



1 Salinization origin of Souf Terminal Complex: Application of 2 statistical modelling and WQI for groundwater management

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11
12 **Abstract.** The natural salinization of Souf sandy Terminal Complex groundwater notably Pontian and Mio-Pliocene
13 has increased four times for the last 30 years, because of over pumping for drinking and irrigation. Application of the
14 statistical modelling using multivariate analysis, and the Water Quality Index, to evaluate the groundwater variables
15 have been done for groundwater management, by the investigation of water samples collected from 25 boreholes, in
16 May 2018. Cluster analysis identified three main water types based on the major ionic contents. Factor Analysis and
17 Principal Component Analysis methods confirmed the cluster analysis results. The water groups have sodi-potassic
18 facies which dominate in the western part of Souf, compared to the eastern part and they have poor quality. An osmosis
19 phenomenon allowed the homogenization of Pontian and Mio-Pliocene groundwater. The contact of Terminal
20 Complex with the Eocene dolomite and Senonian evaporitic host rocks allows introducing a new preferential
21 dissolution corridors concept in which an underground leaching front occurs with the increased pumping. Overlying
22 sandy rocks subsidence can be produced gradually with a rise in the static groundwater level because of the leached
23 underground Senonian evaporitic rocks. Closure of wells intersecting the evaporitic layers and minimizing of pumping
24 from Terminal Complex groundwater in the Southwest part of Souf is strongly recommended, and the groundwater is
25 requiring treatment before supply.

26 **Keywords:** Terminal Complex. Statistical modelling. Groundwater management. Salinization. Souf.

27 1 Introduction

28 Souf arid climatic characteristics and its Erg geomorphology allow only a occasional appearance of water on the surface. The
29 presence of permanent saline areas as chott and sebkha that form the natural outlets of Terminal Complex groundwater
30 indicate that this groundwater is naturally saline. The increasing number of wells and pumping of the Terminal Complex
31 aquifer for the last 30 years has led to a hydrodynamic destabilization, and a four-fold increase of salinization levels in the
32 groundwater compared to (WHO, 2011) standards. Several authors (Guendouz A. and al. 1992, Moulla A. 2003, Tabouche
33 N. and al. 2004, Remini 2006, Habes S and al. 2016) discussed this problem in Souf region. In the Tunisian limitroph regions,
34 Tarki M (2011) also investigated a similar phenomenon.

35 The objective of this research in addition to the previous investigations is to determine the impact of the host rock lithology
36 mineralization, which forms the source of salinization. This study will enable the discussion for the first time of the following
37 three components:

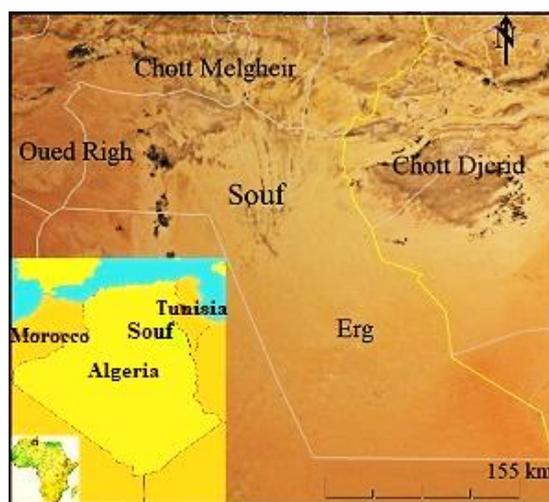
- 38 1. the lithological evolution and the lateral passage of the host rock sedimentary formations and spatially explanation of the
39 various ions distribution in the groundwater, and the water chemical composition changes with the lithological variations
40 of the host rock. This allows an interpretation of the concordance between the water groups distribution and the different
41 host rock lithological natures by giving new mineralization corridors concept.



42 2. the osomosis phenomenon effect on the homogenization in the chemical composition of the Pontian and Mio-Pliocene
43 which form the Terminal Complex.
44 3. the hypothesis about the relation between the water salinization and the rising static groundwater level at a regional scale.
45 Statistical modelling and Water quality index (WQI) methods were integrated in this research to investigate water-rock
46 contact behavior in Souf Terminal Complex groundwater. The investigation of groundwater quality variables by the
47 determination of the different evaporitic minerals, which cause the water salinization, is a very significant contribution to
48 groundwater management in the region.

49 1.1 Geographical setting

50 Souf is an administrative entity formed by 18 municipalities which occupy the center of Oued Souf Wilaya. It is limited to
51 the North by Melgheir Chott depressions; to the West by Oued Righ; to the East by Chott Djerid and to the South and
52 Southeast by the Erg (Fig.1).

