

1 **HESS Opinion paper:**
2 **Towards a common vision for the future of hydrological**
3 **observatories**

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34 **Abstract.** The Unsolved Problems in Hydrology (UPH) initiative has emphasized the need to establish networks of
35 multi-decadal hydrological observatories to ~~tackle catchment-scale challenges on a global scale~~ gain a deep
36 ~~understanding of the complex hydrologic processes occurring within diverse environmental conditions~~. The already
37 existing monitoring infrastructures have provided an enormous amount of hydrometeorological data, ~~which has helped~~
38 ~~gain~~ facilitating detailed insights into the ~~causality~~ causal mechanisms of hydrological processes, ~~test~~ the testing of
39 scientific theories and hypotheses, and ~~reveal~~ the revelation of the physical laws governing catchment behavior.
40 ~~Nevertheless, we are still a long way from being able to fully unravel all the mysteries of~~ Yet hydrological processes
41 ~~to solve practical water-related problems~~. Hydrological monitoring programs have often produced limited outcomes
42 ~~because of~~ due to the intermittent availability of financial resources and the substantial efforts required to operate
43 observatories and conduct comparative studies to advance previous findings. Recently, some initiatives have emerged
44 aiming at coordinating data acquisition and hypothesis testing to facilitate an efficient cross-site synthesis of findings.
45 To this end, a common vision and practical data management solutions need to be developed. This opinion paper
46 provocatively discusses two ~~potential~~ end members of ~~possible~~ future hydrological observatory (HO) networks
47 ~~for~~ network, based on a given hypothesized community budget: a comprehensive set of moderately instrumented
48 observatories or, alternatively, a small number of highly instrumented super-sites.

49 A network of moderately instrumented, ~~hydrological~~ monitoring sites ~~distributed across the globe~~ would provide a
50 broad spatial coverage across the major pedoclimatic regions; ~~help address UPH about the impact by supporting cross-~~
51 ~~site synthesis of climate and social systems~~ the lumped hydrological response (e.g., ~~land use change and global~~
52 ~~warming~~) on water resources, and ~~enhance the potential for knowledge transfer~~ rainfall-runoff relationship. ~~Budyko~~
53 ~~analysis~~ across diverse continental landscapes. However, the moderate instrumentation at each site may hamper an
54 in-depth understanding of complex hydrological processes. In contrast, a ~~few~~ small number of extensively
55 instrumented research sites would ~~allow~~ for enable community-based experiments in an unprecedented manner,
56 thereby ~~providing more fundamental insights into~~ facilitating a deeper understanding of complex, non-linear processes
57 modulated by scale-dependent feedback and multiscale ~~spatio-temporal~~ spatiotemporal heterogeneity. Lumping
58 resources has proven to be an effective strategy in other geosciences, e.g. ~~for~~ research vessels in oceanography and
59 drilling programs in geology. On the downside, ~~a potential limitation of this approach is that~~ a few catchments will
60 not be representative of all pedoclimatic regions, necessitating the consideration of generalization issues.

61 A discussion on the relative merits and limitations of these two visions on HOs is presented ~~with the objective of~~
62 ~~building to build~~ consensus on the optimal path for the hydrological community to address the UPH in the coming
63 decades. A final synthesis proposes the potential for ~~combining~~ integrating the two end members into a flexible
64 management strategy.

65 **Keywords:** hydrological observatory network, experimental catchments, cross-site synthesis, hypothesis testing vs.
66 exploratory science, unsolved problems in hydrology, societal needs, technology advancements.

- 67
- 68
- 69 **Highlights**
- 70 •• The historical situation of HOs has led to fragmented knowledge and sub-optimal research progress.
 - 71 •• Some initiatives emerged to coordinate and standardize data and models resulting in efficient cross-site synthesis.
 - 72 •• It is important to stimulate discussion within the hydrological community to arrive at a consensus view on HOs.
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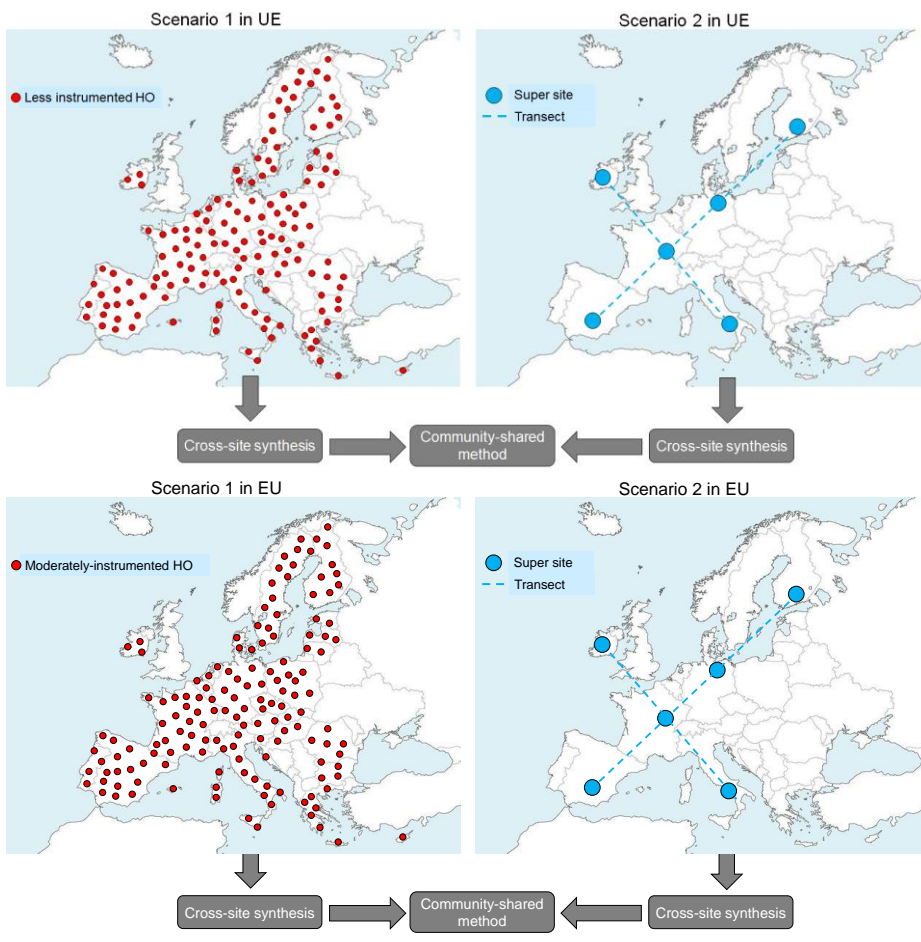
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Graphical Abstract



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90 **1. How do we address the Unsolved Problems in Hydrology advance scientific understanding of hydrological**
91 **processes?**

92 Water is ~~essential for life, yet certain~~ under increasing threat due to human activities ~~put this precious resource at risk,~~
93 Rapid changes in land use, such as the adoption of more intensive farming practices, ~~expanding~~ the expansion of
94 urbanization, and ~~land~~ the abandonment of land in rural areas, have a significant impact on the hydrological cycle and
95 water quality, whereas unsustainable water withdrawals lead to the depletion of resources. Global warming is expected
96 to exacerbate hydrological extremes, resulting in more disastrous floods and severe droughts that will further threaten
97 water security. In light of these challenges, the mission of hydrologists and water managers is to sustainably meet
98 human needs while preserving biodiversity and ecosystem services, based on the most accurate and up-to-date
99 information. However, the extent to which anthropogenic stressors influence the hydrologic cycle is not yet fully
100 understood: and the effectiveness of adaptation actions to guide the management of water resources has yet to be fully
101 evaluated. Hydrology is a data-hungry discipline but the limited observations on all components of the terrestrial
102 hydrosphere, from bedrock to the lower atmosphere, represent a significant obstacle to progress in the understanding
103 of hydrologic process dynamics (Siebert et al., 2024).

104 To grasp the daunting complexity of the hydrological cycle, particularly in relation to the impact of human activities
105 on the critical zone and catchment functionality, and to address the Unsolved Problems in Hydrology (UPH), several
106 long-term hydrological observatories (HOs) have been established around the world to monitor with the specific
107 purpose of monitoring hydrological states and flows. ~~HOs are long-term research sites dedicated to collecting data on~~
108 ~~the movement of water on land, from precipitation to groundwater. Observatories are important research~~
109 ~~infrastructures for understanding and forecasting how water resources are and will be affected by natural events and~~
110 ~~anthropogenic factors. HOs have been established to address the Unsolved Problems in Hydrology (UPH) that have~~
111 ~~been identified in the literature~~ (Blöschl et al., 2019; Arora et al., 2023).

