Thermodynamic pedodiversity patterns reveal higher-order soil organization in indigenous agroecosystems of the U.S. Southwest

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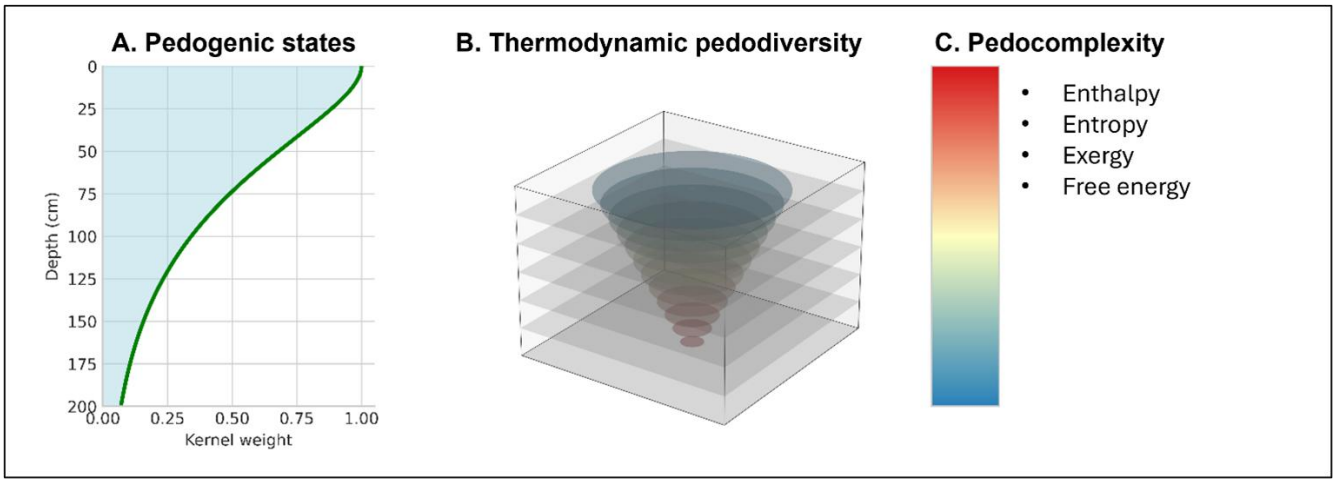


Abstract

Soil spatial heterogeneity and diversity support the stability and productivity of food systems, yet their multidimensional structure remains difficult to quantify at spatial scales relevant to agricultural resilience. A process-based framework grounded in fundamental physical principles is therefore needed to describe these spatial processes across landscapes. The aim of this study was to develop a mechanistic three-dimensional thermodynamic pedodiversity index constrained by physical continuity. The framework was applied to ancestral and contemporary indigenous agroecosystems of the U.S. Southwest. Eight gridded soil properties were transformed into thermodynamic exergy states using a three-dimensional biweight multi-pass convolution applied across spatial directions, with the surface layer subject to atmospheric forcing. Local inverse Moran's I was then calculated to quantify the pedodiversity patterns. Linking thermodynamic principles to the landscape scale revealed that long-term crop production aligns with structured pedodiversity patterns rather than with pedodiversity magnitude alone. Persistent Hopi dryland agriculture corresponded with moderately to highly organized pedodiversity patterns, whereas more specialized Navajo pastoral systems occurred in landscapes characterized by lower pedodiversity organization. These results suggest that pedodiversity represents only one component of soil resilience and multifunctionality. Higher-order spatial processes, interpreted alongside indigenous ecological knowledge, are necessary to understand how soils support sustained agroecosystems. Integrating process-based applied mathematics with Indigenous knowledge systems may therefore provide a pathway toward identifying higher-order functions capable of inferring soil resilience and multifunctionality.

Keywords: Exergy, Indigenous knowledge, Soil resilience, Soil multifunctionality, Quantitative pedology

1. Introduction

Soil is an inherently complex system shaped by the interaction of biological, chemical, physical (Jenny, 1941) and anthropogenic processes that operate across multiple spatial, depth and temporal scales simultaneously (Dearing et al., 2014). These processes generate a remarkable degree of variability both across the landscape and through the soil profile that are essential for ecosystem services such as water regulation, carbon storage and nutrient cycling (McBratney and Minasny, 2007). Understanding soil multifunctionality and resilience requires capturing the variability, a task that remains conceptually and methodologically challenging. The field of pedodiversity emerged to provide a quantitative framework for describing this heterogeneity and connecting it to ecological and pedogenic dynamics (Ibáñez et al., 1995).

Classically, pedodiversity has been quantified through the diversity of soil types (taxonomic), soil horizons (genetic) or soil productivity under different environmental changes (functionality)(Ibáñez and Bockheim, 2013). While valuable, these methods are constrained by their reliance on discrete taxonomic boundaries (Zhu, 1997) or rely on one purpose and thus fail to capture the continuous and multidimensional nature of soil variation, the interactions among soil attributes or rely on one attribute which does not reflect the true multifunctionality of soil (Toomanian and Esfandiarpoor, 2010). Accordingly, there is a need to calculate pedodiversity by recognizing that soil varies not only vertically with depth but also laterally across the landscape, and that processes occurring

within one profile can influence the functionality of neighbouring soil and horizons (Matheron, 1963).

In the U.S. Southwest, soil preserves a long record of interactions between people, agriculture and climate. The Ancestral Pueblo, Navajo and Hopi (among many others) agricultural systems developed under extreme climatic constraints, relying on detailed ecological knowledge and a profound understanding of soil heterogeneity to sustain crop production over centuries during extreme climatic events. For instance, the cultural and trading center of Chaco Canyon likely imported food from the Chuska Mountains to the west, where maize, beans and squash could be cultivated (Benson et al., 2003). In Mesa Verde, agriculture was primarily conducted on the mesa tops and extended northward into the Great Sage Plains, which were extensively cultivated by the late era of the Ancestral Pueblo (Benson, 2011). Yet, it remains unclear whether these lands were chosen for their extensive homogeneous, high-quality soil or for their spatially heterogeneous variation, which may have offered greater adaptive opportunities under varying climatic conditions.

The Hopi, considered possible cultural descendants of the Ancestral Pueblo have practiced dryland farming for at least nine centuries, since around 1,100 A.D. (Bocinsky and Varien, 2017), possibly following the decline of Chaco Canyon. Their agricultural system exemplifies an enduring strategy that capitalizes on pedodiversity, intentionally seeking sites that differ from the surrounding landscape to maximize functional diversity and resilience. The Hopi territory represents one of North America's longest-inhabited agricultural landscapes (Johnson, 2023) and a recognized biodiversity hotspot (Nankar and Pratt, 2021), shaped by cultural practices that exploit soil variability, crop diversity through selective breeding and has lasted through extreme drought. For example, the Hopi cultivate 17 distinct drought-resistant nutrient dense maize

varieties, an exceptional adaptation given maize's typical dependence on abundant water (Soleri and Cleveland, 1993).

