

Satellites

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The Added Value of Satellite Data

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Introduction

Welcome. Today we are going to explore one of the most important Earth observation systems currently operating in the world: the Copernicus Programme, and the family of satellites known as the Sentinel missions. The goal is to understand what Copernicus is, how its satellites work from a technological perspective, and how the data produced by these satellites can be acquired and transformed into useful services. We will focus particularly on four Sentinel missions that are fundamental for many environmental and geospatial applications: Sentinel 1, Sentinel 2, Sentinel 3 and Sentinel-5P. Each of these satellites observes the Earth in a different way, using different sensing technologies, and each captures a different physical aspect of our planet. By the end of this lesson, you should have a clear understanding of how these satellites work, how their data are accessed, and why they are such powerful tools for environmental monitoring and spatial analysis.

What is Copernicus?

Let's begin with the big picture. Copernicus is the Earth observation component of the European Union Space Programme. Its mission is to provide accurate, timely, and reliable information about the Earth system to support environmental monitoring, climate analysis, disaster management, agriculture, urban planning, and many other domains. But Copernicus is not just a satellite programme. It is actually a complete Earth observation ecosystem. This ecosystem includes satellites in orbit, ground receiving stations, processing infrastructure, environmental models, data distribution platforms, and thematic services.

The system is implemented through collaboration between several European institutions, including the European Commission, the European Space Agency, often referred to as ESA, EUMETSAT, and the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts, commonly abbreviated as ECMWF. Together, these institutions operate a large-scale environmental monitoring infrastructure that continuously observes our planet. One of the most important design principles of Copernicus is operational continuity. Unlike many earlier Earth observation missions that were primarily designed for scientific experiments, Copernicus satellites are built to support systematic, long-term monitoring. This means that their measurements are designed to be: repeated regularly, consistent over time and stable across decades. This operational philosophy is essential when we want to monitor processes such as climate change, land use evolution, or atmospheric pollution trends.

The Sentinel Satellites

The backbone of Copernicus is a fleet of satellites called the Sentinel missions. Each Sentinel mission is designed to measure specific properties of the Earth system. Rather than duplicating each other's capabilities, the Sentinel satellites are complementary. Each mission uses different sensors and different measurement techniques to observe different aspects of the Earth. For example some satellites observe the Earth using radar, others use multispectral optical imaging, others measure surface temperature and others analyse atmospheric chemistry. When we combine all these measurements together, we obtain a much richer understanding of the planet than any single sensor could provide alone. In this video we will give you an introduction on four missions: Sentinel 1, Sentinel 2, Sentinel 3 and Sentinel 5P.

Sentinel-1: Radar Observation of the Earth

Let's start with Sentinel 1. Sentinel 1 is the radar mission of Copernicus. Unlike traditional Earth observation satellites that rely on visible light, Sentinel 1 uses a technology called Synthetic Aperture Radar, often abbreviated as SAR. SAR is an active sensing system. This means the satellite emits microwave signals toward the Earth and measures the energy that is reflected back.

Because the satellite generates its own signal, Sentinel 1 does not depend on sunlight. It can observe the Earth day and night. Even more importantly, radar waves can penetrate cloud cover much more effectively than visible light. This makes Sentinel 1 extremely valuable for monitoring regions where clouds are frequent, such as tropical areas. The radar instrument onboard Sentinel 1 operates in the C-band microwave frequency range. This wavelength is particularly sensitive to surface roughness, soil moisture, vegetation structure and built infrastructure. When the radar signal interacts

with the Earth's surface, the returned signal, known as backscatter, contains information about these properties. For example Smooth surfaces such as calm water reflect radar energy away from the satellite and therefore appear dark. Rough surfaces, like urban areas with buildings and structures, reflect more energy back to the satellite and appear bright.

This property makes radar extremely useful for detecting urban areas, flooded zones, ice structures and infrastructure. But perhaps the most powerful application of Sentinel 1 comes from a technique called Interferometric SAR, or InSAR. In this technique, radar images acquired at different times are combined and compared at the level of the radar signal phase. Because the radar phase encodes distance between the satellite and the ground target, even very small changes in ground position can be detected. In favorable conditions, this technique can measure ground displacement on the order of millimeters. This allows scientists and engineers to monitor phenomena such as ground subsidence, landslides, volcanic deformation and structural movement of infrastructure. These capabilities make Sentinel 1 a critical tool for geotechnical monitoring and terrain analysis.

Sentinel-2: Multispectral Optical Observation

The next mission we will discuss is Sentinel 2. Sentinel 2 is the multispectral optical imaging mission of Copernicus. The satellite carries an instrument known as the MultiSpectral Instrument, or MSI. This instrument captures images of the Earth in 13 different spectral bands. These bands cover wavelengths in the visible spectrum, the near infrared and the short-wave infrared. Each spectral band provides different information about the physical properties of the surface. For instance, vegetation reflects strongly in the near-infrared region but absorbs strongly in the red region of the visible spectrum. This spectral behaviour is related to the internal structure of plant leaves and the presence of chlorophyll. By combining different spectral bands mathematically, scientists can derive spectral indices. One of the most famous of these is the Normalized Difference Vegetation Index, or NDVI. NDVI is widely used to assess vegetation health and biomass.

But Sentinel 2 enables many other indices as well, including NDWI for water detection, NDBI for built-up area detection, moisture indices, burn severity indices and red-edge vegetation indicators. Another key feature of Sentinel 2 is its spatial resolution. Some bands are acquired at 10 meters resolution, which is very detailed for a global Earth observation mission. This makes Sentinel 2 particularly useful for applications such as land cover classification, agriculture monitoring, forestry management and urban mapping. Because the Sentinel 2 mission uses two satellites in orbit, the revisit time is short, allowing frequent monitoring of the same location.

Sentinel-3: Monitoring Environmental and Thermal Dynamics

Next we move to Sentinel 3. Sentinel 3 is a multi-instrument mission designed to monitor the Earth system at large scale. Unlike Sentinel 1 or Sentinel 2, which focus primarily on land observations, Sentinel 3 includes instruments for both land and ocean monitoring. The satellite carries several sensors. One of the most important is the Sea and Land Surface Temperature Radiometer, abbreviated as SLSTR. This instrument measures the thermal radiation emitted by the Earth's surface. From this radiation, scientists can derive Land Surface Temperature, often abbreviated as LST. Land surface temperature is extremely important for studying climate processes, drought conditions, urban heat island effects and agricultural stress.

Sentinel 3 also carries the Ocean and Land Colour Instrument, or OLCI, which measures reflected sunlight across many spectral bands. This instrument is used to study ocean colour, vegetation, and biophysical surface properties. Another instrument onboard Sentinel 3 is the Synthetic Aperture Radar Altimeter, which measures the height of the ocean surface and other geophysical properties. Together, these instruments make Sentinel 3 an important platform for environmental monitoring. In land applications, the thermal measurements from Sentinel 3 are particularly useful for analysing heat patterns across cities and landscapes.

Sentinel-5P: Monitoring Atmospheric Composition

The final satellite we will discuss today is Sentinel 5P. This mission focuses on atmospheric chemistry. Sentinel 5P carries a single instrument called TROPOMI, which stands for Tropospheric Monitoring Instrument. TROPOMI is a spectrometer that measures sunlight reflected from the Earth's atmosphere. By analysing how this light is absorbed at different wavelengths, scientists can determine the concentration of various atmospheric gases. These include pollutants such as nitrogen dioxide, sulphur dioxide, carbon monoxide, methane and ozone. This information is essential for understanding air pollution, climate forcing, and atmospheric chemistry. Because Sentinel 5P provides global coverage with high spatial resolution, it has become one of the most important satellites for monitoring air quality worldwide.

