

Settlement adaptation and social evolution under mid-holocene environmental duress in the Yellow River Basin

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to elucidate the adaptation mechanisms of prehistoric settlements in the Yellow River Basin to extreme climate events spanning from the pre-Yangshao period (9.0–7.0 cal. ka BP) to the Bronze Age (4.0–2.0 cal. ka BP). By integrating archaeological site data with ancient environmental records and employing spatial statistical methods such as kernel density estimation and nearest neighbor analysis, this research reconstructs the spatial and temporal evolution of settlement patterns under climate stress. Furthermore, it discusses the relationship between these patterns and natural disasters, uncovering the mechanisms of human–land interaction and the adaptive strategies that shaped regional resilience during periods of environmental stress. The results reveal three key findings. Firstly, the distribution of settlements exhibits significant spatial differentiation; while the middle reaches consistently maintained high density, a secondary core emerged in the upper Hehuang Valley during the Yangshao period. Secondly, settlement patterns demonstrate simultaneous trends of expansion in scale and reduction in number, indicating an increase in social complexity and stratification, which laid the groundwork for early state formation. Thirdly, the selection of settlement sites reflects clear climate adaptation: the average elevation rose by 56.98 m from the Yangshao to Longshan periods, and the proportion of settlements located farther from water sources increased by 12.3 % during the late Longshan period, strongly correlating with flood sediment records. Additionally, erosion and sedimentation in downstream areas provided fertile land, playing a crucial role in sustaining social development. This study illustrates that mid-Holocene climate variability, particularly in the form of intensified flooding and environmental pressures, drove adaptive strategies such as elevation migration and spatial differentiation. These dynamics, coupled with emerging sociopolitical structures, facilitated the rise of early complex societies in the middle and lower Yellow River Basin.

1. Introduction

The dynamic interplay between prehistoric human development and mid-Holocene environmental change has emerged as a central research focus across archaeology, paleoclimatology, and environmental history (Chen et al., 2015b; Kawahata et al., 2009; Kidder et al., 2018; Su et al., 2025; Wang et al., 2024; Weiss et al., 1993). Growing evidence suggests that prehistoric settlement dynamics were shaped not only by resource availability but also significantly influenced by climate

variability—particularly in regions where human–land interactions were highly sensitive to environmental stressors (An et al., 2005; Dong et al., 2017; Staubwasser and Weiss, 2006). These dynamics are particularly pronounced during the Holocene (Jiang et al., 2025a), a period characterized by alternating phases of climatic stability and abrupt environmental disturbances, which presented both opportunities for agricultural expansion and challenges that necessitated societal adaptation (Bond, 2001; Costanza et al., 2009; Pederson et al., 2014; Tan et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2020).

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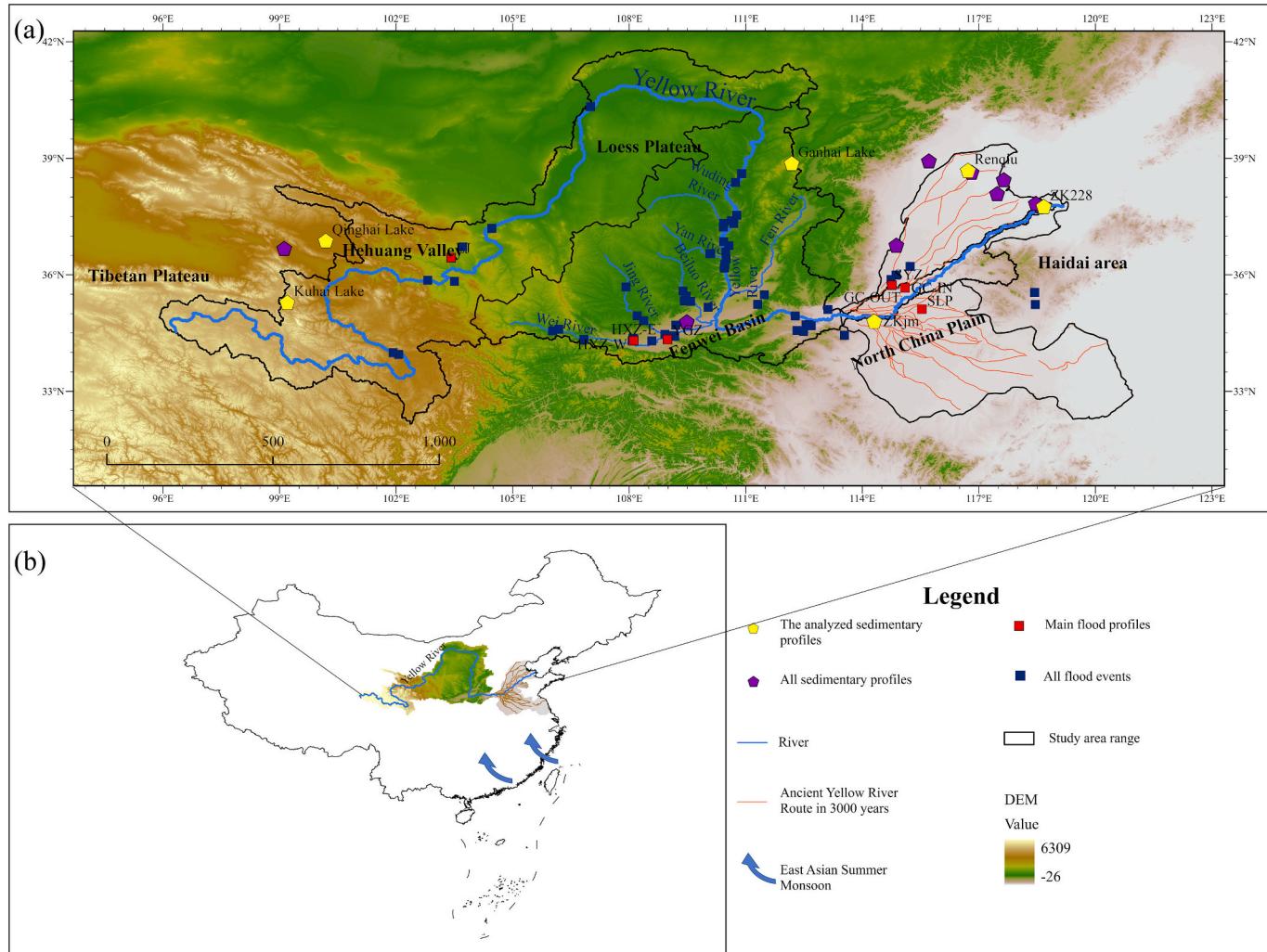


Fig. 1. Location of the Yellow River Basin and distribution of studied sites. The distribution of palaeochannel changes in the lower reach of the Yellow River form the literature (Xue, 1993). (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

Warm and humid climatic phases during the early to middle Holocene (9.0–5.0 cal. ka BP) created favorable conditions for agricultural intensification, demographic expansion, and the development of permanent settlements across various early cultural regions, including the Fertile Crescent, the Nile Valley, the Indus-Gangetic Plain, and East Asia (Costanza et al., 2009; Huzayyin, 1939; Pederson et al., 2014; Sun et al., 2019a; Yang, 2013). In Egypt, improved precipitation regimes facilitated the transition from mobile foraging to sedentary farming by 9.0 cal. ka BP (Huzayyin, 1939; Vermeersch et al., 2015) with similar dynamics observed in the arid American Southwest (Hall, 1977). In the Chinese context, this climatic window supported the flourishing of the Dadiwan and Majiayao cultures in the Gansu-Qinghai region and enabled the rapid expansion of the Yangshao and Longshan cultures along the middle and lower Yellow River (An et al., 2002; Hou et al., 2019; Jiang and Cui, 2017). These cultures experienced rising settlement densities, increased social differentiation, and early signs of political complexity under climate-favorable conditions.

Conversely, abrupt mid-Holocene climatic deteriorations—particularly the 5.5 and 4.2 cal. ka BP cooling events—posed severe ecological and societal challenges, often resulting in the restructuring of settlement systems and sociopolitical organization (Zhang et al., 2024). The 4.2 cal. ka BP event, in particular, is widely regarded as a global tipping point, associated with widespread aridification (Jiang et al., 2022), frequent flooding, and the collapse or transformation of early civilizations in Mesopotamia, the Indus Valley, and northern China (Jiang et al., 2025b;

Pederson et al., 2014; Weiss and Bradley, 2001; Yin et al., 2025). In the Yellow River Basin, these disruptions coincide with the decline of the Yangshao culture and the emergence of more hierarchical, fortified Longshan settlements, indicative of strategic adaptations to worsening environmental conditions (Liu and Chen, 2017; Wang and Gong, 2000). Notably, these transitions were driven not only by climate itself but also by cascading secondary disasters such as soil erosion, floodplain instability, and agricultural stress (Shi et al., 2025). In this context, the “climate-disaster-response” model provides a robust explanatory framework for understanding how environmental stress shaped spatial decisions, social fragmentation, and cultural innovation (Costanza et al., 2009; Guo et al., 2024; Li et al., 2014; Wu and Liu, 2004; Yang et al., 2019). However, despite its increasing global adoption, systematic applications of this model to basin-wide prehistoric transformations in East Asia remain limited.

As the core cradle of Chinese civilization, the Yellow River Basin offers an ideal natural laboratory for investigating how environmental stress influenced prehistoric settlement systems and social trajectories. Its vast loess plateaus, fertile alluvial plains, and dynamic fluvial networks provided both opportunities and constraints for early human occupation (An et al., 2005; Wu and Liu, 2001; Yan, 1997). Over the past two decades, a substantial body of archaeological and paleoenvironmental research has documented long-term cultural sequences from the pre-Yangshao period through the Longshan and Bronze Age, alongside significant climatic events and geomorphological shifts (Dong

et al., 2017; Gao et al., 2022; Hou et al., 2019). Currently, researchers have employed site distribution mapping, elevation and slope analysis, and localized stratigraphic records to explore the relationship between settlement dynamics and environmental conditions (Dong et al., 2022; Li and Gao, 2021; Lu et al., 2014; Su et al., 2025; Wang et al., 2023).

However, despite this growing interest, current research on prehistoric settlements in the Yellow River Basin still faces three major limitations. First, most studies are temporally anchored around discrete climatic events—such as the 8.2, 5.5, or 4.2 cal. ka BP episodes (He et al., 2021; Li et al., 2016; Sun et al., 2019a; Yu et al., 2020), while lacking a systematic exploration of continuous climate-driven hazard regimes, particularly those involving high-frequency flood events and intensified soil erosion. Second, spatial analysis often remains confined to localized case studies (Liu, 2007a; Lu et al., 2016; Su et al., 2025), leading to a fragmented understanding of settlement evolution across the entire basin. The absence of an integrated spatial-temporal database for prehistoric sites has further hindered the identification of macro-scale patterns and long-term adaptive strategies. Third, existing interpretations frequently isolate single environmental drivers (e.g., drought or flood), overlooking the compound and synergistic nature of climate-induced disaster chains and their cumulative impacts on societal transformation (Jiang and Cui, 2017; Song, 2017; Yu et al., 2000). Consequently, the dynamic coupling between environmental perturbation, disaster frequency, and sociopolitical reorganization remains underexplored at the basin scale.

