MOBILIZING the PAST for a DIGITAL FUTURE

The Potential of Digital Archaeology



Edited by

Erin Walcek Averett Jody Michael Gordon Derek B. Counts

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The University of North Dakota
Grand Forks

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Preface & Acknowledgments

This volume stems from the workshop, "Mobilizing the Past for a Digital Future: the Future of Digital Archaeology," funded by a National Endowment for the Humanities Digital Humanities Start-Up grant (#HD-51851-14), which took place 27-28 February 2015 at Wentworth Institute of Technology in Boston (http://uwm.edu/mobilizing-the-past/). The workshop, organized by this volume's editors, was largely spurred by our own attempts with developing a digital archaeological workflow using mobile tablet computers on the Athienou Archaeological Project (http://aap.toumazou.org; Gordon et al., Ch. 1.4) and our concern for what the future of a mobile and digital archaeology might be. Our initial experiments were exciting, challenging, and rewarding; yet, we were also frustrated by the lack of intra-disciplinary discourse between projects utilizing digital approaches to facilitate archaeological data recording and processing.

Based on our experiences, we decided to initiate a dialogue that could inform our own work and be of use to other projects struggling with similar challenges. Hence, the "Mobilizing the Past" workshop concept was born and a range of digital archaeologists, working in private and academic settings in both Old World and New World archaeology, were invited to participate. In addition, a livestream of the workshop allowed the active participation on Twitter from over 21 countires, including 31 US states (@MobileArc15, #MobileArc).¹

¹ For commentary produced by the social media followers for this event, see: https://twitter.com/electricarchaeo/status/571866193667047424, http://shawngraham.github.io/exercise/mobilearcday1wordcloud.html, https://twitter.com/electricarchaeo/status/571867092091338752, http://www.diachronicdesign.com/blog/2015/02/28/15-mobilizing-the-past-for-the-digital-future-conference-day-1-roundup/.

Although the workshop was initially aimed at processes of archaeological data recording in the field, it soon became clear that these practices were entangled with larger digital archaeological systems and even socio-economic and ethical concerns. Thus, the final workshop's discursive purview expanded beyond the use of mobile devices in the field to embrace a range of issues currently affecting digital archaeology, which we define as the use of computerized, and especially internet-compatible and portable, tools and systems aimed at facilitating the documentation and interpretation of material culture as well as its publication and dissemination. In total, the workshop included 21 presentations organized into five sessions (see program, http://mobilizingthepast.mukurtu.net/digital-heritage/mobilizing-past-conference-program), including a keynote lecture by John Wallrodt on the state of the field, "Why paperless?: Digital Technology and Archaeology," and a plenary lecture by Bernard Frischer, "The Ara Pacis and Montecitorio Obelisk of Augustus: A Simpirical Investigation," which explored how digital data can be transformed into virtual archaeological landscapes.

The session themes were specifically devised to explore how archaeological data was digitally collected, processed, and analyzed as it moved from the trench to the lab to the digital repository. The first session, "App/Database Development and Use for Mobile Computing in Archaeology," included papers primarily focused on software for field recording and spatial visualization. The second session, "Mobile Computing in the Field," assembled a range of presenters whose projects had actively utilized mobile computing devices (such as Apple iPads) for archaeological data recording and was concerned with shedding light on their utility within a range of fieldwork situations. The third session, "Systems for Archaeological Data Management," offered presentations on several types of archaeological workflows that marshal born-digital data from the field to publication, including fully bespoken paperless systems, do-it-yourself ("DIY") paperless systems, and hybrid digital-paper systems. The fourth and final session, "Pedagogy, Data Curation, and Reflection," mainly dealt with teaching digital methodologies and the use of digital repositories and linked open data to enhance field research. This session's final paper, William Caraher's "Toward a Slow Archaeology," however, noted digital archaeology's successes in terms of time and money saved and the collection of more data, but also called for a more measured consideration of the significant changes that these technologies are having on how archaeologists engage with and interpret archaeological materials.

The workshop's overarching goal was to bring together leading practitioners of digital archaeology in order to discuss the use, creation, and implementation of mobile and digital, or so-called "paperless," archaeological data recording systems. Originally, we hoped to come up with a range of best practices for mobile computing in the field - a manual of sorts - that could be used by newer projects interested in experimenting with digital methods, or even by established projects hoping to revise their digital workflows in order to increase their efficiency or, alternatively, reflect on their utility and ethical implications. Yet, what the workshop ultimately proved is that there are many ways to "do" digital archaeology, and that archaeology as a discipline is engaged in a process of discovering what digital archaeology should (and, perhaps, should not) be as we progress towards a future where all archaeologists, whether they like it or not, must engage with what Steven Ellis has called the "digital filter."

So, (un)fortunately, this volume is not a "how-to" manual. In the end, there seems to be no uniform way to "mobilize the past." Instead, this volume reprises the workshop's presentations—now revised and enriched based on the meeting's debates as well as the editorial and peer review processes—in order to provide archaeologists with an extremely rich, diverse, and reflexive overview of the process of defining what digital archaeology is and what it can and should perhaps be. It also provides two erudite response papers that together form a didactic manifesto aimed at outlining a possible future for digital archaeology that is critical, diverse, data-rich, efficient, open, and most importantly, ethical. If this volume, which we offer both expeditiously and freely, helps make this ethos a reality, we foresee a bright future for mobilizing the past.

* * *

No multifaceted academic endeavor like *Mobilizing the Past* can be realized without the support of a range of institutions and individ-

uals who believe in the organizers' plans and goals. Thus, we would like to thank the following institutions and individuals for their logistical, financial, and academic support in making both the workshop and this volume a reality. First and foremost, we extend our gratitude toward The National Endowment for the Humanities (NEH) for providing us with a Digital Humanities Start-Up Grant (#HD-51851-14), and especially to Jennifer Serventi and Perry Collins for their invaluable assistance through the application process and beyond. Without the financial support from this grant the workshop and this publication would not have been possible. We would also like to thank Susan Alcock (Special Counsel for Institutional Outreach and Engagement, University of Michigan) for supporting our grant application and workshop.

The workshop was graciously hosted by Wentworth Institute of Technology (Boston, MA). For help with hosting we would like to thank in particular Zorica Pantić (President), Russell Pinizzotto (Provost), Charlene Roy (Director of Business Services), Patrick Hafford (Dean, College of Arts and Sciences), Ronald Bernier (Chair, Humanities and Social Sciences), Charles Wiseman (Chair, Computer Science and Networking), Tristan Cary (Manager of User Services, Media Services), and Claudio Santiago (Utility Coordinator, Physical Plant).

Invaluable financial and logistical support was also generously provided by the Department of Fine and Performing Arts and Sponsored Programs Administration at Creighton University (Omaha, NE). In particular, we are grateful to Fred Hanna (Chair, Fine and Performing Arts) and J. Buresh (Program Manager, Fine and Performing Arts), and to Beth Herr (Director, Sponsored Programs Administration) and Barbara Bittner (Senior Communications Management, Sponsored Programs Administration) for assistance managing the NEH grant and more. Additional support was provided by The University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee; in particular, David Clark (Associate Dean, College of Letters and Science), and Kate Negri (Academic Department Assistant, Department of Art History). Further support was provided by Davidson College and, most importantly, we express our gratitude to Michael K. Toumazou (Director, Athienou Archaeological Project) for believing in and supporting our

research and for allowing us to integrate mobile devices and digital workflows in the field.

The workshop itself benefitted from the help of Kathryn Grossman (Massachusetts Institute of Technology) and Tate Paulette (Brown University) for on-site registration and much more. Special thanks goes to Daniel Coslett (University of Washington) for graphic design work for both the workshop materials and this volume. We would also like to thank Scott Moore (Indiana University of Pennsylvania) for managing our workshop social media presence and his support throughout this project from workshop to publication.

