

MAPPING METHODS METADATA FOR RESEARCH DATA

Tiffany C. Chao

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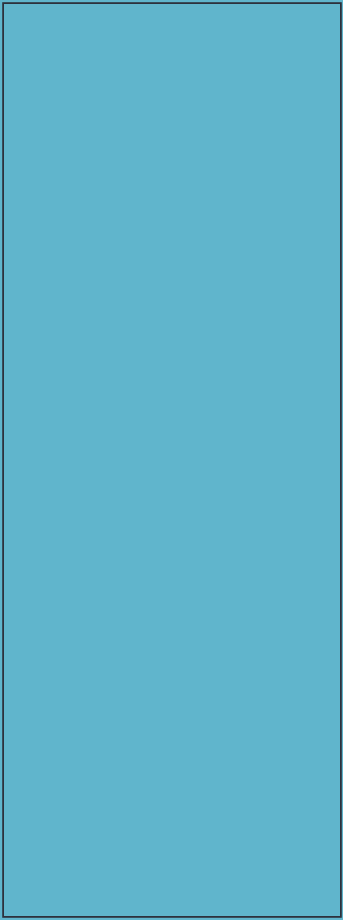
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Outline

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- 
- Background: Metadata generation for research data
 - Introducing *methods metadata*
 - Study design
 - Preliminary findings
 - Future directions

Generating metadata for research data

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- Scientists have limited time/energy/resources to dedicate toward metadata generation
- Problematic for ‘long-tail’ science researchers who have heterogeneous data and insufficient support (Heidorn, 2008; Cragin et al., 2010)
- Increased requirements for public access to research data generated by government funding necessitate metadata provision (i.e. OSTP memo, Holdren, 2013)

Methods matter for data sharing and reuse

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- Significance of research methods description
 - Documenting modifications to research protocol vital to integrity of dataset in field-based research
(Karasti, Baker & Halkola, 2006; Karasti & Baker, 2008)
 - For trust and selection of data for reuse
(Zimmerman, 2008; Van House, Butler & Schiff, 1998)

Methods metadata

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- Focus on *methods metadata* in research

the type of information needed for basic comprehension of how data were produced in the scientific research context

- Highlights the importance of research methods description for describing research data for reuse

Methods metadata source?

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- Limited use of automated approaches (i.e. workflow technologies) to record data production processes
- Role of journal publications as source for methods description
 - experimental procedure details in articles contribute to reuse decisions (Faniel & Jacobsen, 2010)
 - articles traditional mode for scientific communication with increased availability due to open access publishing (Brown, 2010)

Proposed inquiry

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How can journal article content be utilized to generate metadata on data production methods for datasets?

- What metadata elements for methods from existing schemes map to journal article content?
- What gaps exist for methods metadata generation from journal article content?

Study Design

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- Phase 1 – Mapping metadata for research methods
 - National Environmental Methods Index (NEMI) documentation
 - Sample of (24) peer-reviewed journal research articles from soil ecology
- Phase 2 – Extending mapping with existing metadata schemes for data
 - Ecological Metadata Language (EML)
 - Content Standard for Digital Geospatial Metadata (CSDGM)

NEMI metadata for methods

8

mandatory elements

Method Descriptive Name

Brief Method Summary

Source Citation

Method Official Name

Method type/ subcategory
(pre-defined list)

Method Number/Identifier

Media Name

Instrumentation

Method Source

optional elements

Scope and Application

Detection Limit Type

Applicable Concentration

Interferences

Max Holding Time

Sample Prep Methods

Range

Concentration Range Units

QC Requirements

Sample Handling

Detection Limit Note

Precision Descriptor Notes

Methods metadata mapping with NEM



Earthworm population density and diversity in different-aged urban systems

K.M. Smetak^{a,1}, J.L. Johnson-Maynard^{a,*}, J.E. Lloyd^{b,2}

^a Soil and Land Resources, University of Idaho, Moscow, ID 83843-2339, United States
^b The Urban Forestry Institute, 2239 Edgewood Ave. S., St. Louis Park, MN 55426, United States