How Copernicus Data Are Acquired

Now that we understand the satellites themselves, the next question is: How do we actually obtain their data? Copernicus data are distributed through dedicated platforms such as the Copernicus Data Space Ecosystem. Users can access satellite data through web interfaces or programmatic APIs. To obtain data, a user typically specifies the satellite mission, the geographic area of interest, the time period and the

product type. The platform then provides the relevant satellite products for download. These datasets are generally distributed in standardized formats that include both the measurement data and metadata describing acquisition conditions. In many operational systems, data acquisition is automated through scripts or cloud pipelines that continuously query the catalog and download new observations.

The Copernicus Data Space Ecosystem

The Copernicus Data Space Ecosystem is the main access infrastructure for Copernicus satellite data. It is designed to provide users with a unified environment where they can search satellite data archives, visualize observations, download raw satellite products and process them in cloud-based environments. Historically, Copernicus data were distributed through several different platforms. One of the most widely known was the Copernicus Open Access Hub, also known as SciHub. However, as the Sentinel archive grew larger and larger, the need for a more scalable system became clear. Today, the Copernicus Data Space Ecosystem represents the next generation of data access infrastructure. It provides access to Sentinel 1 radar data, Sentinel 2 multispectral optical imagery, Sentinel 3 environmental monitoring data, Sentinel 5P atmospheric composition measurements and additional Copernicus datasets.

One of the defining characteristics of this ecosystem is that it integrates data discovery, visualization, and processing services into a single environment. This means users can either download raw satellite products for local processing, or, process data directly within cloud infrastructures. Let's begin with the simplest access method: the web interface. This method is particularly useful for students, researchers or analysts and users who need to manually inspect data before downloading them. To begin using the Copernicus Data Space Ecosystem, a user first needs to create an account. This is done through the Copernicus Data Space portal. Registration is free and allows access to the satellite catalog and related services.

Once logged in, users can access the data browser interface. The data browser is essentially an interactive map that allows users to search the satellite archive. At the center of the interface is a geospatial map viewer. Users can navigate the map, zoom into regions of interest, and define their Area of Interest, often abbreviated as AOI. This area can be defined in several ways: by drawing a polygon directly on the map, selecting a rectangular bounding box, uploading a shapefile or a GeoJSON boundary, or entering geographic coordinates manually. Once the area of interest has been defined, users can apply filters to narrow down the available satellite observations. Typical filters include the satellite mission, the acquisition date, the level of cloud coverage, the product type, and the processing level.

For example, if we want to search for Sentinel 2 data over northern Italy during July 2024 with low cloud coverage, we would simply set the mission to Sentinel 2, choose

the time interval from the first to the thirty-first of July 2024, and specify a cloud coverage lower than twenty percent. The interface will then query the Copernicus catalogue and display the matching observations directly on the map.

Each observation corresponds to a satellite product that includes the measurement data collected by the satellite, together with metadata describing the acquisition conditions, geolocation information, and calibration parameters. By clicking on a product footprint on the map, users can inspect its metadata. These metadata typically include information such as the acquisition timestamp, the orbit number, the satellite platform, the processing level, and the spatial resolution. Users can also preview the imagery through quick-look visualizations. This is extremely useful for evaluating whether the product is suitable for analysis before downloading it.

Once a suitable product has been identified, the user can download it directly from the interface. Downloads typically provide the data as compressed archives that contain the measurement bands, the metadata files, the quality flags, and the geolocation grids. For example, Sentinel 2 products contain multiple spectral bands stored as raster files. Sentinel 1 products contain radar backscatter measurements and related metadata. This method of downloading data through the web interface is ideal for exploratory analysis and manual workflows.

However, when working with large datasets or automated pipelines, manual downloading quickly becomes inefficient. That is where APIs come in.

Accessing Data Through APIs

An API, or Application Programming Interface, allows software programs to communicate directly with the data platform. Instead of manually searching and downloading files, a script can automatically query the Copernicus catalog and retrieve the required products. This approach is essential when building automated Earth observation pipelines. The Copernicus Data Space Ecosystem provides APIs based on standard web protocols. Most queries are performed using HTTP requests. In practice, this means that programming languages such as Python, JavaScript, or Java can interact directly with the satellite catalog. Let's look at a simple conceptual example. Suppose we want to retrieve Sentinel-2 imagery over a specific region. Using an API query, we specify parameters such as satellite mission, time interval, and geographic bounding box.

In Python, a request might look conceptually like this:

```
import requests

url = "https://catalogue.dataspace.copernicus.eu/odata/v1/Products"
```

```
params = {  
    "$filter": "Collection/Name eq 'SENTINEL-2' and ContentDate/Start ge  
2024-01-01T00:00:00Z"  
}  
  
response = requests.get(url, params=params)  
  
print(response.json())
```

This request queries the product catalog and returns a list of matching satellite observations. Each observation includes metadata describing the dataset. Once we obtain the product identifier, we can construct a download request. Another example might involve filtering by geographic coordinates. In that case, the query includes a spatial filter describing the area of interest. The API returns only products intersecting that region. This is particularly useful when building services that monitor a fixed geographic area over time.

Automating Data Pipelines

In many operational systems, API access is combined with automated processing workflows. For example, an environmental monitoring system may run a sequence of operations every day. It first queries the Copernicus catalog to check whether new Sentinel observations are available over the area of interest. It then downloads the relevant products and proceeds with data preprocessing, which can include operations such as atmospheric correction, geometric correction, reprojection, and the conversion of the data into analysis-ready formats. Once the data have been prepared, the system runs analytical algorithms that can generate outputs such as vegetation indices, land classification maps, temperature anomaly detection, or air quality indicators. Finally, the results are stored in a database or displayed in dashboards.

By automating the data acquisition stage using APIs, the entire processing chain can operate continuously without manual intervention. This is the basis of many modern Earth observation services.

Authentication and Access Tokens

When using APIs, authentication is usually required. The Copernicus Data Space Ecosystem typically uses authentication tokens. After logging in through the portal, users can obtain credentials that allow their scripts to access the API. In practice, this means that before querying the catalog, the script performs a login request. The

platform returns an authentication token. This token is then included in subsequent API requests. This ensures that only registered users access the infrastructure while still maintaining the open-data policy.

Advantages of API-Based Access

API access provides several important advantages compared with manual downloading. First of all, it enables automation. Instead of manually searching for satellite products every day, scripts can perform the same task automatically. It also allows scalability, because large datasets can be retrieved programmatically across many regions or time intervals. In addition, APIs make it possible to integrate satellite data with other systems, such as geospatial databases, cloud processing platforms, or machine learning pipelines. This is why most modern Earth observation services rely heavily on API-based data acquisition.

Combining Web and API Access

In practice, both access methods are useful. The web interface is particularly effective for exploring datasets, visualizing imagery, and manually inspecting observations. The API approach, on the other hand, is more suitable for automated workflows, large-scale data processing, and operational services. Many Earth observation projects actually use both methods. Analysts first explore data through the browser interface. Once the appropriate datasets and parameters are understood, the workflow is automated through APIs.

Data Licensing and Open Access

One of the most remarkable aspects of Copernicus is its open data policy. The European Union has adopted a free, full, and open access principle for Copernicus Sentinel data. This means that anyone can access and use the data, including researchers, students, public institutions, and commercial companies. Users are generally required only to comply with the legal notice and attribution conditions. This open data model has been extremely important for innovation.

It has allowed universities, startups, and industry to build new services based on the same publicly available data foundation.

