

# Comparing Apparent Magnetic Susceptibility Measurements of a Multi-receiver EMI Sensor with Topsoil and Profile Magnetic Susceptibility Data over Weak Magnetic Anomalies

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**ABSTRACT** Today, most surveys in archaeogeophysical prospection use magnetic properties to detect archaeological features. Such magnetic surveys are usually conducted with magnetometers and, to a lesser extent, with magnetic susceptibility meters and electromagnetic induction (EMI) sensors. Although the latter are the only instruments that allow mapping multiple physical soil properties simultaneously, EMI remains the odd-one-out in archaeogeophysical prospection. Nevertheless, by simultaneously recording the electric and magnetic soil variability, EMI survey can be beneficial in early archaeological evaluation stages, because detailed pedological and archaeological information is gathered at the same time. Furthermore, by using multi-receiver EMI instruments vertical soil variation also can be integrated into the survey. However, although the potential of EMI for mapping electric soil variations is well known from advances in soil science, magnetic susceptibility measurements have been investigated less. Here we show the potential of a multi-receiver EMI survey to detect weak magnetic anomalies by measuring the apparent magnetic susceptibility ( $\kappa_a$ ) of multiple soil volumes at a test site. The shallow  $\kappa_a$  data were compared with topsoil susceptibility measurements using a magnetic susceptibility loop sensor survey, and with magnetic susceptibility profiling using a probe sensor for evaluating the deeper  $\kappa_a$ -data. Further comparisons were made between these datasets and aerial photography and field walking data. We found that the multiple EMI  $\kappa_a$  measurements allowed for a straightforward discrimination of the natural and anthropogenic magnetic variations of shallow and deeper soil volumes, and allowed visualizing weak magnetic anomalies. Copyright © 2013 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

**Key words:** Electromagnetic induction; magnetic susceptibility; apparent magnetic susceptibility; multi-receiver EMI; susceptibility profiling; Bartington MS2

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## Introduction

Over the past 20 years, the shift from a largely academic framework for archaeological investigations to a developer-led archaeology has resulted in an overwhelming increase in evaluation surveys in western Europe (De Clercq *et al.*, 2011). Combined with technological advances and their commercialization, this

evolution stimulates the application of geophysical techniques as a standard part of site assessment (Jordan, 2009). However, whereas the archaeological and pedological characteristics of the evaluated sites are seldom alike, the applied geophysical methodologies remain rather uniform. Today, the three main survey techniques are ground-penetrating radar (GPR), electrical resistivity measurements (ER) and magnetometry, which indisputably dominates the archaeogeophysical toolbox (Gaffney, 2008). The almost dogmatic application of magnetometry has pushed the importance of detailed soil mapping to the background, because in these surveys no significant information is gathered

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about the pedology of surveyed sites. Nevertheless, exhaustive mapping techniques are needed that can offer insight into archaeological as well as pedological and geomorphological variations. As geophysical techniques are usually deployed during the first phases of a site evaluation, the incorporation of accurate pedological analyses, or the lack thereof, can have a major impact on the entire research process. Here the application of different methodologies, for example, magnetic and electrical techniques, can offer an outcome by recording straightforward information about natural and anthropological soil variations simultaneously. However, particularly in commercial programmes, multiplying survey runs is not always an option.

The introduction of electromagnetic induction (EMI) instruments with 'Slingram' geometry that enabled recording both the in-phase (IP) and quadrature phase (QP) component of the EMI signal response (e.g. the EM38DD; Geonics, Canada), seemed to offer an efficient solution. While the QP response measures the soil apparent electrical conductivity ( $\sigma_a$ ), the IP response is representative for the soil apparent volume magnetic susceptibility ( $\kappa_a$ ) (Keller and Frischknecht, 1966). Whereas the  $\sigma_a$  measurements record information about the textural variability, soil organic matter content and moisture content, the  $\kappa_a$  measurements would enable detecting magnetic disturbances comparable with the potential of magnetometry. Unfortunately, the limited penetration depth (Dalan, 2008; Henry, 2011) and difficult interpretation (Simpson *et al.*, 2010) of the IP response, combined with the sometimes capricious calibration procedures of these instruments before each survey, have made EMI survey a rare first choice in archaeological evaluations.

In soil science and exploration geophysics the application of EMI instruments persisted (e.g. Fraser, 1972; Slavich and Petterson, 1990; Abdu *et al.*, 2007), and stimulated the development of new and more integrated types of EMI systems. The introduction of multi-receiver instruments that allow measuring the  $\sigma_a$  and  $\kappa_a$  of different soil volumes (e.g. Dualem-21S, Geonics MK-2) has renewed the potential of EMI surveys in archaeology. These instruments combine a transmitter coil with multiple receiver coils, which are placed at different, but fixed, distances and often in different orientations. The most frequently used coil orientations are vertical coplanar (VCP), horizontal coplanar (HCP) or perpendicular (PRP) (Reynolds, 1997). Together with the separation between the transmitter and the receiver coils, these different coil orientations influence the depth response of the EMI signal (Keller and Frischknecht, 1966; Butler, 2005).

