

Automated Geological Drill Core Logging Based on XRF Data Using Unsupervised Machine Learning Methods

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ABSTRACT

Technical advancements of tools for geoscientific data collection and machine learning techniques are becoming increasingly popular in applications for exploration geology. The aim of this research is to automate aspects of geological drill core logging based on the distinct geochemistry of the rock. A Swedish company called Minalyze developed an X-ray fluorescence (XRF) scanner that is able to detect the multi-elemental composition of the rock for the full length of the core. This machine was implemented into the mining workflow by Glencore plc at the George Fisher mine in Mount Isa, Australia. For this study, Glencore plc provided XRF scans for 31 drill holes. The scanner determined the quantity of each of the 24 elements for every 10 cm of the core. An unsupervised machine learning technique called self-organizing maps (SOM) was applied to the multi-dimensional data set to define anomalies and correlations between the input variables. The results showed a strong correlation between certain elemental compositions from the XRF scans and corresponding rock types, which were previously defined by mine geologists. Based on the SOM analysis of the XRF data, a classification scheme was developed which enables automatic differentiation of the main rock types at the George Fisher mine. This classification scheme can be used to automate the first passes of geological drill core logging at George Fisher. The application of a SOM was proven to be very consistent and accurate in recognizing distinct rock types, since the analysis was based on the input data from XRF scans. Automated geological drill core logging has the potential to enhance the consistency and significantly reduce the processing time and cost of drill core logging.

INTRODUCTION

This study is focused on using X-ray fluorescence (XRF) scans to discriminate between rock types based on the chemical composition of the rock. XRF is used to define the multi-element composition of materials and has recently been used for geoscientific applications (Beckhoff et al., 2006). Hand-held devices have become popular for mineral exploration and assist geologists in generating geochemical profiles of the rocks (Hou, He & Jones, 2004, Shand & Wendler, 2014, Ross, Bourke & Fresia, 2014). These profiles allow the identification of different minerals (Shand & Wendler, 2014) or recognition of lithological changes in the rock (Ross, Bourke & Fresia, 2014). A Swedish company, Minalyze, developed an XRF scanner, which scans drill cores directly in trays, and hence can provide geochemical profiles for the full length of core. A Minalyzer CS (core scanner) is installed at Glencore plc's George Fisher zinc-lead-silver (Zn-Pb-Ag) mine in Mount Isa, northwestern Queensland (Australia), to enhance geological drill core logging.

At George Fisher, the Zn-Pb-Ag mineralization is hosted in several stratiform orebodies, which are separated by a sequence of mid-Proterozoic calcareous siltstones and variably pyritic shales (Figure 1) (Valenta, 1994, Chapman, 2004). The stratigraphy is disrupted by several fault sets, which are extensional in the plane of bedding and occasionally cause fault-related gaps in the sequence of sedimentary units. The discontinuity of the stratigraphy hinders accurate core logging and requires a sophisticated knowledge of the geology among mine geologists. To increase the accuracy of drill core logging, the XRF data was assessed in terms of relationships and probable correlations between elements for each scanned interval of the core. Self-organizing maps (SOM), an unsupervised learning method (Kohonen, 2001), was employed for the analysis of the XRF data to identify trends or anomalies in data. The aim of this study was to define a classification scheme, which can be used to automatically distinguish between different rock types according to varying elemental compositions of the rock. At George Fisher, three main lithologies are identified: siltstone, shale, and pyritic shale.

Self-organizing maps

SOMs are a tool for data analysis that is based on the principles of vector quantization and can be used to measure similarities between vectors (Carneiro et al., 2012, Bierlein et al., 2008, Fraser & Dickson, 2007, Kohonen, 2001). Accordingly, each input sample converts to a vector in a multi-dimensional data space, where the dimension is determined by the amount of input variables. Following this, the SOM analysis divides the data into coherent patterns based on similarities between vectors (Fraser & Dickson, 2007). The results are plotted on a two-dimensional, rectilinear map that consists of numerous cells (nodes), where each node represents a node-vector in the data space (Bierlein et al., 2008, Fraser & Dickson, 2007). This map displays relationships between the variables and assists in recognizing patterns or meaningful clusters (Fraser & Dickson, 2007).

