

# Rainfall Field Reconstruction by Opportunistic Use of the Rain-Induced Attenuation on Microwave Satellite Signals: The July 2021 Extreme Rain Event in Germany as a Case Study

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**Abstract**— This paper presents a practical application of an opportunistic technique for the estimation of rainfall intensity and accumulated precipitation. The proposed technique is based upon signal strength measurements made by commercial-grade interactive satellite terminals. By applying some processing, the rain-induced attenuation on the microwave downlink from the satellite is first evaluated; then the rain attenuation is eventually mapped into a rainfall rate estimate via a tropospheric model. This methodology has been applied to a test area of 30×30 km<sup>2</sup> around the city of Dortmund (North Rhine-Westphalia, upper basin of Ermscher river), for the heavy rain event that devastated western Germany in July, 2021. A rainfall map on this area is obtained from a set of satellite terminal deployed in the region, and successfully compared with a map obtained with a conventional weather radar.

**Keywords**— Rainfall rate estimation, satellite-to-ground links, signal of opportunity, rain fading.

## I. INTRODUCTION

Quantitative precipitation estimation can be obtained by several observing systems using different measurement principles that have different time and space resolutions, and accuracies [1]. For instance, rain gauges are point devices which can measure the accumulated rainfall (in mm) in a given amount of time and at a given location. Thus, maps of the cumulated rainfall can be obtained by resorting to networks of rain gauges, which are, however, usually characterized by a spatially inhomogeneous density. Disdrometers are other point-measurement instruments, but are still considered research devices and are less common than rain gauges. Concerning remote sensing devices, satellite sensors, though available on a global scale, suffer from scarce time and space resolution, whereas weather radars have a

higher temporal (from 5 to 10 minutes) and spatial resolution (less than 1 km, although not uniform). Note also that there are regions of the globe where networks of sensing devices (in some cases, including rain gauges) are not available.

In the last few decades, the opportunistic use of pre-existing microwave ( $\mu$ W) communication links has been investigated to retrieve precipitation estimates. The basic idea is to estimate rainfall intensity relying on the attenuation due to the presence of precipitation along the propagation path, which affects either terrestrial links (e.g., backhaul connections in cellular networks), or the downlink of direct-to-home (DTH) satellite broadcasting, at Ku-band (10–13 GHz). In particular, satellite-based opportunistic systems for rain monitoring [2], powered by dedicated algorithms [3, 4], turn out to be very appealing due to: *i*) the wide diffusion over the territory already-installed DTH satellite receivers which can, in principle, act as rain sensing devices, prospectively allowing for a considerable geographical capillarity, at least in densely populated areas; *ii*) the ease of installation of new terminals to obtain higher spatial density; and *iii*) the low cost of commercial-grade satellite receive equipment.

Opportunistic measurements of  $\mu$ W satellite downlink, suitably pre-processed via an ensemble Kalman filter (EnKF) methodology [5], have been used in [6] to improve the measurements from a sparse rain gauge network in the Dusseldorf area and enabled a more detailed spatio-temporal reconstruction of the rainfall fields for the catastrophic event that devastated western Germany in July 2021.

In this paper, with reference to the same location and event as in [6], we show how an already-operational network of DTH terminals could be used, as a standalone system, to

provide accurate estimation of the accumulated rainfall and for rainfall map retrieval, at no additional cost.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section II describes the satellite platform and terminal characteristics. Section III illustrates the strategy for rainfall estimation based upon satellite signal measurements, including the tropospheric model. Section IV presents some numerical results and, finally, in Sect. V some conclusions are drawn and future perspectives for this research outlined.

## II. SATELLITE PLATFORM

### A. Platform architecture and terminals

The opportunistic measurements used in this case study are made by a population of interactive satellite terminals (ISTs) and collected via satellite by a remote fusion center, taking advantage of an interactive satellite-based platform.

More in detail, the satellite infrastructure is offered by the EUROBIS IoT FIRST platform, a bidirectional, satellite-based interactive system owned and operated by Eutelsat S.A. The EUROBIS platform, operating in Ku band and linear polarization using Eutelsat 10A satellite in  $10^\circ$  E orbital position, provides an IP-based, transparent communication between a population (in the order of thousands units) of interactive satellite terminals (ISTs), called IoT FIRST terminals, and the Internet.

