

# From geological to soil parent material maps - a random forest-supported analysis of geological map units and topography to support soil survey in South Tyrol

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## Abstract

Parent material is an important factor of soil formation and consequently plays a dominant role in both traditional field soil survey and digital soil mapping. The emergence of a new generation of geological maps at high spatial and thematic resolution in South Tyrol raises the question of how to effectively incorporate these into soil mapping efforts. By comparing the units of these geological maps with the parent material description of soil pits, we evaluate to what extent these can be used as soil parent material maps. Random forest classification and feature selection are applied to highlight those terrain parameters that 1) best distinguish between the different surficial geology units, 2) separate soil profile sites with different soil parent material, and 3) can be used together with the geologic map to train a classifier to model the distribution of soil parent material in the study area. The main issue detected by analysing the differences between the geologic map units and the soil parent material information is the dominant role of till, which acts as soil parent material for a large number of soils located on different geologic map units. While slope debris is another class with a low producer's reliability, the issues concerning its misclassification are connected to fuzzy categorical transitions between soil parent material classes. Terrain parameters characterizing surface roughness, specifically a combination of vector ruggedness measure (VRM) and topographic roughness index (TRI),

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were identified as being best suited to join the geological map units in modeling soil parent material and indicate areas where till as soil parent material should be expected. By evaluating these results together with the distribution of soil types, a geologic-topographic characterisation is performed for each geological map units, with the aim of highlighting specific combinations of geological unit and topographical situations which should be in the center of future detailed soil surveys.

*Keywords:* geologic map, soil parent material, digital soil mapping, surface roughness, random forest classification, Alpine environment

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## 1. Introduction

Geologic maps have always been an important aid in soil survey as parent material is a decisive factor in soil formation (Jenny, 1941). The importance of this relationship is highlighted by the fact that, vice versa, soil maps have themselves been applied to support and improve geologic mapping (Brevik and Miller, 2015). Providing both the physical structure and the chemical composition of the mineral constituents, parent material plays a fundamental role regarding the direction as well as speed of soil evolution. This is particularly the case in young soils (e.g. Schaetzl et al. (2000)) such as those predominantly found in the Alps (Geitner et al., 2017). Thus, in order to understand the spatial pattern of soils in the Alps, it is essential to identify the types and origins of parent materials, which are, at least in the lower and medium elevations of the Alpine environment, dominated by quaternary unconsolidated sediments. These deposits vary considerably in thickness; they are often multi-layered and exposed to recent morphodynamics, all of which control soil horizon development and properties (Phillips and Lorz, 2008). In this context, it is indicated to include characteristics of the subsolus as often as possible, mainly in order to make soil information more suitable for a wide range of environmental issues, as discussed in detail by Juilleret et al. (2016). Consequently, geological maps at various scales have been used as an environmental variable in digital soil mapping (DSM), representing the soil forming factor parent material, or simply 'p'. In their study which presents the 'scorpan' framework of inferring soil information, McBratney et al. (2003) present a table of studies applying DSM, which also indicates in which of these studies the parent material was involved as an independent variable. In their study which models the carbonate-free depth of soils in Switzerland,

Fracek and Mosimann (2013) attribute a large part of the modelling error to discrepancies between the map units of geologic maps and the actual soil parent material, highlighting the importance of this specific environmental variable in soil modelling. How this important variable is classified, however, will vary greatly depending on the available data, the soil classification system used, the specific mapping guidelines applied, and most importantly the particular geologic and geomorphological setting of the investigated area. In its guidelines for soil description, the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations promotes a hierarchical system for describing lithologies that constitute the soil parent material, based on the major classes igneous rock, metamorphic rock, consolidated and unconsolidated sedimentary rock (FAO, 2006). While the lithologies regarding bedrock as parent material are similar to the types in the classification system used by the surveyors employed by the Forestry Services of the Autonomous Province of Bolzano - South Tyrol as well as North Tyrol (Englisch and Kilian, 1999; Amt der Tiroler Landesregierung, Abteilung Forstplanung, unpublished), this system is closely adapted to the Alpine environment. Specifically, the major class of unconsolidated sedimentary rocks has a far greater number of types in order to satisfy the demands posed by the diversity of the glacial deposits, but also the more recent deposits which are driven mainly by the high relief present in Alpine regions. While such an adaptation of the classes and types of soil parent material to the given circumstances is certainly necessary, communication between soil scientists regarding soil parent materials and comparability is hindered by the multitude of classifications. Juilleret et al. (2016), who stress the importance of describing the subsolum in soil survey, propose a morphogenetic procedure for characterising and classifying subsolum material applying a structure similar to that of the WRB.

A number of studies have compared the information from soil surveys with geologic maps. Juilleret et al. (2012) for instance compared C horizon data from soil profiles with parent material as derived from a geologic map, concluding that surficial geologic maps can be improved with available soil profile data. They also highlight the necessity of improved communication and exchange between the two sciences. Miller and Lee Burras (2015) compared surficial geology maps produced by a Geological Survey with comparable maps produced using Soil Survey maps of higher spatial resolution, reporting an agreement of 81%. In their review covering the subject of improving geologic maps with soil maps, Brevik and Miller (2015) argue that information from both mapping approaches should be integrated, but always

65 under consideration of the limitations and differences between the disciplines. Whereas most of the previously mentioned studies analyse the possibility of using soil survey information, which generally comes at a higher spatial resolution, for mapping surficial geology, the aim of the presented study is to analyse the application of detailed geologic maps as parent material maps,  
70 highlighting those geologic units of the study area where the derivation of soil parent material from geology is not as straightforward as assumed.

A second important soil forming factor is topography or relief. It is considered in traditional soil survey, for instance by mapping landscape position and local slope and curvature (FAO, 2006), and also DSM, where the representing variables implemented in a given model can be chosen from a wide set of available parameters. Examples of such terrain parameters can be found, amongst others, in Böhner and Antonić (2009), Gallant and Wilson (2000) and Olaya (2009). Regarding the geomorphometric characterisation of geologic or soil parent material units, a number of considerations have to  
75 be taken into account when choosing which parameter groups to investigate. While regional parameters well describe the hydrologically relevant, relative position in the landscape, they, as well as absolute and relative height-related parameters, are strongly correlated to the underlying geological structure of a given region. Local parameters such as slope and curvature are often used  
80 to infer soil properties and give insight into local dynamics, but may also vary strongly within a map unit. To characterise parent material units, especially with regard to topographic, and as a result, soil, variability, an intermediate terrain parameter describing a unit's land surface is of particular interest. Researchers have long investigated ways to quantify the roughness  
85 or ruggedness of terrain, from the analysis of field data and topographic maps to computing roughness indices on raster grids. Geology, geomorphology as well as habitat modelling and wildlife management have been the main scientific research areas in which such investigations were performed on land surfaces. Hobson (1972) presented three different roughness values and applied them to field measurements, correlating them to rock type. Beasom et al. (1983) and Nellemann and Thomsen (1994) applied contour line analysis as a way of characterizing terrain ruggedness. Grid-cell based roughness measures were proposed as the topographic roughness index (TRI) by Riley et al. (1999) or the vector ruggedness measure (VRM) by Sappington et al.  
90 (2007), who expanded on the work of Hobson (1972). Similar approaches based on eigenvalue ratios of an orientation matrix were proposed for application in geology for instance by Woodcock (1977) and Coblenz et al.  
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(2014).

The objective of the presented study is to evaluate how to make best use  
105 of available high (both spatial and thematic) resolution geologic and topographic information for soil survey. This is of special interest as, while the quaternary deposits were often neglected in older geologic surveys or aggregated in a single unit, the new generation of geologic maps created within the CARG (Geologic and geothematic cartography of Italy) framework exhibit high detail regarding these surficial deposits. The study area in the Überetsch/Oltradige region of the Autonomous Province Bolzano – South Tyrol was therefore chosen due to the availability of detailed geologic maps, but also the diversity of soil forming factors, especially geology and topography. By applying random forest classification and feature selection, we  
110 investigate which terrain parameters, with emphasis on roughness measures, are best suited to produce a parent material map based on an available geological maps as well as topography. Additionally, the same method is applied to distinguish terrain parameters that, for each soil parent material class, best separate those profile site points that are correctly classified in the geological map from those of the same class that are misclassified. Based on this analysis and a similar investigation into characteristic terrain parameters of the surficial geology map units, each of these is characterised with regard to topography and soil. We emphasize those units which are often confused or show overlap, and should therefore be surveyed with greater detail and  
115  
120 in consideration of relevant topographic information. The main aim of the random forest classification is to identify the topographic characteristics of the parent material and geologic units in order to facilitate future detailed soil surveys, and not necessarily to improve the geological map with regard to its application as a parent material map.

130 **2. Study area and data**

*2.1. General description*

The study area includes the wide vale of Eppan-Kaltern, the Überetsch, located just south-west of Bozen in the Autonomous Province of Bolzano – South Tyrol, and extends in the north to the debris fan of Andrian in  
135 the Etsch Valley and the adjacent hill slope on the orographic right of the Etsch River. The western border of the study area is the steep slope of the Mendola-Roèn-Ridge (max. 2116 m.a.s.l.), whereas the eastern border of the Überetsch as well as the study area is represented by the the Mitterberg, a

ridge of Permian Vulcanites from which steep slopes descend to the Etsch Valley (approx. 200 m a.s.l.). The Kalterer Lake represents the southern limits of the investigated area. The land use of the paleovalley and its debris cones as well as the Etsch valley is dominantly apple orchards and vineyards, whereas the slope of the Mendola-Roèn-Ridge and the hilly outcrops of Vulcanites are covered by forests. Pastures are located mainly on till covering the flat areas of the Mendola-Roèn-Ridge. Figure 1 shows the study area as well as the surficial geologic units and soil profile locations. The study area is characterised by the mild and humid transition zone between the Mediterranean and Continental climate zone. The longtime mean annual precipitation in Montiggl, located in the southeastern quadrant of the study area is 802 mm along with longtime mean annual temperature of 11.9° (Thalheimer, 2006).

## 2.2. *Surficial Geology*

A detailed description of the geologic situation can be found in the commentary to the new geologic map of Eppan (Avanzini et al., 2006). The paleovalley of Überetsch is described by Scholz et al. (2005) as a complex system of gravelly lateral moraines and large kame terraces, the result of the 'Kaltern lobe', a Pleniglacial tongue of the Etsch valley glacier. Additionally, laterally eroded remainders of debris fans that were deposited against the retreating glacier can be found along the slopes of the Mendola-Roèn-Ridge, as well as recent debris flow deposits, often composed of mainly limestone and dolomite fragments. The vale bottom itself is filled with Pleistocene sediments and contains a number of valleys carved into the gravels by fossil melt-water. At the eastern and western borders of the Pleistocene sediments, outcrops of Permian igneous rhyolite and Lapilli-Tuff are responsible for a hilly relief, most prominently at the eastern border of the study area where the Überetsch is separated from the Etsch valley by a steep slope down from the Mitterberg with an elevation difference of approximately 400 m. The steep slopes of the Mendola-Roèn-Ridge are dominated by various Dolomite units, with intermittent layers of sand and siltstones. Except for the very steep Dolomite walls of the ridge, the rarely occurring outcrops of these formations are rounded and mostly covered by Pleistocene and Holocene slope debris, and in locally flatter areas by till.