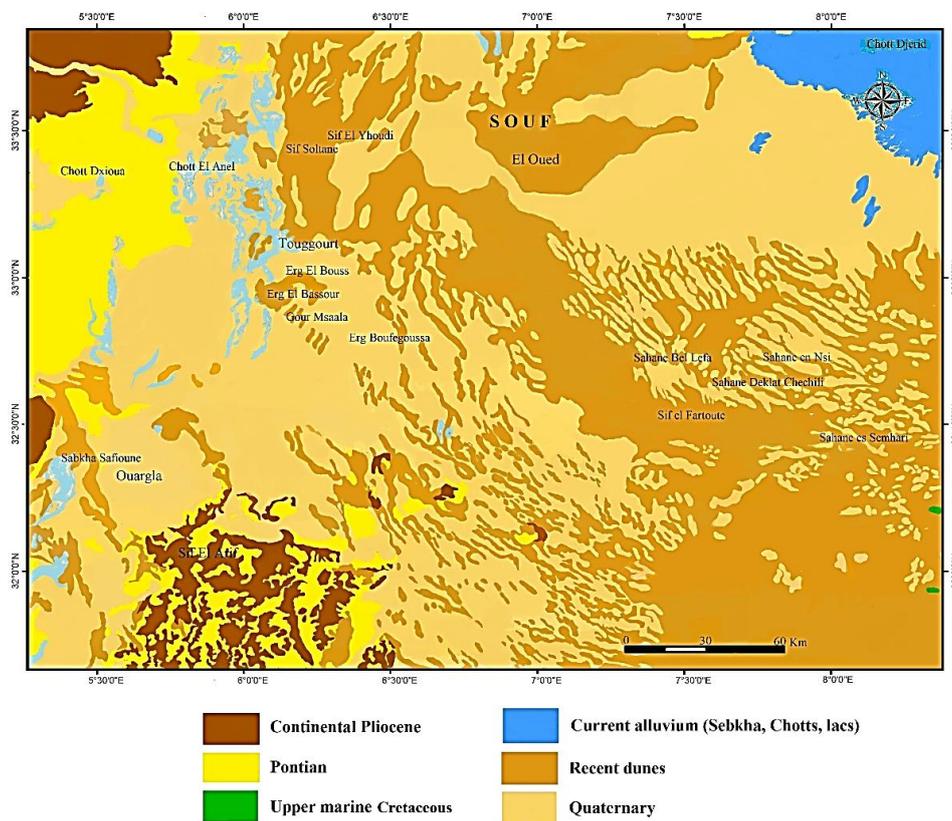


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54 **Figure 1:** Geographical setting of Souf (© google earth)

55 1.2 Geological setting

56 Souf belongs to the northern part of the lower Sahara basin (Fig. 2). The sandy Pontian and Pliocene formations outcrop in
57 the Western part and the Southwest towards Touggourt, and are formed by lacustrine limestones. The Upper Cretaceous is
58 formed by carbonate, and it just appears in the Southeast. Quaternary sandy formations cover Mio-Pliocene formations with
59 recent dunes as Sifs Soltane, El Yhoudi, in the West, and El Arif in the South; Erg as Bou Lossa, Bou Fegoussa, and Touil
60 in the South and Sahane as Bel Lefa, En Nsi, Deklat Chechili.



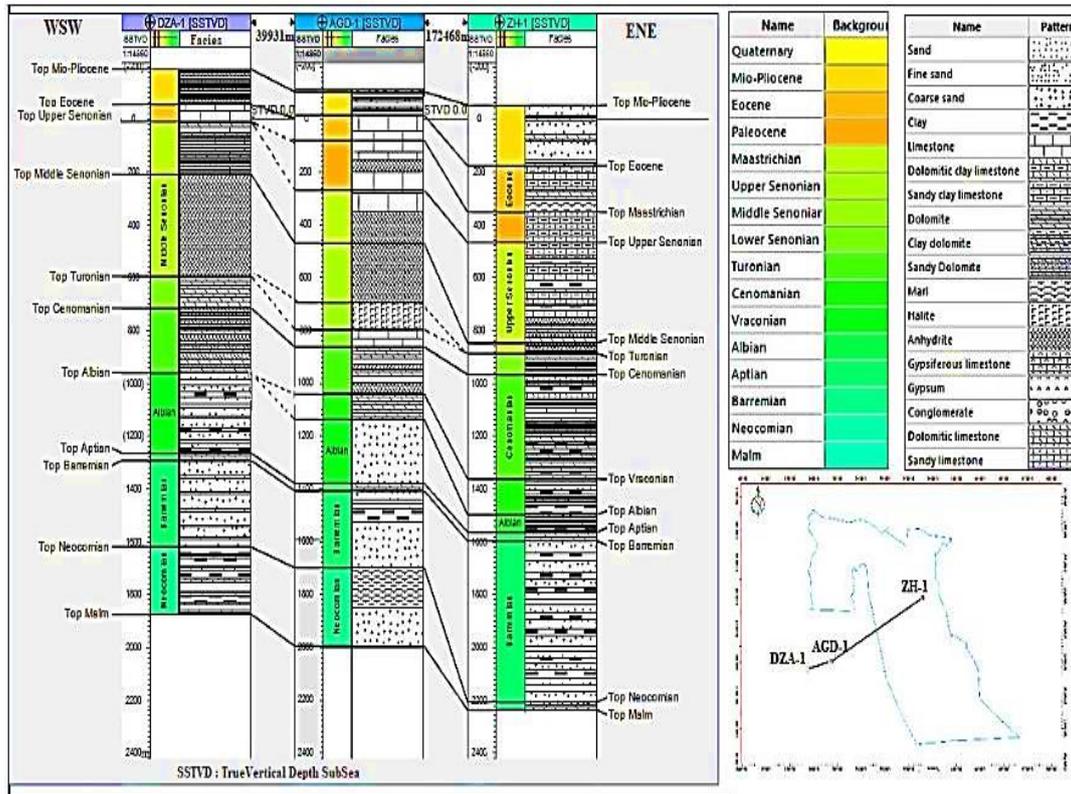
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Figure 2: Geological map of Oued Souf (M.G. Betier 1952, modified).

63 Current alluviums are mainly presented by evaporitic formations notably the chotts as chott Djerid in the East, in the West
64 chotts of Dxioua, El Anal, Chegga, El Meryeir, El Melah, A. Rouma, and Sebka as Safioune in the Southwest. Also, swamps,
65 dayas and gypsum-salt crusts occur at some places. At the regional scale, the petroleum stratigraphic logs (Sonatrach, 1965,
66 1975, 1985) revealed in-depth, a complete Cretaceous sedimentary series since the Neocomian (Fig.3).

