TYPE OF ANOMALY	INTERPRETATION
AREA OF LOW RESISTANCE	GEOLOGY ?
AREA OF HIGH RESISTANCE	GEOLOGY ?

N

471100

365350

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Fig. 25. Interpretation of resistance data;
Burton-in-Lonsdale site, eastern section

0   25m
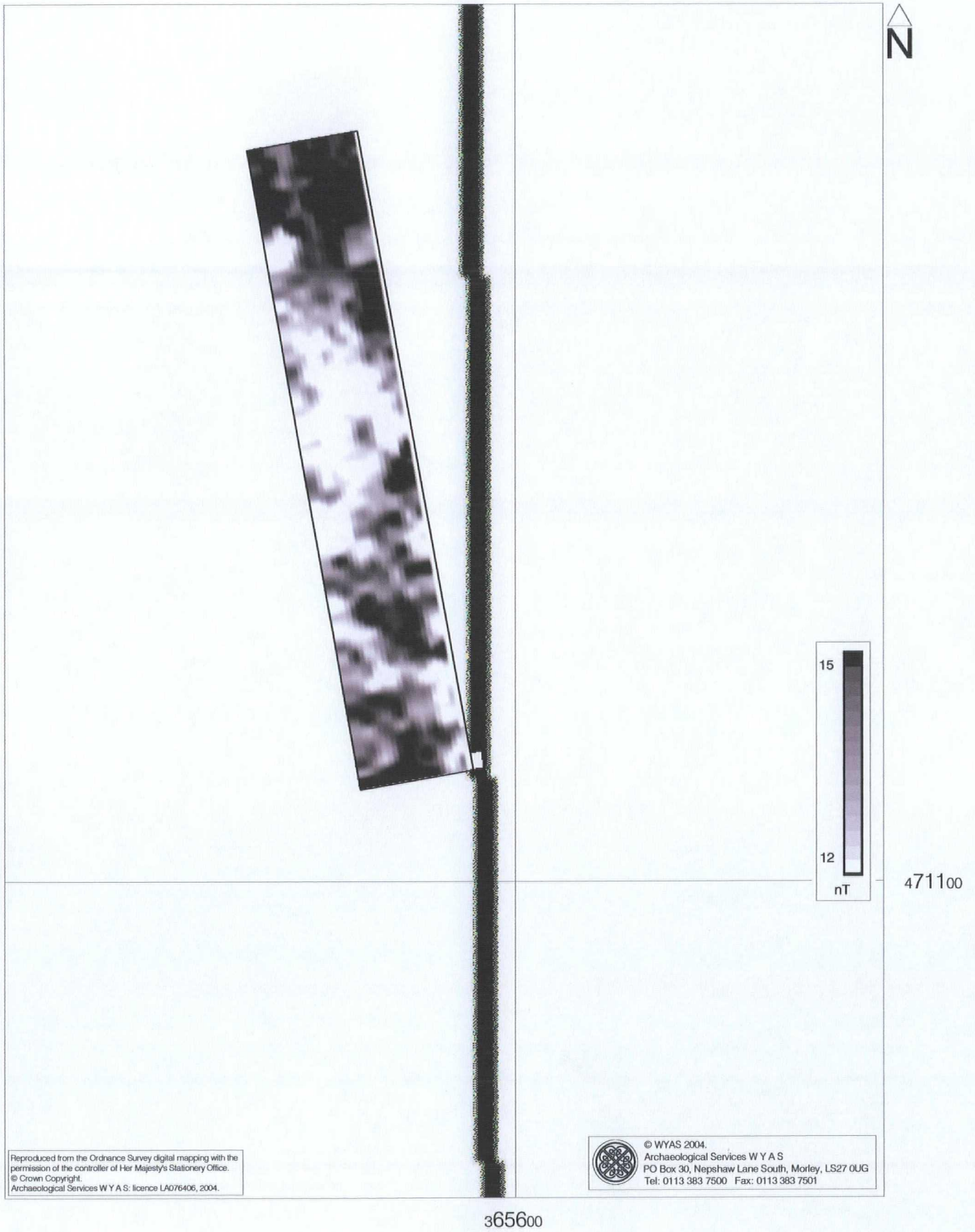
N

15

12
nT

471100

365600

*Fig. 26. Greyscale plot of resistance data;
Burton-in-Lonsdale site, eastern section*

0   50m

TYPE OF ANOMALY		INTERPRETATION
	AREA OF LOW RESISTANCE	GEOLOGY ?
	AREA OF HIGH RESISTANCE	GEOLOGY ?

