SoilKsatDB: global soil saturated hydraulic conductivity measurements for geoscience applications

Surya Gupta, Tomislav Hengl, Peter Lehmann, Sara Bonetti, and Dani Or

Soil and Terrestrial Environmental Physics, Department of Environmental Systems Science, ETH, Zürich, Switzerland
OpenGeoHub foundation / EnvirometriX, Wageningen, the Netherlands
Institute for Sustainable Resources, University College London, London, UK
Division of Hydrologic Sciences, Desert Research Institute, Reno, NV, USA

Correspondence: Gupta S.
surya.gupta@usys.ethz.ch

Abstract. Saturated soil hydraulic conductivity (Ksat) is a key parameter in many hydrological and climatic modeling applications. Ksat values are primarily determined from soil textural properties and may vary over several orders of magnitude. Despite availability of Ksat datasets in the literature, significant efforts are required to import and combine the data before it can be used for specific applications. In this work, a total of 13,267 Ksat measurements from 1,910 sites were assembled from published literature and other sources, standardized (units made identical), and quality-checked in order to provide a global database of soil saturated hydraulic conductivity (SoilKsatDB). The SoilKsatDB covers most regions across the globe, with the highest number of Ksat measurements from North America, followed by Europe, Asia, South America, Africa, and Australia. In addition to Ksat, other soil variables such as soil texture (11,591 measurements), bulk density (11,269 measurements), soil organic carbon (9,787 measurements), field capacity (7,389) and wilting point (7,418) are also included in the dataset. To show an application of SoilKsatDB, we fit Ksat pedotransfer functions (PTFs) for temperate regions and laboratory-based soil properties (sand and clay content, bulk density). Accurate models can be fitted using a Random Forest machine learning algorithm (best concordance correlation coefficient (CCC) = 0.70 and CCC = 0.73 for temperate and laboratory-based measurements, respectively). However, when these temperate and laboratory-based Ksat PTFs are applied to soil samples from tropical climates and field measurements, respectively, the model performance is significantly lower (CCC = 0.52 for tropical and CCC = 0.10 for field samples). These results indicate that there are significant differences between Ksat data collected in temperate and tropical regions and measured in lab or the field. The SoilKsatDB dataset is available at 'version 0.3' https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3752721 (Gupta et al., 2020) and the code used to extract the data from the literature, for the quality control and applied random forest machine learning approach is publicly available under an open data license.

1 Introduction

Soil saturated hydraulic conductivity (Ksat) describes the rate of water movement through water saturated soils and is defined as the ratio between water flux and hydraulic gradient (Amoozegar and Warrick, 1986). It is a key variable in a number of hydrological, geomorphological, and climatological applications, such as rainfall partitioning into infiltration and runoff...
(Vereecken et al., 2010), optimal irrigation design (Hu et al., 2015), as well as the prediction of natural hazards including catastrophic floods and landslides (Batjes, 1996; Glinski et al., 2000; Zhang et al., 2018). Accurate measurements of Ksat in the laboratory and field are laborious and time consuming and most samples are taken from agricultural soils (Romano and Palladino, 2002).

Efforts to produce reliable and spatially refined datasets of hydraulic properties date back to the 1970’s with the proliferation of distributed hydrologic and climatic modeling. Some of these early notable works also provided basic databases (some of which are used in this study) for Australia (McKenzie et al., 2008; Forrest et al., 1985), Belgium (Vereecken et al., 2017; Cornelis et al., 2001), Brazil (Tomasella et al., 2000, 2003; Ottoni et al., 2018), France (Bruand et al., 2004), Germany (Horn et al., 1991; Krahmer et al., 1995), Hungary (Nemes, 2002), the Netherlands (Wösten et al., 2001), Poland (Glinski et al., 1991), and USA (Rawls et al., 1982). Nemes (2011) discussed the available datasets on Ksat and other hydro-physical properties in detail. Collaborative efforts have resulted in the compilation of multiple databases, including the Unsaturated Soil Hydraulic Database (UNSODA) (Nemes et al., 2001), the Grenoble Catalogue of Soils (GRIZZLY) (Haverkamp et al., 1998), and the Mualem catalogue (Mualem, 1976) – these, however, focused on soil types and not on the spatial context of Ksat mapping. In an effort to provide spatial context, Jarvis et al. (2013), Rahmati et al. (2018) and Schindler and Müller (2017) published global databases for soil hydraulic and soil physical properties. Likewise, the European soil data center also started projects such as SPADE (Hiederer et al., 2006) and HYPRES (Wösten et al., 2000), for generating spatially referenced databases for several countries. Since HYPRES represents only western European countries, Weynants et al. (2013) gathered data from 18 countries and developed the European Hydropedological Data Inventory (EU-HYDI) database – this dataset is, however, not publicly available and was not included in this compilation. The datasets mentioned above cover almost all climatic zones except tropical regions, where Ksat values can be significantly different due to the strong local weathering processes and different clay mineralogy (Hodnett and Tomasella, 2002). Recently, Ottoni et al. (2018) published a dataset named HYBRAS (Hydrophysical Database for Brazilian Soils) improving the coverage of South American tropical regions. In addition, Rahmati et al. (2018) recently published the Soil Water Infiltration Global database (SWIG) collecting information on Ksat for the whole globe. In SWIG database, some Ksat values were extracted from literature and other Ksat values were deduced from infiltration time series. In contrast to lab measurements that determine Ksat as ratio of flux density to gradient, infiltration-based methods determine Ksat by fitting infiltration dynamics to parametric models (using three-parameter infiltration equation of Philip (Kutílek and Krejca, 1987) or simplified form of Haverkamp et al. (1994)).

The ever increasing demand for highly resolved description of surface processes require commensurate advances in Ksat representation for modern Earth System Model (ESM) applications. Several existing Ksat datasets miss either coordinates or these have been recorded with unknown accuracy thus limiting their applications for spatial modeling. For example, the SWIG dataset misses information on soil depth and assigns a single coordinate for entire watersheds. Similarly, the UNSODA dataset does not provide coordinates and soil texture information for all samples. For a few locations, HYBRAS uses a different coordinate system. Taken together, these limitations highlight that, to prepare spatially referenced global Ksat datasets for large scale applications, a serious effort to compile, standardize and quality check all literature (available publicly) is often required.
The objective of the work here is to provide a new global standardized Ksat database (SoilKsatDB) that can be used for geoscience applications. To do so, a total of 13,267 Ksat measurements have been collected, standardized, and cross-checked to produce a harmonized compilation which is analysis-ready (i.e., it can directly be used for model fitting and spatial analysis). We compiled data from existing datasets and, to improve the spatial coverage in regions with sparse data, we further conducted a literature search to include Ksat measurements in geographic areas that were not yet covered in other existing databases. In the manuscript, we first describe the data compilation process and then describe methodological steps used to spatially reference, filter, and standardize the existing datasets. As an illustrative application of the dataset, we derive PTFs for different regions and measurement methods and discuss their transferability to other regions/measurement methodologies. We fully document all importing, standardization and binding steps using the R environment for statistical computing (R Core Team, 2013), so that we can collect feedback from other researchers and increase the speed of further updates and improvements. The newly created data set (SoilKsatDB) can be accessed via 'version 0.3' https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3752721 and directly used to test various Machine Learning algorithms (Casalicchio et al., 2017).

2 Methods and materials

2.1 Data sources

To locate and obtain all compatible datasets for compilation, a literature search was conducted using different search engines, including Science Direct (https://www.sciencedirect.com/), Google Scholar (https://scholar.google.com/) and Scopus (https://www.scopus.com). We searched soil hydraulic conductivity datasets using keywords such as “saturated hydraulic conductivity database”, “Ksat”, and similar. The collected datasets are listed in Table 1 together with number of Ksat observations for each study, and can be classified into three main categories, namely: i) Existing datasets (in form of tables) published and archived with a DOI in a peer-review publication; ii) legacy datasets in paper/document format (e.g., legacy reports, PhD theses, and scientific studies), iii) on-line materials.

Existing datasets include published datasets such as HYBRAS (Ottoni et al., 2018), UNSODA (Nemes et al., 2001), SWIG (Rahmati et al., 2018), and the soil hydraulic properties over the Tibetan Plateau (Zhao et al., 2018), from which we extracted the required information as described in Table 2a. The major challenge with making the existing datasets compatible for binding (standardization, removing redundancy), was to obtain the locations for a particular sample as well as the corresponding measurement depths. For instance, the UNSODA database completely lacks geographical locations. To fill the gaps and make the data suitable also for spatial analysis, we used Google Earth to find the coordinates based on the given location (generally an address or a location name). We separated the UNSODA data based on laboratory and field measurements and we computed sand, silt and clay contents based on the particle diameters between 0-2 µm (clay), 2-50 µm (silt), and >50 µm (sand) from the available particle-size data, assuming a log-normal distribution as described in Nemes et al. (2001). We further note that, in some datasets, the coordinates were missing or reported in diverse coordinate systems. For example, in the HYBRAS database, the locations needed to be converted from UTM to a decimal degrees. In the SWIG database, the information related to location (coordinates for each point), soil depth and measurement method (laboratory or field) was completely missing, so we
went through each publication referenced in Rahmati et al. (2018) (except the unpublished literature) and added coordinates and applied the necessary conversions.

In the case of legacy datasets (paper or document format, data from journals, theses, and legacy reports with and without peer-reviewed publications), we invested a significant effort to digitize tabular data, clean it and make it analysis-ready. After the digitization process, all data values were cross-checked one more time with the original PDFs to avoid any artifacts or error in the final database.

Two datasets were also collected directly from project websites that might be peer reviewed such as the NASA project based on hydraulic and thermal conductivity (retrieved from https://daac.ornl.gov/FIFE/guides/Soil_Hydraulic_Conductivity_Data.html and described in Kanemasu (1994)) and the Florida database from Grunwald (2020).

