

¹ Imposed form in the Early Acheulean? Evidence from Gona,
² Afar, Ethiopia

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26 **1 Introduction**

27 The imposition of intended form on artifacts has long been viewed as a watershed in human
 28 cognitive and cultural evolution and is most commonly associated with the emergence of “Large
 29 Cutting Tools” (LCTs) in the Early Acheulean ([Holloway, 1969](#); [Isaac, 1976](#); [Kuhn, 2021](#)). However,
 30 this interpretation of Acheulean LCTs as intentionally designed artifacts remains controversial.
 31 Alternative proposals range from the possibility that LCTs were unintended by-products of flake
 32 production ([Noble and Davidson, 1996](#); [Moore and Perston, 2016](#)) to the suggestion that their
 33 form was “at least partly under genetic control” ([Corbey et al., 2016](#)). Even accepting that LCT
 34 form was to some extent intended, there is substantial disagreement over the specificity of de-
 35 sign. Some analyses have indicated that shape variation in Acheulean handaxes is largely a result
 36 of resharpening ([McPherron, 2000](#); [Iovita and McPherron, 2011](#)) whereas others find form to be
 37 unrelated to reduction intensity and more likely to reflect normative expectations of what han-
 38 daxes should look like ([Shipton and Clarkson, 2015b](#); [García-Medrano et al., 2019](#); [Shipton and](#)
 39 [White, 2020](#)). Such debates about shape of Acheulean LCTs may appear narrowly technical but
 40 have broad relevance for evolutionary questions including the origins of human culture ([Shipton](#)
 41 [and Clarkson, 2015b](#); [Corbey et al., 2016](#); [Tennie et al., 2017](#)), language ([Stout and Chaminade,](#)
 42 [2012](#)), teaching ([Gärdenfors and Höglberg, 2017](#)), brain structure ([Hecht et al., 2015](#)), and cogni-
 43 [tion](#) ([Stout et al., 2015](#); [Wynn and Coolidge, 2016](#)). To examine these questions, we studied the
 44 complete collection of Early Acheulean flaked pieces from 5 sites at Gona Project Area and com-
 45 pared them with Oldowan cores from 2 published sites at Gona. By comparing shape variation
 46 to measures of flaking intensity and patterning, we sought to identify technological patterns that
 47 might reveal intent.

48 **1.1 Identifying design**

49 There is a broad consensus that refined handaxes and cleavers from the later Acheulean resulted
50 from procedurally elaborate, skill intensive, and socially learned production strategies (Sharon,
51 2009; Stout et al., 2014; García-Medrano et al., 2019; Shipton, 2019; Caruana, 2020; Moore, 2020)
52 although debate over the presence of explicit, culturally transmitted shape preferences contin-
53 ues (Iovita and McPherron, 2011; Wynn and Gowlett, 2018; Moore, 2020; Shipton and White,
54 2020). There is much less agreement regarding the less heavily worked and formally standard-
55 ized LCTs typical of the earliest Acheulean (Lepre et al., 2011; Beyene et al., 2013; Diez-Martín et
56 al., 2015; Semaw et al., 2018; Torre and Mora, 2018). Such forms continue to occur with variable
57 frequency in later time periods (McNabb and Cole, 2015), and may be especially prevalent in
58 eastern Asia (Li et al., 2021). Although formal types have been recognized in the Early Acheulean
59 and are commonly used to describe assemblages, many workers now see a continuum of mor-
60 phological variation (Presnyakova et al., 2018; Duke et al., 2021; Kuhn, 2021) including the possi-
61 bility that simple flake production remained an important (Shea, 2010) or even primary (Moore
62 and Perston, 2016) purpose of Early Acheulean large core reduction.

63 Typologically, LCTs are differentiated from Mode 1 pebble cores on the basis of size (>10cm)
64 and shape (elongation and flattening) (e.g., Isaac, 1977). This consistent production of large,
65 flat, and elongated cores in the Achuelean has long been thought to reflect the pursuit of desired
66 functional and ergonomic properties for hand-held cutting tools (Wynn and Gowlett, 2018). Un-
67 planned flaking can sometimes produce cores that fall into the LCT shape range (Moore and
68 Perston, 2016) and this is one possible explanation of the relatively small “protobifaces” that
69 occur in low frequencies in Oldowan assemblages (Isaac and Isaac, 1997). However, the Early
70 Acheulean is clearly distinguished from the Oldowan by the production of larger artifacts ne-
71 cessitating the procurement and exploitation of larger raw material clasts. Although studies of
72 handaxe variation often focus on shape rather than size, this shift is an important aspect of arti-
73 fact design with relevance to both production and function.

74 Production of larger tools was accomplished either through a novel process of detaching and
75 working Large Flake Blanks (LFBs) from boulder cores or simply by using larger cobble and slab
76 cores (Isaac, 1969; Semaw et al., 2018; Torre and Mora, 2018). Both may involve similar flaking
77 “strategies” (e.g., bifacial or multifacial exploitation) to those present in the Oldowan (Duke et
78 al., 2021) but require more forceful percussion to detach larger flakes. This increases the percep-

tual motor difficulty of the task (Stout, 2002) and in many cases may have been accomplished using different percussive techniques and supports (Semaw et al., 2009). These new challenges would have increased raw material procurement (Shea, 2010) and learning costs (Pargeter et al., 2019) as well as the risk of serious injury (Gala et al., 2023) associated with tool production. This strongly implies intentional pursuit of offsetting functional benefits related to size increase. These likely included tool ergonomics and performance (Key and Lycett, 2017) as well as flake generation, resharpening, and reuse potential (Shea, 2010). Early Acheulean LCT production is thus widely seen as a part of shifting hominin behavioral ecological strategies including novel resources and mobility patterns (Rogers et al., 1994; Linares Matás and Yravedra, 2021).

The degree of intentional design reflected in the shape of Early Acheulean LCTs is more difficult to determine. For example, LFB production using a simple “least effort” bifacial/discoidal strategy will tend to generate predominantly elongated (side or end struck) flakes (Toth, 1982) whether or not this is an intentional design target. Similarly, the difficulty of flaking relatively spherical cobbles (Toth, 1982) might bias initial clast selection and subsequent reduction toward flat and elongated shapes even in the absence of explicit design targets. On the other hand, it has been argued that the shape of Early Acheulean LFBs was intentionally predetermined using core preparation techniques (Torre and Mora, 2018) and many researchers perceive efforts at intentional shaping in the organization of flake scars on Early Acheulean handaxes and picks (Semaw et al., 2009; Lepre et al., 2011; Beyene et al., 2013; Diez-Martín et al., 2015; Torre and Mora, 2018; Duke et al., 2021). To date, however, the identification of Early Acheulean shaping has generally relied on qualitative assessment by lithic analysts. Such assessment may in fact be reliable, but is subject to concerns about potential selectivity, bias, and/or overinterpretation (Davidson, 2002; Moore and Perston, 2016). Notably, a 3-dimensional morphometric (3DGM) study by Presnyakova, et al. (2018) concluded that LCT shape variation in the Okote Member (~1.4 mya) at Koobi Fora was largely driven by reduction intensity rather than different knapping strategies. However, this study did not directly address the presence/absence of design targets constraining the observed range of variation.

In later Acheulean contexts, reduction intensity effects are commonly equated with resharpening and seen as an alternative to intentional form imposition (McPherron, 2000). Across heavily-worked and relatively standardized LCT assemblages (e.g., Shipton and White, 2020), a *lack* of association between morphology and reduction intensity has been used as an argument-

110 by-elimination for the presence of imposed morphological norms or “mental templates” (Shipton and Clarkson, 2015b; García-Medrano et al., 2019; Shipton et al., 2023). However, in the
111 less heavily-worked and more heterogeneous assemblages typical of the early Acheulean (Kuhn,
112 2021), it is equally plausible that increasing reduction intensity would reflect degree of primary
113 reduction rather than subsequent resharpening (Archer and Braun, 2010). In this case, reduction
114 intensity effects on morphology would have the opposite interpretation: more reduction should
115 result in closer approximation of a desired form if such were present. For example, Beyene, et
116 al. (2013) found that increasing flake scar counts were associated with increasing handaxe re-
117 finement through time at Konso, Ethiopia, which may reflect a more general trend in the African
118 Acheulean (Shipton, 2018).

120 Interpretive approaches address this quandary by “reading” the organization of scars on individ-
121 ual pieces to infer intent, but an adequate method to objectively quantify these insights has yet
122 to be developed. Current measures of reduction intensity, such as the scar density index (SDI)
123 (Clarkson, 2013), are designed to estimate total mass removed from a core and are reasonably ef-
124 fective (Lombao et al., 2023). However, mass removal was not the objective of Paleolithic flaking.
125 Indeed, knapping efficiency is usually conceived as generating an outcome while *minimizing*
126 required mass removal. This is true whether the desired outcome is a useful flake, a rejuvenated
127 edge, or a particular core morphology. In simple flake production, mass removed is probably
128 a good reflection of the completeness of exploitation (“exhaustion”) of cores and may have im-
129 plications for required skill (Toth, 1982; Pargeter et al., 2023) as well as raw material economy
130 (Shick, 1987; Reeves et al., 2021). However, in core shaping and resharpening, mass removal
131 would typically represent an energetic and raw material cost to be minimized, and might even
132 interfere with function (Key, 2019). Without further information, relationships between artifact
133 shape and reduction intensity are thus open to conflicting interpretations as evidence of inten-
134 tional design or its absence.

