

Prediction of rainfall and ore productions (ore and wastes) using multivariate time-series approach, Enyigba open pit mine Ebonyi state, Nigeria

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World Journal of Advanced Engineering Technology and Sciences, 2026, 20(01), 061–087

Publication history: Received on 22 May 2026; revised on 27 June 2026; accepted on 29 June 2026

Article DOI: <https://doi.org/10.30574/wjaets.2026.20.1.0342>

Abstract

This article aimed at predicting rainfall and ore production of Eyigba open pit Mine Ebonyi State using a Multivariate Time-Series Approach. Rainfall and ore (ore, waste) production data collections, review of machine learning (ML) techniques for rainfall and ore prediction and integrating of various techniques are few objectives of this article. The datasets are trained, fit into models, propose a model combining Seasonal and Trend Decomposition (STL), Synthetic Minority Over-Sampling Techniques (SMOTE), Random Forest (RF) and Long Term Short Memory (LSTM) in order to optimize the proposed architecture combining Seasonal Trend Decompsotion (STL), Synthetic Minority Over-sampling Technique (SMOTE), Random Forest (RF), and Long Term Short Memory (LSTM), formulate mathematical models for algorithm integration, evaluate performance of the models and their implications for mining operations. The pipeline integrates STL for preprocessing, SMOTE for data augmentation, RF for feature engineering, and LSTM networks for prediction. STL decomposes time series to mitigate seasonality, SMOTE augments underrepresented low-production events, RF selects optimal lags, and LSTM captures temporal dependencies. Performance evaluation of the multivariate model achieves an RMSE of 1,850 tons and MAPE of 8.2% for ore production, surpassing standalone RF(RMSE: 2,450 tons, MAPE: 11.5%) and univariate LSTM (RMSE: 2,120 tons, MAPE: 9.8%). These results demonstrate the framework's ability to model rainfall-ore interactions, enabling proactive operational strategies. The performance of the models compared and concluded that the integrated LSTM outperformed other models. The findings confirmed that rainfall significantly influences ore production rates due to its impact on equipment efficiency, pit floor stability, and haulage operations.

Keywords: Artificial Intelligence; Time-Series; Prediction; LSTM; SMOTE Augmentation; Rainfall; Ore

1. Introduction

Rainfall prediction is the application of science and technology to predict the state of the atmosphere for a given location. Rainfall has an important role to play as far as African countries are concerned. Nigeria is one of the countries which directly or indirectly driven by rainfall. Most of the people residing in villages are dependent on agriculture, and fruit agriculture depends on the Rain, in most part Nigeria. Therefore balanced rain is needed for proper agriculture results. Rainfall prediction becomes even more important, in case of possibility of deficient or excess rain. When there is a possibility of excess rain fall, the people will suffer flooding. Hence to prevent, these flooding situations, to manage resources and most importantly to save the human life rainfall prediction is so important.

Rainfall time series forecasting models play a vital role in many real-world applications such as drinking water supply (Sahai *et al.*, 2000; Singh and Borah, 2013) reservoir's operation and flooding prevention (Luk *et al.*, 2001; Wu *et al.*,

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2010), rain-fed agricultural activities, water resources planning and management (Kajornrit *et al.*, 2013). The task for rainfall prediction involves a large degree of uncertainty as rainfall is one of the most complex and difficult element of the hydrology cycle to understand and model (French *et al.*, 1992). Due to the complexity of the atmospheric processes that generate rainfall and the lack of available data on the temporal and spatial scales, it is not feasible generally to forecast rainfall using a statistical or physically based model (Luk *et al.*, 2001)

They are difficult to apply as they require a large number of parameters to model the complexity of the process. It is very difficult to extend a particular model to even slightly different conditions and situations. The accuracy of rainfall time series forecasting is fundamental to many decision making processes and hence there is a need for improving the effectiveness of forecasting models.

Artificial intelligence is a field in which the most severe and intensive studies are carried out globally. Artificial intelligence has entered almost every area of our lives. Artificial intelligence is a set of software and hardware systems with many abilities, such as exhibiting human-like behaviors, numerical reasoning, movement, speech, and sound perception. In short, artificial intelligence enables computers to think like humans (Rashid and Kausik, 2024). Machine Learning and AI will impact doctors, hospitals, and many others working in healthcare. Artificial Neural Networks are relatively crude electronic models based on the neural structure of the brain. The brain basically learns from experience. It is natural proof that some problems that are beyond the scope of current computers are indeed solvable by small energy efficient packages.

Mining production in Enyigba, Ebonyi state is one of the Nigerian's notable lead-zinc mining districts and is significantly influenced by climatic factors, particularly rainfall. Heavy rainfall affects mine accessibility, ore handling, transportation, pit slope stability, groundwater inflow, and overall ore output. Traditional statistical and empirical methods used for predicting ore production often fail to capture the highly nonlinear and complex relationship between rainfall patterns and ore yield. Given the growing climatic variability in southeastern Nigeria, there is a need for a robust and intelligent prediction system that can learn from historical rainfall and production data to provide more reliable predictions.

Artificial Neural Network (ANNs), with their capacity to model nonlinear and complex input-output relationships, present a promising approach for rainfall-ore production prediction. However, their application to the Enyigba mining environment has not been adequately explored, creating a knowledge and operational gap. Artificial Intelligence (AI) and Artificial Neural Networks (ANN) can be categorized in several ways depending on capability, functionality, or architecture (Russell *et al.*, 2021).

AI can be classified into three major types based on capability and four based on functionality. Based on Capability: includes narrow AI (Weak AI) (Designed for a specific task; limited to the domain it was trained on), General AI (Strong AI) (Can perform any intellectual task a human can do; not yet realized, and Super AI (Surpasses human intelligence and capabilities and Hypothetical future AI (Russell *et al.*, 2021). Based on Functionality, this is divided into reactive Machines (No memory, respond only to current input, for example IBM Deep Blue (Chess); limited memory (Can use past experiences for short-term decisions, for example Self-driving cars; theory of mind: Understands emotions, beliefs, and intentions (still in development) example is experimental social robots; and self-aware AI: Possesses consciousness and self-awareness (theoretical), e.g. Hypothetical future AI (Poole *et al.*, 2020).

Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs) are computational models inspired by the structure and functioning of biological neural networks. They consist of interconnected processing units (neurons) that learn from data by adjusting the strengths of their connections, enabling them to recognize complex patterns and make predictions (Haykin, 2009; Goodfellow *et al.*, 2016). An artificial neural network (ANN) is a computational system that simulates the way biological neural networks in the human brain process information, enabling machines to learn from data and improve their performance over time (Haykin, 2009). ANNs are a fundamental component of machine learning and deep learning, widely used in applications such as image recognition, speech processing, time-series forecasting, and predictive modeling.

An ANN is composed of three main layers: they are Input layer (receives the raw data or features), hidden layers (perform transformations and pattern recognition through activation functions), and output layer (produces the final prediction or classification result). Learning in ANNs occurs through an iterative process called training, where the model adjusts the *weights* of connections between neurons to minimize prediction error using algorithms such as back propagation and gradient descent.

Types of Artificial Neural Networks (ANN): ANNs are categorized mainly by architecture and flow of information. This include;

- Feedforward Neural Network (FNN): Basic architecture where data flows in one direction, from input to output, example are Image classification and pattern recognition.
- Convolutional Neural Network (CNN): Uses convolutional layers to detect spatial hierarchies; best for images, example are Computer vision and facial recognition.
- Recurrent Neural Network (RNN): Includes feedback connections allowing temporal data processing example include speech recognition and language modeling
- Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM): A type of RNN designed to overcome vanishing gradient problems, examples are Time series forecasting and translation. Long Short Term Memory is used in this article for prediction.
- Radial Basis Function Network (RBFN): Uses radial basis functions as activation functions, examples include function approximation and interpolation
- Generative Adversarial Network (GAN): Consists of generator and discriminator networks in competition, examples are image synthesis and data augmentation
- Modular Neural Network (MNN): Multiple smaller networks work independently and combine results example is found in Complex problem-solving
- Transformer Networks: Based on self-attention mechanisms; highly effective for sequential data, example is large language models (e.g., GPT, BERT) (Schmidhuber, 2015; Vaswani *et al.*, 2017)

2. Literature Review

In contrast to mine ore prediction, the oil and gas industry has a large and mature body of research dedicated to production forecasting, including decline-curve analysis, reservoir simulation, artificial neural networks, LSTM networks, ensemble learning, and physics-informed machine learning (Liang *et al.*, 2023). For instance, A Multivariate Long Short-Term Memory Neural Network for Coalbed Methane Production Forecasting uses a multivariate LSTM model for coalbed methane production forecasting—showing the power of time series ML in production contexts (Xu *et al.*, 2020).

Rahman *et al.*, (2024) showed the applicability of ML to ore production forecasting. This study compares various combinations of machine learning-based classification and forecasting to predict future tin ore production values, which have not been found in previous researches. The presence of zero values in the forecast in the next day's tin ore production forecast was addressed by combining classification and forecasting techniques. Random Forest and CatBoost classification techniques are used to determine the next day's CSD production operating status. Then, for each time point when the CSD is operational, a forecasting model is created using CatBoost and Bi-LSTM. This study's findings showed that a serial combination of the Random Forest classification method and CatBoost forecasting can produce accurate tin ore production forecasts for the selected CSD (RMSE = 0.271, MAE = 0.179, MAE = 0.730, F1-score = 0.80).