There are many biomes and climatic regions, such as desert dunes, peatlands and frozen soils, where very few data of Ksat were publicly available. Because it is essential for global modeling to provide some values or range to reduce the uncertainty in the spatial maps, we have also intensively searched for these areas and, in addition to the major datasets (SWIG, UNSODA, HYBRAS), we have also found several minor studies (that contain less than 5 Ksat measurements) to cover these regions. We thus digitized Ksat values from these studies (shown either in bar charts or line plots), georeferenced the maps where necessary, and then converted the data into tabular form. All these datasets are also listed in Table 1. In some cases, we also contacted colleagues that worked in these regions to ask for data support.

Figure 1. Spatial distribution of Ksat points (red and blue for laboratory and field measurements, respectively) in the SoilKsatDB. A total of 1,910 spatial locations are on this map.
Table 1. List of reference articles and digitized Ksat datasets, and number of points (N) per data set used to generate the new SoilKsatDB product.

| Reference                   | N | Reference                   | N | Reference                   | N |
|-----------------------------|---|-----------------------------|---|-----------------------------|---|
| Rycroft et al. (1975)       | 1 | Abagandura et al. (2017)    | 3 | Jabro (1992)                | 18|
| Waddington and Roulet (1997)| 1 | Habel (2013)                | 3 | Greenwood and Buttle (2014) | 18|
| Takahashi (1997)            | 1 | Nyman et al. (2011)        | 3 | Wang et al. (2008)         | 19|
| Katimon and Hassan (1997)   | 1 | Bhattacharyya et al. (2006)| 4 | Deshmukh et al. (2014)     | 19|
| El-Shafei et al. (1994)     | 1 | Lopes et al. (2020)        | 4 | Price et al. (2010)        | 20|
| Lopez et al. (2015)         | 1 | Yasin and Yulnafatmawita (2018)| 4 | Bonsu and Masopeh (1996) | 24|
| Kramarenko et al. (2019)    | 1 | Daniel et al. (2017)       | 6 | Bambra (2016)              | 24|
| Zakaria (1992)              | 1 | Anapalli et al. (2005)     | 7 | Verburg et al. (2001)      | 26|
| Ramli (1999)                | 1 | Arend (1941)               | 7 | Southard and Buol (1988)   | 27|
| Singh et al. (2011)         | 1 | Helbig et al. (2013)       | 7 | Chang (2010)               | 30|
| Campbell et al. (1977)      | 1 | Gwenzi et al. (2011)       | 7 | El-Arabi et al. (2013)     | 33|
| Chief et al. (2008)         | 1 | Päivänen et al. (1973)    | 9 | Becker et al. (2018)       | 34|
| Conedera et al. (2003)      | 1 | Mahapatra and Jha (2019)   | 9 | Baird et al. (2017)        | 50|
| Ebel et al. (2012)          | 1 | Amer et al. (2009)         | 9 | Keisling (1974)            | 56|
| Ferreira et al. (2005)      | 1 | Radcliffe et al. (1990)    | 10| Rahimy (2011)              | 56|
| Imeson et al. (1992)        | 1 | Vogeler et al. (2019)      | 10| Hao et al. (2019)          | 57|
| Johansen et al. (2001)      | 1 | Singh et al. (2006)        | 10| Kanemasu (1994)            | 60|
| Lamara and Derriche (2008)  | 1 | Kelly et al. (2014)        | 10| Tete-Mensah (1993)         | 60|
| Parks and Cundy (1989)      | 1 | Elmaghar (2017)            | 11| Zhao et al. (2018)         | 65|
| Ravi et al. (2017)          | 1 | Ganiyu et al. (2018)       | 12| Hinton (2016)              | 77|
| Smettem and Ross (1992)     | 1 | Cisneros et al. (1999)     | 12| Vieira and Fernandes (2004)| 86|
| Helbig et al. (2013)        | 2 | Niemeyer et al. (2014)     | 12| Houghton (2011)            | 88|
| Boike et al. (1998)         | 2 | Sharratt (1990)            | 14| Tian et al. (2017)         | 91|
| Andrade (1971)              | 2 | Habecker et al. (1990)     | 14| Li et al. (2017)           | 118|
| Beyer et al. (2015)         | 2 | Nielsen et al. (1973)      | 14| Forrest et al. (1985)      | 118|
| Blake et al. (2010)         | 2 | Robbins et al. (1977)      | 15| Richard and Lüscher (1983/87)| 121|
| Bonelll and Williams (1986) | 2 | Soneveeld et al. (2005)    | 15| Sanzeni et al. (2013)      | 127|
| Kutiel et al. (1995)        | 2 | Quinton et al. (2008)      | 16| Vereecken et al. (2017)    | 145|
| Martin and Moody (2001)     | 2 | Simmons (2014)             | 16| Coelho (1974)              | 176|
| Mott et al. (1979)          | 2 | Ouattara (1977)            | 17| Kool et al. (1986)         | 240|
| Rab (1996)                  | 2 | Hardie et al. (2011)       | 17| Nemes et al. (2001)        | 283|
| Soracco et al. (2010)       | 2 | Baird (1997)               | 17| Ottoni et al. (2018)       | 326|
| Varel et al. (2015)         | 2 | Kirby et al. (2001)        | 17| Rahmati et al. (2018)      | 3637|
| Sayok et al. (2007)         | 3 | Yoon (2009)                | 17| Grunwald (2020)            | 6532|
2.2 Georeferencing Ksat values

Georeferencing of Ksat measurements is important for using data for local, regional or global spatial modeling. Once georeferenced, points can be directly used in hydrological and land surface models. Although many studies provided information on the geographical location of the measurements, the studies conducted in the 70’s and 80’s only provided the name of the locations and approximate distance from the exact location. Therefore, we extracted the latitude and longitude of the location using Google maps for some datasets (which did not provide the spatial locations). We digitized provided maps or sketches with locations of the points. We first georeferenced these maps using ESRI ArcGIS software (v10.3) and then digitized the coordinates from georeferenced images. Some of the documents we digitized (e.g. Nemes et al. (2001)) provided the names specific locations, and hence we used Google Earth to obtain the coordinates. We estimate that the spatial location accuracy of these points is roughly between 0 to 5 km. Similarly, spatial maps in jpg format (e.g. Becker et al. (2018)) were geo-referenced with 100–500 m location accuracy. In contrast, few studies (e.g. Yoon (2009)) provided the extract location of the sampling with assumed location accuracy of 10–20 m.

2.3 Standardization and quality assignment

The database was cleaned to remove unrealistic low values. For example, In the SWIG database, Ksat values computed using infiltration time series were less than \(10^{-14}\) m/day, which seems unreasonable, so they were not included in the database. All datasets were cross-checked to avoid redundancy. For example, UNSODA data consist of Vereecken et al. (2017) and Richard and Lüscher (1983/87) datasets and SWIG database used Zhao et al. (2018). Hence we removed these datasets from UNSODA and SWIG database and used the original sources. Moreover, in the SWIG database, soil depth information was not available, so we assumed that infiltration experiments were conducted close to the surface and assigned a depth of 0–20 cm.

To describe position accuracy of each dataset, we assigned each Ksat value to one of seven 'accuracy classes' ranging from highest (0 - 100 m) to lowest accuracy (more than 10000 m or non available information (NA)). For example, Forrest et al. (1985), Zhao et al. (2018) and Ottoni et al. (2018) provided detailed site coordinates, thus we assigned a location accuracy of 0-100 m (i.e., highly accurate) (see Table 3 for more details). After data extraction from literature, geo-referencing and standardization, all information was collected in tabulated form in the new data base SoilKsatDB 'version 0.3' (https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3752721). The database consists of 22 columns (various sample properties) and 13,268 rows (a header and 13,267 samples). An excerpt of the database with some key properties is shown in Table 2b.

2.4 Statistical modeling of Ksat

To show a possible application of the database, we computed various pedotransfer functions (PTFs). The PTF models were fitted using a random forest (RF) machine learning algorithm (Breiman, 2001) in the R environment for statistical computing (R Core Team, 2013). We tested fitting the RF model for log-transformed \((\log_{10})\) Ksat values as function of primary soil properties. For 15% of samples with information on bulk density and soil texture, the value of organic content (OC) was not
Table 2a. Description and units of some key variables listed in the database. The complete list can be found in the link to the data base 'version 0.3' (https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3752721) in the readme-file. We used the same codes adopted in the National Cooperative Soil Survey (NCSS) Soil Characterization Database (National Cooperative Soil Survey, 2016).

| Headers                  | Description                                      | Dimension   |
|-------------------------|--------------------------------------------------|-------------|
| site_key                | Data set identifier                              | —           |
| longitude_decimal_degrees| Ranges up to +180 degrees down to -180 degrees   | Decimal degree |
| latitude_decimal_degrees | Ranges up to +90 degrees down to -90 degrees    | Decimal degree |
| location_accuracy_min   | Minimum value of location accuracy               | m           |
| location_accuracy_max   | Maximum value of location accuracy               | m           |
| hzn_top                 | Top of soil sample                               | cm          |
| hzn_bot                 | Bottom of soil sample                            | cm          |
| hzn_desgn               | Designation of soil horizon                      | —           |
| db                      | Bulk density                                     | g cm$^{-3}$ |
| w3cl1d                  | Soil water content at 33 kPa (field capacity)    | vol %       |
| w15l2                   | Soil water content at 1500 kPa (wilting point)   | vol %       |
| tex_psa                 | Soil texture classes based on USDA               | —           |
| clay_tot_psa            | Mass of soil particles, < 0.002 mm               | %           |
| silt_tot_psa            | Mass of soil particles, > 0.002 and < 0.05 mm    | %           |
| sand_tot_psa            | Mass of soil particle, > 0.05 and < 2 mm        | %           |
| oc_v                    | Soil organic carbon content                      | %           |
| ph_h2o_v                | Soil acidity                                     | —           |
| Ksat_lab                | Soil saturated hydraulic conductivity from lab   | cm day$^{-1}$ |
| Ksat_field              | Soil saturated hydraulic conductivity from field | cm day$^{-1}$ |
| source_db               | Sources of the datasets                          | —           |
| location_id             | Combination of latitude and longitude            | —           |
| hzn_depth               | Mean depth of soil horizon                       | —           |

reported. Therefore, we expressed the PTF for Ksat as a function of bulk density, clay and sand content only. We derived two PTFs for Ksat:

1. **PTFs for temperate regions:** the map of Ksat locations were overlaid on the Köppen-Geiger climate zone map (Rubel and Kotte, 2010; Hamel et al., 2017) and then divided based on climatic regions (temperate, tropical, boreal, and arid) to account for differences in climate and related weathering processes (Hodnett and Tomasella, 2002). A total of 8,296 temperate-climate based Ksat values that contain information on sand, clay, and bulk density were used to develop PTF. The data set was randomly divided into a training (6,637 samples, 80%) and testing dataset (1,659 samples, 20%).

