

A DIGITAL SIMULATION OF THE GLACIAL-AQUIFER
SYSTEM IN THE NORTHERN THREE-FOURTHS
OF BROWN COUNTY, SOUTH DAKOTA

By Patrick J. Emmons

U.S. GEOLOGICAL SURVEY

Water-Resources Investigations Report 88-4198

Prepared in cooperation with the CITY OF ABERDEEN
and the SOUTH DAKOTA DEPARTMENT OF WATER
AND NATURAL RESOURCES



Huron, South Dakota
1990

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CONTENTS

	Page
Abstract	1
Introduction	2
Geologic setting	4
Hydrologic setting	6
Sandy lake deposits	9
Elm aquifer	9
Middle James aquifer	17
Deep James aquifer	21
Design of the glacial-aquifer system flow model	25
Simplifying assumptions	25
The digital model	28
Model data	28
Dimensions of the finite-difference grid	28
Altitude of the top and bottom of the aquifers	29
Hydraulic conductivity of the aquifers	29
Leakance of the confining beds	37
Storage in the aquifers	40
Recharge to the aquifers	40
Evapotranspiration from the aquifers	41
Pumpage from the aquifers	46
Hydraulic connection between the rivers and aquifers	46
Simulation of ground-water flow in the glacial-aquifer system	46
Calibration of the ground-water flow model	46
Steady-state simulation	48
Transient simulation	55
Model sensitivity	68
Summary and conclusions	71
Selected references	72

ILLUSTRATIONS

		Page
Figure 1.	Map showing location of the study area	3
2.	Schematic diagram showing site-numbering system	5
3.	Map showing bedrock geology	7
4.	Typical geohydrologic section showing the relation between glacial aquifers and confining beds	8
5.	Map showing average sand thickness of the sandy lake deposits for each grid block	10
6.	Map showing average thickness of the Elm aquifer for each grid block	12
7.	Map showing average thickness of confining beds overlying the Elm aquifer and the sandy lake deposits for each grid block	14
8.	Water-level hydrographs for selected wells completed in the Elm aquifer	16
9.	Map showing average thickness of the Middle James aquifer for each grid block	18
10.	Water-level hydrographs for selected wells completed in the Middle James aquifer	20
11.	Map showing average thickness of the Deep James aquifer for each grid block	22
12.	Water-level hydrograph for a well completed in the Deep James aquifer	24
13.	Simplifying assumptions used to develop the digital ground-water flow model	26
14.	Finite-difference grid blocks and aquifer layers used to define the glacial-aquifer system	27
15-22.	Map showing:	
15.	Average hydraulic conductivity of aquifer layer 1 for each grid block	30
16.	Average hydraulic conductivity of aquifer layer 2 for each grid block	32
17.	Average hydraulic conductivity of aquifer layer 3 for each grid block	34
18.	Average available recharge to the uppermost active aquifer for each grid block	38
19.	Average available evapotranspiration from the uppermost active aquifer for each grid block	44
20.	Simulated steady-state potentiometric surface of aquifer layer 1	51
21.	Simulated steady-state potentiometric surface of aquifer layer 2	52
22.	Simulated steady-state potentiometric surface of aquifer layer 3	53
23.	Hydrographs showing comparison of simulated and observed monthly potentiometric heads in the Elm aquifer part of aquifer layer 1, 1985	57
24.	Hydrographs showing comparison of simulated and observed monthly potentiometric heads in the sandy lake deposits part of aquifer layer 1, 1985	58
25.	Hydrographs showing comparison of simulated and observed monthly potentiometric heads in aquifer layer 2, 1985	59
26.	Map showing simulated potentiometric surface of aquifer layer 1, April 1985	60
27.	Map showing simulated potentiometric surface of aquifer layer 2, April 1985	61

ILLUSTRATIONS--Continued

	Page
28. Map showing simulated potentiometric surface of aquifer layer 3, April 1985	62
29. Map showing simulated potentiometric surface of aquifer layer 1, August 1985	64
30. Map showing simulated potentiometric surface of aquifer layer 2, August 1985	65
31. Map showing simulated potentiometric surface of aquifer layer 3, August 1985	66

TABLES

Table 1.	Relation between grain size and hydraulic conductivity	36
2.	Average monthly precipitation and estimated recharge	42
3.	Estimated monthly pan evaporation and estimated potential evapotranspiration	43
4.	Monthly ground-water withdrawal rates from the study area, 1983-85	47
5.	Comparison between simulated and observed potentiometric heads for aquifer layer 1	49
6.	Comparison between simulated and observed potentiometric heads for aquifer layer 2	50
7.	Simulated water budget under steady-state conditions	55
8.	Monthly simulated water budgets, 1985	67
9.	Model sensitivity to changes in recharge, evapotranspiration, and hydraulic conductivity for aquifer layer 1	69
10.	Model sensitivity to changes in recharge, evapotranspiration, and hydraulic conductivity for aquifer layer 2	70

CONVERSION FACTORS

For readers who may prefer to use metric (International System) units rather than inch-pound units, the conversion factors for the terms in this report are listed below:

<u>Multiply inch-pound unit</u>	<u>By</u>	<u>To obtain metric unit</u>
acre	4,047	square meter
acre-foot per year (acre-ft/yr)	1,234	cubic meter per year
cubic foot per second (ft ³ /s)	0.02832	cubic meter per second
foot (ft)	0.3048	meter
foot per day (ft/d)	0.3048	meter per day
foot per mile (ft/mi)	0.1894	meter per kilometer
inch	25.4	millimeter
inch per year (in/yr)	25.4	millimeter per year
gallon per minute (gal/min)	0.06308	liter per second
mile (mi)	1.609	kilometer
square mile (mi ²)	2.590	square kilometer

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

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ABSTRACT

The drought in South Dakota from 1974-76 and the near-drought conditions in 1980-81 have resulted in increased demands on the ground-water resources within many of the intensively irrigated areas of the James River basin in eastern South Dakota. These increases in demand for irrigation water from the glacial-aquifer system and concern about the adequacy of the ground-water resources for future development have created a need for a systematic water-management program to avoid overdevelopment of these aquifers in the James River basin.

A complex hydrologic system exists in the glacial drift overlying the bedrock in Brown County. This system has been subdivided in descending order into three aquifers: the Elm (aquifer layer 1), Middle James (aquifer layer 2), and Deep James (aquifer layer 3) aquifers. These sand and gravel outwash aquifers generally are separated from each other by till and other fine-grained sediments. Fine-grained lake deposits, which were deposited on the bed of ancient Lake Dakota, are not an important aquifer but commonly provide recharge to and discharge from the Elm and Middle James aquifers.

These three aquifers were simulated under steady-state and transient conditions using the U.S. Geological Survey's modular, three-dimensional, finite-difference, ground-water flow model program. The simulations were used to help understand flow in the glacial-aquifer system. An equally spaced grid containing 86 rows and 70 columns was used to simulate the glacial-aquifer system. The steady-state simulation represents the system under equilibrium conditions. The maximum available steady-state recharge to the aquifer was 7.0 inches per year and the maximum potential evapotranspiration was 35.4 inches per year. The thickness of the confining bed overlying the uppermost active aquifer controls the actual amount of recharge or evapotranspiration which can occur in each model grid block. The simulated steady-state potentiometric heads were compared to the average water levels from observation wells in aquifer layer 1 and aquifer layer 2 as a means of checking the accuracy of the simulations. The average differences were 0.78 feet for aquifer layer 1 and 3.49 feet for aquifer layer 2. The average absolute difference was 4.59 feet for aquifer layer 1 and 5.10 feet for aquifer layer 2. There were no water-level data available to check the accuracy of aquifer layer 3. The steady-state simulated water budget indicates recharge from precipitation accounts for 94.8 percent of the water entering the system and evapotranspiration accounts for 95.8 percent of the water leaving the system. The sensitivity analysis of the steady-state model indicates that it is most sensitive to reductions in recharge and least sensitive to changes in hydraulic conductivity.

In the monthly transient simulations for 1985, recharge, evapotranspiration, and pumpage were varied monthly. The maximum monthly recharge ranged from zero during the winter months to 2.51 inches in May. The maximum potential evapotranspiration ranged from zero during the winter months to 7.03 inches in July. The average monthly difference between the simulated and observed water levels ranged from -2.54 feet in July to 1.48 feet in January for aquifer layer 1 and from -1.22 feet in April to 4.98 feet in October for aquifer layer 2. The average absolute differences for aquifer layer 1 ranged from 4.16 feet in September to 6.31 feet in February and ranged from 3.96 feet in April to 8.23 feet in August for aquifer layer 2. The water levels for the monthly transient simulations varied considerably as a result of changes in recharge, evapotranspiration, storage, and pumpage.

INTRODUCTION

The drought in South Dakota from 1974-76 and the near-drought conditions in 1980-81 have resulted in increased demands on the ground-water resources within many of the intensively irrigated areas of the James River basin in eastern South Dakota. Between 1972 and 1980, the total quantity of ground-water irrigation from the glacial-aquifer system in the James River basin increased from 4,999 acre-ft/yr (South Dakota Water Resources Commission, written commun., 1973) to 35,422 acre-ft/yr (South Dakota Department of Water and Natural Resources, written commun., 1981), an increase of greater than 600 percent. These increases in demand for irrigation water from the glacial-aquifer system and concern about the adequacy of ground-water resources for future development have created a need for a systematic water-management program to avoid overdevelopment of these aquifers in the James River basin.

In 1983, the South Dakota Department of Water and Natural Resources and the City of Aberdeen entered into a cooperative agreement with the U.S. Geological Survey to define the flow system of the glacial-aquifer system in the northern three-fourths of Brown County (fig. 1). More specifically, the study will improve definition of the glacial-aquifer boundaries; determine the aquifer thicknesses, direction of ground-water movement, and hydrologic properties of the glacial-aquifer system; and identify areas of ground-water recharge and discharge and determine rates of natural recharge and discharge. This report presents the results of the investigation of the glacial-aquifer system in the northern three-fourths of Brown County using a three-dimensional ground-water flow model and describes the design and calibration of that model.

The scope of this investigation included the collation and synthesis of aquifer-test data, well and test hole logs, water-level measurements, pumpage data, and other miscellaneous geohydrologic data.

The aquifer-test data provided site-specific information on the transmissivity, hydraulic conductivity, and storage coefficient of the aquifers. Well and test-hole data for Brown, Marshall, and Day Counties were obtained from the South Dakota Geological Survey, U.S. Geological Survey, U.S. Bureau of Reclamation, private drillers, and other miscellaneous sources. The well and test-hole data provided detailed information on the extent, thickness, and composition of the aquifers and confining beds. Where existing data were inadequate, the South Dakota Geological Survey drilled 32 additional test holes. Water-level data that were obtained from the South Dakota Department of Water and Natural Resources provided historical water-level data and allowed for the determination of long-term water-level changes. During 1984 and 1985, the U.S. Geological Survey measured 47 wells to provide additional

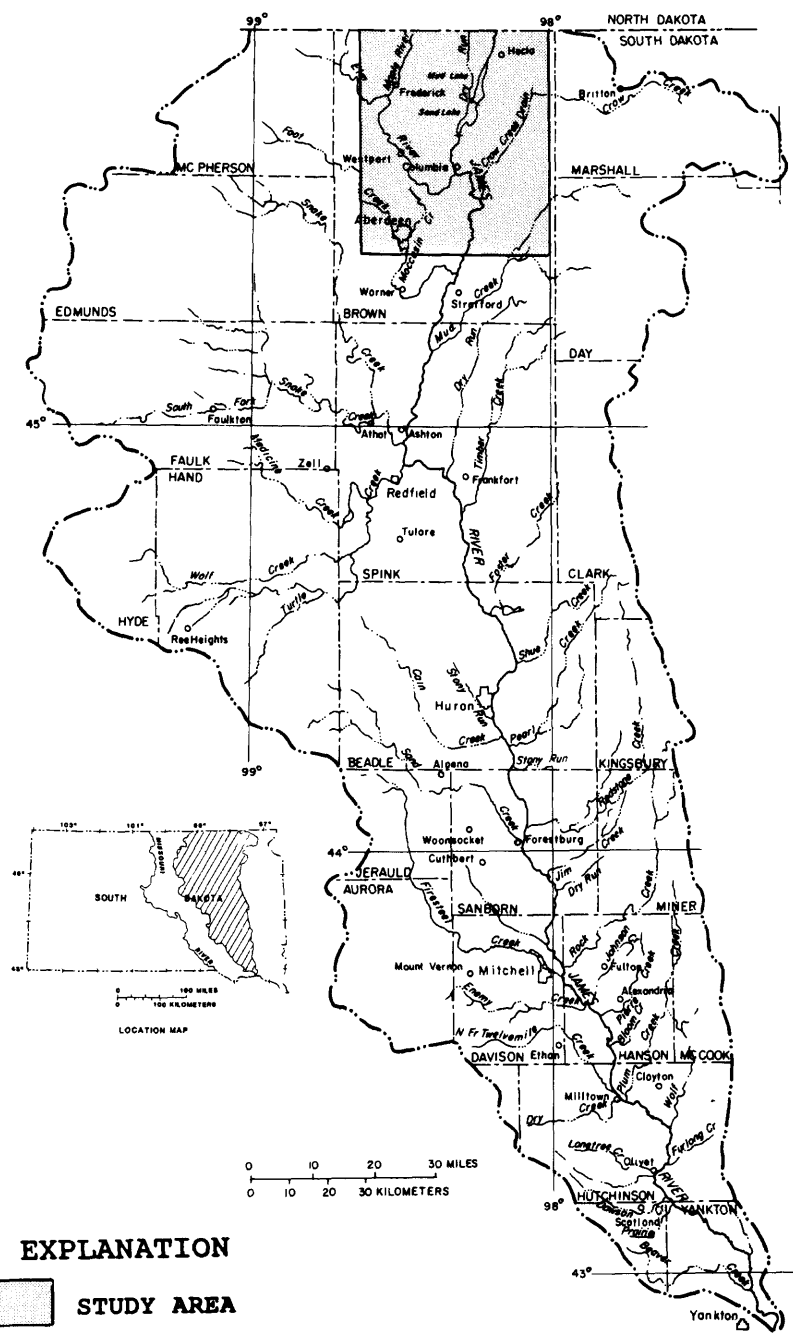


Figure 1.--Location of study area.

water-level data where it was lacking or insufficient. The South Dakota Department of Water and Natural Resources provided pumpage data that were used to determine the magnitude of the stress being applied to the aquifer system.

All these data were used to develop a digital flow model of the aquifer system. The aquifer system was simulated by using the U.S. Geological Survey's modular three-dimensional finite-difference ground-water flow model program developed by McDonald and Harbaugh (1984).

Wells and test holes used in this report are numbered according to the Federal land-survey system of eastern South Dakota (fig. 2).

GEOLOGIC SETTING

During the Pleistocene Epoch, continental glaciers from the north and east covered eastern South Dakota, depositing a blanket of glacial drift over the eroded preglacial bedrock surface. The glaciers radically altered the topography by partially filling major valleys, entirely obliterating many small valleys, scouring new valleys, and forming massive end moraines. The overall effect of glaciation has been to lower the local topographic relief. One of the greatest changes caused by the glaciers was the rearrangement of the surface drainage. Before glaciation, the main streams flowed toward the east. As a result of glaciation, the drainage in eastern South Dakota is now predominately southward (Flint, 1955).

The James River basin is a lowland of low to moderate relief trending northward between the Coteau du Missouri highlands to the west and the Coteau des Prairies highlands to the east. The basin is 50 to 75 mi wide and about 250 mi long in South Dakota. The James River, which occupies the central axis of the basin, drains the basin to the south (Flint, 1955).

Most of the surficial deposits in the study area (fig. 1) are the result of glaciation and collectively are called drift, which is any material deposited by or from a glacier. Drift in Brown County can be subdivided into three major types--till, outwash, and lake deposits--that differ greatly in physical and hydraulic characteristics. Till, which was deposited directly from or by glacial ice, is a heterogeneous mixture of clay, silt, sand, and gravel. Outwash, which was deposited from or by meltwater streams on top of the ice or beyond the margin of the active glacial ice, consists primarily of sand and gravel but may contain silt and clay and interbedded layers of sandy or gravelly silt and clay. Beds of well-sorted sand and gravel are contained in the outwash but generally are small and discontinuous (Howells and Stephens, 1968). Leap (1986) subdivided the glacial outwash into three major types of deposits--surface deposits, intratill deposits, and buried meltwater channel deposits. The buried meltwater channel deposits, primarily of proglacial origin, were further subdivided into three different levels--the lowermost or basal outwash, middle outwash, and the upper buried outwash.

When the glacial ice sheet of Wisconsin age melted back into North Dakota, meltwater flowing from it accumulated in a shallow depression, glacial Lake Dakota which includes about the eastern two-thirds of Brown County. The area is a distinct physiographic unit known as the Lake Dakota plain. The lake deposits consist generally of silt, however, in a large area in northeastern Brown County, the silt is overlaid by lake deposits of fine to medium-grained sand (Leap, 1986). Koch and Bradford (1976) classified the lake deposits as very fine to fine-grained sand.

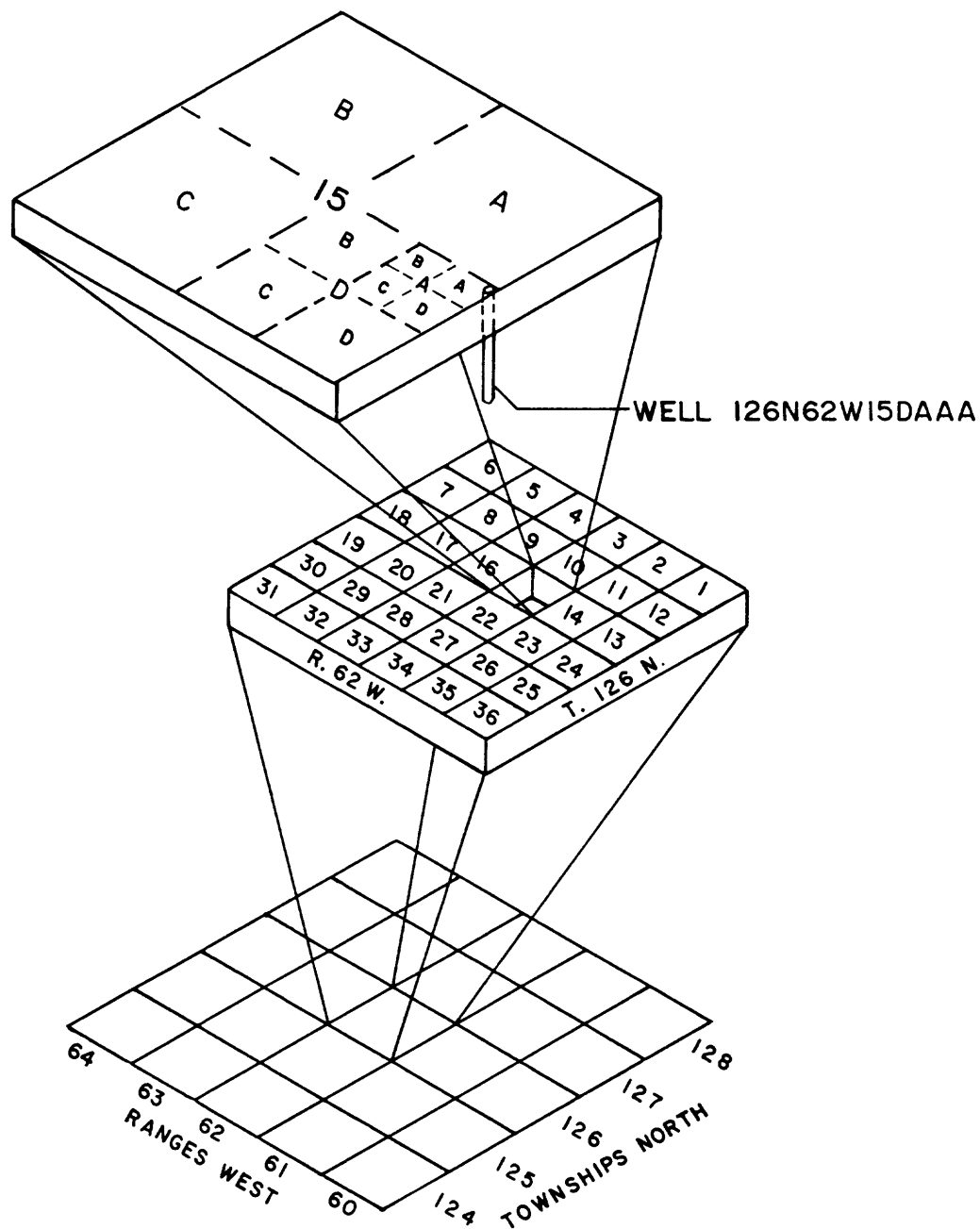


Figure 2.--Site-numbering system. The well number consists of township followed by "N," range followed by "W," and section number, followed by a maximum of four uppercase letters that indicate, respectively, the 160-, 40-, 10-, and 2½-acre tract in which the well is located. These letters are assigned in a counterclockwise direction beginning with "A" in the northeast quarter. Thus, well 126N62W15DAAA is the well recorded in the NE $\frac{1}{4}$ of the NE $\frac{1}{4}$ of the NE $\frac{1}{4}$ of the SE $\frac{1}{4}$ of section 15 in township 126 north and range 62 west of the 5th meridian and baseline system.

The drift may be covered by deposits of alluvium along streams and rivers and locally, the drift may be covered by windblown sand and silt, especially on the Lake Dakota plain. The alluvium, which consists of poorly sorted, poorly stratified, thin, discontinuous layers of material, ranges in size from clay to boulders, but usually has a large silt content and does not contain significant sand and gravel.

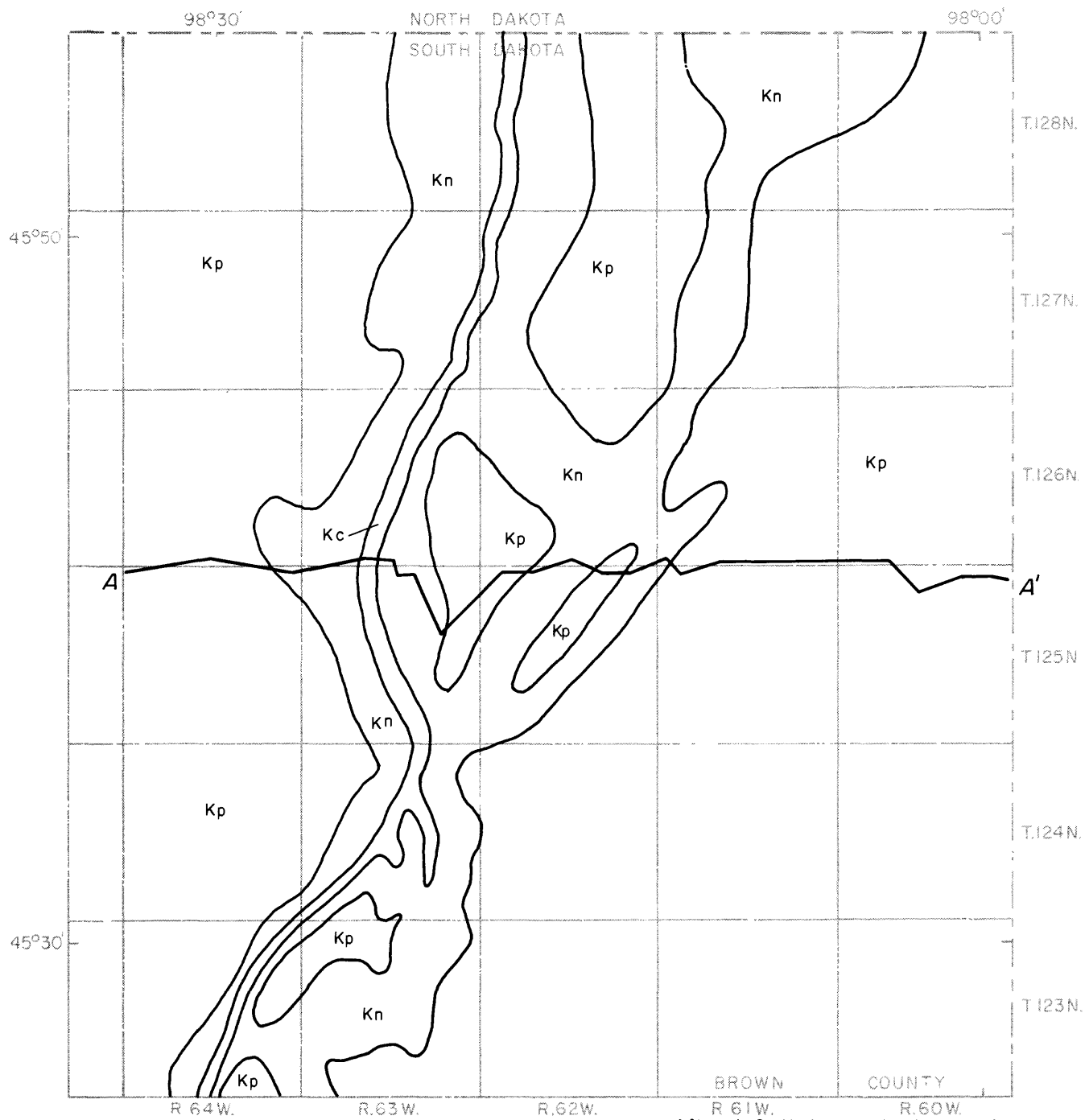
The bedrock directly underlying the drift in the study area, in descending order, consists of the Upper Cretaceous Pierre Shale, Niobrara Formation, and Carlile Shale (fig. 3). The Pierre Shale is predominantly a dark-gray, fissile, bentonitic clay-shale. The Pierre Shale has a maximum thickness of 320 ft in Brown County and is exposed along stream channels in the western part of the county. The Pierre Shale is believed to be conformable with the underlying Niobrara Formation (Leap, 1986). The Niobrara Formation is predominantly a light- to dark-gray speckled marl or calcareous clay with some "chalk" and shaly beds. The marl contains shells of foraminifera that impart the distinctive, white-speckled appearance. The Niobrara is not exposed on the surface but is found in subcrops beneath the drift where the Pierre Shale is absent. According to Hedges and others (1983), the Carlile Shale directly underlies the drift in a narrow band trending roughly north-south through the study area. This band of Carlile Shale is located in the preglacial Grand-Moreau-Cheyenne River channel (Leap, 1986). The Carlile consists mostly of light-gray to black shale containing silty and sandy zones. The maximum thickness of the Carlile Shale in Brown County is 275 ft.

Hydrologic Setting

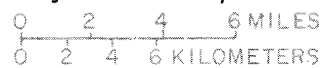
Ground water is a major source of water for irrigation, municipal, farm, and domestic use in the James River basin. In the unconsolidated surficial deposits, only the more sandy and gravelly glacial-outwash deposits yield substantial quantities of water to wells. The remaining unconsolidated surficial deposits generally are either too clayey and silty or are too thin to serve as major sources of water except in very localized situations.

The natural recharge, movement, and discharge of water in the outwash aquifers are controlled by the lithology and stratigraphy of the surficial deposits and the underlying bedrock units. The till and the layers of silt and clay within the outwash deposits may confine the outwash aquifers. In the study area, the till, the Pierre Shale, Niobrara Formation, and Carlile Shale generally yield little or no water to wells and are considered to be confining beds.