This publication was a pleasure to edit, thanks in no small part to Bill Caraher (Director and Publisher, The Digital Press at the University of North Dakota), who provided us with an outstanding collaborative publishing experience. We would also like to thank Jennifer Sacher (Managing Editor, INSTAP Academic Press) for her conscientious copyediting and Brandon Olson for his careful reading of the final proofs. Moreover, we sincerely appreciate the efforts of this volume's anonymous reviewers, who provided detailed, thought-provoking, and timely feedback on the papers; their insights greatly improved this publication. We are also grateful to Michael Ashley and his team at the Center for Digital Archaeology for their help setting up the accompanying Mobilizing the Past Mukurtu site and Kristin M. Woodward of the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee Libraries for assistance with publishing and archiving this project through UWM Digital Commons. In addition, we are grateful to the volume's two respondents, Morag Kersel (DePaul University) and Adam Rabinowitz (University of Texas at Austin), who generated erudite responses to the chapters in the volume. Last but not least, we owe our gratitude to all of the presenters who attended the workshop in Boston, our audience from the Boston area, and our colleagues on Twitter (and most notably, Shawn Graham of Carlton University for his word clouds) who keenly "tuned in" via the workshop's livestream. Finally, we extend our warmest thanks to the contributors of this volume for their excellent and timely chapters. This volume, of course, would not have been possible without such excellent papers.

As this list of collaborators demonstrates, the discipline of archaeology and its digital future remains a vital area of interest for people who value the past's ability to inform the present, and who

recognize our ethical responsibility to consider technology's role in contemporary society. For our part, we hope that the experiences and issues presented in this volume help to shape new intra-disciplinary and critical ways of mobilizing the past so that human knowledge can continue to develop ethically at the intersection of archaeology and technology.

Erin Walcek Averett (Department of Fine and Performing Arts and Classical and Near Eastern Studies, Creighton University)

Jody Michael Gordon (Department of Humanities and Social Sciences, Wentworth Institute of Technology)

Derek B. Counts (Department of Art History, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee)

October 1, 2016



How To Use This Book

The Digital Press at the University of North Dakota is a collaborative press and *Mobilizing the Past for a Digital Future* is an open, collaborative project. The synergistic nature of this project manifests itself in the two links that appear in a box at the end of every chapter.

The first link directs the reader to a site dedicated to the book, which is powered and hosted by the Center for Digital Archaeology's (CoDA) Mukurtu.net. The Murkutu application was designed to help indigenous communities share and manage their cultural heritage, but we have adapted it to share the digital heritage produced at the "Mobilizing the Past" workshop and during the course of making this book. Michael Ashley, the Director of Technology at CoDA, participated in the "Mobilizing the Past" workshop and facilitated our collaboration. The Mukurtu.net site (https://mobilizingthepast.mukurtu.net) has space dedicated to every chapter that includes a PDF of the chapter, a video of the paper presented at the workshop, and any supplemental material supplied by the authors. The QR code in the box directs readers to the same space and is designed to streamline the digital integration of the paper book.

The second link in the box provides open access to the individual chapter archived within University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee's installation of Digital Commons, where the entire volume can also be downloaded. Kristin M. Woodward (UWM Libraries) facilitated the creation of these pages and ensured that the book and individual chapters included proper metadata.

Our hope is that these collaborations, in addition to the open license under which this book is published, expose the book to a wider audience and provide a platform that ensures the continued availability of the digital complements and supplements to the text. Partnerships with CoDA and the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee reflect the collaborative spirit of The Digital Press, this project, and digital archaeology in general.

Abbreviations

AAI Alexandria Archive Institute
AAP Athienou Archaeological Project

ABS acrylonitrile butadiene styrene (plastic)

ADS Archaeological Data Service
Alt-Acs Alternative Academics

API application programming interface ARA archaeological resource assessment

ARC Australian Research Council
ARIS adaptive resolution imaging sonar

ASV autonomous surface vehicle BLM Bureau of Land Management

BLOB Binary Large Object
BOR Bureau of Reclamation
BYOD bring your own device
CAD computer-aided design
CDL California Digital Library
CHDK Canon Hack Development Kit

cm centimeter/s

CMOS complementary metal-oxide semiconductor

CoDA Center for Digital Archaeology
COLLADA COLLAborative Design Activity
CRM cultural resource management

CSS Cascading Style Sheet
CSV comma separated values

DBMS desktop database management system

DEM digital elevation model

DINAA Digital Index of North American Archaeology

DIY do-it-yourself

DoD Department of Defense DVL doppler velocity log EAV entity-attribute-value

EDM electronic distance measurement

EU excavation unit/s

FAIMS Federated Archaeological Information Management

System

fMRI functional magnetic resonance imaging

GIS geographical information system

GCP ground control point

GNSS global navigation satellite system

GPR ground-penetrating radar

GUI graphic user interface

ha hectare/s
hr hour/s
Hz Hertz

HDSM high-density survey and measurement ICE Image Composite Editor (Microsoft)

iOS iPhone operating system INS inertial motion sensor

IPinCH Intellectual Property in Cultural Heritage

IT information technology

KAP Kaymakçı Archaeological Project
KARS Keos Archaeological Regional Survey

km kilometer/s

LABUST Laboratory for Underwater Systems and

Technologies (University of Zagreb)

LAN local area network

LIEF Linkage Infrastructure Equipment and Facilities

LOD linked open data
LTE Long-Term Evolution

m meter/s

masl meters above sea level

MEMSAP Malawi Earlier-Middle Stone Age Project

MOA memoranda of agreement MOOC Massive Online Open Course

NGWSP Navajo-Gallup Water Supply Project

NeCTAR National eResearch Collaboration Tools and

Resources

NEH National Endowment for the Humanities

NHPA National Historic Preservation Act

NPS National Park Service

NRHP National Register of Historic Places

NSF National Science Foundation OCR optical character reader

OS operating system

PA programmatic agreement pole aerial photography

PARP:PS Pompeii Archaeological Research Project: Porta

Stabia

PATA Proyecto Arqueológico Tuti Antiguo

PBMP Pompeii Bibliography and Mapping Project

PDA personal digital assistant

PIARA Proyecto de Investigación Arqueológico Regional

Ancash

PKAP Pyla-Koutsopetra Archaeological Project Pladypos PLAtform for DYnamic POSitioning

PLoS Public Library of Science

PQP Pompeii Quadriporticus Project PZAC Proyecto Arqueológico Zaña Colonial

QA quality assurance QC quality control QR quick response

REVEAL Reconstruction and Exploratory Visualization:

Engineering meets ArchaeoLogy

ROS robot operating system
ROV remotely operated vehicle
RRN Reciprocal Research Network

RSS Rich Site Summary

RTK real-time kinetic global navigation satellite system

SfM structure from motion

SHPO State Historic Preservation Office SKAP Say Kah Archaeological Project

SLAM simultaneous localization and mapping

SMU square meter unit/s SU stratigraphic unit/s SVP Sangro Valley Project

TCP traditional cultural properties tDAR the Digital Archaeological Record

UAV unmanned aerial vehicle

UNASAM National University of Ancash, Santiago Antúnez de

Mayolo

UQ University of Queensland USACE U.S. Army Corp of Engineers

USBL ultra-short baseline USFS U.S. Forest Service

USV unmanned surface vehicle
UTM universal transverse mercator
XML Extensible Markup Language



1.5. Enhancing Archaeological Data Collection and Student Learning with a Mobile Relational Database

Rebecca Bria and Kathryn E. DeTore

This chapter reviews the benefits and challenges of using a digital data collection protocol to teach archaeological methods to university students. In particular, it reflects on the three seasons during which the Proyecto de Investigación Arqueológico Regional Ancash (PIARA) taught an archaeological field school in rural Peru using a mobile relational database and tablet system designed to document, manage, and analyze excavated data. This contribution provides a brief introduction to the PIARA research project and field school at the archaeological site of Hualcayán (highland Ancash, Peru; FIG. 1) and reviews the project's mobile digital database system, emphasizing how it was developed and used during the field school. Through this review we offer evidence suggesting that students who use a digital and relational database can develop analytical skills that enhance the way they perceive the multiple dimensions of the archaeological record. In particular, it is suggested that students who used the database were better able to contextualize their empirical observations and more quickly visualize chronological and spatial relationships between the materials and features at Hualcayán.

