

**SURFICIAL HYDROGEOLOGY**

By  
Randy Bradt and James A. Berg  
2000

**INTRODUCTION**

The Upper Minnesota River Basin Regional Hydrogeologic Assessment focuses on ground-water occurrence, movement, and chemistry on a regional scale. The study area spans a large portion of the Minnesota River headwaters. The Minnesota River bisects the study area from northwest to southeast. The aquifers within and beneath the fine-grained sediments provide most domestic water supplies. The significant fraction of readily soluble minerals in these sediments helps to explain the high dissolved mineral content in ground water for most of the aquifers in the area. Data collected from 84 wells included general water chemistry; radioactive isotopes of hydrogen and carbon; and stable isotopes of sulfur, hydrogen, and oxygen.

**GROUND-WATER OCCURRENCE AND MOVEMENT**

**Water Table**

Water infiltrating the land surface moves generally downward through unsaturated soil and geologic materials. This water eventually reaches the water table, which is the surface that separates saturated sediments from overlying unsaturated sediments. The water table is commonly referred to as an unconfined surface; this means the pressure exerted on this surface is equal to atmospheric pressure. Most wells in the region, however, are completed in buried aquifers that generally have water that is under greater than atmospheric pressure. These buried aquifers are referred to as confined aquifers.

Contour lines on the map provide a regional depiction of the water-table surface. Delineation of the water-table contours relied on information available in the County Well Index (CWI) data base maintained by the Minnesota Geological Survey, including depth to water measurements taken when wells were drilled. Since only 6 percent of the wells listed in the data base for this study area are screened in a water-table aquifer, and these few wells are geographically limited, additional information was needed to determine depth to the water table. Water-table elevations were inferred where the water table is expressed at some lakes, streams, and wetlands. The water elevations for these features were obtained from U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) 1:24,000-scale topographic maps. Depth to water table was also determined using seismic refraction, which measures differences in the physical properties of saturated and unsaturated geologic materials to locate the water-table surface. Results obtained from eight locations show areas with low-relief topography generally have a shallow (less than 20 feet below land surface) water table, while high-relief areas have deeper water tables, sometimes more than 50 feet below land surface. In most of the study area, the water table approximates a subdued surface topography. Contours of surface elevations generated from the USGS 1:24,000-scale Digital Elevation Model (DEM) were used to guide placement of the water-table contours.

Flow arrows on the water-table map illustrate the regional ground-water flow directions in the near-surface geologic sediments. The rate of ground-water flow depends on the ability of these sediments to transmit water (hydraulic conductivity) and the slope of the water-table surface (hydraulic gradient). The mapped geologic materials shown on Plate 1, Part A, can be subdivided into two general categories: the more permeable sand and gravel stream deposits (speckled pattern on the map) and less permeable loam to clay tills or lake deposits. The actual rate of ground-water flow through geologic materials in the two permeability categories is controlled by the hydraulic gradient, which is reflected in the spacing of the water-table contours. More closely spaced contours indicate a steeper hydraulic gradient and faster ground-water movement.

**Aquifers**

Aquifers are porous and permeable geologic materials that yield sufficient quantities of water to wells for the intended use. Most wells in the study area are completed in Quaternary sand and gravel deposits. Locally important aquifers include Cretaceous sandstone and fracture Precambrian igneous and metamorphic rocks underlie the entire study area. Few wells are completed in Precambrian rocks because the yields are generally poor. They are used only when overlying Quaternary or Cretaceous aquifers are absent or do not yield sufficient water for the intended use. The supply potential for Precambrian aquifers generally ranges from a few gallons per minute (gpm) to several tens of gpm. Wells are often drilled deeply into the Precambrian rocks in order to intersect as many fractures as possible and to provide storage space for water between pumping intervals. Less than 2 percent of the wells listed in CWI are completed in Precambrian rocks, and most of these wells are found along the Minnesota River in the southeastern part of the study area.

Cretaceous sediments overlie Precambrian rocks in approximately half the study area (see Figure 3 on Plate 2, Part A) and are generally found southwest of the Minnesota River. Cretaceous sediments consist of interbedded shale, siltstone, and sandstone and have thicknesses mapped by Seterholm (1990) exceeding 600 feet southwest of the City of Canby in Yellow Medicine County. Approximately 12 percent of the wells in CWI are screened in Cretaceous sandstones; these wells range in depth from less than 50 feet to more than 400 feet below land surface. Wells completed in Cretaceous aquifers are common in areas where the overlying Quaternary aquifers are absent or lack sufficient yield. Woodward and Anderson (1986) reported that yields for Cretaceous aquifers are generally from a few gpm to several tens of gpm.

