



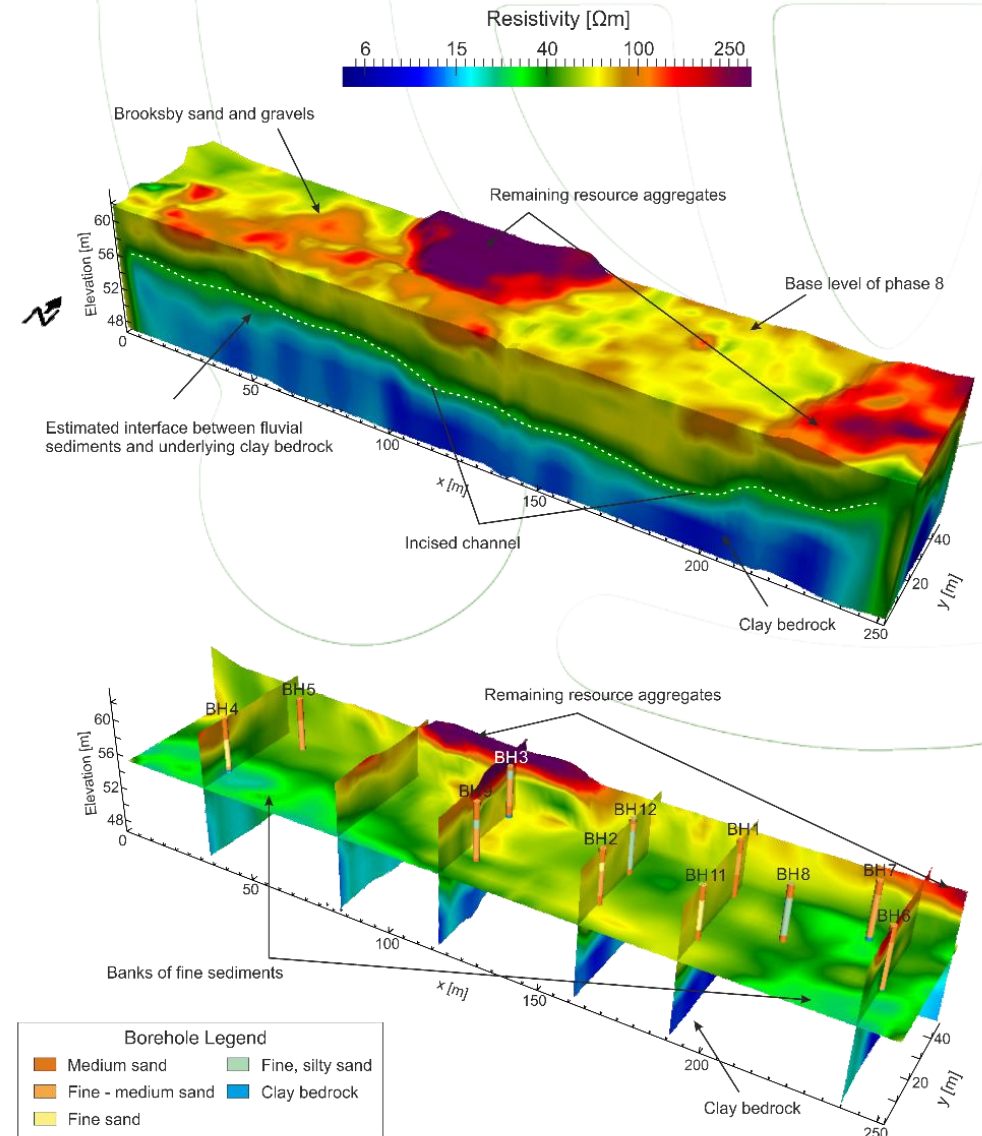
# Ground and airborne geophysical characterization

**IR0000032 – ITINERIS, Italian Integrated Environmental Research Infrastructures System**  
(D.D. n. 130/2022 - CUP B53C22002150006) Funded by EU - Next Generation EU PNRR-  
Mission 4 “Education and Research” - Component 2: “From research to business” - Investment  
3.1: “Fund for the realisation of an integrated system of research and innovation infrastructures”



# Outline of the day

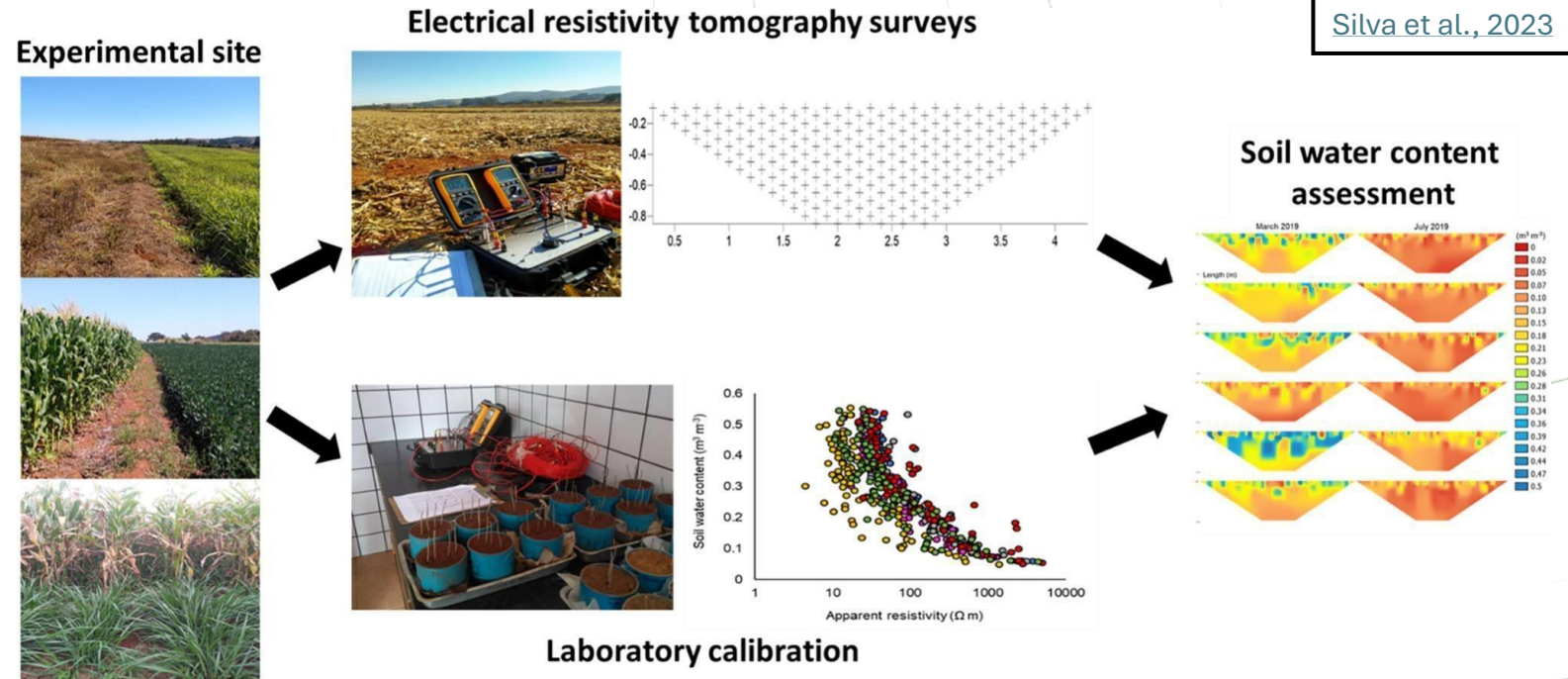
- **Fundamentals of electrical resistivity measurements**
  - Electrical properties of soils and rocks
  - Translating geoelectrical data into hydrogeomechanical properties
- **Principles of Electrical Resistivity and Electromagnetic Measurements**
  - Applications to ground and airborne geophysical characterization
- **Geoelectrical monitoring: Principles and applications**
  - Inversion approaches, practical considerations
  - Monitoring applications
- **Machine Learning for exploiting and assimilating environmental data**



# Why electrical and electromagnetic methods?

The electrical resistivity of Earth materials is highly sensitive to variations in the hydraulic properties of the subsurface:

- Porosity
- Saturation
- Grain size distribution (hydraulic conductivity)
- Pore fluid conductivity



Wet, warm,  
clay-rich, ion-rich  
(salty)

Resistivity

Dry, cold,  
no clay, ion-depleted

# Electrical and electromagnetic methods

Different methods to measure the electro(magnetic) properties

## **4 different types of measurements to measure electrical and electromagnetic properties of Earth materials:**

**Geoelectrics:** Changes in electrical resistance or conductivity (the reciprocal of resistivity) are measured by generating an electric current that flows through the soil using connected electrodes.

**Electromagnetics (EM)** respond to almost the same targets as geoelectrics, but they use time-varying electromagnetic fields rather than electrodes in the ground. This enables, for example, use from the air.

**Magnetotellurics (MT)** uses naturally induced currents (e.g. thunderstorms) whose propagation is measured by EM and resistance methods. This means that the results go much deeper than EM and geoelectrics.

**Ground Penetrating Radar (GPR)** records radar waves - a type of electromagnetic wave - that are reflected from surfaces and provide a more direct picture of the subsurface - similar to reflection seismology. However, it is usually limited to the uppermost meters of the ground.

Airborne EM survey





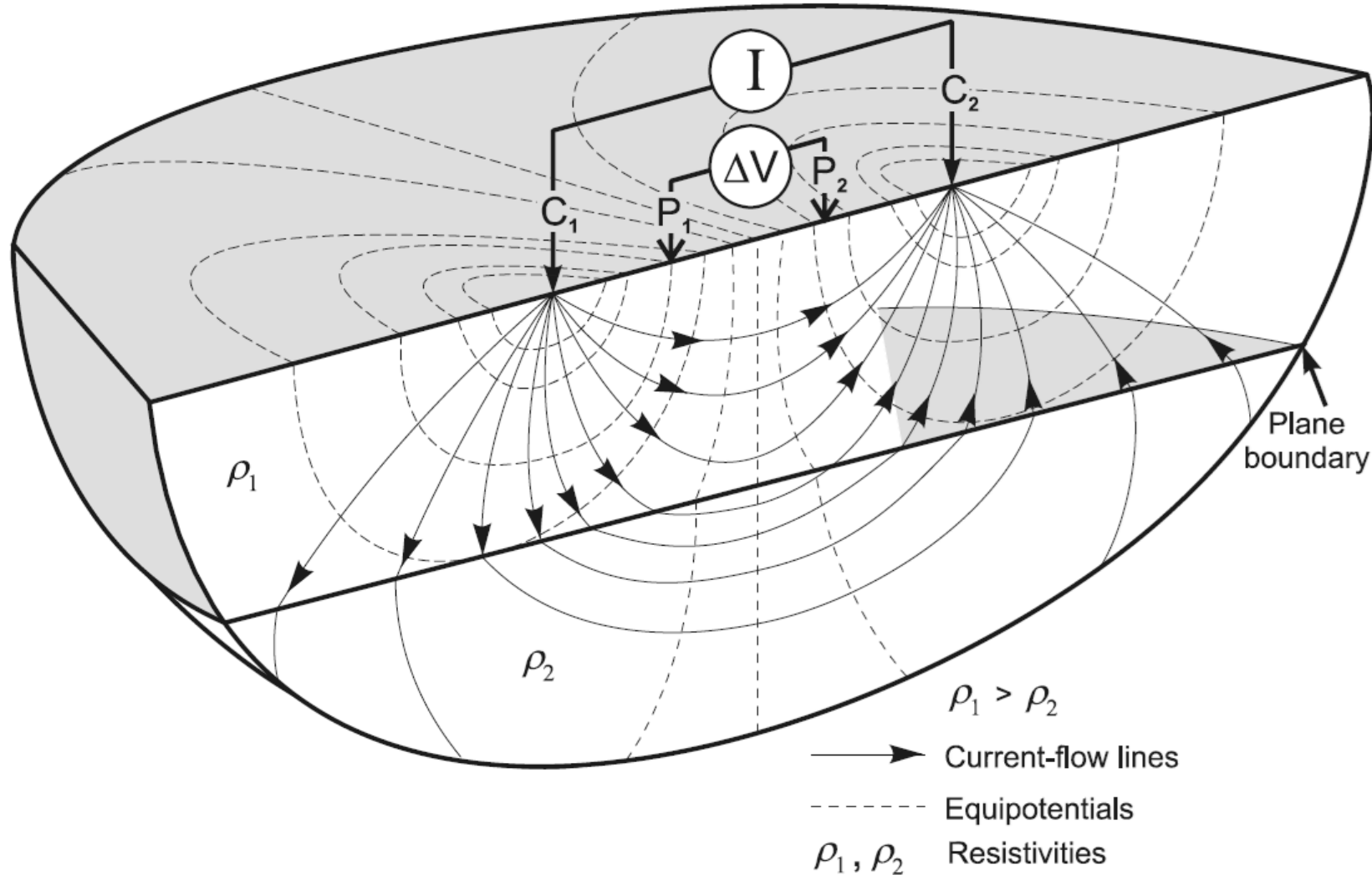
# Ground-based Exploration

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# Electrical resistivity

## Measurement principle



# Electrical resistivity

## Measurement principle

**Ohm's Law describes the electrical potential:**

$$\Delta V = IR$$

Electrical resistance  $R$  depends on

- resistivity of the ground  $\rho$

**and**

- the geometry of the electrodes (geometric factor  $K$ )

Resistance [ $\Omega$ ]:  $R = \rho/K$

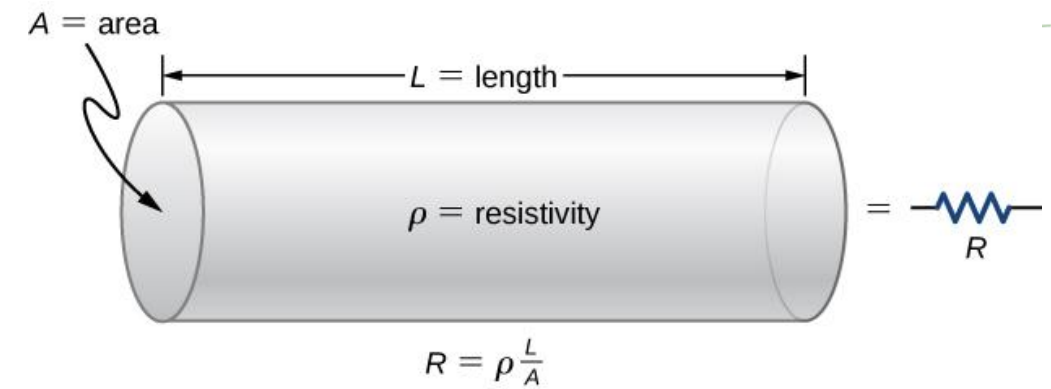
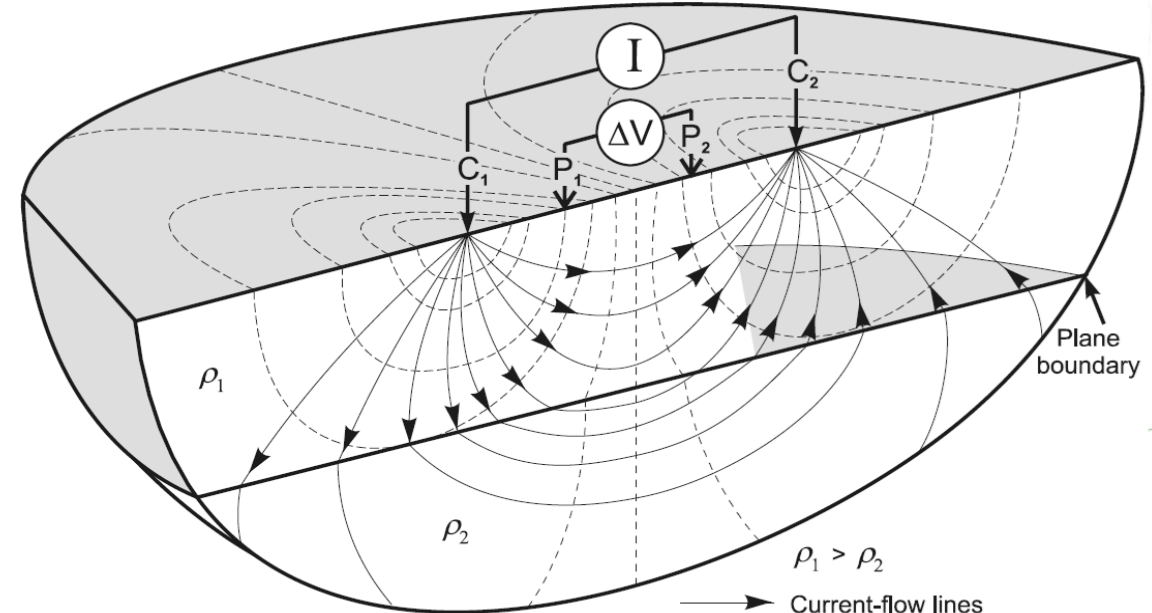
Resistivity [ $\Omega\text{m}$ ]:  $\rho = K R = K \frac{\Delta V}{I}$

- **Units are important!**  $R$  has units of [ $\Omega$ ] (ohms),  $K$  has units of [ $\text{m}$ ] (metres),  $\rho$  has units of  $\Omega\text{m}$  (ohm-metres)

- **Note:** Electrical resistivity  $\rho$  and electrical conductivity  $\sigma$  are related

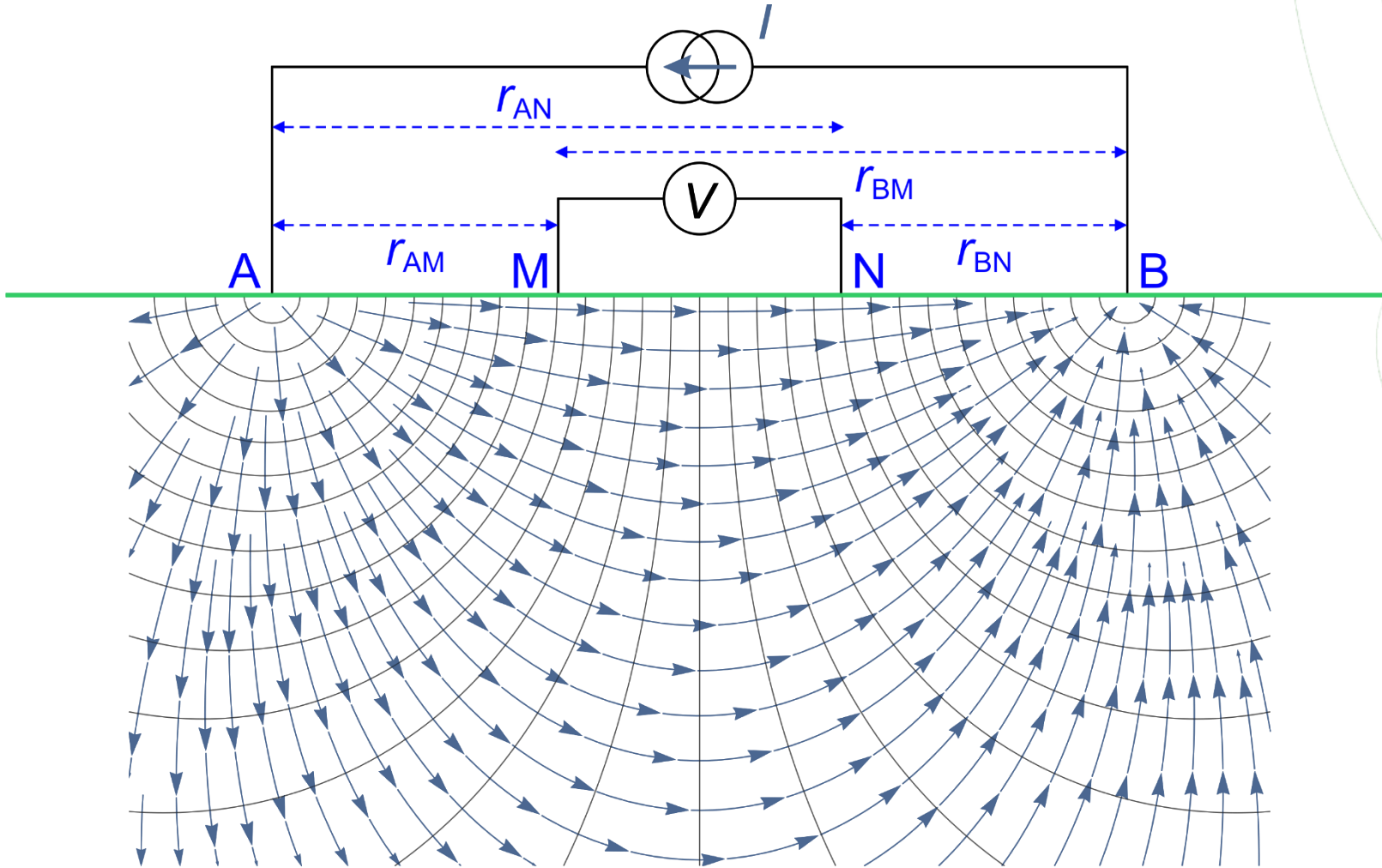
$$\sigma = 1/\rho$$

- $\sigma$  has units of S/m (Siemens per meter)



# Electrical resistivity

The geometric factor K



The geometric factor can be calculated based on the known distances between:

1. the injection (A, B) dipole and
2. potential measurement (M, N) dipole

$$\rho = R K$$

$$K = 2\pi \left( \frac{1}{r_{AM}} - \frac{1}{r_{AN}} - \frac{1}{r_{BM}} + \frac{1}{r_{BN}} \right)^{-1}$$

This is only valid for a homogeneous, flat half space

# Electrical resistivity

## Apparent resistivity

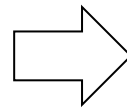
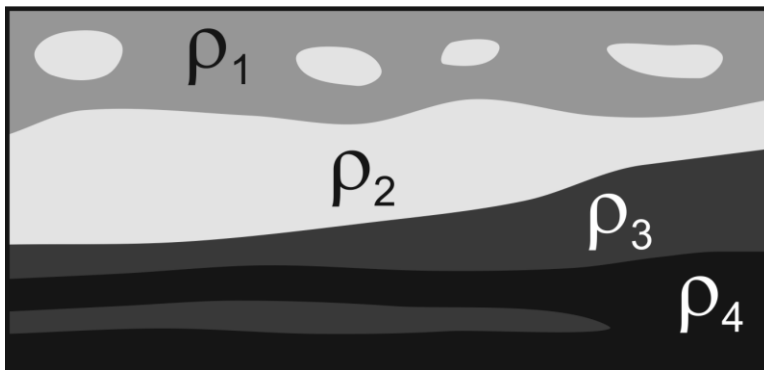
### Field/Lab measurements:

- Measured resistivity = ‘true’ resistivity **ONLY** over **flat homogenous** ground
- Subsurface is rarely completely homogenous

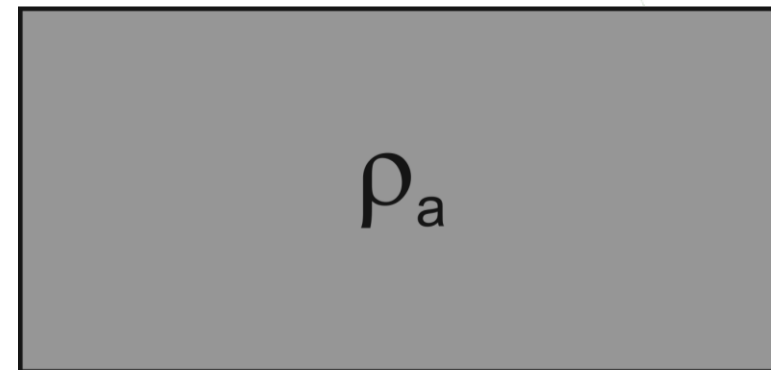
→ Measurements of “**apparent resistivity**”

**In simple terms:** The apparent resistivity is a weighted average of all the resistivities present in the area of the measurement

Real resistivity distribution

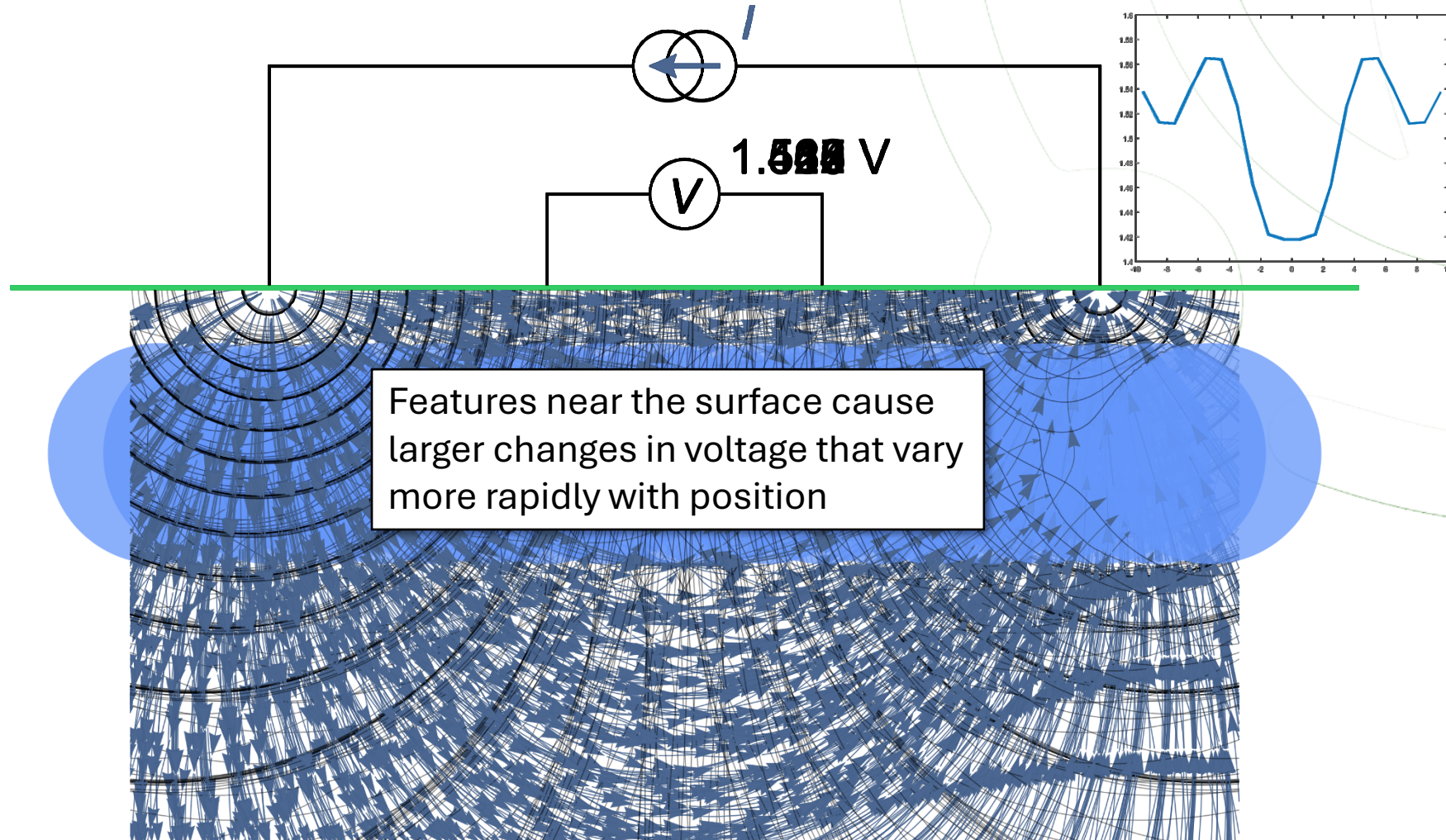


Apparent resistivity



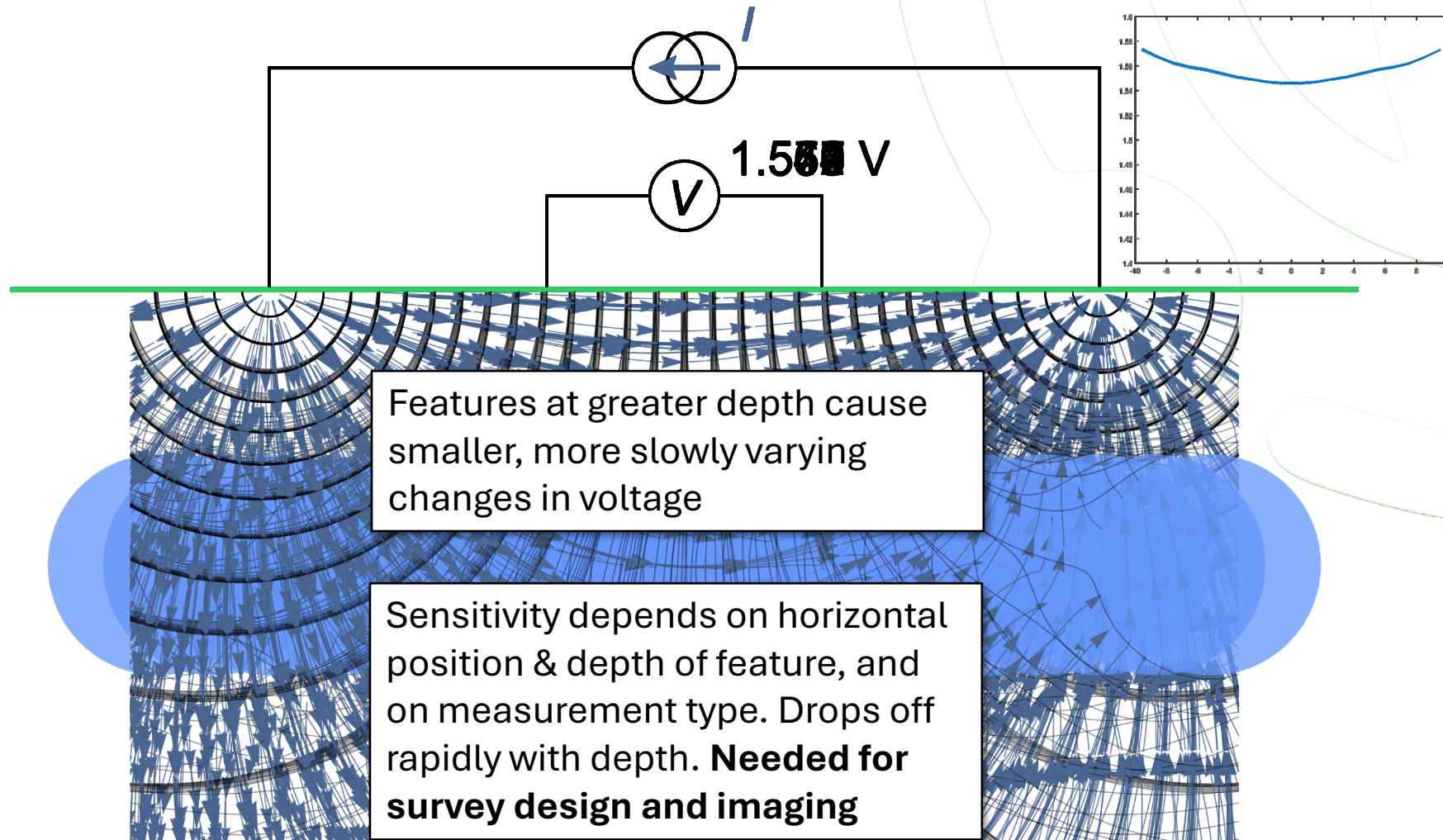
# Measurement sensitivity

Voltages change with position



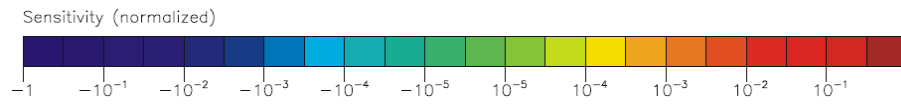
# Measurement sensitivity

Voltages change with position and depth



# Measurement sensitivity

## Sensitivity distributions for different configurations



Each measurement array is sensitive to different parts of the subsurface → spatial sampling of the subsurface

Areas of high sensitivity and changes in sign result in high resolution

### Wenner:

- Good signal to noise ration
- High horizontal resolution

### Pol-Dipole:

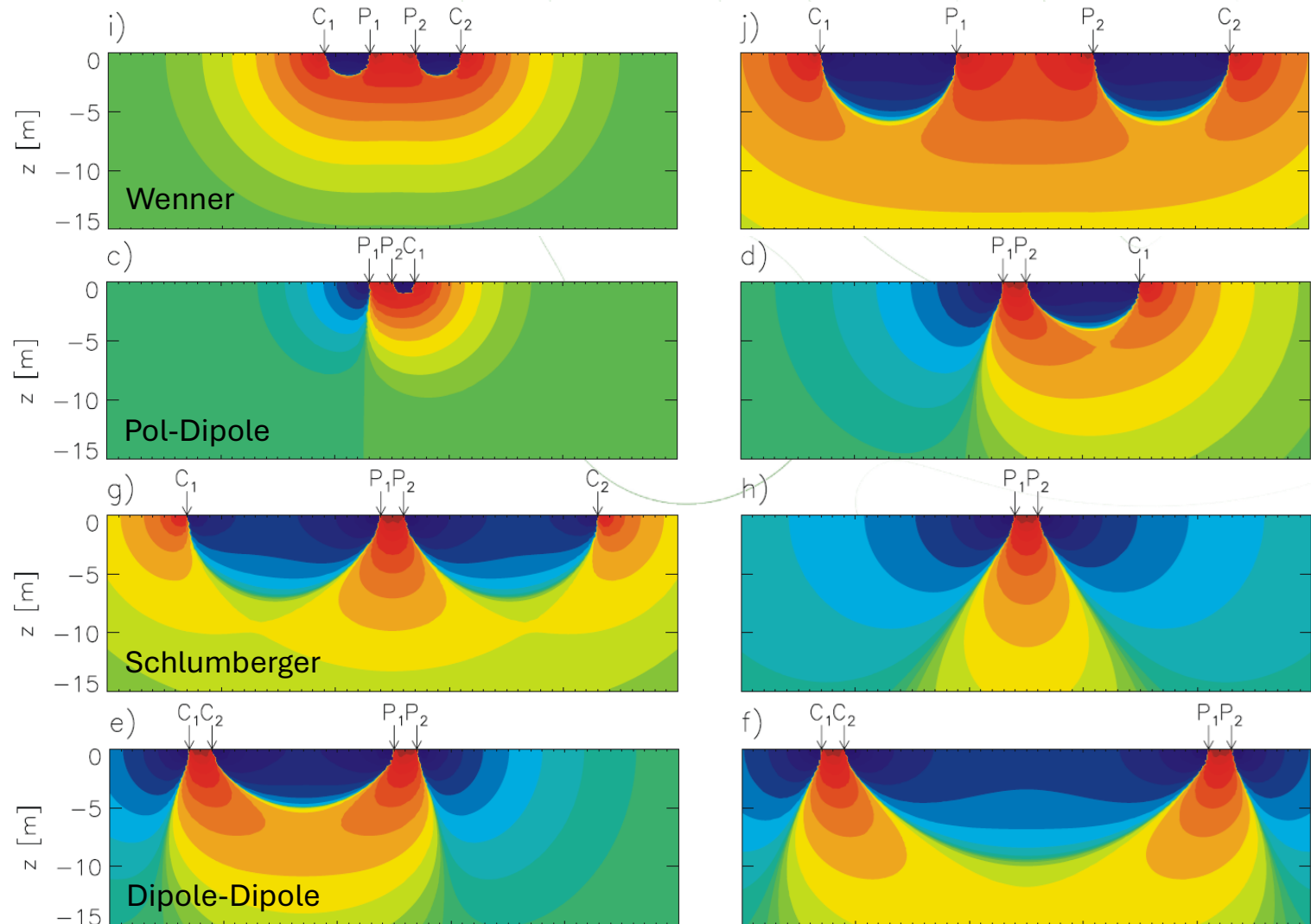
- Very good lateral resolution

### Schlumberger

- mainly influenced by resistivity distribution underneath potential electrodes → Vertical electrical sounding

