## University of Wollongong

# **Research Online**

Faculty of Science, Medicine and Health - Papers: Part B

Faculty of Science, Medicine and Health

2020

# A Multi-User Mobile GIS Solution for Documenting Large Surface Scatters: An Example from the Doring River, South Africa

Christopher J.H. Ames

Matthew Shaw

Corey O'Driscoll

Alex Mackay

Follow this and additional works at: https://ro.uow.edu.au/smhpapers1

Research Online is the open access institutional repository for the University of Wollongong. For further information contact the UOW Library: research-pubs@uow.edu.au

# A Multi-User Mobile GIS Solution for Documenting Large Surface Scatters: An Example from the Doring River, South Africa

#### Abstract

This article discusses the development and implementation of a mobile GIS catch-and-release system for documenting large surface artifact scatters along the Doring River in South Africa. An integrated, cloud-based mobile GIS solution was built using a suite of ESRI ArcGIS applications with an aim to maximize the speed and breadth of techno-typological data capture, while minimizing data collection errors and post-processing requirements. The system was successfully implemented during the 2019 field season of the Doring River Archaeological Project. With the ability for project-specific customization and interchangeable hardware components, the system transcends geographic region and temporal focus. Moreover, the system accommodates connectivity limitations commonly faced by archaeologists seeking distributed database solutions. Other challenges embraced in the design include rotating personnel throughout a field season, scalability without large financial investment, and the ability to accommodate data collection needs of other components of the larger multi-disciplinary research project.

#### **Publication Details**

Christopher J. H. Ames, Matthew Shaw, Corey A. O'Driscoll & Alex Mackay (2020) A Multi-User Mobile GIS Solution for Documenting Large Surface Scatters: An Example from the Doring River, South Africa, Journal of Field Archaeology, 45(6), 394-412.

1	Development and implementation of a multi-user mobile GIS solution for documenting
2	large surface scatters: an example from the Doring River, South Africa
3	
4	Christopher J. H. Ames*
5	University of Wollongong, Wollongong, New South Wales, Australia
6	University of Victoria, Victoria, British Columbia, Canada
7	
8	Matthew Shaw
9	University of Wollongong, Wollongong, New South Wales, Australia
10	
11	Corey A. O'Driscoll
12	University of Wollongong, Wollongong, New South Wales, Australia
13	
14	Alex Mackay
15	University of Wollongong, Wollongong, New South Wales, Australia
16	University of Cape Town, Rondebosch, Western Cape, South Africa
17	
18	*Corresponding author:
19	Centre for Archaeological Science, School of Earth, Atmospheric and Life Sciences, University of

20 Wollongong, Wollongong, NSW 2522, Australia; <u>cames@uow.edu.au</u>

#### 1 Abstract

2 This article discusses the development and implementation of a mobile GIS solution for documenting large surface artifact scatters along the Doring River in South Africa. A mobile GIS "catch-and-release" 3 4 system was developed with an aim to maximize the speed and breadth of techno-typological data 5 capture, while minimizing data collection errors and post-processing requirements. The system is an 6 integrated cloud-based solution built using a suite of ESRI ArcGIS applications, and was successfully 7 implemented during the 2019 field season of the Doring River Archaeological Project. With the ability 8 for project-specific customization and interchangeable hardware components, the system transcends 9 geographic region and temporal focus. Moreover, the system accommodates connectivity limitations 10 commonly faced by archaeologists seeking distributed database solutions. Other challenges embraced in the design include rotating personnel throughout a field season, scalability without large financial 11 12 investment, and the ability to accommodate data collection needs of other components of the larger 13 multi-disciplinary research project.

#### 14 Keywords

15 Open air archaeology, GIS, GPS/GNSS, mobile computing, South Africa, stone tools, landscape

16 archaeology

#### 1 Introduction

2 The Western Cape of South Africa is a rich Stone Age archaeological region. Multiple excavated rock 3 shelters indicate repeated occupation throughout the Late Pleistocene with evidence from some 4 localities extending back into the Middle Pleistocene (Mackay, Jacobs, and Steele 2015; Jacobs et al. 2013; Mackay et al. Accepted; Marean et al. 2010; Porraz et al. 2016) (Figure 1). Changes in stone tool 5 6 manufacturing across this Middle and Later Stone Age period imply recurrent technological 7 reorganization, suggestive of broad-scale changes in resource acquisition (i.e., tool stone and 8 subsistence products) and by extension socio-economic networks (Mackay, Stewart, and Chase 2014; 9 Bousman and Brink 2018). Elucidating the nature of and reasons for such changes is important to understanding human behavioral evolution, particularly with respect to the origins of flexible systems 10 11 of land use that have allowed our species to populate most environments on earth (Roberts and Stewart 2018). 12



13

Figure 1. The Doring River Archaeological Project study area with the locations of relevant
rock shelters (circles) and the 23 open-air localities (squares) identified by the DRAP thus far
(EB = Elands Bay, DPK = Diepkloof, KK = Klein Kliphuis, KFR = Klipfonteinrand, MRS =
Mertenhof rock shelter, PL8 = Putslaagte 8). See Figure 3 for the names of open-air localities
relevant to this manuscript.

19 Deeply stratified rock shelter records such as those excavated in the Western Cape are exceptional

20 archives of past human behavior, often preserving otherwise scarce organic remains (Mackay et al.

- 21 Accepted; Miller, Goldberg, and Berna 2013; Porraz et al. 2013). Not surprisingly—and warranted by
- 22 many measures—rock shelters draw considerable research attention in South Africa in comparison to
- 23 open-air archaeological sites. Yet, open-air occupations are perhaps the most globally abundant type of
- 24 archaeological sites. Focusing research efforts primarily on rock shelters may thus be biasing our

1 reconstruction of past human land use behavior to the types of activities that took place in or around 2 this one particular landscape context (Sharon, Zaidner, and Hovers 2014; Ames et al. 2014). Moreover, 3 such as is documented in the Doring River watershed of the Western Cape, rock shelter and open-air 4 localities often present non-overlapping patterns in their representation of well-defined stone artifact 5 technocomplexes (Shaw et al. 2019). Such incongruity suggests that not only is there a potential activity 6 bias between rock shelters and open-air sites, but that there may also be long-term changes in the 7 use/importance of rock shelters throughout the Pleistocene, creating an additional chronological bias in 8 our reconstructions. Understanding past lifeways and broader trends of Pleistocene human-environment 9 dynamics therefore requires expanding the scope of investigation so that rock shelter and open-air 10 records can be integrated, and thus regional patterns of land use evaluated.

11 At present, the Doring River Archaeological Project (DRAP) is focused on the analysis of a suite of 12 open-air archaeological localities along the Doring River and evaluating them relative to the many 13 excavated shelter sequences within the watershed (Figure 1). Dense, open-air artifact accumulations occur along the banks of the Doring River, often containing tens of thousands of artifacts, primarily 14 15 stone tools, distributed across recently eroding sedimentary bodies (Low and Mackay 2016; Low, 16 Mackay, and Phillips 2017; Lin, Douglass, and Mackay 2016; Will, Mackay, and Phillips 2015; Mackay 17 et al. 2014). These sediment bodies typically occur as isolated stacks up to 10 meters high and covering 3000-100,000 m<sup>2</sup> (Shaw et al. 2019). 18

Preliminary evaluation of the artifacts resting on these sediment stacks suggests these open-air 19 occupations span parts of the past 200,000 years (hereafter ka), with some localities preserving 20 21 archaeological material that is likely 250 ka or older (Shaw et al. 2019). Artifacts from all major 22 archaeological epochs are well-represented, including the Earlier Stone Age (~2000–250 ka), Middle Stone Age (~250–40 ka), Later Stone Age (~40–2 ka), and local Neolithic (<2 ka). Targeted analysis at 23 some of these localities from 2014–2016 indicates that artifact distributions across these surfaces are at 24 25 least partially clustered into time sensitive groupings or technocomplexes (Low, Mackay, and Phillips 26 2017; Low and Mackay 2016; Shaw et al. 2019). However, properly testing this hypothesis of chrono-27 spatial patterning requires systematic documentation of the provenience and characteristics of artifacts across the landforms—that is full-coverage survey at the scale of the individual artifact for the entire
 surfaces of the eroding sedimentary bodies.

