Ohm's Law

Ohm's law, first presented by German physicist Georg Simon Ohm, states that current is directly proportional to voltage V and inversely proportional to resistance R, or

Consider Figure 5-1. If the battery supplies 9 V, and the resistor has a value of 10 Ω , the current measured by the ammeter will be 0.9 amperes. Or, if resistance is increasing, it will take an increasing voltage to maintain the same current.

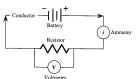


Figure 5-1 A simple electrical circuit illustrating standard symbols for common components.

Resistance and Resistivity

This behavior suggests that the resistances of the resistors in Figure 5-3 depend on their length and cross-sectional areas and also to a fundamental property of the material used in their construction, which we term resistivity and denote by ρ . Based on our discussion, we can say that

$$R = \rho \frac{l}{A}$$
(5-4)

or

$$\rho = R \frac{A}{I}$$
(5-5)



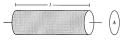


Figure 5-3 Two resistors of different lengths / and different cross-sectional areas A.

Darcy's Law and Ohm's Law

- q = -k(dh/dl)
 - k = hydraulic conductivity
 - -h = head
 - -I = distance
- $i = (1/R)\Delta V/L$

 ΔV = difference in potential over distance L

R = Resistance (inverse of conductivity)

The resistivity unit is resistance \cdot length, which is commonly denoted by $\Omega \cdot m.$ Conductance is the inverse of resistance, and conductivity is the inverse of resistivity.

Copper has a resistivity or 1.7 x 10 $^{\rm s}$ Ω • m. What is the resistance of 20 m of copper wire with a cross-sectional radius of 0.005 m? Quartz has a resistivity of 1 x 10 $^{\rm s}$ Ω • m. What is the resistance of a quartz wire of the same dimensions?

 $R = r(I/A) = 1.7e-8*(20/3.14*(0.005)^2)$

We now use Eq. 5-6 to determine the potential at P_P . In determining the potential at a point, we compare it to the potential at a point infinitely far away, which by convention is arbitrarily defined to equal zero. The most direct way to determine V is to integrate Eq. 5-6 over its distance D to the current electrode to infinity, or

$$V = \int_{D}^{\infty} dV = \frac{i\rho}{2\pi} \int_{D}^{\infty} \frac{dr}{r^{2}} = \frac{i\rho}{2\pi D}$$
 (5-7)

(Van Nostrand and Cook, 1966, p. 28). Equation 5-7 is the fundamental equation

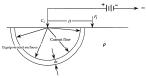


Figure 5-4 Diagram illustrating symbols and configuration used to determine potential a P_1 for a single point source of current C_1 . The current sink, C_2 , is at infinity. The two

The potential at point P_1 is determined by using Eq. 5-7. The effect of the source at $C_1(+)$ and the sink at $C_2(-)$ are both considered, and, therefore,

$$V_{p} = \frac{i\rho}{2} + \left(-\frac{i\rho}{2}\right) \qquad (5-8)$$

Expressing r_1 and r_2 in terms of the x-z-coordinate system illustrated in Figure 5-5, we

$$V_{\tilde{r}_{1}} = \frac{i\rho}{2\pi} \left[\frac{1}{\left[\left(\frac{d}{2} + x\right)^{2} + z^{2}\right]^{3/2}} - \frac{1}{\left[\left(\frac{d}{2} - x\right)^{2} + z^{2}\right]^{3/2}} \right]$$
 (5-9)

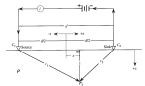


Figure 5.5 Diagram illustrating symbols and configuration used to determine potential P_1 for a current source C_1 and sink C_2 .

