

1 On Capturing Human Agency and Methodological Interdisciplinarity in 2 Sociohydrology Research

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54 **Abstract.**

55

56 Sociohydrology as a community research program has rapidly expanded and been effective in
57 exposing the hydrological community to concepts, ideas, and approaches from many other
58 scientific disciplines, and social sciences in particular. Yet it still has much to explore in terms of
59 how to capture human agency and how to combine different methods and disciplinary views
60 from both the hydrological and social sciences to develop knowledge. The inherent complexity
61 of human water relations is due to interactions not only across spatial and temporal scales but
62 also across different human organizational levels. This warrants a seamless use of approaches
63 that conceptualize it along the scales of space and time as well as the human organizational
64 scale. This latter dimension might be useful to explaining why a sociohydrological phenomenon
65 occurs in one context but not in others. Multiple disciplinary views and methods are likely to be
66 needed to develop a fuller understanding of coupled human-water systems. Based on a subset
67 of the papers *published* in the Hydrological Sciences Journal Virtual Special Issue *Advancing*
68 *Sociohydrology* over 2019-2021, this paper provides details on how the understanding of
69 coupled human-water systems can be strengthened by capturing the multi-level nature of
70 human decision-making and by structuring an interdisciplinary multi-method approach.

71 **Keywords:** Sociohydrology, multi-method, multi-level, scale, human-water relations,
72 organizational complexity

73 1. Introduction

74
75 As the extent of human activity on earth and the water environments accelerates, it is becoming
76 increasingly important to recognize society and water systems as truly interdependent systems
77 and the subtle interactions that shape outcomes (Sivapalan 2015). In coupled human-water
78 systems, multiple water and social processes with different characteristic (temporal and spatial)
79 scales can be relevant, and these processes are often connected in ways that are not obvious
80 (Blair and Buytaert 2016). Local or short-term processes in physical and social domains can be
81 linked to global or long-term processes through a mesh of interconnections. Making sense out
82 of such complexity is already a difficult task, but the challenge multiplies when we begin to
83 consider the fact that humans exhibit agency in decision-making (Pande and Sivapalan 2017).
84 That is, humans are capable of making freewill actions and have the potential to act differently
85 in seemingly similar situations because their decisions can be sensitive to contextual factors,
86 such as underlying sociocultural and biophysical conditions (Ostrom 1998; Bandura 2001). In
87 particular, human agency often involves multiple or nested levels of decision-making that
88 influence what actions are taken by which actors, e.g., an infrastructure manager's decisions on
89 local water infrastructure is not free from the influences of decisions made by local- and federal-
90 level governments and household-level behavioral traits (Yu *et al.* 2020). This multi-level nature
91 of human decision-making, therefore, should be of significance to understanding why one water
92 resources-related problem occurs in context but not in another. Hydrology alone is not sufficient
93 to tackle this type of understanding. Multiple disciplinary views and methods from both the
94 natural and social sciences are needed to achieve a fuller understanding of such complex
95 human-water systems (Tress *et al.* 2005).

96
97 Sociohydrology is an interdisciplinary science of coupled human-water systems that is well
98 suited to take on the challenge outlined above. Sociohydrology aims to understand the
99 relationships between how human agents process external stimuli and make decisions and how
100 such decisions affect the water environment and society (Konar *et al.* 2019). One of the main
101 achievements of sociohydrology as a research program has been exposing the hydrological
102 community to concepts, ideas, and approaches from other scientific disciplines, and social
103 science in particular. But the field of sociohydrology still has much to explore in terms of
104 capturing the multi-level nature of human agency and how to use an interdisciplinary approach
105 (i.e., combining methods from two dissimilar fields such as hydrology and political science) to
106 develop knowledge. This view is echoed by the invited paper series "Debates-Perspectives on
107 Sociohydrology," which was organized by *Water Resources Research* in 2015 to provide a
108 scientific forum on sociohydrology (Gober and Wheeler 2015; Sivapalan 2015; Di Baldassarre
109 *et al.* 2015; Loucks 2015; Troy *et al.* 2015). The invited authors commented on a conceptual
110 model of human-flood interaction proposed by Di Baldassarre *et al.* (2015) that simulated the
111 observed pattern of the *levee effect*, the observation that heavy reliance on flood protection
112 structures and the resulting non-occurrence of frequent flooding is often associated with a rise in
113 long-term vulnerability. Human agency in this work is simplified or "lumped" to a single level: the
114 level of society. Depending on the degree of societal memory of floods, the model society
115 adjusts its decisions on investments to flood protection structures and on floodplain settlement.
116 The invited papers offered useful ideas about human agency representation and methodological
117 approaches regarding the levee effect. Loucks (2015) highlighted that human system response
118 to change in water systems can be surprising and is difficult to predict because human
119 decisions are sensitive to contexts. Gober and Wheeler (2015) emphasized that, because of the
120 lumped nature of the model's social variables, its representation of social processes is over-
121 simplified. They also suggested additional approaches and theories that can be incorporated to
122 strengthen the model. In a similar vein, Troy *et al.* (2015) underscored the difficulty with
123 validating sociohydrology models, especially the human system part.

124
125 Emerging from the foregoing discussion is a gap in the field: although using lumped social
126 variables and coupling them to physical processes make systems modeling and analysis
127 tractable, they pose challenges to capturing human agency and explaining why some
128 phenomenon occurs in one context and not in another context. Also, because of the heavy
129 reliance on model-based simulations and the inherent complexity of human-water systems,
130 there are difficulties to validating hypotheses (Troy *et al.* 2015). This poses two key themes for
131 further reflection to the sociohydrology community. (1) How can human-water interactions with
132 multiple levels of decision making and human agency be represented and studied? (2) How can
133 an interdisciplinary multi-method approach be used to better understand such human-water
134 systems? Note that an interdisciplinary multi-method approach here refers to attempts that
135 integrate methods used in two or more disparate disciplines (e.g., combine methods for
136 representing natural system dynamics, experimentally testing human behavior, and for
137 extracting thematic topics from human conversations, as illustrated by Janssen *et al.* 2010 and
138 Yu *et al.* 2016) as opposed to those that integrate multiple methods used in the same field or
139 closely related fields (e.g., apply time-domain reflectometry and gravimetric methods to
140 determine soil moisture).