135 Li, et al. (2015) proposed a Flaked Area Index (FAI) as an alternative to SDI as a measure of reduc-
136 tion intensity, arguing that its validity is supported by an observed correlation ($r=0.424$) with SDI.
137 However, they also explain that “flaked area does not necessarily relate to the number of flake
138 scars...a small number of large scars can produce a large area of scar coverage, and conversely, a
139 large number of small scars can produce a small area of scar coverage.” (p. 6). We suggest that
140 what FAI actually captures is the spatial extent modifications to the surface of a core. It is thus

141 complementary to the measure of volume reduction provided by SDI and provides additional
 142 information to inform technological interpretations. For example, a correlation between FAI
 143 and artifact form without any effect of SDI would suggest a focus on “least-effort” shape imposi-
 144 tion whereas the opposite pattern would be consistent with relatively intense resharpening of
 145 spatially restricted areas on the core. A lack of shape correlation with either measure would be
 146 expected for simple debitage with no morphological targets whereas a strong correlation with
 147 both would indicate a highly “designed” form achieved through extensive morphological and
 148 volumetric transformation. (Figure 1) In the current study we thus considered SDI and FAI to-
 149 gether in order to evaluate evidence of intentional shaping in the early Acheulean of Gona.

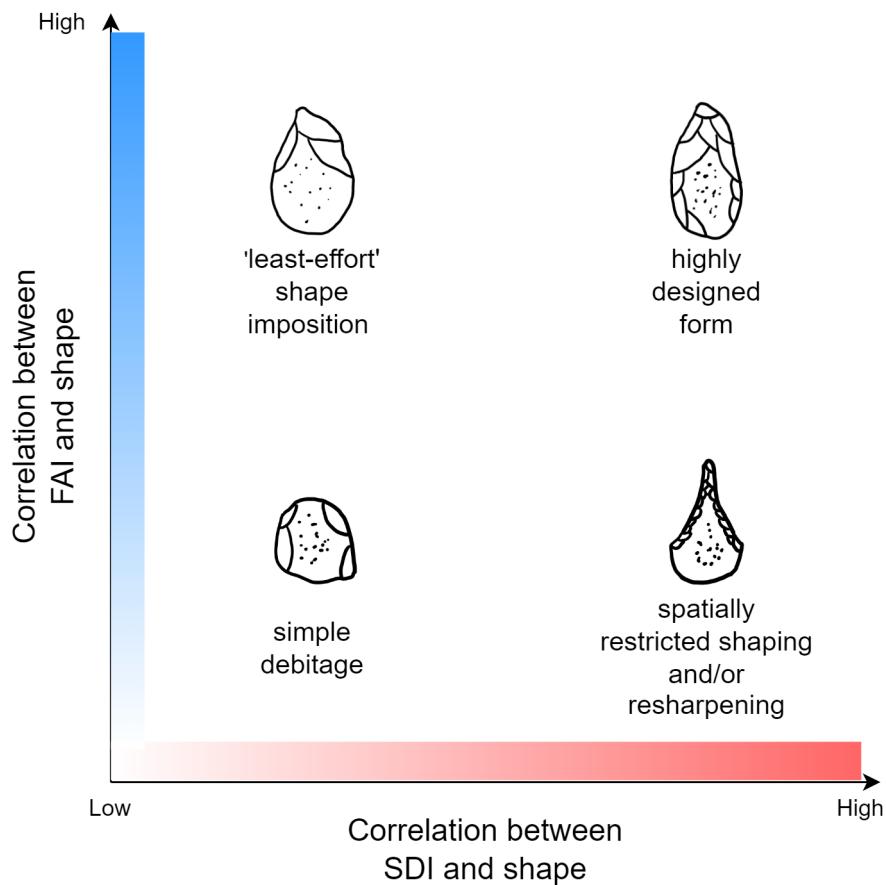


Figure 1: A conceptual model of inferring intention from artifact morphology.

150 1.2 Measuring artifact form and modification

151 Three-dimensional scanning and geometric morphometric (3DGM) methods are increasingly
 152 common in the study of LCT form and reduction intensity (Lycett et al., 2006; Archer and Braun,

¹⁵³ 2010; Li et al., 2015, 2021; Shipton and Clarkson, 2015b; Presnyakova et al., 2018; Caruana, 2020).
¹⁵⁴ These methods provide high-resolution, coordinate-based descriptions of artifact form includ-
¹⁵⁵ ing detailed information about whole object geometric relations that is not captured by con-
¹⁵⁶ ventional linear measures (Shott and Trail, 2010). This includes measures of surface area used
¹⁵⁷ to compute both SDI and FAI measures (Clarkson, 2013; Li et al., 2015). At the time of writing,
¹⁵⁸ however, 3D scans are available for only a small number of Gona artifacts, including 33 of the
¹⁵⁹ Oldowan and Acheulean flaked pieces used in this study (**Figure 2**). Despite continuing improve-
¹⁶⁰ ments, 3DGM methods still impose additional costs in terms of data collection and processing
¹⁶¹ time as well as required equipment, software, and training. Importantly, 3DGM methods cannot
¹⁶² be applied to pre-existing photographic and metric data sets (e.g., Marshall et al., 2002), includ-
¹⁶³ ing available data from Gona. For this reason, and to better understand the relative costs and
¹⁶⁴ benefits of 3DGM more generally, we sought to test the degree to which conventional measure-
¹⁶⁵ ments can approximate 3DGM methods and produce reliable results by directly comparing our
¹⁶⁶ conventional measures with 3DGM analysis of the 33 available scans.