The units that comprise the complex hydrologic system in the glacial outwash have been subdivided into three aquifers in Brown County by Koch and Bradford (1976). They are the Elm, Middle James, and Deep James aquifers. The Elm, Middle James, and Deep James aquifers equate to Leap's (1986) three levels of buried meltwater channel deposits: the uppermost buried outwash, the middle outwash, and the lowermost or basal outwash, respectively. The topographic and stratigraphic relations of these aquifers are shown in the geohydrologic section in figure 4. Koch and Bradford (1976) defined the Elm, Middle James, and Deep James aquifers based on altitude. The maximum altitude of the top of the Elm aquifer is 1,400 ft and the minimum altitude of the bottom is 1,225 ft. The maximum altitude of the top of the Middle James aquifer is 1,250 ft and the minimum altitude of the bottom is 1,150 ft. The maximum altitude of the top of the Deep James aquifer is 1,175 ft and the minimum altitude of the bottom is 950 ft.



After L.S. Hedges and others, 1981



EXPLANATION

- Kp PIERRE SHALE
- Kn NIOBRARA FORMATION
- Kc CARLILE SHALE
- A—A' LINE OF GEOLOGIC SECTION

Figure 3.--Bedrock geology.

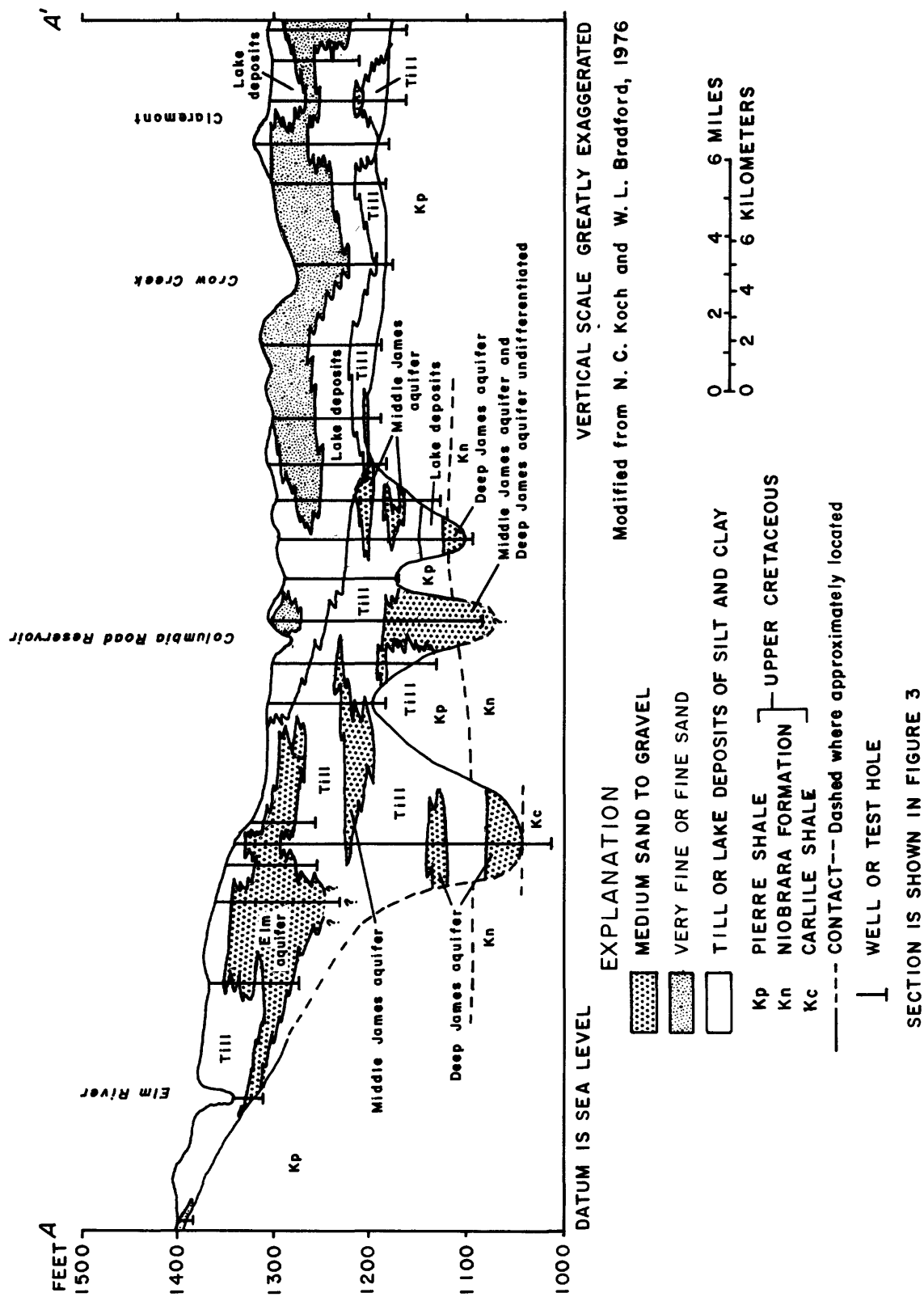


Figure 4.--Typical geohydrologic section showing the relation between the glacial aquifers and confining beds.

The three glacial-outwash aquifers generally are separated from each other by till, as shown in figure 4, and may be internally separated by till and thin clay and silt outwash layers. The till and thin clay and silt outwash layers allow some flow to occur between and within the aquifers.

Sandy Lake Deposits

The Lake Dakota plain covers much of the study area. Glacial meltwaters deposited an average of about 75 ft of fine sand, silt, and clay on the bed of ancient Lake Dakota. Figure 5 shows the average thickness and extent of the sandy lake deposits. Wells completed in the sandy lake deposits may yield 1 to 5 gal/min, but well failure is common because of clogging of the well screens by fine-grained sediments. These sediments commonly pass through the well screen and enter the water system, not only clogging the well but abrading and seriously damaging pumps and other equipment (Koch and Bradford, 1976). Because of the low yield potential of the sandy lake deposits compared to the glacial outwash, the lake deposits are considered a minor aquifer in the study area; however, they commonly provide recharge to and accept discharge from the Elm and Middle James aquifers, as well as provide for interaquifer flow.

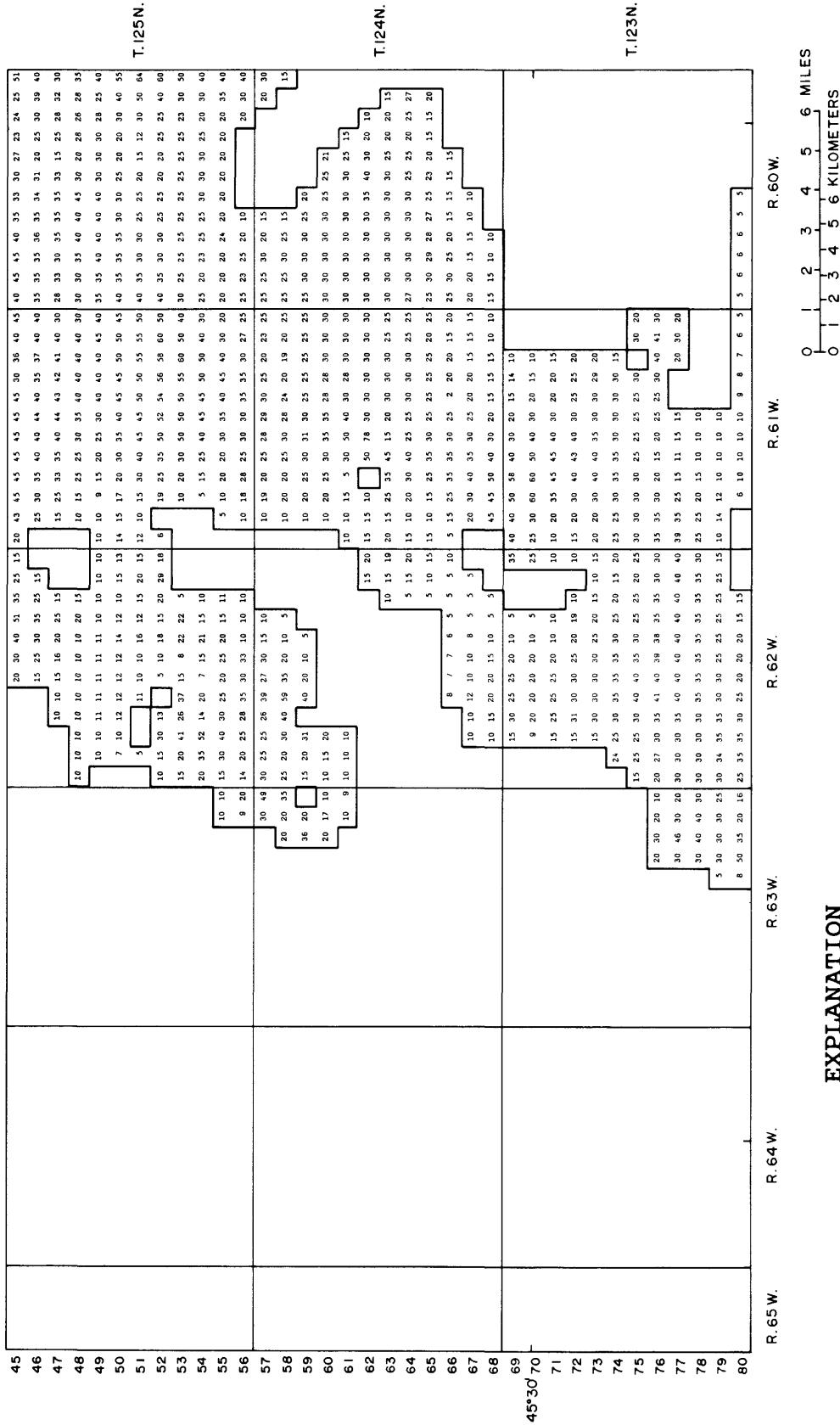
Elm Aquifer

The Elm aquifer is the uppermost and largest sand-and-gravel outwash aquifer in the glacial-aquifer system (figs. 4 and 6) in the study area. Because of the availability of additional well logs, reinterpretation of existing logs, and the averaging of the aquifer thicknesses, the boundaries shown in figure 6 may differ from those of Koch and Bradford (1976). The aquifer underlies about 351 mi² of the study area. The thickness ranges from zero at the boundaries to 113 ft in 127N62W18A and averages about 32 ft. The aquifer slopes to the east at about the same gradient as the topographic surface, about 15 ft/mi.

The water in the aquifer is under water-table (unconfined) conditions in some places and under artesian (confined) conditions where the confining bed overlying the aquifer is sufficiently thick. Emmons (1988), in developing a ground-water flow model of the glacial-aquifer system in the Sanborn-Beadle County area (fig. 1), estimated that a confining-bed thickness of 10 ft or greater overlying the aquifer probably is sufficient to confine the aquifer, causing artesian conditions. Even in areas where the aquifer is under water-table conditions, silt and clay layers within the aquifer may confine its lower parts. The thickness of the confining bed overlying the Elm aquifer or sandy lake deposits is shown in figure 7. The thickness of confining bed overlying the uppermost aquifer averages about 20 ft.

Recharge to the Elm aquifer is by infiltration of precipitation and snowmelt, and possibly by leakage from the Elm River and Foot Creek during periods of high flow directly into the aquifer or by percolation through the overlying lake sediments and till. Recharge occurs more rapidly in level areas where the aquifer is at or near land surface or where more permeable sandy lake deposits overlie the aquifer. Recharge occurs more slowly where the aquifer is overlaid by less permeable clayey or silty lake deposits or till.

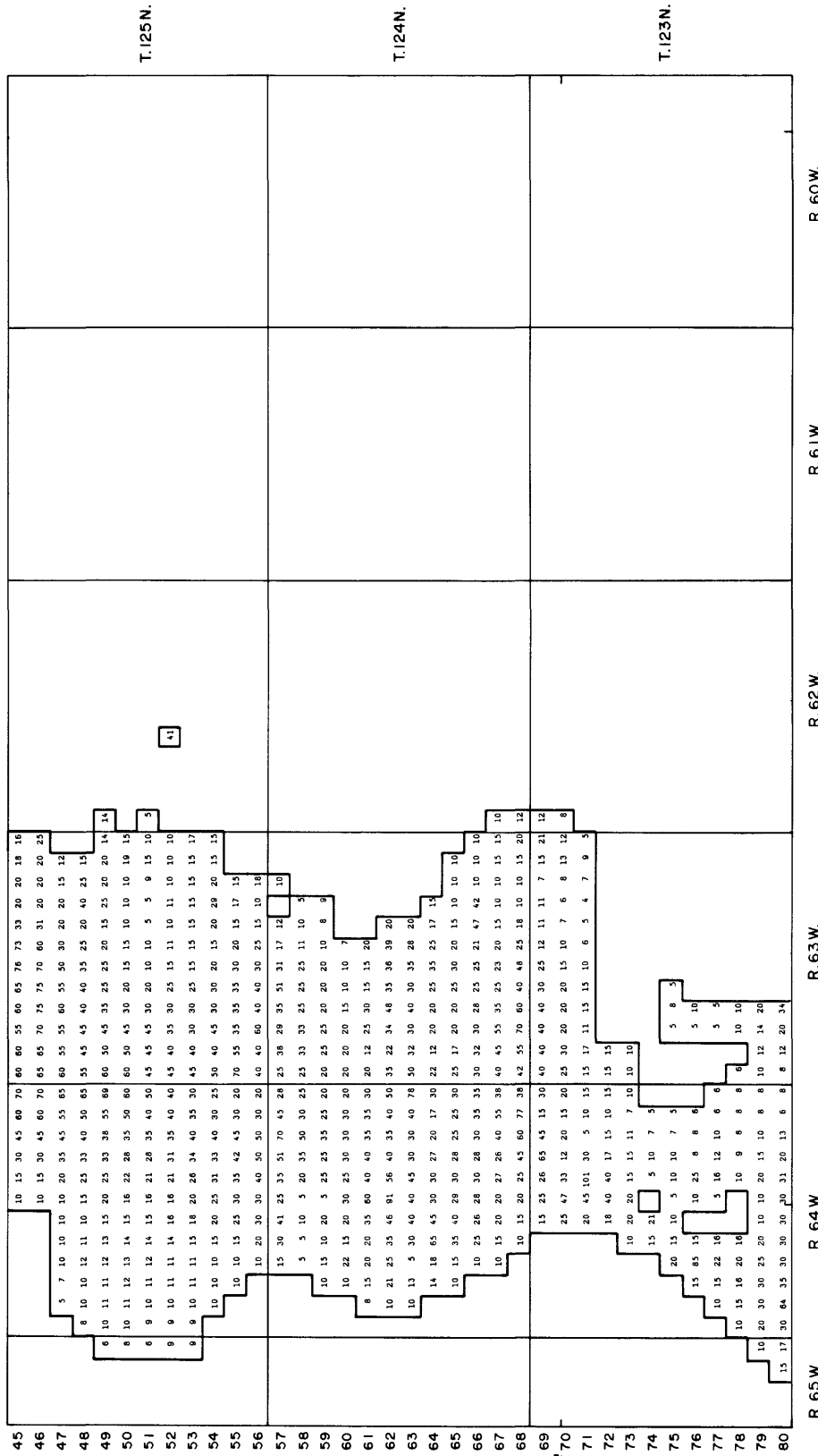
Hydrographs of water levels from two observation wells completed in the Elm aquifer are shown in figure 8. Examination of the hydrographs indicates that no long-term water-level declines have occurred in the aquifer, although seasonal and year-to-year changes have occurred because of variations in available recharge. Koch and Bradford (1976) determined that the water level in the Elm aquifer varied in direct response to snowmelt, rainfall, or



25 AQUIFER THICKNESS--Number is the average value for each grid block (0.25 square mile), in feet

— AQUIFER MODEL BOUNDARY

Figure 5.--Average sand thickness of the sandy lake deposits for each grid block.



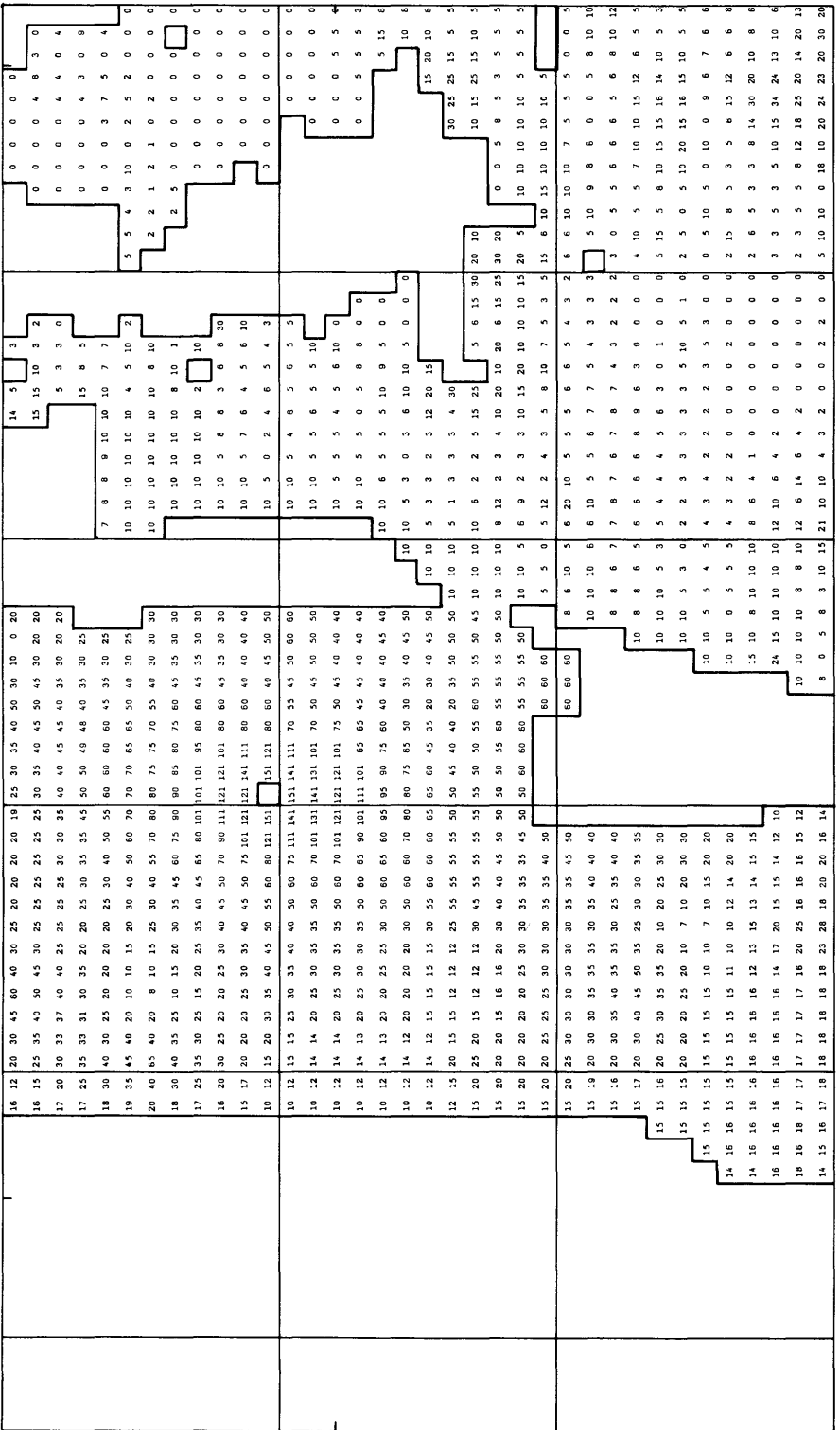
EXPLANATION

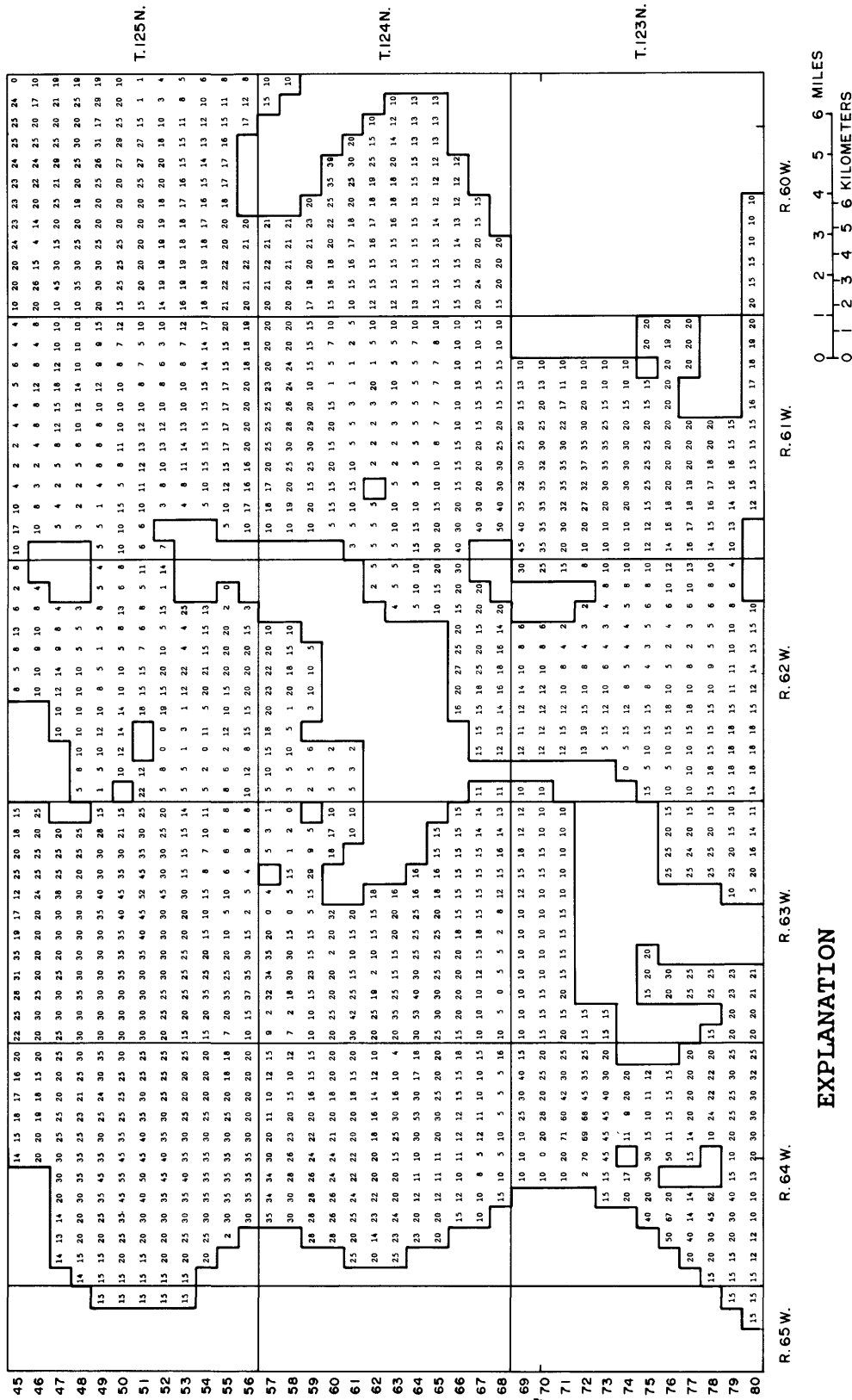
25 AQUIFER THICKNESS--Number is the average value for each grid block (0.25 square mile), in feet

— AQUIFER MODEL BOUNDARY

Figure 6.--Average thickness of the Elm aquifer for each grid block.

COLUMN 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60 61 62 63 64





10 THICKNESS OF CONFINING BED--Number is the average value for each grid block (0.25 square mile), in feet

— AQUIFER OR SANDY LAKE DEPOSIT MODEL BOUNDARY

Figure 7.--Average thickness of confining beds overlying the Elm aquifer and the sandy lake deposits for each grid block.

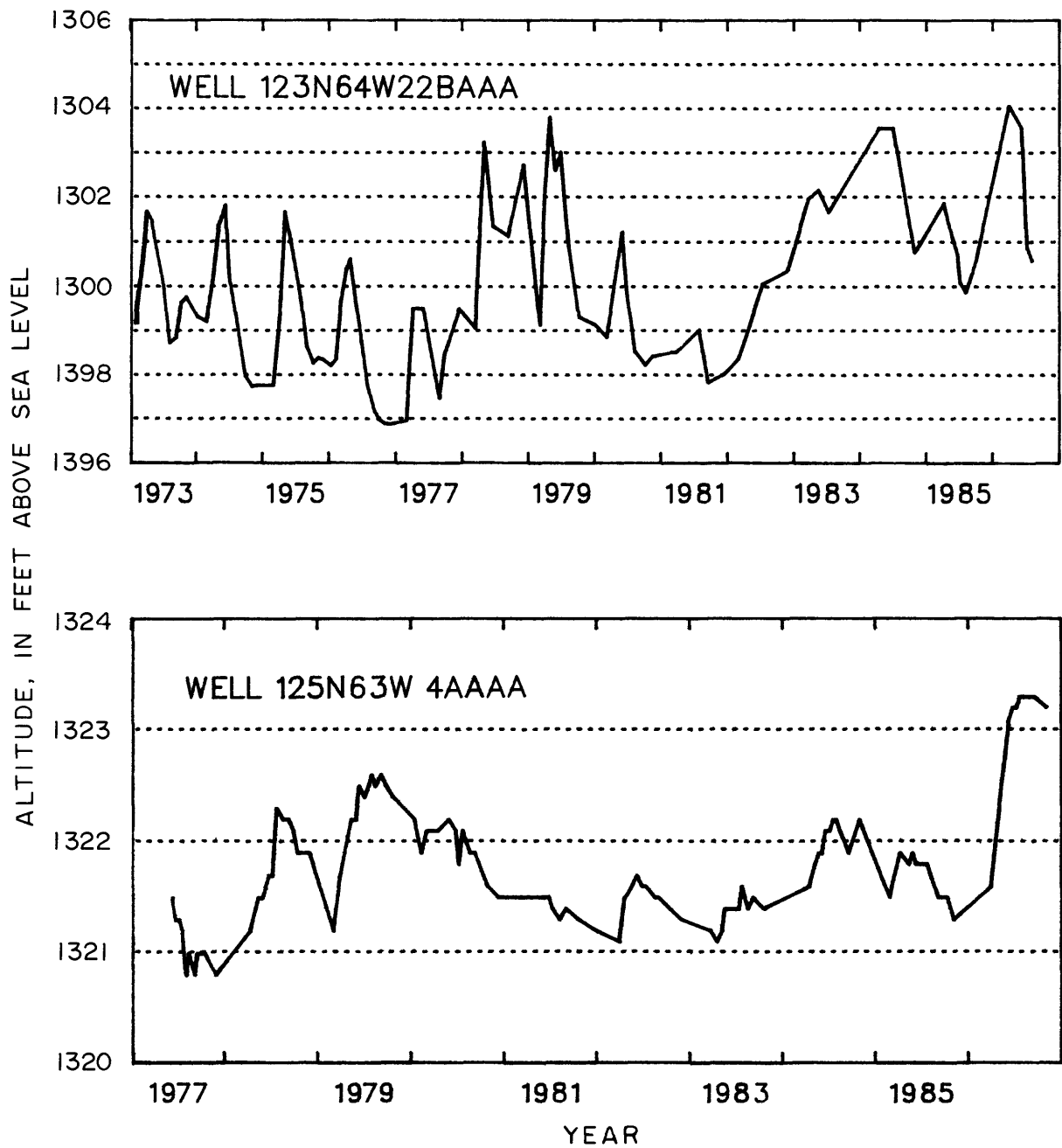


Figure 8.--Water-level hydrographs for selected wells completed in the Elm aquifer.

drought with only a short time lag. They also compared long-term water-level data and cumulative departure of precipitation from normal which showed that even though precipitation was more than 25 inches less than normal from 1950 to 1972, water levels in the Elm aquifer remained about the same.

