

1 **Soil and Spatial Analyses in the Assessment of the Focal Point of the Extinct Medieval** 2 **Royal Burgh of Roxburgh**

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4 Benneth O. I. Esiana^{ac*}; Richard D. Oram^{b*}

5 ^a Biological and Environmental Sciences, Faculty of Natural Sciences, University of Stirling, Stirling
6 FK9 4LA, Scotland, UK

7 ^b History and Politics, Faculty of Arts and Humanities, University of Stirling, Stirling FK9 4LA, Scotland
8 UK

9

10 ^c Graduate School – Research, Aomori Public University, 153-4, Yamazaki, Goshizawa, Aomori, 030-
11 0196, Japan

12

13 *Corresponding authors: benneth_esiana@b.nebuta.ac.jp; r.d.oram@stir.ac.uk

14

15 **Abstract**

16

17 The ‘lost’ royal burgh of Roxburgh in the Scottish borders is arguably one of the most important
18 archaeological settlement sites in Scotland of the medieval period. Although short-lived, being
19 occupied as an urban centre for just around 300 years, in its heyday, it was a royal residence,
20 jurisdictional and administrative seat, and regional focus of economic activity and international trade.
21 Presently however, very little surviving above-ground trace remain of this once dynamic settlement.
22 With a Scheduled Monument status (No. 4284), activity on-site is now restricted to prevent damage
23 to the below-ground archaeology. This study explores the locale(s) of Roxburgh’s main thoroughfare
24 in the Friars’ Haugh area during its occupation through the spatial analysis of soil data coupled with
25 historical records and findings from past research studies. The study area encompasses the putative
26 location of the main street as identified in a previous study by GSB Prospection and Wessex
27 Archaeology. Suites of soil markers (phosphorus concentration, magnetic susceptibility, organic
28 carbon content, and soil pH), were used to demarcate zones of high to low activity through
29 quantitative changes in the concentration and/or value of these markers. Optically stimulated

30 luminescence (OSL) analysis was used to investigate depositional history. The spatial distribution of
31 soil markers across the site shows two zones of substantial enhancement, revealing potentially a
32 second thoroughfare on the west of the site (site B), in addition to the main thoroughfare on site (A)
33 which overlaps with the site identified in previous studies. Portable OSL analysis indicates progressive
34 accumulation of materials of proximal origins, however, evidence of mixing of sediments is discernible.

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36 *Keyword:* anthrosols, royal burgh, medieval, soil, magnetic susceptibility, soil organic carbon (SOC),
37 portable optically stimulated luminescence (OSL), phosphorus concentrations, spatial analysis

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40 **1. Introduction**

41
42 The geoarchaeological study of settlement sites in Scotland and elsewhere around the world has
43 developed our understandings of the interactions between people and the environment. In a British
44 Isles context, investigation of such interactions at scale has tended to be restricted to urban centres
45 of the Roman era, e.g. Silchester (Clarke, Fulford and Mathews 2002; Fulford, Clarke and Eckardt 2006;
46 Fulford and Clarke 2011), that ‘failed’ in the early medieval period, or to smaller, more rural
47 settlements that span a long prehistoric to post-medieval chronology, such as Wharram Percy in North
48 Yorkshire (Wrathmell 2022). Truly urban archaeology on sites of medieval and more recent date has
49 tended to be conducted as ‘rescue’ excavations, especially in the context of urban redevelopment
50 projects since the late 1960s, and more recently undertaken as pre-development actions through the
51 ‘developer pays’ principle. As a consequence, despite the wealth of data recovered from such projects,
52 the work is dispersed across the urban footprint and occurs as and when an area becomes available,
53 rather than as part of a strategically planned programme of investigation. This relatively ad hoc
54 situation, driven by the shifting intensities of modern urban development, has limited opportunities
55 to explore and interrogate - at scale and systematically - the broader nature of site occupation, modes
56 of anthropogenic soil formation, soil use and intensity of exploitation, soil and waste management
57 practices, and their role in settlement development that can be elucidated through the use of soil-

58 based techniques, augmented with historical records (Pape, 1970; Bethell et al. 1994; Simpson, 1997;
59 Bull et al. 1999; Simpson et al. 1999; Holliday, 2004; Davidson et al. 2006; Holliday and Gartner, 2007;
60 Lehmann and Stahr, 2007; Oonk et al. 2009; Woods et al. 2009; Oram, 2011; Esiana et al. 2022).