The study area comprises two map sheets of the new geologic map of Italy, sheet Eppan, which covers the northern and major part of the area, as well as sheet Mezzo-Lombardo in the southern part. The sheets were published at a scale of 1 : 50,000 in 2007 and 2012, respectively. Mapping was performed at

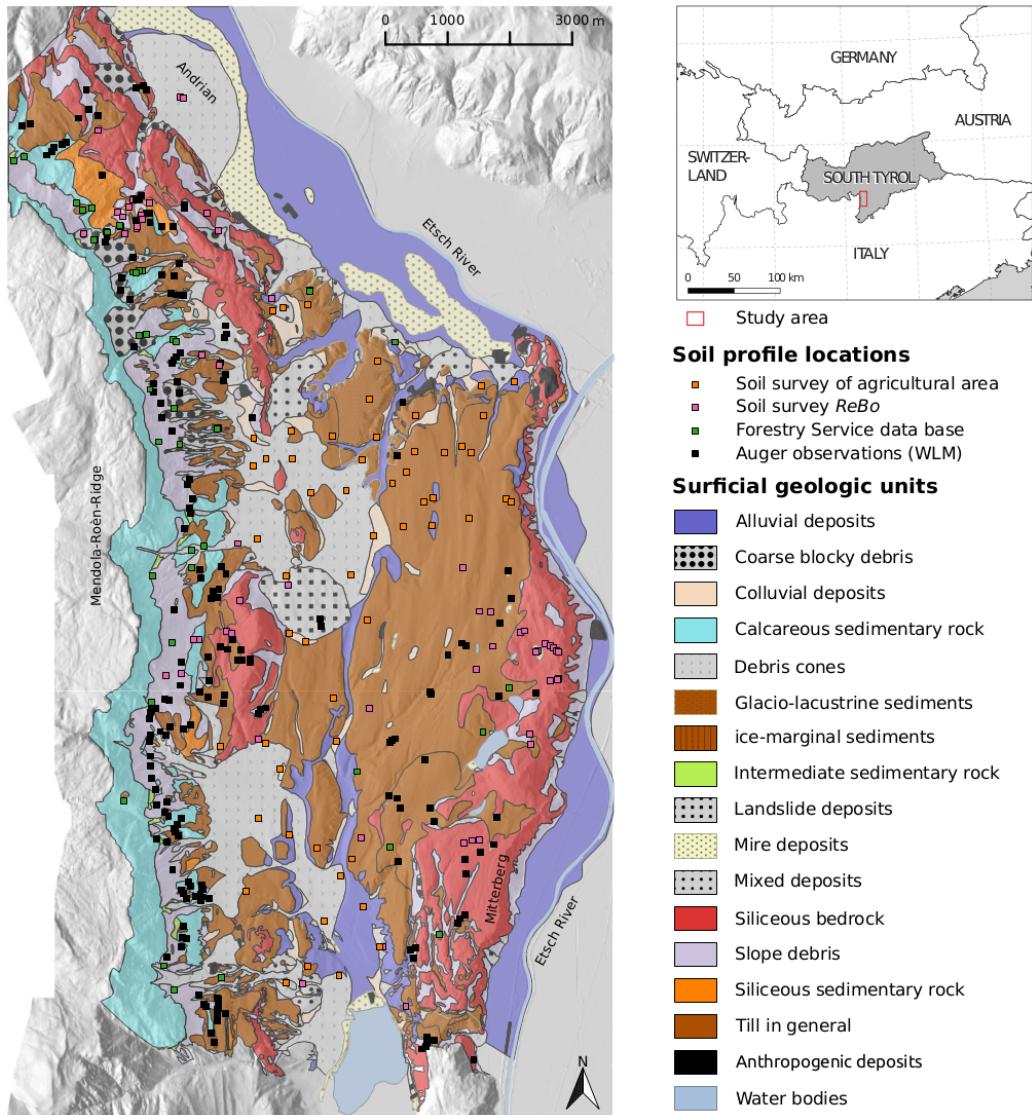


Figure 1: Overview of the study area showing the surficial geology as well as the locations of the soil profile sites analysed in this study. Computations were performed only for the areas covered by surficial geologic units.

a scale of 1 : 10,000, this information was kindly provided by the Department of Geology and Building Material Tests of the Autonomous Province Bolzano – South Tyrol, in shapefile format and used for the analysis performed in this study.

180 For simplification of the analysis and data harmonisation, the original geologic map units were generalised into the 16 surficial geology units (SGUs) described in Table 1, that allow comparison with the parent material units described and identified by the soil surveyors in the field.

SGU	Abbrev.	short description	% area
alluvial deposits	AD	Holocene and Pleistocene deposits of silt, sand and gravels	14.9
coarse blocky debris	CBD	Holocene and Pleistocene blocky deposits of mass movements	1.8
colluvial deposits	CD	footslope deposits	2.4
calcareous sedimentary rock	CSR	limestones and dolomites	8.4
debris cones	DC	Holocene conic deposits from debris flows and torrents	12.7
glaciolacustrine and lacustrine deposits	GLD	(fine) sand deposits (with dropstones)	2.5
ice-marginal sediments	IMS	clast-supported gravels	0.2
intermediate sedimentary rock	ISR	silt- and sandstones	0.2
landslide deposits	LD	large landslide deposits	1.2
mire deposits	MrD	Holocene and Pleistocene silt and peat deposits	3.3
mixed deposits	MxD	Pleistocene deposits from debris flows, torrents and avalanches	2.1
siliceous bedrock	SB	rhyolite and rhyodazite tuffs and ignimbrites	13.0
slope debris	SD	Holocene and Pleistocene debris on slopes	10.3
siliceous sedimentary rock	SSR	silt- and sandstones	1.1
till in general	TG	undifferentiated glacial deposits	25.9

Table 1: Generalised surficial geology units in alphabetic order with abbreviations and short descriptions. Additionally, the proportion of the study area covered by each unit is given. Anthropogenic deposits are not included in the analysis.

### 2.3. Soil data sets and soil classification

185 Figure 2 gives an overview of the distribution of the soil types amongst the soil profiles incorporated into the analysis and located within study area. The soil classification scheme applied in this study is the Austrian system (Nestroy et al., 2000, 2011), as most of the soil profile descriptions available for this study apply this system which is also well adapted to the Alpine environment (Baruck et al., 2016). Furthermore, it is generally recommendable to use local systems for large-scale mapping and not all available soil profile data, especially those from points investigated only with augering, included sufficient information for deriving the reference soil group according to the World Reference Base for soil resources (IUSS Working Group WRB, 2015).

190 195 Table 2 gives an overview of which reference soil groups are best correlated to the relevant soil types in the Austrian classification. Classification of the soil profiles was performed at the subtype level, a basic overview of the Austrian soil classification system can be found in Baruck et al. (2016).

200 *Soil data base 1: soil survey of agricultural areas in the Überetsch/Oltradige region.* From 1993-1995 a soil survey of the farmlands in the region Überetsch was conducted (Thalheimer, 2006). Soil types were classified according to Soil

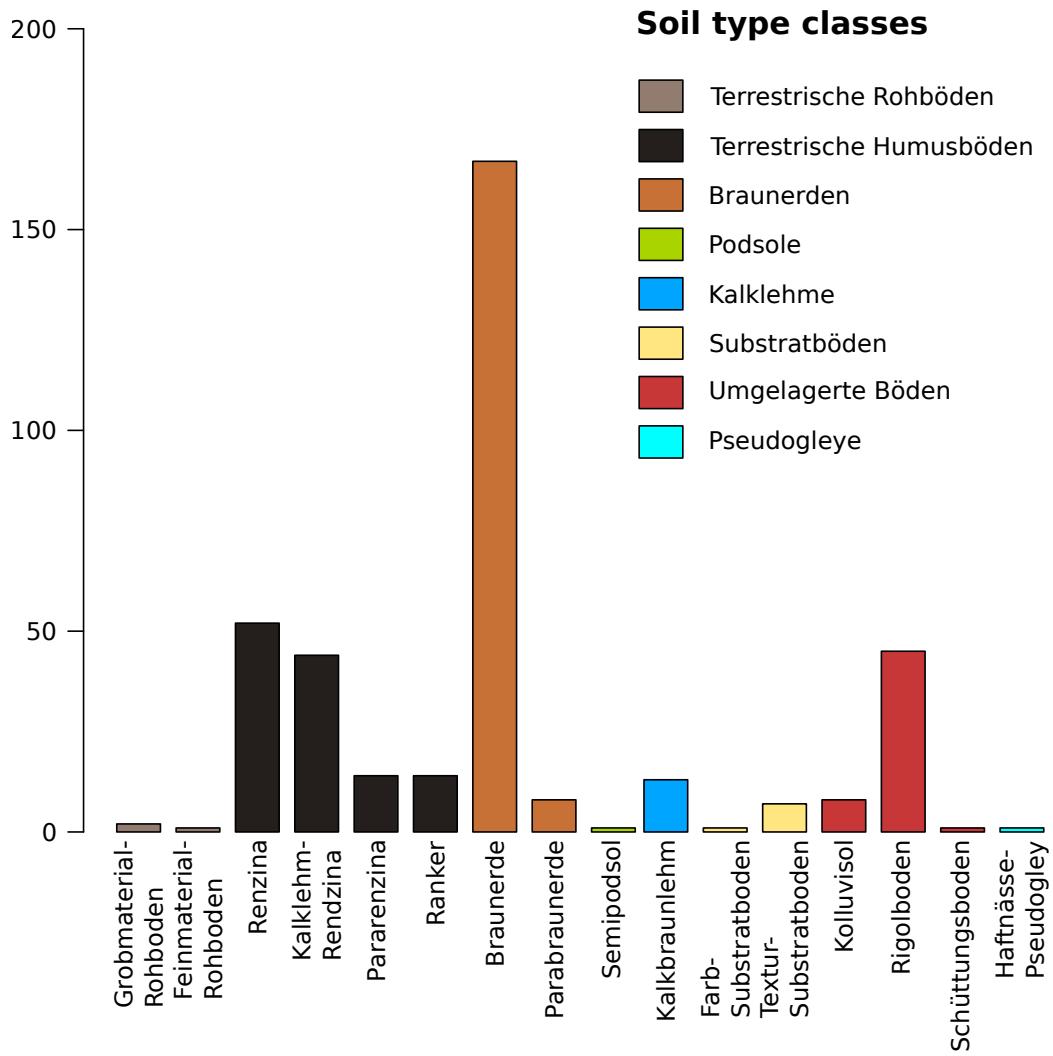


Figure 2: Barplot showing the number of soil profiles for each of the soil types identified at least for one of the data points in the study area. Coloring indicates the soil type classes. Classification was performed according to the Austrian soil classification (Nestroy et al., 2000, 2011). Relationships with WRB reference groups can be found in Table 2

Taxonomy, resulting in a soil map with 18 different soil series. 58 detailed soil pit descriptions were incorporated into the presented study, all located either in vineyards or apple orchards. Using the horizon descriptions, chemical properties as well as photographs of the pit face, these soil profiles were

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soil type	corresponding groups	WRB	short description	soil class
Grobmaterial-Rohboden	Leptosol, Regosol, Histosol		same as Feinmaterial-Rohboden but with more than 40 V.-% coarse fraction	Terrestrische Rohböden
Feinmaterial-Rohboden	Leptosol, Regosol, Histosol, Arenosol		only initial soil formation ( $A_i$ horizon) on parent material with less than 40 V.-% coarse fraction	Terrestrische Rohböden
Rendzina	Leptosols, Histosols		only an A or organic horizon on calcareous bedrock.	Terrestrische Humusböden
Kalklehmrundzina	Leptosol		soils with a loamy A horizon on calcareous bedrock.	Terrestrische Humusböden
Pararendzina	Leptosol, Regosol, Umbrisol, Histosol		only an A horizon on carbonate-containing unconsolidated sediment or bedrock.	Terrestrische Humusböden
Ranker	Leptosol, Umbrisol, Regosol		only an A or organic horizon on siliceous bedrock.	Terrestrische Humusböden
Braunerde	Cambisol, Fluvisol, Luvisol, Umbrisol, Regosol		with brown B-horizon owing to weathering and (re-)formation of clay minerals.	Braunerden
Parabraunerde	Luvisol, Albiluvisol, Cambisol		with eluvial A horizon over clay-enriched B-horizon.	Braunerden
Semipodsol	Podzol, Regosol		characterized by moderate podzolization.	Podsole
Kalkbraunlehm	Cambisol, Luvisol		with a yellow- to redbrown cohesive B-horizon on calcareous bedrock, often fossil soils	Kalklehme
Farb-Substratboden	Regosol, Luvisol		strong influence of color of parent material, overprinting horizon differentiation	Substratböden
Textur-Substratboden	Regosol		strong influence of texture of parent material, overprinting horizon differentiation	Substratböden
Kolluvisol	Anthrosol		developed from fine soil material relocated by (often human-induced) erosion	Umgelagerte Böden
Rigolboden	Anthrosol		influenced by deep, homogenizing human cultivation	Umgelagerte Böden
Haftnässe-Pseudogley	Stagnosol, Planosol		influenced by shallow, capillary stagnation phases	Pseudogleye

Table 2: Corresponding WRB reference groups for the Austrian soil types encountered in the study area, along with a simplified description based on Nestroy et al. (2011).

reclassified applying the Austrian System (Nestroy et al., 2000, 2011).

