



1 **Seeing the Wood for the Trees: Active human-**
2 **environmental interactions in arid northwest China**

3 **Hui Shen^{1,2}, Robert N. Spengler^{3,4}, Xinying Zhou^{1,2}, Alison Betts⁵, Peter Weiming**
4 **Jia⁵, Keliang Zhao^{1,2}, Xiaoqiang Li^{1,2}**

5 ¹ Key Laboratory of Vertebrate Evolution and Human Origins, Institute of Vertebrate Paleontology and
6 Paleoanthropology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, 100044, China

7 ² University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, 100049, China

8 ³ Domestication and Anthropogenic Evolution Research Group, Max Planck Institute of
9 Geoanthropology, Jena, 07745, Germany

10 ⁴ Department of Archaeology, Max Planck Institute of Geoanthropology, Jena, 07745, Germany

11 ⁵ Department of Archaeology, University of Sydney, Sydney, NSW 2006, Australia

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13 Corresponding author: Xiaoqiang Li

14 email: lixiaoqiang@ivpp.ac.cn

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20 **Abstract:** Due largely to demographic growth, agricultural populations during the
21 Holocene became increasingly more impactful ecosystem engineers. Multidisciplinary
22 research has revealed a deep history of human-environmental dynamics; however,
23 these pre-modern anthropogenic ecosystem transformations and cultural adaptations are
24 still poorly understood. Here, we synthesis anthracological data to explore the
25 complex array of human-environmental interactions in the regions of the prehistoric
26 Silk Road. Our results suggest that these ancient humans were not passively impacted
27 by environmental change, but rather they culturally adapted to, and in turn altered,
28 arid ecosystems. Underpinned by the establishment of complex agricultural systems
29 on the western Loess Plateau, people may have started to manage chestnut trees,
30 likely through conservation of economically significant species, as early as 4600 BP.
31 Since ca. 3500 BP, with the appearance of high-yielding wheat/barley farming in
32 Xinjiang and the Hexi Corridor, people appear to have been cultivating *Prunus* and
33 *Morus* trees. We also argue that people were transporting the preferred coniferous
34 woods over long distance to meet the need for fuel and timber. After 2500 BP, people
35 in our study area were making conscious selections between wood types for craft
36 production, and were also clearly cultivating a wide range of long-generation
37 perennials, showing a remarkable traditional knowledge tied into the arid
38 environment. At the same time, the data suggest that there was significant
39 deforestation throughout the chronology of occupation, including a rapid decline of
40 slow-growing spruce forests and riparian woodlands across the northwest China. The
41 wood charcoal dataset is publicly available at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.8158277>
42 (Shen et al., 2023).

43 **Keywords:** Human-environmental interaction, human adaptation, fruit management,
44 deforestation, northwest China



45 **1 Introduction**

46 The extent of prehistoric anthropogenic environmental change, especially relating to
47 the ways early agricultural practices reshaped terrestrial ecosystems, has been the
48 subject of ongoing debate (Ruddiman, 2003, 2008; Zong et al., 2007; Asouti and
49 Kabukcu, 2014; Asouti et al., 2015; Dong et al., 2020a, 2022a). Over the past decade,
50 scholars have adopted big data approaches to understanding long-term anthropogenic
51 changes to the Earth's surface (Zalasiewicz et al., 2017; ArchaeoGLOBE Project,
52 2019; Renn, 2020; Cowie et al., 2022). While humans have undoubtedly been
53 reshaping environments since before the Holocene, the magnitude of these impacts
54 following the adoption of agricultural economies increased immensely. During this
55 process, people shifted their subsistence system from hunting-gathering to cereal
56 cultivation and animal husbandry, and increasingly gained the ability to alter and
57 adapt their ecological surroundings (Bellwood, 2005; Zeder, 2008; Zohary et al.,
58 2012). During the fifth millennium BP, agricultural populations across Europe and
59 Asia first came into contact via diffusion of crops, contributing to food globalization
60 in prehistory (Sherratt, 2006; Jones et al., 2011; Dong et al., 2017, 2022b; Boivin et
61 al., 2016; Liu et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2020). The intermingling of millets, adapted for
62 arid and short-season grasslands in northern China, with cereals, adapted for rainy
63 season growth in arid southwest Asia, eventually facilitated a greater intensification of
64 farming systems (Spengler 2019; Miller et al. 2016).

65 Mounting evidence shows that the development of farming systems was
66 accompanied by a series of ecological and social changes, including deforestation,
67 wild species loss, and demographic expansion (Bellwood, 2005; Weisdorf, 2005;
68 Atahan et al., 2008; Kaplan et al., 2009; Bocquet-Appel, 2011; Fuller et al., 2011a;



69 Asouti et al., 2015; Ruddiman, 2013). For instance, the dispersal and expansion of
70 agriculture largely altered the natural geographic distributions of anthropophilic plants
71 (crops and weeds) and directly influenced vegetation communities worldwide (Vigne
72 et al., 2012; Fuller et al., 2011b; Crowther et al., 2016; Boivin et al., 2017; Spengler et
73 al., 2021). Forest clearing, either to increase the surface area of arable land or to
74 acquire wood for construction or fuel, has caused large-scale deforestation and created
75 a more open landscape (Zong et al., 2007; Atahan et al., 2008; Kaplan et al., 2009;
76 Innes et al., 2013; Zheng et al., 2021). Meanwhile, human-mediated management of
77 local woodlands encouraged the growth of fruit- and nut-bearing trees, shifting land-
78 use strategies from an emphasis on short-term returns of annual cereals to long-term
79 investment with delayed return crops (Fall et al., 2002; Janick, 2005; Miller and
80 Gross, 2011; Miller, 2013; Asouti and Kabukcu, 2014; Asouti et al., 2015). Today,
81 essentially all ecosystems on the planet are anthropogenic constructs, recognized
82 through the increasingly prominent use of the term Anthropocene (Crutzen, 2002;
83 Ruddiman, 2003, 2013; Monastersky, 2015).

84 Northwest China, the focus region of this paper, is of particular interest, because
85 it is located at the core of the ancient trade routes that are colloquially referred to as
86 the Silk Road and farmers in the region were the first to experiment with agricultural
87 crops from both West and East Asia (Wang et al., 2017; Dong et al., 2017, 2018,
88 2022b; Zhou et al., 2020; Li, 2021). Archaeobotanical data have pinpointed the broad
89 region and time period when humans first started to cultivate millets in East Asia.
90 Specifically, evidence from the Dadiwan site has revealed that broomcorn millet
91 cultivation began as early as the eighth millennium BP (Liu et al., 2004; Li, 2018),
92 and the gradual diffusion of broomcorn millet reached farmers in the mountains of
93 Central Asia by 4500 BP (Spengler et al. 2014; Yattoo et al. 2020). The remains of



94 barley and wheat found at the Tongtian Cave site, have been dated to around 5200
95 BP, representing the earliest known southwest Asian cereals found in East Asia (Zhou
96 et al., 2020). In addition to long-distance exchange of cereals, this area also fostered
97 the trans-continental dispersals of sheep, goat, bronze-smelting technology, mudbrick-
98 manufacturing techniques, and a variety of other cultural attributes (Mei and Shell,
99 1991; Dodson et al., 2009; Li et al., 2011; Yang et al., 2017; Dong et al., 2017; Chen
100 et al., 2018; Ren et al., 2022). Additionally, most of this region is characterized by a
101 hyper-arid desert and fragile oasis ecosystem, which are especially vulnerable to
102 human activity, making it a prime zone for studying the interaction between early
103 agricultural societies and the environment.