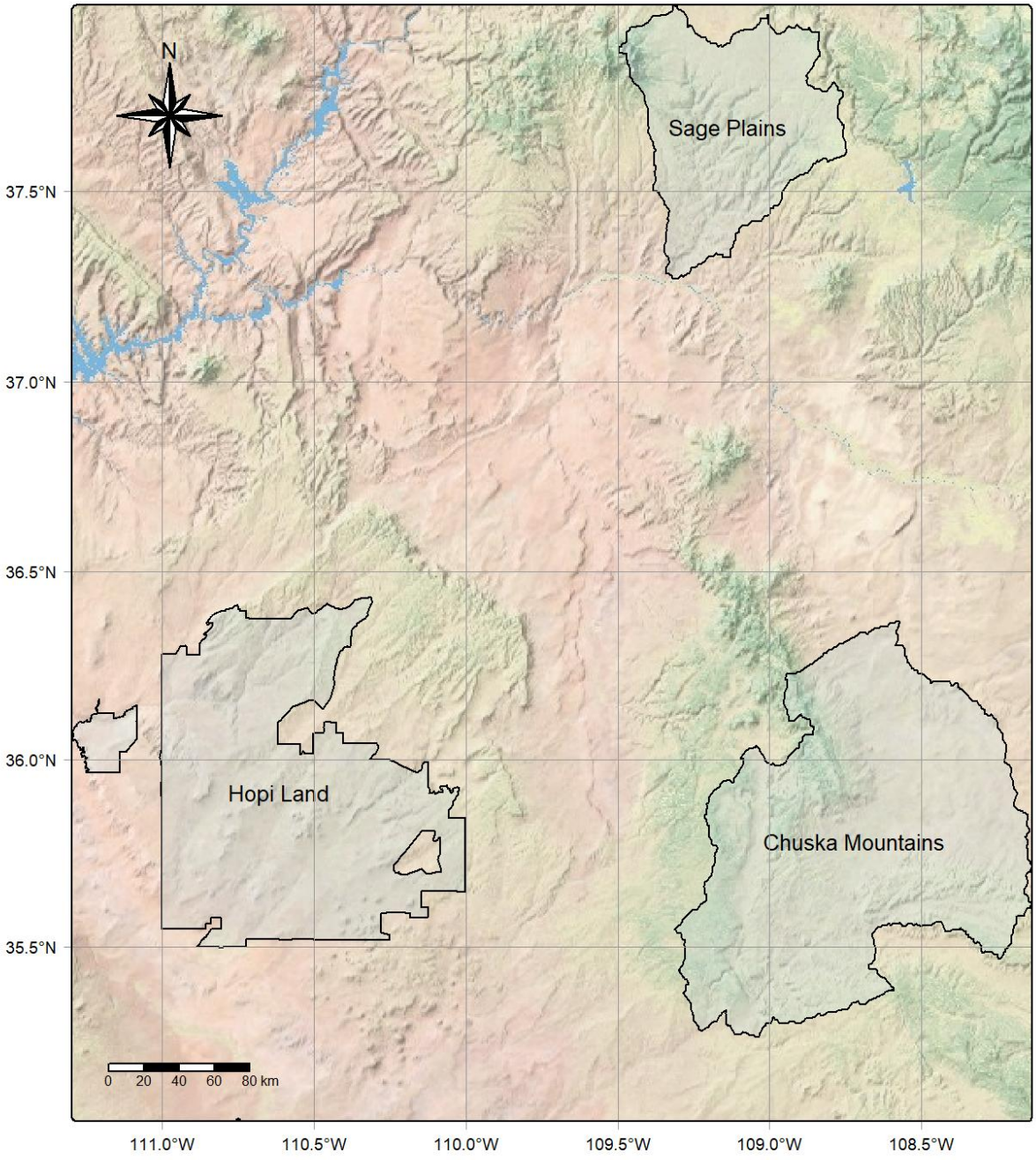
By continuously quantifying pedodiversity, we can reveal how this intrinsic, multidimensional soil complexity supports the persistence of traditional dryland farming systems (Mikhailova et al., 2021). High vertical pedodiversity reflects the development of layered soil profiles or profiles with discrete boundaries, whereas spatial pedodiversity represented the by spatial heterogeneity (i.e., squared differences) of niches historically exploited for distinct crops, breeding and management strategies. Mapping these interconnected domains simultaneously shows landscapes where agricultural traditions have upheld ecological balance and soil functionality across generations (Costantini and L'Abate, 2016). Conversely, such analyses may also reveal agricultural strategies that favored lower pedodiversity and greater soil homogeneity in areas possessing inherently favorable soil and moisture regimes.

The aim of this study was to quantify a process-based, numerical second-order voxel index to characterize the pedodiversity of soil thermodynamic states, providing insight into community-level soil behavior. Applied across Ancestral Pueblo agricultural landscapes and multigenerational dryland farming regions of the U.S. Southwest, we show that thermodynamic pedodiversity or soil system organization, forms part of a framework for assessing soil resilience and societal adaptation to environmental stress. By capturing physical properties, spatial structure and depth organization, this approach offers a rigorous measure of soil arrangements and an ecological–cultural perspective for understanding how human management practices have persisted, adapted and transformed under variable environmental conditions.

2. Methods and materials

2.1 Sites

The Four Corners region of the U.S. southwest and the three sites chosen were selected because they represent the agricultural and cultural legacies of the Ancestral Pueblo, Navajo and Hopi peoples (Brooks, 2020) whose histories are interrelated through geography yet are culturally distinct (Figure 1). Although the Navajo and Hopi occupy regions that overlap with former Ancestral Pueblo territories and each other, their languages, cultural practices and agricultural systems differ significantly (Dongoske et al., 1997; Kahn-John (Diné) and Koithan, 2015). For this reason, and in recognition of their unique cultural identities and histories, the Navajo and Hopi are distinct from the Ancestral Pueblo. The cultural history of the region is further complicated by overlapping territorial boundaries; for example, Hope Land lies within the Navajo Nation, yet the two peoples maintain separate cultural traditions. Additionally, the term “Anasazi”, historically used in archaeological literature to refer to the Ancestral Pueblo is now avoided due to its derogatory meaning, “ancient enemy,” (McBrinn and Cordell, 2016) in Diné Bizaad (the Navajo language). Whether this term originated as a Western construct or was relayed to archaeologist Richard Wetherill, who popularized it, remains uncertain, but its use highlights the importance of cultural sensitivity and self-identification in interpreting the human history of the U.S. Southwest.



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116 *Figure 1: known indigenous lands selected based on borders or basins due to water resources, which likely determined their*
117 *agriculture practices.*

118 Except for Hopi Land, the sites were delineated primarily from hydrological basins identified

119 through a digital elevation model (DEM), crossing state boundaries (Colorado, Utah, Arizona and

120 New Mexico). This geomorphic criterion was chosen because, although some ancestral cultures

constructed irrigation networks, all ultimately relied on dryland agriculture (Bellorado and Anderson, 2013). Basins or catchments, concentrate runoff and moisture and thus represent the most probable zones of Ancestral Pueblo cultivation. Site selection also considered the spatial distribution of early and late Ancestral Pueblo agricultural landscapes and their overlap with the territories of contemporary Indigenous peoples. While this spatial correspondence is inherently interpretive, it reflects well-established archaeological and ethnogeographic evidence that the Ancestral Pueblo peoples inhabited and farmed across the Four Corners region of the U.S. Southwest.

2.1.1 Chuska Mountains

The southern Chuska Mountains, southern basin and its piedmonts, straddling the Arizona–New Mexico border, form a volcanic highland rising above the surrounding Colorado Plateau. The range is composed primarily of Oligocene basaltic and andesitic flows (Appledorn and Wright, 1957), interbedded with volcaniclastic sandstones and Chuska Sandstone, underlain by older Mesozoic sedimentary formations such as the Navajo and Wingate Sandstones. Elevation ranges from approximately 1,800 to 2,900 m, with the southern basin averaging 2,053 m (Blagbrough, 1967). Vegetation transitions sharply from montane forests of ponderosa pine, spruce and fir at higher elevations to pinyon–juniper woodland and semi-arid grassland across the lower slopes and basins (Harris et al., 1960). The climate spans alpine to desert conditions, characterized by cool, snowy winters and warm, dry summers, with precipitation varying from >500 mm yr^{-1} on the crest to <250 mm yr^{-1} in the southern lowlands (Blagbrough, 1967). Culturally, this region was a critical resource and agricultural hinterland for Chaco Canyon (~900 AD), supplying timber and agricultural products to the Ancestral Pueblo (Wills et al., 2014). The same landscapes are

traditional herding and grazing grounds of the Navajo Nation, whose pastoral systems continue to shape soil use and vegetation patterns (Wallace et al., 2021).

2.1.2 Great Sage Plain

The Great Sage Plains lies north of Mesa Verde and west of the Dolores River in southwestern Colorado and southeastern Utah, forming part of the northern San Juan Basin margin. The landscape consists primarily of Cretaceous Mancos Shale overlain by Quaternary loess, alluvium and colluvial deposits, with minor outcrops of the Dakota Sandstone and Mesa Verde Group along drainage margins (Reheis et al., 2018). The average elevation is 2,050 m, with a gently undulating topography that contrasts sharply with the dissected mesas to the south (Dove et al., 2006). Soil is predominantly fine-textured loams and clay loams, developed on shale and loess parent materials that provide high moisture retention but limited infiltration (Fadem and Diederichs, 2020). The regional climate is semi-arid continental, with cold winters, warm summers and mean annual precipitation of 300–400 mm, much of it derived from winter snowmelt. Vegetation is dominated by sagebrush steppe, greasewood and semi-arid grassland, interspersed with dryland agricultural fields (Wagner and Scipal, 2000). Archaeologically, this area marks the northern agricultural frontier of the Ancestral Pueblo world, cultivated most intensively between 1000 and 1280 A.D., (Allison, 2010).

2.1.3 Hopi Land

The Hopi Mesas occupy a prominent series of east–west–oriented uplands in northeastern Arizona, rising above the northern edge of the Little Colorado River Basin. The landscape is underlain by Jurassic and Triassic sandstones, principally the Entrada, Wingate and Navajo Sandstones interbedded with minor siltstone and shale that create subtle contrasts in soil texture

and water-holding capacity (O'Sullivan, 2003). Elevation ranges from approximately 1,700 to 1,900 m, and the region's arid to semi-arid climate is characterized by mean annual precipitation of 200–300 mm, concentrated during the summer monsoon, with mean annual temperatures of 10–13 °C (Hopi Department of Natural Resources, 2021). Vegetation is mostly pinyon–juniper woodland, sagebrush and mixed grassland, with riparian shrubs in ephemeral washes. The region forms one of North America's oldest continuously farmed landscapes, where the Hopi people have practiced dryland agriculture for over nine centuries. Their fields, often situated on mesa slopes and valley bottoms, support a remarkable diversity of drought-tolerant maize, beans, squash, melons and medicinal plants (Johnson et al., 2021; Wall and Masayesva, 2004).

