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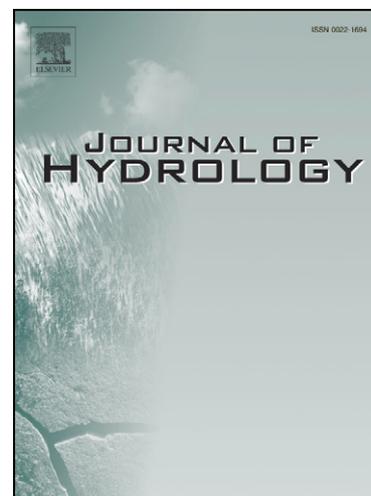
Are Preferential Flow Paths Perpetuated by Microbial Activity in the Soil Matrix? - A Review

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PII: S0022-1694(09)00842-7
DOI: [10.1016/j.jhydrol.2009.12.048](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2009.12.048)
Reference: HYDROL 16969

To appear in: *Journal of Hydrology*

Received Date: 2 May 2009
Revised Date: 26 October 2009
Accepted Date: 29 December 2009



Please cite this article as: Morales, V.L., Parlange, J.-Yves, Steenhuis, T.S., Are Preferential Flow Paths Perpetuated by Microbial Activity in the Soil Matrix? - A Review, *Journal of Hydrology* (2010), doi: [10.1016/j.jhydrol.2009.12.048](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2009.12.048)

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1 **Are Preferential Flow Paths Perpetuated by Microbial Activity in the Soil Matrix?**

2 **- A Review.**

3

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13

14 **Abstract**

15 Recently, the interactions between soil structure and microbes have been associated with
16 water transport, retention and preferential or column flow development. Of particular
17 significance is the potential impact of microbial extracellular polymeric substances (EPS)
18 on soil porosity (i.e., hydraulic conductivity reduction or bioclogging) and of exudates
19 from biota, including bacteria, fungi, roots and earthworms on the degree of soil water
20 repellency. These structural and surface property changes create points of wetting
21 instability, which under certain infiltrating conditions can often result in the formation of
22 persistent preferential flow paths. Moreover, distinct differences in physical and chemical
23 properties between regions of water flow (preferential flow paths) and no-flow (soil

24 matrix) provide a unique set of environmental living conditions for adaptable
25 microorganisms to exist. In this review, special consideration is given to: 1) the
26 functional significance of microbial activity in the host porous medium in terms of
27 feedback mechanisms instigated by irregular water availability, and 2) the related
28 physical and chemical conditions that force the organization and formation of unique
29 microbial habitats in unsaturated soils that prompt and potentially perpetuate the
30 formation of preferential flow paths in the vadose zone.

31

32 **Key Words**

33 Preferential flow paths, finger flow, column flow, extracellular polymeric substances
34 (EPS), bioclogging, water-repellent soils, hydrophobic compounds, fungal exudates.

35

36 **1. Introduction and Background**

37 It is widely accepted from well known field studies that preferential flow is the
38 rule rather than the exception in a wide variety of soils (Dekker and Ritsema, 1994; Flury
39 et al., 1994; Steenhuis et al., 1996; Ritsema, 1999). Additionally, preferential flow is a
40 significant transport mechanism that may account for the large number of inaccuracies in
41 water and solute transport predictions (Ritsema and Dekker, 2000). The rising concern
42 about preferential flow (previously referred to as fingering, and recently redefined as
43 column flow in the field) of water in soil is mainly due to the agricultural impacts of
44 reduced soil water retention and bypass of water through the root zone; thus affecting
45 seed emergence, plant growth, and consequently crop yield. In addition, preferential flow
46 is directly implicated with increased risk of groundwater contamination (Bauters et al.,

47 2000; Wang et al., 2000; Doerr et al., 2007) and general leaching of agrochemicals into
48 the subsurface. Moreover, localized dry spots (LDS) in golf greens are a result of
49 unwettable soil patches between soil regions that experience preferential flow, and are
50 commonly treated with wetting agents (Kostka, 2000). The ubiquitous occurrence of
51 preferential flow throughout the world, independent of climate type, land use, and soil
52 type and texture (Andreini and Steenhuis, 1990; Dekker and Ritsema, 1996a; Baveye et
53 al., 1998a; Ritsema, 1999; Doerr et al., 2006, 2007) has proven that it is a common field
54 phenomenon.

