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3 **Hydropedology: Synergistic Integration of Pedology and Hydrology**

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1 **CUAHSI VISION PAPER**

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3 **Hydropedology: Synergistic Integration of Pedology and Hydrology**

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1 **Abstract**

2 This paper presents a vision for developing and promoting hydro pedology as a new
3 interdisciplinary science that embraces multiscale basic and applied research of interacting
4 pedological and hydrological processes and their properties in the vadose zone. *Landscape*
5 *water flux* is suggested as a unifying focus for hydro pedology that is related to storages,
6 pathways, residence times, and spatio-temporal organization of water in the root and deep vadose
7 zones, and through which pedological and hydrological expertise can be better integrated. After
8 illustrating multiple knowledge gaps that can be addressed by the synergistic integration of
9 pedology and hydrology, we suggest twelve scientific hypotheses that require vigorous testing
10 and concerted efforts from pedologists and hydrologists. Among them, six are critical concepts
11 and challenges for advancing hydro pedology and for enhancing the prediction of landscape water
12 flux (i.e., a holistic conceptual framework, hierarchical structures, patterns, bridging multiple
13 scales, elegant and robust models, and human impacts), and the other six are related to the
14 unique contributions of hydro pedology to the advancement of hydrology and pedology (i.e., soil
15 morphology, genesis, classification, mapping, database, and future advancement of pedology).
16 We then present three interlinked strategies for achieving the stated vision and the role of the
17 CUAHSI. They are: 1) design of a set of scientific experiments to test the proposed hypotheses,
18 2) use of the CUAHSI's Hydrologic Observatories and natural soil laboratories, and 3)
19 promotion and dissemination of hydro pedology. We conclude this paper with statements on
20 expected scientific and societal impacts from the proposed research vision. It is our hope that, by
21 working together, hydrologists and pedologists, along with related discipline scientists (e.g., soil
22 physicists, hydrogeologists, hydrogeophysicists, ecohydrologists, geochemists, and atmospheric

1 scientists) can better guide data acquisition, knowledge integration, and modeling-based
2 prediction to advance hydrological science in the next decade and beyond.

3

4 **1. Introduction**

5 It is well recognized that the progress of science depends increasingly on an advanced
6 understanding of the interrelationships among different fields and their components (AAAS
7 Council, 2001). An interdisciplinary systems approach is a proven vehicle for addressing
8 synergistically a wide array of environmental, ecological, agricultural, geological, and natural
9 resource issues of societal importance. Over the past few decades, there has been a growing
10 interest in a landscape perspective when dealing with cross-disciplinary issues such as non-point
11 source pollution, whole watershed management, integrated agricultural systems, precision
12 farming, sustainable land use, and ecosystem restoration and preservation. With a landscape
13 perspective comes the need to address inherent variability in the field and to transfer knowledge
14 and information across scales from the laboratory or small plot to the larger field and watershed
15 scales. It also raises the need for field experimental designs and models that take into account
16 the spatial scale triplet (i.e., spacing, support, and extent) and temporal scale triplet (i.e.,
17 sampling time interval, smoothing or averaging interval, and length of record) (e.g., Blöschl and
18 Grayson, 2000). The changing factors that control abiotic and biotic processes in the continuum
19 of a landscape should also be taken into account for effective modeling and reliable prediction.

20 Pedology and hydrology are scientific disciplines inherently associated with the landscape
21 perspective. Pedology is a branch of soil science that integrates and quantifies the morphology,
22 formation, distribution, and classification of soils as natural or anthropogenically-modified
23 landscape entities (Wilding, 2000; Buol et al., 2001). Combining pedological and hydrological

1 expertise can be particularly powerful in addressing complex environmental issues and policies
2 (Bouma, 2005). Indeed, soil and water interaction creates the fundamental interface between the
3 biotic and abiotic and thus functions as a critical determinant of the state of the earth system (Fig.
4 1). However, traditional solutions and approaches to measuring, modeling, and predicting the
5 fluxes of water through soils and over landscapes (including the transport of chemicals and
6 energy by the water flow) have long been plagued by discipline-limited efforts and “stereotype”
7 visions on both sides of the fence. For example, the following limitations need to be overcome
8 in order to truly ally pedology and hydrology (Lin et al., 2004a):

9

- 10 • To many hydrologists, pedologists use “strange” names to describe field soils and they
11 make empirical statements about soil functions based on observations that are not
12 necessarily supported by measurements. On the other hand, pedologists are taken back
13 by the simplified representation of field soils in terms of homogeneity and isotropy that
14 hydrologists often assume in their models, which, to pedologists, clearly does not
15 adequately reflect real-world conditions;
- 16 • Pedology has its roots in soil survey that considers *soil-landscape relationships* and *soil*
17 *structure*. These two aspects are critical for surface and unsaturated zone hydrology in
18 order to improve quantitative characterization of flow regimes in the field. However, the
19 pedological knowledge is often conveyed as semi-quantitative statements. Pedologists
20 thus can benefit from flow theories in hydrology when transforming qualitative
21 descriptions into quantitative expressions that are increasingly in demand from diverse
22 users of soil survey information and providing inputs to environmental policy making.

23

1 There are multiple knowledge gaps that can be addressed by the synergistic integration of
2 pedology and hydrology, as further exemplified in the following:

- 3
4 • Prediction of preferential flow dynamics and pathways at different scales, their interface
5 with the soil matrix, their residence times, and their significance in different soils and
6 landscapes remain unresolved (e.g., NRC, 2001d; Lin, 2003). Hydrologists may not have
7 a clear picture of flow pathways in the unsaturated zone before starting modeling or field
8 experiments. Pedologists routinely document *in situ* pedological features (such as clay
9 films, ped coatings, soil structures, root distributions, macropores, and hydromorphic
10 features) that often indicate preferential flow paths and soil moisture regimes. While
11 qualitative or semi-quantitative approaches based on whole-soil interpretations have been
12 successfully used (e.g., Boorman et al., 1995), a concerted effort is needed to quantify
13 soil natural "architecture" (including soil cover, soil structure, and soil layering) in a
14 manner that can be incorporated into models of flow and transport and their scaling.
- 15 • “Where, when, and how” water moves through landscapes and its impacts on soil
16 processes and subsequently soil spatial patterns needs to be better understood.
17 Conceptual and mathematical models of water movement through and over the landscape
18 are key aspects of hydrological modeling, contaminant transport, and terrestrial
19 ecosystem distributions. Currently, many hydrological models do a poor job in
20 predicting subsurface lateral flow and baseflow vs. runoff in total streamflow (Wood,
21 1999). But sloping topography, stratification, and soil layering (especially water-
22 restricting layers) all favor lateral flow (Richardson et al., 2001). The convergence of
23 surface and subsurface lateral flows within a landscape results in the formation and

1 distribution of streams and rivers and contributes to the spatial heterogeneity of soil and
2 vegetation across the landscape. Quantification of soil formation and soil spatial
3 diversity is needed for different landscapes. Linking pedology to hydrology can facilitate
4 the achievement of such a goal (Lin et al., 2004a).

- 5 • Bridging multiple scales remains at the heart of many hydrological and pedological
6 studies. It is highly desirable to explore quantitative ways of bridging scales from
7 microscopic (e.g., pores, aggregates) to mesoscopic (e.g., pedons, catenas) and to
8 macroscopic (e.g., watersheds, regional, and global) levels for different hydrological and
9 pedological properties and processes. Pedologists study both the *mechanisms* and the
10 *magnitudes* of soil spatial diversity as a basis for broad generalizations about soil genesis,
11 classification, and mapping; whereas hydrologists have also long been concerned with
12 scaling and spatio-temporal variability of hydrological processes. However, the
13 convergence of these efforts has not occurred. Joint efforts of pedologists and
14 hydrologists will likely shed light on the fundamental processes upon which scale
15 bridging might be possible. As an example, pedogenesis is an integrated phenomenon
16 resulting from a series of physical, chemical, and biological processes, hence providing a
17 holistic view of the system evolution and hydrological processes that have occurred or
18 are occurring at the earth's surface and near-surface environment.
- 19 • Hydrologists need soil hydraulic parameters in their models and information to specify
20 flow paths, but such data are often lacking or difficult to obtain in large volumes. In the
21 mean time, many national and regional soil survey databases developed over the last
22 century have been underused in addressing environmental and ecological issues.
23 Improved procedures to extract useful information from the available databases and to

1 enhance soil survey interpretations for flow and transport characteristics in different soils
2 are needed. Bridging data gaps through approaches such as pedotransfer functions and
3 pedotransfer rules will be continuously in demand, which will enhance the value of soil
4 survey databases and provide hydrologists with model input parameters. In addition, soil
5 categorizations that differentiate various soil hydrologic units (e.g., in terms of flow
6 patterns and transport mechanisms), and soil morphology quantification for inferring *in*
7 *situ* soil moisture regime, water table behavior, soil drainability, flow paths, and soil
8 hydraulic properties are essential research areas. The combined efforts from pedologists
9 and hydrologists will open up promising opportunities for building mutually beneficial
10 common databases.

- 11 • Hydrologists often believe that pedologists tend to view the soil as a static entity as they
12 categorize soil characteristics into non-dynamic entities (such as grouping soil inherent
13 drainage into ‘well’ or ‘poorly’ drained classes). This is yet another misperception and
14 pedologists generally have a considerable understanding of the implications of these
15 terms for predicting the height and duration of waterlogging within the soil as well as
16 temporal changes in soil water regimes in the medium- to long-term. However, this is
17 not always clearly communicated. Water table fluctuations in soils influence soil water
18 storage capacity and runoff and thereby impact on such hydrological response as flood
19 hydrographs, base flow, and solute concentrations in aquatic systems. Regular temporal
20 sampling frameworks are becoming recognized in pedology, and concerted efforts from
21 pedologists and hydrologists can lead to more complete datasets that include extreme
22 events (e.g., sediment or solute concentrations in peak flow or sustained drought). A

1 move towards continuous sampling or monitoring of the unsaturated zone will provide
2 better datasets for hydrological modeling.

3
4 The developments in pedology and hydrology are now converging on multiple fronts, as
5 illustrated in the above examples. This common ground leads to synergies that can be expected
6 from integrating the two disciplines, as suggested in recent literature and professional activities
7 (e.g., Lin, 2003; Lin et al., 2004a; Bouma, 2005; Wilding and Lin, 2005). We believe that
8 integrating hydrology and pedology will give enhanced understanding and prediction of water
9 fluxes and flow pathways in landscapes. It is in such a context that a vision of hydrology is
10 proposed in this paper. We hope that hydrology becomes a common theme across the
11 CUAHSI's hydrologic observatories.

