

## 1 **Technical appendix**

### 2 *2.1. Soil stratigraphy*

3 In November 2015, three soil cores were taken down to 13 ft with a Geoprobe push-drill  
4 system (Geoprobe Systems, Salina, KS). Cores were opened within 48 hours after coring to take  
5 sediment samples for soil texture analysis and to describe stratigraphy. Cores were sampled  
6 based on stratigraphy as determined by changes in color or texture. Redoximorphic features were  
7 noted throughout the cores. Samples were tested for carbonates using 0.5M HCl. A modified  
8 pipette method was used to analyze texture whereby 0.18 oz of soil were placed in 1.69 oz  
9 centrifuge tubes with 1.35 oz of 0.5% sodium phosphate and shaken overnight (Soil Survey  
10 Laboratory Methods Manual, 1992). After shaking samples overnight, they were hand shaken  
11 before a 0.08 oz aliquot was taken 11 seconds (sand fraction) and 1 hour and 51 minutes (clay  
12 fraction), respectively and placed in a pre-weighed tin. Tins were oven dried at 221 °F overnight  
13 and reweighed the next day. Silt fractions were calculated by subtracting the sand and clay  
14 fraction from 1.

15  
16 The soil stratigraphy at the Delhi site consisted of varieties of sand in the recharge treatment  
17 and increasingly finer materials (silt loam and silt) in the control (Supplementary Fig. 1). At  
18 Modesto, a lower percentage of clay was found in the recharge treatment than in the control in  
19 the surface soil profile at 0-3.3 ft. A clay-rich layer was located at 4.3 ft depth in the recharge  
20 treatment and at 3.3 ft depth in the control (Supplementary Fig. 2).

### 21 22 *2.2. Root zone hydrology and water percolation*

23 Volumetric water content (VWC) was measured at each site and within each treatment at two  
24 randomly selected trees at 0.5, 1.5 and 3.3 ft depths using Decagon GS-1 and GS-3 sensors  
25 (Decagon Devices, Pullman, WA). Water for groundwater recharge was provided by the land  
26 owner or local water district, who reported total application amounts per event. Using the applied  
27 water amounts and VWC data, a water balance model based on the Thornthwaite-Mather  
28 procedure (Dahlke et al., 2018; Steenhuis and Van Der Molen, 1986) was set up for each site to  
29 estimate the fraction of applied water going to deep percolation (i.e., groundwater recharge)  
30 versus to evapotranspiration and to storage in pore space. The model was applied only to the root  
31 zone (upper 2 ft), where most evapotranspiration demand takes place.

32  
33 Attenuation of applied water in the deeper soil profile (transmission zone, 2 to 5 ft) was  
34 modeled with a one-dimensional vertical flow model capable of simulating saturated and  
35 unsaturated flow. More detailed information on the soil water balance model can be found in  
36 (Dahlke et al., 2018).

37  
38 Rootzone residence time was estimated as the time duration the soil maintained a volumetric  
39 water content equal to or exceeding field capacity. Using the observed VWC data the soils at  
40 both field sites reached field capacity when removal from water from the soil profile due to  
41 gravity slowed down and the tails of the VWC data after rainfall or flooding events flatten out.  
42 These values correspond to  $0.15 \text{ in}^3/\text{in}^3$  for Delhi and  $0.3 \text{ in}^3/\text{in}^3$  for Modesto.

43  
44 *2.3. Midday stem water potential*

45 Changes in water status of single trees with groundwater recharge were determined by stem  
46 water potential ( $\Psi_{\text{stem}}$ ) measurements using the pressure bomb method (Scholander et al., 1965).  
47 Measurements were made on shaded leaves close to the stem except in winter, when twigs were  
48 used. Each leaf or twig was covered with a plastic bag inside an aluminum foil exterior envelope  
49 for an hour prior to sampling. After equilibrium was reached, a razor blade was used to cut the  
50 petiole of an encased leaf or the base of an encased twig. The bagged sample was then inserted  
51 into a Scholander pressure chamber (3000 series, Soil Moisture Equipment Corp., Santa Barbara,  
52 CA, USA).