141
142 Contributing to further reflection on these two themes is the goal of this commentary paper. In
143 approaching this aim, we focus on the papers accepted or published as part of the Hydrological
144 Sciences Journal Virtual Special Issue *Advancing Sociohydrology*. We probed the special issue
145 papers to examine recent trends with respect to these two key themes. Although still few in
146 number, we observe more serious attempts to capture multiple levels of social systems and to
147 combine methods from both the hydrological and social sciences to develop a multifaceted
148 understanding of human-water systems. This special issue *accepted submission* of papers
149 concerning an interdisciplinary approach to sociohydrology over 2019-2020. These papers,
150 therefore, provide a glimpse into the latest developments regarding our interest.

151
152 This commentary proceeds as follows. In Section 2, we discuss human organization as an
153 independent scale of analysis for studying sociohydrological phenomena, different
154 organizational levels that social units can occupy, and the implications for capturing the multi-
155 level nature of human agency. We then go over how recently published papers in the Virtual
156 Special Issue dealt with this aspect. In Section 3, we describe key aspects that can be used to
157 guide an interdisciplinary multi-method approach to sociohydrology research. This is followed by
158 a discussion of trends observed in the special issue papers regarding the use of interdisciplinary
159 methods. Lastly, we provide a synthesis and a way forward regarding how to achieve
160 methodological and disciplinary cross-fertilization for theory development in sociohydrology.

161
162

163 **2. Capturing Human Agency: Space, Time, and Human Organization**

164

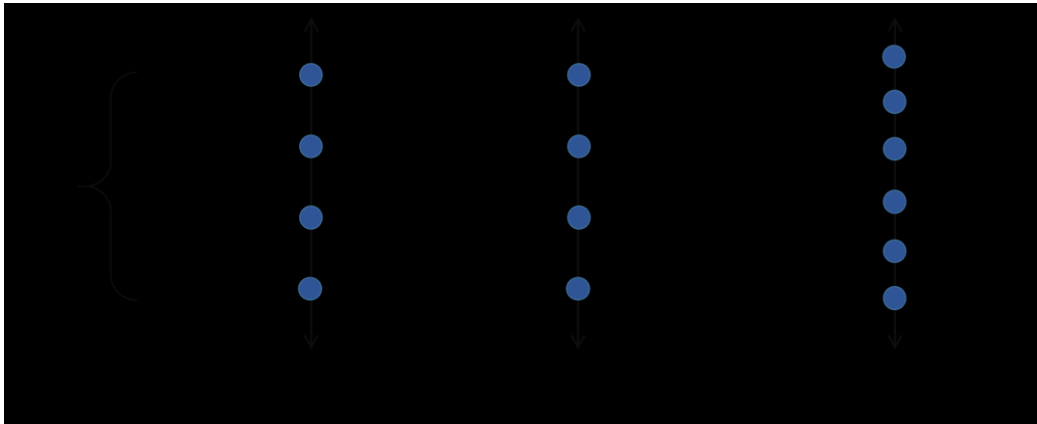
165 Sociohydrological phenomena often involve physical and social processes that play out across
166 multiple scales and levels in ways that are not obvious. In this section, we discuss why one
167 should not only consider these processes at different spatial and time scales but also another
168 scale related to human agency to better understand such phenomena. Also, as we shall show in
169 Section 3, it is important to know what scales and levels are relevant for the focal variables and
170 theories because they can influence the choice of methods for interdisciplinary research.

171

172 Following Gibson *et al.* (2000) and Cash *et al.* (2006), we use the term “scale” to mean the
173 spatial, temporal, or any other analytical dimension that can be used to study a phenomenon
174 and the term “level” to mean the units of analysis at different gradient of specificity on a scale

175 (e.g., monthly and decadal levels in the time dimension). Figure 1 illustrates some of the scales
176 and levels relevant for understanding human-water interactions. However, in contrast to the
177 spatial and temporal scales (which are well-known and widely explored), a characteristic scale
178 of human social systems—namely, the spectrum of human organizational complexity (the
179 rightmost vertical line in Figure 1)—is often ignored or abstracted away in most studies of
180 coupled human-water systems (Pande and Ertsen 2014). Just like time and space, the
181 spectrum of organizational complexity is an analytical dimension that can be used to study a
182 phenomenon. Varying levels of human organizations—from small social groups (e.g.,
183 households, neighborhood associations, etc.) to local water utilities and government and federal
184 agencies and government—represent different units of analysis within the *human organizational*
185 *scale*. Although there is a strong correlation between the spatial and human organizational
186 scales, they are not identical. For example, the spatial extents of the European Union and
187 Antarctica are large and comparable, but the latter is much smaller in terms of social complexity.
188 In fact, certain sub-fields of research in the social sciences, such as polycentric governance
189 (Ostrom 2010) and cultural multi-level selection (Waring *et al.* 2015), consider the human
190 organizational scale to be so important that their focus of analysis is centered around how
191 interactions within and around different levels of social systems shape policy outcomes and
192 cultural change.

193



194

195 **Figure 1.** Schematic illustration of different scales and levels that are relevant for understanding
196 human-water interactions.

