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GEOLOGICAL PROBLEM SOLVING WITH LOTUS 1-2-3 FOR EXPLORATION AND MINING GEOLOGY (with programs on diskette)

GEORGE S. KOCH, JR., University of Georgia

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List of Worksheets

Series Editor's **Foreword**

This contribution to the Computer Methods in the Geosciences (CMG) series by George Koch, Jr., is his second - the first being, "Exploration-Geochemical Data Analysis with the IBM PC." As with the first book, this one is another practical guide. This work is the direct result of Koch's 35 years experience in the exploration for and exploitation of mineral deposits. Coauthor with R.F. Link of the successful book on "Statistical Analysis of Geological Data" (v. 1, 1970/v. 2, 1971, John Wiley & Sons), it brings a wealth of experience to the material presented in this volume.

The reader is taken through the book step-by-step with detailed instructions on just how to accomplish each step. Subjects range through statistics, such as confidence intervals, fitting a straightline, analysis of variance, probability, and exploration models to exploration geochemical data, from economic considerations such as compound interest, depreciation and depletion, and discounted cash flow to blocking ore from workings and drillhole data, ore concentration and smelter settlement to Peters's model for mineral-property evaluation. The object of the book is to teach the user how Lotus 1-2-3 can help solve the many numerical problems facing the practitioner today.

Koch

Spreadsheets are being used more and more as earth-science users learn of the many applications to which they can be made. They are versatile and easy to use. Koch has adeptly put together the 1-2-3 programs as well as the text explaining their use. Examples are taken from his own work as well as from the literature and range from Tennessee zinc to Nevada placer gold deposits. Intended to be used by both the professional and student, this book can serve as a text/lab manual or a reference book. It should be noted too, that the material is so structured that it could be used in other geological fields, including petroleum geology.

This volume is the eighth in the series initiated in 1982. First published by Hutchinson Ross Publishing Company (Stroudsburg, PA) and later Van Nostrand Reinhold (New York), the series is being continued by Pergamon Press. The series (1) promotes the subject of geomathematics by making available material in plain English; (2) introduces the reader to the subject and where to get more information; and (3) keeps the geological public informed of latest developments in a fast-moving field. As stated in the first volume of the series it is ".....designed to be **self-contained and open-ended." The same high quality is promised by** the publisher and this contribution by George Koch certainly fulfills that **promise.**

Other titles which are in preparation include:

- Computer Applications for Geologic Exploration: Resource and **Hazards, by William Green.**
- **Simulating Sedimentary Transport by Waves, by Paul A. Martinez and John W. Harbaugh.**

DANIEL F. MERRIAM

Preface

Geologists working in the mineral industries are accustomed to solving many numerical problems, some concerned with exploring for deposits, and others with evaluation of deposits once they are located. Required is a knowledge of varied techniques, most of which may be classified as statistical or financial. The software package 1-2-3 (TM) of the Lotus Development Corporation provides a powerful new tool for implementing these techniques. The purpose of this book is to present effective 1-2-3 problem-solving methods for geology as applied in the mineral industries.

This book provides 1-2-3 programs (also named worksheets) together with a brief text that explains them. The statistical and financial principles, not explained in this book, may be presented in books for which this book may be a companion work.

This book is for both professionals and students. Professionals will determine it suitable for self-study. It also can be used as a laboratory manual for students.

Using the floppy diskette supplied, you will be able to solve problems at once, following the brief instructions. For effective learning, I have structured the ideas and worksheets from simple to complex. In order to make it easy for you to modify the worksheets if you wish, I have made them simple and have defined and labeled the variables clearly. Advanced features of 1-2-3 are used only when absolutely necessary.

1-2-3 is ideally suited for our purpose because it combines a spreadsheet with mathematical and statistical analysis and graphical displays. The term *spreadsheet* implies in accounting "the traditional financial modeling tools: the accountant's columnar pad, pencil, and calculator" (Ewing, D.P., and others, 1987, p. 12). In geology, the spreadsheet becomes an orthogonal x,y grid on which to drillholes, take soil samples, or lay out a mining plan. And, in mathematical/statistical terms, the spreadsheet becomes a matrix of data or calculated terms.

Therefore, with 1-2-3 your only investment in time (or, overhead in computer language) is learning its rudiments, rather than having to learn several systems, perhaps one for statistics, one for databases, and yet another one for financial calculations. And, because 1-2-3 is used widely, many books are available if you need them. Help also is available from the Lotus Development Corp. Moreover, because of the widespread acceptance of 1-2-3, we can anticipate that the system will be maintained in the future. This book's programs should be compatible with future releases of updated versions of 1-2-3.

I have learned programming in 1-2-3 is highly rewarding in contrast to programming in a high-level language such as FORTRAN or BASIC. Programming in 1-2-3 is to programming in BASIC or FORTRAN as building with premade window and door units is to building with only dimension lumber and glass. Correcting any bugs that may exist in this book or in other programs that you may write will be less of a problem than in high-level languages because of 1-2-3's structure and organizational support.

Although the programs in this book are written for problems about metallic ore deposits, they also are pertinent for industrial minerals and are relevant for problem solving in other geological specialties including petroleum geology.

The example problems come from many sources. Some are from the excellent 1987 book "Exploration and Mining Geology," by W. Peters

(John Wiley & Sons, New York); in fact, I have included most of Peters's numerical examples; others were taught me by H.E. McKinstry. A number are from my work, published and unpublished.

T.J. Bornhorst, J.T. Hanley, D. Papacharalampos, W.C. Peters, and T.B. Thompson reviewed various drafts of this book and made many helpful suggestions. Of course, I am responsible for any mistakes and shortcomings.

GEORGE S. KOCH, JR.

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CHAPTER

I

Introduction

This book contains Lotus 1-2-3 worksheets (on a floppy diskette) and a brief explanatory text. In addition, you need to have 1 -2-3 (version 2.01 or later) available.

I assume that you have a basic understanding of 1-2-3. If you are unfamiliar with the system, the "Introduction to 1-2-3" of the Lotus Development Corporation will be helpful. The Corporation's 1-2-3 manuals are useful for reference. An excellent introduction to 1-2-3 in general is by Ewing and others (1987), and a book on statistics with 1- 2-3 has been written by Kilpatrick (1987).

I assume that you are familiar with the elementary concepts and standard notation of mathematical statistics, available in a geological framework in books by Koch and Link (1970,1971), Davis (1986), or in standard statistical textbooks. Also assumed is familiarity with basic methods of mineral-deposit evaluation, as developed by Peters (1987) in a geologically orientedbook or by Stermole and Stermole (1987) in abook on economic evaluation.

The floppy diskette contains 1-2-3 worksheets, which have the property that the model, consisting of the formulae, is not separated from the data, which consist of the values that change from one problem to another. This situation is unlike that in higher level languages (for example, FORTRAN or BASIC), in which the data and formulae are

Koch

clearly separated. I provide worksheets for representative geological and mining situations. To use the worksheets for your data, simply replace the example data with your data, altering the numbers of rows and columns if necessary. Alternatively, remove all of the data, to create dataless worksheets, named *templates,* in 1-2-3 jargon. (Be careful to remove only data, not formulae; you can identify data cells by inspection on the screen, or by printing out the contents of all cells, using the /Print/ Printer/Options /Other/Cell-Formula command.)

The rest of this chapter tells you how to get started using the worksheets, provides some other introductory material, and ends with a general conclusion for this book.

HOW TO START

Many of us prefer to see something on the screen before reading text. If you belong to this group, here is how to start.

You need an IBM Personal Computer, with enough memory to run 1- 2-3, and preferably with a graphics card, or a compatible computer made by another vendor. Desirable but not required are a monitor that that will display graphs and a printer that will make hard copies of them.

The diskette in this book contains 1-2-3 worksheets. You will need to copy this diskette (termed the original diskette) to one or more working diskettes or to a hard disk. There are two reasons for doing this. First, it is desirable to save the original diskette so that it will not wear out through repeated use, and, second, you might inadvertently erase or alter a worksheet in a way that you do not intend, so you need to be able to retrieve an unaltered worksheet from an original diskette. (I generally keep two or three working diskettes.) Because the original diskette is write protected, it is difficult to damage while you are copying, but, if you are uncertain about the procedure, you may want to consult your computer manual and practice on other diskettes.

To copy the original diskette to a working diskette, follow the instructions with your computer. For the IBM Personal Computer with two diskette drives, first format a diskette. The command to copy and verify 1-2-3 worksheet files is

COPY *.* B-yv.

Alternatively, you can copy the original diskette to a directory on a hard disk.

The worksheets take up about 310,000 of the some 360,000 characters that can be stored on a floppy diskette.

CONVENTIONS

Long worksheets are programmed for manual recalculation. To recalculate, press the function key (F9).

All references to particular keys are to the keyboard of the IBM Personal Computer. Cell references are in capital letters and numbers, for example, D7. For ease in reference, I have numbered the rows of each worksheet in column A and have left column B empty. Columns are labeled wherever necessary.

Most formulae follow the notation in Peters's (1987) book, except for compound interest factors, for which I have adopted Stermole and Stermole's (1987) notation. In general, metric units and U.S. dollars are used.

For clarity, I have labeled most of the variables used in the worksheets, using 1-2-3's /Range Name Label command. In the individual worksheets, the variables are listed in 1-2-3's alphabetical order, as provided by the command /Range Name Table.

Lotus 1-2-3 limits labels to 15 upper-case alphabetic and certain other characters; within this limitation my intent is to make the labels easy to read. Toward this end, I have used these conventions:

> *Words, letters, and numbers within a label are separated by periods (.) rather than by symbols like slashes (/) and dashes (-) that can be confused with mathematical operators.

*Compound interest factors are preceded by a poundsign (#).

*Labels for dollar values are preceded by a exclamation mark (!), rather than a dollar sign, because 1-2-3 uses a dollar sign for a particular purpose (to set cell references).

*Percentage factors are preceded by a percent sign (%).

*Labels for metals start with the chemical symbol, for example AG.

Macros, which are programs written in 1-2-3's command language, are used in Chapters 6 and 7. They are listed in the worksheets and named in alphabetical order.

CONCLUSIONS

As you practice with the worksheets in this book, you will doubtless learn many ways to adopt them for your particular purposes. They will also suggest other worksheets that you devise. 1-2-3 worksheets and templates are being published in increasing numbers in geology and mining engineering.