7
Table 2b. Example of Ksat database structure with key variables (from left to right: reference, longitudinal and latitudinal coordinates (decimal degree), top and bottom of soil sample (cm), bulk density (g cm\(^{-3}\)), soil textural class, clay, silt and sand content (%) and saturated hydraulic conductivity measured in lab or field (cm day\(^{-1}\)). NA is ‘no value’. Column names are explained in Table 2a.

| site_key       | longitude_decimal_degrees | latitude_decimal_degrees | hzn_top | hzn_bot | db_psda | tex_psda | clay_tot_psda | silt_tot_psda | sand_tot_psda | ksat_lab | ksat_field |
|----------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|---------|---------|---------|----------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------|------------|
| Saseendran_2005 | -103.15                   | 40.15                    | 15      | 30      | 1.33    | Loam     | 23.4           | 44.3           | 32.3           | 232.08   | NA         |
| Saseendran_2005 | -103.15                   | 40.15                    | 30      | 60      | 1.32    | Loam     | 22.3           | 40.7           | 37.0           | 232.08   | NA         |
| Saseendran_2005 | -103.15                   | 40.15                    | 60      | 90      | 1.36    | Loam     | 17.6           | 36.7           | 45.7           | 337.92   | NA         |
| Saseendran_2005 | -103.15                   | 40.15                    | 90      | 120     | 1.40    | Loam     | 12.0           | 42.3           | 45.7           | 284.88   | NA         |
| Saseendran_2005 | -103.15                   | 40.15                    | 120     | 150     | 1.42    | Loam     | 10.0           | 41.7           | 48.3           | 259.20   | NA         |
| Saseendran_2005 | -103.15                   | 40.15                    | 150     | 180     | 1.42    | Loam     | 10.0           | 41.7           | 48.3           | 259.20   | NA         |
| Becker_2018     | -110.13                   | 31.73                    | 0       | 15      | NA      | Sandy loam | NA              | NA             | NA             | NA       | 26.40      |
| Becker_2018     | -110.09                   | 31.72                    | 0       | 15      | NA      | Sandy loam | NA              | NA             | NA             | NA       | 27.84      |
| Becker_2018     | -110.09                   | 31.69                    | 0       | 15      | NA      | Sandy loam | NA              | NA             | NA             | NA       | 21.60      |
| Becker_2018     | -110.05                   | 31.74                    | 0       | 15      | NA      | Loam      | NA              | NA             | NA             | NA       | 23.76      |
| Becker_2018     | -110.04                   | 31.72                    | 0       | 15      | NA      | Sandy loam | NA              | NA             | NA             | NA       | 39.12      |
| Becker_2018     | -110.04                   | 31.69                    | 0       | 15      | NA      | Sand      | NA              | NA             | NA             | NA       | 102.96     |

Table 3. Number of samples (N) assigned to each class of spatial accuracy. A minimum and maximum accuracy is defined for each class. NA are samples without information on spatial accuracy.

| Minimum location error | Maximum location error | N  |
|------------------------|------------------------|----|
| 0 m                    | 100 m                  | 9937|
| 100 m                  | 250 m                  | 1422|
| 250 m                  | 500 m                  | 959 |
| 500 m                  | 1000 m                 | 516 |
| 1000 m                 | 5000 m                 | 163 |
| 5000 m                 | 10000 m                | 128 |
| 10000 m                | NA                     | 142 |
| **Total**              |                        | **13,267** |

2. **PTFs from laboratory-based Ksat values**: In a second application, the dataset (total 13,267) was divided into laboratory and field based Ksat values. The laboratory dataset (8,498 soil samples) was used for training (6,798) and testing (1,700) following the same method as used for the temperate climate PTF (i.e., 80% for training and 20% for testing).
| Lab Ksat methods                                         | $N$ | Field Ksat methods                                   | $N$ |
|---------------------------------------------------------|-----|------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| Constant head method (Klute and Dirksen, 1986)          | 8014| Mini-infiltrometer (Leeds-Harrison et al., 1994)     | 739 |
| Falling head method (Klute, 1965)                       | 766 | Tension infiltrometer (Reynolds et al., 2000)        | 705 |
| Triaxial cell (ASTM D 5084) (Purdy and Suryasasmita, 2006) | 99  | Double ring infiltrometer (Bodhinayake et al., 2004) | 625 |
| Cylinder method or soil core method (Reynolds et al., 2000) | 27  | Disc infiltrometer (Soracco et al., 2010)            | 584 |
| Hydraulic head (Robbins, 1977)                          | 15  | Single ring (Bagarello and Sgroi, 2004)              | 467 |
| Pressure plate (Sharratt, 1990)                          | 14  | Guelph Permeameter (Reynolds and Elrick, 1985)       | 156 |
| Oedometer test (UNI CEN ISO/TS 17892-5) (Terzaghi, 2004) | 9   | BEST method (Bagarello and Sgroi, 2004)              | 147 |
| Oedometer test (ASTM D2435-96) (Sutejo et al., 2019)    | 12  | Aardvark permeameter (Hinton, 2016)                  | 142 |
|                                                         |     | Guelph Infiltrometer (Gupta et al., 1993)            | 87  |
|                                                         |     | Piezometer slug test (Baird et al., 2017)            | 72  |
|                                                         |     | Tensiometers (Nielsen et al., 1973)                  | 70  |
|                                                         |     | Rainfall simulator (Gupta et al., 1993)              | 55  |
|                                                         |     | Hood infiltrometer (Schlüter et al., 2020)           | 40  |
|                                                         |     | Micro-infiltrometer (Sepehrnia et al., 2016)         | 35  |
|                                                         |     | Mini Disc infiltrometer (Naik et al., 2019)          | 32  |
|                                                         |     | Disc permeameter (Mohanty et al., 1994)              | 27  |
|                                                         |     | Constant head permeameter (Amoozegar, 1989)          | 22  |
|                                                         |     | Steady infiltration (Scotter et al., 1982)            | 16  |
|                                                         |     | Permeameter                                          | 10  |
|                                                         |     | Ponding                                              | 8   |
|                                                         |     | Philip–Dunne permeameter (Muñoz-Carpena et al., 2002) | 6   |
|                                                         |     | Augur method (Mohsenipour and Shahid, 2016)          | 5   |
| Unknown                                                 | 206 | Unknown                                              | 83  |
| **Total**                                               | 9162| **Total**                                            | 4133|
The 'ranger' package version 0.12.1 (Wright and Ziegler, 2015) was implemented to process the large dataset. The PTFs developed for temperate regions and for laboratory data were then applied to test their applicability in tropical climate (1,111...
samples) and for field measurements (1,998 samples), respectively. The code for generating and testing the PTFs is provided in the supplementary file.

### 2.5 Evaluation of Ksat PTFs

The relative importance of the covariates to determine the PTF was assessed by the increase in node purity. It is calculated using the Gini criterion from all the splits (in our case 3 splits) in the forest based on a particular variable (Rodrigues and de la Riva, 2014). Furthermore, the accuracy of the predictions was evaluated using bias, root mean square error (RMSE, in log-transformed Ksat measurement) and concordance correlation coefficient (CCC) (Lawrence and Lin, 1989).

Bias and RMSE are defined as:

\[
\text{bias} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)}{n}
\]

\[
\text{RMSE} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2}{n}}
\]

where \(y\) and \(\hat{y}\) are observed and predicted Ksat values, respectively, and \(n\) is the total number of cross-validation points.

In addition, Concordance Correlation Coefficient (CCC) (as measure of the agreement between observed and predicted Ksat values) of cross validation (Lawrence and Lin, 1989) is defined as:

\[
\text{CCC} = \frac{2 \cdot \rho \cdot \sigma_{\hat{y}} \cdot \sigma_y}{\sigma_{\hat{y}}^2 + \sigma_y^2 + (\mu_{\hat{y}} - \mu_y)^2}
\]

where \(\mu_{\hat{y}}\) and \(\mu_y\) are predicted and observed means, \(\sigma_{\hat{y}}\) and \(\sigma_y\) are are predicted and observed variances and \(\rho\) is the Pearson correlation coefficient between predicted and observed values. CCC is equal to 1 for a perfect model.

### 3 Results

#### 3.1 Data coverage of SoilKsatDB

Based on the literature search and data compilation, we have assembled a total of 13,267 values of Ksat from 1,910 sites (one site is equal to one location “id”) across the globe. Figure 1 shows the global distribution of the sites used in this study. Most data originate from North America, followed by Europe, Asia, South America, Africa, and Australia. With respect to climatic regions, 10,093 Ksat values belong to the temperate region and 1,443, 1,113, 582, and 36 to tropical, arid, boreal, and polar regions, respectively. The points are often spatially clustered with the biggest cluster of points (1,103 site locations with 6,532 Ksat values) in Florida (Grunwald, 2020). Ksat data include 4,133 values from field measurement and 9,162 values from
Figure 2. Venn diagram illustrating the number of samples containing information on bulk density, soil texture, and organic carbon. Out of 13,267 samples, 11,269, 11,591 and 9,787 samples have values of bulk density, soil texture and organic carbon, respectively. Furthermore, 10,494, 9,266 and 9,501 samples have information of bulk density and soil texture, bulk density and organic carbon and soil texture and organic carbon, respectively. 8,994 samples have information of all three soil properties. Note that the size of the intersecting areas does not represent the correct fractions (otherwise the intersection with 8,994 would be much bigger).

laboratory measurements. In particular, different types of infiltrometers (e.g., Mini-infiltrometer, Tension infiltrometer, double ring infiltrometer) and permeaters (e.g., Guelf permeameter, Aardwark permeameter) were used for Ksat field measurements, whereas constant or falling head methods were predominantly used in laboratory analyses, as shown in Table 4.