61 Where the density of occupation in and continuing development of the major urban centres of the
62 modern British Isles precludes investigation across large areas, deserted or failed medieval towns as
63 Roxburgh offer scope for such a multidisciplinary approach. Several such failed towns exist across the
64 British Isles, from Rattray in north-eastern Scotland (Murray and Murray 1993) to Rindoon in west-
65 central Ireland (O’Conor and Shanahan 2018) or Newtown Jerpoint in south-eastern Ireland (Oxford
66 Archaeology 2007) to Old Sarum in southern England (Chandler 2004; James 2010), with investigations
67 led by Southampton University continuing at the last of these. Research at such sites has generally
68 combined non-invasive survey techniques including contour surveys, LiDAR, geophysics, possibly but
69 relatively infrequently with targeted excavation, as well as historical documentary and place-names
70 research. These approaches have been employed since the early 2000s in investigations, with some
71 at the royal burgh of Roxburgh, which was arguably one of the most important settlements in Scotland
72 in the medieval period (Martin and Oram 2007; RCAHMS 2009). As a settlement empowered by royal
73 charter, it was the exclusive focal point for regional economic activity and international trade in what
74 were termed customable goods (those commodities subject to custom payments on export, such as
75 wool and hides), the latter via the port of Berwick, 37km away at the mouth of the River Tweed on the
76 North Sea coast.

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78 In medieval European urban societies, the back gardens of dwellings typically represent hubs for a
79 range of domestic and industrial activities, responding to changes in economic conditions in space and
80 time. Historical practises that saw the composition and use of domestic and industrial waste for soil
81 improvement are common to much of Northern Europe (Pape, 1970; Blume and Leinweber, 2004;

82 Dercon et al. 2005; Guttman et al. 2005; Davidson et al. 2006; Hubbe et al. 2007; Urbanski et al.
83 2022). Burgesses or townsmen, in addition to their own profession, engaged in small-scale
84 horticultural activities where they grew their own produce on the backlands or gardens of their
85 properties for their own consumption, enriching the soil with their domestic waste (Brothwell, 1982;
86 Goddard, 1996; Sheail, 1996; Golding et al. 2010; Oram, 2011). Larger-scale cultivation of dietary
87 staples like cereals and livestock grazing took place on what were styled the settlement rigs and moor
88 in the immediately adjacent hinterlands, reached via the main thoroughfares that ran into the
89 settlement. Roxburgh was a thriving medieval royal settlement, with record evidence confirming the
90 presence of a substantial suite of crafts and trades pursued by its inhabitants, and a regional hub for
91 economic activities pursued by its merchant elite (Martin and Oram 2007). The main streets, where
92 these economic activities are normally concentrated – trade through ‘shop’ frontages and booths not
93 exclusively in the market square and production in backland workshops - together with the cultivation
94 of land areas immediately behind tenements fronting the streets would result in more extensive
95 alterations to soil characteristics from the accumulation of organic materials and the discard of waste
96 and debris of occupational living/activities. Phosphorus is routinely used in prospecting as proxy
97 indicators for anthropogenic activities on historical sites, as well as in the discrimination of site use
98 intensity by variations in its concentration (Leonardi et al. 1999; Bull et al. 2001; Wells, 2004; Marwick,
99 2005; Holliday and Gartner, 2007; Oonk et al. 2009). Similarly, soil pH values and SOC content
100 distribution across anthropogenic landscapes may serve as indicators, amongst others, for site use,
101 particularly activities associated with farming (cropping and livestock rearing).