N

471100

365600

*Fig. 27. Interpretation of resistance data;
Burton-in-Lonsdale site, eastern section*
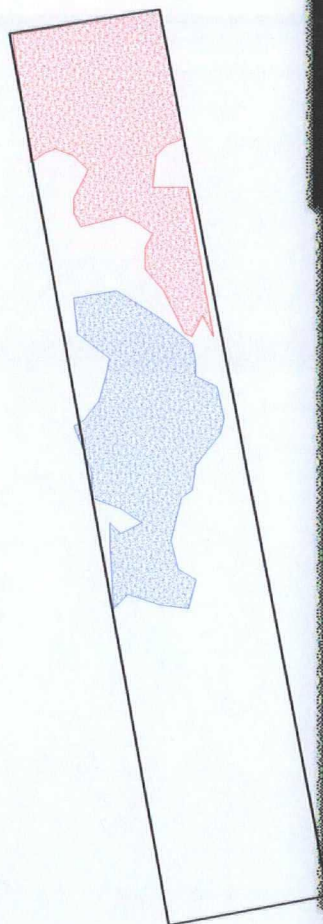
0   25m

Appendix 1

Magnetic Survey: Technical Information

Magnetic Susceptibility and Soil Magnetism

Iron makes up about 6% of the Earth's crust and is mostly present in soils and rocks as minerals such as maghaemite and haemetite. These minerals have a weak, measurable magnetic property termed magnetic susceptibility. Human activities can redistribute these minerals and change (enhance) others into more magnetic forms so that by measuring the magnetic susceptibility of the topsoil, areas where human occupation or settlement has occurred can be identified by virtue of the attendant increase (enhancement) in magnetic susceptibility. If the enhanced material subsequently comes to fill features, such as ditches or pits, localised isolated and linear magnetic anomalies can result whose presence can be detected by a magnetometer (fluxgate gradiometer).

In general, it is the contrast between the magnetic susceptibility of deposits filling cut features, such as ditches or pits, and the magnetic susceptibility of topsoils, subsoils and rocks into which these features have been cut, which causes the most recognisable responses. This is primarily because there is a tendency for magnetic ferrous compounds to become concentrated in the topsoil, thereby making it more magnetic than the subsoil or the bedrock. Linear features cut into the subsoil or geology, such as ditches, that have been silted up or have been backfilled with topsoil will therefore usually produce a positive magnetic response relative to the background soil levels. Discrete feature, such as pits, can also be detected. Less magnetic material such as masonry or plastic service pipes that intrude into the topsoil may give a negative magnetic response relative to the background level.

The magnetic susceptibility of a soil can also be enhanced by the application of heat. This effect can lead to the detection of features such as hearths, kilns or areas of burning.

Types of Magnetic Anomaly

In the majority of instances anomalies are termed *'positive'*. This means that they have a positive magnetic value relative to the magnetic background on any given site. However some features can manifest themselves as *'negative'* anomalies that, conversely, means that the response is negative relative to the mean magnetic background. Such negative anomalies are often very faint and are commonly caused by modern, non-ferrous, features such as plastic water pipes. Infilled natural features may also appear as negative anomalies on some geological substrates.

Where it is not possible to give a probable cause of an observed anomaly a '?' is appended.

It should be noted that anomalies that are interpreted as modern in origin may be caused by features that are present in the topsoil or upper layers of the subsoil. Removal of soil to an archaeological or natural layer can therefore remove the feature causing the anomaly.

The types of response mentioned above can be divided into five main categories which are used in the graphical interpretation of the magnetic data:

Isolated dipolar anomalies (iron spikes)

These responses are typically caused by ferrous material either on the surface or in the topsoil. They cause a rapid variation in the magnetic response giving a characteristic 'spiky' trace. Although ferrous archaeological artefacts could produce this type of response, unless there is supporting evidence for an archaeological interpretation, little emphasis is normally given to such anomalies, as modern ferrous objects are common on rural sites, often being present as a consequence of manuring.

Areas of magnetic disturbance

These responses can have several causes often being associated with burnt material, such as slag waste or brick rubble or other strongly magnetised/fired material. Ferrous structures such as pylons, mesh or barbed wire fencing and buried pipes can also cause the same disturbed response. A modern origin is usually assumed unless there is other supporting information.

Linear trend

This is usually a weak or broad linear anomaly of unknown cause or date. An agricultural origin, either ploughing or land drains is a common cause.