55 Infiltration patterns of preferential flow of the column type are distinct as shown
56 in the exposed trench of Figure 1. This phenomenon is most commonly attributed to the
57 onset of flow instability at the wetting front of a porous medium, which in natural fields
58 tends to be heterogeneous, layered, and often macroporous. The principal cause of
59 column flow, as demonstrated in well characterized and homogeneous media laboratory
60 experiments, is associated with saturation overshoot at the fingertip (DiCarlo, 2004).
61 Here, the region directly behind the wetting front has a high and uniform water
62 saturation, called the finger tip, and is followed by a second region with low and non-
63 uniform water saturation, called the finger tail. However, saturation overshoot does not
64 occur at very low water fluxes or fluxes near the saturated conductivity of the medium.
65 Under field conditions column flow can be enhanced by air entrapment, soil layering
66 (i.e., drastic changes in hydraulic conductivity layers), soil macropores, surface
67 desaturation, and soil water repellency (Bauters et al., 2000; Wang et al., 2000; Or et al.,
68 2007a). In addition, variable environmental factors that affect soil biological activity
69 (e.g., temperature, pH, precipitation) further complicate the system by stimulating certain

70 responses that can induced localized and sporadic water repellence and alter the porosity
71 of the soil. Both, abiotic and biological derived disturbances of the medium promote
72 column flow. It is thus critical to recognize: how preferential flow is initiated, how the
73 flow patterns affect the activity of the soil fauna, and how biological responses to
74 environmental changes affect preferential flow to better understand water transport and
75 retention in soils prone to it (Feeney et al., 2004; 2006; Doerr et al., 2007).

76 Coating of water-repellent compounds on some soil minerals or soil aggregate
77 surfaces is a result of the slow accumulation of potentially hydrophobic organic
78 compounds produced by plant root exudates, subsurface waxes from plant leaves, and
79 fungal and microbial by-products (Hallett and Young, 1999; Doerr et al., 2000; White et
80 al., 2000; Mainwaring et al., 2004). Furthermore, the soil grain's surface texture has been
81 shown by McHale et al. (2005) to promote the water repellency of soil grains with
82 hydrophobic surface chemistries into super-hydrophobicity by allowing water drops to
83 roll off (i.e., Casey-Baxter 'slippy' conditions) of the dry and rough soil surface. As
84 Dekker and Ritsema (1994) indicate, soils typically display greater water repellency
85 during the summer (rather than during winter or fall) when they are susceptible to fall
86 below a 'critical water content.' Thus, maintaining a minimum moisture content in the
87 soil might prevent this enhanced water-repellency condition from occurring. Recently,
88 irrigation of agricultural lands with wastewater (Wallach et al., 2005), greywater (Shafran
89 et al., 2005), or application of sewage sludge to fields (Hurrass and Schaumann, 2006) as
90 a means to conserve water in water-scarce areas has been found to be responsible for the
91 development of soil water repellency and column flow in arid regions.

92 Although considerable advances have been made to elucidate the abiotic
93 interrelationships between the soil's physical properties, wetting/drying cycles, water
94 repellency, and column flow, several biological feedback mechanisms that support life in
95 such unpredictable soil environments also contribute to the chemical and physical
96 characteristics known to promote column flow in the first place. In this review, the
97 functional significance of microbial activity on the host porous medium, and the related
98 physical and chemical conditions that force the organization and formation of unique
99 microbial habitats in the vadose zone are considered. A brief description of the physical
100 mechanisms behind column flow is first provided, followed by a discussion on three
101 biological factors that promote this type of flow by directly or indirectly inducing soil
102 water repellency or changing the medium's hydraulic conductivity. These include: 1)
103 self-organization of microbial organisms at or near column flow regions; 2) the secretion
104 of bacterial compounds that induce soil water repellency, reduce soil porosity, and
105 decrease the soil's hydraulic conductivity; and 3) fungal contributions to soil water-
106 repellency from surface active hydrophobins.

107

108 **2.1 Physics of Column Flow**

109 Early studies of preferential flow ascribed the phenomenon to macropores in the
110 soil medium (Beven and Germann, 1982), but more recent findings have shown that
111 unstable infiltration often produce similar flow patterns (Parlange and Hill, 1976; Bauters
112 et al., 2000; Rooij et al., 2000; Wang et al., 2000; Bundt et al., 2001). Similarly, water
113 repellent soils are well known to have distinct preferential flow patterns (Van Ommen et
114 al., 1988; Dekker and Jungerius, 1990; Bauters et al., 2000) with water moving into the

115 deep soil in columns and dry soil volumes in between, but the physics of this
116 phenomenon is not completely understood.

117 For soils prone to column flow, a typical preferential solute model divides the soil
118 profile into a distribution soil layer near the soil surface that typically appears saturated,
119 and below, a conveyance zone where preferential flow paths form (Steenhuis et al., 1994;
120 Kim et al., 2005). The distribution zone follows uniform Richards type infiltration, and
121 conducts water and its solutes into preferential flow paths in the conveyance zone (Figure
122 2). The thickness of the distribution zone in tilled soils can be the depth of the plowed
123 soil (Kim et al., 2005), while in structured, sandy and water repellent soils it can be
124 limited to 3 to 5 centimeters in depth (Darnault et al., 2004).

