

1 **Title**

2 **The Forecasting of Groundwater Fluctuations using Time Series Analysis and**
3 **Combination of Data-Driven Models**

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17 **Running title**

18 **The Forecasting of Groundwater Fluctuations using Time Series Analysis**

19 **Abstract**

20 The Forecasting of Groundwater Fluctuations is a useful tool for managing groundwater
21 resources in the mining area. Water resources management requires identifying potential periods
22 for groundwater drainage to prevent groundwater from entering the mine pit and imposing high
23 costs. In this research, Auto-Regressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA) and Holt-Winters
24 Exponential Smoothing (HWES) data-driven models were used for short-term modeling of the
25 groundwater fluctuations in a piezometer around the Gohar Zamin Iron Ore Mine. For this
26 purpose, 250 non-seasonal groundwater fluctuations data in the period 22-Nov-2018 to 29-Jul-
27 2019, 200 data for modeling, and 50 data for prediction were used. To take advantage of all the
28 features of the two developed models, the predictions are combined with different methods and
29 specific weights. The results show better accuracy for the ARIMA method between the two
30 short-term forecasts, while the HWES method requires less time for modeling. Also, among all
31 the predictions made, the highest accuracy for the combined least-squares method is for
32 forecasting the groundwater fluctuations in the short-term. All the forecasts show a decrease in
33 the groundwater fluctuations, indicating pumping wells around the Gohar Zamin Iron Ore Mine
34 area.

35 **Keywords:** Groundwater Fluctuations, ARIMA, HWES, Data-Driven Models, Combining
36 Forecasts

37

38 **1. Introduction**

39 Groundwater is a natural resource that has costly adverse effects on mining operations (Brawner,
40 1986). Due to the increased depth of mining, excavation may be done below the water table,

41 which leads to the movement of water towards mining works. Too much water entering the
42 mining environment may delay the project or impede production, in addition to causing
43 environmental and safety problems (Singh & Atkins, 1985). Increased equipment failure, lack of
44 access to part of the mining area, increased use of explosives, loading problems, unsafe working
45 conditions, and a damaging effect on pit slope stability are among the undesirable impacts of
46 groundwater entering the mining environment. Therefore, to overcome these problems, it is
47 necessary to develop an efficient dewatering system that predicts groundwater fluctuations that
48 can contribute significantly to this design.

49 In recent years, data-driven techniques have been a useful tool for predicting groundwater
50 fluctuations as an alternative to physical models. Lack of need for information about aquifer
51 hydrogeological parameters is the most crucial advantage of data-driven models over physical
52 models (Adamowski & Chan, 2011), but data-driven models need precise calibration ((Burrows
53 & Doherty, 2015); (Xu & Valocchi, 2015); (Burrows & Doherty, 2016); (Stefania et al., 2018);
54 (Gianni, Doherty, & Brunner, 2019); (Pan et al., 2019); (Nogueira, Schmidt, Trauth, &
55 Fleckenstein, 2021)). Hence, data-driven models can be more appropriate if comprehensive
56 information about subsurface characteristics is inaccessible. Also, data-driven models are
57 superior to physical models for modeling and predicting groundwater fluctuations because they
58 can overcome the uncertainty of parameters and data constraints ((Maskey, Dibike, Jonoski, &
59 Solomatine, 2000); (Nikolos, Stergiadi, Papadopoulou, & Karatzas, 2008); (Banerjee, Prasad, &
60 Singh, 2009); (Yoon, Jun, Hyun, Bae, & Lee, 2011); (Shiri, Kisi, Yoon, Lee, & Hossein Nazemi,
61 2013); (Boggs, Van Kirk, Johnson, & Fairley, 2014); (Chang, Wang, & Mao, 2015); (Curtis, Li,
62 Liao, & Lusch, 2018); (Ross, Ali, Spence, Oswald, & Casson, 2019)). The extensive and
63 successful application of data-driven models in hydrological and hydrogeological fields to

64 predict groundwater fluctuations changes have been demonstrated in many previous studies
65 (Guo, Song, Shi, & Li, 2020), such as runoff (Pektaş & Kerem Cigizoglu, 2013), arid region
66 (Mirzavand & Ghazavi, 2015), semiarid (Choubin & Malekian, 2017), Spring Discharge, river
67 basin (Gibrilla, Anornu, & Adomako, 2018).

