

⁹ Abstract

 New samples were collected in the three major Saharan aquifers namely, the "Continental In- tercalaire" (CI), the "Complexe Terminal" (CT) and the Phreatic aquifer (Phr) and completed with unpublished more ancient chemical and isotopic data. Instead of classical Debye-Hückel extended law, Specific Interaction Theory (SIT) model, recently incorporated in Phreeqc 3.0 was used. Inverse modeling of hydrochemical data constrained by isotopic data was used here to quantitatively assess the influence of geochemical processes: at depth, the dissolution of salts from the geological formations during upward leakage *without evaporation* explains the transi- tions from CI to CT and to a first pole of Phr (pole I); near the surface, the dissolution of salts from sebkhas by rainwater explains another pole of Phr (pole II). In every case, secondary pre- cipitation of calcite occurs during dissolution. All Phr waters result from the mixing of these two poles together with calcite precipitation and ion exchange processes. These processes are ²¹ quantitatively assessed by Phreeqc model. Globally, gypsum dissolution and calcite precipitation were found to act as a carbon sink.

²³ *Keywords:* hydrochemistry, stable isotopes, Sahara, Algeria

1. INTRODUCTION

 A scientific study published in 2008 showed that 85% of the world population lives in the driest half of the Earth. More than 1 billion people residing in arid and semi-arid areas of the world have only access to little or no renewable water resources (OECD, 2008). In many arid regions such as Sahara, groundwater is the only source of water supply for domestic, agricultural or industrial purposes, causing most of the time overuse and / or degradation of water quality.

³⁰ The groundwater resources of Ouargla basin (Lower-Sahara, Algerian) (Fig. 1) are contained 31 in three main reservoirs (UNESCO, 1972; Eckstein and Eckstein, 2003; OSS, 2003, 2008):

³² • at the top, the phreatic aquifer (Phr), located in sandy gypsum permeable formations of 33 Quaternary, is almost unexploited (only north of Ouargla) due to its salinity (50 g/L);

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Email address: slm_rabia@yahoo.fr (R. Slimani)

³⁴ • in the middle, the "Complexe Terminal" (CT) aquifer, (Cornet and Gouscov, 1952; UN- ESCO, 1972) which is the most exploited, and includes several aquifers in different geo- logical formations. It circulates in one or two lithostratigraphic formations of the Eocene 37 and Senonian carbonates or Miopliocene sands;

 • at the bottom, the "Continental Intercalaire" (CI) aquifer, where water is contained in the lower Cretaceous continental formations (Barremian and Albian), mainly composed of sandstones, sands and clays. It is only partially exploited because of its significant depth.

 After use, waters are discharged in a closed system (endorheic basin) and constitute a poten-⁴² tial hazard to the environment, to public health and may jeopardize the sustainability of agricul- ture (rising of the phreatic aquifer watertable, extension of soil salinization and so on) (Hamdi- Aïssa et al., 2004; Slimani, 2006). Several previous studies (Guendouz, 1985; Fontes et al., 1986; Guendouz and Moulla, 1996; Edmunds et al., 2003; Guendouz et al., 2003; Hamdi-Aïssa et al., 2004; Foster et al., 2006; OSS, 2008; Al-Gamal, 2011) tried, starting from chemical and isotopic ⁴⁷ information (²H, ¹⁸O, ²³⁴U, ²³⁸U, ³⁶Cl) to best characterize the relationships between aquifers. They were more specifically tackling the issue of the Continental Intercalaire recharge. These investigations dealt particularly with water chemical facies, mapped isocontents of various pa-⁵⁰ rameters, and reported typical geochemical ratios ($[SO_4^{2-}]/[Cl^-]$, $[Mg^{2+}]/[Ca^{2+}]$) as well as other 51 correlations. Minerals / solutions equilibria were checked by computing saturation indices with respect to calcite, gypsum, anhydrite and halite, but processes were only qualitatively assessed.

 In the present study, new data were collected in order to characterize the hydrochemical and ⁵⁴ the isotopic composition of the major aquifers in Ouargla's region. They also aimed at identify-₅₅ ing the origin of the mineralization and water-rock interactions that occur along the flow. New possibilities offered by progress in geochemical simulations were used. More specifically, the inverse modeling of chemical reactions allows us to select the best conceptual model for the in- terpretation of the geochemical evolution of the Ouargla aquifer. The stepwise inversion strategy involves designing a list of the scenarios that includes the most plausible combinations of geo- chemical processes, solving scenarios in a stepwise manner, and selecting the scenario that pro-⁶¹ vides the best conceptual geochemical model (Dai et al., 2006). Inverse modeling with Phreeqc ⁶² 3.0 was used to quantitatively assess the influence of the processes that explain the acquisition of solutes for the different aquifers: dissolution, precipitation, mixing and ion exchange. This results in constraints on mass balances as well as on the exchange of matter between aquifers.

65 2. METHODOLOGY

2.1. Presentation of the study area

 The study area is located in the northeastern desert of Algeria "Lower-Sahara" (Le Houérou, ⁶⁸ 2009) near the city of Ouargla (Fig. 1), 31°54' to 32°1' N and 5°15' to 5°27' E, with a mean eleva- tion of 134 (masl). It is located in the quaternary fossil valley of Oued Mya basin. Present climate belongs to the arid Mediterranean-type (Dubief, 1963; Le Houérou, 2009; ONM, 1975/2013). This climate is characterized by a mean annual temperature of 22.5 °C, a yearly rainfall of $\frac{43.6 \text{ mm}}{x}$ and a very high evaporation rate of 2.138 mm/yr ⁴³.6 mm/yr and a very high evaporation rate of 2,138 mm/yr.

 Ouargla's region and the entire Lower Sahara has experienced during its long geological history alternating marine and continental sedimentation phases. During Secondary era, vertical ⁷⁶ movements affected the Precambrian basement and Primary causing particularly progressive col- π lapse of its central part, along an axis passing substantially through the Oued Righ valley and the 78 upper portion of the valley oued Mya. According to (Furon, 1960), a epicontinental sea spread ⁷⁹ to the Lower Eocene of northern Sahara. After the Oligocene, the sea gradually withdrew. It is ⁸⁰ estimated at present that this sea did not reach Ouargla and transgression stopped at the edge of ⁸¹ the bowl (Lelièvre, 1969). The basin is carved into Miopliocene (MP) deposits, which alternate with red sands, clays and sometimes marls; gypsum is not abundant and dated from Pontian (MP) ⁸³ (Cornet and Gouscov, 1952; Dubief, 1953; Ould Baba Sy and Besbes, 2006). The continental ⁸⁴ Pliocene consists of a local limestone crust with puddingstone or lacustrine limestone (Fig. 2), shaped by eolian erosion into flat areas (regs). The Quaternary formations are lithologically composed of alternating layers of permeable sand and relatively impermeable marl (Aumassip et al., 1972; Chellat et al., 2014).