To address current research gaps, this study constructs an integrated framework linking mid-Holocene climate forcing, environmental disasters, and human adaptive responses in the Yellow River Basin. The research objectives of this study are twofold: (1) To develop and validate a “climate-driven–disaster transmission–societal response” conceptual model, systematically revealing the mechanisms through which flooding and erosion events influenced prehistoric settlement location strategies, adaptive vertical migration, and social structural differentiation; (2) To elucidate the processes by which mid-Holocene climate forcing triggered environmental disasters across the Yellow River Basin, and to uncover the formation and evolution of human adaptive strategies from the pre-Yangshao period through the Bronze Age.

2. Study area

Since the beginning of the Holocene, the Yellow River Basin has experienced major environmental changes characterized by notable shifts in climate, changes in vegetation, and the development of its river systems, all of which have had a substantial impact on patterns of human habitation (Chen et al., 2015a; Zhao et al., 2022c; Zheng et al., 2020) (Fig. 1).

During the early Holocene (11.5–9.0 cal. ka BP), postglacial warming prompted the retreat of ice sheets, resulting in a gradual increase in temperature and the expansion of temperate steppe and open forest vegetation. The climate became significantly warmer and more humid during the Holocene Climatic Optimum (9.0–5.0 cal. ka BP), which facilitated widespread forest development in the middle and upper reaches, stabilized hillslopes, and supported the growth of early Neolithic cultures (Ruo et al., 2020; Shi, 1959). In this phase, the hydrological regime of the Yellow River became increasingly dynamic, with intensified summer monsoons enhancing runoff, flood frequency, and sediment transport. Sedimentary archives reveal high-energy fluvial processes and increased floodplain dynamics, particularly in the middle and lower reaches (Zhao et al., 2022b). These environmental conditions fostered the expansion of agriculture and permanent settlements, especially along low terraces and near water sources (Huang et al., 2011). From the late Holocene onward (after 5.0 cal. ka BP), the climate began to trend cooler and drier, marked by notable events such as the 5.5 and 4.2 cal. ka BP cooling phases. Vegetation shifted toward drought-tolerant grassland and shrub species, particularly in the northwestern basin (Sun et al., 2019b). Concurrently, river activity became more

Table 1

Data source and general characteristics.

| Type | | Time range | Spatial resolution | Reference |
|------------------------------------|-----|-----------------------|--------------------|---|
| Sites | shp | 2.0–9.0 cal. ka BP | – | (National Cultural Heritage Administration, 1998) |
| Profile | shp | 0–10.0 cal. ka BP | – | Table 2 |
| DEM | tif | – | 30 m | SRTM, http://datamirro.r.csdb.cn |
| Soil erosion(t/ha/a) | – | 0–10.0 cal. ka BP | – | (Zhao et al., 2022b) |
| Flood frequency | – | 0–10.0 cal. ka BP | – | (Zhou and Yu, 2013) |
| MG- $\delta^{18}\text{O}/\text{‰}$ | – | 1.133–10.0 cal. ka BP | – | (Cai et al., 2021) |
| MAP/mm | – | 0–10.0 cal. ka BP | – | (Chen et al., 2015b) |
| Temperature (K) | – | 0–10.0 cal. ka BP | – | (Shi et al., 2012) |
| Vegetation cover/% | – | 0–10.0 cal. ka BP | – | http://paleodata.iecas.cn |

unstable, characterized by enhanced lateral channel migration and incision in some segments, while sedimentation and aggradation occurred in others—especially in the lower reaches, where frequent avulsions reshaped the floodplain structure (Chen et al., 2012). These changes increased environmental risks such as soil erosion, waterlogging, and flood hazards, requiring more adaptive settlement strategies.

The historical and archaeological records reveal significant long-term feedbacks between environmental shifts and human land use (Dong et al., 2019; Dong et al., 2016; Dong et al., 2013; Pauline et al., 2021; Yan et al., 2017). The transition from early Neolithic dispersed hamlets to late Neolithic fortified settlements and Bronze Age urban centers coincided with increasing environmental pressures and hydrological instability (An et al., 2002; Li and Gao, 2021; Yang et al., 2023). These evolving physical conditions provide the ecological backdrop against which this study evaluates how prehistoric societies responded to multi-scalar environmental stress through spatial reorganization and institutional adaptation.

3. Materials and methods

3.1. Data collection and preprocessing

To investigate the settlement dynamics and environmental responses in the Yellow River Basin from the pre-Yangshao period to the Bronze Age, this study developed a multi-source geospatial database that integrates archaeological, paleoenvironmental, and geomorphological data. A total of 23,031 settlements were collected from China's cultural relics atlas, excavation reports and regional surveys spanning four cultural periods: pre-Yangshao (2151), Yangshao (4201), Longshan (8168), and the Bronze Age (8511) (Appendix A). Considering that this study primarily focuses on the macro-level distribution and evolutionary patterns of settlements in the Yellow River Basin, a certain degree of chronological uncertainty for individual sites is acknowledged. Paleoenvironmental datasets—including floodplain stratigraphy, loess-paleosol sequences, and borehole records—were used to reconstruct mid-Holocene climatic and geomorphic changes (Table 1). All spatial data were georeferenced using the CGCS2000 coordinate system and enriched with topographic variables (elevation, slope, hydrological proximity) derived from DEM data.

Data preprocessing involved the removal of duplicates, correction of coordinate errors, and standardization of site attributes. Sites with ambiguous chronology or inadequate spatial accuracy were excluded from the analysis. Environmental data were either interpolated or

Table 2
Related erosion deposition profiles collected in this study.

| No. | Name | Location | Lon. (E) | Lat. (N) | Reference |
|-----|-----------------|----------|----------|----------|------------------------|
| 1 | ZKjm | Fluvial | 114.30 | 34.81 | (Ma et al., 2012) |
| 2 | Renqiu | Fluvial | 116.71 | 38.70 | (Cui et al., 2005) |
| 3 | QZ | Fluvial | 114.87 | 36.77 | (Wang et al., 2015a) |
| 4 | Bai_4 | Fluvial | 115.71 | 38.94 | (Wang et al., 2015a) |
| 5 | QX01 | Delta | 116.81 | 38.65 | (Wang et al., 2015b) |
| 6 | YS1 | Delta | 117.47 | 38.10 | (Xu et al., 2015) |
| 7 | SD01 | Delta | 118.58 | 37.79 | (Xian and Jiang, 2005) |
| 8 | ZK1 | Delta | 118.46 | 37.85 | (Li et al., 2013a) |
| 9 | BXZK11 | Delta | 117.64 | 38.46 | (He et al., 2019) |
| 10 | ZK228 | Delta | 118.67 | 37.77 | (Zhou et al., 2014) |
| 11 | Luyang Lake | Lake | 109.48 | 34.80 | (Yan et al., 2016) |
| 12 | Kuhai Lake | Lake | 99.20 | 35.30 | (Mischke et al., 2010) |
| 13 | Chaka Salt Lake | Lake | 99.12 | 36.69 | (Liu et al., 2008) |
| 14 | Qinghai Lake | Lake | 100.19 | 36.89 | (Shen et al., 2005) |
| 15 | Ganhai Lake | Lake | 112.18 | 38.88 | (Zhang et al., 2018) |

categorized to facilitate spatial analyses, including kernel density estimation, proximity analysis, and clustering. Detailed descriptions of data types and sources are provided in Table 1.

In parallel, this study compiled stratigraphic profiles of paleofloods and erosional sediments from 73 sites across the upper (No. 1–8), middle (No. 9–59), and lower (No. 60–73) Yellow River Basin (Table 2, Appendix B). To ensure comparability, all profiles were standardized in format and age calibration. Radiocarbon dates were corrected to calendar years ($\pm 2\sigma$), and sediment deposition rates (DSR) were calculated at 50-year resolution using the function:

$$\text{DSR} = (d_{i+1} - d_i) / (t_{i+1} - t_i) \quad (1)$$

where d is depth and t is calibrated age. Spatial interpolation of DSR was performed using simple kriging in ArcGIS (Saito et al., 2000), providing high-resolution reconstructions of flood and erosion intensity. The 50-year resolution of the sedimentation rate is primarily considered in relation to the time series of settlements and paleofloods to elucidate their correlation. This approach facilitates a rapid determination of the relationship between settlement development and environmental change, thereby enhancing the reliability of mutual verification among various environmental factors. However, it is essential to exercise caution when analyzing data that requires higher accuracy. In this study, the 50-year sedimentation rate resolution serves as a crucial foundation for assessing the relationship between environmental disasters and settlement recombination.

3.2. Coupling analysis of spatiotemporal dynamics of prehistoric settlements

3.2.1. Environmental determinants of settlement location: Altitude, slope, and water access

To evaluate the influence of environmental conditions on prehistoric settlement distribution, this study focuses on three key terrain factors: altitude, slope, and water accessibility. Based on the geomorphological characteristics of the Yellow River Basin, an altitude classification system was developed with reference to the terrain division framework of China proposed in the 1950s (Shen, 1961). Elevation categories were adjusted to fit regional landform patterns and include: low-altitude plains and gently undulating hills (<500 m), low-altitude moderately undulating hills (500–1000 m), mid-altitude moderately undulating mountains (1000–1500 m), and mid-altitude strongly undulating mountains (1500–2000 m). Settlement site elevations were extracted and assigned to these classes to examine changes in vertical. Distribution across cultural periods. Additional statistics were generated for sites situated above 1500 m to assess the dynamics of high-altitude occupation.

Slope classification adhered to the standards established by the Landform Survey and Mapping Committee of the International Geographical Union for detailed landform mapping. Slopes were categorized into five distinct groups: flat to micro-slopes (<2°), gentle slopes (2°–6°), moderate slopes (6°–15°), steep slopes (15°–25°), and very steep slopes (≥25°). Utilizing digital elevation model (DEM) data, slope values were computed for each site to assess terrain preferences and their evolution from the Yangshao period to the Bronze Age.

Water accessibility was assessed by calculating the distance between each settlement site and the nearest major river. Given that prehistoric populations typically selected locations within a practical daily walking range of water sources, a 6 km buffer zone was established as an analytical threshold. This distance corresponds to an estimated one-hour walking range, considering terrain, slope, and physical condition, based on a typical human walking speed of 3.6–7.2 km/h (Aghabayk et al., 2021; Vita-Finzi and Higgs, 1970). Sites located within 6 km of a river were classified as near-water settlements, whereas those situated beyond this distance were categorized as distant-water settlements. This framework allows for a systematic assessment of hydrophilic preferences and adaptive shifts in response to changing climatic and hydrological conditions across time.