68 Among data-driven models, linear models are one of the most widely used methods for
69 predicting groundwater fluctuations. The need for less computational time and effort for training
70 is an advantage of linear models. Struggling to handle non-linearity is the principal disadvantage
71 of this model. To develop linear models:

72 I) The input time series must be stationary.

73 II) Residuals must be white noise.

74 There should be no cross-correlation and no autocorrelation between the input and the residuals;
75 also, the mean of time series should be zero (Zanotti et al., 2019).

76 Developing data-driven models for accurate and efficient estimation requires a large amount of
77 time series data, which is a time-consuming and costly process. The primary purpose of this
78 research is to develop and compare statistical methods to forecast groundwater fluctuations using
79 a small amount of time series data. For this purpose, Auto-Regressive Integrated Moving
80 Average (ARIMA) and Holt-Winters Exponential Smoothing (HWES) linear statistical methods
81 have been used to predict the fluctuations of the groundwater fluctuations of Gohar Zamin Iron
82 Ore Mine in a short period of 250 days. The innovation of this research is the combination of
83 developed models to cover and capture the desired features of each forecasting method.

84 The rest of this research is organized as follows: Section 2 describes information on the study area
85 and developed models, Section 3 provides the results and discussion of this research, and section
86 4 presents the conclusions of this research.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Study area

Gol Gohar iron ore deposit is one of the most popular pivot points of the mining industry in the Middle East, with six separate anomalies. This deposit with a reserve of about 1200 million tons is located in an area of approximately 10 km in length and nearly 4 km in width. The mining area is generally covered with recent alluvium. Stone outcrops contain Paleozoic metamorphic rock in the south, Mesozoic and Cenozoic sedimentary rock in the east of the mine. Six separate Gol Gohar anomalies of iron deposits are situated in the metamorphic complex. The lower part of Gneiss consists of Mica schist, Amphibolite, and Quartz schist. Deposits of sediments are mostly related to Pliocene and Quaternary periods containing conglomerate, sandstone, marl, Gypsum-bearing clay, and limestone. From the tectonic point of view, Gol Gohar is located near the Zagros fault, and also, Deh Bid and Deh Shir faults located in this area are in contact with each other. The area is affected by compressive tectonics. The original faults are generally the reverse types, and the normal faults are the secondary ones. All the Quaternary faults are normal and active faults, and they can move a distance of a few centimeters to several meters. These faults play a part in guiding the water surface and groundwater through Gohar Zamin Iron Ore Mine. These young faults are created by movements of Strike-slip faults from the direction of NW-SE and have bent to the left.

In anomaly NO.3 (Gohar Zamin Iron Ore Mine), groundwater does not enter the pit; therefore, water permeates through the alluvium of the pit's stairs. Artesian explored borehole is another problem of this mine. One of the probable factors of going groundwater inflow into Gohar Zamin Iron Ore Mine is Kheyraabad plain with alluvial sediments situated in the northeast of the mine at 15 km (figure 1). Furthermore, since the mine is surrounded by various faults such as Kheyraabad,

110 Gol Gohar, the probability of the water inflow from the Kheyraabad plain to the mine is doubled.
111 When the mine is boring, the hydraulic gradient of groundwater, which goes through the
112 Kheyraabad plain, changes its direction and goes through the mine. Around the Gohar Zamin Iron
113 Ore Mine, water pumping wells are located around anomaly No. 1, which is considered a
114 discharge area. The data set includes daily groundwater fluctuations data measured at six
115 piezometers around the mine pit (22-Nov-2018 to 29-Jul-2019).

116 **Fig. 1.** Study area and location of Gohar Zamin Iron Ore Mine.

