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Groundwater recharge in desert playas: current rates and future effects of climate change

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3 1 **Groundwater recharge in desert playas: current rates and future effects of climate change**
4

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26 11 **Keywords:** Desert Playas, Watershed Ecology, Groundwater Recharge, Runoff Modeling,
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28 12 Climate Change, Precipitation variability, Jornada LTER
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14 **Abstract**

15 Our results from playas, which are topographic low areas situated in closed-catchments in
16 drylands, indicated that projected climate change in Southwestern USA would have a net
17 positive impact over runoff and groundwater recharge beneath playas. Expected increased
18 precipitation variability can cause up to a 300% increase in annual groundwater recharge beneath
19 playas. This increase will overshadow the effect of decreased precipitation amount that could
20 cause up to a 50% decrease in recharge beneath playas. These changes could have a significant
21 impact on groundwater and carbon storage. These results are important given that groundwater
22 resources in Southwestern USA continue to decline due to human consumption outpacing natural
23 recharge of aquifers. Here, we report on groundwater recharge rates ranging from less than 1 mm
24 to greater than 25 mm per year beneath desert playas. Playas located in larger and steeper
25 catchments with finer-textured soils had the highest rates of recharge. Vegetation cover had no
26 effect on recharge beneath playas. We modeled catchment runoff generation and found that the
27 amount of runoff a playa receives annually strongly correlated to the rate of groundwater
28 recharge beneath that playa. Runoff occurred during precipitation events larger than 20 mm and
29 increased linearly with events above that threshold.

31 **1. Introduction**

32 Groundwater supplies ~40% of the agricultural and residential water needs in
33 Southwestern United States of America (USA), which occupies 1.8 M km² and ~20% of the
34 USA (Maupin *et al* 2014). Consumption of groundwater in this large region continues to increase
35 due to demand from growing populations (Sabo *et al* 2010). Concurrently, increasing drought
36 frequency and intensity have decreased the reliability of surface water for human consumption
37 (MacDonald 2010). Increased demand has outpaced recharge rates and caused groundwater
38 storage to decline. Consequently, the lifespan of some aquifers in dryland regions of the USA is
39 as short as 100 years (Scanlon *et al* 2012) and active groundwater banking during high-
40 magnitude flow periods is one proposed solution for recharging dryland aquifers (Tiffany and
41 Helen 2017). Groundwater recharge in drylands is limited to areas that receive surface-water
42 runoff such as ephemeral streams and lowland areas because wetting depth in upland ecosystems
43 rarely goes beyond 100 cm (Sala *et al* 1992) and, in some cases, water-restrictive soil layers
44 constrain percolation (Scanlon *et al* 2006).

45 Playas are wetlands located in the topographic low areas of hydrologically-closed
46 catchments (Shaw and Bryant 2011). Playas can be categorized into two types determined by the
47 source of their flood-water: groundwater playas and surface-water playas (Rosen 1994). In this
48 paper, we focused solely on surface-water playas, which flood by precipitation and runoff
49 generated from upland areas during large rainfall events. We focused on surface-water playas
50 because they are the only ones that have the potential to recharge ground water. In the Basin and
51 Range physiographic province of Southwestern USA, the biophysical characteristics of the
52 upland catchments that surround playas control differences in soil organic carbon and nutrient
53 concentrations among playas (McKenna and Sala 2016). Playas found in the largest, steepest,

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3 54 and most highly-vegetated catchments contain the highest concentrations of soil carbon and
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5 55 nitrogen (McKenna and Sala 2016). These findings are indicative of the importance of surface-
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8 56 water runoff in playa systems. Rare but important deluges of water may overwhelm playa soils
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11 57 and recharge groundwater (Scanlon *et al* 2006).

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13 58 The most recent climate-change projections from the 2014 US National Climate
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15 59 Assessment were based on the “Coupled Model Intercomparison Project phase 5” (CMIP5)
16
17 60 (Wuebbles *et al* 2014). CMIP5 predicted changes in climate for different atmospheric CO₂
18
19 61 concentration scenarios called representative concentration pathways (RCPs). In these scenarios,
20
21 62 increased atmospheric CO₂ concentrations will directly increase atmospheric temperatures that
22
23 63 will influence precipitation in Southwestern USA in two ways: (1) increasing inter-annual
24
25 64 variability and (2) decreasing the amount of annual precipitation (Melillo *et al* 2014). Increased
26
27 65 atmospheric temperatures are predicted to increase the size of large precipitation events and
28
29 66 decrease the size of small precipitation events (Sun *et al* 2007). Increased inter-annual
30
31 67 precipitation variability has been shown to increase plant-available water availability in dryland
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33 68 ecosystems (Sala *et al* 2015). Despite these findings, the current consensus is that groundwater
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35 69 recharge in western USA is likely to decrease due to climate change (Meixner *et al* 2016).