Nitrate (reported as nitrogen (NO<sub>3</sub>-N)) at concentrations greater than 1 mg/L is an important indicator of human impacts on ground water. Principal sources include septic systems, feedlots, and agricultural chemicals. EPA's primary public water supply standard for nitrate, 10 mg/L, was exceeded in only one of the 84 sampled wells, and two other wells had elevated levels (greater than 1 mg/L). The low frequency of elevated nitrate concentrations in most of the sampled wells may have two explanations. First, nitrate is usually found in near-surface ground water, but most of the wells sampled in this study are screened below the water table in buried aquifers deeper than the water table. Second, biologically mediated nitrate removal (denitrification) may have occurred. The oxygen-poor (anoxic) ground water commonly found in buried aquifers deeper than the water table of some water-table aquifers is a likely environment for denitrification.

Chloride (Cl) is another parameter that may indicate human impacts on ground water. Artificial sources of chloride include road salt, fertilizers, and industrial, human, and animal wastes. Several of the sampled wells in this study may have chloride from contaminant sources. Natural sources of chloride include precipitation and Cretaceous shale. Interpretations of chloride sources for individual wells are inconclusive because elevated natural sources of chloride levels were also encountered in some Cretaceous and buried glacial aquifers.

**Major Ion Water Chemistry**

The Piper trilinear diagram (Figure 1) shows the water chemistry results graphically. The sample points on each triangle (ternary diagram) reflect the percentages in milligram equivalents per liter (meq/L) of the major cations and anions in each sample.

The lower left ternary diagram of Figure 1 compares the major cations for calcium, magnesium and sodium, plus potassium. There is a fairly constant ratio of calcium to magnesium throughout the study area superimposed on a trend toward sodium-rich water. As waters containing calcium and magnesium pass through clays and shales, sodium is exchanged into the water. This process is similar to how a household water softener works. Higher levels of strontium (Sr) associated with higher proportions of sodium support this ion exchange hypothesis.

The lower right ternary diagram compares the major anions, bicarbonate, sulfate, and chloride plus nitrate. Samples tend to plot along a narrow band ranging from bicarbonate-rich waters with low TDS toward sulfate-rich waters with higher TDS limited by the solubility of gypsum. Sulfate contents are generally less than 1 mg/L to 1.630 mg/L. Common sources of sulfate are dissolution of gypsum and oxidation of sulfide minerals. Sulfate is one of the dominant components of TDS values for this study area. Based on the five major isotope (delta (δ) (‰) values in Table 2, most of the sulfate originates by the oxidation of sulfides (δ<sup>34</sup>S = -20 to 0 per mille [parts per thousand or ‰] and) and not from gypsum dissolution (δ<sup>34</sup>S = +15 to +25‰) (Clark and Fritz, 1997).

The central diamond-shaped field shows the overall chemical behavior of the ground water by plotting a third point representing the intersection of rays projected from the cation and anion triangles. An example is shown in the Piper diagram.

**Recharge and Discharge**

Recharge to the water table occurs throughout the study area by infiltration of precipitation, surface runoff from areas of lower to higher infiltration, and subsurface ground-water movement from adjacent areas. Sources of recharge include some lakes and wetlands and short reaches along stream segments. Water-table elevations fluctuate in response to seasonal variations in recharge to and discharge from the ground-water system. Spring rain and

snowmelt are major sources of recharge to surficial aquifers and cause water levels to rise significantly. During the summer, evapotranspiration uses most of the available precipitation and recharge to the water table is negligible. When recharge does occur in the summer, it likely coincides with significant rainfall events. Recharge can also occur in the fall, depending on rainfall, runoff, and evapotranspiration rates. Water levels decline in the winter, when precipitation is stored on the land surface as snow, and typically reach a low point before spring thaw.