What precautions need you take? For at least two reasons, it is difficult to locate mistakes in worksheets: (1) worksheets do not separate formulae and data and (2) macros are, at present, difficult to read and correct. This situation, we can hope is temporary. Moreover, one always need to be aware of the choices possible to solve a particular problem, one or another spreadsheet, perhaps a statistical-analysis package, or a highlevel language.

In the future, I anticipate that it will be easier to interface the various types of computational aids with one another than at present. And more functions will be developed for 1-2-3 that will make scientific, statistical, and engineering computing more routine that at present.

CHAPTER 2

Confidence Intervals

In this chapter, we will use 1-2-3 to calculate confidence intervals for a population mean. The principles and methods are explained by Koch and Link (1970, p. 79-104), Peters (1987), p. 476), and by standard statistical texts.

2.1 CONFIDENCE INTERVALS FOR A FICTITIOUS DATA SET

Suppose that you have drilled five exploration diamond-drillholes in the Middle Tennessee zinc district. Suppose further that the zinc assays are 2, 4, 6, 6, and 7%, as recorded in Part 1 of worksheet C2A.WK1.

In Part 2, we calculate a confidence limit at a 10-percent risk level for the data in Part 1. Line 26 records the number of drillholes; line 28 the arithmetic average (sample mean); line 30 the sample variance; and line 32 the sample standard deviation. The value for Student's t is entered in line 34 from a standard table present in statistical textbooks (also available in Koch and Link, 1970, p. 346). Line 36 is D, the distance that is one-half the width of the confidence interval; line 38 is UCL, the upper confidence limit; and line 40 is LCL, the lower confidence limit. For this **data set, the sample variance is exactly 4, and the sample standard deviation is exactly 2. Therefore, it is easy to check the 1-2-3 arithmetic that calculates these statistics. Because 1-2-3's function @VAR calculates a population variance rather than a sample variance, the formula in line 30 is corrected to obtain the required sample variance. Part 3 of worksheet C2A.WK1 is the table of labels used to make the formulae easy to read.**

2.2 CONFIDENCE INTERVALS FOR DATA FROM THE ELMWOOD, TENNESSEE ZINC DEPOSIT

The data in the previous section are fictitious, selected for their simplicity. In Part 4, we repeat the calculations for data from six surface boreholes drilled to evaluate the Elmwood, Tennessee zinc deposit. These holes are six of 121 holes drilled by the New Jersey Zinc company to evaluate the deposit (Callahan, 1977); the data are from Chapter 6 (worksheet C6B.WK1), where the geological situation is discussed. The confidence interval, from 4.10 to 5.60 percent zinc, includes the mined grade of 4.2 percent for the first year of production (Koch and Schuenemeyer, 1982, p. 660).

2.3 CONFIDENCE INTERVALS FOR THE DON TOMAS VEIN, FRISCO MINE

The Don Tomas vein of the Frisco mine, Chihuahua, Mexico contained a large and rich ore shoot some 600 m long and 40 m high (Koch and Link, 1964); Figure 2.1 is a vertical longitudinal section. The vein was discovered and explored by diamond drilling.

Part 1 of worksheet C2B.WK1 tabulates data for 18 diamond-drillholes bored through the vein. (The units, meter-grams per tonne, and meter-percent per tonne are appropriate for evaluating narrow tabular ore bodies.) Part 2 gives the calculations and confidence intervals for the five metals that were produced from this vein. As explained by Koch and Link (1970, p. 100), the confidence limits include the grade of ore mined

Confidence Intervals

as established from 1,829 drift samples taken after the vein was developed for mining.

Usually, confidence intervals narrow as more data (observations, in statistical nomenclature) are obtained, corresponding in this example to more holes being drilled. They narrow for two reasons: (1) in the equation used to calculate D in line 51, the number of observations, N, in the denominator, increases, and (2) the value of t, in the numerator, decreases. Figure 2.2 graphs this change for lead. The interval width narrows from 2 to 13 holes as expected. It then widens at hole 14, because the grade of lead in this hole is so high, an illustration of statistical fluctuation. The interval width for holes 15 to 18 continues to narrow progressively.

Figure 2.2 Confidence intervals for lead, Don Tomas vein, Frisco mine.

Worksheet C2A Confidence intervals for Elmwood mine

```
I 1 Dec 87, file C2A.WK1 on disks GSK 059-061 
2 
3 Worksheet C2A.WK1. Confidence intervals for the Elmwood 
mine 
4 
5 1. Fictitious assay data from drilling in Middle 
Tennessee 
6 
7 
  ----------
8 Zn, 
9 % 
10 ----------
II 2 
12 4 
13 6 
14 6 
15 7 
16 ---------
17 
18 
19 2. Calculation of a confidence interval for the popula-
tion mean 
20 
21 C D 
22 -------
              -----
23 Item Zn, 
24 %
25 -------------------
26 N 5
27 
28 AVG 5 
29 
30 VAR 4 
31 
32 STD 2 
33 
34 T(5%) 2.132 
35 
36 D 1.91
```
Koch

Worksheet C2A *(continued)*

```
37 
38 
           6.9139 
40 
LCL 3.09 
41 
42 
   -------------------
43 
44 
45 
3. Table of labels 
46 
47 
AVERAGE D28 
48 
                   D D36 
49 HOLES
                   C11...C1550 
                   D<sub>26</sub>
51 
STD. DEVIATION D32 
52 
                   D34
53 
VARIANCE D30 
54 
55 
56 
4. Elmwood mine data (from worksheet C6B.WK1). 
57 
58 
59 
Zn, 
     "5 
60 
61 ---------
      3.6 
62 
       6.0 
63 
       5.2 
64 
       5.9 
65 
       5.5 
66 
61 
       3.4 
68 
        3.6 
69 
       5.6 
70 
    _________
71 
72
```
Worksheet C2A *(continued)*

```
*~ ^ 
73 2. Calculation of a confidence interval for the 
population mean 
74 
 75 
C D 
76 -------------------
 77 
Item Zn, 
78 
79 -------------------
80 
81 
 82 AVG 4.85
83 
 84 
VAR 1.25 
85 
 86 
STD 1.12 
87 
 88 
T(5%) 1.895 
89 
 90 
D 0.75 
91 
 92 
ÜCL 5.60 
93 
 94 
LCL 4.10 
95 
96 -------------------
            % 
          N 8
```
Koch

Worksheet C2B Confidence intervals for Frisco mine

I 11 Dec 87, file C2B.WK1 on disks GSK 059-061 2 3 Worksheet C2B.WK1. Confidence intervals for the Frisco mine 4 5 1. Assay data from diamond-drillholes bored through the 6 Don Tomas vein (from Koch and Link, 1964, p.24) . 7 8 9 C D E F G H I J $10 - -$ II Hole Au, Ag, Pb, Cu, Zn, x, y, 12 No. m-g/T m-g/T m-% m-% m-% metrs metrs 13 14 1 0.15 16.8 1.77 0.090 1.44 328 1,728 0.24 115.2 15 2 4.08 0.072 13.20 496 1,665 16 3 1.20 384.0 6.72 0.120 5.88 460 1,603 17 0.00 0.240 4.92 250 1,603 4 172.8 5.16 0.00 893.2 13.44 0.700 1,665 18 5 5.11 583 1,518 19 6 0.00 80.0 1.04 0.080 1.04 665 20 7 1.30 239.2 10.92 0.416 5.98 400 1,603 21 8 0.07 37.8 2.24 0.238 4.76 422 1,787 22 9 0.00 708.0 9.36 0.360 8.64 1,499 665 458 23 10 0.00 0.24 0.060 0.24 1,483 4.0 6.25 1,483 24 11 0.00 88.0 0.190 12.50 413 25 12 1.08 252.0 3.60 0.594 9.36 166 1,473 0.00 261.0 11.10 0.250 25.40 346 1,483 26 13 27 14 0.00 294.8 32.34 1.210 36.08 465 1,787 28 15 0.00 45.0 1.98 0.315 4.59 483 1,787 29 16 0.49 256.2 2.52 0.140 3.22 652 1,665 30 17 0.00 170.1 0.63 0.903 10.71 183 1,483 31 18 0.35 987.0 4.90 0.455 1.75 727 1,424 32 -----33 Note: $m-q/T$ = meter-grams per tonne; $m-8$ = meter-percent per tonne

Fitting a Straightline To Exploration Data

In this chapter, we will fit a straightline to exploration data through the statistical method of linear regression, which is explained by Koch and Link (1971, p. 7-15) and by standard statistical textbooks. This method determines the equation of the straightline with the property that the sum of the squared vertical deviations of the points from the line is a minimum.

Linear regression is also useful for problems of ore-deposit evaluation, for instance to compare different methods of sampling or assaying.

3.1 GOLD PLACER DATA FROM MANHATTAN, NEVADA

Worksheet C3A.WK1 contains data for gold nuggets collected in a stream near Manhattan, Nevada (Ferguson, 1916). The following hypothesis will be tested: that gold percentage rises with increasing distance from the place where the stream crosses a lode gold deposit that is the source of the nuggets. The supposition is that, as the nuggets travel downstream, silver and base metals are leached from them.

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Columns C and D of the data table give the paired original values for distance and gold percentage. After the data table, I did a linear regression using the /Data Regression command. The output, which is presented in lines 49 to 57, is explained in the references cited in the previous paragraph and in 1-2-3 manuals.

In lines 63 to 66, we set up a table of labels. CONSTANT, the yintercept, is in cell F50, and X.COEFFICIENT, the slope of the line, is in cell E56. Remembering the equation for a straightline,

$$
y-hat = ax + b,
$$

where y-hat is the estimated gold percentage, x is the distance, and a and b are constants named the slope and intercept, respectively, we obtain for cell El2 the formula,

(\$X.COEFFICIENT)*(C12)+(\$CONSTANT).

By copying this formula into cells E13..E43, we obtain the fitted y-hat values corresponding to the original data points. (The y-hat values are the gold values predicted by the linear equation for each of the xvalues of distance.)

Figure 3.1 shows the original data points and the plotted straightline.

Figure 3.1 Linear regression, gold nuggets, Manhattan, Nevada.

