

Innovative Hyperspectral Data Fusion for Enhanced Mineral Prospectivity Mapping

Roberto De La Rosa¹^a, Michael Steffen¹, Ina Storch¹, Andreas Knobloch¹^b,
Joana Cardoso-Fernandes², Morgana Carvalho², Mercedes Suárez Barrios³,
Juan Morales Sánchez-Migallón³, Petri Nygren⁴, Vaughan Williams⁵^c and Ana Cláudia Teodoro²^d

¹Beak Consultants GmbH, 09599 Freiberg, Germany

²Institute of Earth Sciences (ICT), Department of Geosciences, Environment and Land Planning, Faculty of Sciences,
University of Porto, 4169-007 Porto, Portugal

³Department of Geology, University of Salamanca, 37008 Salamanca, Spain

⁴Spectral Mapping Services SMAPS Oy, 20320 Turku, Finland

⁵Aurum Exploration Ltd, A82 HK12 Kells, Ireland

Keywords: Exploration, CRM Mapping, Hyperspectral Data, Mineral Prospectivity Mapping, Deep Learning, Bayesian Neural Networks, Self-Organizing Maps.

Abstract: To meet the European Union's growing demand for critical raw materials in the transition to green energy, this study presents a novel, cost-effective, and non-invasive methodology for mineral prospectivity mapping. By integrating hyperspectral data from satellite, airborne, and ground-based sources with deep learning techniques, we enhance mineral exploration efficiency. We employ Bayesian Neural Networks (BNNs) to predict mineral prospective areas while providing uncertainty estimates, improving decision-making. To address the challenge of obtaining reliable negative labels for supervised learning, Self-Organizing Maps (SOMs) are used for unsupervised clustering, identifying barren areas through co-registration with known mineral occurrences. We illustrate this approach in the Aramo Unit in Spain, a geologically complex region with Cu-Co-Ni mineralized veins. Our workflow integrates local geology, mineralogy, geochemistry, and structural data with hyperspectral data from PRISMA, airborne Specim AisaFenix, LiDAR and ground-based spectroradiometry. By leveraging learning techniques and high-resolution remote sensing, we accelerate exploration, reduce costs, and minimize environmental impact. This methodology supports the EU's S34I project by delivering high-value, unbiased datasets and promoting sustainable, cutting-edge mineral exploration technologies.

1 INTRODUCTION

The increasing global demand for critical raw materials (CRMs) necessary for renewable energy technologies, consumer electronics, electric vehicles and defence has intensified the urgency of developing efficient, sustainable, and innovative mineral exploration methods. The European Union (EU), in its transition toward green energy, faces significant challenges due to limited domestic production of

CRMs, necessitating reliance on imports. This dependence introduces risks related to supply chain disruptions and geopolitical instability. To address this challenge, the EU has launched several initiatives to promote the sustainable and responsible sourcing of CRMs, including the Secure and Sustainable Supply of Raw Materials for EU Industry (S34I) project. This project aims to develop new technologies and approaches for mineral exploration, extraction, and processing that minimize

^a <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3004-7104>

^b <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7515-001X>

^c <https://orcid.org/0009-0001-4332-2187>

^d <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8043-6431>

environmental impact and maximize resource efficiency.

Mineral prospectivity mapping (MPM) is a critical tool in addressing these challenges. MPM traditionally uses geographic information systems (GIS) to integrate diverse datasets as geological, geophysical, geochemical, and remote sensing to highlight areas with high mineralization potential. Traditional exploration techniques, while effective, often involve significant time, expense, and environmental disruption. Recent advancements in technology have revolutionized MPM, leveraging the power of GIS platforms, machine learning (ML), and artificial intelligence (AI) to improve the accuracy, efficiency, and sustainability of mineral exploration (Carranza & Hale, 2001, Carranza 2008, Nykänen *et al.*, 2017, 2023, Yousefi *et al.*, 2021, 2024 & Zhang *et al.*, 2022).

MPM approaches are generally categorized into knowledge-driven, data-driven (Yousefi & Nykänen, 2016, Torppa *et al.*, 2019, Lawley *et al.*, 2022 & Nagasingha *et al.*, 2024), and hybrid methods. Knowledge-driven techniques rely on expert interpretations of geological formations, making them particularly suitable for "greenfield" exploration regions with few known deposits. In contrast, data-driven methods empirically model relationships between explanatory variables and mineral occurrences, often applying ML techniques to established mining areas or "brownfield" regions. Hybrid approaches combine these methodologies, leveraging data-driven insights to enhance expert-driven interpretations. Deep learning models, particularly Bayesian Neural Networks (BNNs), have demonstrated exceptional capabilities in extracting complex patterns and relationships within large, multidimensional datasets, improving predictive accuracy and uncertainty quantification (Mao *et al.*, 2023 and Jordão *et al.*, 2023).

Despite these advancements, key challenges remain. One of the most significant is the scarcity and imbalance of labelled data, where known mineral deposits or mineralized samples (positive samples used as training points) are scarce and rare compared to the amount of data available, which is effectively unknown in terms of a positive or negative binary classification for a CRM mapping. Traditionally, the unknown areas are considered barren regions from where the negative samples are randomly selected. Another traditional option is an expert driven negative sampling that requires extensive geological expertise, a good understanding of the study area and a vast knowledge of the parameters driving the mineralization event, which is not always available, possible or extremely expensive and time-consuming,

leading inevitably to an imbalance positive-negative training samples. This imbalance can lead to biased models and unreliable predictions (Mao *et al.*, 2023). Addressing this issue, our research introduces a novel data-driven approach to negative sampling selection by leveraging Self-Organizing Maps (SOMs). Instead of relying on arbitrary or expert-defined barren regions, we co-register SOM clusters with known mineral occurrences to identify geologically representative negative samples. This ensures that the training dataset accurately reflects the true background variability of the study area, leading to improved model robustness and generalization.