125 Several identified factors or conditions that trigger wetting front instability either
126 individually or in combination are:

- 127 1. An increase of soil hydraulic conductivity with depth, such that coarse-
128 textured soil is overlain by fine-textured soil (Hill and Parlange, 1972;
129 Parlange and Hill, 1976)
- 130 2. Soil water repellency (Raats, 1973; Dekker and Jungerius, 1990; Ritsema et
131 al., 1998)
- 132 3. Air entrapment (Raats, 1973; Hillel, 1987)
- 133 4. Non-ponding rainfall/irrigation (Selker et al., 1992; Wang et al., 2000)

134 Here, condition 1 indicates that a sharp increase in hydraulic conductivity will increase
135 the velocity of the imbibing water, causing the wetting front to break up into fingers. For
136 condition 2, 'subcritical' water repellency in soils, a concept introduced by Tillman et al.
137 (1989), explains how water infiltration is impeded by repellency despite the appearance

138 of readily wetting soil in the distribution zone because fingers are formed in the
139 conveyance zone below. A study from Bauters et al. (1998) indicates that a ratio as small
140 as 3.13% of hydrophobically treated soil grains to non-repellent grains will make the
141 medium slightly water repellent, and an increase of the ratio to 5% will render the soil
142 extremely water repellent. This evidence clearly indicates that small additions of
143 hydrophobic compounds to the medium are not trivial and could clearly induce column
144 flow. In condition 3, large fluxes of infiltrating water lead to air entrapment, where water
145 moves downward in columns, and eventually, compressed air will move upward. Lastly,
146 condition 4 indicates that for density driven displacements, such as non-ponding
147 rainfall/irrigation, the front becomes unstable when the flux, q , is smaller than the soil's
148 conductivity at the maximum water content, $K(\theta_{max})$, close to the wetting front (Parlange
149 and Hill, 1976):

$$150 \quad q < K(\theta_{max}) \quad (1)$$

151 This condition mechanistically justifies the constriction of water flow during irrigation
152 events, leading to the inevitable formation of fingers that drain out the excess water. The
153 different causes for unstable wetting fronts indicate that the velocity of a wetting front
154 increases with depth, making the front unstable. All the above listed factors can
155 contribute to the small perturbations required to de-stabilize the initially uniform wetting
156 front, and break up the infiltrating water into preferential flow paths.

157 Initially in the distribution zone, the wetting front is dominated by capillarity, but
158 as irregularities are encountered in the media, gravity becomes the dominant infiltrating
159 force (Rooij, 2000). Continual drainage cycles of infiltration and desaturation in soils that
160 experience preferential flow is caused by hysteresis at the finger or column core (Glass et

161 al., 1989; Liu et al., 1995; Wang et al., 2000). As a result, the patterns of preferential flow
162 paths do not move around much, and generally actively conduct water for long periods of
163 time (Rooij, 2000; Bundt et al., 2001). As Rooij (2000) explains, once the supply of
164 infiltrating water ceases, the wetted column cores begin drying and water is slowly lost to
165 the surrounding dry soil as a combination of vapor diffusion and liquid water transport
166 until equilibrium is reached. As Liu et al. (1995) point out, the soil in the region of water
167 flow (i.e., preferential flow paths) will remain wetter than the soil in the region of no
168 water flow (i.e., the rest of the soil matrix); thus, subsequent infiltration events will
169 follow old flow paths where the conductivity is higher. Moreover, following the initial
170 wetting and after the columns have stopped expanding laterally, moisture differences
171 between the wet column and the dry soil matrix will be maintained because the matric
172 potential will have also reached equilibrium (DiCarlo et al., 1999). This indicates that
173 from a soil water characteristic curve standpoint, column cores are on a drying curve and
174 are considerably wetter at an equal pressure as that of the surrounding dry areas, which
175 are on a wetting curve. For such cases, the non-uniform saturation is an effect of
176 hysteresis that allows pressures to equalize between flow and no flow regions with
177 different saturation levels. These conditions will remain fixed if the wetting/drying cycle
178 is frequent enough to prevent complete soil desiccation or complete saturation that would
179 erase the spatially fragmented soil-moisture hysteresis.

180 Of the above processes that drive column flow, changes in hydraulic conductivity,
181 water-repellency of certain soil grains, and hysteresis of already formed preferential flow
182 paths are crucial for initiating and maintaining preferential flow in soils with active
183 microfauna. First, condition 1 is conceived where active microorganisms reduce the

184 effective porosity of the soil due to biofilm formation near the surface, such that in coarse
185 textured soils the top soil layer has a lower hydraulic conductivity (from bioclogged
186 pores) than the soil beneath it. Second, condition 2 is created by the secretion of
187 hydrophobic substances by the microfauna during periods of water stress (to reduce
188 localized evaporation from neighboring dry soil), causing preferential flow in any type of
189 soil, independent of particle size. Lastly, hysteresis will ensure that columns form
190 repeatedly in the same location and persist for extended periods of time. Thus, soil
191 conditions produced by preferential flow impact the growth and activity of
192 microorganisms in the soil, and soil microbial activity accentuates the conditions that
193 trigger preferential flow (Figure 3). In essence, the physical processes necessary for
194 preferential flow are strengthened by microbial activity of organisms, and the types of
195 microbial activity are responses to the environmental conditions established by
196 preferential flow, such that the physical and biological processes strengthen each other
197 and perpetuate preferential flow.