- Soil data base 2: soil survey 'ReBo - Terrain Classification of ALS Data to support Digital Soil Mapping'.* During this project, which was funded by the Autonomous Province Bolzano – South Tyrol and had the aim to investigate optimal cooperation between soil survey and terrain classification, 55 soil pit profiles were described in the presented study area based on field work in 2014 and 2015. In addition to detailed soil profile descriptions, grain size distribution and pH analyses were performed in the lab. Soil classification was performed following Kilian (2015), based on Nestroy et al. (2000, 2011).
- Soil data base 3: data base of the Forestry Service of the Autonomous Province Bolzano – South Tyrol.* From the point data base provided by the Forestry Service of the Autonomous Province Bolzano – South Tyrol, 42 soil pit locations are situated in the study area discussed in this article. For each of these sites, which either belong to the Forestry monitoring scheme or were mapped during the course of the Forestry type survey (APB, 2006), soil type, parent material and a detailed soil pit description are provided.

*Soil data base 4.* While performing field work for the Forestry type survey (APB, 2006), the engineering office 'Wald Landschaft Mensch' (WLM) also produced a model of the forest substrate for South Tyrol for use in modeling  
225 forest types. For validation, a large number of augur points were described and geolocated, of which 227 are located within the study area and were kindly provided by the company. The information for each point includes the soil type as well as a description of the geologic situation, including information on cover layers if present.

*230 2.4. Digital terrain model*

The digital terrain model applied in this study has a grid cell size of 2.5 m and was computed as the result of an airborne laser scanning mission. For the flatter valley bottoms and densely inhabited areas, the average achieved last-pulse point density is reported as 1.3 pts/m<sup>2</sup> by Wack and Stelzl (2005), while  
235 this measure is lower for the remaining, less populated areas and mountain slopes (0.8 pts/m<sup>2</sup>). Using 8 independent sites with 60 ground points for elevation accuracy assessment, the average standard deviation of heights was established as 6.7 cm. While all tiles were previously available for download at the homepage the Autonomous Province of Bolzano – South Tyrol (APB,  
240 2016), the entire data set is now provided freely upon request per email, while smaller areas can still be downloaded. In addition to being used at this high resolution, the DTM was also resampled to 10 and 50 m using average aggregation with the tool 'r.resamp.stats' implemented in GRASS GIS (GRASS Development Team, 2016), in order to consider the issue of  
245 scale in the analyses.

### **3. Methods**

#### *3.1. Terrain parameters with emphasis on roughness measures*

##### *3.1.1. Local and regional terrain parameters*

The terrain parameters used in this study were computed using the open  
250 source GIS GRASS (GRASS Development Team, 2016) and SAGA (Conrad et al., 2015). They were performed at different spatial resolutions (2.5, 10 and 50 m) and, where applicable, at different moving window sizes. Local terrain parameters, including slope and minimal, maximal, profile, longitudinal as well as cross-sectional curvature were computed based on the algorithms of Wood (1996) as implemented in the tool 'r.param.scale' in GRASS,  
255

which allows varying the computational window size. Regional terrain parameters, amongst them catchment area, topographic wetness index, height above channel network and others, were computed with SAGA both at high (2.5 m) and low (50 m) spatial resolution.

260    *3.1.2. Surface roughness-related terrain parameters*

*Topographic roughness index.* The topographic roughness index was presented by Riley et al. (1999) for use in habitat analyses. It compares the elevation of a central pixel to the elevations of cells within a given search window by calculating the square root of the sum of the squared differences.

265    *Terrain texture.* In their automated landform classification algorithm, Iwahashi and Pike (2007) present terrain texture, or feature frequency, which can also be interpreted as a measure for surface roughness. This measure is quantified by the number of features, i.e. pits or peaks, in a specified search window. These features are extracted by computing the difference between  
270    a DTM and its median-filtered version.

*Vector-based roughness measures.* In an attempt to decorrelate roughness from slope, Sappington et al. (2007) expanded on the work of Hobson (1972) to introduce vector ruggedness measure (VRM), which is calculated based on the orientation of vectors normal to the surface in a given area. Its implementation as the tool 'r.vector.ruggedness' in GRASS was used for computation in this study. Grohmann et al. (2010), who also authored a GRASS implementation ('r.roughness.vector'), analysed several roughness measures at different resolutions and window sizes with regard to their ability to depict terrain features. They highlight the ability of VRM to detect fine-scale  
275    roughness features and attribute low roughness values to steep but smooth slopes, but also acknowledge its inability to delimit slope breaks and identify regional relief.

*Landform diversity.* Landform diversity can also be interpreted as a form of surface roughness, i.e. a high number of landforms in a given search window  
285    signifies high terrain roughness. (Jasiewicz and Stepinski, 2013) present an automated landform classification based on a pattern recognition approach using line-of-site calculations. The two main parameters that can be tweeked for landform segmentation are the search radius up to which the surroundings of a central raster cell are scanned and the flatness threshold angle, under  
290    which a surface is considered as flat. In this study, the resulting map featuring

a maximum of ten landform classes is used as the input for the calculation of patch indices such as edge density or mean patch size (mps) and diversity indices like dominance or richness with the GRASS module 'r.li' for landscape structure analysis. The landform maps were calculated at micro and meso scale (search radii of 7.5 and 50 m, respectively) applying flatness thresholds of 1 and 10°, based on Gruber et al. (2017), who analysed 'r.geomorphon' and other automated landform classifications with regard to optimal parameter values for representing topographic position in soil survey.

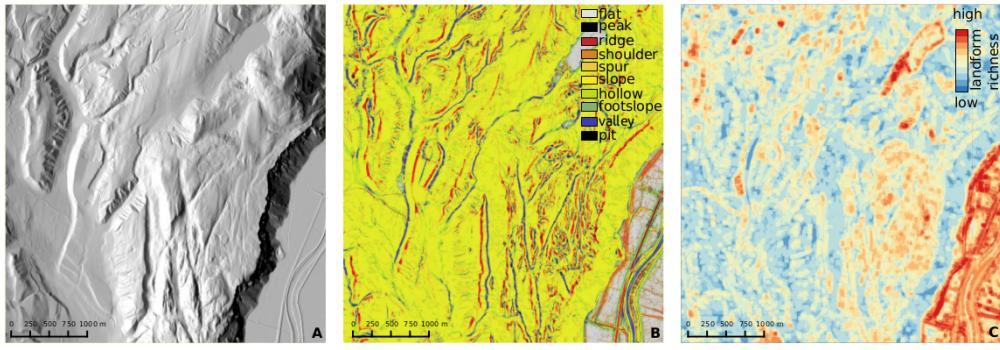


Figure 3: Example of a landscape diversity measure based on a landform map computed with a search radius of 50 m and a flatness threshold of 1°. **A** shows the shaded relief of the 2.5 m DTM on which the calculations are based and **B** the resulting landform map. Based on this, **C** landform richness is computed as the number of different landforms in a search window of 20 cells.

### 3.2. Random Forest classification

Random forests (Breiman, 2001) belong to the family of machine learning algorithms, meaning that based on test data, statistical patterns between explanatory variables and the dependent variables are sought and then applied to predict the latter based on new data sets comprised of the dependent variables. A comparison of machine learning approaches for classification in soil mapping can be found in Heung et al. (2016). Contrary to single classification trees, random forests use an ensemble of classification trees to predict class affiliation, each based on a bootstrap sample of the test data and a limited number of randomly chosen explanatory variables. Random forest classification, as implemented in the R (R Core Team, 2014) package 'randomForest', also has the advantage of computing variable importance measures such as 'mean decrease accuracy' and 'mean decrease Gini' that

provide insight into and quantify the importance of each predictor variable in a specific model. Additionally, the out-of-bag error, in which each model based on the bootstrap sample is validated with the remaining unused data,  
315 provides a valuable estimate of the prediction error of random forests. Due to the rather investigative use of random forest classification in this study, the authors refrained from optimizing the parameters of the classification algorithm.

### *3.3. General workflow*

In a first step we investigate how well the units of the geologic map correspond to the parent material identified by the soil surveyor at the soil pit locations, thus evaluating the performance and reliability of available geologic maps to support soil survey in South Tyrol. After generalisation  
320 of the geologic map units into surficial geology units (SGUs) which can be compared to the parent material units used in the various surveys, a confusion matrix is produced which shows to which extent the geologic units are in accordance with the parent material mapped by the surveyor.  
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The next step, a data mining approach using random forest classification, is performed to better understand the topographic characteristics of the surficial geology and parent material units. By applying a five-fold cross-validated forward step-wise feature selection and evaluating the 'mean decrease accuracy' of the predictor variables, we identify which terrain parameters are best suited to perform the different tasks of:  
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1. Expanding the geological map to a parent material map by modeling  
335 parent material based on the profile site descriptions, the topography of their locations and the information provided by the new geologic map with its detailed information with regard to surficial geology.
2. Discriminating for each SGU those points that were correctly classified to a parent material class by the geological map from those where  
340 this information differed to the parent material identified by the field surveyors.
3. Distinguishing between adjacent soil parent material classes as identified by the soil surveyors during field survey.
4. Separating and consequently characterising the surficial geology units  
345 as described by the geological map.

In contrast to using all possible terrain parameters at once, this procedure produces only a limited number of explanatory variables, which has the ad-

vantage of simplifying interpretability, as the main aim is to identify, highlight, and understand those situations where the most confusion between parent material units as documented by surveyors on the one side, and the geologic map on the other side, occur. The whole feature selection procedure for each of the tasks was itself performed in five-fold cross-validation with four parameter sets: 1) all terrain parameters, 2) local terrain parameters, 3) regional terrain parameters, 4) surface roughness-related parameters. Regarding task 1, emphasis was soon set on the roughness measures, which are deemed best suited to enhance the geologic map, as the geological units already implicitly contain information with regard to regional and local terrain parameters.

The connection between the two important soil forming factors, parent material and topography, on the one hand, and soil as the result of these factors on the other, is then investigated by analysing the diversity and distribution of soils for each geologic unit. This is performed from two points of view: the soil type distribution is done for profile sites per geologic unit, but also per parent material unit as attributed by the soil surveyor. This gives insight into how the surveyors' soil landscape model relates specific parent material units to specific soil types, especially when applying a morphologic-genetic classification such as the Austrian soil classification (Nestroy et al., 2000, 2011). The synthesis of this information regarding topography, parent materials, and soils then leads to a geologic-topographic characterisation (GTC) that describes each surficial geology unit.

## 4. Results and discussion

### 4.1. Comparison of soil parent material at soil profile sites with geologic map units

For the following results and discussion, the confusion matrices and the accuracy measures are calculated and interpreted as if the field observations described by the surveyors had been planned to validate the use of the geologic map as a map of soil parent material. That is, the columns represent the reference classes while the rows are the classified classes. The producer's reliability is therefore calculated by considering the values and sum per column of the confusion matrix, whereas user's accuracy, or its counterpart, the error of commission, is obtained by aggregating across the rows. A comparison of the soil parent material class identified in the field survey and the SGU from the geological map for the same position shows that while these match for 186 of the profile sites, leading to an overall accuracy, or correct classification rate, of 49 %, there is a high number of misclassification.