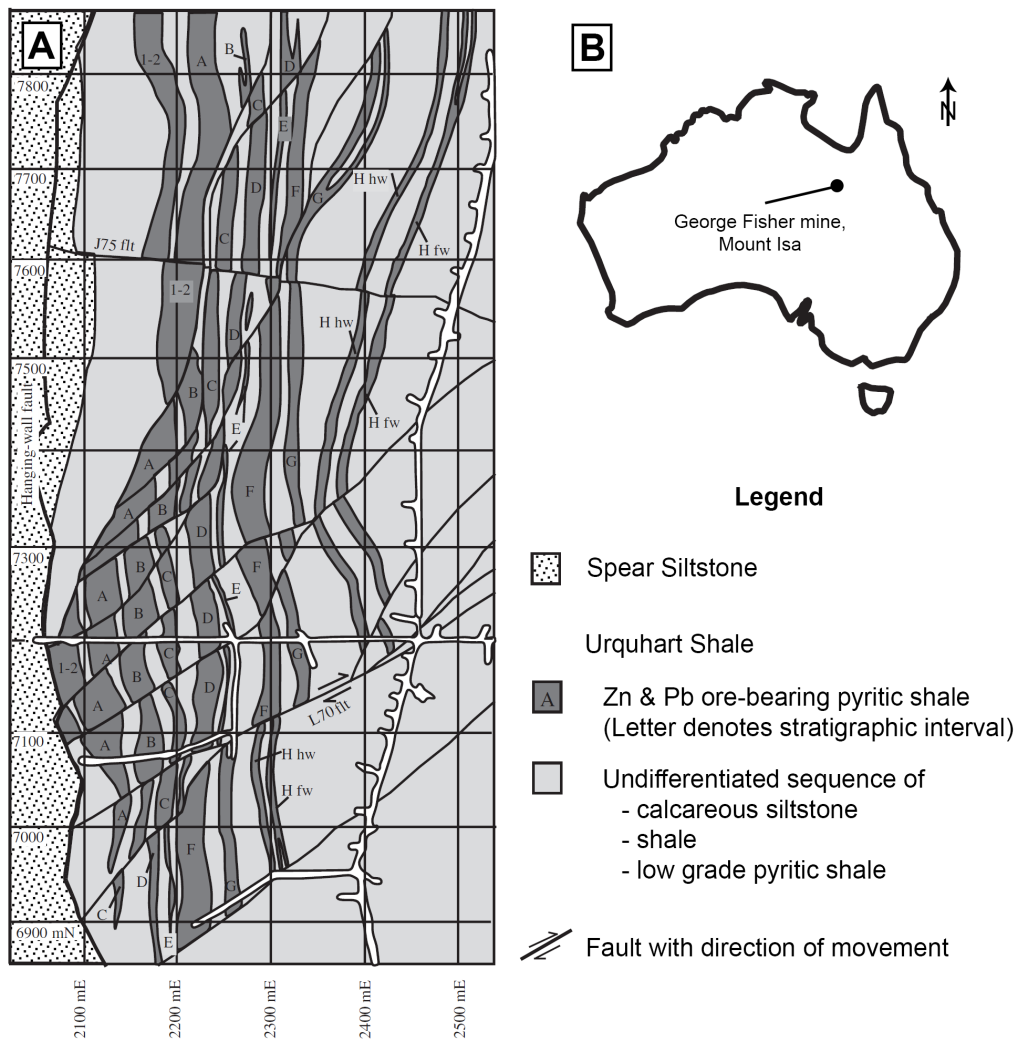


Figure 1 (A) West-east cross-section of the George Fisher mine. (B) Geographical location of the George Fisher mine, Mount Isa (Australia) (figure modified after Chapman (2004))

METHODOLOGY

31 drill cores from varying mine levels (depths) were scanned by a Minalyzer CS at a rate of 1 cm/sec (Sjöqvist et al., 2015) and in order to analyze for 18 elements (As, Ba, Cl, Cr, Cu, Fe, Ga, Nb, Ni, P, Rb, S, Sr, V, Y, Zn, Zr, Pb) and 6 element oxides (Al₂O₃, CaO, K₂O, MnO, SiO₂, TiO₂). Subsequently, the XRF readings were averaged for every 10 cm of scanned core. The Minalyzer CS is also equipped with a high-resolution (0.1mm/pixel) camera. Colored photographs were taken of the core while scanning. Lithology logs were provided by Glencore plc. The photographs and lithology logs were used to subsequently verify the automated rock type recognition.

The rock type recognition was primarily focused on defining variations in the host rock to mineralization. Hence, elements associated with the economic mineralization at George Fisher (Zn, Pb, Cu), were disregarded from the early-stage analysis. Furthermore, elements showing a strong correlation with either Zn, Pb or Cu, were also not considered to avoid bias of the analysis (As, Ba, Ga, Ni, Rb, Sr). Some XRF readings (P, Cl, V, Cr) were below detection limit and thus were not included in the analysis. The final data set was composed of five elements (Fe, Nb, S, Y, Zr) and six oxides (Al_2O_3 , CaO, K_2O , MnO, SiO_2 , TiO_2).

