

Soil Parent Materials

Parent Material

Parent material refers to unconsolidated organic and mineral materials in which soils form. The parent material of a genetic horizon cannot be observed in its original state; it must be inferred from the properties that the horizon has inherited and from other evidence. In some soils, the parent material has changed little, and what it was like can be deduced with confidence. In others, such as some very old soils of the tropics, the specific kind of parent material or its mode or origin is speculative.

Much of the mineral matter in which soils form is derived in one-way or another from hard rocks. Glaciers may grind the rock into fragments and earthy material and deposit the mixture of particles as glacial till. On the other hand, rock may be weathered with great chemical and physical changes but not moved from its place of origin; this altered material is called "residuum from rock."

In some cases, little is gained from attempting to differentiate between geologic weathering and soil formation because both are weathering processes. It may be possible to infer that a material was weathered before soil formation. The weathering process causes some process constituents to be lost, some to be transformed, and others to be concentrated.

Parent material may not necessarily be residuum from the bedrock that is directly below, and the material that developed into a modern soil may be unrelated to the underlying bedrock. Movement of soil material downslope is an important process and can be appreciable even on gentle slopes, especially on very old landscapes. Also, locally associated soils may form in sedimentary rock layers that are different.

Seldom is there certainty that a highly weathered material weathered in place. The term "residuum" is used when the properties of the soil indicate that it has been derived from rock like that, which underlies it and when evidence is lacking that it has been modified by movement. A rock fragment distribution that decreases in amount with depth, especially over saprolite, indicates that soil material probably has been transported downslope. Stone lines, especially if the stones have a different lithology than the underlying bedrock, provide evidence that the soil did not form entirely in residuum. In some soils, transported material overlies residuum and illuvial organic matter and clay are superimposed across the discontinuity between the contrasting materials. A certain degree of landscape stability is inferred for residual soils. A lesser degree is inferred for soils that developed in transported material.

Both consolidated and unconsolidated material beneath the solum that influence the genesis and behavior of the soil are described in standard terms. Besides the observations themselves, the scientist records his judgment about the origin of the parent material from which the solum developed. The observations must be separated clearly from inferences.

The lithologic composition, structure and consistence of the material directly beneath the solum are important. Evidence of stratification of the material—textural differences, stone lines, and the like—need to be noted. Commonly, the upper layers of outwash deposits settled out of more slowly moving water and are finer in texture than the lower layers. Windblown material and volcanic ash are laid down at different rates in blankets of varying thickness. Examples of such complications are nearly endless.

Where alluvium, loess, or ash are rapidly deposited on old soils, buried soils may be well preserved. Elsewhere the accumulation is so slow that the solum thickens only gradually. In such places, the material beneath the solum was once near the surface but may now be buried below the zone of active change.

Where hard rocks or other strongly contrasting materials lie near enough to the surface to affect the behavior of the soil, their depths need to be measured accurately. The depth of soil over such nonconforming materials is an important criterion for distinguishing different kinds of soil.

Geological materials need to be defined in accordance with the accepted standards and nomenclature of geology. The accepted, authoritative names of the geological formations are recorded in soil descriptions where these can be identified with reasonable accuracy. As soil research progresses, an increasing number of correlations are being found between particular geological formations and the mineral and nutrient content of parent materials and soils. For example, certain terrace materials and deposits of volcanic ash that are different in age or source, but otherwise indistinguishable, vary widely in the content of cobalt. Wide variations in the phosphorus content of two otherwise similar soils may reflect differences in the phosphorus content of two similar limestones that can be distinguished in the field only by specific fossils.

Igneous rocks formed by the solidification of molten materials that originated within the earth. Examples of igneous rocks that weather to important soil material are granite, syenite, basalt, andesite, diabase, and rhyolite.