67 The geology of Oued Souf shows that sedimentation is thicker in the center compared to that on the edges where lateral
68 lithological variations occur due to the paleogeographic context and the faulty structure. The basin may still be sagging in
69 the present day (Cornet, 1961). Neocomian is formed by clay with interactions of sandy limestones and dolomites. The lower
70 and middle Cenomanian are formed by clay-marl. The upper Cenomanian is made by limestone, dolomite and anhydrite, and
71 Turonian is formed by dolomite and limestone. Senonian lagoon type, in its lower part, is composed of dolomite with salt
72 and anhydrite pasts. The upper part is composed of limestone. Eocene is formed of dolomite. Pontian is formed by sand and
73 limestone where limestone thickness changes from the South to the North in its upper part. Mio-Pliocene is sandy



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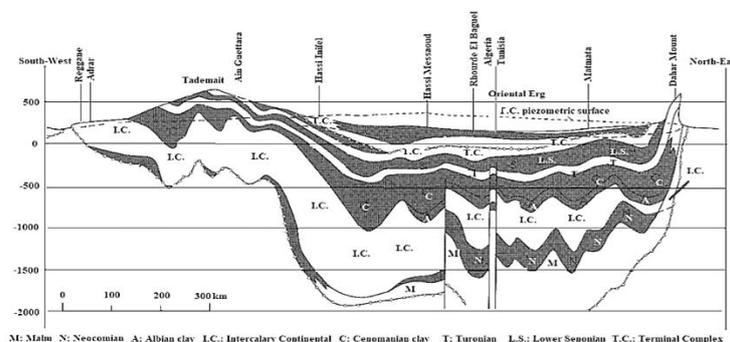
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Figure 3: Lithostratigraphical log correlations

76 Eocene is the thinner formation (50m thick) comparing to the other formations due to its erosion. It disappears totally in
 77 some places going toward the West and the South West of Souf where Mio-Pliocene sandy layers contact directly Senonian
 78 evaporitic layers (Fig.3).

79 1.3 Hydrogeology

80 Terminal Continental (Didier Roger et al., 1969) or Terminal Complex (ERESS, 1972), is the name of aquifers found in
 81 Senonian, Eocene and Mio-Pliocene geological formations which are interconnected and therefore belong to the same
 82 groundwater, excepted chotts where the middle and upper Eocene is intercalated. Turonian aquifer is more individualized
 83 because of lagoon Senonian impervious cover. Terminal Complex outcrops in chotts, in the eastern flank of Dahar and J.
 84 Nafusa, in Tinrhert, in Tademait plateau and in M'zab Ridge (Fig. 4).

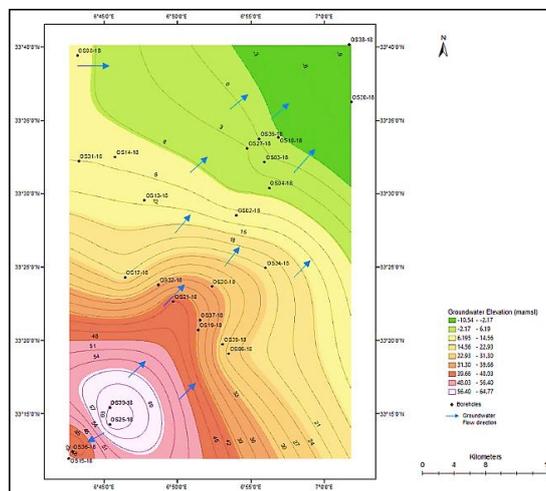


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Figure 4: Geological section showing Terminal Complex in Sahara (UNSECO, 1972)

87 Terminal Complex groundwater is supplied directly by meteoric waters of lower Sahara artesian basin, by water flowing
88 through lower Sahara valleys infiltrating into subsoil along Wadi. Also, it is provided by water coming from the Saharan
89 Atlas and Wadi coming from Oued Igharghar in the South. Groundwater flow direction in Souf is from the West to the East
90 and from the South West to the Northeast (Fig. 5).



91

92

Figure 5: Map of Souf Terminal Complex groundwater flow direction

93 2 Materials and methods

94 2.1 Sampling analysis

95 A sampling campaign was organized from 30 April to 05 May 2018, in collaboration with Oued Souf Hydraulics Department
96 and the National Water Resources Agency (NWRA) of Touggourt branch where 25 water sample has been collected from
97 wells intended for drinking water supply in Souf. 07 samples were taken from Pontian groundwater (OS08-18, OS13-18,
98 OS20-18, OS21-18, OS33-18, OS34-18, OS35-18) and 18 samples from Mio-Pliocene groundwater (OS02-18, OS03-18,
99 OS04-18, OS06-18, OS10-18, OS14-18, OS15-18, OS17-18, OS19-18, OS25-18, OS27-18, OS30-18, OS31-18, OS32-18,
100 OS35-18, OS37-18, OS38-18, OS39-18). The temperature ($T^{\circ}\text{C}$), the electrical conductivity (EC) and pH (hydrogen potential)



101 have been determined immediately after sampling using two portable devices: pH meter and conductivity meter (WTW). In
102 the laboratory, water samples were analyzed at the water treatment laboratory of NWRA Ouargla. Sulfates were measured
103 by turbidimetry at 495 nm wavelength. Calcium, sodium and potassium cations were determined by flame photometry.
104 Chlorite is measured by flame photometry. Nitrates were assayed by chlorimetry at 520 nm appropriate wavelength.