The full data set of analyses was composed of 55,760 samples with eleven variables (number of elements and oxides). For the SOM analysis, a software package termed SiroSOM (Version 2.04), developed by Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation (CSIRO), was employed. The results of the SOM analysis are displayed in a two-dimensional 'unified distance matrix' (U-Matrix) (Ultsch & Vetter, 1994) or as component plots for each variable (Fraser & Dickson, 2007), with SOM (x) representing the number of columns and SOM (y) representing the number of rows of the output data set. The U-matrix indicates the proximity between neighboring nodes according to their Euclidean distance (Fraser & Dickson, 2007). A color-temperature scale displays the distance between nodes. Warm colors indicate large distances (high disparity), cool colors indicate small distance (high similarity) between neighboring nodes (Carneiro et al., 2012, Fraser & Dickson, 2007). The component plots indicate the input of each variable towards the map (Carneiro et al., 2012, Fraser & Dickson, 2007). Again, a temperature scale visualizes the input value. Warm colors indicate a high contribution, cold colors indicate a low contribution (Fraser & Dickson, 2007). Finally, K-means clustering (Montavon & Orr, 2012) was applied to the results of the SOM to define similarities between the nodes and group the data into meaningful clusters.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of the SOM analysis were displayed and interpreted as component plots and in a U-Matrix with 56 columns (SOM (x)) \times 64 rows (SOM (y)) (Figure 2). Some variables show a high contribution to the SOM within the same spatial distribution of the map and thus indicate a good correlation: Al_2O_3 (Figure 2a), K_2O (Figure 2d), SiO_2 (Figure 2h), Zr (Figure 2k) (upper boundary, black polygons); Fe (Figure 2c); S (Figure 2g) (lower left boundary, grey polygons); and Nb (Figure 2f), Y (Figure 2j) (left boundary, magenta polygons). Other variables show a high contribution to the map but no correlation: CaO (Figure 2b) (middle right half of the map, green polygon), MnO (Figure 2e) (middle left/right boundary, purple polygons), TiO_2 (Figure 2i) (upper left/right boundary, orange polygons). The U-Matrix (Figure 2l) shows similarities between the nodes. MnO (purple polygons), Nb and Y (magenta polygon), and TiO_2 (orange polygons) indicate a high disparity, and thus high dissimilarities in comparison with other variables.

The results of the K-means clustering are displayed in Figure 3. The SOM was divided into three clusters with varying contributions of variables: cluster 1 (yellow) (Fe, Nb, S, Y), cluster 2 (red) (Al_2O_3 ,

K₂O, SiO₂, TiO₂, Zr), cluster 3 (blue) (CaO, MnO). The contribution of variables towards each cluster confirms the correlation seen in the component plots (Figure 2).

