

1 **Grand Challenges for Hydrology Education in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century**

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14

15 **Abstract**

16

17 A thorough understanding of the hydrosphere is crucial for the sustainable evolution of human  
18 society and our ecosystem in a rapidly changing world. This understanding can only come from  
19 well-trained professionals in the field of hydrology working in research and practice. In Civil and  
20 Environmental Engineering, this knowledge is the basis for the design of infrastructure and its  
21 management. Here we briefly review the historical development of engineering hydrology  
22 education from the middle of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. The 20<sup>th</sup> century was characterized by the  
23 establishment in the 1950's and 1960's of a clear, modern, and durable vision for hydrology  
24 education as a distinct formal program of study, and the consolidation in the 1990's of the  
25 original vision. In recent years a series of publications has expanded the traditional vision of  
26 hydrology education. This recent literature emphasizes formalized approaches to hydrology  
27 education including community-developed curricular resources, data and modeling based  
28 curricula, formally assessed pedagogies, and formalization of non-traditional pedagogies. Based  
29 on these findings, we present several challenges for hydrology education in the 21<sup>st</sup> century.  
30 Central themes of the challenges for hydrology education are the development of international  
31 hydrology education communities and networks, shared learning technologies – partially driven  
32 by the need for a more mechanistic approach to engineering hydrology, formalized and validated  
33 pedagogies, and adaptations of international best educational practices to regionally specific  
34 hydrology and socio-economic context.

35

36 "Knowledge required for understanding and solving complex water problems may  
37 be considered as a continuum extending from the basic physical and biological  
38 sciences, through the applied natural sciences, and a thrust into the behavioral  
39 sciences. The breadth of knowledge encompassed is greater than in any other field  
40 of study. A complete educational program in hydrology and water resources needs  
41 to provide the opportunity for students to specialize in any segment of the  
42 continuum as well as the opportunity for others to obtain a general education  
43 across the continuum. Historically, training in water science has been  
44 compartmented on campuses within several established disciplines, with little  
45 integration among these disciplines. Also, training in the behavioral sciences with  
46 emphasis on water resources administration has been very limited, especially in  
47 the political, social, and legal fields. Recently, there has been concerted effort on  
48 several campuses to integrate and broaden hydrology and water resources  
49 education by the development of inter-disciplinary programs."

50

51 Harshbarger and Evans (1967)

52

### 53 **1. Introduction**

54

55 *"If the apocalypse is still a little way off, it is only because the four horsemen and their*  
56 *steeds have stopped to search for something to drink"* (The Economist, May 22, 2010, issue  
57 featuring world water concerns). Today, society has clearly recognized that a thorough  
58 understanding of the hydrosphere is crucial for the sustainable evolution of human society and  
59 our ecosystem in a rapidly changing world. This understanding can only come from well-trained  
60 professionals in the field of hydrology working in research and practice. In Civil and  
61 Environmental Engineering, this knowledge is the basis for the design of infrastructure and its  
62 management.

63 Here we review the historical development of hydrology education from the middle of  
64 the last century to now. It is appropriate to begin in the second section by reviewing the broad  
65 history of hydrology education to understand the long-term trajectory of the field. This will help  
66 us to understand what has been accomplished, what has not been accomplished, and what new

67 priorities should be established. In the third section we review the recent developments and  
68 accelerated interest in formal hydrology education since roughly the year 2000. In the fourth  
69 section we synthesize the literature to develop several grand challenges for engineering  
70 hydrology education in the 21<sup>st</sup> century.

71 We find that the hydrology education conversation in the (mainly) peer-reviewed  
72 international literature from the mid-20<sup>th</sup> century to present is dominated by U.S. and European  
73 institutional priorities, structures, and views, and by applications to engineering hydrology  
74 educational programs. This review will therefore be of greatest utility to those sub-communities.  
75 This bias is a natural result of the historical trajectory of academic science and education during  
76 the 20<sup>th</sup> century, and of the historically applied roots of hydrology. Although the foundations of  
77 the field remain a solid starting point for future developments, the existing formal literature is not  
78 fully representative of the needs of the rapidly globalizing and internationalizing hydrology  
79 community in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, or of the rapidly increasing socio-economic embedding of  
80 hydrology and water resources problems. Therefore, central themes of the grand challenges for  
81 hydrology education are the development of international hydrology education communities and  
82 networks, shared learning technologies, formalized and validated pedagogies, and adaptations of  
83 international best educational practices to regionally specific hydrology and socio-economic  
84 context.

