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Laura Santina Badalamenti

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THE GEOCHEMISTRY AND ISOTOPIC CHEMISTRY OF SALINE GROUND WATER DERIVED FROM NEAR-SURFACE DEPOSITS OF THE SAGINAW LOWLAND, MICHIGAN BASIN

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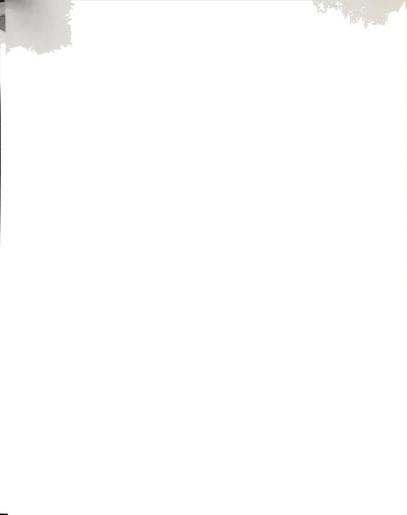
Laura Santina Badalamenti

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Submitted to
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for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

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ABSTRACT

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THE GEOCHEMISTRY AND ISOTOPIC CHEMISTRY OF SALINE GROUND WATER DERIVED FROM NEAR-SURFACE DEPOSITS OF THE SAGINAW LOWLAND, MICHIGAN BASIN

Βv

Laura Santina Badalamenti

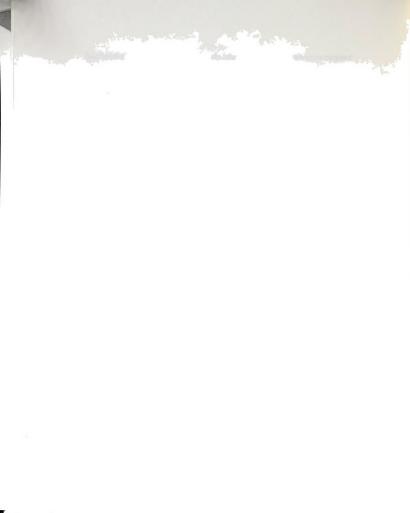
Near-surface ground water in the Saginaw Lowland is characterized by relatively high salinities and light isotopic values of del oxygen-18 and del deuterium. The source of the salinity and isotopically light water and the cause of their occurrence is unclear. It is hypothesized (1) that the source of the isotopically light water is meteoric water that recharged the system when the climate was much cooler (perhaps glacial meltwater of the Pleistocene Epoch); (2) that the source of salinity is the upward advection or diffusion of brines; and (3) that their occurrence is due to slow flushing of the water in argillaceous deposits by recent meteoric water.

Isotopic ranges in the ground water were as follows: del oxygen-18, -8.7 o/oo to -17.91 o/oo; del deuterium, -56.5 o/oo to -126.7 o/oo; and del carbon-13 -7.9 o/oo to -15.4 o/oo. Del oxygen-18 and del deuterium plot along the meteoric-water line, ranging from modern-day meteoric to extremely light values. The range of dissolved solids is 145 to 13115 mg/1.

It is concluded that the argillaceous deposits, which act as aquitards, retain meteoric water formed at cooler



temperatures and brines which have diffused or advected upward. These conclusions are consistent with the fact that the Saginaw Lowland regional ground-water system is a discharge zone. In addition, the outer perimeter of the Saginaw Lowland is a transition zone to fresher, modern-day meteoric recharge.



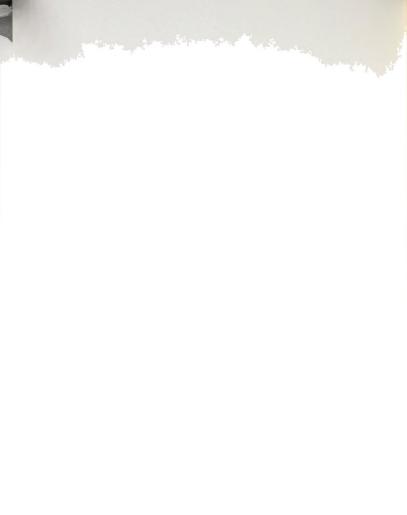
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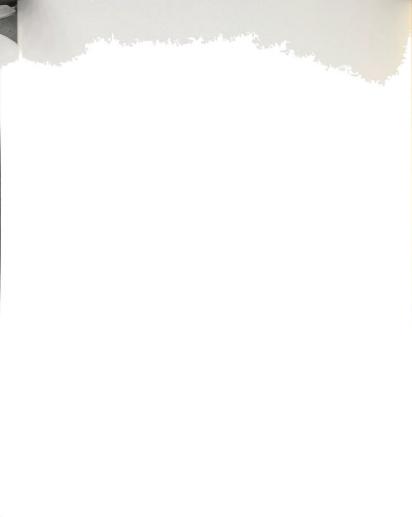


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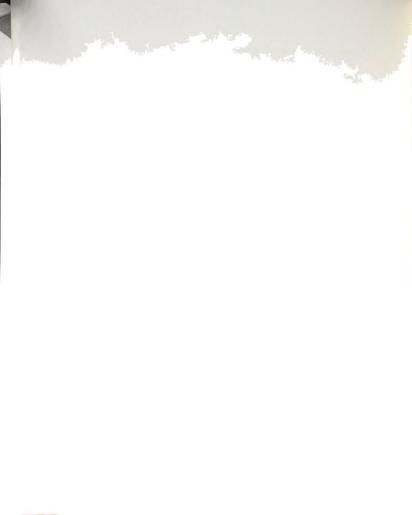
INTRODUCTION

This study examines the extent of isotopically-depleted ground water in the Saginaw Lowland of the Michigan basin and investigates several hypotheses based primarily on previous work of Long et al. (1988) in Bay County of the Saginaw Lowland. The occurrence of isotopically-depleted ground water is compared to regional lithology and ground-water geochemistry in order to test the following hypotheses regarding characteristics of the ground water system in the Saginaw Lowland:

Hypothesis 1: the ground water system contains isotopically-depleted meteoric water that recharged the system when the climate was much cooler (perhaps glacial meltwater of the Fleistocene Epoch);

Hypothesis 2: the ground water system contains saline water derived from brines deep in the Michigan basin; and

Hypothesis 3: the isotopically-depleted water and saline water are retained in the ground water system by the combined affects of aquitards, low regional horizontal hydraulic gradients, and a regional ground-water discharge zone.



This study also attempted to verify that the additional processes identified by Long et al. (1986, 1988) in the Bay County ground water system are also affecting the Saginaw Lowland system. The additional processes include water-rock interactions including calcium carbonate equilibrium and stability with potassium aluminosilicate minerals; and biological reduction of sulfate.

The study was also used to estimate whether the data reduction techniques used in the Bay County study (Long et al., 1986, 1988), will produce interpretable results on more widely-spaced data points.



SECTION 1 - DEFINITION OF THE PROBLEM AND PAST WORKS

1.1 Definition of the Problem

Long et al. (1986, 1988) hypothesized that the following processes are occurring in the near-surface ground water system of Bay County, Michigan: 1) upward diffusion of local formation brines into the near-surface ground water. and mixing of the brines with surface water as suggested by ternary diagrams of major cations and anions; 2) water-rock interactions, including calcium carbonate equilibrium as suggested by calcite saturation indices, and stability with the potassium aluminosilicate minerals, as suggested by a potassium aluminosilicate mineral activity plot of groundwater samples with points clustered along the boundary of muscovite and potassium feldspar; 3) the biological reduction of sulfate within the drift and bedrock, as suggested by the correlation of decreased sulfate (due to consumption by microbes) and increased del sulfur-34 values (due to selective assimilation of sulfur-32 by microbes resulting in isotopic enrichment of sulfur-34 in the ground water); and 4) the mixing of present-day meteoric water with meteoric water formed at cooler temperatures (possibly Pleistocene in age) as suggested by oxygen and deuterium stable isotopic values.

This study examines the extent of isotopically-depleted ground water in the Saginaw Lowland of the Michigan basin,



which encompasses Bay County (investigated by Long et al., 1988). The occurrence of isotopically-depleted ground water is compared to regional lithology and ground-water geochemistry in order to test several hypotheses outlined in the Introduction. This study evaluates a large geochemical data set with the aid of statistical, graphical and computer modeling techniques of data reduction. The statistical data reduction techniques are the Student's t-Test and multivariate factor analysis. The graphical data reduction techniques include ternary diagrams, frequency histograms, and x-y plots. The computer modeling technique used is chemical modeling with WATEQF. The research allows the comparison of interpretations made on ground-water processes from a data set composed of a large number of samples (about four hundred) taken in a one-county area with a data set composed of a small number of samples (about one hundred) taken from a seven county area. The extent of sulfate

1.2 Past Works

Stable isotopes of oxygen and deuterium give insight into the origin of ground water, and reflect physical and chemical processes which have affected the ground water. In low-salinity ground water, oxygen-18 and deuterium concentrations are conservative; they are unaffected by physical, chemical or geological processes. However, in the hydrosphere, oxygen-18 and deuterium concentrations are not

reduction in the Saginaw Lowland is briefly examined.



conservative (Frape and Fritz, 1982). Craig (1961 a) demonstrated a linear relationship between concentrations of oxygen-18 and deuterium in meteoric waters which have not undergone large amounts of evaporation. Samples of meteoric water will plot along the meteoric water line (MWL) as described by Craig (1961 a).

The shallow geologic deposits in the Saginaw Lowland area of the east-central Michigan basin (Figure 1.1) yield isotopically-depleted, saline ground water, as reported by Badalamenti et al. (1988) and Long et al. (1988). Long et al. (1988) found that ground water from the glacial deposits and near-surface bedrock in Bay County, Saginaw Lowland (see Figure 1.2 for location) has del oxygen-18 values ranging from -6.93 o/oo to -18.46 o/oo; and del deuterium values ranging from -47.3 o/oo to -137.4 o/oo. The concentrations of oxygen-18 and deuterium are reported according to the standard of Craig (1961 b). These values plot along the MWL of Craig (1961 a) indicating meteoric origin of the ground water. They interpret these data to indicate that during the Pleistocene epoch, isotopically-light meteoric water recharged the system, and has since mixed with modern-day meteoric water producing a variable isotopic composition in the ground water. These observations and conclusions are consistent with conclusions of Desaulniers et al. (1981) (study area location shown on Figure 1.1).

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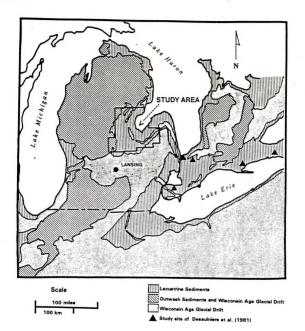
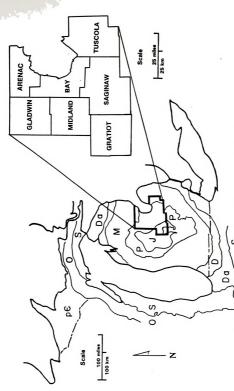


Figure 1.1 Surficial geology of the Michigan basin, with locations of the Saginaw Lowland, Simcoe and Greater Lansing study areas.

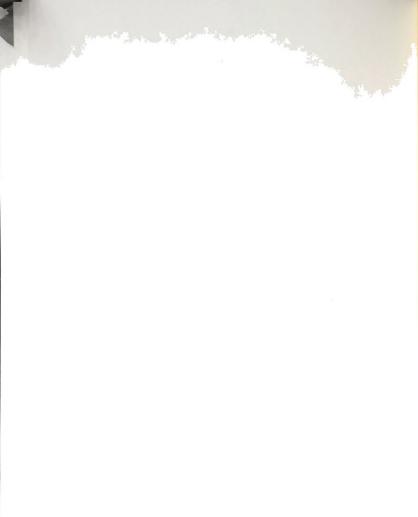


MICHIGAN BASIN

STUDY AREA



Location of the Saginaw Lowland study area, with generalized bedrock geology. Figure 1.2



The shallow geologic deposits in the Saginaw Lowland, primarily lacustrine sediments and glacial drift, are characterized as aquitards (see Figure 1.1 for distribution of the aquitards). The ground water in these deposits has total dissolved solids concentrations of up to 53,000 mg/L (Long et al., 1986). The ratios of bromide to chloride concentrations for ground water samples compared to samples of meteoric water and local brines suggest that the ground water samples have been geochemically influenced by brines. The upward migration of brines from deeper in the Michigan basin via diffusion or advection may be producing salinity

Isotopically-light ground water has been identified in aquifers by Clayton et al. (1966); Fritz et al. (1974); Perry et al. (1982); and Siegel and Mandle (1984). The origin of isotopically-light ground water in aquifers has been interpreted as recharge during a period when the climate was cooler than present day.

in the ground water (Long et al., 1988).

Isotopically-light ground water is frequently found in association with near-surface aquitards. The Quaternary argillaceous deposits of the Great Lakes region, considered aquitards, produce ground water significantly depleted in isotopes compared with modern-day meteoric water (Desaulniers et al., 1981; and Bradbury, 1984). Although the role of aquitards in affecting the hydrogeochemistry of ground water is becoming understood (Back, 1986), their role



in controlling the isotopic composition of ground water has been little studied. Aquitards have low hydraulic conductivity values, are composed of fine-grained reactive minerals, and have predominantly vertical ground-water flow direction (Back, 1986). They often produce water of poor quality. For example, the dissolution of reactive minerals in the aquitard deposits can produce mineralized water. Aquitards can control flow patterns of ground water, and thereby determine the distribution of different chemical types of ground water.

Long et al. (1988) hypothesize that ground-water salinity and isotopic depletion are due to the effect of aquitards in the ground water system. Modern meteoric recharge to the system is inhibited by the presence of relatively thick glaciolacustrine deposits, impermeable glacial till, and shale; and a low regional ground-water flow gradient. Long et al. hypothesize that the "glacial" water is retained in these deposits, because modern-day recharge water is only slowly "flushing" the system. In addition, they hypothesize that because the ground-water flow is stagnant and because the deposits lie in a discharge zone (potentiometric surfaces indicate upward flow), salinity can build up in the system, as brines move upwards into the system via diffusion or advection.

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SECTION 2 - STUDY AREA

2.1 Location of Study Area

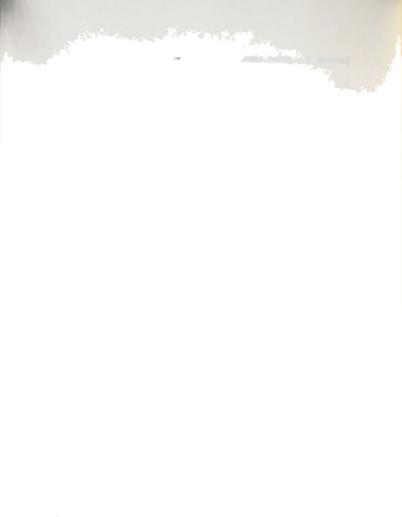
The Saginaw Lowland study area is a region of approximately 14000 square kilometers, located in the east-central Michigan basin, as shown in Figure 1.1. The Saginaw Lowland encompasses the counties of Arenac, Gladwin, Midland, Gratiot, Saginaw, Bay and western Tuscola in the state of Michigan (Figure 1.2). The study area is partially bordered by Saginaw Bay of Lake Huron.

2.2 Geology

The near-surface geologic deposits in the Saginaw Lowland are regarded as two units throughout this study. These units are referred to as "drift", corresponding to unconsolidated deposits of primarily glacial origin, and "bedrock", corresponding to the shallow bedrock formations which underlie the unconsolidated deposits or drift.

The topography of the Saginaw Lowland is characterized by level plains of lacustrine clay and gently rolling hills of ancient sand bars, beaches and moraines (Leverett and Taylor, 1915; Pringle, 1937; Vanlier, 1963).

Figure 1.1 illustrates the generalized surficial geology of the Great Lakes region. The lacustrine deposits denoted in Figure 1.1, which include the Saginaw Lowland, are known to produce saline ground water (Lane, 1899 a;



Lane, 1899 b; Twenter, 1987). The predominance of clay in regional glacial geology is illustrated in stratigraphic cross section A-A' (Figure 2.1), stratigraphic cross section B-B' (Figure 2.2) and stratigraphic cross section C-C' (Figure 2.3). The drift is primarily composed of clay-rich layers of great thicknesses. The well logs on which these cross-sections are based are provided in Appendix A. The locations of the stratigraphic cross sections are shown in Figure 2.4.

2.2.1 Geology of the Glacial Deposits

The drift has a thickness of up to 170 meters in western Gratiot County (Vanlier, 1963) but is not present in portions of northeastern Arenac County (Pringle, 1937). The drift is described as a sequence of stratigraphic units (Vanlier, 1963; Stark and McDonald, 1980; Dow Chemical Company, 1986). These units include a shallow (surficial) sand, glaciolacustrine deposits of clay and sand, a glacial till (morainal or till plain), and an aquifer (primarily sand and gravel outwash) lying in bedrock valleys. The regional stratigraphy of the drift is highly variable.

Thicker drift deposits may lie in buried erosional bedrock valleys with reliefs of 30 to 60 meters in which unconsolidated drift material has been deposited (Rhodehamel, 1951; Twenter and Cummings, 1985). The buried bedrock valleys trend northeast to northwest in Bay County



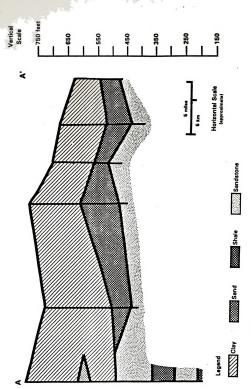
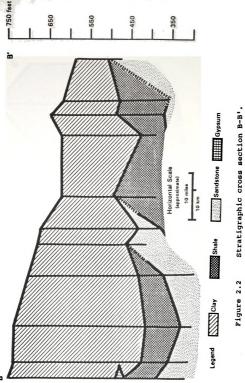


Figure 2.1 Stratigraphic cross section A-A'.