In recent years, a number of studies have proven the effectiveness of such instruments in recording detailed

$\sigma_a$  variations and detecting archaeological anomalies. In particular, the depth information added by the multiple coil pairs, now allowing the simultaneous recording of up to six different soil volumes (e.g. with the Dualem-421S), has increased the interpretative value of these surveys for archaeological and palaeogeographical studies (Saey *et al.*, 2008; Simpson *et al.*, 2009; De Smedt *et al.*, 2011). The combined analyses of  $\sigma_a$  and  $\kappa_a$  of multi-receiver EMI sensors now allows composing integral reconstructions of human environments, taking into account both the past natural and anthropological variations (e.g. De Smedt *et al.*, 2013). However, the main aim of these studies has been on combining and analysing the multiple  $\sigma_a$  measurements. Even though ground-breaking work has been conducted on the use of Slingram EMI sensors for mapping magnetic anomalies (e.g. Tabbagh, 1984, 1986a; Benech and Marmet, 1999), and on the comparison between different magnetic survey techniques (Cole *et al.*, 1995; Linford, 1998), the added value of multiple  $\kappa_a$  measurements has been investigated less. Here we show the potential of measuring  $\kappa_a$  of multiple soil volumes simultaneously with a multi-receiver EMI sensor to detect weak magnetic anomalies. Aerial photography, extensive field walking, additional magnetic susceptibility surveying and coring were used to further evaluate the  $\kappa_a$  data. Apart from evaluating the lateral discrimination potential of the  $\kappa_a$  measurements in archaeological surveying, the added value of multiple measurements with different penetration depths for vertical data analysis is discussed.

## Study site and non-invasive surveying

Within the framework of a research project aimed at developing a methodology to characterize Roman and medieval rural settlement patterns, a research area of approximately 50 ha was selected in the northwestern part of Belgium. The soil in the area consists of Eocene marine clay overlain by Pleistocene aeolian sand deposits, which often are only a few decimetres thick. At the study site, the topsoil texture has a sand content of about 80% while the underlying layers consist of some 65% clay (Saey *et al.*, 2013). A central part of about 3 ha, with a high density of archaeological crop marks (Figure 1A), was selected as a test site to evaluate the use of different non-invasive survey methods. In a first phase, EMI and magnetometry survey were compared with aerial photography data (see De Clercq *et al.* (2012) for further information) (Figure 1A–D). In addition to geophysical survey, extensive aerial photography prospection has been

