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Insights on Geoscience Outreach: What will and won't work

Changes and challenges for your Journal

Lithoprobe's legacy yields stacks of exploration data

Unprofessional Geologists - How do the Orders keep order

Developing clear signals to keep professionals on the right track

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Cover Image: Deep-seismic reflection surveys completed under the LITHOPROBE program used trains of massive trucks affectionately referred to as 'dancing elephants'. The results also provide many new inferences about ore deposits, with promise for future exploration application. For details, see the Medallist Paper by Ron Clowes in this issue. Original photo by Phil Hammer; featured in *Four Billion Years and Counting*.

PRESIDENTIAL ADDRESS

Sharing Our Vital Science: Observations of a Public Geologist*

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*The following piece endeavours to capture the content of the Presidential Address presented at the Kingston GAC–MAC in May, 2017. The accompanying images are selected from the many slides with which the lecture was illustrated.

INTRODUCTION

What is a presidential address? From those I have attended in the past, addresses seem to fall into two general categories: an address is either a description of the president's science and its significance and implications, or it presents wisdom and experience on some topic of broader import, such as the need to volunteer, or the importance of geology in the modern world. While I find my own science supremely fascinating, I suspected that more than a few of you might not want to hear a 50-minute exposition on fossil jellyfish; I have thus chosen the second approach.

My research is very much at one end of the spectrum of Canadian geoscience – or perhaps beyond the end of the spectrum, to the extent that I thought about calling this talk 'Observations of a Resident Alien.' I actually trained initially as a biologist – an ecologist/systematist – and my research career has been spent examining extinct marine invertebrates, with a focus that has migrated from corals to trilobites to stromatoporoid sponges to weird arthropods and jellyfish. I love to talk about all of these, but the fact is that over the past two decades I have spent a considerable amount of time sharing science with the public and the media, as much as developing my own science.

As an employee of a provincial museum, I have participated in a broad range of outreach experiences. There are times when I discuss my own science with the public and with media, but I also develop exhibits on a variety of geological topics, give lectures, run workshops, lead fieldtrips, write blogs, promote exhibits that come to us from outside, and answer many inquiries from the public. This is driven by a need to reach an audience, educate, and attract visitors to the Museum, not by a particular industry sector or political interest. Over the years, I have responded to many public inquiries and dozens of media interviews.

So this presentation is really a summary of things I have learned about engaging the public and media in scientific conversation, suggesting some approaches that seem to often work, and discussing other approaches that definitely do not. The public and media are very different creatures, and one must handle them differently. Members of the public can just walk through the door, so one is often not prepared to talk to them, but they are also frequently open and interested. Conversations with the media usually occur as part of an event or campaign, such as the result of a press release; since this is 'work' for members of the press, their expectations may be quite different.

In preparing this lecture, I appreciated that many members of the audience perform outreach in one form or another, and I anticipate that most people reading this article will also be engaged in outreach. I suspect that much of the material presented below will come across as 'motherhood,' but I hope that the text will include at least one idea or observation that is useful to you.

WHAT IS OUTREACH?

Outreach is a broad and general term: it really does mean reaching out to and engaging community or communities. Outreach includes media interviews, active public communication in the form of social media, articles, or exhibits, and formal venues such as EdGEO, Mining Matters, geoparks, and interpretive lectures. But outreach also encompasses informal talks with friends or family, or perhaps writing an article for the internal newsletter of your company or organization. In some sense we all do outreach, whether or not we think of it as such.

Why should it be important that we reach the public? Isn't it enough that we publish professional science for the consumption of our peers, teach our university students, or prepare reports for the benefit of our industry? In simplest terms, many people have a desire to learn, and many with knowledge have a desire to share, but there is much more to it than that. Outreach has often been aimed at teachers and school students; this follows from basic human curiosity about the Earth, but also from the curriculum's foci on environment and economic resources, and from the need of students to be informed as they decide on future careers. In the modern world, though, outreach goes far beyond teaching the teachers what to teach their students.

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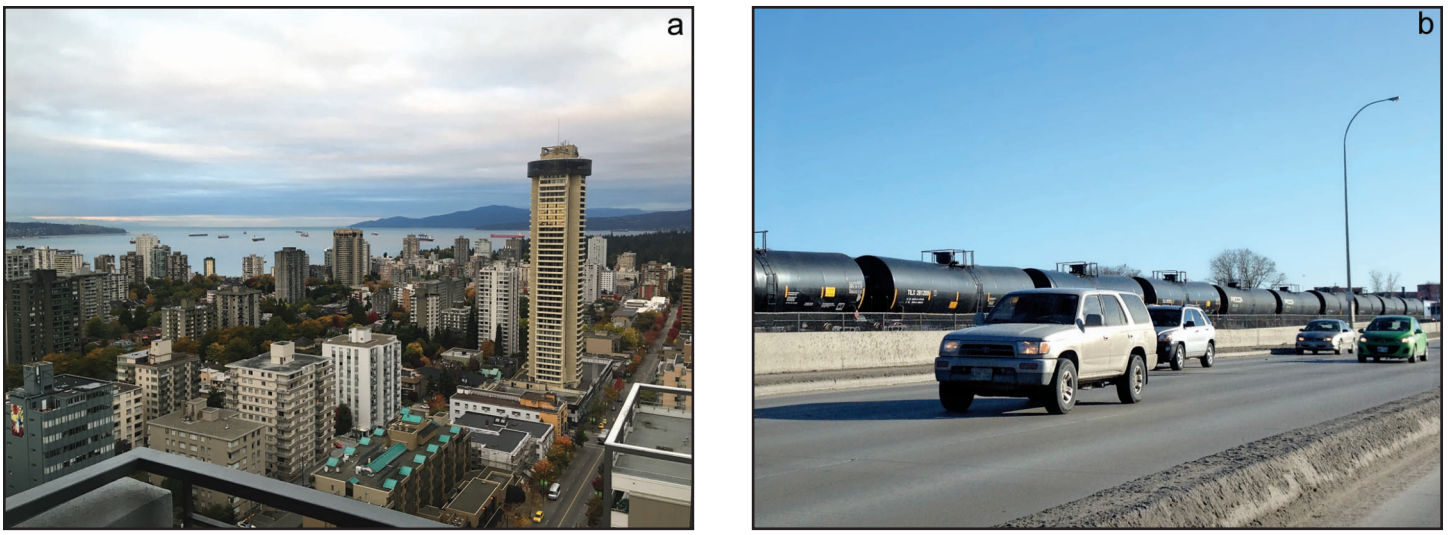

Figure 1. Geological knowledge is critical to many societal decisions. (a) Vancouver's West End and Burrard Inlet: in a city such as this, geology should be considered when planners are determining height and materials for new buildings, or where ships should anchor when they are waiting to dock. (b) Road traffic and a petroleum train near downtown Winnipeg: if we are going to move highly flammable materials across the country, geology is one of the many factors that need to be examined when deciding whether they should be moved by pipeline or by rail.

As geologists it is critical that we should talk to the public in general, because there is so much 'noise' out there in the media world, so much misinformation and ignorance with respect to geology, science, and the Earth. In a democratic society, every engaged citizen is a decision maker, and the sharing of solid science encourages informed decision-making at all levels: individual, policy, political, and corporate. Misrepresentation of the facts can result in bad decision-making, and the wisest environmental or economic decision is not always the obvious one; it could be said that scientific illiteracy bites back. If we share sound science with the public, this will pay dividends when they consider whether to build a house on a floodplain, make personal decisions about the use of energy or materials, or perhaps make voting choices in an election (Fig. 1).

If we are to avoid contributing to the bias problem ourselves, we must recognize that we are also driven by a variety of factors. We are all interested in serving the public and sharing scientific information, but we need to appreciate that our own perspective might be affected by possible financial gain (for ourselves or our employers), maybe by improved visibility and funding of our branch of science, and perhaps even by our political opinions – we need to recognize that we are humans and that our motivations are also mixed and complex.

WHY IS COMMUNICATION DIFFICULT FOR GEOLOGISTS?

As trained scientists we tend to think that good science will be obvious to any observer, since it is usually obvious to us. In thinking this, though, we ignore the extent to which geologists' thought processes are not the same as those of most other people. This significant difference is, in part, related to the sorts of people who are attracted to geology in the first place, but it is also an outcome of our training. Our brains have developed in an unusual way, and the four-dimensional thinking and geological principles that are second nature to us are very foreign to most people. As we travel around the world, geologists do not just see the modern state of each place. Rather, we see how the world has changed to arrive at that modern state. We constantly and subconsciously apply our knowledge of geological time, the law of superposition, original horizontality, plate tectonics, the rock cycle, and all those other facts and concepts that are so deeply embedded in our brains. This is not normal (Fig. 2).

Figure 2. Geologists are different: Nancy Chow, Brian Pratt, and Derek Armstrong discuss and photograph a fossil sample during a field trip to an Ordovician site along the Churchill River, Hudson Bay Lowlands, Manitoba (August, 2015).

Out in the world there is a considerable amount of 'junk science' being promoted by non-scientists, but many of those people are very effective at communicating their messages in words and concepts that the average person can understand. It

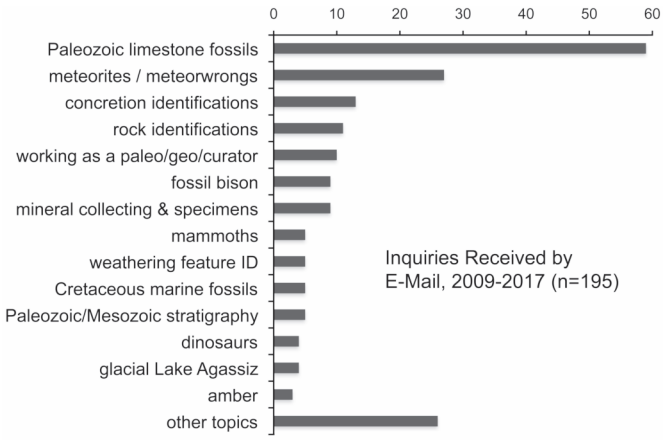

Figure 3. Topics of inquiries received by e-mail for Geology and Paleontology at the Manitoba Museum, 2009–2015 (note: this doesn't include the many other inquiries received by telephone, or walk-in inquiries).

is thus incumbent on us as geologists to learn to better share our knowledge with the public. We need to know how to think on our feet, and to convert complex ideas into simple language. Many of us are *very* focused on our own subdisciplines, and the sort of terminology that we throw around in the lab or field on a day-to-day basis will seem weird and incomprehensible to those outside our science. You will turn most people off immediately if you talk about "a tholeiitic basalt formed by partial melt of peridotite, composed largely of clinopyroxene and plagioclase with minor orthopyroxene," but you may well engage them if you describe "these really important volcanic rocks that are being formed as plates move apart along a mid-ocean ridge."

For the public to become interested in recognizing the importance of our science, we need to consider how *they* think, rather than trying to get them to understand how we do! Context is important and stories are essential because a good story will make the material memorable. Consider what touchstones might link your geological content to the world your audience inhabits: I am still struck by how effective it was, when teaching about dry lakes, to tell my university classes about how the Bonneville Salt Flats were used as the venue for setting vehicle land speed records. Somehow, this minor piece of human history gave them a 'hook' on which they could hang the associated (relatively dry) geological facts.

WHAT ASPECTS OF GEOSCIENCE WILL REACH THE PUBLIC?

When we consider engaging the public in any form of conversation, we need to examine curiosity: what do people find inherently interesting? Curiosity is a basic human trait, and people often want to know about something just 'because it is interesting.' In some cases, it is clear that things that make them curious are things that affect them personally. Where are we going? Will the world change? Will I be employed? Will my children be OK?

Beyond immediate personal interest, there are several other aspects of our science that readily engage the public's attention:

1. *Superlatives* —Many of us immediately think of superlatives as attracting public attention – what we could call the 'Guinness World Records approach.' This is the realm of the very big, very scary, very fast, or very weird. I have heard many geologists say (or grumble) that we need to use dinosaurs to sell our science, and of course the media seem to home in on dangerous geological stories that feature earthquakes, landslides, or volcanoes. Although superlatives grab media attention, they are only a modest portion of what interests the public, as indicated by the topics of inquiries I have received at the museum (Fig. 3).
2. *Local and Concrete Stories* —People are certainly concerned about phenomena that could affect them and their families, but they may also be very interested in things they see or find, even if those things might never affect them in a positive or negative sense. If a person goes out and finds something unusual or shiny, then they will want to know what it is (Fig. 4a).

   Curiosity, like politics, is local, and local geological topics can have great resonance – in Winnipeg, where I work, it is very worthwhile to talk about Tyndall Stone (locally quarried limestone; Fig. 4c, d), about fossils found along Lake Winnipeg, and about glacial Lake Agassiz (which is the cause of our locally horizontal landscape). In any region it is always worth considering these sorts of obvious local touchstones. The geology of well-known buildings is one such touchstone, as demonstrated by the success of the Geology of the Parliament Buildings series in *Geoscience Canada* (Fig. 4b; Brisbin et al. 2005), and of building stone tours of downtown areas.
3. *Fieldwork* —In reaching out to the public, we should never overlook the extent to which most people are interested in the activities of other people. In comparison with some of the other sciences, geology holds something of a trump card in this respect, because we remain a field-based science. We know that fieldwork is often tough, demanding, dirty, and exhausting, but to many outsiders field research is sexy. Fieldwork is real people doing real things, sometimes very strange things in remote or exotic places where they might confront real danger (in Canada, this almost always means bears!). We should make use of this where possible; it is much easier to understand someone riding in a helicopter and hammering rock samples from an outcrop, than it is to make sense of what that person is doing as they prepare samples in a stable isotope lab (Fig. 5).
4. *Left-Field Questions* —People like to be challenged and have their minds boggled, as long as the mind-boggling is not so jarring that it overwhelms them. In talking to the public in Manitoba, I often find that our region's Paleozoic stratigraphy provides a great avenue for engagement. 'Layer cake stratigraphy' is relatively easy for non-geologists to understand, and they can be readily led to a basic understanding of original horizontality, superposition, sediment deposition, and biostratigraphy (Fig. 6).

   Once they grasp these ideas, then they are often shocked when it is pointed out to them that the rocks demonstrate not only that the sea covered much of Mani-

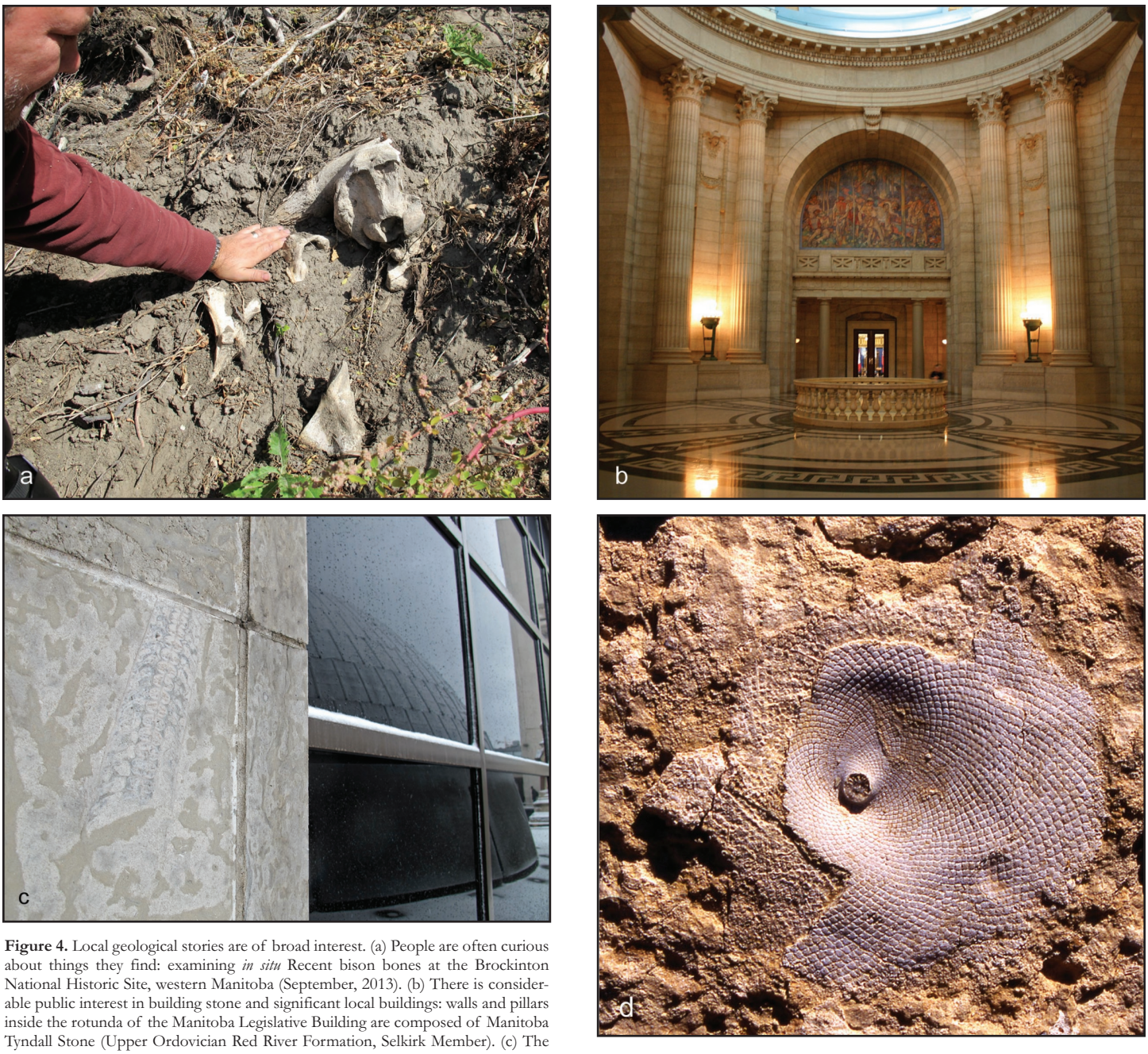

Figure 4. Local geological stories are of broad interest. (a) People are often curious about things they find: examining *in situ* Recent bison bones at the Brockinton National Historic Site, western Manitoba (September, 2013). (b) There is considerable public interest in building stone and significant local buildings: walls and pillars inside the rotunda of the Manitoba Legislative Building are composed of Manitoba Tyndall Stone (Upper Ordovician Red River Formation, Selkirk Member). (c) The exteriors of many Winnipeg buildings are clad in Tyndall Stone, making them a fantastic resource for public engagement: this photo shows a sectioned Ordovician nautiloid cephalopod on the exterior of the Manitoba Museum, with the Planetarium's dome reflected in the adjacent window. (d) The most common large Tyndall Stone fossils are the problematic receptaculitids (genus *Fisherites*), such as this example on a rough surface.

toba in the past, but that it did so repeatedly, rising and falling through many millions of years. Additionally, this was a tropical sea and the fossils and rocks provide good evidence that the town of Churchill was close to the equator 450 million years ago, while Winnipeg was in the Southern Hemisphere. Then of course, the question arises: "How could Churchill have moved so far since then?" Which leads us in a straight line to a discussion of plate tectonics; I will point out that plate motion and speed can be observed in the modern world, and that a plate moving even at that very slow pace can cover an immense distance if sufficient geological time is allowed for.

Thus, once a few appropriate questions are asked, an observation of local layer cake stratigraphy can take us quite readily to global sea level change, plate tectonics, the scale of geological time, and paleogeography. The minds of the participants are boggled, but never to the extent that they are entirely 'under water.'

Figure 5. Geological fieldwork, particularly in remote places, is of interest to many people. Here, a GEM-2 field party walks near the estuary of the Churchill River in the Hudson Bay Lowlands, northern Manitoba (August, 2015).

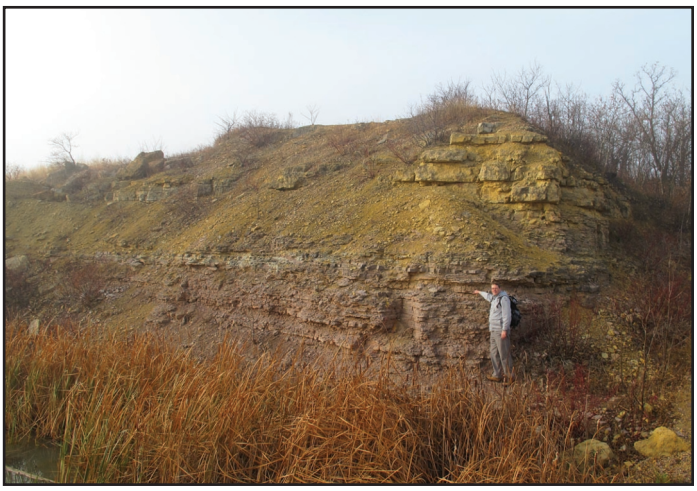

Figure 6. 'Layer cake stratigraphy' is readily understood by non-geologists, providing an avenue to discussion of other topics. Here, Robert Elias demonstrates a contact in the Upper Ordovician Stony Mountain Formation at Stony Mountain, Manitoba (October, 2012).

TALKING TO THE PUBLIC: COMPLICATIONS

Following from the above suggestions, there are numerous potential complications – pitfalls into which the geologist might readily drop as she or he shares science with the public. The first of these stems from the idea that it is essential to use the really popular aspects of geology, such as dinosaurs and volcanoes, to sell the rest of the science. In my opinion, this only works for those subdisciplines in which the relationship is sufficiently close that it will be obvious to the non-geologist.

People do like dinosaurs, and an interest in dinosaurs could well encourage an interest in asteroids, or crocodiles, or the iridium anomaly, or perhaps fluvial sedimentology. But if you make a presentation that contains a considerable amount of dinosaur content, you should not anticipate that your audience will follow you if you suddenly switch topics to massive sulfides or petroleum geochemistry. Any leaps you make should be small and obvious.

If we can't simply jump from 'exciting' things to those things we consider important or essential, we also can't push the important content at people who are not receptive to it. We cannot force people to be interested in a 'worthy but dull' topic, even if the material discussed might intimately affect their lives. In this sort of category, I would include exhibits or web pages that show things like "here is what goes into your cellphone." People, particularly young people, do spend a lot of time looking at their phones, but that doesn't mean that they will be interested in what the device is actually made of. For this topic, and for many others, you really have to find the 'levers;' don't ever force feed facts to your audience. They might well become more interested if you tell them that the metals in a cellphone could become scarce due to the control of the supply by other countries, particularly if they are told that such a scarcity could make it expensive for them to upgrade. The possible levers for many topics may require considerable contemplation on the part of the presenter.

Outreach, whether spoken or written, needs to be approached as a conversation rather than a lecture. The presenter should be open to ideas, to discuss with the audience, to ask them questions, and to encourage them as they themselves develop ideas. To many of us who are used to arguing science with other scientists, this warmer and friendlier approach can itself be a challenge! Humour is often effective, as long as it is relevant to the material being presented.

If we are talking to the public, we also need to take the time to establish context and perhaps to establish the 'rules of engagement.' Most people find a lot of science interesting, but they really don't like it if you push and challenge their beliefs, or challenge outright what they think they know. Evidence of geological time in local landscape features may be useful to point an audience toward an appreciation of the immense age of the Earth, and thus an acceptance that evolution has occurred. Evolution itself is a rather abstract concept and in most cases you really can't see it for yourself, but you can see strata in a roadcut or cliff, and drawing on simple geological principles may lead people inexorably toward scientific conclusions. Nevertheless, if you are discussing topics that touch on religious belief, in spite of your best efforts you may need to agree to disagree with some members of your audience.

It is always good to try to assess your material from the outside. Begin with simple concepts and concrete facts, leading to more complex ideas, avoid jargon if at all possible (and define any word that might not be understood), and try to introduce or discuss just one major idea in each part of a presentation or exhibit. Always consider what approaches could make the material relevant to them, otherwise you might meet the response of "Why should I care?"

One final consideration, when dealing with the public, is to always remember that the public we deal with will be a cross-section of society, good and bad. In my 24 years of handling public inquiries I have met thousands of very nice people, but also a few rather strange people, and one or two quite scary individuals (one of whom was later arrested as a serial murderer). If you are talking to previously unknown people, particularly in one-on-one situations, please always practice safe out-

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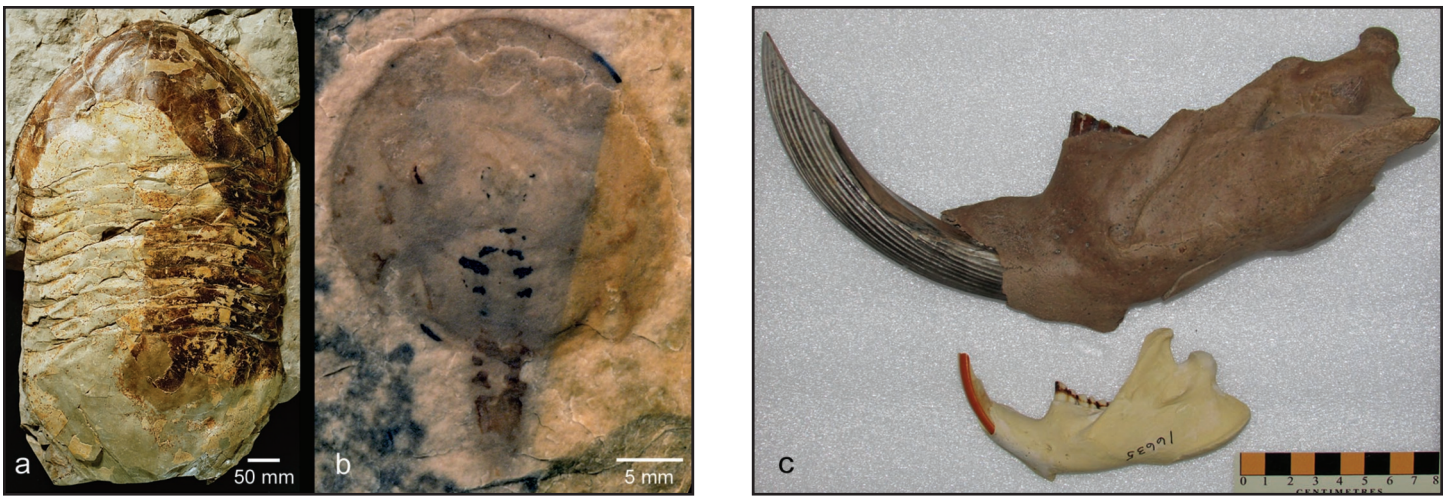

Figure 7. The media are attracted by superlatives; over the years, these three discoveries have provided far more media exposure than any other work colleagues and I have done. (a) *Isotelus rex*, the world's largest trilobite, from Ordovician strata near Churchill, Manitoba (Manitoba Museum, MM I-2950; Rudkin et al. 2003). (b) *Lunataspis aurora*, which at the time of publication was the world's oldest horseshoe crab (xiphosurid), also from Ordovician strata in the Churchill area (MM I-4000A; Rudkin et al. 2008; see also Young et al. 2012)). (c) This huge jaw of the giant Pleistocene beaver *Castoroides,* (MM V-3175) discovered in 2017, is the only element of that unusual creature known from the prairie provinces; here it is compared to the jaw of a modern beaver.

reach: meet them in a public and safe place, and consider a 'blind inquiry' the same way that many people consider a blind date.

TALKING TO THE MEDIA: EFFECTIVE APPROACHES

There is a considerable amount of overlap between talking to the public and doing a media interview. Nevertheless, talking to the media requires special, additional skills and approaches.

When dealing with the media, one must endeavour to be as succinct and clear as possible. Unlike the public, the media tend to be on a tight schedule, and you may not have time to explain or to say anything more than once. You can lose them quickly if you string together too many thoughts, so if possible don't try to deal with more than one idea at a time, and try to limit an interview to just a few big ideas or themes. This obviously depends on the format of the interview: you can cover one idea (or less!) in a 60-second live clip, but quite a few ideas if you have the luxury of 30 minutes in a studio.

As with the public, you need to ensure that you are warm and conversational, and speaking at an appropriate level, particularly when dealing with broadcast media. Gauge your medium and your interviewer: local breakfast television is entirely different from *Quirks and Quarks*! Since the media are often on tight schedules, they like to have the material packaged for them, and they often expect to receive 'push' content. It is good to have your talking points in mind before you begin the interview, and it is even better if you have already supplied a well-written press release along with images, or a blog post or video. In this regard, a good press officer is the best professional friend that a scientist can have.

Unlike most of the public, members of the media may or may not be curious about or interested in the science you wish to discuss. They have their own agendas, and they may be uninterested in or even, occasionally, hostile to your perspective. Always remember that the media like to deal in superlatives: the biggest, fastest, most dangerous, or oldest (Fig. 7). They also are interested in financial value and in relevance to humanity, so you may be required to think about your science in a quite different way.

If you are effective with the media, accessible, and explain things in ways that are readily understood, you may find yourself being considered as a 'source' on geological or even broader scientific issues. Once a member of the media finds someone they consider to be an accessible expert, they may go back to that person again and again for comment, even if the scientist's particular expertise is quite peripheral to what is being discussed. Most members of the media seem to have no idea how big and specialized modern science can be, so you may need to be wary of making pronouncements about things you don't really know. I speak from experience here, as I have cringed to see my 'expert opinion' quoted in certain news articles and books, when I should have simply said "No comment" or "I don't know."

EXHIBITS

If you are considering creating an exhibit about a particular topic, please first ask yourself this question: "Is an exhibit the best medium for this material?" A worthy topic isn't necessarily worthy of exhibit, and the medium is critical. Something that could make a fabulous web page or magazine article might be a very dull exhibit.

Once a general medium is chosen, you should ask yourself more specialized versions of the same question. Is this a specimen-rich exhibit or a touchable piece? Will it only work if accompanied by a video, computer, or other multimedia component? Let the material guide you, and stay open to changing course until some distance into the exhibit planning process.

As a long-time museum curator, I have observed that many inexperienced people think they know how to create exhibits. This is certainly the case for some academics, who tend to have strong opinions about museums and exhibits, but an exhibit is a specialized medium, and it requires thinking that is very dif-

ferent from that needed for a scientific paper. Exhibit text needs to be brief, and if at all possible it should only exist in relation to other exhibit components, such as images, specimens, models, or video. An exhibit that consists solely of panels should be avoided at all costs; museum staff tend to refer to these as "textbooks on legs." Rather, each section of an exhibit should include a specific attraction: a physical object or set of objects, a video, a touchable item, or a digital interactive.

In general, exhibits should focus on real specimens or other objects, at the expense of other exhibit components if necessary. In the modern world, people will come to your museum to see real things in person; they can see anything that is not real (such as an image or computerized content) at home, on their phone or computer. Computer technology can be very useful to tell particular stories, particularly those showing dynamic processes (Fig. 8a), but unless you have virtually limitless resources it is wise to avoid focusing most of your exhibits on digital features. The computers you pay a fortune for will be out of date in a year or two, and will never keep up with the technology that visitors have in their own pockets. Nevertheless, there is certain technology that can greatly enhance the impact of an exhibit: modern lighting and case design approaches have revolutionized the appearance of many exhibits over the past decade or so (Fig. 8).

Figure 8. Some examples of the geological exhibits developed in the past few years at the Manitoba Museum. (a) The *Ancient Seas* exhibit uses a large three-screen animated projection to depict Ordovician marine life in the Churchill area; the fossils on which it is based are shown in adjacent cases (installed 2010). (b, d) A case of minerals from the Canadian Shield utilizes fibre optic lighting and low-iron glass to show mineral colours to best advantage; the minerals float on sheets of specially-treated acrylic atop black metal plinths (installed 2012). (c, e, f) Recently installed vertebrate fossil exhibits include (c) the original fossil of a Cretaceous pliosaur, which is panel-mounted as though exposed in bedrock, and lit from above with a gated LED fixture; (e) a resin reconstruction of the same pliosaur, suspended from the ceiling and lit with theatrical LEDs; and (f) a complete remounting of the *Megatherium* and glyptodont, which have been on exhibit at the Museum since the 1970s, but are now on a stained hardwood plinth and lit with theatrical LEDs; the style of this exhibit is in reference to the fact that these are historic 19th century replicas (installed 2016).

Following on from these thoughts about technology, it is worth your while to think of any exhibit component in terms of 'time proofing.' If you are depicting dynamic and changing science, ensure that labels or panel copy can be readily updated at modest cost. Can new photographs or diagrams be inserted as they become available? Choose classic or timeless colours and fonts, rather than going with the 'flavour of the moment.' Many exhibits last for at least a decade or two, and you don't want your exhibit to be the visual equivalent of a kitchen that has its age betrayed by 1970s harvest gold or avocado-coloured appliances.

As is the case for dealing with the media, an exhibit should be approached with the intent of presenting big ideas in simple

ways. Reduce your text to the simplest words that still get the ideas across clearly, and ensure that your schedule permits ample time for revision and editing. Consider the general principles that apply to all outreach: make your material familiar, make it local, or make it big, weird, gorgeous, or dangerous!

BLOGS

As with exhibits, blogging requires its own special approach. While I have little wisdom to contribute with respect to most social media – such as Twitter and Instagram – I have done a lot of blog writing over the years, and have developed strong opinions on what does or doesn't work. Some of this has been for work, as the museum has experimented with various blogging platforms and approaches, but I have also maintained a personal scientific/nature/landscape blog sporadically since 2009 (www.ancientshore.com). During the development of this varied experience, I have produced at least 200 blog posts, and have accumulated a huge volume of data on what has or hasn't been effective (based on about 300,000 views on the personal blog).

There are relatively few long-term Earth Science bloggers in Canada, and many of the long-standing blog pages seem to be institutional in nature. Even when it is being done for an institution or organization, blogging is a personal medium, and to reach a wide audience you need to be accessible and conversational, as well as scientific. When writing a blog post on a particular topic, develop your individual perspective or angle; it is rarely effective to approach a topic or issue head-on. Many members of your readership will be there simply because of personal interest, so it is important to entertain them while sharing information that has substance.

If you consider setting up a blog on a particular topic or theme, please be aware that blogging, like owning a pet, is a long-term commitment. It is worthwhile to define your purpose before starting a new blog; some sort of mission statement is not a bad idea. As a blog develops, it can change directions depending on the interests of the writer and the readers. With that in mind, it is worthwhile to keep track of data on what is read, and by whom. Considering my personal blog, there has been substantial readership on post topics including zoology, vertebrate paleontology, museum exhibits, marine biology, invertebrate paleontology, photography, regional geology, sedimentology/stratigraphy, and art. These reflect the reasons people visit that page, but they also demonstrate a genuine diversity on the part of the readership. Although a scientific blog should have a particular theme, a variety of material is more likely to attract a broad readership. You should think about readers in global terms: since the Internet is everywhere, your readers could be anywhere, not just in your city or region.

If you do consider starting to blog, it is worthwhile to study the medium before leaping in. Much of blogging success is not directly related to what you write; it is also essential to locate a blog to attract readers (don't bury it several layers down in an institutional or society website), and enhance access by encouraging readers to subscribe to your feed, link to and from other pages, encourage others to repost your material (with links), and encourage comments and discussion. The Internet is a visual medium, so a blog should have a strong and distinctive look, and photographs or other images are critical components of success.

Although content and substance are essential, this must somehow be transmitted with some brevity. At one point in our development of museum blogs, it was suggested by a marketing expert that we should do posts of about 300 words. While I have found that it is impossible to really say anything of substance in such a short piece, 700–1000 words may well be optimal for a readable post on a scientific subject, and it is unlikely that many readers will take the time to read a 2000-word piece in that format (note that quite a few of your readers will be squinting at the small screens of phones or tablets!). In addition to brevity, frequency is also essential. A blog post should not be seen as a 'one off;' rather, it needs to be a piece in an ongoing stream of content. Many scientific blogs are updated only sporadically, but real audience growth is likely to happen if you can manage to post every week or at least every two weeks, since it is easy to lose readers if their visits don't become a habit.

SOME FINAL THOUGHTS

Respect your audience, and always remember that communicating science to the public is like a conversation. We are the experts, but we also need to listen. We need to find simple ways to explain complex ideas and phenomena: storytelling is essential to most forms of outreach and metaphor and humour are your friends. Geologists think in a different way, but that is not a bad thing, and we can make use of that difference as we share our understanding of the world around us!

Over the years I have learned much from many geological colleagues and students, particularly in the field and laboratory, and also from members of the public with whom I have interacted. I am very grateful for the wisdom they have shared with me. I thank the Geological Association of Canada for providing the opportunity to serve as its president and to present this address.

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EDITORIAL

GEOSCIENCE CANADA – Changes and Challenges

My term as Scientific Editor at *Geoscience Canada* began a couple of years ago, and I had every intention to place an editorial in the first issue of each year. Such intentions fell by the wayside, but changes over the last year and challenges that lie ahead prompt me to do so for the final issue of 2017. The last two years have been truly interesting, and I hope that the contents of volumes 43 and 44 indicate that the results of our collective efforts have proved worthwhile. I have elected to remain as editor for at least another year, so I think it is clear that the journey has, on the whole, proved positive.

My first task is to give thanks to everyone who makes *Geoscience Canada* possible four times a year. The greatest debt is of course to the authors of our papers, as without them the journal would not exist. It is our ambition to be the first choice of Canadian geoscientists for publication of ideas and research, but we recognize that this may not always be the case. Nevertheless, we continue to work towards that goal. If it were left to me, the demanding work of assembling each issue would be our greatest challenge, but luckily that task remains in far more capable hands. Our managing editor, Cindy Murphy, does a remarkable job, and handles the critical task of communicating with authors as their work moves through the publication pipeline. That pipeline has many sharp bends and constrictions, all of which have to be cleared, and I also must acknowledge the efforts of volunteer copy editors, who have improved the clarity and readability of papers over the last two years. One of our longest-serving copy editors, Reg Wilson of the New Brunswick Department of Natural Resources, stepped down from this role with his retirement this year, and I would like to thank him for his tireless and patient efforts. Anyone who has undertaken copy-editing work will know that it can test patience and resolve, and Reg had plenty of both. At one time, he was also the editor of *Geoscience Canada*, which certainly affirms this conclusion. Many of the papers that form part of thematic series contributions are handled by series editors, who solicit the papers, coordinate reviews, and shepherd them through revision and finalization. They are also a vital asset to the journal, and some have been with us for many years. One of those is Roger Macqueen, formerly of the Geological Survey of Canada in Calgary, who for many years has fronted our "Geology and Wine" series; Roger was also at one time the editor of *Geoscience Canada*. Although he retired from GSC several years ago, Roger continued his work with us, and only elected to retire from this task in 2017. We wish Reg and Roger all the best in their retirement, and thank them for their many and varied contributions. Followers of "Geology and Wine" need not despair, for we will continue the series, and anticipate a new paper on the terroir of Brazil in early 2018.

These are just a few of the many changes over the last two years. In 2015, *Geoscience Canada* became a hybrid open-access journal, and now, as a part of the *Erudit* consortium, we are further reducing the time period for which articles are available only by subscription to a mere 12 months. This is part of a wider policy shift on the part of *Erudit*; it remains to be seen what other challenges this transition might provide, but there is no doubt that making good geoscience freely available remains a key goal for us, and for GAC as a whole. We also developed a standalone website at *www.geosciencecanada.ca* that provides information about the journal and information for authors, and acts as a shell around the main journal management site hosted at the University of New Brunswick. As editor, I would be the first to admit that the new website still needs some work, and could in places be a much slicker operation, but this is one thing we can add to the 'challenge list' for 2018. Looking back at the papers from the last two years, they encompass a wide variety of topics, and fit with our general goal of diversifying across the broad spectrum of geoscience. As with everything else, there remains some distance yet to travel along this road. In addition to review papers and science contributions, *Geoscience Canada* also promotes geoscience outreach, and also provides a forum for discussion of issues in Canadian geoscience. Graham Young's thoughtful and entertaining presidential address (in this issue) provides valuable perspectives on outreach, based on many years of practical experience. This issue – and some issues to come in 2018 – will contain a series of articles connected to Professional Geoscience Registration issues in Canada and elsewhere. Although GAC itself is not in the business of professional licensure, it increasingly affects many of our members, and opinions on the subject are very diverse within our community. The subject is intrinsically a matter of perspective and policy rather than one of science alone, and we welcome the thoughts and contributions of readers who may wish to discuss ideas and opinions in these articles.

We are not lacking for challenges in the year to come, and my word limit simply will not allow all to be addressed. At the top of the list, and forever in our minds, is the task of attracting new paper submissions. Soliciting contributions, and then

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encouraging their completion once actually solicited, is one of my main tasks as editor. It is a bit like fishing – you need to know where to cast a line, and once you get a bite, you will often have a catch that tries desperately to wriggle off the hook. And not every catch makes it successfully into the editor's basket. Above all else, we are in need of quality submissions from committed authors. Once a paper makes it through peer review, we will do everything possible to move it along swiftly and smoothly, but we have to have the paper in the first place! So, if you have a topic in mind, please keep *us in mind* - we are always open and eager for your business. Another challenge that we will face in 2018 is to review our 'thematic series' concepts, in order to focus on those that are most active, and to identify and initiate new concepts that we hope will attract future contributions. This will inevitably mean that some inactive thematic series may draw to a close, but papers related to those topics will still be welcome as general submission articles for our pages. We are also keen to hear ideas from readers about new thematic series concepts, and always keen to add new section editors to our roster as these ideas evolve.

In conclusion, *Geoscience Canada* is an important part of the Geological Association of Canada, and publishing technical information connected to geoscience is a key mandate for all of us. We could play an even larger role for GAC but, as always, we are constrained by limited resources and the fact that much of this effort is necessarily conducted by busy volunteers. Despite these challenges, we look forward to another year of increasingly diverse and hopefully more numerous articles in our pages, and continue to count on the interest and assistance of our readership in reaching these goals. We need volunteers to be copy-editors, and new ideas from new series editors, and we always will need new readers and subscribers. Please publicize the journal to colleagues within and outside GAC, use the contents of the journal in research, outreach, and also as an educational resource for students. And, above all, consider contributing to the journal by writing us a paper, or encouraging someone else to write one!

