move from zones of high head to zones of lower head. Where water flowed between zones, the quality of the sample obtained from an interval into which water flowed was not representative of the water quality in the test interval, but was instead a composite of the quality of drilling water, water from zones of higher head, and local formation water.

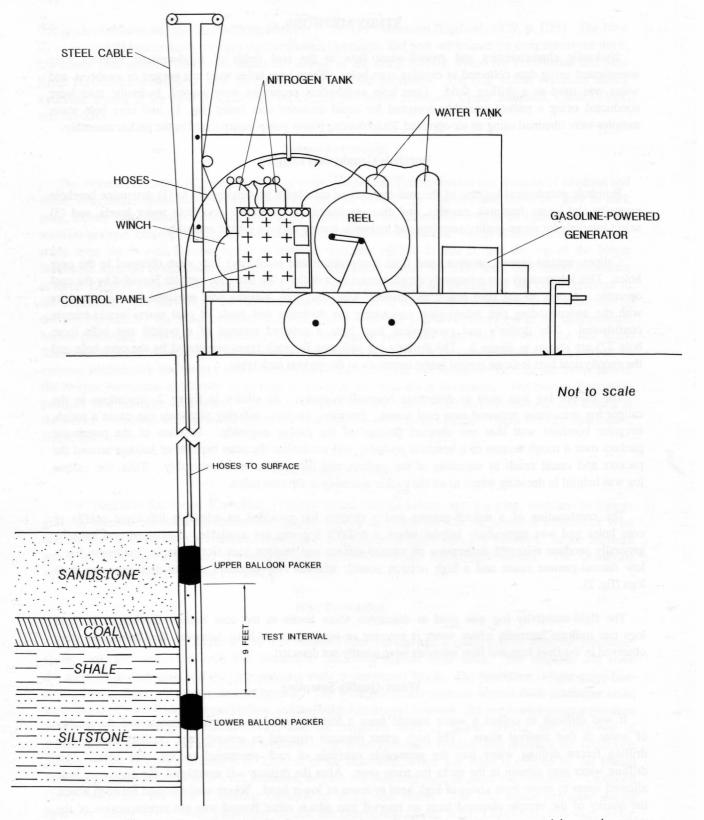


Figure 1.--Schematic diagram of the pneumatic straddle-packer assembly and support trailer used to conduct hydraulic testing in core holes.

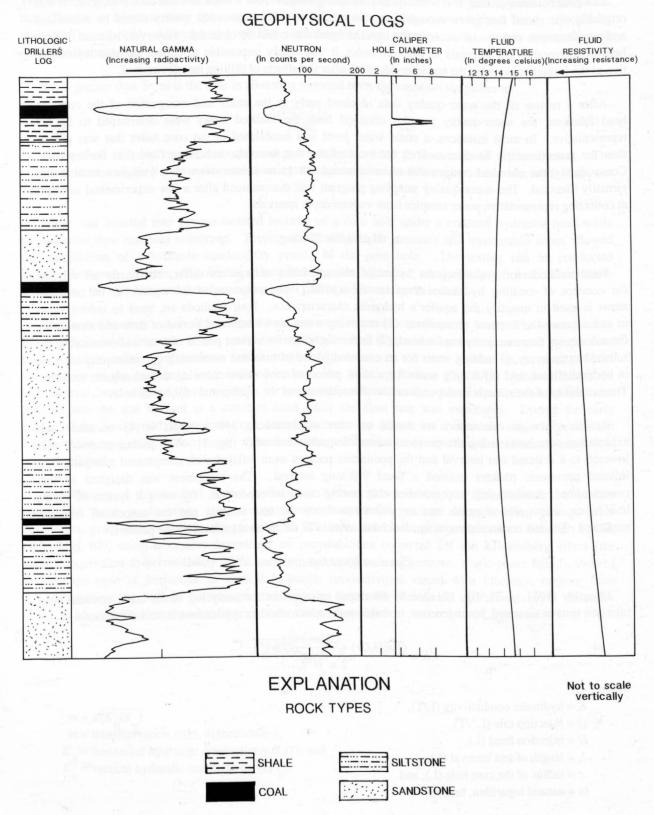


Figure 2.--Driller's log and geophysical logs for a selected interval of core hole 27.

The time between drilling and water-quality sampling ranged from 1 week to more than 9 months. It was originally speculated that given enough time, the effects of drilling on water quality would be minimized and representative samples of water in the isolated formation could be obtained. However, because of flow between permeable test intervals in the core holes, it was nearly impossible to collect samples representative of the formation water in the test intervals, even after the effects of drilling had diminished.

After a review of the water-quality data obtained early in the study and recognition of the complex head relations, the water-quality samples obtained from the isolated zones were determined to be not representative. In most instances, a static water level was established in the core holes that was greater than the potentiometric heads measured for most of the test intervals, indicating flow into the intervals. Consequently, the chemical composition of water samples from most intervals within a single core hole was virtually identical. The water-quality sampling program was discontinued after a few experimental attempts at collecting representative water samples from various depth intervals.

# **Hydraulic Testing**

Field methods for evaluating the hydraulic characteristics of aquifers differ, but nearly all rely on the concept of creating hydraulic stress on an aquifer. The response of an aquifer to the artificial stress is used to quantify the aquifer's hydraulic characteristics. Four methods are used to induce stress in and measure the response of aquifers: (1) removing water for an extended period of time and monitoring the subsequent decrease in hydraulic head, (2) removing water for a short period of time and monitoring the subsequent recovery, (3) adding water for an extended period of time and monitoring the subsequent increase in hydraulic head, and (4) adding water for a short period of time and monitoring the subsequent recovery. The suitability of these methods depends on the characteristics of the aquifer and of the core hole.

Results given in this report are based on tests conducted in 349 intervals in 43 uncased coalexploration core holes using the pneumatic straddle-packer assembly (fig. 1). The packer assembly was lowered to a selected test interval and the pneumatic packers were inflated with compressed nitrogen. The inflated pneumatic packers isolated a fixed 9-ft-long interval. The equipment was designed so that constant-head, standard-slug, and modified-slug testing could be conducted. By using a system of valves and hoses, water was injected into or withdrawn from the test interval and the associated response measured. The test results represent aquifer characteristics of the interval isolated by the packers.

#### Constant-Head Injection Test

Hvorslev (1951, p. 31, fig. 12, case 8) developed an equation for analyzing steady-state, constant-head injection tests in saturated, homogeneous, isotropic soils, which also has applications in rock formations:

$$K = \frac{Qln[(L/2r) + \sqrt{1 + (L/2r)^2}]}{2 \pi H L},$$
(1)

where

K = hydraulic conductivity (L/T),

 $Q = injection rate (L^3/T),$ 

H = injection head (L),

L = length of test interval (L),

r = radius of the core hole (L), and

ln = natural logarithm, base e.

The method is based on the assumption that no leakage or frictional loss in the test apparatus occurs and that changes in injection rates are caused solely by flow through the aquifer without being affected by hydraulic boundaries. Although the method was designed for saturated zones, it has applications in unsaturated zones.

If L is greater than 5r, as is the case in all testing reported here, the equation simplifies to

$$K = \frac{Qln(L/r)}{2\pi HL} \,. \tag{2}$$

The method is based on the assumption that the injection head to flow ratio (H:Q) is constant. The injection head and flow rate were varied using the pneumatic straddle-packer assembly, and H:Q was constant.

Water was injected into various isolated sections of a core hole under a constant hydraulic head while the injection flow rate was monitored. Testing conducted in both saturated and unsaturated zones allowed the compilation of a hydraulic-conductivity profile of the core hole. The testing can be conducted rapidly; however, the test response is dominated by the hydraulic conductivity of rock immediately surrounding the core hole and therefore only a small part of the formation is tested.

Each water-bearing unit in an open core hole has an associated potentiometric head. The water level in the core hole is a composite of the potentiometric heads of all water-bearing units penetrated by the core hole. Packer inflation created an initial surge of pressure in the test interval as a result of the compression of the core hole water isolated between the inflating packers (fig. 3A). After inflation, the test interval was allowed to equilibrate to its potentiometric head. After equilibration, water was injected into the test interval at a constant head while the flow rate was monitored. During the early stages of the test period, flow into the isolated interval was subject to a transient stage in which the injection rate was steadily decreasing. The flow rate was continuously monitored until steady-state flow was established.

A limitation of this method is that it does not account for anisotropy. Consolidated sedimentary rocks, like those in the study area, are anisotropic because of partings along bedding planes, grain orientation, grain-size variations, the presence of fractures, and cleating in coal seams. Schubert (1980, table 2, p. 62), using laboratory-determined air permeabilities corrected for the Klinkenberg effect (the value is equivalent to permeability of the core to a nonreactive, homogeneous, single-phase liquid), showed the average ratio of horizontal to vertical hydraulic conductivities varied with lithology, ranging from 2.6 in sandstone to 14.9 in siltstone in rock samples from the coal fields of Pennsylvania. Hvorslev (1951, p. 35, case 8) incorporated anisotropy into his equation with

$$K_h = \frac{Q \ln(mL/r)}{2\pi H L},\tag{3}$$

where

$$m = \sqrt{(K_h/K_v)}$$

$$m = \text{transformation ratio, dimensionless,}$$

$$K_h = \text{horizontal hydraulic conductivity (L/T), and}$$

$$K_v = \text{vertical hydraulic conductivity (L/T).}$$
(4)

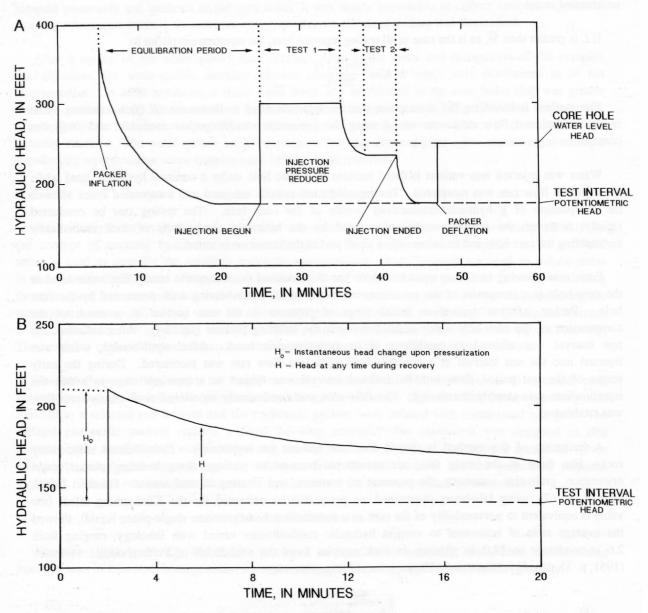


Figure 3.--(A)Typical pressure response of water level in a coal seam during packer inflation, equilibration, and during two constant-head injection tests at different flow rates, and (B) typical pressure response of water level in a sandstone during a standard slug test.