THE PIARA ARCHAEOLOGICAL PROJECT AND FIELD SCHOOL

The Proyecto de Investigación Arqueológico Regional Ancash began in 2009 as the primary author's doctoral dissertation research project at the archaeological site of Hualcayán, and it has since grown into a collaborative project and field school involving dozens of archaeologists and students. Hualcayán has an exceptionally long history,

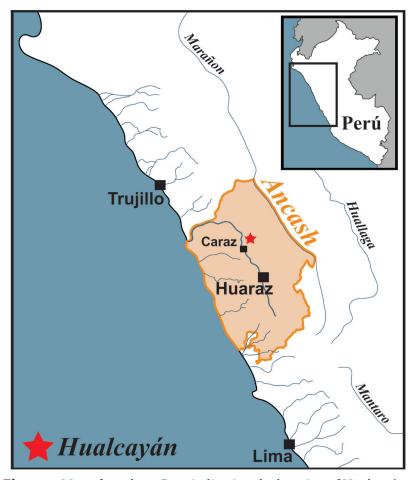


Figure 1: Map of northern Peru indicating the location of Hualcayán. Map by Rebecca E. Bria.

with nearly 4,000 years of continuous prehistoric occupation from approximately 2300 B.C. to at least A.D. 1450. The majority of the research at Hualcayán has focused on changes in ritual practice that occurred with the rise and decline of a regional religion and political network called Chavín, and the emergence of a subsequent culture called Recuay (900 B.C.-A.D. 700). In particular, fieldwork has been centered on the excavation and material analysis of a central platform mound and its surrounding structures to examine how local people ritually constituted and transformed their community after Chavín. Complementary field research has been conducted at the site in pre-Chavín-era temples in the mound, in domestic areas, and in Recuay and post-Recuay tombs called chullpa and machay. As such, a major focus of PIARA's collaborating student and professional scholars has been the bioarchaeological study of Hualcayán's human remains, addressing questions related to diet, health, violence, body modification, and migration.

In 2011 the PIARA project expanded into an archaeological field school in collaboration with the National University of Ancash (UNASAM) in Huaraz, Peru. Between 2011 and 2013, PIARA taught eight field school sessions that were four to six weeks long. Managed by a team of six to 10 staff members, each session had from 13 to 22 students, who came mostly from the United States and the United Kingdom, totaling 138 international students over three years. We also taught archaeological methods to 45 Peruvian students, most of whom were from UNASAM or the Universidad Nacional Mayor de San Marcos in Peru's capital city of Lima. The field school focused its student training on excavation methods, total station mapping, bioarchaeology, ceramic analysis and illustration, and basic geographic information system (GIS) skills. Each field school session concluded with a series of student-led research projects that were conducted and presented in groups of three to five students. These projects were designed around the students' analytical interests and were shaped by a set of themes—such as ritual practice and religious authority, sacred landscapes, community organization and politics, and social memory—that the students explored during the field school through readings, lectures, and discussions.

In an effort to both support the project's research objectives and benefit student learning, PIARA designed a relational database that used touchscreen tablet computers to manage field and laboratory



Figure 2: Kathryn DeTore uses the PIARA mobile database to discuss and record excavated features with a field school student at Hualcayán, Peru.

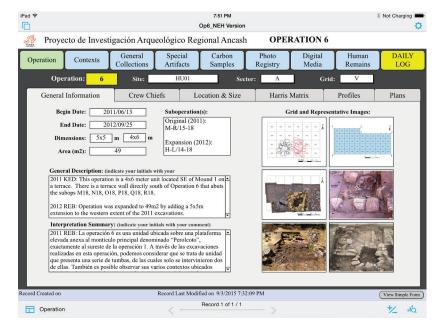


Figure 3: Screenshot showing the "General Information" tab of the "Operation" form. The subsequent tabs provide places for additional details about the unit, including the names of all crew chiefs, the location of the unit in space, the unit's complete Harris matrix (uploaded from OmniGraffle once complete), and fields to enter plan maps, profile drawings, and final photographs.

data (FIG. 2). The decision to develop a mobile relational database for PIARA was directly inspired by the pioneering and publicized work of John Wallrodt and Steven Ellis of the Pompeii Archaeological Research Project: Porta Stabia (PARP:PS; see: Ellis, Ch. 1.2; Wallrodt, Ch. 1.1). Although it was not the first project to incorporate mobile computing or relational databases in the field (see, e.g., Spinuzzi 2003; Zubrow 2006), PARP:PS was one of the first to employ the lightweight and portable iPad tablets to collect their data. Through his Paperless Archaeology blog (http://paperlessarchaeology.com), Wallrodt provided detailed explanations for his digital data collection and management workflow and provided the PARP:PS FileMaker database as a download. Using the PARP:PS database as a model, we designed a relational database for field and laboratory data collection using FileMaker Pro. which was loaded onto iPad tablets via the mobile File-Maker Go application. Michael Ashley and his experienced team at the Center for Digital Archaeology (codifi.org) supported us by generously providing technical and practical advice during the initial phase of development. Overall, it took us approximately four months which included considerable trial and error as we learned how to use FileMaker—to design a working version of the field database. It then took another month to design the core functionality of the laboratory database. However, over the past four years, as the project matured and as new collaborators joined PIARA, we have regularly added to and streamlined the database. Therefore, several additional cumulative months of work have produced the version presented here.

THE PIARA MOBILE DATABASE

Objectives

After exploring both established and experimental digital workflows for excavation and artifact analysis, as well as reviewing approaches to digital archaeology more broadly (e.g., CoDA 2011; Cross et al. 2003; Evans and Daly 2006; Ellis and Wallrodt 2011; Kansa et al. 2011; Wallrodt 2011), we recognized three principle advantages to developing a customized mobile database system for the PIARA project and field school.

The first reason we developed the mobile database was to streamline and systematize the data entry process to improve speed and

accuracy (cf. Motz, Ch. 1.3). On the most basic level, using a digital format to record data would speed our data collection by eliminating the need to type paper records into a computer at the end of the day or season. A digital format would also consolidate all related information about a specific record onto a single digital "page," meaning we could dynamically add unlimited information to existing records without the physical limitations of paper (cf. Ellis, Ch. 1.2). Furthermore, by digitizing data as it was collected, we could address, as part of our research design, the growing need and responsibility to archive archaeological data digitally (McManamon and Kintigh 2010; Ashley et al. 2011). Beyond these more straightforward benefits of a digital format, a FileMaker database in particular could standardize our form responses by presenting value lists as pop-up menu choices (FIG. 3). These standardized responses would minimize student (and crew chief) confusion as they learned the terminology needed to record archaeological data correctly and according to the PIARA protocol. This would eliminate the need to memorize or look up the possible responses for a particular field and instead focus attention on performing the analysis of the archaeological context or attribute being examined (cf. Motz, Ch. 1.3). More precisely, students could make comparisons between a pop-up menu's available responses, and have the proper terminology available to discuss the archaeological remains with their crew chief. Because FileMaker allows users to edit these pop-up menus, crew chiefs would also have the flexibility to add values to the menus in the field as needed—for example, if an unexpected category of data is discovered. Finally, with FileMaker's adaptable interface, we could also add images next to pop-up menus to help users choose an appropriate response (FIG. 3). Overall, we recognized that these standardized value lists and visual guides would increase data accuracy and minimize the "data cleaning" activities that are typically needed when analyzing data that are produced by a variety of archaeologists and students.