2.2 Soil data

Soil property data was obtained from the POLARIS (Probabilistic Remapping of SSURGO) dataset (Chaney et al., 2016). and the USDA-NCSS soil survey data (SSURGO back-filled with STATSGO where SSURGO is not available) database (Walkinshaw, 2020), both providing harmonized, gridded soil property estimates across the conterminous United States. POLARIS was used to represent the physical soil matrix, while USDA-NCSS soil survey supplied soil color data critical for redox-morphological interpretation (Kim et al., 2025). All soil properties were obtained within the Google Earth Engine (GEE; Gorelick et al., 2017) to streamline the modelling process.

The POLARIS dataset provides probabilistic predictions of major soil attributes at a 30 m spatial resolution (Chaney et al., 2016). Seven properties were extracted for this study: bulk density (g cm^{-3}), sand (% w/w), silt (% w/w), clay (% w/w), saturated hydraulic conductivity (K_{sat}; $\log_{10}$(cm hr^{-1})), soil organic matter ($\log_{10}$(% w/w)) and pH. Each property was available at the six standard GlobalSoilMap (Arrouays et al., 2014) depth intervals: 0–5, 5–15, 15–30, 30–60, 60–100 and 100–

200 cm. All soil properties were retained in their transformed state; for example, K_{sat} and soil organic matter were kept in their $\log_{10}$-transformed form, as their distributions are typically right-skewed and approximate normal after transformation (Shapiro et al., 1968; Webster and Oliver, 2007). This approach also preserves the proportional relationships among properties, which is preferable for kernel-based weighting and correlation analysis (McBratney et al., 1992).

Soil color acts as a morphological proxy for oxidation–reduction and drainage conditions, it was included as an eighth property to enhance the interpretability of the pedodiversity index. Munsell soil color data were resampled to 30 m spatial resolution using a nearest-neighbor approach to preserve the native fine-scale texture of the dataset. Depth intervals were retained in their original form, as the 3-dimensional kernel weights were designed to account for cross-layer influence of soil color at 10, 25, 75, and 125 cm.

2.3 Thermodynamic pedodiversity

2.3.1 Pedocomplexity theory

Thermodynamic pedodiversity is a key element of pedocomplexity, a framework that integrates soil thermodynamic states, continuous diversity, total potential energy and practical tools (e.g., decision-support) to evaluate soil resilience and multifunctionality. It emphasizes that pedodiversity alone cannot serve as a proxy for soil functionality, and that soil multifunctionality is instead governed by pedocomplexity. Pedocomplexity is a function describing the thermodynamic steady-state of soil, from which, using a multidisciplinary approach, soil resilience and multifunctionality can be inferred. Pedocomplexity is comprised of four components (Table 1).

Table 1: The components, steady state term and physical meaning of pedocomplexity.

Component	Steady state	Physical meaning
Latent energy	Enthalpy (ΔH)	The total stored energy that is not yet contributing to work.
Pedogenic states	Exergy (Ψ)	The magnitude of internal energy available for work (usable energy in the soil).
Pedogenic exchange	Entropy (σ)	The coupling or interaction energy dissipated to maintain gradients between pedogenic states.
Pedocomplexity	Organization of exergy (O)	A function of H, Ψ and σ describing the thermodynamical structure of the soil system

When defined for the whole system pedogenic states can be described as magnitude or intensity and pedogenic exchange can be shown as a thermodynamic pedodiversity index. The framework recognizes that soil always exists in a multidimensional physical and feature state. However, the term "pedogenic" is emphasized as a descriptor of process-based functions culminating in pedocomplexity, calculated as:

$$O(s) = \int f\colon \mathbb{C}(\Delta H, \Psi, \sigma)_{x,y,z,t}\, dV,$$

Or if the data is sparse, non-continuous or simply not enough data:

$$O(s) = \int f(\Delta H, \Psi, \sigma)_{x,y,z}\, dV$$

Where latent energy corresponds to enthalpy ΔH, representing total stored energy in a form that that is not is not capable to perform work. Pedogenic states are equivalent to exergy Ψ, capturing the usable internal energy available for work. Pedogenic exchange acts like entropy σ, representing the interaction energy dissipated to maintain spatial gradients between states. Finally, pedocomplexity (O) is a function of ΔH, Ψ and σ, describing the overall thermodynamic structure of the soil system organization.

Since we are working with exergy states, we assume the reference state corresponds to a zero gradient, representing no soil or the end of soil formation, the limits of a soil's life span. Consequently, a zero gradient is assumed to indicate zero functionality and no resilience to change, and the behavior determines which functions are expressed. Although this implicitly implies linearity in time and ΔH, the model is not linear in these timers.

The σ function is fundamental for calculating pedocomplexity as defined here and the least understood. Pedogenic states and pedodiversity represent two distinct and often conflicting objective functions. While Ψ represents magnitude or a convergence process (e.g., the sum of exergy across dimensions), σ represents arrangement or separation, which is a divergent process (e.g., the covariance of exergy across dimensions). Although treating the problem as a voxel increases the number of degrees of freedom relative to unknown parameters, the conflicting objective functions exert a stronger influence and numerical stability drops significantly.

Perhaps most importantly, these conflicting objectives can create visualizations that appear unrealistic despite mathematical stability, resulting in an effective function that is difficult to interpret and limiting its accessibility. A concept highly emphasized in the framework is keeping everything interpretable and easy to visualise. Consequently, we also want to create an index for σ and thus, thermodynamic pedodiversity, which is σ scaled [0,1] or the process from [0,1]. Although they are equivalent, it is important when mapping large regions depending on software or environment used. Therefore, to solve $O(s)$, σ must be an energy-minimizing function that increases (not decreases) across dimensions yet defines the spread and never falls below zero, much like the spatial lag of variance.

2.3.2 Profile to landscape scale

A mechanistic, multi-dimensional pedodiversity index was developed to represent the energy transfer dynamics that regulate soil state dissipation energy. The index integrated eight gridded soil properties across depth layers (image bands) using 3-dimensional biweight convolutions constrained by physical continuity. This expresses pedodiversity as a coupled spatial–vertical phenomenon, where spatial heterogeneity emerges from lateral and depth-dependent interactions among soil properties (Ibáñez and Bockheim, 2013). Although not a direct measure of soil functions, the index captures the organization and connectivity of exergy that is the foundation to soil multifunctionality (Bünemann et al., 2018; Vogel et al., 2018). The process is straightforward and can be represented schematically in linear form (Figure 2).

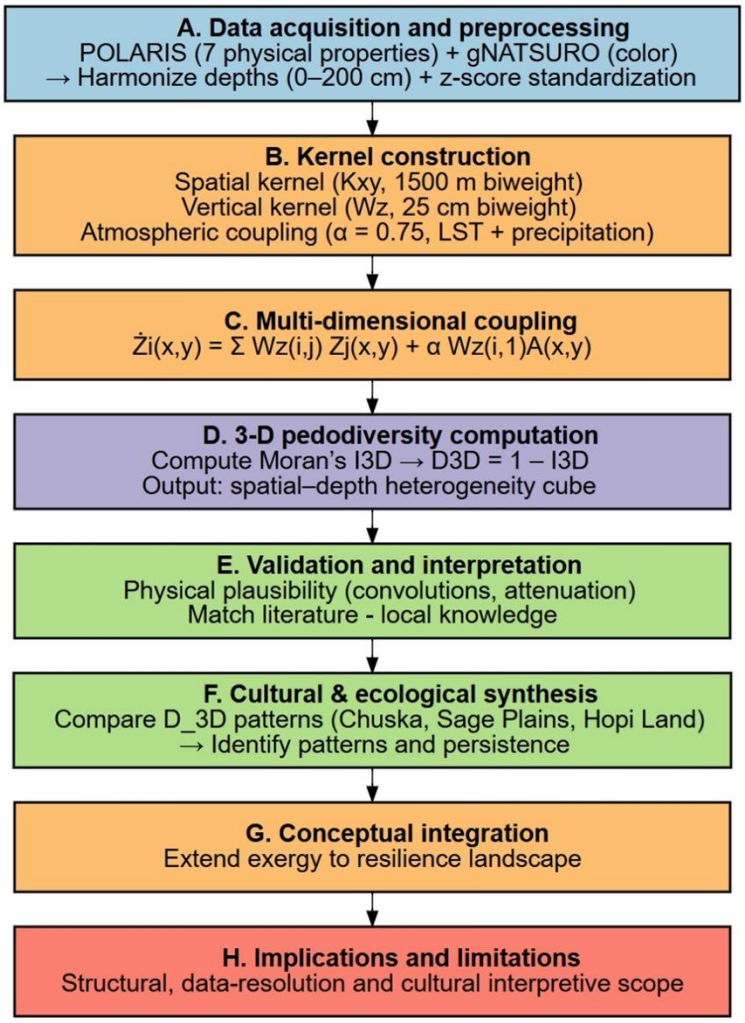

Figure 2: flowchat of the incorporation of the thermodynamic pedodiversity into the larger synthesis of agroecosystem resilience.