198

199 **2.2 Preferential Flow Paths as Biological ‘Hot Spots’**

200 The distinct physico-chemical properties of spatially separated soil compartments,
201 particularly at regions of water flow, stimulate deliberate organization of “hot spots” or
202 zones of elevated biological activity in the soil (Lee, 1985; Pivetz and Steenhuis, 1995;
203 Bundt et al., 2001). The different environmental living conditions that support highly
204 active microbial zones are predominantly affected by the greater amount of oxygen,
205 moisture and nutrient availability in the preferential flow paths than in the rest of the soil
206 matrix, which explains why certain soils experience enhanced degradation of organic

207 compounds transported through preferential flow paths (Pivetz and Steenhuis, 1995).
208 Advective transport of dissolved substrate in preferential pathways is thus a prominent
209 mechanism that supports such highly active microbial zones. Since the distances
210 traversed by migrating microbes are comparable in scale to the separation between
211 individual preferential flow paths, the investment to relocate to a better suited
212 microenvironment is a feasible and worthwhile operation for microorganisms.

213 Many prokaryotes and fungi are able to sense gradients of certain compounds
214 (e.g., nutrient and toxic substances) by chemotaxis or quorum sensing, and decide to
215 consequently move/grow towards or away from the source of the compound. Dispersion,
216 and thus colonization of new surfaces with better habitat conditions may be achieved by
217 bacteria that actively use pili or flagella, are transported by interception with flowing
218 water, or are carried away by sorption to another living organism. This ability to relocate
219 can contribute greatly to the altered distribution of organic matter in soils. As the year
220 long study by Bundt et al. (2001) reported, carbon (C) concentrations in preferential flow
221 paths were 10 to 70% greater than in the matrix of a forest soil after measuring temporal
222 and spatial variations between flow and no-flow regions from freshly exposed trenches.
223 Similarly, organic nitrogen (N) concentrations, effective cation exchange capacity (CEC)
224 and base saturation levels were observed to hold similar elevated levels in the preferential
225 flow paths. The high organic matter content in the preferential flow paths was attributed
226 to three main sources: greater proportion of living or decayed roots in flow paths than in
227 the matrix, preferential input of dissolved organic matter from the surface, and enhanced
228 release of microbial biomass C from rewetting of relatively dry soil.

229 Even with the ability of microorganisms to relocate toward more favorable
230 conditions, the transport mechanisms that allow exuded enzymes to be intercepted by
231 flowing water and carry decomposition products away from the microorganisms' cells
232 are largely dependent on the abrupt water fluxes at and near preferential flow paths. In
233 this way, irregular and non-homogeneous infiltration patterns can result in devastating
234 scenarios for soil biota if soluble exo-enzymes and other catalytic products are too
235 quickly swept away by convection, thus destroying the return on energy invested in
236 making them. Inversely, toxic decomposition products may not get carried off fast
237 enough from the vicinity of the microbial propagules (Ekschmitt et al., 2005) and can
238 otherwise result in self-intoxication. For these reasons, it appears that only resilient
239 microorganisms with the ability to cope with extreme environmental fluctuations and the
240 capacity to keep their cells protected, anchored, and hydrated will be fit enough to
241 survive in soils prone to finger flow.

242 It is clear that favorable conditions for microbial activity in the soil depend on the
243 balanced combination of substrate and moisture availability, allowance for gas exchange
244 with the atmosphere, and a moderate rate of transport of excreted/exuded toxic
245 compounds around the cell. Because of these preferences, enhanced microbial activity
246 tends to exaggerate differences in habitat quality between regions where these necessities
247 are met (typically at or near preferential flow regions) and where they are not (in the soil
248 matrix). Furthermore, the enhanced activity and colonization patterns have been
249 contentiously coined as either stochastic or forced organization events by various studies
250 (Ekschmitt et al., 2005; Doerr et al., 2007; Or et al., 2007b), depending on the quality of
251 substrate available intrinsically in the soil or delivered freshly by the fingers. In either

252 case, it is sensible to catalog preferential flow paths as biological ‘hot spots’ from
253 reported evidence of increased biological activity in locations where columns form.
254 Although this clearly indicates that a set of complex feedback mechanisms must exist for
255 microorganisms to cope with harsh environmental stresses (Doerr et al., 2007), the
256 specific responses from bacteria experiencing fluctuations associated preferential flow is
257 an area that has been under-explored.

258

259 **2.3 Impact of Bacterial Compounds on Porous Media**

260 The vadose zone is characterized by its spatial fragmentation and highly dynamic
261 hydration conditions, ranging from complete saturation to wilting point soil moisture.
262 Accordingly, microorganisms must respond to unpredictable and harsh environmental
263 conditions near the soil surface in order to remain viable. A typical adaptation for
264 microbes to cope with soil dehydration and rapid chemical fluctuations of the flowing
265 soil water is through physiological adjustments, such as biosynthesis of extracellular
266 polymeric substances (EPS) (Or et al., 2007b). From experimental and theoretical
267 evidence, it is commonly accepted that biofilm surface attachment with EPS is the
268 prevailing lifestyle of bacterial colonies in soil (Fenchel, 2002; Chang and Halverson,
269 2003; Young and Crawford, 2004). The EPS structure buffers microcolonies from abrupt
270 hydrating or dehydrating conditions, dampens rapid fluctuations of aqueous temperature,
271 controls the diffusional pathways that deliver resources to the colony, and anchors the
272 cells to soil surfaces (Or et al., 2007a; 2007b). However, the synthesized EPS can and
273 often modify physical and chemical characteristics of the soil that cause preferential flow

274 by reducing the effective soil porosity (i.e., pore clogging) when the EPS is hydrated, or
275 by making certain portions of the soil hydrophobic when the EPS dries up.