Areas of magnetic enhancement/positive isolated anomalies

Areas of enhanced response are characterised by a general increase in the magnetic background over a localised area whilst discrete anomalies are manifest by an increased response (sometimes only visible on an X–Y trace plot) on two or three successive traverses. In neither instance is there the intense dipolar response characteristic exhibited by an area of magnetic disturbance or of an 'iron spike' anomaly (see above). These anomalies can be caused by infilled discrete archaeological features such as pits or post-holes or by kilns. They can also be caused by pedological variations or by natural infilled features on certain geologies. Ferrous material in the subsoil can also give a similar response. It can often therefore be very difficult to establish an anthropogenic origin without intrusive investigation or other supporting information.

Linear and curvilinear anomalies

Such anomalies have a variety of origins. They may be caused by agricultural practice (recent ploughing trends, earlier ridge and furrow regimes or land drains), natural geomorphological features such as palaeochannels or by infilled archaeological ditches.

Methodology: Magnetic Susceptibility Survey

There are two methods of measuring the magnetic susceptibility of a soil sample. The first involves the measurement of a given volume of soil, which will include any air and moisture that lies within the sample, and is termed volume specific susceptibility. This method results in a bulk value that it not necessarily fully representative of the constituent components of the sample. The second technique overcomes this potential problem by taking into account both the volume and mass of a sample and is termed mass specific susceptibility. However, mass specific readings cannot be taken in the field where the bulk properties of a soil are usually unknown and so volume

specific readings must be taken. Whilst these values are not fully representative they do allow general comparisons across a site and give a broad indication of susceptibility changes. This is usually enough to assess the susceptibility of a site and evaluate whether enhancement has occurred.

Methodology: Gradiometer Survey

There are two main methods of using the fluxgate gradiometer for commercial evaluations. The first of these is referred to as *magnetic scanning* and requires the operator to visually identify anomalous responses on the instrument display panel whilst covering the site in widely spaced traverses, typically 10m apart. The instrument logger is not used and there is therefore no data collection. Once anomalous responses are identified they are marked in the field with bamboo canes and approximately located on a base plan. This method is usually employed as a means of selecting areas for detailed survey when only a percentage sample of the whole site is to be subject to detailed survey.

The disadvantages of magnetic scanning are that features that produce weak anomalies (less than 2nT) are unlikely to stand out from the magnetic background and so will be difficult to detect. The coarse sampling interval means that discrete features or linear features that are parallel or broadly oblique to the direction of traverse may not be detected. If linear features are suspected in a site then the traverse direction should be perpendicular (or as close as is possible within the physical constraints of the site) to the orientation of the suspected features. The possible drawbacks mentioned above mean that negative results from magnetic scanning should **always** be checked with at least a sample detailed magnetic survey (see below).

The second method is referred to as *detailed survey* and employs the use of a sample trigger to automatically take readings at predetermined points, typically at 0.5m intervals, on zig-zag traverses 1m apart. These readings are stored in the memory of the instrument and are later dumped to computer for processing and interpretation. Detailed survey allows the visualisation of weaker anomalies that may not have been detected by magnetic scanning.

During this survey a Bartington Grad601 magnetic field gradiometer and a Geoscan FM36 fluxgate gradiometer were used. Readings were taken, on the 0.1nT range, at 0.25m intervals on zig-zag traverses 1m apart within 20m by 20m square grids. The instrument was checked for electronic and mechanical drift at a common point after every three grids and calibrated as necessary. The drift from zero was not logged.

Data Processing and Presentation

The detailed gradiometer data has been presented in this report in greyscale and XY trace plot format having been selectively processed and interpolated using Geoplot (Geoscan Research) software. Due to the variation in background magnetic noise the greyscale plots are displayed at various ranges as shown on the figures, using a linear incremental scale.

X-Y trace plot format allows the full range of data to be viewed, dependent on the clip, allowing the 'shape' of individual anomalies to be discerned and

potentially archaeological anomalies differentiated from ferrous 'iron spike' responses.

Appendix 2

Resistance Survey: Technical Information

Soil Resistance

The electrical resistance of the upper soil horizons is predominantly dependant on the amount and distribution of water within the soil matrix. Buried archaeological features, such as walls or infilled ditches, by their differing capacity to retain moisture, will impact on the distribution of sub-surface moisture and hence affect electrical resistance. In this way there may be a measurable contrast between the resistance of archaeological features and that of the surrounding deposits. This contrast is needed in order for sub-surface features to be detected by a resistance survey.

