

What is *EarthShape*?

The general overarching research question of EarthShape is:

How do microorganisms, animals and plants influence the form and development of the Earth's surface over time, considering present and back to early geologic times?

This project lasts 6 years. It started 2016 and is financed by the German Research Foundation (DFG-SPP 1803).

This initiative involves researchers of different universities and research centers in Chile. It is also supported by the National Forest Corporation (CONAF).



During phase 1 (2016-2018) EarthShape included:

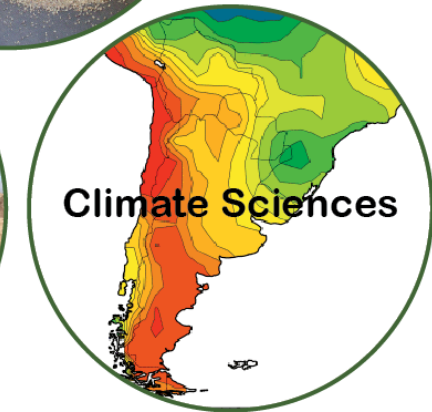
- 13 interdisciplinary projects,
- 17 doctoral students,
- 33 german researchers and
- 19 chilean researchers.



- Centro de Estudios Avanzados en Zonas Áridas (CEAZA)
- Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile (PUC)
- Universidad Austral de Chile (UACh)
- Universidad Católica del Norte (UCN)
- Universidad de Chile (UCHile)
- Universidad de Concepción (UdeC)
- Universidad de La Frontera (UFro)
- Universidad de La Serena (ULS)

EarthShape bridges between several scientific disciplines, including geologists and biologists, to study this complex question from several points of view.

The scientists are based at the following disciplines:



The general research question is too complex to be answered in a single way.

Thus, the project is organized into four clusters of questions. Every sub-project focuses on one of these clusters.

List of projects on the EarthShape webpage:

<https://esdynamics.geo.uni-tuebingen.de/earthshape/index.php?id=129>

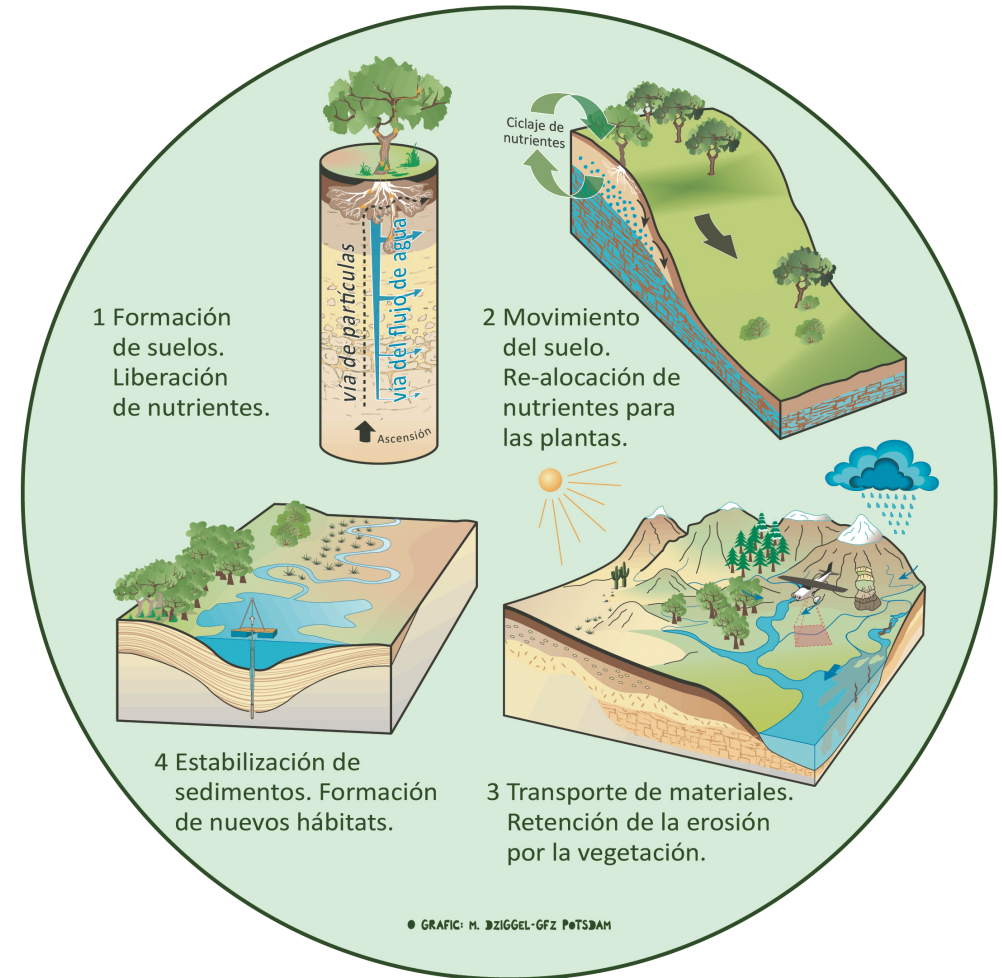
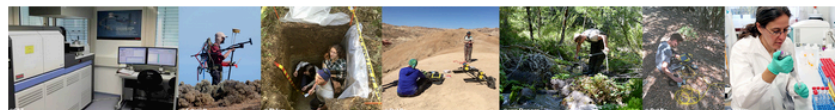
Projects
P1: Plant Traits and Decomposition
P2: Coupled Modelling
P3: Biofilms & Weathering
P4: Sediment Storage & Connectivity
P5: Crustweathering
P6: Root Carbon
P7: Paleoclimate
P8: Imaging of Weathering front
P9: Sediment Transport
P10: Phosphorus solubilization
P11: Green & Grey world
P12: Biogenic Weathering
P13: Microbiological Stabilization
A3: Carbon & Nutrient Fluxes

EarthShape Projects Active in Phase I (2016-2019)

The EarthShape projects started on January 1, 2016 and have a duration of three years.

By clicking on the project number and short title on the left you find the summary of each project.

Several projects have subprojects and we also have an associate project listed. The Associate project is not directly funded through the program, but working in EarthShape study areas.





The research sites are located in the Chilean Coastal Cordillera:

They range from the Atacama desert in the north, to the Araucaria forests 1.300 km further south. Along the selected sites there is a long ecological and climatic gradient, ranging from a very arid ambient, to humid conditions.

This selection excludes other factors that could interfere with the conducted studies, such as differences in rock type and impact of glaciers and volcanoes.