85

## 86 **2. The historical trajectory of hydrology education**

87

88 W.B. Langbein (1958) traces the origins of hydrology education, at least in the United  
89 States, to early U.S. military hydrologic engineering textbooks in 1862, and internationally to the  
90 formalization of the academic field with the 1923 establishment of the International Association  
91 of Scientific Hydrology (now the International Association of Hydrological Sciences, IAHS),  
92 and the first modern hydrology textbooks in the 1920's. Langbein summarizes the state of  
93 hydrology education in 1958 as underdeveloped and in need of formalization, citing statistics  
94 that no formal hydrology degree programs existed in the U.S., that less than a third of U.S.  
95 institutions had a hydrology course, and that only 12% of practicing hydrologists had taken an  
96 undergraduate course in hydrology topics. Roughly half of practicing hydrologists had a Civil  
97 Engineering background, and the vast majority had received their hydrology training through

98 field practice and applied apprenticeship, often within governmental resource management or  
99 military agencies, rather than through formal university study (e.g. Wilm 1957). Formalization of  
100 university undergraduate programs in hydrology was identified as a priority. These patterns were  
101 generally representative of the international situation at the time, at least within the ‘developed’  
102 world (Gray, 1969).

103 Early efforts correctly recognized the inherent interdisciplinary nature of hydrology, and  
104 that defining hydrology was essential to the establishment of a coherent research and education  
105 agenda or focused hydrology education programs. Price and Heindl (1968) cited 31 different  
106 definitions of hydrology. Harshbarger and Evans (1967), as quoted, provided a remarkably  
107 timeless definition of the educational requirements for hydrological research and education that  
108 has been echoed for the last half century. They recognized the need for complex systems  
109 approaches, interdisciplinary integration of physical, biological, socio-economic, legal, and  
110 behavioral knowledge, a combination of professional breadth with deep technical specialization,  
111 and the practical problem of interdisciplinary training in a disciplinary university curricular  
112 structure.

113 The 1960’s were the first landmark period of development in formal hydrology  
114 education. For example, in 1961 the University of Arizona’s Hydrology and Water Resources  
115 program was established, joining a small number of formal international programs. The  
116 Technical University of Dresden in Germany, having offered a course in hydrology as early as  
117 1899, established a formal degree program in hydrology in 1968 – interestingly within the  
118 Department of Physics. A second German hydrology degree program, offered through the  
119 Department of Geography, followed in the 1970s at the University of Freiburg. Similar efforts  
120 and time-scales can be found in other countries, e.g. the Netherlands started offering  
121 postgraduate education courses in water-related topics in 1957 through an organization now  
122 known as UNESCO-IHE Delft. This attention coincided with the 1965-1974 declaration of the  
123 International Hydrological Decade (IHD) by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and  
124 Cultural Organization (UNESCO), which initiated an intense period of focus in dozens of  
125 countries on the creation and standardization of a coherent research and education agenda  
126 (UNESCO-IHP 1991, UNESCO 1974, UCOWR 1971, USNC-IHD 1976).

127 The UNESCO International Hydrological Program (IHP) was established in 1975 to  
128 continue the work of the IHD. Gilbrich (1991) provides a 25-year summary of the IHP. Maniak

129 (1993) published an assessment of model hydrology curricula that implement the IHP's agenda.  
130 Kovar and Gilbrich (1995) explores emerging needs for postgraduate training and generally re-  
131 emphasizes the earlier IHP findings, adding the establishment of 'professional hydrologist'  
132 certifications for M.S. degrees and the need for Geographical Information Systems and modeling  
133 software training. The UNESCO-IHP continues to implement this evolving agenda with a variety  
134 of programs that have educational or community building components, such as Hydrology for  
135 the Environment, Life, and Policy (HELP, e.g. Camkin and Neto, 2013) and Flow Regimes from  
136 International Experimental and Network Data (FRIEND), with the UNESCO-IHP international  
137 training programs.

138         The period between the end of the IHD in 1974 and the 1991 publication of the so-called  
139 'Blue Book' (Eagleson et al. 1991; so-called based on the blue color of the book cover) was  
140 marked building momentum in the international university community around the concept of  
141 hydrology as an independent science. The Blue Book is considered a landmark in hydrology  
142 science and education in the U.S., and perhaps embodies the moment in time when the  
143 consolidated ideas of the 1960's reached a degree of international 'critical mass' after three  
144 decades of work.

