



LAWRENCE
LIVERMORE
NATIONAL
LABORATORY

LLNL-JRNL-865947

How Rains and Floods Become Groundwater: Understanding Recharge Pathways With Stable and Cosmogenic Isotopes

J. Lerback, A. Visser, A. J. Harm, E. Oerter, R. Bibby, J. Danielsen, K. Minn, M. Garguilo, E. Grande

June 24, 2024

Hydrological Processes

Disclaimer

This document was prepared as an account of work sponsored by an agency of the United States government. Neither the United States government nor Lawrence Livermore National Security, LLC, nor any of their employees makes any warranty, expressed or implied, or assumes any legal liability or responsibility for the accuracy, completeness, or usefulness of any information, apparatus, product, or process disclosed, or represents that its use would not infringe privately owned rights. Reference herein to any specific commercial product, process, or service by trade name, trademark, manufacturer, or otherwise does not necessarily constitute or imply its endorsement, recommendation, or favoring by the United States government or Lawrence Livermore National Security, LLC. The views and opinions of authors expressed herein do not necessarily state or reflect those of the United States government or Lawrence Livermore National Security, LLC, and shall not be used for advertising or product endorsement purposes.

1 **How Rains and Floods Become Groundwater: Understanding Recharge**
2 **Pathways with Stable and Cosmogenic Isotopes**

3
4 **AUTHORS**

5 Jory Lerback¹, Richard Bibby¹, Jacob Danielsen², Mike Garguilo², Emilio Grande³, A. Jake
6 Harm^{1,3}, Ken Minn², Jean Moran³, Erik Oerter¹, and Ate Visser¹

7
8 ¹ Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory, Division of Nuclear and Chemical Sciences

9 ² Zone 7 Water Agency, Division of Water Resources

10 ³ California State University, East Bay, Department of Earth and Environmental Sciences

11
12 Corresponding Author: lerback1@llnl.gov

13
14 **ABSTRACT**

15
16 Anthropogenic climate change leads to increased precipitation intensity and exacerbated
17 droughts in California, challenging the reliability and drought resiliency of water supply. Storing
18 floodwater underground via managed aquifer recharge can mitigate these effects through direct
19 infiltration or streambed infiltration. Seasonally dry streams (arroyos) already play an important
20 part in managing groundwater recharge to the Livermore basin (CA). Understanding how, when,
21 and where stormwater and arroyo water infiltrate is critical to effectively utilize this strategy. To
22 track water from recent storms (water year 2022-2023, WY23) into the Livermore Valley
23 Groundwater Basin, we analyzed stable water isotopes ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and δD) in combination with
24 naturally occurring radioactive isotopic tracers, sulfur-35 (^{35}S , $t_{1/2}=87$ days) and tritium (^{3}H ,
25 $t_{1/2}=12.3$ years).

26
27 By comparing measurements of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, ^{35}S , and ^{3}H in arroyos to precipitation and groundwater,
28 we classified the relative age and identified source of recharge to 16 wells near two arroyos. Two
29 wells contained water with recent recharge (from WY23) from local precipitation. One well had
30 recent recharge from variable (precipitation and imported water) sources. One well contained
31 imported water recharge. Three wells contained water from mixed recent and older (pre-WY23)

32 waters, from local precipitation sources. Two wells contained recent recharge from local mine
33 settling ponds. Seven wells had older recharge from local precipitation sources.

34

35 This combination of isotopes allows us to delineate where local and imported water recharges in
36 this highly managed basin and identify locations where managed aquifer recharge is contributing
37 to rapid groundwater infiltration. Our combined interpretation of isotopic water ages and sources
38 in the context of land use shows that local infiltration of precipitation in open spaces is an
39 important recharge mechanism, in addition to the managed arroyo recharge. A broader
40 familiarity with ^{35}S will enable more extensive research on the infiltration of urban floodwaters.

41

42 **Keywords:** isotopes, groundwater, hydrology, managed aquifer recharge, sustainable
43 management, sulfur-35, oxygen-18, tritium

44 **1. INTRODUCTION**

45

46 Anthropogenic climate change is bringing changes to the water cycle, resulting in earlier-in-the-
47 season snowmelt and warm coastal storms that will flood and damage aging water storage
48 infrastructure (Kuang et al., 2024; Kundzewicz & Döll, 2009; Siirila-Woodburn et al., 2021).
49 Flood, drought, and contamination risk from the intensified water cycle will harm already
50 economically and socio-culturally disenfranchised communities. To ensure long-term
51 groundwater sustainability despite climate change driven hydrologic conditions, the State of
52 California (CA) in the United States of America enacted the Sustainable Groundwater
53 Management Act (SGMA) in 2014. SGMA requires the development of Groundwater
54 Sustainability Plans (GSPs) to address six sustainability criteria, including aquifer depletion that
55 threatens water supplies and groundwater-dependent ecosystems. Managed aquifer recharge
56 (MAR), and in particular flood-MAR, has been proposed as a tool to mitigate excess water (from
57 storms and flooding), as well as aquifer depletion (from drought and pumping demands) (Marr et
58 al., 2018). MAR encompasses any intentional recharge of water to aquifers for subsequent
59 recovery or environmental benefit (Council, 2009).

60

61 MAR has been practiced for millennia through spreading water and other land management
62 practices, and in the past several decades, intentional MAR (and associated technical research)
63 has accelerated to meet the increasing demand for groundwater resources (Dillon, 2005; Dillon et
64 al., 2018; Joël Casanova; Zhang et al., 2020) As of 2021, nearly 200 new MAR projects have
65 been proposed in CA in groundwater sustainability plans. Most of these projects involve
66 spreading water in basins or agricultural lands and only ten involve channel infiltration projects
67 (Ulibarri et al., 2021). The International Groundwater Resources Assessment Centre (IGRAC,
68 2016) estimated that river water was the most commonly (approximately 50%) characterized
69 source water for MAR projects, with stormwater the second most common (approximately 20%).
70 This study focuses on MAR of stormwaters through existing ephemeral stream channels and
71 associated floodplains.

72

73 Several approaches are commonly applied to estimate the efficiency of MAR operations, both in
74 the planning stages and during operation. Numerical models support the technical development

75 of MAR plans through the simulation of flow and solute transport to evaluate sustainability and
76 hazards in MAR systems (Ringleb et al., 2016). Hydrograph analyses for water table fluctuations
77 have given estimates of recharge and connectivity to surface water systems (Águila et al., 2019);
78 however, heterogeneity in aquifer materials and proper attribution of water table fluctuation
79 drivers (e.g., flood event versus pumping) generates uncertainties, where groundwater pumping
80 is especially influential in agricultural and urban water systems.

81
82 Analyzing naturally-occurring isotopic tracers can help identify the spatial heterogeneity of
83 infiltration and quantify the importance of distinct water sources to aquifer recharge (i.e. local
84 precipitation or imported stream water) (Klaus & McDonnell, 2013; Tetzlaff et al., 2014; Visser
85 et al., 2018). Water stable isotopes (oxygen and hydrogen, hereafter $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^2\text{H}$) are
86 commonly used to build mixing models (Kirchner, 2019; Marx et al., 2021). Multiple isotope
87 systems provide better constraints when isotopic endmember signatures are not stable in time
88 due to radioactive decay, natural variability in the source waters, or operational water
89 management. The addition of radioactive, cosmogenic tracer systems such as sulfur-35 (^{35}S ,
90 $t^{1/2}=87$ days) and tritium (^3H , $t^{1/2}=12.3$ years) allows for examining the timescale of flow paths.
91 ^{35}S is an indicator of the newest water fraction (e.g., “same year”, “young water” or “recent
92 recharge”) because radioactive decay reduces its concentration to 5% in one year (Urióstegui et
93 al., 2017). ^3H concentrations reflect residence times on decadal timescales and can indicate
94 mixing with pre-modern water that recharged before nuclear testing started in the 1950s
95 (Tolstikhin & Kamenski, 1969).

96
97 Multi-source waters complicate the interpretation and understanding of MAR operations. For
98 channel or in-stream recharge, three potential sources of water recharge (local precipitation,
99 natural arroyo flows, and imported water) commonly cannot be separated using a single isotopic
100 tracer in highly managed aquifers. We applied three ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$, ^3H , and ^{35}S) tracer systems to address
101 the following research questions: Does new, local water infiltrate the upper aquifer such that it
102 can be detected in nearby, shallow monitoring wells? Does groundwater recharge occur
103 homogeneously along the arroyo channels and associated floodplains?

104

105 Overall, this paper investigates how naturally-occurring and short-lived isotope systems are
106 useful in disentangling the source waters recharging mixed natural and engineered water
107 systems. The combination of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, $\delta^2\text{H}$, ^3H , and ^{35}S leading to this new understanding of recent,
108 local floodwater tracking will provide water managers with the scientific basis to optimize and
109 verify MAR projects for sustainable water management planning under dynamic hydroclimates
110 and increasing water demands.

111

112 **2. METHODS**

113

114 **2.1 Site Description**

115 The study site in Livermore Valley and the connected Amador Valley comprises an east-west
116 trending valley (Livermore Amador Valley hereafter) in the Central CA Coast range, located in
117 Alameda County approximately 60 km east of San Fransico (Figure 1A). The site includes the
118 urban areas of Livermore and Pleasanton, agricultural areas (primarily vineyards), and
119 encompasses the surrounding hills that are reserved for open space.

120

121 Intermittently dry streams (locally and herein termed “arroyos”) are a major hydrologic feature
122 and are important for groundwater recharge sustainability planning. Recharge timing and
123 volumes are currently modelled with a surface water budget—differences in stream gage flows
124 are attributed to groundwater recharge (negative difference downstream) or groundwater
125 discharge (positive difference downstream) (Zone 7, 2023); however, this method does not
126 capture heterogeneity of infiltration potential, the overall volume recharging the aquifer (as
127 opposed to being used by groundwater dependent ecosystems), nor over-bank flooding
128 (bypassing stream gages).

129

130 Livermore Amador Valley is located in the Central CA Diablo Range, bounded to the west by
131 Pleasanton Ridge and the Calaveras Fault Zone, to the east by the Greenville Fault,(Hartzell et
132 al., 2016) and to the north by Mount Diablo. To the south, surface exposures in the Range consist
133 of Plio-Pleistocene nonmarine rocks (Hartzell et al., 2016). The valley has a topographic slope
134 towards the west (Carpenter et al., 1984). Valley fill is Quaternary alluvium from a depth of
135 approximately 30 m on the eastern edge of the Valley, to over 200 m on the western edge. These

136 sediments are underlain by the Livermore Formation, consisting of Plio-Pleistocene sandy gravel
137 interbedded with clay lenses serving as aquitards (Figure 1B) (Moore et al., 2006; Moran et al.,
138 2002).

139

140 The lithology includes an upper aquifer of alluvial sand and gravel, over a lacustrine clay
141 aquitard. The wells sampled in this study primarily target the upper alluvial aquifer unit to
142 understand the most recent recharge nearest the surface recharge areas (Figure S1). The lower
143 aquifer unit underneath the aquitard comprises of the Upper and Lower Livermore Formation.
144 These Livermore Formations are sand and gravel, based on the well log lithologies provided in
145 the Supplementary Information. The central and western region of the Livermore Amador Valley
146 Main Basin has a clay overburden which impacts three sampled wells (20C7&8, 10N2&3, and
147 16P5; locations in Figure 1B and Figure S1).

148

149 The study site has a semi-arid Mediterranean climate and a mean annual temperature of 15.6°C
150 (1991-2020). Annual precipitation is approximately 45 cm, of which 90% falls between
151 November and April (Moore et al., 2006; PRISM, 2014) (Figure 2A). Total estimated annual
152 reference evapotranspiration for this area (California Irrigation Management Information System
153 station 191) is approximately 130 cm in 2023 (CIMIS, 2024). Livermore Amador Valley
154 experienced two multi-year severe droughts in the previous decade, followed by an exceptionally
155 wet water year, water year 2023 (WY23, this study period) with over 60 cm of rain (Akyuz,
156 2017; Zone 7, 2023).