102 Although Roxburgh as a settlement was occupied for a comparatively short period of time, soils in and
103 around the settled area will have measurable signature-bearing properties and deposits that are
104 typical of human occupation. In this study, we investigated an area of the settlement purported to be
105 the core area of medieval Roxburgh by GSB Prospection during excavation in 2003 for broadcasting
106 company Channel 4 Television’s archaeology programme, Time Team. Geophysical data of the site,

107 together with spatial data of soil markers (phosphorus concentration, magnetic susceptibility, organic
108 carbon content, and soil pH), and historical records were integrated to provide corroborating evidence
109 for locations within the historical footprint of Roxburgh with notable activity and/or the main
110 thoroughfare of Roxburgh during its occupation and the cultural milieu within which the soils were
111 formed.

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113 **2. Materials and Methods**

114 *2.1 Study Site*

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116 Roxburgh (55° 35' 54.59" N, 2° 26' 6.28" W) is located south-west of Kelso, an inland town situated in
117 the Scottish Borders local authority area to the south of Edinburgh. The study site lies on a fertile
118 alluvial plain on a peninsular headland between the rivers Tweed and Teviot just before their
119 confluence 0.75 km eastward. The climate is temperate with an annual average temperature range of
120 between 3.9 – 11.2 °C (Met Office). The underlying parent material is derived from Lower
121 Carboniferous sediments and basic lavas, Upper Old Red Sandstones and Silurian greywackes, with
122 soils comprising materials of alluvial origins (Soil Survey of Scotland). The present-day land use on the
123 site is managed grassland. The soil type may be classified as a Technic Hortic Anthrosol under the
124 revised WRB soil classification system (WRB, 2015). The additional prefix qualifier 'Technic' was added
125 to reflect the variety of Hortic soil because a diagnostic feature of "deep urban soils" is the presence
126 of mixed material derived from building, household and industrial wastes, and debris (Rossiter, 2007).

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129 *Fig. 1a.* Roy Military Survey of Scotland, 1747 – 55 map showing the location of medieval royal burgh
130 (town) of Roxburgh in the Scottish Borders (highlighted in the polygon). Maps are available at
131 <https://maps.nls.uk/geo/roy>. Reproduced with the permission of the British Library and the National
132 Library of Scotland.

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134 *2.1.1 Site Description*

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136 First mentioned in the early 12th Century (ca. 1113) in the foundation charter of Selkirk Abbey,
137 granted by the then Earl David (later King David I), Roxburgh flourished between the 12th to late 14th
138 century AD, but went into rapid and terminal decline in the early 15th century (Martin and Oram
139 2007). In its prime, it was a prosperous royal settlement at the gates of one of the most important
140 royal castles in south-eastern Scotland, enclosed by walls (uncommon at most medieval Scottish
141 towns) and containing possibly two parish churches (most Scottish burghs were single parishes) and,
142 from the second quarter of the thirteenth century, a Franciscan friary. From the second quarter of the
143 twelfth century, it was one of Scotland's most important mint centres, where the kingdom's silver
144 penny coinage was produced. Roxburgh stood at the intersection of major routeways and at one of
145 the few medieval bridging-points of two of the biggest rivers that drain the eastern Southern Uplands,
146 the Teviot and Tweed. Situated between these rivers, it was well served with a riverine transportation
147 route to the port at Berwick, as well as a natural defensive barrier in times of war. Its market and
148 annual fair – the St James Fair - were major venues in Scotland's international wool trade, drawing in
149 merchants from mainland Europe and dealers from across Scotland, expanding its influence and status
150 as a commercial hub of great importance within the central and eastern sectors of the Southern
151 Uplands region of Scotland (for detailed discussion, see Martin and Oram 2007).

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153 Fig. 1b shows a putative reconstruction of the area enclosed by the settlement (highlighted in red),
154 and the locations of various features (Extract from Martin and Oram, 2007).