### Dipole-Dipole

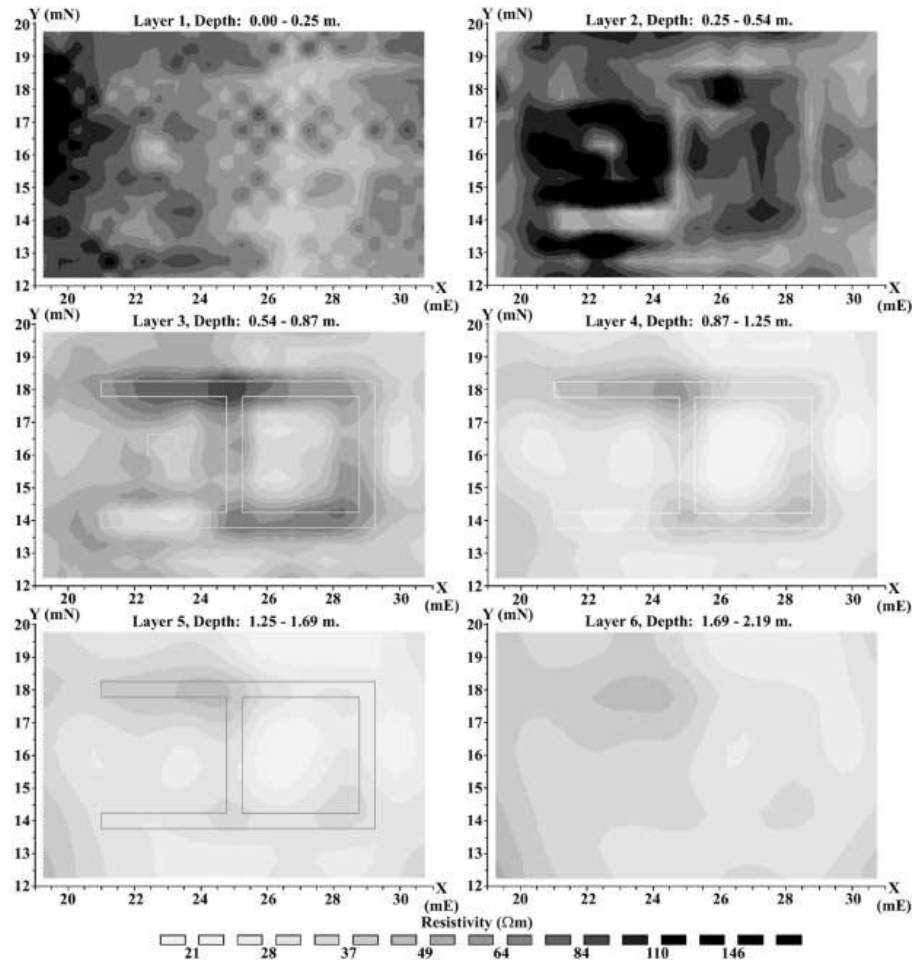
- Good lateral resolution, large depth of investigation
- High resolution
- Affected by variations close to electrodes



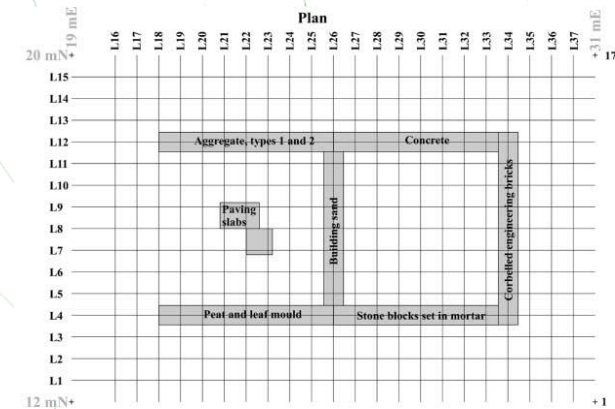
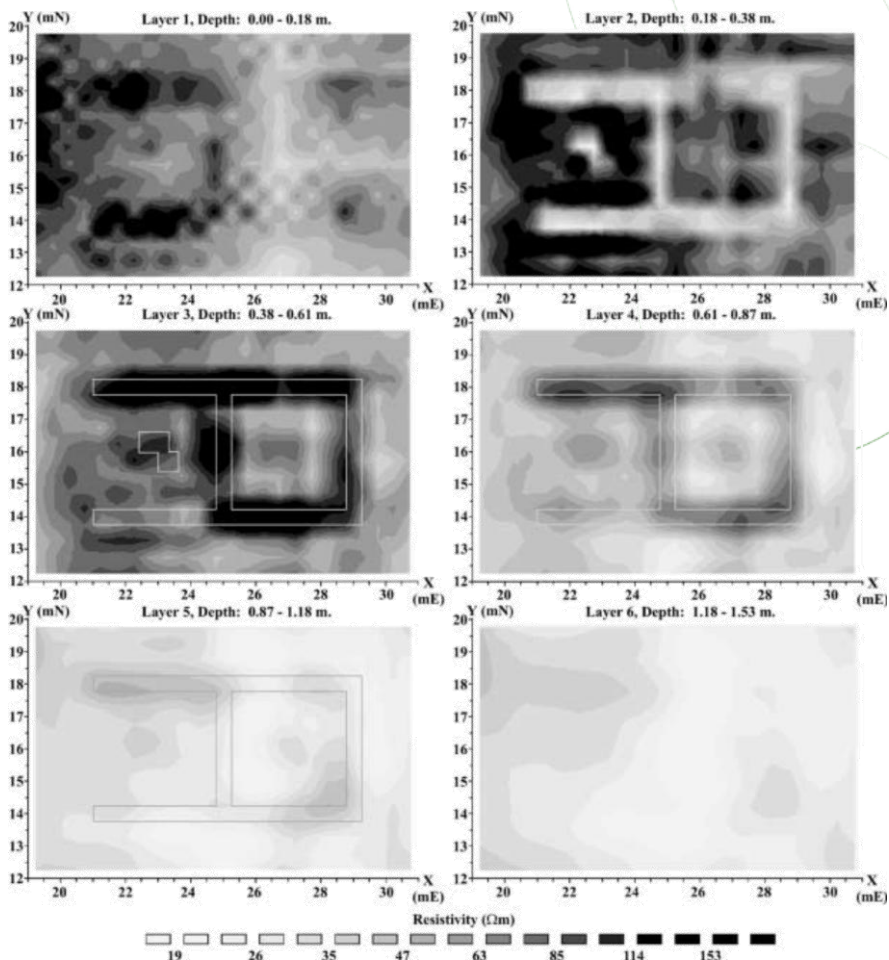
# Measurement sensitivity → Model Resolution

The type of measurement determines the model resolution

## Wenner

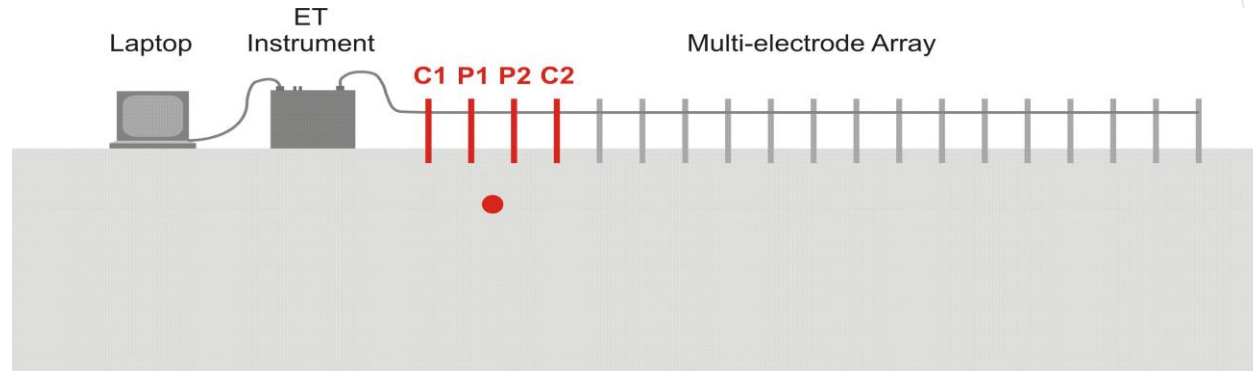


## Dipole-Dipole

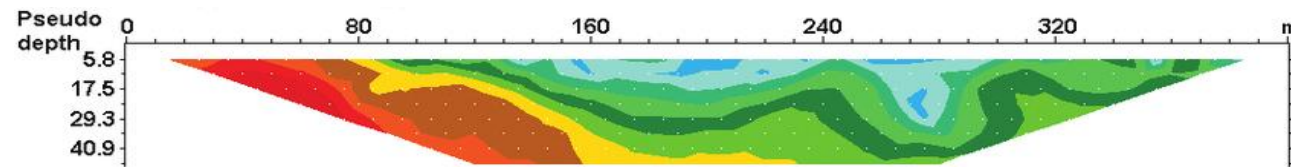


# Imaging the resistivity distribution

## 2D Electrical Resistivity Tomography (ERT)



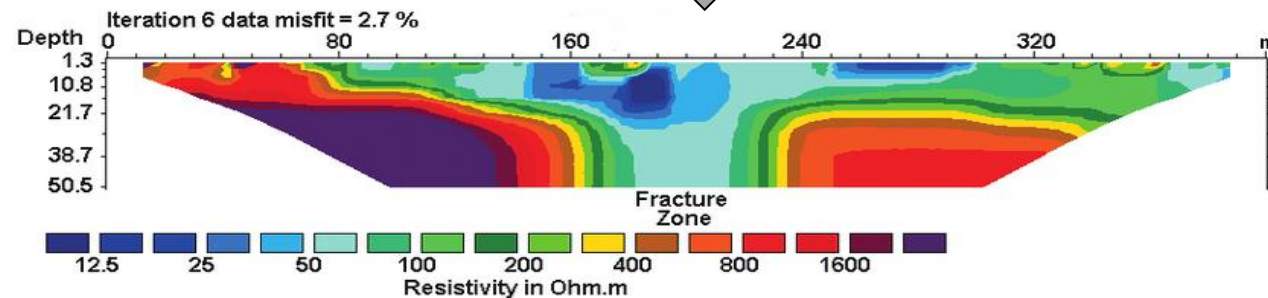
Resistance measurements  
(raw data)



Apparent resistivity  
pseudosection

Forward modelling &  
inversion

Measurements (type, number) and  
measurement quality define image resolution



Recovered **model** of the  
subsurface **resistivity**  
**distribution**

# Forward modelling

Predicting the response of the subsurface – simulating synthetic measurements

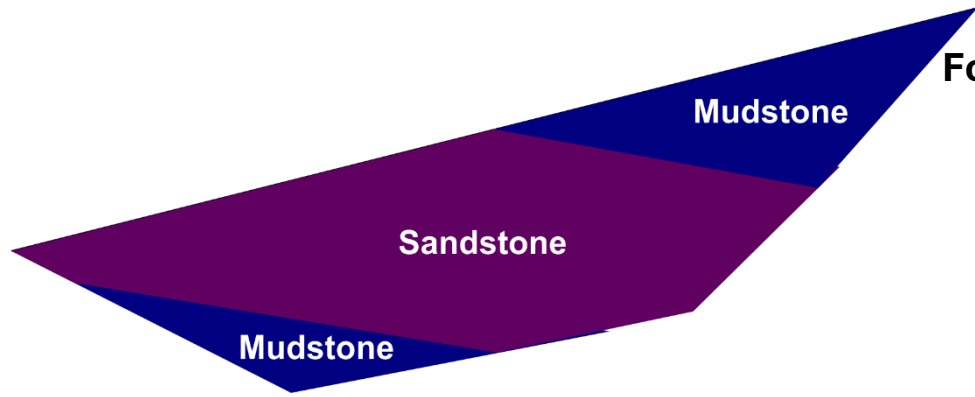
## Forward modelling:

starting with an assumed (usually simplified) **model** of the geophysical ground properties, predict/**simulate the data** that will be measured

## Useful for:

- survey design
- assessing technique suitability
- *qualitative / semi-quantitative* analysis of survey data.

**Relatively easy!**

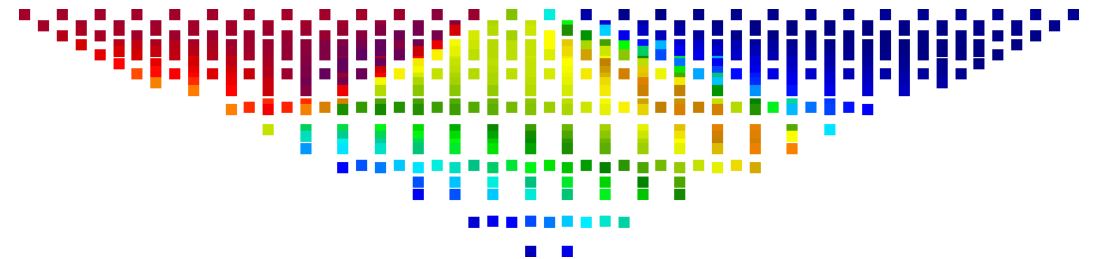


**Subsurface Model**

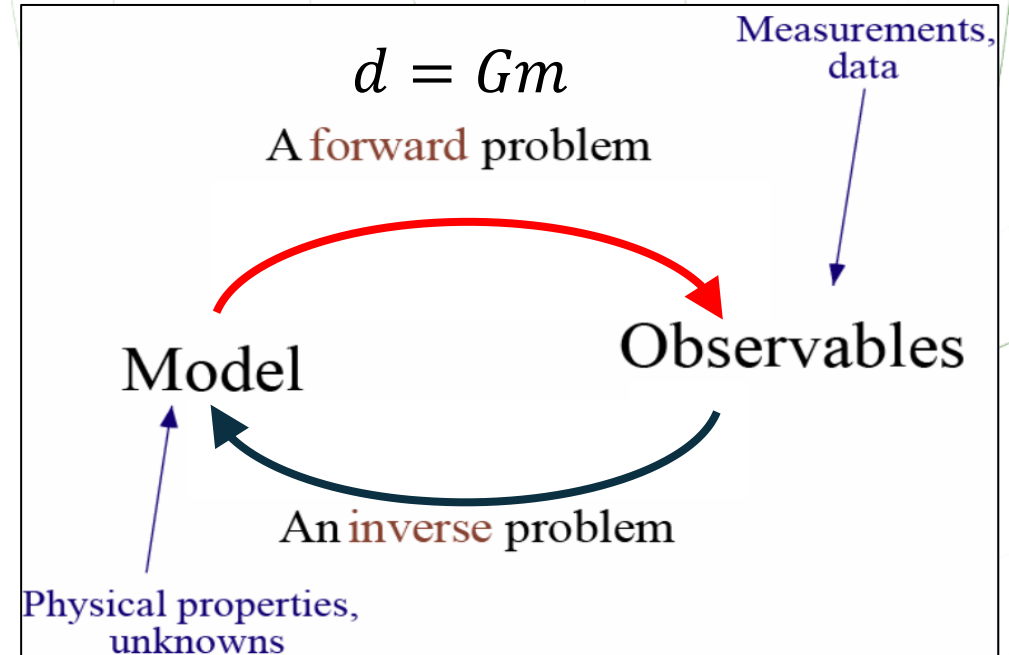
**Forward Modelling**



**Physics**



**Geophysical Measurements**



# Inverse modelling

Predicting the subsurface model from real measurements

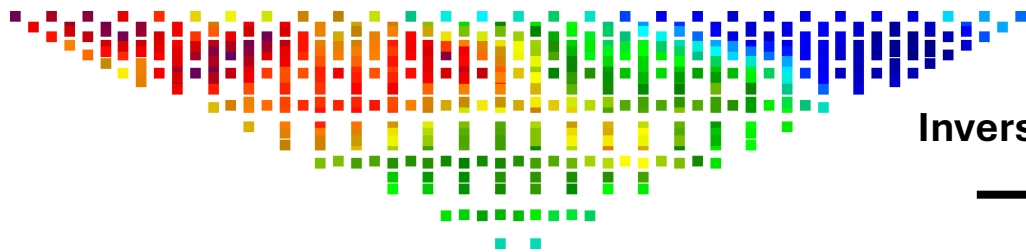
## Inverse modelling

starting with the measured data, predict the geophysical properties of the ground (tomographic imaging/subsurface model)

## Useful for:

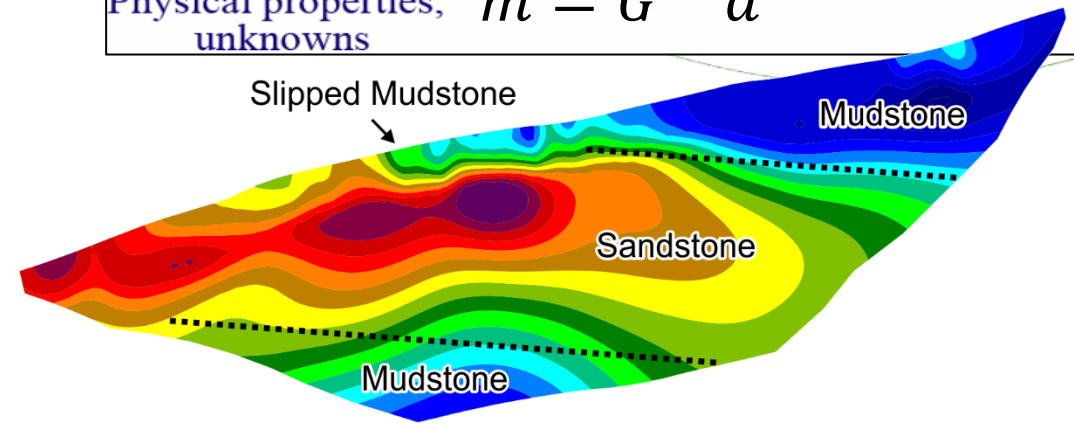
- *quantitative* analysis of survey data
- Visualisation
- assessing uncertainties
- survey design.

Relatively difficult!

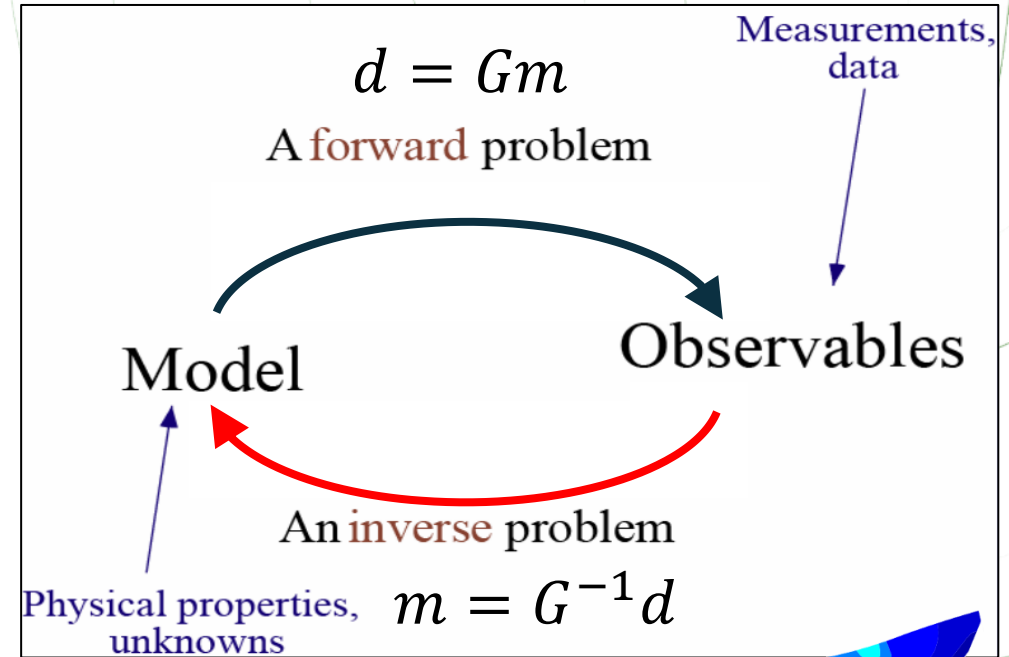


Geophysical Measurements

Inverse Modelling



Subsurface Model



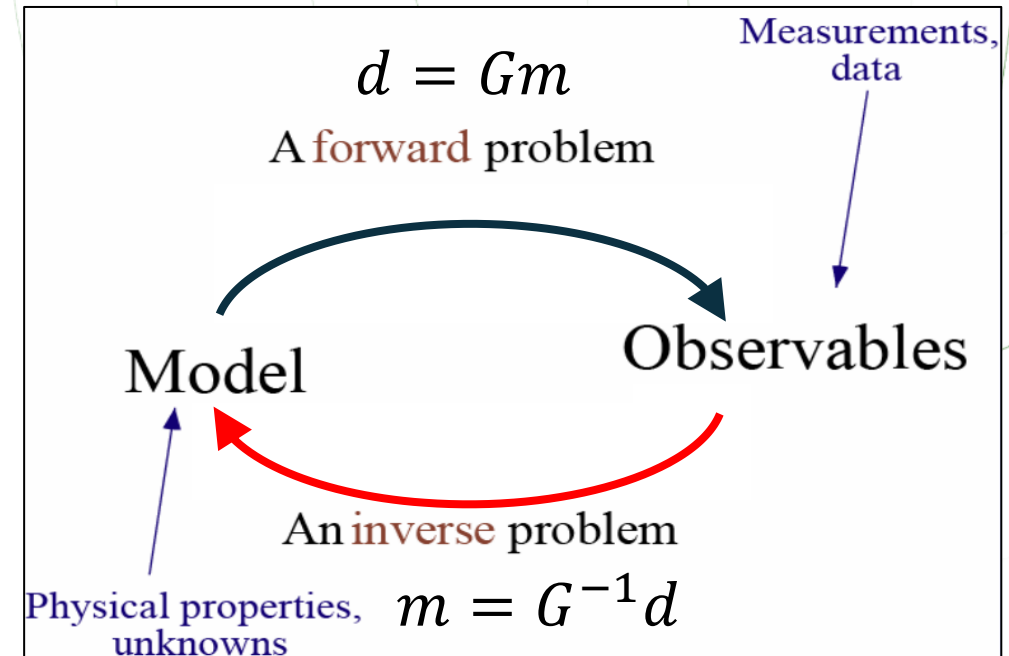
# Inverse modelling

## The inverse problem

**Aim:** Find a model of the electrical properties of the ground that is consistent with the data

With data covering the whole region of interest, can we work out the true resistivity distribution of the ground?

- In theory, yes!
- It has been *proven* that this inverse problem has a unique solution.
- But...



# Inverse modelling

Uniqueness (or lack of...)

## Conditions for the unique solution are very demanding:

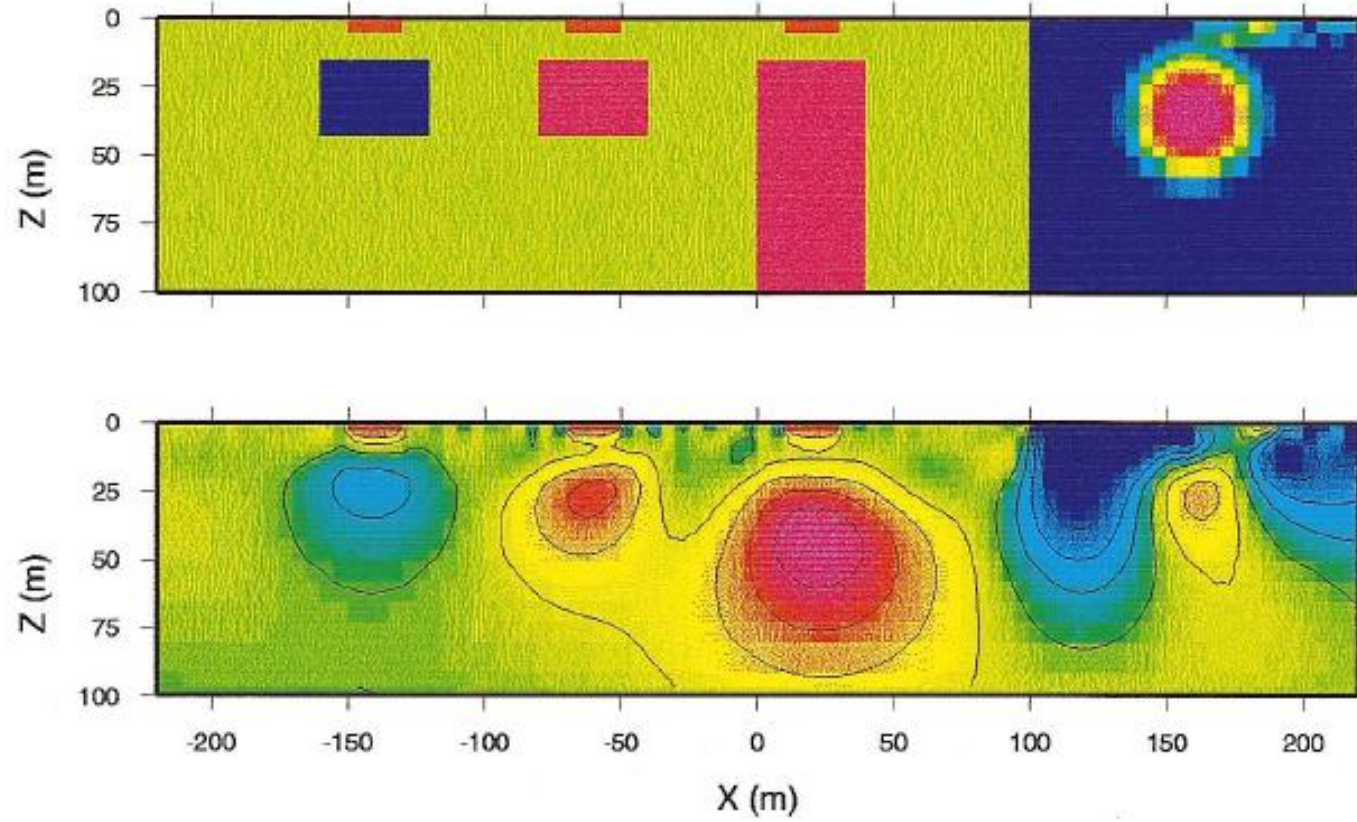
- Must know the voltage distribution across the boundary of the whole region with infinite accuracy...impossible in Earth Science applications
- For every possible set of current electrodes!

## In practice:

- Only cover **part** of the boundary
- Only use a **limited number** of electrodes
- Only measure with a **limited accuracy** (due to noise and instrument limitations)
- Causes **non-uniqueness** – there are an **infinite** number of models that fit the data equally well

# Inverse modelling

Uniqueness (or lack of...)

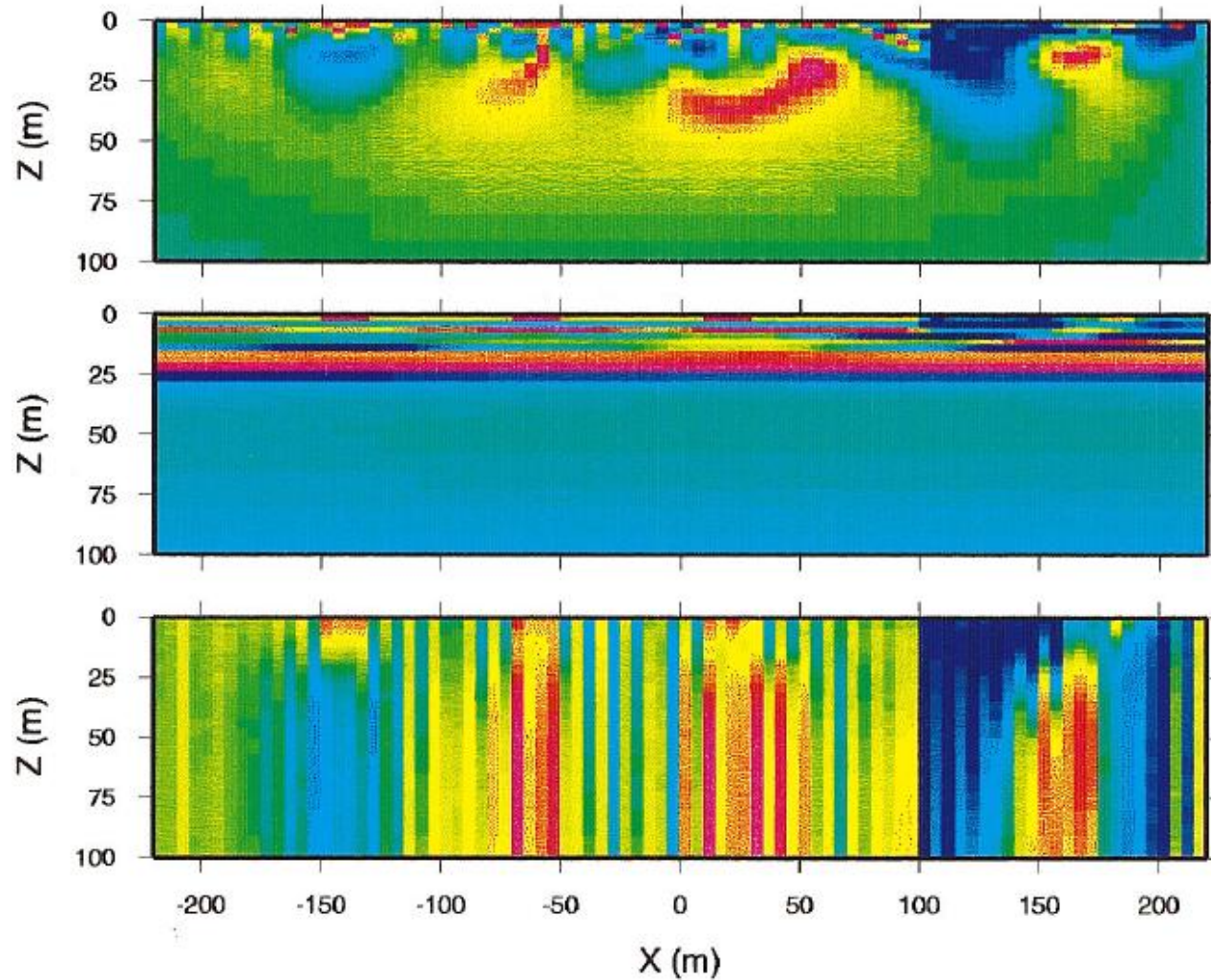


Forward model

Inverse model  
(note the lack of resolution)

# Inverse modelling

Non-uniqueness – extreme example



All these inverse models fit the data just as well!

# Inverse modelling

## Gauss-Newton optimization

**Aim:** minimize the data-model misfit

$$\Phi_d = \left( \underset{\substack{\text{measured data} \\ \uparrow}}{\mathbf{d}} - \underset{\substack{\text{model response} \\ \uparrow}}{F(\mathbf{m})} \right)^T \overset{\substack{\text{data weight matrix} \\ \swarrow}}{\mathbf{W}_d^T} \mathbf{W}_d \left( \mathbf{d} - F(\mathbf{m}) \right)$$

Since the forward model is a function of parameters  $\mathbf{m}$ , a linearization process is required for inverse modelling. This is normally achieved using the Gauss-Newton approach:

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathbf{J}^T \mathbf{W}_d^T \mathbf{W}_d \mathbf{J}) \Delta \mathbf{m} &= \mathbf{J}^T \mathbf{W}_d^T \left( \mathbf{d} - F(\mathbf{m}_k) \right), \\ \mathbf{m}_{k+1} &= \mathbf{m}_k + \Delta \mathbf{m}, \end{aligned}$$

Of limited practical use due to convergence to a local minimum or instability of the solution. Hence, addition of damping and regularization:

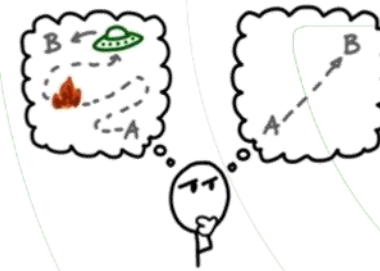
$$(\mathbf{J}^T \mathbf{W}_d^T \mathbf{W}_d \mathbf{J} + \alpha \mathbf{R}) \Delta \mathbf{m} = \mathbf{J}^T \mathbf{W}_d^T \mathbf{W}_d \left( \mathbf{d} - F(\mathbf{m}_k) \right) - \alpha \mathbf{R} \mathbf{m}_k$$

# Inverse modelling

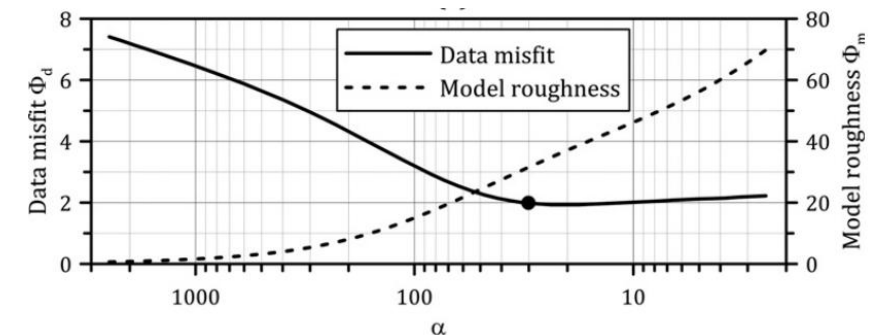
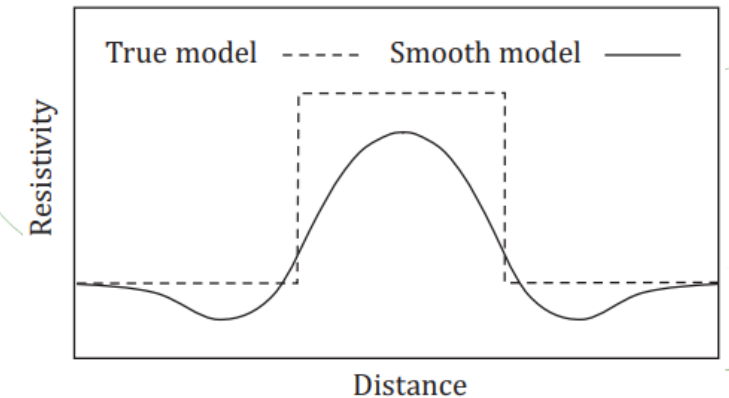
## Constraints

- To find a stable solution, apply prior information / constraints
  - specific information (e.g. a borehole log, or information on the location of a feature like a fault or interface)
  - global characteristics like simplicity or smoothness (Occam's razor)
- Most common constraints are **smoothness-based**:
  - blocky models (tending to have continuous regions with sharp edges, **L1**)
  - smooth models (properties varies smoothly across regions and edges are gradational, **L2**)

## Occam's Razor



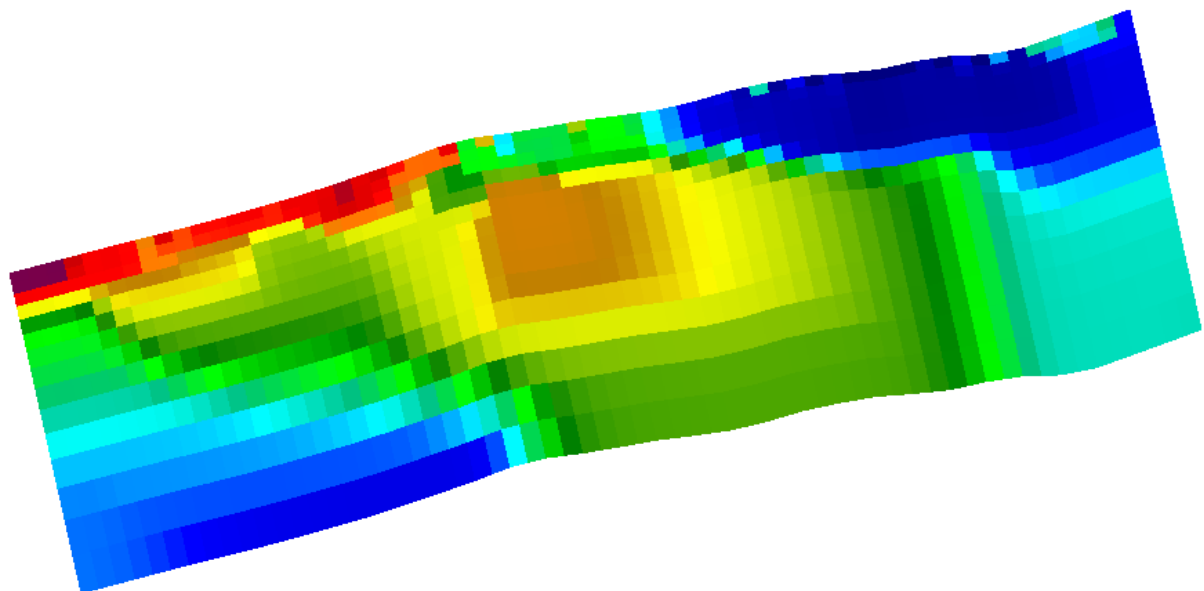
"When faced with two equally good hypotheses, always choose the simpler."