The exploitation of Miopliocene aquifer is ancient and at the origin of the creation of the oasis (Lelièvre, 1969; Moulias, 1927). The piezometric level was higher (145 m a.s.l.) but over-⁹⁰ exploitation at the end of the XIXth century led to a catastrophic decrease of the resource, with 91 presently more than 900 boreholes (ANRH, 2011).

The exploitation of Senonian aquifer dates back to 1953 at a depth 140 m to 200 m depth, ⁹³ with a small initial rate *ca*. 540 L mn⁻¹; two boreholes have been exploited since 1965 and 1969, with a total flowrate *ca.* 2,500 L mn⁻¹, for drinking water and irrigation.
The exploitation of Albian aquifer dates back to 1956, with a piezo

⁹⁵ The exploitation of Albian aquifer dates back to 1956, with a piezometric level 405 m and a ⁹⁶ pressure 22 kg cm⁻². Presently, two boreholes are exploited:

• El Hedeb I, 1,335 m depth, with a flowrate 141 L s^{-1} ;

• El Hedeb II, 1,400 m depth, with a flowrate 68 L s^{-1} .

⁹⁹ *2.2. Sampling and analytical methods*

¹⁰⁰ The sampling scheme complies with the flow directions of the two formations (Phr and CT 101 aquifers); for the CI aquifer only five points are available, so it is impossible to choose a transect ¹⁰² (Fig. 3). Groundwater samples ($n = 107$) were collected during a field campaign in 2013, along ¹⁰³ the main flow line of Oued Mya, 67 piezometers tap the phreatic aquifer, 32 wells tap the CT ¹⁰⁴ aquifer and 8 boreholes tap the CI aquifer (Fig. 3). Analyses of Na⁺, K⁺, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, Cl⁻, ¹⁰⁵ SO₄²⁻ and HCO₃⁻ were performed by ion chromatography at Algiers Nuclear Research Center ¹⁰⁶ (CRNA). Previous and yet unpublished data (Guendouz and Moulla, 1996) sampled in 1996 are ¹⁰⁷ used here too: 59 samples for Phr aquifer, 15 samples for CT aquifer and 3 samples for the CI ¹⁰⁸ aquifer for chemical analyses, data ¹⁸O and ³H (Guendouz and Moulla, 1996).

¹⁰⁹ *2.3. Geochemical method*

 Phreeqc (Parkhurst and Appelo, 2013) was used to check minerals / solution equilibria us- ing the specific interaction theory (SIT), *i.e.* the extension of Debye-Hückel law by Scatchard and Guggenheim incorporated recently in Phreeqc 3.0. Inverse modeling was used to calculate the number of minerals and gases' moles that must respectively dissolve or precipitate/degas to account for the difference in composition between initial and final water end members (Plum- mer and Back, 1980; Kenoyer and Bowser, 1992; Deutsch, 1997; Plummer and Sprinckle, 2001; Güler and Thyne, 2004; Parkhurst and Appelo, 2013). This mass balance technique has been used to quantify reactions controlling water chemistry along flow paths (Thomas et al., 1989). It is also used to quantify the mixing proportions of end-member components in a flow system (Kuells et al., 2000; Belkhiri et al., 2010, 2012). The Inverse modeling involves designing a list of the scenarios that includes the most plausible combinations of geochemical processes. For example, the way to identify whether calcite dissolution/precipitation is relevant or not consists of solving the inverse problem under two alternate scenarios: (1) considering a geochemical sys- tem in which calcite is present, and (2) considering a geochemical system without calcite. After solving the two scenarios, it is usually possible to select the better result as the solution of the inverse problems and conclude whether calcite dissolution/precipitation is relevant or not. This stepwise strategy allows us to identify the relevance of a given chemical process by solving the inverse problem under alternative scenarios in which the process is either occurring or not.

128 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

 Tables 1 to 5 illustrate the results of the chemical and the isotopic analyses. Samples are ordered according to an increasing salt content that was estimated from their specific electric 131 conductivity (EC). In both phreatic and CT aquifers, temperature is close to 25 °C, while for 132 CI aquifer, temperature is close to 50 °C. The results presented in those tables are raw ana- lytical data that were corrected for defects of charge balance before computing activities with Phreeqc. As analytical errors could not be ascribed to a specific analyte, the correction was made proportionally. The corrections do not affect the anions to anions mole ratios such as for $\left[\text{HCO}_3^- \right] / \left[\text{Cl}^- \right] + 2\left[\text{SO}_4^2^- \right]$ or $\left[\text{SO}_4^{2-} \right] / \left[\text{Cl}^- \right]$, whereas they affect the cation to anion ratio such as for [Na⁺]/[Cl⁻].

3.1. Characterization of chemical facies of the groundwater

 Piper diagrams drawn for the studied groundwaters (Fig. 4) broadly show a scatter plot dominated by a Chloride-Sodium facies. However, when going into small details, the widespread chemical facies of the Phr aquifer is closer to the NaCl pole than those of CI and CT aquifers. The facies of the Phreatic aquifer most concentrated samples are in the following order: Ca-sulfate < Na-sulfate = Mg-sulfate < Na-chloride. This sequential order of solutes is comparable to that of other groundwater occurring in North Africa, and especially in the neighboring area of the chotts (depressions where salts concentrate by evaporation) Merouane and Melrhir (Vallès et al., 1997; Hamdi-Aïssa et al., 2004).

3.2. Spatial distribution of the mineralization

 The salinity of the phreatic aquifer varies considerably depending on the location (near wells or drains) and time (influence of irrigation) (Fig. 5a).

 Its salinity is low around irrigated and fairly well-drained areas, such as the palm groves of Hassi Miloud, just north of Ouargla (Fig. 3) that benefit from freshwater and are drained to the sebkha Oum el Raneb. However, the three lowest salinity values are observed in the wells of Ouargla palm-grove itself, where the Phr aquifer watertable is deeper than 2 m.

 Conversely, the highest salinity waters are found in wells drilled in the chotts and sebkhas (a sebkha is the central part of a chott where salinity is the largest) (Safioune and Oum er Raneb) where the aquifer is often shallower than 50 cm.

 The salinity of the Complexe Terminal (Miopliocene) aquifer (Fig. 5b) is much lower than ¹⁵⁸ that of the Phr aquifer, and ranges from 1 to $2 g/L$; however, its hardness is larger and it contains more sulfate, chloride and sodium than the waters of the Senonian formations and those of the

¹⁶⁰ CI aquifer. The salinity of the Senonian aquifer ranges from 1.1 to 1.7 g/L, while the average salinity of the Continental Intercalaire is 0.7 g/L (Fig. 5c). ¹⁶¹ salinity of the Continental Intercalaire is 0.7 g/L (Fig. 5c).
A likely contamination of the Miopliocene aquifer by 1

 A likely contamination of the Miopliocene aquifer by phreatic groundwaters through casing leakage in an area where water is heavily loaded with salt and therefore particularly aggressive cannot be excluded.