Processing Copernicus Sentinel Data: From Raw Files to Scientific Analysis

We will move from data acquisition to the next critical stage in Earth observation workflows: data processing. In previous discussions we explored how satellite data from the Copernicus programme can be accessed through platforms such as the Copernicus Data Space Ecosystem, either through web interfaces or programmatic APIs. Once the data are downloaded, the next step is to transform those raw satellite products into meaningful information.

This is where geospatial analysis tools, remote sensing techniques, and data processing libraries come into play. In this video we will discuss how Copernicus data can be processed after download, focusing on three main aspects: First, how satellite data are stored and structured, particularly in GeoTIFF raster formats. Second, how those raster datasets can be analyzed using geospatial desktop software, such as QGIS. Third, how the same datasets can be processed programmatically using Python libraries designed for geospatial and raster analysis.

Finally, we will look at how pixel-level data and metadata describe the physical meaning of the satellite measurements.

The Structure of Copernicus Satellite Products

When we download Copernicus Sentinel data, we are not simply downloading a single image file. Instead, we receive a satellite product package. This package usually contains several components, including raster measurement files, metadata descriptions, quality information, calibration parameters, and geolocation grids. Many of the measurement layers are stored in GeoTIFF format.

A GeoTIFF is a raster image format that contains both the image data and the geospatial information required to place that image correctly on the Earth's surface. Unlike a simple photograph, a GeoTIFF includes metadata that describe the geographic coordinate system, the spatial resolution, the projection information, the pixel size, and the spatial extent. This allows geospatial software to correctly interpret the dataset. Each pixel in a GeoTIFF corresponds to a precise location on the Earth. For example, in Sentinel-2 imagery with a resolution of 10 meters, each pixel represents a 10 meter by 10 meter area on the ground.

This property allows satellite data to be analyzed spatially at very high resolution.

Inspecting Satellite Data with QGIS

One of the simplest ways to explore Copernicus data is through QGIS. QGIS is a free and open-source geographic information system that supports many raster and vector formats, including GeoTIFF. Because it is widely used in academia and industry, QGIS is an excellent tool for students learning remote sensing. When a GeoTIFF file is loaded into QGIS, the software reads the geospatial metadata and places the raster correctly on the map. From there, users can visualize the data in several ways.

For optical imagery, such as Sentinel-2 data, different spectral bands can be combined to produce natural color or false color composites. For example, a natural color composite is created by mapping the red band to the red channel, the green band to the green channel, and the blue band to the blue channel. Alternatively, a false color composite may use the near infrared, red, and green bands. This type of visualization highlights vegetation and other surface features. Beyond simple visualization, QGIS allows users to examine the dataset pixel by pixel.

By activating the pixel inspector tool, users can click on any location in the image and see the numeric value stored in that pixel. These values correspond to physical measurements recorded by the satellite sensor. For instance, in optical data these numbers often represent reflectance values scaled into digital numbers. In radar datasets they represent backscatter intensity. This pixel-level access allows researchers to directly analyze the underlying measurements rather than relying only on visual interpretation. QGIS also provides tools for raster analysis. Users can compute raster algebra expressions to create derived layers. For example, calculating vegetation indices such as NDVI requires combining two spectral bands using a mathematical formula. This can be done directly in QGIS using the raster calculator.

Processing Satellite Data with Python

While desktop GIS tools are useful for exploration and visualization, large-scale Earth observation analysis often requires automated processing.

This is where Python-based geospatial libraries become extremely useful. Python has become one of the most widely used languages in remote sensing because of its rich ecosystem of scientific libraries. Some of the most important libraries for raster analysis include GDAL, Rasterio, NumPy, xarray, rioxarray and GeoPandas. These libraries allow developers to open GeoTIFF files, manipulate raster data, and perform advanced spatial analysis. For example, using Python we can open a GeoTIFF file and read its pixel values.

A simplified example using Rasterio might look like this:

```
import rasterio
```

```
with rasterio.open("sentinel2_band4.tif") as dataset:
    band = dataset.read(1)

print(band.shape)
```

This code loads the raster and reads the pixel values into a numerical array.

Once the data are in a NumPy array, we can perform mathematical operations directly on the pixels. For example, computing NDVI from Sentinel-2 bands:

$$\text{ndvi} = (\text{nir} - \text{red}) / (\text{nir} + \text{red})$$

Where nir is the near-infrared band, and red is the red band. The result is a new raster where each pixel represents the vegetation index for that location. This approach allows large datasets to be processed automatically across many satellite scenes.

Understanding Metadata

A crucial aspect of satellite data processing is understanding metadata. Metadata are structured descriptions that explain how the data were acquired and how they should be interpreted. Without metadata, the raw pixel values would have little meaning. Typical metadata fields include information such as the acquisition time, which indicates when the satellite captured the image, as well as the satellite platform and the sensor used to collect the data.

They also describe the spatial resolution, meaning the ground size represented by each pixel, and the coordinate reference system, which defines how geographic coordinates are represented. Finally, metadata indicate the processing level of the product, since satellite datasets are often distributed in different processing stages. For example, Sentinel 2 Level-1C products contain top-of-atmosphere reflectance, while Level-2A products include atmospheric correction. Metadata are typically stored in XML or JSON files within the product package. These files provide detailed information required to correctly interpret the data. For scientific analysis, reading and understanding metadata is essential.

Pixel-Level Interpretation for Each Sentinel Mission

Let us now examine what the pixel values actually represent for different Sentinel missions. Each satellite measures a different physical quantity. Therefore, the pixel values have different meanings depending on the dataset.

Sentinel 1 uses Synthetic Aperture Radar. In Sentinel 1 GeoTIFF products, pixel values typically represent radar backscatter intensity, which measures how much of the radar signal is reflected back toward the satellite.

This value depends on several physical factors. One of them is surface roughness, because rough surfaces tend to scatter radar waves more strongly. Another important factor is moisture content, since wet soils reflect radar signals differently from dry soils. Surface geometry also plays a role, as structures such as buildings can produce strong radar reflections. Radar products are often expressed as sigma naught values, usually converted into a decibel scale. Higher values correspond to stronger radar reflections. These measurements allow analysis of terrain structure, flooding, vegetation structure, and infrastructure.

Sentinel 2 pixel values represent spectral reflectance. Each band corresponds to a different wavelength range of reflected sunlight. The pixel value indicates how much light was reflected by the surface in that spectral band. These reflectance values are typically stored as scaled integers. To obtain physical reflectance values, scaling factors must be applied. Once converted, the values can be used to compute spectral indices. For example High NDVI values correspond to healthy vegetation. Low NDVI values correspond to bare soil or built surfaces. Water bodies usually produce distinct spectral signatures. Because Sentinel 2 includes 13 spectral bands, each pixel contains multiple measurements describing the same location across different wavelengths.

Sentinel 3 includes thermal and environmental sensors. For many land applications, the most relevant product is Land Surface Temperature. In this case, pixel values correspond to temperature measurements derived from thermal infrared observations. These values are usually expressed in Kelvin. Temperature products allow scientists to study heat islands, drought stress, evapotranspiration patterns, and climate dynamics. Because Sentinel 3 has coarser spatial resolution than Sentinel 2, its pixels represent larger ground areas, but provide important environmental information.

Sentinel 5P measures atmospheric composition. Its pixel values correspond to trace gas concentrations retrieved from spectral analysis. These may include measurements of nitrogen dioxide, methane, carbon monoxide, and ozone. The values are typically expressed as column densities, representing the amount of gas present in a vertical column of atmosphere above a given location. These data are extremely valuable for air quality monitoring and environmental analysis.