145         Several other cotemporaneous publications mark the early 1990's as the second landmark  
146 period for hydrology education. A survey assessment by an American Society of Civil Engineers  
147 (ASCE, 1990) found that the industry and academic communities were generally satisfied with  
148 the state of the educational practice, with the specific exception that professional industry  
149 practitioners were becoming critical of inadequate training in field practice methods, tools of the  
150 trade, professional and business skills, and engineering licensure prerequisites. MacDonald  
151 (1993) proposes specific field educational curricula as a remedy. Nash et al. (1990) identify other  
152 problems with the educational paradigm, including too much reliance of hydrologic science  
153 education on the empiricism of civil engineering programs, inadequate undergraduate training in  
154 the physical fundamentals of hydrologic science, and a growing divide between hydrology  
155 science and engineering that slows the translation of hydrology science into practice (see also  
156 UNESCO 1990). James (1993) favorably reviews the progress of the educational efforts of the  
157 prior three decades, but notes the potential danger of stagnation of the emerging core hydrology  
158 curriculum and the resulting need for the creation of a process of continuous improvement to  
159 keep water resources education programs up to date with the rapidly accelerating and

160 diversifying development of theory, computer tools, models, and methods. Zojer (1996) echoes  
161 the trends of other studies from the 1990's: in the 1970's hydrology courses were general and  
162 qualitative, in the 1980's postgraduate courses became highly specialized and quantitative  
163 instrumentation and computer models were emphasized, and the 1990's saw emphasis on the  
164 practical applicability of hydrologic science, on interdisciplinarity and breadth, and on the  
165 incorporation of socio-economics. Elaboration and implementation of these priorities continues  
166 today with increasing emphasis on the human role in the water cycle (Miller and Gray, 2008).

167

## 168 **Recent Developments**

169

170         It may be observed that since the 1990's there has been simultaneously a concern, from  
171 the university hydrologic science perspective, over inadequate fundamental training in  
172 hydrologic theory, and, from the engineering practitioner's perspective, over inadequate  
173 engineering, professional, and practical training. There is a general perception that while formal  
174 training in hydrology has been improving, practical and field experience has not (Wagener et al.,  
175 2007), although efforts are being made (Wagener et al., 2012). In our opinion, this tension and  
176 diversity of opinion is a natural and healthy result of the successful establishment by the 1990's  
177 of hydrologic science as a distinct and diverse set of educational programs, both within and  
178 separately from Civil Engineering departments. However, recent surveys of the community of  
179 hydrology educators also suggest that the increasing demands for more holistic education, while  
180 appreciated by hydrology educators, are difficult to fulfill. Declining educational budgets,  
181 increasing student numbers, and the time-commitment needed to develop appropriate courses are  
182 barriers to investment of the needed time. Meanwhile, adverse incentives are present, such as an  
183 extremely competitive research and publication culture that fails to adequately reward  
184 pedagogical contributions (Wagener et al., 2007).

185         In the first decade of 2000, advances in research on Science, Technology, Engineering,  
186 and Mathematics education (STEM) began to benefit the hydrologic education community.  
187 These advances brought awareness that education is itself a science and a field of practice that  
188 can be improved through applied research, and that this research is a priority for the university  
189 community (Boyer, 1990). This literature is too broad to summarize, but specific examples are  
190 representative of the general trends pertaining to hydrology education. Much of this literature

191 challenges the historical norms in the university classroom, and advances by way of theory and  
192 learning outcome assessment an emerging ‘constructivist’ or ‘student-centered’ pedagogy of  
193 ‘active’ exploration as opposed to the traditional ‘positivist’ or instructor-centered pedagogy of  
194 information conveyance (Felder 2012, Prince and Felder 2006, Prince 2004). Constructivist  
195 theories of knowledge assert that human learning occurs when new information interacts with a  
196 student’s existing experiences in the context of an activity or problem; it is experiential learning,  
197 as opposed to rote learning. Bransford et al. (2000) demonstrate that curiosity is necessary for  
198 learning, and that it can be motivated in the classroom by carefully crafted problems; hence the  
199 focus on ‘problem based learning’. Sheppard et al. (2008) argue for a ‘project-based’ and  
200 ‘practice-like’ curriculum that builds broad professional skills like teamwork, problem solving,  
201 and ethics. Much of this work has taken place in the specific context of undergraduate  
202 engineering education (Shulman, 2005), but has directly impacted the broader hydrology  
203 education community via its roots in undergraduate engineering programs. Research Experiences  
204 for Undergraduates (REU’s) and ‘summer institutes’ or ‘summer schools’ are examples of  
205 implementations of these STEM pedagogical concepts in the context of undergraduate and  
206 graduate research.

