

Mineral Systems as Chemical Reactors with no Mathematics

Alison Ord and Bruce Hobbs

Mineral Dynamics
Fremantle

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Session 7. 15.30 – 17.00

Application to regional exploration

Spatial distributions of mineralisation

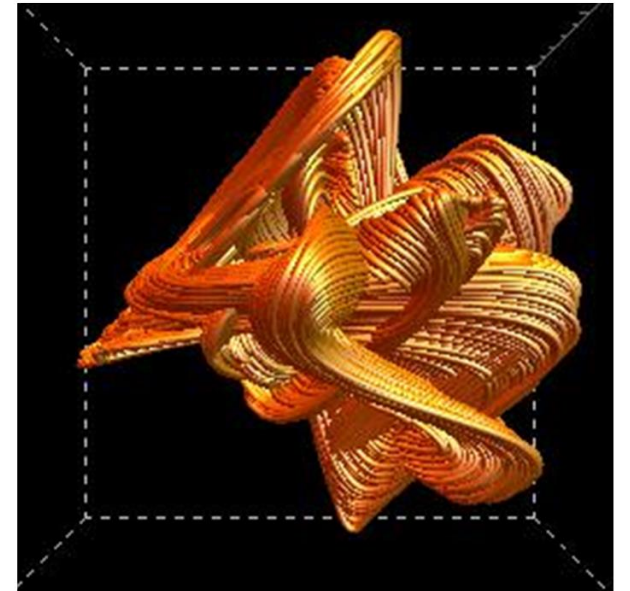
Regional endowments

Networks

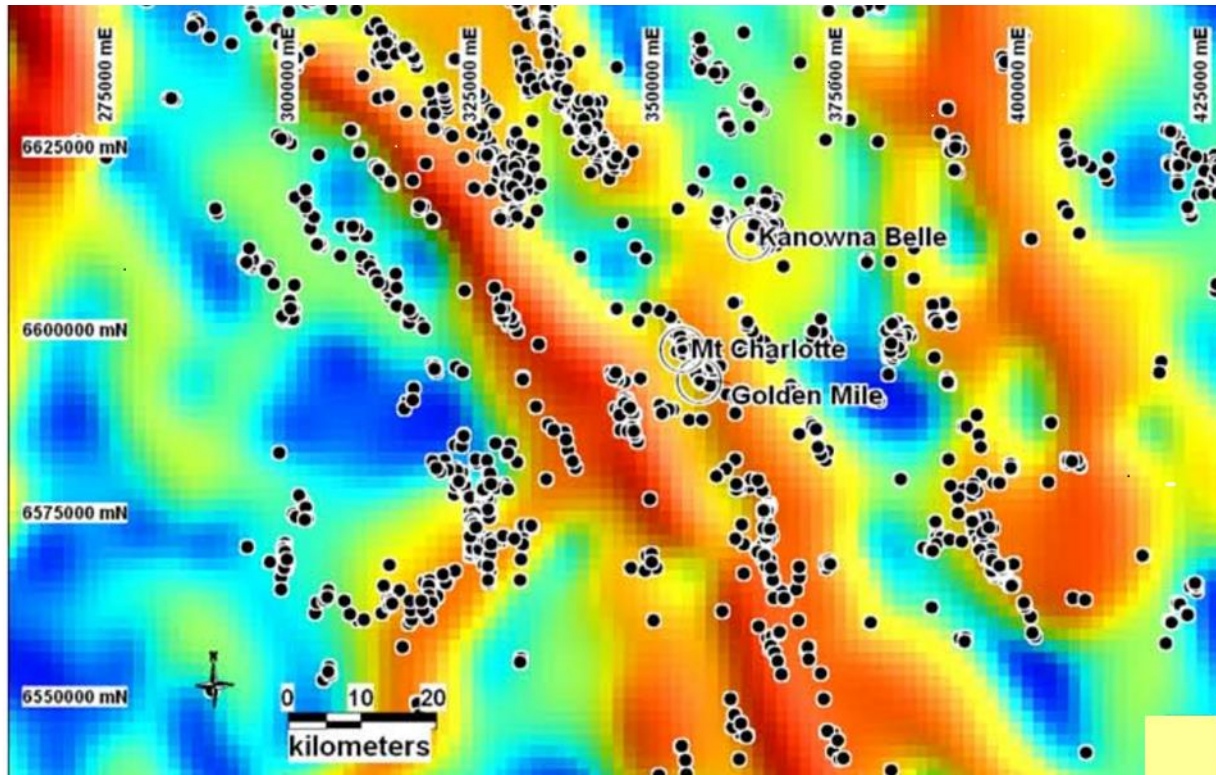
Communication over mineralising networks

Detection of hidden nodes

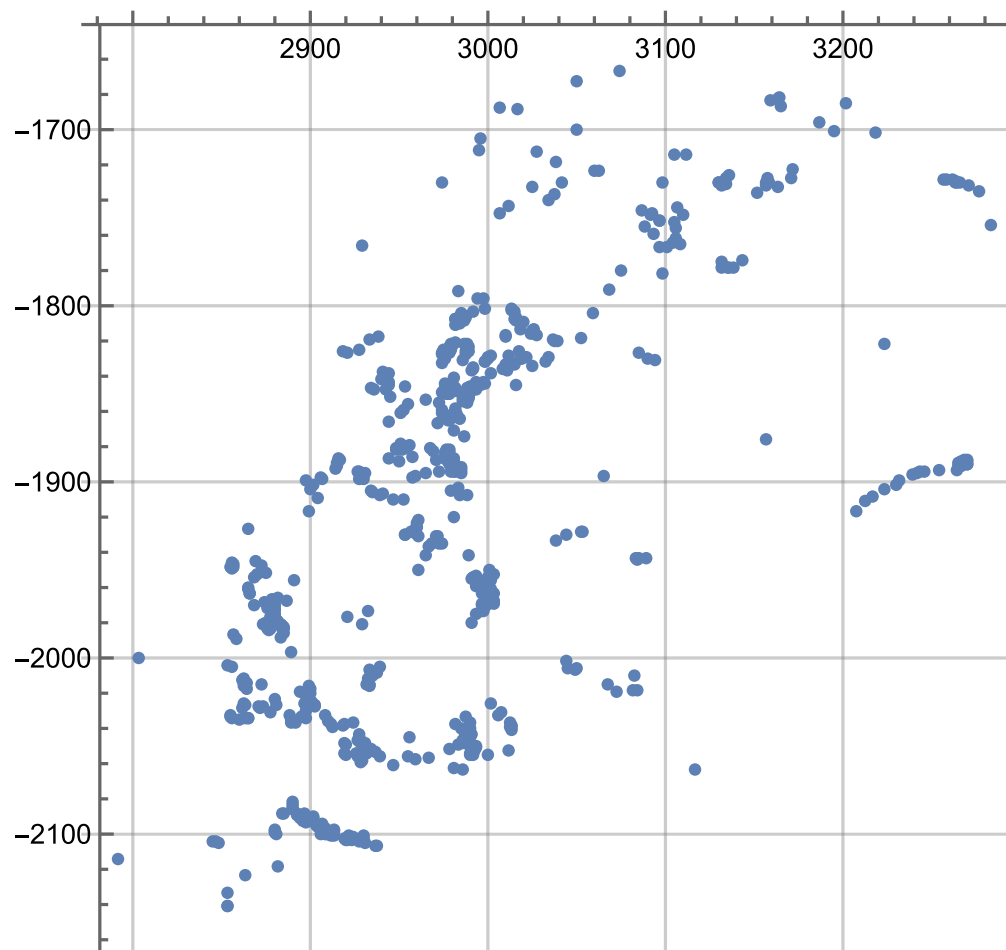
Future developments



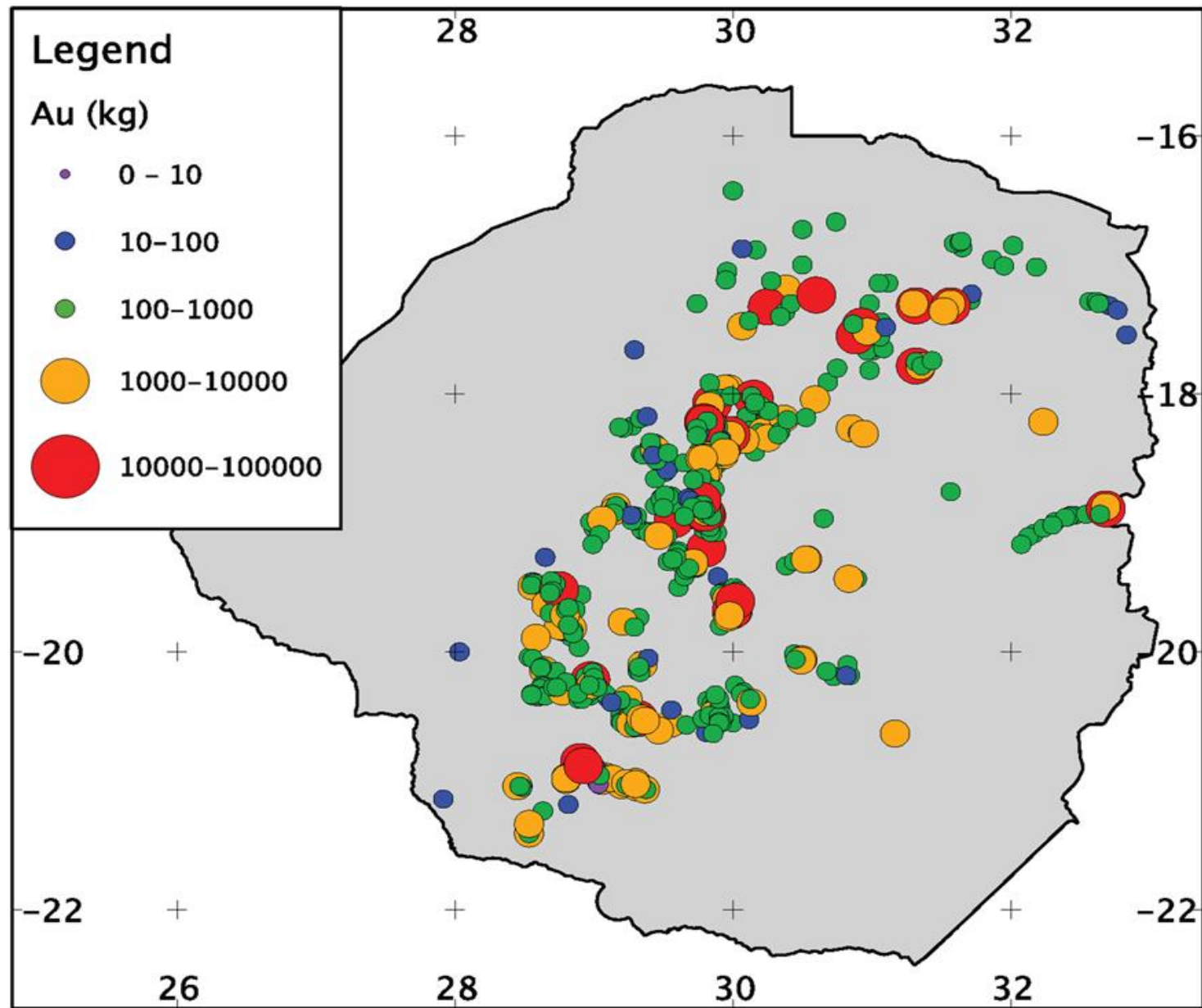
Spatial distribution of orogenic gold deposits



The question we want to answer is:
How can we tell if there is
a hidden deposit?



Zimbabwe Gold Deposits



If the network is a nonlinear system we expect every node in the network to be correlated with every other node.

The issue is: What is the form of this correlation?

If I add a new node, does it change the form of this correlation?

The correlation is measured by n-point correlation functions and network metrics

The questions to be explored are:

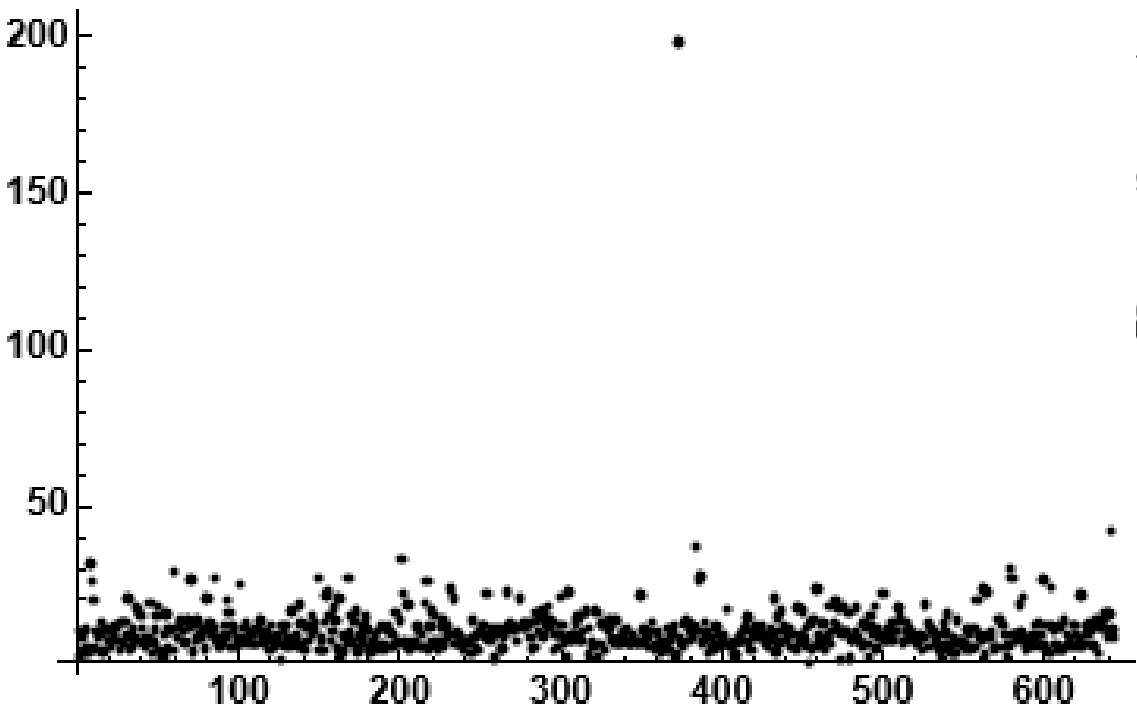
Does the probability distribution for the network change if I add a new node?

Do the metrics of the network change if I add a new node?

Are there hidden nodes?

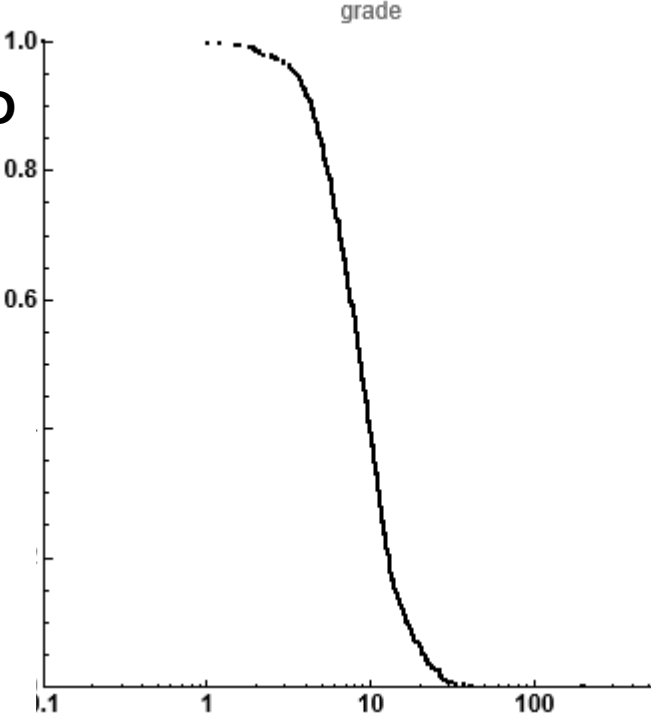
Zimbabwe gold deposits

Grade



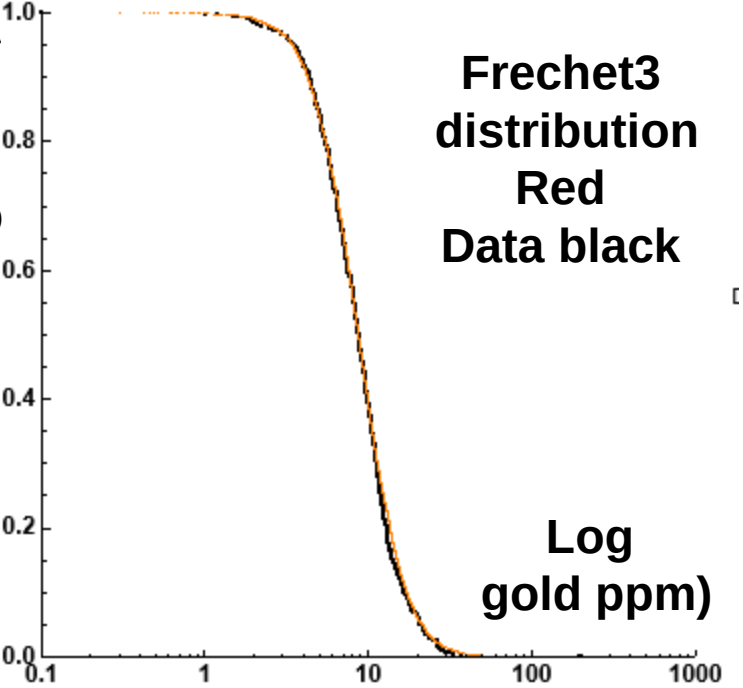
Deposit

1-CPD



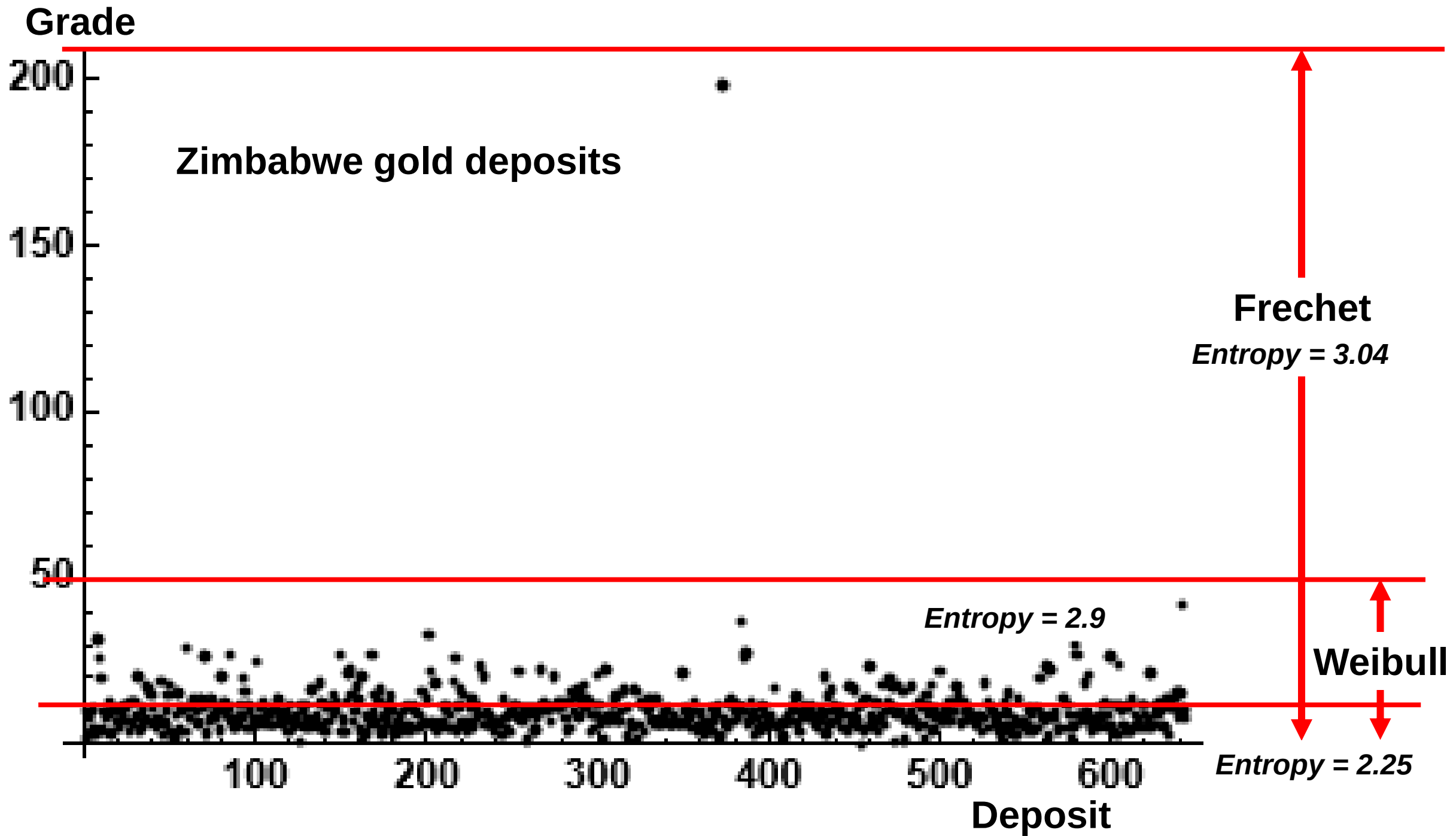
Log (gold ppm)

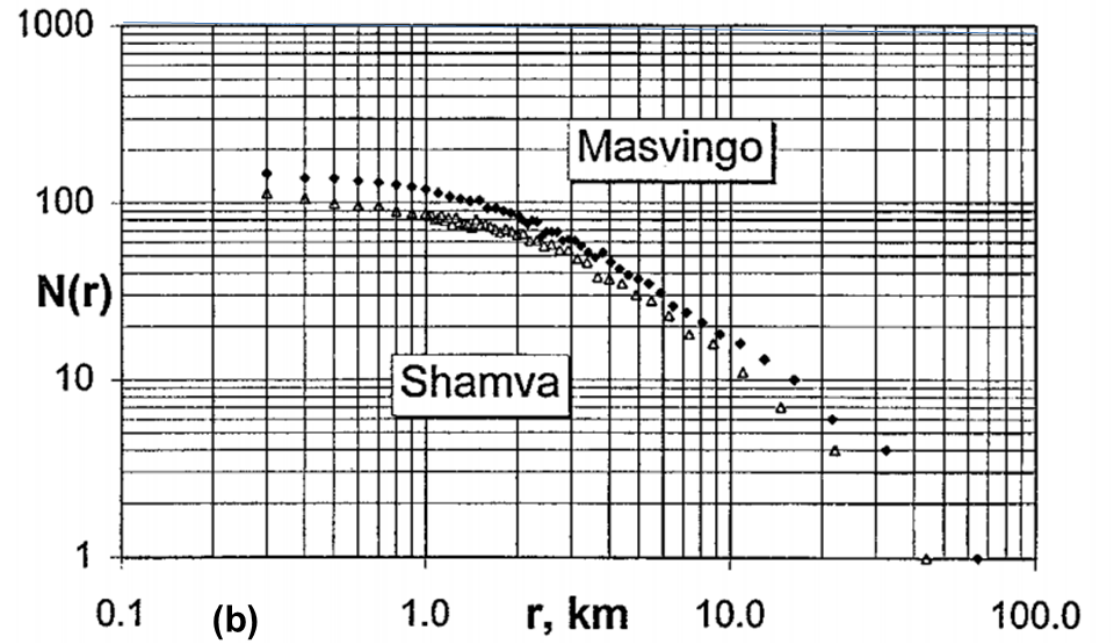
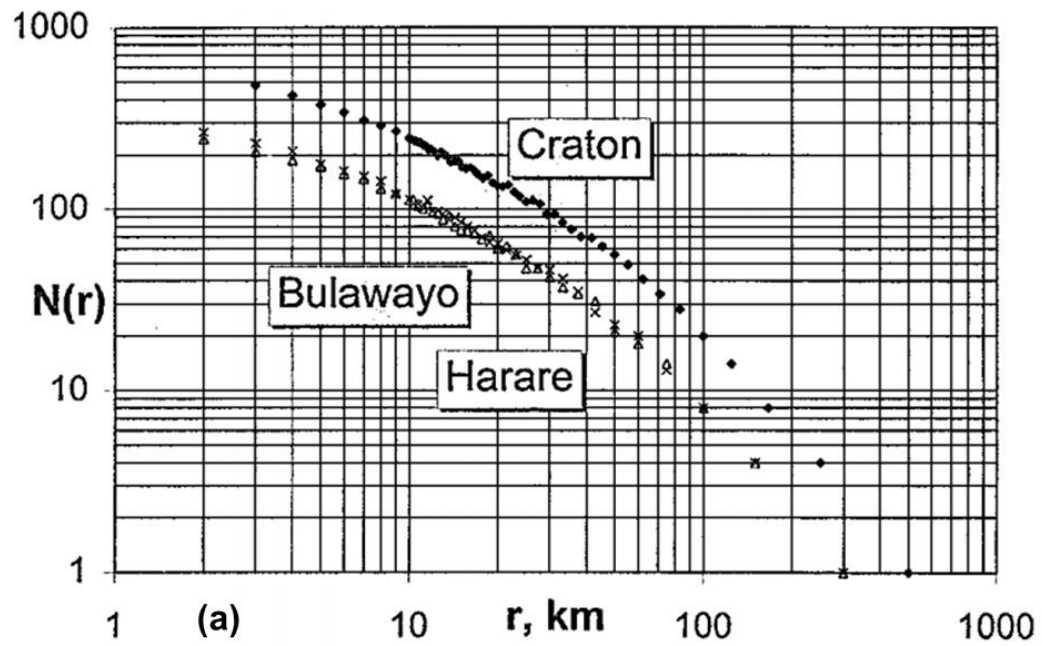
1-CPD