The integration of BNNs into our methodology provides another key innovation by incorporating uncertainty quantification into mineral prospectivity predictions. Unlike conventional neural networks that yield deterministic outputs, BNNs estimate probability distributions over model parameters, allowing them to quantify prediction uncertainty (Jordão *et al.*, 2023). This uncertainty information is particularly valuable for mineral exploration, as it enables risk-aware decision-making and strategic resource allocation (Lauzon & Gloaguen 2024 & Zhang *et al.*, 2024). Exploration efforts are prioritized in areas with high predictive confidence while regions with significant uncertainty can be flagged for further investigation. By embedding uncertainty quantification within the model, our approach enhances the interpretability and transparency of the mineral prospectivity mapping process, reducing the risk of false positives and missed discoveries.

Furthermore, our methodology offers several practical advantages over traditional exploration techniques. The non-invasive nature of hyperspectral remote sensing significantly reduces environmental impact by minimizing the need for extensive ground surveys. This is particularly beneficial for ecologically sensitive or remote regions where physical access is limited. The high spectral resolution of hyperspectral imaging allows for the precise identification of mineral signatures, capturing subtle spectral features that traditional methods may overlook. Additionally, by automating feature extraction, classification and post-processing of the data, we reduce the need for extensive manual interpretation, thereby increasing efficiency and cost-effectiveness.

By aligning with the objectives of the S34I project, our research contributes to the development of sustainable and technologically advanced mineral exploration methodologies. The integration of multi-scale hyperspectral remote sensing, SOM-driven negative sampling, and BNN-based prospectivity mapping and uncertainty quantification represents a

transformative step forward in mineral prospectivity mapping. As hyperspectral imaging technology continues to advance and larger, higher-quality datasets become available, the predictive accuracy and effectiveness of this approach will further improve. Additionally, continued innovations in machine learning architectures, Bayesian inference, and self-supervised learning will enhance the capabilities of this methodology, making it an increasingly powerful tool for mineral exploration.

Our proposed approach represents a significant advancement in mineral exploration by providing a scientifically rigorous, scalable, and environmentally responsible method for identifying potential mineral deposits. By addressing key challenges such as negative sampling bias and uncertainty estimation, we offer a robust framework that improves predictive reliability and supports informed decision-making in exploration projects. The integration of multi-scale hyperspectral data, SOM-based negative sampling, and deep learning via Bayesian Neural Networks not only enhances the accuracy and efficiency of mineral prospectivity mapping but also supports the broader transition toward sustainable resource management and a green energy future.

2 STUDY AREA & DATA

2.1 Geological Setting

The study area is the Aramo Unit, a thrust nappe within the Fold and Nappe Province of the Cantabrian Mountains in northern Spain (Figure 1). This region comprises a diverse sequence of Paleozoic sedimentary rocks, primarily from the Devonian and Carboniferous periods. The stratigraphic sequence includes Devonian shales, sandstones, and limestones, followed by Tournaisian-Visean grey and red nodular limestones. The Namurian succession is characterized by black, bituminous limestone, while the Bashkirian to Lower Moscovian sequence consists of shales interbedded with limestones and sandstones (Paniagua *et al.*, 1988, 1993). Structurally, the mineralization at the Aramo mine is controlled by the intersection of the E-W Aramo Fault and the Aramo Thrust front. The Aramo Fault is a major discontinuity traversing the Aramo Unit, while the Aramo Thrust front delineates the boundary between the Fold and Nappe Province and the Central Coal Basin. This structural interplay has induced extensive dolomitization and minor silicification in proximity to the orebody (Bruner & Smosna, 2000), Ordóñez *et al.*, 2005) and (Loredo & Ordóñez, 2008).

The Aramo mine hosts significant Cu-Co-Ni mineralization, occurring as mineralized veins with an average thickness of 25 cm. These veins are predominantly found within the Namurian limestone, situated along the thrust fault front. The deposit is epigenetic and carbonate-hosted, comprising Cu-Co-Ni sulfides and arsenides with minor precious metals (Paniagua *et al.*, 1988). The combination of structural controls and lithological characteristics has played a crucial role in the formation and localization of the mineralization.

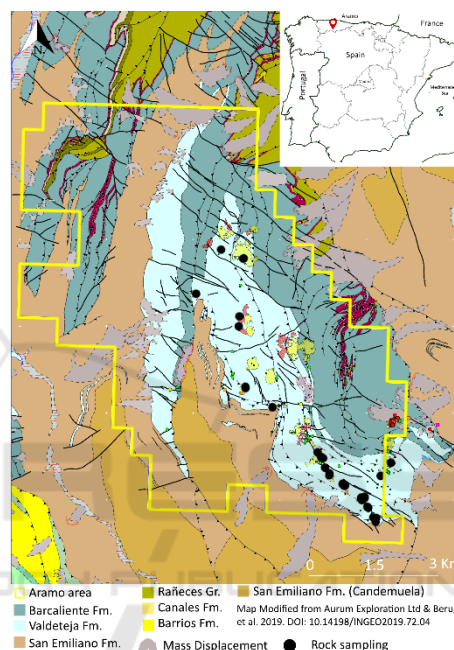


Figure 1: Geological and structural map of the study area. Modified from: Aurum Exploration Ltd & Bergua *et al.*, 2019.

2.2 Data Acquisition

A multi-scale approach to data acquisition was adopted for this study, integrating satellite, airborne, and ground-based measurements. Initially, multispectral and hyperspectral satellite data from Sentinel-2, Landsat-9 and PRISMA sensors were analyzed to delineate alteration zones and refine the definition of the main study area (Carvalho *et al.*, 2025). These delineated regions subsequently guided airborne data acquisition, ensuring targeted high-resolution imaging. Furthermore, the identified alteration areas informed and optimized ground-based sampling strategies for geochemical analysis and spectral validation, enhancing the overall effectiveness of the exploration process.

2.2.1 Hyperspectral & LiDAR Data

Regional hyperspectral data were acquired by the PRISMA satellite, providing broad coverage of the study area. This data was processed and analysed by the partners from the University of Porto and helped to the definition of alteration areas, the definition of the main study area, guided part of the ground-based sampling and furthermore an independent component analysis was performed (Carvalho *et al.*, 2025) which produced informative input layers for the machine learning models.