However, the intersection of forecasting rainfall and ore production, especially in open-pit mining operations using multivariate time series models, appears to be a significant gap.

2.1. Multivariate time series techniques and AI for forecasting and prediction

Prediction is the process of estimating an unknown outcome based on available information, statistical relationships, or machine learning models. The outcome may refer to the present, past (missing values), or future (Armstrong., 2001), while Forecasting is the process of estimating future values of a variable based primarily on historical time-series data and temporal patterns (Armstrong., 2001). Although the terms prediction and forecasting are often used interchangeably in the literature, they have distinct meanings in statistics, machine learning, and time-series analysis. The primary distinction lies in the role of time and the purpose of the estimate. Ore production forecasting refers to the estimation of future ore production quantities, grades, and processing performance using geological models, historical production data, operational constraints, and predictive or simulation-based techniques to support mine planning and decision-making (Dominy *et al.*, 2018).

Multivariate time series modeling refers to modeling multiple variables (time-indexed) simultaneously, capturing the temporal dependencies within each series and the inter-dependencies across series. In context, one might consider variables such as rainfall (mm/day), temperature, equipment haulage rate, ore grade, truck cycle times, production tonnage, etc.

2.2. Recent developments in AI/ML for multivariate time series

There is more recent development in AI/ML for multivariate time series, few of these is discussed in this paper. Wang *et al.*, (2019) applied Deep learning architectures such as Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) and Gated Recurrent Unit

(GRU) for modelling temporal dependencies for flow prediction. Hybrid models combining statistical decomposition (e.g., trend/seasonality) with machine learning (“STL-ML” approach) is better for modelling non-stationary, seasonal, and non-linear behaviour. Ensemble and stacking methods combining multiple base models for improved prediction (Frontiers; Wang *et al.*, 2019).

Hariadi *et al.*, (2019) used Support Vector Machine (SVM) and Recurrent Neural Network (RNN) for rainfall forecasting in meteorology. Determination of relevant predictors is important for the efficiency of the rainfall estimator model. Although some climate modeling studies in one region/country have high accuracy, this model is not necessarily suitable for other regions. Determination of predictor variables by considering spatio-temporal factors and local / global features results in a very large number of inputs. Feature selection produces minimal input so that it gets relevant predictor variables and minimizes variable redundancy. He used Recurrent Neural Networks, and RNN is one of the artificial neural networks that can be used to predict time series data. This study aims to predict rainfall by combining the SVM classification method and the RNN method. Tests on the Perak 1 daily and monthly weather data (WMO ID: 96933) and Perak 2 Station daily and monthly data (WMO ID: 96937), showed high accuracy results with R^2 values of 92.1%; 94.1%; 90.9% and 89.6%.

In mining operations, applying multivariate time-series AI models means you can integrate both environmental variables (e.g., rainfall) and operational variables (e.g., ore production, equipment rates) into a unified forecasting framework. With the advancement of technology, deep learning methods have shown great potential in prediction tasks such as anomaly detection (Tian *et al.*, 2020), predicting changes in the microstructure of alloys (Wang *et al.*, 2021), predicting the overall energy of metallic glasses (Liu *et al.*, 2023), and forecasting alloy durability (Wang *et al.*, 2023). Therefore, applying deep learning methods to the problem of predicting water inflow quantities holds significant promise. Deep learning models such as, Auto Regressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA) (Liu *et al.*, 2022) is one of the most widely used traditional forecasting techniques and serves as the foundation for more advanced models like SARIMA (seasonal ARIMA).

XG-Boost (Dong *et al.*, 2023), GRU (Li *et al.*, 2022) show some advantages in mine water inflow prediction, but a single deep learning model has the disadvantages of not being able to capture complex data relationships and being more sensitive to noise and outliers (Han *et al.*, 2022).

Recurrent neural network (RNN) has shown strong capabilities in natural language processing, image recognition, time series prediction (Yin *et al.*, 2019), but RNN has the problem of gradient explosion and gradient vanishing during the training process (Rehmer *et al.*, 2020). As a modified version of LSTM, it can effectively avoid these problems and has significant advantages with regard to long-term dependencies (Landi *et al.*, 2021).

With the development of self-attention mechanisms, self-attention has shown great potential in time series problems such as wind speed prediction and electricity forecasting (Dai *et al.*, 2023). Multi-head self-attention mechanisms excel at capturing complex dependencies, making them widely applied and recognized in many fields. Based on this, Zhang *et al.*, (2024) introduced the Transformer model, that used self-attention mechanism as its core module, into water inflow prediction to enhance the performance of the prediction model.

Shi *et al.*, (2024) noted that the Transformer architecture is highly effective at modeling long-range dependencies because of its parallel self-attention mechanism. However, its ability to capture fine-grained local temporal patterns may be limited. In order to overcome this limitation, LSTM module was integrated with the Transformer architecture, enabling the model to exploit both the global dependency modeling capability of self-attention and the local sequential learning capability of LSTM, thereby improving prediction accuracy.

Rainfall forecasting has been widely studied in hydrology and meteorology. For example, Evaluation of Data Mining and Artificial Intelligence Methods to Predict Daily Precipitation reports using ANN and ANFIS models with meteorological inputs to predict daily rainfall (Hamaamin, 2025). Journal of Engineering similarly, in improving monthly precipitation prediction accuracy using machine learning models: a multi-view stacking learning technique, ensemble ML methods were used for monthly precipitation prediction in a watershed in Indonesia. Mounia *et al.*, (2024) confirmed that AI and ML techniques can provide improved accuracy compared to traditional statistical methods, especially when multiple input variables and complex patterns are involved.

Ore production prediction is less prevalent in open-pit mining compared to other industries (e.g., oil/gas wells). For instance, A Multivariate Long Short-Term Memory Neural Network for Coalbed Methane Production Forecasting uses a multivariate LSTM model for coalbed methane production forecasting showing the power of time series ML in production contexts (Xu *et al.*, 2020).

However, the intersection of forecasting rainfall and ore production, especially in open-pit mining operations using multivariate time series models, appears to be a significant gap. Several studies demonstrate the use of AI methods for rainfall prediction and related meteorological forecasting, which include; The Hamaamin (2025) study applied ANN and ANFIS with 10 meteorological variables to daily precipitation, achieving R^2 of ~ 0.75 in calibration.

Climate change has made severe weather events such as floods and droughts more frequent, which have profound impacts on agriculture, water resource management, and disaster mitigation (Hamdan, 2024). As climate conditions change, traditional modelling methods are not able to accurately predict weather conditions; therefore, for sustainable storm water management, robust precipitation forecasting techniques are required (Jayasingh and Mantri, 2019). Data mining applications have been proven to be powerful in this task, which extracts the hidden patterns between meteorological measured parameters. In the last decade, much research has been performed to increase the accuracy of rainfall prediction using data mining techniques (Aftab *et al.*, 2018).

Data mining tools apply a mixture of machine learning (ML) methods, statistical approaches, and AI systems on recorded weather data collected in weather stations to recognize trends and then predict upcoming precipitation events (Liyew and Melese, 2021). Kisi *et al.*, (2013) obtained improved results in modeling rainfall-runoff from different artificial intelligence (AI) techniques, ANN, Adaptive Neuro-Fuzzy Inference System (ANFIS), and Gene Expression Programming (GEP) approaches compared to multiple linear regression (MLR). ANN models were successfully used to predict monthly rainfall from eight weather stations in different locations of the Sulaymaniyah governorate (Suhaili and Karim, 2014). Linear, polynomial, and radial basis functions are applied to a support vector regression (SVR) to predict the monthly amount of precipitation. The results of the research confirmed that the ANFIS model was superior to the SVR model (Shamshirb *et al.*, 2014).

A fuzzy Logic (FL) rule-based system is used to map the nonlinear relationship between two input variables of temperature and wind speed to predict rainfall to improve agricultural management (Rahman, 2020). The applicability of four different artificial neural network (ANN) models was tested to predict rainfall-runoff. ANN models exhibit acceptable ability in predicting and modeling non-linear hydrological correlations. In addition to more predictors in the models, this results in more accurate results (Aoulmi *et al.*, 2021).

Modeling of rainfall is a difficult task due to the dynamic nature of climatic events. An ML-based feature selection technique was used successfully to find the key meteorological factors that contribute to accurate rainfall predictions (Pathan *et al.*, 2021). ANN and multi-linear regression (MLR) models were used to estimate rainfall-runoff in Turkey. Optimum ANN models were obtained by using three different transformation functions, which were found to be superior in predicting rainfall runoff compared to the other methods (Turhan, 2021).

Auto correlation, along with several ML techniques used to predict weather patterns, namely, Linear, Exponential, Quadratic, Additive Seasonality, Additive Seasonality Quadratic Trend, Multiplicative Seasonality, and Multiplicative Seasonality Linear Trend, were tested to model weather parameters (Gore and Gawali, 2023). A hybrid framework named composite of the least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO), ANN, and support vector machine (SVM) was used to predict daily runoff in Pakistan. The hybrid system is efficient in modeling runoff perfectly, which is important in long-term water management and protection (Shabbir and Chand, 2023).