276 **2.3.1 Bioclogging**

277 Microbes modify their microenvironment by synthesizing and excreting EPS in
278 order to shelter themselves from temporal variations of the variable porous media they
279 reside in (Or et al., 2007b). However, because there is a lack of consensus regarding the
280 spatial distribution and properties of biofilms and microbial aggregates in unsaturated and
281 fragmented conditions, calculations on physical and hydrological processes typically
282 ignore the impact of microbial activity on the porous medium characteristics.
283 Undoubtedly, soil structural properties are affected by EPS synthesis; particularly in
284 terms of altered pore geometry as a result of bioclogging. These two factors can
285 significantly reduce the porosity and hydraulic conductivity (up to 96 and 98%
286 respectively) (Cunningham et al., 1991) between soil layers and consequently promote
287 conditions that can support preferential flow (Thullner et al., 2002).

288 As Or et al. (2007a) point out, at the onset of drying conditions microbial colonies
289 respond by enhanced production of EPS if enough free C is readily available. Two key
290 benefits of EPS synthesis during periods of limited water availability are its high water
291 holding capacity and desiccation tolerance. The biopolymer responds to its immediate
292 environmental hydration status by altering its morphology. Under electron microscopy
293 (Figure 4) these structural changes are obvious and range from soft and spongy under wet
294 conditions, to stiff and flat when dried (Roberson and Firestone, 1992). In certain types of
295 soils, like those with high clay content, the open EPS structure can enhance soil transport
296 properties (Czarnes et al., 2000) by physically separating mineral particles from each

297 other (Baveye et al., 1998b). While the presence of EPS typically enhances the soil's
298 water holding capacity, in certain cases, hydrated EPS layer can also reduce available
299 pore spaces for flow if the microbes inhabit naturally well-drained soils (Nevo and
300 Mitchell, 1967; Cunningham et al., 1991; Vandevivere and Baveye, 1992; Seki et al.,
301 1998; Kim and Fogler, 2000).

302 The reduction of effective soil porosity is due to a combined effect of biomass
303 accumulation, microbially-induced mineral precipitation, and biogenic air bubble
304 formation (Baveye et al., 1998b), although most published studies focus on biomass
305 accumulation to explain pore occlusion with conventional mathematical models (e.g.
306 Hagen-Poiseuille equation and the Kozeny-Carmen equation). In addition to soil
307 bioclogging from biomass growth, it is important to note that microbial populations can
308 produce biofilm layers that are unsustainably thick so nutrients may not diffused quickly
309 enough to sustain the cells located in the deepest regions. It is suspected that soil
310 bioclogging from microorganism overgrowth may be attributed to surface inputs of the
311 substrate rich irrigation water. The shear force from flowing soil water often enhances
312 biomass sloughing from such regions undergoing endogenous decay. At times, however,
313 partial removal of built up biofilm occurs spontaneously without any change in the flow
314 rate or quality of the applied solution. Although the sloughed material can facilitate
315 permeability recovery at the source, the biofilm fragments may congest other pores in
316 deeper soil layers (Metcalf & Eddy, 2002).

317 It is apparent that microbial activity near the soil surface can clog the topsoil by
318 EPS overproduction in nutrient rich soils. Thus, a layer of reduced hydraulically
319 conductive soil will be formed near the surface overlaying more conductive soil beneath

320 (similar to the effect observed by Hill and Parlange, [1972]), promoting points of
321 instability for imbibing water fronts to break up into columns. It is also sensible to
322 assume that colonies that settle near preferential flow paths (because of substrate supply
323 and moisture availability) must experience mechanical limitations for biofilm growth
324 from the shear forces of the flowing water. Even so, the successful colonization of areas
325 where substrate and moisture abound (i.e. at or near fingers) could potentially change the
326 soil's distribution of conductive pores significantly to fix the location where fingers
327 repeatedly form, and therefore perpetuate preferential flow.

328 **2.3.2 Hydrophobic soil particle surfaces**

329 Typical field trends show that water repellent compounds and soil water
330 repellency (as measured by the Water Drop Penetration Test) are a main cause of
331 preferential flow (Jamison, 1945; Bond, 1964). Soil water repellency has been reported to
332 be common among soils characterized by large particles and in soils of shallow depth
333 (Bundt et al., 2001; Bauters et al., 2000; Ekschmitt et al., 2005). Partial coating of
334 hydrophobic EPS on soil minerals can modify significantly the matric potential of the
335 medium by increasing the soil-water contact angle and the water head entry value
336 (Bauters et al., 2000), which consequently lead to preferential flow. This phenomenon
337 may not be obvious in fields that appear to take up water readily, but localized partially-
338 hydrophobic soil particles impede the rate of infiltration and trigger finger formation
339 between unwettable soil patches (Or et al., 2007b).