Second, we developed a mobile digital database to relationally link data as they were collected (cf. Wallrodt, Ch. 1.1). A relational database eliminates redundancy because an infinite number of fields (i.e., attributes) can be linked to a single context or artifact record by designating relationships between the tables that contain these data (Keller 2009). These relationships also make it possible to easily search and sort the range of visual and textual information associated

with excavated contexts and artifacts. Most importantly, we wanted this searchability and the visibility of relationships in the data to be available during everyday fieldwork so that the excavation crew could make more informed decisions and more robust interpretations. More specifically, by cross-referencing and linking data in a mobile relational database, we could provide the excavation team with a comprehensive understanding of the archaeological record that is not possible by flipping through paper forms attached to a clipboard. As the field school progressed, we increasingly realized how this functionality enhanced student research skills, which will be reviewed in greater detail below.

Third, we developed a digital database to directly associate the more objectively collected data, such as photographs, with the more interpretive and subjective data that is the principal work of archaeologists—that is, context descriptions, artifact attributes, drawings, and notes. These different types of data and media that pertain to an excavated context or artifact are traditionally kept in separate locations: forms and drawings on a clipboard, photographs in a camera, notes in a notebook, and attributes in a spreadsheet. By combining the capabilities of a mobile tablet—a device capable of creating, manipulating, and viewing these diverse data and media types—with the relational nature and clear interface of a FileMaker database, we would be able to consolidate and integrate these data in ways that would be impossible with paper methods. More precisely, we sought to design a tool for crew chiefs and students to easily document and review their findings quickly and with a high level of visual detail (e.g., by allowing image and text data to be created, sorted, searched, and viewed in multiple formats) and also help them better understand and recognize relationships between excavated contexts and their artifacts (e.g., by linking all photographs, drawings, and descriptive attributes of excavated contexts in a relational manner). By integrating these diverse visual and textual data in a relational database, we also sought to break down the interpretive boundaries between these diverse media and their archaeological discourses (Shanks 1997: 99).

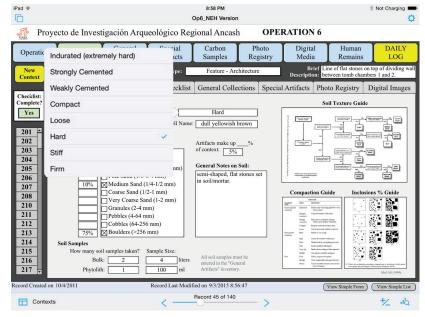


Figure 4: Pop-up menu choices (left) and visual analysis guides (right) in the FileMaker database systematize the data entry process and also aid instructors when teaching core terminology and soil analysis protocols to students in the field. Users can zoom into the visual analysis guides by "pinching out" on the iPad screen.

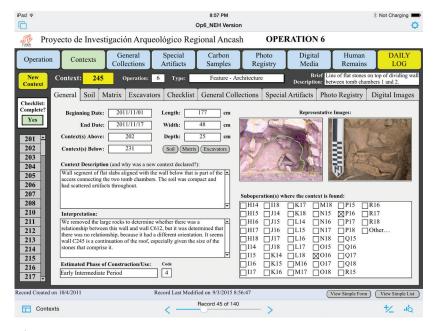


Figure 5: Screenshot showing the primary, or "General," tab of the "Context" form, where excavators enter the basic information for each context. Areas to enter and view additional details about the context are accessible by clicking on the following tabs: "Soil," Matrix," "Excavators," and so on.

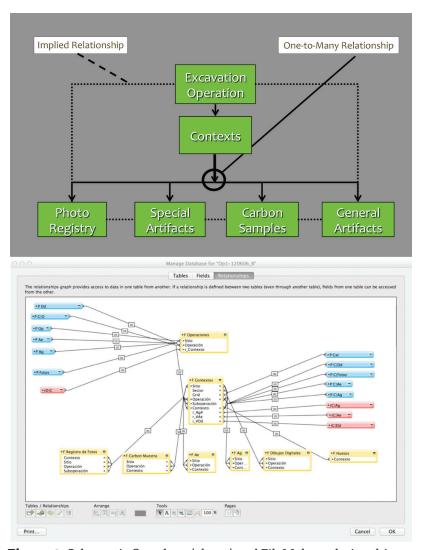


Figure 6: Schematic flowchart (above) and FileMaker relationships graph (below) show the one-to-many relationship between the "Contexts" field and other data and attribute fields in the database. Note: the database was first created in Spanish to make it possible for Peruvian project members to collaborate on its design.

From Design to Implementation

Because Hualcayán lies in a rural area of the Andes that has frequent power outages and unreliable Internet, we encountered some difficulties and limitations when implementing a mobile database system at the site. Although inconvenient at times, power outages posed only a minimal problem except in extreme cases, mainly because the iPads (2nd and 3rd generations) had a relatively long battery life of about 10 hours, which could be used conservatively in order to last two full workdays if needed. All seven iPads (increased from a total of five in 2012) were charged daily, making it rare that an iPad did not have power if an outage occurred. In designing the database's operational protocols, however, the lack of a 3G or greater Internet signal at Hualcayán posed the greatest limitation. Without Internet, it was impossible to link data across iPad devices in real time. We explored the idea of broadcasting a local Wi-Fi network as a substitute, but the mountainous terrain and the vast distance between the field house and the different excavation units (called "operations" by the PIARA team and in the database) made such a system impractical for our budget. Therefore, we found it necessary to create separate database files for each excavation unit, which were loaded onto individual iPads and managed by each unit's crew chief, who worked with a team of approximately four students at a time (see also Motz, Ch. 1.3). This system worked very well for us, with the only additional limitation being that artifact analyses had to be conducted on separate database files in the laboratory and then linked to the excavation databases at a later date. An unforeseen benefit to keeping these database files separate was that their sizes stayed manageable and any corruption in one database which happened occasionally if files were improperly closed—did not affect the entire dataset. Backups were made approximately twice per week with little data loss over three years. A designated staff member throughout the season managed these backups, and a single charging station ensured that iPads would be both backed up and charged each night. The authors conducted introductory workshops with students and crew chiefs at the beginning of the field school, and then the crew chiefs worked closely with the students on a daily basis to record their finding in the field and laboratory, rotating the various data entry responsibilities throughout the week.

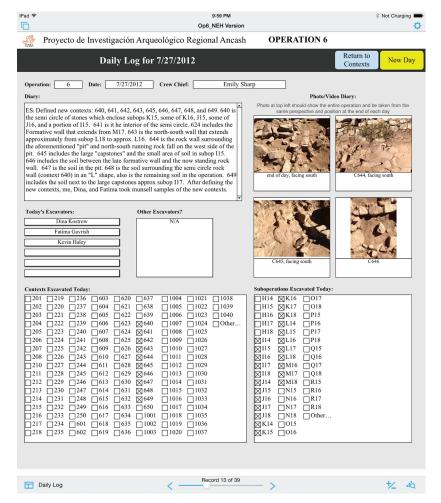


Figure 7: Screenshot of the "Daily Log" form, which serves as a diary of each day's activities. The list of contexts available for selection at the bottom left of the form are populated as new contexts are added to the database.