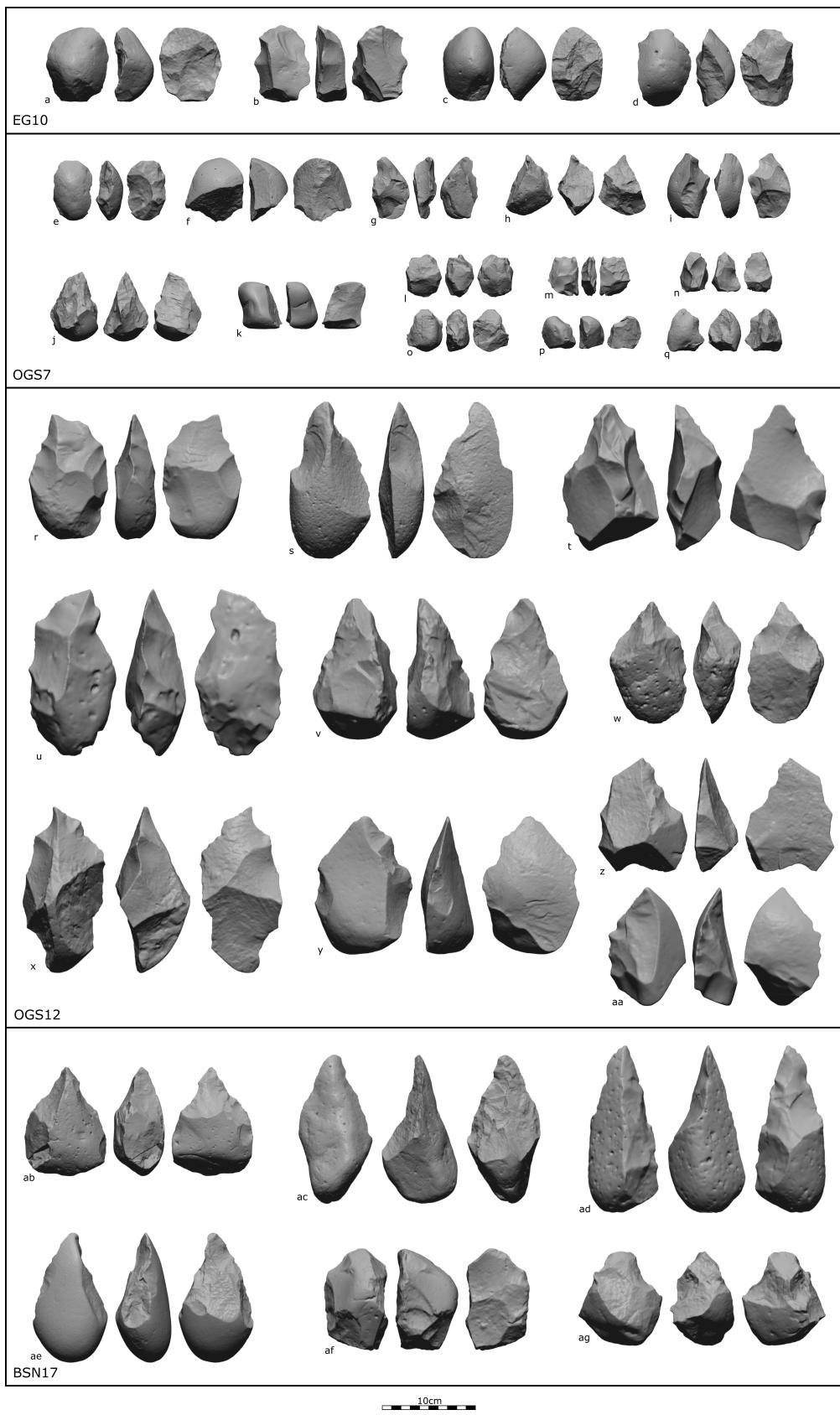


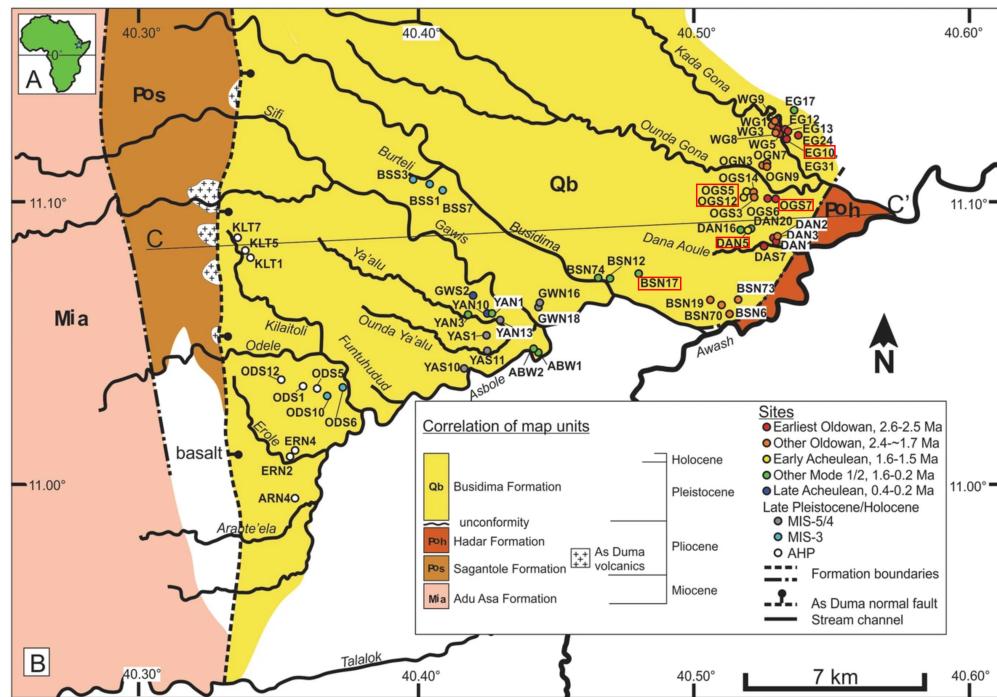
Figure 2: 3D Artifact scans from Gona used in this study.

167 For our study, we are specifically concerned with the accurate description of morphological vari-
168 ation and estimation of artifact surface and flaked areas. With respect to morphology, we were
169 encouraged by the fact that aspects of form variation relevant to our research question (i.e.,
170 core elongation, flattening, and pointedness) are relatively simple to describe using sparse data.
171 3DGM studies of LCTs collect vast amounts of shape data but may discard upward of 50% of the
172 observed variation in order to focus on two or three interpretable principal components. Across
173 studies, these PCs consistently correspond to basic features like elongation, relative thickness,
174 pointedness, and position of maximum thickness that also emerge from lower-resolution spatial
175 data (Lycett et al., 2006; Archer and Braun, 2010; García-Medrano et al., 2019) and studies em-
176 ploying linear measures rather than spatial coordinates (Crompton and Gowlett, 1993; Pargeter
177 et al., 2019). There is less evidence that conventional methods can accurately estimate artifact
178 surface and flaked areas. Clarkson (2013) advocated the use of 3D surface area measures as more
179 accurate than estimation from linear measures (e.g., surface area of a rectangular prism defined
180 by artifact dimensions). However, he also found that the error introduced by the linear approach
181 was a highly systematic, isometric overestimation of surface area and that results correlated with
182 direct 3D measures with an impressive $r^2 = 0.944$ and no effect of variation in core shape. Insofar
183 as it is variation in the relationship between surface area and flaking intensity that is of inter-
184 est, rather than absolute artifact size, such systematic overestimation may not be problematic.
185 Similar concerns apply to the estimation of flaked area. Traditionally, such estimates have been
186 done “by eye” as a percentage of the total artifact surface (e.g., Dibble et al., 2005). Such estima-
187 tions have been found to be reasonably accurate when compared to 3D methods, but with the
188 potential for substantial error on individual artifacts (Lin et al., 2010). The accuracy of by-eye
189 estimation has yet to be systematically studied in Early Stone Age cores like those from Gona.

190 1.3 The Early Acheulean at Gona

191 Early Acheulean sites in the Gona Project area (**Figure 3**) are distributed over a wide area within
192 the Dana Auole North (DAN), Ounda Gona South (OGS), and Busidima North (BSN) drainages in
193 the Busidima Formation (Quade et al., 2004) and range in age from approximately 1.7 to 1.2 mya
194 (Semaw et al., 2018). The specific sites included in the current analysis are DAN-5, OGS-5, OGS-
195 12, and BSN-17, all estimated to ca. 1.7 – 1.4 mya by stratigraphic position in the Gona sequence
196 (Quade et al., 2008; Semaw et al., 2020). The Busidima Formation accumulated through fluvial

deposition by the ancestral Awash River (Type I context) and its smaller tributary channels (Type II context) (Quade et al., 2004, 2008). Oldowan sites at Gona all occur in Type I sediments, indicating channel bank/margin (OGS-7) or proximal floodplain (EG-10, EG-12) contexts close to the large, hetero-lithic clasts available from point bars in the axial river channel (Quade et al., 2004; Stout et al., 2005). Acheulean sites continue to occur in Type I contexts (BSN-17, DAN-5) but are also found in Type II sediments (OGS-5, OGS-12,) reflecting increased utilization of large perennial tributaries to the ancestral Awash River (Quade et al., 2008). Clasts locally available in these tributaries were relatively small, implying that the large flakes and cobbles used to produce Acheulean artifacts were initially sourced from the axial river. A similar pattern of habitat diversification and increasing lithic transport distances has been described at other sites and may be typical of the early Acheulean (Hay, 1976; Rogers et al., 1994; Linares Matás and Yravedra, 2021). As with other early (i.e. >1.0 mya (Stout, 2011; Presnyakova et al., 2018)) Acheulean assemblages, the Gona collections include numerous “crudely made” handaxes and picks on large flake blanks and cobbles, as well as large (> 10cm) unmodified flakes, flaked pieces interpreted typologically as Mode 1 cores (see Figure 1af), and smaller debitage (Semaw et al., 2018; Semaw et al., 2020).



213 **2 Materials and Methods**

214 **2.1 Materials**

215 **2.1.1 Archaeological Sample**

216 Artifact collections analyzed here include *in situ* pieces excavated from intact stratigraphic con-
217 texts and surface pieces systematically collected from the sediments eroding from these layers.
218 Surface pieces are included because the current technological analysis does not require more
219 precise spatial association, stratigraphic, and chronological control. Our sample comprises the
220 total collection of flaked pieces ([Isaac and Isaac, 1997](#)) and large (>10 cm) detached pieces from
221 each site, regardless of typo-technological interpretation.

222 **2.2 Methods**

223 **2.2.1 Artifact Classification**

224 Artifacts were classified according to initial form (pebble/cobble, detached piece, or indetermi-
225 nate), presence/absence of retouch, technological interpretation (“Mode 1” core vs. “Mode 2”
226 LCT), and archaeological context (Oldowan vs. Early Acheulean sites). LCTs were additionally
227 classified as handaxes, knives, or picks following definitions from Kleindienst ([1962](#)). The valid-
228 ity of technological interpretations and typological classifications was assessed through cluster
229 analysis based on artifact shape and reduction intensity variables.

230 **2.2.2 Artifact Measurement**

231 Conventional linear measures capture the direction (e.g., length > breadth) but not the location
232 of geometric relations (e.g., position of maximum breadth). We address this by collecting lin-
233 ear measures defined by homologous semi-landmarks. All artifacts were oriented along their
234 maximum dimension, which was measured and defined as “length”. The next largest dimension
235 orthogonal to length was used to define the plane of “breadth”, with the dimension orthogo-
236 nal to this plane defined as “thickness” Width (W_1, W_2, W_3) and thickness (T_1, T_2, T_3) measures
237 were then collected at 25%, 50%, and 75% of length, oriented so that 25% Width > 75% Width.

238 To partition variation in shape from variation in size, we divided all linear measures by the geo-
239 metric mean (Lycett et al., 2006). GM-transformed variables were then submitted to a Principal
240 Components Analysis (covariance matrix) to identify the main dimensions of shape variation.

241 Our semi-landmark measurement system allowed us to improve on the prism-based surface
242 area formula ($2LW + 2LT + 2WT$) by using our 7 recorded dimensions to more tightly fit three
243 prisms around the artifact: $SA = W_1T_1 + 2(.33L * W_1) + 2(.33L * T_1) + 2(.33L * W_2) + 2(.33L * T_2) +$
244 $2(.33L * W_3) + 2(.33L * T_3) + W_3T_3$. Surface area calculated in this way correlates with mass^{2/3} at
245 $r^2 = 0.947$ in our sample. Calculated surface area was then used to derive the Scar Density Index:
246 SDI = number of flake scars > 1cm per unit surface area (Clarkson, 2013; Shipton and Clarkson,
247 2015a). The Flaked Area Index (FAI: flaked area divided by total surface area)(Li et al., 2015) was
248 estimated directly “by eye” as a percentage of the total artifact surface.