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157 However, Roxburgh's development was disrupted by a series of fire incidents – both accidental
158 conflagrations and deliberate acts in a time of war – in 1207, 1216 and 1244. Much structural damage
159 to the built infrastructure was caused, due to the susceptibility to fire of the most common
160 construction material (wood) of the buildings (for building construction in medieval Scottish towns,
161 see Murray 2010). The settlement regenerated each time and continued to thrive into the 1300s. The
162 outbreak in 1296 of the Anglo-Scottish conflict nowadays referred to as the Scottish Wars of

163 Independence led to over six decades of intensive hostilities and a further two centuries of
164 intermittent warfare (Brown 2004). This conflict is arguably the single biggest overarching factor that
165 led to the terminal decline of Roxburgh and its eventual abandonment around 1460, when the Scots
166 finally recaptured and destroyed its English-held castle (Martin and Oram 2007). Although the main
167 hostilities had ended by treaty in 1357, which left Roxburgh in English hands, the following century
168 saw an increase in the frequency of Scottish raids into the English-held enclave. Cut off from access to
169 their former regional centre and market, producers in the settlement's largely Scottish-held rural
170 hinterland began to take their goods elsewhere for sale. This drift away of commerce led to the
171 relocation of Roxburgh's formal trade and administrative functions to more secure locations in
172 Scottish-held territory. As a consequence, the urban community gradually withered away as its
173 craftsmen and merchants moved in pursuit of personal and business security. The destruction of the
174 castle in 1460 removed the last *raison d'être* for the settlement, as a service centre for the garrison,
175 and any remaining townsfolk had moved by the mid-fifteenth century into the prospering town of
176 Kelso on the north bank of the Tweed 0.5 km from Roxburgh.

177 The short programme of archaeological research in Roxburgh for the Team Time investigation has
178 revealed the extent of anthropogenic disturbances on a site that previously had been presumed free
179 from external disturbances. Desk-based analysis by Martin and Oram (2007) identified that William
180 Wyeth's 1736 survey showed extensive post-burghal agricultural activity (strip-cultivation) had
181 occurred in the eastern edge of the area known as Vigorous Haugh, outside the settlement's core area.
182 Later surveys show physical disturbance from ploughing over the whole of the settlement area. This
183 disturbance was the result of wider and more-significant agricultural activity that post-dated Wyeth's
184 1736 survey but had occurred probably by 1780, as noted by the antiquarian writer Jeffery (1859,
185 152), and again in the 1940s for war-time agricultural production (Anon, 1947). The Time Team
186 excavations confirmed that there had been extensive truncation of stratigraphy over the central areas
187 of the site, often with just negative features cut into the subsoil surviving beneath the ploughsoil, but
188 with significant archaeological layers surviving in more peripheral locations, especially where buried

189 beneath deeper layers of hill-wash and plough-mobilised soil-creep to the south of the area known as
190 Kay Brae. Because of the truncation, precedence is given to subsoil samples – from 20 cm, during data
191 interpretation in order to lessen the impacts of external disturbances, including those from
192 contemporary activities such as the point-to-point horse-racing event frequently hosted on the site.

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195 *2.2 Sampling*

196 Soil samples were collected from freshly dug and exposed soil profiles in the area of the site known
197 since the 18th Century as Friars' Haugh. Auger samples were collected along a 300 m transect at 20 cm
198 depth increments until the auger could go no deeper. The transect ran east-west from the 2003
199 excavation's Trench 3, within an area identified in this study as a secondary thoroughfare – site B, near
200 the modern A699 road in the east, across the putative location of the medieval settlement's core area
201 (main thoroughfare – site A), to the putative defence works at the western end of the settlement
202 (Figure 2a). Given the size and expanse of the study area, transect sampling was deemed suitable for
203 the scope of the study, taking into account the study's aims and objectives, sample processing time,
204 and data resolution. Sample points were set at a regular 10 metre interval along the transect resulting
205 in a total of 30 points (S1 – S30). Suite of soil markers (phosphorus concentration, magnetic
206 susceptibility, organic carbon content, and soil pH), were used to demarcate zones of high to low
207 activity through quantitative changes in the concentration and/or value of these markers. This in turn
208 is interpreted such that areas of high activity, as revealed by spatial interpolation of sample points of
209 these suites of indicator markers superimposed on the geophysical data, are deemed to indicate the
210 focal point(s) of the settlement. For the geophysical analysis of the site, a gradiometer survey was
211 carried out by GSB Propection using a Bartington Grad601-2 instrumentation. Readings recorded
212 every 0.25m intervals along 1m traverses (please see survey report GSB Propection, 2006 for more
213 methodological description).

