



HAL
open science

Interpretation of shallow electromagnetic instruments resistivity and magnetic susceptibility measurements using rapid 1D/3D inversion

Christophe Benech, Michel Dabas, François Xavier Simon, Alain Tabbagh, Julien Thiesson

► To cite this version:

Christophe Benech, Michel Dabas, François Xavier Simon, Alain Tabbagh, Julien Thiesson. Interpretation of shallow electromagnetic instruments resistivity and magnetic susceptibility measurements using rapid 1D/3D inversion. *Geophysics*, 2016, 81 (2), pp.E103-E112. 10.1190/geo2014-0549.1 . hal-01375877

HAL Id: hal-01375877

<https://hal.science/hal-01375877>

Submitted on 5 Oct 2016

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

1 **Interpretation of shallow EMI resistivity and magnetic susceptibility measurements**
2 **using rapid 1D/3D inversion**

3

4 **Short title:** Rapid1D/3D inversion of shallow EMI

5 **Authors:** Christophe Benech¹, Michel Dabas², François-Xavier Simon³, Alain Tabbagh⁴,
6 Julien Thiesson⁴

7

8 ¹ UMR 5133 Archéorient, Maison de l'Orient et de la Méditerranée – Université Lyon 2 F-69365 Lyon

9 ² Geocarta, 5 rue de la banque F-75002 Paris

10 ³ USR3550, MSH, 4 rue Ledru, F-63000, Clermont-Ferrand

11 ⁴ Sorbonne Universités, UPMC Paris6, UMR7619, Métis, F-75252 Paris

12

13 Corresponding author: Alain Tabbagh, alain.tabbagh@upmc.fr

14

15 **Abstract**

16 This paper proposes an inversion process of EMI data based on a two-step approach
17 with 1D inversion of the entire studied surface and a fast 3D inversion applied over limited
18 areas. This process is similar to that formerly used in resistivity prospecting. For the study of
19 soil (environmental, engineering or archaeological explorations) low frequency
20 electromagnetic instruments (referred to as Slingram EMI, or EMI) have highly useful
21 specificities. They are light, easy to move in the field, and can simultaneously measure the
22 ground's electrical conductivity and magnetic susceptibility; they have thus been used to map
23 these properties over large surface areas, within relatively short periods of time and at
24 reasonable expense. The possibility of combining several coil geometries has opened up the
25 potential for multi-depth techniques and systematic 1D inversion, which are found to be
26 sufficiently revealing to allow larger portions of surveyed areas to be analysed.

27 In the 'targeted areas' selected for 3D inversion, the geometries of the 3D features and
28 the resistivity and/or susceptibility contrasts are determined. This step is based on the method
29 of moments where only 3D heterogeneities are meshed, and only a small number of major
30 characteristics, such as contrast, thickness, width, etc., are searched for. This process was first
31 applied to synthetic data, then to data acquired at an experimental test site, and finally to field
32 cases. The rapid 3D inversion complements the 1D one by solving a series of issues:
33 correction for the apparent anisotropy generated by the instrument configuration, multi-arched
34 anomalies, precise location of lateral changes and determination of the properties contrasts.
35 The inversion results highlight the importance of the instrument geometry. It is also shown
36 that apparent magnetic susceptibility data can be more appropriate for the determination of the
37 volume of man-made features, and is highly complementary to conductivity data.

38

39 **Key words**

40 Soil resistivity and magnetic susceptibility, multi-depth EMI prospection, 1D and 3D
41 successive inversions, archaeological prospection

42

43 **Introduction**

44 The application of Slingram electromagnetic induction (EMI) devices to near-surface
45 studies began during the 1960s in archaeological prospection. The data initially gave rise to a
46 series of interpretation difficulties, due to the unexpected influence of the ground's magnetic
47 susceptibility in the measured responses (Scollar et al. 1990). It was later recognized that an
48 appropriate choice of coil separation and frequency could allow the conductivity response to
49 be distinguished from that of the magnetic susceptibility (Tite and Mullins, 1970): in cases
50 where the so-called induction number is sufficiently low, the magnetic susceptibility
51 generates an in-phase response while the electrical conductivity a quadrature out of phase one.

52 The attractive benefits of this technique have led to considerable research, in an effort to
53 assess its potential advantages and drawbacks with respect to those of the previously
54 implemented, conventional magnetic field and DC resistivity techniques. The design of a new
55 family of EM instruments by Geonics Ltd (Canada) (McNeil 1980) led to large applications in
56 soil salinity mapping (De Jong et al. 1979), which were then extended to the study of other
57 soils (Kachanoski et al. 1988).

58 Conductivity measurements are straightforward with an EMI instrument, since it can
59 be more easily deployed and operated in the field than a DC resistivity array. EMI instruments
60 have thus experienced considerable developments, for rapid near-surface mapping
61 applications over extended areas (Bendjoudi et al. 2002, Vitharana et al. 2008, Hoefler et al.
62 2010). Similarly to the case of airborne electromagnetic measurements (AEM) prospectors
63 have to face with the complexity of interpreting huge volumes of 3D data (see for example
64 Huang and Fraser, 1996). The first interpretations involved the application of a 1D point-by-
65 point inversion, after having outlined the conditions under which this interpretation is relevant
66 (Guérin et al. 1996). Later, the development of 1D modelling included magnetic susceptibility
67 and dielectric permittivity in the analysis of EMI data (Huang and Fraser 2002, Farquharson
68 et al. 2003). Similarly to the case of galvanic resistivity, more sophisticated laterally-
69 constrained 1D inversions have been applied (Santos 2004, Auken and Christiansen 2004) or
70 joint inversion has been used with other techniques, magnetic cartography in particular
71 (Benech et al. 2002).

72 Nowadays, new ground-based multi-coil devices (Saey et al. 2012, Bonsall et al. 2013)
73 give access to precise multi-depth data, while ensuring accurate collocation of the data fields.
74 This stimulates the need of inversion procedures that fully exploit the advantages of these
75 instruments, in terms of imaging both conductivity and susceptibility of subsurface features.
76 One also wants to take into account the need of a rapid method usable on a laptop allowing

77 easily reconsidering the starting parameters and the extent of the considered area. Compared
78 with other EM techniques one must note that both the transmitter(s) and the receiver(s) are
79 moving thus (i) the considered calculations are significantly longer than for fixed sources EM
80 because the primary field needs to be calculated for each location of the transmitter, but (ii) in
81 the surveyed field the electromagnetic coupling is negligible between 3D heterogeneities
82 separated by too great distances (several times the inter-coil separation(s)). To overcome the
83 difficulties and taking into consideration the practical conditions associated with 3D
84 inversion, a two-steps efficient approach has been proposed for the processing of multi-depth
85 DC resistivity data (Brinon et al. 2012). The first step involves defining the 1D structure of
86 the subsurface. Then the interpreter defines a ‘targeted area’, which is a limited area
87 surrounding the target(s) of interest and whose surface is several times larger than the range of
88 investigation of the instruments used. The 3D bodies imbedded in the layered terrain are
89 characterized by a limited number of parameters: contrast, thickness, width, length,
90 orientation. This approach is well matched to the characteristics of man-made features that are
91 searched for in archaeological prospection, or in polluted sites exploration. It is
92 straightforwardly implemented when using the moment method (MoM) for forward
93 modelling. MoM combines analytical and numerical calculations, for which only 3D
94 heterogeneities located in a layered 1D terrain need to be meshed. Its application in EM is less
95 simple than in DC resistivity but both the conductivity and susceptibility contrasts can be
96 taken into account (Tabbagh 1985).

97 In the present paper this approach is applied to EMI survey data in order to evaluate its
98 potential. One first defines the successive steps of the inversion process before inverting
99 synthetic data, data collected above artificial features on a field test site and finally field data
100 collected over archaeological sites.

102 **Inversion process**

103 *Forward modelling*

104 The moment method (MoM) has been applied for more than thirty years in EM
105 prospection modelling (Raiche 1974, Hohmann 1975, Tabbagh 1985). 3D bodies located in
106 layered terrain are replaced by an equivalent set of EM dipoles sources. Consequently it
107 allows meshing to be restricted to heterogeneous bodies, but requires an initial 1D layered
108 model and analytical calculations of the fields generated by dipole sources in the layered
109 terrain. These can now be performed very rapidly through the use of convolution calculations
110 to determine the required Hankel transforms (Guptasarma and Singh, 1997). After having
111 determined the 1D surrounding model, the heterogeneous body(ies) imbedded in the layers is
112 (are) meshed, and the intensity of the equivalent secondary sources is determined using a
113 volume integral equation. These sources are then used to compute the resulting secondary
114 field at the surface.