Equation 3 shows that  $K_h$  is a function of the natural logarithm of the square-root of the ratio of horizontal to vertical hydraulic conductivity. Large differences in anisotropy result in small differences in the computed horizontal hydraulic conductivity. These small differences are shown in table 1 by applying the physical dimensions of the packer spacing (L=9 ft) and the core hole radius (r=0.15 ft) to equation 3 using an example flow rate and head. For example, where  $K_h/K_h$  is 20, the computed horizontal hydraulic conductivity is  $2.03 \times 10^{-1}$  ft/d, and, where  $K_h/K_h$  is 1, the computed horizontal hydraulic conductivity is  $1.48 \times 10^{-1}$  ft/d. The difference is 27 percent, which is small compared to the orders of magnitude differences commonly present in natural systems.

Table 1.-Effect of varying the ratio of horizontal to vertical hydraulic conductivity on the calculation of horizontal hydraulic conductivity for a test interval

[Flow rate (Q) = 144 cubic feet per day; head (H) = 70 feet; test interval length (L) = 9 feet; core hole radius (r) = 0.15 feet; ln = natural logarithm, base e;  $K_h$  = horizontal hydraulic conductivity;  $K_v$  = vertical hydraulic conductivity;  $m = (K_h/K_v)^{1/2}$ ;  $K_h = \frac{Qln(mL/r)}{2\pi HL}$ ]

Conditions	K <sub>h</sub> /K <sub>v</sub>	K h (feet per day)
Isotropic	no lo vilvincialinim ada on	1.48 × 10
Anisotropic	3	$1.68 \times 10^{-1}$
Anisotropic	10	$1.92 \times 10^{-1}$
Anisotropic	20	$2.03 \times 10^{-1}$

Jacob and Lohman (1952) presented a curve-matching method for using the transient-flow period of a constant-head injection test to calculate hydraulic conductivity and **storage coefficient**. The method involves plotting the early injection rates as a function of time and matching the points to type curves. Attempts to use this method were of limited success because the type curves in the range of the field tests for this study are similar and have extended flat sections. This leads to uncertainty in selecting a match curve and can result in significant error in estimating storage coefficient.

Because of the curve-matching problems in the transient-analysis method, and because of the relatively consistent calculated hydraulic conductivities when analyzed with steady-state methods, the constant-head injection tests presented in this report were analyzed using equation 3 to calculate hydraulic conductivity. The ratios of horizontal to vertical hydraulic conductivities were selected on the basis of Schubert's (1980) analysis, as follows:

- (1) sandstone = 3,
- (2) siltstone = 10,
- (3) shale = 10, and
- (4) coal = 10.

Sandstone in the study area was assigned a value of 3 because it is generally massively bedded and well-cemented. Coal seams, siltstone, and shale were each assigned a value of 10 because they are laminated and contain numerous bedding planes. Numerous bedding planes, cleat, and underclays probably cause predominantly horizontal ground-water flow within coal seams. Radius (r) was assumed to equal the radius of the open core hole and (L) was the 9-ft distance between the two packers.

After calculation of the horizontal hydraulic conductivity, the transmissivity of the 9-ft-test interval was calculated, as follows:

$$T = K_b \times L,\tag{5}$$

where

 $T = transmissivity (L^2/T)$ .

Applying equation 5 to equation 3 gives

$$T = \frac{Q}{2\pi H} \ln(mL/r). \tag{6}$$

Steady-state methods allow the calculation of hydraulic conductivity and, subsequently, transmissivity, but give no estimate of storage coefficient, because storage is only a factor when a system is under transient conditions.

# Standard Slug Test

The standard slug-test method for estimating the transmissivity of an aquifer was introduced by Ferris and Knowles (1954) and was modified by Cooper and others (1967). The method is strictly applicable to wells that fully penetrate confined aquifers with uniform and constant heads (Lohman, 1979). In partially penetrating wells, the transmissivity values obtained apply only to the part of the aquifer open to the well (Lohman, 1979, p. 27). In a standard slug test, a known volume of water is instantaneously removed from or added to a well, and the subsequent recovery is monitored. Another technique is to lower a sandfilled pipe below the water level instantaneously.

This method is based on solution of the equation

$$H/H_{\circ} = F(\beta, \alpha),$$
 (7)

where

H = the head at any time during recovery (L),

 $H_0$  = initial instantaneous head change upon pressurization (L),

F = a function,

$$\beta = Tt/r_c^2, \tag{8}$$

 $\alpha = r^2 S/r^2$ , r = radius of standpipe or hose (L),  $r^C = effective radius of the test interval (L),$ (9)

S = storage coefficient, dimensionless, and

t = time(T).

In conducting a standard slug test, a test interval was isolated by the pneumatic packers and was allowed to equilibrate to its potentiometric head. After equilibration, a known volume of water was injected into or withdrawn from the test interval and the subsequent response was monitored by down-hole pressure transducers (fig. 3B). The ratio of the head change in the test interval at any time during recovery to the initial instantaneous head change upon pressurization of the test interval was plotted on semi-logarithmic paper. The resulting curve was then matched with the most similar curve from a series of type curves (fig. 4). The baselines for both the data curve and the type curves must be coincident. A

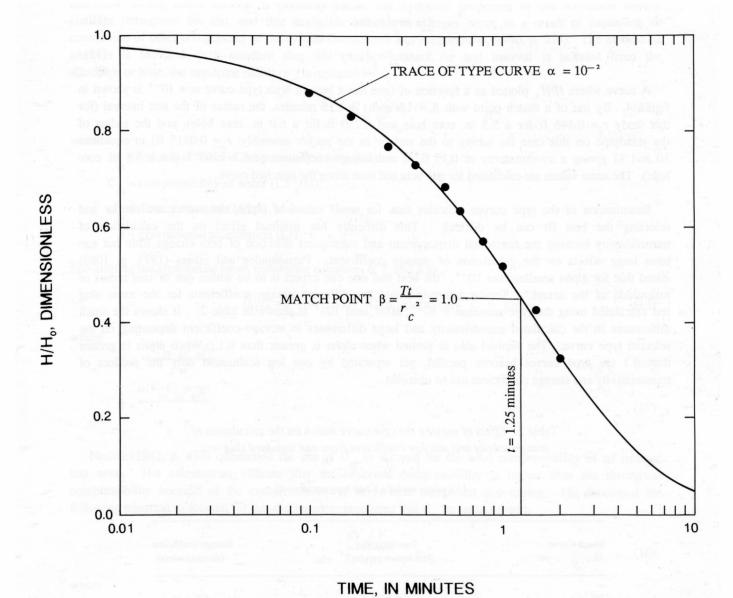


Figure 4.--Type-curve match of an aquifier response from a standard slug test.

match or interpolated fit was made by sliding the data curve horizontally. Any point along the matched curve was then selected as a match point. The beta  $(\beta)$  and time (t) values corresponding to that match point and the alpha  $(\alpha)$  from the matched type curve were used to solve for transmissivity and storage coefficient. Equations 8 and 9 are rearranged to solve for transmissivity and storage coefficient:

$$T = \beta r_C^2 / t, \text{ and}$$
 (10)

$$S = \alpha r_C^2 / r_S^2. \tag{11}$$

A curve where  $H/H_0$  plotted as a function of time has a best fit with type curve  $\alpha=10^{-2}$  is shown in figure 4. By use of a match point with  $\beta=1.0$  and t=1.25 minutes, the radius of the test interval (for this study r=0.146 ft for a 3.5 in. core hole and 0.250 ft for a 6.0 in. core hole), and the radius of the standpipe (in this case the tubing to the surface in the packer assembly; r=0.0115 ft) in equations 10 and 11 giving a transmissivity of 0.15 ft²/d and storage coefficient of  $6.2 \times 10^{-5}$  (for a 3.5 in. core hole). The same values are calculated for any beta and time along the matched curve.

Examination of the type curves indicates that, for small values of alpha, the curves are similar and selecting the best fit can be difficult. This difficulty has minimal effect on the calculation of transmissivity because the horizontal displacement and subsequent selection of beta change little but can have large effects on the calculation of storage coefficient. Papadopulos and others (1973, p. 1089) stated that for alpha smaller than  $10^{-5}$ , "the best that one can expect is to be within one or two orders of magnitude of the actual." Similar transmissivities but different storage coefficients for the same slug test calculated using the type curves  $\alpha = 10^{-1}$ ,  $10^{-2}$ , and  $10^{-3}$  is shown in table 2. It shows the small differences in the calculated transmissivity and large differences in storage coefficient depending on the selected type curve. The method also is limited when alpha is greater than 0.1. When alpha is greater than 0.1 the type curves become parallel, yet separated by one log scale, and only the product of transmissivity and storage coefficient can be obtained.