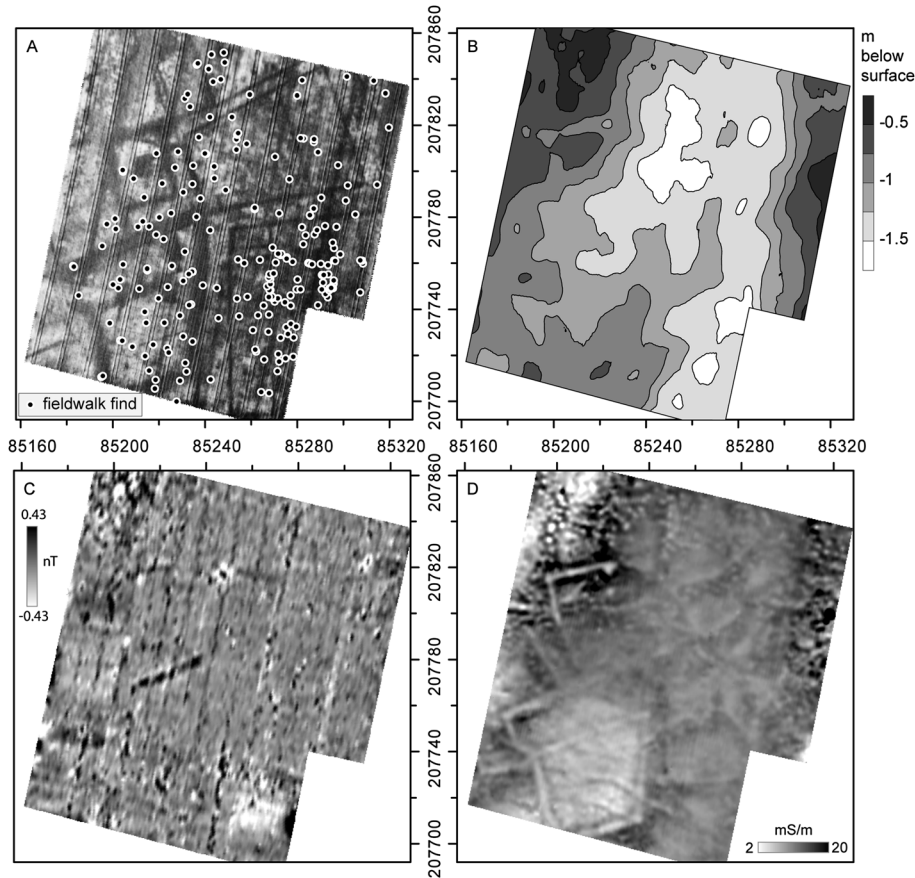


Figure 1. (A) Aerial orthophotograph of the study field (aerial photograph 553546, taken on 4 June 2010, Department of Archaeology, Ghent University) with field-walk finds indicated. (B) Palaeotopography of the site: depth to the Eocene clay below the sand (Saey *et al.*, 2013). (C) Fluxgate gradiometer data (source: P. Masters – De Clercq *et al.*, 2012). (D) Electrical conductivity depth slice resulting with removal of the interference of the underlying palaeotopography (Saey *et al.*, 2013).

conducted, along with two field-walking campaigns (1.5 m between survey lines). As the multi-receiver EMI survey showed that the average  $\sigma_a$  of the test site was relatively high (57 mS m<sup>-1</sup> for the 1 m HCP coil configuration and 88 mS m<sup>-1</sup> for the 2 m HCP coil configuration), the required conditions for effective EMI surveying – a  $\sigma_a$  between 1 and 100 mS m<sup>-1</sup> – were met (McNeill, 1980; Callegary *et al.*, 2007), indicating that the IP and QP signal components should accurately represent  $\kappa_a$  and  $\sigma_a$  variations, respectively. The  $\sigma_a$  data revealed a large number of archaeological features, which could be related to the enclosures in the western and southwestern part of the field. After implementing a two-step inverse modelling of the four conductivity data to obtain depth slices (Saey *et al.*, 2013), additional small-scale linear features could be discerned that did not appear in the aerial photography or magnetometry dataset (Figure 1D). However, a thorough validation and interpretation of these features through test pitting and coring still needs to be performed. Apart from

the large amount of archaeological features of the site, the EMI survey revealed a significant palaeotopographical variation, which was instrumental as to the choice of settlement location. Through inversion of the EMI conductivity data, following the inversion procedure of Saey *et al.* (2008), a reconstruction was made of the depth to the Eocene clay (Saey *et al.*, 2013). In the northern and central parts of the test site a depression was found in the Eocene clay, which was filled up with a layer of aeolian Pleistocene sand 1.5 m thick (Figure 1B).

### Measurements of $\kappa_a$ with a multi-receiver EMI sensor

The EMI survey was conducted with a Dualem 21-S sensor (Dualem, Canada), which combines one transmitter coil (*T*) with four receiver coils (*R*). Two of the receiver coils are placed in perpendicular (PRP)

orientation at 1.1 m and 2.1 m from  $T$ , while the remaining receivers are in horizontal coplanar (HCP) orientation at 1 m and 2 m from  $T$  (Simpson *et al.*, 2009). Measurements were taken along parallel lines 0.75 m apart with an in-line sampling resolution of ca. 0.25 m (Table 1). The  $\kappa_a$  values, expressed in dimensionless magnetic susceptibility units (msu), were calculated from the IP response following McNeill and Bosnar (1998):  $\kappa_a = 2 \times [0.0001 \times (H_s/H_p)IP]$ , with  $(H_s/H_p)IP$  the ratio of the in-phase component of the secondary magnetic field to the primary magnetic field. The ratio of the secondary to the primary magnetic field is then multiplied by two in order to account for measuring a half-space (i.e. the soil being one half of the space and the air being the other). All data were drift corrected following Simpson *et al.* (2009). Herein, in the first stage of the survey, a W-shaped reference line was driven across the field. As measurements conducted along this line are taken directly after sensor start-up, it can be assumed that the absolute observed  $\kappa_a$  and  $\sigma_a$  are correct. Each subsequent survey line was then driven across this reference line. During processing, the individual survey lines were then compared with the reference line. The differences between the  $\kappa_a$  and  $\sigma_a$  values measured along the reference line and those on the subsequent survey lines within a distance of 3 m from the nearest reference measurement were then compared in order to estimate the influence of drift on each survey line. Afterwards results were interpolated to a  $0.1 \times 0.1$  m grid through ordinary kriging in Surfer (Golden Software).

For the IP signals of the Dualem 21-S coil pairs, the cumulative depth responses vary from approximately 1 m to 1.5 m below the sensor for the HCP coil pairs, and from 0.6 m to 1.2 m below the sensor for the PRP coil pairs, based on the theoretical response functions and experimental observations. These soil volumes encompass the depth range of archaeological features in most archaeological surveys (exceptions include sedimentation areas where thick layers of, for example alluvial, deposits cover archaeological features). Furthermore, a multivolume survey enables differentiating between topsoil  $\kappa_a$  and the  $\kappa_a$  of deeper soil layers.