Natural discharge occurs as evapotranspiration, eastward flow into the sandy lake deposits underlying the Lake Dakota plain, recharge into the Middle James aquifer, and minor seepage into the Elm River and Foot Creek during periods of low flow. The Elm aquifer does not appear to be in hydraulic connection with the James River. According to Koch and Bradford (1976), the general direction of water movement in the aquifer is to the southeast at a gradient of about 10 ft/mi. Discharge from the aquifer also occurs by pumpage from wells and as seepage into gravel pits that penetrate the aquifer. Most of the wells completed in the Elm aquifer are small-yield domestic, stock, and farm wells. In addition, currently (1986) about 120 ft³/s of irrigation and municipal pumpage is permitted from the glacial-aquifer system from about 55 permits in the study area according to unpublished data provided by the South Dakota Department of Water and Natural Resources. The 55 locations are either single wells, multiple wells on a single permit, or gravel pits. These wells may yield water from the Elm aquifer, the Middle James aquifer, the Deep James aquifer, or any combination. According to Koch and Bradford (1976), wells can be constructed to yield 500 gal/min or more where at least 40 ft of medium-grained sand is present. For coarser material, a lesser thickness is needed.

Middle James Aquifer

The Middle James aquifer stratigraphically underlies the Elm aquifer and covers about 500 mi² of the study area (fig. 9). The boundaries shown in figure 9 may differ from those of Koch and Bradford (1976) due to the availability of additional well logs, reinterpretation of existing logs, and the averaging of aquifer thicknesses. The thickness ranges from zero at the boundaries to 111 ft in 123N64W21C and 127N63W21D and averages about 17 ft. The aquifer is lenticular and contains many clay and silt layers.

Water in the Middle James aquifer generally is under artesian conditions except where the overlying confining bed is less than about 10 ft thick. Even in areas where the upper part of the aquifer is under water-table conditions, the intervening clay and silt layers commonly confine the lower parts of the aquifer.

Recharge to the Middle James aquifer is from the Elm aquifer and from percolation of snowmelt and precipitation through the overlying lake deposits and till. Probably the largest source of recharge water is from the overlying Elm aquifer where it is in contact with the Middle James aquifer (Koch and Bradford, 1976).

Examination of hydrographs of the water levels measured in two observation wells completed in the Middle James aquifer (fig. 10) indicates no long-term water-level declines have developed. Seasonal and annual fluctuations occur because of variations in recharge, evapotranspiration, and ground-water withdrawal due to pumping. Koch and Bradford (1976) determined that water levels in the Middle James aquifer have remained about the same from 1950 to 1972 even though precipitation totaled 25 inches less than normal for that period.

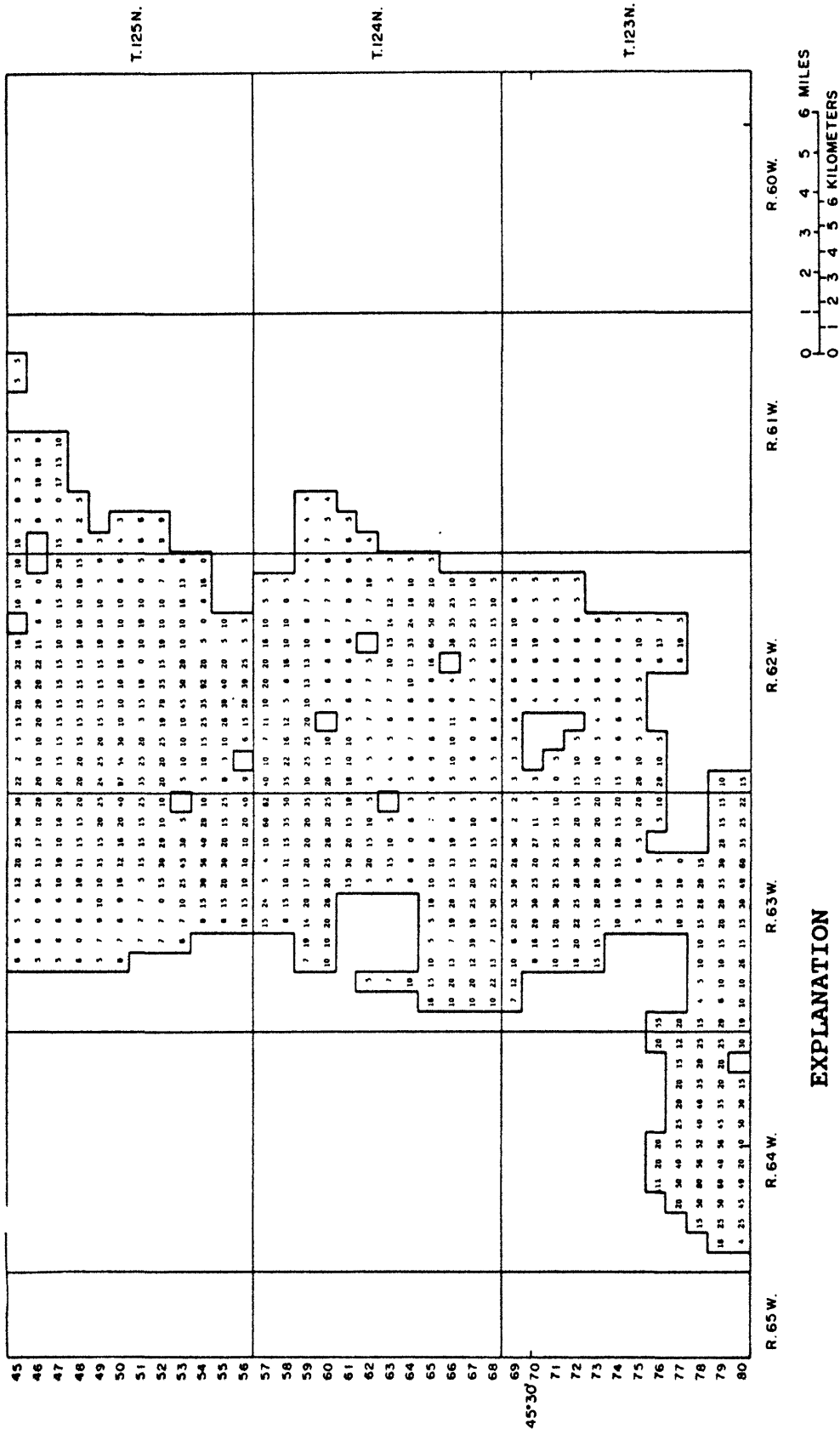


Figure 9.--Average thickness of the Middle James aquifer for each grid block.

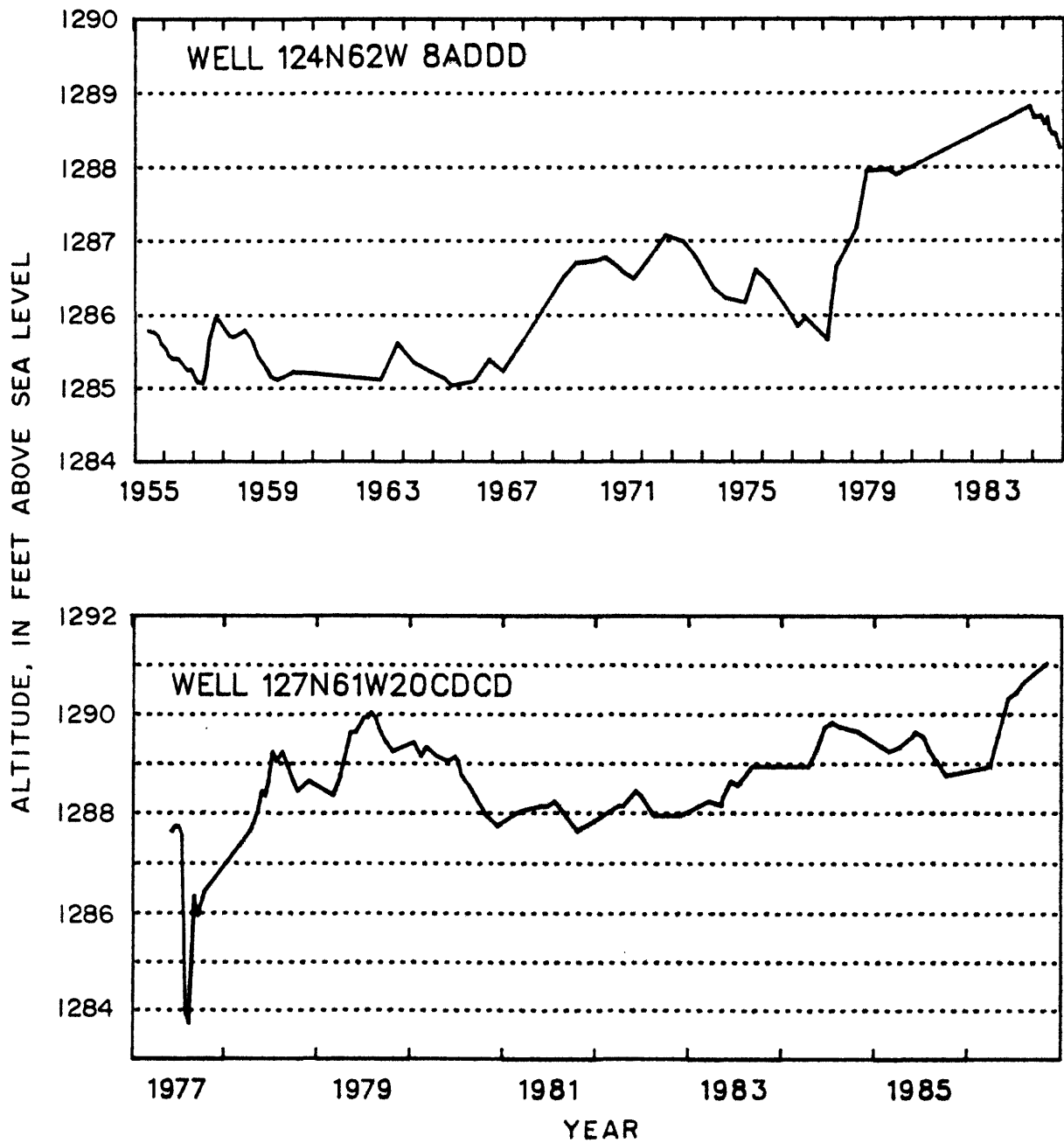


Figure 10.--Water-level hydrographs for selected wells completed in the Middle James aquifer.

Natural discharge from the aquifer occurs as percolation into the Deep James aquifer, which underlies parts of the Middle James, and as eastward flow into the lake deposits and till. The Middle James aquifer does not appear to be in hydraulic connection with the James River. Apparent gains to and losses from the James River in the study area are the result of bank storage, evapotranspiration, and flooding (Koch, 1970). According to Koch and Bradford (1976), the general direction of water movement in the aquifer is to the east. Discharge from the aquifer also occurs by pumpage from wells. Like the Elm aquifer, most of the wells that penetrate the Middle James are small-yield domestic, farm, and stock wells.

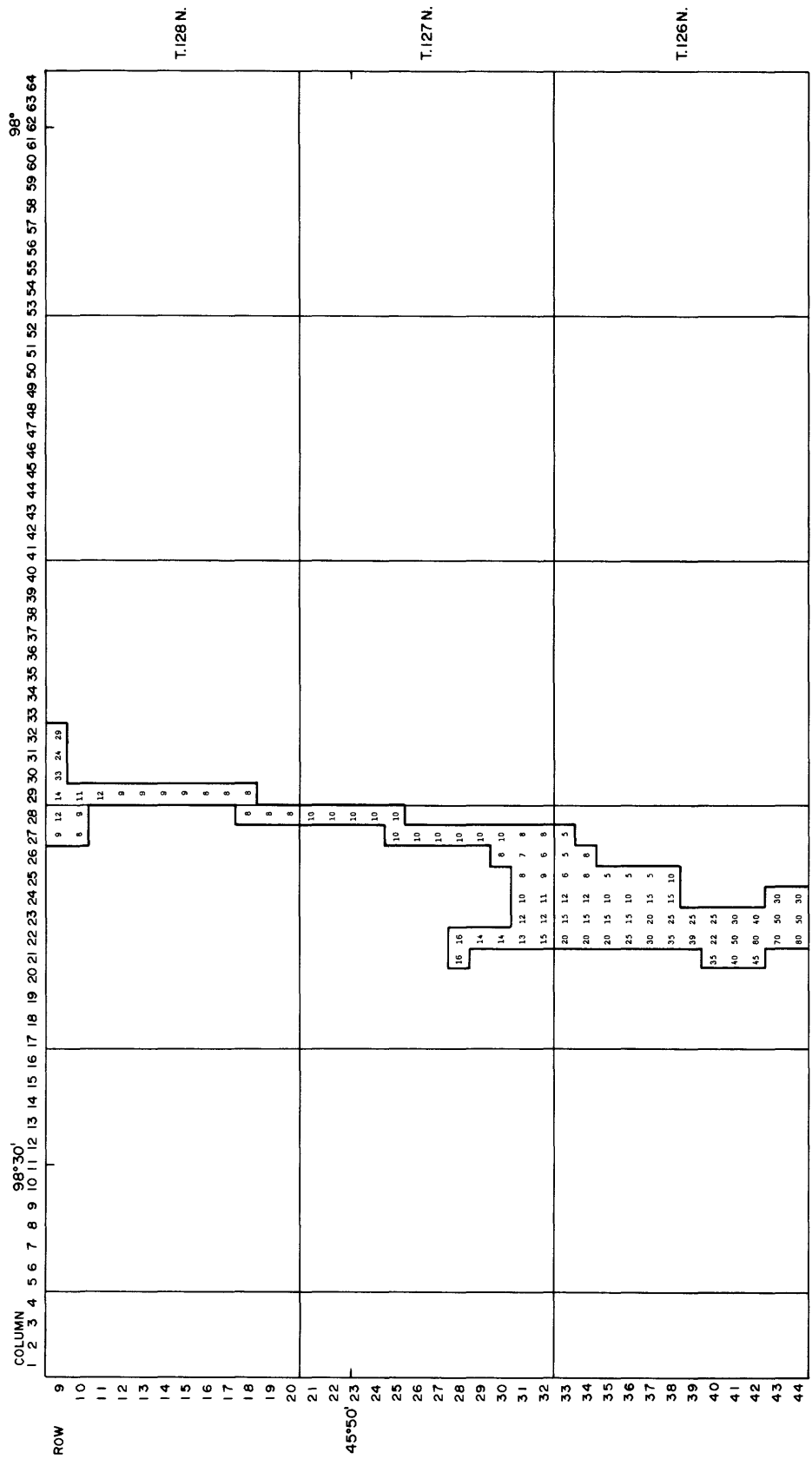
Deep James Aquifer

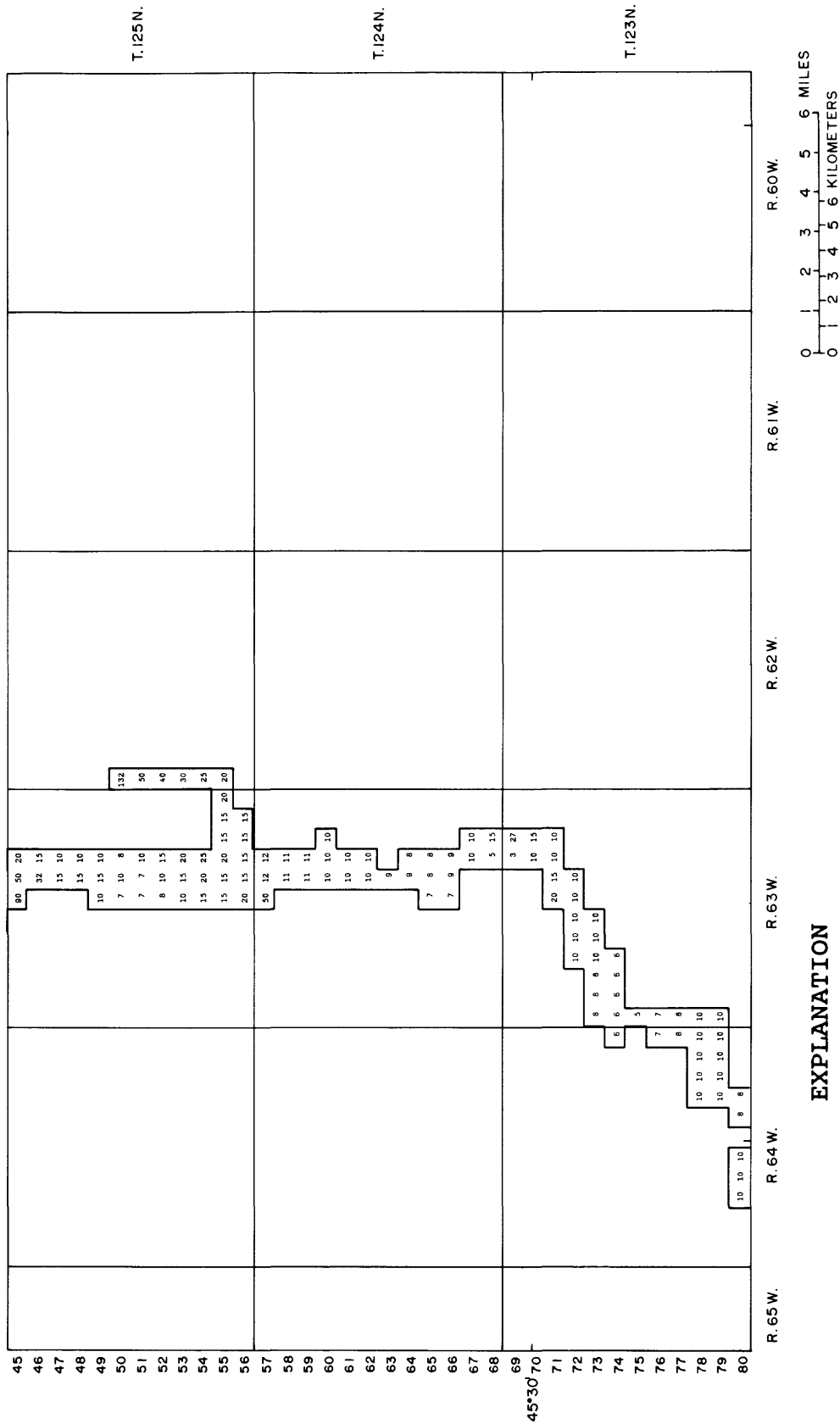
The artesian Deep James aquifer, which underlies the Elm and Middle James aquifers (figs. 4 and 11), is a buried interconnected system of ancient river channels containing outwash and alluvium. The boundaries shown in figure 11 differ from those of Koch and Bradford (1976) due to the availability of additional well logs, reinterpretation of existing logs, and the averaging of the aquifer thicknesses. The aquifer underlies about 52 mi² of the study area. The thickness ranges from zero at the boundaries to 132 ft in 125N62W18C and averages about 16 ft.

Recharge to the aquifer is from the overlying aquifers and to a lesser extent by percolation through the overlying lake deposits, outwash, and till. Recharge also may occur as underflow from Spink and Marshall Counties (Koch and Bradford, 1976).

There are no long-term water-level data available for the Deep James aquifer in the study area. However, Koch and Bradford (1976) reported that "there appears to be no relationship of water-level change in the Deep James aquifer to seasonal or long-term changes in precipitation."

Natural discharge from the aquifer occurs as subsurface outflow into North Dakota and locally by leakage into the overlying till (Koch and Bradford, 1976). Discharge from the aquifer also occurs by pumpage from low-yield domestic and farm wells. No large-capacity wells are reported to have been completed in the Deep James aquifer although the Deep James can be affected by pumpage from the overlying aquifers, as indicated in the hydrograph from observation well 121N65W34CCCC (fig. 12). According to Koch and Bradford (1976), the general direction of ground-water movement in the aquifer is to the north.





EXPLANATION

25 **AQUIFER THICKNESS**--Number is the average value for each grid block (0.25 square mile), in feet

— **AQUIFER MODEL BOUNDARY**

Figure 11.--Average thickness of the Deep James aquifer for each grid block.

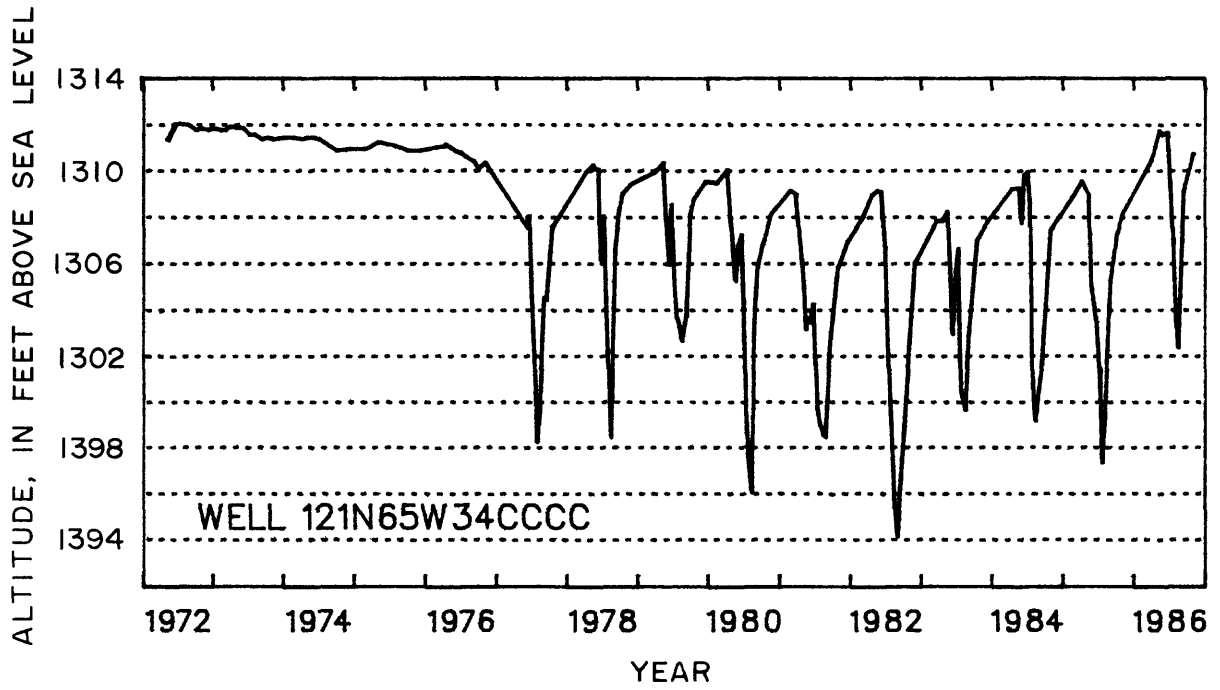


Figure 12.--Water-level hydrograph for a selected well completed in the Deep James aquifer.

DESIGN OF THE GLACIAL-AQUIFER SYSTEM FLOW MODEL

Simplifying Assumptions

Ground-water flow within an aquifer system is governed by a complex series of interrelated hydrologic processes. A number of simplifying assumptions make it possible to describe these hydrologic processes and allow the aquifer system to be represented mathematically. The simplifying assumptions may not exactly represent the hydrologic processes, but should include the basic assumptions and logic governing these processes.

The simplifying assumptions applied to the glacial-aquifer system are:

1. The system consists of three aquifer layers (fig. 13). The upper aquifer (aquifer layer 1) represents the Elm aquifer and the sandy lake deposits. The middle aquifer (aquifer layer 2) represents the Middle James aquifer, and the bottom aquifer (aquifer layer 3) represents the Deep James aquifer.
2. The aquifer layers are overlaid by confining bed layers. The uppermost confining layer which extends from land surface to the top of aquifer layer 1 restricts the downward infiltration of recharge water to the aquifer and the upward migration of water from the aquifer. The confining beds between aquifer layers 1 and 2 and aquifer layers 2 and 3 act to restrict the vertical flow between these aquifers.
3. The bedrock is an impermeable lower boundary of the system.
4. All lateral boundaries of the aquifers are impermeable (no-flow boundaries). Along the northern and eastern boundaries, internal potentiometric heads are held constant (specified-head boundaries).
5. The James River, Maple River, Foot Creek, and Moccasin Creek are hydraulically isolated from the glacial-aquifer system. The Elm River is hydraulically connected to the Elm aquifer along a reach from about 125N64W3B to 124N63W15B (fig. 14).
6. All flow in the aquifers is horizontal and in the overlying confining beds, vertical. Storage occurs only in the aquifer. The confining beds yield no water to wells.
7. The principal source of recharge to the aquifer system is precipitation. The uppermost active aquifer is recharged directly by infiltration of precipitation, however, the thickness of the confining bed overlying the aquifer controls the rate at which the recharge can occur. The greater the confining bed thickness, the less the recharge rate. Recharge to the lower aquifers occurs as infiltration through the overlying deposits. Recharge can also occur at river-head and specified-head boundaries.
8. The primary method of discharge from the aquifer system is evapotranspiration. Upward leakage of water from the uppermost active aquifer to the zone where evapotranspiration can occur is controlled by the thickness of the overlying confining bed. The greater the thickness of the confining bed, the less the rate at which evapotranspiration can occur. Discharge from the aquifer system also can occur as pumpage and at river-head and specified-head boundaries.