117 **2.2 Time Series Analysis**

118 A time series is a sequence of observations with an equal time interval related to one or more
119 variables and recorded as a random sequence in time (Yoon, Hyun, Ha, Lee, & Kim, 2016);
120 (Nixdorf & Trauth, 2018). Series data has a definite beginning and end and is not independent
121 when the same desirable feature is used for modeling. In time series analysis, the variable
122 changes are explained based on the current and past changes of the other variables (Palit &
123 Popovic, 2005). The purpose of time series analysis:

124 1. Create input models that express the random behavior of a variable over time using a
125 probabilistic model

126 2. Prediction to obtain values in forwarding time steps using the developed model

127 The most critical aspect of the series analysis is when it helps eliminate or reduce the inherent
128 distribution of fluctuating components in measured values.

129 **2.2.1 Non-Seasonal Auto-Regressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA)**

130 Due to the lack of the necessary theory for the time series, statistical concepts are used based on
131 the distribution functions to extract the essential regression to model the time series. Besides,
132 standard regression cannot be used due to the serial correlation of time series due to the inability
133 to estimate the coefficients of the regression equation. Box and Jenkins' approach (1976) and
134 Auto-Regressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA) modeling have been used to solve this
135 problem. The Box and Jenkins method is not a straightforward process but a series of repetitive
136 actions, as shown in Figure 2.

137 **Fig. 2.** Box and Jenkins model construction method (Palit & Popovic, 2005).

138 In the model identification phase, the number of parameters of the developed mathematical
139 model is carefully determined with the studied time series data. In the model estimation phase,
140 the values of the model parameters are calculated by minimizing the sum of the remaining
141 squares. In the model evaluation phase, the model's precision is examined, and the model is
142 developed.

143 The essential condition for modeling and predicting a time series using the Box and Jenkins
144 approach is the time series is stationary. The time series have a non-stationary trend, so by
145 identifying the systematic pattern and identifying the type, and eliminating the trend, the time
146 series is de-trending and stationarity. Locally weighted regression and smoothing scatter plot, a
147 particular form of the nearest neighbor fit that is a non-parametric approach introduced by
148 Cleveland (1979), can be used to identify the type of time series trend. In this method, instead of
149 considering all the samples, a part of it is recognized. For each observation in its neighborhood, a
150 multi-sentence regression of locally weighted fit is observed. Points with more distance weigh
151 less, and points with less distance weigh more.

152 The time series converted to stationarity by differencing the time series d times. Differencing is
 153 an operation by which a replacement time series is made by taking the differences of values, like
 154 $y(t) - y(t-1)$, with the non-stationary time series pattern. During this research, the Mann-
 155 Kendall test was accustomed to assess the stationarity of the groundwater fluctuations.
 156 Therefore, the time series may be considered stationary with a significance level of 0.05,
 157 meaning that they might be used without transformation (Zanotti et al., 2019). The residuals are
 158 identified as a de-trending time series (Palit & Popovic, 2005).

159 In the acronym Auto-Regressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA), the letter I symbolize
 160 integration. Within the model identification phase, additionally to the Integrated order
 161 identification, the quantity of required AR and MA parameters for the model should be
 162 identified. The general convention for outlining the structure of ARIMA models is ARIMA
 163 (p, d, q) , p and q are the number of Auto-Regressive parameters and the number of moving-
 164 average parameters, respectively (Kabir et al., 2018). d stands that the number of differencing
 165 passes (Bhardwaj, Chandrasekhar, Padiyar, & Gadre, 2020). The equation of the ARIMA model
 166 for a non-seasonal time series model as:

$$y_t = c + \phi_1 y_{d(t-1)} + \phi_p y_{d(t-p)} + \dots + \theta_1 e_{t-1} + \theta_q e_{t-q} + e_t \quad (1)$$

167 Where y_t is groundwater fluctuations value at time t . y_d means y differenced d times. e_t is the
 168 error of the model as a mixture of the previous error. ϕ_k, θ_k are the Auto-Regressive and moving
 169 average constant coefficients of the model at lag k .