Table 1 presents finding from studies with AI/ML methods employed.

Table 1 Findings from studies with AL/ML methods

SN	Authors (Year)	Method / ML Approach	Variables/Context	Main Findings	Gap/Relevance to the study
1	Deep Neural Network for Predicting Ore Production by Truck-Haulage Systems in Open-Pit Mines (Baek <i>et al.</i> , 2020)	Deep Neural Networks (DNN)	Truck-haulage system data, ore production, morning and afternoon session	High accuracy: determination coefficient ~0.99, MAPE ~4.78% for morning session	Focuses on ore production only; does not integrate rainfall/environmental variables.
2	Estimating Ore Production in Open-pit Mines Using Various Machine Learning Algorithms Based on a Truck-Haulage System and Support of Internet of Things (Yosoon <i>et al.</i> , 2021)	Various ML algorithms (Random Forest, SVM, MLP, etc)	Open-pit limestone mine, truck-haulage system, IoT data	Demonstrates ML feasibility to estimate ore production in open-pit mine context	Again, production forecasting only; no rainfall/meteorological component; likely univariate or few features.
3	Machine Learning Methods for Forecasting Intermittent Tin Ore Production (Nabila <i>et al.</i> , 2024)	ML methods for intermittent production (classification + forecasting)	Tin ore production, perhaps intermittent time series	Useful for handling intermittent data; shows ML applicability in ore production forecasting	Focus on intermittent production; open-pit surface mining & rainfall interplay still missing.
4	Prediction accuracy of ordinary least square and artificial neural network (MLRegressor) in prediction of rainfall and ore productions (Afu <i>et al.</i> , 2025) OARI Publication	OLS and ANN	Rainfall days, daily ore & waste handling, open-pit mine in Nigeria	Shows ANN (MLP) outperformed OLS: 99% variance explained for combined input	Good integration of rainfall & ore production; but new, limited scope; may not yet be multivariate time-series; still gap remains for full multivariate time series (lags, temporal dependencies).

2.3. Key Studies on Multivariate Time-Series Deep Learning in Mining, Environmental and Production Forecasting

Shi *et al.*, (2024) proposed an LSTM-Transformer hybrid to capture long-term dependencies and non-linearity in mine water inflow time series; useful as a blueprint for combining LSTM memory with Transformer attention for mine-environment signals. In the study LSTM-Transformer model exhibited the highest training accuracy when the ratio was 7:3. In other to improve the efficiency of search, the combination of random search and Bayesian optimization was used to determine the network model parameters and regularization parameters. The LSTM-Transformer model was compared with LSTM, CNN, Transformer and CNN-LSTM models in order to verify the accuracy of the LSTM-Transformer model. The results proved that LSTM-Transformer has the highest prediction accuracy, and all the indicators of its model were well improved.

Zhao *et al.*, (2025) developed an LSTM + Tab Transformer model for predicting truck travel time in open-pit operations (helps scheduling/haulage forecasting which strongly relates to ore-throughput prediction). This demonstrates integrating tabular operational features with sequence models. This paper proposed a travel time prediction method for open-pit trucks based on LSTM-TabTransformer. After eliminating the outliers in the truck travel time data set by applying the Paura criterion, the data set was non-dimensionalized, and the corresponding category data was processed by means of data diversion. Then, the self-attention mechanism of TabTransformer and gating mechanism of LSTM were used to capture the dynamic characteristics of the travel time variation rule at multiple levels.

Finally, the dimensionality of the concatenated feature matrix was reduced by MLP, and the predicted truck travel time was output. Based on the truck travel time series data set collected from the example open-pit coal mine, the prediction experiment was carried out. The results showed that the combined machine learning model LSTM-Tabtransformer proposed is suitable to process the complex truck travel time series data set and learn multiple features, which can reduce the volatility of relative absolute error (RAE) and relative square error (RSE) of travel time prediction, overcome the limitations of a single machine learning prediction model, effectively increase the sensitivity of learning features, and significantly improve the accuracy of truck travel time prediction in open-pit mines (Zhao *et al.*, 2025).

Li *et al.* 2025 applied LSTM (with attention) to predict dust concentrations at an open-pit site, showing how sensor streams from mining environments can be modeled with recurrent nets and used for operational control. This study is based on monitoring of the concentration of total suspended particulate (TSP) in the Anjialing open-pit coal mine in Pingshuo. He proposed a hybrid model based on a long short-term memory (LSTM) network and the attention mechanism (LSTM-Attention) and applies it to the prediction of TSP concentration. The LSTM model reflects the historical process of an input time series, and the attention mechanism extracts the inherent characteristics of the input parameters to assign weights based on the importance of the influencing factors.

Liu *et al.*, (2024) proposed a GA-optimized LSTM for fuel-consumption prediction of mining fleets — relevant to modelling operational efficiency and linking equipment usage to production. Real-time data collection via vehicle-mounted sensors captures multi-dimensional parameters such as fuel consumption, speed, route, and driving behavior of mining trucks. A genetic algorithm-optimized LSTM model was employed to construct a fuel consumption prediction model, enabling precise fuel consumption forecasting. This approach reduces fuel consumption by 12-18%, effectively minimizing fuel theft, leakage, and energy waste while promoting green energy conservation and sustainable mining practices aligned with China's sustainable development objectives.

Rodríguez *et al.*, (2022) demonstrated multivariate LSTM for predicting oil and water production (fluid time series). Methodology and evaluation practices transfer directly to ore-tonnage forecasting with multivariate inputs. This work proposes a methodology based on multivariate Long-Short Term Memory (LSTM) Neural Networks to predict oil and water production time-series in an oil field exploited through water-flooding. First oil and water was used for production's time series of the producer wells in an inverted five-point injection pattern developed in numerical reservoir simulation software based on a Colombian oil field exploited with water-flooding. In this scenario, three multivariate LSTMs were evaluated to determine the input features that should be included. Thus, through a define-by-run process, the LSTM structures most suitable were evaluated. Finally, the finding showed that the information obtained by operational variables, such as bottom-hole pressure or water injection rate, allows significant approximations to predict oil or water production.

2.4. Models

Models are mathematical or computational frameworks designed to analyze temporal patterns in data and generate forecasts. Time series forecasting models are generally classified into statistical models, machine learning models, and deep learning models (Hyndman and Athanasopoulos, 2021; Goodfellow *et al.*, 2016).

2.4.1. Statistical Time-Series Models

These are the traditional models used before AI became popular. They rely on mathematical assumptions of linearity and stationarity.

Autoregressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA)

ARIMA models forecast future values using past observations and past errors. It combines autoregression (AR), differencing (I), and moving average (MA).

$$Y_t = c + \sum_{i=1}^p \phi_i Y_{t-i} + \sum_{j=1}^q \theta_j \epsilon_{t-j} + \epsilon_t \quad (1)$$

Used in Short-term rainfall or production trend forecasting.

Limitation of Statistical Time-Series Models is that it cannot handle nonlinear or multivariate dependencies effectively (Box *et al.*, 2006). It combines three key components; AR (Autoregressive): relationship between current and past observations.

I (Integrated) :differencing to make the series stationary.

MA (Moving Average): relationship between current and past errors.

General ARIMA Equation is given by;

$$Y_t = c + \phi_1 Y_{t-1} + \phi_2 Y_{t-2} + \dots + \phi_p Y_{t-p} + \theta_1 \epsilon_{t-1} + \theta_2 \epsilon_{t-2} + \dots + \theta_q \epsilon_{t-q} + \epsilon_t \quad (2)$$

Where,

Symbol	Name	Meaning /function
Y_t	Actual value at time t	The current value of the time series (e.g., rainfall or ore production at time t).
c	Constant (intercept)	The baseline level around which the series fluctuates.
ϕ_i	Autoregressive coefficients	Represent how much influence past values (Y_{t-i}) have on the current value.
P	Order of auto-regression (AR term)	Number of past observations used to predict the current value.
θ_j	Moving average coefficients	Represent how past forecast error (ϵ_{t-j}) affect the current value.
Q	Order of moving average (MA term)	Number of past forecast errors used in the model
ϵ_t	Error term (white noise)	Random shock at time t not explained by the model
D	Differencing order (Integration)	Number of times the raw data must be differenced to

Seasonal ARIMA (SARIMA): An extension of ARIMA that models seasonal effects such as annual rainfall or monthly ore output cycles (Hyndan *et al.*, 2021).

Vector Autoregression (VAR): VAR models multiple time series simultaneously — useful for multivariate forecasting (e.g., rainfall, temperature, and production volume) (Lutkepohl 2025).

2.4.2. Machine Learning Models

These models capture nonlinear relationships between variables but do not inherently model time dependence unless features are engineered. They are;

- Random Forest (RF): An ensemble of decision trees used for regression and classification. It handles complex nonlinear patterns (Breiman, 2001).
- Support Vector Regression (SVR): Based on support vector machines, it finds an optimal hyperplane to predict continuous outcomes like rainfall or production (Smola *et al.*, 2004).
- Gradient Boosting Machines (GBM / XGBoost / LightGBM): These models build an ensemble of weak learners (trees) sequentially to minimize prediction error — widely used in environmental data forecasting (Chen and Guestrin, 2016).