214

215 Fig. 2a. 300 m transect line indicating sampling positions and scope (grey line), overlaid on maps of
216 below ground features from geophysical analysis. Shaded areas within the polygons denote: 1) the
217 putative location of the main thoroughfare (site A); 2) an area identified in the this as a secondary
218 thoroughfare (site B). Map produced from GSB Prospection, 2006, by kind permission of Dr John
219 Gater.

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222 For soil pit profile samples, Trench 3 of the Time Team's archaeological excavation work in 2003 was
223 re-excavated. Ground identification of the trench was undertaken using a combination of
224 measurements from site survey and from photographs taken during the initial excavation. A test
225 trench (Trench A), measuring 2 m by 1m was dug by hand to a depth of 0.30 m onto undisturbed
226 archaeology (stone floor or wall) (Figure 2b). The trench was backfilled and re-turfed as it was too far
227 north relative to the desired deep ditch feature seen in Trench 3 during the initial excavation. A second
228 trench (Trench B) was dug which corresponded to the south-western end of Time Team Trench 3
229 (Figure 2b) to a depth of 1.2 m, above the ditch feature which re-exposed suitable soil profile to sample
230 as illustrated in the original trench excavated to 1.15m depth (Wessex Archaeology, 2004). Samples
231 were collected on the west side of the exposed profile (east-facing) of the trench. A series of copper
232 tubes measuring 25 cm X 2 cm in diameter were used to sample exposed soil profiles for portable
233 optically stimulated luminescence (OSL) analysis (Sanderson and Murphy, 2010). Samples were
234 collected at 10 cm intervals; both ends of the tubes were covered and sealed with adhesive tape post
235 sampling to prevent further re-exposure to light. A total of 86 samples were collected for ex-situ
236 analysis.

237

238 *Fig. 2b.* Location of Trench 3 (scale 1:2500 cm), River Teviot in blue, Scheduled area boundary in red
239 and expanded detail (scale 1:100 cm) showing re-excavated Trenches A and B and location of samples.

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242 *2.3. Magnetic susceptibility*

243 The magnetic susceptibility of exposed profiles was measured in the field using an MS2F surface probe
244 sensor coupled to a Bartington MS2 susceptibility meter (Bartington Instruments, Oxford, UK).
245 Measurements were made at 10 cm intervals to the maximum depth of the soil profile at each sample
246 point along the transect. Corrections were made for temperature drift during measurement
247 sequences (Dearing, 1994). Values are expressed as the dimensionless ratio Volume Susceptibility (k)
248 calculated in SI units (10^{-5}).

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250 *2.4. Site chronological profiling by portable OSL reader*

251 Samples from each profile were analysed using a portable OSL reader (SUERC, East Kilbride, UK). For
252 each measurement, about 10 g of the bulk sample was placed into the device in a 50 mm diameter
253 Petri dish under red-light conditions. During sample preparation prior to analysis, the sediments at
254 both ends of the sampling tubes were discarded to prevent contamination of OSL signal from any
255 materials that may have been exposed to light during sampling. All measurements were carried out in
256 continuous wave mode. Signal separation during measurement is selectively done by the excitement
257 of feldspar with infrared (IR) light and quartz with post-IR blue OSL. These signals are plotted to
258 produce luminescence profiles that depicts the variation of the luminescence signal with depth. To
259 account for the effects of mineralogy on background/natural radiation dose rate, IRSL/OSL ratio was
260 used as a proxy for mineralogical characteristics (Sanderson and Murphy, 2010).

261 *2.5. Soil chemical analysis*

262 Soil organic carbon was measured by dry combustion using an elemental micro-analyser (EA1108
263 CHNS-O, Carlo Erba Instruments, Milano, Italy). Samples were oven-dried at 105°C and ground.
264 Aliquots of 20 mg (± 0.20) were combusted in an oxygen-rich environment (flash combustion), and
265 elemental composition and content determined by gas chromatography. Blank values were run with
266 empty tin capsules. For calibration, the analysis of a Low Organic Content Soil (B2152) standard was
267 performed (reference material supplied by the instrument manufacturer). Soil pH was measured on

268 air-dried soil in 0.01 M CaCl₂ (1:2.5 soil:solution ratio) suspension (McLean, 1982). Soil Phosphorus
269 concentration was measured by microprobe analysis using an X-ray fluorescence analyser (XRF) (Niton
270 XL3t-Goldd+, Thermo Scientific, Billerica, MA, USA). All measurements were carried out in mining
271 Cu/Zn mode.