The complete pedodiversity computation, local mean and variance calculations and normalization of the three-dimensional Moran's I (Moran, 1950) was implemented entirely in the GEE Python API. This approach ensured computational scalability across all properties and depths, allowing the calculation of the pedodiversity directly from a spatially harmonized soil property cube (Figure 3). This represents a new methodological application of GEE, as it is rarely used for depth-dynamic or three-dimensional subsurface analyses, extending its capacity beyond traditional two-dimensional surface modeling.

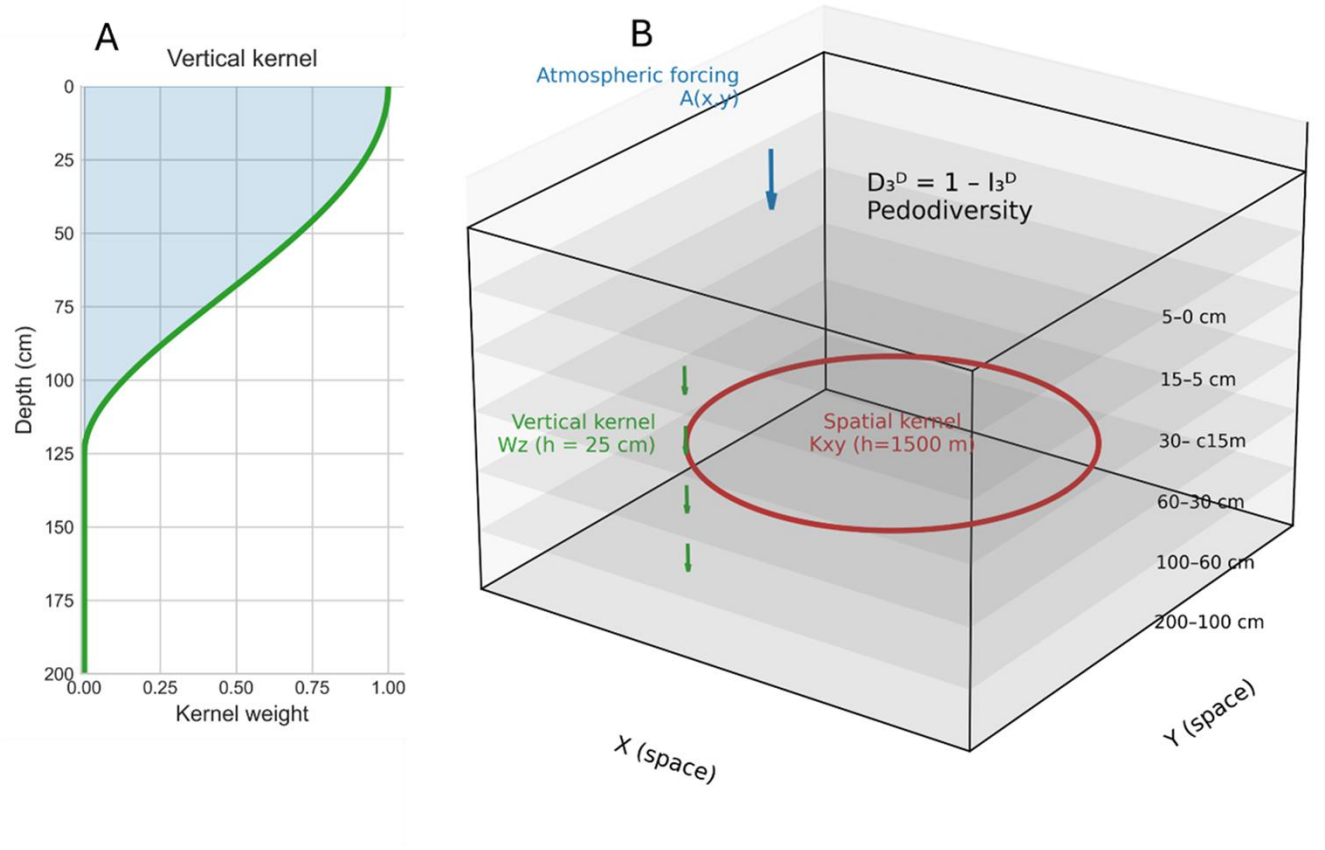

Figure 3: (A) Vertical curve generated from the biweights, illustrating depth-dependent coupling within the soil profile. (B) Spatial–vertical soil cube with atmospheric forcing $A(x, y)$. Together these components generate multidimensional coupling curves at each pixel, from which the pedodiversity index $D_{3D} = 1 - I_{3D}$ is calculated through the inverse of the three-dimensional Moran's I.

2.3.3 Three-dimensional convolutions

Although the thermodynamic pedodiversity index was implemented as an integrated framework, the spatial and vertical convolutions were computed independently and then merged into one. This separation provided diagnostic insight into the relative weighting along each dimension, allowing the model to be fine-tuned toward physical realism and to extract validation information. The vertical component operates over millimeter- to centimeter-scales, whereas the spatial component extends over meter- to kilometer-scale gradients. The local horizontal and vertical interactions between pixels were modeled using a biweight convolution function defined as:

$$K_{xyz}(\mathrm{d}) = \begin{cases} [1-(d/h)^2]^2 & d > h \\ 0, & d < h \end{cases}$$

where d is the Euclidean distance in the vertical domain (K_z) and the spatial domain (K_{xy}), while h is the bandwidth determining the maximum range of interaction. Both domains were subsequently normalized so that their integrated weights summed to one. This gives an almost symmetrical convolution, except where atmospheric forcing modified the weighting at the soil surface. The weights were combined through matrix algebra when implementing the algorithm. The biweighting was used because it provides a smooth, finite-support weighting function that emphasizes local interactions (Beaton and Tukey, 1974; Hengl et al., 2004), while preventing long-distance artifacts (Press, 2007).

2.3.4 Atmospheric boundary

Many soil depth functions have considered how to handle boundary conditions of the profile. While an exact analytical spline will solve this boundary problem, additional functions can be used if atmospheric forcing is applied, soil profile exergy never becomes zero gradient and may have implications for things like numerical classification pedocomplexity.

Since the topsoil forms the physical boundary of many atmospheric–pedologic interactions (e.g., infiltration, evaporation and heat exchange), an atmospheric forcing term $A(x, y)$ was introduced as a boundary condition:

$$\tilde{Z}_i(x, y) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} W_z(i, j) Z_j(x, y) + \alpha\, W_z(i, 1) A(x, y)$$

where $Z_j = X_j - \bar{X}$ represents deviations of soil property X_j from its mean, α is the coupling coefficient controlling the magnitude of atmospheric influence and $W_z(i,1)$ diffusion through the surface to lower depths. This formulation is like the Robin boundary condition (Gustafson and Abe, 1998), which combines flux and state terms to represent the exchange of energy or mass across boundaries. Here, it allows surface energy and moisture fluxes to be transported, stored and transformed through the soil profile, linking atmospheric variability directly to sub-surface processes.

2.3.5 Objective function

The objective function used in this study equates to the inverse 3-dimensional Moran's I. Which is the process that scales to [0,1] and can be used as an index and the pedogenic exchange loss function in pedocomplexity. However, it needs to be accumulating at each pixel and energy minimizing. Additionally, the function must calculate spatial heterogeneity where it essentially collapses back into an energy form. This effectively makes it consistent in the framework, the spatial lag of variance represents pedodiversity and increases computation as the function simplifies.

For the objective function, we need the interaction energy density where local interactions accumulate:

$$E = \frac{1}{V}\sum_{i,j} J_{ij} s_i s_j$$

Where s is the variable state, J_{ij} is the coupling strength between the two states normalized by the volume. When defining the local Moran's I for the 3-dimensional convolution (I_3) and reframing it for energy dissipation, we get thr equation:

$$\sigma(x,y) = 1 - (I_3) \; = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \tilde{Z}_i(x,y)\, \tilde{Z}_{i,local}(x,y)}{n \cdot Var(X)(x,y)}$$

Here, $\tilde{Z}_{i,\text{local}}$ represents the horizontal mean of the standardized property, $\tilde{Z}_i$ using the spatial weights and $Var(X)$ denotes the local variance computed across depths (n) within the vertical weights.