105 2.2 Statistical modelling

106 Variability of the Terminal Complex groundwater quality parameters are linked to numerous processes such as mineral
107 dissolution and precipitation, reverse ions exchange, osmosis phenomenon, and anthropogenic process. Multivariate
108 statistical analyses such as factor analysis (FA), principal component analysis (PCA) and hierarchical cluster analysis (HCA)
109 were applied to the standardized data set of ten (10) groundwater quality parameters (pH, EC, Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , Na^+ , K^+ , NO_3^- ,
110 HCO_3^- , Cl^- and SO_4^{2-}), to elicit the hydrologic and biogeochemical processes affecting water quality. These techniques have
111 been successfully used by scientists on hydrochemistry to classify water (Francisco Sánchez-Martos, 2001; Guler et al. 2002;
112 Demirel and Guler 2006; Cloutier and al. 2008; Tenalem Ayenew and al. 2009; Belkhiri and al. 2010; Varol et al. 2012;
113 Salman et al. 2014; Murugesan Athimoolam and al. 2014; Subba Rao, 2014; Taqveem Ali Khan, 2015; Sarita Gajbhiye and
114 al., 2015; Lianne McLeod, 2017; Nabil Darwesh and al. 2019; Bouaicha et al. 2017). Cluster analysis is a useful tool for
115 hydrochemistry investigation to summarize all information by grouping water samples into separate significant groups in the
116 geologic and hydrologic context for a better understanding of the hydrogeochemical process occurring in the study area
117 (Guler et al. 2004; Tenalem Ayenew and al. 2009; Taqveem Ali Khan, 2015; Singh et al. 2017). It is done based on their
118 similarities by Q-mode HCA method on the normalized data set. Also, FA and PCA are widely used to reduce sets of
119 observations of many variables using associations between them (Bouaicha et al. 2019). The deduction is achieved by
120 diagonalization of the correlation matrix which obtains a new data set uncorrelated (orthogonal), arranged in a decreasing
121 order of importance named principal components (PCs) (Singh et al. 2004). In this study, PCA was carried out on the
122 standardized data sets and sorted using eigenvalues greater than one as these are considered significant influences towards
123 the hydro-geochemical processes (Semar and al., 2013). Varimax rotation was executed to these PCs to make the factors
124 easier to interpret according to the hydrochemical or anthropogenic processes controlling the groundwater quality.

125 2.3 Water quality index

126 The Water quality index WQI is a method given by Brown et al. (1972) which is a recognized technique that offers a useful
127 tool that simplifies the expression of water quality (Chauhan and Singh, 2010). It is a numerical expression where water
128 quality data set is summarized into simple terms (excellent, good, poor, etc.) There are numerous water quality indices (WQI)
129 developed by governmental agencies around the world. Authors have widely used this method (Amadi 2011; Gebrehiwot
130 and al. 2011; Desai and Desai 2012; Aly and al. 2014; Amaliya and Kumar 2015; Goher and al. 2015; Paul and al.; 2015;
131 Bouteraa and al. 2019). WQI value water quality status is mentioned in the table following.

132 **Table 1:** Water quality assessment as per weight arithmetic WQI method

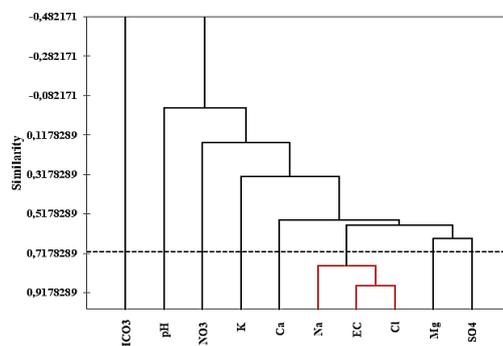
	WQI value	Water quality status
Excellent	<50	Excellent
Good	50-100	Good
Poor	100.1-200	Poor
Very Poor	200.1-300	Very Poor
Unsuitable for irrigation purpose	>300	Unsuitable for drinking purpose



133 **3 Results and discussions**

134 **3.1 Hydrogeochemical process**

135 Cluster analysis has led to identifying the different chemical facies of the groundwater by the Q-mode HCA method. Sulfate,
 136 chloride ions and electrical conductivity (EC) seem to be a determining factor in differentiating the different water groups
 137 and indicate high salinity water (Fig. 6).



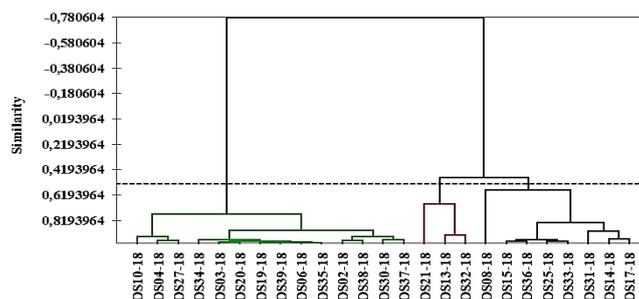
138 **Figure 6:** Dendrogram showing the hierarchical clusters of analyzed parameters

139 This method has led to identifying three water groups, which are compared with the World Health Organization (2011)
 140 standards for water quality parameters (Table 2).
 141

142 **Table 2:** Physico-chemical analysis results of Souf Terminal Complex groundwater