53

#### 54 *2.4. In situ root observation and root image analysis*

55 The minirhizotron technique was applied for *in situ* root observation. One minirhizotron tube  
56 was installed beside each sample tree with an insertion angle of 60° which could reach to 2 ft soil  
57 depth, with five trees in each treatment block and ten trees at each field site. Root images were  
58 collected approximately every three weeks from January 2016 to October 2017, using CID-600  
59 In-Situ Root Imager (CID Bio-Science, Camas, WA, USA). Each tube yielded four root images  
60 per time of measurement. The size of each window was 19.6 cm wide and 21.5 cm long. Root  
61 images were imported and analyzed using Rootfly software (Clemson University, USA). Images  
62 were digitally enhanced when needed (generally brighten and increase contrast) and sorted by  
63 tube, then processed by depth for the whole series of observation dates. This allowed for  
64 checking root appearance and disappearance through time. Roots were manually traced for  
65 length and diameter and appearance and disappearance dates were marked as “birth” and  
66 “death”. All data were then exported into an Excel spreadsheet, double checked for outliers and

67 mistakes, and total lengths of new root appearance (birth) and root disappearance (death) within  
68 each period (three months interval) were calculated.

69

## 70 *2.5. Canopy light interception and yield*

71 Photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) below the canopy ( $PAR_b$ ) of both sides of trees was  
72 measured in each replicate treatment during the growing season in 2016 and 2017 using digital  
73 photography. A GoPro Hero HD2 digital camera (GoPro Inc., San Mateo, CA, USA) mounted at  
74 a height of 1.4 m above the orchard floor on a Kawasaki Mule utility vehicle was used for  
75 capturing images of the canopy shadow. Full sun PAR ( $PAR_a$ ) was recorded simultaneously at  
76 the end of each row. All the images were collected at solar noon  $\pm$  1 h. Digital images were then  
77 processed to calculate the area of canopy shadow using the open source software GIMP 2.8 (The  
78 GIMP Development Team 2013, <http://www.gimp.org/>). Details in the design of the novel digital  
79 photographic technique and image processing are described in (Zarate-Valdez et al., 2015).

80 Fraction PAR (fPAR) intercepted by the canopy was calculated with the formula as below:

81

$$82 \quad fPAR = \frac{PAR_b}{PAR_a}$$

83

84 Yield was measured at harvest in 2015 (pre-treatment), and in 2016 and 2017 by utilizing  
85 commercial nut harvesting carts with built-in weigh bars and electronic scales. Subsamples were  
86 collected and cracked out by hand to determine almond kernel weight and quality parameters.

87

## 88 *2.6. Data analysis*

89 Data were analyzed separately by location. A t-test was used to determine the differences  
90 between the means (stem water potential, root growth, canopy light interception and yield) of the  
91 two groups of almond trees (under no recharge (control) and recharge treatment, respectively) at  
92 a significance level of  $\alpha = 0.05$ . The t-test effectively tests the null hypothesis that the means of  
93 tree physiological responses for each group of trees are not significantly different from each  
94 other. A  $p$ -value  $< 0.05$  would allow rejection of the null hypothesis and indicates a significant  
95 difference in a particular response between the groups of trees.