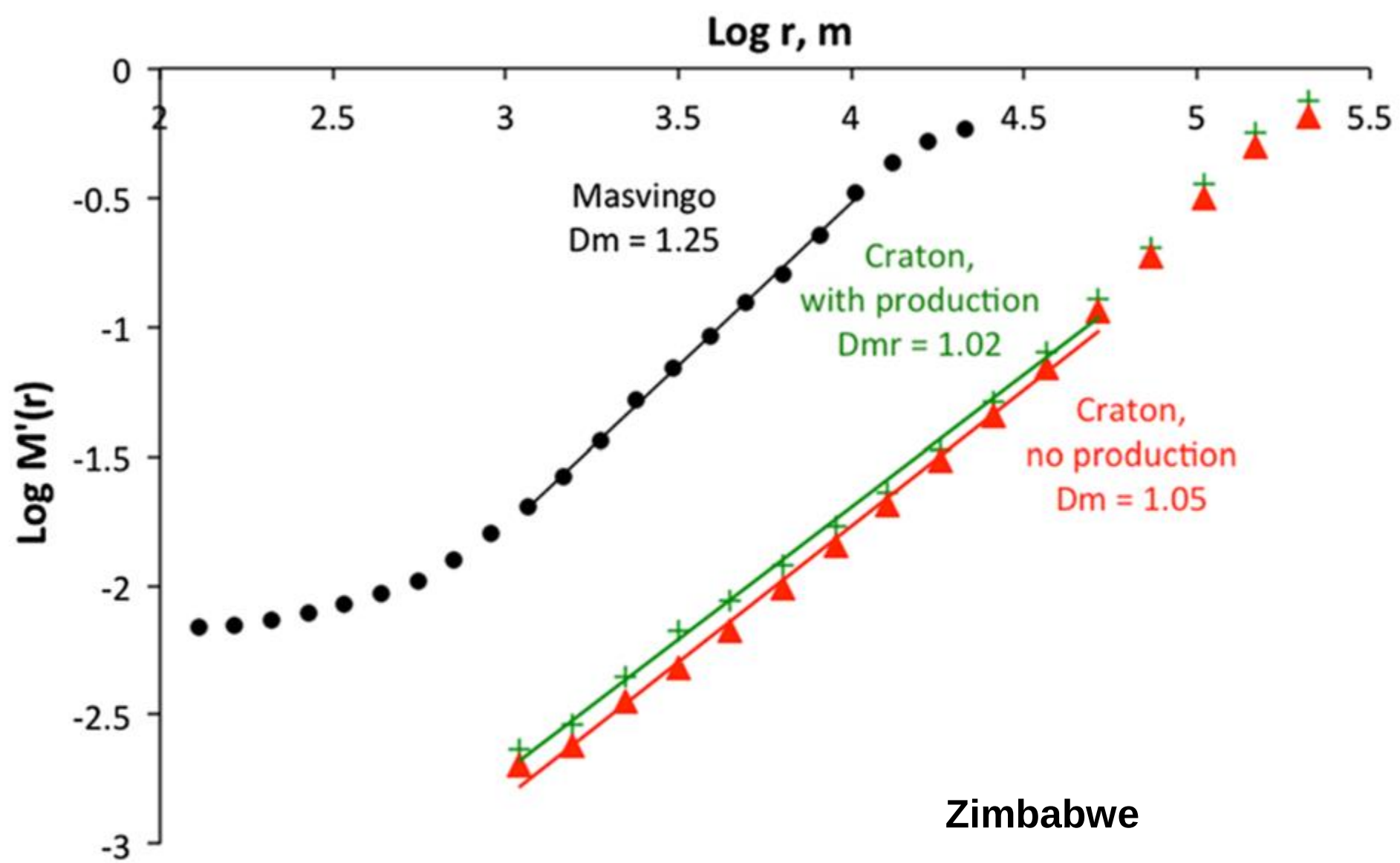
Frechet3
distribution
Red
Data black

Log
gold ppm)





So called “fractal” distributions Zimbabwe. Obtained by box counting.



In fact, the box counting procedure is a way of conducting a nearest neighbour distribution

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journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/jsg

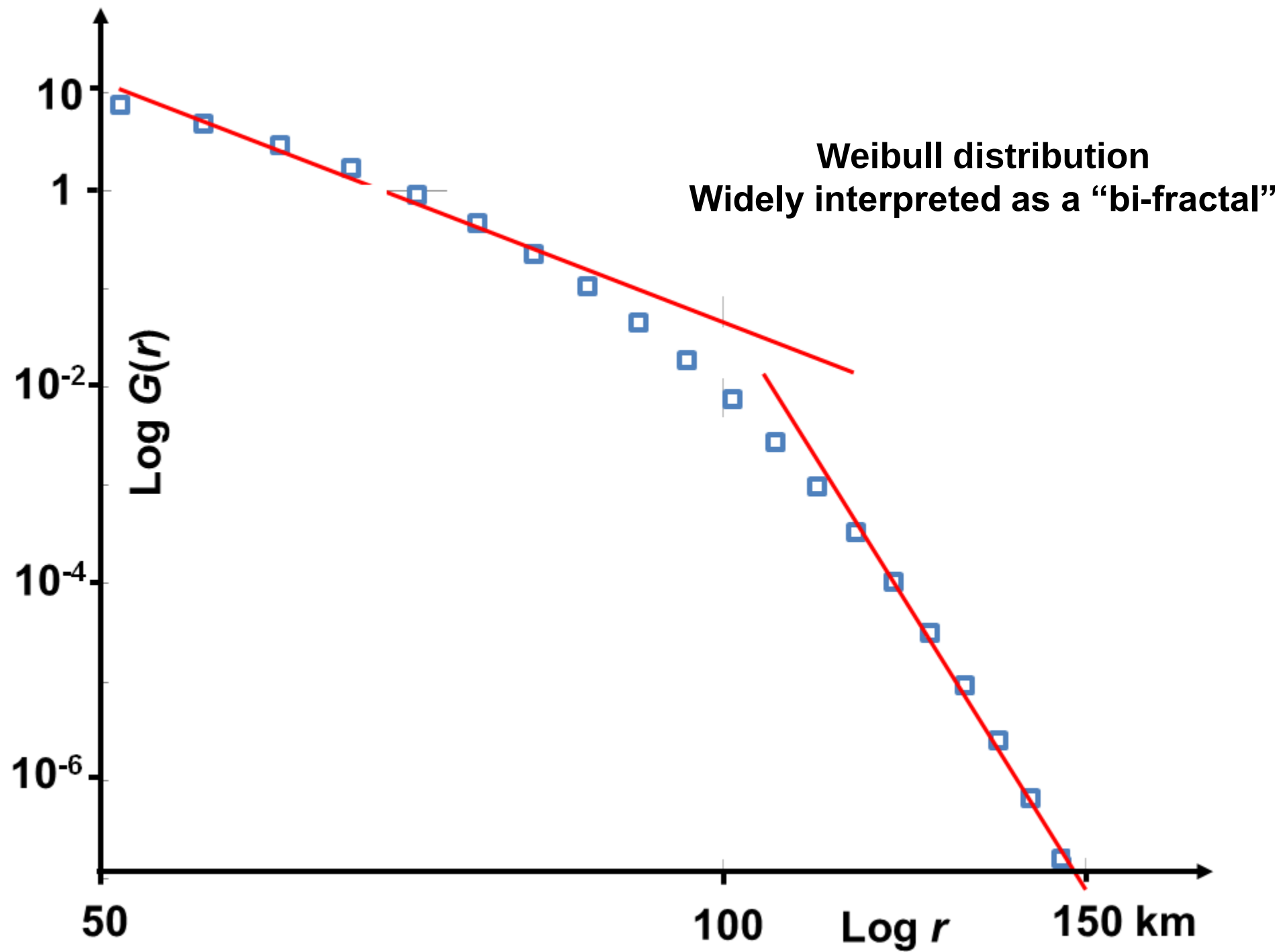


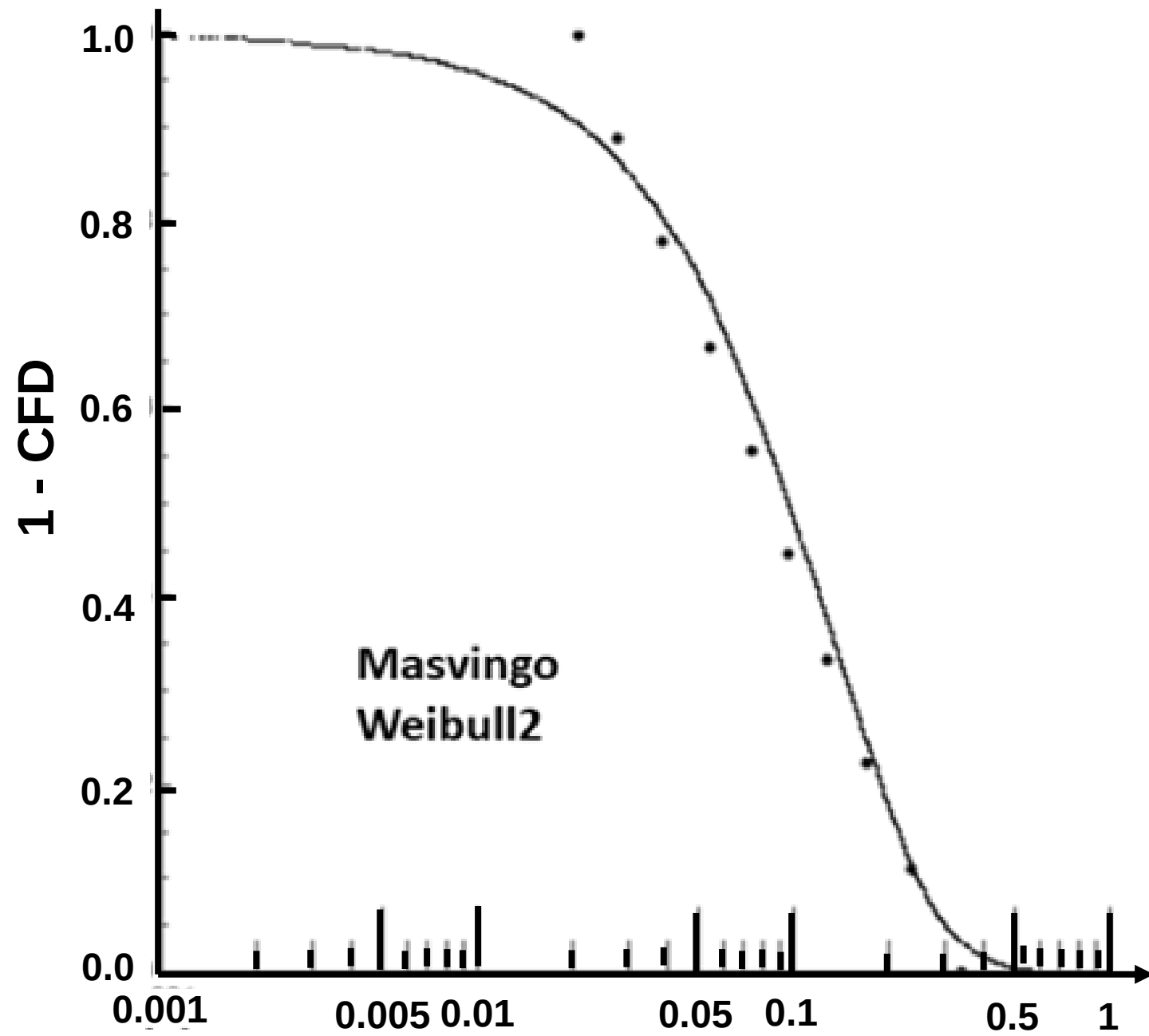
The spatial distributions of mineralisation

Bruce E. Hobbs^{a,b}, Alison Ord^{a,*}, Thomas Blenkinsop^c

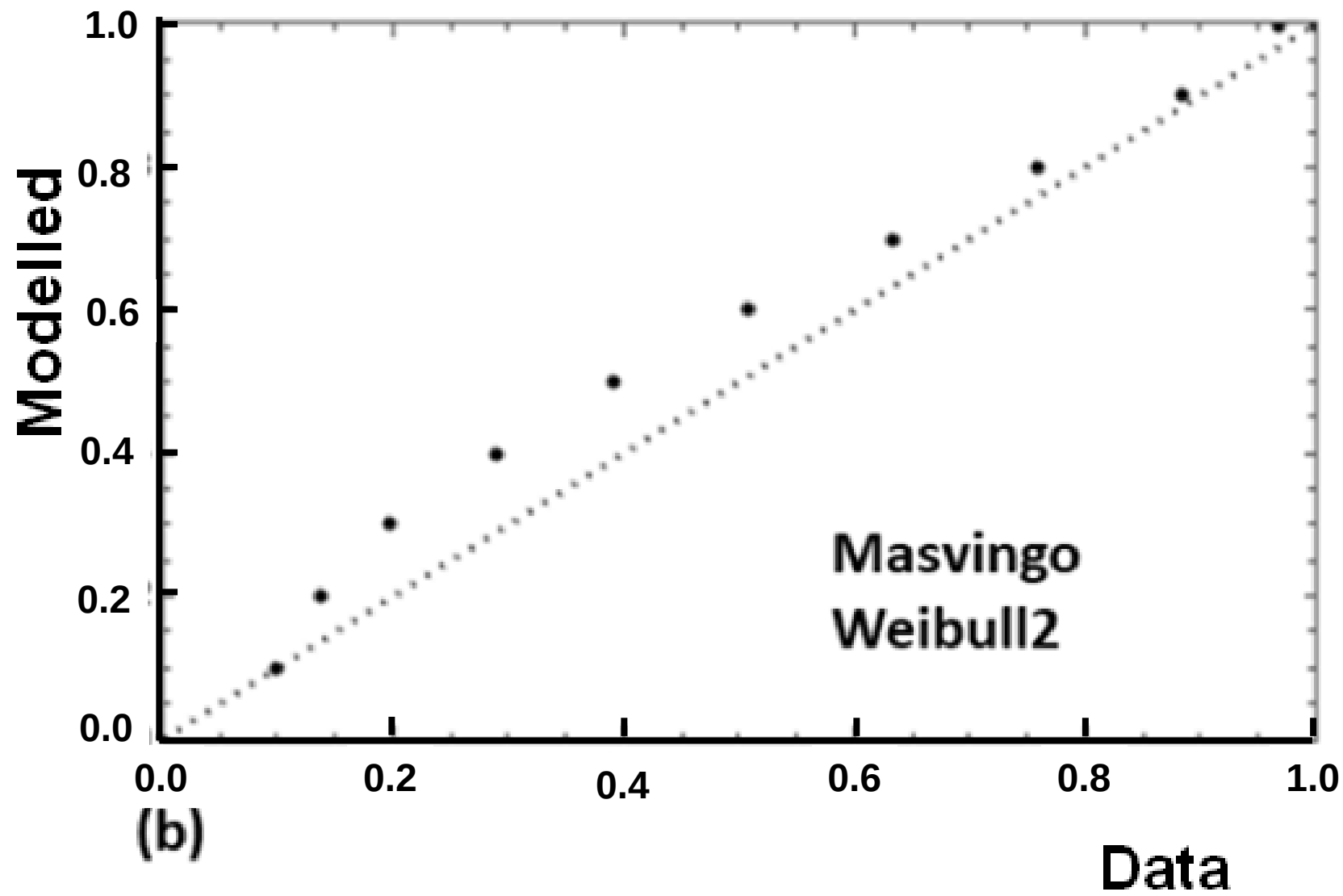


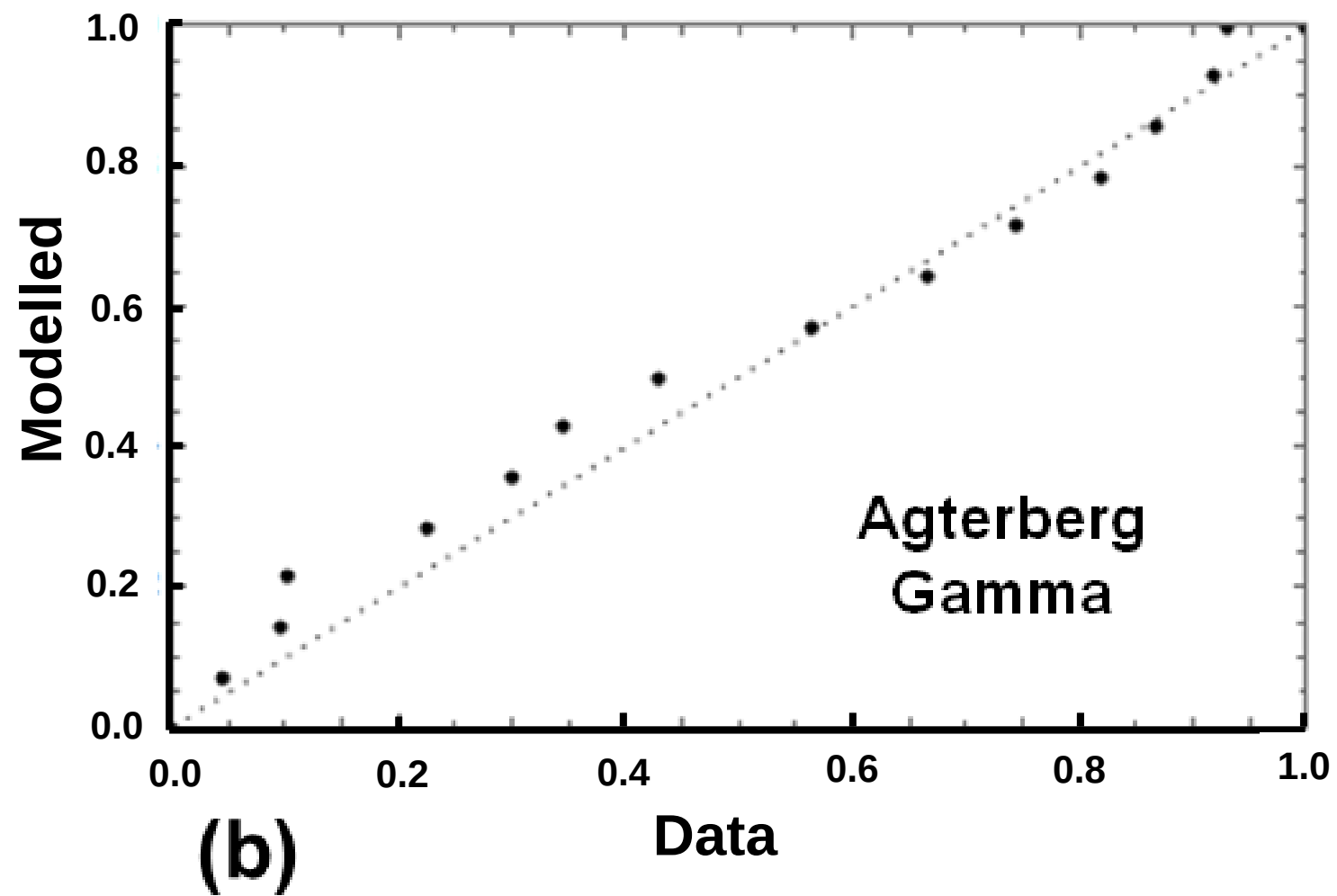
This is always a Weibull distribution independently of the underlying spatial distribution

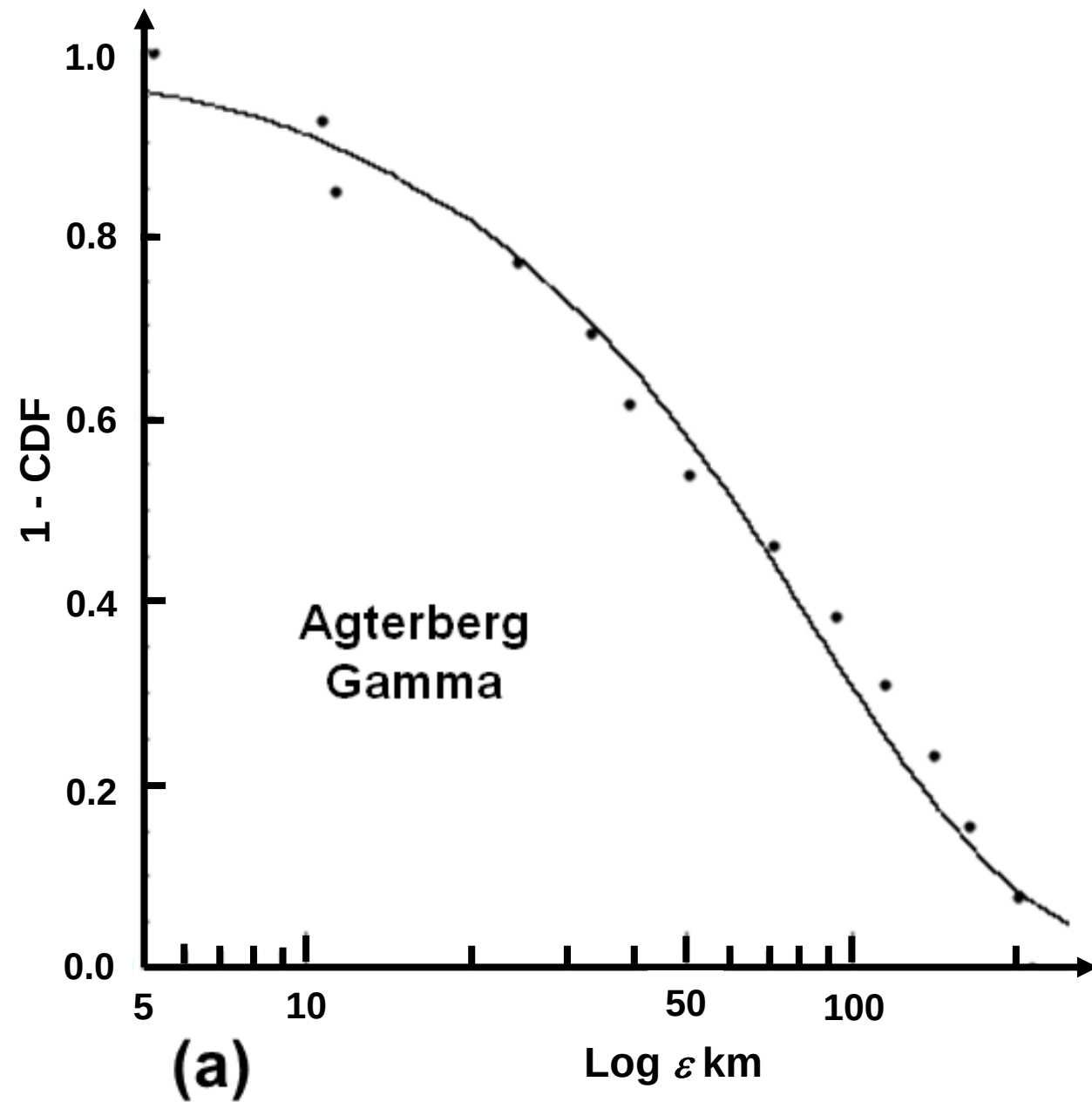




(a)