170 Due to the uncertainty of the number of parameters identified for the Auto-Regressive Integrated
 171 Moving Average (ARIMA) model, information criterion methods such as Akaike (1987)

172 Information Criterion (AIC), Bayesian (Gideon, 1978) Information Criterion (BIC), and Hannan
173 and Quinn (1979) Information Criterion (HQIC) can be used to estimate the optimal number of
174 parameters. After determining the required number of parameters of the model, the model should
175 be evaluated using these values. Some unique statistical methods, such as Maximum Likelihood,
176 can be used to determine the model. The assessed demonstrate at this step ought to have the most
177 reduced mistake rate than the real proof.

178 The validity of the developed model must be confirmed in the last phase of the model
179 construction. The fit of the developed model should be checked with time series data. In
180 addition, future forecast values should be close to the actual values. A simplified approach to
181 verify the minimum number of model parameters needed to represent the observation data is to
182 check the residuals' mutual noncorrelation. In the case of residual correlation, the number of
183 model parameters must be increased. The residual diagnostic methods are appropriate to verify
184 this correlation. Residual diagnostics includes statistical calculations of the autocorrelation of
185 residuals. The correlogram of residuals is assessed for checking the mutual correlation of
186 residuals. Spikes in the correlogram signs that the residuals may be correlated, which the model
187 created is not satisfactory.

188 **2.2.2 Holt-Winters Exponential Smoothing (HWES)**

189 The Exponential Smoothing approach is especially suitable for short-term forecasting. In this
190 method, weight factors are used for the past values, and the weight factors are reduced in the
191 form of a view with a distance from the previous values of the time series (Bowerman &
192 O'Connell, 1993). This approach makes possible formula of the prediction algorithm that
193 requires only a few recent data with fewer calculations (Holt, 2004).

194 The smoothed series y_t is given by:

$$y_{t+k} = a + bk \quad (2)$$

195 a is the permanent component, and b is the trend. The following recursions characterize these
196 two coefficients:

$$a(t) = \alpha y_t + (1 - \alpha)(a(t-1) + b(t-1)) \quad (3)$$

$$b(t) = \beta(a(t) - a(t-1)) + 1 - \beta b(t-1) \quad (4)$$

197 Where α and β are damping factors fluctuating between 0 and 1 depending on the specific time
198 series characteristics. Time series patterns and smoothing objectives can affect the optimal value
199 of these parameters. α values between 0.1 and 0.3 are more commonly used because they rely on
200 many last observations to predict. Values close to 1 are seldom used because they make
201 predictions that depend on recent data. For example, $\alpha = 1$ shows the forecast is equal to recent
202 observations.

203 2.2.3 Forecast Combining

204 There are several ways to predict the time series, but choosing the best method is difficult.
205 Besides, each of the available techniques offers different predictive results, which after
206 comparing the results, the best model is selected based on the professional experience of the
207 user. These models and forecasting, in addition to different fundamental assumptions, also use
208 additional information. Traditionally, an individual prediction was chosen with the least error.
209 Various studies have shown that forecast combining has a more precise result than selecting the

210 best forecast. Timmermann (2006) presents an overview of such studies, citing Clemen (1989)
211 and Makridakis and Hibon (2000) specifically.

212 Forecast combining can be combining multiple forecasts into one forecast. The forecast
213 combining method is based on forecast evaluation and model selection techniques. To choose the
214 most practical forecasting, the acceptability of each forecasting must be measured. Instead of
215 identifying the best forecasting, the feature of all predictions can be used by generating
216 weighting coefficients. Combined forecasting methods regularly utilize a simple weighted
217 average calculation. The cross-forecast average with various predictions assigned different
218 weights is computed. Different weights are used to determine complex weight schemes during
219 the forecast period. The following is a list of commonly used methods that use constant weights
220 through time:

221 **Simple mean:** In this method, the arithmetic mean of forecasts at each observation within the
222 forecast sample is calculated. During this method, every forecast is given an identical weight.