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ABSTRACT

Earthworms are known to play important roles in soil profile development, nutrient cycling, and plant productivity where their population densities are high. Our objective was to understand the impact of disturbance and management intensity within differentiated-aged urban landscapes on earthworm population density and diversity. Our study was conducted in Moscow, ID, USA. Earthworms and soils were collected from open turf in three residential yards less than 10 years old, three residential yards greater than 75 years old, and in three urban parks greater than 75 years old. Mean earthworm density was significantly different among urban parks (437 individuals m⁻²), old residential (221 individuals m⁻²), and young residential sites (26 individuals m⁻²). Bulk density of the 0–10 cm depth was significantly higher in young residential sites (1.59 g cm⁻³) than in urban park (1.30 g cm⁻³) or old residential sites (1.30 g cm⁻³). Mean total soil C in the first 30 cm of soil was significantly different among the three landscape types (3.6 kg C m⁻² in urban parks, 2.9 kg C m⁻² in old residential, and 1.4 kg C m⁻² in young residential sites). Total soil N content followed the same trend as soil C across landscape types. Fertilizer additions in urban park sites were associated with increases in earthworm density and total soil C and N content. Overall, high bulk density due to soil compaction in young landscapes may directly and indirectly limit earthworm density. Bulk density, however, tends to decrease while soil C and N content increase as urban systems mature and these changes are associated with increases in earthworm population density.

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1. Introduction

Earthworm density and activity are influenced by factors such as food quality and quantity (Lee, 1985; Edwards and Bohlen, 1996; Curry, 2004), soil temperature and moisture (Berry and Jordan, 2001; Weaver et al., 2003) and soil texture and texture (Núñez et al., 1998; Baker and Whithy, 2003). The relationship

of earthworm activity to soil physical and chemical properties has been documented in forest (e.g. Whalen, 2004; Marhan and Schen, 2005; Ammer et al., 2006), pasture (e.g. Baker et al., 1992; Decaens et al., 2004; Winsome et al., 2006) and agricultural systems (e.g. Edwards et al., 1995; Lamané et al., 2003), but has not been well studied in urban landscapes. Urban soils differ from wildland and agricultural soils in the type and degree of human

* Corresponding author. Tel.: +1 208 885 9245; fax: +1 208 885 7760.
E-mail addresses: smetak@uidaho.edu (K.M. Smetak), jmaynard@uidaho.edu (J.L. Johnson-Maynard), jloyd@rainbowtreecare.com (J.E. Lloyd).
Tel.: +1 208 885 7595; fax: +1 208 885 7760.
Tel.: +1 952 922 3810; fax: +1 952 252 4720.
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2. Materials and methods

2.1. Site description

Study sites were located in Moscow, ID, USA (46°44'N, 116°48'W) and consisted of three urban parks (UP 1–3) greater than 75 years old, three young residential lawns (YR 1–3) less than 10 years old, and three old residential lawns (OR 1–3) greater than 75 years old. Site age was determined through interviews with homeowners and urban park managers as well as historic markers in the case of old residential landscapes and urban parks. Recently developed residential sites were generally inhabited by the original owners who knew the exact ages of their landscapes. The maximum distance between sites was 4.8 km which minimized microclimate differences. Sites where insecticides were applied were not utilized due to possible negative impacts on earthworms.

Soils at all sites were formed in loess and had silt loam to silty clay loam textures with depth. Litter layer thickness

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ranged from 0 cm at young residential sites to a maximum of 5 cm in the urban parks. Soil organic C in the top 10 cm of a low of 1.5 kg C m⁻² in young residential sites of 4.5 kg C m⁻² in urban parks. Mean soil pH was 10 cm depth ranged from 6.15 in urban parks to 6.8 in residential sites.

Urban parks, for the purposes of this study, were properties supporting stands of trees located inside or adjacent to residential areas. Urban parks had a Kentucky (Poa pratensis L.) blend turf cover and also supported stands of broadleaf deciduous trees. Sampling at least one meter from canopy drip lines of Norway Spruce (Picea canadensis) in all urban park sites to minimize variability due to nutrient cycling and shading by residential sites had a vegetation cover of Kentucky bluegrass. Sampling was conducted, to the highest possible, in areas of similar slope, aspect, and shade. Landscape age was the main factor that varied between

Owners of residential sites and urban park managers were interviewed to assess the type of maintenance performed on the turfgrass. Urban parks were the most intensively managed sites in terms of the amounts and types of fertilizer irrigation (Table 1). Owners of young residential sites watered and fertilized their lawns regularly, locally available, relatively N-rich fertilizer and to application recommendations on the label. Owners of residential sites reported watering their lawns in and did not add fertilizers. Homeowners and managers used mulching mowers that leave grass clippings on the surface after mowing. Insecticides and fungicides were used at any of the sites. Herbicides containing either spot applied as a spray or added with fertilizer. The three young residential and old residential sites of the urban parks. Herbicide use, in this study, is complicated comparisons among sites, since (1) applications do not generally cause direct adverse on earthworms when used at recommended rates (Edwards, 1989; Fahrenhorst et al., 2003) and (2) herbicide was relatively consistent across landscape types.