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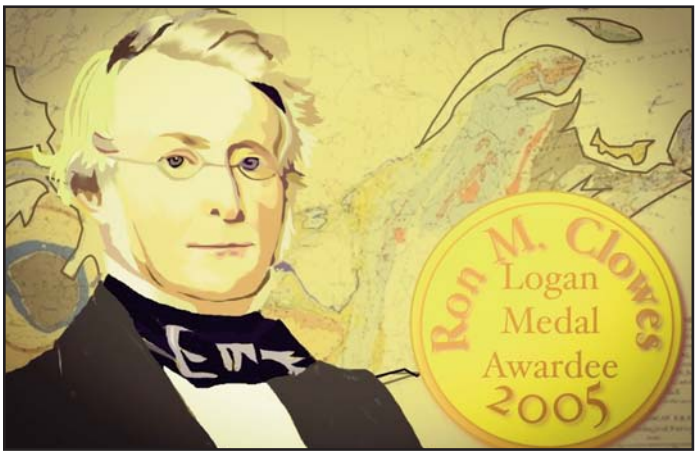

Logan Medallist 5. Geophysics and Geology: An Essential Combination Illustrated by *LITHOPROBE* Interpretations–Part 2, Exploration Examples

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SUMMARY

Lithoprobe (1984–2005), Canada's national, collaborative, multidisciplinary, Earth Science research project, investigated the structure and evolution of the Canadian landmass and its margins. It was a highly successful project that redefined the nature of Earth science research in Canada. One of many contributions deriving from the project was the demonstration by example that Earth scientists from geophysics and geology, including all applicable sub-disciplines within these general study areas, must work together to achieve thorough and comprehensive interpretations of all available data sets. In Part 1, this statement was exemplified through studies involving lithospheric structures. In Part 2, it is exemplified by summarizing interpretations from six exploration-related studies derived from journal publications.

In the first example, subsurface structures associated with the Guichon Creek batholith in south-central British Columbia, which hosts porphyry copper and molybdenum deposits, are better defined and related to different geological phases of the batholith. Reprocessed seismic reflection data and 2.5-D and 3-D inversions of magnetic and gravity data are combined with detailed geological mapping and drillhole information to generate the revised and improved subsurface interpretation. Research around the Bell Allard volcanogenic massive sulphide deposit in the Matagami region of northern Quebec provides the second example. A seismic reflection line over the deposit shortly after it was discovered by drilling, aided by core and geophysical logs, was acquired to test whether the deposit could be imaged. Direct detection of the ore body from the seismic section would be difficult if its location were not already known; however, structural characteristics that can be tied to lithologies from boreholes and logs were well identified. Nickel deposits and associated structures in the Thompson belt at the western limit of the Superior Province in northern Manitoba were the focus of seismic and electromagnetic (EM) studies combined with geology and physical property measurements. The combined seismic/EM image indicates that the rocks of the prospective Ospwagan Group, which have low resistivity, extend southeastward beneath the Archean gneiss and that structural culminations control the subsurface geometry of the Ospwagan Group.

The Sudbury structure in Ontario is famous for its nickel deposits, the largest in the world, which formed as the result of a catastrophic meteorite impact. To help reconcile some of the enigmas and apparent contradictions surrounding studies of the structure and to develop more effective geophysical techniques to locate new deposits, Lithoprobe partnered with industry to carry out geophysical surveys combined with the extensive geological information available. A revised structural model for the Sudbury structure was generated and a 3-D seismic reflection survey identified a nickel deposit, known from drilling results, prior to any mine development. The Athabasca Basin of northwestern Saskatchewan and northeastern Alberta is one of the world's most prolific producers of uranium from its characteristically high-grade unconformity-type deposits and is the only current uranium producer in Canada. An extensive database of geology, drillhole data and physical properties exists. Working with industry collaborators, Lithoprobe demonstrated the value of high-resolution seismic for imaging the unconformity and faults associated with the deposits. The final example involves a unique seismic reflection experiment

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to image the diamondiferous Snap Lake kimberlite dyke in the Slave Province of the Northwest Territories. The opportunity to study geological samples of the kimberlite dyke and surrounding rocks and to ground-truth the seismic results with drillhole data made available by the two industry collaborators enabled a case history study that was highly successful.

RÉSUMÉ

Lithoprobe (1984-2005), ce projet de recherche pancanadien, multidisciplinaire et concerté en sciences de la Terre, a étudié la structure et l'évolution de la croûte continentale canadienne et de ses marges. Ça a été un projet très réussi et qui a redéfini la nature de la recherche en sciences de la Terre au Canada. L'une des nombreuses retombées de ce projet a démontré par l'exemple que les spécialistes des sciences de la Terre en géophysique et en géologie, y compris toutes les sous-disciplines applicables dans ces domaines d'étude généraux, doivent travailler de concert afin de parvenir à une interprétation exhaustive de tous les ensembles de données disponibles. Dans la partie 1, cette approche s'est concrétisée par des études portant sur les structures lithosphériques. Dans la partie 2, elle a produit un résumé des interprétations tirées de six études liées à l'exploration à partir de publications dans des revues scientifiques.

Dans le premier exemple, les structures souterraines associées au batholite du ruisseau Guichon, dans le centre-sud de la Colombie-Britannique, et qui renferme des gisements porphyriques de cuivre et de molybdène, sont maintenant mieux définies et mieux reliées aux différentes phases géologiques du batholite. Un retraitement des données de sismique réflexion, et d'inversion magnétique et gravimétrique 2,5-D et 3-D combiné à une cartographie géologique détaillée et à des données de forage ont permis une interprétation révisée et améliorée du de subsurface. La recherche autour du gisement de sulfures massifs volcanogéniques de Bell Allard de la région de Matagami, dans le nord du Québec, est un deuxième exemple. Un levé de sismique réflexion réalisé au-dessus du gisement, peu après sa découverte par forage, couplé avec des diagraphies géophysiques et de carottes, a été réalisé pour vérifier si l'ensemble pouvait donner une image du gisement. La détection directe du gisement de minerai à partir de la coupe sismique serait difficile si son emplacement n'était pas déjà connu; cependant, les caractéristiques structurales qui peuvent être liées aux lithologies déduites des forages et des diagraphies ont été bien définies. Les gisements de nickel et les structures qui y sont reliées dans la bande de Thompson, à la limite ouest de la province du Supérieur, dans le nord du Manitoba, ont fait l'objet d'études sismiques et électromagnétiques (EM), combinés à des mesures de caractéristiques géologiques et physiques. L'image sismique/EM combinée indique que les roches du groupe d'intérêt d'Ospwagan, lesquelles ont une résistivité faible, s'étendent vers le sud-est sous le gneiss archéen et, les culminations structurales contrôlent la géométrie souterraine du groupe d'Ospwagan.

La structure de Sudbury, en Ontario, est réputée pour ses gisements de nickel, les plus importants au monde, lesquels se sont formés à la suite d'un impact météoritique catastrophique. Pour aider à comprendre certaines des énigmes et résoudre d'apparentes contradictions entourant les études de la structure, et pour développer des techniques géophysiques plus efficaces afin de localiser de nouveaux gisements, Lithoprobe s'est associé à l'entreprise privée pour réaliser des levés géophysiques, et les comparer aux très nombreuses informations géologiques disponibles. Une révision du modèle structural du gisement de Sudbury, ajouté à un levé sismique réflexion tridimensionnelle, ont permis de circonscrire un gisement de nickel, avant tout autre travail de développement minier. Le bassin de l'Athabasca, dans le nord-ouest de la Saskatchewan et le nord-est de l'Alberta, est l'un des producteurs d'uranium les plus prolifiques au monde provenant de gisements à haute teneur de type discordant, et est le seul producteur d'uranium au Canada. Une volumineuse base de données sur la géologie, les forages et les propriétés physiques est disponible. En collaboration avec des entreprises privées, Lithoprobe a démontré la valeur de la sismique à haute résolution pour l'imagerie de la discordance et des failles associées aux gisements. Le dernier exemple est celui d'une expérience de sismique réflexion unique visant à représenter le dyke de kimberlite diamantifère du lac Snap dans la province des Esclaves, dans les Territoires du Nord-Ouest. L'occasion d'étudier des échantillons géologiques du dyke de kimberlite, et des roches environnantes, et de valider les résultats sismiques à l'aide des données de forage mises à disposition par les deux partenaires privés, a permis une étude de cas très fructueuse.

Traduit par le Traducteur

INTRODUCTION

Lithoprobe (1984 to 2005) was Canada's national, collaborative, multidisciplinary, Earth Science research project that was established to develop a comprehensive understanding of the structure and evolution of Canada's present landmass and continental margins (Clowes 2010). Its principal scientific and operational components were built around a series of ten transects or study areas (Fig. 1), each of which was focused on carefully selected geological features that represent globally significant geotectonic processes. Among many other contributions, the project spawned a new and healthy atmosphere of scientific cooperation among Earth scientists: geophysicists and geologists (in the broadest sense of the terms) worked together, and geophysical and geological data were combined, to achieve the most thorough and comprehensive interpretation of those data, including extension of the interpretation into the third dimension, depth. In Part 1 of this two-part contribution, I exemplified this statement through a series of examples from the many Lithoprobe publications in which a combination of geophysics and geology led to high quality interpretations of lithospheric structure (Clowes 2015). In this article, I complete the series of examples, this time focusing on exploration-related results from Lithoprobe's collaboration with industry. As with the previous article, seismic reflection methods provide the primary geophysical data because such data provide the highest resolution for tying with geology and relating to subsurface interpretations, but other geophysical methods also are exemplified. Maps, drillhole information and

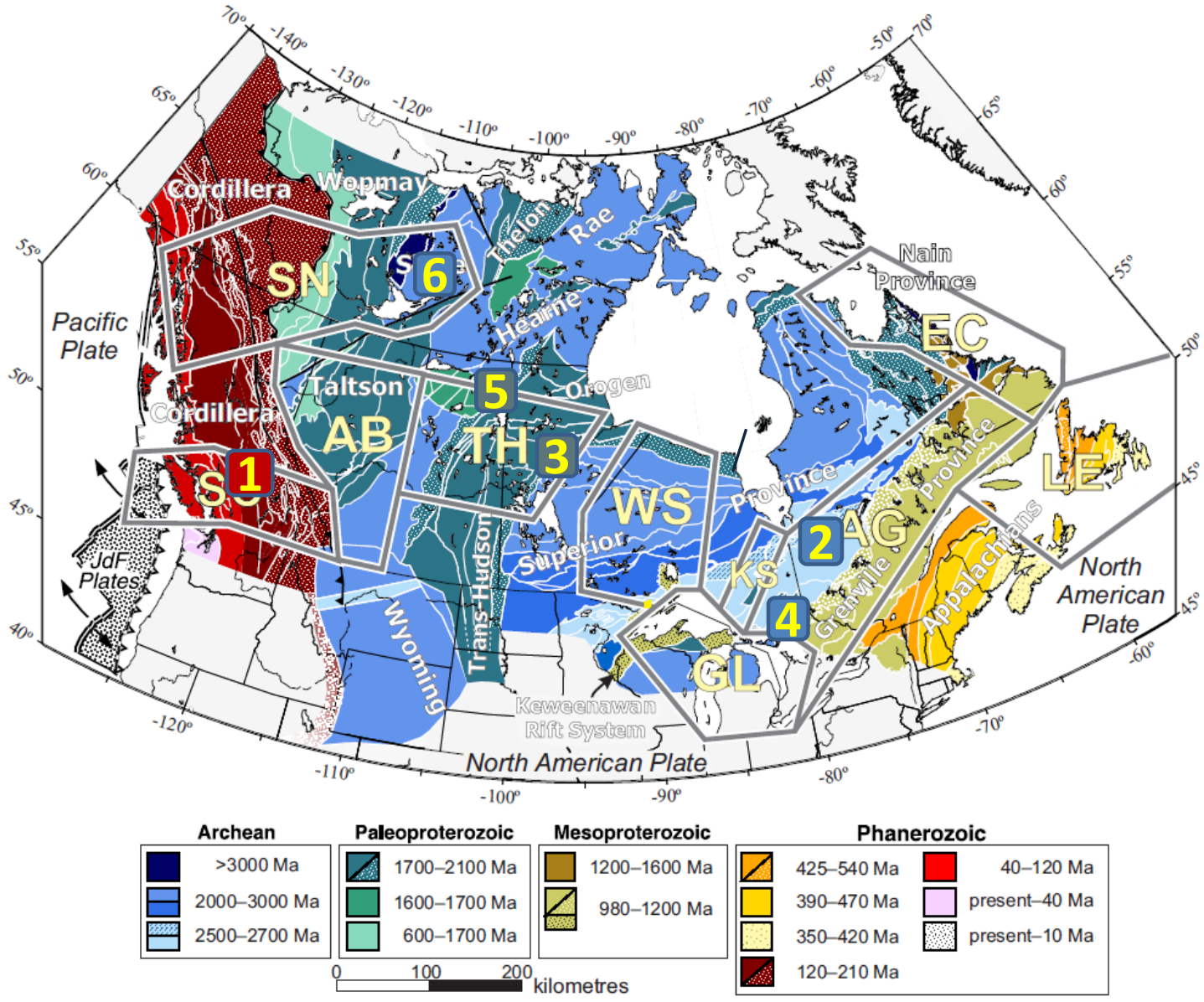

Figure 1. Simplified tectonic age map of Canada with outlines of Lithoprobe transects. White lines indicate domain divisions within the major tectonic elements. Stippling of some coloured areas indicates that the rocks may be older but they have experienced tectonic reworking during the time periods indicated by the colour. Numbers identify the general locations of the six exploration examples discussed in the text. Transect abbreviations: AB, Alberta Basement; AG, Abitibi–Grenville; EC, Eastern Canadian Shield Onshore–Offshore Transect (ECSOOT); GL, Great Lakes International Multidisciplinary Program on Crustal Evolution (GLIMPCE); KS, Kapuskasing Structural Zone; LE, Lithoprobe East; SC, Southern Cordillera; SN, Slave–Northern Cordillera Lithospheric Evolution (SNORCLE); TH, Trans-Hudson Orogen (THOT); and WS, Western Superior.

core samples, usually provided by the industry partner, are the main geological data. In general, the examples in parts 1 and 2 constitute a review of some of the important Lithoprobe results derived from a combination of geophysical and geological data.

PORPHYRY COPPER DEPOSITS, HIGHLAND VALLEY, BRITISH COLUMBIA

The Guichon Creek batholith (GCB), located in the Highland Valley of south-central British Columbia (number 1 in Fig. 1), hosts several large, low-grade copper and molybdenum deposits and is/was the principal copper reserve for British Columbia (McMillan et al. 1985). The surface geology of the batholith (about 70 km long and 30 km wide) and surrounding region is well mapped (Figs. 2 and 3a). However, only limited structural information regarding the subsurface features of the batholith, from interpretation of regional gravity data, are available. Interpretation of these data across a north-northwesterly section of the batholithic intrusion shows a funnel-shaped feature leading down to a steeply plunging conical stem more than 8 km deep (Ager et al. 1973).

The GCB, a typical calc-alkaline pluton, intruded into late Triassic arc volcanic rocks of the Nicola Group between about 213 and 196 Ma. Cutting the GCB are two major north-trend-

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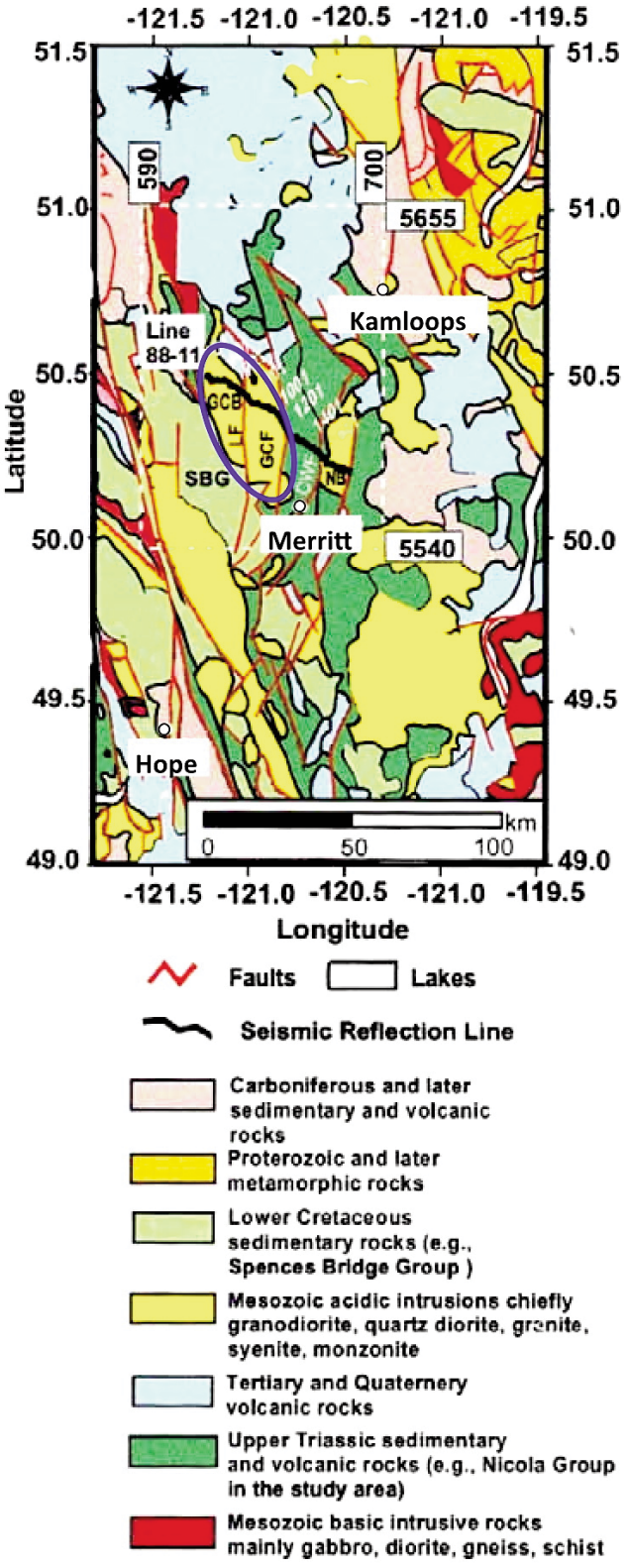

Figure 2. Simplified regional geological map showing location of Lithoprobe seismic reflection line 88-11 (location no. 1 in Fig. 1). Complex geology surrounds the Guichon Creek batholith (GCB; blue ellipse: yellow unit crossed by line 88-11). Mapped features labelled are: CWF, Coldwater fault; GCF, Guichon Creek fault; LF, Lornex fault; NB, Nicola batholith; and SBG, Spences Bridge Group. The dashed box indicates the area for which regional potential field data were used; numbers at corners are northings and eastings values. From Roy and Clowes (2000).

ing faults, the central Lornex and bounding Guichon Creek faults; the Highland Valley fault cuts the central GCB in a roughly northwesterly-southeasterly direction (Fig. 3a). Based on composition and texture, four different heterogeneous phases of the batholith are emplaced in a radially inward fashion (Northcote 1969). From outer to inner, the four phases are the Hybrid or Border (predominantly quartz diorite), Highland Valley (mainly quartz diorite and granodiorite), Bethlehem (uniform granodiorite composition) and Bethsaida (predominantly quartz monzonite) (Northcote 1969; Fig. 3a). Although mineral deposits are dispersed throughout the GCB, the principal ones, identified by name on Figure 3a, are associated with the Bethsaida phase and/or dyke swarms and faults that lie above the projection of the conical stem of the batholith (McMillan et al. 1985).

In 1988, Lithoprobe seismic reflection line 88–11, about 80 km long, was recorded along the Highland Valley across the GCB and low-grade Upper Triassic Nicola Group volcanic rocks to its east (Fig. 2). The original processing of these data to Lithoprobe specifications by commercial contractor (see Cook et al. 1992 for details) was optimized for the entire crust and thus did not generate images suitable for relating to the upper crust (depths to about 10 km). Working with support from Cominco Ltd., owners of the mine property, Roy and Clowes (2000) carried out reprocessing of the western half of line 88–11 across the batholith using commercial software available at the University of British Columbia, augmented by special processing techniques developed by Roy and Mereu (1996). They combined interpretation of the resulting seismic section with 2.5-D and 3-D interpretation of aeromagnetic and gravity data to develop a new interpretation tied to geology.

The reprocessed seismic section to two-way travel-time (TWT) of 6.0 s is shown in Figure 4. Improvements in data quality compared to the section processed by the commercial contractor enabled an interpretation of the data relative to the local geology (Fig. 4b), although near-surface structures (upper 1.5 s TWT, or 2.5 km) could not be enhanced due to limitations in the acquisition geometry. Thus, the reflection section could not be related directly to the mineral deposits. In the central part of the section at ~3 s TWT (depth of ~7 km), a fairly distinct sub-horizontal reflector is interpreted as the rim of the core of the batholith. Several other sub-horizontal seismic reflectors (dotted red lines) likely can be interpreted as layered structures formed when the pluton cooled. The east- and west-dipping reflectors (solid red lines) have been interpreted as the edges or limbs of the batholith and also may represent a layered internal structure to it, consistent with the variation in composition represented by the different phases. Drillhole information from Cominco Ltd. indicates that the Lornex and similar faults are steeply dipping. Because the reflection at ~3 s from the rim of the batholith is not visibly disrupted, Roy and Clowes (2000) presumed the faults are also high angle at 7 km depth, become listric, and/or have no physical property contrast associated with them. The stem of the batholith extends approximately from SP 541 – 781; its projection to the surface coincides approximately with the major deposits, as inferred from geology by McMillan et al. (1985).

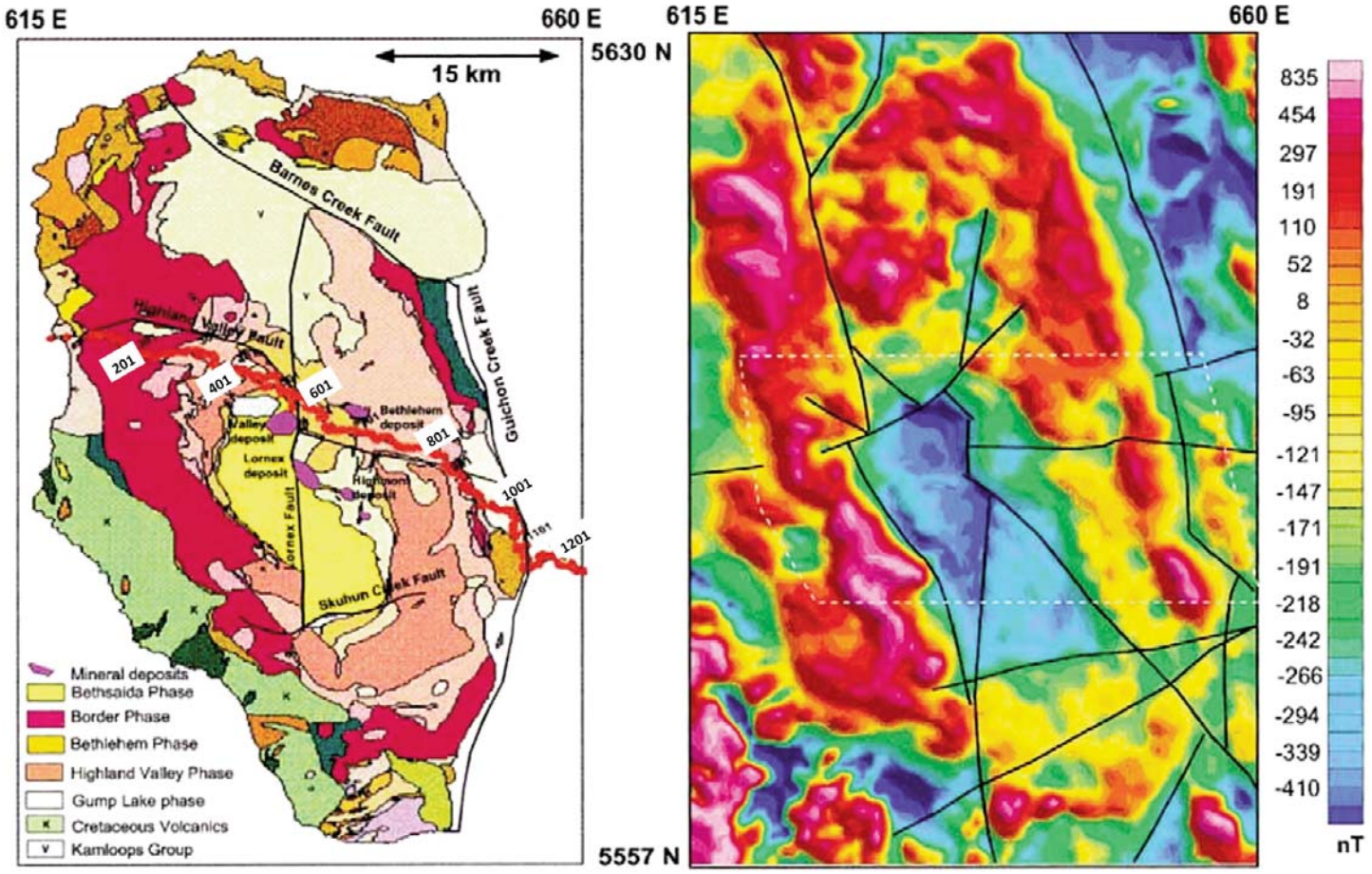

Figure 3. a) Geological map of the Guichon Creek batholith showing the different phases of intrusion (after McMillan et al. 1985; map provided by Cominco Ltd). Line 88-11 is shown by the thick red line; numbers indicate shot point locations. Individual mineral deposits are identified by name. b) Residual-field magnetic anomaly map of the same area as a); data from Cominco Ltd. Note the close similarity between the phases and the characteristics of the magnetic map. Solid black lines show surface-mapped faults. Dashed box indicates area for which high-resolution aeromagnetic data were provided by Cominco Ltd for the 3-D inversion (Fig. 5). The coordinate system is given by northings and eastings. From Roy and Clowes (2000).

Cominco Ltd acquired a high-resolution aeromagnetic survey of the GCB (Fig. 3b). A comparison of Figures 3a and 3b shows a close correspondence between variations in the magnetic anomaly field and the geology, including the different phases of the batholith. Data values for a subset of this survey (dashed white box in Fig. 3b) were provided to Roy and Clowes (2000) who carried out a 3-D inversion of these data (e.g. Li and Oldenburg 1996) to provide a 3-D volume distribution of anomalous susceptibility values. Figure 5a shows the observed high-resolution aeromagnetic map while Figure 5b shows the equivalent map predicted from the derived susceptibility values. Note the close similarity between the observed and predicted anomaly maps; all the major variations in the anomalous magnetic field variations have been recovered from the model.

Figure 5c shows depth slices of susceptibility values from the 3-D inversion results. Large lateral variation in structure and rock types resulted in highly variable susceptibility values for the 500 and 1000 m slices. Subsurface characterization of the batholith is shown by slices from 2000 to 3000 m. The low anomaly (A on 2000 m slice) lies below one of the active mining sites (A on Fig. 5b). Similar low susceptibility anomalies are noted at B and C (Fig. 5c) but these have not been investigated for mining purposes.

None of the data sets or analyses used or carried out by Roy and Clowes (2000) had sufficient resolution to provide a subsurface interpretation that reflects the complexity of the surface geology. However, based on the seismic reflection section, 2.5-D density/susceptibility structure (not discussed here), 3-D inversion results from gravity (not discussed here) and magnetics, and geology from maps and drillholes, a schematic cross-sectional model was developed (Fig. 6). Although the model is similar to the earlier interpretation of Ager et al. (1973), more details of the internal structure of the batholith and the correspondence of this structure to the observed geological phases of the GCB are shown. The Eocene Coldwater normal fault, identified farther east, truncated the stem of the batholith at about 20 km depth. The ore deposits in the GCB are fault-controlled, accounting for the low velocities and densities that were interpreted, and they occur in the granitic host rock, accounting for the low values of susceptibility. If similar geological processes that generated the ore deposit at A (Fig. 5) were active in areas represented by the low susceptibility values B and C (Fig. 5c), could other ore-bearing structures be present?

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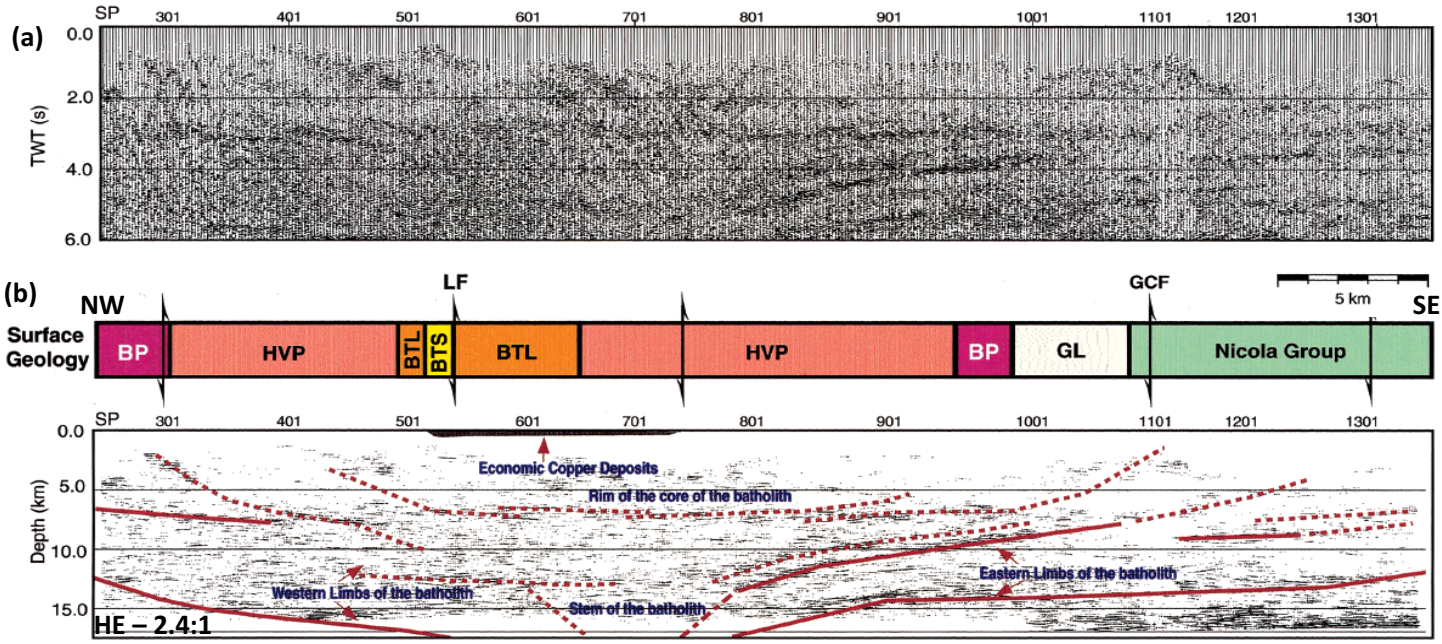

Figure 4. a) Reprocessed, stacked seismic reflection section for the western half of Lithoprobe line 88-11. Shot point (SP) numbers at the top correspond to those in Figure 3a. TWT, two-way travel-time. b) Coherency-filtered migrated section of a); an interpretation is overlain. Local geology along the line is shown by the bar strip. BP, Border phase; BTL, Bethlehem phase; BTS, Bethsaida phase; GCF, Guichon Creek fault; GL, Gump Lake phase; HVP, Highland Valley phase; LF, Lornex fault; vertical double arrows, surface faults; HE, horizontal exaggeration. From Roy and Clowes (2000).

MASSIVE SULPHIDE DEPOSITS, MATAGAMI, ABITIBI GREENSTONE BELT, QUEBEC

The Abitibi subprovince of the Archean Superior Province is the world's largest granite-greenstone belt and hosts a large proportion of Canada's mineral resources (no. 2 on Fig. 1; inset, Fig. 7). Within the greenstone belt, much of the mineral production is from volcanogenic massive sulphide (VMS) deposits formed at or near the sea floor in bimodal mafic volcanic sequences. Two examples, over which Lithoprobe ran high-resolution seismic reflection lines, are the Ansil deposit (e.g. Perron and Calvert 1998; now completely mined) within the Noranda mining camp in the southern Abitibi belt and the Bell Allard deposit (only discovered in 1992 and now being mined) within the Matagami mining district in the northern part of the belt (inset, Fig. 7). The latter is the focus of this section.

The Matagami mining district is focused on the limbs of the Galinée anticline that is cored by the Bell River complex (Fig. 7), a granophyric intrusion for which similar rocks in the area have been dated at 2724 ± 2.5 Ma using U–Pb methods (Mortensen 1993). The Bell River complex stratigraphically underlies a suite of bimodal volcanic rocks. The deeper unit, the Watson Lake Group, is largely felsic and rhyolite within it has an age similar to that of the Bell River intrusion; the upper unit, the Wabassee Group, consists of intermediate to mafic rocks (Fig. 7). The Bell River complex and its associated volcanic groups were folded into the Galinée anticline whose southwestern flank dips at about 45°. On this flank, the Watson Lake Group comprises a dacite unit overlain by rhyolite. It is separated from the overlying basaltic Wabassee Group by the Key tuffite, which is a thin (0.6–6 m) andesitic tuff with a minor hydrothermal component (Genna et al. 2014). The VMS deposits located on the southern flank of the anticline occur at the stratigraphic level of the Key tuffite horizon, and indicate that formation of the ore bodies is linked to the underlying Watson Lake Group. Five such deposits, including the Bell Allard, are identified on Figure 7.

Due to the fact that the sulphide deposits are associated with the Key tuffite horizon, it is a primary stratigraphic marker and a feature for study. Roberts (1975) carried out a detailed study of the Matagami Lake mine, located a few kilometres north of Bell Allard (Fig. 7), with emphasis on metamorphic and structural features that could be observed in underground exposures and hand specimens. Among other characteristics, he developed an orthographic projection of the contact surface between the Key tuffite and overlying basalt (Fig. 8a), which is likely representative in general of other deposits on the southern flank. Figure 8b shows a slab specimen in which the andesite–Key tuffite contact is identified. In the Matagami mining camp, a single deposit may consist of several massive sulphide lenses, the upper contact of which is sharp but the lower contact is usually gradational into a stringer zone of vein-type sulphide mineralization. Figure 8c shows an example from the Isle Dieu mine, located about 5 km north of Bell Allard (Fig. 7). The Isle Dieu deposit has two sulphide lenses, each of which overlies two or more stringer zones. The latter are considered to represent the conduits through which mineral-rich fluids circulated. The fluids were discharged onto the sea floor above and around discharge vents where they encountered cooler ocean water, which caused the precipitation of sulphides that accumulated as the sulphide lenses. The Key tuffite horizon may have been created by volcanism and

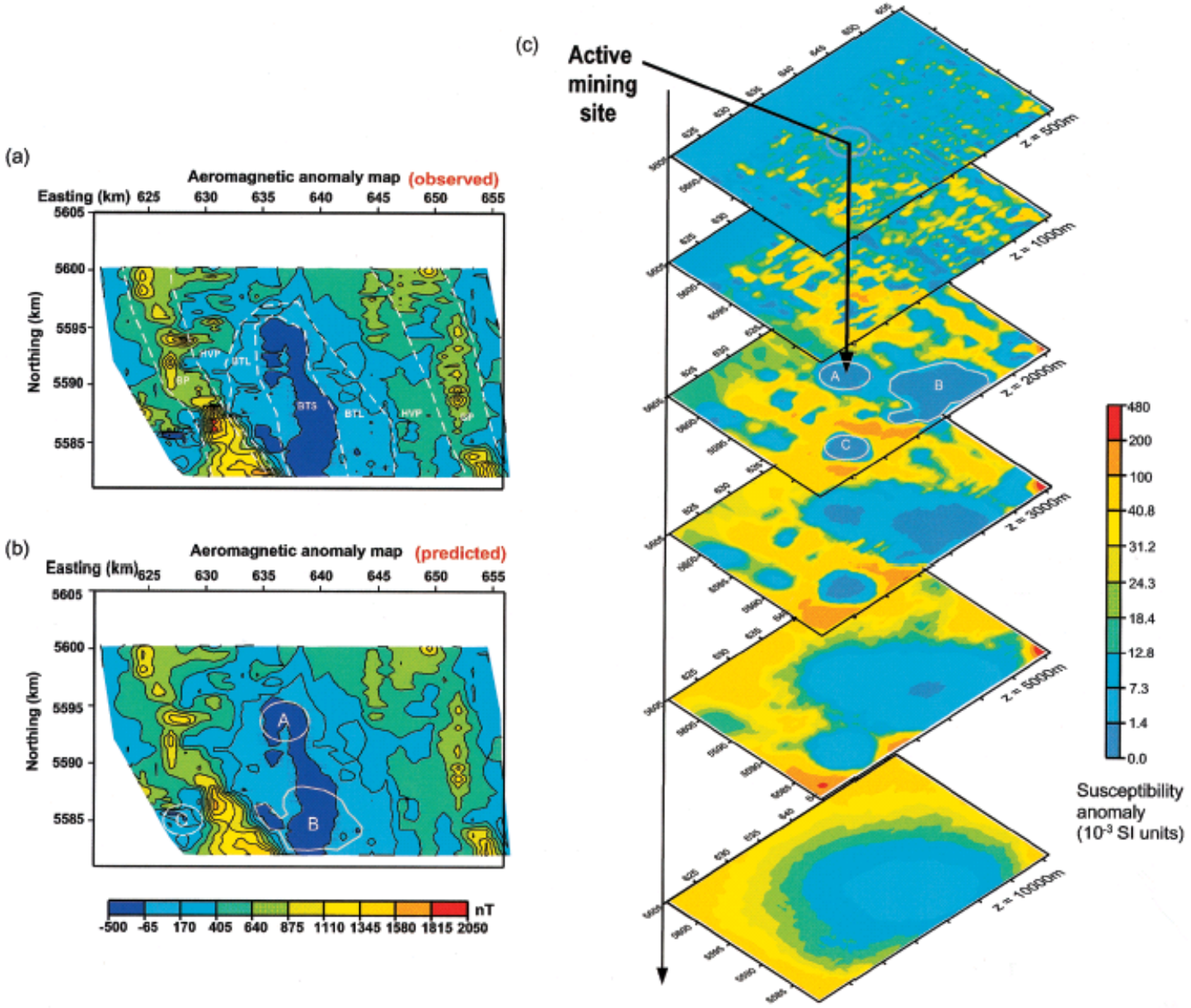

Figure 5. a) Observed high-resolution aeromagnetic anomaly map with approximate boundaries of the batholith phases (dashed lines); data provided by Cominco Ltd. A distinct low anomaly is associated with the Bethsaida phase (BTS), which hosts some of the most important mineral deposits; other abbreviations as in Figure 4. b) Predicted aeromagnetic anomaly map from the 3-D inversion. Outlines A, B and C are the surface projections of the low susceptibility anomalies identified by the same letters at z = 2000 m in (c). c) Depth slices from the 3-D inversion results. One of the active mining sites lies on top of the distinct low susceptibility anomaly shown with the arrow (event A). Events B and C identify two similar anomalies that have not been explored for mineralization. From Roy and Clowes (2000).

chemical precipitation in the waning stages of hydrothermal activity during volcanic quiescence (Calvert et al. 2003; Genna et al. 2014).

Two high-resolution Lithoprobe seismic reflection lines were acquired on the southwest flank of the Galinée anticline near known VMS deposits. The first, Line 29–3, was recorded in 1990, prior to the discovery of the Bell Allard deposit (location in Fig. 7). Its objective was to map the contact between the mafic Wabassee Group and the felsic Watson Lake Group from a known deposit (Orchan) westward to and across the Daniel fault to an area where no borehole information was available (Fig. 7; Adam et al. 1998). The second profile, Line 93A, was acquired in 1993 above the Bell Allard deposit, discovered in 1992 at depths between 900 and 1150 m, prior to any mine development (location in Fig. 7). Its objective was to test the possibility of directly detecting deep volcanogenic massive sulphide ore bodies using seismic reflection technology.

Part of the rationale for carrying out such tests results from physical property measurements of rocks and downhole logging. Boreholes in mining camps are continuously cored for assaying as well as for deployment of wireline logging tools. For the tests within the Lithoprobe umbrella, the Geological Survey of Canada carried out laboratory high pressure meas-

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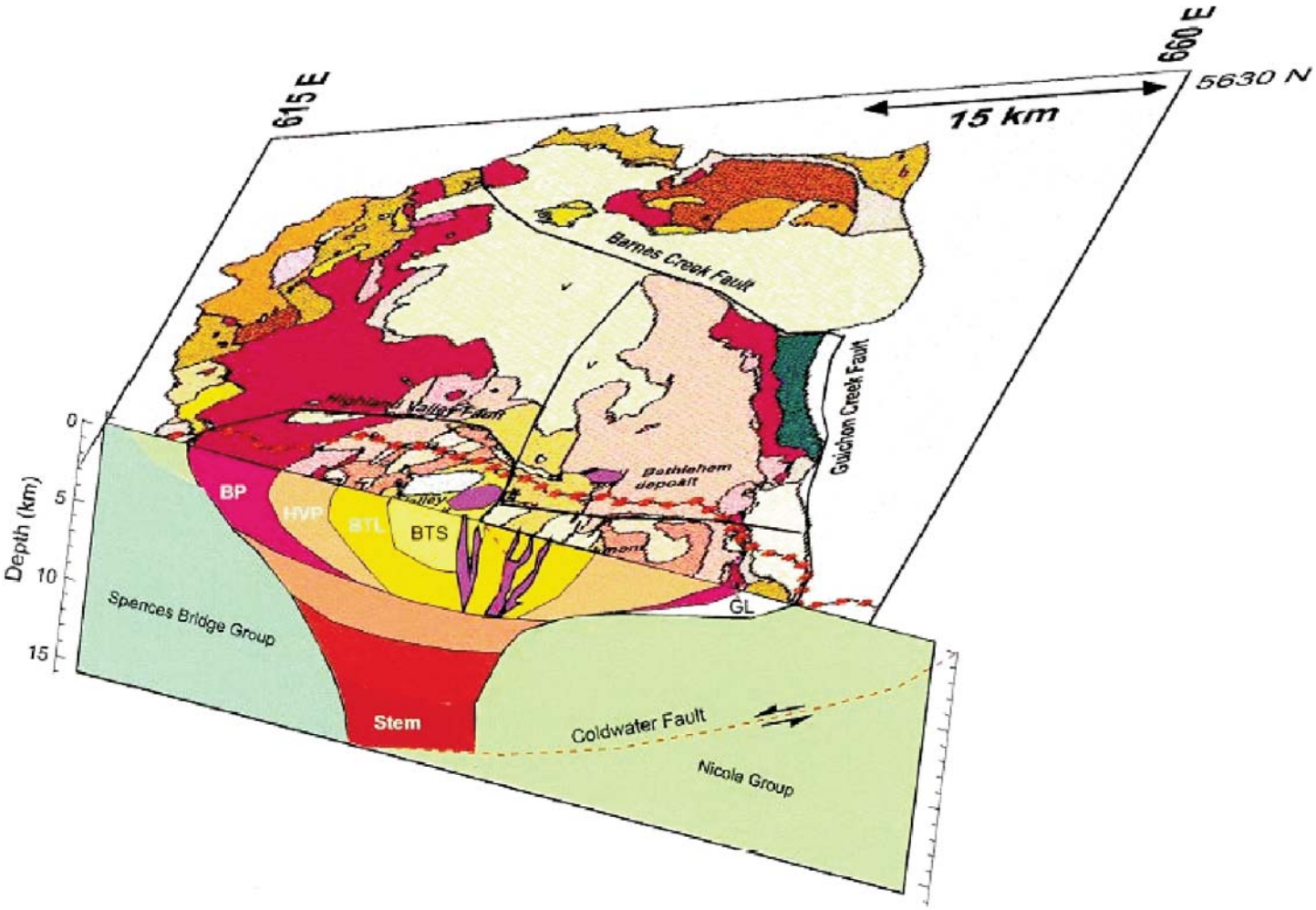

Figure 6. 2-D schematic cross-sectional model of the Guichon Creek batholith based on seismic and potential field studies tied to surface geology shown on top face. Purple 'stringers' on the cross-section and small areas on the map identify mineral deposits. Batholith phases: BP, Border; BTL, Bethlehem; BTS, Bethsaida; GL, Gump Lake; HVP, Highland Valley. From Roy and Clowes (2000).

urements of density, *P*-wave velocity and *S*-wave velocity on core samples of different lithologies, and undertook borehole logging for comparisons with the laboratory measurements (e.g. Salisbury et al. 1996, 2003). Results demonstrated that the sulphide minerals of interest exhibit anomalous density and seismic *P*-wave values relative to the host rocks and thus are suitable for generating seismic reflections. Figure 9 shows logging results for borehole BAS–95–4 located near the Bell Allard deposit and just 130 m east of Line 93A (Fig. 7). The logs show the presence of gabbro sills within a primarily basaltic volcanic stratigraphy in the upper part of the drill hole but in the lower part there is no gabbro and the stratigraphy comprises alternating layers of basalt and rhyolite. A thin layer of Key tuffite is identified at about 550 m depth. The synthetic seismogram calculated from the density and velocity values indicates that the strongest reflections probably originate from the gabbro contacts and some, but not all, of the basalt–rhyolite contacts (Calvert and Li 1999). The Key tuffite layer is too thin to generate a seismic reflection.