Related to the interaction energy density, the $\tilde{Z}_{i,local}$ interacting state, the $\tilde{Z}_i$ the state variable and normalized by $n \cdot Var(X)$. As we are calculating the from the data over the dimensions, summation calculates the strength of coupling. Most importantly, it collapses back to a Dirichlet energy when summed across space.

$$\mathrm{E} \; = \int |\nabla Z|^2 dx$$

Thus, fitting the requirements for the thermodynamic pedodiversity objective function within the broader context of pedocomplexity.

The pedocomplexity objective function would ideally be linear solvable. However, the inverse Moran's I equation is deterministic and computationally efficient. Therefore, it could be used as an interpretable index and used in a more complex function to solve pedocomplexity, thus lowering the computational cost for large areas. This makes it ideal for both an index and for later computation as it solves the process and is visually interpretable without manipulation.

2.3.6 Implementation

The framework was implemented in GEE to ensure computational scalability across large spatial extents. The pedodiversity index was computed using a soil property image cube harmonized to six standard depths. The soil properties were all converted to global z-scores per depth, where the

mean equals 0 and standard deviation equals 1. Global z-scores were used to ensure each property contributes equally, scale invariant and to ensure physical meaning.

The horizontal domain had a maximum range of $h_m = 1{,}500$ m with a radius of 7 pixels and a spatial scale of 30 m, representing lateral field–to–field influence distances. The vertical domain used $h_z = 25$ cm as the effective correlation length between soil horizons, consistent with observed horizon thicknesses and infiltration depths. Atmospheric coupling ($\alpha = 0.75$) was applied only to the surface horizon to simulate boundary energy fluxes driven by surface temperature or precipitation and releasing exergy. Land surface temperature was obtained from cloud-masked Landsat 8 and 9 (USGS, 2021) imagery using the median composite for 2024, while precipitation data were obtained from NASA's Global Precipitation Measurement (GPM) mission, specifically the Integrated Multi-satellite Retrievals for GPM (IMERG) product (Huffman et al., 2023), by summing the total precipitation for the year 2024.

2.4 Validation and evaluation

Both quantitative and qualitative analyses were conducted on the multi-dimensional pedodiversity index. Quantitatively, we evaluated how the vertical, spatial and atmospheric coupling components behaved in physically plausible ways and how much of the observed variation was explained by intrinsic soil properties. Qualitatively, we examined whether the patterns identified by the index aligned with documented traditional practices, drawing on local dryland farming literature, anthropological studies and Indigenous ecological knowledge of the region. Integrating these perspectives was essential to interpret the pedodiversity patterns within their cultural and environmental context and without such knowledge, our understanding of the

356 past and present soil conditions remains incomplete, and our ability to adapt to future climate
357 change is fundamentally limited (Whyte, 2013).

358 3 Results and discussion

359 We developed a thermodynamic pedodiversity index that integrates eight soil properties along with
360 their depth continuity through a 3-dimensional convolution to quantify soil state pedodiversity
361 across multiple scales. This approach treats pedodiversity as an energy-density distribution,
362 capturing how exergy gradients are arranged and dispersed throughout physical space. By moving
363 beyond layer-based or taxonomic frameworks, this multidimensional method provides a
364 mechanistic representation of soil structure, offering a foundational perspective on soil systems
365 and the management decisions shaping diverse agroecosystems in the U.S. Southwest.

366 3.1 Vertical and spatial structure

367 The convolutions revealed a strongly stratified pattern of soil energy exchange. The upper 5–30 cm
368 formed the dominant zone of vertical coupling (Table 2), acting as an interface where atmospheric
369 interactions, anthropotropic activity, organic matter inputs and bioturbation generate high spatial
370 heterogeneity. Below ~60 cm, the strongly decoupled state reflects a shift toward a
371 thermodynamic and structural steady state, where minimal energy exchange preserves inherited
372 contrasts in texture and compaction, and biological contributions to surface-driven ecosystem
373 functions are greatly reduced (Wang, 2010). These deeper layers exert long-term influence on
374 rooting depth and drought buffering but play a smaller role in short-term cultivation dynamics.

375 *Table 2: Vertical weight bisquared matrix from purely soil properties*

	0-5 cm	5-15 cm	15-30 cm	30-60 cm	60-100 cm	100-200 cm

0-5 cm	0.511	0.423	0.066	0	0	0
5-15 cm	0.436	0.418	0.235	0	0	0
15-30 cm	0.075	0.325	0.579	0.021	0	0
30-60 cm	0	0	0.035	0.965	0	0
60-100 cm	0	0	0	0	1	0
100-200 cm	0	0	0	0	0	1

When atmospheric forcing was incorporated through land-surface temperature and precipitation coupling at the surface boundary, the convolution emphasized the 5–15 cm horizon as the primary energy mediator rather than the boundary 0-5 cm layer (Table 3). This suggests that the topsoil acts as a rapid transient layer, whereas the subsurface horizon functions as the primary buffer, storing and redistributing moisture and heat with delayed release acting as a stabilizing feature in drought-prone agricultural systems. Nevertheless, the 0–5 cm layer can shift to a primary energy-input zone for water and nutrients during germination, illustrating how soil multifunctionality emerges dynamically in response to plant establishment in dryland systems.

Table 3: The combined vertical weights incorporating influences from the atmosphere and the soil.

	0-5 cm	5-15 cm	15-30 cm	30-60 cm	60-100 cm	100-200 cm
0-5 cm	0.239	0.658	0.103	0	0	0
5-15 cm	0.137	0.552	0.311	0	0	0
15-30 cm	0.024	0.344	0.611	0.022	0	0
30-60 cm	0	0	0.035	0.965	0	0
60-100 cm	0	0	0	0	1.000	0
100-200 cm	0	0	0	0	0	1.000

Spatial convolution patterns further reinforced this structure (Figure 4): high surface connectivity, peak process diversity at intermediate depths and reduction toward deeper horizons. Functionally, this identifies the zone of maximum agricultural responsiveness, the horizons most critical for crop establishment, root exploration and moisture capture in arid environments. It should be noted that

the convolution weights represent the relative intensity of vertical and lateral energy exchange; however, a single convolution configuration was applied uniformly across all sites.

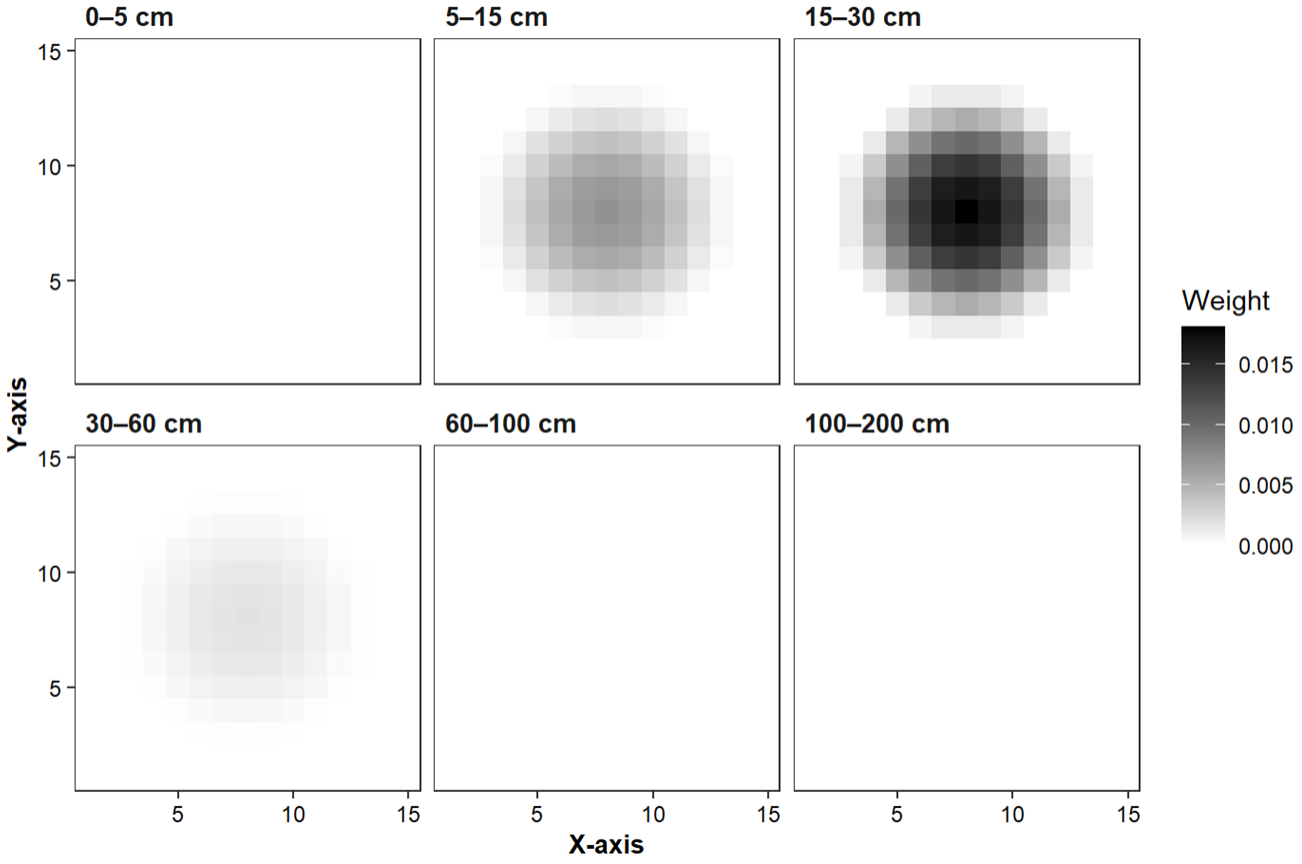

Figure 4: spatial and vertical interactions, note that there is a kernel applied through all depths, and this shows where the energy appears to be interacting.