From Raw Data to Analytical Products

Once pixel values are correctly interpreted and processed, satellite datasets can be transformed into higher-level analytical products. Examples include vegetation health maps, land classification layers, temperature anomaly detection, and air pollution

monitoring. These products are generated by combining multiple raster layers and applying scientific models. The resulting datasets can then be integrated into geographic information systems, decision support platforms, or environmental monitoring dashboards.

To conclude, the Copernicus programme represents one of the most advanced Earth observation infrastructures ever developed. Through the Sentinel missions, it provides continuous, systematic monitoring of our planet using multiple sensing technologies. Sentinel-1 observes the Earth with radar, enabling all-weather terrain monitoring and deformation analysis. Sentinel-2 provides high-resolution multispectral imagery for land cover, vegetation, and environmental monitoring.

Sentinel-3 measures environmental dynamics, including land surface temperature. Sentinel-5P analyzes atmospheric composition and air quality. Together, these missions create a powerful system for understanding the Earth and supporting environmental decision-making. For scientists, engineers, and students in STEM fields, Copernicus offers an extraordinary opportunity. It provides open access to one of the richest environmental datasets ever collected. And it allows us to transform satellite measurements into knowledge about our planet.

Understanding how to use these data effectively is one of the key skills for the next generation of geospatial scientists and environmental engineers. Processing Copernicus data is a powerful example of how raw satellite measurements can be transformed into meaningful environmental information. Through tools such as QGIS and Python geospatial libraries, researchers and engineers can inspect satellite data pixel by pixel and derive valuable insights. Understanding raster formats, metadata structures, and pixel-level measurements is essential for anyone working in Earth observation. And with the open data policy of Copernicus, these datasets are available to students, scientists, and developers around the world. Learning how to process them effectively is therefore a key skill in modern geospatial science.

Automatic Integration of Sentinel in EagleArca

I will present now the satellite services developed in the EagleArca context, with a particular focus on the Copernicus ecosystem and on the Sentinel missions that make these services possible. The objective is to explain not only what these satellites are, but also how their data can be transformed into concrete operational services for environmental monitoring, urban analysis, agriculture, terrain assessment, atmospheric quality monitoring, and weather-aware decision support.

To understand EagleArca's service architecture, we first need to understand the logic of the Copernicus programme. Copernicus is the European Union's Earth observation framework, implemented with the support of ESA, EUMETSAT, ECMWF and other institutional partners. Its design principle is extremely important: it is not only a satellite programme, but a full operational ecosystem that couples spaceborne observations with ground segments, processing chains, and thematic services for land, ocean, atmosphere, climate, and emergency management. The Sentinel satellites were designed specifically to provide robust, repeatable, operational data streams for this ecosystem, with constellations and revisit strategies chosen to support systematic monitoring rather than isolated acquisitions.

Within this framework, EagleArca uses multiple Sentinel missions because no single sensor is sufficient to describe the complexity of the Earth system. Optical imagery, radar backscatter, thermal observations, topographic inference, atmospheric chemistry, and meteorological or climate context all capture different physical aspects of the same territory. The real power lies in fusion: combining complementary measurements into a coherent analytical layer over a given Area of Interest, or AOI.

Let us begin with Sentinel-1, because it is foundational for all-weather terrain and deformation analysis. Sentinel-1 is a radar mission based on a C-band Synthetic Aperture Radar, often abbreviated as C-SAR. The defining strength of SAR is that it is an active sensor: instead of waiting for sunlight reflected from the surface, it transmits microwave pulses and measures the backscattered signal. This makes it usable both day and night, and, unlike optical instruments, it is far less sensitive to cloud cover. That is why Sentinel-1 is so important for persistent operational monitoring. ESA describes the mission as an all-weather, day-and-night imaging system, and the satellites carry a C-band SAR instrument specifically for this purpose.

From a physics perspective, Sentinel-1 measures the interaction between the emitted microwave signal and the geometry, roughness, moisture content, and dielectric properties of the Earth surface. This means that Sentinel-1 is not simply producing "images" in the visual sense. It is measuring radar response. Smooth water surfaces tend to behave differently from rough urban areas. Wet soils respond differently from dry soils. Artificial structures produce characteristic high-backscatter patterns. This is why Sentinel-1 is so valuable for land deformation, flood mapping, surface roughness characterization, and infrastructure monitoring.

For EagleArca, Sentinel-1 supports several important base services. One is terrain morphology analysis. Even though Sentinel-1 is not a classical optical stereo mapping mission, radar-derived methods and interferometric approaches can support the reconstruction of terrain-related information and, in specific processing contexts, the derivation of DEM products, meaning Digital Elevation Models. A DEM is a mathematical representation of terrain elevation over space. Once a DEM is available, further topographic descriptors can be computed: slope, aspect, local relief, watershed accumulation, and terrain-derived constraints relevant for hydrology, infrastructure

planning, and agricultural suitability.

A second major service enabled by Sentinel-1 is subsidence analysis. This is based on interferometric SAR processing, where repeated radar acquisitions over the same area are compared in phase. The phase of the radar signal contains information on the distance between the satellite and the target. By examining phase evolution over time, it is possible to estimate very small surface displacements, often at millimetric scale under favourable conditions. This is the basis of ground deformation monitoring. Subsidence, for example, may reveal aquifer depletion, soil consolidation, infrastructure stress, mining-related deformation, or long-term urban stability issues. Closely related is the broader phase displacement over time analysis, which is not limited to vertical subsidence alone, but can be used to characterize temporal deformation signals and changes in stable scatterers across the AOI.

These radar-based capabilities are among the most technically sophisticated elements in the EagleArca portfolio because they transform repeated remote sensing acquisitions into a time-resolved geophysical measurement.

Now let us turn to Sentinel-2, which is in many ways the workhorse of land optical observation. Sentinel-2 is a twin-satellite mission carrying the MultiSpectral Instrument, or MSI. This is a wide-swath, high-resolution optical imager that samples the Earth in 13 spectral bands distributed across the visible, near-infrared, and short-wave infrared parts of the spectrum. The spatial resolutions differ by band: some are acquired at 10 m, some at 20 m, and some at 60 m. The wide swath and multispectral design make Sentinel-2 especially suited for land applications, including vegetation monitoring, land cover mapping, soil and water observation, and coastal or inland water analysis.

The key concept here is that Sentinel-2 does not merely provide color pictures. Each spectral band is sensitive to different physical properties of surface materials. Vegetation, for example, strongly absorbs red light due to chlorophyll but reflects strongly in the near infrared because of leaf internal structure. Water absorbs strongly in parts of the infrared. Bare soil, urban materials, and stressed vegetation all exhibit distinct spectral signatures. Once these bands are combined mathematically, we can compute indices such as NDVI, NDWI, NDBI, red-edge indices, burn indices, moisture indices, and many others. These indices are not arbitrary formulas; they are physically motivated transformations that emphasize a specific phenomenon, such as vegetation vigor, built-up areas, water presence, or soil condition.

EagleArca uses Sentinel-2 as the basis for Classification and Superclassification services. In practical terms, over the selected AOI, all relevant Sentinel-2 scenes are downloaded, preprocessed, and harmonized. Then a classification workflow is applied to separate land cover or land use categories. At a basic level, this may mean distinguishing vegetation, bare soil, water, and built-up surfaces. At a more advanced level, through what we can call superclassification, the service may produce a more

detailed semantic partition of the territory, for example differentiating agricultural typologies, urban fabrics, industrial surfaces, tree-dominated zones, low vegetation, or transitional areas. Super-resolution enhancement, when available in the EagleArca pipeline, increases the spatial interpretability of some structures, improving object delineation and the readability of fine patterns.

The result is not just a thematic map, but a structured spatial interpretation of the AOI derived from multispectral evidence.

