

1 A LOW-COST, IN SITU RESISTIVITY AND TEMPERATURE MONITORING SYSTEM

2
3 Laura Sherrod^a, William Sauck^b, and D. Dale Werkema Jr.^c

4
5 ^aPhysical Sciences Department

6 Kutztown University

7 Kutztown, PA 19530

8 sherrod@kutztown.edu

9
10 ^bDepartment of Geosciences

11 Western Michigan University

12 Kalamazoo, MI 49008

13
14 ^cU.S. EPA, Office of Research and Development

15 National Exposure Research Laboratory

16 Las Vegas, NV 89119

17
18 **Keywords –**

19 **In situ characterization using nonstress-based methods (e.g., geophysical methods, TDR, etc.)**

20 **Economics of characterization, monitoring, and remediation efforts**

21
22 **Abstract**

23 We present a low-cost, reliable method for long-term in situ autonomous monitoring of
24 subsurface resistivity and temperature in a shallow, moderately heterogeneous subsurface. Probes, to be

25 left in situ, were constructed at relatively low cost with an electrode spacing of 5cm. Once installed,
26 these were wired to the CR-1000 Campbell Scientific Inc. datalogger at the surface to electrically image
27 infiltration fronts in the shallow subsurface. This system was constructed and installed in June 2005 to
28 collect apparent resistivity and temperature data from ninety-six subsurface electrodes set to a pole-pole
29 resistivity array pattern and fourteen thermistors at regular intervals of 30cm through May of 2008.
30 From these data, a temperature and resistivity relationship was determined within the vadose zone (to a
31 depth of approximately 1m) and within the saturated zone (at depths between 1m and 2m). The high
32 vertical resolution of the data with resistivity measurements on a scale of 5cm spacing coupled with
33 surface precipitation measurements taken at 3-minute intervals for a period of roughly three years
34 allowed unique observations of infiltration related to seasonal changes. Both the vertical resistivity
35 instrument probes and the data logger system functioned well for the duration of the test period and
36 demonstrated the capability of this low cost monitoring system.

37

38 **1.0 Introduction**

39

40 While long-term geophysical monitoring provides a useful tool for the interpretation of
41 subsurface hydrological properties and processes, the cost is often prohibitive. Resistivity
42 measurements have long been utilized in hydrology as a non-invasive measurement technique.
43 Whether utilized for determining water table depth (Reed et al. 1983), or observing preferential flow
44 paths (Narbutovskih et al. 1996; Stephens 1996; Hagey and Michaelsen 1999; Yang and LaBrecque
45 2000) resistivity data are valuable for non-invasive investigations. Additionally, contaminant and
46 remediation characterization and monitoring efforts have also been imaged with this versatile technique
47 (Daily and Ramirez 1995; Aaltonen and Olofsson 2002). The biodegradation of petroleum

48 hydrocarbons has been observed and monitored through long-term resistivity experiments (Atekwana et
49 al., 2000; Sauck, 2000; Werkema, 2002; Werkema et al., 2004). Other long-term three dimensional
50 studies have been developed to characterize subsurface water flow and aquifer characteristics (Pfeifer
51 and Andersen 1995; Cassiani et al. 2006). Steps toward the conversion of resistivity measurements into
52 hydrological values have shown good success (Binley et al. 2002a; Binley et al. 2002b; Vanderborght et
53 al. 2005; Linde et al. 2006; Johnson et al. 2009). Tracer studies have been performed in conjunction
54 with electrical resistivity tomography (ERT) to identify the center of mass and concentration within
55 tracer plumes (Kemna et al. 2002; Singha and Gorelick 2005; Singha and Gorelick 2006a; Singha and
56 Gorelick 2006b). More recently, such resistivity devices have been employed through large
57 collaborative efforts to monitor salt-water intrusions near important freshwater well sources (Ogilvy et
58 al. 2009). While there is movement within this field of study toward autonomous systems, most of these
59 studies do not employ such a system dedicated to on-site data collection for extended periods of time
60 mostly due to the expense. Budget restrictive projects which require vadose zone measurements of
61 water content do not have access to autonomous systems and are therefore confined to the use of other
62 methods, including time-consuming manual data collection techniques. This work presents a low-cost
63 method to reliably obtain long-term subsurface resistivity and temperature measurements.

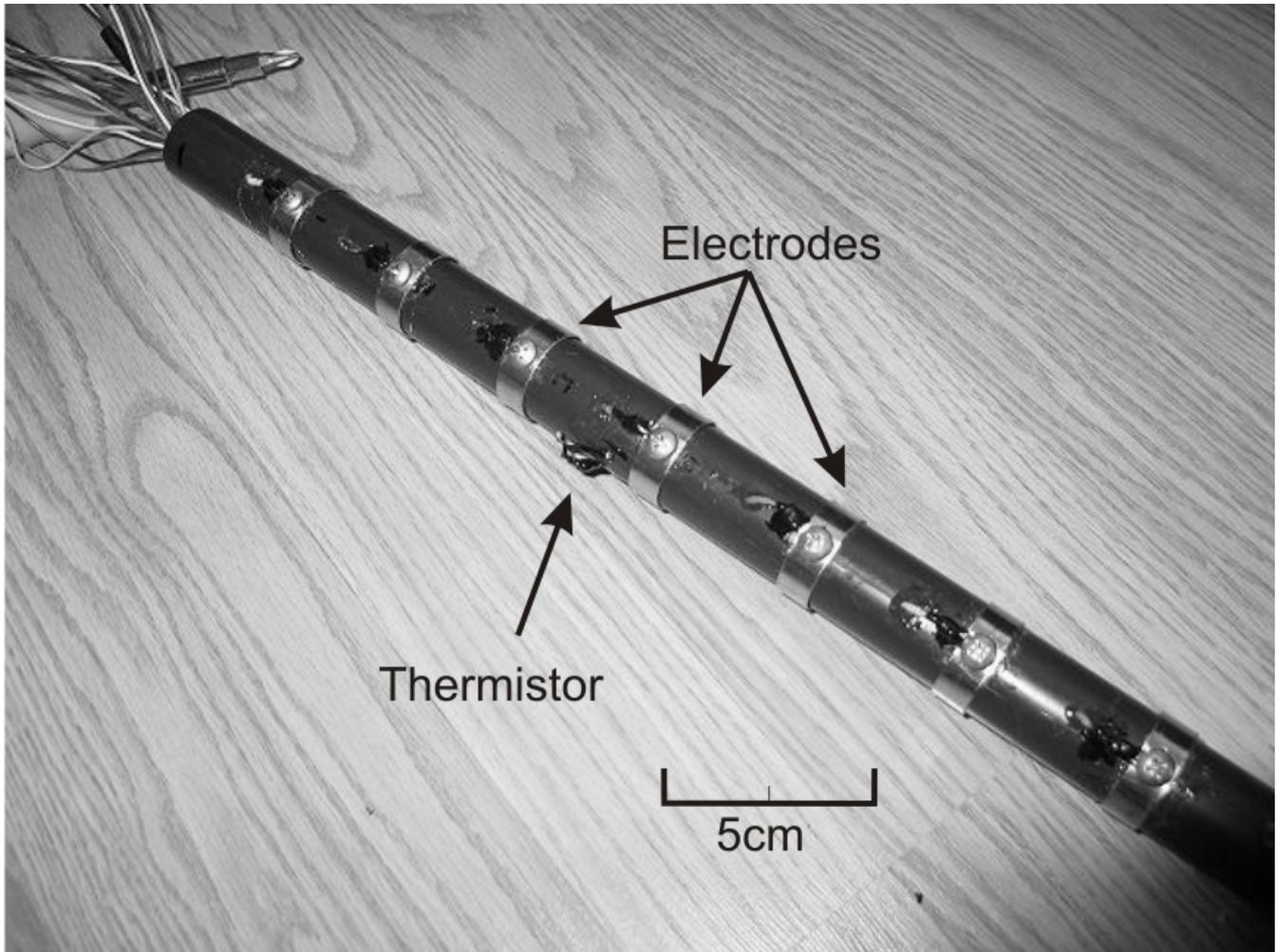
64 **2.0 Materials and Methods**

65 The monitoring system is composed of two parts; the down hole in situ geophysical probe, which
66 includes the electrodes for making contact with the subsurface; and the electronic instrument used for
67 acquiring and recording the data.

