

# Near-surface Geophysics

## Resistivity Methods

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## Basic Idea

Measure electrical conductivities or resistivities using artificial fields.

## Main Fields of Application

- Delimiting lithologic units and fault zones
- Determining depth and properties of aquifers
- Monitoring the impermeability of dams
- Exploration and monitoring of residual waste sites
- Monitoring the spread of pollutants
- Detecting potential slip surfaces (e. g., clay layers) in landslide-prone slopes

## Electric Field and Potential

- An electric field  $\vec{E}$  exerts a force

$$\vec{F} = q\vec{E}$$

on a charge  $q$ .

- In absence of time-dependent magnetic fields, the electric field can be represented by the gradient of the electric potential  $U$ :

$$\vec{E}(\vec{x}) = -\nabla U(\vec{x}) = -\begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} U(\vec{x}) \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} U(\vec{x}) \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_3} U(\vec{x}) \end{pmatrix}$$



$$\vec{F}(\vec{x}) = -q\nabla U(\vec{x})$$

## Ohm's Law

Force on free electrons in a conductor



Drift of electrons in direction of the force, velocity proportional to the force



Current density (charge density  $\times$  drift velocity)

$$\vec{j}(\vec{x}) = -\sigma \nabla U(\vec{x})$$

- Named after Georg Simon Ohm, 1789–1854.
- The constant of proportionality  $\sigma$  is a property of the material and is denoted electrical conductivity.

## Questions

- What are the units of  $\vec{j}$  und  $\sigma$ ?
- Why is Ohm's law not completely reasonable at first sight? What should happen to free electrons exerted to a force?
- Which relationships with the same structure as Ohm's law have you met in previous classes?

## Conductivity and Resistivity

Conductivity  $\sigma$

$$[\sigma] = \frac{1}{\Omega\text{m}} = \frac{\text{S}}{\text{m}}, \quad \Omega = \text{Ohm} = \frac{\text{V}}{\text{A}}, \quad \text{S} = \text{Siemens} = \frac{\text{A}}{\text{V}}$$

Resistivity  $\rho = \frac{1}{\sigma}$

$$[\rho] = \Omega\text{m}$$

Conductance and resistance refer to objects and not to materials and are measured in S and  $\Omega$ , respectively.

(Semi)Conductors	$\rho$ [ $\Omega\text{m}$ ]
copper	$1.7 \times 10^{-8}$
iron	$10^{-7}$
silicium	2300

Nonconductors	$\rho$ [ $\Omega\text{m}$ ]
porcelain	$10^{12}$
rubber	$10^{13}$
silica glass	$7.5 \times 10^{17}$

## Conductivity / Resistivity of Rocks and Soils

- Rock forming minerals have very low conductivities.
- Many ores have considerably higher conductivities.
- The conductivity of pure water is rather low, but strongly increases by solving salts.

Solution	$\rho$ [ $\Omega\text{m}$ ]
distilled water	10000
ocean water	0.5
10 % copper sulfate	0.3
10 % sodium chlorite	0.08
10 % sulfuric acid	0.025
10 % hydrochloric acid	0.015

## Conductivity / Resistivity of Rocks and Soils

Thus, the total conductivity of a rock or a soil strongly depends on

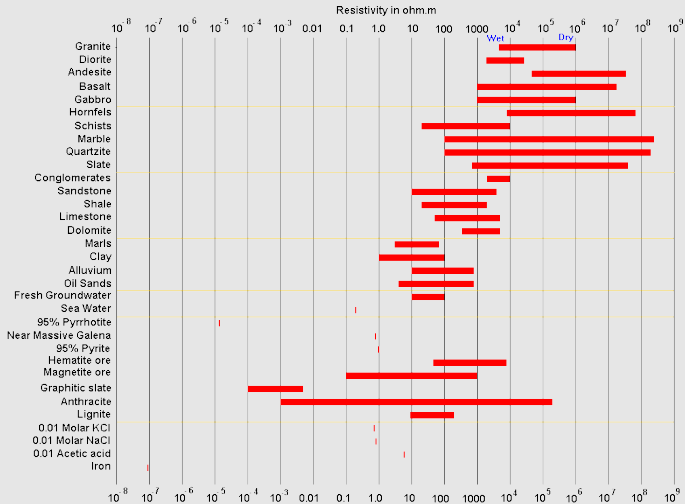
- porosity
- water saturation
- connectivity of the pore space
- pureness of the contained water (in return depends on the properties of the rock/soil)

## Question

Which are the main dependencies of the hydraulic conductivity of an aquifer?



## Conductivity / Resistivity of Rocks and Soils



Source: Loke, Tutorial: 2-D and 3-D electrical imaging surveys

## Conductivity / Resistivity of Rocks and Soils

Material	$\rho$ [ $\Omega\text{m}$ ]
halite	$10^5 - 10^7$
dry sand	$10^5$
water satur. sand	1000 – 10000
quartzite	$3000 - 10^5$
ice	$1000 - 10^5$
granite	300 – 30000
sandy soils	150 – 7000
loamy soils	50 – 9000
clayey soils	20 – 4000

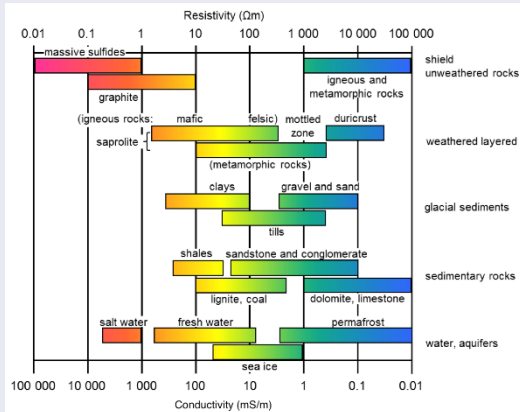
Material	$\rho$ [ $\Omega\text{m}$ ]
limestone	100 – 7000
marsh	30 – 700
glacial moraine	10 – 300
clay shale	10 – 1000
marl	5 – 200
loam	3 – 300
dry clay	30 – 1000
wet clay	1 – 30
silt	10 – 1000

Source: Beblo (Ed.), Umweltgeophysik

# DC Conductivity/Resistivity Values

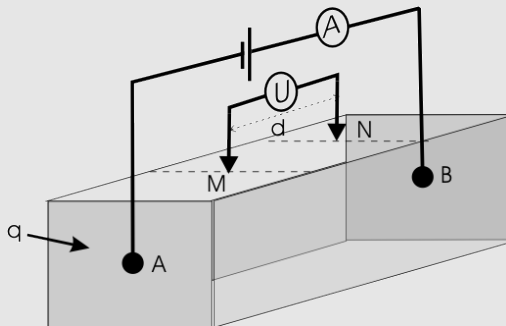
Telford 1990 Applied Geophysics

Rock	% H <sub>2</sub> O	P [Ohm m]
Siltstone	0.54	1.5*10 <sup>4</sup>
	0.38	5.6*10 <sup>8</sup>
Coarse grain SS	0.39	9.6*10 <sup>5</sup>
	0.18	10 <sup>8</sup>
Medium grain SS	1.0	4.3*10 <sup>3</sup>
	0.1	1.4*10 <sup>3</sup>
Dolomite	1.3	6*10 <sup>3</sup>
	0.96	8*10 <sup>3</sup>
Granite	0.31	4.4*10 <sup>3</sup>
	0.19	1.8*10 <sup>6</sup>
Basalt	0.95	4*10 <sup>4</sup>
	0	1.3*10 <sup>8</sup>
Graywacke SS	1.16	4.7*10 <sup>3</sup>
	0.45	5.8*10 <sup>4</sup>
Peridotite	0.1	3*10 <sup>3</sup>
	0	1.8*10 <sup>7</sup>



## The Principle of Subsurface Resistivity Measurement

- 1 Two current electrodes A and B are plugged into the ground, and a voltage is applied, generating a current  $I$  from A to B.
- 2 Two potential electrodes M and N are plugged into the ground, and the voltage  $U$  between both is measured.