Table 2.—Effect of varying the type-curve match on the calculation of transmissivity and storage coefficient from one standard slug test

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Match Curve α	Transmissivity (feet square per day)	Storage coefficient (dimensionless)
10-1	$0.6 \times 10^{-1}$	$6.2 \times 10^{-4}$
10 <sup>-1</sup> 10 <sup>-2</sup>	$1.5 \times 10^{-1}$	$6.2 \times 10^{-5}$
10-3	$2.4 \times 10^{-1}$	$6.2 \times 10^{-6}$

# Modified Slug Test

The modified slug test (Bredehoeft and Papadopulos, 1980) is used to measure the hydraulic properties of low permeability formations. This method is a variation of the standard slug test first described by Ferris and Knowles (1954) and modified by Cooper and others (1967). The standard slug test uses an instantaneous removal or addition of water through the stand pipe or hose that connects the test interval

to the surface followed by monitoring of the test-interval response. In a modified slug test, the test interval is pressurized with, and then isolated from, water in the standpipe or hose by opening and closing a downhole valve located in the test interval. The pressure compresses the water in the test interval. The pressure response of the test interval as a result of water uptake is then measured. Assumptions are that flow in the tested interval is primarily radial, the hydraulic properties of the formation remain constant throughout the test, and that negligible volumetric changes occur as a result of expansion or contraction of other components of the system (Bredehoeft and Papadopulos, 1980, p. 234). The method of analysis is identical to a standard slug test except, because the test interval is isolated from the standpipe or hose, the standpipe radius  $(r_{\rm o})$  is replaced by

$$r_c = (V_{\omega} C_{\omega} \rho_{\omega} g/\pi)^{1/2} , \qquad (12)$$

where

 $V_{\alpha}$  = volume of water in the pressurized zone (L<sup>3</sup>),

 $C_{0}$  = compressibility of water (LT<sup>2</sup>/M),

 $\rho_{\omega}$  = density of water (M/L<sup>3</sup>), and

g = gravitational acceleration (L/T<sup>2</sup>).

Substituting the appropriate terms transforms equations 6, 7, and 8 to

$$H/H_{o} = F\left[(\pi r_{s}^{2} S)/(V_{\omega}^{C} \rho_{\omega} \rho_{\omega}^{g}), (\pi T t)/(V_{\omega}^{C} \rho_{\omega}^{g} \rho_{\omega}^{g})\right], \tag{13}$$

where

$$T = \frac{\beta(V_{\omega} C_{\omega} \rho_{\omega} g)}{t \pi}, \text{ and}$$
 (14)

$$S = \frac{\alpha(V_{\omega} C_{\omega} \rho_{\omega} g)}{r_{s} \pi}.$$
(15)

Neuzil (1982, p. 439) questioned the use of C to account for the total compressibility of an isolated test zone. His calculations indicate that the observed compressibility is higher than the theoretical compressibility because of the compressibility of down-hole equipment and tubing. He developed the following equation to account for this discrepancy, proposing that C be replaced with

$$C_{obs} = \frac{dV_{\omega}/V_{\omega}}{dp},\tag{16}$$

where

 $C_{obs}$  = compressibility in the shut-in well (LT  $^2/M$ ),

 $V_{\omega}$  = volume of water in the pressurized zone (L<sup>3</sup>),

 $dV_{\omega}$  = volume of water added under pressure (L<sup>3</sup>), and

dp = increase in pressure because of added water (M/LT<sup>2</sup>).

Cobs can be determined by conducting the test below the water level in a cased section of the well.

Analysis of a modified slug test for alpha less than 0.1 is similar to that of a standard slug test. The data are plotted as  $H/H_0$  as a function of time. The plot is matched with the same type curves as in Cooper and others (1967, p. 267) and discussed in Bredehoeft and Papadopulos (1980, p. 236). The alpha value from the type curve and beta from the selected match point are then used in equations 14 and 15 to calculate the transmissivity and storage coefficient.

When alpha is greater than 0.1, the modified slug test has the same limitations as the standard slug test. Bredehoeft and Papadopulos (1980, p. 236) present a method for calculating the product of alpha and beta, and the product of the transmissivity and storage coefficient, but caution is urged in the calculation of the separate values.

The pneumatic straddle-packer assembly was designed to allow constant-head injection, standard slug, and modified slug testing of 9-ft-long intervals in small diameter core holes. During this study, several transmissivity values were derived from standard slug tests and several values were derived from modified slug tests. These results are given in table 3 (at the end of report). Because constant-head injection tests can be conducted rapidly in either saturated or unsaturated intervals, and because the focus for this study was towards water availability, the constant-head injection test was the predominant method used. The results of the constant-head injection method constituted a larger and more uniformly derived set of values than the other results. Thus, subsequent analyses from the constant-head results are presented in the remainder of this report.

# HYDRAULIC CHARACTERISTICS OF AQUIFERS

Geophysical logging, hydraulic testing, and examination of core samples indicate that permeability in the clastic rocks is predominantly secondary--the result of fracturing and bedding-plane separations. Well-cemented sandstone is common in the area and the presence of iron-stained fractures in the sandstone and along some bedding planes in the siltstone indicates the importance of secondary permeability to the movement of ground water. Cleats, bedding-plane separations, and fractures are visible in most roadcuts and highwalls throughout the area. The pervasiveness and number of cleats, bedding-plane separations, and fractures observed are variable and may account for transmissivity differences of three or four orders of magnitude in coal seams of approximately equal thickness and at approximately equal depth. Coal-seam thickness ranged from less than 1 ft to a maximum of 5.5 ft.

#### **Transmissivity**

Transmissivities associated with coal seams usually were one to two orders of magnitude greater than those of other rock types or lithologic contacts (fig. 5). Transmissivity was calculated from 114 injection tests conducted on coal seams. Values ranged from less than 0.001 ft²/d to approximately 60 ft²/d and the median was 0.15 ft²/d. The minimum value corresponds to the minimum measuring limit of the testing equipment and is a reflection of time constraints established to allow the retrieval of data on as many test intervals as possible. The values were calculated with the length of the test interval equal to 9 ft, not the thickness of the coal seam, which was always less. The difference between using the 9-ft length of the packer spacing over say 1 ft for the thickness of a coal seam is small for the injection test relative to the range in transmissivity. Because the length is only present as a logarithmic function in the calculation (see eq. 6), using 1 ft would reduce the calculated transmissivity by only a factor of approximately 2.5. Injection testing of zones immediately adjacent to coal seams usually produced lower values of transmissivity than those obtained when the coal seams were within the test interval. This indicates that most ground water flows through permeable zones associated with coal seams. Although the calculated transmissivities exhibit variations of three to four orders of magnitude at any given depth,

Figure 5.--Transmissivity of test intervals for different rock types at various depth ranges below land surface in coal-exploration core holes.

transmissivities for 50 percent of the tests were within less than two orders of magnitude. Transmissivity of the coal seams generally decreases with increasing depth, with a small number of test intervals exhibiting low transmissivities ( $<0.001 \text{ ft}^2/d$ ) at shallow depths. Only 4 tests out of 73 on coal seams indicated low transmissivities at depths from 0 to 300 ft below land surface.

Transmissivity values calculated from the 94 injection tests conducted on sandstone ranged from less than  $0.001~\rm ft^2/d$  to greater than  $160~\rm ft^2/d$  but had a median at or below the minimum measuring limit  $(0.001~\rm ft^2/d)$  (fig. 5). The data exhibit a large degree of scatter; however, high transmissivity ( $\geq 100~\rm ft^2/d$ ) only occurred in test intervals at shallow depths (0 to 100 ft below land surface). Unlike the transmissivity data for the coal seams, there are low transmissivities at shallow depths. Low transmissivities are present at all depths tested, and 71 test intervals had transmissivities of less than 0.001 ft²/d. At depths greater than 200 ft, transmissivity was greater than 0.001 ft²/d in only 5 of the 55 intervals tested.

Transmissivity values calculated from the 91 injection tests conducted on siltstone and shale ranged from less than  $0.001 \text{ ft}^2/\text{d}$  to greater than 170 ft<sup>2</sup>/d but had a median at or below the minimum measuring limit (0.001 ft<sup>2</sup>/d) (fig. 5). Low transmissivities are present at all depths tested, and transmissivities less than 0.001 ft<sup>2</sup>/d were calculated for 76 of the 91 intervals tested. At depths greater than 100 ft, transmissivity was greater than 0.001 ft<sup>2</sup>/d in only 10 of the 76 intervals tested.

Transmissivity values calculated from the 50 injection tests conducted on lithologic contacts ranged from less than  $0.001 \text{ ft}^2/\text{d}$  to greater than  $20 \text{ ft}^2/\text{d}$  but had a median at or below the minimum measuring limit (fig. 5). Transmissivities less than  $0.001 \text{ ft}^2/\text{d}$  were calculated for 36 of the 50 test intervals. At depths greater than 100 ft, transmissivity exceeded  $0.1 \text{ ft}^2/\text{d}$  in only 5 of the 44 intervals tested.

#### **Potentiometric Heads**

A transducer calibration of equivalent feet of head per volt was computed as the packer assembly was lowered to the first test interval at the bottom of each core hole. Prior to inflation, transducer readings (voltages) for the upper, middle (test interval), and lower transducers were recorded. These readings are a function of the pressure exerted by the column of water above the transducers. Packer inflation creates an initial surge of pressure in the test interval as water isolated between the packers is compressed. After packer inflation, but before hydraulic testing, the potentiometric head in the test interval was allowed to equilibrate. Equilibration at a transducer reading lower than the reading recorded prior to inflation indicated that the potentiometric head for the test interval was lower than the pressure head exerted by the column of water in the open core hole. Equilibration at a transducer reading higher than the reading recorded prior to inflation indicated that the potentiometric head for the test interval was higher than the pressure head exerted by the column of water in the open core hole. The transducer reading prior to inflation was subtracted from the equilibrated reading after inflation, and this value was multiplied by the transducer calibration. The resulting value (with sign) was added to the altitude of the water level in the core hole to derive the potentiometric head of the test interval. Values for all the test intervals in a core hole provided a vertical profile of potentiometric heads that was referenced to the composite water level in the open core hole.