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41 70 The objectives of this work were to assess the rates and controls of recharge beneath
42
43 71 playas in Southwestern USA and closing the well-documented knowledge gap pertaining to the
44
45 72 effect of climate change on groundwater recharge in desert ecosystems (Scanlon *et al* 2006;
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47 73 Gurdak and Roe 2010). Our study specifically addressed three questions about controls of playa
48
49 74 groundwater recharge and the effects of future climate change. **(1) How much do playas**
50
51 75 **contribute to groundwater recharge in Southwestern USA?** To answer this question, we
52
53 76 empirically measured recent-past groundwater recharge beneath a subset of playas in the Jornada
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3 77 del Muerto aquifer, which is a representative area of the Basin and Range physiographic
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5 78 province. **(2) How do the upland biophysical characteristics of a catchment above playas**
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8 79 **influence groundwater recharge beneath playas?** To address this question, we used remotely
9
10 80 sensed data to measure elevation along with soil and vegetation characteristics of each playa
11
12 81 catchment and analyzed relationships between upland catchment characteristics and playa
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14 82 recharge rates. **(3) How will climate change influence groundwater recharge beneath playas**
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16
17 83 **through changes in precipitation variability and amount?** To answer this question, we first
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19 84 modeled playa runoff events from a recent 20-year period and determined how runoff controls
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21 85 groundwater recharge beneath playas. We used those modeling results to determine how the size
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23 86 of precipitation events controls playa-runoff generation. We created two new 20-year rainfall
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25 87 time series in accordance with climate-change predictions of both increased precipitation
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27 88 variability and decreased precipitation amount. Finally, we used our best-fit runoff-recharge
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29 89 relationship to assess how groundwater recharge beneath playas will change under different
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31 90 climate-change scenarios. Due to the water-limited nature of Southwestern USA, we only
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33 91 focused on how changes in precipitation, not evapotranspiration, could affect playa-mediated
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35 92 groundwater recharge (Newman *et al* 2006).
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94 **2. Methods**

95 *2.1 Study Site*

96 We conducted both the empirical and modeling components of this study at the Jornada
97 Basin long-term ecological research site (JRN). This site is located near Las Cruces, NM, USA
98 (+32.5 N, -106.8 W, elevation 1188 m) and contains all of the ecosystem types and geomorphic
99 landforms that are typical for systems in the Basin and Range province (Peters and Gibbens
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3 100 2006). JRN is situated above the Jornada del Muerto aquifer with mean annual precipitation of
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5 101 237 mm/yr. (Fig. 1). The Jornada LTER is composed of two grassland and three shrubland
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7 102 ecosystem types and average temperature of 24 °C. The grassland ecosystems are upland Black
8
9 103 Grama grasslands (*Bouteloua eriopoda*) and lowland playa grasslands co-dominated by Tobosa
10
11 104 grass (*Pleuraphis mutica*), Alkali Sacaton (*Sporobolus airoides*) and Vine-mesquite grass
12
13 105 (*Panicum obtusum*). The shrubland ecosystems are: Tarbush (*Flourensia cernua*) on lower
14
15 106 piedmont slopes, Creosotebush (*Larrea tridentata*) on upper piedmont slopes and bajadas, and
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17 107 Honey Mesquite (*Prosopis glandulosa*) on the sandy basin floor (Peters 2013).
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22 108 There are 100 playas that account for ~1% of JRN area (Gibbens *et al* 2005). Playa
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24 109 catchments are the upland drainage areas that contain grassland and shrubland ecosystem types.
25
26 110 Playas in this region experience periodic flooding (Peters *et al* 2012) and they are the only
27
28 111 known areas that do not contain water-restrictive petrocalcic horizons (Havstad *et al* 2006). Playa
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30 112 soils are well-mixed vertisol soils that are high in clay content and contain Holocene aged
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32 113 lacustrine deposits of the derived mainly from monzonite, rhyolite, and andesite (Wondzell *et al*
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34 114 1990).
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41 116 2.2 Estimating groundwater recharge beneath playas

42
43 117 We used the chloride mass balance (CMB) approach to empirically estimate groundwater
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45 118 recharge rates beneath playa surfaces (Wood and Sanford 1995). CMB is the most common
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47 119 method for estimating groundwater recharge in unsaturated soil zones (Allison and Hughes 1978;
48
49 120 Scanlon 1991). Although other more resource intensive tracer methods can be used, CMB is
50
51 121 commonly used on its own to estimate groundwater recharge (Scanlon *et al* 2006; Gates *et al*
52
53 122 2008; Gurdak and Roe 2010). Scanlon *et al* (2006) provided many examples of estimating
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3 123 recharge with CMB well above the water table and assuming downward vertical flow of
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5 124 groundwater beneath the rooting zone. This approach was relevant to our study because of the
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8 125 thick (<10 m) unsaturated zone in the Jornada Basin (Havstad *et al* 2006). Surface inputs of
9
10 126 chloride (Cl_p) (mg/l) and precipitation (P) (mm/yr.) are balanced by the mass out beneath the
11
12 127 playa via chloride in the unsaturated zone (Cl_{uz}) (mg/l) and deep percolation that results in
13
14
15 128 groundwater recharge (R) (mm/yr.) (Eq. 1). We calculated recharge by solving Equation 1 for R
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17 129 (Eq. 1).

