



Consistency-Checking 3D Geological Models

2 Marion N. Parquer¹, Eric A. de Kemp¹, Boyan Brodaric¹ and Michael, J. Hillier¹ 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Correspondance: Eric A. de Kemp eric.dekemp@canada.ca orcid.org/0000-0003-0347-5792 Geological Survey of Canada, Three-dimensional Earth Imaging and Modelling Lab 601 Booth Street, Ottawa, Canada, K0E 1E9 11 12 **Abstract** 13 14 3D geological modelling algorithms can generate multiple models that fit various mathematical and geometrical 15 constraints. The results, however, are often meaningless to geological experts if the models do not respect accepted 16 geological principles. This is problematic, given the expected use of the models for various downstream purposes, 17 such as hazard risk assessment, flow characterization, reservoir estimation, natural storage, or mineral and energy 18 exploration. Verification of the geological reasonableness of such models is therefore important: if implausible models can be identified and eliminated, it will save countless hours, computational and human resources, as well as— 19 consistenty with what? 20 - rather vague? minimize user problems 21 To begin assessing geological reasonableness, we develop a framework for consistency-checking and test it with a 22 proof-of-concept tool. The framework consists of a space of consistent and inconsistent geological situations that 23 24 can be held between a pair of geological objects, and the tool assesses a model against the space to identify 25 (in)consistent situations. Both the framework and tool are successfully applied to several case studies as a promising first step toward automated assessment of geological reasonableness. 26 & space, or set of roles? If space, what are the dimensione? 27 28 Keywords - geological knowledge, geological consistency, 3D geological modelling, temporal relation, spatial 29 relation, polarity 30 31 1 Introduction 32 Geomodelling techniques are often deployed to bridge the spatial gaps between explored areas, including gaps in 33 stratigraphic structure, property distribution, and target extent. Increased data availability, and rising societal need for natural resources have recently stimulated development of advanced geomodelling modelling techniques such as 34 35 stochastic simulation (Lajevardi and Deutsch, 2015), time-varying modelling (Hinojosa, 1993), Bayesian techniques 36 (de la Varga and Wellmann, 2016), and direct perturbation of models or data (Lindsay et al., 2012). Wrapped into increasing)

erowing complex workflows (de Kemp et al., 2016), these new techniques can operate with scarce and 37 38 heterogeneous data, are frequently deployed to model less accessible and more complex terrains, and often produce

a wide range of equiprobable models and associated uncertainties (Wellmann and Caumon, 2018).





2 However, several problems can arise from these advanced techniques. For example, accuracy issues associated with 3 scarce data can become magnified and lead to geologically questionable spatial interpolations, such as older 4 geological units deposited on younger units (Figure 1). These issues might be further compounded by biases at each 5 modelling step or decreases in the reliability of the data as the number of participants increases (Bond, 2015). Data 6 may also become irrelevant due to scale discrepancies (Snyder et al., 2014), and degraded due to re-sampling to 7 meet coarser scale requirements or to suit algorithms that imprecisely fit data (Hillier et al., 2021). As data scarcity 8 and loss necessarily impact the accuracy and credibility of any model, multiple equiprobable realizations are often 9 generated in the hope that some model, or the mean of models, comes closer to representing reality and minimizing 10 uncertainty. Equiprobable models, though, are not necessarily geologically possible (Deutsch, 2018). Indeed, some of the more data-driven 3D modelling methods can generate results that respect the data₀ but do not necessarily 11 12 respect established geological principles (Lyell, (1833) 2022). Conversely, purely knowledge-driven 3D modelling methods might respect geological principles or norms' but might not fit the underlying data (Bai et al., 2017). Thus, 13 14 amongst a multitude of equiprobable models, it is unavoidable that a non-negligible number of them might produce 15 geologically unreasonable results. This is especially a challenge for hypothesis testing in natural systems, or developing AI training sets, which might involve billions of such models. 16 The number of models is not an issue? (Their goodily is) 17 18 The number of possible models therefore must be reduced, and this reduction can be accomplished in two ways: (1) 19 by building fewer and better models, or (2) by excluding inappropriate models. The first solution involves having 20 more and better data and knowledge, or improved algorithms. Increasing the amount of data in study areas, possibly 21 from diverse sources such as geophysical or structural data (Giraud et al., 2020, 2024; Wellman and Caumon, 2019; Hillier et al., 2014; Grose et al., 2019; de la Varga et al., 2019), or improving data quality, increases overall accuracy also and reduces the number of possible models. Such results also might be achieved from increased constraints, 22 23 24 including refinements of knowledge such as input stratigraphy or augmentation of algorithms with implicit and rule-25 based modelling (Bertoncello et al., 2013; Bai et al., 2017). Problematically, however, these solutions likely require 26 the acquisition of new data or knowledge, which is often impossible. It also might require the development of more 27 robust algorithms to improve model quality (Jessell et al., 2010; Cherpeau et al., 2010; Ranalli, 1980), such as however these 28 physics-based modelling approaches (Shokouhi et al, 2021; Hobbs et al. 2021), which are not yet mature.

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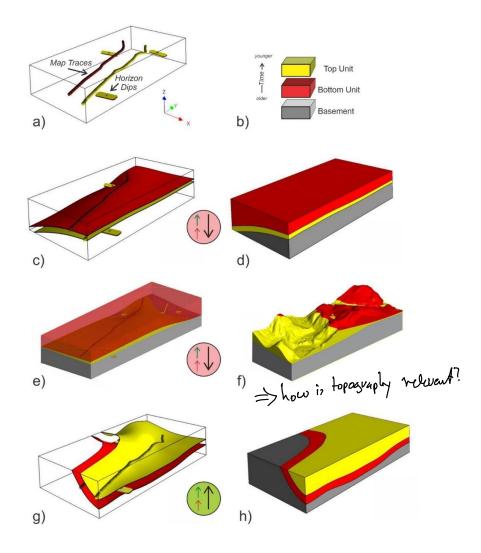


Figure 1. Example of *unreasonable* 3D geological models (c) to (f). Sparse input data (a) includes two separate depositional horizon traces and 3 (gently dipping) bedding constraints (yellow tablets) indicating depositional tops upward. The event history (b) has an older unit (red) deposited below the younger unit (yellow). However, use of the Lajaunie (1997) implicit method in SURFE (Hillier et al. 2014, 2021) results in the older unit deposited over the younger unit (c)-(d), which is unreasonable in the absence of other events. Similarly, using commercial software from LeapFrog Geo (Seequent), in (e) without topography and in (f) with topography, also indicates an unreasonable geological sequence with the older unit on top. In contrast, (g) and (h) show reasonable models generated with SURFE software tuned to respect a minimal horizon thickness and depositional history. Circled arrows show a deposition polarity vector for the older unit (red arrow), younger unit (green arrow), and the temporal direction (black arrow, from older to younger unit), as well as the geological plausibility of the situation: a green background indicates consistency with geological principles (aligned vectors), and the red background denotes an inconsistent scenario (unaligned vectors).

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1 The second solution, which involves model exclusion, can be accomplished manually or automatically: (i) manually 2 having a geologist inspect and reject models using accumulated expertise; or (ii) automatically by performing a 3 <u>rapid</u> computer-driven check to eliminate poor instances, during or after model construction. A significant 4 disadvantage of the manual approach is lack of reproducibility: as implicit knowledge can vary between and within 5 geologists (Brodaric et al., 2004; Brodaric 2012, Bond 2015), it is unlikely manual corrections would be 6 reproducible for more than a few models, and the selection of a certain model would likely be unexplainable. In 7 contrast, if knowledge is made explicit (Brodaric and Gahegan, 2006), automatic approaches could be reproducible 8 and explainable, as per the consistency-checking approach in this paper. A critical aspect of this approach therefore geological Yules and their 9 is the explicit digital encoding of knowledge, as well as its integration into geo-modelling workflows. Although 10 integration techniques like rule-based geomodelling (Pyrcz et al., 2015) and implicit modelling (Jessell et al., 2014) عوامغازها مالاد) are quite common, they typically incorporate a limited range of knowledge. Extending this range also is not new, 11 12 e.g. early work focuses on capturing knowledge from a geological map, cross-section, or other field record (Harrap, 13 2001; Burns, 1975; Burns and Remfry, 1976; Burns et al., 1978; 1969), but only recently have we begun such 14 extension for 3D geo-modelling (e.g., Jessell et al., 2021; Rauch, et al., 2019). In addition to limitations in 15 knowledge range, there exist accompanying limitations in its use, as the knowledge is utilized primarily a priori for 16 model-building rather than a posteriori for model evaluation. Key goals for a consistency checker then include an 17 expansion of the range of knowledge plus its effective application for consistency evaluation. 18 19 A first step to such expansion and evaluation might be the utilization of all information from a geologist's 20 observation sheet. However, it is very unusual to incorporate all such knowledge in a 3D model: much of it remains 21 reported on a map, e.g. as colours, abbreviations or symbols, and the rest in the map legend, in related articles and 22 reports, or in the mind of the geologist. In particular, the geological legend as we know can be incomplete (Harrap, 23 2001) and does not always contain the entire stratigraphic and structural history, prompting the development of a 24 'legend language' as a first attempt to formalize geological map knowledge for the purpose of checking the 25 consistency of traditional 2D geological maps (Harrap, 2001). 26 27 More recently, the topological aspects of geological maps and models have received significant attention as a 28 pertinent knowledge representation (Thiele et al., 2016a, b; Le et al., 2013). This includes the spatial relations 29 between discrete elements of a 3D model, particularly those unchanging under continuous deformation (Crossley,