Potentiometric-head measurements were generally obtained for only permeable test intervals. In tight test intervals the transducer readings indicated the inflation surge and usually stayed high. Because of time constraints and the goal of acquiring data on as many test intervals as possible, the packers were deflated after a few minutes and moved to a new test interval. Thus, some permeable test intervals with high potentiometric heads may have been overlooked; however, most of these test intervals probably were tight.

A total of 52 coal-exploration core holes were visited during this investigation. Hydraulic testing was conducted in 43 core holes, and potentiometric-head measurements were made in 34. Representative plots of potentiometric head as a function of depth of the tested intervals for core holes located on hilltops, on hillslopes, and in valleys are shown in figures 6, 7, and 8, respectively. The water level in each core hole is indicated along with the predominant lithology present in each interval tested in the core hole. The diagonal line in each graph represents the line of zero pressure head. All points that plot to the right of this line represent artesian test intervals and all points that plot on this line represent test intervals with heads that are equal to their altitude.

Core hole water levels do not necessarily correspond to water tables. In an open core hole, a water level is a composite water level that represents the combined effect of the heads in each water-bearing interval intersected by the core hole. In core holes where the potentiometric gradients are downward, the water table should be higher than the core hole water level; thus, water will drain into the core hole-cascading or dripping. In addition, if transmissivity is low, the water table could be nearly drained and water leaking in can run down the core hole wall and not be audible. Cascading water was heard in core holes 15 and 16, both of which were located on hillslopes.

The potentiometric heads of test intervals in hilltop core holes generally were less than the core hole water levels (fig. 6). The depth to water for the eight core holes on hilltops ranged from 100 to 376 ft below land surface with a mean depth of 221 ft. In addition, two core holes of 150 and 200 ft depth were dry. Potentiometric heads only were measured for a few test intervals in most hilltop core holes, because a large percentage of the core holes' depth was through unsaturated rock. The heads that were measured indicate a decrease in potentiometric head with increasing depth. A downward gradient also was indicated by the potentiometric-head data for coal seams in core hole 13; however, this hole was different from the other hilltop holes in that many of the test intervals indicate water-table conditions. The potentiometric heads of these coal seams coupled with the presence of lower transmissivity intervals between them indicate that some of the coal seams could be partially saturated, confined, or semiconfined and water is probably perched in these coal seams. The steep hydraulic gradient probably indicates a partially unsaturated drain horizon at depth.

The potentiometric heads of test intervals in hillslope core holes generally were less than the core hole water levels (fig. 7). The depth to water for the 30 core holes on hillslopes ranged from 1 to 447 ft below land surface with a mean depth of 109 ft. The potentiometric gradient generally was downward. Exceptions to the downward gradient were observed in core holes 10, 28, and 36. Core hole 10 exhibited a split gradient—heads in a lithologic contact and a coal seam test interval approximately 300 ft deep were higher than heads in adjacent test intervals. In addition, potentiometric head in a sandstone approximately 500 ft deep was 80 to 100 ft higher than heads in coal seams above and below it. Core hole 28 also exhibited a split gradient—head in a shale test interval approximately 200 ft deep was higher than that in the sandstone and coal-seam test intervals above and below it, respectively. Finally, core hole 36, which intersected a coal seam at a depth of approximately 460 ft in which a head was substantially higher than those of the intervals tested above and below it. These split gradients were probably the result of a rapid drop in the core hole water level, the effects of drilling, or the effect of other nearby uncased core holes that connected test intervals at depth with high head test intervals above. In either instance, some potentiometric heads in these test intervals probably had not equilibrated.

The potentiometric heads of test intervals in valley core holes generally were similar to or less than the core hole water levels (fig. 8). The depth to water for the seven core holes in valleys ranged from 10 to 76 ft below land surface with a mean depth of 39 ft. The potentiometric gradient generally was downward, but several test intervals at shallow depths usually exhibited equivalent heads that were often equal to the water level in the core hole.

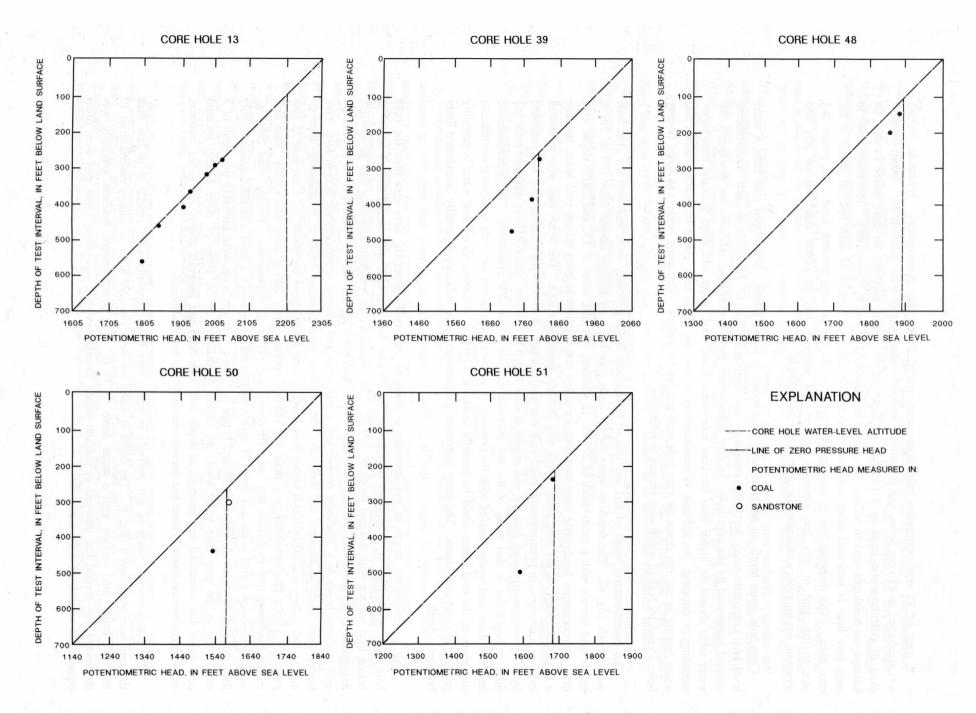


Figure 6.--Potentiometric head as a function of depth below land surface for test intervals in hilltop core holes 13, 39, 48, 50, and 51.

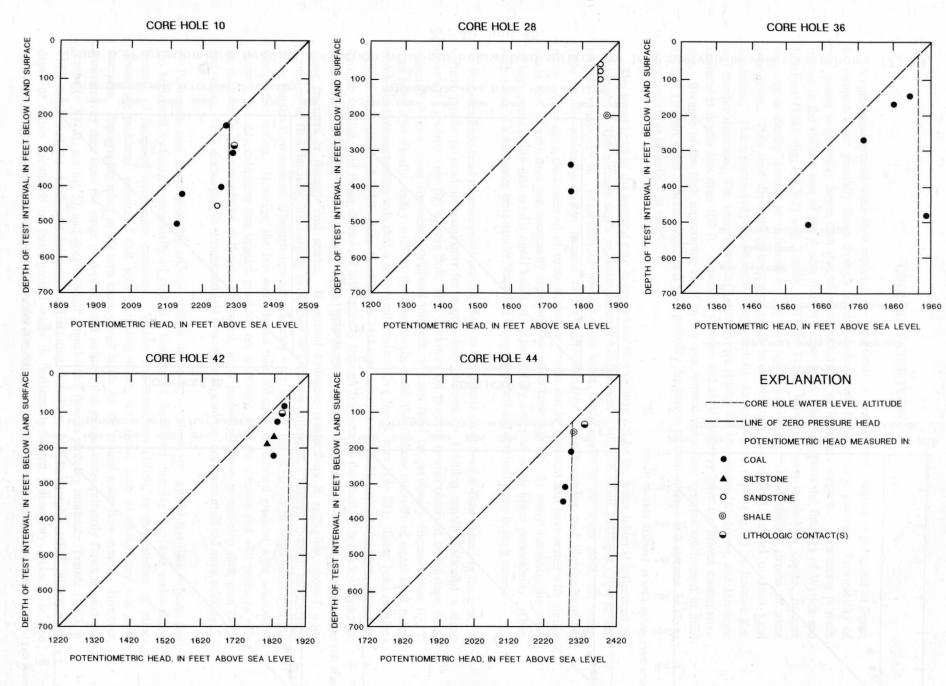


Figure 7.--Potentiometric head as a function of depth below land surface for test intervals in hillslope core holes 10, 28, 36, 42, and 44.