There are still a number of limitations inherent to the HCP and PRP coil configurations. Whereas HCP coil

pairs enable very stable IP measurements, the cumulative response of these configurations has a signal change below a certain depth (Tabbagh, 1986b) (Figure 2). As a consequence, highly magnetic anomalies that are below this critical depth, but still fall within the detectable range of the coil pair, appear as anomalies with a reduced  $\kappa_a$  within the surrounding area and *vice versa* (Simpson *et al.*, 2010). This can hamper a straightforward interpretation of IP data collected with a HCP coil pair. When using a single receiver EMI instrument with HCP coil geometry, without knowledge of the depth of a detected feature, it can be difficult to interpret whether the anomaly is highly magnetic or has a lower susceptibility than the surrounding soil. For the Dualem-21S sensor, this critical depth is approximately 0.6 m for the 1 m HCP coil pair (D1 on Figure 2) and 1.2 m for the 2 m HCP coil pair (D2 on Figure 2). In PRP orientation, the IP response suffers less from signal change, but in field conditions these measurements are often unstable, which makes them less suited for visualizing archaeological features. For example, when the magnetic contrast between features is low or in environments with considerable magnetic background variability (such as heterogeneous soil mineralogy or the presence

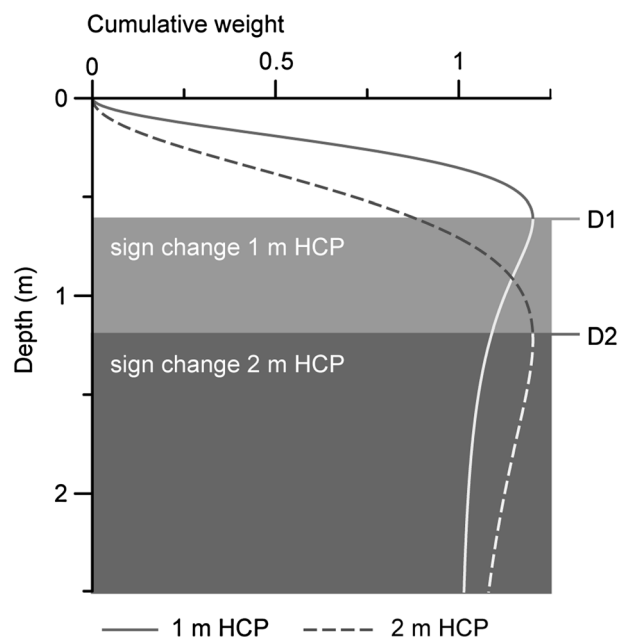


Figure 2. Cumulative depth responses of in-phase response of the 1 m and 2 m HCP coil pairs. D1 and D2 represent the critical depth for the 1 m and 2 m HCP configuration respectively, where the signal response inverts. The dark part of the curves represents the positive response and the white part represents the inverted or negative response.

Table 1. Sample density for the EMI survey, the Bartington MS2D loop sensor survey and the magnetometry survey (see Figure 1C and De Clercq *et al.*, 2012).

	Dualem 21-S	Bartington MS2D	Magnetometry
Sample density	0.75 m × ca. 0.25 m	10 m × 10 m	0.25 m × 1 m



of ferrous utility pipes) the interpretation of the PRP IP response can be hampered by instrument-induced noise.

At the test site, the PRP data suffered from a poor signal to noise ratio. Apart from a number of linear features that could be attributed to recent agricultural activities, interpretation of all PRP datasets was hindered by the distinct 'salt-and-pepper' noise (Figure 3A). Results for the 1 m and 2 m HCP coil configurations (Figure 3B and C), on the other hand, showed the discrimination potential of the EMI  $\kappa_a$  measurements. While the magnetometry results did not allow for reconstructing the layout of the site (Figure 1C) (De Clercq *et al.*, 2012), with EMI two large enclosures could be discerned on the 1 m HCP  $\kappa_a$  data, along with a number of pits and ditches. However, a discrepancy remained between the geophysical results and the aerial photographs, as nearly 50% of the archaeological features seen from the air did not show up in the magnetometry or the  $\kappa_a$  data. A similar difference could be observed between the  $\kappa_a$  and the sliced  $\sigma_a$  data (Figure 1D). The subtle linear features discriminated in the electrical conductivity slice in the central and eastern part of the field did not appear in any of the  $\kappa_a$  data layers. In the 2 m HCP  $\kappa_a$  data, only few archaeological traces were visible, indicating the shallow depth extent of the features. Here, more background variation was observed, coinciding with the pedological variation witnessed in the  $\sigma_a$  measurements. Apart from the apparently deeper parts of the detected enclosures, the detected magnetic anomalies were weak, rendering a maximum  $\kappa_a$  of 0.0016 msu for the 1 m HCP coil pair and of 0.0041 msu for the 2 m HCP coil pair in the EMI data.