Out of the 13,267 Ksat measurements, 11,591, 11,269, 9,787, 7,389 and 7,418 points had information on soil texture, bulk density, organic carbon, field capacity and wilting point, respectively, while 8,994 samples had information for all soil basic properties (bulk density, soil texture and organic carbon) (Figure 2). The methods used to compute these soil properties (as much as we could extract from the literature and existing databases) were listed in the supplementary CSV file sol_ksat.pnts_metadata.csv available at ‘version 0.3’ https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3752721. Note that in addition to 11,591 soil texture values, 75 samples have soil texture information with total (sand+silt+clay) less than 98% or greater than 102%. We did not use these values in the PTF development. Moreover, the database contains total of 13,295 Ksat values because few studies have reported both field and lab measurements for the same sampling point.

3.2 Statistical properties of SoilKsatDB

The distribution of soil samples based on soil texture classes is shown on the USDA soil texture triangle in Figure 3a. The database covers all textural classes, with a high clustering in sandy soils due to the numerous samples from Florida (Grunwald, 2020). The violin distribution plot in Figure 3c shows the range of Ksat values for the different databases. Most of the datasets report Ksat values between $\approx10^{-2}$ and $10^{2.5}$ cm/day, with a wider range of Ksat values observed in measurements from theses and reports (including studies with extreme values from sandy desert soils and low conductive clay soils) and from the SWIG
database (databases 9 and 6 in Figure 3c, respectively). Likewise, Figure 3d shows the violin distribution of Ksat based on soil texture classes. Sand and loamy sand soils showed the highest arithmetic mean (i.e., 2.6 and 1.99, respectively), while the lowest mean values were found for silt and silty loam (i.e., 1.12 and 1.15, respectively). The significance between each soil texture class was also tested using a t-test (Kim, 2015) and results are presented in the supplementary file. Table ST1 shows that the Ksat values under sand and loamy sand soil texture class are significantly different from all other soil texture classes, however, silt, silty clay, and silty clay loam class are not significantly different from clay, sandy clay, and sandy clay loam Ksat values.

Average values of Ksat and other hydro-physical properties are shown in Table 5. Higher average organic carbon and bulk density values were observed in clayey and loamy soils compared to sandy soils. Ksat values obtained from field measurements were on average higher (depending on the type of instrument used) than those obtained from laboratory Ksat values. Particularly, for the clay texture class much lower Ksat values were observed for laboratory (mean Ksat $\approx 8$ cm/day) compared to field (mean Ksat $\approx 110$ cm/day) measurements (Table 5). Figure 3b further illustrates the higher range of Ksat values obtained for finer texture soils (clay and loam) compared to coarser soils (sand).

3.3 Ksat PTFs derivation

As a test application of SoilKsatDB, two PTFs were derived for Ksat (i.e., for temperate regions and based on laboratory measurements) using basic soil properties as covariates. Such basic soil properties are plotted against Ksat in Figure 4, showing that Ksat decreases with increasing clay content and bulk density, and increases with sand content. The observed correlation between these soil properties and Ksat motivates their use as key variables for the estimation of PTFs. In this application, PTFs for Ksat were built on bulk density and sand and clay content. Organic carbon (OC) was not used to build the PTFs because (i) this information was missing for 15% of samples and (ii) the correlation between OC and Ksat was poor (i.e. 0.005).

Figure S1 shows the list of relative importance of the covariates the PTFs models obtained for temperate regions and laboratory-based measurements. Clay content was found to be the most important variable followed by sand and bulk density for temperate climate PTF. On the other hand, sand content was found to be the most important variable followed by clay and bulk density for the laboratory-based Ksat PTF. CCC, bias, and RMSE were respectively equal to 0.70, -0.002, and 0.69, for the temperate region based PTF; and to 0.73, 0.0004, and 0.65 for laboratory-based PTF.

PTF models derived for temperate and laboratory-based Ksat values overestimate Ksat for tropical and field-based Ksat values, respectively (see Figure 6b and Figure 5b). CCC, bias, and RMSE values were respectively equal to 0.52, 0.2, and 0.90 for tropical Ksat values, and to 0.10, 0.21, and 1.2 for field measured Ksat values.
Figure 3. Characterization of collected Ksat values. (a) Distribution of soil samples on the USDA soil texture triangle. The data points cover all soil textural classes and only few samples belong to the silt textural class. b) Distribution of Ksat values using broad soil texture classes (sandy soils: sand, loamy sand; loamy soils: sandy loam, loam, silt loam, silt, clay loam, sandy clay loam; clayey soils: sandy clay, silty clay, clay) based on laboratory and field methods. The number of samples provided on the top of the figure. The increase in Ksat values in clayey and loamy soils under field methods is likely due to the effect of soil structure. A t-test showed that all broad soil texture classes are significantly different from each other except clayey soils field Ksat values and sandy soils field Ksat values (see Table ST2). The violin plot (c) represents the range of Ksat values spanned by each data source. The dot represents the mean value, and the line represents the standard deviation for each data set. The numbers 1–9 refer to different sources and databases: 1 = Australia (Forrest et al., 1985), 2 = Belgium (Vereecken et al., 2017), 3 = China (Tian et al., 2017; Li et al., 2017), 4 = Florida (Grunwald, 2020), 5 = HYBRAS (Ottoni et al., 2018), 6 = SWIG (Rahmati et al., 2018), 7 = Tibetan Plateau (Zhao et al., 2018), 8 = UNSODA (Nemes et al., 2001), 9 = all other databases in Table 1. d) Distribution of Ksat based on soil textural classes with the number of samples shown on the top of the figure. The significance was also tested for each class using a t-test (Kim, 2015) and results are presented in the supplementary file.
4 Discussion

4.1 Laboratory vs field estimated Ksat: effect of soil structure

The Ksat values were, on average, higher for samples measured using field methods compared to laboratory methods for most soil texture classes (Table 5 and Figures 3b and 5). The difference in laboratory and field based Ksat values and higher range of Ksat values in fine textured soil is probably related to the effect of biologically-induced soil structure that might be neglected in laboratory measurements. The omission of soil structures in many laboratory samples limits the possibility to properly reproduce field observations that are likely to be more affected by the presence of biopores (Fatichi et al., 2020). In other words, variability in the Ksat values depends on the consideration (and existence) of soil structural pores by the measurement methods. Soil structural pores change the pore size distribution and subsequently affect Ksat values (Tuller and Or, 2002). Such an effect is more likely to be neglected in laboratory measurements compared to field studies. Presence or absence of large structural pores also depends on the scale of measurements (that is usually larger in the field). Mohanty et al. (1994), for example, compared three field methods and one laboratory method and found that the sample size affects the measurement of Ksat due to the presence and absence of open-ended pores. Similarly, Ghanbarian et al. (2017) showed that the sample dimensions (e.g., internal diameter and height) also impact Ksat. The authors further developed a sample dimension-dependent
Figure 5. The correlation between observed and predicted Ksat values obtained from (a, b) random forest (RF) models. The RF-based Pedotransfer function (PTF) model was fitted using data for laboratory measurements of Ksat and tested on both laboratory (a) and field (b) measurements. Results showed reasonable agreement (CCC = 0.73) using RF algorithms for laboratory measurements, but low CCC (0.10) for field measurements. PTFs developed based on laboratory measurements do not provide accurate estimates of Ksat measured in the field.

PTF and showed a better performance compared to other available PTFs in the literature. Likewise, Braud et al. (2017) used three field methods for Ksat measurements and found significant variation between these methods of measurements. Davis et al. (1996) presents the necessity to choose the most appropriate scale of measurement for a particular soil when undertaking conductivity measurements. The authors tested small cores (73 mm wide and 63 mm high) and large cores (22 mm wide and 300 mm high) using the constant head method in the laboratory and found the difference of 1 to 3 orders of magnitude.

4.2 Temperate vs tropical soils: effect of clay mineralogy

Results showed that PTFs obtained for temperate soils performed poorly for tropical soils (Figure 6), with Ksat being underestimated by the temperate-based PTFs. This result is in agreement with Tomasella et al. (2000) who derived PTFs using data from tropical Brazilian soils, which did not properly capture observations in temperate soils. We argue that the significant differences in the models validated for tropical and temperate soils are due to the differences in the soil-forming processes defining the clay type and mineralogy. In fact, Oxisols (highly weathered clay minerals in tropical regions) are turned into inactive (non-swelling) clay minerals as a result of high rainfall and temperatures. On the other hand, in the temperate regions, active (smectite) and moderately active clay minerals (illite) are the dominant clay minerals. These swelling clay minerals retain the water within internal structures with very low hydraulic conductivity. Therefore, such a difference in clay mineralogy is likely responsible for the underestimation of Ksat in tropical soils from PTFs obtained in temperate ones. In addition, soil
Figure 6. Correlation between observed and predicted Ksat values obtained from random forest (RF) model. The RF-based Pedotransfer function (PTF) model was obtained by fitting 6,637 training points obtained in a temperate-climate and tested on (a) temperate (1,659 samples) and (b) tropical testing points (1,111 samples). CCC is the concordance correlation coefficient. PTFs showed good performance (CCC = 0.70) for the temperate soil samples (including both laboratory and field measurements), but lower CCC values were obtained for tropical soil samples (0.52 for RF). PTFs determined for temperate regions cannot be easily transferred to tropical regions due to different soil forming processes.

structure formation processes may be different in tropical and temperate regions and intensify the differences between Ksat values measured in the two different climatic regions.