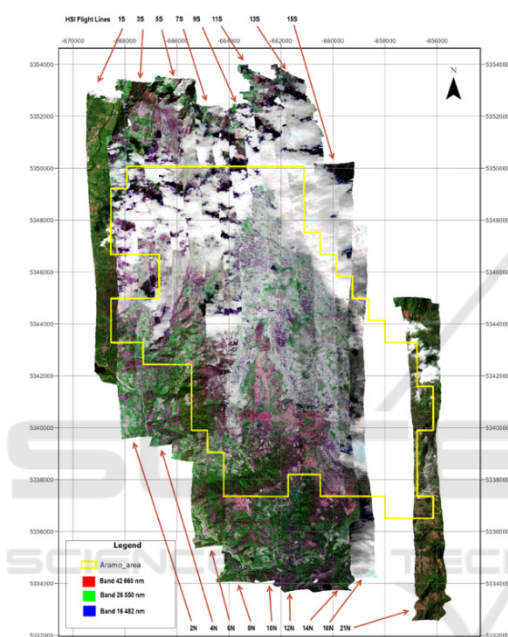


Figure 2: Airborne hyperspectral data flight lines.

High-resolution hyperspectral data were acquired using the Specim AisaFENIX sensor, flown on an airborne platform (Figure 2). This camera implements two sensors to cover the visible and near infrared (VNIR 380–1000 nm) and shortwave infrared (SWIR 1000–2500 nm) regions of the electromagnetic spectrum along 450 spectral bands. The acquisition and pre-processing of the data was performed by the partners from Smaps Oy. Due to persistent harsh weather conditions (typical of this region), it was not possible to fly all the planned lines, and this is the reason of the data gap at the east of the study area and the high percentage of cloud coverage. Unfortunately, this gap coincided with a prominent mineralization outcrop where most of the rock samples were located (Figure 1 and 2). The flight mission was on hold for more than one year waiting for the appropriated weather window. The pre-processing of the airborne

hyperspectral data was also performed by Smaps which consisted on the orthorectification and geometric correction, followed by the atmospheric correction performed with the ATCORE4 software resulting in reflectance data with ground sampling distance of approximately 1.2 meters per pixel.

The airborne LiDAR data was acquired in 2023 by the partners from Eurosense with the waveform processing Airborne Laser scanner Riegl VQ780 obtaining an average point density of 10pts/sqm and resulting in a digital elevation model (DEM) with 0.5m resolution per pixel (Figure 3).

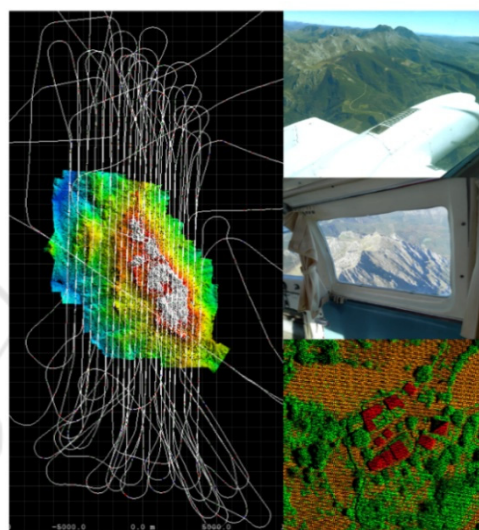


Figure 3: Airborne LiDAR flight lines and impressions on the acquisition (Image credit from Eurosense partners).

2.2.2 Ground-Based Techniques

The study area is currently being actively explored by Aurum Exploration Ltd., in collaboration with local partners from the Department of Geology at the University of Salamanca. Together, they have conducted multiple field campaigns for sample collection and analysis, as well as geological and structural mapping.

Field measurements were performed using an ASD portable spectroradiometer by the University of Salamanca to acquire high-quality point spectral signatures in the VNIR and SWIR regions of the electromagnetic spectrum. These measurements were taken from known mineral occurrences and background lithologies to build spectral libraries for spectral validation and the supervised processing of hyperspectral images.

Geological maps were used to extract the host Valdetejas Formation, and the distance to this unit was calculated and rasterized for use as an input

evidence layer in machine learning models. Additionally, the main fault structures were categorized into two groups based on their azimuth: E-W and N-S oriented faults. Finally, the distance to thrust front-related faults was calculated and incorporated as an input variable in the models.

Geochemical analyses were performed on the collected samples, and the results were used to select the samples that would serve as positive training points for the supervised machine learning methods. Specifically, samples with concentrations of Co > 0.05%, Cu > 0.4%, and Ni > 0.07% were selected, resulting in a dataset of 32 samples.

3 METHODOLOGY

The workflow of the proposed methodology is depicted in Figure 4. It begins with the acquisition of airborne hyperspectral data, which is already radiometrically calibrated and atmospherically corrected to reflectance. This data undergoes baseline correction and de-noising to produce corrected hyperspectral reflectance data. This corrected data is then processed using both unsupervised and supervised methods.

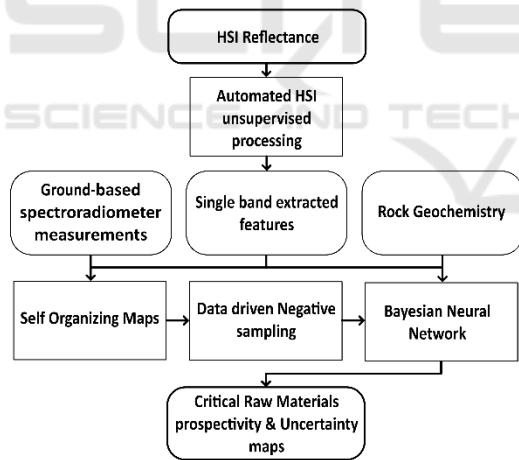


Figure 4: General workflow for hyperspectral data fusion with SOM and BNN for Mineral Prospectivity Mapping.