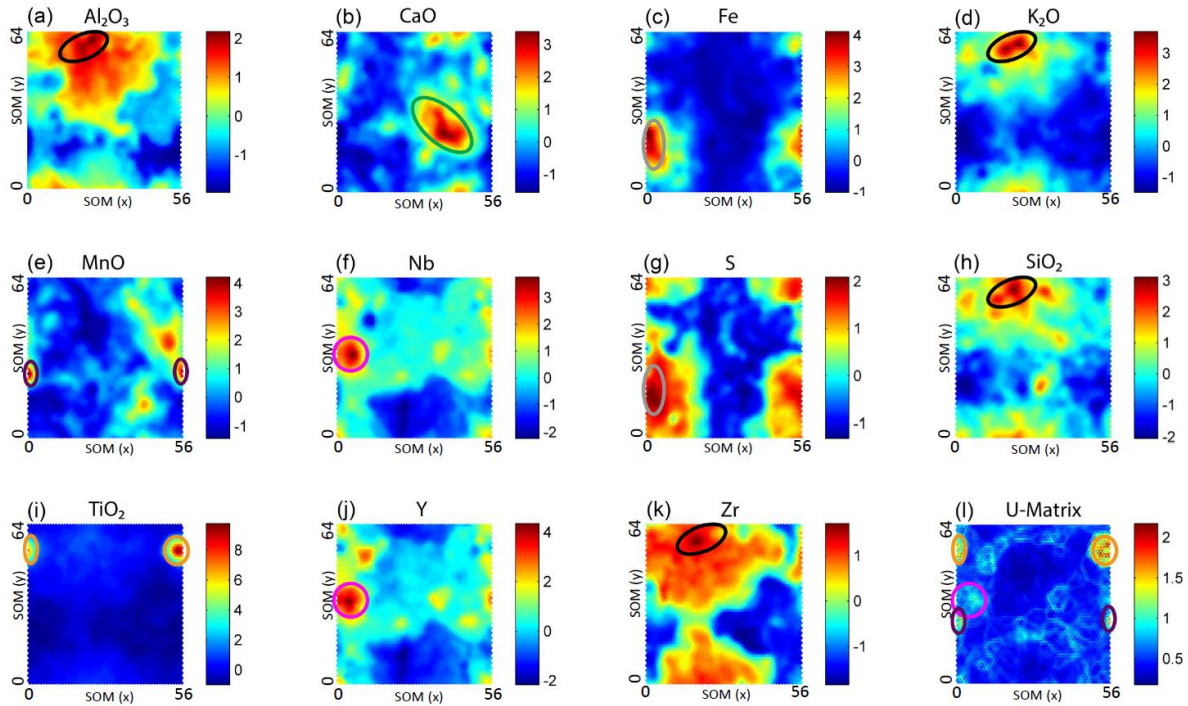


Figure 2 Component plots of (a) Al₂O₃, (b) CaO, (c) Fe, (d) K₂O, (e) MnO, (f) Nb, (g) S, (h) SiO₂, (i) TiO₂, (j) Y, (k) Zr, and resulting U-Matrix (l). The colored polygons show a high contribution towards the SOM

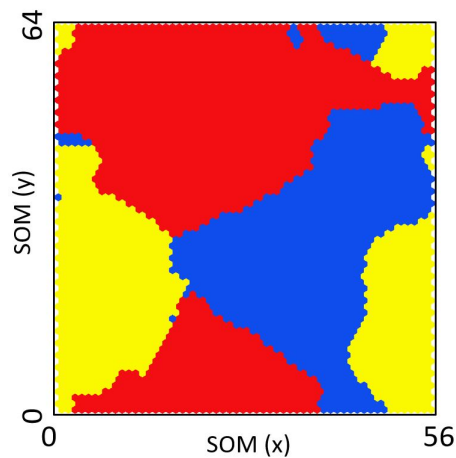


Figure 3 Two-dimensional map of the SOM analysis showing the color code of the cluster analysis: cluster 1 (yellow), cluster 2 (red), cluster 3 (blue)