This is a good point to emphasize an operational detail about EagleArca's approach. For the one-time services based on static or slowly varying spatial characterization, the platform does not rely on a single image snapshot. Instead, over the AOI, it downloads and consolidates all the relevant data for the Sentinel missions involved in that specific service. In the case of classification, that means collecting the Sentinel-2 archive needed to build a robust representation of the observed surface, minimizing cloud contamination and maximizing seasonal interpretability. This is essential because the quality of any classification depends strongly on temporal representativeness and preprocessing rigor.

Let us now consider Sentinel-3, which is often less familiar to non-specialists, but is extremely important in environmental monitoring. Sentinel-3 is a more multi-instrument mission. Its payload includes OLCI, the Ocean and Land Colour Instrument; SLSTR, the Sea and Land Surface Temperature Radiometer; SRAL, the Synthetic Aperture Radar Altimeter; and MWR, the Microwave Radiometer. ESA and Copernicus documentation consistently identify these as the core Sentinel-3 instruments.

Each of these sensors contributes a different physical capability. OLCI is a spectrometer optimized for ocean and land color applications, useful for water quality, vegetation, and surface characterization. SLSTR is fundamental for temperature retrieval, especially Land Surface Temperature, which is central for thermal studies. SRAL and MWR support altimetric and geophysical measurements, particularly relevant over oceans, inland waters, and broader Earth system monitoring.

In the EagleArca service stack, the most immediately relevant Sentinel-3 capability is the Heat Island analysis. Here the key variable is surface temperature, monitored over time. The urban heat island effect is the tendency of urban areas to exhibit higher temperatures than surrounding rural or less built-up areas due to altered surface materials, reduced evapotranspiration, anthropogenic heat release, and modified urban geometry. With Sentinel-3 temperature observations, EagleArca can evaluate the spatial and temporal thermal behavior of the AOI. This is particularly valuable for urban planning, public health risk assessment, climate adaptation, and infrastructure resilience. A heat island service is therefore not only a temperature map; it is a physically meaningful diagnostic of how the built environment interacts with radiation balance, heat storage, and local climate forcing.

Next we come to Sentinel-5P, where the “P” stands for Precursor. Sentinel-5P is dedicated to atmospheric composition monitoring and carries one highly advanced payload: TROPOMI, the TROPOspheric Monitoring Instrument. The mission’s objective is to measure atmospheric variables with high spatial and temporal resolution in support of air quality, climate forcing, ozone monitoring, and UV-related applications. Copernicus and ESA sources explicitly describe TROPOMI as the instrument onboard Sentinel-5P and emphasize its relevance for monitoring gases and aerosols in the atmosphere.

From an application standpoint, Sentinel-5P is crucial for retrieving variables such as nitrogen dioxide, sulfur dioxide, carbon monoxide, ozone, formaldehyde, methane, and aerosol-related information, depending on the processing stream. This makes it a cornerstone for Air Quality services. In EagleArca, the air quality workflow is updated daily and is based primarily on Sentinel-5P together with atmospheric service layers, especially those associated with Copernicus Atmosphere products. In operational terms, satellite observations alone are powerful, but atmospheric composition services increase their utility by integrating retrievals, models, and assimilation frameworks into consistent geophysical products. This allows air quality assessment to be more continuous, more interpretable, and more immediately actionable than a satellite-only view would be.

The same operational philosophy applies to the Weather service. Here it is important to clarify terminology. The European service the user refers to as “ECMWF” is best understood in the Copernicus and ECMWF context as the broader family of European atmospheric and climate services, notably those connected with ECMWF, Copernicus Atmosphere Monitoring Service, and Copernicus Climate Change Service. These products are not identical to the Sentinel missions, because they include modeling, assimilation, and forecast components. For EagleArca, this is extremely valuable: while Sentinel satellites observe the Earth, weather and climate services provide dynamic context and forecast capability. Therefore the Weather service is not just a snapshot of atmospheric conditions, but a temporal interpretation that includes forecasts, synoptic patterns, and evolving meteorological scenarios.

This is critical for environmental management, agricultural planning, risk anticipation, and operational readiness.

Let us now summarize how EagleArca organizes these inputs into actual services over an AOI. For one-time analytical services, EagleArca first identifies the Area of Interest and then downloads all the relevant satellite data needed from the available Sentinel missions. This creates a consolidated data foundation for the requested analyses. On this basis, it delivers Classification and Superclassification, based primarily on Sentinel-2 multispectral data and enhanced through super-resolution and advanced thematic interpretation. Heat Island analysis, based on Sentinel-3 temperature products, especially the temporal analysis of land surface temperature behavior. Terrain morphology, subsidence, and DEM analysis, based on Sentinel 1 radar acquisitions and

interferometric processing for deformation and morphology-related outputs.

These are called one-time services not because the satellite archive is static, but because the analytical package is generated as a targeted assessment over the AOI rather than as a continuously refreshed daily feed.

In addition, EagleArca provides daily updated services, which are particularly relevant when the variable of interest evolves quickly and operationally. These include Air Quality, based mainly on Sentinel-5P atmospheric composition products integrated with atmosphere services. Weather, based on European atmospheric and forecasting services that provide both observed-state interpretation and forecast capability. This distinction between one-time and continuously updated services is conceptually important. Some environmental variables, such as land cover or topography, change relatively slowly and are best addressed through high-quality analytical campaigns. Others, such as atmospheric chemistry and weather, are dynamic by nature and therefore require continuous updates. From these base services, EagleArca derives two higher-level thematic products: Urbanization and Agriculture.

The Urbanization service is not merely a map of buildings. It is a synthetic assessment of the urban environment derived from multiple satellite dimensions. Sentinel-2 classification identifies built-up areas, impervious surfaces, vegetation loss, and spatial expansion patterns. Sentinel-3 temperature layers add the thermal dimension, revealing urban heat island behavior and hotspots of thermal stress. Sentinel-1 subsidence and deformation analysis adds geotechnical awareness, identifying areas where the built environment may be affected by surface movement or structural instability. Air quality layers, informed by Sentinel-5P and atmospheric services, enrich the evaluation by adding an environmental health perspective. In this way, Urbanization becomes a multi-layer service that supports urban planning, resilience studies, infrastructure monitoring, climate adaptation, and livability assessment.

The Agriculture service follows a similar integrative philosophy but is tuned to rural and agro-environmental processes. Sentinel-2 provides crop-related spectral information, vegetation indices, and classification layers that support crop vigor monitoring, field characterization, and seasonal interpretation. Sentinel-3 temperature products help assess thermal stress and surface energy balance. Weather and climate services contribute rainfall context, drought indicators, and forecast support. Sentinel-1 can add information about surface structure, moisture-related behavior, and terrain constraints, while DEM products help understand drainage, slope, and field suitability. Atmospheric quality layers can even support analysis of pollutant exposure or broader environmental stress. Thus, Agriculture is not limited to crop mapping; it becomes a decision-support framework for productivity, environmental conditions, and land management.

At this point, it is worth stepping back and asking a broader scientific question: why are satellite data so powerful in the first place? The first answer is synopticity.

Satellites can observe large areas coherently, with repeatable acquisition geometries and systematic revisit schedules. This is crucial when the objective is not merely to inspect one location, but to compare patterns across a city, a region, or an agricultural district. The second answer is multidimensionality. Different sensors observe different physical variables: reflectance, backscatter, thermal emission, atmospheric absorption, deformation, altitude-related geometry and modeled meteorological conditions. This allows us to characterize the same AOI from multiple physical perspectives. The third answer is time. Satellite archives are not just spatial datasets, they are temporal datasets.

This means that we can monitor trends, detect anomalies, characterize seasonality, and build predictive or diagnostic indicators. Time-series analysis is one of the central scientific advantages of modern Earth observation.