In the supervised processing stage, ground spectroradiometer measurements are used for spectral validation and rasterized maps containing the relevant features extracted from the unsupervised process, along with geochemical data, are integrated to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the spectral data. Additionally, the geological and structural data are also incorporated to evidence layers stack as single bands raster files. These diverse

data sources undergo spatial co-registration to ensure that the spatial and spectral information aligns correctly. The data fusion is performed within the application of the Bayesian Neural Network (BNN), which models the relationships within the fused data. This approach leverages the capabilities of BNNs in handling complex, high-dimensional data to predict mineral distributions with higher accuracy and reliability, ultimately producing a mineral prediction map and the uncertainty associated to it.

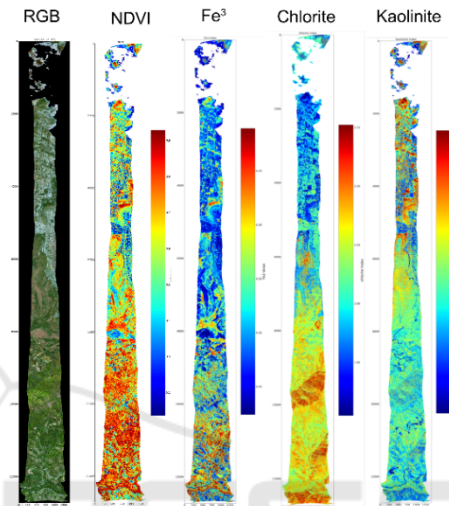


Figure 5: Indices from band ratios along flight lines.

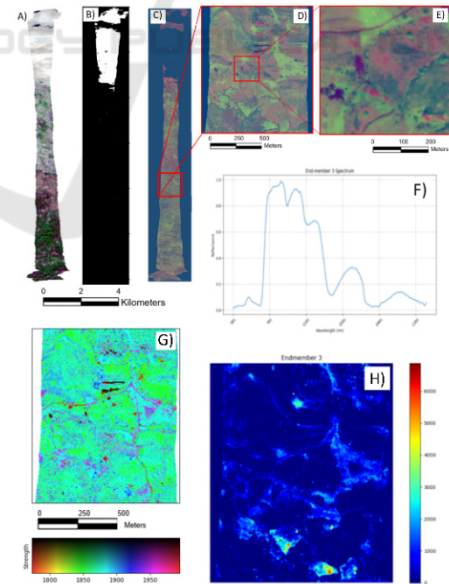


Figure 6: Automated unsupervised hyperspectral data processing output. A: RGB. B: Cloud mask, C: PCA, D: Zoom-in to panel C, E: Zoom-in to panel D, F: End-member spectra, G: Minimum Wavelength Map from 1780 to 1990 nm. H: SAM for end-member of panel F.

3.1 Automated Unsupervised Hyperspectral Data Processing

In the unsupervised processing stage, several techniques such as Minimum Wavelength maps, Spectral Angle Mapper, Band Ratios, Principal Component Analysis and N-member extraction are applied to extract meaningful features and patterns from the hyperspectral data (Figures 5 and 6). These processes facilitate the identification of potential mineralogical and geochemical signatures within the dataset. After data extraction, an automated process is applied to balance and normalize the products for each flight line, followed by the generation of the final mosaic raster layer (Figure 7). All the automated process is performed with an in-house and python-based develop methods thanks to the availability of publish methodologies for hyperspectral data processing (De La Rosa *et al.*, 2021, 2022) and open source tools such as Spy Spectral Python library, Mephysto (Jakob *et al.*, 2017) and Hylite (Thiele *et al.*, 2020).

3.2 Self-Organizing Maps (SOM)

Self-Organizing Maps (SOM) are an unsupervised neural network technique used to cluster input evidence layer data while preserving its topological structure. The training process relies on competitive learning, where neurons compete to represent different regions of the data space. Each neuron in the SOM is associated with a weight vector, and when an input vector is presented, the neuron with the closest weight vector, known as the best matching unit (BMU), is selected. The BMU and its neighboring neurons are subsequently updated to better match the input vector. Repeating this process across all input data results in a self-organized map where similar input vectors form distinct clusters, providing an intuitive representation of underlying patterns in the data (Kohonen 1990, 1997, 2001) and (Wittek *et al.*, 2017).

Visualization of SOM results facilitates cluster interpretation through various techniques such as color-coded maps and distance matrices, which highlight similarities among spectral signatures. To refine the clustering, k-means clustering is applied post-SOM computation. The iterative k-means algorithm randomly creates k centroids and assigns the data points to the nearest centroid. Then, it recalculates the centroids based on the mean of all points within a particular cluster and repeats this process until convergence. Multiple runs are performed across a user-defined range of cluster

numbers, with the best clustering results determined using the Davies-Bouldin index (David & Bouldin 1979). The three most optimal clustering outcomes are displayed in the user interface and stored for further analysis.

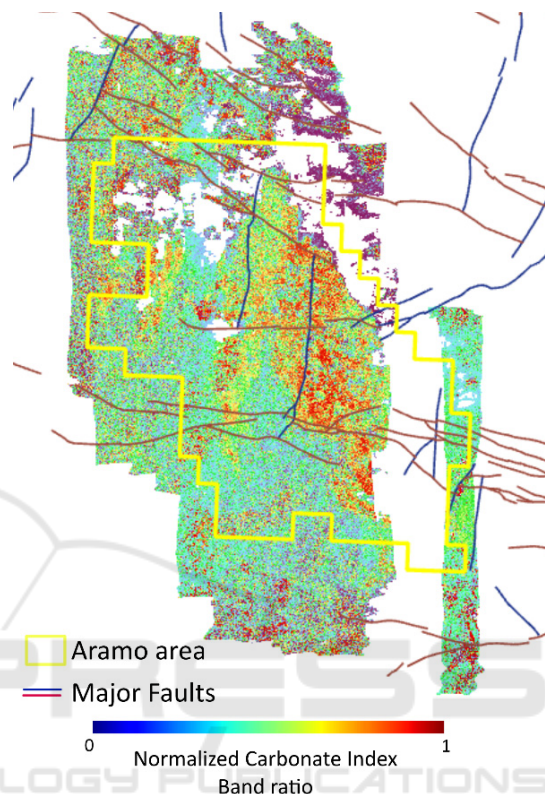


Figure 7: Automated mosaic raster layer for a Normalized Carbonate Index derived from band ratios.