Current Penetration is a function of separation of current electrodes

Along a vertical plane midway between the two current electrodes, the fraction of the total current i_j penetrating to depth z for an electrode separation of d is given by

$$i_f = \frac{2}{\pi} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{2z}{d} \right) \tag{5-1}$$

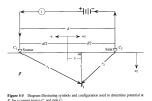


TABLE 5-2 Percent Current Penetrating a Homogeneous, Isotropic Farth

Depth (m)	Depth/Electrode Separation	% of Total Curren
1	0.1	13
2	0.2	24
3	0.3	34
4	0.4	43
5	0.5	50
6	0.6	56
7	0.7	61
8	0.8	64
9	0.9	68
10	1	70
11	1.1	73
12	1.2	75
13	1.3	77
14	1.4	78
15	1.5	80
16	1.6	81
17	1.7	82
18	1.8	83
19	1.9	84
20	2	84
Current electrode separation (m)		10

Current Penetration is a function of separation of current electrodes

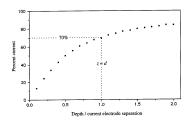


Figure 5-7 Plot of results in Table 5-2. Depth is z and current electrode separation is d. The data points illustrate the extent to which current penetrates into a homogeneous, isotropic Earch.

Figure 5-9 illustrates two potential electrodes P_1 and \bar{P}_2 that are located on the surface as are the current electrodes. Using the equation we have already derived to determine the potential at point due to source and a sink, we obtain the potential difference by determining the potential at one potential electrode P_1 and subtracting from it the potential at P_2 . Using E_2 3-8 we determine the

$$V_{P_1} = \frac{i\rho}{2\pi r_1} - \frac{i\rho}{2\pi r_2}$$
 (5-11)

and

$$V_{p_2} = \frac{i\rho}{2\pi r_3} - \frac{i\rho}{2\pi r_4}$$
 (5-12)

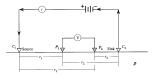


Figure 5-9 Diagram used to determine potential difference at two potential electrodes P and P_3 .

Therefore, the potential difference ΔV equals

$$\Delta V = V_{p_1} - V_{p_2} = \left(\frac{i\rho}{2\pi r_1} - \frac{i\rho}{2\pi r_2}\right) - \left(\frac{i\rho}{2\pi r_3} - \frac{i\rho}{2\pi r_4}\right)$$
 (5-13)

OI

$$\Delta V = \frac{i\rho}{2\pi} \left(\frac{1}{r_1} - \frac{1}{r_2} - \frac{1}{r_3} + \frac{1}{r_4} \right) \tag{5-14}$$

In the resistivity method, current is entered into the ground, potential difference is measured, and resistivity determined. Because resistivity is the unknown quantity we normally hope to determine, we solve Eq. 5-14 for ρ and obtain

$$\rho = \frac{2\pi AV}{i} \left(\frac{1}{\frac{1}{r_1} - \frac{1}{r_2} - \frac{1}{r_3} + \frac{1}{r_4}} \right)$$
 (5-15)

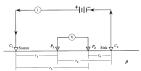


Figure 5-9 Diagram used to determine potential difference at two potential electrodes is

Perhaps we should test our understanding of Eq. 5-15 by applying it to a known situation. Let's assume we can place potential electrodes anywhere along the surface, as illustrated in Figure 5-10 Purther, we will use the values in Tilbe 5-15 for our test. Figure 1-10 percents one possible measurement, and Figure 5-10(b) another. Substituting the values in Figure 5-10(a) produces Eq. 5-16, which results in a resistivity value of 50 Ω - m. A glance at the model values used to produce Table 5-1 confirms that the resistivity is 50 Ω -.

$$\rho = \frac{2\pi (4.5\text{V})}{1 \text{ ampere}} \left(\frac{1}{\frac{1}{3 \text{ m}} - \frac{1}{7 \text{ m}} - \frac{1}{8 \text{ m}} + \frac{1}{2 \text{ m}}} \right) = 50 \ \Omega \cdot \text{m} \quad (5-16)$$

(a)

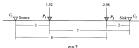
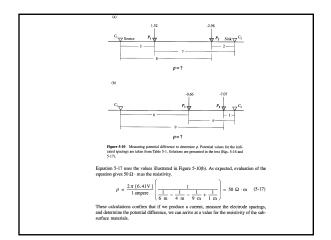




Figure 5-10 Measuring potential difference to determine ρ . Potential values for the indicated spacings are taken from Table 5-1, Solutions are presented in the text (Eqs. 5-16 and $\frac{1}{2}$).