68 **Geophysical Probes**

69 Four geophysical probes were constructed and installed to monitor subsurface water content
70 dynamics through apparent resistivity (ρ_a) measurements. These probes consisted of 19 mm (0.75 inch

71 O.D.) Schedule 80 PVC pipe with stainless steel band electrodes wrapped around the outside of the pipe
72 at 5 cm intervals along the length of the pipe and secured with stainless steel screws. LaBrecque and
73 Daily (2008) present a comprehensive analysis of the performance of several electrode materials and
74 indicate that stainless steel performs reasonably well. Alternatively, Grimm et al. (2005) chose to use
75 titanium electrodes due to titanium's resistance to weathering and to polarization. However, titanium's
76 cost could be prohibitive to its use in low-cost systems, and for this reason was not chosen. Hence, the
77 relatively low-cost option of stainless steel was chosen for this long-term monitoring experiment. The
78 probes were constructed in order to fit in a direct push Geoprobe® hole, requiring an outside diameter
79 no greater than 3.8 cm (1.50 inches). Wires to connect the electrodes to the datalogger and multiplexers
80 were threaded through the interior of each probe. Thermistors were installed along the side of each
81 probe at intervals of approximately thirty centimeters, or every six electrode spacings. Resistivity is a
82 temperature-dependent physical property. These thermistors can be used to measure the subsurface
83 temperature. This data allows for a temperature correction to be made to the resistivity data, thus
84 providing a more accurate depiction of subsurface water content. Resistivity measurements are also
85 impacted by the geometry of the electrode array. An empirical geometric factor for these probes was
86 determined following the procedure outlined by Gronki and Sauck (2000). Figure 1 shows an example
87 of a finished ρ_a and temperature probe.



88

89 Figure 1: Resistivity and temperature probe with electrode spacing of 5cm and thermistors spaced at 30
90 cm.

91

Electronic Instrument System Design

92

93

94

95

To achieve our low-cost objective, the assemblage of the acquisition and datalogging system from off-the-shelf components was required. The cost of materials for this project was \$7400 and probe construction required approximately forty hours. Commercially available resistivity meters do not contain cost effective components necessary for long-term (i.e., longer than one year) experiments.

96 Therefore, the CR1000 datalogger and all associated electronic components from Campbell Scientific,
97 Inc. were chosen for low cost, versatility, and programming customization options. This datalogger has
98 a pulse count channel that may be used to collect data from a rain gauge, can control numerous
99 multiplexers, and has convenient programming and data retrieval options. Equally important is the
100 capability of system alarms to trigger changes in the data collection mode (i.e. the frequency of recorded
101 measurements), which is required to adapt for site dynamics

102 Although a telemetry option was available through Campbell Scientific, Inc., the data for this
103 project were stored on a compact flash device within the datalogger to decrease overall system cost.
104 Power was supplied by an MSX20 _20-Watt Solar panel which was used to recharge the PS100 12 V
105 Power Supply. A tipping bucket rain gauge TE525WS was used to monitor daily and hourly rainfall
106 totals. Four AM 16/32 relay multiplexers controlled the switching of electrodes and thermistors. The
107 entire datalogging system was housed on-site in an ENC12/14 enclosure.

108 The CR1000 was programmed to control the four multiplexers to select the desired resistivity
109 electrodes or thermistors. Using a precision 100 Ω resistor, a four wire half bridge measurement was
110 performed to obtain the current for the resistivity measurements. A full bridge measurement was used to
111 obtain the voltage for resistivity measurements, and a three wire half bridge, using a 1,000 Ω reference
112 resistor, was utilized to obtain resistance values from the thermistors for the temperature data.

113 All data were stored in ASCII tables. Meta data included a time stamp and record number. The
114 resistivity and temperature measurements were collected every four hours and recorded in a single table
115 which contained the resistivity measurement position and the thermistor position. During precipitation
116 events and throughout the subsequent four hours, the resistivity and temperature data were stored in a
117 separate table, which includes rain gauge precipitation data recorded as the total precipitation for every
118 three-minute scan cycle. Hourly and daily rain totals were also recorded by the system. Site visits,

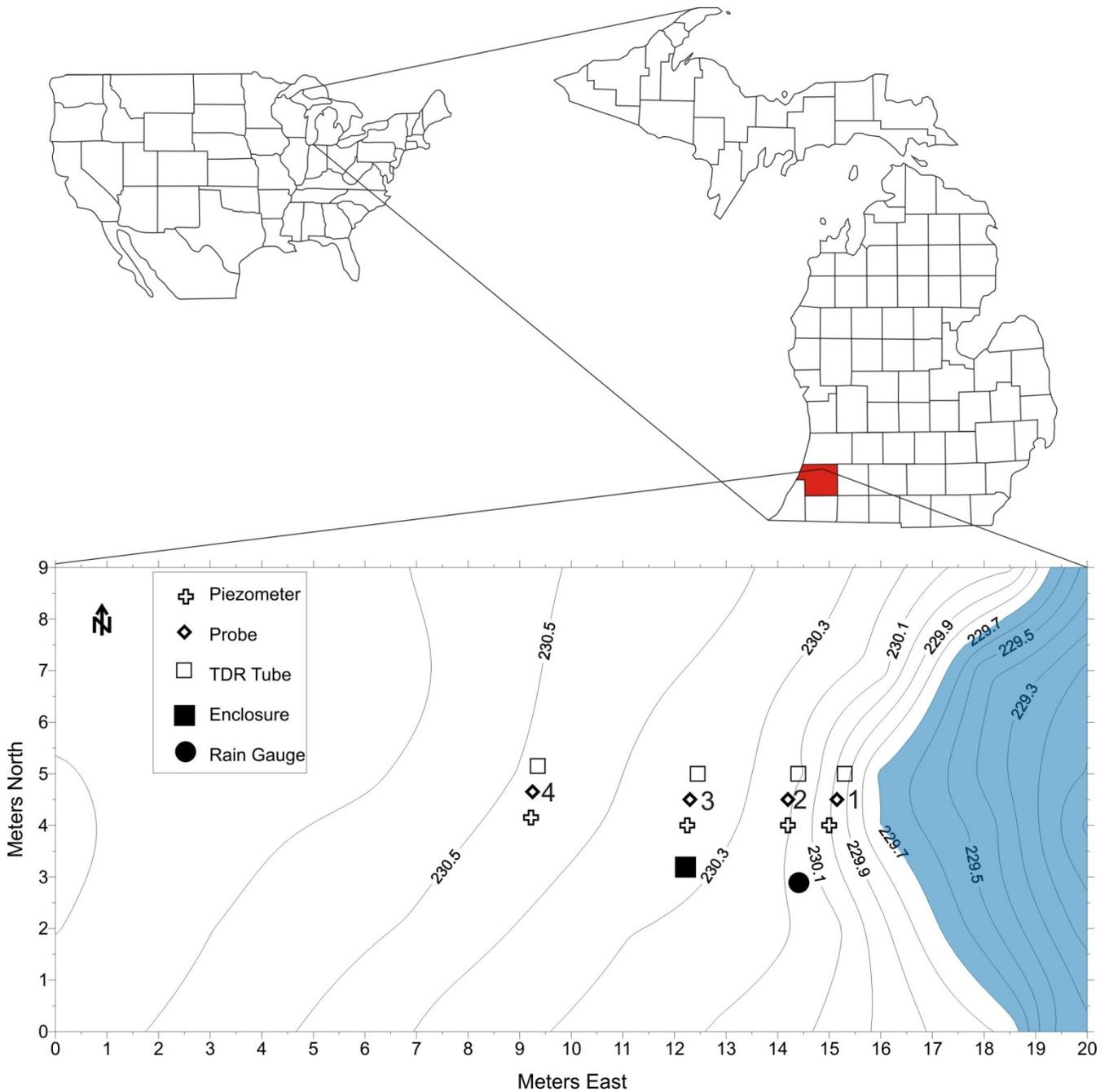
119 varying in frequency from once every few days to several months, were made to retrieve the data from
120 the compact flash card and for system inspection.