3.3. Saturation Indices

The calculated saturation indices reveal that waters from CI at 50° C are close to equilibrium with respect to calcite, except for 3 samples that are slightly oversaturated. They are however all 168 undersaturated with respect to gypsum (Fig. 6).

169 Moreover, they are oversaturated with respect to dolomite and undersaturated with respect to 170 anhydrite and halite (Fig. 7).

¹⁷¹ Waters from CT and phreatic aquifers show the same pattern, but some of them are more 172 largely oversaturated with respect to calcite, at 25° C.

 However, several phreatic waters (P031, P566, PLX4, PL18, P002, P023, P116, P066, P162 and P036) that are located in the sebkhas of Sefioune, Oum-er-Raneb, Bamendil and Ain el Beida's chott are saturated with gypsum and anhydrite. This is in accordance with high evapora-tive environments found elsewhere (UNESCO, 1972; Hamdi-Aïssa et al., 2004; Slimani, 2006).

 No significant saturation indices' evolution from the south to the north upstream and down- stream of Oued Mya (Fig. 7) is observed. This suggests that the acquisition of mineralization is due to geochemical processes that have already reached equilibrium or steady state in the upstream areas of Ouargla.

3.4. Change of facies from the carbonated pole to the evaporites' pole

 The facies shifts progressively from the carbonated (CI and CT aquifers) to the evaporites' one (Phr aquifer) with an increase in sulfates and chlorides at the expense of carbonates (SI of gypsum, anhydrite and halite). This is illustrated by a decrease of the following two ratios: ¹⁸⁵ [HCO₃⁻]/ ([Cl⁻] + 2[SO₄²⁻]) (Fig. 8) from 0.2 to 0 and of the ratio [SO₄²⁻]/[Cl⁻] from 0.8 to values ranging from 0.3 and 0 (Fig. 9) while salinity increases. Carbonate concentrations tend towards very small values, while it is not the case for sulfates. This is due to both gypsum dissolution and calcite precipitation.

 Chlorides in groundwater may come from three different sources: (i) ancient sea water en- trapped in sediments; (ii) dissolution of halite and related minerals that are present in evaporite deposits and (iii) dissolution of dry fallout from the atmosphere, particularly in these arid regions (Matiatos et al., 2014; Hadj-Ammar et al., 2014).

For most of the sampled points the $[Na^+]/[Cl^-]$ ratio remains close to 1, but significant ranges 194 are observed: from 0.85 to 1.26 for CI aquifer, from 0.40 to 1.02 for the CT aquifer and from 0.13
195 to 2.15 for the Phr aquifer. All the measured points from the three considered aquifers are more ¹⁹⁵ to 2.15 for the Phr aquifer. All the measured points from the three considered aquifers are more
¹⁹⁶ or less linearly scattered around the unity slope straight line that stands for halite dissolution or less linearly scattered around the unity slope straight line that stands for halite dissolution (Fig. 10). The latter appears as the most dominant reaction occurring in the medium. However, 198 at very high salinity, Na^+ seems to swerve from the straight line, towards smaller values.

 A further scrutiny of (Fig. 10) shows that CI waters are very close to the 1:1 line. CT $_{200}$ waters are enriched in both Na⁺ and Cl⁻ but slightly lower than the 1:1 line while phreatic waters are largely enriched and much more scattered. CT waters are closer to the seawater mole ratio 202 (0.858), but some lower values imply a contribution from another source of chloride than halite
203 or from entrapped seawater. Conversely, a [Na⁺]/[Cl⁻] ratio larger than 1 is observed for phreatic $_{203}$ or from entrapped seawater. Conversely, a [Na⁺]/[Cl⁻] ratio larger than 1 is observed for phreatic

²⁰⁴ waters, which implies the contribution of another source of sodium, most likely sodium sulfate, ²⁰⁵ that is present as mirabilite or thenardite in the chotts and the sebkhas areas.

²⁰⁶ [Br[–]]/[Cl[–]] ratio ranges from 2×10^{-3} to 3×10^{-3} . The value of this molar ratio for halite is 207 around 2.5 × 10⁻³, which matches the aforementioned range and confirms that halite dissolution
200 is the most dominant reaction taking place in the studied medium ²⁰⁸ is the most dominant reaction taking place in the studied medium.

²⁰⁹ In these aquifers, calcium originates both from carbonate and sulfate (Fig. 11 and 12). Three ²¹⁰ samples from CI aquifer are close to the $[Ca^{2+}]/[HCO_3^-]$ 1:2 line, while calcium sulfate disso-²¹¹ lution explains the excess of calcium. However, a small but significant number of samples (9) ²¹² from phreatic aquifer are depleted in calcium, and plot under the $[Ca^{2+}]/[HCO_3^-]$ 1:2 line. This ²¹³ cannot be explained by precipitation of calcite, as some are undersaturated with respect to that mineral, while others are oversaturated.

²¹⁵ In this case, a cation exchange process seems to occur leading to a preferential adsorption $_{216}$ of divalent cations, with a release of Na⁺. This is confirmed by the inverse modeling that is and developed below and which implies Mg^{2+} fixation and Na⁺ and K⁺ releases.

218 Larger sulfate values observed in the phreatic aquifer (Fig. 12) with $\left[Ca^{2+} \right] / \left[SO_4^2 \right]$ < 1 can ²¹⁹ be attributed to a sodium-magnesium sulfate dissolution from a mineral bearing such elements. ²²⁰ This is for instance the case of bloedite.

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²²² *3.5. Isotope geochemistry*

223 CT and CI aquifer exhibit depleted and homogeneous ¹⁸O contents, ranging from −8.32 $\%$
224 to −7.85 $\%$. This was already previously reported by many authors (Edmunds et al. 2003; 224 to -7.85% . This was already previously reported by many authors (Edmunds et al., 2003;

225 Guendouz et al., 2003; Moulla et al., 2012). On the other hand, ¹⁸O values for the phreatic $_{225}$ Guendouz et al., 2003; Moulla et al., 2012). On the other hand, ¹⁸O values for the phreatic 226 aquifer are widely dispersed and vary between -8.84% to 3.42 ‰ (Table 6).
227 Waters located north of the Hassi Miloud to Sebkhet Safioune axis are

Waters located north of the Hassi Miloud to Sebkhet Safioune axis are more enriched in heavy isotopes and therefore more evaporated. In that area, water table is close to the surface and mixing of both CI and CT groundwaters with phreatic ones through irrigation is nonexistent. Conversely, waters located south of Hassi Miloud up to Ouargla city show depleted values. This $_{231}$ is the clear fingerprint of a contribution to the Phr waters from the underlying CI and CT aquifers (Gonfiantini et al., 1975; Guendouz, 1985; Fontes et al., 1986; Guendouz and Moulla, 1996).