3 Two further observations complicate this objective. First, total artifact numbers per locality are typically 4 in the tens to hundreds of thousands, and 23 localities have been identified so far (Figure 1). Second, 5 the sediment stacks are actively eroding, with data from historical structures suggesting the loss of more 6 than 400 mm of sediment over the last two centuries. This erosion has and continues to redistribute 7 artifacts and destroy significant quantities of archaeological information at decadal timescales (Phillips 8 et al. 2018). Thus, in order to identify the behaviorally meaningful patterns from a rapidly diminishing 9 resource, the DRAP required a data capture system capable of providing rapid, reliable, precise, and detailed information relating to surface artifact distributions and landscape geomorphology, which can 10 be used to identify key areas of the localities that warrant more comprehensive follow-up analyses. 11

12 With clear questions and motivation for fine-grained analysis of the surface record in the Doring 13 watershed, we set out to design a mobile, map-based data collection system that would facilitate 14 relatively rapid yet thorough documentation of artifact point-provenience, as well as techno-typological 15 and physical characteristics. In response to challenges faced during the first round of such systematic survey in 2018, which are discussed below, we sought to develop a new system for the 2019 field 16 17 season. We needed a system that would be highly flexible, easily deployed across a rotating team of 18 three to five surveyors with the possibly for additional personnel, and that would work offline-much of the Doring River region lacks cellular coverage and internet connectivity is limited and unreliable. 19 Ideally, the system would collect reasonably high-resolution GNSS positions with associated metadata, 20 21 synchronize into a central database, and integrate with the other data collection streams taking place 22 concurrently as part of the larger project, such as geological, geomorphological, and geochronological survey and sample collection. 23

This paper describes the conceptualization, design, and implementation of a mobile GIS solution built within the ESRI ArcGIS environment that achieved most of these goals, as well as considering longterm equipment costs. Overall, the data collection system was designed to maximize data collection quality and efficiency, while minimizing inter-observer variation, reducing post-field season data processing, and removing the logistical and financial burden of curation and storage by not collecting
 the tens of thousands of items we anticipated documenting.

#### **3** The Doring River Archaeological Project

#### 4 Project overview

5 The Doring River Archaeology Project (DRAP) aims to understand the evolution of adaptive landscape 6 use by integrating large volumes of archaeological data from both rock shelter and open-air sites within 7 the Doring River catchment in the Western Cape of South Africa. Building on the excavated rock shelter 8 sequences, the project is currently examining open-air localities within the watershed using a three-9 phase approach (see Shaw et al. 2019 for detailed explanation of the methodological approach). Phase 10 1 aims for rapid documentation and characterization of artifact distributions across actively eroding 11 sediment stacks, as well as digital terrain models of each surveyed landscape using unmanned aerial 12 vehicle (UAV) image photogrammetry and 3-d models of a sample of artifacts using structured light scanning (Figure 2). Results from Phase 1 and follow-up spatial analyses inform Phase 2 (Ames et al. 13 14 Submitted), which includes more detailed analysis of specific surface clusters demonstrated to have preserved significant spatial patterning. Phase 3 draws on the combined results of Phase 1 and 2 to 15 identify promising areas of the sedimentary stacks for sub-surface testing and systematic excavation. 16 17 Despite the nested design of the phases, all three can take place concurrently at different localities 18 throughout the region. Moreover, alongside the archaeological data collection are streams of geological, 19 geomorphological, and geochronological data collection, which are focused on raw material sourcing, strontium isoscape development, and geomorphic landform mapping and age determination. 20

The foundation of the overall approach is the rapid, fine-scale documentation of each open-air surface artifact scatter, as all further decision-making is rooted in data generated from Phase 1 archaeological survey. The justification for such detailed documentation is two-fold. First, we seek to identify spatial patterning in techno-typological variation across the sedimentary stacks indicative of temporally constrained clusters. Any such clusters warrant further analysis. Second, we seek to understand the artifact distributions in relation to the surface geomorphology and landscape evolution in order to 1 predict and select promising locations for sub-surface testing and excavation (e.g., Ames et al. 2 Submitted). Ultimately, through a combination of full coverage survey and landscape geoarchaeology, 3 we can integrate the surface archaeological record with the sub-surface record (from both rock shelters 4 and buried open-air sites) to provide a comprehensive understanding of how the Doring River landscape 5 was used throughout the Late Pleistocene and how land use practices changed over time. Here we 6 present the development and implementation of a mobile GIS solution for conducting the rapid appraisal 7 Phase 1 archaeological surveys—a system that emerged from challenges and lessons learned during our 8 first implementation of Phase 1 survey in 2018.



9



#### 11 Phase 1 survey during the 2018 field season

In 2018, alongside a number of additional project goals, we initiated the first Phase 1 survey at the Klein Hoek 1 (KH1), Doringbos 8 (DB8) and Uitspankraal 9 (UPK9) localities (Figure 3A). The objective of Phase 1 survey was, and remains, to rapidly record the location, techno-typological attributes, and physical attributes of all cores, retouched pieces, and certain non-flaked artifacts—including ochreous rock fragments >30 mm, as well as ceramic, glass, and metal artifacts—distributed across the surface of identified sediment stacks (Shaw et al. 2019). Due to our goal of complete coverage survey for these types of artefacts, non-overlapping ~2 m wide survey transects were demarcated across an entire locality with black nylon string. Initial field testing identified 2-3 m as the maximum transect width before
analysts started missing obvious artifacts within their transects—a width that generally aligns with more
formal survey sweep-width experiments in arid and semi-arid environments (Banning, Hawkins, and
Stewart 2011; Banning et al. 2017).

5 Two analysts worked concurrently during the 2018 surveys, each carrying a Trimble Juno 3B handheld 6 device running ArcPad 10.2. Artifact locations and associated attributes were recorded into a point 7 shapefile stored locally on each device, with a custom ArcPad data entry form. The device also auto-8 recorded analyst's movements at regular intervals into a second point shapefile as a track log. Analysts 9 would start at one end of a transect and progress forward, stopping at every complete core, retouched piece, or non-flaked artifact. When such an artifact was encountered, a point was added to the map 10 11 using the coordinates provided by the device's internal GNSS receiver. This automatically opened the 12 custom data entry form, which was organized into themed tabs to aid the analyst as they progressed 13 through the artifact analysis workflow. Analysts also carried a small point-and-shoot camera for taking photographs of each artifact and a set of digital calipers for measurements. The photo identification 14 15 number and measurement data were transcribed into the appropriate variable on the Juno device. A 16 portable digital balance was initially used to capture artifact weight during the first few days of the 17 season, but was abandoned due to it severely limiting data capture rates.

18 The ArcPad form consisted predominantly of drop-down menus to reduce typographical errors. Yet, we quickly observed that errors were creeping into the system at certain points in the workflow. The most 19 critical of these junctures was when trying to record the photo identification number or measurement 20 data. We also found that stopping to switch devices (e.g., Juno 3B to camera) or to transcribe 21 22 information across to the ArcPad form was clumsy and slow. With an estimated 5,000-7,000 artifacts to be recorded at KH1 alone, it became clear very quickly that Phase 1 survey needed to be much more 23 efficient. For the sake of speed, we thus chose to reduce the measurement variables to only the 24 25 maximum artifact dimension, substituting the rest of the measurements for a categorical shape variable 26 (e.g., blocky, elongate, flat, flat-elongate, etc.). We also reduced the artifact types for which we would 27 take photographs. This did allow our analysts to move more quickly across the landscape, but at the

- 1 cost of not recording width, thickness, and flake scar metrics, as well as taking significantly fewer
- 2 photographs.



3

Figure 3. Results of the 2018 Phase 1 archaeological surveys: A) Locations of the localities surveyed in 2019 (PL1, DB8, KH1, UPK1, UPK7, and UPK9) with nearby identified
localities that have not yet been subjected to Phase 1 survey (basemap imagery from ESRI);
B) Partial artifact distribution at Uitspankraal 9 recorded in 2018; C) Artifact distribution at Doringbos 8 recorded in 2018; D) Artifact distribution at Klein Hoek 1 recorded in 2018
(basemap imagery for B–D from National Geospatial Information, South Africa).

10 The ArcPad-devised system was overall a success and the 2018 data of considerable value (Shaw et al.

11 2019; Ames et al. Submitted). Yet, the 2018 system fell short in a few key areas and if continued with

- 12 these issues would likely prevent us from achieving the project goals over the remaining field seasons.
- 13 The main limitation was an issue of scale. We recorded 6,747 artifacts at KH1, 1,814 artifacts at DB8,
- 14 and the first 1,054 artifacts at the very large UPK9 (Figure 3B-D). Brief reconnaissance at the largest
- remaining known sediment stacks (UPK9, UPK7, UPK1, and Putslaagte 1 (PL1)), suggested there were
- 16 between 15,000-20,000 artifacts yet to be recorded (note this does not include unmodified flakes that

1 are not being recorded during Phase 1), let alone any additional artifacts from new localities identified 2 during ongoing reconnaissance. We thus knew that the 2019 field season would require three to five analysts working concurrently to realistically achieve such numbers. In addition to more personnel, 3 post-field work processing was cumbersome for the 2018 data, as external photographs from the 4 cameras needed organizing and the separate datasets stored locally on each Juno 3B device required 5 6 merging. Post-processing and data cleaning following the 2018 season took multiple weeks. We also 7 lamented the absence of measurement data and the limited scope of photographs. Where larger crew 8 requirements already meant purchasing additional data entry devices, we took this opportunity to 9 completely restructure the data collection system with an aim to integrate photographs and 10 measurements into one streamlined system, and to identify hardware options that would allow for easy 11 scalability and flexibility if more analysts were required.