Recharge amounts to the water table in annual sand and gravel aquifers in Swift County were estimated by Delin (1986) using hydrographs from 12 observation wells. Surface recharge estimates ranged from 1.2 inches to 15.1 inches and averaged 6.0 inches. This average is consistent with the findings by Larson (1976) that show recharge estimates for the same region of 8.4 inches and 5.0 inches for 1972 and 1973, respectively. The recharge amounts to buried aquifers are much less. Exponential increases in ground-water age with well depth observed in this study support this conclusion. For example, if the average annual recharge amount of 6 inches were applied to buried aquifers, the residence time of water in these aquifers would be only a few decades to a few hundred years old. In fact, however, several samples from buried aquifers were aged to several thousands of years. Factors determining the amount of recharge to buried aquifers are the vertical hydraulic gradient, which is the head difference between the water table and the water level in the buried aquifer; the thickness of overlying geologic materials; and the geologic materials' hydraulic conductivity.

The amount of water that recharges ground water through wetlands has likely been reduced since the advent of ditching and tiling. Pre-settlement wet mineral soils and peatlands covered approximately 35 percent of the study area (Minnesota Department of Natural Resources, 1997). The mapped locations of these features are likely areas where wetlands existed prior to the advent of ditching and tiling. Today only 5.5 percent of the area is wetlands and lakes according to the National Wetlands Inventory. Some of the potential recharge to ground water is now redirected by agricultural tiling and ditching (Magner and Alexander, 1994). Drainage tiles intercept infiltrating water, discharging it directly to river systems via ditches.

Ground-water discharge occurs both naturally and artificially. Regionally, natural discharge occurs as ground water flows from topographically high areas toward the Minnesota River. Locally, ground water discharges toward topographically low areas, wetlands, streams, and lakes. The contribution of ground water to wetlands and streams, for example, is evident during drought when streams continue to flow and wetlands do not dry up. Artificial discharge is represented by pumping from wells, which accounts for an increasing proportion of ground-water discharge. Artificial ground-water discharge could significantly reduce the amount of water available to wetlands, streams, and other surface water bodies.

**WATER CHEMISTRY**

The chemical evolution of ground water begins as surface water and precipitation infiltrate below the land surface. The chemistry of the water changes as it percolates through soil and geologic material. Factors affecting ground-water chemistry include land use, initial water chemistry, length of flow path, chemical reactions, and residence time.

Water samples were collected for chemical analysis in 84 wells from autumn 1997 to autumn 1998. Seventy-eight of these samples were collected from wells completed in Quaternary deposits (only two of these samples represent water-table wells), and six samples were from wells completed in Cretaceous deposits. Sampling locations are indicated on the map, and the chemistry results are summarized in Table 1 according to aquifer type. The chemistry results were used to characterize water resources and to evaluate ground-water recharge processes.

**Water Quality Indicators**

As water infiltrates into the subsurface, it accumulates additional carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) gas from decaying organic material. Dissolution of carbonate minerals in sediments is limited by the amount of dissolved carbon dioxide, which in turn controls the amount of dissolved calcium, magnesium, and bicarbonate. Water hardness is the sum of dissolved calcium and magnesium. Ground water from most sampled wells was very hard.

Another measure of water quality is the total dissolved mineral concentration in water samples. The 84 samples collected in this study had reported values for total dissolved solids (TDS) ranging from 208 milligrams per liter (mg/L) to 2,599 mg/L. Most samples exceeded the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency's (EPA's) secondary standard for TDS of 500 mg/L. Other chemical constituents commonly exceeding EPA's secondary standards include sulfate (SO<sub>4</sub>), iron (Fe), and manganese (Mn). Excessive quantities of these chemicals may give water an objectionable taste or odor, stain laundry and porcelain, or even plug well screens. The lowest TDS and sulfate concentrations in the sampled wells are found in the west-central, primarily eastern Swift County. This water chemistry likely represents a difference in the mineralogy of subsurface glacial sediment in that area. In the northeastern part of the study area, Des Moines loess sediments originating from the northwest are thin and overlie glacial sediment originating from the northeast (C. Patterson, oral commun., 1999). The northeast-southwest glacial sediments are generally not calcareous and lack gypsum. Glacial deposits of the Des Moines lobe incorporated materials that are more calcareous and are commonly associated with gypsum.