3.2.2. Spatial dynamics detection: Nearest neighbor, kernel density and clustering

To examine the spatial organization and evolution of settlement patterns from the pre-Yangshao to the Bronze Age, this study employed a combination of nearest neighbor analysis, kernel density estimation (KDE), and clustering algorithms using GIS and Python platforms. Nearest neighbor analysis quantified the degree of spatial dispersion or aggregation among settlement sites. By calculating the average shortest distance between each site and its nearest neighbor. This method captures changes in site density across different cultural phases; a decreasing average distance indicates increased spatial clustering, while increasing values reflect dispersion. Kernel density estimation was utilized to visualize spatial concentrations and identify core settlement areas in each period. By employing the “Kernel Density” tool in the GIS Spatial Analyst module, KDE calculates the density of point features (settlement sites) surrounding each raster cell, producing a continuous surface that reflects the intensity of site distribution (Silverman, 1986). This methodology facilitates the assessment of spatial aggregation dynamics and the shifting of population centers over time.

In addition, HDBScan (Hierarchical Density-Based Spatial Clustering of Applications with Noise) was used to detect settlement clusters with varying densities and to identify outlier (noise) points. This unsupervised algorithm is well-suited for archaeological datasets characterized by heterogeneous spatial patterns. The formula for the mutual reachable distance between the two points is as follows:

$$d_k(p, q) = \max\{c_k(p), c_k(q), d(p, q)\} \quad (2)$$

where $d(p, q)$ represents the distance between p and q , the core distance $c_k(p) = d(p, N^k(p))$ value represents the distance between the core point p and the k th adjacent point (Leland et al., 2017).

To evaluate the clustering quality, the Total Sum of Squares (TSS) was decomposed into Within-cluster Sum of Squares (WSS) and Between-cluster Sum of Squares (BSS). A lower WSS indicates higher internal consistency within clusters, while a higher BSS reflects greater differentiation between clusters. The ratio BSS/TSS was used as an index of clustering effectiveness, with values approaching 1 indicating stronger inter-cluster separation and more distinct settlement clusters.

4. Results

4.1. Settlement shift from river proximity to terrain adaptation

The number of settlements increased continuously from the pre-

Table 3

Number of settlement sites in the pre-Yangshao, Yangshao, Longshan and Bronze Age in the Yellow River Basin.

| Period | Pre-Yangshao | Yangshao | Longshan | Bronze Age |
|------------|--------------|----------|----------|------------|
| Quantity | 2151 | 4201 | 8168 | 8511 |
| Percentage | 9.34 % | 18.24 % | 35.47 % | 36.95 % |
| Increase | - | 95.30 % | 94.43 % | 4.20 % |

Yangshao to the Bronze Age, but the growth rate varied significantly across periods, reflecting shifting patterns of population expansion and regional occupation. From the pre-Yangshao to the Yangshao period, the number of settlements nearly doubled, increasing by 95.30 %. In contrast, from the Longshan to the Bronze Age, the increase was only 4.20 % (Table 3). This early-stage expansion suggests broad territorial occupation and population growth, while the later-stage stabilization implies spatial reorganization or regional consolidation of settlements.

Settlement elevation patterns exhibit a distinct upward migration trend from the pre-Yangshao to the Longshan period, followed by a partial regression during the Bronze Age, indicating shifting adaptive strategies in response to topographic and possibly climatic factors. The average altitude of settlements rose from 686.10 m (pre-Yangshao) to 1318.09 m (Yangshao) and peaked at 1375.08 m during the Longshan period, before slightly declining to 1307.50 m in the Bronze Age. Notably, the proportion of sites above 1500 m increased significantly during the Yangshao–Longshan transition. A bimodal elevation pattern

emerged in the Longshan period, with over 20 % of settlements concentrated in both the [1000–1500] m and ≥ 2000 m ranges, while in the Bronze Age, the pattern shifted toward a dual concentration below 500 m and above 2000 m, both exceeding 30 % (Fig. 2).

Slope selection reflects a dynamic balance between agricultural suitability and terrain adaptability, with an increased tolerance for steeper slopes during the Longshan period. While prehistoric settlements consistently favored gentle terrain, the proportion of sites on slopes $<2^\circ$ declined from the pre-Yangshao to the Longshan period, before rebounding to 65.2 % in the Bronze Age. In contrast, settlements on [6° – 15°] and [15° – 25°] slopes increased by 12.7 % and 8.9 % respectively during the Yangshao–Longshan transition, suggesting an adaptation to more complex terrain (Fig. 2). This pattern indicates that as low-slope land became saturated or prone to risks, settlements expanded into marginal yet usable zones.

Hydrological proximity analysis reveals a clear shift from water-dependent to water-avoidant settlement strategies, reflecting an increasing awareness and response to flood hazards. In the pre-Yangshao period, near-water settlements accounted for only 0.45 %, due to the low total number of sites. During the Yangshao period, both near- and distant-water settlements increased. In the Longshan period, distant-water sites rose to 29.84 %, and by the Bronze Age, they surpassed near-water sites, reaching 51.08 % (Fig. 3b). Millennium-scale trends (Fig. 3a) show that before 5.0 cal. ka BP, near-water site selection was dominant, but after 4.0–3.0 cal. ka BP, the proportion of distant-water sites overtook near-water sites by 12.3 %, suggesting a strategic

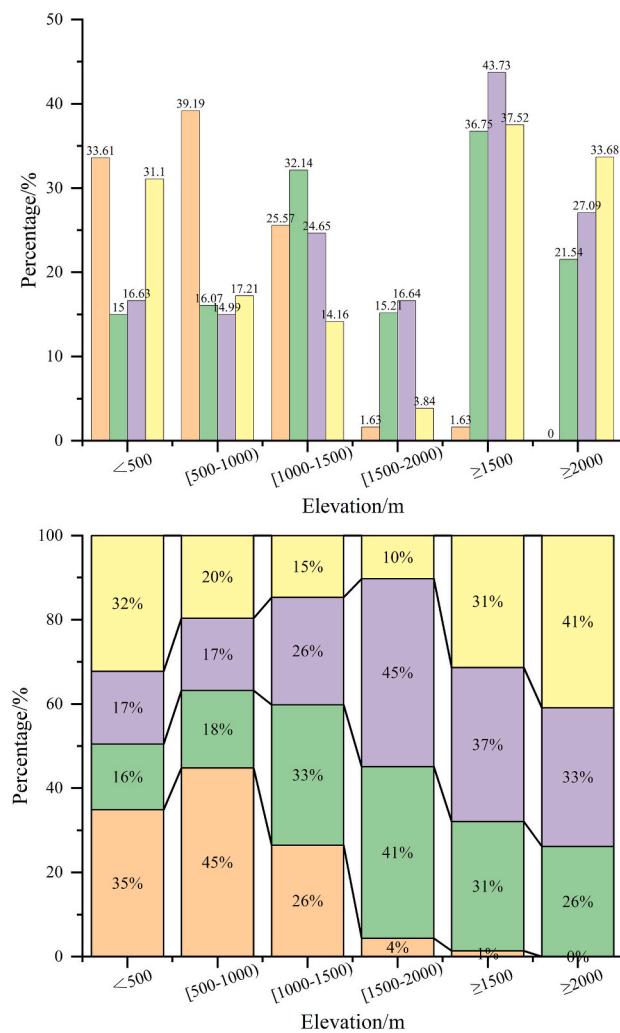


Fig. 2. Statistics of the elevation and slope data of the pre-Yangshao to Bronze Age settlement sites.

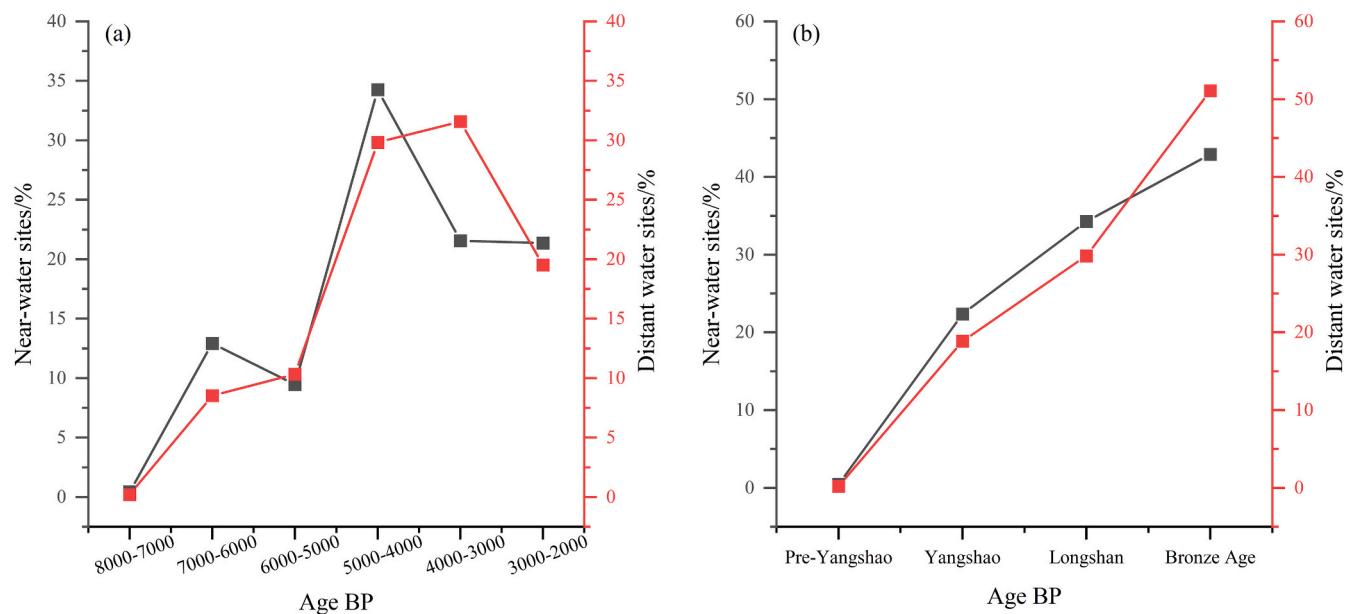


Fig. 3. Proportion of settlement sites far from and near water sources (a: distance between settlement sites and water sources divided by thousand years; b: distance between settlement sites and water sources from pre-Yangshao to Bronze Age).