223 **Simple median:** The median of the prediction at each observation within the prediction sample
224 will be estimated for the simple median method. The implicit (0, 1) weights are time-varying as
225 every forecasting method is also the median for a few observations.

226 **Least-squares weights:** To use this method, the actual values of the forecasted variable for a
227 few of the forecast periods must be identified. This method is calculated by regressing the
228 forecasts against particular values and using regression coefficients as weights. In the least-
229 squares method, the underlying individual forecasts can be unbiased, and also the resulting
230 average can be outside the scope of the underlying forecasts.

231 **Mean squares error weights:** Mean squares error (MSE) weighting during the forecast period
 232 compares the actual values with the individual forecasts (Stock & Watson, 2002). After
 233 computing each forecast, individual forecast weights are formed using the following equation.

$$w_i = \frac{\frac{1}{MSE_i^k}}{\sum_{j=1}^N \frac{1}{MSE_j^k}} \quad (5)$$

234 k is employed to change the MSE to different powers. The most comprehensive power for k is 1.

235 **MSE ranks:** This method estimates the mean squares error of every forecast, then ranks them
 236 and finally calculates the ratio of the inverse of the ranks (Aiolfi, Capistran, & Timmermann,
 237 2010). The weight of forecasting is obtained by dividing its rank by the sum of all forecast ranks.

238 **Smoothed AIC weights:** This method applies the Akaike (1987) information criterion from the
 239 developed model that created each forecast. The weight of forecasting calculates from the
 240 following equation:

$$w_i = \frac{\exp(-0.5 AIC_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^N \exp(-0.5 AIC_j)} \quad (6)$$

241 **Approximate Bayesian model averaging weights:** Bayesian model averaging (BMA) weights
 242 use the Bayesian information criterion from the developed model that produced every forecast or
 243 the first estimation, then the weight of forecasting calculates from the following equation:

$$w_i = \frac{\exp(-0.5 BIC_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^N \exp(-0.5 BIC_j)} \quad (7)$$

244 2.2.4 Forecast Evaluation Statistics

245 To describe the error related to the model output, various statistical measures can be used to
 246 compare the effectiveness of the developed models. The performance of the trained model is
 247 compared in terms of statistical measurement of precision. During this research, the Root Mean
 248 Squared Error (RMSE), the Mean Absolute Error (MAE), the Mean Absolute Percentage Error
 249 (MAPE), and Theil Inequality Coefficient are taken under consideration to check the efficiency
 250 of the models as predictive tools. RMSE and MAE are a measure of the quality deviation of the
 251 residuals.

252 Supposes, the forecast sample is $j = T+1, T+2, \dots, T+h$, and in period t , y_t and \hat{y}_t denote the
 253 particular and forecasted groundwater fluctuations, respectively. Forecast evaluation is
 254 calculated from the following equations:

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\sum_{t=T+1}^{T+h} \frac{(\hat{y}_t - y_t)^2}{h}} \quad (8)$$

$$MAE = \sum_{t=T+1}^{T+h} \frac{|\hat{y}_t - y_t|}{h} \quad (9)$$

$$MAPE = 100 \sum_{t=T+1}^{T+h} \frac{\frac{|\hat{y}_t - y_t|}{y_t}}{h} \quad (10)$$

$$Theil\ Inequality\ Coefficient = \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{t=T+1}^{T+h} \frac{(\hat{y}_t - y_t)^2}{h}}}{\sqrt{\sum_{t=T+1}^{T+h} \frac{\hat{y}_t^2}{h} + \sum_{t=T+1}^{T+h} \frac{y_t^2}{h}}} \quad (11)$$

255 h is the total amount of data within the sequence. The developed model performs better with
 256 smaller RMSE and MAE, MAPE, and Theil Inequality Coefficient values (Zanotti et al., 2019).
 257 To evaluate the models' performance, different performance criteria can be used, as different
 258 criteria, with emphasis on different aspects of the model's predictive power, examine the