Nitrate (reported as nitrogen (NO<sub>3</sub>-N)) at concentrations greater than 1 mg/L is an important indicator of human impacts on ground water. Principal sources include septic systems, feedlots, and agricultural chemicals. EPA's primary public water supply standard for nitrate, 10 mg/L, was exceeded in only one of the 84 sampled wells, and two other wells had elevated levels (greater than 1 mg/L). The low frequency of elevated nitrate concentrations in most of the sampled wells may have two explanations. First, nitrate is usually found in near-surface ground water, but most of the wells sampled in this study are screened below the water table in buried aquifers deeper than the water table. Second, biologically mediated nitrate removal (denitrification) may have occurred. The oxygen-poor (anoxic) ground water commonly found in buried aquifers deeper than the water table of some water-table aquifers is a likely environment for denitrification.

Chloride (Cl) is another parameter that may indicate human impacts on ground water. Artificial sources of chloride include road salt, fertilizers, and industrial, human, and animal wastes. Several of the sampled wells in this study may have chloride from contaminant sources. Natural sources of chloride include precipitation and Cretaceous shale. Interpretations of chloride sources for individual wells are inconclusive because elevated natural sources of chloride levels were also encountered in some Cretaceous and buried glacial aquifers.

The Piper trilinear diagram (Figure 1) shows the water chemistry results graphically. The sample points on each triangle (ternary diagram) reflect the percentages in milligram equivalents per liter (meq/L) of the major cations and anions in each sample.

The lower left ternary diagram of Figure 1 compares the major cations for calcium, magnesium and sodium, plus potassium. There is a fairly constant ratio of calcium to magnesium throughout the study area superimposed on a trend toward sodium-rich water. As waters containing calcium and magnesium pass through clays and shales, sodium is exchanged into the water. This process is similar to how a household water softener works. Higher levels of strontium (Sr) associated with higher proportions of sodium support this ion exchange hypothesis.

The lower right ternary diagram compares the major anions, bicarbonate, sulfate, and chloride plus nitrate. Samples tend to plot along a narrow band ranging from bicarbonate-rich waters with low TDS toward sulfate-rich waters with higher TDS limited by the solubility of gypsum. Sulfate contents are generally less than 1 mg/L to 1.630 mg/L. Common sources of sulfate are dissolution of gypsum and oxidation of sulfide minerals. Sulfate is one of the dominant components of TDS values for this study area. Based on the five major isotope (delta (δ) (‰) values in Table 2, most of the sulfate originates by the oxidation of sulfides (δ<sup>34</sup>S = -20 to 0 per mille [parts per thousand or ‰] and) and not from gypsum dissolution (δ<sup>34</sup>S = +15 to +25‰) (Clark and Fritz, 1997).

The central diamond-shaped field shows the overall chemical behavior of the ground water by plotting a third point representing the intersection of rays projected from the cation and anion triangles. An example is shown in the Piper diagram.

**Aquifer Water Chemistry**

The chemistries of water samples from Cretaceous aquifers completely overlap the range of chemistries in Quaternary aquifers (see Figure 1). This observation is not surprising since large amounts of Cretaceous materials are incorporated into the glacial drift. The wide scattering of points on contour diagrams illustrates the wide variation in major ion water chemistry for both Cretaceous and Quaternary aquifers. The amount of dissolved minerals in ground water in the study area apparently evolved in a fairly short period of time. Conversely, samples younger than 45 years residence time. This means that most of the dissolved mineral content of ground water results from chemical evolution that occurs in less than 45 years.

The cation exchange with sodium observed in some samples is associated with waters having a greater than 45-year residence time. Conversely, samples younger than 45 years were not observed to have evidence of cation exchange. One possible explanation is that in sediments presently containing water with less than a 45-year residence time, any available sodium was exchanged and removed at an earlier time. It is also possible that these sediments never had sodium available for exchange.

**Environmental Isotopes**

Ground-water residence time. All 84 wells were sampled for tritium, an isotope of hydrogen. Tritium is a naturally occurring radioactive isotope of hydrogen with a 12.5-year half-life that is useful for estimating ground-water residence time. Before 1954, natural levels of tritium were about 3 to 5 tritium units (TU). Atmospheric testing of nuclear weapons during the 1950's and 1960's increased the tritium in precipitation more than a thousand fold. Water that recharged before 1954 has lost most of its tritium by decay over several half-lives. The presence of more than about 8 TU in ground water indicates that recharge occurred since 1953 (modified from Alexander and Alexander, 1989).