121 Due to the depth to the water table and constraints with the datalogger capacity, the most
122 practical design for experimental testing of this system was four individual probes; two of one-meter
123 length and two of two-meter length. Probes 1 and 2 each contained sixteen electrodes. Probe 3
124 contained thirty-one electrodes and Probe 4 contained thirty-three electrodes. These lengths ensured that
125 each probe crossed the transition between the vadose and saturated zones. The datalogger was
126 connected to the probes and configured to record a series of Pole-Pole resistivity measurements from
127 adjacent electrodes on the same probe which resulted in ninety-two measurement positions every four
128 hours. Due to constraints of the data logging system and chosen multiplexers, not all possible
129 combinations of electrode pairs on a given vertical array were used. Resistivity measurements were
130 only taken from electrodes adjacent to each other on the same probe. During precipitation events and
131 for the next four hours following such events, the frequency of the data collection cycle was increased to
132 one cycle every three minutes. These data provided a very detailed image of infiltration events.

133 **Field Site**

134 The test site was in a hay field near a man-made pond constructed approximately fifty years ago
135 in Pine Grove Township (Township 1 South, Range 13 West), Van Buren County, Michigan. The
136 probes were installed vertically into the subsurface at an increasing distance from the pond and in a line
137 perpendicular to the bank of the pond (Figure 2). Surface resistivity and ground penetrating radar (GPR)
138 surveys along perpendicular lines verified the lateral continuity of soil layers prior to probe installation.
139 When the pond was created, the excavated material was piled on top of the soil surface surrounding the
140 new pond. A 5-cm (2-inch) diameter monitoring well was installed 0.5 m from each probe at the same
141 distance from the pond to monitor water table levels at periodic intervals throughout the experiment. A

142 time domain reflectometry (TDR) access tube was installed 0.5 m near each probe. Unfortunately, a
143 necessary deviation from the recommended installation procedure for the access tube, due to the
144 presence of large pebbles and cobbles, invalidated most of the TDR results and thus those are not
145 presented. Additional attempts through the use of a neutron probe to obtain moisture content data also
146 failed due to the inhomogeneities of the subsurface. As such, a qualitative measure of the subsurface
147 moisture content was performed. Probes 1, 2, 3, and 4 were installed in a row perpendicular to the pond,
148 at 3 m, 4 m, 6 m, and 9 m from the edge of the water at the time of installation. The water level of the
149 pond was below 230 m (+/- 1 m) elevation throughout the duration of the experiment.



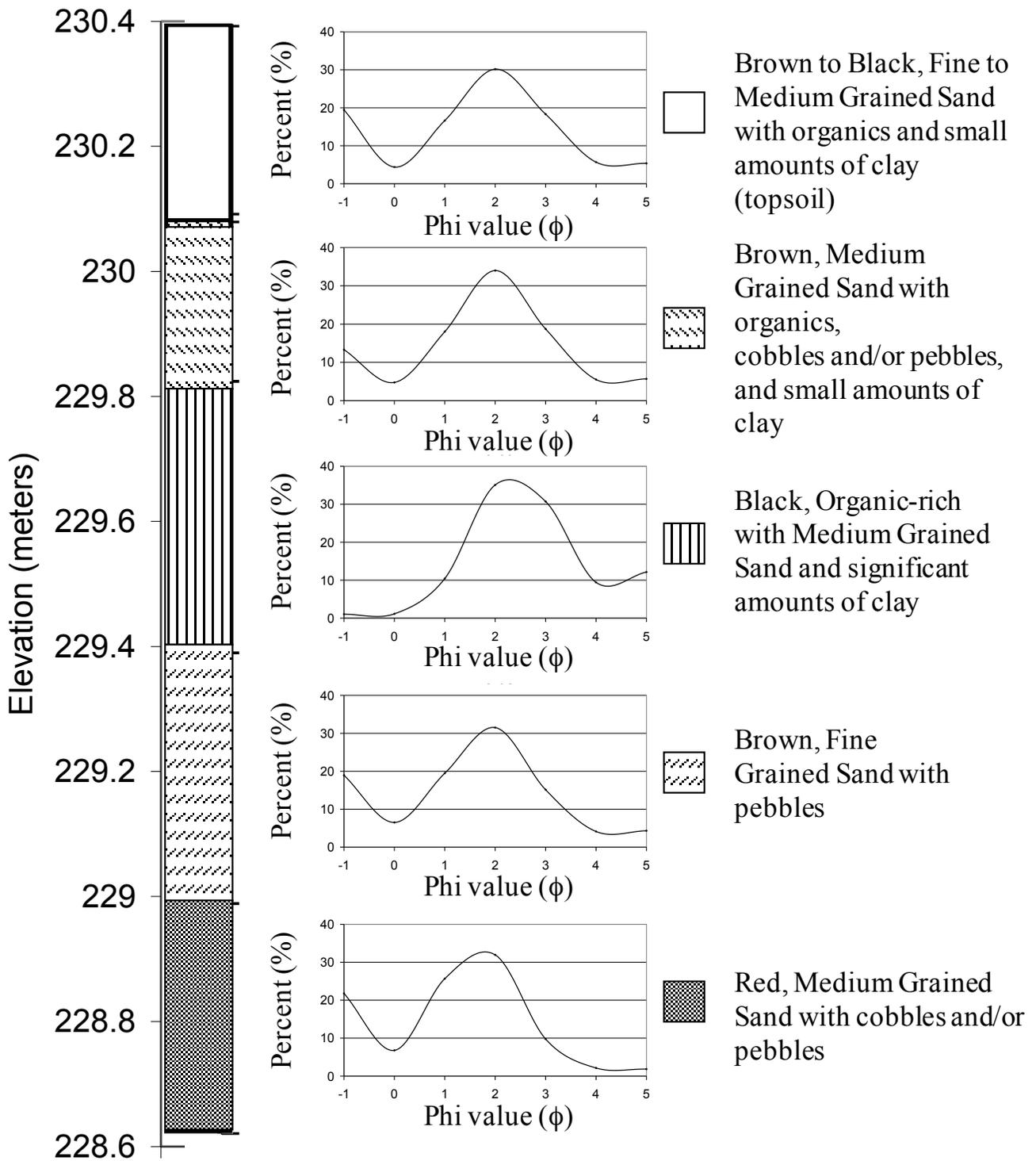
150

151 Figure 2: Site map showing location of probes. Surface water (shown in blue) was at 229.7m elevation
 152 at the time of installation.

153 Figure 3 shows the site representative subsurface soil distribution at the location of Probe 4
 154 where the water table varied between approximately 230 m and 229 m. The Phi Value in this figure
 155 represents the log (base 2) of the grain size divided by the standard grain size of 1mm (Nichols, 1999)

156 with high phi values corresponding to small sediment sizes and low phi values corresponding to large
157 sediment sizes. High water table levels were recorded in the late winter and spring months while low
158 water table levels were recorded in the late summer and fall months. The soil profile between Probes 2,
159 3, and 4 was laterally continuous. This uniform stratigraphy created an ideal situation for vertical
160 resistivity measurements. The clay-rich layer from 229.4 m to 229.8 m elevation was likely the pre-
161 excavation topsoil. This horizon was not present at the location of Probe 1, which was installed within
162 the initial pond excavation area and was not submerged by surface water at any time during the testing
163 period, due to low water levels. Sieve analysis of the cuttings from installation indicated a subsurface
164 composed primarily of 0.25 mm to 0.5 mm sands with pebbles and cobbles found throughout the profile.
165 The amount of fines, defined as anything smaller than 0.066 mm in diameter, remained below ten
166 percent throughout the profile with the exception of the old pre-pond excavation topsoil layer which
167 varied between ten and twenty percent.

168 The vadose zone hydrology was significantly influenced by the clay-rich horizon between 229.4
169 m and 229.8 m elevation. There were more fines within this old topsoil layer than found in the sandy
170 layers above and below this horizon. This unit remained above the top of the water saturated zone for
171 most of the duration of the testing. As such, it may be expected that during precipitation events, this
172 horizon acted as a barrier to rapid infiltration below 229.4 m elevation.