12 Hydrology is a branch of soil science and hydrology that encompasses multiscale basic
13 and applied research of interacting pedological and hydrological processes and their properties in
14 the vadose zone (Lin, 2003; Lin et al., 2004a). Hydrology could be viewed as a sister
15 discipline of hydrogeology, with the latter traditionally looking at saturated systems. The
16 synergistic integration of hydrology and pedology (along with other related bio- and geo-
17 sciences such as soil physics, hydrogeophysics, and ecohydrology) into hydrology suggests
18 a renewed perspective and a more integrative approach to studying soil-water interactions across
19 scales, and their relations to climate, ecosystem, land use, and contaminant fate. *Landscape*
20 *water flux* is suggested here as a unifying focus for hydrology that is related to storages,
21 pathways, residence times, and spatio-temporal organization of water in the root and deep vadose
22 zones, and through which pedological and hydrological expertise can be better integrated.
23 Working together, we believe, hydrologists and pedologists, along with related discipline

1 scientists (e.g., soil physicists, hydrogeologists, hydrogeophysicists, ecohydrologists,
2 geochemists, and atmospheric scientists) can better guide data acquisition, knowledge
3 integration, and model prediction.

4

5 **2. Research Vision**

6 Among many unresolved scientific issues in pedology and hydrology, some are fundamental.
7 Advancement in these key issues can lead to significant improvements in our understanding,
8 measurement, modeling, and prediction of water fluxes across landscapes in the next decade and
9 beyond. In the context of hydrogeology, we group such key issues into two categories: 1) six
10 critical concepts and challenges for advancing hydrogeology and for enhancing the prediction
11 of landscape water flux changes induced by factors such as climate change and land use; and 2)
12 six unique contributions of hydrogeology to the advancement of hydrological science and
13 pedology. We attempt to formulate one hypothesis in each of these twelve areas. These
14 hypotheses require vigorous testing through concerted efforts of pedologists and hydrologists,
15 along with related discipline scientists. Many of these key issues are applicable across the
16 CUAHHSI's hydrologic observatories.

17

18 ***2.1 Critical concepts and challenges for advancing hydrogeology and for enhancing the*** 19 ***prediction of landscape water flux***

20

21 **2.1.1 A holistic conceptual framework for integrated hydrogeological studies**

22 A holistic conceptual framework is called for defining quantitative relationships between *soil*
23 *structure* and *hydrologic functions* at various *scales* and the incorporation of such relationships

1 into robust *models* for prediction (Fig. 2). This framework, while generic in nature, requires
2 considerable experimental data across multiple scales and geographic regions to test. In essence,
3 four intertwined components are highlighted in this framework that could be used to guide the
4 design and implementation of integrated hydropedological studies (Fig. 2):

5

6 • *Identification of structures*: Structure creates constraints and conditions in which
7 processes act and interact. Thus, there is a need to identify the interrelationships between
8 hierarchical structures of soil and hydrologic systems;

9 • *Characterization of functions*: Acting and interacting processes create preconditions and
10 feedbacks that modify a system's structure. Hence, study of the functions and structures
11 of soil and hydrologic systems needs to be integrated, including, for example, integration
12 of soil-landscape relationships and hillslope processes, and integral characterization of a
13 land unit in terms of pedological and hydrological functions;

14 • *Bridge of scales*: Soil structures and functions interact at a variety of scales that define
15 scale-specific variability and pattern. Scales and scaling in soils need to be correlated with
16 scales and scaling in hydrology;

17 • *Systematic integrations*: Models integrate major (or dominant) properties and processes
18 at a given scale (or across multiple scales). Variability or pattern determines suitable
19 formulation and application of a model. Pedological predictive capacity needs to be
20 integrated with hydrological predictive capacity.

21

22 A relevant hypothesis is thus suggested as:

23

- 1 • *Hypothesis 1: Systematically-designed and integrated hydro-pedological studies across*
2 *multiple scales and geographic regions result in appropriate quantification of the*
3 *proposed holistic conceptual framework.*

4
5 Hydrologists and pedologists use different sets of techniques at different scales. These
6 techniques relate structures and functions at different spatial scales, as illustrated in Fig. 2. So
7 far, they have not been combined systematically. In many cases, soil structures have been
8 described in pedology without measurements of physical parameters such as hydraulic
9 conductivity or moisture retention. Soil physical measurements, in turn, have often been made
10 without any attention to soil structure or horizonation. Similar comments apply at larger scales,
11 such as a field where processes and questions being raised are different. For example, in a
12 hillslope, a soil scientist might define a soil sequence (catena) without paying attention to the
13 spatial pattern of hydrological processes and properties; whereas a hydrologist might measure
14 hydraulic conductivity without paying attention to distinctly different soil units. The watershed
15 level poses a different set of conditions where geomorphologically-defined soil-landscape
16 sections, that may contain several soil types and horizons, define a characteristic structure for
17 this scale that can be characterized with geophysical techniques and remote sensing. Systematic
18 integration of pedological and hydrological techniques across scales is likely to open new
19 avenues to innovative sampling and measurement techniques that could contribute to the
20 quantification of the proposed holistic framework and to provide the necessary integration.

21 22 **2.1.2 Quantification of hierarchical structures of soil and hydrologic systems**

1 A major difficulty in modeling flow and transport in soils – irrespective to the spatial scale –
2 is the fact that nature is structured at any scale. This can be easily demonstrated by using images
3 of soil structure obtained at various scales from soil thin sections to remotely-sensed data from
4 satellites. As a consequence, any measurement taken will depend on the support scale of the
5 instrument used. To achieve the goal of characterizing and modeling functions of soil and
6 hydrologic systems across scales, we then need to find ways to quantify soil-landscape structures
7 across scales. We need a probabilistic or fuzzy-logic discrimination of predominantly flow (or
8 fast flow) and predominantly no-flow (or slow flow) domains forming a pattern that reflect the
9 observed structures. Identification of soil-landscape structures allows enhanced understanding of
10 flow pathways and processes (e.g., preferential flow). Thus, future investments should focus on
11 spatial structure of material properties rather than on point measurements. This perspective is in
12 line with our perceived need for studying patterns (see the next Section 2.1.3).

13 A hypothesis to be tested is proposed here:

14

- 15 • *Hypothesis 2: Soil systems exhibit hierarchical structures (discrete or continuous) that*
16 *can be quantified using soil-landscape expertise, coupled with a set of measurement*
17 *techniques (noninvasive and invasive).*

18

19 We need strategies to quantify spatial structures of soil and hydrologic systems at different
20 scales. These include instruments and measurement techniques that are essentially noninvasive
21 (e.g., tomography, geophysical tools, and remote sensing). All these tools are sensitive to some
22 material properties and generate proxy measurements that can be related to those required by
23 hydrologic models. An essential part of this is to further develop fundamental insights into such

1 proxy-relationships or pedotransfer functions. One important issue is to identify critical and/or
2 rare structural information that governs hydrological processes at different scales.

3 Direct detection and measurement of soil and hydrologic spatial structures is typically
4 difficult and expensive. To make progress, we need to explicitly recognize that the observed
5 structures are not an arbitrary outcome of some unknown random processes but the result of
6 structure-forming processes that can be revealed and understood. Hence, an attractive approach
7 is to use the existing knowledge on soil structure-forming processes, which exists and is
8 continuously generated in various branches of soil science, especially pedology. Up to now,
9 these disciplines find themselves separated from hydrology. Consequently, joining these
10 disciplines in the hydropedological framework can lead to the fusion pushing our capabilities to
11 quantitatively understand flow and transport processes and pathways to a higher level.

12

13 **2.1.3 Identification and prediction of patterns (spatio-temporal organizations of** 14 **structures and functions)**

15 Identification and prediction of patterns or spatio-temporal organization across scales is
16 becoming a leading area in soil science and hydrology (e.g., Grayson and Blöschl, 2000; Lin et
17 al., 2004a). Patterns offer rich and comprehensive insights regarding the variability of structures
18 and functions, as well as the underlying processes controlling hydrologic response (e.g., Grayson
19 et al., 1997; Grayson et al., 2002; Lin et al., 2005). A number of recent catchment hydrology
20 field investigations have demonstrated how the understanding and modeling of hydrological
21 processes can be improved by the use of observed spatial patterns (e.g., Grayson and Blöschl,
22 2000). Some spatial patterns are temporally persistent (the notion of “time stability”) (e.g.,
23 Vachaud et al. 1985; Kachanoski and de Jong, 1988; Mohanty and Skaggs, 2001), which may be

1 a function of spatial scale and may vary across a landscape with different soil types (e.g.,
2 Kachanoski and de Jong, 1988; Zhang and Berndtsson, 1991; Lin et al., 2005). Western and
3 Grayson (2000) found that combining spatial patterns with temporal responses added value to
4 both observations in a modeling context and improved the confidence with which the spatio-
5 temporal organization of soil moisture could be predicted.

6 There is a great need for innovative characterization and modeling of spatio-temporal
7 patterns at different scales that are important to pedological and hydrological phenomena. Such
8 approaches will use a combination of ground-based observations, digital geospatial data layers
9 (e.g., digital elevation model or DEM, surficial geology, land cover), noninvasive
10 geophysical/hydrogeophysical methods (e.g., electromagnetic induction, ground-penetrating
11 radar, radiometry), and remote sensing imagery, along with 3-D landscape-soil-water dynamic
12 modeling. The optimal combination, integration, and data assimilation of these multiple
13 techniques and data sources will provide substantially better information regarding spatio-
14 temporal organizations of pedological and hydrological phenomena across scales. For example,
15 McKenzie and Ryan (1999) used a variety of data sources including topography, geology,
16 climate, and airborne gamma radiometric data as predictors of soil properties. Techniques for
17 combining remote sensing imagery with hydrologic models are also rapidly developing and are
18 enabling better use of remote sensing observations at large (regional to global) scales. Some
19 progress has been made in using remote sensing of hydrologic response to infer soil properties
20 and vice versa (e.g., Hollenbeck et al., 1996; Jackson and Le Vine, 1996).

21 A suggested hypothesis here is:
22

- 1 • *Hypothesis 3: Storages, pathways, and residence times of water flux in the landscape*
2 *exhibit identifiable spatial distributions and temporal patterns, with possible interacting*
3 *spatial and temporal dimensions. This spatio-temporal persistence of water fluxes can be*
4 *used to subdivide landscapes into similarly-functioning hydrologic units.*

5
6 The functional unit concept based on functional characterization of 4-D (3-D + time) soil
7 units within fields allows reliable quantification of fluxes within those fields. Hydrologically
8 similar soil-landscape units exist within watersheds and these can be identified using traditional
9 and new techniques and data sources. Winter (2001) proposed the concept of “*fundamental*
10 *hydrologic landscape unit*” as a means to break any landscape into its most basic forms: upland
11 and lowland separated by a steeper slope. Each of these units has specific characteristics,
12 including land surface form, geology, and climate, which control its hydrology. In the context of
13 hydrology, soil-landscape relationships and soil hydrologic characteristics are emphasized
14 in defining similarly-functioning hydrologic units over a landscape.