We have a database of the four sites that consist of:

- **Soil pits** with analysis of the different soil layers
- Monitoring of climate with **meteorological stations** with data visible in the internet and renewed once a day:

<https://esdynamics.geo.uni-tuebingen.de/earthshape/index.php?id=68>



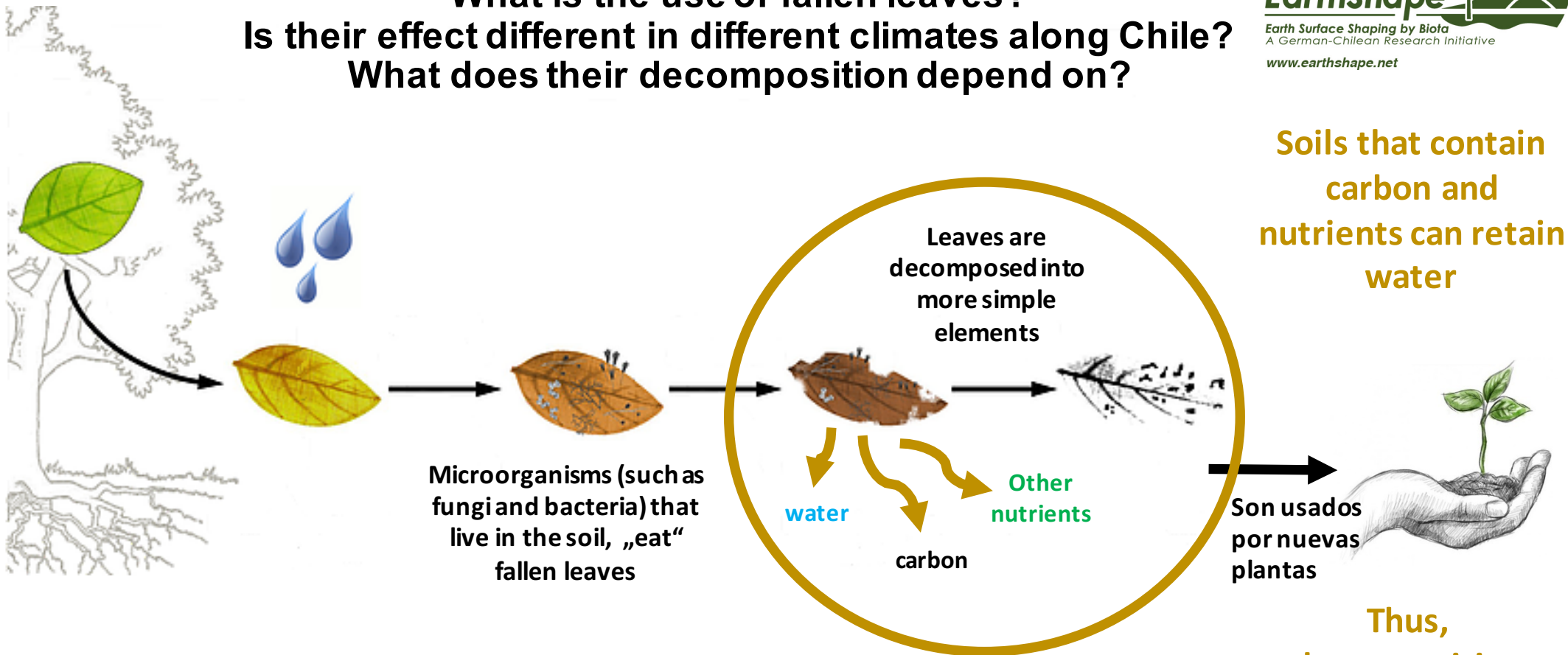
At the sites with running superficial water, we have installed **hidrologic stations**, generating data about the water current.

We hope that our research also serves you!



Group of scientists of EARTHSHAPE visiting the National Park Pan de Azúcar, march 2016

What is the use of fallen leaves? Is their effect different in different climates along Chile? What does their decomposition depend on?



Soils that contain carbon and nutrients can retain water

Thus, decomposition leads to nutrient rich and high quality soils.

Results:

Descomposition depends on:

- Leaves quality (meaning characteristics of diferent plants)
- Clima (environmental temperature and moisture)

→ Our objective is to study the long-term decomposition of different Chilean plant species, and in different climates, to understand how and depending on what it works now, and also how it will develop with a change of climate in the future.

Biological Soil Crusts of the Atacama Desert

1. What is a Biological soil crust?

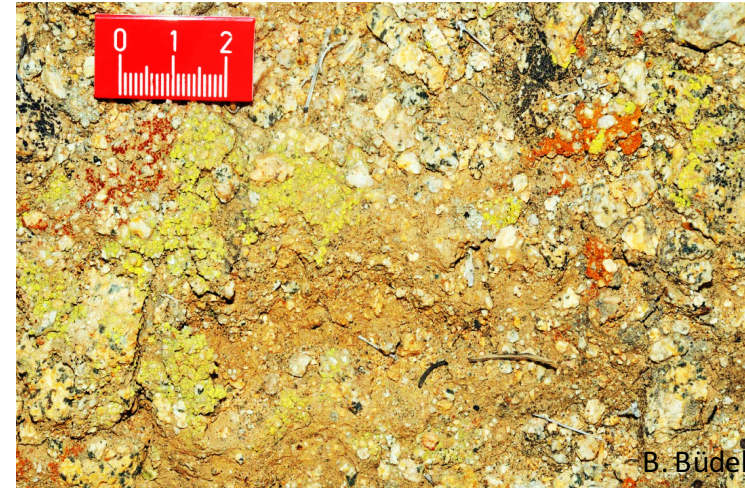
- It is a mixture of organisms at the soils surface composed of: **bacteria, fungi, bryophytes, lichens, cyanobacteria, algae** and their byproducts
- On a global scale, they form the most productive microbial biomass in arid regions
- Crustose lichens are the dominant component in the NP Pan de Azúcar, visible as coloured or blackish spots on the ground
- They are alive, but only active when they receive water, usually via fog

2. What is the function of a Biological Soil Crust?

- Biological soil crusts stabilize the top soil layer against getting blown away by wind
- While breathing (photosynthesis) they fix CO₂ of the atmosphere => they reduce a climate change effect
- They can make nitrogen and phosphorus accessible for other plants as important nutrients

3. What is the aim of our research?

- We want to identify the organisms that contribute to the biological soil crusts
- We use meteorological stations to understand which type of climate they need to be able to grow
- Laboratory tests tell us which nutrients are made available for other plants
- Overall, we want to understand, which role the biological soil crusts play in the landscape of the NP Pan de Azúcar



Biological Soil Crust (Lichens) in Pan de Azúcar (orange and green spots)



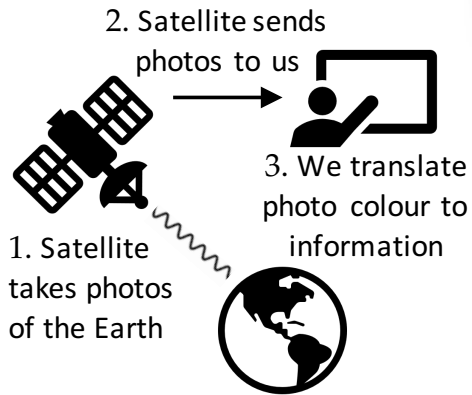
Meteorological station in NP Pan de Azúcar

Example from Parque Nacional Nahuelbuta, Chile

New method: "Remote Sensing"

Which advantages does it provide?