249 To assess the adequacy of shape descriptions based on our linear measures, we directly com-
250 pared these with shape as quantified by 3D methods on the 33 artifacts for which scans are avail-
251 able. GM-transformed linear measures from these 33 artifacts were submitted to a variance-
252 covariance matrix PCA. PCs with an eigenvalue greater than the mean were retained for analysis
253 and the results compared qualitatively (morphological interpretation of PCs) and quantitatively
254 (correlation of artifact factor scores) to 3D results. Accuracy of surface area and flaked area esti-
255 mates was also assessed by correlation with 3D results.

256 2.2.3 3D Methods

257 3DGM analysis was conducted using the *AGMT3-D* program of Herzlinger and Grosman (2018).
258 Artifacts were automatically oriented according to the axis of least asymmetry, then manually
259 oriented following the same orthogonal conventions described in section 2.3. Then, a grid of 200
260 homologous semi-landmarks were overlain on each artifact’s surface. Generalized Procrustes
261 and Principal Component analyses were then undertaken to explore the shape variability of
262 the sample. The surface area of each artifact was calculated using the *Artifact3-D* program of
263 Grosman et al. (2022). *Artifact3-D* was also used to automatically identify the flake scar bound-
264 aries and compute each scar’s surface area, using the scar analysis functions of Richardson et al.
265 (2014).

266 **3 Results**

267 **3.1 Measurement Validation**

268 A PCA on GM transformed linear measures of the 33 artifacts identified two PCs accounting for
269 75.6% of the variance. Linear-PC1 (Eigenvalue = 0.189) explained 55.2% of the variance. Factor
270 loadings (**Table 1**) for Linear-PC1 reflect artifact elongation (i.e., an anti-correlation of length
271 vs. distal width and thickness). This A PCA on GM transformed linear measures the 33 arti-
272 facts identified two PCs accounting for 75.6% of the variance. Linear-PC1 (Eigenvalue = 0.189)
273 explained 55.2% of the variance. Factor loadings (**Table 1**) for Linear-PC1 reflect artifact elonga-
274 tion (i.e., an anti-correlation of length vs. distal width and thickness). This closely parallels the
275 length vs. width and thickness tradeoff captured by 3DGM-PC1 (**Figure 4**) and is reflected in a
276 tight correlation of artifact scores produced by the two PCs ($r = 0.903, p < 0.001$, **Figure 5A**). A sec-
277 ond factor (Linear-PC2, eigenvalue = 0.07) explained an additional 20.4% of variance. This factor
278 was less strongly correlated with its 3DGM counterpart (3DGM-PC2; $r = 0.344, p = 0.050$) prob-
279 ably because Linear-PC2 describes anticorrelated variation in width and thickness (i.e., broad
280 and flat vs. thick and pointed; **Table 1**) whereas 3DGM-PC2 more purely isolates convergence
281 (**Figure 4**). The remainder of the shape variability explained by Linear-PC2 is captured by higher
282 order 3DGM-PCs 3 through 5, which comprise the contribution of the left and right lateral mar-
283 gins to relative thickness. Use of high-resolution, coordinate-based scan data thus generates
284 PCs that identify more specific shape attributes, but the underlying morphological variability
285 captured by the linear and 3D analyses remains similar. Together, 3DGM-PC2 ($r = 0.344, p =$
286 0.050), 3DGM-PC3 ($r = -0.416, p = 0.016$), 3DGM-PC4 ($r = 0.458, p = 0.007$), and 3DGM-PC5 ($r =$
287 $-0.352, p = 0.044$) correlate well with Linear-PC2, cumulatively capturing whether the items are
288 broad and flat or thick and pointed. A stepwise regression ($r^2=0.625, F(4,28)=11.697, p<0.001$,
289 Probability-of-F-to-enter ≤ 0.050 ; Probability-of-F-to-remove ≥ 0.100) with Linear-PC2 as the
290 dependent variable retained all four of these 3DGM-PCs as significant predictors.

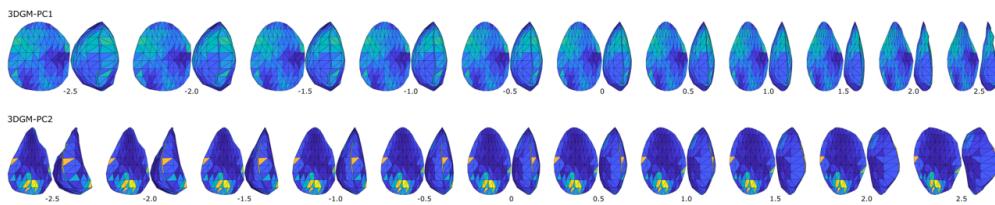


Figure 4: 3D models displaying the first two PCs.

Table 1: Component loadings for linear metric PCs on scanned sample.

Linear.metrics..GM.transformed.	Linear.PC1	Linear.PC2
Length	0.989	-0.107
W1	0.303	0.350
W2	0.403	0.767
W3	-0.176	0.790
T1	-0.135	-0.679
T2	-0.369	-0.623
T3	-0.607	-0.282

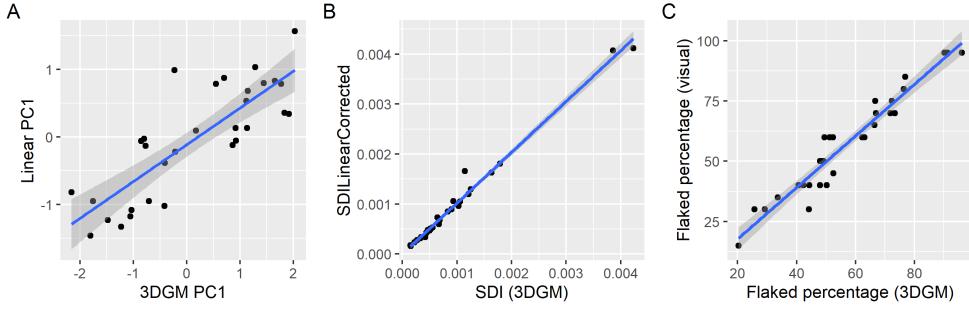


Figure 5: Comparison between linear measurement and 3d measurement.

We thus concluded that linear measures are adequate to capture relevant shape variation and proceeded with a PCA on our full sample. We identified two PCs accounting for 80.0% of the variance. PC1 (Eigenvalue = 0.216) explained 56.4% of the variance. Factor loadings (Table 2) for PC1 reflect artifact flatness (i.e., an anti-correlation of length and width vs. thickness) such that higher values indicate relatively thinner pieces. PC2 (Eigenvalue = 0.090) explained 23.6% of the variance. Factor loadings (Table 2) show that PC2 captures artifact convergence or “pointedness” (i.e., an anti-correlation of tip width with length and butt thickness) such that higher values indicate shorter, less pointed forms.

We also tested the validity of our two reduction measures, SDI and FAI. In agreement with Clarkson (2013), we found that surface area estimated from caliper measures displayed a strong correlation with ($r^2=0.975$, $p < 0.001$) but linear over-estimation of ($\beta = 1.58$) 3D surface area. This results in a systematic underestimation of SDI that scales with core size. However, a simple correction of the caliper estimate (dividing by the slope, 1.58) eliminates surface area over-estimation (mean difference = $256mm^2$ [$<1.7\%$ of mean], $p=0.040$) and produces SDI values that agree with 3D values ($r^2=0.975$, $p < 0.001$, $\beta = 0.98$) (Figure 5B). We thus proceeded to apply this correction

Table 2: Component loadings for linear metric PCs in the full sample.

Linear.metrics..GM.transformed.	PC1	PC2
Length	0.905	-0.414
W1	0.635	0.299
W2	0.680	0.571
W3	0.486	0.761
T1	-0.510	-0.526
T2	-0.684	-0.525
T3	-0.719	0.023

306 to surface area estimates in the full sample. Insofar as these relationships are driven by basic
 307 geometry, we expect these methods (including correction) to be generalizable to other ESA as-
 308 semblages.

309 Visual estimation of flaked area approximated 3DGM measurement very closely ($r^2=0.932$, $p <$
 310 0.001 , $\beta = 1.051$; **Figure 5C**) and without any systematic bias (paired t-test: mean difference =
 311 -0.015% , 95% CI = 2.02% to 1.99% , $p = 0.987$). Individual errors ranged between -10.46% and
 312 14.24% . We thus considered visual estimation to be reliable in our sample.