15 Note that some differences within fields, as distinguished by pedologists, do not always
16 correspond with hydrologic functional differences, for instance, in terms of different fluxes or
17 water contents at particular pressure heads. Wösten et al. (1985) transformed soil patterns on
18 detailed soil maps into patterns of “functional units” that each had distinctly different hydraulic
19 conductivity and moisture retention characteristics. In doing so, the number of spatial units on
20 the map was reduced by 30%. Breeuwsma et al. (1986) did the same but for cation exchange
21 capacity and phosphorous adsorption capacity, resulting in reductions of 20% and 30%,
22 respectively. A more sophisticated procedure was followed by Bouma et al. (2002) who
23 delineated “management units” for precision agriculture on the basis of simulation runs for

1 nitrogen transformations and pesticide leaching for point data, followed by interpolation.
2 Knowing the internal variability within these “management units” allows estimates to be made of
3 the variability obtained for simulation runs for the units.
4

5 **2.1.4 Bridging multiple scales**

6 Translating information about soil and hydrologic properties and processes across scales has
7 emerged as a major theme in contemporary soil science and hydrology (e.g., Kalma and
8 Sivapalan, 1995; Sposito, 1998; Hoosbeek et al., 1998; Western et al., 2002; Pachepsky et al.,
9 2003). As remote sensing techniques for estimating large-area soil and hydrologic properties and
10 *in situ* measurements for local areas continue to be developed, bridging multiple scales becomes
11 even more essential. At present, no single theory emerges that is ideal for spatial aggregation (or
12 upscaling), disaggregation (or downscaling), and temporal inference (or prediction) of soils and
13 hydrologic information. The major complementary approaches include scaling via defined
14 hierarchies and continuous models of spatial variation as described by fractal theory and
15 geostatistics (Lin and Rathbun, 2003). Further exploration of this topic is critical.

16 Hierarchical frameworks have been conceptualized by pedologists as a means for organizing
17 soil systems from the soil pore scale to the global pedosphere (Fig. 3a) (Hoosbeek and Bryant,
18 1992; Wilding, 2000). Hierarchical complexity has been studied in pedology, which has long
19 recognized self-organized complexity in the processes of soil formation, with taxonomic
20 frameworks constructed to summarize that ordering (Buol et al., 2001). However, quantitative
21 hierarchy of soil systems that could be integrated into models of flow, scaling, and rate processes
22 is still lacking. Sommer et al. (2003) recently presented an integrated method for soil-landscape
23 analysis, in which a hierarchical expert system was developed for multi-data fusion of inquires,

1 relief analysis, geophysical measurements, and remote sensing data, as well as a combination of
2 the soil-forming factorial model of Jenny (1941) with the scaleway of Vogel and Roth (2003) to
3 address soil variability across scales.

4 There are several approaches in hydrology and soil physics to incorporate spatial
5 heterogeneity into flow and transport modeling, including macroscopic homogeneity, discrete
6 hierarchy, continuous hierarchy, and fractals (Fig. 3b). Vogel and Roth (2003) suggested a
7 “scaleway” for predictive modeling of flow and transport in the subsurface at any scale. This
8 conceptual approach is based on the explicit consideration of spatial structure that is assumed to
9 present at any scale of interest, while the microscopic heterogeneities are replaced by an
10 averaged, effective description. Some studies (e.g., Cushman, 1990; Vogel et al., 2002) have
11 suggested a discrete hierarchy of representative elementary volume (REV), where the REV is a
12 local property related to a given level of soil structural unit. This is consistent with the
13 hierarchical organization of soil aggregates that is characteristic of most soils (e.g., Tisdall and
14 Oades, 1982; Oades and Waters, 1991). However, quantification of soil structure and its impacts
15 on flow and transport in field soils remain unresolved. A new and versatile geometric foundation
16 for representing porous media (e.g., fractal geometry, percolation theory, and geometric
17 modeling) is emerging as one of the possibilities for achieving improvements in media scaling,
18 flow modeling, and soil hydraulic function characterization (e.g., Crawford et al., 1999; Jury,
19 1999; Gerke and van Genuchten, 1996). Further progress requires joint efforts of pedologists,
20 hydrologists, mathematicians, and related discipline scientists.

21 A hypothesis is suggested here:

22

- 1 • *Hypothesis 4: Scale dependence in hydrologic parameters can be explained using*
2 *hierarchical structures in soils, topography, and land cover. Scaling via structural*
3 *hierarchies enables enhanced prediction of water fluxes across scales.*

4
5 Changing scale in soil and landscape studies means the changes in the type of information
6 obtained about the system, in parameters used to characterize the system, in the system's
7 variability, and in the observability and predictability of the system. Accordingly, scale
8 transition unavoidably includes change of the flow model in hydrology (e.g., Navier-Stokes →
9 Richards equation → water mass balance equation) and change in structure characterization in
10 pedology (e.g., aggregate structure → profile structure → structure of soil cover). It is a
11 system's structure that determines the processes or "physics" involved, and only when the
12 physics is understood can a suitable flow model be developed. A triadic approach to scaling was
13 suggested in which material properties from the finer scale are used to estimate model
14 parameters values from the scale in question, whereas the system properties from the coarser
15 scale are used to establish constraints for model behavior (Faybishenko et al., 2003). The
16 exhaustive characterization of structure at each scale should describe rare structural features that,
17 in actuality, may define the hydraulic behavior at the coarser scale (Pachepsky et al., 2004).
18 Connected macropores that are rare at the soil horizon scale present an example of such a feature
19 because they define soil hydraulic behavior under continuous water supply at the soil profile
20 scale. Scale-specific delineation of rare structural features and characterization of their
21 hydrologic role require a concerted effort from pedologists and hydrologists.

22 Hierarchy theory in ecology (O'Neill et al., 1986, 1989) presents some valuable
23 philosophical and operational concepts pertaining to the quantification of hierarchical structures

1 of soil and hydrologic systems (e.g., Haigh, 1987; Wagenet, 1998; Lin et al., 2004a). If properly
2 constructed, a hierarchy of soil systems should reflect logical links and quantitative relationships
3 among scales. It can be argued, however, that soil scientists' hierarchy of scales is often more an
4 operational or observational device, based on the ability or feasibility to measure, rather than
5 fundamental differences in basic processes (Wagenet, 1998). Hierarchy theory in ecology
6 defines "*holons*," which are nested spatial units characterized by integrated biological, physical,
7 and chemical processes (Haigh, 1987). In comparison, soil science uses entities that are less well
8 defined and procedures that are less integrated. Further exploration in this area is worthwhile.

9

10 **2.1.5 Need for elegant and robust models**

11 Many current hydrologic models are either "too good to be real" or "too real to be good." In
12 the first case, oversimplification undercuts the accuracy or generality of the results. In the
13 second case, the need for detailed input data renders the model impractical to apply except in a
14 research setting. Compromises between the quest for perfection and the complex reality,
15 compounded by our limited knowledge, available modeling technology, and/or suitable data,
16 plus natural uncertainty, are facts of life. Multiplicity and site-specificity of hydrologic models
17 gain evidence and acceptance in hydrology (Beven, 2000) and it is therefore best to consider a
18 broad range of reasonable alternative hypotheses and base the model on a variety of different
19 types of data (NRC, 2001d). Armed with advances in categorizing soil-landscape relationships
20 and cataloging existing structures, pedology has a potential to contribute substantially to building
21 a range of hypotheses that should be considered in hydrologic modeling. Needs of hydrologic
22 modeling, in turn, may catalyze efforts on organizing available soils information in a form
23 relevant to modeling needs. Pedology has already provided a spectrum of pedotransfer functions

1 to be used in model parameterization (Pachepsky and Rawls, 2005). More can be expected as
2 information on soil structure and landscape features are being incorporated into pedotransfer
3 functions (e.g., Rawls and Pachepsky, 2002; Lin et al., 2004a). In addition, as the importance of
4 prior model parameter estimates along with posterior estimates from calibration becomes
5 recognized, soil-landscape databases and pedotransfer functions can serve as useful sources of
6 prior estimates. The need to use a broad range of data warrants efforts in developing a
7 quantitative framework for linking soil moisture fields to climatic, pedologic, topographic, and
8 vegetative processes and for linking data collected at different scales of spatial support. Such
9 data assimilation and data fusion may improve operational use of hydrologic models at large
10 scales by supporting model testing, verification, and refinement.

11 A hypothesis is suggested here:

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- 13 • *Hypothesis 5: Soil-landscape relationships are essential elements in developing elegant*
14 *and robust hydrological models. Hydrologically similar soil-landscape units exist within*
15 *watersheds and these can be identified using traditional and new pedological and*
16 *hydrological techniques.*

17

18 The most important step in any modeling is to determine what is important to system
19 behavior. In modeling catchment response, determining the dominant processes and flow
20 pathways that are responsible for controlling hydrologic response at different space and time
21 scales enables development of good conceptual models that then form the basis of quantitative
22 simulations of response. However, mixtures of different processes control hydrologic responses
23 in different landscapes. At present hydrologic modelers struggle to determine what the dominant

1 processes and flow paths are in a particular landscape unless they have been studied in detail.
2 However, there is a potential to be better informed through more innovative use of soil survey
3 data and through some modifications of the base data collected during soil surveys. It is
4 important to note that as interest shifts to issues involving transport of solutes and sediments
5 driven by flows of water that the hydrologic models need to get the flow paths and associated
6 fluxes right, i.e., they need to be right for the right reasons, something that is not required to
7 make a good prediction of integrated catchment runoff at watershed scales.

8 Another area where modelers are challenged is in developing system descriptions that work
9 well across scales (Beven, 2002). This is partly because different processes become dominant at
10 different scales, partly because the detail of information available typically decreases as one
11 moves up in scale, and partly because the level of detail that can be represented reduces at larger
12 scales due to the pragmatic constraint of computing. These effects have a number of
13 implications that complicate modeling. At microscales, flow is controlled by capillarity and
14 laminar flow through individual pores and around peds. As scale increases, flow often becomes
15 controlled by impeding layers in the soil profile, then accumulation of water downslope leading
16 to surface saturation, and finally routing of flow through the stream network. These changes in
17 dominant process with scale mean that model structures change with scale of application. Data
18 availability is also changing across scales. It is possible to characterize individual pores in a thin
19 section but not for a soil profile; likewise, it is possible to characterize a soil profile in detail in a
20 soil pit but not possible to characterize the 3-D soil entity to the same level of detail even in a
21 first order catchment. This is fundamental because properties are spatially variable. This means
22 that some form of average or statistical representation of small-scale detail may be required in
23 models, even if the model resolves the system with a fine grid in space and time. Although

1 limits on computing power will become less a concern in the next decade, larger spatial and
2 temporal units are generally used for larger scale models. An implication of this is that clever
3 algorithms are required that capture the effects of unresolved or unrepresented small scale
4 processes, spatio-temporal variability of these processes, and the nonlinearities that typify
5 environmental processes.