2.2. Field methods

Earthworm sampling was conducted during a 2-week period beginning at the end of May in 2004 and 2005. Each site was sampled once per year. Soil sampling was conducted during the 2004 earthworm sampling period. At each replicate site, four randomly located pits (15 cm × 25 cm) were dug to a depth of 30 cm for earthworm and soil collection. Earthworms were separated from soil by hand-sorting, placed in plastic Petri dishes lined with moist paper towels and taken back to the laboratory where they were counted. Earthworms were left in the Petri dishes for 48 h to void their guts of soil and were then weighed to calculate freshweight biomass. Earthworm density and biomass at the 30 cm depth were expressed on an area basis by dividing the weight by the area of the sampling pit (375 cm²). Earthworms were separated into three age classes – juvenile, adolescent, and mature – based on the development of the clitellum, the reproductive gland used for cocoon production that in mature earthworms generally forms an obvious band around the midsection segments. Juveniles had no obvious

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Table 1 – Management practices for urban park (UP), young residential (YR), and old residential (OR) sites

Site	Age	Fertilizer	Fertilizer application frequency	Irrigation	Aeration ^a
UP 1	100	1.97 kg 100 m ⁻² of 25–50 fertilizer	Once/year	Every 10 days, June–September	N/A
UP 2	100	1.97 kg 100 m ⁻² of 25–50 fertilizer	Once/year	2.54 cm weekly, June–September	Once/year
UP 3	100	1.97 kg 100 m ⁻² of 25–50 fertilizer	Twice/year	2.54 cm weekly, June–September	Once/year
YR 1	8	1.8 kg 100 m ⁻² of 27–4–6 fertilizer ^b	Twice/year	Once nightly with sprinkler, June–September	N/A
YR 2	10	1.8 kg 100 m ⁻² of 27–4–6 fertilizer ^b	Once/year	Two to three times weekly with sprinkler, June–September	Once/year
YR 3	5	1.8 kg 100 m ⁻² of 27–4–6 fertilizer ^b	Once/year	Once daily with sprinkler, June–September	N/A
OR 1	75	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
OR 2	75	N/A	N/A	Once weekly with sprinkler, June–September	N/A
OR 3	95	N/A	N/A	Once weekly with hose, June–August	N/A

N/A, Not applicable (management practice was not implemented).

^a Aeration is the physical removal of multiple soil cores (0–25 cm diameter to a depth of between 3 and 5 cm) over the area of the lawn to improve the movement of air, water, and nutrients to the grass roots. Soil cores were removed with a mechanical aerator and left on the ground at all aerated sites.

^b Homeowners reported adding locally available nitrogen-rich lawn fertilizer at the rate recommended on the label. Values are estimated using the N–P–K ratio of the typical lawn fertilizer available in the area and assuming a nitrogen application rate of 0.5 kg N 100 m⁻² (the recommended application rate on the label). At all sites grass clippings were left on the surface to decompose.

clitellum, adolescents had lightening of segments where the clitellum was developing and mature earthworms had a fully developed clitellum. Mature earthworms were euthanized with ethanol and identified to the species level using Schwert's (1990) taxonomic key. Since the clitellum is only fully expressed in mature earthworms and is the main external feature used in earthworm identification, juveniles and adolescent earthworms were not identified. Bulk soil within each pit was collected from the 0–10, 10–20, and 20–30 cm depths for chemical analysis. Three replicate soil cores (31.3 cm) were taken from undisturbed soil adjacent to each pit from each depth for determination of bulk density (Grossman and Reichert, 2002). Three replicate soil moisture cans were filled with soil from each depth within each pit for the determination of gravimetric soil moisture.