313 3.2 Classification Validation

314 We first conducted a stepwise DFA on all flaked pieces ($n=192$) with inferred technological Mode
 315 (one vs. two) as the grouping variable and PCs 1 and 2, corrected SDI (cSDI), and FAI as the in-
 316 dependent variables. All variables were retained, yielding one canonical DF (eigenvalue=1.825,
 317 Wilks Lambda = 0.354, $p < 0.001$) which correctly classified 93.8% of artifacts. We thus accepted
 318 the validity of classification by Mode in our sample and employed this distinction in subse-
 319 quent analyses. There was no discernable difference in discriminant scores for Mode 1 cores
 320 from Oldowan ($n=37$) vs. Acheulean ($n=39$) contexts (, $p = 0.746$). Mode 1 cores from Oldowan
 321 contexts ($n=37$) do include 10 (27%) small, retouched flakes. Only one retouched flake from an
 322 Acheulean context was classified by the DFA as a Mode 1 core. This piece, typologically classified
 323 as a “knife”, is the smallest (93mm) retouched flake in the Acheulean sample. When retouched
 324 flakes are excluded from the comparison, there are no significant differences in shape between
 325 Mode 1 cores from Oldowan and Acheulean contexts. Interestingly, however, Acheulean Mode
 326 1 cobble-cores are much larger (mean weight 480g vs. 186g, Cohen's $d=1.137$, $p < 0.001$) and less
 327 heavily reduced (mean cSDI 0.057 vs. 0.103, Cohen's $d = -0.884$, $p < 0.001$) despite having similar

328 FAI (mean 0.52 vs. 0.46, Cohen's d=0.271, p=0.266).

329 Next, we conducted a stepwise DFA on all flaked Mode 2 pieces (i.e. excluding unmodified large
330 flakes, n = 115) with typology (handaxe, pick, knife) as the grouping variable and the same four
331 independent variables. Both shape PCs and FAI were retained, while cSDI was not entered. This
332 produced two DFs (DF1: Eigenvalue=1.536, 91.3% of variance; DF2: Eigenvalue = 0.146, 8.7% of
333 variance; Wilks Lambda = 0.344; p<0.001) which correctly classified 71.3% of artifacts. Inspec-
334 tion of DF coefficients shows that DF1 captures an inverse correlation between flaked area and
335 pointedness (Linear-PC2) whereas DF2 captures a positive relationship between flaked area and
336 elongation (Linear-PC2). A bivariate plot (Figure 5) illustrates the fact that DF1 captures a range
337 of variation from pointed, heavily-worked picks, through handaxes, to knives, with substantial
338 overlap between adjacent types (Table 2). As an intermediate type, "handaxes" were correctly
339 classified only 43.9% of the time. In agreement with others ([Presnyakova et al., 2018](#); [Duke et al.,](#)
340 [2021](#); [Kuhn, 2021](#)) we conclude that these typological labels artificially partition a continuum of
341 variation and abandon them in subsequent analyses.

342 3.3 Effects of Reduction on Shape

343 To assess the influence of flake removals on core form, we examined the association between our
344 reduction measures (cSDI and FAI) and core shape (PC1, PC2). In the complete sample of flaked
345 pieces (n=192), we observed weak but significant effects of cSDI ($r=-0.294$, $p <0.001$) and FAI
346 ($r=-0.294$, $p<0.001$) on PC1(flatness) and of FAI only on PC2(pointedness) ($r=-0.436$, $p<0.001$).
347 However, it is clear that these overall effects conflate different trends in Mode 1 vs. Mode 2 cores,
348 as well as in cores executed on flake vs. pebble/cobble bases. Within categories, we observed no
349 significant effects of cSDI whereas FAI had variable relationships with core form.

350 In Mode 1 cores, a weak negative effect of FAI on PC2(pointedness) ($n = 76$, $\beta =-0.006$, $r=0.240$,
351 $p= 0.037$) suggests that increasing extent of modification tends to slightly increase pointedness
352 (Figure 6a). No effects of FAI on PC1 (flatness) or of SDIc on either PC approach significance. FAI
353 and SDIc are moderately correlated ($\beta=0.001$, $r=0.524$, $p<0.001$), an effect that reflects increases
354 in the upper limit of scar density values as flaked area increases (i.e., flaked area constrains max-
355 imum cSDI: Figure 6b).

356 In Mode 2 cores ($n=115$), reduction measures have different effects depending on initial blank

357 form. In general, the contrast between flat, lightly-worked flake bases and rounder, more-heavily
 358 worked cobble bases tends to inflate relationships between FAI and core shape (**Figure 6**). Mode
 359 2 cobble cores (n=37) display a negative effect of FAI on PC1(Flatness) ($\beta=-0.011$, $r=0.367$, $p =$
 360 0.026), no effect of FAI on pointedness, and no association between FAI and cSDI ($r=0.141$, $p =$
 361 0.406). Flake cores (n=69) show negative effects of FAI on PC1(Flatness) ($\beta=-0.007$, $r=0.284$, $p =$
 362 0.018) and, more strongly, PC2(pointedness) ($\beta=-0.019$, $r=0.443$, $p < 0.001$). Comparison of Mode
 363 2 flake cores with unmodified large flakes from Acheulean contexts (n=35) shows that ranges of
 364 shape variation substantially overlap but that flaking generally reduces both PC1 and PC2. In
 365 fact, regressions of PC1 and PC2 on FAI show y-intercepts that closely approximate unmodified
 366 flake mean values (0.852 vs. 0.774 and 0.693 vs. 0.594, respectively) and significantly negative
 367 slopes as FAI increases (**Figure 7**). Flake cores show a small but significant positive effect of
 368 FAI on cSDI that, in contrast to Mode 1 cores, represents actual covariance rather than simply a
 369 relaxation of constraint (i.e. both upper and lower limits of cSDI increase with FAI).

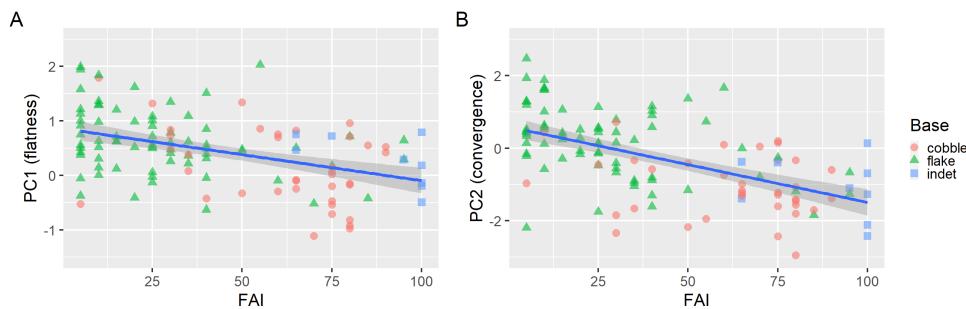


Figure 6: Mode 2 trends across blank types.

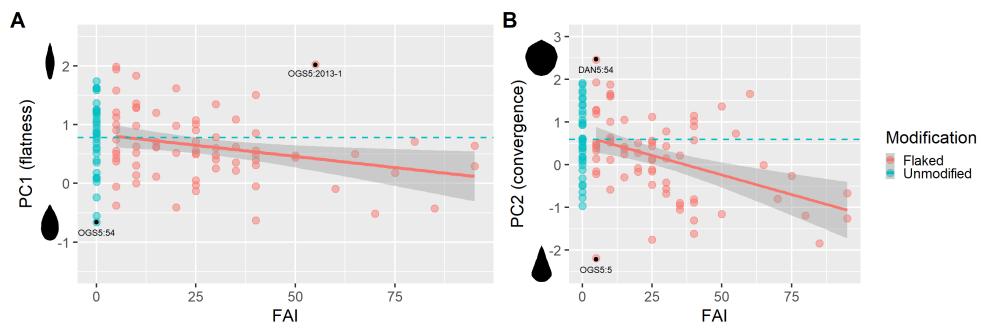


Figure 7: Effect of FAI compared to unmodified large flakes from Acheulean contexts.

370 A small number of Mode 2 cores (n=9) were so heavily modified (mean FAI=89%, range 65-100)
 371 that the blank form could not be determined. These heavily worked “indeterminate” cores tend

³⁷² to show similar PC1 (flatness) and PC2 (pointedness) values to cobble-base cores (i.e. thicker
³⁷³ and more pointed than flake cores) and follow general trends of shape change with increasing
³⁷⁴ FAI observed across base types (**Figure 6**).

³⁷⁵ 4 Discussion

³⁷⁶ Our analyses of flaked pieces from Oldowan and Early Acheulean contexts at Gona support the
³⁷⁷ presence of two distinct reduction modes (1 and 2) that can be reliably discriminated using mea-
³⁷⁸ sures of artifact shape, flaking intensity, and extent of surface modification. However, they fail
³⁷⁹ to support further sub-division between conventional Mode 2 tool types (handaxe, pick, knife).
³⁸⁰ Following criteria proposed in the Introduction, we find strong evidence of imposed form in the
³⁸¹ retouched large flakes from Acheulean contexts at Gona, weak evidence of shaping in Mode 2
³⁸² cobble cores from Acheulean contexts, and little to no evidence of shaping in Mode 1 cores from
³⁸³ both Acheulean and Oldowan contexts. Our framing of this research question and its proposed
³⁸⁴ test criteria follows the preponderance of archaeological literature in conceptualizing artifact
³⁸⁵ design as a binary presence/absence of intentionally imposed form ([Dibble et al., 2017](#)). How-
³⁸⁶ ever, we will now argue that our results are better interpreted as reflecting variation in the de-
³⁸⁷ gree and nature of design expressed by ESA toolmakers. This shift in perspective recognizes that
³⁸⁸ the purposeful production of desired morphological and functional features can be achieved
³⁸⁹ by different combinations of raw material selection, blank production, and flaking strategies,
³⁹⁰ including the preservation of function through patterned changes in morphology ([Kuhn, 2021](#)).