### Magnetic susceptibility measurements with the Bartington MS2 system

To complement the EMI-derived  $\kappa_a$  data, and to account for differences between these and other available survey data, a Bartington MS2 magnetic susceptibility system was used coupled to a MS2H subsurface probe and a MS2D loop sensor. The MS2 sensors operate on the principle of frequency domain EMI, which is similar to Slingram EMI instruments. However, the MS2 measurements have the advantage that these are fairly insensitive to the electrical conductivity of the measured medium, whereas in certain conditions, for example in saline environments, the  $\kappa_a$  or IP response of an EMI sensor can be influenced by the soil electrical conductivity or QP response

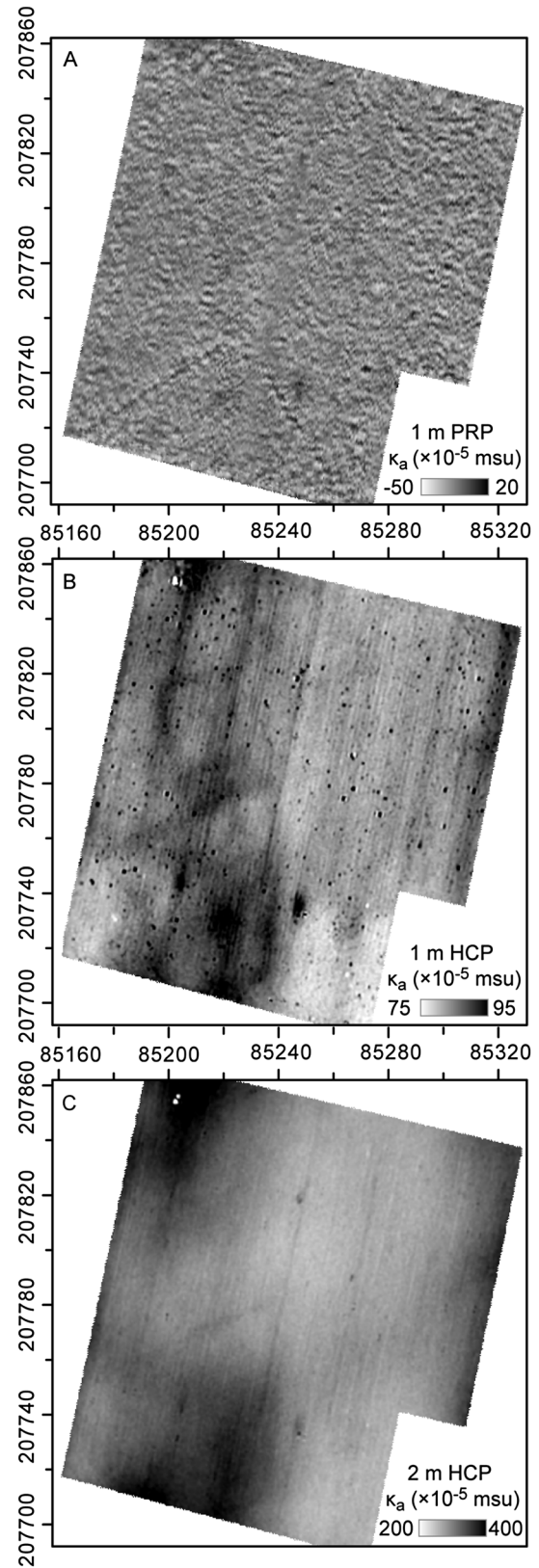


Figure 3. The  $\kappa_a$  data (interpolated to a  $0.1\text{ m} \times 0.1\text{ m}$  grid) from the 1 m PRP (A), 1 m HCP (B) and 2 m HCP (C) coil configurations.

(Callegary *et al.*, 2007). This way, the MS2 sensors can be used to evaluate the possible interference between IP and QP signal components of EMI measurements. Note that in this paper we discriminate between apparent magnetic susceptibility measurements ( $\kappa_a$ ) from the EMI sensor and the Bartington MS2D loop sensor, and true magnetic susceptibility ( $\kappa$ ) data from the Bartington MS2H probe, whereby we omit the prefix 'apparent' (i.e. the subscript 'a').

In a first step, topsoil  $\kappa_a$  was measured with the MS2D loop sensor. The effective penetration depth of the MS2D, which corresponds to 90% of the recorded signal, is considered to be 6 cm (Lecoanet *et al.*, 1999), whereby 50% of the signal response is obtained at 1.5 cm below the sensor, as described in the Bartington instrument specifications. In total, 225 measurements were taken in a 10 m by 10 m grid (Table 1) with the 1.0 measurement range, that is, an accuracy of  $1 \times 10^{-5}$  SI units, whereby the instrument was zeroed before each measurement. These measurements were then interpolated to a  $2.5 \text{ m} \times 2.5 \text{ m}$  grid using ordinary kriging (Goovaerts, 1997). Apart from a general comparison between the MS2D data and the EMI survey, we wanted to evaluate the analogy between the spatial  $\kappa_a$  variations detected with the MS2D measurements and the EMI  $\kappa_a$  data.