207         A shift in the emerging paradigm is facilitated by the near-universal availability by the  
208 2000’s of the internet, which renders redundant the instructor’s traditional gatekeeper role as a  
209 conveyer of content, but re-emphasizes the instructor’s role as a guide to critical thinking and  
210 proper application of information to problems. Technology, notably for hydrology education  
211 including internet resources, modeling, visualization, GIS methods, and hydroinformatics, is an  
212 important part of many emerging pedagogies. However, technology is not a panacea and must be  
213 used carefully to enhance learning (Felder and Brent, 2000).

214         The focused public attention during the 2000’s on climate science, on the applied  
215 problems created by climate change, and on urban and natural resources sustainability issues has  
216 placed a new urgency on specific hydrologic science problem solving abilities and related  
217 educational priorities. The recognition that “stationarity is dead” (Milly et al., 2008), or at least  
218 that historical statistical norms are no longer a sufficient basis for planning the future, has been  
219 particularly transformative in hydrologic science. However, the methods need to overcome  
220 nonstationarity have been slow to enter the engineering hydrology classroom, especially at the  
221 undergraduate level. This new awareness is particularly relevant for motivating the use of

222 mechanistic models (rather than statistical/empirical models), the use of holistic systems  
223 approaches, and the incorporation of human socio-economic systems (the ‘anthroposphere’)  
224 within coupled natural-human system models of the ‘hydrosphere’ as a direction for 21<sup>st</sup> century  
225 hydrologic science (Wagener et al., 2010). It is remarkable that these priorities have been closely  
226 held by the hydrologic science and education community for several decades, and that only  
227 recent events have brought focus and urgency to the implementation of these priorities within the  
228 university hydrologic science curriculum.

229         The appearance of the term ‘hydrophilanthropy’ during the 2000’s, describing “...*the*  
230 *altruistic efforts ... to provide sustainable, clean water for people and ecosystems worldwide...*”,  
231 is notable as recognition by the community of hydrology education and practice of the increasing  
232 popularity of service-based, problem-based, and project-based approaches to university  
233 education (Kreamer, 2010). Such projects are by definition culturally embedded and often  
234 embody a combination of field work, use of instrumentation and observations, engineering,  
235 science, communication, teamwork, and sustainability thinking, in the context of problems with  
236 socio-economic implications. These hydrophilanthropic projects are an attractive way to  
237 motivate and engage students of diverse backgrounds in a context that teaches across most of the  
238 hydrology education agenda. The second ‘Blue Book’ (Hornberger et al., 2012) – an approach to  
239 revisit the state of hydrology 30 years after the first review was lead by Peter Eagleson – touches  
240 on hydrophilanthropy. Hydrophilanthropy is an important development for hydrology education  
241 because it may enhance student motivation and it provides context for constructivist learning, not  
242 to mention the real-world benefits of these projects.

243         Perhaps motivated by the developments in STEM education, climate science, and  
244 sustainability, or by the mainstreaming of the internet, the past few years have seen a remarkable  
245 amount of activity in the hydrologic education community, including numerous meetings (e.g.  
246 Showstack, 2010) and special issues focused on the topic (Seibert et al., 2013, Missingham and  
247 McIntosh, 2013). In no particular order, the common themes of recent publications include  
248 practical, professional, and field experience education especially as addressed using virtual trips  
249 and gaming (Kingston et al., 2012, Hoekstra, 2012, Rusca et al., 2012, Lyu et al., 2013, Leff et  
250 al., 2013), socio-hydrology, coupled natural-human systems, and the decision-making  
251 anthroposphere (Sivapalan et al., 2012, Sivakumar, 2012, King et al. 2012, Hoekstra, 2012;  
252 Wagener et al., 2010), emerging student-centered, case-based and problem-based pedagogies