340 Studies on the role of bacterial extracellular polymeric substances in soil water
341 repellence development, such as the one by Schaumann et al. (2007), report that changes
342 to soil wettability after being coated with specific biofilms depend on the bacterial strain

343 producing it. Other studies have focused on the ability of exopolysaccharides to act as
344 biosurfactants in order to increase the solubility of hydrophobic substances in the soil and
345 make them available for the cells embedded in the EPS matrix (Ekschmitt et al., 2005). In
346 addition, reports on wax-degrading bacteria state that such organisms may change the
347 water-repellency of soils through biosurfactant production and direct consumption of
348 hydrophobic waxes (Roper, 2005). Furthermore, the solubilization of hydrophobic
349 substances by (bio)surfactants may facilitate their distribution throughout the soil, which
350 even in small quantities can exacerbate the soil's water-repellency to a great degree and
351 produce preferential flow.

352 Undoubtedly, the morphological and surface chemical adjustments of EPS alter
353 the characteristics of the soil matrix and the hydrological processes within it in such ways
354 that the potential of a soil type to experience enhanced preferential flow is increased.
355 Two main means by which this occurs are: 1. a decrease the porosity, and thus the
356 hydraulic conductivity, of coarse soils that would otherwise drain well, and 2. induced
357 soil water repellency when EPS dries out and becomes hydrophobic. Both these changes
358 impede water infiltration and consequently create points of instability where columns can
359 form in soils of any particle size.

360

361 **2.4 Influence of Fungal Compounds on Soil Water-repellency**

362 Fungi have long been suspected to be implicated in the development of soil water
363 repellency (Bond and Harris, 1964; Savage et al., 1969; White et al., 2000; Feeney et al.,
364 2004; 2006). They are known to produce highly surface active hydrophobins as a
365 protection mechanism against desiccation stress (Hakanpaa et al., 2004), and in addition

366 use them as a surfactant to lower the pore water surface tension and aid hyphae breach
367 the surface of the soil water and grow into air filled voids (Wessels, 2000). In addition to
368 helping the organism survive dry spells, fungal exudates may also be used as a future
369 food source and as a protective coating that creates harsh microenvironments to keep
370 competitors at bay. Soil fungi have various survival mechanisms to resort to if
371 environmental stresses are high, and highly resilient fungi have the ability to restore
372 repellency levels in their microenvironment within a couple of weeks of being physically
373 disturbed by soil management practices such as tillage (Hallett et al., 2005).

374 As Wessels (2000) and Hallett (2007) point out, these fungal exudates are
375 commonly amphiphilic in nature. The dual surface hydrophobicity is further complicated
376 by the amount of available moisture in the surrounding region. As Hallett (2007)
377 explains, exudates tend to be strongly hydrophilic when wet, but below a critical moisture
378 threshold the hydrophilic surfaces bond strongly with each other and with soil particles
379 leaving an exposed hydrophobic surface as illustrated in Figure 5. Therefore, if fungi-
380 containing soil dries beyond this critical water content, the soil behavior can shift
381 abruptly from wettable to non-wettable; yielding soil patches where wetting fronts
382 become unstable and the conditions for finger formation are again satisfied. Although
383 prolonged wetting and field saturation can allow soils to regain wettability, inevitable
384 draining and the occurrence of successive and prolonged drying periods can resume soil
385 water repellency (Doerr et al., 2000; Kostka, 2000; McHale et al., 2005).

386 As in the case of bacteria induced water repellency, the effect that fungal
387 hydrophobins have on the porous medium will depend on the proportion of soil particles
388 coated with the hydrophobic surfaces. The fraction of the soil surface area affected,

389 which varies considerably with soil texture, will also determine the magnitude of the
390 effect. Sandy soils have the lowest surface area to volume ratio, so a hydrophobic coating
391 will alter a larger proportion of the particles than for a loamy or clayey soil with a surface
392 area that is several orders of magnitude greater, thus making the sandy porous medium
393 more prone to experience finger flow infiltration.

394 Various agricultural and woodland soil studies have found a strong correlation
395 between fungal biomass (measured as ergosterol concentrations) and the level of
396 repellency within agricultural soils (Fenney et al., 2006). Soils with fairy ring symptoms
397 have been reported to have characteristic of hydrophobic hyphal surfaces and depressed
398 grass growth (Dekker and Ritsema, 1996b). A study by Fidanza et al. (2007) found
399 significantly higher water repellence and reduced soil moisture in necrotic zones that
400 were clearly infested with basydiomycete fungi, but the levels of pH, total nitrogen,
401 magnesium, calcium, cation exchange capacity, and organic matter were not consistently
402 different between the necrotic and healthy turfgrass zones. Few studies are available on
403 specific fungal compounds that may be responsible for the observed increase in soil water
404 repellency. Nonetheless, Fenney et al. (2004) studied the correlation between glomalin (a
405 specific arbuscular mycorrhizal-fungal exudate) and potting soil repellency. Although
406 inconclusive, this study has not disproved the suspicion that glomalin may be somehow
407 implicated in soil water repellency due to its particularly high adhesive and hydrophobic
408 properties (Wright and Upadhyaya, 1998).