Sedimentary rocks formed from sediments laid down in previous geological ages. The principal broad groups of sedimentary rocks are limestone, sandstone, shale, and conglomerate. There are many varieties of these broad classes of sedimentary rocks; for example, chalk and marl are soft varieties of limestone. Many

types are intermediate between the broad groups, such as calcareous sandstone and arenaceous limestone. Also included are deposits of diatomaceous earth, which formed, from the siliceous remains of primitive plants called diatoms.

Metamorphic rocks resulted from profound alteration of igneous and sedimentary rocks by heat and pressure. General classes of metamorphic rocks important as parent material are gneiss, schist, slate, marble, quartzite, and phyllite.

The principal broad subdivisions of parent material are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Material Produced by Weathering of Rock in Place

The nature of the original rock affects the kinds of material produced by weathering. The rock may have undergone various changes, including changes in volume and loss of minerals—plagioclase feldspar and other minerals. Rock may lose mineral material without any change in volume or in the original rock structure, and saprolite is formed. Essentially, saprolite is a parent material. The point where rock weathering ends and soil formation begins is not always clear. The processes may be consecutive and even overlapping. Quite different soils may form from similar or even identical rocks under different weathering conditions. Texture, color, consistence, and other characteristics of the material should be included in the description of soils, as well as important features such as quartz dikes. Useful information about the mineralogical composition, consistence, and structure of the parent rock itself should be added to help in understanding the changes from parent rock to weathered material.

Transported Material

The most extensive group of parent materials is the group that has been moved from the place of origin and deposited elsewhere. The principal groups of transported materials are usually named according to the main agent responsible for their transport and deposition. In most places, sufficient evidence is available to make a clear determination; elsewhere, the precise origin is uncertain.

In soil morphology and classification, it is exceedingly important that the characteristics of the material itself be observed and described. It is not enough simply to identify the parent material. Any doubt of the correctness of the identification should be mentioned. For example, it is often impossible to be sure whether certain silty deposits are alluvium, loess, or residuum. Certain mud flows are indistinguishable from glacial till. Some sandy glacial till is nearly identical to sandy outwash. Fortunately, hard-to-make distinctions are not always of significance for soil behavior predictions.

Material moved and deposited by water (Very important in VA)

Alluvium.—Alluvium consists of sediment deposited by running water. It may occur on terraces well above present streams or in the normally flooded bottomland of existing streams. Remnants of very old stream terraces may be found in dissected country far from any present stream. Along many old established streams lie a whole series of alluvial deposits in terraces—young deposits in the immediate flood plain, up step by step to the very old deposits on the highest terraces. In some places recent alluvium covers older terraces.

Marine sediments.—These sediments settled out of the sea and commonly were reworked by currents and tides. Later they were exposed either naturally or following the construction of dikes and drainage canals. They vary widely in composition. Some resemble lacustrine deposits.

Beach deposits.—Beach deposits mark the present or former shorelines of the sea or lakes. These deposits are low ridges of sorted material and are commonly sandy, gravelly, cobbly, or stony. Deposits on the beaches of former glacial lakes are usually included with glacial drift.

Lacustrine deposits.—These deposits consist of material that has settled out of bodies of still water. Deposits laid down in fresh-water lakes associated directly with glaciers are commonly included as are other lake deposits, including some of Pleistocene age that are not associated with the continental glaciers. Some lake basins in the Western United States are commonly called playas; the soils in these basins may be more or less salty, depending on climate and drainage. (Not so important in VA)

Material moved and deposited by wind (Not so important in most cases in VA; some evidence of loess on the eastern shore and of course sand dunes)

Windblown material can be divided into groups based on particle size or on origin. Volcanic ash and cinders are examples of materials classed by both particle size and origin. Other windblown material that is mainly silty is called loess, and that which is primarily sand is called eolian sand. Eolian sand is commonly but not always in dunes. Nearly all textures intermediate between silty loess and sandy dune material can be found.