104 Archaeologists and geologists working in this region have mainly focused their
105 attention on the relationship between climate change and Neolithic cultural
106 development, as well as anthropogenic impacts on regional ecosystems. These
107 scholars have argued that enhanced precipitation during the Late Yangshao (5500-
108 5000 BP), Majiayao type (5300-4800 BP), and Qijia (4200-3800 BP) periods played
109 an important role in the expansion of these early farmers (An et al., 2004; 2005, 2006;
110 Hou et al. 2009; Liu et al., 2010; Dong et al., 2012, 2013, 2016, 2020a). A reduction
111 in the number of archaeological sites during the gap between early and middle
112 Majiayao (4800-4400 BP), and the decline of the Qijia culture are thought to be a
113 response to increasingly aridity (Dong et al., 2012, 2013). Concurrent with these
114 changes, people were actively engaged in reshaping the landscape. For instance, a
115 wood charcoal study from the Hexi Corridor has suggested that prehistoric wood
116 collection led to a rapid reduction in local woodlands and a decline in woody plant
117 diversity (Shen et al., 2018). In a different study, an increase in large-scale fire
118 frequency was proposed based on micro carbon records from Tian'e Lake, which was



119 further correlated with high Cu content, suggesting the consequence of large-scale
120 bronze smelting activities (Dong et al., 2020b). However, relatively less attention has
121 been paid to how agriculture influenced the cultural responses and adaption strategies
122 employed in these arid environments. Meanwhile, scientific records are
123 geographically uneven, with regions, such as the Hexi Corridor, attracting
124 considerable attention, while few studies have targeted the vast area of Xinjiang,
125 leading to an incomplete picture of prehistoric human-environmental interactions
126 along the ancient Silk Road.

127 In this study, we present a comprehensive synthesis of wood charcoal records
128 from northwest China. As the result of incomplete burning, wood charcoal fragments
129 from archaeological sites shed light on the practices of local woody plant use (Asouti
130 and Austin, 2005; Marguerie and Hunot, 2007; Théry-Parisot et al., 2010). Since the
131 first charcoal analyse, beginning in the 1940s (Salysbury and Jane, 1940), the
132 application of reflected light microscopy has allowed the rapid identification of
133 charcoal, making it widely used in: 1) the reconstruction of firewood collection
134 strategies (Li et al., 2016; Shen et al., 2018; Kabukcu, 2017; Mas et al., 2021); 2)
135 elucidating the impacts that wood cutting had on local forests (Li et al., 2011; Asouti
136 et al., 2015; Knapp et al., 2015; Shen et al., 2018); 3) identifying compositions of
137 woody communities (Wang et al., 2014; Asouti et al., 2015; Allué and Zaidner, 2022;
138 Mas et al., 2022); and 4) determining fruit and/or nut tree management (Miller, 2013;
139 Asouti and Kabukcu, 2014; Shen and Li, 2021). Here, we seek to identify patterns in
140 wood charcoal recovered from seven archaeological sites in Xinjiang, which we
141 contrast with more than 30 other published regional records. We aim to explore
142 multiple perspectives on the complexities of human-environmental interactions within
143 the agricultural background, including the influence of farming and wood cutting on



144 woody vegetation change, as well as the strategies applied in response to climatic
145 aridification.

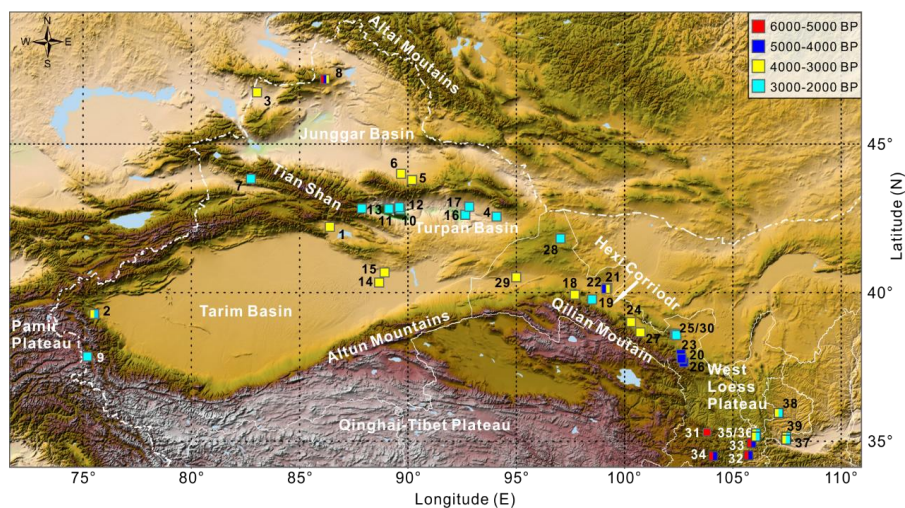
146 **2 Study area**

147 *2.1 Regional setting*

148 Our study focuses on the provinces of Xinjiang and Gansu, because of the important
149 roles people in this region played in exchange along the ancient Silk Road. This
150 region is characterized by montane ecoclines, including those of the Tianshan, Altai,
151 Altun, and Qilian mountains (Figure 1). Due to glacial snowmelt, alluvial plains are
152 widely distributed across the low-land basins, and fine-grained nutrients and water
153 brought by the runoff nourish a network of oases, especially within the Hexi Corridor
154 and Tarim Basin (Zheng et al., 2015). Climatically, mean annual precipitation (MAP)
155 is geographically uneven, due to difference in prevailing air masses. For the West
156 Loess Plateau, which is under the control of the Asian monsoons, MAP usually
157 exceeds 400 mm (<https://data.cma.cn/>). Water vapour carried by the westerlies mainly
158 concentrates in the Ili or Irtysh valleys and Junggar Basin, and the MAP sometimes
159 can reach more than 500 mm (Xiao et al., 2006; Zheng et al., 2015). In the Tarim
160 Basin and the Hexi Corridor, the MAP is usually less than 200 mm
161 (<https://data.cma.cn/>). Temperatures are also spatially and seasonally unevenly
162 distributed; likewise, the mean annual temperature in the Kunlun, Tianshan, and Altai
163 mountains is below zero, while that of the Turpan Basin is around 14°C (Chen, 2010).