4.3 Limitations of SoilKsatDB

We have put an effort to combine laboratory and field data from most global regions. However, we acknowledge that there are still gaps in some regions such as Russia and higher northern latitudes in general, which may produce uncertainties in Ksat estimations in such regions. The SoilKsatDB could also be of limited use for fine-resolution applications because many data points were characterized by limited spatial accuracy and missing soil depth information. Specifically, the spatial accuracy of many points is between tens of meters to several kilometers (see the methodology sections regarding the extraction of the spatial locations using Google Earth). Many of the records in the SoilKsatDB come from legacy scientific reports and the original authors can not be traced and contacted, hence we advise to use this data with caution. In addition, in the SWIG database, the soil depth and measurement method information were not provided, and often one location was used to represent an entire watershed. We tried to revisit each publication and extract the most accurate coordinates of assumed sampling locations. In addition, we assumed that most of the samples were obtained from field measurements as authors used different infiltrometers to compute Ksat, so there might be few points in our SoilKsatDB that belong to laboratory measurements and that we have incorrectly assigned to field measurements.
For each measurement, a location accuracy (0-100 m = highly accurate, >10000 m = least accurate) was assigned based on the sampling location accuracy. The location accuracy can be used as a weight or probability argument in Machine Learning for Ksat mapping. We acknowledge that this was a rather subjective decision and a more objective way to assign weights would be to use the actual spatial positioning errors. Because these were not available for most of the datasets, we have opted for the definition of a location accuracy estimated from the available documentation.

4.4 Further developments

The advancement in remote sensing technology opens the doors to link the hydraulic properties with global environmental features. Using satellite-based maps of environmental properties, local information on vegetation, climate, and topography for specific areas, which are often ignored by basic PTFs, can be incorporated. For example, Sharma et al. (2006) developed PTFs using environmental variables such as topography and vegetation and concluded that these attributes, at finer spatial scales, were useful to capture the observed variations within the soil mapping units. Likewise, Szabó et al. (2019) used the random forest machine learning algorithm for mapping soil hydraulic properties and incorporated local environmental variable information.

5 Data availability

All collected data and related soil characteristics are provided online for reference and are available at ‘version 0.3’ https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3752721 (Gupta et al., 2020).

6 Summary and conclusions

We prepared a comprehensive global compilation of measured Ksat training point data (N = 13,267) by importing, quality controlling, and standardizing tabular data from existing soil profile databases and legacy reports. The produced SoilKsatDB covers a broad range of soil types and climatic regions and hence is useful for global soil modeling. A higher variation in Ksat values was observed in fine-textured soil compared to coarse-textured soils, indicating the effect of soil structure on Ksat. Moreover, Ksat values obtained from field measurements were generally higher than those from laboratory measurements, likely due to impact of soil structural pores at larger scale in field measurements.

The new database was applied to develop pedotransfer functions (PTFs) for Ksat using measurements in temperate climates and laboratory based soil samples using RF algorithms. PTFs developed for a certain climatic region (temperate) or measurement method (laboratory) could not be satisfactorily applied to estimate Ksat for other regions (tropical) or measurement method (field) due to the role of different soil forming processes (inactive clay minerals in tropical soils and impact of biopores in field measurements).
There are still some gaps in the geographical representation of sampling points, especially in Russia and the higher northern latitudes, that could induce uncertainty in global modeling. Therefore, the data set can be further improved by covering the missing areas and achieve better accuracy in the hydrological applications.

The SoilKsatDB was developed in R software and is available via 'version 0.3' https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3752721. We have made code and data publicly available to enable further developments and improvements as a collective effort.

Acknowledgements. The SoilKsatDB is a compilation of numerous existing datasets from which the most significant are: SWIG dataset (Rahmati et al., 2018), UNSODA (Leij et al., 1996; Nemes et al., 2001), and HYBRAS (Ottoni et al., 2018). The study was supported by ETH Zurich (Grant ETH-18 18-1). OpenGeoHub maintains an global repository of Earth System Science datasets at www.openlandmap.org. We thank Zhongwang Wei for helping in collecting the datasets and for insightful discussions. We acknowledge Samuel Bickel (ETH Zurich) for the help with High Performance Computing. We would also like to thank two anonymous reviewers and Dr. Attila Nemes for their constructive feedback to improve the manuscript.
References

Abagandura, G. O., Nasr, G. E.-D. M., and Moumen, N. M.: Influence of tillage practices on soil physical properties and growth and yield of maize in jabal al akhdar, Libya, Open Journal of Soil Science, 7, 118–132, 2017.

Amer, A.-M. M., Logsdon, S. D., and Davis, D.: Prediction of hydraulic conductivity as related to pore size distribution in unsaturated soils, Soil science, 174, 508–515, 2009.

Amoozegar, A.: A compact constant-head permeameter for measuring saturated hydraulic conductivity of the vadose zone, Soil Science Society of America Journal, 53, 1356–1361, 1989.

Amoozegar, A. and Warrick, A.: Hydraulic conductivity of saturated soils: field methods, Methods of Soil Analysis: Part 1 Physical and Mineralogical Methods, 5, 735–770, 1986.

Anapalli, S. S., Nielsen, D. C., Ma, L., Ahuja, L. R., Vigil, M. F., and Halvorson, A. D.: Effectiveness of RZWQM for simulating alternative Great Plains cropping systems, Agronomy journal, 97, 1183–1193, 2005.

Andrade, R. B.: The influence of bulk density on the hydraulic conductivity and water content-matric suction relation of two soils, 1971.

Arend, J. L.: Infiltration rates of forest soils in the Missouri Ozarks as affected by woods burning and litter removal, J. For., 39, 726–728, 1941.

Bagarello, V. and Sgroi, A.: Using the single-ring infiltrometer method to detect temporal changes in surface soil field-saturated hydraulic conductivity, Soil and Tillage research, 76, 13–24, 2004.

Baird, A. J.: Field estimation of macropore functioning and surface hydraulic conductivity in a fen peat, Hydrological Processes, 11, 287–295, 1997.

Baird, A. J., Low, R., Young, D., Swindles, G. T., Lopez, O. R., and Page, S.: High permeability explains the vulnerability of the carbon store in drained tropical peatlands, Geophysical Research Letters, 44, 1333–1339, 2017.

Bambra, A.: Soil loss estimation in experimental orchard at Nauni in Solan district of Himachal Pradesh, Ph.D. thesis, Dr. Yashwant Singh Parmar, University of horticulture and forestry, 2016.

Batjes, N. H.: Total carbon and nitrogen in the soils of the world, European journal of soil science, 47, 151–163, 1996.

Becker, R., Gebremichael, M., and Märker, M.: Impact of soil surface and subsurface properties on soil saturated hydraulic conductivity in the semi-arid Walnut Gulch Experimental Watershed, Arizona, USA, Geoderma, 322, 112–120, 2018.

Beyer, M., Gaj, M., Hamutoko, J. T., Koeniger, P., Wanke, H., and Himmelsbach, T.: Estimation of groundwater recharge via deuterium labelling in the semi-arid Cuvelai-Etosha Basin, Namibia, Isotopes in environmental and health studies, 51, 533–552, 2015.

Bhattacharyya, R., Prakash, V., Kundu, S., and Gupta, H.: Effect of tillage and crop rotations on pore size distribution and soil hydraulic conductivity in sandy clay loam soil of the Indian Himalayas, Soil and Tillage Research, 86, 129–140, 2006.

Blake, W. H., Theocharopoulos, S. P., Skoulidakis, N., Clark, P., Tountas, P., Hartley, R., and Amaxidis, Y.: Wildfire impacts on hillslope sediment and phosphorus yields, Journal of Soils and Sediments, 10, 671–682, 2010.

Bodhinayake, W., Si, B. C., and Noborio, K.: Determination of hydraulic properties in sloping landscapes from tension and double-ring infiltrometers, Vadose Zone Journal, 3, 964–970, 2004.

Boike, J., Roth, K., and Overduin, P. P.: Thermal and hydrologic dynamics of the active layer at a continuous permafrost site (Taymyr Peninsula, Siberia), Water Resources Research, 34, 355–363, 1998.

Bonell, M. and Williams, J.: The two parameters of the Philip infiltration equation: their properties and spatial and temporal heterogeneity in a red earth of tropical semi-arid Queensland, Journal of Hydrology, 87, 9–31, 1986.
Bonsu, M. and Masopeh, B.: Saturated hydraulic conductivity values of some forest soils of Ghana determined by a simple method, Ghana Journal of Agricultural Science, 29, 75–80, 1996.

Braud, I., Desprats, J.-F., Ayral, P.-A., Bouvier, C., and Vandervaere, J.-P.: Mapping topsoil field-saturated hydraulic conductivity from point measurements using different methods, Journal of Hydrology and Hydromechanics, 65, 264–275, 2017.

Breiman, L.: Random forests, Machine learning, 45, 5–32, 2001.

Bruand, A., Duval, O., and Cousin, I.: Estimation des propriétés de rétention en eau des sols à partir de la base de données SOLHYDRO: Une première proposition combinant le type d’horizon, sa texture et sa densité apparente., 2004.

Campbell, R. E., Baker, J., Ffolliott, P. F., Larson, F. R., and Avery, C. C.: Wildfire effects on a ponderosa pine ecosystem: an Arizona case study, USDA For. Serv. Res. Pap. RM-191. Fort Collins, CO: US Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Rocky Mountain Forest and Range Experimental Station. 12 p., 1977.

Casalicchio, G., Bossek, J., Lang, M., Kirchhoff, D., Kerschke, P., Hofner, B., Seibold, H., Vanschoren, J., and Bischl, B.: OpenML: An R package to connect to the machine learning platform OpenML, Computational Statistics, pp. 1–15, 2017.

Chang, Y.-J.: Predictions of saturated hydraulic conductivity dynamics in a midwestern agricultural watershed, Iowa, 2010.