Table 4
Summary table of nearest neighbor analysis.

| Period | Average observation distance / m | Expected average distance / m | Nearest neighbor ratio | z score | p |
|--------------|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------------|------------|----------|
| Pre-Yangshao | 4090.21 | 9859.07 | 0.41486 | -51.91638 | 0.000000 |
| Yangshao | 2562.82 | 9753.09 | 0.26277 | -91.40254 | 0.000000 |
| Longshan | 2195.02 | 6273.83 | 0.34986 | -112.39219 | 0.000000 |
| Bronze Age | 1666.94 | 6881.36 | 0.24224 | -133.73737 | 0.000000 |

withdrawal from flood-prone zones as hydrological risks intensified.

Settlement clustering became increasingly pronounced over time, reflecting intensifying social aggregation and spatial centralization. Nearest neighbor analysis indicates that clustering was statistically significant across all periods ($p = 0$), with the nearest neighbor ratio consistently remaining below 1 (Table 4). The average inter-site distance decreased from 4090.22 m (pre-Yangshao) to 1666.94 m (Bronze Age), suggesting stronger spatial cohesion and potentially indicating institutionalized settlement planning or defense-driven aggregation.

Kernel density analysis reveals a spatial transition from linear to multi-core settlement organization, with the emergence of stable regional centers by the Bronze Age. High-density clusters during the pre-Yangshao period were concentrated along the Wei River and Jing River. By the Yangshao period, the Hehuang Valley emerged as a new center. The Longshan period experienced peak aggregation intensity and a polarization trend, while in the Bronze Age, a tri-polar pattern formed: the Hehuang Valley (upper reaches), the Fenwei Basin (middle reaches), and the Haidai region (lower reaches) (Fig. 4). Although peak density declined slightly during the Bronze Age, the overall level of aggregation remained significantly higher than in earlier periods.

The spatial evolution trajectory of settlements indicates that the middle reaches of the Yellow River have consistently served as the core development zone supporting a continuous high-density settlement distribution. The upper reaches have formed a secondary center in the Hehuang Valley since the Yangshao period, which continued into the Bronze Age. In contrast, the lower reaches exhibited a long-standing settlement gap, with substantial aggregation only emerging in the Bronze Age.

4.2. Cluster differentiation and the emergence of regional settlement centers

The evolution of prehistoric settlements in the Yellow River Basin from the pre-Yangshao period to the Bronze Age, demonstrates increasingly distinct cluster differentiation and the emergence of stable regional centers. This evolution reflects both demographic expansion and institutional transformation. Results from cluster analysis indicate that the BSS/TSS ratio exceeded 0.8 across all cultural periods (Table 5), suggesting that between-cluster variability was consistently greater than within-cluster variability. This finding confirms that settlement groups were not randomly distributed; rather, they exhibited significant spatial structuring. In combination with the nearest neighbor analysis, which revealed decreasing average inter-site distances over time, these results demonstrate a phased intensification of spatial aggregation and a transition from dispersed habitation to more organized settlement systems (Fig. 5a).

Chronological cluster distributions reveal a transition from early spatial dispersion to progressive consolidation and core-periphery structuring. In the pre-Yangshao period (9.0–7.0 cal. ka BP), 27 settlement groups were identified; however, their activity was primarily concentrated in two centuries (8.0–7.0 cal. ka BP). Particularly around 7.0 cal. ka BP, settlement clusters displayed internal differentiation and spatial dispersion, likely reflecting the experimental and exploratory nature of early settlement activities. During the Yangshao period (7.0–5.0 cal. ka BP), the number of clusters decreased to 9, yet their distribution extended across 8 consecutive centuries, suggesting increasing continuity and regional integration. This pattern indicates the formation of more stable, territorially anchored communities. The Longshan period (5.0–4.0 cal. ka BP) marked a pivotal turning point in

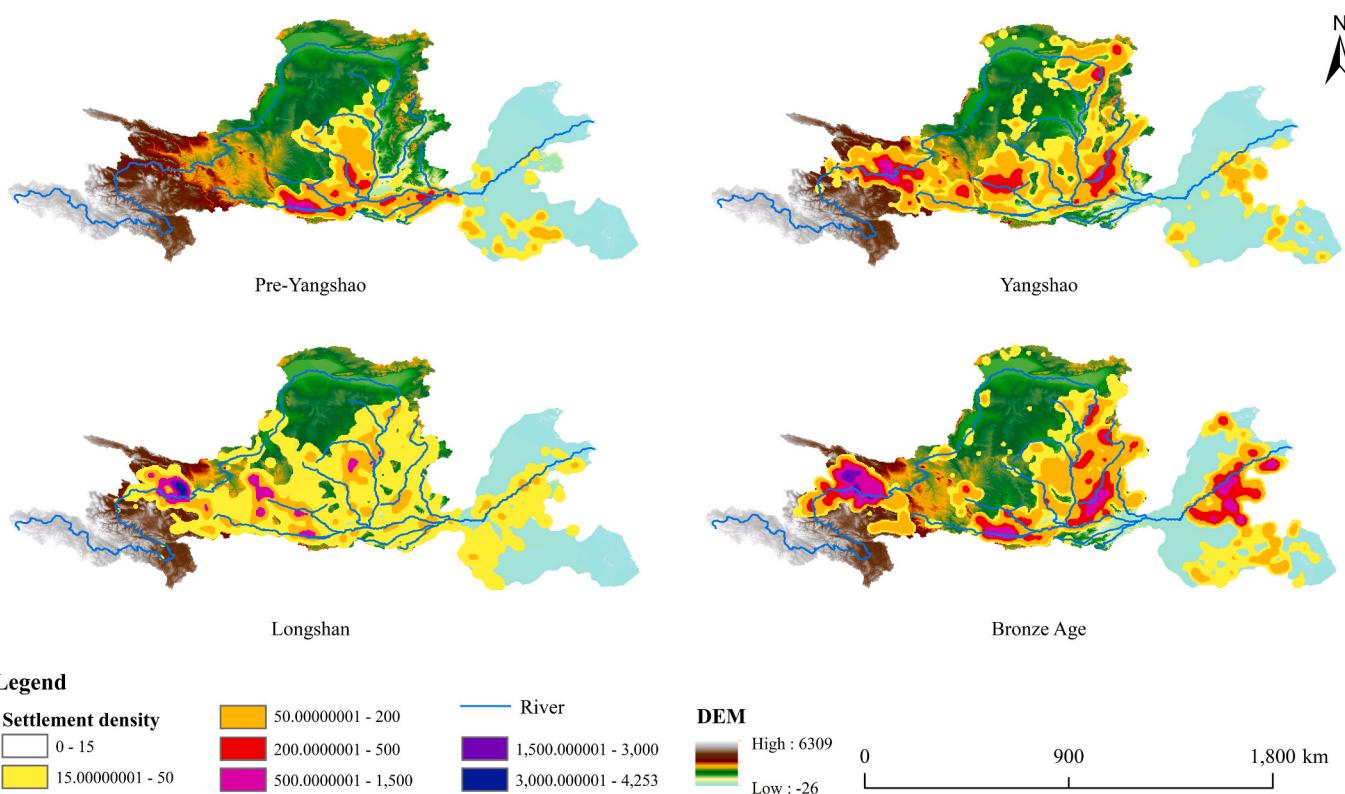


Fig. 4. Density distribution of settlement sites from pre-Yangshao to Bronze Age in the Yellow River Basin. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

Table 5
Distribution characteristics of settlement groups from Yangshao to Bronze Age before the Yellow River Basin.

| Period | Pre-Yangshao | Yangshao | Longshan | Bronze Age |
|---------|--------------|-----------|-----------|------------|
| WSS | 141.22 | 807.34 | 4440.41 | 1885.63 |
| BSS | 4899.80 | 10,978.70 | 17,785.60 | 19,780.02 |
| BSS/TSS | 0.97198 | 0.93150 | 0.80021 | 0.91296 |

settlement dynamics. Fourteen clusters were distributed across 10 century-scale intervals, indicating an increased frequency of site relocation or reorganization. This may reflect growing pressure from environmental stress (e.g., flood risk) or competition for resources, prompting flexible spatial strategies. By the Bronze Age (4.0–2.0 cal. ka BP), both the number of clusters (17) and their temporal persistence had increased. Twelve consecutive periods exhibited stable clustering patterns, demonstrating sustained spatial cohesion and the emergence of long-term core areas, often associated with early forms of sociopolitical centralization.

The internal evolution of settlement groups indicates an increasing spatial concentration and hierarchical organization from the Longshan to Bronze Age periods. As population density and settlement quantity increased, so too did the need for effective resource management and spatial governance. The spatial contraction of individual cluster areas, coupled with the overlapping distribution of multiple clusters in core zones, signifies a trend toward spatial centralization and planned organization (Fig. 5b). From the Longshan period onward, clusters began to overlap significantly, particularly in middle and upper basin areas, marking a departure from earlier expansionary settlement models.

The spatial trajectory of cluster development reflects the shifting political and economic cores of the basin over time. In the pre-Yangshao period, settlement activity was predominantly concentrated in the middle and lower reaches, with expansion into peripheral areas. During

the Yangshao and Longshan periods, clusters expanded into the upper Yellow River Basin, especially the Hehuang Valley, forming secondary centers that persisted into the Bronze Age. This phenomenon reflects not only environmental adaptation but also the redistribution of political and economic functions along the river corridor. By the Bronze Age, the spatial overlap between clusters intensified, and an increasing number of settlements displayed signs of defensive architecture (e.g., moats), urban features, and functional differentiation (Liu, 2007b; Sun et al., 2017).

The emergence of regional centers during the Bronze Age represents a culmination of spatial, social, and political transformation. The Bronze Age witnessed the transition from community-based clusters to proto-urban systems (Du and Gong, 2023). Settlements increasingly formed large, centralized clusters, many of which evolved into administrative or ceremonial centers. The rise of towns, walled settlements, and differentiated spatial hierarchies indicates the institutionalization of governance structures and the spatial imprint of early state formation (Liu, 2005). This transformation did not occur uniformly but emerged through the spatial consolidation of overlapping settlement groups, which served as nuclei for early political units. These developments accelerated social complexity and reshaped the settlement landscape of the Yellow River Basin.