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167 **Figure 1. The location of archaeological sites mentioned in this study.** 1 Xintala; 2 Wupaer; 3
168 Xiakalangguer; 4 Shirenzigou; 5 Sidaogou; 6 Xicaози; 7 Qiongkeke; 8 Tongtian Cave; 9
169 Ji'rzankal; 10 Yanghai; 11 Jiayi; 12 Shengjindian; 13 Yuergou; 14 Xiaohе; 15 Gumugou; 16 South
170 Aisikexiaer Cemetery; 17 Wupu; 18 Xihetan; 19 Zhaojiashuimo; 20 Huoshaogou 21
171 Huoshiliang; 22 Gangangwa 23 Lifuzhai; 24 Xichengyi; 25 Sanjiao; 26 Mozuizi; 27
172 Donghuishan; 28 Jingbaoer; 29 Yingwoshu; 30 Sanjiaocheng; 31 Majiayao; 32 Xishanping; 33
173 Dadiwan; 34 Shannashuzha; 35 Daping; 36 Gaozhuang; 37 Jiangjiuzi; 38 Laohuzui; 39 Qiaocun,
174 the base map was obtained at <https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/maps/grid-extract/>.

175 Due to the arid climate, vegetation types here are characterized by expansive
176 deserts (Xinjiang Integrated Expedition Team and Institute of Botany, 1978). Along
177 the rivers in the low-land basins, riparian woodlands are mainly composed of
178 *Populus*, *Elaeagnus*, *Ulmus*, and *Salix* (Chen, 2010). Within the montane belt,
179 vegetation usually changes from grassland (dominated by *Stipa*), coniferous forest
180 (mainly *Picea* and *Larix*), subalpine steppe (mainly *Stipa*), alpine meadows (including
181 *Stipa*, *Carex*, and *Artemisia*), and alpine cushion vegetation (represented by
182 *Androsace*, *Stellaria media*, and *Geranium wilfordii*), in banded ecoclines from
183 lowest to highest elevation (Chen, 2010; Zheng et al., 2015; Xinjiang Integrated
184 Expedition Team and Institute of Botany, 1978). Wild fruit and nut woodlands are
185 distributed throughout the Tianshan Mountains, especially in the Ili valley, and the



186 main wild fruit trees include *Malus* sp., *Juglans regia*, and *Prunus* spp. (Chen, 2009;
187 Abudurehman et al., 2016).

188 **2.2 Prehistoric cultures and agriculture**

189 As an important cultural bridge connecting East and West Asia, northwest China has
190 fostered a variety of cultural communities. The early Neolithic cultures included the
191 Dadiwan and Yangshao, mainly distributed in southern Gansu (Institute of Cultural
192 Relics and Archaeology of Gansu, 2006). Later, people with material culture ascribed
193 to the Majiayao expanded quickly into the Hexi Corridor around 4800 BP (Xie, 2002;
194 Dong et al., 2020b). From 4000-3000 BP, the main archaeological cultures in Gansu
195 consisted of the Xichengyi, Qijia, Siba, and Dongjiatai (Li et al., 2010), and the
196 Shanma and Shajing cultures gradually developed after 3000 BP (Li, 2009; Gansu
197 Provincial Institute of Cultural Relics and Archaeology et al., 2015). In Xinjiang, the
198 prehistoric peoples before 4000 BP were represented by material culture categorized
199 as the Afanasievo and Chemurchek (Shao, 2018). From 4000-3500 BP, the
200 Andronovo Culture expanded into western Xinjiang, and the Tianshanbeilu and
201 Xiaohu cultures occupied the eastern Tianshan and Tarim Basin, respectively (Mei
202 and Shell, 1999; Ruan, 2014; Jia et al., 2017; Shao and Zhang, 2019; Xinjiang
203 Institute of Cultural Relics and Archaeology, 2004, 2014). Since 3500 BP, cultural
204 communities have continually diversified, with more localized groups forming, like
205 Subeixi Culture in the Turpan Basin (Chen, 2002).

206 Archaeobotanical evidence shows that millet cultivation was already practiced
207 by ca. 7800-7350 BP (Liu et al., 2004; Li, 2018). By at least 5500 years ago, people
208 were engaging in an intensive intermixed crop-livestock system by integrating pig
209 maintenance and millet cultivation (Yang et al., 2022). From 5000-4000 BP, both East



210 Asia millets diffused into the Hexi Corridor, while agricultural practices in Xinjiang
211 were restricted to limited microenvironmental pockets (Zhou et al., 2016; Dong et al.,
212 2017, 2018, 2020b; Li, 2021). Since 4000 BP, mixed agricultural systems composed
213 of both East and southwest Asian crops became more prominent; although, barley and
214 wheat had reached northwest China about a millennium prior (Flad et al., 2010; Zhao
215 et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2017; Zhou et al., 2016, 2020; Jiang et al.,
216 2017a, 2017b; Tian et al., 2021). Stable carbon isotope data also suggest that the
217 consumption of both C₃ and C₄ plants was widely practiced after 4000 BP (Liu et al.,
218 2014; Zhang et al., 2015; An et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2016, 2017; Ma et al., 2016;
219 Qu et al., 2018). Around 3700-3300 BP, wheat and barley gradually replaced the
220 millets, becoming the dominant crops within the Hexi Corridor (Zhou et al., 2016).
221 From 3300-2200 BP, agriculture in Xinjiang gradually developed into something
222 more complex and spread to larger areas and more diverse ecozones, as evidenced by
223 the diversification of crops, and the appearance of irrigation technology and various
224 types of farming tools (Li, 2021). Meanwhile, secondary crops, such as *Vitis vinifera*
225 and *Ziziphus jujuba*, appeared more widely after ca. 2500 BP, indicating a strong
226 concept of land tenure associated with the development of agriculture (Jiang et al.,
227 2009, 2013; Li, 2021)

228 **3 Archaeobotanical Data and Chronology**

229 ***3.1 Chronology of the archaeological sites***

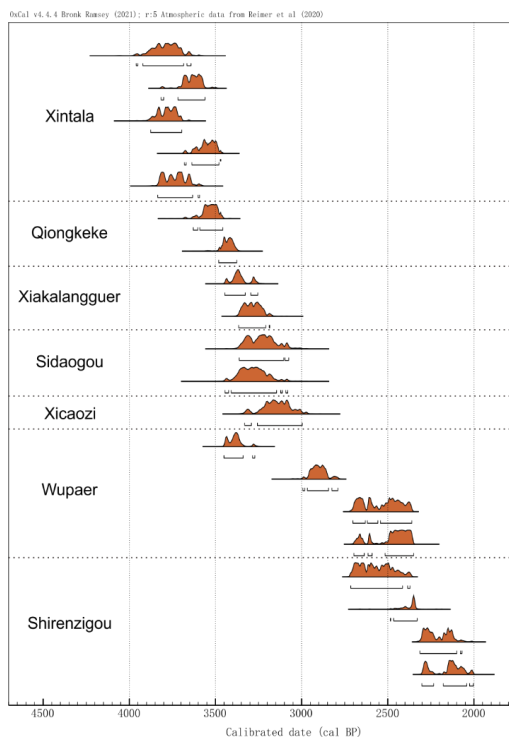
230 In this study, we present data from seven archaeological sites and have developed a
231 chronology based on AMS ¹⁴C dating through the Beta Analytic Testing Laboratory
232 and Australian Nuclear Science and Technology Organisation. For dating, we focused