Ground-water movement can be interpreted by relating the presence of tritium to well depth. Approximately 25 percent of the sampled wells contained detectable levels of tritium. Ground water less than 50 feet below the land surface will likely have measurable tritium, although two of the three wells sampled in this depth range did not have tritium. Less than half of the sampled wells screened at depths between 50 and 100 feet had detectable tritium. This depth range probably represents the maximum that tritium has penetrated since 1953. Only 16 percent of the sampled wells greater than 100 feet deep had tritium. This percentage likely overestimates the probability of tritium being present in wells greater than 100 feet deep. Well construction problems and geologic conditions may account for tritium being observed deeper than expected. For example, two wells completed at 150 feet and 215 feet deep had low but detectable levels of tritium. The two wells are close to each other and located southeast of the City of Appleton where some of the thickest sand and gravel aquifers in the entire study area are found. In the Appleton area (Figures 4 and 5 on Plate 2, Part A), some surficial sand and gravel deposits may be in direct connection with buried sand and gravel deposits. In these areas, water containing tritium could travel deeper into the aquifer system.

Wells completed deeper than 100 feet generally had water with no tritium. For these wells, the radioactive isotope of carbon was used to estimate ground-water residence time. Nine samples were collected for carbon-14 (14C) age dating in wells ranging from 109 feet to 453 feet deep (Table 2). In addition, a 61-foot-deep well containing tritium was also sampled to calibrate the carbon-14 model.

The age-dating results show that water more than 100 feet below the land surface generally has a residence time from 1,000 to 9,000 years before present. The relatively young waters found in aquifers within 100 feet below the land surface suggest the presence of local and intermediate flow systems that recharge and discharge over shorter distances and times. The older waters in aquifers below 100 feet are more likely to be associated with regional flow systems, which can discharge many miles from where they receive recharge.

Ground-water source. The 10 samples listed in Table 2 were also analyzed for ratios of stable isotopes of hydrogen and oxygen. The results indicate that ground water in the deep regional flow systems largely originates from precipitation. The δ<sup>18</sup>O values reflect the temperature of the precipitation. Results show small variations that might be related to small climatic fluctuations. There is no indication of water originating from glacial meltwater, which is consistent with the calculated postglacial ground-water ages.

**REFERENCES CITED**

Alexander, S.C., and Alexander, E.C., Jr., 1989, Residence times of Minnesota groundwaters: Minnesota Academy of Sciences Journal, v. 55, no. 1, p. 48-52.  
Clark, I.D., and Fritz, P., 1997, Environmental isotopes in hydrogeology: Boca Raton, Lewis Publishers, 328 p.  
Delin, G.N., 1986, Hydrogeology of confined-drift aquifers near the Pomme de Terre and Chippewa rivers, western Minnesota: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations Report 86-4098, 70 p.  
Kanivetsky, R., 1978, Hydrogeologic map of Minnesota, bedrock hydrogeology: Minnesota Geological Survey State Map Series S-3, 1 pl., scale 1:50,000.  
Larson, S.P., 1976, An appraisal of ground water for irrigation in the Appleton area, west-central Minnesota: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Supply Paper 2039-B, 34 p., 3 pls. in pocket, scale 1:126,720.  
Magner, J.A., and Alexander, S.C., 1994, The Minnesota River basin—a hydrogeologic overview, 94 p., in Minnesota River Assessment Report, Volume II, Physical and Chemical Assessment, January 1994: St. Paul, Minnesota Pollution Control Agency, Report to the Legislative Commission on Minnesota Resources.  
Minnesota Department of Natural Resources, 1997, Pre-settlement wet mineral soils and peatlands, Map 4, of Minnesota wetlands and surface water resources: St. Paul, Minnesota Department of Natural Resources, 1 pl.  
Rittner, T.M., Geiger, K.L., and Cottrell, J.F.P., 1998, Glacial Lake Benson, west-central Minnesota, in Patterson, C.J., and Wright, H.E., Jr., eds., Contributions to Quaternary studies in Minnesota: Minnesota Geological Survey Report of Investigations 49, p. 97-102.  
Seterholm, D.R., 1990, Geologic maps of the late Cretaceous rocks, southwestern Minnesota: Minnesota Geological Survey Miscellaneous Map Series M-69, 2 pls., scale 1:750,000 and smaller.  
Woodward, D.G., and Anderson, H.W., 1986, Hydrogeologic and water-quality characteristics of the Cretaceous aquifer, southwestern Minnesota: U.S. Geological Survey Water-Resources Investigations Report 84-1153, 2 pls.