157

158 We studied recharge from two arroyos: Arroyo Mocho and Arroyo Valle (hereafter referred to as
159 “AM” and “AV”). The arroyos start in the hills south of the Livermore Amador Valley flowing
160 north and west through the cities of Livermore and Pleasanton, eventually exiting the basin
161 through Arroyo de la Laguna to the southwest, and ultimately flowing into the San Francisco
162 Bay through Alameda Creek (Figure 1). Natural flows typically stop in April, with the cessation
163 of the local rainy season, causing the arroyos to go dry.

164

165 The naturally gravelly streambeds allow the arroyos to be used as recharge zones by the local
166 water agency, ‘Zone 7’ (Zone 7, 2023). Zone 7 has rights to divert water imported from the

167 Sacramento-San Joaquin River Delta via the South Bay Aqueduct (SBA) (Figure 1B). The SBA
168 waters are released directly into arroyo stream channels or piped into Reservoir Del Valle. As a
169 result, Reservoir Del Valle is a mixture of local precipitation (including natural inflow to the
170 reservoir) and water stored from the SBA, which is connected to the northern end of the
171 reservoir. In addition to arroyo recharge, active quarry operations in the Livermore Amador
172 Valley have resulted in a complex and dynamic series of reclaimed and actively mined pits
173 called the Chain of Lakes (Figure 1A). The western-most lakes are old gravel quarries where
174 operations are completed and are now lakes used for storage and in connection with underlying
175 aquifers and are therefore used for groundwater recharge. Silt ponds and de-watering operations
176 associated with the active quarries are clay-lined and are not believed to be hydraulically
177 connected to the underlying aquifers.

178

179 We estimated the source water composition of AM and AV based on three stream gages (AVNL,
180 AMNL, and AMHAG), Del Valle Reservoir releases, and diversion rates from SBA (Zone 7,
181 2023). We distinguish between flows, imported water, and flood waters. Natural flows into AM
182 are measured at the AMNL gage (Figure 1B) because it is not impacted by SBA or reservoir
183 releases at this location. Natural flow in AV is calculated from the ANVL gage while accounting
184 for (removing the contribution from) reservoir and SBA releases. Increases in streamflow below
185 the gages AVNL and AMNL are considered flood waters, where lower-elevation runoff flows
186 over stream banks into the stream channels (Figure 1B).

187

188 The Livermore Valley Alternative Groundwater Sustainability Plan (Alt-GSP) includes a water
189 budget which accounts for recharging groundwater via the arroyos. This recharge is calculated
190 by taking the difference between flow into (measured flows at AMNL and AVNL plus imported
191 water) and out of the arroyos at the end of areas of known recharge (Figure 1B). These models
192 represent maximum recharge values and do not account for evapotranspiration nor overbank
193 flooding. Applied water in the groundwater recharge models is an estimate of excess urban and
194 agricultural irrigation infiltrating to the aquifer.

195

196 Annually, an average of 5.7 million m³ per year of groundwater is pumped out of the basin
197 aquifer for municipal, agricultural, and industrial use. Zone 7 Water Agency estimates an

198 average of 12 million m³ per year was recharged through AM and AV in 2012-2022, and 27
199 million m³ in WY23.

200

201

202 **2.2 Research Design**

203 The arroyos in the Livermore Amador Valley are underlain by coarse sediments that act as losing
204 streams and are effective for groundwater recharge into the Livermore Valley Groundwater basin
205 (Zone 7, 2023). In addition, because WY23 was a particularly wet year with water inundation
206 throughout the arroyo floodplains, we expected to find arroyo water recharging to nearby wells,
207 in addition to infiltration of local rain to the upper aquifer.

208

209 The models that support the Livermore Valley Groundwater Basin Alt-GSP calculate the total
210 volume of recharge across entire reaches of the gaged arroyo but do not account for
211 heterogeneity within reaches. We expect more infiltration will occur in the upstream portions of
212 the arroyos, where there is open space and agriculture, and where the natural arroyo channels are
213 composed of gravel. In contrast, we expect the downstream portions of the arroyos will have
214 relatively less infiltration as the arroyos are underlain with clays or concrete-lined engineered
215 channels in urban areas and surrounded by paved surfaces. We therefore used isotope
216 geochemistry to investigate the spatial variation in recharge mechanisms, in terms of the distance
217 of the wells from the recharge sources and the land use surrounding the sampled wells.

218

219 ***2.2.1 Isotopes as Hydrological Tracers***

220 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^2\text{H}$, colloquially referred to as “water stable isotopes”, have been applied in urban
221 hydrology to distinguish water sources (e.g. groundwater or surface waters) and seasonality
222 (Jameel et al., 2018; Marx et al., 2021; Visser et al., 2018). While stable water isotopes have
223 been used to understand the seasonal origin of a given water sample, this requires a distinct
224 seasonal signal in the surface waters which is not available in semi-arid regions with highly
225 variable input signatures and further complicated by engineered systems importing water from
226 multiple locations (Mamand & Mawlood, 2023; Xia et al., 2023; Ye et al., 2022).

227

228 ^{35}S is a naturally occurring short-lived radioisotope with a half-life of 87 days (Brothers et al.,
229 2010). Cosmogenic ^{35}S , produced from the spallation of argon-40 in the upper atmosphere by
230 cosmic rays, is oxidized to $^{35}\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ (Schubert et al., 2020). The ^{35}S isotope system is a recently
231 developed tracer for groundwater, and has been applied to understand hydrology in high
232 elevation, mountainous watersheds with little human impact (Deinhart et al., 2021; Michel &
233 Natfz, 1995; Priyadarshi et al., 2014; Shanley et al., 2005; Urióstegui et al., 2017; Visser et al.,
234 2019). Method development studies have been applied in low-elevation, human-impacted
235 (urban) MAR systems, but these studies have not yet used ^{35}S to characterize mixing between
236 multiple sources or recharge waters (Clark et al., 2016; Urióstegui et al., 2015). Other studies
237 have shown the variation in ^{35}S in precipitation as having some utility as scaled with other
238 cosmogenic isotope tracers such as beryllium-7 and tritium (^3H) (Schubert et al., 2020; Schubert
239 et al., 2021; Yoon et al., 2023).

240

241 ^3H is a naturally-occurring radioisotope of hydrogen that is produced by cosmic radiation in the
242 upper atmosphere (Poluianov et al., 2020). Anthropogenic sources of tritium include nuclear
243 power reactors and research facilities. Legacy tritium from above-ground nuclear testing still
244 resides in the oceans and in groundwater that recharged between 1950 and 1990 (Clark & Fritz,
245 1997). With a half-life of 12.3 years, it has been applied as a natural tracer for calculating
246 groundwater age and distinguishing between modern groundwater (recharged after 1950) and
247 pre-modern groundwater (recharged before 1950) (Carlson et al., 2011; Di Renzo et al., 2023;
248 Lindsey et al.; Telloli et al., 2022; Visser et al., 2016).

249

250 ***2.2.2 Isotope Sample Collection***

251 Water samples were collected from regionally representative precipitation, surface waters, and
252 groundwater wells. Groundwater samples were analyzed to identify which one of three potential
253 sources contributed to recharge: (1) infiltration of local precipitation, (2) infiltration of arroyo
254 waters during natural flows (e.g. winter flooding), and (3) infiltration of arroyo waters during the
255 diversion of imported water into the arroyos. To make the distinction between these three
256 endmembers, the isotopic signature of each potential recharge water source was analyzed
257 throughout WY23.

258

259 Precipitation was collected daily for $\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ analyses since 2017 at the same location, with
260 ~10 km of the study sites (n = 176, nwY23 = 47). Monthly integrated samples for tritium analyses
261 were collected between December 2022 and March 2023 (n=6). Three ^{35}S precipitation samples
262 were collected in Oakland (CA), 64 km west of Livermore, as part of a separate study.

263

264 Surface waters were sampled for $\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ analyses (n = 36), tritium (n = 26), and ^{35}S (n =
265 26) to understand the temporal variability of isotopic signatures in the potential surface water
266 inputs to the Livermore aquifer system. AM was sampled repeatedly at Concannon Road (Figure
267 1). Additional samples were collected higher up in the watershed, just below the SBA culvert,
268 and further downstream in an area with surface water – groundwater exchange (Figure 1). AV
269 was repeatedly sampled at Sycamore Grove and additional samples were collected from
270 Reservoir Del Valle, upstream of the Livermore basin (Figure 1).

271

272 We sampled 25 groundwater wells at variable distances from both arroyo systems. The midpoint
273 depth of the screened interval ranged from 3.5 to 93 m with an average depth of 27.1 m. 17 wells
274 were screened in the upper aquifer and 8 nested wells were sampled to identify potential
275 connectivity between the upper and lower, confined aquifer. Wells were sampled for $\delta^2\text{H}$ and
276 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (n = 34, with 8 resampled wells, 25 distinct wells), ^3H (n = 5), and ^{35}S (n = 23, with 6
277 resampled wells, 16 distinct wells) by the authors and by Blaine Tech Services (San Jose) in
278 summer and fall 2023. Wells were purged until the specific conductance and pH measured by a
279 multiparameter probe (ThermoProbe, Inc., Pearl, USA) were stable for at least 10 minutes prior
280 to sample collection.

281

282 **2.3 Procedures for Field Collection and Laboratory Analyses**

283 Water samples for $\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ analyses were collected in dry 20 mL glass vials with polyseal
284 cone caps to prevent evaporation. Liquid water samples were analyzed using a cavity ring down
285 spectroscopy instrument (L-2140i; Picarro, Inc., Santa Clara, CA, USA). Stable isotope values
286 are reported using δ notation, where $\delta = (\text{R}_{\text{sample}}/\text{R}_{\text{standard}}) - 1$. In this notation, R_{sample} and $\text{R}_{\text{standard}}$
287 are the $^2\text{H}/^1\text{H}$ or $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$ ratios for the sample and standard, respectively, and referenced to the
288 Vienna standard mean ocean water standard (Coplen, 1995). The standard deviation of repeated
289 analyses of calibration standards run for each sample set ranged from 0.07 to 0.16‰ for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$,

290 and 0.15 to 0.46‰ for $\delta^2\text{H}$, which we take to represent the uncertainty of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^2\text{H}$
291 measurements herein.

292

293 ^{35}S samples were collected in clean 20 L High-Density Polyethylene (HDPE) containers that
294 were triple-rinsed with sample water before collection. Samples were analyzed following
295 procedures and error propagation described in (Deinhart et al., 2021). Sulfate content was on
296 average 20 mg/L for groundwaters and 35 mg/L for surface waters. For precipitation samples
297 with very low sulfate concentration, a sodium sulfate carrier was added. Briefly, sulfate was
298 concentrated using 20 g Amberlite anion exchange resin, eluted with 150 mL sodium chloride,
299 and organics were cleaned with 10 mL of 10% nitric acid and 3 mL of 30% hydrogen peroxide.
300 Sulfate was then precipitated as barium sulfate by addition of barium chloride, decanted of acid,
301 rinsed with deionized water and dried. The sulfate was then suspended in an Instagel Plus liquid
302 scintillator cocktail. Samples were analyzed via low level beta decay counting in a 1220
303 QUANTULUS Ultra Low Level Liquid Scintillation Spectrometer (PerkinElmer, Shelton,
304 U.S.A.). The analytical error (2σ) ranged from 0.09 to 0.37 mBq/L and represents the nuclear
305 counting error. Typically, because it exceeds 20% of the activity value, propagating the smaller
306 source of errors is not a significant contributor to the overall error budget in light of the low
307 count rates (Currie, 1968). The Minimum Detectable Activity (MDA) ranged from 0.11 to 0.40
308 mBq/L with a mean of 0.31 mBq/L (SD = 0.07 mBq/L, n = 49). Duplicate samples were
309 collected to constrain uncertainty and are discussed in the Supplemental Information. Because of
310 the 87-day half-life of ^{35}S , the activity concentrations were decay-corrected to 1 July 2023 and 1
311 October 2023, to directly compare surface and ground water activities.