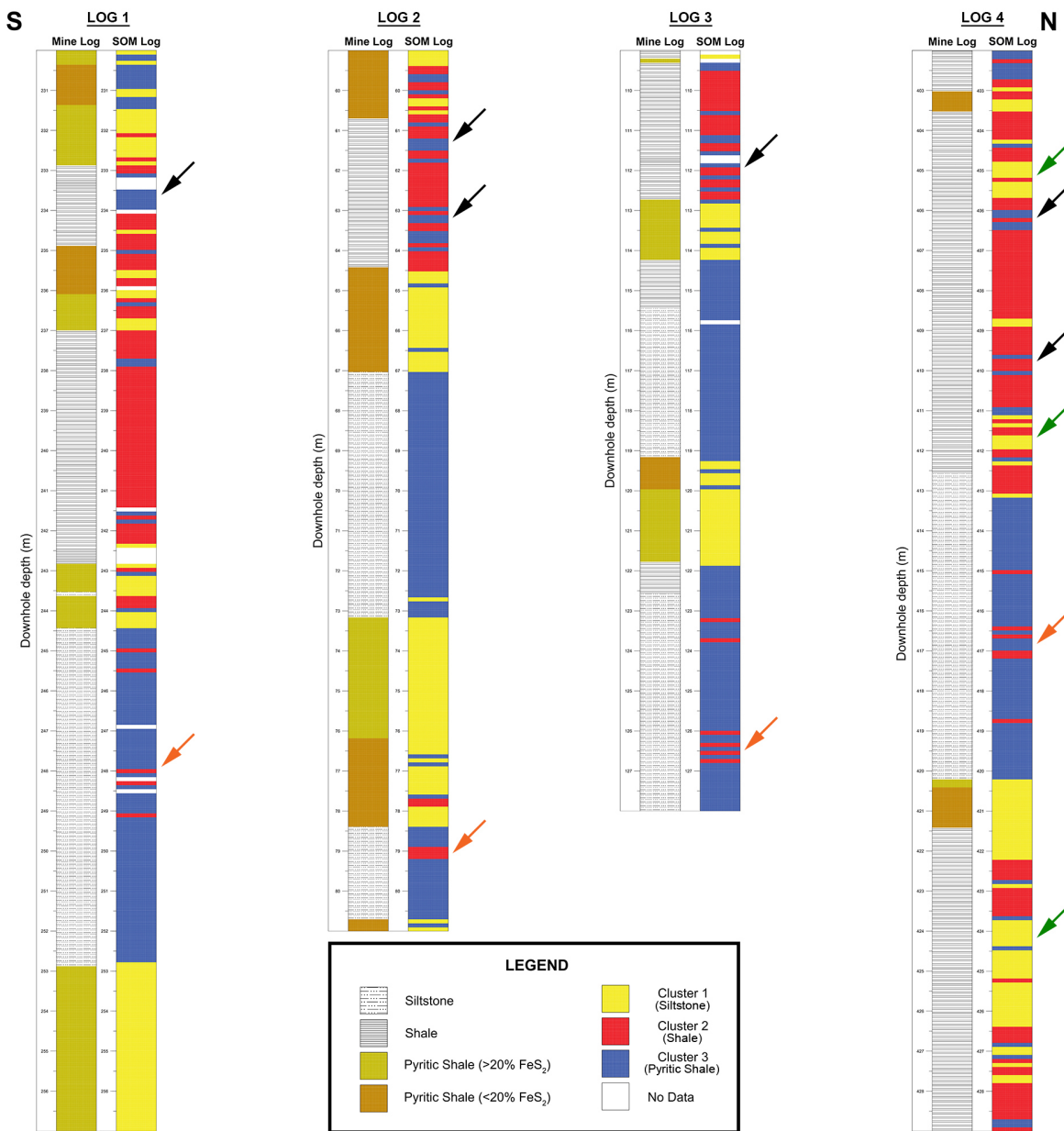


Figure 4 Comparison of the Mine Logs (left) and SOM Logs (right). The drill holes represent a cross-section from the South to the North of the deposit. The arrows indicate changes in the rock type recognition

The three clusters were plotted against the downhole depth and compared to the lithology logs from the mine. Figure 4 shows an example of four representative lithology logs of the logs provided by Glencore plc (Mine Logs) and the corresponding logs based on the SOM analysis (SOM logs). A good correlation can be seen between certain rock types mapped in the mine logs and specific clusters from

the SOM analysis. Pyritic shales correlate well with cluster 1, shale bands correlate with cluster 2 and the siltstone units correlate with cluster 3. Furthermore, cluster 1 has a high contribution of Fe and S. Pyrite (FeS_2) essentially consists of Fe and S. Thus, cluster 1 was interpreted as pyritic shale. Cluster 2 has a high contribution of Al_2O_3 and K_2O . Clay-forming minerals are abundant in Al and K (Chesworth, 2008). Hence, cluster 2 was interpreted as shale. Cluster 3 has a high contribution of CaO and thus was interpreted as calcareous siltstones. Additionally, the SOM Logs indicate an enhanced variety of rock type recognition in comparison to the mine logs (Figure 4, arrows). For example, the SOM analysis recognized alternating bands of siltstones and shale in shale-dominated units (black arrows), some shale bands in the lower siltstone unit (orange arrows) and some pyritic shales in the shale-dominated units at the upper half and towards the bottom of log 4 (green arrows).

CONCLUSION

The study showed that the SOM analysis was successful in identifying the three main host rock types at George Fisher and thus could automate the process of geological drill core logging. The SOM analysis on the XRF scans from the Minalyzer CS was not only effective in recognizing distinct clusters in the data, which correlated well with the lithology logs from the mine, but was able to introduce a greater variety in rock type recognition. However, the logging at mine-scale does not introduce that amount of detail due to practical limits to the level of detail expected from mine geologists. Nonetheless, the automated logging can pick up small lithological changes from the 10 cm-scale geochemical data with no extra required time. Furthermore, the XRF analysis recognizes the specific quantity of elements, e.g. iron content in pyritic shale, which cannot be assessed by eye. The results have shown that automated logging has the potential to refine and significantly enhance the quality of geological drill core logging in terms of accurate and consistent rock type recognition. However, the automated logs must be qualitatively assessed and verified by experienced mine geologists prior to further processing of the data, such as refinement of geological models. Besides that, automation of drill core logging based on SOM analysis can assist geologists in their daily routine and will decrease the time spent on geological logging and significantly reduce the costs of mining operations.

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