Vertical Scale





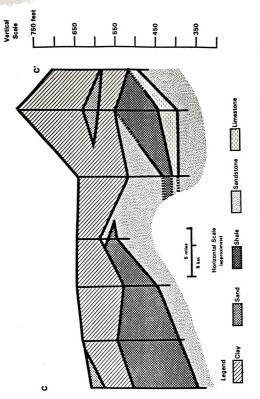
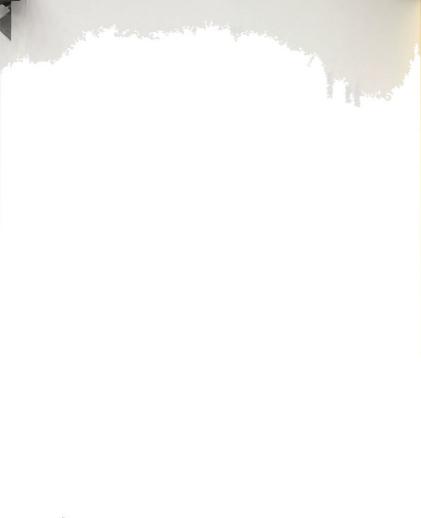


Figure 2.3 Stratigraphic cross section C-C'.



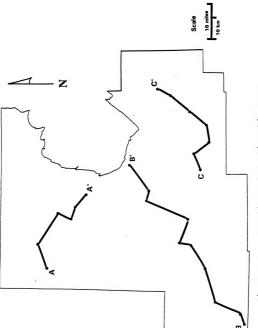


Figure 2.4 Locations of stratigraphic cross sections.



(Twenter and Cummings, 1985). In Bay County, the basal water-bearing formation, which lies below the glacial till, reaches 40 meters in thickness in bedrock valleys and is thinner where the bedrock surface is topographically high (Stark and McDonald, 1980).

The composition of the drift, although variable, is primarily composed of illite, kaolinite, chlorite, quartz, feldspar (unspecified), calcite and dolomite (Chittrayanont, 1978). In Bay County the water-bearing formations lying beneath the glacial till consist of poorly-sorted coarse sand, gravel and pebbles with some silt and clay. The sand is quartzose and the gravel consists of sandstone, carbonates, quartzite, chert, and igneous and metamorphic rocks (Stark and McDonald, 1980).

The origin of the drift deposits is primarily the result of glacial processes during the Pleistocene age (Vanlier, 1963; Stark and McDonald, 1980). The lithologic description of glacial till in the drift includes unsorted clay, silt, sand, gravel, cobbles and boulders (Dow Chemical Company, 1986). The glacial till is sometimes referred to as heavy boulder clay, according to Pringle (1937) and Vanlier (1963). Lenses of well-sorted sand and gravel, which are found in the glacial till, originated by glacial meltwater deposition. Lacustrine clays, deltaic deposits, channel deposits, and beach and dune sands are also present in the drift (Vanlier, 1963; Dow Chemical Company, 1986).

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The glacial till was deposited as moraines in Arenac, Tuscola, western Gratiot and northwestern Gladwin counties. In some portions of the Saginaw Lowland, glacial till was deposited subaqueously. Some moraines have distinctive reliefs (up to 60 meters in height). Other moraines have slight relief (Leverett and Taylor, 1915; Pringle, 1937; Vanlier, 1963). The moraines were laid in belts which parallel the Saginaw Bay shoreline, as shown in the generalized map of surficial geology (Figure 1.1).

The moraines are paralleled by plains of sand and clay, which range from 15 to 30 meters in thickness (Leverett and Taylor, 1915; Pringle, 1937). The sand is typically well-rounded, sorted and quartzose, with a thickness of zero to six meters. The sand was typically deposited in a near-shore environment in proglacial lakes. The clay was typically deposited in glacial lakes and composed of mostly heavy blue clay and silt with some sand, gravel, hardpan (a clay and gravel mix) and pebbles of primarily quartzite, sandstone, siltstone, mafic igneous rocks, granite and carbonates (Pringle, 1937; Stark and McDonald, 1980).

2.2.2 Geology of the Bedrock Deposits

The drift lies on top of bedrock formations of the Michigan basin. The Michigan basin is a structural basin, consisting of layers of Paleozoic and younger sedimentary rocks, underlain by Precambrian crystalline rock (see Figure



1.2 for generalized bedrock geology). Regional dip is generally southwestward into the basin, with a northwest-southeast strike (Martin, 1958). Smaller scale folds trending northwest-southeast are found in Arenac County (Pringle, 1937) and most likely occur elsewhere in the study area. Kelly (1936) believed that a bedrock low approximately parallel to the axis of Saginaw Bay is evidenced in the Pennsylvanian Saginaw Formation. Kelly postulated that this generally supports the idea of post-Devonian folding which differs in trend from that of pre-Devonian time (Newcombe, 1932).

The Saginaw Lowland was developed primarily on the erosional surface of the underlying Pennsylvanian Saginaw Formation. Vanlier (1963) and Rhodehamel (1951) suggest that the Saginaw Lowland was base leveled due to the high resistance of the surrounding sandstone members of the Saginaw Formation and the low resistance of local shale members of the Saginaw Formation, which is predominantly shale. The neighboring bedrock uplands received thick glacial deposits due to the convergence of the Saginaw and Erie ice lobes, forming the Michigan-Saginaw and Huron-Saginaw Uplands as a result (Leverett and Taylor, 1915; Western Michigan University, 1981). Martin (1958) supports this, stating that the central lowland (which includes the Saginaw Lowland) falls between the highlands of the northcentral southern peninsula and the highland extending from

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the Thumb area to the south-central southern peninsula. The topography of the drift is similar to the bedrock topography on a large scale.

The youngest bedrock underlying portions the drift is referred to as "red beds", which consist of sandy gypsiferous shale and shaley sandstone with an erosional upper surface. Western Michigan University (1981) states that the red beds are of Jurassic age. The red beds have been completely removed by erosion in major pre-Pleistocene valleys (Vanlier, 1963). The red beds are found in northwestern Gladwin, western Midland and southern Gratiot Counties (Martin, 1936). The red beds are approximately ten meters thick and yield little water (Vanlier, 1963).

The major Pennsylvanian formation is the Saginaw Formation. This is the primary formation upon which the drift was deposited. The Saginaw Formation crops out in Arenac, Saginaw and Tuscola counties and underlies all of the region except northeastern Arenac County, where it is absent. The Saginaw Formation consists of lenticular beds of sandstone, shale, coal and limestone (Martin, 1936). The Saginaw Formation has a basin-wide thickness ranging from 0 to at least 163 meters with an average thickness of at least 122 meters (Kelly, 1936). In the Saginaw Lowland, the Saginaw Formation is composed primarily of shale, as shown in stratigraphic cross-sections A-A' (Figure 2.1), B-B'



(Figure 2.2) and C-C' (Figure 2.3). The locations of the stratigraphic cross sections are shown in Figure 2.4.

Within the Saginaw Lowland, the Saginaw Formation is noted for bituminous coal deposits which were mined in the region from the mid-1800's to 1950 (Cohee et al., 1950; Stark and McDonald, 1980). In Arenac County, the sandstone of the Saginaw Formation is grey and micaceous; and the shale is gray-black and carbonaceous. Marcasite and clayiron stone concretions with sphalerite are common (Pringle, 1937). Zircon and tourmaline are found in white Saginaw sandstone of Arenac County (Kelly, 1936).

Although bedrock geology in the Saginaw Lowland is variable, Stark and McDonald (1980) define four bedrock units within the Saginaw Formation of Bay County. The deepest of these units is a fine-grained, quartzose, well-sorted and well-rounded sandstone of variable thickness, with some thin shale beds. This layer is overlain by a shale unit, consisting of thin beds of shaley quartz-rich sandstone, with some limestone. This shale unit averages 10 meters in thickness. On top of the shale unit is a coal unit of 0.5 meters average thickness. The uppermost bedrock unit is another shale unit, consisting of thin coal seams, quartzose sandstone, and mudstone and siltstone beds. The upper shale unit averages 15 meters in thickness (Stark and McDonald, 1980).



Unconformably underlying the Saginaw Formation are the Mississippian Bayport and Michigan Formations, respectively. The Bayport Formation consists of limestone, dolomite and calcareous or argillaceous sandstone. It crops out in Arenac and Saginaw Counties, and ranges in thickness from 12 to 30 meters basin-wide (Martin, 1936; Pringle, 1937).

The Michigan Formation is composed primarily of sandstone and shale with beds of gypsum and anhydrite underlain by dolomitic limestone. The formation crops out in Arenac County and has been mined for gypsum. The thickness of the Michigan Formation ranges from 0 to 152 meters basin-wide (Martin 1936; Pringle, 1937; Martin, 1958). Formations deeper than the Michigan Formation were not investigated in this study.

2.3 Hydrogeology

The drift and bedrock can each be characterized as aquitards encompassing discontinuous aquifers. The drift aquitards are composed of thick sequences of lacustrine clay and argillaceous till. The bedrock aquitards are composed of shale. Stratigraphic cross sections A-A' (Figure 2.1), B-B' (Figure 2.2) and C-C' (Figure 2.3) illustrate this. The locations of the stratigraphic cross sections are shown in Figure 2.4. In the drift, the discontinuous aquifers are composed of isolated water-bearing sand and gravel lenses within the glaciolacustrine clay and clay-rich till; and of



sand and gravel outwash deposits (found at the base of the till) (Vanlier, 1963; Chittrayanont, 1978). Although the drift and bedrock are each characterized as aquitards, there are chemical and isotopic differences between the two units. These differences will be discussed in detail in subsequent sections.

The ground water derived from the drift and bedrock in the Saginaw Lowland is noted for its salinity (Lane, 1899 a; Lane 1899 b; Vanlier, 1963; Twenter, 1987). Figure 2.5 and Figure 2.6 illustrate the regional distribution of chloride concentrations in ground water derived from these deposits. High chloride concentrations are common in ground water derived from both drift and bedrock deposits in Saginaw Lowland (see Figure 2.5 and Figure 2.6).

The Saginaw Lowland is noted for its artesian saline springs (Lane, 1899 a; Lane, 1899 b; Houghton, 1928; Martin, 1958); while the lower bedrock deposits in the region are noted for their brine content (Vanlier, 1963; Western Michigan University, 1981). Bedrock deposits located deeper within the Michigan basin produce brines concentrated to an unusually high degree (Case, 1945; Egleson and Querio, 1969; Sorenson and Segall, 1975). The deeper bedrock formations are also sources of oil and gas (Vanlier, 1963).

Regional water table elevations are shown on a contour map (Figure 2.7) which is derived from a map by Mandle

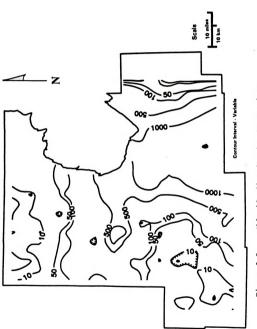
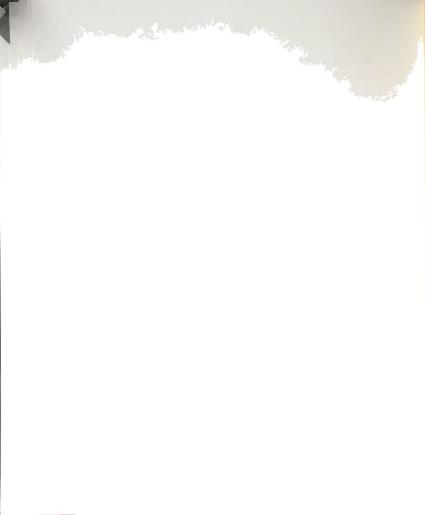


Figure 2.5 Chloride distribution in the drift deposits of the Saginaw Lowland.



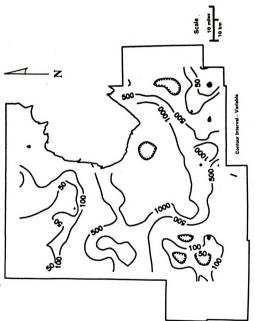
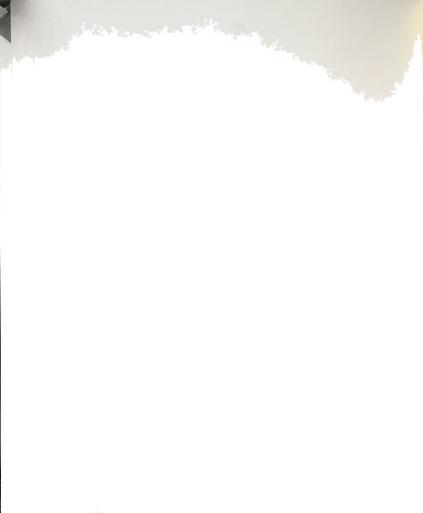


Figure 2.6 Chloride distribution in the bedrock deposits of the Saginaw Lowland.



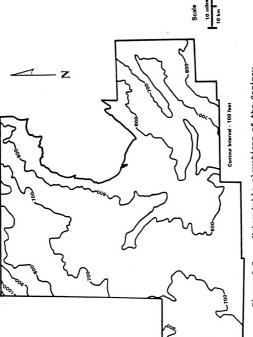
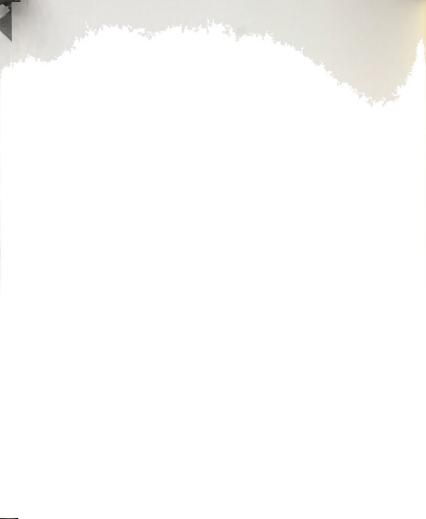


Figure 2.7 Water table elevations of the Saginaw Lowland.



(1989). Elevations are based on water level measurements taken in water wells as recorded by well drillers. The measurements are reported on well logs dated 1969 through 1975. Figure 2.7 accounts for the influence of surface—water levels from major inland lakes and streams and the Great Lakes. Additionally, Figure 2.7 reflects the influence of topography and major stream systems on the water table.

The water-bearing formations of the lower units in the drift and of the underlying bedrock are hydrologically confined (Vanlier, 1963; Stark and McDonald, 1980; Dow Chemical Company, 1986). Water levels in the confined formations average 10 meters below land surface (Stark and McDonald, 1980).

Figure 2.8 is a contour map of the potentiometric surface of the confined portions of the drift. Figure 2.9 is a contour map of the potentiometric surface of the confined portions of the bedrock. These maps are based on water level measurements as reported on well logs which have been density-corrected. Water level measurements reported on well logs for all drift wells sampled were used and are provided in Appendix B. Water level measurements reported on Well logs for all bedrock wells sampled were used and are provided in Appendix C. Water level measurements reported on additional wells logs, which were not sampled, were

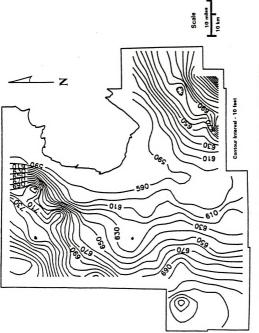
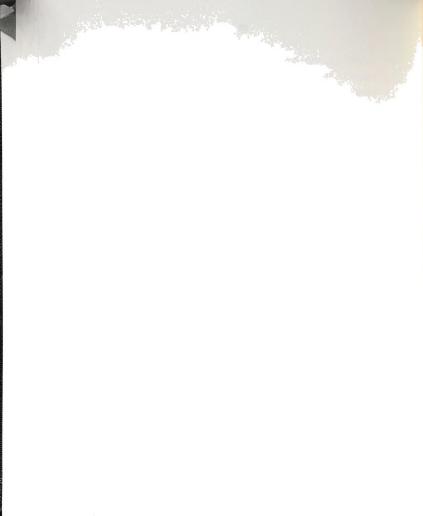


Figure 2.8

Potentiometric surface of the drift deposits of the Saginaw Lowland.



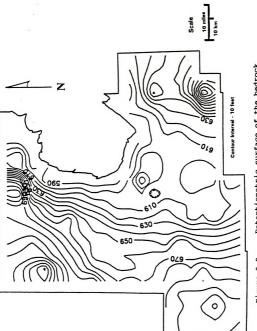


Figure 2.9 Potentiometric surface of the bedrock deposits of the Saginaw Lowland.



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selected at random to increase the density of data points for construction of Figure 2.8. These well logs are provided in Appendix D.

The density of highly saline ground water in a well may affect its hydraulic head and the interpretation of piezometric potential in a well (Long et al., 1986).

Because ground water in the Saginaw Lowland is highly saline, a series of equations described by Gudramovics (1981) was used to calculate water density, accounting for variability due to temperature and salinity. Water level measurements for piezometric surface interpretations in the Saginaw Lowland were then adjusted using the calculated water density.

A description of the calculations used to adjust water levels according to water density follows. At a constant temperature, the relationship between density and salinity is linear. Salinity was estimated from the chloride concentration by Equation 1 (Schopf, 1980) as follows:

Salinity (0/00) = 1.80655 * (Cl (0/00)).

To calculate the density of water at the measured temperature in a well, the value of the y-intercept and slope was calculated. The y-intercept (density of pure water at a specified temperature) at a temperature (T) was calculated by Equation 2 (Weast, 1979) as follows:

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y-intercept = [999.83952 + (16.945176*T) (7.9870401*10-3*T2) - (46.170461*10-6*T3) +
(105.56302*10-9*T4) - (280.54253*10-12*T5)]/{[1 +
(0.01687985*T)]*1000}.

The slope for the specified temperature was calculated by Equation 3 (Horne, 1969) as follows:

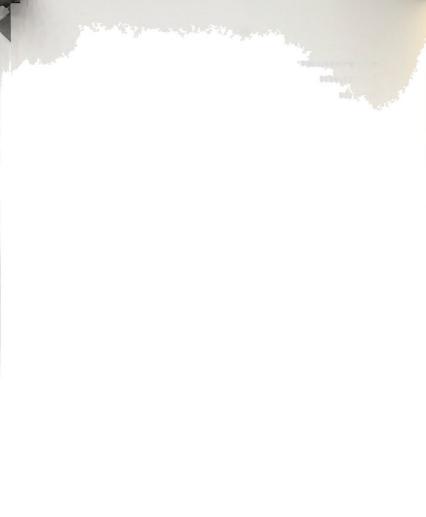
slope = 8.300245*10-4 - 2.2274915*10-5 * ln T.