²³³ Phreatic waters result from a mixing of two end-members. An evidence for this is given by considering the ([Cl⁻], ¹⁸O) relationship (Fig. 13). The two poles are: i) a first pole of ¹⁸O $_{235}$ depleted groundwater (Fig. 14), and ii) another pole of 18 O enriched groundwater with positive ²³⁶ values and a high salinity. The latter is composed of phreatic waters occurring in the northern ²³⁷ part of the study region.

 $_{238}$ Pole I represents the waters from CI and CT whose isotopic composition is depleted in 18 O 239 (average value around -8.2\%) (Fig. 13). They correspond to an old water recharge (palæorecharge);
240 whose age estimated by means of ¹⁴C, exceeds 15.000 years BP (Guendouz, 1985; Guendouz and ²⁴⁰ whose age estimated by means of ¹⁴C, exceeds 15.000 years BP (Guendouz, 1985; Guendouz and ²⁴¹ Michelot, 2006). So, it is not a water body that is recharged by recent precipitation. It consists of ²⁴² CI and CT groundwaters and partly of phreatic waters, and can be ascribed to an upward leakage ²⁴³ favored by the extension of faults near Amguid El-Biod dorsal.

²⁴⁴ Pole II, observed in Sebkhet Safioune, can be ascribed to the direct dissolution of surficial ²⁴⁵ evaporitic deposits conveyed by evaporated rainwater.

²⁴⁶ Evaporation alone cannot explain the distribution of data that is observed (Fig. 13). An 247 evidence for this is given in a semi-logarithmic plot (Fig. 14), as classically obtained according ²⁴⁸ to the simple approximation of Rayleigh equation (cf. Appendix):

$$
\delta^{18}O \approx 1000 \times (1 - \alpha) \log[Cl^-] + cte,
$$
 (1)

$$
\approx -\epsilon \log[\text{Cl}^-] + cte,\tag{2}
$$

where α is the fractionation factor during evaporation, and $\epsilon = -1000 \times (1 - \alpha)$ is the enrich-
²⁵⁰ ment factor (Ma et al., 2010). Chkir et al., 2009). ment factor (Ma et al., 2010; Chkir et al., 2009).

 CI and CT waters are better separated in the semi-logarithmic plot because they are differen- tiated by their chloride content. According to equation (1), simple evaporation gives a straight 253 line (solid line in Fig. 14). The value of ϵ used is the value at 25 °C, which is equal to −73.5.
There is only one sample (P115) on the evanoration straight line, which could be considered as There is only one sample (P115) on the evaporation straight line, which could be considered as $_{255}$ an outlier in Fig. 13 ([Cl⁻] \simeq 0). All other samples fit on the logarithmic curve derived from the mixing line illustrated by Fig. 13.

The phreatic waters that are close to pole I (Fig. 13) correspond to groundwaters occurring in the edges of the basin (Hassi Miloud, piezometer P433) (Fig. 14). They are low-mineralized and acquire their salinity via two processes namely: dissolution of evaporites along their underground transit up to Sebkhet Safioune and dilution through upward leakage by the less-mineralized wa- ters of CI and CT aquifers (for example Hedeb I for CI and D7F4 for CT) (Fig. 14) (Guendouz, 1985; Guendouz and Moulla, 1996).

²⁶³ The rates of the mixing that are due to upward leakage from CI to CT towards the phreatic ²⁶⁴ aquifer can be calculated by means of a mass balance equation. It only requires knowing the δ
²⁶⁵ values of each fraction that is involved in the mixing process. values of each fraction that is involved in the mixing process.
The δ value of the mixture is given by:

$$
\text{The } \delta \text{ value of the mixture is given by: } f_1 \times \delta_1 + f_2 \times \delta_2 \tag{3}
$$

where f_1 is the fraction of CI aquifer, f_2 the fraction of the CT and δ_1 , δ_2 are the respective isotope contents. isotope contents.

²⁶⁹ Average values of mixing fractions from each aquifer to the phreatic waters computed by 270 means of equation (3) gave the rates of 65 % for CI aquifer and 35% for CT aquifer.

²⁷¹ A mixture of a phreatic water component that is close to pole I (*i.e.* P433) with another one which is rather close to pole II (*i.e.* P039) (Fig. 13 and 14), for an intermediate water with a δ^{18} O
272 Signature ranging from -5% to -2% gives mixture fraction values of 52 % for pole I and 48 % 273 signature ranging from -5% to -2% gives mixture fraction values of 52 % for pole I and 48 %
274 for pole II. Isotope results will be used to independently cross-check the validity of the mixing for pole II. Isotope results will be used to independently cross-check the validity of the mixing ²⁷⁵ fractions derived from an inverse modeling involving chemical data (*cf. infra*).

²⁷⁶ Turonian evaporites are found to lie in between CI deep aquifer, and the Senonian and ²⁷⁷ Miocene formations bearing CT aquifer. CT waters can thus simply originate from ascend- $_{278}$ ing CI waters that dissolve Turonian evaporites, a process which does involve any change in 18 O ²⁷⁹ content. Conversely, phreatic waters result to a minor degree from evaporation, and mostly from $_{280}$ dissolution of sebkhas evaporites by 18 O enriched rainwater and mixing with CI-CT waters.

²⁸¹ *3.5.1. Tritium content of water*

 Tritium contents of Phr aquifer are relatively small (Table 6), they vary between 0 and 8 TU. Piezometers PZ12, P036 and P068 show values close to 8 TU, piezometers P018, P019, P416, P034, P042 and P093 exhibit values ranging between 5 and 6 TU, and the rest of the samples' concentrations are lower than 2 TU.

This values are dated back to November 1992 so they are old values. This is the main reason ²⁸⁷ why they are considered high comparatively to what is expected to be found nowadays. In fact, ²⁸⁸ at present times, tritium figures have fallen lower than 5 TU in precipitation measured in the ²⁸⁹ northern part of the country.

²⁹⁰ The comparison of these results with that of precipitation which was 16 TU in 1992 was 291 collected from the National Agency for Water Resources station from Ouargla).

 This value seems to be high but we can note that we are in an arid area (desert) where precip- itation is very scarce and irregular. Precipitation takes place in the form of sudden thunderstorms in an unsaturated atmosphere and a great part of this precipitation evaporates back into the mois- ture unsaturated atmosphere sometimes during many cycles. Consequently, an enrichment in tritium happens because when water evaporates back, the lightest fractions (isotopes) are the ones that evaporate first causing an enrichment in Tritium in the remaining fraction. The 16 TU value would thus correspond then to a rainy event that had happened during the same sampling period (Nov. 1992). It's the only available value and it is not a weighted mean for a long period of time. It is the most representative value for that region and for that time. Unfortunately, all the other stations (Algiers, Ankara, and Tenerife) (Martinelli et al., 2014) are subject to a completely ³⁰² different climatic regime and besides the fact that they have more recent values, can absolutely not be used for our case. Therefore all the assumptions based on recent tritium rain values do not apply to this study.