$$R = \frac{(Cl_p)(P)}{(Cl_{uz})} \quad (1)$$

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23 131 We collected one continuous 5-m soil core in the unsaturated zone from the center-low
24
25 132 point of each study playa (n = 20). We sampled at the lowest point of each playa, because this
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27
28 133 area is flooded most-frequently (Gurdak and Roe 2010; McKenna and Sala 2016). We collected
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30 134 each core in August 2014 when playas were not flooded. We took five 100-g soil samples from
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33 135 below the core at 1-m increments (1–5 m). Soils were homogenized and 3 subsamples were
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35 136 taken from each 1 meter depth. We combined gravimetric water content (g/g) with soil bulk
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37 137 density (g/m^3) measurements (Elliot *et al* 1999) to calculate volumetric soil water content. Cl^-
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39 138 was measured (mg/l) using an ion selective electrode. We measured average soil Cl^- from across
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41
42 139 1–5 m depths for each playa (Fig. S3). To calculate recharge with the CMB method, we used
43
44 140 values of annual precipitation and wet and annual dry deposition values from JRN data. We
45
46 141 calculated mean annual precipitation from the 100-year record (1914–2015) of the centrally
47
48 142 located Jornada weather station (Fig 1.). We calculated annual rates of wet and dry Cl_p
49
50 143 deposition (mg/l) using a 30-year record (1983–2013). Wet and dry deposition of Cl_p were
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52 144 measured monthly at the same centrally located weather station using AeroChem Metrics
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56 145 collector (Havstad *et al* 2006).
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3 146 Each playa served as an independent unit for our statistical analyses. Under this
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6 147 framework, adding more samples per playa would not have improved the statistical power.
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8 148 Taking several samples per playa and using them as independent replicates would have violated
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10 149 the independence criterion of multiple regression (Kutner 2005).
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151 *2.3 Characterizing catchment-biophysical variables*

17 152 We used remotely sensed data to measure catchment biophysical characteristics for each
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20 153 of the study catchments. We defined a playa catchment as the upland area that drains into the
21
22 154 playa. A playas catchment does not include the playa itself. We used Normalized Difference
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24 155 Vegetation Index (NDVI) data derived from 250-m² resolution satellite Moderate Resolution
25
26 156 Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) to calculate average vegetation cover (36). Digital soil
27
28 157 maps were used to estimate an average soil texture for each playa catchment (Soil Survey Staff
29
30 158 2016). We measured the area and slope of each catchment by analyzing 5-m digital elevation
31
32 159 model (DEM) data from <http://jornada.nmsu.edu/lter/data/spatial>. We used multiple regression
33
34 160 analysis to assess correlations between biophysical catchment characteristics and groundwater
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36 161 recharge in playas. All analyses were conducted using R version 3.0.2 (R 2016). The best-fit-
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38 162 model was chosen using Akaike information criterion (AIC) (Kutner 2005).
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164 *2.4 Modeling climate change impacts on playa recharge*

48 165 We used the Limburg Soil Erosion Model (LISEM) (De Roo *et al* 1996) to simulate
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50 166 playa runoff for 20 playa catchments over a 20-year period. LISEM is a well-known hydrologic
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52 167 model that has been successfully used to simulate runoff for a variety of catchments around the
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54 168 world (Cuomo *et al* 2015). This model has been used to simulate runoff during and immediately
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3 169 after rainfall events in dryland catchments from 0.1–100 km (De Roo and Jetten 1999; Hessel *et al*
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6 170 *al* 2006; Baartman *et al* 2012). Runoff, infiltration, and interception were calculated in LISEM
7
8 171 using data from spatially distributed soil, vegetation, and elevation maps for each catchment (De
9
10 172 Roo *et al* 1996). Runoff occurs as infiltration excess Hortonian overland flow (Baartman *et al*
11
12 173 2012). Dry streambeds act as preferential flow paths for delivering upland runoff to playas
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15 174 (Havstad *et al* 2006). Catchment maps were created using PCRaster (Schmitz *et al* 2014). We
16
17 175 calculated soil-physical characteristic using soil texture from (Soil Survey Staff 2016), and
18
19 176 literature values (Rawls *et al* 1983). Saturated conductivity (mm/hr.), soil water tension (cm),
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21 177 and saturated volumetric soil moisture content for each soil type were derived from literature
22
23 178 (Rawls *et al* 1989). Initial volumetric soil moisture values were gathered from monthly JRN soil
24
25 179 moisture values (1979-1989) (Nash *et al* 1991). Literature values were used for Manning’s
26
27 180 surface resistance (n), random roughness coefficients, and vegetation height (cm) (Weltz *et al*
28
29 181 1992). We modeled playa runoff using JRN hourly precipitation record 1992–2011. Throughout
30
31 182 those 20 years, there were 560 unique rainfall events above 1 mm in size (Fig. S1). To validate
32
33 183 the model, we compared outputs of runoff to observed playa flood volume for 14 rainfall events
34
35 184 (Fig. S2). We then ran the model for all 560 rainfall events from 1992–2011.