After calculations were completed for salinity, yintercept and slope for a water sample at the temperature at
which it was sampled, the density of the water was
calculated by Equation 4 as follows:

density = (salinity * slope) + y-intercept.

The density for each ground-water sample was calculated using Equations 1 through 4. The density was then multiplied by static water level elevations, resulting in piezometric surface elevations which were contoured as shown in Figure 2.8 and in Figure 2.9. The maps were contoured using Surfer $^{\text{TM}}$ (Golden Software).

Each of the water level contour maps (water table, Figure 2.7; and piezometric surfaces, Figure 2.8 and Figure 2.9) indicate that within the Saginaw Lowland, the horizontal component of ground-water flow is towards Saginaw Bay.



The vertical component of ground-water flow is indicated by a residual potentiometric surface map (Figure 2.10) (see also Thorstenson and Fisher, 1979 and Long et al., 1988). The residual potentiometric surface map is the result of subtracting the potentiometric surface of the drift from the potentiometric surface of the bedrock. A positive value of residual potentiometric surface results when the potentiometric surface of the bedrock is greater than that of the drift. Figure 2.10 indicates that ground water discharges from the bedrock into the drift in much of the Saginaw Lowland. Potentiometric surfaces are generally greater (higher) in the bedrock wells than in the drift wells. Additional evidence that ground water tends to discharge from the deeper units into the shallower units is that artesian flowing bedrock wells have been reported throughout the region from as long ago as 1899 (Lane a and b) and 1906 (Cooper, 1906).

A horizontal hydraulic gradient can be estimated by observing the vertical change in water level elevation over a specific horizontal distance using Figure 2.7, Figure 2.8 and Figure 2.9. Horizontal hydraulic gradients are estimated to be 0.0001 to 0.006. The horizontal hydraulic gradient decreases in the direction of ground water flow (Chittrayanont, 1978; Stark and McDonald, 1980). Horizontal ground water flow is towards Lake Huron, and locally towards streams and drains. Stark and McDonald (1980) analyzed

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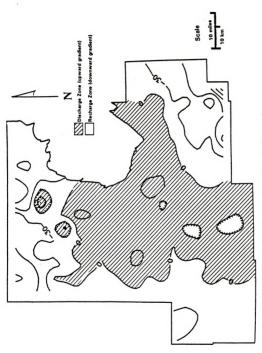


Figure 2.10 Residual potentiometric surface.



potentiometric head data from Bay County which indicated a horizontal hydraulic gradient of 0.003. The horizontal hydraulic gradient in Bay County was reported as less than 0.0005 to less than 0.002 by Long et al. (1988). These values for horizontal hydraulic gradients support the statement that the Saginaw Lowland is poorly drained (Stark and McDonald, 1980). The local vertical hydraulic gradient in Bay County had a downward component of 0.03 (Stark and McDonald, 1980).

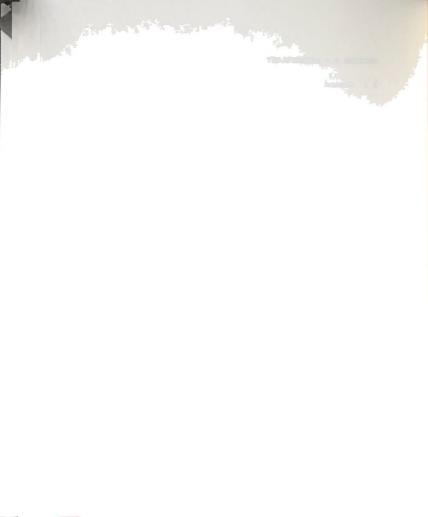


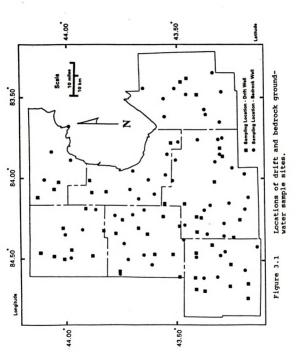
SECTION 3 - METHODOLOGY

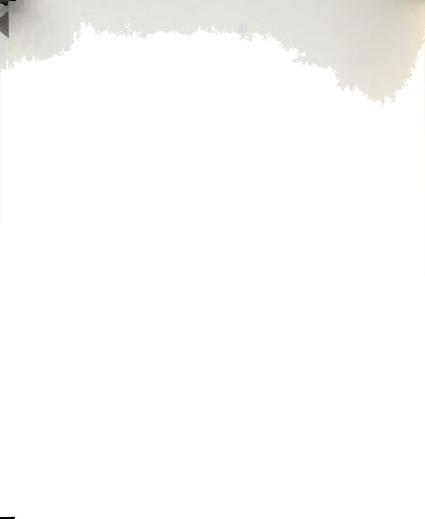
3.1 Ground-Water Sampling Sites

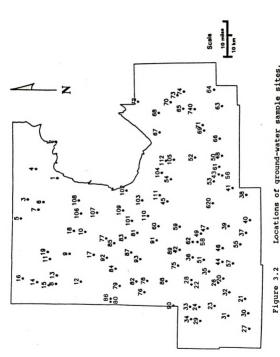
Ground-water samples were collected from 96 domestic and municipal wells during the summer of 1986. Forty-one of these samples were taken from wells which derive water from drift deposits, referred to as drift wells. Fifty-five samples were obtained from wells which derive water from bedrock deposits, referred to as bedrock wells. The locations of ground-water sampling points (sampled wells) distinguished as drift or bedrock wells are shown in Figure 3.1. The locations of the ground-water sampling points distinguished by study identification number are shown in Figure 3.2. Well logs for all drift wells sampled are provided in Appendix B. Well logs for all bedrock wells sampled are provided in Appendix C.

Sample sites were selected on the basis of two primary factors: (1) type of deposit the well was screened or completed in; and (2) location of the well. A well was sampled depending on the type of deposit from which water was derived (drift or bedrock). Locations of sample sites were selected to obtain a relatively even distribution of sample points. Geochemical data from nine wells reported Long et al. (1986) for Bay County were added to the data set, with selection based on location and type of deposits from which water was derived.

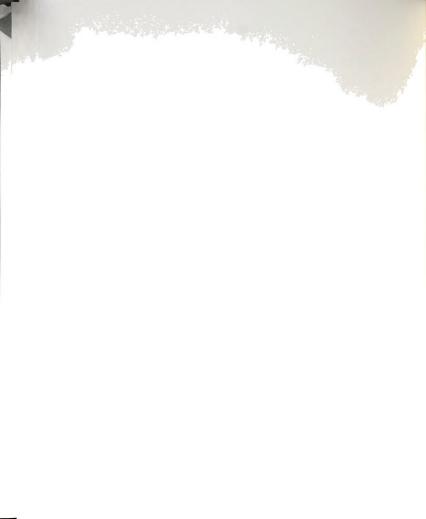








3.2 Locations of ground-water sample sites, with site numbers.



3.2 Sample Collection

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Wells were pumped and field measurements and water samples were taken after constant water temperature was detected (approximately twenty minutes). Care was taken to avoid the influence of any water treatment on the samples. Field measurements and sample collection were performed according to standard techniques of the United States Geological Survey (U.S.G.S.) as described in Skougstad et al. (1985). Sample bottles were shipped on ice daily by air freight to the U.S.G.S. Laboratory in Denver, Colorado for chemical analysis.

The field measurements taken were specific conductance, temperature, pH, dissolved oxygen content and alkalinity. Specific conductance and temperature were recorded using a YSI Model 33 S-C-T meter. Specific conductance values were corrected for temperature by a correction factor equal to $1/\{1 + [.02 \text{ (temperature - 25)]}\}$. The pH was measured with a Beckman Model Φ 21 pH meter.

Dissolved oxygen was measured at the sampling location with a Hach chemical kit and digital titrator, using an azide modification of the Winkler method. A sample was collected by running a hose directly into a biochemical oxygen demand (BOD) bottle. Care was taken to ensure no air bubbles came through the hose. The bottle was immersed in



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water while being allowed to overflow about three times its volume. The bottle was then glass-stoppered.

A premeasured amount of manganous sulfate powder and alkaline iodide azide reagent were added to the BOD bottle. The mixture formed a flocculate precipitate. When this precipitate settled, a premeasured amount of sulfamic acid powder was added. This caused the floc to dissolve, resulting in a yellow colored solution. Two hundred milliliters of the yellow solution were measured into a beaker. Two milliliters of starch indicator solution was added to the beaker, causing a blue color to develop. A Hach digital titrator was used to titrate the blue solution with 0.200 N sodium thiosulfate. Titration was complete upon reaching a colorless solution. The dissolved oxygen value in mg/L oxygen was read directly from the Hach digital titrator, based on the strength of the sodium thiosulfate. the amount of water titrated, and the amount of sodium thiosulfate released with each rotation of the titrator.

Alkalinity was measured at the sampling location. The determination of alkalinity as calcium carbonate was performed on one hundred milliliters of unfiltered ground water which was collected in a beaker. A Hach digital titrator was used to titrate the water with 1.6 normal sulfuric acid. Titration was complete upon reaching the calcium bicarbonate titration endpoint (approximately 4.5 pH), where all solutes contributing to alkalinity had

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reacted with the sulfuric acid (Hem, 1985). The alkalinity value in mg/L calcium carbonate was read directly from the Hach digital titrator, based on the strength of the sulfuric acid, the amount of water titrated, and the amount of acid released with each rotation of the titrator.

Six sample bottles were filled for laboratory analyses at each sampling site, because the various chemical constituents to be measured required different collection, preservation and analytical techniques, and large sample volumes were needed. All sample bottles were acid-washed and rinsed with distilled water. Additional sample bottles were filled for isotopic analyses, as will be discussed later.

Four of the six sample bottles collected for chemical analyses were filled with water filtered with a Geotech backflushing filter assembly. The nitrocellulose filter membrane was 142 millimeters in diameter with a pore size of 0.45 micrometers. The four sample bottle types, constituents analyzed and preservation techniques are listed below:

(1) A one-liter acid-washed white plastic high density polyethylene (HDPE) bottle was used to collect a sample for the analysis of dissolved calcium, dissolved magnesium, dissolved sodium, dissolved potassium, dissolved iron, dissolved lithium, dissolved manganese, dissolved strontium,



aluminum, arsenic, and zinc. This sample was preserved with two milliliters of nitric acid.

- (2) A one-liter white plastic bottle (HDPE) was used to collect a sample for the analyses of dissolved sulfate, dissolved chloride, dissolved fluoride, dissolved solids, dissolved silica, dissolved boron, and dissolved bromide. This sample did not require preservation.
- (3) A two-hundred milliliter brown plastic bottle (HDPE) was used to collect a sample for the measurement of dissolved nitrite and nitrate nitrogen. This sample was chilled on ice.
- (4) A two-hundred and fifty milliliter brown plastic bottle (HDPE) was used to collect a sample for the measurement of dissolved ammonia nitrogen. This sample was preserved with 13 milligrams of mercuric chloride and chilled on ice.

At each sample location, a fifth sample bottle was filled with water which had been filtered with a Gelman stainless steel filter assembly. The 45 millimeter diameter filter paper was silver-coated. A 125 milliliter glass bottle was used to collect a sample for analysis of dissolved organic carbon content. This sample was chilled on ice.

senting politicals restricted one A sixth sample collected at each sampling location was not filtered. A 250 milliliter white plastic bottle (HDPE) was used to collect a sample for analysis of total sulfide. Zinc acetate (0.5 grams) was added to each bottle as a preservative.

Additional samples for analysis of stable isotopes of oxygen, deuterium and carbon were collected at the same time as the other samples. Oxygen and deuterium isotope samples were collected, without filtering, in 125 milliliter glass bottles, and were preserved with 26 milligrams of mercuric chloride. Stable carbon isotope samples were collected, without filtering, in one-liter glass bottles, with the addition of 50 milliliters of ammoniacal strontium chloride as a preservative.

3.3 Analytic Techniques

All chemical parameters were measured according to the standard methods chemical analysis of the U.S.G.S. as described in Skougstad et al. (1985) and summarized on Table 3.1.

Oxygen and deuterium isotope samples were analyzed at the U.S.G.S. Reston Stable Isotope Laboratory in Reston, Virginia. The analytic techniques for analyses of oxygen isotopic ratios included equilibration with carbon dioxide, with a modification of the analytic technique of Epstein and Mayeda (1953). Deuterium analyses were performed with a



Table 3.1 Parameters and methods of chemical analysis.

Parameter

Analytic Method

Alkalinity, as CaCO₃ Aluminum Dissolved

Arsenic, Dissolved

Boron, Dissolved Bromide Dissolved

Calcium, Dissolved Chloride, Dissolved

Fluoride, Dissolved Hardness Hardness.Noncarbonated Iron, Dissolved Lithium, Dissolved Magnesium, Dissolved Manganese, Dissolved Nitrogen, Nitrite plus Nitrate, Dissolved

Nitrogen, Ammonia, Dissolved Nitrogen, Ammonia, Total Oxygen, Dissolved рH Potassium, Dissolved Silica, Dissolved Sodium, Absorption Ratio Sodium, Dissolved Sodium, Percent Solids, Residual Dissolved Solids, Dissolved on Evaporation Specific Conductance Strontium, Dissolved Sulfate, Turbidimetric Dissolved Sulfide, Total Zinc. Dissolved

Electrometric Titration

Chelation-Extraction Atomic Absorption. Spectrometric

Hydride Atomic Absorption, Spectrometric, Automated

DC Plasma Atomic Emission Spectrometric Ion Exchange, Chromatographic-Electrochemical,

Automated

Direct Atomic Absorption, Spectrometric Ferric Thiocyanate, Colorimetric, Automated-

Ion-Selective Electrode, Electrometric, Automated

Calculation

Calculation

Direct Atomic Absorption, Spectrometric

Direct Atomic Absorption, Spectrometric

Direct Atomic Absorption, Spectrometric

Direct Atomic Absorption, Spectrometric

Cadmium Reduction-Diazotization, Colorimetric,

Indophenol Colorimetric, Automated

Indophenol, Colorimetric, Automated

Winkler Method Titrimetric Glass Electrode, Electrometric

Automated-Segmented Flow

Direct Atomic Absorption, Spectrometric Molybdate Blue, Colorimetric, Automated

Calculation Direct Atomic Absorption, Spectrometric

Calculation

Gravimetric, Residue on Evaporation at 180 C Electrometric, Wheatstone Bridge Direct Atomic Absorption, Spectrometric

Barium Sulfate, Turbidimetric, Automated-discrete Iodometric, Titrimetric

Direct Atomic Absorption, Spectrometric



semi-automatic mass spectrometer after reaction with zinc according to the techniques of Kendall and Coplen (1985). Oxygen and deuterium isotopic ratio values are reported as del values, relative to values of standard mean ocean water (SMOW) (Craig, 1961 b). Analytic precision for oxygen is +0.15 o/oo and deuterium isotopic analyses are and + 2.0 o/oo, respectively.

Carbon-13 samples were analyzed at Global Geochemistry of Los Angeles, California. The analyses employed a nuclide mass spectrometer to measure the carbon-13 to carbon-12 ratio on carbon dioxide generated from a strontium carbonate precipitate, according to a modification of the technique of McCree (1950). Analytic precision for del carbon-13 values is +2.0 o/oo, relative to the PDB standard which has an assigned del carbon-13 value of 0 o/oo.

3.4 Data Reduction

The methodology for chemical data reduction included statistical, graphical and computer modeling techniques. The statistical data reduction technique of Student's t-Tests is described and the results of this technique are discussed in Section 4.1.1. The multivariate statistical data reduction techniques are described and the results of these techniques are discussed in Section 4.1.2. The graphical data reduction techniques are described and the



results are discussed in Section 4.1.3. The computer modeling techniques are described and the results are discussed in Section 4.1.4.

4.1 Chemical Characterization

The results of chemical analyses of ground-water samples collected from the drift are summarized in Table 4.1. The results of chemical analyses of ground-water samples collected from the wells screened within the bedrock are summarized in Table 4.2. The techniques and results of data reduction, which included statistical (Student's t-Tests and multivariate factor analysis), graphical and computer modeling techniques, are discussed below.