A first view at the confusion matrix (Table 3) indicates that a considerable amount of these misclassifications involve the classes till (TG) and slope deposits (SD).

### 4.2. Geologic-topographic characterisation of the predominant SGUs

Through synthesis of i) results of the comparison of the soil point data and the geologic map, ii) the random forest analysis of terrain parameters and iii) the distribution of soil types in the study area, a geologic-topographic characterisation (GTC) of the SGUs for use in soil survey is performed. Only those units with substantial areal extent and sufficient soil profile points are described in detail.

#### 4.2.1. Alluvial deposits

The SGU alluvial deposits occupies 16.3 km<sup>2</sup>, amounting to 14.9 % of the study area. It incorporates alluvial deposits in the paleovalley but also in the Etsch valley. The existing soil profile points are however limited to the paleovalley. The alluvial deposits share very long borders with the SGUs till, debris cones, mire deposits and colluvial deposits, due to its bifurcated vertical transection of the study area. Long borders can therefore also be found with the units glacio-lacustrine deposits, mixed deposits, slope debris and till. There is agreement between the geological map and the soil profile description in 7 (54 %) of the 13 profiles for which the soil surveyors identified

	AD	CBD	CD	CSR	DC	GLD	IMS	ISR	LD	MrD	MxD	SB	SD	SSR	TG
AD	7	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	3
CBD	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	0	2
CD	0	0	3	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
CSR	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	7	0	0	1	0	13	0	12
DC	4	0	3	0	5	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	20	0	2
GLD	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
IMS	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
ISR	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0
LD	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
MrD	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
MxD	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	0	1
SB	0	1	1	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	2	14	3	1	24
SD	0	3	0	2	1	0	0	4	0	0	0	4	55	0	15
SSR	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	0	3	3	1	
TG	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	3	0	1	5	0	9	0	88

Table 3: Tabular comparison of parent material geounits as observed by soil surveyor (columns) and in the geologic map (rows). Abbreviations: AD = alluvial deposits, CBD = coarse blocky debris, CD = colluvial deposits, CSR = calcareous sedimentary rock, DC = debris cones, GLD = glaciolacustrine and lacustrine deposits, IMS = ice-marginal deposits, ISR = intermediate sedimentary rock, LD = landslide deposits, MrD = mire deposits, MxD = mixed deposits, SB = siliceous bedrock, SD = slope deposits, SSR = siliceous sedimentary rock, TG = till in general

this SGU as the soil parent material. Some confusion with the SGUs debris cones and till can be observed, the former from the viewpoint of producer's reliability and the latter as an error of commission.

An investigation of the soil profile sites that were identified by surveyors as having alluvial deposits as parent material but are located on a different unit on the geological map, shows that these are characterized by consistently lower vector strength at 112.5 m window size, indicating rougher terrain. This is confirmed by higher landform richness values at meso scale along with higher vector ruggedness for the incorrectly classified data points (Table 4). Addressing the confusion of alluvial deposits with till, the random forest investigation shows that besides obvious channel-level-related terrain parameters, which well separate the units, convexity contributes strongly to distinguishing between alluvial deposits and till on the geologic map, with the former characterised by lower values. It must however be taken into account

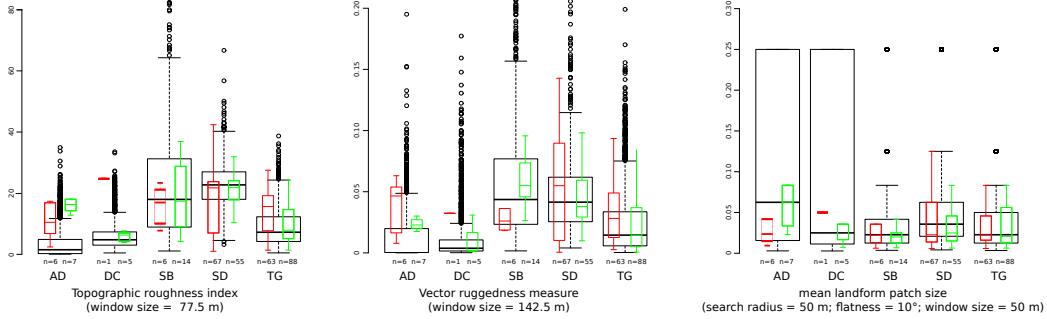


Figure 4: Boxplots of three different roughness measures for the most common and confused parent material classes. The large black boxplots characterise the topography of the respective units of the geologic map, while the smaller boxplots inside the larger ones represent the values of the soil profile sites for which the surveyors identified the corresponding parent material class. Green boxes indicate the distribution of the terrain parameters for those profile sites for which surveyor and SGU map agreed regarding the parent material, whereas red boxes represent sites located on a different SGU.

that the SGU in the study area also incorporates parts of the wide Etsch valley floor, whereas the soil profile points are situated in the paleovalley of the Überetsch. The same investigation, but performed from the viewpoint of the surveyor (i.e. using the field data points and their parent material information), identifies a very local (small window size) version of the TRI as best suited to distinguish between the two parent material groups, with AD interestingly characterised by higher values indicating higher ruggedness. This can be attributed to the relative smooth surface of the till unit on the one hand, and the often entrenched location of alluvial deposits in the paleovalley. The separation of the profile sites of the parent material classes AD and debris cones, the second most common confusion for AD, is less clear than for AD and TG. High resolution roughness values are less important than in the case of till, with texture computed with 50 m grid cell size being the most decisive parameter. A comparison of the geological map units' topography also highlights the importance of this roughness parameter, which is surpassed only by the regional terrain parameter catchment slope, computed at the same low DTM resolution. The choice of these parameters seems closely linked to the transitional landscape position of debris cones, situated between the steep slopes of the Mendola-Roèn-Ridge and the flatter valley bottoms.

Of the 11 soil profile or auger points located on areas covered by alluvial

deposits according to the reclassified geological map, the soil type Braunerde is predominant, with some occasional anthrosols, represented by the Austrian class Rigolboden. These brown soils are to be expected as the more or less pronounced stability of the flat alluvial deposits have allowed a certain degree of pedogenetic processes to occur. The anthrosols on the other hand are typical for the orchards, and to a lesser degree vineyards, commonly found on alluvial deposits in the region, were landscape as well as soil have seen strong anthropogenic influence. The distribution of the soil types of the profile points identified to have alluvial deposits as parent material by the surveyors is comparable regarding the dominance of brown soils. Additionally, the soil types Kalklehm-Rendzina and Pararendzina were encountered, both characterised by A horizons rich with organic material, on more or less unweathered carbonate containing parent material, indicating that alluvial deposits were also identified at places lacking the stable conditions necessary for the development of a B horizon as presented by the alluvial deposits unit of the geological map. So while the alluvial deposits unit is characterised on the geological map by the lowest mean slope aside from mire deposits, the soil data as well as the topographic analysis indicate it is nevertheless necessary for future surveys to also investigate the less typical, rougher and sloping areas at the border or in proximity of alluvial deposit units. Furthermore, the carbonate components suggest that local material from the western slopes is also incorporated in alluvial deposits of the paleovalley.

#### *4.2.2. Siliceous bedrock*

The SGU siliceous bedrock in the study area is characterised by outcrops of rhyolitic ignimbrite in the Überetsch paleovalley, for instance forming the Mitterberg which separates the paleovalley from the current Etsch valley. The unit represents 13 % of the study area, and shares a long border with the SGU till, but also the units coarse blocky debris and debris cones. Shorter borders exist with almost all other SGUs, especially mixed deposits and slope deposits. Regarding the comparison of the unit on the geological map with the parent material as reported by the surveyors, there is an interesting discrepancy between user's accuracy and producer's reliability when attempting to use the geological map as a parent material map. While the parent material of only 14 of the 49 profile sites located on siliceous bedrock according to the geological map was identified as siliceous bedrock by the surveyors, 70 % of all soil pits with this parent material were actually on the correct unit of the geological map. This means that when investigating

soils on siliceous bedrock, the probability that they are encountered in the unit SB is higher than for other units, however it is similarly probable to  
480 encounter other parent materials in this unit. The greatest confusion occurs with the unit till, which was found to be the parent material of almost every second soil profile located on the SGU siliceous bedrock. Further parent materials identified on the SB unit include mixed and slope deposits, as well as glacio-lacustrine deposits (Table 3). Confusion with slope debris or mixed  
485 deposits is understandable due to the often fuzzy transition from weathered bedrock to slope debris, or the fact that mixed deposits may very well contain exclusively siliceous material from bedrock units at higher elevations in the catchment, or underneath the debris cover layer. Additionally, the soils resulting from such parent material must not necessarily be very different to  
490 those on siliceous bedrock. Till, as a parent material, is a different case, as the material may be derived from catchments with a very different geology and the grain size distribution is not similar to that of slope debris or siliceous bedrock. When evaluating the misclassification of the parent materials till and siliceous bedrock, it is essential to consider possible differences regarding  
495 the mapping procedures in geology and pedology. Furthermore, the parent material layer must not necessarily be very thick to act as such. So, whereas the soil surveyor is particularly interested in the parent material, i.e. the material which through pedogenetic processes and weathering slowly becomes the solum no matter the thickness of this specific layer, the geologist's main  
500 concern is the underlying material, and may consider drapes of till only once their thickness reaches a certain threshold, for instance 1 m, as conveyed by the surveyors of the geologic survey of South Tyrol.

The random forest-based analysis of how to topographically separate the profile sites with siliceous bedrock as parent material that are situated on the SB unit of the geological map, from those with the same parent material but on different SGUs, showed that the latter group is situated in areas with lower convexity. Regarding roughness parameters, the vector ruggedness measure based on the 2.5 m grid and a large search window of approx. 130 m performed best. Soil profiles that evolved from siliceous bedrock and are  
510 also located on the SGU SB are characterised by higher vector ruggedness values. Given the strong confusion with the unit till, as well as the fact that these two units share a long border, it is of interest to examine the topographical differences between points that are attributed to one of these two parent material units. The TRI at a window size of approx. 100 m leads  
515 the terrain parameters with a 5-fold cross-validated classification error of

approx. 15 %. The minimum curvature based on the 10 m grid performs best from the group of local terrain parameters. In general, soil profile sites with SB as parent material are characterised by rougher topography (increased TRI values) and slightly positive minimal curvature values when compared with data points where till was identified as parent material. This is well in line with the increased appearance of this parent material on convex, ridge-like structures in the SGU siliceous bedrock. As Table 3 shows, confusion with slope deposits is present from both the user's and the producer's point of view. The random forest-based data mining shows that, regarding the parent material as indicated by the surveyors, the terrain parameters that are most characteristic of the difference between the two units are based on landform diversity. In the case of SB and SD, the patch density of the micro scale landform map helps separate the two parent units due to the latter groups lower values, implying that areas of slope deposits have a slightly more homogeneous landform distribution, in this specific case large polygons of the landform slope, apparently a good indicator for slope debris. Furthermore, the same TRI applied to separate SB and TG can also be a very useful addition to the parameter set when distinguishing SB from SD.



Figure 5: A) Soil profile 39 on the SGU siliceous bedrock with parent material identified as till, representative of the typical situation of till on siliceous bedrock. B) Soil profile site 39, with visible rhyolite outcrops. C) Soil profile site 43. D) Soil profile 43, located above the debris cone of Andrian on the SB map unit. The yellow components are from up-slope ISR layers, while calcareous components from even higher layers can also be identified.