2.3. Laboratory analyses

Soil texture containing bulk-moist soil was weighed, air-dried for 24 h at 105 °C, and reweighed to calculate gravimetric soil moisture content. Bulk density was calculated by dividing the oven-dried soil weight from each core by the core volume. Soil for chemical analysis was air-dried, gently crushed with a mortar and pestle, and passed through a 2 mm sieve prior to analysis. Soil texture was determined by the pipette method (Gee and Or, 2002). Total C and N were measured by dry combustion (Nelson and Sommers, 1982) in an Elementar Vario Max CNS analyzer (Elementar Analysensysteme, Hanau, Germany). Ammonium (NH₄⁺-N) and nitrate (NO₃⁻-N) in 2 M KCl extracts (Keeley and Nelson, 1982) were measured using an automated colorimetric analyzer (Lachat Instruments, Milwaukee, WI, USA). Soil pH was determined on a 1:1 (soil:water) mixture.

2.4. Statistical analyses

All statistical analyses were conducted using SAS version 9.1 (SAS Inc., Cary, NC, USA). Data were analyzed using ANOVA

techniques (PROC GLM) and mean separation carried out with Fisher's least significant difference. Response variables included earthworm density, bulk density, soil moisture, pH, total carbon, total nitrogen, and inorganic nitrogen and treatment classifications were urban park, old residential, and young residential sites. Significant differences were determined assuming a 95% confidence level. Earthworm density, earthworm weight, and soil inorganic nitrogen values had non-normal distributions, and were therefore analyzed using log-transformed data. Additionally, correlation analysis was performed to examine the relationship of earthworm density, bulk density, soil moisture, and total carbon and nitrogen, in urban park, old residential, and young residential sites.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Earthworm density

Earthworm density was significantly different among all landscape types ($p < 0.0001$). The highest densities were observed in urban park sites (437 individuals m⁻²), followed by old residential sites (221 individuals m⁻²), and the lowest densities observed in young residential sites (26 individuals m⁻²) (Fig. 2). Earthworm freshweight in urban park sites (28.08 g m⁻²) was significantly higher ($p < 0.0001$) than in old residential (28.08 g m⁻²) or young residential (6.69 g m⁻²) sites (Fig. 2).

Low earthworm density in the young residential sites is likely due to a combination of lack of adequate time for earthworm invasion from surrounding areas and the soil's inability to provide proper habitat. Documented rates of spread for introduced earthworms range from 1 to 14 m year⁻¹ (Edwards and Bohlen, 1996). Depending on the distance of new urban landscapes to sources of earthworms such as forest and agricultural fields, establishment of populations from immigration in a 10-year period may not be likely. A more important source of earthworms, in these systems, would be through

Method Citation

Instrumentation

Method Descriptive Name

Brief Method Summary

Media Name

[mandatory]

Process Step

Description

Date

Time

Contact

Source Produced/Used
Citation Abbreviation

[mandatory if applicable]

Source

Information

Citation/Abbreviation

Time Period of Content

Contribution

Type

- Descriptive Name
- Source Citation
- Method type/
subcategory
- Media Name
- Brief Method
Summary
- Official Name
- Method #
- Instrumentation
- Method Source
- Scope and
Application
- Applicable
Concentration
- Max Holding Time
- Range
- QC Requirements
- Detection Limit Note
- Precision Descriptor
Notes
- Detection Limit Type
- Interferences
- Sample Prep
Methods
- Concentration Range
Units
- Sample Handling

[mandatory]

methodsType

methodsStep

procedureStepType

description

citation

protocol

instrumentation

software

substep

[mandatory if applicable]

dataSource

sampling

studyExtent

spatialSamplingUnits

description

qualityControl

Description, citation,
protocol, instrumentation,
software, substep

Preliminary findings & Discussion

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- Methods information from journal articles amenable to metadata generation
- Common methods-related elements identified across metadata schemes
- Gaps in both metadata schemes and journal article content revealed for methods description

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statistical
technique

Methods metadata mapping: connecting data and processes

Method Identifier	VALBRSN-2011-01
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Method Descriptive Name Surface litter processing

Brief Method Summary

The surface litter pool mass was measured at each site in 2010 by collecting all of the surface litter within 25 by 25 cm quadrats that were randomly arrayed within each plot. Litter samples were lightly rinsed with distilled water to remove mineral debris, dried at 70°C for 1 wk, and weighed to the nearest 0.01 g using a digital balance.