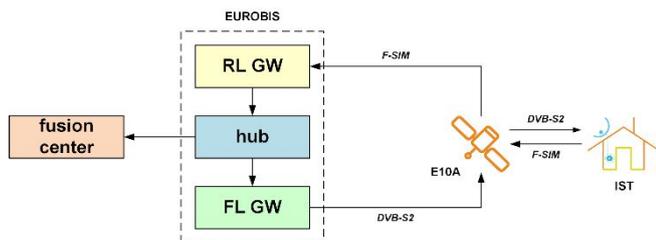


Figure 1 – Architecture of the EUROBIS platform.



Figure 2 – IoT FIRST two-way terminal: the 80-cm satellite dish and the IST [11].

A high-level architecture of the EUROBIS platform is illustrated in Figure 1, in which the hub controls both a forward-link (FL) gateway (GW) and a return-link (RL). The FL makes use of a satellite link using digital video broadcasting satellite version 2 (DVB-S2) [7]. The RL GW makes use of the enhanced spread-spectrum Aloha (E-SSA) protocol, in the version standardized by the European telecommunications standards institute (ETSI) as fixed satellite interactive multimedia (F-SIM) [8, 9]. The E-SSA-based RL adapts consolidated solutions from terrestrial cellular standards to the satellite scenario, using asynchronous access based on code division multiple access (CDMA) and

iterative detection and interference cancellation to enable coexistence of a very large number of ISTs (up to millions). The main EUROBIS system parameters are summarized in Table I, which reports: a) the frequency and polarization of the downlink carrier employed for rain attenuation measurements by the ISTs; b) the physical-layer (PHY) and link-layer (LL) protocols, where MPE stands for multi-protocol encapsulation; c) the transmission parameters, consisting of the effective isotropic radiated power (EIRP), the figure of merit  $G/T$  of the receive antenna, and the modulation and coding (modcod) format.

TABLE I. EUTELSAT EUROBIS PLATFORM: MAIN PARAMETERS AND FEATURES OF FORWARD- AND RETURN-LINK.

parameter/feature	FL	RL
frequency [MHz]	11,345.8	14,216.6
polarization	vertical linear	horizontal linear
PHY protocol	DVB-S2	F-SIM
LL protocol	IP-MPE	F-SIM
EIRP	48 dBW	-
$G/T$	-	+4 dB/K
modcod format	QPSK 4/5	n/a

The ISTs used in this study are the so-called IoT FIRST terminals [10], a generation of very small aperture terminal (VSAT) low-cost, low-power satellite devices (depicted in Figure 2), mainly used for internet of things (IoT) and machine-to-machine (M2M) applications. Each IST is able to measure the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) in the FL using DVB-S2 parameters on a regular basis, and to send it to the fusion center via the EUROBIS platform through the RL.

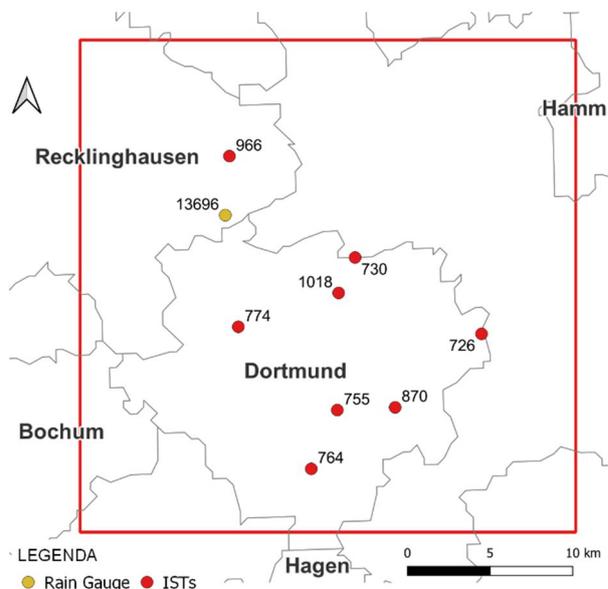


Figure 3 – Locations of rain sensing devices in the Dortmund area.