Figure 10a shows the seismic reflection section for Line 93A; the lithological identification, based on correlations of the borehole lithologies with the seismic section, is overlain (Calvert and Li 1999). The Key tuffite horizon (KT), which is too thin to be imaged by the frequencies prevalent in the seismic survey, is the contact between the mainly basaltic Wabassee Group and the largely rhyolitic Watson Lake Group. The associated reflectivity is likely due to the basalt–rhyolite contrast. The strongest reflections are associated with the gabbro sills and the Dumagami rhyolite (DR) within the lower Wabassee Group. The top of the Bell River intrusive complex may have been imaged (dark blue lines). Faulting is identified by discontinuities in the observed seismic reflections (red lines).

Figure 10b shows an enlargement of part of the data from Figure 10a; a geological section based on drillhole information (after Adam et al. 1997) is overlain. A strong reflection is associated with the top of the Bell Allard ore body, but this reflection is no different in amplitude than those from the gabbro sills. Thus, direct detection of the ore body from the seismic section would be difficult if its location were not already known, as is the case here. Nevertheless, structural characteristics that can be tied to lithologies from boreholes and logs are

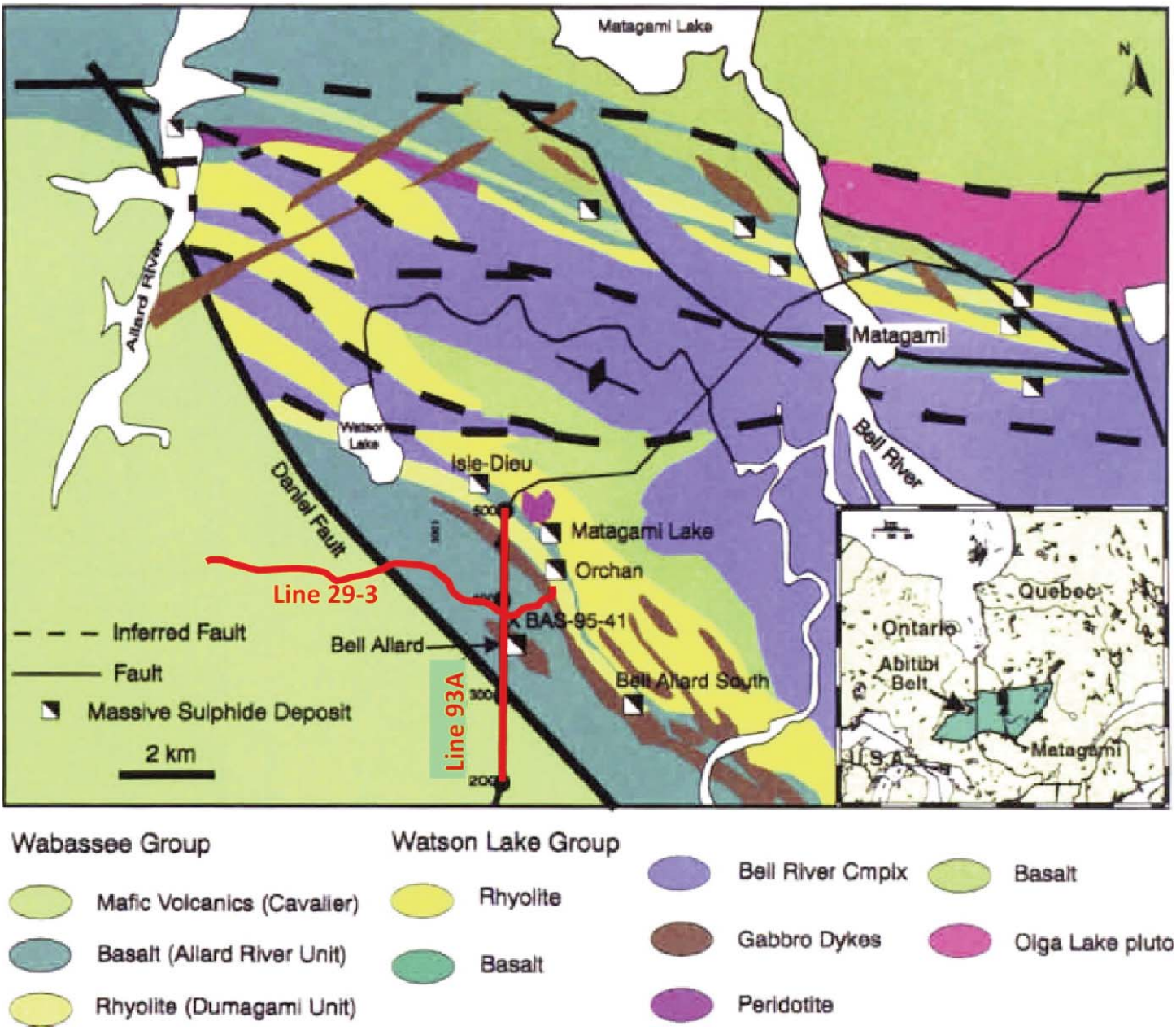

Figure 7. Geological map of the Matagami mining camp (location no. 2 in Fig. 1) showing main lithological units, seismic reflection lines 29-3 and 93A (shot point numbers are indicated), locations of main sulphide deposits, and location of borehole BAS 95-41 for which logging results are shown in Figure 9. The Bell Allard deposit lies almost directly below the highway along which the seismic line was recorded. The inset shows the general location of Matagami and the Abitibi greenstone belt in Ontario and Quebec.

well identified. Additional seismic studies, vertical seismic profiling (VSP) carried out at the Bell Allard deposit (and other mining camps as well), reveal that the strongest reflections generally do originate from the ore bodies and the basalt–rhyolite contacts are generally weaker (Adam et al. 1996).

Two-dimensional (2-D) seismic reflection surveys were shown to be limited in their applicability for ore deposit exploration so a number of mining companies and the Geological Survey of Canada, as an outgrowth of Lithoprobe studies, have tested 3-D reflection surveys at a few sites for the purpose of direct detection of massive sulphide ore bodies. One of these was at the Bell Allard deposit (Adam et al. 2003); another was at a site in the Sudbury, Ontario mining district (described in a subsequent section; Milkereit et al. 1997). Because typical ore bodies are comparable in size to the dominant wavelengths of a seismic survey, they tend to scatter, not reflect, seismic energy. Studies of the 3-D volume of seismic energy generated from these 3-D seismic surveys have demonstrated that the scattered energy from an ore body can be detected and the ore body identified. Indeed, a study in the Bathurst, New Brunswick mining camp represented the first discovery of a VMS deposit using 3-D seismic reflection methods, although the deposit was determined to be too rich in pyrite to be economically viable (Matthews et al. 2002).

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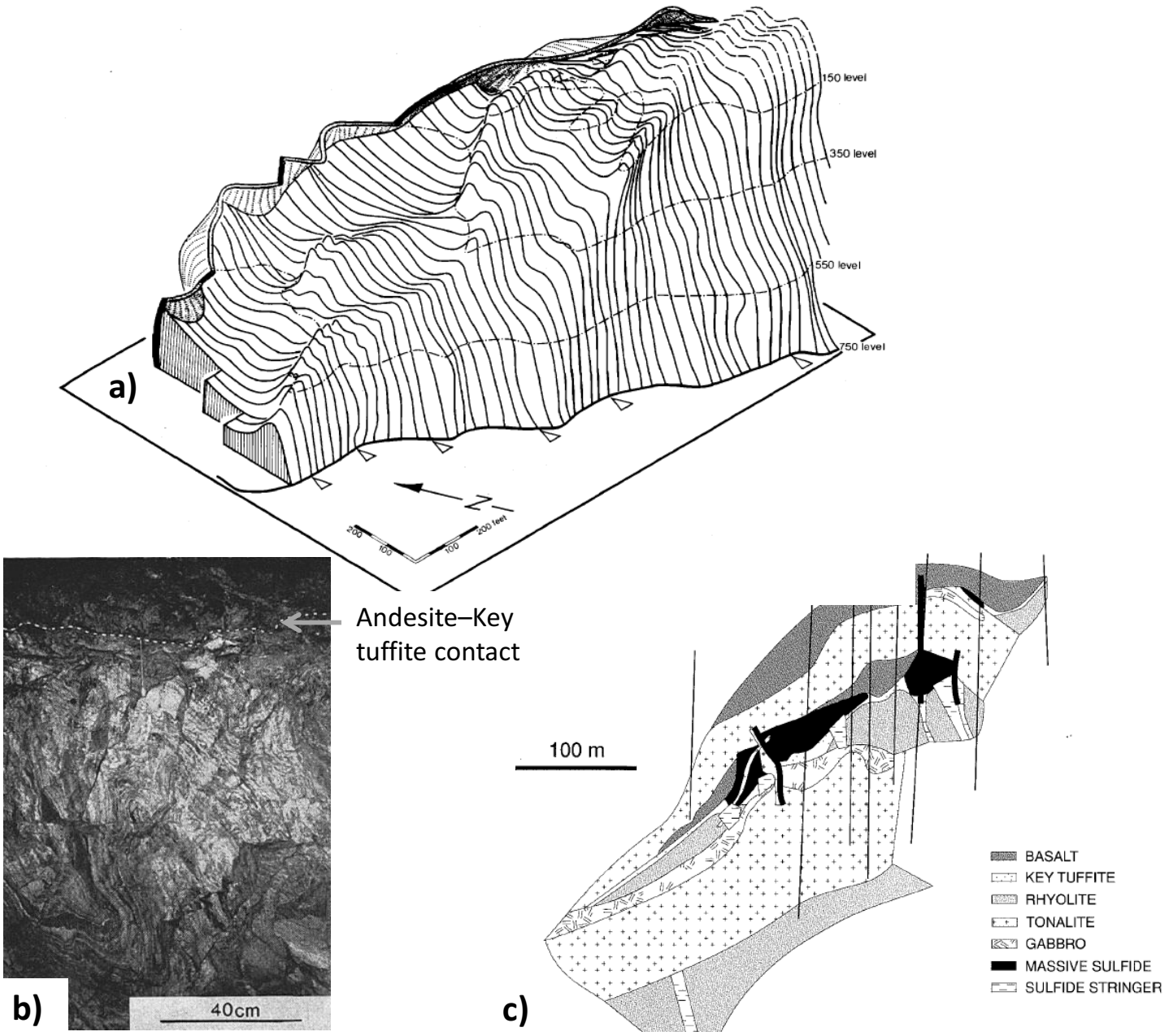

Figure 8. a) Orthographic projection of the andesite–Key tuffite surface for the Matagami Lake deposit just north of the Bell Allard deposit (location in Fig. 7) based on studies at various levels (numbers are in feet) within the mine. Fold terminates to the northwest against the south edge of a peridotite intrusive body. Gabbro dyke not shown. Surface projected above level of erosion is shown with dashed lines; from Roberts (1975). b) Slab photo of an underground exposure of the andesite–Key tuffite contact near the closure of a large fold; from Roberts (1975). c) Geological cross-section (no vertical exaggeration) of the Isle Dieu deposit located to the north of the Bell Allard deposit (location in Fig. 7). With the exception of the large tonalite intrusion, this deposit is typical of those found on the southern flank of the Bell River complex, being located at the contact of the basaltic Wabassee and deeper rhyolitic Watson Lake groups. Massive sulphide lenses are located above stringers of mineralization that likely represent conduits along which mineral-bearing fluids once flowed. From Calvert et al. (2003).

NICKEL DEPOSITS, THOMPSON BELT, MANITOBA

The Thompson belt forms the northwestern margin of the Archean Superior craton, often referred to as the Superior boundary zone, and constitutes a tectonic foreland on the eastern side of the ca. 1800 Ma Trans-Hudson Orogen (THO; no. 3 on Fig. 1; Fig. 11a). Its boundary with the Reindeer zone to the west, the internides of the THO, is the Superior Boundary fault. In contrast, its eastern limit is an irregular, poorly defined transition zone within which the main east-west structural trend of the Superior craton is progressively reworked into the northeast-southwest trend of the belt and the Archean granulite–amphibolite facies rocks of the Pikwitonei belt are retrogressed to Proterozoic amphibolite facies (e.g. Bleeker 1990). Within the Thompson belt, world-class nickel deposits have been found and produced since the early 1960s. These occur along distinct stratigraphic horizons within the thin, highly metamorphosed and deformed Paleoproterozoic Ospwagan Group sedimentary sequence. As part of Lithoprobe's 1991

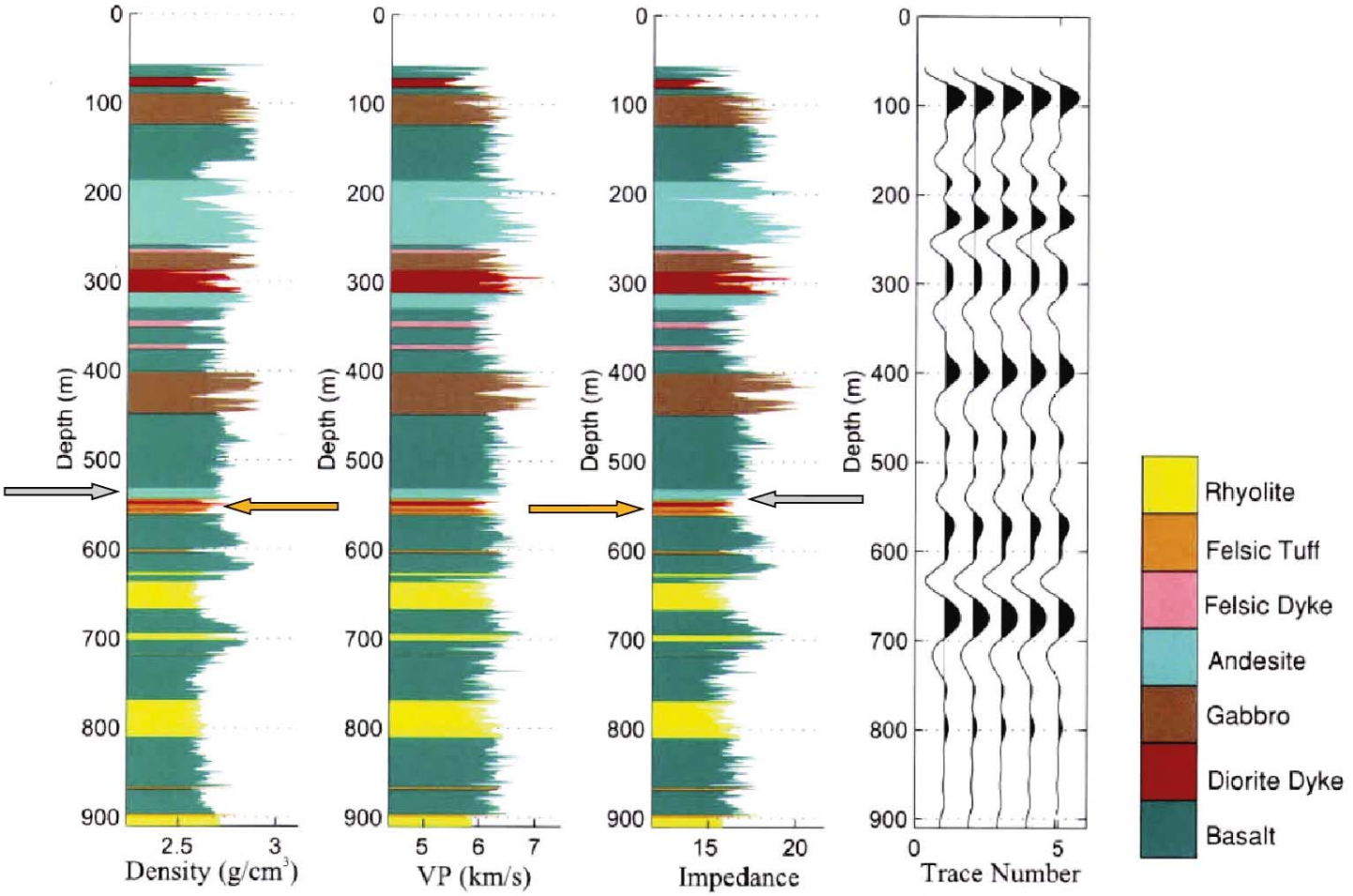

Figure 9. Density and *P*-wave sonic velocity logs from borehole BAS-95-41 coded by lithology (location in Fig. 7). The borehole extends through the gabbro sills and volcanic stratigraphy of the Wabassee Group and terminates at the upper contact of the rhyolitic Watson Lake Group. The primary reflections-only synthetic seismogram is calculated from the logs (velocity x density = impedance) using an Ormsby wavelet with corner frequencies of 25, 30, 100 and 110 Hz. Grey arrow, andesite; orange arrow, Key tuffite. From Calvert and Li (1999).

seismic reflection survey program in the THO, high resolution seismic line 1A was recorded on existing roads across the Ospwagan Group. The seismic data were complemented by a coincident electromagnetic (EM) survey that also included a profile perpendicular to the main line (Fig. 11b). The combined seismic/EM profile across the Ospwagan Group and its association with the local geology is the focus of this section.

The Ospwagan group lies unconformably on Archean basement gneiss of the Superior Province, although an early (>1880 Ma) deformation event resulted in some basement gneiss being overturned during the deformation and thus overlying the Ospwagan Group (Fig. 12). The latter includes a sequence of five metasedimentary and metavolcanic units and associated ultramafic intrusive bodies, and volcanic rocks (Bleeker 1990; Fig. 12a). Stratigraphically, the Manasan, Thompson and Pipe formations form the lower units and make up a detrital-chemical sequence representing sedimentation on a stable platform. The upper two units, the turbiditic Setting Formation and the mafic–ultramafic Bah Lake assemblage, were formed in a tectonically active setting. Mafic–ultramafic intrusive sills located at the level of the Pipe Formation host the main nickel deposit but other intrusions are present up to the middle of the Setting Formation (Machado et al. 2011). The Grass River Group (Fig. 12a) is a detrital sequence composed of a lower unit deposited in a fluvial–alluvial environment and an upper one that grades westward into the Burntwood Group of the Kisseynew domain in the Reindeer zone. Figure 12b shows a schematic cross-section representing the Archean basement gneiss and the Ospwagan Group, highlighting the mafic–ultramafic intrusive units (peridotite) associated with the major nickel deposits and mines.

The seismic reflection and EM surveys were acquired to help constrain the interpretation of subsurface geological structures since subsurface mapping of the ore-hosting Ospwagan Group is important for exploration in the Thompson belt. They represent complementary approaches. The seismic reflection method provides small-scale (10–100 m) detail of velocity–density variations and is well-suited for imaging geological features with shallow to moderate dips. The controlled source electromagnetic method typically enables imaging of resistivity anomalies that have dimensions comparable to their depth (100–1000 m) and are best suited for imaging near-vertical features.

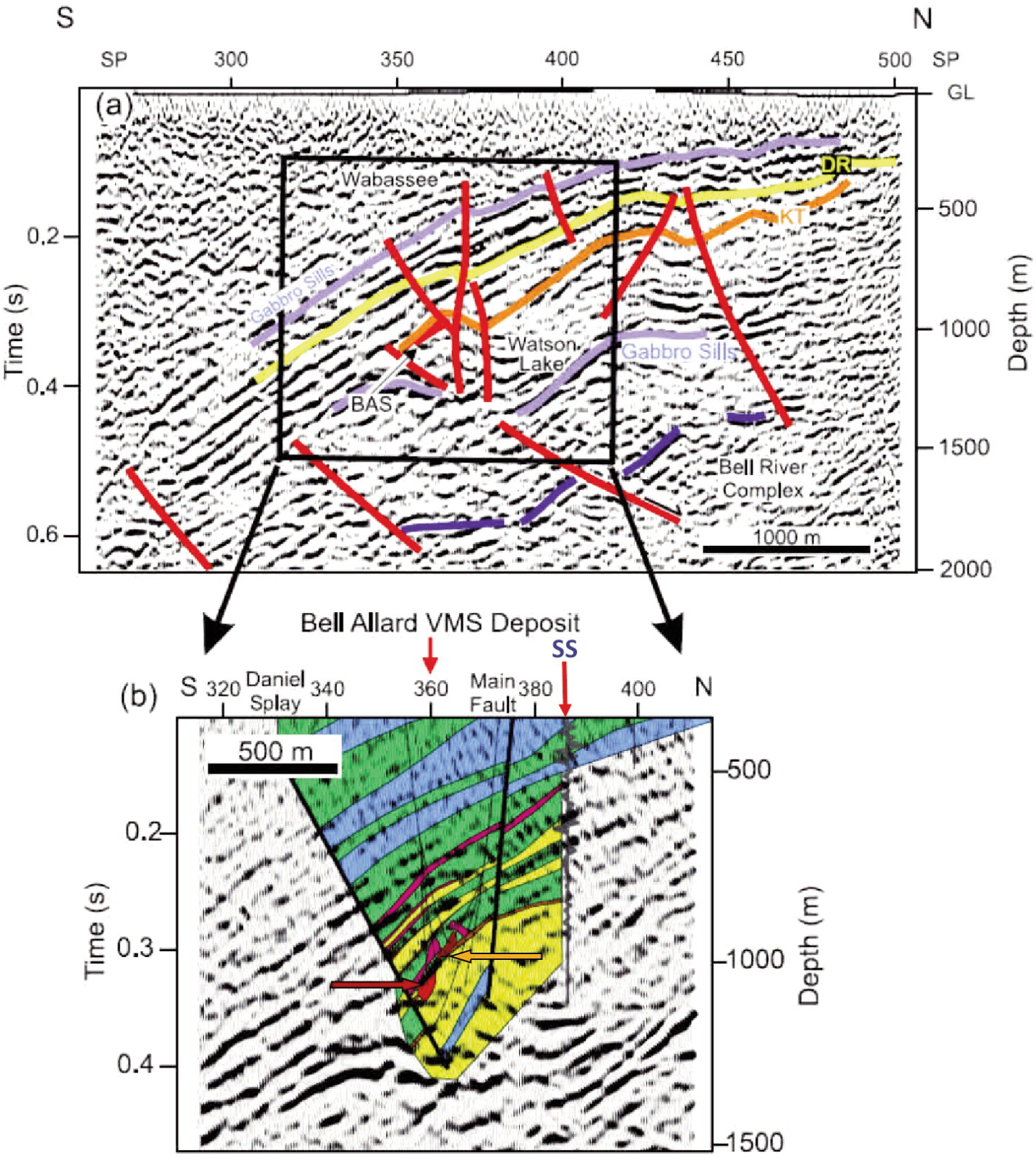

Figure 10. a) Pre-stack migrated seismic reflection section with interpretation overlain. Strong reflections are associated with gabbro sills and interlayered rhyolite and basalt within the lower Wabassee Group. BAS, Bell Allard sulphide deposit; DR, Dumagami rhyolite; KT, Key tuffite. Red lines identify faults; dark blue lines show top of Bell River complex. b) Enlargement of seismic data from a) onto which a simplified geological section through the Bell Allard deposit (after Adam et al. 1997) and the synthetic seismogram (SS) from the logs in borehole BAS-95-41 (Fig. 9) are superimposed. Thin lines show boreholes. Colours for the geological section: blue, gabbro; green, basalt; magenta, felsic tuff or dyke; red, sulphide mineralization; yellow, rhyolite; brown, mafic-intermediate dyke. Red arrow, Bell Allard deposit; orange arrow, Key tuffite. From Adam et al. (2000); modified from Calvert and Li (1999).

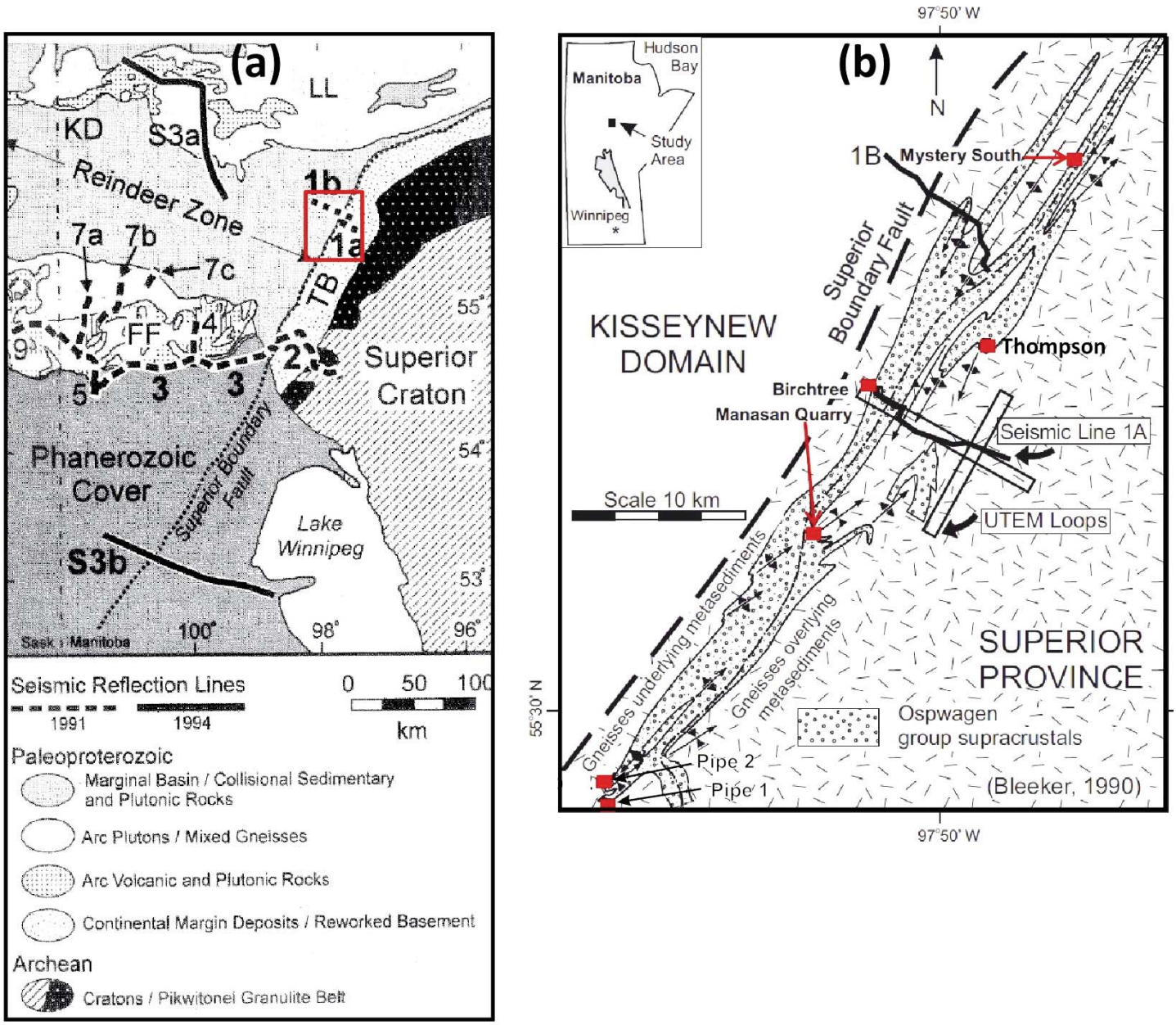

Figure 11. a) Simplified geological map of the eastern part of the Trans-Hudson Orogen (Reindeer zone) and Thompson belt (TB) showing locations of seismic reflection profiles. The red box shows the area of Figure 11b. FF, Flin Flon belt; KD, Kisseynew domain; LL, Lynn Lake belt. From Clowes (2001). b) Geological map showing location of reflection lines 1A and 1B and the electromagnetic profiles (UTEM loops), as well as the mapped occurrences of the Ospwagan Group. The gneiss is reworked Archean basement; Kisseynew domain comprises high-grade metaturbidite. Mines are named and indicated by small red squares. Base map from Bleeker (1990). Inset shows location of map in Maniboba. Modified from Eaton et al. (2010).

To be most effective, both methods can benefit from rock property measurements. Within the Thompson area, compressional wave velocities (V_p) and density measurements were made on a small suite of rock samples to assess the reflectivity of the various lithologic units (Fig. 13a; White et al. 2000). The reflectivity is controlled by variations in seismic impedance (Z, the product of velocity and density); good reflections arise from rock units or features (such as alteration zones, brittle faults or mylonite zones) with strongly contrasting impedances. From Figure 13a, we note that relatively high Z values arise from amphibolite, iron formation, pyroxenite and sulphide ore compared with other lithologies. In general, sulphide densities are uniformly high such that the seismic impedance of sulphide bodies, if present in sufficient quantity, enables them to be readily imaged (Salisbury et al. 1996, 2003). Characterization of the reflectivity of the subsurface through knowledge of the thickness, juxtaposition sequence and lateral extent of lithologies and subsequent generation of synthetic seismograms to provide guides for expected results are helpful aids for interpretation. In the Thompson area, borehole geological logs were available. By using the laboratory-measured velocities and densities in conjunction with these logs, simulat-

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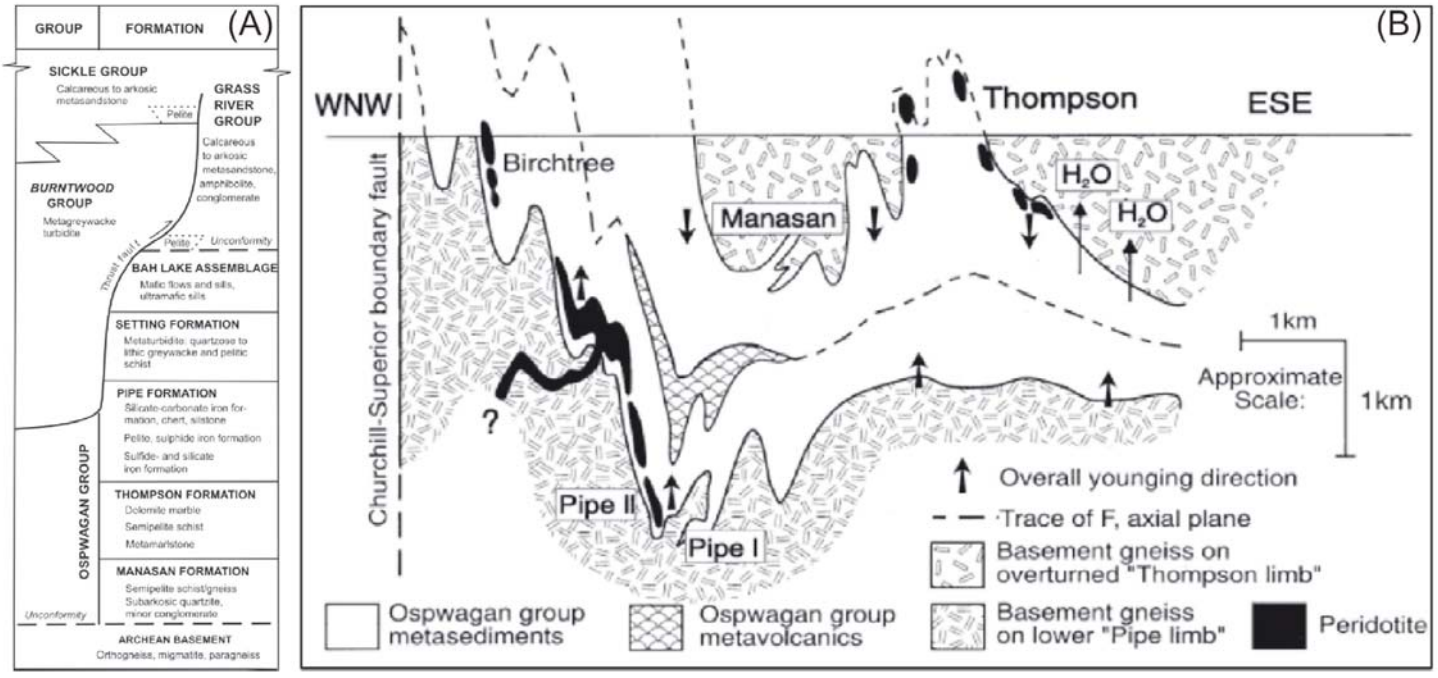

Figure 12. a) Lithostratigraphic succession of supracrustal rocks in the Thompson belt and adjacent part of the Kisseynew domain (Burntwood and Sickle groups), from Rayner et al. (2006). b) Schematic vertical depth section through the Thompson nappe structure, showing the structural positions of nickel mines, associated with the peridotite bodies, identified in Figure 11b. F1 refers to an early (>1880 Ma) deformation event that resulted in the formation of the Thompson nappe. From White et al. (2000); after Bleeker (1990).

ed seismic responses were calculated to provide guides for interpretation of the seismic data (White et al. 2000)

Similarly, rock property measurements have been shown to aid in the interpretation of EM data. Figure 13b shows resistivity and porosity measurements made on samples of various lithologies from the Thompson area (White et al. 2000). Serpentinite and peridotite are highly conductive (low resistivity) and porous, dolomite and quartzite are moderately conductive, whereas amphibolite, biotite schist, schist and orthogneiss are more resistive and show little porosity. Thus, the known conductive groups are part of the Ospwagan Group. The resistive host rocks allow for deep penetration of the EM field because they cause limited attenuation of the field. Combining this characteristic with Ospwagan Group rocks being associated with higher conductivity indicates that EM mapping methods should be capable of delineating the subsurface extent of the supracrustal rocks, a key objective of the study.

Figure 14 shows a composite of the seismic reflection and electromagnetic images with interpretation lines superimposed (White et al. 2000). Both the seismic and EM images change significantly across the Burntwood lineament, a known steep structural zone. To the west of the lineament, the poor seismic image is due to lithologic contacts with steep dips and the resistivity image is compromised at depth by the presence of strong, shallow conductors associated with an iron formation that is part of the supracrustal units, both known from borehole information. The interpretation superimposed is based on borehole information. To the east of the lineament, the combined image indicates that the rocks of the prospective Ospwagan Group (low resistivity) extend southeastward beneath the Archean gneiss and that structural culminations control the subsurface geometry of the Ospwagan Group (e.g. the Owl Lake antiform). The bottom limb of the nappe, occurring within a reflective zone below the antiform, is inferred on the basis of the thickness of Ospwagan Group rocks in the vicinity of the Birchtree mine (location on Fig. 11b). Within the highly resistive rocks at depths less than 1000 m at the eastern end, a mapped basement antiform east of the Grass River lineament appears to have been imaged within the hanging wall of the easternmost of the three major faults.

Results from the combined seismic reflection and EM study, aided by rock property measurements, borehole logs and correlation of the geophysical images with mapped surface geology, indicate that such methods can be effective in determining the subsurface configuration of the nickel ore-bearing supracrustal Ospwagan Group. The latter should generally be more seismically reflective and electrically conductive than Archean gneiss that surrounds them in fold interference structures (White et al. 2000).

MORE NICKEL DEPOSITS, SUDBURY STRUCTURE, ONTARIO

The Sudbury Structure is situated in the southernmost part of the Archean Superior Province in Ontario, near the junction of the Superior Province with the Paleoproterozoic Huronian supracrustal rocks of the Southern Province and the Mesoproterozoic rocks of the southwestern Grenville Province (no. 4, Fig. 1). Sudbury Structure is a collective term that is defined to include the elliptically shaped Sudbury Igneous Complex (SIC), the Sudbury Basin that is enclosed by the SIC and the brecciated country rocks of the Superior and Southern provinces that surround the SIC (Fig. 15; Giblin 1984). Sud-

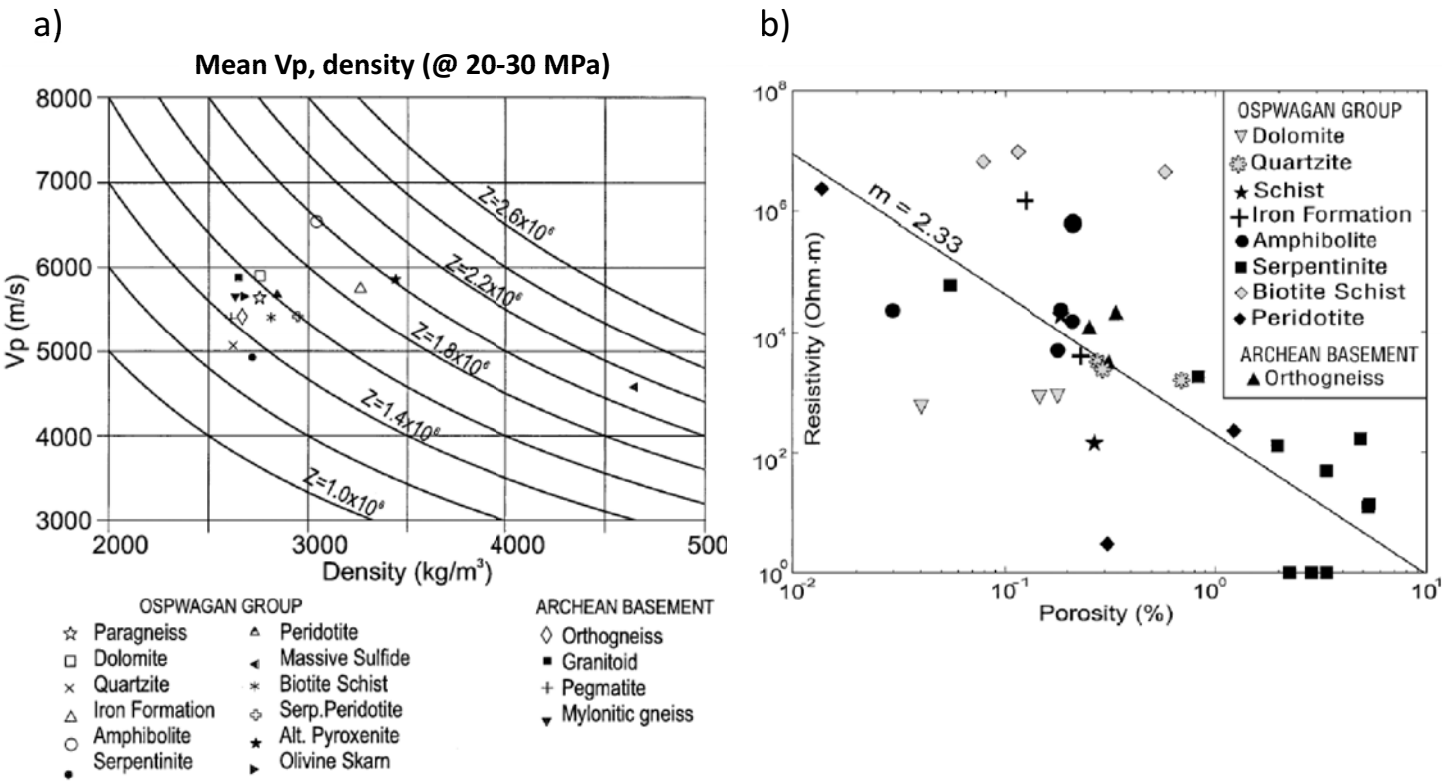

Figure 13. a) Mean *P*-wave velocities (V_p) and densities for a suite of rocks from the Thompson area. The solid curves indicate lines of constant acoustic impedance (product of V_p and density with units of kg/m^2 s). The V_p and density values for the massive sulphide are for a pyrrhotite-rich sample from Sudbury because no measurements were available for such sulphide rocks from the Thompson area. From White et al. (2000). b) The log of resistivity versus the log of porosity for a suite of samples provided by Inco Ltd., Exploration. These rock property results were used to facilitate the interpretation of conductivity in terms of ionic transport (i.e. via fluids) versus electronic conductors (i.e. metals and semiconductors). From White et al. (2000).

bury is famous for its nickel deposits that are the largest in the world (Naldrett 1999); mining has been active in the region for more than a century. Sudbury is also famous now as the site of a catastrophic meteorite impact, dated at 1850 Ma (Krogh et al. 1984), with the crater estimated at > 200 km across, probably one of the largest known impact structures in the world (Grieve et al. 1991). The meteorite generated an impact melt sheet within which the nickel deposits formed. However, this interpretation has only been extant since 1964 when Dietz (1964) recognized shock-metamorphic features characteristic of an impact origin; subsequent work has established this interpretation (e.g. Grieve et al. 1991).

Lithoprobe became involved in studies of the Sudbury Structure as part of its Abitibi–Grenville transect (see Ludden and Hynes 2000) to provide additional constraints and information to help reconcile some of the enigmas and apparent contradictions surrounding studies of the structure (Boerner et al. 2000) and to develop more effective geophysical techniques to locate new deposits to depths of at least 2500 m, a typical depth limit for modern mining methods. A comprehensive geologic knowledge base existed as a result of the lengthy mining history in the Sudbury area. Lithoprobe's interest centred on the SIC although some regional work provided constraints on the structure as a whole. As with other Lithoprobe programs, seismic reflection surveys formed the basis of the studies and set the framework within which subsequent geological interpretations were made. However, an expanded database of physical rock properties and multiple borehole logging experiments helped constrain the interpretation of seismic, electromagnetic, gravity and magnetic data, thereby contributing to the regional synthesis of geological and geophysical data. In this section, I emphasize results along the two-dimensional lines 41 and 40 (Fig. 15). These and related studies were sufficiently encouraging that the two mining companies involved, Inco Ltd. (now Vale Canada Ltd.) and Falconbridge Ltd (now Glencore plc.), and the Geological Survey of Canada funded a feasibility 3-D seismic survey (Trill), the results of which I also summarize.