Source: Schmidt et al., Die Erde: Der dynamische Planet (CD-ROM)

## Question

What are the analogies of these electrodes in subsurface hydrology?

## The Potential Equation

The charge density in a conductor remains constant everywhere, so that

$$\operatorname{div} \vec{j}(\vec{x}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} j_1(\vec{x}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} j_2(\vec{x}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_3} j_3(\vec{x}) = 0.$$



$$\operatorname{div}(\sigma \nabla U(\vec{x})) = 0.$$

For  $\sigma = \text{const.}$  this reduces to

$$\operatorname{div}(\nabla U(\vec{x})) = \Delta U(\vec{x}) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_1^2} U(\vec{x}) + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_2^2} U(\vec{x}) + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_3^2} U(\vec{x}) = 0.$$

## Solutions of the Potential Equation in a Homogeneous Medium

Potential of a point source at the origin feeding a current  $I$ :

$$U(\vec{x}) = \frac{\rho I}{4\pi |\vec{x}|}$$

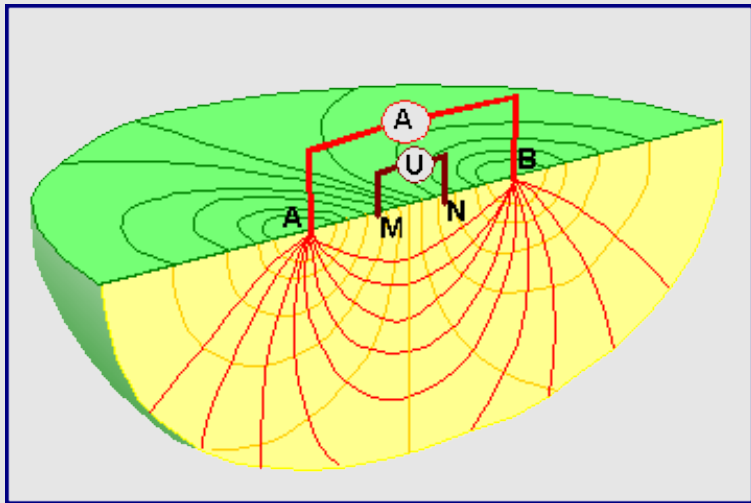
Potential of a point source at the point  $\vec{x}_A$  if the current is distributed in a half space only:

$$U(\vec{x}) = \frac{\rho I}{2\pi |\vec{x} - \vec{x}_A|}$$

Feeding in a current  $I$  at  $\vec{x}_A$  and extracting  $I$  at  $\vec{x}_B$ :

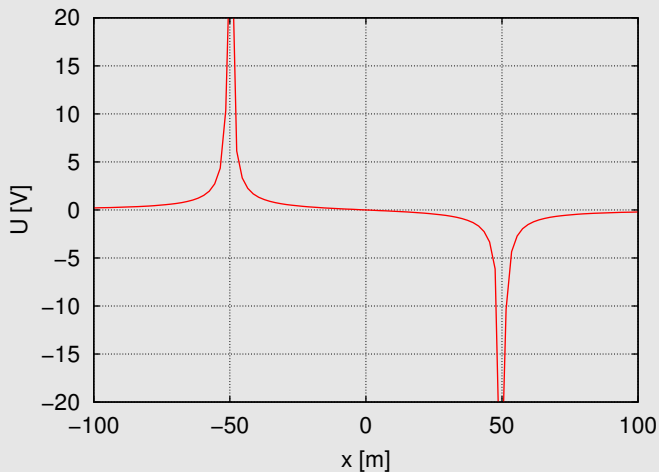
$$\begin{aligned} U(\vec{x}) &= \frac{\rho I}{2\pi |\vec{x} - \vec{x}_A|} - \frac{\rho I}{2\pi |\vec{x} - \vec{x}_B|} \\ &= \frac{\rho I}{2\pi} \left( \frac{1}{|\vec{x} - \vec{x}_A|} - \frac{1}{|\vec{x} - \vec{x}_B|} \right) \end{aligned}$$

## Dipole Feed in a Homogeneous Half-Space



Source: Schmidt et al., Die Erde: Der dynamische Planet (CD-ROM)

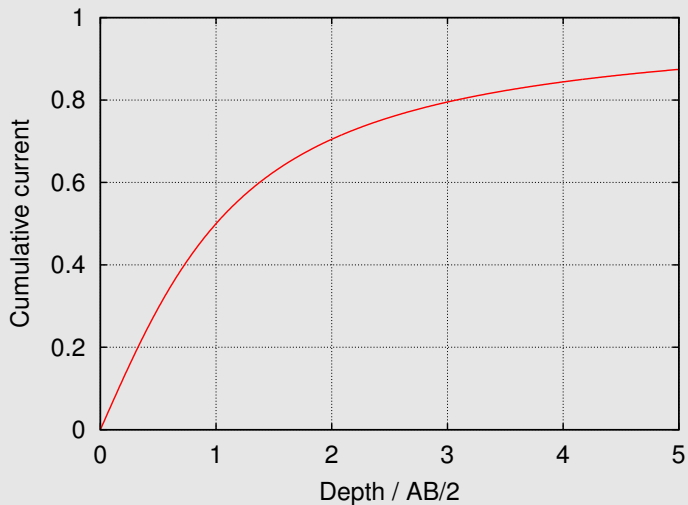
## The Potential between the Electrodes



$$\rho = 1000 \Omega\text{m}, I = 100 \text{ mA}, \text{offset} = 100 \text{ m}$$



## Penetration Depth of the Current



## Inhomogeneous Media

Results obtained for large offsets  $AB$  are more sensitive to the resistivities at greater depth than results obtained for small offsets.

## Types of Resistivity Measurements

**Vertical sounding:** same location, but different offsets

**Horizontal profiling:** constant electrode configuration used at different positions

**Resistivity tomography:** variable location and variable electrode spacing



Various types of electrode configurations more or less suitable for different purposes

## Arbitrary Electrode Configuration in a Homogeneous Half-Space

- Voltage between M and N is the difference of the potentials at  $\vec{x}_M$  and  $\vec{x}_N$ :

$$\begin{aligned}U &= U(\vec{x}_M) - U(\vec{x}_N) \\&= \frac{\rho l}{2\pi} \left( \frac{1}{|\vec{x}_M - \vec{x}_A|} - \frac{1}{|\vec{x}_M - \vec{x}_B|} - \frac{1}{|\vec{x}_N - \vec{x}_A|} + \frac{1}{|\vec{x}_N - \vec{x}_B|} \right) \\&= \frac{\rho l}{2\pi} \left( \frac{1}{r_{MA}} - \frac{1}{r_{MB}} - \frac{1}{r_{NA}} + \frac{1}{r_{NB}} \right)\end{aligned}$$

where  $r_{...}$  are the distances between the respective electrodes.