112 The concept of ~~HOs dates~~ hydrological observatories (HOs) can be traced back to the early 1900s when scientists
113 began to recognize the significance of long-term data collection for understanding hydrological processes (McDonnell
114 et al., 2007). In 1903, runoff and other hydrological variables were first initially collected in the Sperbelgraben and
115 Rappengraben experimental catchments in the Emmental (region of Switzerland), which are still in operation. These
116 catchments remain operational and hold one of the longest continuous discharge records in the world (Stähli et al.,
117 2011). In the United States, the first HOs were the Wagon Wheel Gap Experiment in Colorado (Bates and Henry,
118 1928), the Coweeta Hydrological Laboratory in North Carolina (Neary et al., 2012), and a catchment network across
119 the continental U.S. established by the USDA-Agricultural Research Service (Goodrich et al., 2021). These sites were
120 designed to study the influence of human activities on hydrological systems, with a particular focus on deforestation
121 and afforestation, land-use changes, and agricultural practices (Whitehead and Robinson, 1993). The number of HOs
122 has steadily increased since ~~Since the 1950s and, there has grown exponentially since been a notable increase in the~~
123 ~~1980s,~~ number of HOs established across the globe. The HO sites have provided valuable/invaluable information for
124 managing the effective management of water resources ~~and are currently funded and supported by.~~ Currently, a
125 diverse range of entities, including government agencies (e.g., the Hydrologic Benchmark Network of the US
126 Geological Survey), universities and research institutions ~~including universities,~~ international organizations, and non-
127 governmental organizations, provide funding and support for these sites.

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129 **2. Building integrated observation platforms to address the UPH**

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130 A ~~significant~~considerable number of rivers ~~around the globe~~worldwide have been equipped with gauges to monitor
131 precipitation and streamflow by governmental agencies for ~~the purpose of~~water management. The data collected have
132 been primarily ~~used~~utilized at the national level, although there are several transnational initiatives ~~as e.g., including~~
133 the Global Runoff Data Centre in Koblenz, Germany, ~~and~~ the Camels datasets, such as those for the US, Chile, and
134 Brazil, (Addor et al.; Alvarez-Garreton et al. 2018; Chagas et al. 2020). ~~Hydrological Observatories go~~HOs extend
135 beyond these ~~standard~~conventional networks, striving to gain a more comprehensive understanding of hydrological
136 processes, typically in smaller catchments.

137 ~~While some instruments are based on well-~~A hydrological observatory is defined as a cyber-physical infrastructure
138 ~~established monitoring technologies, others~~within a catchment area to monitor the hydrological variables and fluxes,
139 ~~as well as to characterize the hydrological behavior of the three-dimensional spatial domain. The catchment is assumed~~
140 ~~to be the fundamental hydrological unit with well-defined system boundaries. It is from this unit that the impact of~~
141 ~~anthropogenic disturbances (global warming, land use change, aquifer contamination, etc.) on water resources can be~~
142 ~~evaluated through a long-term data analysis. Given the impracticality of full catchment coverage, the hydrological~~
143 ~~observatory focuses on a selected cluster of sub-catchments (spatial resolution of hectares) which are representative~~
144 ~~of land use, geomorphology, topography, and pedology similarities (Bogena et al., 2006). Consequently, the selected~~
145 ~~sub-catchments are more experimental~~equipped with wireless sensor networks for continuous data collection and
146 ~~subjected to disparate field campaigns, contingent upon budgetary constraints.~~

147 ~~The selection of sensors is crucial for the effective collection of hydrometeorological data within a hydrological~~
148 ~~observatory.~~ Weather station networks (also called synoptic stations) ensure ~~the collection of~~ meteorological
149 ~~measurements~~data and have been ~~combined~~integrated in many countries with weather radar networks for ~~the purpose~~
150 ~~of~~ detailed precipitation estimation (Sokol et al., 2021). Snow water equivalent is already measured on a routine basis
151 with snow pillows (e.g. by the SNOTEL network in the ~~US~~United States) or, ~~more experimentally,~~ by airborne LiDAR
152 snow depth surveys (Painter et al., 2016). Groundwater levels are monitored on a routine basis, whereas distributed
153 temperature sensing technology is a more novel approach for estimating infiltration rates and potentially catchment-
154 scale groundwater recharge (Medina et al., 2020). The ~~measurement~~measurements of ~~soil water content, and~~ matric
155 potential, ~~soil~~ temperature, and ~~soil bulk~~ electrical conductivity ~~in soil~~are conducted across soil profiles at the point
156 scale (Hoffmann et al., 2015; Peng et al., 2019; Bogena et al., 2022), ~~while~~ cosmic-ray neutron sensors,
157 ~~meanwhile,~~ are capable of extending the footprint of soil moisture to approximately 150-200 meters ~~in~~ radius
158 (Romano, 2014; Köhli et al., 2015; Baatz et al., 2017). At experimental sites, surface and subsurface runoff from
159 hillslopes are measured using flowmeters in runoff plots (Fu et al., 2024). In addition, ~~the~~ mapping of saturation areas
160 on hillslopes (Silasari et al. 2017) and channel-network dynamics (Jenssen et al., 2019; Strelnikova et al., 2023; Noto
161 et al., 2024) provide insight into the spatial patterns of catchment-scale processes that extend beyond point
162 measurements. Topographic surveys assist in determining surface flow paths within a catchment ~~and can be used to~~
163 ~~extend, thus enabling the extension of,~~ point measurements to the catchment scale (e.g., Rinderer et al., 2019; Fan et
164 al., 2019; Refsgaard et al., 2021). The rates of soil erosion and deposition are quantified through the use of sediment
165 fences, soil profile surveys, and cosmogenic nuclide analysis, in addition to repeated high-precision topographic
166 surveys. ~~Soil~~The measurement of ~~soil~~ physical, chemical, and hydraulic properties ~~are~~is typically ~~measured~~conducted
167 in field campaigns and laboratory experiments, with remote sensing serving as a ~~complement~~complementary
168 ~~technique.~~ Geophysical tools, such as electromagnetic (EM) surveys, ~~offer greathave the~~ potential ~~for to provide~~
169 ~~valuable insights into the~~ imaging of aquifer systems and ~~the characterization of~~ subsurface heterogeneity (Nasta et
170 al., 2019; Dewar and Knight, 2020). To ~~unravel~~elucidate the interactions of the water cycle with ~~the~~ biochemical,

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171 energy, and carbon cycles, numerous other variables are monitored (Valdes-Abellan et al., 2017). The key vegetation
172 characteristics that are monitored include canopy height, leaf area index (LAI), leaf water potential, sap flow, rooting
173 depth and distribution, plant water stress, canopy/vegetation water content, and temperature (Poyatos et al., 2021;
174 Loritz et al., 2022; Zeng and Su, 2024). Eddy covariance measurements, some of ~~them~~which are connected through
175 networks, such as Fluxnet, ~~measure~~are used to obtain evapotranspiration and carbon fluxes at the local level. Sapflow
176 sensors, some of which are organized in the Sapflux network (Poyatos et al., 2021), can be used to ~~measure~~quantify,
177 transpiration rates. ~~Tree~~The use of tracer measurements, such as isotope and dye studies, ~~are employed to~~
178 ~~track~~enables the tracking and ~~differentiated~~differentiation of water fluxes (Klaus and McDonnell, 2013; Penna et al.,
179 2018), ~~while lysimeters~~. Lysimeters are used to determine groundwater recharge and the associated concentrations
180 of, e.g., nitrate, at the point scale.