GLACIAL AQUIFERS AND CONFINING BEDS
IN THE GEOHYDROLOGIC FRAMEWORK

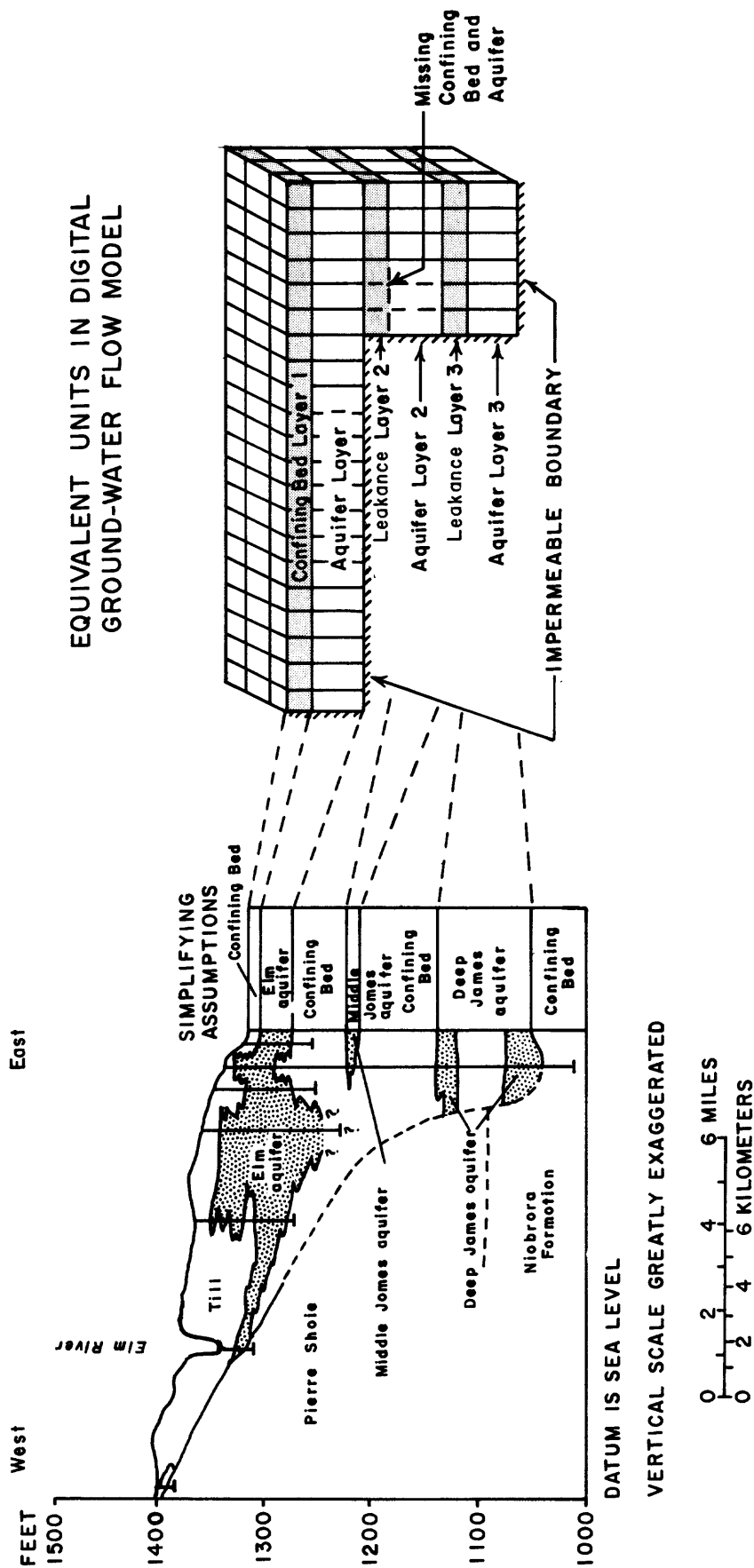
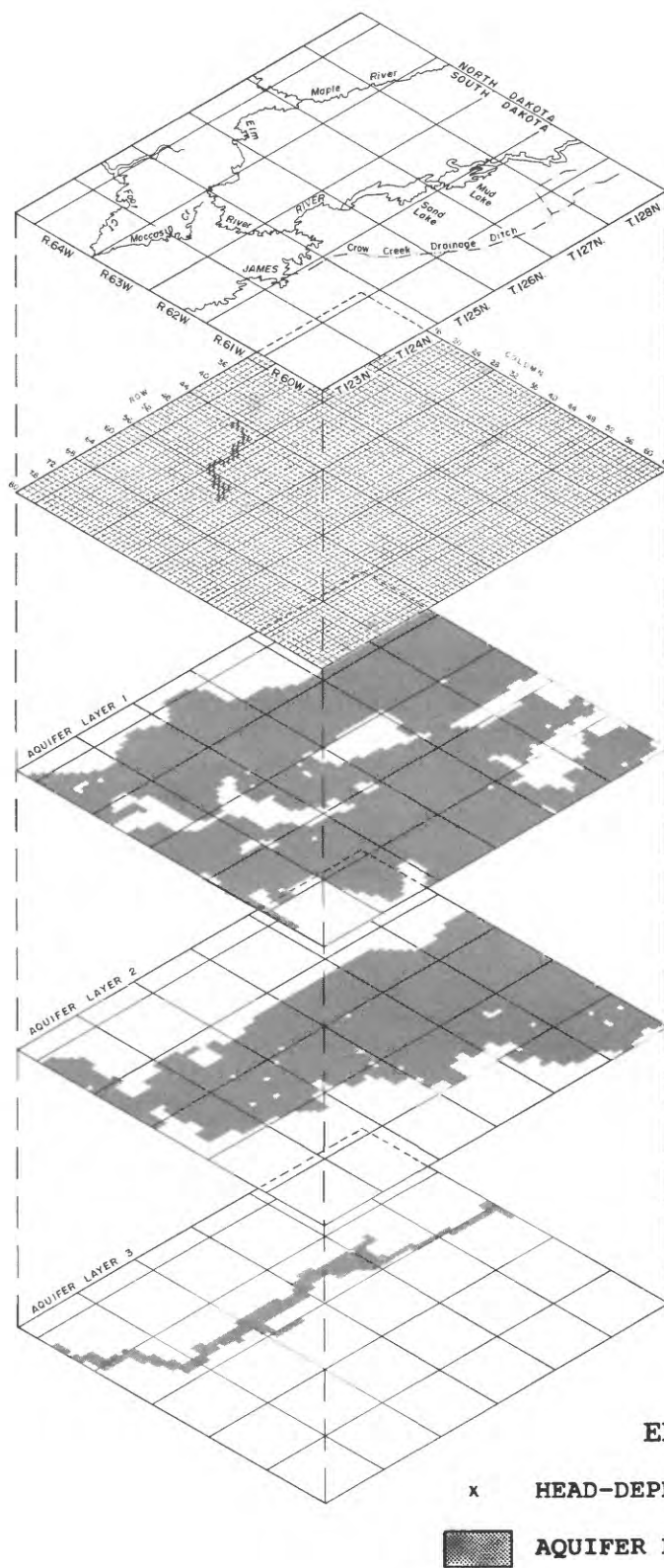


Figure 13.--Simplifying assumptions used to develop the digital ground-water flow model.



EXPLANATION


- x HEAD-DEPENDENT RIVER GRID BLOCK
-  AQUIFER LAYER

Figure 14.--Finite-difference grid blocks and aquifer layers used to define the glacial-aquifer system.

The Digital Model

A mathematical model of an aquifer system is the application of mathematical equations describing ground-water flow and certain simplifying assumptions about the flow system. A digital-computer model or simply a digital model is a mathematical model that uses a digital computer to obtain approximate solutions to the partial-differential equations of ground-water flow. The digital model used in this study is the U.S. Geological Survey modular three-dimensional finite-difference ground-water flow model of McDonald and Harbaugh (1984).

The model uses finite-difference methods to obtain approximate solutions to partial-differential equations of ground-water flow. The simulated area was subdivided into a series of finite-difference grid blocks in which the aquifer properties are assumed to be constant (fig. 14). The continuous derivatives of the partial-differential equation of ground-water flow are replaced by the finite-difference approximations at the center (node) of each of the grid blocks. The result is a series of finite-difference equations that were solved with the slice-successive overrelaxation (SSOR) numerical technique.

Model Data

A ground-water flow model is constructed by entering a value for the hydrologic properties that define the system at each finite-difference node. The value assigned to the node is considered to be representative of the entire grid block. The following is a list of properties used in the model of the glacial-aquifer system:

1. Dimensions of the finite-difference grid.
2. Altitude of the top and bottom of the aquifers.
3. Hydraulic conductivity of the aquifers.
4. Leakage of the confining beds.
5. Storage in the aquifers.
6. Recharge to the aquifers.
7. Evapotranspiration from the aquifers.
8. Altitude of land surface.
9. Pumpage from the aquifers.
10. Hydraulic connection between the rivers and aquifers.

Dimensions of the Finite-Difference Grid

A finite-difference grid is required so the geohydrologic data can be put in a form to be entered and manipulated by the digital model. The equally spaced finite-difference grid selected to represent the model area has 86 rows and 70 columns. The grid blocks are one-half mile or 2,640 ft on a side. Each grid block, shown in figure 14, represents one-quarter of a 640-acre section. The model grid was extended beyond the study area, 4 mi to the north and 3 mi to the east and south to minimize boundary effects in the study area.

Altitude of the Top and Bottom of the Aquifers

Koch and Bradford (1976) defined the Elm, Middle James, and Deep James aquifers based on altitude. The maximum altitude of the top of the Elm aquifer was defined as 1,400 ft and the minimum altitude of the bottom was 1,225 ft. The maximum altitude of the top of the Middle James aquifer was 1,250 ft and the minimum altitude of the bottom was 1,150 ft. The maximum altitude of the top of the Deep James aquifer was 1,175 ft, and the minimum altitude of the bottom was 950 ft.

The method used to define the tops and bottoms of the aquifers for the model is a modification of the method used by Koch and Bradford (1976). Aquifer layer 1 is the Elm aquifer and the sandy lake deposits. The altitude of the top of aquifer layer 1 is the top of the first sand or gravel layer encountered below the overlying till or other fine-grained sediment. Where the overlying confining bed is not present, the altitude of the aquifer top is land surface.

The bottom of aquifer layer 1 is the bottom of the lowermost sand or gravel layer above 1,250 ft above sea level. If no confining bed exists between aquifer layers 1 and 2, the bottom of aquifer layer 1 is 1,250 ft above sea level.

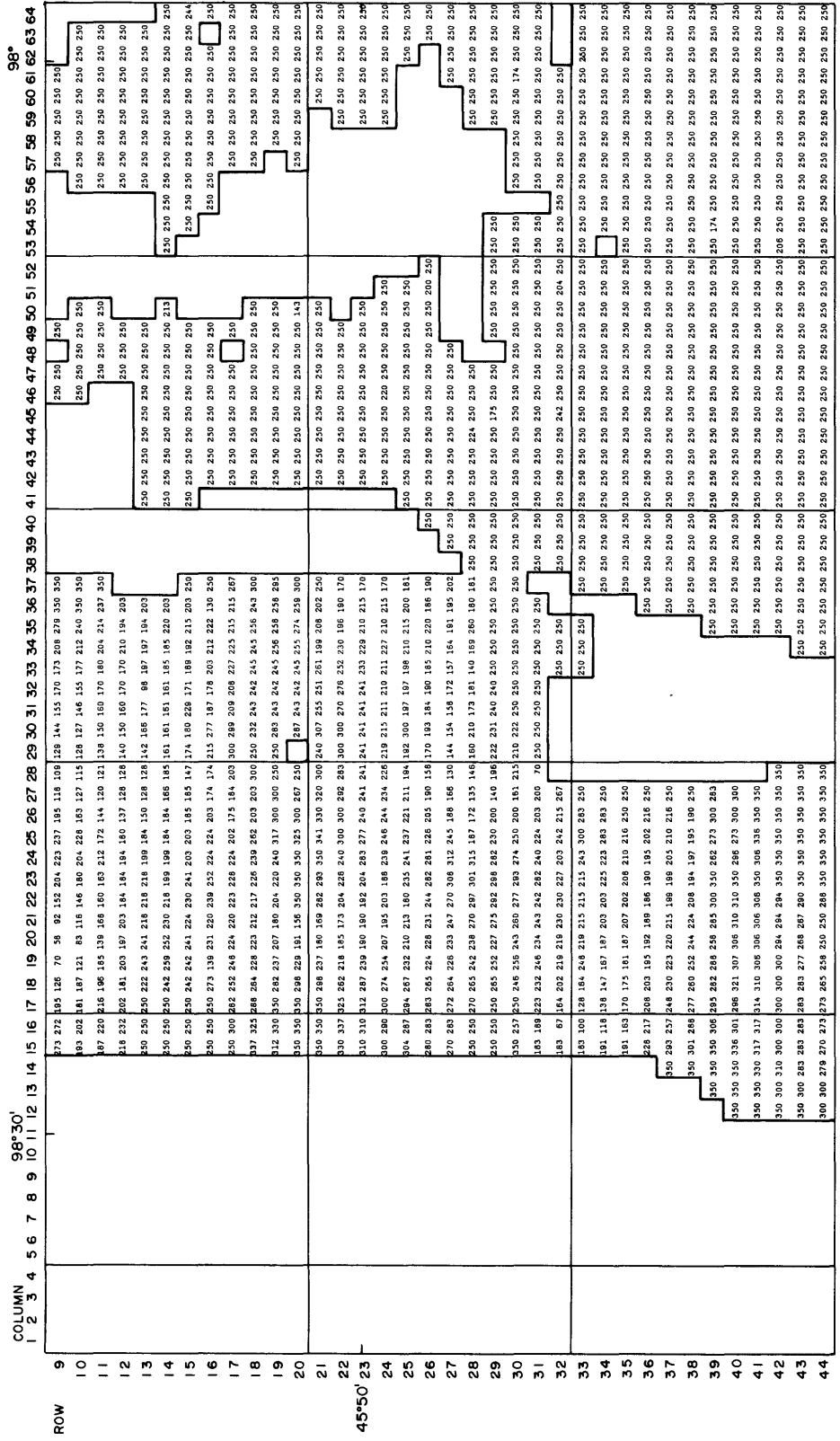
Aquifer layer 2 is the Middle James aquifer. The top of aquifer layer 2 is the first occurrence of a sand or gravel layer below the altitude of 1,250 ft. If no confining bed exists between aquifer layers 1 and 2, the top of aquifer layer 2 is 1,250 ft above sea level.

The bottom of aquifer layer 2 is the bottom of the lowermost sand or gravel layer above 1,150 ft above sea level or if no confining bed exists between aquifer layers 2 and 3, the bottom of aquifer layer 2 is 1,150 ft above sea level.

Aquifer layer 3 is the Deep James aquifer. The top of aquifer layer 3 is the first occurrence of a sand or gravel layer below the altitude of 1,150 ft. If no confining bed exists between aquifer layers 2 and 3, the top of aquifer layer 3 is 1,150 ft above sea level. The bottom of aquifer layer 3 is the lowermost sand or gravel layer below 1,150 ft above sea level. Since aquifer layer 3 was simulated as a confined aquifer, no top or bottom arrays were required.

Hydraulic Conductivity of the Aquifers

The hydraulic conductivity or the ability of the aquifer to transmit water varies greatly over very short distances due to the variability of the glacial deposits. All of the test-hole and drillers' logs were examined and an average composite log for each grid block was developed. Using the average composite logs for each grid block and the hydraulic conductivity values shown in table 1, an average composite aquifer hydraulic conductivity was calculated for each grid block for each aquifer layer as shown in figures 15-17. The assignment of the average composite hydraulic conductivity for each grid block is based on the assumption that aquifer materials are uniformly variable and the test-hole and drillers' logs adequately depict the range of the types and thicknesses of aquifer materials in each grid block.



98°30'

COLUMN 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34

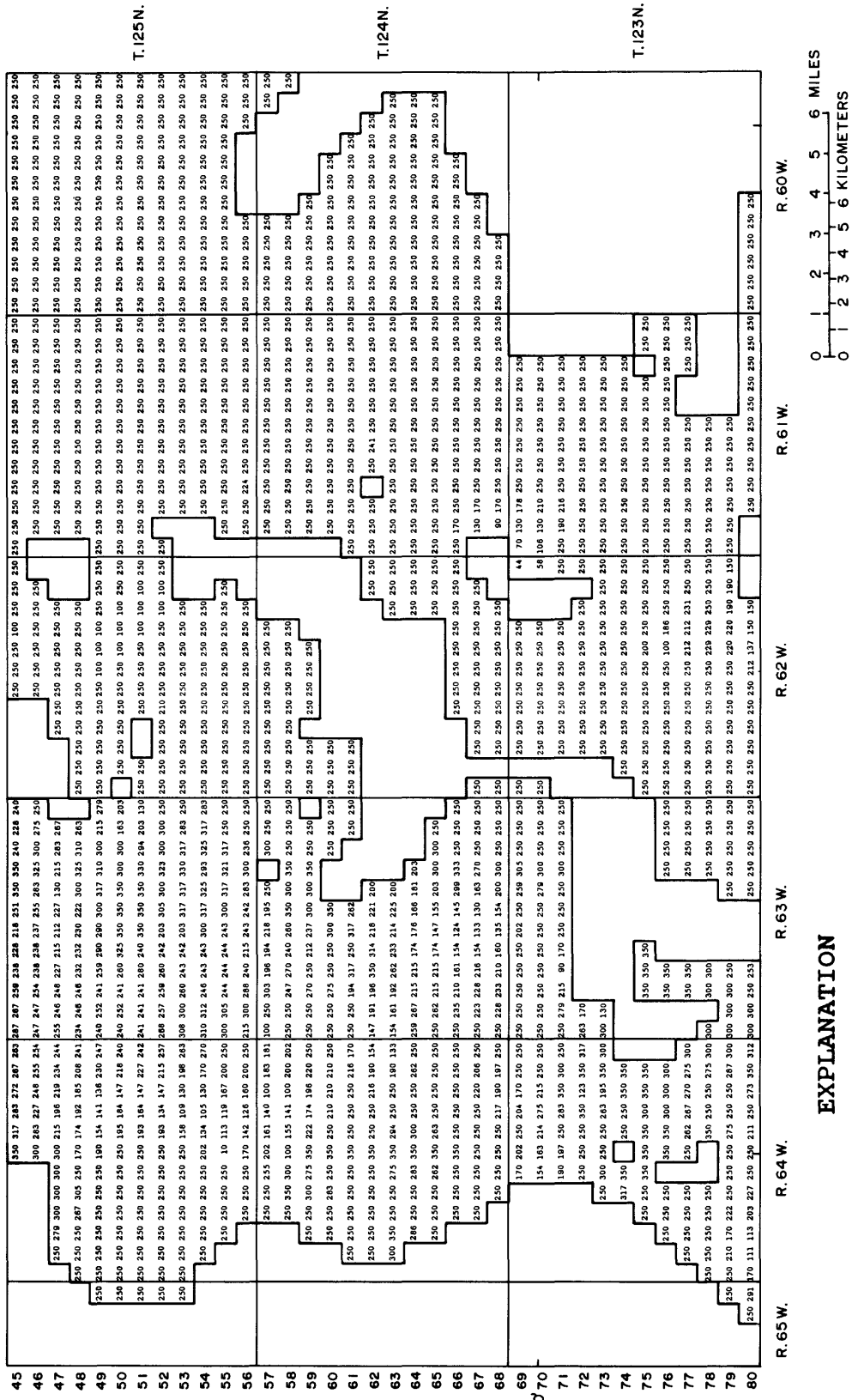
98°

T.128 N.

45°50'

T.127 N.

T.126 N.



250 HYDRAULIC CONDUCTIVITY--Number is average value for each grid block (0.25 square mile), in feet per day

— AQUIFER MODEL BOUNDARY

EXPLANATION

Figure 15.--Average hydraulic conductivity of aquifer layer 1 for each grid block.

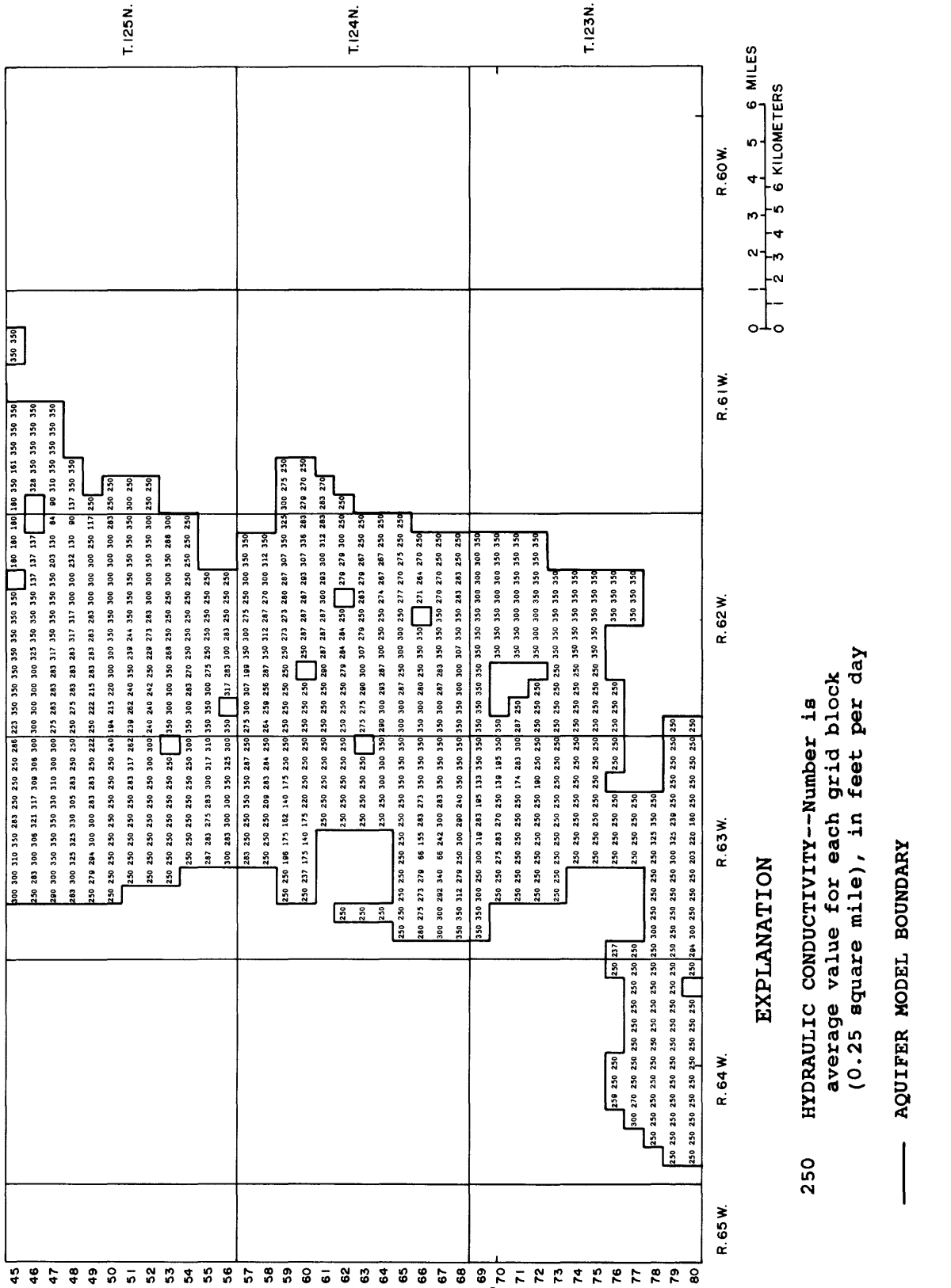
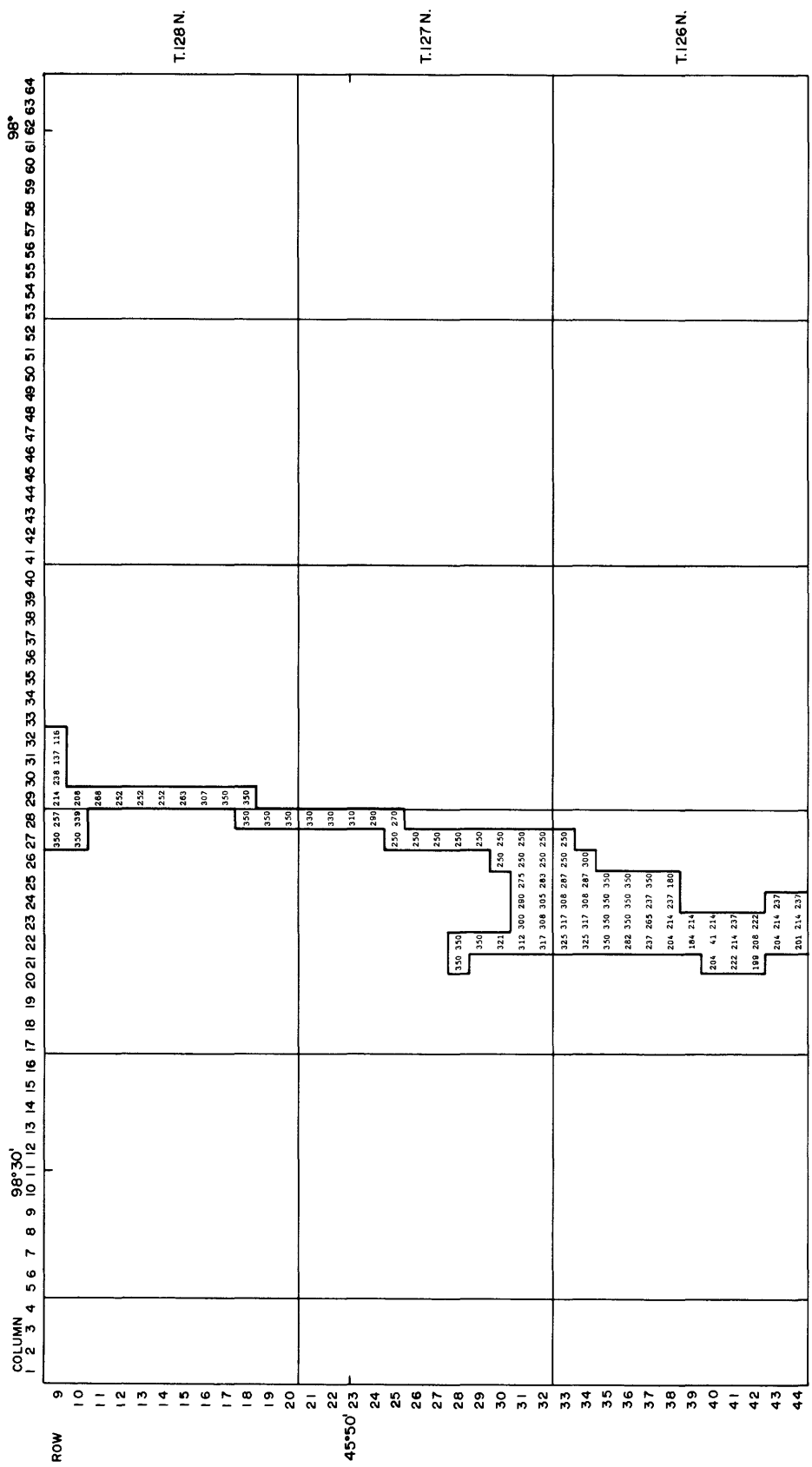


Figure 16.--Average hydraulic conductivity of aquifer layer 2 for each grid block.



COLUMN 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60 61 62 63 64

ROW 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44

T.128 N.

T.127 N.

T.126 N.

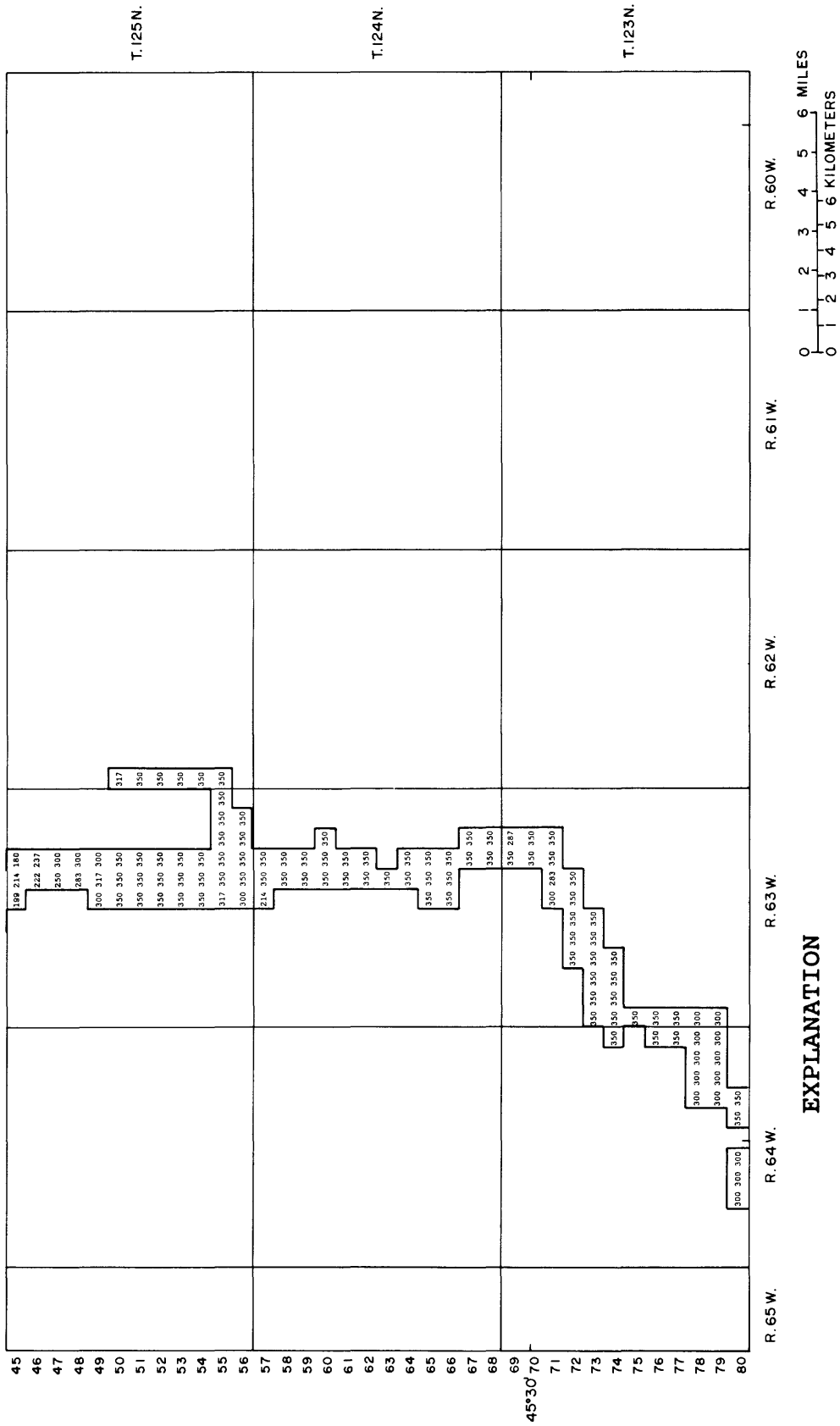


Figure 17.--Average hydraulic conductivity of aquifer layer 3 for each grid block.