4.1.1 Student's t-Tests for Comparison of Drift and Bedrock Geochemistry

Student's t-Tests were used to compare ground-water geochemistry of drift and bedrock for selected chemical parameters, to test for statistically significant differences in values between the drift and bedrock ground water. The t-tests were run with two different sets of equations, including the Cochran's Approximation to the Behrens-Fisher Student's t-Test (U.S. EPA, 1987) and Pooled Variance, which assumes that the populations have equal variances. Both sets of equations produced the same results with the Saginaw Lowland geochemical data. The population was defined as the concentrations of a chemical parameter in either drift or bedrock ground water samples. Each individual t-test for a given population was performed at



	_	Т								-	Dissolved	-							
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25.0		5 4			2.5	2 5	0 0	240	25.0	130		. 8	9 6	200	17	33	98	0.25	
849	_	.71.6			104	410	0	290	0.026	240		-	4	1400		99	64	0.92	
322	842911	.67.5			249	< 10	16	80	0.020	58	1.5	-	9.0	280	0	29		<0.05	
934		-66.5			343	× 10	2	9	0.018	82	1.2	8	0.3	46	6	3	130	0.81	
9650		.70	10.4		214	× 10	2	4	0.017	56	1.5	-	0.3	650	9	16	32	<0.05	
34945	_	-64.5			141	< 10	9	230	0.31	9	1.6	140	-	380	18	22	7	0.58	
35447	_	-61.5			192	× 10	2	280	< 0.010	06	2.5	7	1.2	8	18	28	19	0.45	
40106	_	-70.5			142	or >	7	× 10	< 0.010	29	2.0	7	0.2	4	9	7	27	90.0	
31029	_	99-			281	× 10	13	20	0.045	97	2.1	15	4.0	950	Ξ	32	2	0.17	
32441	_	-63.5		-14.00	325	× 10	14	8	0.022	64	2.0	4	0.7	730	13	24	2	0.35	
32219	_	-65			288	× 10	4	8	0.024	110	1.2	9	4.0	1700	12	27	44	0.43	
31032	_	-64.5			337	× 10	4	20	0.013	65	1.2	-	4.0	230	13	28	96	0.19	
31523	_	-65		-12.40	175	× 10	6	180	0.027	15	3.0	6	-	4	9	10	9	0.31	
31513	843126				173	× 10	2	180	0.043	260	2.5	3	9.0	3000	31	38	67	0.50	
32445		-66			227	× 10	V	170	0.12	110	1.4	9	0.4	790	20	29	54	0.42	
132430	_	-64.5			315	× 10	12	30	0.032	74	1.2	9	0.7	790	12	25		0.15	
132022	_	-62.0			240	× 10	4	190	<0.010	43	2.7	9	0.8	670	12	20		0.53	
131252	۳	-78			184	× 10	8	420	2.0	100	1.6	280	9.0	900	8	63		0.83	
1737	_	-82.5	-11.9	-14.30	104	9	=	100	7.1	320	0.3	3800	9.0	2400	8	8	120	3.4	
31437	_	-66.5		_	287	ot >	9	180	0.038	49	2.2	8	0.8	480	13	13		0.44	
132326	_	-62.0	-9.3		241	, 10	4	130	<0.010	99	6.0	7	9.0	620	=	16		0.48	
132756	840920	-71.0			234	×10	10	240	0.16	37	2.5	5	0.7	280		52		0.52	
31824	834845	-62.5			392	~10	7	330	0.38	87	6.3	380	0.7	870	22	18	120	0.36	
32437	841408	-66.9			224	v 10	9	230	0.081	48	1.5	45	9.0	330	2	18		0.31	
31945	840108	-60.5													-			-	-
32857	832435	-69.5		_	279		12	999	0.023	78	1.2	1	=	920	Ξ	26	2	0.41	0.53
32724	832312	-64.5		-13.60	263		17	330	<0.010	38		-	=	320	_	16	=	0.27	0.3
32433	832915	99			301	-		i		-					,	-		-	
33220	842806	-56.5			365	20	V	2	0.32	150		89	0.5	=	0	8	83	0.09	_
34431	841519	-82.5			194	0 V	1	290	0.17	130		12	-	98	9	38	¥	1.2	
34521	843432	-67.5			220	0 V	6	50	0.18	80		46		52	0	22	8	90.0	_
34012	841833	-72			213	×	~	930	3.6	4	_	2100	0.5	20	70	4	\$	1.5	
33106	842759	-76.5			152	×	~	140	0.040	31		4	9.0	8	_	7	9	0.53	_
132911	841729	-60.5		-14.20	271	×	4	2	0.016	58		6	0.5	890	8	5		0.26	_
32906	843626	-65.0			262	×10	~	8	0.14	110		37	0.5	290	16	32	•	0.39	_
133340	841407	-66.5			141	~10	ī	× 10	< 0.010	42	6.0	9	0.2	840	10	9	58	0.23	0.30
34619	842020	-97	-13.9		49	×10	7	330	0.18	430		47	0.8	1500	20	5	_	=	
33749	842035	-98	-		218	1 0	-	180	0.018	51		9	0.9	760	7	18		0.52	_
34234	840405	-126.7	-17.14		162	×100	V		< 2.0	69		240	0.2	100		. 22			
3603	840538				278	19	~		< 2.0	77		420	0.4	20		24	_		2
33306	835949				290	100	V		4	79		1500	0	130		33	×10		4
1140	834644	8 211	15 64		140	3	, "		100	000		2	0 8	40		8	00		-
																	֡		



Site						Dealossio			a line		-			
	Latitude	Longitude	Oxygen	Ŧ	¥	Solide	SiO2	ž	Conductance (umhos/cm)	r (V	804	s	Temperature (degrees C)	5 Z
•	440738	840705	1.3	7.8	1.5	383	13	36	493	Ĺ	150	<0.5		=
9	440214	_	7.9	7.1	2.7	408	9.6	27	403		59	<0.5		=
7	440328	_		7.7	=	208	15	16	303		6	×0.5		=
12	435254	_	2.6	7.2	5.9	835	Ξ	110	887	1400	190	×0.5	10.0	
5	435849	_		7.7	3.6	1420	4	23	1580	_	790	<0.5		8
14	440322	842911	4	7.6	1.8	375	15	24	250	_	79	< 0.5		2
15	440034	843000	1.2	7.2	1.9	360	12	14	433		99	< 0.5		8
16	440650	_	1.2	7.6	Ξ	232	=	8	373		19	< 0.5		
17	434945	841928	1.5	7.8	2.3	909	12	110	917	_	160	< 0.5		_
18	435447	841112	4.1	7.7	2.1	676	13	72	918		360	<0.5		
6	440106	841829	6.	6.1	0.7	145	12	4	200		17	< 0.5	9.1	2
27	431029	844346	1.2	7.3	=	470	18	20	621		82	<0.5		
28	432441	_	2.1	7.5	1.4	325	18	25	499	870	32	<0.5		
58	432219	_	0.01	7.4	1.7	499	16	23	716		150	<0.5		
3	431032	_	90	7.4	1.3	294	19	12	463		8	<0.5		8
5	431523	_	4	8	1.5	184	=	45	280		7	<0.6		8
33	431513	_	0	7.4	-	1310	17	57	1390		740	<0.5		8
3 6	432445	_	0	7.5	1.7	624	1	8	931	_	240	<0.5	•	15
3 2	432430	_	0 0	7.4	-		20	-	495		6	<0.5		18
5 8	20000	_			2 0	375	9 9	**	104		9	200		
9 1	432022	_	7.0		9 1	250	2 5			•	9 9	,		•
20	431252	_	0 !	0.1	2 1	3	2 :	200	200		3 5			28
26	431/3/	_	9.0	1.5	9.0	/230	7	3	120021		420		12.0	_
2	431437	_	4.	1.7	4.	312	4	4	476	740	9		10.3	_
28	432326	_	6.	7.8	8.	313	17	5	472		6		0.5	3
29	432756	_	2.1	7.9	6.	448	12	94	713		19			
19	431824	_	E	7.3	5.6	1060	Ξ	280	1820	970	63	40.	14.3	4
62	432437	841408	6.0	7.6	2.3	460	4	67	8		2	< 0.5	_	
620	431945	840108												
73	432857	832435	0.3	7.6	2.2	471	14	44	415		170	<0.5	_	•
74	432724	832312		7.9	1.6	220	4	24	275	740	7	<0.5	_	33
740	432433	832915	1.3	7.4					245			1.2	_	
78	433550	842806	1.2	6.9	7.7	533	9.5	19	884	710	8	< 0.5		22
82	434431	841519	0.2	7.7	2.8	1030	13	110	1310		610	< 0.5		-
98	434521	843432	0.8	7.4	6.0	348	14	13	472		32	< 0.5		
87	434012	841833		7.7	6.3	3890	Ξ	1500	4790		290	< 0.5		
88	433106	842759	9	8.0	0.7	286	12	48	383		86	< 0.5	12.1	
88	432911	841729	0.5	7.5	1.7	227	16	17	410		4	< 0.5	_	
90	432906	843626		7.4	5.0	572	17	43	846	_	190	< 0.5	_	
6	433340	_	6.0	7.7	0.7	184	19	2	259		21	<0.5		
92	434619	842020		7.6	4.6	2800	Ξ	200	2160		1800	<0.5		
63	433749	842035		7.7	1.7	395	1	39	326		89	<0.5	_	
109	434234	_		7.67	4.10	4132	4.3	330	2900		96	×0.1	_	"
110	433603	840538		7.98	2.90	2828	5.5	300	1700		15	×0.1		"
Ξ	433306	835949		7.76	6.20	6325	6.3	800	3500		7	×0.1	13.9	230
112	433140			7.55	6.90	4917	6.1	670	2500		340	, 0.		



																			41	0																								1	
t L	0.76	0.63	0.61	1.4	1.2	0.52	0.59	0.46	0.45	2	0.36	0.19	000	0.88	0.49	0.48	3.3	0.54	2.0	0.75	0.73	1.3	0.59	1.4	0.46	0.21	0.10	1.2	1.7	0.61	0.59	0.41	0.50	64.0	1.0	0.77	0.15	1.7	0.59	0.7	4.4	<0.1	1.7		1
2	0.59	0.41	0.47	-	0.91	0.40	0.30	0.38	0.35	6	0.28	0.15	0.07	0.68	0.38	5.0	2.6	0.42	2.8	0.0	0.57	0.98	0.46	-	0.36	0.16	0.08	0.0	1.3	0.47	0.46	0.32	0.39	0.00	0.81	0.60	0.12	400	0.46	9.					
(I/Bn)	40	21	200	209	35	000	9	16	250	2	16	7		12	6	-	80	54	25	28	8	25	20	20	=8	66	23	39	30	20	10	10	7	4 5	4	59	200	200	10	20	20	× 10	20	22	8
2	35	23	28	40	13	16	45	32	23	5	19	23		12	10	200	69	29	940	ŧ u	23	18	24	8	74	27	34	134	14	99	20	20	4 5	36	32	18	27	9	-	889	20	73	27	34.5	Bo
(l/Bn)	60	19	9	40	53	22	23	36	e u	2	24	2	00	42	45	200	100	32	85	200	200	120	10	90	70	, u	53	20	8	040	12	16	5:	8	37	56	00	100	27	9				33	
	340										540		000	480	140		-	960			200	320	570	280	120	2400	200	390	190	100	200	220	390	38	790	9	88	200	840	2300	25	28	28	888	1/00
	0.0	0.6	0.6	0.0	0.7	4.0	000	0.2	9.0	;	9.0	0.4		0.0	0.5	0.0	000	0.5	0.0	000	-		0.0			0	0.8	0.6	0.7	4.0	10	0.9	7.7	0 0	0.4	0.3	0.5	00			4.0			900	
3	330	30	88	31	8	29	370	33	100	2007	6	49	:	280	180	330	2700	21	2400	660	670	2200	67	610	210	-	00	7 (7	2600	38	0	9	40	BBO	70	200	-5	1500	26	580	910	88	2200	188	36
Carbon	0.3	2.2	2.1	0.8	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.9	9.0	,	1.8	1.5		2.0	-	. 0	90	1.7	2.1	- 0	1.0	0.2	70 C	80	4.0	1.7		9.0	1.4		1.7	1.3	-:	9 0	1.3	1.2	2.3	90	5.5	0.2				17.	3.7
3	110	120	150	150	33	22	90	140	625	9	49	9	0	202	36	34	210	180	16	3 4	9	46	200	130	25	7.5	87	. G	47	36	4	54	9 9	170	110	92	72	240	19	37	76	170	68	88	240
ă	0.75			0.076				0.098			0.033	0.091	0000	0.86	0.50	5.0	200	0.063	9.0	20.0		2.8	9	1.2	0.37	0.020	0.023	0.0	3.8	0.56	0.018	0.12	0.13	9.0	0.17	0.44	0.00	000	0	900	100	, v	6	0.3	0.11
(/Bn)	3200	370	340	540	2100	360	340	180	88	8	170	80	000	670	850	96	1600	80	860	2000	850	4100	300																490				9	148	120
(/Bn)	7.	, ,	Ÿ	7	V	7;	7	V	9,	,	4	6	;	,	~	V 1	, 4	7	Ţ:	V	, ,	۲,	0 40	·	œ ;	9	=	7	7	7:	, 6	ī	۲.	7	7	۲	7,	7	, V	77	-;	7	۲.		-
(C0.)	۸ ۸ 0 0	v v	0 :	V V	V 10	200	V V	20	9	2	× 10	v 10		V V	× 10	0 0	7	9	9	200	0	210	200	v 10	200	,				6	101		0 9	2 5	4	× 10	000	,	.v	250	8:	-4	37	22:	9
CeC	191	292	242	150	165	171	230	195	324	00	281	281		270	341	246	185	201	279	267	308	288	312	368	247	335	348	207	358	214	193	291	188	280	205	221	292	142	179	181	185	388	245	206	
(00/0)	-13.1																2	13.1				-7.90								-1.3	14.10			41.60	3										harwise
(00/0)	10.8	0.0	10.0	11.3	14.4	-10.9	4.01	10.6																															12.5			6./1-			o see
	.73.5	-65.5	-67.5	200.0	-102.5	.74.0	80.0	-71.6	000	830	0	-65.5	9.09	65.0	-62.0	-62.5	89.0	-67.5	-111.0	0.00	-66.5	-96.5	65.5	-105.0	63.0	70.5	-72.0	619	-115.0	-108.0	-70.5	-67.5	9.8	0.00	.89.0	-77.0	-66.0	0.00	.87.0	-67.5		1.26.1			ad in mal
Longituda	835317	840028	835005	841909	841142	842102	842654	842859	843610	òà	õ		ã à	óœ	ø	œ e	òα	œ	œ,	ž d	834458	2	834531	834529	835342		832113	832903	833721	833049	832656	833438	832701	042234	841335	842928	843525	842808	841337	842409	835711	835050	834630	840508	840106
	435900	440555	440408	435541	435211	440028	431649	432433	431849	430757	431802	432431	431125	431542	431030	431457	431822	431714	433105	431/14	431735	432240	431851	432425	431939	431751	432017	432/33	433325	433336	433042	432229	433913	432700	434640	434258	434518	433850	434152	424404	434146	433732	432936	435301	
Site		_	_	_	_	-9	2:	. 2	0:	+ 4	9	9	-	00			٧.	4		9 10	. 80	6	0-	. 7	e .	. m	41		,	800	. 0	_	~ .	0 9	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	96	8



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Zn (ngu))	20	- 33	260	9	9	8	?	35	45	26	310	9	210	:	2	* a	Ē	89	190	380	88	26	200	38	36	310	88	30	2	9	22	99	88	28	86	o u	06	170	270	-;	9	8	9	210	38	360	8	8	96	290
Temperature (degrees C)	10.7	9.5	11.7	9.7	8.8	1.0	0.0		11.6	12.0	11.7	110	13.0		-	200	200	11.6	11.4	10.2	0.0	2.5	200	100		10.7	11.2	2.50		6.6	10.9	0.0		11.5	10.4	0.0	10.0	11.3	6.5	90	3.	1.4	10.8	10.0	9.5.0	10.0	14.8	17.3	- 5	11.5
ø	<0.5	0.0	200	40.5	<0.5	90.5	0.0	200	40.5	<0.5	<0.5	407	V 0.5		40.5	200	200	40.5	<0.5	<0.5	40.5	900	000	V 0.0	<0.5	<0.5	90.9	000	000	40.5	×0.5	0.0	000	<0.5	90.5	0.0	V V	<0.5	9.0	000	9 6	0.5	<0.5	40.5	000	0	0	40.1		
804	200	320	310	320	1200	530	3 5	25	400	69	66	S	35		*;	\$ 7	ď	4	690	480	52	98	35	260	62	85	230	3 =	25	54	16	77.	450	13	150	9 6	9	370	540	2,4	250	750	210	280	330	96	250	460	200	920
Sr (ng/l)	11000	98	9	2100	4300	260	36	38	1800	710	850	620	280		870	38	95	610	4900	800	8	35	200	88	1400	650	8	96	240	230	240	06/	929	8	9	38	740	3700	2000	200	28	3900	360	4600					38	36
Specific Conductance (umhos/cm)	2220	200	1080	828	2150	820	200	10101	1110	539	1920	818	635		542	1340	808	1110	9450	1250	2630	2120	2840	5550	740	688	2800	2300	426	343	418	312	2060	393	454	919	459	2950	1340	200	4660	4360	206	3000	2600	2800	1300	9600	976	1781
ž	370	230	9	24	380	120	60	88	9	33	140	2	200		35	25	2	220	1600	61	8	96	25	1600	39	67	999	9	8 "	9	120	- 25	88	88	22	9 9	22	200	98	2	9	880	150	8	200	900	26	1700	250	9.5
SiO2	6.2	==	2			9.9		2		16	4	**	4		12	000	0	9	9.6		6.6	0.0	9 6	9	18		9	- 0		12	7.4		9.9	13		9.0		7.3	7	=:	7.6	8	8.8	6.2	900	9 6	8	4.0	= 0	
Solide	1820	1020	838	648	1820	788	410	1330	814	350	1180	338	411		327	605	208	641	5230	959	4210	200	999	3870	454	448	2370	000	220	375	339	218	1370	339	372	410	286	2140	1060	466	797	3250	640	3450	4392	13115	2319	11350	290	1530
×		2.5										,	9						_		_	•																_	_	•	_	_		•	ø;	24	-			•
Ŧ	7.3	7.3	200	7.3	7.6	7.9	010	10	7.4	7.6	8.8		7.5		7.4	1.1	1	8	7.4	7.2	7.8	200	9.0	7.8	7.4	7.6	7.5		200	7.3	8.5	9.5	7.8	8.0	7.7		7.5	7.2	7.6	1.0	10	7.3	8.5	7.5	7.93	3.6	717	7.27	7.73	10.
Oxygen		9.0					90					00	2.4	10.0	=:	3.5		2.3	1.4	1.2	2.1	4.0	20-	-	1.5	1.6		- 0	90	0.1	0.3	900	5.0	-	2.9	4		3.8	1.5	0.0	-	-	1.6	1.1					200	000
Longitude	835317	834044	R35005	842934	841909	841142	842102	842004	842859	843610	843633	842503	841948	841115	835815	04030	835559	841710	835111	842108	840050	841624	834458	841140	834531	842026	834529	835342	832810	832113	832903	8333908	833049	833619	832656	833438	842234	843142	841335	842928	841148	842808	841337	842409	840633	840040	835050	834630	840528	840508
	435900	435930	44040B	435852	435541	435211	440028	431136	432433	431849	432242	430/5/	432431	431125	431130	431030	431457	432746	431822	431714	433105	431714	432103	432240	431851	432127	432425	431939	431751	432017	432733	431823	433320	432208	433042	432229	432758	433641	434640	434258	434518	433850	434152	424404	434007	433732	433236	432936	435301	436348
Site		~ ~	_	_	_	_	= 8	25	22	23	54	52	36	37	88	99	2	4	43	4	42	91	184	9 6	20	15	25	200	5 6	3	65	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	105	_	_

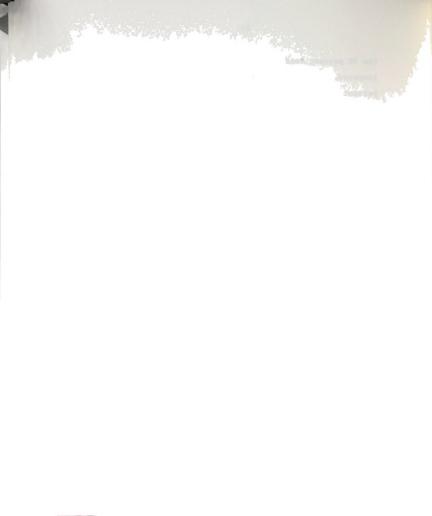


the 90 percent confidence level. When multiple t-tests are compared, the combined confidence level is less than 90 percent.