253 (Shaw and Walter, 2012, Lyon et al., 2013, Popescu et al., 2012, Ngambeki et al., 2012,  
254 Dennison and Oliver, 2013, Missingham, 2013, Camkin and Neto, 2013, Elshorbagy, 2005, Lyon  
255 and Teutschbein, 2011, Wagener et al., 2010), formal assessment of pedagogy and learning  
256 outcomes (Merwade and Ruddell, 2012, Marshall et al., 2012, Pathirana et al., 2012, Lyon and  
257 Teutschbein, 2011, Majdi et al., 2012, Marshall et al., 2013), establishment of community-based  
258 core concepts and material for hydrology education (Aghakouchak and Habib, 2010, Wagener et  
259 al., 2007, Wagener et al., 2012), enhancement of the curriculum using models, data, and  
260 visualization (Data and Modeling Driven Geoscience Cybereducation, DMDGC, Merwade and  
261 Ruddell, 2012, Mohtar and Engel, 2000, Habib et al., 2012, Dolliver and Bell, 2006, Majdi et al.,  
262 2012, Popescu et al., 2012, Wagener et al., 2004, Seibert and Vis, 2012), regionally customized  
263 approaches (Jonker et al., 2012, Bol et al., 2011), and the training of the professionally broad but  
264 technically deep ‘T-shaped’ hydrologist (Uhlenbrook and de Jong, 2012, Pathirana et al., 2012,  
265 McIntosh and Taylor, 2013, Pinter et al., 2013, Cap-Net, 2008).

266         These and other recent publications indicate that a third landmark has been reached in the  
267 history of hydrology education. The first landmark was characterized by the establishment of a  
268 *vision* for formal university hydrology education, and was put into action during the IHD in  
269 1965. It retrospect it is clear that the leadership provided during the 1950’s and 1960’s set an  
270 agenda for hydrology education that has proven durable and actionable in the past half-century.  
271 Great progress has been made on most, although not all, of this agenda, and active work  
272 continues today. The second landmark was characterized by a *consolidation* in the 1990’s around  
273 the creation of an independent hydrologic science and formal university hydrologic education  
274 programs, and the implementation of most of the original vision. This emerging third landmark is  
275 characterized by *expansion* of the original vision beyond the horizon of the 1950’s driven by the  
276 practical demands and opportunities of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. As of 2013, this expanded vision most  
277 notably adds modernization and innovation in the areas of community-developed and internet-  
278 based free hydrology curricular resources, interactive data, modeling, and visualization based  
279 curricular resources, formal pedagogical design and quantitative educational outcome  
280 assessment, and formal adoption of student-centered and other emerging non-traditional  
281 pedagogies.

282

283 **Grand challenges in hydrology education for the 21<sup>st</sup> Century**

284

285           The original visions for hydrology education articulated by Langbein (1958),  
286 Harshbarger (1967), and others, are remarkably timeless. Those early leaders envisioned a  
287 hydrology education that was interdisciplinary, systems-oriented, applied but rooted in science,  
288 both broad and specialized, and inter-departmental, with additional emphasis on political, social,  
289 legal, and economic aspects of water resources management. Meanwhile, as new technologies,  
290 new opportunities, and new problems continue to emerge, the potential for this vision to be  
291 realized continues to expand. Having reviewed the history and state of the practice in  
292 engineering hydrology education, and to a degree for global hydrology education in general, and  
293 with the benefit of many recent authors' views on the subject, we present an opinion on 'Grand  
294 Challenges' for hydrology education in the 21<sup>st</sup> century.

295

296 *(1) Formalize the 'T-shaped' Hydrologist by Bringing Authentic, Student Centered, Practice-*  
297 *Like, Coupled Natural-Human System, and Field Experiences to the Classroom*

298

299           The metaphor of a T-shaped educational profile expresses the need to combine the depths  
300 in training in a specific area (i.e. the vertical bar of the T), with the ability to work across  
301 disciplines in multi-disciplinary teams (i.e. the horizontal bar of the T). The T-shaped profile is  
302 described by Harshbarger and Evans (1967) in their original vision statement where, "...a  
303 complete educational program in hydrology and water resources needs to provide the opportunity  
304 for students to specialize in any segment of the continuum as well as the opportunity for others to  
305 obtain a general education across the continuum". Both broad and specialized skills have always  
306 been demanded from practicing hydrologists, and have often been taught informally in  
307 hydrology programs. The importance of these skills is increasing as hydrologists find themselves  
308 at the center of interdisciplinary projects – given the role water often plays as the connecting  
309 agent. Student-centered pedagogies including problem-based, project-based, case-based,  
310 hydrophilanthropic, and fieldwork content are ideally suited to provide the breadth required by  
311 professionals. Carefully designed projects and fieldwork with formalized T-shaped outcomes  
312 should have a place in the 21<sup>st</sup> century hydrology course. These pedagogies should incorporate  
313 socio-economic, sustainability, decision-making, legal, cultural, and other coupled natural-  
314 human system concepts that are difficult to teach using traditional lecture and theory (Sheppard