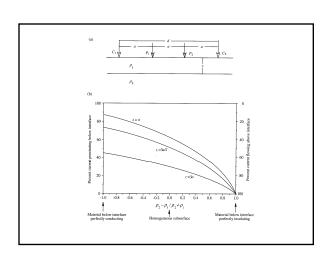
Current Distribution

An important goal in this section is to gain a qualitative understanding for the pattern of current distribution in the subsurface when a single horizontal interface separates materials of different resistivities. Our first step toward this goal is to employ an equation that tells us the fraction of the current that penetrates below the interface. This current fraction is given by $i_F = \frac{2 p_1}{\pi p_2} \left(1 + k \right) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} k^* \left\{ \frac{\pi}{2} - \tan^{-1} \left[\frac{2(2n+1)z}{3a} \right] \right\} \tag{5-18}$

$$i_F = \frac{2\rho_1}{\pi\rho_2}(1+k)\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} k^n \left\{ \frac{\pi}{2} - \tan^{-1} \left[\frac{2(2n+1)z}{3a} \right] \right\}$$
 (5-18)

where

$$k = \frac{\rho_2 - \rho_1}{\rho_2 + \rho_1}$$

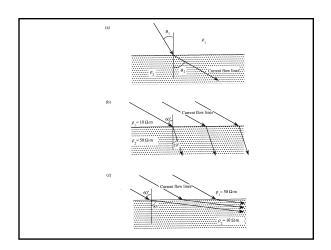


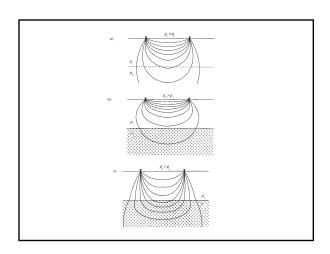
Current Flow Lines and Current Density

The preceding discussion presents us with sufficient information to make a qualitative assessment of current flow lines and, more importantly, current density distribution when a horizontal interface is present. As a first step in this process, we must investigate what happens to the orientation of flow lines and equipotentials when crossing a boundary separating regions of differing conductivities or resistivities. Hubbert (1940, p. 844–846) demonstrated that the flow lines follow a tangent relationship such that

$$\frac{\tan \theta_1}{\tan \theta_2} = \frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} \tag{5-19}$$

where θ and ρ are as defined in Figure 5-12(a). If the resistivity ρ_2 of the deeper material is greater, then the flow lines bend in toward the normal to the interface (Fig. 5-12(b)) and, as a consequence, are more widely spaced. However, if the reverse is true, as in Figure 5-12(c), the flow lines bend away from the normal, become oriented more parallel to the interface, and are closer together.



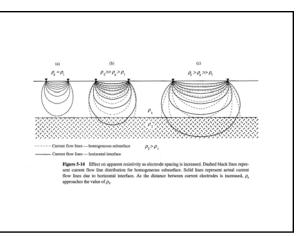


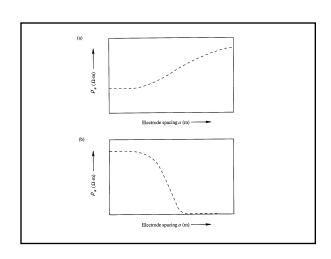
Apparent Resistivity

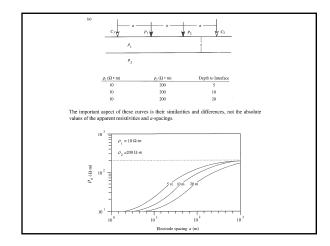
When we derived Eq. 5-15, we assumed a homogeneous, isotropic subsurface. As demonstrated previously, any combination of electrode spacings and current results in a potential difference that provides the correct value for the resistivity of the subsurface (as of course should be the case if our equation is correct). Once the subsurface is nonhomogeneous, the value determined for the resistivity is extremely unlikely to equal the resistivity of the material in which the electrodes are inserted. Equation 5-15 thus defines a different quantity, which is termed the apparent resistivity ρ_e . Inasmuch as nonhomogeneity is the rule, we write