	Group 1				Group 2				Group 3				WHO 2011
	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Mean	SD	
pH	7,63	8,08	8,07	0,22	7,77	8,28	8,02	0,18	7,98	8,17	8,06	0,10	8.5
EC	4070,00	4080,00	4197,14	110,00	4510,00	5180,00	4912,50	295,91	4530,00	4600,00	4560,00	36,06	1500
Ca²⁺	232,50	235,00	240,89	10,77	247,30	317,50	269,98	22,43	247,50	262,50	257,50	8,66	75
Mg²⁺	151,00	204,80	177,00	19,86	153,60	235,50	203,84	24,20	192,00	204,50	197,87	6,29	50
Na⁺	400,00	460,00	431,96	14,62	450	580,00	496,87	50,47	462,00	510,00	490,67	25,32	200
K⁺	19,00	34,00	26,25	5,63	26,00	34,00	30,13	3,09	26,00	31,00	28,50	2,50	12
Cl⁻	650,00	712,50	691,07	18,62	712,50	1000,00	819,19	102,05	750,00	837,50	789,33	44,41	250
SO₄²⁻	1000,00	1187,50	1115,18	80,89	1187,50	1375,00	1281,00	70,58	1050,00	1162,50	1120,83	61,66	250
NO₃⁻	4,00	12,50	12,10	4,73	6,50	22,50	13,38	5,80	9,00	31,50	23,33	12,45	10
HCO₃⁻	186,05	195,20	201,29	7,37	183,00	201,30	192,15	7,47	189,10	198,25	193,17	4,66	120

143 The following figure shows the hierarchical clusters of analyzed water samples.



144 **Figure 7:** Dendrogram showing the hierarchical clusters of analyzed water samples
 145



146 **Group 1** is formed by 14 wells in which 2 wells are from Pontian (OS20-18, OS34-18) and 12 wells from Mio-Pliocene
 147 (OS02-18, OS03-18, OS04-18, OS06-18, OS10-18, OS19-18, OS27-18, OS30-18, OS35-18, OS37-18, OS38-18, OS39-18).
 148 All wells are localized in the eastern part of Souf. The major ions abundance order is $\text{Na}^+ + \text{K}^+ > \text{Ca}^{2+} > \text{Mg}^{2+}$ and $\text{SO}_4^{2-} > \text{Cl}^-$
 149 $> \text{HCO}_3^- > \text{NO}_3^-$. It exceeds four times the limit for drinking water standards (WHO, 2011). The hydrochemical type is sulfate
 150 facies with SO_4^{2-} (min = 1000,00 mg/l, max = 1187,50 mg/l, and mean = 1115,18 mg/l), and potassic with sodium (min =
 151 400,00 mg/l, max = 460,00 mg/l, and mean = 431,96 mg/l). Bicarbonates exist with Ca^{2+} (min = 232,50 mg/l, max = 317,50
 152 mg/l, and mean = 240,89 mg/l). The concentrations of nitrate exceed the standards required for consumption in 10 wells in
 153 which min = 11 mg/l and max = 22,5 mg/l.
 154 **Group 2** is formed by 8 wells in which 2 wells are from Pontian (OS08-18 and OS33-18) and 6 wells from Mio-Pliocene
 155 (OS10-18, OS15-18, OS17-18, OS25-18, OS31-18 and S36-18). The majority of wells are located in the West. The major
 156 ions abundance order is $\text{Na}^+ + \text{K}^+ > \text{Ca}^{2+} > \text{Mg}^{2+}$ and $\text{SO}_4^{2-} > \text{Cl}^- > \text{HCO}_3^-$ and the hydrochemical type is characterized also by
 157 a sulfate facies with SO_4^{2-} (min = 1187,50 mg/l, max = 1375,00 mg/l, and mean = 1281,00 mg/l). Sodium is also dominant
 158 with (min = 450mg/l, max = 580,00mg/l, and mean = 496,87mg/l). Bicarbonates exist with less importance with Ca^{2+} (min
 159 = 247,30mg/l, max = 272,5 mg/l, and mean = 269,98mg/l). Mg^{2+} with (min = 153,60 mg/l, max = 235,50mg/l and mean =
 160 203,84mg/l). Most samples exceeded four times the limit for drinking water norms (WHO 2011). The concentrations of
 161 nitrate exceed the standards required for consumption in 06 wells in which min = 14 mg/l and max = 29,50 mg/l.
 162 **Group 3** consists of three wells: 2 wells from Pontian (OS13-18, OS21-18) and one well from Mio-Pliocene (OS32-18).
 163 These wells are localized in the eastern part of Souf. The major ions abundance order is the same and exceed four times the
 164 limit for drinking water standards (WHO 2011). The hydrochemical type is sulfate facies with SO_4^{2-} (min = 1050,00 mg/l,
 165 max = 1162,5 mg/l and a mean = 1120,83mg/l), and potassic with Na^+ (min = 462,00 mg/l, max = 510,00 mg/l, and mean =
 166 490,67 mg/l). Bicarbonates exist with Ca^{2+} (min = 247,50 mg/l, max = 262,50 mg/l, and mean = 257,50 mg/l). The
 167 concentration of nitrate show that only OS13-18 exceeds the standards required for consumption with max = 31,50 mg/l.
 168 Spatially, wells situated in the western part of Souf are more mineralized than those situated in the Est. These groups are the
 169 most abundant on SO_4^{2-} , Cl^- , Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} and Na^+ . Piper diagram (Piper 1944) shows the potassic sulfate facies of these groups
 170 (Fig. 8).
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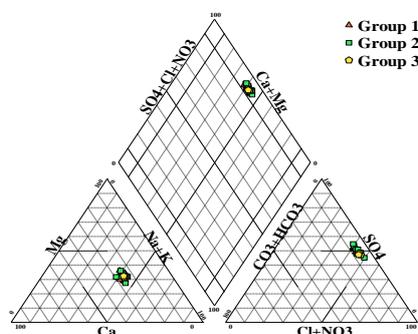


Figure 8: Piper diagram

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 173
 174
 175 Chadha diagram (Chadah, 1999) which is a modified version of the Piper diagram (Fig. 9) shows that most groundwater
 176 samples are characterized by the dominance of alkaline (Na^+ and K^+) over alkaline earth (Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+}) and strong acids
 177 (SO_4^{2-} and Cl^-) over weak acids (HCO_3^-).