The Student's t-Tests compared the null hypothesis to an alternate hypothesis to determine if the data supplied significant evidence to reject the null hypothesis in favor of the alternate hypothesis. The null hypothesis, $\rm H_{O}$, states that the average value of the parameter in the ground water in the drift was equal to the average value in the ground water in the bedrock. The alternate hypothesis, $\rm H_{1}$, states that the average value of the parameter in the ground water in the drift was not equal to the average value in the ground water in the bedrock.

The results of this comparison are summarized in Table 4.3, along with the average values of the chemical parameters. The Student's t-Tests were run on log-normalized data. The data were found to be log-normally distributed as illustrated by frequency histograms of concentrations (Figure 4.1 through Figure 4.15).

As shown on Table 4.3, the results of the Student's t-Tests indicate no significant difference between the average values of calcium and magnesium concentrations, and the average values of alkalinity, pH, and temperature for the drift and bedrock. Significant differences occur, however, between average concentrations of sodium, potassium,



Comparison of Saginaw Lowland and Bay County drift and bedrock ground-water chemistries via the Student's t-Test. Test was conducted at the 90% confidence level, with the null hypothesis:Ho: difference = 0. Table 4.3

Variable ¹	Average Value Drift Deposits	Average Value Bedrock Deposits	Significant Difference?	Average Value Greater in Drift? ²
Ca	99.3	93.2	NO	
Mg	30.86	25.64	NO	
Na	194.0	404.7	YES	NO
K	2.63	4.92	YES	NO
so ₄	191.24	260.19	YES	NO
Cl	282.9	537.2	YES	NO
Alkalinity ³	232.2	256.1	NO	
pН	7.55	7.55	NO	
Temp.(·C)	11.47	11.45	NO	
Si	13.15	9.67	YES	YES
Dissolved Solids	1189.7	1744.1	YES	NO
Deuterium (del)	-63.50	-77.57	YES	YES
Oxygen-18 (del)	-10.65	-11.70	YES	YES

3

All components reported in mg/l unless otherwise noted. When the t-Test indicates no significant difference, then the difference in average values is not significant. Reported as CaCO $_3$. 2



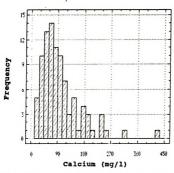


Figure 4.1 Frequency histogram of calcium concentrations.

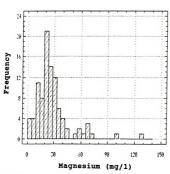
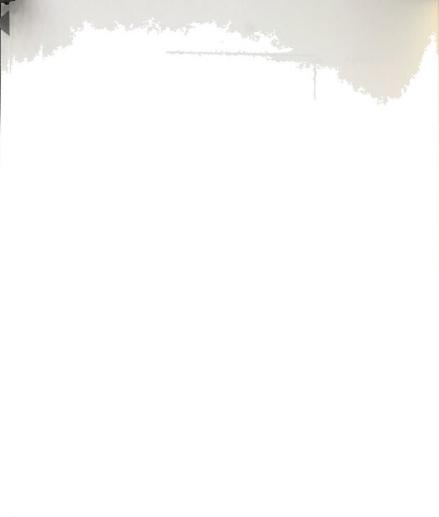


Figure 4.2 Frequency histogram of magnesium concentrations.



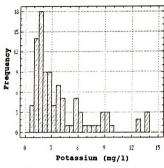


Figure 4.3 Frequency histogram of potassium concentrations.

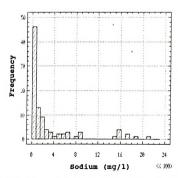
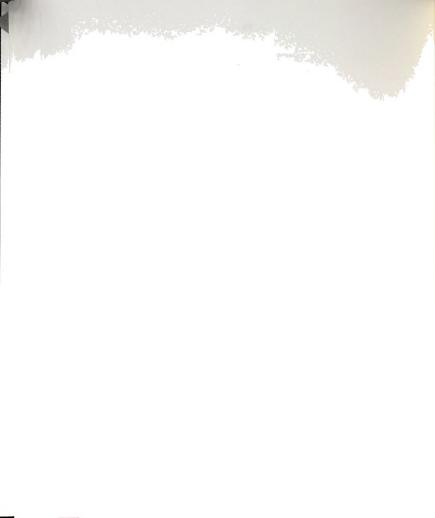


Figure 4.4 Frequency histogram of sodium concentrations.



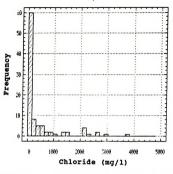


Figure 4.5 Frequency histogram of chloride concentrations.

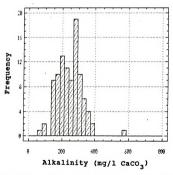
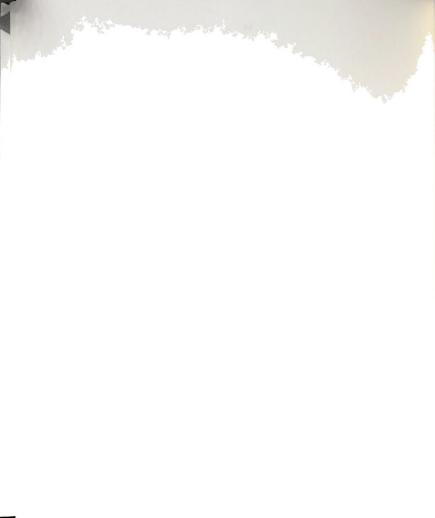


Figure 4.6 Frequency histogram of alkalinity values.



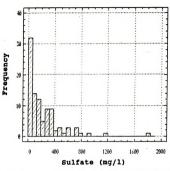


Figure 4.7 Frequency histogram of sulfate concentrations.

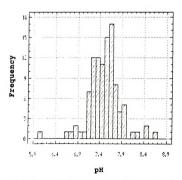
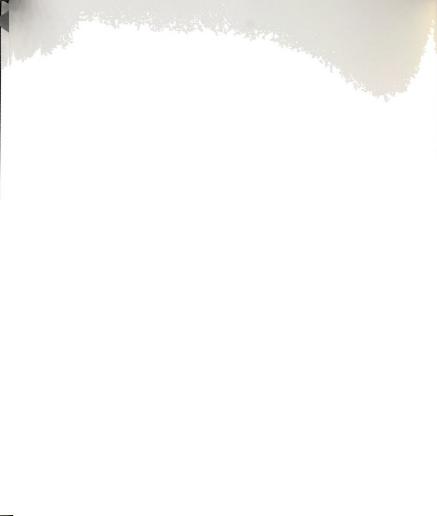


Figure 4.8 Frequency histogram of pH values.



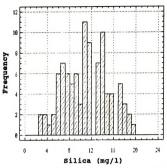


Figure 4.9 Frequency histogram of silica concentrations.

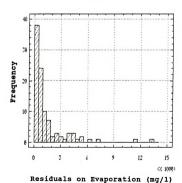
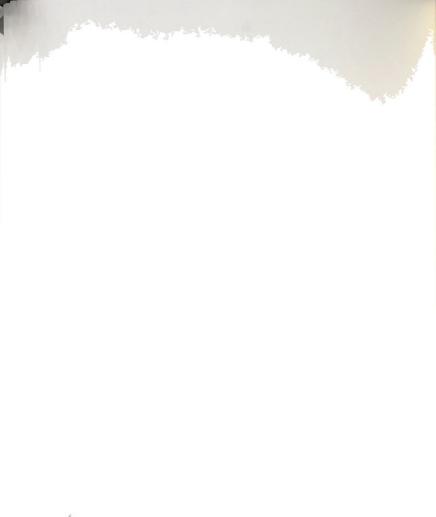


Figure 4.10 Frequency histogram of residuals on evaporation values.



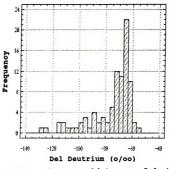


Figure 4.11 Frequency histogram of deuterium concentrations.

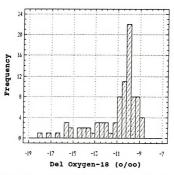
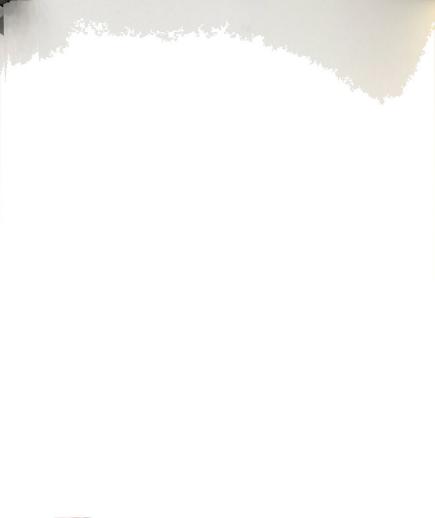


Figure 4.12 Frequency histogram of oxygen-18 concentrations.



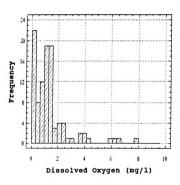
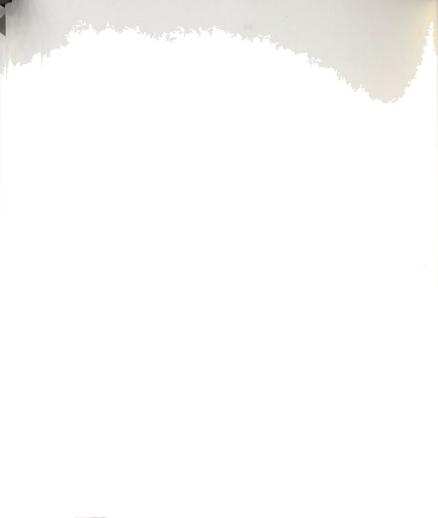


Figure 4.13 Frequency histogram of dissolved oxygen concentrations.



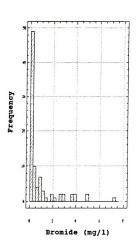
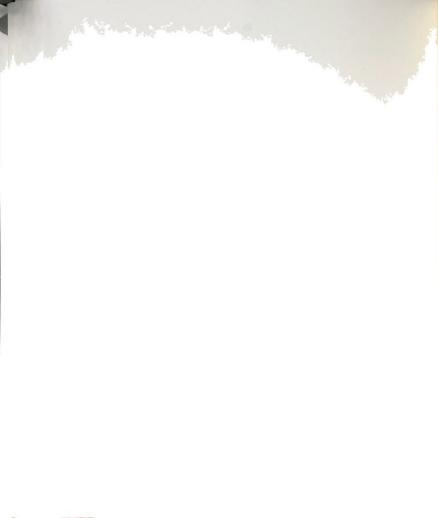


Figure 4.14 Frequency histogram of bromide concentrations.



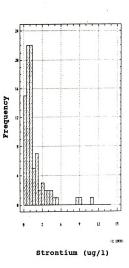
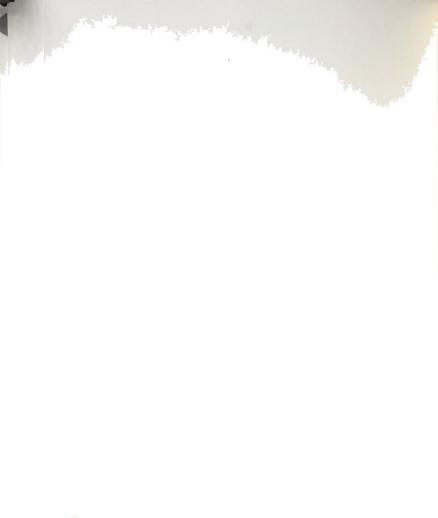


Figure 4.15 Frequency histogram of strontium concentrations.



sulfate, chloride, and dissolved solids for the ground water samples collected from the drift and from the bedrock. Each of the chemical parameters has statistically greater values in the bedrock. Significant differences also occur for average concentrations of silica, deuterium and oxygen-18 concentrations, but the concentrations of these parameters are significantly greater in ground water from the drift than from the bedrock.

Student's t-Tests were also performed by Long et al. (1986) with the Bay County data set. These t-tests were performed at the 95 percent confidence level, but those done for this study were performed at the 90 percent confidence level for each t-test (for a combined confidence level of less than 90 percent). Despite the different confidence levels, the Bay County t-tests indicate similar trends between drift and bedrock ground-water chemistry as the Saginaw Lowland t-tests, with the exception of sulfate concentrations. Sulfate concentrations are significantly different between drift and bedrock sources in the Saginaw Lowland, but are not significantly different in Bay County.

4.1.2 Multivariate Factor Analysis of the Geochemical

The statistical technique of multivariate factor analysis was used to examine the structure in the geochemical data set as a means of defining the number and



types of water masses represented in the data set, and the controlling geochemical processes affecting the ground-water system. Multivariate factor analysis was used to redefine the variables of this data set into a smaller number of variables. A description of factor analysis methodology and usage is discussed by Klovan (1975), Joreskog et al, (1976), Davis (1986) and Kim and Mueller (1978). Multivariate factor analysis has been applied to geochemical data sets by Hitchon et al. (1971); Bopp and Biggs (1981); Hull (1984); Davis (1986) and Long et al. (1988).

The factors which result from factor analysis applied to geochemical data sets are interpreted as an indication of different water masses (Q-mode) or as specific processes affecting the ground water (R-mode). Q-mode factor analysis is a test of the homogeneity of a data set. Q-mode compares relationships among samples in terms of chemical variables. R-Mode compares relationships among chemical variables in terms of samples. R-mode attempts to find structure in geochemical data by grouping elements with similar chemical behaviors together into factors which represent simpler relations among fewer variables.

The geochemical data set for the Saginaw Lowland study consists of 19 chemical parameters and 105 ground-water samples. The data were found to be log-normally distributed as illustrated by frequency histograms of concentrations (Figure 4.1 through Figure 4.15). Because factor analysis



assumes that data are normally distributed (Hitchon et al., 1971), log transformation of the geochemical data (except pH) was done prior to factor analysis. Only chemical parameters were included in the analysis, with the exception of specific conductance which has a strong linear correlation with dissolved solids and thus distinguishes water of similar ionic ratios, but with different ionic concentrations (Hitchon et al., 1971). The parameters included dissolved calcium, dissolved magnesium, dissolved sodium, dissolved potassium, dissolved strontium, dissolved lithium, dissolved chloride, dissolved sulfate, alkalinity, dissolved ammonia nitrogen, dissolved bromide, dissolved fluoride, dissolved silica, dissolved boron, dissolved manganese, dissolved iron, zinc, specific conductance and pH.

Q-mode analysis was performed on the data set with the use of a main frame computer. The data was rotated according to Promax rotation. Q-mode revealed that one factor explains more than 90 percent of the variance in the data set, and almost 96 percent of the variance is explained by two factors. Homogeneity in the data set is indicated because one factor explains more than 90 percent of the variance in the data set. There is one major "population" or water mass in the data set (Hitchon et al., 1971; Bopp and Biggs, 1981; Davis, 1986; Long et al., 1988).

Therefore, the data set can be treated as one geochemical

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system. R-mode factor analysis, which requires a homogeneous data set, was then performed.

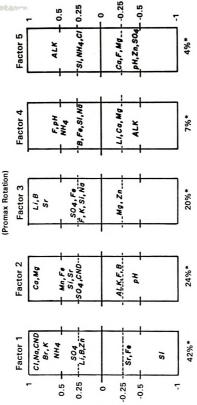
R-mode factor analysis was applied with Promax rotation, which was found by Long et al. (1986) to be the most meaningful manner of rotation with this type of data. The application of R-mode factor analysis resulted in five geochemical factors which account for 97 percent of the variance in the data set. R-mode factor analysis was also performed by Long et al. (1986) on the Bay County data set. The analysis resulted in three geochemical factors.

Figure 4.16 is a diagram which shows the factor loadings of the five factors resulting from Promax rotation. The factor loading of a variable (chemical parameter in this case) indicates the relative significance of the variable in defining a factor. The greater the factor loading (positive or negative) for a parameter, the more significance the parameter has on the factor. A factor loading near zero indicates that the parameter is of little significance to the factor. As a convention, parameters falling between +0.250 and -0.250 are considered to be of little significance to the factor's meaning (Long et al., 1986).

The R-mode factors for the Saginaw Lowland data set are interpreted as follows. Factor One, which accounts for 42 percent of the variance in the data, has large positive loadings for chloride, sodium, bromide, potassium, specific







Factor Loading Variable

* Percentage variance accounted for by each factor (total 97%)

Figure 4.16 Diagram of R-mode factor loadings.



conductance and ammonia. Strontium, iron and silica have large negative loadings. Factor One is interpreted as a salinity factor. The chemical parameters with large loadings are common dissolved constituents in water of high salinity. The large loadings on bromide, potassium, ammonia and strontium are not consistent with the dissolution of salt, as only sodium and chloride would have large loadings. These parameters suggest a brine influence on water chemistry. Factor One is similar to Factor One of the same statistical technique performed on the Bay County data set by Long et al. (1986).