181 ~~Remote sensing from~~The use of unmanned aerial systems (UAS; e.g. Dugdale et al., 2022; Romano et al. 2023) and
182 satellite platforms (e.g. Durand et al., 2021, De Lannoy et al., 2022) ~~offer~~for remote sensing has emerged as a valuable
183 supplementary ~~information~~method to ground-based observation in HOs, ~~which can be used for gathering information~~
184 over large heterogeneous areas as well as for upscaling or downscaling hydrological variables (e.g., McCabe et al.,
185 2017; Manfreda et al., 2018, 2024; Su et al., 2020). Recently, higher-resolution observations of, ~~for example, various~~
186 hydrological variables have become available, including soil moisture (Burdun et al., 2023; Han et al., 2023), snow
187 depth (Lievens et al., 2021), and irrigation rate (Dari et al., 2023) ~~have become available and~~. These observations can
188 be used together with coarser-scale products, ~~such as~~including total water storage data from the Gravity Recovery
189 and Climate Experiment (GRACE) mission, ~~or~~and discharge data from the Surface Water and Ocean Topography
190 (SWOT) mission. ~~Multi-sensor combinations, such as those employed by~~The deployment of multiple sensors, as seen
191 in the various Sentinel and Landsat missions, can enhance the accuracy and resolution of the data. The European
192 Space Agency (ESA) and the United States National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) are engaged in
193 collaborative efforts with public and private organizations to develop relevant new missions and to disseminate a
194 range of products, including evapotranspiration estimates through the SEN-ET (Guzinski et al., 2019; 2020) and
195 OpenET (Melton et al., 2021) initiatives.

196 It is evident that the key to progress in hydrological understanding will be contingent upon the integration of these
197 observation platforms. These platforms should ~~combine~~integrate technologies such as remote sensing, high-
198 performance computing resources, artificial intelligence, and the Internet of Things, ~~yet keeping in mind that while~~
199 acknowledging the water and energy fluxes are influenced by influence of geochemical and biotic heterogeneity, as
200 well as socio-economic processes. ~~A hypothetical illustration of a ground-aerial-space monitoring network to transmit~~
201 sensor data from observation devices to data centers through relay communication equipment such as UAS, satellites,
202 airships, and hot air balloons is presented in Fig. 1., on water and energy fluxes.

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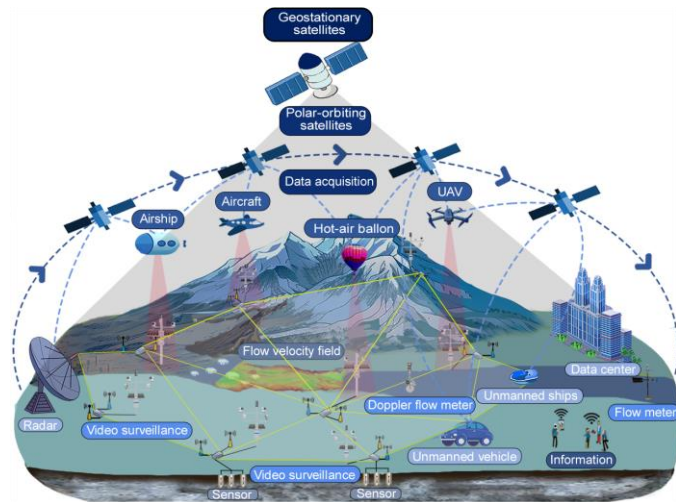


Figure 1. Air-space-ground observation of hydrological processes at catchment scale.

While observations are the backbone of progress in hydrological understanding (Sivapalan and Blöschl, 2017), models are equally essential for hypothesis testing and making predictions of practical relevance that are practically relevant (Brooks et al., 2015; Baatz et al., 2018; Bogena et al., 2018; Bechtold et al., 2019; Nearing et al., 2024). However, hydrological models, particularly those of a complex nature, frequently rely on lumped parameter calibration. This means that model parameters are adjusted based on aggregated (or lumped) fluxes, such as those observed in streamflow measurements at the outlet of the catchment. Although this approach can be effective, it can also result in limitations. A significant challenge is the assumption that the model's behavior is uniform across the entire catchment. This assumption might not hold true, especially in heterogeneous catchments with diverse topography, land use, and soil types. In such cases, relying exclusively on lumped fluxes may result in suboptimal model performance. An integrated observation approach enables the development of new methods that rely less on calibration and more based on insightful analysis of landscape heterogeneity and process complexity through systematic learning from distributed hydrometeorological data (Vereecken et al., 2015). The integration of these approaches is of paramount importance, given that catchments are complex systems with structured heterogeneity that heterogeneities, which give rise to non-linear interactions and feedback between the component processes (Vereecken et al., 2015; Li et al., 2022). One aspect of integration is the assimilation of observations into hydrological models (Mwangi et al., 2020; Kumar et al., 2022; De Lannoy et al., 2022) to estimate unobserved variables, improve predictions, and calibrate and validate satellite retrieval (Colliander et al., 2021). Paleo-reconstructions hold the key to represent another example of integration and are instrumental in developing a better more comprehensive understanding of how dynamic, abiotic, and biotic watershed catchment characteristics have co-evolved well before the advent of instrumental records started (Troch et al., 2013). Climate shifts leave a multitude of signatures in the natural world, influencing processes such as tree growth and the distribution of plant species. With the advent of increasingly sophisticated analytical techniques, has facilitated a rapid growth in knowledge of regarding past climate and river ecosystem variability is rapidly growing, benefiting from. Of particular

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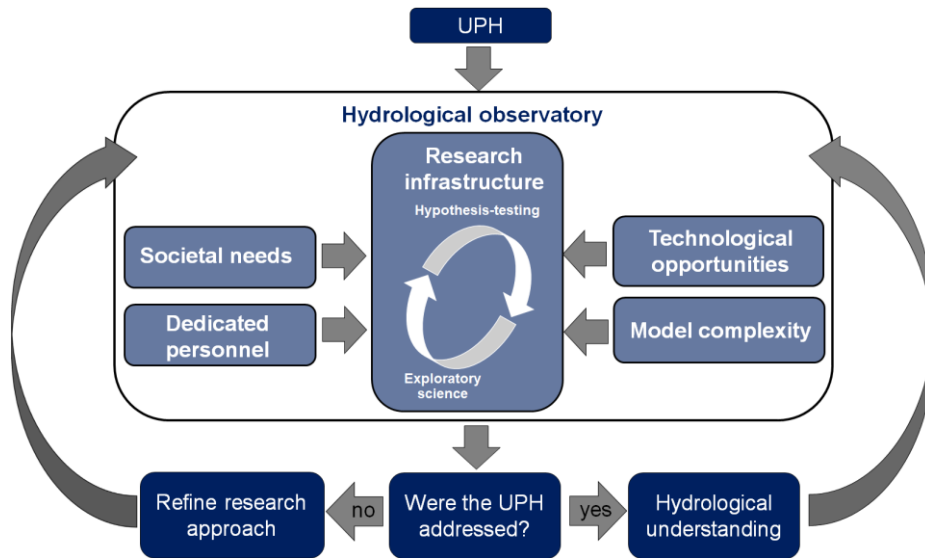
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232 benefit are reconstructions of river flow and erosion derived from natural archives (Chaussé et al., 2008; Torbenson
 233 et al., 2021; Büntgen et al., 2021; Schöne et al., 2020; Strelnikova et al., 2023).

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234
 235 **Figure 2. Organization of a hypothetical research infrastructure to address the unsolved problems in hydrology (UPH),**
 236 **inspired by Sivapalan and Blöschl (2017). Drivers are societal needs, including policy demands and industry needs. Progress**
 237 **is facilitated by the expertise and ideas of dedicated personnel, process fidelity of complex models, and new technological**
 238 **opportunities. Missing or gaining knowledge can help improve the further development of HO.**

239 The organization of a hypothetical research infrastructure is illustrated in Fig. 2, which is inspired by the evaluation
 240 of research progress in hydrology of Sivapalan and Blöschl (2017). Understanding hydrological processes in terrestrial
 241 systems and the connections between their sub-systems is contingent upon the extent to which hypothesis testing and
 242 exploratory science are facilitated by technological opportunities, the fidelity of complex models, and the expertise
 243 and ideas of dedicated personnel (Beven, 2018). The driving factors are societal needs that set an overall research
 244 agenda with the objective of growing hydrological knowledge to assist in more efficient resource management.
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247
 248 **3. HO networks and hydrological synthesis**

249 The sustainability of HO is a matter of concern. Financial and logistical constraints have posed challenges to the long-
 250 term operation of HOs, jeopardizing essential maintenance, equipment upgrades, and personnel training. This
 251 ultimately compromises the quality and continuity of hydrological data collection and analysis. Data gaps and the lack
 252 of continuity in the data collection process hamper the identification and understanding of hydrological change, ~~one~~
 253 ~~of the main~~ ~~which represents a significant~~ societal ~~needs~~ ~~need~~ for hydrology ~~at in the~~ present and ~~in the~~ future
 254 (Montanari et al., 2013). ~~Given the often limited budget per~~ ~~In light of the frequently constrained budgetary resources~~
 255 ~~available for each~~ site, many studies have ~~concentrated~~ ~~focused~~ on measuring lumped hydrological fluxes (e.g., the
 256 streamflow at the catchment outlet), while observatories that ~~focus on~~ ~~prioritize the analysis of~~ spatial details
 257 ~~are~~ ~~remain~~ relatively ~~rare~~ ~~scarce~~ (e.g., Blöschl et al., 2016). Site-specific methods, tailored to site-specific UPH, have
 258 ~~often led to research progress on~~ ~~frequently resulted in advancements in the understanding of~~ a ~~single~~ ~~specific~~

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259 hydrological process, ~~without~~ ~~but have not~~ fully ~~leveraging~~ ~~exploited~~ the potential for synergies with other HOs.