409 **3. Conclusion**

410 Undoubtedly, both bacteria and fungi have the potential to greatly affect the
411 porous media by altering soil water retention and its natural physical properties. Reduced

412 effective porosity can arise from the high concentration of microbes in areas where basic
413 survival requirements are met (such as in the vicinity of preferential flow paths), which
414 can lead to: abundant production of extracellular polymers by highly active microbial
415 cells; sloughing events of this polymeric material caused by overgrowth, starvation or
416 shearing; and release of gaseous byproducts of decomposition and endogenous decay.
417 Heightened soil water repellence may be caused by exuded compounds from fungi and
418 bacteria that are either intrinsically hydrophobic, change their surface properties to
419 become hydrophobic when desiccated, or liberate with biosurfactants existing
420 hydrophobic compounds in the soil. Whichever combination of the above phenomena
421 may be present in the soil, their activation is brought about mainly as a response to
422 recurring water stress. And as indicated in the section describing the physics behind
423 finger flow, the effects of such activities contribute in theory to the physical and chemical
424 conditions that generate preferential flow in soils. In any case, more basic work is still
425 needed before the feedback mechanisms between soil microorganisms and the ever
426 changing environmental conditions in the vadose zone are fully understood. Special
427 attention should be given to soil flora responses to the hasty environmental changes
428 experienced in soils prone to preferential flow.

429

430 **Acknowledgements**

431 This study was financed in part by the Binational Agricultural Research and
432 Development Fund (BARD), Project no. IS-3962-07. The authors thank Dr. Janice Thies,
433 Dr. Louis Dekker, the reviewers, and the associate editor Dr. Wilfred Otten for helpful
434 discussions and insightful comments.

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621 **Figure Captions**

622

623 **Figure 1.** Preferential flow paths in water repellent dune sand visualized by using

624 dyestuff staining, from Dekker and Ritsema, 2000.

625 **Figure 2.** Schematic diagram of the flow process in the soil with preferential flow paths,

626 from Kim et al. 2005.

627 **Figure 3.** Schematic diagram of the feedback mechanisms between microbial activity and

628 preferential flow paths.

629 **Figure 4.** Morphological changes of bacterial extracellular polymeric substance on

630 desiccation and on rehydration, from Roberson and Firestone, 1992.

631 **Figure 5.** The transient nature of water repellency caused by hydrophilic-hydrophobic

632 and hydrophilic-surface bonding during drying, from Hallett, 2007.