However, satellite data also have limits. Their interpretation depends on resolution, revisit time, atmospheric conditions, sensor geometry, and algorithmic assumptions. For this reason, one of the most powerful evolutions of Earth observation is the integration of satellite data with in situ sensor networks. Ground-based weather stations, soil moisture probes, air quality stations, hydrological sensors, structural monitoring systems, IoT devices, and field measurements can all complement satellite observations.

This integration is not merely additive, it is synergistic. Ground sensors provide local accuracy, physical validation, and high-frequency measurement at specific points. Satellites provide spatial continuity, large-scale context and temporal consistency over broad areas. When these two sources are fused, the result is a more complete and reliable representation of the system being studied. In urban contexts, for example, in situ temperature and pollution sensors can validate and refine satellite-based heat island and air quality indicators. In agriculture, soil probes, weather stations, and field observations can calibrate vegetation and moisture models. In geotechnical monitoring, ground instrumentation can be combined with Sentinel 1 deformation products to strengthen risk interpretation.

So the real promise of services such as EagleArca is not simply that they use satellite data. The real promise is that they transform remote sensing into a structured analytical framework. They begin with a carefully defined AOI. They acquire and preprocess all relevant Sentinel data. They build physically meaningful products such as classification, thermal diagnostics, terrain morphology, deformation, air quality, and weather context. Then they combine these layers into higher-level thematic services such as Urbanization and Agriculture. Finally, these outputs can be further enriched by integration with sensor networks and local domain knowledge.

For a STEM audience, this is perhaps the most important conceptual takeaway: Earth observation is no longer just about imagery. It is about measurement, fusion, inference, and decision support. Sentinel 1 provides radar-based structural and

deformation intelligence. Sentinel 2 provides multispectral optical intelligence for land and vegetation. Sentinel 3 provides thermal and environmental system intelligence. Sentinel 5P provides atmospheric composition intelligence. Weather and atmospheric services add forecast and modeled context. EagleArca operationalizes this ecosystem into a coherent service portfolio.

In conclusion, the Copernicus Sentinel missions represent a highly complementary set of observing systems, each designed around a distinct sensing principle and application domain. EagleArca leverages these differences rather than treating them separately. The result is a modular but integrated framework in which one-time services such as Classification, Superclassification, Heat Island, and Terrain Morphology coexist with daily updated services such as Air Quality and Weather. On top of these, the derived Urbanization and Agriculture products provide thematic interpretation for two of the most strategically important domains in environmental and territorial analysis.

This is exactly where modern geospatial intelligence is heading: away from isolated maps, and toward persistent, multi-sensor, multi-temporal, physically interpretable digital knowledge of the Earth system. And when satellite data are integrated with ground truth, field instrumentation, and expert interpretation, that knowledge becomes even more robust, more local, and more actionable.

Integrating Heterogeneous Geospatial Data

We will explore now one of the most powerful concepts in modern geospatial analysis: the integration and spatial overlay of heterogeneous datasets. In previous discussions we focused on individual data sources, such as satellite observations from the Copernicus programme. We examined how satellites like Sentinel 1, Sentinel 2, Sentinel 3, and Sentinel 5P measure different aspects of the Earth system, including surface structure, spectral reflectance, thermal dynamics, and atmospheric composition. However, the true analytical power of these data does not come from analysing them individually.

Instead, it comes from combining them spatially, layering different datasets on top of one another, and extracting patterns that emerge only when multiple sources of information are analyzed together. This process is often referred to as data fusion, layer overlay, or multisource geospatial integration. Platforms such as EagleArca, as well as other GIS-based systems, provide the capability to integrate multiple geospatial datasets into a common spatial framework. This allows analysts to compare different environmental variables across the same geographic coordinates and extract insights that would be impossible to derive from a single dataset. In today's video we will explore how this integration works and why it is so powerful.

The Concept of Spatial Layer Overlay

In Geographic Information Systems, data are typically organized as layers. Each layer represents a specific type of information about the Earth's surface. For example, a layer may represent elevation models, land cover classification, soil properties, surface temperature, atmospheric composition, or infrastructure maps. Each layer is georeferenced, meaning that every pixel or feature corresponds to a precise geographic location. Because of this common spatial reference, different layers can be stacked and analysed together.

This capability forms the foundation of spatial intelligence. When multiple datasets are aligned spatially, analysts can ask complex questions such as: How does terrain morphology influence flood risk? How do temperature patterns correlate with urban density? And how does vegetation health respond to soil moisture and rainfall? These questions require combining multiple layers of environmental information.

Example: Flood Risk and Terrain Stability

Let us examine a concrete example. Suppose we want to assess whether a particular area is vulnerable to flooding during heavy rainfall. Several datasets become relevant. First, we might analyse a Digital Elevation Model, or DEM. A DEM describes the topography of the terrain and allows us to calculate slope, drainage patterns, and water flow accumulation. Second, we might analyse subsidence data derived from Sentinel 1 interferometric radar measurements. Subsidence indicates whether the ground is slowly sinking over time, which may increase flood risk. Third, we might examine soil permeability or infiltration capacity. Permeability determines how easily water can infiltrate the soil. Low permeability soils tend to generate surface runoff rather than absorbing water. Individually, each of these datasets provides partial information.

But when they are combined spatially, they can reveal much deeper insights. For example: An area that exhibits low elevation, ongoing subsidence, and low soil permeability may be particularly vulnerable to flooding. In contrast, an area with higher elevation, stable ground, and permeable soil may be significantly less vulnerable. By overlaying these layers in a GIS platform, analysts can create risk maps that identify critical zones where infrastructure or populations may be exposed to environmental hazards. This is a powerful example of how integrating multiple geospatial layers leads to a more holistic understanding of the environment.

Urban Planning and Infrastructure Monitoring

Another important use case involves urban planning. Cities are complex systems where environmental conditions, infrastructure and human activities interact continuously. Satellite data can provide several relevant layers. For example Sentinel 2 imagery can be used to map urban expansion and land use patterns. Sentinel 3 thermal observations can identify urban heat islands, where built environments trap heat and create localized temperature increases.

Sentinel 1 radar measurements can reveal ground deformation, which may affect buildings, roads, and underground infrastructure. When these datasets are integrated in a GIS environment, planners can analyse relationships between urbanization, environmental conditions, and infrastructure stability. For example, they may discover that areas with intense urban density also exhibit strong heat island effects and reduced vegetation coverage. Such insights are critical for designing greener and more resilient cities.

Agricultural Monitoring

Agriculture is another domain where layered data analysis provides significant benefits. Agricultural systems depend on many interacting variables, including soil conditions, terrain morphology, vegetation health, climate patterns, and water availability. Satellite observations provide valuable inputs for several of these variables. Sentinel 2 multispectral imagery allows the calculation of vegetation indices such as NDVI, which indicate crop vigour.

Sentinel 3 thermal measurements provide information about land surface temperature and potential crop stress. Radar observations from Sentinel 1 can reveal soil moisture proxies and surface structure. When these layers are combined with terrain models and rainfall data, analysts can build comprehensive models of agricultural productivity and risk. For example, a region with declining vegetation indices, increasing temperature stress, and poor soil moisture retention may indicate a developing drought situation. Such insights allow agricultural managers to respond proactively.

Environmental Monitoring and Ecosystem Analysis

Layer integration is also essential for environmental monitoring. Ecosystems are complex and dynamic systems influenced by many interacting environmental variables. For example, forest health may depend on factors such as vegetation density, temperature anomalies, soil moisture, and atmospheric pollution. Satellite data provide measurements for many of these variables. Sentinel 2 imagery allows

monitoring of vegetation density and canopy conditions. Sentinel 3 thermal sensors can detect temperature stress. Sentinel 5P atmospheric sensors provide measurements of pollutants such as nitrogen dioxide and ozone. By overlaying these datasets, researchers can study how environmental stressors interact and affect ecosystems. This integrated perspective is particularly important for climate change research and biodiversity monitoring.