Geological Background

As a result of its importance for the mining industry (Lightfoot 2016), the Sudbury area has had many years of geological mapping. Dressler (1984), collections edited by Pye et al. (1984) and Lightfoot and Naldrett (1994), including references within them, and a monograph by Lightfoot (2016) provide good introductions and extensive information relating to the area. Focusing on aspects relevant to the Lithoprobe studies, the Sudbury Structure developed as the product of four primary events: 1) establishment of structures within the Archean crust that became the foreland to subsequent orogenies; 2) construction of the Huronian margin; 3) the meteorite impact event; and 4) post-impact deformation (Boerner et al. 2000).

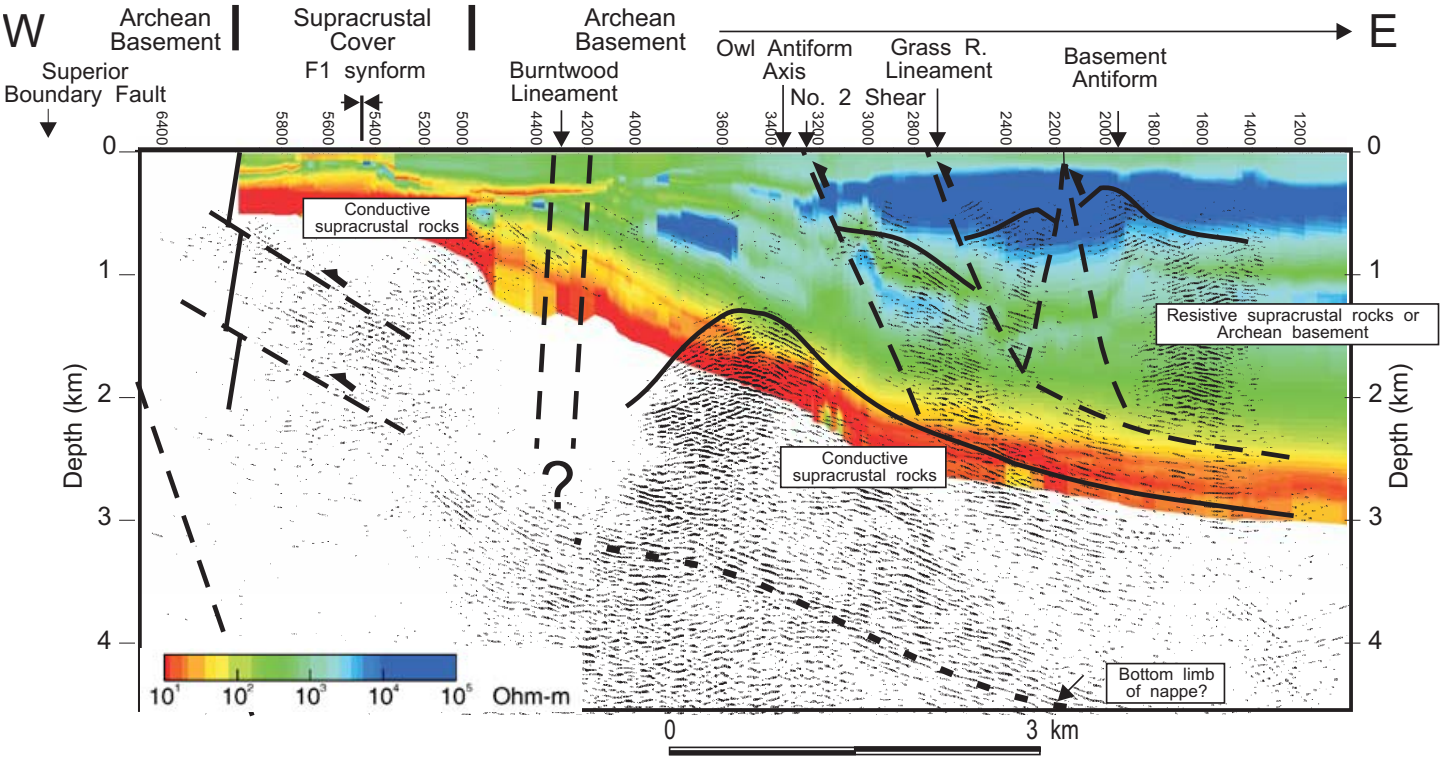

Figure 14. Migrated seismic reflection data for line 1A (Fig. 11b) overlying the colour resistivity versus depth image for the coincident electromagnetic (EM) profile with interpretation. Geological features along the profile are noted above the image. Numbers identify vibration-point stations. From White et al. (2000).

Within the Archean part of the geology, the Levack gneiss, which crystallized around 2710 Ma (James et al. 1992), forms the footwall to the north range of the Sudbury Igneous Complex (SIC) and is juxtaposed against the Cartier granite, which is about 70 m.y. younger (Meldrum et al. 1997; Fig. 15). Uplift of the Levack gneiss, a phase of the evolution of the southern margin of the Superior Province, initiated about 2660–2630 Ma (Wodicka and Card 1995) and is important as a potential source of contaminants for the SIC (e.g. Grieve et al. 1991). Following the uplift, mafic volcanism at the base of the Huronian stratigraphy marks the initial stages of continental rifting. Subsequent sedimentation into the topographical depressions, ending prior to 2200 Ma based on cross-cutting Nipissing dykes, formed the Huronian Supergroup. The region then had a 300 m.y. period of tectonic quiescence prior to experiencing distal effects of the Penokean orogeny.

The Sudbury Igneous Complex (SIC) is a product of crustal melting associated with the meteorite impact at 1850 Ma. As with other impact structures (e.g. Manicouagan in Quebec, Grieve and Head 1983; Haughton on Devon Island, Nunavut, Osinski et al. 2005), the Sudbury Structure was circular when formed but was subsequently altered in its dimensions and shape by post-impact tectonic activity; Figure 16 shows a generalized cross section of the structure prior to deformation. When the impact occurred, the target rocks included both Archean and Huronian units. The source of the metals was likely mafic rocks of the ca. 2.4 Ga East Bull Lake Intrusive Suite (Lightfoot 2016). The melt sheet was a pool of molten rock, magma, up to 2.5 km thick that flooded a large area. As the magma cooled and solidified, different minerals crystallized at different stages, forming different rock types. The mafic minerals crystallized first, forming initially the mafic rock norite (Fig. 17a), and then gabbro; felsic minerals crystallized later and formed the granitic rocks of the SIC (Fig. 17b). Because the ore minerals were heavier, they settled in depressions at the base of the norite layer, which is called the norite sublayer (Fig. 16 legend). Melt-mixing models (Grieve et al. 1991) and geochemical studies of the SIC (Ostermann and Deutsch 1997) provide strong evidence that these SIC rock types are best described by *in situ* differentiation without any need for upper mantle contributions.

The force of the meteorite impact also strongly affected rocks in the Huronian Supergroup, forming shock metamorphic features that are diagnostic of the impact, the most visible of which are shatter cones (Fig. 17c). Post-impact sedimentary rocks, the Whitewater Group, formed within the depression created by the impact and are completely encircled by the SIC (Figs. 15 and 16). The base of the Whitewater Group, the Onaping Formation, was deposited almost instantaneously following the impact (Ames et al. 1998) whereas the Onwatin and Chelmsford groups probably were deposited within a 6 m.y. period following impact (Cowan and Schwerdtner 1994).

Rock Properties and Borehole Logging

Fundamental to the successful interpretation of Sudbury Structure geophysical data, in addition to the geological studies, were results from *in situ* logging and physical rock property measurements. Composite logs from bore holes in the North

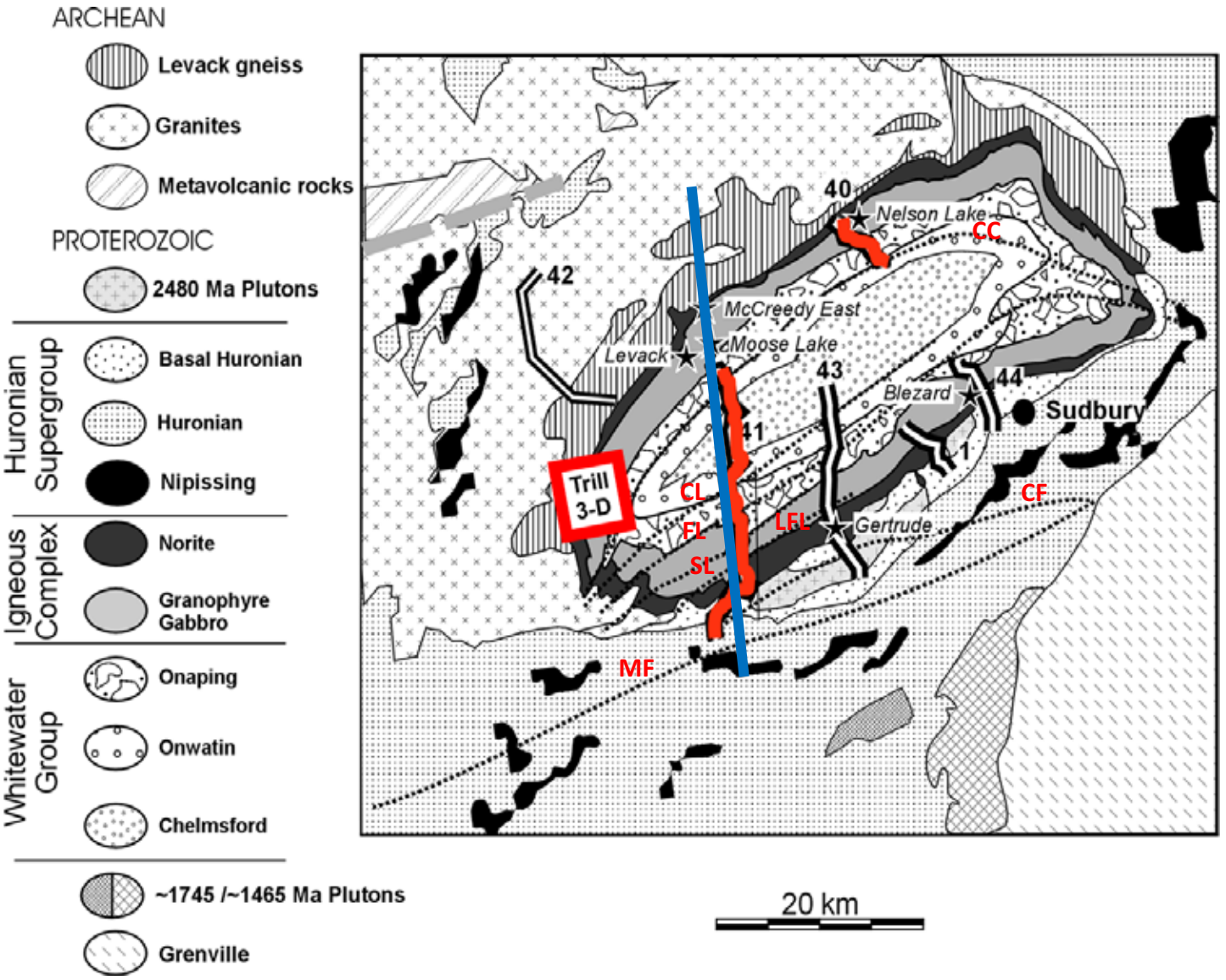

Figure 15. Geology in the region of the Sudbury Structure. Double lines with numbers are locations of reflection profiles; lines 40 and 41 highlighted in red. 'Trill 3-D' is the location of the 3-D reflection survey. Geophysical logs were recorded at borehole locations; named and indicated by stars. Blue line shows approximate location of gravity and magnetic cross sections. Dotted lines show faults: CC, Cameron Creek; CF, Creighton; CL, Cameron Lake; FL, Fairbank Lake; LFL, Little Fairbank Lake; MF, Murray; SL, Skill Lake. In legend, 'Granites' includes the Cartier granite. Modified from Adam et al. (2000).

Range were generated to provide complete logging sections through all the major rock units of the Sudbury Structure (Fig. 18). These were supplemented by full waveform sonic logs and 3-component vertical seismic profiling (VSP) measurements to identify unequivocally the sources of reflection events from the seismic reflection profiles. In general, the highest seismic velocities and densities were found in the footwall breccia due to an overall increase in mafic mineral content. The lowest seismic velocities were in the lower felsic norite layer, although this layer showed an increase in density relative to the thicker felsic norite layer (Fig. 18). Within the norite sublayer, electrical resistivity decreased significantly (conductivity increased) and magnetic susceptibility increased significantly, relative to other rocks of the SIC (Fig. 18). Drill core samples made available by the mining companies enabled laboratory measurements of densities and compressional wave velocities (Fig. 18) that further aided interpretations of seismic, gravity and magnetic profiles.

Geophysical Data across the SIC

Two-dimensional seismic reflection data from lines 40 and 41 (Fig. 15; Wu et al. 1995) were compiled into a reflection profile across the Sudbury Structure and a composite interpretation was overlain (Fig. 19). The North Range interpretation is solidly based on borehole data and rock property measurements, enabling projection of the surface geology to depth, for example the SIC-footwall contact to ~9 km. However, the seismic data show that the symmetry that might be expected from an impact is not present; asymmetry is pronounced. This is the result of post-impact shortening that is manifest along a series

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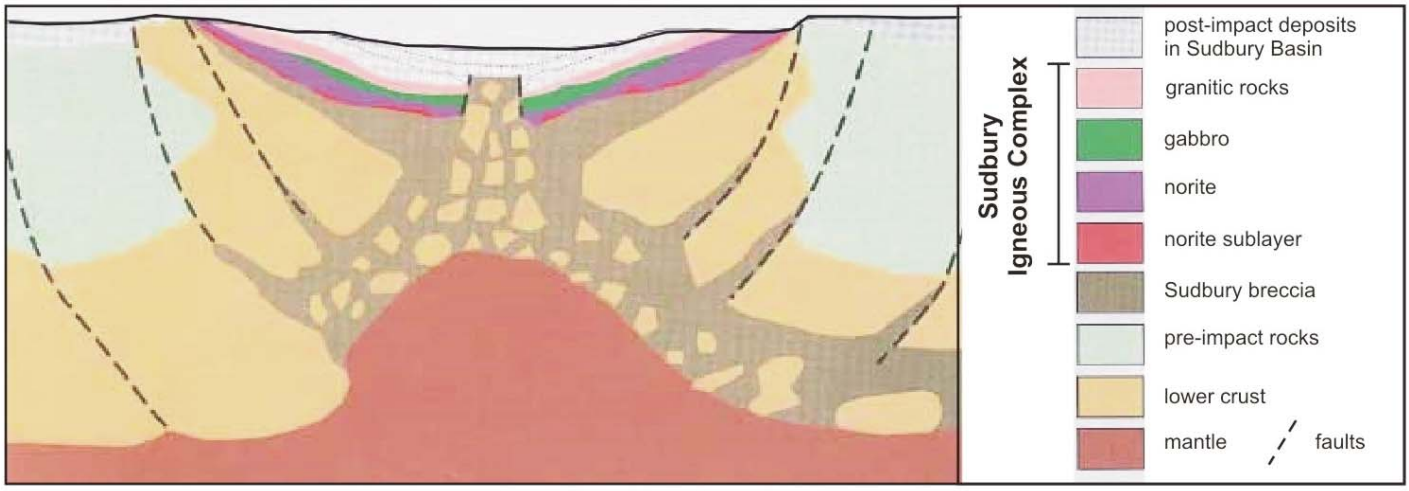

Figure 16. Generalized cross section of the Sudbury Structure following the impact event; legend on the right. Prepared, with permission, from Fensome et al. (2014).

of south-dipping reflections that represent zones of high shear strain rate, interpreted as thrust faults (Fig. 19; Boerner et al. 2000). Thus, most of the South Range of the SIC represents a north-vergent shear zone. This geometry is reinforced by electromagnetic studies that indicate a south-dipping conductive layer beneath the shear zone (Fig. 19; Boerner et al. 1994). The subsurface interpretation below the South Range shows that some of the stratigraphy is overturned, perhaps indicating positions where future deposits might be found.

Gravity data for the SIC and surrounding areas existed before the Lithoprobe studies, although some new data were acquired along the seismic lines. Using the newly interpreted seismic reflection images as a guide, McGrath and Broome (1994) showed that profile features along line 41 could be explained by defining lithological units based on the reflection interpretation and assigning these bodies the rock densities measured in the laboratory on exposed samples (Fig. 20a). Aeromagnetic and proprietary high-resolution magnetic data were also made available for Lithoprobe studies. These were supplemented by new measurements of magnetic susceptibility and natural remanent magnetization (NRM) from rock outcrops (Morris et al. 1992). Based on this information and the seismic structural interpretation, Hearst et al. (1994) were able to demonstrate that the observed magnetic field could be modelled with an appropriate assignment of susceptibilities and NRM (Fig. 20b). In the North Range, an enriched phase of the Levack gneiss complex, dykes and a depleted phase of the gneiss were interpreted. In the South Range, zones of hydrothermal mineralization (e.g. altered norite) and dykes could explain the magnetic signature. In both cases the seismic interpretation was fundamental to the potential field modelling.

TRILL 3-D Seismic Experiment

Based on the success of 2-D reflection profiling, numerous physical rock property studies in mining areas (e.g. Salisbury et al. 2003), borehole geophysical logging and forward modelling studies of seismic wave propagation, a decision was made in 1995 to conduct the first 3-D seismic survey for deep mineral exploration in Canada (Milkereit et al. 2000). The Trill area of the SIC (Fig. 15) was selected because a deep (1800 m) massive sulphide deposit had been discovered but not yet mined, thereby providing a target with relatively low background noise, since active mining infrastructure was not yet in place. A 3-D survey requires an areal distribution of sources and receivers; Figure 21a illustrates that used for the Trill experiment, is approximately 30 km^2. Extensive data processing is necessary to obtain the best quality seismic image. Borehole logs indicated that the lower contact of the SIC and associated footwall topography could be imaged. As shown by the vertical cross-section in Figure 21b, this prediction was justified. The norite sublayer and associated topography of the footwall complex are well imaged.

Typically, a massive sulphide deposit is not sufficiently large to generate a seismic reflection, even with its high impedance contrast with host rocks. This is the result of limitations in resolution of the method. However, such a deposit can generate scattered waves that have some coherency [think of a pebble dropped into a pond and the ensuing circular waves]. Modelling studies had validated that a local high impedance contrast (a dipping lens) at depth could generate observable scattered waves. Figure 21c summarizes the main results from the Trill 3-D study. The steeply dipping footwall contact, the location of the known mineralization and the associated seismic scattering response caused by the ore deposit are shown. The experiment was highly successful.

URANIUM DEPOSITS, ATHABASCA BASIN, NW SASKATCHEWAN

The Mesoproterozoic Athabasca Basin, located in northwestern Saskatchewan and northeastern Alberta (no. 5, Fig. 1), comprises an undeformed sedimentary sequence that unconformably overlies basement rocks of the Archean Hearne and Rae provinces. It is one of the world's most prolific producers of uranium from its characteristically high-grade unconformity-type deposits and is the only current uranium producer in

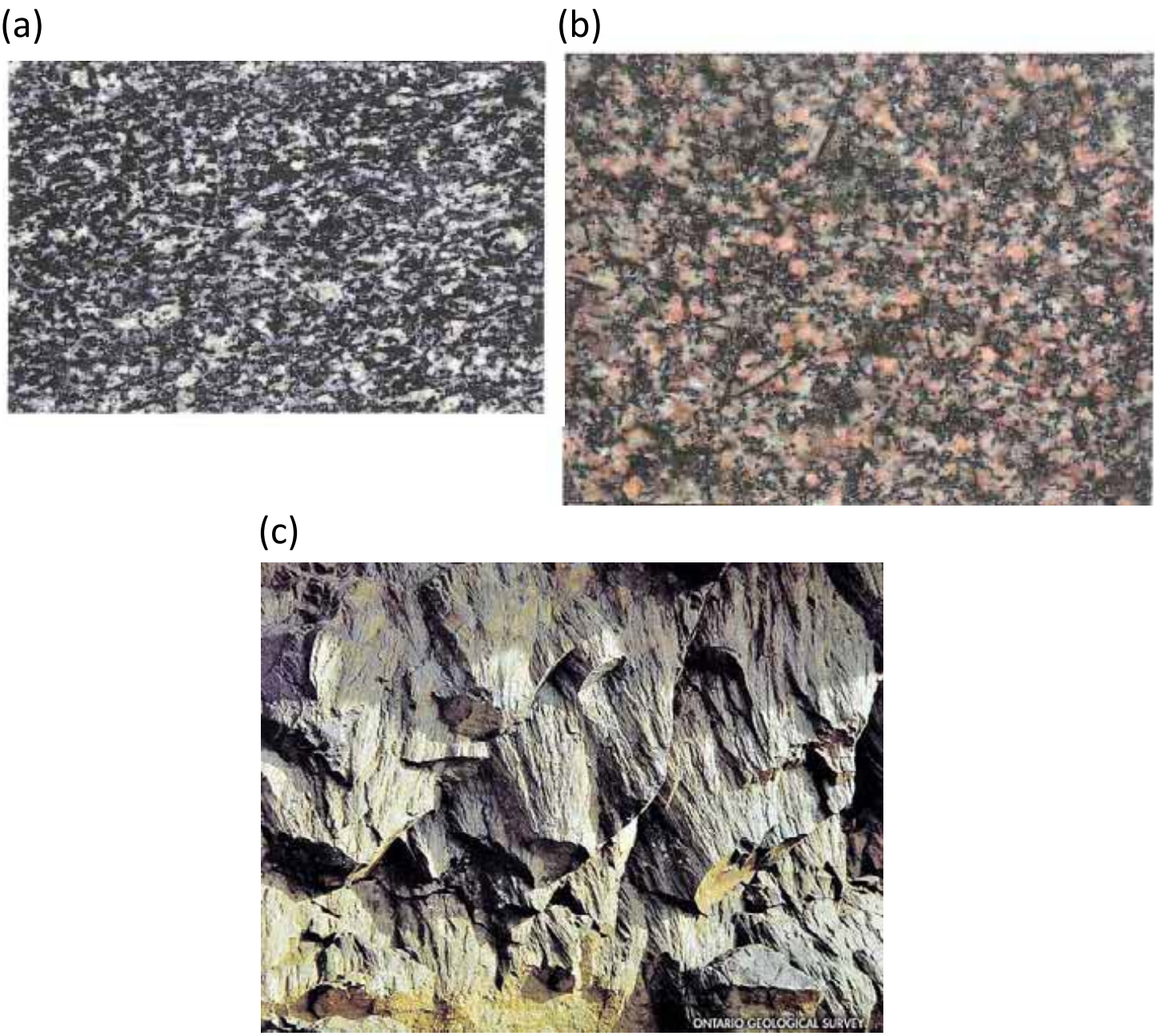

Figure 17. Photographs of rocks derived from the Sudbury Structure: a) lower noritic melt; b) upper granitic melt; c) shatter cones developed in Paleoproterozoic (Huronian) metasandstone. Prepared, with permission, from Fensome et al. (2014); a) and b) courtesy Tom Muir, Ontario Geological Survey; c) courtesy Ontario Geological Survey.

Canada. The eastern part of the basin, which includes most of the uranium mines, is underlain by the Mudjatik and Wollaston domains of the Hearne Province and the transition zone between them (Fig. 22). Archean granitic to granodioritic to tonalite orthogneiss units mainly comprise these domains. They are stratigraphically overlain by and structurally intercalated with the Paleoproterozoic Wollaston Group supracrustal package (Annesley et al. 2005). The basement rocks were intensely deformed and metamorphosed as a result of the collision of the Hearne and Superior provinces during the Trans-Hudson orogeny (ca. 1.8 Ga), which led to the development of the Wollaston fold and thrust belt. The western part of the basin, which includes one mine and an active prospect, is underlain by the Lloyd, Clearwater and Tantato domains of the Rae Province (Card et al. 2007; Fig. 22). However, the basement geology of these domains below the basin is not well established. The Paleoproterozoic Clearwater domain, comprising biotite granite that intruded older granitic gneiss, is younger than the Lloyd domain and is juxtaposed between the latter's eastern and western segments.

Lithoprobe became involved with seismic reflection studies in the Athabasca Basin as part of the project's Trans-Hudson Orogen transect (e.g. Hajnal et al. 2005a). Line S2B, acquired in 1994 for crustal studies, extended northward from the west-

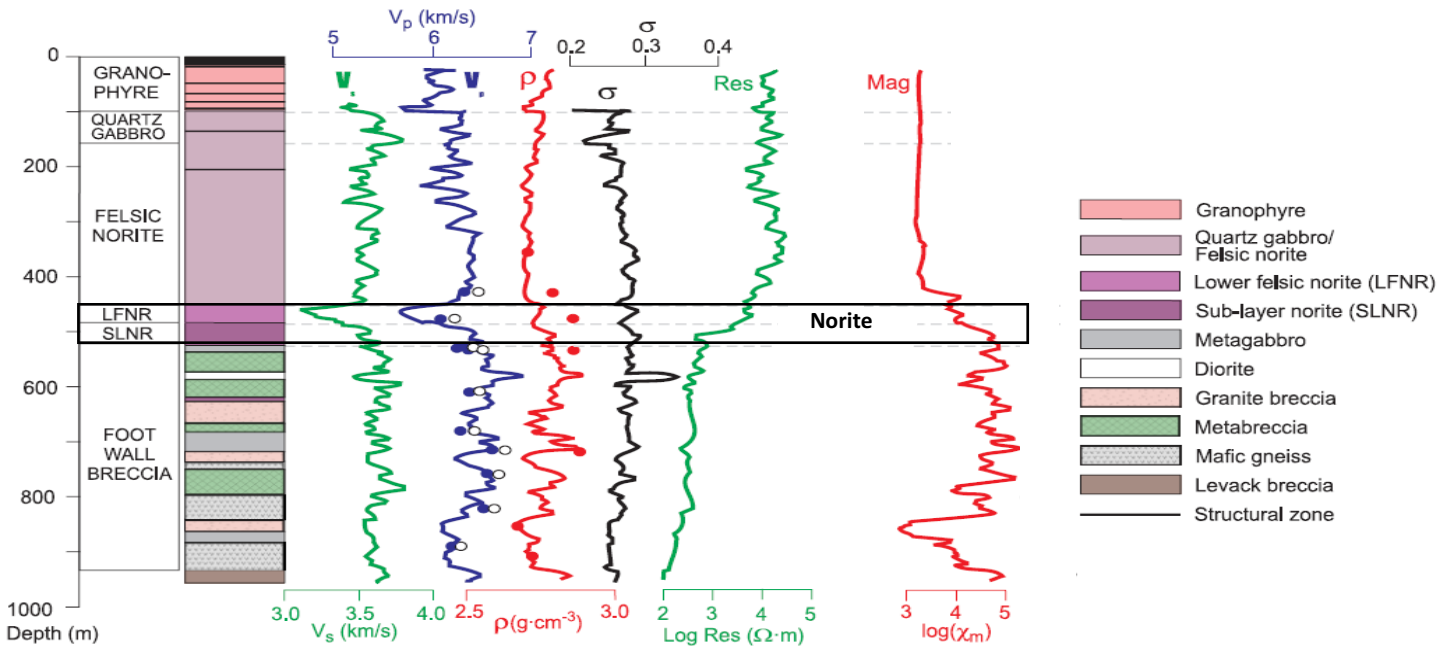

Figure 18. *In situ* geology and logging results from a 980 m borehole in the North Range of the Sudbury Structure. V_p and V_s, compressional- and shear-wave velocity, respectively; ϱ, density; σ, Poisson's ratio; Res, resistivity; Mag, magnetic; χ_m, magnetic susceptibility. Circles on the V_p log represent laboratory measurements on water-saturated cores at lithostatic pressure (solid circles) and 600 MPa (open circles). Solid circles in the relative density log are from core sample measurements. Norite layers are highlighted. Modified from Boerner et al. (2000); after White et al. (1994).

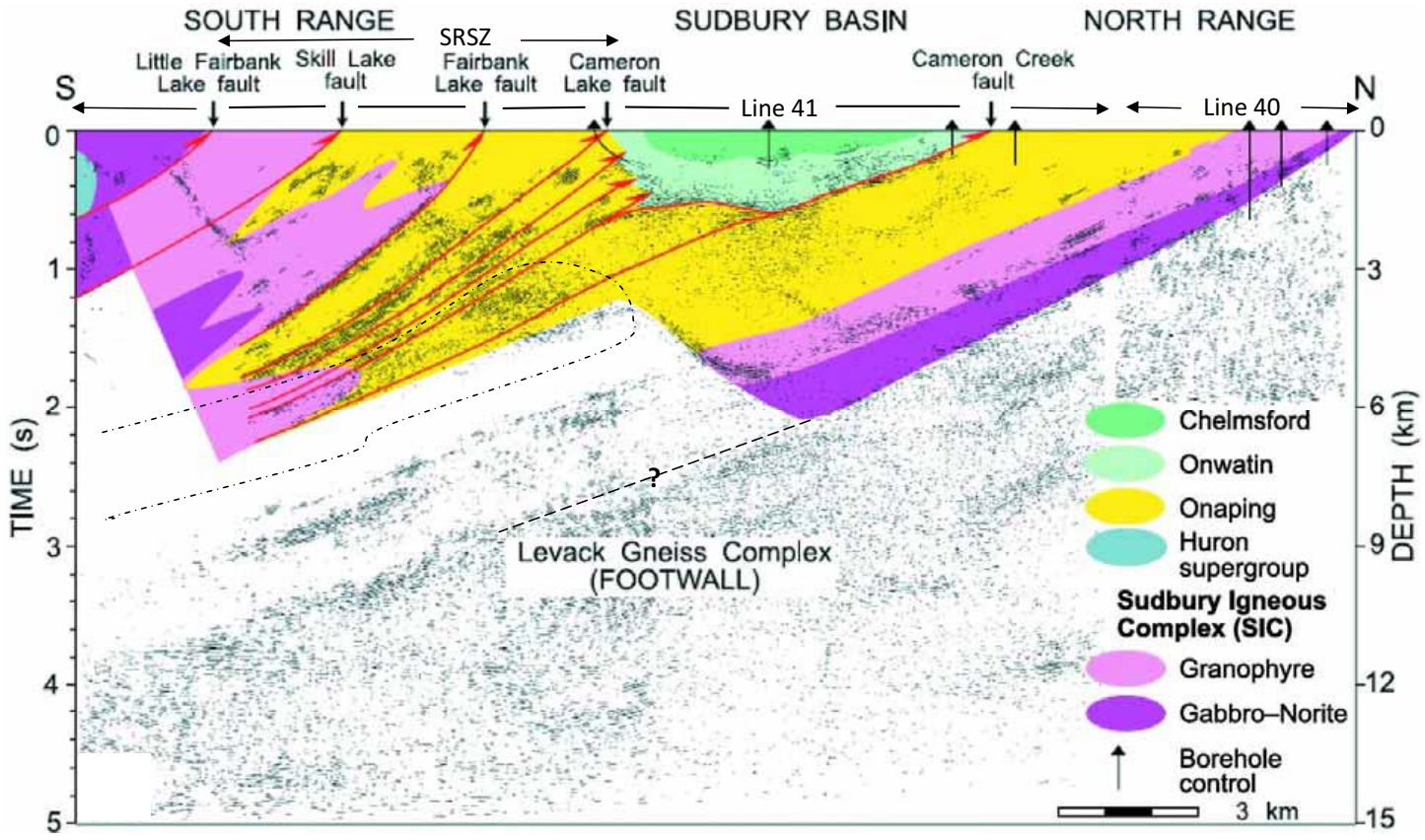

Figure 19. Geological interpretation of the composite migrated seismic section, lines 41 and 40; line locations in Figure 15. The dash-dot line below the South Range outlines the area of high conductivity interpreted by Boerner et al. (1994). SRSZ, South Range shear zone. Modified from Eaton et al. (2010); after Wu et al. (1995).

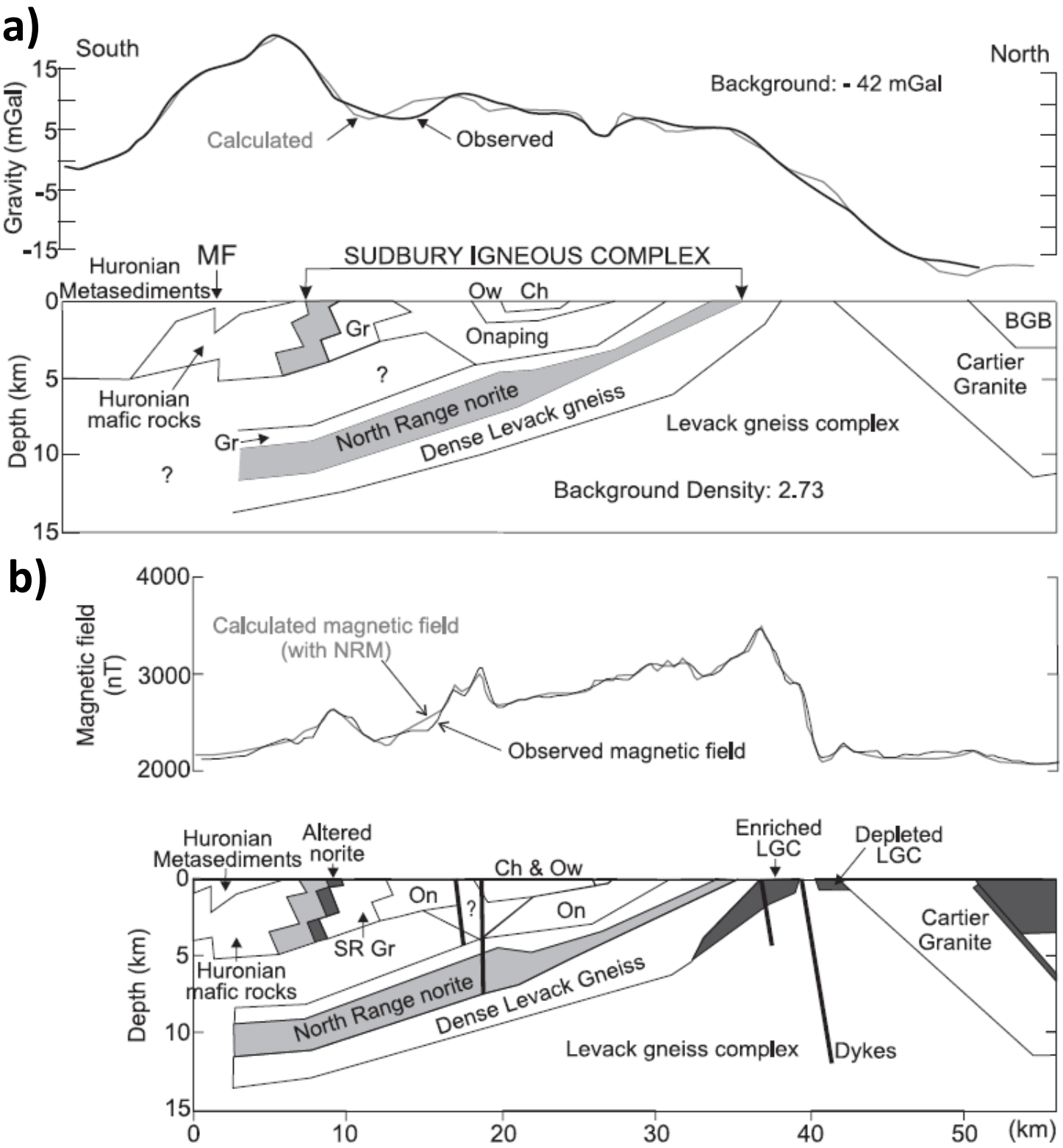

Figure 20. a) Gravity profile data and interpreted density model; location in Figure 15. Norite is shaded grey. From Boerner et al. (2000), after McGrath and Broome (1994). b) Magnetic profile and interpreted susceptibility model; location in Figure 15. From Boerner et al. (2000), after Hearst et al. (1994). BGB, Benny greenstone belt; Ch, Chelmsford; Gr, granophyre; LGC, Levack gneiss complex; MF, Murray fault zone; NRM, natural remanent magnetization; On, Onaping; Ow, Onwatin; SR, South Range.

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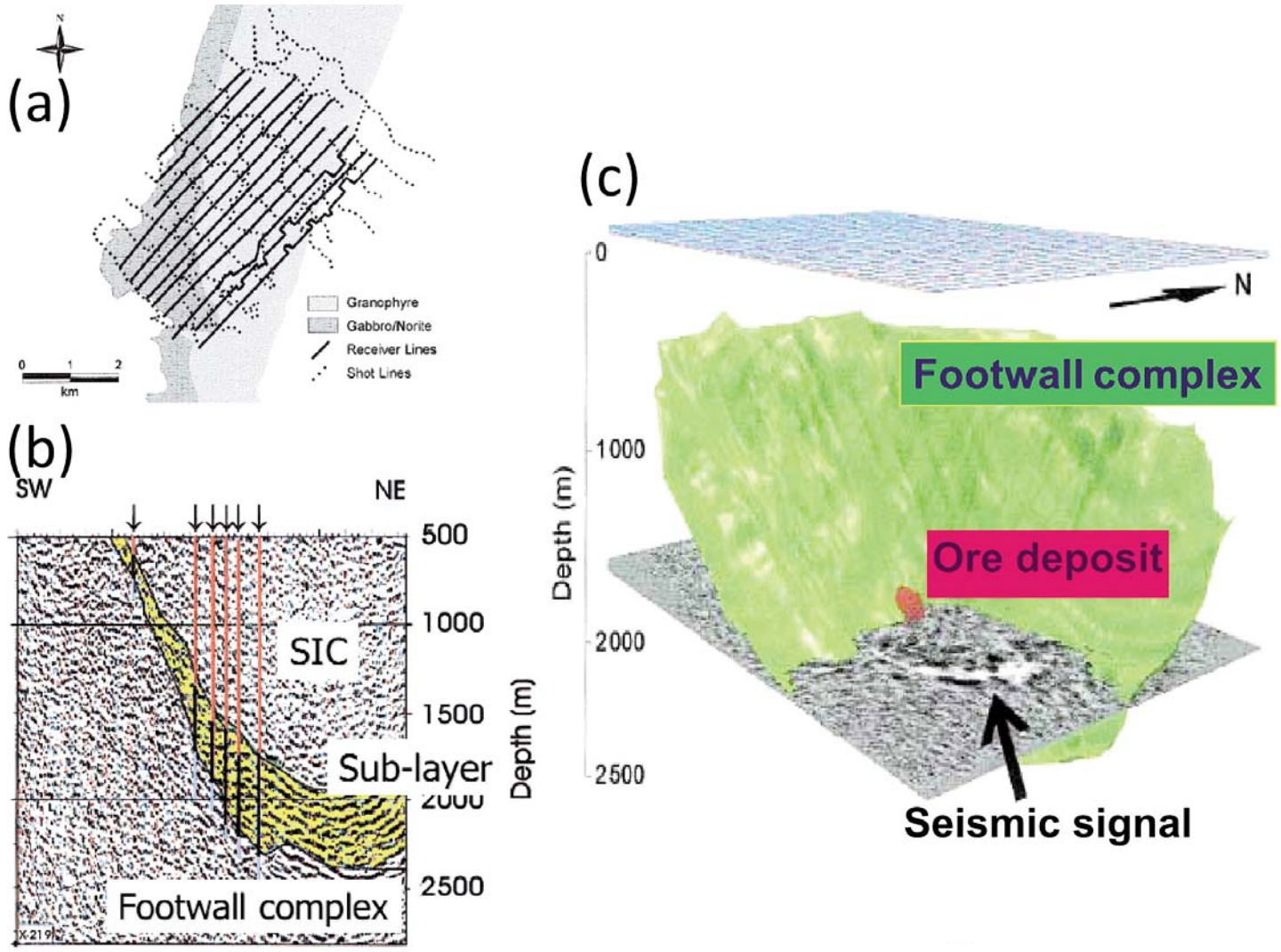

Figure 21. a) Plan view of the survey grid for the Trill 3-D seismic experiment and Trill area geology. b) Depth-migrated vertical section from the processed Trill 3-D survey with interpretation overlay showing the Sudbury Igneous Complex (SIC), the sublayer and the footwall complex. Arrows identify boreholes: red line segments, SIC; black line segments, sublayer; blue line segments, footwall complex. c) Composite perspective view of interpreted footwall contact (green) derived from migrated reflection data, known mineralization at 1800 m depth (red), and seismic scattering event (indicated by the arrow), evident on the time slice at 612 ms (~1600 m), caused by the mineralization. The pixelated grid is shown at the surface. Figures modified from Milkereit et al. (2000).

ern part of the internides of the orogen, across the Wathaman Batholith, Peter Lake domain, Wollaston domain and into the easternmost Athabasca Basin (Fig. 22; Hajnal et al. 2005b). With funds and supporting logistics from uranium companies operating in the eastern Athabasca Basin, a 32 km-long high resolution line, S2D, was run from the Wollaston domain into the basin (Fig. 22). The objective was to image the unconformity and the underlying basement structures, two fundamental requirements of any exploration program in the basin. The results (see below) were highly successful. As a result of this success, various uranium companies continued to support the acquisition of high-resolution seismic reflection data in areas of prime interest. In addition to Line S2D, this section highlights results from the western basin, the Shea Creek study, and the eastern basin, the McArthur River project that included a low-fold, irregularly sampled 3-dimensional study tied to borehole information.