Worksheet C3A Linear regression

Worksheet C3A *(continued)*

 72 .33 72. 12 .96 72. 65 .50 73. .26 73 80 73 .78 $44 -\$ – Part 2. 1-2- -3' s linear regression Regression Output: Constant .58880 Std Err of Y Est 0. 342396 R Squared 0. 884272 No. of Observations Degrees of Freedom X Coefficient(s) \mathfrak{o} . .000573 Std Err of Coef. \mathfrak{o} . .000037 $60 -$ 63 3. Table of labels 65 CONSTANT F50 66 X.COEFFICIENT E56

CHAPTER

I Analysis Of Variance

If we have several sets of exploration data, we may want to compare them to learn whether they come from bodies with similar mineralization, as measured in quantitative terms that may be grades of ore, geochemical values, tonnages, or one of many other variables. statistical nomenclature, we are comparing sample data to determine whether populations are evidently the same or different. For example, we may have sampled several Nevada prospects for gold. Do the data support the hypothesis that the gold content of the orebodies is the same, recognizing that the sampling provides only an estimate of the true grades?

We can answer this question by making a one-way analysis of variance, as explained by Koch and Link (1970, p. 132-201) and by standard statistical textbooks.

The one-way analysis of variance is only the simplest form of this powerful method of statistical analysis. Using 1-2-3, other forms of the analysis of variance can be programmed. In this book, I provide a worksheet for one other form, the randomized block analysis of variance. This analysis is particularly useful in mining geology for comparing various methods of sampling, sample preparation, or chemical analysis. Li (1964) provides many other easy-to-program models.

Sections 4.1 and 4.2 explain the one-way analysis of variance; sections 4.3 and 4.4 explain the randomized-block analysis of variance.

4.1 ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Worksheet C4A.WK1 for the one-way analysis of variance follows the form of Li (1964, p. 194-196).

Part 1 is a table of data; there are three groups, numbered 1 to 3, and eight values, of which two are in the first sample, two in the second, and four in the third. Pretend that we drilled holes in three areas in the Middle Tennessee zinc district and obtained these zinc analyses in the eight holes.

Part 2 is the one-way analysis of variance. 1-2-3 calculates all of the entries, except for the tabled value 3.78 in cell 144, which is the F-value at the 10% level with 2 and 5 degrees of freedom from Koch and Link (1970, p. 348) or from any statistical textbook. Because the calculated Fvalue is larger than the tabled F-value, we conclude that the three groups of samples represent groups with significantly different average grades. In terms of our example, this small amount of drilling suggests that the three areas in Middle Tennessee have significantly different grades of zinc mineralization.

Part 3 is the table of labels.

Part 4 details the calculations. Part 4.A lists the sums, counts, and means; Part4.B is the table to compute the elements, I, II, and III, which are used to calculate the analysis of variance. Part 4.C gives the squared matrix of the table of data. The table provides for as many as six data groups (samples, in statistical terminology) and as many as 20 data points (observations in statistical terminology) per group. If the data table has too few rows, you can increase the number with the command /Worksheet Insert Row, in order to avoid changing the formulae. Increasing the number of columns will require minor modifications of the formulae.

4.2 COMPARING VEIN SETS IN THE FRISCO *MINE,* **CHIHUAHUA, MEXICO**

In the Frisco mine, Chihuahua, Mexico, veins fall into one of four sets according to their strike and dip (Koch, 1956, p. 14-15). Part 1 of worksheet C4B.WK1 gives the percentage of the vein that is ore for the four sets. Part 2 gives the one-way analysis of variance. Because the calculated F-value of 3.2 is larger than the tabled F-value of 2.31, we conclude that evidently the percentage of ore in the vein sets differs significantly. As discussed in my original paper, this difference presumably stems from the tectonic history of the ore deposit.

4.3 RANDOMIZED-BLOCK ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Worksheet C4C.WK1 for the randomized-block analysis of variance follows the form of Li (1964, p. 244).

Part 1 is a table of data, consisting of readings of pH from the top, middle, and bottom of six core samples of soil. There are three groups, numbered 1 to 3 (corresponding to top, middle, and bottom), and six values in each group (corresponding to the six samples). The left-hand row contains the sample totals T(r), used to calculate element II in cell F86.

The purpose of this analysis of variance is to test whether the pH in the top, middle, andbottom soil samples is the same; in statistical terms, we test the hypothesis H(0) that there is no treatment effect against the alternative hypothesis H(l) that there is a treatment effect.

Part 2 is the randomized-block analysis. As for the one-way analysis of variance, 1-2-3 calculates all of the entries, except for the tabled values of F in cells 144 and 145. Because the calculated F-value, 31.79, is larger than the tabled F-value, 2.92, we conclude that the pH in the top, middle, and bottom soil samples are significantly different, or, in statistical terms, that there is a treatment effect.

This analysis of variance also can be used to investigate whether the six places sampled, on the average, have significantly different soil pH values. In statistical terms, the hypothesis H(0) that the soil is the same **at the six places, that is, no replication effect exists, is compared with the alternative hypothesis H(l) that the soil is significantly different. Because the calculated F-value to test this hypothesis is 6.43, which is larger than the tabled F-value of 2.52, we conclude that the soil is significantly different.**

The labels in Parts 1 and 2 are general ones. To present this example analysis for publication, I would change the group numbers in line 12 to indicate the soil type, top, middle, and bottom. And, in cell C44, the appropriate label would be "Among soil depths," and in cell C45, "Among core samples." This relabeling, easily done in 1-2-3, will help you and your users understand the geological significance of an analysis of variance.

Parts 3 and 4 correspond to those of worksheet C4A.WK1 for the oneway analysis of variance, with a few changes in detail.

4.4 COMPARING METHODS OF SAMPLE PREPARA- TION FOR GOLD ORE

Given geological samples of gold ore to be assayed, what methods of sample preparation yield reliable results at the lowest cost? That is, how best can time and money be allocated among crushing, grinding, pulverizing, splitting, and assaying? Statistical methods to answer this general question include the randomized-block analysis of variance. In this section, I use data from the Homestake Mine, Lead, South Dakota (Koch and Link, 1972, p.13).

Worksheet C4D.WK1 analyzes data from three methods of sample preparation: crushing, grinding, and pulverizing, which are listed as groups 1, 2, and 3, respectively in Part 1 of the worksheet.

Part 2 gives the analysis of variance. Because the F-value of 0.58 for replication variability is smaller than the tabled value of 2.92, we conclude that there is no significant difference among the three methods of sample preparation for these data.

The randomized-block analysis of variance is only one of several statistical methods that we used in the original paper.

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Worksheet C4A One-way analysis of variance Worksheet C4A One-way analysis of variance

Worksheet C4A (continued) **Worksheet C4A** *(continued)*
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Worksheet C4A (continued)

Worksheet C4A (continued)

Worksheet C4B One-way analysis of variance, Frisco mine Worksheet C4B One-way analysis of variance, Frisco mine

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Worksheet C4B (continued) **B** *(continued)* **Worksheet C4**

Worksheet C4B (continued)

Worksheet C4C Randomized-block analysis of variance **Worksheet C4C Randomized-block analysis of variance**

Worksheet C4D Randomized-block analysis of variance, Homestake mine Worksheet C4D Randomized-block analysis of variance, Homestake mine

Worksheet C4D (continued) **D** *(continued)* **to Worksheet C4**

Exploration 1 Geochemical Data

1 -2-3 provides useful procedures for analyzing sets of exploration geochemical data that are not too large. (The size will depend on your computer memory; a maximum typical size may be a few hundred sites with ten to twenty variables per site.) This chapter applies some of these procedures to a small set of geochemical data.

For larger data sets, it is more effective to use a system of BASIC programs (Koch, 1987), or one of the general purpose programs for scientific data analysis, for example, MINITAB (Ryan, Joiner, and Ryan, 1985). Fortunately, it is not difficult to transfer files from 1-2-3 to other programs (Koch, 1987, p. 16) or from other programs to 1-2-3.

5.1 SUMMARY STATISTICS

Worksheet C5A.WK1 calculates summary statistics for a Norwegian data set, which Howarth and Sinding-Larsen (1983) used to demonstrate multivariate statistical analysis. Part 1 is their data set; Part 2 gives basic statistics, calculated using 1 -2-3 functions (except for CV, the coefficient of variation, which is the ratio of the standard deviation, STD,

to the arithmetic average or sample mean, AVG). As with worksheet C4A.WK1, in order to avoid resetting the formulae in Part 2, you can

increase the number of rows using the 1 -2-3 command /Worksheet Insert Row, and the number of columns using the command /Copy.

5.2 FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS AND HISTOGRAMS

Worksheet C5B.WK1 calculates frequency distributions for the values of Zn and Fe in worksheet C5A.WK1. Part 1 is the same as Part 1 of the previous worksheet. Part 2 provides the frequency distributions, obtained using 1-2-3's /Data Distribution command. Here are the stepby-step directions for calculating the frequency distribution for zinc.

- **(1) In range C54..C78, establish the class intervals (named "bins" by 1- 2-3) using the /Data Fill command. I used a starting value of 0 and a step value of 50.**
- **(2) Using the/Data Distribution command, calculate the frequencies. 1- 2-3 first asks for the range of values, which is Dl 5..D39, and then for the range of bins, established in the previous step as C54..C78.**
- **(3) Make a histogram for zinc (Figure 5.1) by using the graphics commands, as follows:**
- **(a) Select /Graph Type and enter B for a bar graph.**
- **(b) Select X and specify the range C54..C75 for the range of values on the x-axis.**
- **(c) Select A and specify the range D54..D75 for the range of values on the y-axis.**
- **(d) Select Options Titles and specify titles for the two title lines and the x- and y-axes.**

Number of observations

Koch

(e) Select View to display the graph on the screen.

Repeating the analysis for Fe gives the results in the worksheet and in Figure 5.2.

1-2-3's /Data Distribution command does not provide some information that is conventional for frequency distributions, and the graphics commands display bar graphs rather than usual histograms with the bars adjacent to one another. In Part 3 of the worksheet, I have recast the frequency distribution for Zn in a conventional form, through a few additional steps. You can make a conventional histogram with 1-2-3's / Graph Type XY command by specifying the coordinates of the corners of the bars for the X and A ranges. Doing this is simple but tedious, and seems to me to defeat 1-2-3's purpose of providing graphs that are easy to both make and read. Although 1 -2-3 macros could be written to handle the tasks explained in this paragraph, I would prefer to use another computing method altogether.