115 *Inversion*

116 The aim of an inversion process is to determine the unknown quantities representing
117 physical properties of interest. In the present case, these correspond to the electrical resistivity
118 and magnetic susceptibility values, and the geometrical boundaries of selected layer(s) and
119 body(ies). The inversion is achieved by starting with an *a priori* set of values, representing
120 each of the different inversion parameters, and then iteratively modifying these in order to
121 achieve a sufficiently good fit between the results of the forward model and the experimental
122 data. The Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm (Marquardt, 1963) is used to achieve a linearized
123 iterative process, in which the cost function includes both the Euclidian distance (L2 norm)
124 between the model results and the data, as well as the intensities of the model parameter
125 increments, multiplied by a damping factor the weight of which is reduced during the course
126 of the iterative process.

127 In the present case the total inversion process thus follows two steps. The first of these
 128 determines, over the entire studied area, an optimised 1D structure that is fitted (point by
 129 point, or with a lateral constraint) to the apparent resistivities and susceptibilities measured by
 130 the various instruments. In this step, if vertical electrical sounding results are not available,
 131 one generally fixes the number of layers at 3 and chooses the *a priori* resistivity and thickness
 132 values by considering the apparent resistivity and magnetic susceptibility values as well as the
 133 depth of investigation of each EMI configuration used.

134 The algorithm is the following. We called \mathbf{m} the vector of the parameters, \mathbf{m}_0 the
 135 corresponding *a priori* starting values, \mathbf{d} the vector of the data and \mathbf{G} the operator of the
 136 forward calculation. As the problem is non-linear, it is iteratively solved by calculating at
 137 iteration, i , \mathbf{G} and its Jacobian \mathbf{J} using \mathbf{m}_{i-1} parameters and then deducing the increment
 138 $\Delta\mathbf{m}=\mathbf{m}-\mathbf{m}_{i-1}$ by derivation of the cost function:

$$139 \quad \mathbf{S}=\Delta\mathbf{p}^T\Delta\mathbf{p}+\lambda\Delta\mathbf{m}^T\Delta\mathbf{m} \quad (1)$$

140 Where

$$141 \quad \Delta\mathbf{p}=\mathbf{d}-\mathbf{G}\mathbf{m}_{i-1}-\mathbf{J}\Delta\mathbf{m} \quad (2)$$

142 The solved equation is thus:

$$143 \quad \mathbf{J}^T\mathbf{J}+\lambda\mathbf{I})\Delta\mathbf{m}=\mathbf{J}^T\Delta\mathbf{p} \quad (3)$$

144 Where \mathbf{I} is the identity matrix and λ the regularisation parameter. λ has a starting value
 145 equal to the double of the trace of the $\mathbf{J}^T\mathbf{J}$ matrix divided by the number of parameters and,
 146 after, is divided at each iteration i by $i^{1.5}$. The number of iteration depends on the \mathbf{m}_0 choice
 147 but remains lower than 10.

148 Where a 3D approach is required, the second step begins by defining, over the
 149 ‘targeted area’ surrounding the body(ies), the 1D reference or ‘background’ model. We adopt
 150 the statistic mode of each value of the layer’s parameters in that area. Then the parameters

151 characterising the 3D heterogeneous body(ies) are determined. The *a priori* starting values of
152 the horizontal limits the body(ies) are defined by considering the full width half maximum of
153 the anomaly, that of the resistivity by dividing by two the background resistivity if the body is
154 more conductive and by multiplying by two the background resistivity if the body is more
155 resistive. To verify the influence of these *a priori* values they can also be freely fixed by the
156 interpreter. In 3D inversion the starting value of regularisation parameter, λ , equals the fifth of
157 the trace of the matrix divided by the number of parameters. The susceptibility contrast is
158 linearly inverted.

159 The electrical resistivity and magnetic susceptibility are nevertheless two independent
160 properties, but whereas the resistivity distribution modifies the ‘primary’ field distribution
161 seen by the magnetic grains inside the layered terrain (which could be significantly different
162 from the free space distribution), the susceptibility (and the susceptibility contrast) is
163 sufficiently small for its influence on the primary field to be considered as negligible
164 (Tabbagh 1985). This means that the resistivity distribution must be known before the
165 susceptibility distribution can be inverted, whereas the converse does not apply. In both the
166 1D and 3D inversion steps, we thus proceed by initially inverting the resistivity distribution
167 and the geometrical limits, before searching for the susceptibility distribution.

168 *Tests of rapid 1D/3D inversion on synthetic data*

169 Although the 1D inversion of apparent resistivity data maps is well known and has
170 been used and published for more than twenty years (Guérin *et al.* 1996), the 3D inversion of
171 data raises new issues. The first difficulty, of major importance for the prospector, is to assess
172 the optimal number of independent in-phase and quadrature out of phase measurement maps
173 needed to determine the required resistivity and susceptibility contrasts as well as the
174 geometrical parameters of the body(ies). Although this problem is complex and probably has

175 no general solution, the analysis of a synthetic example can contribute to an improved
176 understanding of this process.

177 We consider a 3D elongated body 3 m in length, 1 m in width and 1 m in thickness
178 (which could correspond to a ditch) embedded in the second layer of a three-layer ground
179 having a resistivity of 20 Ωm (50 mSm^{-1} conductivity) and a susceptibility of 80×10^{-5} SI.
180 The top of the body is located 0.3 m below the ground. The first layer (corresponding to the
181 topsoil) has a resistivity of 100 Ωm (10 mSm^{-1}), a susceptibility of 30×10^{-5} SI, and a
182 thickness equal to 0.2 m. The second layer is characterised by the same parameters with the
183 values: 200 Ωm (5 mSm^{-1}), 20×10^{-5} SI and 2m, and the third layer is characterised by the
184 values: 50 Ωm (20 mSm^{-1}) and 10×10^{-5} SI. The synthetic data are calculated for three
185 different Slingram EMI devices: a) a 0.6 m coil separation with HCP (horizontal coplanar)
186 and VCP (vertical coplanar) coil configurations, an operating frequency equal to 27.96 kHz,
187 and measurements recorded at 0.08m above the ground; b) a 1.0 m coil separation with HCP
188 and VCP coil configurations, an operating frequency equal to 14.6 kHz, and measurements
189 recorded at 0.08m above the ground; c) a 1.5 m separation with a PERP (perpendicular) coil
190 configuration, an operating frequency equal to 8 kHz, and measurements recorded 0.15 m
191 above the ground. We thus have ten independent data sets, of which five correspond to in-
192 phase measurements expressed by apparent susceptibility values (Figure 1b) and five
193 correspond to quadrature measurements expressed by apparent resistivity values (Figure 1a),
194 calculated with a fine $0.25 \times 0.25 \text{ m}^2$ mesh over a $8 \times 8 \text{ m}^2$ surface area, corresponding to a
195 total of 1089 measurement points.

196 *1D inversion results*

197 Here the inversion bears over one single unknown parameter, the resistivity
198 (respectively susceptibility of the second layer) in order to be able to compare the results of
199 the different configurations. As expected from theory (Tabbagh 1986), for the apparent

200 resistivity measurements VCP configurations give the best results, with a full width half
201 maximum corresponding to the width of the body, and a minimum reaching $60 \Omega\text{m}$ (16.7
202 mSm^{-1}) for a 1 m VCP, whereas the latter parameter is determined as $100 \Omega\text{m}$ (10mSm^{-1}) for
203 a 1m HCP configuration, and $97 \Omega\text{m}$ (10.3mSm^{-1}) for the PERP 1.5 m instrument. When the
204 five sets of data are inverted together, the resulting image is less informative than when the
205 VCP configuration is used alone, and the resistivity minimum is determined to be $84 \Omega\text{m}$
206 (11.9mSm^{-1}). It can thus be understood that it is not necessarily relevant to use several
207 datasets due to its unavoidable ‘averaging’ effect. However, the difference between the 1D
208 results and the resistivity of the body ($20 \Omega\text{m}$) always remains high.

209 The 1D inversion of apparent susceptibility datasets produces similar results, except
210 that, as in the apparent susceptibility maps (Figure 1b), the shapes of the anomalies fit the
211 shape of the body more accurately. Similarly to the case of the resistivity, the VCP
212 configuration produces the best result: the VCP 1m thus leads to a 55×10^{-5} SI maximum,
213 whereas the HCP 1m leads to 45×10^{-5} SI, the PERP gives 52×10^{-5} SI and all five datasets
214 also find 52×10^{-5} SI for the predefined 80×10^{-5} SI susceptibility of the body.