Geological Background – Athabasca Basin

The Athabasca Basin consists of up to 1800 m of Mesoproterozoic sedimentary rocks comprising mainly fluvial sandstone units of the Athabasca Group unconformably underlain by peneplaned tectonometamorphic complexes (e.g. Ramaekers et al. 2007; Hajnal et al. 2010). The Athabasca Group is overlain by Quaternary till deposits varying in thickness from 0 to 90 m (Schreiner 1983). Figure 23 illustrates the lithostratigraphy of the basin, which comprises four sequences bounded by unconformities (e.g. Ramaekers et al. 2007). These indicate repeated deposition and erosion over a period of about 200 m.y. (Jefferson et al. 2007). The Fairpoint Formation comprises sequence 1 but is confined to the western part of the basin. Sequence 2, including the Smart, Read and Manitou Falls formations, represents the bulk of the Athabasca Group. It overlies basement except in the west, where it unconformably overlies the Fairpoint Formation. Within sequence 2,

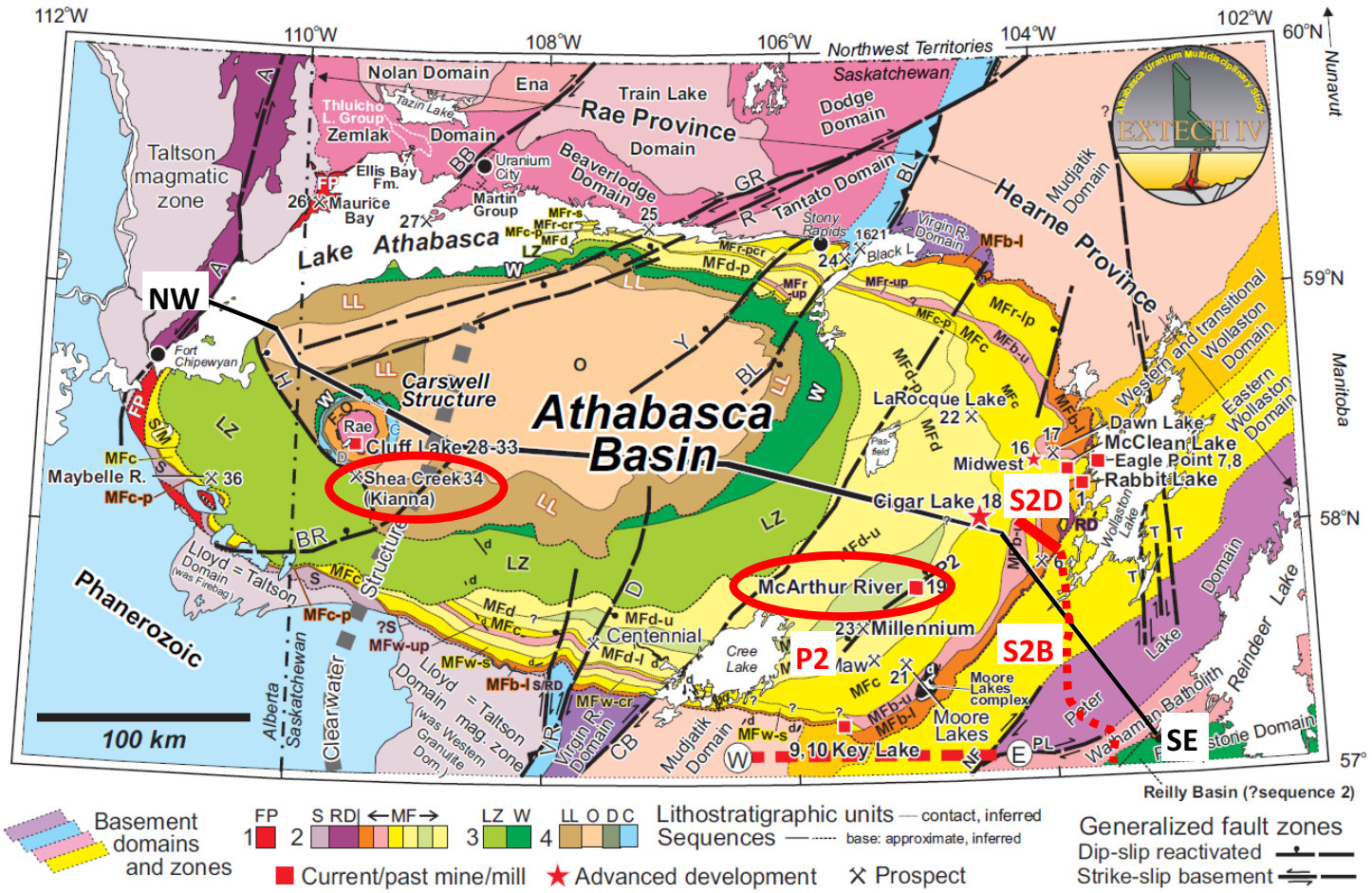

Figure 22. Geological setting and unconformity-associated uranium occurrences (numbered) of the Athabasca Basin region of northern Saskatchewan and Alberta. Symbols and fonts are slightly larger for more significant occurrences. Abbreviations for geological sequences, formations and members shown in the legend: Sequence 1: FP, Fair Point; Sequence 2: S, Smart; RD, Read; MF, Manitou Falls (members identified with different colours and letters on map); Sequence 3: LZ, Lazenby Lake; W, Wolverine Point; Sequence 4: LL, Locker Lake; O, Otherside (also called William River); D, Douglas; C, Carswell. P2 identifies the P2 reactivated thrust fault. The black line NW–SE is the location of the cross-section in Figure 23. Seismic lines S2D and S2B are located. Red ellipses highlight the two deposit areas discussed in this section. For further information, see Jefferson et al. (2007) from which the map was extracted.

the dominant Manitou Falls Formation comprises five members, as illustrated. The Lazenby Lake and Wolverine Point formations form sequence 3. They are overlain by sequence 4, comprising the Locker Lake, Otherside, Douglas and Carswell formations. Most of the Athabasca Group consists of sandstone units, mainly quartz arenite. The Fairpoint and Manitou Falls formations include subordinate and discontinuous mudstone. Moderate but distinctive amounts of mudstone and siltstone are found in the Wolverine Point Formation. These same units are abundant in the Douglas Formation, whereas the uppermost Carswell Formation is primarily dolostone.

To constrain the timing of deposition and to provide quantitative constraints on a regional provenance model for the Athabasca Group, detrital zircon ages from five samples representing a variety of stratigraphic levels (Fig. 23) were determined using U–Pb SHRIMP procedures (Rayner et al. 2003; Rainbird et al. 2007). Figures 24a and b illustrate such studies for samples from the Dunlop member of the Manitou Falls Formation; Figure 24c shows cumulative results for all five samples. In terms of timing of deposition, the youngest detrital zircon in each sample provides a maximum age of sediment deposition. For the 5 samples, the youngest zircon grains represent ages from 1662 Ma (the youngest age) for the Wolverine Point Formation to 1819 Ma for the Bird member of the Manitou Falls Formation. The Fair Point Formation is the oldest unit and has a youngest zircon age of 1810 Ma, indicating that the Athabasca Basin formed after that time. Considering these detrital zircon ages and geological information, interpretation of basin development suggests that the major basal section was deposited from about 1740 Ma to 1730 Ma whereas deposition of the upper section took place around 1640 Ma to 1630 Ma (Rainbird et al. 2007). Paleocurrent studies for the region show a predominantly westerly directed flow (Ramaekers et al. 2001). In a much earlier study but consistent with this result, Fraser et al. (1970) suggested that the Athabasca Group, among other Mesoproterozoic sedimentary basins in northwest North America, is the remnant of a once broad sand sheet deposited by a westerly directed fluvial system onto the Canadian Shield. In an alternative view based on geometry, sequence architecture, east-west elongation and dish-shaped outline of the basin, Rainbird et al. (2007) suggest that the Athabasca Basin was formed by a broad thermal subsidence

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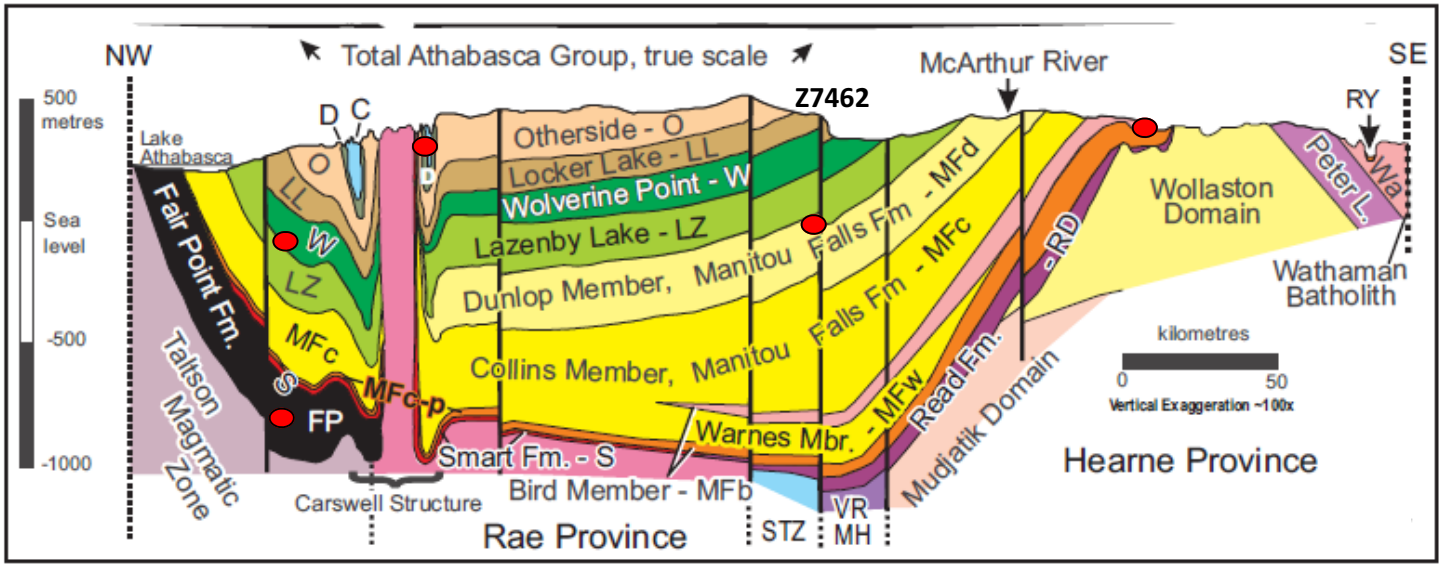

Figure 23. Lithostratigraphic cross-section of the Athabasca Basin; line of section is shown as NW–SE in Figure 22. True 1:1 scale is shown at top. Stratigraphic units in the vertically exaggerated section are formations except those starting with MF, which are members of the Manitou Falls Formation. Basement domains are diagrammatic. Black vertical lines are projected drill holes; Z7462 is the location of detrital zircon samples from the Manitou Falls Formation (see Fig. 24). Red dots show the locations of the detrital zircon samples with respect to the stratigraphy (from Rainbird et al. 2007). Figure modified from Jefferson et al. (2007).

mechanism that was probably unrelated to the Trans-Hudson Orogen to the east.

As shown in Figure 24c, ages of detrital zircon grains from the five samples display a clear bimodal distribution into Neoarchean and Paleoproterozoic components (Rainbird et al. 2007). More specifically, sequences 1 and 2 (representing the early part of development of the Athabasca Basin and the bulk of the Athabasca Group) have ages that indicate older provenance from the Rae Province and Sask craton (sequence 1) and from the Hearne Province (sequence 2). The younger provenance was influenced by an extensive mountain belt in the east, the now-exhumed Trans-Hudson Orogen. The Wolverine Point Formation of sequence 3 shows similar provenance but also includes some enigmatic younger detrital zircon grains (ca. 1770–1650 Ma) from which Rainbird et al. (2007) suggested a source more than 1000 km to the south, the Yavapai and Mazatzal orogens south of the Archean Wyoming Province. Results for the Douglas Formation of sequence 4 are similar to those for the Wolverine Point Formation without the younger zircon grains; Rainbird et al. (2007) suggested this indicates reworking of lower units from the Athabasca Group.

The unconformity with basement, which is the locus of the uranium deposits, is a red, hematitic regolith, 0 to 70 m thick, that grades downward through green, chlorite-altered rock into fresh basement rocks. Jefferson et al. (2007) have interpreted the regolith as being due to regional paleoweathering overprinted by hydrothermal alteration of basement gneiss beneath the unconformity. In addition to these processes, two other types of regional-scale alteration have been recognized: basin-wide pre-ore diagenetic sandstone alteration and sub-basin-scale alteration halos that outline trends and clusters of uranium deposits. The alterations are significant because Kyser et al. (2000) have suggested from a three-basin comparison that more intense alteration is associated with higher overall potential for uranium deposits. The sandstone and underlying basement rocks have been subjected to several episodes of brittle deformation, including repeated brittle reactivation of older ductile structures with offsets on the order of tens to hundreds of metres (Jefferson et al. 2007).

The Uranium Deposits

The unconformity-type uranium deposits are pods, veins and semi-massive bodies located close to the basement unconformity and are generally near re-activated crustal shear zones associated with the Trans-Hudson Orogen (Annesley et al. 2005; Jefferson et al. 2007). They consist principally of uraninite that is dated mainly between 1600 and 1350 Ma. While the morphology and other details of individual deposits vary considerably, they range between end-member styles that reflect both stratigraphic and structural control (Fig. 25; Thomas et al. 2000; Jefferson et al. 2007).

At one end of the generalized range are monometallic deposits, containing only uranium (Fig. 25). These are usually spatially associated with basement fracture zones with steep to moderate dips that extend along strike for hundreds of metres and down dip for tens to hundreds of metres below the basement unconformity. The high-grade ores are found in individual lenses ranging from massive pods that can be 100 m or more in vertical extent, 90 m in length and 50 m in width to small pods that are only 1 to 2 m thick and 3 to 5 m in vertical dimension (Jefferson et al. 2007). Mining grades typically run at 0.5 to 2% U but the world-class McArthur River deposit (see below) grades about 20 to 25%.

At the other end of the general range are polymetallic deposits that contain variable amounts of U, Ni, Co, As and traces of Au, PGEs, Cu, REEs and Fe (Fig. 25). They are generally developed along and just above the unconformity in the overlying sandstone and conglomerate of the Athabasca

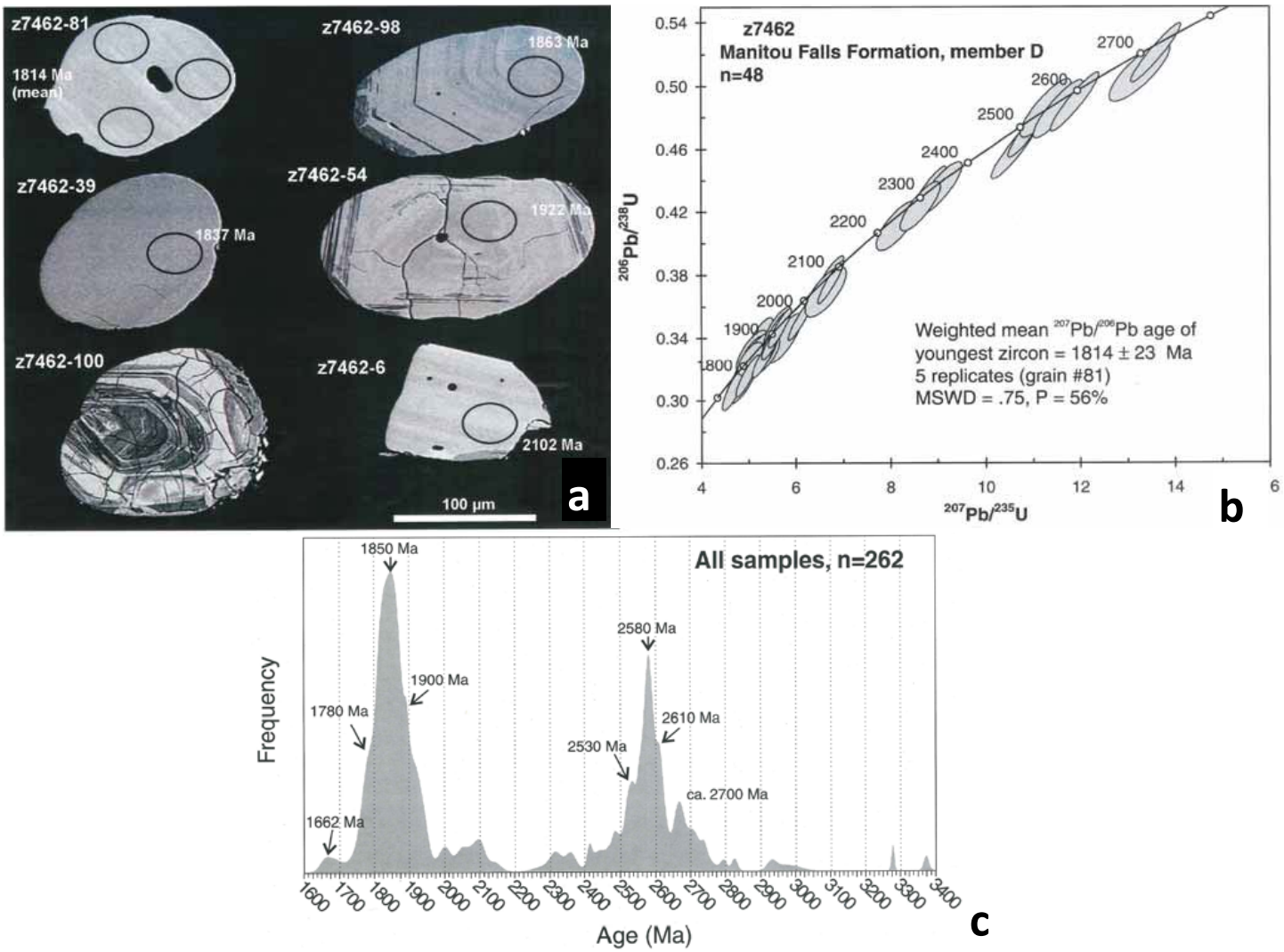

Figure 24. a) Backscattered-electron images of a representative selection of zircon grains from sample Z7462 from the Dunlop member (MFd), Manitou Falls Formation. Ellipses represent approximate locations of SHRIMP analysis. Spot $^{207}Pb/^{206}Pb$ ages are shown. b) Concordia diagram of U–Pb results for sample Z7462 showing an age of 1814 Ma. Error ellipses are 2σ. c) Cumulative probability curve of compiled SHRIMP U–Pb detrital zircon age results for five samples from the Athabasca Basin sandstone. All figures from Rayner et al. (2003).

Group. The ore is typically formed as flattened elongate pods to flattened linear ore bodies and may have root-like extensions into the basement, giving a T-shaped cross-section (Jefferson et al. 2007). Sizes of the unconformity-hosted ore deposits range about the same as fault-hosted ones but their major dimensions are horizontal. They are typically characterized by a low-grade halo with less than 1% U surrounding a high-grade core of 1 to 15% U. However, the major Cigar Lake deposit (Fig. 22) has an average grade of about 21%. It is huge with a strike length of 1900 m, a width of 50 to 100 m and an upward convex lens-shaped cross-section up to 20 m thick.

High-Resolution Seismic Studies

In order for high-resolution seismic reflection methods to be applicable for uranium exploration, the acoustic properties of the rocks within the basin and the basement must have sufficient contrast to generate reflected energy. Prior to the 1994 Lithoprobe seismic survey, Hajnal et al. (1983) presented some petrophysical studies of rocks in the Athabasca Basin and showed that, at least in some cases, appropriate contrasts did exist. With the successful test reflection profile of Line S2D in 1994 (see below), further efforts to determine acoustic properties of such rocks were undertaken. These included geophysical logging surveys, laboratory measurements on core samples, measured mineral properties and results from vertical seismic profiling (e.g. Mwenifumbo et al. 2004; White et al. 2007).

The stratigraphic units of the Athabasca Basin (Fig. 23) show no distinct acoustic properties and thus the basin-fill sedimentary rocks generally have weak reflectivity. The unconformity is characterized by complex, laterally variable chemical alteration and thus shows variable acoustic properties. Normally, the unaltered sandstone–basement contact is a strong reflector but if the overlying sandstone is silicified, reflections will not be as strong but still readily visible (Hajnal et al. 2010). The presence of a pronounced regolith can further reduce the strength of the reflected energy. When unconformity-related

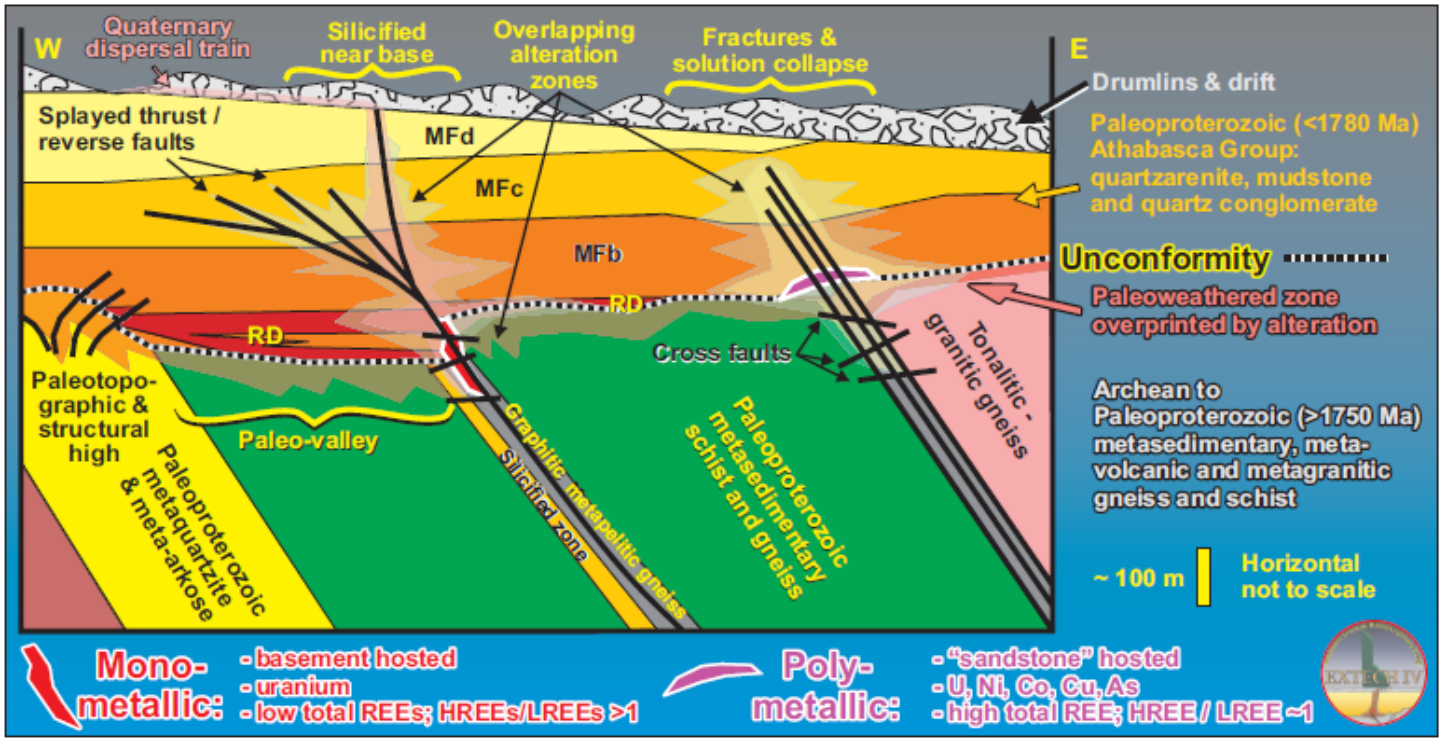

Figure 25. Generalized geological elements of mono- and polymetallic unconformity-associated uranium deposits in the eastern part of the Athabasca Basin. The empirical geological model illustrates two end-member styles of ore exemplified by McArthur River (monometallic) and Cigar Lake (polymetallic) ore deposits (locations in Fig. 22). A complete spectrum of styles between the end members is known, even within single deposits and deposit groups. MFb, MFc and MFd, members of the Manitou Falls Formation; RD, Read Formation. Figure from Jefferson et al. (2007).

reflections are observed on the seismic section, faults within the basement are often revealed by small offsets in the reflections.

The Lithoprobe Test – Line S2D, Eastern Athabasca Basin

To determine the efficacy of high-resolution seismic for the purpose of uranium exploration in the Athabasca Basin, a 32 km-long reflection line, S2D, was recorded in the eastern basin along the northernmost extent of Lithoprobe's regional reflection line S2B (locations in Fig. 22). The unconformity was well imaged along the line and its depth, determined from traveltimes and velocity information, was well constrained, having an accuracy of ± 5% or better when compared with borehole information (Fig. 26; Hajnal et al. 2010). On the basis of reflection offsets along the unconformity, numerous steeply dipping faults that penetrate from the basement into the overlying sandstone were recognized (Fig. 26). Where the basin ended toward the southeastern end of the 32 km-long line, the reflection from the unconformity was lost (Hajnal et al. 2010). However, a slightly deeper reflection from the exposed basement showed that the latter can be reflective when pelitic gneiss and Archean volcanic rocks are in contact (Hajnal et al. 1997). The success of Line S2D led to continued application of high-resolution seismic surveys in areas with substantial geological information that were funded entirely by the uranium industry. Essentially, Lithoprobe demonstrated a new approach for exploration in the Athabasca Basin.

Shea Creek, Western Athabasca Basin

Following the success of the Lithoprobe test line in the eastern basin, a reflection survey was carried out in the western basin in 1997. The Shea Creek study was conducted ~15 km south of an existing uranium mine, Cluff Lake (Fig. 22). An unusual feature of the mine is that it is located at the southern margin of the basement core of the Carswell Structure (Figs. 22, 23), which is interpreted as a meteorite impact structure (e.g. Grieve and Masaitis 1994). Uplift of the central core of the structure is considered to be responsible for transport of the uranium deposits to the near-surface (Baudemont and Fedorowich 1996). However, no genetic relationship between the ore and the impact structure exists; the main mineralization is the result of a hydrothermal event at ~1100 ± 50 Ma (Hajnal et al. 2015).

Within the Shea Creek study area (Fig. 27a), borehole logging has shown that the lithostratigraphic succession from depth to surface comprises Manitou Falls Formation's MFc and MFd of sequence 2, Lazenby Lake and Wolverine formations of sequence 3 and Locker Lake Formation of sequence 4. Subsequent well-log data investigations (SHE-105 and -22, Fig. 27a) demonstrated that *P*-wave velocity, measured density and fracture density can be used to identify contrasting lithological features and anomalous zones, due mainly to porosity variations, within the Athabasca Group and at the basement unconformity (Fig. 27b; Mwenifumbo et al. 2004). The crossplot of Figure 27b shows a well-separated diversity of the alteration clusters. Variations and differences in seismic imped-

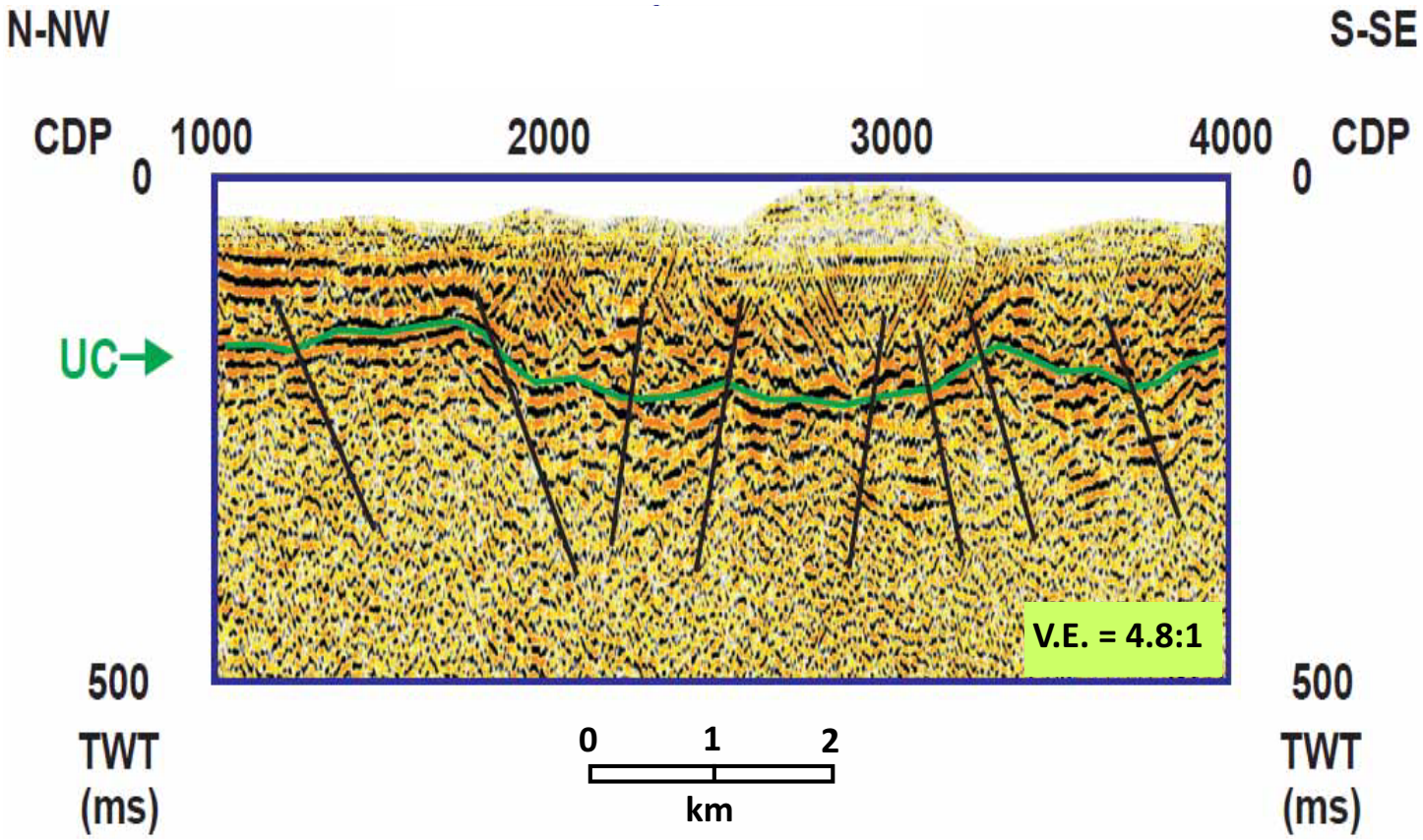

Figure 26. Enlarged example of the seismic image of the unconformity (UC) and associated fault system that extends from the basement into the overlying sandstone as observed on Lithoprobe's high resolution seismic profile S2D (location in Fig. 22). Figure from Hajnal et al. (2010).

ance, the product of velocity and density, control the seismic response in a survey. Thus, such surveys may identify target regions of mineralization that are associated with highly altered basement structural zones.

The reflection survey in the Shea Creek area (Fig. 27a) was the first fully industry-sponsored seismic survey in the Athabasca Basin. Its objectives included establishing the conditions by which such surveys can be effectively used for exploration in this geological setting, mapping the unconformity and its depth variations, and imaging the structural variations within the underlying basement complex. Figure 28 shows the migrated depth section and its interpretation for the 32 km, N–S trending line WAS-1. The northern 5 km (common-depth-point (CDP) locations 12000 to 10000) are within the Cluff Lake mine area and investigate the most southerly part of the basement uplift. The locally consistent incoherent images outline the uplift; interruption of short horizontal segments of reflectivity mark high-angle fracture zones. South of this region, the unconformity is identified by strong reflections in the basement forming an arcuate shape, part of the ring graben associated with the impact structure, within which up to 1.5 km of Athabasca Group sedimentary rocks reside. Within the sedimentary rocks, normal faults are identified, steeply dipping between CDPs 10000 and 8000, and more listric between CDPs 8000 and 6000. This interpretation is consistent with borehole geological data (e.g. DGS-4). The unconformity (UC) also is clearly identified in the remaining half of the section (south of CDP 6000, Fig. 28). Within the basement, strong and consistent reflectivity is observed (Fig. 28). The steeply north-dipping faults (A), just below the unconformity, are features generated by the impact process. The gently southwest dipping shear zones (B), just on the right side of the figure, reveal the brittle reactivation of the original tectonic structures. The gently curving, subparallel dotted lines (C) are recognized as the remnant of the first phase ductile deformation of the area (Hajnal et al. 2015). Elsewhere in the basin, the interconnection of the fracture zones with the unconformity has been recognized as pathways for the fluid migrations responsible for the ore mineralization deposition (e.g. Hajnal et al. 2007).

One of the characteristics noted on all four seismic lines (Fig. 27a) is local anomalous variations in seismic reflectivity in the vicinity of distinct basement structures (e.g. Fig. 28c). Reduction in the reflectivity of the unconformity accompanied by a depression of 25–30 m indicated variable alterations within the overlying sandstone. The spatial projection of the four anomalous zones outlines a northwest-trending line that correlates with a basement fault. Subsequent drilling along the trend delineated new ore deposits (Hajnal et al. 2015).

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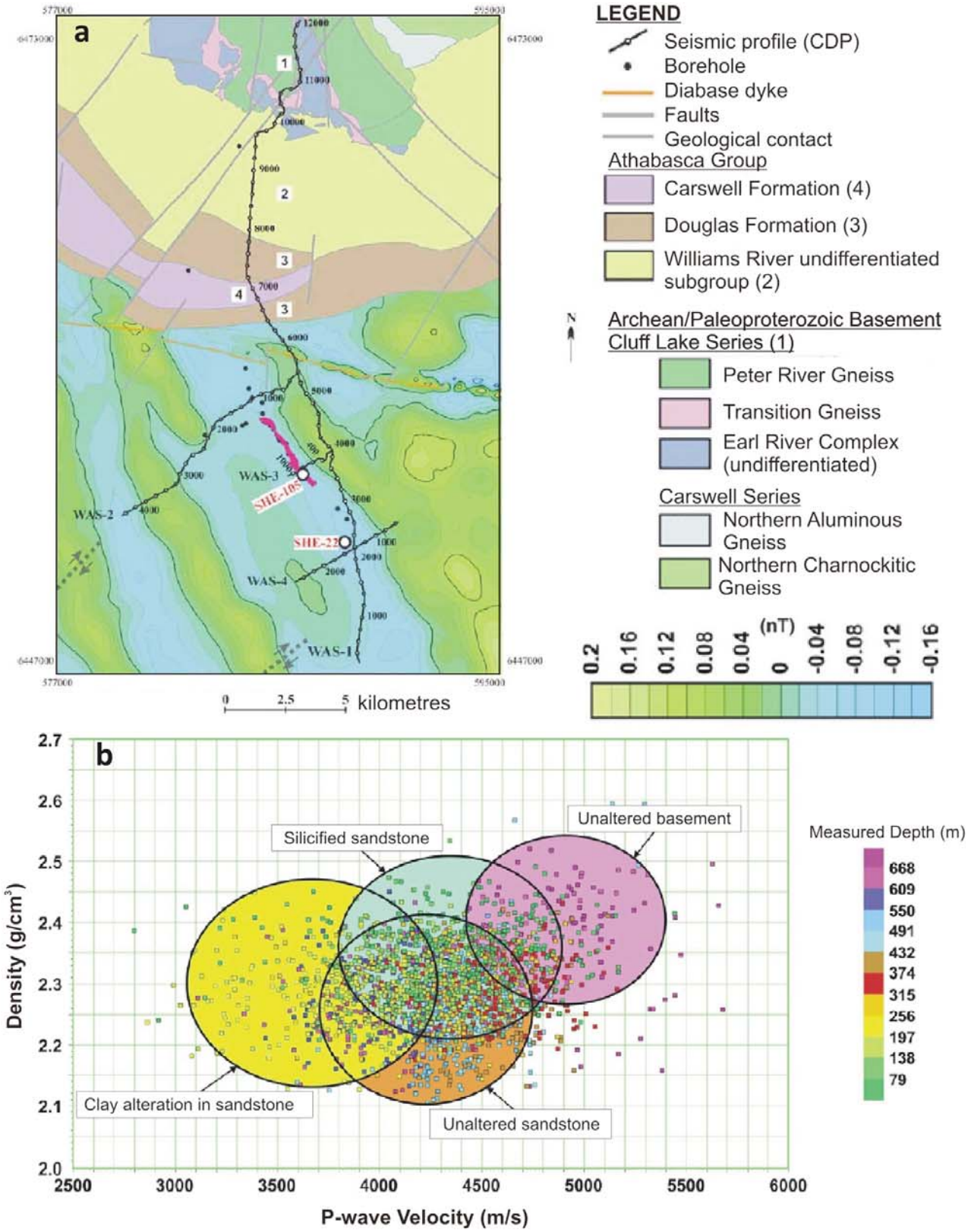

Figure 27. a) Shea Creek study area. Surface geology and structural map of the Carswell impact structure (upper half); residual magnetic map of the area of study (lower half; colour scale in lower right). Seismic profiles WAS-1, 2, 3 and 4 are shown with common-depth-point (CDP) numbers. SHE-105 and SHE-22 identify boreholes used to tie seismic results to subsurface geology. The thick, purplish, NW-trending feature crossed by WAS-3 shows the area of the Shea Creek ore deposit. From Hajnal et al. (2015). b) Density versus V_p cross-plot showing the clusters of different lithologies in the SHE-105 borehole; measured sample depths are colour-coded. From Hajnal et al. (2015).

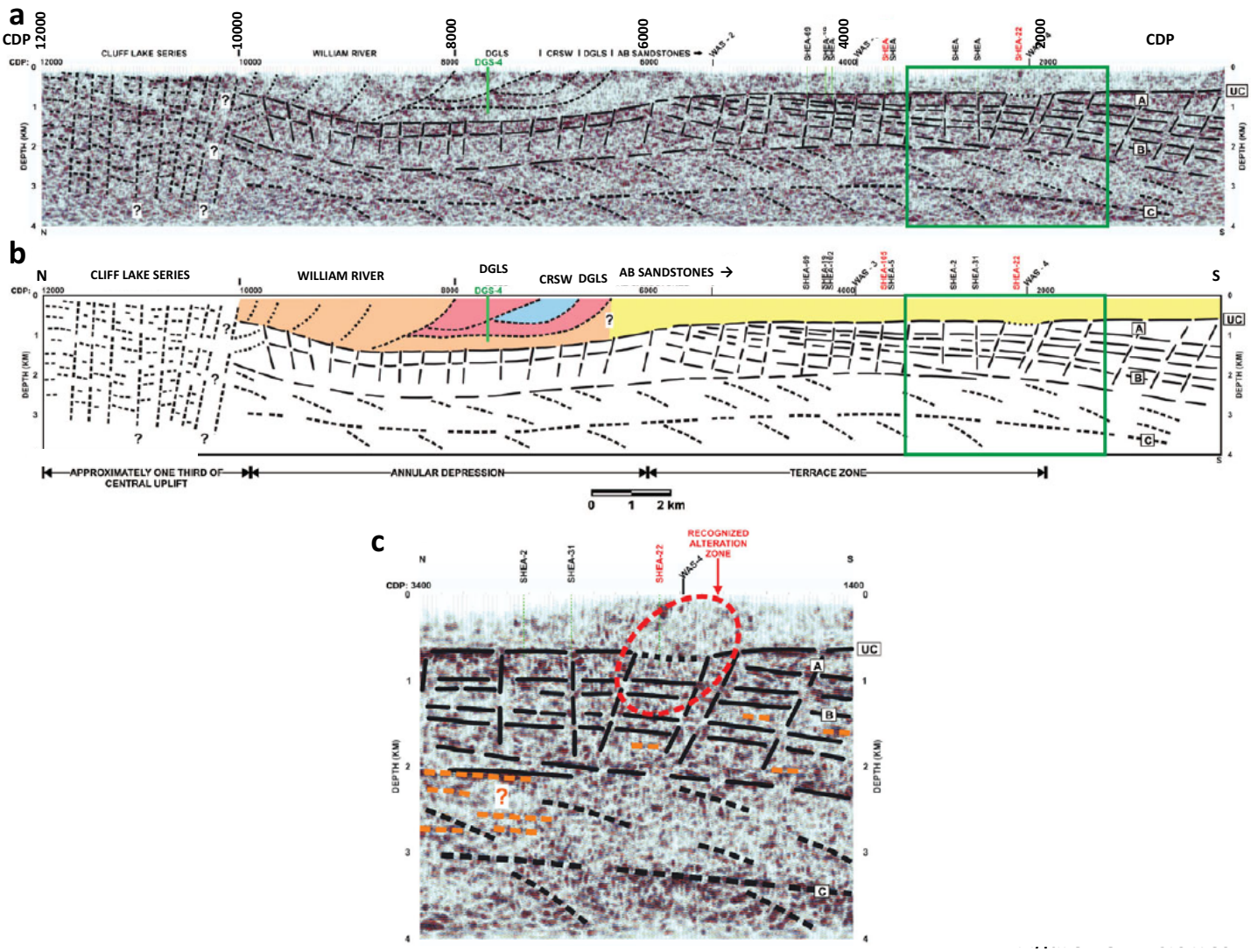

Figure 28. a) Migrated depth section for WAS-1 (location in Fig. 27a; common-depth-point (CDP) positions are marked) with interpreted correlations. Known surface geology and boreholes to which the seismic section was tied are marked at the top of the figure (William River Formation is also called the Otherside Formation). Abbreviations: DGLS, Douglas Formation; CRSW, Carswell Formation; AB, Athabasca Basin; UC, unconformity. Locations of crossing seismic lines, WAS-2, 3 and 4 are marked. Rectangle identifies the part of the section enlarged in c). b) Interpreted depth section. Colours show Athabasca Group; legend in Figure 27. Abbreviations as in a). The major elements of the impact structure are outlined below the coloured part; see text for description of labels [A], [B], and [C]. c) Enlarged anomalous portion of WAS-1. Red ellipse outlines the unique alteration and structural anomaly, a characteristic seismic feature identifiable on all four lines. Orange sub-horizontal reflector segments are inferred as remnants of earlier ductile deformation. A, B and C as in text. All illustrations from Hajnal et al. (2015).

McArthur River 2-D and Low-fold 3-D Investigations, Eastern Athabasca Basin

The McArthur River mining camp, located in the southeastern part of the Athabasca Basin (Fig. 22), was the site of further high resolution seismic studies in 2001 with the general objective of developing new or improved exploration tools for deeply buried unconformity-associated uranium deposits. As indicated in Figure 23 for the McArthur River region, the Athabasca Group sedimentary rocks comprise the Read (MFa) Formation overlying the Hearne Province basement, in turn overlain by the Bird (MFb), Collins (MFc) and Dunlop (MFd) members of the Manitou Falls Formation. Within the region of the seismic program, a substantial number of boreholes provided subsurface geological information that could be related to the seismic results. The most important structure is the P2 reactivated dip-slip fault (Fig. 22) that is associated with ore deposits.