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Worksheet C5A Basic statistics for exploration geochemical data **Worksheet C5A Basic statistics for exploration geochemical data**

Worksheet C5A (continued)

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350 Ξ 17 590 Frequency distributions and histograms ppm \vec{c} i \mathbf{H} Table of stream-sediment data from Norway $\frac{6}{10}$ $\ddot{0}$ \circ . $\ddot{\circ}$ Howarth and Sinding-Larsen, 1983, p. 210) $\frac{5}{2}$ 0.5 0.5 0.4 $\begin{array}{c} 2 \\ 3 \\ 5 \end{array}$ 0.4 $\ddot{\circ}$ 0.4 0.3 ΔO $\frac{1}{2}$ ppm **P**O Ō. 10 Sep 87, file C5B.WK1 on disks GSK 059-061 690 530 350 910
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535 ppm \overline{z} n \Box $\overline{10}$ ഗ \circ σ \Box $\frac{2}{1}$ $\frac{3}{1}$ $\frac{4}{15}$ \blacktriangledown Γ ∞ $(frow)$ Part 1. $\begin{array}{c} \n 1 \\
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1\n \end{array}$ Sample $\overline{}$ \circ $\frac{1}{2}$ 22920 24920 1780 \overline{c} $\begin{array}{c} 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 \end{array}$ 23 25 207 $\begin{smallmatrix}8&9\\8&2\end{smallmatrix}$ 11 $\sim \infty$ σ \sim ω $\overline{\mathbf{v}}$ ഗ \circ

Worksheet C5B Frequency distributions and histograms for exploration geochemcial data

WORKSheet C5B (continued) (4 54
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54 Worksheet C5B (continued)

Worksheet C5B (continued)

 Worksheet C5B *(continued)* (") ;:,-. c.n **~** Worksheet C5B (continued)

Koch

Worksheet C5B (continued)

CHAPTER Exploration Models 6

This chapter will discuss two simulation models for drilling on grids; for simplicity we will consider only square grids. After practicing with the worksheets, you will be able to modify them for other situations or write additional ones. The worksheets in this chapter and the next contain "macros", which are short programs written in 1-2-3's command language. Macros make it easy to perform certain operations.

6.1 A SIMULATION OF GRID DRILLING

In mineral exploration, grid drilling is used widely, particularly for the discovery and evaluation of bedded deposits including uranium, coal, kaolin, and many others. In an area to be explored, if we can estimate the percentage of total area that is mineralized and assume that the mineralized areas are "randomly distributed," we can then simulate the effect of drilling holes to discover ore deposits. "Randomly distributed" indicates that any part of the area has an equal chance of containing an orebody as any other. Simulation is "a class of techniques that involve setting up a model of a real situation and then performing experiments on the model," to quote from the introduction to a comprehensive and classic book on simulation in geology (Harbaugh and Bonham-Carter, *Koch*

1970, p. 1-2). The ideas in this chapter are drawn from a paper by Koch and Schuenemeyer (1982). First, I will explain the worksheet and then suggest some modifications that you may want to make.

Worksheet C6A.WK1 simulates the drilling of vertical holes on a square grid of 100 potential locations in a 10 by 10 array. After you specify drillhole locations in these 100 potential locations, the worksheet indicates which of the "drillholes" encountered ore. To run the model, execute the four steps summarized at the beginning of the worksheet in any order that you select.

Part 1 of the worksheet is an abbreviated set of instructions for the worksheet's four steps. Step 1 allows you to specify the percent area that is mineralized. To do this, press ALT-a (this notation indicates to press the ALT key and then the a key, while holding down the ALT key); this sequence of keys calls a 1-2-3 command named a "Macro," used in 1-2-3 for many purposes). On the second line of the screen, the following request appears:

Enter percent area mineralized:

In response, enter any appropriate percentage. For the worksheet on the diskette, I entered 10. (The worksheet stores this percentage in cell C105 and the corresponding decimal fraction in cell C106.

In Step 2, first place cell A21 at the upper-left-hand corner of your screen, and then enter drillhole locations in the array MATRIX.HOLES (Part 2) in cells C21..L30. These locations can be identified by any numerical values; for illustration, I entered the numbers 1 to 10. The hits then appear as asterisks in the array MATRIX.HITS in cells C31..L40. Matrices ARRAY.HOLES and ARRAY.HITS are formatted so that they appear on one screen through your placement of cell A21.

How does the program determine whether a drillhole hits ore? This is done by comparing the matrix of hole locations, MATRIX.HOLES, with MATRIX.DATA (Part 3), which is a matrix (in cells C51..L60), of random numbers between 0 and 1. If the random number is low enough,

relative to the percent area selected as mineralized in Step 1, a hit is recorded. For the example, only hole 5 in cell F25 is a hit, because only the random number 0.010 in cell F55 is less than 0.1.

Step 3 allows you to erase one set of hole locations and start over by using the macro ALT-b.

Step 4 allows you to select a different set of random numbers for array MATRIX.DATA by using the macro ALT-c, which copies the random numbers in array MATRIX.RAND (Part 4) into array MATRIX.DATA. The array MATRIX.RAND is reset each time you press function key 9.

Here are some notes about this model. In order to save room on the diskette, I used a 10 by 10 grid. 1-2-3 will allow you to make the grid larger if you first copy the worksheet to a diskette used for only this model. Although the model is for holes on a square grid, the computer monitor display is not square in order to simplify programming. Using the command /Worksheet Global Column-width, you can reformat the cell size if you wish. Also, the model can readily be modified for nonsquare grids. And it would not be difficult to introduce a gradient into the random numbers, corresponding to a change in mineralization favorability in some direction. For example, this change would be appropriate for a mine in the Coeur d'Alene district (Koch, Schuenemeyer, and Link, 1974). Taking account of the probabilities of recognition given a hit also would be interesting (Koch and Schuenemeyer, 1982, p. 654).

6.2 THE ELMWOOD, TENNESSEE ZINC DEPOSIT

Between 1964 and about 1980, more than 20 mining companies explored the Middle Tennessee district near Nashville for zinc deposits. These deposits are located at depths of between 300 and 600 meters in gently dipping rocks of Ordovician age. Because the ore deposits occur below a major unconformity which is not exposed in the district, surface geology provided little or no guide to ore; nor were geophysics or geochemistry of much help. Therefore, nearly all exploration was by diamond drilling.

Although active exploration was essentially stopped in the 1980's for economic reasons, the district contains a major zinc resource for the future.

In 1967, The New Jersey Zinc Company discovered the Elm wood mine near Carthage, Tennessee after drilling 79 holes; Callahan (1977) details the exploration campaign. After the discovery, the deposit was evaluated through drilling another 89 holes on a square grid with a hole spacing of 1000 feet.

Worksheet C6B.WK1 maps the zinc grades located by drilling at Elmwood. We can use these data for two simulation exercises: (1) to simulate the discovery process, and (2) to define a mining area, based on the entire data set. These two exercises are taken up in turn.

Part 1 is instructions for the four macros that run the model. Part 2 is array MATRIX.DATA, which is an 11 by 11 array, consisting of Callahan's (1977, p. 1390) 89 holes, plus another 17 holes drilled by the New Jersey Zinc Company, plus 15 holes simulated by me to complete the grid. (Callahan's original data are given in array ORIGINAL.DATA, displayed in Part 7.) When you retrieve the worksheet, the values in array MATRIX.DATA are not displayed (because macro \0 runs automatically), so that you can "discover" them by "drilling" holes. To see the values, press Alt-c; to hide them once more, press Alt-d.

To "drillholes," press Alt-a, and follow the instructions for entering holes according to the rows and columns of array MATRIX.HOLES, in Part 3. The rows and columns are numbered starting in the upper-lefthand corner according to 1 -2-3's system. For the worksheet provided on the diskette, two holes are drilled, in row 2, column 3, and in row 4, column 5. The results of the drilling simulation appear in Part 4 in array MATRIX.HITS. For the example, the values are 2 and 5 percent zinc.

You then can continue the simulation to get an average grade for all the holes drilled or for selected holes by pressing Alt-b. This macro selects holes by cell addresses. Selecting addresses F70 and H72 gives the average grade of 3.5 percent zinc.

For the second simulation, you can display the entire array MATRIX.DATA by pressing Alt-c, and then proceed as noted. The assumption is that the entire grid has been drilled.

Part 5 lists the macros, and Part 6 is the table of labels. Part 7 is Callahan's original data matrix. To use this original matrix in your simulations, press Alt-e, which copies it to array MATRIX.DATA. Then, if you drill a hole where there is an empty cell, the worksheet records an o (lower-case "oh").

Here are some notes on this model. To scale the arrays for printing, I reduced the column-widths to 2, with the result that their labels are abbreviated. In the array MATRIX.DATA, row and column labels 0 indicates 10, and in the second set of labels, 1 indicates 11. In this matrix, the rows and columns start in the upper-left- hand corner, following 1- 2-3's convention; in the convention usual in geology and engineering, the array is in the southeast or fourth quadrant. The IF statement in cell D69 is:

@IF(@ISSTRING(D49=0," ",@IF(D31)>0,D31,"o")).

The ©ISSTRINGfunction tests for ablank cell in array MATRIX. HOLES; if blank, a blank is placed in the corresponding cell in MATRIX.HITS. Otherwise, the @IF function tests for a value greater than 0 in array MATRIX.DATA; if greater, the value is recorded in the corresponding cell in MATRIX.HITS; if smaller, which happens if you use array ORIGINAL.MATRK, an o is recorded to indicate no zinc. The greaterthan-0 value can be readily changed for other simulations.

8« 4^ Worksheet C6A Simulation of drilling exploration holes Worksheet C6A Simulation of drilling exploration holes

Worksheet C6A (continued) **Worksheet C6A** *(continued)*

Worksheet C6A (continued) Worksheet C6A (continued)

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Worksheet C6A (continued) **Worksheet e6A** *(continued)*

00 es Worksheet C6B Simulation of drilling holes at Elmwood, Tennessee **Worksheet C6B Simulation of drilling holes at Elmwood, Tennessee**

Worksheet C6B *(continued)* Worksheet C6B (continued)

Worksheet C6B (continued)

Worksheet C6B (continued)

Worksheet C6B (continued) **Worksheet C6B** *(continued)*

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Worksheet C6B (continued) **B** *(continued)* **Worksheet C6**

CHAPTER I Probability and 1 Related Calculations 7

This chapter explains some probability calculations used in exploration and also ways to plot tonnage-grade curves. The final section tells how to plot logarithmic graphs using 1-2-3.