To investigate the relationship between the subsurface features and geophysical data further, 15 locations were selected for  $\kappa$  profiling with the MS2H probe. The MS2H probe has a 0.5 cm horizontal signal-depth penetration around its tip and a vertical resolution of 1.25 cm (Bartington instrument specifications). At each location, a borehole was prepared with a 2.5 cm gouge auger and lithological descriptions were made. The  $\kappa$  measurements were taken at 5 cm intervals, starting at a depth of 10 cm, down to at least 50 cm depending on the position of the undisturbed substrate. Along with the  $\kappa$  measurements, the lithology of the profiles was described. To allow a straightforward comparison of the different measurements, all  $\kappa$  and  $\kappa_a$  data are represented in the  $1 \times 10^{-5}$  range.

#### Topsoil magnetic susceptibility: MS2D

The MS2D measurements were compared with the 1 m HCP Dualem-21S data (Figure 4A, B), as the latter are influenced more by topsoil variations than the 2 m HCP measurements. The difference in measured soil volume between both datasets results in a mean  $\kappa$  for the MS2D data that is nearly ten times lower than the results from the 1 m HCP  $\kappa_a$  measurements (Table 2): this can be explained by the larger soil volume that is taken into account in the 1 m HCP measurements.

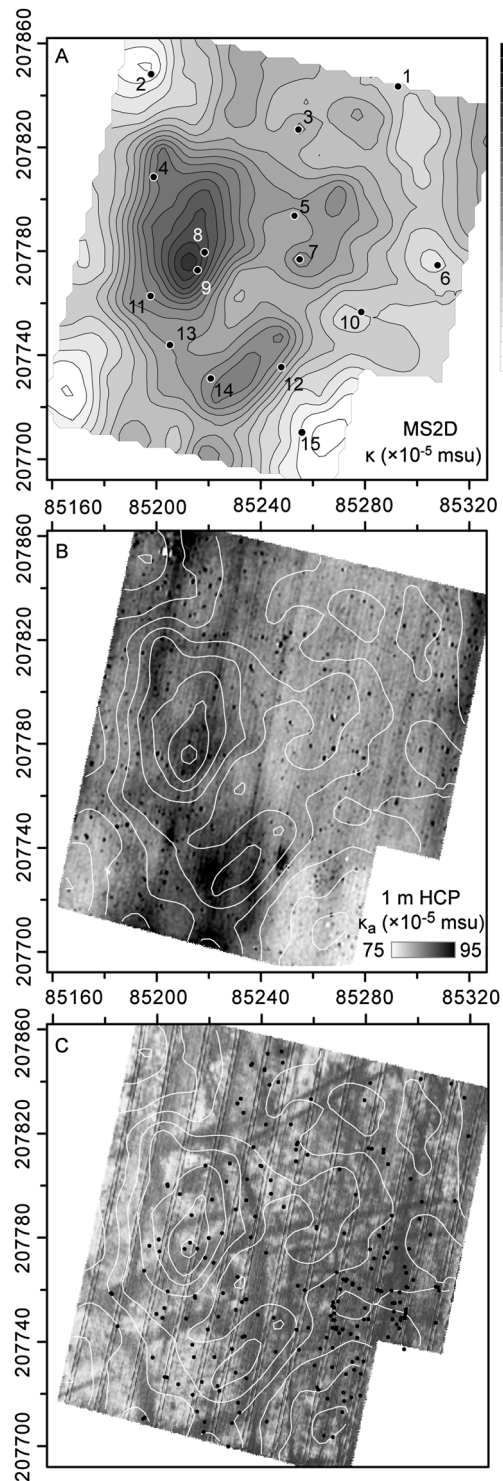


Figure 4. The  $\kappa_a$  data from the MS2D survey (interpolated to a  $2.5 \text{ m} \times 2.5 \text{ m}$  grid) with (A) the MS2H probing and coring locations, (B) major MS2D  $\kappa_a$  data contours plotted on the 1 m HCP  $\kappa_a$  measurements (Figure 3B) and (C) major MS2D  $\kappa_a$  data contours and field-walking finds (dots) plotted on the aerial orthophotograph (Figure 1A).

Table 2. Descriptive statistics of the different  $\kappa_a$  measurements.

Statistic	DuaLEM 21-S		Bartington MS2	
	1 m HCP	2 m HCP	MS2D	MS2H
Average	86	315	9	9
Minimum	29	130	4	0
Maximum	185	452	17.9	34*
Standard deviation	5	25	2	13

The  $\kappa_a$  values are expressed in  $1 \times 10^{-5}$  msu SI  
 \*(excluding one outlier of  $160 \times 10^{-5}$  msu for profile 6).