Table 1.--Relation between grain size and hydraulic conductivity

[<, less than; --, no data]

Grain size	Range of hydraulic conductivities in glacial drift ¹ (feet per day)	Hydraulic conductivity assigned to Big Sioux aquifer ¹ (feet per day)	Hydraulic conductivity assigned to glacial-aquifer system in Sanborn-Beadle County ² (feet per day)	Hydraulic conductivity used in this model (feet per day)
Clay or silt	<20	10	6-22	10
Clay or silt, sandy or gravelly	--	--	--	20
Sand, clayey or silty	--	--	--	150
Sand, very fine	10-80	40	--	--
Sand, fine	70-140	70	--	--
Sand, fine to medium	70-400	200	--	--
Sand, medium	130-400	270	--	--
Sand, fine to coarse	70-600	300	75-281	250
Sand, medium to coarse	130-800	400	--	--
Sand, coarse	400-1,000	540	--	--
Sand, gravelly	--	--	--	350
Sand and gravel	400-1,200	600	85-319	350
Sand, coarse, and gravel	400-1,400	670	--	--
Gravel, clayey or silty	--	--	--	200
Gravel	800-2,000	800	95-356	350

¹From Koch, 1980.

²From Emmons, 1988.

No aquifer-test data are known to be available for the Elm, Middle James, or Deep James aquifers in or around the area of study. The hydraulic conductivity calculated from aquifer-test data from the Sanborn-Beadle County area (fig. 1) ranges from 20 to 1,430 ft/d with an average of about 300 ft/d (Emmons, 1988). Because the composition of the glacial drift in Brown, Sanborn, and Beadle Counties are similar, it is assumed that the aquifer characteristics also are similar.

Examination of table 1 indicates that the hydraulic conductivity of the aquifer system generally is much smaller than assigned by Koch (1980) to the alluvium-mantled outwash deposits of the Big Sioux aquifer, located east of the James River basin in South Dakota. The hydraulic conductivities of the outwash deposits in the glacial-aquifer system in the James River basin are smaller because they contain a higher percentage of silt and clay.

The average composite hydraulic conductivity at each node ranges from 10 to 350 ft/d with an average of 245 ft/d in aquifer layer 1. In aquifer layer 2, the average composite hydraulic conductivity ranged from 59 to 350 ft/d with an average of 288 ft/d, and in aquifer layer 3 the hydraulic conductivity ranged from 116 to 350 ft/d with an average of 305 ft/d. Since aquifer layer 3 was simulated as a confined aquifer, transmissivity rather than hydraulic conductivity is required in the model. The transmissivity of a confined aquifer is equal to the hydraulic conductivity of the aquifer (fig. 17) multiplied by the thickness of the aquifer (fig. 11). These average nodal composite hydraulic conductivities generally are smaller than the hydraulic conductivities calculated from aquifer tests in Sanborn and Beadle Counties. This is expected because the aquifer tests are site specific and are generally conducted in areas where the aquifer has greater hydraulic conductivity and thickness. As a result of the averaging process for the hydraulic conductivities the ground-water flow model will approximate the glacial-aquifer system on a county scale, but may differ locally.

Leakance of the Confining Beds

The leakance or leakage coefficient is the volumetric rate at which water will flow vertically from one aquifer to another through an intervening confining bed per unit area per foot of head loss between the aquifers.

The leakance arrays are calculated as the vertical hydraulic conductivity divided by the thickness of each confining bed at each node. There are no data available for the vertical hydraulic conductivities of the confining beds in the study area. In northeastern Illinois, the vertical hydraulic conductivity of the drift calculated from seven aquifer tests ranged from 0.01 to 0.08 ft/d (Walton, 1960). The vertical hydraulic conductivity of the till calculated from an aquifer test which included six well clusters completed in the till in northwestern Beadle County (fig. 1) ranged from 0.00025 to 0.10 ft/d (James M. Montgomery, Consulting Engineers, Inc., 1986).

The vertical hydraulic conductivity of the confining beds overlying aquifer layers 2 and 3 were calculated as 0.1 times their horizontal hydraulic conductivity from table 1. The vertical hydraulic conductivity of confining bed layer 2 ranged from 1.0 to 35 ft/d with an average of 1.5 ft/d. For confining bed layer 3, the vertical hydraulic conductivity ranged from 1.0 to 10.0 ft/d with an average of 1.1 ft/d. Although these vertical hydraulic conductivities are larger than those from Illinois or Beadle County, they were found to give acceptable model results.

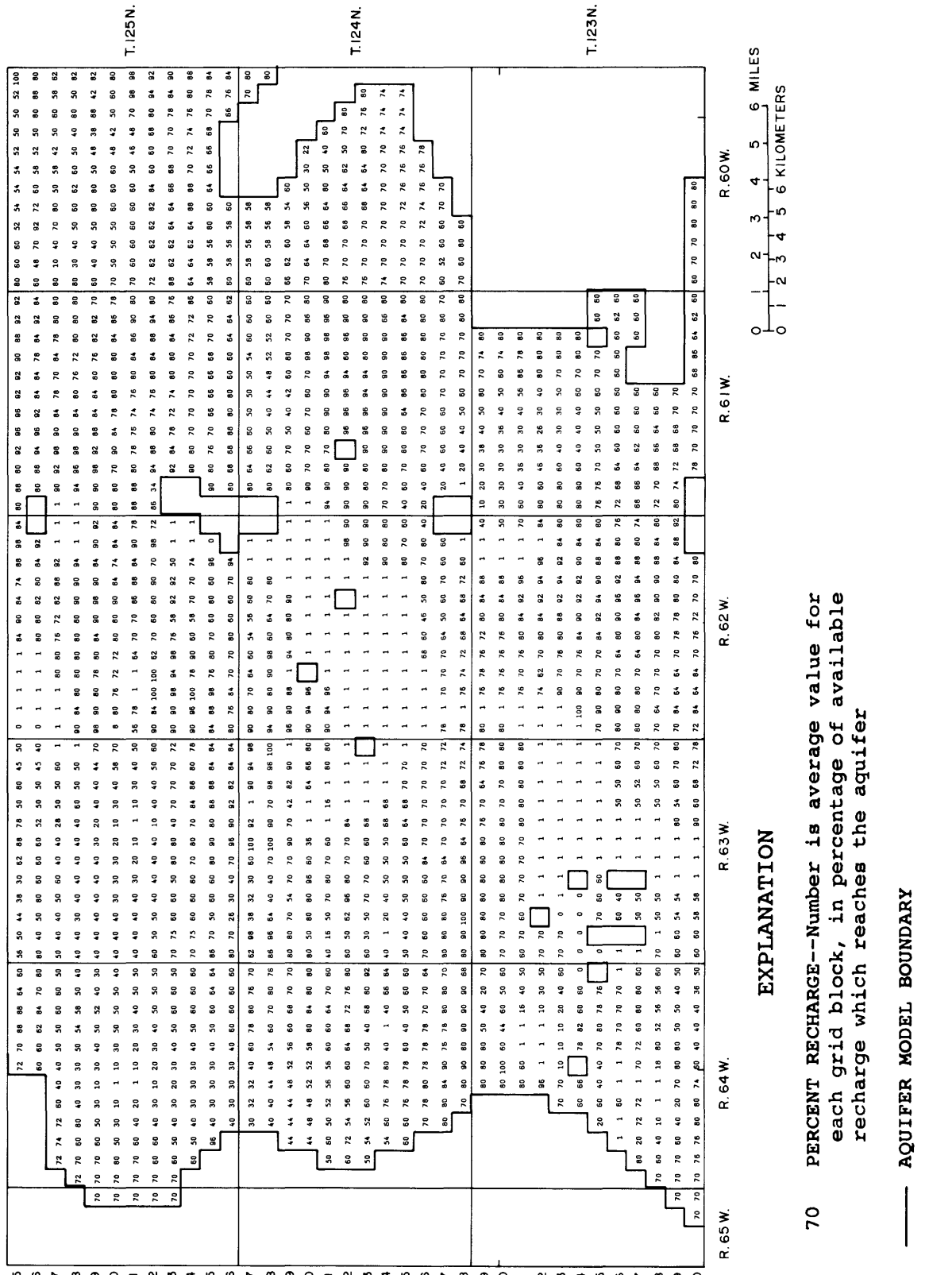


Figure 18.--Average available recharge to the uppermost active aquifer for each grid block.

Storage in the Aquifers

With one exception, storage coefficients calculated from aquifer tests in Sanborn and Beadle Counties range from 0.00039 to 0.000017, indicating artesian conditions exist at these locations in the glacial-aquifer system. The exception, a storage value of 0.04, most likely indicates a transition between confined and unconfined conditions. Specific yield values as large as 0.28 were calculated from aquifer tests in the glacial-aquifer system in Hand County (fig. 1).

A storage coefficient of 0.0003 was used in the ground-water flow model to represent aquifer layers 1, 2, and 3 in the grid blocks where the average potentiometric head was higher than the average altitude of the top of the aquifer (artesian conditions). A specific yield of 0.20 was assigned to represent aquifer layers 1 and 2 when the average potentiometric head in the grid block was lower than the average altitude of the top of the aquifer for the same grid block (water-table conditions).

Recharge to the Aquifers

The principal source of recharge to the aquifer system is precipitation. The average annual precipitation is about 18 inches in the model area. The areal distribution of recharge to the aquifer was based on analyses of precipitation data and on the thickness of the confining bed overlying the uppermost aquifer (fig. 7). The thickness of this confining bed controls the rate at which the underlying aquifer can be recharged. Recharge occurs rapidly where there are permeable sediments overlying the uppermost aquifer. When the clay and silt are sufficiently thick (generally greater than 50 ft), there probably is little or no recharge by infiltration.

Hedges and others (1983) calculated recharge rates to the Elm aquifer by flow-net analysis. Recharge ranged from 0.06 in/yr in northern Brown County to 0.42 in/yr in southern Brown County. The recharge rates estimated from computer-model analyses of the glacial-aquifer system in the Sanborn-Beadle County area ranged from 0 to 7.0 in/yr with an average of 0.97 in/yr (Emmons, 1988). The glacial-aquifer system in the Sanborn-Beadle County area is similar in character to the system in Brown County.

The areal distribution of recharge to the aquifer was tested and refined as part of the steady-state simulation process. It was determined that the maximum average recharge to the aquifer was 7.0 in/yr and occurred only where aquifer material was at land surface. When the average confining bed thickness was greater than zero, the rate of recharge to the underlying aquifer decreased linearly to 0.0 in/yr at 50 ft below average land surface. No recharge occurs when the average confining bed thickness exceeds 50 ft. Figure 18 shows the percentage of available recharge that reaches the aquifer. Because an empirical relation was developed between recharge and thickness of the confining bed overlying the aquifer, values should not be considered absolute. The values are hydrologically reasonable and provide the best overall model results.

Using the percentage of potential recharge which can reach the uppermost aquifer and potential steady-state recharge of 7.0 inches, the areally distributed, average steady-state recharge to the aquifer system is 4.3 in/yr. This is in poor agreement with Hedges and others (1983), calculated recharge rates of 0.06 in/yr for northern Brown County and 0.42 in/yr for southern Brown County. The reason for the poor agreement is the result of including the sandy lake deposits as part of aquifer layer 1. The confining bed overlying the lake deposits tends to be thinner than those overlying the Elm aquifer, thereby skewing the average steady-state recharge.

Monthly potential recharge to the aquifers (table 2) was estimated using the monthly average precipitation data (U.S. Department of Commerce, published annually) and hydrograph analysis. Examination of the hydrographs of wells completed in the Elm and Middle James aquifers indicates that most of the recharge to the aquifers occurs in the spring months (figs. 8 and 10). The multiplication factors to convert average monthly precipitation data to monthly potential recharge was adjusted as part of the transient model calibration process to obtain the best fit between the observed and calculated potentiometric heads in the three aquifers.

Evapotranspiration from the Aquifers

The areal distribution of evapotranspiration from the aquifer is controlled by the potential evapotranspiration, the thickness of the confining bed overlying the aquifer, and the depth of the water below land surface. The potential evapotranspiration in the study area is estimated to be 77 percent of the pan evaporation (Farnsworth and others, 1982). The average class A pan evaporation at Aberdeen for 1946-55 is about 46 in/yr (Spuhler and others, 1971). The calculated average potential evapotranspiration in the study area is about 35.4 in/yr.

The areal distribution of the potential evapotranspiration from the aquifers was tested and refined as part of the steady-state simulation process. The potential evapotranspiration rate can occur only where no confining bed is present above the uppermost aquifer. Even though the potentiometric head in the aquifers may be close to land surface, it is assumed that the confining beds overlying the aquifers will restrict upward movement of water and reduce the potential evapotranspiration rate. When the average confining bed thickness is between zero and 50 ft, the potential evapotranspiration rate decreases linearly from 35.4 to 0.0 in/yr. The potential evapotranspiration is 0.0 in/yr for confining bed thicknesses greater than 50 ft. Figure 19 shows the percentage of the potential evapotranspiration available from the uppermost aquifer. The uppermost aquifer layer is generally aquifer layer 1, however, when not present, the percentage of the potential evapotranspiration is calculated for the next deeper aquifer layer.

The evapotranspiration from the aquifers is controlled also by the depth of the potentiometric surface for the uppermost aquifer below land surface. When the potentiometric head is at or greater than 9.0 ft below land surface, evapotranspiration is no longer simulated.

Monthly evapotranspiration was estimated for 1983-85 using U.S. Department of Commerce data (1983-85) and the relationship between pan evaporation and evapotranspiration described by Farnsworth and others (1982). No pan evaporation is available in the study area for 1983-85. Based on pan evaporation data at Redfield, South Dakota, about 40 mi south of Aberdeen and at Pickstown, 220 mi south of Aberdeen, evaporation was estimated and evapotranspiration was calculated for the study area (table 3). The calculated maximum potential evapotranspiration rate was 38.45 inches in 1983, 34.69 inches in 1984, and 32.14 inches in 1985. The minimum potential evapotranspiration was 0.0 inch in the winter months when the ground is frozen.

Because an empirical relation was developed between potential evapotranspiration rate from the aquifer, thickness of the confining bed overlying the aquifer and depth of the potentiometric head below land surface, does not mean these values should be considered absolute, but only that they are reasonable and provide the best overall model results.

Table 2.--Average monthly precipitation and estimated recharge

Month	Recharge multiplication factor ¹	Normal		1983		1984		1985	
		Average precipitation for Aberdeen ² and Columbia ² (inches)	Maximum recharge to the glacial-aquifer ³ system (inches)	Average precipitation for Aberdeen ² and Columbia ² (inches)	Maximum recharge to the glacial-aquifer ³ system (inches)	Average precipitation for Aberdeen ² and Columbia ² (inches)	Maximum recharge to the glacial-aquifer ³ system (inches)	Average precipitation for Aberdeen ² and Columbia ² (inches)	Maximum recharge to the glacial-aquifer ³ system (inches)
January	0.00	0.49	0.00	0.24	0.00	0.48	0.00	0.30	0.00
February	.00	.60	.00	.16	.00	.83	.00	.08	.00
March	.70	.99	.69	2.82	1.13	1.71	.68	1.48	.59
April	.90	2.06	1.85	.68	.61	2.66	2.39	.54	.49
May	.80	2.60	2.08	1.66	1.16	1.16	.81	3.58	2.51
June	.40	3.38	1.35	3.68	1.10	5.94	1.78	1.94	.58
July	.05	2.34	.12	5.78	.29	2.10	.10	2.34	.12
August	.05	2.00	.10	2.60	.13	2.24	.11	2.75	.14
September	.25	1.55	.39	1.20	.24	.84	.17	2.50	.50
October	.40	1.06	.42	1.37	.55	3.34	1.34	.70	.28
November	.00	.62	.00	.64	.00	.06	.00	1.54	.00
December	.00	.50	.00	.48	.00	.59	.00	.45	.00
Total	--	18.19	7.00	21.31	5.21	21.95	7.38	18.20	5.21

¹The maximum decimal fraction of average precipitation which could potentially recharge the glacial-aquifer system.

²Data from the U.S. Department of Commerce, 1983-85.

³Calculated by multiplying the average monthly precipitation by the recharge multiplication factor.

Table 3.--Estimated monthly pan evaporation and estimated potential evapotranspiration

[--, no data or not calculated]

Month	1983		1984		1985	
	Pan evaporation ¹ (inches)	Potential evapo-transpiration ² (inches)	Pan evaporation ¹ (inches)	Potential evapo-transpiration ² (inches)	Pan evaporation ¹ (inches)	Potential evapo-transpiration ² (inches)
January	--	--	--	--	--	--
February	--	--	--	--	--	--
March	--	--	--	--	--	--
April	4.19	3.23	6.51	5.01	7.27	5.60
May	11.72	9.02	7.22	5.56	8.06	6.21
June	6.54	5.04	7.54	5.81	7.38	5.68
July	9.08	6.99	8.36	6.44	9.13	7.03
August	9.35	7.20	8.12	6.25	6.06	4.67
September	6.05	4.66	4.35	3.35	3.83	2.95
October	3.00	2.31	2.95	2.27	2.60	2.00
November	--	--	--	--	--	--
December	--	--	--	--	--	--
Total	49.93	38.45	45.05	34.69	44.33	32.14

¹Estimated using pan evaporation data for Redfield and Pickstown, South Dakota; U.S. Department of Commerce, 1983-85.

²Calculated as 0.77 times the monthly evaporation.

COLUMN 98°30' 98° 98°30' 98°

9	76 84 87 44 11 0 22 44 35 87 87 87 86 36 44 33 22 0 44 88 100 87 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 80 100 11 100 30 20 20 0 0 0 0 100 100 100 100 0 0
10	76 78 56 33 22 0 10 30 40 56 56 56 56 44 33 22 11 0 11 44 87 87 0 0 0 0 0 0 78 88 100 100 20 20 0 0 0 100 100 100 100 83 100 100
11	73 87 44 38 28 72 15 25 40 56 56 44 44 33 22 22 11 11 22 33 44 87 87 0 0 0 0 0 0 11 100 100 100 20 20 0 0 0 100 100 100 100 100 100
12	73 56 33 38 42 44 23 45 50 56 44 33 33 11 0 0 2 4 22 33 44 36 0 0 0 0 0 0 11 22 78 93 100 20 20 20 0 0 0 100 100 100 100 100 81
13	71 44 22 44 56 87 87 87 86 44 22 0 0 0 0 0 11 33 44 36 0 0 0 0 86 93 93 91 89 89 86 96 0 0 0 0 0 100 100 100 100 96 100 100 100
14	80 33 11 22 87 88 88 76 67 44 22 0 0 0 0 0 0 22 44 36 0 0 0 89 88 88 88 89 100 100 86 100 50 50 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100
15	87 22 0 22 87 88 88 76 56 44 22 0 0 0 0 0 0 22 44 35 0 0 0 89 89 89 89 89 89 83 88 20 25 50 50 100 100 100 100 100 100 100
16	71 44 22 33 56 89 76 67 44 33 11 0 0 0 0 0 0 11 33 44 44 0 0 0 89 89 89 89 89 83 89 100 20 23 50 50 100 100 100 100 100 100 100
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21	88 84 78 78 56 44 33 22 22 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 11 0 0 0 0 0 89 88 100 83 100 88 100 100 23 0 0 0 0 0 100 100 100 100 100
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27	89 84 80 84 78 78 78 44 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 11 33 87 44 22 11 0 0 0 89 88 100 100 100 84 87 78 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
28	84 78 87 78 84 84 56 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 11 22 87 33 0 0 0 89 89 100 100 100 100 44 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
29	78 87 56 87 78 84 84 44 11 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 11 88 88 88 88 100 100 78 56 0 100 98 78 44 87 89 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
30	78 87 87 78 71 87 44 22 22 11 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 89 88 88 93 84 100 100 89 87 89 87 58 44 87 0 0 0 100 93 100 100 100
31	78 87 87 87 87 86 44 44 33 33 11 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 89 88 100 98 91 100 100 78 87 87 88 89 88 78 87 100 89 89 89 88 100 100
32	78 87 87 56 56 44 44 33 33 22 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 100 100 100 84 100 100 93 88 88 100 100 78 96 89 78 89 89 89 100
33	78 87 56 44 44 44 44 33 33 11 0 0 0 0 0 0 25 25 25 0 0 93 83 89 100 88 87 89 100 100 88 88 100 100 88 88 88 88 88 100 100 100
34	78 89 87 44 33 33 33 55 45 35 22 22 0 0 0 25 25 25 0 0 89 89 89 89 89 100 98 88 98 100 100 88 98 100 100 100 100 89 91 83 88 100 93 89 88
35	78 71 87 44 33 22 33 33 55 85 50 22 22 0 0 25 25 25 0 0 89 83 93 96 96 83 96 88 83 86 100 100 88 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 88 98 88 83 89 84
36	78 73 87 44 22 11 5 33 85 55 50 33 33 0 0 0 0 0 0 89 83 93 100 98 88 88 83 91 88 100 100 100 89 100 100 89 100 100 89 100 84 93 100 100
37	78 78 87 56 44 33 33 87 88 87 56 44 44 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 89 88 100 100 100 100 88 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100
38	78 78 87 87 87 87 88 88 89 87 44 44 0 0 0 0 0 0 89 88 100 100 100 100 100 100 88 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100
39	78 78 87 78 78 78 88 88 88 88 87 87 87 0 0 0 0 0 0 89 88 100 100 100 100 100 100 88 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100
40	80 76 76 76 78 78 78 87 88 88 84 80 87 87 0 0 0 0 0 0 89 88 100 100 100 100 100 100 88 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100
41	80 76 76 76 76 76 76 84 82 78 82 80 78 78 0 0 0 0 0 0 78 88 89 89 89 83 85 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 83 100 100 88 78 84 93 83
42	76 76 76 76 76 76 76 80 73 87 78 78 80 84 88 0 0 0 0 0 0 58 78 89 89 89 84 88 94 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 89 78 36 58 82 88 88
43	71 76 76 73 73 73 73 73 76 87 56 76 76 76 84 0 0 0 0 0 0 88 88 88 88 93 89 84 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88
44	80 78 76 73 71 71 71 71 71 60 49 71 67 67 80 85 25 0 0 0 83 100 93 100 88 76 84 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88

T.128 N.

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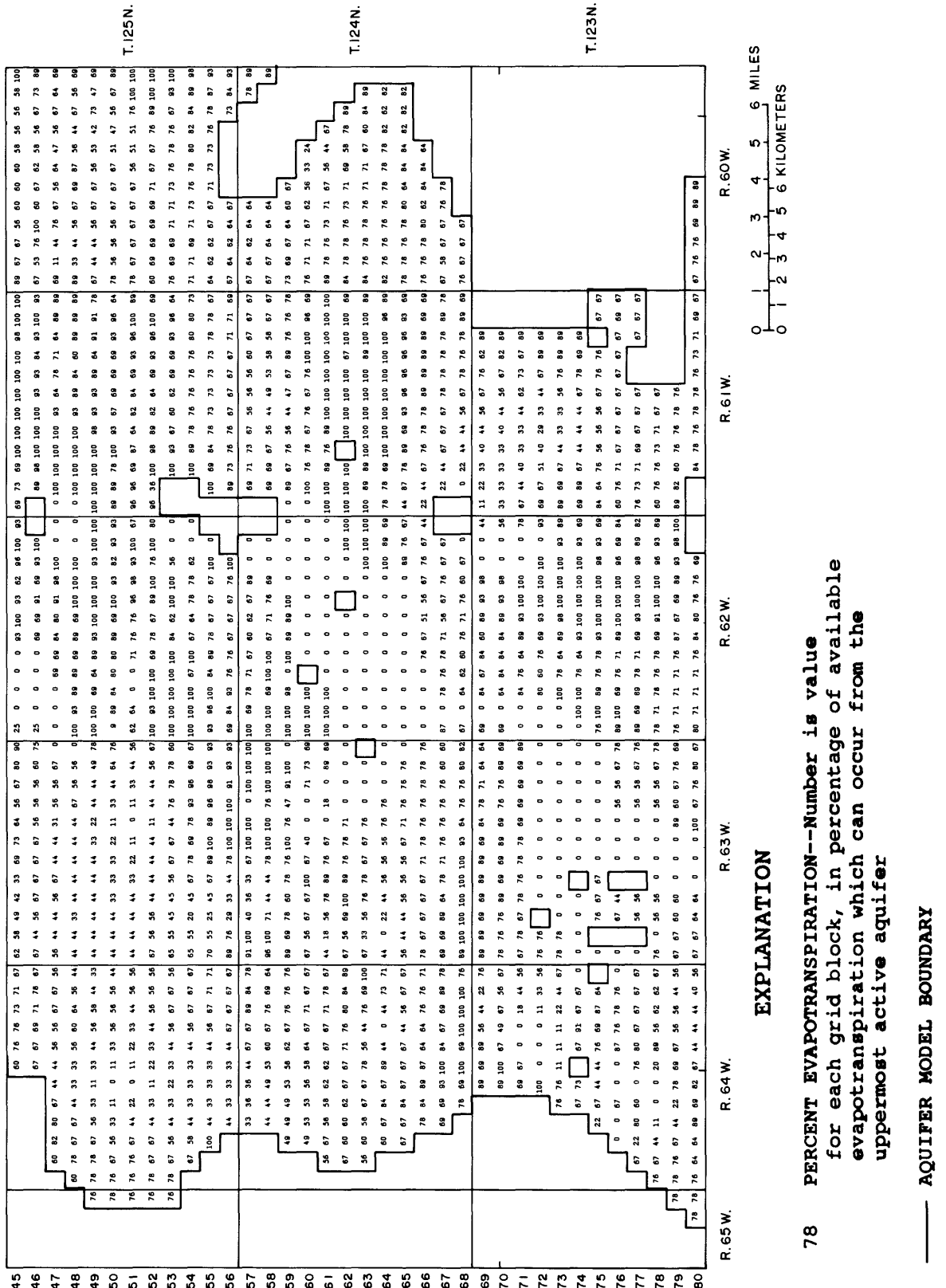


Figure 19.--Average available evapotranspiration from the uppermost active aquifer for each grid block.