Media type Surface litter

Method Identifier	VALBRSN-2011-02
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Method Descriptive Name Soil core sample collection & analysis

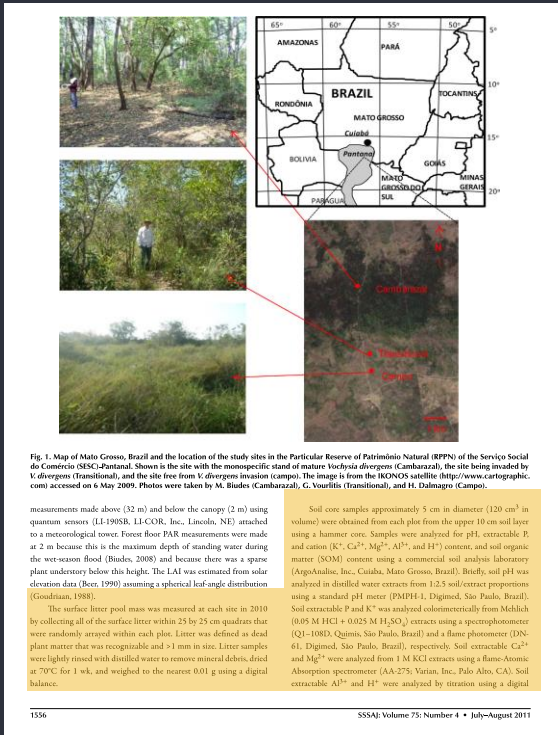
Brief Method Summary

Soil core samples approximately 5 cm in diameter (120 cm3 in volume) were obtained from each plot from the upper 10 cm soil layer using a hammer core. Samples were analyzed for pH, extractable P, and cation content, and soil organic matter (SOM) content using a commercial soil analysis laboratory. Briefly, soil pH was analyzed in distilled water extracts from 1:2.5 soil/extract proportions using a standard pH meter

Media type Soil core samples

Method source Commercial soil analysis laboratory (ArgoAnalyse, Inc., Cuiaba, Mato Grosso, Brazil) used for pH, extractable P, and cation content, and soil organic matter (SOM)

Instrumentation pH meter for soil (PMPH-1, Digimed, São Paulo, Brazil).



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(Vourlitis, G. L. et al., 2011)

Methods metadata map: extending to other metadata schemes

Method Identifier	VALBRSN-2011-01
Method Descriptive Name	Surface litter processing
Brief Method Summary	The surface litter pool mass was measured at each site in 2010 by collecting all of the surface litter within 25 by 25 cm quadrats that were randomly arrayed within each plot. Litter samples were lightly rinsed with distilled water to remove mineral debris, dried at 70°C for 1 wk, and weighed to the nearest 0.01 g using a digital balance.
Media type	Surface litter

Method Identifier	VALBRSN-2011-02
Method Descriptive Name	Soil core sample collection & analysis
Brief Method Summary	Soil core samples approximately 5 cm in diameter (120 cm ³ in volume) were obtained from each plot from the upper 10 cm soil layer using a hammer core. Samples were analyzed for pH, extractable P, and cation content, and soil organic matter (SOM) content using a commercial soil analysis laboratory. Briefly, soil pH was analyzed in distilled water extracts from 1:2.5 soil/extract proportions using a standard pH meter
Media type	Soil core samples
Method source	Commercial soil analysis laboratory (ArgoAnalise, Inc., Cuiaba, Mato Grosso, Brazil) used for pH, extractable P, and cation content, and soil organic matter (SOM)
Instrumentation	pH meter for soil (PMPH-1, Digimed, São Paulo, Brazil)

CSDGM	
<Process Step> Description	The surface litter pool mass was measured at each site in 2010 by collecting all of the surface litter within 25 by 25 cm quadrats that were randomly arrayed within each plot.
Source Produced Citation	Surface litter VALBRSN-2011-A
<Process Step> Description	Litter samples were lightly rinsed with distilled water to remove mineral debris, dried at 70°C for 1 wk, and weighed to the nearest 0.01 g using a digital balance.
Source Used Citation	VALBRSN-2011-A
Source Produced Citation	Weight (g) of surface litter VALBRSN-2011-b

EML	
dataSource	Soil core samples
Procedure description	Soil core samples approximately 5 cm in diameter (120 cm ³ in volume) were obtained from each plot from the upper 10 cm soil layer using a hammer core.
Procedure description	Samples were analyzed for pH, extractable P, and cation content, and soil organic matter (SOM) content using a commercial soil analysis laboratory.
subStep	Briefly, soil pH was analyzed in distilled water extracts from 1:2.5 soil/extract proportions using a standard pH meter
instrumentation	pH meter for soil (PMPH-1, Digimed, São Paulo, Brazil)

Metadata schemes: common methods elements

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Prevalent methods-related elements available in journal article content:



“description”

“citation”

“sampling
”

- Common elements an indicator of essential information for methods metadata

Metadata scheme gaps for methods

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■ Study site information consistent across journal articles

recruitment to occur before the dry season when the probability of tree mortality increases, while during dry years, fire is an important agent for limiting the distribution of *Cambura* outside the riparian zone (Nunes da Cunha and Junk, 2004).