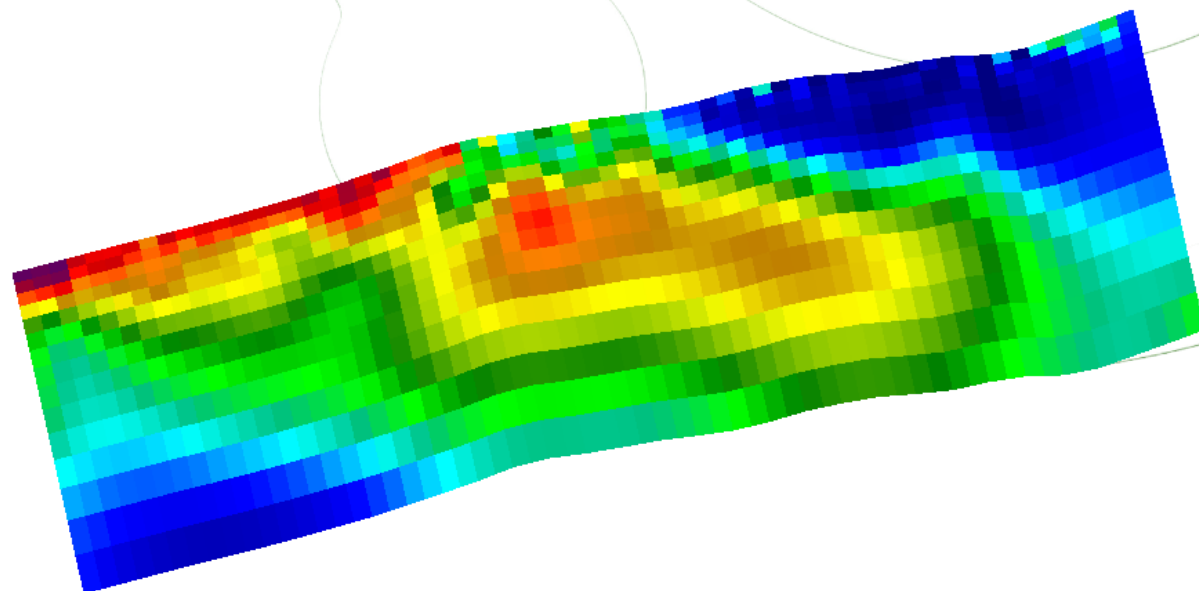
# Inverse modelling

Constraint examples

**Blocky model**

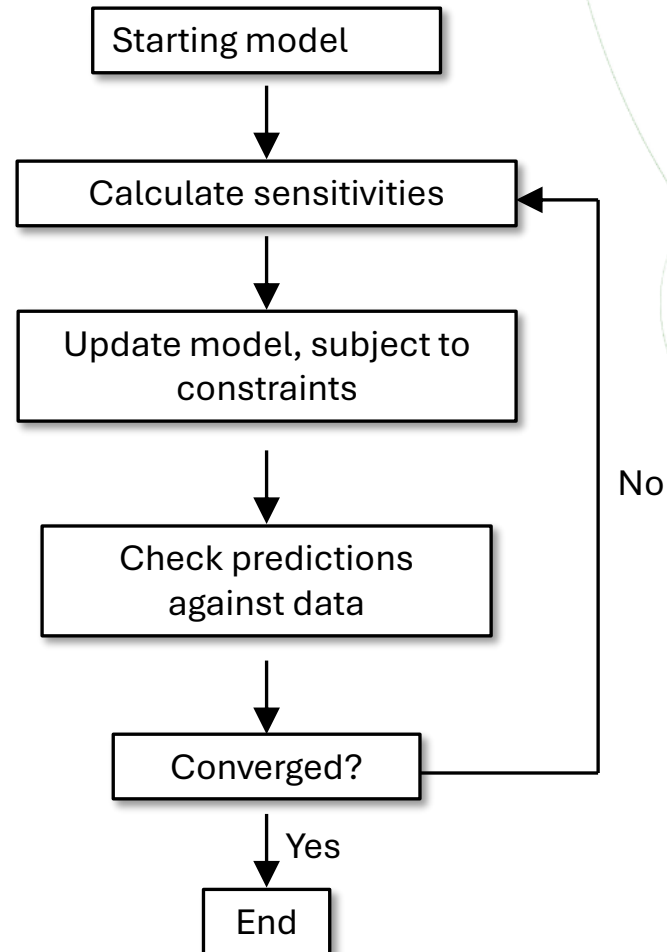


**Smooth model**



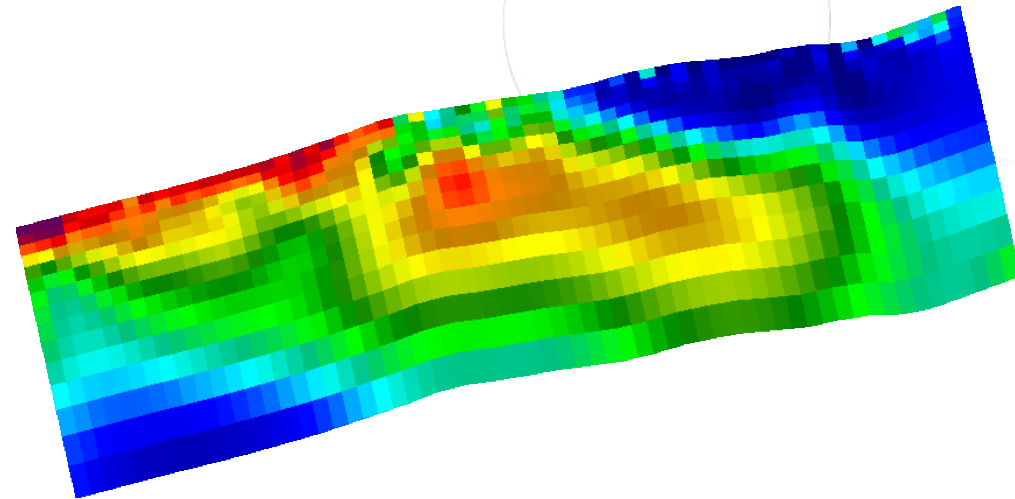
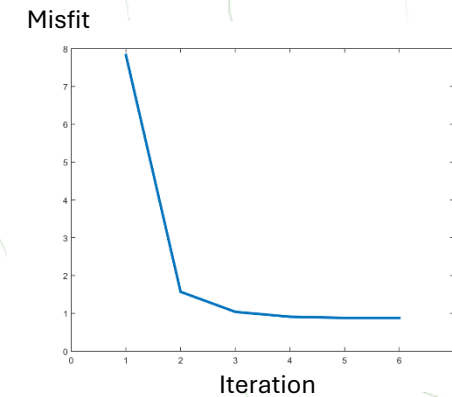
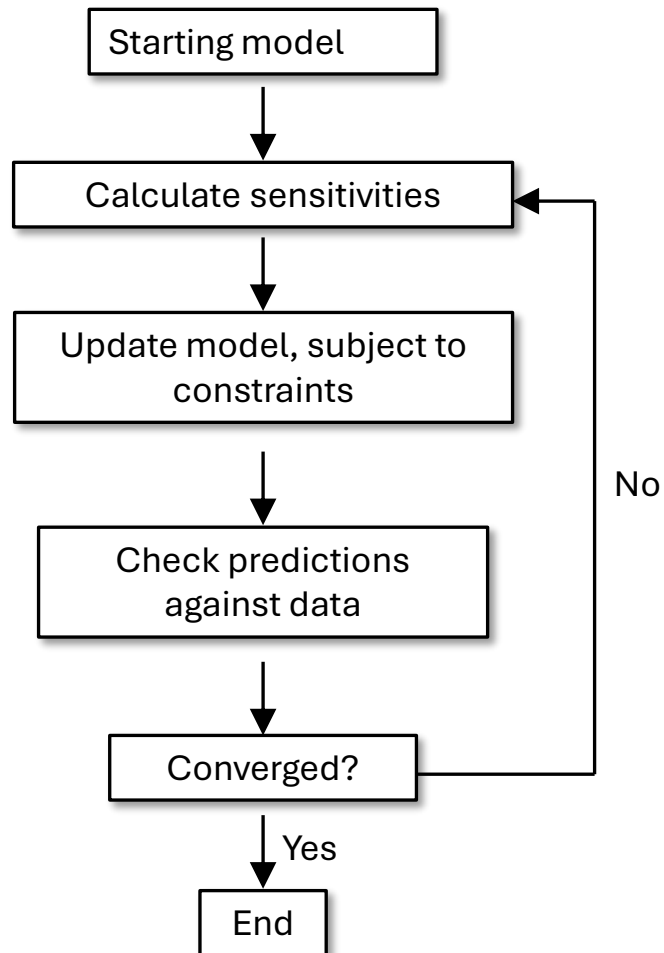
# Inverse modelling

Iterative process



# Inverse modelling

## Example



# Inverse modelling

## Misfit and reliability of the model

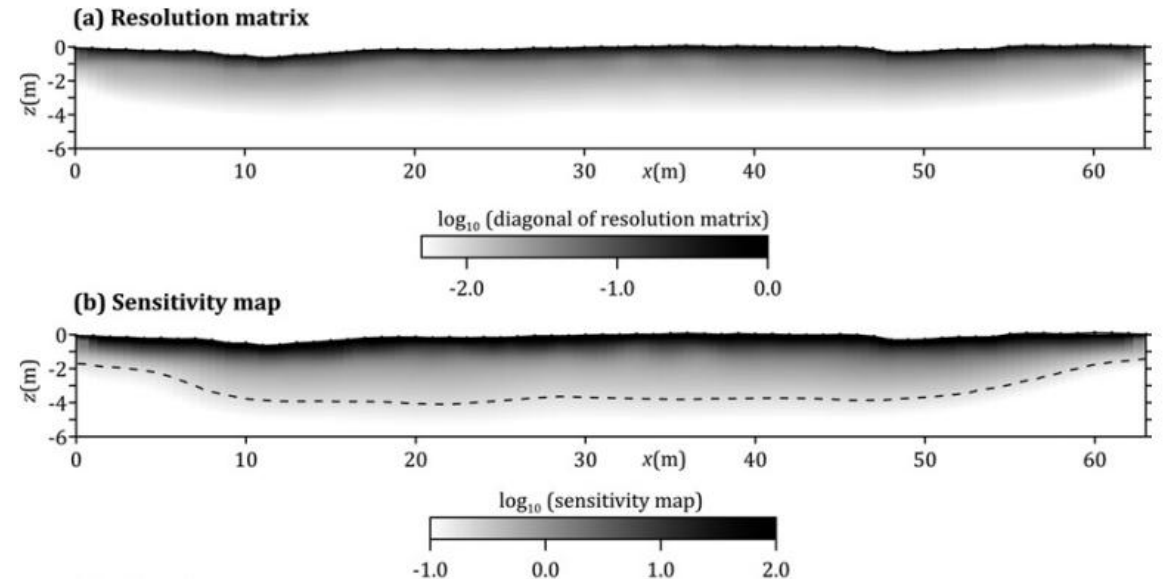
### Misfit

- Inversion usually stops when either:
  - The fit to the data is similar to the level of error
  - The fit to the data no longer improves
- The fit to the data is usually reported as an average percentage or a “chi-squared” ( $\chi^2$ ) value
- The average percentage error misfit should be similar to the typical data error
- The average chi-squared value should equal 1

### Reliability

- The reliability of the final resistivity model can be assessed based on
  - the sensitivity distribution (cumulative sensitivity)
  - the resolution matrix

$$m = R_m m_{true}$$



# Summary

## The electrical resistivity of Earth materials and forward & inverse modelling

### Electrical resistivity of Earth materials

Main conduction pathways:

- Electrolytic and surface conduction
- Archie's equation can describe electrolytic conduction

### Resistivity measurements

4 point measurements are usually used to measure the resistance of the ground

Apparent resistivity is a weighted average of the subsurface resistivity distribution

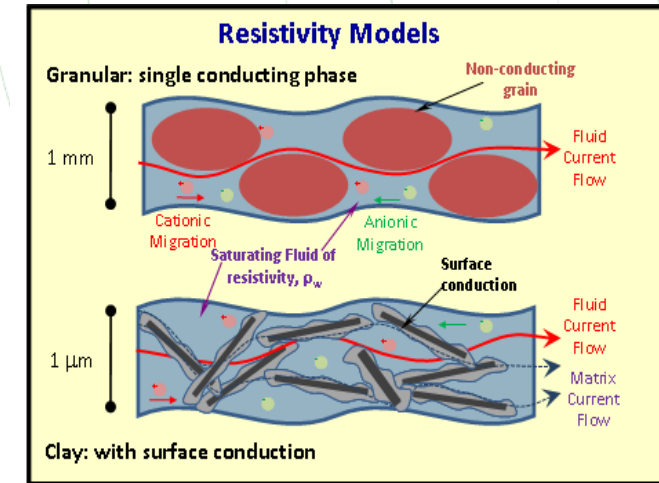
Different measurement configurations show different sensitivities and resolution

Forward modelling can be used to simulate measurements to:

- Determine the most appropriate measurement configuration
- Assess how well subsurface features can be imaged

Inverse modelling required to get a subsurface resistivity model from the measured data

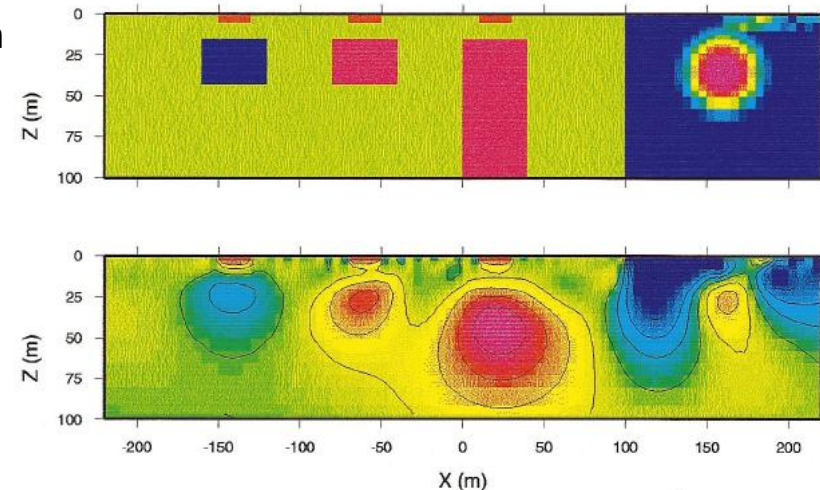
- Inversion is non-unique! An infinite number of models explains the data equally well
- Constraints are required to come a solution



Wet, warm, clay-rich,  
ion-rich (salty)



Dry, cold, no clay,  
ion-depleted



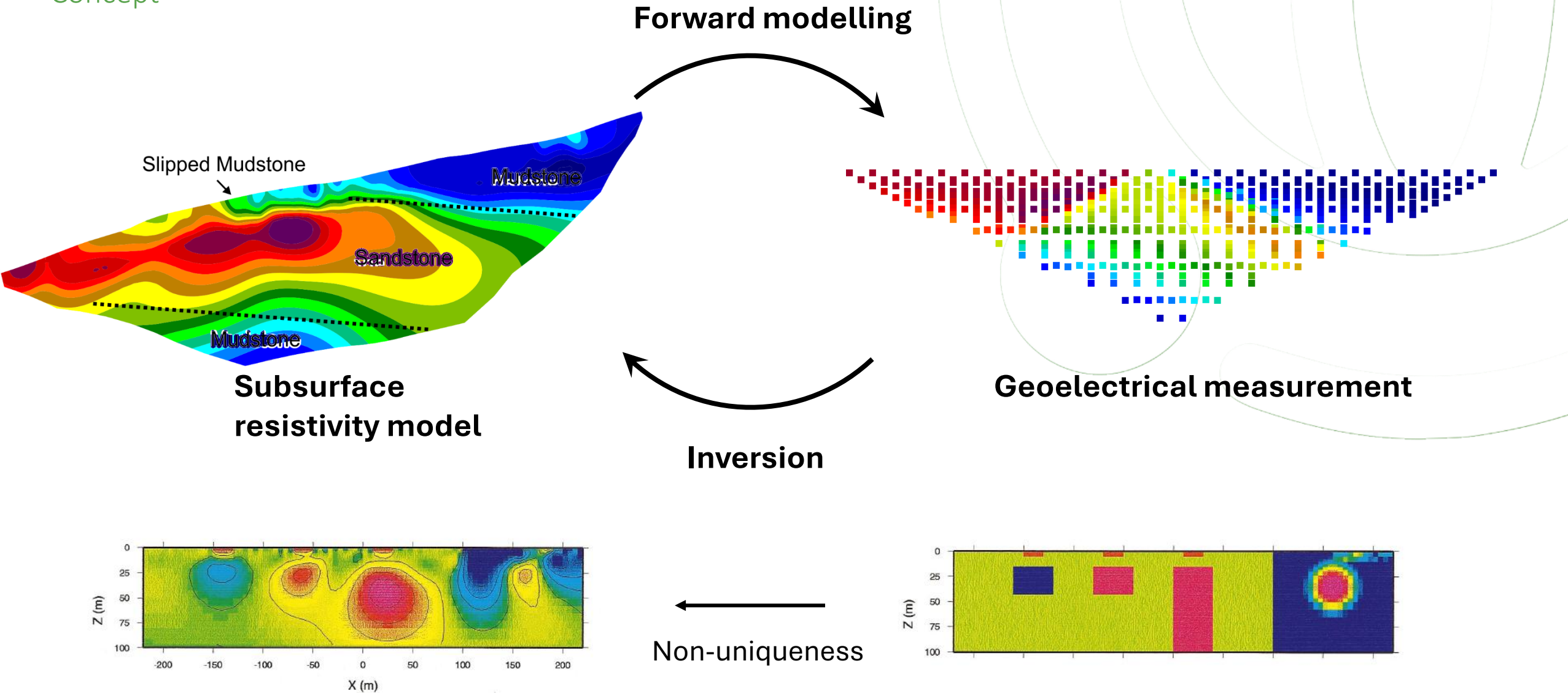
# Crossroads

What do you want to do now?



# Resistivity forward modelling and inversion

Concept



# Resistivity forward modelling and inversion

## ResIPy example

### Download [ResIPy](#) – no installation required

#### **Forward modelling:**

1. Choose option “Forward” under “Importing – Data”
2. Under „Electrodes (XYZ/Topo)“ define the number of electrodes (48) and their spacing (2 m)
3. Under „Mesh“ create a discretization of the subsurface – use a „Triangular mesh“ – forward modelling usually requires a relatively fine mesh (to minimize numerical errors) – set depth (Fine/Coarse boundary depth) to 30 m
4. Create a measurement sequence (Dipole-Dipole, Wenner, etc. with multiple a/n spacings)
5. Press “forward modelling” – once complete, you will see a pseudo section
6. Go back to the Mesh tab and create resistivity anomalies and repeat the step of the forward modelling

#### **Inversion:**

1. Go back to the „Mesh“ tab and press „Reset mesh“ and create a coarser mesh than used for the forward modelling
2. In the inversion settings, set “a\_wgt” to 0.001
3. Start the inversion

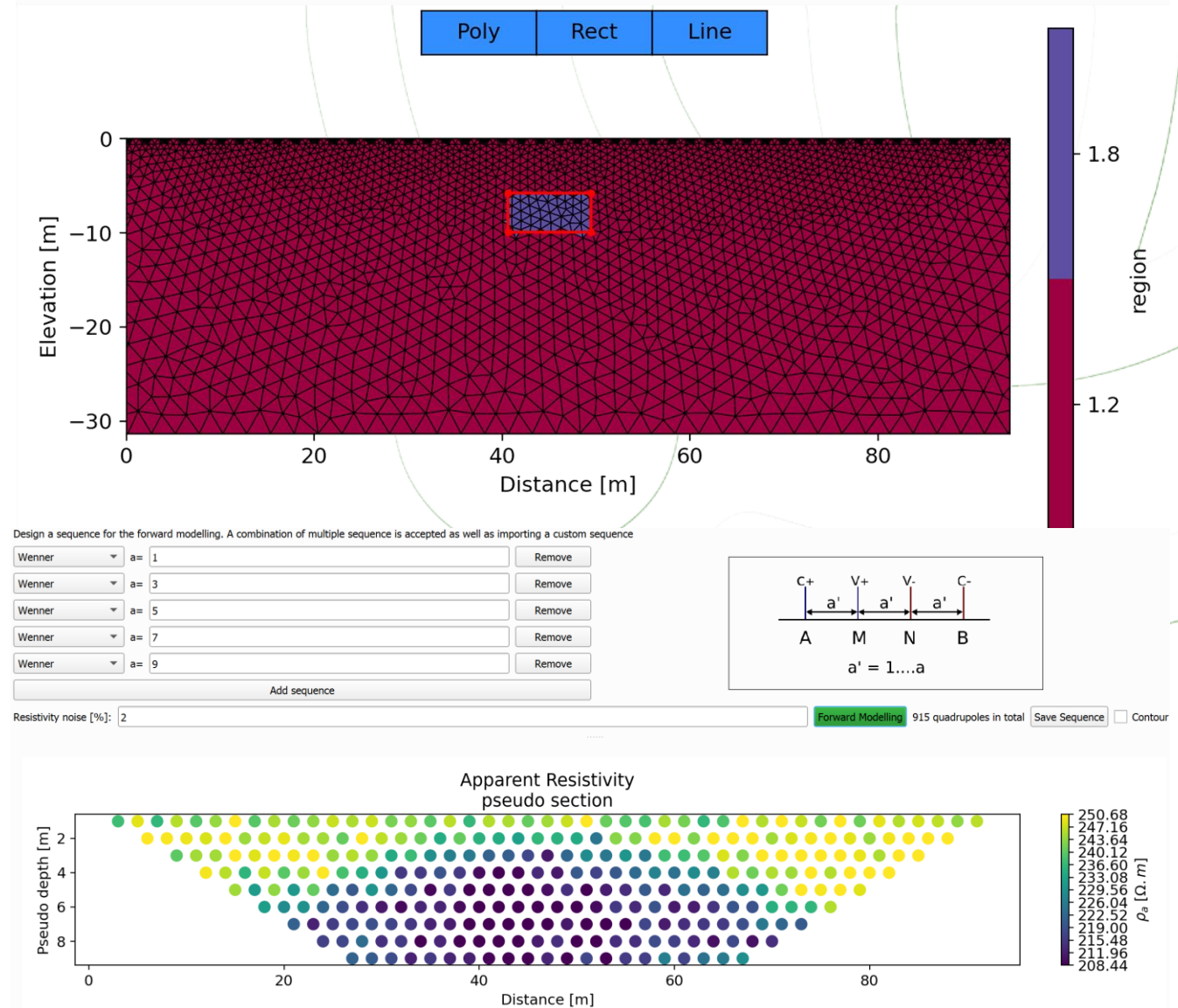


# Resistivity forward modelling and inversion

## ResIPy example

### Practical:

1. Create a forward model with 48 electrodes at 2 m spacing
2. Model a rectangular object with low resistivity ( $10 \Omega\text{m}$ ) in a resistive halfspace ( $250 \Omega\text{m}$ ). The upper edge of the anomaly should be no more than 5 m deep, and the size of the anomaly should be roughly  $10 \times 5\text{m}$
3. Create a Wenner-Measurement with  $a = 1, 3, 5, 7, 9$  and press “Forward Modelling”
4. Now you see the pseudosection
5. Go back to „Mesh“, press „Reset Mesh“ and create a new, coarser mesh with a depth of at least 20 m.
6. Under inversion settings, set  $a\_wgt = 0.001$
7. Run the inversion. When you plot the result, set the minimum and maximum resistivity values to 25 and  $150 \Omega\text{m}$
8. Repeat everything with a dipole-dipole measurement ( $a = 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, n=8$ )
9. What is the difference between the two?
10. Repeat this for the two models on the website





**Some practical considerations  
(for a happy survey...)**


# Conducting resistivity measurements

## 2D measurements



### 2D Electrical Resistivity Tomography

- Linear lines of electrodes (usually between 48 and 96)
- Stainless steel pins or plates
- Connected via multicore cables to automated resistivity meter
- **Important:** Measure electrode location (distance & elevation)



Reduce contact  
resistance to improve  
measurement quality

- Measurement system**
- Usually 10 – 250 W
  - Battery powered
  - Can have multiple measurement frequencies

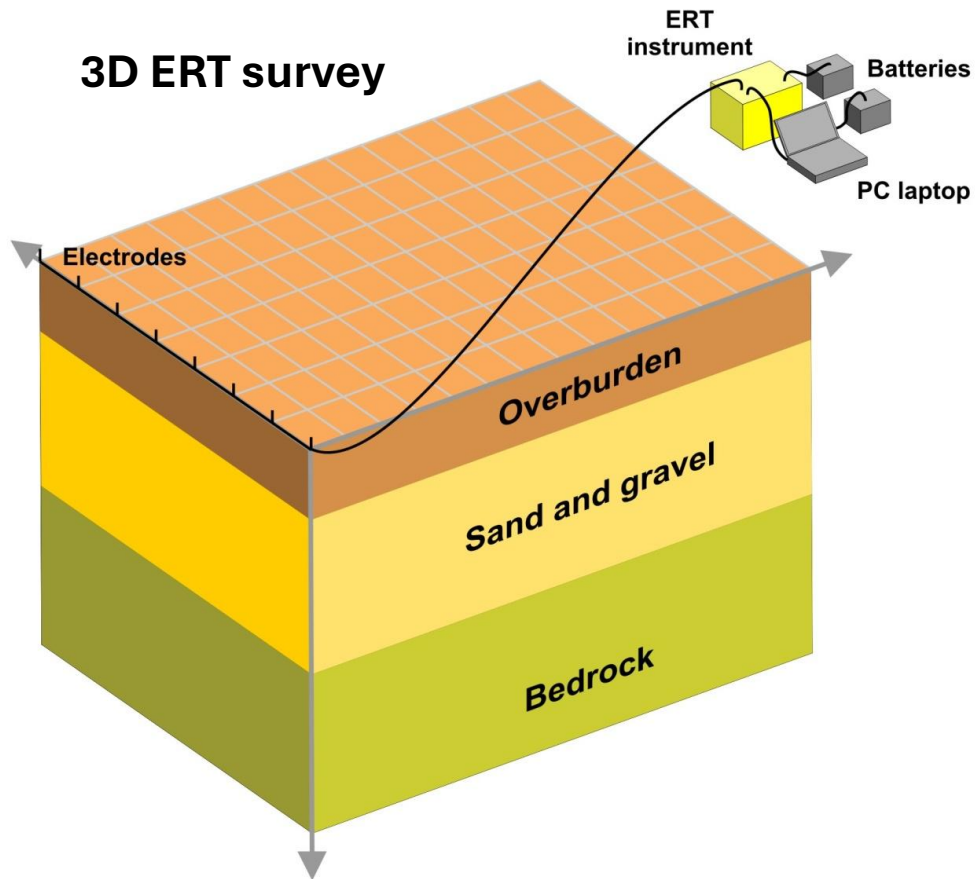
- Multi-core cable**
- Numbered takeouts
  - Direction important

**Stainless steel electrodes**

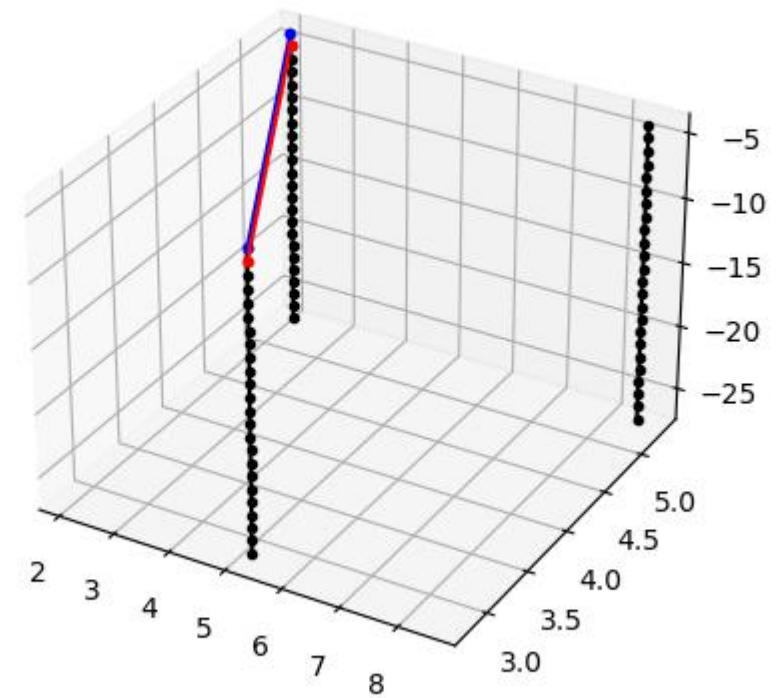
# Conducting resistivity measurements

3D and borehole measurements

## 3D ERT survey

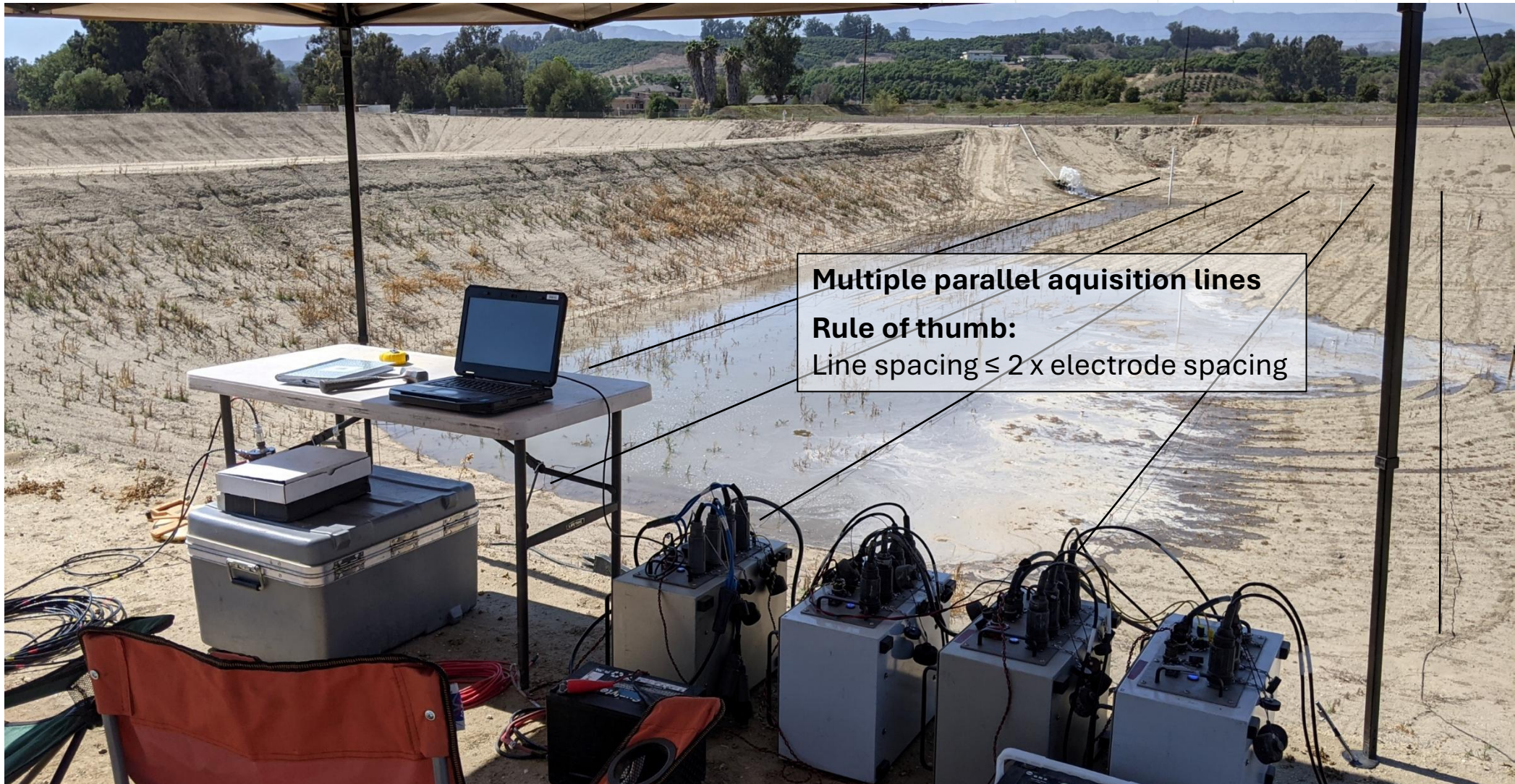


## Cross-borehole ERT survey



# Conducting resistivity measurements

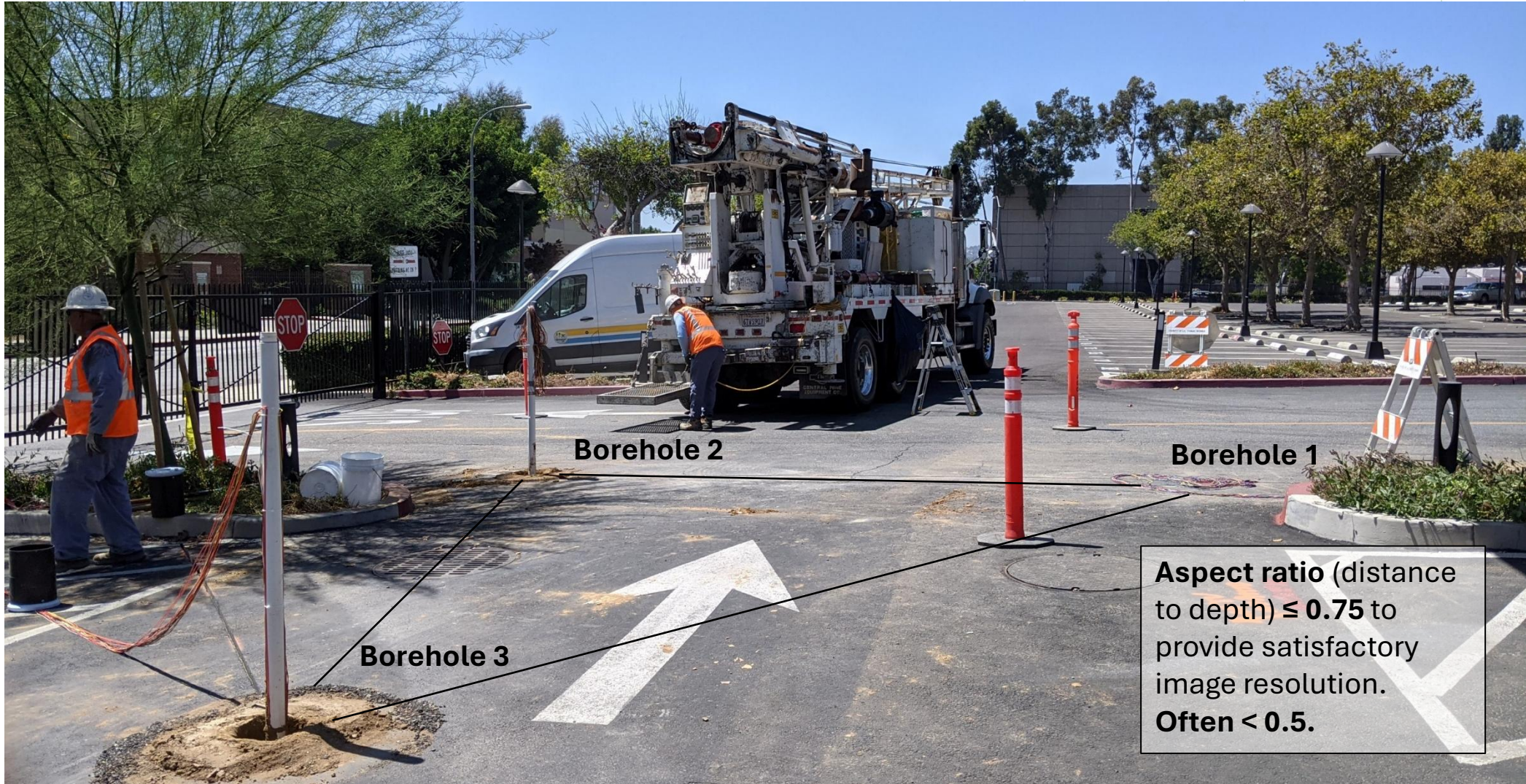
3D and borehole measurements



**Multiple parallel acquisition lines**  
**Rule of thumb:**  
Line spacing  $\leq 2 \times$  electrode spacing

# Conducting resistivity measurements

## 3D and borehole measurements



# Assessing data quality

## Measurement errors

### Measurement errors are important!

1. They provide information on the reliability/accuracy of the data
2. They define how data are weighted in the inversion