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273 *2.6. Differential GPS and Spatial Analysis*

274 The differential global positioning system (DGPS) provided for the integration of various dataset,
275 allowing spatial data of soil markers to be precisely aligned with previous geophysical data of the site
276 (Figure 2a). Sample data position and elevation are logged in and used to produce a map/layout of the
277 relative distribution of soil markers (phosphorus concentration, magnetic enhancement, organic
278 carbon content, soil pH) across the site. The positions of auger samples along the transect were
279 defined using the Leica GS09 differential GPS unit (Leica Geosystems, Heerburg, Switzerland). The
280 Ordnance Survey map of the study site was obtained from Digimap (EDINA) as a background raster
281 map. A site map containing the archaeological features generated by GSB Prospection (2006) was then
282 re-produced by importing the relevant figures-maps (JPEG images) into ArcMap (ESRI, ArcGIS v10)
283 which were then geo-referenced to create Geo-TIFF files. This was subsequently overlaid with the OS
284 map of the study site and incorporated into the map areas within ArcGIS. A series of visual maps –
285 interpolated horizontal surface – showing the distribution of the selected site markers (phosphorus
286 concentration, magnetic susceptibility, organic carbon content, and soil pH) along the transect was
287 produced by inputting point data (values of the parameters measured using graduated symbols)
288 obtained from DGPS sampling on the map.

289

290 **3. Results**

291

292 *3.1. Soil Organic Carbon*

293 Soil organic carbon (SOC) distribution is segmented with visible zones of high and low values, that
294 decreased with depth (Figure 3). Small lateral variations can be observed between soil profile depths
295 (0 – 20 cm; 20 – 40 cm; 40 – 60 cm), and sample points (S1 – S30); however, areas of high residual SOC
296 content are visible on the west of the site (site B), an area where Trench 3 is located, and overlaps
297 with the putative main thoroughfare (site A) as highlighted in the polygons.

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300 *Fig. 3. Spatial distribution of soil organic carbon content across study site. Main thoroughfare (site*
301 *A); second thoroughfare (site B).*

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304 3.2. Soil pH

305 Soil pH distribution follows a similar segmented pattern as seen in SOC, although more lateral variation
306 between soil profile depths is visible, as well as localised and isolated spots of mid to high pH range
307 (Figure 4). Soil pH range (low – high) did not vary significantly between profile depths, ranging from
308 5.05 – 5.95. This value is lowest within the putative main thoroughfare (site A), and is flanked by higher
309 values on either side by (site B), and S22 – S29.

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312 *Fig. 4. Spatial distribution of soil pH across study site. Main thoroughfare (site A); second*
313 *thoroughfare (site B).*

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318 3.3. Magnetic Susceptibility

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320 Volume magnetic susceptibility across the site is displayed in Figure 5. Values at 10 cm and 20 cm
321 profile depths are significantly lower, and show a broader more diffuse distribution, relative to values
322 at profile depths of 30 cm through to 60 cm. Isolated spots of high and low enhancement are visible

323 across the site, however, magnetic enhancement on site B in the polygon, is higher across all the
324 profile depths. Magnetic susceptibility is unexpectedly low in the eastern part of the site, towards the
325 putative defence works, which encompasses the putative main thoroughfare (site A) of the
326 settlement.