173

174 Figure 3: Lithologic description of the five distinct geologic units as observed at the location of Probe 4.

175 These units are similar for the other probe locations.

176

177 **3.0 Results/Discussion**

178

Error Analysis

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

186

187

188

189

190

Long-Term Results

191

192

193

194

195

196

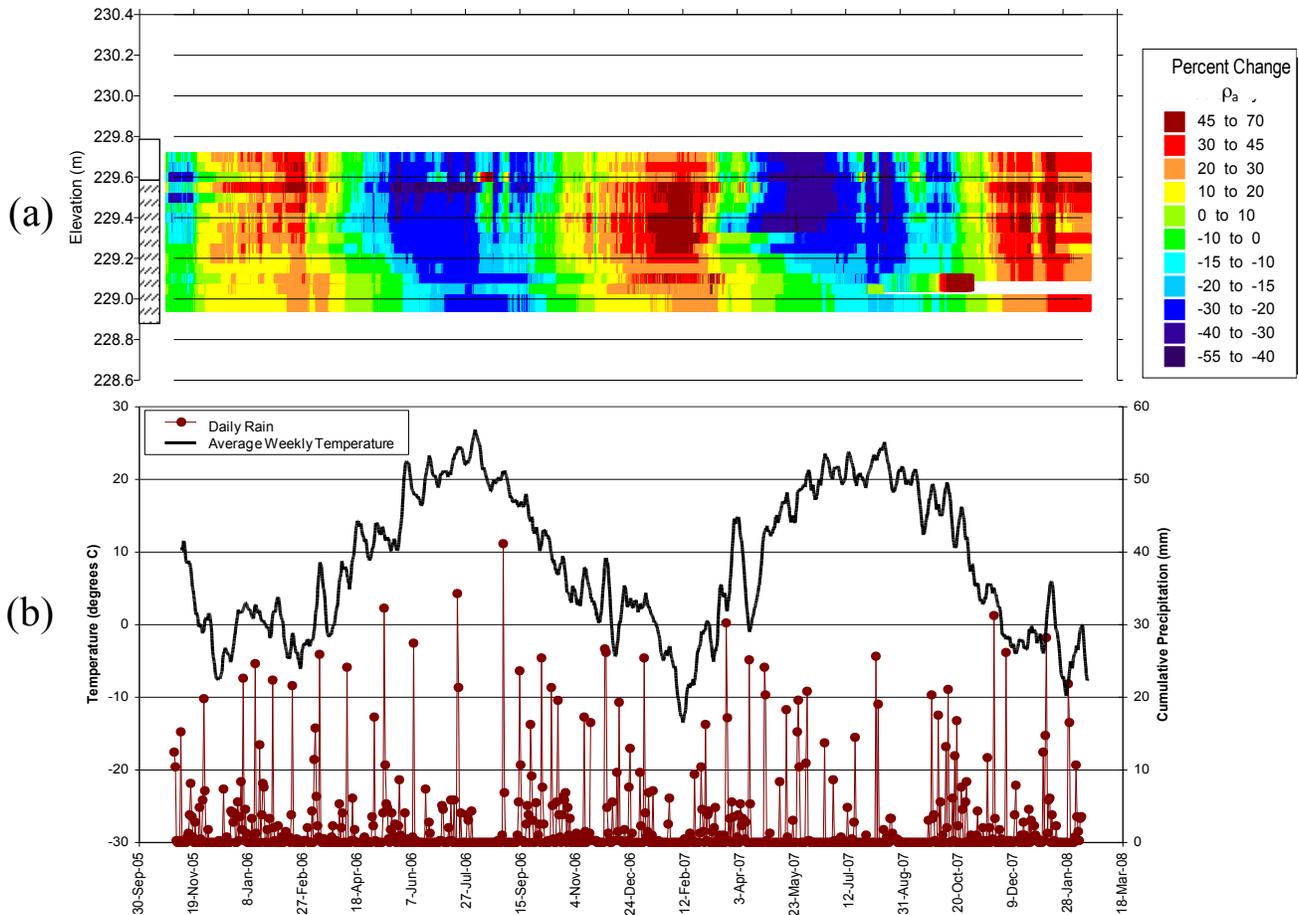
197

198

The experimental design was implemented and tested for nearly three years. Long-term results and inspection of the probes removed after the experiment indicate that this system was robust and endured over the course of the experiment. While a few of the electrodes exhibited some degradation caused by changes in the contact resistance over time, an effect which has been described in detail by LaBrecque and Sharpe (2006), there were no system failures and no substantial long-term drift identified in the data. Due to the low output voltage available through the CR1000, it was important to determine the accuracy of the resistivity measurements made with this system. Therefore, a comparison was made using a Syscal R2 resistivity meter. Measurements were made in the ranges of 79 Ωm to 160 Ωm with readings taken at all probes. All these resistivity measurements were within 10%, which was deemed acceptable. The measured values were similar despite the fact that the sphere of influence for each measurement taken by the CR1000 may be slightly diminished in comparison to a higher-output device.

Measurement modes were customized to identify transient events such as infiltration (one cycle of ninety-two resistivity measurements every three minutes) and for long-term monitoring using this same system. Figure 4 shows a typical data set representing one measurement from each resistivity measurement position every four hours at Probe 1 from November 2005 through January 2008. The apparent resistivity values have been converted to percent change of apparent resistivity from the 2006 average at each measurement location, which is every 5 cm based on the pole-pole ‘a’-spacing configuration. To calculate this percent change for each measurement position, the average of all apparent resistivity data taken at each position during normal data collection (one measurement each

199 four hours) was determined. This resulted in ninety-two individual 2006 averages, one average for each
200 measurement position. Each average value was then used to determine the percent change for the other
201 resistivity measurements at similar locations. In the absence of a calibration factor between resistivity
202 and moisture content, this method allows a qualitative assessment of the subsurface saturation state as
203 related to the measured resistivity. These data are presented without inversion and are therefore
204 apparent resistivity, ρ_a , of the subsurface and not true resistivity. By plotting the apparent resistivity
205 value between each electrode pair with depth, Figure 4 displays the percent change of the apparent
206 resistivity of each measurement position with time. However, the appearance of the yearly cycle of high
207 and low resistivity values corresponding to winter and summer months, respectively, clearly illustrates
208 the impact of temperature upon the subsurface resistivity. The fact that these variations extend into the
209 saturated zone demonstrates that these large, seasonal changes are not caused by water content
210 variations, but by temperature changes. These long-term data illustrate seasonal trends, with high
211 apparent resistivity in the winter months and low apparent resistivity in the summer months due to
212 temperature variations.



213

214 Figure 4: (a) Percent change of apparent resistivity for each measurement position from the 2006
 215 average, (b) weekly average temperature, and daily rainfall totals at the location of Probe 1. The
 216 lithologic description is shown near the elevation axis and is similar to that shown in Figure 3.