233 on wheat seeds and wood charcoal, and the calibrated ages were generated using
 234 Oxcal 4.4 with IntCal20 (Table 1 and Figure 2) (Reimer et al., 2020). The dating
 235 results show that the seven archaeological sites cover a time span between 3900 and
 236 2000 BP, and the oldest dates come from Xintala, at ca. 3900-3500 BP. The
 237 Xiakalanguer, Sidagou, Xicaozi, and Qiongkeke sites fall in to the period of 3500-
 238 3000 BP. The chronology for Shirenzigou covers roughly 2700-2000 BP. At Wupaer,
 239 we collected wood charcoal samples from two sections, S1 and S3, and the date of the
 240 S3 section is about 2900-2800 BP. The S1 section shows two different timespans,
 241 specifically ca. 3400-3300 BP and 2500-2300 BP.

242 **Table 1. Dates for the seven archaeological sites in this study.**

Site	Latitude	Longitude	Culture	Lab no.	Material	Date (BP)	Calibrated date (2 σ , BP)	References
Xintala	42.22	86.39	Xintala type	OZM448	charcoal	3395 \pm 30	3815-3561	Zhao et al., 2013
				OZM449	charcoal	3515 \pm 30	3877-3696	
				OZM450	charcoal	3335 \pm 30	3680-3469	
				OZM451	wheat	3460 \pm 35	3835-3593	
				OZL437	wheat	3515 \pm 50	3960-3642	
Qiongkeke	43.83	82.75	Andronovo	Beta-642945	charcoal	3220 \pm 30	3482-3375	this study
				Beta-642946	charcoal	3320 \pm 30	3591-3458	
Xiakalanguer	46.74	83.03	Andronovo	Beta-642943	charcoal	3140 \pm 30	3447-3327	
				Beta-642944	charcoal	3070 \pm 30	3365-3209	
Sidaogou	43.79	90.19	Nanwan type	OZK664	wheat	3030 \pm 50	3362-3075	Dodson et al., 2013
				OZK665	wheat	3080 \pm 60	3445-3080	
Xicaozi	44.00	89.68	Unknown	OZM674	wheat	2975 \pm 45	3331-2997	
Wupaer	39.28	75.52	Wupaer	Beta-642939	charcoal	3160 \pm 30	3451-3339	this study
				Beta-642940	charcoal	2450 \pm 30	2544-2361	
				Beta-642941	charcoal	2420 \pm 30	2515-2351	
				Beta-642942	charcoal	2800 \pm 30	2967-2844	
				Beta-642947	charcoal	2350 \pm 30	2466-2329	
Shirenzigou	42.56	94.09	Shirenzigou type	Beta-642948	charcoal	2180 \pm 30	2313-2099	
				Beta-642949	charcoal	2150 \pm 30	2178-2041	
				Beta-642950	charcoal	2470 \pm 30	2715-2414	



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Figure 2. The chronology of seven archaeological sites in this study.

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3.2 Wood charcoal assemblages

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The identification of wood charcoal was accomplished via scanning electron

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microscope, with 2,960 fragments of charcoal analysed and reported here (Appendix

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A). Three of the sites are located in oases and wood charcoal assemblages show clear

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similarities, with a dominance of *Tamarix* wood (Figure 3). In sediment from Xintala,

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we identified 878 wood charcoal fragments, with *Tamarix* accounting for 74-95%.

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Elaeagnus angustifolia increased across the chronology and reached its highest level

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(13%) in the latest layer. There were limited occurrences of *Populus*, *Salix* and cf.

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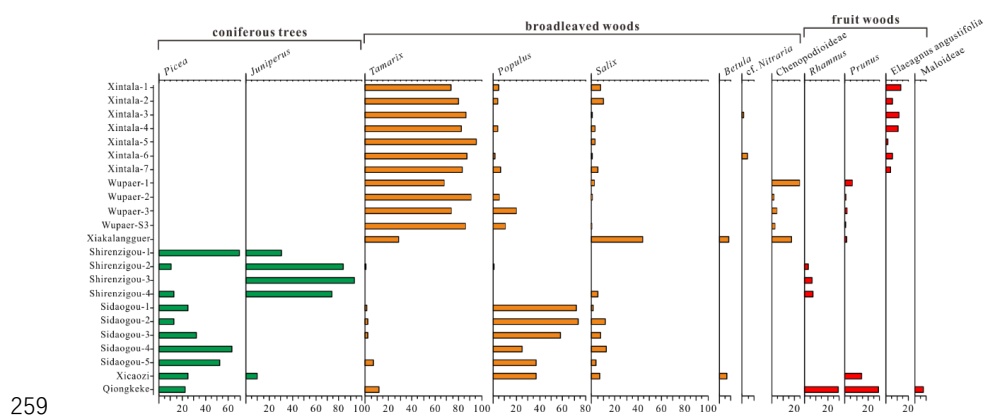
Nitraria. Wood charcoal from Wupaer also shows an abundance of *Tamarix* (ca.

254

80%), followed by fragments of *Populus*, *Salix*, and *Chenopodioideae*. Fruit tree



255 remains include *Prunus*, usually less than 3% in abundance. At the Xiakalanguer
 256 site, *Salix* and *Tamarix* account for 44 and 28% of the assemblage respectively,
 257 followed by *Chenopodioideae* (17%). A small number of fragments of *Betula* and
 258 *Prunus* were also identified.



260 **Figure 3. Wood charcoal assemblages from seven archaeological sites in northwest China.**

261 In the eastern Tianshan, wood charcoal from three sites revealed an abundance of
 262 coniferous wood fragments. At Shirenzigou, wood charcoal fragments from cultural
 263 strata included *Picea*, *Juniperus*, *Tamarix*, *Populus*, *Salix*, and *Rhamnus*, with
 264 conifers accounting for over 90% of the fragments. However, 14 wood samples taken
 265 from coffins suggest that they are all made from coniferous woods, including *Picea*
 266 (11) and *Juniperus* (3). At Sidaogou, wood charcoal from five samples was dominated
 267 by *Picea* and *Populus*, followed by *Salix* and *Tamarix*. Progressively over time, *Picea*
 268 fragments decreased from 52% to less than 20%, while *Populus* increased quickly
 269 from 37% to over 70%. Similarly, *Picea* and *Populus* also constituted a dominant
 270 percentage of the Xicaozi assemblage and the other taxa only cover a small
 271 percentage, represented by *Prunus*, *Juniperus*, *Salix*, and *Betula*. The Qiongkeke site
 272 is located in the Ili Valley, with five taxa identified among 229 wood charcoal



273 fragments. *Prunus* and *Rhamnus* account for 30% each. The proportion of *Picea* is
274 around 20%, followed by *Tamarix* and Maloideae.