#### 12 Designing the New Mobile GIS Solution

#### 13 Design objectives and considerations

14 The needs of Phase 1 data collection are straightforward: where is the artifact located (the spatial coordinates) and what are its techno-typological and physical characteristics (associated artifact 15 analysis)? Both types of data are easy to produce, as long as the surveyor has basic proficiency in the 16 17 use of a handheld GNSS unit and the required training in artifact identification and attribute analysis. 18 Digital data entry forms for recording survey data are not uncommon in archaeological field work, primarily used in a similar way to paper forms but reducing typographical errors, avoiding the time 19 20 consuming job of transcription, and in some cases harnessing the power of networked database solutions 21 (see papers in Averett, Gordon, and Counts 2016). The challenge for the DRAP team, however, was 22 how to record the GNSS and attribute data in a streamlined, map-based, and integrated database 23 workflow across a rotating team of three to five analysts, and in a setting with limited cellular 24 connectivity and unreliable internet access.

Digitally-inclined archaeologists have been tackling many of these challenges for decades (Wallrodt
2016). Much of this work focused and continues to focus on incorporating digital form-driven database

1 workflows into archaeological practice, either with commercial database systems like FileMaker Pro 2 (Motz 2016; Gordon et al. 2016; Spigelman, Roberts, and Fehrenbach 2016), or by developing new non-commercial browser-based or mobile applications (Sobotkova et al. 2016; Dufton 2016; Sayre 3 2016; Fee 2016). Some of these solutions are designed to automatically pull coordinate data from a 4 5 device's internal GNSS receiver (e.g., Cascalheira, Bicho, and Gonçalves 2017), but there are few map-6 based mobile GIS-oriented solutions—although some examples do exist (Tripcevich 2004; Tripcevich 7 and Wernke 2010; Wernke, Kohut, and Traslaviña 2017; Wernke, Adams, and Hooten 2014; Wernke 8 et al. 2016; Banning and Hitchings 2015).

9 One of the specific aspects of our field application that goes beyond many digital field survey mobile database solutions, however, is that we want to record the locations of individual artifacts that are 10 relatively close together, as opposed to often only a representative central point or the boundary of a 11 12 scatter. Cluster location and/or area counts and analyses are of course effective strategies in many 13 contexts. Yet, for the Doring River sediment stacks, without point-provenience data it would be impossible to conduct the additional spatial analyses needed to identify areas and clusters for further 14 15 study. Such work is possible using a combination of high resolution GNSS or surveying equipment and pairing the location with recorded artifact attributes (Holdaway and Fanning 2008), but integrating this 16 17 information into one mobile GIS solution presents a set of interrelated challenges with respect to acceptable GNSS resolution, appropriate data entry devices, and the best data entry interface (Table 1). 18 Moreover, beyond integrating the data produced by the anticipated three to five concurrent Phase 1 19 20 analysts, the system should accommodate the data collection needs of the geological, 21 geomorphological, and geochronological project components (see Figure 2). Although the primary 22 purpose of the new system is to streamline Phase 1 archaeological survey, we sought equipment and an 23 interface that could support our work on geomorphic surface mapping, raw material sourcing, strontium 24 isoscape development, and geochronology of the sediment stacks. With such a broad range of potential 25 data collection needs, the solution we envisioned would need to handle all geometry types-points, 26 lines, and polygons—alongside relevant attributes and photographs.

#### 1 GNSS accuracy

2 Choosing an acceptable GNSS resolution depends on the nature of the research questions. Our goal 3 with the Phase 1 survey is to analyze spatial patterning of cores, retouched pieces, and certain non-4 flaked artifacts at each locality to identify coherent surface clusters that warrant additional analyses 5 (i.e., Phase 2), as well as promising areas for subsurface exploration (i.e., Phase 3). This goal requires 6 reasonable GNSS accuracy. Options range from tablets and smartphones with built-in GNSS receivers 7 that have 5-10 m accuracy through to portable Bluetooth precise point positioning (PPP) devices that 8 require a service subscription and can provide 1-2 cm accuracy. GNSS accuracy of 1-2 cm is more than 9 required to discern general spatial patterns during Phase 1, especially when considering the high cost of such devices and that each of the analysts would need their own receiver. Moreover, given average 10 densities of 0.4 recorded artifacts per  $m^2$  in our 2018 data, with rare clusters as high as 6.0 artifacts per 11 12 square metre, the 5-10 m resolution of tablets and smartphones would likely compromise pattern 13 identification, and blur the relationship between artifact clusters and sedimentary boundaries. Furthermore, many mobile phones and tablets do not often record or provide the GNSS metadata to the 14 15 user, making it impossible to assess spatial accuracy.

16 Ultimately, we decided that a separate Bluetooth GNSS receiver provides the best long-term flexibility. A quality GNSS device may require firmware updates, but the use life will be quite long. However, 17 18 devices and software interfaces tend to turnover or break much more readily. By choosing a data entry solution with separate GNSS receivers and data entry devices, we would thus be able to upgrade the 19 20 data entry device in the future without the need to replace the GNSS receiver. An example of this type 21 of technology going obsolete is the Trimble Juno 3B devices we used for our initial Phase 1 survey in 22 2018. The GNSS receiver functions perfectly well, but the data entry screen is very small and can be difficult to read, and the operating system is not compatible with newer applications that would help 23 streamline data collection. As a result, the entire device would need to be replaced simply to upgrade 24 25 the data entry interface. Plus, having a small Bluetooth GNSS device would allow us to place it in the 26 location of the artifact, pick up the artifact, step away slightly, record the artifact, and then return the 27 artifact to its original position (possibly using a golf tee or the like to keep it slightly elevated off the ground). We felt a small Bluetooth GNSS receiver best fit our research needs and was the best investment for our long-term equipment assets. Factoring in affordability and required accuracy, this limited our choice to the Garmin GLO device (100 USD per receiver) and the Bad Elf devices (200-600 USD per receiver). The ~1 m accuracy and the additional functionality of track logging and offloading RINEX files for post-processing tipped our decision-making to the Bad Elf GNSS Surveyor (600 USD per receiver). Track logs are an important part of our data collection and the added functionality of RINEX files leaves open the potential for unforeseen future research applications.

8 Although base station and rover RTK GNSS systems achieve centermetre accuracy, they have 9 traditionally cost tens of thousands of dollars and they are fairly large and cumbersome when working in remote areas (e.g., Trimble R8 system). New high accuracy systems (~2 cm accuracy) that rely on 10 11 satellite-based correction services are now much more portable, but they are still rather expensive and come with ongoing subscription costs (tens of thousands of dollars for a single Trimble R10 system 12 13 with CentrePoint RTX correction service). There are also new base station and rover RTK GNSS systems on the market, such as the EMLID Reach RS2 (1900 USD per receiver), which offers a much 14 15 more affordable option for achieving cm-level accuracy. However, considering that each surveyor 16 requires their own receiver, plus an extra receiver to act as a base station in areas without NTRIP 17 correction services (such as the Doring River), the cost would quickly become prohibitive for our 18 purposes with only a moderate crew size. A crew of five would mean spending 11,400 USD for an 19 EMLID Reach RS2 system (five receivers as rovers and one receiver as a base station), compared to 20 3000 USD for five Bad Elf GNSS Surveyor receivers, or only 500 USD for a set of five Garmin GLO 21 receivers. Considering the rapid appraisal objectives of our Phase 1 survey, the cost of cm-level 22 accuracy could not be justified. As the hardware is interchangeable in the system we ultimately 23 developed, other users may find that a different GNSS receiver is better suited to their project objectives.

24 Data entry device

25 The choice of data entry device is controlled by the choice of GNSS receiver. Using a higher accuracy 26 built-in receiver would mean purchasing a device such as those offered by Trimble (i.e., the Juno, 27 Nomad, or TDC series devices) or similar systems. Using the lower accuracy built-in receivers of

1 current smartphones and tablets allows for the most flexibility in device selection. In this case, the 2 decision rests more on operating system preference, device specifications (i.e., internal camera quality), or a need for devices that record and allow access to GNSS metadata. Bluetooth GNSS receivers, 3 however, can create device limitations depending on the operating systems with which they are 4 5 compatible. For example, the Bad Elf application currently only works with an Apple operating system 6 (iOS), limiting our device options to Apple products. To keep the system portable, we chose the Apple 7 iPad Mini 4 that has an 8MP camera, which we fitted with a rugged case. For new devices, costs per 8 unit currently range from 400-680 USD, depending on internal storage capacity and if the device is Wi 9 Fi only or Wi Fi plus cellular enabled. With cellular connection not an option in the Doring River, we 10 opted for the cheaper end of that price range.

11 Software interface selection

12 Multiple data entry interfaces were considered for the envisioned system, including open-source tools 13 such as QField (the QGIS mobile application), Open Data Kit, and Kobo Toolbox. Ultimately, the ESRI 14 ArcGIS mobile applications allowed us to incorporate more of our required and desired characteristics 15 in the time available for development. In particular, the ESRI applications can record GNSS metadata, interface with high-resolution RTK GNSS systems (important for Phases 2 and 3), and accommodate 16 17 multiple users working offline yet still contributing data to one integrated database using ArcGIS Online 18 (AGOL). Although many of these features are possible through the open-source options, such a system 19 would require a heavy programming component and sustained computer science expertise during implementation, as well as for any unforeseen modifications after deployment. Although there is some 20 scripting involved using the ESRI applications, this is within the realm of an intermediate to advanced 21 22 GIS user. Although potentially appropriate to our needs, other commercial applications, such as Wildnote, or open-source options that would likely to incur additional costs, such as FAIMS (Sobotkova 23 et al. 2016), were not considered, as the School of Earth, Atmospheric and Life Sciences at the 24 25 University of Wollongong has an institutional license for ArcGIS products.