- Mostly, all electrodes are placed on a straight line.

## The Geometric Factor

The resistivity of a homogeneous half-space can be determined according to

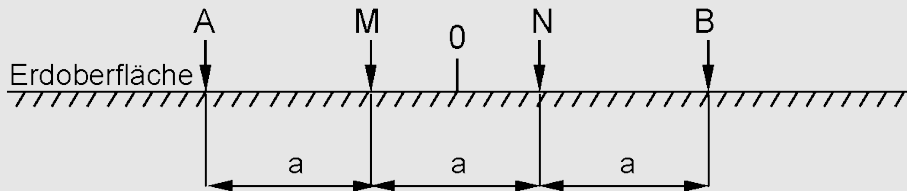
$$\rho = K \frac{U}{I}$$

with the geometric factor

$$K = \frac{2\pi}{\frac{1}{r_{MA}} - \frac{1}{r_{MB}} - \frac{1}{r_{NA}} + \frac{1}{r_{NB}}}$$

of the selected electrode configuration.

## The Wenner ( $\alpha$ ) Configuration



Source: Wikipedia

$$K = 2\pi a$$

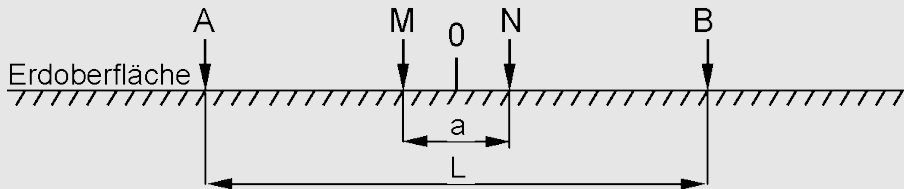
Widely used for horizontal profiling ( $a$  fixed)

## Variants of the Wenner Configuration

Configuration	Electrode sequence	Geometric factor
Wenner $\alpha$	A-M-N-B	$K = 2\pi a$
Wenner $\beta$	A-B-M-N	$K = 6\pi a$
Wenner $\gamma$	A-M-B-N	$K = 3\pi a$

Wenner  $\alpha$  is the standard configuration (Wenner without further specification).

## The Schlumberger Configuration



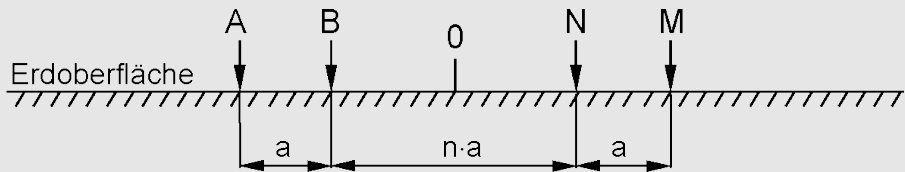
Source: Wikipedia

$$K = \frac{\pi (L^2 - a^2)}{4a} \approx \frac{\pi L^2}{4a} \quad \text{für } L \gg a$$

Widely used for vertical sounding ( $a$  fixed,  $L$  variable)

Caution: Sometimes  $L$  is used for  $AB/2$  instead of the total offset  $AB$ .

## The Dipole-Dipole Configuration



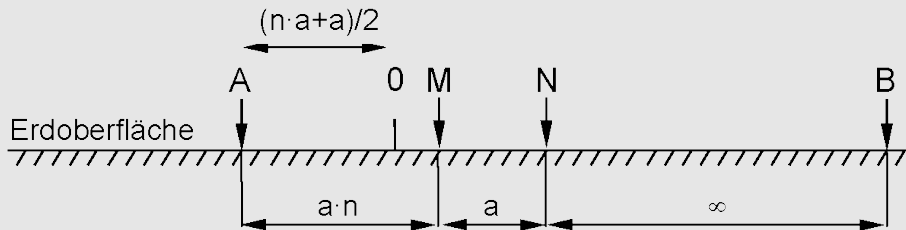
Source: Wikipedia

$$K = \pi n(n+1)(n+2) a$$

Particularly suitable for profiling of small-scale structures, but  $a$  requires high power input.



## The Pole-Dipole Configuration



Source: Wikipedia

$$K = 2\pi n(n+1)a$$

Particularly suitable for investigating horizontal contrasts.



Typical field installation

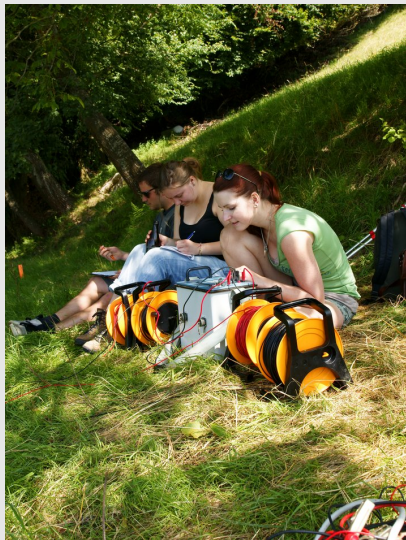


Source: <http://www.gfinstruments.cz>



Source:  
[http://www.lgm.de/en/en\\_resistivity.html#electrodes](http://www.lgm.de/en/en_resistivity.html#electrodes)

## Field Work Example



## Apparent Resistivity

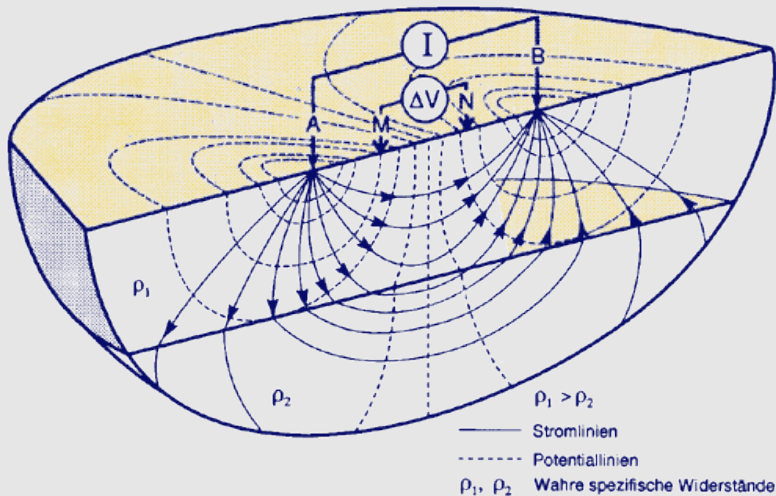
In a inhomogeneous medium,

$$\rho_a = K \frac{U}{I}$$

is called the apparent resistivity obtained from one measurement.

- $\rho_a$  is the resistivity of a homogeneous medium that would yield the same result for the considered electrode configuration.
- $\rho_a$  is not the real resistivity at any depth.
- The larger the offset is, the bigger is the contribution of deep regions to  $\rho_a$ .