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39 185 After modeling runoff from recent-past precipitation events, we independently evaluated
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41 186 the effect of increased precipitation variability and decreased mean annual precipitation. We
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43 187 used predictions of both precipitation variability and amount from three different CMIP5
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45 188 representative concentration pathways (RCPs) (Wuebbles *et al* 2014). We manipulated the 560
46
47 189 rainfall events from our historical 20-year record and generated a new 560-event series for RCP
48
49 190 4.5, RCP 6.0, and RCP 8.5 scenarios. We chose a range of emission scenarios to document the
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51 191 largest potential effects on rainfall-runoff-recharge rates. Using modeled relationships from Sun
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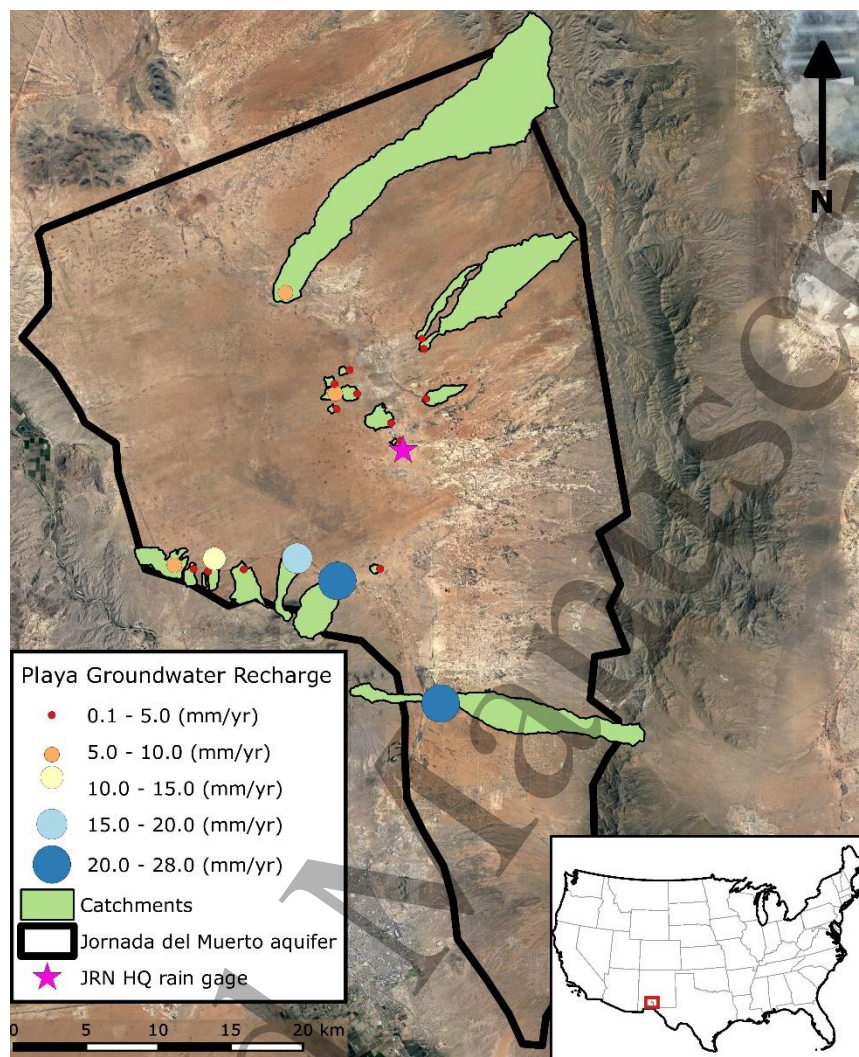
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3 192 *et al* (2007), we decreased 0–10 mm events (n=406) by 2% per °C increase. We increased 10–20
4
5 193 mm events (n=99) by 5%, 20–50 mm events (n=53) by 6%, and >50 mm events (n=1) by 7% per
6
7
8 194 °C increase. These changes maintained mean annual precipitation constant and increased the
9
10 195 standard deviation and mean event size (Table S1). For this region, global circulation models
11
12 196 predict precipitation amount to decrease 2% per °C increase in atmospheric temperature (Pierce
13
14 197 *et al* 2013). To simulate a decrease in mean precipitation for RCPs, we reduced the size of all
15
16 198 precipitation events accordingly. We used regression analysis to determine the relationships
17
18 199 between playa groundwater recharge (mm/yr.) and modeled runoff (m³/yr.), as well as the playa
19
20 200 runoff (m³/event) and precipitation event size (mm/event). We used the rainfall-runoff and runoff-
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22 201 recharge regression models to calculate how changes in both precipitation variability and mean
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24 202 precipitation amount affect recharge underneath playas.
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204 **3. Results**

205 *3.1 Playa groundwater recharge rates*

206 Our empirical estimates of recharge showed evidence of groundwater recharge in the
207 unsaturated zone beneath playas (Fig. 1) (Table S2 & Fig. S2). We estimated groundwater
208 recharge occurring beneath 100% of the sampled playas (Fig. 1). The average recharge of playas
209 was 6 mm/yr., which was 2% of the annual rainfall for the study area. Recharge beneath playas
210 ranged from 0.10–28 mm/yr., and 65% of the playas sampled had recharge rates below 5 mm/yr.
211 (Fig. 1). Recharge rates higher than 15 mm/yr. occurred only in 15% of playas (Fig. 1).



212

213 **Figure 1.** Spatial distribution of playas and catchments over the southern Jornada del Muerto
 214 aquifer in SE New Mexico, USA. The southern Jornada del Muerto aquifer is represented by the
 215 black outline. Jornada HQ rain gage location is represented with the pink star. Green polygons
 216 represent playa catchment location and extent and circles represent playa location. Circle color
 217 and size corresponds to the magnitude of recharge measured beneath each playa. Site location
 218 with USA is represented by the red box in the bottom right corner insert map. Aerial imagery
 219 provided by Global TruEarth® 15-meter imagery, August 15, 2015.
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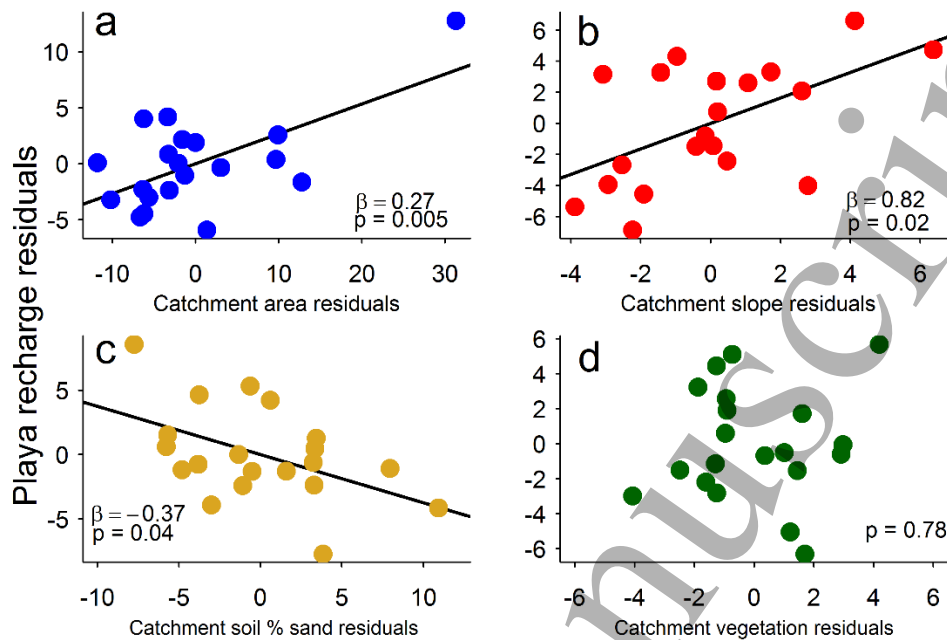