SOM results are visualized in geospatial and SOM spaces (Figure 8). Furthermore, the results are plotted and categorized into SOM space results, geo-space results, boxplots and scatterplots. SOM space plots include heatmaps representing the value of each codebook vector element, the U-matrix showing differences between neighboring SOM cells, k-means clustering results, and data point distributions per SOM cell. Geospace visualizations present k-means clustering results, BMU codebook vectors, and quantization errors in a geographical context. Additionally, boxplots illustrate the distribution of SOM data parameters across k-means clusters, while scatterplots provide cross-plots of different parameters, enabling deeper insight into data relationships. This combination of SOM and k-means clustering offers a powerful tool for pattern recognition and mineral prospectivity analysis.

3.3 Bayesian Neural Networks (BNN)

Bayesian Neural Networks (BNNs) can be a class of deep learning models when implementing multi-layered network architecture. This Neural networks integrate Bayesian inference to predict mineral prospectivity while quantifying associated uncertainties. Unlike traditional artificial neural networks (ANNs), which provide deterministic point estimates (Rosenblatt, 1958), BNNs estimate a distribution over model parameters, enabling a rigorous assessment of uncertainty (Jordão *et al.*, 2023). This capability is particularly valuable in high-risk applications such as mineral exploration, where uncertainty estimation enhances decision-making. In this study, a BNN was trained using hyperspectral derived features layers, geological and structural derived input layers alongside positive samples derived from the geochemical analysis and negative labels derived from a random selection inside areas delimited by the self-organizing maps analysis.

The BNN represents the model weights and biases as probability distributions rather than fixed values and through Bayesian updating, these distributions are refined based on observed data, allowing the model to learn while maintaining an explicit quantification of uncertainty (Mao *et al.*, 2023). Variational inference is employed to approximate the posterior distribution over model parameters, facilitating efficient learning. The implementation of the BNN model is develop in house as a python-based tool and utilizes the TensorFlow Probability python library to construct, train, and evaluate BNN architectures.

The BNN model is still under development and continuous improvement. This model was developed in part through the Critical Mineral Assessments with AI support (Critical MAAS) project. This project is a collaboration between our company Beak Consultants GmbH, the United States Geological Survey (USGS) and the Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency (DARPA). The Critical MAAS project aims to accelerate critical mineral resource assessments through re-design, automation, and human-centered AI engineering. The work developed in the frame of the project is classified as fundamental research, and the code is open-source and available in the following GitHub repository: <https://github.com/DARPA-CRITICALMAAS/beak-ta3>.

Key Bayesian contributions in the code include the incorporation of prior knowledge through prior distributions, the application of variational inference for posterior approximation, and the estimation of predictive uncertainty.

3.4 Data-Driven Negative Sampling

To address the challenge of obtaining reliable negative labels for training the BNN, we employed a data-driven approach using the SOM outputs. By co-registering the SOM clusters with known mineral occurrences (positive labels), we identified areas likely to be barren (negative labels) for targeted sampling. This approach ensured that the negative labels used for training the BNN were representative of the true background variability in the study area.

4 RESULTS

4.1 Som Results

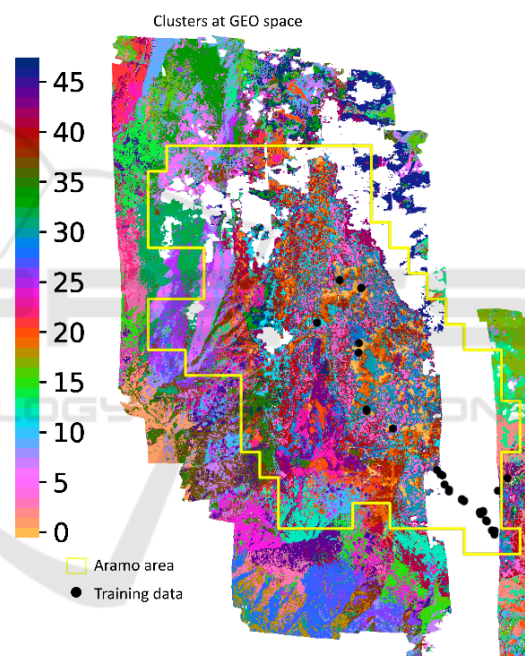


Figure 8: Unsupervised clustering results from SOM.

The SOM analysis successfully clustered the hyperspectral data, the geological and structural-based evidence layers into distinct groups highlighting areas with similar characteristics. By co-registering the SOM clusters with known mineral occurrences, we identified this clusters as ‘very likely’ to be areas showing characteristics that could be associated with the presence of mineralized samples and therefore, we exclude them and retain the rest of clusters that are identified (potentially) areas likely to be barren. These potentially barren clusters are the ones chosen for negative labels selection for training the BNN.

4.2 BNN Results

The BNN, trained with the hyperspectral features and the positive and negative labels, generated a mineral prospectivity map with associated uncertainty estimates. The map highlighted areas with high mineral potential, guiding future exploration efforts. In Figure 9 and 10, the warmer colors near orange and red represent the areas with the highest prospectivity, where the prospectivity values are close to one. The resulting mineral prospectivity maps can be interpreted as follows: areas with values greater than 0.5 are the most prospective. These are the areas where mineralization is most likely to be found. In this case, the mineralization of interest is the Cu-Co-Ni mineral association.

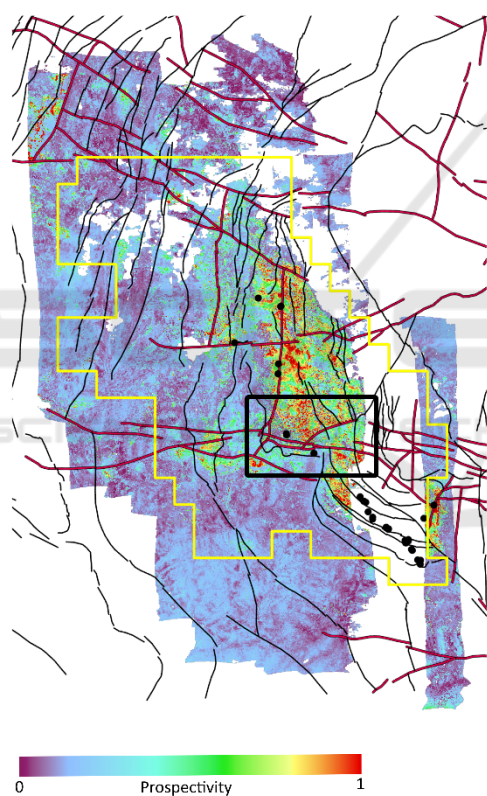


Figure 9: BNN prospectivity mapping results.