## Vertical Sounding in the Two-Layer Case



## Vertical Sounding in the Two-Layer Case

**Situation:** Two homogeneous regions separated by a horizontal interface.

**Target properties:**

$\rho_1$  = resistivity of the upper layer

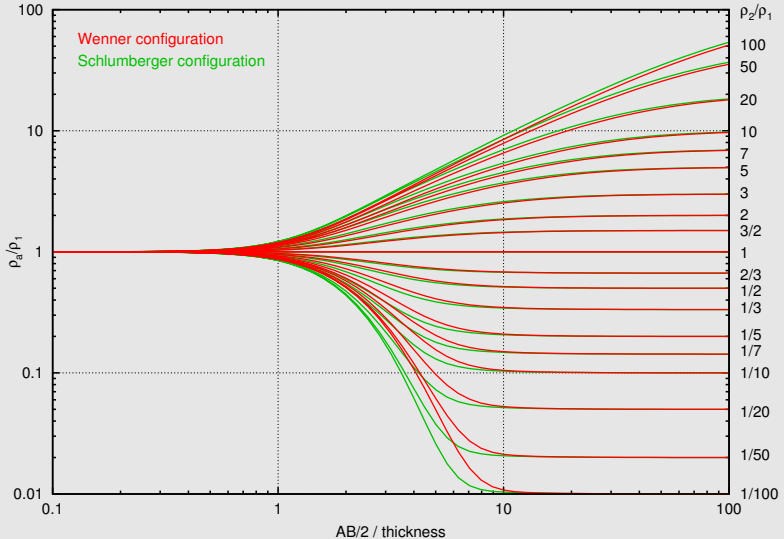
$\rho_2$  = resistivity of the lower region

$d$  = thickness of the upper layer

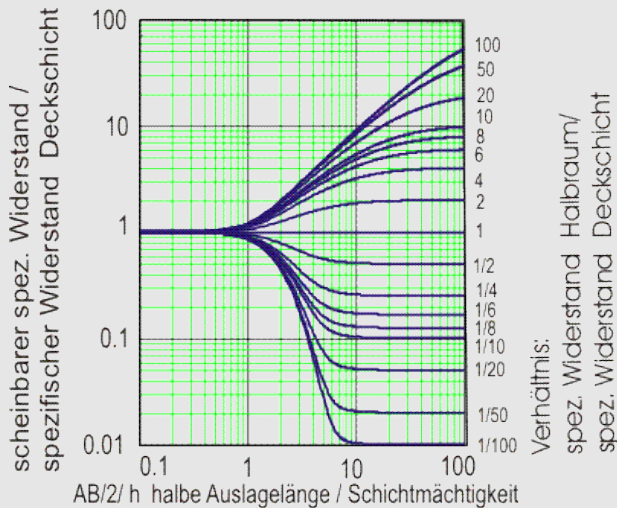
**Procedure:**  $\rho_a$  is measured for several offsets AB (Wenner or Schlumberger configuration).

**Data analysis** can be performed graphically because  $\frac{\rho_a}{\rho_1}$  only depends on  $\frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1}$  and  $\frac{AB/2}{d}$ .

## Wenner and Schlumberger Configurations in the Two-Layer Case



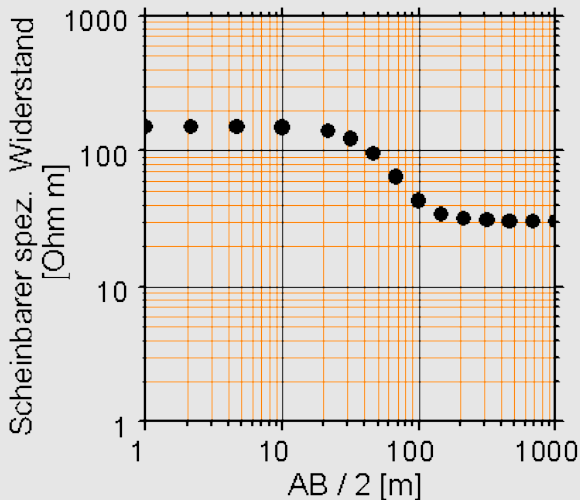
## Graphical Data Analysis in the Two-Layer Case



Source: Schmidt et al., Die Erde: Der dynamische Planet (CD-ROM)

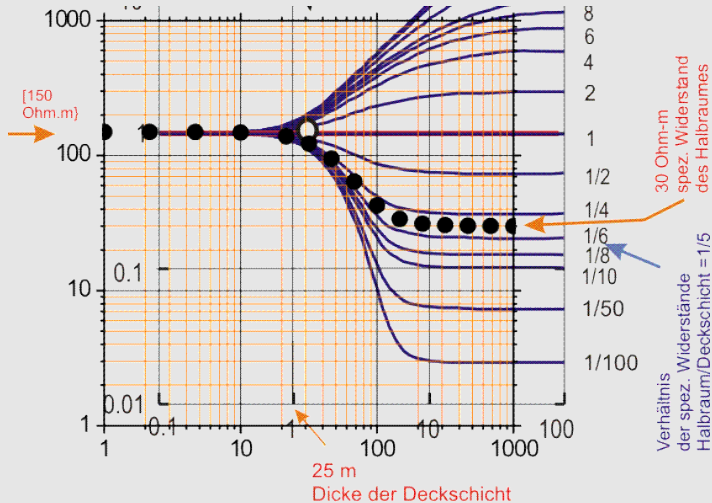


## Graphical Data Analysis in the Two-Layer Case



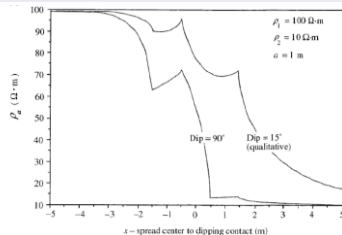
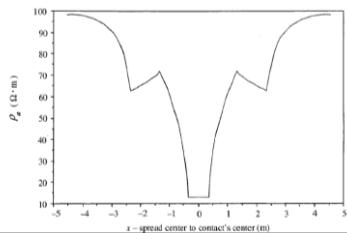
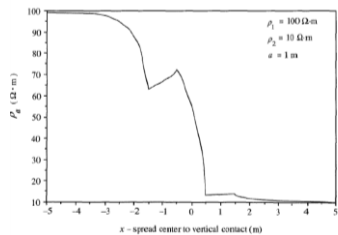
Source: Schmidt et al., Die Erde: Der dynamische Planet (CD-ROM)

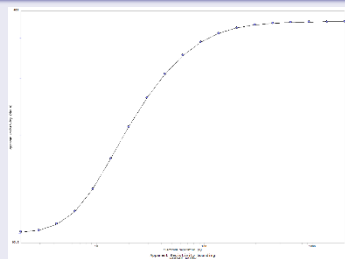
## Graphical Data Analysis in the Two-Layer Case