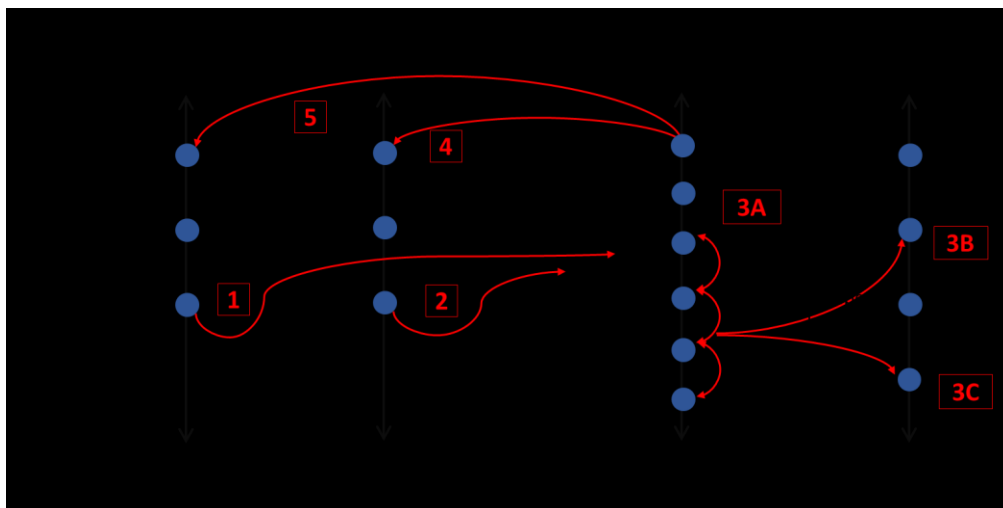
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198 It is crucial to realize that human decisions on water can occur at different levels within the
199 nested structure of human social systems and that these level-dependent decisions can be
200 interlinked to shape human agency, e.g., household-level water conservation decisions can
201 affect and be affected by the decisions made at the levels of local and federal governments and
202 water utilities. Consider, for example, the phenomenon of the levee effect (White 1942; Montz
203 and Tobin 2008; Di Baldassarre *et al.* 2013), which has been the subject of multiple
204 sociohydrology studies (Figure 2). This phenomenon involves multiple levels and scales in the
205 relevant physical and social processes, including different levels of human organizations.
206 Inclusion or exclusion of this nature may make a difference in explaining why the levee effect
207 occurs in one setting and not in others. Here we cast the three scales introduced in Figure 1
208 (spatial, time, and human organizational) onto four variables: flood vulnerability of social units
209 along the spatial scale, flood vulnerability of social units along the time scale, human agency
210 and flood memory along the human organizational scale, and assets or capacity for response
211 along the spatial scale (Figure 2). Suppose that frequent flooding negatively affects a local city
212 and people, e.g., the system’s vulnerability is manifested at the levels of local landscape and
213 seasonal or inter-annual timing (arrows 1 and 2 in Figure 2). How would the city and its society

214 respond to this short-term, localized vulnerability? Perhaps one should consider that the
 215 preferred decision and flood memory of social units can vary at different human organizational
 216 levels. Competitive or cooperative interactions across different levels of social groups can
 217 influence outcomes (arrows 3A). One possibility is that the community and its local government
 218 organize actions to further raise the levees. But a federal agency and neighboring communities
 219 might oppose that decision because of the transference of the risk elsewhere. Interventions and
 220 power dynamics across these multiple levels of human decision-making can ultimately shape
 221 which trajectory is followed by the affected community—technological society (arrow 3B) vs.
 222 green society (arrow 3C).

223
 224 If the path of green society is chosen, the assets and capacity for flood response would be more
 225 decentralized and distributed at the patch level. If the path of technology society is followed, the
 226 city's assets and capacity for flood response become more centralized and capital-intensive at
 227 the regional or watershed level in space. The resulting stability and the absence of flooding over
 228 a long time horizon lead to a gradual decay of societal flood memory and coping capacity.
 229 Population density and economic activities increase in the floodplain, possibly attracting
 230 manufacturing industries whose goods and services serve areas beyond the city. The end result
 231 is an increase in the vulnerability to a rarer flood event in the long-run (arrow 4). It also spatially
 232 expands vulnerability because most cities are tele-connected through global market systems
 233 (arrow 5). Furthermore, it is crucial to note that outcomes of such multi-level dynamics can be
 234 sensitive to underlying biophysical or social contexts because of human agency. Abstracting
 235 these nuances into a single construct may oversimplify important social processes that shape
 236 future social responses. To get at this complexity, one should not only consider these processes
 237 at different spatial and time scales but also the multi-level nature of social systems and human
 238 agency.

239
 240



241
 242 **Figure 2.** Schematic illustration of human-flood interactions across scales and levels leading to
 243 the levee effect with multiple levels of human agency. Here we cast the three scales introduced
 244 in Figure 1 (spatial, time, and human organization) onto four variables: flood vulnerability of
 245 social units along the spatial scale, flood vulnerability of social units along the time scale, human
 246 agency and flood memory along the human organizational scale, and assets or capacity for
 247 response along the spatial scale.
 248

249 However, the lack of consideration of the human organizational scale has been a key
250 shortcoming of many sociohydrology studies. Below, we probe how the studies in the current
251 special issue have dealt with or improved upon in this regard.

252

253 *Multi-Level Analysis in Disaster Risk Management*

254

255 Several papers in the special issue considered two or more levels of a scale with respect to
256 phenomena and processes being studied. Vicario *et al.* (2021) developed a flood evacuation
257 model that includes the linkages between the hazard, the built environment, the population, and
258 the civil protection members. Their model captures multiple levels of the social system and
259 interactions across these levels. For example, an emergency agency and its staff communicate
260 to the individuals that they are not allowed to cross the rivers when flooding occurs; individuals
261 react when seeing a flood close to them and change their direction on the roads. Evacuees also
262 may follow other groups of people that are evacuating ahead of them. Vanelli and Kobiyama
263 (2021) argued that sociohydrology should incorporate disaster risk management. They also
264 observed that although river basin is an appropriate level of analysis for many hydrological
265 studies, it is not necessarily ideal for sociohydrological studies. The researcher must be
266 cognizant of the feedback dynamics spiraling up and down scales, or what the authors referred
267 to as the “glocal” scale, to overcome the global-local dichotomy. With the focus on the
268 bidirectional feedback between water systems and society, sociohydrology has much to
269 contribute to disaster risk reduction.

270

271 *Multi-Level Analysis in Water Policy and Planning*

272

273 A critical element in the chain of human-water interactions is public policy-making and planning,
274 whereby society formulates its attempts for a coordinated response to observed hydrological
275 phenomena. Kim *et al.* (2021), Luan *et al.* (2022), Oneda and Barros (2021) and Philip (2021)
276 look at this role of planning and policy-making. Kim *et al.* (2021) review the historic trajectories
277 in policy-making over time, observing how water quality and pollution management policies
278 evolved in the past decades, comparing experiences between the State of Oregon, USA, with
279 those in South Korea. In doing so, they observe for instance how the early success with point-
280 source pollution control triggered the policies to evolve into attempts to address the more
281 “wicked” problem of non-point source management and, eventually, also beyond conventional
282 pollutants. In their analysis, they pay attention to the multi-level nature of water quality policies,
283 between federal, state and local agencies in the USA, and through a more centralized political
284 system for water quality management in South Korea. Luan *et al.* (2022) investigate if
285 bidirectional feedbacks can be anticipated in planning, including the societal acceptance and
286 implementation of policy interventions aimed at the water system. This also involves the
287 question of multi-level governance, with national or regional plans and their expected uptake by
288 local level actors. The core focus of the study, though, is on four local communities within one of
289 the provinces in the Vietnamese Mekong Delta. Even at this more local level, results show the
290 differences across districts, and their implications for provincial level planning.