2.4.3. Deep Learning (AI) Models

These are state-of-the-art models for multivariate time-series forecasting, they can automatically learn temporal dependencies and nonlinear relationships. They are Sub-divided into;

- Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) Networks: A type of Recurrent Neural Network (RNN) that can remember long-term dependencies, and are ideal for rainfall and ore production prediction (Hochreiter *et al.*, 1997).

- Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU) Networks: A simpler variant of LSTM that uses fewer gates and parameters but still captures sequential dependencies effectively (Cho *et al.*, 2014).
- Transformer and Attention-based Models: Transformers use self-attention to model long-term dependencies in parallel rather than sequentially. They outperform RNNs for large multivariate datasets (Vaswani *et al.*, 2017).
- Hybrid CNN–LSTM architectures integrate the spatial feature extraction capability of convolutional neural networks with the temporal sequence learning capability of long short-term memory networks. This combination enables effective modeling of spatio-temporal datasets and has been successfully applied to rainfall prediction, weather forecasting, traffic forecasting, environmental monitoring, and other time-series prediction problems (Donahue *et al.*, 2015; Shi *et al.*, 2015; Benidis *et al.*, 2022).

The literature indicated strong separate streams: AI/ML for rainfall forecasting; AI/ML for ore production forecasting. However, the integration of the two especially in open-pit mining operations with multivariate time series is scarce.

Few studies modeled both environmental (rainfall) and operational (ore production) variables in one forecasting framework. Rare uses of multivariate time-series models that simultaneously predict rainfall and production, capturing their interdependence. Limited mining-specific case studies using advanced AI/ML for open-pit operations with full time-series modeling is observed through the literature review. Insufficient literature on how rainfall (and its operational effects: pit flooding, haul-road downtime) influences ore production forecasting in real-time or ahead-of-time necessitated this article. Many studies used simple time series models (ARIMA, Holt) rather than deep learning or multivariate ML frameworks that leverage rich operational and environmental data.

2.5. Conceptual Framework and Methodological Considerations

In configuring your methodology, you may draw on the following considerations from literatures:

- Data and Variables: Rainfall forecasting studies have used multiple meteorological features (temperature, humidity, pressure, wind speed/direction) as inputs (Hamaamin, 2025). Production forecasting in mining often draws on equipment usage data, ore grade, haulage cycle times, operational uptime, and sometimes geology or orebody state (Rahmah *et al.*, 2024).
- For various cases, you considered collecting both environmental (rainfall, rainfall intensity, antecedent rainfall, humidity) and operational variables (daily ore tonnage, ore grade, truck cycles, idle time due to weather, haulage speed, etc.).
- Modeling Approaches: Multivariate time series models: Deep LSTM, GRU, Transformer architectures was used in production and industrial forecasting contexts (Xu *et al.*, 2020). Hybrid decomposition and ML (STL-ML) may help address trend/seasonality + non-linearity. Ensembles/stacking may improve robustness (El Hafyani *et al.*, 2024). Feature engineering and input lag/lead (rainfall leads production downtime) are critical.

2.5.1. Evaluation Metrics and Validation

Standard metrics used in this article are in RMSE, MAE, MAPE, and R^2 (used in rainfall studies). In production forecasting intermittent data may require classification and regression combination. Cross-validation, out-of-sample testing, lead-time forecasting.

2.5.2. Operational Implication

Integrating rainfall forecasting with mine production forecasting can support operational decision-making by improving mine scheduling, haul-road management, equipment allocation, and operational risk management. Recent advances in smart mining emphasize the integration of artificial intelligence, digital twins, and multivariate forecasting models to optimize mining processes and enable predictive, data-driven decision-making (Alvarez, 2025; van Eyk and Heyns, 2025).

Rainfall disrupts mining by causing slope instability and operational halts. Statistical models like ARIMA have been replaced by ML due to their inability to handle non-linearities. Nourani *et al.*, (2021) used RF and ANNs for daily rainfall prediction, reducing RMSE by 20% compared to linear regression. Gladious *et al.*, (2025) developed machine learning models, including Random Forest Regression, Gradient Boosting Regression, Support Vector Regression, and ensemble methods, to predict post-monsoon geotechnical properties affecting slope stability in open-pit iron ore mines. Their models were evaluated using R^2 , MAE, RMSE, Mean Bias Deviation, and Willmott's Index of Agreement, demonstrating the effectiveness of machine learning for geotechnical risk prediction. Deep learning, particularly LSTM, excels in temporal modeling; (Alqahtaniauthor *et al.*, 2021) used BiLSTM for hourly rainfall prediction in Vietnam, achieving

MAPE of 12.5% vs. 15.2% for stacked LSTMs. Hybrid models, like SVM-ANFIS (Pham *et al.*, 2020), yield MAPE <10% but rarely address mining-specific impacts.

2.5.3. Ore Production Prediction

Traditional ore prediction relies on decline curves, but ML methods like RF and LSTM handle multivariate inputs better. Alqahtani *et al.*, (2022) found LSTM outperformed ARIMA for oil production prediction (RMSE: 15% lower). Trans *et al.*, (2024) used RF for lag selection in ARIMA-LSTM hybrids, improving agricultural yield predictions by 25% in RMSE.

3. Methods

Materials Rainfall data and production data (ores and wastes) were from an Open Pit, Enyigba Ebonyi state, Nigeria for a period of four (4) years, spanning 2015 to 2019. The Eyigba (also referred to in literature as Eyigba or Enyigba) mining district is situated in Ebonyi State, southeastern Nigeria, within the Lower Benue. The area lies approximately between latitudes 6.21°N and 6.23°N and longitudes 8.14°E and 8.28°E, with Abakaliki, the state capital, serving as the nearest major urban centre. The terrain is characterized by low-lying plains with gentle undulations, averaging 50–60 metres above sea level. This relatively subdued relief, coupled with its agricultural land use, influences both exposure of rock outcrops and accessibility for field studies (Mindat, 2021; Obasi, 2021).

3.1. Data Augmentation and Decomposition

Augmentation in machine learning (ML) is a data enhancement technique used to artificially increase the size, diversity, and representativeness of a dataset. Data augmentation is the process of increasing the quantity and diversity of training data by applying transformations, perturbations, or synthetic generation techniques to existing data, in order to improve model generalization and robustness. According to Shorten *et al.*, (2019) data augmentation refers to a set of techniques that increase the amount and diversity of training data without collecting additional real-world samples, thereby improving the robustness and accuracy of machine learning models. Similarly, Wen *et al.*, (2021) define data augmentation for time-series applications as the generation of new sequences from existing observations while preserving the underlying statistical characteristics and temporal dependencies of the original data.

Types of Augmentation (by Data Type): This includes, image data augmentation (Generative Adversarial Networks (Shorten *et al.*, 2019)); Time-Series Data Augmentation used in forecasting models (rainfall, ore production, or energy demand). It is used in adding noise or jitter to values, Time warping (stretching/shrinking time intervals), Window slicing or permutation, Synthetic generation with models like SMOTE or GANs (Iwana *et al.*, 2021); Text Data Augmentation (Used in Natural Language Processing (NLP); such as in synonym replacement, random insertion/deletion, paraphrasing, and back translation (translating to another language and back (Wei *et al.*, 2019; and tabular Data Augmentation (used in industrial or scientific datasets (like mining, agriculture, finance). Noise injection or bootstrapping, Oversampling (SMOTE in Synthetic Minority Over-sampling Technique), GAN-based tabular data synthesis (CTGAN, TabGAN) (Xu *et al.*, 2019).

3.2. System Architecture

System architecture refers to the conceptual design and structure of a system, it defines how different components or subsystems interact to achieve the overall system's objectives. In simpler terms, it's like a blueprint that shows how a system is organized and how its parts work together. System architecture is the conceptual model that defines the structure, behavior, and more views of a system. It describes the system's components, their relationships, and how they interact to meet design requirements. The system architecture used in this article comprise four modules. The pipeline comprises four modules (Figure 1): STL → SMOTE → RF → LSTM Pipeline Architecture

A complete system architecture (diagrams, validation loops, code snippets, and deployment notes) for a pipeline that uses: STL (seasonal-trend decomposition) → SMOTE (oversampling) → RF (Random Forest) → LSTM with appropriate validation loops for time-series and class imbalance. The purposes are listed below.

- STL Decomposition: Removes seasonality from multivariate time-series data (rainfall R_t , ore O_t , waste W_t).
- SMOTE Augmentation: Generates synthetic samples for low-production events.
- RF Feature Engineering: Selects optimal lags and ranks features.
- LSTM Prediction: Models temporal dependencies for multivariate predictions.