260 Consequently, the outcome has ~~often~~ ~~frequently~~ been an increase in fragmented knowledge, rather than progress in

261 understanding the ~~interaction~~ ~~interactions~~ of hydrological processes ~~that, which~~ is so urgently needed.

262 To address these issues, scientists have proposed initiatives to sustain long-term operation, harmonize, and standardize

263 both ~~data and models~~ (Zoback 2001; Reid et al., 2010; Kulmala, 2018), ~~hydrometeorological data and eco-hydrological~~

264 ~~models in HO networks~~ (Zoback 2001; Reid et al., 2010; Kulmala, 2018). In numerous instances, hydrological

265 ~~observations are now integrated into interdisciplinary research programs in terrestrial observatories which are~~

266 ~~scientific facilities designed to observe and study various aspects of the Earth's surface, atmosphere, and interior.~~

267 ~~Terrestrial observatories collect data on a range of phenomena, including earthquakes, volcanic activity, weather~~

268 ~~patterns, climate change, and the movement of tectonic plates. Hydrological observations play a crucial role in the~~

269 ~~context of terrestrial observatories.~~ Notable initiatives that have integrated existing environmental research

270 infrastructures include the pan-European ENVRI initiative (<https://envri.eu>) and the global GERI initiative

271 (<https://global-ecosystem-ri.org/>, Loescher et al., 2022). Networks such as Fluxnet (<https://fluxnet.org>) and the

272 Integrated Carbon Observation System (<https://www.icos-cp.eu>) collect standardized data on the soil surface energy

273 balance and evapotranspiration. The network of Critical Zone Observatories aims ~~to understand~~ ~~at understanding~~

274 critical zone processes ~~and includes, with a particular focus on~~ hydrologic monitoring (Brantley et al., 2017; Anderson

275 ~~et al., 2018; Gaillardet et al., 2018). The integrated European Long-Term Ecosystem, Critical Zone, and socio-~~

276 ~~ecological Research Infrastructure~~ (<https://elter-ri.eu>) ~~will establish~~ ~~his establishing~~ a network of ~~around~~ ~~approximately~~

277 200 integrated terrestrial observatories across Europe, ~~and with~~ hydrological monitoring ~~will be part~~ ~~forming a~~

278 ~~component of it~~ ~~this initiative.~~ In the field of agriculture, the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) is

279 ~~supporting~~ ~~providing support for~~ the Long-Term Agroecosystem Research (LTAR) initiative

280 (<https://ltar.ars.usda.gov/>), which combines strategic research projects with common measurements ~~on~~ ~~across~~ multiple

281 agroecosystems, including croplands, rangelands, and pasturelands.

282 The advent of digital technology and data exchange platforms has enabled scientists to aggregate and jointly analyze

283 data streams from disparate locations in a manner that was previously unfeasible. ~~A prerequisite for this~~ ~~This~~ is

284 ~~contingent upon~~ the standardization and harmonization of existing protocols and methods for hydrological

285 observation. ~~Existing~~ ~~The extant~~ research infrastructures have already established standards for the environmental

286 variables they collect. The harmonization of such standards across disciplinary infrastructures represents a crucial

287 building block toward enhanced integration and should be reflected in future strategies for designing international

288 environmental research.

289 ~~Cross~~ ~~The cross-~~site synthesis of hydrological processes ~~fill~~ ~~serves to fill~~ the gap between site-specific studies and

290 broader, ~~more~~ generalizable knowledge (Zacharias et al., 2024). The objective is to integrate information from

291 multiple sites and sources to identify patterns, trends, and relationships that can lead to ~~the development of a~~ ~~more~~

292 robust and transferable ~~body of~~ knowledge for model development and ~~eventually, ultimately,~~ more effective decision-

293 making. The implementation of cross-site synthesis typically ~~involves~~ ~~entails~~ the following steps (Fig. 3), as illustrated

294 in Figure 1;

295 — Formulating the UPH;

296 — Data collection by using standardized protocols;

297 — Use of community-shared hydrological models;

298 — Comparative hydrology;

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299 Meta-analyses to consolidate results.

300

301 The initial step is to formulate scientifically interesting questions that not only address existing knowledge gaps but

302 also and contribute to a broader understanding and societal benefits in the field of hydrology (see Appendix). To ensure

303 consistency in data quality, it is essential to harmonize the measurement methods, techniques, and quality control

304 protocols need to be harmonized employed. Community networks and centralized data repositories can facilitate this

305 process and provide access to standardized and curated datasets. Community-shared hydrological models can be

306 employed to represent the complex interactions between hydrological processes, ecosystems, and human activities.

307 These The models are calibrated and tested using the harmonized data from multiple sites to improve, thereby

308 enhancing their predictive capabilities and generalizability. Interesting/Notable initiatives are already operative, such

309 as operational, including the Unified Forecast System (UFS) which is a community-based, coupled, comprehensive

310 Earth modeling system used for weather forecast applications ([https://www.ufscommunity.org/articles/hierarchical-](https://www.ufscommunity.org/articles/hierarchical-system-development-for-the-ufs/)

311 [system-development-for-the-ufs/](https://www.ufscommunity.org/articles/hierarchical-system-development-for-the-ufs/)). Comparative studies reveal have been instrumental in identifying the key drivers of

312 hydrological variability and identify in establishing generalizable principles by systematically comparing. This is

313 accomplished through a comprehensive and systematic comparison of hydrological processes and responses across

314 different a range of sites, while accounting for several factors, such as including climate, topography, land use, and

315 management practices. Finally In addition, meta-analyses can combine synthesize, and compare results findings

316 from multiple studies, identify common recurrent patterns and trends in integrated measurements and model simulations,

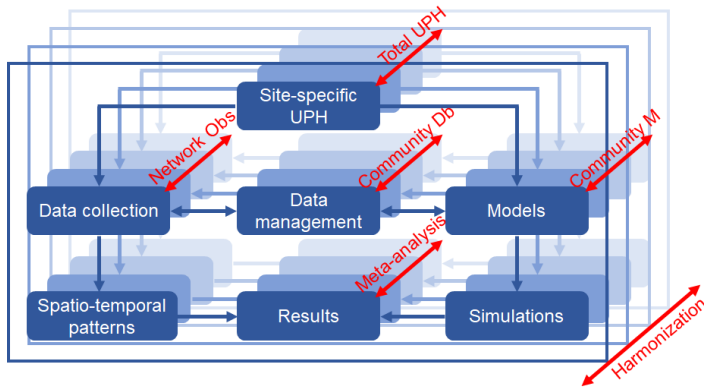
317 and present consolidated results in a coherent way manner.

318 By following these steps, hydrologists can effectively implement cross-site synthesis, thereby advancing the field of

319 hydrology towards toward a more generalizable and transferable body of knowledge. This can inform more effective

320 decision-making for water resource with regard to the management of water resources and the adaptation to climate

321 change adaptation, in a variety of contexts.