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328 *Fig. 5. Spatial distribution of soil volume magnetic susceptibility across the study site. Main*
329 *thoroughfare (site A); second thoroughfare (site B).*

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335 *3.4. Phosphorus Concentration and Optically Stimulated Luminescence (OSL)*

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337 Phosphorus (*P*) distribution follows those of soil pH and SOC content. In Figure 6, phosphorus is
338 enhanced in distinct bands of high/moderately high and low/moderately low zones. Lateral variation
339 between sample points is visible, and although the range of phosphorus concentration (highest –
340 lowest) varies between soil depths, the discernible bands are largely unchanged. The area in the
341 polygon (site A) which encompasses the putative main thoroughfare shows high residual *P*, as does
342 the area to west (site B), within which lie Trench 3. Conversely, S7 – S12 and S23 – S30 are regions of
343 low *P* concentration. Phosphorus concentration is greatest at 40 – 60 cm depth. Portable optically
344 stimulated luminescence (IRSL and post-IR OSL) signals fluctuate along the profile, increasing steadily
345 with depth until 110 cm where the signal decreases at 120 cm. IRSL/OSL ratio did not deviate
346 significantly along the profile other than at 10 cm.

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349 *Fig. 6. Spatial distribution of phosphorus across the study site. Main thoroughfare (site A); second*
350 *thoroughfare (site B).*

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Fig. 7. (A) Portable optically stimulated luminescence (IRSL and post-IR OSL) of soil profiles showing site depositional history (burial sequence); (B) infra-red (IRSL) to blue light (post-IR OSL) ratio of soil profiles showing mineralogical characteristics.

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4. Discussion

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The royal settlement of Roxburgh was abandoned by the mid-15th century, over 550 years ago, but its surviving archaeological features, now mostly buried, are relatively close to the surface, and as shallow as 20 cm in some locales where post-medieval ploughing has truncated or removed archaeological stratigraphy.

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The zones on Figure 3 and 6 (site A and site B) in the polygons corresponding to high SOC content and phosphorus concentration are indicative of areas of high activity within the settlement (Figure 3 and 6). The observation, coupled with geophysical examination of the site, allows for the designation of the region (site A) in the polygon as a thoroughfare within the settlement. Soil pH is generally acidic across the site. The pH values within site A, are generally lower than those on either side of the region (Figure 4). Soil amendment from agricultural activities typically give rise to higher soil pH (neutral/alkaline) due to deliberate material deposition on soil, some of high carbonate content such as eggshells, seashells, and bones. Furthermore, the introduction of charcoal, soot, and ash either as constituent elements of composts, and in the case of Roxburgh, additional inputs arising from residues of the series of fire incidents in the 13th century, were expected to increase soil alkalinity on site, amongst other soil properties including magnetic susceptibility (Ohno and Erich, 1990; Petrovsky et al. 2018; Till et al. 2021). The general observation of soils of acidic nature across the study area may have been: 1) a direct result of the comparatively shorter period of occupation and therefore duration of practises on site; 2) the burgesses and townspeople were more engaged in other crafts and

384 professions, and fewer in agricultural activities; 3) attenuation from post-depositional processes of
385 natural and anthropogenic origins (e.g., through natural soil acidification; disturbances or sediment
386 movement during clearance activities).

387 The area to the west of site B, which houses Trench 3, show peaks on all soil parameters (SOC content,
388 soil pH, and phosphorus concentrations), including volume magnetic susceptibility (Figure 5), which
389 are indicative of areas of high activity. Soils/sediments may have enhanced magnetic properties
390 through specific onsite activities of pyrogenic nature associated with fireplaces, kilns, cooking places
391 and/or from the inputs of pyrogenic matter such as charcoal, ash, fired pottery and bricks (James,
392 1999; Peters et al. 2000; Crowther, 2003; Marwick, 2005; Dalan, 2006; Schmidt, 2007; Magiera et al.
393 2019). Roxburgh was devastated by a series of major fire incidents in the 13th century (1207, 1216,
394 and 1244), and on two occasions in the 14th century. These fire events, which led to substantial
395 structural damage to the infrastructure on site A due to the predominantly timber construction, would
396 likely have altered the magnetic susceptibility of the soil in the main street from background levels,
397 however, soil magnetic susceptibility values on site A are much lower than expected. This observation,
398 in addition to the relative paucity of artefacts on the site, is attributed to clearance activities, that is,
399 the movement of sediment and rubble away from the site in order to clear ground for reconstruction.
400 Previous archaeological study by Wessex Archaeology on site B shows that the area was not subject
401 to extensive disturbances by post-abandonment ploughing action as is visible across other areas. It
402 revealed evidence of a building of a substantial nature (stone construction), a roadway, a possible
403 street, gravelled/paved surfaces, a ditch feature, and generally more discarded artifacts (e.g., pottery,
404 pottery fragments, fine wares) relative to site A where such features exist but comparatively lower in
405 volume. The observation of significant enhancement of soil markers on site B is indicative of a
406 secondary thoroughfare that came into use at the same period as site A (parallel occupation) or later
407 (phased occupation).