217

Short-Term Results

218

219

220

221

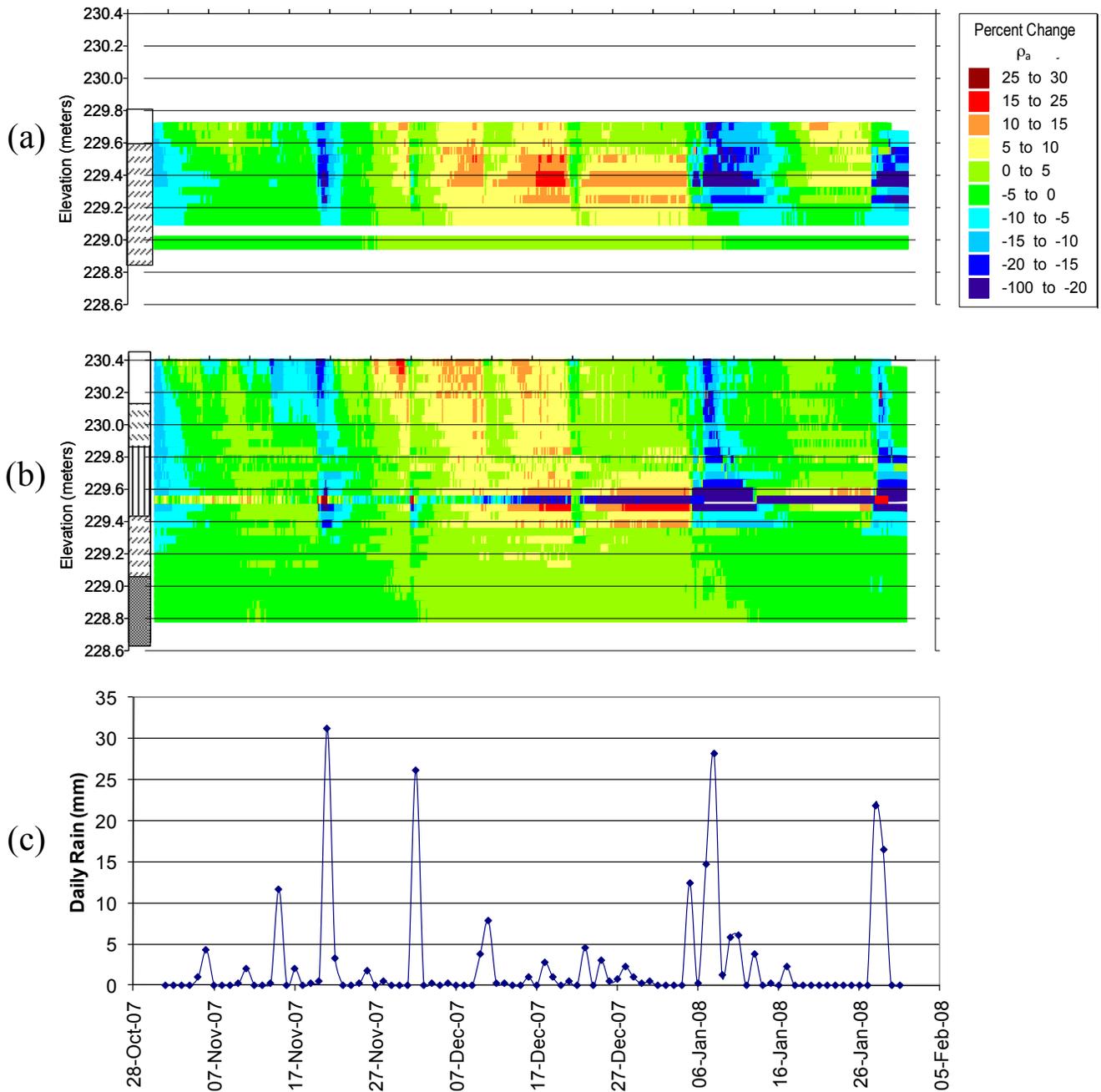
222

223

These data also show short term infiltration patterns which are also influenced by the seasons. Imbibition and drainage cycles may be seen as high frequency variations imposed upon the low frequency temperature changes. Snow cover during the winter months at this site tends to decrease infiltration. Thus, the short-term decrease of apparent resistivity from precipitation events, which is caused by increased water content from infiltration, is minimized during these months. Figure 5 displays a detailed version of the infiltration events that occurred from November 2007 through January

224 2008 at Probe 1 and Probe 4. These data also reveal a faulty electrode connection apparent at 229.5m
225 elevation at Probe 4. Nevertheless, the overall subsurface apparent resistivity changes are clearly
226 evident. It is clear (Figure 5) that the stratigraphic unit with abundant fines at 229.4m to 228.8m
227 elevation is a significant contributor to subsurface water flow. This is evident through the increased
228 time that this unit maintains a lower apparent resistivity (i.e. the fines are holding on to the water that
229 has infiltrated) compared to the upper unit which allows more rapid infiltration. An example of this may
230 be seen in Figure 5 on 2 December 2007 when there was a precipitation event of over 26mm. The
231 decreased apparent resistivity within the clay-rich unit persists for nearly four days following the
232 precipitation event while the upper unit returns to higher apparent resistivity values by the next day after
233 the precipitation.

234 It should be noted that the air temperature during the first half of the month of January 2008 was
235 abnormally high, allowing for several infiltration events to occur in response to rainfall and snow melt.
236 Overall, the impact of infiltration on the subsurface is subdued during the winter months, as seen in
237 December 2007, due to the frozen ground surface and snow cover restricting infiltration. The data
238 collection method of this system allows a visualization of surface temperature's influence upon the
239 amount of infiltration. Figure 5 illustrates the impact and extent of precipitation events from 5-13
240 January and 28-29 January impacting the subsurface water content

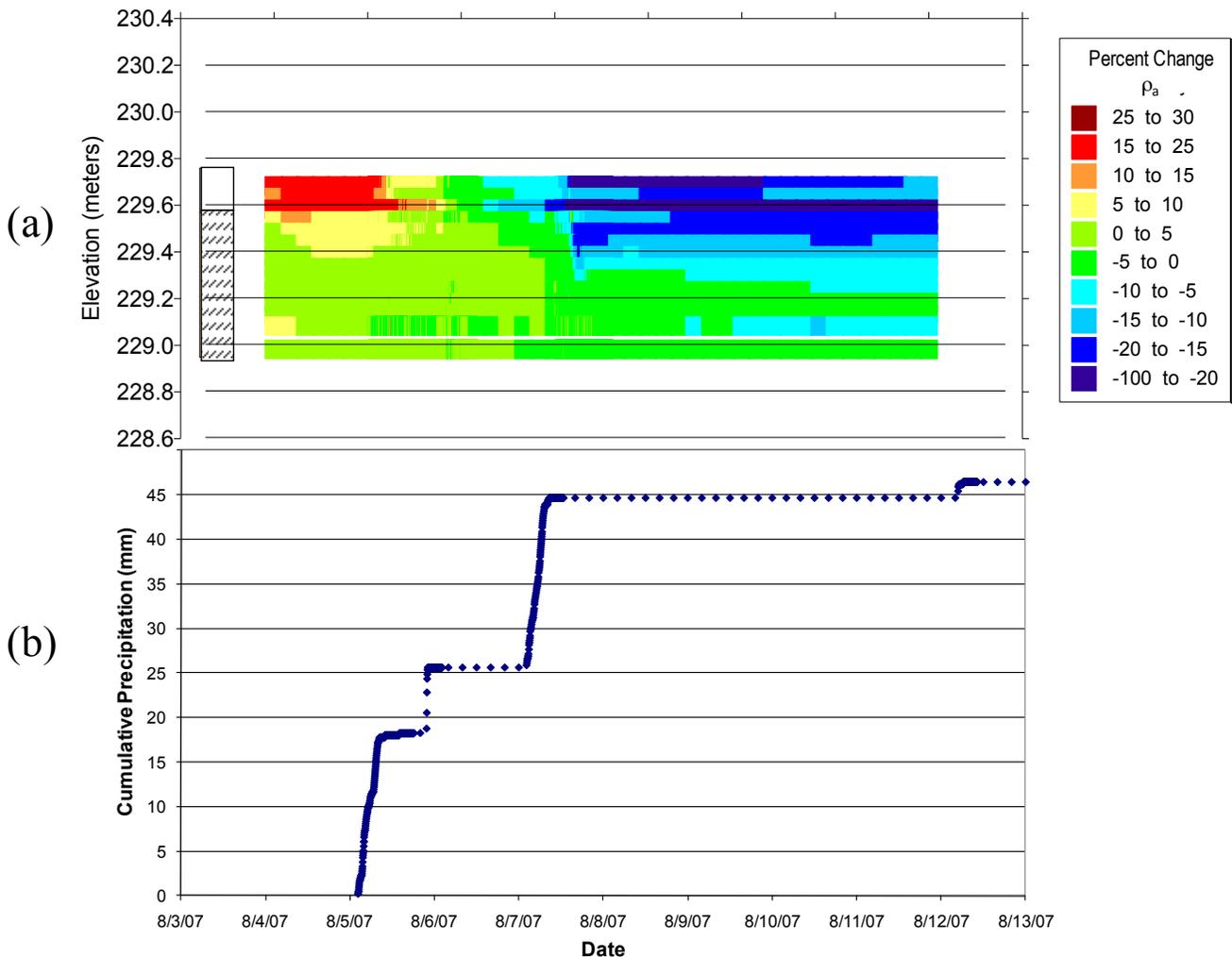


241

242 Figure 5: Infiltration front imaging at (a) Probe 1 and (b) Probe 4 showing the imbibition and drainage
 243 phases of the front with the (c) total daily rainfall below.