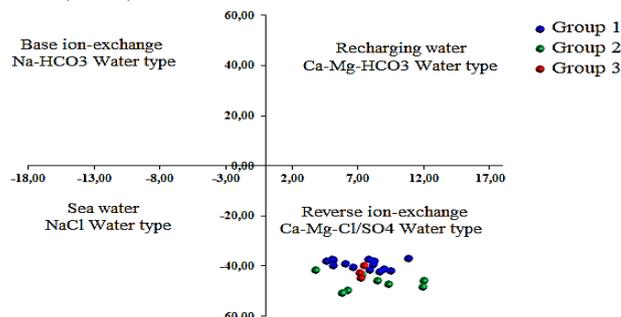


Figure 09: Chadha diagram

178
 179
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 181 Most of the groundwater groups are situated in the field of reverse Ion-Exchange Ca^{2+} - Mg^{2+} - $\text{Cl}^-/\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ water type (Fig.9).



182 The correlation matrix results shown in Table 3 reveals an excellent correlation between the pairwise EC and Cl⁻ (0.88), SO₄²⁻
 183 (0.71), Na⁺ (0.73) and a good correlation with Ca²⁺ (0.67) and Mg²⁺ (0.65), indicating a strongly mineralized water. An
 184 excellent correlation was revealed between Na⁺ and Cl⁻ (0.83) indicating the dissolution of halite. The correlation between
 185 Mg²⁺ and Cl⁻ (0.62) indicates the dissolution of bischofite, and between Mg²⁺ and SO₄²⁻ (0.64) signifying the dissolution of
 186 epsomite.
 187
 188

Table 3: Correlation matrix

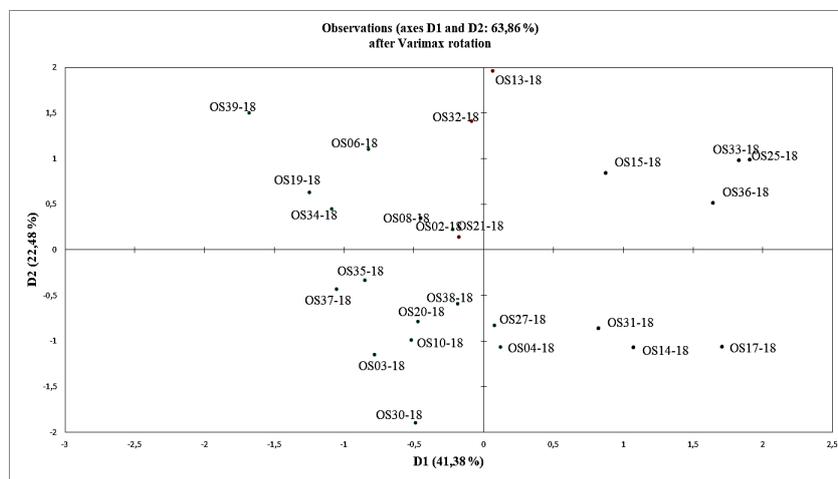
Variables	pH	EC	Ca ²⁺	Mg ²⁺	Na ⁺	K ⁺	Cl ⁻	SO ₄ ²⁻	NO ₃ ⁻	HCO ₃ ⁻
pH	1,00									
EC	0,07	1,00								
Ca ²⁺	0,02	0,67	1,00							
Mg ²⁺	-0,12	0,65	0,51	1,00						
Na ⁺	-0,10	0,73	0,49	0,51	1,00					
K ⁺	-0,01	0,35	0,42	0,42	0,30	1,00				
Cl ⁻	0,07	0,88	0,53	0,62	0,83	0,36	1,00			
SO ₄ ²⁻	-0,08	0,71	0,54	0,64	0,48	0,10	0,47	1,00		
NO ₃ ⁻	-0,02	0,13	0,16	0,09	0,30	0,26	0,31	-0,15	1,00	
HCO ₃ ⁻	-0,06	-0,62	-0,50	-0,48	-0,65	-0,53	-0,77	-0,26	-0,46	1,00

189
 190
 191 Factor analysis with varimax rotation applied to data has shown 63.85% of the total information, where PC1 represents
 192 41.38%, and PC2 represents 22.27%. PC1 has a strong positive loading on electrical conductivity (EC), Na⁺ and Cl⁻, Mg²⁺,
 193 SO₄²⁻, a moderately positive loading on Ca²⁺, and a strong negative loading on HCO₃⁻ indicating geogenic process in which
 194 mineral dissolution, reverse ions exchange and osmosis phenomenon could intervene. While PC2 has a strong positive
 195 loading on NO₃⁻ indicating an anthropogenic process (Table 4).
 196
 197

Table 4 Score of PCA after Varimax rotation

	PC1	PC2
pH	-0,084	0,128
EC	0,898	0,258
Ca ²⁺	0,708	0,251
Mg ²⁺	0,795	0,142
Na ⁺	0,701	0,445
K ⁺	0,297	0,577
Cl ⁻	0,755	0,508
SO ₄ ²⁻	0,881	-0,244
NO ₃ ⁻	-0,092	0,827
HCO ₃ ⁻	-0,508	-0,74
% variability	41,381	22,476
% cumulated	41,381	63,857
Interpretation of the process	1. Mineral dissolution and/or precipitation 2. Cations exchange 3. Osmosis phenomenon	Anthropogenic pollution

198
 199
 200 A scatter-plot (Fig. 11) of PC1 versus PC2 reveals that all water groups are well distinguished from each other in the PC
 201 space and coherent with groupings extracted from Q-mode HCA.