An investigation into the soil types classes of the soil profile sites located  
535 on the SGU siliceous bedrock shows that brown soils are the dominating soil type, represented by 37 of the 49 locations (75 %). The class Terrestrische Rohböden, represented by the soil type Ranker, is second most common on this SGU, on which single examples of the soil types Semipodsol, Kalkbraunlehm, Farb-Substratböden and Kolluvisol were also encountered. Taking into  
540 account only the soil profile sites for which the surveyors identified SB as parent material, whether or not actually located on this SGU, the soil type brown soils similarly dominates the soil type Ranker, with 13 and 6 profile sites, respectively. All of the other soil types found on this unit of the geological map were identified by the surveyors to not have SB parent material,  
545 however one soil profile site with this parent material was attributed the soil type Grobmaterial-Rohboden. This soil type however does fit well for soils on siliceous bedrock outcrops, where only initial soil formation is possible, whereas the other soil types located on the SGU of the geological map are less plausible on SB, especially Kalkbraunlehm. In addition, the vast majority  
550 of the soil profile sites located on this SGU but identified to have a different parent material class (mostly till) by the surveyors, also feature the soil type Braunerde, thereby decreasing the severity of misclassifying SB and TG, at least from a soil type perspective. Figure 5A shows an example of such a situation, consisting of a brown soil developed from a cover layer of till on  
555 siliceous bedrock. From this perspective, the soil type Ranker is more characteristic of the SB unit, as it is less common on TG with its characteristically more developed soils and the increased influence of calcareous materials. Furthermore, an examination of the points where parent material classes from observation and SGU map coincide shows a decrease in dominance of brown  
560 soils compared to Rankers, with proportions of 57 and 35 % for both soil types, respectively. This is also well in line with the fact that SB sites are characterized by higher roughness values and situated on convex, ridge-like structures where decreased soil formation can be assumed. In conclusion,  
565 the soil types Braunerde and Ranker are characteristic of this unit, with the former representing locations where weathering and clay-reformation has led to horizon differentiation not present in the less developed Ranker soils which are found on siliceous bedrock outcrops. Figure 6 shows the distribution of soil types on siliceous bedrock as well as other SGUs from different points of view, i.e. according to the SGU map, the soil survey, and a union of both.

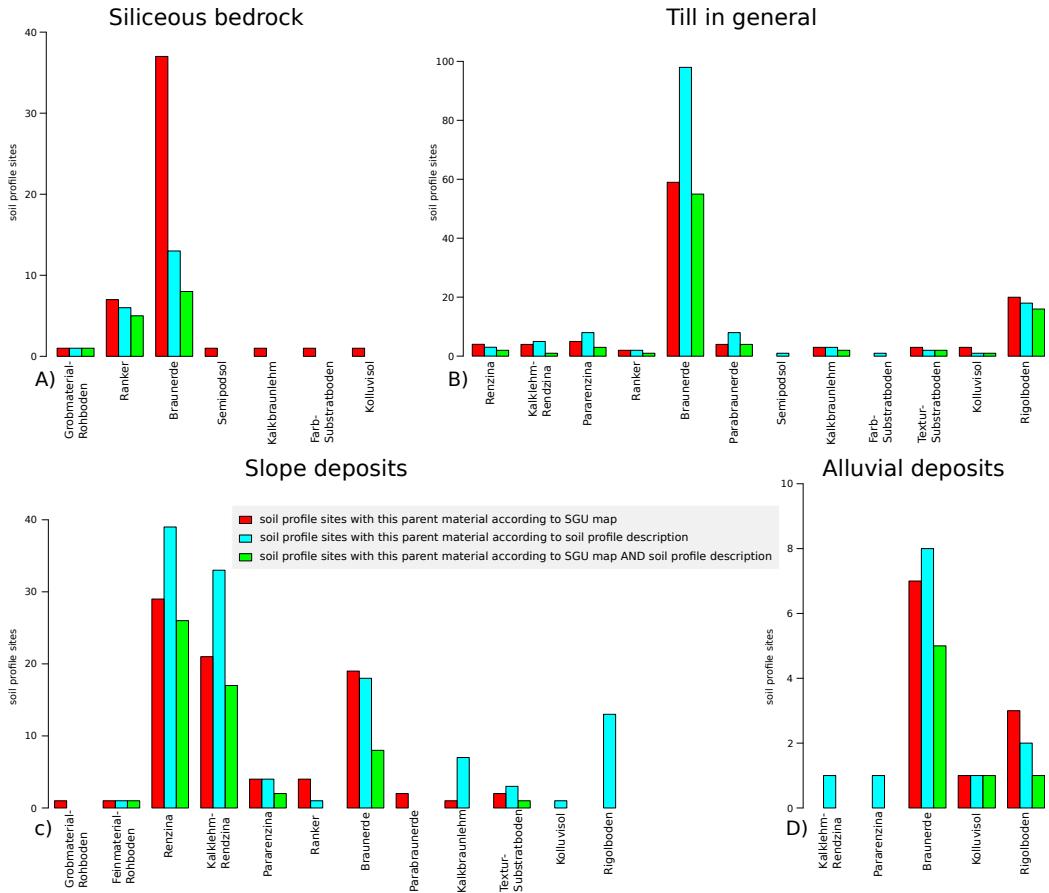


Figure 6: Distribution of soil types for the most common SGUs or parent material units from different points of view. Red bars indicate the number of profile sites with this soil type according to the SGU map while the turquoise bar represents the number of profile sites for which the surveyors identified this parent material, regardless of the SGU it is located on. The green bar shows the number of profile sites for which both points of view agree.

#### 570 4.2.3. Till in general

The unit till comprises lodgement and subglacial till, as well as other, undifferentiated till materials. It is found in the paleovalley as well as on flat terraces of the Mendola-Roèn-Ridge. Covering more than 25 % of the study area, it is the most common SGU on the geological map, sharing borders with every single SGU, the longest, each with a length of at least 30 km, being those with the SGUs alluvial deposits, siliceous bedrock and slope de-

580 posits. According to the geologic map, 109 of the soil data points are located on the SGU till, accounting for 29 % of the points. In 88 of these locations, the surveyors agreed with regard to the parent material being till, leading  
585 to a user's accuracy of 80 %. The majority of the other soil data points on this SGU were attributed with the parent materials slope deposits or mixed deposits, with some intermediary sedimentary rocks also identified as parent material. While the user's accuracy for till is the best amongst the SGUs, the producer's reliability is not comparable, as the surveyors also identified till as the parent material at 63 further locations on different SGUs. The relative majority of these locations are found on the unit siliceous bedrock, already discussed above, but a large number of soil profiles with this parent material are also located on the units calcareous sedimentary rock and slope debris. Furthermore, till was identified as the parent material of soils on the  
590 units SSR, MxD, MrD, GLD, DC, CBD and AD. An important takeaway point from these results is that while, at least for this study area, the SGU unit till is a good indicator for where to reliably encounter soils evolved from till, it is of great importance to expect this parent material also on various other SGUs.

595 A topographic comparison of those points with till as parent material located on the SGU till with points with the same parent material but on different SGUs (Figure 4), shows that the misclassified, latter group is characterized by a higher roughness, as characterized by a higher TRI and also a steeper slope (mean value of 21 compared to 12°). Regarding confusion  
600 with the soil parent material unit calcareous sedimentary rock, data mining the terrain parameters of the relevant soil profile sites again highlights the role of the parameter TRI, in this case dominantly at a window size of 50 m, in topographically separating the unit till from other parent material units. CSR profile sites are characterised by TRI values in the upper quartile of the  
605 values characteristically displayed by TG profile sites. Of the local terrain parameters, slope, together with minimal curvature, performs well in separating the points of both groups, but not as clearly as it separates both units on the geological map, as TG profile points in the study area can be found at slope values higher than indicated in the geological map. To characterise the  
610 difference of the TG sites with slope deposits, the TRI with a window size in the range of 100 m performs best of all local, regional and roughness-related terrain parameters in the forward stepwise feature selection. Similar to the situation with CSR, slope is the best performing local terrain parameter, but as before, the separation is clearer on the geological map, signifying that till

615 can be found at steeper angles than expected from the geological map. Till  
as the parent material of soil profiles on the surficial geological map units  
CBD, DC and GLD is not as common as for the above discussed units and  
additionally these units do not have as many overall members, nevertheless  
some interesting observations can be derived from the random forest-based  
620 investigation. For instance when compared with till, debris cones, which have  
a considerably uniform topography at the analysed grid cell size of 2.5 m,  
are characterised by lower local roughness (VRM with a window size of 50 m  
or TRI with a window size of only 7.5 m) and a low landform diversity as  
represented by a high mean patch size of landforms calculated at meso scale  
625 and a flatness threshold of 10°. The profile site topography of the unit coarse  
blocky debris, on the other hand, is distinguishable from till by a higher TRI  
at a window size of 125 m as well as steeper slope. Other aspects that may  
account for the high number of till parent material sites on units other than  
till have been discussed in the siliceous bedrock section.

630 Typical for the study area, and especially characteristic of the till parent  
material unit, brown soils dominate the soil types of the profile sites on the  
corresponding map unit with 59 %, but even more so when considering only  
the sites for which the surveyors identified till as parent material (70 % of  
151 profile sites). This proportion is comparable to that of brown soils for  
635 the data subset for which till is indicated as parent material by both the  
surveyors and the geological map. While brown soils also dominate on SB,  
the variety of subtypes on till is greater. While SB shows mainly typical  
brown soils and some with signs of beginning podzolisation, these subtypes  
are accompanied on till by brown soils containing calcareous components as  
640 well as brown soils characterised by higher clay contents, a strong influence  
of the clay on horizon differentiation (soil type Textur-Substratboden), and  
also vertical translocation of these clay particles (soil type Parabraunerde,  
which develops only on this parent material in the study area). The latter  
soil types and subtypes are common on till parent material, especially when  
645 developed on sub-glacial or lodgement till. The presence of soils of the class  
of Umgelagerte Böden, i.e. soils that have been rearranged vertically or hori-  
zontally either directly or indirectly by human influence, can be accounted  
for by the fact that most vineyards or apple orchards are located on this unit.  
Of the class of less developed soils with only an A horizon rich with organic  
650 matter (Terrestrische Humusböden), accounting for 13% of the soils with the  
parent material till, the majority is influenced by the calcareous components  
of the till, clearly separating these soils from those on SB. The role played

by the calcareous till material, brought into the till mainly locally from the slope of the Mendola-Roèn-Ridge, is also highlighted by the presence of soils of the class Kalklehme. In summary, the soils of the SGU till are characterised by well developed soils, often with calcareous properties. This is well in line with the topography of this unit, distinguished by low roughness and gentle slopes.

#### 4.2.4. Slope debris

Slope debris, as a SGU of the geologic map, occupies 10% of the study area. Its by far longest border is shared with the unit siliceous bedrock, other important borders are with the units till, calcareous sedimentary rock and debris cones, the first three units greatly influencing the distribution of components in the slope debris units. When comparing the parent material of soil profile sites with the map SGUs, the slope debris unit has slightly better user's accuracy than producer's reliability, as surveyors established slope debris as the parent material of 55 of the 84 profile points on this SGU, but also for 69 soil data points on other SGUs. Similar to the SGU siliceous bedrock, the most confusion regarding parent material on the SGU slope debris occurred with the unit till, which was identified at 15 soil profiles. As is the case with the SB unit, some of this confusion may be attributed to thin layers or punctual deposits of till. Considering slope debris, another important aspect is that the debris in question may very well be composed of till material that has been transported gravitationally. The same explanations may hold for other parent materials which were identified on the slope debris unit, especially for the bedrock units SB, ISR and CSR. While some isolated outcrops are possible, the most likely cause is that the constituents of the slope debris are so dominated by transported material of one of these bedrock classes, that the surveyors determine this unit as the parent material of the examined soil profile. On the other hand, misclassification between the units coarse blocky debris and slope deposits can be attributed to the fuzzy border between these units, ultimately linked to the grain size distribution, and the subjective interpretation thereof, especially during field survey. Contrary to most other SGUs (with the exception of CBD, LD and MxD), this unit itself does not provide information regarding the mineralogy of its component, which can only partially be derived through interpretation of its location in the catchment and the uphill geologic situation. Consequently, this unit is much better described by its topography than its material, as the latter may be highly diverse, as demonstrated in Figure 5D.