Several linked forms constitute the PIARA field database, which are accessed primarily via a series of blue buttons at the top of the main layout and turn green when selected. First, all the general information for each excavation unit, such as its location, size, grid layout, dates of excavation, general photographs, Harris matrix, crew chiefs, drawings, and overall interpretations, is entered into the "Operation" (i.e., unit) form (FIG. 4). The "Contexts" form, however, is the central hub for recording and viewing excavation data (FIG. 5). Contexts were our central unit of analysis: a context number was assigned to any soil or architectural feature, such as a fill, floor, ash lens, or wall section. Thus, all excavated materials (e.g., artifacts, carbon samples, and human remains) were linked to unique context numbers in a one-tomany relationship—that is, context records were entered only once, and all excavated data was associated with one of these context records through linked tables (FIG. 6). The remaining buttons to the right of "Contexts" navigate to forms where these linked data can be entered and viewed. In particular, these forms provide space to inventory and describe the different types of artifacts and materials recovered during excavation, including our "General Collections" (i.e., all materials collected in bulk), "Special Artifacts" (i.e., highly diagnostic or unique materials collected individually and point provenienced), Carbon Samples (carbon for C14 dating), and "Human Remains." Two additional buttons, "Photo Registry" and "Digital Media," provide areas to respectively record the photographs and drawings or videos of the unit's contexts.

Finally, the database provides areas for excavators to monitor and visualize their progress. First, a "Daily Log" button navigates to a field diary where excavators can add general notes about each day's activities along with photos and videos that visually document the excavation's progress (FIG. 7). In the daily log and in context descriptions, students and crew chiefs would precede their notes with their initials in order to preserve their authorship and to capture multiple perspectives in the trench. In addition, a context completion checklist ensures that all required activities, such as inventorying artifact bags or taking photographs, elevations, and soil samples, are complete before beginning a new context. Conditional formatting changes from red to green on the Contexts form when this checklist is completed, which provides an easy way for crews to check the status of their work (FIG. 8; cf. Motz, Ch. 1.3). Also, a simplified matrix form provides

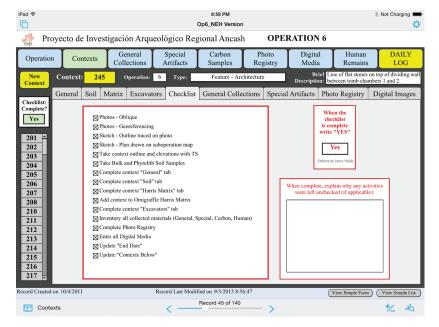


Figure 8: Screenshot of the Context "Checklist" tab.

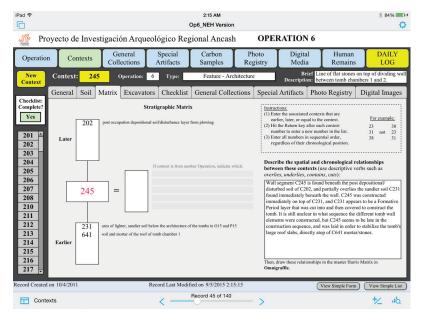


Figure 9: Screenshot of the "Matrix" tab of the "Contexts" form, which provides a space for adding and describing the contexts that are abutting and immediately earlier and later to the context being described. Multiple earlier and later contexts can be entered. This flexibility is particularly useful when it is not yet clear how different abutting contexts are related in the matrix. The brief description of each abutting context is immediately pulled from those context records and displayed to the right of the context numbers. The relationships between all contexts listed on the form can be described in the text box to the right, and can include a description of any unclear associations that need to be followed up.

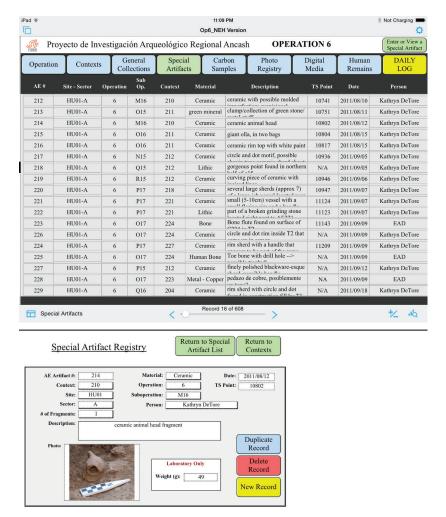


Figure 10: Screenshots of the "Special Artifacts" form in two views. The top image shows the default form view, which is a scrollable and sortable table of all Special Artifact entries in the excavation unit. The bottom image shows the detailed form view, which is accessed from the green button at the top right of the default view, named "Enter or View a Special Artifact." This second form view provides a space for more detailed data entry and viewing of photographs. The example here shows Special Artifact number 214, which was recovered from Context 210.



Figure 11: Screenshot of the "Special Artifacts" tab in Context 210. This tab isolates and displays the Special Artifacts collected in the currently viewed context record. In this example, the tab reveals that three Special Artifacts were recovered from Context 210, and that all were ceramics collected from Suboperation M16. By clicking the ">" arrow, the entry for each special artifact can be individually displayed to the right for more information.

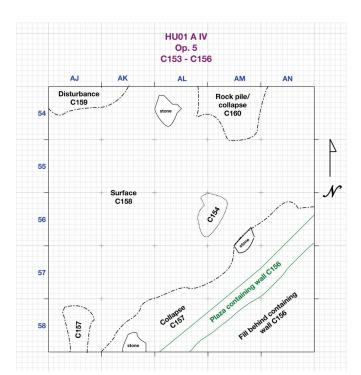


Figure 12: An example of a simple "scaled sketch" produced with iDraw. While total station points and georeferenced photographs were taken to record the precise extent of each context, scaled sketches provided a more immediate way to visualize spatial relationships in the field—without having to measure the features a second time via tape measures. To produce scaled sketches, context outlines were drawn over a pre-made layer of the unit's 1 x 1 m suboperation grid. The size, shape, and overall position of each context was estimated and drawn based on its placement within the unit's grid, using the suboperation corners, marked by nails in the ground, as visual guides.

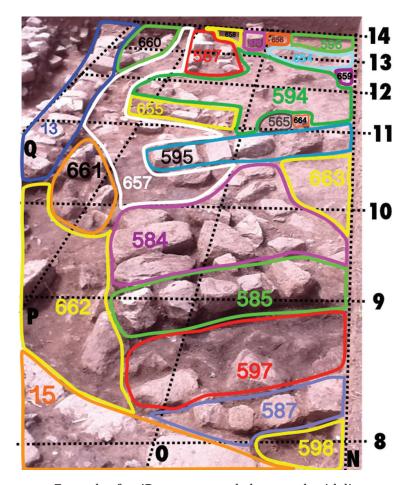


Figure 13: Example of an iDraw annotated photograph with lines and colors indicating the location and division of distinct fills and features within a platform building episode. Crew chiefs and students referenced these annotated images to keep proper provenience of materials as they excavated. This somewhat grainy image was taken with the iPad 2 in 2011; future generation iPads produced more refined results. We also used Apple SD card readers to upload high quality images to the iPad when greater precision was desired.

space where archaeologists can enter the associated contexts that are earlier, later, and equal to (i.e., the same as) a particular context being recorded (FIG. 9). Upon entry, the database will display the linked brief descriptions of those associated contexts, which helps excavators remember what features the contexts numbers represent. In so doing, excavators can better visualize, at a glance, how different contexts are associated in the matrix. Excavators then use these simplified matrix guides to construct a master Harris matrix for the unit as they excavate, using the flowchart application OmniGraffle.