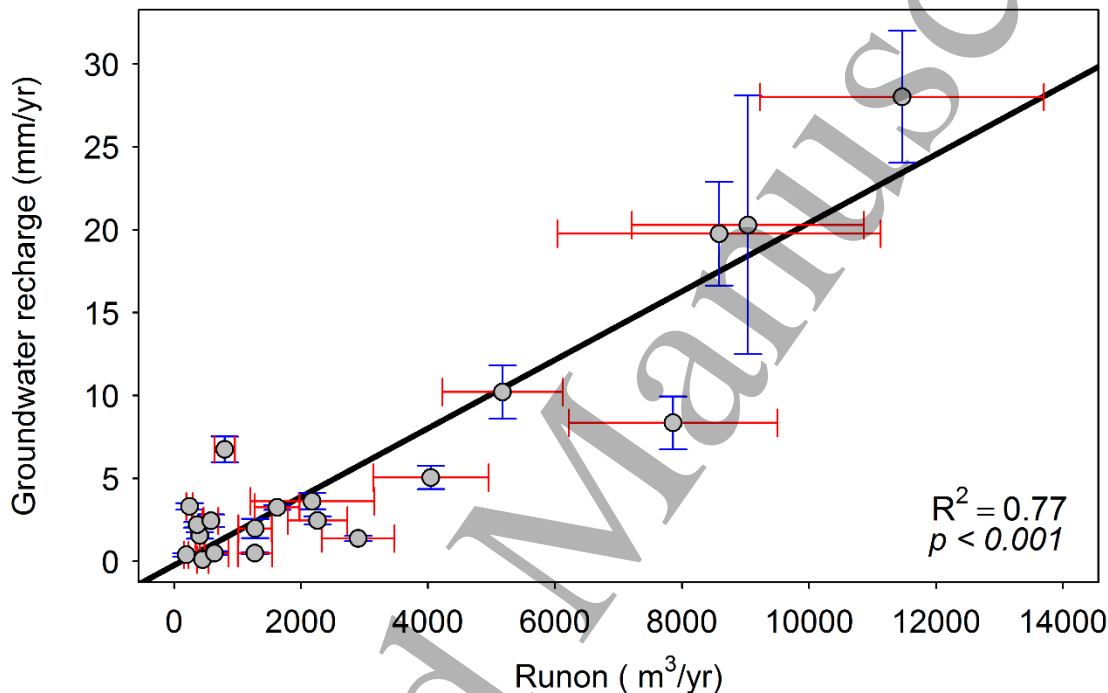
Figure 2. Pair-wise relationships derived from multiple regression analysis of each catchment biophysical variable and playa groundwater recharge. Panels a, b, and c are from the best-fit regression models, and panel d is from the full model. Partial regression plots were constructed by first regressing the explanatory variable of interest (e.g. catchment vegetation) against all other explanatory variables (e.g. catchment soil texture, slope and area) of the regression model. Next, the response variable (groundwater recharge) was regressed against all other explanatory variables (e.g. catchment soil texture, slope and area). The residuals of those two regressions ($e = Y_{expected} - Y_{observed}$) were then plotted against each other to partial out the effect of each explanatory variable on the response variable. Each panel shows the partial regressions for all of the explanatory variables: catchment area (blue), catchment slope (red), catchment soil texture (yellow) and catchment vegetation cover (green). Black trend lines represent the best-fit model for each partial regression. The best-fit model for explaining groundwater recharge was: **Groundwater recharge (mm/yr) = 29.82 + 0.27*catchment Area (ha) + 0.82*catchment slope (% rise) - 0.38*catchment soil texture (% sand).**