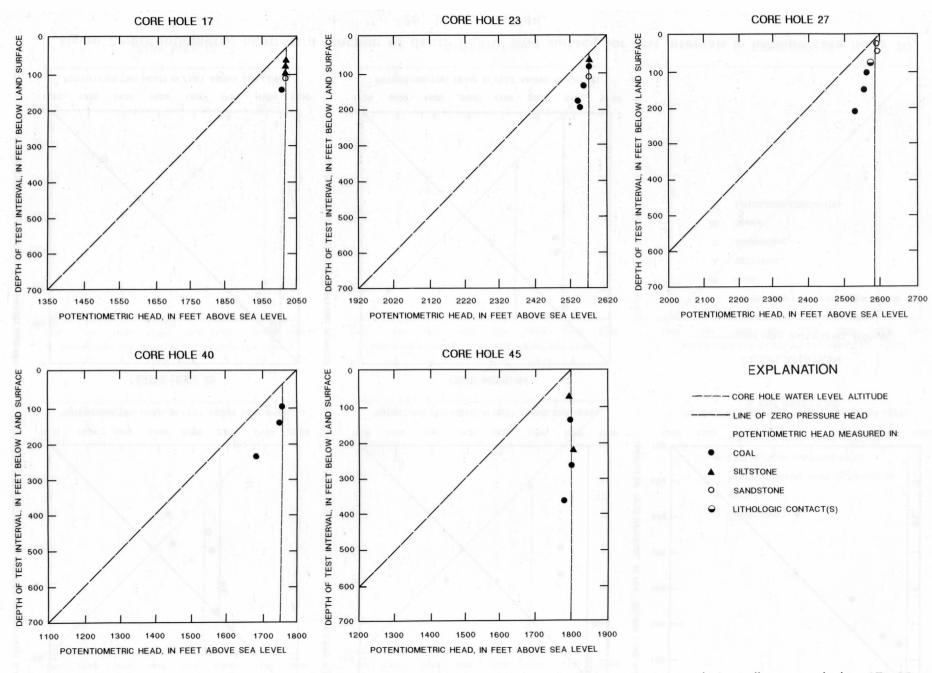


Figure 8.--Potentiometric head as a function of depth below land surface for test intervals in valley core holes 17, 23, 27, 40, and 45.

#### **GROUND-WATER FLOW**

A conceptual ground-water-flow model of the coal fields of southwestern Virginia is presented in figure 9. Ground water generally flows through fractures, cleats, and bedding-plane partings. Permeability of coal seams is generally larger than that of other rock types or lithologic contacts. Fracturing is more intense in the shallow part of the system than in deeper parts, which supports the findings of Wyrick and Borchers (1981, fig. 5.1.5-2) and Trainer (1983, p. 112). However, even at shallow depths, fracture intensity is areally diverse as indicated by the low transmissivity intervals at shallow depths in some core holes. This areal diversity in fracturing could be a reflection of structural features or other local conditions. The transmissivity of all rock types generally decreases with depth (fig. 5) as fracture size and number decrease. The transmissivities generally are similar for coal seams, sandstone, and lithologic contacts at depths less than 100 ft. However, siltstone and shale generally have the lowest transmissivities. Because of the high topographic relief in the area, ground-water-flow systems are limited in areal extent. Ground water beneath ridges and hills probably discharges to local springs and streams or flows downgradient as underflow in valleys.

The water level in the uncased core holes (which may or may not be the water table) is influenced by topography. The average depth to water beneath hilltops was 221 ft; beneath hillslopes, 109 ft; and beneath valleys, 39 ft. Regardless of whether these water levels equate to the water table, the water-table aquifer generally is thin because of the interbedding of low-permeability and high-permeability rocks. Although a thick interval of strata at shallow depths can be saturated and have zones with similar heads, the interval does not necessarily represent one water-table aquifer. In many instances, the zones of high permeability that exhibit equal heads are separated by zones of much lower permeability. Thus, such a zone is a thin water-table aquifer, underlain by semiconfined and confined water-bearing zones.

Potentiometric-head measurements provide clues to the general ground-water-flow system in the area. A vertical profile of head measurements for a core hole situated on a hilltop usually indicated a sharp downward gradient (see fig. 6, core hole 39). A downward gradient is also observed in hillslope wells, although shallow zones commonly exhibited intervals of equal head (as previously discussed; see fig. 7, core hole 28). Finally, valley wells in the area usually exhibited shallow intervals of equal head below which head measurements indicated a downward gradient (see fig. 8, core hole 23). These head relations indicate that the high-relief areas function as recharge areas; water infiltrates the surface, percolates into the regolith, and flows downward and laterally through fractures in the shallow bedrock. Hydraulic conductivity decreases with increasing depth, and ground water flows primarily in the lateral direction along fractures or through coal seams. If vertical hydraulic conductivity is negligible, ground water continues to flow laterally, discharging as springs or seeps on hillslopes. Valleys function as discharge areas for the flow system, although upward gradients were usually not observed in wells located in this topographic setting. However, the few wells tested that indicated an upward gradient were adjacent to streams, possibly indicating that upward gradients are associated with the streams and will probably only be detected in close proximity to them. In general, water probably follows a stair-step flow path (Kipp and others, 1983), discharging to streams and (or) flowing downward into coal seams and old mine workings.

Permeable coal seams probably underlie valleys in the region; however, aquifer-test data indicate that the horizontal hydraulic conductivity of coal is a function of depth and probably decreases under ridges because of increased overburden pressures. Wahler and Associates (1979), in their studies of mine-dewatering problems, concluded that with increasing depth, soft rocks, such as shale, may seal deep fractures. Topographic relief in the area creates high heads for the ground-water-flow system. However, transmissivity data from the range of depths tested indicate that ground water primarily flows at moderate depths (< 300 ft, see fig. 5), and deep regional ground-water flow is probably minimal. Trainer (1983, p. 112) stated that the depth and intensity of fracturing, lithology, and topographic relief influence the depth of active circulation of fresh ground water in horizontally-bedded sedimentary rocks. He also concluded that, in this type of setting, ground-water circulation is typically restricted to modest depths.

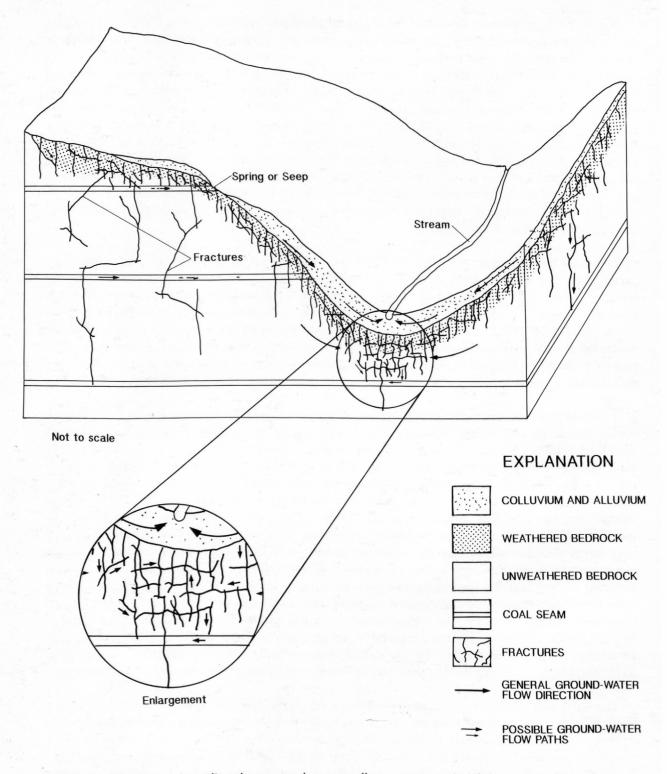


Figure 9.--Conceptualized ground-water-flow system in the coal fields of southwestern Virginia.

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Borehole geophysical logging, water-quality sampling, and hydraulic testing with a pneumatic straddle-packer assembly were used in coal-exploration core holes to evaluate the aquifers in the coal fields of southwestern Virginia. Potentiometric head relations in the core holes were more complex than originally thought. Flow between test intervals in the core holes made collection of samples representative of water quality in the tested intervals not feasible. In addition, time constraints established to allow the retrieval of data on as many test intervals as possible made constant-head injection testing the predominant method of analysis used. Standard and modified slug-test methods are applicable to ground-water studies in terranes similar to the study area, particularly when resolution is needed for low values of transmissivity and (or) hydraulic conductivity. For such studies, the modified slug test, which is designed for tight formations, is a valid aquifer-test method.

Results from straddle-packer testing of 9-ft-long intervals in the predominantly clastic rocks of the coal fields indicate that transmissivity decreases with depth. Transmissivity values calculated from constant-head injection testing ranged from less than 0.001 to 60 ft<sup>2</sup>/d in coal seams, from less than 0.001 to greater than 160 ft<sup>2</sup>/d in sandstone, from less than 0.001 to greater than 170 ft<sup>2</sup>/d in siltstone and shale, and from less than 0.001 to greater than 20 ft<sup>2</sup>/d at lithologic contacts. Coal seams had a median transmissivity of 0.15 ft<sup>2</sup>/d, whereas other rock types and lithologic contacts had median transmissivities less than or equal to 0.001 ft<sup>2</sup>/d. All rock types tested usually were permeable to a depth of approximately 100 ft; however, at depths greater than 200 ft only coal seams consistently had measurable permeability (transmissivity greater than 0.001 ft<sup>2</sup>/d). Injection testing of intervals immediately adjacent to coal seams usually indicated lower transmissivity than that obtained when the coal seams were isolated within the test interval, indicating that most lateral ground-water flow is associated with the coal seams. Potentiometric-head measurements for these coal seams coupled with the presence of lowtransmissivity intervals between the seams indicate that some of the coal seams could be partly saturated, confined, or semiconfined, and, in some instances, water could be perched above these coal seams.

The mean depth to standing water below land surface was 221 ft in core holes located on hilltops, 109 ft in core holes located on hillslopes, and 39 ft in core holes located in valleys. Potentiometrichead measurements indicate downward flow on hillstops, lateral and downward flow on hillstopes, and upward. lateral, and downward flow in valleys. Because of the high topographic relief (600 - 1,000 ft) in the area, ground-water-flow systems are of small areal extent. Head relations indicate that high topographic areas function as recharge areas; water infiltrates through the surface, percolates into the regolith, and moves downward and laterally through the fractures in the shallow bedrock. Permeability decreases with increasing depth, and most water may move laterally along fractures or bedding planes, or through coal seams until encountering more permeable rock through which to move downward. If more permeable rocks are not encountered, water continues to move laterally, discharging as a spring or seep on the hillslope. Where vertical permeability is appreciable, water follows a stair-step path through the regolith, fractures and bedding planes, and coal seams, discharging to streams and (or) recharging permeable coal seams at depth. Although permeable coal seams may underlie valleys in the region, data from this study indicate that the permeability of coal is a function of depth and may decrease under adjacent hills because of increased overburden pressures. Therefore, ground water beneath valleys that does not discharge to streams probably flows downgradient as underflow beneath the streams.