4.3. Paleoflood and erosion-deposition under environmental stress

Frequent and intensified paleoflood events between 4.2 and 3.0 cal. ka BP significantly reshaped the distribution of settlements in the Yellow River Basin, underscoring the critical role of hydrological stress in driving human spatial reorganization. A compilation of paleoflood data from 73 representative locations across the basin (Appendix B) shows that 68.91 % of dated flood records are concentrated in the middle reaches, where loess-paleosol sequences provide high-resolution flood archives. These areas, particularly the Wei River and Fen River systems, exhibit well-preserved overbank flood deposits that have been primarily

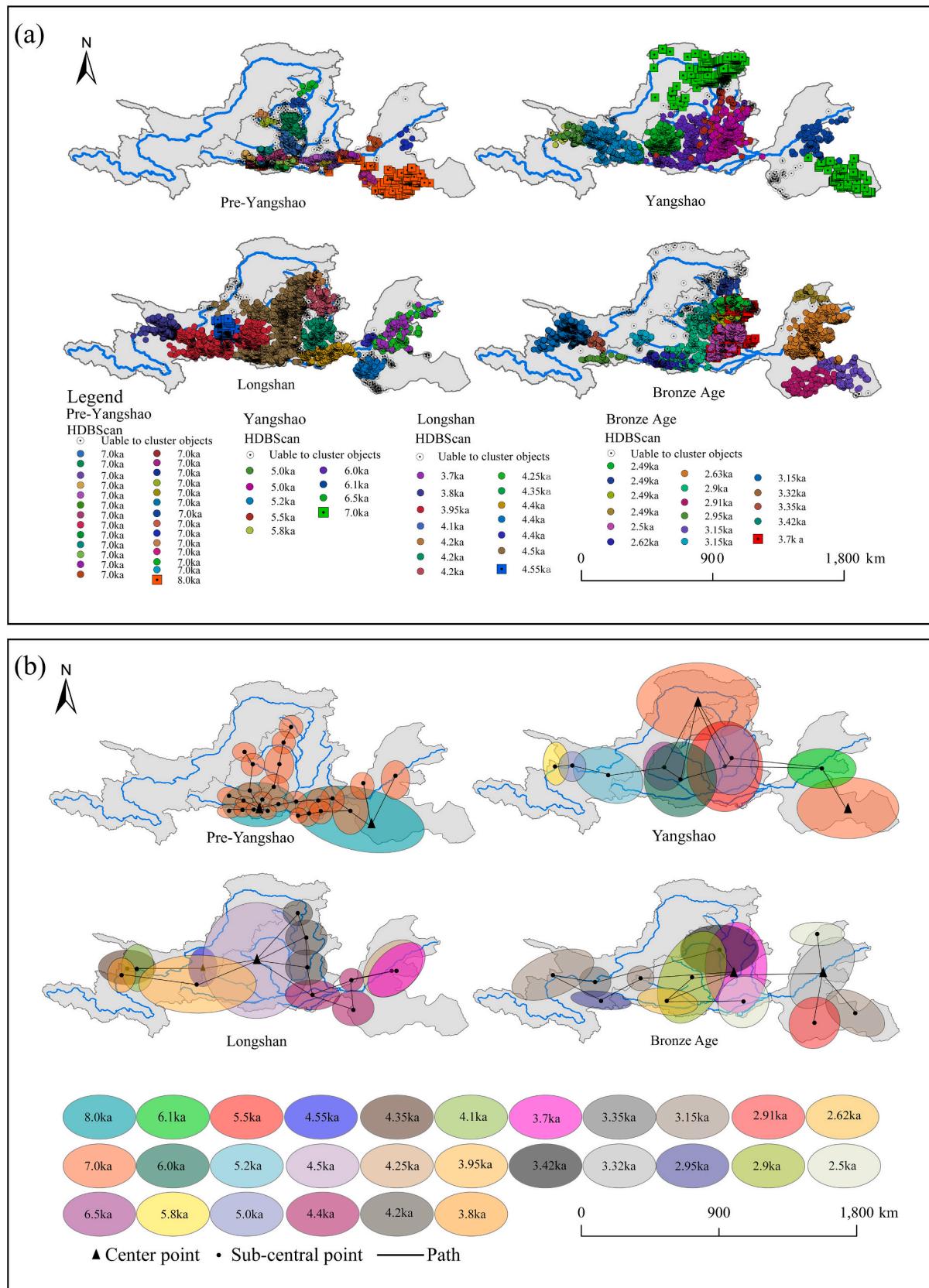


Fig. 5. Distribution (a) and development path (b) of settlement groups in the Yellow River Basin from pre-Yangshao to Bronze Age. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

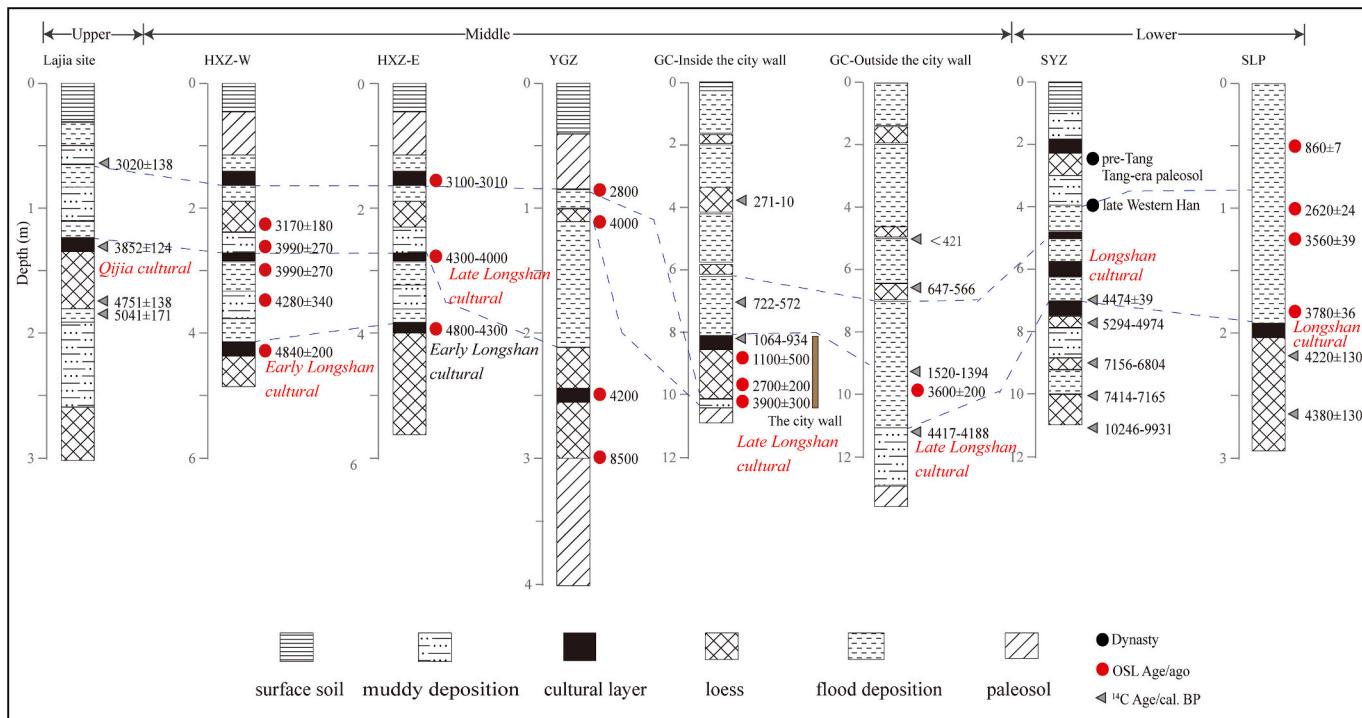


Fig. 6. Major flood events and cultural changes in the Yellow River Basin. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

dated using ^{14}C and OSL methods. Temporal clustering analysis reveals two major peaks in flood frequency: 4.2–4.0 cal. ka BP and 3.2–3.0 cal. ka BP, which correspond to periods of climatic instability and significant social transformation. These bimodal flood episodes coincide with the late Longshan and early Bronze Age, respectively, suggesting a strong linkage between environmental stress and shifting settlement behavior.

Settlement responses to flood disturbances adhered to a recurring spatial logic: retreat from flood-prone areas during peak hydrological stress, followed by rapid reoccupation upon environmental stabilization. Stratigraphic analyses of typical floodplain profiles (Fig. 6) reveal thin, discontinuous cultural layers during periods of high flood frequency, indicating short-term site use and repeated abandonment. This supports the hypothesis of a cyclical human–flood interaction model characterized by “water enters, people retreat; water retreats, people return.” During the late Longshan period, in particular, the thinning of archaeological horizons corresponds with intensified fluvial activity. These patterns reflect not only the disruption of settlements induced by floods but also an increased capacity for rapid rebuilding and spatial mobility, indicating adaptive flexibility under environmental stress.

The erosion-sedimentation processes in the Yellow River Basin exhibit clear regularity. Climatically driven erosion-sedimentation processes demonstrate extensive synchronicity (Wang et al., 2014; Xue, 1993; Zhao et al., 2020), with simultaneous occurrences of intense erosion events documented across various geographical locations and geomorphological units (Fig. 7). The intensity of erosion-sedimentation shows systematic correlations with climatic zones, topographic features, and vegetation distribution. For instance, under identical precipitation conditions, areas with natural vegetation that have lower coverage experience significantly enhanced erosion (Liu et al., 1994; Yao, 2009). Furthermore, the phases of erosion-sedimentation align closely with palaeoclimatic reconstructions (Fig. 8b, c).

In contrast, anthropogenically induced erosion-sedimentation displays a distinct hysteretic nature (Yao, 2009), wherein the initiation of accelerated erosion conspicuously lags behind the emergence of pivotal anthropogenic indicators in the region (He et al., 2004; Saito et al., 2001; Xu, 2001) (Fig. 7b). Moreover, core erosion-sedimentation zones

exhibit substantial spatial overlap with documented areas of agricultural activity and settlement distribution (Fig. 5b) (Fig. 7).

Sedimentary data reveal a two-phase acceleration in erosion–deposition processes, with the first stage driven by climate and early agriculture, and the second stage increasingly influenced by human disturbance. In the upper reaches of the Yellow River, lake sedimentation rates between 8.0 and 3.0 cal. ka BP reached 0.08–0.125 cm/a, with a clear peak around 3.5–3.0 cal. ka BP (Fig. 7b-1). In the middle reaches, loess-derived colluvial and alluvial deposition during the early Holocene peaked between 8.0 and 6.0 cal. ka BP at rates of 0.15–0.8 cm/a, forming extensive fertile layers that supported agricultural expansion. This high depositional phase corresponds with the peak of the Yangshao culture, indicating a strong climate–agriculture–sedimentation coupling. In the lower reaches, sedimentation remained high (>0.12 cm/a) from 7.0 to 4.0 cal. ka BP, reflecting sustained alluvial accumulation along the floodplain margins.

The second phase of sedimentary acceleration (3.0–2.0 cal. ka BP) signifies intensified anthropogenic disturbance, marking the transition from climate-dominated to human-dominated landscape processes. Following the mid-Holocene climatic optimum, environmental stress increased due to declining moisture levels and growing human land use pressures. Warm and humid conditions during 8.0–4.0 cal. ka BP (average temperatures ~1.5–2.5 °C higher than present) enabled agricultural intensification, but also led to deforestation, slope instability, and rising soil erosion. By the late Holocene, erosion rates in the basin significantly surpassed natural baselines (Jos et al., 2017; Nearing et al., 2017). The resulting increase in sediment load in the middle and lower reaches suggests extensive land clearance, field expansion, and increasingly centralized water management systems.