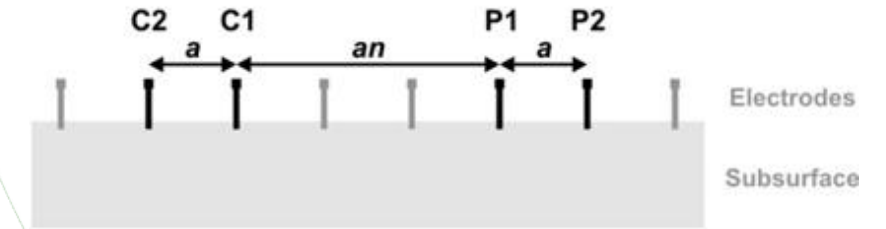
### Types of error estimates:

- Stacking errors
- Repeat measurements (same configuration measured at different points in time)
- **Reciprocal errors** (= robust error estimate)

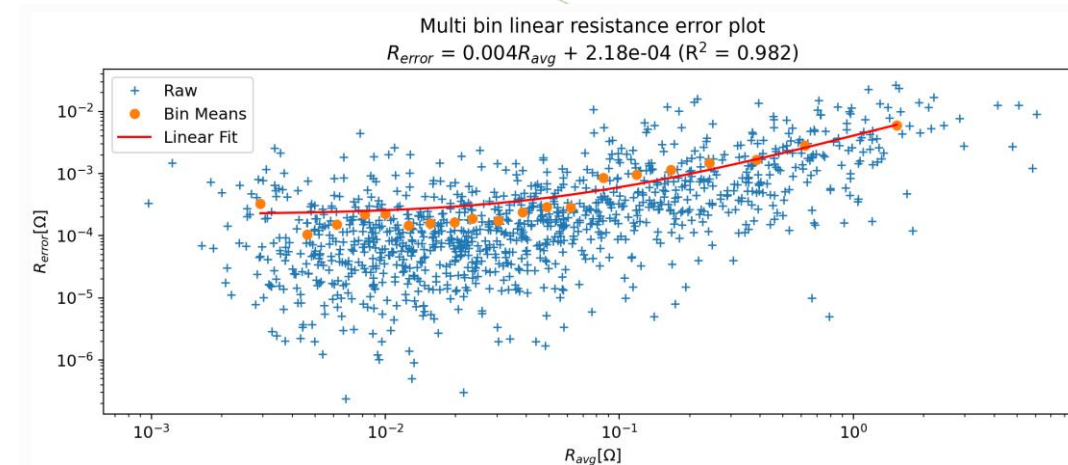
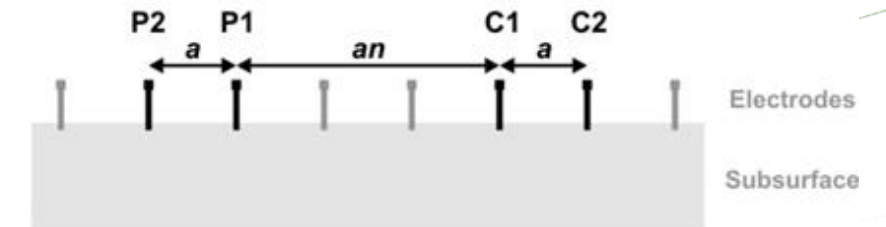
**Reciprocity theory:** Exchange of current injection and potential electrodes should, in theory, return the same measurement

Frequently used to develop a statistical representation of the measurement error – Error model

(a) NORMAL



(b) RECIPROCAL



# Pre-processing of ERT data

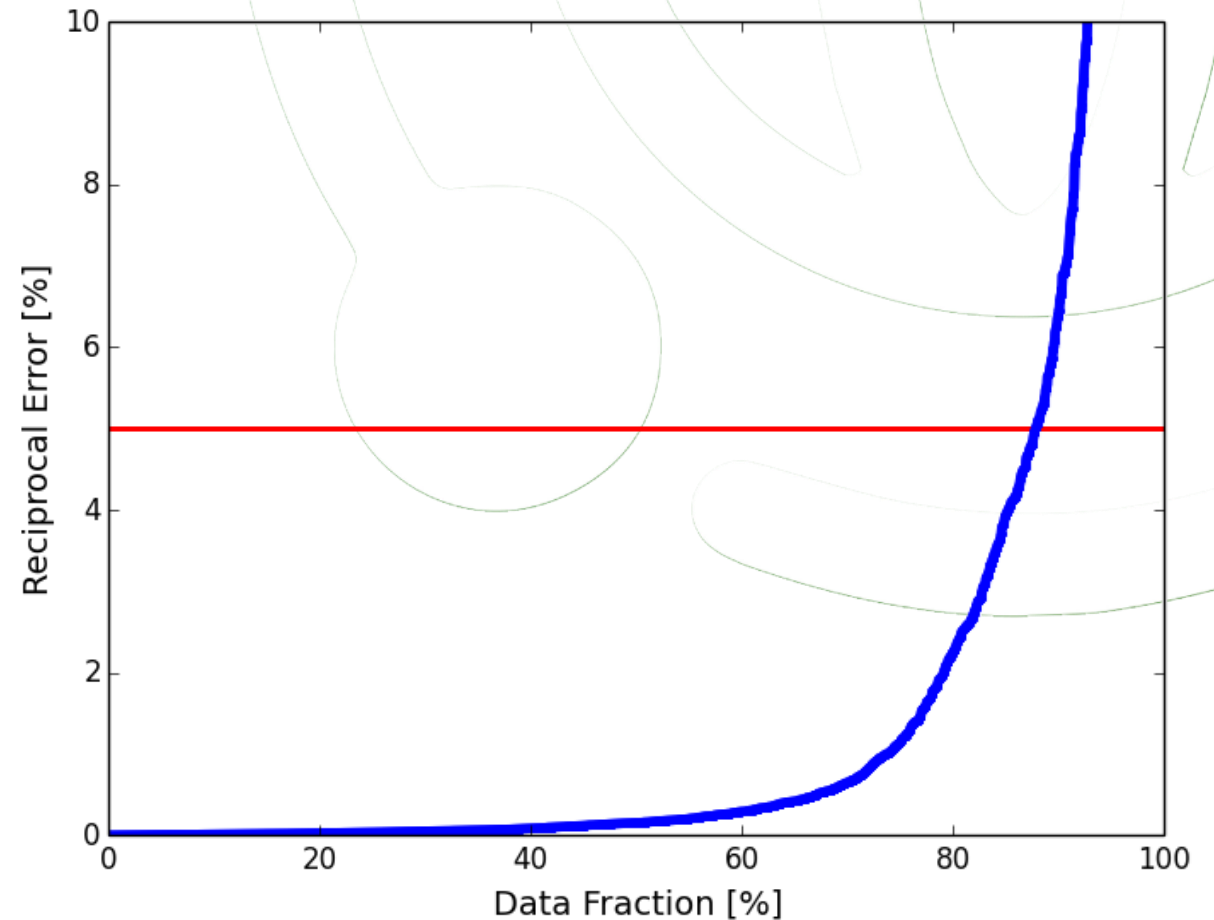
## Filtering approaches

Data filtering commonly based on reciprocal errors, with thresholds of ~ 5% - 10 %

$$e_r = 100 \cdot \frac{|R_r - R_n|}{|R_r + \bar{R}|}$$

Additional filtering may be based on:

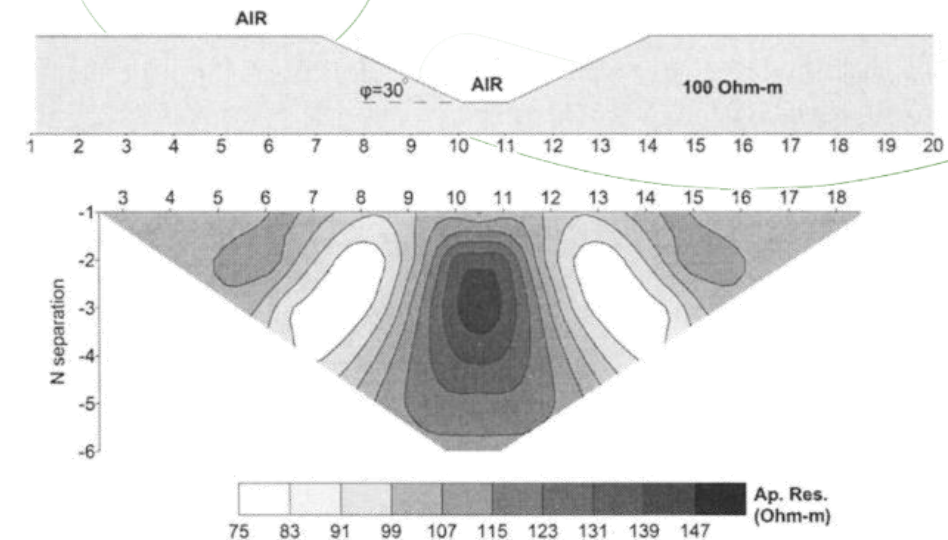
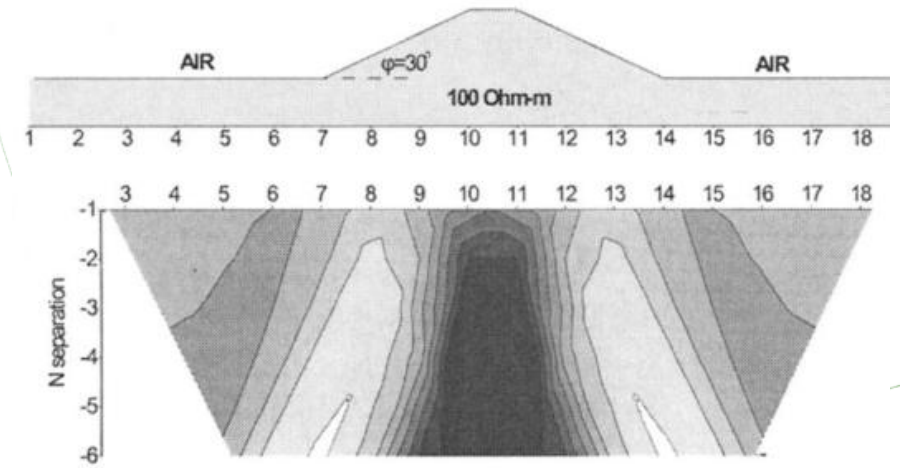
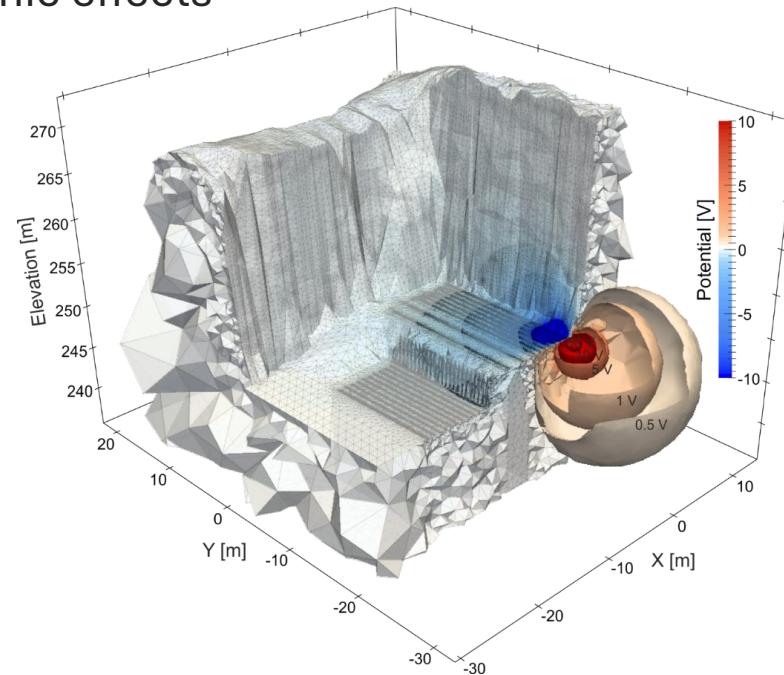
- Contact resistance
- Geometric factor
- Std of repeated measurements
- Voltage ratio
- Removal of outliers



# Topography is important!

Need to account for topography along and off measurement area

- Measured data depends not only on the subsurface resistivity distribution, but also on the electrode locations.
- Next to resistivity survey, also the topography needs to be determined
- Consider 3D topographic effects



# Not all measurement systems are equal— choose carefully



Systems vary in speed, power, and accuracy

### AGI SuperSTING R8/IP & Switchbox



8 channel system  
~ 11 measurements/minute  
Resistivity & time-domain IP  
200W  
Max. Voltage: 800V

### Geolog2000 GeoTom



1 (up to 8) channel system  
~ 10 - 25 measurements/minute  
Resistivity & frequency-domain IP  
100 W  
Max. Voltage: 500V

### Syscal Terra Switch



20 channel system  
~ 10 - 25 measurements/minute  
Resistivity & time-domain IP  
250W  
Max. Voltage: 2000V

**Max. Voltage particularly important for high contact resistance areas**

# Multichannel acquisition can speed up measurement time

Dipole-Dipole or Multiple Gradient most applicable for multichannel systems

## Example using AGI Supersting

### Wenner

Measurements: 155

Time: 16 mins

### Schlumberger

Measurements: 208

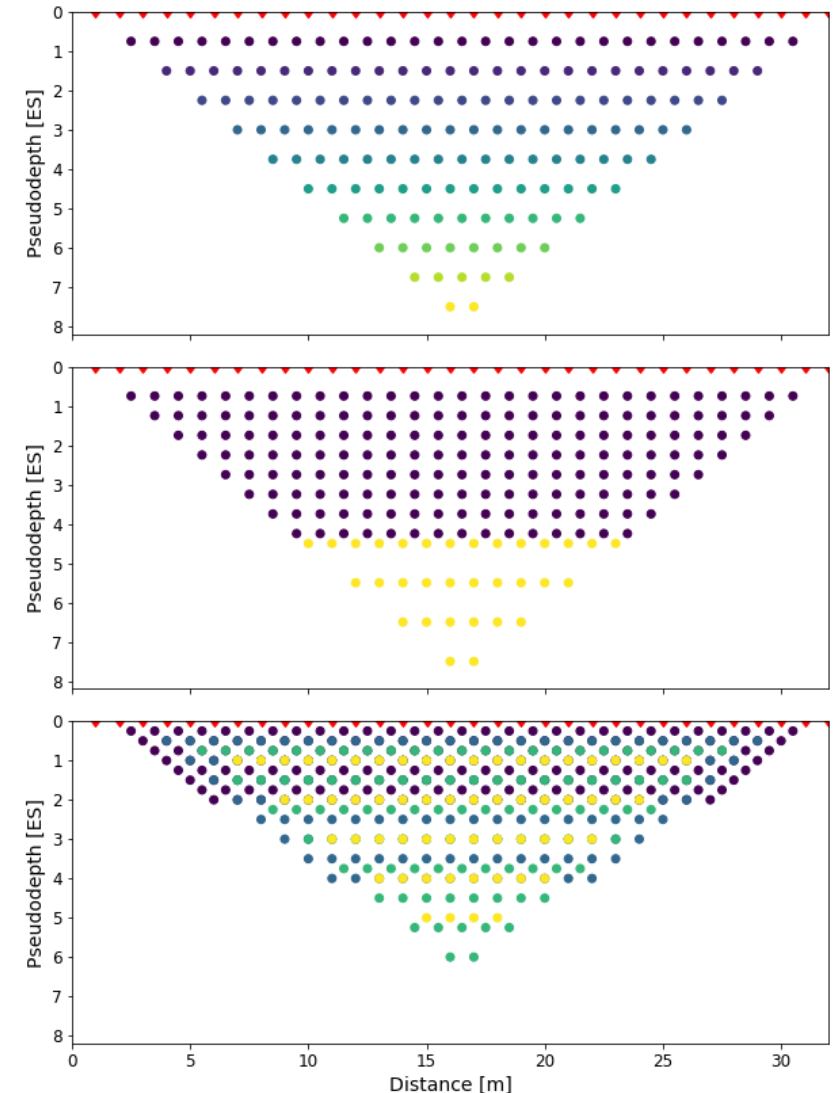
Time: 21 mins

### Dipole-Dipole

Measurements: 1108

Time: 24 mins (112 min with 1 channel)

→ Effective use of multichannel instruments

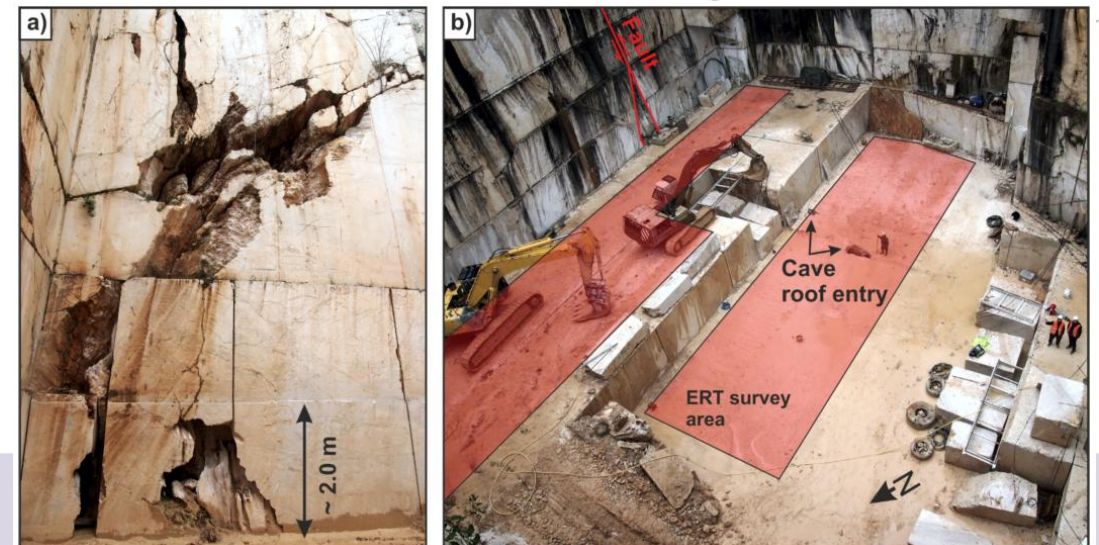
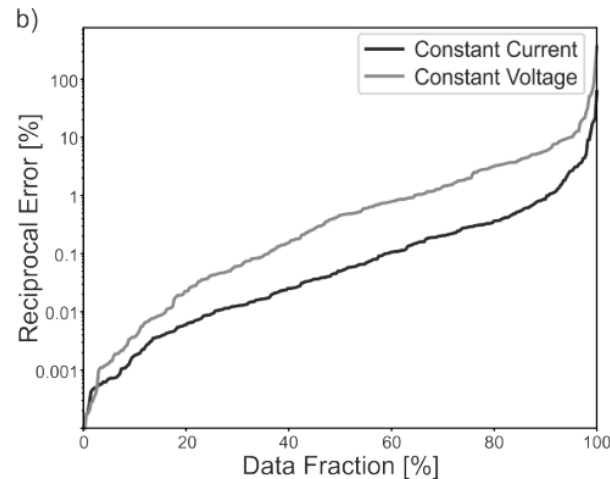
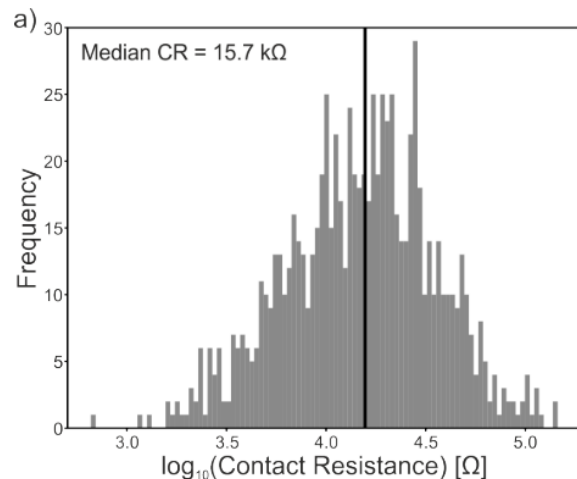
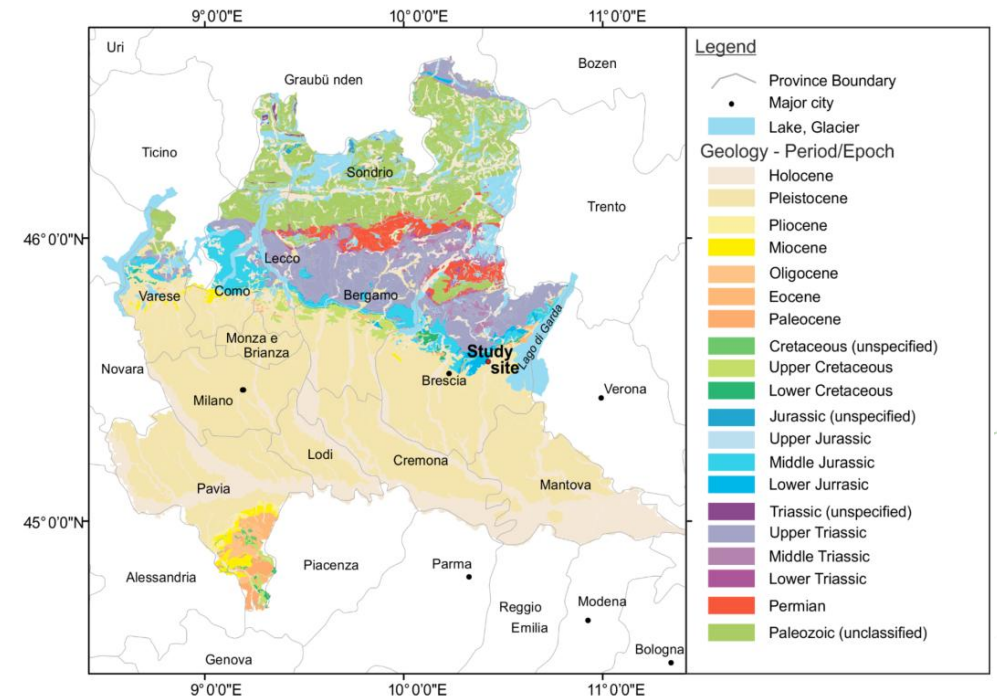


# 3D Survey Example

Geoelectrics to minimize mining risk

## Target: Estimating the quality of natural stone and potential mining hazards

- Results of 3D dipole-dipole survey, 0.75 m electrode & line spacing, > 800 electrode locations
- > 18,500 Dipole-dipole survey measurement
- Challenging survey conditions
- Use stainless steel pin and plate electrodes



# 3D Survey Example

Measurement impressions

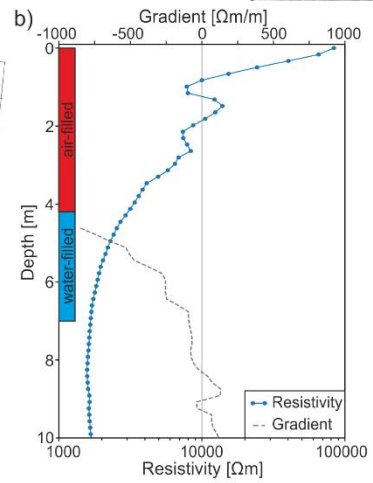
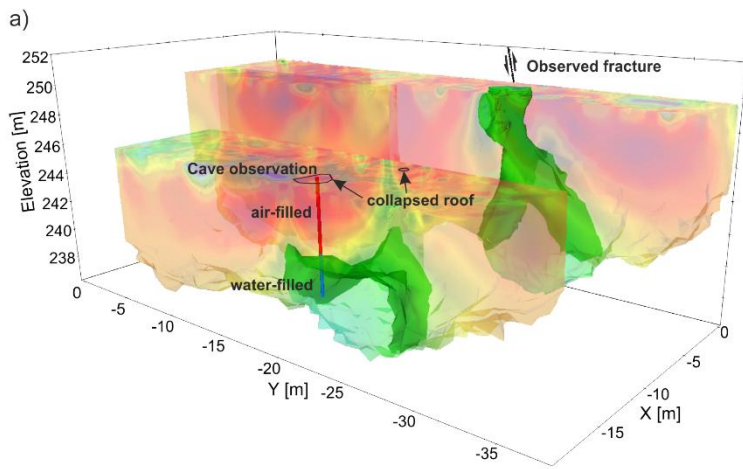
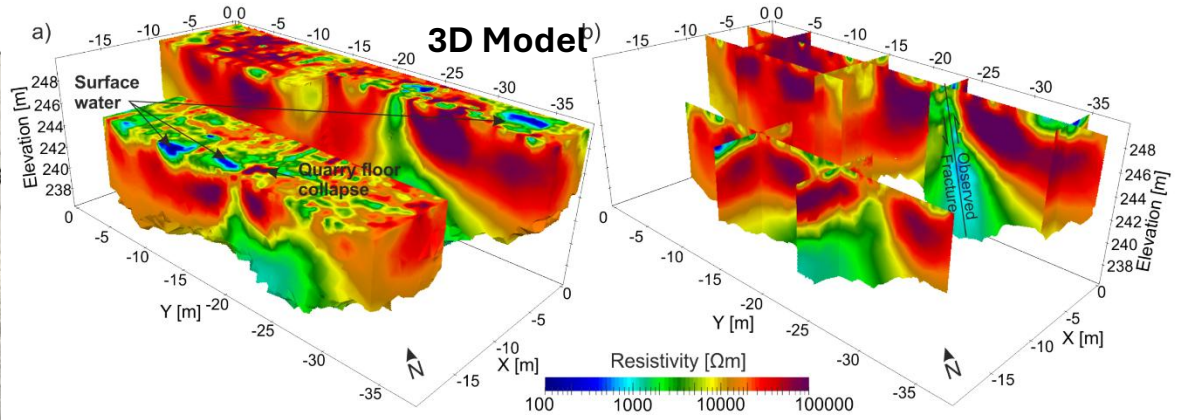


# 3D Survey Example

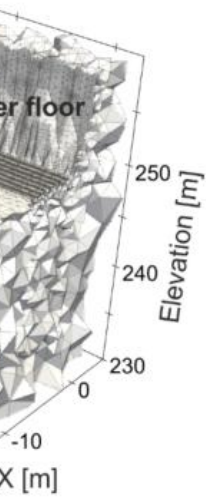
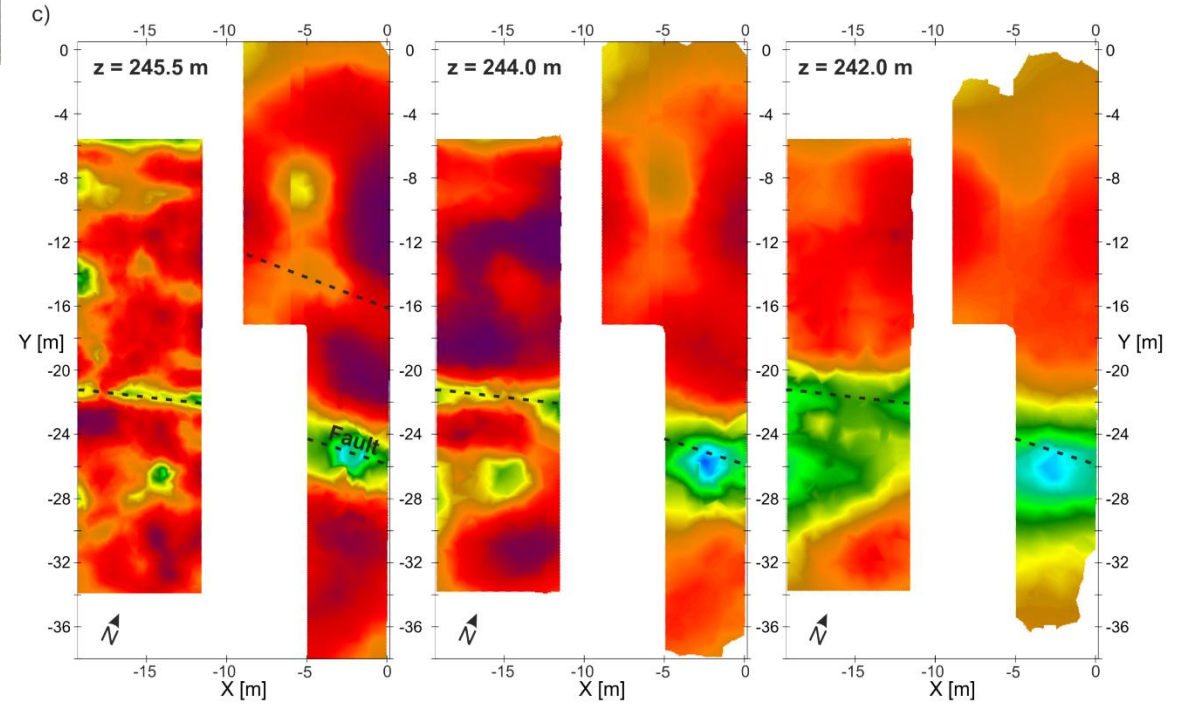
## Resulting resistivity model

**Target: Estimating the quality of natural stone and potential mining hazards**

- **Complex inversion mesh (>1.5M cells)**
- Imaging of cave and fault system
- Good agreement with site observations

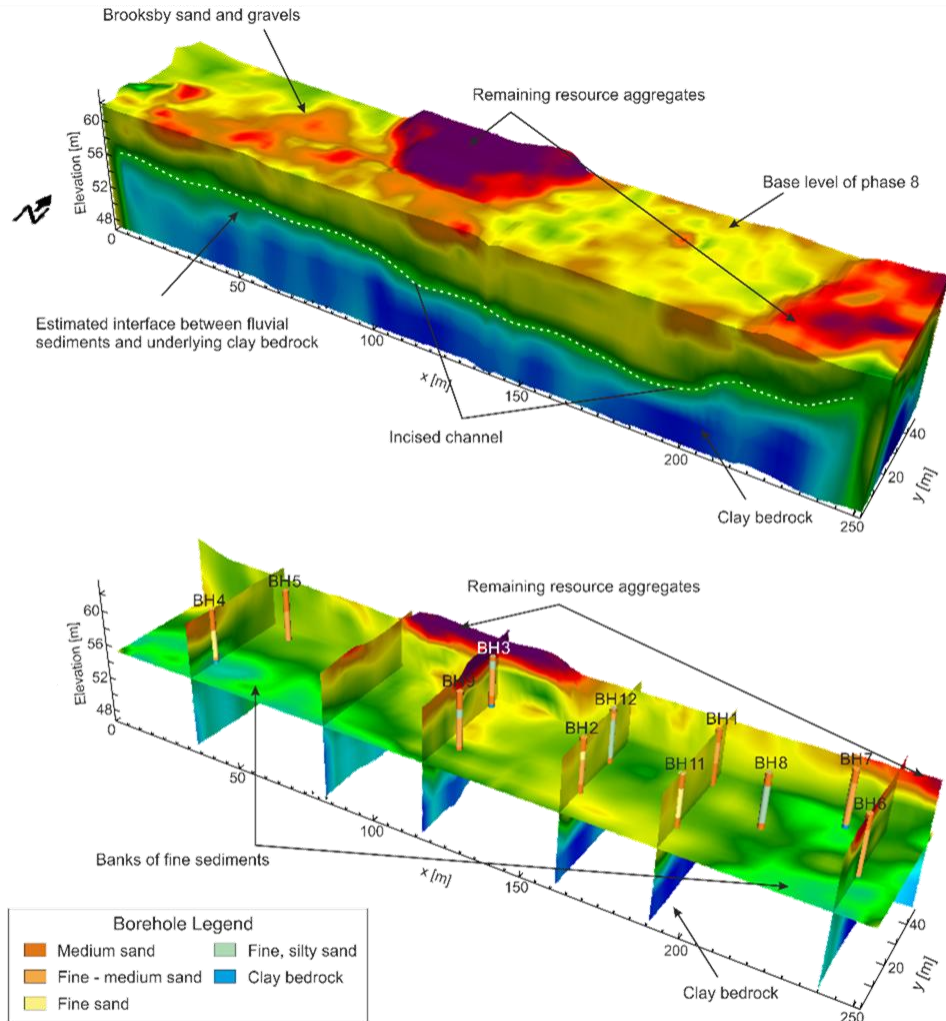


**Resistivity at observation point**



**Horizontal slices through 3D model**

# Summary Resistivity Measurements



## What you should have learned

1. We measure the electrical resistivity of the ground
  - Inject a current  $\rightarrow$  measure the resulting potential
  - The resistance measurement depends on the location of the electrodes
  - Apparent resistivity assumes a homogeneous ground
2. Imaging uses modelling and inversion to create an image of the ground
  - Blurry, smooth boundaries
3. Interpreting the resistivity without additional information can be challenging



# Airborne Exploration Electromagnetic Methods

**IR000032 – ITINERIS, Italian Integrated Environmental Research Infrastructures System**  
(D.D. n. 130/2022 - CUP B53C22002150006) Funded by EU - Next Generation EU PNRR-  
Mission 4 “Education and Research” - Component 2: “From research to business” - Investment  
3.1: “Fund for the realisation of an integrated system of research and innovation infrastructures”



# Electromagnetic methods

## Brief overview

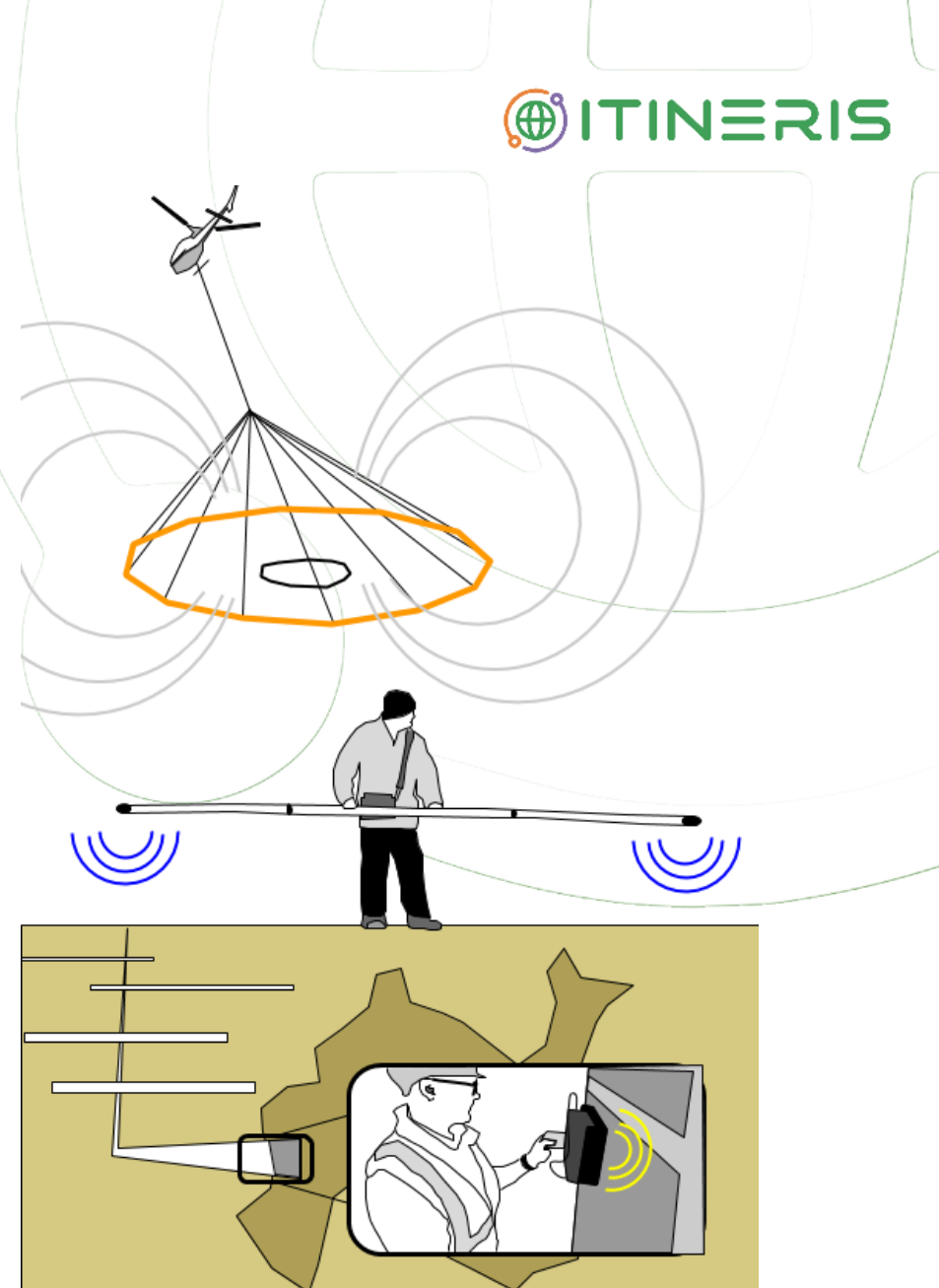
EM methods have played an important role in mineral exploration since at least the early 1960s.