The observed differences among depth layers arise from the soil property distributions themselves rather than from learned or adaptive convolution weights as used in deep learning or neural network architectures. In this framework, the convolution acts as a physics-informed coupler, not a data-trained filter, allowing soil heterogeneity relevant to exergy potential to emerge directly from the underlying soil matrix. Figure 4 illustrates the base convolution form and how its interactions reveal shifts in soil characteristics to soil processes across the landscape.

3.2 Spatial interpretation

The pedodiversity index align closely with areas historically associated with Ancestral Pueblo agriculture and long-term resilient farming traditions, reinforcing the connection between soil organization and adaptive land management (Pawluk, 1995). However, when interpreting a second-order voxel diversity index, it is important to recognize that higher values represent greater diversity in soil exergy states and composition, not necessarily more favorable conditions for a specific function or crop. Therefore, ground truth is needed to evaluate this functionality. In this context, pedodiversity reflects the potential for resilient outcomes rather than a direct measure of fertility or productivity (Handayani and Prawito, 2010). In other words, it represents the variety of choices present at a given location.

3.2.1 Chuska Mountains

The southern Chuska Mountains, the southern basin and its piedmont (Figure 5) span lands long inhabited by the Navajo peoples, where the soil and landforms have shaped, and been shaped by, diverse land use traditions (Pawluk, 1995). Along the northeastern slopes and piedmonts, soil of high pedodiversity (>0.50) developed where volcanic and sandstone parent materials merge through colluvial–alluvial processes across steep topographic gradients (Reneau et al., 1996; Seager et al., 1987). This heterogeneity, combined with contrasting moisture and temperature regimes, created many ecological niches from the timbered ridges to the cultivated footslopes once supporting maize, bean and squash gardens connected to the Chaco Canyon network (Doolittle, 2000; Vivian and Hilpert, 2012). At higher elevations, timber resources rather than

agriculture dominated, with the diversity of soil reflecting climate and forest–soil interactions more than intensive land management (Allen et al., 1998; Huckell, 1996).

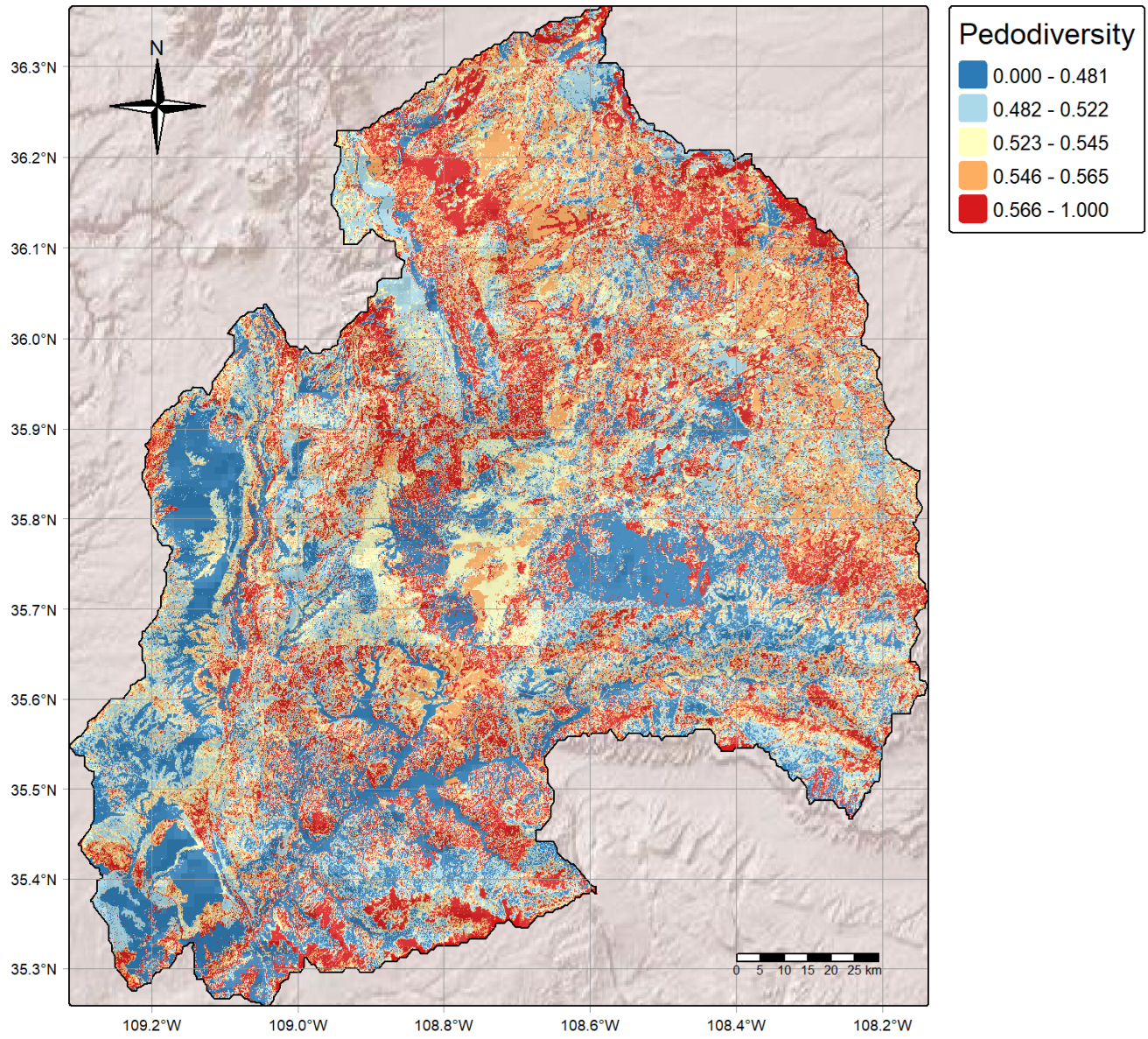

Figure 5: spatial thermodynamic pedodiversity index of the southern Chuska Mountains and southern basin.

Southward, the Chuska Basin transitions to a low-pedodiversity landscape (<0.50) where aeolian sands, episodic rainfall and the shadow of the northern volcanic crest constrain soil development and vegetation complexity (McFadden et al., 1998; Seager et al., 1987). Within this more uniform

terrain, the Navajo pastoral tradition remains sustainable; an ecological adaptation emphasizing mobility, grazing flexibility and stewardship of scarce resources (Redsteer et al., 2018; Weisiger, 2004). The pedodiversity contrast between the mountain flanks and the basin floor thus parallels the entangled relationships of geomorphology, soil formation and cultural adaptation across this sacred and resource-rich landscape (Doolittle, 2000; Pawluk, 1995).

Importantly, this pattern also reflects how differences in soil multifunctionality shaped land-use strategies: high-pedodiversity zones supported diverse cultivation niches, whereas low-pedodiversity soil favored pastoral systems better suited to limited resource options. However, the Chuska landscape exhibits a high degree of patchiness (Gini coefficient = 0.71). Although the reasons for the reorganization of Chaco Canyon around 1100 A.D. remain debated, the unpredictability of these soil niches would likely have made crop production difficult to sustain during periods of environmental stress.

3.2.2 Great Sage Plain

The uplands surrounding the Great Sage Plains, north of Mesa Verde, exhibited moderate pedodiversity values (≈0.48–0.54) across broad loess-covered plains and low-relief valleys (Figure 6). Unlike the deeply incised mesas to the south (Mesa Verde), this landscape consists primarily of Mancos Shale–derived soil mantled by wind-blown silt and fine alluvium, producing gently layered profiles with limited textural contrast (Harden and Taylor, 1983). These conditions favored large, relatively homogeneous fields capable of retaining moisture from seasonal snowmelt, supporting the extensive dryland agriculture practiced by Ancestral Pueblo communities during the later Mesa Verde period (Kohler et al., 2008). Pockets of higher pedodiversity appear along drainage heads and valley margins, where shallow colluvium and slope wash over shale enhanced

local water storage and nutrient heterogeneity. Such microenvironments likely provided greater cropping stability during drought cycles, helping to sustain maize-based agriculture at the northernmost frontier of Ancestral Pueblo settlement (Benson et al., 2007; Ortman, 2016).