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## GLOSSARY

[Unless otherwise noted, definitions were obtained from Bates and Jackson, 1987]

- Anisotropy.—The condition of having different properties in different directions, as in geologic strata that transmit sound waves with different velocities in the vertical and horizontal directions.
- Aquifer.—A body of rock that is sufficiently permeable to conduct ground water and to yield economically significant quantities of water to wells and springs.
- Aquifer test.—A test involving the withdrawal of measured quantities of water from, or addition of water to, a well and the measurement of resulting changes in hydraulic head in the aquifer both during and after the period of discharge or addition.
- Bedding plane.—A planar or nearly planar bedding surface that visibly separates each successive layer of stratified rock (of the same or different lithology) from the preceding or following layer; a plane of deposition.
- Cleat.-In a coal seam, a joint or system of joints along which coal fractures.
- Conformable.—Term applied to a later formation having bedding planes that are parallel with those of an earlier formation and showing an arrangement in which disturbance or erosion did not occur at the locality during deposition.
- Dip.—The angle that a structural surface, (for example, a bedding or fault plane) makes with the horizontal, measured perpendicular to the strike of the structure and in the vertical plane.
- Fault.—A fracture or a zone of fractures along which there has been displacement of the sides relative to one another parallel to the fracture.
- Fold.—A curve or bend of a planar structure such as rock strata, bedding planes, foliation, or cleavage.
- Formation.—A body of rock identified by lithic characteristics and stratigraphic position; it is prevailingly but not necessarily tabular, and is mappable at the Earth's surface or traceable in the subsurface.
- Hydraulic conductivity.—The capacity of a rock to transmit water. It is expressed as the volume of water at the existing kinematic viscosity that will move in unit time under a unit hydraulic gradient through a unit area measured at right angles to the direction of flow (Heath, 1983, p. 12).
- **Hydraulic gradient.**—In an aquifer, the rate of change of total head per unit of distance of flow at a given point and in a given direction.
- Joint.-A surface of fracture or parting in a rock without displacement.
- **Permeability.**—The property or capacity of a porous rock, sediment, or soil for transmitting a fluid; it is a measure of the relative ease of fluid flow under unequal pressure.
- Potentiometric head.—The sum of the elevation head plus the pressure head, also termed "total head" and defined by the level to which water will rise in a well.

Quartzarenite.-A sandstone that is composed primarily of quartz.

Rugosity.-The irregularity or roughness of the wall of a borehole (Keys, 1988, p. 298).

**Storage coefficient.**—The volume of water released from storage in a unit prism of an aquifer when the head is lowered a unit distance (Heath, 1983, p. 28).

**Transmissivity.**—The rate at which water of the prevailing kinematic viscosity is transmitted through a unit width of the aquifer under a unit hydraulic gradient.

Water table.—That surface of a body of unconfined ground water at which the pressure is equal to that of the atmosphere.

Table 3.-Lithologic descriptions, potentiometric heads, and transmissivities for test intervals in coal-exploration core holes in the coal fields of southwestern Virginia

		Altitude of		Altitude of	Depth to top of		Potentiometric		ansmissivity square per day	y)
Core hole number	USGS local number	land surface (feet above sea level)	Topographic setting	standing water (feet above sea level)	test interval (feet below land surface)	Formation name or lithologic description	head (feet above sea level)	Constant-head injection test	Modified slug test	Standard slug test
10	9D19	2,509	S	2,289	237	Clintwood coal	2,276		0.0006	
10	,01,	2,507		2,207	270	Shale		< 0.001		
					297	Sandstone-siltstone contact	2,297		.0001	
					315	Blair coal	2,294		.005	
					378	Lyons coal		<.001		
					407	Boney coal	2,263			
					427	Dorchester coal	2,153			
					460	Gladeville Sandstone	2,251		.00007	
					496	Siltstone with sandstone		<.001		
					510	Norton coal	2,138			
11	14F91	1,784	S	1,702	85	Kennedy coal		62	1	
ij.					120	McClure Sandstone Member of the Norton Formation		<.001		
					146	Sandstone-siltstone contact		<.001		
					165	Shale		<.001		
					220	Raven 2 coal	1,627		.0005	
					270	Siltstone	1,600			
					300	Raven 1 coal	1,534		.0005	
					326	Clay		<.001		
					390	Siltstone		<.001		
					415	Jawbone Rider coal	1,465		.0007	
					435	Sandstone		<.001		
					458	Jawbone coal	1,406		.0005	
					505	Council Sandstone		<.001		
					540	Siltstone-sandstone contact		<.001		
					565	Lee coal	1,457		.00006	
					610	Siltstone		<.001		

Table 3.-Lithologic descriptions, potentiometric heads, and transmissivities for test intervals in coal-exploration core holes in the coal fields of southwestern Virginia-Continued

		Altitude of		Altitude of	Depth to top of		Potentiometric	Transmissivity (feet square per day)		
Core hole number	USGS local number	land surface (feet above sea level)	Topographic setting	standing water (feet above sea level)	test interval (feet below land surface)	Formation name or lithologic description	head (feet above sea level)	Constant-head injection test	Modified slug test	Standard slug test
12	10E10	2,139	S	1,963	180	Blair coal	1,963			
12	TOLIO	2,137		1,705	200	Sandstone-siltstone contact		< 0.001		
					215	Lyons coal	1,915	.24		
					230	Sandstone		<.001		
					255	Sandstone with siltstone, coal	1,922	<1		
					270	Sandstone		<.001		
					285	Dorchester coal	1,890	1	0.003	
					300	Sandstone with siltstone		<.001		
					315	Sandstone with siltstone		<.001		
					340	Siltstone	1,819		.0009	
13	10E14	2,305	Н	2,205	105	Sandstone		>63		
					170	Siltstone		<.001		
		11			235	Siltstone		<.001		
					280	Clintwood marker coal	2,023	<.01		
					295	Clintwood coal	2,003	<.03		
					320	Lower Clintwood coal	1,980	.25		
					335	Sandstone-siltstone-sandstone		<.001		
					350	Siltstone-sandstone contact		<.001		
					368	Blair coal	1,935	.05		
					398	Sandstone		<.001		
					412	Lyons coal	1,915	.07		
					431	Sandstone		<.001		
					463	Dorchester coal	1,847		.002	
					485	Siltstone		<.001		
					505	Siltstone		<.001		
					563	Norton coal	1,799		.0002	

Table 3.-Lithologic descriptions, potentiometric heads, and transmissivities for test intervals in coal-exploration core holes in the coal fields of southwestern Virginia-Continued

		Altitude of		Altitude of	Depth to top of	1	Potentiometric		ansmissivity square per day	y)
Core hole number	USGS local number	land surface (feet above sea level)	Topographic setting	standing water (feet above sea level)	test interval (feet below land surface)	Formation name or lithologic description	head (feet above sea level)	Constant-head injection test	Modified slug test	Standard slug test
	100.0	2000	TT	1766	200	Clintwood 2 coal		0.26		
14	10F 3	2,066	Н	1,766	290					
					300	Clintwood 1 coal		.2		
					335	Sandstone		<.001		
					380	Lyons coal		<.001		
					410	Siltstone		<.001		
					435	Dorchester coal	1,661	.08		
					450	Siltstone		<.001		
					485	Sandstone		<.001		
					500	Norton coal		<.001		
					530	Siltstone		<.001		
					555	Sandstone		<.001		
15	8D 6	2,354	S	2,314	45	Sandstone	2,325	7.5		
					65	Taggart marker coal	2,319	<4.9		
					80	Clover Fork Sandstone Memi of the Wise Formation	ber	<.001		- 3
					90	Clover Fork Sandstone Members of the Wise Formation	ber 2,314	>96		
					105	Clover Fork Sandstone Members of the Wise Formation	ber	<.001		
					136	Clover Fork Sandstone Memi of the Wise Formation	ber	<.005		
					155	Siltstone		<.001		
					170	Wilson coal	2,264	1.8		
					185	Siltstone-sandstone-siltstone	2,264	<.003		
					198	Upper St. Charles coal	2,250	.9		

Table 3.-Lithologic descriptions, potentiometric heads, and transmissivities for test intervals in coal-exploration core holes in the coal fields of southwestern Virginia-Continued

		Altitude of		Abimdo of	Depth to top of		Potentiometric	Transmissivity (feet square per day)		
Core hole number	USGS local number	land surface (feet above sea level)	Topographic setting	Altitude of standing water (feet above sea level)	test interval (feet below land surface)	Formation name or lithologic description	head (feet above sea level)	Constant-head injection test	Modified slug test	Standard slug test
16	10D20	2,076	s	2,018	55	Shale		>172		
					75	Kennedy coal	2,018	45		
					123	Aily coal	2,014	.15		
					160	Siltstone	2,016	1.1		
					205	Siltstone		<.006		
					245	Sandstone		<.001		
					272	Raven coal	2,004	.4		
					300	Siltstone		<.007		
17	10D21	2,050	V	2,015	70	Siltstone	2,015	6.2		
					92	Siltstone	2,015	<.001		
					103	Sandstone-shale contact	2,015	.06		
					117	Sandstone	2,015	10.3		
					148	Raven coal	2,005	.65		
		3.			172	Sandstone		<.001		
					191	Sandstone with shale		<.001		