³⁹¹ 4.1 Large Flakes

³⁹² As we argued in the Introduction, the systematic production of large flakes indicates attention to
³⁹³ artifact size as a desired design feature. Many of these flakes would have possessed substantial
³⁹⁴ lengths of sharp edge and could have been immediately useful as cutting tools without further
³⁹⁵ retouch. In fact, 33% of the large flakes in our total sample are unretouched. Notably, this is also
³⁹⁶ true of the sub-sample from sites (OGS-5 and OGS-12) located in Type II, “tributary” sediments
³⁹⁷ (29 of 82 unmodified, 35%). This likely reflects transport and discard of unmodified flakes from
³⁹⁸ production sites closer to the axial river system sources of large clasts, consistent with the idea
³⁹⁹ that such flakes were themselves treated as useful tools. We consider the alternative possibility,

400 that unmodified flakes were unintended byproducts of local LCT production from transported
401 boulder cores, to be less likely considering the energetic inefficiency of this strategy as well as the
402 absence of large boulder cores in the assemblages (but see discussion of LCTs on cobble cores
403 below).

404 Whether or not unmodified flakes were themselves desired “end products”, a majority of large
405 flakes in the sample were retouched to some extent. Our analyses indicate that this flaking was
406 performed in a manner that produced systematic and directional shape changes. Specifically,
407 increasing FAI is associated with progressive reduction in relative breadth (increasing relative
408 thickness and elongation; PC1) and increasing convergence (PC2). In contrast, variation in cSDI
409 is not associated with artifact shape. These effects of surface modification extent but not re-
410 duction intensity indicate that it is the size and non-overlapping placement of flake removals
411 that drives directional shape change, rather than the removal of mass in general. The observed
412 correlation of cSDI with FAI further indicates that each new scar tends to remove additional un-
413 flaked area, consistent with the observed pattern of small numbers of relatively large and spa-
414 tially distributed flake removals. This clearly differs from classic re-sharpening models, which
415 emphasize shape change with decreasing artifact size as a byproduct of concentrated and re-
416 peated mass removal from particular areas of the artifact, such as working edges (Dibble, 1987;
417 McPherron, 2003). It also clearly differs from the expected effects of un-patterned debitage on
418 flake blanks, which does tend to increase relative thickness but also decreases elongation and is
419 not associated with convergence (Moore and Perston, 2016).

420 It is possible that the observed pattern reflects the intentional pursuit of an explicit morpholog-
421 ical target or “mental template.” This is generally seen as a strong claim implying rich mental
422 representation and manipulation of spatial features (Wynn, 2002), cultural mechanisms for the
423 intersubjective sharing of ideas of “appropriate” form (Wynn, 1995), and social reproduction of
424 the skills required to reliably achieve these forms (Liu et al., 2023). If there is such a target, how-
425 ever, it would seem to be a very loose one considering the observed range of shape variation in
426 retouched flakes (Figure 5). A more cognitively and culturally “lean” interpretation is that the
427 pattern reflects a procedural and/or functional bias toward establishing (or rejuvenating origi-
428 nal) cutting edges at one end of the long axis. In the absence of effective thinning and volume
429 management techniques, such a bias would naturally lead to narrowing/thickening of the piece
430 overall and especially at the “tip,” as is seen in our sample. This bias might itself be a socially

431 learned behavioral convention or “habit” (*sensu* Isaac, 1986), but could plausibly emerge di-
432 rectly from individual responses to the morphology of large flake blanks. Such flakes are typi-
433 cally elongated and thus present: 1) two longer edges along the maximum dimension that are
434 a natural focus for retouch, and 2) an ergonomic polarity defined by a thick (platform and per-
435 cussion bulb) “butt” vs. a feather terminated “tip” (cf. [Key et al., 2016](#); [Wynn and Gowlett, 2018](#)).
436 Even with this minimal interpretation, however, we would argue that LFB flaking strategies at
437 Gona present evidence of design in the sense of being intended to produce and/or maintain de-
438 sired functional features of the LCT. This contrasts with patterns observed in cores classified as
439 Mode 1 in our analyses which, as expected, appear to reflect simple debitage without intended
440 morphological targets.

441 4.2 Mode 1 Cores

442 A Discriminant Function Analysis strongly supported the presence of two distinct morpholog-
443 ical types in our sample (based on overall shape and flake scar characteristics), which we had
444 previously typo-technologically interpreted as reflecting Mode 1 (debitage) and 2 (façonnage)
445 flaking strategies. Consistent with this interpretation, cores assigned to Mode 1 showed little or
446 no evidence of core shape management. One potential exception is an unexpected tendency of
447 increasing FAI to be associated with increasing convergence. However, this effect is an order of
448 magnitude weaker than that seen in LFB Acheulean cores and may be an artifact of our orient-
449 ing protocol, which aligns cores such that width at 25% length is always less than width at 75%
450 length. If reduction tends to increase asymmetry from initially rounded cobble forms, this could
451 account for the weak convergence effect we observe. In support of this interpretation, Mode 1
452 cores display a relatively strong correlation between FAI and cSDI driven by an increase in the
453 upper bound of cSDI values as FAI increases. In other words, we find that greater flaked area
454 on Mode 1 cores can, but does not necessarily, accommodate a greater number of flake scars.
455 This is what would be expected from knapping unconstrained by any systematic core-shaping
456 strategy.

457 The presence (n=14) of relatively large (> 100mm) Mode 1 cores at Gona Acheulean sites raises
458 the further possibility that at least some of these might be depleted cores from LFB production.
459 However, none of these display scars > 90mm (mean = 51.8 mm), most are very lightly reduced
460 (mean = 5.7 scars), and none meet the 150mm length cut-off used by Sharon (2009) to identify

461 “large” cores suitable for LFB production. The largest Mode I core in our sample is 137 mm long,
462 has five scars ranging from 25- 85 mm long, and an FAI of 25%. We thus consider it unlikely
463 that large Mode I cores from Acheulean contexts were used for LFB production. The behavioral
464 significance of relatively large, lightly-worked Mode 1 cores in Acheulean contexts is a question
465 for future research.

466 4.3 Mode 2 Cores

467 Our most complicated results come from Mode 2 cobble cores. Evidence of intentional shaping
468 is limited: FAI has a moderate effect on PC1 such that increasing flaked area produces relatively
469 shorter, thicker, and narrower pieces. This violates expectations that intentional LCT shaping
470 should increase elongation and convergence. However, it also fails to align with a reported ten-
471 dency for un-patterned debitage to decrease the thickness and increase the elongation of cobble
472 cores (Moore & Perston, 2016). This may reflect the fact that Mode 2 cobble cores at Gona begin
473 and remain relatively elongated (Table 3: mean L/W = 1.68) throughout reduction compared to
474 starting (n=29, mean L/W = 1.29) and ending (mean L/W = 1.34) cobble cores in the experiment
475 of Moore and Perston (2016). The moderate trend toward thickening and shortening of cores
476 with increasing FAI might plausibly be an effect of particularly elongated initial core form. In
477 the absence of intentional thinning techniques (Stout et al., 2014) flaking around the perime-
478 ter of an oblong core would be expected to preferentially reduce length and especially breath
479 (due to the long axis providing more potential platforms, especially if knappers seek to maxi-
480 mize flake size) while preserving thickness. Along these lines, Toth (1985) reported that “roller”
481 shaped cobbles tended to produce bifacial choppers in his unstructured debitage experiments.

482 Whether or not shaping occurred, it is clear that the elongated Mode 2 cobble cores at Gona do
483 provide evidence of initial size and shape selection within the range of rounded cobbles avail-
484 able from Type 1 channels in the Busidima Formation (Quade et al., 2004). This pattern is not
485 simply an analytical artifact of classifying elongated cores as “Mode 2” while selectively omitting
486 rounded forms: the complete sample of large ($\geq 750\text{g}$) cores in our sample (n=25) is dominated
487 by relatively elongated forms (median L/W = 1.66). The small number (n=5) of large, rounded
488 (L/W < 1.33) cores in the sample are also anomalous in being very lightly worked compared to
489 more elongated large cores (mean scar count = 4.2 vs. 10.45, $p < 0.001$; mean cSDI = 0.14 vs. 0.31,
490 $p = 0.002$; mean FAI = 36 vs. 65, $p = 0.016$).

491 This could reflect the intentional selection of large, elongated blanks for LCT production, as
492 has been proposed at other early Acheulean sites (Harmand, 2009; Texier, 2018; Duke et al.,
493 2021). We would characterize such selection as a design choice even in the absence of subse-
494 quent shaping. However, large-cobble shape preferences might equally reflect biases related to
495 LFB production. Geometrically, elongated cobbles afford greater potential maximum dimen-
496 sions for detached flakes than do rounder cobbles of a similar mass. Flaking along the long axis
497 of elongated cobbles enables the production of elongated, side-struck flakes (Torre and Mora,
498 2018) that are typical of the LFB Acheulean and which provide longer and more ergonomic (cf.
499 Wynn and Gowlett, 2018) cutting edges than do round flakes. Flatter and more elongated cob-
500 bles are also generally easier to open and exploit (Toth, 1982; Whittaker, 1994; Texier, 2018).
501 This is an increasingly important consideration as size increases due to the increased percus-
502 sive force needed to detach larger flakes and the challenges of supporting and positioning larger
503 cores (Semaw et al., 2009), particularly with cobbles that are large but not sufficiently massive
504 to act as stationary targets for thrown hammerstones (Toth and Schick, 2019). We thus find it
505 plausible that at least some typological picks, handaxes, and knives made on cobble cores at
506 Gona could have been by-products of large flake production rather than intended forms. Toth
507 and Schick (2019: 741) similarly note that “heavily reduced boulder cores can assume the form
508 of smallish discoids and polyhedrons [and] may not be identified as sources of large flake blanks
509 by many archaeologists”. If this is true, such cores are distinguished from classic Mode 1 cores
510 by allometric effects on raw material choice and flake placement rather than a shift to deliberate
511 shaping.