The database is designed such that the excavation data can be entered and viewed in several layouts and locations (FIG. 10). Sorting the data in multiple ways allows users to examine vertical and horizontal relationships between artifacts of a particular type. For example, an approximation of the stylistic changes and time periods present in an excavation unit can be quickly revealed by viewing the "Special Artifacts" table, isolating all ceramic artifacts recovered from one or several Suboperations (i.e., their 1 m² location in the excavation grid), and sorting them in the order they were excavated. In addition to viewing these data in aggregate as tables, records can be viewed individually, which is the preferred layout when users first add the artifact to the database or if they wish to view photographs of artifacts already entered. To make it easier to isolate the materials of a particular context, we also displayed artifact registries as tables on the "Contexts" form, linking individual artifacts to the specific context records in which they were recovered. These linked artifact registries are accessed in a series of tabs visible on the "Contexts" form, where they can be edited as well as viewed (FIG. 11). This built-in redundancy adds a high level of flexibility to how data are entered, viewed, and sorted, and it also makes it possible to quickly view relationships between a variety of data types and with just a few clicks on the digital touchscreen.

We used a variety of applications on the tablets to create digital plan and profile drawings, sketches, and annotated photographs that were then imported into the FileMaker database. We primarily used iDraw (and later, TouchDraw) to create scaled drawings on the iPad, which has precision drawing capabilities and can manipulate textual, photographic, and vector data in distinct layers. Scaled digital drawings were often time-consuming to complete, however, especially for students unfamiliar with both archaeological mapping and

vector drawing (see: Ellis, Ch. 1.2; Gordon et al., Ch. 1.4). To speed the process of making plan maps, we simply created "scaled sketches"—or sketches drawn on a premade grid that corresponded to the 1 x 1 m suboperation nails placed in the excavation unit—to locate contexts in space. Because each context was precisely recorded with a total station and photographed for georeferencing in GIS, these scaled sketches provided enough accuracy to visualize spatial relationships in the field (FIG. 12).

We also used iDraw to produce annotated photographs for in-field visualization. Each context was photographed at an oblique angle, outlined, and labeled, and then imported into the context's record in the database. This technique, while simple, proved critical for interpreting contexts that were difficult to visualize using two-dimensional drawings, such as juxtaposed construction events in the ceremonial mound. For example, "singular" construction events, such as the placement of fill, were rarely executed by placing a uniform layer of soil and stone. Instead, the ancient builders laid distinct soils and stones in different areas to fill the platform. To carefully understand this process of construction, and to avoid mixing artifacts from discrete activities, we assigned each distinct soil its own context (FIG. 13). These annotated photographs became essential to how teams maintained clarity and control over provenience and stratigraphy as they excavated. They also helped the author decode the sometimes awkward context descriptions made by students and staff long after the season ended (cf. Gordon et al., Ch. 1.4).

We also used the text annotation features of iDraw and the application Photogene to swiftly apply labels to individual artifacts and human remains on photographs. These text labels were particularly useful for recording small and commingled remains where a measured drawing at each stage of recovery would have been impractical (FIG. 14). In these situations, we only created scaled drawings of the top and bottom of the context and used annotated photographs to document the location of the small remains as we collected them. By recording finds in this way—at each level and stage of recovery—we could then reconstruct their depositional sequences by simply sequencing the images. Moreover, these annotated photographs were often visually clearer than abstract two-dimensional drawings. They were also far easier to produce, which minimized differences in students' drawing abilities. While all students learned to create scale drawings, only



Figure 14: Annotated images produced to document the relative position of commingled or clustered materials before and during their excavation. Images A and B, which were created in the application iDraw, show the position of in situ smashed ceramic bowls and guinea pig remains before they were excavated (A), and after the first layer of remains were removed (B). Image C, created in the application Photogene, shows the numbers assigned to individual bone elements of commingled human remains before they were collected. Image D, created in iDraw, shows how excavators often represented artifacts and contexts in a single photo to highlight their relationships. All of these annotated photographs took relatively little time to produce yet provide ample details of the depositional sequences of small remains.

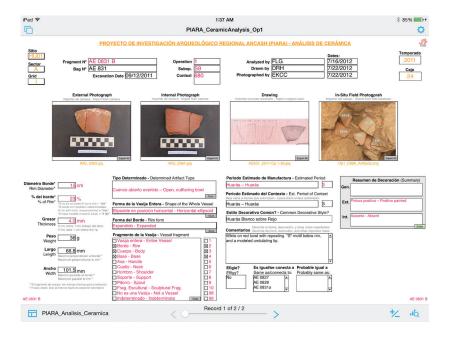


Figure 15: Screenshot showing the top of the ceramic analysis form. This area provides a quick view of the various size, form, and decorative attributes recorded for an artifact. Additional attribute fields and analysis guides for recording temper, color, surface treatment, and other attributes are accessed by scrolling down on the form. Side-by-side comparisons of the artifact's in situ photograph, lab photograph(s), and scaled drawing provide a convenient way for instructors to check the accuracy and consistency of basic attributes that were recorded by students and other collaborators.

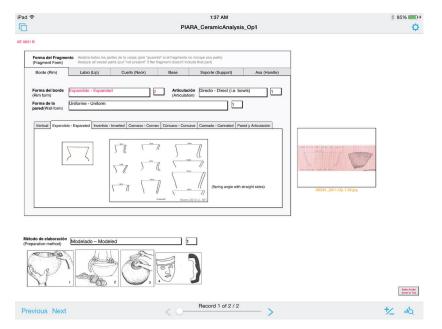


Figure 16: Screenshot of a section of the ceramic analysis form, showing several attribute fields and the visual guides to aid in their analysis.

some were particularly adept drawers; virtually all students could quickly and accurately create text annotations, however, which maintained the data's precision yet ensured that everyone received regular practice recording their observations visually. Moreover, these acts of photographing and annotating were instructional moments in which students could reflect upon their role in representing and constructing a narrative of the past (Shanks 1997; Shanks and Svabo 2013).

The PIARA field database is complemented by a laboratory database for artifact attribute analysis. Without an Internet or Wi-Fi connection at Hualcayán, this laboratory database remained separate from the field database so that both field and laboratory work could be advanced simultaneously. Nonetheless, FileMaker's capabilities make it fairly simple to link these databases by cross-referencing unique context and artifact bag numbers at the end of the field season. The artifact analysis database uses similar elements as the field database. including fields for photographs and drawings, analysis guides, and pop-up menus to aid both students and professionals in completing the analysis with precision. We also found that by accompanying an artifact's attributes with a variety of visual fields for its photograph in situ, its photograph after cleaning, and its illustration, instructors can not only monitor any inventory issues that arise during the artifact's processing (e.g., the mixing of bag tags after washing), but they also can check a student's analysis for errors or consistency in attributes such as form, decoration, and estimated period (FIGS. 15, 16).

In sum, the mobile tablet and the relational database enhanced how the PIARA team recorded and interpreted the archaeological record because it: (1) linked all data to excavated contexts in a one-to-many relationship, (2) provided multiple ways to view, sort, and enter the data, and (3) incorporated a high quantity of digital drawings and annotated photographs. The systematic, visual, and relational nature of the database also made it possible for new crew chiefs and students to quickly familiarize themselves with previously excavated data by simply scrolling through the existing context records while examining the unit in the field—something that is near impossible to do in a short amount of time while flipping through paper forms. In fact, the high level of visual content and relational links of the PIARA database proved essential to how we maintained consistency in our excavations, particularly in the units that were excavated by different teams over the course of two or three years.