690 Those profile sites for which the geological map correctly proposes slope debris as the soil parent material differ from the slope deposit points on other SGUs mainly by higher slope heights and also larger slope angles, i.e. the geological map tends to under-represent slope debris situations in lower regions of the catchments and at less steep positions. 20 of the 122 soil profiles  
695 with slope debris as parent material are located on debris cones according to the geological map, which are good examples of the just mentioned situation. This is presumably closely related to the furrowed and disturbed character of debris cones in the southern half of the study area, where the situation may not present itself clearly during field survey. Additionally, the material  
700 composition as well as its origin is basically the same for slope debris and debris cones in this area. Topographically, roughness measures do well in separating the slope debris points from the debris cones points of the field survey data set. Slope debris is characterised by higher vector ruggedness values at a window size of 52.5 m, which are very low for debris cones. Slope  
705 angles also differ considerably, implying that the surveyors tend to annotate slope debris if the topography does not show the low roughness and slope values characteristic of debris cones. This difference of roughness and slope with regard to the conceptual difference of slope debris and debris cones is also apparent when comparing the topography of both units as delineated  
710 by the geological map, however the difference is more distinct in this case. Similarly, calcareous sedimentary rock as parent material seems connected to roughness values slightly higher than those present for the average slope debris site, a relationship which is again more pronounced in the geological map. Consequently, it is in these transitional zones where the misclassification  
715 occurs. This topographical proximity of the units is of course reinforced by the fuzziness of distinguishing between the two parent materials as such. As is the case with siliceous bedrock and slope debris, the border between the source material, in this case the calcareous bedrock, and its derivative, the slope debris, is often not clear when considering the parent material of a  
720 soil profile. The degree of weathering of the source material certainly adds to the confusion. The issues are comparable for the parent material units intermediate and siliceous sedimentary rock. While the gradual transition from source material, in these cases bedrock of differing mineralogical composition, to slope debris poses various issues that cannot be explained only  
725 by topography, this is even more the case when considering the possibility of confusion between slope debris and coarse blocky debris, the distinction between which raises a number of questions with regard to the objectivity of

estimating block or grain size of soil profile parent material. Misclassification between the units slope debris and mixed deposits are also predominantly  
730 a question of definition and the explanatory power of topography is very limited.

Given its confounding nature due to its dynamic topography and great variability of components, this unit shows a high diversity of soil types, encompassed only by the parent material till due to its variety of anthrosols and  
735 well developed soils. With regard to soil type classes, the class incorporating soils with only A horizons with high organic matter content on top of unweathered parent material (Terrestrische Humusböden) stands out, both with respect to the soil profiles on the map unit (70%) as well as those for which surveyors specified the parent material slope debris (64%). While both of  
740 these approaches of analysing the distribution of soil classes have brown soils (25 and 15%, respectively) as the most important secondary soil class, the main differences are the classes Kalklehme and Umgelagerte Böden, of which the latter is found only from the viewpoint of the soil profile descriptions. The presence of multiple soil profiles of the Kalklehme class shows that soil  
745 surveyors are more likely to identify slope debris as the parent material also for locations which are generally more favourable to soil formation than the areas indicated as this SGU on the geologic map. This is indeed consistent with the topographic analysis of the profile points. Similarly, these transitional locations between steeper slopes and flatter regions are also indicative  
750 of the confusion between slope debris and debris cones, exemplified by the relatively large proportion (12%) of the soil type Rigolboden, which also highlights that soil surveyors tend to emphasize the components, in this case slope debris, over the geomorphological form as presented by debris cones. In summary, soils with only organic material-rich A horizons on C horizons are  
755 the most common representatives of soils on this parent material, with those related to calcareous parent material (Rendzina and Kalklehm-Rendzina) more prevalent than their siliceous counterparts, especially when considering only those soil profile locations for which surveyors identified slope debris as parent material. Nevertheless, soils developed from slope debris can show  
760 signs of advanced soil formation in less sloping, smoother topography, for instance on neighboring debris cones or other deposits.

#### 4.2.5. *Calcareous sedimentary rock*

The calcareous sedimentary rocks in the study area are predominantly responsible for the steep walls of the upper elevations of the Mendola-Roèn-

765 Ridge (dolomite and limestone), but also represent some thin layers in lower parts of that slope, interchanging with intermediate and siliceous sedimentary rock layers. Despite covering only 8.4% of the area, this unit has long borders due to its layers that span from north to south of the study area. Slope debris units often occupy locations downslope of the CSR units, accounting  
770 for the long border length of 40 km with this unit. The fuzzy transition from weathered bedrock to slope debris is a major issue also for this SGU. The confusion matrix representing the comparison of the parent material as indicated by the geologic map and the parent material identified in field survey (Table 3) shows that, consequently, this is the unit responsible for the most  
775 misclassification, contributing to the very low user's accuracy of this SGU. Additionally, due to its intermittent layering with ISR, it is not surprising that this unit was found to be the parent material for seven investigated soil profiles in the calcareous sedimentary rock unit. The producer's reliability is slightly better, however, all in all only five of the soil profiles were attributed  
780 to the parent material unit calcareous sedimentary rock, of which two were in fact situated on the SGU slope debris. This again accentuates the problem with differentiating these two units when adjacent, as one is often the result of weathering and gravitational transport of the other unit. Similarly to the other bedrock units in the study area, till was also reported as the  
785 soil parent material at twelve sites in this unit, accounting for a third of the soil profile locations on this SGU and highlighting the necessity to expect thin layers of till on areas mapped as bedrock. Due to the small number of soil profile points actually identified as having CSR as parent material, the random forest classification approach of identifying important terrain  
790 parameter differences between the correctly classified points and those on other units is not very meaningful. Topographical separation from intermediate sedimentary rock, a major cause of misclassification, is also not very adequate, as the most important parameter in this case is slope height. This is to be expected, since the main difference is the vertical position in the  
795 overall geological structure of the study area, a difference which is however diminished by the above mentioned intermittent layering and gravitational movement down-slope, in addition to the above discussed problem regarding the definition of slope debris versus weathered bedrock.

800 The Rendzina is the typical proponent of soil types on calcareous sedimentary rock, as exemplified by the two soil profile sites for which both the geologic map and the surveyors indicate this unit as the soil's parent material. The situation described in the topographical description of the unit

leads to a high number of soil profiles along with a variety of different soil types. Although these include soils where soil formation processes have lead to B horizon differentiation such as Braunerde and Kalklehme, the class Terrestrische Humusböden nevertheless constitutes the majority. However, when considering only the soil profile sites that qualify for CSR parent material from the surveyor's point of view, this is the only class, represented by the soil types Rendzina and Kalklehmm-Rendzina. Given the topographic situation and the complex geologic setting, it is necessary to assume the possibility of soils with signs of increased pedogenetic development on this map unit, however a different parent material such as till or slope debris of varying composition must be considered for any of these soil types.

#### 4.2.6. Debris cones

The unit debris cones is located west of the center of the paleovalley, between the slope debris of the Mendola-Roèn-Ridge slope in the west, which are often the source area of these deposits, and the till deposited in the paleovalley in the east. An additional, pronounced debris cone is located at Andrian in the north of the study area in the main Etsch valley. Units with which long borders exist are mixed, colluvial, and alluvial deposits. The number of profile sites is comparably small with 36 profile sites, considering that the unit occupies almost 13% of the study area. A reason is that a large part of the debris cones are covered by settlements. Although the soil surveyors noted debris cones as parent material for only five soil profile sites, it must be considered that 20 of the misclassified parent materials on the debris cones unit were identified as slope debris. Given the long mutual border and the fact that the source of the debris cones material is mainly the slope debris and the calcareous bedrock units which themselves are the origin of the slope debris, this misclassification may seem acceptable. In fact, it rather points out a difference in the point of view of the soil and the geologic surveyors, where the first group is more interested in the material while latter emphasizes the landform presented by the debris cone unit. The remaining misclassifications are all with units that border this SGU, or, in the case of intermediate sedimentary rock, are located in the source region of the the debris cones.

The topographic issues regarding the confusion with other parent materials such as AD, SD and TG have been discussed in the unit-specific subsections, highlighting this units landscape position as the main distinguishing characteristic.

840 As discussed, compared to the number of soil pit locations for which the  
surveyors identified the parent material class debris cones, the number of sites  
located on this unit of the geological map is much higher, which also leads  
to a greater soil type variability, especially at subtype level. While surveyors  
identified this unit only once for more developed soil types such as Braunerde  
845 or Kalklehme, they constitute 42% of the sites indicated on the map. Given  
the strong anthropogenic influence on debris cones, a large proportion of the  
profiles have experienced vertical anthropogenic rearrangement in an effort  
to enhance the general conditions for viticulture and horticulture. Soils with  
organic matter-rich A layers can also be found in areas with less intensive  
850 anthropogenic influence, though more commonly on areas where only the  
geologic map indicates debris cones, whereas the surveyors more commonly  
classified the parent material as slope debris, highlighting the issue of defining  
the difference, as discussed in section 4.2.4.

#### *4.2.7. Intermediate sedimentary rock and siliceous sedimentary rock*

855 The units intermediate and siliceous sedimentary rock are situated in the  
slope of the Mendola-Roèn-Ridge and are characterised by more or less thin  
layers, often intermittent with layers of calcareous sedimentary rock, and  
only a limited amount of outcrops. Another common characteristic is that  
none of the soil profile points for which the surveyors identified one of these  
860 units as the soil's parent material is actually situated on the corresponding  
geological map unit. The parent material of all three soil profile sites on  
ISR was classified as slope deposits, which is understandable considering the  
issues discussed in the previous sections regarding slope debris and weathered  
bedrock. As further evidence of this issue, ISR was detected as the parent  
865 material of four soil profiles on the map unit slope debris. Additionally,  
intermediate sedimentary rock was identified as the parent material of 7 soils  
on the CSR map unit and two on the SSR unit. There is of course no question  
that the layers are correctly located on the geological map with regard to the  
underlying geological structure of the study area. These soil profile sites  
870 rather highlight the possibility of finding any or all of the materials of these  
intermittent layers on these units as well as any potential down-slope slope  
debris units due to the prevailing geomorphological dynamics in the study  
area. Gravitational transportation leads to these materials serving as soil  
parent material not where the layer is indicated on the geological map, but  
875 in fact down-slope of these layers. Additionally, these materials are seldom  
found as homogeneous units due to mixing and multi-layering caused by

gravitational transport. For these and other reasons discussed in the CSR section, topographical separation is limited for these units.

As the situation described above does not seem to favour soil formation processes to take place in a constant manner, it is surprising that while two out of the three soils on this geological map unit belong to the class Terrestrische Humusböden, the majority of the soil profile sites specified as having ISR or SSR as parent material by the soil surveyors are of the classes Braunerde or Kalklehme, i.e. soils with A and B horizons. More expected is the presence of the soil type Kolluvisol on the SSR units (both on the map and regarding field survey). In summary, it appears that in such a dynamic environment as on the SGUs ISR, SSR and slope debris, soil surveyors tend to annotate slope debris as the parent material of less developed soils such as those of the Terrestrische Humusböden class, while placing more emphasis on the mineralogical properties of the components when describing soils that experienced more pedogenetic processes. Nevertheless, this analysis implies that soils developed from any of these intermittent layers are more likely to be encountered in down-slope slope debris units, especially for ISR. Regardless of the present dynamics, more evolved soils are possible but may present very heterogeneous parent material due to multi-layering. Figure 5D shows an example of such a profile site in steep topography with a typical slope debris parent material mixture containing ISR material, which has however been deposited on a SB unit located down-slope of these layers.