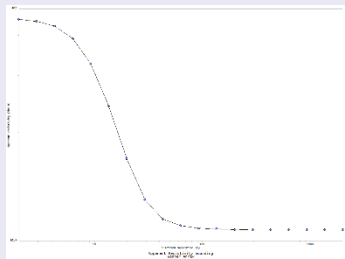
# Constant separation traversing (CST)

horizontal anomalies





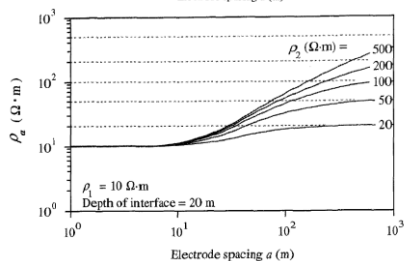
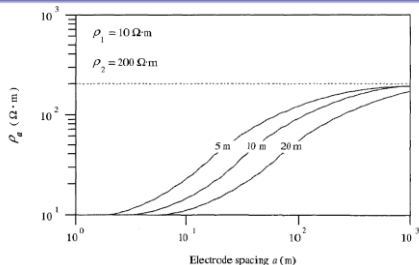
- material with greater resistivity lies below the interface



- material with greater resistivity lies above the interface

# Master curves

2-layer case

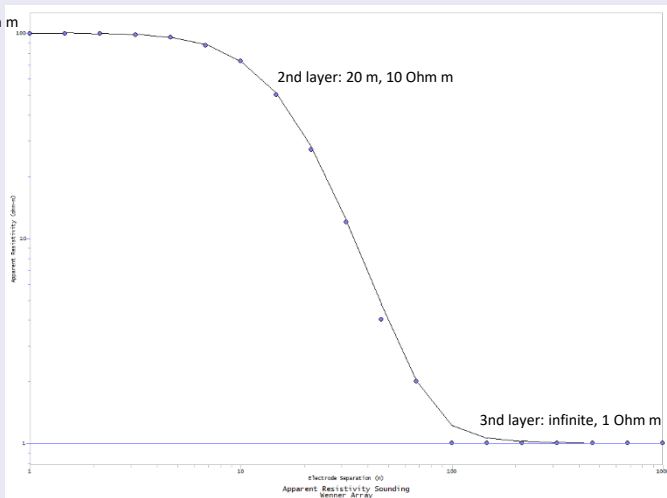


- constant resistivity
- constant depth

# Master curves

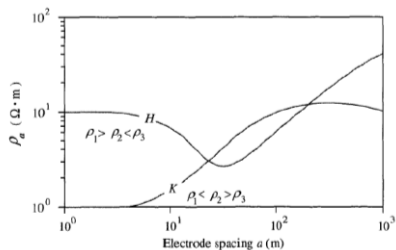
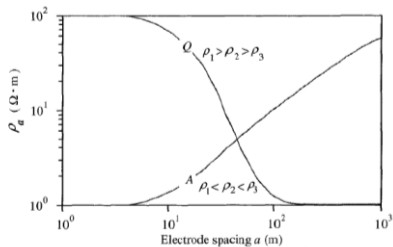
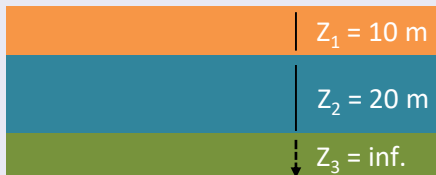
3-layer case

1st layer: 10 m, 100 Ohm m



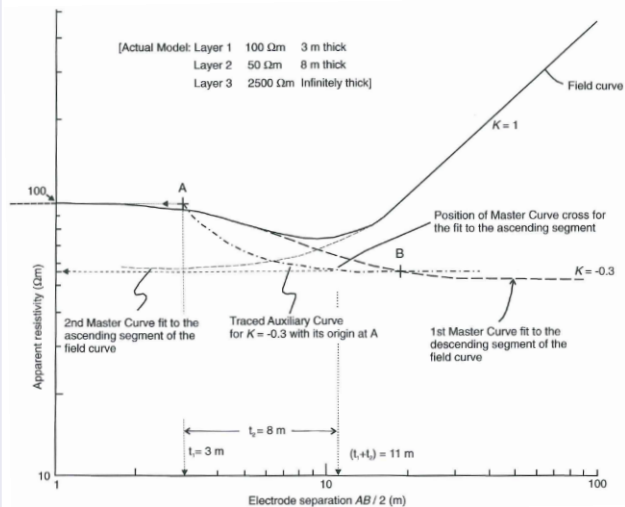
# Master curves

3-layer case



# Master curves

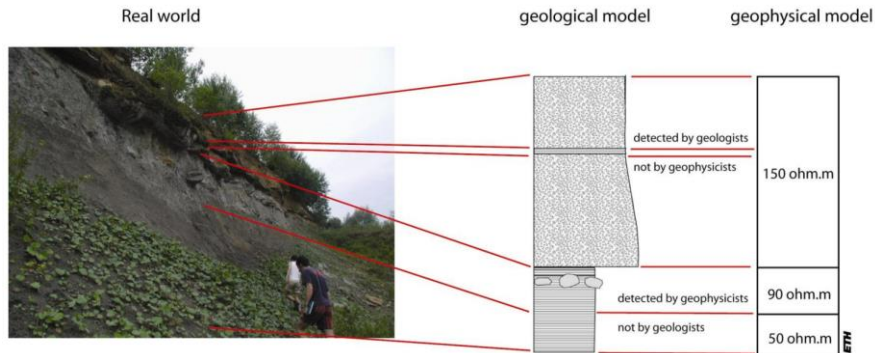
multi-layer case



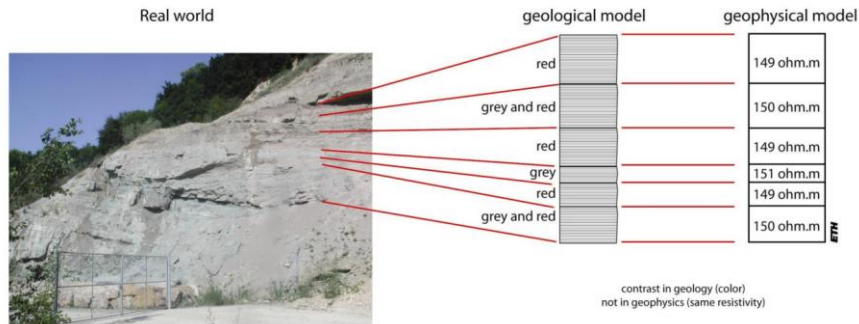


# Master curves

Source: Laurent Marescot, 2010

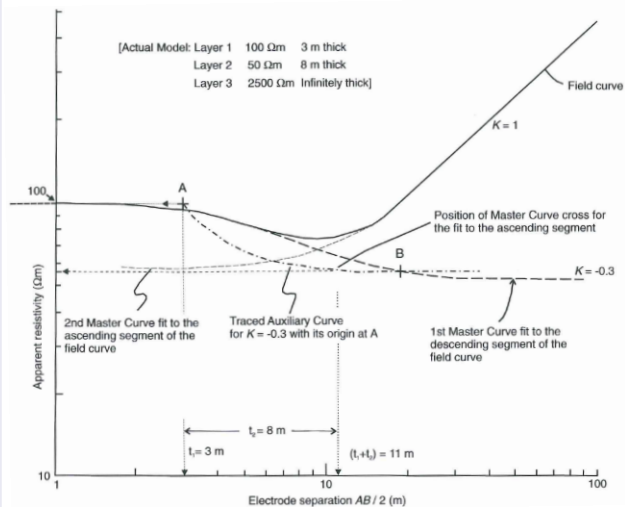


To characterize different material using geophysics, a **contrast** must exist (i.e. a difference in the physical properties)



# Master curves

multi-layer case



## The Two-Layer Case

- The result is more or less unique if a sufficient range of offsets is covered.
- The procedure can also be applied to gently dipping interfaces.
- This method has only historical and educational meaning. Practically, numerical inversion is preferred.