6 Besides the complexity of spatial scale, we also stress the critical importance of temporal
7 dimension. The time scales over which soil and hydrological processes occur range from
8 milliseconds for soil chemical reactions to decades or longer for transport of solutes to ground
9 water, with some processes occurring only sporadically and also changing under different
10 conditions. In addition, there is often a disjunction between soil and land use interactions and the
11 subsequent impacts on aquatic systems. For example, nitrate is leached from soils in temperate
12 agricultural systems largely during the winter but the impacts on aquatic ecology are often seen
13 in summer and often at some distance away from the original source (Ferrier and Edwards,
14 2002). Therefore, measurement frequency must be aligned to the temporal variability and its
15 structure (e.g., runoff events) inherent in pedological and hydrological processes. An adequate
16 understanding and appropriate representation of temporal variability, the scales over which
17 different processes operate, and the disassociations between sources and impacts, is vital to the
18 development of robust models that can simulate hydropedological processes, watershed
19 response, and environmental dynamics. Analogous to the REV, perhaps a concept of
20 “representative elementary time-step” might be explored for characterizing temporal variability
21 of pedological and hydrological phenomena.

22 We are now entering a predictive age (e.g., predicting future changes due to land use and
23 climate change). With prediction comes a critical issue of uncertainty quantification in

1 modeling. There has been substantial growth in research directed at quantifying and reducing
2 the uncertainty associated with predictive modeling in the vadose zone (e.g., Holt and Nicholl,
3 2004). Most existing research on vadose zone uncertainty has focused on various components of
4 the modeling process (e.g., uncertainty due to spatial heterogeneity and parameter estimation),
5 while other important aspects have received limited attention (e.g., implicit conceptualization
6 and global uncertainty) (Holt and Nicholl, 2004). Implicit conceptualization includes imposed
7 assumptions regarding process, scale, geometry, and even numerical solution techniques,
8 whereas global uncertainty refers to cumulative uncertainty that occurs via uncertainty
9 propagation through the modeling process (Holt and Nicholl, 2004). New conceptual and
10 quantitative approaches are needed to characterize the magnitude of various uncertainties
11 inherent in soil and hydrologic modeling predictions.

12

13 **2.1.6 Human impacts and the concepts of soil “*genoform*” and “*phenoform*”**

14 With increasing emphasis on human impacts and land management practices, the arising
15 interest in dynamic soil and water properties require more attention to hydropedology.
16 Anthropogenic influences on soils have resulted in distinct characteristics that can be used to
17 classify and model naturally-formed soils under different land management scenarios. Concepts
18 of “*genoform*” (for genetically defined soil series) and “*phenoform*” (for soil types resulting
19 from a particular form of management in a given *genoform*) facilitate the incorporation of
20 management effects into pedological and hydrological characterizations and enhance
21 pedotransfer functions that involve soil series and land uses as carriers of soil hydraulic
22 information.

23 A hypothesis in this area is suggested as:

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- **Hypothesis 6:** *The concept of “genoform” and “phenoform” combined with the use of pedotransfer functions can improve the efficacy of soil series and land use as carriers of soil hydraulic information under different human impacts.*

Any given soil can be changed significantly by land use management practices. For example, Droogers and Bouma (1997) studied a prime agricultural soil in the Netherlands and found that the organic matter content of a tilled variant had significantly increased as a result of organic manuring for many years. Also, grassland had significantly higher organic matter contents even though soil classifications of these two so-called phenoforms of the given genoform were identical. Modeling crop growth and nitrate leaching to the ground water yielded significantly different results, which indicated that just taking the standard soil descriptions (for the genoform) when characterizing a land mapping unit may produce erroneous results. Pedotransfer functions often use organic matter contents and bulk densities as input parameters and these vary significantly among different phenoforms. Distinguishing different phenoforms for a given genoform (or soil series) can refine the dynamic characterization of soils and pedotransfer functions under different human impacts, which will undoubtedly enhance hydrologic modeling and prediction.

2.2 Unique contributions of hydropedology to the advancement of hydrology and pedology

Hydropedology is a timely addition in this exciting era of interdisciplinary and systems approaches for developing comprehensive prioritization of science and applications in pedology and hydrology. Seizing this opportunity requires that we develop a vision of hydropedology and

1 explore its unique contributions to the overall hydrological science as well as soil science. As a
2 new interdisciplinary science, the domains of hydropedology have been suggested as (Lin et al.,
3 2004a): a) *Landscape-soil-water systems* – Taking a holistic view of the landscape, with roots in
4 pedology and a focus on water as a driving force, hydropedology emphasizes the vadose zone
5 system linkages, the state and pattern of its component storages, interfacial fluxes, and dynamic
6 changes (including those caused by human activities); and b) *Soil-water interactive processes*
7 *across scales* – Hydropedology aims to characterize integrated physical, chemical, and biological
8 processes of soil-water interactions at all scales, including chemical elements and energy
9 transport by the water flow, and the interrelationships between soil distributions/functions and
10 hydrologic and geomorphic processes. The fundamental scientific issues of hydropedology
11 include at least (Lin et al., 2004a): a) Soil structure and layering as indicators of flow and
12 transport characteristics in field soils; b) Soil morphology as signatures of soil hydrology; c)
13 Water movement through the landscape as related to the soil cover; d) Hydrologic cycle as a
14 factor of soil formation and a driving force of dynamic soil systems; and e) Human impacts on
15 soil-water interactions as reflected by land use and management.

16 Unique contributions of hydropedology to enhanced understanding and prediction of
17 *landscape water flux* include: 1) providing better soils data and water flow pathways (e.g., those
18 related to soil-landscape structures, preferential flow, and lateral fluxes over slowly permeable
19 soil horizons), 2) enhancing the understanding of mechanisms and magnitudes of soil spatio-
20 temporal variability (e.g., soil spatial diversity as a function of soil-forming factors and
21 processes), 3) improving the quantification of structural hierarchies and pattern identifications of
22 soil and hydrologic systems (e.g., soil-landscape relationships and soil hydrologic units as
23 portrayed by soil maps of various scales), and 4) enhancing model structure formulation and

1 selection of suitable model for hydrologic prediction. For example, short- and long-term
2 hydrologic responses are controlled by different soil characteristics (e.g., infiltration capacity and
3 rapid subsurface flow pathways for short-term response, while recharge to ground water and
4 subsequent release as baseflow via deep slow flow pathways for long-term response).
5 Hydrologically key soil characteristics can be identified at different spatial and temporal scales,
6 and identification and characterization of such key soil properties will require continued joint
7 efforts from soil scientists and hydrologists.

8 In the following, we further discuss unique aspects of pedology and their contributions to
9 understanding and predicting *landscape water flux*. Six additional hypotheses are formulated to
10 suggest future work that needs to be done in order to advance pedology, hydrology, and hence
11 hydrology.

12

13 **2.2.1 Soil morphology including soil structure**

14 Soil morphology is the foundation of pedology. It is a basis for interpreting soil genesis, a
15 key component for classifying soils, and an essential aspect in soil survey and mapping. Soil
16 morphological attributes such as pedogenic diagnostic horizons or features, soil profile
17 horization, color, hand-texture, structure, consistence, roots, pores, redoximorphic features,
18 concretions, and ped/void surface features are routinely described by field soil scientists. These
19 descriptions, however, are generally qualitative or semi-quantitative, categorical assessments of
20 visible and tactile qualities of the soil. Nevertheless, significant volumes of soil morphological
21 data available within many national and regional soil survey databases offer considerable
22 potentials to develop rule-based relationships between soil morphology and soil hydraulic
23 properties and to improve equation-based pedotransfer functions (e.g., Lilly and Lin, 2005).

1 Furthermore, soil morphology offers clues to predicting potential occurrence of preferential
2 flow. Frequency and importance of preferential pathways can be inferred using pedologic
3 information and methods. For example, a well-developed soil structure indicates interpedal pore
4 space that likely conducts water preferentially, which often exhibits characteristics such as clay
5 films that provide supporting evidence. Worm channels may conduct large volumes of water
6 under saturated or near-saturated conditions but only when they are vertically continuous and
7 hydrologically connected. Staining techniques can help show macropore continuity and
8 connectivity. Once preferential flow has been indicated to occur, new measurement techniques
9 can be used to express it as a function of flow rate and time (e.g., Booltink and Bouma, 2002).
10 Soil structure descriptions in pedons can be quantified with morphological techniques and data
11 obtained can, in turn, be used to calculate hydraulic conductivities by using physical
12 relationships between pore sizes and fluxes of water (e.g., Bouma, 1990; Lin et al., 1999).
13 Because soil morphology provides clues as to the hydrologic history of a site by integrating long-
14 term effects of water movement and storage in observable features of soil color (including redox
15 features), structure, density, horizonation, and other features, efforts to interpret and quantify soil
16 morphologic information can elucidate seasonal high water table fluctuations, soil moisture
17 regime in the past and present, and soil hydraulic properties.

18 A hypothesis is suggested here:

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- 20 • *Hypothesis 7: Soil morphological features and their spatial arrangement over the*
21 *landscape can be used to aid in determining dominant flow pathways and water fluxes*
22 *through different soils and landscapes.*

23

1 We realize that predicting preferential flow from soil morphologic information still has a
2 long way to go, and that preferential flow may be caused by a multitude of processes, including
3 some that are not immediately evident from classic pedologic studies (e.g., unstable flow). One
4 of the key issues is the need to quantify soil structure in a manner that provides direct
5 information for inclusion in hydrologic models. We envisage the appearance of innovative
6 methods for quantifying *in situ* soil structure and linking such information to hydrologic
7 processes/properties in a quantitative manner.

8

9 **2.2.2 Pedogenesis**

10 Soil genesis is essentially an integrated weathering phenomenon resulting from a series of
11 physical, chemical, and biological processes. It provides a holistic view of the processes that
12 have occurred, or are occurring, in the vadose zone. Besides conceptual understanding of soil-
13 forming factors and processes (e.g., Jenny, 1941; Simonson, 1959), quantitative models that
14 describe the impact of environmental variables on rock/sediment weathering and soil formation
15 are lacking. Nevertheless, soil genesis provides insights regarding the processes involved
16 (including hydrological processes) and soil-geomorphology evolution over time.

17 The essential role of water in soil formation is apparent in the Simonson's (1959) theory of
18 soil formation, where four general soil-forming processes are recognized (i.e., additions,
19 deletions, transformations, and translocations). All these four soil-forming processes involve
20 water in significant ways: Water adds material through deposition of eroded sediment and
21 precipitation of dissolved minerals; water can also entirely remove soil materials through
22 leaching and erosion; water transforms soil material through weathering reactions; and water
23 translocates solid and dissolved materials in mass flow within soil profiles (Lin et al., 2004a).