291

292 Philip (2021) centers a very specific policy indicator in her research, the SDG11.3.1 ratio of land
293 consumption rate to population growth rate, and its implications for stormwater management for
294 projected climate change in the city of Hamilton, Canada. The observed values and trends in
295 this indicator are then linked to present land use planning tools and future developments. This
296 provides an interesting example of how a global policy effort and indicators such as the SDGs,
297 combined with relevant national, state and provincial level actions and policies, transpire at local
298 city levels to track and inform water management efforts and their effectiveness. Oneda and
299 Barros (2021) analyze and compare stormwater management master plans in developed and

300 developing cities, for two cities in Brazil and one city in Portugal. In terms of the interactions, the
301 focus is mostly on analyzing the social system response to water system dynamics and
302 challenges. The urban level analysis is contextualized within the larger hydrological systems
303 and the higher (national) level legislation and planning systems, but the focus is clearly on the
304 city as the main level of analysis.

305
306 Garcia and Islam (2021) developed a water supply planning model that links the evolution of
307 demand to water availability and water stress through the concept of water salience. In this
308 model, water supply and associated infrastructure is at the regional/county level while demand
309 management is at the city level. The case study is Las Vegas Valley Water District, the water
310 distributor. Haeffner *et al.* (2021) argued that sociohydrology should incorporate a
311 representation justice focus that includes an understanding of how power and politics shape the
312 interaction between humans and water in coupled systems and the composition of the water
313 sector. They analyze interactions between employees and local water agencies over individual
314 careers in the U.S.

315 316 *Multi-Level Analysis of Agricultural Human-Water Systems*

317
318 Khalifa *et al.* (2020) adopted an integrated approach that uses multiple sources of data to
319 analyze the sorghum productivity gap, its temporal and spatial variation and the
320 sociohydrological determinants affecting the sorghum yield in the scheme. The key findings
321 provide useful insights into potential pathways for sustainable irrigation in the Gezira Scheme
322 and other irrigation schemes that are facing similar challenges. This study crossed several
323 levels: water users at individual (small-holder farmers), group/community, or a lumped variable
324 at a population level ranging from community/city to region, water management at the scheme
325 scale, and irrigation system in large irrigated schemes.

326
327 Ross and Chang (2021) developed a System Dynamics Model (SDM) of a watershed-
328 dependent sociohydrological system to improve resilience and adaptive capacity to climate
329 hazards. The SDM developed for the Hood River Basin (USA) comprised an upper-climate
330 section which includes snowmelt, a middle-section which includes glacial meltwater and
331 precipitation runoff and a lower-level section which includes irrigation withdrawals and
332 streamflow. The SDM suggests that climate change leads to a decline in available irrigation
333 water in the late summer. A cross-level perspective was included by assessing collaborative
334 water management strategies among irrigators to respond to climate change's influence on
335 streamflow.

336
337 Ghoreishi *et al.* (2021) developed an agricultural water demand model that included linkages
338 between individual farmers, socio-economic factors, and agricultural water demand. Their model
339 captured multiple levels of a social system, and interactions across the levels. For example, a
340 farmer's decision about irrigation method, changing crops, and irrigation area was affected by
341 other farmers' decisions and government subsidies; the individual decision also influenced
342 neighbors' decisions through a social network. Carr *et al.* (2021) developed a sociohydrological
343 model that included linkages between the capacity of local organization, land use, agricultural
344 practices, and water quality. The model involved cross-level interactions between farmers and
345 local level water committees. For example, farmers could change their land use and
346 management practices depending on the support given by the local water committees and the
347 regulation from the local Water Police.

348
349 Laurita *et al.* (2021) investigated conflictual water allocation between water users (farmers and
350 local communities), which resulted in ecosystem services trade-off between productive services

351 (agriculture) and provision and cultural services (biodiversity conservation, tourism, urban water
352 supply). Interactions involved local farmers and communities directly and the Confederacion
353 Hidrografica del Duero as a regulator. Farmers' satisfaction was linked to their ability to extract
354 water for irrigation, and local communities' well-being was linked to the well-being of the river
355 from which water is diverted and used for irrigation.

356 *Multi-Scale Analysis*

357
358 A smaller set of studies in the special issue explicitly considered two or more scales in their
359 analyses. Hossain and Mertig (2020) examine how cross-national relationships, and global
360 position, structure internal, or domestic water footprints in 174 countries from 1996-2005. Cross-
361 scale interactions are implicitly investigated through the assessment of world-system position on
362 water consumption levels. They find that more developed, advanced countries are able to
363 exploit water resources across the world through virtual water trade. Less-developed, or
364 underdeveloped countries are thus disproportionately bearing the social and ecological
365 consequences of global water stress, as the global water crisis is externalized from developed
366 to less-developed countries. Tamburino *et al.* (2020) develop an agent-based model that
367 simulates a smallholder farming system. The model is calibrated for the Lower Mississippi River
368 Basin and considers corn grown through the growing season April-June. They are able to
369 understand the co-evolving relationship between climate, water, and human attitudes over
370 varying time scales. Crop yield, net economic gain, and groundwater table depth evolve over
371 time depending on changing climate conditions and farmers' attitudes.
372