Woody plant invasion has the capacity to alter a variety of ecosystem properties including microclimate, soil C storage and chemistry, water and nutrient availability, plant growth and productivity, plant and animal abundance, and biodiversity (Zellhofer and Schell, 1999; Mack et al., 2000; Nunes da Cunha and Junk, 2004; Ashton et al., 2005; Line and Stromberg, 2005; Liao et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2011). In particular, woody plant invasion has been found to significantly increase the root, litter, and soil C content and plant and litter N concentration because more extensive root systems of woody invaders explore a larger soil volume and return more N-rich litter (Liao et al., 2008). As areas become invaded the spatial variability of soil pools reportedly increases (Liu et al., 2011) because trees concentrate nutrients below the forest canopy. The concentration of nutrients can cause the development of "islands of fertility," which increase in the special patchiness of soil resources (Feldpausch et al., 2004; Tinker Gano et al., 2005; Wertz et al., 2005; Hanan and Ross, 2010). In grasslands, an increase in the spatial patchiness of soil resources can limit the distribution of native grasses and further promote the persistence of trees (Schlesinger et al., 1996).

Given the potential effects of woody invasion on soil organic matter and nutrient stocks, and the rapid and extensive spread of *Cambura*, our goal was to quantify soil chemistry and organic matter content along an established *V. divergens* invasion front in the Pantanal of southern Mato Grosso, Brazil. We hypothesized that soil organic matter and nutrient concentration would be significantly higher in areas invaded by *Cambura*. Furthermore, we hypothesized that the soil organic matter and nutrient concentration would be significantly more variable in areas that are currently being invaded by *Cambura*. To test these hypotheses we identified three sites along a *Cambura* invasion front, including a mono-specific *Camburazal*, a site in the process of *Cambura* invasion, and a campo-cerrado stand free of *Cambura*, and sampled surface soil and litter pools during the dry season of 2009 and 2010.

MATERIALS AND METHODS Site Description

The field study was conducted in the northern Brazilian Pantanal (16°39'30" S, 56°45'30" W), approximately 160 km south southwest from Cuiabá and 60 km southwest from Poconé, Mato Grosso, Brazil (Fig. 1). Study sites were located within a protected nature reserve, the Reserva Particular do Patrimônio Natural (RPPN) of the Serviço Social do Comércio (SESC)-Pantanal. Annual rainfall of the region is on average 1400 mm with a pronounced dry season extending from May through September (Nunes da Cunha and Junk, 2001). The topography of the floodplain is virtually flat, causing extensive flooding during the wet season (Nunes da Cunha and Junk, 2001). Wet season floods are 1 to 2 m in depth, but during the dry season many of the floodplain lakes become disconnected from the river channel as the floodwater recedes

(Nunes da Cunha and Junk, 2004). The soil type of the study site is classified as a Gleysol (Zellhofer, 2006).

Three sites that varied in the density of *V. divergens* were identified along a *Cambura* invasion front (Fig. 1). According to park rangers and satellite imagery, *Cambura* has been spreading into the adjacent campo stands for at least one to two decades. All three study sites are within 3 km of each other and are seasonally flooded with up to 1 m of surface water during the November to May wet season (Blades, 2008). The first site was a monospecific stand of *V. divergens* (hereafter referred to as the *Camburazal*) with a mean canopy height of 25 m and an elevation of 122 m above sea level (asl). The study site was approximately 0.5 ha; however, the spatial distribution of the *Camburazal* is more than 2 km wide and 10 km long. Surface soil texture was a mix of clay loam and clay (Table 1). The second site was a mixed forest-grassland that is in the process of being invaded by *V. divergens* (hereafter referred to as the transitional site). Common tree species of the transitional site include *V. divergens* and *Casearia americana* L. (Dilleniaceae), while the understorey is composed of the grass *Gymnosporon pictum* (Spring) Kunze and the herbaceous perennial *Mimosa pudica* L. ex B. (Mimosaceae). The study site was approximately 0.5 ha and 111 m asl, and the soil texture was primarily a sandy-clay loam (Table 1). The final location was a grass-dominated campo-cerrado (hereafter referred to as a *campo*) with *C. pictum* and *M. pudica* as the primary species. Campo cerrado is the major land cover type of the Pantanal (Nunes da Cunha and Junk, 2004). The site studied here was 0.5 ha in area and 107 m asl. Soil texture varied between clay and sandy-clay loam (Table 1).