The results in Figure 9 and 10 also reveal an interesting pattern: many of the prospective areas are aligned with important structural features. These include sections of the E-W Aramo fault and spatial associations with lines representing the Aramo thrust

front. This association between prospective areas and structural features corroborates the geological understanding of the area, which suggests structural control over mineralization. However, due to the complex structural nature of the area, it is challenging to identify this association based solely on geological observation. These results can help guide future field efforts to validate these findings and improve our understanding of the factors controlling mineralization in the area. The uncertainty estimates provided a measure of confidence in the predictions, allowing for more informed decision-making.

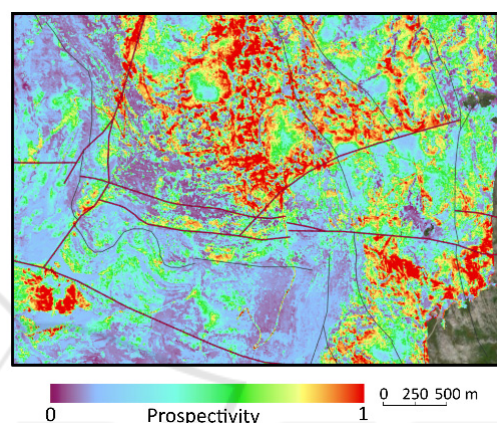


Figure 10: Zoom-in to BNN prospectivity mapping results.

5 DISCUSSION

Our research highlights the feasibility and advantages of integrating hyperspectral data from multiple sources with deep learning techniques for mineral prospectivity mapping. This approach surpasses traditional methods by offering a non-invasive, high-resolution, cost-effective, and highly accurate alternative for identifying potential mineral deposits. By leveraging remote sensing and machine learning, it minimizes environmental impact, reduces exploration costs, and enhances predictive reliability, making it particularly suitable for early-stage exploration and challenging terrains.

A key innovation in our methodology is the introduction of data-driven negative sampling, a critical step in training BNN models for mineral prospectivity mapping. Negative sampling is a well-known challenge in machine learning applications, as incorrectly labeled negative samples can significantly degrade model performance. Traditional methods often rely on random sampling or expert-defined barren areas, which may not adequately capture the true background variability. To overcome this, we

employed a systematic data-driven approach using Self-Organizing Maps (SOM) to generate reliable negative labels. By co-registering SOM clusters with known mineral occurrences (positive labels), we identified regions highly likely to be barren (negative labels). This ensured that the training data more accurately reflected the real geological variability of the study area, improving model robustness and reducing bias in mineral prospectivity predictions.

Another major contribution of our study is the use of Bayesian Neural Networks (BNNs) for predictive modeling and uncertainty quantification. Unlike conventional artificial neural networks (ANNs), which provide only point estimates, BNNs estimate a probability distribution over model parameters, allowing them to quantify the uncertainty in their predictions. This is particularly valuable in mineral exploration, where decision-making is inherently uncertain and high-risk. The Bayesian framework enables the estimation of uncertainty in model outputs (Figure 11), offering a confidence measure for each prospectivity prediction. This allows for more strategic resource allocation, as exploration efforts can be prioritized in areas with high predictive confidence while regions with high uncertainty can be flagged for further data acquisition. By integrating uncertainty quantification directly into the model, our approach provides a more transparent and interpretable decision-support system, reducing the risk of false positives and missed discoveries.

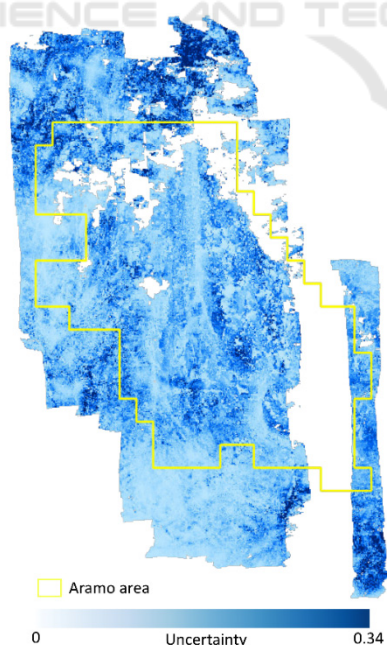


Figure 11: BNN Uncertainty associated to prospectivity mapping results.

Beyond its theoretical advantages, our approach offers several practical benefits over traditional methods. First, its non-invasive nature minimizes environmental impact by reducing reliance on intrusive ground surveys such as drilling and trenching. This is particularly important in ecologically sensitive or remote areas where physical access is limited. Second, the high-resolution spectral information from hyperspectral imaging, combined with the BNN and SOM, allows for the identification of subtle features, leading to more accurate and efficient exploration efforts. Third, the cost-effectiveness of our methodology is significant; by automating feature extraction, we reduce the need for extensive manual interpretation from the hyperspectral data, and the high prospective areas can guide a more targeted oriented surface exploration, cutting exploration costs substantially.