373 374 **3. Achieving an Interdisciplinary Multi-method Research**

375
376 Sociohydrology research endeavors depend on the use of diverse perspectives and methods
377 from both the physical and social sciences (Di Baldassarre *et al.* 2021). In an ideal world,
378 researchers can teach themselves multiple relevant methods and theories and apply them as
379 deemed necessary. In reality, however, gaining specialization in any given research methods or
380 theories is time consuming and requires significant investments (Poteete *et al.* 2010). This
381 challenge is even greater when a serious cross-fertilization is attempted across dissimilar
382 domains of science, i.e., hydrologists attempting to use the tools and concepts used by social
383 scientists and vice versa. This means that a more probable path to sociohydrology research is
384 bringing in people with different toolkits and theoretical backgrounds to work together. Herein
385 lies the value of an interdisciplinary multi-method approach: it can help hydrological and social
386 scientists to be savvy about the language and basics of each other's methods. It can help them
387 to be more aware of a variety of forms that a multi-method approach can take, strengths and
388 limits of such forms, and the degree to which different methods in the natural and social
389 sciences are actually complementary. The need for interdisciplinary methods is also highlighted
390 by several papers of the special issue (Ross and Chang 2020; Bertassello *et al.* 2021; Hayashi
391 *et al.* 2021; Thaler 2021; Wine 2020).
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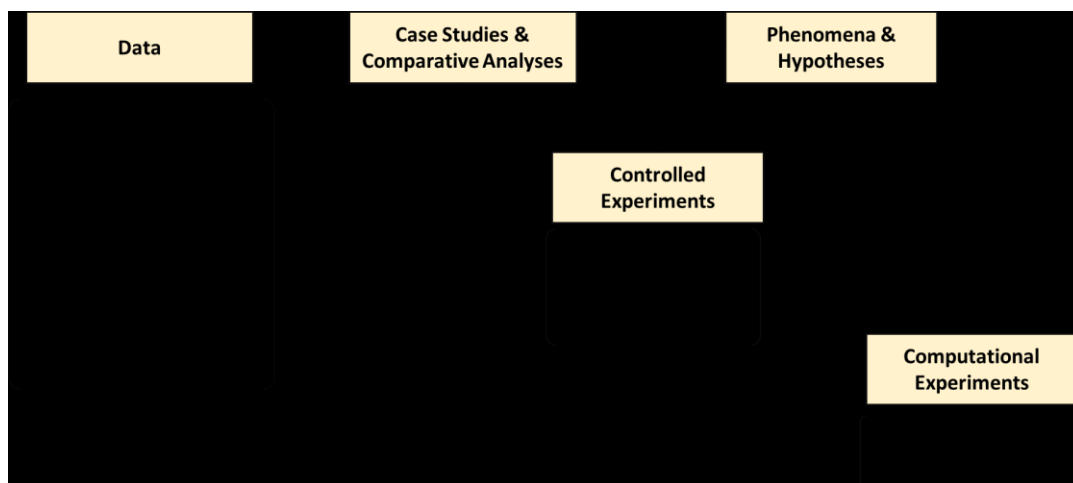
393
394 However, it is not obvious to many how to structure an interdisciplinary multi-method approach
395 for an effective sociohydrological research. The challenge lies not in attempting a laundry list of
396 different methods, but in how to judiciously combine different methods in such a way that the
397 methods are compatible with focal variables and theories and that the results and insights from
398 one method help to inform and revisit those from other methods (e.g., Poteete *et al.* 2010).
399 Although there is no straightforward answer, we suggest that there are two key aspects
400 important to guiding one's thinking on how to organize an interdisciplinary research.
401

402 The first aspect is knowing what scales and levels are relevant for the focal variables and
403 theories under consideration. This is because the scales and levels involved with the focal
404 variables and theories can influence which methods are more fitting than others. For example, if
405 an analyst is interested in developing a system-level understanding using theories like
406 dynamical systems theory and complex adaptive systems thinking, methods such as system
407 dynamics and agent-based modeling are more appropriate than others (Enteshari *et al.* 2020;
408 Pouladi *et al.* 2020; Aghaie *et al.* 2021). GIS, remote sensing, and archival analyses are
409 necessary for analysis that cover larger spatial and time scales (Lopez-Alvarez *et al.* 2020; Gaur
410 *et al.* 2021; Dau and Adeloje, 2021).

411
412 Regarding human agency, hypotheses about human decision-making at the level of individuals
413 and small groups can benefit from standard data collection methods (e.g., survey, interviews,
414 etc.), high-resolution behavioral studies (e.g., behavioral experiments) as well as innovative
415 human-driven observational data analytics supported by artificial intelligence, digital
416 technologies and online communities (e.g., social network data mining, remote sensing and
417 image processing). These methods can behavioral-level insights on human decisions and
418 preferences. Hypotheses about human agency at larger organizational scales require analytical
419 methods such as big data analysis, case studies, and comparative analysis. The increased
420 interest and extent of citizen science and participatory approaches are demonstrating the
421 scientific value of community engagement enlarging the quantity and diversity of observation's
422 spatial and temporal scale (Etheridge *et al.* 2020; Torso *et al.* 2020; De Filippo *et al.* 2021;
423 Souza *et al.* 2021).

424
425 The second aspect is knowing that the starting point of many sociohydrology research
426 endeavors is identifying a sociohydrological phenomenon and potential explanatory hypotheses
427 and that it is almost impossible to do true real experiments with coupled human-water systems
428 to establish causal inference (i.e., experimentally testing whether a factor X causes a
429 phenomenon Y). Because of this nature, we think there is a recurring methodological pattern in
430 interdisciplinary approaches to studying sociohydrology (Figure 3). It begins with the
431 identification of an emergent phenomenon with rich details and associated key hypotheses
432 based on a case study or comparative analysis of multiple case studies (link 1 in Figure 3) (e.g.
433 Fornés *et al.* 2021). These case studies are, of course, based on and informed by various data
434 (link 2) collected from diverse methods (e.g., Palop-Donat *et al.* 2020; Medeiros and Sivapalan
435 2020; Frota *et al.* 2021; Nardi *et al.* 2021; Souza *et al.* 2021).

436



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438

439

Figure 3. A methodological pattern in interdisciplinary approaches to studying sociohydrology

440 The identified hypotheses and potential explanatory hypotheses are then tested using either
441 computational experiments or controlled experiments (links 3 and 6). Because it is difficult to do
442 true experiments with real coupled human-water systems, computational and controlled
443 experiments that capture the essential features of real systems are fitting methodological
444 choices. System dynamics and agent-based models are often constructed for computational
445 experiments (e.g. Ridolfi *et al.* 2019; Viola *et al.* 2021; Lyu *et al.* 2020; Homayounfar and
446 Muneeppeerakul 2021). These model systems are simulated to see if the qualitative behavior of
447 the model systems is consistent with the observed phenomena. If the target pattern is
448 replicated, then the proposed hypotheses are possible explanations of the observed
449 phenomena until they are falsified (Pande and Sivapalan 2017). Various social and
450 environmental data can be also used to calibrate and validate (link 4) these models. The results
451 and insights obtained from such models can be also used to revisit the case studies (link 5).
452 Meanwhile, controlled experiments that capture the essence of a focal sociohydrological
453 phenomenon can be conducted to test the identified hypotheses (link 6). For example, physical
454 hydrologic experiments can be used for hypotheses related physical water process. If the
455 hypotheses concern human behavior and social dynamics, controlled behavioral experiments
456 and survey experiments can be conducted using human subjects to test hypotheses on how
457 individuals make decisions under different conditions (e.g. McKee *et al.* 2020). The added
458 benefit of such experimental studies is that the resulting data can also be used to revisit the
459 initial case studies (link 7) and empirically ground or calibrate (link 8) the assumptions used in
460 the systems models.