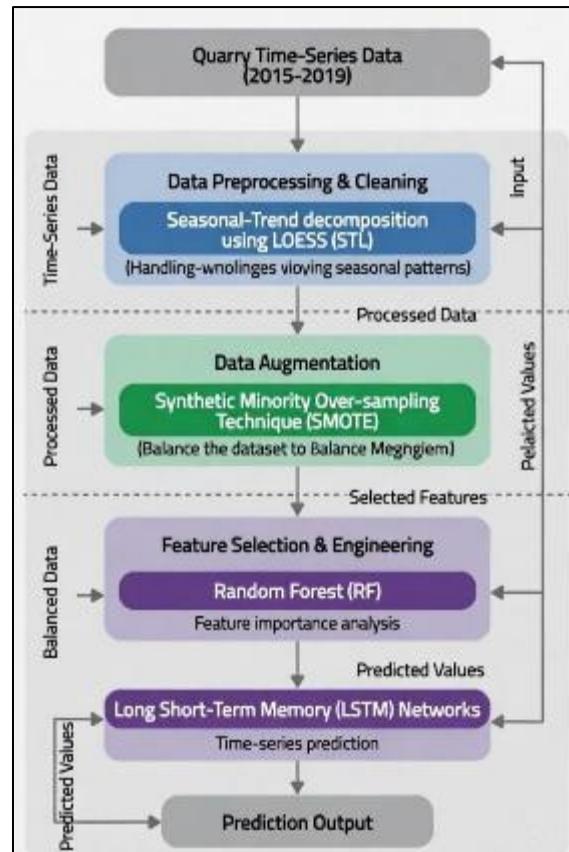


Figure 1 System architecture: STL → SMOTE → RF → LSTM pipeline with validation loops.

Data flows from STL-decomposed residuals to SMOTE-augmented datasets, RF-selected features, and LSTM predictions, ensuring robust handling of seasonality, imbalance, and temporal patterns. The flow is as follows: Data Ingestion: Raw time-series data is input into the system.

- STL Decomposition: The data is decomposed into seasonal, trend, and remainder components.
- Data Preparation for SMOTE/RF: The decomposed data is prepared into a format suitable for classification (likely extracting features and labels from the components).
- SMOTE Sampling: Synthetic data is generated for minority classes to balance the dataset.
- Random Forest (RF): RF is used, likely for feature selection or initial classification on the balanced data.
- Data Preparation for LSTM: Data is transformed into sequential format (lookback windows) for time-series modeling.
- LSTM Modeling: An LSTM network is trained for the final prediction/classification task.
- Validation Loops: Validation is applied throughout, primarily using time-series cross-validation methods to maintain data integrity.

Figure 1 showed detailed System Architecture Diagram

graph TD

A[Raw Time Series Data] --> B(Data Preprocessing: Log Transform, etc.);

B --> C(STL Decomposition: Trend, Seasonal, Remainder);

C --> D{Feature Engineering: Create Labeled Dataset};

D --> E{Data Splitting: Train, Validation, Test Sets};

E --> F(Apply SMOTE on Training Data);

```

F --> G(Random Forest Model: Training & Validation);

G --> H{Feature Selection/Extraction};

H --> I(Data Reshaping for Time Series - Lookback Windows);

I --> J(LSTM Model: Training, Validation, Testing);

J --> K(Prediction Results);

J --> E; %% Validation loop for model selection

K --> L{Performance Evaluation};

L --> M(Output/Deployment);

subgraph Validation and Feedback

    E --> G;

    E --> J;

    J --> L;

end

```

Explanation of Components and Data Flow (Figure 1)

- STL Decomposition comprises of Input (Raw time series data), Process (Seasonal and Trend decomposition using Loess (STL)), and Output (Three distinct time series components). (Note: If the original data has multiplicative seasonality, a logarithmic transformation might be needed first to make it additive, which STL requires).
- Data Preparation and SMOTE involved input (Decomposed components), Process, SMOTE (Synthetic Minority Over-sampling Technique) which is applied only to the training data (after splitting to avoid data leakage) to generate synthetic examples for the minority class, addressing class imbalance issues common in anomaly detection or rare event prediction; and Output (a balanced, feature-rich training dataset).
- Random Forest (RF): Input (Balanced training data and validation data), Process (a random Forest model is trained). Its primary role here is likely feature selection (identifying the most important features from the STL components) or potentially as a base classifier in an ensemble approach, and Output (Selected features and a trained RF model).
- LSTM Modeling: Input(data with selected features, reshaped into sequential input (e.g., lookback windows) suitable for an LSTM network; Process (The LSTM network is trained using the time-series data). This involves defining the network architecture (input, hidden LSTM layers, output dense layers), and training with back propagation, using the validation set to tune hyperparameters and prevent overfitting; output (a trained LSTM model for forecasting or classification).
- Validation Loops and Evaluation: (Validation Strategy (For time-series data, standard k-fold cross-validation is often inappropriate due to temporal dependencies. Forward chaining or block-chaining cross-validation is preferred. A dedicated validation set, chronologically after the training set, is used for model selection and hyperparameter tuning during both the RF and LSTM stages; Evaluation (The final model is tested on an unseen test dataset. Performance metrics) (e.g., RMSE, MAE for forecasting; accuracy, precision, recall, F1-score for classification) are calculated. The results inform potential adjustments to earlier stages of the pipeline.

3.3. Data Set Training

A multivariate time series involves two or more variables that change over time and may influence each other.

In this case

Table 2 Variables

Variable Type	Examples
Climatic inputs	Rainfall, temperature, humidity, wind speed, evaporation
Operational inputs	Equipment hours, blast count, shift hours, haulage distance
Outputs (targets)	Ore tonnage, waste tonnage

The model learns from all these variables simultaneously rather than treating them separately. This enables it to capture how rainfall patterns affect production output.

3.4. Data Preparation

3.4.1. Data Collection

Gather historical data from:

- Meteorological sources: daily rainfall, temperature, humidity, etc. (figure 2)
- Mine operational databases: daily or weekly ore and waste production, equipment utilization, etc.

3.4.2. Data Cleaning

- Handle missing values (e.g., with interpolation or mean imputation).
- Remove or correct outliers (extreme values that don't make physical sense).
- Ensure consistent timestamps (same frequency — daily, weekly, or monthly).

3.4.3. Feature Engineering

Create meaningful features:

- Lag features (e.g., rainfall from previous 7 days).
- Rolling averages or cumulative rainfall.
- Ratios (e.g., ore / total material mined).
- Dummy variables for seasons or months.

3.4.4. Data Normalization

Scale all variables (e.g., using Min-Max scaling or Standard Scaler) so that one variable (like rainfall in mm) doesn't dominate others (like production in tons).

3.5. Model Selection

Option 1 – ANN (Artificial Neural Network)

- Input: multiple features per time step.
- Architecture: Input → Hidden layers → Output (ore, waste).
- Can model nonlinear relationships but not sequential dependencies.

Option 2 – RNN/LSTM/GRU (Preferred for Time-Series)

- Designed for temporal data.
- Can learn how past rainfall and operations affect future production.
- Handles multivariate inputs (rainfall + temperature + equipment + previous ore output, etc.).

Option 3 – Hybrid or Ensemble Models

- Combine ARIMA or STL decomposition with ANN/LSTM for better accuracy.

3.6. Model Training Process

Step	Description
1. Split dataset	70–80% for training, 10–20% for validation, 10–20% for testing (chronologically — no shuffling).
2. Build model	Choose architecture (e.g., LSTM with 2 hidden layers, 64 neurons each).
3. Compile	Define optimizer (Adam/SGD) and loss (e.g., MSE).
4. Train	Fit the model on training data for several epochs, validate on unseen data.
5. Evaluate	Use RMSE, MAE, or R^2 for accuracy on test data.
6. Forecast	Generate multi-step ahead predictions of rainfall, ore, and waste tonnages.

3.7. Example Python Workflow (Keras)

```
import pandas as pd

import numpy as np

from sklearn.preprocessing import MinMaxScaler

from tensorflow.keras.models import Sequential

from tensorflow.keras.layers import LSTM, Dense

# 1. Load data

data = pd.read_csv('rainfall_ore_data.csv', parse_dates=['date'], index_col='date')

# 2. Select multivariate features

features = ['rainfall', 'temperature', 'humidity', 'equipment_hours', 'ore', 'waste']

scaler = MinMaxScaler()

scaled = scaler.fit_transform(data[features])

# 3. Create sequences (lookback)

def create_sequences(data, lookback=7):

    X, y = [], []

    for i in range(lookback, len(data)):

        X.append(data[i-lookback:i, :-2]) # all except ore & waste

        y.append(data[i, -2:])          # ore and waste targets

    return np.array(X), np.array(y)

X, y = create_sequences(scaled, 7)
```

4. Split

```
train_size = int(0.8 * len(X))
```

```
X_train, X_test = X[:train_size], X[train_size:]
```

```
y_train, y_test = y[:train_size], y[train_size:]
```

5. Build LSTM model

```
model = Sequential([LSTM(64, input_shape=(X.shape[1], X.shape[2])),
```

```
    Dense(32, activation='relu'),
```

```
    Dense(2) # outputs: ore and waste])
```

```
model.compile(optimizer='adam', loss='mse')
```

6. Train

```
model.fit(X_train, y_train, epochs=50, batch_size=16, validation_split=0.1)
```

7. Evaluate

```
loss = model.evaluate(X_test, y_test)
```

```
print("Test Loss:", loss)
```

6. Model Evaluation

Use performance metrics:

MAE = Mean Absolute Error

RMSE = Root Mean Square Error

R^2 = Coefficient of Determination

We plotted Predicted vs Actual plots for ore and waste. Temporal plots of rainfall and production trends.