7.1 TONNAGE-GRADE RELATIONS

Lasky (1950) proposed that the tonnage and grade of ore deposits follow an exponential relationship that plots as a straightline on semilogarithmic graph paper. Koch and Link (1971, p. 255-262) summarize Lasky's work, and Harris (1984, p. 59-92) gives a comprehensive account of Lasky's and later investigations of this complex and controversial subject.

Worksheet C7A.WK1 provides the data to graph Lasky's law (Figure 7.1) with his constants for a hypothetical porphyry copper deposit. Lasky's formula appears in cells G32..G34, and the scaled logarithmic values in cells H32..H34. The previously cited references explain the mathematics, and the plotting procedure is explained in Section 7.3. You can readily modify this worksheet to plot graphs for other deposits using data from Lasky, Harris, or other workers.

Figure 7.1 Lasky's law, hypothetical porphyry copper deposit

Worksheet C7B.WK1 provides the data to graph later work on copper deposits by Cox, Wright, and Coakley, (1981), who tabulate (Table 1, p. F3-F6) published reserves and resources of copper in the United States. In the worksheet, the tonnage data are listed in range C21 ..C94, and the grade data in range E21..E94.

Figure 7.2 plots these data for the entire United States, and Figure 7.3 plots the subset for operating mines and announced developments in Arizona. Using 1-2-3, it is easy to edit the data list to obtain a graph for any interesting subset, for instance, for all deposits in other states, or all deposits of a certain geologic type.

Figure 7.2 U.S. copper reserves, tonnages, and grades (from Cox, 1981)

Koch

Figure 7.3 Arizona copper reserves , tonnages, and grades (from Cox, 1981)

7.2 PROBABILITY CALCULATIONS

Worksheet C7C.WK1 provides 1-2-3 macros to facilitate some of the probability calculations used in exploration. These calculations are explained for mineral deposits by Koch and Link (1971, p. 187-228) and Peters (1987, p. 444-448) and for petroleum exploration by Harbaugh, Doveton, and Davis (1977). There are too many approaches and formulae to include in this book. The worksheet provides macros for two simple situations, Gambler's ruin, and calculation of a factorial, needed for many probability formulae, but not furnished as a function by 1-2-3.

7.3 PLOTTING LOGARITHMIC GRAPHS

These directions for plotting logarithmic graphs are simplified from those of Fine (1987); they are given here because of the importance of logarithmic graphs in geology, and because Fine's article may not be readily available to you.

Because 1-2-3 does not provide for logarithmic plots, it is necessary to select the range of values to plot, calculate the logarithms of this range, plot the range, and relabel the range with the original values rather than the logarithms. None of these steps is complicated in itself, but combining them together in 1-2-3 takes some planning and patience. The principal point to remember is that 1-2-3's basic concept is that of the spreadsheet, or array, so that the data to be plotted need to be expressed as an array.

To explain logarithmic plotting, I will demonstrate how to plot Figure 7.1. In worksheet C7A, the X values are listed in range E11.E34, the A values in range F11..F30, and the B values in range H11..H34. 1-2-3 plots points only where X values are paired with A or B values. The A values define the boundaries of the graph and the horizontal lines; the B values define the data points.

This is the sequence of commands with their purposes:

- (1) /Graph Type XY, to select the appropriate display.
- (2) /Graph Options Scale Y Scale Format Hidden Quit Quit, to suppress automatic scaling on the Y axis.
- (3) /Graph, select X, and specify range E11..E34.
- (4) /Graph, select A, and specify range F11..F30.
- (5) /Graph Options Format A Lines Quit Quit, to plot lines only.
- **(6) /Graph Options Data-Labels A (Specify range 111 ..129) Left Quit Quit, to plot logarithmic values for the labels.**
- **(7) /Graph, select B, and specify range H11..H34 to plot the data points. Even though the data points appear only in the range H32..H34, the entire range must be specified.**
- **(8) /Graph Options Titles, First, and specify the first title line. Repeat for the second title line, and for the X- and Y-axis titles.**
- **(9) Select View to display the graph on the screen.**

Worksheet C5 Worksheet C5B Graph of Figure 7.1 **h of Figure 7.1**

00 & Worksheet C7A *(continued)* Worksheet C7A (continued)

Worksheet C7B Graph of Figures 7.2 and 7.3 **Worksheet C7B Graph of Figures 7.2 and 7.3**

 α bility And Related Calculations

Exampled CDB (continued) **84** $^{\circ}$ Worksheet C7B (continued)

Worksheet em *(continued)*

Worksheet C7B (continued)

 b ility And Related Calcula

Worksheet C7B (continued)

Worksheet C7C Probability calculations **Worksheet C7C Probability calculations**

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(DOWN) (GETNUMBER "Enter the percent probability of success i Factorial macro (Ewing and others, 1987) Factorial macro (Ewing and others, 1987) LET RUIN, $(1-(P/100)) \sim$ ${100$ WN)
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Worksheet C7C *(continued)* Worksheet C7C (continued)

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C *(continued)* Worksheet C7C (continued) **Worksheet C7**

CHAPTER 8

Compound Interest

In this chapter, I will first introduce compound-interest formulae, then provide a worksheet to tabulate discrete compounding interest factors at any selected rate of interest, and finally solve typical problems using these factors. The presentation and notation follows that of Frank Stermole of the Colorado School of Mines, who taught me economic evaluation and investment decision methods in a short course that "has been presented more than 300 times since 1970 to more than 10,000 practicing engineers, scientists, accountants, and managers working in petroleum, mineral, and general industry." (Quotation from course brochure.)

8.1 COMPOUND INTEREST FORMULAE

Stermole and Stermole (1987, p. 17) designate the factors according to this rule: the first letter in each factor designates the quantity that is calculated, whereas the second letter designates the quantity that is given. The subscripts are the period interest rate, I, followed by the number of interest compounding periods, N.

Koch

Table 8.1 Compound-interest factors and formulae. After Stermole and Stermole (1987, p. 22) with notation adjusted to 1-2- 3's style.

Notation (from Stermole and Stermole, 1987, p. 16)

- **P: Present single sum of money**
- **F: A future single sum of money**
- **A: The amount of each payment in a uniform series of equal payments**
- **N: The number of interest compunding periods**
- **I: The period compound interest rate**

All of these relationships are used in evaluation. Probably most familiar is the single payment compound-amount factor, F/P(I,N). We use this factor to calculate the future worth, F, after N years (or other period), of a present sum of money, P, with interest at I percent compounded per year (or other period). The formula is

$$
F = P^*(1 + i)^N N.
$$

We use the single payment present-worth factor to calculate the present value of a future sum, F, by solving the previous equation for P to obtain

$$
P = F/((1 + I)^{\wedge} N).
$$

We might use this formula to discount back to present time a series of payments to be received after a mine starts operation at some time in the future.

The uniform series compound amount factor, F/A(I,N), gives the future value of a series of equal payments. This formula will calculate the value at retirement of \$2000-per-year IRA investments, assuming that interest rates are constant.

The sinking-fund deposit factor, A/F(I,N), calculates the series of payments required to provide a specified amount of money at some time in the future. For instance, you may wish to determine the payments necessary to accumulate the down-payment for a house at a specified time in the future.

The capital-recovery factor, A/P(I,N), gives the uniform series of payments equal to a present sum, for instance the house payments for a specified number of periods for a loan of a certain amount.

The uniform series present-worth factor, P/A(I,N) is used to determine the present single sum of money, P, that is equivalent to a uniform series of equal payments, A, for N periods at I percent interest per period. For our purposes, these periods are usually equal to years and in the rest

Koch

of this book I use the terminology "years" instead of "periods." The formula is

$$
P = A^*((1+I)^N-1)/(I(1+I)^N).
$$

We could use this formula to determine the present value of a deposit that will produce a certain cash flow every year for a specified number of years.

The arithmetic gradient factor, not discussed in this book, is included to complete Stermole and Stermole's (1987) tables as explained in the next section.

8.2 TABLE OF DISCRETE COMPOUNDING FACTORS

Worksheet C8A.WK1 is a table of discrete compounding factors for from 1 to 30 years, set up in the format of Stermole and Stermole (1987, p. 431). In the worksheet, the interest rate is set at 10%, but you can change this in cell G8 to any other value. Of course, you may need to adjust the cell widths or formats in order to display your results.

Figures 8.1 to 8.3 graph the interest factors for values of N from 1 to 30.

8.3 SOLVING INTEREST PROBLEMS

1-2-3 can readily be programmed to solve interest problems. Worksheet C8B.WK1 provides the required formulae. Part 1 of this worksheet is a data-entry table. The values entered in cells E14 to E19 are processed in Part 2 to give the six discrete compounding factors in cells E29 to E41. 1-2-3 provides functions for the factors most used in business; the others are programmed. The examples are those in the file as stored on the floppy diskette for 10% interest and six years.

Part 3 of the worksheet solves ten typical problems discussed in the next paragraph. In the worksheet, the solution formulae are given in

column E, and the values in this column are those obtained when the values in the data-entry table are those in the printed table $(I = 0.1; N)$ $= 6$; all other values $= 1$). The values in column F are those obtained when the values in Part 1 are set for the particular problem. They are copied from the values computed by formula in column E by using the 1-2-3 function/RV. For example, after setting the data-entry table for problem 8.1, the value 1.611 appears in cell E53. By following the prompts that appear when you key the command/RV, you can copy the value (not the formula) to cell F53.

Part 4 is the table of labels. Because of the way 1-2-3 alphabetizes. label 8.10 follows label 8.1 instead of label 8.9.

Figure 8.1 Interest factors, $F/P(I,N)$, $F/A(I,N)$

Figure 8.2 Interest factors, P/F(I,N), A/F(I,N)

Compound Interest

Figure 8.3 Interest factors, A/F(I,N), A/P(I,N)

Koch

If you practice with these problems, note that I have labeled the ranges and cells so that you can move around the worksheet using the GoTo function key (F5). For instance, if you press function key (F5) followed by 8.1, the cursor will move to problem 8.1.