Disaster Risk Assessment

Another critical application of multi-layer geospatial analysis is disaster risk assessment. Natural hazards rarely depend on a single environmental factor. Instead, they arise from combinations of conditions. For example: Flood risk depends on rainfall intensity, terrain morphology, drainage capacity, soil permeability, and urban infrastructure. Landslide risk depends on slope, soil composition, rainfall, vegetation coverage, and ground stability. By combining satellite-derived layers with environmental models, GIS platforms can produce hazard susceptibility maps that support emergency planning and disaster mitigation.

Integrating Satellite and Non-Satellite Data

So far we have focused primarily on satellite observations. However, the power of geospatial integration becomes even greater when satellite data are combined with non-satellite data sources. Two particularly important sources are drone imagery and IoT sensor networks.

High-Resolution Drone Imagery

Drones provide extremely high spatial resolution imagery. While satellites typically observe the Earth at resolutions ranging from several meters to hundreds of meters, drone cameras can capture imagery at centimetre-level resolution. This makes drone imagery particularly useful for detailed local surveys. For example, drone flights can capture building structures, agricultural field conditions, infrastructure damage, and erosion patterns. When drone imagery is integrated into a GIS platform alongside satellite datasets, it provides a multi-scale perspective. Satellite data provide broad regional coverage, while drones provide detailed local insights. This combination is particularly valuable for applications such as infrastructure inspection, agriculture monitoring, and disaster response.

IoT Sensor Networks

Another powerful complementary data source is Internet of Things sensor networks. IoT devices can measure environmental variables directly on the ground, including parameters such as soil moisture, rainfall, air quality, temperature, and water levels. Unlike satellites, which observe large areas from space, IoT sensors provide point-based measurements with high temporal frequency.

For example, a weather station may record rainfall every few minutes. By integrating these ground measurements with satellite observations, analysts can validate and refine satellite-derived models. For instance, soil moisture sensors can be used to calibrate radar-based moisture proxies derived from Sentinel 1. Air quality sensors can validate atmospheric pollution measurements from Sentinel 5P. This integration significantly improves the reliability of environmental monitoring systems.

Toward Holistic Geospatial Intelligence

When satellite observations, drone imagery, and ground sensors are combined, the result is a much richer representation of the Earth system. Each source provides different strengths. Satellites offer global coverage, consistent monitoring, and multi-spectral and multi-physical observations. Drones provide extremely high spatial resolution, flexible deployment, and detailed local inspection. IoT sensors, on the other hand, deliver direct physical measurements, high temporal resolution, and ground truth validation. Together, these data sources create what we might call holistic geospatial intelligence. This integrated approach enables more accurate environmental assessments, better risk management, and more informed decision making.

Modern GIS platforms, including EagleArca and other spatial analysis systems, make it possible to integrate heterogeneous datasets within a common geospatial framework. By overlaying multiple layers of satellite observations and ground-based measurements, analysts can uncover relationships that would otherwise remain hidden. This capability is transforming fields such as environmental monitoring, urban planning, agriculture, and disaster risk management. For students and professionals working in geospatial science, learning how to integrate heterogeneous spatial data is therefore one of the most valuable skills in the field. The future of Earth observation will not rely on a single data source. Instead, it will rely on the fusion of multiple observation systems, working together to create a deeper and more comprehensive understanding of our planet.

The Future of Environmental Monitoring and Decision Support

We explore now how advances in artificial intelligence, sensor integration, and digital twin technologies are transforming not only manufacturing systems, but also environmental monitoring and decision-support capabilities. At the heart of this transformation lies a fundamental shift: the ability to move from reactive observation of environmental conditions to predictive and adaptive management of environmental systems. Modern environmental monitoring traditionally relies on periodic measurements, manual data collection, and fragmented sensor networks. These systems provide valuable data, but they often lack the ability to interpret complex environmental dynamics in real time. As a result, environmental risks, such as pollution events, ecosystem stress, or resource inefficiencies, are frequently identified only after they have already produced measurable impacts.

This is where AI-driven monitoring architectures and digital twin frameworks can significantly change the paradigm. The first enabling element is advanced environmental perception. By deploying distributed sensing systems, including environmental sensors, remote sensing devices, camera systems, and machine-generated data streams, it becomes possible to continuously observe environmental conditions at multiple spatial and temporal scales. These sensors may measure parameters such as temperature, humidity, particulate concentration, atmospheric composition, water quality indicators, or energy consumption patterns.

However, the real value does not lie only in collecting data. The key challenge is transforming raw environmental signals into actionable knowledge. Artificial intelligence plays a crucial role in this transformation. AI models can analyse large volumes of heterogeneous environmental data, identify hidden correlations among environmental variables, and detect anomalies that may signal emerging environmental risks. For example, machine learning algorithms can detect subtle patterns indicating air quality degradation, water contamination events, or abnormal ecosystem behaviour long before they become visible through traditional monitoring methods. Similarly, predictive models can forecast environmental changes by analysing historical trends together with real-time measurements.

When integrated into a digital twin architecture, these analytical capabilities become even more powerful. A digital twin can be understood as a dynamic virtual representation of a physical system, in this case, an environmental ecosystem, a monitored territory, or an industrial-environment interface. The digital twin continuously synchronises with real-world sensor data, allowing the system to simulate environmental dynamics, evaluate potential scenarios, and assess the consequences of different interventions. This creates an entirely new level of environmental decision support. Instead of relying solely on historical reports or delayed monitoring results, decision-makers can access real-time environmental intelligence. They can visualise

environmental indicators, monitor risk levels, and evaluate predictive models that estimate the evolution of environmental conditions under different scenarios.

For instance, digital twin simulations can help answer questions such as: What happens if industrial emissions increase under certain weather conditions? How would a change in resource consumption affect environmental sustainability targets? What environmental impact could emerge from specific operational decisions? These capabilities transform environmental monitoring into a predictive and proactive management system.

Another important advantage lies in integrated data fusion. Environmental phenomena are rarely driven by a single variable; they emerge from complex interactions among multiple factors. By combining environmental sensors, operational data, satellite observations, and contextual information, AI systems can build multivariate environmental models capable of capturing these complex interactions. This integrated approach significantly improves the accuracy of environmental risk prediction and supports more robust decision-making.

Equally important is the human-centric dimension of these technologies. Environmental monitoring systems are only effective if their insights are understandable and actionable for human decision-makers. Explainable AI techniques, interactive dashboards, and AI-powered assistants help translate complex analytical results into clear recommendations. Operators, environmental managers, and policymakers can therefore understand not only what is happening, but also why it is happening and what actions may mitigate potential risks. In practice, this means that environmental monitoring evolves from simple data observation into a decision-support ecosystem where AI continuously analyses environmental conditions, identifies emerging risks, and suggests mitigation strategies.

Finally, these technologies also support sustainability objectives. By enabling early detection of inefficiencies, pollution events, or resource misuse, AI-driven monitoring systems help organisations reduce environmental impact, optimise resource consumption, and improve compliance with environmental regulations. In the long term, the integration of artificial intelligence, distributed sensing, and digital twin modelling will enable a new generation of environmental monitoring systems that are adaptive, predictive, and decision-oriented. Such systems will not only observe environmental change but will actively support the management of environmental systems in a way that is more sustainable, resilient, and informed by real-time data intelligence.