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2005), such as adjacency, inclusion or intersection. An important aspect is the dimensionality of the spatial objects, 2 which might be 0D (a point), 1D (a line), 2D (a surface), or 3D (a volume). Spatial relations between such objects 3 have been widely examined, with distinct relationships identified between 2D regions (Egenhofer and Franzosa, 4 1991) as well as 0D, 1D, 2D, and 3D regions (Zlatanova et al., 2004). They also have been applied to certain types 5 of geological objects (Schetselaar and de Kemp, 2006), providing a basis for the spatial component of geological 6 knowledge, and underpin efforts in knowledge-driven 3D geological model construction (Zhan et al., 2022; 2019). 7 However, they are not yet applied to the evaluation of geological models, especially in combination with temporal 8 relations, despite being applied to the evaluation of models in other domains (e.g. Van Oosterom, 1997; Gong and 9 Mu, 2000; Arora et al., 2021; Nikoohemat et al., 2021; Bezhanishvili et al. 2022). 10 11 In this paper we develop a knowledge framework and proof-of-concept tool for automated consistency-checking of 12 3D geological models. The knowledge framework consists of a space of (in)consistent geological situations holding 13 between nine kinds of geological objects, with each situation being a unique combination of a spatial, temporal and 14 polarity relations The proof-of-concept tool then assesses the relations in a geo-model against the space to identify 15 (in)consistencies and is successfully applied to several case studies. The framework is presented in Section 2, the 16 tool is described in Section 3, several case studies are outlined in Section 4, some additional thoughts on the consistency checker and geological reasonableness are presented in Section 5, and the paper concludes with a brief 18 recap in section 6. 19 20 2 Geological Consistency-Checking Framework 21 Geological knowledge is the accumulation of results from thousands of years of human inquiry into our natural 22 environment, with modern formal geological knowledge emerging in the mid 1800's (Lyell, (1833) 2022; Rothery, 23 2016). Such knowledge is found in digitally archived articles and books (e.g. Kardel and Maquet, 2012) as well as 24 online products and courses (e.g. Fattah, 2018). It is particularly useful to help understand the often hidden and 25 unobserved subsurface of the Earth. However, the various possible sources of data (e.g. surface mapping, boreholes, 26 geophysical surveys) generally cannot provide sufficiently uniform and continuous information for a volume of 27 interest. Supplementary geological knowledge is required for improved interpretation between sometimes extremely

sparse observations (Groshong, 2006; Frodeman, 1995), especially when coupled with new data integration

techniques and approaches (Giraud et al. 2020; Wellmann and Caumon, 2018).





1 | ls topolosy | (e.g. | A crossack B) | knowledge | or data | under this 2 For consistency-checking purposes herein, we distinguish between data and knowledge, with data being 3 observational and geological knowledge being either local or universal. Data then includes any form of observation 4 used to understand a specific geological area, e.g. bedding top indicators, structural orientations, fault and horizon 5 contacts or seismic picks, or geophysical readings. Local knowledge applies to a specific area but is not 6 observational: it is interpretational and includes things such as the local stratigraphy and process history. In contrast, universal geological knowledge, or 'norms', apply to different geographical areas and includes things such as 7 8 general laws, principles, process types, and classification systems, e.g., Walther's Law, uniformitarianism, the 9 notion of deposition, rock type classification. Significantly, data and knowledge are interconnected insofar as 10 knowledge is inferred from data, and the data is contextualized by knowledge during observation and interpretation 11 (Brodaric et al, 2004). Indeed, both data and knowledge are required to arrive at any interpretation, including a 3D 12 geo-model. Consistency then can be seen as the degree of agreement between a model and the relevant data and 13 knowledge. However, current modelling techniques are primarily focused on ensuring and assessing data 14 15 data and assume stratigraphic consistency, but such consistency might not be achieved by all techniques (see Figure 16 1), and further might not be reflected in all geometric realizations due to idiosyncrasies of spatialization algorithms interpolation? 17 (Hillier et al., 2021). 18 19 Therefore, some geological models can still fail to respect basic geological norms. To determine knowledge 20 consistency for a 3D geo-model, we expect local knowledge to be typically derived from a 2D map legend, cross 21 section, or associated report, whereas universal knowledge is preexistent, in our case as core types of geological 22 objects, foundational spatial, temporal and polarity relations. Truth hables then denote all possible combinations of 23 these relations for pairs of object types, with each combination being a situation identified as consistent or 24 inconsistent. Knowledge consistency is finally assessed by traversing the spatial relations between pairs of objects in 25 a geo-model, using the local knowledge to determine object types, temporal relations, and polarities of the objects, which together form an index into the Truth tables to determine the (in)consistency of a specific situation. 26 27



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2.1 Geological Objects and Polarity

2 The objects in a 3D geo-model (geo-objects) are, for the purposes of this paper, representations of instances of nine distinct geological object types: depositional unit, intrusion unit, extrusion unit, metamorphic unit, fault, erosion = "alternation unit, fault, erosion = unit, fault, erosion = surface, fold volume, and linear and planar fabric. Note that horizons, understood as the top or bottom surfaces of a unit, fault, erosion = unit, fault, erosi 3 4 surface, fold volume, and linear and planar fabric. Note that horizons, understood as the top or bottom surfaces of a (e.s. the 5 volume, are excluded from the list of geological objects primarily because, in effect, they imply a volume and are Potassic 30m 6 thus already included. This does not exclude the top or bottom surfaces of volumetric entities from being ina porphymi system). 7 represented in 3D geo-models, but they are not distinct geological object types in this paper and are converted to 3D 8 volumes for consistency-checking in our proof-of-concept tool. Additionally, we utilize two types of polarity 9 associated with geological objects. The first type of polarity is an internal vector pointing in the direction of creation 10 or destruction of an object's material: e.g. for depositional units, from the base or oldest part of the geological body 11 to the top, in the direction of material creation; and for erosional surfaces from the top to bottom of the eroded rock 12 body, in the direction of material destruction. Volumetric geo-objects are assigned a gross internal polarity valid for 13 the object as a whole, but some immaterial objects, of lower-dimensionality, lack polarity as they are not associated surely the polarity of a fault is it's slip vector? Possibly worth mentioning own if this isn't used with material growth or destruction, e.g. fault surfaces. Those with a gross internal polarity might also have many 14 15 local polarities distributed throughout the object, constituting in sum a polarity field for the object and forming a 16 basis for determining its gross polarity. The second type of gross polarity is an age direction vector shared by two 17 geo-objects, pointing from the older to the younger object and set parallel to one of the internal polarities of the 18 objects. Thus, collectively, there possibly exist three gross polarity vectors associated with a pair of geo-objects: the 19 growth direction vector within each object, and the age direction vector across the objects. The alignment of these vectors then helps determine the geological plausibility of the situation (see Figure 1). The nine types of geo-objects, 20 21 and associated polarities, include: 22 Depositional unit: a rock volume primarily generated by gravitational, water or air mediated, material 23 accumulation processes, and associated with a time interval. The gross internal polarity is unidirectional 24 and perpendicular to the upper depositional surface (Figure 2a): for a given sedimentary unit, it points up in Souly not lower? 25 the opposite direction of gravity at the moment of deposition.

Extrusion unit: a rock volume primarily generated by igneous extrusive processes and associated with a

time interval. The local internal polarities typically point radially upwards to a proximal vent or feeder

facies. This includes internal polarities associated with deposition of eruptive material, which is affected by

gravity and tends to flow downhill, but with airfall material accumulating upward. A gross internal polarity



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1 vector thus points upwards at the time of formation, similar to sedimentary units. However, extrusive units 2 with variable growth directions in subglacial situations are an exception, having chaotic eruptive 3 depositional internal polarity vectors that cannot be characterized by a single gross vector. 4 Intrusion unit: a rock volume primarily generated by igneous subterranean processes and associated with a 5 time interval. Its internal polarities radiate from a core region towards the cooling host rock contact is this possible? E.g. a dyke or sill will have no single representation divection? 6 surfaces (Figure 2c), with a gross internal polarity set to a representative direction. Many configurations for 7 the growth gradients in these bodies exist, but in general the emplacement contacts with host rocks are 8 similar to unconformities, in that they tend to be truncating earlier material through magmatic erosion,

assimilation or expansion (Annen, 2011).