Base of knowledge:
 What is "remote sensing"?



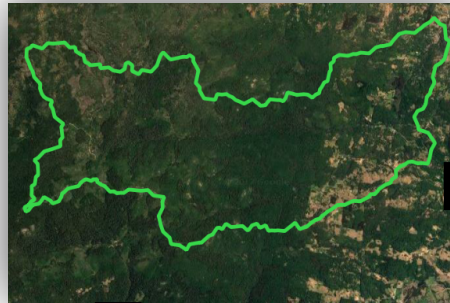
Advantages?

We can create maps of

- Vegetation
- Soil
- Risk of natural hazards
- etc.

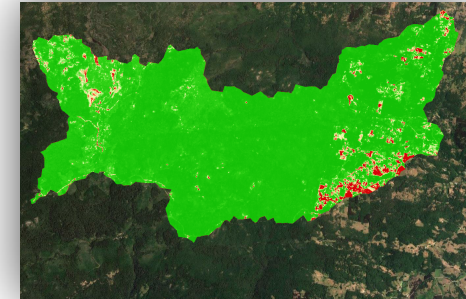
⇒ Information for government and private authorities

- + Satellite images are often free (=> low cost)
- + Satellite images do not destruct
- + Time consuming field work is reduced



Question example 1: Where are the living plants in the National Park?

Digital Analysis



Living plants in green and rocks and soil in brown to red

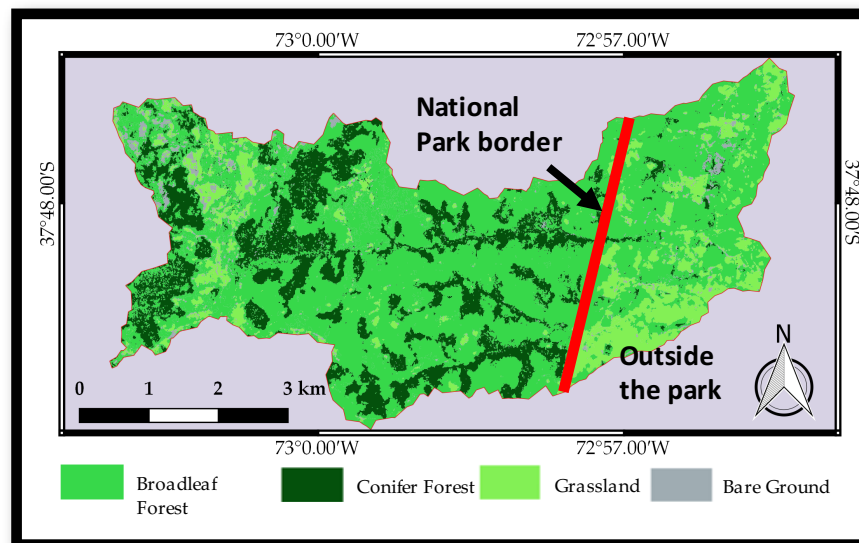
Aerial photo provided by GoogleEarth with a small catchment in the park highlighted

Question example 2: Where are the Araucaries?



Endangered Monkey Puzzle trees (*Araucaria araucana*) in the park

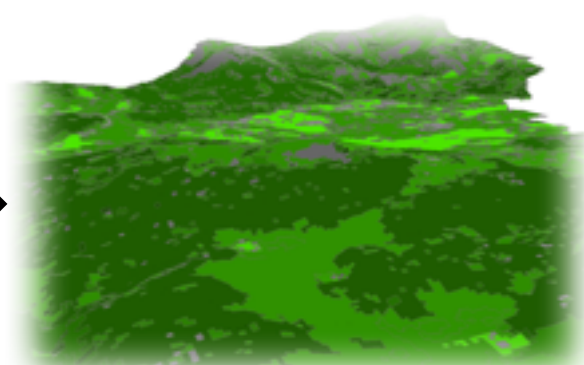
Digital Analysis



"A picture is worth a thousand words. A satellite image is worth a million dollars."
 - Sarah Parcak (American archeologist)

Finally: all needle trees and Araucaries (image colour: darker green), relative to other plants with leaves (image colour: lighter green)

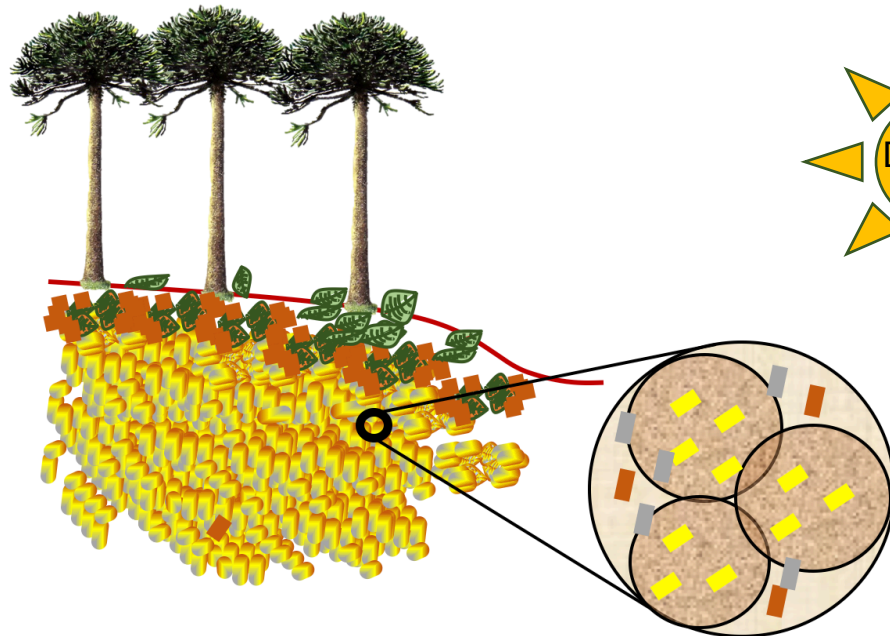
Also in 3D!