The seismic program ranged from two regional profiles, A–A' and B–B', and two high-resolution lines, 12 and 14, to a low-fold 3-D survey (Fig. 29a) and a vertical seismic profile study (not discussed here). A segment of regional line B–B' that crosses the P2 structure and the ore zone is shown in Figure 29b. The unconformity zone is identified by the flat-lying, curvy reflection segments with strong amplitudes relative to the overlying sandstone units, whereas the P2 fault zone is identified by southeasterly dipping, high amplitude reflections that indicate it is almost 2 km thick. The fault zone intersects the unconformity below the MAC-214 borehole in which the fault is recognized as a reverse fault with 80 m of offset. The most prominent feature on the seismic section is the multi-

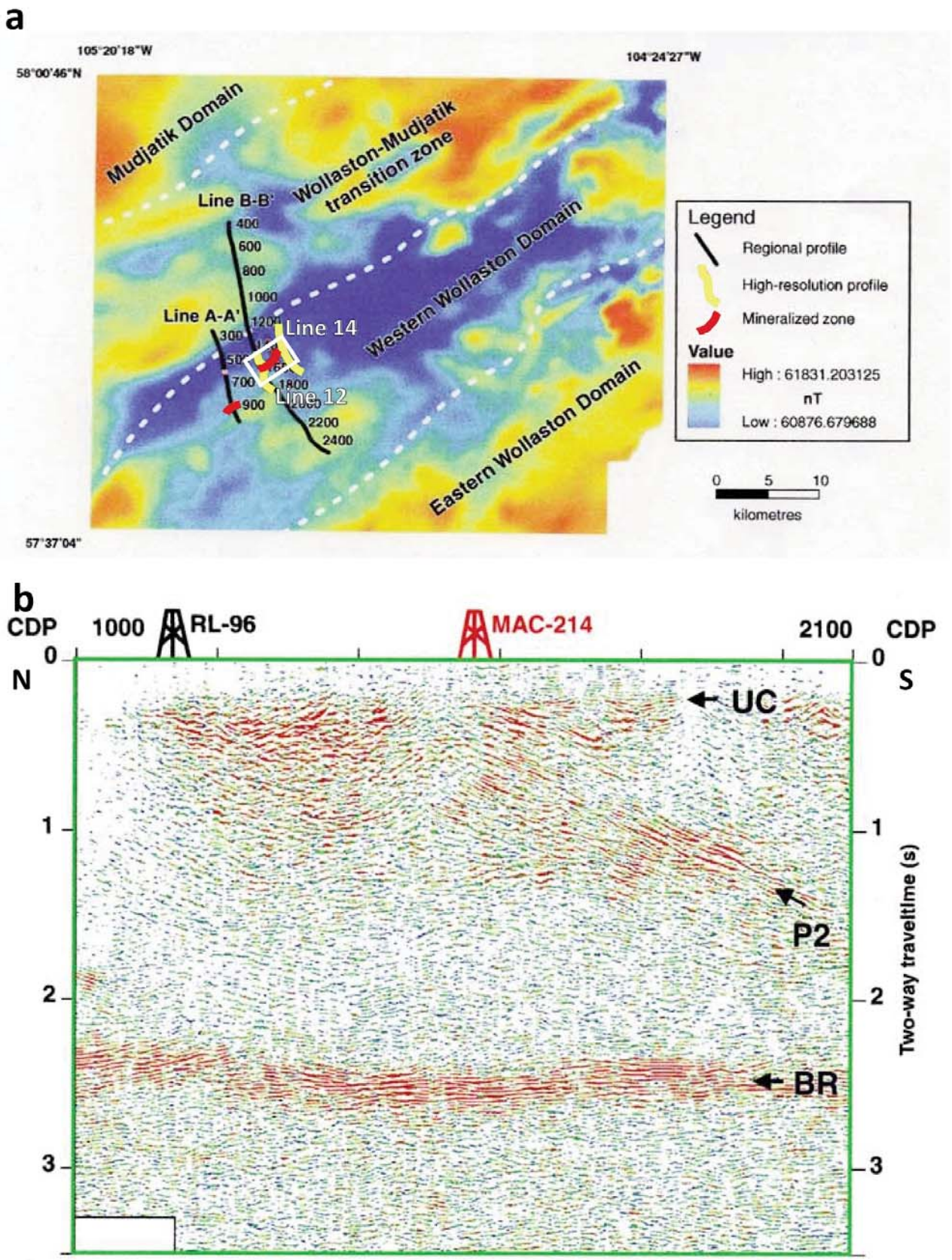

Figure 29. a) Total field magnetic map of the McArthur River study area with lithotectonic domains shown. Seismic lines are identified. Numbers are common-depth-point (CDP) locations. The white rectangle outlines the location of the low-fold 3-D acquisition program. b) Enlarged portion of line B-B', CDPs 1000 to 2100 (~12 km). Drillhole locations are marked. UC, unconformity; P2, the P2 reverse fault zone; BR, bright reflector. From Hajnal et al. (2007).

cyclic bright reflector, BR, located about 7 km below the unconformity, which was also clearly observed on earlier Lithoprobe seismic sections (Mandler and Clowes 1997) but is not relevant to the Athabasca Basin.

On line 12 (and on line 14, not shown), the unconformity shows as an undulating, sub-horizontal zone of reflectivity below which the underlying reflectivity within the basement dips to the southeast (Fig. 30a). Geological information from drill holes provides the framework that confirms the interpreted position of the unconformity and enables correlation of markers throughout the Athabasca Group as displayed in the figure. Brittle reverse faults extend from the shallowest part of the basement into the overlying sandstone units, generally offsetting the unconformity. For example, geological results from drill hole RL-068 (Fig. 30a) indicate a vertical offset of the basement of 45 m (~20 ms; Hajnal et al. 2010). McGill et al. (1993) demonstrated the relationship between reactivated faults and uranium deposits for the McArthur River area. The many drill hole results combined with the multiple and contrasting dip domains below the unconformity on lines 12 (Fig. 30a) and 14 (not shown) suggest that the basement has undergone significant structural changes (Hajnal et al. 2010).

A low-fold, irregularly sampled 3-D survey, including lines 12 and 14, was undertaken in the McArthur River mining camp to image the central area where known ore bodies are located (Fig. 29a). Its main objective was to provide areal constraints on the structural framework in the vicinity of the main P2 fault and associated ore zones. The 3-D survey was complemented by detailed geological information from 71 boreholes that extended to the depth of the unconformity (Hajnal et al. 2010). One result from analysis of the 3-D data was a structure map of the 'depth' (in time) of the unconformity that indicated its depth is controlled by a subtle and complicated network of brittle faults. These have variable dips ranging from moderate to sub-vertical and are characterized by reverse kinematics (Hajnal et al. 2010). The main structural elements and the unconformity surface are portrayed in Figure 30b. The major P2 inverse fault zone is clearly identified and above it, antithetic inverse faults form a flower structure system. The uranium ore pods are located at the intersections of the different fracture zones.

High-resolution seismic reflection studies with appropriate survey design parameters and processing procedures, combined with geological results from boreholes, continue to be an important component of exploration for uranium ore deposits in the Athabasca Basin. Lithoprobe can be credited with introducing this new exploration tool for the uranium industry.

DIAMONDIFEROUS KIMBERLITE DYKE, SLAVE CRATON, NORTHWEST TERRITORIES

In the 1990s, the Slave craton in the Northwest Territories was the locale of the largest staking rush in Canadian history, surpassing the Klondike gold rush of the 1890s. Diamonds found in kimberlite intrusions were the objective. By the end of the decade, more than 150 kimberlite occurrences had been identified (Fig. 31). Pell (1997) provided an excellent review of the history and the science associated with the kimberlite discoveries.

The Slave geological province is one of the principal Archean components of the North American craton (Fig. 31; Bleeker and Davis 1999). It includes interspersed granitoid intrusions, supracrustal sequences and basement core complexes but is dominated by voluminous granitoid intrusions (Padgham and Fyson 1992). The latter were emplaced before, during and after deformational episodes but formation of the Slave was completed by ~2.6 Ga. During the Paleoproterozoic, the Slave Province was incorporated into the North American craton and is bounded by fault systems that have been inactive since 1.27 Ga. A series of Proterozoic dykes, ranging in age from 2.21 to 0.72 Ga, have sliced through the Slave (LeCheminant et al. 1996).

With its old, stable and cool mantle root, the Slave Province is a classic setting for diamondiferous kimberlite pipes because such characteristics are necessary for the development of diamonds within the cratonic root zone (e.g. Haggerty 1986). Mantle-derived kimberlite intrusions, which are volatile-enriched, potassic, ultrabasic magmas that rise to the surface from depths greater than 150 km, host the diamonds. At or near the surface, they are emplaced as small volcanic pipes (the most common form), dykes and sills, but only a fraction are diamondiferous and of these only some are economically viable. Typical pipes have diameters ranging from 10s of metres to more than 1000 m and can be envisaged as downward tapering cones with steep sides (80–85°) and vertical extents of a few kilometres (e.g. Mitchell 1995). Dykes and sills are smaller features that cut across existing structures or layers (dykes) or are emplaced between pre-existing layers or along zones of weakness (sills). Within the Slave Province, many of the kimberlite features were emplaced during the Cretaceous and Tertiary (ages ranging from 97 to 52 Ma) but others erupted as early as the Cambrian to Late Ordovician (520–450 Ma) (Pell 1997).

The first two diamond mines in Canada, Ekati and Diavik in the Lac de Gras area (Fig. 31), were developed within kimberlite pipes. Another discovery was the Snap Lake kimberlite dyke (no. 6, Fig. 1; Fig. 31), which from limited sampling was shown to be rich in high quality diamonds. A substantive drilling program delineated the structure of the dyke: a 1–5 m-thick sheet gently dipping from subcrop to more than 1300 m depth and extending over an area of ~25 km^2 (McBean et al. 2003). But as the dyke plunged deeper, drilling became increasingly expensive. The principals of the two companies operating in the Snap Lake region (De Beers Canada Mining and Diamondex Resources) were aware of the successes that Lithoprobe scientists had achieved using seismic reflection techniques in other mining environments, as highlighted in previous sections of this article. Following discussions with them in the early 2000s, a project to test reflection techniques as a means of delineating the location and features of the dyke at depth was initiated with scientists at the University of British Columbia (one being the current author). The following material is extracted from two publications arising from this project (Hammer et al. 2004a, b).

While Lithoprobe had demonstrated success in other mining environments, this project posed two significant challenges:

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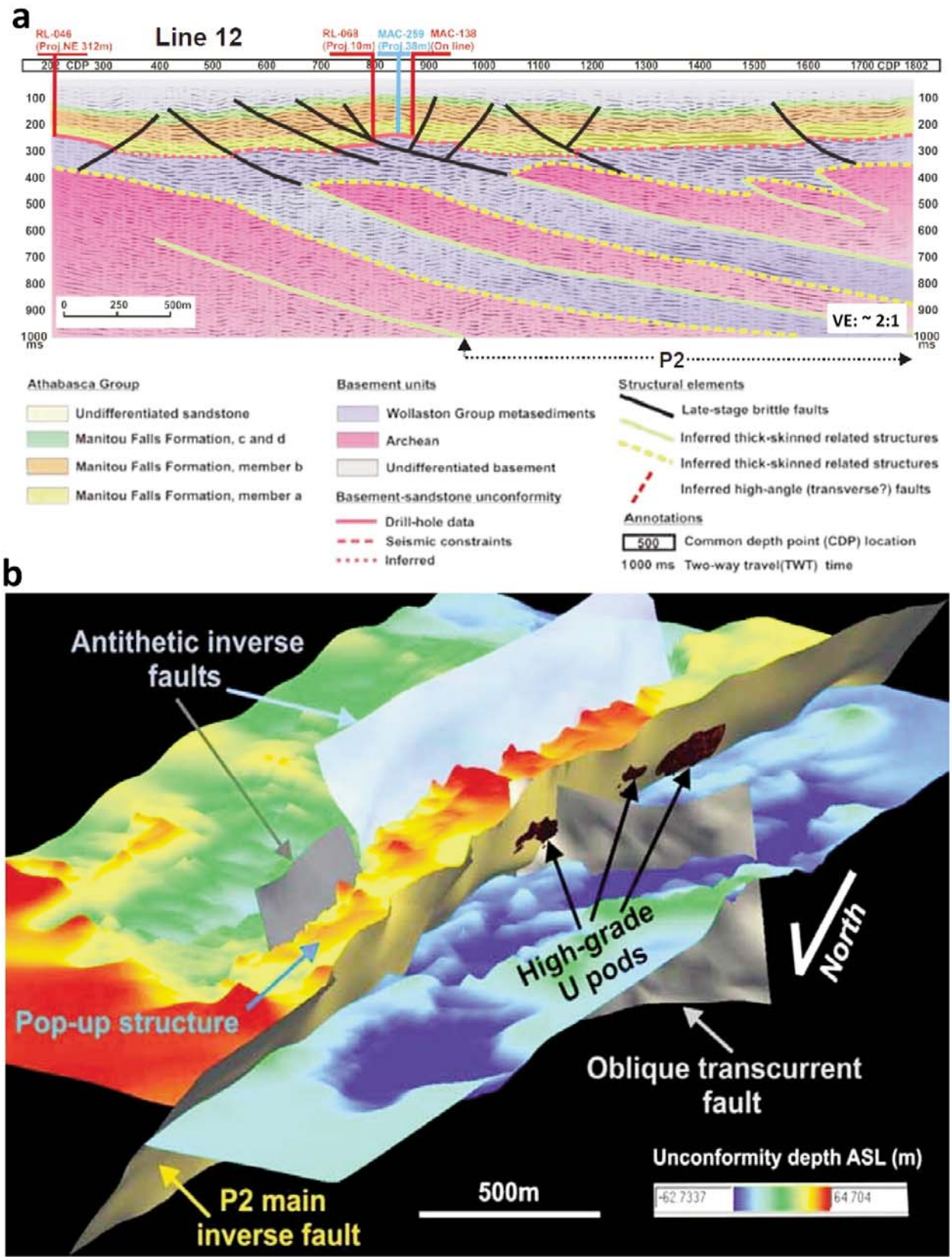

Figure 30. a) Interpreted migrated section for high-resolution line 12 (location in Fig. 29a). The interpretive section illustrates the spatial structural variation in the vicinity of the ore body and the P2 shear zone. Drill holes to which the seismic data could be tied to subsurface geology are identified along the top of the figure. UC, unconformity. b) Three-dimensional display of the structural framework of the McArthur River mining camp derived from the seismic data and tied to all boreholes within the 3-D study area (location in Fig. 29a). The horizontal slice shows the depth to the unconformity; see colour legend. From Hajnal et al. (2010).

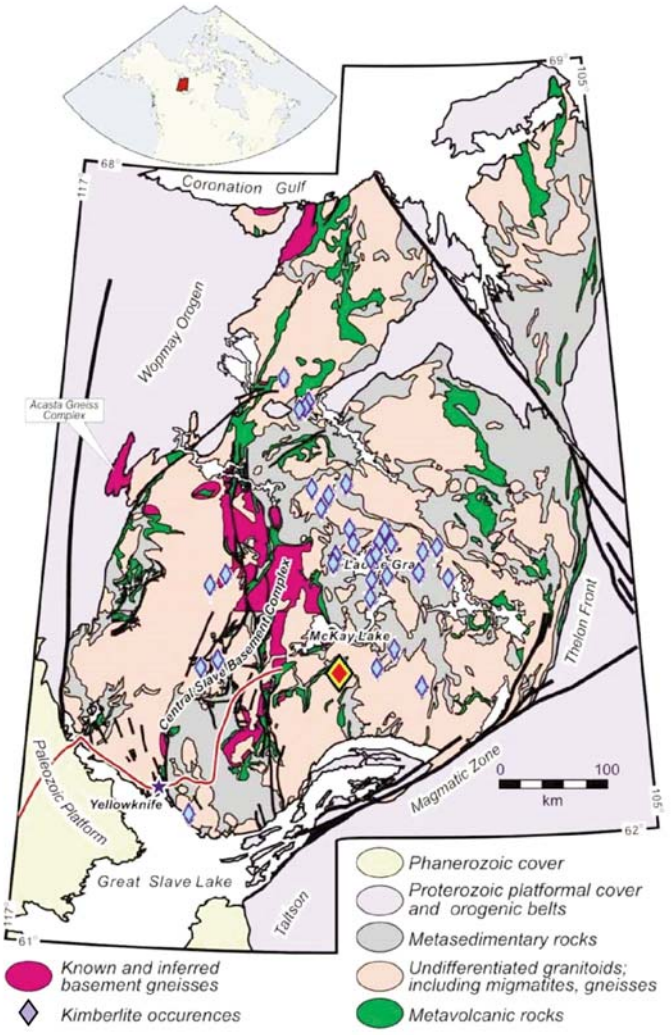

Figure 31. Geologic map of the Slave Province; inset shows location in North America. The Archean cratonic core is bounded by fault zones (bold lines), orogenic belts, and platformal cover. Red and yellow diamond, Snap Lake study location; blue diamonds, known kimberlite pipes, dykes, and sills. Modified from Bleeker and Davis (1999).

(1) The Snap Lake dyke presents an extremely thin target that extends to considerable depth. Frequencies higher than usual (> 200–250 Hz) for an exploration-scale survey were required for detection. However, higher frequencies are preferentially attenuated with depth so it was unclear if sufficient amplitudes could be returned from the dyke, particularly as the target depth increased.
(2) Impedance contrasts and attenuation are important variables in reflection surveys. However, no comparable exploration-scale surveys of thin kimberlite dykes in a granitic host-rock environment had been reported and no geophysical well log information was available. The unique nature of the survey further increased the uncertainties involved with detecting the dyke.

Based on the expectations of the two companies and the challenges associated with the project, two primary questions had to be addressed by the survey:

(1) Is the seismic reflection method an effective and cost-efficient exploration tool for the delineation of shallow-dipping kimberlite dykes and sills in a hard-rock environment and at depths that could help reduce drilling costs?
(2) Can seismic reflection studies provide information about a thin kimberlite deposit (e.g. extent, continuity and thickness) and related geology at scales that could prove useful for drill guidance and mine planning?

The opportunity to study geological samples of the kimberlite dyke and surrounding rocks and to ground-truth the seismic results with drillhole data made the Snap Lake dyke an ideal location for this unique project.

Snap Lake Dyke: Geologic Setting and Structure

Three primary geological units, granitoid, metavolcanic and metasedimentary rocks, comprise the country rocks surrounding the Snap Lake dyke (Fig. 32). The dominant granitoid is the Defeat Plutonic Suite (2610–2590 Ma) that includes granodiorite, tonalite, monzogranite and some pegmatite. The metavolcanic rocks are intensely flattened and comprise layered amphibolite and associated synvolcanic gabbroic intrusions. The metasedimentary rocks are primarily high-grade metaturbidite and migmatite. Proterozoic diabase dykes, ranging in width from a few metres to 100 m, intrude throughout the area (Le Cheminant et al. 1996). Kirkley et al. (2003) provided a detailed summary of the geology hosting the Snap Lake kimberlite.

The Snap Lake dyke is a hypabyssal kimberlite, distinctive for its high proportion of coarse-grained olivine macrocrysts (3–10 mm) (Kirkley et al. 2003). It is not associated with a known pipe and a number of theories have been advanced to explain its emplacement (McBean et al. 2003). The drilling program has shown that the dyke forms a sheet that dips from subcrop down to the northeast with dips averaging about 15° but varying from 5 to 30° (Fig. 32). Along the seismic profiles, dyke thickness is variable, ranging from 4 m to < 0.5 m (Fig. 32). Limited drilling at depths greater than 1000 m shows kimberlite intersections of less than two metres. In addition to variability in thickness, drill intersections indicate that the dyke is complex in structure, in places feathering into multiple strands or rapidly changing dip. Logging of core also shows that the dyke is accompanied by some related intrusions, fracturing and alteration in the adjacent host rock (but only within 10 cm of the dyke) (Kirkley et al. 2003).

Physical Properties

Seismic imaging of the Snap Lake dyke requires that the impedance contrast between the host rock and the kimberlite be sufficiently large that seismic waves reflected at depth have sufficient energy to be recorded at the surface (impedance is the product of velocity and density). Published data (e.g. Ji et al. 2002) suggest that the dyke would have a large impedance contrast with the granitic and metavolcanic host rocks. However, more specific data related to the Snap Lake area was necessary in order that meaningful modelling studies could be car-

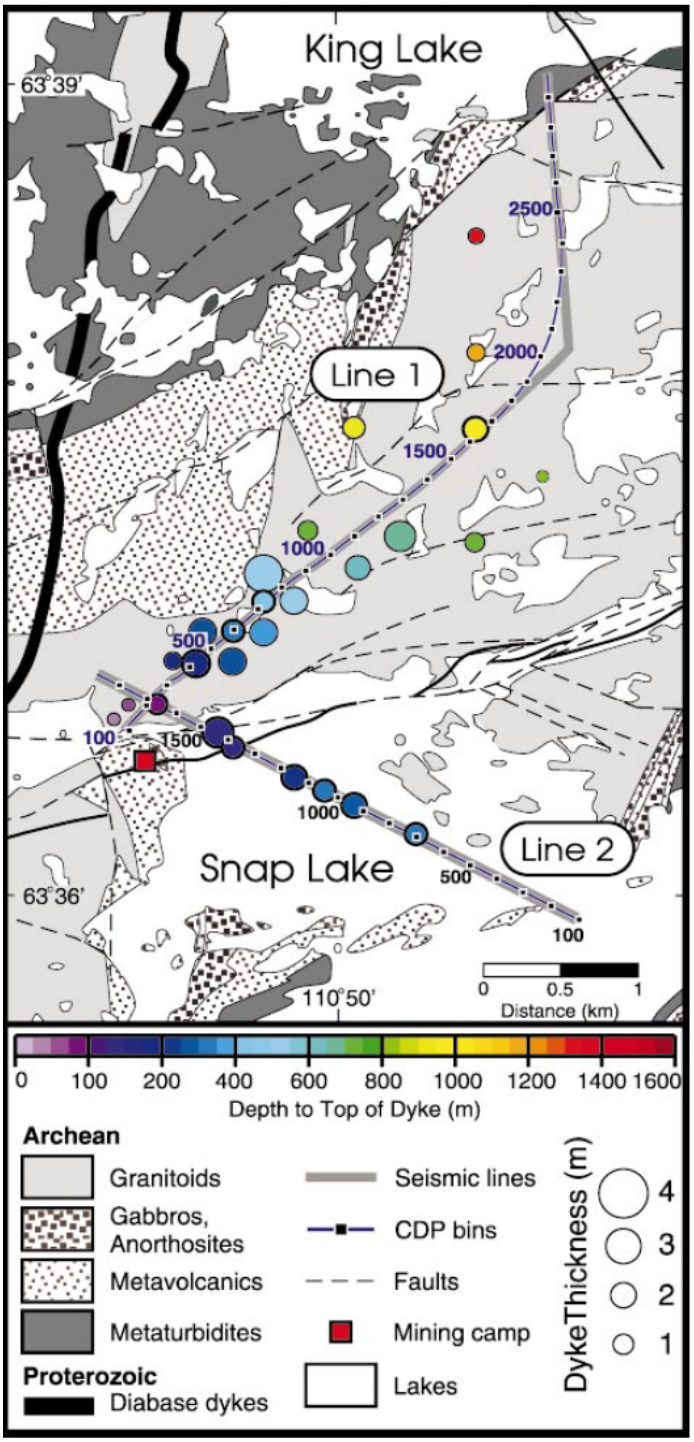

Figure 32. Locations of lines 1 and 2 on simplified geological map (M.P. Stubley, 1998, De Beers Canada Mining Inc. internal report). Drillhole locations closest to the seismic lines are noted. Depth to the intersection with the dyke is colour-coded and the dyke thickness is indicated by the circle diameter. Common-depth-point (CDP) bin centres are labeled for comparison with stacked sections. The mining camp and dyke subcrop location are noted by the red square. From Hammer et al. (2004b).

ried out to determine the best parameters for the design of the field experiment. Accordingly, core samples representing the various rock types were measured for their compressional (*P*) velocities and densities (D. Schmitt, University of Alberta, personal communication 2001). Figure 33 shows the *P*-wave velocities for all tested samples, determined for confining pressures from 0 to 300 MPa (~10 km depth). Densities were measured at laboratory temperature and pressure. As shown by average values on the right side of Figure 33, kimberlite bodies have a much lower velocity and density than the granitic host rock. As a result, the impedance contrast at vertical incidence between the kimberlite and host rocks is large, having a value of ~0.2. This indicates that significant reflected energy should be generated.

Modelling Studies

Notwithstanding the strong impedance contrast, imaging of a thin dyke still poses a significant challenge, especially as it extends to significant depths. The threshold for vertical resolution (imaging the top and bottom of the layer) is approximately 1/4 the dominant wavelength (Widess 1973). This means that resolving a 2 m-thick kimberlite dyke requires frequencies of at least 500 Hz, possible for near-surface targets but less feasible with depth due to natural attenuation of the high frequencies. If the goal is just detecting a thin layer, this can be accomplished with lower frequencies. Tuning effects involving multiple reflections can reduce the detection threshold to as little as 1/20 the wavelength (e.g. Juhlin and Young 1993; Tselentis and Paraskevopoulos 2002). This indicates that detection of a 1–2 m thick dyke may be possible if sufficient energy is returned above 200–250 Hz.

However, in terms of a field survey, many complications can arise: the laterally heterogeneous dip, thickness and structure of the dyke; signals from the deformed, metamorphosed host rocks and numerous sub-vertical dykes and faults that dissect the area could conceal reflections from the target; and accurate statics (near-surface) corrections would be required, a task made more difficult by the large lateral velocity variations in the near-surface due to alternating exposed bedrock, glacial till (permafrost) and lakes. Such issues are difficult in an environment where there were no previous studies to provide guidance. Accordingly, a synthetic modelling study, which made use of the physical properties analyses, was carried out to address these questions.

Two modelling techniques were applied: an efficient 1-D elastic reflectivity code and a computationally expensive 2-D visco-elastic finite-difference (FD) code to model complex structures. Seismic sections from many models were generated. Figure 34 shows results for a feathered dyke model using the FD code. At 400 Hz, the top and bottom of a 5 m-thick kimberlite embedded in the granitoid host rock can just be discerned but that is not the case for the 1 m-thick segment. The change in seismic signature due to the feathering is clear at 400 Hz and just distinguishable at 200 Hz in comparison with no feathering. Overall, the modelling study demonstrated the feasibility of carrying out a field survey, provided guidance for planning the acquisition geometry for the field survey and indicated some of the processing requirements that would have to be applied to the field data. Hammer et al. (2004a, 2004b) highlighted the main conclusions from the modelling study.

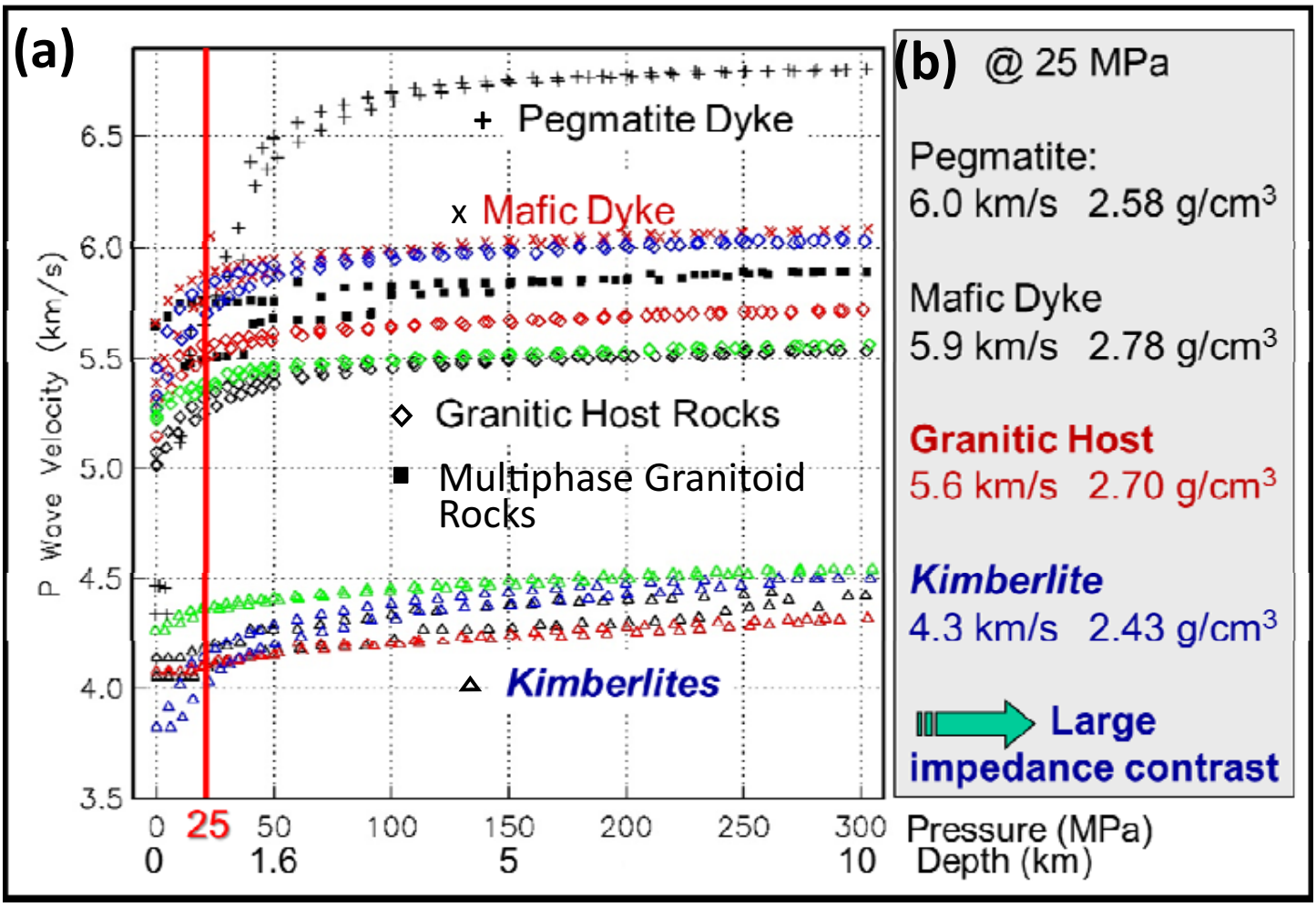

Figure 33. *P*-wave velocity response of Snap Lake core samples. Velocities were recorded as pressure was increased from 0 to 300 MPa and then reduced back to 0 MPa. Rapid changes in velocity between 0 and 5 MPa represent closure of the larger cracks. Rock types are defined by symbol shapes; individual samples denoted by symbol colours. The red line indicates the pressure at about 800 m depth. Right panel: average values of *P*-wave velocities at 25 MPa (~800 m depth) and densities (at standard temperature and pressure) of the different rock types, showing a strong impedance (product of velocity and density) contrast between the host rock and kimberlite dyke. Modified from Hammer et al. (2004b).

Seismic Surveys and Results

Using parameters indicated by the modelling studies, two seismic lines, shown in Figure 32, were run in May 2001. Line 1 was recorded on land using explosive sources (Fig. 35a) to profile down-dip dyke structure. Line 2 was recorded on land using explosive and Vibroseis (mechanical) sources and on lake ice using the Vibroseis source (Fig. 35b) to image cross-dip structure and determine the effectiveness of explosive versus Vibroseis sources and the efficacy of recording on lake ice. Acquisition parameters and processing procedures are given in Hammer et al. (2004b).

Reflections from the dyke were detected along both lines. The line 1 profile acquired using explosive shots was spectacularly successful in imaging the dyke, but the thickness of the dyke could not be resolved (Fig. 36). The line 2 profile had mixed results. Both explosive shots and the Vibroseis source generated good results on land on the western end (Fig. 32), but the on-ice experiment with the Vibroseis source recorded poor quality data with no visible reflections (see Hammer et al. 2004b). Along line 1, the dyke was superbly imaged from 30 ms (~60 m) to 425 ms (~1300 m) with faint reflections continuing to about 520 ms (~1650 m), as shown in Figure 36a. Figure 36c is an enlargement of the northern segment of the line showing the faint reflections that correlate well with detection of a 1.06 m dyke from a drillhole located ~600 m offline.

The coincident and near-coincident drillhole data correlate well with the reflection image but the seismic profile adds considerable detail to the known topography of the dyke (Fig. 36a). Reflection amplitudes vary considerably across the image. Such variations can be the result of many effects. However, we note that several zones, where amplitude drops and continuity decreases, correspond to places where drill core indicates that the dyke changes from a relatively simple planar sheet to a region with considerable variation in topography and thickness and/or the dyke becomes feathered with many thin splays being intersected (e.g. Fig. 36b, CDP ranges 500–700 and 850–1250). Such correlations could have important implications for using the seismic data for mine development.

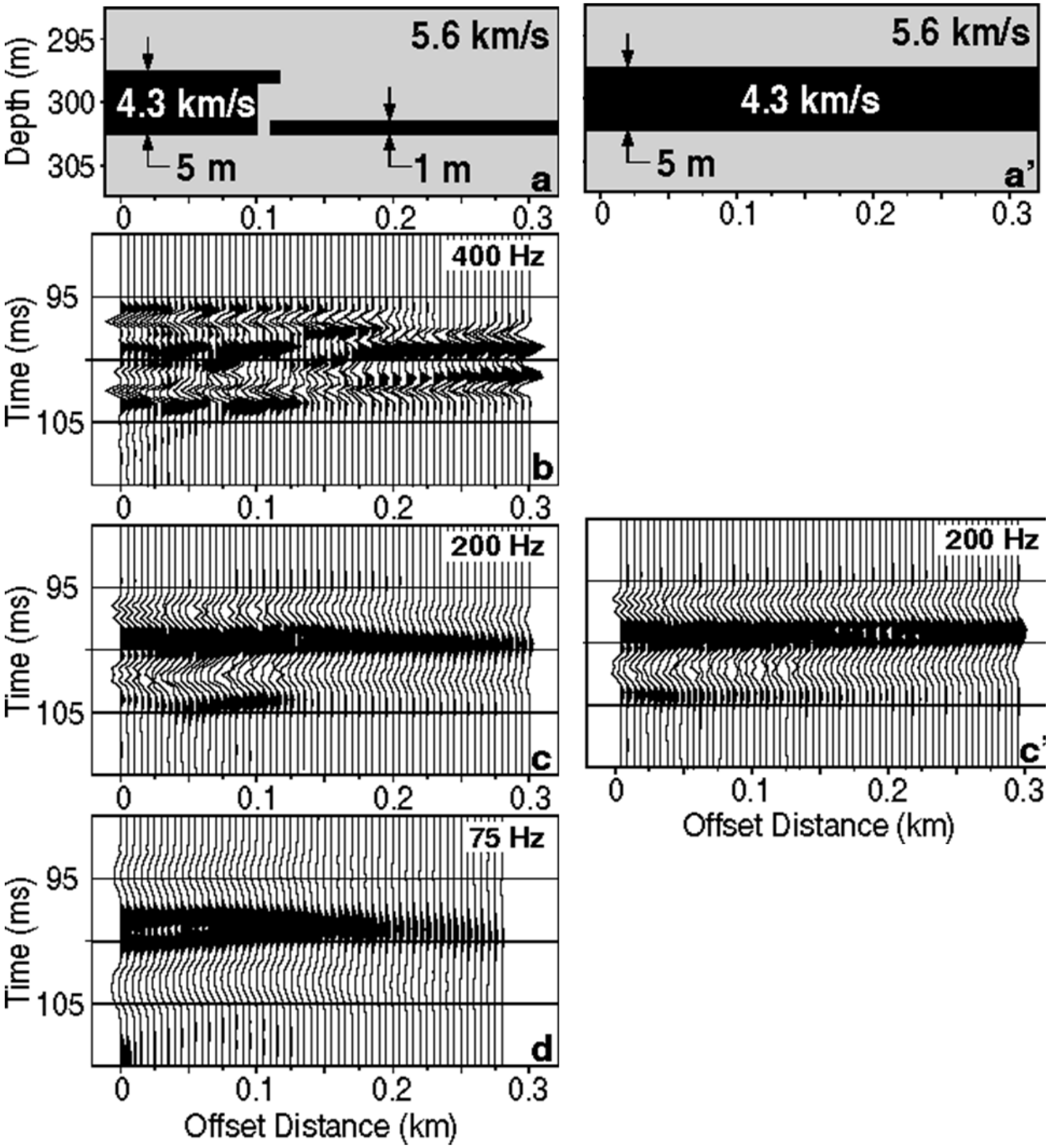

Figure 34. Finite-difference modelling of a feathered kimberlite dyke. a) Portion of model showing the kimberlite thinning from 5 m to 1 m thickness. a') Model with a constant 5 m thickness. The sequence of shot gathers [b), c), c') and d)] are normal-moveout (NMO) corrected and displayed using true relative amplitude and no correction for spherical divergence. Shot depth for all gathers is 0 m. Gathers are generated using a Ricker wavelet source centred at b) 400 Hz, c) and c') 200 Hz, and d) 75 Hz. c') is the gather for model a'). Modified from Hammer et al. (2004b).

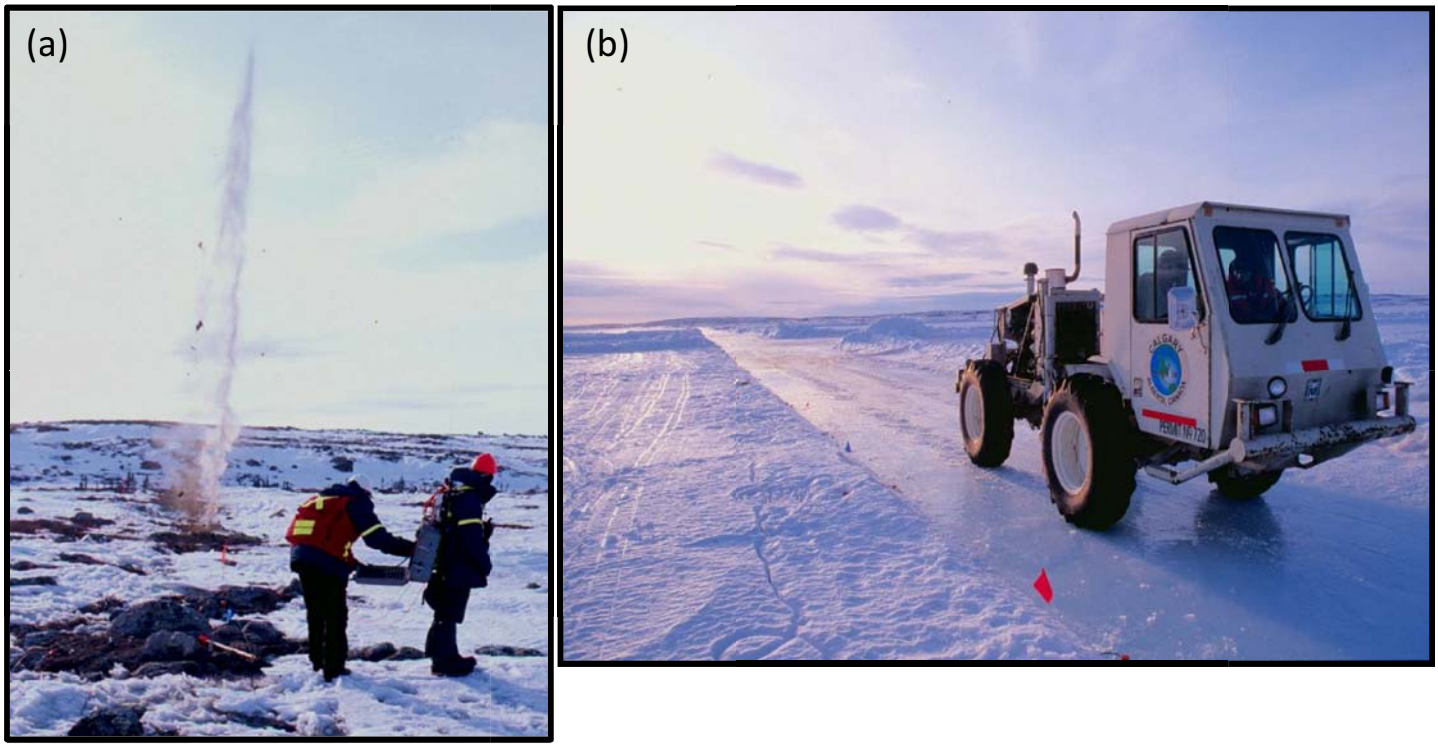

Figure 35. a) Detonation of a 0.25 kg explosive charge along line 1 during the May 2001 survey. The backpack contains the shooting box. Note that spring was early that year causing some logistical difficulties due to environmental considerations. b) The Vibroseis source along line 2 on the lake ice. The mini-vibrator generated high frequencies from 100 to 500 Hz.

As a unique experiment, the Snap Lake study demonstrated that seismic reflection methods could be a useful tool for exploration and deposit mapping of thin kimberlite dykes or sills. With an appropriate target, drilling programs that are limited by high costs and low spatial sampling could be enhanced significantly by the addition of seismic reflection profiles.

BEYOND LITHOPROBE – GEOPHYSICS AND GEOLOGY COMBINED

Examples in the previous sections are based on Lithoprobe results. They represent studies that are 15 years or more old and show interpretations based on geophysical data and a qualitative inclusion of geological data. During the last decade, some researchers have been working toward more quantitative approaches, most of which involve mathematical inversions of geophysical data constrained by geological data, to provide more reliable interpretations (e.g. Lelièvre et al. 2009). Here, I briefly describe two research examples. The first involves a method for cooperatively inverting multiple electromagnetic data sets constrained by bounds imposed by geological data from boreholes and includes an example with observed data. The second involves an approach to unifying geophysical and geological 3-D Earth models in a computational sense with the objective, not yet achieved, of seamlessly working with geological and geophysical data such that all relevant geoscience information can be included within the inversion framework.

Cooperative Geophysical Inversion Constrained by Geological Data

Many of the principal methods for mineral exploration involve electromagnetics (EM) because analyses of EM data provide estimates of the electrical resistivity in the subsurface and variations in this physical property can help distinguish mineralized zones from background lithologies. Currently, 3-D inversions of EM data generate resistivity models that can aid interpretations (e.g. Commer and Newman 2004; Haber et al. 2007). However, all such inversions are non-unique. The degree of non-uniqueness can be decreased by joint inversion or cooperative inversion of multiple EM data sets and further decreased by incorporating geological constraints. Joint inversion refers to methods in which multiple data sets are inverted simultaneously within the same inversion code (e.g. Haber and Oldenburg 1997; Sosa et al. 2013). Technically, this can be difficult due to computational issues and problematic data that can cause considerable slowing of the inversion process and possibly lead to unwanted artefacts in the final model. Cooperative inversion involves using the results from the inversion of one data set in the inversion of another data set (e.g. Oldenburg et al. 1997; Commer and Newman 2009). An advantage of this approach is that individual software packages developed for specific data sets can be used, generally providing a faster inversion process. A potential disadvantage is the need to select a workflow strategy that can find a single model that fits both data sets.

In a case history study, McMillan and Oldenburg (2014) developed a method of cooperative inversion that incorporates spatially overlapping EM data sets and borehole constraints associated with a high-sulphidation epithermal gold deposit, Antonio, located in northwestern Peru (inset, Fig.