 $_{305}$ Depleted contents in ¹⁸O and low tritium concentrations for phreatic waters fit well the mix-₃₀₆ ing scheme and confirm the contribution from the older and deeper CI/CT groundwaters. The ³⁰⁷ affected areas were clearly identified in the field and correspond to locations that are subject to ³⁰⁸ a recycling and a return of irrigation waters whose origin are CI/CT boreholes. Moreover, the ³⁰⁹ mixing that is clearly brought to light by the Cl⁻ vs. ¹⁸O diagrams (Fig. 13 and 14) could partly 310 derive from an ascending drainage from the deep and confined CI aquifer (exhibiting depleted ho-311 mogenous ¹⁸O contents and very low tritium), a vertical leakage that is favoured by the Amguid 312 El-biod highly faulted area (Guendouz and Moulla, 1996; Edmunds et al., 2003; Guendouz et al., ³¹³ 2003; Moulla et al., 2012).

³¹⁴ *3.6. Inverse modeling*

³¹⁵ We assume that the relationship between ^{18}O and Cl⁻ data obtained in 1996 is stable with 316 time, which is a logical assumption as times of transfer from CI to both CT and Phr are very long. 317 Considering both ¹⁸O and Cl⁻ data, CI, CT and Phr data populations can be categorized. The CI 318 and CT do not show appreciable ¹⁸O variations, and can be considered as a single population. 319 The Phr samples consist however of different populations: Pole I, with $\delta^{18}O$ values close to -8,
220 and small Cl⁻ concentrations, more specifically less than 35 mmol I⁻¹: Pole II, with $\delta^{18}O$ values and small Cl[–] concentrations, more specifically less than 35 mmol L⁻¹; Pole II, with δ¹⁸O values
of larger than 3, and very large Cl[–] concentrations, more specifically larger than 4.000 mmol I⁻¹ larger than 3, and very large Cl[–] concentrations, more specifically larger than 4,000 mmol L⁻¹
(Table 7); intermediate Phr samples result from mixing between poles I and II (mixing line in 321 322 (Table 7); intermediate Phr samples result from mixing between poles I and II (mixing line in ³²³ Fig. 13, mixing curve in Fig. 14) and from evaporation of pole I (evaporation line in Fig. 14).

³²⁴ The mass-balance modeling has shown that relatively few phases are required to derive ob- served changes in water chemistry and to account for the hydrochemical evolution in Ouargla's region. The mineral phases' selection is based upon geological descriptions and analysis of rocks and sediments from the area (OSS, 2003; Hamdi-Aïssa et al., 2004).

³²⁸ The inverse model was constrained so that mineral phases from evaporites including gypsum, ³²⁹ halite, mirabilite, glauberite, sylvite and bloedite were set to dissolve until they reach saturation, 330 and calcite, dolomite were set to precipitate once they reached saturation. Cation exchange reac- $_{331}$ tions of Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, K⁺ and Na⁺ on exchange sites were included in the model to check which ³³² cations are adsorbed or desorbed during the process. Dissolution and desorption contribute as positive terms in the mass balance, as elements are released in solution. On the other hand, 334 precipitation and adsorption contribute as negative terms, while elements removed from the so-³³⁵ lution. CO_{2(g)} dissolution is considered by Phreeqc as a dissolution of a mineral, whereas CO_{2(g)} degassing is dealt with as if it were a mineral precipitation.

 Inverse modelling leads to a quantitative assessment of the different solutes' acquisition pro- cesses and a mass balance for the salts that are dissolved or precipitated from CI, CT and Phr groundwaters (Fig. 14, Table 8), as follows:

 • transition from CI to CT involves gypsum, halite and sylvite dissolution, and some ion exchange namely calcium and potassium fixation on exchange sites against magnesium release, with a very small and quite negligible amount of $CO_{2(g)}$ degassing. The maximum 343 elemental concentration fractional error equals 1%. The model consists of a minimum number of phases (*i.e.* 6 solid phases and $CO_{2(g)}$); Another model implies as well dolomite 345 precipitation with the same fractional error;

 • transition from CT to an average water component of pole I involves dissolution of halite, sylvite, and bloedite from Turonian evaporites, with a very tiny calcite precipitation. The maximum fractional error in elemental concentration is 4%. Another model implies $CO_{2(g)}$ escape from the solution, with the same fractional error. Large amounts of Mg^{2+} and SO_4^{2-} are released within the solution (Sharif et al., 2008; Li et al., 2010; Carucci et al., 2012);

³⁵¹ • the formation of Phr pole II can be modeled as being a direct dissolution of salts from the ses sebkha by rainwater with positive δ^{18} O; the most concentrated water (P036 from Sebkhet
Safioune) is taken here for pole II and pure water as rainwater. In a decreasing order Safioune) is taken here for pole II, and pure water as rainwater. In a decreasing order of amounts respectively involved in that process, halite, sylvite, gypsum and huntite dissolve, and little calcite precipitates while some Mg^{2+} are released versus K⁺ fixation on exchange sites. The maximum elemental fractional error in the concentration is equal to 0.004%. Another model implies dolomite precipitation with some more huntite dissolv- ing, instead of calcite precipitation, but salt dissolution and ion exchange are the same. Huntite, dolomite and calcite stoichiometries are linearly related, so both models can fit field data, but calcite precipitation is preferred compared to dolomite precipitation at low temperature;

 • the origin of all phreatic waters can be explained by a mixing in variable proportions of pole I and pole II. For instance, waters from pole I and pole II can easily be separated by their $\delta^{18}O$ respectively close to -8 $\%$ and 3.5 $\%$ (Fig. 13 and 14). Mixing the two poles
is of course not an inert reaction, but rather results in the dissolution and the precipitation is of course not an inert reaction, but rather results in the dissolution and the precipitation of minerals. Inverse modeling is then used to compute both mixing rates and the extent of matter exchange between soil and solution. For example, a phreatic water (piezometer P068) with intermediate values (δ^{18} O = −3 and [Cl⁻] \simeq 2 M) is explained by the mixing
of 58% water from pole I and 42% from pole II In addition calcite precipitates $\text{M}a^{2+}$ of 58% water from pole I and 42% from pole II. In addition, calcite precipitates, Mg^{2+} $fixes$ on exchange sites, against Na⁺ and K⁺, gypsum dissolves as well as a minor amount ³⁷¹ of huntite (Table 8). The maximum elemental concentration fractional error is 2.5% and the mixing fractions' weighted the $\delta^{18}O$ is -3.17% , which is is very close to the measured
yalue $(-3.04\%_{\odot})$. All the other models, making use of a minimum number of phases, and value (−3.04 \%). All the other models, making use of a minimum number of phases, and not taking into consideration ion exchange reactions are not found compatible with isotope not taking into consideration ion exchange reactions are not found compatible with isotope data. Mixing rates obtained with such models are for example 98% of pole I and 0.9% of

pole II, which leads to a $\delta^{18}O = (-7.80\%_0)$ which is quite far for the real measured value $(-3.04\%$ ₀).