275 In addition, we compiled wood charcoal data from published studies. In the Altai
276 Mountains, wood charcoal from Tongtian Cave indicates that people widely collected
277 *Larix*, *Picea*, *Betula*, *Populus*, *Salix*, Maloideae, and *Prunus* (Zhou et al., 2020). On
278 the Pamir Plateau, the data we have assembled from the Ji'rzankal Cemetery show
279 that *Populus* was used for making fire tools, *Betula* for wooden plates, *Salix* for
280 wooden sticks, *Juniperus* for fire altars, and *Lonicera* for arrow shafts (Shen et al.,
281 2015). Similarly, in the Turpan Basin, *Populus* was also selected for making fire tools
282 at the Yanghai Cemetery, and there was selective use of a variety of other woods,
283 including *Picea*, *Spiraea*, *Tamarix*, *Betula*, *Morus*, *Salix*, *Clematis*, and *Vitis vinifera*
284 (Jiang, 2022). *Lonicera* was also used for arrow shafts and composite bows at the
285 Jiayi and Shengjindian cemeteries (Nong et al., 2023). *Picea* was widely used at
286 Yuergou for coffin manufacture and firewood (Jiang et al., 2013). While in the Tarim
287 and Hami basins, *Populus* and *Tamarix* were largely used for coffins and wooden
288 utensils, as revealed by studies at the Xiaohe, Gumugou, South Aisikexiaer, and
289 Wupu cemeteries (Institute of Cultural Relics and Archaeology of Xinjiang, 2007,
290 Zhang et al., 2017, 2019; Wang et al., 2021).

291 In the Hexi Corridor, *Picea* and/or *Juniperus* constituted the dominant portion of
292 wood charcoal fragments in sites located near the Qilian Mountains, such as Xihetan
293 and Zhaojiashuimo (Shen et al., 2018). While wood charcoal from oasis sites, like
294 Huoshaogou, Huoshiliang, and Ganggangwa, also record the abundance of *Tamarix*,
295 and woody Polygonaceae and *Salix* disappear from later phases of Huoshiliang,
296 presumably due to over harvesting for fuel (Shen et al., 2018, Li et al., 2011). The



297 other sites in this area are characterized by abundant broadleaved taxa, with a small
298 percentage of coniferous wood fragments, such as at the Lifuzhai, Xichengyi, and
299 Sanjiao sites (Wang et al., 2014; Shen et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2019). Meanwhile, wood
300 charcoal assemblages from the Mozuizi and Donghuishan sites suggest a rapid decline
301 of local wood sources, including those of *Picea*, Maloideae, and *Betula* (Shen et al.,
302 2018). Additionally, an abundance of *Prunus* wood fragments was found in these two
303 sites, and people might have transported *Picea* wood over long distances to burn at
304 Donghuishan (Shen et al., 2018). The long-distance transport of *Picea* and *Pinus* was
305 also recognized in the assemblage from the Jingbaoer jade mine (Liu et al., 2021). At
306 the Yingwoshu and Sanjiaocheng sites, abundant *Morus* wood fragments were
307 identified, possibly indicating the early cultivation of mulberry (Shen et al., 2018).

308 As with the Hexi Corridor, wood taxa recovered from the western Loess Plateau
309 also suggest a quick decline in the abundance of *Picea*, notably from 37% to less than
310 4% at Majiayao (Shen et al., 2021). In the assemblage from Xishanping, *Picea*,
311 *Betula*, *Acer*, and *Quercus* decreased markedly after 4600 BP, and *Picea* declined
312 from a peak value of 28% to less than 5%, while Bambusoideae increased sharply (Li
313 et al., 2012). The sudden spike on abundance of bamboo is thought to be due to rapid
314 successional colonization after significant deforestation or clearing of woody
315 competitive species. Meanwhile, fruit trees, including *Castanea*, *Prunus* (what the
316 wood specialists in this study called *Cerasus* and *Padus*), and *Diospyros* expressed a
317 considerable increase in abundance (Li et al., 2012). The use of fruit tree wood was
318 also recognized in the Dadiwan, Shannashuzha, Daping, and Gaozhuang sites, with
319 the abundance of *Prunus* (these researchers subdivided this group into *Prunus* and
320 *Padus*, which we have clumped together in this study for consistency), Maloideae,
321 and *Ziziphus* (Sun et al., 2013; An et al., 2014; Li et al., 2017).



322 **4 Discussions and Conclusion**

323 ***4.1 Wood collection strategies and the transport of conifers***

324 As the result of wood burning, wood charcoal provides insights into the decision-
325 making process regarding the collection of fuel. In this study, we found that wood
326 charcoal assemblages from all oasis sites were dominated by *Tamarix*. Most species
327 from the *Tamarix* genus are deciduous shrubs, generally 2-5 meters high, with slender
328 and soft branches (Yang and Gaskin, 2012). The twigs are often browsed by sheep,
329 camel, and donkey, and the branches can serve as a rapidly-regenerating fuel
330 (Editorial Board of Flora of China, CAS, 1990). Therefore, this widely-distributed,
331 arid-tolerant, and rapid-growing shrubby *Tamarix*, might constitute the best fuel for
332 ancient oases groups. For the archaeological sites located in mountainous areas, wood
333 fragments from coniferous trees are more prevalent. For example, abundant *Picea* and
334 *Juniperus* wood fragments were found at Shirenzigou in the eastern Tianshan.
335 Similarly, *Picea/Juniperus* constitutes the dominant portion of the fragments from
336 sites near the Qilian Mountains (Shen et al., 2018). All of the assemblages show that
337 people were largely opportunistic in their choices and the availability of wood sources
338 played a key role in the wood collection strategies.

339 Additionally, as wood resources in arid northwest China are relatively limited,
340 coping with localized wood shortages would have been an issue that people inevitably
341 dealt with. Among these wood charcoal assemblages, we found that there are some
342 fragments of coniferous woods that likely represent people traveling over long
343 distances on collection trips. The earliest known evidence might come from
344 Donghuishan (3700-3400 BP), in which *Picea* charcoal experienced a sharp decrease



345 and then suddenly increased to its highest level (Shen et al., 2018). Given that spruce
346 forests are very slow to regenerate, the sudden increase of spruce fragments was likely
347 the result of long-distance collection from the Qilian Mountains (Shen et al., 2018).
348 Generally, spruce wood has preferential properties, as its timber is straight and tall,
349 and easily worked, presumably contributing to the selection and transportation of this
350 specific species. Since 2500 BP, the long-distance collection of coniferous woods
351 seems to have been a more regular activity, as evidenced at the Jingbaoer jade mine,
352 where *Picea* and *Pinus* wood fragments are recovered well outside their natural
353 ecological distribution (Liu et al., 2021). In the Turpan Basin, *Picea* wood fragments
354 were found in sediments from a series of Subeixi sites, which may have been
355 collected from the Tianshan Mountains (Jiang et al., 2013; Jiang, 2022).