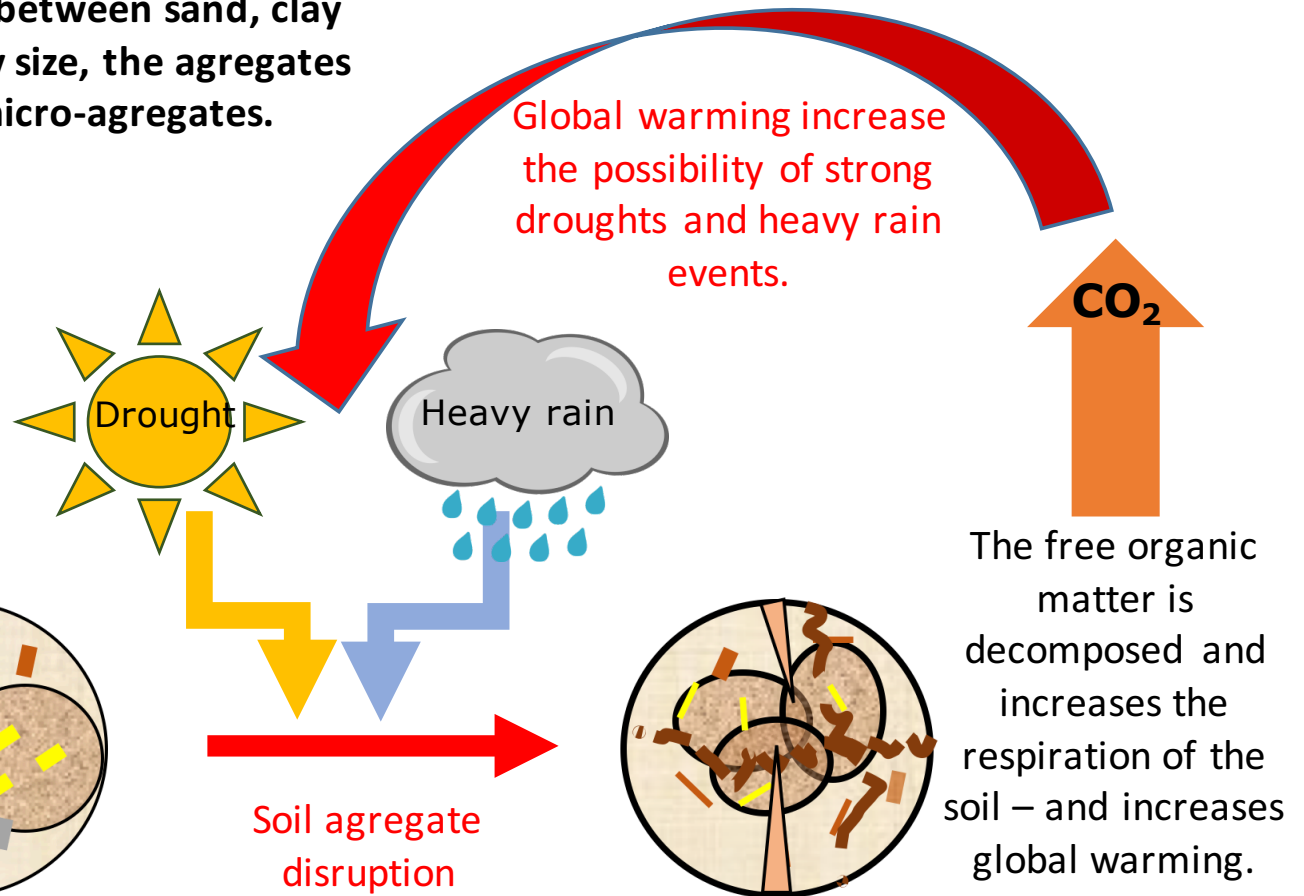
Rain and Drought: An important balance!

What happens when extreme events occur?

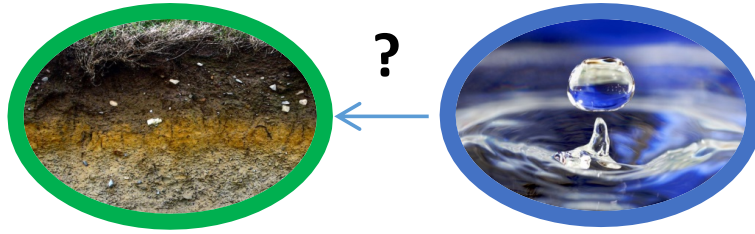
Organic matter is protected in soil between sand, clay and minerals forming aggregates. By size, the aggregates are classified into macro- and micro-aggregates.



- Free organic matter
- Aggregate protected organic matter
- Mineral bounded organic matter



The macro-aggregates cannot protect the micro-aggregates:
They break apart.



Soil and water are fundamental resources for the humanity:

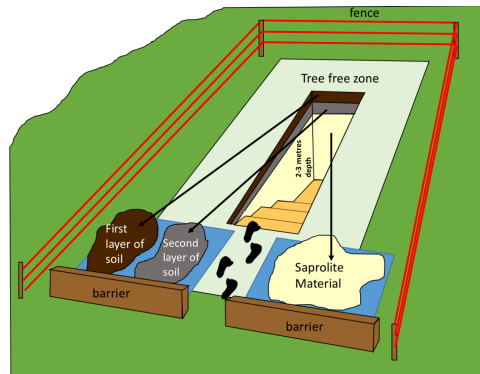
- Every day we drink about 1.5 L or water
- All the food that we eat is produced directly (plants/fruit) or indirectly (animals) from the soil

How do we discover the soil characteristic and the water distribution in the subsurface?