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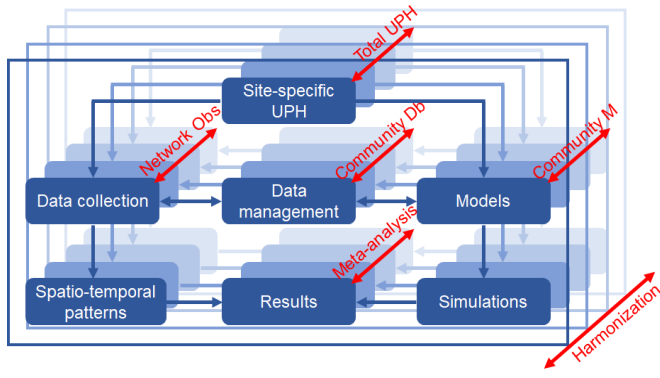


Figure 31. Schematic of the proposed cross-site synthesis. Obs, Db, M, and UPH indicate Observatories, Database, Model/Models, and Unsolved Problems in Hydrology, respectively.

Cross-site synthesis helps unveil hidden assumptions that may be embedded in site-specific studies and enables, thereby enabling researchers to critically assess the validity of these assumptions and explore alternative perspectives. Identifying the identification of common principles and practices enables allows researchers to develop transferable knowledge that can be applied to other settings, thereby accelerating progress in research and practice. Some examples Examples of cross-site synthesis already exist in the literature. For example, Wlostowski et al. (2021) conducted a meta-analysis of hydrologic signatures from 15 catchments in the U.S. Critical Zone Observatory (CZO) network, which revealed consistent relationships between critical zone structure and hydrologic response across sites. Similarly, Addor et al. (2018) similarly looked at examined the predictability of hydrologic signatures for the catchments that are part of included in the Camels dataset but found that the relationship relationship between these signatures and catchment attributes other than climate characteristics was poor weak. Comparative analyses have also yielded a range of interesting conflicting results, although there is not yet complete concordance. For instance, some studies have indicated that afforestation may result in a decrease in water yield, whereas others have identified an increase. Two distinct theoretical frameworks have been put forth to explain the observed phenomena aforementioned conflicting results (Ellison et al., 2012). The demand-side perspective emphasizes places emphasis on the increase in transpiration and the subsequent reduction in streamflow, particularly in catchments smaller than a few square kilometers (Schilling et al., 2008; Kim et al., 2013; Nasta et al., 2017). In contrast, the supply-side perspective posits that afforestation will intensify precipitation, thereby increasing streamflow, in downwind catchments (Ellison et al., 2012). Similarly, the impact of reforestation may increase or decrease on dry season flows depending on is contingent upon the relative importance of increased infiltration and evapotranspiration rates (Bruijnzeel, 1989).

The aforementioned As demonstrated by the preceding case studies demonstrate the advantages of, cross-site synthesis provides a valuable approach for, quantifying the spatial variability of hydrological processes and identifying consistent patterns of phenomena, such as droughts and floods. These examples will ultimately inform water management practices around the world, while maintaining track and awareness of local hydrological particularities.

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352 **4. How to manage a network of hydrological observatories?**

353 For the sake of the argument, we will assume that a fixed community budget has been allocated for the establishment
354 and operation of a hypothetical network of HOs. Two extreme in the European Union (EU). Two potential scenarios
355 can be envisaged. In the first scenario (Scenario 1), the available financial resources are allocated to numerous less
356 intensively distributed among a multitude of moderately instrumented HOs distributed around situated throughout the
357 world EU, with the objective of addressing challenges in hydrology with broad extensive geographical coverage. Each
358 HO will focus on those atmospheric, river/stream, groundwater, soil, and vegetation processes that are most pertinent
359 in the region in which it is situated. Figure 2 illustrates an example of a moderately instrumented site belonging to a
360 hydrological observatory network in Scenario 1. This plan reflects the current status of the majority of HO networks
361 around the world. The cross-site synthesis involves the gathering of information from each HO to identify principal
362 benefit of this approach is that the HOs are widely and effectively distributed, enabling the identification of cause-
363 and-effect relationships (and supporting the cross-site synthesis of the lumped hydrological responses (e.g.,
364 rainfall-runoff ratio, nutrient input-output relationship, Budyko-type approaches) among different analysis) across
365 diverse continental landscapes (Wagener et al., 2007; Ehret et al., 2014; Jones et al., 2012; Kuentz et al., 2017; Templer
366 et al., 2022), and the combination of this information in a meaningful way (Ehret et al., 2014). The combination can
367 be achieved through the use of dynamic modeling and/or classification schemes (Wagener et al., 2007), which may
368 employ proxies such as the aridity index (Kuentz et al., 2017).

369 In Scenario 1, a combination of centralized and distributed components is utilized. Distributed components provide
370 observed data that is managed by different entities (e.g., universities, research institutions, government agencies, etc.)
371 across geographically spread sites. To guarantee the comparability of data, it is essential to implement standardized
372 protocols for data collection, storage, quality assurance, and analysis. This will alleviate the burden associated with
373 the cross-site synthesis. Centralized data management facilitates the accessibility of data across multiple sites.
374 Furthermore, additional central thematic elements may be provided, such as those pertaining to communication and
375 knowledge transfer, or those relevant to modeling applications. The organizational structure may be based on other
376 successfully established or planned distributed continental infrastructures. Notable examples include ICOS (Integrated
377 Carbon Observation System) and eLTER (Integrated European Long-Term Ecosystem, Critical Zone and Socio-
378 ecological Research Infrastructure). Free data availability and accessibility of the sites should be a fundamental aspect
379 of the scenario designs.

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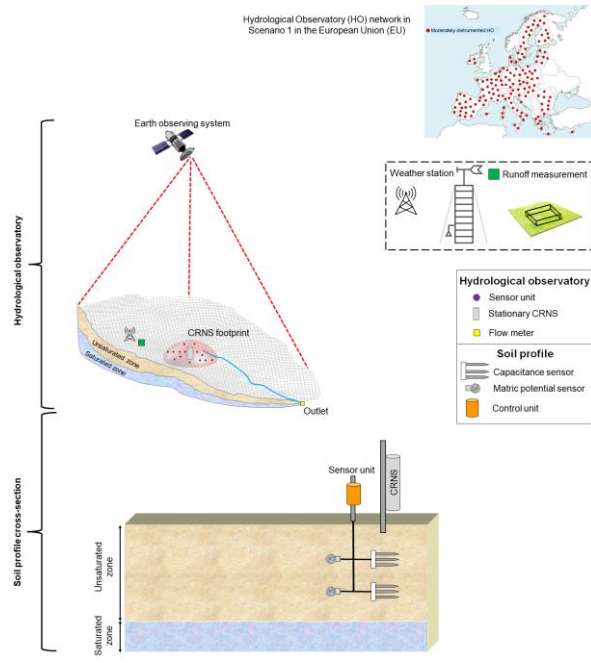
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382 **Figure 2. Graphical illustration of a hydrological observatory (HO) network in the European Union (EU) in Scenario 1.**
 383 **Each sub-catchment is equipped with basic instrumentation: a weather station, a runoff gauging station, a Cosmic-Ray**
 384 **Neutron Sensor (CRNS) with a wireless sensor network controlling soil profile sensors, a streamflow sensor at the**
 385 **catchment's outlet. Satellite products are available anywhere in the world. The soil profile cross-section illustrates the soil**
 386 **profile sensor unit and the stationary CRNS.**

387

388 In Scenario 1, collaboration and partnership among different stakeholders are crucial. Such collaboration may
 389 facilitate broader opportunities for citizen and stakeholder participation, particularly given the distributed nature of
 390 the scenario and the encouragement of local initiatives.