Pumpage from the Aquifers

Ground water is used for irrigation, municipal, industrial, farm, ranch, and domestic use. However, most of the water withdrawn from the glacial-aquifer system is used for irrigation. Withdrawals, other than irrigation, generally have little effect on the aquifer system.

Ground-water withdrawal data are required to simulate the glacial-aquifer system. Pumpage data were collected for 1973 through 1985. Before 1973, little pumping occurred from the aquifers. The aquifers are in approximately steady-state or equilibrium conditions. That is, although the water levels in the aquifer system may have declined during the summer months due to reduced recharge, increased evapotranspiration, or pumpage, the water levels generally recovered to approximately the same or equilibrium levels during the winter or early spring months (figs. 8 and 10). The average 1973 through 1982 pumpage from aquifer layer 1 used in the simulation of the steady-state model was about 1.66 ft³/s. No pumpage was reported for aquifer layers 2 and 3 for 1973 through 1982.

Pumpage for 1983 through 1985 was used to simulate the monthly pumping from the aquifer system (table 4). Pumpage is large during the summer months because irrigation is the major use of water from the aquifers.

Hydraulic Connection Between the Rivers and Aquifers

Where the glacial-aquifer system is hydraulically connected to a river, stream, or surface-water body, they may contribute water to the aquifer or drain water from the aquifer, depending on the head gradient. According to Koch and Bradford (1976), aquifer layer 1 discharges into Foot Creek and the Elm River although no data on streamflow gains are available. Considering the extent and thickness of aquifer layer 1 and thickness of the overlying confining bed, the hydraulic connection between Foot Creek and aquifer layer 1 is poor. The Elm River is hydraulically connected to aquifer layer 1 in 32 grid blocks (fig. 14).

SIMULATION OF GROUND-WATER FLOW IN THE GLACIAL-AQUIFER SYSTEM

Calibration of the Ground-Water Flow Model

Model calibration is the process by which model parameters are adjusted so the model will adequately simulate historical potentiometric heads and flows. The initial equilibrium conditions were simulated by entering average river stage, recharge, evapotranspiration, and pumpage and by setting the storage in the aquifers to zero. This is referred to as the steady-state or equilibrium simulation. The simulated steady-state potentiometric heads were compared to the observed annual average pre-1983 potentiometric heads to assess the accuracy of the steady-state simulation. The monthly transient simulation includes storage and time-dependent river stage, recharge, evapotranspiration, and pumpage. Simulated monthly transient potentiometric heads were compared to observed monthly potentiometric heads.

Calibration involves varying the values of hydraulic conductivity, recharge, evapotranspiration, leakage, and storage to bring simulated potentiometric heads closer to the observed potentiometric heads. The parameters were varied within reasonable hydrologic limits. Calibration was completed when a "best fit" between the simulated and observed potentiometric heads in each aquifer was obtained.

Table 4.--Monthly ground-water withdrawal rates from the study area, 1983-85

[--, assumed to be zero]

Year	Month	Ground-water withdrawal rates (cubic feet per second)		
		Aquifer layer 1	Aquifer layer 2	Aquifer layer 3
1983	January	--	--	--
	February	--	--	--
	March	--	--	--
	April	0.120	0.008	--
	May	.291	.575	0.054
	June	2.487	3.013	.440
	July	3.930	6.287	.565
	August	4.220	5.288	.652
	September	1.120	2.950	.080
	October	.038	.022	--
	November	--	--	--
	December	--	--	--
1984	January	--	--	--
	February	--	--	--
	March	--	--	--
	April	--	--	--
	May	.306	.202	.042
	June	.349	.666	.105
	July	5.596	6.766	.578
	August	10.492	12.693	.645
	September	3.289	6.007	.214
	October	--	.260	--
	November	--	--	--
	December	--	--	--
1985	January	--	--	--
	February	--	--	--
	March	--	--	--
	April	.031	.019	--
	May	.376	.706	.028
	June	1.030	2.796	.144
	July	3.900	10.307	.563
	August	4.548	11.391	.331
	September	1.318	4.682	.120
	October	.062	.038	--
	November	--	--	--
	December	--	--	--

Tables 5 and 6 give an indication of how well the model duplicated observed potentiometric heads. The smaller the average difference between the simulated and observed potentiometric heads, the better the model represents the glacial-aquifer system. However, because of the scattered areal distribution of the data, the degree to which the model duplicates observed potentiometric heads can only be assessed where sufficient water-level data exist.

There are several means by which errors can be introduced into the analysis. The complexity of the aquifers and their stratigraphic relations can result in seemingly unusual water levels. In addition, nearby pumping can result in observed water levels which do not reflect conditions throughout the area. Inaccurate measurement or error in recording of water levels can result in additional errors. Errors in the model formulation, estimation of the hydrologic parameters, and the lateral differences between well location and node center in the model will also produce differences between the simulated potentiometric heads and the observed potentiometric heads. Tables 5 and 6 reflect the best composite set of average and absolute differences obtained between the simulated and observed potentiometric heads for the steady-state simulation and the 1985 monthly transient simulations.

Steady-State Simulation

The steady-state simulation provides information on the hydrologic conditions in the glacial-aquifer system before significant ground-water development; no storage terms are included in the simulation.

As indicated by the hydrographs (figs. 8 and 10), pumpage for irrigation from the aquifers (table 4) have not produced significant water-level declines in the aquifers. The aquifers generally are in equilibrium; water levels usually recover during the nonirrigation fall, winter, and spring seasons.

The simulated steady-state potentiometric surfaces are shown in figures 20-22. There are water-level data from 22 observation wells completed in aquifer layer 1 for the period before 1983 and from 13 observation wells completed in aquifer layer 2. There are no water-level data available for aquifer layer 3, however, observation well 121N65W34CCCC located south of the study area was used as an aid for estimating water levels in the study area. The maximum positive head difference between the simulated and observed water levels in aquifer layer 1 was 8.41 ft in observation well 126N63W10AAAA located in grid block row 35, column 24 and the maximum negative difference was 11.78 ft in observation well 125N63W29CCCC in grid block row 54, column 19. The maximum positive head difference between the simulated and observed water levels in aquifer layer 2 was 17.17 ft in observation well 128N60W19BBCC located in grid block row 15, column 53 and the maximum negative difference was 5.43 ft in observation well 123N64W34BBBB in grid block row 79, column 11.

Table 5.--Comparison between simulated and observed potentiometric heads for aquifer layer 1

[--, no data]

Model simulation	Average difference between simulated and observed potentiometric heads ¹ (feet)	Average absolute difference between simulated and observed potentiometric heads ² (feet)	Maximum positive difference between simulated and observed potentiometric heads ³ (feet)	Maximum negative difference between simulated and observed potentiometric heads ⁴ (feet)	Number of observation wells with observed potentiometric heads
Steady-state	0.78	4.59	8.41	11.78	22
Transient, 1985					
January	1.48	4.96	10.59	11.47	9
February	1.44	6.31	11.89	16.08	18
March	--	--	--	--	--
April	-.76	4.68	7.76	96.08	21
May	.59	5.09	11.79	10.79	21
June	-.86	4.63	8.05	13.62	22
July	-2.54	4.66	6.24	17.31	22
August	-2.53	5.00	5.79	17.16	19
September	-1.12	4.16	5.51	11.89	17
October	-2.31	4.18	5.34	16.34	10
November	-.98	4.93	8.71	16.17	19
December	--	--	--	--	--

¹Summation of simulated minus observed potentiometric heads in corresponding grid blocks divided by number of observation wells with observed potentiometric heads. Positive number indicates simulated head was higher than the observed head; negative number indicates simulated head was lower than the observed head.
²Summation of the absolute values of simulated minus observed potentiometric heads in corresponding grid blocks divided by number of observation wells with observed potentiometric heads. The absolute value of a number is the number without its associated sign. For example, the absolute value of 2 and -2 are the same.

³Positive difference when simulated head is greater than observed water level.

⁴Negative difference when simulated head is less than observed water level.

Table 6.--Comparison between simulated and observed potentiometric heads for aquifer layer 2

[--, no data]

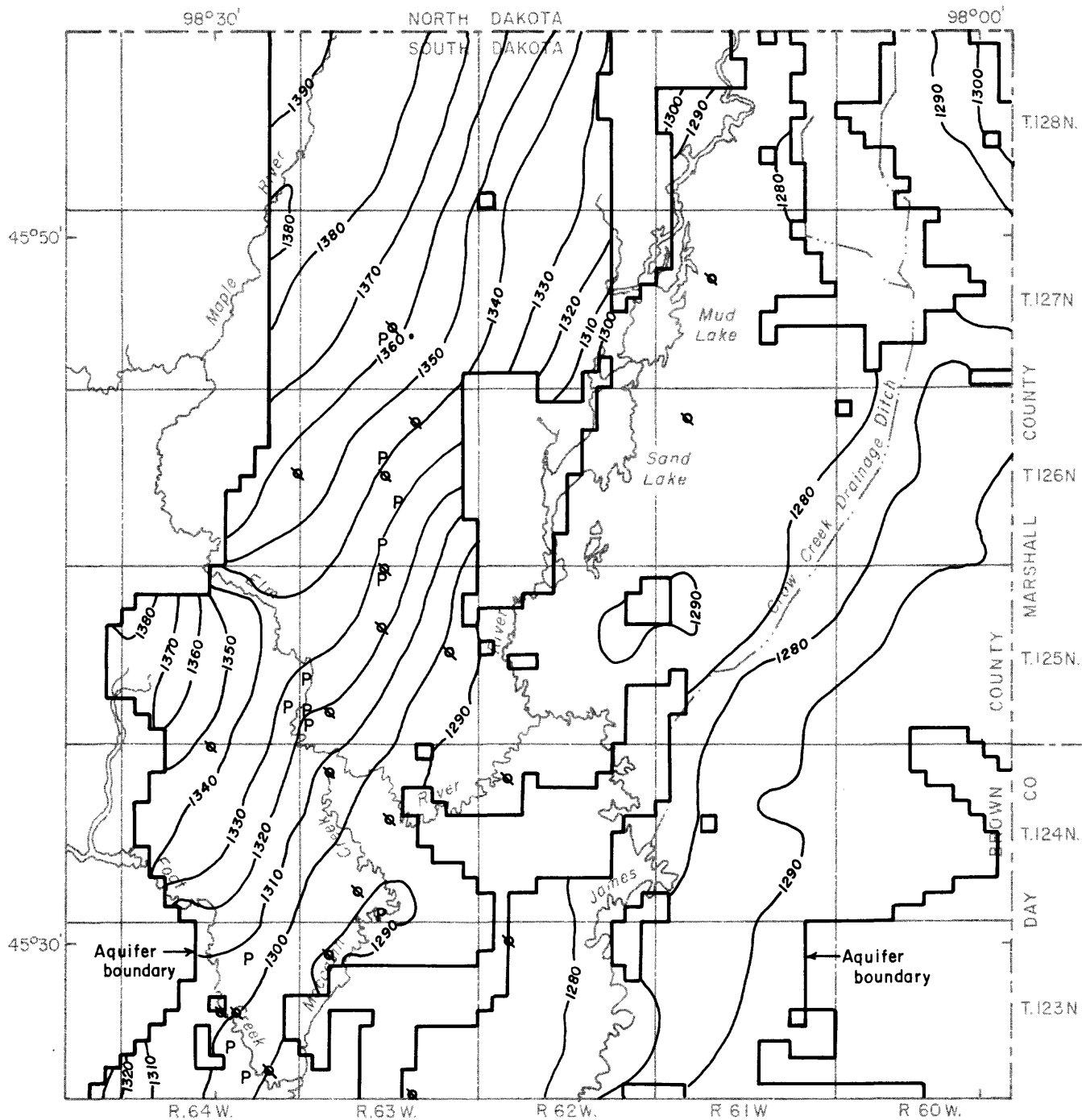
Model simulation	Average difference between simulated and observed potentiometric heads ¹ (feet)	Average absolute difference between simulated and observed potentiometric heads ² (feet)	Maximum positive difference between simulated and observed potentiometric heads ³ (feet)	Maximum negative difference between simulated and observed potentiometric heads ⁴ (feet)	Number of observation wells with observed potentiometric heads
Steady-state	3.49	5.10	17.17	5.43	13
Transient, 1985					
January	1.67	6.90	25.76	19.11	13
February	2.15	5.43	27.01	18.49	20
March	--	--	--	--	--
April	-1.22	3.96	9.48	18.45	23
May	.93	5.28	32.67	17.11	23
June	-.49	5.15	27.59	18.77	23
July	2.21	7.37	46.35	21.48	23
August	3.21	8.23	42.26	21.87	23
September	2.99	7.21	29.17	21.88	21
October	4.98	7.44	15.92	6.45	9
November	2.75	6.97	17.46	21.30	22
December	--	--	--	--	--

¹Summation of simulated minus observed potentiometric heads in corresponding grid blocks divided by number of observation wells with observed potentiometric heads. Positive number indicates simulated head was higher than the observed head; negative number indicates simulated head was lower than the observed head.

²Summation of the absolute values of simulated minus observed potentiometric heads in corresponding grid blocks divided by number of observation wells with observed potentiometric heads. The absolute value of a number is the number without its associated sign. For example, the absolute value of 2 and -2 are the same.

³Positive difference when simulated head is greater than observed water level.

⁴Negative difference when simulated head is less than observed water level.



EXPLANATION

- 1300 — SIMULATED POTENTIOMETRIC-SURFACE CONTOUR-- Shows altitude of simulated potentiometric surface based on average hydrologic conditions, 1972-82. Contour interval is 10 feet. Datum is sea level
- ⊙ OBSERVATION WELL
- P PUMPING NODE

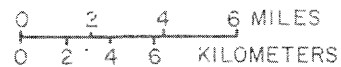
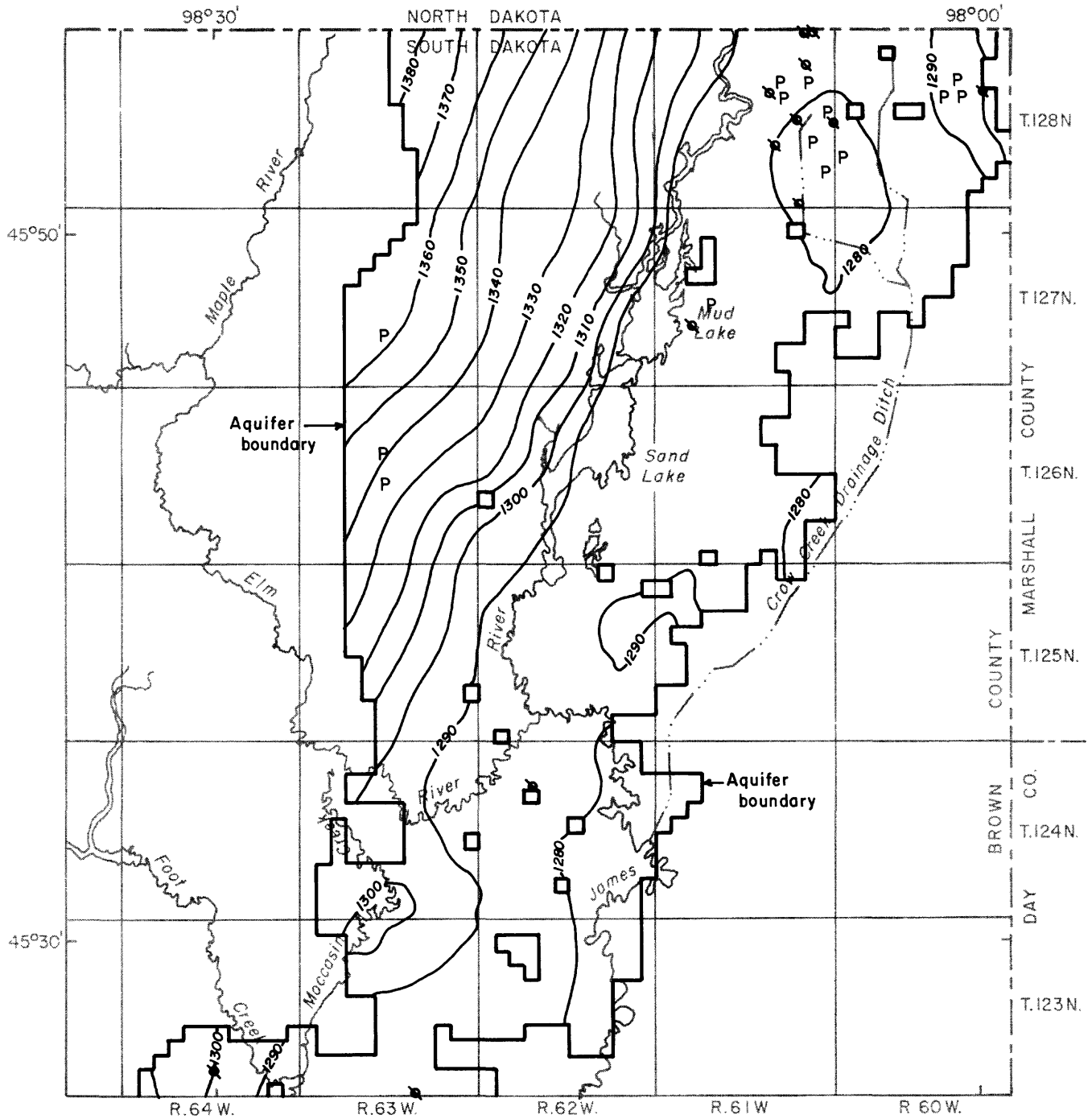


Figure 20.--Simulated steady-state potentiometric surface of aquifer layer 1.



EXPLANATION

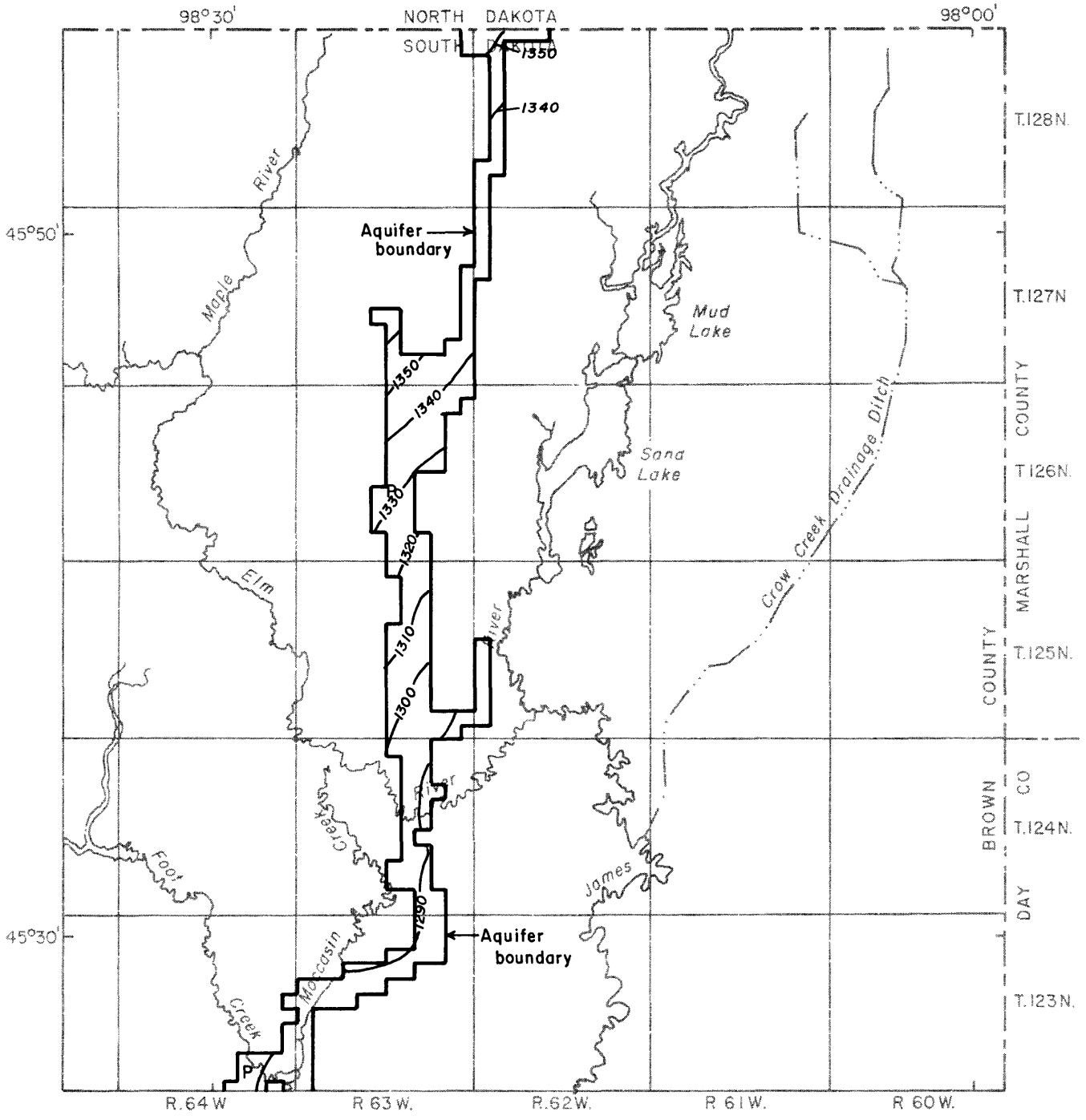
—1300— SIMULATED POTENTIOMETRIC-SURFACE CONTOUR--
Shows altitude of simulated potentiometric surface
based on average hydrologic conditions, 1972-82.
Contour interval is 10 feet. Datum is sea level

☒ OBSERVATION WELL

P PUMPING NODE

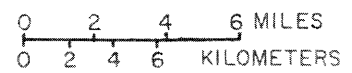
0 2 4 6 MILES
0 2 4 6 KILOMETERS

Figure 21.--Simulated steady-state potentiometric surface of aquifer layer 2.



EXPLANATION

—1300— SIMULATED POTENTIOMETRIC-SURFACE CONTOUR--
 Shows altitude of simulated potentiometric surface
 based on average hydrologic conditions, 1972-82.
 Contour interval is 10 feet. Datum is sea level



P PUMPING NODE

Figure 22.--Simulated steady-state potentiometric surface of aquifer layer 3.

The reasons for the discrepancies are unknown but may be due to the complexity of the glacial-aquifer system. These observation wells may be partly isolated from the surrounding aquifer by till or clay and silt outwash, and therefore, water levels from these wells may not represent the regional potentiometric surface of that aquifer. Also due to the simplifying assumptions in the model and the size of the finite-difference grid, the simulated steady-state potentiometric heads will contain inaccuracies. However, the model is one of the best means of improving and evaluating our understanding of the glacial-aquifer system.

The highest potentiometric heads in aquifer layer 1 are located on the western boundary of the study area and the lowest heads are located near the James River which is topographically the lowest area (fig. 20). The potentiometric contours in aquifer layer 1 approximate the topographic contours. Ground water flows from higher to lower potentiometric head and perpendicular to the potentiometric contours. The flow west of the James River generally is eastward toward the river, and east of the James River the flow generally is westward.

Previous studies have indicated that the James River gains little or no water from the underlying glacial-aquifer system in the study area. The steady-state simulation shows that evapotranspiration can reasonably remove enough water from the glacial-aquifer system before it reaches the river to approximate the steady-state potentiometric surface.

The potentiometric heads and flow within aquifer layer 2 (fig. 21) are similar to those of aquifer layer 1. The highest potentiometric heads are located on the western boundary of the study area and the lowest heads are located in the topographically low area near the James River. Flow in aquifer layer 2 generally is to the east, west of the James River and flow generally is to the west, east of the James River.

The steady-state simulation indicates that the potentiometric heads in aquifer layer 3 are highest at the north end of the study area and lowest at the south end (fig. 22). Simulated flow in aquifer layer 3 is from the northwest to the southeast. Based on a couple of measuring points, Koch and Bradford (1976) stated that the direction of ground-water movement is to the north. There are no water-level data available to check the validity of the aquifer layer 3 steady-state simulation.

One of the least understood aspects of the glacial-aquifer system is the potentiometric head relations and flow between the aquifers. The model provides a means of making head comparisons between the aquifers over the study area. The steady-state head differences between aquifer layers 1 and 2 (figs. 20 and 21) were all less than 1.0 ft and most were 0.1 ft or less.

Recharge from precipitation was 94.8 percent of the steady-state inflow to the glacial-aquifer system (table 7). The average annual recharge distributed over the active model area was 4.3 inches. Evapotranspiration accounts for 95.8 percent of the outflow from the predevelopment steady-state glacial-aquifer system. The average evapotranspiration distributed over the active model area was 4.6 in/yr.

Table 7.--Simulated water budget under steady-state conditions

Budget component	Flow rates in cubic feet per second	Percent
INFLOW		
Recharge to the glacial-aquifer system from precipitation	327	94.8
Recharge to the glacial-aquifer system from the stream	.33	.1
Inflow at specified-head boundaries	17.6	5.1
	-----	-----
Total inflow (rounded)	345	100.0
OUTFLOW		
Evapotranspiration from the glacial-aquifer system	333	95.8
Pumpage	1.61	.4
Discharge from the glacial-aquifer system to the stream	1.54	.5
Outflow at specified-head boundaries	11.5	3.3
	-----	-----
Total outflow (rounded)	348	100.0

Transient Simulation

The transient simulation includes changes in storage in the aquifers. The hydrographs of water levels in the 3 aquifers (figs. 8, 10, and 12) indicate that the aquifers generally are in equilibrium. Water levels decline during the summer months due to increased evapotranspiration and pumpage and rise to near nonpumping water levels during the late winter and spring due to increased recharge.

Since no long-term water-level declines have occurred in the aquifer system, the aquifers were simulated in monthly pumping periods to simulate seasonal changes in the aquifers' water levels. Twelve monthly pumping periods for the year 1985 are simulated. The year 1985 was selected because it has the most water-level data available to check the accuracy of the monthly simulation. To ensure adequate starting heads for the January 1985 simulation, monthly simulations for 1983 and 1984 were also run. The potentiometric heads calculated by the December 1984 simulation were used as the starting heads for January 1985. Water levels at the beginning of 1985 (figs. 8, 10, and 12) were higher than average due to above-normal precipitation (table 2) and subsequent recharge to the aquifers. Subsequent 1985 monthly starting heads used potentiometric heads generated by the preceding monthly simulation.

The average difference between the simulated and observed water levels for the 12 monthly simulation periods (tables 5 and 6) ranged from -2.54 ft in July to 1.48 ft in January for aquifer layer 1, from -1.22 ft in April to 4.98 ft in October for aquifer layer 2. The average absolute difference

ranged from 4.16 ft in September to 6.31 ft in February for aquifer layer 1, from 3.96 ft in April to 8.23 ft in August for aquifer layer 2. Insufficient data exists for aquifer layer 3 to calculate differences between the simulated and observed water levels. The number of observation wells is a major factor in the average and absolute monthly differences. The larger the number of observation wells, the better the average differences indicate how well the model simulates the aquifers.