356 In addition to noting the likely long-distance collection of coniferous woods, the
357 abundance of conifers in most of our study sites hints to the likelihood that people
358 might also have a preference for this specific wood type. At Sidaogou, spruce wood
359 fragments comprise more than 60% of the total fragment assemblage. Similarly,
360 charcoal from Majiayao recorded spruce fragments as the most used taxon right from
361 the onset of when people settled down at the location (Shen et al., 2021). Meanwhile,
362 the exclusive use of coniferous wood for coffin construction is also recognizable in
363 this study. At Shirenzigou, the analysis of 14 wooden coffins show that they were all
364 made of coniferous woods. However, in sediments from the site, we found a variety
365 of carbonized wood types, including *Tamarix*, *Populus*, *Rhamnus*, *Salix*, etc.
366 Historically, a preference towards coniferous woods is widely noted in ancient China
367 (Ding, 2022), and archaeological wood studies in Central Asia have also noted similar
368 patterns (Spengler and Willcox 2013). Many ethnographic and historical references to
369 ritual juniper twig burning as incense are noted from across Inner Asia. The fact that



370 the wooden coffins at Shirenzigou are all constructed from conifers, suggests that the
371 ritual significance of the resinous trees may stretch much further back in time.
372 Ultimately, we conclude that an awareness of the properties and special meaning of
373 these woods probably plays a key role in their wide use.

374 ***4.2 Collection and cultivation of fruit trees***

375 In addition to the prehistoric expansion of agricultural systems, the significant
376 amounts of fruit wood fragments in our study may imply that the anthropogenic
377 processes were increasing the density of fruit trees near human settlements. Presently,
378 scholars continue to grapple with the question of what evidence is necessary to
379 differentiate between wild foraging, conservation of economically significant trees
380 and low-investment cultivation of wild populations (Dal Martello et al., 2023). In our
381 study, fruit wood fragments before 4600 BP were usually found in low percentages,
382 indicating limited collection of seasonally available wild fruits (Sun et al., 2013; Li et
383 al., 2017; Shen et al., 2021). Roughly between 4600-4300 BP, *Castanea*, *Prunus*, and
384 *Diospyros* charcoal shows a rapid increase in abundance at Xishanping on the western
385 Loess Plateau (Li et al., 2012). Pollen data at this time also demonstrates that
386 *Castanea* became the dominant broadleaved taxon, which is quite different from the
387 reconstructed natural vegetation, likely indicating the management of wild chestnut
388 forests or at least that humans were choosing not to cut these trees down, increasing
389 their populations (Li et al., 2007). Also, archaeobotanical records at this site illustrate
390 that a complex agricultural system based on a variety of crops, including millets, rice,
391 oats, soybean, and buckwheat, appeared synchronously with the management of
392 chestnut. This cooccurrence probably suggests that the exploitation of secondary
393 crops was closely related to and underpinned by the well-organized agricultural



394 system.

395 During the period from 4300 to 3500 years ago, there is an increase in the
396 abundance of fruit wood remains in Xinjiang and the Hexi Corridor. For example,
397 *Elaeagnus angustifolia* charcoal was found throughout the whole section and shows a
398 gradually increasing trend at Xintala. In the Hexi Corridor, *Prunus* wood fragments
399 were found in great abundance at Mozuizi and Donghuishan, far higher than its
400 percentage is believed to have been in the natural vegetation, possibly showing an
401 intensive collection of *Prunus* (Shen et al., 2019). However, there is no clear sign of
402 fruit management during this period, given that a wide range of wild fruit types, such
403 as *Nitraria* and *Cotoneaster* were also widely exploited (Zhou et al., 2016; Shen et al.,
404 2019). Meanwhile, previous studies show that, although a mixed agricultural system
405 consisting of both millets, wheat, and barley existed in Xinjiang and the Hexi
406 Corridor after 4000 BP, people still relied heavily on animal herding and/or feeding
407 (Dong et al., 2020b; Li, 2021).

408 From 3500-2500 BP, the cultivation or maintenance of *Prunus* and *Morus* trees
409 was probably adopted into the agricultural system. As in Wupaer, located in the
410 Kashgar oasis, the presence of *Prunus* charcoal remains is beyond its natural
411 distribution and the climatic conditions around the site are not suitable for the growth
412 of *Prunus*, likely resulted from anthropogenic planting. On the other hand,
413 considering that the distribution of wild *Prunus* trees had largely shrunk or even
414 disappeared presumably due to long-term human activity, we should still be cautious
415 about this conclusion. Almost at the same time, people in the Hexi Corridor probably
416 also started engaging in horticultural practices, supported by the abundant discovery
417 of *Morus* charcoal (Shen et al., 2019). Synchronously, a high-yield wheat and barley



418 farming system was developed in the Hexi Corridor (Zhou et al., 2012), and a more
419 intensified agricultural system developed in Xinjiang (Li, 2021), likely providing a
420 fundamental basis for the exploration of delayed-return perennial crops.

421 After 2500 BP, the cultivation of fruit trees was probably a widely practice in
422 northwest China. For instance, evidence from the Turpan Basin shows the presence of
423 *Morus* woods and *Vitis vinifera* stems at the Yanghai cemetery (Jiang, 2022; Jiang et
424 al., 2009), *Vitis vinifera* seeds in the Shengjindian cemetery (Jiang et al., 2015), and
425 *Ziziphus jujuba* stones in the Yuergou site (Jiang et al., 2013). At the Sampula
426 cemetery, fruit, nut and seed types were more abundant, including *P. persica*, *P.*
427 *armeniaca*, *Juglans regia*, *Coix lacryma-jobi*, etc. (Jiang et al., 2008). The appearance
428 of such a rich and diverse array of fruit crops indicates that people in northwest China
429 had developed a complex indigenous knowledge to survive in this hyper arid
430 environment and conducted more and more frequent exchange across the Eurasian
431 continent.

432 ***4.3 Indigenous knowledge of plant resources***

433 Due to the extreme arid climate, wooden objects found in our study area are usually
434 well-preserved and the data suggest that people might have also captured the
435 knowledge of deliberately selecting certain types of woods when making various
436 utensils. For example, within the Subeixi groups in the Turpan Basin, *Lonicera* was
437 harvested from wild stands for making arrow shafts at Jiayi and Shengjingdian (Nong
438 et al., 2023). At the Yanghai cemetery, *Betula* was selected for making dippers or
439 ladles, for its rigidity; flammable *Populus* and *Picea* were used for fire tool
440 manufacture (Jiang et al., 2018, 2021). People at this time also used *Lithospermum*
441 *officinale* seeds for decoration (Jiang et al., 2007a), *Nitraria tangutorum* for making



442 necklace (Jiang, 2022), and *Cannabis* for ritualized consumption and/or medical
443 purposes, as revealed in both the Turpan Basin (Jiang et al., 2006, 2007b, 2016) and
444 the Pamir Plateau (Ren et al., 2019).