391 In the second scenario (Scenario 2), research efforts and financial resources are pooled into a limited number of pilot
 392 HOs, each equipped with massive instrumentation. Similar initiatives can be found in sister disciplines related fields
 393 of hydrology study. In oceanography, a limited number of costly research vessels are made available, primarily through
 394 the financial support of national governments. This approach allows enables numerous researchers to collaborate
 395 engage in collaborative community experiments, thereby facilitating a deeper understanding of specific
 396 oceanic regions. One such illustrative example is the Multidisciplinary Drifting Observatory for the Study of the
 397 Arctic Climate (MOSAIC), which organized the undertook a drift with the Arctic Sea ice from October 2019 to
 398 September 2020 aboard the Polarstern research vessel (Rabe et al., 2022). In the field of geology, the cost of drilling
 399 into the Earth is almost equally expensive. Lumping The consolidation of resources enables permits geologists from
 400 around the world diverse geographical locations to combine efforts into a single engage in collaborative drilling
 401 program programs, such as the International Continental Scientific Drilling Program (ICDP) (Harms et al., 2007). The
 402 scientific drilling programs were conducted at locations of global geological significance, which are have been
 403 designated as World Geological Sites. Of course, in both cases, the research questions or aims are clearly

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404 ~~identified explicitly delineated~~. In the case of MOSAiC, the aim was to gain a ~~better~~deeper understanding of the
405 influence of the Arctic on the global climate, given that the Arctic has ~~warmed up~~experienced a more pronounced
406 warming trend than any other region of the world. ~~In the case of~~Concerning ICDP, the ~~aim~~objective was to ~~better~~
407 ~~understand~~gain a deeper understanding of the Earth's processes and structure at the most interesting locations. In both
408 instances, participation is ~~managed through~~contingent upon the successful completion of an application and review
409 process overseen by an international committee.

410 ~~In a similar way~~Similarly, a small number of HOs equipped with comprehensive instrumentation and managed by an
411 international team of experts from various disciplines could represent the pinnacle of hydrological field research.
412 Figure 3 shows a hypothetical super-site established along an ideal transect within the European Union (Scenario 2).
413 A high-density network of sampling and monitoring units for soil hydrology research is designed and planned for each
414 super-site. This infrastructure, as yet unrealized, would facilitate a comprehensive understanding of water dynamics
415 in the groundwater-soil-plant-atmosphere continuum and water circulation in the surface and subsurface domains
416 within a few sites on each continent. In this case, cross-site synthesis would support the application and refinement of
417 complex hydrological models based on fundamental insights into complex, non-linear processes that are modulated
418 by scale-dependent feedback and multiscale spatiotemporal heterogeneity.

419 ~~A~~ wealth of data would ~~unravel~~enable an unprecedented unraveling of hydrological processes at the
420 hillslope/catchment scale ~~in an unprecedented manner~~, based on observations of water and energy fluxes in the
421 groundwater-soil-vegetation-atmosphere continuum at high spatial and temporal resolutions. ~~Some of these networks~~
422 ~~already exist at the national scale, such as the networks of Critical Zone Observatories (Brantley et al., 2017; Gaillardet~~
423 ~~et al., 2018), but a global network of observatories is currently missing.~~

424 As with the sister disciplines, it is necessary to define research questions in a clear and precise manner, both for the
425 purpose of obtaining funding and for structuring research in a way that maximizes the chances of progress. The UPH
426 may indeed serve as the basis for these questions. The research questions should be bold, and potentially outrageous. In
427 Scenario 2, the research questions should be presented boldly, (see discussion in Davis, 1926; Beven and Germann,
428 2013; McDonnell, 2014; Burt and McDonnell, 2015; Kirchner, 2016; Blöschl et al., 2019; Gao et al., 2023). Some
429 interesting examples of *Scenario 2* ~~have already~~ existbeen documented in controlled settingsenvironments, Biosphere-
430 2 (B2) in Tucson, Arizona, (Evaristo et al., 2019) is a research facility comprising a tropical rainforest biome, a
431 mesocosm enclosed in a pyramidal glass structure. Additionally, the ~~site comprises the~~ Landscape Evolution
432 Observatory, ~~(LEO consisting of)~~ comprises three artificial hillslopes equipped with a dense network of soil sensors
433 (Pangle et al., 2015), ~~which~~. The observatory is geared towardsfocused on understanding the interaction between
434 water and weathering processes (Van Den Heuvel, 2018; Bauser et al., 2022). Another example is the artificial
435 Chicken Creek catchment in Germany, which has served as the fulcrum of comparative community research on runoff
436 generation (Holländer et al., 2009).

437 Once more, as with the sister disciplines, the choice of location is of the utmost importance. The selected locations
438 should represent hydrological situations that are particularly conducive to addressing the primary research question.
439 ~~For example, the~~The Austrian Hydrological Open Air Laboratory (HOAL) (Blöschl et al., 2016), ~~aims at~~ better was
440 designed with the specific objective of facilitating a more comprehensive understanding of rainfall-runoff processes
441 and it. It is ideally suited for this purpose because it features, featuring a range of different runoff generation processes
442 (, including surface runoff, springs, tile drains, and wetlands),. Another example is provided by the Alento
443 hydrological observatory, which aims at elucidating the effects of the typical Mediterranean seasonality of climate, as
444 well as land-use/land-cover changes on water flow in the critical zone of a representative southern European catchment

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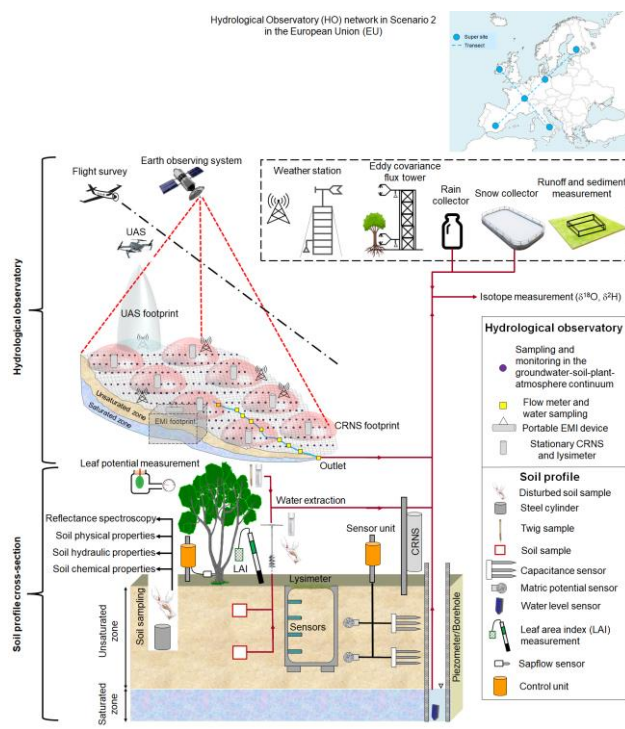
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445 (Nasta et al., 2017; Romano et al., 2018). ~~If to explore~~ land-atmosphere ~~feedbacks are to be explored~~ (Späth et al.,
 446 2023), ~~feedback, it is recommended that~~ a catchment of considerable size ~~should be~~ selected. ~~Another factor to be~~
 447 ~~taken into account~~ (Späth et al., 2023). ~~In addition,~~ when selecting ~~the~~ location for a new ~~high-budget~~ HO, it
 448 may ~~relate be beneficial~~ to ~~consider~~ the existence of so-called environmental archives in the area of interest. The ease
 449 of accessibility and the availability of infrastructure may be another factor to consider, but this could result in a
 450 geographic and climatic bias of the research sites. ~~In any case, extrapolation to other climate zones and~~
 451 ~~hydrogeological settings in Scenario 2 will be much more problematic than in Scenario 1 and requires careful~~
 452 ~~planning.~~
 453 Which

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454
 455 **Figure 3. Graphical illustration of a hydrological observatory (HO) network in the two scenarios should, or will, European**
 456 **Union (EU) in Scenario 2. Each sub-catchment established along an ideal transect is equipped with a high-density network**
 457 **of sampling and monitoring units for soil hydrology research. Frequent unmanned aerial system (UAS) and aircraft surveys**
 458 **are organized over the experimental area. Satellite products are available anywhere in the world. Frequent campaigns of**
 459 **geophysical (electromagnetic induction, EMI technique) and tracing (stable isotopes in water such as $\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$)**
 460 **measurements are carried out across the HO. Flow monitoring and water sampling are carried out along the stream. The**
 461 **soil profile cross-section shows the monitoring and sampling activities in the groundwater-soil-plant-atmosphere continuum**
 462 **in a position of the dense point grid (purple circles).**

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 464
 465 Few super-sites would require a central governing body that would likely, be preferred depends responsible for
 466 overseeing all aspects of the super-sites, including instrument deployment and maintenance, as well as data collection
 467 and analysis. Such an entity could be a dedicated government agency with a specific mandate or a research consortium