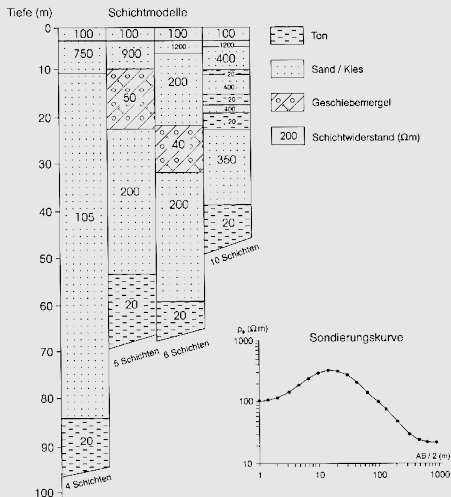
## Multiple Layers

- Must be inverted numerically. Resistivities and thicknesses of the layers are adjusted to obtain the best fit to the measured apparent resistivities.
- The uppermost layer has a strong influence on the result.
- A deep, thin layer with a high contrast in resistivity may have a similar effect as a thicker layer with a lower contrast in resistivity.
- In the standard inversion procedure of vertical sounding, the number of layers is given, and thicknesses and resistivities are adjusted. Different numbers of layers may lead to strongly different results.



Quantitative analysis often hinges on independent information, e. g., from seismics or boreholes.

## Multiple Layers



## Penetration Depth of the Current

Half of the current penetrates deeper than half of the total offset ( $AB/2$ ), but

- the entire current must also pass shallow regions, and
- the potential electrodes are at the surface.



Typical depth of investigation is lower than  $AB/2$ .

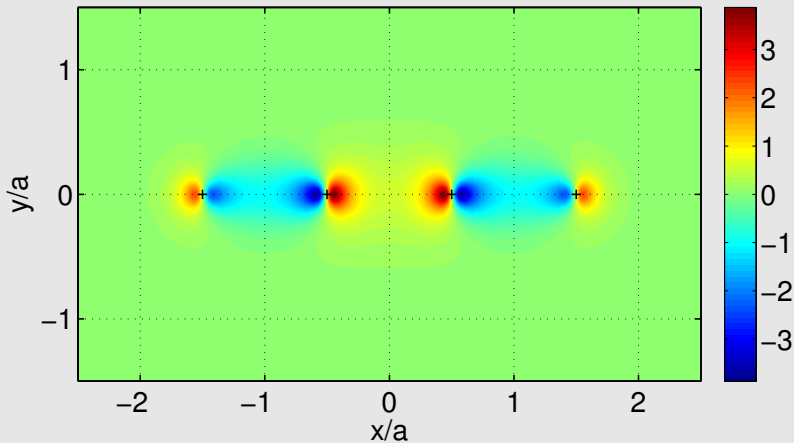
## Principle of the Sensitivity Analysis

- Assume a given configuration of electrodes in a homogeneous medium with a resistivity  $\rho$ .
- Assume that  $\rho$  is increased (decreased) by a small amount  $\delta\rho$  in a small region around a given point  $\vec{x}$  in the subsurface.
- Determine how this small change affects the voltage between M and N if the current between A and B is given.



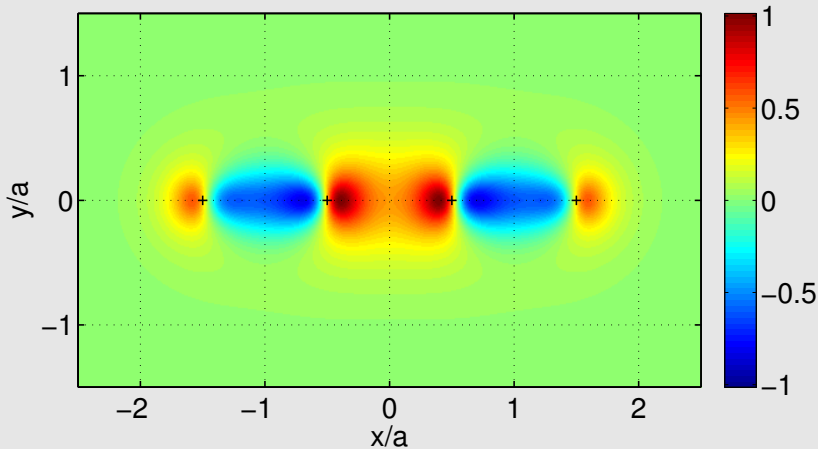
## Sensitivity of the Wenner Configuration

Sensitivity at  $z/a = 0.1$



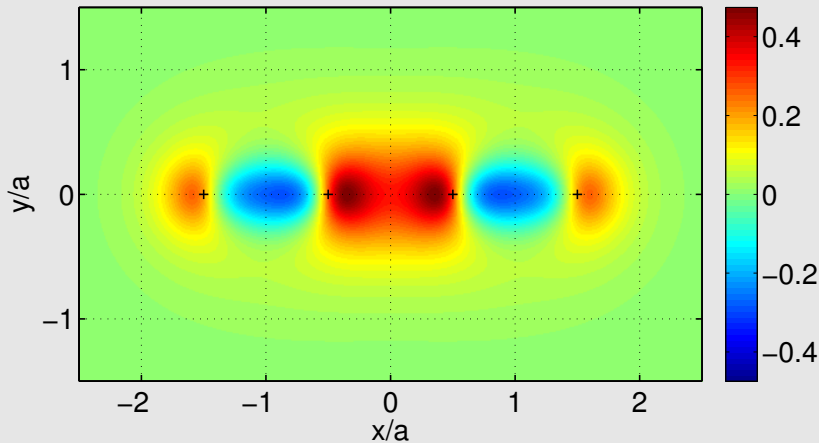
## Sensitivity of the Wenner Configuration

Sensitivity at  $z/a = 0.2$



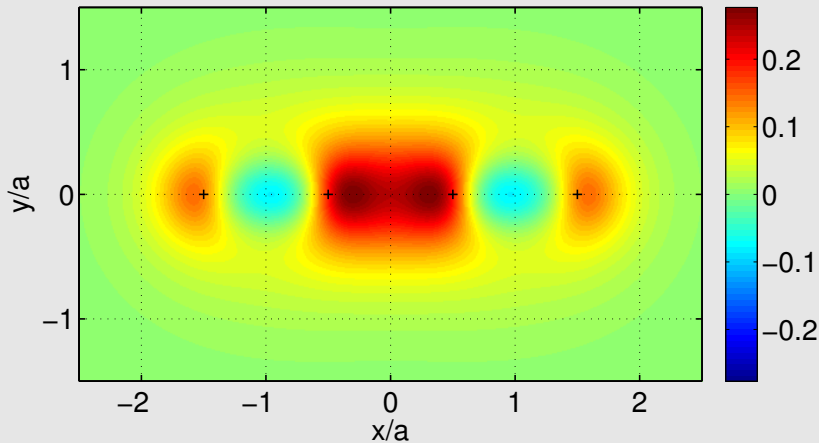
## Sensitivity of the Wenner Configuration