215 *3D inversion results*

216 Using the full width half maxima, it is relatively straightforward to determine the
217 shape of the body in the horizontal plane. In the following, we focus on assessing the
218 suitability of various instrument geometries/configurations for the determination of three
219 parameters: the body's vertical extent, its resistivity/conductivity contrast, and its
220 susceptibility contrast. The vertical extent of a body is known to be the most difficult
221 parameter to asses, using the DC resistivity method. The inversion is based on the data
222 corresponding to a small area, i.e. the selected targeted area comprising 5×21 measurement
223 points centred on the body (thus a $1 \times 5 \text{m}^2$ area, Figures 1a and 1b). The results obtained with
224 each dataset (corresponding to 5 different instrumental configurations), and with the

225 combined datasets, are presented in Table 1. These include results based on both apparent
226 resistivity measurements, and apparent susceptibility measurements. It can be seen that the
227 computed results are close to the real values (provided in the first line of this table), with the
228 exception of the vertical extent of the body, determined by inverting the apparent resistivity
229 data, which has uncertainties as high as 20%. The most accurate results, obtained using the
230 apparent susceptibility data, can be explained by the stronger geometrical correspondence
231 between the shape of the anomaly and the shape of the causative body. In this example, the
232 VCP 1m configuration appears to produce the best inversion results. The most inaccurate
233 resistivity inversion is determined with the PERP instrument (probably as a result of its
234 greater 1.5m inter-coil separation), and the most inaccurate susceptibility inversion is
235 determined with the HCP (probably because it has the smallest anomaly). It is important to
236 note that this conclusion is valid even in the case of the smallest inter-coil separation, in
237 agreement with previously published experimental results (Thiesson *et al.* 2009). Again there
238 is no clear advantage in using the five data sets together, two of the one data sets giving better
239 results.

240

241 **Field test over an artificial feature**

242 A field test over artificial features has several advantages when compared to (physical
243 or numerical) modelling: 1) it makes use of real in-field measurements, associated with the
244 usual errors arising from uncertainties in measurement locations, external sources of EM
245 noise, etc., 2) even when the anomalous bodies are built very carefully, the homogeneity of
246 the filling material is never perfect, thus leading to real variability in the body properties, 3)
247 the surrounding medium may also be inhomogeneous, and be characterised by significant
248 natural changes in the immediate vicinity of the body.

249 The artificial feature we studied is located at the Garchy laboratory (Nièvre, France). It
250 consists of a dual-branch ditch, dug into a silty superficial weathered formation above the
251 Jurassic limestone: the two branches have respectively N-S and E-W alignments, and both
252 have the same dimensions: a $0.8 \times 0.8 \text{ m}^2$ section, and a length of 8 m. The ditch is filled with
253 exogenous topsoil, and thus has a higher magnetic susceptibility than the surrounding soil. Its
254 resistivity contrast is low. EMI measurements were carried out in 1999 (Benech 2000), using
255 three different devices: the MS2B magnetic susceptibility probe (Bartington, Ltd), the EM38
256 (Geonics ltd), which can in principle be used in both VCP and HCP configurations, and the
257 SH3 (a laboratory prototype, (Parchas and Tabbagh 1978)). The MS2 has a 0.18m diameter
258 coincident loop and thus a small depth of investigation, equal to approximately 0.1m,
259 allowing the susceptibility determination to be restricted to the topsoil. The EM38 has a 1m
260 coil separation and is operated at 14.6 kHz. The SH3 has a PARA coil orientation (the two
261 coils have parallel axes at 35° from vertical so that their direct coupling is null in free space),
262 a 1.5m coil separation, and is operated at 8.04 kHz. The dimensions of the studied area were
263 $20 \times 20 \text{ m}^2$, and this was surveyed using a $1 \times 1 \text{ m}^2$ measurement mesh. This mesh was however
264 too coarse to allow changes in sign of the anomaly measured with the EM38 HCP
265 configuration to be correctly monitored. All HCP data was thus excluded from the
266 interpretation process. The measurements were carried out along North-South profiles, with
267 the EM38 and SH3 being aligned with this profile (the line joining the transmitter to the
268 receiver was parallel to the profile).

269 The three apparent magnetic susceptibility maps shown in Figure 2, and the two
270 apparent resistivity maps shown in Figure 3, were processed by median filtering over a 3×3
271 points moving window. Even for the topsoil, the two branches of the ditch exhibit a greater
272 magnetic susceptibility than the surrounding terrain, and the global shape of the feature can be
273 recognized. In the apparent resistivity maps, the presence of the ditch is less well defined; it

274 appears to be slightly more resistive than the surrounding layer, and is clearly visible on the
275 EM38-VCP map. However, the SH3 map reveals the natural variations of the medium, rather
276 than those of the feature. This can be explained by the greater depth of investigation of this
277 instrument. The apparent anisotropy effect associated (Guérin *et al.* 1996) with the
278 configuration and orientation of the EM38-VCP may also have affected the measurements.

279 ***1D inversion results***

280 In accordance with the electrical sounding carried out in the area nearby, the data were
281 inverted by considering a three-layer ground comprising: a topsoil layer with 70 Ωm
282 resistivity (14.3 mSm^{-1} conductivity), variable magnetic susceptibility, and 0.15 m thickness;
283 a second layer having a variable resistivity and magnetic susceptibility and 1 m thickness; and
284 a third layer, the sound limestone, having a resistivity of 300 Ωm (3.33 mSm^{-1}) and a
285 magnetic susceptibility of $20 \cdot 10^{-5}$ SI. The resistivity of the second layer, ρ_2 , was first inverted
286 using EM38-VCP and SH3 apparent resistivity data. Then, the topsoil and second layer
287 magnetic susceptibilities, κ_{p1} and κ_{p2} , were inverted using the MS2B, EM38-VCP and SH3
288 apparent magnetic susceptibility data. The resulting maps are shown in Figures 2 and 3. As
289 could be expected from the apparent resistivity maps, the exact shape of the ditch cannot be
290 discerned on the ρ_2 map (Figure 2), but both branches appear to be more resistive, with
291 apparent resistivity values reaching 100 Ωm (10 mSm^{-1}). As expected, in view of the
292 instrument's shallow depth of investigation, the κ_{p1} map reproduces the MS2B map in shape
293 and magnitude. The κ_{p2} map confirms the presence of a zone of significant magnetic contrast
294 below the topsoil layer. All of the results reveal the inhomogeneity of both the material filled
295 into the ditch, and the natural surrounding medium.

296 ***3D inversion results***

297 The data inversion was applied over two small, separate targeted areas that are
298 delineated by dotted rectangles in Figures 2 and 3. The values of contrast between the two

299 branches and the surrounding terrain, determined in terms of conductivity and magnetic
300 susceptibility, are summarized in Table 2.

301 When the data produced by the EM38-VCP and SH3 instruments are used in the
302 inversion, a conductivity contrast close to -10mSm^{-1} is obtained, corresponding to an absolute
303 resistivity of $100\ \Omega\text{m}$ ($10\ \text{mSm}^{-1}$) for the ditch filling material, as opposed to about $50\ \Omega\text{m}$
304 ($20\ \text{mSm}^{-1}$) for the surrounding terrain. The computation time took 29 mn for the NS branch
305 and 32 mn for the EW one with a 4Go RAM and 2.5 GHz laptop computer.

306 When the inversion results are considered for each instrument separately, the contrasts
307 are very different: as could be expected from the apparent resistivity maps, the EM38-VCP
308 maps are comparable for the two branches and are characterised by a negative contrast (the
309 feature is less conductive); conversely, with the SH3 the contrast is positive (the feature looks
310 more conductive) but null and very low, and in fact the ditch is not detected. Thus, SH3
311 measurements do not contribute to the results of the two-instrument 3D inversion, which is
312 totally dominated by the data from the EM38-VCP.

313 When the magnetic susceptibility is considered, the values obtained for both branches
314 reveal a generally stronger magnetic feature. The absolute value of the ditch fill material lies
315 between 50 and 150×10^{-5} SI. Again, the results obtained with the EM38-VCP and SH3
316 instruments are significantly different in magnitude: with the EM38-VCP, the values of
317 contrast determined for the two branches are quite similar, whereas with the SH3 clearly
318 different results are found, approximately 40×10^{-5} SI for the N-S branch, and approximately
319 110×10^{-5} SI for the E-W branch. This difference remains difficult to explain, because the
320 anisotropy associated with the direction of the applied magnetic field is normally taken into
321 account in the 3D inversion process.

322 Globally, the experiment conducted over these artificial ditches shows that the
323 inversion results obtained with different instruments can be significantly different, and that

324 the coil configuration plays an important role in EMI instrument responses. In conclusion, it
325 can be judicious to use several instrumental configurations when the depths of anomalous
326 features are not known.