Direct methods

We can observe the soil distribution and the presence of water digging a hole:

- ⚠ • Much work / time consuming
- Expensive



Example of excavated hole (pedon) in the frame of the EarthShape project

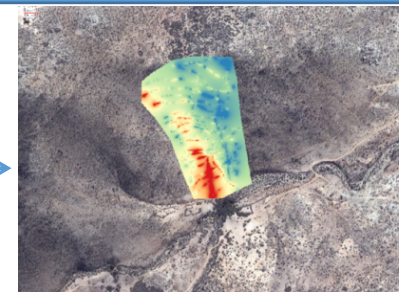
Indirect methods

We can perform indirect geophysical measurements that use electromagnetic principles, detecting changes in the registered signal that can be linked with the presence of water and the clay content in the soil:

- ✓ • Fast
- Non invasive
- Not expensive

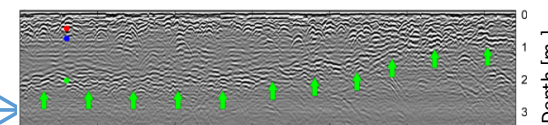


Geophysical measurements



Observations and analysis of the soil electrical conductivity

Electrical conductivity can be linked with the presence/absence of water, salinity, and clay in the soil
 Example: red = water

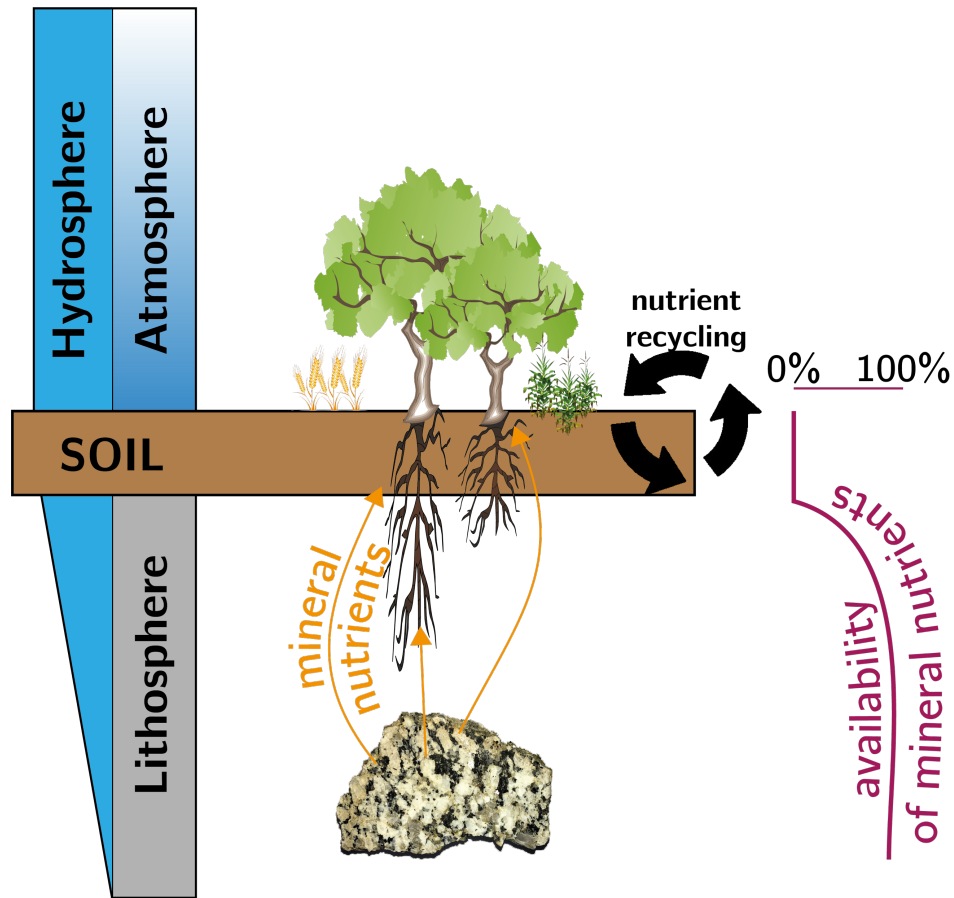


Imaging the distribution and the lateral variation of the soil layers

Observation of the lateral soil layers variability without digging

Soil chemistry:

How do we know when agricultural land is fertile?

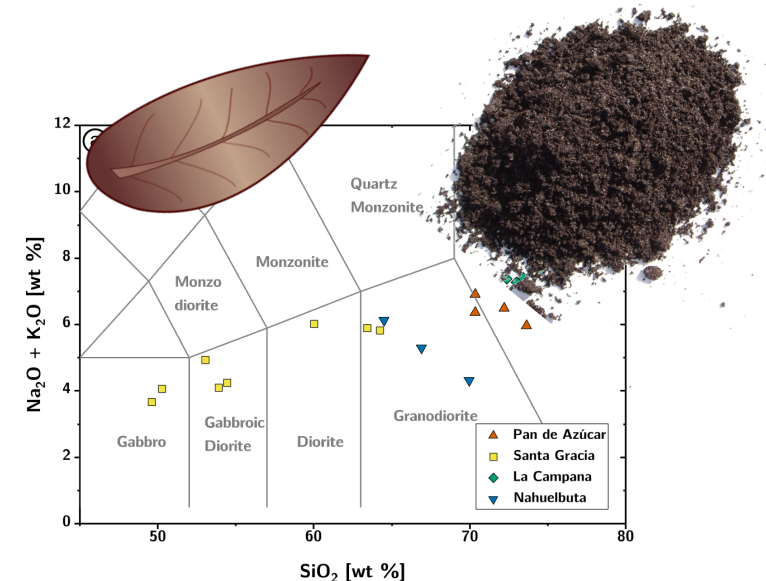


Results:

By knowing the missing nutrients, farmers can fertilize their farmland specifically.

=> Less quantity of fertilizer needed

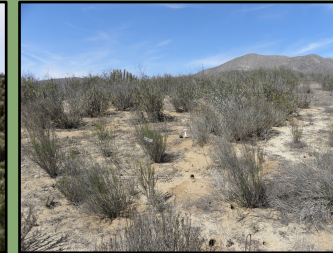
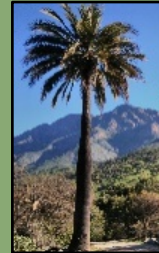
Geochemical Analysis :
¿Which substances are in the soil?



Nutrients derived from rocks and minerals are essential for plants, but are generally depleted in arable top soil.

How does vegetation respond to climate change? Can they survive at the same places?

Many plants cannot survive at any place, they depend a lot on the climate and the soil. They are adapted to the climate and the soil of their origin.