461
462 The methods and their linkages discussed above show the phenomena-driven nature of
463 sociohydrology research and how the scales and levels involved with the focal variables and
464 theories can shape methodological design. Below, we organize the special issue papers in
465 terms of diverse methodological combinations.

466 467 *Multiple-Source Approaches*

468
469 Kim et al. (2021) use a semi-structured narrative approach to describe policy development
470 pathways. They distinguish three main historic stages that are described in terms of key policy
471 features (legal aspects, government agencies, resources, civic actors). Information for this
472 analysis was obtained from document analysis, both policy documents, laws and journal
473 articles, complemented with data on specific variables for the water systems in online databases
474 and provided by the utilities in Oregon and South Korea. Philip (2021) combines data from
475 different sources, including satellite images, to calculate the SDG 11.3.1 indicator values for
476 three different time periods. These land-used and geographical analysis methods then are
477 linked, in an interpretative manner, with more hydrological methods to develop Intensity-
478 Duration Frequency (IDF) curves for stormwater management. This combination shows that,
479 although the land use to population growth ratios develops in desired directions, the trends in
480 IDF curves do signal a need for future action in the city, to effectively use land use planning to
481 confront climate change challenges.

482
483 Sarband et al. (2021) used multiple methods of compromise programming, fuzzy methods and
484 distributed indicators to evaluate localized impacts of water allocation scenarios in Aras basin,
485 Iran. Their use of distributed instead of lumped indicators enabled better determination of
486 regional priorities and spatial tradeoffs of water allocation scenarios. Veloso et al. (2021) used
487 the Carampangue River basin in Chile as an instrumental case study to investigate the interplay
488 between preparedness and psycho-social attributes of communities exposed to river floods.
489 They combined multiple research methods and integrated a hydrological analysis of floods with

490 the results from a survey, social cartography, semi-structured non-participant observation, and
491 semi-structured interviews.

492

493 *Case Studies, Interviews, Surveys, and Spatial and Statistical Modeling*

494

495 Mondino *et al.* (2020) applied multiple methods in the study: case study, comparative analysis,
496 statistical analysis, and longitudinal survey/analysis. Case studies are used to motivate the
497 study and questionnaire survey. It also comparatively analyzed the two case communities.
498 Longitudinal surveys and statistical analysis are done to understand over-time changes in the
499 risk perception of people in the two communities. In their case study analysis of the Dhidhessa
500 River Basin, Teweldebrihan *et al.* (2020) conducted a household survey in three study villages
501 (n=120), key informant interviews and a focus group discussion. Secondary data (official
502 statistics, including census data and population data) complement the analysis. The focal level
503 is set on the study villages in the basin. In addition, the authors take a government resettlement
504 programme as a main driver for migration into account.

505

506 Khalifa *et al.* (2020) used the combined methods including case study, field survey, remote
507 sensing, GIS, statistical modeling and statistical analysis. Case study was used to analyze an
508 agriculture scheme. Field survey was used to understand socio-economic status and field
509 practices of small-holder farmers that contribute to crop yield gap. Remote sensing was used to
510 analyze spatial and temporal variation of productivity gap. The spatial and temporal variations of
511 variables such as productivity level, precipitation and soil properties were analyzed using GIS.
512 Statistical modeling was used to understand the relationship between crop productivity and
513 farmer's field practices and farmer's socio-economic status as well as the relationship between
514 crop productivity and physical variables such as water availability and soil properties.

515

516 *Participatory Approaches*

517

518 Torso *et al.* (2020) have applied Participatory Action Research (PAR) and Indigenous Research
519 Methodologies (IRM) in their studies of hydrosocial systems in Idaho, US affected by mining.
520 They apply the concept of *hydrosocial territories* as developed by Boelens *et al.* (2016), to frame
521 the impacts of mining, the politics surrounding it and describe the judicial complexities of the
522 community-university partnerships that were developed in the study. In a reflective paper on
523 how these methods were implemented, Torso *et al.* (2020) concluded that both PAR and IRM
524 led to a more inclusive and equitable research process whereby sharing data in a reciprocal
525 relationship between the researchers and the community members was prioritized. This led to a
526 better contextual understanding of power dimensions and appreciation of relational knowledge
527 paradigms, as well as promotion of community capacity building.

528

529 Etheridge *et al.* (2020) employed public participation in two coastal communities affected by
530 sea-level rise, hurricanes and flooding in North Carolina. Both were community level social
531 systems and lake watershed/island water systems. In the first study area, the participatory
532 mapping at a public meeting was used to define the watershed boundary and determine pump
533 locations. In the second study area, citizen scientists collected data on groundwater levels and
534 surface water levels over a period of three months. In addition, a cost comparison between
535 citizen science data collection and non-involvement of the community was calculated.

536

537 *Case Studies and Agent-Based Modeling*

538

539 Ghoreishi *et al.* (2021) combined an agent-based human submodel and a lumped water
540 submodel. The human submodel simulated the adaptation of new irrigation systems, crop

541 patterns, and area to be irrigated based on interactions and coevolution between farmers'
542 decisions. The water submodel calculated agricultural water demand using the FAO Penman-
543 Monteith method. Multiple methods were used to represent and highlight the stochastic (agent-
544 based modeling) and deterministic (lumped hydrological modeling) nature of social and
545 hydrological systems, and could, in turn, capture the heterogeneity of farmers' decision-making
546 in their communities, as well as demonstrate its impact on agricultural water use.