Table 3.-Lithologic descriptions, potentiometric heads, and transmissivities for test intervals in coal-exploration core holes in the coal fields of southwestern Virginia-Continued

	USGS	Altitude of		Altitude of	Depth to top of		Potentiometric	Tr (feet	7)	
Core hole number	USGS local number	land surface (feet above sea level)	Topographic setting	standing water (feet above sea level)	test interval (feet below land surface)	Formation name or lithologic description	head (feet above sea level)	Constant-head injection test	Modified slug test	Standard slug test
21	14G 9	1,360	S	1,308	45	Siltstone, sandy		0.35		
					64	Raven coal split		<.001		
					95	Sandstone-siltstone contact	<u></u>	<.001		
					135	Siltstone		<.001		
					157	Jawbone coal		<.001		
					180	Council Sandstone		<.001		
1					217	Tiller coal		<.001		
					254	Siltstone with sandstone		<.001		
					280	Siltstone with sandstone		<.001		
					340	Siltstone with sandstone		<.001		
					360	Upper Seaboard coal		<.001		
					415	Sandstone with siltstone		<.001		
					440	Sandstone with siltstone		<.001		
					480	Sandstone		<.001		
					530	Sandstone		<.001		
					540	Seaboard coal		<.001	E	
					557	Siltstone with coal	1	<.001		
					580	Siltstone with coal		<.001		
22	8D 7	2,582	S	2,462	35	Shale		<.001		
					67	Low Splint A coal		.1		
					115	Sandstone		<.001		
					147	Low Splint C and D coal	2,455	4.5		
					180	Sandstone		<.001		
					202	Sandstone		<.001		

Table 3.-Lithologic descriptions, potentiometric heads, and transmissivities for test intervals in coal-exploration core holes in the coal fields of southwestern Virginia-Continued

	100	Altitude of		Altitude of	Depth to top of		Potentiometric		ansmissivity square per day	y)
Core hole number	USGS local number	land surface (feet above sea level)	Topographic setting	standing water (feet above sea level)	test interval (feet below land surface)	Formation name or lithologic description	head (feet above sea level)	Constant-head injection test	Modified slug test	Standard slug test
23	10D23	2,620	V	2,568	70	Siltstone with coal	2,568	0.84		
- 7					87	Blair coal	2,568	1.6		
					115	Sandstone	2,568	>85		
					140	Lyons coal	2,554	.46		
					155	Sandstone		<.001		
					184	Upper Dorchester coal	2,538	.9		
					200	Lower Dorchester coal	2,542	4.0		
24	10D22	2,580	S	2,562	53	Sandstone	2,562	1.4		
					80	Blair coal	2,543	2		
					100	Sandstone		<.001		
					135	Lyons coal	2,536	1.1		
					155	Siltstone		<.001		
					173	Upper Dorchester coal	2,514	.2		
					193	Lower Dorchester coal	2,513	.06		
26	10E11	2,010	V	1,934	24	Clintwood marker coal		2.3		
					55	Sandstone		1		
					89	Blair coal	1,934	.14		
					121	Lyons coal	1,932	.37		
					138	Sandstone-siltstone contact		<.001		
					165	Sandstone		<.001		
					183	Dorchester coal	1,908	.02		
					205	Siltstone		<.001		
					222	Siltstone		<.001		

Table 3.-Lithologic descriptions, potentiometric heads, and transmissivities for test intervals in coal-exploration core holes in the coal fields of southwestern Virginia-Continued

		Altitude of		Altitude of	Depth to top of		Potentiometric		ansmissivity square per day	7)
Core hole number	USGS local number	land surface (feet above sea level)	Topographic setting	standing water (feet above sea level)	test interval (feet below land surface)	Formation name or lithologic description	head (feet above sea level)	Constant-head injection test	Modified slug test	Standard slug test
27	10E12	2,600	V	2,585	25	Sandstone	2,585	0.2		
2.	10212	2,000			45	Sandstone with siltstone	2,588	.1		
					80	Siltstone-sandstone-siltstone	2,575	.2		
					106	Blair coal	2,560	.6		
					125	Sandstone		<.001		
					152	Lyons coal	2,552	.4		
					180	Sandstone		<.001		
					215	Dorchester coal	2,527	.3		
					245	Sandstone with siltstone		<.001		
					285	Sandstone		<.001		
28	8D 8	1,900	S	1,840	32	Sandstone		>118		
					60	Sandstone	1,840	>118		
					80	Sandstone	1,840	>168		
					107	Sandstone with coal	1,840	>101		
					140	Shale, sandy		.06		
					175	Shale with sandstone		<.001		
					205	Shale, sandy	1,865	<.001		
					245	Shale		<.001		
					285	Sandstone with shale		<.001		
					310	Shale, sandy		<.001		
					343	Clintwood coal	1,759	<.005		
					370	Sandstone with shale and coa		<.001		
					418	Blair marker coal	1,758	<.007		

Table 3.-Lithologic descriptions, potentiometric heads, and transmissivities for test intervals in coal-exploration core holes in the coal fields of southwestern Virginia-Continued

		Altitude of		Altitude of	Depth to top of		Potentiometric		ansmissivity square per day	y)
Core hole	USGS local number	land surface (feet above sea level)	Topographic setting	standing water (feet above sea level)	test interval (feet below land surface)	Formation name or lithologic description	head (feet above sea level)	Constant-head injection test	Modified slug test	Standard slug test
20	1.4500	2160		2.140	15	675		50		-
29	14F92	2,160	S	2,140	15	Siltstone	2.1.40	50		
					35	Splashdam coal	2,140	2.6		
					50	Siltstone		<.001		
					65	Sandstone	2.100	<.001		
					80	Upper Banner coal	2,132	.05		
					115	Siltstone-sandstone-siltstone		<.001		
					130	Siltstone		<.001		
					157	Lower Banner coal	2,110	.02		
					185	Siltstone		<.001		
					220	Big Fork coal	2,090	.01		
					270	Siltstone-sandstone-siltstone		<.001		
					286	Bearwallow coal		<.001		
					315	Sandstone with coal		<.001		
					335	Siltstone		<.001		
					373	Kennedy coal	2,020	.02		
32	13G15	1,920	S	1,557	153	Sandstone		.02		
					198	Lyons coal		.15		
					310	Sandstone with coal		.37		
					445	Siltstone		<.001		
					495	Hagy coal	1,542	.15		
					515	Sandstone		<.001		
					565	Siltstone		<.001		
					590	Splashdam 2 coal	1,498	.5		
					605	Sandstone		<.001		
					621	Splashdam 1 coal	1,479	<.05		

Table 3.-Lithologic descriptions, potentiometric heads, and transmissivities for test intervals in coal-exploration core holes in the coal fields of southwestern Virginia-Continued

		Altitude of		Altitude of	Depth to top of		Potentiometric		ansmissivity square per day	()
Core hole number	USGS local number	land surface (feet above sea level)	Topographic setting	standing water (feet above sea level)	test interval (feet below land surface)	Formation name or lithologic description	head (feet above sea level)	Constant-head injection test	Modified slug test	Standard slug test
33	16F 1	2,340	S	2,229	65	Sandstone with siltstone		<0.001		
33	101 1	2,5 10		2,227	130	Siltstone		<.001		
					168	Jawbone coal	2,243	.05		0.25
					195	Siltstone with coal	2,219	<.001		
					215	Tiller coal	2,197	.05		
					235	Sandstone		<.001		
35	15F25	2,327	S	2,305	264	Raven 1 coal	2,230	.46		.26
					300	Sandstone			0.005	
					335	Sandstone		<.001		
					400	Siltstone		<.001		
					447	Jawbone A and B coal	2,164	.01		
36	13G16	1,940	S	1,928	35	Sandstone		<.001		
					70	Sandstone		<.001		
					100	Siltstone-sandstone contact		<.001		
					129	Lyons 2 coal	1,901	.25		
					154	Lyons 1 coal	1,856	.2		
					169	Siltstone		<.001		
					234	Sandstone-siltstone-sandston	e	<.001		
					255	Norton coal	1,773	<.07		
					309	Sandstone with shale		<.001		
					341	Sandstone		<.001		
					399	Siltstone		<.001		
					464	Hagy 2 coal	1,950	<.001		
					489	Hagy coal	1,621	.15		
					529	Siltstone-sandstone contact		<.001		
					564	Siltstone		<.001		

Table 3.-Lithologic descriptions, potentiometric heads, and transmissivities for test intervals in coal-exploration core holes in the coal fields of southwestern Virginia-Continued

		416 J C		Altitude of	Depth to top of		Potentiometric		ansmissivity square per day	<i>'</i> )
Core hole number	USGS local number	Altitude of land surface (feet above sea level)	Topographic setting	standing water (feet above sea level)	test interval (feet below land surface)	Formation name or lithologic description	head (feet above sea level)	Constant-head injection test	Modified slug test	Standard slug test
37	13D 3	2,423	S	2,257	110	Siltstone with sandstone		< 0.001		
3,	150 5	-,			190	Siltstone		<.001		
					220	Siltstone-sandstone contact		<.001		
					250	Kennedy coal	2,273	.17		
					280	Sandstone		<.001		
					335	Siltstone		<.001		
					385	Sandstone		<.001		
					430	Raven 2 coal		<.001		
					470	Siltstone		<.001		
					547	Raven 1 coal		<.001		
					610	Sandstone		<.001		
38	13D 4	2,415	S	2,326	100	Siltstone		<.001		
50	155	-,			160	Siltstone		<.001		
					200	Sandstone-siltstone-sandstone	2,314	<.001		
					245	Kennedy coal	2,293	.22		
					280	Sandstone		<.001		
					312	Sandstone-siltstone contact		<.001		
					330	Siltstone		<.001		
					380	coal		<.001		
					427	Raven 2 coal		<.001		
					460	coal		<.001		
					505	Siltstone-sandstone contact		<.001		
					530	Sandstone		<.001		
					555	Raven 1 coal		<.001		
					600	Sandstone		<.001		