The experiments:

- Rainout shelters simulate a drought mechanically
- Transplants of soil with seeds to another climate helps to understand its influence on the germination and growth of plants
- Exchange of dried leaves to another climate helps understanding its influence on the decomposition of the leaves

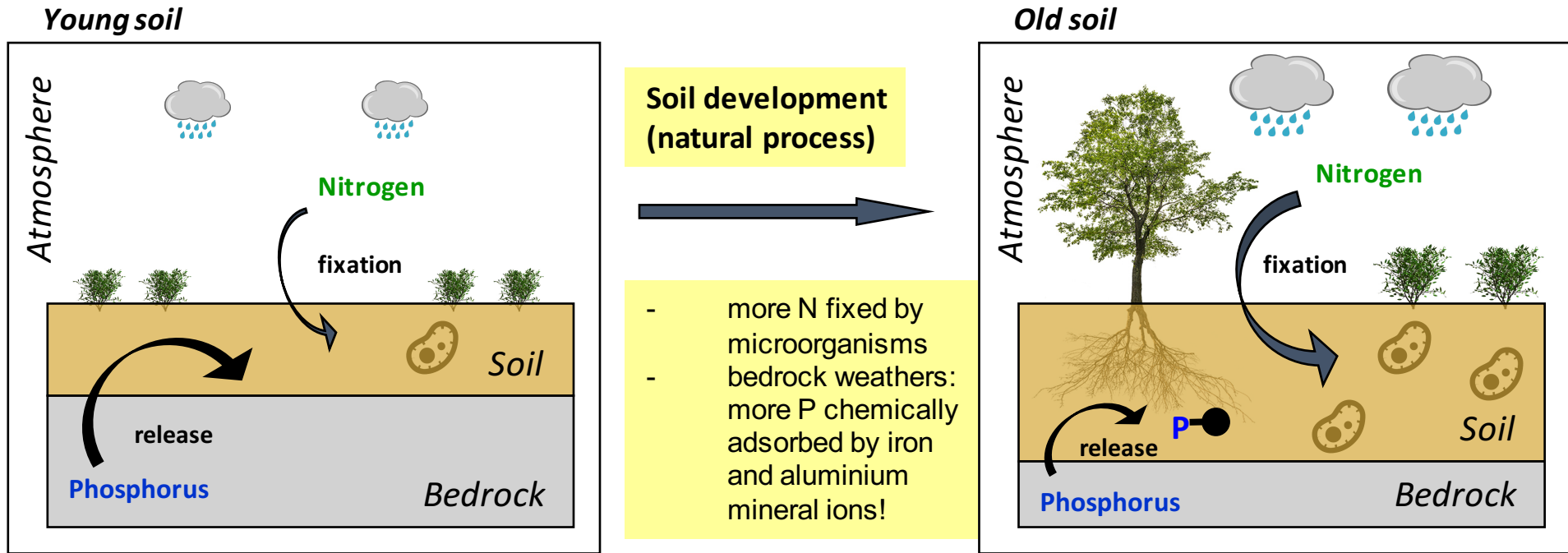


We study under artificially modified climatic conditions:

- germination
- growth
- decomposition
- Nutrient cycle between plants and soil

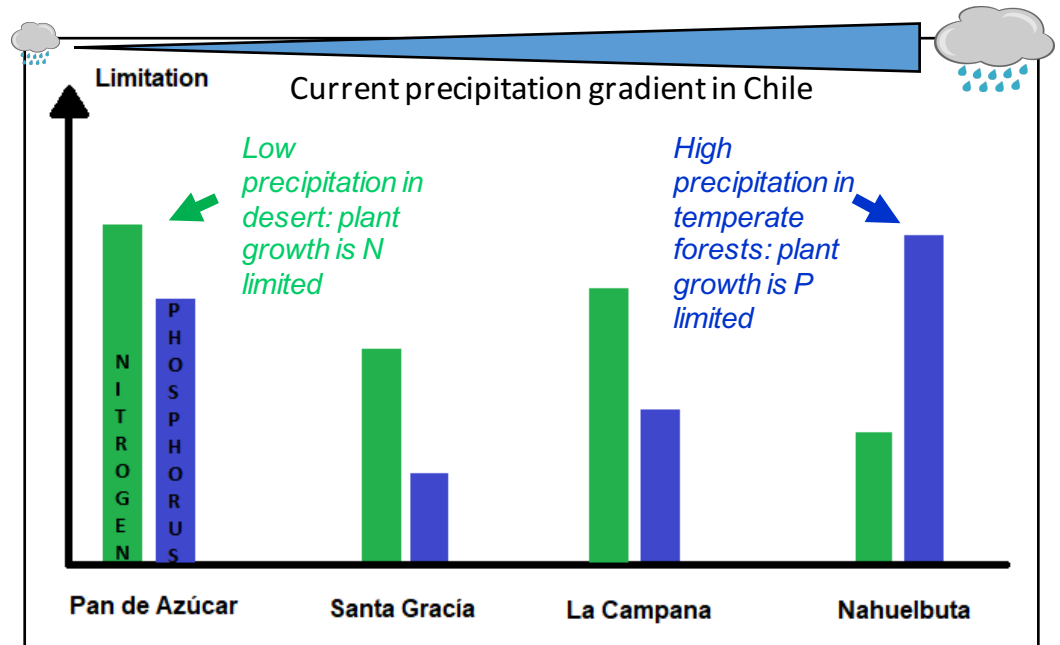
This is how we can understand how ecosystems will change in the future and we can try to protect them as much as possible!

What does climate change mean for agricultural practice?



Climate change means e.g. increasing precipitation. This leads to faster soil weathering. The released phosphorus is chemically bound and not bioavailable.

Result:
 Global warming may cause the need for fertilization with phosphorus!



How does our land look like in the future? – possible scenarios based on available knowledge

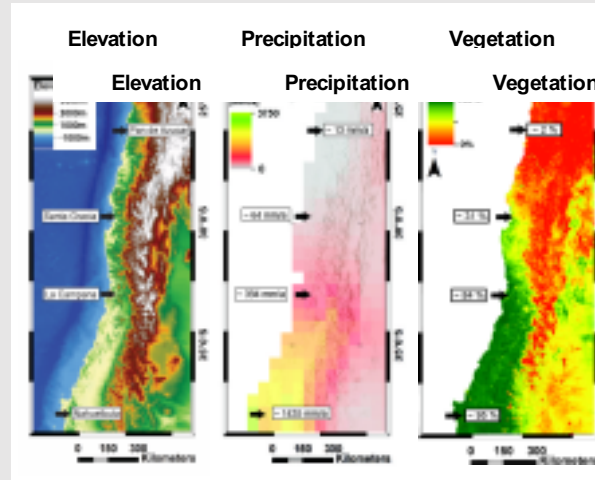
Background I:

Rain (precipitation) erodes land.
 This results in reduced reliefs and slopes.

Vegetation protects land from erosion. The roots stabilize the ground.