A wide range of EM systems have been designed over the years, varying in size, source functions and receiver-transmitter configurations.

The great variety of surveys is reflective of the scalability EM methods

EM data can be acquired at the

- Centimeter scale (mine tunnels, structures)
- Meter scale (ground survey)
- Kilometers (airborne, towed & water borne)



# Electromagnetic methods

## Brief overview

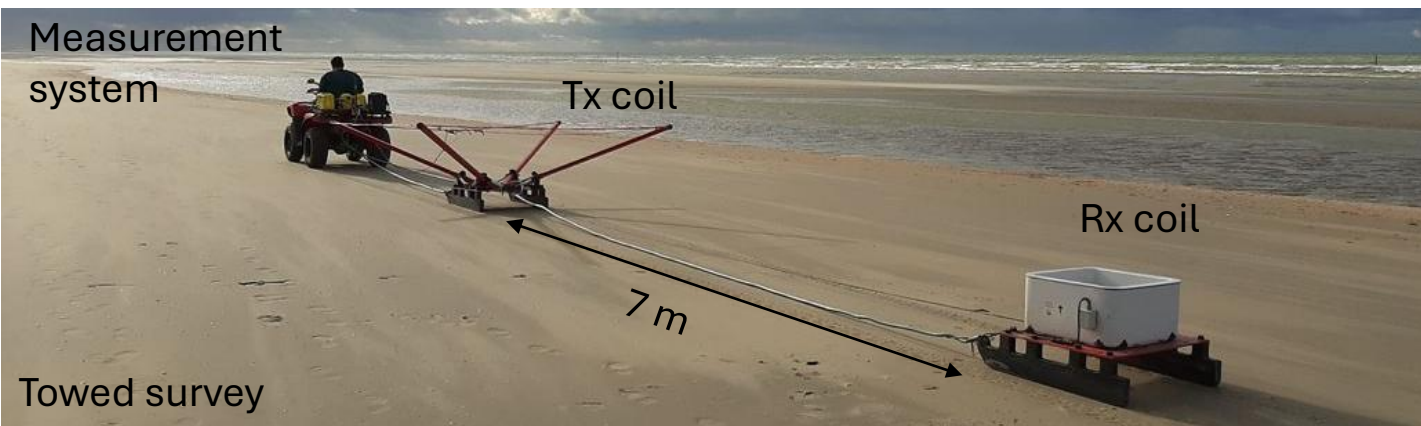
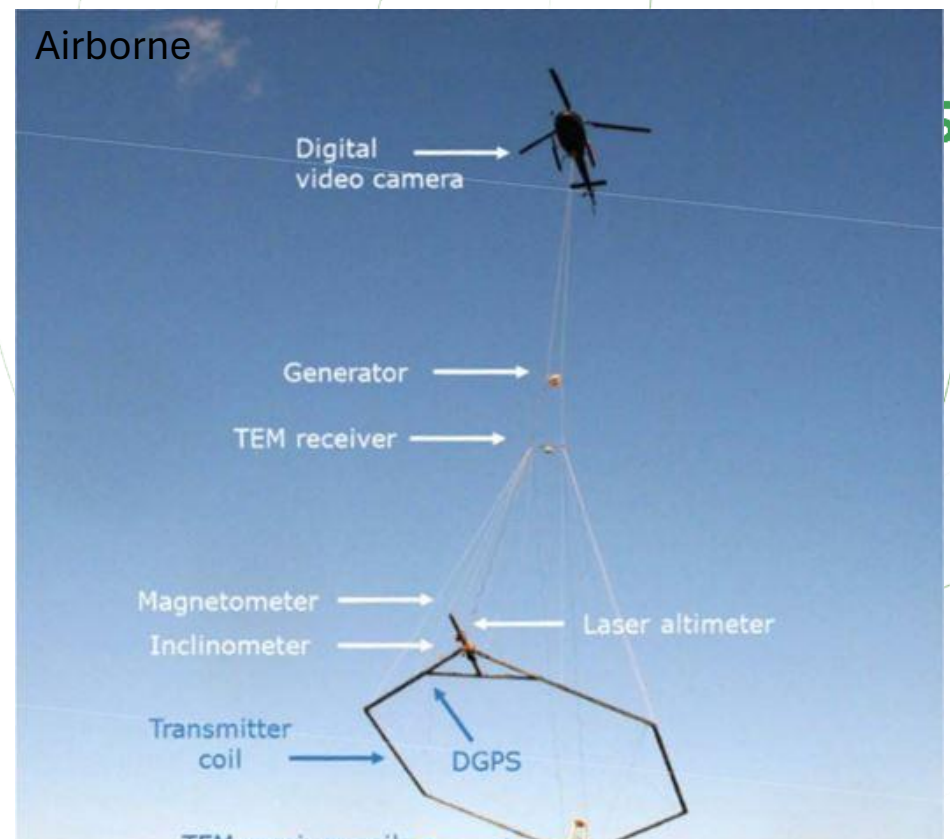
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EM data can be acquired at the

- Centimeter scale (mine tunnels, structures)
- Meter scale (ground survey)
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# Electromagnetic surveys

## Measurement principle

For geophysical applications, frequencies of the primary alternating field are usually less than a few thousands Hz

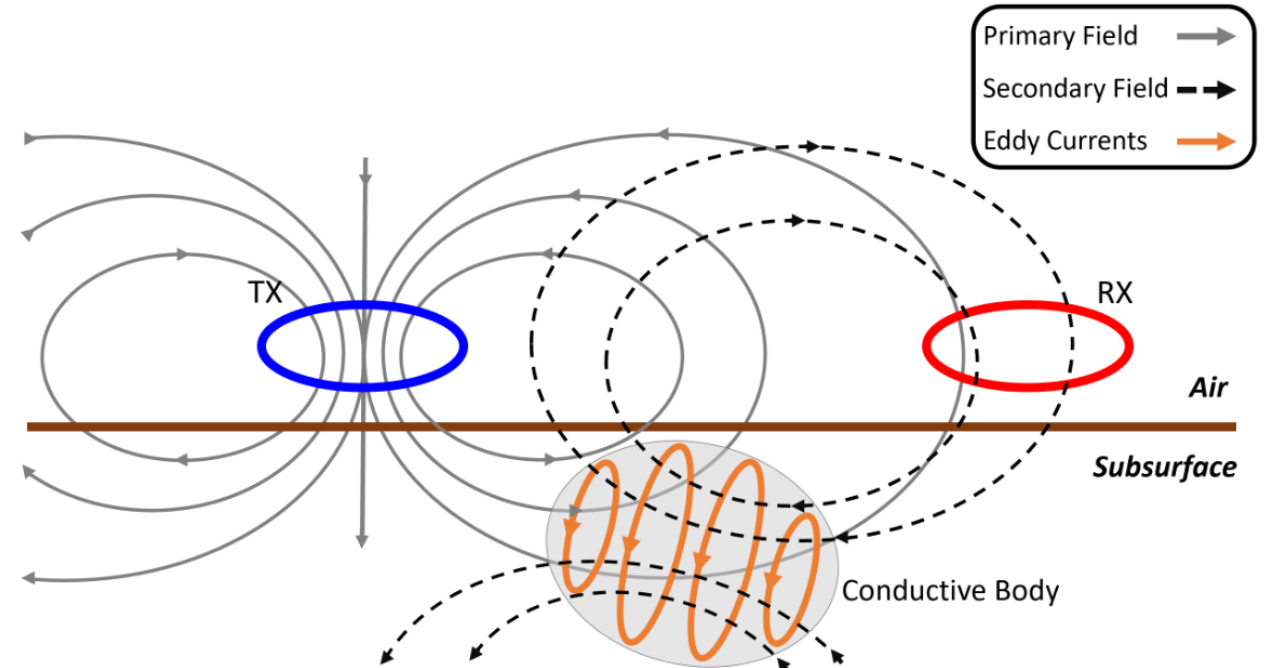
- Wavelength primary field: 10 – 100 km
  - Typical source-receiver distance: 1 – 100+ m
- Propagation of primary wave and associated wave attenuation can be neglected

A transmitter coil is used to generate a primary EM field that propagates above and below ground

If a conductive body is present in the ground, the magnetic component of the primary EM field is inducing eddy currents within the conductor

These eddy currents generate their own secondary EM field

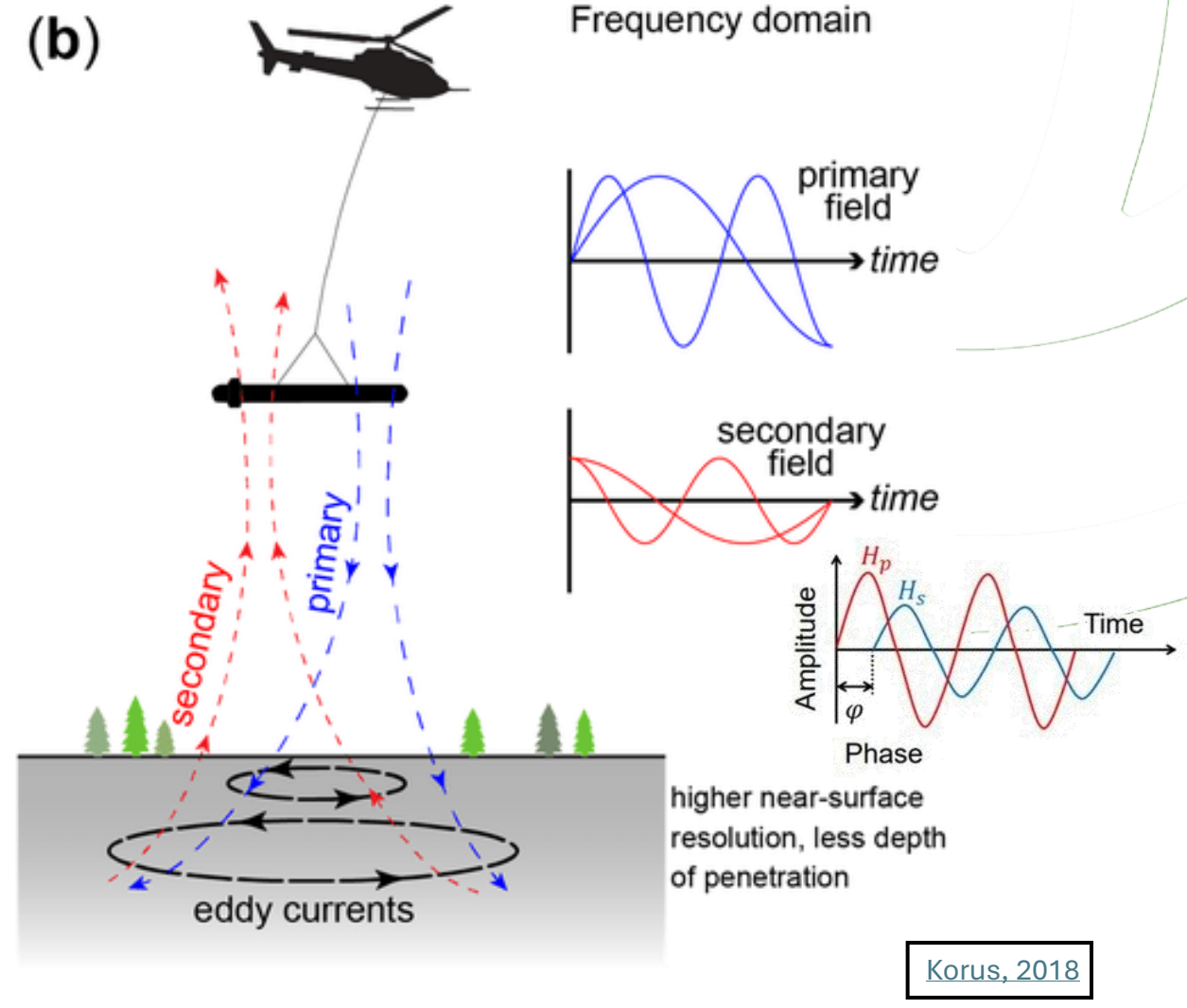
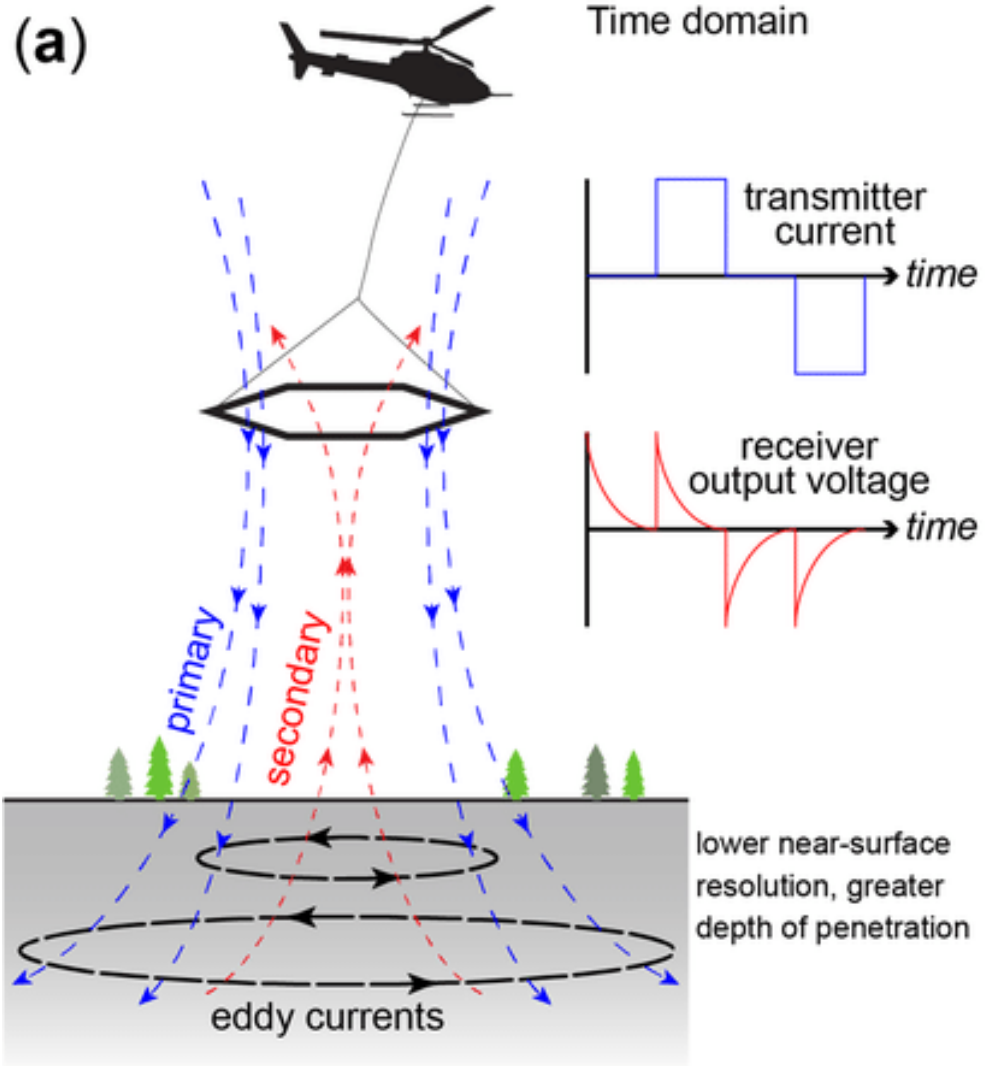
The receiver detects a combined response of the primary and secondary EM fields



[Wilson et al., 2022](#)

# Frequency and time-domain electromagnetics

The two main methods for performing electromagnetic measurements



Korus, 2018

# Electromagnetic measurements

## Propagation of EM fields – Time-domain

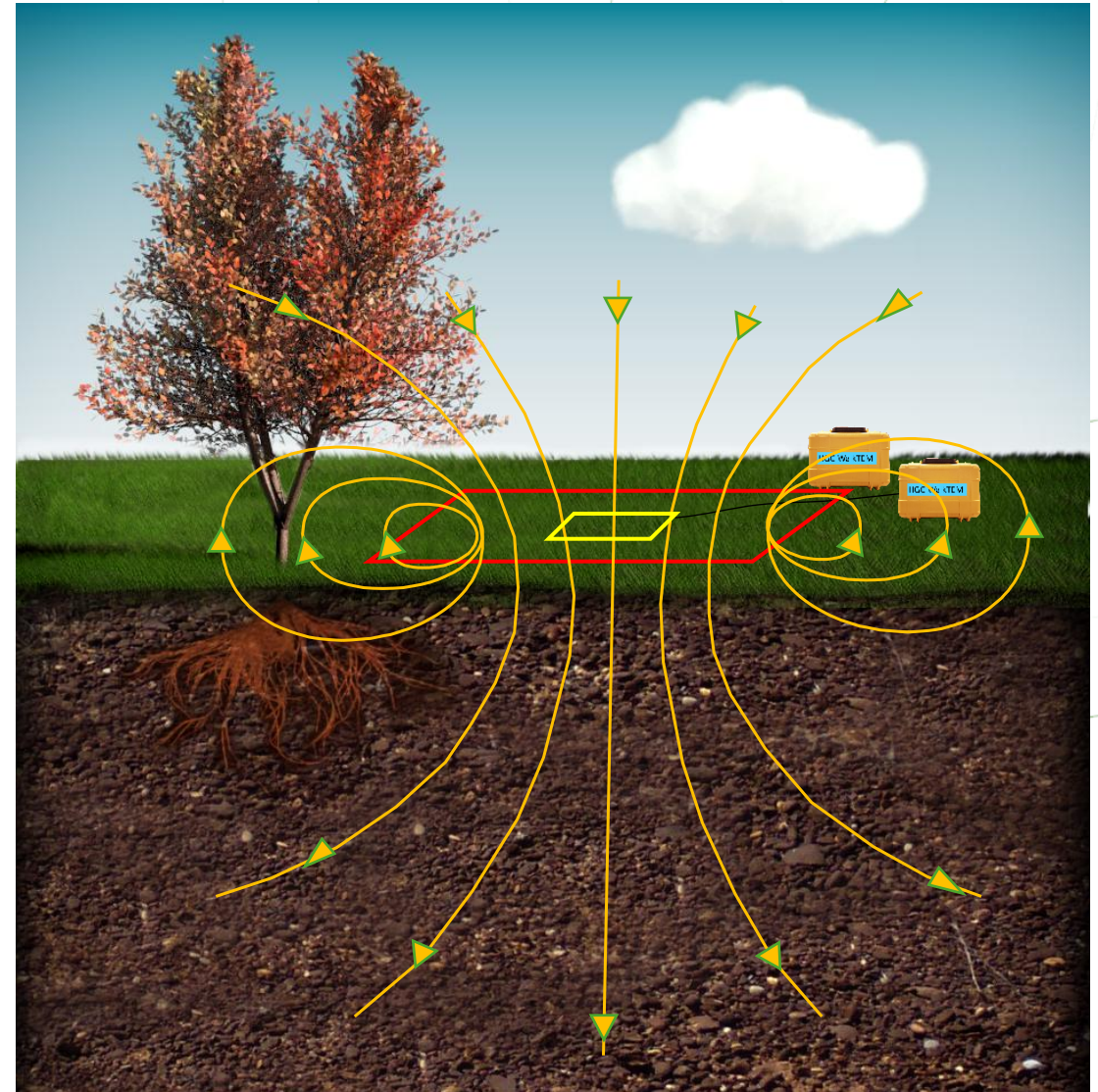
- Transmitter (Tx) and receiver (Rx)



# Electromagnetic measurements

## Propagation of EM fields – Time-domain

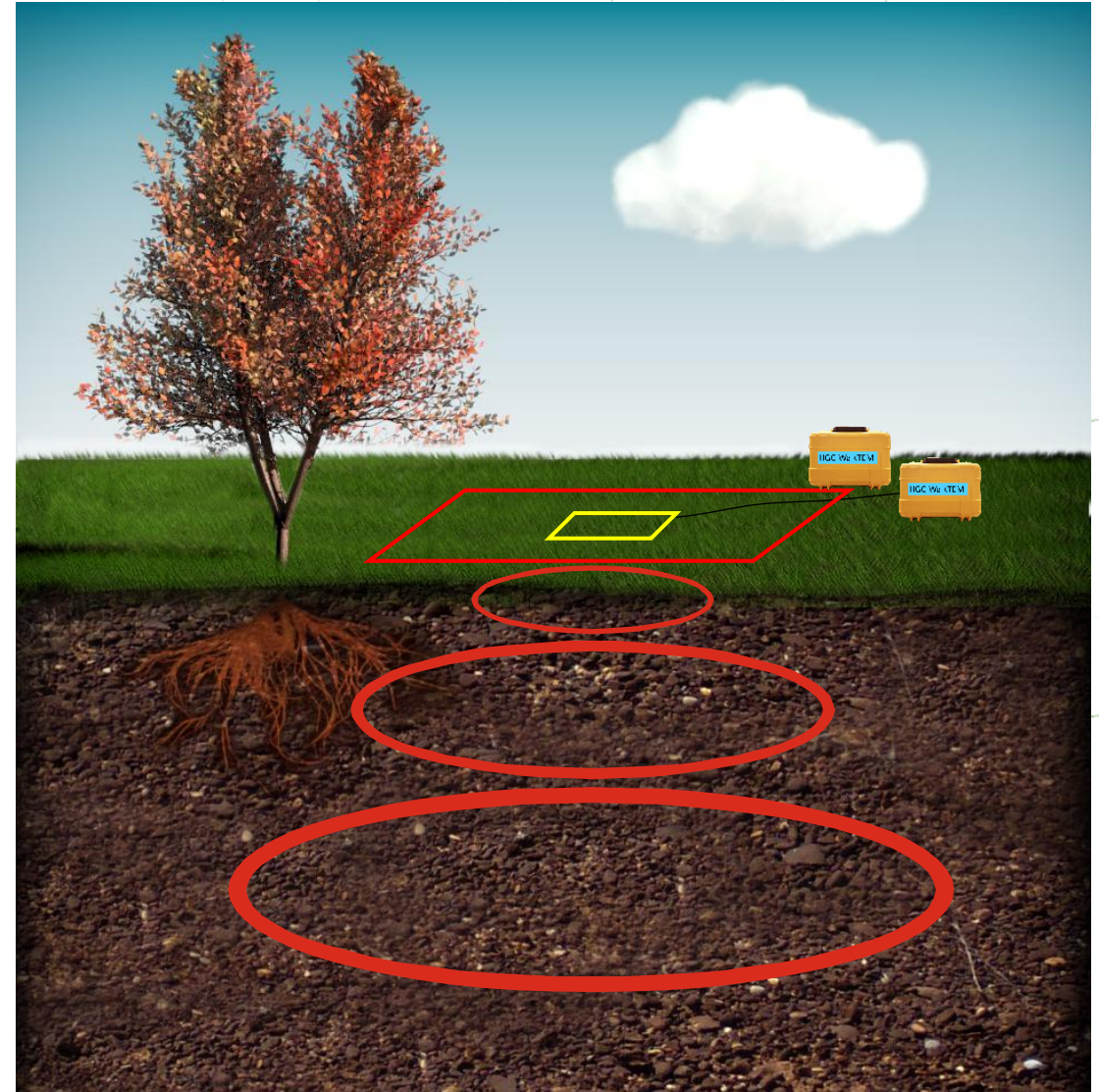
- Transmitter (Tx) and receiver (Rx)
- Phase 1 : Transmit
  - Steady current is transmitted in Tx-loop → primary magnetic field



# Electromagnetic measurements

## Propagation of EM fields – Time-domain

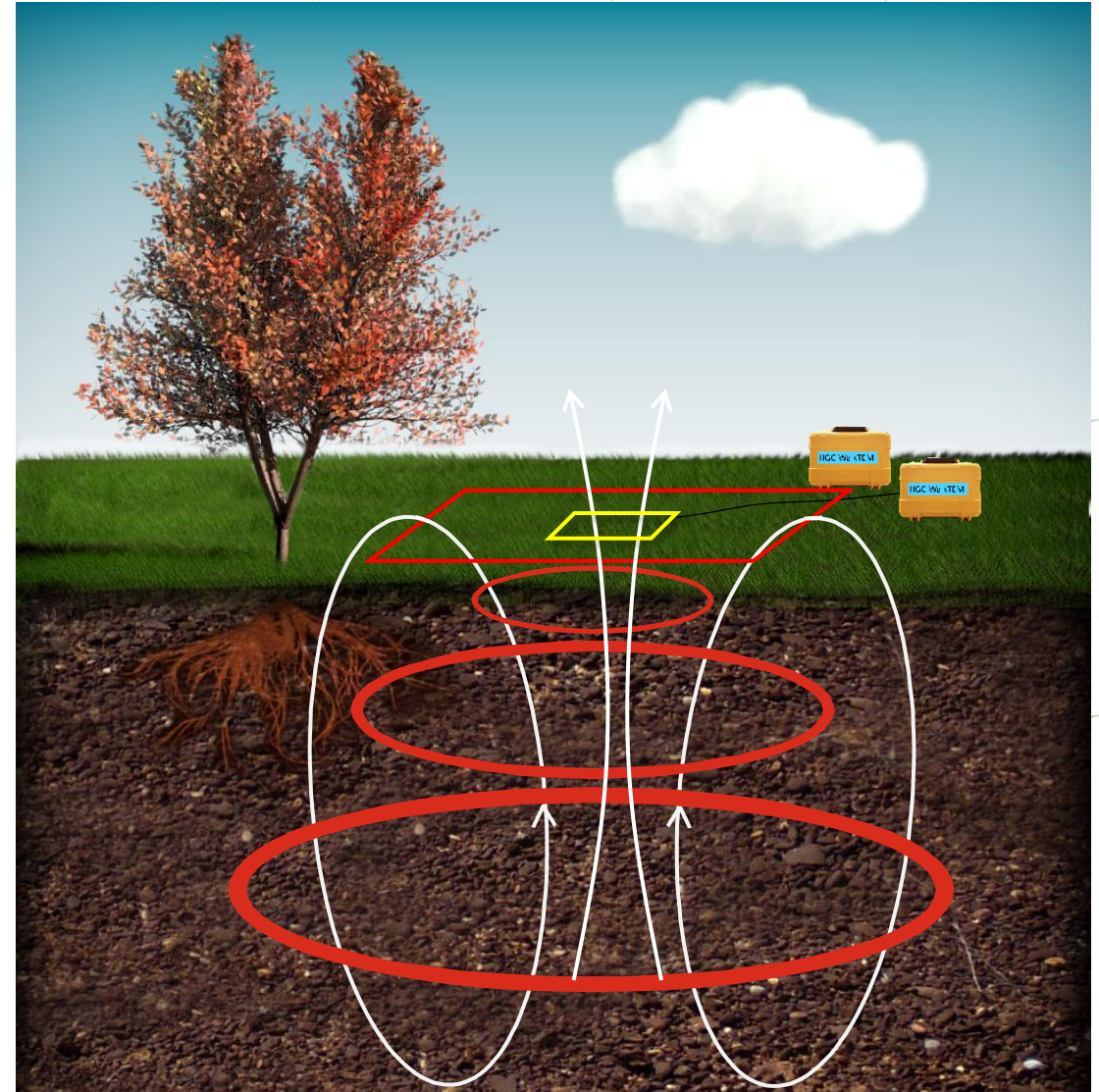
- Transmitter (Tx) and receiver (Rx)
- Phase 1 : Transmit
  - Steady current is transmitted in Tx-loop  $\rightarrow$  primary magnetic field
- Phase 2 : Transmitter shut-off
  - Current is shut-off  $\rightarrow$  induce inductive eddy currents in the subsurface



# Electromagnetic measurements

## Propagation of EM fields – Time-domain

- Transmitter (Tx) and receiver (Rx)
- Phase 1 : Transmit
  - Steady current is transmitted in Tx-loop → primary magnetic field
- Phase 2 : Transmitter shut-off
  - Current is shut-off → induce inductive eddy currents in the subsurface
- Phase 3 : Receive
  - Secondary magnetic field → induced in the receiver coil



# Difference between ERT and EM methods

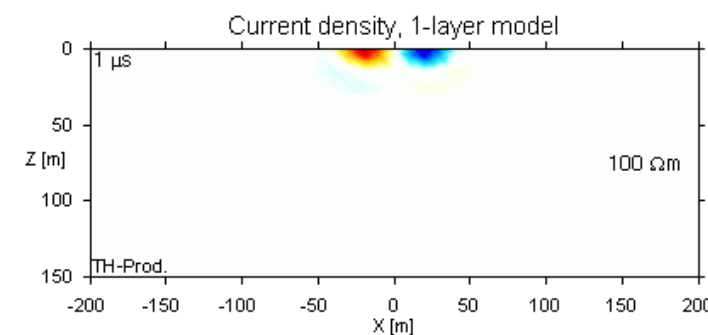
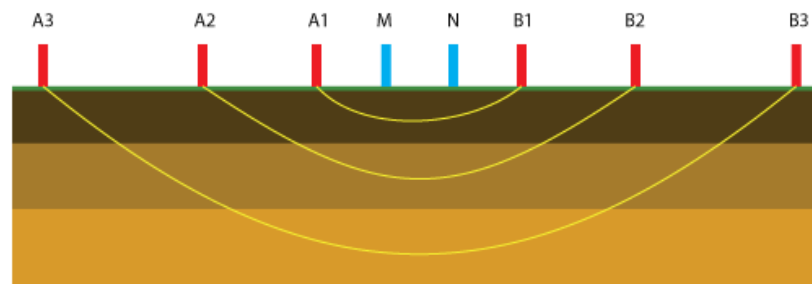
## Practical consideration

- No direct current injection into the ground (i.e., inductive versus galvanic)
- Measure voltages in receive coil, not voltage difference between two electrodes
- Practical: Use loops/coils of wire instead of long cables/electrodes
- 1 TEM (sometimes also FDEM) measurement gives full depth profile using a single coil layout
- VES requires many electrode separations to encode depth information

Galvanic coupling



Inductive coupling



# Time-domain electromagnetics

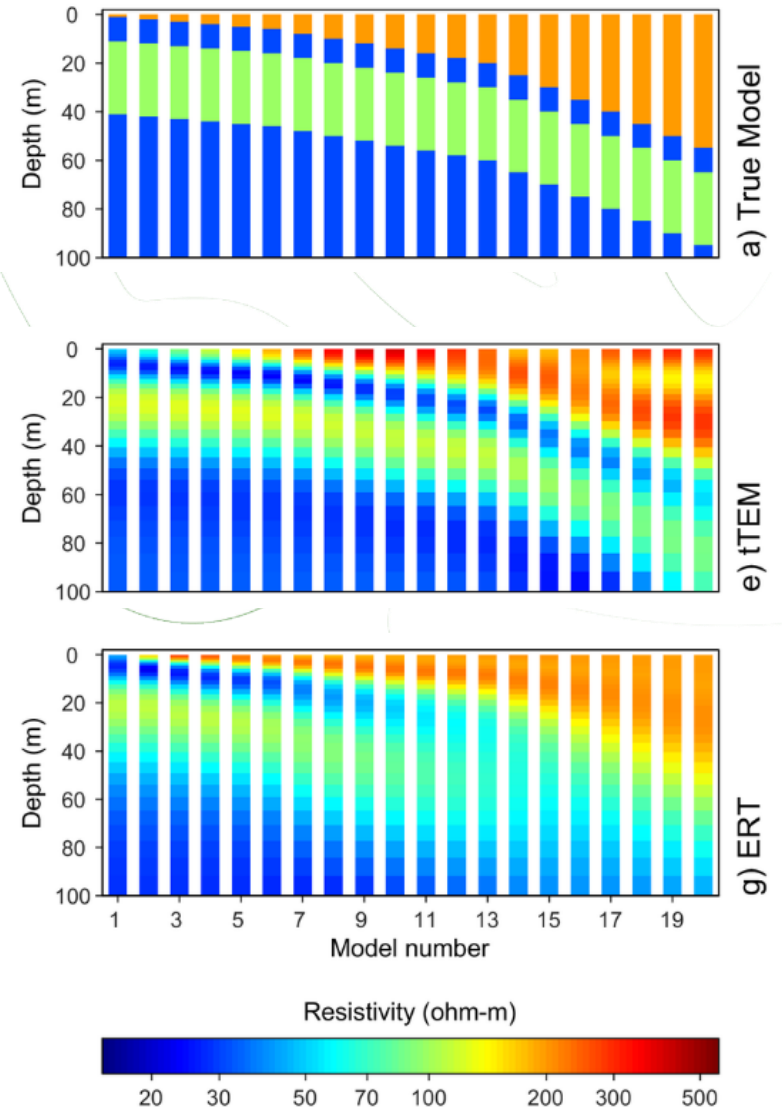
## Sensitivity to resistors and conductors

- EM methods (TEM & FDEM) are sensitive to conductors (due to eddy currents creating secondary field)
- ERT directly measures the resistivity of the ground -> higher sensitivity to resistors

### EM methods are more effective for:

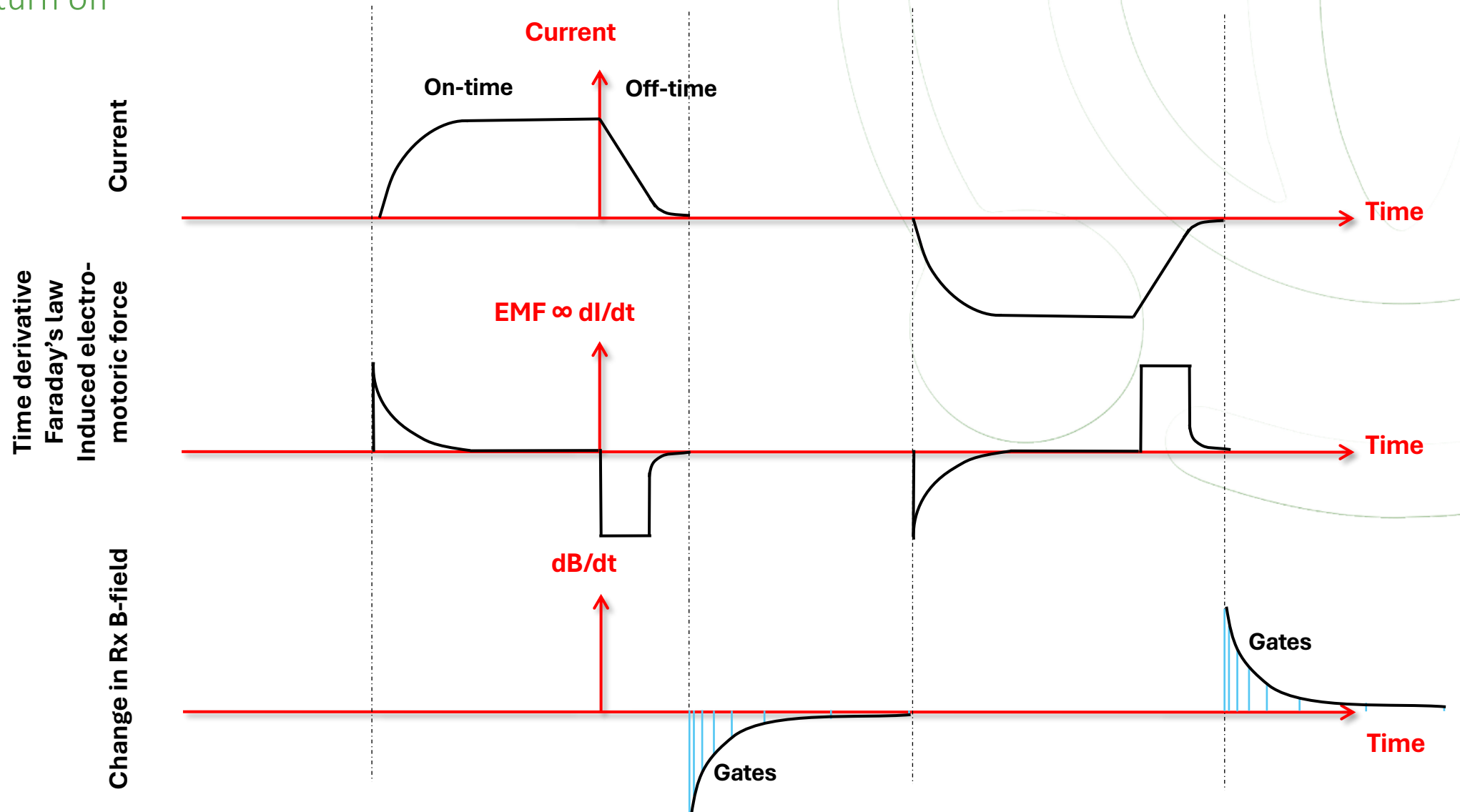
- Mapping groundwater
- Detection of metallic objects
- Investigating areas with high salinity

However, long-term monitoring using EM methods still challenging (sensitivity to coil orientation, height above the ground, system calibration, etc.)