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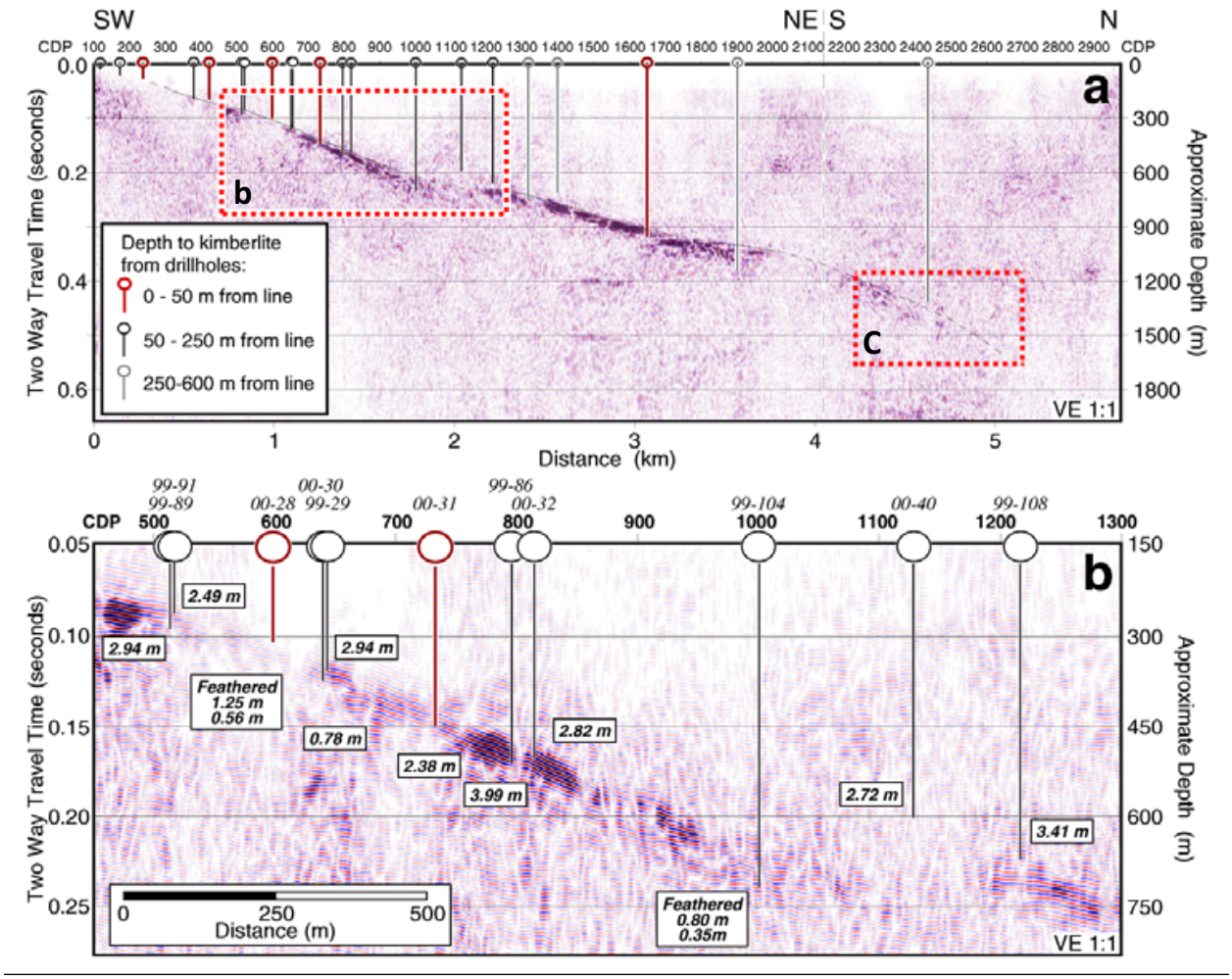

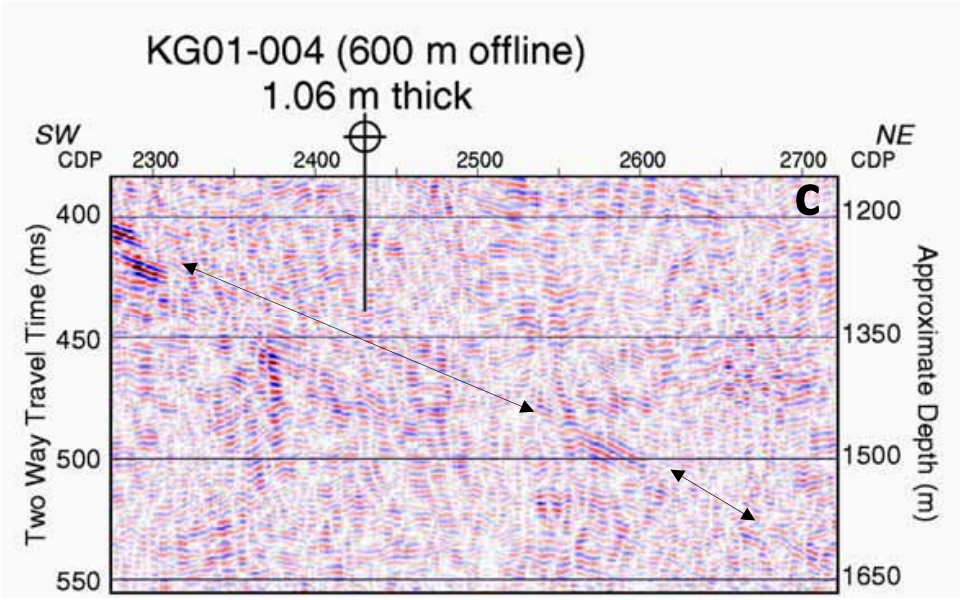

Figure 36. Migrated stacked seismic sections for line 1: a) the full profile with a thin black line tracing the top of the dyke reflection package; b) enlargement of box b in a) showing the dyke reflections through a zone with significant variations in reflector amplitude and dip; c) enlargement of box c in a) showing the low-amplitude reflector at the north end of the profile. Depths to kimberlite from nearby drill holes are indicated by the circles and vertical lines: red, 0–50 m from the line; black, 50–250 m from the line; grey, 250–600 m from the line. In b) and c) dyke thickness is labelled for each drillhole. For cores exhibiting significant feathering, the thickest kimberlite intersections are labelled. Note the correspondence between zones of low amplitude with regions that are feathered or have significant cross-dip. Approximate depths are calculated from travel times assuming 6 km/s and are corrected to a 465-m datum. Modified from Hammer et al. (2004b).

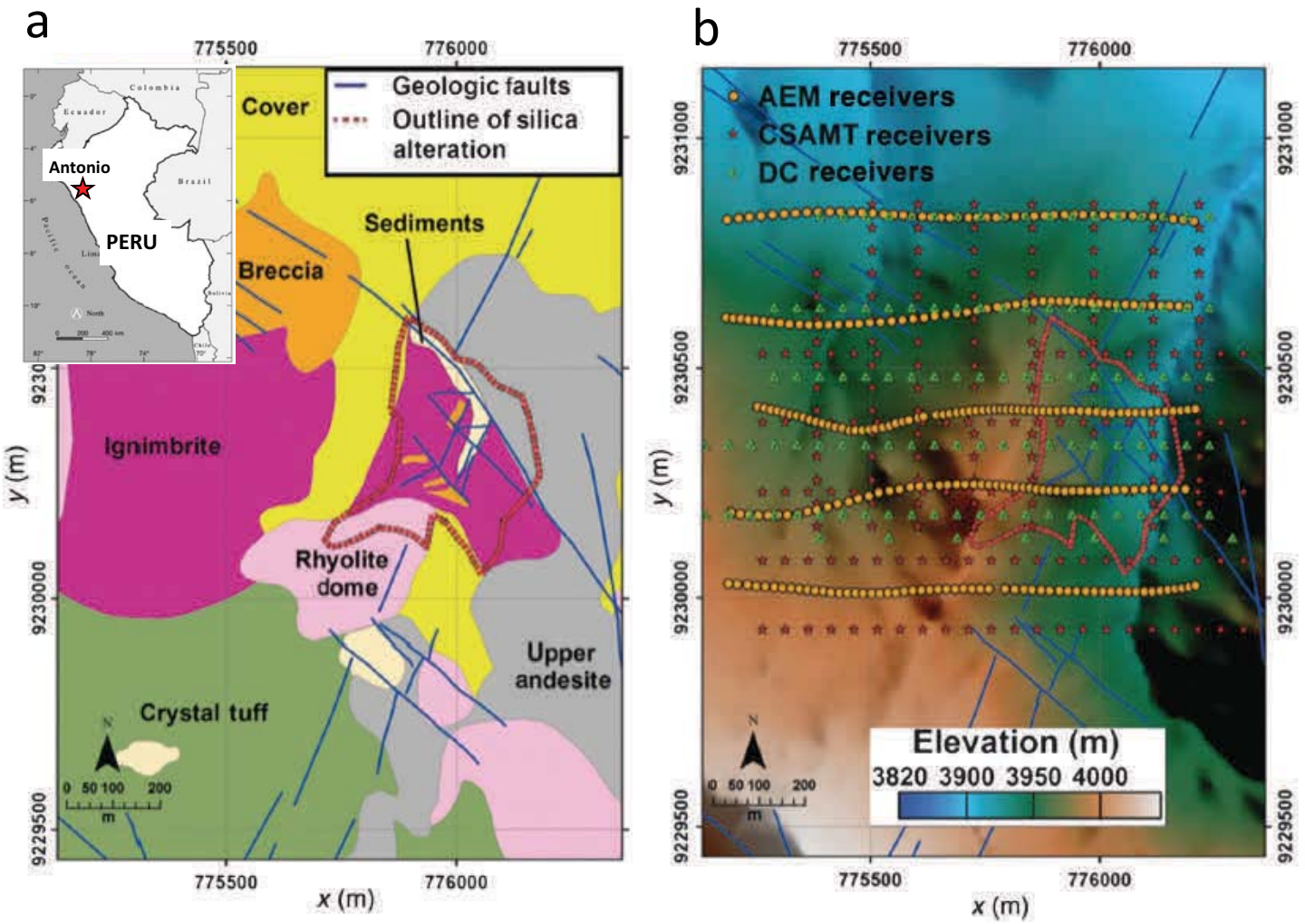

Figure 37. a) Geology in the region of the Antonio gold deposit in the Andes Mountains of northern Peru. Inset: location of Antonio within Peru. Modified from McMillan and Oldenburg (2014). b) Locations of geophysical surveys in the region of the Antonio gold deposit; background map is topography. Dotted red line outlines the mapped zone of silica alteration. Thin blue lines identify faults. AEM, airborne electromagnetics; CSAMT, controlled source audio magnetotellurics; DC, direct current resistivity. From McMillan and Oldenburg 2014).

37a). Figure 37a shows the regional geology. The area around Antonio experienced pervasive hydrothermal alteration to form a zone of massive silica alteration in the innermost region and a halo of propylitic alteration in the outer region (Fig. 37a; Teal and Benavides 2010). The quartz-rich areas of metasomatism contain the gold mineralization and these are often found near faults where confined fluid flow occurred. Structural traps associated with the intersection of faults and within favorable pyroclastic lithologies, such as ignimbrite (see Fig. 37a), are typical geological hosts to gold deposits in this region (Loayza and Reyes 2010). Silica alteration is an applicable target for EM surveys because the altered rock has a more resistive nature than the relatively conducting background rock.

The EM data-sets acquired around Antonio comprise airborne EM (AEM), controlled-source audio magnetotellurics (CSAMT) and DC resistivity (Fig. 37b). Each data set was inverted using an algorithm specifically developed for that data set. A resistor was imaged in each case, but the location of the resistor and the magnitudes of its resistivity values varied. Cooperative inversion was invoked to overcome these discrepancies and produce one resistivity model that fits all the data sets. McMillan and Oldenburg (2014) described the workflow that they selected after combining the CSAMT and DC resistivity data into one data set to be cooperatively inverted with the AEM data set. In such inversions, the calculated resistivity values are relative to a reference model, in this case a low resistivity of 23 ohm-m. Figure 38a shows a series of resistivity slices from the 3-D cooperative inversion. The authors noted that the AEM data contribute most to the cooperative result by mapping the extent of the large resistive area associated with the target region (the lighter coloured parts of each slice). The combined CSAMT/DC data better map the conductive features, the smaller blue areas within the resistive area. The cooperative model is similar to those from individual inversions of the three data sets but not identical with any of them and is interpreted to represent the resistivity signature over the Antonio deposit more accurately than any individual result.

To further improve the resistivity signature over the Antonio deposit, geological constraints were brought to bear. These

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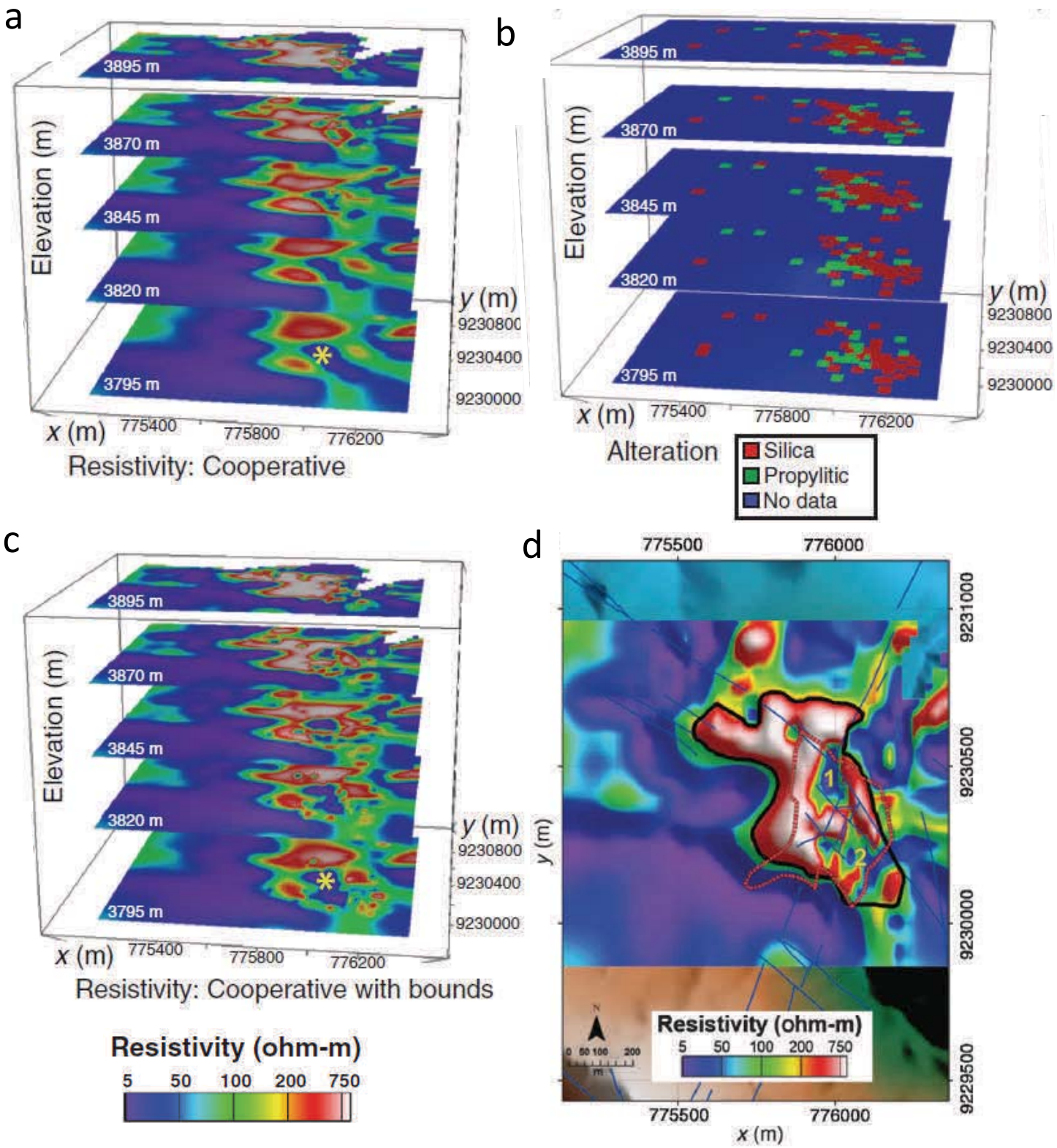

Figure 38. a) Resistivity values from 3-D cooperative inversion of AEM and combined CSAMT/DC resistivity data at five elevation slices from the 3-D model. Resistivity scale as in c). The yellow star identifies an example of a conductive anomaly potentially linked to propylitic alteration. b) Drillhole information showing silica and propylitic alteration for model cells intersected by 78 boreholes at Antonio presented as depth slices from the 3-D model. c) Resistivity values from 3-D cooperative inversion as in (a) with the addition of upper and lower bounds on resistivities as derived from a regression relationship between total alteration/sulphur content and resistivity. d) Cooperative 3-D inversions with bounds at a 3870 m elevation slice; same as 3870 m slice in c). Dotted red line, mapped zone of silica alteration; black line, outline of interpreted silica alteration at 3870 m elevation; blue lines, geologic faults. Figure adapted from figures in McMillan and Oldenburg (2014).

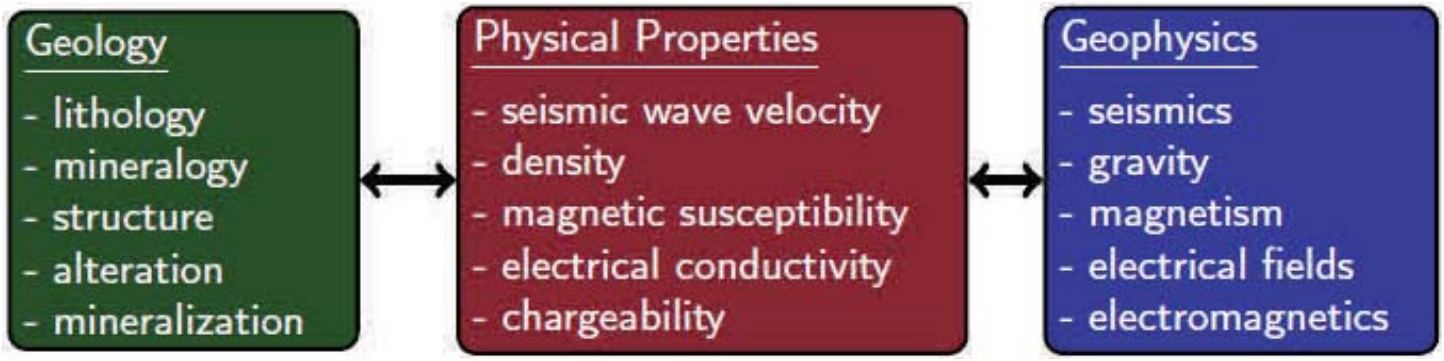

Figure 39. Schematic illustration of the interplay among components of geology, physical properties of Earth materials and types of geophysical data; all or some of which need to be included in the same model development to facilitate a unified inversion to generate the most comprehensive and realistic interpretation possible. Figure from Lelièvre and Farquharson (2016).

arise from 78 boreholes which have alteration logging and geochemical assay values but only a limited number of resistivity measurements. To augment the latter, McMillan and Oldenburg (2014) generated field constraints through a relationship between total sulphur content and resistivity that were based on laboratory rock measurements for 30 borehole samples, and then applied the regression relationship to the alteration values from the 78 boreholes. This produced a resistivity reference model (Fig. 38b) from which upper and lower bounds for resistivity values in each model cell were calculated and then incorporated into their cooperative inversion of the EM data with these constraints. Figure 38c shows the series of resistivity slices from the constrained 3-D cooperative inversion. In each slice, both the highly resistive areas (light colours) and the conductive areas within them (blue) are more clearly defined and sharper. Generally, the target silica alteration zone is mapped as a strong resistor (pink to red colours). At greater depths within the latter, many conductivity anomalies are discerned. These can be explained by the presence of propylitic alteration. A good example is shown by the star indicating high conductivity on the slice at 3795 m (Fig. 38c), which has a strong spatial correlation with a region of propylitic alteration based on borehole information (Fig. 38a).

Figure 38d shows more detail for a resistivity slice at 3870 m, an elevation corresponding to an average depth below surface of 75 m but ranging from 10 to 150 m due to the rolling topography in the region. The region north and northwest of the mapped silica alteration outline (dashed red line) shows as a resistive zone, indicating that at a depth of ~75 m the silica alteration also extends to that region. Thus, the final cooperative inversion with bounds indicates a revised zone of silica alteration at depth (black line; Fig. 38d). Within that zone, two areas of low resistivity (high conductivity) stand out (‘1’ and ‘2 in Fig. 38d). From borehole alteration logs, ‘1’ represents a small area of propylitic alteration and ‘2’ is identified with a large sulphur anomaly within the silica alteration, suggestive of extensive sulphide mineralization. Consistent with this interpretation, borehole assays show anomalous gold values. Smaller conductivity anomalies within the silica alteration zone that are not associated with propylitic alteration may indicate the presence of sulphides and thus may be prospective targets for gold mineralization.

Unified Geophysical and Geological 3-D Earth Models

In mineral exploration and mine planning, the ability to invert 3-D geophysical data sets simultaneously with 3-D geological constraints is a development that would be welcomed by the mining industry. Such ‘constrained’ geophysical inversion would provide the means to unify geological and geophysical data. As shown schematically in Figure 39, changes in geology manifest themselves as physical property contrasts that cause local variations in geophysical measurements. Constrained inversion of geophysical data with geological and physical property information incorporated into the same model would generate the most comprehensive geological interpretation. But such research is ongoing and has yet to be achieved in a way that is readily used by industry or researchers who are not inversion specialists.

One of the issues hindering such developments involves the different methods by which 3-D geological and geophysical models are digitally represented. The usual representations for 3-D geological models are wireframe surfaces, which are tessellated surfaces comprising connecting triangles. Wireframe surfaces work well because they are sufficiently general and flexible that they can be made to represent arbitrarily complicated geological structures, such as contacts between rock units, faults, ore deposits, etc., and topography. The geological structures may be known at points from borehole intersections and outcrop mapping. The contacts can be interpolated between drill holes and extrapolated outward to generate a 3-D geological model. Figure 40a shows such a geological model for the significant Voisey’s Bay nickel–copper–cobalt deposit located on the northeast coast of Labrador (Lelièvre and Farquharson 2013, 2016). The ore body that is currently being mined is the ‘ovoid,’ a massive sulphide lens, roughly ellipsoidal in shape.

In contrast, most current 3-D geophysical modelling and inversion procedures are built on rectilinear meshes because the mathematics for computations on such meshes is simpler. In rectilinear models the relevant physical properties are uniform within each brick-like cell but possibly different from cell to cell, resulting in a pixelated representation. Although discretized meshes can be made arbitrarily fine, the geophysical models will always be incompatible with geological models comprising wireframe surfaces. Also, fine meshes introduce

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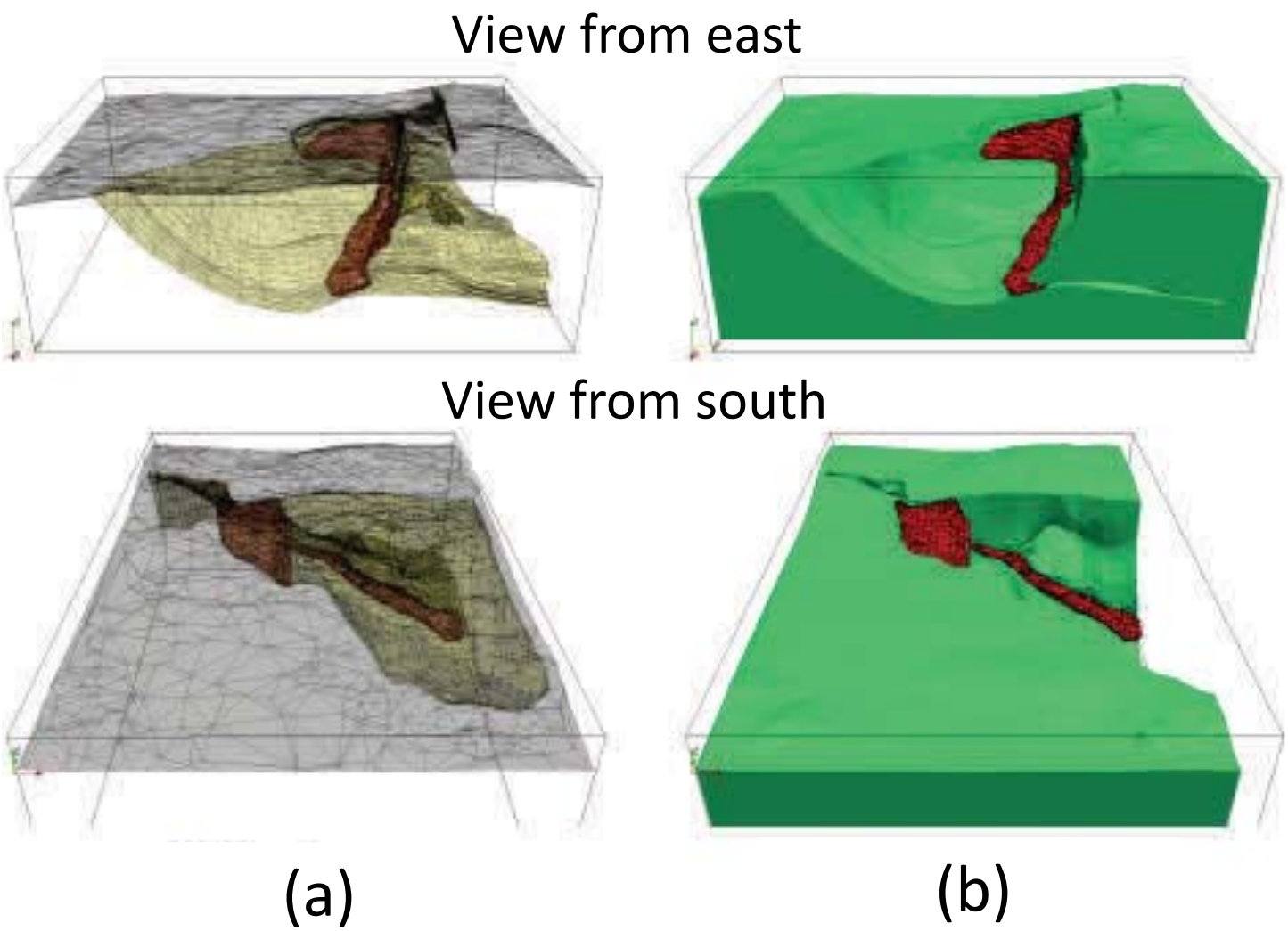

Figure 40. a) Three tessellated wireframe surfaces representing part of the geological model for the Voisey's Bay ore deposit based on over 500 drill holes and a collection of core samples. The ore deposit (red) is a massive sulphide lens roughly ellipsoidal in shape. The troctolite contact surface is shown in beige and the topographic surface in gray. b) Unstructured tetrahedral mesh developed for the same features as in a). Note that the two models are exactly the same and have enabled the geological structures in a) to be incorporated into b), which would be used for inversion of geophysical data. From Lelièvre and Farquharson (2016).

another problem: as the discretization of a model is refined, the computational resources required for 3-D numerical modelling and inversion increase dramatically.

As a result of these problems, researchers have developed and are developing procedures that make use of unstructured meshes. Within the computer science community, the generation of quality unstructured meshes is a topic of ongoing research (Si 2008; Lelièvre et al. 2012; Lelièvre and Farquharson 2013). Typical meshes of this type comprise interlocking tetrahedra although other options for the cell type are possible. They are flexible in terms of their ability to represent generally-oriented contact surfaces and this functionality is important to relate to tessellated wireframe surfaces. As described by Lelièvre et al. (2012), the unstructured meshing discretizes the volume between tessellated surfaces while exactly maintaining those surfaces. Hence, unstructured tetrahedral meshes can honour geological contacts, can incorporate prior information associated with structurally complicated subsurface geometries and can do this with an efficient discretization of the modelling domain compared to the less flexible alternative of a rectilinear mesh. This enables geophysical and geological models to share the same modelling mesh; they can be the same model, with no intermediary process required to convert from one to the other. Figure 40b shows the unstructured mesh model for the Voisey's Bay ore deposit that is depicted as a wireframe model in Figure 40a (Lelièvre and Farquharson 2016). The features of both models are the same and do not show the pixelation that would be associated with rectilinear meshes.

Nevertheless, significant challenges exist in undertaking model development and computations using unstructured meshes for the purpose of geophysical forward and inverse modelling. In terms of models, these include incorporating geological information into the modelling process and manipulating and visualizing the models. Computationally, challenges include the generation and storage of an unstructured mesh, bookkeeping requirements related to the mesh and development of appropriate numerical matrix operators. All these

challenges have not yet been met. However, Lelièvre et al. (2012) stated that "*we are developing computational methods and useful software tools to meet these challenges so that we can seamlessly work with geological and geophysical data within the framework of common Earth models built on flexible unstructured meshes.*"

CONCLUSION

The combination of geophysical studies and geological information provides the basis for greatly improved interpretations of subsurface structures associated with mineral deposits and for delineating the deposits themselves. In particular, seismic reflection studies, for which appropriate designs of field surveys and implementation of applicable processing procedures are in place, can aid exploration for mineral deposits. Such studies should be tied with physical property measurements of rock samples, drill hole geological data and results from borehole wireline logging for both survey design and interpretation of processed seismic sections. Information of this type was highly important in the successful application of reflection surveys in most of the examples presented herein. As with the current petroleum industry, which uses seismic reflection surveys and borehole information for best results, the application of 3-D procedures in mineral exploration is the direction for the future. From the seismic perspective, the Trill 3-D reflection survey of a nickel deposit in the Sudbury Structure and the McArthur River low-fold 3-D survey over uranium deposits in the Athabasca Basin, as discussed in this article, illustrate this point. Adam et al. (2003) have further discussed 3-D seismic imaging. Matthews (2002), Matthews et al. (2002) and Malehmir and Bellefleur (2009) have provided examples of direct imaging of a volcanic-hosted massive sulphide (VHMS) deposit in the Bathurst mining camp, New Brunswick, with 3-D reflection data. Other geophysical methods (e.g. magnetics, electromagnetics, gravity) for which data are available and/or appropriate for the exploration target can be the integrative tie to geological information either as the primary approach or as secondary methods that contribute to the desired exploration result. In this article, the former is illustrated by the electromagnetic studies combined with geological information that better delineated gold mineralization associated with the Antonio deposit in Peru. The secondary approach is illustrated by the contributions of magnetics and gravity to the overall interpretation of the structure of the Guichon batholith in south-central British Columbia and the contribution of electromagnetics to interpretation of structures in the Thompson nickel belt of Manitoba. Technological advances in computer hardware and software have enabled, are enabling, and will enable continuing improvement in the integration of geophysical and geological data of all kinds, particularly through mathematical inversion procedures, to further enhance success in exploration for mineral deposits.

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PROFESSIONAL AFFAIRS

An International Review of Disciplinary Measures in Geoscience—Both Procedures and Actions

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SUMMARY

As professional communities around the world, geoscientists have in place disciplinary measures and, over time, instances have occurred which have required disciplinary actions to be taken against individuals. Geoscientists have specialized knowledge and provide expertise on which others rely for important decision-making. Geoscientists are best positioned to judge the scientific/technical and ethical merits of the work of other geoscientists. They are considered professionals and for that reason, society has placed the onus on the profession to govern itself. Consequently, it is important that appropriate disciplinary procedures are in place, that they are ever improving, and that the profession can and does act decisively when necessary.

This two-part review paper examines systems and measures to uphold the ethical conduct of geoscientists (Part 1), and studies actions taken against geoscientists in the last three decades (Part 2). It uses available information collected from the member organizations of the International Union of Geological Sciences' Task Group on Global Geoscience Professionalism as well as public sources.

Models used for the governance and self-regulation of geoscience practice vary globally across the same spectrum that is typical in other professions, with the choice of model varying to suit local legal contexts and societal needs and norms. Broadly, similar processes for complaints, investigation, and disciplinary decision-making (and appeals of decisions) are used. The types of charges that can be made for offences or allegations are similar. The ranges of applicable penalties vary depending on the extent of statutory power in place, but beyond this constraint, there are many parallels.

Ninety-two documented cases are identified where action has been taken against geoscientists globally since 1989. Of these, 40 relate to either non-payment of dues or fees (usually discontinuation of a membership or licence) or to non-compliance with Continuing Professional Development requirements. The remaining 52 are actions for more serious offences, resulting in penalties that are more substantial. These offences cluster into six categories: 1) falsifying data; 2) fraudulent billing and/or falsifying time sheets; 3) inappropriate behaviour towards others; 4) problematic geoscience work and/or technical deficiencies; 5) misrepresentation of findings, or the giving of unsupported opinions; and 6) mixed other offences. The most frequently used penalty in these cases is the reprimand. Next most frequent is revocation. Revocations include resignations with prejudice, where the geoscientist chose to resign their membership rather than allow the matter to proceed to discipline. Suspensions, requirements for remedial education and/or fines are also frequent penalties. Combinations of different penalties are common.

It is evident that rigorous procedures are in place in a number of countries and that they are being used to address the unprofessional behaviour of geoscientists. Transparency and the sharing of information about disciplinary actions between geoscience professional organizations (of all types) is important and should be encouraged. A global repository of geoscience disciplinary actions should be established and kept as up to date as possible.

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RÉSUMÉ

À l'instar des autres organismes professionnels à travers le monde, les géoscientifiques possèdent leur protocole de mesures disciplinaires. Il est arrivé à quelques reprises que ces mesures aient été mises en application et que des sanctions disciplinaires aient été intentées contre certains individus. Un géoscientifique possède une connaissance spécialisée et livre une expertise qui, en retour, peut servir de référence dans la prise d'importantes décisions. Il n'existe aucun autre professionnel qu'un géoscientifique pour évaluer les mérites d'ordres moral, scientifique et technique d'un de ses pairs. Et c'est en se basant sur le professionnalisme de la géoscience que la société a imputé la responsabilité d'auto-gouvernance à la profession. Par conséquent, il est important que des mesures disciplinaires soient, non seulement mises en place, mais qu'elles soient également régulièrement revisitées. Et il est tout aussi important que la profession puisse agir et prendre ses responsabilités lorsqu'il est jugé nécessaire.

Cette étude qui comporte deux volets traite, en premier lieu, des systèmes et des mesures mis en place pour entériner le code de conduite des géoscientifiques et en deuxième lieu, elle examine les actions intentées à l'encontre des géoscientifiques durant les 30 dernières années. Notre ouvrage est basé sur des données et des renseignements recueillis d'associations membres du Groupe de travail de l'Union Internationale des sciences géologiques sur le Professionnalisme géoscientifique mondial ainsi que de sources publiques.

Comme on peut s'y attendre, les modèles qui sont utilisés pour la gouvernance et l'autoréglementation de l'exercice de la géoscience à travers le monde diffèrent de pays en pays, dépendant des contextes légaux des différentes régions, de leurs besoins particuliers et des coutumes sociales. En gros, les mêmes processus sont utilisés pour les plaintes, les enquêtes et les prises de décisions de sanctions (et les appels des jugements rendus). Les différents types de sanctions qui sont rendues pour les infractions ou allégations sont les mêmes. La nature des mesures punitives applicables demeure tributaire des pouvoirs statutaires en vigueur, mais à part cette contrainte, on a pu dresser entre elles plusieurs parallèles.

Nous avons identifié quatre-vingt-douze cas, documentés, où des actions ont été intentées contre des géoscientifiques à l'échelle mondiale depuis 1989. De ces 92 cas, 40 concernent, soit le défaut de paiement de cotisations ou frais d'adhésion (en général, il s'agit d'une suspension d'adhésion ou de droit d'exercice), soit le manque de conformité aux exigences des programmes de Développement professionnel continu. Les 52 cas qui restent ont trait à des offenses plus sérieuses qui ont donné suite à des sanctions plus graves. Les infractions ont été divisées en six catégories : 1) falsification de données ; 2) facturation frauduleuse et / ou falsification des relevés de temps ; 3) comportement inapproprié vis-à-vis d'autres personnes ; 4) situations de travail géoscientifique problématiques et / ou irrégularités d'ordre technique ; 5) fausse déclaration de résultats ou énoncé d'opinions sans preuves ; et 6) autres diverses infractions. La mesure punitive la plus répandue pour ce genre d'offenses est la réprimande. Puis, la deuxième plus répandue est la révocation. La révocation peut inclure une démission volontaire sans appel, c'est-à-dire que le géoscientifique choisit de renoncer à son adhésion à la profession plutôt que de voir son cas jugé. D'autres sanctions qui reviennent souvent comportent des suspensions, des amendes et des ordres d'éducation complémentaire. On retrouve également fréquemment des combinaisons de sanctions différentes.

Il est évidentqu'il existe des procédures rigoureuses dans de nombreux pays et que ces procédures sont donc mises en œuvre pour gérer les inconduites professionnelles des géoscientifiques. La transparence et le partage de l'information concernant les mesures disciplinaires entre tous les différents organismes professionnels géoscientifiques sont extrêmement importants et doivent être encouragés. Un répertoire mondial des mesures disciplinaires en géoscience doit être mis sur pied et doit être constamment mis à jour aussi souvent que possible.

INTRODUCTION

By way of example and to illustrate different disciplinary measures being put into effect—both procedures and actions—let us first consider three impositions of penalties against different geoscientists in different circumstances in the United States, Australia, and Canada.

In the first case (Oregon, USA) concerning the work of a hydrogeologist, the Final Order on Reconsideration from the Oregon Board of Geologist Examiners of October 2006 states, in part, that "…*Licensee was grossly negligent in the way he performed his tasks as a geologist…*"and"…*Licensee's work…was incompetent, demonstrating negligence.*" It concludes: "*Based upon the foregoing, the Final Order is affirmed as modified herein and Licensee's registration to practice as a Registered Geologist in the State of Oregon is hereby revoked*" (Oregon Board of Geologist Examiners 2006).

A July 2009 press release of *The Australasian Institute of Mining and Metallurgy* (AusIMM) reads in part, "…*Geologist and former executive…permanently barred from reapplying for membership...The combination of lifetime ban and publication of penalty is the most serious sanction that the* [AusIMM] *can apply against a person who has breached the AusIMM Code of Ethics. The Code exists to uphold the integrity of the mining professions and public confidence in the professional conduct of members*" (Australasian Institute of Mining and Metallurgy 2009). This matter concerned the tampering of assay values in the database for a gold prospect in China.

In Canada, the January 25–31, 2016 edition of *The Northern Miner*, Canada's weekly mining newspaper, carried headlines, which read, in part, "…*fined and sanctioned for QP work. Misconduct…reports were littered with errors...*" The article goes on to describe a disciplinary action against a geoscientist taken and announced by the Association of Professional Engineers and Geoscientists of British Columbia (The Northern Miner 2016).

As geoscientists, we might think—well, so what? These matters were dealt with! Why should we care about actions against other geoscientists? As a professional community, it is suggested that geoscientists should and do care about such matters. Some reasons are listed below:

1. Geoscientists have specialized knowledge and provide expertise that others rely on for important decision-making.
2. Geoscientists are best positioned to judge the scientific, technical (and ethical) merits of the work of other geoscientists.
3. Geoscience is looked upon externally as a profession and for that reason, society has placed the onus on the geoscience profession to govern itself.
4. The geoscience profession around the world has systems and measures in place to uphold the ethical conduct of geoscientists.

A question that might follow is this one: How do these systems and measures compare around the world, how do they function, and are they effective? This paper reviews disciplinary measures in effect for geoscience practice in different parts of the world and is divided in two parts. Part 1 compares disciplinary procedures. Part 2 analyses some actions taken against geoscientists in the past three decades—at least all of those of which the authors have become aware! The paper concludes with observations and some recommendations to consider for the future. It is based on a presentation given at the 35th International Geology Congress, Cape Town, South Africa on 30 August 2016. It uses available information collected from the member organizations of the International Union of Geological Sciences' Task Group on Global Geoscience Professionalism, as well as public sources.

PART 1 – PROCEDURES

Organizational Models

In 2012, the International Union of Geological Sciences created the Task Group on Global Geoscience Professionalism (TG-GGP) with the purpose of providing an international forum of exchange on matters concerning professional affairs and ethical behaviour in the geosciences. Since its formation, seven countries and one continent have become involved in this task group, represented by either national or continental-level professional associations or consortia of local within-country or within-continent professional bodies (International Union of Geological Sciences' Task Group on Global Geoscience Professionalism: www.tg-ggp.org). Table 1 lists the current member organizations of TG-GGP. Using the member organizations of TG-GGP as a base, information was assembled from some, but not all of these organizations on different geoscientist disciplinary procedures in place around the world.

Tepel (2010) explains self-regulation of geoscience practice with reference to the USA-based Council on Licensure, Enforcement, and Regulation (CLEAR) classification scheme for different types of regulatory and self-regulatory systems in use for professions in general. The CLEAR scheme sets out a range of systems forming a spectrum (Fig. 1), from Voluntary Self-Regulatory Model systems on the one end, to full Government Agency Model systems on the other end, with Semi-Privatized Self-Regulatory Model systems positioned in between these extremes.

Table 1. Member organizations of the International Union of Geological Sciences' (IUGS) Task Group on Geoscience Professionalism and the countries that they represent (current as of August 2016).

Country	Member Organizations
Europe	European Federation of Geologists (EFG)
Canada	Geoscientists Canada/Géoscientifiques Canada
USA	American Institute of Professional Geologists (AIPG)
Australia	Australian Institute of Geoscientists (AIG)
Bolivia	Colegio de Geólogos de Bolivia (CGB)
South Africa	South African Council for the Natural Scientific Profession (SACNASP) and Geological Society of South Africa (GSSA)
Indonesia	Masyarakat Geologi Ekonomi Indonesia (MGEI)
Chile	Colegio de Geologos de Chile

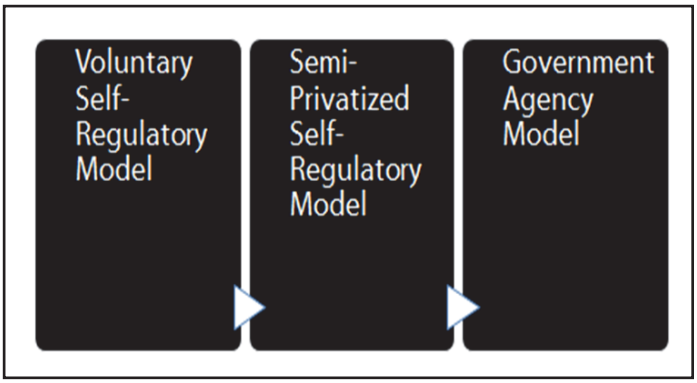

Figure 1. Self-Regulation – Regulation Spectrum derived from the 2006 classification of the Council on Licensure, Enforcement and Regulation (CLEAR) as interpreted for the geosciences by Tepel (2010).

