

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

$$i = \frac{V}{R} \quad (5-3)$$

Consider Figure 5-1. If the battery supplies 9 V, and the resistor has a value of 10Ω , 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.

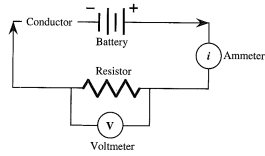


Figure 5-1 A simple electrical circuit illustrating standard symbols for common components.

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

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

or

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

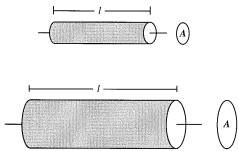


Figure 5-3 Two resistors of different lengths l and different cross-sectional areas A .

Darcy's Law and Ohm's Law

- $q = -k(dh/dl)$
 - k = hydraulic conductivity
 - h = head
 - l = distance
- $i = (1/R)\Delta V/L$
 - ΔV = difference in potential over distance L
 - R = Resistance (inverse of conductivity)

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

Copper has a resistivity of $1.7 \times 10^{-8} \Omega \cdot \text{m}$. What is the resistance of 20 m of copper wire with a cross-sectional radius of 0.005 m? Quartz has a resistivity of $1 \times 10^{16} \Omega \cdot \text{m}$. What is the resistance of a quartz wire of the same dimensions?

$$R = r(l/A) = 1.7\text{e-}8*(20/3.14*(0.005)^2)$$

We now use Eq. 5-6 to determine the potential at 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

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

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

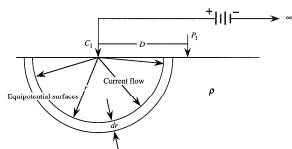


Figure 5-4 Diagram illustrating symbols and configuration used to determine potential at P for a single point source of current C_1 . The current sink, C_2 , is at infinity. The two equipotential surfaces shown are separated by the distance D .

The potential at point P 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,

$$V_0 = \frac{i\rho}{2\pi r_1} + \left(-\frac{i\rho}{2\pi r_2} \right) \quad (5-8)$$

Expressing r_1 and r_2 in terms of the x - z -coordinate system illustrated in Figure 5-5, we rewrite Eq. 5-8 as

$$V_0 = \frac{i\rho}{2\pi} \left\{ \frac{1}{[(\frac{d}{2} + x)^2 + z^2]^{3/2}} - \frac{1}{[(\frac{d}{2} - x)^2 + z^2]^{3/2}} \right\} \quad (5-9)$$

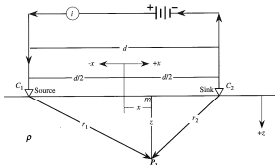


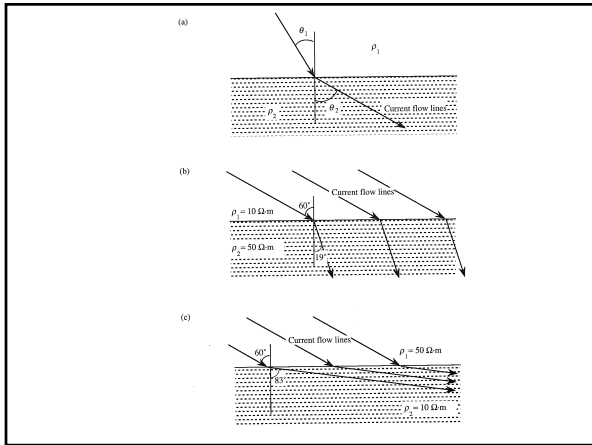
Figure 5-5 Diagram illustrating symbols and configuration used to determine potential at P for a current source C_1 and sink C_2 .

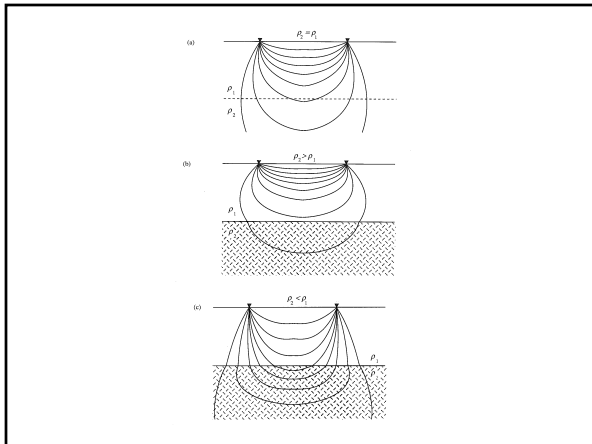
Current Flow Lines and Current Density

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

$$\frac{\tan \theta_1}{\tan \theta_2} = \frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} \quad (5-19)$$

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.