Sensitivity at  $z/a = 0.3$

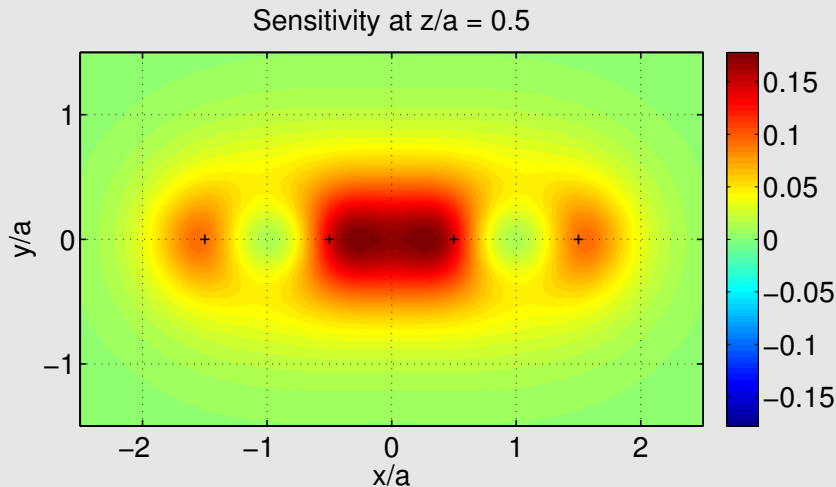


## Sensitivity of the Wenner Configuration

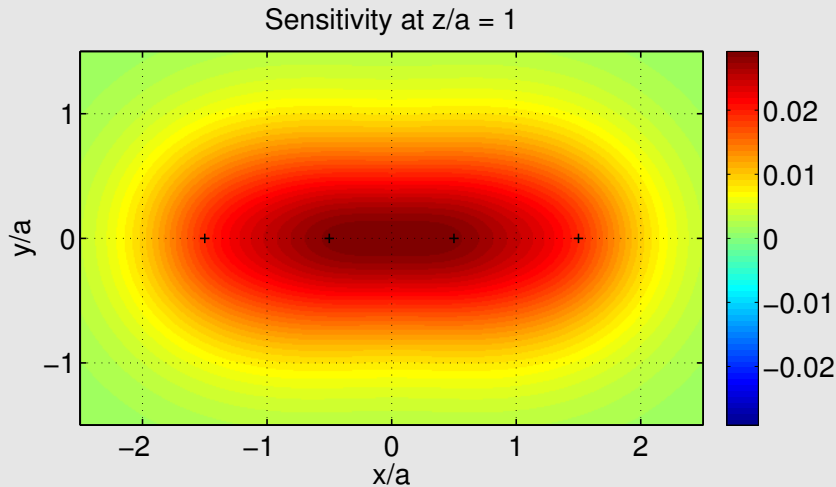
Sensitivity at  $z/a = 0.4$



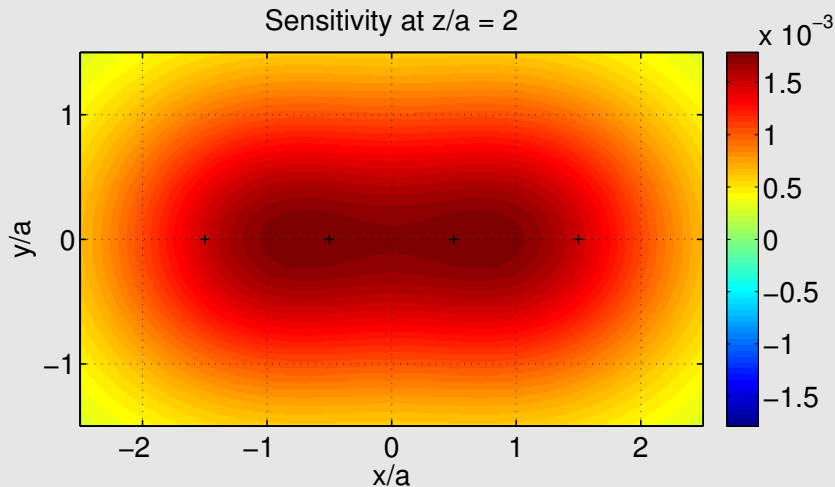
## Sensitivity of the Wenner Configuration



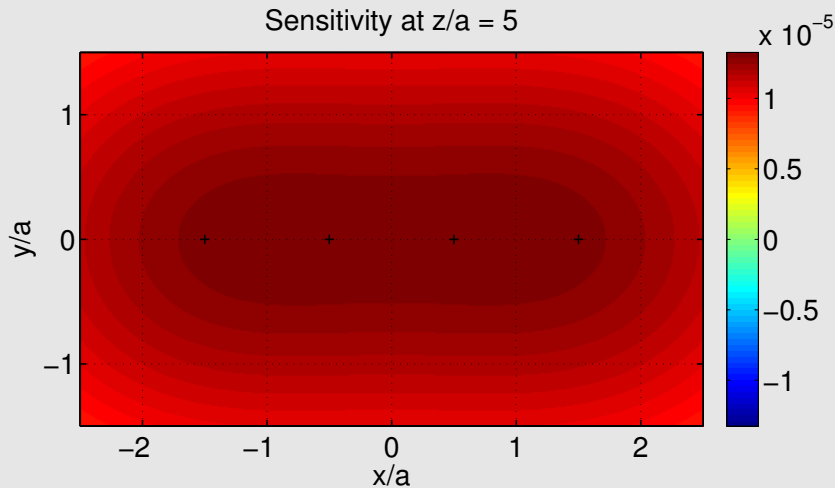
## Sensitivity of the Wenner Configuration



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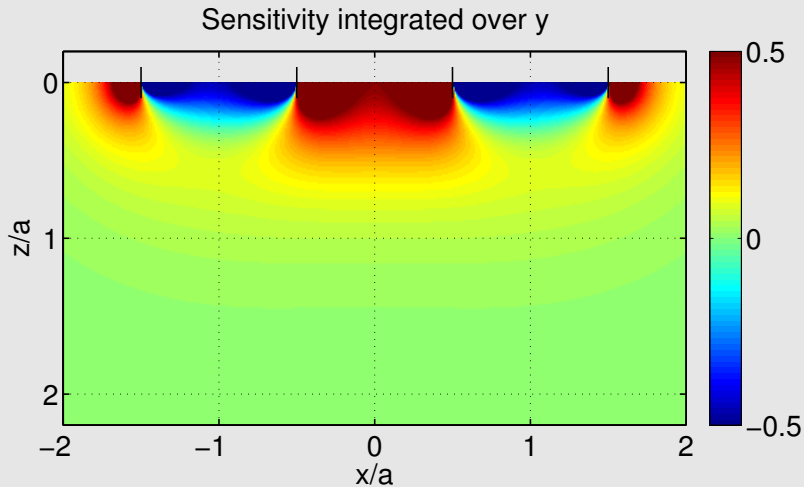