512 The possibility that some Mode 2 cobble cores at Gona might be the remains of cores used for
513 large flake production was initially suggested by informal, “experiential” knapping with Gona
514 cobbles, during which attempts at LFB production produced pick-like forms as a byproduct.
515 Consistent with this hypothesis, the mean (152.9mm) and median (156mm) length of Mode 2
516 cobble cores are both above the 150mm cut-off proposed by Sharon (2009) and the maximum
517 scar length on each Mode 2 cobble core substantially overlaps with the size range of unmodified
518 large flakes (Table 3). Importantly, this is also true of the largest retouched flakes at Gona, nine
519 of which exhibit flake scars >100mm and thus could have been used as LFB cores. This possi-
520 bility has also been suggested at Koobi Fora (Presnyakova et al., 2018) and might be relevant to
521 understanding very large LCTs on flakes at other sites (e.g., Beyene et al., 2013).

522 Nevertheless, the fact remains that the preponderance of scars on large cobble cores are from
523 the removal of smaller flakes. Although these smaller scars could record preparatory flaking for
524 LFB predetermination (Torre and Mora, 2018) and/or a subsequent stage of small flake debitage
525 (Shea, 2010), it is difficult to rule out a role in shaping. Indeed, some pieces (e.g., Figure 1 ac,
526 ad, ae) exhibit delicate points and sharp edges that are strongly suggestive of intentional shap-
527 ing. If these pieces did in fact begin as cores for LFB production, it is possible that they were
528 subsequently shaped into cutting tools in their own right. Such lithic “upcycling” of depleted
529 LFB cores would help to explain the transport of these pieces away from the axial river system.
530 However, we should also be cautious not to overinterpret a small number of suggestive pieces
531 pulled from a wider range of variation, as they may simply represent low frequency “spandrels”
532 of un-structured debitage (Moore and Perston, 2016; Moore, 2020). These various possibilities
533 remain to be tested, but we note that there is no a priori reason to think that Acheulean tool
534 makers would have neglected potentially useful cores because they “belonged” to a particular
535 reduction sequence or technological type.

536 4.4 Implications

537 Early Acheulean technology is differentiated from the preceding Oldowan by changes in artifact
538 size as well as morphology (Isaac, 1977). However, discussion of the technological, cognitive,
539 and cultural implications of this transition has often focused on the emergence (or not) of inten-
540 tional shape imposition (Holloway, 1969; Isaac, 1976; Gowlett, 1986; Wynn, 1995, 2002; Roche,
541 2005; e.g., Duke et al., 2021). Our results suggest that this emphasis may be misplaced, and that
542 distinctive Early Acheulean artifact forms might represent secondary accommodations to the
543 primary goal of increasing tool size. From this perspective, Early Acheulean shape imposition is
544 best understood as reflecting an interaction between functional design goals and technological
545 constraints (Wynn and Gowlett, 2018; Kuhn, 2021).

546 The consensus view is that Oldowan flaking goals focused on the production of sharp, cutting
547 flakes through least effort debitage (Toth, 1985). Somewhat more controversially, Oldowan flak-
548 ing may have included preferred debitage patterns (Stout et al., 2019) and/or intentional core
549 maintenance and rejuvenation strategies (Delagnes and Roche, 2005). Our failure to find sys-
550 tematic effects of reduction on Oldowan core shape at Gona is consistent with this broad char-
551 acterization. Starting from this Oldowan baseline, the production of larger cutting tools could in

principle be achieved by increasing the size of cores and detached flakes and/or by attempting to produce and maintain cutting edges on cores themselves rather than on the smaller pieces detached from them. Both strategies are evident in the Early Acheulean at Gona.

At Gona, large flakes appear to have been transported across the landscape and discarded either in their original form or after relatively light modification to impose desired cutting edges. This behavior combines the two size-maximizing strategies identified above by increasing flake size and then using these large detached pieces as supports for retouched edges. On the other hand, large cobble cores at Gona display shape variation more consistent with debitage than shaping. This leads us to suggest that these pieces might be depleted cores from large flake production (size-maximizing strategy 1) that have been “upcycled” as large core tools (size-maximizing strategy 2). In this way, the full range of artifact types and patterns of shape variation in the Gona Early Acheulean can be parsimoniously accounted for as the expression of two strategies for increasing cutting tool size.

This interpretation has three main implications. First, it supports the view that the Acheulean initially emerged as a set of technological strategies for increasing cutting tool size, especially by striking large flakes (Isaac, 1969). Hypothetically, this size increase might have been favored by novel functional priorities, such as extended use-life, enhanced transportability, and utility for heavy-duty cutting (Shea, 2010; Toth and Schick, 2019). It may also have been motivated and/or enabled by increases in hominid body size. These overlapping possibilities appear likely to be mutually reinforcing rather than mutually exclusive. In fact, the appearance of the Acheulean starting 1.95 mya (Mussi et al., 2023) is roughly contemporaneous with an increase in the number, size, and ecogeographic range of stone tool sites in general (Plummer, 2004), as well as evidence of habitat diversification and greater lithic transport distances for Acheulean sites specifically (Hay, 1976; Rogers et al., 1994; Quade et al., 2008; Torre et al., 2008), increasing emphasis on large animal butchery (Linares Matás and Yravedra, 2021), and increases in hominid brain and body size (Antón et al., 2014) including the first appearance of *Homo erectus* (Mussi et al., 2023). Increased cutting tool size is a plausible response and/or enabling factor to many of these shifts and is in that sense appears “overdetermined” by available evidence. Importantly, the current study does not resolve the extent to which the production and transport of Early Acheulean tools around the landscape (Presnyakova et al., 2018) occurred through planned logistical (Binford, 1980) activities of individuals and/or collaborating groups vs. the cumulative effects of indepen-

583 dent transport and recycling events over time (Reeves et al., 2023). Implications for planning
584 and prospection capacities (Szpunar et al., 2014) thus remain unclear.

585 Second, it reinforces a growing consensus (Presnyakova et al., 2018; e.g., Duke et al., 2021; Kuhn,
586 2021) that early Acheulean LCT types artificially partition a continuum of variation rather than
587 representing distinct target forms. More specifically, we propose that these forms emerge as
588 the expression of a generic goal of cutting tool size maximization implemented across vary-
589 ing material constraints and opportunities. This is particularly relevant to the interpretation
590 of “picks,” which have long been viewed as a morphologically distinct but functionally myste-
591 rious tool type. Toth and Schick (2019) note that picks do not appear designed to provide good
592 cutting edges but also do not show use-wear consistent with digging. This leads them to spec-
593 ulate that picks may have been specialized weapons used to dispatch large, wounded animals
594 with a blow to the head. However, picks are a common, persistent, and morphologically variable
595 artifact type in the Early Acheulean, which argues against such a narrow function. We suggest
596 that typological picks may lump together a variable mix of depleted LFB cores and large cutting
597 tools made on relatively thick (cobble or flake) blanks, possibly including upcycled LFB cores.
598 Within this interpretation, picks would be part of a continuum of morphological variation pro-
599 duced by different raw material forms and complex reduction histories, rather than a distinct
600 tool type designed for novel function. Due to such constraints, picks as a class may appear less
601 well designed for cutting than LCTs produced on thinner blanks. However, the relationship be-
602 tween tool morphology and cutting efficiency is complex and multivariate (Key, 2016), and the
603 relative utility of short and/or higher-angle edges on a more massive tool is not well understood
604 across diverse cutting tasks. Picks as an artifact class have not received the same attention as
605 handaxes and cleavers and we are unaware of any broad comparative synthesis. Beyene et al.
606 (2013) do report that picks at Konso are relatively conservative in shape and scar counts over a
607 period from 1.75-1.2 Ma during which associated handaxes show clear increases in refinement.
608 They thus suggest that pick function may already have been effectively optimized by 1.75-1.6 Ma
609 whereas the cutting function of handaxes continued to be enhanced. This is broadly consistent
610 with the current suggestion that typological picks identify a morphological extreme produced
611 by raw material features (esp. thickness) that constrain or discourage the refinement that might
612 be developed on other blanks. From 1.75-1.2 Ma, these ad hoc and/or less refined cutting tools
613 appear to have remained a stable element in the tool kit. However, they are nearly absent at 0.85
614 Ma, coincident with the appearance of “considerably refined” handaxes. Indeed, picks are not

615 commonly reported to co-occur with refined handaxes in later Acheulean contexts anywhere.
616 On a traditional functional interpretation, this would imply that their originally designed func-
617 tion also became less important in these contexts. The alternative possibility suggested here is
618 that increased investment in handaxe refinement decreased the perceived value of producing
619 and using ad hoc core tools for similar functions.