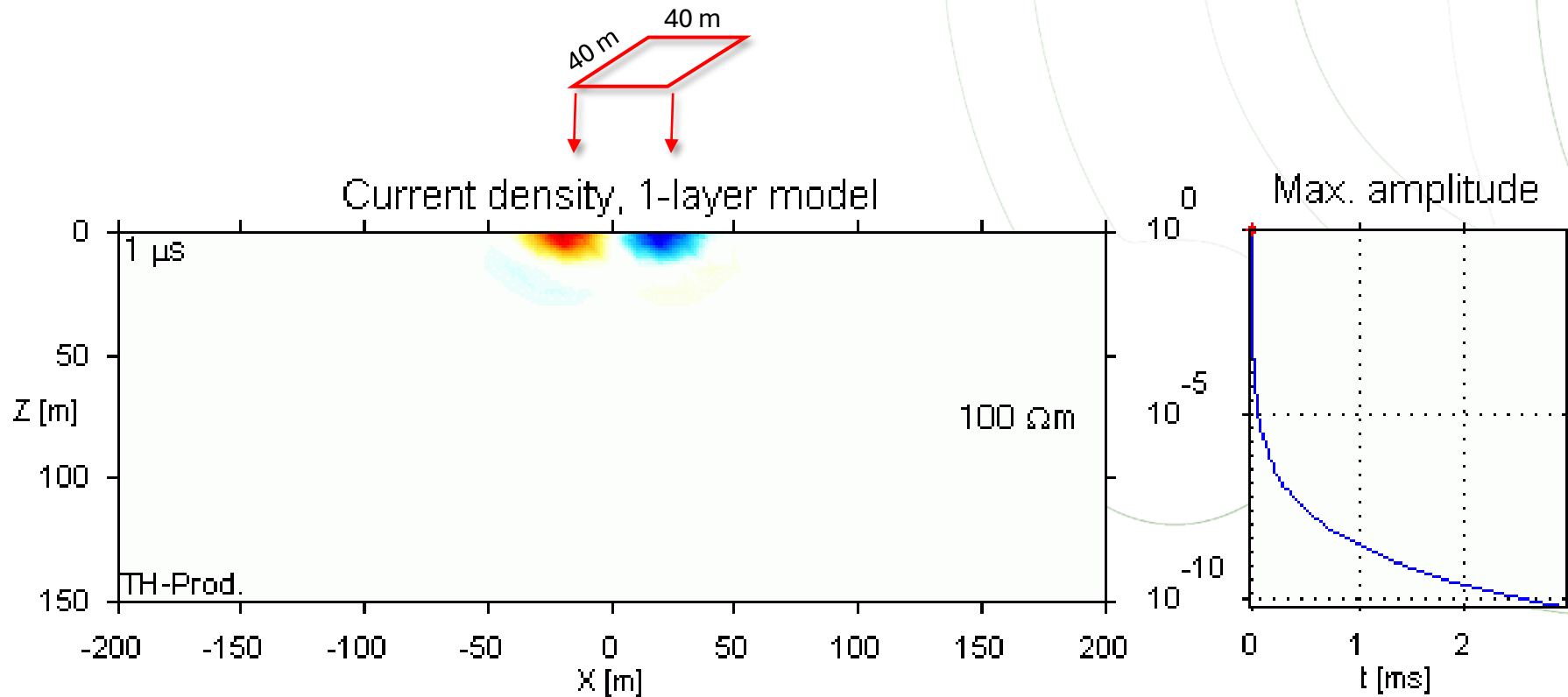
# Electromagnetic surveys

Turn on and turn off



# Current diffusion in the ground

100  $\Omega\text{m}$  halfspace

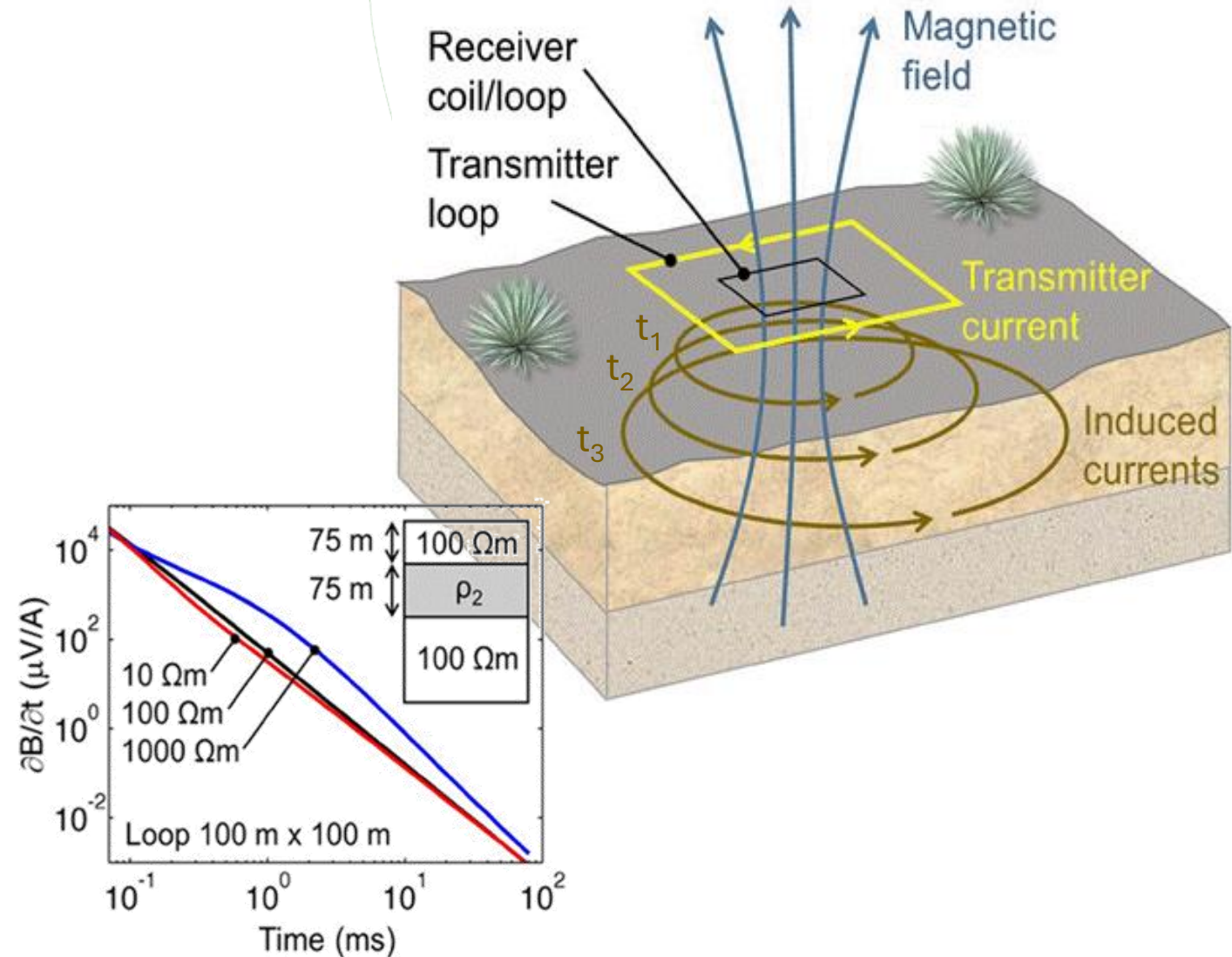


Circulating current

# Current diffusion in the ground

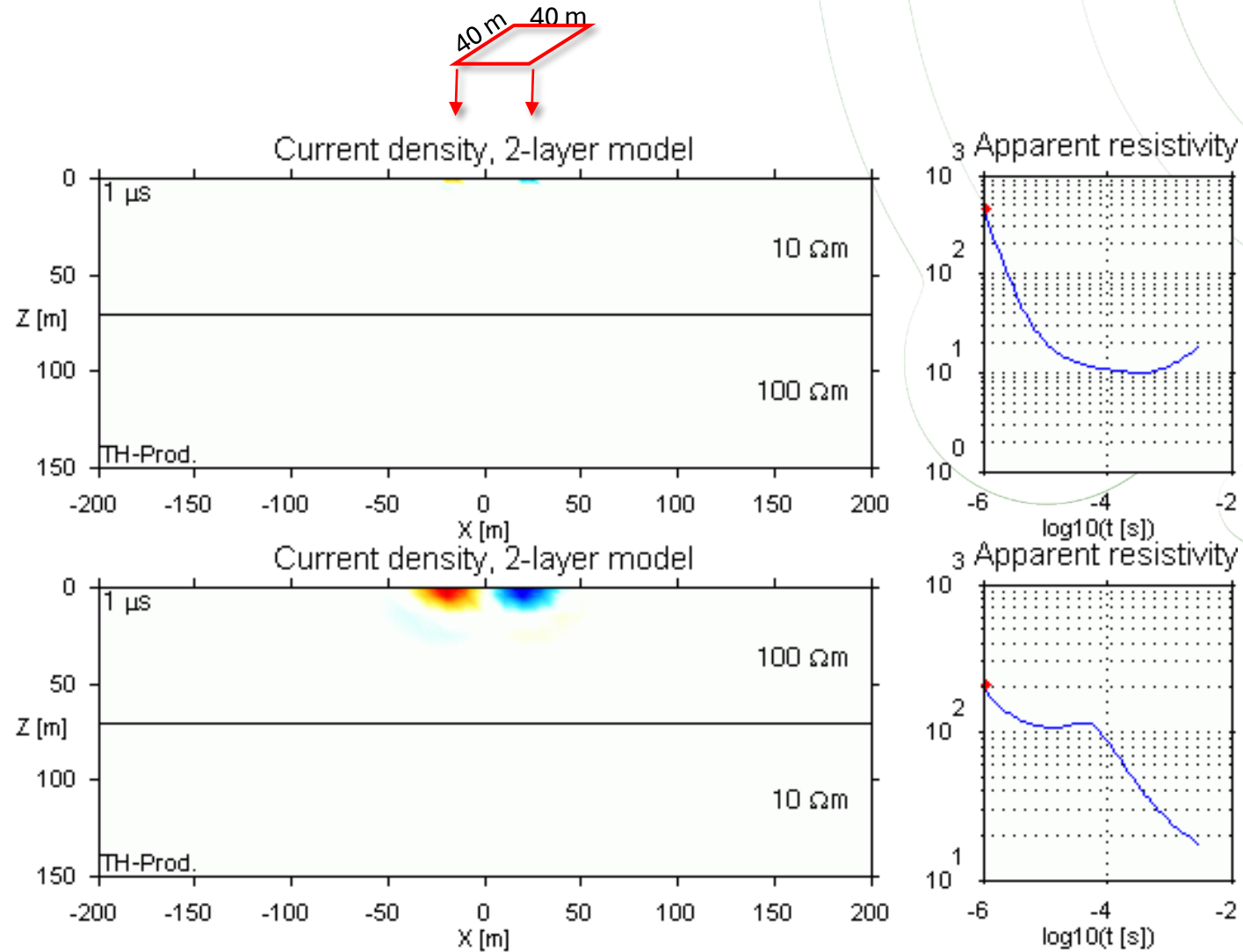
## General observations

- Currents migrate downwards and outwards from the transmitter loop after turnoff
- Currents are initially concentrated at shallow depths
- Currents migrate to greater depths at larger times
- Voltages measured at different times after turn-off give information about different depths



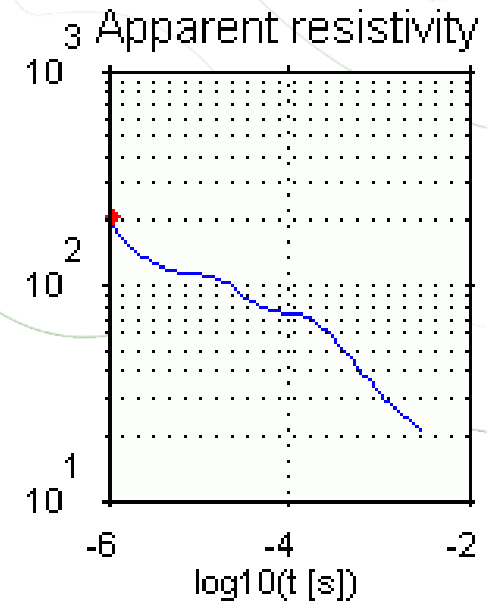
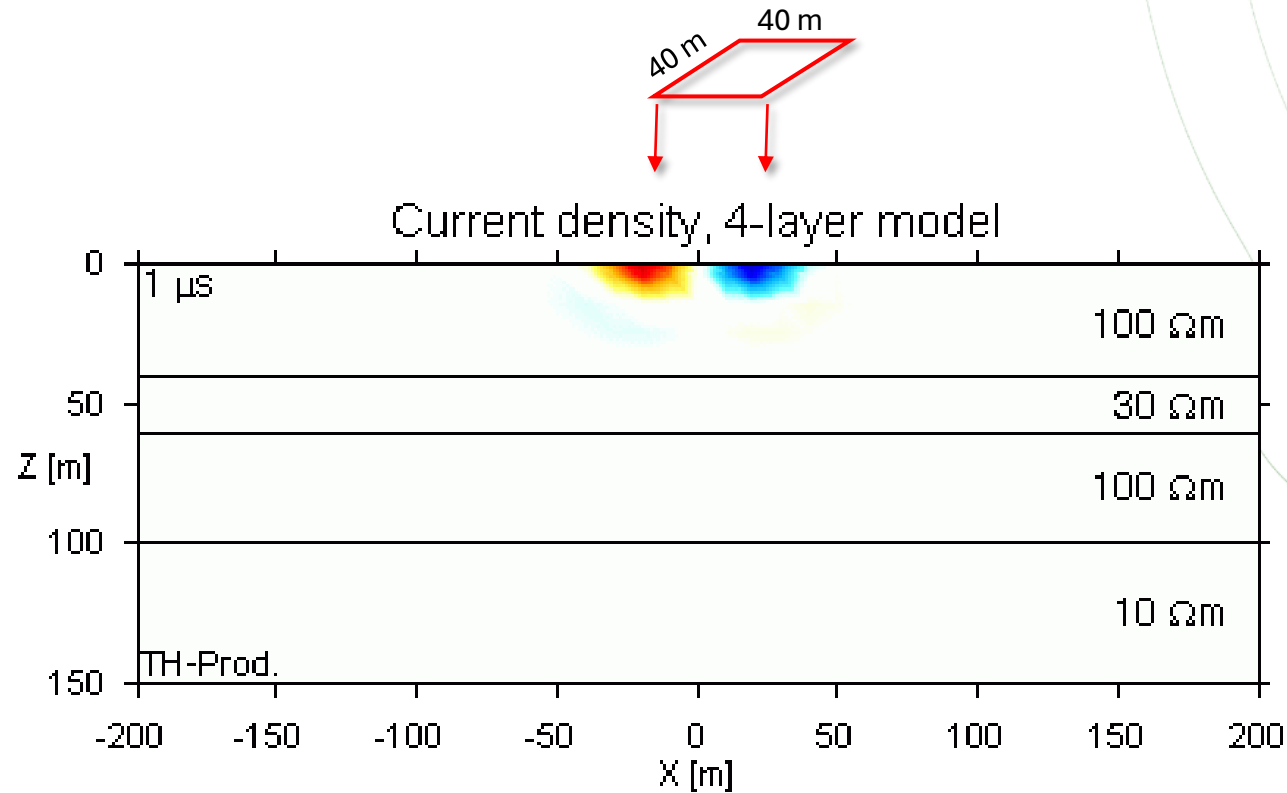
# Characteristics of the decay curve

Current diffusion over 10 - 100  $\Omega\text{m}$  and 100 - 10  $\Omega\text{m}$  layered halfspace



# Characteristics of the decay curve

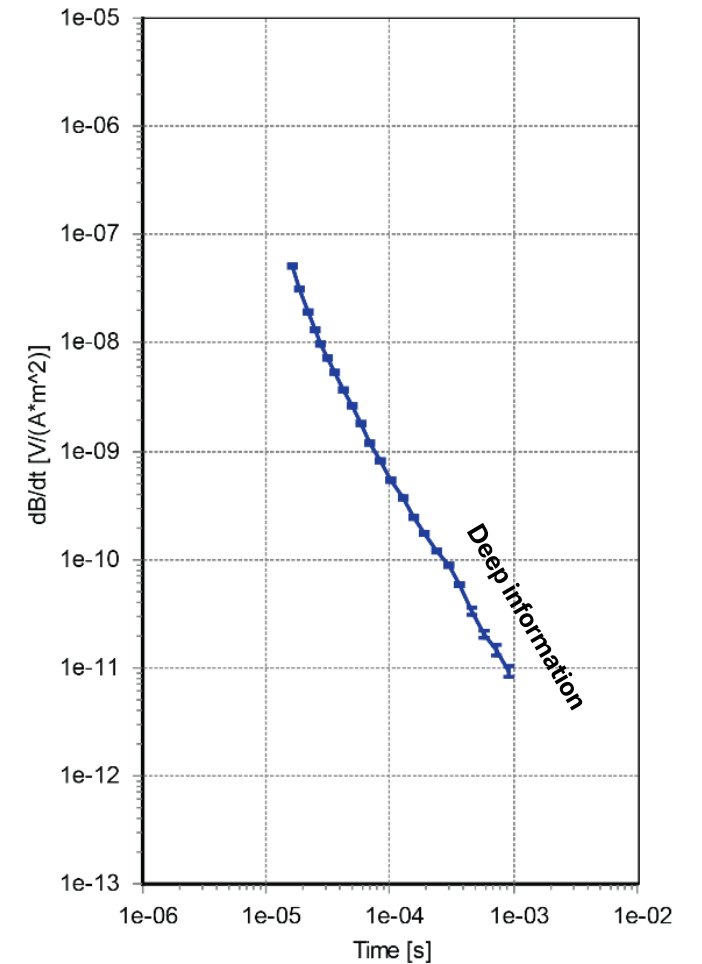
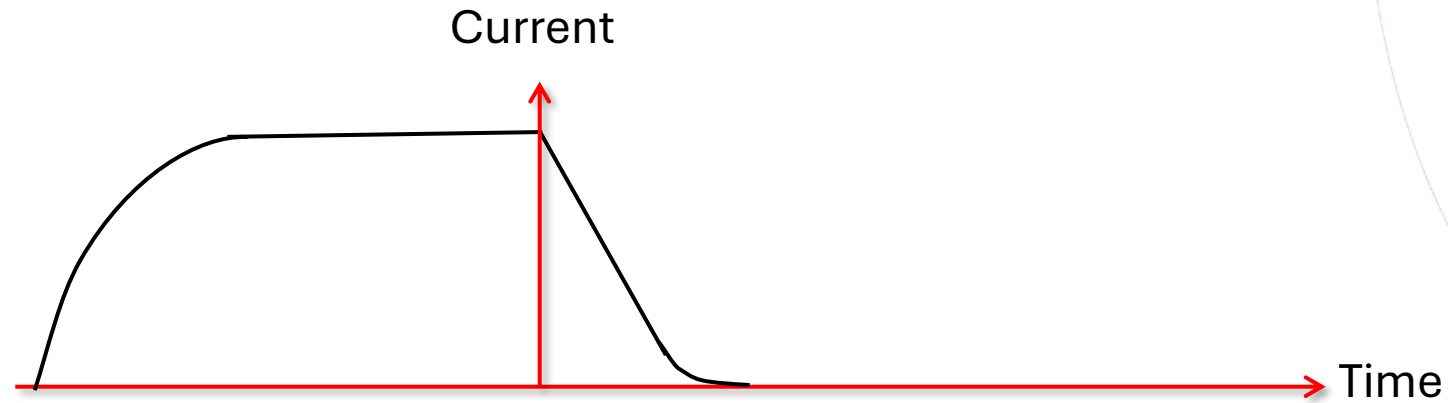
Current diffusion over 100 – 30 – 100 – 10  $\Omega\text{m}$  layered halfspace



TEM is sensitive to conductive layers

# TEM Response

Dual moment measurements

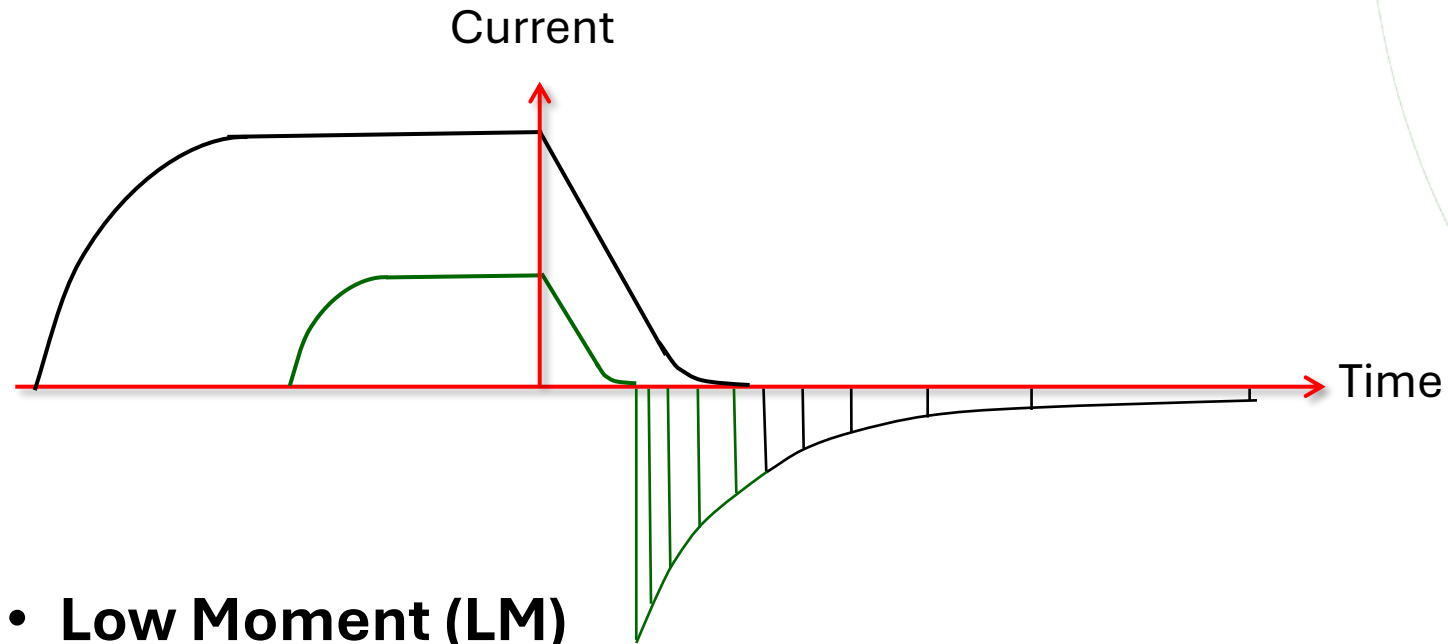


- **High Moment (HM)**

- High Current
- Slow turn-off
- Deep information

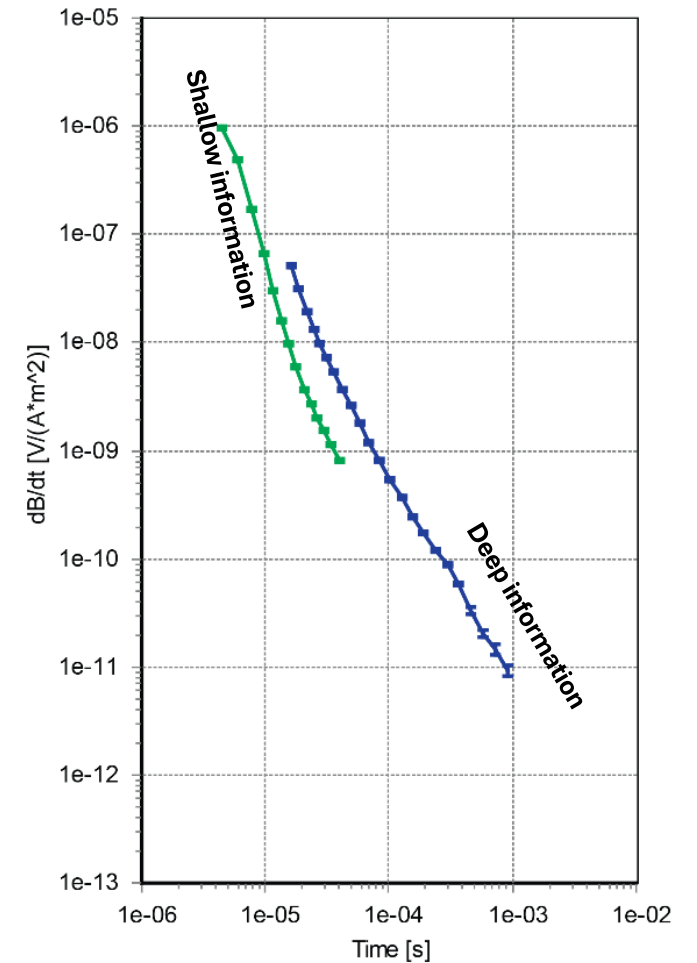
# TEM Response

Dual moment measurements



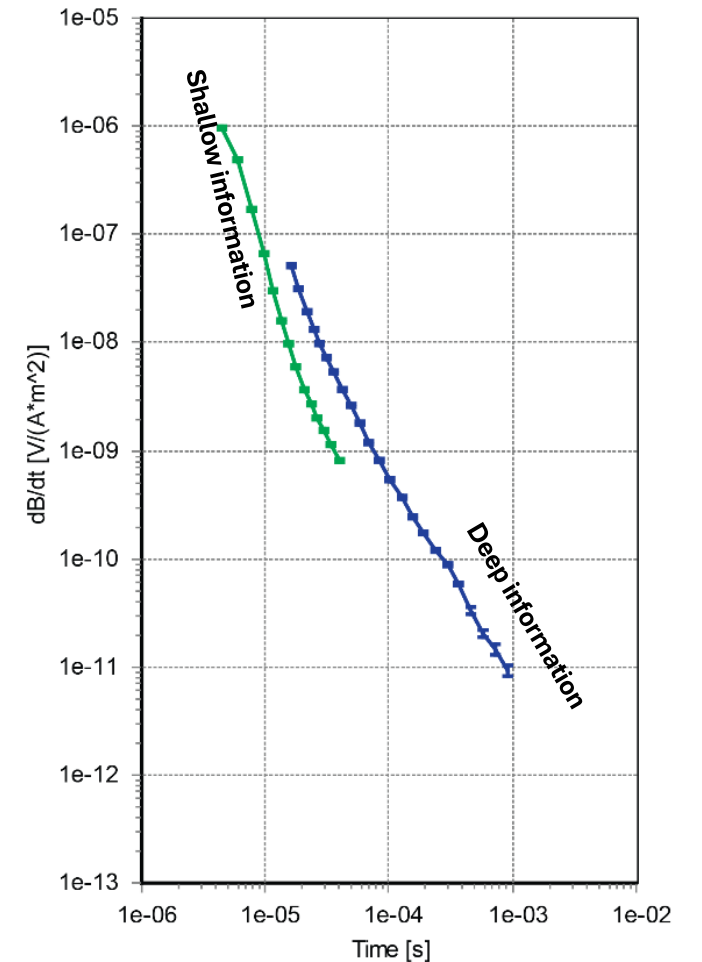
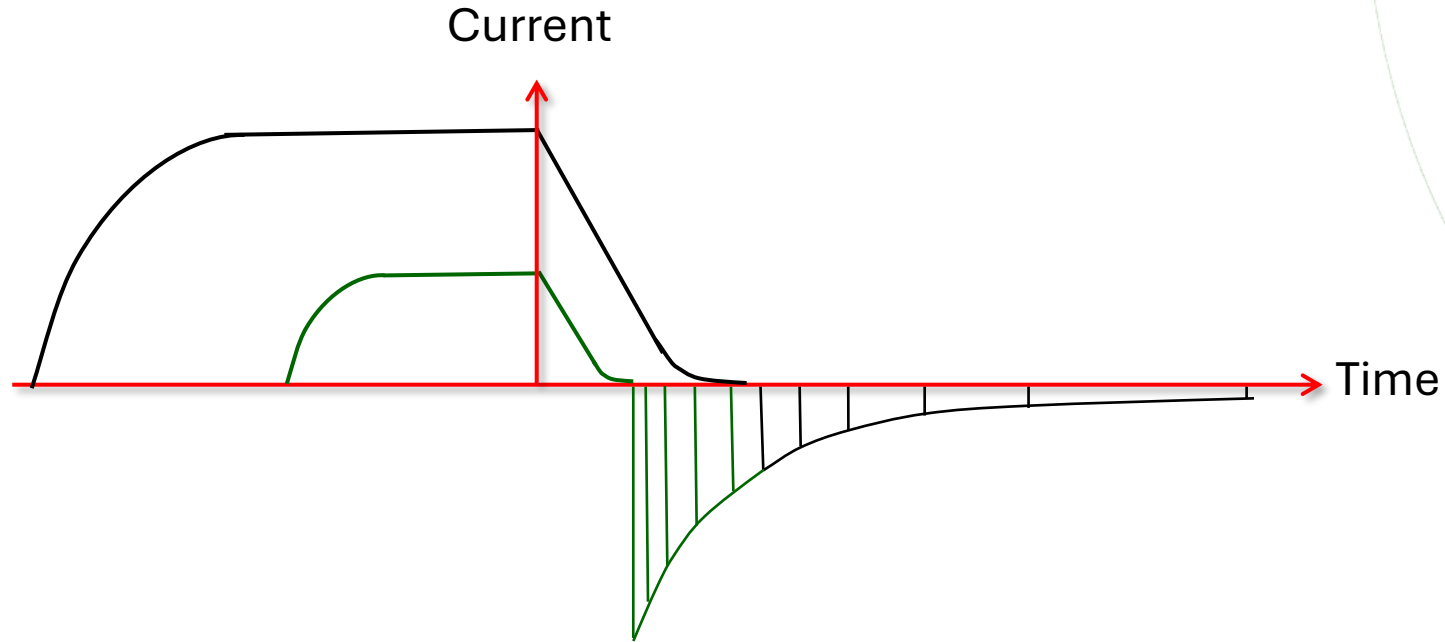
- **Low Moment (LM)**

- Low Current
- Fast turn-off
- Shallow information



# TEM Response

## Interpretation

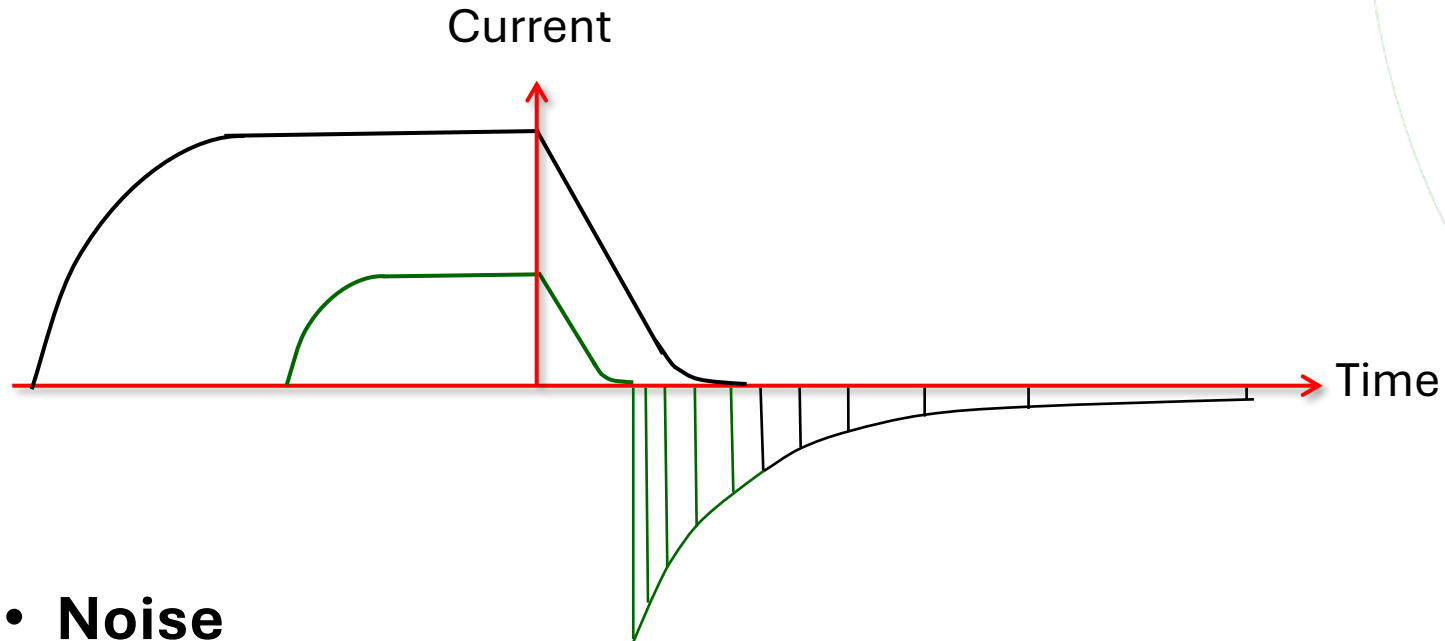


- **Dual Moment Acquisition**

- Low moment for shallow resolution
- High moment for deep penetration
- Together they deliver better resolution over full depth column