312

313 Tritium samples were collected in 1L clean HDPE bottles and analyzed by helium-3 in-growth
314 (Clarke et al., 1976; Surano et al., 1992). 500 mL was loaded into a stainless steel container. The
315 atmospheric gases, including helium-3, were removed from the sample with a turbomolecular
316 pump. The samples were stored under vacuum for a minimum of three weeks to accumulate
317 helium-3 from tritium decay. Helium-3 was measured on a VG5400 sector field mass
318 spectrometer system with an automated sample processing manifold. The instrument detection
319 limit was 1 pCi/L.

320

321

322 **3. RESULTS**

323

324 **3.1 Arroyo Flows and Composition**

325 Water diversions from the SBA in WY23 amounted to 9.4 million m³ (7.7 TAF) whereas
326 average imports were 8.4 million m³ (6.9 TAF) per year in the preceding decade (WY12-13 to
327 WY21-22). In comparison, less than 2 million m³ (1.6 TAF) were imported in each of the two
328 years leading up to our study due to the drought.

329

330 Storms in mid-winter (late December and January) and early spring (April) during WY23 led to
331 two episodes of high flows in both arroyos (Figure 3). AM recorded flows of up to 1.4 million
332 m³/day (or 1.1 TAF/day) on December 31, 2022. AV recorded flows of 5.1 million m³/day (or
333 4.2 TAF/day) on January 13, 2023. In the winter and spring months, the major contributors to
334 stream flow were natural flows (characterized as runoff from the hills and within the valley that
335 enter the arroyo channels) and flood water releases (water released into Arroyo Valle from the
336 Lake Del Valle Reservoir to alleviate reservoir flooding), with a notable mid-winter reservoir
337 release in AV. The imported water from the SBA was released intermittently in the winter when
338 there were very low flows in the arroyos and increased as a percent of stream flow through the
339 spring, reaching nearly 100% of stream water in June in AM and July in AV.

340

341 Based on the composition of water in the arroyos, we distinguish three periods of recharge in
342 WY23 for further isotopic analysis: 1) before the summer release of imported water (January-
343 June, time period 1), 2) during the summer release of imported water (July-August, time period
344 2), and 3) after the release of imported water (September-October, time period 3).

345

346 **3.2 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in Source Waters and Groundwater**

347 Stable water isotope signatures ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^2\text{H}$) were analyzed to understand differences and
348 temporal variability in groundwater recharge sources. We describe here the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ data, while $\delta^2\text{H}$
349 data are reported in the Supplemental Information as the interpretation aligns closely with the
350 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ data. Only $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of WY23 precipitation ranged from -16.37 to -3.71‰ (Figure 4A). The

351 weighted mean was -8.16‰ (SD = 2.44‰) based on the recorded precipitation amount
352 associated with each $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ sample.

353
354 Figure 4B shows the variation of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values in the arroyos over the sampling period. Time
355 period 1 included samples from winter and spring, before imported water from the SBA is
356 released in the summer. Combined, the arroyo mean $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values for time period 1 was -8.38‰
357 (SD = 0.89‰, n = 9), similar to the weighted mean of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of precipitation (Table 1).
358 Arroyo data are discussed further in the Supplemental Information. In time period 2, the summer
359 release of imported water resulted in lower values of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (Table 1). Combined, the arroyo mean
360 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ for time period 2 was -10.87‰ (SD = 1.05‰, n = 17). Combined, the arroyo mean for time
361 period 3 was -8.89‰ (SD = 1.26‰, n = 8), generally trending towards higher values over time
362 (Table 1).

363
364 Three groundwater samples have $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ signatures of -2.81 to -1.29‰, which we attribute to
365 evaporative fractionation, supported by D-excess values discussed in the Supplemental
366 Information. The remaining 31 groundwater $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ samples ranged from -10.98‰ to -6.48‰
367 (Figure 4C). Two of these wells had $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values less than -10‰, close to the signature of
368 imported water. The other 29 samples from 21 wells had $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values with a mean of -7.61‰
369 (SD_{gw-local} = 0.62‰). These signatures are similar to the local precipitation $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values as well as
370 surface water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values from time period 1. One well, 33C1, had a $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of -10.2‰
371 during time period 2, near the range of imported water and a $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of -7.2‰ in time period
372 3, within the expected range of local precipitation when it was resampled.

373
374 **3.3 ^{35}S in Source Waters and Groundwater**

375 Precipitation and surface water samples were analyzed for ^{35}S to identify same-year recharge
376 (WY23) in groundwater wells. We summarize these results below and show the measured
377 activities in Figure 5.

378
379 The three precipitation samples collected in February and March of 2023 had ^{35}S activities of
380 2.99 ± 0.22 , 3.13 ± 0.23 , and 4.69 ± 0.27 mBq/L, representing 20, 5, and 33 mm of precipitation
381 respectively. This accounts for less than 10% of the annual precipitation, a limitation discussed

382 further in Section 4.4. Decay-corrected to July 1, the concentration of ^{35}S in precipitation ranged
383 from 1.09 ± 0.1 mBq/L. Decay-corrected to October 1, ^{35}S concentrations in
384 precipitation would have decreased to an upper value of 0.83 ± 0.05 and a lower value of $0.52 \pm$
385 0.04 mBq/L, which is near the average MDA of 0.31 mBq/L (Table 1). Groundwater samples
386 entirely recharged by new precipitation would therefore have a detectable ^{35}S concentration,
387 whereas we would interpret groundwater with no ^{35}S to (qualitatively) have no same-year
388 recharge.

389

390 ^{35}S was detected in 12 of 23 surface waters samples. The surface water ^{35}S activities at the time
391 of measurement ranged from 1.0 ± 0.33 mBq/L to non-detectable values. The mean of detectable
392 activities for all three time periods was 0.56 mBq/L (SD = 0.25 mBq/L). The detectable activities
393 of time periods 1 and 2 were decay-corrected to July 1 and range from 0.28 ± 0.15 to 0.85 ± 0.30
394 mBq/L (mean = 0.54 , SD = 0.22 , n = 10). All detectable surface water concentrations from time
395 period 3 were decay-corrected to October 1 and ranged from 0.9 ± 0.32 and 0.28 ± 0.26 mBq/L
396 (mean = 0.56 , SD = 0.25 , n = 12) (Table 1).

397

398 ^{35}S was detected in nine out of 23 groundwater samples collected from 16 wells. The
399 groundwater ^{35}S activities ranged from non-detectable to 1.53 mBq/L. Well 22B1 was resampled
400 three times: ^{35}S was detected in two summer samples (0.35 ± 0.28 mBq/L and 0.56 ± 0.32
401 mBq/L) but not in the sample collected in the fall. Three wells (16P5, 29F4, and 33C1) were
402 sampled twice. ^{35}S was detected in all three summer samples (1.53 ± 0.37 , 1.20 ± 0.35 , and 0.42
403 ± 0.32 mBq/L, respectively) but none had detectable ^{35}S in fall. Well 18E1 was also sampled
404 twice, with non-detectable ^{35}S activity both times (Table 2).

405

406 **3.4 ^3H in Source Waters and Groundwater**

407 A total of 37 ^3H samples were analyzed to understand groundwater transit times, the results of
408 which are summarized below.

409

410 Potential sources of recharge (precipitation and surface waters) had indistinguishable ^3H
411 activities. Tritium in precipitation ranged from 5.34 ± 0.30 to 12.56 ± 0.60 pCi/L (mean = 9.0 ,
412 SD = 2.2 pCi/L, n = 5). The lowest concentration (5.34 pCi/L) was measured in a sample

413 representing a large single-day precipitation event on January 1, 2023. The precipitation
414 weighted mean concentration was 8.2 pCi/L (Table 1). Tritium in arroyo waters varied from
415 7.59 ± 0.57 to 10.32 ± 0.45 pCi/L (mean = 8.44, SD = 0.78 pCi/L, n = 11) in winter and spring
416 (Time period 1), and 10.47 ± 0.56 pCi/L (n = 1) in summer (Time period 2). One additional
417 sample representing the natural arroyo stream signatures (collected upstream of the imported
418 water input) had a lower ^3H activity of 5.93 ± 0.55 pCi/L. Two samples from Time period 3 had
419 ^3H activities of 8.10 ± 0.63 and 8.63 ± 0.63 pCi/L (Table 1).

420

421 Out of 5 groundwater samples, two (16P5, 9.37 ± 0.55 pCi/L; 33C1, 7.51 ± 1.30 pCi/L) were
422 within measurement error of all three sources (Table 2). One groundwater sample (26J2, $6.83 \pm$
423 0.75 pCi/L) represents either a mixture of new recharge and older water, or water that entirely
424 recharged before 2023. One well sample (29F4) had a low tritium concentration (1.52 ± 0.65
425 pCi/L), which, assuming an initial ^3H tritium concentration of 8.2 pCi/L (from the measured
426 local precipitation), indicates a travel time of 24-43 years. One well sample (18E1) did not
427 contain tritium above the detection limit (1 pCi/L) which indicates it recharged entirely before
428 the 1950s.

429

430

431 **4. DISCUSSION**

432 The discussion section is organized around three objectives: (1) characterize the combined
433 isotopic signature of potential recharge sources, (2) identify the source of recharge to
434 groundwater in the Livermore basin, particularly new recharge, and (3) analyze the land use
435 surrounding wells that receive new recharge.

436

437 **4.1 Characterizing the Isotopic Signatures of Potential Recharge Waters**

438 First, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ monitoring enabled us to distinguish local versus imported water as potential sources
439 of recharge. Using the precipitation $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and the temporal variation of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in surface waters, we
440 describe two primary sources of water. Local precipitation, including natural flow arroyo waters,
441 is characterized by the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values ranging from $-10\text{\textperthousand}$ to $-5\text{\textperthousand}$, based on the precipitation
442 weighted mean and mean values of the arroyos in time period 1. Imported arroyo waters are
443 characterized by $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values below $-10\text{\textperthousand}$, based on surface water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values in time period 2.

444 In September and October (during time period 3), $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values in AM and AV waters increase,
445 which may indicate mixing of imported and local precipitation due to a larger component of
446 locally recharged groundwater discharge, or evaporation of surface waters (thereby increasing
447 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values) through the dry season. Electrical conductivity values of these waters also trend
448 slightly higher during this time, which supports the interpretation of increasing evaporation
449 during these months and the potential for local groundwater discharge (see Supplementary
450 Information for more details).

451

452 Because the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ signatures of wintertime arroyo waters and local precipitation from WY23 are
453 identical, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values cannot distinguish between these two sources. In contrast, the difference in
454 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values between arroyo water during time period 1 (winter and spring, runoff from the local
455 watershed) and arroyo water during time period 2, (representing the influx of water imports to
456 the arroyos) is 2.5‰. This difference is larger than the combined $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ uncertainty of the two
457 recharge source types (local versus imported) (1.94‰) which enables a clear distinction of the
458 source of recharge to nearby wells.

459

460 While the source of arroyo waters in time period 1 (January-June 2023) is aligned with a local
461 precipitation source according to the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ signature, the low ^{35}S activity in the arroyos suggests
462 that arroyo samples in time period 1 contain a large proportion of “older” water (in the
463 qualitative context of ^{35}S , this is limited to mean water which fell as precipitation some time
464 prior to WY23). This is consistent with the low ^3H concentration ($5.93 \pm 0.55 \text{ pCi/L}$) in the
465 sample collected in July 2023 from higher up in the watershed of AM (upstream of the imported
466 water input) in which ^{35}S was not detected.

467

468 In time period 2 and 3, July through October 2023, more frequent detections of ^{35}S activity in
469 arroyo surface water indicate, qualitatively, some detectable proportion of WY23 precipitation in
470 the streams, more frequently than in time period 1. In the same period $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values were also
471 gradually increasing towards local precipitation values.

472

473 We summarize the combined isotopic signatures in Table 1 to describe the potential recharge
474 inputs to the Zone 7 Groundwater Basin. The higher precipitation ^{35}S activities enable distinction

475 between direct precipitation recharge and surface water recharge in time period 1 (winter and
476 spring) when both sources have high $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values. In time period 2, the low $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ signature of
477 imported water enables the distinction from local recharge. In time period 3 (after Oct 1st), decay
478 of ^{35}S resulted in low concentrations in direct recharge of local precipitation, which are now
479 similar to arroyo waters in this period. In this time period 3, winter arroyo recharge and prior
480 year recharge will both have non-detectable ^{35}S activities.