3.2 Biophysical controls over groundwater recharge rates

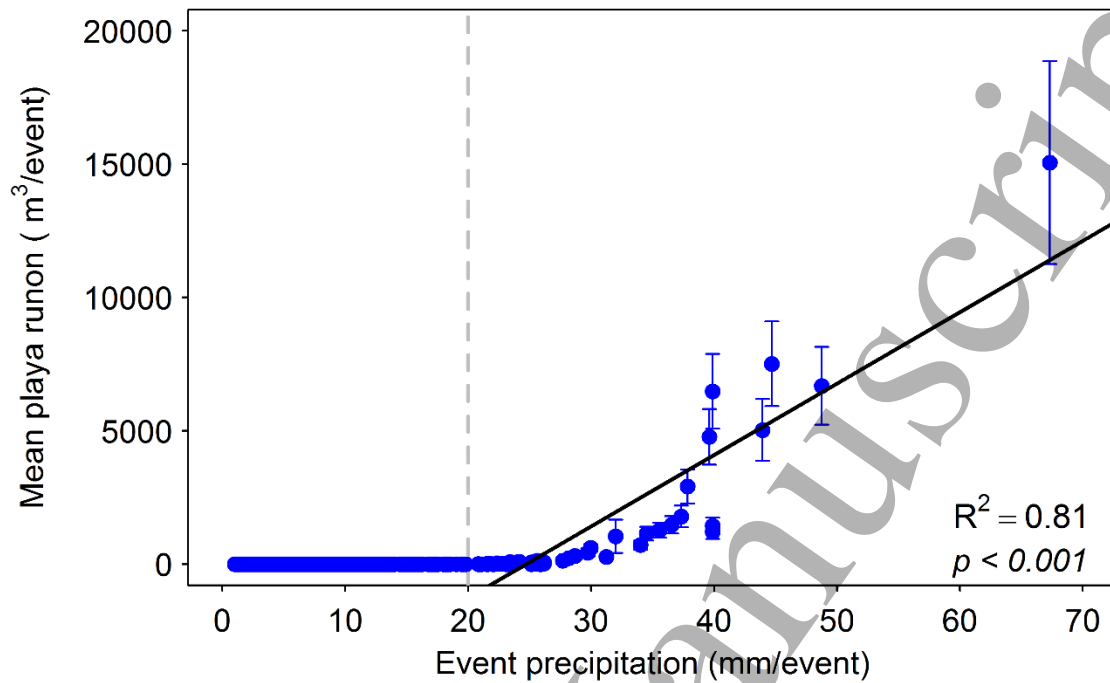
We found that differences in groundwater recharge rates among playas were correlated to the size, slope, and soil texture of each catchment ($R^2=0.78$, $p<0.001$, $AIC=53.6$). Recharge rate increased with area and slope, and decreased with percent sand of a catchment (Fig. 2). We found the best-fit model for predicting groundwater recharge to be: *Groundwater recharge*

$$(mm/yr) = 29.82 + 0.27*catchment\ area\ (ha) + 0.82*Catchment\ slope\ (\% \ rise) -$$

243 $0.38 \times \text{catchment soil texture (\% sand)}$. Catchment vegetation cover was not significantly
 244 correlated to playa groundwater recharge. These results suggest either vegetation cover did not
 245 physically affect runoff production or the range of vegetation cover in catchments existing in our
 246 study site was not large enough to capture the physical effect of vegetation on runoff production.



247
 248 **Figure 3.** Relationship between modeled annual runon and observed annual groundwater
 249 recharge beneath playas. The amount of annual runon received by a playa was positively
 250 correlated with the annual rate of groundwater recharge beneath that playa. Gray circles
 251 represent empirically estimated average annual groundwater recharge rates beneath 20-playas
 252 and modeled annual runon for each of the same 20 playas. Red error bars represent standard
 253 error in annual runon ($n = 20$ years) and blue error bars represent standard error in groundwater
 254 recharge rates ($n = 5$ depths) The best-fit model for predicting groundwater recharge was:
 255 ***Groundwater recharge = -0.23 + 0.0021 * runon (m³/yr.)***. The best-fit model of runon vs. recharge
 256 is represented by the black line.



258

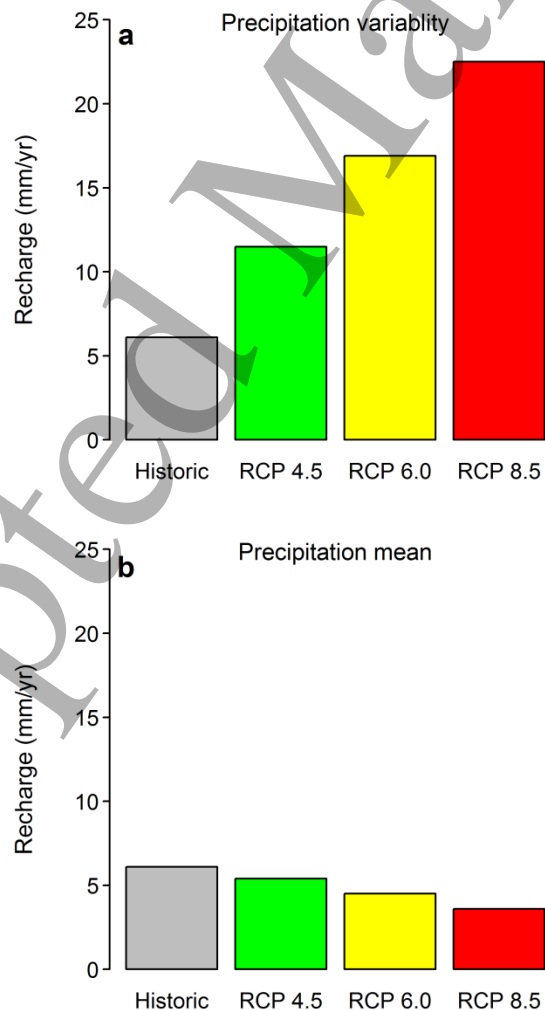
259 **Figure 4.** Relationship between rainfall event size and playa (n = 20) runon generated from each
 260 rainfall event. The vertical dashed gray line at 20 mm represents the runon production threshold.
 261 Rainfall events below the 20 mm threshold did not generate playa runon. Above 20 mm,
 262 precipitation-event size was positively correlated with playa runon. Closed blue circles represent
 263 the average runon produced on playas (n = 20) for 560 rainfall events (1992–2011). Blue error
 264 bars represent standard error of runon among 20 playas for each rainfall event. The best-fit
 265 model for predicting playa runon for precipitation events above 20 mm was: ***Mean playa runon***
 266 ***= -6369.86+ 259.78*rainfall event size (mm)***. The best-fit model of rainfall vs. runon is
 267 represented by the solid black line. No runon occurred during rainfall events smaller than 20
 268 mm.