Field Sampling and Laboratory Analysis

Field sampling occurred on 12–15 July 2009 and 10–13 Aug. 2010, which is during the climatological dry season (Nunes da Cunha and Junk, 2004). Sample points at each site were selected using a stratified random design. First, a random point was selected every 30 m along a 100-m long baseline transect. At each point, a direction perpendicular to the baseline was randomly selected. Finally, in the randomly determined direction, a 1-m² circular plot was randomly established within 20 m of the baseline. In each plot, vegetation attributes (leaf area index and *Cambura* density and basal area) were measured and soil and litter samples were collected. In 2009, a total of nine plots per site were sampled in the *Camburazal* and transitional stands and five plots were sampled in *campo*, while in 2010, five plots were sampled in each site.

The density and basal area of *V. divergens* were measured in 2009 at each site using the point-quarter method (Goldsmith and Harrison, 1976). Each plot was divided into four quadrants based on the cardinal compass directions. Within each quadrant the distance to the nearest *V. divergens* individual and the trunk circumference at breast height (1.3 m) was measured. Density was calculated as a function of the mean distance (Goldsmith and Harrison, 1976) and the basal area was calculated by converting the circumference into trunk area (m²/individual) and multiplying by the density (individuals/m²). At the transitional and *campo* sites, leaf area index (LAI) was measured in each plot using a photosynthetically active radiation (PAR)-coprometer (AccuPAR LP-80, Decagon Devices, Inc., Pullman, WA). The LAI was calculated from the coprometer software assuming a spherical leaf angle distribution. For the *Camburazal*, LAI was calculated from PAR

Study site details include:

- Longitude & latitude
- Geographic location name
- Average precipitation, humidity
- Soil type identification
- Local vegetation
- Site history (i.e. natural disturbances)

Schemes primarily accommodate geographic coordinates but not context description.

High level of detail for study site may warrant alternative representation in metadata record (i.e. citation to primary article).

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Fig. 1. Map of Mato Grosso, Brazil and the location of the study sites in the Particular Reserve of Patrimônio Natural (RPPN) of the Serviço Social do Comércio (SESC)-Pantanal. Shown is the site with the monospecific stand of mature *Vochysia divergens* (*Camburazal*), the site being invaded by *V. divergens* (transitional), and the site free from *V. divergens* invasion (*campo*). The image is from the MONOS satellite (<http://www.cartographic.com>) accessed on 6 May 2009. Photos were taken by M. Blades (*Camburazal*), C. Vourlitis (Transitional), and H. Dalgaard (*Campos*).

Element coverage in articles

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Some methods-related metadata elements not easily discernable in journal article content:

- Data quality processes
 - Generally not an explicit section, processes may be embedded with other procedures
- Time and date precision
 - Evident for “data collecting” but not processing or analysis

Access to additional resources may be required to obtain and/or verify description for these elements

Summary

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- Use of journal article content for methods metadata generation reveals:
 - Metadata schemes generally accommodate documenting the relationships between data sources and processes
 - Common elements across schemes to support methods description
 - Potential enhancements to existing metadata schemes
 - Some aspects of methods description may require additional information resources

Future Directions

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- Compare content of existing data metadata records with affiliated journal articles to understand application of scheme
 - Preliminary analysis indicates direct use of journal article content for generating methods metadata
- Investigate more systematic approach for identifying and documenting methods information from journal articles
 - Basis for potential for automation of methods metadata
- Extend journal article content to other areas of a metadata scheme beyond methods description

Conclusions

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- Journal article content, as a whole, provide a robust source for methods metadata
 - Implications for journal publishers to maintain and support rich methods description in research articles
 - Other discipline research articles may vary in level of methods description
- Supporting data curation services
 - Understanding an unobtrusive approaches for data curation professionals to obtain metadata from researchers

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Tiffany Chao

tchao@illinois.edu

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