It is also important to highlight the significance of the quantity and quality of training samples, particularly the positive samples. Although the methodology presented here offers an improved solution as a method for data-driven negative sampling selection, the importance of positive samples cannot be overstated. The positive samples are the single input data that will most significantly affect the results of the BNN models. In real-world scenarios, the quantity and quality of samples are not always optimal, as exemplified by the Aramo study case presented in this publication. The very challenging climatic conditions characteristic of this area in Spain resulted in several flight lines of the planned airborne hyperspectral acquisition being not possible to fly (this is the major data gap observed in Figure 2, 7, 8 and 9). Unfortunately, this area coincides with the location exhibiting the clearest surface mineralization and where the majority of the samples intended for training points were located. As shown in Figure 8 and 9, most of the training data coincides with this gap. Furthermore, a significant percentage of the remaining acquired data was obscured by clouds, rendering the spectral information unusable and necessitating the development of an automatic algorithm to mask cloud-covered areas, further reducing the available data. Therefore, a dataset with greater spatial coverage and a larger number of training samples in areas with available data would greatly enhance the quality of the results.

In the context of the growing global demand for critical raw materials, this research contributes to the integration of multi-scale hyperspectral remote sensing with BNN and SOM presenting an innovative workflow for data fusion and prospectivity mapping

with uncertainty quantification aiming to improve mineral exploration, offering a scalable and data-driven solution. As hyperspectral imaging technology advances and more high-quality datasets become available, the accuracy and effectiveness of this method will continue to improve. Additionally, ongoing developments in deep learning architectures, Bayesian inference, and self-supervised learning will further enhance predictive capabilities and uncertainty quantification.

Our findings emphasize the importance of data-driven approaches in addressing key challenges in training data selection and model interpretability. The combination of SOM-based negative label generation and BNN-driven uncertainty estimation provides a novel framework for improving the reliability and confidence of mineral prospectivity predictions. This methodology not only enhances the accuracy of the models but also offers a structured approach to handling uncertainty, making it a powerful tool for risk-aware decision-making in exploration projects.

6 CONCLUSIONS

Our innovative workflow for mineral prospectivity mapping supports the objectives of the EU's S34I project by providing high-value, unbiased datasets and improving the perception of mining through the application of cutting-edge, sustainable exploration technologies.

In conclusion, this study represents an advancement in mineral exploration by providing a scientifically rigorous, scalable, and environmentally responsible approach to identifying potential mineral deposits. The integration of hyperspectral data, SOM-driven negative sampling, and Bayesian Neural Networks has proven to improve exploration strategies, supporting a sustainable and efficient pathway to securing critical raw materials for a green energy future.

In the Aramo study case, the mineral prospectivity maps reveal an interesting pattern, showing many prospective areas aligned along important structural features, including sections of the E-W Aramo fault and the Aramo thrust front. This alignment corroborates the area's geological understanding, which suggests that mineralization is in some degree structurally controlled. These results can guide future fieldwork to validate these findings and enhance our understanding of the factors controlling mineralization in the area.

The integration of advanced deep learning and remote sensing data not only accelerates the

exploration process but also significantly reduces costs and environmental impact. This approach has the potential to transform mineral exploration, supporting the sustainable and responsible sourcing of critical raw materials for the EU's green energy transition.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research has been done within the framework of the project S34I—Secure and sustainable supply of raw materials for EU industry—, coordinated by Ana C. Teodoro. This project has received funding from the European Union's HORIZON Research and Innovation. Grant Agreement No. 101091616 (<https://doi.org/10.3030/101091616>). Portuguese National Funds also support this work through the FCT – Fundação para a Ciência e a Tecnologia, I.P. (Portugal), projects UIDB/04683/2020 (<https://doi.org/10.54499/UIDB/04683/2020>) and UIDP/04683/2020 (<https://doi.org/10.54499/UIDP/04683/2020>).

REFERENCES

- Beato Bergua, S., Poblete Piedrabuena, M.A., & Marino Alfonso, J.L. (2019). Relieve estructural y karst en la Sierra del Aramo (Macizo Central Asturiano). *Investigaciones Geográficas*, (72), 75-99. <https://doi.org/10.14198/INGEO2019.72.04>.
- Bruner, K. R., & Smosna, R. (2000). Stratigraphic-tectonic relations in Spain's Cantabrian mountains: Fan delta meets carbonate shelf. *Journal of Sedimentary Research*, 70(6), 1302–1314.
- Carranza, E. J. M. (2008). Geochemical anomaly and mineral prospectivity mapping in GIS. In *Handbook of Exploration and Environmental Geochemistry* (Vol. 11). Elsevier.
- Carranza, E. J. M., & Hale, M. (2001). Logistic regression for constrained mapping of gold potential, Baguio district, Philippines. *Exploration and Mining Geology*, 10(3), 165–175.
- Carvalho, M.; Cardoso-Fernandes, J.; González, F.J.; Teodoro, A.C. Comparative Performance of Sentinel-2 and Landsat-9 Data for Raw Materials' Exploration Onshore and in Coastal Areas. *Remote Sens.* 2025, 17, 305. <https://doi.org/10.3390/rs17020305>.
- Davies, David L.; Bouldin, Donald W. (1979). "A Cluster Separation Measure". *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*. PAMI-1 (2): 224–227. doi:10.1109/TPAMI.1979.4766909.
- De La Rosa, R., Khodadadzadeh, M., Tusa, L., Kirsch, M., Gisbert, G., Tornos, F., Tolosana-Delgado, R., & Gloaguen, R. (2021). Mineral quantification at deposit