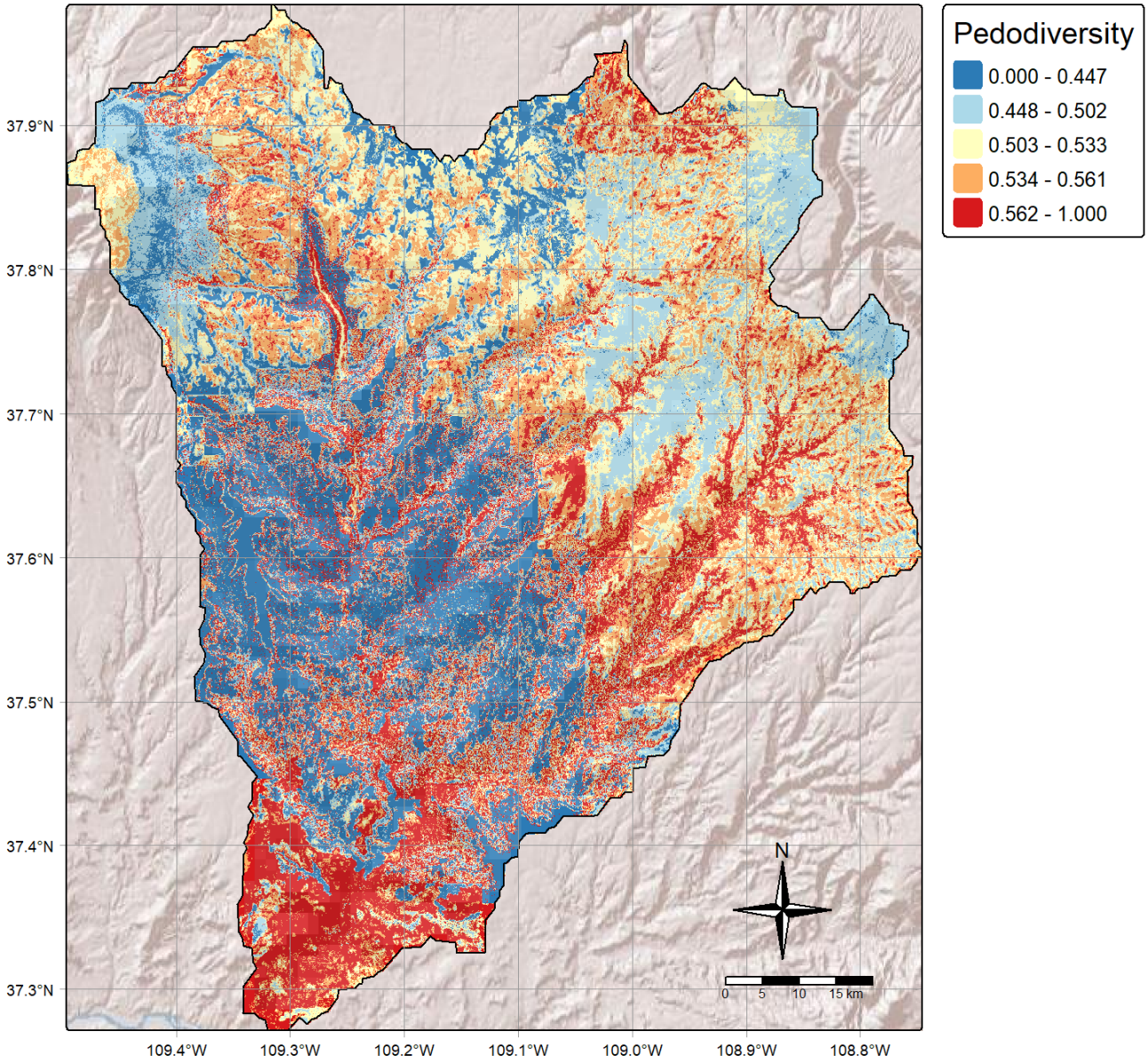

Figure 6: spatial thermodynamic pedodiversity index of the Great Sage Plains on the Colorado and Utah border.

Compared with the high-pedodiversity of the Chuska uplands, where ash-rich parent materials created abundant moisture niches, the Great Sage Plains strength lay in its spatial continuity and

moisture buffering of uniform silty soil, enabling scale and labor efficiency rather than fine-resolution niche exploitation for cultivation (Harden and Taylor, 1983). It represents a functionally productive but less complex agricultural system; however, one more vulnerable to multi-year drought and shortened growing seasons (Benson, 2011). Additionally, the absence of spatial patterns in areas typically assumed to be agricultural land (e.g., fertile valley bottoms) would make soil niches difficult to utilize. The pedodiversity pattern thus helps explain both the intensity of late Ancestral Pueblo farming on the Great Sage Plain (Bocinsky and Kohler, 2014) and the sensitivity of this northern margin to climatic downturns that contributed to regional reorganization in the late 13th century (Benson et al., 2007; Kohler et al., 2008).

3.2.3 Hopi Land

The Hopi Mesas and surrounding uplands exhibit moderate to high pedodiversity values (≈0.52–0.56), concentrated along mesa margins, valley breaks and colluvial footslopes (Figure 7). These areas reflect sandstone and shale parent materials, colluvial reworking and fine-scale topographic variation that together created a variety of soil textures and drainage conditions (Hack, 1942). Such heterogeneity has historically supported the remarkable agricultural and biological diversity of the Hopi landscape, one of North America's longest-inhabited dryland farming regions (Adler, 1996; Cameron, 1999; Whiteley, 2008).

The Hopi cultivate drought-tolerant blue, red and white corns alongside beans, squash, melons and medicinal herbs each adapted to subtle differences in soil conditions (Ferguson and Colwell-Chanthaphonh, 2006; Sekaquaptewa and Washburn, 2004). Areas of elevated pedodiversity correspond closely with traditional field systems where microtopographic and textural diversity enhance soil–water–plant interactions, buffering crops against drought and temperature extremes

(Berkes, 2017). These pedodiversity-rich zones form part of a broader biocultural hotspot, where long-term human stewardship and soil variability together sustain both agro-biodiversity and ecosystem resilience across centuries of arid-land cultivation (Kimmerer, 2013; Müller and Munroe, 2014; Muller et al., 2017).