26 The conceptual design

1 The data collection system was designed within the ESRI ArcGIS environment using four applications: 2 ArcGIS Pro, AGOL, Collector for ArcGIS (Collector), and Survey123 for ArcGIS (Survey123). Fundamentally, the system uses an offline-enabled web map interface (Collector) to record location and 3 satellite metadata of artifacts via a separate Bluetooth GNSS receiver (Bad Elf GNSS Surveyor), along 4 with the basic artifact category and associated photographs. We then modified the map to provide a link 5 6 to a custom-designed XLSForm (Survey123) that incrementally progresses through techno-typological 7 and physical attributes of the artifact using question skip-logic and defined data entry parameters that 8 promote consistency across users. The entire suite of tools was implemented on handheld tablets (iPad 9 Minis), which—when internet connectivity was available—could be synced into a single cloud-based 10 data repository (AGOL). After the field season, the data can be exported for post-processing and 11 analyses (Figure 4).

Artifact clusters, geomorphic areas, and sample locations only require recording a few associated 12 13 attributes (Online Resource 1), which are easily entered in the Collector interface. However, the artifact attributes to be recorded vary according to the artifact class-that is whether the artifact is a core, 14 15 retouched piece, or a non-flaked artifact. Moreover, certain values for some artifact attributes require follow up information, and, in other cases, possible valid responses for an attribute are contingent on 16 17 responses to previous ones. In this sense, there is a hierarchy inherent in the artifact analysis attributes as well as contingency across the hierarchy. A standard attribute list interface as provided by Collector 18 19 is ineffective in this situation. The current version of Collector (version 20.1.0 at the time of writing) 20 does allow for customisation of the attribute list order, display labels, default values, and required 21 entries, as well as a few other features. However, a "smart" data entry form is preferred that allows for 22 question omission/addition using conditional statements, as well as the ability to filter drop down menus 23 based on previously entered data. An example of the former would be only to display the core type 24 variable when an artifact is identified as a core. An example of the latter would be to filter the 25 technocomplex (i.e., Acheulean, Still Bay, Howiesons Poort, Robberg) drop down menu only to those 26 options relevant to a selected archaeological epoch (i.e., ESA, MSA, and LSA). We integrated this type 27 of functionality for the Phase 1 survey using an XLSForm deployed in Survey123.





2

3



<sup>4</sup> Constructing the mobile GIS system

5 In order to operationalize this system, we first established what spatial data we would record and the 6 associated attributes for each item (Online Resource 1). With this information in hand, the first step was 7 to create a file geodatabase in ArcGIS Pro with the five essential elements: point feature classes for 8 artifact and sample locations, polygon feature classes for artifact clusters and geomorphic areas, and a 9 standalone table for the artifact analysis attributes (Figure 4). All necessary fields were added to the relevant attribute tables, and then domains (i.e., possible attribute values) were established within the 10 11 geodatabase and associated with relevant attributes. Lastly, a relationship class was defined between the artifact locations and the artifact analysis table. All of these elements include Global ID fields that 12

1 help manage distributed databases with offline data creation and have editor tracking enabled—the 2 latter will automatically record the username and the date at time of feature creation, as well as the 3 username and date of the most recent edit. Of particular note here is that in addition to Global ID and 4 tracking edits, the artifact locations point feature class only contains attributes for the artifact class and 5 GNSS receiver information, the latter automatically added using the Add GPS Metadata Fields 6 geoprocessing script provided by ESRI. The related artifact analysis table contains all techno-7 typological and physical attributes along with a duplication of lithic class and the GNSS coordinates, 8 the purpose of which will be explained below. Once prepared, each of the four spatial feature classes 9 were published to AGOL. Note that geodatabase properties are honored when publishing to AGOL, so 10 the relevant domains and the relationship class are published automatically. As such, the table does not 11 need to be published separately.

12 Next, the artifact locations feature class was used as a template for an XLSForm using the Survey123 13 Connect for ArcGIS desktop application. By using the existing feature class as a template, the fields 14 from the related table are automatically included in the XLSForm schema and the geodatabase domains 15 are used to generate choice lists for each attribute. However, the form still requires customization to 16 ensure it only populates the artifact analysis related table, as well as to structure user interaction with 17 the form (i.e., question hierarchy and contingency). Critical to this step is deleting variables related to 18 the artifact locations feature class from the schema so only those variables from the related table remain, 19 as well as ensuring the submission URL points to the correct location in AGOL. Question types were 20 implemented as appropriate to each attribute (i.e., select one, binary, etc.), using question grouping and 21 conditional statements in the "required" and "relevant" columns of the XLSForm schema to control 22 question hierarchy and contingency (Online Resource 2). XLSForm syntax allows for highly varied 23 form design but these details are not discussed here, as explanations and support are widely available 24 online. Once complete and functioning as desired, which can be tested within Survey123, the form was 25 published to AGOL.

Once all needed elements were published, a web map was created in AGOL with all feature layers and
the settings adjusted to allow photograph attachments and offline data creation, as well as setting sharing

privileges with all anticipated analysts—all analysts need their own AGOL account to login. One important aspect here is that a basemap is required in the web map. However, if the study area is large, this background imagery can consume valuable storage space on the mobile device or be cumbersome to download. To avoid this issue, a blank polygon feature that covered the entire study area was created and converted to a tile package, which was then published to AGOL and used as the basemap for our data collection web map. It is also possible to use the built-in ESRI basemaps for offline use, with offline areas being predefined within the Manage Areas settings of the webmap in AGOL.

8 After preparing the web map, the mobile devices were provisioned with the necessary applications: 9 Collector, Survey123, and the Bad Elf GNSS application. Additional relevant basemaps-aerial imagery, geological maps, topographic maps-were prepared as tile packages in ArcGIS Pro and 10 directly loaded onto the devices as well. To allow Collector and Survey123 to work together, the feature 11 12 pop-up window for the web map was customized to display a hyperlink that when selected opens a new 13 artifact analysis form in Survey123 and auto-populates the lithic class, GNSS coordinate data, and the 14 Global ID. The lithic class establishes which variables are relevant, the Global ID is the link between 15 the point locations and the artifact analysis table, and the GNSS coordinates were included as a 16 redundancy that ultimately proved highly valuable (see below). Analysts then signed into the Collector 17 and Survey123 applications and downloaded both the web map and the data entry form, respectively. 18 From here, data collection could occur and when an internet connection was re-established the device 19 could then be synced back to AGOL. At the end of the field season, the data components were able to 20 be exported as individual geodatabases containing the point/polygon features and their associated 21 attributes, as well as any related tables and/or photographs (Figure 4). Refer to Online Resource 3 for a 22 detailed guide to constructing the mobile GIS system outline here.

#### 23 Implementation: the Doring River Archaeological Project 2019 Field Season

The Doring River Archaeological Project team conducted fieldwork between mid-February and mid-May of 2019 using the mobile GIS system outlined above. There was a rotating crew of three to five analysts, each one working with a Phase 1 data collection kit consisting of an iPad Mini, a Bad Elf GNSS Surveyor, a set of Bluetooth digital calipers, and photo scale (Figure 5). Here we discuss the
 particulars of the mobile GIS system workflow.

#### 3 In-field workflow

4 As in 2018, each locality was divided into  $\sim 2$  m transects using black nylon string. Upon arrival at the 5 site each day, the Bad Elf devices are switched on and track logging activated. Bluetooth devices – the 6 Bad Elf and digital calipers – are paired with the respective iPads in their kits. Analysts then begin 7 walking along their assigned transect stopping at all cores, retouched pieces, and certain non-flaked 8 artifacts. When encountered, the Bad Elf GNSS is placed in the location of the artifact and the artifact 9 is then picked up for preliminary analysis while stepping away from the GNSS receiver. Once the GNSS 10 is registering an acceptable accuracy (<3 m), a point is added to the web map in Collector. An attribute 11 list is presented to the analyst for data entry (Figure 6A). For the Phase 1 artifact locations, the only attribute is the lithic class—either core, retouched piece, or non-flaked. This is also the stage where 12 13 photographs can be taken using the internal iPad camera. Minimal cores and unworked ochreous rock 14 fragments were generally not photographed. Once satisfied, the analyst submits the entry, which stores 15 the data locally and produces a customized pop-up window showing the lithic class and GNSS data for 16 the entered point, as well as an 'Artefact Analysis' link (Figure 6B).



17

Figure 5. Phase 1 archaeological survey kit: A) iPad Mini 4 in rugged case; B) Bad Elf
 GNSS Surveyor, C) Photo scale; D) Bluetooth digital calipers.