547
548 Vicario et al. (2021) combined GIS, hydraulic modeling, agent-based modeling, behavioral
549 theories and expert judgement. In the GIS, hydraulic modeling, and part of the agent-based
550 model, local-level water-related variables are modeled. In another part of the agent-based
551 model, individual-level variables are represented. Multiple methods are used because it was
552 required to get precise flood maps (hydraulic model) that were after combined with social
553 components to test flood evacuation strategies (agent-based modeling). Michaelis et al. (2020)
554 developed and implemented an agent-based model of human-flood interactions. They focused
555 on the dynamic role of individual and governmental decision making on flood-risk management.
556 A case study of the Po River (Italy) is used to illustrate potentials and limitations of the model.

557 *Case Studies, Interviews, and Dynamical Systems Modeling*

559 Buarque et al. (2020) analyzed human-flood interactions in the city of Sao Carlos (Brazil) by
560 combining observations with system dynamic modeling. Furthermore, Neupane et al. (2021)
561 explored the potential impact of land-use change on flooding in Columbia (USA) using a
562 hydrological model. Carr et al. (2021) combined a case study, interviews, literature analysis, and
563 sociohydrological modeling. The case study and interviews were included to gain a fuller
564 understanding of water quality and water quality management responses. Bringing together
565 information from the literature was essential to bridge the gaps in data from the case study.
566 Sociohydrological modeling was chosen to develop a semi-quantitative "cause and effect
567 model," that could show how the system could respond to increases or reductions in support,
568 resources and capacity. The collection of methods was critical for developing a more complete
569 understanding of the system being studied.

570 Laurita et al. (2021) conducted a case study based on stakeholder analysis, hydrological
571 modeling, and ecosystem services quantification. A stakeholder analysis was performed by
572 semi-structured interviews and an actor-linkage matrix in order to identify the main actors
573 involved in the recharge project and to define the dynamics that relate to them. Hydrological
574 modeling was performed to calculate the local-level water balance, and a service provision
575 index was used to quantify local ecosystem services. Multiple methods helped analyze a local
576 water allocation problem by combining social and hydrological inputs, while accounting for
577 ecosystem services.

578

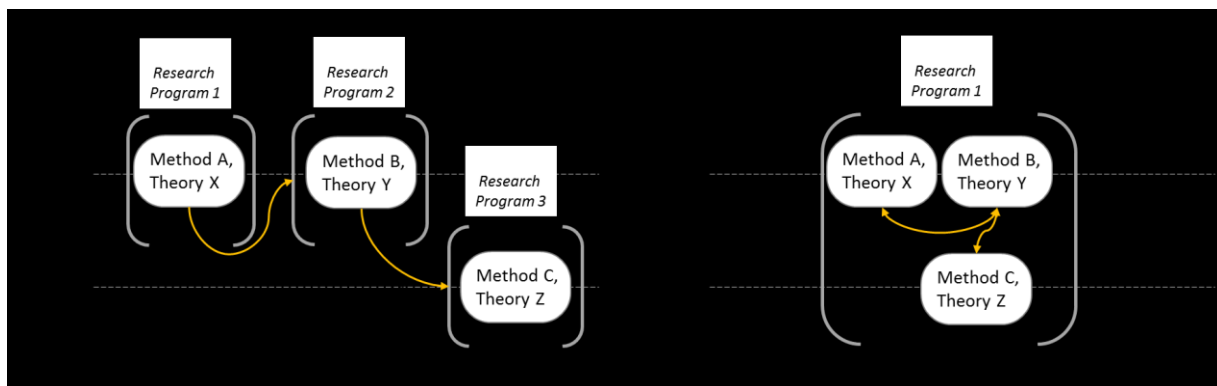
579 **4. Synthesis and a Way Forward**

580

581 This commentary is motivated by two thematic questions that present both a challenge and an
582 opportunity for the field of sociohydrology. How can one represent and study multiple levels of
583 human agency and decision-making that often underlie human-water interactions? How can one
584 do interdisciplinary research that combines multiple different methods from the hydrological and
585 social sciences? Based on the Hydrological Sciences Journal Virtual Special Issue *Advancing*

586 *Sociohydrology*, we probed these two themes and generated tentative insights. We highlighted
587 that, although the spatial and temporal scales are well appreciated by the hydrological sciences
588 community, not the same can be said about the human organizational scale and how social
589 processes along this dimension influence outcomes. We argued that the spectrum of human
590 organizations should be treated as another key analytical dimension and that consideration of
591 this dimension might hold clues to explaining why a sociohydrological phenomenon occurs in
592 one context but not in others. We also highlighted that, because of the complexity inherent in
593 such systems, multiple disciplinary views and methods from the hydrological and social
594 sciences are likely to be needed to develop understanding. To help guide one's thinking on how
595 to organize such interdisciplinary research, we sketched a core structure in the interdisciplinary
596 approaches to studying sociohydrology.

597 In addition, we outlined the special issue papers in terms of scales and levels of analyses and
598 use of multiple methods. Our summary shows that a sizable portion of the special issue papers
599 employed different concepts and methods from other scientific disciplines, and social sciences
600 in particular. We also see applications of two or more methods or consideration of cross-level
601 processes in some studies (although those concerning the human organizational scale are still
602 rare). This suggests that sociohydrology as a community research program is on the right track
603 in terms of embracing interdisciplinarity for studying coupled human-water systems. It also
604 implies that sociohydrology is currently undergoing a long arduous process of building scientific
605 consensus. As indicated by a science historian Naomi Oreskes (2004), 'scientific consensus'
606 about a frontier subject develops over a long-time horizon (e.g., 30-40 years) as many scholars
607 produce varying results using different ideas, data, and methods. Although confusions can
608 occur initially, a consensus may emerge over time as data become better and findings become
609 more concordant. The breadth and variation in the ideas and methods used in the special issue
610 papers can be viewed as natural manifestations of this long process of building a consensus.



611

612 **Figure 4.** Two ways of methodological and disciplinary cross-fertilization for theory
613 development. In the sequential mode (A), findings from one method or discipline used in a
614 research program are taken up by subsequent research programs for cross-fertilization. In the
615 parallel mode (B), a single research program combines multiple methods and disciplinary ideas
616 in an integrative way from the beginning for cross-fertilization.

617

618 As a synthesis and a way forward, we now take a broader perspective to discuss how
619 disciplinary and methodological cross-fertilization can occur for theory development in
620 sociohydrology. In the closely related field of social-ecological systems research, benefits and
621 examples of such cross-fertilization has been demonstrated (Janssen and Anderies 2013).