315 et al., 2008). This type of pedagogy is also a natural fit for undergraduate and graduate research  
316 projects that interface with the classroom, but formal models and validated best practices for this  
317 pedagogy are lacking. Formal work is beginning to emerge to address this (Bloeschl et al., 2011).

318

319 *(2) Translate Scientific Hydrology Advances into Practice via the Classroom*

320

321 A criticism of hydrologic science is that recent advancement in modeling and  
322 instrumentation has not done enough to change the operational norms of applied engineering and  
323 hydrology practice and water resource management. In our opinion, the best way to remedy this  
324 issue is to bring the state of the art in hydrologic science and modeling into the upper-division  
325 undergraduate and M.S. postgraduate classroom, where the state of the art can be comparatively  
326 co-taught along with established and codified methods to the next generation of professionals.  
327 This is particularly true in the increasingly important area of urban water engineering, where the  
328 rational method is still standard practice despite long-understood recognition of its limitations  
329 and inadequacy for integrated urban socio-eco-hydrological design (Hawkins et al., 2008, Jones,  
330 1971). Unfortunately, teaching both the state of the practice and the state of the art takes more  
331 time and energy from an instructor, and asks more of the curiosity and attention of the typical  
332 student of applied engineering hydrology. Efficient approaches that do more with less time and  
333 energy will therefore require additional development.

334

335 *(3) Replace Historical Stationarity with Physics-based Dynamics, Feedback, Connectivity, and*  
336 *Variability in Engineering Hydrology Applications*

337

338 The hydrology of physical dynamics, in combination with an understanding of system  
339 connectivity, feedback, variability regimes, and physically limiting boundaries, must urgently  
340 replace historical stationarity and statistical ‘error bars’ in the methods taught in the  
341 undergraduate engineering hydrology classroom (Milly et al., 2008, Kumar 2008). Most (if not  
342 all) engineering hydrology textbooks follow engineering practice in their heavy emphasis on the  
343 empirical and statistical applications of hydrology (e.g. flood frequency analysis). Connecting  
344 the process understanding of scientific hydrology with quantitative analysis and design  
345 applications required by engineers is a crucial challenge for hydrology education. If we are to

346 succeed in transforming historical stationarity assumptions in engineering hydrology practice,  
347 our graduates must be able to apply physics-based quantitative methods to solve the same  
348 problems. The need for a better understanding of hydrologic variability in both space and time is  
349 part of this effort (e.g. Bloeschl et al., 2013). The applied engineering hydrologists of today are  
350 facing the challenges of land use transformation and climate change, and they need these skills in  
351 order to design the water supply and stormwater management solutions of the future.

352

#### 353 *(4) Develop an International Faculty Learning Community for Hydrology Education*

354

355 Hydrology education is a challenging, complicated, and valid area of scholarship (Boyer,  
356 1990). For example, hydrology textbooks will generally publish generic methods (e.g. Darcy's  
357 Law) that can more or less be applied anywhere as long as some basic criteria are met. However,  
358 hydrologic systems are not that simple and generic equations are not easily translated into local  
359 solutions. Hence, experience with specific hydrologic systems (e.g. semi-arid or mountainous) is  
360 crucial for hydrologic practice and research.

361 This might best be done as a part of a community approach to curriculum development  
362 and publication. This can for example be achieved through teaching notes, i.e. published  
363 guidelines on how to convey material to specific groups of students in specific places (Wagener  
364 et al., 2012). International communities of hydrology education specialists can form the core of  
365 the network that will develop, disseminate, and transfer best practices and resources across  
366 geographical and cultural boundaries.