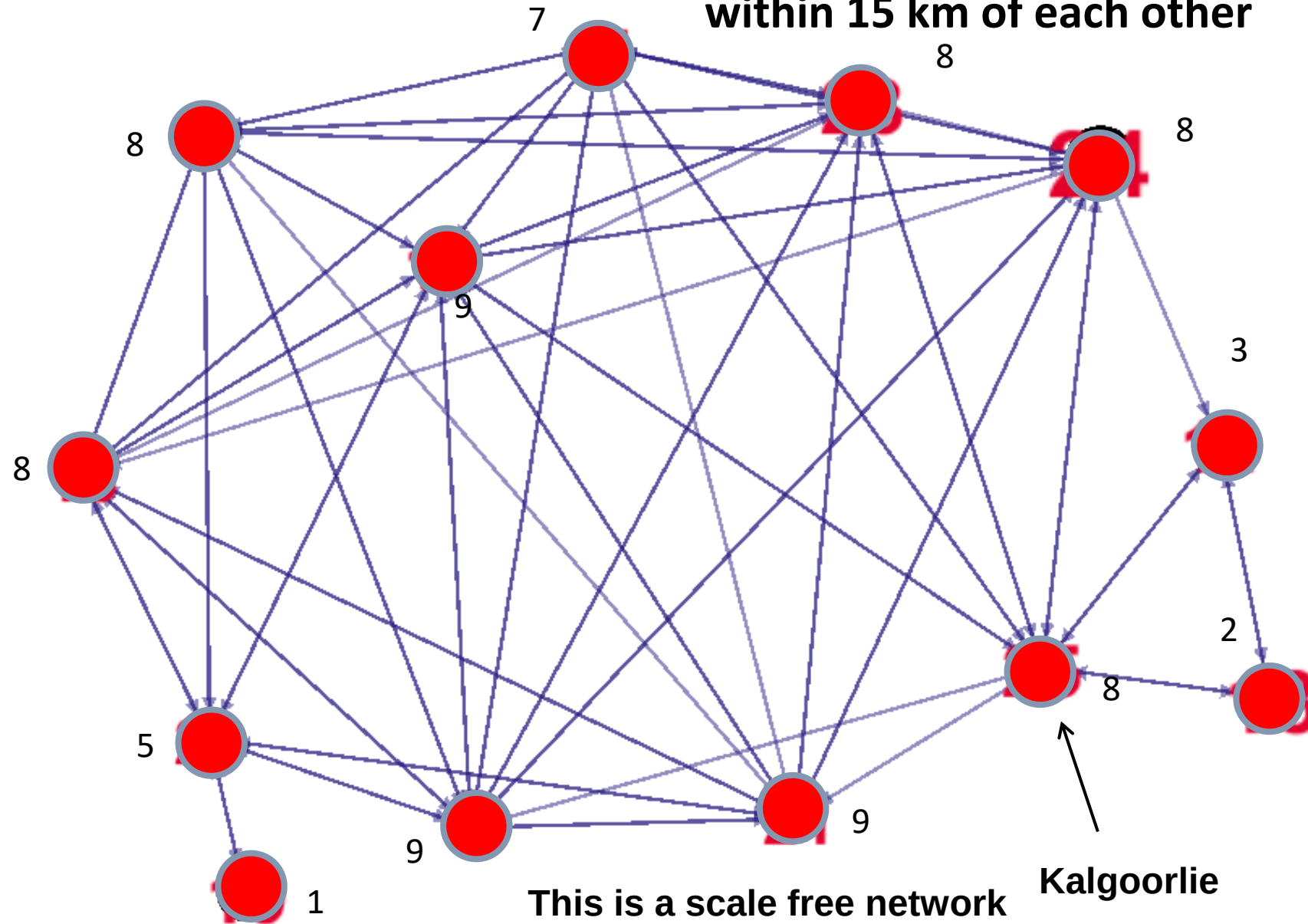


**The issue is that since a box count always produces a Weibull distribution,
We have no understanding of what kind of distribution defines
the regional distribution of mineralisation anywhere.**

We need to turn to other methods of defining regional distributions.

Network science offers a way forward.

Kalgoorlie sub-network. Ore bodies within 15 km of each other

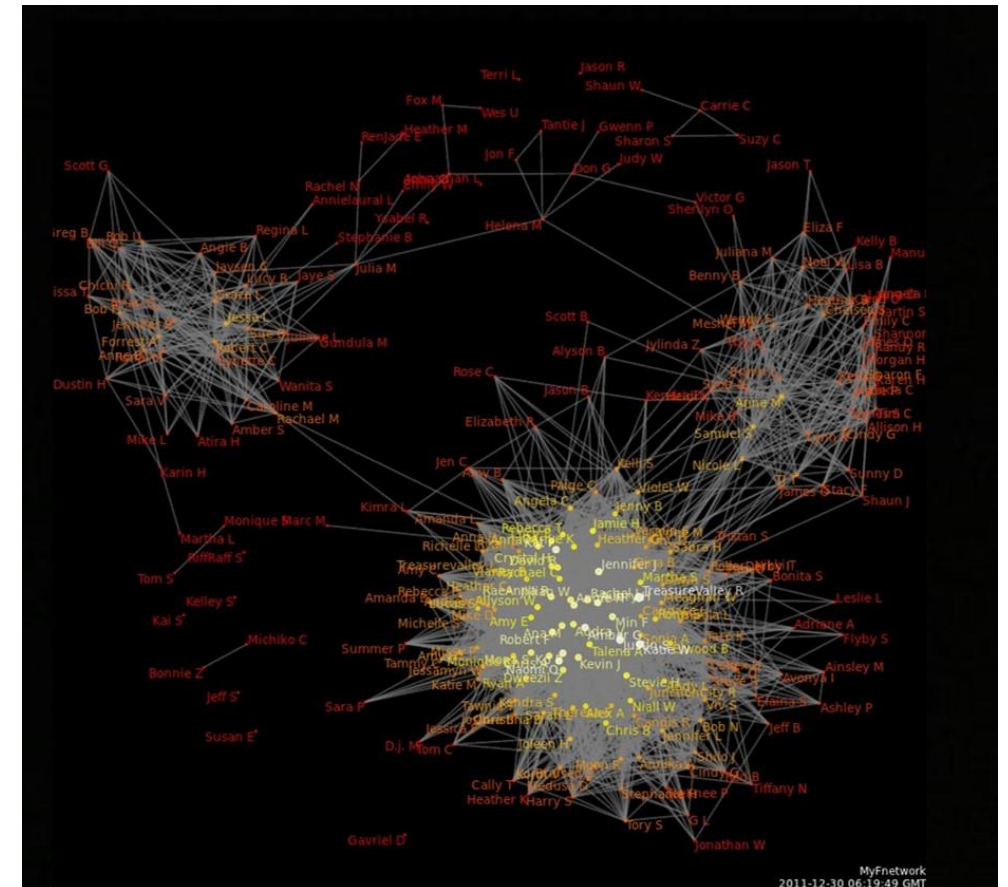


Networks

Networks associated with complex systems presumably display some form of organisational principles which should at some level be encoded in in the network topology.

One of the most important characteristics of complex networks is their internal structure, i.e., how the components and connections between components are arranged or organized.

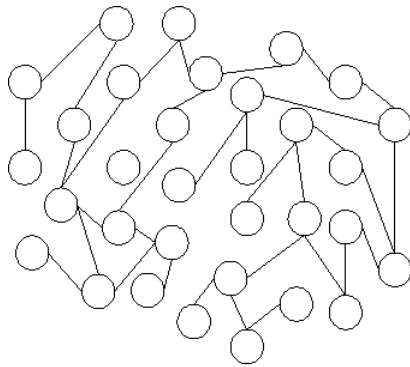
The reason for this is that the structure of complex networks has a significant influence on their function and performance.



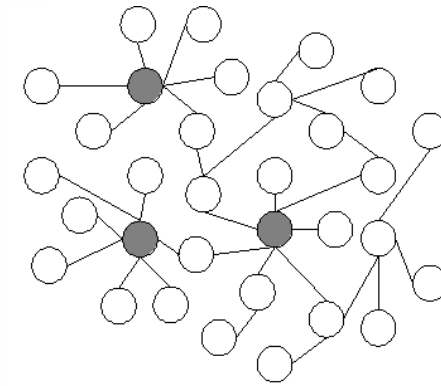
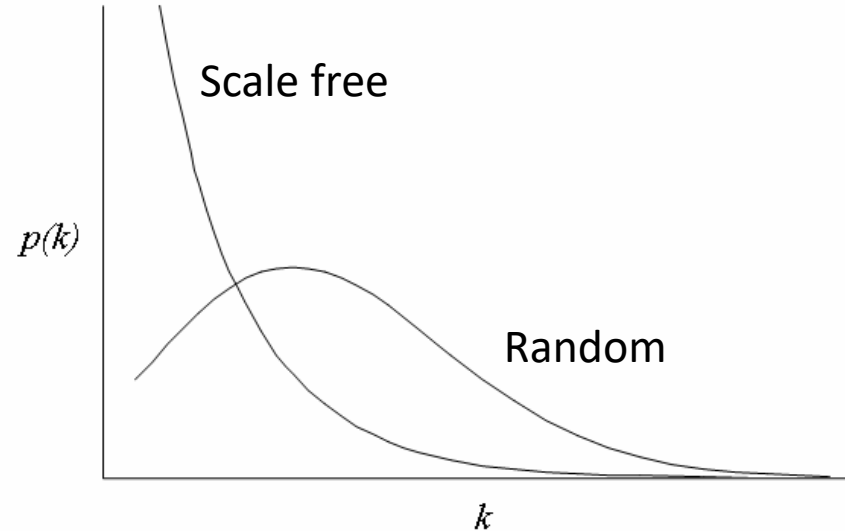
A scale-free network is a network whose degree distribution follows a power law, at least asymptotically. That is, the fraction $P(k)$ of nodes in the network having k connections to other nodes goes for large values of k as

$$P(k) \sim k^{-\gamma}$$

where γ is a parameter whose value is typically in the range $2 < \gamma < 3$, although occasionally it may lie outside these bounds.

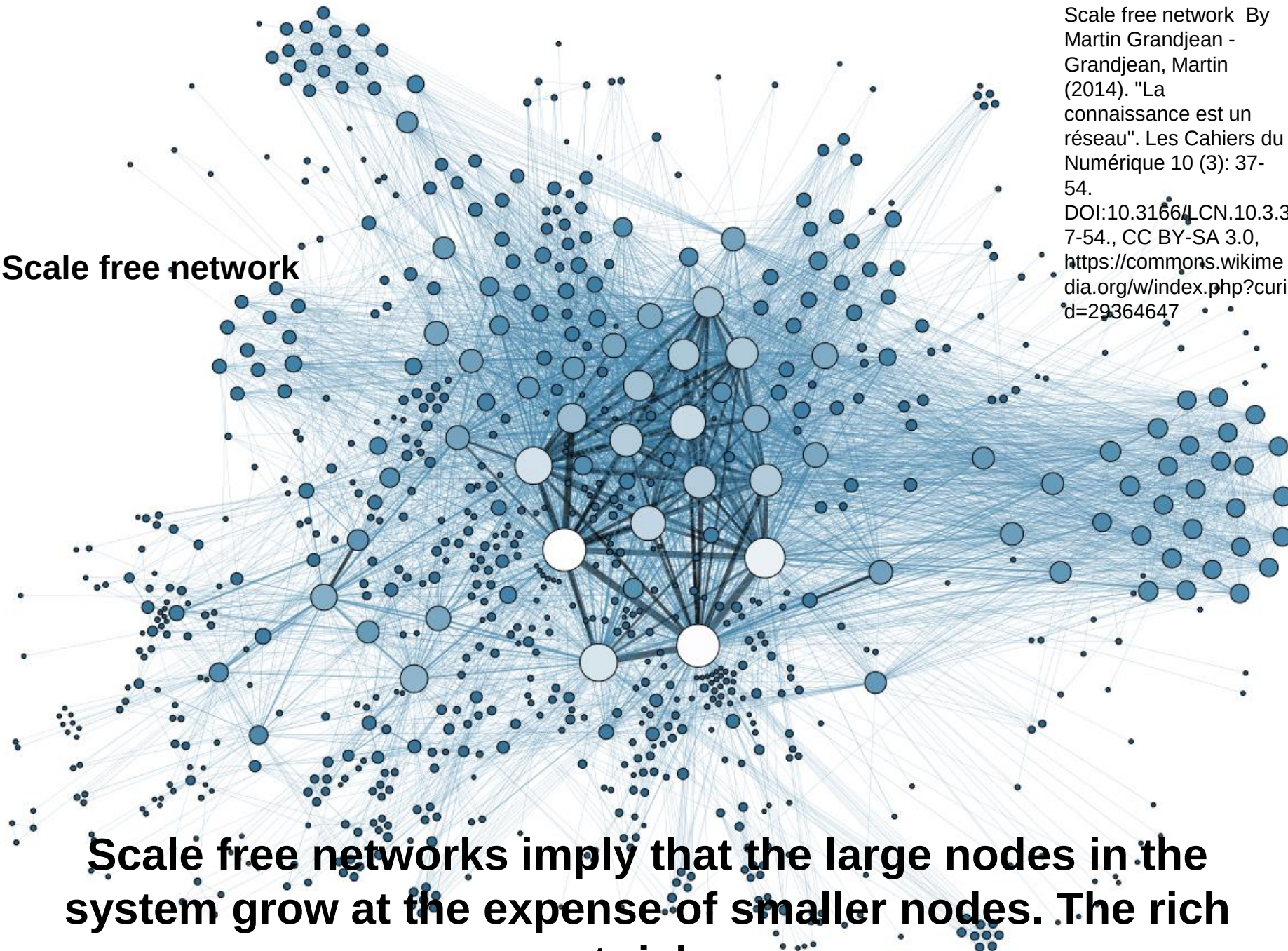


(a) Random network



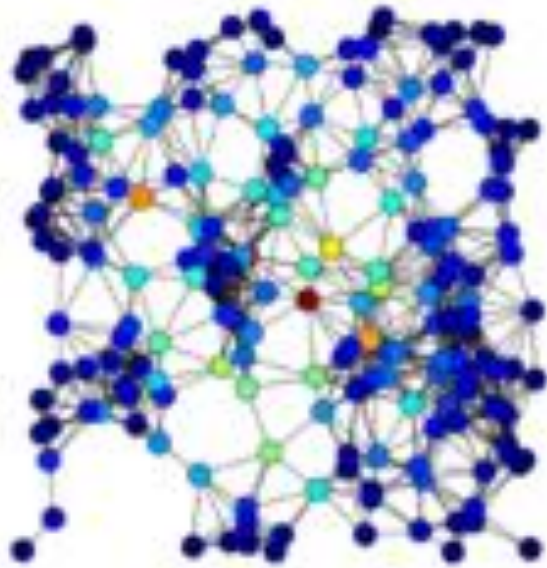
(b) Scale-free network

Scale free network

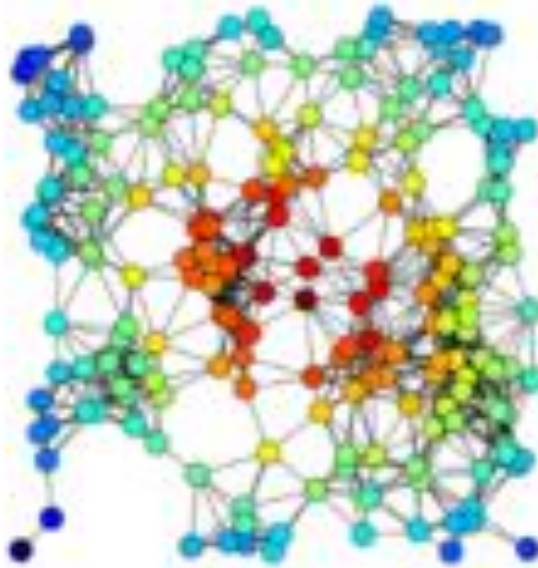


Scale free network By
Martin Grandjean -
Grandjean, Martin
(2014). "La
connaissance est un
réseau". Les Cahiers du
Numérique 10 (3): 37-
54.
DOI:10.3166/LCN.10.3.3
7-54., CC BY-SA 3.0,
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?curid=29364647>

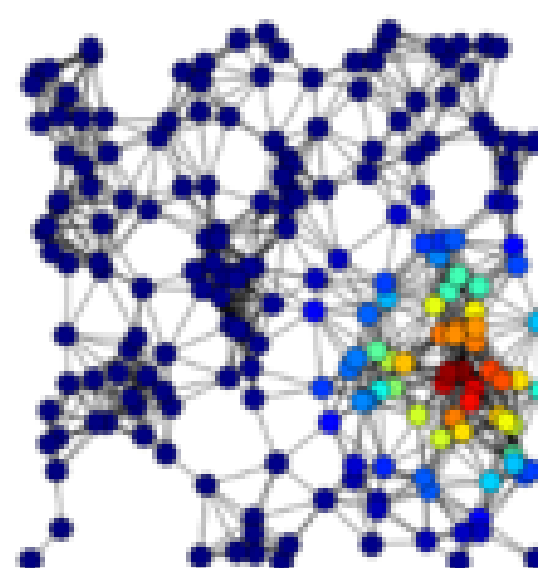
Scale free networks imply that the large nodes in the system grow at the expense of smaller nodes. The rich get richer.



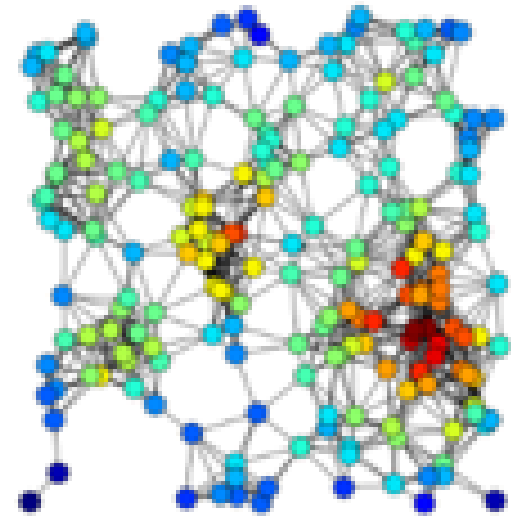
A



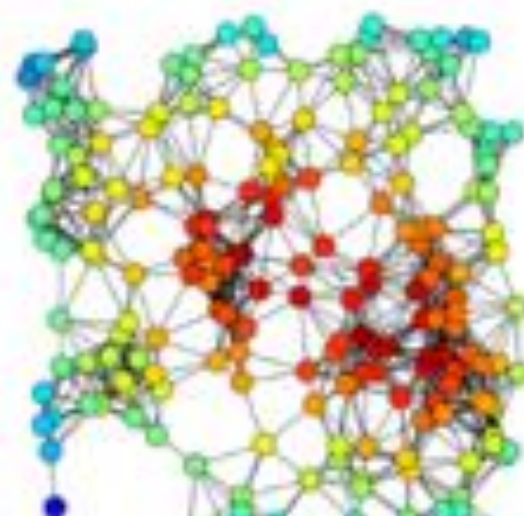
B



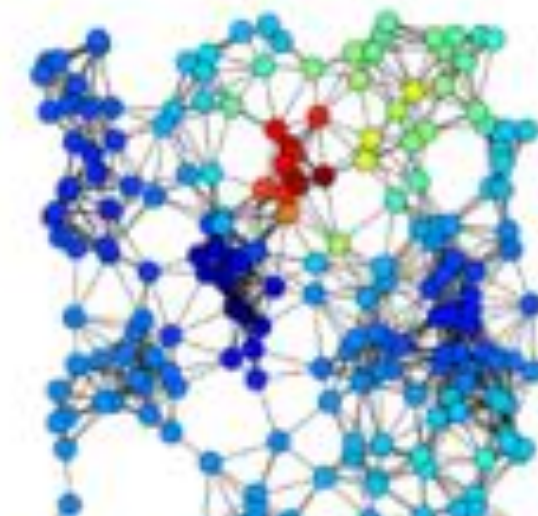
C



D

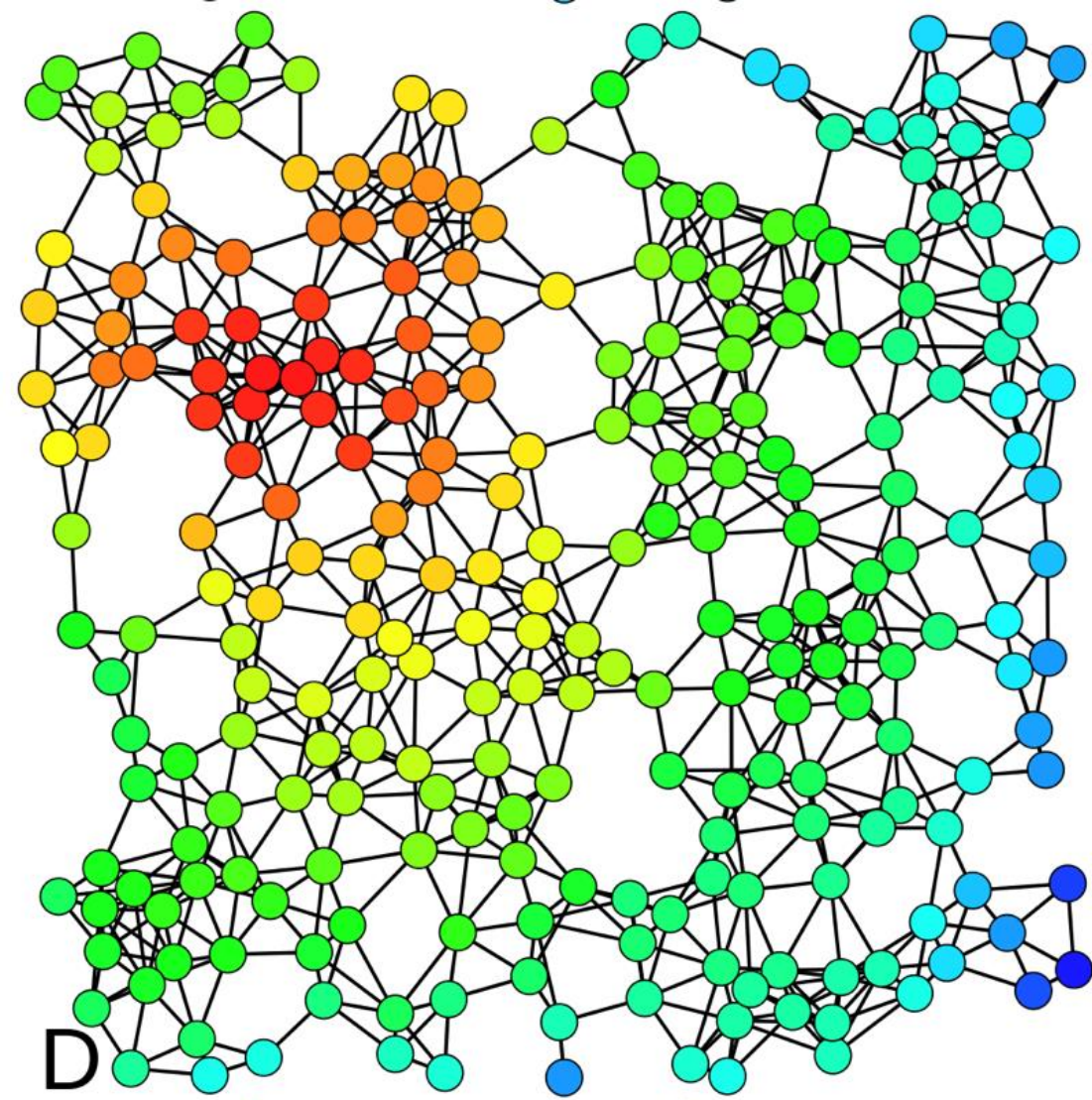


E

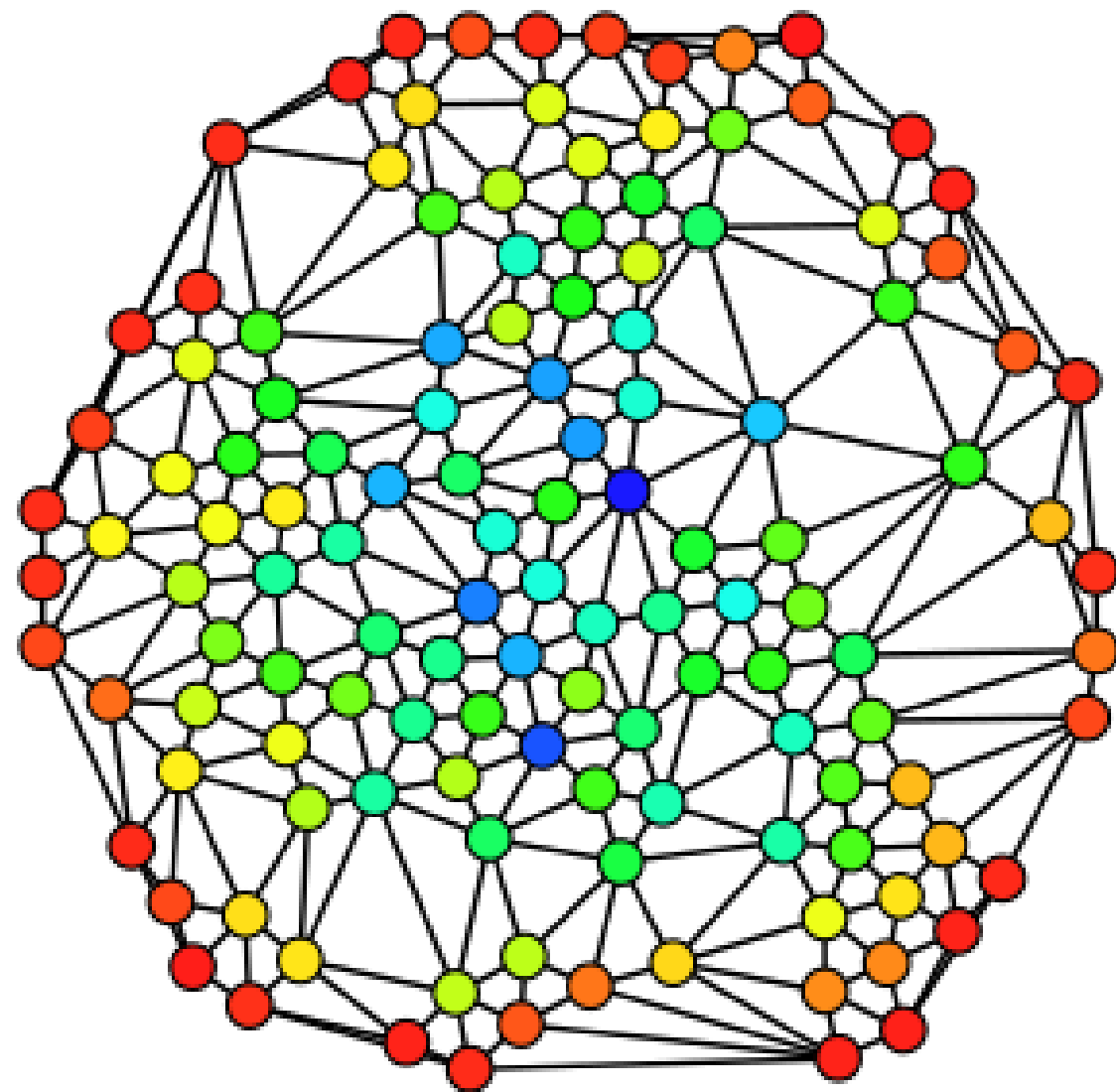


F

Examples of
A) [Betweenness centrality](#),
B) [Closeness centrality](#),
C) [Eigenvector centrality](#),
D) [Degree centrality](#),
E) [Harmonic centrality](#) and
F) [Katz centrality](#) of
the same graph.