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468 with significant resources. The establishment of a single entity in charge, operating as a central authority, would
 469 facilitate the decision-making process with regard to instrument upgrades, research focus, and site and data access.
 470 Super-sites with advanced instrumentation might attract highly specialized researchers, leading to a concentration of
 471 expertise in specific areas. The implementation of standardized sensors would result in cost savings and enhanced
 472 efficiency in the collection and processing of data. Conversely, the specific hydrological environment may require the
 473 use of specialized instrumentation or measurement techniques. A lack of flexibility in standardization can limit the
 474 ability to adapt to new research questions or emerging challenges. Notable examples of standardization efforts include
 475 the Global Network of River Observatories (GLORIA) and the World Meteorological Organization (WMO)
 476 guidelines for hydrological stations. By taking these factors into careful consideration and adopting a balanced
 477 approach, hydrological observatories can harness the power of standardization while maintaining flexibility and
 478 adaptability. To ensure equity and stimulate greater involvement in *Scenario 2*, it is essential to establish a
 479 collaborative governance structure that incorporates a diverse range of stakeholders in decision-making processes
 480 pertaining to super site operations and data utilization. The governance and site access aspects are well presented in
 481 initiatives such as the International Continental Scientific Drilling Program (ICDP), which addresses geodynamic
 482 processes, solid Earth geohazards, sustainable geo-resources, and environmental change (<https://www.icdp-online.org/about-icdp/entities/>). Another noteworthy example is the Alfred Wegener Institute (AWI), which aims to
 484 understand the complex processes in the Earth system and the impact of global warming on the oceans and polar
 485 regions (<https://www.awi.de/en/>). The AWI maintains a network of well-instrumented long-term observatories,
 486 comprising both stationary devices and mobile components that are used for studies pertaining to oceanography,
 487 meteorology, and geophysics (<https://www.awi.de/en/expedition/observatories.html>).
 488 The selection of the optimal scenario is contingent upon the research questions deemed most important/pertinent, the
 489 ability/capacity to leverage/secure funding, and the degree/extent to which the hydrological community is willing and
 490 able to collaborate. No single better option exists underIn the context of financial constraints:- a, no single alternative
 491 can be considered inherently superior. A distributed network of numerous HO is well-suited to broad-scale
 492 questions/inquiries, whereas a network of a few super-sites excels/particularly adept at facilitating in-depth process
 493 understanding.

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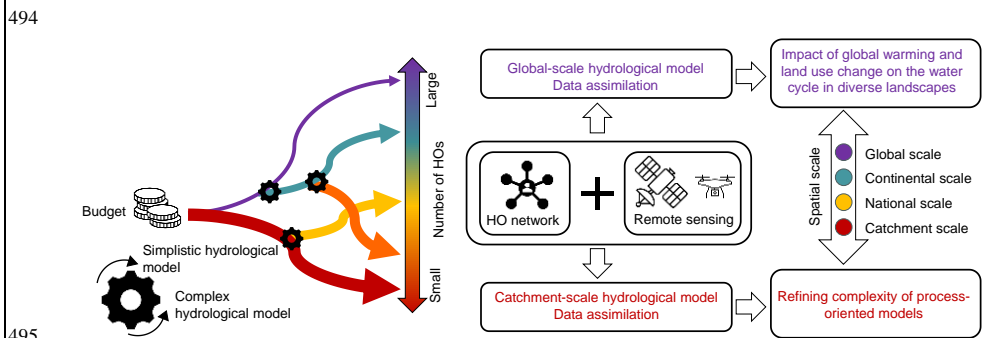
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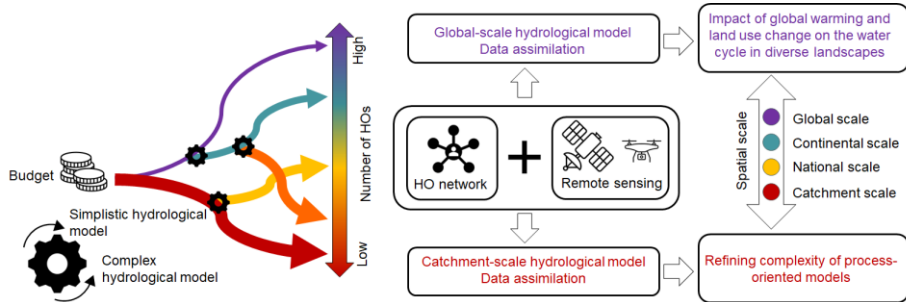


496 **Figure 4.** Possible configurations of Hydrological Observatory (HO) networks are illustrated, spanning a range from a few
 497 (color-coded in red) to numerous (color-coded in blue) HOs. The thickness of the arrows indicates the quantity of
 498 instrumentation present in each HO. The data obtained from the HO network and remote sensing platforms are used to
 499 inform hydrological models of different complexities, enabling the addressing of specific scientific questions across
 500 disparate spatial scales.

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503 A potential way forward to the aforementioned issues could be to merge the two scenarios into a dynamic or adaptive
 504 hybrid approach (Fig. see Figure 4). The establishment of a network of geographically distributed observatories would
 505 facilitate the achievement of a high level of representativeness regarding existing gradients of geology, climate, and
 506 land-use. This would assist in the identification of priority areas requiring further investigation, and alleviate some of
 507 the bias in current hydrological studies (Burt and McDonnell, 2015; Tarasova et al., 2024). Depending on the
 508 availability of resources, The development of some of these observatories can be developed into hydrological super-
 509 sites that are particularly suitable, contingent on the availability of resources, would allow for the investigation of
 510 specific questions, such as karst hydrology, water scarcity, floodplains, forest hydrology, precision agriculture, ~~or~~and
 511 different runoff generation mechanisms. This approach allows forenables targeted investigations at selectedspecific
 512 locations with high-resolution data, which can then be usedexploited to support the development of high-fidelity
 513 modeling. It is also possible to reverse this scenario. If a super-site located in a specific bioclimatic region yields
 514 scientific breakthroughs, it may be feasible to establish a network of HOs in regions with similar hydrological
 515 behavior. The key factor is to leverage the strengths of each approach, while working within the constraints of the
 516 available budget. By combining the strengths of both approaches, one can achieve a balance between
 517 representativeness (distributed network) and detailed understanding (super-sites). This ensures the optimal
 518 exploitation of resources while maximizing the scientific outputmodels.

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519
 520 It is similarly feasible to reverse this scenario. Should a super-site situated in a particular bioclimatic zone yield
 521 scientific breakthroughs, it may be possible to establish a network of HOs in regions exhibiting analogous hydrological
 522 behavior. The key factor is to leverage the strengths of each approach while operating within the confines of the
 523 allocated budgetary resources. By integrating the strengths of the two approaches, one can attain a balance between
 524 representativeness (a distributed network) and a detailed understanding (super-sites). This approaches ensures the
 525 optimal exploitation of resources while maximizing the scientific output.

526 **Figure 4.** Possible arrangements of Hydrological Observatory (HO) networks, from a few (color-coded in red) to many
 527 (color-coded in blue) HOs. The thickness of the arrows indicates the quantity of instrumentation in each HO. The data
 528 retrieved from the HO network and remote sensing platforms inform hydrological models of different complexities to
 529 address specific science questions across different spatial scales.
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531 **5. Concluding remarks**

532 Catchment-scale-To address water-related problems-issues at the catchment scale across the continents requirediverse
 533 global contexts, it is imperative to develop adaptation and mitigation solutions, based on strategies that are grounded
 534 in evidence gathered in HOs. The pastprevious situation, which was characterized by a myriad of relatively
 535 unconnected, moderately and differently instrumented HOs that were supported by grant-to-grant funding, has resulted
 536 in importantsignificant but fragmented knowledge. This has hinderedimpeded comparative studies and has