481

482 We decay-corrected ^{35}S data from precipitation and surface waters to enable direct comparisons
483 with groundwaters. Groundwater samples collected in time period 2 are compared to
484 precipitation and surface waters from time periods 1 and 2. For this comparison, the lowest
485 concentration of ^{35}S in precipitation, decay-corrected to 1 July 2023, is $1.09 \pm 0.09 \text{ mBq/L}$
486 whereas the highest concentration of ^{35}S in local arroyo waters, decay-corrected to 1 July 2023,
487 is $0.55 \pm 0.22 \text{ mBq/L}$. This difference of 0.23 to 0.41 mBq/L (accounting for measurement
488 errors) enables the distinction between these two sources, which are similar in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and ^3H
489 values. Imported arroyo waters in time period 2 have distinctly lower $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ signatures.

490

491 Groundwaters collected during time period 3 are compared to precipitation and surface water
492 signatures from all time periods. The lowest concentration of ^{35}S in precipitation, decay-
493 corrected to 1 October 2023, is 0.52 mBq/L whereas the highest concentration of ^{35}S in arroyo
494 waters, decay-corrected to 1 October 2023, is below the typical detection limit (0.26 mBq/L).
495 This difference enables the distinction between these two sources, which are similar in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and
496 ^3H . Imported arroyo waters still have distinctly lower $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ signatures. However, arroyo waters in
497 this time period have ^{35}S concentrations up to 0.9 mBq/L . That makes it impossible to
498 distinguish arroyo recharge in this period from direct precipitation recharge in winter.

499

500 **4.2 Detecting Flood-MAR in the Livermore Valley Groundwater Basin**

501 We combined $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, ^3H , and ^{35}S analyses from 16 wells in Figure 6 to identify the likely source
502 water of each groundwater sample (Table 2).

503

504 **Infiltration of WY23 precipitation (n=3):** Of the 9 wells sampled during July 2023, three wells
505 (26J2, 16P5, and 33C1) yielded ^{35}S activities above $0.99 \pm 0.35 \text{ mBq/L}$. These ^{35}S activities are

506 higher than the highest ^{35}S activities found in arroyo waters, making it unlikely that the arroyos
507 are the sole source of recharge. The similarity with precipitation concentrations suggests that
508 these samples have a large proportion of WY23 precipitation recharge.

509

510 The source of water in two of the three wells, 26J2 ($\delta^{18}\text{O} = -7.18\text{\textperthousand}$ in July) and 16P5 ($\delta^{18}\text{O} =$
511 $7.55\text{\textperthousand}$ in June, $-8.24\text{\textperthousand}$ in October) is local precipitation (Table 2). These two wells were
512 categorized with mixed and modern ^3H -interpreted age categories, respectively, further
513 supporting the interpretation that they receive a portion of rapid recharge. This combination of
514 signatures indicates that direct infiltrations of new WY23 precipitation is the source of recharge
515 to these wells.

516

517 In contrast, the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of 33C1, which has a screened interval depth from 1.5 to 6 m, varied
518 from $-10.18\text{\textperthousand}$ in July (when ^{35}S was detectable) to $-7.22\text{\textperthousand}$ in November (when ^{35}S was not
519 detected). We attribute the variation in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values to very rapid recharge of precipitation with
520 insufficient time for dispersion and mixing to smooth the variability of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in precipitation or to
521 a change in recharge source from imported waters to locally sourced natural flow. This is
522 supported by the modern ^3H signature.

523

524 **Infiltration of WY23 precipitation mixed with ambient groundwater (n=3):** Three wells
525 (20C8, 22B1, 29F4) yielded detectable, but lower ^{35}S activities, not necessarily overlapping with
526 the expected ^{35}S activity of precipitation. Given the non-detectable decay-corrected ^{35}S activities
527 for natural arroyo waters, we interpret these samples to have a component of direct infiltration of
528 local precipitation. 22B1 was sampled three times, with detectable ^{35}S activities in June and July,
529 and no detectable ^{35}S activity in fall. We interpret this result as young water mixing with pre-
530 WY23 (low ^{35}S activity) waters. Alternatively, the decrease in ^{35}S activity is due to ^{35}S decay
531 over approximately one half-life between samples. Combining this interpretation with the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$
532 value of local precipitation source signals ($\delta^{18}\text{O} > -8\text{\textperthousand}$), these wells likely represent a mixture of
533 young and old local water due to dispersion within the groundwater flow paths. Well 29F4 had a
534 ^3H -interpreted age category of mixed ages.

535

536 The detection of ^{35}S ($0.73 \pm 0.30 \text{ mBq/L}$) in well 20C8 is notable because ^{35}S was not detected in
537 well 20C7, a well from the same location with a shallower screened interval (20-44 m depth),
538 where 20C8 has a screened interval from 90 to 96 m depth. Both wells were sampled in July. The
539 20C8 sample is from the Lower Aquifer, the Upper Livermore Formation, and there is thought to
540 be an aquitard separating it from Upper (alluvial) Aquifer from which the 20C7 samples was
541 taken. There may be channels of gravel between the two screened sections, however the well log
542 lithological description does record clay in between these screened intervals.

543

544 **Pond recharge with evaporated $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (n = 2):** The two wells (10N2 and 10N3) with high $\delta^{18}\text{O}$
545 values ($\delta^{18}\text{O} > -3\text{\textperthousand}$), indicative of evaporated water, are likely sourced from water infiltrating
546 from nearby gravel quarry ponds (Figure 1A). Low but detectable ^{35}S activities in these wells
547 indicate that WY23 precipitation mixed in the settling ponds and then infiltrated the local
548 aquifer.

549

550 **Local pre-WY23 recharge (n=7):** We characterize seven wells (18E2, 19N3, 19N4, 20C7,
551 22D2, 23E2, and 6E4) as local, pre-WY23 recharge based on $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ signatures within the range of
552 local precipitation (-6.5 to -8.7 \textperthousand) and non-detectable ^{35}S activities. Non-detectable tritium in
553 well 18E2 indicates pre-modern recharge, eliminating recharge from arroyos in time period 1 as
554 a possibility.

555

556 **Imported arroyo water recharge (n=1):** Well 33G1 had a $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value ($\delta^{18}\text{O} = -11\text{\textperthousand}$) similar to
557 imported arroyo waters recharged primarily from summer SBA releases in time period 2. The
558 non-detectable ^{35}S activity is consistent with non-detectable results in the arroyos in this period.

559

560 **4.3 Spatial Variation of Recharge Along the Arroyo**

561 Wells in the upper sections of the arroyo, especially above the SBA input, are surrounded by
562 open space that includes natural reserves and agriculture. While we expected younger water
563 (faster recharge) to be found in these upstream regions where the alluvial aquifer is thin and the
564 wells are shallow, we did not find evidence in the collected isotopic data. Instead, the distribution
565 of water sources and isotope-derived ages varies across the study area (Figure 7). Lateral
566 distance and well depth did not correlate with water source or isotopic age (more detail in the

567 Supplemental Information). It is possible that sediment channels of coarse grained materials may
568 provide “fast paths” between surface waters and sampled wells, but this was not able to be
569 determined with lithologies in well construction records, discussed further in the Supplemental
570 Information. Overall, our results suggest that recharge along the arroyo is more heterogeneous
571 than indicated by current modelling.

572

573 Wells with recent recharge (16P5, 26J2) are in agricultural land and an urban park, whereas the
574 wells with non-detectable ^{35}S are found in more highly paved areas. We conclude the
575 surrounding open space enabled fast infiltration of local precipitation.

576

577 In contrast, well 33C1 was interesting because of its young recharge (high ^{35}S and ^{3}H activities),
578 as well as a variable water source. This well is close to the diversion point for SBA imported
579 water, which may contribute to the rapid change in water source, suggesting that the arroyo
580 channel is responsible as a mechanism of recharge in this location. The other well close to the
581 SBA input in AM (26J2) had young water but did not show a change in source during the study
582 period.

583

584 The location of these three young wells is notable because they are in unpaved, open spaces even
585 within an urban area. These might be important recharge sites as well as providing urban green
586 spaces, which are also associated with social co-benefits (Barron et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2019;
587 Kingsley & EcoHealth, 2019).

588

589 Inactive gravel mine ponds are sources of groundwater recharge, containing a mix of diverted
590 water, local precipitation, and flood waters. Two wells that are close to these mine ponds (and
591 more than 1 km away from the arroyo) show evidence of new recharge and of evaporative
592 fractionation. This combination suggests that the mine settling ponds are the source of water for
593 these wells.

594

595 Seven wells have no evidence of recent recharge. They are all within 170 m of the arroyos, some
596 as close as 50 m, and within 65 m below ground surface, some as shallow as 20 m, both along

597 the upper reaches of the arroyos and in the lower basin. These data points suggest that arroyo
598 recharge is localized and help refine our understanding of groundwater recharge in the basin.

599

600 **4.4 Limitations and Transferability**

601 This study provides promising applications for combined isotopic analysis in highly managed
602 aquifers. We found that ^{35}S can distinguish precipitation from surface waters recharged in the
603 winter and spring seasons. Consequently, the connections to groundwater recharge may be better
604 identified with early-season (winter and spring) groundwater sampling, if very rapid recharge is
605 occurring.

606

607 The combined analyses of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, ^{35}S , and ^3H signatures supported our understanding of the timing
608 of recharge from local water via flood-MAR. ^{35}S may be less applicable at MAR facilities
609 supplied by imported waters that contain a larger proportion of water from prior water years,
610 because initial concentrations are too low to distinguish sources or calculate ages, also noted in
611 previous urban MAR studies (Clark et al., 2016).

612

613 The methods developed here provide the basis for further investigation of the mechanisms or
614 sites for urban groundwater recharge (ponds, arroyo floodplains, and dispersed recharge in open
615 spaces). The relationship between open, unpaved spaces and groundwater recharge in both
616 agricultural and urban environments can also be better constrained with additional sampling in
617 paved and relatively more permeable land surface areas. These techniques, carefully applied, can
618 identify regions with high potential for groundwater recharge, highlighting the importance for
619 land-use decision-making for sustainable water management and compliance with legislation
620 such as SGMA.

621

622 If a single recharge source and ^{35}S activity from the MAR basin infiltration can be assumed,
623 transit times between the recharge source and sample collection point can be calculated (Clark et
624 al., 2016; Schubert et al., 2020; Urióstegui et al., 2017; Yoon et al., 2023). Due to the potential
625 for multiple source waters and mixing, precise transit time calculations are not feasible in this
626 setting.

627

628 Three precipitation samples from WY23 are not enough to capture the uncertainty in the
629 potential precipitation inputs to the surface and groundwater systems. High precipitation rates in
630 WY23 (600 mm, 170% of the average annual precipitation) likely resulted in lower ^{35}S activity
631 in precipitation due to dilution, limiting the applicability of ^{35}S as a tracer (Schubert et al., 2020;
632 Schubert et al., 2021). A prior reconstruction of ^{35}S in precipitation calculated a precipitation-
633 weighted mean value of 24.2 mBq/L for a research site in the Sierra Nevada, 300 km southeast
634 of Livermore at an elevation of 2 km, with sample concentrations ranging from 3 to 103 mBq/L
635 (Visser et al., 2019). The high elevation and greater distance to the Pacific Ocean are likely
636 causes for higher ^{35}S activities at that location. Subsequent measurements of local Livermore
637 precipitation in WY24 also indicate higher ^{35}S activities in precipitation, with a precipitation-
638 weighted mean of 9.2 mBq/L (discussed further in the Supplemental Information). Higher input
639 (precipitation) concentrations may have resulted in more detections in groundwater and lower
640 relative uncertainties around measured concentrations. They would furthermore enable
641 quantifying mixing ratios with associated uncertainties. However, the drivers of the ^{35}S
642 production and deposition are insufficiently known to accurately reconstruct WY23 precipitation
643 activities.