259 performance of the model (Maier, Jain, Dandy, & Sudheer, 2010). In this research, the Akaike
 260 Information Criterion (AIC), Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC), and Hannan and Quinn
 261 Information Criterion (HQIC) are calculated:

$$AIC = n \log \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{n} \right) + 2p \quad (12)$$

$$BIC = n \log \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{n} \right) + p \ln(n) \quad (13)$$

$$HQIC = n \log \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{n} \right) + 2p \ln(\ln(n)) \quad (14)$$

262 y_i is the i -th target value of groundwater fluctuations, \hat{y}_i is that the i -th groundwater fluctuations
 263 value estimated by the developed model, and n is that the total amount of data within the
 264 sequence. The scalar p is the number of parameters of the developed model that are estimated
 265 during the training. Regarding the existence of two suitable models with acceptable residues, one
 266 of them, which has a lower information criterion, is selected because it is better. In addition to
 267 measuring model error, information criteria also consider model complexity. Therefore, they
 268 need the potential to end in more parsimonious models (Maier et al., 2010).

269 To settle on the most straightforward model from the prevailing predictions, it means which
 270 model has better predictor precision. The simple approach is to choose the forecast that has the
 271 smaller error measurement supported one in every of the error measurements described in
 272 forecasting errors. The Diebold and Mariano (2002) test is used to check the precision of several
 273 competing predictions. For one-step-ahead prediction, the test statistic is computed as:

$$S = \frac{\bar{d}}{s_d} \quad (15)$$

274 Where

$$d = L_1 - L_2 \quad (16)$$

275 And L_i , $i=1,2$ is either an absolute or squared difference between the forecast and also the
276 actual,

$$L_i = |\hat{y}_i - y| \quad (17)$$

277 Or

$$L_i = (\hat{y}_i - y)^2 \quad (18)$$

278 where \bar{d} and s_d are the mean and sample standard deviation of d .

279 A combination test or Forecast Encompassing Test is used to test whether the average or
280 combination of predictions performed is better than the individual predictions (Chong and
281 Hendry (1986) and refined by Timmermann (2006)). This test combines several forecasting into
282 single forecasting. In this test, if a forecast includes all information contained within the other
283 individual forecasts, that forecast will be even as good as a combination of all of the forecasts.
284 By performing regression of the model, a test of this hypothesis is performed:

$$Y_{t+h} - \hat{Y}_{t+h,i} = \beta_0 + \sum_{j \neq i}^N \beta_j \hat{Y}_{t+h,j} \quad (19)$$

285 For forecast i , during the forecast period, Y_{t+h} is the vector of actual values, and during the
286 identical period, $\hat{Y}_{t+h,i}$ is the vector of forecast values. A test for whether forecast i contains all

the information of the other forecasts is also performed by testing whether $\beta_j=0, \forall (j \neq i)$; if the difference between the actuality values and, therefore, the forecasted values from forecast i are not associated with the forecasts from all other developed models, then forecast i are often used individually. If the differences are laid low with the different forecasts, then the recent forecasts should be contained within the formation of a composite forecast.

In this research, to predict the time series using the Box and Jenkins approach, the groundwater fluctuations data was first de-trended using the method introduced by Cleveland (1979). Then the optimal model for Auto-Regressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA) modeling is identified, and the groundwater fluctuations for the future are predicted using it. Using the Holt-Winters Exponential Smoothing model, the groundwater fluctuations are forecasted, and the error of different methods is calculated. To benefit from the desirable features of each of these predictions, the candidate models are combined, and the combined models are evaluated. All models and evaluations in the Eviews software package are provided.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Auto-Regressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA) model

To stationarity the time series, using the Box and Jenkins approach and the Auto-Regressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA) model, time series trends must be identified and eliminated. To study groundwater fluctuations trend around the study area of the available six piezometer data, piezometer records No. 2 located in the western part of Pit Mining from 22-Nov-2018 to 29-Jul-2019 were examined. The statistical explanation of the groundwater fluctuations is shown in Table 1.