244 The robust design of this system allowed for greater resolution of infiltration fronts through the
 245 rapid data collection during and for four hours immediately following precipitation events. Figure 6
 246 shows a series of natural infiltration events which occurred during the week, from 5 August 2007

247 through 13 August 2007. Initially, the upper portion of the subsurface was unsaturated, as shown by the
248 high percent change of apparent resistivity indicated in red prior to the precipitation event of 5 August.
249 The initial influx of water from this infiltration event was observed through an apparent resistivity value
250 near the 2006 average by 6 August. Further precipitation and subsequent infiltration on 7 August may
251 be seen as the apparent resistivity values decrease into the blue range of this color scale, indicating that
252 they have achieved a greater level of saturation, and a subsequent decrease in apparent resistivity
253 relative to the 2006 average.



254

255 Figure 6: High resolution (time scale of one week) infiltration front imaging at Probe 1 as imaged
256 through (a) % change ρ_a and (b) the cumulative precipitation for the 5-13 Aug 2007 precipitation event.

Temperature Dependence

There is an obvious correlation between the weekly average temperature and the measured apparent resistivity in Figure 4, which is expected since temperature influences apparent resistivity. Apparent resistivity decreases during the summer months due to increased temperatures and increases during the winter months due to decreased temperatures. Keller and Frischknecht (1966) indicate theoretical temperature dependency of electrolyte or rock saturated with electrolyte in the following formula:

$$\rho_t = \frac{\rho_{18}}{1 + \alpha_t(t - 18^\circ)}$$

where ρ_{18} is the reference resistivity at 18°C (although other temperatures may be used), α_t is the temperature coefficient of resistivity (typically 0.025/°C), t is the changed temperature, and ρ_t is the resistivity at the changed temperature. This work was advanced in low-temperature geologic environments, within the range of 0-25°C, by Hayley et al. (2007). These researchers performed laboratory experiments and a field study showing a 1.8% to 2.2% change in the bulk electrical conductivity per degree Celsius, which should be considered a representative approximation, in the absence of other information (Hayley et al., 2007). Using a reference resistivity of 160Ωm at 18°C and solving for the resistivity at 8°C using the formula presented by Keller and Frischknecht, a percent change in the electrical conductivity of 2.5% per degree Celsius is obtained. The above reference resistivity and temperature values were chosen because they fall within the range of data collected at our field site.

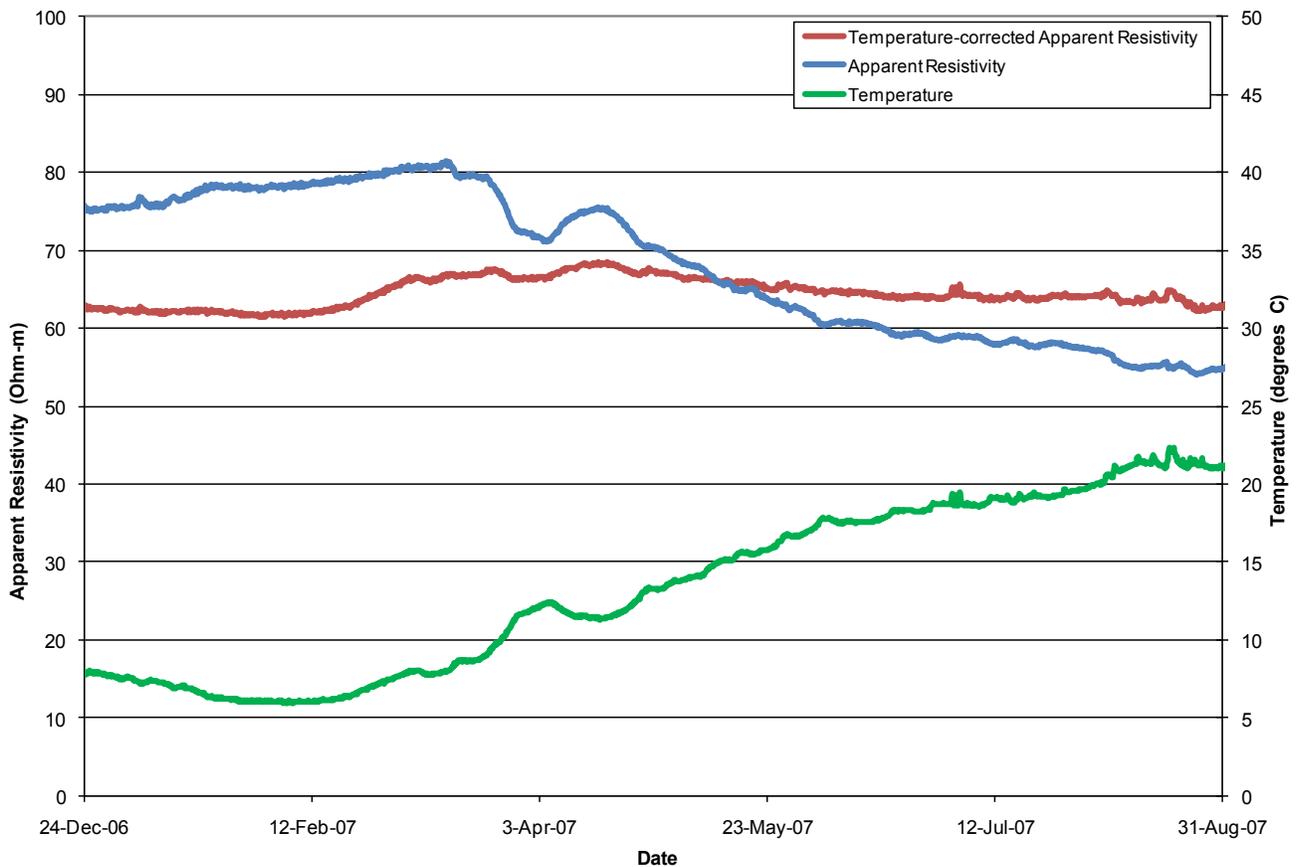
We tested these approximations by selecting reference values from our vadose zone and saturated zone data and determined empirical temperature coefficients for these two zones. A sample of data was taken between 5 March 2007 and 28 May 2007, which consisted of a total of 500 data points from the normal data collection mode, to derive an empirical relationship between the temperature and

279 the bulk electrical conductivity at the location of Probe 1. Our empirically derived relationship using
280 subsurface temperatures measured by the probe thermistors shows a 2.98% change of conductivity per
281 degree Celsius in the saturated zone and a 5.27% change of conductivity per degree Celsius in the
282 vadose zone. Recall, these percent changes were calculated with respect to the apparent resistivity
283 measured on 13 May 2007. This date was chosen because a measurement of the pore water conductivity
284 was made on this date. The saturated zone response was determined from data at the lowest five
285 measurement positions. The unsaturated zone response was determined from the data collected at the
286 upper six measurement positions. This temperature correction was applied to the apparent resistivity
287 values of Probe 1 between December 2006 and August 2007.

288 Apparent resistivity values from 228.98 m elevation at the location of Probe 1 from 24 December
289 2006 through 31 August 2007 were corrected for temperature and are displayed in Figure 7. The
290 measurement position shown in this figure remained below the water table for the duration of the time
291 range plotted. As such it may be assumed that the apparent resistivity was not impacted by saturation
292 changes. The most likely changes at this position would be caused by changes in temperature or pore
293 water conductivity variations. At this elevation of Probe 1, the overall range of temperature-corrected
294 apparent resistivity observed between 24 December 2006 and 31 August 2007 is 61.42 Ωm to 68.49
295 Ωm . As the overall apparent resistivity at this position remains fairly constant, we assume that the pore
296 water conductivity does not significantly vary over the sampled time interval. Figure 8 shows similar
297 results at an elevation of 229.63 m at Probe 1 and depicts measurements made in the vadose zone. The
298 temperature-corrected apparent resistivity is influenced by the variation of vadose zone water content.
299 Thus interpretations concerning the saturation state of the subsurface may be made from Figure 8.