Table 3.-Lithologic descriptions, potentiometric heads, and transmissivities for test intervals in coal-exploration core holes in the coal fields of southwestern Virginia-Continued

		Altitude of		Altitude of	Depth to top of		Potentiometric		ransmissivity square per da	y)
Core hole	USGS local number	land surface (feet above sea level)	Topographic setting	standing water (feet above sea level)	test interval (feet below land surface)	Formation name or lithologic description	head (feet above sea level)	Constant-head injection test	Modified slug test	Standard slug test
39	10F 4	2,060	Н	1,795	277	Clintwood coal	1,801	0.2		0.06
					305	Siltstone		<.001		
					330	Lyons coal		<.001		1
					388	Dorchester coal	1,779	<.001		
					410	Siltstone		<.001		
					450	Sandstone		<.001		
					477	Norton coal	1,721	.42		.27
40	10F 5	1,800	V	1,759	65	Sandstone		<5.7		
					100	Lyons coal	1,759	<4.7		
					120	Siltstone		<.001		
					148	Dorchester coal	1,752	.04		
					165	Siltstone		<.001		
					185	Siltstone-shale-siltstone		<.001		
					210	Sandstone-siltstone contact		<.001		
					237	Norton coal	1,689	1.8		
41	11F7	1,980	Н	1,604	120	Clintwood coal		.16		
					185	Sandstone		<.001	8	
					230	Sandstone-siltstone contact		<.001		
					255	Lyons coal		.15		
					310	Siltstone		.28		
					377	Norton coal	1,604	.26		
					400	Sandstone-siltstone contact	1,604	.37	1.2	
					425	Sandstone		<.001		
					470	Siltstone		<.001		
					505	Sandstone-siltstone contact		<.001		
					540	Sandstone	/ ·	<.001		
					585	Hagy coal		<.001		

Table 3.-Lithologic descriptions, potentiometric heads, and transmissivities for test intervals in coal-exploration core holes in the coal fields of southwestern Virginia-Continued

									ansmissivity square per day	y)
Core hole number	USGS local number	Altitude of land surface (feet above sea level)	Topographic setting	Altitude of standing water (feet above sea level)	Depth to top of test interval (feet below land surface)	Formation name or lithologic description	Potentiometric head (feet above sea level)	Constant-head injection test	Modified slug test	Standard slug test
42	10E15	1,920	S	1,864	30	Siltstone		3.45		
72	10213	1,720		2,00	70	Siltstone		<.001		
					88	Lyons coal	1,852	.8		
					105	Siltstone-sandstone-siltstone	1,847	.98		
					113	Siltstone		<.001		
					133	Dorchester coal	1,831	1.2		
					150	Siltstone		<.001		
					170	Siltstone	1,822	.01		
					190	Siltstone	1,805	.77		
					210	Sandstone-siltstone contact		<.001		
					226	Norton coal	1,821	.31		
43	10E16	1,920	S	1,871	42	Sandstone-siltstone contact		18.9		
					60	Sandstone-siltstone-sandstone	1,871	3		
					75	Siltstone		<.001		
					90	Lyons coal	1,859	.18		
					115	Siltstone		<.001		
					132	Dorchester coal	1,846	.11		
					150	Siltstone		<.001		
					170	Sandstone-siltstone contact		<.001		
					190	Siltstone		<.001		
					212	Sandstone-siltstone contact		<.001		
					225	Norton coal	1,806	.14		

Table 3.-Lithologic descriptions, potentiometric heads, and transmissivities for test intervals in coal-exploration core holes in the coal fields of southwestern Virginia-Continued

Core hole number	USGS local number	Altitude of land surface (feet above sea level)	Topographic setting	Altitude of standing water (feet above sea level)	Depth to top of test interval (feet below land surface)	Formation name or lithologic description	Potentiometric head (feet above sea level)	Transmissivity (feet square per day)		
								Constant-head injection test	Modified slug test	Standard slug test
44	9E 9	2,420	s	2,288	82	Sandstone		<0.001		
	,,,	2,120		2,200	110	Sandstone-shale-sandstone		<.04		
					135	Sandstone-siltstone-sandstone	e 2,318	<.006		
					159	Shale	2,288	36		1
					185	Siltstone		<.001		
					213	Kelly coal	2,283	.42		
					240	Sandstone		<.001		
					280	Sandstone		<.001		
					312	Imboden coal	2,269	.3		
					335	Sandstone-siltstone contact		<.001		
					351	Imboden marker coal	2,265	.17		
45	11E12	1,800	V	1,790	80	Siltstone	1,790	>66		
					125	Sandstone		<.001		
					145	Kennedy coal	1,790	.05		
					200	Sandstone-siltstone contact		<.001		
					230	Siltstone	1,798	.07	F	
					273	Aily coal	1,794	.04		
					330	Siltstone		<.001		
					369	Raven coal	1,775	.05		
					410	Sandstone		<.001		

Table 3.-Lithologic descriptions, potentiometric heads, and transmissivities for test intervals in coal-exploration core holes in the coal fields of southwestern Virginia—Continued

Core hole number		Altitude of land surface (feet above sea level)		A10' 16	Dealers		Detentionatria	Transmissivity (feet square per day)		
	USGS local number		Topographic setting			Potentiometric head (feet above sea level)	Constant-head injection test	Modified slug test	Standard slug test	
46	11E13	2,000	S	1,950	85	Siltstone		<0.001		
					120	Siltstone-shale-siltstone	1,940	<.001		
					210	Sandstone-siltstone contact		<.001		
					310	Siltstone		<.001		
					392	Kennedy coal	1,886	.04		
					420	Sandstone		<.001		
					470	Siltstone-sandstone contact		<.001		
					500	Sandstone		<.001		
					531	Aily coal	1,883	.03		
					557	Sandstone-siltstone contact		<.001		
					580	Siltstone		<.001		
					628	Raven coal	1,846	.1		
					660	Sandstone		<.001		
47	17F 1	2,820	S	2,653	100	Siltstone		<.001		
					150	Lee coal		.12		
					183	Shale-sandstone contact	2,654	.02		
					220	Sandstone		<.001		
					245	Castle coal	2,655	.6		
					320	Siltstone		<.001		
					358	Upper Seaboard coal	2,581	.05		
					390	Sandstone		.02		
					420	Siltstone		<.001		
					440	Lower Seaboard 2 coal	2,574	.04		
					451	Lower Seaboard 1 coal	2,568	.05		
48	12F 3	2,000	Н	1,887	150	Lyons 1 coal	1,874	2		
					165	Sandstone		<.001		
					183	Sandstone-shale-sandstone		<.001		
					203	Dorchester coal	1,848	.6		

Table 3.-Lithologic descriptions, potentiometric heads, and transmissivities for test intervals in coal-exploration core holes in the coal fields of southwestern Virginia-Continued

Core hole number		Altitude of	7	Altitude of	Depth to top of		Potentiometric head (feet above sea level)	Transmissivity (feet square per day)		
	USGS local number	land surface (feet above sea level)	Topographic setting	standing water (feet above sea level)	test interval (feet below land surface)	Formation name or lithologic description		Constant-head injection test	Modified slug test	Standard slug test
49	12F 4	1,900	Н	1,773	65	Sandstone-siltstone-sandstone	e	5.3		
					85	Sandstone		29.2		
					103	Sandstone-siltstone contact		3		
					123	Sandstone-siltstone-sandstone	e	22		
					140	Lyons 2 coal	1,770	2.1		
					155	Lyons 1 coal	1,767	.7		
50	12G 2	1,840	Н	1,571	135	Sandstone-siltstone contact		<.001		
					165	Splashdam 2 coal		.4		
					185	Splashdam 1 coal		<.04		
					212	Sandstone-shale contact		<1.2		
					240	Siltstone-sandstone contact		<.001		
					270	Siltstone		<.001		
					285	Sandstone-siltstone contact		<.001		
					305	Sandstone with coal	1,577	<8		
					325	Sandstone-siltstone contact		<.001	1	
					360	Siltstone		<.001		
					440	Kennedy coal	1,533	.25		
					481	Siltstone-sandstone-siltstone		<.001		<u></u>
51	12G 3	1,900	Н	1,681	135	Hagy coal		8.9		
	100	1 As			160	Sandstone		.09		
					215	Siltstone		>59		
					242	Splashdam coal	1,676	.96		
					270	Sandstone		<.001		
					320	Siltstone		<.001		
					365	Sandstone		<.001		
					420	Siltstone		<.001		
					472	Siltstone		<.001		
					500	Kennedy coal	1,585	.14		
					535	Sandstone-siltstone contact		<.001		
					580	Sandstone		<.001		

## Table 3.-Lithologic descriptions, potentiometric heads, and transmissivities for test intervals in coal-exploration core holes in the coal fields of southwestern Virginia-Continued

Core hole number	USGS local number	Altitude of land surface (feet above sea level)	Topographic setting	Altitude of standing water (feet above sea level)	Depth to top of test interval (feet below land surface)	Formation name or lithologic description	Potentiometric head (feet above sea level)	Transmissivity (feet square per day)		
								Constant-head injection test	Modified slug test	Standard slug test
52	15G18	2,160	S	1,713	280	Kennedy coal		0.14		
-					320	Sandstone		<.001		
					438	Sandstone		.33		
					449	Raven 2 coal		<.001		
					460	Sandstone	3 · i	<.001		
					490	Siltstone		<.001		
					570	Siltstone		<.001		

This pocket contains two items.