Chief, K., Ferré, T., and Nijssen, B.: Correlation between air permeability and saturated hydraulic conductivity: Unburned and burned soils, Soil Science Society of America Journal, 72, 1501–1509, 2008.

Cisneros, J., Cantero, J., and Cantero, A.: Vegetation, soil hydrophysical properties, and grazing relationships in saline-sodic soils of Central Argentina, Canadian Journal of Soil Science, 79, 399–409, 1999.

Coelho, M. A.: Spatial variability of water related soil physical properties., 1974.

Conedera, M., Peter, L., Marxer, P., Forster, F., Rickenmann, D., and Re, L.: Consequences of forest fires on the hydrogeological response of mountain catchments: a case study of the Riale Buffaga, Ticino, Switzerland, Earth Surface Processes and Landforms: The Journal of the British Geomorphological Research Group, 28, 117–129, 2003.

Cornelis, W. M., Ronsyn, J., Van Meirvenne, M., and Hartmann, R.: Evaluation of pedotransfer functions for predicting the soil moisture retention curve, Soil Science Society of America Journal, 65, 638–648, 2001.

Daniel, S., Gabiri, G., Kirimi, F., Glasner, B., Näschke, K., Leemhuis, C., Steinbach, S., and Mtei, K.: Spatial distribution of soil hydrophysical properties in the Kilombero floodplain, Tanzania, Hydrology, 4, 57, 2017.

Davis, S. H., Vertessy, R. A., Dunkerley, D. L., Mein, R. G., et al.: The influence of scale on the measurement of saturated hydraulic conductivity in forest soils, in: National Conference Publication-Institution of Engineers Australia NCP, vol. 1, pp. 103–108, Institution of Engineers, Australia, 1996.

Deshmukh, H., Chandran, P., Pal, D., Ray, S., Bhattacharyya, T., and Potdar, S.: A pragmatic method to estimate plant available water capacity (PAWC) of rainfed cracking clay soils (Vertisols) of Maharashtra, Central India, Clay Res, 33, 1–14, 2014.

Ebel, B. A., Moody, J. A., and Martin, D. A.: Hydrologic conditions controlling runoff generation immediately after wildfire, Water Resources Research, 48, 2012.

El-Shafei, Y., Al-Darby, A., Shalaby, A., and Al-Omran, A.: Impact of a highly swelling gel-forming conditioner (acryhope) upon water movement in uniform sandy soils, Arid Land Research and Management, 8, 33–50, 1994.

Elnaggar, A.: Spatial Variability of Soil Physiochemical Properties in Bahariya Oasis, Egypt, Egyptian J. of Soil Sci. (EJSS), 57, 313–328, https://doi.org/10.21608/EJSS.2017.4438, 2017.

Fatichi, S., Or, D., Walko, R., Vereecken, H., Young, M. H., Ghezzehei, T. A., Hengl, T., Kollet, S., Agam, N., and Avissar, R.: Soil structure is an important omission in Earth System Models, Nature Communications, 11, 2020.
Ferreira, A., Coelho, C., Boulet, A., and Lopes, F.: Temporal patterns of solute loss following wildfires in Central Portugal, International Journal of Wildland Fire, 14, 401–412, 2005.

Forrest, J., Beatty, H., Hignett, C., Pickering, J., and Williams, R.: Survey of the physical properties of wheatland soils in eastern Australia, 1985.

Ganiyu, S., Rabiu, J., and Olatoye, R.: Predicting hydraulic conductivity around septic tank systems using soil physico-chemical properties and determination of principal soil factors by multivariate analysis, Journal of King Saud University-Science, 2018.

Ghanbarian, B., Taslimitehrani, V., and Pachepsky, Y. A.: Accuracy of sample dimension-dependent pedotransfer functions in estimation of soil saturated hydraulic conductivity, Catena, 149, 374–380, 2017.

Gliński, J., Ostrowski, J., Stepniewska, Z., and Stepniewski, W.: Soil sample bank representing mineral soils of Poland, Problemy Agrofizyki (Poland), 1991.

Gliński, J., Stepniewski, W., Stepniewska, Z., Włodarczyk, T., Brzezińska, M., et al.: Characteristics of aeration properties of selected soil profiles from central Europe., International agrophysics, 14, 17–31, 2000.

Greenwood, W. and Buttle, J.: Effects of reforestation on near-surface saturated hydraulic conductivity in a managed forest landscape, southern Ontario, Canada, Ecohydrology, 7, 45–55, 2014.

Grunwald, S.: Florida soil characterization data, Soil and water science department, IFAS-Institute of food and agriculture science, University of Florida, http://soils.ifas.ufl.edu, 2020.

Gupta, R., Rudra, R., Dickinson, W., Patni, N., and Wall, G.: Comparison of saturated hydraulic conductivity measured by various field methods, Transactions of the ASAE, 36, 51–55, 1993.

Gupta, S., Hengl, T., Lehmann, P., Bonetti, S., and Or, D.: SoilKsatDB: a global compilation of soil saturated hydraulic conductivity measurements, Zenodo, https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3752721, 2020.

Gwenzi, W., Hinz, C., Holmes, K., Phillips, I. R., and Mullins, I. J.: Field-scale spatial variability of saturated hydraulic conductivity on a recently constructed artificial ecosystem, Geoderma, 166, 43–56, 2011.

Habecker, M., McSweeney, K., and Madison, F.: Identification and genesis of fragipans in Ochrepts of north central Wisconsin, Soil Science Society of America Journal, 54, 139–146, 1990.

Habel, A. Y.: The role of climate on the aggregate stability and soil erodibility of selected El-Jabal Al-Akhdar soils-Libya, Alexandria Journal of Agricultural Research, 58, 261–271, 2013.

Hamel, P., Falinski, K., Sharp, R., Auerbach, D. A., Sánchez-Canales, M., and Dennedy-Frank, P. J.: Sediment delivery modeling in practice: Comparing the effects of watershed characteristics and data resolution across hydroclimatic regions, Science of the Total Environment, 580, 1381–1388, 2017.

Hao, M., Zhang, J., Meng, M., Chen, H. Y., Guo, X., Liu, S., and Ye, L.: Impacts of changes in vegetation on saturated hydraulic conductivity of soil in subtropical forests, Scientific reports, 9, 8372, 2019.

Hardie, M. A., Cotching, W. E., Doyle, R. B., Holz, G., Lisson, S., and Mattern, K.: Effect of antecedent soil moisture on preferential flow in a texture-contrast soil, Journal of Hydrology, 398, 191–201, 2011.

Haverkamp, R., Ross, P., Smettem, K., and Parlange, J.: Three-dimensional analysis of infiltration from the disc infiltrometer: 2. Physically based infiltration equation, Water Resources Research, 30, 2931–2935, 1994.

Haverkamp, R., Zammit, C., Bouraoui, F., Rajkai, K., Arrúe, J., and Heckmann, N.: GRIZZLY: Grenoble catalogue of soils: Survey of soil field data and description of particle-size, soil water retention and hydraulic conductivity functions, Lab. d’Etude des Transferts en Hydrol. et Environ., Grenoble, France, 1998.
Helbig, M., Boike, J., Langer, M., Schreiber, P., Runke, B. R., and Kutzbach, L.: Spatial and seasonal variability of polygonal tundra water balance: Lena River Delta, northern Siberia (Russia), Hydrogeology Journal, 21, 133–147, 2013.

Hiederer, R., Jones, R. J., and Daroussin, J.: Soil Profile Analytical Database for Europe (SPADE): reconstruction and validation of the measured data (SPADE/M), Geografisk Tidsskrift-Danish Journal of Geography, 106, 71–85, 2006.

Hinton, H.: Land Management Controls on Hydraulic Conductivity of an Urban Farm in Atlanta, GA, 2016.

Hodnett, M. and Tomasella, J.: Marked differences between van Genuchten soil water-retention parameters for temperate and tropical soils: a new water-retention pedo-transfer functions developed for tropical soils, Geoderma, 108, 155–180, 2002.

Horn, A., Stumpfe, A., Kues, J., Zinner, H.-J., and Fleige, H.: Die Labordatenbank des Niedersächsischen Bodeninformationssystems (NIBIS)- Teil: Fachinformationssystem Bodenkunde, Geologisches Jahrbuch. Reihe A, Allgemeine und regionale Geologie BR Deutschland und Nachbargebiete, Tektonik, Stratigraphie, Paläontologie, pp. 59–97, 1991.

Houghton, T. B.: Hydrogeologic characterization of an alpine glacial till, Snowy Range, Wyoming, Ph.D. thesis, Colorado State University. Libraries, 2011.

Hu, W., She, D., Shao, M., Chun, K. P., and Si, B.: Effects of initial soil water content and saturated hydraulic conductivity variability on small watershed runoff simulation using LISEM, Hydrological Sciences Journal, 60, 1137–1154, 2015.

Imeson, A., Verstraten, J., Van Mulligen, E., and Sevink, J.: The effects of fire and water repellency on infiltration and runoff under Mediterranean type forest, Catena, 19, 345–361, 1992.

Jabro, J.: Estimation of saturated hydraulic conductivity of soils from particle size distribution and bulk density data, Transactions of the ASAE, 35, 557–560, 1992.

Jarvis, N., Koestel, J., Messing, I., Moeys, J., and Lindahl, A.: Influence of soil, land use and climatic factors on the hydraulic conductivity of soil, Hydrology and Earth System Sciences, 17, 5185–5195, 2013.

Johansen, M. P., Hakonson, T. E., and Breshears, D. D.: Post-fire runoff and erosion from rainfall simulation: contrasting forests with shrublands and grasslands, Hydrological processes, 15, 2953–2965, 2001.

Kanemasu, E.: Soil Hydraulic Conductivity Data (FIFE), ORNL Distributed Active Archive Center, https://doi.org/10.3334/ORNLDAAC/107, 1994.

Katimon, A. and Hassan, A. M. M.: Field hydraulic conductivity of some Malaysian peat, Malaysian Journal of Civil Engineering, 10, 1997.