Government Agency Model systems involve the direct regulation of a profession by government. They are rooted in either a law or an act, with statutory powers, that create the requirement to be licensed by government in order to undertake a particular professional activity. The administrative and legal support for the licensure process—and all that this involves—is provided by government, as part of government services. The powers of sanction have a legal footing and disciplinary powers extend to the power to impose a fine, in addition to typical practice-related penalties seen in other systems. Because having a licence is required by law in order to practice and the loss of a licence directly impacts upon a person's livelihood, disciplinary procedures are typically complex and a high level of proof is required before an action can be taken. This model, however, has limited jurisdiction in that it only provides practice rights within the geographic boundaries of the jurisdiction; and rights of investigation and sanction are limited to practice issues that may have occurred inside the geographic boundaries of the same jurisdiction.

On the other end of the spectrum, Voluntary Self-Regulatory Model systems have no government involvement at all.

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These professional organizations are constitution and/or charter based, meaning that they have either no, or very limited, legal powers in their own right beyond those rights associated with being an incorporated not-for-profit society or institute. They are entirely self-funded and there is no administrative or legal support over and above what the organization can provide or acquire for itself. Powers of sanction are limited, with the maximum penalty being loss of membership and/or loss of right to title. That said, loss of right to title can have a major impact on a professional's ability to work, when certification membership 'in' (i.e. possession of title 'from') a particular association or institute is specified in local demand-side legislation as a requirement in order to undertake an activity requiring the skills of a geoscientist. At this other end of the spectrum, disciplinary procedures and rules of evidence may be less onerous, because membership is a privilege and not a right. In contrast to Government Agency Model systems, jurisdiction in Voluntary Self-Regulatory Model systems is unlimited geographically; jurisdiction extends to all members regardless of where in the world they are located and/or regardless of where a matter of concern about their practice may occur.

Examples of professional designations in geoscience that fall under the Voluntary Self-Regulatory Model are the Chartered Geologist (CGeol) of the Geological Society of London (2013), Registered Professional Geoscientist (RPGeo) of the Australian Institute of Geoscientists (AIG 1996), Chartered Professional (CP) of the AusIMM (where the professional designation is applied to mining industry professions in addition to geoscience), and Certified Professional Geologist (CPG) of the American Institute of Professional Geologists (AIPG; http://aipg.org/membershipcategories). Examples using the Government Agency Model are the Professional Geologist (PG) or Registered Geologist (RG) designations issued by those states in the USA with licensure requirements; these typically comprise the member states of the National Association of State Boards of Geology (http://asbog.org/state_boards.html; ASBOG states). Currently, there are 32 ASBOG states, including Puerto Rico.

In contrast, Canada and South Africa, follow the 'Semi-Privatized Self-Regulatory Model' that sits between the above systems. In Canada, provincial and territorial acts enable the creation of professional associations with statutory powers for the registration of Professional Geoscientists (P.Geo.) [Géologue (géo) in Quebec]. However, although accountable to government, the associations themselves are fully self-administered and fully self-financed by the profession; there is no administrative support from government (Bonham 2010). In South Africa, enabling legislation creates a national council—the South African Council for the Natural Scientific Professions (2013a; SACNASP) to regulate all the applied science professions as Professional Natural Scientists (Pr.Sci.Nat). The Geological Society of South Africa (GSSA; http://www.gssa.org.za/?page_id=450), a voluntary model organization, provides the supporting expertise to SACNASP for those practising specifically as science professionals in the geosciences. Comparing the regulatory approaches using these three categories provides a context for the range of processes in place and allows for illustration of similarities and contrasts.

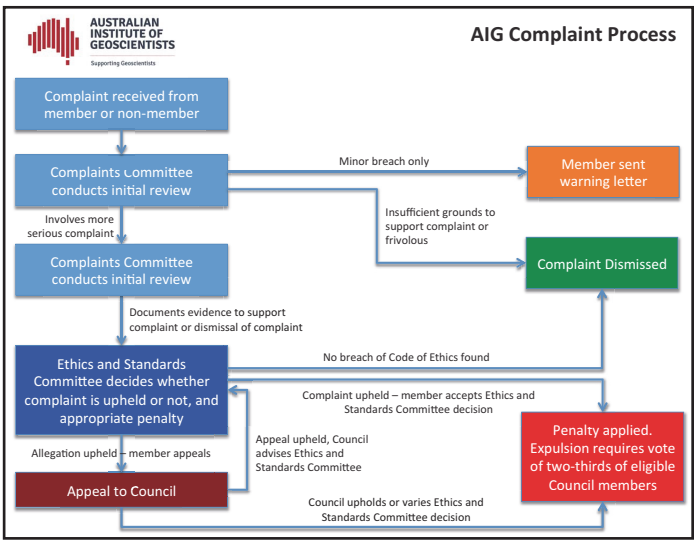

Figure 2. Flow chart of complaints process at Australian Institute of Geoscientists.

Complaints and Discipline Processes

Figures 2, 3, and 4 are example flow charts of the step-by-step complaints and discipline processes from three different professional organizations in different countries using different systems. Figure 2 illustrates the Complaints Process for the Australian Institute of Geoscientists (AIG 1996). Two separate committees are involved in a three step-process: a Complaints Committee (1 person—expanded as necessary) that investigates, and an Ethics and Standards Committee (1 person—expanded as necessary) that adjudicates and sets penalty. The Ethics and Standards Committee also has a review role at an initial stage. Appeals are handled by the AIG Council (14 persons). At the American Institute of Professional Geologists (Fig. 3) two different individuals and one committee are involved. A designated person, the Chair of the Ethics Committee, undertakes the initial review of a complaint; a second designated person, an appointed investigator, undertakes the investigation and proposes sanctions. If a hearing on the matter is requested, the Adjudicatory Board (a panel of 3 members) is then responsible for making the judgement. Appeals are heard by the AIPG Executive Committee (11 persons).

As an example for Canada, Figure 4 sets out the process in place at the Association of Professional Engineers and Geoscientists of British Columbia (APEGBC 2016; https://www.apeg.bc.ca/For-Members/Complaints/Submit-a-Complaint-Against-a-Member). Here there are two committees, an Investigations Committee (14 persons) and a Discipline Committee (14 persons). In British Columbia, at the point where notice of a disciplinary hearing is issued, there is an option for a three-person panel of the Discipline Committee to negotiate a Consent Order resolution with the member. Failing resolution, the matter proceeds to a formal hearing before a different three-person panel of the Discipline Committee. Appeals of decisions of the APEGBC Discipline Committee go to the British Columbia Supreme Court.

To uphold the impartiality of panels and to ensure that the public interest is served, increasingly we see the inclusion of

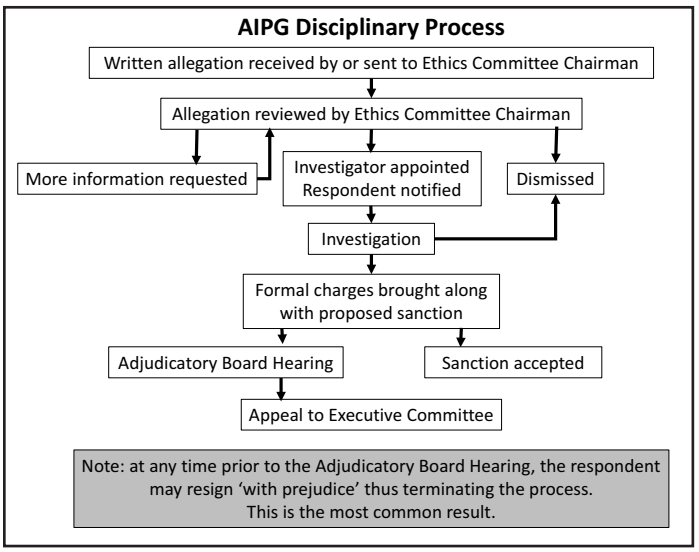

Figure 3. Flow chart of American Institute of Professional Geologists disciplinary process.

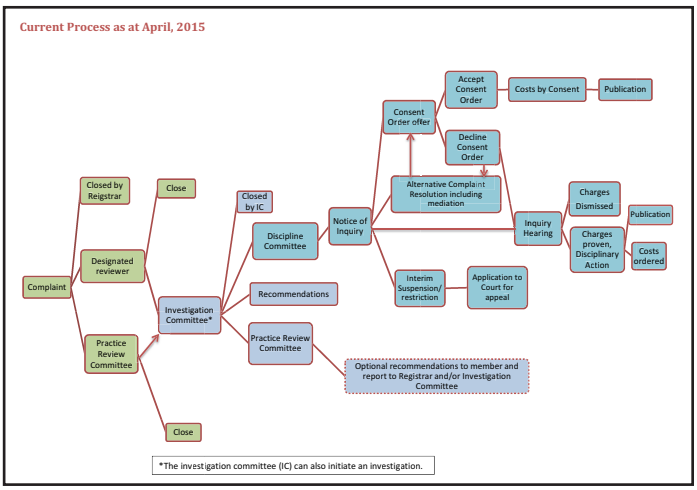

Figure 4. Flow chart of current process at Association of Professional Engineers and Geoscientists of British Columbia (APEGBC).

non-members (i.e. non-geoscientists) on disciplinary panels. For example, By-Law No.10 of the Association of Professional Geoscientists of Ontario (APGO 2003) titled 'Discipline Committee,' states "*The Chair of the Discipline Committee shall appoint several panels of not less than three members of the Discipline Committee comprised of at least one councillor who is a non-member appointee.*" The council of the APGO comprises 19 persons—16 professional members and 3 non-geoscientist government appointees. In general, there is a two-part structure in most processes, plus an independent higher-level mechanism for appeal.

Types of Offences (Allegations and Charges)

Across the different organizations representing all three regulatory and self-regulatory systems, offences are typically linked to breaches of the Code of Ethics, as one would expect. However, breaching a code of ethics is not the only area of potential offences, allegations, or charges. In some organizations, members may also be charged for incompetence or for negligence. Also, it should be noted that the term 'Code of Ethics' in not universally used, with some organizations using the term 'Code of Conduct'—for example, the Geological Society of London (2015) and South African Council for Natural Scientific Professions (2013b). In general, whether related to breaches of a code of ethics, incompetence or negligence, offences are usually characterized under the all-encompassing terms 'unprofessional conduct' or 'professional misconduct' (Fig. 5).

Most codes of ethics make paramount the duty of the member to uphold the public interest and protect public safety. One observation that can be made is that what a Code of Ethics actually says and how it is written is very important. Because it is the code that links to an organization's disciplinary mandate, the wording used can directly influence the range of charges permitted and the range of penalties that can be used against a member. Tepel (2012) makes this point

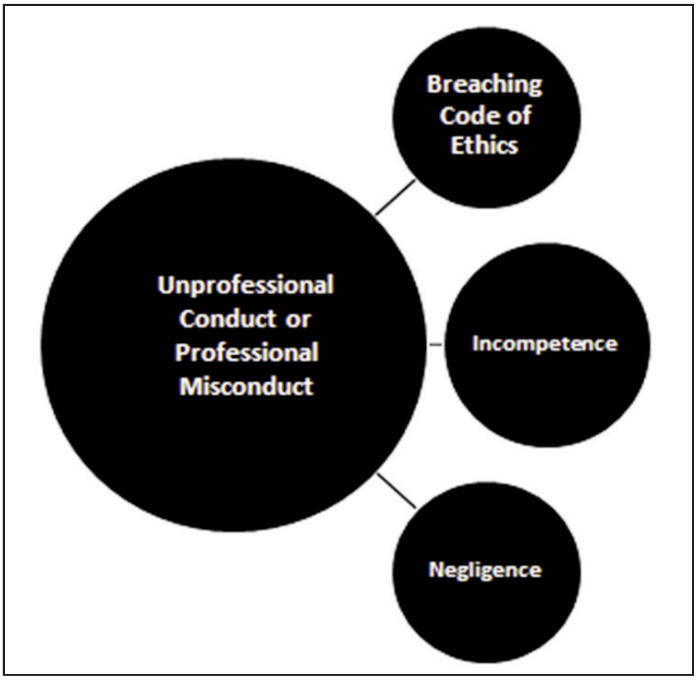

Figure 5. Types of offences (allegations, charges). Note: Code of Ethics is called Codes of Conduct at some organizations.

explicitly discussing the difference between 'shall' versus 'should' versus more aspirational wording, such as 'aspire to' or 'strive to.'

Range of Penalties

Comparing the range of penalties imposed as part of disciplinary actions across the different systems shows that penalties fall into four distinct categories (Fig. 6).

1. Practice Penalties: these are penalties that impose limitations or have an impact on the person's ability to act as a geoscientist; they include such sanctions as reprimands, restrictions (such as working under supervision), suspensions, or revocations of membership.

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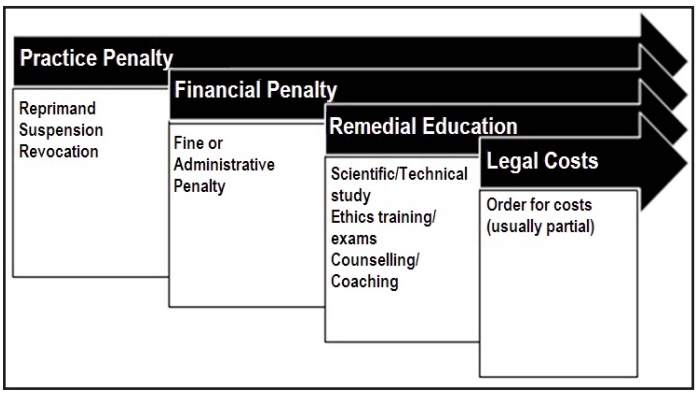

Figure 6. Principal penalties observed, falling into 4 main penalty categories.

2. Financial Penalties: these include fines, sometimes referred to as 'administrative penalties.'
3. Remedial Education Penalties: these are requirements imposed as part of a penalty that seeks to rehabilitate the member. Examples include: designated scientific or technical study to address deficiencies in a person's practice competencies, ethical training, and/or the need to pass (or repass) an ethics exam.
4. Legal Costs: although not strictly a penalty in legal terms, some systems allow for recovery of legal costs incurred by the association for its investigation work and for preparing and presenting its case against the individual. Usually, only partial costs can be claimed and costs are not commonly ordered.

Documentation on actions provides illustrations of the logic used in deciding the appropriate penalty for a particular offence or offences. A good example is a decision of APEGBC (2014) concerning a professional engineer providing services relating to restoration of sub-surface contamination. The decision states clearly the principles used to guide the reasoning in reaching the penalty that was considered appropriate in the circumstances and it also reveals the order in which the principles were used. The principles cited were: (1) The need to protect the public; (2) The need to generally deter conduct of this nature by other members of the Association; (3) The need to specifically deter the Member from further conduct of this nature; and (4) The need to rehabilitate the Member. The same principles can be expected to apply in setting a penalty where there are findings of fault by a geoscientist in British Columbia.

PART 2 – ACTIONS

Research on Actions

Increasingly, decisions and actions taken by disciplinary committees are matters of public record or formal disclosure. Information available ranges from individual case references in association documentation, to notices in member magazines and newsletters, to press releases and public announcements, to tabulated records on websites. In many instances, particularly in Canada and the USA, the full written committee or licensing board decisions are available as a matter of public record. These decision documents generally set out the charges, explain the findings, and state the penalties imposed.

For the purposes of this paper, each of the authors contributed all of the records of actions that each had as part of their own files, accumulated over the years. Contact was made with member organizations of TG-GGP and with some, but not all, professional geoscientist organizations associated with the TG-GGP member organizations, requesting information on actions taken. In addition, extensive searches were completed on websites, particularly the websites of state boards of geology in the USA, the provincial and territorial professional associations in Canada and the other TG-GGP member organizations. Recognizing that some organizations also self-regulate engineers, only those actions involving geoscientists were collected. In addition, only resolved actions that resulted in a finding of fault and imposition of a penalty were collected. Unsubstantiated complaints, matters that were dismissed, or matters that were still in process and not yet resolved were not included in the study. The study is confined only to actions taken by geoscientist professional associations and licensing boards. It does not include actions taken by other agencies or law enforcement against geoscientists, such as actions by securities commissions or civil or criminal courts. That said, reference is made to such outside actions or convictions where there was also an action taken against the same individual by the profession for the same or related offences.

Findings

A total of 92 documented actions against geoscientists were identified; these were set out in a tabular form. It is hoped this tabulated record of actions taken can be made available in the near future under the auspices of the IUGS's Task Group on Global Geoscience Professionalism. Table 2 summarizes the 92 actions. The term 'action' refers to a finding of fault against a geoscientist member or licensee where a penalty was imposed. This includes actions where a person may have resigned 'with prejudice;' in other words, they forfeited their membership or failed to renew their licence rather than allow-

Table 2. Summary information on the disciplinary actions identified from the records examined by the authors. There are 92 actions in total, of which 52 are evaluated in this paper. The table also indicates the numbers of cases for which the individual is named and full documentation is available.

92	– Actions* dating back to 1989
12	– Suspensions/Revocations for non-payment of taxes/fees
28	– Reprimand/Administrative penalties for CPD+ non-compliance
52	– Disciplinary actions (other offenses)
36/52	– Individual is named
27/52	– Full decision documentation available

*Action = Finding and Penalty, including resignation with prejudice
+CPD: Continuing Professional Development

ing the matter to proceed to discipline. The actions listed are actions concerning the practice or activity of registrants; the list does not include enforcement situations where geoscientists were sanctioned and/or publicly cited for non-registration or for practising without a licence.

Twelve of the 92 actions were suspensions or revocations for non-payment of taxes or fees. Generally, these involve USA state PG licensees; they are assumed to represent non-payment of annual renewal fees. Another 28 are reprimands or penalties for non-compliance of annual Continuing Professional Development (CPD) reporting requirements, with the majority concerning PGs in the state of Texas (Texas Board of Professional Geoscientists 2016). For the purposes of this study, both of these sets of actions, totalling 40 in all, have been set aside and are not considered further. That said, it is important to point out that compliance with annual CPD requirements is an important requirement, and such offences are very worthy of note. The matter of continuing competence in one's professional skills and the professional's obligation to meet annual compliance documentation requirements is a founding ethical principle in most professions, not just in geoscience.

This leaves 52 actions for further consideration. Of these, 36 were actions where the individual was named; and 27 were actions where full disciplinary decision documentation is available. The public disclosure of names is a matter of organizational and/or public policy, which varies by jurisdiction. For this reason, we do not list any names in the text of this paper. This information may or may not be available from the organization in question, depending on their policies. Readers should contact these organizations or visit their websites for further information, if they require it. Figure 7 shows the distribution of these actions over time in five yearly intervals since 1985 and across 9 organizations. As can be observed, the AIPG, the provincial and territorial constituent associations of Geoscientists Canada, and the ASBOG states have the greatest numbers of recorded actions, with AIPG having the earliest records, dating back to 1989. Reports of actions for some ASBOG states may be greater than is shown. This is suspected because a number of USA states do not maintain records on their websites indefinitely (records generally only go back a decade or so) and not all states display disciplinary actions information on their website. The frequency of disciplinary actions in other parts of world for which there is data is noticeably lower over time as compared to North America.

Analysis

The 52 actions can be divided into 6 general categories based on the nature of the offences that lead to disciplinary action (Table 3). Note that some actions fall into more than 1 category. The categories include:

1. falsifying data (2 actions)
2. fraudulent billing and/or falsifying time sheets (5 actions)
3. inappropriate behaviour towards others (9 actions)
4. problematic geoscience work and/or technical deficiencies (9 actions)

	'85-'90	'90-'95	'95-'00	'00-'05	'05-'10	'10-'15	Since '15
AIPG	1	1	2	2	2	3	-
Canada (CA's)	-	2	1	4	3	10	-
USA (State Boards)	-	-	2	-	4	8	2
AusIMM	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
SACNASP /GSSA	-	-	-	-	-		-
AIG	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
GSL				1	-	1	-
EFG	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
IGI	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	1	3	5	7	10	23	3

Figure 7. Distribution of the 52 disciplinary actions discussed – over time and by organization.

Table 3. Further information on disciplinary actions investigated in this study. Note that individual cases may involve matters in more than one of the listed areas, so the total adds up to more than 52.

10 cases were subsequent to other convictions (securities related, or theft/embezzlement)
10 cases were related to work outside the geographic jurisdiction of the regulatory body.
Case offences fall into 6 categories
2 – Falsifying data
5 – Fraudulent billing/false time sheets
9 – Inappropriate behaviour towards others
9 – Problematic geoscience work/technical deficiencies
14 – Misrepresenting findings/unsupported opinions
20 – Mixed other offenses (includes 2 unstated)

5. misrepresentation of findings, or the giving of unsupported opinions (14 actions)
6. mixed offences (20 actions), including 2 actions where the offence was not stated

(Some examples of other mixed offences include failure to sign and seal a document when required to do so and abuse of a dues abatement program).

Interestingly, of the 52 actions, 10 were taken following other convictions against the same individual. The other convictions typically resulted from either breaches of securities law or criminal activities such as theft or embezzlement. In addition, 10 actions were extra-jurisdictional in nature, meaning the actions pertained to geoscientist activity that took place in another geographic region outside the typical 'home' jurisdiction or geographic location of the organization. It is worth noting that extra-jurisdictional actions were taken by both Voluntary Self-Regulatory Model and Semi-Privatized Self-Regulatory Model organizations; actions of this nature were not confined to Voluntary Self-Regulatory Model organizations, as might be expected.

One of the authors, Abbott, keeps a narrative record (AIPG 2017) that describes all the actions that have been taken by the AIPG against its professional members over time. In the context of other convictions commonly occurring against the same individuals, Abbott observes that when someone seriously violates the Code of Ethics, the violations are often multiple, egregious, and may result in additional civil or criminal actions.

Some Actions by Way of Example

To look a bit more closely at some of the actions, by way of example in the opening section, mention was made of the action by the Australasian Institute of Mining and Metallurgy in 2009. The major offence in this instance involved the falsifying (salting) of gold assay values in a drill-hole database for a mineral prospect in China. This case also involved other offences, and had previously been the subject of a significant order with penalty issued by the British Columbia Securities Commission (2009) for fraud and insider trading under the British Columbia Securities Act. The penalties in the securities order included permanent prohibitions on trading in securities, on acting as a director or officer, and on acting in a management or consulting capacity, or in engaging in investor relations. Several years later in 2012, the same matter went before criminal court in British Columbia, and the geoscientist was convicted for assay fraud and sentenced to 6 years in prison (Vancouver Sun 2012).

In 2006, in a case before the State of Wisconsin Geologists Section of the Examining Board of Professional Geologists, Hydrologists and Soil Scientists, a geologist employed by a consulting firm billed over US$124,000 to a client, as a result of falsifying timekeeping records documenting the hours worked (Wisconsin Department of Safety and Professional Services 2006). The penalty was a 24-month suspension and the requirement to complete an ethics course and pay partial costs of $1250. Moreover, before lifting the suspension, the geologist needed to appear before the Examination Board to answer questions.

Abbott (AIPG 2017) describes a double action that was taken by the AIPG in 1998, where a complaint about a member was received from a member of the organization's Executive Committee. He states, "*The investigation established evidence supporting some of the allegations but not others. Indeed, the investigation demonstrated that the complainant had himself made exaggerated and unwarranted statements in making the complaint. Some of the statements made by the respondent, which the complainant alleged to be false, were verified as being true. The investigation provided sufficient evidence to bring formal charges against both the original respondent and the original complainant.*"

Penalties

Figure 8 illustrates the frequency of usage of different penalties. Total usage adds up to a number larger than the 52 cases, because a single action against an individual may see the use of several different penalty elements together. The most frequently used penalty, at 23, is the reprimand (or admonishment as it is also called). Next, at 16, are revocations, which include

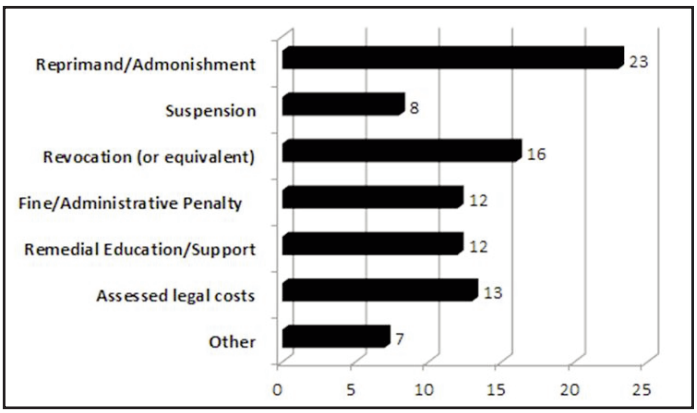

Figure 8. Usage of different penalty elements in the 52 disciplinary actions discussed.

6 instances of resignation with prejudice, where the geoscientist chose to resign their membership rather than allow the matter to proceed to discipline. Not all of the resignations with prejudice occurred in Voluntary Self-Regulatory Model organizations. Eight actions included suspensions. There were 12 where fines were imposed and 12 where the penalty required remedial training to be undertaken by the individual, including requirements to retake an ethics exam or complete some prescribed educational activity. Legal costs were imposed as part of 13 actions, whereby the individual had to pay all or part of the costs to investigate and resolve the matter. In 7 actions, the penalty was either of another form or is not known.

OBSERVATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This limited study indicates that rigorous procedures are in place and that they are being used to address the unprofessional behaviour of geoscientists. The models in use vary across the typical spectrum that one sees in other professions, with the choice of model varying to suit local legal and societal needs and norms. Jurisdiction is variable. Whereas the Voluntary Self-Regulatory Model organizations have universal geographic jurisdiction over their members, as would be expected, jurisdiction at organizations using the Semi-Privatized Self-Regulatory Model is also universal because these organizations, although statute-based, function as membership organizations and membership requirements extend to all members regardless of where in the world the member may reside or practice.

The Voluntary Self-Regulatory Model followed in Australia reflects the absence of legislation or government regulations covering geoscientific practice in most fields. There are several 'grey areas' including geoscientists engaged in geotechnical investigations and environmental geoscientists who submit reports to government in some states, where professional registration offered by the AIG and the AusIMM is required, but where the professional institutes themselves would be required to act against members in breach of required standards of practice under their codes of ethics. This Voluntary Self-Regulatory Model for Australia is under review by both the AIG and the AusIMM due to the manner in which both institutes are potentially exposed to litigation by a geoscientist, or the employer of a geoscientist, whose professional practice has

been affected by adverse judgements under the Institutes' ethics and standards processes. Professional associations representing members in other fields (e.g. engineering, accountancy, finance, etc.) can seek accreditation by Australia's Professional Standards Council (PSC), a Commonwealth government body, in order to access legislated limitations of liabilities provided by professional practice legislation in most Australian states. PSC accreditation would require AIG and AusIMM to mandate verifiable CPD by members (currently only a requirement of RPGeo and CP members), commit to continuous improvement of professional standards, and the implementation of a risk management program, subject to annual audits. These changes would occur, however, in an environment where self-regulation of professional geoscience would remain largely voluntary.

The study demonstrates that when geoscientists transgress, they are being disciplined. It also illustrates that the range of penalties is significant and includes remedial penalties to rectify skills deficiencies and rehabilitate geoscientists so they can regain fitness to practice going forward, in a safe and ethical manner. The naming of the geoscientist who is the subject of a disciplinary action is by no means universal, but naming is considered important for the following reasons:

1. It adheres to the principles of openness and transparency.
2. It demonstrates that a duty of care is taken by the organization, which builds public trust.
3. It serves as a strong deterrent to others.
4. It protects against re-appearance and re-offence.
5. It conveniently provides a unique action-by-action identifier.

On the second to last point, it has happened in some professions that individuals who offend and are sanctioned in one organization move and then become re-registered as a professional elsewhere in another organization, only to re-offend there.

In going through the process of assembling the information for this paper and in reviewing the findings, it is apparent there are some considerations for the future. In addition to comments below, please refer also to Abbott (2016). Although our work has identified a sizable number of actions, it is by no means a complete record of all actions that have occurred against geoscientists over time. Some organizations' websites have little or no information about disciplinary actions, whereas others have poor coverage on actions going back in time. Also, there are some large national professional geoscience organizations, such as in Spain and Italy, that were not contacted as part of this study. There is a pressing need to complete, to the greatest extent possible, an historical record of all disciplinary actions against geoscientists worldwide, over time, and to maintain it going forward.

The sharing of disciplinary actions information between our geoscience professional organizations (of all type) is important for the reasons stated above. It is recommended that geoscience professional organizations notify other geoscience professional organizations about all actions taken, including resignations with prejudice. This includes government boards notifying professional associations of such matters, and vice versa. It is recommended that a global repository of geoscience disciplinary actions should be established and kept as up-to-date as possible. This should be accessible and searchable, by any interested party, at any time. It is suggested that the IUGS's Task Group on Global Geoscience Professionalism would be the appropriate agency to take on this task and serve as the permanent custodian of the repository.

CONCLUSION

This review shows that much information about disciplinary measures in geoscience and related procedures is available for North America, Europe, South Africa, and Australia, but there is little base-line information about procedures in other parts of the world. The majority of actions and the best information about actions come from North America, specifically the USA and Canada. It is not clear if the lower frequency of actions outside North America reflects less unprofessional conduct among geoscientists in other regions, or whether such behaviour is at similar levels, but not as commonly addressed through procedures or reported in the public domain. With geoscience being the global profession that it is, and with geoscientists thinking globally in all the scientific work they do as practitioners, we think that geoscience should establish and maintain a strong global network to share and exchange information on its disciplinary measures as a profession—including the procedures put in place and the actions taken over time.

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PROFESSIONAL AFFAIRS

Innovation in Establishing the Standard of Care in a Self-Regulated Profession

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SUMMARY

Under Law, professional geoscientists have a duty of care that they must adhere to when they carry out their activities. The question is, when a duty of care exists, what is the standard of care that is owed? Geoscience regulators in Canada and around the world are working with geoscientists to develop innovative solutions in establishing the standard of care that must be met. By clearly establishing what our expectations are concerning standard of care, we are setting common ideals and goals as a professional community. Both society, geoscientists and employers of geoscientists look to regulatory associations for guidance on professional practice, therefore regulators need to strive to support and educate their members by developing tools and resources that allow members to meet the standard of care expected of them. The paper describes innovative approaches being offered to assist members of Engineers and Geoscientists BC and is based on an oral presentation given by the author at the International Geology Congress in Cape Town South Africa in August 2016.

RÉSUMÉ

En vertu de la loi, les géoscientifiques professionnels ont un devoir de diligence auquel ils doivent se conformer dans l'exercice de leurs activités. La question qui se pose est la suivante: lorsqu'il existe un devoir de diligence, quelle est la norme de diligence à respecter? Les organismes de réglementation géoscientifiques au Canada, et ailleurs dans le monde, travaillent de concert avec les géoscientifiques à l'élaboration de solutions novatrices pour établir la norme de diligence à respecter. En établissant clairement nos attentes concernant les normes de diligence, nous établissons des idéaux et des objectifs communs en tant que regroupement professionnel. La société, les géoscientifiques et leurs employeurs attendent des associations de réglementation des conseils sur les usages professionnels. Les organismes de réglementation doivent donc s'efforcer de soutenir et former leurs membres en dotant des outils et des ressources qui leur permettent de respecter les normes d'usage en vigueur. L'article qui suit, et qui décrit les approches novatrices proposées aux membres de la *Engineers and Geoscientist British Columbia* est basé sur une présentation orale donnée par l'auteur au Congrès international de géologie à Cape Town, en Afrique du Sud, en août 2016.

Traduit par le Traducteur

INTRODUCTION

In accordance with Tort Law, professional geoscientists have a duty of care, which requires adherence to a standard of care while performing any acts that could foreseeably harm others (Andrews 2013). The first question to ask is, when a duty of care exists, what is the standard of care that is owed? The standard of care owed is generally accepted as that care which would be expected of any reasonable and competent professional geoscientist in the same circumstances. The next question then is – how can we as a professional community and we as a regulatory body best ensure that individual geoscientists (our members) have all the support necessary to operate with the care expected of reasonable and competent professionals in all circumstances?

Geoscience is a self-regulated profession in Canada; but what does that mean? Self-regulation is a privilege granted by the government to those professions that have demonstrated that they can put the interests of the public ahead of their own personal or business interests. In Canada, geoscience is regulated at the provincial and territorial level, with 10 regulatory associations. Three associations regulate geoscience only, and the remaining seven regulate geoscience and engineering

Geoscience Canada, v. 44, https://doi.org/10.12789/geocanj.2017.44.127 pages 191–194

together. In order to practice as a professional geoscientist in Canada you must be registered with the regulatory association in the province(s) and/or territory(s) that you work within.

GEOSCIENCE REGULATION IN BRITISH COLUMBIA

In British Columbia, the geoscience and engineering professions are regulated by Engineers and Geoscientists BC under the authority of the Engineers and Geoscientists Act and under the Bylaws of the Association (Engineers and Geoscientists BC 2014). Engineers and Geoscientists BC is governed by a council of elected members, licensees and government appointees. It was initially founded in 1920 as an engineering regulator with geoscience activity added in the early 1990's.

Engineers and Geoscientists BC, which is the business name of the Association of Professional Engineers and Geoscientists of British Columbia, is a proactive and innovative regulator that has developed multiple programs and resources for practitioners to aide them in meeting their professional obligations and standard of care. These resources include, practice advisory services, the Practice Review Program, quality management guidelines, professional practice guidelines, the Organizational Quality Management Program, and continuing professional development opportunities.

Engineers and Geoscientists BC receives numerous inquiries every day from its members, provincial and local government representatives and the public regarding professional practice and professional reliance issues. As a result, Engineers and Geoscientists BC has developed a system, which ensures that these inquiries are responded to efficiently and effectively. Several practice advisors (both professional engineers and professional geoscientists) are available to answer professional practice related questions by email, telephone and in person. All inquiries are tracked in a database system, which facilitates consistency in advice and allows advisors to track the various trends in inquiries. These trends will often be used to develop articles, bulletins and frequently asked questions for the Engineers and Geoscientists BC website.

One of most important programs that Engineers and Geoscientists BC has implemented is the Practice Review Program (Engineers and Geoscientists BC 2005). The program began as a consequence of a rooftop parking deck collapse in 1988. The official report, published following a Commission of Inquiry into the cause of the collapse, contained recommendations on how to prevent a similar event from happening in the future (Closkey 1988). One recommendation was that Engineers and Geoscientists BC should develop a practice review process where a percentage of its members would be audited annually. Although, the initial reason for the implementation of the Practice Review Program was due to poor engineering practice, there are also examples of poor geoscience practice. These include the Bre-X scandal in the late 1990's, which lead to the Mining Standards Task Force – a joint initiative of the Ontario Securities Commission and The Toronto Stock Exchange, (Yuen and Vaughan 2000), which resulted in new reporting standards for mineral exploration and mining activities. These new standards, under National Instrument 43-101, stipulate that all technical reports by issuers must now be prepared by a Qualified Person, who is appropriately experienced and either a professional geoscientist or professional engineer. (Canadian Institute of Mining 2011).

Practice Reviews are quality review checks of a member's professional practices. The review is a peer review procedure conducted by other members, typically in the same area of practice. The review is general in nature focusing on quality management practices, but in some circumstances, an additional review (that is more technical in nature) may be required. Most Practice Reviews are a result of random selection; however, a Practice Review can be initiated as a result of an investigation or disciplinary action. Additionally, members who have a limited scope of practice, Engineering Licensees and Geoscience Licensees, must undergo a practice review 5 years after being granted their membership (https://www.egbc.ca/Become-a-Member/How-to-Apply/Professional-Membership-and-Licence/Limited-Licence).

All Engineers and Geoscientists BC members are required to comply with all aspects of the Act and Bylaws. Within the Bylaws there are seven quality management requirements:

1. Retention of project documentation – Professional documentation must be easily retrievable and maintained for a minimum of 10 years after the project is completed or the files are no longer in use.
2. Documented checks of engineering and geoscience work – Professional work must undergo a documented check prior to being delivered to others who will rely on the work.
3. Direct supervision – Professionals must directly supervise any professional work that they delegate to others.
4. Use of seal – Professionals must affix their Engineers and Geoscientists BC seal to all professional documentation that they have prepared or has been prepared under their direct supervision prior to being delivered to someone who will rely on that work.
5. Documented field reviews – Professionals are required to conduct periodic field reviews during the construction or implementation of a project.
6. Documented independent review of structural designs – This quality management requirement is only applicable to professional engineer members and not geoscientists.
7. Practice guidelines – Engineers and Geoscientists BC members must be aware of and comply with the intent of any applicable professional practice guidelines.

Engineers and Geoscientists BC often receives specific questions regarding these requirements, therefore the need for additional guidance was identified. Engineers and Geoscientists BC worked with its members to develop guidelines for the first six of the quality management requirements listed above (Engineers and Geoscientists BC 2013). Such requirements are common to both geoscientists and engineers, in that all professionals should be checking their work, retaining their project documentation and properly authenticating their documents. For more information on these requirements and the guidance provided, refer to Engineers and Geoscientists BC (2013).

Table 1. Engineers and Geoscientists BC Professional Practice Guidelines.

BC Building Code and Related
AIBC/APEGBC Practice Note 16: Professional Design and Field Reviews by Supporting Registered Professionals
Building Enclosure Design Guide
Building Enclosure Engineering Services
Bulletin 34: Building Envelope Services - Appropriate Professional Practice
Bulletin K: Letters of Assurance in the BC Building Code and Due Diligence
Designing Guards for Buildings
Electrical Engineering Services for Building Projects
Fire Protection Engineering Services for Building Projects
Geotechnical Engineering Services for Building Projects
Guide to the Letters of Assurance in the BC Building Code
Mechanical Engineering Services for Building Projects
Housing Foundations & Geotechnical Challenges Guide
Statement of Compliance under Pool Regulations
Forestry, Natural Resources and Hazards
Management of Terrain Stability in the Forest Sector
Professional Services in the Forest Sector - Crossings
Professional Services in the Forest Sector - Forest Roads
Professional Services in the Forest Sector - Terrain Stability Assessments
Legislated Landslide Assessments for Proposed Residential Development in BC
Legislated Riparian Area Assessments in BC
Legislated Flood Assessments in a Changing Climate in BC
Flood Mapping Guidelines in BC
Civil
Site Characterization for Dam Foundations
Legislated Dam Safety Reviews in BC
Onsite Sewerage Guidelines
Developing Climate Change Resilient Designs for Highway Infrastructure in BC
Structural
Professional Structural Engineering Services for Part 3 Building Projects
Professional Structural Engineering Services for Part 9 Building
Structural Design Issues for Housing and Small Buildings in BC
Structural , Fire Protection and Building Envelope Engineering for 5 and 6 Story Wood Frame Residential Buildings
Seismic Retrofit Guidelines
Other
Budget Guidelines
Intellectual Property
Shop Drawings
Sustainability Guidelines
Expert Witness Guidelines
Professional Responsibilities for the Design and Installation of Elevating Devices
Human Rights and Diversity

Another way in which Engineers and Geoscientists BC is helping its members achieve the standard of care expected of them is through professional practice guidelines. These are practice area specific documents that help to establish what to do, not how to do it. They are typically developed where there is a lack of available guidance or clarity in particular areas of practice. Often, Engineers and Geoscientists BC is approached by, and works with, government ministries or other associations to develop these guidelines. When it is determined that a particular guideline is required, Engineers and Geoscientists BC assembles a group of experts who prepare a guideline, which is subject to review by key stakeholders at different stages. More than 30 professional practice guidelines are now available on the Engineers and Geoscientists BC website, including, for example: Site Characterization for Dam Foundations in British Columbia, Flood Mapping in British Columbia, Management of Terrain Stability in the Forest Sector, and Legislated Flood Assessments in a Changing Climate in British Columbia. A full list of available guidelines is provided in Table 1.

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It is evident that Engineers and Geoscientists BC has many tools for its members, which help them in meeting their standard of care, but what about the organizations that employ engineers and geoscientists? Engineers and Geoscientists BC is one of the few professional geoscience and professional engineering regulatory bodies in Canada that does not regulate organizations that provide engineering and geoscience services or products. However, it recognizes that the organizations that employ engineering and geoscience professionals have a significant influence on how their professional employees practice, and because of this, Engineers and Geoscientists BC developed the Organizational Quality Management (OQM) Program. This voluntary program is based on the seven quality management requirements set out in the Act and Bylaws. Any organization that employs professional geoscientists and/or professional engineers, regardless of their size or area of practice can apply to become certified. Currently, more than 250 organizations have become OQM certified; these include organizations from the consulting sector, provincial ministries and local government. The goal of the program is to help organizations support engineers and geoscientists in meeting their standard of care and regulatory requirements. Since the program was implemented in 2012, Engineers and Geoscientists BC has seen a significant improvement in the practice of its members. Prior to the OQM Program being introduced, many professional documents were being produced and delivered without undergoing a sufficient checking process and without the professional's seal; this has greatly improved over the last several years in British Columbia. Additionally, the program has facilitated a greater level of understanding that the health and welfare of the public and the protection of the environment must come first when geoscientists and engineers are carrying out their work. The OQM Program has proven to be a learning opportunity for organizations, professional members, the public and Engineers and Geoscientists BC. For more information on the OQM Program, refer to Engineers and Geoscientists BC (https://www.egbc.ca/Practice-Resources/Organizational- uality-Management-Program).

Another important aspect during a geoscientist's career is continuing competence and lifelong learning. Advances in the science and rapid changes in usage of technology require geoscientists to keep current and maintain their standard of practice. Engineers and Geoscientists BC regularly organizes various scientific, technical and non-technical seminars and workshops that can be counted towards the recommended 80 hours of annual continuing professional development (CPD). Additionally, Engineers and Geoscientists BC often collaborates with other associations and groups to offer joint CPD opportunities. For example, Engineers and Geoscientists BC has recently signed on to be a Technical Partner with the Resources for Future Generations Conference taking place in Vancouver, British Columbia, in June 2018. Forming partnerships and connections with other technical associations and groups is something all regulators should strive for to ensure they are offering their members the best available professional practice resources and guidance (https://www.egbc.ca/Practice-Resources/Professional-Development).

CONCLUSION

Geoscientists are professionals and with that comes the responsibility to be accountable to our colleagues, the profession and the public. By clearly establishing what our expectations are concerning standard of care, we are setting common ideals and goals as a professional community. Society, government and individual geoscientists and their employers look to regulatory associations for guidance on professional practice, therefore regulators need to support and educate their members by developing tools and resources that allow them to meet this standard of care. By being proactive and establishing practice guidelines and providing practice support for our members, Engineers and Geoscientists BC as a regulator, is fulfilling its duty to hold paramount the safety, health and welfare of the public, protecting the environment and promoting health and safety within the work place.

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