Comparison of hydrographs of observed water levels and simulated potentiometric heads for the corresponding grid blocks in which the observation wells are located are a means of determining the ability of the model to simulate the glacial-aquifer system (figs. 23-25). The hydrographs indicate that there are areas where the model is capable of simulating the aquifers accurately and there are areas where the model does not. The reason for the poor correlation between the simulated and observed hydrographs for May and June possibly is a result of the distribution of precipitation in April and May (table 2). The average precipitation for April was only 0.54 inch or about 26 percent of normal which probably could result in a soil moisture deficiency. Although the average May precipitation was 3.58 inches or about 138 percent of normal, a potential soil moisture deficiency would result in a lower than anticipated recharge to the aquifer. This variability indicates the complexity of the glacial-aquifer system and the apparent need for accurate recharge data.

The hydrographs indicate that the water levels in the aquifers generally are highest in April and lowest in August. The simulated potentiometric surfaces of aquifer layers 1, 2, and 3 for April 1985 are shown in figures 26-28. In April, the average difference between the simulated and observed water levels was -0.76 ft and the average absolute difference was 4.68 ft for aquifer layer 1 (table 5). The maximum positive difference between the simulated and observed water levels was 7.76 ft at observation well 125N63W4AAAA in grid block row 45, column 22, and the maximum negative difference was 16.08 ft at observation well 125N63W29CCCC in grid block row 54, column 19. The maximum positive difference for aquifer layer 2 (table 6) was 9.48 ft at observation well 125N63W1AAAA in grid block row 45, column 28, and the maximum negative difference was 18.45 ft at observation well 128N62W14DDDD in grid block row 14, column 38. There is only one water-level measurement in aquifer layer 3 in April 1985. The simulated potentiometric head in grid block row 27, column 28 was 35.56 ft higher than the observed water level in observation well 127N63W24AAAA. The average and absolute differences between the simulated and measured water levels (tables 5 and 6) and the comparison of selected hydrographs of simulated and measured hydrographs demonstrate the ability of the 1985 monthly transient simulations to approximately replicate the aquifer's response to monthly changes in pumping, recharge, and evapotranspiration.

The configuration of the April 1985 potentiometric surfaces for aquifer layers 1, 2, and 3 (figs. 26-28) are very similar to the corresponding steady-state potentiometric surfaces (figs. 20-22) except that the April potentiometric heads generally are higher. The April 1985 potentiometric heads in aquifer layer 1 range from greater than 1,390 ft along the western boundary of the study area to less than 1,280 ft near the James River. The direction of ground-water movement in aquifer layer 1 generally is eastward, west of the James River and westward, east of the James River. The April 1985 potentiometric heads and direction of flow in aquifer layers 2 and 3 are similar to those of aquifer layer 1.

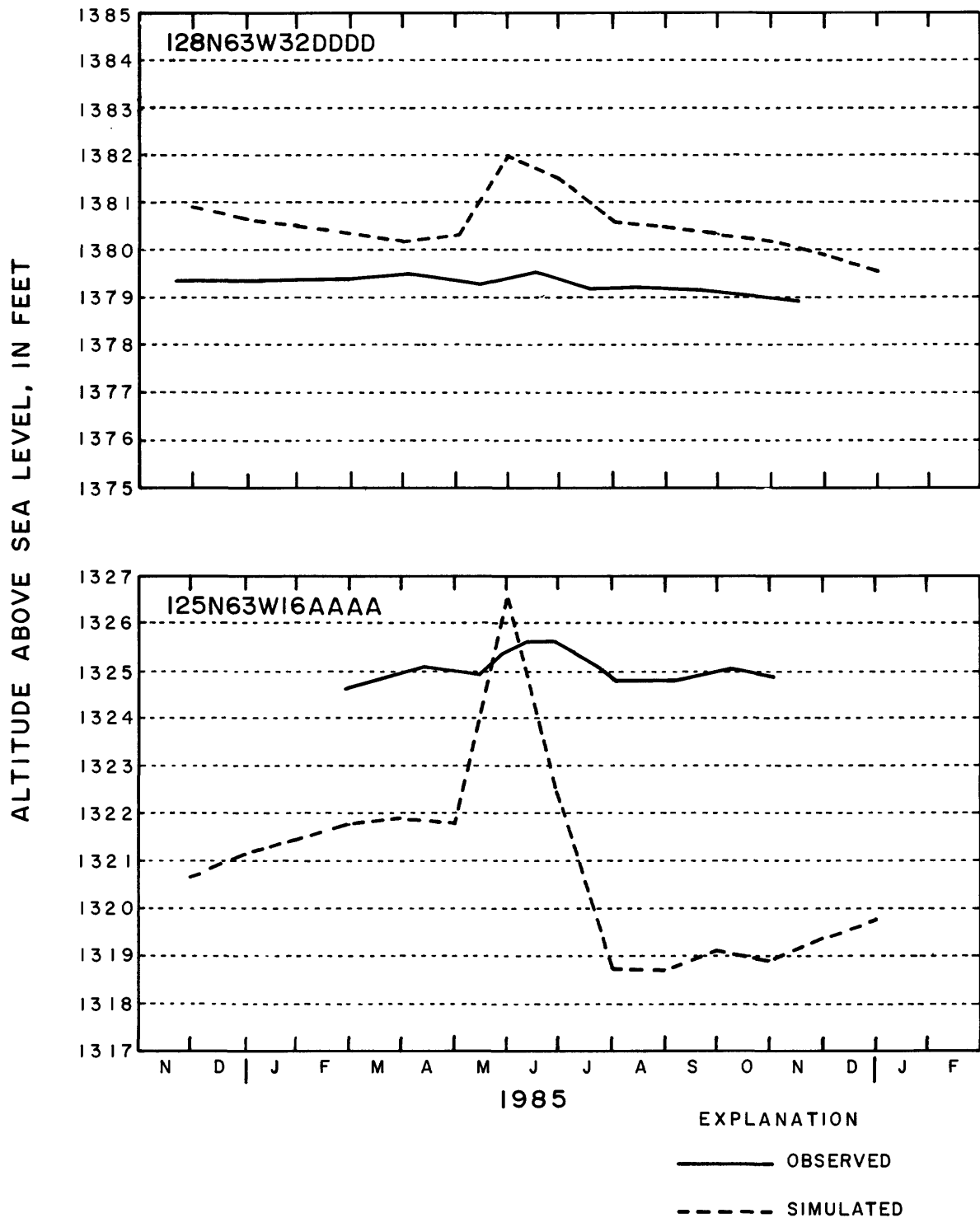


Figure 23.--Hydrographs showing comparison of simulated and observed monthly potentiometric heads in the Elm aquifer part of aquifer layer 1, 1985.

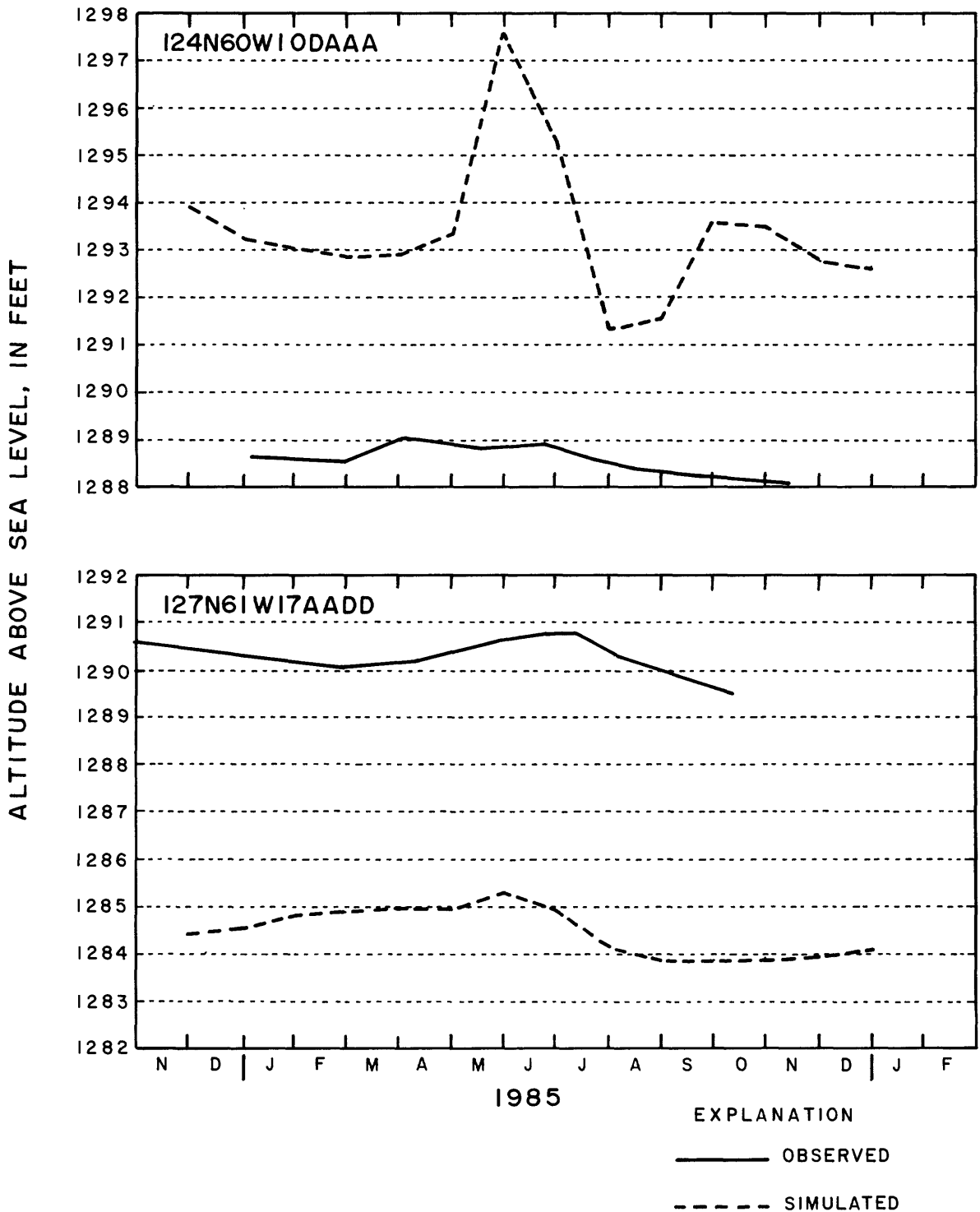


Figure 24.--Hydrographs showing comparison of simulated and observed monthly potentiometric heads in the sandy lake deposits part of aquifer layer 1, 1985.

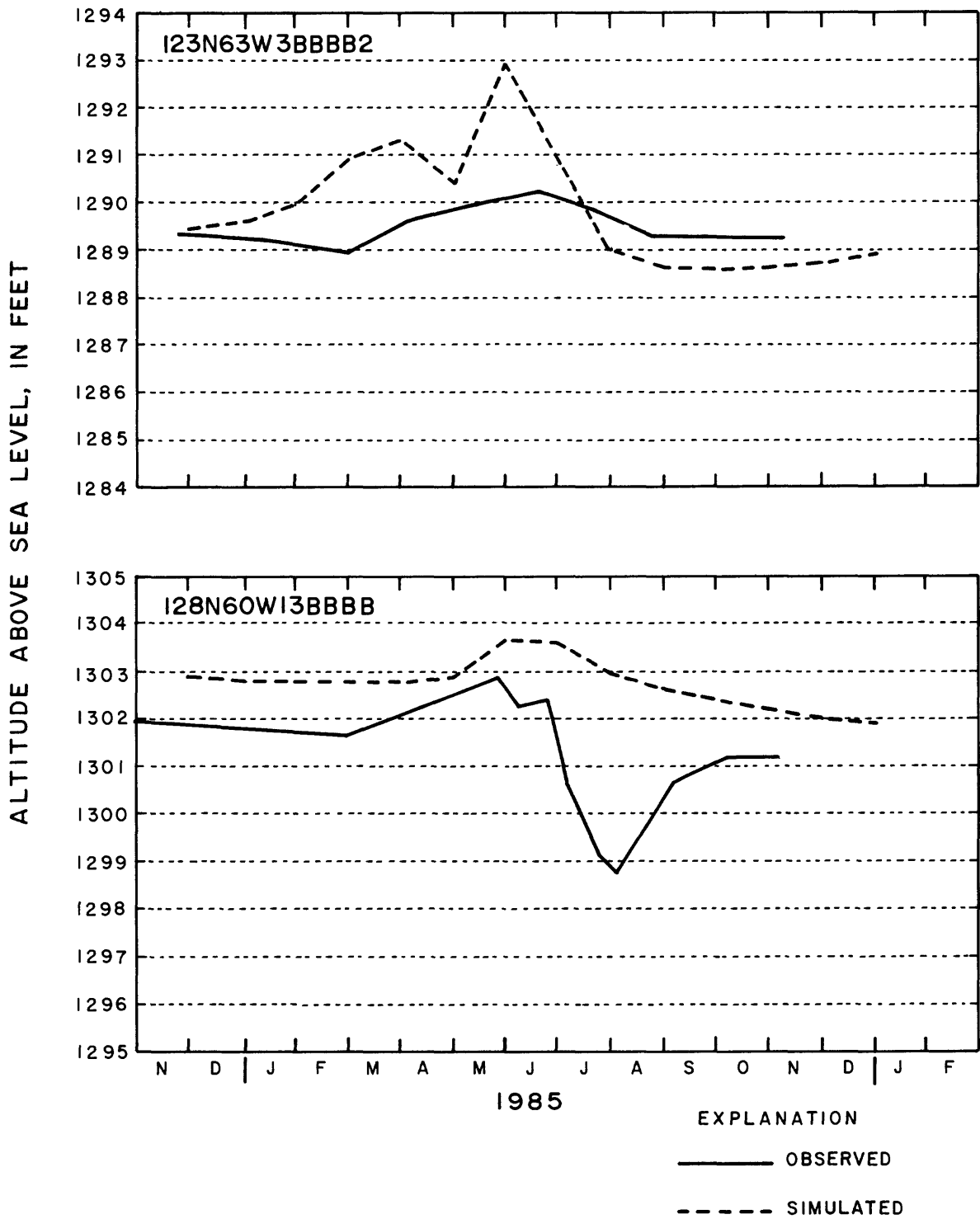
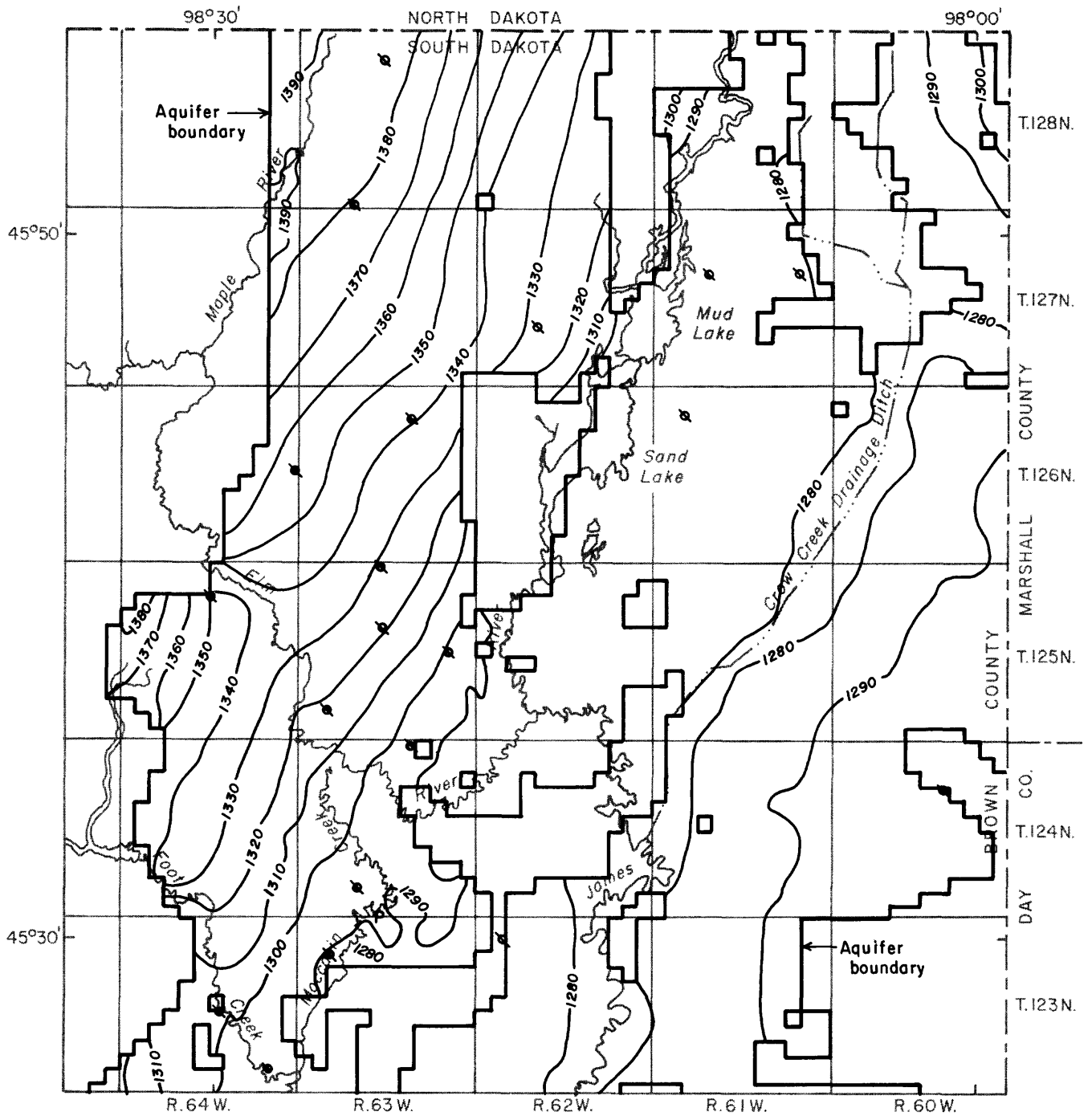


Figure 25.--Hydrographs showing comparison of simulated and observed monthly potentiometric heads in aquifer layer 2, 1985.



EXPLANATION

- 1300 — SIMULATED POTENTIOMETRIC-SURFACE CONTOUR-- Shows altitude of simulated potentiometric surface. Contour interval is 10 feet. Datum is sea level
- ⊗ OBSERVATION WELL
- P PUMPING NODE

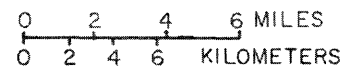
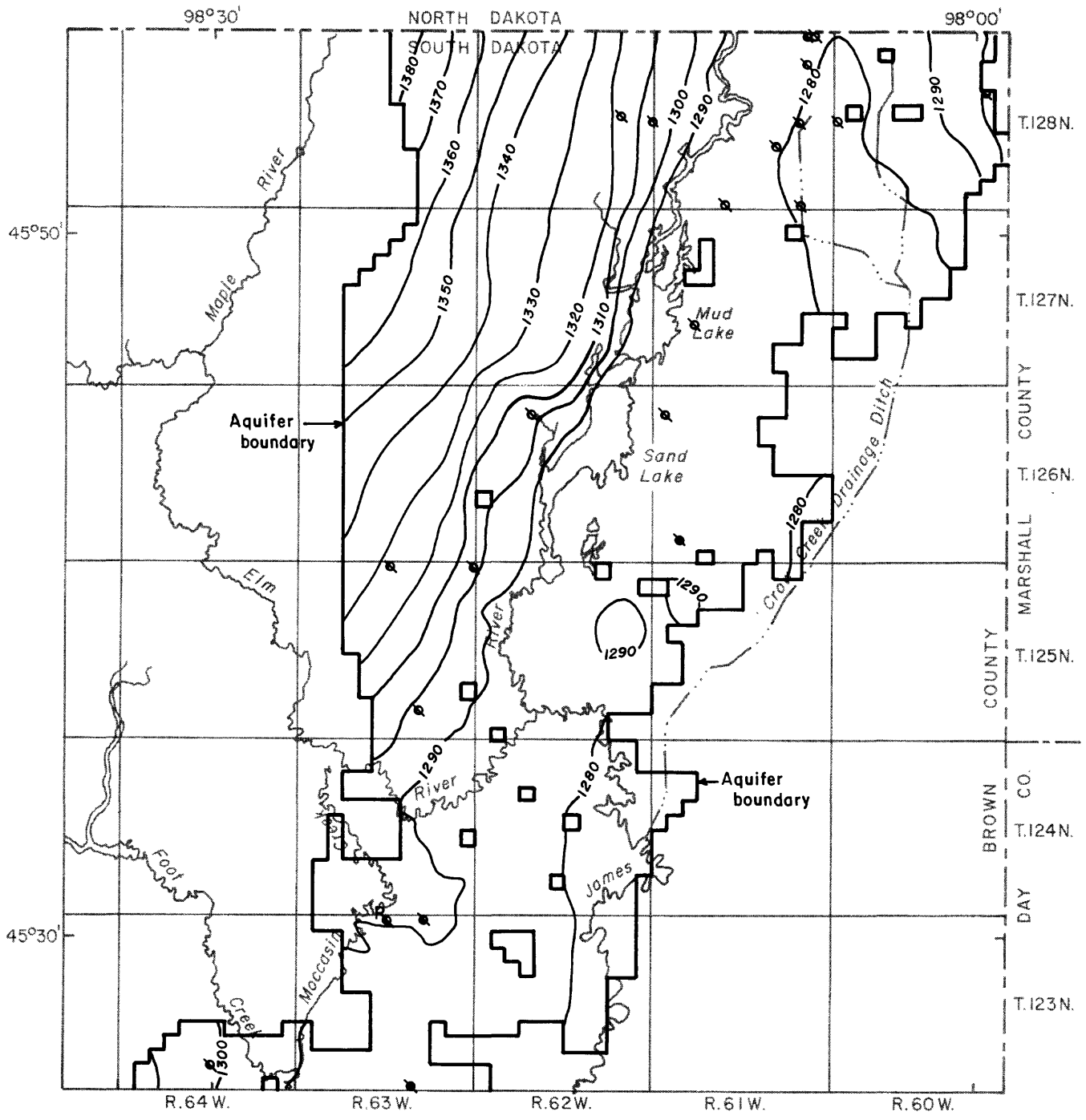


Figure 26.--Simulated potentiometric surface of aquifer layer 1, April 1985.



EXPLANATION

- 1300— SIMULATED POTENTIOMETRIC-SURFACE CONTOUR--
Shows altitude of simulated potentiometric surface.
Contour interval is 10 feet. Datum is sea level
- ⊙ OBSERVATION WELL
- P PUMPING NODE

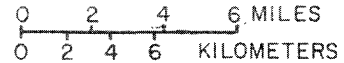
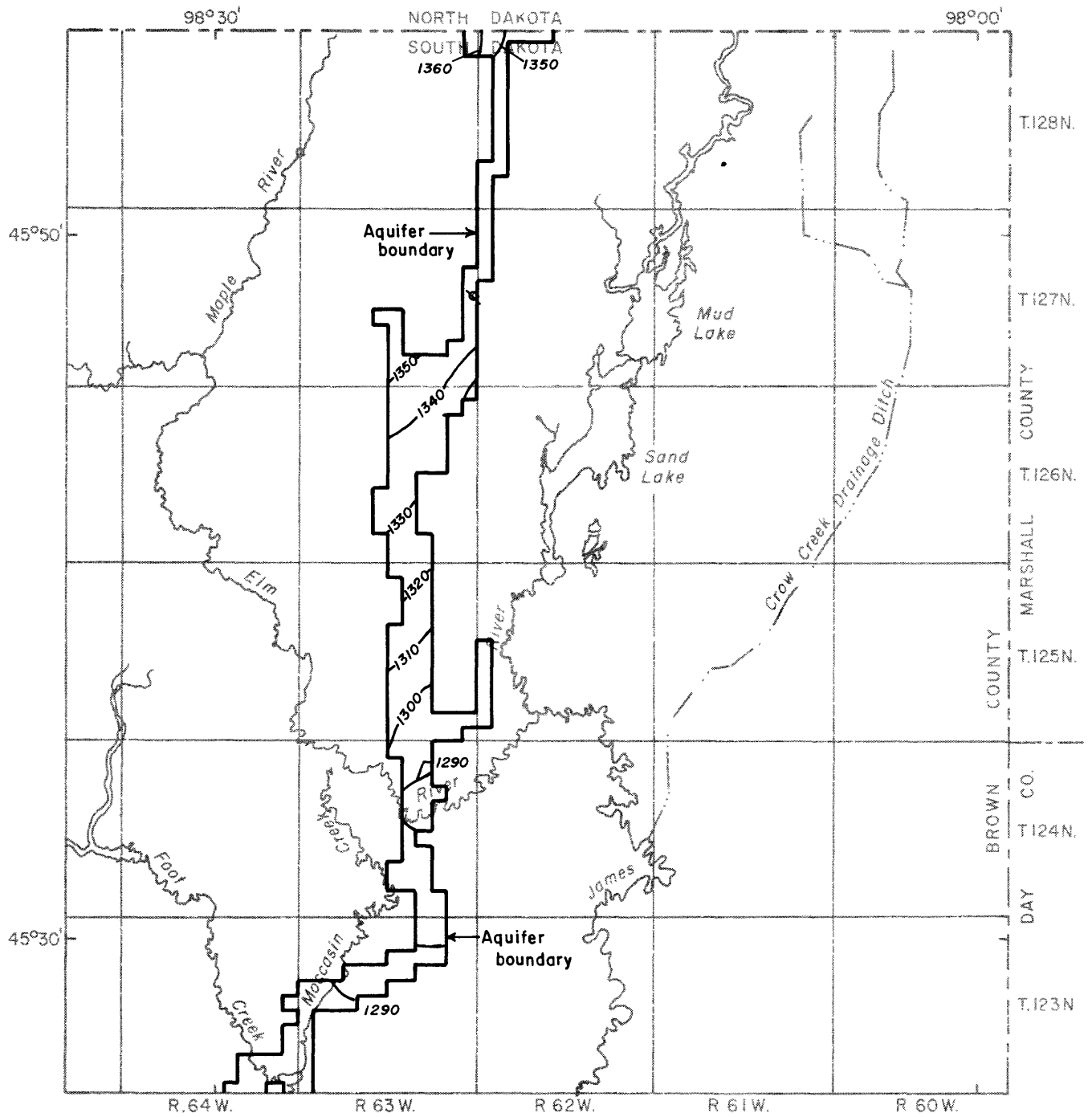


Figure 27.--Simulated potentiometric surface of aquifer layer 2, April 1985.



EXPLANATION

—1300— SIMULATED POTENTIOMETRIC-SURFACE CONTOUR--
Shows altitude of simulated potentiometric surface.
Contour interval is 10 feet. Datum is sea level

○ OBSERVATION WELL

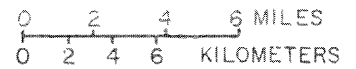


Figure 28.--Simulated potentiometric surface of aquifer layer 3, April 1985.