- scale using drill-core hyperspectral data: A case study in the Iberian Pyrite Belt. *Ore Geology Reviews*, 139 Pt B, 104514. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.oregeorev.2021.104514>.
- De La Rosa, R., Tolosana-Delgado, R., Kirsch, M., & Gloaguen, R. (2022). Automated multi-scale and multivariate geological logging from drill-core hyperspectral data. *Remote Sensing*, 14, 2676. <https://doi.org/10.3390/rs14112676>.
- Jakob, S., Zimmermann, R., Gloaguen, R., (2017). The need for accurate geometric and radiometric corrections of drone-borne hyperspectral data for mineral exploration: MEPHYSTo—a toolbox for pre-processing drone-borne hyperspectral data. *Remote Sensing*, 9(1), 88. <https://doi.org/10.3390/rs9010088>.
- Jordão, H., Sousa, A. J., & Soares, A. (2023). Using Bayesian neural networks for uncertainty assessment of ore type boundaries in complex geological models. *Natural Resources Research*, 32(6), 2495–2514. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11053-023-10265-6>.
- Kohonen, T. (1990). The Self-Organizing Map. *Proceedings of the IEEE*, 78(9), 1464–1480.
- Kohonen, T. (1997). Exploration of very large databases by Self-Organizing Maps. *Proceedings of the IEEE International Conference on Neural Networks*, 4, PL1-PL6.
- Kohonen T (2001). *Self-Organizing Maps*. Springer-Verlag. doi:10.1007/978-3-642-56927-2.
- Lauson, D., & Gloaguen, E. (2024). Quantifying uncertainty and improving prospectivity mapping in mineral belts using transfer learning and Random Forest: A case study of copper mineralization in the Superior Craton Province, Quebec, Canada. *Ore Geology Reviews*, 105918. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.oregeorev.2024.105918>.
- Lawley, C. J. M., McCafferty, A. E., Graham, G. E., Huston, D. L., Kelley, K. D., Czarnota, K., Paradis, S., Peter, J. M., Hayward, N., Barlow, M., Emsbo, P., Coyan, J., San Juan, C. A., & Gadd, M. G. (2022). Data-driven prospectivity modelling of sediment-hosted Zn–Pb mineral systems and their critical raw materials. *Ore Geology Reviews*, 141, 104635.
- Loredo, J., Álvarez, R., & Ordóñez, A. (2008). Mineralogy and geochemistry of the Texeo Cu-Co mine site (NW Spain): Screening tools for environmental assessment. *Environmental Geology*, 55(6), 1299–1310.
- Mao, X., Wang, J., Deng, H., Liu, Z., Chen, J., Wang, C., & Liu, J. (2023). Bayesian decomposition modelling: An interpretable nonlinear approach for mineral prospectivity mapping. *Mathematical Geosciences*, 55(5), 897–942. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11004-023-10067-9>.
- Nagasingha, L. M. A., Bérubé, C. L., & Lawley, C. J. M. (2024). A balanced mineral prospectivity model of Canadian magmatic Ni (+ Cu + Co + PGE) sulphide mineral systems using conditional variational autoencoders. *Ore Geology Reviews*, 175, 106329. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.oregeorev.2024.106329>.
- Nykänen, V., Niiranen, T., Molnár, F., Lahti, I., Korhonen, K., Cook, N., & Skyttä, P. (2017). Optimizing a knowledge-driven prospectivity model for gold deposits within Peräpohja Belt, Northern Finland. *Natural Resources Research*, 57, 571–584.
- Nykänen, V., Törmänen, T., & Niiranen, T. (2023). Cobalt prospectivity using a conceptual fuzzy logic overlay method enhanced with the mineral systems approach. *Natural Resources Research*, 1-29. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11053-023-10255-8>.
- Ordóñez, A., Álvarez, R., Bros, T., & Loredo, J. (2005). Consequences of abandoned Cu-Co mining in Northern Spain in surface watercourses. *Proceedings of the 9th International Mine Water Congress*, 611–617.
- Paniagua, A., Fontboté, L., Fenoll Hach-Alí, P., Fallick, A. E., Moreiras, D. B., & Corretgé, L. G. (1993). Tectonic setting, mineralogical characteristics, geochemical signatures and age dating of a new type of epithermal carbonate-hosted, precious metal-five element deposits: The Villamanín area (Cantabrian zone, Northern Spain). *Current Research in Geology Applied to Ore Deposits*, 531–534.
- Paniagua, A., Loredo, J., & García-Iglesias, J. (1988). Epithermal (Cu-Co-Ni) mineralization in the Aramo mine (Cantabrian mountains, Spain): Correlation between paragenetic and fluid inclusion data. *Bulletin de Minéralogie*, 111, 383–391.
- Rosenblatt, F. (1958). The perceptron: A probabilistic model for information storage and organization in the brain. *Psychological Review*, 65(6), 386–408.
- Thiele, S., Lorenz, S., Kirsch, M., Gloaguen, R., (2020). Hylite: a hyperspectral toolbox for open pit mapping. *EGU General Assembly 2020*, Online, 4–8 May 2020, p. 1. <https://doi.org/10.5194/egusphere-egu2020-13563>.
- Torppa, J., Nykänen, V., & Molnár, F. (2019). Unsupervised clustering and empirical fuzzy memberships for mineral prospectivity modelling. *Ore Geology Reviews*, 107, 58–71. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.oregeorev.2019.02.007>.
- Witte, P., Gao, S. C., Lim, I. S., & Zhao, L. (2017). somoclu: An efficient parallel library for self-organizing maps. *Journal of Statistical Software*, 78(9), 1–22. doi:10.18637/jss.v078.109.
- Yousefi, M., & Nykänen, V. (2016). Data-driven logistic-based weighting of geochemical and geological evidence layers in mineral prospectivity mapping. *Journal of Geochemical Exploration*, 164, 94–106.
- Yousefi, M., Carranza, E. J. M., Kreuzer, O. P., Nykänen, V., Hronsky, J. M., & Mihalasky, M. J. (2021). Data analysis methods for prospectivity modelling as applied to mineral exploration targeting: State-of-the-art and outlook. *Journal of Geochemical Exploration*, 229, 106839.
- Yousefi, M., Lindsay, M. D., & Kreuzer, O. (2024). Mitigating uncertainties in mineral exploration targeting: Majority voting and confidence index approaches in the context of an exploration information system (EIS). *Ore Geology Reviews*, 165, 105930. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.oregeorev.2024.105930>.
- Zhang, S. E., Lawley, C. J. M., Bourdeau, J. E., Nwaila, G. T., & Ghorbani, Y. (2024). Workflow-induced

uncertainty in data-driven mineral prospectivity mapping. *Natural Resources Research*, 1-26. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11053-024-10322-8>.

Zhang, Z., Wang, G., Carranza, E. J. M., Fan, J., Liu, X., Zhang, X., Dong, Y., Chang, X., & Sha, D. (2022). An integrated framework for data-driven mineral prospectivity mapping using bagging-based positive-unlabeled learning and Bayesian cost-sensitive logistic regression. *Natural Resources Research*, 31(6), 3041–3060. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11053-022-10120-0>.