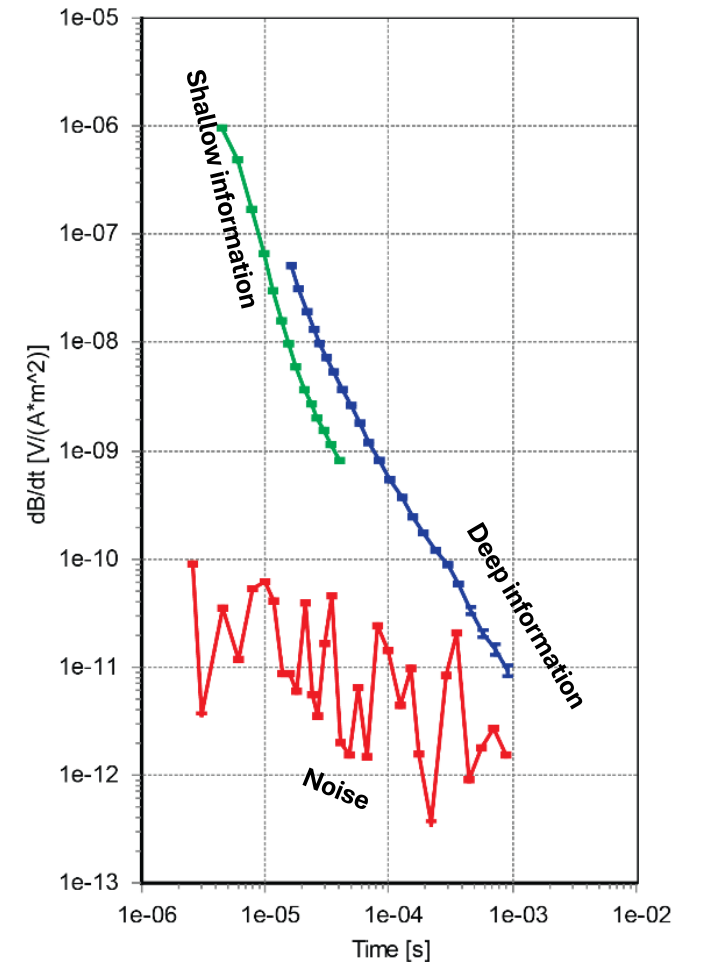
# TEM Response

## Noise



- **Noise**

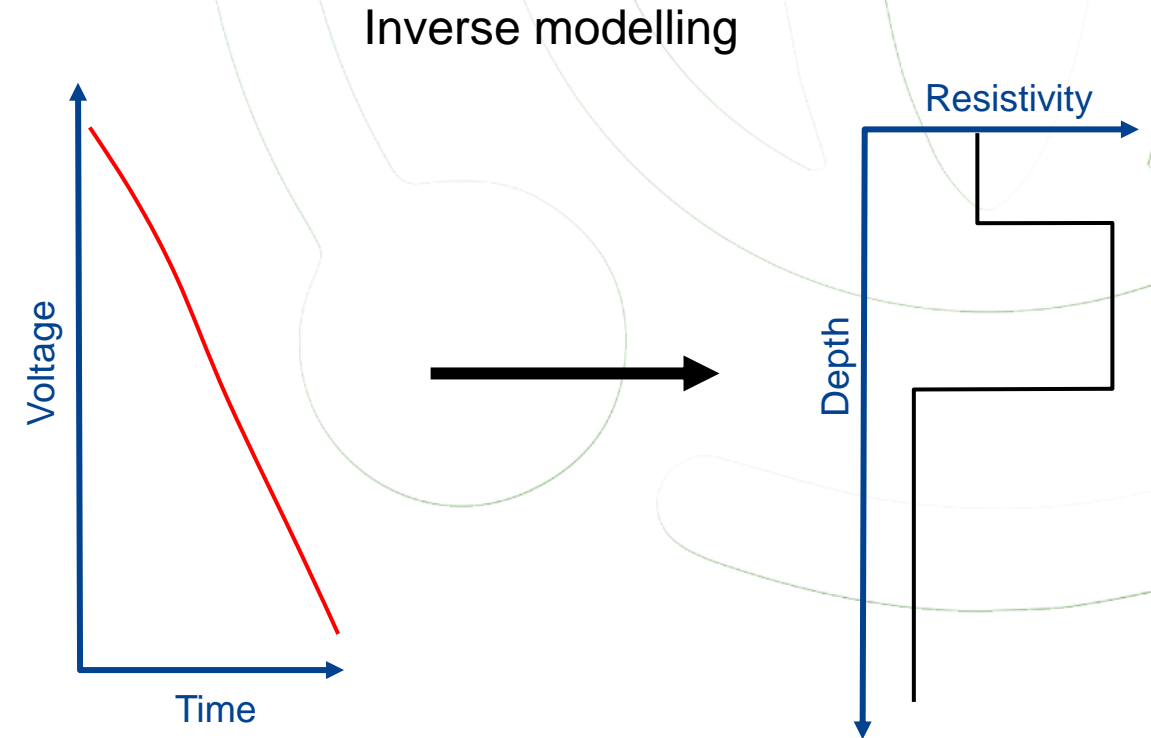
- Limiting depth of investigation (DOI)
- Many sources of noise (anything producing a voltage on the receive coil)



# Earth models

## 1D Assumption

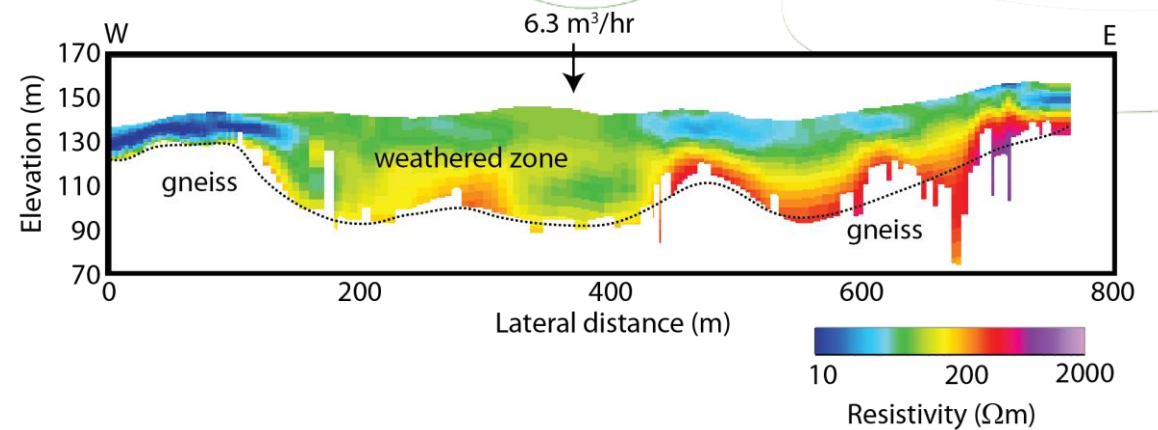
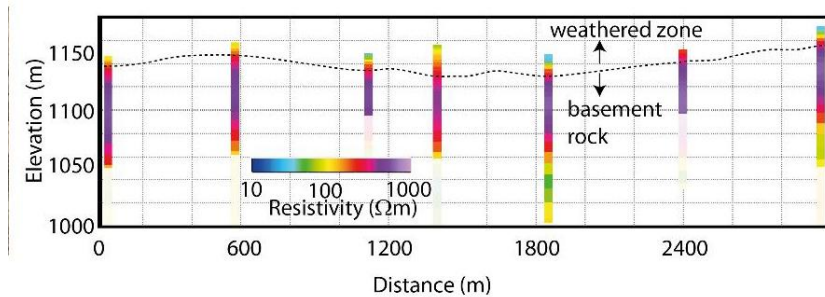
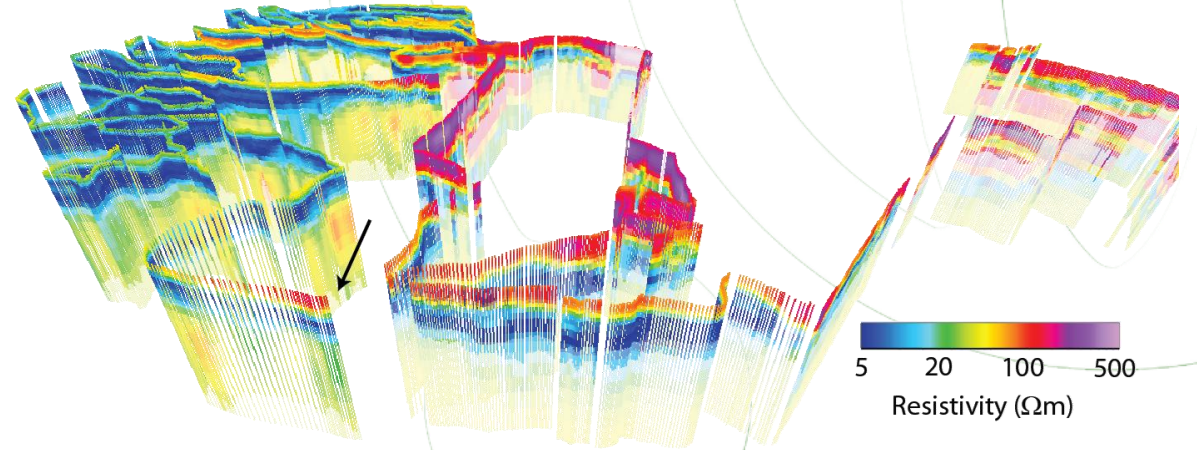
- **The Earth is described by a 1D set of layers of varying resistivity** (1D model or resistivity depth profile)
- This 1D model can change at different locations – but we assume for each individual measurement it is a 1D earth responsible for our signal
- **This is an assumption – it will breakdown in complex geologies**



# Earth models

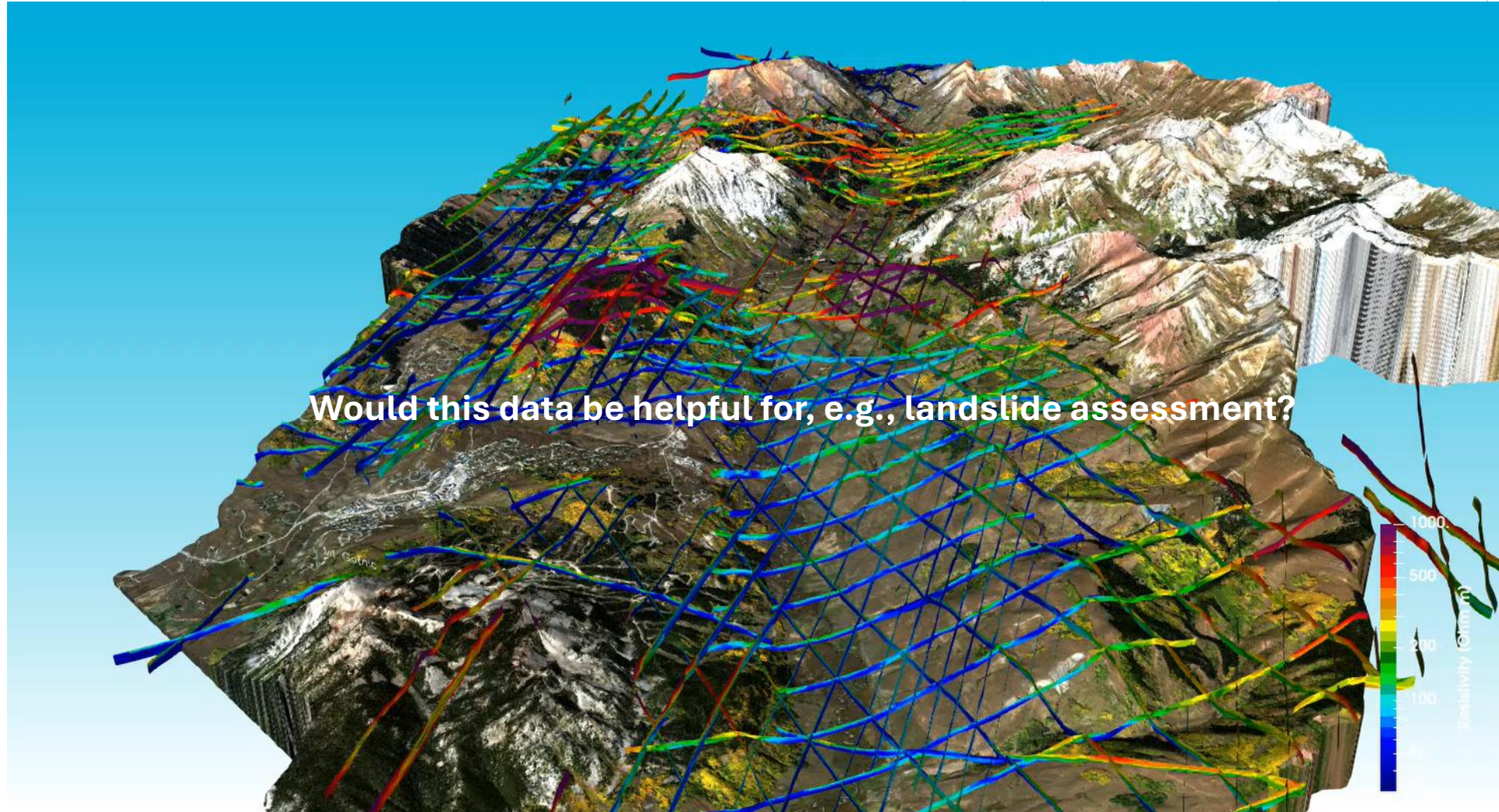
## 2D/3D representation

- **Create quasi-2D/3D earth models by stitching together 1D models**
- **2D/3D models built on a 1D assumption**



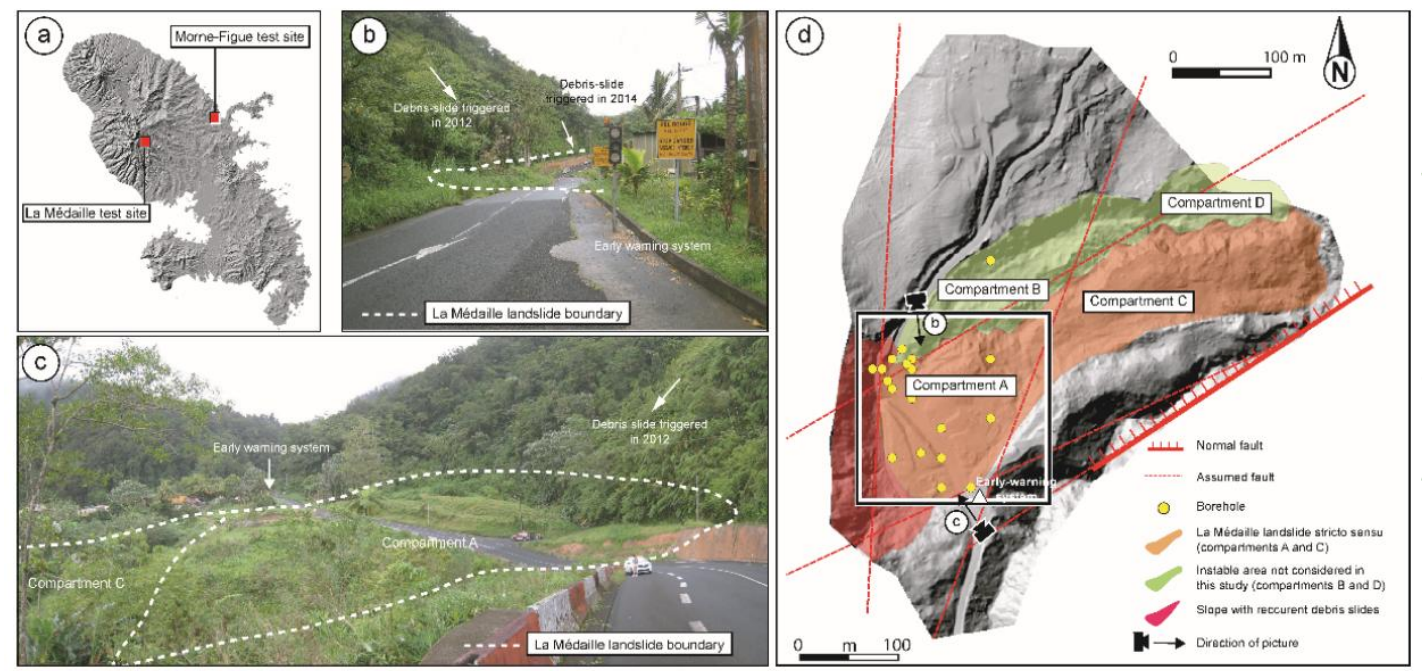
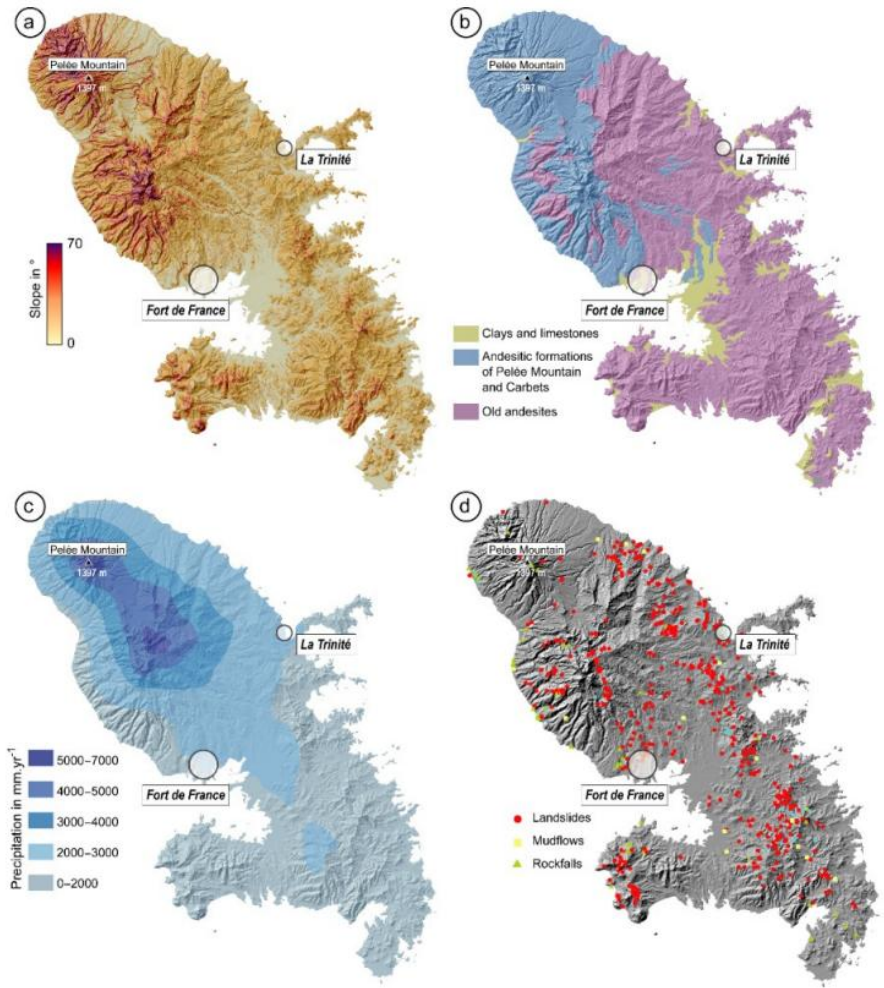
# Earth models

2D/3D representation



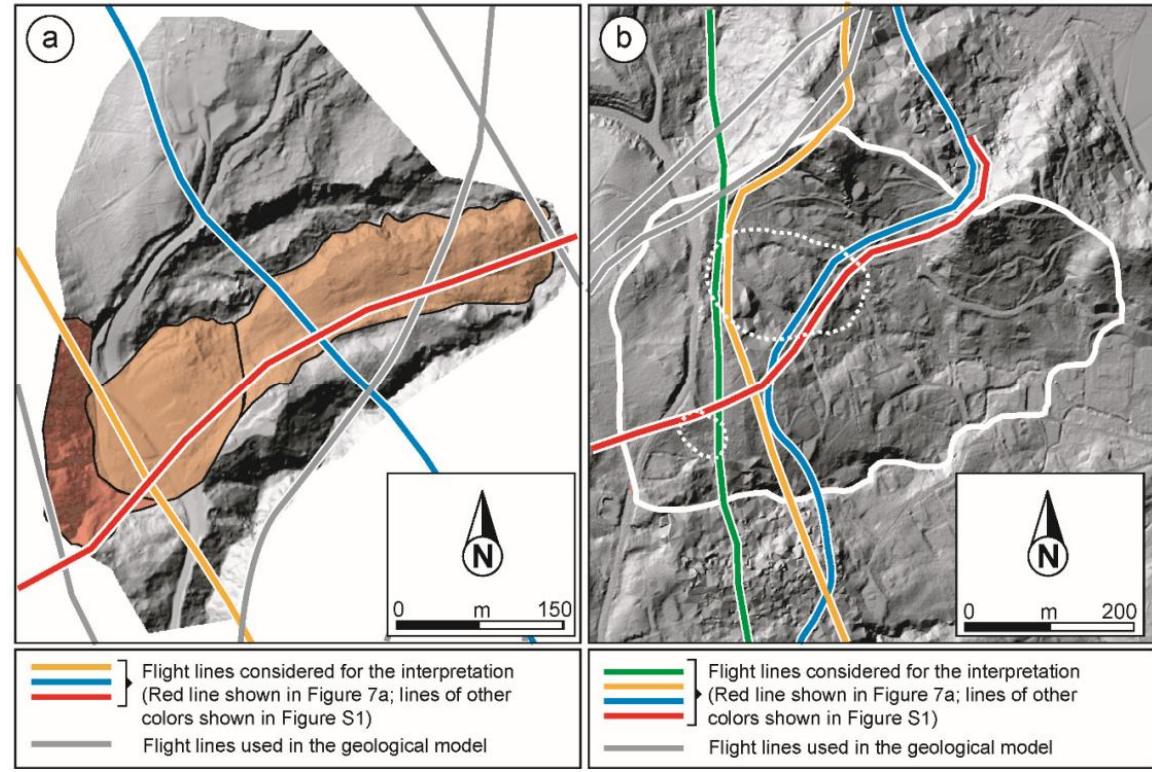
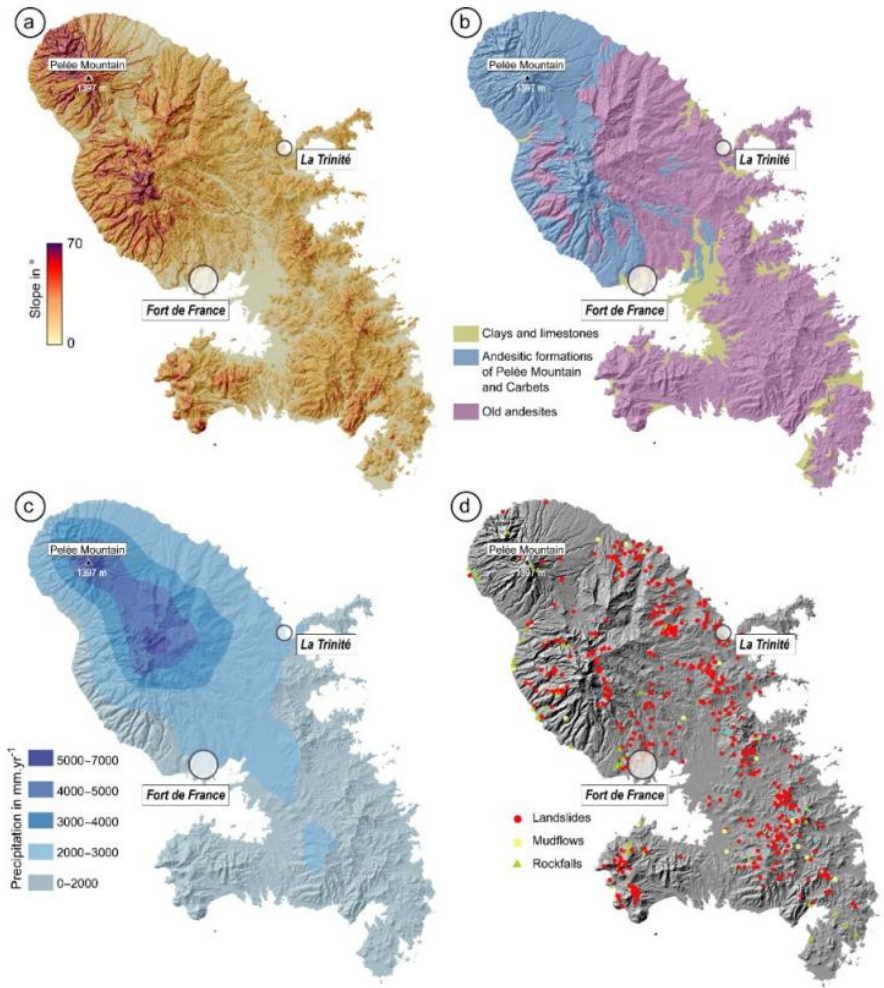
# Landslide hazard assessment on La Martinique

## Settings



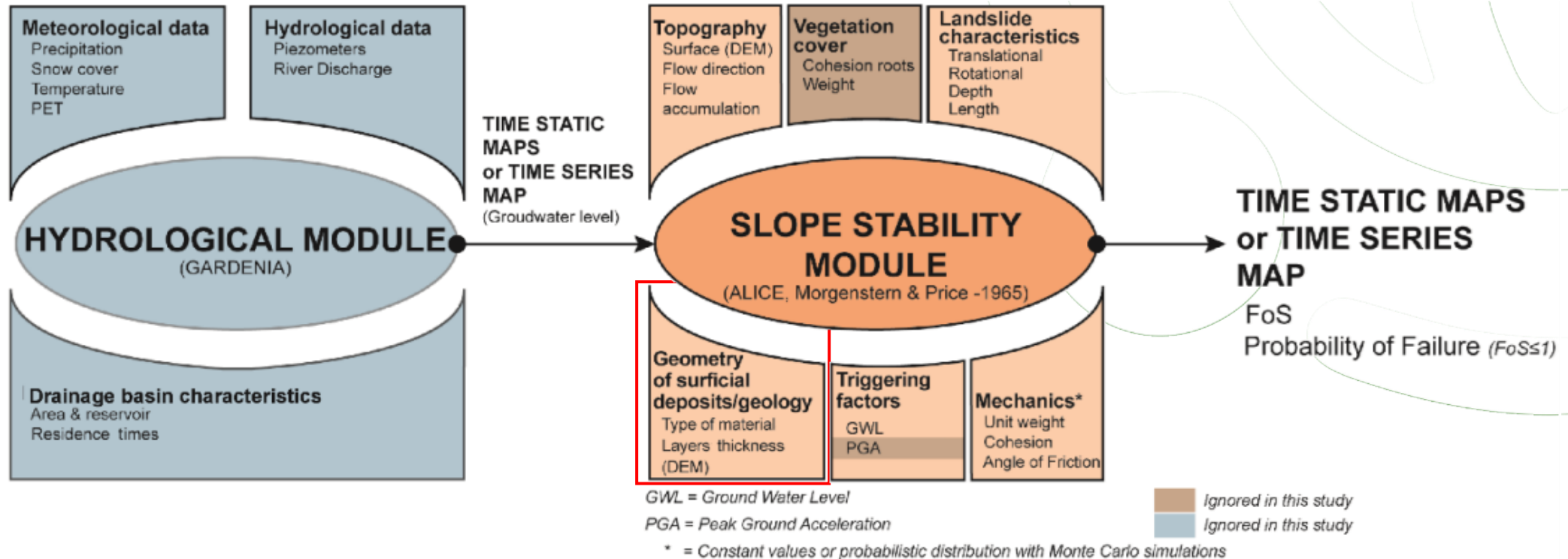
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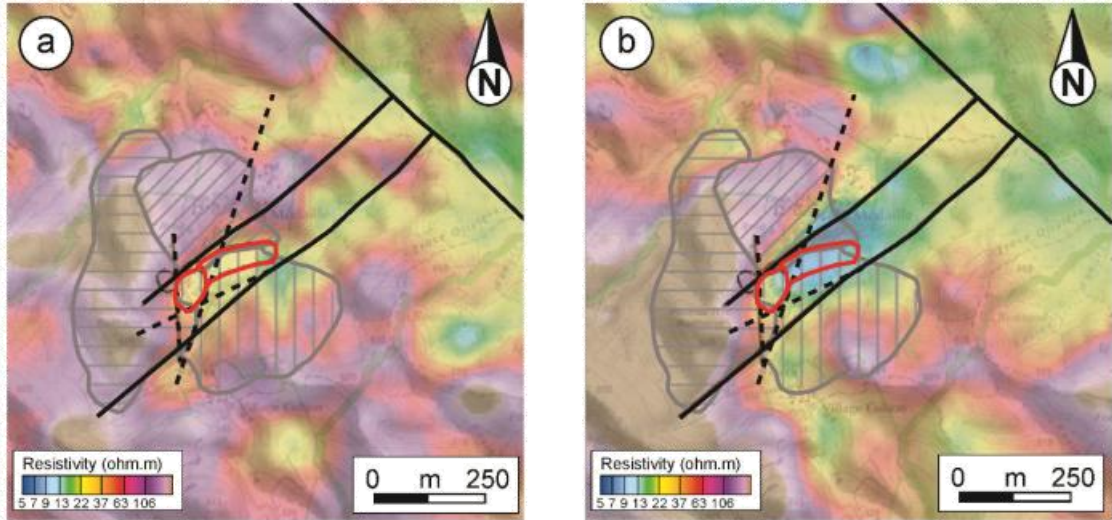
# Landslide hazard assessment on La Martinique

## Integrated modelling

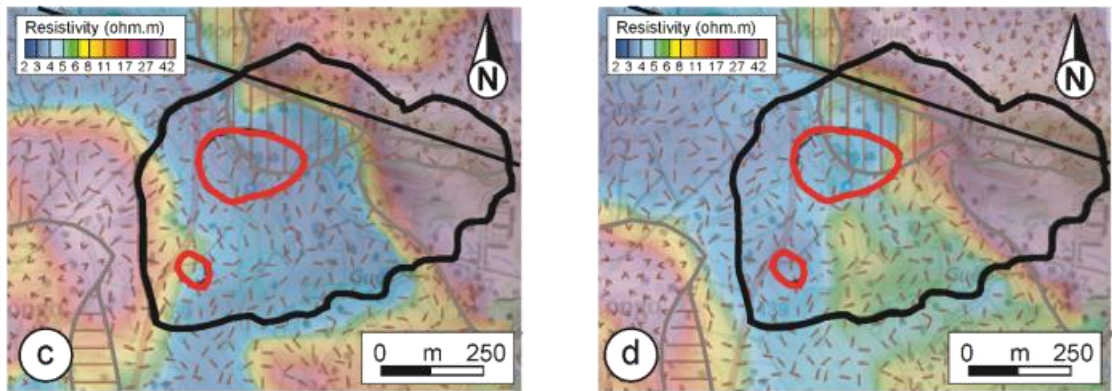


# Landslide hazard assessment on La Martinique

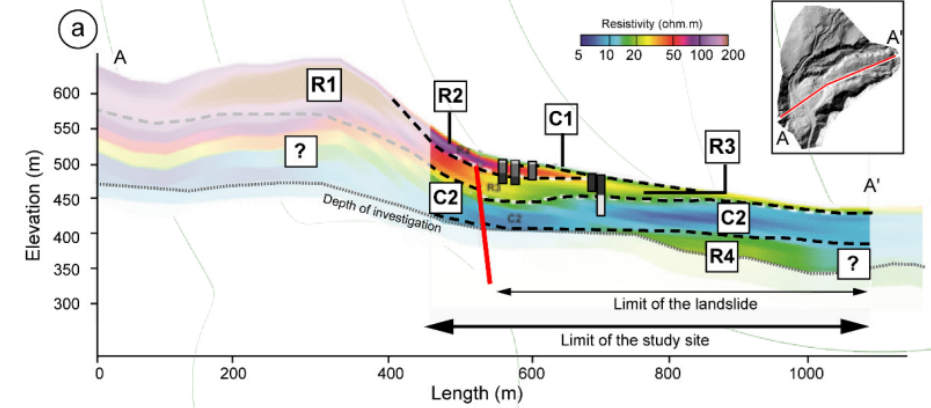
## Airborne EM results



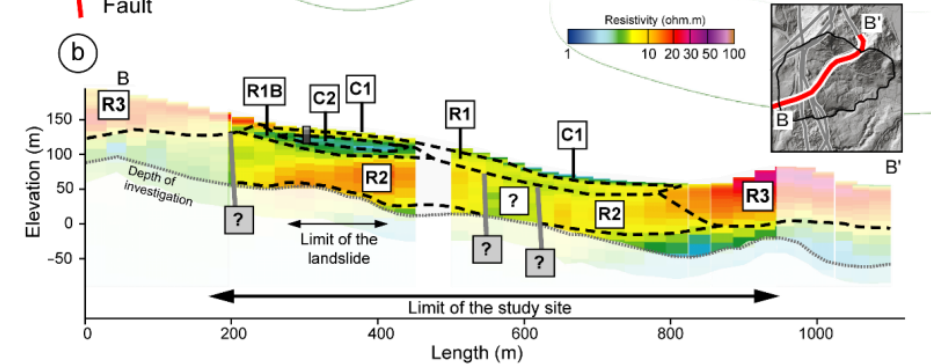
Legend for maps a and b:  
 - Red outline: Landslide  
 - Solid black line: Main fault  
 - Dashed black line: Secondary fault  
 - Horizontal lines: Dacite  
 - Vertical lines: Andesite  
 - Diagonal lines: Breccia



Legend for maps c and d:  
 - Red outline: Landslide  
 - Solid black line: Main fault  
 - Dotted pattern: Andesite  
 - Zigzag pattern: Basalt  
 - Vertical lines: Hyaloclastite  
 - Horizontal lines: Volcano-sedimentary formations