327

328 **Field tests over two archaeological sites**

329 *Gallo-roman site of Vieil-Evreux (Eure, France)*

330 The test was carried out in the *fanum* area of this site, called Gisacum during the
331 Roman era. This is a religious centre, located 7 km east of the capital city of Aulerques
332 Eburovices (now Evreux in Normandy) (Guyard and Lepert 1999). Several new surveying
333 techniques and different devices (Flageul et al. 2013) have already been tested in this area,
334 such that a series of control data was available. The soil resistivity was mapped using a three-
335 depth multipole array ARP© (Automatic Resistivity Profiling) so that both the pattern of the
336 different features and the resistivity ranges of the different materials are known. The site is
337 located in the geological context of a flint-clay plateau, resulting from the weathering of the
338 cretaceous chalk. Above this clay, which has a resistivity of approximately 15 Ω m, the
339 archaeological remains have a variable thickness and can exceed 100 Ω .m in resistivity. In the
340 *fanum* area, the thickness of the archaeological layer is approximately 90 cm. The tests were
341 carried out using the DualEM 421S instrument, a multi-receiver EMI (DualEM sensor manual
342 2010) operated at 9 kHz. It associates one horizontal transmitter loop with three pairs of
343 receivers. In each pair, the first receiver is horizontal, allowing HCP measurements to be
344 made. By rotating the entire apparatus, VCP configuration measurements can be made. The
345 second receiver of each pair is oriented in a radial direction from the transmitter, allowing
346 PERP configuration measurements to be used. The receivers of the first pair are located at
347 respectively 1m and 1.1m from the transmitter, those of the second pair at 2m and 2.1 m, and
348 those of the third pair at 4m and 4.1m. However, in the present test data from the third pair

349 were not considered, and only HCP 1m, HCP 2m, PERP 1.1m and PERP 2.1m data was used
350 for the 1D/3D inversion. The data was acquired at a high sampling rate, by towing the
351 instrument (with a quad bike) 0.1m above the ground. Each data point was located using a
352 dGPS system, thus allowing the resulting map to be produced on a fine, $0.3 \times 0.3 \text{ m}^2$ mesh.
353 The apparent resistivity maps obtained with the four configurations are shown in Fig. 4. The
354 approximately 10m x 10m square *cella* can be seen at the centre of each of these images, and
355 on the east and west sides the external walls of the *fanum*. The global apparent resistivity is
356 found to have lower values with the PERP 2.1m and HCP 2m instrument configurations, than
357 for shorter coil separations. This is due to the greater influence of the underlying flint-clay
358 layer. In both HCP images, the anomalies generated by walls correspond to three parallel,
359 resistive/conductive/resistive strips; this experimental result is in full agreement with the
360 theory (Tabbagh 1986), and was achieved thanks to the fine mesh used for this survey.
361 However, such anomalies with this coil configuration can lead to misinterpretation, if the
362 experimental results are not compared with the theoretical model. The wall anomalies are
363 more pronounced on the PERP 1.1m map than on the HCP 1m map, and the ability of the
364 former to image the wall pattern appears to be equivalent to that of the electrical method
365 (Dabas et al. 2015).

366 The 3D interpretation allows these different points to be more thoroughly investigated.
367 To this aim, a limited $4.8 \times 3.6 \text{ m}^2$ targeted area was defined, including the external wall ,
368 which is delineated by a rectangle in Fig. 5 (the *cella* itself appears to be more complicated, it
369 probably has deeper underground sub-structures). In this zone, 3D interpretation of the
370 electrical data acquired with the ARP© indicates that the wall has a section of $1.00 \times 0.88 \text{ m}^2$
371 and a resistivity of $70.7 \text{ } \Omega\text{m}$ (14.1 mSm^{-1}), which is in contrast with the second, surrounding
372 layer with a resistivity of $32 \text{ } \Omega\text{m}$ (31.2 mSm^{-1}). The conductivity contrast characterizing the
373 wall is thus -17.1 mSm^{-1} . Table 3 presents the conductivity contrast between the wall and

374 surrounding layer, computed using the same geometrical parameters (to define the wall's
375 location and section), based on the data provided by each configuration alone, and on the
376 combined data from all four configurations. In all cases, the contrast is found to be lower than
377 that obtained with DC resistivity measurements. The conductivity contrast determined with
378 the combined data is not greater than the contrast computed from the data produced by each
379 individual instrument. The two configurations giving a qualitatively correct contrast, i.e.
380 PERP 1.1m and HCP 2m, are those which also produce the clearest apparent resistivity maps.
381 The near absence of contrast obtained with the PERP2 configuration, with no detection of the
382 wall, can be explained by the depth of investigation of this configuration. The sign inversion
383 obtained with the HCP 1m is a consequence of the three arched anomalies, and confirms that
384 the use of a HCP configuration can lead to considerable interpretation difficulties in the case
385 of small resistive features. These observations again emphasize the advantage and drawback
386 associated with the simultaneous use of several configurations.

387 *Neolithic enclosure at Balloy (Seine et Marne, France)*

388 The study of this middle Neolithic enclosure provides an interesting example of the
389 usefulness of 3D inversion. The eastern section of this 'Passy' type of funeral enclosure
390 (Mordant 1997) has been the object of multi-method tests. This enclosure was detected by
391 both electrical (square array of 1m side) and SH3 prospection, but not by magnetic
392 prospection using a fluxgate gradiometer with 1nT sensitivity (Hesse 1987) and it is important
393 to explain this failure. The apparent magnetic susceptibility map of this enclosure is shown in
394 Fig. 5. On this site, the cultivated topsoil layer has a susceptibility of 100×10^{-5} SI, a
395 resistivity of $70 \Omega\text{m}$ and a thickness of 0.25 m. This layer covers a highly resistive gravel
396 formation ($300 \Omega\text{m}$) with a low susceptibility, equal to 20×10^{-5} SI.

397 3D interpretation was applied to a targeted area in which the ditch can be clearly
398 distinguished (see contours in Figure 5). It shows that the ditch fill material, which contrasts

399 with the gravel, is thin, i.e. has a section of $1.4 \times 0.4 \text{ m}^2$, and has a relatively low magnetic
400 susceptibility of $51 \times 10^{-5} \text{ SI}$. Using these parameters, the magnetic anomaly determined with
401 a fluxgate vertical gradient is not more than 0.5 nT/m . Both the limited thickness and the
402 limited contrast explain why no magnetic anomaly was observed, even with the addition of
403 viscous magnetic remanent magnetization, and confirm the usefulness of EM susceptibility
404 measurements over thin features.

405

406 **Conclusion**

407 1D interpretation allows underground structures to be more clearly delineated, and
408 permits a better assessment of variations in the soil's physical properties than simple mapping
409 of apparent properties. The complementary 3D inversion allows solving a series of issues:
410 correction for the apparent anisotropy generated by the instrument configuration, multi-arched
411 anomalies, precise location of lateral changes and determination of the contrasts between the
412 considered body and its surrounding medium.

413 When applied to EMI data, the rapid 1D/3D inversion process we have proposed not
414 only allows an (expected) improvement in interpretation to be achieved, but also emphasizes
415 the importance of the instrument's geometry, which should be optimally matched with the
416 objectives of the survey. This inversion process is shown to be useful for the assessment of
417 multi-configuration instrument capabilities. In particular, it confirms the difficulties
418 encountered with the use of an HCP configuration, and the conclusions of early theoretical
419 studies of this technique.

420 Since the analytical and numerical (MoM) calculation method presented in this study
421 is the same as the one already used with the DC resistivity technique, 1D/3D inversion will
422 offer the possibility of combining DC and EMI data in a joint inversion. This would be useful

423 to surveyors because EMI is faster for in-field mapping, while DC is more reliable for the
424 determination of electrical resistivity contrasts of resistive features.

425 Although interpretations of both electrical conductivity and magnetic susceptibility
426 measurements are presented in this study, it is important to note that contrary to the electrical
427 resistivity which most often belongs to the [1, 10,000 Ωm] interval, the range of relative
428 magnetic permeability values is very narrow: between 1.00 and 1.01. Consequently it is
429 sufficiently small for the ‘magnetic’ EMI responses to be considered as linear. This means
430 that a wide range of linear techniques, such as linear filtering, can be applied to the
431 interpretation of apparent magnetic susceptibility maps. Further research is needed, to
432 evaluate potential developments and applications for these techniques.

433

434

435 **References**

436 Auken E. and A. V. Christiansen, 2004, Layered and laterally constrained 2D inversion of
437 resistivity data: *Geophysics*, **69**, 752-761.

438 Bendjoudi H., P. Weng, R. Guérin and J. F. Pastre, 2002, Riparian wetlands of the middle
439 search of the Seine river (France): historical development, investigation and present
440 hydrologic functioning: *Journal of Hydrology*, **263**, 131-155.

441 Benech C., 2000, Interprétation conjointe de cartographies magnétique et électromagnétique
442 des propriétés magnétiques des sols anthropisés. Thèse Université Pierre et Marie Curie,
443 Paris.

444 Benech C., A. Tabbagh and G. Desvignes, 2002, Joint interpretation of E. M. and magnetic
445 data for near-surface studies: *Geophysics*, **67**, 1729-1739.

446 Brinon C., F.-X. Simon, and A. Tabbagh, 2012, Rapid 1D/3D inversion of shallow resistivity
447 multipole data: examples in archaeological prospection: *Geophysics*, **77**, no. 3, E193-E201.

448 Bonsall J., R. Fry, C. Gaffney, I. Armit, A. Beck and V. Gaffney, 2013, Assessment of the
449 CMD mini-explorer, a new low-frequency multi-coil electromagnetic device, for
450 archaeological investigations: *Archaeological Prospection*, **20**, 219-231.