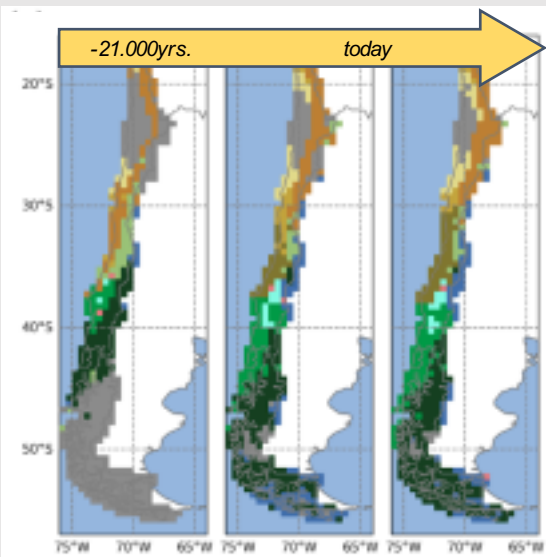
Background II: Information from satellite images



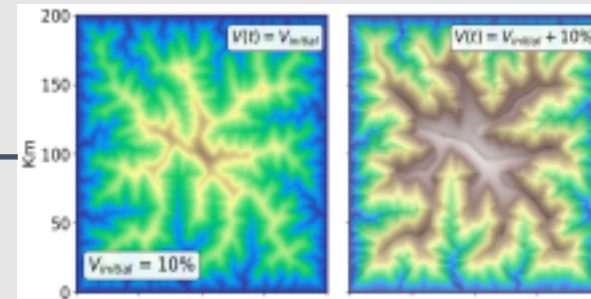
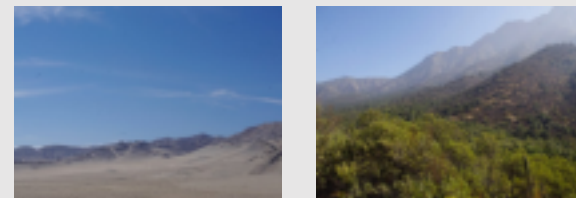
We can extract detailed knowledge from satellite images.

Background III: vegetation computer models

What happens when vegetation becomes more or less (due to e.g. climate change, deforestation, etc.)?
 What happens when it rains more or less?
 What happens when both vary at the same time?



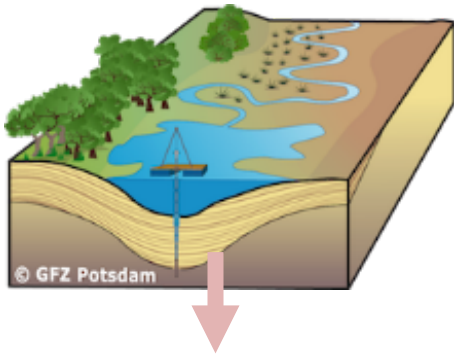
We can extract detailed knowledge from vegetation models based on pollen records and other data that show how vegetation developed over the last 20,000 years



Combining information from satellite images & computer models allows us to calculate how landscapes will develop if precipitation and / or vegetation change.

How can we get information about climatic changes in the past?

Step 1: Collect material containing paleoclimate information (soils, lakes, peatlands or ice deposits)



Paleoclimate: reconstruction of past climate changes

Information about the paleoclimate is important to

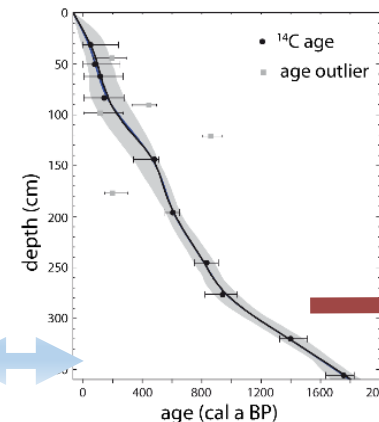
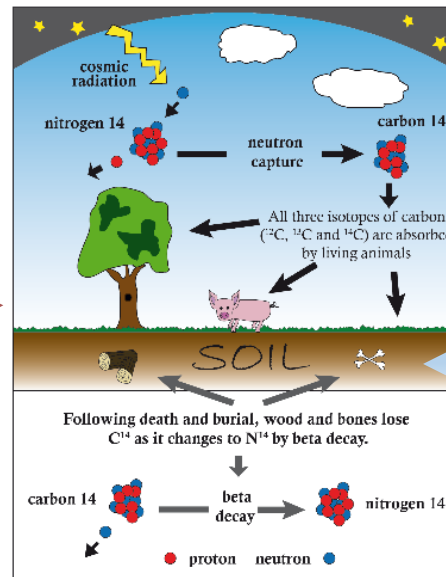
- understand the frequency and causes for climate changes
- study the resistance of ecosystems
- provide information for the modelling of future climate changes

Step 2: Sampling of climate archives by coring, e.g. lakes (sedimentation took place for a long time)



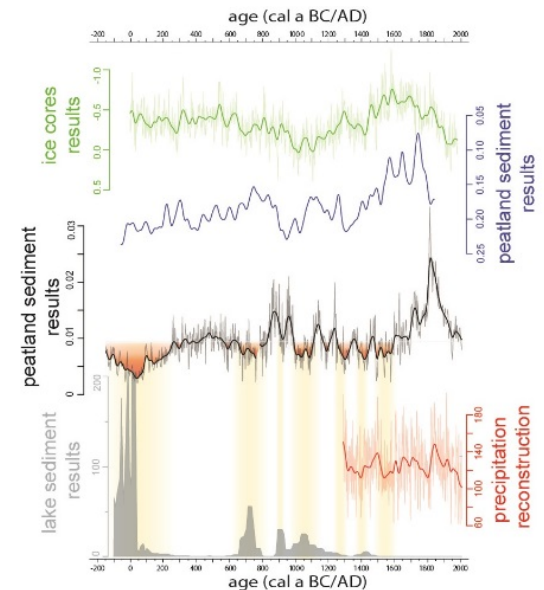
Step 3: Processing of the vertical profiles

Step 3: dating of organic material – identification of the respective ages; radiocarbon method (C^{14})



Dating results of the organic material within the vertical profile

Step 6: Integration of results in regional context – local or regional paleoclimate signal?



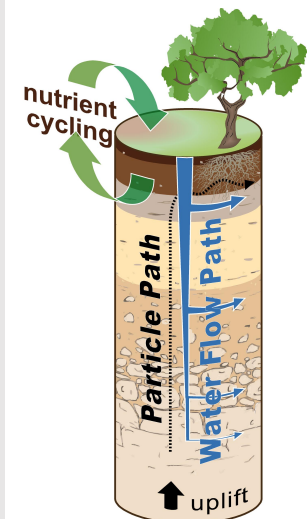
Step 5: geochemical analyses: detailed detection of element composition of the samples



How are soils generated? – By weathering!

And how can we find out about the velocity of soil being formed?

- Based on cosmogenic nuclides!