### B. Test area in Germany

The presence of several ISTs in the Nordrhein-Westfalen area, as shown in Figure 3, enabled a detailed investigation of

the extreme rain event which occurred on July 14-15, 2021. The study area considered in this paper is a square region of size 30x30 km<sup>2</sup> surrounding the city of Dortmund, Germany, whose vertex coordinates are indicated in Table II. Only one operational rain gauge of the German “Deutscher Wetterdienst” (DWD) weather service [12] is accessible for the area (see Figure 3), so the availability of additional opportunistic measurements from the ISTs can be very useful to accurately retrieve a localized precipitative phenomenon. For the reader’s convenience, rain gauge and IST coordinates are listed in Table III.

TABLE II. WGS84 COORDINATES OF THE VERTICES OF THE STUDY AREA.

<i>vertex</i>	<b>longitude (° E)</b>	<b>latitude (° N)</b>
<i>NW</i>	7.2743	51.6907
<i>NE</i>	7.7082	51.6963
<i>SW</i>	7.2844	51.4211
<i>SE</i>	7.7158	51.4266

TABLE III. WGS84 COORDINATES OF THE RAIN SENSING DEVICES

<i>device ID</i>	<b>longitude (° E)</b>	<b>latitude (° N)</b>
Rain Gauge 13696	7.4048	51.5966
<i>IST 726</i>	7.6306	51.5344
<i>IST 730</i>	7.5189	51.5749
<i>IST 755</i>	7.5061	51.4911
<i>IST 764</i>	7.4845	51.4586
<i>IST 774</i>	7.4183	51.5356
<i>IST 870</i>	7.5565	51.4932
<i>IST 966</i>	7.4073	51.6290
<i>IST 1018</i>	7.5052	51.5553

Note that the DWD network consists of approximately 1100 rain gauges [12] across Germany, whose surface is approximately 360,000 km<sup>2</sup>. Then, the average density results of one device every 327 km<sup>2</sup> (i.e., 18x18 km<sup>2</sup>). Instead, in the test area we have 8 ISTs, yielding a density of one device every 112.5 km<sup>2</sup> (i.e., 10.6x10.6 km<sup>2</sup>).

### III. OPPORTUNISTIC RAINFALL ESTIMATION FROM SATELLITE SIGNAL STRENGTH MEASUREMENTS

From a merely conceptual standpoint, the opportunistic rain sensing method adopted in this study is based on measurements of  $\mu$ W link attenuation and exploits the popular power law [2]

$$A \text{ [dB]} / L \text{ [km]} = \gamma \text{ [dB/km]} = \alpha \cdot (R \text{ [mm/h]})^\beta \quad (1)$$

where  $A$  [dB] represents the total additional attenuation experienced by the signal strength level during the rain (“wet” condition”) w.r.t. the pre-rain value (“dry” condition”),  $L$  [km]

is the length of the “wet” radio path,  $\gamma$  [dB/km] is the relevant specific attenuation,  $R$  [mm/h] is the rain rate (assumed constant along the path  $L$ ), and  $\alpha, \beta$  are frequency- and polarization-dependent empirical coefficients.

The value of  $L$  to be put in (1) can be derived from simple considerations about the link geometry. To this respect, Figure 4 shows the geometry of a slanted satellite “wet” link through the rain, assuming the simpler tropospheric model [13]. The satellite elevation  $\theta$  over the horizon is a known design parameter; e.g., for the reception in Dortmund, Germany (lat. 7.4684295° E, lon. 51.514244° N) of Eutelsat 10A satellite (lon. 10° E), the elevation turns out to be 31°. The rain height  $h_0$  can be derived from the knowledge of the 0°C isotherm height provided by a short-term forecast based on weather models (WRF, MOLOCH, BOLAM, etc.) or can be a fixed value based on daily or yearly averages taken at the receive location.

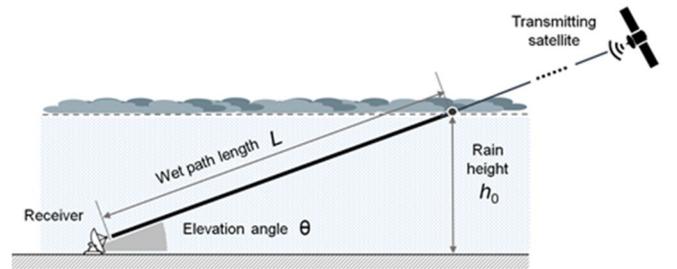


Figure 4 – Geometry of a slanted satellite “wet” link through rain.