 The main types of groundwaters occurring in Ouargla basin are thus explained and could 379 quantitatively be reconstructed. An exception is however sample P115, which is located exactly on the evaporation line of Phr pole I. Despite numerous attempts, it could not be quantitatively ³⁸¹ rebuilt. Its ³H value (6.8) indicates that it is derived from a more or less recent water component
³⁸¹ with very small salt content, most possibly affected by rainwater and some preferential flow with very small salt content, most possibly affected by rainwater and some preferential flow within the piezometer. As this is the only sample on this evaporation line, there remains a doubt on its significance.

 Globally, the summary of mass transfer reactions occurring in the studied system (Table 8) sso shows that gypsum dissolution results in calcite precipitation and $CO_{2(g)}$ dissolution, thus acting as an inorganic carbon sink.

388 4. CONCLUSIONS

 Groundwater hydrochemistry is a good record indicator for the water-rock interactions that 390 occur along the groundwater flowpath. The mineral load reflects well the complex processes taking place while water circulates underground since its point of infiltration.

 The hydrochemical study of the aquifer system occurring in Ouargla's basin allowed us to identify the origin of its mineralization. Waters exhibit two different facies: sodium chloride and sodium sulfate for the phreatic aquifer (Phr), sodium sulfate for the Complexe Terminal (CT) aquifer and sodium chloride for the Continental Intercalaire (CI) aquifer. Calcium carbonate pre- cipitation and evaporite dissolution explain the facies change from carbonate to sodium chloride 397 or sodium sulfate. However reactions imply many minerals with common ions, deep reactions without evaporation as well as shallow processes affected by both evaporation and mixing. Those processes are separated by considering both chemical and isotopic data, and quantitatively ex- plained making use of an inverse geochemical modeling. The main result is that Phr waters do not originate simply from infiltration of rainwater and dissolution of salts from the sebkhas. Conversely, Phr waters are largely influenced by the upwardly mobile deep CT and CI groundwaters, fractions of the latter interacting with evaporites from Turonian formations. Phreatic waters occurrence is explained as a mixing of two end-member components: pole I, which is very close to CI and CT, and pole II, which is highly mineralized and results from the dissolution by rainwater of salts from the sebkhas.

 At depth, CI leaks upwardly and dissolves gypsum, halite and sylvite, with some ion ex-change, to give waters of CT aquifer composition.

 CT transformation into Phr pole I waters involves the dissolution of Turonian evaporites (halite, sylvite and bloedite) with minor calcite precipitation.

 At the surface, direct dissolution by rainwater of salts from sebkhas (halite, sylvite, gypsum ⁴¹² and some huntite) with precipitation of calcite and Mg^{2+}/K^+ ion exchange results in pole II Phr composition.

 All phreatic groundwaters result from a mixing of pole I and pole II water that is accompanied ⁴¹⁵ by calcite precipitation, fixation of Mg²⁺ on ion exchange sites against the release of K⁺ and Na⁺.

Moreover, some $CO_{2(g)}$ escapes from the solution at depth, but dissolves much more at the ⁴¹⁷ surface. The most complex phenomena occur during the dissolution of Turonian evaporites while

CI leaks upwardly towards CT, and from Phr I to Phr II, while the transition from CT to Phr I

⁴¹⁹ implies a very limited number of phases. Globally, gypsum dissolution and calcite precipitation ⁴²⁰ processes both act as an inorganic carbon sink.

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427 **APPENDIX**

According to a simple Rayleigh equation, the evolution of the heavy isotope ratio in the ⁴²⁹ remaining liquid R_l is given by:

$$
R_l \approx R_{l,0} \times f_l^{\alpha-1},\tag{4}
$$

where f_l is the fraction remaining liquid and α the fractionation factor.
The fraction remaining liquid is derived from chloride concentration as

⁴³¹ The fraction remaining liquid is derived from chloride concentration, as chloride can be con-⁴³² sidered as conservative during evaporation: all phreatic waters are undersaturated with respect to ⁴³³ halite, that precipitates only in the last stage. Hence, the following equation holds:

$$
f_l \equiv \frac{n_{w,1}}{n_{w,0}} = \frac{[Cl^-]_0}{[Cl^-]_1}.
$$
 (5)

⁴³⁴ By taking natural logarithms, one obtains:

$$
\ln R_l \approx (1 - \alpha) \times \ln[\text{Cl}^-] + cte,\tag{6}
$$

⁴³⁵ As, by definition,

$$
R_l \equiv R_{std.} \times (1 + \frac{\delta^{18}O}{1000}),\tag{7}
$$

⁴³⁶ one has:

$$
\ln R_l \equiv \ln R_{std.} + \ln(1 + \frac{\delta^{18}O}{1000}), \tag{8}
$$

$$
\approx \ln R_{std.} + \frac{\delta^{18}O}{1000},\tag{9}
$$

⁴³⁷ hence, with base 10 logarithms:

$$
\delta^{18}O \approx 1000(1-\alpha)\log[\text{CI}^-] + cte,
$$
\n(10)

$$
\approx -\epsilon \log[\text{Cl}^{-}] + cte,
$$
\n(11)

438 where as classically defined $\epsilon = 100(\alpha - 1)$ is the enrichment factor.

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Table 1: Field and analytical data for the Continental Intercalaire aquifer.

Table 2: Field and analytical data for the Complexe Terminal aquifer. Table 2: Field and analytical data for the Complexe Terminal aquifer.

= Miopliocene aquifer; S = Senonian aquifer.

Table 4: Field and analytical data for the Phreatic aquifer (continued). Table 4: Field and analytical data for the Phreatic aquifer (continued).