- Metamorphic unit: a rock volume primarily generated by deep thermal-kinetic processes and associated with a time interval. The internal polarities are perpendicular to the metamorphic isograd and pointing to the lower metamorphic grade or into the host protolith (Figure 2d). However, in many cases a gross internal polarity vector can be set pointing upwards from a core heat source. This holds for a regional perspective, in which we can envision the earth's regional geothermal gradient as pointing from hotter-deeper to coolershallower lithospheric material. It also holds for a local perspective, in which the location of the source of metamorphism and hence the local gradient may be easier to establish from metamorphic aureoles around intrusions.
- Fault surface: a spatial (immaterial) surface between displaced rock volumes that were once continuous, one or more instantaneous displacements and associated with a time instant or interval for the displacement activity (Figure 2e). The surface lacks internal polarity, as it is never constituted by any material. We are not, at this stage in our approach, considering polarities from kinematic properties distributed on faults such as slip displacement directions.
- Erosion surface: a spatial surface where a rock volume has completely eroded via a mechanical process. It is associated with a time interval or instant indicating the end of the erosion process. Its gross internal polarity points towards the eroded unit, in the direction of material destruction (Figure 2f); typically, this direction will be opposite to that of an overlying sedimentary unit.
- Fold volume: a rock volume affected by ductile tectonic deformation processes with an associated time interval. The fold volume can be composed of depositional, intrusive, extrusive, or metamorphic material, since these units can all become folded, as can an earlier fault or erosional surface. The gross internal polarity points in the direction of structural vergence or tectonic transport direction (Figure 2g). For our





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1 purposes, nappes, duplex structures and orogenic scale tectonic units could be classified as fold volumes. 2 They may contain multiple folding events and have fold-fold relations. We do not treat these in this study, 3 but consider they could be dealt with using a similar consistency approach. For example, an older fold set 4 cannot re-fold a younger generation of folds. 5 Linear fabric: A penetrative preferential linear orientation within a pre-existing rock material, with an 6 associated time interval. Some objects such as paleocurrents could have a unidirectional (Figure 2h) or 7 bidirectional gross internal polarity such as from tidal currents, but a fold hinge line has no preferred 8 direction (polarity). 9 Planar fabric: A penetrative preferential planar orientation within a pre-existing rock material, with an 10 associated time interval. A primary planar deposition fabric has a normal with a positive upward polarity at 11 the time of formation (Figure 2i), (i.e., bedding top observations). A metamorphic planar fabric has a 12 normal with no polarity unless it can be derived from its host metamorphic unit. Igneous fabrics may have 13 derived polarity direction based on crystal accumulation, igneous flow layering or emplacement contact 14 directions. All fabrics (linear and planar) will have spatial, temporal topological relations and possible 15 polarity properties, that could be considered in determining feature-to-feature relation validity. 16 17 Field geologists typically infer these geo-objects and associated geological histories by interpreting common spatial 18 and temporal patterns across field sites. These patterns involve geological relations held between geological objects, 19 thus providing a simple topological framework for possibly complex geological situations. Major geological 20 relations, or situations, further can be decomposed into combinations of spatial, temporal, or polarity relations. For 21 example, if Sandstone-A is a depositional unit and Granite-B is an intrusion unit, and Sandstone-A is intruded-by 22 Granite-B, then we also expect a spatial relation such as Sandstone-A spatially meets Granite-B, a temporal relation 23 such as Sandstone-A is temporally met by Granite-B, and the gross internal polarities are either aligned or opposed. 24 In this way, the intruded-by relation might be decomposed into a specific combination of a spatial, temporal, and

polarity relation. The task of a consistency checker then can be seen as verifying the validity of such a relation





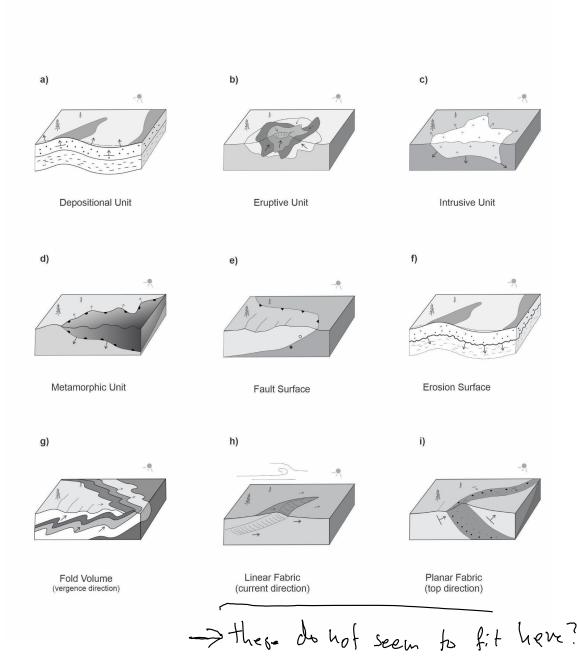


Figure 2. Examples of geological objects with polarities, symbolized with black arrows. Note there is no polarity for fault features (e).

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2 2.2 Spatial Relations

Prominent formalisms for binary spatial relations are derived from two main approaches (Galton 2009): Region Connection Calculus (RCC) and the 9-intersection model (9I; Egenhofer, 1989; Egenhofer et al., 1993, Egenhofer and Franzosa, 1991). In this paper we informally adapt the 9I approach, implemented for 0, 1, 2 or 3D objects and 512 possible spatial relations (Zlatanova et al., 2004). However, these 512 possibilities are drastically reduced for typical geological situations in 2D and 3D (Schetselaar and de Kemp, 2006), resulting in 40 spatial relations for the nine geological object types, as shown in Figure 2; then for any pair of spatial objects only one spatial relation can hold. These relations can be represented as a three-part tuple, as shown in Tuple Equation 1. The tuple is also directed or not, depending on the symmetry of the relation, given that asymmetric relations are directional and symmetric relations are not directional; e.g. meets is symmetric, so if A meets B then B meets A, thus meets is not directional; but if A contains B then it cannot be the case that B contains A (or A is contained by B), so contains is asymmetric and directional. The symmetric spatial relations from Table 1 are is disjoint with, meets, overlaps, equals, intersects, and the remaining relations are asymmetric. Symmetric relations also are their own converse, whereas asymmetric relations have distinct converses, such as A contains B and B is contained by A.

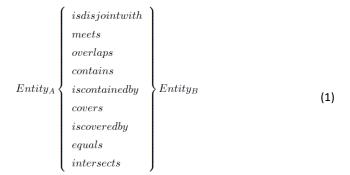




Table 1. The 9 spatial relations between two geological objects of 1/2/3 dimensions. Blank gray cells denote impossible spatial relations after Egenhofer (1989); Egenhofer et al. (1993); Egenhofer and Franzosa (1991); and Zlatanova et al. (2004).

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2.3 Temporal Relations

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3 Temporal relations are required to establish a temporal ordering between geological objects (Perrin et al., 2011). 4 Though the temporal position of a geological object is not always known (Michalak, 2005), the temporal ordering 5 between objects can be derived from the timeline of associated generative events (Galton, 2009; Claramunt and 6 Jiang, 2001). As with spatial relations, dimensionality plays a role: temporal relations can be categorized according 7 to the nature of the time duration (of the event) with 3 potential combinations: period/period, period/instant, or 8 instant/instant. Building on Allen's definitions (Allen, 1983), this leads to 14 distinct temporal relations, including 9 converses (e.g. A precedes B and B is preceded by A), as shown in Table 2, for the nine geological object types; 10 moreover, for any pair of objects only one temporal relation can hold. Of note is the is incomparable to relation, 11 which indicates the temporal ordering is unknown due to unavailable temporal knowledge about one or both objects. 12 Tuple Equation 2 illustrates the three-part tuple for expressing these relations. The symmetric relations are equals

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ŝ	A overlaps B B is overlapped by A			
	A starts B B is started by A			
	A finishes B B is finished by A		1	
	A during B B contains A		-	
	A equals B			•
	A is incomparable to B			

Table 2. The 14 temporal relations between two geological objects, after Allen (1983). The temporal timeline advances from left to right in each cell. Blank gray cells denote impossible temporal relations, and blank white cells denote unknown temporal relations.

2.4 Polarity Relations

A polarity relation can be determined from up to three independent component polarities (discussed earlier in Section 2.1); the two internal polarities, dependent on the type of geo-object and processes governing its formation, and the age polarity. The internal and age polarity vectors, can be compared to determine if they are 'aligned' or 'opposed', such that:

- Aligned polarity relation: the vectors are roughly parallel, such that each vector is within 90° of every other vector.
- Opposed polarity relation: a vector is oriented in an opposite direction to the others, such that one vector is at least greater than 90° from one of the others.

If an object does not have internal polarity, such as a fault, or the internal polarity is missing due to lack of
 knowledge, then the polarity relation defaults to aligned. Importantly, polarity alignment or opposition does not



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necessarily determine (in)consistency alone, as such determination requires consideration of the spatial and temporal relations. For example, opposed internal polarity can indicate either inconsistency or consistency; e.g. touching depositional units with opposed internal or temporal polarities are inconsistent (Figure 3b), because such units must create material in the same spatial and temporal direction; but a touching depositional unit and erosional surface with opposed internal polarity are consistent, because the surface must erode material towards the older unit (Figure 3e). The internal polarity relation also might not play a determining role in assessing (in)consistency, as the spatial and temporal relations may individually or together be determining factors: e.g. the (in)consistency of an intrusion into a host depositional unit can be determined without regard to internal polarities (Figure 3c-d), as the intrusion must be younger and touching the unit, otherwise some interceding object such as a fault or erosional surface is missing from the model; similarly for a depositional unit and a fault surface (Figure 3g-h), as the unit must pre-exist the fault. Note we do not consider growth faults to be strictly synchronous within a full unit, since at least some of the material needs to pre-exist the faulting. On the other hand, there may not be any age polarity information available other than what can be derived from the internal process vector directions. In the case of intrusions this can be observed from cooling margins, inclusions along contacts and other textures indicating internal growth and assimilation direction. Also note cases needing all three polarity components might be unaligned if the age polarity is unaligned with either of the internal polarities (see Figure 1,c-f). A general framework for (in)consistency therefore must consider the spatial, temporal, and polarity relations. This is accomplished by using these relations as an index into 'Truth Tables' representing geological norms and specifying the (in)consistency of the situation (see Section 2.5).