367 Hydrologic science, in contrast to sciences such as physics and mathematics, depends  
368 heavily on tacit knowledge gained by working with many datasets and by analyzing many  
369 systems. This tacit knowledge is not easily shared between educators using textbooks, but can be  
370 transmitted by emphasizing and formalizing as educational methods field work, team teaching,  
371 integration of research with education, and workshops. These activities will often be organized  
372 around shared multi-university interests in a regional hydrological location.

373

#### 374 *(5) Develop Community-Published Core Curriculum and Materials*

375

376 The Internet has transformed the marketplace of information, such that information is  
377 virtually free. The role of the hydrology educator is now to help students filter information,  
378 contextualize it, and apply it correctly. The textbook of the future is a customized collection of  
379 online resources. Owing to the extreme breadth and rapid pace of advancement of the field of  
380 hydrology, no single information source, including the best textbook, is adequate. The  
381 emergence of internet-based communities and social networks has created the potential for a new  
382 solution to this problem: a community of hydrology educators that collectively publishes,  
383 reviews, quality-controls, and updates modular curriculum materials. This is the idea behind the  
384 Modular Curriculum for Hydrologic Advancement (MOCHA, Wagener et al. 2012). We believe  
385 that this type of approach is the next logical step and is an appropriate 21<sup>st</sup> century approach to  
386 the development of core concepts and curriculum. It also satisfies arguments for the creation of a  
387 continuous-improvement process for the curriculum (James, 1993) that leverages the energy of  
388 the entire community for improvements. Incentives are a part of this challenge, because the  
389 prevailing academic publication culture fails to adequately reward those who invest in the formal  
390 development of high-quality and peer-reviewed curricula. The formalization of a sub-  
391 disciplinary hydrology education community will help to balance the incentive structure and  
392 speed dissemination and adoption of the results of the work.

393

394 *(6) Augment Theoretical Instruction with Data and Modeling Driven Cybereducation (DMDC)*

395

396 DMDC methods, including some ‘hydroinformatics’ methods, have been utilized since  
397 the 1980’s but are increasingly valuable as a natural form of formalized student-centered  
398 learning strategies. These approaches are believed to be most effective at the upper division  
399 undergraduate and postgraduate levels after theoretical concepts have been introduced to learners  
400 (Merwade and Ruddell, 2012, Habib et al., 2012), but may with effort be translated to lower  
401 levels of the curriculum. Crucially, DMDC including systems models, data analysis, and  
402 visualization, is arguably the best way to teach complex systems concepts, dynamics, feedback,  
403 connectivity, and uncertainty. This might best be done as a part of a community approach to the  
404 development and publication of up-to-date DMDC materials. A large number of hydrology  
405 DMDC resources are already available on the internet, but these are not organized in a coherent,  
406 updated, or quality-controlled venue. At the very least, the hydrology community should

407 undertake to review and curate the best of these materials so that excellent resources can be  
408 highlighted and disseminated, and their creators rewarded and recognized.

409

#### 410 *(7) Continuing Education of Practicing Hydrologists*

411

412 The rapidly changing world around us continues to reduce the time periods over which  
413 certain learned skills or knowledge could be considered state-of-the-art, or at least best practice.  
414 In this sense, hydrology is no different than other fields; on the contrary, it might even be more  
415 exposed due to heavy dependence of observational and computational capabilities. Providing  
416 opportunities to refine and update the tool-set a hydrologist once learned at University therefore  
417 has to be part of the hydrology education landscape. This can be in form of stand-alone online  
418 modules (see for example the NOAA COMET program), through summer schools or short  
419 courses now offered by many Universities, or by part-time courses that allow working  
420 hydrologists to gain additional qualifications. In some parts of the world, e.g. the UK, there is  
421 also an increasing focus on engineering doctoral centers that focus on applied science questions  
422 that a student investigates while working in a company, rather than being a full-time student.

423

424

#### 425 *(8) Education for Culturally Specific and International Hydrology Applications*

426

427 In the developing world, hydrology and water resource is following a remarkably  
428 Western trajectory, emphasizing first the construction of centrally managed dams, canals, levees,  
429 and drainage networks to mitigate damaging drought and flood cycles and to provide water  
430 supply and flood protection, then second investment in water and wastewater treatment and  
431 environmental protection (e.g. China, Jun and Chen, 2002). This is perhaps an intended outcome  
432 of 50 years of UNESCO-IHP efforts to develop and standardize worldwide professional  
433 hydrology education. However, recent work suggests that alternative paradigms of hydrologic  
434 science and water resource engineering are possible and perhaps desirable, as an expression of  
435 the unique socio-economic, ethical, religious, or technological characteristics of the local culture  
436 (Chamberlain, 2008, Rongchao et al., 2004, Kreamer, 2010). India, for example, relies on a  
437 much more decentralized and distributed water storage system, and distributed approaches can