Keisling, T. C.: Precision with which selected physical properties of similar soils can be estimated, Ph.D. thesis, Oklahoma State University, 1974.

Kelly, T. J., Baird, A. J., Roucoux, K. H., Baker, T. R., Honorio Coronado, E. N., Ríos, M., and Lawson, I. T.: The high hydraulic conductivity of three wooded tropical peat swamps in northeast Peru: measurements and implications for hydrological function, Hydrological Processes, 28, 3373–3387, 2014.

Kim, T. K.: T test as a parametric statistic, Korean journal of anesthesiology, 68, 540, 2015.

Kirby, J., Kingham, R., and Cortes, M.: Texture, density and hydraulic conductivity of some soils in San Luis province, Argentina, Ciencia del suelo, 19, 20–28, 2001.

Klute, A.: Laboratory measurement of hydraulic conductivity of saturated soil, Methods of Soil Analysis: Part 1 Physical and Mineralogical Properties, Including Statistics of Measurement and Sampling, 9, 210–221, 1965.

Klute, A. and Dirksen, C.: Hydraulic conductivity and diffusivity: Laboratory methods, Methods of Soil Analysis: Part 1 Physical and Mineralogical Methods, 5, 687–734, 1986.

Kool, J., Albrecht, K. A., Parker, J., Baker, J., et al.: Physical and chemical characterization of the Groseclose soil mapping unit, 1986.
Krahmer, U., Hennings, V., Müller, U., and Schrey, H.-P.: Ermittlung bodenphysikalischer Kennwerte in Abhängigkeit von Bodenart, Lagerungsdichte und Humusgehalt, Zeitschrift für Pflanzenernährung und Bodenkunde, 158, 323–331, 1995.

Kramarenko, V., Brakorenko, N., and Molokov, V.: Hydraulic conductivity of peat in Western Siberia, in: E3S Web of Conferences, vol. 98, p. 11003, EDP Sciences, 2019.

Kutiel, P., Lavee, H., Segev, M., and Benyamini, Y.: The effect of fire-induced surface heterogeneity on rainfall-runoff-erosion relationships in an eastern Mediterranean ecosystem, Israel, Catena, 25, 77–87, 1995.

Kutilek, M. and Krejca, M.: Three-parameter infiltration equation of Philip type, Vodohosp. Čas, 35, 52–61, 1987.

Lamara, M. and Derriche, Z.: Prediction of unsaturated hydraulic properties of dune sand on drying and wetting paths, Electron. J. Geotech. Eng, 13, 1–19, 2008.

Lawrence, I. and Lin, K.: A concordance correlation coefficient to evaluate reproducibility, Biometrics, pp. 255–268, 1989.

Leeds-Harrison, P., Youngs, E., and Uddin, B.: A device for determining the sorptivity of soil aggregates, European Journal of Soil Science, 45, 269–272, 1994.

Leij, F., Alves, W., Van Genuchten, M. T., and Williams, J.: The UNSODA Unsaturated Soil Hydraulic Database; User’s Manual, Version 1.0, Rep. EPA/600/R-96, 95, 103, 1996.

López, O., Jadoon, K., and Missimer, T.: Method of relating grain size distribution to hydraulic conductivity in dune sands to assist in assessing managed aquifer recharge projects: Wadi Khulays dune field, western Saudi Arabia, Water, 7, 6411–6426, 2015.

Mahapatra, S. and Jha, M. K.: On the estimation of hydraulic conductivity of layered vadose zones with limited data availability, Journal of Earth System Science, 128, 75, 2019.

Martin, D. A. and Moody, J. A.: Comparison of soil infiltration rates in burned and unburned mountainous watersheds, Hydrological Processes, 15, 2893–2903, 2001.

McKenzie, N., Jacquier, D., and Gregory, L.: Online soil information systems–recent Australian experience, in: Digital soil mapping with limited data, pp. 283–290, Springer, 2008.

Mohanty, B., Kanwar, R. S., and Everts, C.: Comparison of saturated hydraulic conductivity measurement methods for a glacial-till soil, Soil Science Society of America Journal, 58, 672–677, 1994.

Mohsenipour, M. and Shahid, S.: Estimation OF saturated hydraulic conductivity: A Review, Malasia: Academia Edu. Recuperado de http://bit.ly/2WSxIFw, 2016.

Mott, J., Bridge, B., and Arndt, W.: Soil seals in tropical tall grass pastures of northern Australia, Soil Research, 17, 483–494, 1979.

Mualem, Y.: Catalogue of the hydraulic properties of unsaturated soils, Technion Israel Institute of Technology, Technion Research & Development, 1976.

Muñoz-Carpena, R., Regalado, C. M., Álvarez-Benedi, J., and Bartoli, F.: Field evaluation of the new Philip-Dunne permeameter for measuring saturated hydraulic conductivity, Soil Science, 167, 9–24, 2002.

Naik, A. P., Ghosh, B., and Pekkat, S.: Estimating soil hydraulic properties using mini disk infiltrometer, ISH Journal of Hydraulic Engineering, 25, 62–70, 2019.
National Cooperative Soil Survey: National cooperative soil survey characterization database, United States Department of Agriculture, Natural Resources Conservation, Lincoln, NE, 2016.

Nemes, A.: Unsaturated soil hydraulic database of Hungary: HUNSODA, Agrokémia és Talajtan, 51, 17–26, 2002.

Nemes, A.: Databases of soil physical and hydraulic properties, Encyclopedia of agrophysics, pp. 194–199, 2011.

Nemes, A. d., Schaap, M., Leij, F., and Wösten, J.: Description of the unsaturated soil hydraulic database UNSODA version 2.0, Journal of Hydrology, 251, 151–162, 2001.

Nielsen, D., Biggar, J., and Erh, K.: “Spatial variability of field-measured soil water properties. Hilgardia, 42 (7), 215–259., 1973.

Niemeyer, R., Fremier, A. K., Heinse, R., Chávez, W., and DeClerck, F. A.: Woody vegetation increases saturated hydraulic conductivity in dry tropical Nicaragua, Vadose Zone Journal, 13, 2014.

Nyman, P., Sheridan, G. J., Smith, H. G., and Lane, P. N.: Evidence of debris flow occurrence after wildfire in upland catchments of south-east Australia, Geomorphology, 125, 383–401, 2011.

Ottoni, M. V., Ottoni Filho, T. B., Schaap, M. G., Lopes-Assad, M. L. R., and Rotunno Filho, O. C.: Hydrophysical database for Brazilian soils (HYBRAS) and pedotransfer functions for water retention, Vadose Zone Journal, 17, 2018.

Ouattara, M.: Variation of saturated hydraulic conductivity with depth for selected profiles of Tillman-Hollister soil, Ph.D. thesis, Oklahoma State University, 1977.

Päivänen, J. et al.: Hydraulic conductivity and water retention in peat soils., Suomen metsätieteellinen seura, 1973.

Parks, D. S. and Cundy, T. W.: Soil hydraulic characteristics of a small southwest Oregon watershed following high-intensity wildfires, in: In: Berg, Neil H. tech. coord. Proceedings of the Symposium on Fire and Watershed Management: October 26-28, 1988, Sacramento, California. Gen. Tech. Rep. PSW-109. Berkeley, Calif.: US Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Pacific Southwest Forest and Range Experiment Station: 63-67, vol. 109, 1989.

Price, K., Jackson, C. R., and Parker, A. J.: Variation of surficial soil hydraulic properties across land uses in the southern Blue Ridge Mountains, North Carolina, USA, Journal of Hydrology, 383, 256–268, 2010.

Purdy, S. and Suryasasmita, V.: Comparison of hydraulic conductivity test methods for landfill clay liners, in: Advances in Unsaturated Soil, Seepage, and Environmental Geotechnics, pp. 364–372, 2006.

Quinton, W. L., Hayashi, M., and Carey, S. K.: Peat hydraulic conductivity in cold regions and its relation to pore size and geometry, Hydrological Processes: An International Journal, 22, 2829–2837, 2008.

R Core Team: R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing, R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria, http://www.R-project.org/, 2013.

Rab, M.: Soil physical and hydrological properties following logging and slash burning in the Eucalyptus regnans forest of southeastern Australia, Forest Ecology and Management, 84, 159–176, 1996.

Radcliffe, D., West, L., Ware, G., and Bruce, R.: Infiltration in adjacent Cecil and Pacolet soils, Soil Science Society of America Journal, 54, 1739–1743, 1990.

Rahimy, P.: Effects of Soil Depth and Saturated Hydraulic Conductivity Spatial Variation on Runoff Simulation by the Limburg Soil Erosion Model, LISEM: A Case Study in Faucon Catchment, France, University of Twente Faculty of Geo-Information and Earth Observation (ITC), 2011.

Rahmati, M., Weihermüller, L., Vanderborgh, J., Pachepsky, Y. A., Mao, L., Sadeghi, S. H., Moosavi, N., Kheirfam, H., Montzka, C., Van Looy, K., et al.: Development and analysis of the Soil Water Infiltration Global database, 2018.