The value of the attenuation  $A$  to be put in (1) can be evaluated from the measurements of the signal strength or the SNR  $\eta$ , which is directly provided by the receiving device itself. Most commercial receivers for satellite broadcasting provide a measurement of the ratio  $\eta = E_s/N_0$  between the energy per symbol  $E_s$  and the one-sided power spectral density of the noise  $N_0$ , so that the attenuation can be obtained as [4]

$$A = \frac{\eta^{dry}}{\eta^{rain}} (1 - \xi) + \xi \quad (2)$$

where the superscript “dry” denotes the reference level for the evaluation of the rain attenuation (suitably pre-stored during clear sky days), while “rain” denotes the current reading during the precipitation, and  $\xi$  is a design parameter which depends on the noise contributions affecting the received signal (see eq. (4) in [4]).

It is worth remarking that accurate rain sensing actually requires suitably adapted relationships, still derived from (1), which account for the more complex and layered structure of the troposphere (e.g., including the melting layer) [4].

### IV. NUMERICAL RESULTS

We analyze, for each IST located according to the coordinates introduced in Section II, the samples collected starting from 05:50 UTC, on July 14, 2021. The estimated isothermal height during this event has been 4 km. As an example of such measurements, Figure 5 depicts the data collected by IST id:966. The blue line reports the measurements of  $\eta = E_s/N_0$ , whereas the red line corresponds to the estimated rain rate obtained by processing the records using algorithm described in [4], and sketched in Section III.

Based on this data set, we are able to provide an estimate of the cumulated rain, as depicted in Figure 6 for each IST in the selected region. The measures provided by the rain gauge id:13696 are also reported using the dashed black curve. The results for IST id:966, which is the closest one to the rain gauge and whose instantaneous results can be observed in Figure 5, are reported using the dashed red line.

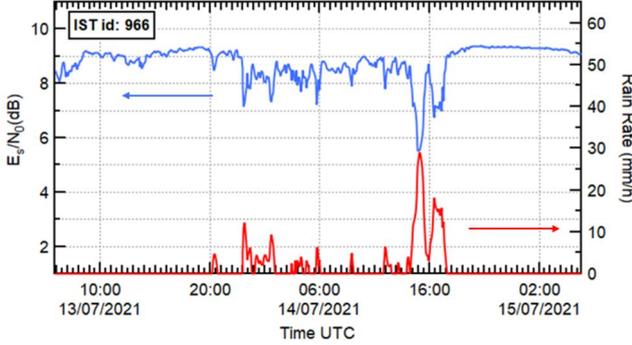


Figure 5 – Sample records of  $\eta = E_s/N_0$  measured from the IST id:966 (in blue) and estimates of the rain rate (in red).

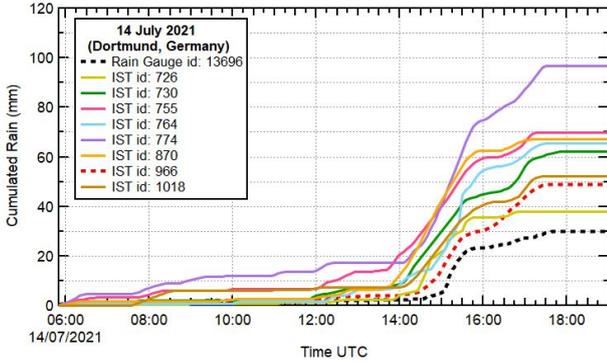


Figure 6 – Cumulated rain provided by the ISTs and the rain gauge id:13696 in the Dortmund area.

In order to retrieve the rain event within the area of interest, a spatialization technique is applied to the cumulated rain recorded by rain sensing devices. The study area is divided into  $100 \times 100$  squares, each with size  $300 \times 300 \text{ m}^2$ . The interpolation method used is the inverse distance weighting (IDW) interpolation, which assumes that the assigned values to unknown points are calculated with a weighted average of the values available at the known points, according to

$$r(k) = \left( \sum_{i=1}^N r_i / d_{i,k}^4 \right) / \left( \sum_{i=1}^N 1 / d_{i,k}^4 \right) \quad (3)$$

where  $N$  is the number of the rain sensing devices,  $r_i$  are the cumulated rain values measured by the devices, and  $d_{i,k}$  is the distance from the  $k$ -th square to each of the known points. This means that values closer to known points have a bigger weight compared to farther values.