Volcanic ash, pumice, and cinders are sometimes regarded as unconsolidated igneous rock, but they have been moved from their place of origin. Most have been reworked by wind and, in places, by water. Ash is volcanic ejecta smaller than 2 mm. Ash smaller than 0.05 mm may be called "fine ash." Pumice and cinders are volcanic ejecta 2 mm or larger.

Loess deposits typically are very silty but may contain significant amounts of clay and very fine sand. Most loess deposits are pale brown to brown, although gray and red colors are common. The thick deposits are generally massive and have some gross vertical cracking. The walls of road cuts in thick loess stand nearly vertical for years. Other silty deposits that formed in other ways have some or all of these characteristics. Some windblown silt has been leached and strongly weathered so that it is acid and rich in clay. On the other hand, some young deposits of windblown material (loess) are mainly silt and very fine sand and are low in clay.

Sand dunes (We do find this in VA), particularly in warm, humid regions, characteristically consist of fine or medium sand that is high in quartz and low in clay-forming materials. Sand dunes may contain large amounts of calcium carbonate or gypsum, especially in deserts and semideserts.

During periods of drought and in deserts, local wind movements may mix and pile up soil material of different textures or even material that is very rich in clay. Piles of such material have been called "soil dunes" or "clay dunes." Rather than identify local accumulations of mixed material moved by the wind as "loess" or "dunes," however, it is better to refer to them as "wind-deposited material."

Also important but not generally recognized as a distinctive deposit is dust, which is carried for long distances and deposited in small increments on a large part of the world. Dust can circle the earth in the upper atmosphere. Dust particles are mostly clay and very fine silt and may be deposited dry or be in precipitation. The accumulated deposits are large in some places. An immense amount of dust has been distributed widely throughout the ages. The most likely sources at present are the drier regions of the world. Large amounts of dust may have been distributed worldwide during and immediately following the glacial periods.

Dust is an important factor affecting soils in some places. It is the apparent source of the unexpected fertility of some old, highly leached soils in the path of wind that blows from extensive deserts some hundreds of kilometers distant. It explains unexpected micronutrient distribution in some places. Besides dust, fixed nitrogen, sulfur, calcium, magnesium, sodium, potassium, and other elements from the atmosphere are deposited on the soil in varying amounts in solution in precipitation.

Material moved and deposited by gravity

Colluvium is poorly sorted debris that has accumulated at the base of slopes, in depressions, or along small streams through gravity, soil creep, and local wash. It consists largely of material that has rolled, slid or fallen down the slope under the influence of gravity. Accumulations of rock fragments are called talus. The rock fragments in colluvium are usually angular, in contrast to the rounded, water-worn cobbles and stones in alluvium and glacial outwash.

➡ In VA, poorly sorted materials that moved in mass possibly by solifluction¹ and periglacial² events may not be easily identified. Often the soil material moved short distances and still resembles the residual soil material. Gravel lines are often visible at the contact (discontinuity) between the material that moved and the underlying material that did not move (in this event). This discontinuity is important to us because it may result in a zone of reduced permeability. The discontinuity may also be recognized by faint redoximorphic features immediately above the discontinuity.

¹**solifluction** Slow, viscous downslope flow of water-saturated regolith. Rates of flow vary widely. The presence of frozen substrate or even freezing and thawing is not implied in the original definition. However, one component of solifluction can be creep of frozen ground. The term is commonly applied to processes operating in both seasonal frost and permafrost areas.

²**periglacial** Pertaining to processes, conditions, areas, climates, and topographic features occurring at the immediate margins of glaciers and ice sheets, and influenced by cold temperature of the ice.

(From the 2008 Glossary of Soil Science Terms, Soil Science Society of America)

Glaciers are not thought to have extended into VA, however there is evidence of periglacial² process.