* therefore units deposited immediately above a depositional unit do not touch meet the units below it (e.s. overturned basement structa?)

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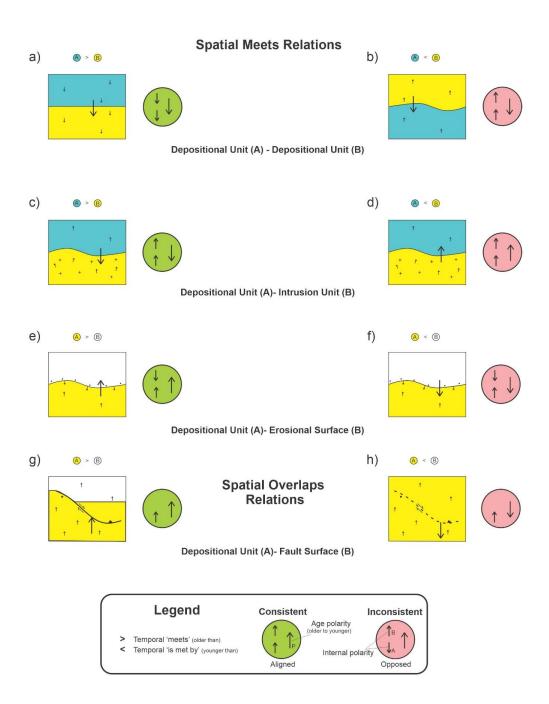


Figure 3. Examples of consistent (green circle) and inconsistent (red circle) polarity configurations for the spatial meets and overlaps relations; included are two vectors for internal polarity (small arrows) and a third age polarity vector pointing to the younger object (large arrow). A consistent scenario between two depositional units is depicted in (a), allowing overturning since overturning happened AFTER the binary relation has been established. An inconsistent scenario between such units is depicted in (b), as the age polarity is opposed to



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both internal polarities, implying a third event between the unreasonable deposition of older on younger material. In (c) the deposition - intrusion unit scenario is consistent, as the age vector is aligned with the intrusive process, whereas in (d) it is not allowed because the host depositional unit is younger than the intrusion unit. In both (c) and (d) the internal polarities do not impact consistency evaluation, as age is the determining factor. In (e) and (f) the erosional surface needs a pre-existing material to erode, thus the direction of material reduction of the eroding surface moves into the older underlying depositional material. For a consistent scenario the age vector points from older unit to younger erosional surface (e), and for an inconsistent scenario, the age vector points from the younger surface to older unit (f). In (g) the fault has no internal polarity but needs a material object to displace. When the depositional unit pre-exists, as in (g), the relation is valid; however, in (h) the depositional unit is younger and did not exist when the fault evolved, so the relation is inconsistent. 2.5 Truth Tables Many geological principles, known implicitly to geologists, must be considered in assessing, even grossly, the consistency of the spatial, temporal, and polarity relations between two geological objects. Amongst the foremost are stratigraphic considerations (Ziggelaar, 2009; Aubry et al., 1999): principle of lateral continuity: in general, a given object has the same age over its full extent. principle of actualism: past objects are formed by processes (tectonism, magmatism, deposition ...) acting in the same way as today. principle of paleontological identity: two objects with the same fossils are considered contemporary. principle of superposition: without structural disruption events, a given object is younger than the thea from "coveril => distinguish object it covers and older than the one covering it. principle of horizontality: sedimentary objects deposit in nearly horizontal orientation; in general, a non-horizontal sedimentary sequence is generally deformed after its deposition. principle of cross-cutting: a given material layer is older than objects cross-cutting it. principle of inclusion: an object included into another object is older than the including object, except when a younger object internally displaces the enclosing object (i.e. dyke, sill, migmatite melt phase). For the nine types of geological objects considered herein, 45 valid pairwise combinations of objects are identified that respect these principles: 45 = (2 + 9 - 1)! / 2! (9 - 1)!). For each object combination, a ternary "Truth Table" establishes all possible consistent and inconsistent spatial-temporal-polarity relations: spatial relations along one side, temporal relations along another side, and internal polarities along a third side; each table cell then can be

marked as consistent or inconsistent for the pair of objects. Although the 45 tables exist in draft form, for the



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- 1 purposes of this paper we concentrate on the 7 tables relevant to the case studies (see the supplementary data
- provided at de Kemp, 2024).

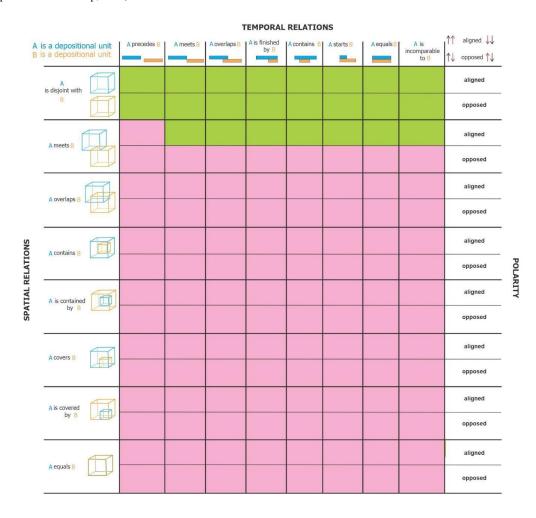


Table 3. Truth Table showing consistent (green) and inconsistent (red) spatial-temporal-polarity relations between two depositional units. All 14 temporal relations are not included (as columns), for reasons of space and because the values are duplicated for the inverse temporal relations.

The Truth Table in Table 3 illustrates all possible spatial-temporal-polarity relation combinations for two depositional units. The eight columns represent the temporal relations possible between two intervals of time; the remaining inverse temporal relations are excluded for reasons of space and redundancy, as the values in each row are repeated for the temporal inverse, e.g. A *precedes* B and A *is preceded by* B are both red (inconsistent). The rows represent the possible spatial and internal polarity relations between two depositional rock volumes. Green



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& what is material sharing?

- 1 cells then indicate consistent combinations, red cells inconsistent combinations, with the consistent cells being far 2 less numerous. Indeed, in Table 3, two distinct depositional units can be spatially related only via is disjoint with or meets, once material sharing is excluded. All combinations are possible for spatially disjoint units, but only aligned 3 4 polarity is valid for units that spatially meet, because opposed polarities would signal inconsistencies, such as missing events or intermediary objects.