644

645 ^{35}S concentrations in the arroyo samples were lower than expected, despite the high flow rates in
646 response to precipitation events. Despite the drought years preceding WY23, it appears arroyo
647 waters contained a large proportion of water that fell as precipitation in prior water years. Low
648 proportions of new water (30% on average) were also found in a steep research catchment in the
649 Sierra Nevada (Visser et al., 2019). Average ^{35}S activities in that watershed ranged from 6% to
650 28% of the ^{35}S activity measured in precipitation. ^{35}S as a tracer of MAR water appears to be
651 limited to situations with relatively high inputs and limited contributions of local precipitation
652 recharge, such as the MAR facilities in the Los Angeles basin (Clark et al., 2016; Urióstegui et
653 al., 2017); however, it can be a sensitive tracer to identify local precipitation recharge,
654 illustrating how land use enables infiltration of extreme precipitation events.

655

656

657 **5. CONCLUSION**

658 A combination of natural isotopic tracers allows for a reconstruction of recharge mechanisms.
659 Direct infiltration of precipitation can be detected in groundwater thanks to high ^{35}S
660 concentrations in precipitation. However, low ^{35}S activities in arroyo waters complicate the
661 distinction between stream infiltration and ambient (pre-WY23) groundwater. Differences in
662 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ between imported and local water allow for reliable source identification. Additional age
663 tracer data (e.g. ^{3}H) helps confirm the presence or absence of new infiltration. It should be noted
664 that monitoring the signatures in all possible recharge sources (e.g. surface waters and
665 precipitation) is necessary when source signatures are variable, either naturally or due to
666 management actions.

667

668 Recharge is heterogeneous. Isotopic contrasts at short distances and a lack of consistent patterns
669 with depth or distance to arroyos illustrate the complexity of recharge. This complexity needs to
670 be incorporated in scientific and operational models of groundwater recharge to make reliable
671 predictions of how groundwater basins will respond to climate impacts on precipitation and
672 flooding.

673

674 In conclusion, ^{35}S is a promising isotope system for identifying infiltration of local precipitation,
675 particularly in situations where permeable surfaces are installed as MAR mechanisms. The short
676 half-life of ^{35}S allows for the identification and quantification of new recharge in complex
677 settings, where seasonal variation in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ is unpredictable and residence times are too short for
678 ^{3}H age determination. Water managers can implement these tools on a broad scale to better
679 understand the interaction between groundwater and surface water, optimize infiltration, and
680 protect groundwater dependent ecosystems. Water managers and researchers alike can benefit
681 from ^{35}S analyses in settings with water augmentation to understand fast recharge pathways.

682

683

684 **6. ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

685 Part of this work was performed under the auspices of the U.S. Department of Energy by
686 Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory under Contract DE-AC52-07NA27344, with funding
687 from the Laboratory Directed Research and Development (LDRD) program (23-ERD-039).

688 LLNL-JRNL-865947. We thank Dr. M. Smith for collecting precipitation samples in Livermore
689 for water stable isotope analysis.

690

691

692 DATA AVAILABILITY

693 Research Data associated with this article are included in Supplementary Information Tables S1-
694 S8.

695

696 REFERENCES

697 Águila, J. F., Samper, J., & Pisani, B. (2019). Parametric and numerical analysis of the
698 estimation of groundwater recharge from water-table fluctuations in heterogeneous
699 unconfined aquifers. *Hydrogeology Journal*, 27(4), 1309-1328.
700 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10040-018-1908-x>

701 Akyuz, F. A. (2017). *Drought Severity and Coverage Index. United States Drought Monitor*.
702 <https://droughtmonitor.unl.edu/About/AbouttheData/DSCI.aspx>

703 Barron, S., Nitoslawski, S., Wolf, K. L., Woo, A., Desautels, E., & Sheppard, S. R. J. (2019).
704 Greening Blocks: A Conceptual Typology of Practical Design Interventions to Integrate
705 Health and Climate Resilience Co-Benefits. *Int J Environ Res Public Health*, 16(21).
706 <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16214241>

707 Brothers, L. A., Dominguez, G., Abramian, A., Corbin, A., Bluen, B., & Thiemens, M. H. (2010).
708 Optimized low-level liquid scintillation spectroscopy of ^{35}S for atmospheric and
709 biogeochemical chemistry applications. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*, 107(12), 5311-5316.
710 <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0901168107>

711 Carlson, M. A., Lohse, K. A., McIntosh, J. C., & McLain, J. E. T. (2011). Impacts of urbanization
712 on groundwater quality and recharge in a semi-arid alluvial basin. *Journal of Hydrology*,
713 409(1-2), 196-211. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2011.08.020>

714 Carpenter, D. W., Sweeney, J. J., Kasameyer, P. W., Burkhard, N. R., Knauss, K. G., &
715 Shlemon, R. J. (1984). *Geology of the Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory site and*
716 *adjacent areas* (UCRL-53316).

717 Chen, L.-M., Chen, J.-W., Chen, T.-H., Lecher, T., & Davidson, P. (2019). Measurement of
718 Permeability and Comparison of Pavements. *Water*, 11(3).
719 <https://doi.org/10.3390/w11030444>

720 CIMIS. (2024). *California Irrigation Management Information System. CIMIS Monthly Average*
721 *ETo Report: Pleasanton*
722 <https://cimis.water.ca.gov/UserControls/Reports/MonthlyEtoReportViewer.aspx>

723 Clark, I. D., & Fritz, P. (1997). *Environmental Isotopes in Hydrogeology Environmental Isotopes*
724 *in Hydrogeology* CRC press.

725 Clark, J., Urióstegui, S., Bibby, R., Esser, B., & Tredoux, G. (2016). Quantifying Apparent
726 Groundwater Ages near Managed Aquifer Recharge Operations Using Radio-Sulfur
727 (^{35}S) as an Intrinsic Tracer. *Water*, 8(11). <https://doi.org/10.3390/w8110474>

728 Clarke, W. B., Jenkins, W. J., & Top, Z. (1976). Determination of tritium by mass spectrometric
729 measurement of ^{3}He . *The international journal of applied radiation and isotopes*, 27(9),
730 515-522.

731 Coplen, T. B. (1995). Reporting of stable hydrogen, carbon, and oxygen isotopic abundances.
732 *Geothermics*, 5(24), 707-712.

733 Council, N. R. M. M. (2009). *Australian guidelines for water recycling: Managing health and*
734 *environmental risks (phase 2), managed aquifer recharge.* (National Water Quality
735 Management Strategy Document no 24., Issue.

736 Currie, L. A. (1968). Limits for qualitative detection and quantitative determination. Application to
737 radiochemistry. *Analytical chemistry*, 40(3), 586-593.

738 Deinhart, A. L., Bibby, R. K., Visser, A., Thaw, M., & Thomas, K. (2021). Simplified Method for
739 the In Situ Collection and Laboratory Analysis of Cosmogenic Tracers (Sulfur-35 and
740 Sodium-22) to Determine Residence Time Distributions and Water Ages. *Anal Chem*,
741 93(10), 4472-4478. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.analchem.0c04490>

742 Di Renzo, D., Rizzo, A., Telloli, C., Salvi, S., Marrocchino, E., Nieto Yabar, D., & Vaccaro, C.
743 (2023). Geochemical and isotopic tracers to define the aquifer's vulnerability: the case
744 study of the alluvial multi-aquifer system of the Friulian plain. *Environ Monit Assess*,
745 195(6), 781. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10661-023-11359-7>

746 Dillon, P. (2005). Future management of aquifer recharge. *Hydrogeology Journal*, 13(1), 313-
747 316. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10040-004-0413-6>

748 Dillon, P., Stuyfzand, P., Grischek, T., Lluria, M., Pyne, R. D. G., Jain, R. C., Bear, J., Schwarz,
749 J., Wang, W., Fernandez, E., Stefan, C., Pettenati, M., van der Gun, J., Sprenger, C.,
750 Massmann, G., Scanlon, B. R., Xanke, J., Jokela, P., Zheng, Y., . . . Sapiro, M. (2018).
751 Sixty years of global progress in managed aquifer recharge. *Hydrogeology Journal*,
752 27(1), 1-30. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10040-018-1841-z>

753 Hartzell, S., Leeds, A. L., Ramirez-Guzman, L., Allen, J. P., & Schmitt, R. G. (2016). Seismic
754 Site Characterization of an Urban Sedimentary Basin, Livermore Valley, California: Site
755 Response, Basin-Edge-Induced Surface Waves, and 3D Simulations. *Bulletin of the*
756 *Seismological Society of America*, 106(2), 609-631. <https://doi.org/10.1785/0120150289>

757 IGRAC. (2016). *International Groundwater Resources Assessment Centre, Global MAR*
758 *inventory.* Retrieved Feb 24 from <https://ggis.un-igrac.org/view/marportal/>

759 Jameel, Y., Brewer, S., Fiorella, R. P., Tipple, B. J., Terry, S., & Bowen, G. J. (2018). Isotopic
760 reconnaissance of urban water supply system dynamics. *Hydrology and Earth System*
761 *Sciences*, 22(11), 6109-6125. <https://doi.org/10.5194/hess-22-6109-2018>

762 Joël Casanova, N. D., and Marie Pettenati. Managed Aquifer Recharge: An Overview of Issues
763 and Options. In O. B. Anthony J. Jakeman, Randall J. Hunt, Jean-Daniel Rinaudo,
764 Andrew Ross (Ed.), *Integrated Groundwater Management* (pp. 413-434). Springer
765 International Publishing https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-23576-9_16

766 Kingsley, M., & EcoHealth, O. (2019). Commentary - Climate change, health and green space
767 co-benefits. *Health Promot Chronic Dis Prev Can*, 39(4), 131-135.
768 <https://doi.org/10.24095/hpcdp.39.4.04> (Commentaire - Changements climatiques, sante
769 et avantages connexes des espaces verts.)

770 Kirchner, J. W. (2019). Quantifying new water fractions and transit time distributions using
771 ensemble hydrograph separation: theory and benchmark tests. *Hydrology and Earth*
772 *System Sciences*, 23(1), 303-349. <https://doi.org/10.5194/hess-23-303-2019>

773 Klaus, J., & McDonnell, J. J. (2013). Hydrograph separation using stable isotopes: Review and
774 evaluation. *Journal of Hydrology*, 505, 47-64.
775 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2013.09.006>

776 Kuang, X., Liu, J., Scanlon, B. R., Jiao, J. J., Jasechko, S., Lancia, M., Biskaborn, B. K., Wada,
777 Y., Li, H., Zeng, Z., Guo, Z., Yao, Y., Gleeson, T., Nicot, J. P., Luo, X., Zou, Y., & Zheng,
778 C. (2024). The changing nature of groundwater in the global water cycle. *Science*,
779 383(6686), eadf0630. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.adf0630>

780 Kundzewicz, Z. W., & Döll, P. (2009). Will groundwater ease freshwater stress under climate
781 change? *Hydrological Sciences Journal*, 54(4), 665-675.
782 <https://doi.org/10.1623/hysj.54.4.665>

783 Lindsey, B. D., Jurgens, B. C., & Belitz, K. *Tritium as an Indicator of Modern, Mixed, and*
784 *Premodern Groundwater Age.*

785 Mamand, B. S., & Mawlood, D. K. (2023). Estimating Mean Residence Time of Groundwater in
786 Central Basin/Erbil using Environmental Isotopes. *Zanco Journal of Pure and Applied*
787 *Sciences*, 35(3), 39-46. <https://doi.org/10.21271/zjpas>

788 Marr, J., Dhillon, D., Arrate, D., Stygar, S., & Maendly, R. (2018). *FLOOD-MAR: Using Flood*
789 *Water for Managed Aquifer Recharge to Support Sustainable Water Resources.*

790 Marx, C., Tetzlaff, D., Hinkelmann, R., & Soulsby, C. (2021). Isotope hydrology and water
791 sources in a heavily urbanized stream. *Hydrological Processes*, 35(10).
792 <https://doi.org/10.1002/hyp.14377>

793 Michel, & Natfz. (1995). Use of sulfur-35 and tritium to study runoff from an alpine glacier, Wind
794 River Range, Wyoming.