Material moved and deposited by glacial processes

Several terms are used for material that has been moved and deposited by glacial processes. Glacial drift consists of all of the material picked up, mixed, disintegrated, transported, and deposited by glacial ice or by water from melting glaciers. In many places glacial drift is covered by a mantle of loess. Deep mantles of loess are usually easily recognized, but very thin mantles may be so altered by soil-building forces that they can scarcely be differentiated from the underlying modified drift.

Glacial till.—This is that part of the glacial drift deposited directly by the ice with little or no transportation by water. It is generally an unstratified, heterogeneous mixture of clay, silt, sand, gravel, and sometimes boulders. Some of the mixture settled out as the ice melted with very little washing by water, and some was overridden by the glacier and is compacted and unsorted. Till may be found in ground moraines, terminal moraines, medial moraines, and lateral moraines. In many places it is important to differentiate between the tills of the several glaciations. Commonly, the tills underlie one another and may be separated by other deposits or old, weathered surfaces. Many deposits of glacial till were later eroded by the wave action in glacial lakes. The upper part of such wave-cut till may have a high percentage of rock fragments.

Glacial till ranges widely in texture, chemical composition, and the degree of weathering that followed its deposition. Much till is calcareous, but an important part is noncalcareous because no carbonate rocks contributed to the material or because subsequent leaching and chemical weathering have removed the carbonates.

Glaciofluvial deposits.—These deposits are material produced by glaciers and carried, sorted, and deposited by water that originated mainly from melting glacial ice. Glacial outwash is a broad term for material swept out, sorted, and deposited beyond the glacial ice front by streams of melt water. Commonly, this outwash is in the form of plains, valley trains, or deltas in old glacial lakes. The valley trains of outwash may extend far beyond the farthest advance of the ice. Near moraines, poorly sorted glaciofluvial material may form kames, eskers, and crevasse fills.

Glacial beach deposits.—These consist of rock fragments and sand. They mark the beach lines of former glacial lakes. Depending on the character of the original drift, beach deposits may be sandy, gravelly, cobbly, or stony.

Glaciolacustrine deposits.—These deposits are derived from glaciers but were reworked and laid down in glacial lakes. They range from fine clay to sand. Many of them are stratified or varved. A varve consists of the deposition for a calendar year. The finer portion reflects slower deposition during the cold season and the coarser portion deposition during the warmer season when runoff is greater.

Good examples of all of the glacial materials and forms described in the preceding paragraphs can be found. In many places, however, it is not easy to distinguish definitely among the kinds of drift on the basis of mode of origin and landform. For example, pitted outwash plains can scarcely be distinguished from sandy till in terminal moraines. Distinguishing between wave-cut till and lacustrine material is often difficult. The names themselves connote only a little about the actual characteristics of the parent material.

Organic Material (Rarely an issue in the drainfield world in VA)

Organic material accumulates in wet places where it is deposited more rapidly than it decomposes. These deposits are called peat. This peat in turn may become parent material for soils. The principal general kinds of peat, according to origin are:

Sedimentary peat. the remains mostly of floating aquatic plants, such as algae, and the remains and fecal material of aquatic animals, including coprogenous earth.

Moss peat. the remains of mosses, including Sphagnum.

Herbaceous peat. the remains of sedges, reeds, cattails, and other herbaceous plants.

Woody peat. the remains of trees, shrubs, and other woody plants.

Many deposits of organic material are mixtures of peat. Some organic soils formed in alternating layers of different kinds of peat. In places peat is mixed with deposits of mineral alluvium and/or volcanic ash. Some organic soils contain layers that are largely or entirely mineral material.

In describing organic soils, the material is called peat (fibric) if virtually all of the organic remains are sufficiently fresh and intact to permit identification of plant forms. It is called muck (sapric) if virtually all of the material has undergone sufficient decomposition to limit recognition of the plant parts. It is called mucky peat (hemic) if a significant part of the material can be recognized and a significant part cannot.

Descriptions of organic material should include the origin and the botanical composition of the material to the extent that these can be reasonably inferred.