Displaying the lithic class and the GNSS data allows the analyst to verify that the point was recorded properly. If not, the point can be deleted, or there is also the option to edit the information. Selecting the "Artefact Analysis" link opens a new data entry form in Survey123, and automatically populates the form with the lithic class, GNSS coordinates, and Global ID of the associated point in Collector. From here, the analyst progresses through the data entry form, which includes three sets of variables relevant to all artifacts, and a fourth set of attributes specific to only cores.

7 All artifacts require responses for the general group of attributes, the taphonomic variables, and the 8 measurements (Figure 7A). General information includes variables such as raw material, archaeological 9 epoch and industry, as well as cortex coverage and type (Figure 7B; Online Resource 1). Included in this general group is the binary variable to indicate if a 3D scan is required for a particular artifact. The 10 default for this variable is set to "no." When "yes" is selected, the form provides a unique identification 11 number that is calculated based on a concatenation of the username of the analyst (established at sign-12 13 in) and the time of form creation (month-day-hour-minute-second)(Online Resource 2). This unique identifier is transcribed/inscribed onto a metal foil tag, which is then nailed into the ground at the source 14 15 location for that artifact. The artifact is placed in a zip seal bag with a matching paper tag. At the end 16 of each day, all flagged artifacts are transported to the field house for 3D scanning and high-resolution 17 photography. Once completed, these artifacts are returned to the location of their matching tag.



**Figure 6**. Screenshots of the Collector for ArcGIS interface: A) Adding a new Phase 1 artifact point location; B) Customized pop-up window after submitting a new point displaying the GNSS metadata and "Artefact Analysis Form" custom URL scheme link; C) The "Layers" menu where other features can be toggled on and off for display or editing purposes; D) The option to add a new artifact location, archaeological cluster, geomorphic area, or sample location when all layers are active.



Figure 7. Screenshots of the custom-designed XLSForm data entry system in Survey123 for
ArcGIS: A) The main variable groups, measurements fields, and comments box; B) A subset
of the general group variables; C) A subset of the core group variables; D) A subset of the
taphonomy group variables.

1 All artifacts also require values for a series of 11 binary variables that record the presence or absence 2 of different taphonomic conditions, such as edge damage, potlid scars, or double patination (Figure 7D; 3 Online Resource 1). The default for all values is set to "no," thus only requiring the analyst to quickly change the relevant variable to "yes." The last variables applicable to all artifacts are measurements 4 5 (Figure 7A). These are not set apart in a group and occur at the bottom of the form along with a text 6 box for comments. Fields for length, width, and thickness are visible for all artifact classes, and a fourth 7 measurement for largest flake scar dimensions becomes available if the artifact class is set to core or 8 the implement type is core-on-flake. Measurements are taken and entered using the Bluetooth digital 9 calipers, making for rapid data entry and avoiding transcription errors. Lastly, the comments box 10 provides the analyst with an opportunity to add additional information in a free-form narrative format. 11 This is the only variable that requires typing, as the rest are drop down menus or button selections.

12 If the lithic class is a core, a core variables group will also be visible between the general and taphonomy 13 variable groups (Figure 7C). There are at minimum four questions in the core variables group, but there 14 could be as many as 16 depending on the nature of the core being analysed (Online Resource 1 & 2). 15 The core variables group is also visible when the implement type for a retouched piece is recorded as 16 core-on-flake.

Once the form is complete, the analyst clicks submit (the check mark in the bottom right corner) and the form will be validated. If any required variables are missing, an error message is displayed, which is established in the XLSForm schema. If validation is successful, the completed form is stored locally within Survey123. That completes the process for recording an artifact during Phase 1 survey. The analyst can now return to Collector and the process repeated as additional artifacts are encountered along their transect.

If an analyst wants to record an archaeological cluster (e.g., a high-density area of similar raw material or flakes), or if a device is going to be used for documenting geomorphic areas or collecting samples, the process is similar. First, the required data entry layer is switched on in the "Layers" menu (Figure 6C). If multiple layers are active when a feature is added to the map, an intermediary menu will be presented asking which layer you are attempting to edit (Figure 6D). If the selected layer is "Sample

1 Locations," the point data collection process is the same as described for artifacts, except there is no 2 associated "smart" form entry through Survey123. Rather the few attributes needed are recorded directly to the attribute list within the Collector application, with some minor customization to the order 3 and display of the attribute list by configuring the editable layer pop-ups in the AGOL webmap. 4 5 However, if a polygon data type is selected, there is an option to create the polygon in continuous mode 6 or by placing individual vertices—our team uses the continuous recording method. Once activated, the 7 analyst simply walks the perimeter of the observed cluster or geomorphic area, stopping the process 8 once returning to the original starting position. After defining the polygon feature, an attribute list is 9 presented for feature characterization. There is also the option to take accompanying photographs 10 (Online Resource 1). Editing capabilities exist for polygons as well, including deleting or modifying 11 individual vertices.

#### 12 Syncing locally stored data

13 Whenever an internet connection was available, the devices would be connected and the data 14 synchronized to AGOL. We were able to conduct this sync almost daily, although there were periods 15 when the internet was unavailable or the internet speed or bandwidth available was too slow/limited to complete the overnight sync. The longest period without a successful sync during the 2019 field season 16 17 was three weeks. In such circumstances, the data, which is stored locally on each device within a folder 18 specific to the user signed in at the time of data collection, can be backed up to a computer or external hard drive. As the procedures for this process vary according to device and operating system, we direct 19 the reader to the appropriate online support documentation for their situation. 20

The sync procedure is a two-step process. As the Survey123 form populates a table related to the artifact locations web layer, it is impossible to have a table entry without a corresponding point in the web layer. As such, it is imperative to synchronize the data from the Collector app first. As this is the longest process due to associated photograph, this process was started immediately upon return to the field house and left to run overnight. There were on average two photos per artifact, with an average photograph data size of 511 kilobytes—the photograph resolution and hence data size can be adjusted within the Collector app. First thing the next morning, the Survey123 data would be synchronized, completing the process. This second step is fast, taking less than one minute in most cases. The sync
will also download any new point features and images in the web layer to the device. However, in our
situation of limited internet speed with regular internet disruptions and frequent power outages, this
sync setting was changed so photos were uploaded to AGOL but not downloaded to each of the devices.
Even though individual photos were relatively small, synchronizing hundreds to thousands per day was
already stretching the capabilities of our internet connection and unnecessary to be on all devices for
our workflow.

#### 8 Post-field season data processing

9 At the end of the field season, each of the four elements were downloaded from AGOL for post-10 processing and data analysis. Where all four elements were collected with photograph attachments, they 11 were downloaded as file geodatabases. This format incorporates all photographs and their relationship 12 with the associated spatial feature. The export functionality is built into AGOL and it worked seamlessly 13 for the archaeological clusters, geomorphic areas, and sample locations. The latter of the three was over 14 5 GB due to the associated photographs. However, our artifact locations and analysis data is nearly 15 15 GB and although it could be viewed and analyzed within AGOL, it would not download properly. It could only be downloaded in two components through ArcGIS Pro: the point features as a file 16 17 geodatabase with associated photographs and the artifact analysis table. As such, the relationship 18 between the point features and analysis table was broken. Yet, because the GNSS coordinates were pulled across into the artifact analysis table during field collection, re-establishing this relationship was 19 relatively straightforward. 20

Post-processing the data to re-establish this link as well as checking for data entry errors and merging with the 2018 data took only a day and a half of work following the field season. Data summaries and spatial analyses were able to begin immediately (Shaw et al. 2019; Ames et al. Submitted), and coherent databases were available to be browsed within ArcGIS Pro, including associated photographs (Figure 8). Although 15 GB is a large FGDB, the default size for datasets in FGDBs is 1TB and can extend up to 256TB if necessary. Where our cleaned, master FGDB is stored locally on a laboratory computer, we are not currently concerned with the large file size created by storing the photos within the FGDB. If

- 1 this is of concern for others data management protocols, alternative linked database solutions for the
- 2 photographs will need to be explored.



- Figure 8. Screenshot of the ArcGIS Pro interface for exploring the Phase 1 survey master
   database, with related photographs and artifact analysis data.
- 6 Phase 1 Survey Results

Survey results are only briefly presented here with a focus on comparing the data collection efficiency
across the 2018 and 2019 field seasons. Detailed artifact results and analyses are presented elsewhere
(Shaw et al. 2019; Ames et al. Submitted).