Factor Two, which accounts for 24 percent of the variance, has large positive loadings for calcium, magnesium, manganese, iron, silica, strontium and a large negative loading on pH. Factor Two is interpreted to represent water-rock interaction, such as carbonate mineral equilibria. Calcium, magnesium, manganese, iron and strontium are cations which often form carbonate minerals. The buffering affect of carbonate on pH is perhaps causing the inverse loading of calcium and magnesium to pH. Factor Two is similar to Factor Two of the same statistical technique performed on the Bay County data set by Long et al. (1986).

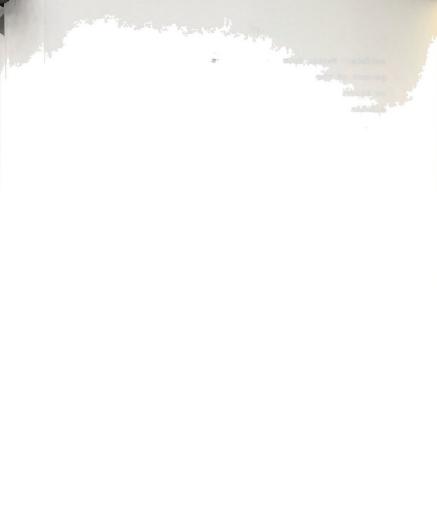
Factor Three accounted for an additional 20 percent of the variance in the data set. Factor Three has large positive loadings on lithium, boron, strontium, iron and



sulfate. Factor Four, accounting for an additional 7 percent of the total variance, has large positive loadings on fluoride, pH, ammonia and a large negative loading on alkalinity. No factors similar to Factors Three and Four were found in the Bay County data set during R-mode multivariate factor analysis. The geochemical significance of Factors Three and Four is unclear.

Factor Five accounts for 4 percent of the variance in the data set. Alkalinity has a large positive loading; whereas pH, zinc and sulfate have large negative loadings. The large but opposite loadings for alkalinity and sulfate suggest the possibility of sulfate reduction occurring in the system. Factor Five is similar to Factor Three of the same statistical technique performed on the Bay County data set by Long et al. (1986).

Ground-water samples collected in Bay County exhibited a decrease in sulfate values corresponding to an increase in del sulfur-34 values (Long et al., 1988). This correlation suggested that sulfate reduction is affecting the system in Bay County. Sulfate reduction is a bacterial process in which bacteria consume sulfate ions. The sulfate ions are assimilated via chemical reduction. Alkalinity is increased. Selective bacterial assimilation of the sulfur-32 isotope results ground-water enrichment in the sulfur-34 isotope, as was observed by Long et al, (1988).



The relatively small variance explained by Factor Five indicates that the process (or processes) represented by Factor Five (possibly sulfate reduction) has less significance in controlling the geochemistry of Saginaw Lowland ground water than other factors. As discussed in Section 4.1.1, sulfate concentrations in the Saginaw Lowland are significantly greater in ground water from the bedrock than the drift, but are not significantly different between the bedrock and drift in Bay County. This suggests that sulfate reduction is affecting the system in Bay County, and has no strong affect on the regional system.

The existence of two additional factors in the Saginaw Lowland ground-water geochemical data is a result of differences in the Saginaw Lowland and Bay County data sets, and reflects the presence of a transition zone from saline ground water within the Saginaw Lowland to fresher meteoric ground water at the outer limits of the Saginaw Lowland.

4.1.3 Graphical Analyses

Graphical analyses of the geochemical data set were used to chemically classify the ground-water system and to determine processes controlling ground-water geochemistry. One of the graphical techniques used is the ternary diagram, which aids in the geochemical characterization of waters (Fritz and Frape, 1982; Hull, 1984; Frape et al., 1984; and Henderson, 1985). Ternary diagrams can be used to detect

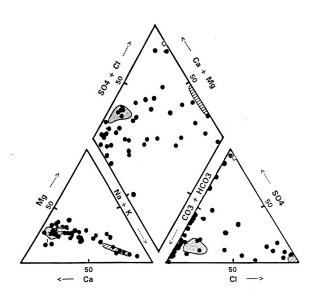
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trends in major ion ground-water chemistry, such as mixing between water masses of different chemistries. Mixing which is conservative for all parameters results in a trend on the diagram in which all of the "mixtures" plot along a tie-line between the end-member waters (Freeze and Cherry, 1979; Hem, 1985).

Diagrams can be constructed for cations (calcium, magnesium, sodium and potassium) and anions (chloride, sulfate, carbonate and bicarbonate). The data (cations and anions) are plotted as percentages of total equivalents per unit volume dissolved constituents. A limitation of the ternary plots is that plotted points do not reflect concentrations of dissolved solids. Points representing different samples of having different salinities may plot at the same location on the ternary diagram. The ternary diagrams are useful in understanding trends in the data set.

Figure 4.17 is a ternary diagram of chemical analyses of ground-water samples from the drift. Figure 4.18 is a ternary diagram of chemical analyses of ground-water samples from the bedrock. Also plotted for comparative purposes are the chemical compositions of Michigan Basin formation brines (Dundee, Berea and Marshall formations) (Long et al., 1986), local surface waters (Long et al., 1986), and typical Michigan rain water (National Atmospheric Deposition Program, 1981).





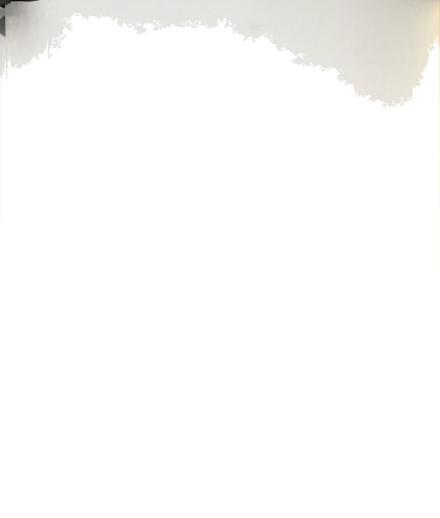
Ground water sample

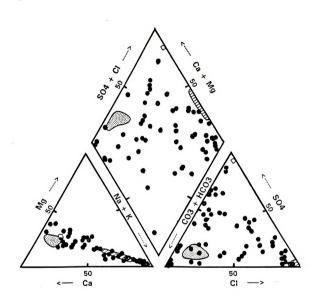
Michigan basin formation brines (Dundee, Berea, and Marshall formations)

Typical Michigan rain water (NAPD, 1980)

(Local surface waters

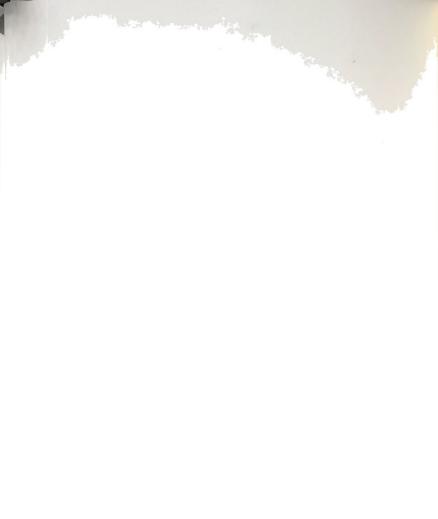
Figure 4.17 Ternary diagram of ground-water chemistry in drift deposits.





Ground water sample
Michigan basin formation brines (Dundee, Berea, and Marshall formations)
Typical Michigan rain water (NAPD, 1980)
Local surface waters

Figure 4.18 Ternary diagram of ground-water chemistry in bedrock deposits.



The cation-anion data for the drift ground-water samples are plotted on Figure 4.17. There is a linear trend in the cation triangle between the brine and surface water end-members which suggests mixing between brine and surface water. The linear trend shows water compositions ranging from approximately 60 percent calcium, 30 percent magnesium and 10 percent sodium-potassium to a composition of almost 100 percent sodium-potassium. There are two linear trends in the anion triangle. The first linear trend is between surface water composition (approximately 15 percent chloride, 70 percent carbonate-bicarbonate and 15 percent sulfate) and the brine composition (almost 100 percent chloride). The other trend is between a composition of approximately 10 percent chloride, 50 percent carbonatebicarbonate and 40 percent sulfate and the brine composition. In the upper diamond, there is a linear trend between the surface water and brine end-members which strongly suggests mixing between meteoric and saline water masses. This distinctive linear trend in the diamond is not evident in similar ternary plots for the Bay County data by Long et al. (1988).

The cation-anion data for the bedrock ground-water samples are plotted on Figure 4.18. There is a linear trend in the cation triangle between the brine and surface water end-members which suggests mixing between brine and surface water. This trend is much like the trend in Figure 4.17 for

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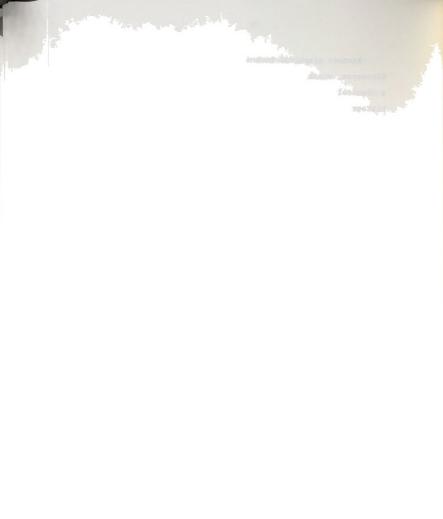
drift samples. The anion triangle exhibits a linear trend between a composition of approximately 10 percent chloride, 30 percent carbonate-bicarbonate and 60 percent sulfate and the brine composition. In addition, the anion triangle shows the two linear trends found in Figure 4.17, with. There is a wide range of carbonate-bicarbonate values, as in Figure 4.17. There is a large amount of scatter in the points in the anion triangle compared to Figure 4.17. In the upper diamond of Figure 4.18, there is a linear trend between the surface water and brine end-members, though not as marked as the trend in Figure 4.17. This trend again suggests mixing between meteoric and saline water masses.

The distinctive linear trend in the diamond in Figure 4.17 and in Figure 4.18 is not evident in ternary plots for the Bay County ground-water data by Long et al. (1988). The linear trend in the cation triangle is also found in similar ternary plots for Bay County data by Long et al. (1988), but this trend is more distinct in Figure 4.17 and Figure 4.18. These differences in ternary diagrams between Saginaw Lowland and Bay County support the hypothesis that the Saginaw Lowland is a transition zone between (1) the surface water and brine compositions; and (2) the occurrence or lack of sulfate reduction in the system. The regional (Saginaw Lowland) ground-water system is influenced by meteoric and brine end-members; more so than the Bay County system which is appears to be influenced more strongly by brines.

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Another graphical techniques used is the frequency histogram, which shows the distribution of concentrations of a chemical parameter within a group of samples. Frequency histograms have been used to geochemically characterize waters (Hull, 1984). These graphs can indicate whether a parameter is normally or log-normally distributed. Figure 4.1 through Figure 4.15 (see Section 4.1.2) are frequency histograms of chemical and physical parameters for all ground-water samples collected. The chemical parameters exhibit log-normal distribution.

Graphical representation of the geochemical data also includes x-y plots and histograms of concentration ratios. These types of graphs aid in interpretation of geochemical data (Frape and Fritz, 1982; Hull, 1984; and Frape et al., 1984). Figure 4.19 is a histogram of the chloride to bromide concentration ratios (in mg/l) for all ground water samples. Also plotted is the range of chloride to bromide values found in local oilfield brines (400 to 600) (Long et al., 1986) and for a typical solution formed from halite dissolution (3025) (Wilson and Long, 1984). The groundwater samples range from 50 to 1150, except one sample which plots at 2700. This range is similar to the range of brines and of Bay County ground-water samples (Long et al., 1986). A brine influence on the ground water is clearly suggested. However, halite dissolution is also suggested by the larger chloride to bromide ratio values of some samples.



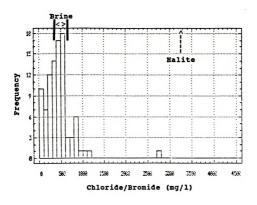


Figure 4.19 Histogram of chloride to bromide concentration ratios.



Halite dissolution is also suggested by the one-to-one relationship between sodium and chloride (Figure 4.20) in the plot of sodium versus chloride molar concentrations. Figure 4.20 indicates that dissolution of halite has provided sodium and chloride to the system. A brine would show a correlation of sodium to chloride other than one to one, because chloride would be complexed with additional cations such as calcium, potassium and magnesium.

Figure 4.19 and Figure 4.20 suggest that the movement of deep basin brines upwards into the system and the process of halite dissolution both influence the ground-water geochemistry. These two processes have not yet been adequately explained and incorporated in a model of the ground-water system in the Saginaw Lowland.

Figure 4.21 is an x-y plot of log chloride concentrations versus del oxygen-18 values for the drift ground-water samples. At low chloride values, del oxygen-18 values range between -11 and -9. As chloride values increase, some del oxygen-18 values become lighter. This is particularly evident in bedrock ground-water samples (Figure 4.22). The trends suggest that water of greater salinity is more likely to be isotopically lighter.

4.1.4 Chemical Modeling

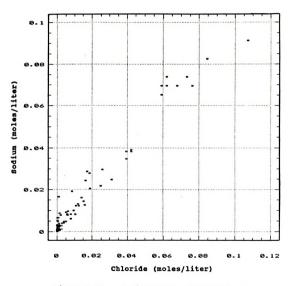
Chemical modeling is a tool used to determine the origin of geochemical characteristics of ground water. 

Figure 4.20 Sodium versus chloride molar concentrations.





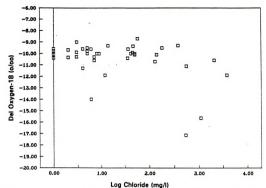


Figure 4.21 Log chloride concentration versus oxygen-18 concentration in the drift deposits.

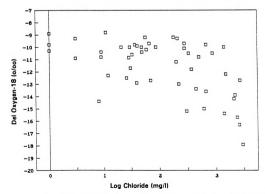


Figure 4.22 Log chloride concentration versus oxygen-18 concentration in the bedrock deposits.



Chemical modeling is used to identify reactive minerals in an aquifer which are controlling the chemistry of ground water by describing the thermodynamic state of solutions (Jenne, 1980). Chemical modeling can also aid in the interpretation of origin and chemical evolution along a flow path. Chemical modeling has been used in ground-water studies by Schwartz (1974); Hull (1984); Henderson (1985); Long et al. (1986); Wood and Low (1986); Long et al. (1988); Rose and Long (1989); Stoessel et al. (1989); Hendry and Schwartz (1990); and Kehew and Passero (1990).

A chemical model computer program uses analytical data of natural waters to calculate chemical equilibria. The chemical model calculates the thermodynamic speciation of inorganic ions and complex species in solution. WATEQF (Plummer et al, 1984), a FORTRAN IV version of WATEQ, was the computer program used to calculate chemical equilibria in the ground water samples from the Saginaw Lowland.

Histograms of mineral saturation index (SI) values for selected compounds are one result of chemical modeling on the Saginaw Lowland data set. The selected minerals are representative regional drift and bedrock mineralogy as discussed in Sections 2.2.1 and 2.2.2. These minerals include calcite, aragonite, dolomite, gypsum, halite, quartz and chalcedony. The SI of a mineral is equal to the log of the ratio of the ion-activity product to the solubility

product. The SIs were calculated with the chemical modeling program.

SIs have been plotted as frequency histograms for calcite (Figure 4.23), aragonite (Figure 4.24), dolomite (Figure 4.25), gypsum (Figure 4.26), halite (Figure 4.27), quartz (Figure 4.28) and chalcedony (Figure 4.29). A SI of zero represents thermodynamic equilibrium between the solid and dissolved phases of a mineral. A SI greater then zero represents theoretical supersaturation with respect to the dissolved phase, and a SI less than zero represents a theoretically undersaturated solution. SI values at or just above zero for calcite (Figure 4.23) suggest that ground water is in equilibrium or slightly supersaturated with respect to calcite. SI values just below zero for aragonite (Figure 4.24) and dolomite (Figure 4.25) suggest that ground water is slightly undersaturated with respect to these two minerals. SI values much less than zero for gypsum (Figure 4.26) and halite (Figure 4.27) suggest that ground water is undersaturated with respect to these two minerals. SI values greater than zero for quartz (Figure 4.28) suggest that ground water is supersaturated with respect to quartz. Figure 4.29 shows that ground water is at equilibrium with respect to chalcedony, because the SIs are at zero.

The stability relationships of aluminosilicate minerals is commonly studied with activity-activity diagrams (Hull, 1984; Henderson, 1985; Long et al., 1986; Wood and Low,



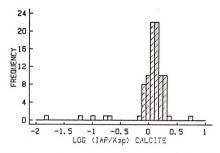


Figure 4.23 Frequency histogram of calcite saturation indices.

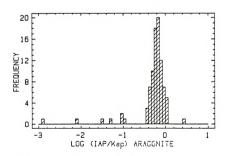


Figure 4.24 Frequency histogram of aragonite saturation indices.



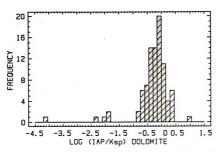


Figure 4.25 Frequency histogram of dolomite saturation indices.

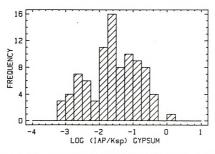


Figure 4.26 Frequency histogram of gypsum saturation indices.



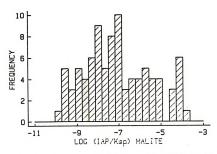


Figure 4.27 Frequency histogram of halite saturation indices.

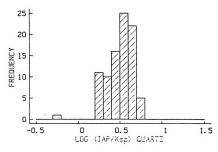


Figure 4.28 Frequency histogram of quartz saturation indices.



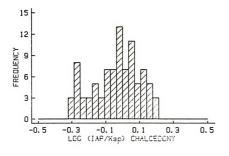


Figure 4.29 Frequency histogram of chalcedony saturation indices.



1986; Long et al., 1988; and Rose and Long, 1989). These diagrams are based on activities calculated with chemical modeling and on thermodynamic stability fields.