ENHANCING STUDENT LEARNING IN ARCHAEOLOGY WITH A MOBILE DATABASE

Archaeologists have widely recognized that the digital recording of data on mobile tablets improves productivity and precision. Yet beyond these virtues, PIARA's experience using visually rich relational databases on mobile tablets suggests that these technologies are much more than a means for efficient and precise data collection in archaeology. Rather, they also increase critical thinking and analytical skills, particularly for students who are first learning archaeological research methods (Stewart and Johnson 2011; see also Gordon et al., Ch. 1.4). These dual benefits—efficiency and analytical thinking reflect the debate over whether digital technologies simply aid in productivity or whether they alter the way we think. For example, there are debates over whether GIS is a tool or a "science" that gives researchers a new spatial awareness and analytical sensitivity (Wright et al. 1997; Reitsma 2013; Hall 2014). More broadly, scholars have debated the degree to which digital technologies are changing human analytical abilities (Bennett et al. 2008; Prensky 2009; see also: Caraher, Ch. 4.1; Ellis, Ch. 1.2; Motz, Ch. 1.3). Regardless, most scholars agree that digital technologies, such as relational databases, are more than simply tools for efficiency—they are tools for thought (Shaffer and Clinton 2006)—and therefore we should consider the ways that digital technologies might bolster (or hinder) the process of learning and doing research (Zubrow 2006).

In our experience, the mobile database enhanced our students' understanding of the material and spatial relationships in the archaeological record because it allowed for "computational thinking" throughout all phases of data collection and analysis. Broadly defined, computational thinking is the process by which relationships between complex, abstract, or large sets of data can be analyzed and visualized using the analytical concepts, software, and/or hardware of computers (Wing 2008). Since personal computers became commonplace in university settings decades ago, archaeologists have regularly employed relational databases and other computational tools to organize, analyze, and visualize their data (e.g., Reilly 1989). Yet only recently have they used mobile tablets as part of an in-field data collection strategy for excavations (e.g., Tripcevich and Wernke 2010; DeTore and Bria 2012; Ellis and Wallrodt 2011; Houk 2012; Pettegrew

2012; Fee *et al.* 2013; Vincent *et al.* 2013; Austin 2014; Sharp and Litschi 2014; Berggren *et al.* 2015; Roosevelt *et al.* 2015). Still, although scholars have explored the effectiveness of using digital archives and 3D simulations in university classrooms (e.g., Agbe-Davies *et al.* 2014), few have discussed how mobile databases can be used to enhance student learning and research skills in the field (e.g., Stewart and Johnson 2011).

A detailed account of the field school's final student projects illustrates how the PIARA relational database and mobile tablet system enhanced student learning. During the field school, a student's abilities to conduct research and think critically were most clearly revealed as they completed their final research projects. For this final project, the students collected, analyzed, researched, and presented the analysis of excavated remains. All of these stages of the final project were conducted on the PIARA iPads: relevant databases were loaded in File-Maker Go for students to edit and reference. PDF resources were made available in iBooks for students to perform literature reviews, and the students prepared their presentations in Keynote. At the end of the project, groups presented their findings by plugging their iPad into a projector. Students were required to contextualize their findings within the culture history of the region and site, and then interpret the results within a theoretical framework to draw out the broader impacts of their original research. For example, students could have chosen to examine changes in the social dynamics of feasting by looking at trends in the forms, designs, and distributions of ceramic vessels through time, either in a particular excavation area or between discrete structures. Or they could have tested whether periods of known community reorganization were associated with changes in labor-related stress by analyzing patterns of degeneration on human vertebra from tombs at Hualcayán.

Students were encouraged, but not required, to use the database as an analysis tool as they conducted their final research projects. With each year of fieldwork, the database's usefulness as an analytical tool increased as the project's data expanded. Therefore, by examining and comparing students' use of the database in their final research projects between 2011 and 2013, and also by comparing the student projects that incorporated the database to projects by students who only examined and discussed the data they had themselves recorded in the laboratory (e.g., ceramic attribute analysis from a particular context),

we could gauge how well the students could research, understand, and contextualize their data. We assessed the students by evaluating whether they were making first, second, and third order relations in the data. First, were the students linking the different associated materials of a particular context? Second, were they making connections between the materials or conditions in different contexts of the same unit? And third, were they recognizing similar patterning across the site (between units)? We also evaluated whether and how the students forged links between the data they had collected and the data collected before they arrived to the project.

We consistently found that the students who used the PIARA database excelled in all these dimensions of comprehension. In particular, students who used the database were more able to identify links between discrete contexts and data types than the groups who relied on less formal observations of unit and site-wide patterns, such as those gained through everyday excavation experience, discussions with instructors, and lectures. Similarly, students who used the database produced more substantive and empirically supported conclusions than those who simply analyzed a discrete dataset without contextualizing these data. Finally, comparisons between the final projects revealed how students who used the database began to think in a relational manner about the data they were analyzing and presenting.

A few examples illustrate how the relational database enhanced students' research skills during their final projects. In the first example, two groups, one in the 2012 field season and another in 2013, performed attribute analysis on a sample of ceramics from excavation unit Operation 7. Broadly, the research objective for each group was to identify and examine the activities of Recuay feasting within a particular structure. While both groups used the database to enter and organize their ceramic attribute data, the 2013 group also used the database to select an appropriate sample for their project, and then to compare their ceramic data to other excavated materials. Although both groups produced valid results, there were marked differences in how the students both approached and summarized their data.

In particular, the 2012 group became interested in their final project—Recuay feasting in Operation 7—after their excavations in the unit revealed a context with extensive burning, ceramics, and animal bones. To examine the hypothesis that feasting occurred in

this space, they performed an attribute analysis of approximately 40 decorated diagnostic ceramics from the context, primarily to identify ratios of serving and cooking vessels and the prevalence of decorative styles. They grouped the ceramics by vessel form and also compared the decorative styles from the context to documented types. Given the high percentages of finely decorated serving wares in this context, they concluded that their analysis indicated feasting, and to further contextualize their findings, the group discussed their own observations, which were made during their excavations of burned areas and refuse scatters in Operation 7.

In contrast, the 2013 student group began their research by identifying an appropriate sample within the database to analyze. Choosing to begin the research by exploring the database was in part because the excavation of several units, including Operation 7, was not continued in 2013 (instead, the 2013 students gained excavation experience in mortuary contexts). Thus, starting with a broad interest in examining Recuay feasting, the students first explored the database by performing simple sorts and queries to reveal differences between contexts, particularly in the quantities and distributions of decorated vessels. These functions not only identified which contexts had a high probability of ritualized consumption activity, but the sorting of ceramic styles also provided an estimated terminus post quem or terminus ante quem-that is, the latest and earliest possible period to which a context can date—for particular structures and layers. In addition to exploring the distributions of ceramic styles and forms, the functions were used to explore the relative quantities of faunal and lithic remains from these contexts. Even though formal analyses had yet to be conducted on these materials, inventories and preliminary counts and weights provided a general indicator for potential food preparation and consumption activities associated with these materials. The students used these data to choose an appropriate sample that had a high quantity of decorated ceramics, as well as high quantities of faunal and lithic remains. Once an appropriate sample of ceramics was chosen, the students completed their attribute analysis. By combining their results with the estimated quantities and types of associated faunal and lithic artifacts from the analyzed context, the students were able to push their analysis beyond a descriptive presentation of form types and styles in their final presentations. That is, in addition to presenting their findings from ceramic attribute analysis,

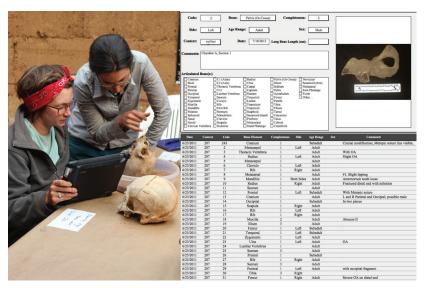


Figure 17: In their final projects, students first examined preliminary patterns in the data and developed viable research questions by sorting and querying existing records in the database. Then, in a second phase of their project, students completed a more formal analysis to test their hypotheses.