1 A relevant hypothesis is:

2

- 3 • *Hypothesis 8: Pedogenesis provides valuable information regarding hydrological*
4 *processes involved in soil-landscape evolution over time. Hydrology/hydropedology*
5 *provides a potential means of quantifying soil-forming processes.*

6

7 All soil-forming factors affect and are affected by hydrology. The flux factors of soil
8 formation (climate and vegetation) as well as site factors (topography and parent materials) can
9 be linked to landscape hydrology, which is further modified by soil internal hydrologic
10 environment (Lin et al., 2004a). For instance, climate influences the amount and timing of soil
11 water availability and soil moisture in turn influences climate. The biota growing on and in soils
12 are strongly influenced by water's presence, both directly because organisms require water to
13 live, and indirectly because the amount of soil water influences oxygen availability, the
14 temperature regime, and nutrient transport in soils. Topography frequently directs and controls
15 the flow of both surface and subsurface water over the landscape. Parent materials affect the
16 flow of water because they are the sources of the matrix through which surface water infiltrates
17 and may reflect the materials through which ground water flows. Time is required for both soil
18 development/change and for water to flow through soils and landscapes. Much like "*one cannot*
19 *ignore the role of ground water in performing geologic work*" (Domenico and Schwartz, 1998),
20 water in the unsaturated zone cannot be ignored in soil formation and soil dynamic changes.

21

22 **2.2.3 Classification**

1 Soil classification offers a hierarchical system for organizing, modeling, and transferring
2 knowledge about different soils across geographic regions. While a huge success in its own
3 right, the exclusive focus on *Soil Taxonomy* (Soil Survey Staff, 1999) in the U.S. pedology
4 community over the last four decades or so has become an introspective exercise and resulted in
5 some unintended consequences, including: 1) lack of relation between soil taxonomic units and
6 landscape features; 2) lack of consideration of dynamic soil properties such as hydraulic
7 functions; 3) lack of simplicity for non-pedologists to apply; and 4) lack of quantification of
8 variability (or specific range of soil properties) within taxonomic categories and soil map units,
9 thus leading to a common assumption of “homogeneity” within soil taxa and map units by non-
10 pedologists (Lin et al., 2004a). Despite such shortcomings, however, considerable soil
11 characteristics (including morphological, physical, chemical, and pedogenic properties) are
12 contained in soil taxonomic classifications and in soil taxonomic names, thus providing
13 opportunities to infer and/or group diverse soils into hydrologically similar units.

14 A related hypothesis is suggested here:

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- 16 • ***Hypothesis 9:*** *Soil taxonomic systems can be utilized or modified, particularly when used*
17 *in combination with landscape features, to aid in categorizing diverse soils into*
18 *hydrologically similar groups.*

19

20 Soil categorizations that differentiate various soil hydrologic units are possible. For example,
21 Quisenberry et al. (1993) have devised a preliminary system of classifying soils in terms of water
22 flow pathways and patterns (uniform flow vs. different types of preferential flow) using soil
23 texture, structure, and clay mineralogy. The work of Quisenberry et al. (1993), however, has

1 been limited to partial soils in South Carolina and is descriptive in nature. A soil hydrological
2 classification (termed Hydrology of Soil Types or HOST) has also been developed in the UK
3 based on soil attributes to predict water movement through soils and substrates (Boorman et al.,
4 1995; Lilly et al., 1998), in which 29 groups of soils are identified with distinct flow pathways
5 and flow rates. The attributes used in the HOST include the presence or absence of an organic
6 surface layer, substrate hydrogeology, the depth to a slowly-permeable layer, the depth to
7 gleying, and air capacity value (volume of pores that drain under the influence of gravity).
8 Pedotransfer rules underpin much of the HOST classification, which are not linked to landscape
9 features. A more comprehensive and quantitative approach to grouping hydrologically similar
10 soil types across scales is desirable.

11 Being able to group and even classify soils prior to, during, and after the development of
12 pedotransfer functions also enhances the accuracy and reliability of pedotransfer function
13 applications (e.g., Lilly and Lin, 2005). A description of the groups in terms of both soil
14 morphology and hydraulic properties is a valuable means of developing simple predictive
15 pedotransfer functions for field soils. Furthermore, a grouping of soils (particularly when linked
16 to soil map units) for flow and transport characteristics will enable estimation of the magnitude
17 of expected hydraulic properties and determination *a priori* of how important preferential flow is
18 in a given soil and location. Such grouping will allow capturing “big picture” (e.g., flow
19 mechanisms and pathways) before a specific water flux is derived.

20

21 **2.2.4 Mapping**

22 Soil mapping provides a foundation for understanding soil-landform relationships and soil
23 variability over the landscape. The purpose of soil mapping is to partition soils and landforms

1 into stratified subsets that are less variable (Soil Survey Division Staff, 1993). Soil maps
2 currently available are often considered as one of the very best data one usually can obtain at the
3 present time in environmental and natural resource assessments as compared to many other
4 available data (Merchant, 1994). However, the proper use of existing soil maps is not
5 necessarily warranted if the map scale and within-map-unit variability are not well understood.
6 Quantification of map unit purity for different scales of soil maps is an area needing
7 improvements in modern soil surveys (Arnold and Wilding, 1991; Lin et al., 2004b). An
8 understanding of how soil maps are made, the map scale involved, and the variability within map
9 units is required for effective integration of pedology and hydrology.

10 A hypothesis to be tested is suggested here:

11

- 12 • **Hypothesis 10:** *Pedodiversity as portrayed by soil maps is indicative of hydrological*
13 *heterogeneity of soil-landscapes. Hierarchy of soil hydrologic units can be put in*
14 *correspondence to the hierarchy of soil cover.*

15

16 It is possible to define landscape elements consisting of groups of soil horizons with a
17 defined range of hydrological properties as essential building blocks for hydrologic modeling.
18 Quantitative soil hydrologic properties/processes and their variability within soil map units can
19 be related to pedologic features mapped. Such mapping can aid in providing quantitative
20 estimates of system parameters required for hydrologic prediction. In addition, current digital
21 soils databases (e.g., Soil Survey Geographic Databases or SSURGO, State Soil Geographic
22 Databases or STATSGO, Major Land Resource Areas, and Common Ecological Regions) have
23 been developed as separate and independent products at various map scales. A new scalable data

1 model linking geo-referenced locations of soil measurements (e.g., point data) with soil
2 components on soil maps of various scales is needed for developing the hierarchy of soil
3 hydrologic units.

4 To advance hydropedology and hydrologic modeling, we need new ways of mapping soils
5 over the landscape in greater detail and with higher precision. Traditional soil maps have been
6 created using mental models of soil variation based often on air photo interpretation and collated
7 information on the soil and its relations with landform, geology, vegetation, and land use
8 (Dijkerman, 1974; Soil Survey Division Staff, 1993). Field observations are made at a selected
9 number of locations chosen by soil surveyors using formal knowledge and intuitive judgment
10 (Dijkerman, 1974; Hudson, 1992). These methods generally result in qualitative models that
11 produce broad schemes that discretize and classify the soil continuum (Cook et al., 1996). With
12 the emergence of quantitative pedologic measurements and modeling techniques including
13 pedometrics, pedologists have sought more quantitative approaches to modeling the spatial
14 distribution of soil types and soil properties (e.g., McBratney et al., 2000; Heuvelink and
15 Webster, 2001; McBratney et al., 2003). Promising approaches include environmental
16 correlation modeling (e.g., McKenzie and Ryan, 1999; Ryan et al., 2000) or landscape-guided
17 soil mapping (Heuvelink and Webster, 2001), where landform and environmental attributes such
18 as DEM, land use/land cover, parent materials, and others serve as additional information in
19 kriging and mapping. Another encouraging alternative to conventional soil mapping is the
20 combined use of Geographic Information Systems (GIS), expert knowledge, and fuzzy logic, as
21 used in the soil-land inference model (e.g., Zhu et al., 2001). This model is based on a similarity
22 representation of soils, soil-landscape relationships, and a combination of local soil scientists'
23 knowledge with GIS under fuzzy logic.

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2.2.5 Database

Soil survey databases provide a wealth of information that hydrologists could utilize for various applications. For example, the National Cooperative Soil Survey Program in the U.S. has provided over 100 years of soil inventory, measurement, and evaluation, and has maintained several national databases (e.g., digital soil maps of multiple scales and associated attribute tables, official soil series descriptions, soil characterization database that includes over 25 physical and chemical properties for over 20,000 soils sampled throughout the U.S., soil moisture and temperature monitoring network, and hydric/wet soils monitoring database). These data can be coordinated and well utilized in the development of pedotransfer functions, hydrologic grouping or classification of soils, and testing of hydrologic models.

A hypothesis in this area is suggested as:

- *Hypothesis 11: The accuracy of pedotransfer functions for hydrologic model parameterization can be improved by using structural parameters of soils and linking to soil cover and landscape features.*

Most data in traditional soil survey databases have been collected at a window in time. Dynamic soil properties, including land use-dependent soil properties, are increasingly in demand. Hence, a database containing dynamic soil properties will be desirable to enhance the value of classical soil survey databases and to facilitate the integration of pedology with hydrology. We believe hydro-pedology offers a useful framework for bridging traditional soil survey and future database of dynamic soil properties. In such an integrated database, a

1 minimum set of hydropedological data should be collected in order to characterize a catchment
2 and its hydrologic flux response, land use and land management information, and various
3 landscape features, along with location and time for various measurements.

4

5 **2.2.6 Future pedology**

6 The emphasis of pedology is now shifting from classification and inventory to understanding
7 and quantifying spatially-temporally variable processes upon which the water cycle and
8 ecosystems depend (Lin et al., 2004a). Hence, the contributions of hydropedology to the
9 advancement of pedology are multi-faceted, as illustrated in the above discussions. In essence,
10 hydropedology proposes to realign geology-rooted classical pedology with a hydrology-driven
11 approach based on a landscape perspective, reflecting the crucial role of water in wide array of
12 issues. Hydropedology adds quantitative information to classical pedology through measuring
13 water flux, modeling soil dynamic behavior, and making soils databases hydrological relevant.

14 We suggest a hypothesis that can be tested in the next decade or so:

15

- 16 • ***Hypothesis 12: Hydropedology is a promising direction for future pedology.***

17

18 Bridging disciplines, scales, and data signifies potential unique contributions hydropedology
19 can make to integrated soil and water sciences (Lin, 2003). Hydropedology also plays a unique
20 role in advancing the frontiers of soil science towards a geoscience (Wilding and Lin, 2005).
21 Historically, soil science has followed a complex path in its evolution from a descriptive
22 discipline with foundational roots in geology, to an applied agricultural and environmental
23 discipline, and now to a bio- and geo-science through the earth's critical zone investigations.

1 Future pedology mandates systematic, quantitative, and dynamic characterizations of soil natural
2 “architecture,” soil spatial diversity, and soil-landscape relationships, which are fundamental
3 underpinnings of pedology. As an example, soil maps can no longer be static documents.
4 Rather, derivative and dynamic maps, created for specific purposes or functions, must be
5 generated from original soil maps and tailored to particular applications. Thus, pedotransfer
6 functions, in combination with computer models and geospatial databases, need to be integrated
7 into expert systems to derive such maps. Up to now, there is a lack of appropriate means of
8 producing derivative and dynamic maps such as soil hydraulic properties through space and time.
9 In this regard, hydropedology offers considerable opportunities.