However, the standard deviations of both datasets lie more closely together and vary only  $3 \times 10^{-5}$  msu, indicating that whereas the MS2D survey resulted in a broad data range, the 1 m HCP  $\kappa_a$  measurements are closely clustered around the mean. Again, this can be attributed to the volumetric difference between both survey datasets. The shallow depth penetration of the loop sensor gives a high local resolution, whereas the 1 m HCP coil pair takes into account a much larger soil volume, which has a smoothing effect on the individual measurements. As a result, each measurement is slightly smoothed by taking into account more of the background variation within the measured soil volume. In other words, the MS2D offers sharper  $\kappa_a$  contrasts than the 1 m HCP data.

A similar spatial trend could be observed between the MS2D and the 1 m HCP  $\kappa_a$  data (Figure 4B); most of the magnetic variation is present in the south to southwestern part of the field. In the MS2D data, the most dominant magnetic anomaly was detected around the small enclosure. On the other hand, the most southern and largest enclosure had a smaller influence on the measurements than observed in the 1 m HCP data. In the northeastern part of the field, a larger  $\kappa_a$  variation was attested in the MS2D dataset. This could indicate that the archaeological features seen on the aerial photograph in this part of the field represent very shallow magnetic anomalies.

To evaluate the potential of the MS2D to detect the spread of archaeological activity areas, these data were compared with the aerial-photograph and the field-walking results (Figure 4C). Most of the assembled finds are located within the enclosures seen on the aerial photograph. Still, the correlation between the field-walking data and the MS2D results remains the strongest for the enclosures that can also be discerned in the EMI data. The spatial distribution of the finds in the eastern and southeastern part of the field shows a different pattern than observed in the MS2D plot. This was most apparent in the southeastern part of the field where the highest

concentration of surface material was found, but no enhanced  $\kappa_a$  could be detected with the MS2D loop sensor.

### Magnetic susceptibility profiling: MS2H

The MS2H profiles showed that, in general, the more magnetic plough layer had the strongest influence on the  $\kappa$  measurements, with an average of  $16.7 \times 10^{-5}$  msu (Figure 5). However, only at four locations (8, 9, 12 and 13 on Figure 4A and Figure 5) was an unusual increase of  $\kappa$  attested in the plough layer, coinciding with observed magnetic variations at these locations in the 1 m HCP and MS2D data.

The average  $\kappa$  of the deeper layers was  $4.6 \times 10^{-5}$  msu. Here, a distinction could be made between the susceptibility of the undisturbed soil and the archaeological layers. At nine locations (1, 3, 4, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13 and 14) black organic-rich sand was present, often with traces of brick, burnt material and oxidation, which was identified as an archaeological layer. However, only in a few cases a slight increase in  $\kappa$  was observed in this layer (locations 4, 8, 9, 11 and 14). At these locations, the enhanced susceptibility of the archaeological layer was also observed in the 2 m HCP  $\kappa_a$  measurements, showing the potential of the deeper EMI measurements to discriminate small variations in  $\kappa_a$ .

The MS2H profiles further showed a significant contribution of the undisturbed soil to the overall  $\kappa$  of the site. Whereas the sand and sandy clay layers had a generally low  $\kappa$  value (between 0 and  $1 \times 10^{-5}$  msu), the mineralogy of the Eocene clay caused a significant increase in  $\kappa$  (mainly between 1 and  $2 \times 10^{-5}$  msu). Only at one location did a ferrous horizon cause higher  $\kappa$  in the sand (profile 5 on Figure 5). This increased  $\kappa$  of the Eocene clay was also attested in the 2 m HCP measurements where, particularly in the northwestern, eastern and southwestern part of the field, large areas with increased  $\kappa_a$  were observed. The contribution of the Eocene clay to the 2 m HCP  $\kappa_a$  measurements was most clearly attested at location 2, where the depth to the clay layer was only 40 cm. However, at locations 9, 11 and 13 the contribution of the Eocene clay to the 2 m HCP data was negligible. Here, the depth to clay was below 120 cm, that is, below the critical depth of the 2 m HCP coil configuration for detecting  $\kappa$  variations, and only more shallow features could be discriminated. As an example we refer to location 9 where the 2 m HCP measurements allowed discrimination of the elevated  $\kappa$  of the archaeological layer, but influence from the underlying clay layer could not be observed.