438 be more effective in contexts with highly diverse legal, economic, or social contexts, or where  
439 centralized systems are impractical. To the extent that emerging research establishes actionable  
440 knowledge regarding local hydro-economics, socio-hydrology, and eco-hydrology, this  
441 knowledge should be translated into the hydrology curriculum at the undergraduate and  
442 professional levels, particularly in universities located within that cultural context. The global  
443 hydrology community should discover whether and how hydrology and hydrology education  
444 needs to be done differently in the Global South and beyond the scope of the historical  
445 mainstream of U.S. and European led engineering hydrology. To date, this type of hydrology  
446 education work is under-represented in the formal peer-reviewed literature.

447

#### 448 *(9) Hydro-Economics: Sustainably Managing Water with Markets*

449

450 The Water-Energy Nexus is a popular talking point, but as pointed out by Zetland (2011)  
451 water is also connected to every aspect of the human and natural economy (the ‘water-everything  
452 nexus’). Even when public agencies provide regulatory control, future solutions to water  
453 resource challenges will increasingly involve businesses, water markets, water rights, private  
454 contracts for environmental services, conservation easements, and impact offsets. These  
455 arrangements are already transforming water supply, stormwater management, and water quality  
456 in many locations (e.g. Sunding, 2000, or McCrea and Niemi, 2007). Water professionals,  
457 including those destined for public service positions, need education on the economic side of  
458 water management and on market-based solutions to hydrological problems. In addition to  
459 formal economics, related methods such as Life Cycle Analysis, concepts of ‘embedding’ of  
460 water in goods and services, or of goods and services in water, and other methods can help us to  
461 understand how our decisions impact water resource sustainability via a web of connections in  
462 the complex coupled natural-human system.

463

#### 464 *(10) More University Students Learning Hydrology First*

465

466 Perceptions of employability are one reason that engineering hydrology has historically  
467 been the dominant choice of degree program for students of hydrology. Most students have  
468 historically preferred to study hydrology as a specialization or focus from within engineering or

469 broader geosciences degree programs. This is particularly true at the undergraduate level. This  
470 problem is as old as hydrology, but the increasing socio-economic importance of water issues in  
471 the 21<sup>st</sup> century presents an opportunity. A historical and ongoing challenge for the hydrology  
472 field is to create leadership roles outside academia for hydrologists, and also for organizations  
473 that primarily emphasize hydrology. This will drive demand for students that specialize in  
474 hydrology, and in turn subscription to hydrology courses and programs at all educational levels.  
475 As an exemplar, China's President Hu Jintao was a hydraulic engineer, reflecting the societal  
476 importance China places on water resource issues.

477         Additionally, the university educational system is currently struggling to adapt its model  
478 to serve an incoming student population with different abilities, interests, qualifications, and  
479 demographics than it did during the mid-20<sup>th</sup> century when the vision for hydrology education  
480 was first established. Promoting hydrology as a subject in the science curriculum in primary  
481 schools may be an important step toward attracting more students to undergraduate hydrology  
482 programs. Without an introduction to hydrology before University, students are less aware of the  
483 field and less likely to choose to enroll in Universities and degree programs that specialize in  
484 hydrology.

485

## 486 **Conclusions**

487

488         Hydrology education has become an increasing focus in recent years. This is driven by  
489 the realization that the current approach to hydrology education is inadequate for current and  
490 future societal challenges, and that opportunities created by new media and computational  
491 advancements remain underutilized. We review how hydrology education has evolved over the  
492 decades, and where the community appears to be headed. This review is written from the  
493 perspective of the U.S. and European engineering hydrology communities which have  
494 historically dominated the conversation, but with an attempt to understand the broader global  
495 hydrology education concerns. Based on the literature, we present a synthesis of the challenges  
496 for hydrology education in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. These challenges require the development of new  
497 disciplinary sub-communities, the development of formal pedagogies, new technologies, and a  
498 broadening and globalization of hydrology education to meet the unique needs of society beyond  
499 the historical scope of the hydrology education community's work.

500

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508

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