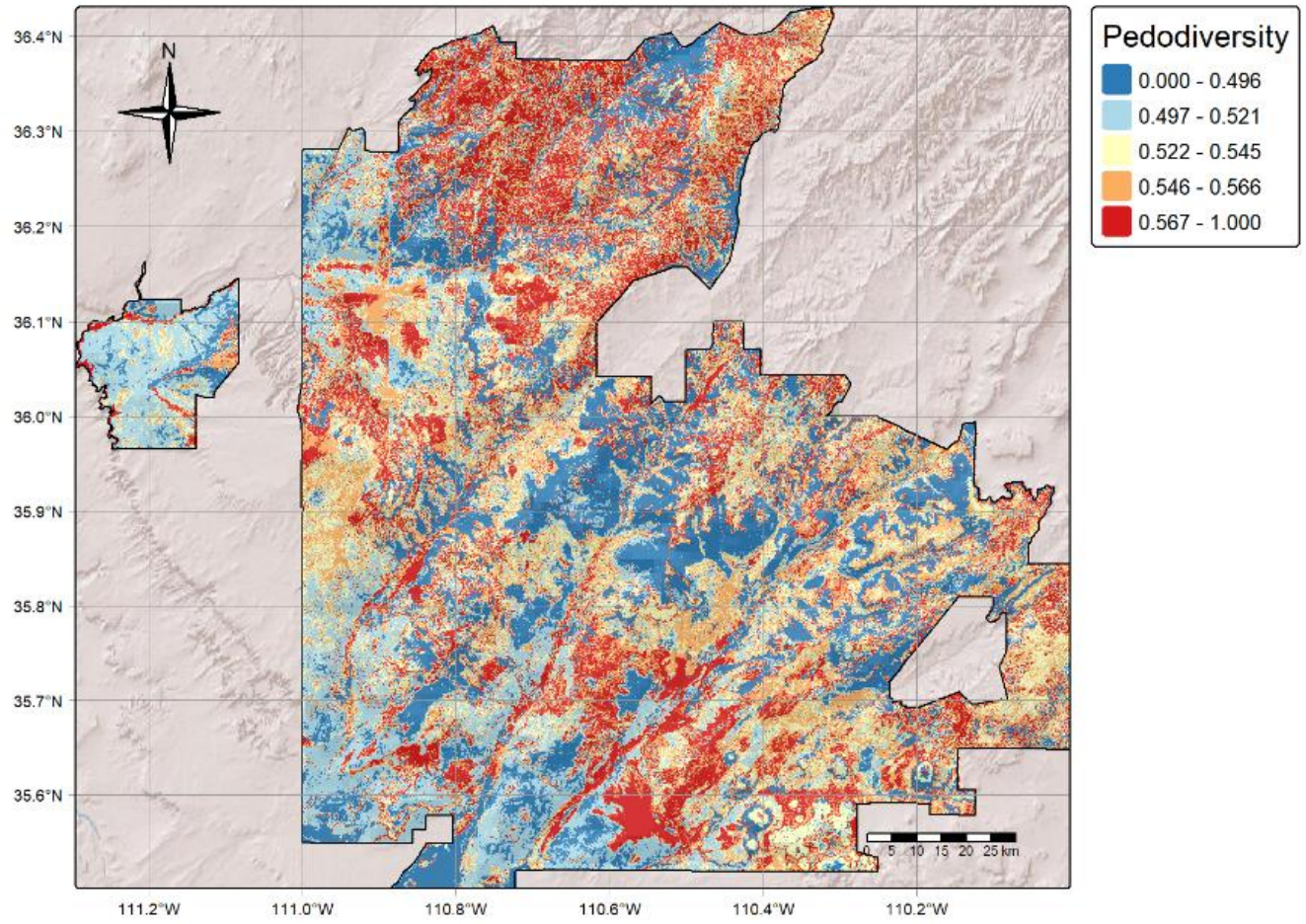

Figure 7: spatial thermodynamic pedodiversity index of the Hopi Land, Arizona.

Across the regions, Hopi Land represent an intermediate position between the high-contrast landscape of the Chuska Mountains and the more homogeneous loessal surface of the Great Sage Plains. However, unlike the steep and climatically stratified Chuska slopes, Hopi soil occurred within a more stable, low-relief plateau environment, where subtle heterogeneity rather than

490 abrupt contrasts determined the thermodynamic diversity (Hendricks, 1985). It is thought that this
491 caused a relatively more ordered pedodiversity, with clear patterns. The result was a balanced soil
492 structure that sustains both resilience and crop productivity under arid conditions, with
493 knowledge or identifiers of these patterns (Bousselot et al., 2017).

494 In contrast to the Sage Plain's broad, uniform agricultural surfaces, Hopi fields are intentionally
495 distributed across exergy states ranging from sandy, fast-draining uplands to heavier alluvial
496 footslopes, creating a variety of soil microenvironments that support exceptional agro-biodiversity
497 (Cleveland et al., 1994; Rea, 1997). This adaptability, rooted in the Hopi's knowledge of soil and
498 topographic variation, mirrors the broader pattern observed across the Southwest: an
499 understanding of soil niches and the soil system is often more critical for maintaining a resilient
500 agroecosystem than the absolute level of pedodiversity or whether a culture relies on a crop-
501 dominant or pastoral system (Armstrong et al., 2021; Redsteer et al., 2018). Consequently,
502 pedodiversity is thought to support only a portion of soil multifunctionality, largely independent of
503 cultural factors, though concepts such as pedocomplexity may offer a more integrated
504 perspective.

505 3.3 Implications and limitations

506 The framework provides a quantitative bridge between pedodiversity, ecosystem services and
507 food-system resilience. By representing soil as a coupled continuum, the approach identified
508 zones of intrinsic interactions that may serve as biophysical indicators for resilient agriculture and
509 climate adaptation planning with the help of continuous indigenous knowledge (Bünemann et al.,
510 2018; Dominati et al., 2010). The explicit physical formulation also enables integration with a
511 broad range of scientific disciplines from physics to economics, providing a scalable tool for

extrapolating resilience potential in contemporary agroecosystems facing intensifying climatic stress. At the fundamental level, it shows the diversity of soil and highlights benefits and possible misconceptions of pedodiversity. However, it is a second-order multidimensional continuous form of the index, which may be difficult to interpret.

This study revealed that the spatial pattern of pedodiversity is just as important as pedodiversity itself. Although thermodynamic pedodiversity incorporates multiple dimensions and represents a second-order pedodiversity index, societies with long histories of resilient agriculture appear to have made land-use decisions based on higher-order states beyond pedodiversity alone, consistent with the concept of pedocomplexity. This realization is important both mathematically and philosophically for resilience research. While current approaches move in the right direction, they remain incomplete and require a more rigorous foundation. Integrating mathematical frameworks with Indigenous ecological knowledge will be essential for advancing our understanding of agroecosystem resilience.

Therefore, several limitations should be acknowledged. First, this study assumes that societies made land-use decisions primarily to maintain agroecosystem resilience and soil multifunctionality, given the semi-arid, drought-prone environment that necessitates careful management of water, crops, and soils. Sites such as Hopi lands, with continuous cultivation over millennia, or regions with significant Ancestral Pueblo population growth, were selected in part to justify these assumptions. However, this framework does not account for other influencing factors, including agricultural diseases, cultural practices unrelated to agriculture, internal political pressures, geographic constraints, external conflicts and numerous other socio-environmental constraints. While site selection was intended to minimize these confounding influences, it cannot be assumed that all pressures were independent or concurrent. Further

research is needed to incorporate these additional dimensions into the pedocomplexity framework.

The framework identifies pedodiversity that may correlate with historical land use, but it does not claim to reconstruct the full decision-making, symbolic or social dimensions of Ancestral Pueblo, Navajo or Hopi agricultural systems (Handayani and Prawito, 2010; Kimmerer, 2013). Pedodiversity patterns provide biophysical context, not direct evidence of cultural intent. Moreover, ancestral land use strategies were guided by complex ecological knowledge, spiritual values and multigenerational adaptation that cannot be fully represented by soil processes alone (Berkes, 2017; Reo and Whyte, 2012). Interpretations of past agroecosystems should therefore complement, not replace, Indigenous knowledge.

The framework measures thermodynamic diversity rather than explicit biological, chemical or agronomic functionality; thus, high pedodiversity does not necessarily equate to high fertility or crop productivity (Nielsen and Wendroth, 2003). Extensive evaluation is required to correlate it with soil morphological, crop yield, function and laboratory analyses in order to realize the full potential of thermodynamic pedodiversity and, ultimately, pedocomplexity. At a fundamental level, it can help explain aspects of soil multifunctionality together with exergy states and latent energy; however, evaluating these innovations requires a comparable level of effort.

The use of gridded national soil property datasets (e.g., POLARIS, gNATSURO) introduces uncertainties associated with interpolation and coarse resolution, which may obscure fine-scale heterogeneity that is critical for farm-level decision-making (Chaney et al., 2016). Third, while the biweight convolution provides a realistic finite-support coupling, it assumes isotropic distribution and may underestimate anisotropic behaviors such as preferential flow, layered permeability or

root-mediated transport (Bear, 1972; Jury and Horton, 2004) , all of which can strongly influence agroecosystems.

By quantifying pedodiversity directly through the 3-dimensional Moran's I, we establish a spatially explicit foundation that integrates seamlessly with our broader framework for assessing soil resilience and multifunctionality, providing a mechanistic basis for interpreting how soil structure and management practices interact across heterogeneous Indigenous dryland agroecosystems. Future work should develop a formal mathematical formulation of pedocomplexity and investigate how these thermodynamic states correspond to morphological features on indigenous lands that support resilient agroecosystems.

4 Conclusion

Understanding pedodiversity through a mechanistic, multidimensional framework provides a powerful means of linking soil thermodynamics to landscape scale patterns that support food production and long-term agroecosystem resilience. By quantifying the spatial–vertical variation and rare states of soil processes, this approach identifies zones of high multivariate variability, where thermodynamics broadens the range of soil niche identification. At the same time, it clarifies how societies have historically adapted to these gradients: from the mobile, drought-responsive pastoral systems of the Navajo to the selective crop breeding and field placement strategies of the Hopi that have sustained dryland agriculture for millennia, to the agricultural intensification on more homogeneous soil that may have contributed to the abrupt reorganization of the Mesa Verde Ancestral Pueblo. Most importantly, pedodiversity demonstrates that it is not diversity per se that drives land-use decisions, but the spatial patterns of pedodiversity reflecting

higher-order processes that govern soil resilience and multifunctionality (i.e., pedocomplexity). Modern agricultural and conservation strategies can benefit from recognizing that these soil heterogeneity patterns form the biophysical foundation of productive, resilient food systems, just as they have for Indigenous agroecosystems in the U.S. Southwest. In this way, pedodiversity highlights soil not merely as a substrate for crop production, but as a dynamic archive of human–environment interactions, offering guidance for sustainable farming into the future.

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