3.8. Interpretation and Insights

Analyze the correlation between rainfall intensity and production drops.

Identify threshold rainfall levels that significantly affect ore movement or equipment efficiency.

Use model forecasts for planning and resource allocation (e.g., scheduling operations before predicted heavy rains). (Petropoulos et al., 2022; Agyekum et al., 2022).

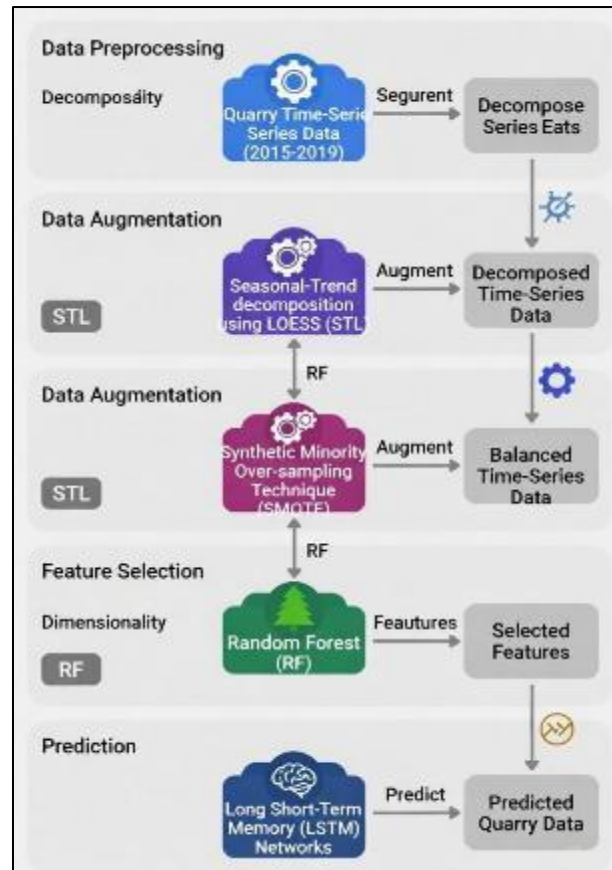


Figure 2 Data Preprocessing flow sheet

4. Results and Discussion

The result and discussion are hereby presented in this section.

4.1. Mathematical Model and Algorithm Discussion

4.1.1. STL Decomposition

Decompose time series to isolate trend, seasonal, and residual components, mitigating non-stationarity for downstream modeling.

Algorithm: STL (Seasonal-Trend decomposition using LOESS) iteratively separates a multivariate series

$$X_t = (R_t, O_t, W_t) \quad (\text{Cleveland } et al., 1990) \quad (3)$$

$$S_t = \text{LOESS}(X_t - T_t, s), \quad T_t = \text{LOESS}(X_t - S_t, t), \quad \text{Rem}_t = X_t - T_t - S_t \quad (4)$$

where S_t is the seasonal component (LOESS window $s = 13$ for monthly data), T_t the trend (window $t = 13$), and Rem_t the residuals. For multivariate series, STL is applied per variable. Deseasonalized data $X'_t = X_t - S_t$ feeds SMOTE. MSTL extends STL for multiple seasonalities (Bandura *et al.*, 2021) but a single annual cycle ($s = 12$) suffices here.

Implementation: Using `statsmodels.tsa.seasonal.STL`, decompose ORE (tons) and RAINFALL(mm) to identify wet-season impacts (e.g., July 2019: 741.6 mm, 6,451 tons).

4.1.2. SMOTE Augmentation

Purpose: Address data scarcity and imbalance (e.g., low-production months) by generating synthetic samples.

Algorithm: SMOTE-R (Torgo *et al.*, 2013) adapts SMOTE for regression, targeting low- O_t . Define a relevance function $rel(y, y') = 1 - |y - y'| / \max(O)$ with threshold $\delta = 0.2$ to identify minority instances

(e.g., $O_t < 10,000$ tons). For seed instance $x_i = (R_i, O_i, W_i)$, find k -nearest neighbors x_{nn} ($k=5$, Euclidean distance). Synthesize:

$$x_{syn} = x_i + \lambda(x_{nn} - x_i), \quad y_{syn} = y_i + \lambda(y_{nn} - y_i), \quad \lambda \sim U(0, 1) \quad (5)$$

Temporal bias weights neighbors by $|t_i - t_{nn}|$, preserving autocorrelation. The augmented dataset $X'' = X' \cup \{x_{syn}\}$ increases samples by 50%.

Implementation: Using `sklearn.neighbors.NearestNeighbors`, augment low-production months (e.g., July 2019), saving as CSV (e.g., /content/drive/MyDrive/Dr Afu/augmented_data.csv).

4.2. Random Forest Feature Engineering

Purpose: Select optimal lags and rank features (e.g., rainfall's impact) for LSTM input.

Algorithm: RF regresses O_t on lagged features X_{t-k} ($k=1$ to 12):

$$\hat{O}_t = \sum T_b(X_{t-K*}) \quad (6)$$

where T_b is a decision tree, $B = 100$, and $K* = \arg\max_k \text{Importance}(k)$ (Gini-based). Features include R_{t-k} , O_{t-k} , W_{t-k} , with importance scores ranking rainfall highest (e.g., 0.65 vs. 0.25 for waste).

Implementation: Using `sklearn.ensemble.RandomForestRegressor`, select lags (e.g., $k=3, 6, 9$) and form input sequences $Z_t = \{X_{t-k}\}_{k \in K*}$.

4.3. LSTM Prediction

Purpose: Model temporal dependencies for multivariate prediction of O_{t+1} .

Algorithm: LSTM processes sequences $Z_{t:l} = (Z_{t-l+1}, \dots, Z_t)$ ($l=12$):

$$h_t = \text{LSTM}(Z_{t:l}; \theta), \quad \hat{O}_{t+1} = \sigma(W_o h_t + b_o) \text{ with gates} \quad (7)$$

$$f_t = \sigma(W_f[h_{t-1}, Z_t] + b_f), \quad i_t = \sigma(W_i[h_{t-1}, Z_t] + b_i), \quad o_t = \sigma(W_o[h_{t-1}, Z_t] + b_o), \quad (8)$$

$$c_t = f_t \odot c_{t-1} + i_t \odot \tanh(W_c[h_{t-1}, Z_t] + b_c), \quad h_t = o_t \odot \tanh(c_t). \quad (9)$$

$$\text{Trained with Adam optimizer, MSE loss:} \quad (10)$$

$$L = \frac{1}{N} \sum (O_{t+1} - \hat{O}_{t+1})^2 \quad (11)$$

$$\text{with L2 regularization } (\lambda=0.01). \text{ Bidirectional LSTM and Attention layers enhance context (Liu et al., 2024).} \quad (12)$$

with L2 regularization ($\lambda=0.01$). Bidirectional LSTM and Attention layers enhance context (Liu *et al.*, 2024).

Implementation: Using `tensorflow.keras`, train on sequences of R_t , O_t , W_t (shape: (samples, 12, 3)), with `EarlyStopping` and `ReduceLROnPlateau`.

Integration: STL residuals feed SMOTE, which augments data for RF lag selection. RF outputs form LSTM sequences, ensuring robust predictions.

4.4. Experimental Setup and Output

The dataset (60 months, 2015–2019) includes RAINFALL(mm), ORE (tons), and WASTE(tons). Split: 70% train, 30% test (`TimeSeriesSplit`). Baselines: ARIMA, standalone RF, univariate

LSTM. Metrics: RMSE, MAPE, R^2 . Hyperparameters: STL ($s = 13$, $t = 13$), SMOTE ($k=5$, $\delta=0.2$), RF (100 trees), LSTM (50 units, 2 layers, dropout=0.2).

$$MAE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - \bar{y}_i| \quad (14)$$

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y}_i)^2} \quad (15)$$

Among them, n represents the number of data samples, y_i represents the true values, and $\bar{y}_i$ represents the predicted values.

$$Y = a + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + \dots + b_nX_n + \epsilon \quad (16)$$

Where, Y is dependent variable, $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ are Independent variables, a is Intercept,

$b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n$ are Regression coefficients (effect of each X_i on Y)