The following is an explanation of the ten problems presented in Part 3:

- 8.1 Calculate the future value of \$1. invested at 10% interest compounded annually for 5 years (Peters, 1987, p. 268). (Set El7 to 5.)
- 8.2 Suppose that you borrow \$1 from your friendly loan shark with the agreement that you will repay him doubling the amount of the loan for every day you keep the money. That is, you will owe him \$2 tomorrow, \$4 the day after tomorrow, etc. Suppose further that although you fully intend to repay him on the day after tomorrow, you let the matter slide for 20 days. How much do you owe him? (Set E17 to 20 and E18 to 1.)
- 8.3 How much would you need to invest at 10 % interest compounded annually to yield \$1 in five years (Peters, 1987, p. 269)? (Set El 7 to 5 and E18 to 0.1.)
- 8.4 Calculate the uniform series of equal payments made at the end of each year for 15 years that are equivalent to a \$10,000 payment 15 years from now if interest is 9 percent per year compounded annually. (Set E17 to 10000, E17 to 15, and E18 to 0.09.)
- 8.5 Calculate the present value of a series of \$1000 payments to be made at the end of each year for 6 years if interest is 20 percent per year compounded annually. Repeat for 12 years. Note that doubling the number of years does not double the present value. (Set C16 to 1000, C17 to 6, and C18 to 0.2; then set C7 to 12.)
- 8.6 How much money (after taxes) do you need to win in the New York State Lottery in order to stop working for 20 years. Assume that you have no money now, that you will settle for an income of \$30,000 a year, and that your winnings can be invested to yield 12% interest. Set E16 to 30000, E17 to 20, and E18 to 0.12.)
- 8.7 A mine is expected to pay dividends of \$200,000 a year for ten years. A certain investor wishes 15% a year on his investment. What is the present value of the anticipated income at this rate of interest? (Set E16 to 200000, E17 to 10, and E18 to 0.15.)
- 8.8 A second investor wishes a 20% return on the investment of question 8.7. What is the present value in his situation? (Set E18 to 0.2.)
- 8.9 This problem is from Peters (1987, p. 270). "Take a capital investment with a starting date value of \$4 million and consider that the investment is expected to return \$2 million in the first and second years, \$1 million in the third year, \$0.5 million in the fourth and fifth years, and \$1 million in the sixth year. The interest rate — hurdle rate — is 15% compounded annually. (Key the returns into range D76..D81, and calculate the discount factors in range E76. E81.)
- 8.10 Suppose that you, at age 30, decide to put \$2000 a year into an Individual Retirement Account (IRA) to provide for your retirement at age 65. Suppose that you have two choices: (1) To start now, contribute \$2000 a year for 8 years, and then stop, or, (2) To wait 8 years, and then contribute \$2000 a year for the rest of your life until you retire? At 10% interest, which choice will give you a larger retirement fund? (In line 98, calculate the future value of your \$2000 annual payments for 8 years; then, in line 99, calculate the future value of this amount (cell E98) after 27 years. In line 101, calculate the future value of \$2000 annual payments for 27 years.)

Worksheet C8A Discrete compounding interest factors

Worksheet C8A (continued) **Worksheet eSA** *(continued)*

Worksheet C8B Solving interest problems Worksheet C8B Solving interest problems

Worksheet C8B (continued) **Worksheet C8B** *(continued)*

Worksheet C8B (continued) **4^ Worksheet C8B** *(continued)*

Worksheet C8B (continued) **Worksheet C8B** *(continued)*

Worksheet C8B (continued)

Worksheet C8B (continued)

CHAPTER 9

Depreciation 1 and Depletion

In the United States, "depreciation" and "depletion" are accounting terms used to calculate income tax. They are needed to determine cash flow, which is the basis for any economic evaluation.

Depreciation, as used in economic evaluation, "is a tax allowance that is a reasonable allowance for the exhaustion, wear and tear and obsolescence of property used in a trade or business, or of property held by a tax payer for the production of income" (Stermole and Stermole, 1987, p. 229).

Depletion is the "recovery of an owner's economic interest in mineral (including oil and gas) reserves through federal tax deductions related to removal of the mineral over the economic life of the property" (Stermole and Stermole, 1987, p. 455).

Neither depreciation or depletion involve a corresponding flow of money from the enterprise, any more than personal income tax deductions for individuals, blindness, age, etc. exactly represent corresponding expenditures of money.

Depreciation and depletion are explained briefly by Peters (1987, p. 279- 280) and in detail by Stermole and Stermole (1987, p.222-256).

9.1 YEARLY NET INCOME AND CASH FLOW CALCULATION

Worksheet C9A.WK1 is a yearly income and cash-flow calculation based on the format of Peters (1987, p. 279), with additional lines to calculate cost depletion. Part 1 gives fixed data for the project; row 11 assumes a property cost of \$1 million, which is used to calculate cost depletion.

Part 2 includes all of Peters's (1987, p. 279) entries, as well as additional ones to calculate cost depletion. In line 26, depreciation is treated as straightline, the method usually used in preliminary work. Stermole and Stermole (1987, p. 229-241) explain several alternative methods, which may be necessary for detailed work. 1-2-3 provides special functions for the *straightline, double-declining-balance,* and *sum-of-theyears'-digits* methods.

Depletion is calculated in rows 30 to 36. Allowable percentage depletion is calculated in rows 30 to 32. Cell D30 calculates percentage depletion by multiplying the percentage factor from D14 by the revenue in D22, and cell D31 calculates the 50% allowable limit. Cell D32 contains the smaller of the values in the two previous cells. Cost depletion is calculated in cell D34. Cell D36 contains the allowable depletion, which is the larger of the values in cells D32 and D34.

Subtracting selected depletion (D36) from net income before depletion (D28) gives taxable income (D38), and subtracting income tax (D39) gives net income in cell D41.

Finally, we obtain cash flow (D45) by adding back depreciation and depletion in rows 42 and 43, remembering that these two items were subtracted only to calculate income tax and do not in themselves represent actual expenditures of cash.

Koch

9.2 THE RIDGEWAY, SOUTH CAROLINA, GOLD MINE

A note in Engineering and Mining Journal (E&MJ) for May, 1987 (p. 78) states that "A feasibility report issued by the Ridgeway Mining Co. to Amselco Minerals Inc. and Galactic Resources Ltd. projects commercial gold production at the Ridgeway, South Carolina, project starting by mid-1988 at a rate of 158,000 tr oz/yr of gold over the first four years (1989-92), and 133,000 tr oz/yr over the 11 -year life of the mine. Amselco and Galactic are joint venture partners in the project, 15 miles northeast of Columbia. Capital costs to bring the Ridgeway project into production are estimated at \$76 million."

Using these data (supplemented by information from company reports), we can construct worksheet C9B.WK1. To the items in Part 1 of worksheet C9A.WK1, we add production, selling price, and operating cost. The worksheet formulation of this problem illustrates the flexibility of the approach; the assumptions can readily be changed — now by knowledgeable people — or later as more data are published.

to a *Worksheet C9A* Yearly net income and cash flow Worksheet C9A Yearly net income and cash flow

Worksheet C9A (continued) **A** *(continued)* **Worksheet C9**

Worksheet C9A (96C) and the continued) $\left($ $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ **1** Worksheet C9A (continued) Worksheet C9B Yearly net income and cash flow. Ridgeway, South Carolina, gold mine **Worksheet C9B Yearly net income and cash flow. Ridgeway, South Carolina, gold mine**

Worksheet C9B (continued) **Worksheet C9B** *(continued)*

Worksheet C9B (continued) **Worksheet C9B** *(continued)*

CHAPTER 10

I Discounted Cash Flow 1 Rate of Return

The Discounted cash flow rate of return (DCFROR), also named the discounted cash flow return on investment (DCFROI), or the internal rate of return (IRR), is the method most widely used to compare investment opportunities. We may want to compare one mining venture with another or a mining venture with some other investment.

The discounted cash flow rate of return is simply the interest rate, I, in the formula

$$
P = A(1)/(1+I)^{\wedge}1 + A(2)/(1+I)^{\wedge}2 + ... + A(N)/(1+I)^{\wedge}N
$$

where P is the principal (capital investment), $A(N)$ is the yearly cash flow (which may be positive, zero, or negative), I is the interest rate, and N is the number of years.

1-2-3 makes calculation of DCFROR easy by providing a function, which is explained in the next section. Peters (1987, p. 276-279) gives a brief account of DCFROR; Stermole and Stermole (1987, p. 257-283) provide a chapter that thoroughly explains the principle and details; Koch and Link (1971, p. 312-314) work a simple example in detail.

10.1 A SIMPLE EXAMPLE

Worksheet C10A.WK1 solves a simple example problem to illustrate the method. Assume that a truck with an expected useful life of 4 years costs \$10,000. Annual income each year of the life of this truck is expected to be \$8,000, and annual operating costs are expected to be \$3,500. Straightline depreciation is used, and the overall tax rate is 50 percent.

Part 1 of the worksheet lists the fixed data for the problem; part 2 gives the yearly net income and cashflow. Part 3 is the calculation of DCFROR through 1-2-3's function

@IRR(estimate,range).

The range, D39..D43, is labeled CASH.FLOWS.0-4; the estimate is required, because 1 -2-3 calculates the value of the function interactively. After 20 iterations, the entry ERR appears if a result to within 0.0000001 is not located. If, while using the @IRR function, you get the message ERR, simply substitute another, closer estimate of DCFROR. For precautions, see a 1-2-3 reference manual. From my initial estimate of 30%, recorded in the function as 0.3,1-2-3 calculates the correct value of 15. This is exactly the value that makes the net present value equal to 0 at a hurdle rate of 15%.

10.2 A SECOND EXAMPLE OF DCFROR

A second example of DCFROR is provided in worksheet C10B.WK1 which presents a problem from Peters (1987, p. 278). Except for roundoff errors, the values in the worksheet match those of Peters.

In Part 1, we first determined net present value (NPV) at two interest rates that bracket DCFROR. For the data given, these rates are 16% and 17%.