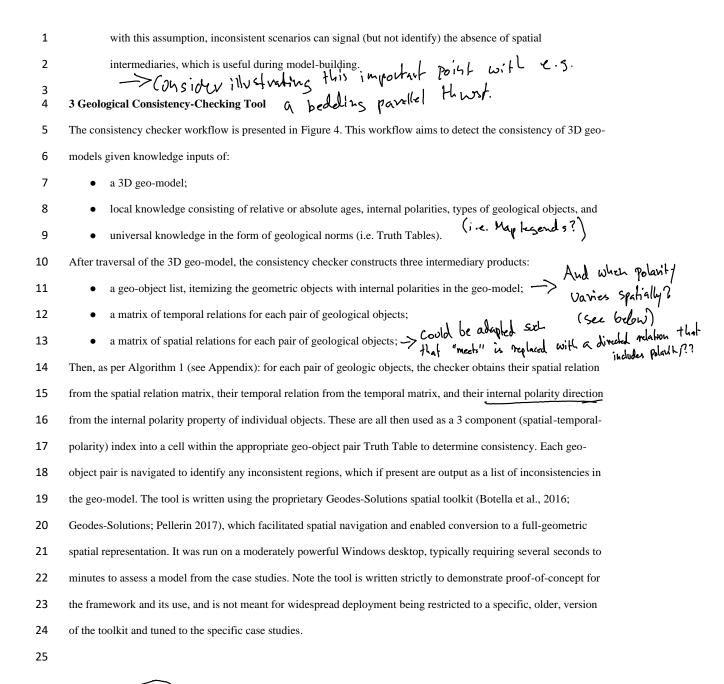
 Agala; clarify that whits do not

 "meet" across a fault or unconfourity? 5 6 In addition to the general geological principles, the following criteria are applied to the truth tables: wh yolahous and velation? 7 8 Order and type of relata: the type of each relatum is fixed across all relations in a Truth Table. For example, 9 for a Truth Table between a depositional unit A and intrusion unit B, A is the first relatum and B is the 10 second relatum for all relations in the table, e.g. A meets B, A precedes B, B is preceded by A, and A is 11 aligned with B. This ensures all possible relation combinations are considered for the pair of objects.
 - Material sharing: only some, not all, geological objects can share material: depositional, intrusion, extrusion, or metamorphic units cannot share material *at any time*, because they cannot simultaneously occupy the same space. These units, however, can share material with a fold volume, since the fold acts to geometrically transform other material volumes. Furthermore, although there exist many scenarios in which geological objects share material, e.g. a depositional unit and its parts, such as group and its formations, however for the purposes of this paper we exclude all such cases, mainly because 3D algorithms tend to bulk together geological components into single packages, such as a series, or model them as facies. As a result of this material-sharing limitation, the *overlaps*, *contains*, or *covers* relations, and their converses, can only hold between certain volumetric geological objects.
 - Spatial relations: the following are assumed: (1) geological objects can be spatially disjoint and possibly very far apart, e.g. on different continents, allowing all temporal relations; (2) only geological objects in their full-dimensional form are valid, e.g. volumes can't be represented as lower dimensional top or bottom surfaces, or a fault surface by a line. Implementation of this approach to consistency-checking thus requires the conversion of all lower-dimensional representations to their full-dimensional counterparts.
 - Model completeness: 3D geo-models are assumed to be complete. Therefore, any two geological objects that touch or share material cannot have objects missing between them, such as an intermediary erosional surface or fault. Without this assumption, the range of consistent scenarios becomes extremely large, with significantly fewer inconsistent scenarios, and the effectiveness of the approach diminishes. In contrast,

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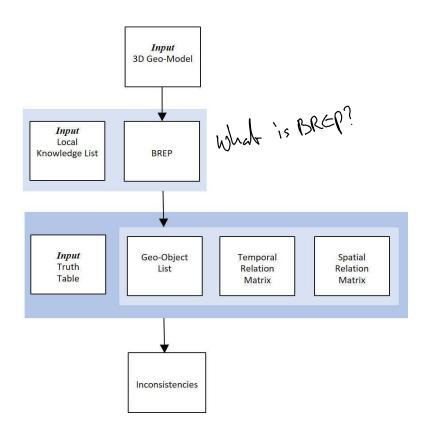


Figure 4. Consistency checker workflow.

3.1 Local Knowledge List

Local geological knowledge is specific to each study area and, alongside the 3D geo-model, is a primary input to the consistency checker tool. It is found in a variety of sources external to the 3D geo-model, such as databases, map legends, stratigraphic columns, journal articles and other reports. For the synthetic model shown in Figure 5a, a local knowledge list is developed and illustrated in Figure 5b: the list contains the name of the geological object, its type (from the nine possibilities), gross internal polarity and its relative age. For simplicity in the proof-of-concept tool, an object's gross polarity is either up, down, or unknown. Furthermore, if a geological object is an aggregate of parts, then the local knowledge applies to the aggregate and is assumed to be the same for every part. For example, in Figure 5a, the local knowledge for units A and B is assumed to also hold for each of their parts A1, A2, B1, B2; separate local knowledge for these parts, if it existed, would not be used. This enables the spatial, temporal, and polarity to hold between the aggregates, which tends to be the resolution at which the input knowledge is available.





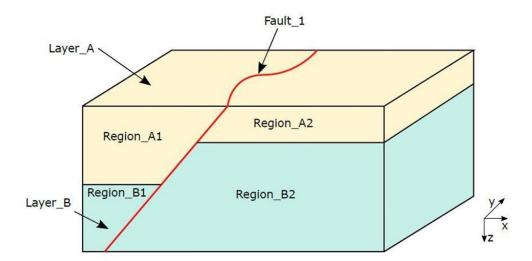


Figure 5a. example 3D geo-model.

Geological entity name	Geological entity type	Geological entity polarity	Geological entity age
layer_A	depositional unit intrusion / extrusion / metamorphic unit / fault / erosion surface / fold volume / linear fabric / planar fabric	up) down / unknown	intermediate
layer_B	depositional unit / intrusion / extrusion / metamorphic unit / fault / erosion surface / fold volume / linear fabric / planar fabric	up) down / unknown	oldest
fault_1	depositional unit / intrusion / extrusion / metamorphic unit fault erosion surface / fold volume / linear fabric / planar fabric	up / down /unknown	youngest

Figure 5b. Local knowledge list for the model in Figure 5a.

3.1 Temporal Relation Matrix

Temporal relations are also obtained from external sources, including absolute or relative ages for each geological object, as well as the kind of duration of the geological event (i.e. interval or instant). This knowledge then determines the appropriate temporal relation between all pairs of geological objects, organized as a temporal matrix (Figure 6). The matrix is developed manually for our case studies but could be determined automatically from databases and other digital sources. The *incomparable* relation is chosen if there exists insufficient knowledge to determine the temporal relation between a pair of objects.

> Note the Strong link between spatial and temporal Page | 22 topdssy (e.g., XCutting Mathematics)



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	layer_A	layer_B	fault_1	
layer_A	6	0/1/2/3/4/ 5/6/7/8/9/ 10/11/12/13	5/6/7/8/9/	
layer_B	0 1/2/3/4/ 5/6/7/8/9/ 10/11/12/13	6	0 1/2/3/4/ 5/6/7/8/9/ 10/11/12/13	
fault_1	5/6/7/8/9/	0 / 1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / 5 / 6 / 7 / 8 / 9 / 10 / 11 / 12 / 13		

Temporal Relations Legend

0 = precedes

1 = meets

2 = overlaps

3 = is finished by 4 = contains

5 = starts

6 = equals

7 = incomparable to

8 = is started by

9 = is during

10 = finishes

11 = is overlapped by

12 = is met by

13 = is preceded by

Figure 6. Temporal relation matrix for the model in Figure 5a.

3.2 Spatial Relation Matrix

This matrix typically requires transformation of the 3D geo-model into a boundary representation (BREP; Banerjee et al., 1981), which ensures all geological objects are represented in their full-dimensional form, e.g. a volume initially represented by its top and bottom surfaces is converted into a mesh of the full exterior limits of the volume, consisting of faces, edges and vertices. A geo-model then can be traversed by following the geometric decomposition of each object and their adjacencies. If objects are named and typed (e.g. as in the Geodes-Solutions BREP solution; Botella et al., 2016; Geodes-Solutions; Pellerin 2017), then such traversal enables building of the spatial relation matrix. Specifically, the consistency checker builds a list containing each geometric object, as well

their dimensionality (volume, surface, or line), type (e.g. depositional unit), and name (e.g. "Layer A"). The list is traversed in order of dimensionality, starting with higher-dimensional objects (volumes) and progressing to lowerdimensional objects (surfaces and lines), with spatial relations determined between pairs of objects by inspecting decompositions and adjacencies. The results are recorded in the spatial relation matrix (Figure 7). For simplicity, a cell in the spatial matrix contains a single value, and the entities being related are the whole objects, e.g. Layer_A (Figure 5a), and not their fragments, e.g. Region_A1 or Region_A2 (Figure 5a). This is obviously problematic as fragments of objects might be spatially related in many ways, e.g. some might touch and others are disjoint, so the

wholes can be related in many ways too, requiring multiple values per cell for each pair of wholes: e.g. it is possible Region_A1 has one relation with Region_B1 and a different relation with Region_B2, thus A would have multiple

distinct relations with B. In such cases, the most dominant relation is selected, which suffices for our case studies.

Consider using the "structural" and "Lithological" toyology terms from Thick et. al.

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To avoid multi-valued cells, a rigorous approach would utilize object fragments for consistency-checking, rather use to distribute tampore to avoid multi-valued cells, a rigorous approach would utilize object fragments for consistency-checking, rather use to distribute tampore to avoid multi-valued cells, a rigorous approach would utilize object fragments for consistency-checking, rather use to distribute tampore.

2 than wholes. This issue and the incorporation of local relations is an important topic for future research.

	layer_A	layer_B	fault_1	
layer_A	8	0 1 2/3/4 5/6/7/8	0/1/2 3 4 5/6/7/8	
layer_B	0 1 2/3/4 5/6/7/8	8	0/1/2/3/4 5/6/7/8	
fault_1	0/1 2 3/4 5/6/7/8	0/1 2 3/4 5/6/7/8	8 1	
			†	

Spatial Relations Legend:

0 = disjoint

1 = meets / is met

2 = intersects

3 = overlaps / is overlapped by

4 = contains

5 = is contained by

6 = covers

7 =is covered by

8 = equals

Figure 7. Spatial relation matrix for the model in Figure 5a.

4 Case studies

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The consistency checker is tested in four case studies: three synthetic models in which inconsistencies are introduced, and a real regional geo-model from ongoing project work in Western Canada (Thapa and McMechan, 2019, McMechan et al., 2021). The geo-models are built using a variety of 3D modelling software and underlying approaches including: Noddy (Jessell, 1981), GOCAD/SKUA (Jayr et al, 2008; Mallet, 2004), GOCAD (Mallet, 1989) and certain extensions, namely SURFE (Hillier, et al. 2014; de Kemp et al. 2017) and SPARSE (de Kemp et al. 2004).