10

11 **3. Strategies for Achieving the Vision**

12 The strategies for achieving the above stated vision and the role of CUAHSI are multi-
13 faceted and mutually indispensable. We group the strategies into the following three interlinked
14 components (Fig. 4): 1) Design of a set of scientific experiments to test the proposed hypotheses,
15 2) Use of Hydrologic Observatories and natural soil laboratories, and 3) Promotion and
16 dissemination of hydropedology.

17 We would like to point out that, while devising more detailed experimental and modeling
18 work as proposed in the following, a useful first step in hydropedology is to link existing soil and
19 hydrological data (such as grouping hydrologically similar soil units and enhancing pedotransfer
20 functions) to generate interests, and to develop case studies on the use of pedological data for
21 improved hydrological applications (such as knowledge of flow pathways at the pedon and field
22 scales and of hydrological responses at the watershed scale) (e.g., Dunn and Lilly, 2001). The
23 knowledge gaps thus identified can then be used to guide more detailed fundamental research.

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3.1 Design of a set of scientific experiments to test the proposed hypotheses

Designing a set of scientific experiments that can test the suggested hypotheses is a logical and fundamental step in achieving the proposed research vision. The proposed hypotheses can be used to guide the design and implementation of such experiments. These experiments can be conducted in the CUAHSI’s Hydrologic Observatories as well as smaller-scale natural soil laboratories as described in the next section. In addition to the desired infrastructure supports, available funding, coordinated efforts, new instruments, innovative technologies, integrated databases, and multidisciplinary communications are also needed to carry out the suggested experiments in a more comprehensive and fruitful manner.

An iterative loop of “understanding, sampling, and modeling” is essential to integrated hydrogeological studies. This requires a concerted program of systematic and integrated experiments, analyses, and modeling on watershed-scale dynamics. Soil science and hydrology have a fundamental need for multiscale, multidisciplinary, and long-term field experiments. Hydrogeology can contribute uniquely in this regard in ways that include a) the use of the state-of-the-art techniques in soil mapping, vadose zone monitoring, and variably-saturated modeling, and b) attention to field soil morphology and soil cover patterns to guide the selection of monitoring sites, optimal experimental designs, interpretations of hydrologic measurements, and flow and transport modeling in the vadose zone.

Much progress has been made in 1, 2, and 3-D modeling, in terms of integrating various processes at different scales and incorporating preferential flow dynamics (van Genuchten and Šimunek, 2004), but much remains to be done, especially in bridging scales, feeding inputs, quantifying uncertainties, and integrating processes from a systems perspective in the context of

1 the earth’s critical zone. Integrated models are the future, where overland flow (including rivers
2 and lakes), ecohydrology, vadose zone flow and transport, and ground water hydrology are
3 tightly coupled. Running models of this type for various applications will give hands-on
4 guidance of what hypotheses are fundamental and what data are critical.

5 To make a quantum leap, we need to embrace a holistic framework such as the one discussed
6 in Section 2.1.1 and to find ways to build up comprehensive datasets for quantifying such a
7 framework. Beyond problem-solving needs, we have to address fundamental concepts and first
8 principles involved in landscape and watershed hydrology, and to take full advantage of
9 signatory information recorded in soils (such as soil morphology and pedogenesis). One way to
10 follow such a path is to advance our understanding of a system’s logical connections such as
11 “structure – physics – flow model.”

12

13 ***3.2 Use of hydrologic observatories and natural soil laboratories***

14 One critical need for advancing hydrology is a network of well-designed and carefully
15 maintained natural laboratories across geographic regions for systematic (in both space and time)
16 field data collections. The proposed CUAHHSI’s Hydrologic Observatories will provide such an
17 essential support. In addition, we suggest the development of smaller-scale natural soil
18 laboratories across Hydrologic Observatories as well as in other watershed testbeds for
19 conducting coordinated field experiments.

20 Leading-edge instrumentation and innovative measurement techniques will be an integral
21 part of each Hydrologic Observatory, such as:

22

- 1 • Networked arrays of state-of-the-art sensors (ground-, air-, and space-based platforms)
2 for measuring states and fluxes in the critical zone at point, hillslope, catchment, and
3 regional scales and at critical time-steps (e.g., *in situ* real-time soil moisture sensors,
4 optical and microwave imagery, radiometry, hyperspectral imagery, and others);
- 5 • A suite of noninvasive tools (e.g., computing tomography, geophysical tools, and remote
6 sensing) for characterizing soil-landscape structures across multiple scales and for linking
7 such structural information to water fluxes in a block of land of various sizes;
- 8 • Advanced soil and landscape mapping that captures spatial and temporal organization
9 (patterns) of hydrogeological properties and processes;
- 10 • A set of natural and anthropogenic tracers for tracking the movement of water through
11 landscapes and ecosystems.

12

13 We propose to develop commonly accepted and adhered to protocols for establishing natural
14 soil laboratories within each CUAHSI's Hydrologic Observatory as well as in representative
15 Major Land Resource Areas (MLRAs) using hierarchically-nested watershed testbeds. As
16 MLRAs are becoming a new direction for the U.S. national soil survey and mapping program,
17 the MLRA concept (and the related Common Ecological Regions) provide a useful means of
18 establishing natural soil laboratories in contrasting landscapes.

19 Hydrogeology blends the field work, laboratory investigations, and computer modeling into
20 an integrated systems approach to understanding landscape-soil-water dynamics across scales.
21 Field work (observations, monitoring, experiments, and verifications) ultimately serves as the
22 initial drive of identifying the real world problems, formulating theories of processes and events,
23 and validating models and their predictions. Field survey and mapping of landscape features

1 (including soils, geology, topography, vegetation, and others) is a foundation for conducting
2 integrated hydro-pedological research over a block of land and for extrapolating results from
3 intensively studied sites to unstudied watersheds.

4 We believe there is a minimum set of hydro-pedological data that should be collected in the
5 CUAHSI's Hydrologic Observatories and natural soil laboratories in order to characterize a
6 catchment and its hydrologic flux dynamics. Determination of such a core dataset is to be
7 guided by the scientific hypotheses to be tested, interpretation techniques required for the
8 collected dataset, improvements for quantitative modeling, as well as the needs for the overall
9 integrated monitoring network. Research conducted at these Hydrologic Observatories and
10 natural soil laboratories will also allow for the testing and refinement of pedometric approaches
11 to mapping critical hydro-pedological variables and scaling pedon data to the landscape scale.

12 It is important to point out the need for process-based modeling in conjunction with the data
13 gathering. Data are only good if they are used, not just by users or policy makers, but even more
14 so by peer scientists including those interested in advancing hydrologic modeling. Future
15 modeling needs could provide both justifications and guidelines for all the measurements to be
16 made by the CUAHSI Hydrologic Observatories and natural soil laboratories, including "what,
17 where, and when" data should be collected, at what resolution, for how long, and for what
18 purpose. Systematic field data collections must contribute to enhanced understanding at a
19 hierarchy of scales and to the advancement of quantitative modeling and prediction.

20

21 ***3.3 Promotion and dissemination of hydro-pedology***

22 **3.3.1 Integrated hydro-pedological information systems**

1 To integrate knowledge, databases, and models of interactive pedological and hydrological
2 processes and properties across scales and geographic regions, and to streamline information
3 capture, storage, sharing, comparison, visualization, syntheses, modeling, hypothesis testing, and
4 decision-making, an *Integrated Hydropedological Information System* (IHPIS) is suggested here.

5 There is a clear need for integrating knowledge, databases, and models to address forcing,
6 feedbacks and coupling, and to ensure appropriate spatial coverage, temporal frequency, and data
7 resolution. Within the *HydroView* framework, *Hydrologic Information Systems* (HIS) provide a
8 comprehensive data model, thus making them more useful to scientists and identifying gaps that
9 are hindering scientific advances. While *ArcHydro* for hydrological data has been developed
10 (Maidment, 2002), a similar one for soils data is desirable so as to provide a systematic,
11 cohesive, and yet flexible enough set of toolboxes to help advance our science. Besides data
12 models, integrated process-based modeling system is also needed that allows systematic
13 examination of various processes at different scales. In doing so, code standards (such as
14 algorithm transferability, modularization, and object-oriented design) and inter-code comparison
15 (especially against field data collected in watershed testbeds) need to be considered (e.g.,
16 Šimunek et al., 2003). We recognize the need for balancing standardizations and innovations in
17 both field data collections and modeling system developments so as to provide commonly
18 adhered protocols for data gathering and sharing and model comparison and yet not to constraint
19 new ways of data collection and modeling.

20 Hydropedoinformatics is coined here from hydroinformatics and pedometrics, both have
21 attracted growing interest in recent years. Hydroinformatics is the study of the flows of
22 knowledge and data related to water and all it transports, together with its interaction with both
23 natural and man-made environments (Abbott, 1991). It is a discipline that has a strong ancestry

1 in computational sciences and artificial intelligence, where GIS and data mining (artificial neural
2 networks and genetic algorithms specifically) are the prevailing technologies (Savic and Walters,
3 1999). Pedometrics is the application of mathematical, statistical, numerical, and artificial
4 intelligence methods to soil science in general and soil surveys in particular (McBratney, 1986;
5 Webster, 1994). Innovative syntheses of hydrological and pedological data with new
6 tools/methods for data mining and knowledge discovery are important for advancing
7 hydrology once systematic and comparable datasets are collected.

8

9 **3.3.2 Effective communications of hydrology**

10 Adequate and effective communication with other discipline scientists, the general public,
11 stakeholders, and policy-makers is needed to advance hydrology. Effective means of
12 communication and dissemination of hydrological knowledge also includes education and
13 outreach activities such as course offering, field camps, and workshops.

14 Rather than just reporting results of studies having been made, it is often more effective to
15 take part in interactive processes between, for example, policy-makers and citizens dealing with
16 water or land-use problems by providing relevant information at the right time. Being part of the
17 learning process is better than being an outsider who provides data but is never sure whether it
18 will be used. As often as not, potential users have little affinity with what is being offered,
19 because researchers have not bothered to really investigate the wishes of the users or of the
20 policy-makers. The Internet offers as yet largely unexplored possibilities to present
21 hydrological expertise, building on the natural affinity of many people with the earth and its
22 critical zone and many cultures with soil and water resources (e.g., Bouma, 2001a, b, 2003).

23

1 4 Expected Impacts

2 4.1 Scientific impacts

3 *HydroView* and its four infrastructure elements will provide a springboard and long-term
4 support for the advancement of hydrogeology, which, in return, will contribute significantly to
5 the CUAHSI's Science Agenda (Fig. 4). As highlighted by Lin et al. (2004a), seven working
6 models or perceptions of soils can be used to evaluate the relevance of hydrogeology to the
7 study of the earth's critical zone (Fig. 1)—within each of these models, soil-water interaction
8 plays a critical role. The U.S. National Research Council has identified integrated studies of the
9 earth's critical zone as a compelling research area for the 21st century (NRC, 2001a).