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537 ~~hampered~~hindered scientific progress. New initiatives are being proposed with the ~~aim~~objective of
538 ~~improving~~enhancing the coordination of HO networks, thereby enabling efficient cross-site synthesis. ~~Under~~In light
539 ~~of~~ financial constraints, we need to ~~find~~identify a common vision for the optimal allocation of resources.
540 A network of numerous HOs provides broad spatial coverage, enabling the ~~capture of~~ variations in environmental
541 conditions across ~~diverse~~ regions, ecosystems, and land- ~~uses to be captured~~. Environmental change can manifest
542 itself differently ~~in various~~across regions due to ~~the influence of~~ local climate, geography, and human activities. A
543 network of ~~many~~numerous observatories ~~enables~~offers the ~~monitoring of~~opportunity to monitor these interactions, ~~the~~
544 ~~capturing of~~capture, feedbacks, teleconnections, and cross-scale dynamics that may not be observable at individual
545 observatories. In contrast, a ~~small~~limited number of intensively instrumented observatories permit the collection of
546 high-resolution data, the testing of ~~new~~novel hypotheses, and informing ~~complex~~comprehensive process-oriented
547 hydrological models. This choice can capture variations at smaller spatial and finer temporal scales, ~~thereby providing~~
548 a more nuanced understanding of environmental and hydrological processes. ~~However~~Nevertheless, the
549 ~~scenario~~strategy of pooling all financial efforts into a ~~small~~limited number of intensively instrumented hydrological
550 observatories will exacerbate the issue of knowledge transferability and geographic bias in hydrological data and
551 understanding. ~~Therefore~~It is therefore necessary to devise strategies for generalization, ~~perhaps inspired~~
552 ~~by~~potentially drawing inspiration from the Prediction in Ungauged Basins initiative, ~~are needed~~.
553 In ~~times~~the context of ~~rapid~~accelerated global ~~changes~~transformation, there is ~~an~~urgent pressing need for the
554 ~~establishment of~~to establish a network of HOs. The question of how to organize and manage such a global network,
555 including the number of observatories, ~~is still under debate~~remains a topic of discussion. Both distributed networks
556 and super-sites offer valuable contributions to ~~the advancement of~~hydrological understanding. We envision a dynamic
557 hybrid approach that combines the two ~~mentioned~~visions, ~~without mutually excluding in a manner that does not~~
558 ~~exclude~~ either of them: ~~from consideration~~. It is important to raise public awareness about the ~~importance~~significance
559 of hydrological research and its linkages with ~~many~~a multitude of other disciplines, including atmospheric science,
560 soil science, biochemistry, pedology, ecology, microbiology, geology, plant physiology, and remote sensing.
561 ~~This~~Such an approach can garner support and increase funding opportunities. It is our hope that all hydrologists ~~will~~
562 engage in a discussion process with the aim of refining and building upon the ideas presented in this paper.

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565	Acknowledgements
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567 **Acknowledgments**

568 This paper is an outcome result of the presentations and discussions held at the 8th Galileo Conference, entitled “A European
569 vision/Vision for hydrological observations/Hydrological Observations and experimentation” held-Experimentation”, which took
570 place in Napoli/Naples, Italy, during 12–15 June 12th to 15th, 2023. The idea of the paper of concentrating on a few research
571 catchments worldwide was proposed by Günter Blöschl in his keynote lecture on, entitled “The Future of Hydrology: Nature or
572 Nurture?”, on 14 June 14th, 2023. Günter Blöschl discussed the concept of focusing research efforts on a limited number of
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581
582 **Appendix**

583 The 8th Galileo Conference “A European vision/Vision for hydrological observations/Hydrological Observations and
584 experimentation/Experimentation” was held in Napoli/Naples (Italy), on 12-15 June 2023. Upon presentations and
585 discussions, we report the most intriguing questions in hydrology that emerged from the conference, but, Additionally,
586 we also took some UPH from conducted a literature review and identified several key points that warrant further
587 investigation;

- 588 ➤ How do landscapes release and store water?
- 589 ➤ What is the impact of preferential flow on catchment-scale water flow dynamics?
- 590 ➤ How can remote sensing provide more reliable information on soil moisture, changes in water storage, surface
591 energy balance, and evapotranspiration at suitable spatial and temporal scales (Lettenmaier et al., 2015)?
- 592 ➤ What are the hydrologic laws at the catchment scale, and how do they change with scale?
- 593 ➤ What causes spatial heterogeneity and homogeneity in runoff, evapotranspiration, subsurface water and material
594 fluxes (carbon and other nutrients, sediments), and in their sensitivity to their controls (e.g., snowfall regime,
595 aridity, reaction coefficients)?
- 596 ➤ How can we use innovative technologies to measure surface and subsurface properties, states and fluxes at a range
597 of spatial and temporal scales?
- 598 ➤ How can hydrological models be adapted to be able to extrapolate changing conditions, including changing
599 vegetation dynamics?
- 600 ➤ How can we disentangle and reduce model structural/parameter/input uncertainty in hydrological prediction?
- 601 ➤ How can various multi-scale observations be assimilated into a hydrologic model to enhance model predictability?
- 602 ➤ Is it better to give more importance to uncertainty or causality?
- 603 ➤ What is the role of vegetation in the catchment?
- 604 ➤ How can we integrate the different spatial and temporal scales of observations, processes, and models?
- 605 ➤ How can we improve the quantity and quality of measurements in data-poor regions?
- 606 ➤ How do we get large-scale flux measurements and feedback to analyze the water dynamics within and between
607 the compartments of the groundwater-soil-plant-atmosphere continuum?
- 608 ➤ How is the water cycle influenced by the other cycles (carbon, nitrogen, etc.)?
- 609 ➤ Where and how can the sensors be allocated to get full information without wasting excessive effort?
- 610 ➤ How can the dynamics and feedback at groundwater-soil, groundwater-surface water, soil-plant, soil-atmosphere,
611 and plant-atmosphere interfaces be assessed?
- 612 ➤ How do we include plant-physiological aspects in hydrological models?
- 613 ➤ Are measurements taken in the past still valid in the future? How about accuracy/precision change with
614 technological advancements? Do we need to remove all “inaccurate” historical data and keep only “currently
615 accurate” data? Is the assumption of a steady hydrological system valid? Can we simplify the system by linearizing
616 a nonlinear system behavior?
- 617 ➤ How can we develop socio-hydrological models by considering anthropogenic disturbances in the ecosystem?
- 618 ➤ What role(s) do continuous and ephemeral water bodies, including ponds, lakes, rivers, streams, marshes, swamps,
619 etc. influencing watershed water quantity and quality?

Research questions in Scenario 1

-
- 1 How can we improve the quantity and quality of measurements in data-poor regions?
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2 Where and how can we deploy the sensors to get the most information without wasting too much effort?

3 Are measurements taken in the past still valid in the future? How will accuracy/precision change with as technological advances? Do we need to remove all “inaccurate” historical data and keep only “currently accurate” data? Is the assumption of a steady hydrological system valid? Can we simplify the system by linearizing a nonlinear system behavior?

4 What role(s) do continuous and ephemeral water bodies, including ponds, lakes, rivers, streams, marshes, swamps, etc., play in influencing water quantity and quality in the catchment?

Research questions in Scenario 2

1 What are the hydrologic laws at the catchment scale, and how do they change with scale?

2 How can we use innovative technologies to measure surface and subsurface properties, states, and fluxes at a range of spatial and temporal scales?

3 How can different multi-scale observations be assimilated into a hydrological model to improve model predictability?

4 How do we obtain large-scale flux measurements and feedbacks to analyze the water dynamics within and between the compartments of the groundwater-soil-plant-atmosphere continuum?

5 How is the water cycle influenced by the other cycles (carbon, nitrogen, etc.)?

6 How can the dynamics and feedbacks at groundwater-soil, groundwater-surface water, soil-plant, soil-atmosphere, and plant-atmosphere interfaces be assessed?

7 How do we incorporate plant physiological aspects into hydrological models?

Research questions in both scenarios

1 What is the impact of preferential flow on catchment-scale water flow dynamics?

2 How can remote sensing provide more reliable information on soil moisture, changes in water storage, surface energy balance, and evapotranspiration at appropriate spatial and temporal scales (Lettenmaier et al., 2015)?

3 What causes spatial heterogeneity and homogeneity in runoff, evapotranspiration, subsurface water and material fluxes (carbon and other nutrients, sediments), and in their sensitivity to their controls (e.g., snowfall regime, aridity, response coefficients)?

4 How can hydrological models be adapted to be able to extrapolate changing conditions, including changing vegetation dynamics?

5 How can we disentangle and reduce model structure/parameter/input uncertainty in hydrological prediction?

6 Is it better to emphasize uncertainty or causality?

7 How do vegetation types, distribution, and dynamics shape hydrological processes, particularly in terms of water quality, quantity, and energy fluxes at the catchment scale?

8 How can we integrate the different spatial and temporal scales of observations, processes, and models?

9 How can we develop socio-hydrological models by allowing for anthropogenic disturbances in the ecosystem?

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