An [undirected graph](#) colored based on the eigenvector centrality of each vertex from least (red) to greatest (blue).



An [undirected graph](#) colored based on the betweenness centrality of each vertex from least (red) to greatest (blue).

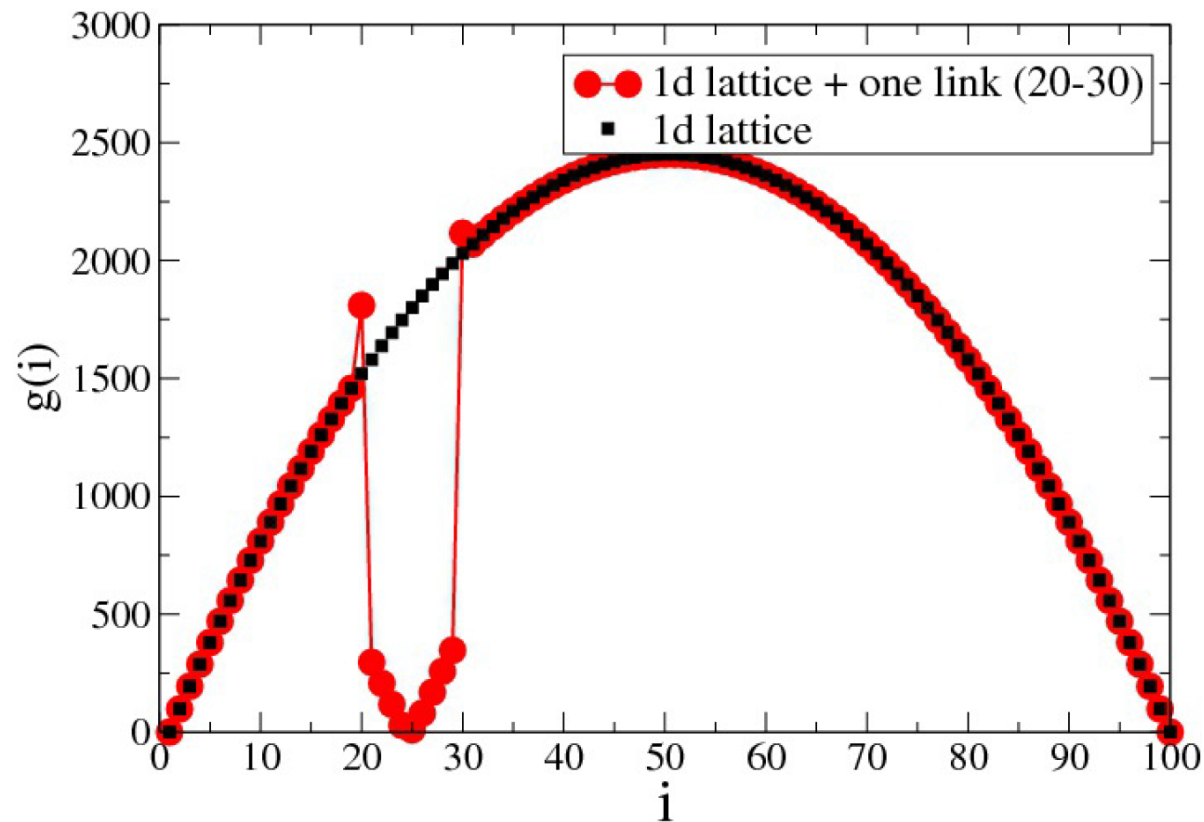
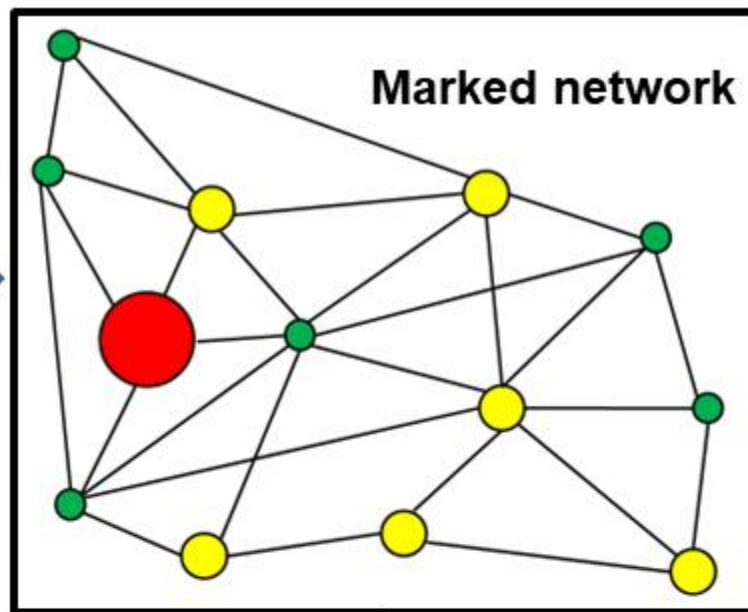
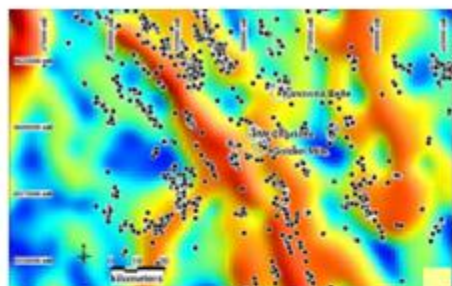
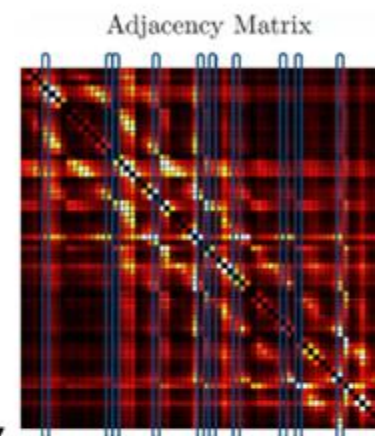


FIG. 4 Example of how the addition of a link perturbs the centrality. In black, the betweenness centrality for the 1d lattice (of size $(N = 100)$ has a maximum at the barycenter $N/2 = 50$. The addition of a link between $a = 20$ and $b = 30$ decreases the betweenness centrality between a and b and increases the betweenness centrality of nodes a and b .



CHARACTERISATION OF NETWORK



NETWORK METRICS

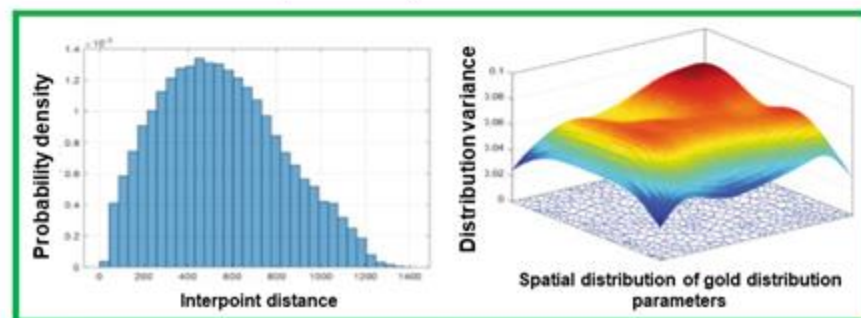
Degree
Centrality
Closeness
Betweenness centrality
Clustering

NETWORK CLASSIFICATION

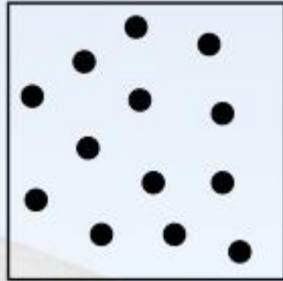
Small world
Heavy tailed
Poisson
Heterogeneous Poisson
Cox
Gibbs
Max stable

NETWORK STATISTICS

Nearest neighbours
Node measure probability
Global connectiveness
N-point correlations
Adjacency matrix



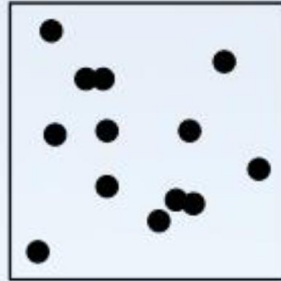
Each point process has different statistics



uniform

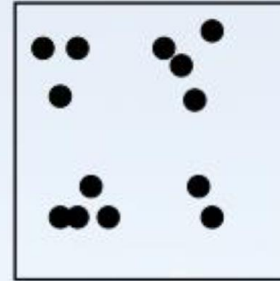
Inhibitory/over
dispersed

**Scale of
inhibition?**

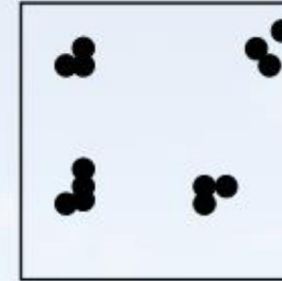


random

No
interaction



clustered

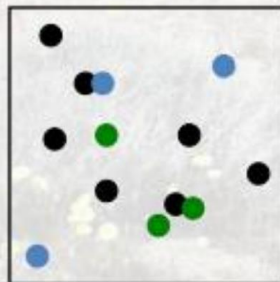


clustered

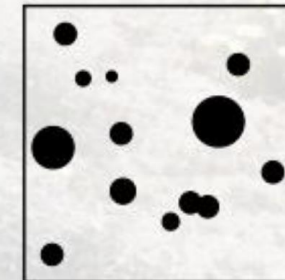
***Attractive or repulsive Gibbs
processes***

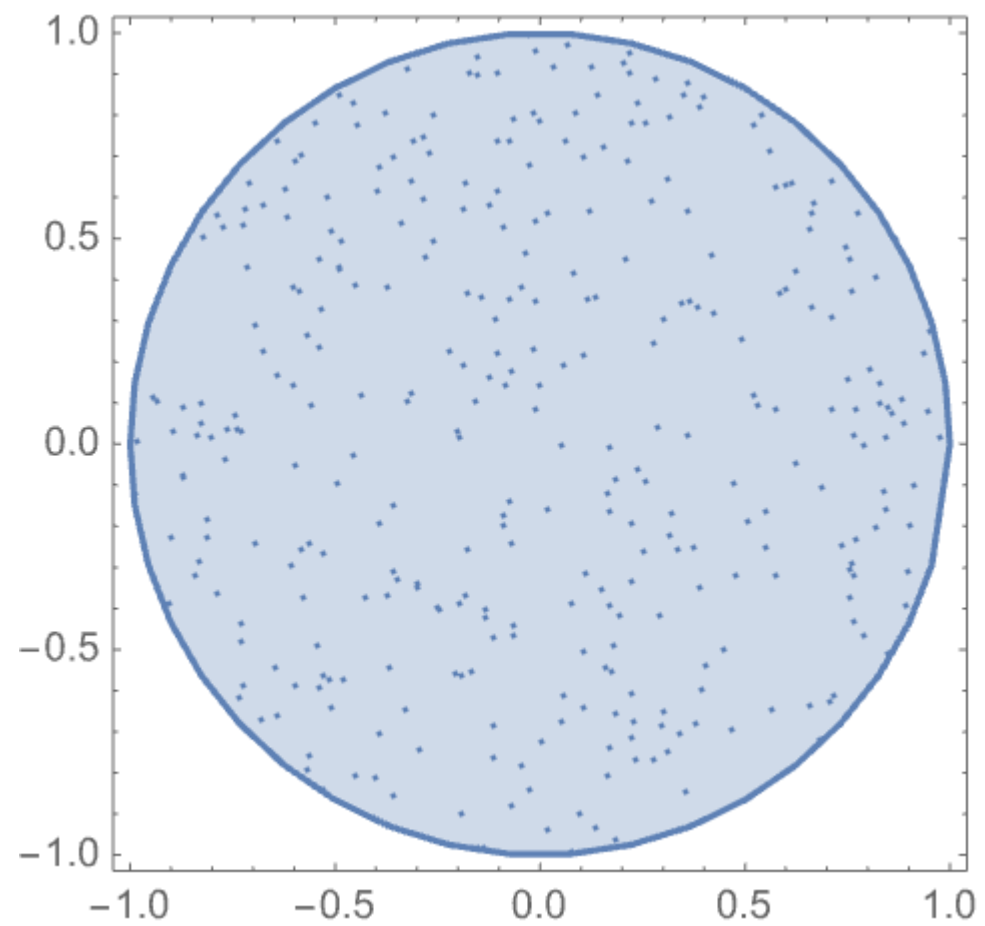
Size of a cluster?

Multi-type
point pattern

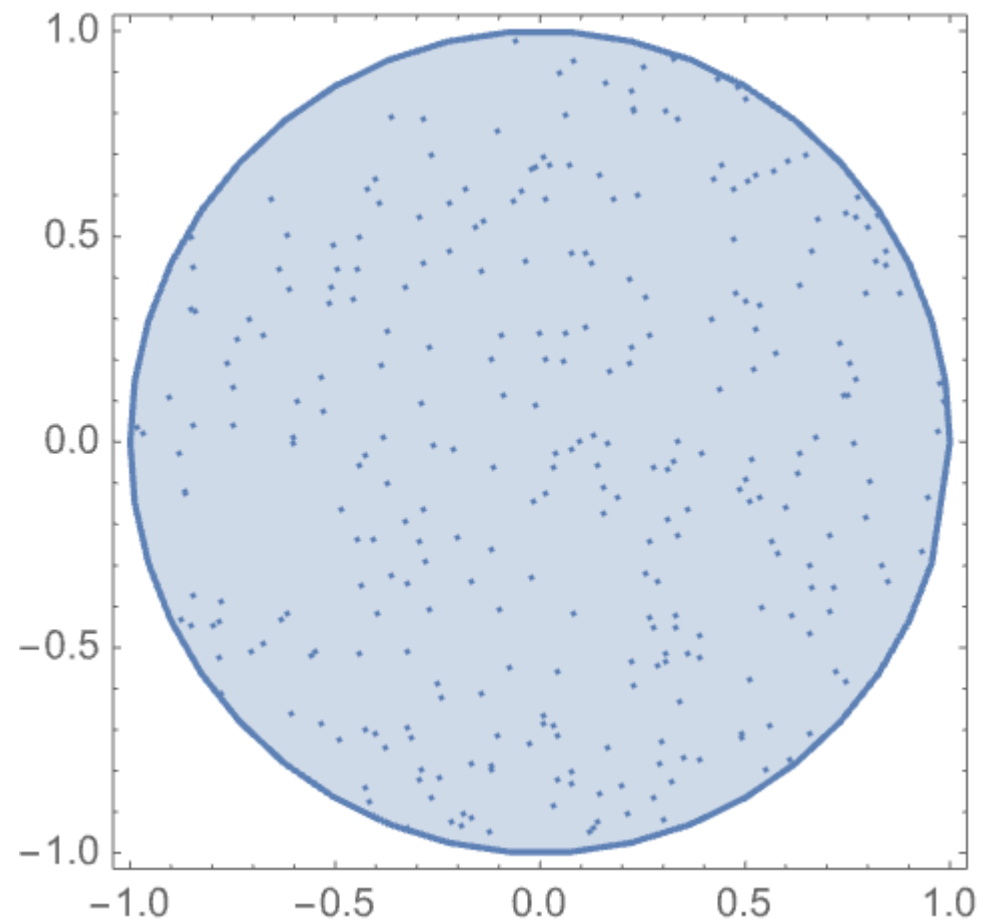


Marked
point pattern

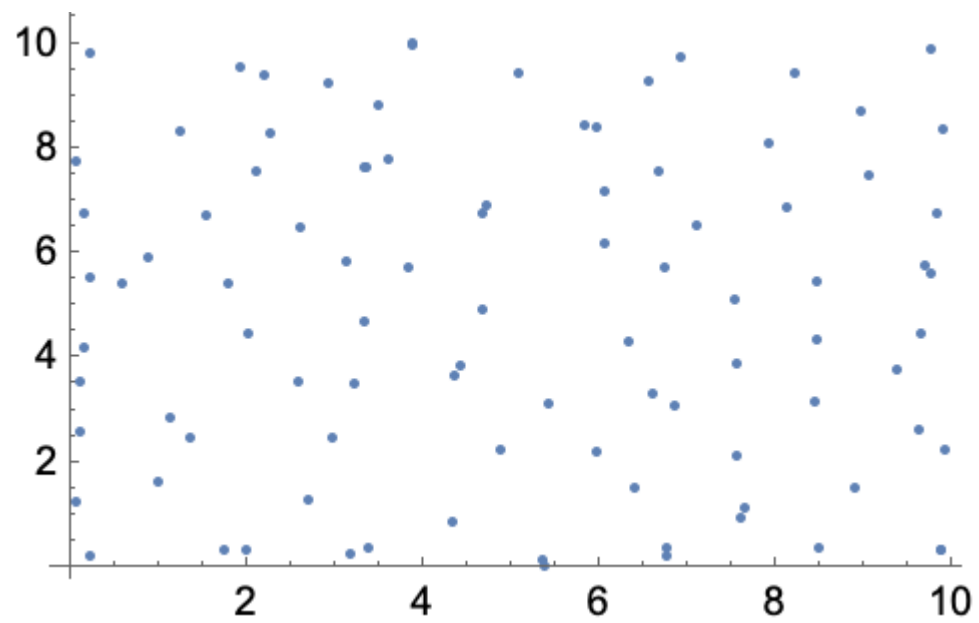




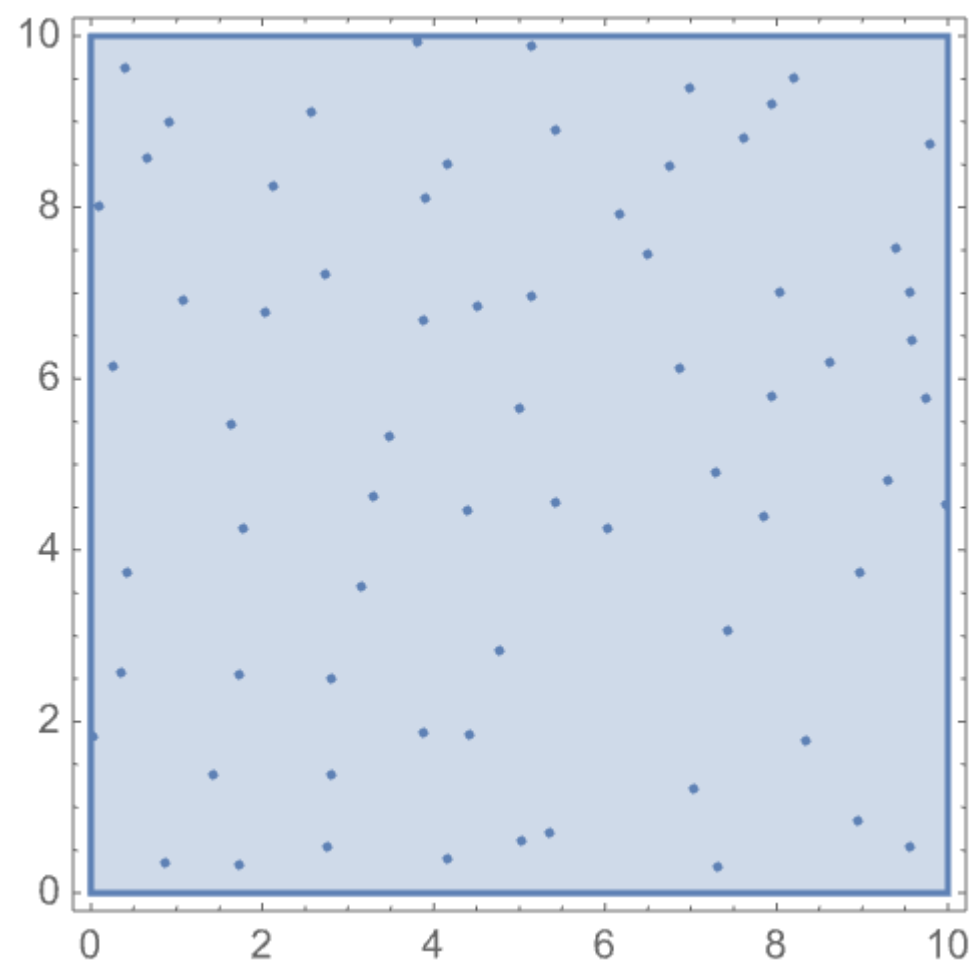
Poisson



Gibbs



Strauss



Diggle Gates

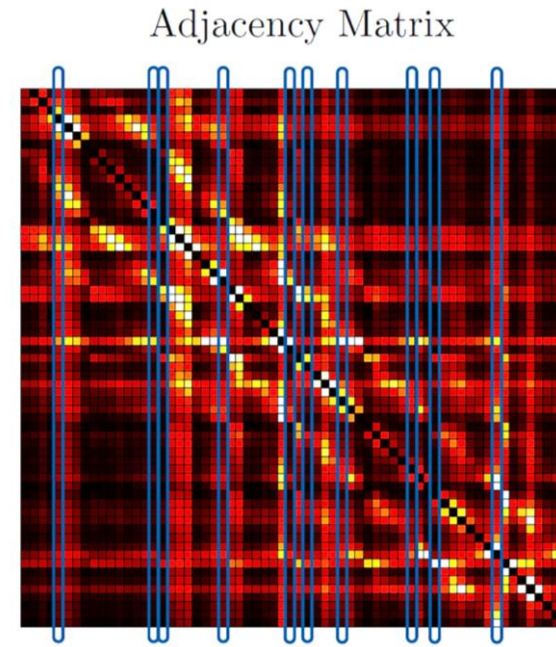
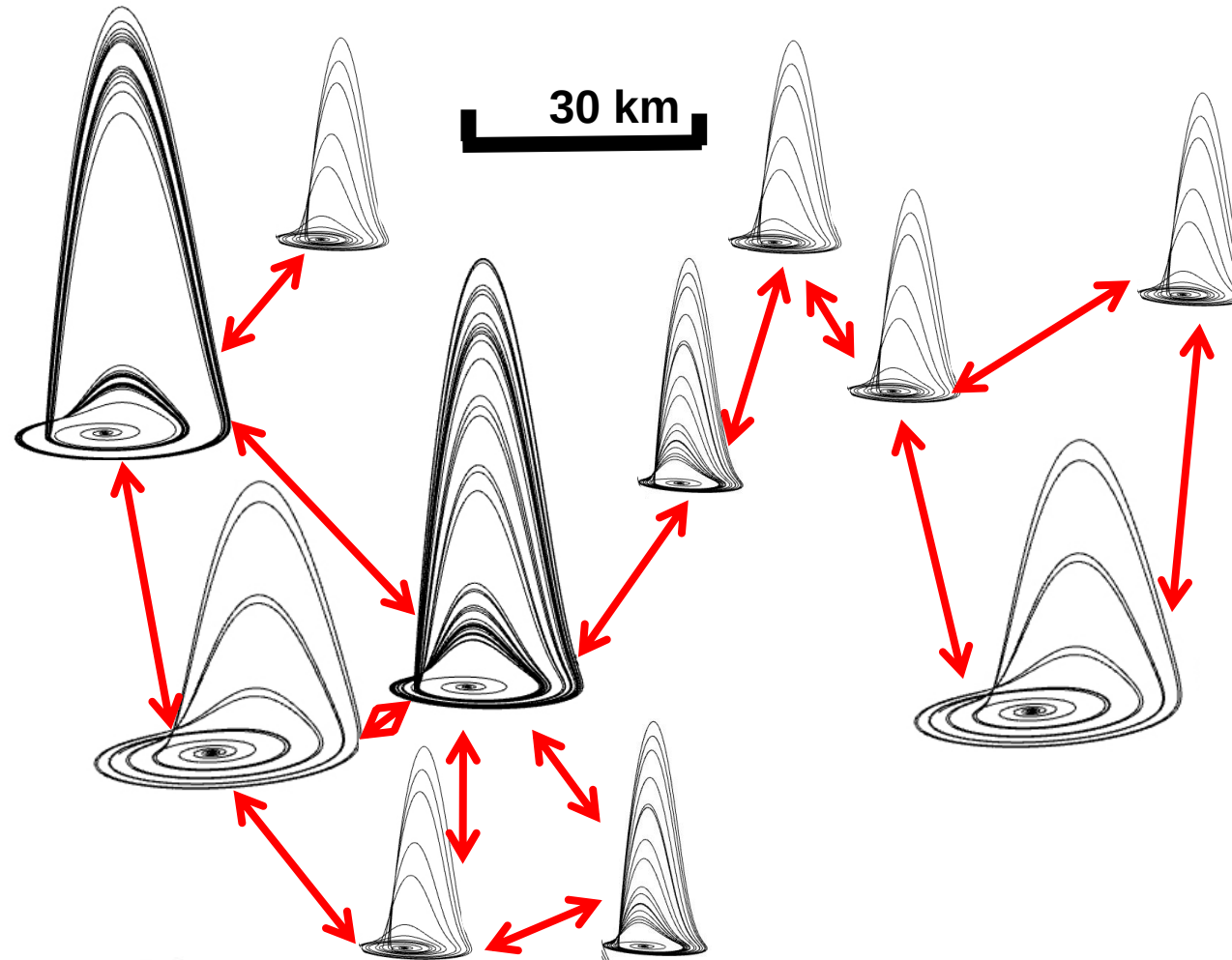
Gibbs Point Processes