10 Comparing the 2018 and 2019 data collection results

In 2019, the DRAP team recorded 14,605 artifacts with 29,414 associated photographs across four 11 sediment stacks (Figure 9)—nearly 75% more artifacts than during the 2018 season in eight fewer data 12 collection days (Table 2). As expected, having more analysts working concurrently resulted in 13 14 considerably more artifacts recorded per day. Moreover, the streamlined data entry workflow allowed us to record all desired attributes in our rapid appraisal survey and take considerably greater numbers 15 16 of photographs without sacrificing the rate of data collection. The overall average number of artifacts recorded per device each day was actually 9.2% higher in 2018 (82.2 compared to 73.0). However, in 17 2019, the larger crew included a range of experience levels with the daily average number of points 18 recorded per device/analyst ranging from 49.7–109.3, with the more experienced analysts producing 19

1 daily averages of 77.3–109.3 artifacts per day. In 2018, the rotating two-person survey crew consisted 2 almost exclusively of more experienced analysts with averages of 77.1–97.5 artifacts recorded per day. 3 This data is for only the three most common analysts in 2018 and excludes the first 8 days of 2018 when 4 the details of the system were being finalized. These three analysts also participated in the 2019 field 5 season, suggesting that the average per person daily totals were in fact comparable across the two 6 seasons, with slightly higher upper limits in 2019 even with the additional variables added to the 7 workflow. The daily pace of the junior analysts is thus reducing slightly the 2019 daily averages, while at the same time—and more importantly—critically increasing the crew-wide daily average by 73.5% 8 9 from 150.3 in 2018 to 260.8 in 2019. Moreover, the 2019 average rate per analyst is reduced slightly because one analyst would frequently work a half day of Phase 1 survey and then spend the remainder 10 of the day working on other components of the larger project, such as mapping geomorphic areas-a 11 12 luxury afforded because of the larger crew size and the flexibility of the new equipment. Particularly telling is that by the end of the 2019 field season when the new mobile GIS system became well 13 14 established, the daily totals began to outpace any achieved in 2018. The highest daily crew-wide total 15 in 2019 was nearly double that from 2018 (636 compared to 330), and the highest single analyst daily 16 total was 42.8% greater in 2019 to that from 2018 (257 compared to 180 and by the same analyst in 17 both years).



1

Figure 9. Results of the 2019 Phase 1 survey: A) Partial artifact distribution at Uitspankraal 9
 recorded in 2019; B) Artifact distribution at Uitspankraal 7 recorded in 2019; C) Artifact
 distribution at Putslaagte 1 recorded in 2019; D) Artifact distribution at Uitspankraal 1
 recorded in 2019.

7 Combined with the 2018 data, the Phase 1 survey has thus far documented 24,220 artifacts across six localities (Figure 10 and 11). Approximately a third of these (30.8%) are attributed to a particular 8 9 archaeological epoch, and 7.2% to a particular technocomplex (Table 4). Artifact distributions are 10 inhomogeneous across the sedimentary bodies and preliminary analysis indicates the distributions are 11 correlated with terrain properties (e.g., elevation and slope) and surface geomorphology, particularly areas of past and active erosion, yet also cluster in ways that are indicative of behavioral aggregates 12 (Shaw et al. 2019). For example, detailed analysis of the Phase 1 data from KH1 identified a cluster of 13 Still Bay artifacts concentrated in an erosional embayment—Phase 2 analysis of this material is ongoing 14

<sup>6</sup> Overview of the archaeological survey data

(Figure 11). Moreover, it is highly likely that the deposits flanking the Still Bay cluster preserve related buried remains with the potential for excavation and age determination (i.e., Phase 3). However, erosional sensitivity modelling indicates this area of the locality is under imminent threat of continued erosion and potential loss of stratigraphic context and behaviorally significant patterning (Ames et al. Submitted). As a result, Phase 3 analysis of these deposits at KH1 is a priority for the upcoming field season. Similar and additional analyses of the Phase 1 survey data are in progress for the other surveyed localities.



Figure 10. Artifact distributions of the combined 2018-2019 Phase 1 survey data symbolized by archaeological epoch. 



1

2

3

**Figure 11**. Kernel density using a 6 m search radius of the combined 2018-2019 Phase 1 survey data for each locality.

### 4 Discussion

5 One of the key advantages of the new system is its flexibility. Additional data layers can be added as 6 needed, and a variety of data collection web maps can be prepared for different data collection teams 7 or tasks. Although in 2019, the DRAP only took photographs, audio and video attachments are also 1 possible, including the use of QR codes for associating sample tags with their related spatial data entry. 2 As such, the overall conceptual design of the mobile GIS solution transcends geographic region or temporal focus, and could readily be applied to a wide variety of archaeological survey (and possibly 3 4 excavation), whether point, polygon, or line driven in their approach. This flexibility was experimented 5 with throughout the 2019 season by successfully designing and deploying a data collection web map 6 specific to the geologically-focused data collection team (see below). The ability to connect with higher 7 resolution GNSS equipment, such as Real-Time Kinematic (RTK) systems, opens up even further data 8 collection possibilities—something we intend to explore during Phases 2 and 3 of the DRAP.

9 Minor edits were also made to the XLSForm early in the field season. In particular, we found that multiple analysts were frequently finding 'thumbnail' scrapers, yet this artifact type was not included 10 11 in our initial implement type list. Analysts were noting these types in the comments box instead. The 12 XLSForm schema was edited offline in the Survey123 Connect desktop application to include this 13 implement type and re-published. Simply refreshing the form on each device, something that takes a few seconds, distributed the new form to all analysts. This does require an internet connection, however, 14 15 which proved challenging during the 2019 season. On one occasion, for example, it was necessary to 16 drive 20 km to the nearest hilltop with cellular reception and hotspot a mobile phone while sitting inside 17 the vehicle in order to send modifications to AGOL and then download them to the necessary devices. 18 Such workaround solutions may not be available to more remote projects, however.

As the hardware components of the system are interchangeable, the flexibility of the system extends to 19 the devices that can be used, allowing them to be tailored to project objectives and budget. Each of our 20 21 Phase 1 survey kits (iPad Mini 4, rugged case, Bad Elf GNSS Surveyor, and Sylvac Bluetooth digital 22 calipers) cost approximately 1550 USD to assemble, but this cost could increase or decrease depending on the choice of GNSS receiver and data entry device. For example, the design and testing phases for 23 this workflow were conducted entirely on an after-market iPhone SE (150 USD) before switching to 24 25 the new iPad Minis. Moreover, the geologically-focused data collection team operated the same data 26 collection system on a Samsung Galaxy Tab A (SM-T380) device running Android 7.1.1 paired with a 27 Garmin GLO Bluetooth GNSS receiver. As the geological team's data entry does not require calipers,

1 the entire data collection kit cost was 250 USD (150 USD for the tablet and 100 USD for the GNSS 2 receiver). This flexibility in device choice provides an opportunity for cost savings, as older tablet and smartphone models and second-hand devices can be used without sacrificing GNSS resolution. 3 4 Moreover, it provides a potential format for distributed data collection during field methods courses by 5 allowing students to use their own mobile devices where possible. The reverse is true as well, in that 6 the small, handheld GNSS receivers can be swapped for high accuracy RTK or satellite-based correction 7 service GNSS systems. Devices can also be upgraded for options with larger screens, more internal 8 storage, and cellular connectivity where necessary.

9 The major limitation is that the system is built within a commercial software application. For researchers and instructors affiliated with universities that have an institutional license this is less of an issue. Yet, 10 11 for those who are not, the ESRI suite of applications can be cost prohibitive. Fortunately, there are open 12 source options that provide some of the same functionality, including archaeologically-specific options 13 (Sobotkova et al. 2016; Fee 2016; Cascalheira, Bicho, and Gonçalves 2017), although in many cases these will likely require more involved coding and scripting to setup and manage, or hiring specialized 14 15 personnel or services to arrange the setup of the system. Efforts in this direction of creating open-source 16 solutions should continue to be a priority, however. Other minor limitations we experienced include 17 devices overheating and occasionally batteries dying before the end of the workday. Devices (and 18 operators) sometimes overheated when midday temperatures approached or exceeded 40°C, requiring 19 cooling intervals of 15-30 minutes. Battery life issues were solved by bringing three multi-device 20 portable charging units to the field each day and topping up batteries as needed during water and lunch breaks. 21

#### 22 Conclusion

In response to challenges and limitations of the initial 2018 Phase 1 survey, the DRAP set out to design a new multi-user mobile GIS data collection system to accommodate a rotating crew of three to five personnel, and one that could maximize data collection quality and efficiency and reduce post-field data processing. After careful consideration, an offline-capable, cloud-based mobile GIS system was created using a suite of ESRI ArcGIS applications. The solution satisfied all of our requirements and nearly all

1 of our preferred characteristics. Additional desired variables were able to be recorded within one 2 system, including measurements and photographs, and, despite this increase in information, the per analyst daily rate of data collection was the consistent with that from 2018. Yet, because a larger crew 3 was now possible, the overall quantity of data collection was nearly 75% greater in 2019 over eight 4 5 fewer field days. Moreover, as an integrated database solution, the new system preserved all 6 relationships between artifacts and photographs, and dramatically reduced post-processing time. 7 Perhaps the most promising aspect of this system is its scalability and flexibility. The low error rate, 8 easy data integration, small post-processing and data cleaning requirements, and the relatively low 9 equipment cost for additional data collection kits means this system could be implemented for very large field teams, or the components adapted to meet different project data accuracy 10 requirements. 11

#### 12 Acknowledgments

The Doring River Archaeology Project is funded by an Australian Research Council Future Fellowship Grant (FT160100139) to Mackay, with additional support from the Faculty of Science Medicine and Health, and the Centre for Archaeological Science at the University of Wollongong. We also thank two anonymous reviewers for their constructive feedback on an earlier version of the manuscript, one of whom is responsible for the idea of using a golf tee to raise the Bad Elf GNSS receiver up off the ground slightly.