4.1 Implicit Case study

A simple but common modelling error occurs when applying certain implicit algorithms to sparse observations of near parallel, shallow, dipping strata. Then, as depicted in Figure 1, if some older unit data are slightly topographically higher than younger unit data, algorithm bias can result in older units above younger units. To assess such a model, the consistency checker requires alignment of the three polarity vectors, two internal and one temporal: as shown in Figure 8, the Truth Table indicates two depositional units that spatially and temporally meet are (1) consistent, if the polarity vectors are aligned, and (2) inconsistent, if they are opposed. Therefore, this model is evaluated as inconsistent, because the temporal polarity vector is opposed to the internal polarity vectors. Note





- 1 that there could be many reasons for the temporal reversal but this is not identified by the checker, e.g. it might be
- 2 algorithmic bias or missing objects, such as absent thrust faults, recumbent folds, or erosional surfaces.

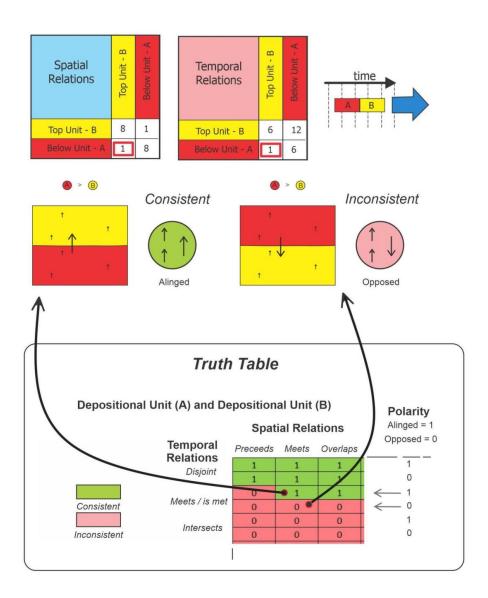


Figure 8. From the simple model in Figure 1, the internal polarity vectors are aligned with each other, but opposed to the age vector. As the units both spatially and temporally meet, the Truth Table shows this configuration is inconsistent due to the unaligned age vector.

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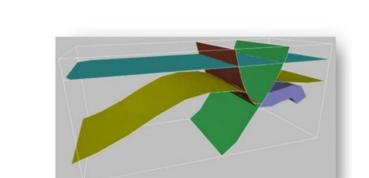
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4.2 GOCAD/SKUA Case Study

This synthetic model contains two depositional units, one intrusion, two faults, one fold, and one erosional feature that is the top surface of the oldest unit (Figure 9). The model is created with GOCAD/SKUA (Mallet, 1989, 2004) using the Structural and Stratigraphic workflow (Jayr et al., 2008); the local knowledge list (Table 4) and temporal matrix (Figure 10) are developed artificially. The spatial matrix (Table 5) includes a variety of spatial relations, such as touching geological units, faults cutting geological units, intrusion units protruding into other geological units, as well as disjoint geological objects. As expected, results from the consistency checker indicate the geo-model is geologically consistent. However, if the event timeline is manipulated to generate inconsistencies without altering spatial relations (Figure 11), then an intersection between the third deposited layer (blue) and the first fault (red) is detected, which is inconsistent with the altered event history (Figure 12).



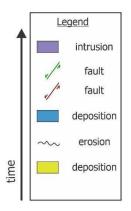


Figure 9. Synthetic geo-model for the GOCAD/SKUA case study: two sedimentary horizons (in yellow and blue), one intrusion (in purple), two faults (in green and red), one fold (in the yellow horizon) and one erosion surface (top of the yellow unit). Horizons define the top of a unit. For simplicity we ignore the folding event that affects pre-erosion sediments.



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Name	Entity type	Age	Polarity
Intrusion_A	Intrusion Unit	Youngest	Up
Fault_2	Fault Surface	Younger than F1	None
Fault_1	Fault Surface	Older than F2 Younger than HB	None
Horizon_B	Depositional Unit	Younger than HAE	Up
Horizon_A_Erosion	Erosional Surface	Younger than HA	Up
Horizon_A	Depositional Unit	Oldest	Up

Table 4. Local knowledge list for the GOCAD/SKUA case study.

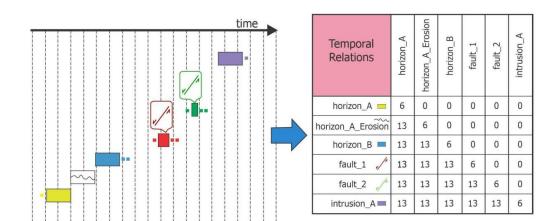


Figure 10. Event history (left) and temporal matrix (right) for the GOCAD/SKUA case study. For temporal relation codes see Figure 6.





Spatial Relations	horizon_A	horizon_A_Erosion	horizon_B	fault_1	fault_2	intrusion_A
horizon_A 💻	8	1	1	2	2	1
horizon_A_Erosion	1	8	0	2	2	0
horizon_B =	1	0	8	2	2	0
fault_1 /	2	2	2	8	1	0
fault_2 /	2	2	2	1	8	1
intrusion_A =	1	0	0	0	1	8

Table 5. Spatial relation matrix for the GOCAD/SKUA case study. For spatial relation codes see Figure 7.

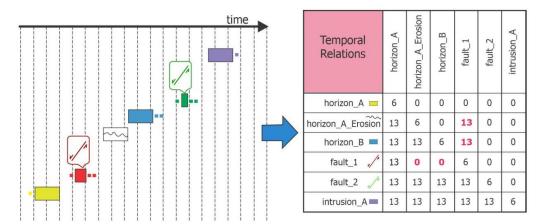






Figure 11. Modified event history (left) and temporal matrix (right) for the GOCAD/SKUA case study, with
 unfeasible temporal relations (in red). For temporal relations codes see Figure 6.

Temporal Relations A is a Depositional Unit B is Fault Surface A is disjoint with B A overlaps B A covers B A covers B

Figure 12. Truth table fragment indicates the relation between fault_1 (earliest fault in red) and Unit B (Blue) is not consistent with the altered history. The inconsistent conditions (marked 'X') in this case are: A *overlaps* B, A *contains* B, and A *covers* B, which are all geologically not plausible given the early fault is eroded BEFORE deposition of UNIT B for the altered history. The acceptable consistent scenarios, in green, that are allowed are possible because of the temporal A *is preceeded by* B relation since there is a time gap to allow the fault to be preserved in the underlying host rock either with a hiatus in movement of the fault, or an intervening erosional event introduced with the change in the event history. In all other scenarios Unit B (blue) does not yet exist to host the fault.





4.3 Western Canada Case Study

The geo-model for this real case study (Figure 13) uses data from the Rocky Mountains of the Western Canadian Cordillera, and is built using the GOCAD/SKUA, SURFE, and SPARSE toolkits (Dutranois, et al. 2010, Hillier et al. 2014, de Kemp et al. 2016). It represents a portion of an east verging fold and thrust belt that has telescoped the Paleozoic and basement meta-sediments of the early North American craton margin, with tectonic deformation having produced in-sequence and out-of-sequence thrusts (McMechan et al., 2021, Morely 1988), as well as later normal faults, with fold-fault and horizon relations that complicate original stratigraphy. The event history (Figure 14) is simplified with all the sedimentary units depositing sequentially, and incurring some facies changes across major structures, followed by several episodes of faulting with some overlapping in time. The spatial complexity of the model arises from the multitude of entities, from faults crosscutting other faults and impacting the pre-deposited layers. The resulting geometry is composed of 213 objects within the 25 units, and 6 faults, with each object delimited or separated from the rest of the unit by a fault.



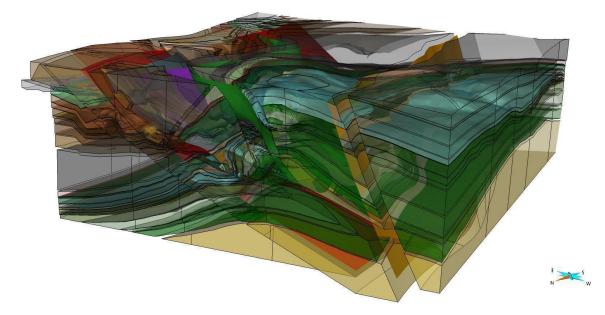


Figure 13. Western Canada case study geo-model: 213 component objects of 25 geological depositional units, and 6 faults.





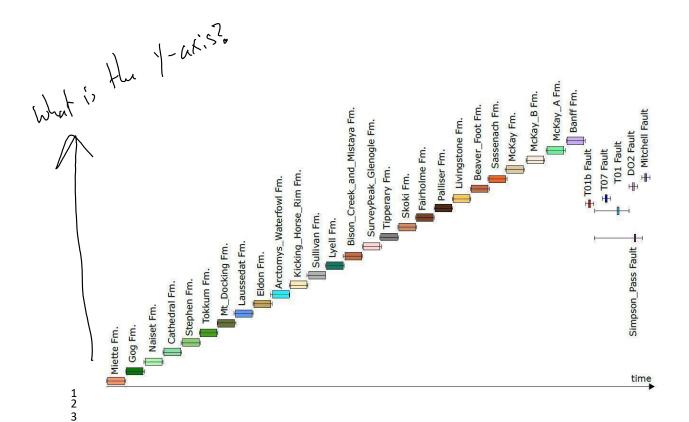


Figure 14. Event history for the Western Canada case study: horizontal boxes are relative timelines and bars are possible ranges.