622 Scholars from different disciplines using different methods have all contributed to advancing
623 knowledge of complex social-ecological systems that might have been unattainable otherwise
624 (Poteete *et al.* 2010). In particular, as illustrated by Figure 4, such cross-fertilization generally
625 occurs in two ways through researches conducted at different levels of analysis in the space,
626 time, or human organizational scales—*sequential* and *parallel* modes (Poteete *et al.* 2010). We
627 suggest that these two modes of cross-fertilization are also highly relevant to sociohydrology
628 and can inform the community research program of sociohydrology on how the works of diverse
629 groups can collectively lead to theory advancement.

630 In the sequential mode of cross-fertilization, findings from one method or discipline are revisited
631 from another methodological or disciplinary perspective for new clues and synthetic ideas
632 (Figure 4A). This connection usually occurs across two or more independent research programs
633 over time. The rationale is that, while findings from one method can be difficult to explain or
634 treated as anomalies given the theory of the time, they can be confirmed using another method
635 or better explained by applying different research views at a later time. A fitting example of the
636 sequential mode of cross-fertilization in the context of sociohydrology is the body of knowledge
637 on the levee effect or the safe-development paradox (White 1942; Montz and Tobin 2008). Case
638 studies and comparative analysis of small-N cases led scholars to posit that the non-occurrence
639 of flood events through structural measures is often associated with amplified long-term
640 vulnerability to flooding in the long run (Burton and Cutter 2008; Ludy and Kondolf 2012;
641 Bohensky and Leitch 2014; Di Baldassarre *et al.* 2015). The key contribution of these local level
642 studies is identifying that this observation may not be an anomaly but, rather, a recurring
643 system-level pattern. Subsequently, their insights motivated early sociohydrology studies that
644 constructed and analyzed system-level models at higher levels of spatial and time scales to
645 uncover underlying mechanisms responsible for the phenomenon (Di Baldassarre *et al.* 2013;
646 Viglione *et al.* 2014). A key model construct employed in these studies to represent human
647 agency and to connect human and water system is a single societal-level memory of floods. The
648 resulting system-level insights catalyzed further modeling studies that infused different
649 disciplinary perspectives and modeling approaches, including a replicator equation capturing
650 informal social norms and collective action around shared public infrastructure (Yu *et al.* 2017)
651 and agent-based models that capture the aspects of institutional arrangements and government
652 roles (Abebe *et al.* 2019; Haer *et al.* 2020). Meanwhile, place-based and historical studies
653 emerged to place the concept of social memory and the levee effect on a firmer theoretical
654 foundation (Leong 2018; Fanta *et al.* 2019; Mondino *et al.* 2020). These studies conducted
655 longitudinal surveys, historical document analysis, or interviews and content analysis to
656 generate empirical insights. New emerging methods are also used to develop insights at higher
657 levels of the spatial or time scales that were unattainable using conventional methods. For
658 example, one study analyzed satellite nighttime images to examine the relationship between
659 human proximity to rivers and the occurrence of flood events (Mård *et al.* 2018). As can be
660 seen, findings from one method or discipline regarding the levee effect phenomenon were
661 sequentially taken up by other studies that used different methods or disciplinary views to
662 further the knowledge on the phenomenon.

663 In the parallel mode of cross-fertilization, a single research program is planned from the
664 beginning to combine complementary methods and to bring together scholars with different
665 disciplinary and methodological backgrounds (Figure 4B). The advantage of this parallel
666 approach is that methodological and disciplinary cross-fertilization opportunities can be thought
667 out from the early research design stages and controlled throughout the project. Perhaps an

668 example of this mode of cross-fertilization is a National Science Foundation-sponsored research
669 project (award number: 1913665) that two of the authors of this commentary participate in. This
670 project aims to understand how actors across all levels of decision-making in a complex
671 watershed system, from reservoir operators to flood plain residents, make decisions in response
672 to increasing hydrological extremes and quicker shifts between wet and dry periods. Its focus is
673 on understanding how such multiple levels of decision-making may lead to cognitive biases or
674 systematic errors in judgment in terms of water supply and flood control decisions. Due to the
675 interdisciplinary nature of the research, this project incorporated multiple methods and
676 disciplinary views from both the social and hydrological sciences and brought together
677 hydrologists, political scientists, and systems scientists under a single research program. It is
678 designed to combine a top-down hydrological model and a generic stylized model of reservoir
679 operation to systemically investigate the feedback system of public infrastructure providers,
680 resource users, and the dynamics of water scarcity in a stylized catchment. In parallel, theories
681 and approaches of political economic analysis are applied to understand how governing rules
682 and informal norms shape the decision-making of actors situated at multiple levels of decision-
683 making in a complex watershed system. Following a political economic analysis framework
684 (Ostrom 2011; Siddiki *et al.* 2019), water resources-related policy and planning documents of a
685 study area are analyzed, in conjunction with interviews with stakeholders, to extract knowledge
686 on how water infrastructure and various social actors situated at different levels of social
687 systems are interlinked via management rules or protocols of action (e.g., Olivier 2019).

688 Finally, a caveat should be mentioned that a multi-method approach is not a panacea for
689 studying all coupled human-water systems in all cases. Combining multiple methods does not
690 warrant methodologically better research, and the practical challenges associated with the
691 approach can be substantial and should not be underestimated. There can be a number of
692 challenges (Poteete *et al.* 2010). For example, it can be infeasible to combine certain methods
693 because relevant data may be simply unavailable. Even if data become available, it can still be
694 difficult to apply an interdisciplinary multi-method approach because considerable effort is
695 needed upfront to build competency in using and combining different methods. Thus, a more
696 probable path is bringing in people with different toolkits and theoretical backgrounds to work
697 together. Also, certain methods can be incompatible because of significant differences in
698 sample data or underlying assumptions. Care is needed when matching methods for
699 complementarity. For example, ethnographic studies or qualitative fieldwork and social media-
700 based big data analysis can be incompatible because there may be a little overlap in their study
701 sample populations (e.g., rural indigenous people may not actively use social media). Despite
702 the practical challenges above, our view is that an interdisciplinary multi-method approach is
703 almost a necessity if we are to achieve theory advancement in the study of human-water
704 systems. We can attain a more multi-faced understanding by combining multiple disciplinary
705 perspectives and methods from both the natural and social sciences. Hydrologists need to be
706 an essential part of this convergence.

707

708

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