96

## 97 **References**

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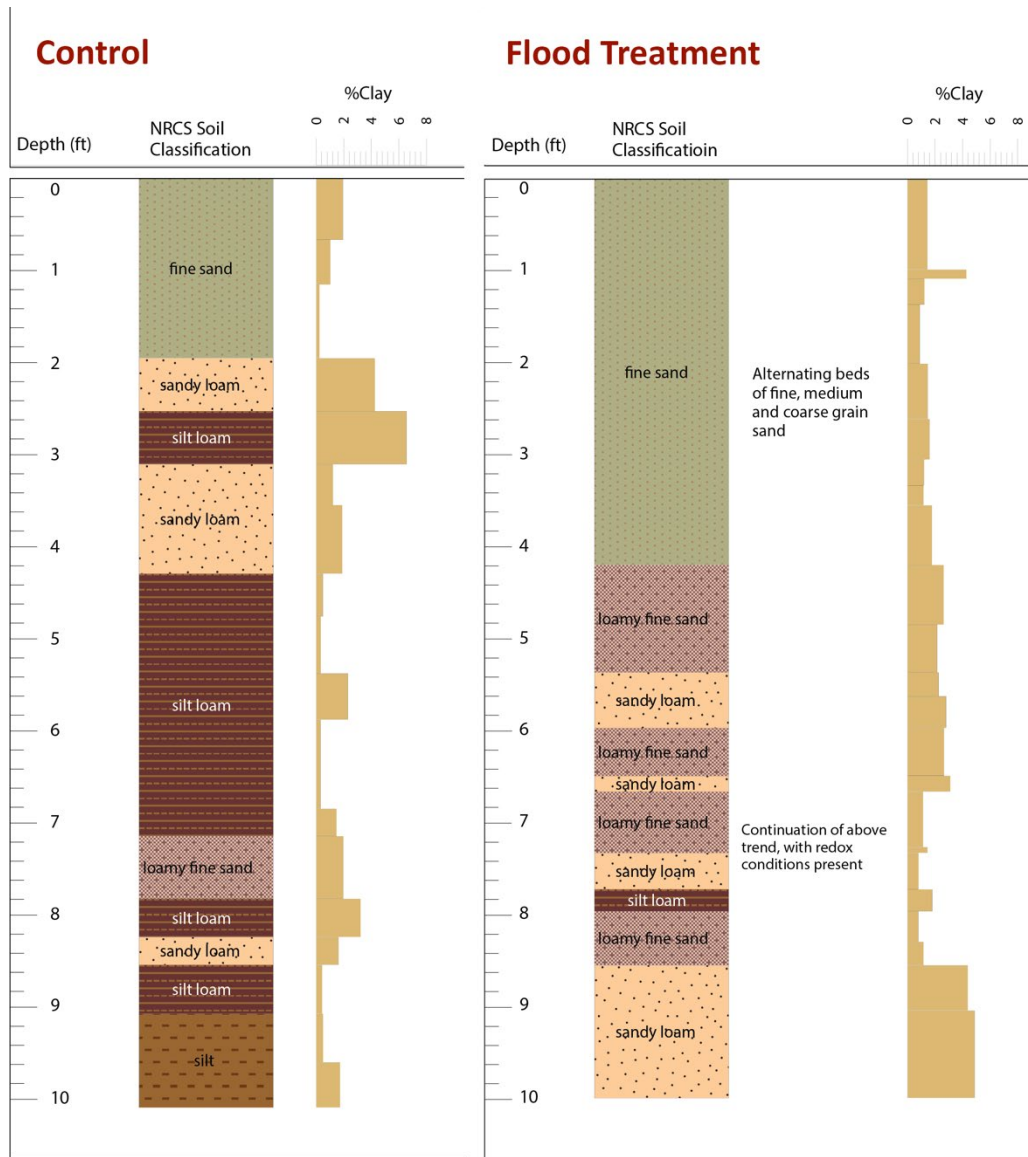
111 **Figure captions**

112 **Supplementary Figure 1.** Soil stratigraphy and percent clay content in the control and recharge  
113 treatments at the Delhi site.