Using the results of chemical modeling on the ground water data, an activity-activity diagram of potassium aluminosilicate minerals is presented as Figure 4.30. The mineral stability fields in the diagram are based on Velbel (1992). The diagram was constructed from the data of Robie et al. (1979). The placement and extent of the illite stability field in Figure 4.30 is based on an idealized illite-surrogate as defined by Grim (1968). The idealization of the illite stability field is intended to simulate the approximate placement and extent of the illite stability field in relation to the placement of the ground water sampling points.

The ground-water sample data in Figure 4.30 plot within the illite and kaolinite stability fields, straddling the illite/kaolinite stability field boundary. This indicates thermodynamic equilibrium of the ground water with respect to illite and kaolinite, which are present in the drift deposits in the Saginaw Lowland (Chittrayanont, 1978).

Using the results of chemical modeling on the ground water data and mineral stability fields based on Drever (1982), an activity-activity diagram of sodium aluminosilicate minerals is presented as Figure 4.31. The

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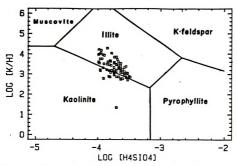


Figure 4.30 Mineral stability diagram of potassium aluminosilicate minerals.

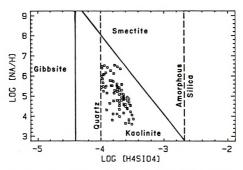


Figure 4.31 Mineral stability diagram of sodium aluminosilicate minerals.

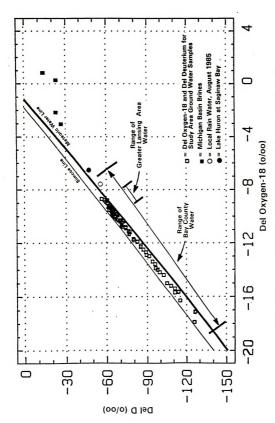


ground-water sample data plot within the kaolinite stability field. This also indicates thermodynamic equilibrium of the ground water with respect to kaolinite.

4.2 Oxygen and Deuterium Isotopes

Concentrations of the stable isotopes of oxygen and deuterium in ground water are used to indicate the origin and evolution of ground water. Isotopic ratios in the water reflect physical processes which have affected it. In low salinity ground water, del oxygen-18 and del deuterium values are conservative; they are unaffected by physical, chemical or geological processes. In the hydrosphere, del oxygen-18 and del deuterium values are not conservative (Frape and Fritz, 1982). A plot of del oxygen-18 values versus del deuterium values for ground-water and surface-water samples can be used to demonstrate that ground water is derived from local precipitation (Wood and Low, 1986).

Oxygen-18 and deuterium concentrations were measured in the Saginaw Lowland ground-water samples. The results of the isotopic analyses are summarized in Table 4.1 for drift samples and Table 4.2 for bedrock samples. The concentrations of oxygen-18 and deuterium are reported according to the standard of Craig (1961 b), as del (ratios) values relative to values of standard mean ocean water (SMOW). Samples were collected as described in Section 3.2 and analyzed as described in Section 3.3. Figure 4.32 is a



Deuterium concentration versus oxygen-18 concentration. Figure 4.32



plot of del oxygen-18 vs. del deuterium for all ground-water samples from the Saginaw Lowland. Also plotted on Figure 4.32 are the following: (1) the meteoric water line (MWL) established by Craig (1961 a) as the relationship between oxygen-18 and deuterium concentrations in meteoric waters which have not undergone large amounts of evaporation; (2) the line resulting from oxygen versus deuterium concentrations for rain-water samples collected near Simcoe, Ontario (see Figure 1.1 for location of Simcoe study site) by Desaulniers et al. (1981); (3) the isotopic compositions of samples of Michigan basin formation brines (Wilson and Long, 1986); (4) the isotopic compositions of local rain water and Lake Huron at Saginaw Bay (Long et al., 1986); (5) the range of isotopic values from Bay County ground waters (Long et al., 1988); and (6) the range of isotopic values of ground water from the greater Lansing area (GLA) of Michigan (see Figure 1.1 for location) (Slayton, 1982; Long and Larson, 1981).

The ground-water samples have del oxygen-18 isotopic values which range from -17.91 to -8.70 o/oo and del deuterium isotopic values which range from -126.7 to -56.5 o/oo. The ground-water samples plot along a line of slope 7.8 and y-intercept 10.86. This is similar to the MWL of Craig (1961 a) with a slope of 8 and y-intercept of 10. Figure 4.32 suggests that meteoric water (modern-day and

ancient) is the source of both drift and bedrock ground water in the Saginaw Lowland, because samples plot along the MWL.

The linear relationship of the Saginaw Lowland ground-water samples is similar to the line resulting from isotopic values of rain-water collected at Simcoe, Ontario, located in a region geographically and hydrogeologically similar to the Saginaw Lowland (Desaulniers et al., 1981). The Simcoe line has a slope of 7.5 and y-intercept of 12.6. This line also falls close to the MWL. The similarity of the Simcoe line to the Saginaw Lowland line suggests that modern-day precipitation is one of the sources of ground water in the Saginaw Lowland.

The formation brine samples on Figure 4.32 have del oxygen-18 values ranging from -3.02 to +1.10 o/oo and del deuterium values ranging from -28.6 to -10.7 o/oo. The ground-water isotopic data does not indicate mixing of Michigan basin formation brines with meteoric water. The mixing of brine and meteoric water would result in a linear relationship between the two end-members on a del oxygen-18 versus del deuterium plot (Frape and Fritz, 1982). Samples from the interface of brine and fresher shallow ground water would allow better understanding of the role brines play in the near-surface hydrogeologic system. Long et al. (1988)

did not collect ground-water samples from depths great enough to detect the interface of brine and fresher shallow ground water.

The isotopic values of ground-water samples from Bay County (Long et al., 1988) plot along the MWL. The samples range from -7.0 to -18.5 o/oo for del oxygen-18 and from -56 to -137 o/oo for del deuterium. Figure 4.32 illustrates the range of these samples, but it does not illustrate their actual position along the MWL. The Saginaw Lowland samples plot densely in the region of heavier isotopic values, while the Bay County samples tend to be more isotopically depleted. A meteoric source for Bay County ground water is indicated by oxygen and deuterium isotopic data (Long et al., 1988).

Del oxygen-18 and del deuterium values for the GLA ground water plot within a small range of values on the MWL (Figure 4.32). The GLA ground water is believed to be modern-day meteoric water (Long et al., 1988). The range of the GLA samples is similar to the heaviest values found in the ground water of the Saginaw Lowland, suggesting that modern-day meteoric water is one end-member of the ground water in the Saginaw Lowland.

Isotopic values for the Saginaw Lowland samples range from isotopic depletion to values similar to modern-day precipitation. This wide range of values suggests either

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the mixing of isotopically-depleted glacial meltwater with modern-day meteoric recharge, or the isotopic variability in annual precipitation. Long et al. (1988) investigated these possibilities for the Bay County samples and concluded that large isotopic variability in annual precipitation is unlikely. Yearly average isotopic values for local precipitation were estimated at -7.34 and -8.55 o/oo del oxygen-18; and -50.59 and -60.44 o/oo del deuterium. Lake Huron water has del oxygen-18 and del deuterium values of -7.45 o/oo and -55.22 o/oo respectively, similar to calculated yearly average isotopic values for precipitation. These approximate isotopic values of regional annual precipitation are heavier than measured ground-water isotopic values.

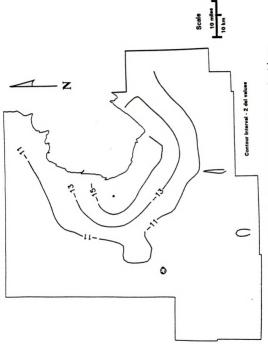
The distribution of del oxygen-18 values for drift ground-water samples is shown in Figure 4.33. The distribution of del oxygen-18 values for bedrock ground-water samples is shown in Figure 4.34. The bedrock aquifer is slightly depleted isotopically relative to the drift (average del oxygen-18 value of -11.70 o/oo for bedrock and -10.65 o/oo for drift). The distribution of del oxygen-18 values is similar in the drift and bedrock systems (Figure 4.33 and Figure 4.34), in that isotopic values are depleted near the center of the Saginaw Lowland, and become more enriched towards the perimeter of the study area. This pattern indicates that the Saginaw Lowland encompasses two

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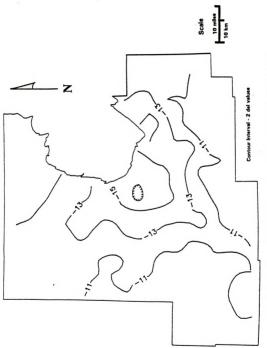
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Distribution of oxygen-18 concentrations in the drift deposits. Figure 4.33





Distribution of oxygen-18 concentrations in the bedrock deposits. Figure 4.34



zones: (1) a region of isotopically-depleted water and (2) a transition zone from isotopic depletion to isotopic enrichment as in modern-day precipitation.

Isotopic depletion indicates formation of water at cooler temperatures than present day (Dansgaard, 1964; Mook, 1972; Payne; 1972 Siegenthaler, 1979; Gat, 1981). Isotopic depletion in ground water has been attributed to glacial meltwater recharge in aquifers by Clayton et al. (1966); Fritz et al. (1974); Perry et al. (1982); and Siegel and Mandle, (1984). The extremely low isotopic values of the Saginaw Lowland ground water represent retention of glacial meltwater by aquitards, which can have considerably different geochemical and hydrologic properties than aquifers (Back, 1986).

Desaulniers et al. (1981) investigated ground-water geochemistry of argillaceous Quaternary deposits (aquitards) in southwestern Ontario (location shown in Figure 1.1) which have a geologic setting similar to that of the Saginaw Lowland. They concluded that the pore water in the deposits is a mixture of late Pleistocene-aged and modern-day recharge water. Bradbury (1984) performed a similar investigation in argillaceous deposits of northwestern Wisconsin, and concluded that ground water was original pore water from time of till deposition 9,500-10,000 years BP.

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Isotopic evidence suggests that Saginaw Lowland ground water is a mixture of modern-day precipitation and glacial meltwater from approximately 10,000 years before present (BP). This is the most likely time of the most recent glacial meltwater recharge in the east-central Michigan basin (Fritz et al., 1974) based on documented climatic changes in the Great Lakes region. There is no isotopic evidence that other physical or chemical processes such as mixing with brine or intense evaporation have affected the ground water (Craig, 1961 a; Dansgaard, 1964; Hitchon and Friedman, 1969; Gat, 1981).

4.3 Carbon Isotopes

The concentration of the stable carbon isotopes in ground water is used to indicate the origin and evolution of ground water. The carbon isotopic signature is the result of exchange of ground water with various sources of carbon (coal, carbon dioxide gas in soil zones, carbonate minerals, other carbon-bearing minerals, methane gas, plant material) each of which has a distinct range of del carbon-13 values (Curtis et al., 1972; Mook, 1972; Payne, 1972; Rightmire and Hanshaw, 1973; Long et al., 1988). Sources of dissolved carbon and microbiological processes affecting the ground water can be determined from studies of the carbon-13 isotope. Stable carbon isotope values in ground water can be used to characterize the origin of ground water (Plummer,

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1977; Thorstensen and Fisher, 1979; Desaulniers et al., 1981; Wood and Low, 1986; Chapelle et al., 1988; and McMahon et al., 1990).

Carbon-13 concentrations were measured in the Saginaw Lowland ground water on seven samples from drift deposits and seven samples from bedrock deposits. The results of isotopic analyses are summarized in Table 4.1 for drift samples and Table 4.2 for bedrock samples. The concentration of carbon-13 is reported as a del (ratio) value relative to the PDB standard. Samples were collected as described in Section 3.2 and analyzed as described in Section 3.3. Figure 4.35 is a histogram of ground-water del carbon-13 values. Also plotted on Figure 4.35 are local rain water (-8.27 o/oo) and Saginaw Bay, Lake Huron, water (-9.93 o/oo) (Long et al., 1988).

The ground-water samples have del carbon-13 values which range from -15.4 o/oo to -7.9 o/oo, with an average of -13.08 o/oo. The Bay County ground-water samples exhibited a wide range of del carbon-13 values (-21.38 o/oo to -8.14 o/oo), with an average of -13.8 o/oo (Long et al., 1988). The del carbon-13 values of ground water in the Saginaw Lowland fall within this range. A much greater number of Bay County ground water samples were analyzed for carbon-13 than for Saginaw Lowland. Long et al. (1988) found no systematic distribution of del carbon-13 in the Bay County ground-water system.

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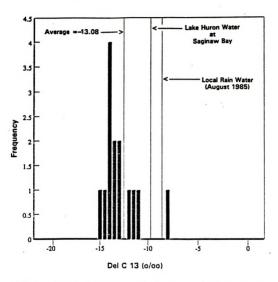
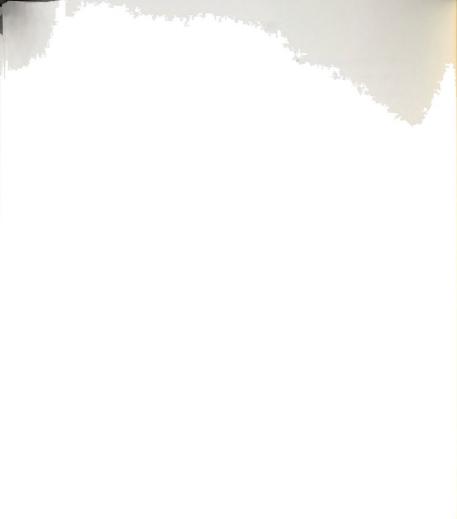


Figure 4.35 Histogram of carbon-13 concentrations.



A slight correlation between del carbon-13 values and depth of sample is suggested by Figure 4.36. Points on the graph represent the values of del carbon-13 plotted at the midpoint depth of the well screens from which samples were withdrawn. Drift wells were screened in sand and/or gravel. Bedrock wells were screened in combinations of shale, sandstone and/or limestone. Based on the small number of samples analyzed, Figure 4.36 suggests that ground water becomes more enriched in carbon-13 at depth. The process which would result in this vertical distribution of carbon-13 values is unclear.

Photosynthesis causes preferential uptake of carbon-12 in plants, producing depletion of carbon-13 in plant matter. As a result, marine organic carbon and recent marine sediments have del carbon-13 values of about -20 o/oo. Similarly, land organic carbon and recent freshwater deposits have del carbon-13 values of about -25 o/oo. (Stumm and Morgan, 1981). The amount of carbon-13 in dissolved carbon reflects the relative amounts of several carbon sources (Wigley et al., 1978). For example, a combined source of carbon consisting of lignitic material (-25 o/oo) and carbonate minerals (0 o/oo) results in an actual average value of dissolved carbon-13 content in ground water of -12.1 o/oo (Thorstenson and Fisher, 1979).

The average del carbon-13 values in Saginaw Lowland ground water of -13.08 o/oo may represent the combined

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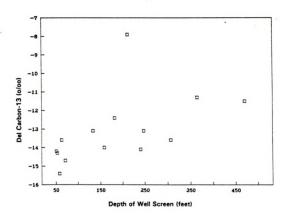


Figure 4.36 Carbon-13 concentration versus depth.



influence on dissolved carbon of lignitic material derived from local coal deposits (-25 o/oo) and of carbonate minerals such as calcite, aragonite and dolomite, found in local drift and bedrock deposits. The more enriched values of Saginaw Lowland del carbon-13 values (-7.9 o/oo) indicate a meteoric source.



SECTION 5 - SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 Summary

The following is a summary of the many results of the study and an evaluation of the several hypotheses proposed in the Introduction. Hypothesis 1, that the ground water system contains isotopically-depleted meteoric water that recharged the system when the climate was much cooler (perhaps glacial meltwater of the Pleistocene Epoch), was investigated with the use of stable isotopic data, as described in Section 4.3 and Section 4.4. These data indicated that the isotopic geochemistry of the ground water is influenced by mixing of modern-day meteoric recharge water with meteoric water formed at cooler temperatures bearing isotopic depletion. The data suggest that the isotopically-depleted water was derived from glacial meltwater recharge during the late Pleistocene epoch, when the climate was much cooler than present day (Emiliani, 1971).

Hypothesis 2, that the ground water system contains saline water derived from brines deep in the Michigan basin, was investigated with the use of chemical characterization, as described in Section 4.1. The chemical data suggest that salinity is a dominant factor of the ground-water geochemistry. The salinity is the result of both the diffusion or advection of highly concentrated Michigan basin



brines upward into the near-surface deposits of the Saginaw Lowlands and the dissolution of halite. The brine input is suggested by factor analysis, chloride to bromide ... concentration ratios and ternary diagrams of major ion chemistry. The halite input is suggested by a plot of molar sodium concentrations versus molar chloride concentrations. The chemical characterization also suggests geochemical interactions between ground water and surrounding geologic deposits, including calcium carbonate thermodynamic equilibrium.

Hypothesis 3, that the isotopically-depleted water and saline water are retained in the ground water system through the combined affects of aquitards, low regional horizontal hydraulic gradients, and a regional ground-water discharge zone, was investigated with the use of geologic maps and water level and lithologic data for each well sampled, as described in Section 2.2 and Section 2.3. The maps and these data suggest that the Saginaw Lowland ground-water system has a low horizontal hydraulic gradient and regional ground-water discharge. The system is dominated by thick aguitards. The combined affects of these three characteristics are believed to result in salinity buildup, retention of isotopically-depleted ground water and retention of upwardly migrating basin brines. The different water types identified mix within the system under the influence of these characteristics.

 This study also attempted to verify that the additional processes identified by Long et al. (1986, 1988) in the Bay County ground water system are also affecting the Saginaw Lowland system. Verification of the additional processes was evaluated by analyzing the ground water samples for similar chemical and isotopic constituents and by evaluating the geochemical data in a similar manner as in the Bay County study. The additional processes include water-rock interactions including calcium carbonate equilibrium and stability with potassium aluminosilicate minerals; and the biological reduction of sulfate.