The most striking contrast will usually occur between a solid structure, such as a wall, and water-retentive subsoil. This shows as a resistive high. A weak contrast can often be measured between the infill of a ditch feature and the subsoil. If the infill material is soil it is likely to be less compact and hence more water retentive than the subsoil and so the feature will show as a resistive low. If the infill is stone the feature may retain less water than the subsoil and so will show as a resistive high.

The method of measuring variations in ground resistance involves passing a small electric current (1mA) into the ground via a pair of electrodes (current electrodes) and then measuring changes in current flow (the potential gradient) using a second pair of electrodes (potential electrodes). In this way, if a structural feature, such as a wall, lies buried in a soil of uniform resistance much of the current will flow around the feature following the path of least resistance. This reduces the current density in the vicinity of the feature, which in turn increases the potential gradient. It is this potential gradient that is measured to determine the resistance. In this case, the gradient would be increased around the wall giving a positive or high resistance anomaly.

In contrast a feature such as an infilled ditch may have a moisture retentive fill that is comparatively less resistive to current flow. This will increase the current density and decrease the potential gradient over the feature giving a negative or low resistance anomaly.

Survey Methodology

The most widely used archaeological technique for earth resistance surveys uses a twin probe configuration. One current and one potential electrode (the remote or static probes) are fixed firmly in the ground a set distance away from the area being surveyed. The other current and potential electrodes (the mobile probes) are mounted on a frame and are moved from one survey point to the next. Each time the mobile probes make contact with the ground an electrical circuit is formed between the current electrodes and the potential gradient between the mobile and remote probes is measured and stored in the memory of the instrument.

A Geoscan RM15 resistance meter was used during this survey, with the instrument logging each reading automatically at 1m intervals. The mobile

probe spacing was 0.5m with the remote probes 15m apart and at least 15m away from the grid under survey. This mobile probe spacing of 0.5m gives an approximate depth of penetration of 1m for most archaeological features. Consequently a soil cover in excess of 1m may mask, or significantly attenuate, a geophysical response.

Data Processing and Presentation

The resistance data is presented in this report in greyscale format with a linear gradation of values and was obtained by exporting a bitmap from the processing software (Geoplot v3.0; Geoscan Research) into AutoCAD 2000. The data has been processed and has also been interpolated by a value of 0.5 in both the X and Y axes using a sine wave (x)/x function to give a smoother, better defined plot. All of the illustrations incorporating a digital map base were produced in AutoCAD 2000 (© Autodesk).

Appendix 3

Survey Location Information

A Trimble Geodimeter 600s total station theodolite was used to lay out and tie-in the survey grid based on the centre line of the corridor as set out by Transco. Temporary reference points (survey marker stakes) were left in place for accurate geo-referencing and the grids tied-in relative to these markers and to field boundaries. The survey grids were then superimposed onto an Ordnance Survey map base supplied by the client as a best fit to produce the grid locations and the co-ordinates listed below. Overall there was a good correlation between the local survey and the digital map base and it is estimated that the average 'best fit' error is better than ±1.5m. However, it should be noted that Ordnance Survey 1:2500 Superplan mapping has an error of ±1.9m at 95% confidence. These potential errors must be considered if distances are measured off, or if the tie in survey is used in GPS systems, for relocation purposes.

The locations of the temporary reference points are shown on Figures 3, 4 and 5 and the Ordnance Survey grid co-ordinates tabulated below.

Station	Easting	Northing
A	364722.98	471118.05
B	364797.99	471118.05
C	364794.79	471055.35
D	365076.34	471041.49
E	365162.33	471047.32
F	365328.96	471056.32
G	365500.97	471205.46
H	365596.58	471170.14
I	365597.29	471148.42
J	365597.35	471086.40
K	365629.70	471195.77
L	400967.57	454132.75
M	401175.18	454306.33
N	401189.51	454143.41
O	401187.65	454234.60
P	401276.75	454202.10

Archaeological Services WYAS cannot accept responsibility for errors of fact or opinion resulting from data supplied by a third party or for the removal of any of the survey reference points.

Appendix 4

Geophysical Archive

The geophysical archive comprises:-

- an archive disk containing compressed (WinZip 8) files of the raw data, report text (Word 2000), and graphics files (CorelDraw6 and AutoCAD 2000) files.

- a full copy of the report

At present the archive is held by Archaeological Services WYAS although it is anticipated that it may eventually be lodged with the Archaeology Data Service (ADS). Brief details may also be forwarded for inclusion on the English Heritage Geophysical Survey Database after the contents of the report are deemed to be in the public domain (i.e. available for consultation in the relevant Sites and Monument Record Office).