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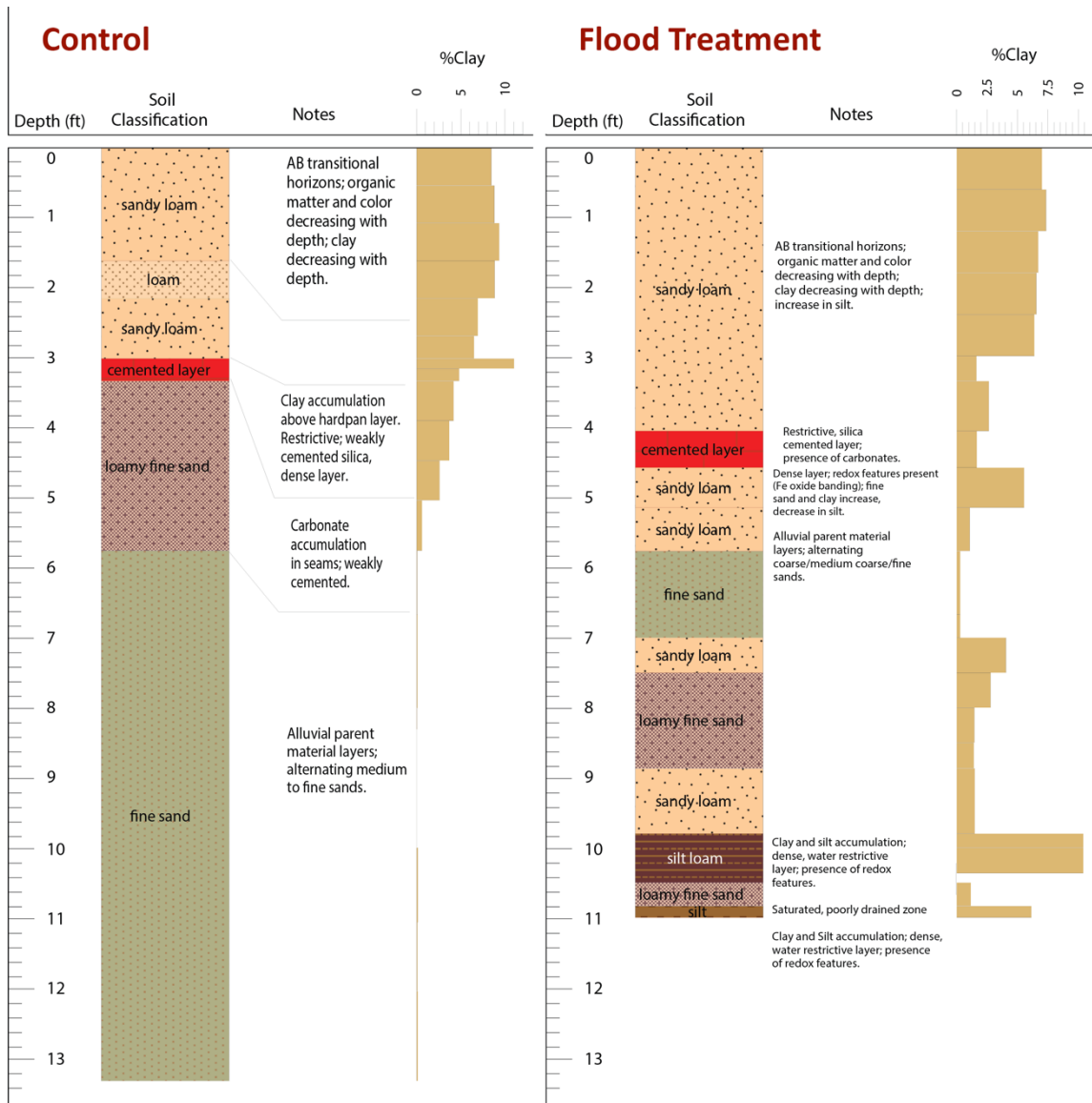
115 **Supplementary Figure 2.** Soil stratigraphy and percent clay content in the control and recharge  
116 treatments at the Modesto site.

117 **Supplementary Figure 1**



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119 **Supplementary Figure 2**



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