795 Moore, K. B., Ekwurzel, B., Esser, B. K., Hudson, G. B., & Moran, J. E. (2006). Sources of
796 groundwater nitrate revealed using residence time and isotope methods. *Applied*
797 *Geochemistry*, 21(6), 1016-1029. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apgeochem.2006.03.008>

798 Moran, J. E., Hudson, G. B., Eaton, G. F., & Leif, R. (2002). *A Contamination Vulnerability*
799 *Assessment for the Livermore-Amador and Niles Cone Groundwater Basins.*

800 Poluijanov, S. V., Kovaltsov, G. A., & Usoskin, I. G. (2020). A New Full 3-D Model of
801 Cosmogenic Tritium $^{3\text{H}}$ Production in the Atmosphere (CRAC:3H). *Journal of*
802 *Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 125(18). <https://doi.org/10.1029/2020jd033147>

803 PRISM, C. G. (2014). *PRISM Climate Group, PRISM Climate Data*. Oregon State University.
804 <https://prism.oregonstate.edu>

805 Priyadarshi, A., Hill-Falkenthal, J., Thiemens, M., Zhang, Z., Lin, M., Chan, C. y., & Kang, S.
806 (2014). Cosmogenic ^{35}S measurements in the Tibetan Plateau to quantify glacier
807 snowmelt. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 119(7), 4125-4135.
808 <https://doi.org/10.1002/2013jd019801>

809 Ringleb, J., Sallwey, J., & Stefan, C. (2016). Assessment of Managed Aquifer Recharge through
810 Modeling—A Review. *Water*, 8(12). <https://doi.org/10.3390/w8120579>

811 Schubert, M., Knöller, K., Tegen, I., & Terzi, L. (2020). Variability of Cosmogenic ^{35}S in Rain—
812 Resulting Implications for the Use of Radiosulfur as Natural Groundwater Residence
813 Time Tracer. *Water*, 12(10). <https://doi.org/10.3390/w12102953>

814 Schubert, M., Weise, S. M., & Knoller, K. (2021). Atmospheric washout of ^{35}S during single
815 rain events - Implications for ^{35}S sampling schemes. *J Environ Radioact*, 237, 106669.
816 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvrad.2021.106669>

817 Shanley, J. B., Mayer, B., Mitchell, M. J., Michel, R. L., Bailey, S. W., & Kendall, C. (2005).
818 Tracing Sources of Streamwater Sulfate During Snowmelt Using S and O Isotope Ratios
819 of Sulfate and ^{35}S Activity. *Biogeochemistry*, 76(1), 161-185.
820 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10533-005-2856-9>

821 Siirila-Woodburn, E. R., Rhoades, A. M., Hatchett, B. J., Huning, L. S., Szinai, J., Tague, C.,
822 Nico, P. S., Feldman, D. R., Jones, A. D., Collins, W. D., & Kaatz, L. (2021). A low-to-no
823 snow future and its impacts on water resources in the western United States. *Nature*
824 *Reviews Earth & Environment*, 2(11), 800-819. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43017-021-00219-y>

825 Surano, K., Hudson, G., Failor, R., Sims, J., Holland, R., MacLean, S., & Garrison, J. (1992).
826 Helium-3 mass spectrometry for low-level tritium analysis of environmental samples.
827 *Journal of radioanalytical and nuclear chemistry*, 161(2), 443-453.

828 Telloli, C., Rizzo, A., Salvi, S., Pozzobon, A., Marrocchino, E., & Vaccaro, C. (2022).
829 Characterization of groundwater recharge through tritium measurements. *Advances in*
830 *Geosciences*, 57, 21-36. <https://doi.org/10.5194/adgeo-57-21-2022>

832 Tetzlaff, D., Buttle, J., Carey, S. K., McGuire, K., Laudon, H., & Soulsby, C. (2014). Tracer-
833 based assessment of flow paths, storage and runoff generation in northern catchments:
834 a review. *Hydrological Processes*, 29(16), 3475-3490. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hyp.10412>

835 Tolstikhin, I. N., & Kamenski, I. L. (1969). Determination of groundwater age by the T-3He
836 method. *Geochemistry International*, 6, 810-811.

837 Ulibarri, N., Escobedo Garcia, N., Nelson, R. L., Cravens, A. E., & McCarty, R. J. (2021).
838 Assessing the Feasibility of Managed Aquifer Recharge in California. *Water Resources
839 Research*, 57(3). <https://doi.org/10.1029/2020wr029292>

840 Uriostegui, S. H., Bibby, R. K., Esser, B. K., & Clark, J. F. (2015). Analytical Method for
841 Measuring Cosmogenic (35)S in Natural Waters. *Anal Chem*, 87(12), 6064-6070.
842 <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.analchem.5b00584>

843 Urióstegui, S. H., Bibby, R. K., Esser, B. K., & Clark, J. F. (2017). Quantifying annual
844 groundwater recharge and storage in the central Sierra Nevada using naturally
845 occurring 35S. *Hydrological Processes*, 31(6), 1382-1397.
846 <https://doi.org/10.1002/hyp.11112>

847 Visser, A., Moran, J. E., Hillegonds, D., Singleton, M. J., Kulongoski, J. T., Belitz, K., & Esser, B.
848 K. (2016). Geostatistical analysis of tritium, groundwater age and other noble gas
849 derived parameters in California. *Water Res*, 91, 314-330.
850 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2016.01.004>

851 Visser, A., Moran, J. E., Singleton, M. J., & Esser, B. K. (2018). Importance of river water
852 recharge to the San Joaquin Valley groundwater system. *Hydrological Processes*, 32(9),
853 1202-1213. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hyp.11468>

854 Visser, A., Thaw, M., Deinhart, A., Bibby, R., Safeeq, M., Conklin, M., Esser, B., & Van der
855 Velde, Y. (2019). Cosmogenic Isotopes Unravel the Hydrochronology and Water
856 Storage Dynamics of the Southern Sierra Critical Zone. *Water Resources Research*,
857 55(2), 1429-1450. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2018wr023665>

858 Xia, C., Liu, Y., Meng, Y., Liu, G., Huang, X., Chen, Y., & Chen, K. (2023). Stable isotopes
859 reveal the surface water-groundwater interaction and variation in young water fraction in
860 an urbanized river zone. *Urban Climate*, 51. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.uclim.2023.101641>

861 Ye, S., Liu, L., Chen, X., Li, P., Xu, G., & Ran, Q. (2022). The Variability of Stable Water
862 Isotopes and the Young Water Fraction in a Mountainous Catchment. *CLEAN – Soil, Air,
863 Water*, 50(7). <https://doi.org/10.1002/clen.202100337>

864 Yoon, Y. Y., Ko, K. S., & Lee, J. M. (2023). Tritium and 35S activity variation in precipitation in
865 Korea and its application to groundwater age determination. *Journal of radioanalytical
866 and nuclear chemistry*, 332(6), 1917-1921. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10967-023-08888-3>

867 Zhang, H., Xu, Y., & Kanyerere, T. (2020). A review of the managed aquifer recharge: Historical
868 development, current situation and perspectives. *Physics and Chemistry of the Earth,
869 Parts A/B/C*, 118-119. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pce.2020.102887>

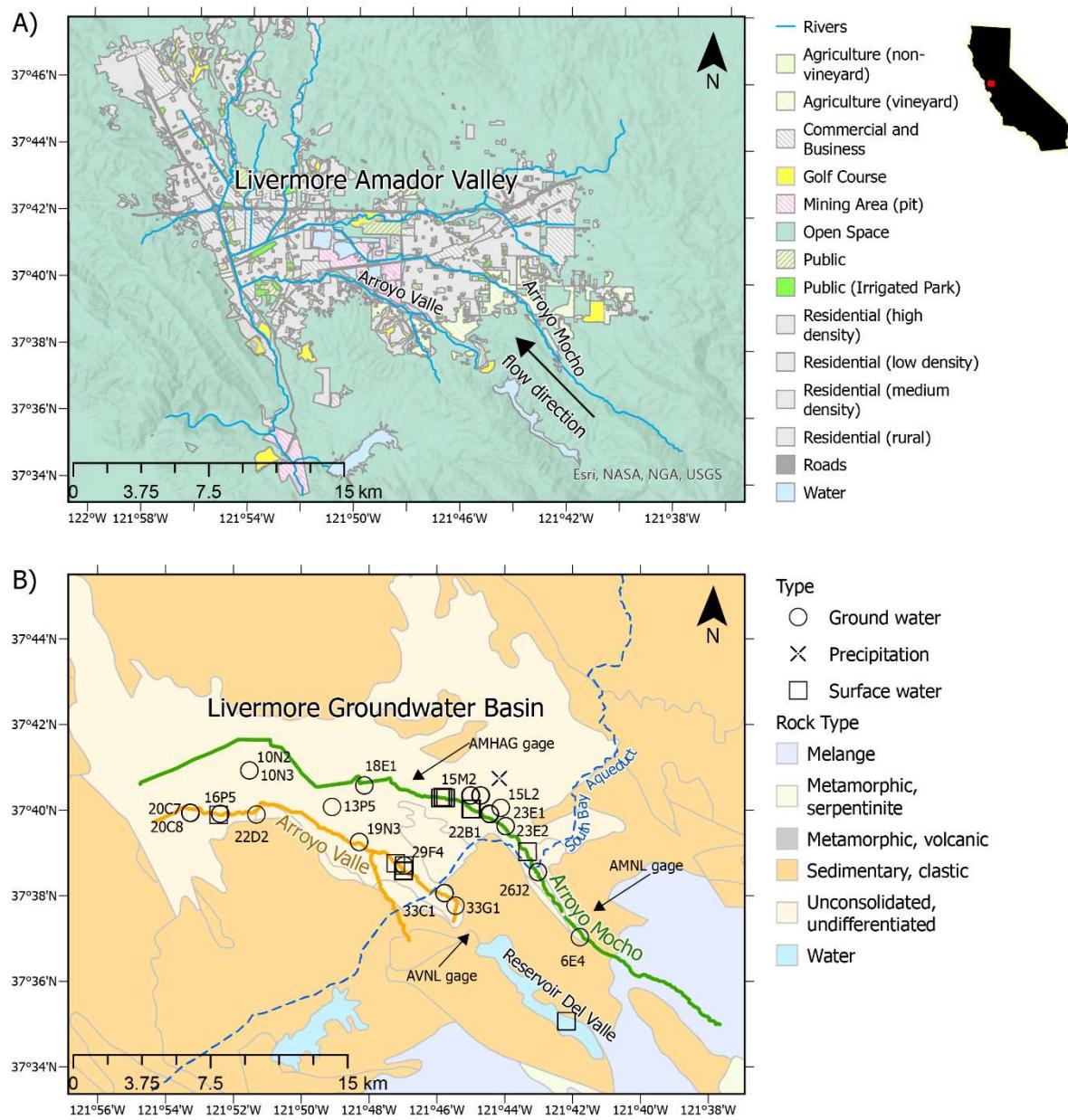
870 Zone 7. (2023). *Zone 7 Water Agency. Livermore Valley Groundwater Basin Sustainable
871 Groundwater Management Annual Report 2022 Water Year (October 2021 – September
872 2022)*.