process	pair potential $\phi(r)$	characteristic
HardcorePointProcess		hardcore interaction
StraussPointProcess		constant strength softcore interaction
StraussHardcorePointProcess		inner hardcore with an outer softcore
PenttinenPointProcess		interaction based on overlapping area
DiggleGrattonPointProcess		inner hardcore with decreasing softcore
DiggleGatesPointProcess		smooth transition from point hardcore

The questions are:

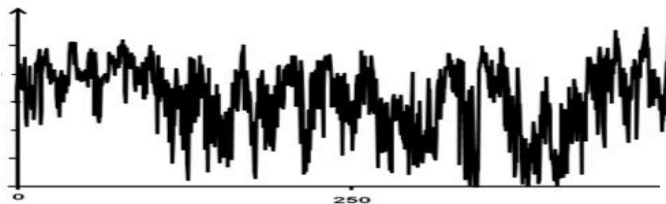
- **What are the metrics of the network formed by the mineralised sites?**
- **Is the point distribution a Gibbs process? If not what is it?**
- **Is there evidence of a depleted region around big deposits?**
- **What happens to the metrics of the network and of the point distribution if I remove a deposit?**
- **What happens to the metrics of the network and of the point distribution if I insert a deposit?**
- **Is there any evidence of a hidden node?**
- **Does the Zimbabwe network differ topologically from the Yilgarn network?**

Communication processes between mineralising sites



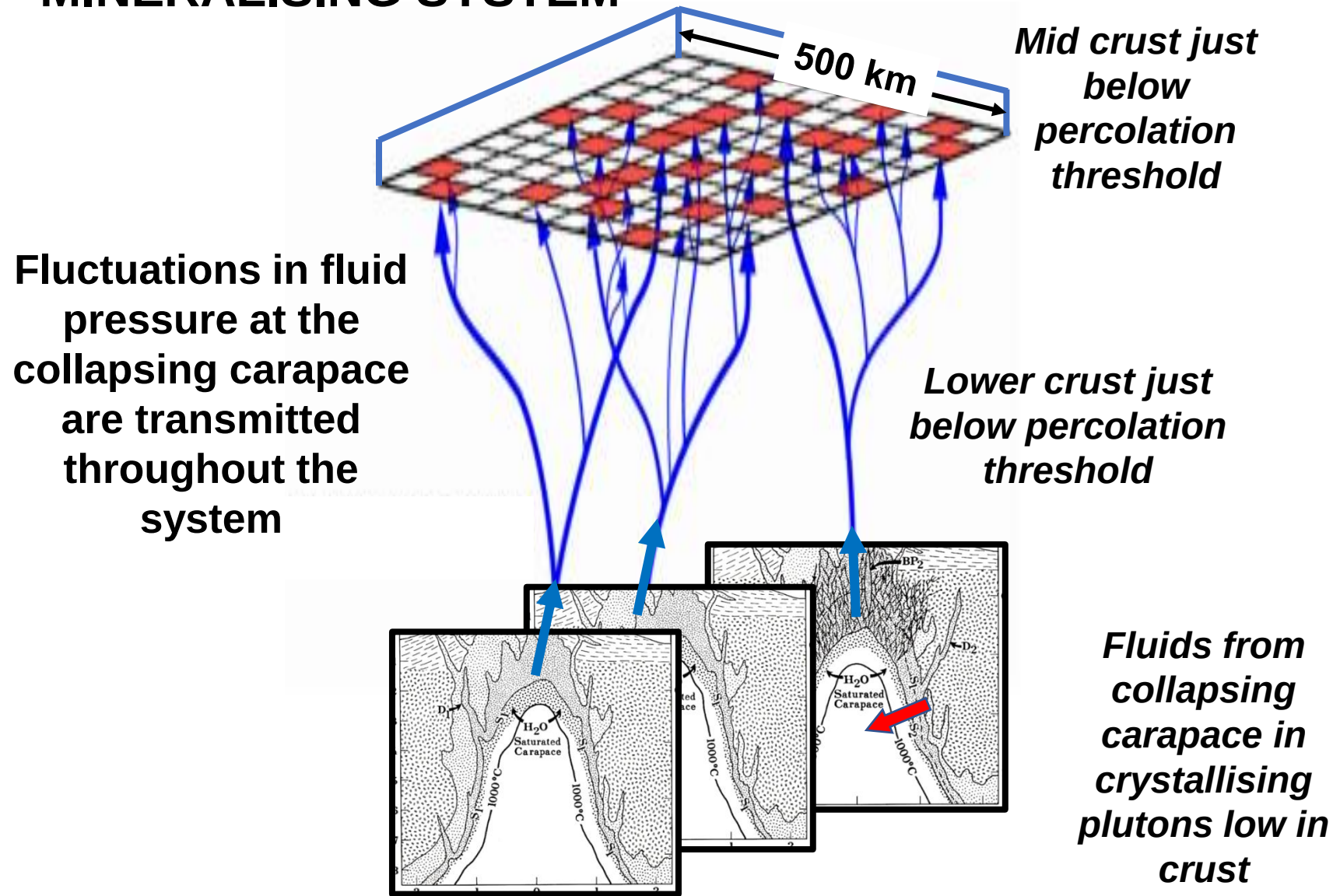
A regional array of chemical reactors each representing an ore body

Each chemical reactor has its own operating signal



Do they talk to each other?
Over what length scale? Do they synchronise?

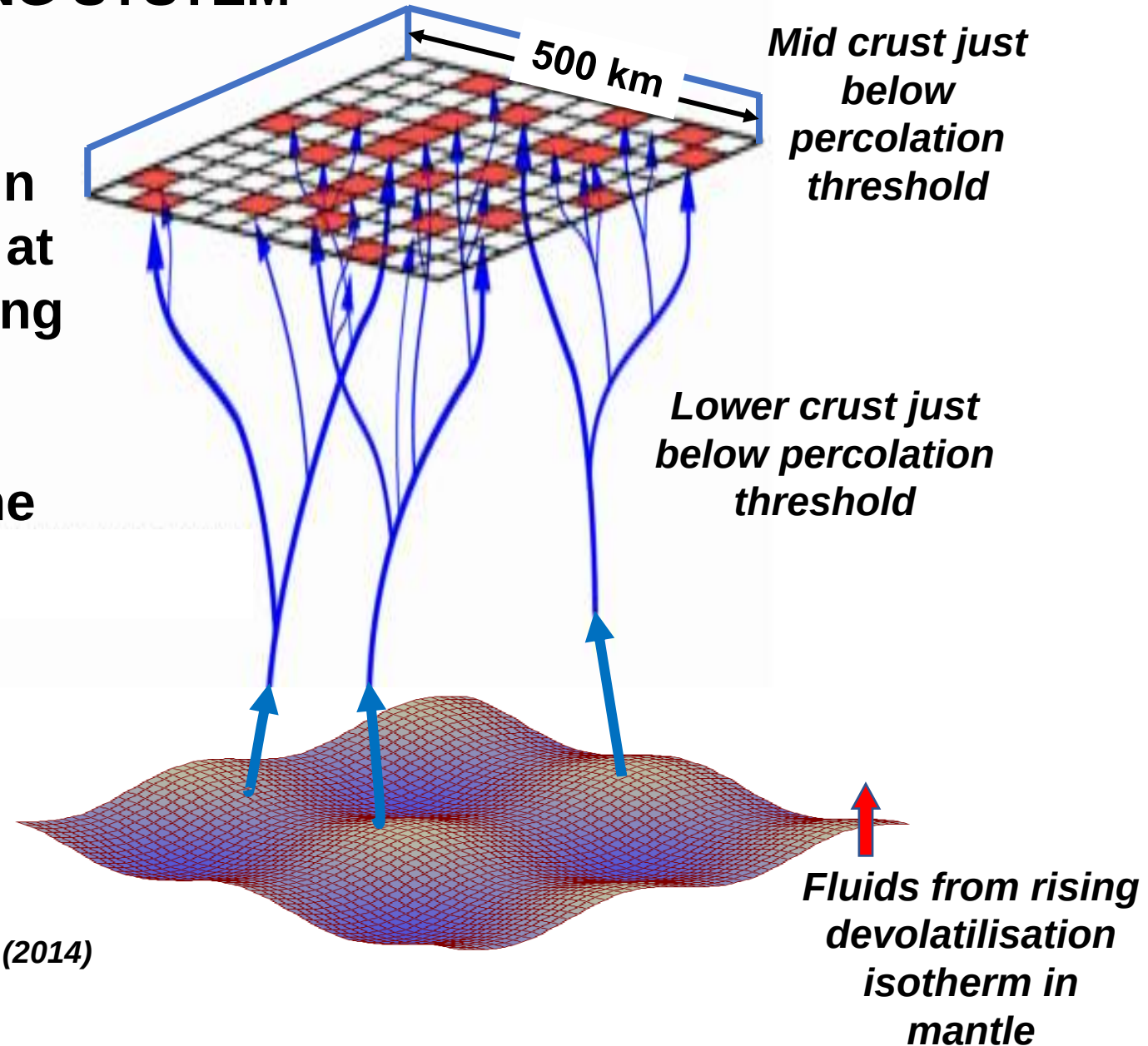
MINERALISING SYSTEM



From Blenkinsop (2014)
and Burnham (1979)

MINERALISING SYSTEM

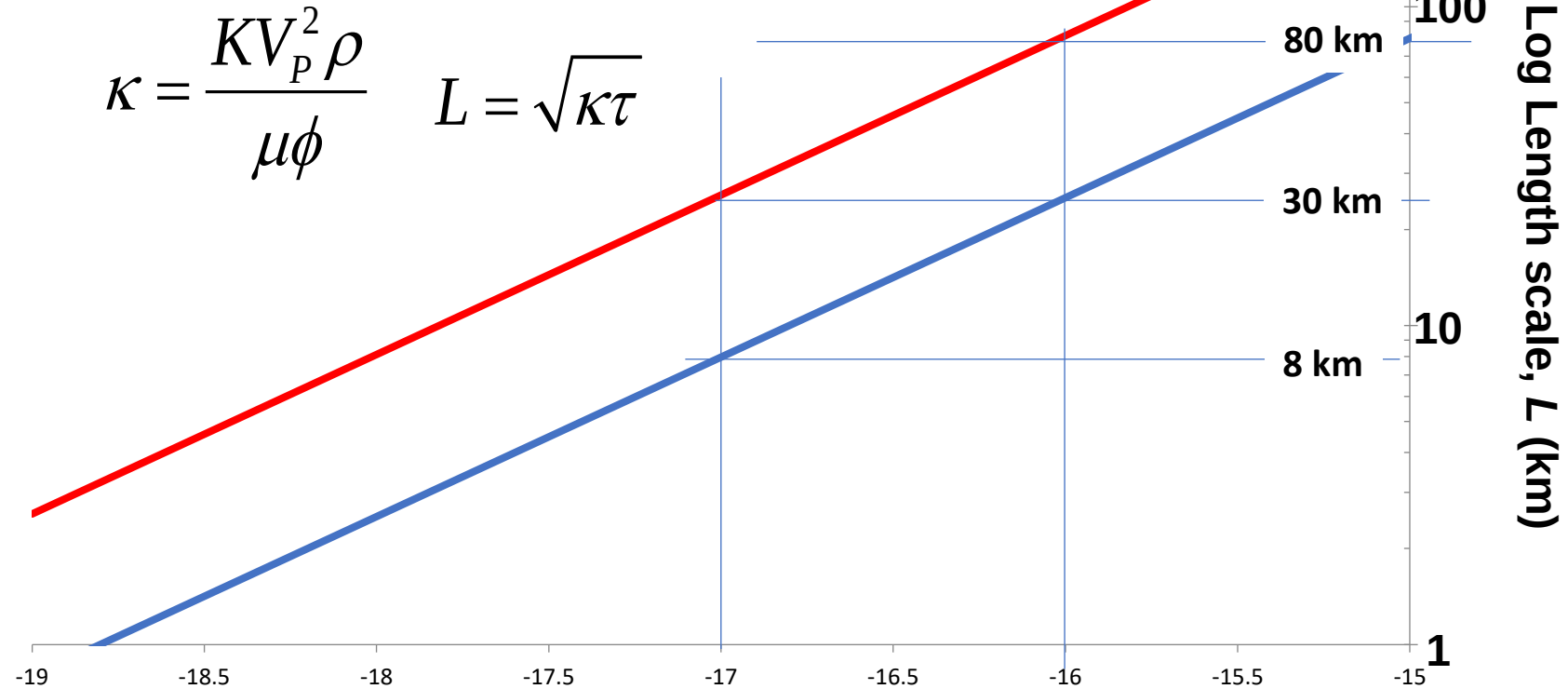
Fluctuations in fluid pressure at the devolatilising front are transmitted throughout the system



Distances over which plumbing systems can communicate

Length scale, L , over which a pressure change is felt for a given time scale,

$\tau = 10^3$ years (blue); $\tau = 10^4$ years (red)



Log permeability, K (m^2)

Porosity, $\phi = 0.1$

$V_P = 1400 \text{ m s}^{-1}$

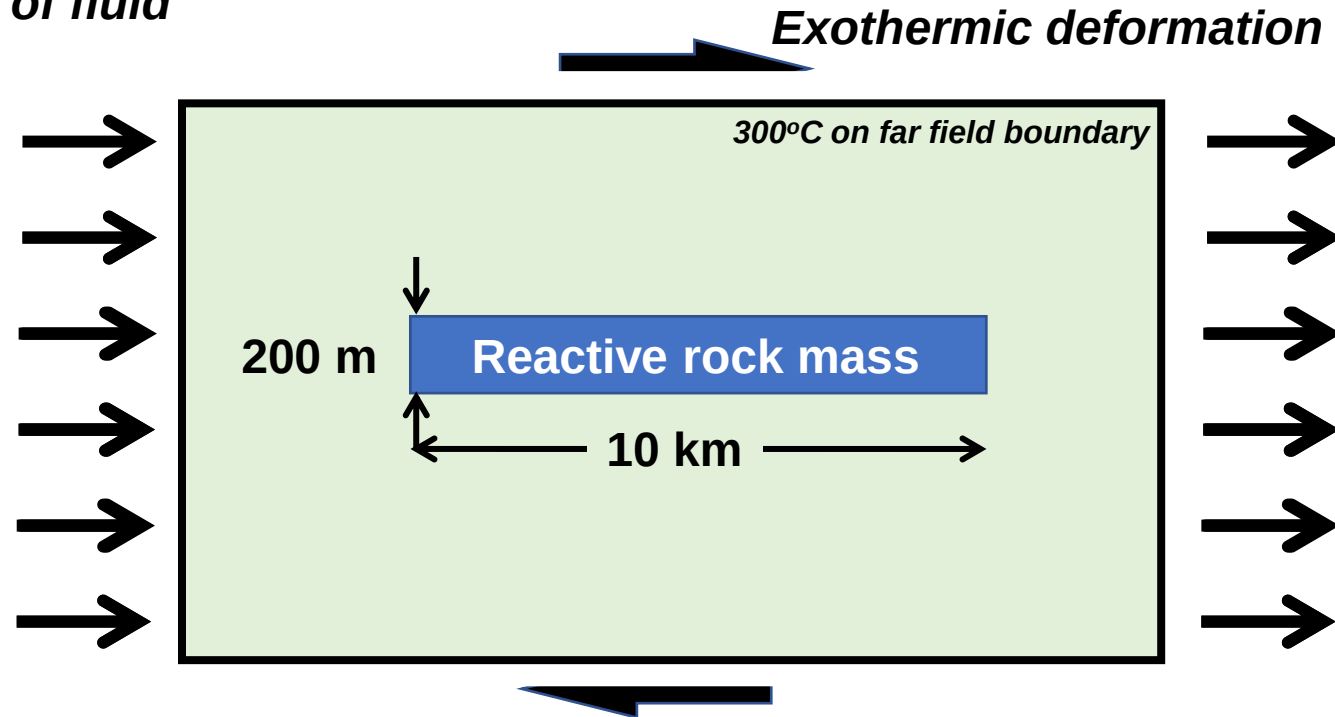
Viscosity, $\mu = 10^{-4} \text{ Pa s}$

Density, $\rho = 10^3 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$

κ is hydraulic
diffusivity

*Input gold
concentration 10 ppb
by weight of fluid*

An example



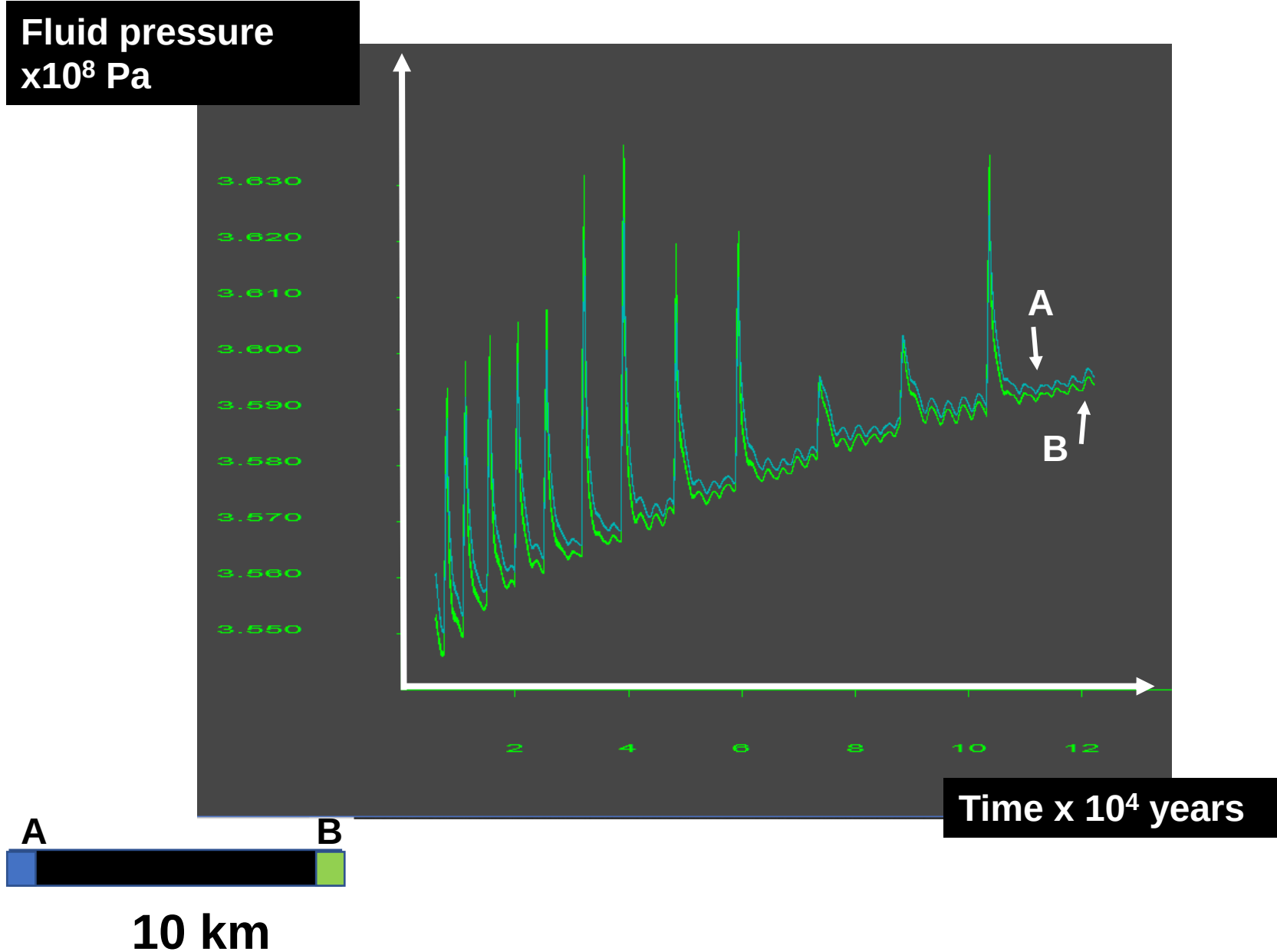
*Imposed flow rate for
lithostatic fluid
pressure gradient*

*Reactions within reactive
region endothermic with
fluid release*

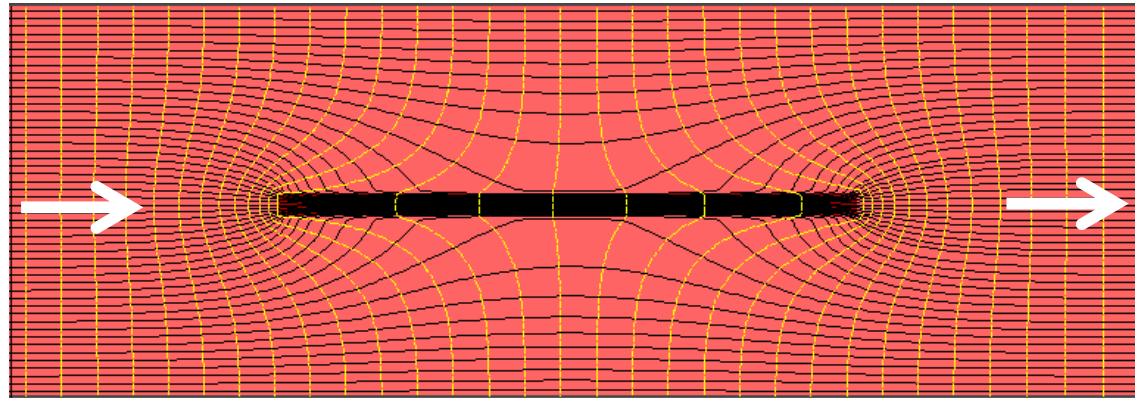


This reaction is endothermic with $\Delta H = 5937.5 \text{ kJ}$.