10 Hydrogeoscientists are facing a new intellectual paradigm that emphasizes connections
11 between the hydrosphere and other components of the earth system. While hydroclimatology,
12 hydrogeology, and ecohydrology are now well recognized, an important missing piece of the
13 puzzle is hydrogeology that focuses on the interface between the hydrosphere and the
14 pedosphere (Fig. 1). Hydrogeology closes this gap and emphasizes flow and transport
15 processes in field soils as occurred in landscapes (i.e., soils that have distinct characteristics of
16 structure, layering, and soil-landscape relationship). We believe hydrogeology can contribute
17 significantly to the study of the hydrologic cycle, the pedosphere, the earth's critical zone, and
18 the earth system as a whole.

19 Beyond the earth's system, hydrogeology also poses potential contributions to
20 extraterrestrial explorations in search for water signs through soils, rocks, and landforms, such as
21 that on Mars. The recent formation of the *Weathering System Science Consortium* demonstrates
22 the need to answer a fundamental scientific question: "*How does the Earth's weathering engine*
23 *transform the protolith into soils and solutes in response to climatic, tectonic, and anthropogenic*

1 *forcing?*” (Anderson et al., 2004). Answers to this question will likely shed light on weathering
2 processes on Mars and the potential role of water in the genesis of Martian soils.

3

4 ***4.2 Societal impacts***

5 Soil-water interaction creates the fundamental interface between the biotic and abiotic and
6 thus is a critical determinant of the state of the earth system. Through its influences on the
7 physical, chemical, and biological processes in the root and deep vadose zones, soil-water
8 interactions at different scales play a significant role in many societally important issues (Fig. 5).
9 These include leaching of chemicals to ground water, non-point sources of pollution, gas
10 exchange between soil and the atmosphere, carbon flux and carbon sequestration, nutrient
11 dynamics in agroecosystems, crop yield, drainage and irrigation related to land use and
12 agricultural practice, flood/drought and landslide preventions, contaminant fate in the
13 environment, and many others.

14 Soil moisture is the life-giving substance, and is directly linked to the function of the earth’s
15 critical zone. Nolan and Fatland (2003) summarized this adroitly: “From Napoleon’s defeat at
16 Waterloo to increasing corn yields in Kansas to greenhouse gas flux in the Arctic, the importance
17 of soil moisture is endemic to world affairs and merits the considerable attention it receives from
18 the scientific community. This importance can hardly be overstated, though it often goes
19 unstated.” The spatio-temporal pattern of soil moisture is critical for hydrological forecasting,
20 erosion prediction, carbon flux determination, contaminant transport modeling, nutrient cycling,
21 pedogenic processes, and geomorphic processes. A better understanding of the spatio-temporal
22 distribution of soil and water interactions contributes to improved land components of climate
23 and global circulation models.

1 A number of recent reports of the U.S. National Research Council have highlighted the
2 significance of integrated soil and water studies in the context of agriculture (NRC, 1993a),
3 ground water vulnerability (NRC, 1993b), watershed management (NRC, 1999), earth sciences
4 (NRC, 2001a), water resources (NRC, 2001b), and environmental sciences (NRC, 2001c).
5 Water fluxes into and through soils across the landscape are the essence of terrestrial life,
6 resembling in a way the manner in which blood circulates in a human body (Bouma, 2005). We
7 could even compare blood pressure with the pressure potential of water in soil – when it is too
8 high or too low soil functioning is clearly hampered. We can envisage a pulsating landscape in
9 which water enters and leaves on hourly, weekly, yearly, and long-term bases. Once water
10 regimes have been characterized, physical, chemical, and biological processes in the unsaturated
11 zone can be properly approached as they depend strongly on the water regime. Indeed, the
12 hydrologic cycle is viewed as the integrating process for the fluxes of water, energy, and
13 chemical elements (NRC, 1991).

14

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23

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List of Figures

Fig. 1. The pedosphere is the thin soil skin on the earth's surface. It is a geomembrane across which water and solutes, as well as energy, gases, solids, and living organisms are actively exchanged among the hydrosphere, atmosphere, biosphere, and lithosphere, thus creating a life-sustaining environment. Soil-water interaction is the fundamental interface between the biotic and abiotic and hence is a critical determinant of the state of the earth system and its critical zone.

Fig. 2. A holistic conceptual framework for multiscale hydropedological systems (discrete or continuous hierarchy): At each scale, *structure* reflects spatial arrangement (much like roads); *function* is a result of fluxes or processes (much like traffic). The two-way connection between the structure and the function is dictated by *scale*, which also determines observable patterns in spatial variability and temporal changes of the system. The *model* at each scale (or multiple scales) strives to integrate structure and function so that the patterns and dynamics can be explained and predicted. The challenge is to build bridges that connect different scales.

Fig. 3. Concepts of scales and spatial heterogeneity in the unsaturated zone: (A) Conceptual integrated-system model in pedology; and (B) Variability models in hydrology and soil physics that include 1) the classical macroscopic homogeneity, 2) discrete hierarchy (represented by dashed line in three levels – microscopic, mesoscopic, and macroscopic scales), 3) continuous hierarchy (represented by dashed dotted line), 4) the classical fractal model (shown by orange line), and 5) multi-fractal model (illustrated by red lines).

Fig. 4. The iterative loop and interaction of the three strategies for achieving the research vision proposed in this paper, and their connections to the four components of the *HydroView*.

1 **Fig. 5.** (A) Relevancy of hydrogeology to the study of the earth's critical zone—within each of
2 the issues illustrated, soil-water interaction plays an important role. (B) Water is a main
3 driving force of many environmental issues; hence soil-water interaction is critical to
4 problems concerning nitrogen, phosphorus, carbon, pesticides, heavy metals, pathogens, and
5 other nutrients or contaminants in the environment. Biogeochemical cycle is inseparable
6 from the hydrologic cycle.

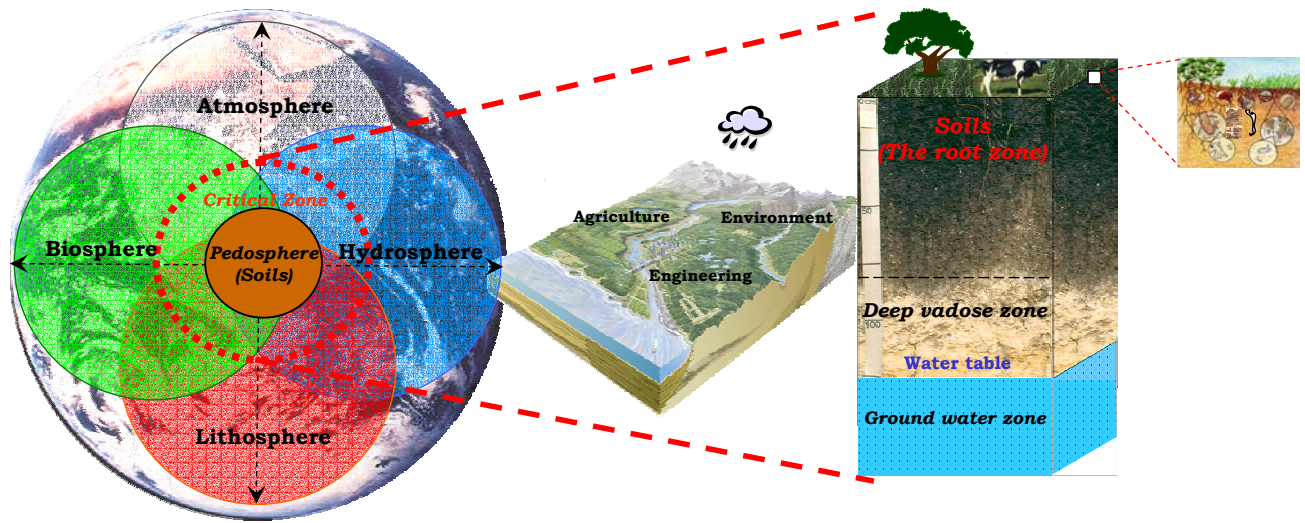


Fig. 1

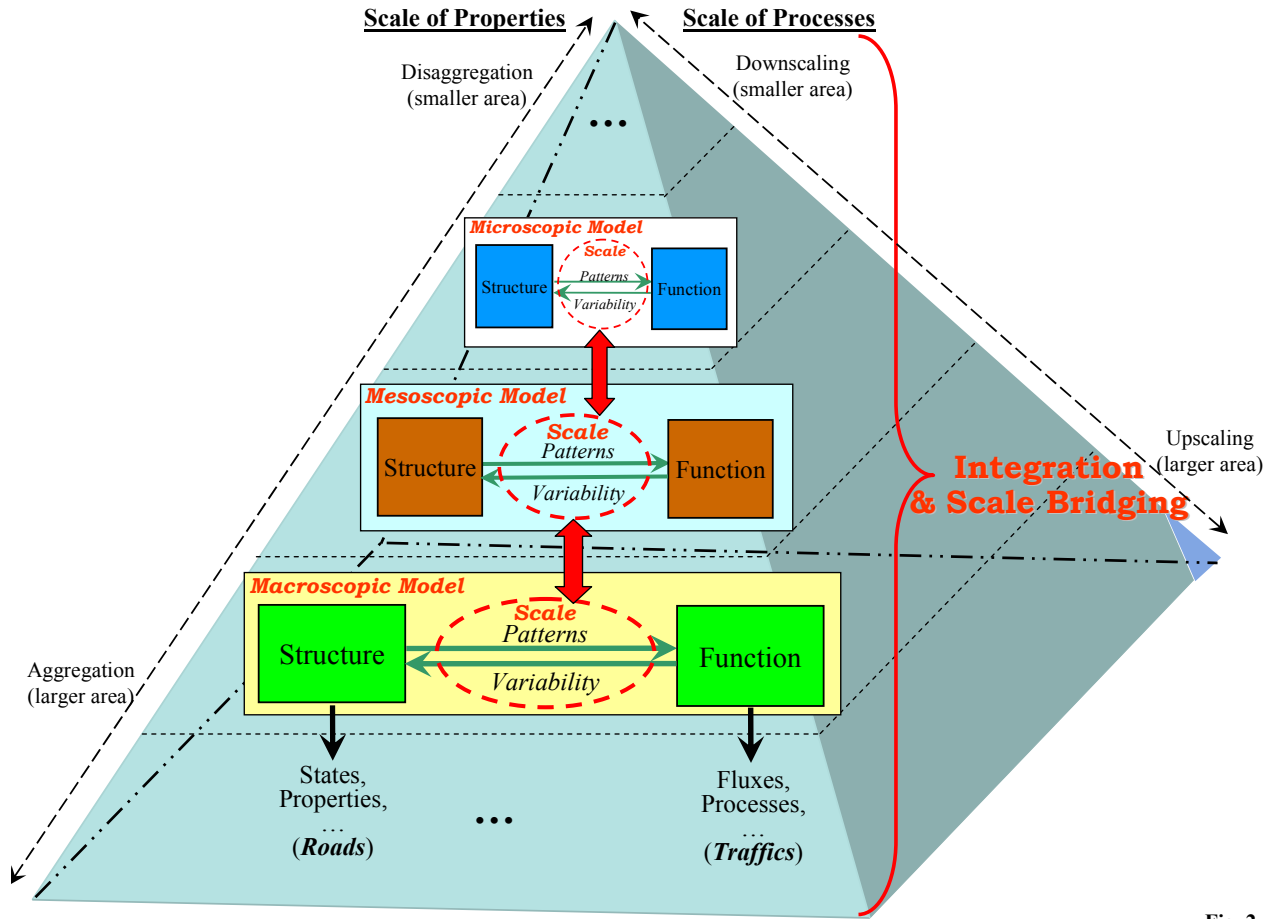
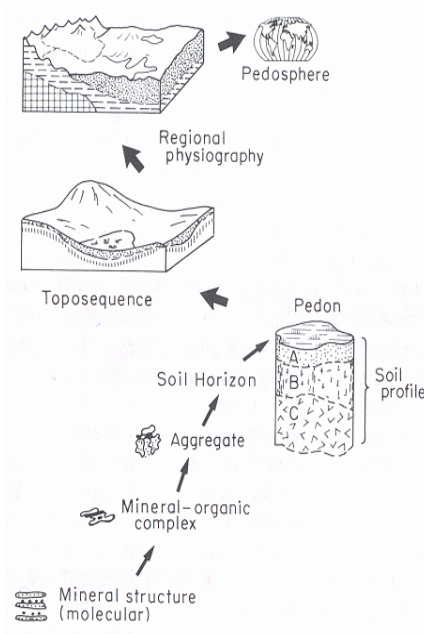