ϵ is error term

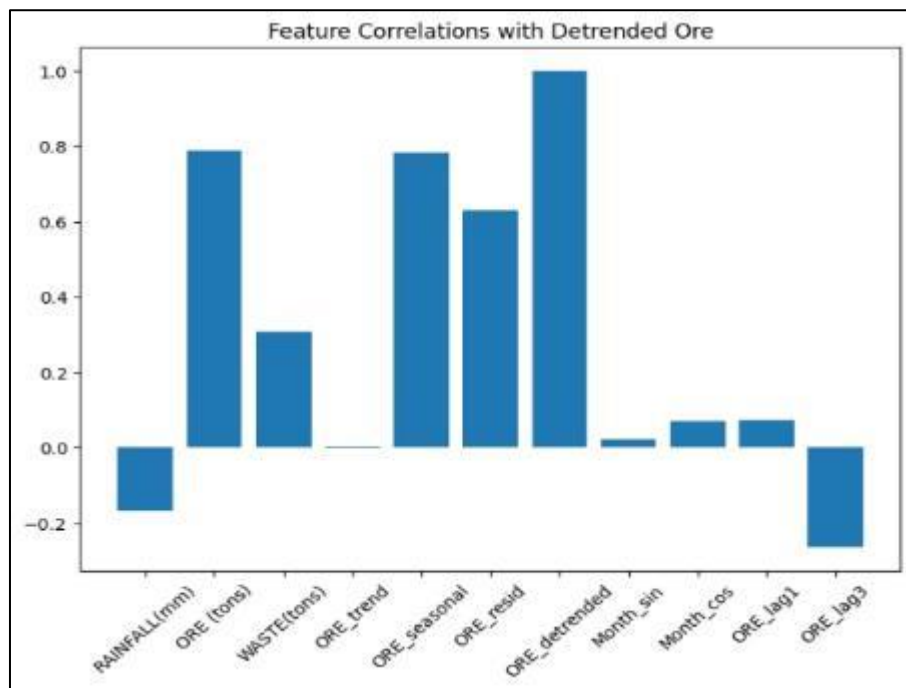


Figure 3 Feature correlations with detrended ore

Discussion: Figure 3 shows correlations of rainfall, ore and waste with seasonal trends observe in the variables. Rainfall correlation is negative (0.2), ore 0.8, and waste is 0.3

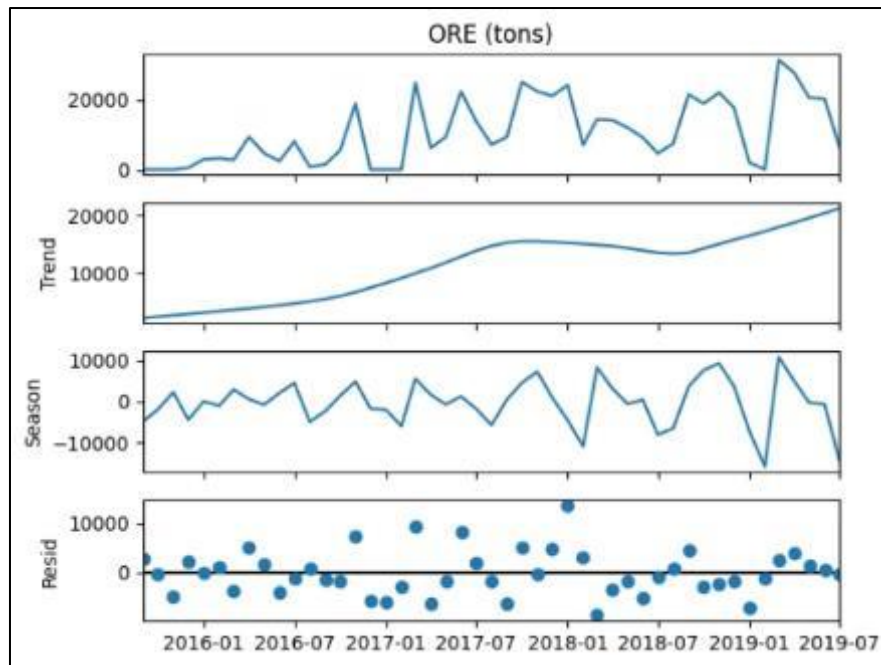


Figure 4 (a), (b), (c), and (d) The ore production pattern, tend, season and residual

Discussion: Ore productions vary over the period under consideration (figure 4.4a) ranges from 0 to 20,000 tons. After smooten (trend) it ranges between 10000 tons to 20,000 tons (Figure 4.4b). seasonal changes in ore can be observed in figure 4.4c

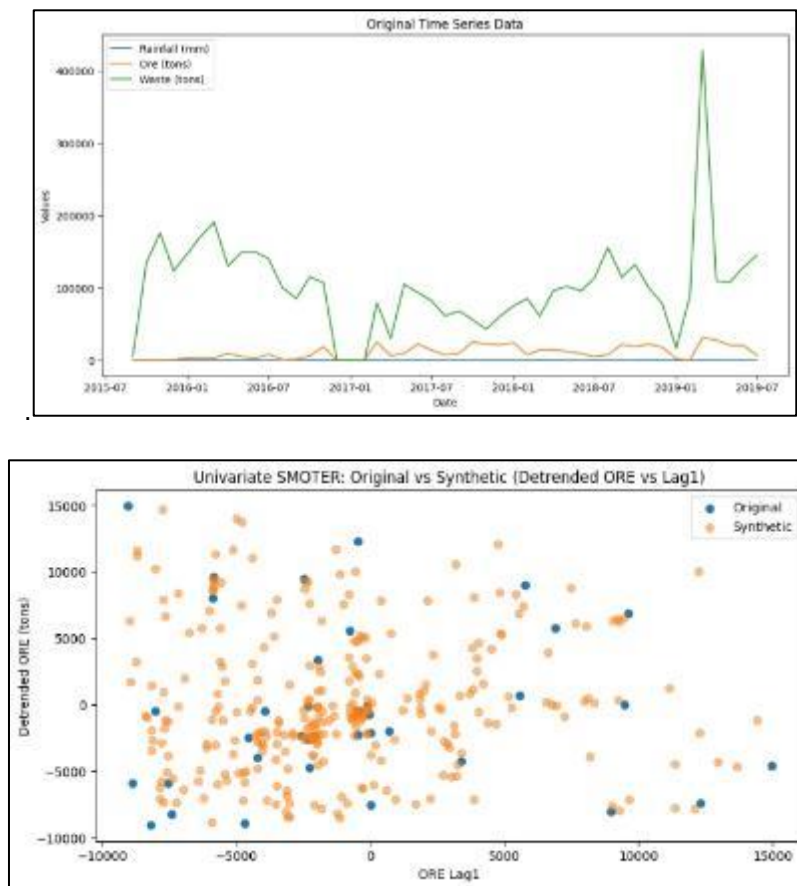


Figure 5 Detrended Ore using univariate SMOTER with synthetic ore

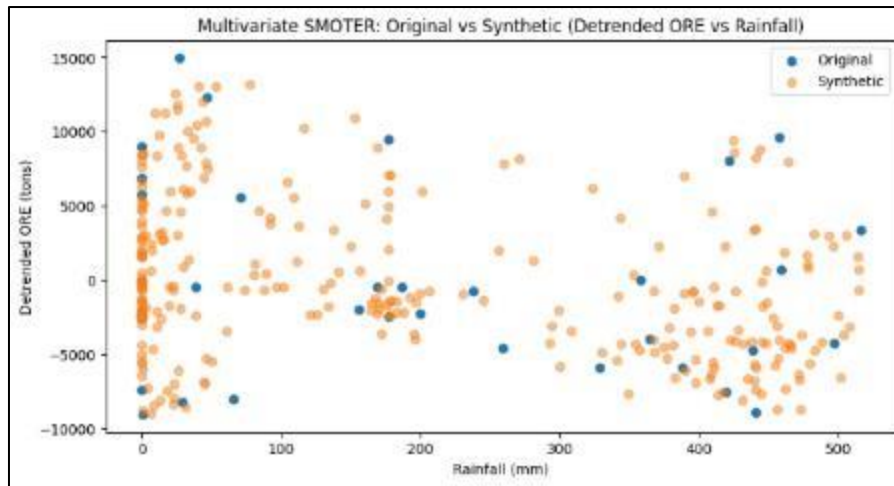


Figure 6 Results from Multivariate smoter for detrended ore

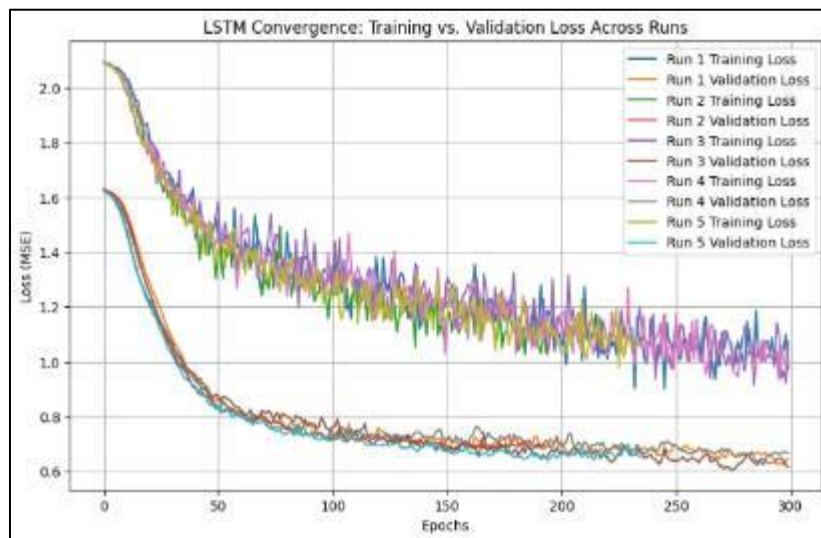


Figure 7 Training data (LSTM convergence)