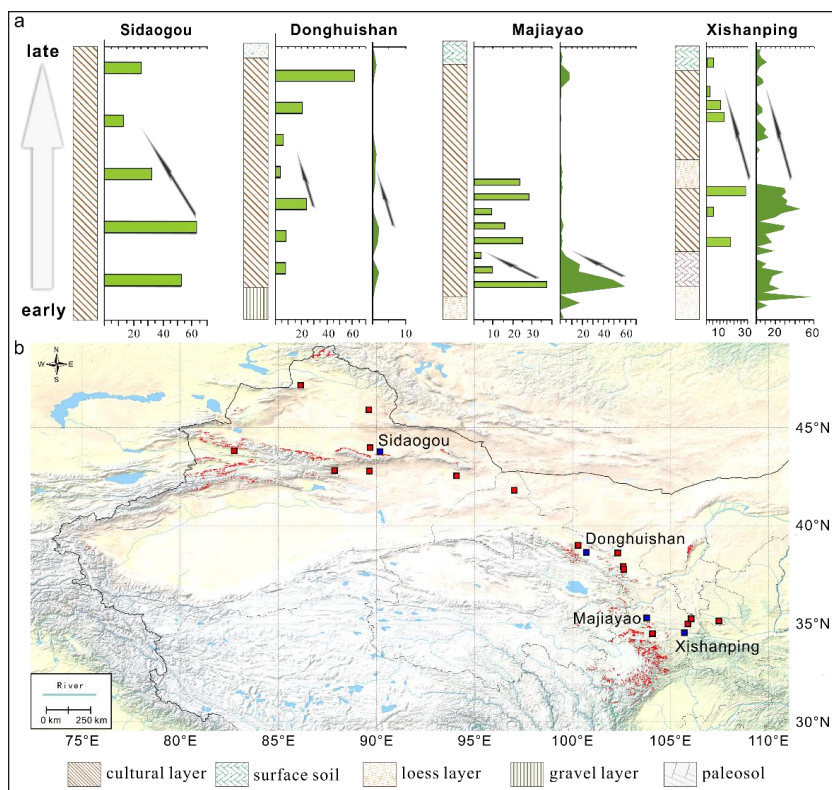
445 Similarly, on the Pamir Plateau, *Betula*, which has high rigidity and density, and
446 homogeneous texture, was selected for making wooden plates (Shen et al., 2015).
447 Additionally, it appears that people specifically chose flammable *Populus* wood to
448 make fire tools; *Salix*, with long and straight branches, was used for fashioning
449 wooden sticks; sweet-scented *Juniperus* was the preferred choice for making fire
450 altars, and *Lonicera* was selected for arrow shaft manufacture. Such conscious
451 utilization of different wood properties illustrates the ingenuity of these ancient
452 people. Although the current archaeobotanical research related to wooden utensils is
453 still limited, studies from the Turpan Basin and the Pamir Plateau clearly suggest that
454 the conscious selection of wood types for specific properties was a particularly
455 pronounced practice after 2500 BP, especially among cultural contexts of a well-
456 established agriculture base with millets, wheat, and barley. Meanwhile, the
457 appearance of horticulture based on a variety of secondary crops at the time indicated
458 a more settled lifestyle, which might provide opportunities for prehistoric people to
459 fully explore and make the best use of the indigenous plant resources.

460 ***4.4 Anthropogenic deforestation***

461 Presumably via slash and burn agriculture, people have largely altered terrestrial
462 ecosystems across the globe (Zong et al., 2007; Schlütz et al., 2009; Li et al., 2009;
463 Neumann et al., 2012; Innes et al., 2013; Ma et al., 2020; Zheng et al., 2021). For
464 northwest China, wood charcoal data in this study show that, apart from diversified
465 cultural adaption, human-induced landscape alteration also occurred widely, not only



466 throughout the whole history of agricultural activity, but also across different
467 vegetation contexts. For example, wood charcoal data from Sidaogou in the eastern
468 Tianshan recorded a significant decrease in abundance of spruce wood fragments
469 (Figure 4). Meanwhile, *Tamarix* and *Salix* nearly disappeared in the later stage,
470 showing that wood cutting caused a sharp attenuation of spruce forests and
471 broadleaved woodland. Similarly, *Tamarix* charcoal from the Xintala section in the
472 Yanqi Oasis firstly increased and then decreased to its lowest level in the upper layer,
473 suggesting that continuous wood cutting resulted in the decline of *Tamarix* shrubs. At
474 the same time, *Populus* and *Salix* charcoal disappeared in the middle layer, implying
475 that local riparian woodlands were largely deforested.



476

477 **Figure 4. The wood charcoal and pollen records show synchronous deforestation of spruce**



478 **forests across all of northwest China. (a) the change of *Picea* wood charcoal (bar) and pollen**
479 **(curve) from Sidaogou, Donghuishan (Zhou et al., 2012; Shen et al., 2018), Majiayao (Zhou,**
480 **2009; Shen et al., 2021), and Xishanping (Li et al., 2007, 2012). (b) the comparison of spruce**
481 **forests between prehistoric times and now, the squares represent archaeological sites with**
482 ***Picea* charcoal remains and the red areas show the current distribution of spruce forests in**
483 **northwest China (after Hou, 2019).**

484 The Neolithic deforestation and reduction in range of spruce forests have also
485 been widely recognized across the western Loess Plateau and the Hexi Corridor. At
486 the Majiayao site, wood charcoal recorded the rapid decline of *Picea* during the early
487 stages of the site's occupation (Figure 4) (Shen et al., 2021). Not far from Majiayao,
488 wood charcoal from the Xishanping section revealed a similar pattern, with *Picea*,
489 *Betula*, *Acer*, *Ulmus*, and *Quercus*, illustrating a marked decrease after 4600 BP,
490 while Bambusoideae quickly colonized after the clearing of the original forest (Li et
491 al., 2012). In the Hexi Corridor, wood charcoal assemblages from the Mozuizi and
492 Donghuishan sites show a quick decline in plant diversity concurrent with human
493 settlement, and the percentage of *Picea* from Donghuishan recorded a sharp decrease
494 (Figure 4) (Shen et al., 2018). Similarly, wood charcoal fragments from Huoshiliang
495 show that *Salix* and Polygonaceae almost disappear, likely due to the large demand
496 for fuel used in bronze smelting activities (Li et al., 2011). Collectively, we interpret
497 the broader trend throughout all of these wood charcoal assemblages as revealing a
498 rather rapid process of deforestation across northwest China, especially shown in the
499 large-scale reduction in spruce forests. Our results are also supported by evidence
500 from pollen records, especially *Picea* pollen from Majiayao (Zhou, 2009), Xishanping
501 (Li et al., 2007), Donghuishan (Zhou et al., 2012), and other sections from the Loess
502 Plateau (Zhou and Li, 2011). All of these records document considerable reduction in



503 spruce forests (Figure 4). Today, the distribution of spruce forests has shrunk down to
504 a few constrained small forest patches (Figure 4).