Sebkhet Safioune Sebkhet Safioune Sebkhet Safioune	Sebkhet Safioune essuo O.N Oum Raneb Hassi Debich	Sebkhet Safioune El Bour-N'gouca Bannendi Sebkhet Safioune Chott Adjadja	Sebkhet Safioune Sebkhet Safioune Sebkhet Safioune Jum Raneb Route Sedrata Iôtel Transat	Said Otba(Bab sbaa) essno O.N Said Otba-Chott essno _D .N ANK Djemel 	Ourn Raneb Station de pompage ANK Djenel essno _o , ANK Djemel Jun Raneb dekhet Safioune sad Otba-Chott sebkhet Safioune	Sebkhet Safioune Sebkhet Safioune Route Frane Route Frane	Locality
PO37 PO36 PLOJ PO39	PO34 PO41 POSS PZ16 B042 PO93	P063 P044 100 ₇ 9/10 LTPO					Site
	3,579,698 3,547,234 3,581,097 3,559,563	3,545,586. 3,562,236 3,540,137 3,540,758.8 3,545,586.8	3,577,198 3,579,698 3,577,198 3,538,419	$\begin{array}{l} 3,570.223 \\ 3,540.265 \\ 3,562.966 \\ 3,5742.666.5 \\ 3,5742.69 \\ 4,5751.123 \\ 5,546.133 \\ 6,5477.234 \\ 7,5477.234 \\ 8,5477.234 \\ 8,5477.234 \\ 8,5477.234 \\ 8,5477.234 \\ \end{array}$	3,541,410.1 $\begin{array}{l} 3.577.253 \\ 3.5544.089 \\ 3.5544.088 \\ 3.5400 \\ 3.5777.25 \\ 3.5560 \\ 3.5773 \\ 4.573 \\ 3.573 \\ 9.573 \\ 9.573 \\ \end{array}$	3,570,523 3,572,148 577,804 3,577,804	$F_{\rm H}$
	72:931 710:543 725,633	716,721 718,651 725,667. 725,726 726,115.1 725,667.	725,726 725,633 056'02 725,129 714,576 722,931	$\begin{array}{r} 722,028 \\ 724,729 \\ 718,957,4 \\ 718,957,4 \\ 716,590 \\ 716,590 \end{array}$	723,161 723,501.1 721,936 715,781 724,729 723,178 718,612 18,612 21,936	22,028 20,172 22.366 20.172 ì	Long
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184.54 180.88 108.12	134.14 201.44 178.87 324.58 109.92					101 31 11 31 31 11 31 31	50^{2}
$\begin{array}{c} 2,759.9 \\ 4,611.06 \\ 4,692.23 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{l} 1,4553,\\ 1,965,\\ 2,302,\\ 2,302,\\ 2,308,\\ 2,616,\\ 2,6$	1458.1 2.621.1 1.321.1 1,434	1,058.2 1,055.1 1,129.4 930.81 707.81		$\begin{array}{l} 3.8787\\ 3.88787\\ 3.878$	T/jouru,	N_a^+
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							M_g^2 +
							Ca^{2+}

Table 5: Field and analytical data for the Phreatic aquifer (continued). Table 5: Field and analytical data for the Phreatic aquifer (continued).

						Phreatic aquifer					
Piezometer	Cl^- /mmol L^{-1}	δ^{18} 1%	3_{H} /UT	Piezometer	Cl^{-} /mmol L^{-1}	δ^{18} O 1%	3_{H} /UT	Piezometer	Cl^- /mmol L^{-1}	δ^{18} O 1%	3_{H} /UT
P007	1,860.5	-2.49	$\mathbf{0}$	PL15	23.54	-7.85	0.6(1)	P074	4,356.4	3.42	6.8(8)
P009	426.85	-6.6	1.2(3)	P066	80.23	-8.14	0.8(1)	PL06	14.15	-8.13	1.0(2)
P506	54.39	-6.83	1.6(3)	PL23	1.103.32	-6.1	Ω	PL30	24.32	-7.48	2.4(4)
P018	818.67	-2.95	6.2(11)	P063	1.379.3	-3.4	8.7(15)	P002	522.39	-5.71	0.6(1)
P019	779.13	-4.67	5.6(9)	P068	2,335.6	-3.04	8.8(14)	PL21	84.26	-7.65	1.2(2)
PZ12	2.405.5	-2.31	8.1(13)	P030	527.7	-6.57	2.4(4)	PL31	18.91	-7.38	1.6(3)
P023	1,176.9	-2.62	0.2(1)	P076	1,743.5	-5.56	2.8(5)	P433	12	-8.84	Ω
P416	2,433.7	-7.88	5.9(9)	P021	700.7	-5.16	2.6(4)	PL03	84.14	-7.35	1.7(3)
P034	2.752	-1.77	5.7(9)	PL04	716.27	-2.89		PL44	109.75	-8.82	1.0(2)
P036	4,972.7	3.33	2.1(4)	P093	2,198.5	-2.64	5.1(8)	PL05	30.87	-7.44	1.9(3)
P037	4,953.8	3.12	1.8(3)	P096	645.07	-6.13	4.8(8)	P408	24.16	-7.92	Ω
P039	4,189.5	0.97	2.2(4)	PLX1	1,296.6	-5.6	1.1(2)	P116	31.94	-7.18	1.1(2)
P041	2,599.7	-0.58	7.3(13)	PLX2	25.68	-7.6	1.3(2)	LTP 16	213.35	-7.48	1.6(3)
P044	2,106.1	-4.46	2.7(5)	P015	134.68	-6.77	3.0(5)	P117	32.81	-6.92	0.1
P014	336.96	-6.9	2.8(5)	P001	323.62	-4.66	2.5(4)	PL10	35.01	-7.31	0.2(1)
P012	539.3	-6.41	2.2(4)	P100	235.01	-5.81	Ω	PL25	75.57	-7.41	0.9(2)
P042	2,330.8	2.05	6.0(10)	P056	42.14	-7.03	2.9(5)	LTP30	18.21	-7.5	1.1(2)
P006	18.98	-6.64	0.5(1)	P113	954.89	-4.75	0.8(2)	LTP06	1.638.6	-1.97	2.8(5)
P057	28.21	-7.33	1.1(2)	PLX4	31.52	-7.1	0.3(1)	P031	481.83	-6.06	3.0(5)
P ₀₅₉	20.83	-7.81	Ω	P115	28.77	-2.54	6.8(12)				
						Complexe Terminal aquifer					
Borehole	CI^{-}	δ^{18} O	3_{H}	Borehole	CI^{-}	δ^{18} O	3_{H}	Borehole	Cl^-	δ^{18} O	3 _H
	/mmol L^{-1}	1%	/UT		/mmol L^{-1}	1%	/UT		/mmol L^{-1}	1%	/UT
D5F80	42.22	-7.85		D1F138	28.92	-8.13	0.7(1)	D _{2F71}	13.53	-8.23	0.6(1)
D3F8	29.81	-8.14	1.4(2)	D3F18	21.66	-8.23	0.2(1)	D7F4	10.6	-8.27	0.1(1)
D3F26	34.68	-7.97	0.8(1)	D3F10	14.27	-7.88	1.5(2)	D2F66	11.02	-8.3	
D4F94	20.05	-8.18	0.6(1)	D6F51	28.39	-7.9	0.7(1)	D1F151	10.75	-8.32	0.4(1)
D6F67	18.79	-8.23	3.7(6)	D1F135	18.08	-7.97	1.1(2)	D6F64	11.36	-8.28	4.3(7)
					Continental Intercalaire aquifer						
Borehole	CI^{-}	δ^{18} O	3 _H	Borehole	CI^{-}	δ^{18} O	3 _H	Borehole	Cl^{-}	δ^{18} O	3 _H
	/mmol L^{-1}	1%	/UT		/mmol L^{-1}	1%	/UT		/mmol L^{-1}	1%	/UT
Hadeb I	5.8	-8.02	θ	Hadeb II	6.19	-7.93	0.1(1)	Aouinet Moussa	6.49	-7.88	1.1(2)

Table 6: Isotopic data ¹⁸O and ³H and chloride concentration in Continental Intercalaire, Complexe Terminal and Phreatic aquifers (sampling campaign in 1992).

Table 7: Statistical parameters for Continental Intercalaire (CI), Complexe Terminal (CT) and Phreatic (Phr) aquifers samples selected on the basis of δ^{18} O and Cl[–] data (see text).