Table 1

In visual inspection, the line fitted to groundwater data using the nearest neighbor fit method indicates that the trend of the time series is decreasing and non-seasonal. The declining time series shows the groundwater withdrawal by pumping wells around the mine pit (Figure 3). In the first 90 days, the average groundwater fluctuations are about 1613.85 meters above sea level because the pumping wells around the mine pit have been more active. During 90 to 160 days, the average groundwater fluctuations are about 1611.95 meters above sea level, which indicates less activity of pumping wells. In the last 90 days, again, with more pumping activity, the average groundwater fluctuations are about 1611.06 meters above sea level.

Fig. 3. The fitted line to groundwater fluctuations.

After identifying the trend to remove it, the logarithm and the first difference is taken from the time series. A value close to 1 for the p-value in the Mann-Kendall test indicates eliminating trends in groundwater fluctuations time series data. After removing the trend, the information criterion was used to identify the orders in the Box and Jenkins approach. Figure 4 shows the results of the top 20 Auto-Regressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA) models for different orders, using Akaike information criteria, Bayesian information criteria, and Hannan and Quinn information criteria. For Akaike Information Criterion (AIC), Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC), and Hannan and Quinn Information Criterion (HQIC) ARIMA models (6,1,3), (1,1,1), and (1,1,1) are suitable candidates for modeling, respectively. According to the simple parsimony, the ARIMA model (1,1,1) has been used for modeling and prediction.

Fig. 4. AIC, BIC, and HQIC values for the top 20 models to estimate the model orders.

330 In the modeling phase using the Box and Jenkins approach, using the candidate model, out of
331 250 daily data of groundwater fluctuations available, 200 samples were modeled using the
332 maximum likelihood method. The fitted model and the residual value for the estimated model are
333 shown in Figure 5. Given that most of the remaining value is in the confidence range, as well as
334 the average close to zero ($-6.05E-13$), it can be concluded that for the developed model, the
335 pattern is well identified, and a passable estimate has been made for it.

336 **Fig. 5.** Actual, fitted, and residual graphs for the first difference ARIMA model.

337 In the evaluation phase of the estimated model using the Box and Jenkins approach, partial
338 autocorrelation function (PACF) and autocorrelation function (ACF) of the theoretical residues
339 (red) and the estimated model (blue) compares for 24 lags (Figure 6). According to the LJUNG
340 and BOX (1978) statistics, the model does not have a linear dependence. The serial correlation is
341 well captured, which indicates an acceptable estimate for the estimated model.

342 **Fig. 6.** ACF and PACF of the theoretical residues and the estimated model.

343 The next step is to static forecast the groundwater fluctuations for the next 50 days using the
344 estimated Auto-Regressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA) model. The prediction
345 accuracy of the time series is shown in Table 1, which indicates a low error. The prediction made
346 by the ARIMA method indicates a decrease in the groundwater fluctuations in the next 50 days.
347 Groundwater fluctuations decreased sharply between 6 Jul-2019 and 13-Jul-2019, indicating
348 more pumping activity. In the period from 14-Jul-2019 to 29-Jul-2019, the slope of the
349 groundwater reduction chart has reduced. On the last day of the forecast, the groundwater
350 fluctuations are estimated at 1607.64 meters, which differs from the actual value of 1607.46 by
351 about 0.18 meters.

3.2 Exponential Smoothing Model

In order to predict the time series of groundwater fluctuations, the Holt-Winters parameters for $\alpha = 0.96$, $\beta = 0.33$ and $\gamma = 0$ are estimated. α Nearly one indicates that groundwater fluctuations forecasting is commonly based on recent values in the time series. A value of 0.33 for β demonstrates linearity, and a value of 0 for γ shows that the time series is non-seasonal. The average amount of groundwater fluctuations and the trend for modeling are 1611.57 and -0.04, respectively. Figure 7 shows the estimated model using the Holt-Winters Exponential Smoothing (HWES) method with its residuals. Most of the estimated residuals of the time series are in the confidence range, and close to zero ($-9.83\text{E-}13$) indicates that the model is acceptable.

Fig. 7. Actual, fitted, and residual graphs for Holt-Winters Exponential Smoothing model.