202

203

Figure 10: PCA biplot of water samples based on the first two axes

204 **3.2 Water quality index**

205 WQI method developed for groundwater parameters represents the overall quality of water according to its purity degree.
 206 For the study area, WQI value was computed for drinking water using the guidelines of WHO (2011). The EC, pH, Ca²⁺,
 207 Mg²⁺, Na⁺, K⁺, Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻, HCO₃⁻, and NO₃⁻ have been used to obtain the WQI. Results revealed that 23 wells had WQI poor
 208 water quality and two wells (OS25-18, OS36-18) had very poor water quality (more than 200). WQI values for groundwater
 209 samples are shown in Table 5.

210

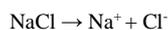
Table 5: WQI of the Terminal Complex water groups

	WQI Value	Quality
Group 1	152,86 to 196,38	Poor
Group 2	162,63 to 209,08	Poor to very Poor
Group 3	164,46 to 192,18	Poor

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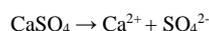
212 The spatial abundance of mineralization is due to the geology context of Terminal Complex groundwater. In the West and
 213 Southwest part of Souf, the Eocene dolomite formation is very thin due to its erosion and it disappears totally going toward
 214 the West where the sandy Pontian and Mio-Pliocene layers become in direct contact with Senonian evaporitic and salty
 215 layers. In this region, the groundwater facies indicates the dissolution of sulfate and chloride evaporitic minerals, which are
 216 found in the potassic lagoon deposit of Senonian evaporitic. The most abundant chloride is halite (NaCl). Dissolution of
 217 halite reaction is as follow:

218



219 Other chlorides can be associated, such as bischofite (MgCl) and sylvine (KCl). Also, the most abundant sulfate is gypsum
 220 (CaSO₄) according to the following formula:

221



222 Other chlorides less abundant can be associated to gypsum such as epsomite (MgSO₄). In this case, water is enriched in
 223 SO₄²⁻, Cl⁻, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺ and Na⁺ and this is clearly observed in group 2 and 3. Toward the North, the East, and the center,
 224 Eocene dolomite forms the roof of the sandy Pontian and/or Mio-Pliocene layers and dolomite (Ca, MgCO₃) dissolution is
 225 more critical where water enrichment in Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺ and HCO₃⁻ is significant and this is clearly observed in group 1. Dolomite
 226 dissolution reaction is follow:



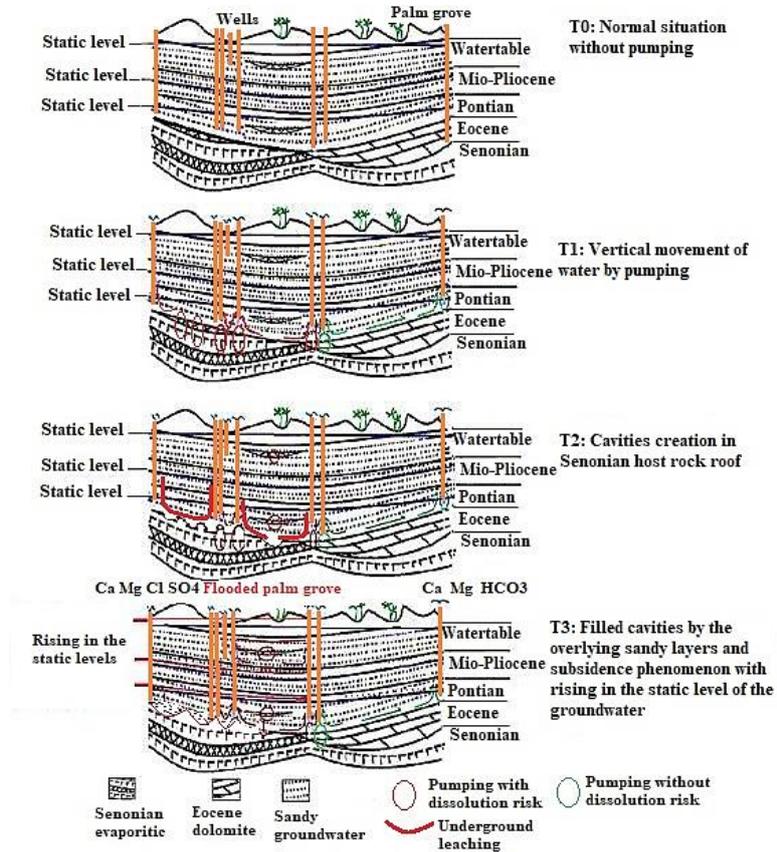
227
$$\text{Ca, Mg (CO}_3\text{)}_2\text{(dolomite)} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + 2\text{CO}_2 \rightarrow \text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{Mg}^{2+} + 4\text{HCO}_3^-$$

228 Senonian evaporitic minerals are the most soluble compared to carbonates (dolomite) due to their dissolution rates that vary:
229 0.03 and 0.05 gm²/s for gypsum, 3g/m²/s for halite (Cubillas et al., 2005). Calcite has a rate of 10-4g/m²/s (Cubillas et al.,
230 2005) and shows much more a precipitation tendency. The dissolution of the evaporitic minerals typically associated in
231 potassic deposit of the Senonian evaporitic due to the water-rock contact form the salinization source in the West and the
232 Southwest of Souf. A new concept of a preferential dissolution corridor may be introduced in this research for the first time
233 in the study area. It is mainly related to the host rock lithology. In case of Senonian evaporitic host rock, sulfates and chlorides
234 dissolution allow Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, Na⁺, K⁺, Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻ enrichment. While, in case of dolomite host rock, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺ and HCO₃⁻
235 are much abundant in water and develop a carbonate dissolution corridor.