269

270 3.3 Climate change impacts on playa runon and recharge

271 We found that there was a highly significant ($R^2=0.77$, $p<0.05$) linear relationship
 272 between the simulated amount of annual runon a playa received and the observed amount of
 273 annual groundwater recharge that occurred beneath that playa: *Groundwater recharge = -0.23+*
 274 *0.0021*runon (m³/yr.)* (Fig. 3). From this relationship and our earlier correlations between
 275 catchment area, slope, and soil texture, we can also infer that a playa with a combination of the
 276 largest area, steepest slope, and least sand (Fig. 2) would produce the most runon for the adjacent

277 playa. In order to estimate how changes in precipitation would affect groundwater recharge, we
 278 analyzed how the size of individual precipitation events controlled playa runoff. Playa runoff
 279 occurred when precipitation events were larger than 20 mm, which happened twice yearly on
 280 average, and only 8% of all rainfall events over a 20-year period were above 20 mm (Fig. 4).
 281 When rainfall events were above 20 mm, the size of a rainfall event correlated linearly ($R^2=0.81$,
 282 $p<0.001$) to the average amount of playa-runoff generation: $Mean\ playa\ runoff = -6369.86 +$
 283 $259.78 * rainfall\ event\ size\ (mm)$ (Fig. 4). We used our empirically derived rainfall-runoff (Fig. 4)
 284 and runoff-recharge (Fig. 3) relationships to assess how projected changes in precipitation would
 285 influence runoff and subsequently change groundwater recharge rates in playas.



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3 287 **Figure 5.** Response of mean annual playa groundwater recharge to different climate-change
4 288 scenarios that modify precipitation variability and amount. Grey bars represent average playa
5 289 recharge under recent-past climate. Green, yellow, red bars represent average playa recharge
6 290 under future concentration pathways (RCPs) scenarios of increased CO₂ emissions. Panel (a)
7 291 shows the response of increased precipitation variability under warmer climate while
8 292 maintaining precipitation amount constant. Panel (b) shows the effect of decreased precipitation
9 293 amount as predicted by global circulation models while maintaining precipitation variability
10 294 constant.
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15 296 After modeling runon from recent-past precipitation events, we independently evaluated
16
17 297 the effects of increased inter-annual precipitation variability and decreased annual precipitation
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19 298 amount on playa groundwater recharge. We manipulated a 20-year rainfall record to reflect both
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21 299 increased precipitation variability and decreased precipitation amount. We then used our rainfall-
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23 300 runon-recharge models (Fig. 3 & Fig. 4) to calculate the response of groundwater recharge
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25 301 beneath playas to changes in precipitation variability and amount under RCP 4.5, RCP 6.0, and
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27 302 RCP 8.5 scenarios (Fig. 5). Climate models predict that increased atmospheric temperatures will
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29 303 increase precipitation variability and decrease precipitation amount in Southwestern USA
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31 304 (Melillo *et al* 2014). Under different climate-change scenarios for Southwestern USA, average
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33 305 atmospheric temperature would increase between 2 and 6 °C for RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 (Table
34
35 306 S1). A rise in temperature would increase precipitation variability between 5–17% depending on
36
37 307 the scenario (Wuebbles *et al* 2014). In turn, increased variability will increase the frequency of
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39 308 occurrence of large (>20mm) rainfall events and the mean event size (Sun *et al* 2007) (Table S1).
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41 309 We found that for every 1% increase in inter-annual precipitation variability, average playa
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43 310 groundwater recharge rates increased 18%. In the most-extreme scenario, average playa
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45 311 groundwater recharge rates increased 300% from 6 mm/yr. to 22 mm/yr. (Fig. 5).
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53 312 Climate change predictions for Southwestern USA call for a decrease in mean annual
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55 313 precipitation of 2% for every degree Celsius increase in temperature (Wuebbles *et al* 2014).
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3 314 Mean annual precipitation would decrease 4–12% under the RCP 4.5–RCP 8.5 scenarios (Pierce
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5 315 *et al* 2013). We found that for every 1% decrease in precipitation amount, average playa
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7 316 groundwater recharge rates decreased 5%. In the extreme scenario, average playa groundwater
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9 317 recharge rates decreased 50% from 6 mm/yr. to 3 mm/yr. (Fig. 5). Overall, we found that climate
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11 318 change would have a net positive effect on playa groundwater recharge resulting mainly from an
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13 319 increased number of large runoff-generating rainfall events.
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20 321 **4. Discussion**