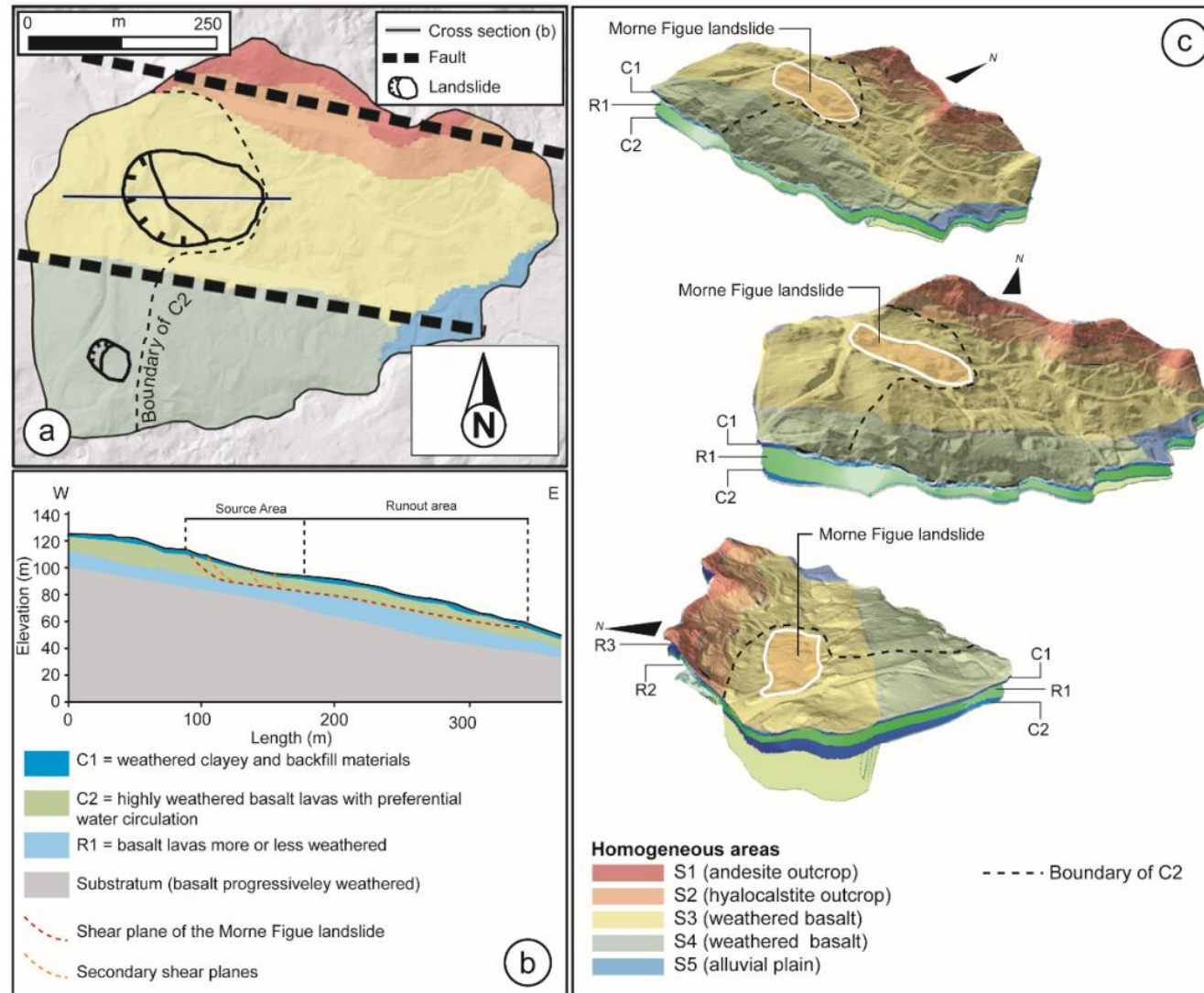
Legend for cross-section a:  
 - C1: Surficial formations  
 - C2: Weathered andesite  
 - R1: Dacite  
 - R2: Old formations of debris-avalanche  
 - R3: Breccia  
 - R4: Andesite  
 - ? : Not identified  
 - Vertical bar: Borehole  
 - Red line: Fault



Legend for cross-section b:  
 - C1: Weathered clayey and backfill materials  
 - C2: Highly weathered basalt  
 - R1: Weathered basalt  
 - R1B: Less weathered basalt?  
 - R2: Hyaloclastite  
 - R3: Andesite  
 - ? : Not identified  
 - Vertical bar: Borehole  
 - Red line: Assumed Fault

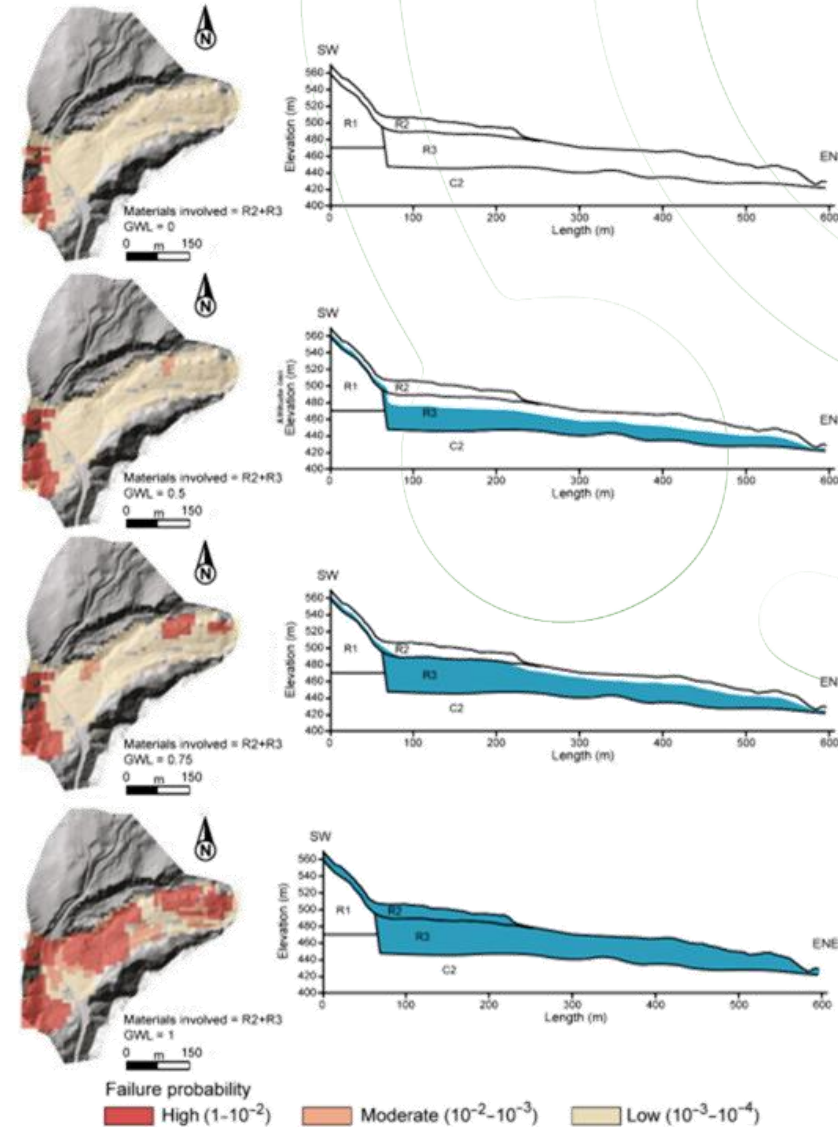
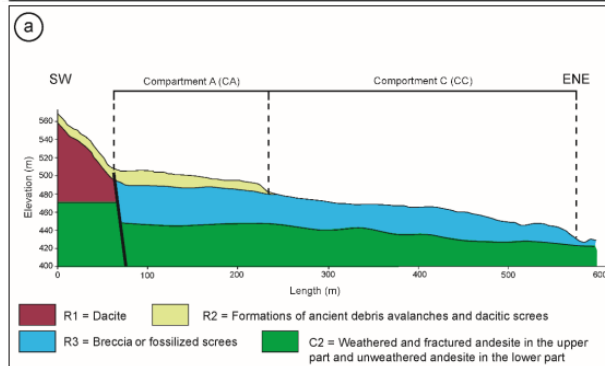
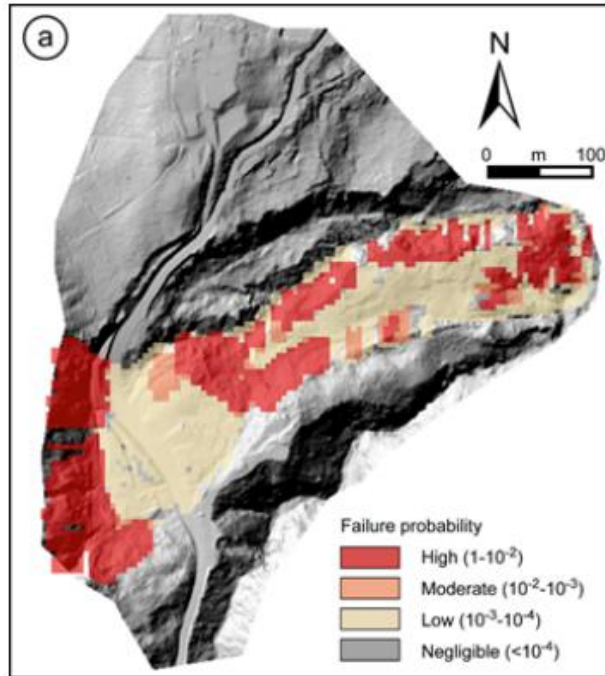
# Landslide hazard assessment on La Martinique

Geological model from AEM data



# Landslide hazard assessment on La Martinique

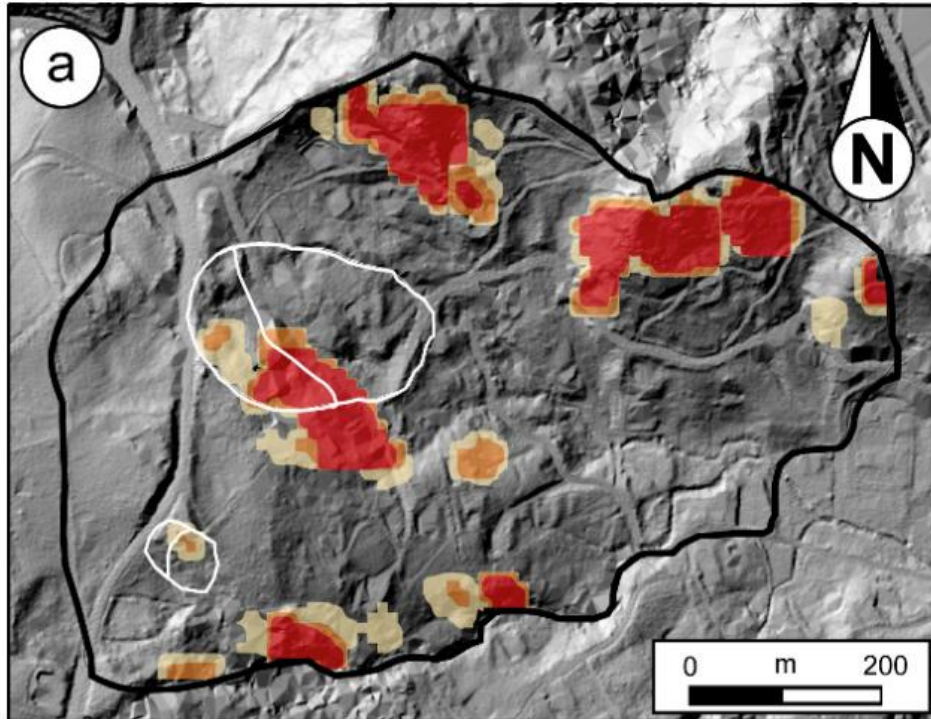
## Hazard assessment



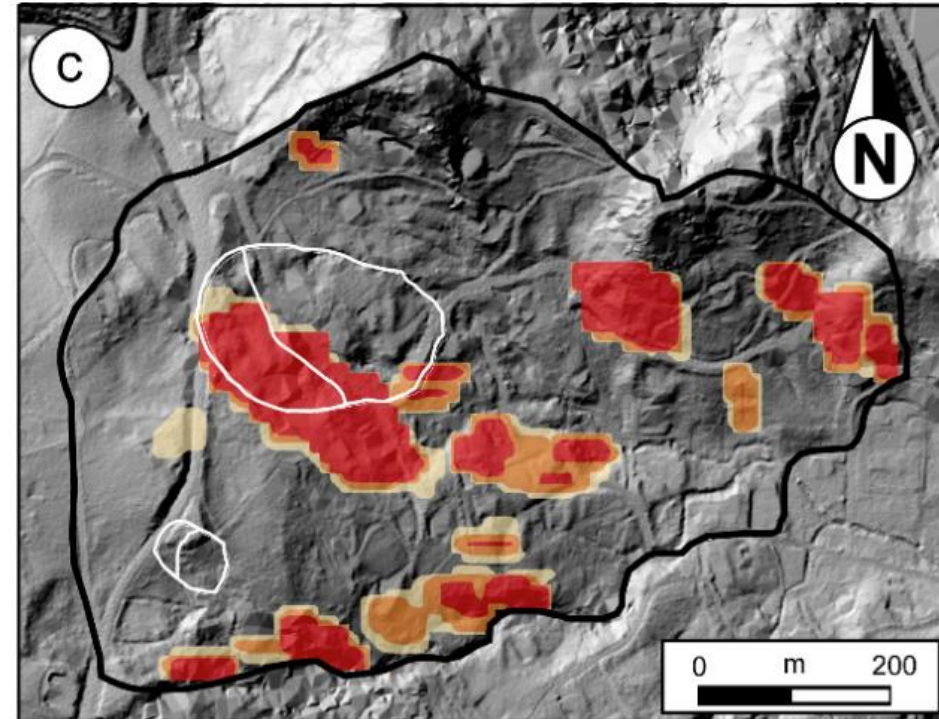
# Landslide hazard assessment on La Martinique

## Settings

Shallow, translational landslides



Moderately deep, rotational landslides



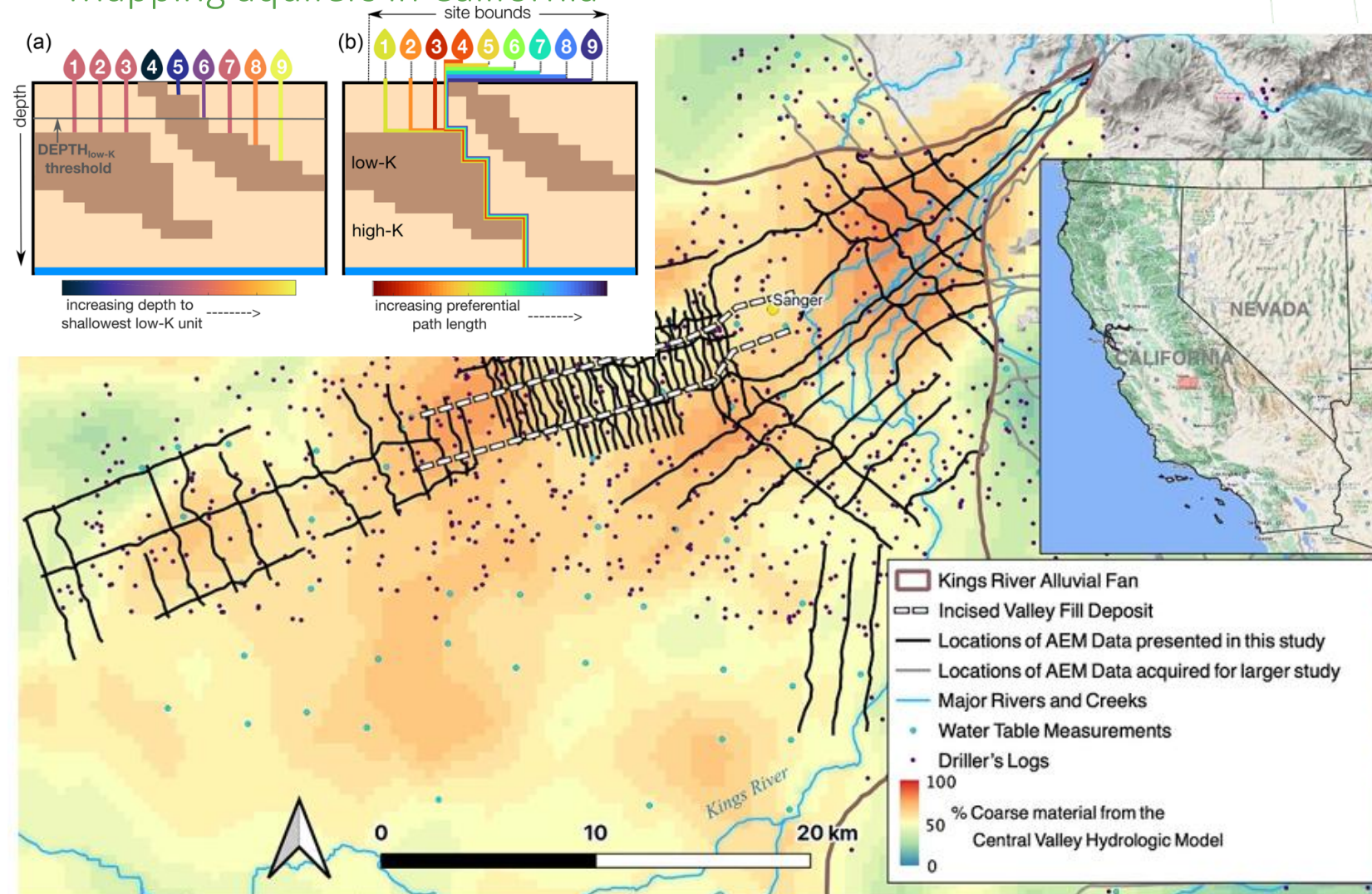
# Time-Domain EM survey example

## Mapping aquifers in California



Knight et al., 2022

ITINERIS



### California is prone to drought!

- The state invests heavily to mitigate groundwater stress
- Managed aquifer recharge a key mitigation technology

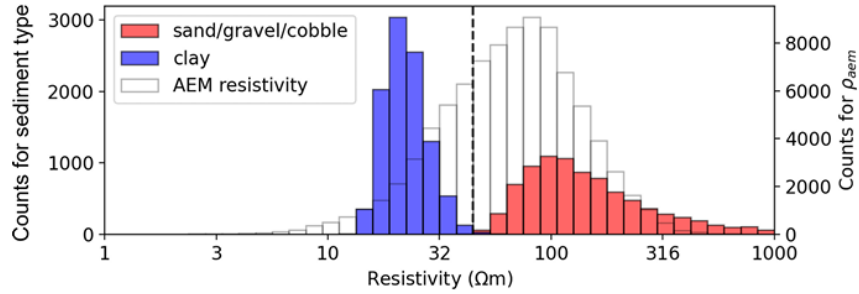
**Question?** Where are the right conditions for effective recharge?

To answer this on a relevant scale, airborne EM studies are conducted

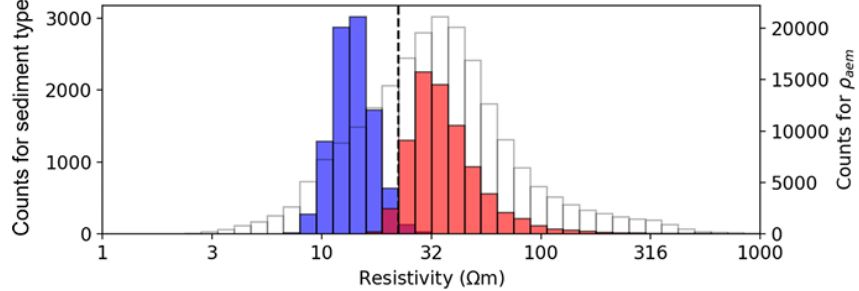
# Time-Domain EM survey example

## Mapping aquifers in California

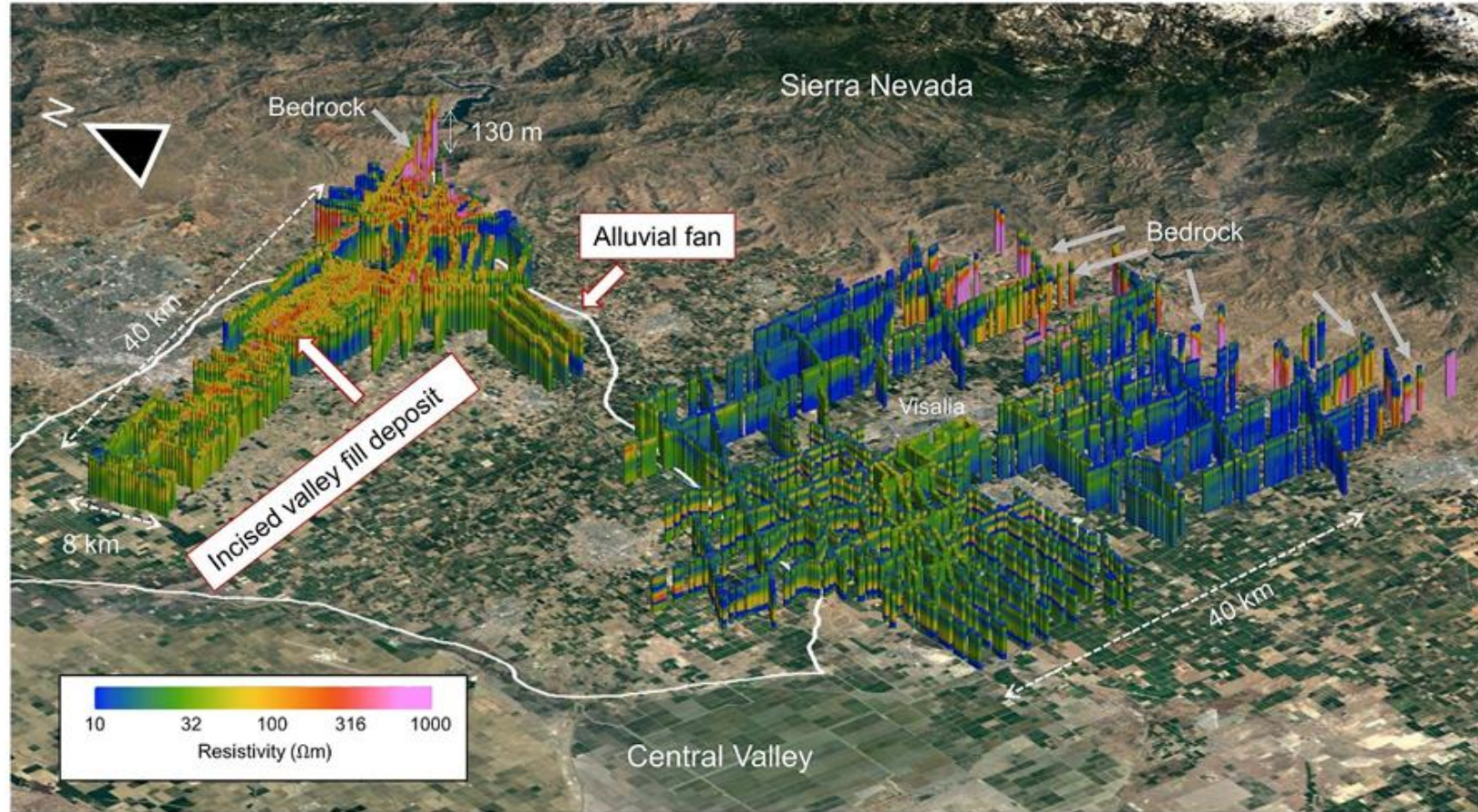
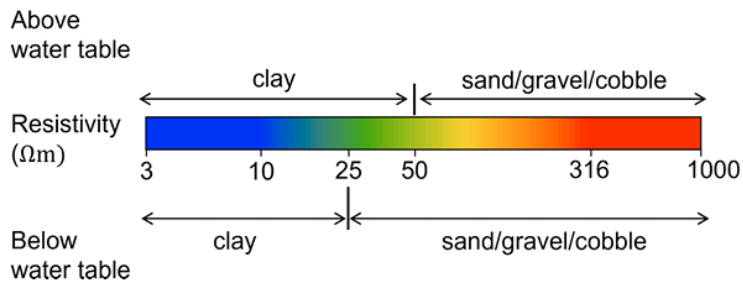
(a) Above water table



(b) Below water table

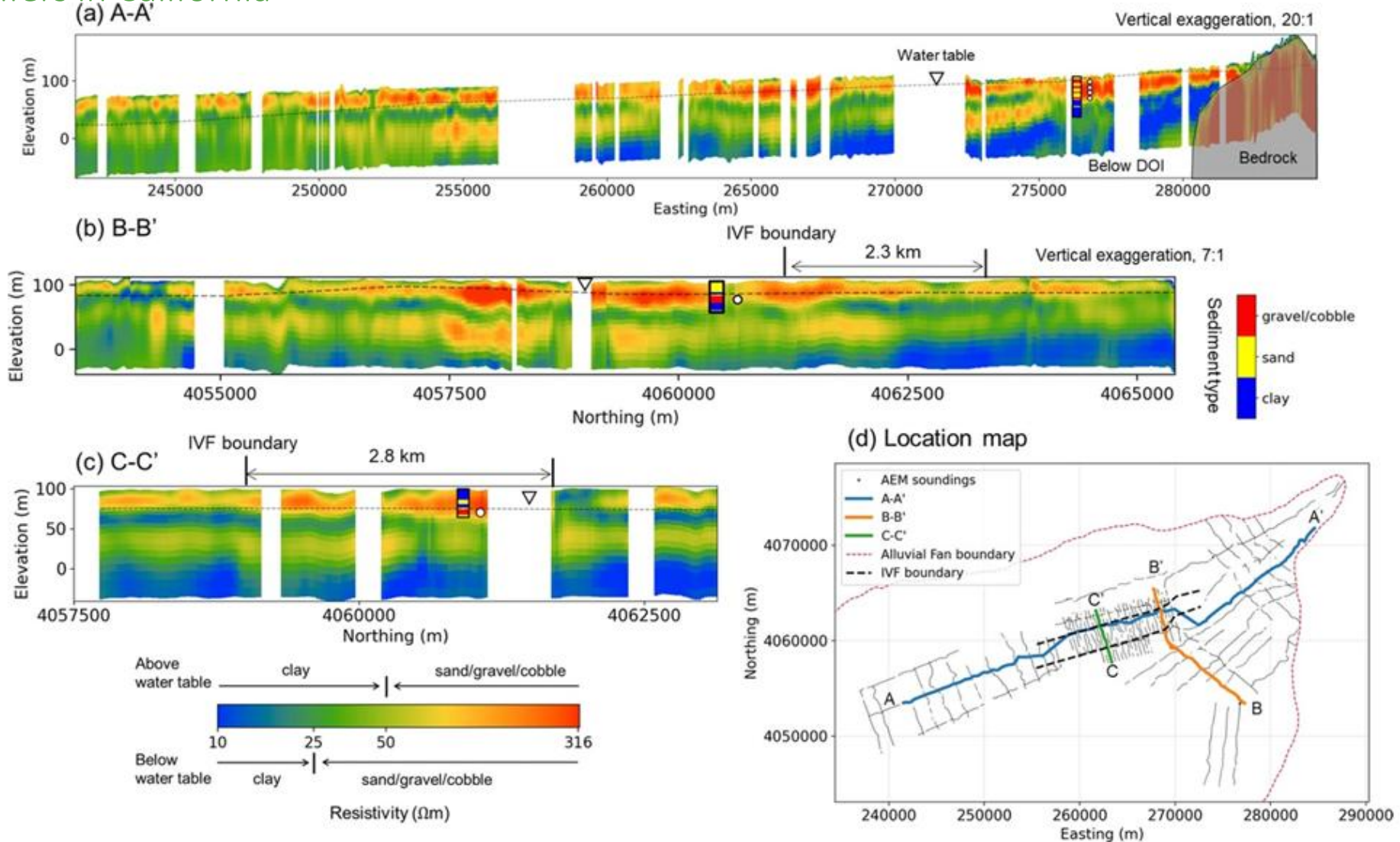


(c) Resistivity colormap



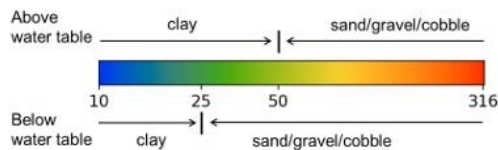
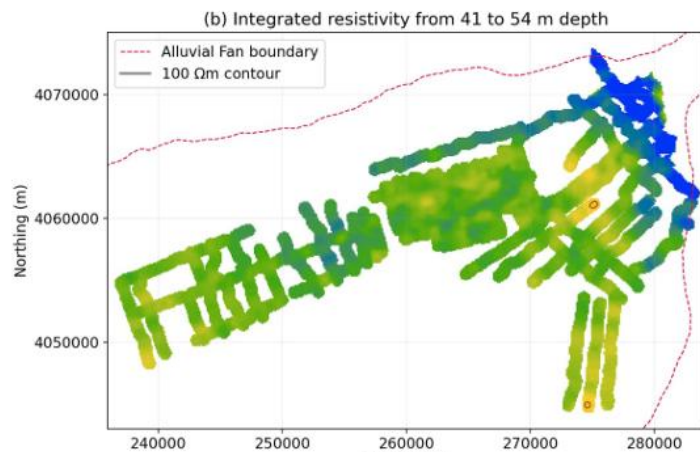
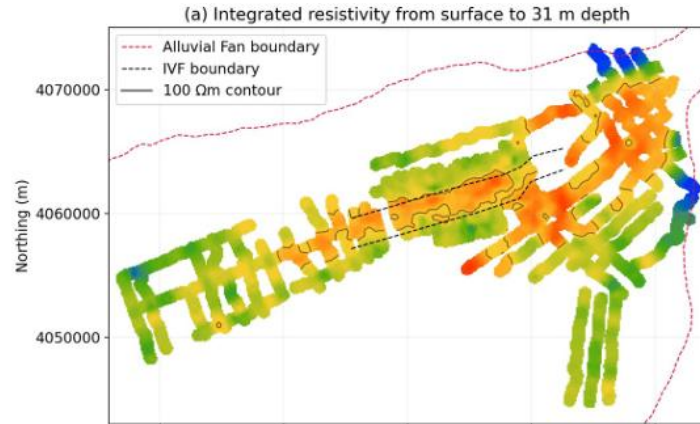
# Time-Domain EM survey example

Mapping aquifers in California



# Time-Domain EM survey example

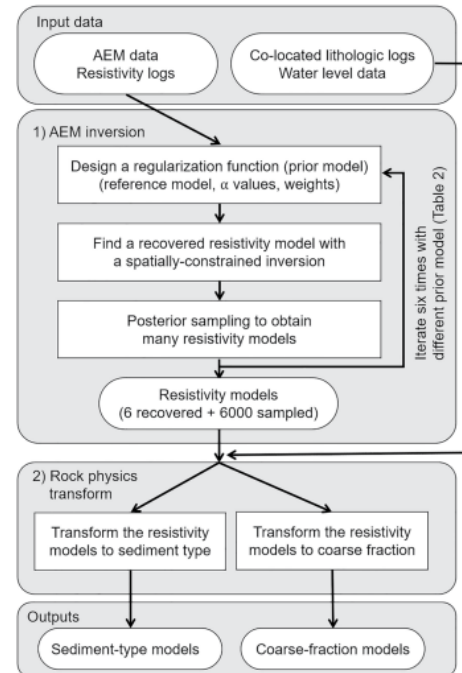
## Mapping aquifers in California



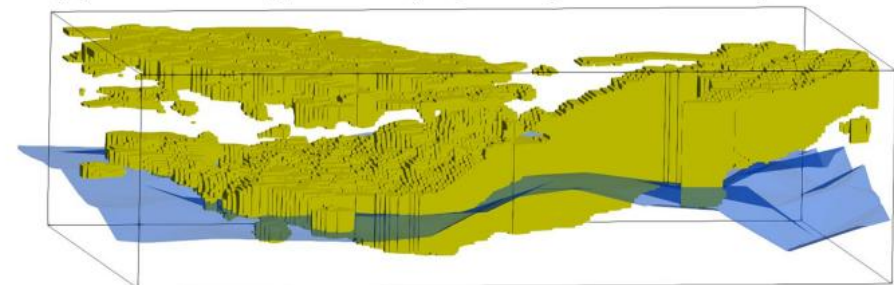
AEM measurements map resistivity distribution from the surface (with limitation) to depths of 100s m

Resistivity data provides insights into the hydrostratigraphy, delineating bedrock, sandy aquifer units, and clay rich areas

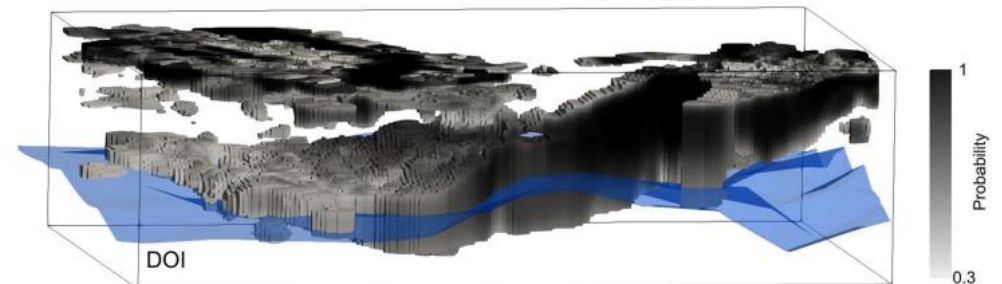
Resistivity transfer functions can be used to quantify the aquifer properties (in terms of fine-coarse material content)



(a) 3D sediment-type model (only sand/gravel-dominated)



(b) 3D sediment-type model shaded with  $P_{sand/gravel}$



# Summary EM measurements

Rapid, shallow to deep resistivity measurements

EM uses a set of coils (Transmitter and Receiver coil) to measure the subsurface conductivity

**Source:** TEM = Impulse source (= rapid turn-off of current in Tx coil)

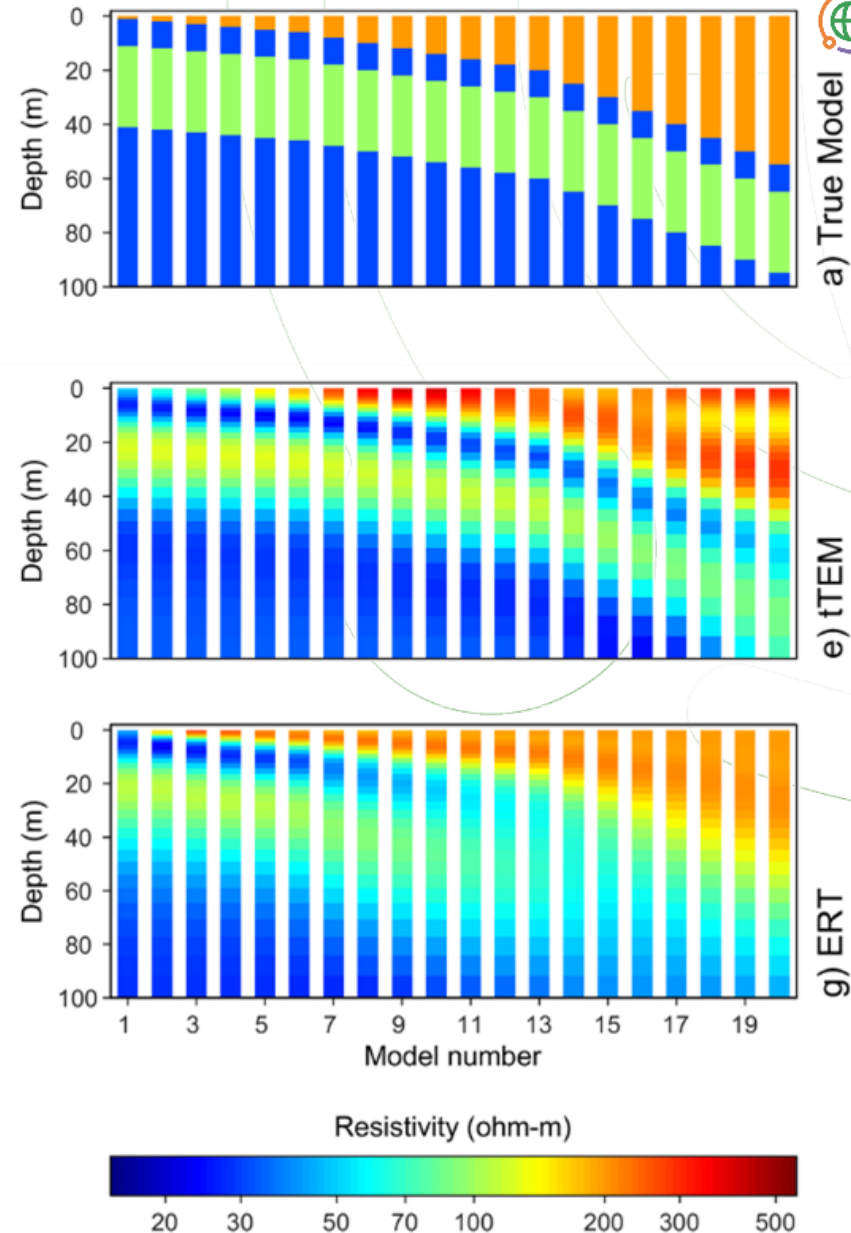
FDEM = continuous, sinusoidal waveform

**Depth of investigation:** Depends mostly on (TEM) magnetic moment of Tx and Rx coils, (FDEM) Tx-Rx coil spacing/orientation & Tx frequency and subsurface conductivity distribution

Requires no galvanic coupling (i.e., no electrodes stuck into the ground)

Instruments coils can be laid out manually, or be mounted on frames to be towed or airborne

**Very sensitive to conductors!**





# THANKS!

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Mission 4 "Education and Research" - Component 2: "From research to business" - Investment  
3.1: "Fund for the realisation of an integrated system of research and innovation infrastructures"