Fig. 2

1

A) Pedology Model



B) Hydrology/Soil Physics Model

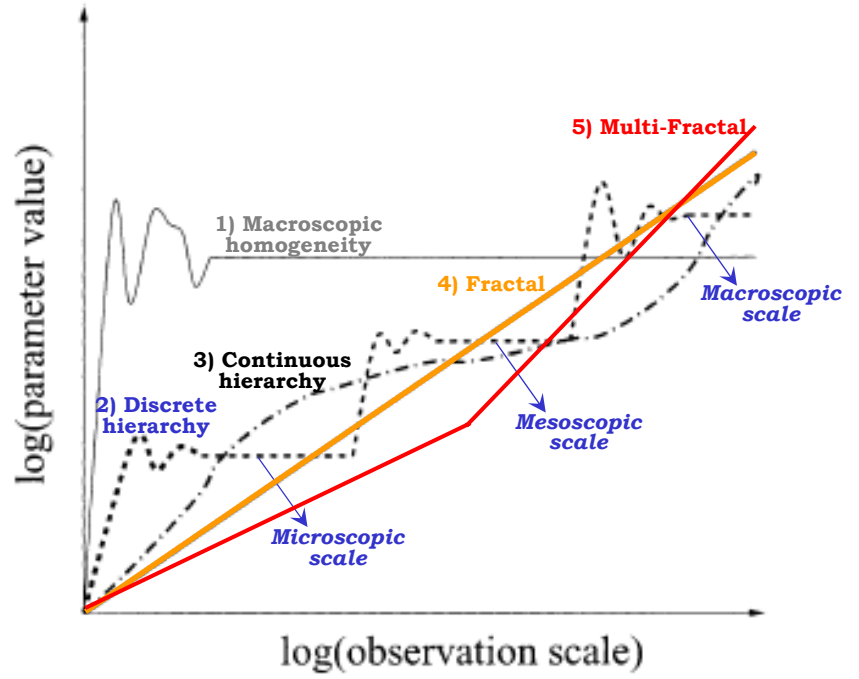


Fig. 3

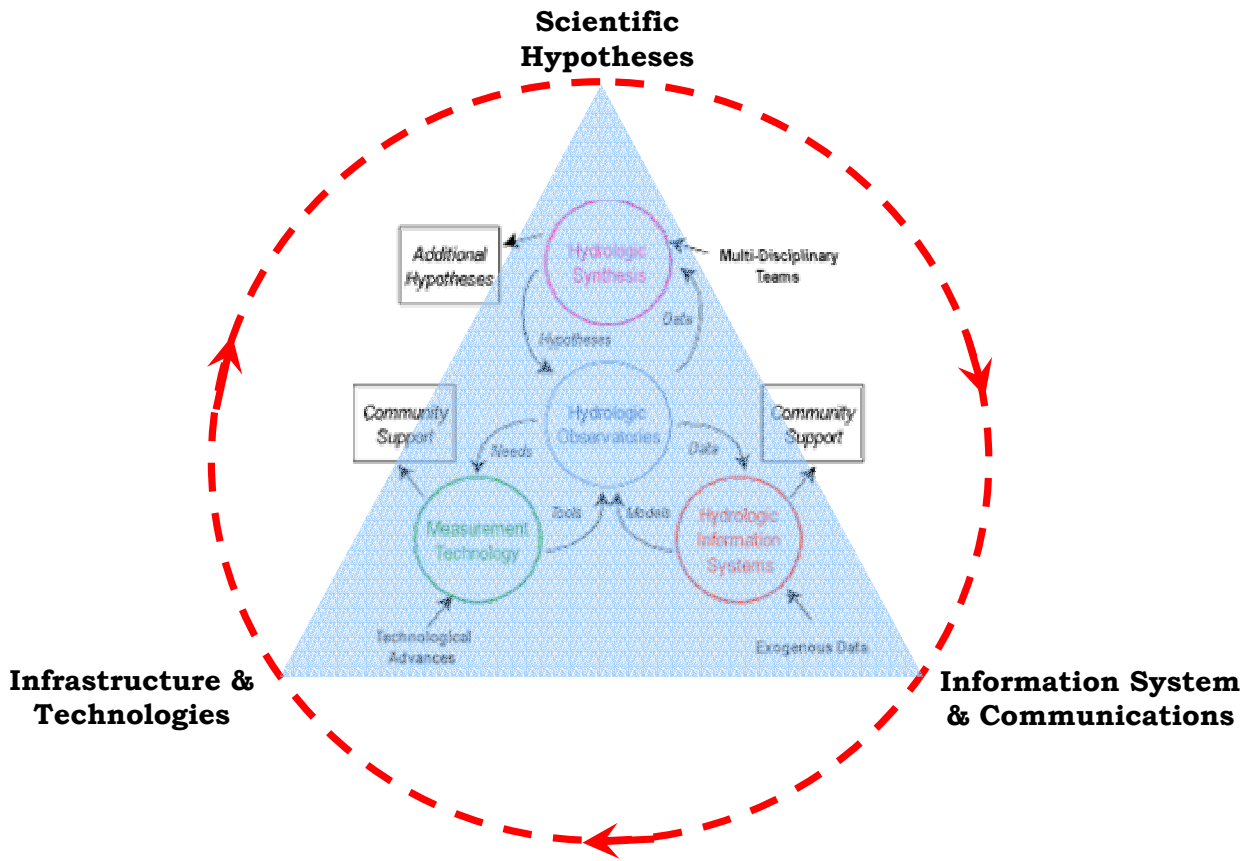
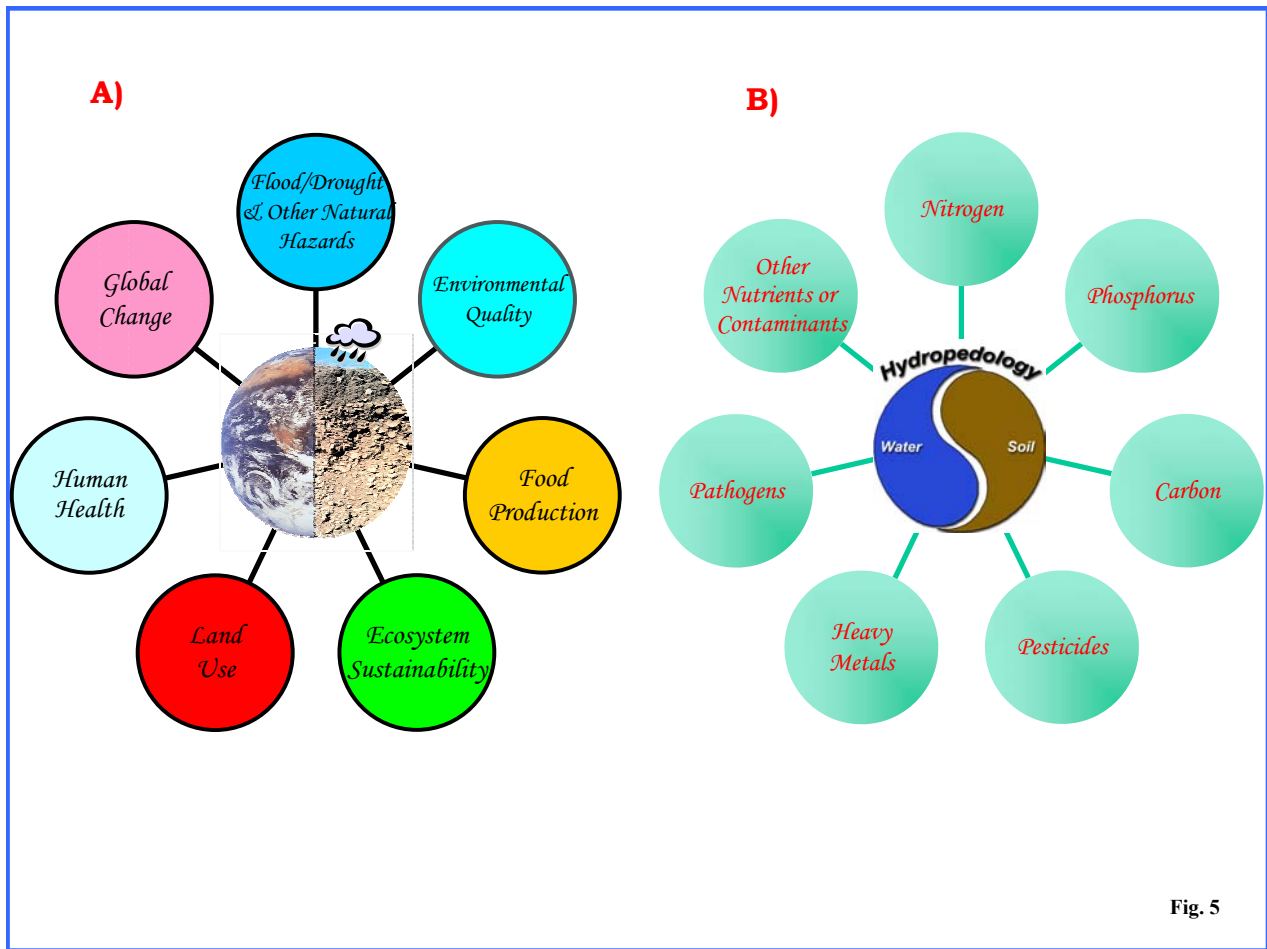


Fig. 4



1