Evidence for water-rock interactions was provided by chemical modeling with WATEQF. Chemical modeling indicates that ground water is in equilibrium or slightly supersaturated with respect to calcite and is slightly undersaturated with respect to aragonite and dolomite. Activity-activity diagrams show that the ground-water data plot primarily within the illite and kaolinite stability fields, indicating thermodynamic equilibrium of the ground water with respect to illite and kaolinite.

Evidence for the occurrence of the biological reduction of sulfate in Bay County was provided by trends in sulfate and bicarbonate concentrations and del carbon-13 and del sulfur-34 analyses (Long et al., 1988). Based on the results of factor analysis, the process of microbiological reduction of sulfate does not appear to be occurring to a

 great extent in Saginaw Lowland. The process may be a phenomenon localized in Bay County. Further investigation including sulfur and carbon isotope analyses would be necessary to better characterize the process of microbiological reduction of sulfate in the Saginaw Lowland ground-water system.

The study was also used to estimate whether the data reduction techniques used in the Bay County study (Long et al., 1986, 1988), would produce interpretable results on more widely-spaced data points. The statistical data reduction techniques used are the Student's t-Test and multivariate factor analysis. The graphical data reduction techniques include ternary diagrams, frequency histograms, and x-y plots. The computer modeling technique used is chemical modeling with WATEQF.

The data reduction techniques produced similar and/or complimentary results for the Saginaw Lowland and Bay County studies, despite large differences of scale with regards to sampling sites. The Saginaw Lowland study used a total of 105 sampling sites over an area of about 14000 square kilometers. The Bay County study used a total of almost 400 sites over an area of about 800 square kilometers. The data reduction techniques have proven useful in data interpretation in a large scale ground-water study.



Despite the different confidence levels in the Student's t-Tests of this study and of the Bay County study, as discussed in Section 4.1.1, the t-tests indicated similar trends between drift and bedrock ground-water chemistry as the Saginaw Lowland t-tests, with the exception of sulfate concentrations. Sulfate concentrations were significantly different between drift and bedrock sources in the Saginaw Lowland, but were not significantly different in Bay County.

R-mode multivariate factor analysis resulted in three factors representing processes affecting ground water in the Saginaw Lowland. These factors corresponded to three R-mode factors for the geochemical data from Bay County ground water of Long et al. (1986). However, a total of five factors were required to account for the same amount of variance in the Saginaw Lowland data as were only 3 factors in the data of the Bay County study. More factors are required to describe the many processes affecting the ground-water system on a regional scale. For example, the study area encompasses not only "Bay County-like" ground water, but also fresher, younger water on the perimeter of the study area.

Ternary diagrams revealed stronger evidence for mixing between surface water and brine endmember waters than was found in the Bay County data (Long et al., 1986). This supports the hypothesis that the ground water of the Saginaw



Lowland occurs in a transition zone between surface water and brine compositions.

The histogram of chloride to bromide concentration ratios (in mg/l) for all ground water samples illustrated a range of brines similar to that of Bay County ground-water samples (Long et al., 1986). A brine influence on the ground water is clearly suggested.

Halite dissolution is also suggested by the plot of sodium versus chloride molar concentrations which indicated that dissolution of halite provided sodium and chloride to the system. This is similar to the findings of Long et al. (1986). These findings suggest that the movement of deep basin brines upwards into the system and the process of halite dissolution both influence the ground-water geochemistry. These two processes have not yet been adequately explained and incorporated in a model of the ground-water system in the Saginaw Lowland.

5.2 Conclusions

The goal of this study was to examine the extent of isotopically-depleted ground water in the Saginaw Lowland of the Michigan basin and investigate several hypotheses based primarily on the previous work of Long et al. (1986, 1988) in Bay County of the Saginaw Lowland. The occurrence of isotopically-depleted ground water was compared to regional

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lithology and ground-water geochemistry in order to test the hypotheses.

As summarized in Section 5, the results supported the hypotheses. Isotopic evidence is lacking for brine influence on the ground water system, but geochemical evidence suggests a brine influence on the system. This is consistent with the model of the system, because diffusion of brines into the system would have little affect on isotopic signatures in low concentrations, yet low concentrations of brines diffusing into the system will have strong impacts on geochemical signatures, due to the extremely high concentrations of ions in brines. Collection of ground-water samples from depths great enough to detect the interface of brine and fresher shallow ground water would allow for better understanding of the role brines play in the near-surface hydrogeologic system.

This study found a correspondence in geographic distribution of low del oxygen-18 and del deuterium values (Figure 4.33 and Figure 4.34), high chloride concentrations (Figure 2.5 and Figure 2.6), surficial lacustrine and morainal clay deposits (Figure 1.1, Figure 2.1, Figure 2.2 and Figure 2.3), and the residual potentiometric surface (Figure 2.10). The isotopically-depleted, saline water occurs where argillaceous deposits are thick, in the central portion of the study area near Saginaw Bay.

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The ground water system has not flushed out the isotopically-depleted meteoric water formed when the climate was much cooler than the present, nor the salinity in the system. The dynamics of the ground water flow system are subject to further interpretations of the past and present hydrodynamics of the system.

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APPENDIX



APPENDIX

ALUMINUM SPECIATION INVESTIGATION

Aluminum is commonly analyzed as total dissolved aluminum. For example, the analytical data for the 1986 sampling for this study of ground water geochemistry in the Saginaw Lowland included total dissolved aluminum. In order to determine to determine the equilbria of aluminosilicate minerals via chemical modeling, concentrations of aluminum species are required. The equilibria of aluminosilicate minerals via chemical modeling was investigated during the ground water study in the Saginaw Lowland. In order to determine the concentrations of aluminum species, resampling of selected wells, based on preliminary chemical modeling, was done in the summer of 1987. Twenty-five wells were resampled and analyzed in the Geochemistry Laboratory at Michigan State University.

Collection and analysis of the samples for aluminum speciation was done according to the methods described below. The laboratory analytical data (total dissolved aluminum, monomeric and polymeric aluminum species, and major ions) resulting from this investigation of aluminum speciation is provided in Table A.1. The concentrations of



Table A.1 - Laboratory Analytical Results of 1987 Ground Water Sampling for Aluminum Speciation Investigation

Alkalinity Alkalinity (CaCO3)		125	349.939	165.	313	237.	149.	274.	336.	379.	223.		307.	247.	198.	234.		404	364.	418.	314.	190	351.	314.	267.	224.
Alkalinity (CaCO3)			287																							184
804	333	200	83.45	377.3	64.75	159.1	408.5	52.28	55.39	73.06	387.7		377.3	335.7	698.2	377.3	32.53	5.52	77.21	81.37	16.95	834.5	7.60	48.12	626.7	242.2
ជ	4	::	5.7	5.7	8.8	200	3800	7.1	11	46	2000		29	90	340	340	46	12	270	190	28	2500		51		30
×	-		1.5	2.0	1.9	5.6	9.7	1.4	1.7	2.1	6.4		3.0	3.4	0.9	4.0	3.4	2.3	4.1	3.4	2.0	9.5	1.7	2.4	8.5	2.5
Na	35	2 4	24	74	45	280	2300	42	31	70	1700		123	69	410	200	160	33	280	250	63	2000	83	64	1100	220
Mg	Wells:	2 2	32	30	21	99	102	14	11	20	9.0	Wells	56	31	47	44	9.0	56	14	9.6	11	99	1	21	69	6.9
Ca	Deposit W	240	29	100	44	110	310	48	23	49	1.2	sposit	150	170	170	180	35	62	69	34	33	230	31	54	240	18
Site	Drift Depo	٦.	14	18	35	55	26	57	28	62	87	Bedrock Deposit	e	4	6	21	37	38	39	40	41	43	69	71	82	83

Note: All concentrations reported in mg/l, unless otherwise noted.



Table A.1 (cont'd).

	1							
Ferric Fe		0.29		1.24	4.73	000	0.00	0 40
Total Fe	1.1.	0.79 0.76 0.92 0.43 0.43	ω. v.	4.4	7.06	50.0	0.12	٧
Ferrous Total Ferric Fe Fe Fe	10.00	0.55 0.55 0.33 0.33	m 0	1.20			0.08 0.08 0.22 1.29	
so.		0.0000000000000000000000000000000000000			0.00		00000	
Dissolved Oxygen	000	0.42 0.26 0.00 0.00 0.46	0.00	0.00			0.08 0.08 0.08 0.00	
Н	1.6.	7.83 7.98 7.91 7.64 7.87 8.00	8.		8.30		7.70 7.68 8.12 7.19	•
S1	280	11.2 8.9 8.9 8.4 12.0	7.9	Wells 7.3	2.0.4	6.3	8.7.8	
Sr	Deposit Well 5 1.6 1.6 13 4.0	2.2 2.2 3.0 9.4 0.75		Deposit 2.6 2.1	9.1.	1.3	0.66 5.4 0.77 1.3	
Site	Drift Depo	14 18 35 55 57	87	Bedrock Do	21 21 37	388	441 441 71 82	

Note: All concentrations reported in mg/l, unless otherwise noted.



Table A.1 (cont'd).

Drift Deposit W 15 13 14 18 18 18 55 55 57 57 62 87 84 9 137 337			(ug/1)	(ng/1)	(ug/1)
1 5 1 1 4 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	Wel				
13 118 118 118 55 56 67 67 67 67 67 67 67 67 67 67 67 67 67	546	11.6	3.78	2.17	3.64
14 18 15 55 55 65 87 87 87 31 31 33	1674	11.8	0.00	0.24	2.20
18 18 55 56 57 67 67 67 67 67 67 67 67 67 67 67 67 67	558	9.5	1.98	1.45	3.64
35 55 56 57 62 87 62 87 62 31 64 4 4	606	11.5	0.93	0.62	3.86
55 56 57 58 62 87 drock Depo 3 11 31	515	11.2	0.70	2.22	3.28
56 57 58 62 87 87 drock Depo 4 4 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 6 6 8 8 7 8 7 8 7 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8	2190	12.1	0.00	0.00	2.81
57 58 62 87 87 drock Depo 4 4 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 7 3 3 4 4 4 6 6 6 6 7 8 7 8 7 8 7 8 8 7 8 8 7 8 8 7 8	11700	13.3	0.00	2.35	5.53
58 62 87 drock Depo 4 21 37	474	11.3	3.16	0.43	2.12
62 87 drock Depo 4 4 21 37	492	10.7	0.61	0.87	3.37
87 drock Depo 3 4 21 37 37	692	11.0	1.83	00.0	2.12
drock Depo 3 4 4 21 37 38	6664	13.7	00.0	1.03	2.89
2110 4 4 3 37 1 1 1 2 6 4 3	sit Wells:	::			
4 0 1 1 8 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4		10.6	0.00	0.98	3.31
37 37 38 38 38	1164	12.5	0.94	1.87	4.85
31 38 38	2474	10.7	0.61	1.22	1.26
38	1882	12.3	0.00	0.15	4.75
38	680	11.3	0.43	0.43	4.89
	9	12.5	0.69	7.18	1.57
27	1546	11.6	0.00	0.15	3.97
40	1292	11.6	2.00	0.43	2.25
41	551	12.1	0.51	0.51	2.64
43	8235	15.9	0.00	0.00	2.80
69	607	11.2	1.83	1.13	3.36
71	675	10.6	1.91	1.74	3.09
82	5706	12.0	0.00	0.00	
83	878	11.4	1.91	1.27	4.23

Note: All concentrations reported in mg/l, unless otherwise noted.



monomeric aluminum and major ions were chemically modeled using WATEQF (Plummer et al, 1984), a FORTRAN IV version of WATEQ. Saturation indicies for various aluminosilicate minerals calculated by chemical modeling are provided in Table A.2.

Analyses for aluminum species were conducted on a Perkin-Elmer atomic adsorption unit equipped with a graphite furnace and an autosampler. Analyses for major ions were conducted according to standard U. S. Geological Survey techniques (Skougstad et al, 1985).

A ten-second extraction was performed in the field on the twenty-five ground water samples. The resulting extract contained monomeric aluminum species. The ten-second extraction sample was prepared by filtering the sample through a 0.2 micrometer pore size polycarbonate Nuclepore filter which had been acid rinsed, soaked in distilled deionized water and rinsed thoroughly with the sample water before use. A Nuclepore 0.47 millimeter diameter filtration apparatus was attached to an acid-rinsed 200 milliliter Erlenmeyer flask and a peristaltic pump was used to provide reverse pressure for filtration.

Fifty milliliters of the filtrate was then carefully pipetted out and dispensed into a 200 milliliter acid-rinsed beaker. Distilled deionized water was added to produce a final volume of approximately 100 milliliter. Immediately

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Table A.2 - Saturation Indicies for Various Aluminosilicate Minerals, 1987 Aluminum Speciation Investigation

Site	Adularia	Beidel- lite	Gibbsite	Gibbsite Kaolinite K-Mica	K-Mica	Pyro- phyllite Quartz	Quartz	5102
Drift Deposit		Ī						
S	-0.017	~	906.0	5.909	9.042		0.422	-0.952
13	1.047		2.402	5.886	13.096		0.419	-0.958
14	0.83	4	1.64	4.584	11.355		0.535	-0.847
18	0.974		2.117	5.429	12.45		0.49	-0.899
35	0.434	4	1.964	4.832	11.609		0.32	-1.05
55	0.047	~	1.017		9.334		0.356	-1.009
26	-0.639		0.893	2.666	8.392		0.323	-1.059
57	.92		2.157		12.481		0.415	-0.964
58	-0.243	~		2.863	8.842		0.384	-0.988
62	-0.132	2.721	1.004	٥.	9.127		0.314	-1.049
87	0.75	4.943	1.743	4.723	11.481	6.907	0.4	
Bodrock		Welle.						
	0.149		1.66	3.906	10.713	5.365	0.176	-1.205
4	-0.349	, –	0.789		8.475		0,199	-1.173
• •	0.7	•	2.203	5,109	12.352		0.227	-1.149
21	0.076	3,539	1.531	3.812	10.384		0.253	-1.125
37	-0.909	1.791			8.289		0.107	-1.266
38	-0.14	3.862	1.67	4.128	10.446		0.266	-1.107
39		5.068	2.193	5.241	11.676		0.311	-1.071
40		4.484		4.413	11.97		0.199	-1.177
41		5.398	2.106	5.205	12.409		0.376	-1.003
43		2.105		2.57	8.531		0.242	-1.134
69		4.877		4.739	11.622		0.392	-0.984
71	1.168	6.097	2.423	۳.	13.26		0.353	-1.022
82		4.537	1.811	4.564	11.199		0.34	-1.03
83	-0.171	2.713	•	2.938	9.233	5.3	0.236	-1.113

Note: Concentrations of mononuclear aluminum were used in chemical modeling.

after this step, 2 milliliters of 8-hydroxyquinoline solution was added by repipette. The 8-hydroxyquinoline solution was prepared according to Barnes, 1975. The preparation technique is also described below. "Metal free" ammonium hydroxide was added dropwise to adjust the pH to 8.3. The ammonium hydroxide was prepared according to Barnes, 1975. The pH probe had been standardized with pH buffers 7 and 10, which were at ambient temperature. Five milliliters of buffer solution were then added with a repipette to keep the pH at 8.3. The buffer solution was prepared according to Barnes, 1975. The preparation technique is also described below.

The mixture was poured into an acid-rinsed 250 milliliter volumetric flask. Ten milliliters of methyl isobutyl ketone (MIBK) were then added by pipette and swirled for 10 seconds. The layer of MIBK was allowed to separate out. The volumetric flask was carefully filled with water. Using an Eppendorf pipette, the MIBK extract (approximately 6 milliliter) was removed and stored in 30 milliliter high-density polyethylene (HDPE) bottles, which had been acid rinsed and soaked in distilled water.

In addition to the ten-second extraction, a thirty-minute extraction was performed in the field on a freshly obtained ground water sample. The resulting extract contained polymeric aluminum species. The thirty-minute extraction was conducted in the same manner as the 10 second

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extraction, except that the volumetric flask was shaken by hand for 30 minutes before the MIBK was added. The extract was then removed, in the same manner as for the 10 second extract.

Several reagents were prepared for use in this laboratory work. The 8-hydroxyquinoline solution was prepared in the following manner. Two grams of 8-hydroxyquinoline were dissolved in 5 milliliters of distilled glacial acetic acid and diluted to 200 milliliters with distilled deionized water (Turner 1969; May et al., 1979; Okura et al., 1962; James et al. 1983; Bloom et al. 1978; Barnes 1975).

The buffer solution was prepared by adding 223 milliliters of 10 M "metal free" ammonium hydroxide and 115 milliliters of distilled glacial acetic acid to 500 milliliters of distilled deionized water. The pH was then adjusted to 8.3 with 10 molar ammonium hydroxide and acetic acid. The solution was then diluted to one liter with distilled deionized water (Barnes, 1975).

To collect samples for analysis of total aluminum concentration in the field, sample water was filtered with the same filtration equipment as the extractions, except that a 0.4 micrometer pore size polycarbonate Nuclepore filter was used. Two hundred and fifty (250) milliliters of filtered sample was poured into 250 milliliter HDPE bottles, which had been acid rinsed and soaked in distilled water prior to use. The sample was then acidified to pH 2 with

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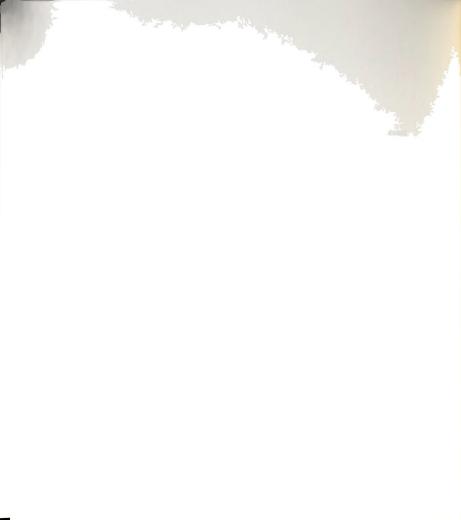
0.5 milliliter double distilled Ultrex* nitric acid. The acidified sample was left undisturbed for at least two weeks prior to analysis, in order to allow larger polynuclear aluminum species and colloidal suspended material to convert to a more reactive form of aluminum (Barnes, 1975).

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