After compilation of the local knowledge list and temporal relation matrix from external sources, including maps and reports, and development of the spatial relation matrix (Table 6), the consistency checker detects one inconsistency. The inconsistency (Figure 15) involves the spatial containment of one sedimentary unit (Miette) by another (Gog), which is impossible given they cannot occupy the same space, being caused by different depositional processes at different times. The consistency checker not only identifies the kind of inconsistency, through specification of the truth table cell, but it also pinpoints the location of the problem by identifying the inconsistent volumes, after iteration through all the geo-object pairs. Subsequent analysis of the inconsistency suggests it is an artifact of the modelling algorithm and is inaccurate interpolation of the data.





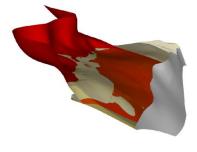
								П			Г		ıya																		П
Spatial Relations	Miette	Gog	Naiset	Cathedral	Tokkumm	Mt_Docking	Laussedat	Eldon	Arctomys_Waterfowl	Kicking_Horse_Rim	Sullivan	Lyell	Bison_Creek_and_Mistaya	SurveyPeak_Glenogle	Tipperary	Skoki	Fairholme	Palliser	Livingstone	Beaver_Foot	Sassenach	McKay	McKay_A	Banff	Kana_Topography	T01b_fault	T07 fault	T01_fault	Simpson Pass_fault	D02_fault	Mitchell_fault
Miette	8	5	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	2	2	2
Gog	4	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	2	2	2
Naiset	1	1	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	2	2	2
Cathedral	1	1	1	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	2	2	2
Tokkumm	1	1	1	1	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	2	2	0	2	2	2
Mt_Docking	1	1	1	1	1	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	2	2	2
Laussedat	1	1	1	1	1	1	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	2	2	2
Eldon	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	2	2	2
Arctomys Waterfowl	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	2	2	2
Kicking Horse Rim	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	2	2	2	2	2
Sullivan	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	2	2	2	2	2	2
Lyell	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	2	2	2	2	2	2
Bison_Creek_Mistaya	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	2	2	2	2	2	2
Survey_Peak_Glenogle	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	2	2	2	2	2	2
Tipperary	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	2	2	2	2	2	2
Skoki	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	2	2	2	2	2	2
Fairholme	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	2	2	2	2	2	2
Palliser	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	2	2	2	2	2	0
Livingstone	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	0
Beaver_Foot	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	8	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	0
Sassenach	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	8	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	0
McKay	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	8	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	0
McKay_A	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	8	1	1	0	2	2	0	2	0
Banff	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	8	1	2	2	2	2	2	0
Kana_Topography	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	8	0	0	2	0	2	0
T01b_fault	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	0	2	0	8	0	0	1	0	0
T07_fault	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	0	0	8	0	1	1	1
T01_fault	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	0	0	8	0	1	0
Simpson Pass_fault	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	0	2	0	1	1	0	8	0	0
D02_fault	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	0	1	1	0	8	1
Mitchell_fault	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	8

 Spatial Relations Legend:
 0 = disjoint
 3 = overlaps, is overlaped by
 6 = covers

 1 = meets, is met by
 4 = contains
 7 = is covered by

 2 = intersects
 5 = is contained by
 8 = equals

Table 6. Spatial relation matrix for the Western Canada case study, with the inconsistent containment relations in red.



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Figure 15. Inconsistent spatial containment between the Gog (red) and Miette (yellow) units in the Western Canada case study. The Miette is an older unit preceding deposition of Gog material and should not, at this scale, have a 'Miette contains Gog' spatial relation.





4.4 Noddy Case Study

The synthetic geo-model for this case study is generated using Noddy, which is a 3D rule-based modelling tool (Jessell, 1981) that applies an input list of geological events, or event schema (Perrin et al. 2013), to a volume of interest from which a spatial topology can be generated between objects in the volume. The event history for this case study is quite simple, including 5 major events, deposition, tilting, folding, faulting, and intrusion (Figure 16), from which the local knowledge list and temporal matrix are derived. The resulting geo-model (Figure 17) has an initial depositional sequence involving 6 depositional units (represented by their top horizons), an early tilting event followed by folding and normal faulting, and an intrusive body subsequently injected into all previous geological objects, with the fault cutting all the horizons but not the intrusion body. Navigation of the BREP representation of the geo-model yields a rich temporal matrix (Table 7) and spatial matrix (Table 8a).

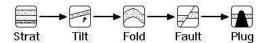


Figure 16. Event history for the Noddy case study: the Stratigraphic event is the deposition of 6 geological units in sequence.

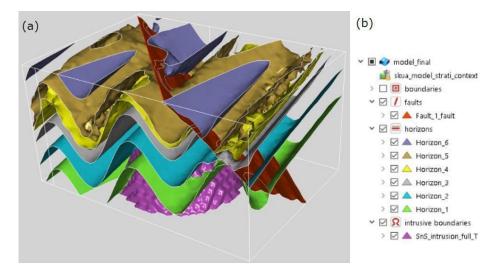


Figure 17. 3D geo-model for the Noddy case study.





TIME	Horizon_1	Horizon_2	Horizon_3	Horizon_4	Horizon_5	Horizon_6	Above Horizon 6	Fault	Intrusion
Horizon_1	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Horizon_2	13	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Horizon_3	13	13	6	0	0	0	0	0	0
Horizon_4	13	13	13	6	0	0	0	0	0
Horizon_5	13	13	13	13	6	0	0	0	0
Horizon_6	13	13	13	13	13	6	0	0	0
Above Horizon 6	13	13	13	13	13	13	6	0	0
Fault	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	6	0
Intrusion	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	6

Table 7. Temporal relations matrix for the Noddy case study. Temporal codes used here; 0 = precedes, 6 = equals, 13 = preceded by.

As an unconstrained (knowledge based) geo-modelling tool, Noddy will always produce a consistent model.

However, export to GOCAD/SKUA via the DXF file format results in a different spatial relation matrix, as several geologically consistent but nevertheless suspect spatial relations are introduced. First, every unit spatially *meets* (i.e. touches) every other unit (Table 8b), which although not impossible is somewhat suspicious, given it contradicts the original Noddy model. As the resolution of the Noddy model is quite low, it seems likely that unit volume mesh extents might have been mis-calculated during export to GOCAD/SKUA, to cause the dubious relations. Although the relations between pairs of objects are individually consistent in this model, it is unlikely that ALL unit pairs display a *meets* relation.





a)

SPACE	Horizon_1	Horizon_2	Horizon_3	Horizon_4	Horizon_5	Horizon_6	Above Horizon 6	Fault	Intrusion
NAME OF CONTRACT				_		0	0		
Horizon_1	8	1	0	0	0	0	U	2	2
Horizon_2	1	8	1	0	0	0	0	2	2
Horizon_3	0	1	8	1	0	0	0	2	2
Horizon_4	0	0	1	8	1	0	0	2	2
Horizon_5	0	0	0	1	8	1	0	2	2
Horizon_6	0	0	0	0	1	8	1	2	2
Above Horizon 6	0	0	0	0	0	1	8	2	2
Fault	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	8	0
Intrusion	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	0	8

b)

SPACE	Horizon_1	Horizon_2	Horizon_3	Horizon_4	Horizon_5	Horizon_6	Above Horizon 6	Fault	Intrusion
Horizon_1	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2
Horizon_2	1	8	1	1	1	1	1	2	2
Horizon_3	1	1	8	1	1	1	1	2	2
Horizon_4	1	1	1	8	1	1	1	2	2
Horizon_5	1	1	1	1	8	1	1	2	2
Horizon_6	1	1	1	1	1	8	1	2	2
Above Horizon 6	1	1	1	1	1	1	8	2	2
Fault	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	8	0
Intrusion	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	0	8





1 2 5 Discussion 3 The consistency-checking framework and tool presented in this article are a first step toward the automated 4 5 case studies: Given minimal knowledge typically accompanying a 3D model, it detects geological inconsistencies 6 that contravene geological principles as captured in the Truth Tables. However, there is much room for 7 improvement in assessing the consistency of complex situations: the checker assesses the validity of a single 8 geological relation in isolation, but as evident from the Noddy case study (Table 8b), a collection of relations can be 9 inconsistent even if each relation is consistent. Assessing such relation combinations remains a future task. 10 11 To help differentiate equiprobable models, another future consideration is the development of consistency metrics 12 for quantitative assessment of the overall quality of a 3D geo-model. These might include a cumulative consistency 13 score to gauge the overall effect of inconsistencies on the model, as well as perhaps targeted consistency scores for 14 specific geological relations. The latter would be particularly useful to differentiate (1) models with few 15 inconsistencies but deep impact on internal model architecture, from (2) models with many inconsistencies but low 16 impact on internal architecture. 17 18 Several aspects of the consistency-checking workflow could be improved: 19 API: development of a simple API (Application Programming Interface) to the Truth Tables, to enable 20 consistency-checking from a variety of software environments, including possibly those with streamlined 21 spatial navigation mechanisms not necessarily requiring conversion to BREP. 22 Enhanced Output: from the current application or prospective API, to enhance both formatting and content, 23 such as encoding conflicting objects using knowledge graphs or spatial standards to improve visualization and 24 understanding. 25 Polarity: more automated tools could be incorporated to determine summary internal polarity for an object, and 26 polarity relations between objects. The internal polarity of an object is rarely available in local knowledge, 27 though potentially can be calculated from the modelling algorithm, e.g. as part of the scalar field gradient 28 direction in implicit modelling. Supplementation from added methods also would be beneficial, e.g. from: point

observations at the top horizon of a depositional unit; paleo-traces inside the unit in the case of eroded tops; the