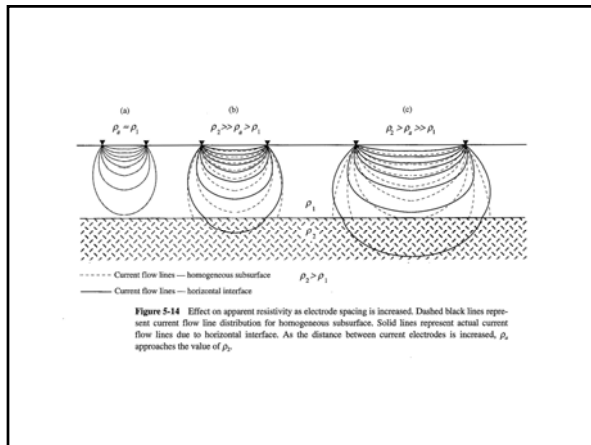


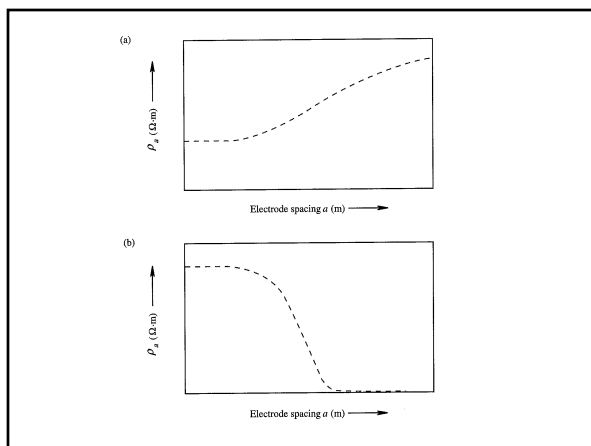
Apparent Resistivity

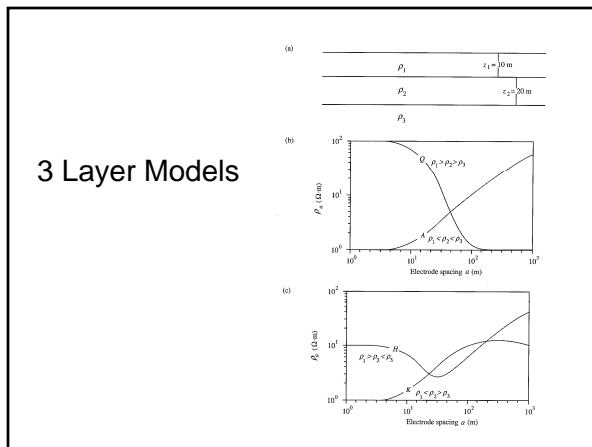
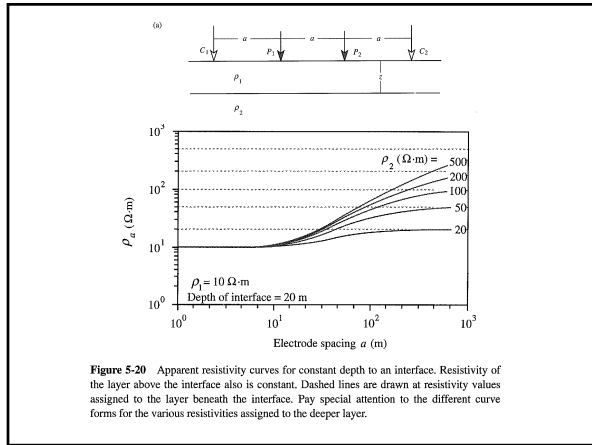
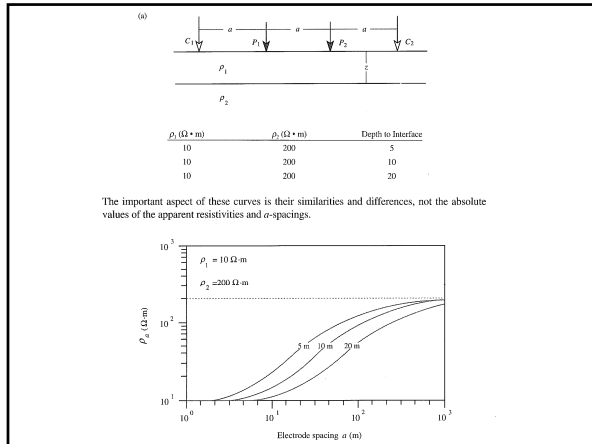
When we derived Eq. 5-15, we assumed a homogeneous, isotropic subsurface. As demonstrated previously, any combination of electrode spacings and current results in a potential difference that provides the correct value for the resistivity of the subsurface (as of course should be the case if our equation 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_a . Inasmuch as nonhomogeneity is the rule, we write

$$\rho_a = \frac{2\pi\Delta V}{i} \left(\frac{1}{\frac{1}{r_1} + \frac{1}{r_2} + \frac{1}{r_3} + \frac{1}{r_4}} \right) \quad (5-20)$$