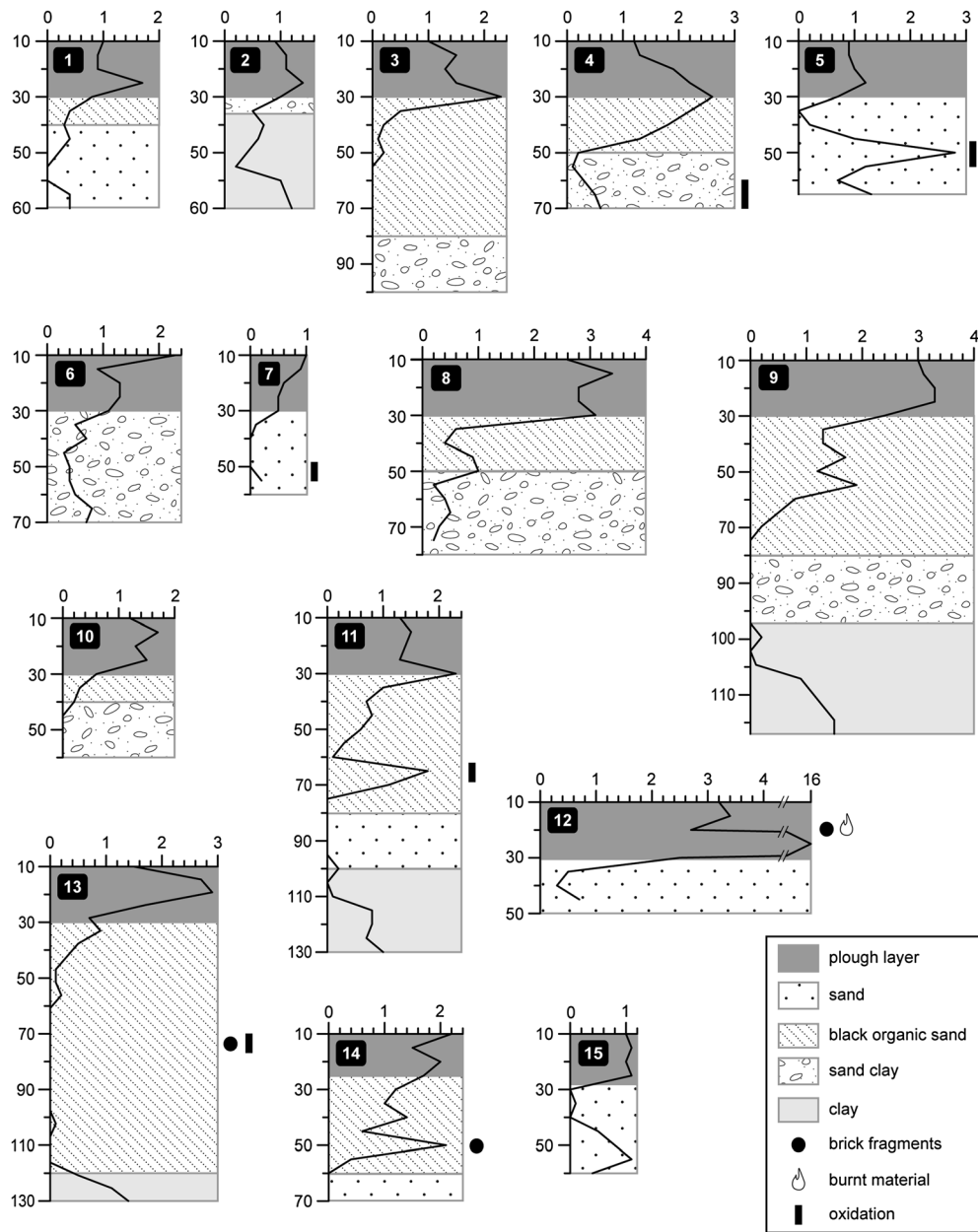


Figure 5. The MS2H  $\kappa$  profiles with the observed stratigraphy indicated. X axis:  $\kappa$  ( $\times 10^{-4}$  msu); Y axis: depth in centimetres.

## Discussion and conclusion

Overall the  $\kappa$  profiles show that where archaeological layers were encountered, the susceptibility of the plough layer increased significantly (i.e. between  $1$  and  $2 \times 10^{-5}$  msu instead of  $> 1 \times 10^{-5}$  msu where no archaeological features were detected). The resulting enhanced topsoil susceptibility caused the variations that were detected with the MS2D survey. In nearly all cases this variation was recorded in the 1 m HCP

$\kappa_a$  measurements, only at locations 1 and 3 were the slight  $\kappa$  increases not reflected in the EMI data. The 2 m HCP measurements were also proven to be representative for the elevated  $\kappa$  of the archaeological layer for depths surpassing 50 cm below the surface. In addition,  $\kappa$  profiling allowed correlating the large-scale  $\kappa$  trend observed in the 2 m HCP data to the higher susceptibility of the clay layer. Combined with comparison with the observed  $\sigma_a$  variations at the site, this shows the independence of the IP response of



the HCP coil configurations of the soil conductivity or QP signal response.

Through comparing different measurements of soil  $\kappa$  we have gained a clearer insight into the influence of archaeological and pedological features on multi-receiver EMI  $\kappa_a$  measurements. Even when the archaeological features displayed only a small contrast in  $\kappa$ , it was possible to clearly discriminate such features in the EMI  $\kappa_a$  data. Furthermore, the integration of multiple simultaneous  $\kappa_a$  measurements of different soil volumes allows accurate discrimination between top-soil  $\kappa$  and magnetic variations of deeper soil layers.

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