451 Dabas M., A. Anest, J. Thiesson and A. Tabbagh, 2015, Slingram EMI devices for
452 characterizing resistive features using apparent conductivity measurements: check of the
453 DualEM-421S instrument and field tests: Submitted to *Archaeological Prospection*.

454 De Jong E., A. K. Ballantyne, D. R. Cameron and D. W. L. Read, 1979, Measurement of
455 apparent electrical conductivity of soil by an electromagnetic induction probe to aid salinity
456 surveys: *Soil Science Society of America Journal*, **43**, 810-812.

457 DualEM-421S User's manual, 2010, Milton, Ontario, Canada, 32p.

458 Farquharson C. G., D. W. Oldenburg and P. S. Routh, 2003, Simultaneous 1D inversion of
459 loop-loop electromagnetic data for magnetic susceptibility and electrical conductivity:
460 Geophysics: **68**, 1857-1869.

461 Flageul S., M. Dabas, J. Thiesson, F. Réjiba and A. Tabbagh, 2013, First in situ tests of a new
462 electrostatic resistivity meter: Near Surface Geophysics, **11**, 265-273.

463 Guérin R., Y. Méhéni, G. Rakontodrasoa and A. Tabbagh, 1996, Interpretation of Slingram
464 conductivity mapping in near surface geophysics: using a single parameter fitting with 1D
465 model: Geophysical Prospecting, **44**, 233-249.

466 Guyard L. and T. Lepert, 1999, Le Vieil- Evreux, ville sanctuaire gallo-romaine : Archeologia
467 **359**, 20-29.

468 Hesse A., 1987, Balloy 1986-1987. Rapport de synthèse sur les prospections géophysiques
469 des vestiges archéologiques : Direction régionale des antiquités d'Ile de France, août 1987,
470 15p.

471 Hoefler G., J. Bachmann and K. H. Hartge, 2010, Can EM38 probe detect spatial pattern of
472 subsoil compaction?, In Proximal Soil Sensing, Progress in Soil Science 1, R.A. Viscarra
473 Rossel et al. (eds.), Chapter 22, 265-273.

474 Hohmann G. W., 1975, Three dimensional induced polarization and electromagnetic
475 modeling: Geophysics, **40**, 309-320.

476 Huang H. and D. C. Fraser, 1996, The differential parameter method for multi-frequency
477 airborne resistivity mapping: Geophysics, **61**, 100-109.

478 Huang H. and D. C. Fraser, 2002, Dielectric permittivity and resistivity mapping using high
479 frequency, helicopter born EM data: Geophysics, **67**, 727-738.

480 Kacahnoski R. G., E. G. Gregorich and I. J. van Wesenbeek, 1988, Estimating spatial
481 variations of soil water content using non-contacting electromagnetic inductive methods:
482 Canadian Journal of Soil Science, **68**, 715-722.

483 Marquardt, D. W., 1963, An algorithm for least square estimation of nonlinear parameters:
484 Journal of the Society for Industrial and Applied Mathematics, **11**, 431–441.

485 McNeill J. D., 1980, Electromagnetic terrain conductivity measurement at low induction
486 numbers: Geonics Limited Technical Notes, **TN-6**, 15p.

487 Mordant D., 1997, Le complexe des Réaudins à Balloy: enceinte et nécropole monumentale.
488 La Culture de Cerny. Nouvelle économie, nouvelle société au Néolithique : Actes du
489 Colloque International de Nemours 1994, Mémoires du Musée de Préhistoire d'Ile-de-France,
490 **6**, 449-479.

491 Parchas C. and A. Tabbagh; 1978, Simultaneous measurement of electrical conductivity and
492 magnetic susceptibility of ground in electromagnetic prospecting: Archaeo-Physika, **10**, 682-
493 691

494 Raiche A. P., 1974, An integral equation approach to three dimensional modelling:
495 Geophysical Journal of the Royal Astronomical Society, **36**, 363-376.

496 Saey T., P. De Smedt, E. Meerschman, M.-M. Islam, F. Meeuws, E. van De Vijver, A.
497 Lehouck and M. van Meirvenne, 2012, Electrical conductivity depth modelling with a multi-
498 receiver EMI sensor for prospecting archaeological features: Archaeological Prospection, **19**,
499 21-30.

500 Santos, F. M., 2004, 1-D laterally constrained inversion of EM34 profiling data: Journal of
501 Applied Geophysics, **56**, 123–134.

502 Scollar I., A. Tabbagh, A. Hesseand I. Herzog, 1990, Archaeological prospection and remote
503 sensing. Cambridge University Press, 674p.

504 Tabbagh A., 1985, The response of a tree dimensional magnetic and conductive body in
505 shallow depth EM prospecting: Geophysical Journal of the Royal Astronomical Society, **81**,
506 215-230.

507 Tabbagh A., 1986, What is the best coil orientation in the slingram electromagnetic
508 prospecting method? *Archaeometry*, **28**, 185-196.

509 Thiesson J, M. Dabas and S. Flageul, 2009, Detection of resistive features using towed
510 Slingram electromagnetic induction instruments: *Archaeological Prospection*, **16**: 103-109.

511 Tite M. S. and C. E. Mullins, 1970, Electromagnetic prospecting on archaeological sites using
512 a soil conductivity meter: *Archaeometry*, **12**, 97-106.

513 Vitharana U. W. A., M. van Meirvenne, D. Simpson, L. Cockx and G. Hofman, 2008,
514 Agronomic consequences of potential zones delineated on the basis of EM38DD
515 measurements: *Near Surface Geophysics*, **6**, 289-296.

516

517 **Figure captions**

518 Figure 1: Synthetic data for three different Slingram devices, recorded above an elongated, 3D
519 body (resistivity = $20 \Omega\text{m}$, susceptibility = 80×10^{-5} SI) of dimensions: length=3 m,
520 width=1m, thickness=1 m, embedded in the second layer of a three layer ground, the top of
521 which is located 0.3 m below the ground surface (first layer $100 \Omega\text{m}$, 30×10^{-5} SI and 0.2m,
522 second layer $200 \Omega\text{m}$, 20×10^{-5} SI and 2m, third layer $50 \Omega\text{m}$ and 10×10^{-5} SI). The
523 rectangular dotted line indicates the contours of the targeted area used for 3D interpretation

524 (a) Apparent resistivity maps for in-line

525 (b) Apparent magnetic susceptibility maps for in-line measurements, and vertical section
526 of the feature.

527 Figure 2: Apparent magnetic susceptibility maps of the artificial L-shaped feature at the
528 Garchy site and first and second layer susceptibility variations after 1D inversion. The two
529 dashed rectangles indicate the contours of the two targeted areas used for 3D inversion.

530

531 Figure 3: Apparent resistivity maps of the artificial L-shaped feature at the Garchy site and
532 second layer resistivity variations after 1D inversion

533

534 Figure 4: Apparent resistivity maps of the Fanum area at Vieil-Evreux, corresponding to
535 quadrature measurements using DualEM HCP 1m, HCP 2m, PERP1.1m and PERP2.1m
536 configurations. The rectangles indicate the contour of the targeted area on which 3D
537 interpretation is applied.

538

539 Figure 5: Apparent magnetic susceptibility map of the Neolithic funeral enclosure at Balloy
540 (Seine et Marne, France), using in-phase SH3 measurements. The rectangles indicate the
541 contour of the targeted area used for 3D inversion.

542

543 **Table captions**

544 Table 1: Numerical values obtained after 3D inversion of synthetic data. First four columns:
545 resistivity, conductivity and vertical extent of the body and relative RMS error, based on
546 apparent resistivity data inversion. Last three columns: magnetic susceptibility, vertical extent
547 of the body, and relative RMS error based on apparent magnetic susceptibility inversion. The
548 definition of the relative RMS error is the

549 following: $RMS = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N_{app}N_{point}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{app}} \sum_{j=1}^{N_{point}} \left(\frac{M_{i,j} - R_{i,j}}{R_{i,j}} \right)^2}$ where N_{app} is the number of apparatus,

550 N_{point} the number of points, $M_{i,j}$ the measurement with the i apparatus at the point j and $R_{i,j}$ the
551 theoretical measurement with the i apparatus at point j .

552

553 Table 2: Electrical conductivity and magnetic susceptibility contrasts and inversion relative
554 RMS error obtained from 3D inversion, using each instrument separately, and using both
555 instruments together. The starting a priori values adopted for conductivity are indicated in
556 parentheses.