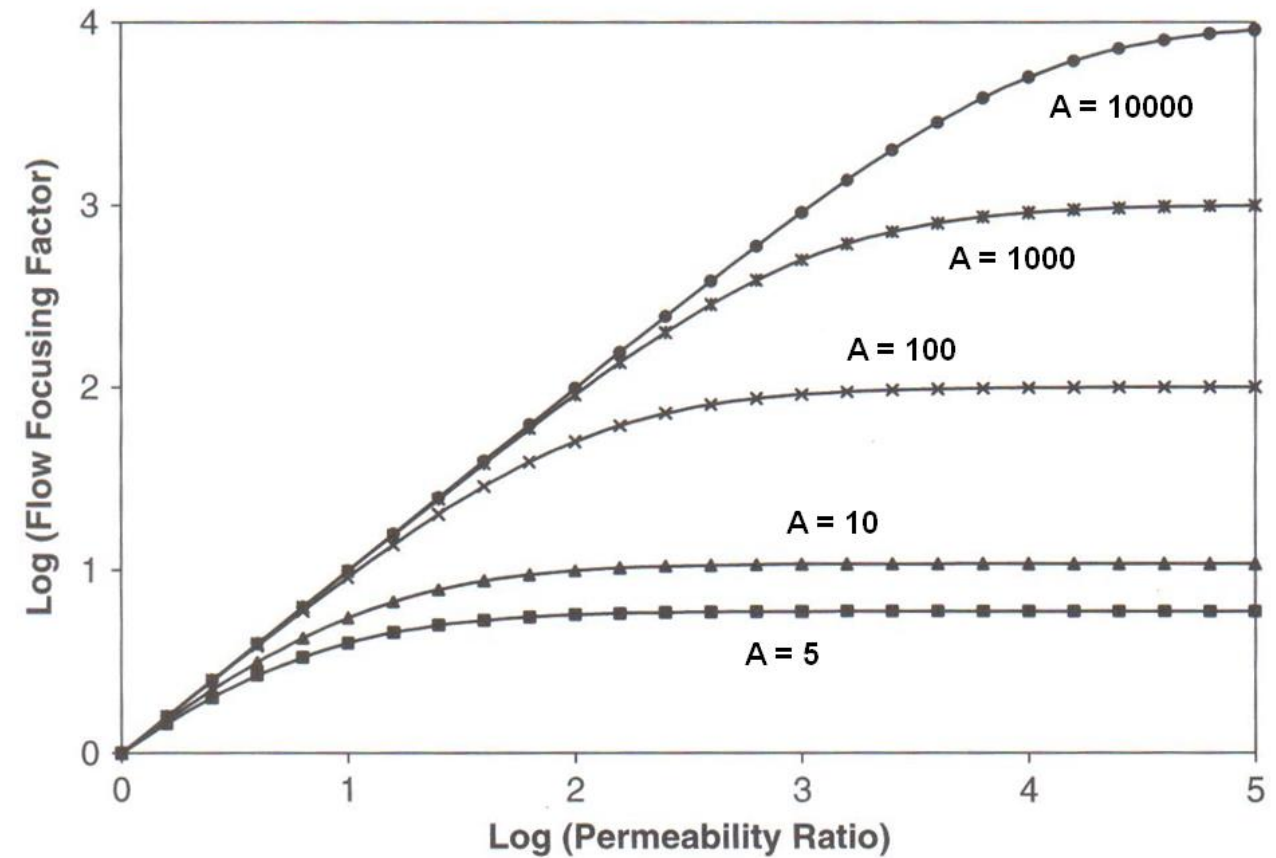
Synchronisation of pore pressure in mineralising system over 10 km



Focussing of fluid flow into high permeability lens

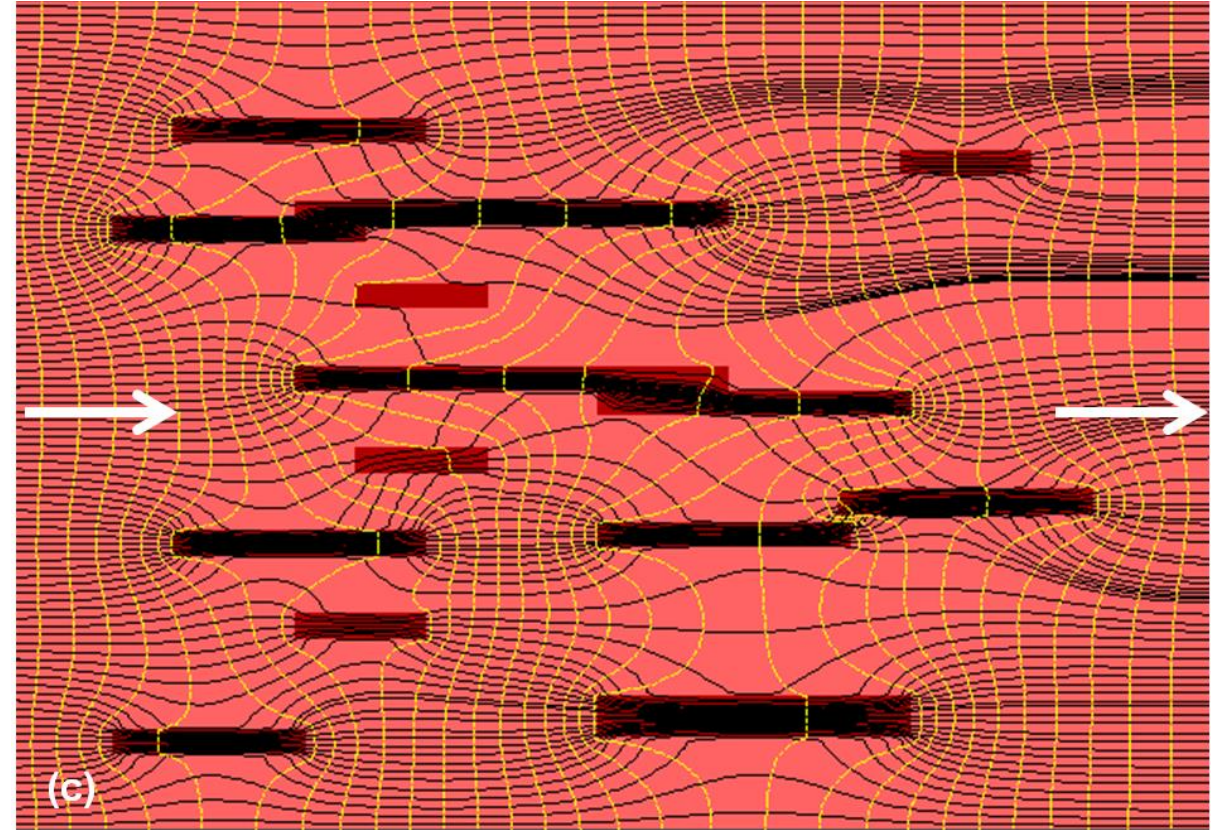
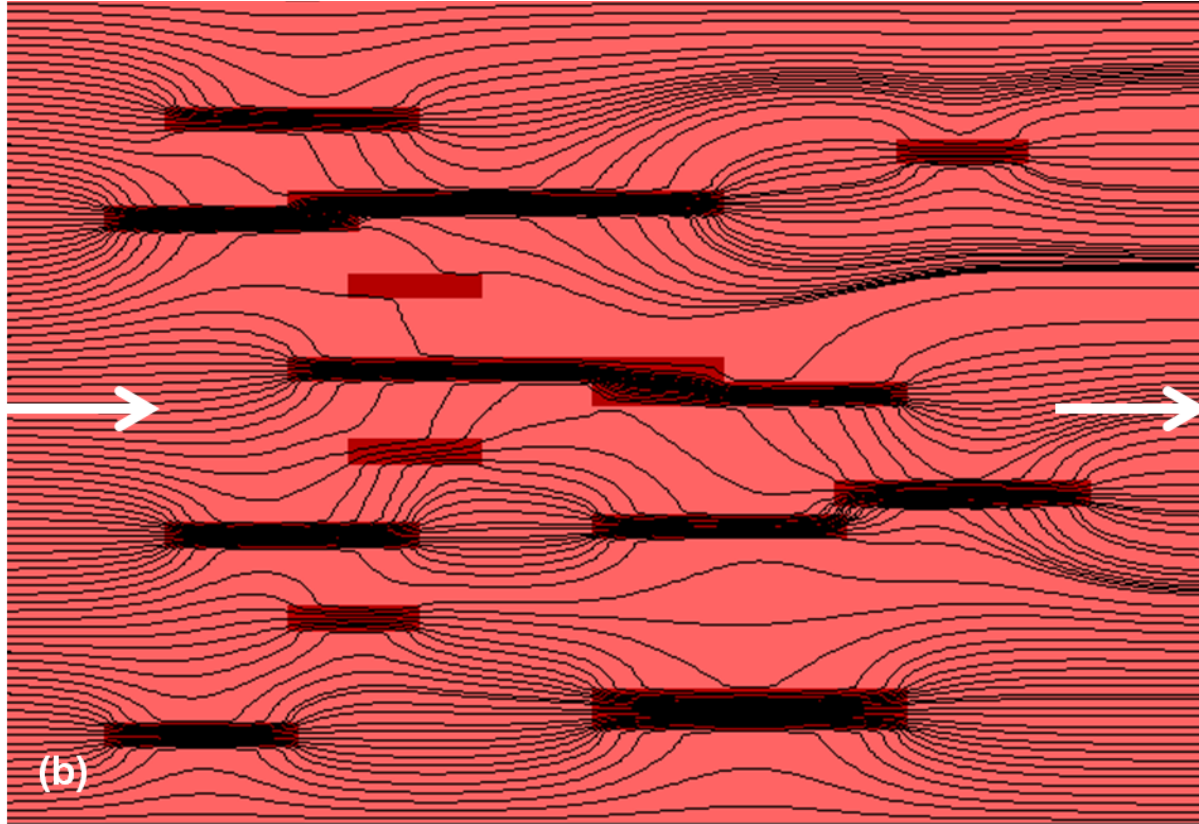


(a)



**Focussing increases as permeability ratio increases
and as aspect ratio, A , increases**

Fluid focussing into multiple lenses



Black; Stream lines. Yellow: fluid pore pressure contours
Notice some lenses miss out on fluid, some areas are relatively stagnant.

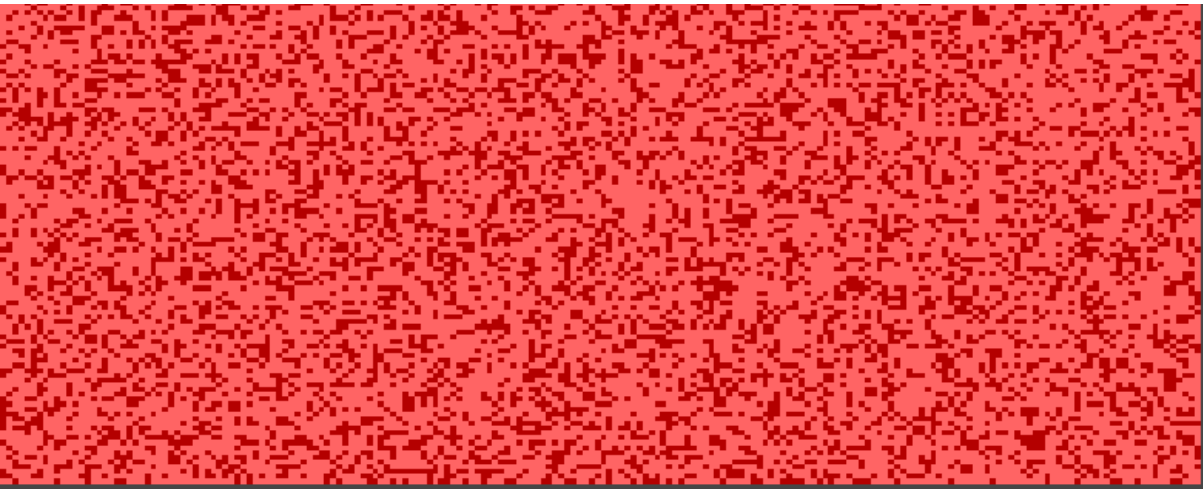
Focussing patterns indicate a region of stagnant flow next to areas of maximum focussing.

Stagnation regions are adjacent to areas of maximum permeability contrast and maximum interface between permeabilities.

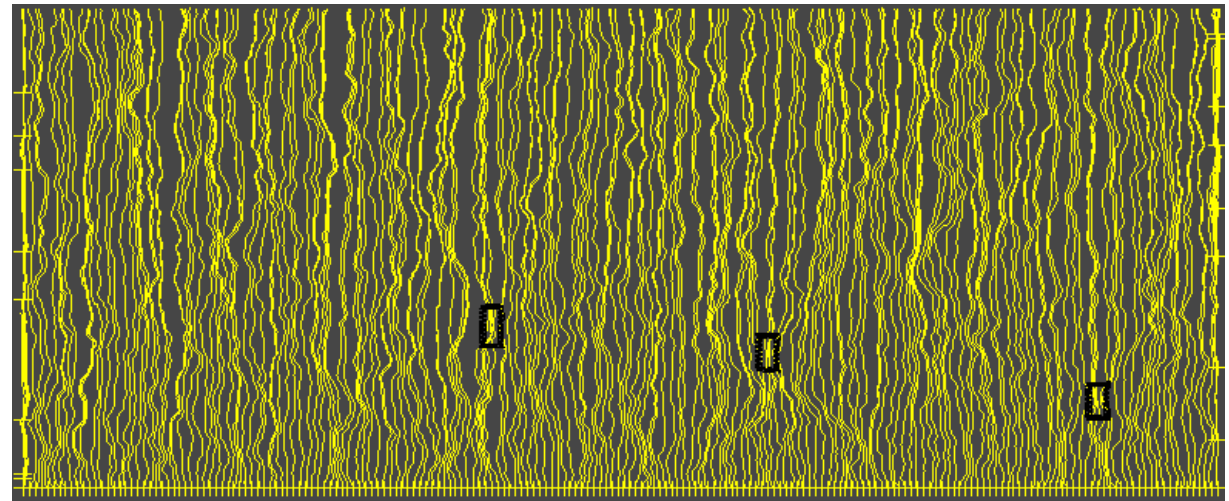
This suggests that the spatial distribution should be some form of Gibbs point process.

We run some models below to see the influence of heterogeneity in permeability upon flow patterns.

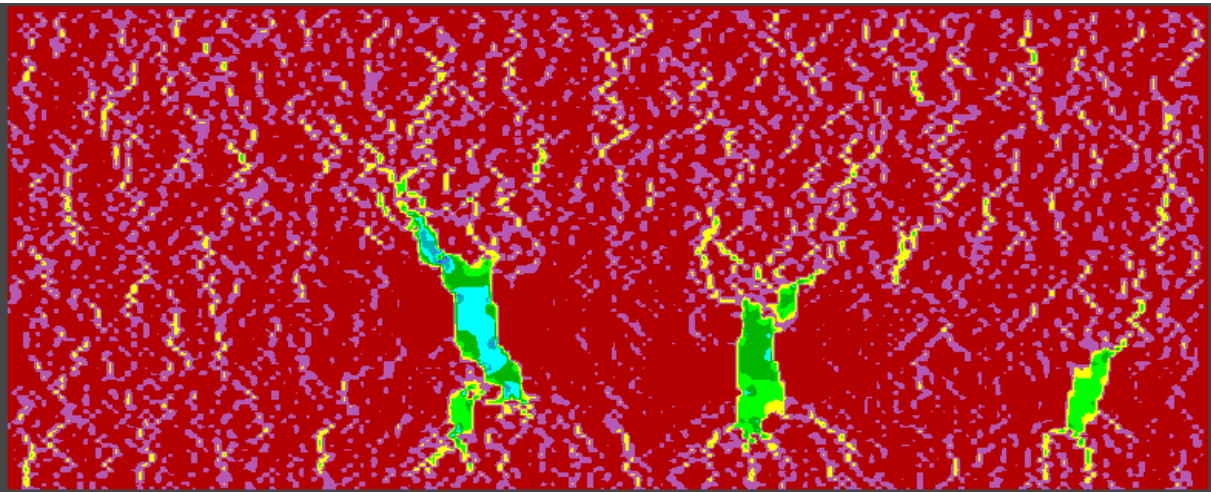
If the flow is greater than some critical value reactions occur to increase the permeability



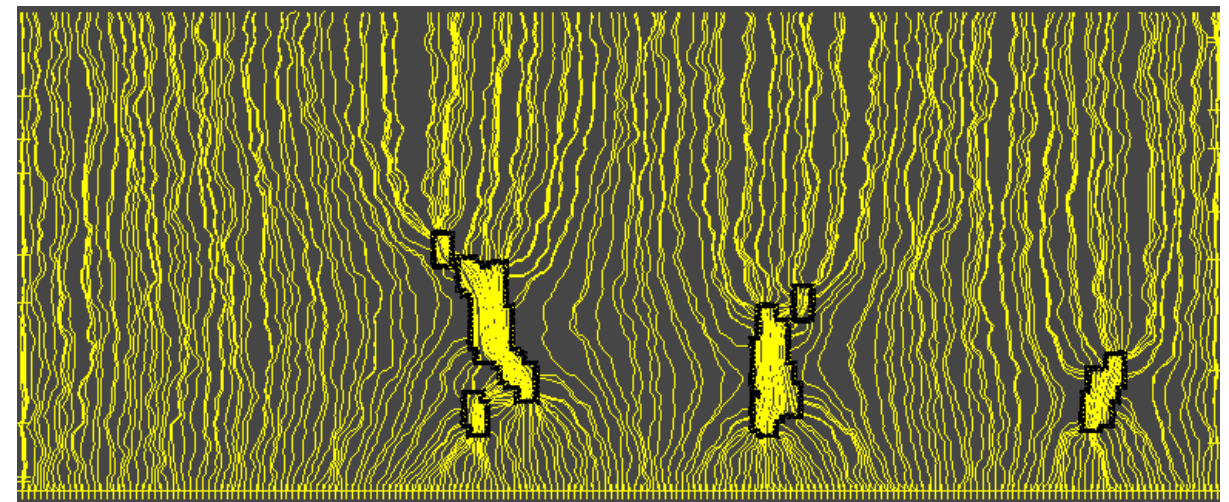
Initial permeability distribution
 Pink: 10^{-19} m^2 ; red: 10^{-18} m^2



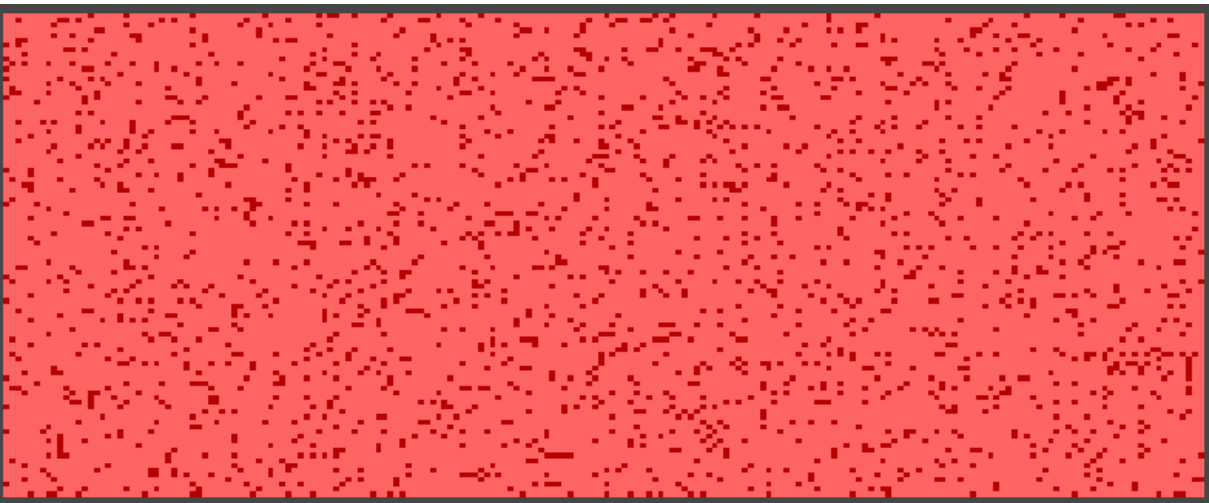
Early stream lines
 Black outlines permeability has increased to 10^{-17} m^2



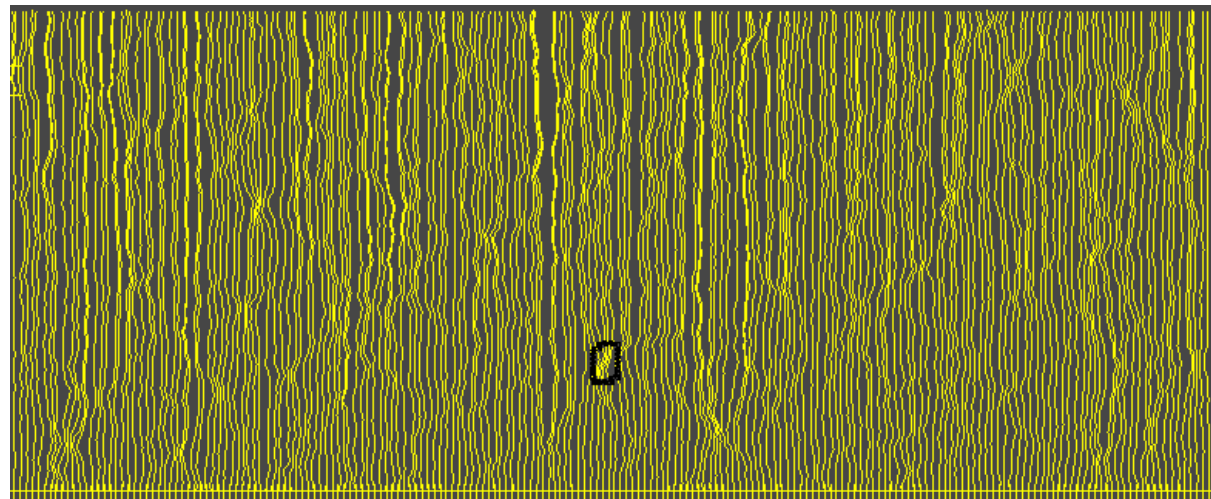
Late distribution of fluid velocity
 Blue is highest



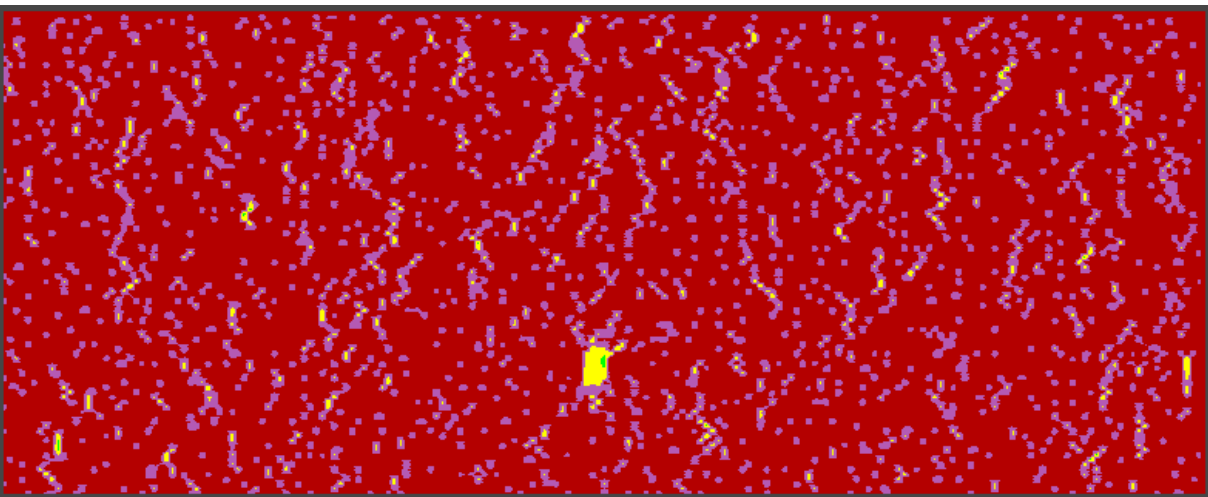
Late distribution stream lines and
Permeability change