By applying (3) to the measurements obtained by the ISTs and the rain gauge, we obtain the rainfall map reported in Figure 7. This can be compared to that produced by a weather radar [14], and reported in Figure 8 for the reader's convenience.

First, it is interesting to note that the rain gauge id:13696, reported in Figure 3 and whose measurements are shown in Figure 6, is located marginally w.r.t. the area affected by the most intense precipitation, as can be deduced from the radar map in Figure 8. This is the reason why, in Figure 6, the rain gauge provides a cumulated rain value which is lower than those of the IST-based sensors.

Second, note that there is just one available rain gauge in an area of  $900 \text{ km}^2$  and, even worse, in this specific case study it seriously underestimates the rain event under observation. This fact dramatically highlights the limits of a pluviometric network made only of conventional rain gauges.

Finally, as apparent by comparing the rainfall maps of Figures 7 and 8, the retrieval technique based on the opportunistic use of the ITSs yields the following benefits:

- *high accuracy* – the numerical estimates of the cumulated rain are in good agreement with weather radar measurements;
- *high reliability* – the spatial reconstruction of the precipitation field has a shape which is very similar to that detected by the weather radar;
- *high spatial resolution* – the retrieved map has a better resolution than the one provided by the weather radar (and, if needed, the resolution can be suitably scaled by deploying more terminals);
- *high temporal resolution* – the measurement of the satellite signal strength (and therefore the estimate of the rain rate, too) is typically provided at a rate of 1 or 2 readings per minute;
- *low cost* – only low-cost commercial-grade devices (already installed) were used and no installation of new equipment was required;
- *no electromagnetic emissions* – rain sensing is simply based on the reception of satellite broadcast signals.

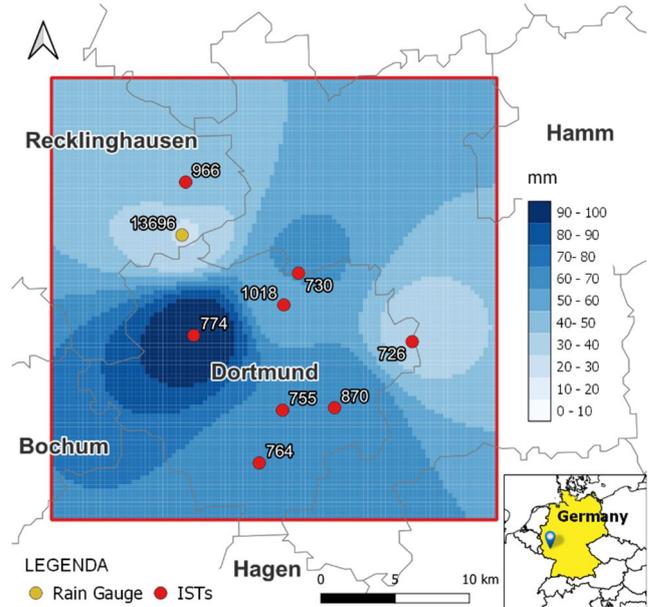


Figure 7 – Cumulated rain on the test area from July 14, 2021 05:50 UTC, to July 15, 2021 05:50 UTC, obtained from the signal attenuation measured by the network of ITSs plus the measurements of one rain gauge.



Figure 8 – Cumulated rain on the test area (square box) from July 14, 2021 05:50 UTC, to July 15, 2021 05:50 UTC, obtained from a weather radar [14].

## V. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE DEVELOPMENTS

The tests carried out for the extreme rain event in Germany demonstrated the feasibility and the potentials of a network of DTH satellite receive terminals for opportunistic rainfall estimation. These tests represent a preliminary phase of a broad experimental campaign to be carried out in the framework of the EU funded SCORE project [15], which aims to increase climate resilience in European coastal cities. The project is tackling specific challenges related to sea levels, coastal erosion and extreme weather events using an integrated solution of smart technologies and nature-based solutions to be developed and tested in ten selected European coastal cities. In the future, we also expect to investigate if and how similar data can be combined together and with satellite estimates of rainfall such as the NASA Imerg data [16] to produce improved precipitation monitoring over large areas.

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