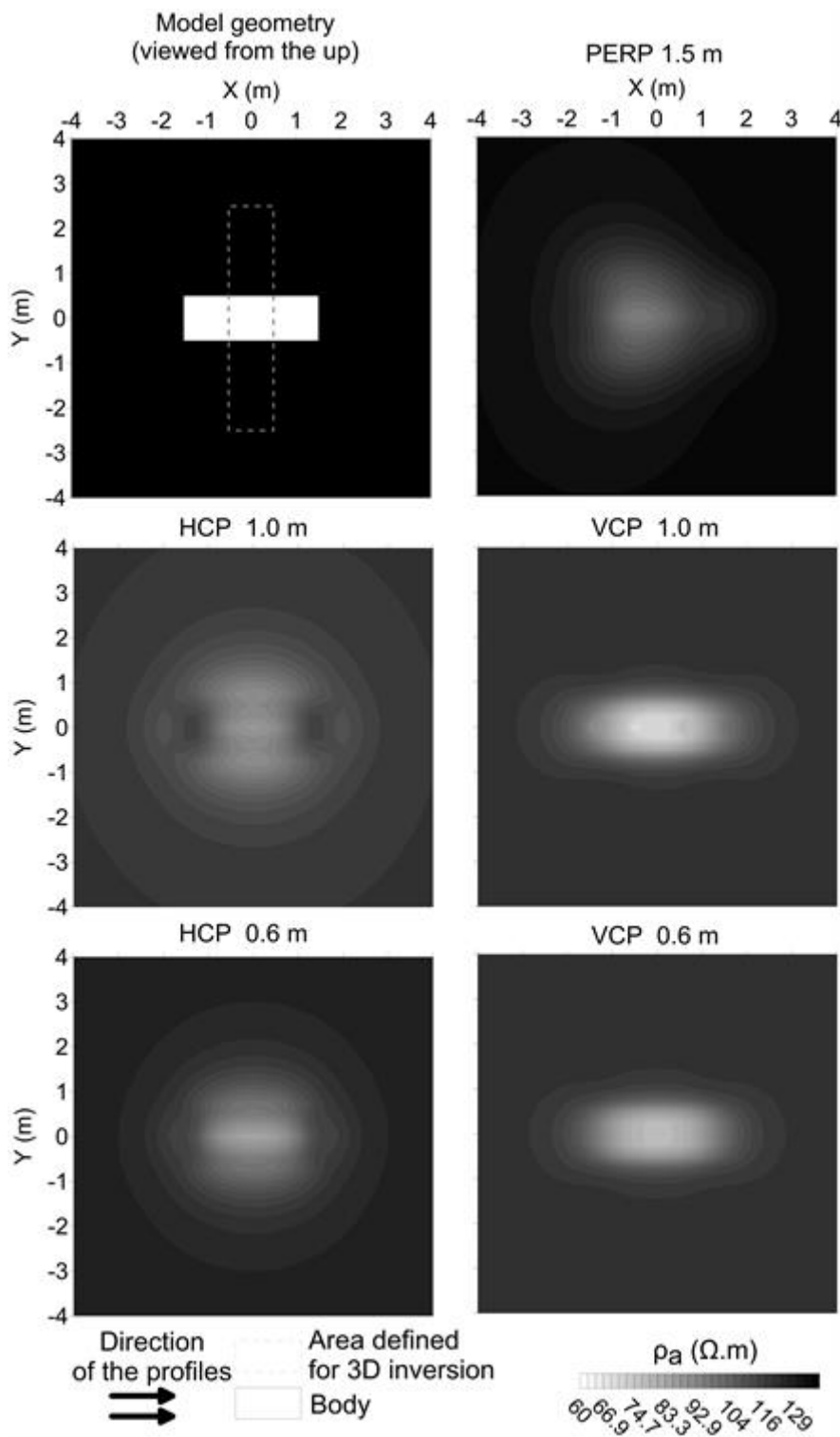
557

558 Table 3: Conductivity contrasts and inversion relative RMS error obtained between the
559 external *fanum* wall and the surrounding layer (the wall has a 1.00 x 0.88 m² section and is
560 centred at 0.70m depth). The starting a priori values adopted for conductivity are also
561 indicated.