#### **19 Disclosure Statement**

#### 20 The authors report no potential conflict.

# **1** Author Biographies

2	Christopher Ames, PhD (2014, McGill University), is an Associate Research Fellow in the
3	Centre for Archaeological Science and the School of Earth, Atmospheric and Life Sciences at
4	the University of Wollongong. His research interests include prehistoric human-environment
5	dynamics, human behavioral evolution, geoarchaeology, archaeological GIS, digital
6	fieldwork techniques, and stone tool technology.
7	
8	Matthew Shaw, MPhil (2017, University of Cape Town), is a PhD Student in the Centre for
9	Archaeological Science at the University of Wollongong. His research interests include stone
10	tool technology, landscape archaeology, and South African prehistory.
11	
12	Corey O'Driscoll, BA Honours (2012, University of Queensland) is a PhD Student in the
13	Centre for Archaeological Science at the University of Wollongong. His research interests are
14	stone tool technology, 3D morphometrics, and the prehistory of sub-Saharan Africa.
15	
16	Alex Mackay, PhD (2009, Australian National University), is an Associate Professor in the
17	School of Earth, Atmospheric and Life Sciences and Director of the Centre for
18	Archaeological Science at the University of Wollongong. His research interests include
19	human behavioral evolution, stone tool technology, and the prehistory of southern Africa.

# 1 **References**

2	Ames, Christopher J. H., Sherrie Chambers, Matthew Shaw, Natasha Phillips, Brian G. Jones,
3	Alex Mackay. Submitted. "Evaluating Erosional Impacts on Open-air Archaeological
4	Sites along the Doring River, South Africa: Methods and Implications for Research
5	Prioritisation." Archaeological and Anthropological Sciences. Submitted 13 September
6	2019.
7	Ames, Christopher J. H., April Nowell, Carlos E. Cordova, James T. Pokines, and Michael S.
8	Bisson. 2014. "Paleoenvironmental Change and Settlement Dynamics in the Druze
9	Marsh: Results of Recent Excavation at an Open-Air Paleolithic Site." Quaternary
10	International, Opportunities, problems and future directions in the study of open-air
11	Middle Paleolithic sites, 331 (May): 60–73.
12	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.quaint.2013.04.016.
13	Averett, Erin Walcek, Jody Michael Gordon, and Derek B. Counts, eds. 2016. Mobilizing the
14	Past for a Digital Future. The Digital Press at the University of North Dakota.
15	https://thedigitalpress.org/mobilizing-the-past-for-a-digital-future/.
16	Banning, E. B., Alicia L. Hawkins, and S. T. Stewart. 2011. "Sweep Widths and the
17	Detection of Artifacts in Archaeological Survey." Journal of Archaeological Science
18	38 (12): 3447-58. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jas.2011.08.007.
19	Banning, E. B., Alicia L. Hawkins, S. T. Stewart, P. Hitchings, and S. Edwards. 2017.
20	"Quality Assurance in Archaeological Survey." Journal of Archaeological Method
21	and Theory 24 (2): 466-88. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10816-016-9274-2.
22	Banning, E.B., and Philip Hitchings. 2015. "Digital Archaeological Survey: Using IPads in
23	Archaeological Survey in Wadi Quseiba, Northern Jordan." The SAA Archaeological
24	<i>Record</i> 15 (4): 31–37.

1	Bousman, C. Britt, and James S. Brink. 2018. "The Emergence, Spread, and Termination of
2	the Early Later Stone Age Event in South Africa and Southern Namibia." Quaternary
3	International, Honour of James Brink, 495 (November): 116-35.
4	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.quaint.2017.11.033.
5	Cascalheira, João, Nuno Bicho, and Célia Gonçalves. 2017. "A Google-Based Freeware
6	Solution for Archaeological Field Survey and Onsite Artifact Analysis." Advances in
7	Archaeological Practice 5 (4): 328–39. https://doi.org/10.1017/aap.2017.21.
8	Dufton, J. 2016. "3.3. CSS for Success? Some Thoughts on Adapting the Browser-Based
9	Archaeological Recording Kit (ARK) for Mobile Recording." Mobilizing the Past,
10	October. https://dc.uwm.edu/arthist_mobilizingthepast/16.
11	Fee, Samuel. 2016. "2.1. Reflections on Custom Mobile App Development for
12	Archaeological Data Collection." Mobilizing the Past, October.
13	https://dc.uwm.edu/arthist_mobilizingthepast/10.
14	Gordon, Jody, Erin Averett, Derek Counts, Kyosung Koo, and Michael Toumazou. 2016.
15	"1.4. DIY Digital Workflows on the Athienou Archaeological Project, Cyprus."
16	Mobilizing the Past, October. https://dc.uwm.edu/arthist_mobilizingthepast/6.
17	Holdaway, Simon, and Patricia Fanning. 2008. "Developing a Landscape History as Part of a
18	Survey Strategy: A Critique of Current Settlement System Approaches Based on Case
19	Studies from Western New South Wales, Australia." Journal of Archaeological
20	Method and Theory 15 (2): 167-89. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10816-008-9051-y.
21	Jacobs, Zenobia, Elspeth H. Hayes, Richard G. Roberts, Rex F. Galbraith, and Christopher S.
22	Henshilwood. 2013. "An Improved OSL Chronology for the Still Bay Layers at
23	Blombos Cave, South Africa: Further Tests of Single-Grain Dating Procedures and a
24	Re-Evaluation of the Timing of the Still Bay Industry across Southern Africa."
25	Journal of Archaeological Science 40 (1): 579–594.

1	Lin, Sam C., Matthew J. Douglass, and Alex Mackay. 2016. "Interpreting MIS3 Artefact
2	Transport Patterns in Southern Africa Using Cortex Ratios: An Example from the
3	Putslaagte Valley, Western Cape." South African Archaeological Bulletin 71 (204):
4	173–80.
5	Low, Marika, and Alex Mackay. 2016. "The Late Pleistocene Microlithic at Putslaagte 8
6	Rockshelter in the Western Cape, South Africa." South African Archaeological
7	Bulletin 71 (204): 146.
8	Low, Marika, Alex Mackay, and Natasha Phillips. 2017. "Understanding Early Later Stone
9	Age Technology at a Landscape-Scale: Evidence from the Open-Air Locality
10	Uitspankraal 7 (UPK7) in the Western Cape, South Africa." Azania: Archaeological
11	<i>Research in Africa</i> 52 (3): 373–406.
12	https://doi.org/10.1080/0067270X.2017.1343431.
13	Mackay, A., C. Cartwright, S. Heinrich, M. Low, M. Stahlschmidt, and T. Steele. Accepted.
14	"Excavations at Klipfonteinrand Reveal Local and Regional Patterns of Adaptation
15	and Interaction through MIS 2 in Southern Africa." Journal of Paleolithic
16	Archaeology.
17	Mackay, Alex, Zenobia Jacobs, and Teresa E. Steele. 2015. "Pleistocene Archaeology and
18	Chronology of Putslaagte 8 (PL8) Rockshelter, Western Cape, South Africa." Journal
19	of African Archaeology 13 (1): 71-98. https://doi.org/10.3213/2191-5784-10267.
20	Mackay, Alex, Brian A. Stewart, and Brian M. Chase. 2014. "Coalescence and
21	Fragmentation in the Late Pleistocene Archaeology of Southernmost Africa." Journal
22	of Human Evolution 72 (July): 26–51. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhevol.2014.03.003.
23	Mackay, Alex, Alex Sumner, Zenobia Jacobs, Ben Marwick, Kyla Bluff, and Matthew Shaw.
24	2014. "Putslaagte 1 (PL1), the Doring River, and the Later Middle Stone Age in
25	Southern Africa's Winter Rainfall Zone." Quaternary International, Lithics of the

1	Late Middle Palaeolithic: Post MIS 5 technological variability and its implications,
2	350 (November): 43-58. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.quaint.2014.05.007.
3	Marean, Curtis W., Miryam Bar-Matthews, Erich Fisher, Paul Goldberg, Andy Herries,
4	Panagiotis Karkanas, Peter J. Nilssen, and Erin Thompson. 2010. "The Stratigraphy of
5	the Middle Stone Age Sediments at Pinnacle Point Cave 13B (Mossel Bay, Western
6	Cape Province, South Africa)." Journal of Human Evolution 59 (3-4): 234-55.
7	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhevol.2010.07.007.
8	Miller, Christopher E., Paul Goldberg, and Francesco Berna. 2013. "Geoarchaeological
9	Investigations at Diepkloof Rock Shelter, Western Cape, South Africa." Journal of
10	Archaeological Science, The Middle Stone Age at Diepkloof Rock Shelter, Western
11	Cape, South Africa, 40 (9): 3432–52. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jas.2013.02.014.
12	Motz, Christopher. 2016. "1.3. Sangro Valley and the Five (Paperless) Seasons: Lessons on
13	Building Effective Digital Recording Workflows for Archaeological Fieldwork."
14	Mobilizing the Past, October. https://dc.uwm.edu/arthist_mobilizingthepast/5.
15	Phillips, Natasha, Justin Pargeter, Marika Low, and Alex Mackay. 2018. "Open-Air
16	Preservation of Miniaturised Lithics: Experimental Research in the Cederberg
17	Mountains, Southern Africa." Archaeological and Anthropological Sciences, March.
18	https://doi.org/10.1007/s12520-018-0617-7.
19	Porraz, Guillaume, Viola C. Schmid, Christopher E. Miller, Chantal Tribolo, Caroline C.
20	Cartwright, Armelle Charrié-Duhaut, Marina Igreja, Suzan Mentzer, Norbert Mercier,
21	and Patrick Schmidt. 2016. "Update on the 2011 Excavation at Elands Bay Cave
22	(South Africa) and the Verlorenvlei Stone Age." Southern African Humanities 29 (1):
23	33–68.
24	Porraz, Guillaume, Pierre-Jean Texier, Will Archer, Michel Piboule, Jean-Philippe Rigaud,
25	and Chantal Tribolo. 2013. "Technological Successions in the Middle Stone Age