## Sensitivity of the Wenner Configuration

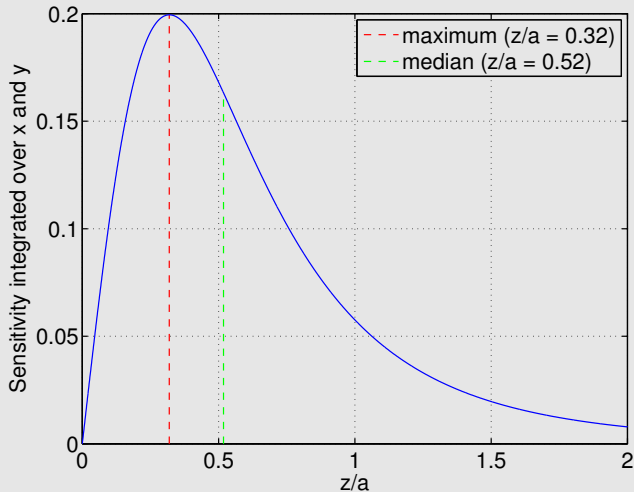




## Sensitivity of the Wenner Configuration



## Sensitivity of the Wenner Configuration



## Sensitivity of the Wenner Configuration

- Sensitivity is always highest at low depth, in particular close to the electrodes M and N.
- Sensitivity changes its sign at low depths.
- Horizontally integrated sensitivity is highest at  $z \approx 0.32 a$ .
- Median of the horizontally integrated sensitivity distribution is at  $z \approx 0.52 a$ .



Regions with  $z < 0.52 a$  and  $z > 0.52 a$  contribute equally to the sensitivity in total.



$0.52 a$  is often assumed as the typical depth of investigation.

## Principle

- Several (up to some hundred) electrodes are plugged into the ground, either on a profile line or distributed in two dimensions.
- A programmable channel selector replays a defined sequence of usage of the electrodes as current or potential electrode pairs.
- The method is also called electric tomography, in particular if the electrodes are distributed in two dimensions.

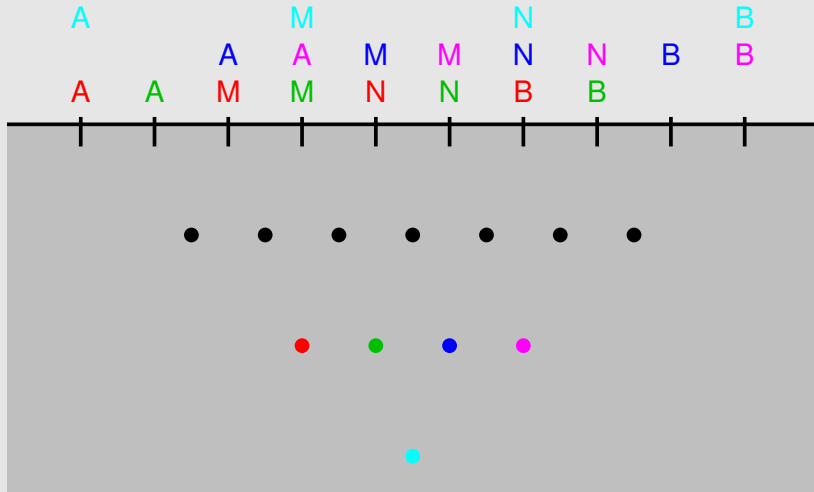
## Example of Equipment and Configuration



Source: Teaching material A. Henk



## Pseudo-Depth Sections



## Pseudo-Depth Sections

- $\rho_a$  is registered in the middle between A and B and in a pseudo-depth corresponding to the typical depth of investigation, e. g.,  $0.52 a$ .
- The plot is often vertically exaggerated in such a way that the borders have  $45^\circ$  angles.
- A pseudo-depth section gives a first idea on the subsurface structure.
- $\rho_a$  is not the resistivity at any point, but some kind of average over a larger region.
- $\rho_a$  is strongly affected by near-surface heterogeneities.

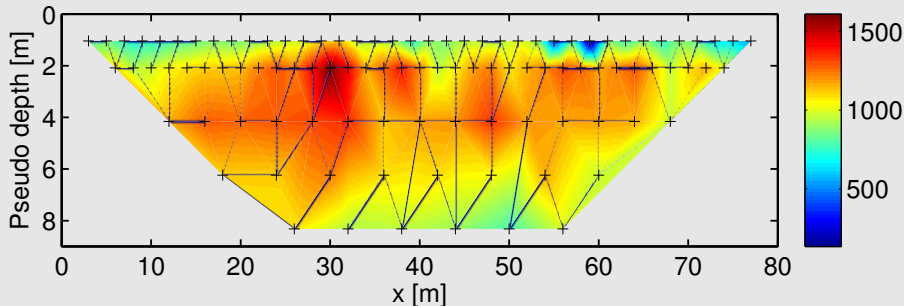


Deriving a realistic subsurface resistivity model requires a numerical inversion.



## Example of a Pseudo-Depth Section

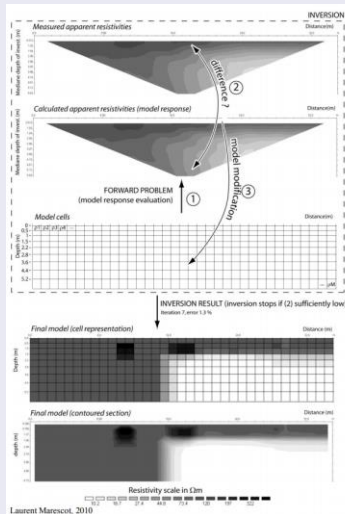
Apparent resistivity [ $\Omega\text{m}$ ]



## Other Configurations of Electrodes

The Wenner ( $\alpha$ ) configuration is most widely used, but all other configurations are also possible.

# Electric resistivity tomography (ERT)



## Electric tomography inversion

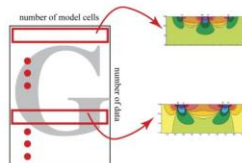
$$\Delta \mathbf{m} = [\mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{G} + \mathbf{W}]^{-1} \mathbf{G}^T \Delta \mathbf{d}$$

with:

$$\Delta \mathbf{m} = \log(\rho)$$

$$\Delta \mathbf{d} = \log(\rho_a^{meas}) - \log(\rho_a^{calc})$$

$$G_{ij} = \frac{\partial g(m)_i}{\partial m_j} \text{ is the sensitivity matrix}$$



## Electrodes

Current and potential electrodes are technically identical. Criteria (in particular for the potential electrodes):

**Contact resistance** to the ground should be low.

**Contact voltage** should be small.

- Usage of nonpolarizable electrodes, e. g., copper core in  $\text{CuSO}_4$  solution in a porous clay cylinder.
- Simple steel electrodes can be used with modern central units that are able to compensate contact voltages automatically.

## The Central Unit

- Power source (constant current),
- voltmeter, and
- channel selector (for multi-electrode equipment)

are mostly combined in one unit.

**Power** up to about 1000 W

**Currents** mostly between 10 mA and 1 A

**Voltages** (between the current electrodes) up to some 1000 V

**Types of current:** DC, low-frequency AC or switched DC with changing polarity