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

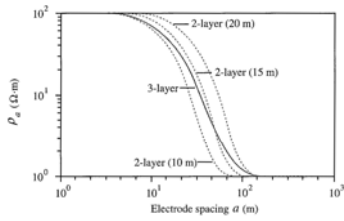
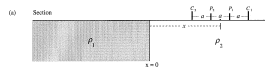
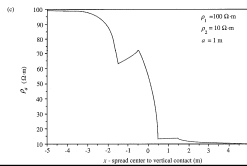
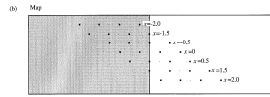


Figure 5-22 Comparison of two- and three-layer curves for similar depths and resistivities. The three-layer curve is a solid line (thickness of the first layer is 10 m; thickness of the second layer is 20 m; resistivities are 100, 10, and 1 $\Omega \cdot m$). Resistivities for the two-layer cases are 100 and 1 $\Omega \cdot m$. Depth of the interface is indicated for each curve.

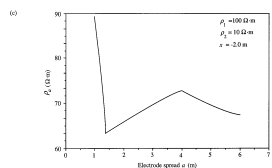
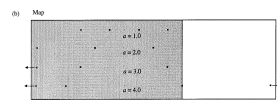
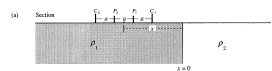
Horizontal Survey across a Vertical Interface



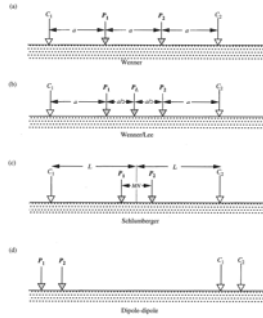
Why is the change in apparent resistivity values much more pronounced between $x = -3$ to $x = -2$ than from $x = 3$ to $x = 2$? Note that the negative values are in the higher resistivity medium. Use the current density distribution model or a water-flow analogy to arrive at a qualitative explanation.



Vertical Survey across a Vertical Interface



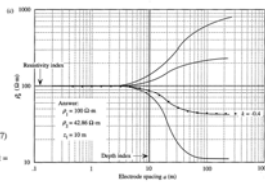
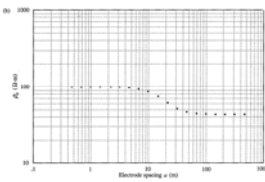
Field Methods



Resistivity of Earth Materials

Material	Resistivity (\$\Omega\$-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

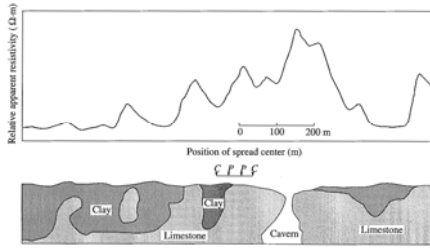
Curve Matching



$$\rho_a = \left(\frac{1+k}{1-k} \right) \rho_1 \quad (5-37)$$

It is straightforward to determine \$\rho_1\$. Figure 5-33(c) provides values of \$\rho_1 = 100 \Omega\$-m, \$k = 0.4\$, and \$C = 10\$ m. Equation (5-37) then provides a value of \$42.86 \Omega\$-m for \$\rho_2\$.

Air Filled Cavern/Limestone (a = 30.48 m)



Horizontal Survey of Faults (a = 30.48 m)

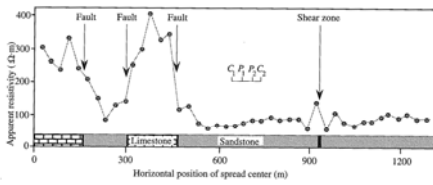


Figure 5-39 Apparent resistivity curve for a constant-spread traverse over faults in Illinois. Wenner array, a -spacing = 30.48 m, spread-center spacing = 30.48 m. Curve form is similar to that predicted over vertical contacts. (Based on data in Hubbert, M. K., 1932, Results of earth-resistivity survey on various geologic structures in Illinois: American Institute of Mining and Metallurgical Engineers Technical Publication 463, p. 16.)