873

874 **FIGURES**

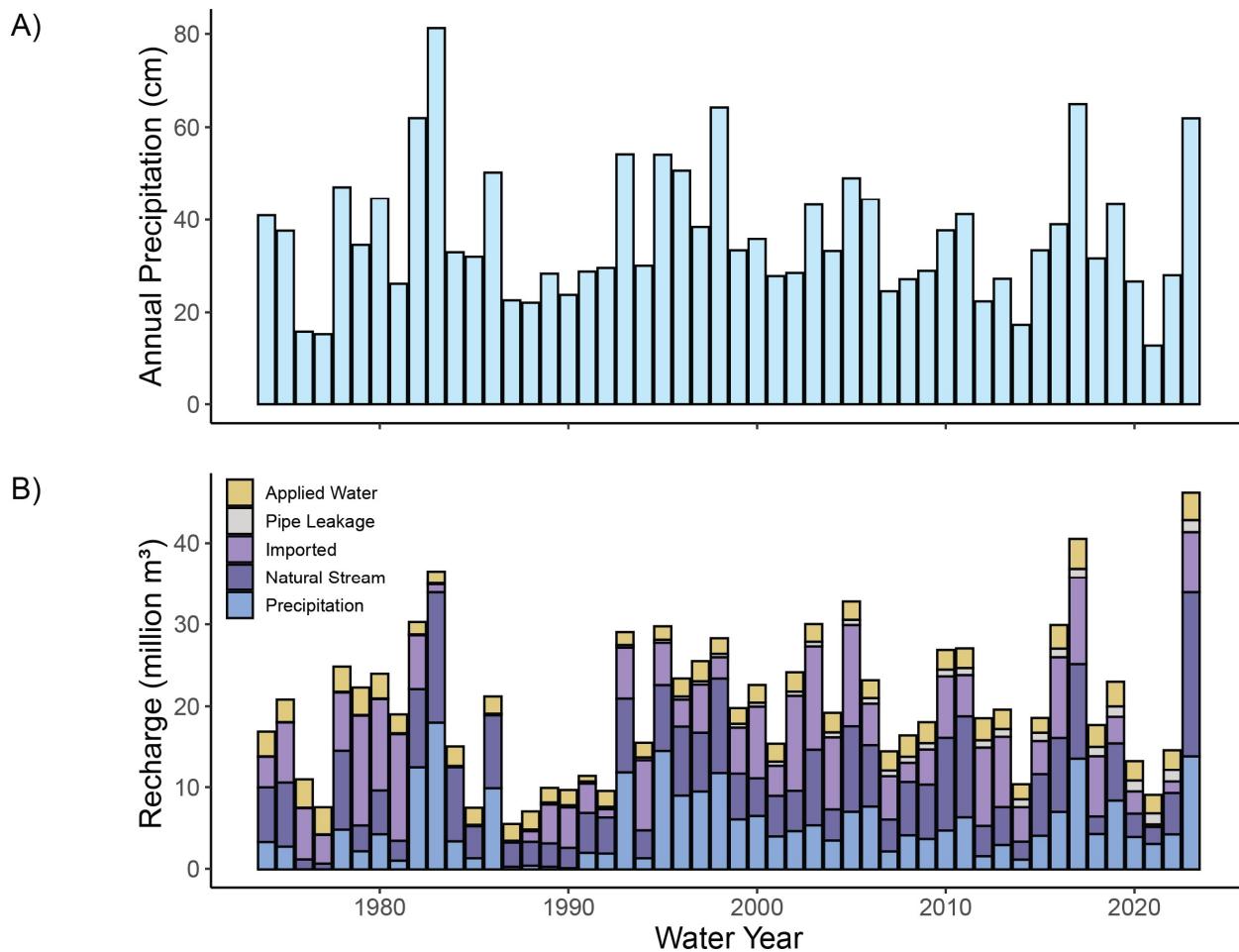
875 Figure 1. A) Map of Livermore Amador Valley showing the two arroyos (Arroyo Mocho and
 876 Arroyo Valle) flowing from the southeast to the west. B) Map of sample locations, with relevant
 877 hydrologic features marked such as the South Bay Aqueduct (SBA) and Reservoir Del Valle, as
 878 well as generalized rock types of the Livermore Groundwater Basin. Groundwater well names
 879 are labelled.

880



881

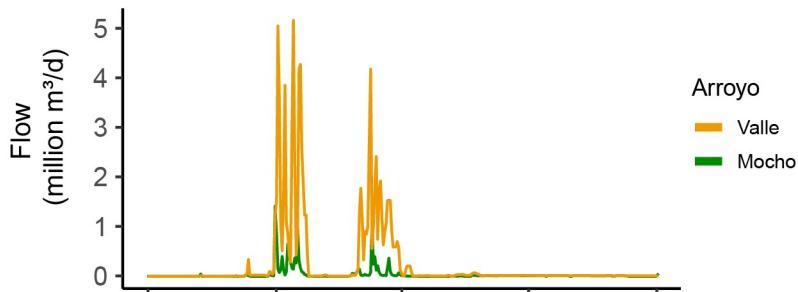
882 **Figure 2.** Hydrologic information including A) rainfall, and B) modelled groundwater recharge
883 for the Livermore Groundwater Basin from Water Year 1974-2023 (Zone 7, 2023).



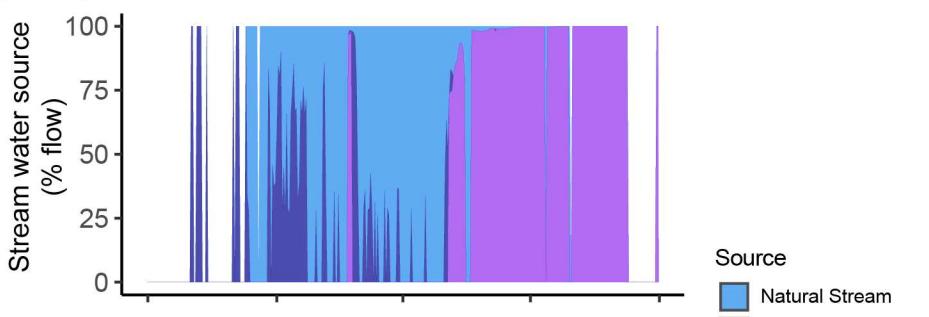
884
885

886 **Figure 3.** Stream water information in WY23. A) Daily discharge measurements at arroyos B)
887 AM water source distribution by day, where white areas indicate no flow. C) AV water source
888 distribution by day.

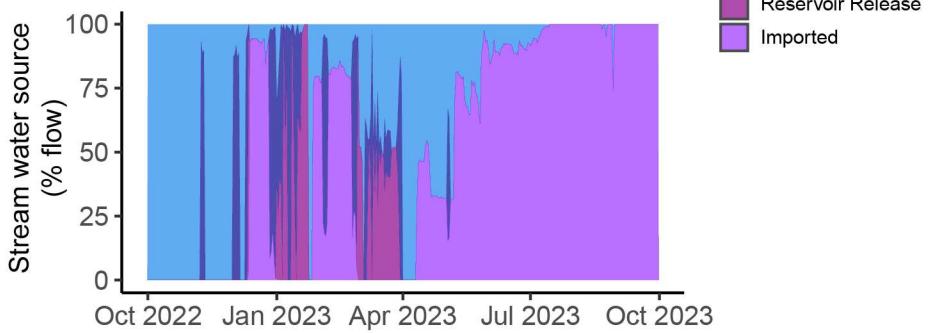
A) Stream Discharge



B) Arroyo Mocho



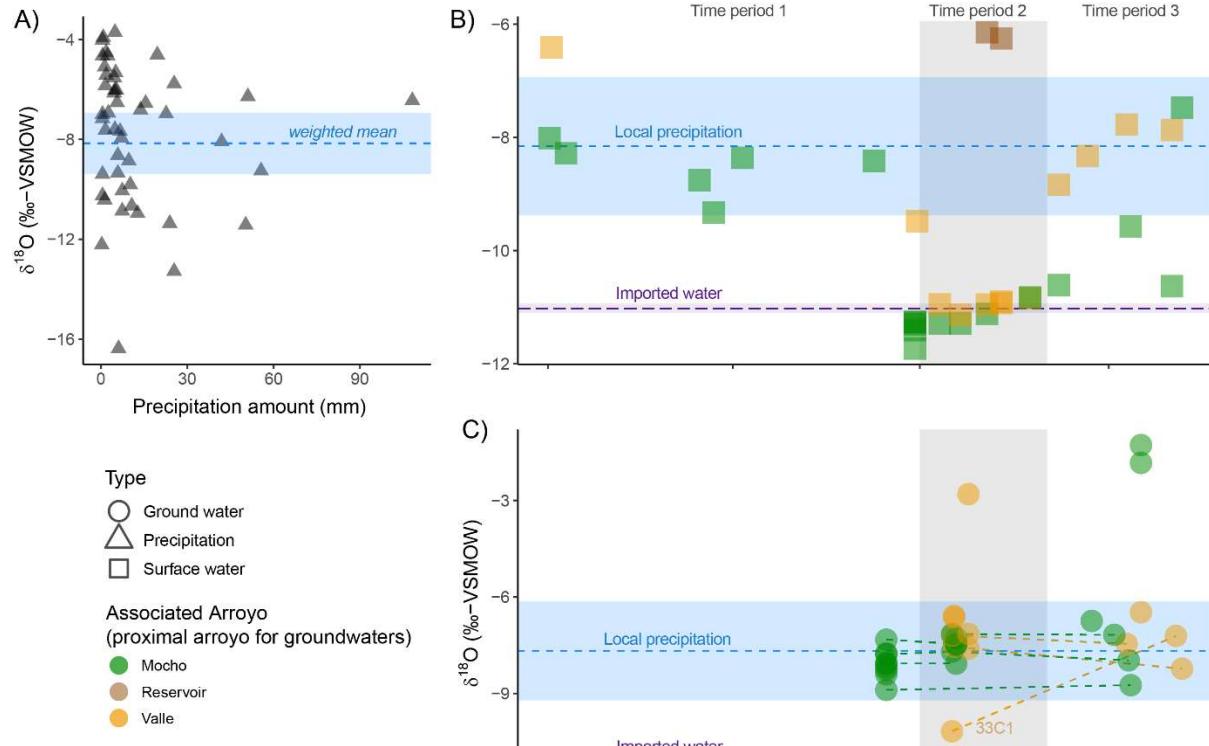
C) Arroyo Valle



889
890

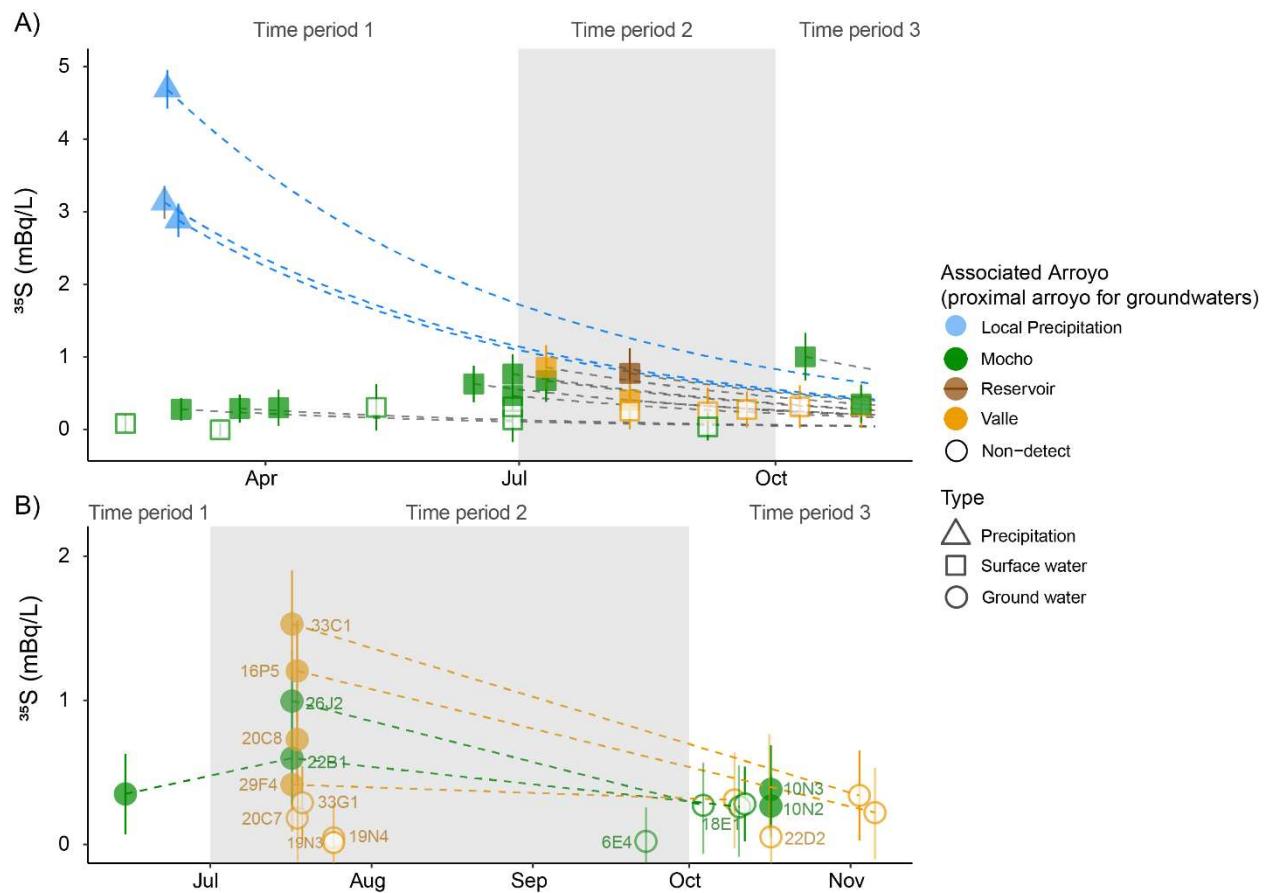
891 **Figure 4.** $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of A) daily precipitation amount, with precipitation-weighted annual mean
 892 of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values. B) $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of surface waters in the three time periods in WY23, and C) $\delta^{18}\text{O}$
 893 values of groundwater samples collected during study period, with dotted lines connecting
 894 samples from the same well. The three time periods of water management regimes are marked,
 895 allowing us to estimate the average $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of imported water from the SBA releases.