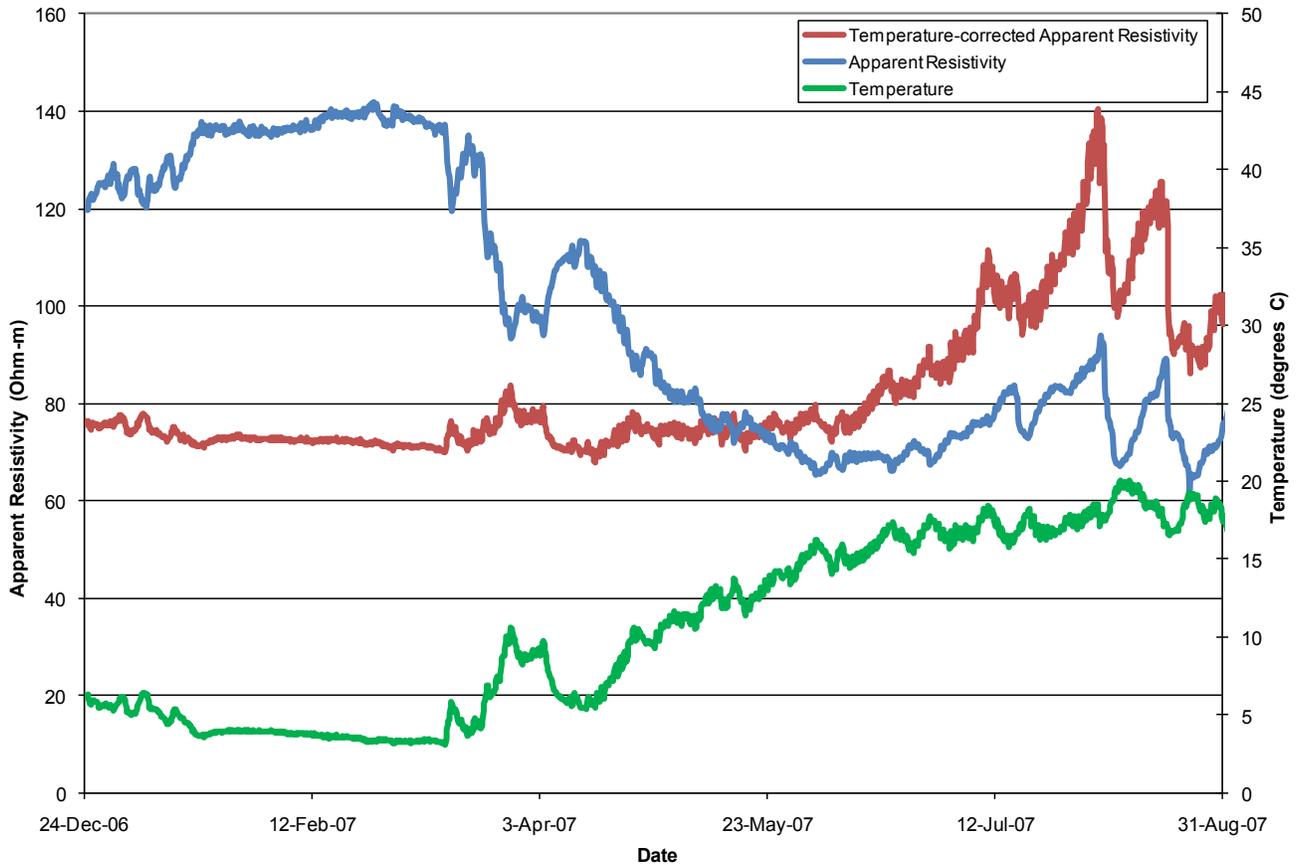
300 Interestingly, a marked increase of apparent resistivity is noted in June and July when the
301 apparent resistivity is corrected for temperature variations (Figure 8), despite the fact that the apparent

302 resistivity is expected to decrease during the summer months from increased surface temperatures. This
303 phenomenon is likely caused by the depletion of soil moisture in the root zone due to extraction by
304 vegetation which is exactly what Michot et al. (2003) and Panissod et al. (2001) observed during
305 summer months. Therefore, an accurate quantitative analysis of the moisture content of the subsurface
306 would require the use of temperature corrections.



307
308 Figure 7: Saturated zone temperature-corrected apparent resistivity.

309



310

311 Figure 8: Vadose zone temperature-corrected apparent resistivity.

312 **Volumetric Water Content Limitations**

313 It is very useful to convert apparent resistivity measurements to volumetric water content.
 314 However, this conversion requires a valid field measurement of volumetric water content in order to
 315 correlate to the field measurements of apparent resistivity or an inversion of the data is necessary to
 316 apply Archie's Law for a reasonable estimate. Due to the presence of pebbles and cobbles in the
 317 subsurface at this site, the use of time domain reflectometry (TDR) or a neutron probe for measuring the
 318 subsurface water content is impractical. These instruments require a calibration to the volumetric water
 319 content of an undisturbed soil sample. Samples taken of the soil at this site contain large pebbles that
 320 radically alter the calculated volumetric water content. For this specific site, apparent resistivity proved
 321 a practical method of monitoring the subsurface water content variation over a testing period of nearly

322 three years. A general understanding of the water content may be obtained in heterogeneous subsurfaces
323 such as the one encountered at this site through the use of the resistivity index, which is defined as the
324 observed resistivity divided by the saturated resistivity. However, this requires foreknowledge of the
325 resistivity at saturation for each measurement position. Alternatively, as shown in this work, the percent
326 change of apparent resistivity can be used to qualitatively image the saturation state of the subsurface in
327 the absence of a true calibration between volumetric water content and resistivity.

328

329 **4.0 Conclusions**

330

331 The method presented in this work details an example of a low-cost system of making long-term
332 subsurface apparent resistivity and temperature measurements in a shallow field setting. The system
333 contains low-cost commercially available components and proved durable over the course of nearly
334 three years. High quality, high resolution data were collected at a moderately heterogeneous, shallow
335 subsurface location. The electrode spacing of 5 cm allowed an intricate depiction of the infiltration of
336 precipitation in a natural field setting, while the durable nature of the system allowed long-term
337 observations. The short-term, high temporal resolution, data collection during and after precipitation
338 events clearly shows imbibition and drainage due to natural infiltration events. Seasonal trends are
339 observed in the long-term apparent resistivity data as temperature variations, with high apparent
340 resistivity values in the winter months and low apparent resistivity values in the summer months, and
341 infiltration patterns, which are influenced by the seasonal variation in precipitation form (rain versus
342 snow) and ground cover (grass versus snow). Subsurface temperature variability impacted field
343 resistivity measurements, especially over long time periods. At the field site analyzed in this study, the
344 variation of conductivity with temperature was a 2.97% increase of conductivity per degree Celsius in
345 the saturated zone and a 5.27% increase of conductivity per degree Celsius in the vadose zone.

346 Apparent resistivity has been shown to monitor infiltration fronts and to identify water uptake by plant
347 roots. As an extension to the applicability of this system, resistivity could, in some circumstances, be
348 used to determine useful hydrogeological parameters such as water content in the vadose zone, but only
349 if resistivity can be previously calibrated against absolute water content at the same site. Likewise, the
350 low-cost system described herein could be applied to low-budget projects which may require the
351 monitoring of either subsurface water content or chemical changes of subsurface water which may be
352 correlated to resistivity changes and possible agricultural studies of plant water uptake.