633

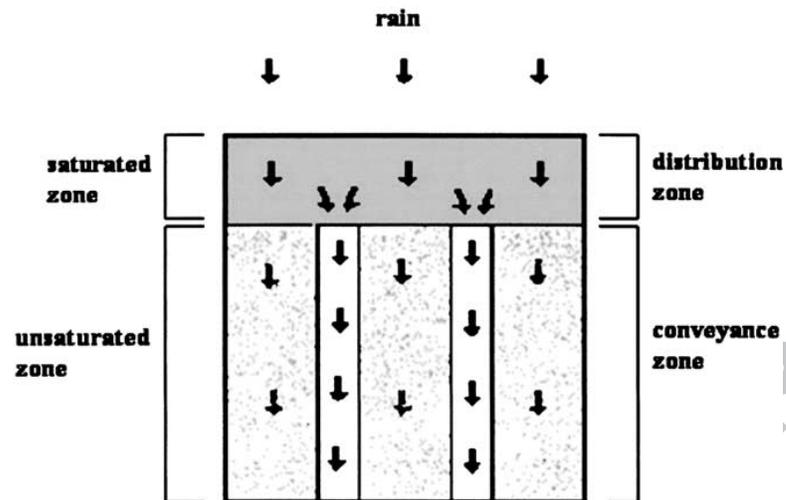
634



1

2 **FIGURE 1.**

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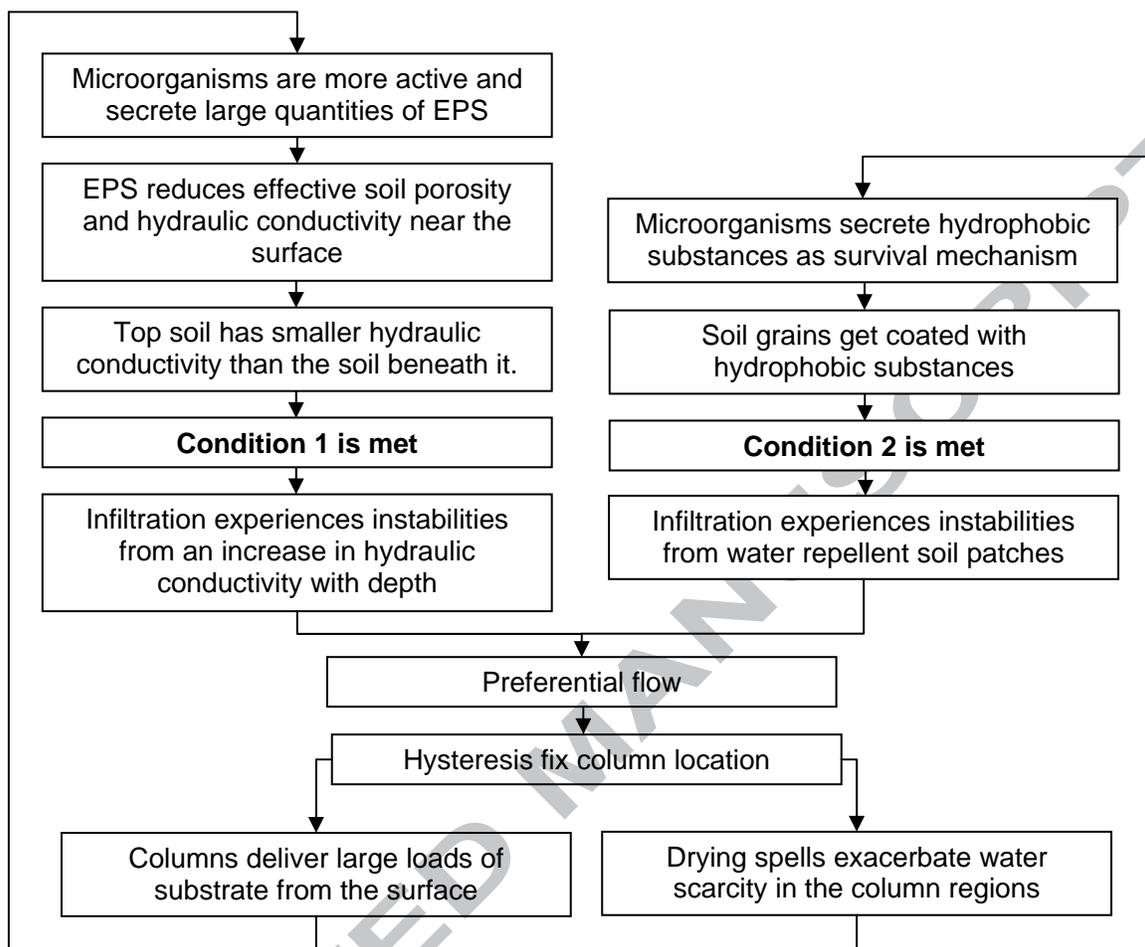
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4 FIGURE 2.

5

6

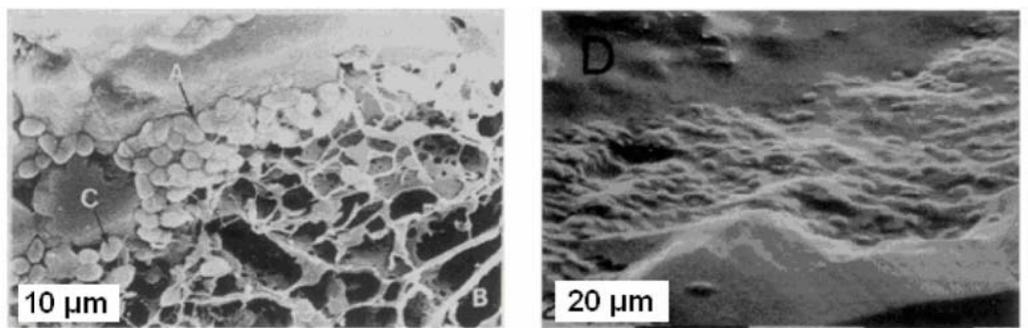
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8

9 FIGURE 3.

10



(a) Wet (open structure)

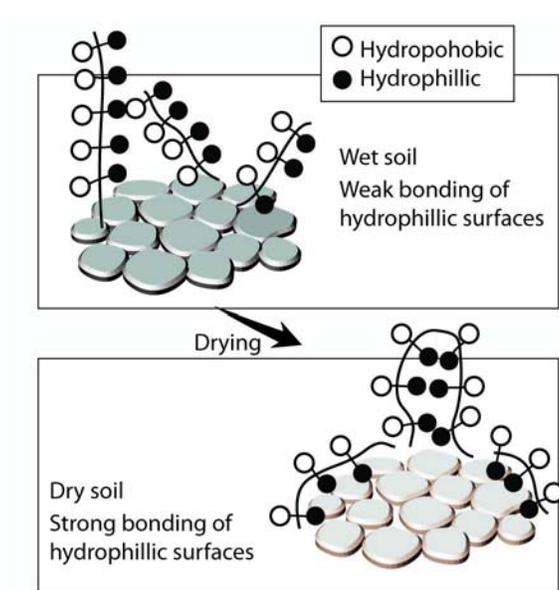


(b) Dry (dense structure)

11

12 **FIGURE 4.**

13



14

15 **FIGURE 5.**

16