236 An osmosis phenomenon could intervene in the homogenization of Pontian and Mio-Pliocene groundwater mineralization in
237 group 2 and group 3. This mechanism allows ions circulation of the most concentrated waters in chemical elements towards
238 waters less rich in these elements through layers of Pontian clay roof, which is considered as a semi-permeable membrane.
239

240 ***Salinization hydrochemical and hydrodynamic effect hypothesis***

241 The waters by their double role as erosive and transport agent enrich themselves in chemical elements simultaneously with a
242 preferential underground leaching mechanism of the host rock. The most soluble minerals are those of the Senonian evaporitic
243 host rock than those of Eocene dolomite host rock. The host rocks contain sulfates and chlorides occurring in abundance as
244 gypsum, anhydrite and halite, with less abundant sulfate and chloride evaporites such as epsomite, sylvine and bischofite
245 associated with the potassic lagoon deposit of Senonian. Thus, Senonian evaporitic host rock dissolution in the South and the
246 West part of Souf over time allows a significant departure of these minerals, which can be found again on the surface as
247 ephemeral minerals in the natural discharge zones of the groundwater (chott and sebkha). The underground leaching action
248 depends on water flow velocity and pumping rates, which generates in-depth vertical movements of water and allows the
249 creation of cavities. Under the load effect of the overlying sandy rocks, these cavities are filled, and lead to a gradual
250 lithological subsidence and the rise of the overlying sandy groundwater static levels. Authors have noted the joint dissolving
251 and subsidence problem (Benito G. 1995; Anthony H. 1999; Charola. 2007) which has dangerous consequences on buildings
252 (Bergeron C and al. 1983). In lower Sahara, this phenomenon is discussed for the first time in this research. It is not critically
253 observed and investigated because of sandy loose lithological nature of the groundwater and the dune masses that cover them.
254 The lithological subsidence may occur at regional scale gradually for few millimeters depth, on the favor of Senonian
255 evaporitic dissolution corridor. This action depends on the quantity of leached evaporitic minerals, recharge and discharge
256 groundwater periods and the increased groundwater pumping in these areas. (Fig.11).



257
 258
 259

Figure 11: Hydrodynamic salinization effects scenarios

260 The current situation of static level of the watertable in Souf especially in Sidi Mestour zone could be a result of a gradual
 261 subsidence of the underlying sandy layers of Terminal Complex about few millimeters after significant underground leaching
 262 of the evaporitic minerals quantities (Fig 12).



263
 264

Figure 12: Photo showing the abnormal static level of the watertable in Sidi Mestour



265 **4 Conclusion**

266 The Sandy Terminal Complex groundwater in contact with carbonate Eocene and evaporitic Senonian causes the
267 mineralization of water. During groundwater's recharge period, highly mineralized waters are leaching with chemical
268 elements exceeding WHO (2011) norms. The dissolution of the dominant evaporitic minerals such as halite, gypsum, and
269 anhydrite, and other associated evaporitic minerals of halite such as sylvite, epsomite and bischofite occurrences permitted
270 enrichment of water in sulfate and chlorate. The water groups distinguished are enriched in mineralization according to the
271 groundwater host rock. The carbonate host rock showed less mineralization of sulfate and chlorate, while the evaporitic
272 layers produced abundant elements of sulfate and chlorate. This allows the postulate in the presence of two different
273 mineralization corridors. The first is located in the West and Southwest of Souf, following water flow direction and allowing
274 enrichment in Na^+ , K^+ , Mg^{2+} , Cl^- and SO_4^{2-} where groundwater host rock is evaporitic Senonian. The second corridor is
275 located in the North part of Souf. It promotes enrichment in Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} and HCO_3^- , with a host rock of limestone and dolomite
276 Eocene. An osmosis phenomenon may intervene to homogenize the mineralization of Pontian and Mio-Pliocene
277 groundwater. This mechanism allows ions circulation of the most concentrated waters in chemical elements towards waters
278 with less enrichment through layers of Pontian clay roof, which is considered as a semi-permeable membrane. The interaction
279 of the groundwater with Senonian evaporitic layers is regarded as subterranean preferential leaching, that was accelerated
280 with pumping rates, and risks inducing the gradual subsidence of the overlying sandy layers, and rising static levels of the
281 groundwater and acceleration of the dissolution-subsidence cycle. Further research and investigation are recommended:

- 282 - to delimit areas where groundwater is in direct contact with the evaporitic and salty Senonian layers.
- 283 - to identify and prohibit over-pumping in areas of high dissolution risk.
- 284 - for identification of appropriate water treatment method before supply and utilization.

285 Other multidisciplinary work is strongly recommended especially the geophysical study, to understand the groundwater and
286 the host rock structure for sustainable groundwater management.

287 **Authors contribution**

288 Ms Khebizi H. did the sampling campaign and the various analysis. She did the geological study and the interpretation of
289 data analysis using the statistical modelling and WQI. She discussed for the first time the concept of preferential dissolution
290 corridors and introduced the phenomenon of osmosis in the groundwater mineralization. She discussed also for the first time
291 the relation between the salinization of the Terminal Complex and the phenomenon of the watertable rising static level. Dr.
292 Benlaoukli B. contributed in the geological study. Dr. Bouaicha F. helped in the statistical analysis and WQI calculation. Mr.
293 Adadzi P. helped in the groundwater flow mapping and the redaction of the article and Pr. Bouras O. helped in the
294 interpretation of water-rock behaviour.

295 **Code/data availability**

296 In this work, Excelstat software was used for the statistical modelling. For data availability, sampling campaign
297 measurements and laboratory analysis of 25 water samples taken in 2018 are available in the supplement document with their
298 geographic coordinates.



299 **Competing interests**

300 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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