1	Sequence of Diepkloof Rock Shelter, Western Cape, South Africa." Journal of
2	Archaeological Science, The Middle Stone Age at Diepkloof Rock Shelter, Western
3	Cape, South Africa, 40 (9): 3376–3400. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jas.2013.02.012.
4	Roberts, Patrick, and Brian A. Stewart. 2018. "Defining the 'Generalist Specialist' Niche for
5	Pleistocene Homo Sapiens." Nature Human Behaviour 2 (8): 542-50.
6	https://doi.org/10.1038/s41562-018-0394-4.
7	Sayre, Matthew. 2016. "1.6. Digital Archaeology in the Rural Andes: Problems and
8	Prospects." Mobilizing the Past, October.
9	https://dc.uwm.edu/arthist_mobilizingthepast/8.
10	Sharon, Gonen, Yossi Zaidner, and Erella Hovers. 2014. "Opportunities, Problems and
11	Future Directions in the Study of Open-Air Middle Paleolithic Sites." Quaternary
12	International, Opportunities, problems and future directions in the study of open-air
13	Middle Paleolithic sites, 331 (May): 1–5.
14	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.quaint.2014.03.055.
15	Shaw, Matthew, Christopher J. H. Ames, Natasha Phillips, Sherrie Chambers, Anthony
16	Dosseto, Matthew Douglass, Ron Goble, et al. 2019. "The Doring River Archaeology
17	Project: Approaching the Evolution of Human Land Use Patterns in the Western
18	Cape, South Africa." PaleoAnthropology, no. 2019: 400-422.
19	Sobotkova, Adela, Shawn Ross, Brian Ballsun-Stanton, Andrew Fairbairn, Jessica
20	Thompson, and Parker VanValkenburgh. 2016. "3.2. Measure Twice, Cut Once:
21	Cooperative Deployment of a Generalized, Archaeology-Specific Field Data
22	Collection System." Mobilizing the Past, October.
23	https://dc.uwm.edu/arthist_mobilizingthepast/15.

1	Spigelman, Matthew, Ted Roberts, and Shawn Fehrenbach. 2016. "3.4. The Development of
2	the PaleoWay Digital Workflows in the Context of Archaeological Consulting."
3	Mobilizing the Past, October. https://dc.uwm.edu/arthist_mobilizingthepast/17.
4	Tripcevich, Nicholas. 2004. "Flexibility by Design: How Mobile GIS Meets the Needs of
5	Archaeological Survey." Cartography and Geographic Information Science 31 (3):
6	137-51. https://doi.org/10.1559/1523040042246025.
7	Tripcevich, Nicholas, and Steven A. Wernke. 2010. "On-Site Recording of Excavation Data
8	Using Mobile GIS." Journal of Field Archaeology 35 (4): 380–97.
9	https://doi.org/10.1179/009346910X12707321242511.
10	Wallrodt, John. 2016. "1.1. Why Paperless: Technology and Changes in Archaeological
11	Practice, 1996–2016." Mobilizing the Past, October.
12	https://dc.uwm.edu/arthist_mobilizingthepast/3.
13	Wernke, Steven A., Julie A. Adams, and Eli R. Hooten. 2014. "Capturing Complexity:
14	Toward an Integrated Low-Altitude Photogrammetry and Mobile Geographic
15	Information System Archaeological Registry System." Advances in Archaeological
16	Practice 2 (3): 147-63. https://doi.org/10.7183/2326-3768.2.3.147.
17	Wernke, Steven A., Lauren E. Kohut, and Abel Traslaviña. 2017. "A GIS of Affordances:
18	Movement and Visibility at a Planned Colonial Town in Highland Peru." Journal of
19	Archaeological Science, Archaeological GIS Today: Persistent Challenges, Pushing
20	Old Boundaries, and Exploring New Horizons, 84 (August): 22-39.
21	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jas.2017.06.004.
22	Wernke, Steven A., Gabriela Oré, Carla Hernández, Aurelio Rodríguez, Abel Traslaviña, and
23	Giancarlo Marcone. 2016. "2.3 Beyond the Basemap: Multiscalar Survey through
24	Aerial Photogrammetry in the Andes." Mobilizing the Past, October.
25	https://dc.uwm.edu/arthist_mobilizingthepast/12.

1	Will, Manuel, Alex Mackay, and Natasha Phillips. 2015. "Implications of Nubian-Like Core
2	Reduction Systems in Southern Africa for the Identification of Early Modern Human
3	Dispersals." PLOS ONE 10 (6): e0131824.
4	https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0131824.
5	
6	

## 1 Tables

# 2 Table 1 Objectives and considerations for the new mobile GIS data collection system

Objectives	Requirements	Preferences
• Record artifact location and attributes efficiently	• Work offline without cellular signal or reliable internet	• Record GNSS metadata (e.g., horizontal accuracy)
• Balance analysis detail with speed of data entry	• Handle rotating personnel over a long field season	• Interface useful for other data streams
• Reduce errors (auto-entry, menus, question skipping)	• Achieve reasonable GNSS resolution (~1 m)	• Equipment beneficial for teaching and learning
• Ease of use with minimal training requirements	<ul> <li>Minimum one full day of battery life</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Minimal equipment upkeep and maintenance</li> </ul>
• Scalable system if additional personnel required	• Relatively low-cost equipment with reasonable life spans	<ul> <li>Integrate with high accuracy GNSS equipment</li> </ul>
• Reduce post-processing requirements with an integrated database solution	• Manage relationships between artefacts, attributes, photographs, and scans	• Limited programming or scripting to allow for non-expert modification

3

- 4
- -
- 5

# 6 Table 2 Summary and comparison of 2018 and 2019 Phase 1 data collection results

		Cr	ew-wide sun	nmary	Summary by analysts				
		# of	Avg.	Highest	#	Avg.	<b>Range of</b>	Highest	
Yea	#	days	points/da	daily	analyst	points/da	avg.	daily	
r	Points		У	max.	days	У	points/day	max.	
2018	9616	63	150.3	330*	117	82.2	45.8–92.4	180*	
2019	14605	56	260.8	636	200	73.0	49.7–109.3	257	

7 \*Excludes first eight days of 2018 as they include inflated totals due to changes in the data

8 entry procedure after this time.

9

10

1 Table 3 Summary of combined 2018-2019 Phase 1 survey results by locality and

		Su	rveyed l	Technocomple	Epoc			
Epoch &	UPK	UPK	UPK	KH	DB8	PL	X	ĥ
technocomplex	9	7	1	1		1	total	total
ESA	16	2	51	30	1			100
Acheulean	1		18				19	
Fauresmith			1	3			4	
MSA	242	783	166	1929	434	193		3747
Early MSA	1	1		2	5		9	
Still Bay	1	9	9	183	6		218	
Howiesons	5	11	5	10	6		37	
Poort								
Post	2	51	2	32	10	2	99	
Howiesons								
Poort								
Late MSA	12	95	28	230	28	81	474	
LSA	1687	542	34	129	76	4		2472
Early LSA	1	55	1	10	21	4	72	
Robberg	267	36		28	20		351	
Oakhurst	238	59		4	6		307	
Wilton	83	49	4	10	9		155	
Local Neolithic	491	178	102					771
Historic	374	3	4					381
Technocomple	611	376	68	512	91	87	1745	
x Sub-total								
Epoch Sub-total	2810	1508	357	2088	511	197		7471
Indeterminate	6676	2777	895	4659	130	439		16749
Epoch					3			
Total Artefacts	9482	4285	1252	6747	181	636		24220
					4			

2 archaeological epoch and industry

## **1** Supplementary Online Material

Online Resource 1 Detail of the attributes associated with Phase 1 artifact locations,
archaeological clusters, geomorphic areas, and the artefact analysis table, as well as the
domains used to create drop down menus and selection lists.

5

6 Online Resource 2 XLSForm schema deployed in Survey123 for ArcGIS.

- 8 Online Resource 3 Procedure for Constructing the Phase 1 Mobile GIS Survey System used by
- 9 the DRAP during the 2019 Field Season.