1 cooling surface of an intrusion or extrusion; the regional or contact metamorphic gradient for a metamorphic 2 unit; or fold vergence and principal strain gradients (Fossen, 2016; Alsop, 1999; Finkl, 1984). A further 3 refinement might use local internal polarity vectors to determine polarity relations, rather than summary vectors. 4 Spatial relations: in a robust solution, spatial relations would be evaluated between the fragments of geological 5 objects, not between their wholes, with consistency-checking then occurring over the fragments. It also might 6 be a worthwhile experiment to include lower-dimensional representations as relata in the spatial relations, e.g. 7 allowing surfaces to represent volumetric units. 8 Expanding the range of model inputs to include 2D maps, cross-sections and drill logs. These representations 9 could also be checked with the same approach to see if all representations of a model are collectively consistent. 10 Consistency-checking also could be improved conceptually by: expanding the list of geological objects to include 11 fault types (e.g. normal, reverse, strike slip); expanding the associated knowledge to include fault domains (e.g. 12 upper-crust/thin-skin, deep-crust/ductile); or adding kinematic directions as additional parameters in the Truth 13 Tables, thus expanding the framework space. This would enable, for example, comparison of macro properties such 14 as nature of the deformation system with the observed local kinematic conditions, e.g. thrusting or normal fault 15 displacements. 16 17 As most 3D modeling algorithms and tools typically do not generate solid volumes in which one is fully contained 18 or covered by the other, we have set these relations as invalid for this work, knowing their presence likely indicates 19 a modeling problem and hence an inconsistency. However, as algorithms will no doubt mature, future work should 20 amend the truth tables to reflect the potential validity of such cases. This might include further extended parameters, 21 such as for parthood to indicate if a geological object is validly part of another, e.g. a formation part of a group. 22 23 More generally, broadening the underlying notion of reasonableness, which thus far is roughly equated with 24 consistency, would yield further theoretical gains. An important assumption in the existing approach is the 25 correctness of input geological knowledge. As such knowledge typically reflects the understanding of domain 26 experts, inconsistent models often differ from the expectations of these experts (van Giffen et al., 2022; McKay and 27 Harris, 2016; Burch, 2003). However, the correctness of input knowledge is a dangerous assumption, as it is more 28 likely that input knowledge is incomplete and has gaps, biasing expert expectations. It is necessary then to broaden 29 notions of geological reasonableness beyond the binary categories of consistent and inconsistent. Indeed, if we



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1 consider input knowledge might be grossly good (e.g. true) or bad (e.g. false), and models consistent or inconsistent with input knowledge, then four kinds of reasonableness emerge, as per Table 9: reasonable, unreasonable, reasonably bad, and unreasonably bad. Reasonable models, generally preferred, are consistent with good input knowledge and data constraints. Unreasonable models have geological relations inconsistent with good input knowledge. Reasonably bad models have geological relations that fit with the input knowledge, but this knowledge is wrong, or incomplete, so the model is variously questionable. Unreasonably bad models have input knowledge that may be wrong, and the model is also inconsistent, because of algorithm bias, scale/resolution, constraint data configuration or other processing errors. Inconsistent models thus signal a need to adjust the algorithm or investigate the input data and knowledge. Note, however, all models might be useful (Gleeson et al, 2021), as any geo-model from bad knowledge might be preferred to no models, or models with no input knowledge; and an inconsistent model from good knowledge, that is unreasonable, might be preferable to the alternatives, especially in parts where it is actually consistent.

Model Consistency

	Inconsistent	Consistent
Good Knowledge	Unreasonable	Reasonable
Bad Knowledge	Unreasonably Bad	Reasonably Bad

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"ideal"? - What do you mean by Table 9. Types of 3D geo-model consistency.

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> It is also noteworthy, and sobering, that an ideal model could arise from any of the four categories, simply because the combination of input knowledge, data, and computational processes just happens to produce the best result. Consistency-checking thus provides only some insight as to whether an ideal model is achieved, as one would hope an ideal model should be consistent more often than not. For example this should be the case when comparing a suite of models and their flow characteristics, with 'reasonable' models matching the real world historical





1 production curves (Melnikova et al., 2012). Mounting evidence suggests even a minimum of geological knowledge 2 and improved consistency with this knowledge can improve the utility of models (Giraud et al., 2020). 3 4 Finally, application of the framework to case studies at various scales, using different tools and algorithms, would 5 provide further insight into its utility for: exploring different levels of geological and model complexity (Pellerin et 6 al., 2015); comparing high-resolution to generalized regional models; testing more speculative models; for 7 correlation of jurisdictional bordered models (e.g. comparing number and variety of entities, and consistency with 8 each other) and finally for assessing the range of equiprobable 3D geological models created from probabilistic and 9 future generative AI methods. 10 11 6 Summary 12 Due to the increasing complexity of current geo-modelling algorithms, leading to a plethora of models of variable 13 quality, there is a clear need for an approach to check the geological consistency of a model. To this end, the 14 consistency checker framework and proof-of-concept tool successfully verify geo-models in four case studies, 15 confirming consistencies and finding inconsistencies. Inputs include knowledge typically available with any 16 geological model, namely, the spatial-temporal-polarity relations between pairs of geological objects. A specific 17 combination of these inputs serves as an index into a Truth Table documenting a possible geological situation that is 18 either consistent or inconsistent with established geological principles. As the situations in the framework are quite 19 general, there is significant potential to expand the space with additional parameters, such as tectonic or parthood. 20 To better determine effectiveness, further testing also is required on large numbers of models representing a variety 21 of geological situations, at different scales, with models made using diverse tools and algorithms. Altogether, this 22 work represents a first step toward the real-time consistency-checking of geo-models; therefore, it also has the 23 potential to inform consistency-checking during model-building, to help increase knowledge constraints in geo-24 modelling algorithms. 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35





Appendix

Algorithm 1: Consistency-checking

Require: Mspatial spatial relationship matrix, Mtemporal temporal relationship matrix, LNaturePolarity nature and polarity matrix of entities, Truthtable 'Truth Tables' for each pair of geological entities, LGeologicalEntities list of all geological entities detected in the 3D model.

Initialize (empty): *Linconsistencies* list of inconsistencies detected inside the given 3D geological model **for** each *GeolEntity* in *LGeologicalEntities* **do**

```
for each GeolEntity in the remaining rows in LGeologicalEntities do
extract the name, nature and polarity in each geological entity from LNaturePolarity
given both geological entities, find the corresponding truth table Truthtable
deduce the polarity relation from both geological entities: aligned, opposed, unknown
extract the spatial relationship for the pair of geological entities from Mspatial
transform the spatial relationship into a row in the truth table
extract the temporal relationship for the pair of geological entities from Mtemporal
transform the temporal relationship into a column in the truth table
if the statement found in the corresponding truth table is 'inconsistent' then
for each part in each GeolEntity do

extract the name, nature and polarity of each geological entity inside LNaturePolarity
given both geological entities, find the corresponding truth table Truthtable
deduce the polarity relation from both geological entities: aligned, opposed, unknown
extract the spatial relationship for the pair of geological entities from Mspatial
```

transform the spatial relationship into a row in the truth table
extract the temporal relationship for the pair of geological entities from Mtemporal
transform the temporal relationship into a column in the truth table
if the statement found in the corresponding truth table is 'inconsistent' then
for each part in each part of GeolEntity do
for each part in each part of GeolEntity do
etc...
end for
end for
end if
end for
end for
end for
end if
add the statement found in the corresponding truth table to Linconsistencies

49 end for
50 end for
51 return Linconsistencies

Code and Data Availability

Consistency-inconsistency matrices called 'Truth Tables' used for determining validity of geological spatial-temporal relations https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.10909160, (de Kemp, 2024).





- 1 Video Supplement
- There are currently no video files (mp4) related to this article.
- 3 Author contributions
- 4 Conceptualization by MP, EdK, BB and MH; MP developed the tool; MP, EdK, BB and MH all contributed to the
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- 6 Competing interests
- 7 The author declares that there is no conflict of interest.
- 8 Special Issue Statement: This contribution is part of the Loop stochastic geological modelling platform –
- 9 development and applications, edited by Laurent Ailleres
- 10 (https://gmd.copernicus.org/articles/special_issue1142.html, last access: 6 April 2024).
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