5. Discussion

5.1. From dispersion to aggregation: The spatial logic of early social organizations

The transition from dispersed to aggregated settlement patterns in

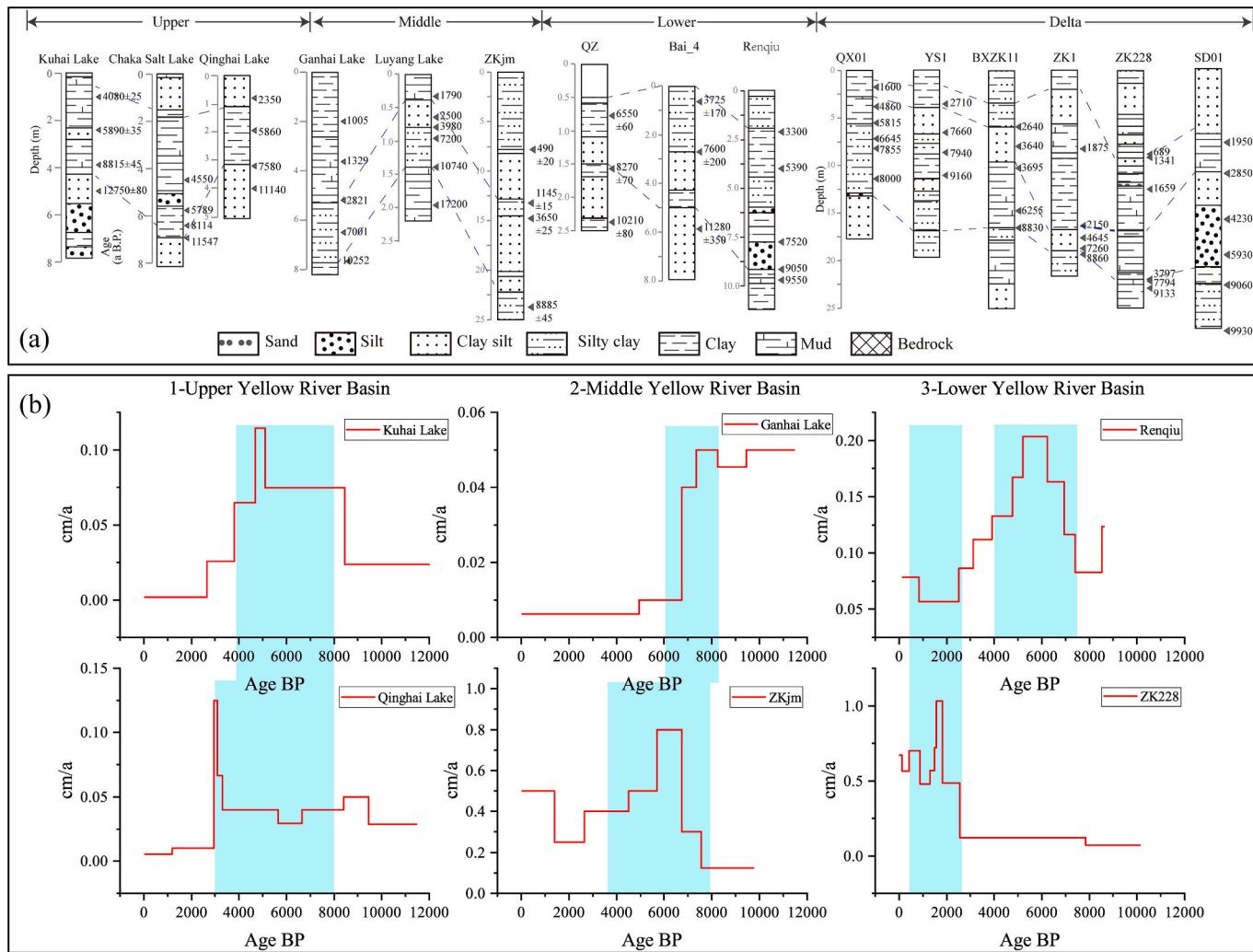


Fig. 7. Sedimentary change process in the upper, middle and lower reaches of the Yellow River Basin. (a) The main sedimentary profile; (b) is the deposition rate of the sedimentary section. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

the Yellow River Basin reflects an adaptive spatial strategy shaped by environmental opportunity, population growth, and sociopolitical transformation. Quantitative analysis of settlement data from the pre-Yangshao to the Bronze Age reveals significant spatiotemporal differentiation. Although the total number of settlements increased continuously, the growth rate varied across periods (Table 3), reflecting the complex interplay between environmental conditions, demographic expansion, and technological advances (Li et al., 2022; Liu and Reid, 2020; Xu et al., 2019). The most rapid increase occurred from the pre-Yangshao to the Yangshao period, coinciding with the mid-Holocene climatic optimum. Paleoenvironmental reconstructions indicate that during 6.2–5.6 cal. ka BP, the Wei River Basin experienced an average temperature of 14.8 °C and annual precipitation of 831.1 mm—warmer and wetter than present conditions—providing favorable ecological conditions for settlement expansion and agricultural intensification (Chen et al., 2015b; Li et al., 2025; Sun et al., 2016; Wei, 2022).

The domestication of foxtail and broomcorn millet, which began in the pre-Yangshao period, entered a phase of intensified production by the mid-Yangshao period (Liu et al., 2012). Archaeobotanical studies show a significant increase in millet consumption between 6.3 and 5.5 cal. ka BP, marking a transition to fully developed millet farming systems (Ma et al., 2023). These agricultural advances provided the material foundation for increased settlement density and territorial expansion. By the Longshan period, this trend accelerated with the emergence of proto-urban centers and increasingly complex settlement

hierarchies (Demattè, 1999; Wang and Guo, 2016). For example, Shima, a massive walled site on the northern Loess Plateau, covered over 4 million square meters (Cui, 2024; Sun et al., 2017), while Taosi in the Central Plains region reached approximately 2.8 million square meters (Li et al., 2013b), both signaling the rise of centralized power and social complexity.

The process of settlement centralization in the Yellow River Basin presents distinct characteristics of macro spatial-temporal continuity and regional differentiation, influenced by socio-political conditions. Spatial aggregation patterns varied across the upper, middle, and lower reaches of the Yellow River. The middle reaches consistently maintained high settlement densities from the Yangshao to the Bronze Age (Fig. 4), serving as a core zone for cultural and demographic development (Dong et al., 2022). In contrast, the Hehuang Valley in the upper basin began to exhibit significant agglomeration only during the late Yangshao period. Archaeobotanical data from the Guanting Basin show an increase in carbonized millet and sorghum from 0.71 to 34.1 grains/l between early and late Yangshao, reflecting a marked intensification of agriculture and permanent occupation in upland areas (Cui et al., 2017; Dong et al., 2013). The lower Yellow River remained relatively underdeveloped until the Bronze Age, likely due to the environmental instability of its floodplain (Wang, 1993). Settlement development in the North China Plain (NCP) within the lower Yellow River during the early to middle Neolithic period significantly lagged behind that of the middle-upper reaches. The primary reason for this disparity was not resource

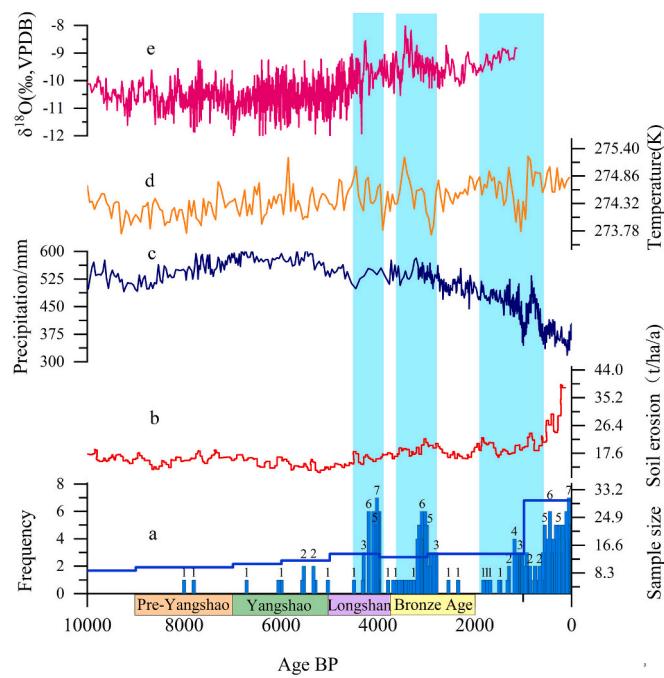


Fig. 8. Proxy indexes of climate change and environmental change in the Yellow River Basin in recent ten thousand years. (a) is the ancient flood frequency in the Yellow River Basin, the sample size represents the ancient flood record points collected.(Zhou and Yu, 2013); (b) The amount of soil erosion in the reconstructed Yellow River Basin(Zhao et al., 2022b); (c) Precipitation based on pollen reconstruction in the high seas(Chen et al., 2015b); (d) Global temperature change for reconstruction(Shi et al., 2012); (e) is the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ variation of Magou Cave (Cai et al., 2021). The blue band indicates the correspondence between the increase of flood frequency, the increase of soil erosion and climate change. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

scarcity, but rather the region's unique and dynamic paleoenvironmental setting, particularly the combined effects of the mid-Holocene marine transgression, coastal subsidence, and the synergistic impact of fluvial dynamics, such as river diversion.

First, sea-level rise and coastline transgression occurred under the warm and humid mid-Holocene climate, resulting in global sea-level rise (Lambeck et al., 2014). This transgression event is extensively documented in the North China Plain (NCP). Numerous studies utilizing drill cores, marine microfossils (such as foraminifera and diatoms), and radiocarbon dating have reconstructed the paleo-coastline positions (Li et al., 2001; Liu et al., 2016). Diatom analysis of drill cores from the western coast of Bohai Bay indicates that brackish-saline species predominated in the transgressive sediment layers, while freshwater diatoms were exceedingly rare (Li et al., 2013; Shang et al., 2013). This finding confirms that the region's aquatic environment was persistently saline rather than intermittently inundated. Consequently, what is now the flat eastern NCP was once a vast expanse of shallow sea, lagoons, and salt marshes, lacking the fundamental conditions for large-scale agriculture and settlement.

Second, the NCP itself is a massive sedimentary basin filled by sediments from the Yellow River and other rivers, with relatively poor geological stability and subject to tectonic subsidence and compaction-induced subsidence (Saito et al., 2001; Xue, 1993). This ongoing subsidence, coupled with sea-level rise, further prolonged the scope and duration of seawater inundation, thereby delaying delta progradation and the formation of new land.