Figure 18: 3D photogrammetric model of excavated architecture at Hualcayán, shown in perspective. Model produced by Rebecca E. Bria.

they were able to explore how the ceramics formed part of a feasting assemblage. In particular, they postulated that serving vessels, such as decorated bowls, were highly associated with carbonized cultigens. They also associated these finds with the presence of lithics, such as cores, flakes, and hammerstones, which suggested that food was likely prepared in the same space as consumption activities. Finally, by comparing the soil descriptions (i.e., the presence/absence of ash and burned earth) in different areas of the structure, and by reviewing which suboperations in Operation 7 contained the identified artifact assemblage, they also proposed that the feast's food preparation and consumption activities extended across most of the structure's interior.

Although the students were aware that their results were preliminary, the members of the 2013 group expressed how the database gave them insight into how archaeologists draw together multiple lines of evidence to contextualize and substantiate their findings. Furthermore, the 2013 example shows how the database made it easier for the students to visualize and understand contexts that they themselves did not excavate and to explore the project data on their own. Although the students used the field inventories and special artifact registries that were created during excavations, rather than data from formal analysis (which had yet to be completed by specialists), they were able to gain key insights into how various materials constituted an assemblage. The students demonstrated how using a relational database allowed them to identify preliminary yet valid associations between discrete datasets that archaeologists traditionally take weeks (or even months) to identify, particularly when having to read through notebooks, review sketches, and wait for specialists to complete their material analyses before these preliminary associations can be made. Moreover, by adding to and analyzing data from the project's database, as opposed to completing a fabricated workshop exercise, both groups recognized that they were producing results that, even in a small way, contributed to the advancement of the research project overall. Several students returned to Hualcayán to complete undergraduate and graduate theses to expand upon their field school projects. For example, one student from the 2013 group used her group's findings to prepare a grant proposal to return to Hualcayán and conduct undergraduate thesis research on Recuay feasting (McAllister 2015).

Students training in bioarchaeological field methods employed the database in other ways to enhance their final projects. First, because we photographed, identified, and sided human skeletal remains in the field as they were recovered from comingled burials, analyses such as minimum number of individuals could be immediately estimated by sorting and counting how many specimens existed for a particular bone element and side. Other rapid preliminary analyses included determining sex and age ratios or evidence for trauma. Student groups would use the sorting results to narrow the topic of their final research project according to what datasets might produce both interesting and relevant results. For example, if a group of students was interested in examining questions related to violent trauma, and the preliminary sorting of the data suggested there were no juveniles or females present in a sample, then a study of how trauma rates differed by age group or sex was eliminated as a productive focus of the research project. Though similar preliminary analyses could be performed in an Excel spreadsheet, the database made it possible to easily relate their bioarchaeological findings to other data such as tomb location, associated artifacts, and stratigraphic levels. They were also able to compare human skeletal assemblages between different tombs at the site. This made the database a superior tool for accessing and processing large sets of data in short amounts of time (FIG. 17). Furthermore, the execution of sorting and querying tasks was made less tedious with a database that could be explored by students on their own, via a single application, and on a tablet that can be passed around. In several cases, field school students were encouraged to present their exceptional bioarchaeological work from these final projects at professional conferences, which they co-authored with PIARA supervisors (e.g., Calabria et al. 2014).

These examples reveal how the relational database provided a powerful and immediate analysis tool for students. They reveal how, by creating relational connections between discrete datasets such as excavation forms, inventories, and previously analyzed data, the database helped students not only collect, but also contextualize their data in the laboratory. Moreover, the examples reveal how the database allowed students to quickly explore patterns in the data as a *preliminary step*, rather than *end product*, of their research project. Without the relational database, the exploration of initial patterns in the data

may have constituted the entire final project's analysis rather than form the foundation of more complex research questions.

Conclusions

In sum, PIARA's use of digital technology not only aided the archaeological project's in-field and laboratory data collection procedures, analyses, and interpretations, but it also advanced the analytical abilities of our student archaeologists. The PIARA example illustrates how using a mobile tablet equipped with relational databases, readings, and a variety of programs to collect and illustrate findings—in our case, an iPad with FileMaker Go, iBooks, iDraw/Photogene, and Keynote—can provide students with an all-in-one powerful and collaborative tool to collect, prepare, and present research. PIARA's experience also suggests that when students use a mobile relational database, their ability to recognize and interpret complex relationships between archaeological materials, contexts, and features is enhanced because the database allows them to examine broad patterns in the data with relative ease.

Future expansions of our mobile data collection and student instruction protocols will focus on incorporating mobile GIS and photogrammetry into our workflow (cf. Tripcevich and Wernke 2010; Berggren et al. 2015; Roosevelt et al. 2015). Recently, we began to create 3D photogrammetric models of excavated architecture at Hualcayán (e.g., FIG. 18). In the future, these models—which are more expedient, precise, and less abstract than polygons produced with a total station or outlines drawn on photographs—will be produced for each excavation context. Furthermore, because photogrammetry is becoming a common and essential tool for archaeological research, students will learn how to process and use these models. As part of our workflow, the photogrammetric models will be loaded onto the iPads once they are created, and they will then be used as analytical guides for students and crew members as they excavate, contextualize their analyses in the laboratory, and tour the archaeological site for the first time. We will also use these 3D models to bring Hualcayán's ancient past to life for local schoolchildren during educational workshops. To this end, and in an effort to involve local children in the preservation and representation of their community's heritage (cf. Bria and Cruzado Carranza 2015), we have begun to teach high-school students how to photograph and produce photogrammetry models of reconstructed artifacts from Hualcayán (see also Sayre, Ch. 1.6). Finally, other future directions will seek to incorporate data from multiple sites in highland Ancash into a regional database (cf. Gero 2006), with a focus on creating a pedagogical tool for Peruvian and international students.

As technology continues to change and students become researchers, the computational tools currently available will change in directions that are difficult to fully anticipate. Tools such as relational databases make it notably easier to explore and interpret larger data sets. The way PIARA students were able to explore the project database may be, in part, tied to their generation's collective immersion in digital technologies (Palfrey and Gasser 2013). For the current generation of college students, the mining of digital data has always been a common exercise, for example, when surfing the Internet or searching a library database. Nonetheless, while skills in the manipulation of "big data" may be more intuitive for the current generation of students, there is an increased need for students to understand how relational databases are constructed in order for them to be data producers rather than mere data consumers. Although relational databases have long been essential to archaeology, it may be increasingly important for archaeological instruction, in field schools and graduate-level coursework, to incorporate a database design component.

Still, approaches to data recording and analysis are highly varied between researchers across the globe, and instructors cannot predict the kinds of projects students will assist on or lead in the future. Therefore, instructors may consider teaching students how to be resourceful in low-tech (and low-budget) environments by ensuring competency in "traditional" as well as digital methods. After all, archaeology can be done with a few rudimentary tools. Yet as technology continues to change and expand, there is a growing need for archaeological field schools to teach the foundations of digital data collection, management, and analysis. By intentionally incorporating digital approaches into student training, instructors can prepare students to participate in the current and coming digital era of social science and humanities research.

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https://mobilizingthepast.mukurtu.net/collection/15-enhancing-archaeological-data-collection-and-student-learning-mobile-relational

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