**MAP EXPLANATION**

**Water Table**  
—1100 Water table elevation (feet above sea level), contour interval 50 feet  
--- Supplementary contours (25-foot interval)  
--- General direction of ground-water movement

**Well Symbols**

Shape indicates aquifer type  
▲ Quaternary water table  
▲ Quaternary buried outwash  
● Cretaceous sandstone  
● Cretaceous regolith

Color indicates tritium age  
■ Recent—Waters with tritium concentrations of 8 tritium units (TU) or more entered the ground water after 1953.  
■ Mixed—Waters with 0.9 to 8 TU are a mixture of recent and vintage.  
■ Vintage—Waters with less than 0.8 TU entered the ground water before 1954.

**Well Labels**

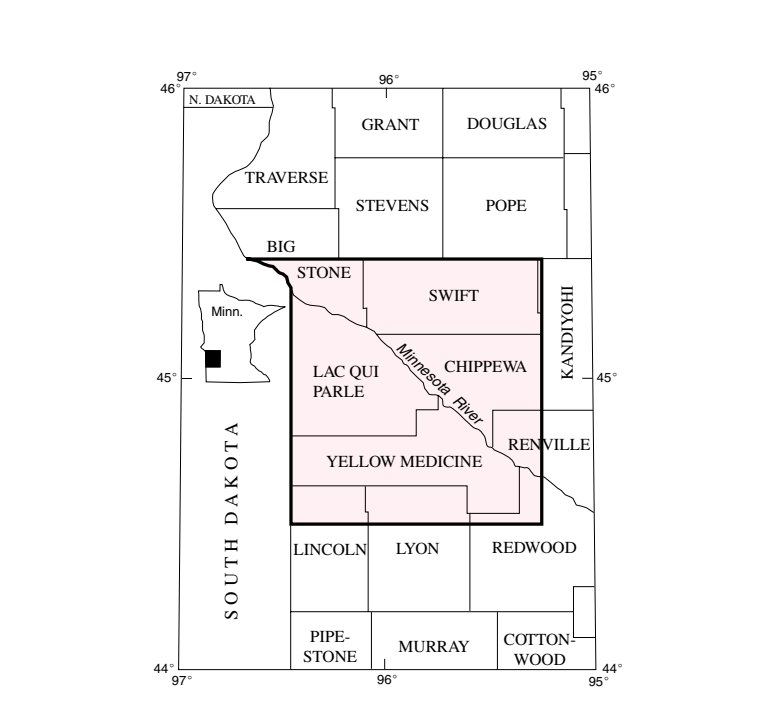
119552 Unique well number of well not sampled for carbon-14  
406547 Unique well number of well sampled for carbon-14

**Relative Depths of Aquifers**

Surficial sand and gravel. Map units Qsd, Qsh, Qosl, Qssd, and Qsw as shown on Plate 1, Part A.  
Shallow Quaternary buried aquifer, elevation 950 to 1000 feet  
Quaternary buried aquifer, elevation 920 to 975 feet  
Sub-Quaternary buried aquifer, elevation 750 to 920 feet.

**Seismic Refraction**

Numbers indicate range of depth in feet to the water table; arrow points to location of the midpoint of transect.



**EXPLANATION**

● Quaternary water table  
● Quaternary buried outwash  
● Cretaceous sandstone  
● Cretaceous regolith  
● Hypothetical sample point