#### 4.2.8. Colluvial, mixed, and landslide deposits

All three of these SGUs are characterised as material that has been transported down-slope by various processes. Regarding colluvial deposits, the surveyors indeed identified this parent material unit for three of the five profile sites on this map unit. The parent material of the remaining two sites was mapped as ISR and SD. While the latter can be attributed to the similarity of the material and the uncertainty of the definition of the difference between slope deposits and colluvial deposits, the former could indicate that soil surveyors may value the information regarding mineralogy as being of greater importance to explaining a soil profile than the information regarding the morphodynamic history of the material. The definition of mixed deposits as deposits from debris flows, torrents and avalanches is similarly dominated by the means of transportation rather than the material components. Interestingly, none of the soil profiles located on this map unit were linked to this parent material by the surveyors, but five of the profiles on till were. With

regard to soil parent material, an important issue is whether this material is  
915 in fact composed of the same material as till and has been simply transported  
by one of the aforementioned processes. The parent material of the majority  
of the soil profiles on the MxD unit of the geological map was identified as  
slope deposits, highlighting the definitional proximity of these units, at least  
concerning the view of surveyors focussing on soil. Compared to these two  
920 units, the issue regarding landslide deposits is a different one. This unit was  
never used by the soil surveyors to describe the parent material of a soil pro-  
file site. Of the three data points on this map unit, the surveyors explicitly  
chose the parent material siliceous bedrock for two locations, which is in fact  
925 the material of the landslide body in the study area. Coarse blocky debris  
was also used at one soil profile site, which well describes the structure of the  
material involved. This example provides insight into how the different em-  
phasis and focus of soil and geologic surveyors influences their classification,  
each highlighting a different aspect of the same unit.

Topographically, these three units are not easy to differentiate, especially  
930 compared to the unit slope debris, which is very close with regard to both  
definition as well as morphometry and discussed in the slope debris subsec-  
tion.

The soil types of the three soil profile sites with parent material which  
both geological map and surveyors identify as colluvial deposits, are of the  
935 classes Umgelagerte Böden and Brown soils and are representative of both  
the map unit and the soils as attributed by the surveyors, although the latter  
also link this parent material unit to a less developed soil type like Ranker. In  
general, the colluvial deposits are characterised, or understood, as the accu-  
mulation of eroded slope material, which can also be A horizon-material, for  
940 instance transported away from agricultural lands. Consequently, disturbed  
soils but also better developed soils on older accumulations are conceivable  
examples of soils on colluvial deposits. Given the similar genesis of mixed  
deposits, the soil classes distributed amongst the soil profiles with this parent  
material are comparable, despite some of the points being located on TG ac-  
945 cording to the geologic map. But as this parent material can actually consist  
of till or calcareous sediments transported from up-slope locations, the soil  
types Braunerde and Kalklehme are good fits and show that confusion be-  
tween the units does not lead to severe misclassifications, at least from a soil  
surveyor's point of view. As discussed in the topography section, the land-  
950 slide mass in the study area is composed of siliceous bedrock, with Ranker  
und Braunerde being the anticipated soil types for soil developed from such

parent material.

#### 4.2.9. *Glacio-lacustrine deposits, ice-marginal sediments and mire deposits*

Even when taking into account that only seven soil profile sites are located  
955 on this map unit, the geological map has a relatively good user's accuracy  
for the soil parent material unit GLD. It comprises both glaciolacustrine and  
lacustrine deposits which are concentrated at the northern border of the pa-  
leovalley. The producer's reliability is below 50 %, as surveyors indicate this  
parent material also for soil profile sites on the SGUs alluvial deposits, mire  
960 deposits, siliceous bedrock and till. Confusion with the first two SGUs seems  
acceptable due to the common fluviaatile or hydromorphic history, whereas  
the other misclassifications do indicate the possibility of local glaciolacustrine  
deposits as the parent material on these units. The topographical analysis  
965 of those points on other SGUs but with GLD as the surveyed parent mate-  
rial hints that these are located in regions where landform diversity is partly  
dominated by a single class at meso scale, indicating a smoother surface  
than for the GLD map unit, as well as being characterised by a more pro-  
nounced negative minimal curvature suggesting concave topography. The  
random forest-based investigation into the topographical difference between  
970 soil profile points with SB and with GLD as parent material characterize the  
latter with lower roughness values regarding TRI and VRM at window sizes  
between 100-130 m, indicating similar regions on SB as possible GLD areas.  
Regarding soil type, investigations from both viewpoints, i.e. the geological  
975 map and the soil profile data, show the soils on this unit as belonging to  
either the soil type Braunerde or Rigolboden, the latter representing agricul-  
turally used land. Due to the lack of profile points in mire deposits, GLD is  
the only SGU on which surveyors mapped a hydromorphic soil type, in this  
case Pseudogley.

Ice-marginal sediments are closely associated with till units and are mostly  
980 located in close proximity, consequently sharing long borders. Given their  
often thin, elongated form and the fact that they cover only 0.2% of the  
study area, only one soil profile site is located on this SGU on the geologic  
map, of which the parent material however is classified as alluvial deposits.  
This situation again highlights the problem with fuzzy definitions that may  
985 overlap between closely related parent material units. Similarly, it may not  
be as important to the soil surveyors that the gravelly parent material is of  
ice-marginal origin rather than alluvial, whereas this tends to be the case for  
geologic surveyors specialized on quaternary deposits.

Similarly, on the map SGU mire deposits the surveyors identified the soil  
990 parent material glacio-lacustrine deposits twice and till once, with the only  
soil profile with mire deposits as parent material being an anthrosol (filled  
mire deposit) located on the SGU till. The influence of stagnant water on  
both GLD and MrD can help understand the confusion between both units,  
and local mire deposits due to reduced permeability on clay-rich sub-glacial  
995 till are also rather likely. Given these local phenomena as well as the small  
number of sample profile sites, the topographical separation of the units IMS  
and MrD provides little relevant information, neither does an analysis of soil  
type distribution.

#### 1000 *4.3. Random forest classification of parent material based on geologic map data and topography*

The result of the feature selection procedure for predicting parent  
material classes was that, without exception, the SGU information from the  
geologic map was chosen first in every single feature selection run. This is  
important as it also contains information on the confusion between certain  
1005 classes implicitly in the sample point data. Contrary to when investigating  
which terrain parameters best highlight the differences between two specific  
parent material units, local and regional terrain parameters including relative  
elevations, were not identified as the most important predictor variables. In-  
stead, the roughness-related measures dominated the selection process, even  
1010 with the parameter set including all available terrain parameters. In this  
case, the SGU information as well as the TRI at a window size of 77.5 m  
and the VRM at a window size of 142.5 m were selected to produce a model  
of soil parent material. The addition of further explanatory variables was  
not seen as an improvement with regard to both the model performance as  
1015 well as its interpretability after evaluating some possible expanded models  
both with visual inspection of the results as well as the one-standard-error  
rule (James et al., 2013). The reason for the decreased importance of re-  
gional, but also local, terrain parameters is that this information is already  
implicitly accounted for by the geologic map, as the various SGU classes are  
1020 closely linked to certain relative elevations, especially the vertical distance to  
channel base level, due to the general geologic structure of the study area.  
Additionally, at least to a certain degree, some units like till, slope debris  
or alluvial deposits also provide implicit information regarding slope angles.  
Furthermore, a certain amount of slope information is also included in some  
1025 roughness measures, especially the TRI, which increases with slope as well

as with increasing roughness. The vector ruggedness measure however well complements the TRI and the SGU information as it provides information on surface roughness independent of the slope gradient. Figure 7 shows the original SGU map (A) as well as the parent material map based on SGUs, TRI and VRM (B). This modeled parent material map leads to an overall

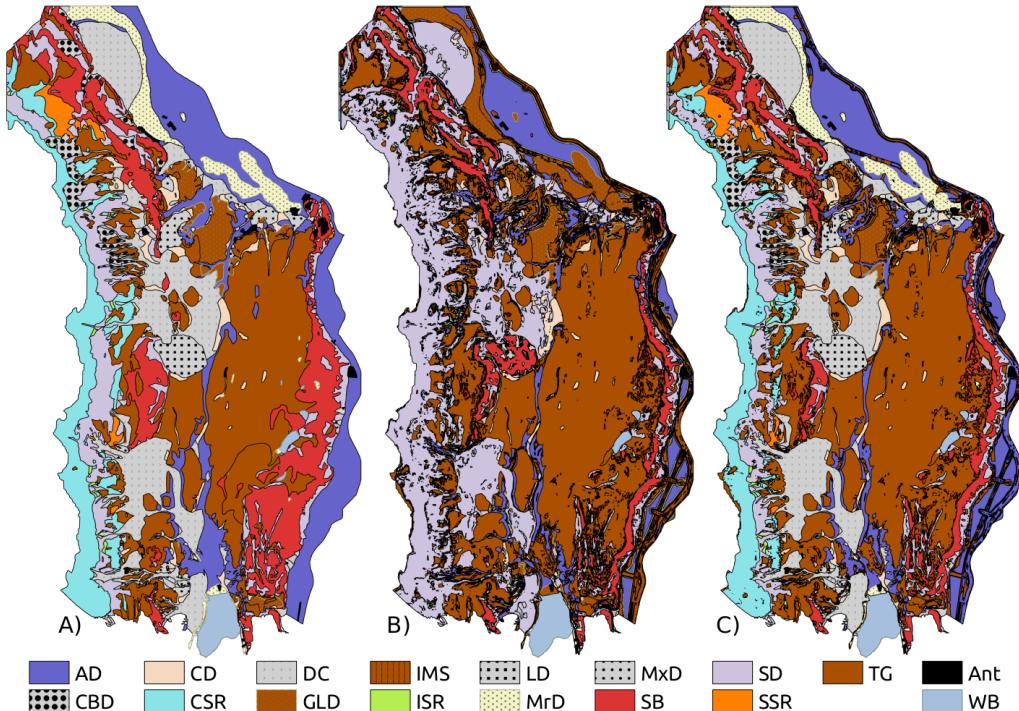


Figure 7: A) Original reclassified SGUs. B) Random forest-based parent material map modified based on VRM at a window size of 142.5 m and TRI at a window size of 77.5 m. C) parent material map with only till modeled and overlayed onto the original SGU map. Abbreviations: AD = alluvial deposits, CBD = coarse blocky debris, CD = colluvial deposits, CSR = calcareous sedimentary rock, DC = debris cones, GLD = glaciolacustrine and lacustrine deposits, IMS = ice-marginal deposits, ISR = intermediate sedimentary rock, LD = landslide deposits, MrD = mire deposits, MxD = mixed deposits, SB = siliceous bedrock, SD = slope deposits, SSR = siliceous sedimentary rock, TG = till in general

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accuracy of approx. 90 %, however the out-of-bag correct classification rate amounts to only 65 %, implying quite substantial overfitting, especially for the parent material classes with small sample sizes. Consequently, the predicted map must be evaluated with caution. A comparison of the resulting

1035 parent material map, adjusted only with two roughness measures, with the original SGU map, reveals a considerable areal increase of the TG unit. This is perfectly understandable given the low producer's reliability revealed in Table 3 by the high number of soil profile sites located on different SGUs but with TG as the surveyed parent material class. The most obvious errors  
1040 linked to this unit are the highways in the Etsch valley as well as the mire deposits surrounding the large debris cone in the north of the study area, which are modelled as TG. Similarly conspicuous is the fact that the areas originally covered by the SGUs debris cones and mixed deposits now seem to be covered by the slope debris unit, which seems to contradict the good prediction results of these units. Detailed investigation into this issue shows that  
1045 overfitting occurred in these cases, with very small, local DC and MxD polygons leading to the false impression of correct classification. On the other hand, the severity of these misleading results may appear less grave when considering the similarity of these three units. Given that they all represent material that has been transported down-slope by various processes and that their composition may in fact be the same in many cases, this misclassification may seem acceptable if one keeps in mind the information provided by the original map with regard to the geomorphological history of these units.  
1050 Small units like CSR, ISR and SSR are taken over by slope debris and/or till in a similar manner. An interesting unit in the predicted map is the former landslide deposit in the center of the study area. As the surveyors put more emphasis on describing the deposited material itself than its geomorphological history, the unit is now modelled as siliceous bedrock with coarse blocky debris, which well represents the view of the soil surveyors. Another  
1055 insightful aspect of the predicted parent materials are new, additional polygons which suggest small glaciolacustrine deposits inside the largest till unit east of the Mitterberg. Based on the experience from previous field work in this area, the authors deem these predictions worthy of future investigation.