505 **5 Data availability**

506 The datasets of archaeobotanical wood charcoal records in northwest China including
507 taxa types, absolute counts of wood charcoal fragments, and the locations and AMS
508 ¹⁴C dates of each archaeological site are available at the open-access repository
509 Zenodo (Shen et al., 2023; <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.8158277>).

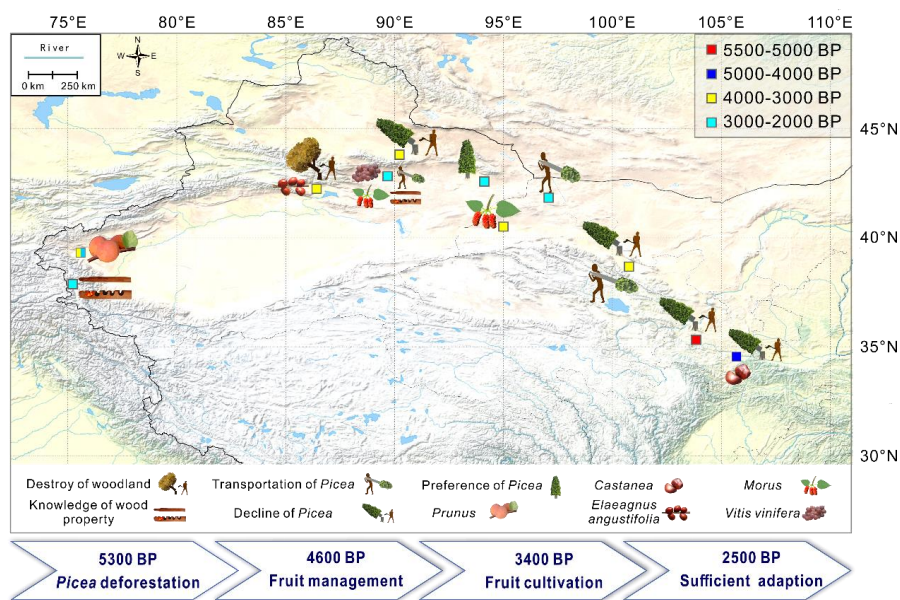
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511 **6 Summary**

512 The synthesis of wood charcoal data from nearly 40 archaeological sites shows that
513 prehistoric human-environmental interactions in northwest China were closely related
514 to the development of agriculture and considerably more complicated than previously
515 thought (Figure 5). Although anthropogenic deforestation occurred throughout the
516 whole period, most evidently relating to the decline of spruce forests, people also
517 actively applied a range of adaptive strategies to survive in this harsh environment. As
518 early as 4600 BP, people on the western Loess Plateau might have started managing
519 or at least conserving chestnut trees, likely underpinned by the development of a
520 complex agricultural system. Since ca. 3500 BP, with the appearance of high-yielding
521 agriculture based on wheat and barley in Xinjiang and the Hexi Corridor, people
522 appear to have been planting perennial tree crops, such as *Prunus* and *Morus*.
523 Additionally, they likely engaged in long-distance transportation of preferred woods,
524 specifically coniferous trees. After 2500 BP, people successfully mastered a wide
525 range of adaption strategies along the ancient Silk Road, as they began manufacturing
526 wooden utensils with conscious selection of wood properties. Moreover, the



527 consumption of a further diversity of fruit types, including grapes, signalled more
528 intensive horticultural practices and complex social structure.



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530 **Figure 5. A summary of prehistory human-environmental interactions in northwest China.**

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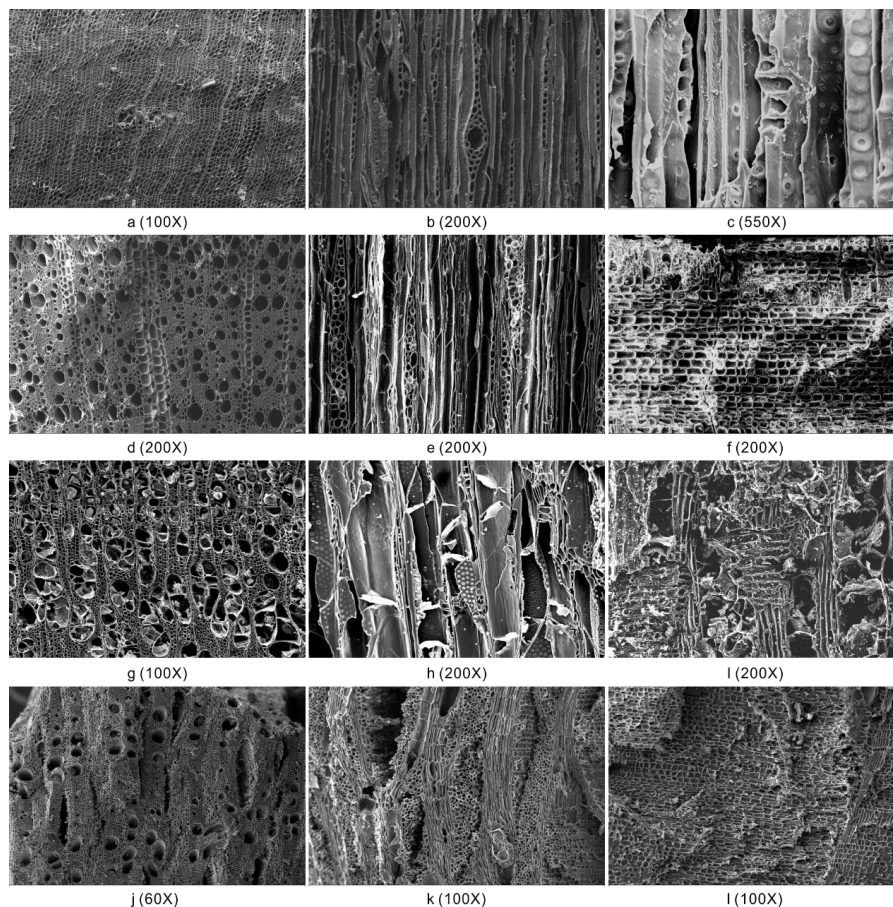
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542 **Appendix A.** The selected scanning electron microscopic images of wood charcoal in
543 Xinjiang. (a-c) *Picea*. (d-f) *Prunus*. (g-I) *Populus*. (j-l) *Tamarix*.



544

545

546 **Author contributions.** HS and XL designed the archaeobotanical dataset; HS was
547 responsible for construction of the database; HS performed numerical analyses and
548 organized the manuscript, and XZ, RS, PJ and AB revised the draft of the paper. All
549 authors discussed the results and contributed to the final paper.

550

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556

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561

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