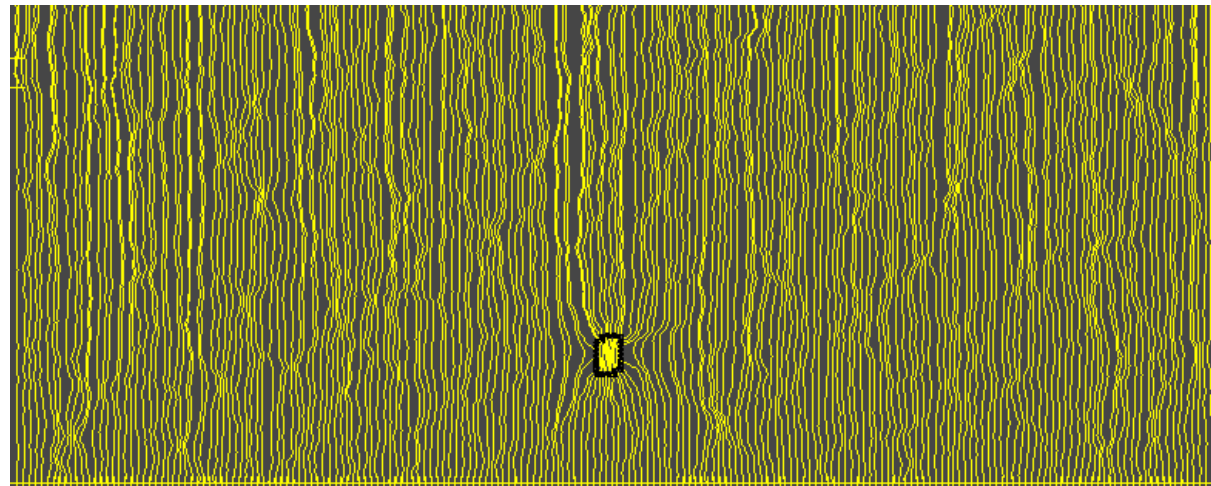
Initial permeability distribution
Pink: 10^{-19} m^2 ; red: 10^{-18} m^2



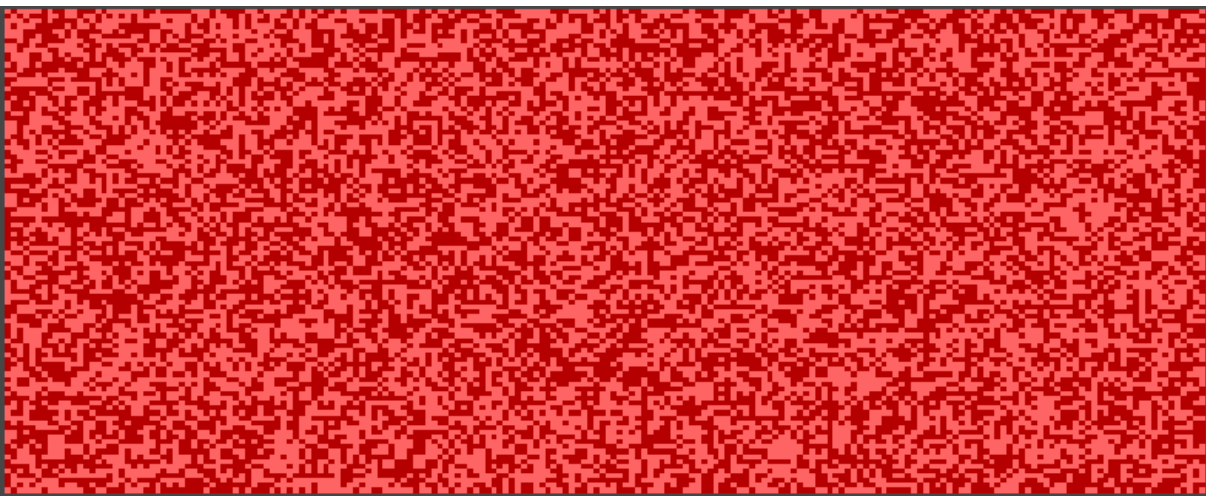
Early stream lines
Black outline permeability has increased to 10^{-17} m^2



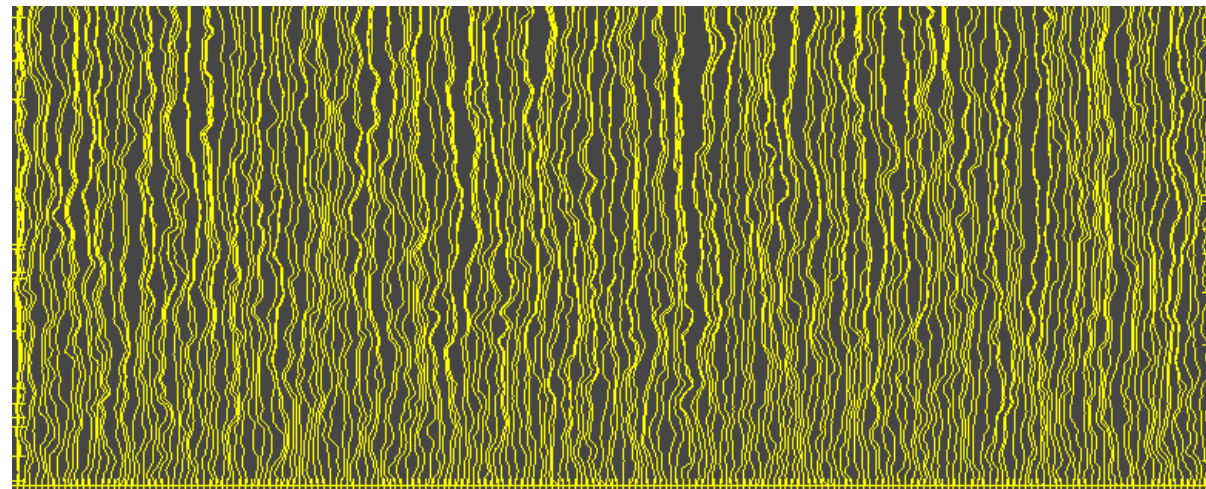
Late distribution of fluid velocity
Green is highest



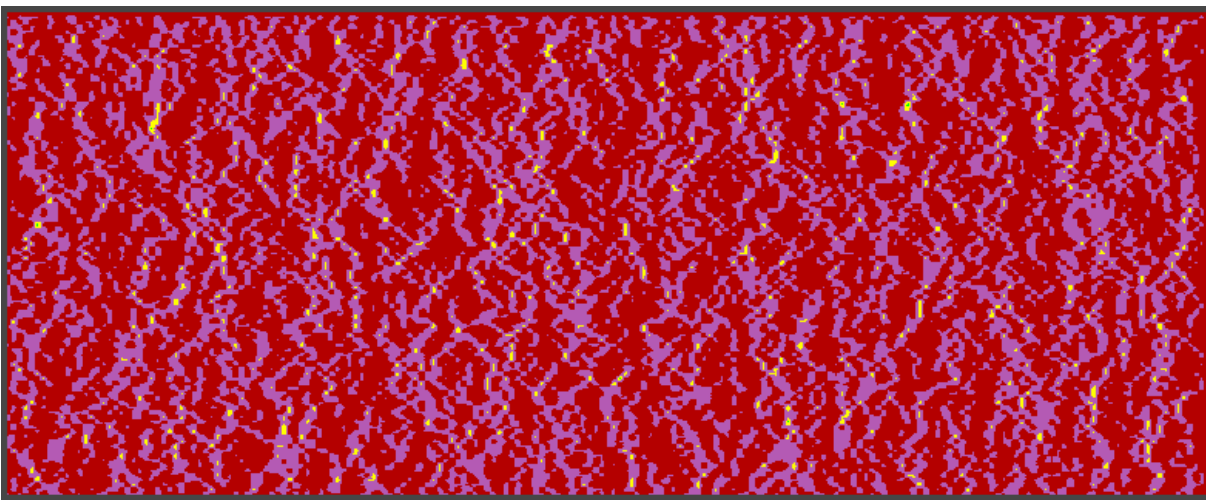
Late distribution stream lines and
Permeability change



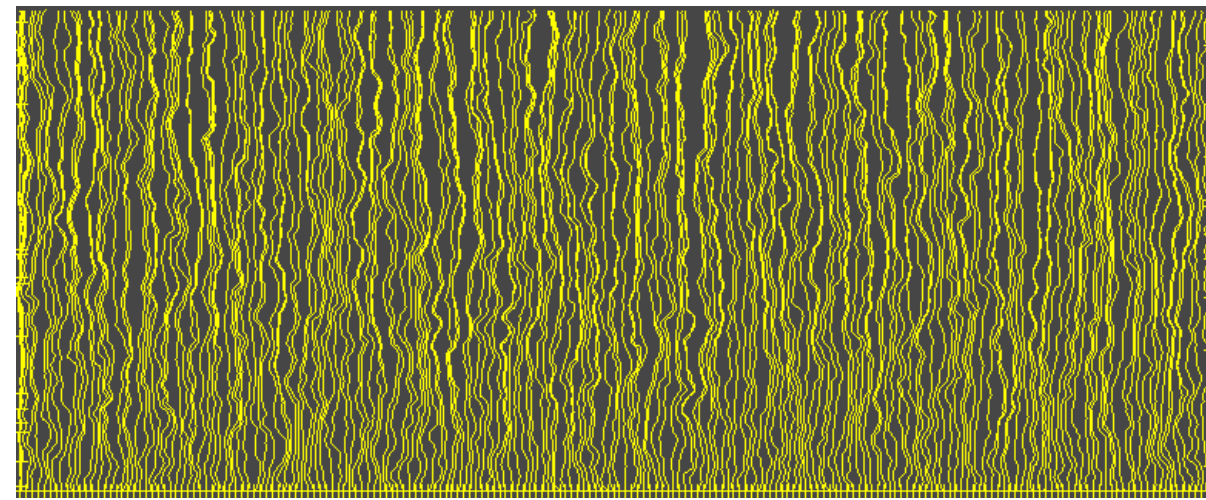
Initial permeability distribution
 Pink: 10^{-19} m^2 ; red: 10^{-18} m^2



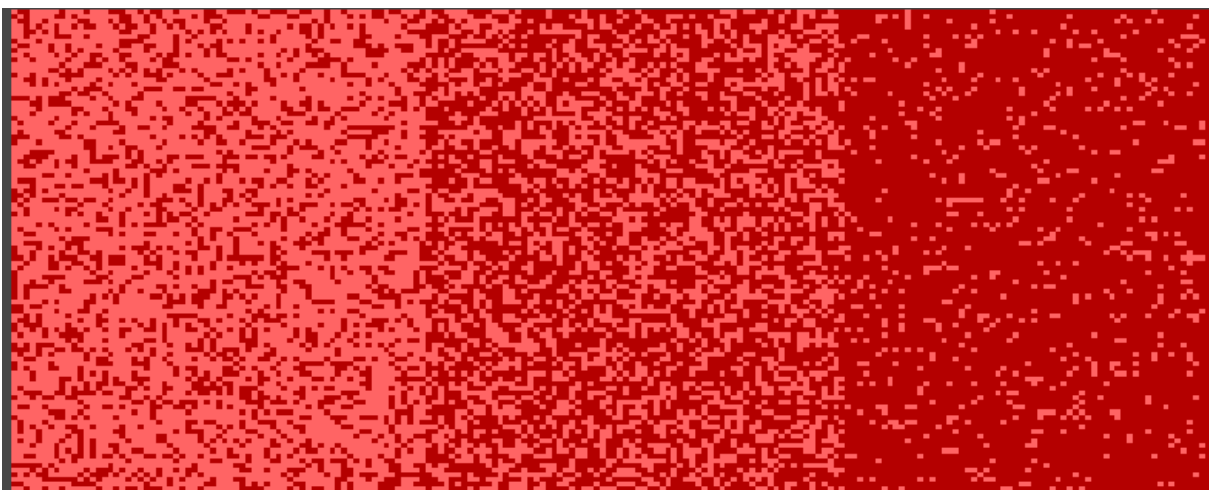
Early stream lines
 No early increase in permeability



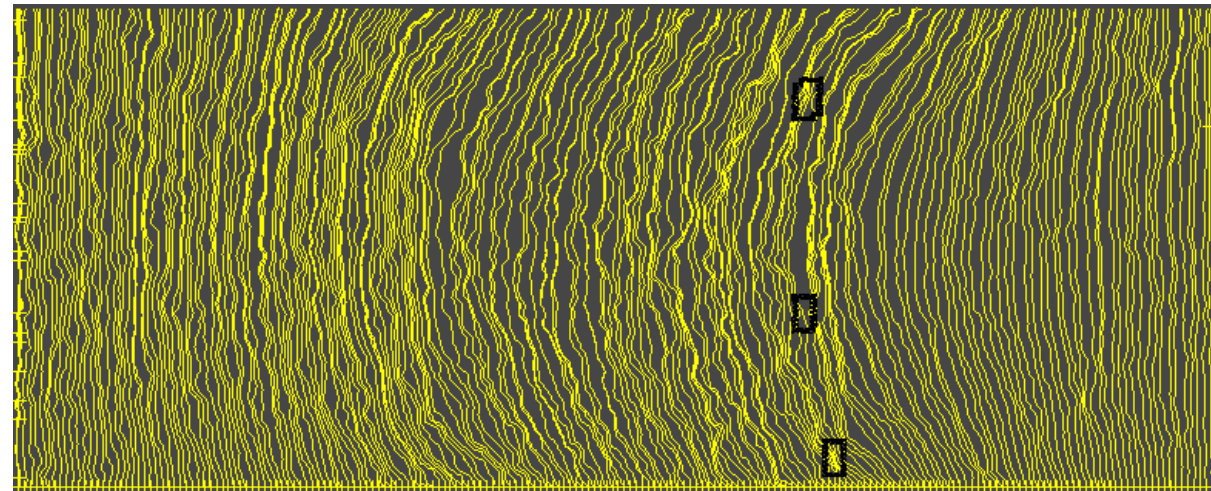
Late distribution of fluid velocity
 Yellow is highest



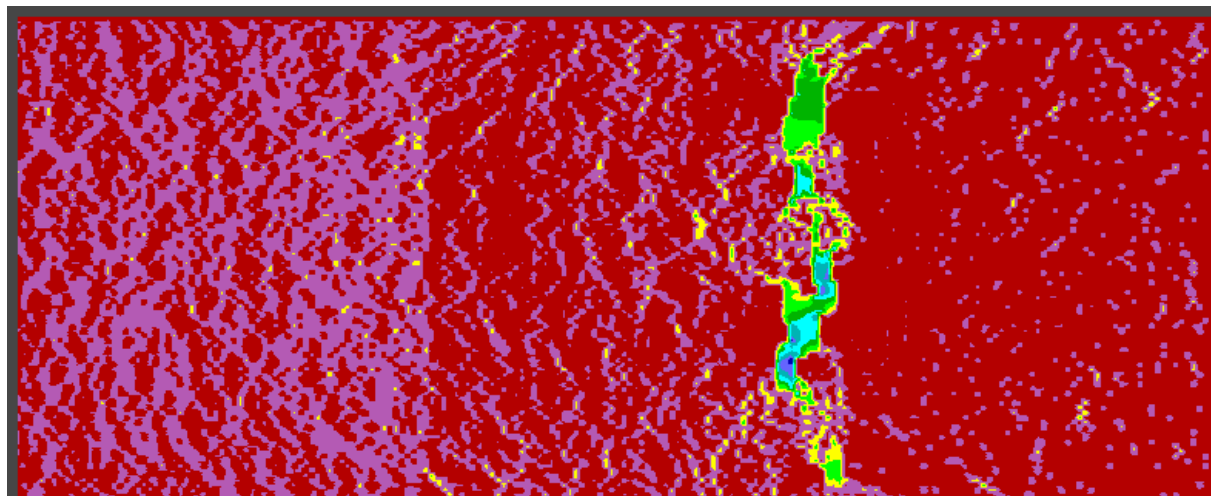
Late distribution stream lines.
 No permeability change



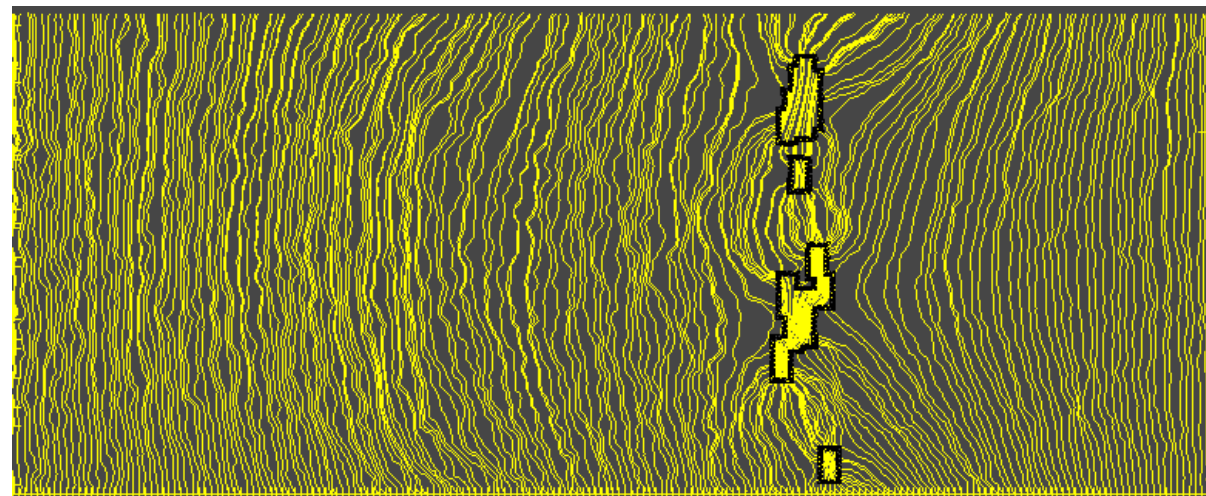
Initial permeability distribution
 Pink: 10^{-19} m^2 ; red: 10^{-18} m^2



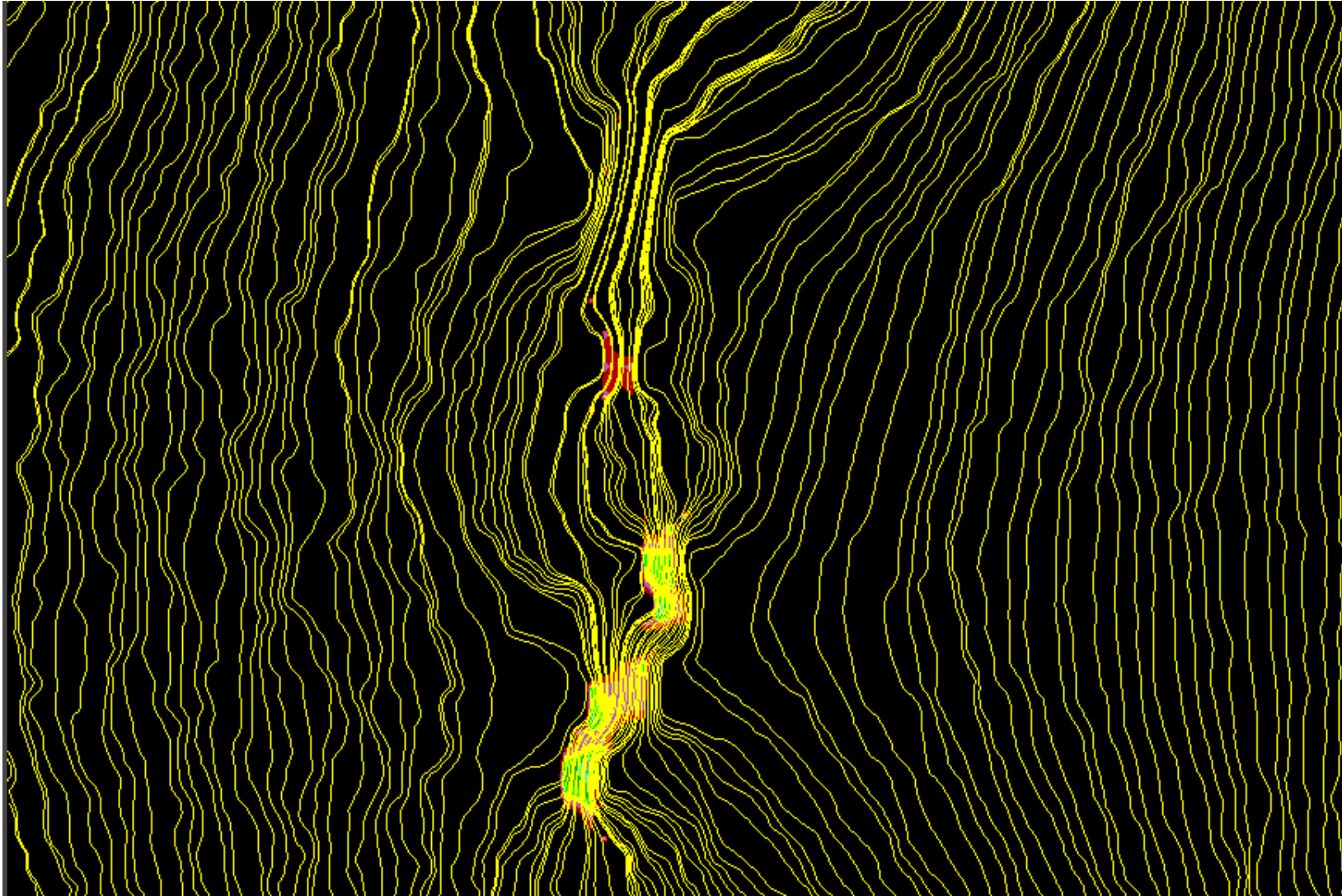
Early stream lines
 Black outlines permeability has
 increased to 10^{-17} m^2



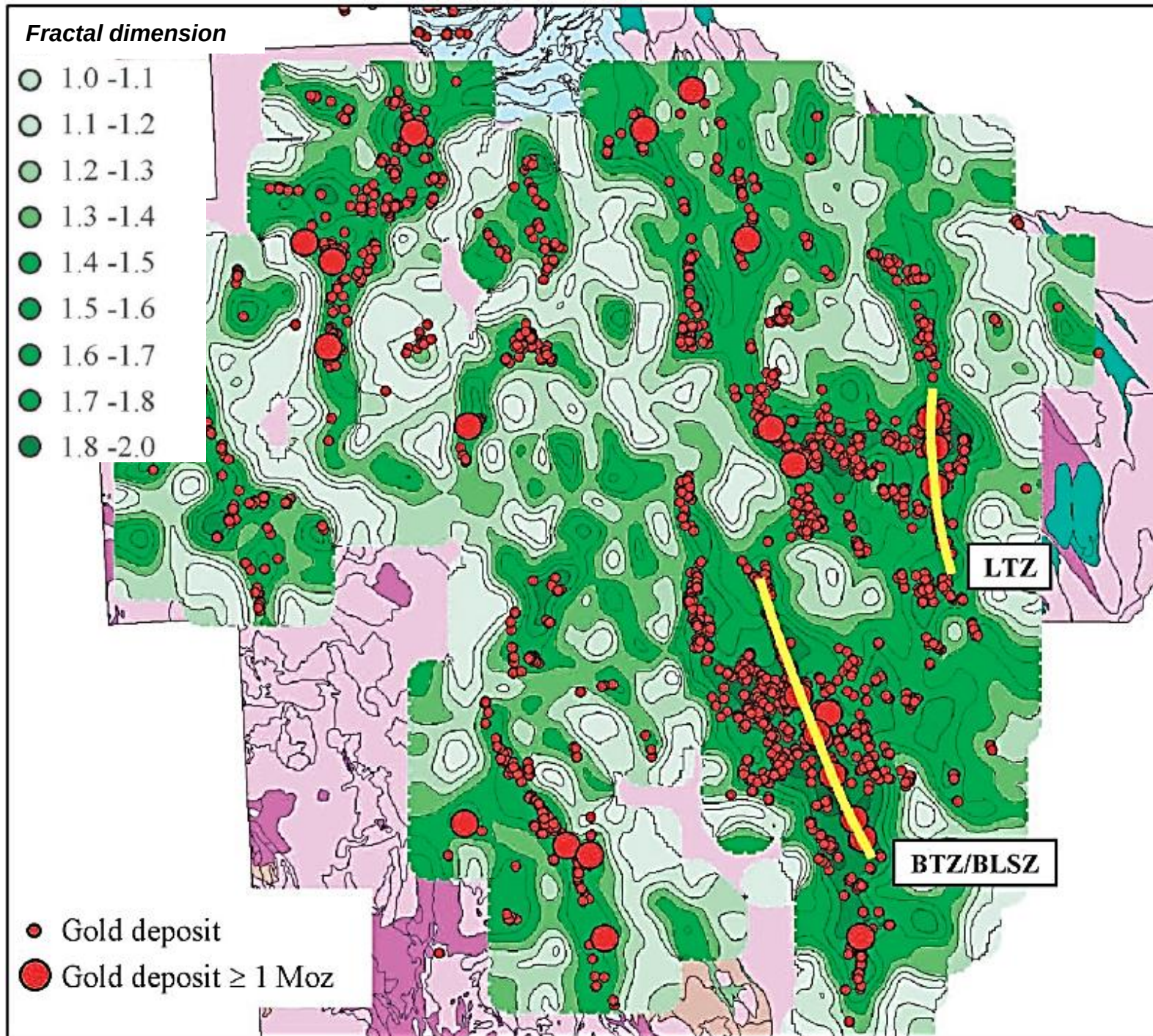
Late distribution of fluid velocity
 Dark blue is highest