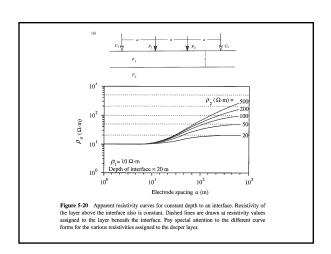
$$\rho_{\sigma} = \frac{2\pi\Delta V}{i} \left(\frac{1}{\frac{1}{r_{i}} - \frac{1}{r_{2}} - \frac{1}{r_{3}} + \frac{1}{r_{4}}} \right)$$
 (5-20)

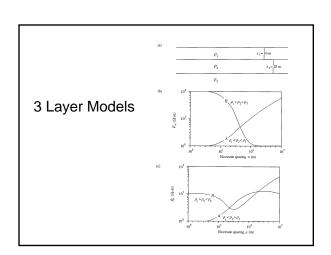
The question we now face is, What does this equation tell us? How do we interpret apparent resistivity values in terms of the subsurface geology?











Suppression and Equivalence

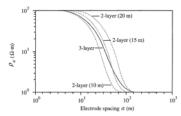
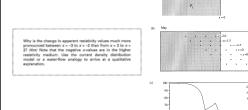
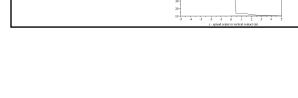


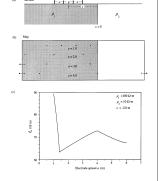
Figure 5-22 Comparison of two- and three-layer curves for similar depths and resistivities. The three-layer curve is a solid line (thickness of the first layer is 10 m; thickness of the second layer is 20 m; resistivities are 100, 10, and 11 12. m). Resistivities for the two-layer cases are 100 and 11 12. m). Repth of the interface is indicated for each curve.

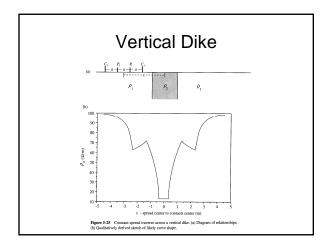
Horizontal Survey across a Vertical Interface

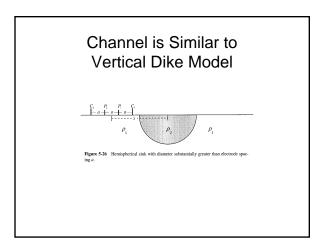


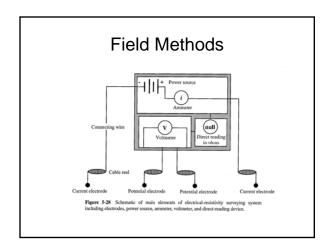


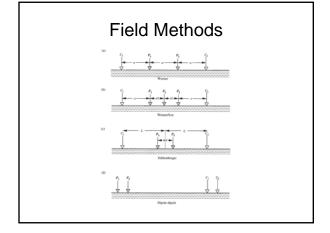
Vertical Survey across a Vertical Interface











Resistivity of Earth Materials

Material	Resistivity (Ω·m)	
Wet to moist clayey soil and wet clay	1s to 10s	
Wet to moist silty soil and silty clay	Low 10s	
Wet to moist silty and sandy soils	10s to 100s	
Sand and gravel with layers of silt	Low 1000s	
Coarse dry sand and gravel deposits	High 1000s	
Well-fractured to slightly fractured rock with moist-soil-filled cracks	100s	
Slightly fractured rock with dry, soil-filled cracks	Low 1000s	
Massively bedded rock	High 1000s	