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410 Optically stimulated luminescence profiling is an intra-context relative dating method that allows for
411 the determination of the chronological sequence of soils and sediments. Variations in the
412 luminescence signals (IRSL and Post-IR OSL) indicate sediments of different ages (Figure 7a). The
413 progressive increment of the luminescence signals with depth suggests periodic deposition and/or
414 gradual accumulation of materials, although the sediment at the base of the trench appears to be of
415 a younger depositional age. This observation arises from the placement of newer, completely

416 bleached, or older, partially bleached materials, and/or from prolonged exposure of the sediment to
417 sunlight before subsequent infilling. This interpretation is consistent with ditch infill. Variations in the
418 IRSL/OSL ratio is used as a proxy for indicating changes in mineral characteristics within sediment
419 stratigraphy (Sanderson and Murphy, 2010; Munyikwa et al. 2012). The fairly constant IRSL/OSL ratios
420 of the profile, other than at 10 cm, show that the deposits are of similar mineral composition (Figure
421 7b), and indicative of the proximal origins in the nature of the sediments. Overall, the degree of
422 enhancement of soil indicator parameters for anthropogenic activity in Roxburgh is lower relative to
423 other extant settlements. These differences arise primarily from the shorter duration of site
424 occupation. Site use intensity, and period of occupation are two factors that define the degree of
425 modification and the resultant residual anthropogenic signatures in the soil. For comparison, the
426 ecclesiastical settlement of St Andrews, established in the same period as Roxburgh, show more
427 significant degrees of enhancement of these anthropogenic markers due to its continuous
428 uninterrupted occupation (Brooks and Whittington, 1977; Martin and Oram, 2007; Esiana et al. 2022).

429
430

431 **5. Conclusions**

432 Pressures arising from contemporary urban developments in and around historical town centres can
433 undermine our ability to study, understand, document, and preserve sites of historical significance
434 and/or monuments in a timely fashion; more so in the relative absence of strategically planned
435 programmes of investigation in place. As alluded to in the introductory section, this situation driven
436 by the shifting intensities of modern urban development and/or redevelopment has limited
437 opportunities to explore and interrogate - at scale and systematically - the broader nature and
438 characteristics of such potentially historically significant sites. Furthermore, given the situation, there
439 is also the issue of securing sufficient funding to undertake, in some cases, such large-scale
440 investigations.

441 Evidence of past occupation may be produced from the inevitable impacts of occupational activities
442 and the subsequent imprints that it leaves on the soil. These impacts are visible from changes in a
443 number of soil parameters within and around settled areas, and can be explored together with
444 documentary accounts to produce a comprehensive narrative of past landscapes. This synergy is of
445 particular importance in Roxburgh where most of the built settlement remains now lie below the
446 surface due to its tumultuous past. Furthermore, where the density of occupation in and continuing
447 development of the major urban centres of the modern British Isles impedes investigation across large
448 areas, deserted or failed medieval towns as Roxburgh offer scope for such a multidisciplinary
449 approach, including investigations via relatively non-invasive and low-cost survey techniques as
450 employed in this study. Previous assessments of the Scheduled Monument site (No. 4284) have
451 provided valuable information and insights into its development and structural characteristics over
452 time. The observation of significant enhancement of soil markers (SOC content, soil pH, phosphorus
453 concentrations, and magnetic susceptibility), on site B makes a compelling argument for a secondary
454 thoroughfare in Roxburgh, in addition to the main thoroughfare on site A. The OSL analysis of soil
455 profile pit shows gradual infilling of the roadside ditch overtime. Our study has built upon previous
456 findings to elucidate and to further the understanding of the occupational history and dynamics of
457 arguably one of Scotland's most important medieval sites.

458

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