896 Measurement error is smaller than symbol size.



897
 898

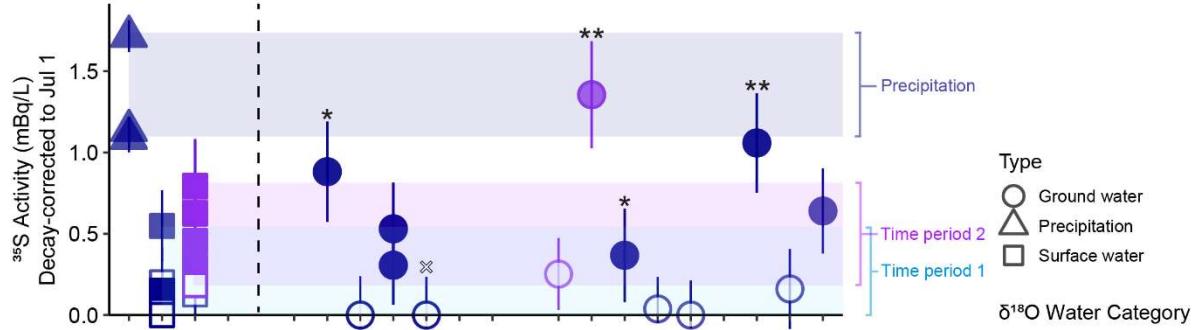
899 **Figure 5. A)** ^{35}S activities for precipitation and surface waters, where dashed lines indicate
900 isotope decay curves and B) ^{35}S activities for groundwaters, where colored dashed lines connect
901 samples collected from the same location. Vertical lines at sample points indicate standard error
902 of measurements and open symbols indicate non-detectable ^{35}S activities.



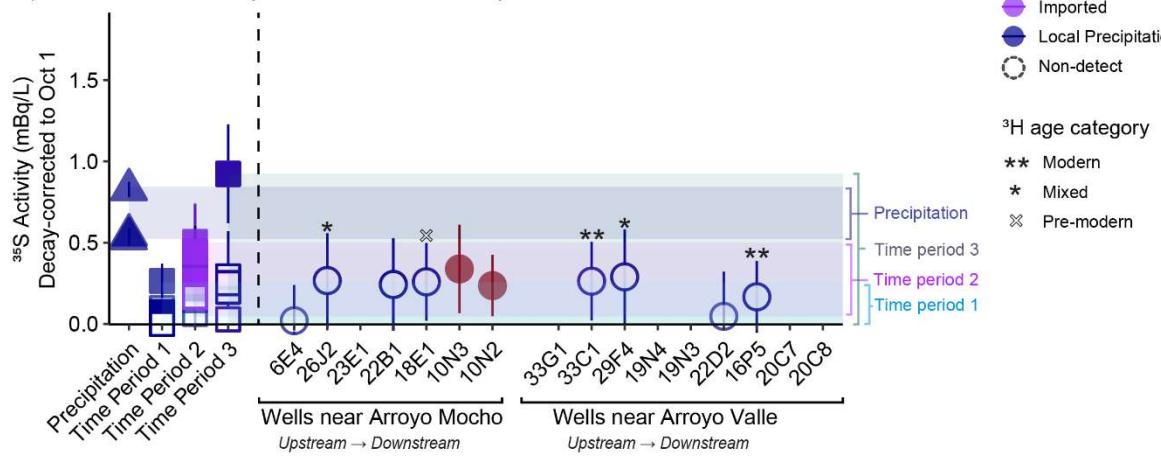
903

904 **Figure 6.** ^{35}S concentrations, decay corrected for A) summer (1 July) and B) fall (1 October)
 905 groundwater sampling seasons. The colors indicate water source (based on $\delta^{18}\text{O}$) and annotations
 906 indicate interpreted age categories (based on ^3H).

A) Groundwater samples collected in time period 2

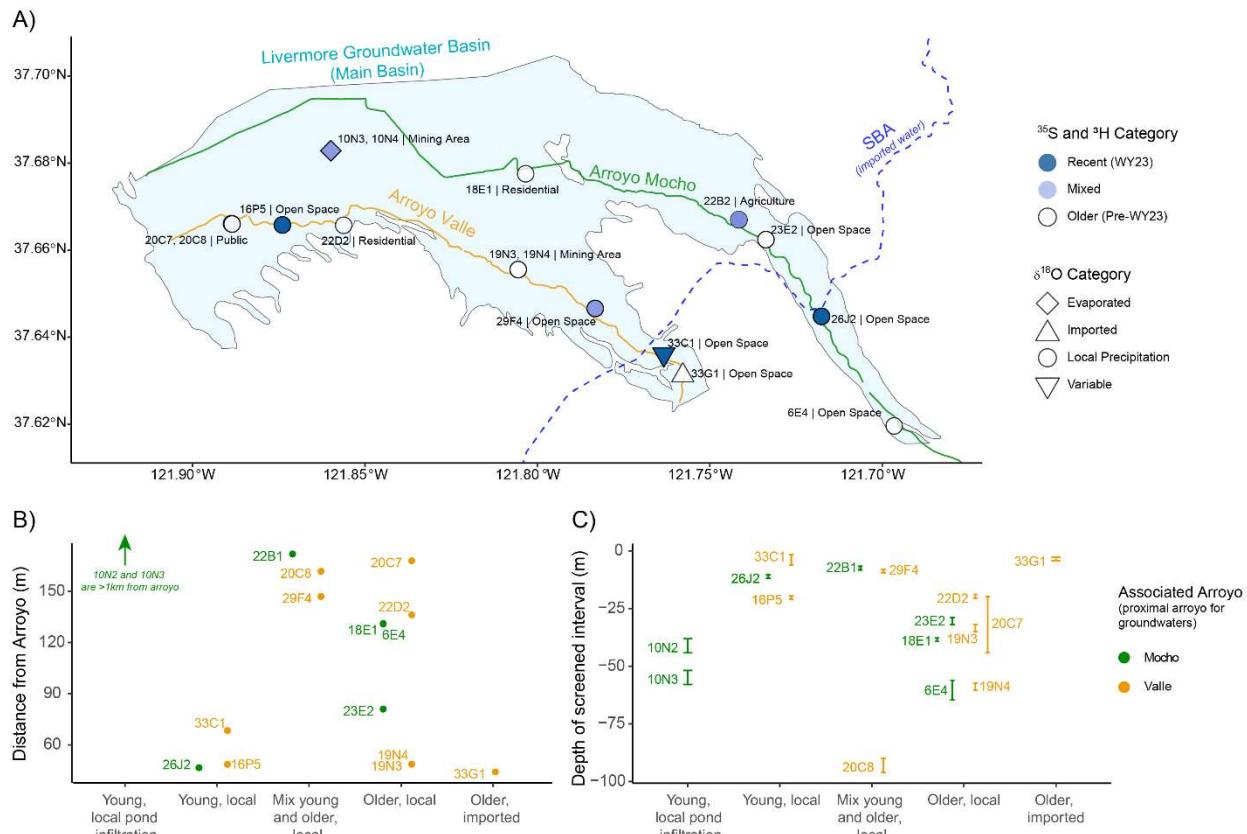


B) Groundwater samples collected in time period 3



907

908 **Figure 7.** Map of sampled wells (A) with symbols indicating Recharge categories based on both
 909 ^{35}S , ^3H , and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ data. Locations marked with land use designations. Distance from proximal
 910 arroyo (B) and depth of screened interval (C) as a function of recharge categories. Colors
 911 indicate proximal arroyo.



912

913 **TABLES**914 **Table 1. Isotopic signatures of four potential recharge sources.**

Time Period	Sample Type	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (‰)	^{35}S range of detects, decay-corrected to July 1 (mBq/L)	^{35}S range of detects, decay-corrected to October 1 (mBq/L)	^{35}S detects, non-detects	^{3}H (pCi/L)	Interpretation of Recharge Source
Pre-WY23	Precipitation		HIGH	No data	No data	No data	< 9
							Older local precipitation
				7.68±3.07			
Winter	Precipitation		HIGH	HIGH	LOW		
						3, 0	8.2±2.0
			-	1.09±0.09 to 8.16±2.44	0.52±0.04 to 0.83±0.05		WY23 local Precipitation
1 (winter and spring)	Arroyo		HIGH	LOW	LOW		
						4, 3	8.44±0.78
January – June			-	0.11±0.06 to 8.38±0.89	0.05±0.03 to 0.26±0.11		
							Natural arroyo streamflow with a small proportion of WY23 precipitation
2 (summer)	Arroyo		LOW	LOW	LOW		
						6, 3	8.98±1.05
July – September			-10.87 ±1.05	0.3±0.2 to 0.8±0.28	0.22±0.12 to 0.51±0.23		
							Imported arroyo streamflow, with a larger proportion of WY23 precipitation
3 (fall)	Arroyo		HIGH	Not applicable	LOW		
October						2, 5	Mixed imported and local streamflow, containing WY23 precipitation
			-		0.28±0.20 to 0.92±0.30		
			8.89±1.26				

Table 2. Groundwater isotopic and well description.

Recharge Category	Well Name	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$ category	^3H category	^{35}S category	Top screen depth (m-below ground surface)	Bottom screen depth (m-below ground surface)	Distance from nearest Arroyo (m)
Young, local pond infiltration	10N2	Evaporated		Detect, low	38	44	1321
	10N3	Evaporated		Detect, low	52	58	1321
Young, local precipitation	16P5	Local Precipitation	Modern	Detect, high	20	21	49
	26J2	Local Precipitation	Mixed	Detect, high	10	12	47
Young, variable sources	33C1	Variable	Modern	Detect, high	2	6	68
Mix young and older, local source	20C8	Local Precipitation		Detect, low	90	96	162
	22B1	Local Precipitation		Detect, low	7	8	172
	29F4	Local Precipitation	Mixed	Detect, low	8	9	147
	1.80E+02	Local Precipitation	Pre-modern	Non-detect	38	39	131
	19N3	Local Precipitation		Non-detect	32	35	49
Pre-WY23, local source	19N4	Local Precipitation		Non-detect	57	60	49
	20C7	Local Precipitation		Non-detect	20	44	168
	22D2	Local Precipitation		Non-detect	19	20	136
	2.30E+03	Local Precipitation		Non-detect	29	32	81
	6.00E+04	Local Precipitation		Non-detect	56	65	131
Imported source	33G1	Imported		Non-detect	3	4	44