562

563

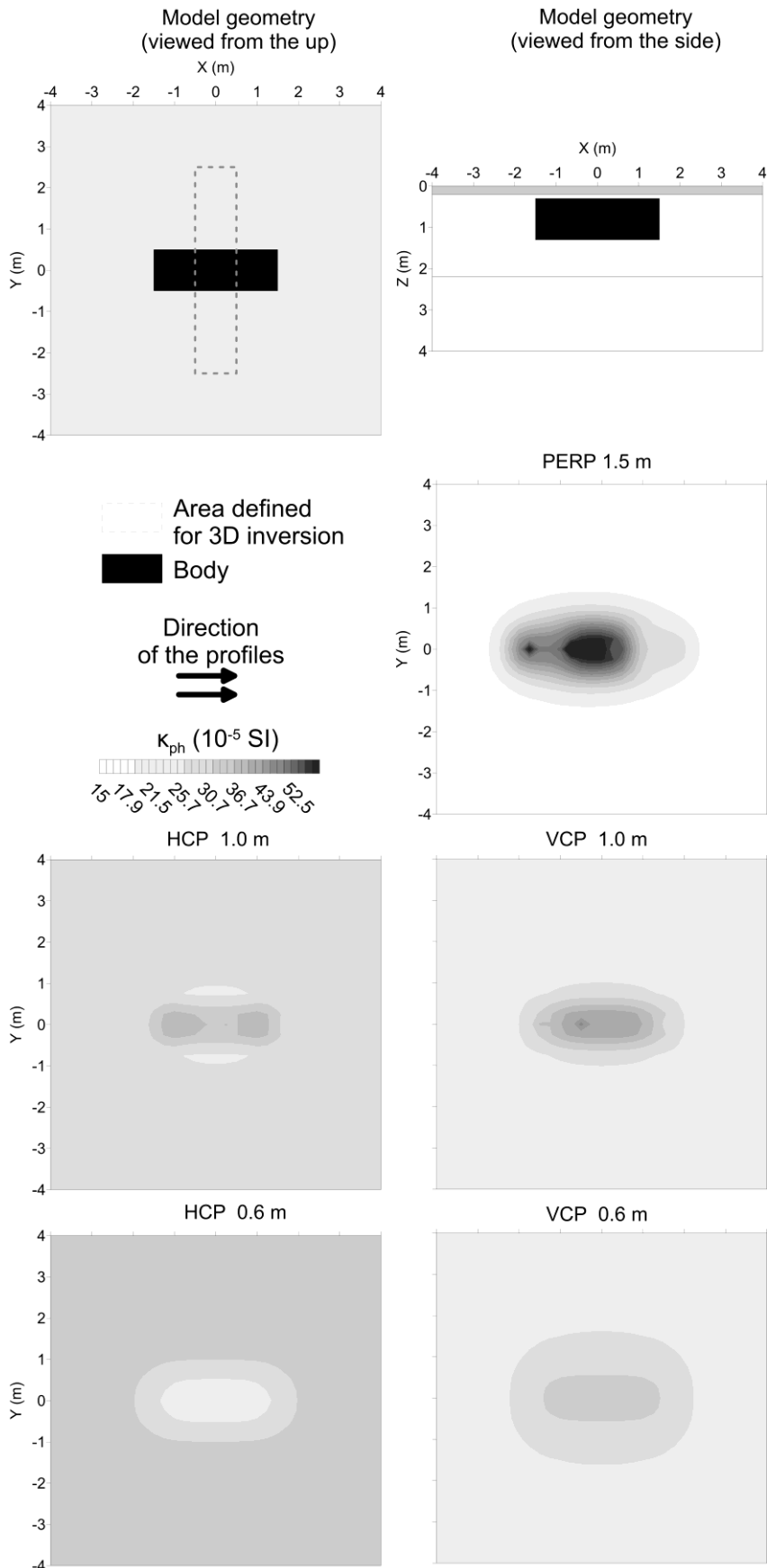
564



565

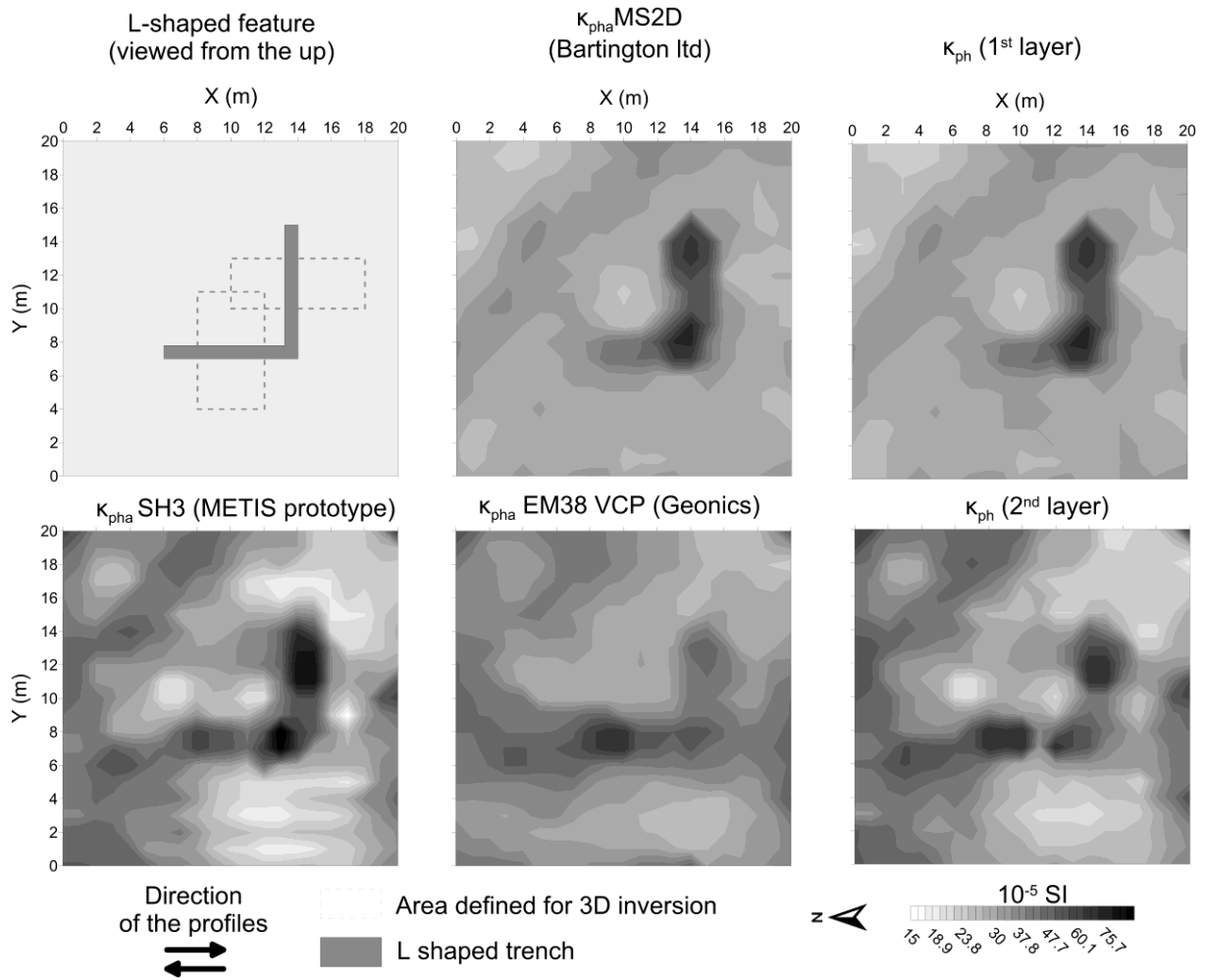
566 Fig. 1a

567



568

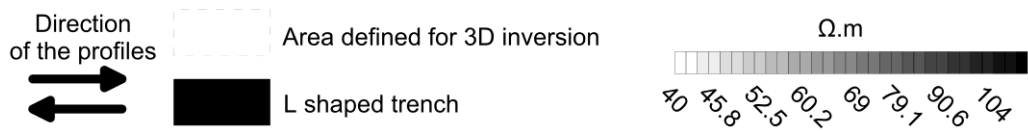
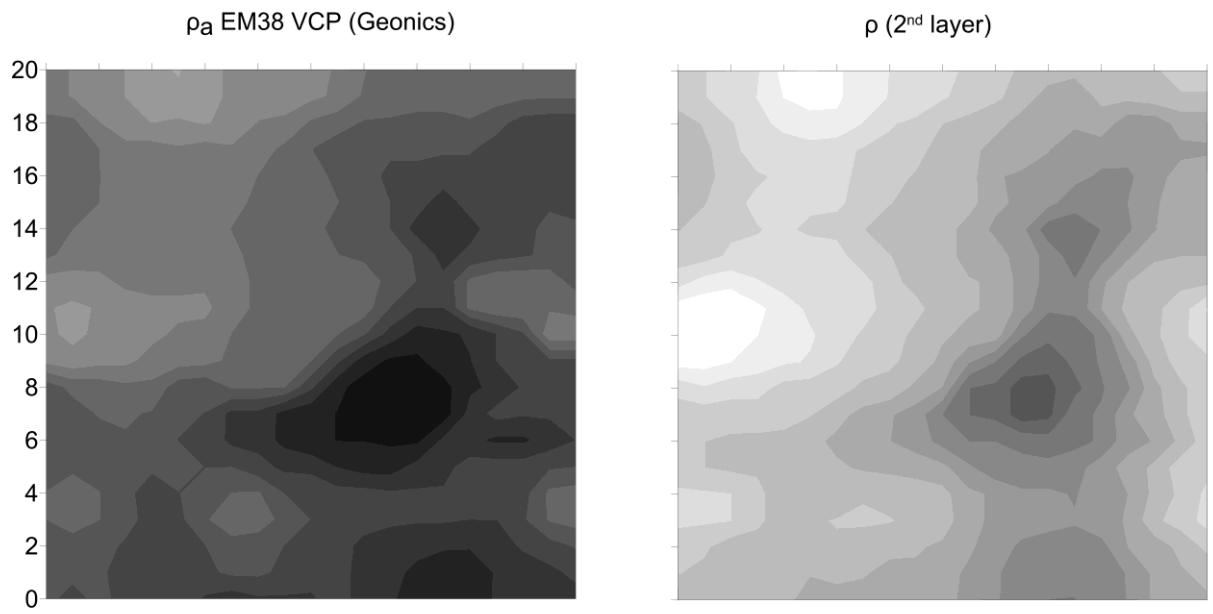
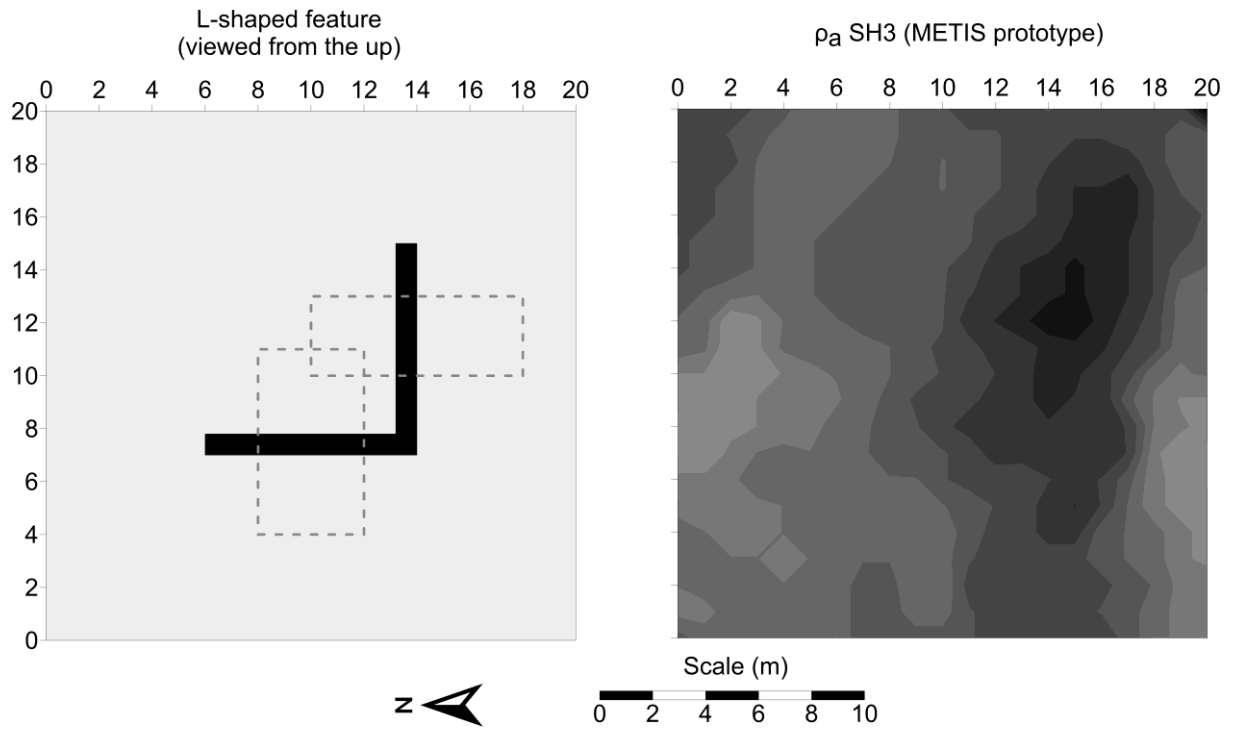
569 Fig. 1b