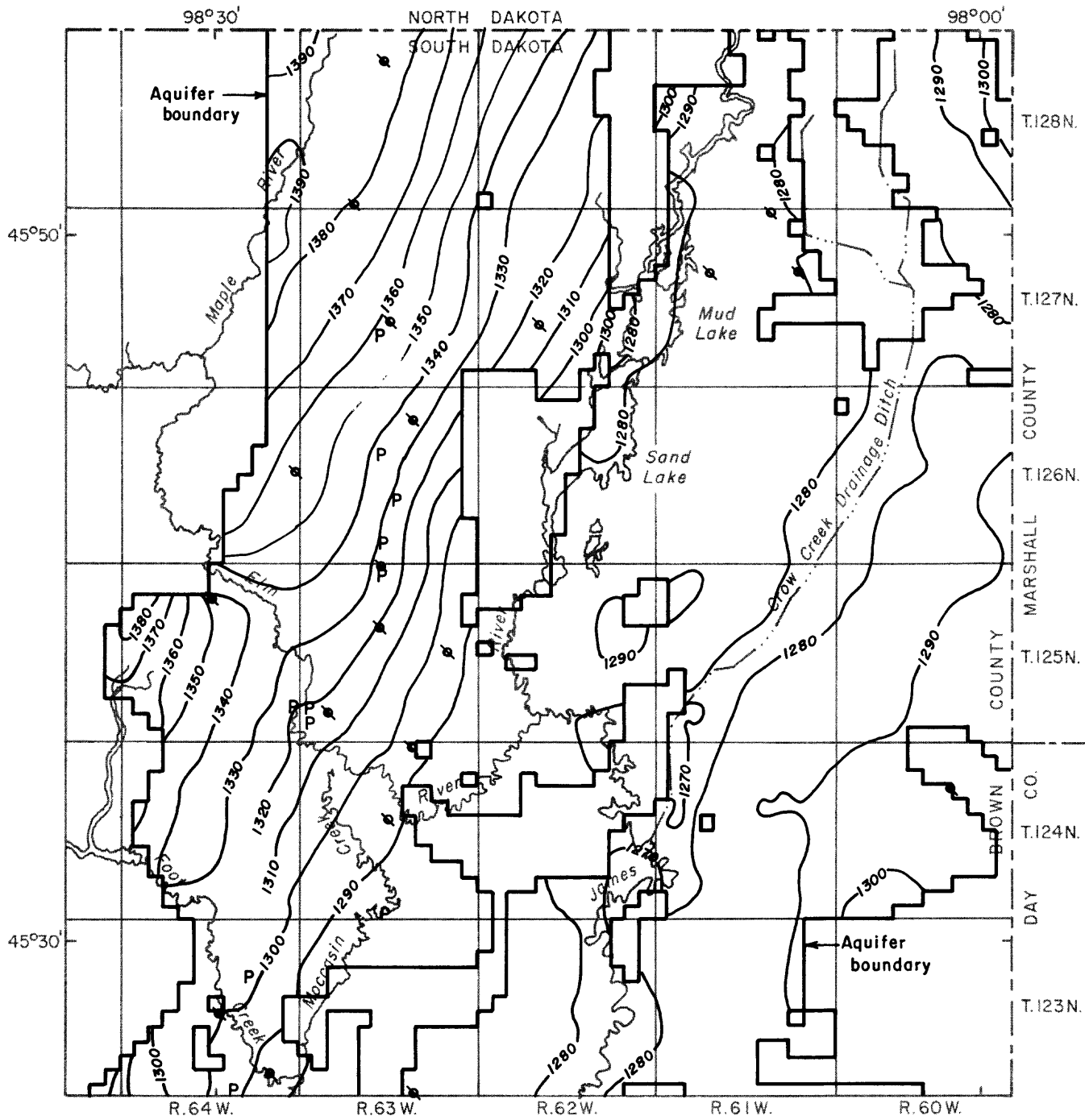
The configuration of the August 1985 potentiometric surfaces for aquifer layers 1, 2, and 3 (figs. 29-31) are lower than those in April due to increased evapotranspiration and pumpage and a decrease in recharge. The August 1985 potentiometric heads in aquifer layer 1 ranged from greater than 1,390 ft above sea level along the western edge of the model area to less than 1,270 ft near the James River (fig. 29). The direction of ground-water movement in aquifer layer 1 generally is eastward, west of the James River and westward, east of the James River. The August 1985 potentiometric heads and direction of flow in aquifer layers 2 and 3 (figs. 30-31) are similar to the heads in aquifer layer 1.

The August potentiometric heads for aquifer layers 1 and 2 generally are lower than the April potentiometric heads. Between April and August 1985, the model-simulated aquifer layer 1 potentiometric heads declined from 0.0 to 15.8 ft with an average decline of 2.4 ft. The potentiometric heads declined from 0.0 to 15.8 ft with an average of 3.3 ft in aquifer layer 2. The simulated potentiometric heads in aquifer layer 3 declined from 0.0 to 13.5 ft with an average decline of 4.8 ft between April and August 1985. The largest head declines generally occurred in areas where pumping from the aquifers is greatest. There are few data available on the potentiometric heads in aquifer layer 3, therefore the accuracy or significances of these head changes between April and August are not known.

The nodal data used to contour the potentiometric head data for aquifer layers 1 and 2 (figs. 26, 27, 29, and 30) for April and August were compared to determine the vertical head differences between the aquifers. The vertical head differences between aquifer layers 1 and 2 in both April and August do not exceed 1.0 ft.

A simulated water budget equating monthly sources and discharges for the model for 1985 is shown in table 8. The water budgets for the 12 monthly simulation periods vary considerably as a result of changes in the monthly evapotranspiration, storage, and pumpage. The maximum error in the monthly mass balances (differences between sources and consumption of water) is about 4 percent.

The primary source of water in 1985 was recharge from precipitation and snowmelt which occurred in the spring and early summer. During this period, leakage across the model boundaries represented by specified head nodes and leakage from the Elm River supplied less than 0.1 percent of the water. During the remainder of the year, the primary source of water was from storage. The major losses of water were pumpage and evapotranspiration during the months of May through August. The amount of water discharged from the aquifer during the summer is recharged to the aquifer in the fall, winter, and spring months.



EXPLANATION

—1300— SIMULATED POTENTIOMETRIC-SURFACE CONTOUR--
Shows altitude of simulated potentiometric surface.
Contour interval is 10 feet. Datum is sea level

⊕ OBSERVATION WELL

P PUMPING NODE

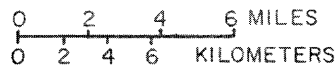
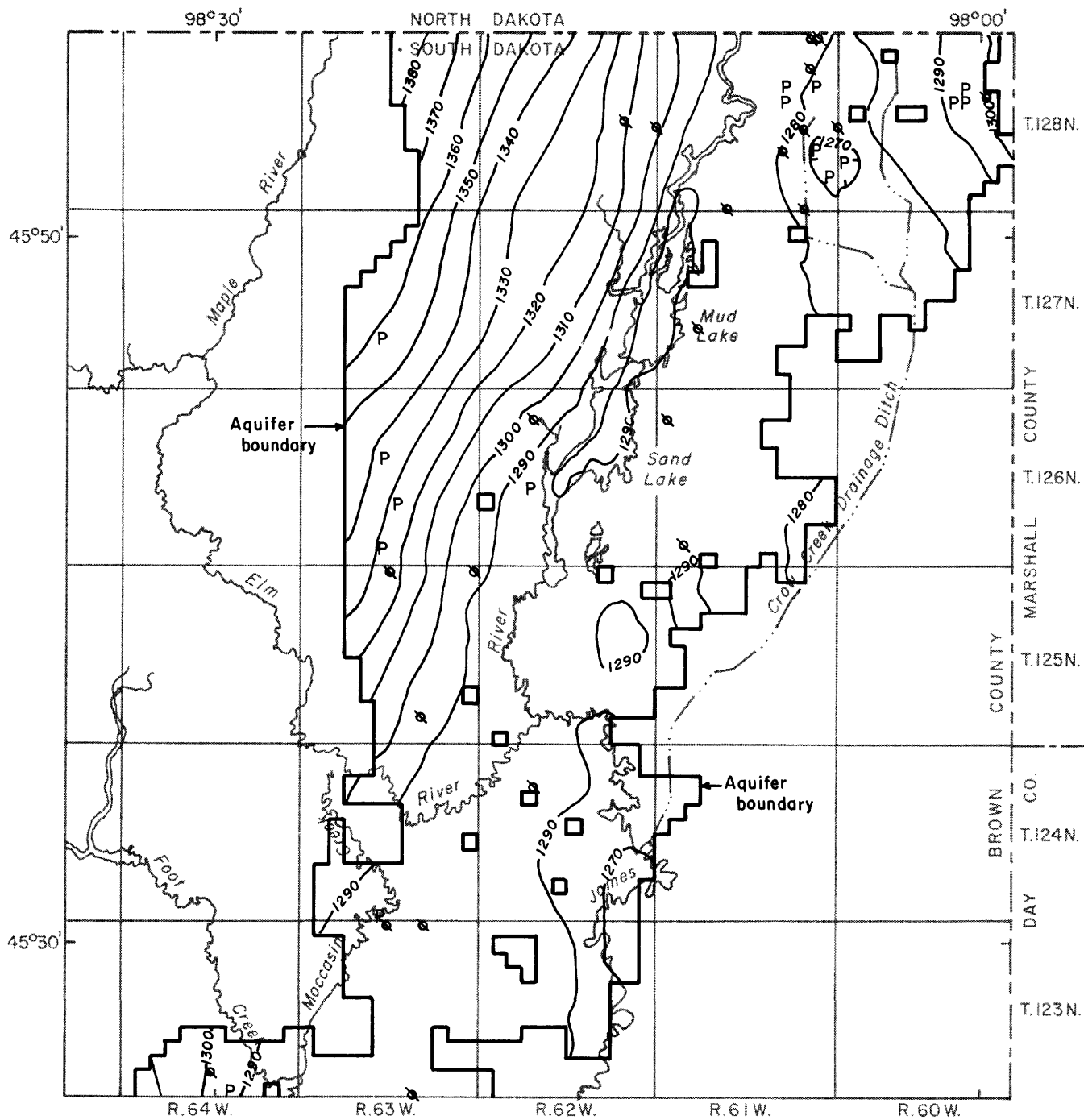


Figure 29.--Simulated potentiometric surface of aquifer layer 1, August 1985.



EXPLANATION

—1300— SIMULATED POTENTIOMETRIC-SURFACE CONTOUR--
Shows altitude of simulated potentiometric surface.
Contour interval is 10 feet. Datum is sea level

⊗ OBSERVATION WELL

P PUMPING NODE

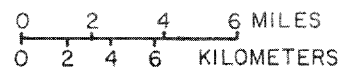
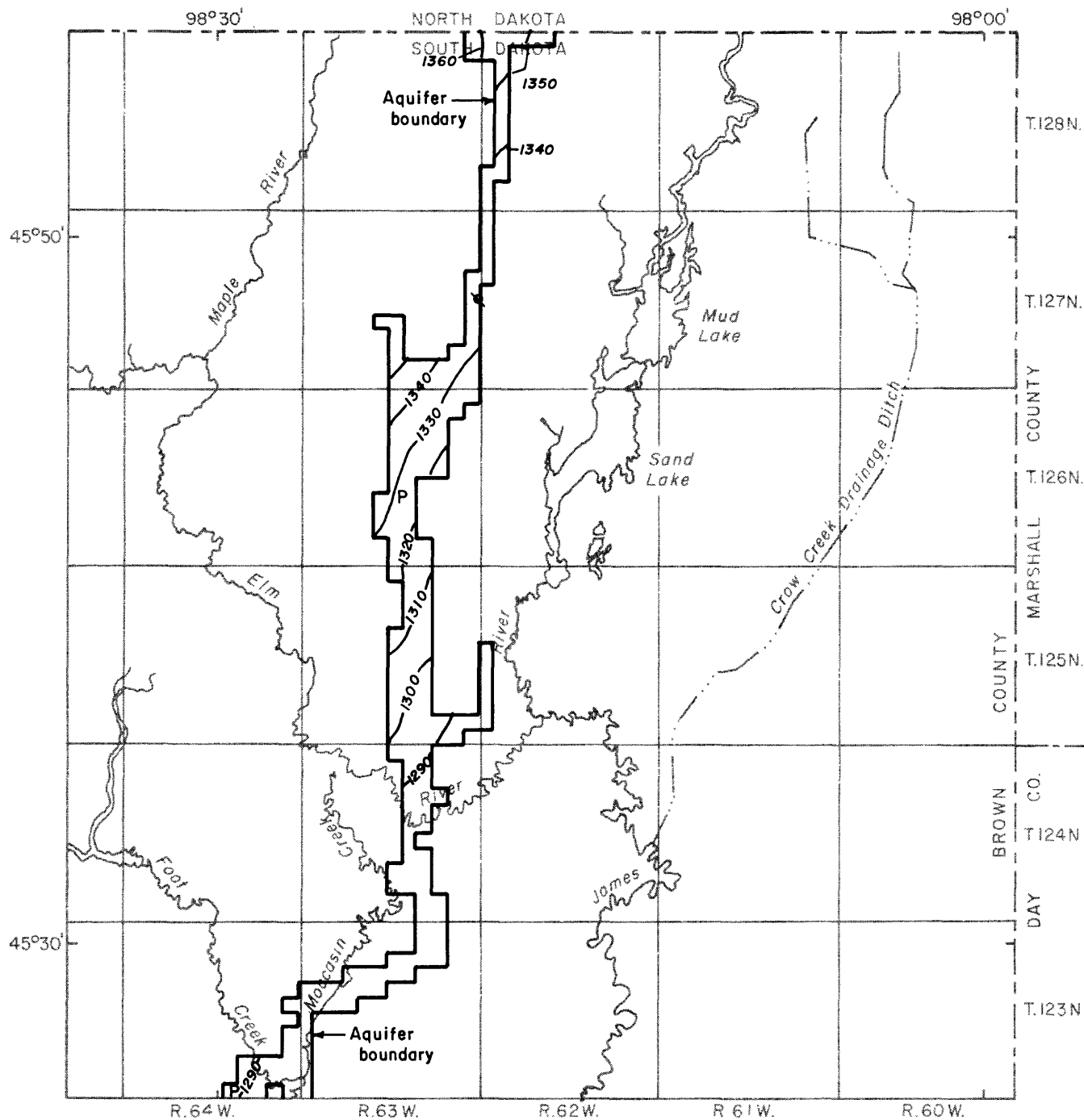


Figure 30.--Simulated potentiometric surface of aquifer layer 2, August 1985.



EXPLANATION

- 1300— SIMULATED POTENTIOMETRIC-SURFACE CONTOUR—
Shows altitude of simulated potentiometric surface.
Contour interval is 10 feet. Datum is sea level
- ⊗ OBSERVATION WELL
- P PUMPING NODE

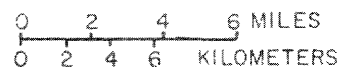


Figure 31.--Simulated potentiometric surface of aquifer layer 3, August 1985.

Table 8.--Monthly simulated water budgets, 1985

	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December	Total
	Sources of water (accretions) (cubic feet per second, rounded)												
Recharge from precipitation	0.00	0.00	437	299	1,690	708	11.8	17.7	153	82.7	0.00	0.00	3,400
Recharge from the stream to the glacial-aquifer system	.10	.09	.00	.39	.11	.27	.68	.67	.43	.30	.15	.13	3.32
Recharge from specified-head boundaries	17.2	17.0	15.5	17.6	16.4	17.0	18.3	19.5	19.4	19.1	19.0	18.9	215
Discharge from storage	73.2	65.8	1.44	248	.92	92.3	463	221	90.6	81.4	79.1	78.3	1,500
Total	90.5	82.9	454	565	1,710	818	494	259	263	183	98.2	97.3	5,120
	Consumption of water (depletions) (cubic feet per second, rounded)												
Evapotranspiration from aquifer	0.00	0.00	0.00	557	1,240	767	471	238	204	119	0.00	0.00	3,600
Pumpage	.00	.00	.00	.05	1.11	3.97	14.8	16.3	6.12	.10	.00	.00	42.4
Discharge from the glacial-aquifer system to the stream	2.33	2.38	4.49	1.55	2.47	1.87	1.40	1.30	1.43	1.71	1.92	2.14	25.0
Discharge from specified-head boundaries	10.8	10.5	13.4	10.5	15.8	14.0	11.0	8.54	8.95	10.1	10.4	10.5	134
Recharge to storage	74.3	66.9	435	1.74	446	34.7	.00	.53	48.9	51.2	89.0	84.1	1,330
Total	87.4	79.8	453	571	1,710	822	498	265	269	182	101	96.7	5,090

MODEL SENSITIVITY

The confidence in the model's response needs to be based on a subjective appraisal of the analogy between the glacial-aquifer system and the model. A significant part of this analogy is the assumption that the aquifer characteristics have the same or similar characteristics assumed in the model. Because the aquifer characteristics are not known with certainty, the sensitivity of the model to each of several selected characteristics was tested.

The sensitivity of the model was tested by changing the values assigned for recharge, evapotranspiration, and hydraulic conductivity. The extent to which these variations affect the simulated response is a qualitative measure of the sensitivity of the model to uncertainty in that aquifer characteristic. Thus, if the variation produces a minor change in the predicted response, the model is not sensitive to that aquifer characteristic.

The sensitivity of the simulated steady-state condition is described by comparing the standard steady-state simulation (the one described thus far in the report) with an alternative simulation (one in which an aquifer characteristic had an alternative value).

The sensitivity of the steady-state simulation to changes in recharge, evapotranspiration, and hydraulic conductivity for aquifer layer 1 is shown in table 9 and aquifer layer 2 is shown in table 10. There are no potentiometric-head data available for aquifer layer 3 on which to test the model's sensitivity. It is assumed, however, that the sensitivity of aquifer layer 3 would be similar to that of aquifer layers 1 and 2. The areal distribution of the percentage of maximum recharge and evapotranspiration in each grid block was not changed. Also the areal distribution of the hydraulic conductivity was not changed.

The steady-state simulation is most sensitive to changes in recharge. A 25-percent reduction in the maximum recharge rate from 7.00 to 5.25 in/yr resulted in the average difference decreasing 0.12 ft for aquifer layer 1 and 0.59 ft for aquifer layer 2. The average absolute differences decreased 0.37 ft for aquifer layer 1 and 0.11 ft for aquifer layer 2. Also the maximum positive differences changed 2.01 ft for aquifer layer 1 and 0.21 ft for aquifer layer 2. The maximum negative differences changed 0.64 ft for aquifer layer 1 and 1.07 ft for aquifer layer 2. Increasing the recharge rate 25 percent from 7.00 to 8.75 in/yr produced larger changes in the average difference and in the maximum positive and negative differences for both aquifers layers 1 and 2. The average absolute differences were slightly larger.

The effects of decreasing the potential steady-state evapotranspiration rate from 35.4 to 26.4 in/yr produced a 1.61-ft increase in the average difference for aquifer layer 1 and a 0.93-ft increase for aquifer layer 2. The decreased potential evapotranspiration also resulted in an increase of 0.18 ft for aquifer layer 1 and a 0.48-ft increase for aquifer layer 2 in the average absolute difference from the standard steady-state simulation. An increase in the evapotranspiration rate to 44.25 in/yr resulted in the average difference decreasing 0.62 ft for aquifer layer 1 and 0.57 ft for aquifer layer 2. The average absolute difference decreased 0.17 ft for aquifer layer 1 and 0.28 ft for aquifer layer 2.

The steady-state simulation is relatively insensitive to changes in hydraulic conductivity. In general, a 50-percent change in hydraulic conductivity produced less change in the average and absolute differences for aquifer layers 1 and 2 than 25-percent changes in recharge or evapotranspiration. This sensitivity analysis indicates that the accuracy of the recharge and evapotranspiration used in the model is more important than the accuracy of the hydraulic conductivity.

Table 9.--Model sensitivity to changes in recharge, evapotranspiration, and hydraulic conductivity for aquifer layer 1

Model simulation	Average difference between simulated and observed potentiometric heads ¹ (feet)	Average absolute difference between simulated and observed potentiometric heads ² (feet)	Maximum positive difference between simulated and observed potentiometric heads ³ (feet)	Maximum negative difference between simulated and observed potentiometric heads ⁴ (feet)	Number of observation wells with observed potentiometric heads
Standard steady-state model	0.78	4.59	8.41	11.78	22
Steady-state model with maximum recharge reduced 25 percent	.66	4.22	10.42	12.42	22
Steady-state model with maximum recharge increased 25 percent	2.35	4.67	11.39	9.73	22
Steady-state model with maximum evapotranspiration reduced 25 percent	2.39	4.77	12.69	10.07	22
Steady-state model with maximum evapotranspiration increased 25 percent	.16	4.42	7.24	12.49	22
Steady-state model with hydraulic conductivity reduced 50 percent	2.21	4.64	10.06	9.81	22
Steady-state model with hydraulic conductivity increased 50 percent	2.00	4.50	14.15	10.43	22

¹Summation of simulated minus observed potentiometric heads in corresponding grid blocks divided by number of observation wells with observed potentiometric heads. Positive number indicates simulated head was higher than the observed head; negative number indicates simulated head was lower than the observed head.

²Summation of the absolute values of simulated minus observed potentiometric heads in corresponding grid blocks divided by number of observation wells with observed potentiometric heads. The absolute value of a number is the number without its associated sign. For example, the absolute value of 2 and -2 are the same.

³Positive difference when simulated head is greater than observed water level.

⁴Negative difference when simulated head is less than observed water level.

Table 10.--Model sensitivity to changes in recharge, evapotranspiration, and hydraulic conductivity for aquifer layer 2

Model simulation	Average difference between simulated and observed potentiometric heads ¹ (feet)	Average absolute difference between simulated and observed potentiometric heads ² (feet)	Maximum positive difference between simulated and observed potentiometric heads ³ (feet)	Maximum negative difference between simulated and observed potentiometric heads ⁴ (feet)	Number of observation wells with observed potentiometric heads
Standard steady-state model	3.49	5.10	17.17	5.43	13
Steady-state model with maximum recharge reduced 25 percent	2.90	4.99	16.96	6.50	13
Steady-state model with maximum recharge increased 25 percent	4.07	5.27	17.39	3.85	13
Steady-state model with maximum evapotranspiration reduced 25 percent	4.42	5.58	17.79	4.08	13
Steady-state model with maximum evapotranspiration increased 25 percent	2.92	4.82	16.84	6.12	13
Steady-state model with hydraulic conductivity reduced 50 percent	3.31	4.58	16.44	3.77	13
Steady-state model with hydraulic conductivity increased 50 percent	3.92	5.44	17.83	5.36	13

¹Summation of simulated minus observed potentiometric heads in corresponding grid blocks divided by number of observation wells with observed potentiometric heads. Positive number indicates simulated head was higher than the observed head; negative number indicates simulated head was lower than the observed head.

²Summation of the absolute values of simulated minus observed potentiometric heads in corresponding grid blocks divided by number of observation wells with observed potentiometric heads. The absolute value of a number is the number without its associated sign. For example, the absolute value of 2 and -2 are the same.

³Positive difference when simulated head is greater than observed water level.

⁴Negative difference when simulated head is less than observed water level.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

During the Pleistocene Epoch, continental glaciers from the north and east covered eastern South Dakota, depositing a blanket of glacial drift over the preglacial bedrock surface. The drift can be subdivided into two major types, till and outwash, that differ greatly in both physical and hydrologic characteristics. Only the more sandy and gravelly glacial-outwash deposits yield significant quantities of water to wells. The bedrock directly underlying the drift generally yields little or no water to wells. The natural recharge, movement, and discharge of water in the outwash aquifers are controlled by the lithology and stratigraphy of the surficial deposits and the underlying bedrock units.

The units that comprise the complex hydrologic system in the glacial outwash have been subdivided into three aquifers in the study area: the Elm, Middle James, and Deep James aquifers. These aquifers generally are separated from each other by till or other fine-grained sediments. The Elm aquifer is the uppermost and largest of the aquifers and underlies about 351 mi² of the study area. The Elm includes all of the coarser-grained outwash deposits above the altitude of 1,250 ft above sea level. The average thickness of the Elm aquifer ranges from zero to 113 ft. The Middle James aquifer underlies about 500 mi² of the study area. The maximum altitude of the top of the aquifer is 1,250 ft and the minimum altitude of the bottom of the aquifer is 1,150 ft. The average thickness ranges from zero to 111 ft. The Deep James aquifer underlies about 52 mi². The Deep James includes all of the outwash deposits below the altitude of 1,150 ft above sea level.

Glacial meltwaters deposited an average of about 75 ft of fine sand, silt, and clay on the bed of ancient Lake Dakota. These lake deposits are not an important aquifer but commonly control recharge to and discharge from the Elm and Middle James aquifers.

To improve understanding of the flow in the glacial-aquifer system, a three-dimensional ground-water flow model was developed. To simulate ground-water flow within an aquifer system, a number of simplifying assumptions must be made. The simplifying assumptions for the glacial-aquifer system are: (1) The aquifer system consists of three layers, (2) the aquifers are overlaid by confining beds, (3) the bedrock is an impermeable lower boundary, (4) all lateral boundaries are impermeable except along the northern and eastern boundaries, which are specified head, (5) the James River, Maple River, Foot Creek, and Moccasin Creek are hydraulically isolated from the aquifer system, the Elm River is hydraulically connected at 32 river nodes, (6) all flow in the aquifers is horizontal and in the confining beds vertical, (7) the principal source of recharge is precipitation, which is controlled by the thickness of the confining beds overlying the uppermost aquifer, and (8) the primary method of discharge is evapotranspiration, which is controlled by the thickness of the confining bed overlying the uppermost active layer.

A grid that contains 86 rows and 70 columns of equally spaced blocks, each 0.5-mi wide and 0.5-mi long, was used to simulate the glacial-aquifer system. The aquifer system was simulated under steady-state conditions and under 12 monthly pumping periods for 1985.

The steady-state simulation represents the glacial-aquifer system under equilibrium conditions; that is, water levels recovered to near-prepumping levels during the nonirrigation season. The maximum available recharge to the aquifer was 7.0 in/yr and occurred only where the confining bed overlying the uppermost aquifer was not present. With an average confining bed thickness greater than 0.0 ft and less than 50 ft, the recharge rate declined linearly to 0.0 in/yr. The maximum potential evapotranspiration rate was

35.4 in/yr and can occur only where no confining bed is present above the uppermost aquifer. When the average confining bed thickness is greater than zero and less than 50 ft, the maximum potential evapotranspiration decreases linearly from 35.4 to 0.0 in/yr. The steady-state simulated water budget indicates that recharge from precipitation accounts for 94.8 percent of the water that enters the aquifer or 4.3-in/yr average for each active grid block. Evapotranspiration accounts for 95.8 percent of the water that leaves the aquifer or 4.6-in/yr average for each grid block.

Thirty-six consecutive monthly pumping periods from 1983 through 1985 were simulated. Recharge, evapotranspiration, and pumpage were adjusted monthly. Only the 12 monthly pumping periods for 1985 are presented in this report. In 1985, the maximum monthly recharge varied from 0.00 inch in January, February, November, and December to 1.85 inches in May. The maximum evapotranspiration varied from 0.00 inch in January, February, November, and December to 1.35 inches in May. The simulated monthly water budgets varied considerably as a result of changes in recharge, evapotranspiration, storage, and pumpage.

Because the model is based on a number of simplifying assumptions, it cannot represent exactly the hydrologic processes in the aquifer system. The confidence in the model's response needs to be based on an appraisal of the analogy between the glacial-aquifer system and the model. Because the aquifer characteristics are not known with certainty, the sensitivity of the steady-state simulation to changes in recharge, evapotranspiration, and hydraulic conductivity were tested. The sensitivity analysis indicates that the model is most sensitive to reductions in recharge and least sensitive to changes in hydraulic conductivity. Because the model was insensitive to hydraulic conductivity, and recharge and discharge were widely distributed, a large range of combinations of recharge and evapotranspiration could give an equally good fit to the measured water levels. However, the values of recharge and evapotranspiration used in the model are considered to be reasonable estimates. The model is one of the best means of evaluating and improving our understanding of the aquifer system and of testing the sensitivity of various aquifer properties in the study area.

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