Erosión

+

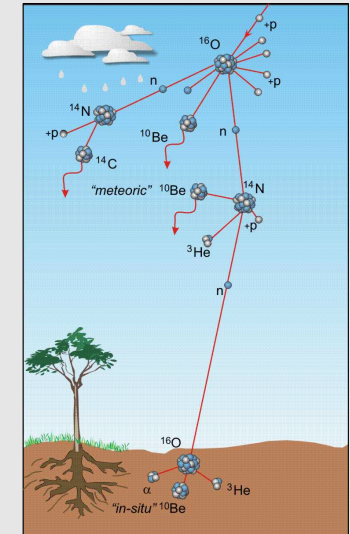
Meteorización

= Denudación

The Earth's surface is always under changing conditions. At the surface there is erosion, in peeder layers there is weathering, degrading rock very slowly. Both processes together are named denudation.

Cosmogenic atoms of ^{10}Be are produced by cosmic radiation at the first meter of the earth's surface. Only in this depth the "clock" works, and it starts working when the material comes up to the first layer (via erosion).

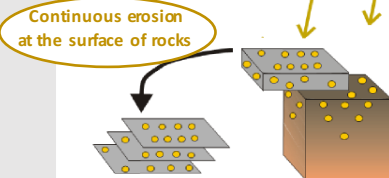
The "clock" is located in the quartz: ^{10}Be cosmogenic nuclides accumulate in there. The half lifetime of such atoms is 1,4 million years.



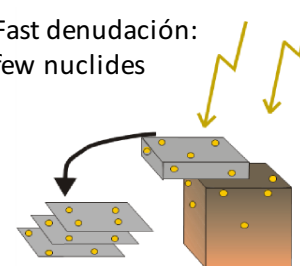
The method is applicable on soils and also for river sediments.



Slow denudation:
Many nuclides



Fast denudación:
few nuclides



If we observe in detail the quantity of cosmogenic nuclides of ^{10}Be atoms in the soil layers, we can detect if the soil erodes fast or slowly.

This type of quartz analysis allows us to get information over the last 10.000 years.

Rain moves soil downhill on hillslopes – what are the consequences?

The experiment:

Soil is the basis for all food production. Rainfall moves soil and may disturb plant growing. This soil movement is a type of erosion, composed of factors as temperature, amount of rain, slope of the surface, soil texture and nutrient content. Experiments with controlled rainfall simulations allow to understand this process.

Step 1:
controlled amount of waterflow falls on the ground

Simulated rain

Surface of measurement:
40 cm x 40 cm

Step 3: Separation of sediment and runoff in the laboratory

Step 4: Analysis of nutrients and soil texture

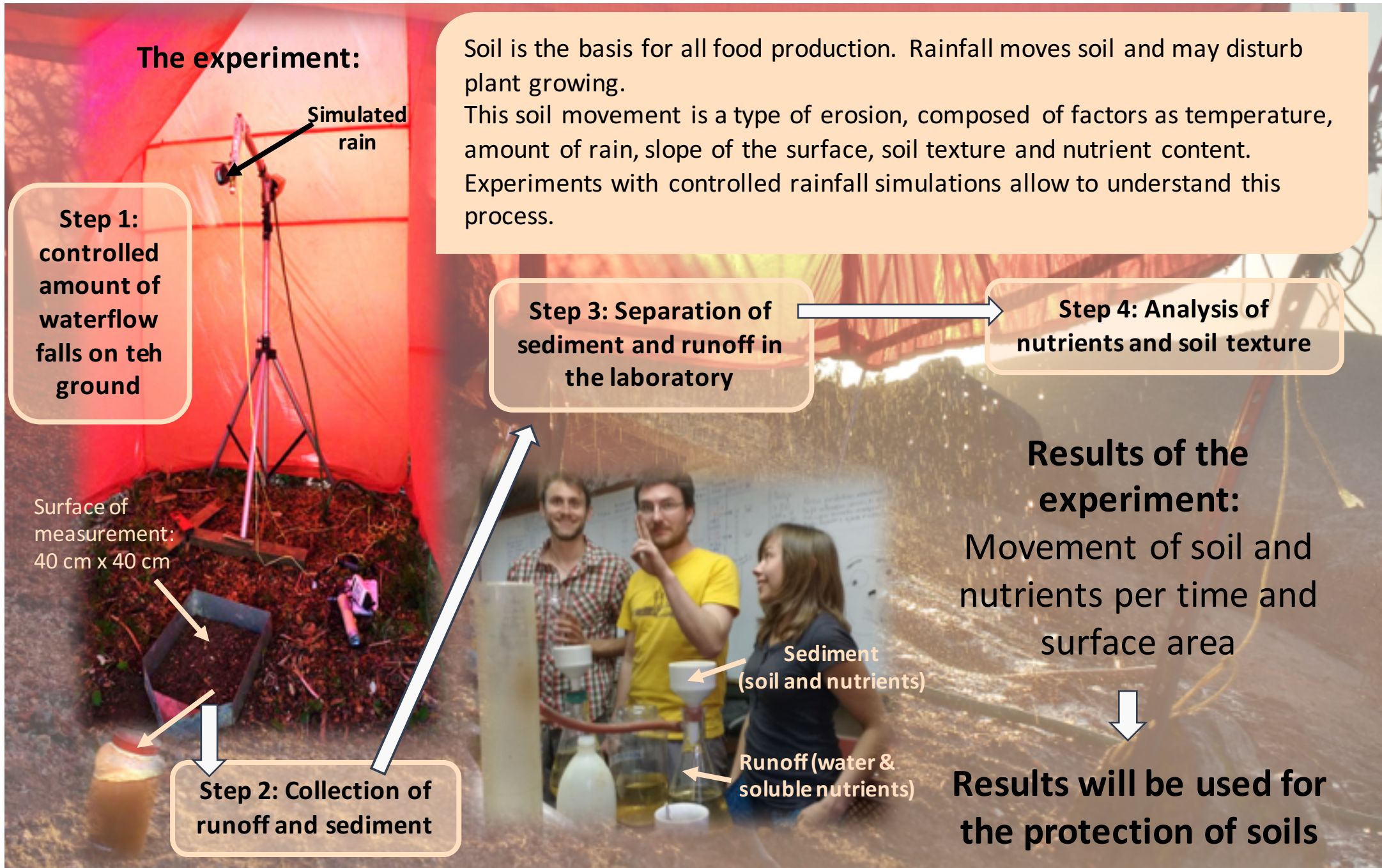
Step 2: Collection of runoff and sediment

Sediment
(soil and nutrients)

Runoff (water & soluble nutrients)

Results of the experiment:
Movement of soil and nutrients per time and surface area

Results will be used for the protection of soils



July 2018

What is *EarthShape*?

Impressum

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