570

571 Fig. 2

572

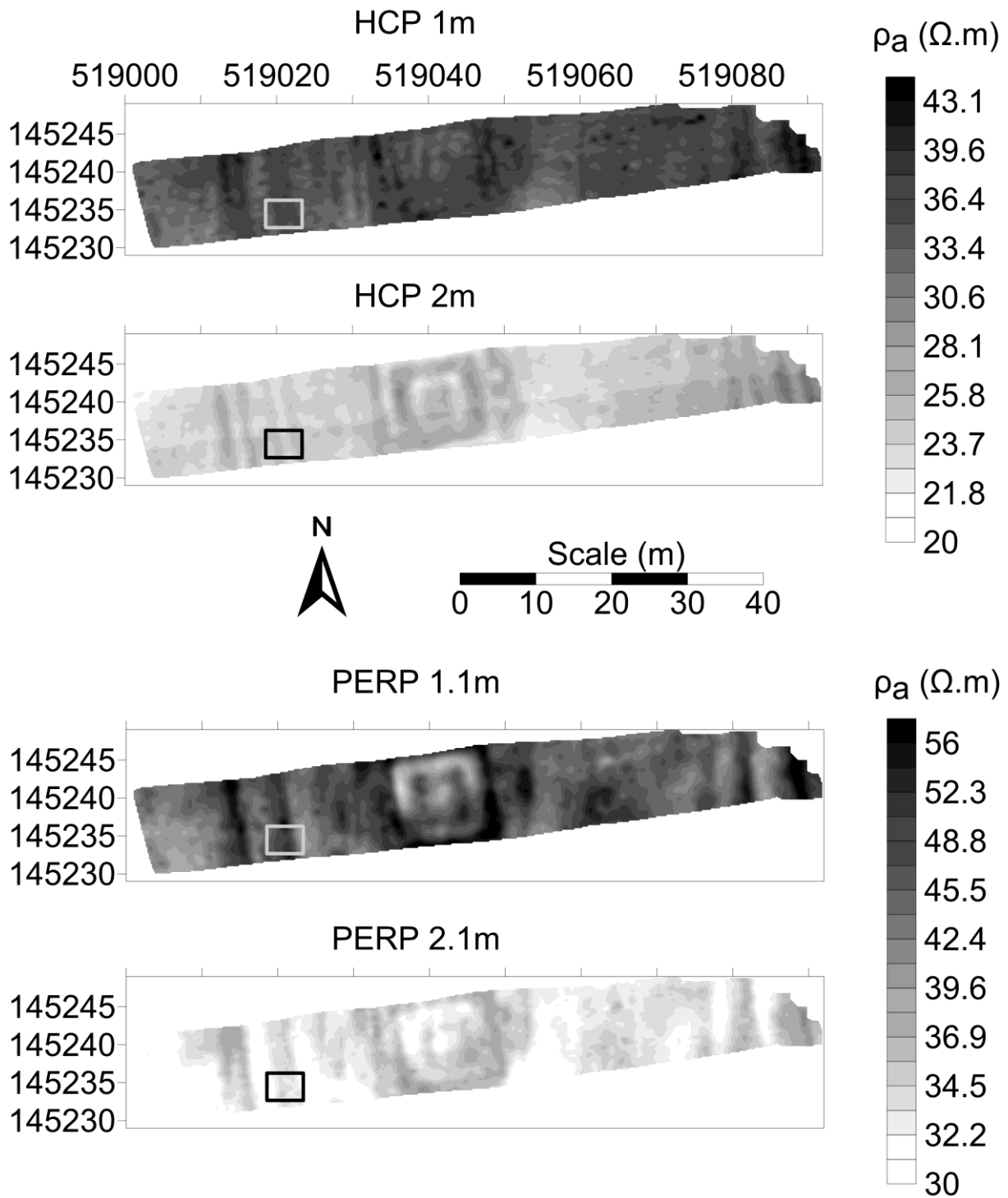


573

574

575 Fig. 3

576

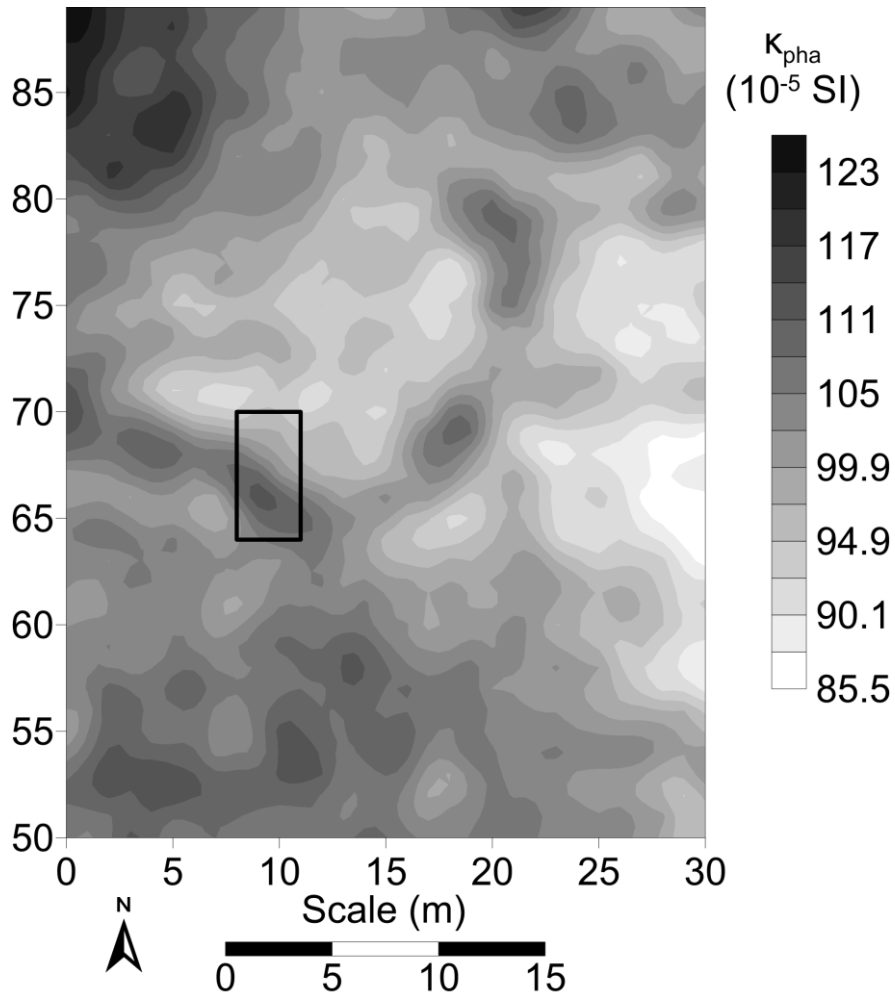


577

578 Fig. 4

579

580



581

582 Fig. 5

583

584

585

	ρ_b (20 Ωm)	σ_b (50 mSm^{-1})	ZI (1m) Using the resistivity map	Relative RMS error	κ_b (80 10^{-5} SI)	ZI (1m) Using the susceptibility map	Relative RMS error	κ_b (80 10^{-5} SI)
VCP 0.6 m	20.9	47.8	0.84	0.028	76.5	0.98	0.030	76.5
HCP 0.6 m	22.3	44.8	0.82	0.021	77.5	0.95	0.094	77.5
VCP 1 m	19.4	51.5	0.85	0.038	80.1	1.00	0.031	80.1
HCP 1 m	22.9	43.7	0.80	0.034	66.8	0.96	0.056	66.8
PERP 1.5 m	23.5	42.6	0.81	0.043	81.3	1.02	0.059	81.3
5 configurations	21.4	46.7	0.82	0.039	79.8	0.98	0.036	79.8

586 Table 1

587

588

	N-S Branch	Relative RMS error	E-W Branch	Relative RMS error
	Electrical conductivity contrast (in mSm^{-1}) with starting a priori value		Electrical conductivity contrast (in mSm^{-1}) with starting a priori value	
EM38-VCP (Quadrature)	-10.0 (a priori at -6.2)	0.126	-13.9 (a priori at -6.2)	0.071
SH3 (Quadrature)	0.0 (a priori at -14.9)	0.058	1.75 (a priori at -12.0)	0.092
EM38-VCP & SH3 (Quadrature)	-8.4 (a priori at -9.0)	0.102	-9.6 (a priori at -8.6)	0.097
	Magnetic susceptibility contrast (in 10^{-5} SI)		Magnetic susceptibility contrast (in 10^{-5} SI)	
EM38-VCP (in-Phase)	64.5	0.076	50.5	0.170
SH3 (in-Phase)	39.5	0.140	108.5	0.150
EM38-VCP & SH3 (in-Phase)	47.4	0.077	109.7	0.084

589 Table 2

590

591

592

	Conductivity contrast starting a priori values (in mSm^{-1})	Inverted conductivity contrast (in mSm^{-1})	Relative RMS error
HCP 1m + HCP 2m + PERP 1.1m +PERP 2.1m	-23.3	-0.32	0.021
HCP 1m	-28.5	+10.5	0.003
HCP 2m	-30.8	-3.5	0.002
PERP 1.1m	-28.5	-8.0	0.005
PERP 2.1m	-28.5	0.34	0.002

593 Table 3

594