In the predicted model using Holt-Winters Exponential Smoothing (HWES), the groundwater fluctuations have decreased, and the accuracy of the forecast for this model is shown in Table 2. The lower the calculated error value, the better the ability to predict the developed model according to that criterion. The values of these statistics were 0.107297 and 0.069369 for RMSE(m) and MAE(m), respectively, indicating there was some minor underestimation of the observed groundwater fluctuations. Theil inequality coefficient and the Mean Absolute Percent Error (MAPE) are scale invariants. The Theil inequality coefficient lies between 0 and 1, where 0 indicates a perfect fit. A low value of MAPE (here 0.004311 %) and the Theil inequality coefficient (here $3.33\text{E-}05$) is considered a good indicator. In the forecast made by the Holt-Winters Exponential Smoothing (HWES) method, the groundwater fluctuations on 29-Jul-2019 are estimated at 1607.62 meters, which differs from the real value of 1607.46 by about 0.16 meters.

Table 2

Forecast evaluation for nine forecasts applied on groundwater fluctuations data in Gohar Zamin Iron Ore Mine

3.3 Combined Forecast

To evaluate the accuracy of the two predictions Holt-Winters Exponential Smoothing (HWES) and Auto-Regressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA), the Diebold and Mariano test was used, which for absolute and squared error, the p-value is 0.21 and 0.72, respectively. The p-value above 5% of the null hypothesis is accepted and indicates that the two predictions have the same accuracy. Since the forecasts made by ARIMA and HWES models have the same efficiency and each has its desired characteristics, to capture and cover all the forecasting features, combining two forecasts has been used in different methods. The Encompassing test, introduced by Chong and Hendry (1986) and refined by Timmermann (2006), was used to test whether the prediction combination performed better than individual forecasts. The p-value of about 0.66 for ARIMA prediction indicates a higher accuracy of this method than HWES.

To combine the predictions, 250 available data, 200 data for training, and 50 data for evaluation were used. The evaluation results of the composition of the predictions made by different methods are shown in Table 2. The results show the highest accuracy related to the least-squares combination method. Table 3 calculates the weights obtained to combine the Holt-Winters Exponential Smoothing (HWES) and Auto-Regressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA) predictions.

Table 3

The weights obtained to combine the predictions of the ARIMA and HWES models

Figure 8 shows a forecast comparison graph for the actual mounting of groundwater fluctuations, Holt-Winters Exponential Smoothing (HWES), and Auto-Regressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA) forecasts, as well as different methods of combining forecasts. The predictions show the high accuracy of the ARIMA method compared to the HWES method and the least-squares method in combining models.

Fig. 8 Time series forecast by actual groundwater fluctuations, ARIMA, HWES, and combined forecast.

4. conclusion

Groundwater fluctuations for mines can be forecasted by short-term analysis that shows the impact of groundwater recharging and harvesting from water storage in an aquifer. The records of piezometer No. 2 in the western part of Gohar Zamin Iron Ore Mine were reviewed from 22-Nov-2018 to 29-Jul-2019 to study groundwater fluctuations. In this research, the predictive ability of Holt-Winters Exponential Smoothing (HWES) and non-seasonal Auto-Regressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA) models at the time series of daily groundwater fluctuations around the Gohar Zamin Iron Ore Mine pit was compared.

Since each prediction has its characteristics, this research showed that combining predictions made with different methods has better results than individual predictions. Diebold and Mariano's test with a p-value above 5% indicates a similar accuracy of the two predictive methods. An encompassing test with a p-value of about 0.66 for Auto-Regressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA) prediction indicates a higher efficiency of this method than Holt-Winters Exponential Smoothing (HWES) in short-term predictions. Also, the results of the prediction combination show a higher accuracy of the least-squares combination method than other prediction methods. Forecasts made by simulation of time series indicated that if the

current situation is still around the pit, it is predicted that the groundwater fluctuations will decrease, indicating the activity of pumping wells around the pit. Due to the acceptable results of the prediction combination, which shows the high accuracy of this method, it is recommended to predict the short-term time series.

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