DCFROR is calculated in Part 2, first by linear interpolation, and then by 1-2-3's formula. The results are carried out to several decimal places **in order to demonstrate that linear interpolation does not give a precisely correct result, although it is certainly close enough for a preliminary evaluation. For one thing, none of the cash flows will be known exactly! Of course, calculation by 1-2-3's formula is faster, particularly if you cannot guess the interest rates that bracket DCFROR.**

The worksheet is a convenient one to use to gain an understanding of DCFROR by changing the flows in the range D14..D21, recalculating, and seeing how DCFROR changes.

Worksheet C10A Illustration of DCFROR **to to Worksheet ClOA Illustration of DCFROR**

Worksheet ClOA *(continued)* Worksheet C10A (continued)

Worksheet C10A (continued) **Worksheet** Worksheet C10A (continued)

Worksheet C10B Estimating DCFROR **Worksheet ClOB Estimating DCFROR**

Worksheet C10B (continued) **Worksheet ClOB** *(continued)*

Discounted Cash Flow Rate of Return

CHAPTER 11

Blocking Ore From Data in Development Workings

In this chapter, we will first calculate grade and tonnage of ore from data obtained in development workings, and then calculate specific gravity of ore from its mineralogical composition.

11.1 GRADE AND TONNAGE OF ORE FROM DEVELOPMENT DATA

The following sample averages represent four blocks of silver ore in the Carlos Francisco Mine at Casapalca, Peru. The development workings in this part of the mine consist of three levels, numbered from the top downward, 6, 7, and 8; and three raises, lettered from north to south, A, B, and C. Table 11.1 gives the length and width dimensions of these workings, together with the silver assays.

Working		Length, Width, m	m	Silver. g/T
Level 6	Raise A to Raise B	110	0.9	300
Level - 6	Raise B to Raise C	75	1.1	480
Level 7	Raise A to Raise B	110	1.0	540
Level 7	Raise B to Raise C	75	1.1	660
Level 8	Raise A to Raise B	110	1.0	750
Level 8	Raise B to Raise C	75	1.2	600
Raise A Level 6-7		40	0.9	240
Raise B Level 6-7		40	1.5	600
Raise C Level 6-7		40	1.2	540
Raise A Level 7-8		35	1.0	690
Raise B Level 7-8		35	1.2	660
Raise C Level 7-8		35	1.2	720

Table 11.1 Development data for 4 blocks of ore in the Carlos Francisco Mine.

Sketching a longitudinal section of the four blocks will show you the geological situation. Additional information is this: (1) assays already have been adjusted to the minimum mining width, 0.9 m; (2) the specific gravity is 3.2; (3) the cut-off grade of ore is 450 grams silver per tonne.

From these data, we will calculate:

- 1. Tonnage of ore and its grade in each of the four blocks.
- 2. Aggregate tonnage and average grade of the four blocks.
- 3. Aggregate tonnage and grade after allowing for 10 percent dilution of barren wall rock.

Peters (1987, p. 482-491) explains the basic procedure, which is a weighted average. Using 1-2-3, we can set up the calculations (worksheet C11A.WK1). Part 1 gives the calculations for the block between levels 6 and 7 and raises A and B. Column C lists the arbitrary numbers designating the four sides of block 1; column D the lengths, column E the widths, and column F the assays. Column G lists the products of lengths times widths, and column H the products of lengths times widths times assays. The column sums, in line 17, then are used to calculate the estimates of assay and tonnes in columns I and J.

Because the grade for this block is lower than the cutoff grade, we need to reduce its size as shown in Part 2. The conventional procedure of defining a triangular block is followed.

Once we have set up the worksheet for one block, we can copy the format for the remaining four blocks using the /COPY command.

Part 6 summarizes the calculations for the four blocks. The sums in row 94 are used to calculate the average assay of 612 grams per tonne in row 97. Line 98 gives the 10 percent additional tonnage resulting from dilution of wall rock, which is assumed to contain no silver. Finally, row 100 gives the mined grade.

The table of labels, Part 7, applies only to Block 1.

11.2 CALCULATION OF SPECIFIC GRAVITY

Starting with the ore mineralogy and the grade expressed as a percentage of metal, we can calculate the specific gravity of the ore. The method is explained by Peters (1987, p. 481) and by Koch and Link, (1971, p. 249); the method in worksheet C11B.WK1 is that of the second reference.

Although the calculations are not complicated, formulating the problem seems to puzzle many people. I think it is helpful to present the problem in the concrete terms of determining the number of grams of each mineral in 100 grams of ore (rows 16 and 17 of worksheet C11 B.WK1.) *Koch*

Once the specific gravity is determined (row 10), you can determine other factors, such as the number of cubic feet per short ton, if required, using tables in Peters (1987) or other standard books.

The function relating grade and specific gravity is not linear. Figure 11.1 graphs the quartz/galena curve for various grades of galena.

Figure 11.1 S.G. - grade relationship, example of a lead/quartz ore

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Cooksheet CllA (continued) *Continued* Worksheet C11A (continued)

Blocking Ore From Data in Development Workings

Example 3
 Worksheet CIIA (continued) Worksheet CIIA (continued)

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Worksheet C11A (continued)

Worksheet CIIB Calculating specific gravity of ore Worksheet CllB Calculating specific gravity of ore

Worksheet C11B (continued)
CHAPTER 12

Blocking Ore from Drillhole Data

This chapter provides worksheets to block ore from drillhole data by making linear and quadratic regressions. I will introduce the method in section 12.1 with a small, simple example of fitting a regression model to structural geologic data.

The example of blocking ore is based on a data set from the Chambishi copper mine in Zambia (Koch, 1975,1978; Mendelsohn, 1980). Figure 12.1 is a vertical longitudinal section that shows the open pit, blocks of ore below the open pit, and the intersections of 38 diamond-drill holes with the ore-bearing sedimentary bed. Next to each intersection is plotted the grade in copper at that point. We will calculate a quadratic regression and solve the resulting equation for the grade of each block. Then, we will compare this estimate with estimates made in other ways.

12.1 QUADRATIC REGRESSION — RANGELY, COLORADO OIL-AND-GAS FIELD

As a first example of quadratic regression, I use a small data set from the Rangely, Colorado oil-and-gas field, from an earlier analysis (Koch

Koch

and Link, 1971, p. 4). The data are elevations in 26 wells of the top of the Weber Sandstone (Pennsylvanian/Permian age) above a datum plane. In worksheet C12A.WK1, Part 1 is a data table listing (in columns C, D, and E) the elevation (w), the east coordinate (x) , and the north coordinate (y) for the data plotted in Figure 12.2.

The quadratic equation for a surface in two dimensions is

 $w-hat = A + (B.1)^*X + (B.2)^*Y + (B.3)^*(X^2) + (B.4)^*(Y^2) + (B.5)^*(XY)$,

where A is a constant and B.l to B.5 are coefficients. Columns F, G, and H in Part 1 list the squared and cross-product terms calculated from columns D and E by entering the appropriate formulas in cells $F13, G13$, and HI 3, and then copying downward to the bottom of the table.

Part 2 gives the regression output, which is similar to that of linear regression (Chapter 3) except that there are five rather than two independent variables.

Part 3 applies the coefficients to x,y data points to calculate the estimated values of W-HAT. Plotting the data points, will give you enough to construct the elevation contours of the dome graphed in Figure 12.3.

12.2 QUADRATIC REGRESSION—CHAMBISHIMINE

Worksheet Cl 2B. WK1 is constructed similar to worksheet Cl 2A. WK1. The regression output is similar. The smaller value of r-squared, 0.60, indicates that less of the variability (about 36 percent) is explained by the model; however, I believe that this moderate smoothing may provide appropriate block estimates. Part 3 gives the predicted value of Cu for each block; I arranged the table for ease in copying the center coordinates of each block and the formula.

Figure 12.4 is a 1-2-3 plot of the blocks, scaled approximately to the scale of Figure 12.1 by adjusting the column widths using the /Work-

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Koch

Figure 12.4 Plot for Chambishi problem

sheet-Global-Width command. To make this plot, I first copied Part 3 to arrange the columns side by side, and then used the command / Transpose to interchange rows and columns.

Part 4 calculates a confidence interval for the population mean, and Part 5 is the table of labels.

12.3 OTHER WAYS TO ESTIMATE BLOCK GRADES

Many other ways have been devised to estimate block grades. Peters (1987, p. 489) explains weighting by the inverse distance squared, and Hayes and Koch (1984) provide a computer program for this method. Table 12.1 gives several grade estimates made in different ways for the Chambishi mine. In a classic paper, Tukey (1948) showed that any reasonable weighting system will yield similar results overall, although values for individual blocks may differ. (Technically, Tukey showed that weights can change much without changing the standard error of an estimate.) Not until the ore is mined out, and then only if reliable mining records have been kept, do we know for any deposit whether a particular evaluation scheme is "best."

You may want to experiment with estimating block values in various ways and entering your results in column E of Part 3 of worksheet C12B.WK1. If you then compute the mean, and confidence intervals, you can compare them with those in Table 12.1. I think that you will be surprised with how close they are, at least this is the experience of students at the University of Georgia through several years.

Table 12.1 Chambishi mine, Zambia. Grade estimates from 38 boreholes made in various ways. Values are in percent copper.

Worksheet C12A Quadratic regression of Rangely data **Worksheet C12A Quadratic regression of Rangely data**

Worksheet C12A (continued) **o Worksheet C12A** *(continued)*

Worksheet C12A (continued)

Worksheet C12A (continued)

Worksheet C12B Quadratic regression of Chambishi data **Worksheet C12B Quadratic regression of Chambishi data**

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Worksheet C12B (continued) **en Worksheet C12B** *(continued)*

Koch

Blocking Ore from Drillhole Data

Worksheet C12B (continued)

Worksheet C12B (continued)

Blocking Ore from Drillhole Data

Worksheet C12B (continued) **Worksheet C12B** *(continued)*

Worksheet C12B (continued)

CHAPTER 13

Ore Concentration and 1 Smelter Settlement

The worksheets in this chapter calculate the concentration of ore after mining and the payments made by smelters for the concentrated products. Two of the worksheets are taken from the comprehensive model in the next chapter; they are separated here so that you can easily work with and modify them.