Finally, it is crucial to emphasize that marine transgression was not the sole factor; it interacted synergistically with the high avulsion frequency of the lower Yellow River (Saito et al., 2001). Although the

substantial sediment load delivered by the Yellow River supplied material for land building, under high sea-level conditions, rapid sediment accumulation at the river mouth diminished the channel gradient, which in turn increased the likelihood of channel breaches and avulsions. Each avulsion event caused floodwaters to spread extensively across the low-lying plain, remobilizing salts, sediments, and organic matter, and prolonging the environmental recovery cycle.

Therefore, the delayed formation of prehistoric settlements in the North China Plain resulted from the combined effects of marine transgression, coastal subsidence, and the high avulsion frequency of the Yellow River. The mid-Holocene sea-level rise created a paleoenvironment characterized by high salinity, limited land availability, and frequent natural disasters—a conclusion strongly supported by diatom and geochemical proxy data. This specific environment posed fundamental constraints on Neolithic societies dependent on dryland agriculture. It was not until the late Longshan period through the Bronze Age, alongside advancements in water management technology and the increasing complexity of social organization (Appendix C), that humans finally acquired the capacity for large-scale exploitation and sustained settlement of this vast alluvial plain. Stratigraphic comparative research at the Gaocheng site in Henan demonstrates that defensive structures, such as walls, effectively mitigated flood risk and provided conditions for long-term habitation in low-lying areas (Yang et al., 2023) (Fig. 6).

Vertical and hydrological shifts in site selection reflect a dual strategy of resource acquisition and disaster avoidance. During the Yangshao and Longshan periods, settlements migrated to higher altitudes and farther distances from rivers (Fig. 2). This spatial adjustment reflects a growing awareness of flood risks and the need to balance access to water with safety (Gao et al., 2022; Hou and Zhu, 2000; Li and Gao, 2021; Wu et al., 2016). Domain analysis in the Gaogang region shows that sites located at the intersection of rivers and hills enjoy greater resource diversity—access to aquatic resources, arable land, and stone—than riparian zones (Yan et al., 2017). Geological evidence from the late Holocene indicates widespread flooding in the lower basin, supporting the hypothesis that flood risks drove upland migration and encouraged more dispersed, resilient site selection (Li and Gao, 2021; Qin et al., 2022; Storozum et al., 2017; Yu et al., 2020).

The spatial development of settlement clusters illustrates the dynamic structuring of early social complexity. From the pre-Yangshao to the Yangshao period, settlements expanded outward from a core zone in the middle reaches (Fig. 5b). By the Longshan period, this evolved into a multi-center network, marking the rise of a chiefdom society characterized by regional leadership and symbolic centrality (Liu and Chen, 2017). During the Bronze Age, overlapping cluster zones became prevalent, particularly in regions with regime-type settlements. These overlapping patterns suggest a legacy of settlement continuity and indicate enhanced coordination, hierarchy, and territorial governance (Du and Gong, 2023). This core-to-periphery diffusion model reflects both the ecological constraints of land suitability and the centripetal force of emerging political centers.

5.2. Climatic hazards as a catalyst for the reorganization of settlement landscapes

The climatic volatility of the mid to late Holocene, particularly the frequency of abrupt precipitation anomalies driven by the East Asian summer monsoon, served as a significant external force that reshaped prehistoric settlement landscapes in the Yellow River Basin (Chen et al., 2005; Liu and Feng, 2012; Ruo et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2019b). While environmental change has long been acknowledged as a backdrop to prehistoric transformation, this study demonstrates that abrupt climate events—specifically those resulting in floods, erosion, and habitat instability—played a catalytic role in reorganizing settlement patterns from the pre-Yangshao period to the Bronze Age. By integrating key paleoclimatic proxies (Fig. 8), including $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records from Magou Cave (Cai et al., 2021), pollen precipitation reconstruction in the Gonghai

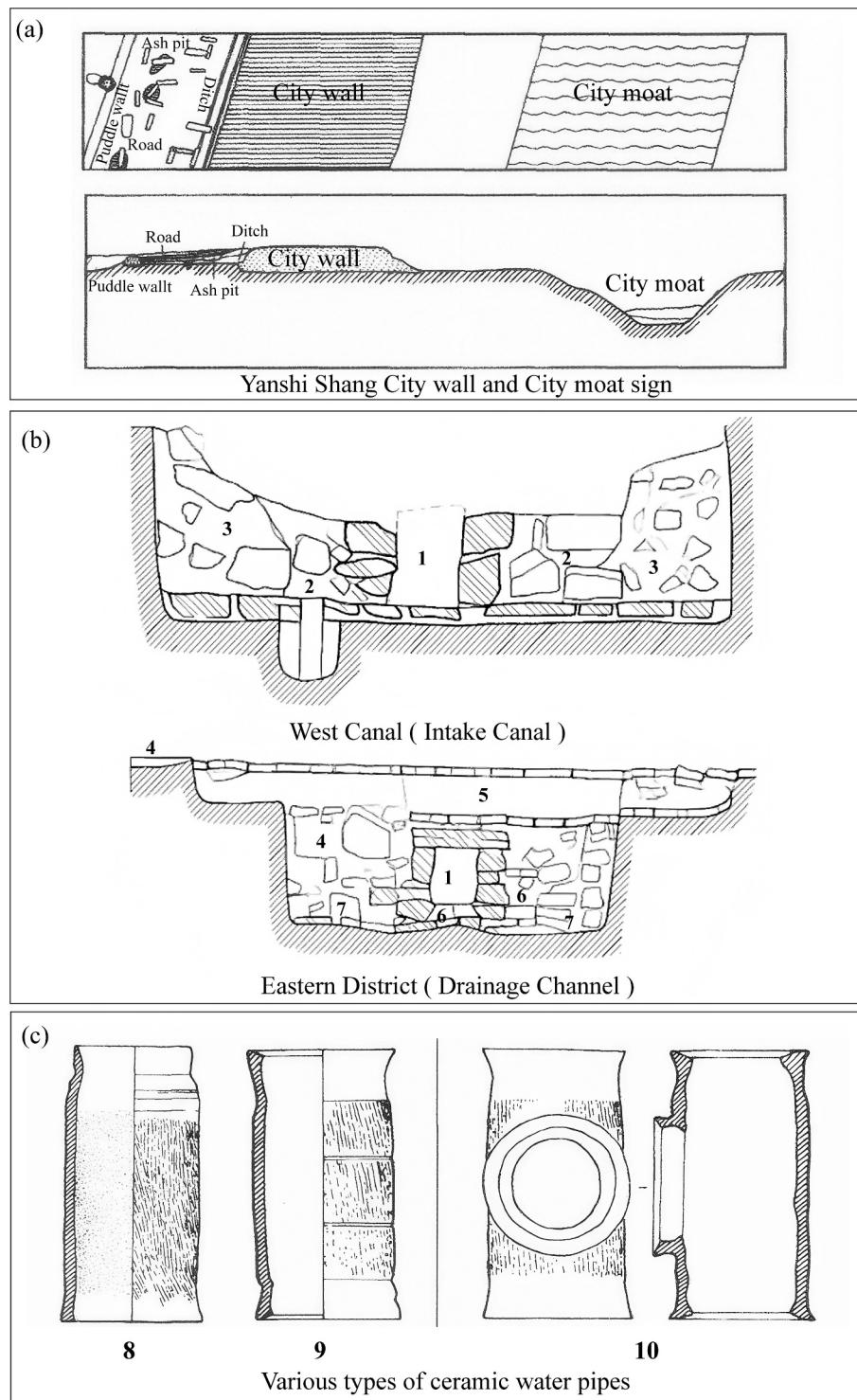


Fig. 9. Anyang Yin Xu Gathering and Drainage System. According to 'Henan Yanshi Shangcheng Gongcheng Chiyuan Site' (Zhang, 2015). (a) Yanshi Shang City wall and City moat sign; (b) Yanshi Shangcheng palace city pool garden drainage channel section; (c) All kinds of pottery water pipes in Yanshi Shangcheng. 1. The reconstructed waterway; 2. Reconstruction part; 3. Early waterway stone wall; 4. Gray soil layer; 5. Soil layer; 6. Silt in the early waterway; 7. Early waterway stone plug; 8. Plug-in ceramic tube; 9. Flat mouth type ceramic tube; 10. Three-way ceramic tube.

(Chen et al., 2015b), global temperature trends (Shi et al., 2012), soil erosion indices (Zhao et al., 2022b), and flood frequency records (Zhou et al., 2014), we constructed a basin-wide environmental stress timeline to assess its correlation with spatial settlement dynamics.

The Holocene climate phases in the Yellow River Basin were characterized by a cold-dry early Holocene, a warm-humid mid-Holocene, and a late Holocene return to cooler, drier conditions—with 4.0–3.0

cal. ka BP marking a pivotal climatic transition (Cui et al., 2017; Huang et al., 2004; Lu et al., 2013). Within this broader climatic framework, several abrupt events are noteworthy: dry-cold episodes around 5.5, 4.0, and 3.3–3.0 cal. ka BP coincide with cultural transitions between Yangshao, Longshan, and early Bronze Age societies (Fig. 8c, Fig. 8e). These episodes were associated with increased environmental unpredictability, notably greater rainfall seasonality and extreme flood

events. Sedimentary archives and archaeological stratigraphy reveal widespread settlement relocations during these periods (Wei, 2022; Yang, 2013). Climatic instability, rather than uniform environmental deterioration, appears to have disrupted existing settlement structures and triggered spatial reorganization.

Flooding, as a direct consequence of intensified climate variability, has significantly influenced settlement siting, duration, and form. Flood frequency reconstructions across 73 dated sites (Appendix B) reveal two major peaks at 4.2–4.0 and 3.2–3.0 cal. ka BP, concentrated in the middle and lower Yellow River (Zhang et al., 2019). These periods coincide with substantial social transitions and phases of site abandonment. From the Qijia cultural strata in the upper basin (Ma et al., 2012) to the YGZ (Yang, 2013), HXZ (Zha et al., 2009), GC (Yang et al., 2023), and SYZ sites (Situ et al., 2020) in the middle and lower reaches (Fig. 6), multiple archaeological layers exhibit flood-induced sedimentary hiatuses or cultural thinning. The Longshan cultural horizon is particularly affected, with high flood frequency correlating with widespread relocation of settlements to higher elevations and increased distances from rivers (Huang et al., 2011). Defensive architectural features such as moats and raised platforms, evident in Erlitou and other Bronze Age sites, reflect a transition from reactive retreat to proactive urban planning in response to hydrological threats (Li and Gao, 2021; Liu and Chen, 2017; Yang et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2019).