353

354 **5.0 Acknowledgements**

355

356 Funding for this project was provided by the Michigan Space Grant Consortium Graduate Research
357 Fellowship. The authors wish to thank Mr. Rockie Keeley for the use of his land as a field test site.
358 Although this work was reviewed by EPA and approved for presentation, it may not necessarily reflect
359 official Agency policy. Mention of trade names or commercial products does not constitute
360 endorsement or recommendation by EPA for use. We also appreciate the comments from reviewers,
361 which strengthened and clarified this manuscript.

362

363 **References**

- 364 Aaltonen, J. and B. Olofsson. 2002. Direct current (DC) resistivity measurements in long-term
365 groundwater monitoring programmes. *Environmental Geology*, 41(6): 662-671.
- 366 Atekwana, E.A., W.A. Sauck, and D.D. Werkema, Jr. 2000. Investigations of geoelectrical signatures at
367 a hydrocarbon contaminated site. *Journal of Applied Geophysics*, 44: 167-180.

368 Binley, A., G. Cassiani, R. Middleton, and P. Winship. 2002a. Vadose zone flow model
369 parameterisation using cross-borehole radar and resistivity imaging. *Journal of Hydrology*, 267:
370 147-159.

371 Binley, A., P. Winship, L.J. West, M. Pokar, and R. Middleton. 2002b. Seasonal variation of moisture
372 content in unsaturated sandstone inferred from borehole radar and resistivity profiles. *Journal of*
373 *Hydrology*, 267: 160-172.

374 Cassiani, G., V. Bruno, A. Villa, N. Fusi, and A.M. Binley. 2006. A saline trace test monitored via time-
375 lapse surface electrical resistivity tomography. *Journal of Applied Geophysics*, 59: 244-259.

376 Daily, W. and A. Ramirez. 1995. Electrical resistance tomography during in-situ trichloroethylene
377 remediation at the Savannah River Site. *Journal of Applied Geophysics*, 33: 239-249.

378 Grimm, R.E., G.R. Olhoeft, K. McKinley, J. Rossabi, and B. Riha. 2005. Nonlinear Complex-Resistivity
379 Survey for DNAPL at the Savannah River Site A-014 Outfall. *Journal of Environmental and*
380 *Engineering Geophysics*, 10(4): 351-364.

381 Groncki, J.M. and W.A. Sauck. 2000. Calibration, installation techniques, and equilibration
382 considerations for vertical resistivity probes used in hydrogeologic investigations, Symposium
383 on the Application of Geophysics to Engineering and Environmental Problems, pp. 979-988.

384 Hagrey, S.A. and J. Michaelson. 1999. Resistivity and percolation study of preferential flow in vadose
385 zone at Bokhorst, Germany. *Geophysics*, 64(3): 746-753.

386 Hayley, K., L. Bentley, M. Gharibi, and M. Nightingale. 2007. Low temperature dependence of
387 electrical resistivity: Implications for near surface geophysical monitoring. *Geophysical*
388 *Research Letters*, 34: L18402.

389 Johnson, T., R. Versteeg, H. Huang, and P. Routh. 2009. Data-domain correlation approach for joint
390 hydrogeologic inversion of time-lapse hydrogeologic and geophysical data. *Geophysics*. 74:
391 F127-F140.

392 Keller and Frischknecht. 1966. *Electrical Methods in Geophysical Prospecting*. Oxford: Pergamon
393 Press.

394 Kemna, A., J. Vanderborght, B. Kulesa, and H. Vereecken. 2002. Imaging and characterisation of
395 subsurface solute transport using electrical resistivity tomography (ERT) and equivalent
396 transport models. *Journal of Hydrology*, 267: 125-146.

397 LaBrecque, D. and W. Daily. 2008. Assessment of measurement errors for galvanic-resistivity
398 electrodes of different composition. *Geophysics*, 73(2): F55-F64.

399 LaBrecque, D. and R. Sharpe. 2006. Progress in Ultra-High Precision Resistivity Tomography:
400 Electrode Aging in Long-Term Monitoring. Symposium on the Application of Geophysics to
401 Engineering and Environmental Problems, pp. 639-646.

402 Linde, N., A. Binley, A. Tryggvason, L.B. Pedersen, and A. Revil. 2006. Improved hydrogeophysical
403 characterization using joint inversion of cross-hole electrical resistance and ground-penetrating
404 radar traveltimes data. *Water Resources Research*, 42: W12404.

405 Michot, D., Y. Benderitter, A. Dorigny, B. Nicoullaud, D. King, and A. Tabbagh. 2003. Spatial and
406 temporal monitoring of soil water content with an irrigated corn crop cover using surface
407 electrical resistivity tomography. *Water Resources Research*, 39(5): 14-1 - 14-20.

408 Narbutovskih, S.M., W. Daily, A.L. Ramirez, T.D. Halter, and M.D. Sweeney. 1996. Electrical
409 resistivity tomography at the DOE Hanford site, Symposium on the Application of Geophysics to
410 Engineering and Environmental Problems, pp. 773-782.

411 Nichols, G. 1999. *Sedimentology & Stratigraphy*: Cambridge, University Press, 355 p.

412 Ogilvy, R., P. Meldrum, O. Kura, P. Wilkinson, J. Chambers, M. Sen, A. Pulido-Bosch, J. Gisbert, S.
413 Jorreto, I. Frances, and P. Tsourlos. 2009. Automated monitoring of coastal aquifers with
414 electrical resistivity tomography. *Near Surface Geophysics*, 7: 367-375.

415 Panissod, C., D. Michot, Y. Benderitter, and A. Tabbagh. 2001. On the effectiveness of 2D electrical
416 inversion results: an agricultural case study. *Geophysical Prospecting*, 49: 570-576.

417 Pfiefer, M.C. and H.T. Andersen. 1995. DC-resistivity array to monitor fluid flow at the INEL
418 infiltration test, Symposium on the Application of Geophysics to Engineering and Environmental
419 Problems, pp. 709-718.

420 Reed, P.C., P.B. DuMontelle, M.L. Sargent, and M.M. Killey. 1983. Nuclear Logging and Electrical
421 Earth Resistivity Techniques in the Vadose Zone in Glaciated Earth Materials, NWWA/U.S.
422 EPA conference on characterization and monitoring of the vadose (unsaturated) zone, pp. 580-
423 601.

424 Sauck, W.A. 2000. A model for the resistivity structure of LNAPL plumes and their environs in sandy
425 sediments. *Journal of Applied Geophysics*, 44: 151-165.

426 Singha, K. and S. Gorelick. 2005. Saline tracer visualized with three-dimensional electrical resistivity
427 tomography: Field-scale spatial moment analysis. *Water Resources Research*, 41: W05023.

428 Singha, K. and S. Gorelick. 2006a. Effects of spatially variable resolution on field-scale estimates of
429 tracer concentration from electrical inversions using Archie's law. *Geophysics*, 71(3): G83-G91.

430 Singha, K. and S. Gorelick. 2006b. Hydrogeophysical tracking of three-dimensional tracer migration:
431 The concept and application of apparent petrophysical relations. *Water Resources Research*, 42:
432 W06422.

433 Stephens, D.B. 1996. *Vadose Zone Hydrology*. Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press, Inc.

434 Vanderborght, J., A. Kemna, H. Hardelauf, and H. Vereecken. 2005. Potential of electrical resistivity
435 tomography to infer aquifer transport characteristics from tracer studies: A synthetic case study.
436 *Water Resources Research*, 41: W06013.

437 Werkema, D. 2002. Geoelectrical Response of an Aged LNAPL Plume: Implications for Monitoring
438 Natural Attenuation. Ph.D. diss., Department of Geology, Western Michigan University.

439 Werkema, D.D., E.A. Atekwana, E.A. Atekwana, J. Duris, J. Allen, L. Smart, and W.A. Sauck. 2004.
440 Laboratory and field results linking high bulk conductivities to the microbial degradation of
441 petroleum hydrocarbons, Symposium on the Application of Geophysics to Engineering and
442 Environmental Problems, pp. 363-373.

443 Yang, X. and D. LaBrecque. 2000. Estimation of 3-D moisture content using ERT data at the Socorro-
444 Tech Vadose Zone Facility, Symposium on the Application of Geophysics to Engineering and
445 Environmental Problems, pp. 915-924.

446