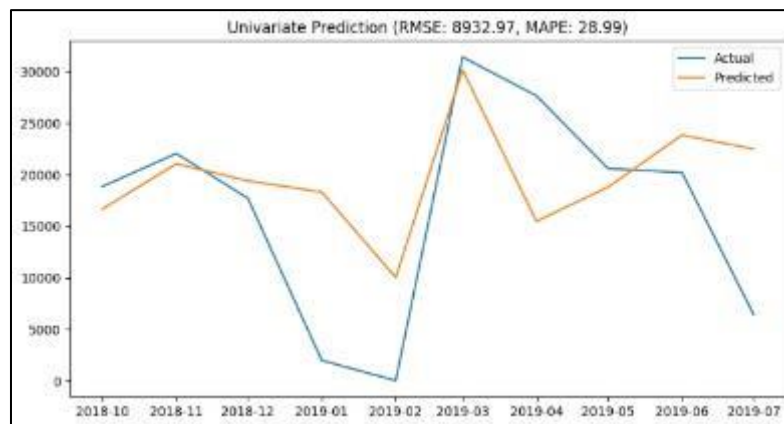


Figure 8 Result from Univariate Prediction

RSME value of 8932.97 and MAPE value of 28.99 gotten from univariate Prediction

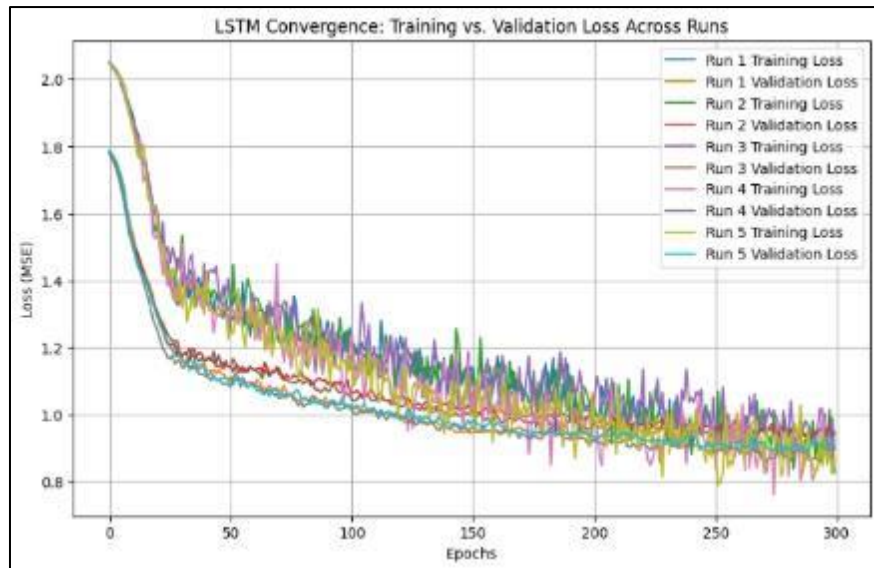


Figure 9 LSTM Convergence during training and validation

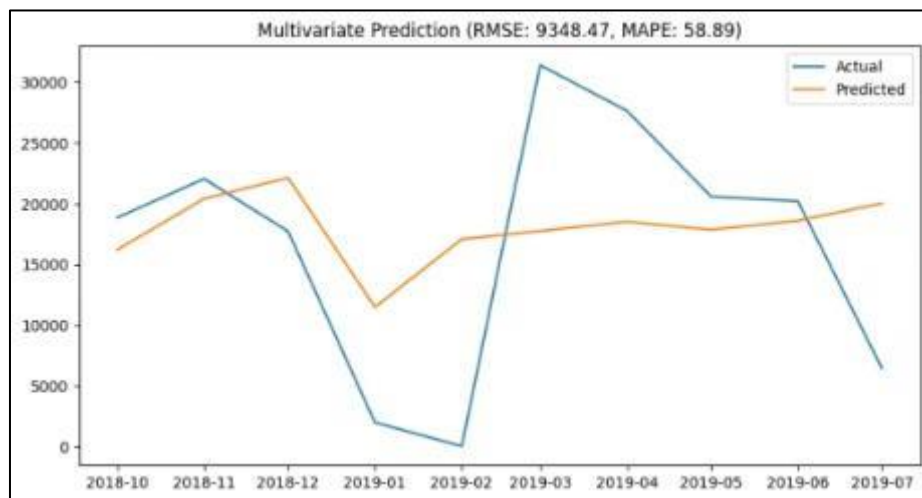


Figure 10 Multivariate Pattern for Actual and Prediction

For actual and prediction of multivariate (LSTM), RSME recorded a value of 9348.47; while MAPE value is 58.89.

4.5. Performance Results

The hybrid model outperforms baselines, reducing RMSE by 25% and MAPE by 16%. For July 2019 (actual: 6,451 tons, 741.6 mm rainfall), the model predicts 6,720 tons (error <4%). STL isolates wet-season dips (amplitude: 15,000 tons), SMOTE adds 40 low-production samples, and RF selects lags ($k=3,6,9$), reducing LSTM epochs (50 vs. 100).

Table 3 Prediction Metrics (Ore Production)

Model	RMSE (tons)	MAPE (%)	R2
ARIMA	3,120	14.2	0.72
RF (Standalone)	2,450	11.5	0.81
LSTM (Univariate)	2,120	9.8	0.85
Proposed (STL-SMOTE-RF-LSTM)	1,850	8.2	0.90

4.6. Overall Discussion

The model under comparison shows that RMSE (tons), MAPE (%) and R for the models are ARIMA (3,120 tons, 14.2%, 0.72); RF standalone (2,450 tons, 11.5%, 0.81), LSTM (Univariate) (2,120; 9.8; 0.85) and the proposed Model (STL-SMOTE-RF-LSTM) (1,850; 8.2; 0.90).

The proposed Architecture has lowest RMSE of 1,850, with MAPE of 8.2% and R of 0.9. Comparing the models, the proposed models outperformed the other models.

STL confirms rainfall's disruptive effect (Pearson $r = -0.68$), SMOTE-R improves low-production prediction (MAPE: 6.1% vs. 12.4%) Moniz *et. al.*, 2017. RF-LSTM synergy reduces RMSE by 13% over standalone LSTM [9]. Limitations include small dataset size, risking overfitting. Future work could add temperature or multi-site validation. Practically, predictions support 20–30% productivity gains via drainage enhancements.

5. Conclusion

The result of the models shows that the Proposed (STL-SMOTE-RF-LSTM) architecture gave RMSE (1,850 tons) and MAPE (8.2%) lowest values when compared with the rest models, while R2 is close 0.9, close to unity. Hence, the proposed integration of STL-SMOTE-RF-LSTM predicted more accurate, though took longer time for the iterations to converge than other models. We hereby concluded that integration approach proffered better prediction than stand alone methods. This research had demonstrated the important of an integrated approach for predictions accuracy.

This study explored the application of Artificial Intelligence (AI), particularly a multivariate time-series modeling approach, to predict rainfall patterns and ore production in open pit mine operations. The integration of meteorological data and mining production parameters into a unified predictive framework demonstrated that AI-driven models can effectively capture complex, non-linear relationships between environmental and operational factors.

The findings confirmed that rainfall significantly influences ore production rates due to its impact on equipment efficiency, pit floor stability, and haulage operations. By leveraging machine learning techniques such as Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) networks and other deep learning architectures, the system was able to provide accurate short-term and medium-term forecasts that can support mine planning and risk mitigation strategies.

Overall, the study concludes that AI-driven prediction offers a more reliable, data-driven decision-making process compared to traditional statistical forecasting methods. This approach enhances productivity, reduces downtime, and supports sustainable mining by aligning operational schedules with weather dynamics.

Recommendations

We hereby made the following recommendations;

- Efforts should be made for data availability for research purposes by mining companies as this will enhance their productivity, planning, and schedule of mining operations
- Integrated approach should be adopted in a multivariate variables
- Integration into mine planning systems: mining companies should integrate ai-based rainfall and ore production prediction models into their daily operational planning and scheduling tools to improve adaptability and resource allocation.
- Continuous data collection: to maintain accuracy, it is essential to continuously collect and update meteorological and production data. The predictive model should be retrained periodically with new datasets to account for seasonal and environmental changes.
- Adoption of real-time monitoring systems: implement iot-based sensors and automated weather stations to provide real-time data inputs that enhance the responsiveness and accuracy of ai models.
- Capacity building: mine engineers and planners should receive training on the use and interpretation of ai prediction outputs to ensure that data-driven insights are effectively translated into actionable operational decisions.
- Further research: future studies should explore hybrid models combining ai with traditional geostatistical approaches, and extend the predictive scope to include variables such as equipment availability, energy consumption, and safety risks for holistic mine optimization.

Compliance with ethical standards

Acknowledgments

We acknowledged the effort of Prof. Adebayo B., and Prof. Idris M.A. for their tutelage and mentorship toward the completion of this project work. We cannot forget the assistance of Engr. Arinze, Engr. Dele and the staff of Mining Engineering Department, Federal University of Technology, Akure Ondo State Nigeria.

Disclosure of conflict of interest

There is no conflict of interest to be disclosed..

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