620 Lastly, our interpretation suggests that LCT variation at Gona probably does not reflect inten-
621 tional imposition of morphological norms (cf. [Holloway, 1969](#)) or detailed mental templates
622 ([Deetz, 1967](#)). Instead, we would focus attention on the cognitive and cultural implications of
623 size maximization strategies. As reviewed by Stout ([2011](#)), these stem from 1) the physical and
624 strategic challenges of quarrying large flakes and 2) the increased complexity of knapping action
625 hierarchies resulting from the addition of novel sub-goals (e.g. create a cutting edge) involved in
626 shaping large flake and cobble cores into useful tools. Systematic large flake production strate-
627 gies and techniques are qualitatively different from small-flake debitage ([Isaac, 1969](#); [Toth and](#)
628 [Schick, 2019](#)) and thus add to the volume of technical knowledge and know-how that must be
629 acquired by individuals. This is directly relevant for inferring learning demands and the pos-
630 sible role of social support in Acheulean skill reproduction ([Pargeter et al., 2019](#)). Stout ([2002](#))
631 provides a modern example of large flake production that illustrates the potential scope of such
632 demands. Interestingly, much earlier large flake production has been reported at the 3.3 Ma site
633 of Lomekwi 3 but is argued to be poorly controlled with minimal core reduction, numerous steps
634 and hinges, and extensive platform battering. Although concerns have been raised regarding the
635 dating and context of this site ([Dominguez-Rodrigo and Alcalá, 2019](#); [Archer et al., 2020](#)), it may
636 provide an interesting technological comparison to Early Acheulean large flake production.

637 With respect to knapping action organization, the intentional placement of flake removals to
638 generate desired core morphologies demonstrates a more complex goal structure than is re-
639 quired for simple, least-effort debitage. Such complexity has implications for assessing cogni-
640 tive demands including relational integration, temporal abstraction, and goal abstraction ([Stout,](#)
641 [2011](#)). For this reason, our study was designed to address concerns that intentional shaping
642 might not actually be characteristic of Early Acheulean technology (e.g., [Moore and Perston,](#)
643 [2016](#)). We did find evidence for (at least) the imposition of cutting edges on LFBs, and offer
644 this a foundation for “minimum necessary competence” (sensu [Killin and Pain, 2021](#)) cognitive
645 interpretations. We remain agnostic as to whether similar knapping complexity was demon-

strated in the preceding Oldowan, but note that the rare and un-standardized (Gallotti, 2018) occurrence of debitage on flakes prior to 2.0 mya does not provide evidence of intentional shaping. Stout (2011) argued that elaborated small flake debitage methods contemporary with the Early Acheulean, such as single platform Karari scrapers (Isaac and Isaac, 1997) and hierarchical centripetal cores (Torre et al., 2003), document complex goal structures including the intentional modification of the core morphology to enable subsequent flake detachments. Others have seen evidence of such intentions in earlier bifacial (Duke et al., 2021) and unifacial (Delagnes and Roche, 2005) debitage strategies. However, all of these interpretations are based on qualitative assessments of flake scar patterning and/or refitting and remain open to critique from quantitative and experimentally-based approaches contending that similar knapping patterns can emerge without “top down” intentions (Toth, 1985; Moore and Perston, 2016; Moore, 2020). However these debates are eventually resolved, we would stress that the earliest demonstration of a particular capacity is unlikely to represent its earliest presence. Logically, the minimum capacities required to support a novel behavior must be present before the behavioral innovation can occur (Stout and Hecht, 2023) and may predate it substantially. We would thus argue that technological innovation in the Early Acheulean was more likely stimulated by changing behavioral and ecological strategies that placed a premium on cutting tool size, rather than by the sudden emergence of new cognitive capacities. In this context, it is important to note that the preponderance of cognitive and especially neuroarchaeological investigations of handaxe manufacture (Stout et al., 2008; Stout, 2011; Stout et al., 2015; Hecht et al., 2023) have studied refined, later Acheulean forms and should not be generalized to discussions regarding the emergence of the Early Acheulean (cf. Duke et al., 2021). These neuroarchaeological studies were made possible by a robust understanding of the specific knapping behaviors being modeled (Stout and Hecht, 2023). Similar studies modeling Early Acheulean technology are clearly needed and we hope that investigations like the current one can help to provide the necessary behavioral foundation.

4.5 Generalizability

It remains to be seen to what extent current results can be generalized to other Early Acheulean sites. It is clear that LFB production as seen at Gona is typical (Isaac, 1969) of the African Acheulean from its first known appearance (Mussi et al., 2023). Similarly, the transport and dis-

676 card of unmodified large flakes has also been reported at Peninj (Torre et al., 2008) and Koobi
677 Fora (Presnyakova et al., 2018) and may be more widespread than has been specifically noted in
678 publication. The general pattern of light, non-invasive retouch we observe also appears typical
679 of Early Acheulean sites (reviewed by Presnyakova et al., 2018). However, the effects of reduction
680 on LCT shape have not been systematically tested across sites in ways comparable to the current
681 analyses. This makes it difficult to determine if rare examples of “well shaped” Early Acheulean
682 LCTs (e.g., Diez-Martín et al., 2019) represent distinct technological behaviors or extreme points
683 along a continuum of variation. Presnyakova et al. (2018) argue for the latter, supported by shape
684 effects of reduction intensity identified using artifact size and edge angle as proxies. However,
685 these authors do not consider SDI or FAI and their analyses excluded any flaked pieces without
686 “clearly defined tips and bases,” thus limiting comparability with current results.

687 The occurrence of numerous large cobble cores (typological LCTs on cobble bases) at Gona is
688 atypical for East Africa and may reflect local raw materials availability. Kuman (2007) reports
689 that river cobbles from the nearby Blaaubank gravels are the dominant blank form in Gauteng
690 “Cradle of Humankind” Early Acheulean collections, possibly due to the rarity of larger boulder-
691 size clasts. Relatively high frequencies of LCTs on cobbles have also been reported from Gadeb
692 in Ethiopia (Torre, 2011). However, the large cobble cores at these sites have not been system-
693 atically studied as a distinct technological component or potential source of LFBs. Substantial
694 use of large slabs/blocks for LCT production has been reported at Kokiselei 4 (Harmand, 2009)
695 and Olduvai Gorge (Torre and Mora, 2005) but again it is not clear whether these could also have
696 been sources for LFBs during some part of their reduction sequence. Interestingly, Presnyakova
697 et al. (2018: Fig. 8) illustrate a boulder core with refitting large flake from FxJj65 that appears
698 to be comparable in size (~150mm long), shape ($L/W \approx 1.5$), and reduction intensity to some of
699 the more lightly worked cobble cores at Gona, providing at least anecdotal support for our in-
700 terpretations. In sum, however, systematic comparison across published Early Acheulean sites
701 is not currently possible due to differences in research questions, methods, and data reporting
702 practices. Clearly much work is needed to enable such comparison, but we do find some en-
703 couragement in the current finding that conventional linear measures, simple scar counts, and
704 visual flaked area estimations are sufficient to describe relevant variation in shape and reduction

705 **5 Conclusion**

706 Characteristic Early Acheulean artifact forms including large retouched flakes and core tools be-
707 gan to appear ca. 2.0 Ma ([Mussi et al., 2023](#)) as part of a pervasive ecological and behavioral shift
708 encompassing changing diet, ranging patterns, and habitat usage; increasing site frequency,
709 density, and ecogeographic distribution; and the first appearance of *Homo erectus*. Although
710 the cognitive and cultural significance of this new lithic industry is often framed in terms of the
711 emergence of discrete tool types and/or intentionally imposed morphological norms, we find
712 little evidence at Gona to support this. Instead, we observe systematic patterns of raw material
713 selection and core surface modification organized around the production and maintenance of
714 useful cutting edges on large(r) supports. Such larger cutting tools may have been prioritized
715 in newly emerging hominid behavioral adaptations due to their extended use-life, enhanced
716 transportability, and/or suitability for heavy-duty cutting.

717 This interpretation is consistent with a characterization of Early Acheulean tool forms as emerg-
718 ing from a set of “design imperatives” for large hand-held cutting tools ([Gowlett, 2006](#); [Wynn and](#)
719 [Gowlett, 2018](#)), specifically including elongation and ergonomic positioning of cutting edges
720 [[@key2016](#); [@keyIntegratingMechanicalErgonomic2016](#)]. Our results thus provide support for
721 the presence of imposed form in the broad theoretical sense developed by Kuhn ([2021](#)): not
722 as the realization of a “holographic model” in the mind of the maker, but rather as the out-
723 come of technological choices made in view of material constraints and affordances ([Moore,](#)
724 [2020](#)). To the extent that some, but not all ([Muller et al., 2022](#)), later Acheulean assemblages pro-
725 vide stronger evidence of normative form imposition ([García-Medrano et al., 2019](#); [Shipton and](#)
726 [White, 2020](#); [Liu et al., 2023](#)) this underlines the heterogeneity of lithic technologies subsumed
727 within the “Acheulean Industry” and argues for more context-specific approaches to evaluating
728 behavioral, cognitive, and cultural implications.

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