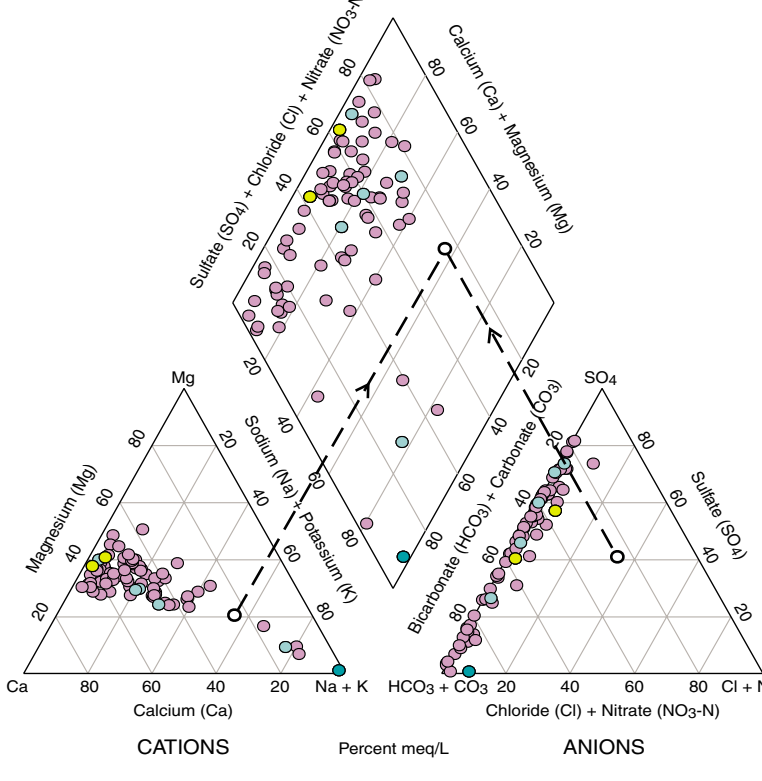


FIGURE 1. Piper trilinear plot of major cations and anions by aquifer classification. Plotted on the lower left and right triangles are points representing the positively charged ions (cations) and negatively charged ions (anions), respectively. The diamond-shaped field combines the components in the triangular fields as shown by the hypothetical sample point.

TABLE 1. Characteristics of natural waters by aquifer in the upper Minnesota River basin study area.

	Well depth (feet)	TDS (mg/L)	pH	Eh (mV)	Dissolved oxygen (mg/L)	Tritium (TU)	Calcium (mg/L)	Magnesium (mg/L)	Sodium (mg/L)	Potassium (mg/L)	Iron (mg/L)	Manganese (mg/L)	Strontium (mg/L)	Barium (mg/L)	Aluminum (mg/L)	Alkalinity (mg/L)	Sulfate (mg/L)	Chloride (mg/L)	Nitrate as nitrogen (mg/L)	Bromide (mg/L)	Fluoride (mg/L)	Silicon (mg/L)	Total phosphorus (mg/L)	
<b>Quaternary Aquifer</b>																								
Number of samples	78	78	78	78	78	78	78	78	78	78	78	78	78	78	78	78	78	78	78	78	78	78	78	78
Number of samples below detection	NA	NA	NA	NA	67	56	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	13
Minimum	44	296	6.79	-88	<0.01	<0.8	24.6	9.75	5.39	1.96	<0.01	0.004	0.179	0.008	<0.001	212	0.03	0.34	<0.005	<0.015	0.08	9.3	<0.02	
25th percentile	75	562	7.21	-57	<0.01	<0.8	9.3	43.6	20.8	4.0	0.93	0.077	0.502	0.02	0.005	360	115	2.0	<0.005	0.34	0.25	14	0.03	
Median	100	858	7.33	239	<0.01	<0.8	140	54.7	42.0	5.8	2.0	0.23	0.769	0.04	0.008	399	352	3.4	<0.005	0.054	0.29	15	0.06	
75th percentile	142	1250	7.49	307	<0.01	1.3	190	79.2	95.7	8.0	3.0	0.54	1.14	0.10	0.01	408	607	10	0.009	0.099	0.35	16	0.1	
Maximum	453	2599	7.86	644	6.2	30.1	521	183	243	16.2	11.0	3.149	3.033	0.685	0.172	581	1630	91	28.1	0.440	0.72	21.6	1.17	
<b>Cretaceous Aquifer</b>																								
Number of samples	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
Number of samples below detection	NA	NA	NA	NA	5	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Minimum	47	549	7.12	39	<0.1	<0.8	3.0	0.66	22.6	2.1	0.03	0.005	0.077	0.006	0.012	304	0.43	0.67	<0.005	0.037	0.26	3.62	<0.02	
Median	169	1107	7.33	216	<0.1	<0.8	170	56	142	7.1	2.1	0.041	1.47	0.04	0.016	408	497	8.4	<0.005	0.13	0.46	8.5	0.04	
Maximum	375	1812	8.82	402	0.1	1.0	324	137.1	231	15.3	17.5	0.356	2.73	0.078	0.273	513	1030	30.5	0.039	0.240	2.02	19.5	1.59	