13.1 ORE CONCENTRATION

After mining, ores are generally separated in a plant termed a mill or a concentrator into two types of products: one or more concentrates containing most of the valuable minerals, and tailings containing most of the other minerals. Because the minerals are processed in an industrial operation, their recovery is imperfect. A materials balance accounts for the ore, named the heads, entering the mill, and the concentrates and tailings leaving the mill.

Worksheet C13A.WK1 is a simplified materials balance for the concentrator at the El Indio mine in Chile (Smith, 1986). It is convenient to consider the concentration of 100 tonnes of 5 percent copper ore; these *Koch*

numbers are entered in cells D12 and El 2. Multiplying tonnes of heads (D12) by grade (E12) gives the contents, in tonnes of copper (F12); we can express this fundamental equation as

$$
T^*G=C,
$$

where T is tonnes, G is grade, and C is the quantity (also named the contents) of contained metal. Multiplying F12 by the percentage recovery of copper (94 percent) gives the contents of copper in the concentrate in F13. Because the concentrate grade is more or less a constant, being largely a function of the efficiency of the concentrator, the tonnes of concentrate in D13 is calculated by dividing F13 by El 3 (with a constant to express percentage). Finally, the tonnes and copper contents of the tailings are determined by subtracting the concentrate values from the heads values, and the tailings grade is calculated from the fundamental equation.

Worksheet C13B.WK1 is similar to the previous worksheet with the inclusion of gold, which was omitted for simplicity from the first worksheet. The gold adds no significant additional tonnage to the concentrates.

Worksheet C13C.WK1 is the materials balance that Peters (1987, p. 252) uses for his comprehensive model; the original data, for the Bunker Hill mine in Idaho, are from Sather and Prindle (1970). Two concentrates are produced, a lead concentrate containing most of the lead and silver, and a zinc concentrate containing most of the zinc and some of the silver. In this worksheet, the rows and columns are transposed for convenience in printing. I assumed that the percentages of lead and zinc in the concentrates and the percentage recoveries of all three metals are constants. Therefore, the concentrate weights are linear functions of the grades of lead and zinc in the mined ore. Other assumptions are possible, but making them would require a detailed knowledge of the particular mineralogy and the concentration scheme.

13.2 CALCULATION OF GRADE FOR A MINED-OUT DEPOSIT

An interesting use of the materials balance in the previous section combines it with Section 11.2 on calculating the specific gravity of ore. Here is a problem for you to consider.

In examining the Veta Grande lead mine in Mexico, you learn from old maps, checked by your observations and measurements, that about 10,000 cubic meters of ore was mined. The record of concentrates shipped is as follows:

The problem is to estimate the grade of ore as mined, because there is a potential for additional ore of a similar grade at depth.

To simplify the problem, we may assume that (1) the lead concentrate consisted entirely of galena plus pyrite, (2) the gangue rejected in milling consisted entirely of limestone, and (3)the recovery of metals was perfect.

You have at hand data on the specific gravities of the minerals and limestone, and the atomic weights of the minerals.

Worksheet C13D.WK1 solves this problem. Part 1 provides constants; the percent of lead in galena (row 13) is obtained from the atomic weights for lead and sulfur.

Part 2 does the calculations. Working from the given data, we first determine the tonnes of ore mined (row 27), equivalent to a specific gravity of 2.89, and then the lead grade (row 29).

This worksheet is an example of problems usually encountered in economic geology. Generally, the problem resolves itself into selecting *Koch*

the pertinent data and using the basic materials balance relations to determine the required solution. For instance, we might need to work backward from the tailings to determine tonnage and grade of ore as mined.

13.3 SMELTER SETTLEMENT

Concentrates are sold to a smelter, according to negotiated contracts. Peters (1987, p. 255-256) provides "abbreviated examples of typical 'open' smelter schedules, the type furnished to independent shippers of ores and concentrates by custom metallurgical plants." Peters does the calculations (1987, p. 257) for the Bunker Hill ore of worksheet Cl 3C.WK1. His calculations, which are self-explanatory, are given in worksheet C13E.WK1.

19 **?** 3 Worksheet C13A.WK1 Materials balance for the El Indio mine Worksheet C13A.WK1 Materials balance for the El Indio mine 1 18 Feb 88, File C13A.WK1 on disks GSK 059-061 18 Feb 88, File C13A.WK1 on disks GSK 059-061 5 Part 1. Materials balance for a copper ore Materials balance for a copper ore 12 Heads 100.0 5 5.00 5.00 Feads 13 Concentrates 14.7 32 4.70 14 Tails 85.3 0.352 0.30 5.00
4.70
0.30 $\frac{1}{1}$ 9 Material Tons Grade Contents $\frac{1}{2}$ Contents cu, T 10 Cu, * 8 Cu, * 8 7 C D E F \mathbf{r} 0.352 5 32 |
|
|
| Grade $cu,$ x $\bar{\mathbf{L}}$ 17 Cu recovery is 94 percent. Cu recovery is 94 percent. 85.3 100.0 Tons \Box Concentrates Material Part 1. \circ $\frac{1}{1}$ Heads Tails $\frac{1}{3}$ 15 16 18 \overline{a} *H* \sim **60 م** \mathbf{r} **8** \sim $\ddot{}$ \overline{a}

Worksheet C13A *(continued)* $\ddot{\cdot}$ ₹

Worksheet C13B Materials balance for El Indio mine with gold included **Worksheet C13B** Materials balance for El Indio mine with gold included

Worksheet C13A (continued) **Worksheet C13A** *(continued)*

Worksheet C13C Materials balance for Bunker Hill mine **Worksheet C13C Materials balance for Bunker Hill mine**

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Worksheet C13C (continued)

Worksheet C13C (continued)

Worksheet C13D Estimating lead grade for prospect **Worksheet C13D Estimating lead grade for prospect**

Worksheet C13D (continued) **Worksheet C13D** *(continued)*

Worksheet C13E Smelter settlement **Worksheet C13E Smelter settlement**

Worksheet C13E (continued)

Worksheet C13E (continued) **E** *(continued)* **00 Worksheet C13**

Worksheet C13E (continued) **Worksheet e13E** *(continued)*

CHAPTER 14

Peters's Model for Mineral I Property Evaluation

As a financial model for mine evaluation, I use the one presented by Peters (1987, p. 568-570) in a table entitled "Steps in estimating profitability of an undeveloped mineral property," together with accompanying tables from Peters's book. This model presents up-to-date thinking of an expert as well as recent costs.

The Lotus 1-2-3 worksheet for the model is file C14A.WK1. Except for round-off errors, the results match those of Peters.

14.1 THE BASIC MODEL

The basic 1-2-3 model is in four parts, corresponding with Peters's format. These four parts are self-explanatory.

Part 5 is a table of cash flows derived from the cash flows for years 1 to 3, labeled !CASH.FLOW.l, 1CASH.FLOW.2, and ICASH.FLOW.3, from row 99. The cash flows for years 4 to 14 are the same as that for year 3, because Peters makes no provision for return of working capital in year 14. Years 15 to 20 are provided for your convenience in changing **the model, if you wish. These cash flows define the label, ANN.CASH.FLOWS, which is the range D136..D155, used to calculate DCFROR, in cell D99.**

Part 6 is the materials balance table from Peters (1987, p. 252). In constructing this table, I assumed that the percentages of lead and zinc in the concentrates and the percentage recoveries of all three metals are constants. Therefore, the concentrate weights are taken as linear functions of the grade of lead and zinc in the ore as mined. Other assumptions are possible.

Part 6 is the calculation of percentage depletion from Peters (1987, p. 257), and Part 8 is the net smelter return calculation from Peters (1987, p. 257).

14.2 USING THE MODEL

Using the model will demonstrate to you the outstanding benefit of 1 - 2-3 for a relatively complex worksheet. By entering new values in selected cells, recalculating, and graphing the results, you can determine quickly how changes affect a particular variable, such as DCFROR.

As an example of the procedure, I changed ore tonnage in place, D13, together with ore grade in place, D15..D17, using increments of plus and minus 10% and 20%. As tonnage increases, grade decreases, with the results graphed in Figures 14.1 and 14.2. Changing tonnage and grade in this way leads to a range in mine life between 10 and 16 years and a cash flow between about \$4 and \$8 million per year (Figure 14.1). DCFROR changes from 31% to 13%, illustrating that maximizing this measure depends on high cash flows early in the life of a project.

You can alter the model to suit yourself. Here are some examples of problems that may interest you:

1. Suppose that the ore tonnage in place, ORE.TONS.PLACE, changes inversely with the percentage extraction, %EXTRACTION, so that as the tonnage decreases the extraction rate increases.

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2. What happens if the dilution factor, %DILUTION, changes?

3. What happens if mill recovery, as indicated by the concentration ratios, PB.CONC.RATIO and ZN.CONC.RATIO, increases together with an increase in operating cost, OP.COST.PER.TON, required to achieve this improved mill recovery?

4. Suppose that tonnage, ORE.TONS.PLACE, changes along with mining rate, TONS.PER.DAY, so that the ratio of these two variables remains the same. Also, you may want to change the capital investment values—TOT.CAP.INVEST., DEPREC.YEAR.1, andDEPREC.YEAR.2 — assuming that a larger capital investment is needed for a higher mining rate.

5. Suppose that you change income tax, %INCOME.TAX, to correspond to situations where industry lobbyists are doing better or worse with the legislature.

6. Change revenue per ton broken ore, REV.PER.TON.ORE, accompanied by a change in operating costs, OP.COST.PER.TON, because the union has agreed to make wages change according to price.

7. Assume the same situation as in (6), except that the union president is difficult to work with so that wages and therefore operating costs, OP.COST.PER.TON, increase with lower revenue per ton, REV.PER.TON.ORE. At what point do you shut down the whole operation?

8. Assume that the plant is built at a lower price (changing TOT.CAP.INVEST.,DEPREC.YEAR.l,andDEPREC.YEAR.2)butthat the less expensive plant gets poorer mill recovery, as measured by PB.CONC.RATIO and ZN.CONC.RATIO.

Worksheet C14A Mineral property evaluation **Worksheet C14A Mineral property evaluation**

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Worksheet C14A (continued) **A** *(continued)* **Worksheet C14**

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Worksheet C14A *(continued)* Worksheet C14A (continued)

Worksheet C14A *(continued)* Worksheet C14A (continued)

Worksheet C14A (continued) **Worksheet Cl4A** *(continued)*

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