1060 After considering and evaluating the issues that arise with regard to the individual SGUs as well as from modeling parent material for the study area, it was concluded that while the modelled parent material map is helpful in giving insights into issues that arise when using geologic maps and topography as a proxy for parent material, too much of the information provided by the original SGU map, i.e. the detailed geologic map, is lost. The under-representation of the class till, however, which had been identified as the main single issue when applying the geologic map for soil survey, seems to have been dealt with appropriately by the random forest classifier. Hence, a  
1065  
1070

new approach was chosen by modelling only the till class and then overlaying this information onto the original SGU map. The forward step-wise feature selection procedure for the units till vs. not-till again chose one TRI and one VRM map as model input features, but with slightly different window sizes (100 m and 102.5 m, respectively) than for the parent material model. This approach (Figure 7C) combines the model's good performance with regard to modelling the often thin till layer, while retaining most of the information from the geologic map, which now, keeping in mind the geologic-topographic characterisation, can help in understanding the composition of slope debris and other transported materials. Compared to the original confusion matrix (Table 3), the overall correct classification rate is improved form 49 % to 65 % with this approach.

Considering the process of feature selection for the various applications of random forest classification in this study, it is important to have in mind that a large number of different versions were computed for most of the terrain parameters and the classifier was allowed to choose freely amongst them. As the change in computational window size is often not large enough to lead to significantly different results, the slightly different versions of one terrain parameter will be highly correlated. Similarly, landform diversity measures such as edge-density or mean patch size are also closely correlated and represent similar patterns in the data. Consequently, it is not possible to state that one parameter combination is better than another for separating parent material classes, only that the specific feature selection procedure chose this combination over others. The differences in overall accuracy between the best parameters are often minimal. However, the application of five-fold cross-validation to the entire feature selection procedure sheds light onto how constant the choice of the top ranked parameters is. When comparing the features selected by the forward stepwise selection and those with the highest importance measures 'mean decrease accuracy', the results were mostly consistent with regard to the types of parameters chosen, for instance a version of TRI or profile curvature. The main difference is that while the forward-stepwise feature selection procedure chose two different roughness measures (TRI and VRM) to go with the geologic information for modeling soil parent material, the top ranked parameters based on 'mean decrease accuracy' were often the same parameter (e.g. TRI) but at slightly different window sizes. In our view this demonstrates the advantage of the forward stepwise feature selection procedure, as opposed to the ranking based on importance measures.

When analysing the results of the soil parent material model or box plots such as in Figure 4, the different class sizes of the soil pit or auger descriptions must be considered. As this study is based on legacy soil data already available, a sampling scheme could not be applied. The over-representation of large classes like till or slope debris are however not as great of a problem as the small sample size of classes such as mire deposits or siliceous sedimentary rock, as for instance Congalton (1991) do in fact advise over-sampling for classes with high variability. For future studies, a sampling scheme that leads to a more balanced distribution of the samples per parent material unit should however be applied in order to decrease the problem of over-fitting classes with small sample sizes and high confusion rates.

#### 4.4. *Mapping approaches and soil parent material classification*

The geologic-topographic characterisation of surficial geology units and the application of random forest classification to model soil parent material gives insight into a number of issues which arise when using geologic maps for soil parent material information and require more detailed discussion. While the units till and landslide deposits highlight the differences in mapping approaches between soil science and geology, the slope debris unit points out the difficulties of classifying soil parent material units due to fuzzy transitions between classes. This unit is also exemplary of problems that arise specifically in an Alpine environment and its high morphodynamics.

Between the two different frameworks of mapping, geology on the one hand and soil on the other, it is important to acknowledge the main focus of attention of each branch of research. Miller and Lee Burras (2015) note that the resulting maps of the two sciences try to communicate different aspects. While geology refers to geologic materials and general landform regions, soil science is concerned more with soil properties with regard to land use and management decisions. A typical example is the unit landslide debris, which seems only of interest to the mappers with focus on geology, whereas the soil surveyors pay attention to the chemical and physical properties of the material. This leads to the latter group classifying the parent material of soil profile sites on this unit as either siliceous bedrock (emphasis on mineralogic properties) or coarse blocky debris (emphasis on physical properties such as grain size distribution). In the presented study, we identify the till unit as a major challenge and reason for misclassification when using geologic maps as soil parent material maps. While the geologists map a number of different glacial deposit units, soil or forestry surveyors seldom differentiated between

lodgement till and other glacial deposits, only when a decisively higher clay content and bulk density was determined. On the other hand, the chemical properties, especially with regard to acidic or calcareous properties of the till material are of greater interest to the soil surveyors, who further differentiate till with regard to this aspect. The geologic map on the other hand also contains information with regard to the age and the stratigraphic unit to which certain moraines belong, whereas this is only of interest to the soil surveyor if it features additional information with regard to the mineralogic content of the different constituents of the moraine. The rather low producer's reliability of the till unit leads to an additional issue linked to different mapping purposes or approaches, as there may exist a difference with regard to how pronounced a certain feature or characteristic must be in order to be considered for mapping. While a soil surveyor does note underlying layers in his profile description, the main focus is on the material from which the soil developed and which consequently plays an important role in characterising it and its location. The geologist on the other hand may not place as much emphasis on the thin layer that actually acts as the soil parent material, but more on the thick layers of different origin beneath the solum, as its role in describing the geological setting is much greater. The case of a thin till layer on siliceous bedrock, as illustrated in Figure 5A, exemplifies such a situation. Consultations with the geologic mappers showed that for their purpose, only regolith cover layers thicker than approximately 1 m are usually mapped.

This is an important insight that must always be considered when using geologic maps to infer information regarding soil parent material, especially in areas like the study area characterised by younger soils. It must however also be kept in mind that natural differences can be expected between any two mappers (Miller and Lee Burras, 2015), even of the same scientific field.

As Olofsson et al. (2013) point out with regard to remote sensing applications, uncertainty can be related to geolocation and interpreter variability. This statement is also applicable regarding the uncertainties involved in the comparison of parent material information from field data on the one hand and geologic maps on the other. While geolocation errors may play a role in densely forested slopes as found in the study error, the fuzzy transition from one surficial geology unit to another are the main cause for confusion at categorical transitions. This could even be aggravated by the fact that multiple interpreters were part of the various surveys analysed in this study, though they all adhered to the same survey manual Englisch and Kilian (1999). As Congalton (1991) state regarding accuracy assessments, classifications should

be mutually exclusive, but regarding soil parent material this is not always as clear as expected. The issue of slope debris and the bedrock units from which it originates is an example for a case where both classes can be in fact considered correct, especially in border areas between the units. Consequently, for future surveys it would be helpful to follow the guidelines of Olofsson et al. (2013) with regard to reference labeling. It would be beneficial to note difficult cases regarding the classification of soil parent material for future reference and consensus development, not only within soil science but also as an effort for improved communication with geologists.

The question of what is more relevant from a pedological point of view, the transportational history and morphodynamic background of deposits or the information regarding its composition, addresses both the differences in mapping purposes as well as nomenclatural difficulties. In the study area, mixed deposits from mass movements and torrents often have the same components as till or slope debris, which themselves may possibly be composed of the same material due to a mutual source area. Consequently, one could argue that a single class for this material, which is characterised by down-slope transportation, may suffice. However, while there may exist situations where the slope debris is composed of till material, the general difference for soil science is that slope debris contains coarser components whereas with till the proportion of fine particles is much higher. While this leads to a lower density of the slope debris material, till is often also characterized by over-consolidation. From a pedological point of view, another very important difference is that soils from slope debris can be understood with knowledge of local geology and that they may not be so different from soils that evolved from bedrock at higher elevations in the catchment, whereas till can consist of chemically very different components. So while it seems acceptable, as performed by the soil parent material model described in this study, to include mixed deposits and slope debris in one class, the differentiation between till and slope debris units is essential for the understanding of the spatial association of soils. An important result of the presented study is therefore, at least in this study area, that till can be found at steeper slopes than expected presumably due to lateral consolidation of till material by the glaciers, and also as a thin cover layer on bedrock units, especially the one composed of rhyolitic tuffs and ignimbrites.

A further issue that arises specifically in this study area is the influence of the Alpine environment on the interpretability of geologic units as parent material units. Heung et al. (2014) note that while traditional geologic

maps focusing on bed rock are a valuable input for digital soil mapping when  
1225 the residual materials form the soil parent material, but less so in areas dis-  
tinguished by glaciation and high geomorphodynamics. Similarly, in their  
comparison of surficial geology maps derived from Soil Survey maps on the  
one hand and the Geologic Survey on the other, Miller and Lee Burras (2015)  
point out that the level of agreement was lower for areas with complicated  
1230 geologic histories. In the presented study area, the issue of increased mor-  
phodynamics in high relief areas and, as a consequence, multi-layered soils, is  
best demonstrated by the intermediate and siliceous sedimentary rock units.  
These units are often composed of soft and rather thin layers. As a con-  
sequence they are easily eroded and covered by slope debris from up-slope  
1235 bedrock or slope debris units, and therefore under-represented in the soil pit  
data. Nevertheless, components from the ISR and SSR units are possible in  
multi-layered soil profiles down-slope of these units (Figure 5D).

## 5. Conclusion

The comparison of soil parent material as noted by soil surveyors in their  
1240 description of soil pits with the surficial geology units of new, detailed geo-  
logical maps, shows that while there is a confusion rate of over 50 %, these  
maps are immensely helpful in understanding the distribution of soil parent  
material. The main issue encountered was the abundance of till acting as soil  
parent material on other, different surficial geology units. On the one hand, a  
1245 often very thin layer of till was found to be the soil parent material of many  
soils on the unit siliceous bedrock, and on the other hand it was encoun-  
tered at steeper slope angles and at higher elevations than expected. The  
presented study study shows that roughness measures, specifically a combi-  
nation of the topographic roughness index and vector ruggedness measures,  
1250 present a tool to further differentiate surficial geology units, highlighting re-  
gions were the probability of encountering till as soil parent material is high  
and thereby characterising the variability of these units. In this study we  
also show that the fuzziness of the categorical transitions between two par-  
ent material classes, for instance between slope debris and any bedrock class  
1255 which acts as the slope debris' source area, represents a further cause for mis-  
classification. By incorporating the soil types found on the various units into  
the analyses, the presented approach attempts to point out which misclassifi-  
cations of soil parent material lead to incorrect assumptions regarding soil  
distribution, but also emphasizes thoses cases where misclassification does

1260 not negatively affect the derivation of soil units.

The geologic-topographic characterisation of the surficial geology units, representing a synthesis of geologic, topographic and soil-related information, is considered to be an appropriate approach to make best use of available geologic information. It sheds light onto how the mapping approaches between 1265 geologists and soil scientists vary, and at the same time provides a possible link between the two sciences. By performing such an analysis prior to future detailed field soil surveys, the surveyor can make best use of available information and concentrate the time and money consuming task of field work, involving soil pits and auguring, on units identified as highly variable and 1270 uncertain regarding soil and its parent material. This will strengthen the understanding of the pedologic relevance of these units and prove helpful for devising future sampling procedures and the regionalisation of point information. While the presented approach incorporating soil type distribution 1275 into the geological-topographic characterisation of geological units certainly helps understand the pedological influence of these, future studies may want to include specific soil properties, where available, such as bulk density and hydrological properties, into the characterisations.

The authors are of the opinion that the new generation of geological maps with their detailed description of quaternary deposits are an important tool 1280 for future soil survey and signify a step towards closing the gap between geology and soil science.

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