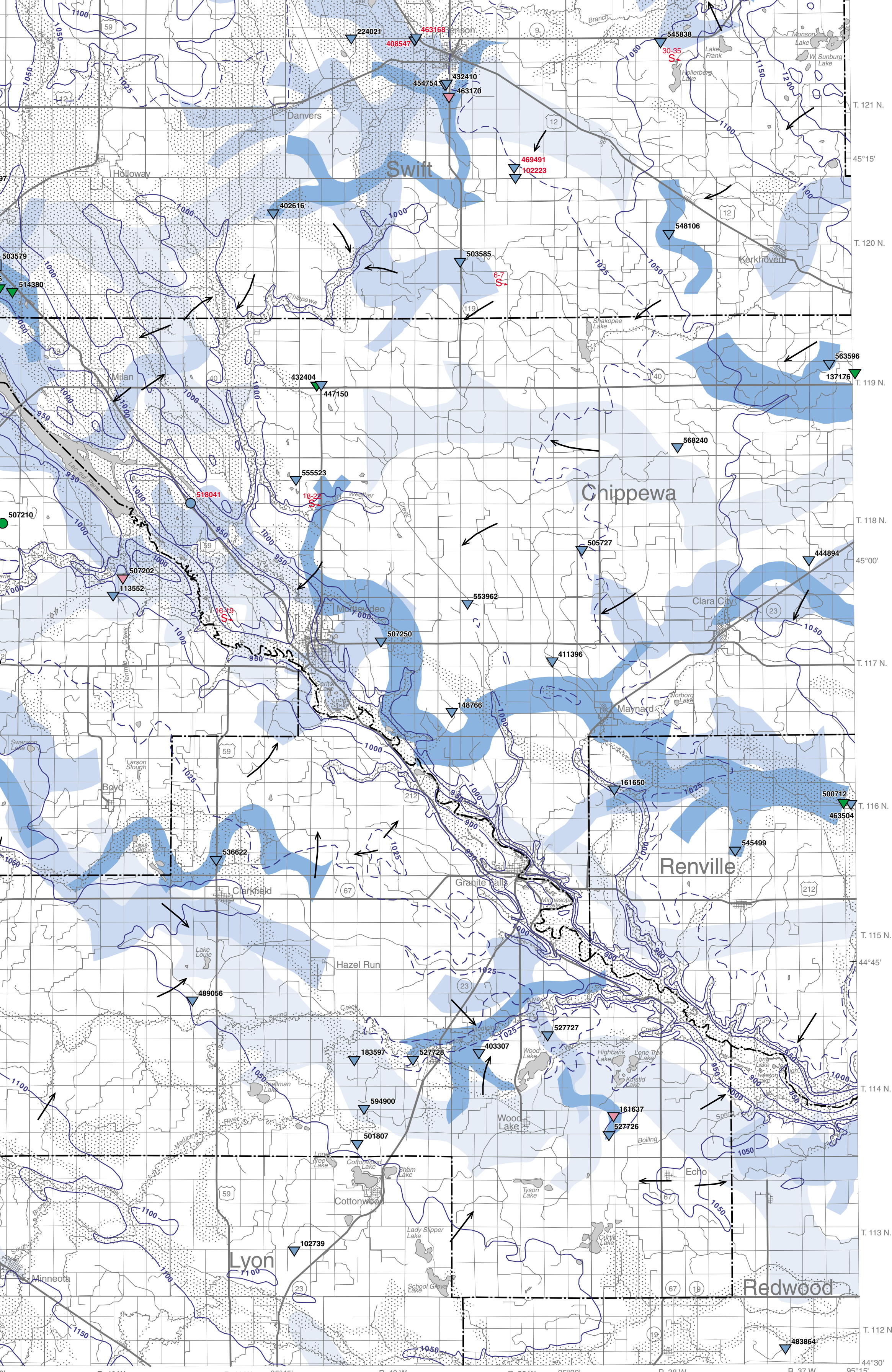


FIGURE 1. Piper trilinear plot of major cations and anions by aquifer classification. Plotted on the lower left and right triangles are points representing the positively charged ions (cations) and negatively charged ions (anions), respectively. The diamond-shaped field combines the components in the triangular fields as shown by the hypothetical sample point.

TABLE 1. Characteristics of natural waters by aquifer in the upper Minnesota River basin study area.

	Well depth (feet)	δ <sup>34</sup> S (‰)	δ <sup>18</sup> O (‰)	δ <sup>2</sup> H (‰)	δ <sup>13</sup> C (‰)	<sup>14</sup> C (B.P., in percent modern)	Age (years)	Tritium (TU)
--	-------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	----------------------	-----------------------	---	-------------	--------------