Furthermore, significant differences exist in flood frequency and mechanisms between settlement sites in the upper-middle and lower reaches of the Yellow River Basin. In the middle-upper reaches, numerous flood layers indicate a high frequency of occurrence, driving deep valley incision and sediment redistribution (Zha et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2019). Societies in these regions primarily adapted through vertical migration (relocating to higher terraces) as a key strategy (Fig. 2). In contrast, the lower reaches are characterized by large-scale, low-energy, yet prolonged inundation due to channel avulsions (Xue, 1993) and overbank flooding across the extremely gentle gradient (Shi et al., 2025). This environmental setting has created vast, uninhabitable marshlands and frequent catastrophic floods, necessitating larger-scale and more centralized management coordination. The emergence of large-scale settlements (Chen et al., 2012) became feasible only during the late Longshan period and into the Bronze Age, coinciding with the development of more complex political structures, which also helps explain the delayed development observed in the North China Plain of the lower Yellow River region.

Soil erosion and accelerated sedimentation, as secondary hazards, not only degrade land quality but also redefine the spatial suitability of settlement zones. Reconstructed erosion curves (Fig. 7b) show increasing rates from 5.0 to 3.0 cal. ka BP, forming a distinct erosion peak in the late Longshan period. In the middle reaches, anthropogenic disturbance—such as slope agriculture and vegetation clearance—amplified natural erosion processes (Jing and Chen, 1983). By the late Holocene, human-driven erosion fundamentally altered the depositional landscape, impacting sediment composition, catchment stability, and river morphology. As observed in lake records from the upper basin, sedimentation rates reached 0.125 cm/a during 8.0–3.0 cal. ka BP (Fig. 7b-1), while in the midstream alluvial plains, peak deposition between 8.0 and 6.0 cal. ka BP (up to 0.8 cm/a) corresponded with the flourishing of Yangshao agriculture (Fig. 7b-2) (Yang and Yuan, 2001). In the lower basin, multiple cultural layers in profiles like SYZ suggest recurring abandonment and reoccupation, indicating the dual role of floods and erosion in displacing populations and renewing agricultural land (Situ et al., 2020).

Paleofloods and accelerated sedimentation jointly constrained settlement stability while simultaneously contributing to the formation of fertile land, producing a dual impact on prehistoric socio-environmental systems. On one hand, repeated flood events displaced human populations and disrupted settlement continuity, especially in low-lying alluvial plains. On the other hand, sedimentation contributed to the formation of agriculturally productive floodplains, which became the

basis for reoccupation and long-term development. This dual role of disaster and opportunity shaped settlement decision-making throughout the Holocene. The spatial shift toward distant-water settlement patterns during and after the 4.2 cal. ka BP event further supports the conclusion that flood risk increasingly influenced site selection strategies.

The erosion-sediment system of the Yellow River Basin functioned both as a constraint and an enabler of settlement evolution, with paleofloods serving as key agents of spatial restructuring. This dynamic feedback loop between environmental disturbance and social response—where flood-induced displacement was followed by strategic resettlement and land-use adaptation—demonstrates that climate-driven processes were not merely destructive but were integrally woven into the fabric of settlement evolution and state emergence in the basin.

The spatial retreat from floodplains and the movement to upland areas during periods of climate stress reflect a deliberate adaptation strategy that evolved over time. Initially, settlements clustered close to rivers to maximize access to water and fertile land. However, as flood risk intensified and social systems evolved, human responses shifted toward elevational migration, buffer distancing, and engineered protection. Settlement site analysis during the Longshan period confirms increased average elevation and expanded distance from riverbanks (Fig. 2, Fig. 3b). This trajectory—retreat, adaptation, and reoccupation—captures the adaptive flexibility of prehistoric societies in balancing productivity with safety.

The spatial impacts of climate-induced hazards were ultimately mediated through social transformation, especially during the Bronze Age. By the second millennium BCE, advancements in productivity, governance, and infrastructure enabled societies not only to cope with environmental fluctuations, but also to centralize in response to these challenges. The emergence of the Erlitou capital and other regime-type cities in the Yiluo Basin and Zhengzhou region (Yang et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2019) marks a turning point: settlement distribution during this period was increasingly shaped by political control rather than environmental constraints. The excavation report of the Yanshi Shang City reveals that the capital of the Shang Dynasty established a multi-level water management system characterized by diverse scales and sophisticated designs (Zhang, 2015). This system included not only protective moats and walls surrounding the capital but also an intricate network of drainage facilities within the city (Fig. 9). Notably, artificial trench systems were constructed along the periphery of rammed-earth walls, serving dual purposes of drainage and defense. The advanced functional zoning reflects significant progress in productivity, urban governance, and infrastructure development during this period. These innovations positively influenced both the city and the regime by enhancing the environmental adaptability and safety resilience of the capital (Li et al., 2023). Furthermore, hydraulic infrastructures underwent prolonged development in prehistoric and historic cities of North China (Appendix C). Efficient drainage and flood prevention mechanisms mitigated waterlogging risks and ensured urban security, while the coordinated design of moats and walls strengthened military defense capabilities (Zhao, 2021). This also reflects that with the development of the regime in the Bronze Age, the subjective initiative of human society to cope with environmental changes gradually increased.

Furthermore, The relocation of the Zhou capital exemplifies how early state development shaped settlement patterns. The relocation of the Zhou capital, as documented in the Book of Poetry·Daya·Mian (Zhou, 2019), illustrates how state development drove settlement movement. Pressured by the Rongdi tribes, a nomadic group, the ancient Danfu led his people from Bin to the foot of Mount Qi. After three generations of consolidation on the Zhouyuan plateau, continued threats and expansionist aims prompted King Wen to establish Feng and King Wu to build Hao (Zhang, 2014). Their establishment was motivated not only by political and military strategies aimed at confronting the Shang Dynasty but also by the eastward expansion of Zhou's political influence (Pan, 2011). These capitals functioned as strategic hubs for eastern operations and evolved into the political core of the Western Zhou, underscoring

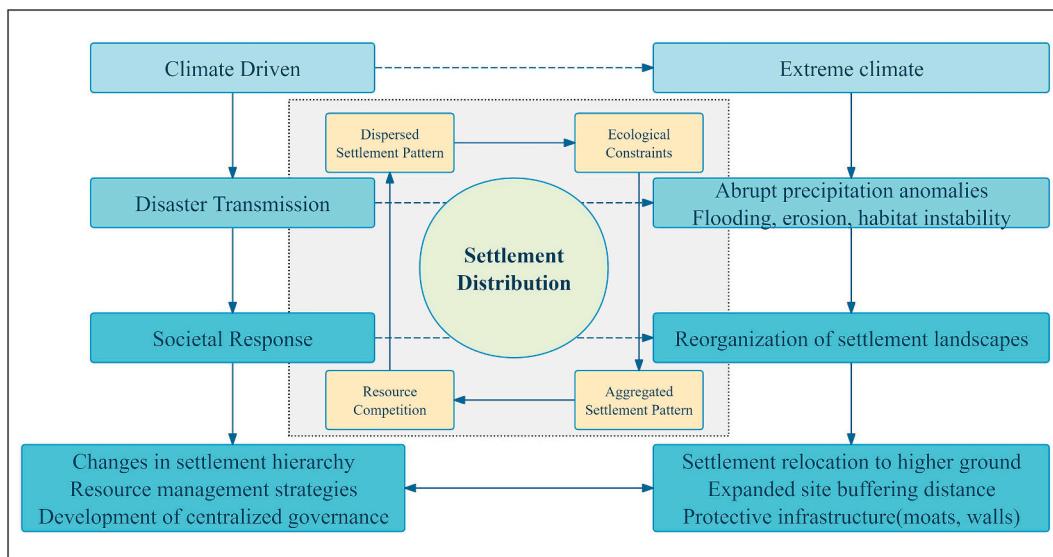


Fig. 10. “Climate-driven-disaster transmission-social response” process model diagram.

how state power directly shaped the shift of settlements.

Climatic hazards such as floods and erosion, served as both constraints and catalysts in the evolution of settlement landscapes (Fig. 10). These hazards necessitated relocation, prompted the development of new spatial strategies, and ultimately stimulated institutional responses that laid the groundwork for early state formation. The close temporal correspondence between peaks of paleofloods and erosion and the restructuring of settlement distributions strongly supports the conclusion that environmental stress—especially in the form of compound disasters—was a decisive force in shaping the prehistoric human–land relationship in the Yellow River Basin.

6. Conclusions

This study systematically examined the spatial and temporal dynamics of prehistoric settlements in the Yellow River Basin, integrating archaeological site distribution, geomorphic characteristics, and climate-induced environmental stress to elucidate how human–environment interactions influenced settlement evolution. This research highlights several major conclusions regarding prehistoric settlement dynamics.

Firstly, the temporal evolution of settlement patterns from the pre-Yangshao to the Bronze Age exhibits a progressive transition from dispersion to agglomeration. Although the total number of settlements increased over time, the growth rate fluctuated across periods. Spatially, three distinct distributional phases were observed: an initial dispersed pattern centered on the Wei River Basin during the pre-Yangshao period; a reorganization phase during the Yangshao and Longshan periods, characterized by vertical expansion (higher elevations, greater distance from rivers) and horizontal diffusion (notably toward the upstream Hehuang Valley); and a multi-center agglomeration pattern during the Bronze Age, marking spatial integration at the basin scale. Throughout this process, the middle reaches consistently remained the core settlement zone, while the upper reaches developed into a stable secondary center from the Yangshao period onward, and the lower reaches experienced delayed but rapid intensification of settlement clustering in the Bronze Age.

Secondly, settlement clustering evolved toward increased scale and differentiation. While the overall number of settlement groups exhibited a decreasing trend, the spatial structure became more complex. The emergence of more concentrated settlement cores and overlapping settlement zones—especially during the Bronze Age—reflects a rise in social stratification and institutional coordination. This spatial

reorganization indicates that the Yellow River Basin underwent a profound division of social and economic functions across settlements, laying the groundwork for the formation of early state regimes.

Finally, the spatial reconfiguration of prehistoric settlements was closely linked to environmental changes, particularly climate-driven disasters such as floods and soil erosion. During the Yangshao and Longshan periods, settlements increasingly relocated to higher altitudes, steeper slopes, and greater distances from rivers, corresponding with stratigraphic records of frequent flood events and elevated sedimentation rates. These spatial adjustments confirm the presence of adaptive strategies aimed at disaster avoidance in response to increased hydrological risk. By the Bronze Age, however, the formation of a multi-center settlement network and the rise of early political centers suggest that spatial expansion mechanisms had begun to transcend passive environmental responses, reflecting a regime-led reorganization of human–land relationships.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Tingting Zhou and Hongming He collected the research data, analyzed data, and wrote the original draft. Hongming He, Nufang Fang and Jianxin Cui designed the research and provided suggestions for improving the manuscript. Hongfei Zhao provided data correction. All authors modified the final manuscript.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.palaeo.2025.113280>.

Data availability

The authors confirm that all data necessary for supporting the scientific findings of this paper have been provided.

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