Aquifer	Size	Parameter	EC /mS cm ⁻¹	T $/^{\circ}C$	pH	Alk.	Cl^-	SO_4^2	$Na+$ /mmol/L	K^+	Mg^{2+}	$Ca2+$
CI	11	Average	2.2	49.0	7.5	2.3	11.0	4.7	10.3	0.51	3.6	2.4
CI	11	Stdd. dev.	0.3	2.0	0.2	1.0	4.6	2.5	4.6	0.23	2.0	1.8
CT	50	Average	3.2	23.0	7.8	2.3	20.0	8.9	17.0	1.0	5.5	5.6
CT	50	Stdd. dev.	1.1	2.4	0.4	0.8	7.0	2.6	6.0	0.8	2.2	1.7
Phr pole I	30	Average	3.9	24.0	7.9	2.3	24.7	11.8	24.2.	2.1	7.2	5.3
Phr pole I	30	Stdd. dev.	1.3	1.3	0.4	1.0	6.9	3.4	11.0	1.7	5.0	2.7
Phr pole II	3	Average		23.4	7.0	2.4	4.761.0	158.0	4.021.0	32.4	500.0	13.0
Phr pole II	3	Stdd. dev.		0.1	0.5	1.6	350.0	43.0	1.093.0	28.0	378.0	8.0

Table 8: Summary of mass transfer for geochemical inverse modeling. Phases and thermodynamic database are from Phreeqc 3.0 (Parkhurst and Appelo, 2013).

Phases	Stoichiometry	CI/CT	CT/Phr I	Rainwater/P036	PhrI/PhrII 60%/40%
Calcite	CaCO ₃		-6.62×10^{-6}	-1.88×10^{-1}	-2.26×10^{-1}
CO ₂ (g)	CO ₂	-6.88×10^{-5}		8.42×10^{-4}	5.77×10^{-4}
Gypsum	$CaSO4 \cdot 2H2O$	4.33×10^{-3}		1.55×10^{-1}	1.67×10^{-1}
Halite	NaCl	7.05×10^{-3}	3.76×10^{-3}	6.72	1.28
Sylvite	KC1	2.18×10^{-3}	1.08×10^{-3}	4.02×10^{-1}	
Bloedite	$Na2Mg(SO4)$, 4H ₂ O		1.44×10^{-3}		
Huntite	$CaMg_3(CO_3)_4$			4.74×10^{-2}	5.65×10^{-2}
Ca ion exchange	CaX ₂	-1.11×10^{-3}			
Mg ion exchange	MgX_2	1.96×10^{-3}		1.75×10^{-1}	-2.02×10^{-1}
Na ion exchange	NaX				3.92×10^{-1}
K ion exchange	KX	-1.69×10^{-3}		-3.49×10^{-1}	1.20×10^{-2}

Values are in mol/kg (H₂O). Positive (mass entering solution) and negative (mass leaving solution) phase mole transfers indicate dissolution and precipitation, respectively; — indicates no mass transfer.

Figure 1: Localisation and schematic relations of aquifers in Ouargla.

Blue lines represent limits between aquifers, and the names of aquifers are given in bold letters; as the limit between Senonian and Miopliocene aquifers is not well defined, a dashed blue line is used. Names of villages and cities are given in roman (Bamendil, Ouargla, Sidi Khouiled), while geological/*geomorphological features are in italic (Glacis, Sebkha, Chott, Dunes). Depths are relative to the ground surface. Letters a and b refer to the cross section (fig. 2) and to the localisation map (fig. 3).*

Figure 2: Geologic cross section in the region of Ouargla.

The blue pattern used for Chott and Sebkha correspond to the limit of the saturated zone.

Figure 3: Localisation map of sampling point

Figure 4: Piper diagram for Continental Intercalaire (filled squares), Complexe Terminal (open circles) and Phreatic aquifer (open triangles).

Figure 5: Contour maps of the salinity (expressed as global mineralization) in the aquifer system, (a) Phreatic aquifer; (b) and (c) Complexe Terminal [(b) Miopliocene and (c) Senonian]; figures are isovalues of global mineralization (values in g/L).

Figure 6: Equilibrium diagrams of calcite (top) and gypsum (bottom) for Continental Intercalaire (filled squares), Com-
plexe Terminal (open circles) and Phreatic aquifer (open triangles). Equilibrium lines are defined as $\log({\rm CO_3}^{2-}) = \log K_{sp}$ for calcite, and $\log({\rm Ca}^{2+}) + 2 \log(H_2O) + \log({\rm SO_4}^{2-}) = \log K_{sp}$ for gypsum.

Figure 7: Variation of saturation indices with distance from south to north in the region of Ouargla.

Figure 8: Change from carbonate facies to evaporite from Continental Intercalaire (filled squares), Complexe Terminal (open circles) and Phreatic aquifer (open triangles).

Figure 9: Change from sulfate facies to chloride from Continental Intercalaire (filled squares), Complexe Terminal (open circles) and Phreatic aquifer (open triangles).

Figure 10: Correlation between Na⁺ and Cl[–] concentrations in Continental Intercalaire (filled squares), Complexe Terminal (open circles) and Phreatic aquifer (open triangles). Seawater composition (star) is $[Na^+] = 459.3 \text{ mmol } L^{-1}$ and $[Cl^-] = 535.3 \text{ mmol } L^{-1}$ (Stumm and Morgan, 1999, p.899).

Figure 11: Calcium vs. HCO_3^- diagram in Continental Intercalaire (filled squares), Complexe Terminal (open circles), Phreatic aquifer (open triangles) and Seawater composition (star) is $[Ca^{2+}] = 10.2$ mmol L^{−1} and $[HCO₃^-] = 2.29$ mmol L^{−1} (Stars) and Marson 1000 a 800). 2.38 mmol L⁻¹ (Stumm and Morgan, 1999, p.899).

Figure 12: Calcium vs. SO_4^2 diagram in Continental Intercalaire (filled squares), Complexe Terminal (open circles), Phreatic aquifer (open triangles) and Seawater composition (star) is $[Ca^{2+}] = 10.2 \text{ mmol } L^{-1}$ and $[SO_4^{2-}] = 28.2 \text{ mmol } L^{-1}$ (Stumm and Margan 1000 a 800). 28.2 mmol L⁻¹ (Stumm and Morgan, 1999, p.899).

Figure 13: Chloride concentration versus $\delta^{18}O$ in Continental Intercalaire (filled squares), Complexe Terminal (open
circles) and Phreatic aquifer (open triangles) from Quargla circles) and Phreatic aquifer (open triangles) from Ouargla.

Figure 14: Log [Cl⁻] concentration versus $\delta^{18}O$ in Continental Intercalaire (filled squares), Complexe Terminal (open
circles) and Phreatic aquifer (open triangles) from Quargla circles) and Phreatic aquifer (open triangles) from Ouargla.