21
22 322 Our results indicated that climate-change induced increases in precipitation variability
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24 323 would have a larger impact on playa groundwater recharge than projected decreases in mean
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26 324 annual precipitation. The positive effect of increased variability on ground water rechargeldwould
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28 325 overshadow the negative effect of reduced amount of precipitation. The different responses of
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30 326 groundwater recharge to changes in precipitation variability and amount were due to the
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32 327 distribution of precipitation events in Southwestern USA. Precipitation records for the last 20
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34 328 years showed that 92% of rainfall events were too small to generate runon (Fig. S1). From 1992–
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36 329 2011, there were only 47/560 precipitation events greater than 20 mm capable of generating run
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38 330 off and groundwater recharge. Increased temperature is projected to increase precipitation
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40 331 variability and consequently the frequency of large rainfall events that generate run off and
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42 332 ground water recharge (Sun *et al* 2007). On the contrary, decreasing precipitation mean would
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44 333 have a relatively smaller impact on large rainfall events. This finding runs counter to the current
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46 334 expectation that drylands would experience decreases in groundwater recharge under climate
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48 335 change (Meixner *et al* 2016). The conclusion of Meixner et al (2016) was based only on
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50 336 expected changes in amount of precipitation whereas our study evaluated both the effects of
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3 337 increases in variability and decreases in amount of precipitation. Regional climate phenomena
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5 338 such as El Niño/Southern Oscillation (ENSO) also influence precipitation and groundwater
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8 339 recharge events on a multi-year time scale. During the “El Niño” periods, more frequent large
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10 340 rainfall events caused higher streamflow and groundwater recharge in Southwestern USA (Pool
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12 341 2005; Kuss and Gurdak 2014). The current consensus is that continued anthropogenic warming
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14 342 would increase the frequency and strength of ENSO events (Cai *et al* 2015). Increased ENSO
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16 343 frequency would increase the amount of runoff-generating rainfall events and cause more
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18 344 groundwater recharge beneath playas.
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22 345 These findings confirm the need for playas to be included in future models of aquifer. In
23
24 346 contrast, past efforts to model groundwater recharge rates in the Jornada del Muerto aquifer
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26 347 assumed no recharge beneath playas (Kambhammettu 2010). The groundwater recharge rates
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28 348 that we measured beneath high-recharge playas of ~20 mm/yr. (Table S3) were similar to
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30 349 estimates of mountain-front recharge of 22 mm/yr. for the Jornada del Muerto aquifer
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32 350 (Kambhammettu 2010). Our estimates are also long-term estimates and during years with high
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34 351 amounts of runoff, recharge beneath playas is likely to become a larger component of the
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36 352 groundwater budget for the Jornada de Muerto aquifer. Increased runoff-recharge events in
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38 353 Southwestern USA can also elevate playa recharge rates to levels more comparable to the
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40 354 Ogallala Aquifer region (35 mm/yr.) of the USA Great Plains (Gurdak and Roe 2010). These
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42 355 relatively high rates of recharge could be especially important in desert basins in Southwestern
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44 356 USA that have larger playas such as the 130-km² Willcox Playa of the Sonoran Desert. As we
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46 357 saw with the playas of the Jornada Basin, the amount of recharge a playa receives is dependent
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48 358 on certain catchment biophysical characteristics controlling runoff generation (Fig. 2).
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50 359 Groundwater banking as seen in other artificially waterlogged areas of desert systems (Sharma
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3 360 2001; Behroozmand *et al* 2017) may be a feasible option in playas as well. If groundwater
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6 361 continues to be relied on by humans in Southwestern USA and playas are used for groundwater
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8 362 banking then salt accumulation issues in groundwater will need to be addressed as shown by
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10 363 both Sharma (2001) and Behroozmand *et al* (2017).

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12 364 Watershed vegetation did not physically impede catchment-scale runoff generation (Fig.
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15 365 2) although it affected the amount of carbon that reached playas (McKenna and Sala 2016).
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17 366 These results also indicated that decreases in dryland vegetation cover caused by increased
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20 367 precipitation variability or grazing (Gherardi and Sala 2015) would not have a major impact on
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22 368 playa groundwater recharge. Although upland vegetation did not correlate with playa recharge,
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24 369 vegetation density in playas may be influencing recharge beneath playas. Changes in playa-
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27 370 vegetation cover can influence transpiration and infiltration rates of water beneath the rooting
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29 371 zones in playas (Scanlon *et al* 2005; Kim and Jackson 2012). Increases in playa grazing intensity
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31 372 that affect plant cover could further increase groundwater recharge. On the contrary, overgrazing
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34 373 may also increase soil compaction, which can decrease infiltration rates in playa soils (Dlamini
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36 374 *et al* 2016). Playas already play a key role in sustaining livestock and wildlife during wet years
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39 375 since they produce high-quality biomass that allows animals an alternative to the low-quality
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41 376 forage characteristic of mixed grassland/shrubland uplands (Eldridge *et al* 2011). It has been
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43 377 estimated that over 50% of playas in the Southern High Plains of Texas are used for livestock
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46 378 grazing (Bolen *et al* 1989).

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48 379 Predicted increases in the frequency and magnitude of large rainfall events would
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50 380 increase flood frequency in drylands with negative economic impact (Donat *et al* 2016). The
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53 381 upside of more frequent floods would be higher rates of groundwater recharge beneath playas
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55 382 that enhance the sustainability of drylands in Southwestern USA aquifers.
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5 384 **5. Conclusion**

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8 385 Groundwater resources in Southwestern USA are diminishing at an unsustainable rate.
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10 386 Playas are periodically flooded desert wetlands and have the potential to be important areas of
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12 387 groundwater recharge. We found that playa-mediated recharge would become greater in the
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15 388 future with a predicted increase frequency of runoff-producing storms. This finding is
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18 389 contradictory to current consensus that groundwater recharge will decrease under climate change
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20 390 in drylands (Meixner *et al* 2016)., We found that desert playas are important areas for
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22 391 groundwater recharge although they are not currently included in most groundwater budgets of
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25 392 desert aquifers. Our results also indicated that playas found in larger and steeper catchments with
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27 393 finer-textured soils coincided with the highest rates of recharge.
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31
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