Late distribution stream lines.
 Black: permeability change



Detail of stream lines and fluid velocity: green is highest

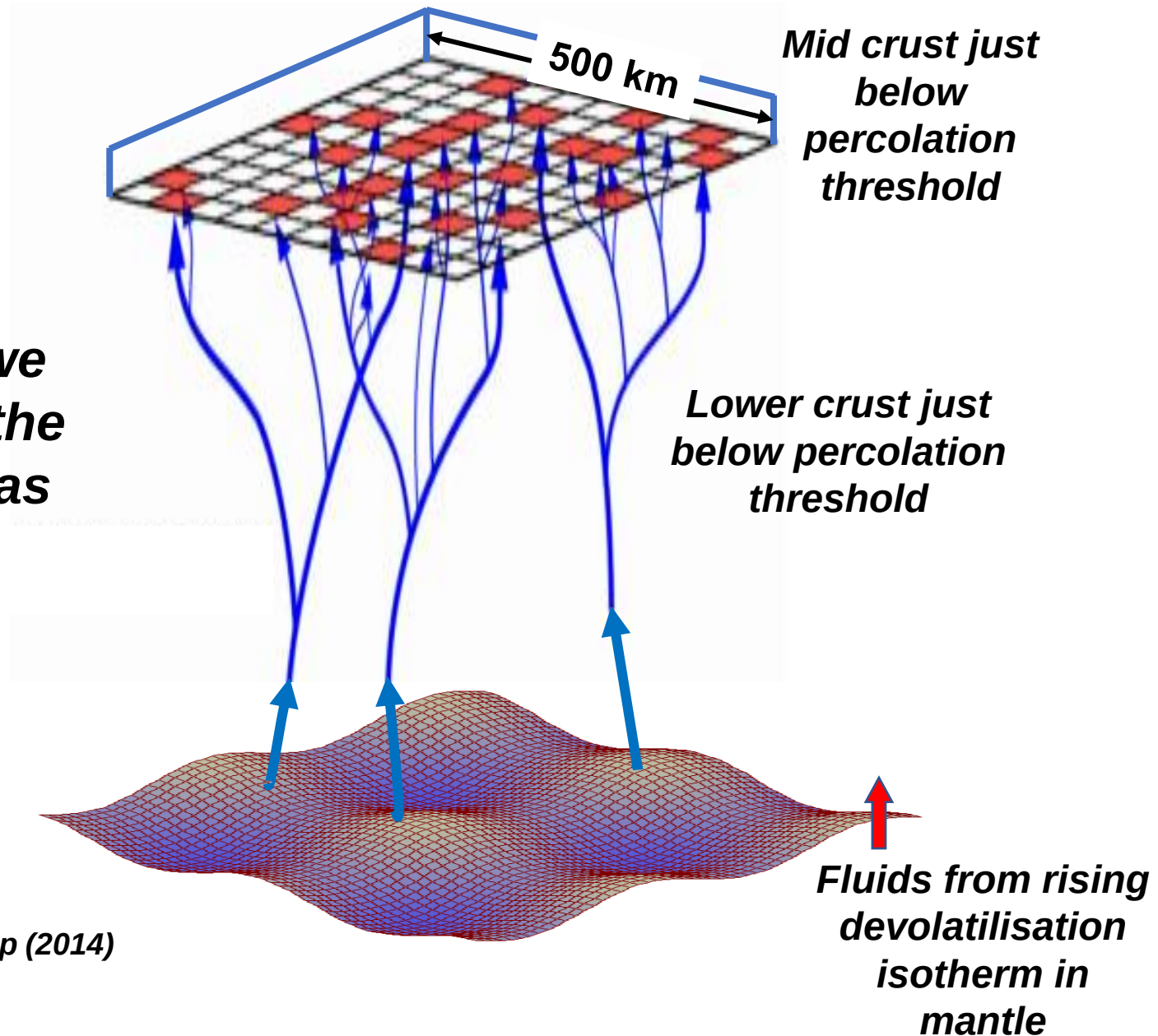


Yilgarn distribution of mineralised sites on gradients between regions of high and low damage density.

From Hodkiewicz et al., 2005

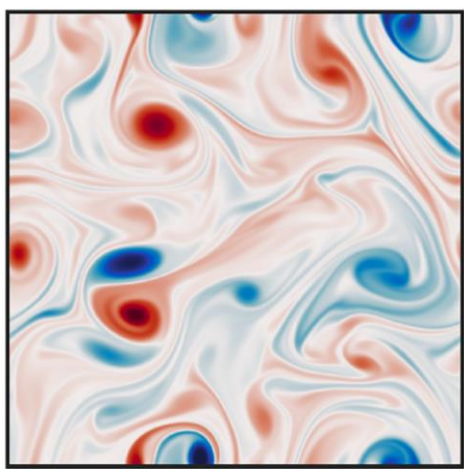
DETECTION OF HIDDEN NODES IN A MINERALISING SYSTEM

*How could we
tell if one of the
red zones was
covered?*



From Blenkinsop (2014)

Would adding or removing a part of the image significantly change the adjacency matrix?



Image

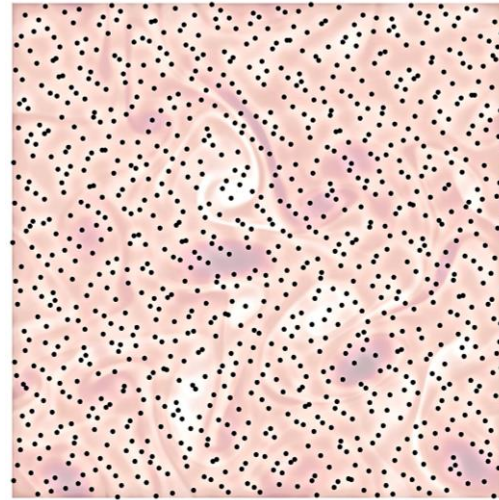
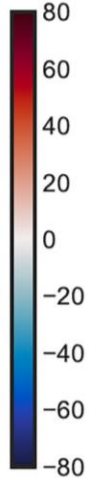
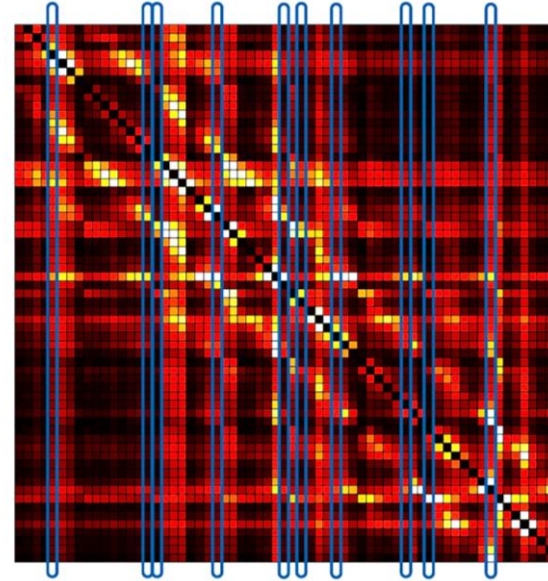
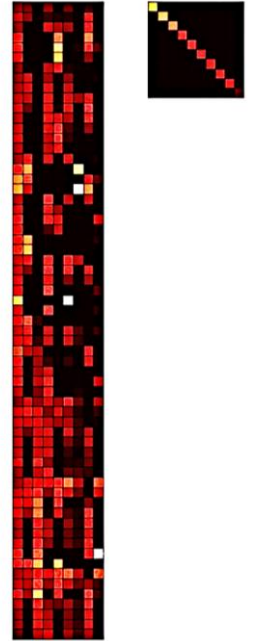


Image with overlay of
random points



Adjacency matrix



Eigenvectors
and eigenvalues

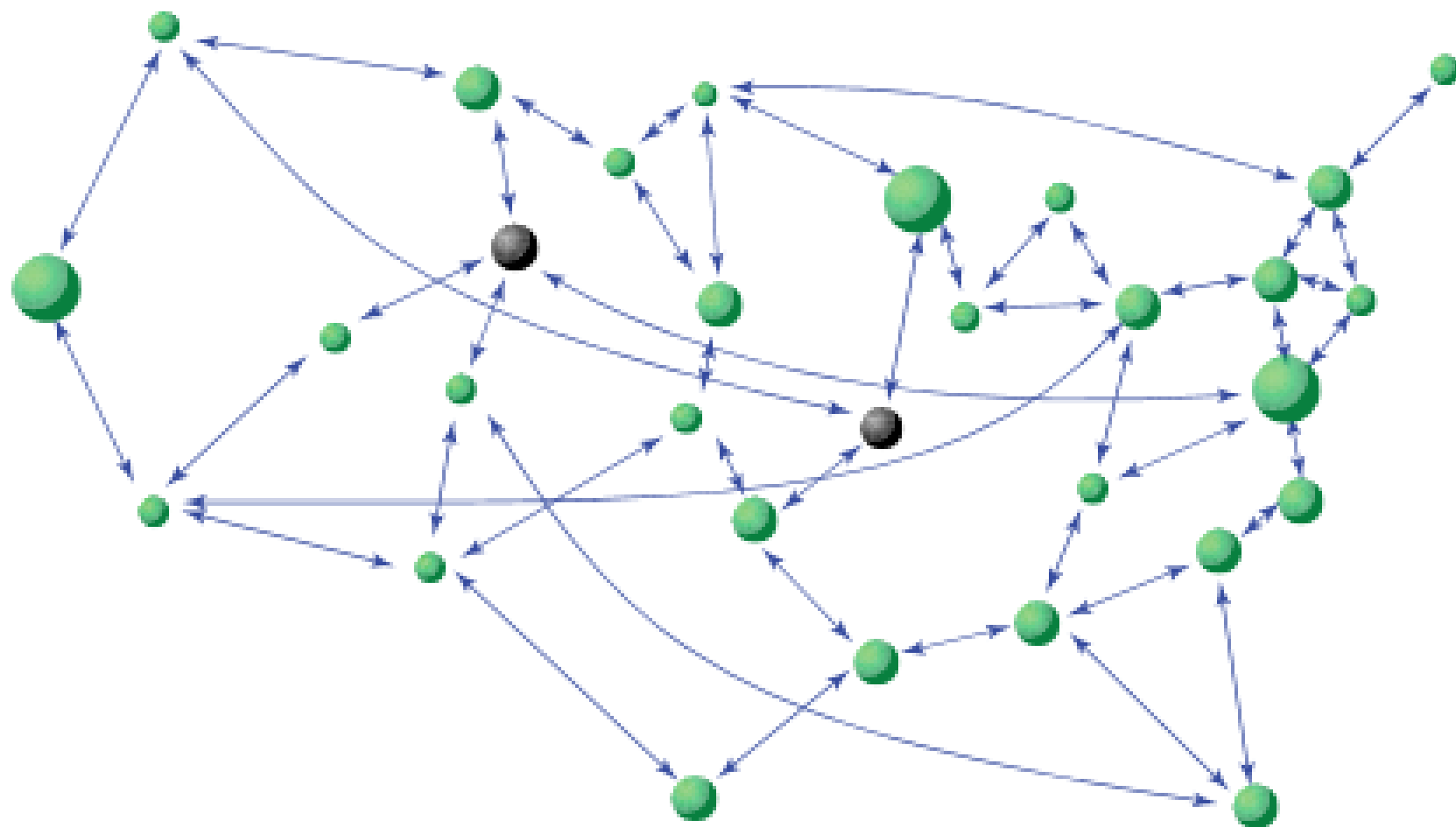
THE HIDDEN NODE PROBLEM

Consider a network whose topology is completely unknown but whose nodes consist of two types: one accessible and another inaccessible from the outside world.

The accessible nodes can be observed or monitored, and we assume that a data set is available from each node in this group.

The inaccessible nodes are shielded from the outside and they are essentially “hidden.”

The question is: can we infer, based solely on the available data set from the accessible nodes, the existence and locations of the hidden nodes?



**White mica signal from
each hole**

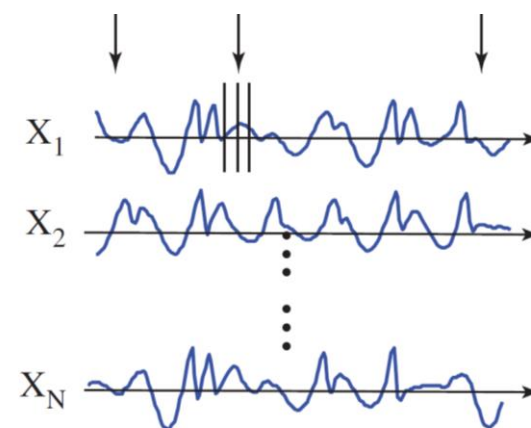


Figure 1. A schematic illustration of a complex geospatial network. The connection topology, the positions of the nodes in the physical space and nodal dynamical equations are unknown *a priori*, but only time series from the nodes can be collected at a single node in the network (e.g. a data-collecting centre). The challenges are to reconstruct the dynamical network, to locate the precise position of each node and to detect hidden nodes, all based solely on time series with inhomogeneous time delays. The green circles denote 'normal' nodes and the dark circles indicate hidden nodes.

After Su et al., R. Soc. Open Science. 3, 150577

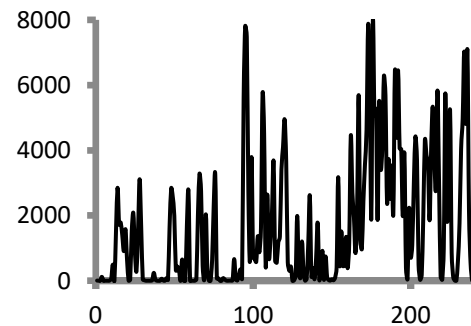
The network of interacting ore bodies can be represented by

$$X = G \cdot a_i + \xi,$$

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} \dot{x}_1(t_1) \\ \dot{x}_1(t_2) \\ \vdots \\ \dot{x}_1(t_{10}) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A_1(t_1) & B_1(t_1) & C_1(t_1) \\ A_1(t_2) & B_1(t_2) & C_1(t_2) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ A_1(t_{10}) & B_1(t_{10}) & C_1(t_{10}) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \bar{a}_i \\ b_i \\ c_i \end{pmatrix} + \xi,$$

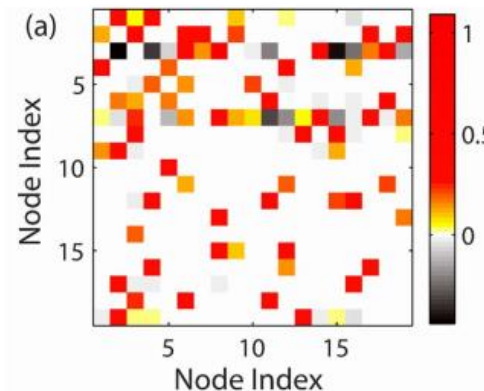
Noise

Gradient of signal from each ore body



Sericite signal

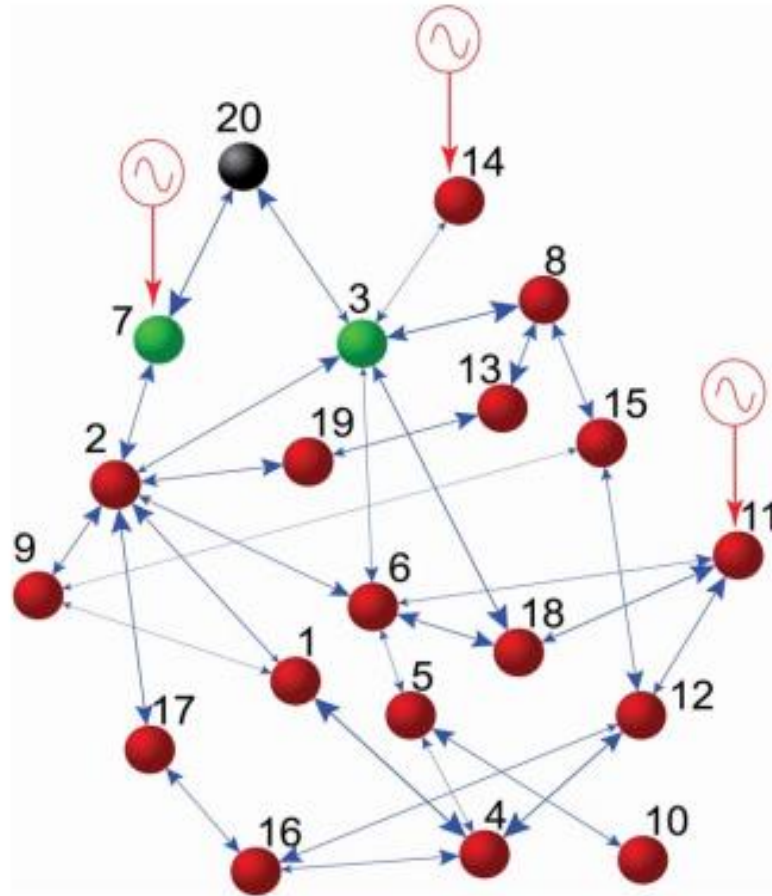
Calculated adjacency matrix



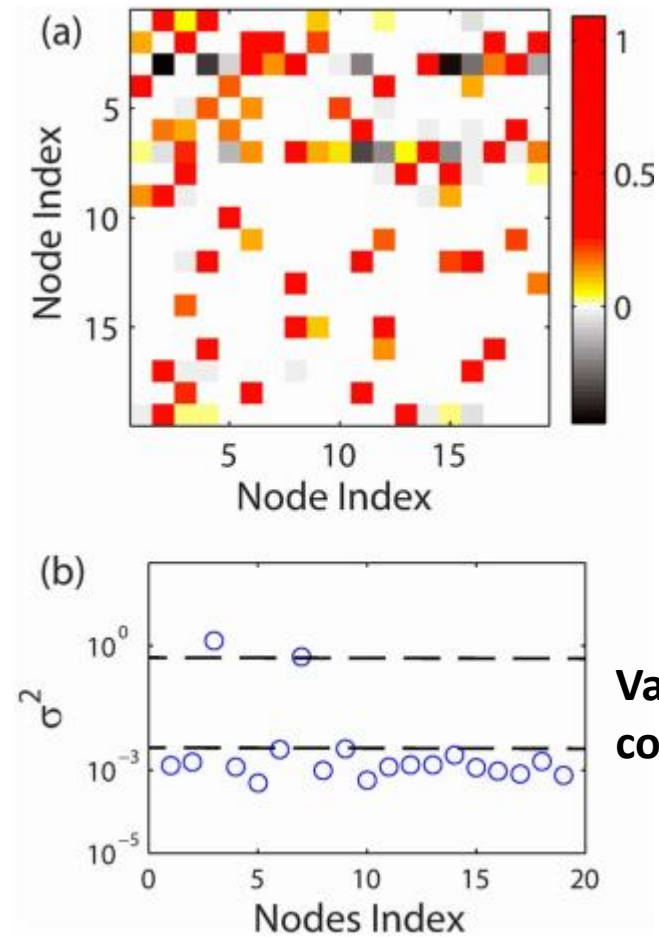
Calculated coefficients

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.667 \\ 1.332 \\ 0.031 \end{bmatrix}$$

Hidden ore body #20



Calculated adjacency matrix

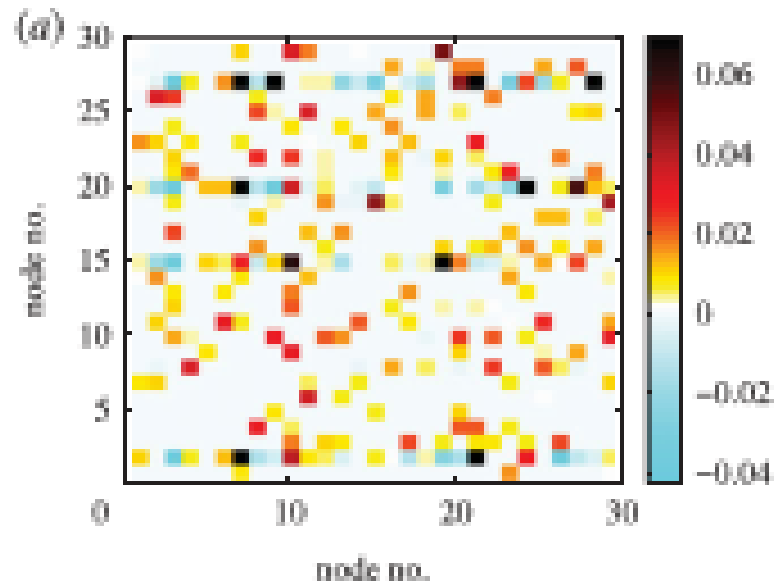


Nodes 3 and 7 are abnormal

Variance is σ^2

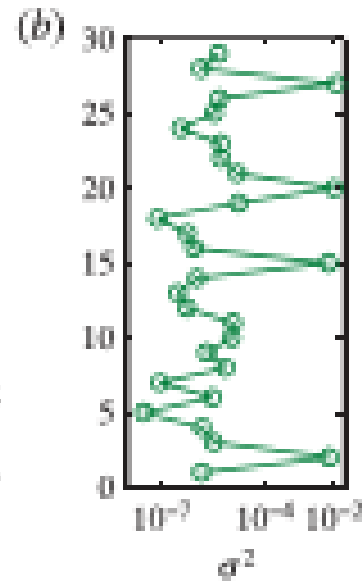
Detection of position of hidden ore body by triangulation

Calculated adjacency matrix

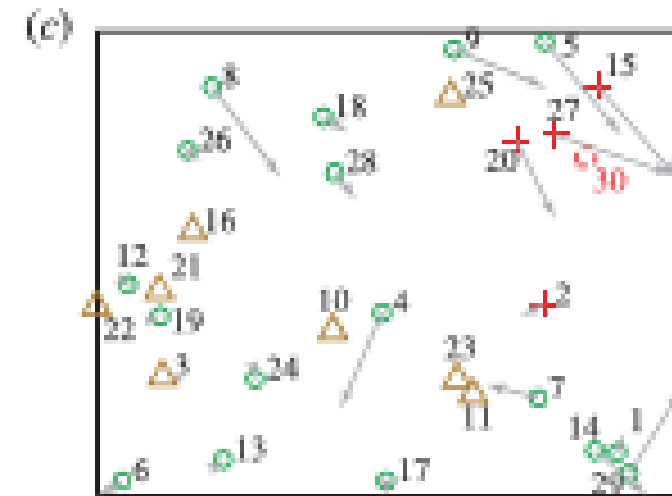


Anomalous ore body
signals from #2, 20, 27, 15

Variance in coefficients



Calculated network



Hidden ore body : #30
located by triangulation

This presentation has illustrated some aspects of mineralising systems that arise because they are composed of:

- **Open flow chemical reactors that may be coupled over many 10's of kilometres**
- **With coupled mineral reactions some exothermic, some endothermic.**
- **Deformation (including vein formation and brecciation) is also exothermic.**
- **Fluid pressure and chemical reaction rates depend on temperature.**
- **Exothermic and endothermic processes compete.**

Such behaviour is typical of nonlinear dynamical systems

There is much to learn from the regional distribution of mineralisation.

The subject is barely touched.

Much could be learnt by treating the distribution of mineralisation as a network.

However a considerable amount of data are required for the hidden node problem.

Not only is a lack of data a problem, cooperation between many companies is required.

Hidden node exploration is probably only applicable at present if one wants to explore close to existing mineralisation.

Thank you





Inverse Gaussian distribution