Ramlí, M.: Management of Groundwater Resources from Peat in Sarawak, 1999.
Ravi, S., Wang, L., Kaseke, K. F., Buynevich, I. V., and Marais, E.: Ecohydrological interactions within “fairy circles” in the Namib Desert: Revisiting the self-organization hypothesis, Journal of Geophysical Research: Biogeosciences, 122, 405–414, 2017.
Rawls, W. J., Brakensiek, D. L., and Saxtonn, K.: Estimation of soil water properties, Transactions of the ASAE, 25, 1316–1320, 1982.
Reynolds, W. and Elrick, D.: In situ measurement of field-saturated hydraulic conductivity, sorptivity, and the α-parameter using the Guelph permeameter, Soil science, 140, 292–302, 1985.
Reynolds, W., Bowman, B., Brunke, R., Drury, C., and Tan, C.: Comparison of tension infiltrometer, pressure infiltrometer, and soil core estimates of saturated hydraulic conductivity, Soil Science Society of America Journal, 64, 478–484, 2000.
Richard, F. and Lüscher, P.: Physikalische Eigenschaften von Böden der Schweiz. Lokalformen. Eidg. Anstalt für das forstliche Versuchswe- sen. Sonderserie., 1983/87.
Robbins, C. W.: Hydraulic conductivity and moisture retention characteristics of southern Idaho’s silt loam soils, 1977.
Rodrigues, M. and de la Riva, J.: An insight into machine-learning algorithms to model human-caused wildfire occurrence, Environmental Modelling & Software, 57, 192–201, 2014.
Romano, N. and Palladino, M.: Prediction of soil water retention using soil physical data and terrain attributes, Journal of Hydrology, 265, 56–75, 2002.
Rubel, F. and Kottek, M.: Observed and projected climate shifts 1901–2100 depicted by world maps of the Köppen-Geiger climate classification, Meteorologische Zeitschrift, 19, 135–141, 2010.
Rycroft, D., Williams, D., and Ingram, H.: The transmission of water through peat: I. Review, The Journal of Ecology, pp. 535–556, 1975.
Sanzeni, A., Colleselli, F., and Grazioi, D.: Specific surface and hydraulic conductivity of fine-grained soils, Journal of Geotechnical and Geoenvironmental Engineering, 139, 1828–1832, 2013.
Sayok, A., Ayob, K., Melling, L., Goh, K., Uyo, L., and Hatano, R.: Hydraulic conductivity and moisture characteristics of tropical peatland-preliminary investigation, Malaysian Society of Soil Science (MSSS), 2007.
Schindler, U. G. and Müller, L.: Soil hydraulic functions of international soils measured with the Extended Evaporation Method (EEM) and the HYPROP device, Open Data Journal for Agricultural Research, 3, 2017.
Schlüter, S., Albrecht, L., Schwärzel, K., and Kreiselmeier, J.: Long-term effects of conventional tillage and no-tillage on saturated and near-saturated hydraulic conductivity—Can their prediction be improved by pore metrics obtained with X-ray CT?, Geoderma, 361, 114 082, 2020.
Scotter, D., Clothier, B., and Harper, E.: Measuring saturated hydraulic conductivity and sorptivity using twin rings, Soil Research, 20, 295–304, 1982.
Sepehrnia, N., Hajabbasi, M. A., Afyuni, M., and Lichner, L.: Extent and persistence of water repellency in two Iranian soils, Biologia, 71, 1137–1143, 2016.
Sharma, S. K., Mohanty, B. P., and Zhu, J.: Including topography and vegetation attributes for developing pedotransfer functions, Soil Science Society of America Journal, 70, 1430–1440, 2006.
Sharratt, B. S.: Water retention, bulk density, particle size, and thermal and hydraulic conductivity of arable soils in interior Alaska, 1990.
Simmons, L. A.: Soil hydraulic and physical properties as affected by logging management, Ph.D. thesis, University of Missouri–Columbia, 2014.
Singh, I., Awasthi, O., Sharma, B., More, T., Meena, S., et al.: Soil properties, root growth, water-use efficiency in brinjal (Solanum melongena) production and economics as affected by soil water conservation practices, Indian Journal of Agricultural Sciences, 81, 760, 2011.
Singh, R., Van Dam, J., and Feddes, R. A.: Water productivity analysis of irrigated crops in Sirsa district, India, Agricultural Water Management, 82, 253–278, 2006.

Smettem, K. and Ross, P.: Measurement and prediction of water movement in a field soil: The matrix-macropore dichotomy, Hydrological processes, 6, 1–10, 1992.

Sonneveld, M., Everson, T., and Veldkamp, A.: Multi-scale analysis of soil erosion dynamics in Kwazulu-Natal, South Africa, Land Degradation & Development, 16, 287–301, 2005.

Soracco, C. G., Lozano, L. A., Sarli, G. O., Gelati, P. R., and Filgueira, R. R.: Anisotropy of saturated hydraulic conductivity in a soil under conservation and no-till treatments, Soil and Tillage Research, 109, 18–22, 2010.

Southard, R. and Buol, S.: Subsoil saturated hydraulic conductivity in relation to soil properties in the North Carolina Coastal Plain, Soil Science Society of America Journal, 52, 1091–1094, 1988.

Sutejo, Y., Saggaff, A., Rahayu, W., et al.: Hydraulic conductivity and compressibility characteristics of fibrous peat, in: IOP Conference Series: Materials Science and Engineering, vol. 620, p. 012053, IOP Publishing, 2019.

Szabó, B., Szatmári, G., Takács, K., Laborczi, A., Makó, A., Rajkai, K., and Pásztor, L.: Mapping soil hydraulic properties using random-forest-based pedotransfer functions and geostatistics, Hydrology and Earth System Sciences, 23, 2615–2635, 2019.

Takahashi, H.: Studies on microclimate and hydrology of peat swamp forest in Central Kalimantan, Indonesia, in: Biodiversity and Sustainability of Tropical peatlands, Samara Publishing Limited, 1997.

Terzaghi, K.: Geotechnical investigation and testing-Laboratory testing of soil-Part 5: Incremental loading oedometer test 2, W3C XML, 1, 2006, 2004.

Tete-Mensah, I.: Evaluation of Some Physical and Chemical Properties of Soils Under two Agroforestrv Practices, Ph.D. thesis, University of Ghana, 1993.

Tian, J., Zhang, B., He, C., and Yang, L.: Variability in soil hydraulic conductivity and soil hydrological response under different land covers in the mountainous area of the Heihe River Watershed, Northwest China, Land degradation & development, 28, 1437–1449, 2017.

Tomasella, J., Hodnett, M. G., and Rossato, L.: Pedotransfer functions for the estimation of soil water retention in Brazilian soils, 2000.

Tomasella, J., Pachepsky, Y., Crestana, S., and Rawls, W.: Comparison of two techniques to develop pedotransfer functions for water retention, Soil Science Society of America Journal, 67, 1085–1092, 2003.

Tuller, M. and Or, D.: Unsaturated Hydraulic Conductivity of Structured Porous MediaA Review of Liquid Configuration–Based Models, Vadose Zone Journal, 1, 14–37, 2002.

Varela, M., Benito, E., and Keizer, J.: Influence of wildfire severity on soil physical degradation in two pine forest stands of NW Spain, Catena, 133, 342–348, 2015.

Verburg, K., Bridge, B. J., Bristow, K. L., and Keating, B. A.: Properties of selected soils in the Gooburrum–Moore Park area of Bundaberg, CSIRO Land and Water Technical Report, 9, 77, 2001.

Vereecken, H., Weynants, M., Javaux, M., Pachepsky, Y., Schaap, M., Genuchten, M. T., et al.: Using pedotransfer functions to estimate the van Genuchten–Mualem soil hydraulic properties: A review, Vadose Zone Journal, 9, 795–820, 2010.

Vereecken, H., Van Looy, K., Weynants, M., and Javaux, M.: Soil retention and conductivity curve data base sDB, link to MATLAB files, 2017.

Vieira, B. C. and Fernandes, N. F.: Landslides in Rio de Janeiro: the role played by variations in soil hydraulic conductivity, Hydrological Processes, 18, 791–805, 2004.
Vogeler, I., Carrick, S., Cichota, R., and Lilburne, L.: Estimation of soil subsurface hydraulic conductivity based on inverse modelling and soil morphology, Journal of Hydrology, 574, 373–382, 2019.

Waddington, J. and Roulet, N.: Groundwater flow and dissolved carbon movement in a boreal peatland, Journal of Hydrology, 191, 122–138, 1997.

Wang, T., Zlotnik, V. A., Wedin, D., and Wally, K. D.: Spatial trends in saturated hydraulic conductivity of vegetated dunes in the Nebraska Sand Hills: Effects of depth and topography, Journal of Hydrology, 349, 88–97, 2008.

Weynants, M., Montanarella, L., Toth, G., Arnoldussen, A., Anaya Romero, M., Bilas, G., Borresen, T., Cornelis, W., Daroussin, J., Gonçalves, M. D. C., et al.: European HYdropedological Data Inventory (EU-HYDI), EUR Scientific and Technical Research Series, 2013.

Wösten, J., Pachepsky, Y. A., and Rawls, W.: Pedotransfer functions: bridging the gap between available basic soil data and missing soil hydraulic characteristics, Journal of Hydrology, 251, 123–150, 2001.

Wösten, J. et al.: The HYPRES database of hydraulic properties of European soils., Advances in GeoEcology, pp. 135–143, 2000.

Wright, M. N. and Ziegler, A.: Ranger: a fast implementation of random forests for high dimensional data in C++ and R, arXiv preprint arXiv:1508.04409, 2015.

Yao, S., Zhang, T., Zhao, C., and Liu, X.: Saturated hydraulic conductivity of soils in the Horqin Sand Land of Inner Mongolia, northern China, Environmental monitoring and assessment, 185, 6013–6021, 2013.

Yasin, S. and Yulnafatmawita, Y.: Effects of Slope Position on Soil Physico-chemical Characteristics Under Oil Palm Plantation in Wet Tropical Area, West Sumatra Indonesia, AGRIVITA, Journal of Agricultural Science, 40, 328–337, 2018.

Yoon, S. W.: A measure of soil structure derived from water retention properties: A kullback-Leibler distance approach, Ph.D. thesis, Rutgers University-Graduate School-New Brunswick, 2009.

Zakaria, S.: Water management in deep peat soils in Malaysia, Ph.D. thesis, Cranfield University, 1992.

Zhang, S., Xiahou, Y., Tang, H., Huang, L., Liu, X., and Wu, Q.: Study on the spatially variable saturated hydraulic conductivity and deformation behavior of accumulation reservoir landslide Based on surface nuclear magnetic resonance survey, Advances in civil engineering, 2018.

Zhao, H., Zeng, Y., Lv, S., and Su, Z.: Analysis of soil hydraulic and thermal properties for land surface modeling over the Tibetan Plateau, Earth system science data, 10, 1031, 2018.

28