And ultimately, this is the direction in which environmental technology is moving: toward a world where data, intelligence, and simulation work together to support smarter and more responsible decisions about our environment.

Sentinel EO Data - SAR and Multispectral Monitoring

Sentinel 1

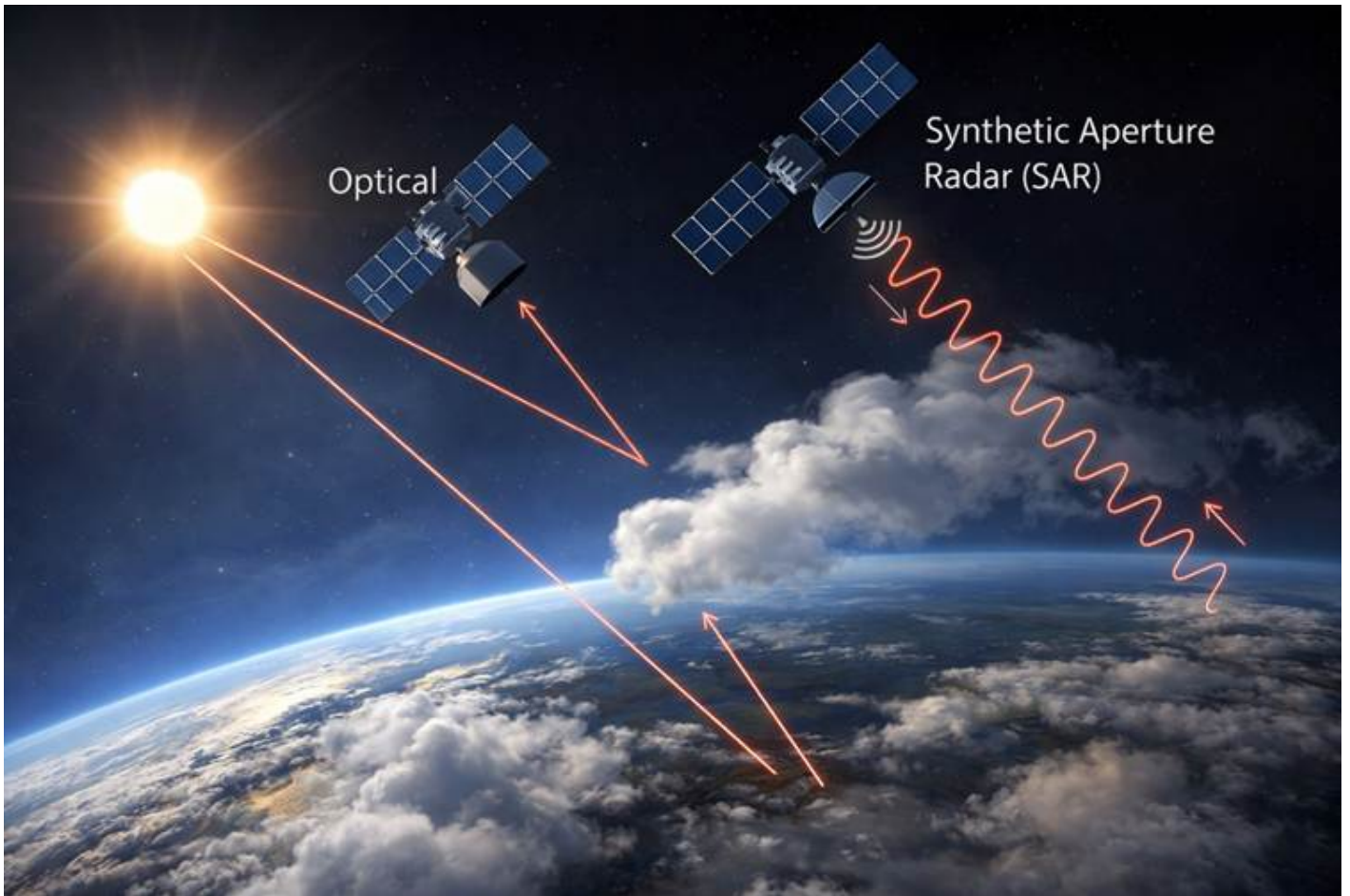
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SAR Introduction and Sentinel 1 Fundamentals

Welcome. In this video, we explore one of the most powerful technologies used in Earth observation today: Synthetic Aperture Radar, commonly referred to as SAR. We focus on the Sentinel 1 mission, which represents the radar component of the European Union's Copernicus Earth observation programme, and use it as a reference to understand how radar systems observe the Earth's surface under conditions where optical sensors are limited. From this starting point, we will examine how SAR works from a physical and technical perspective, including how radar signals interact with the surface, how images are formed and how geophysical measurements can be extracted from the data.

Sentinel 1 is a radar imaging mission developed by the European Space Agency and consists of two satellites, Sentinel 1A and Sentinel 1B. These satellites operate in the same orbit but are phased to ensure frequent and consistent observations of the Earth's surface. Each satellite is equipped with a C-band Synthetic Aperture Radar instrument, operating at microwave frequencies with a wavelength of approximately 5.6 centimeters.

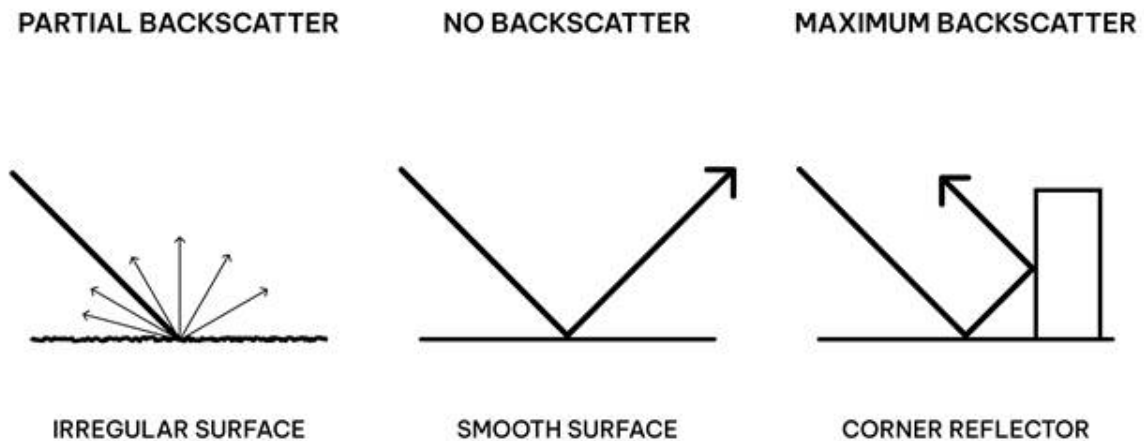


Unlike optical sensors, which rely on sunlight reflected from the Earth, Sentinel 1 is an active sensor. It emits its own microwave signal toward the surface and measures the portion of that signal that is reflected back. This capability allows Sentinel 1 to observe the Earth independently of daylight conditions and largely independently of atmospheric effects such as cloud cover. For this reason, radar data plays a critical role in operational monitoring systems, where continuous and reliable observations are required. The mission provides systematic and high-resolution radar imagery that supports a wide range of applications, including land deformation monitoring, flood mapping, maritime surveillance, agricultural observation and infrastructure stability assessment.

To understand how this information is generated, it is necessary to briefly review the physical principles behind radar sensing. Radar systems operate by transmitting electromagnetic waves and measuring how these waves interact with the Earth's surface. The transmitted signal travels at the speed of light and, when it encounters an object, part of the energy is scattered in different directions. A portion of this scattered energy returns to the radar sensor and is recorded. From this returned signal, two key quantities are measured: amplitude and phase.

The amplitude indicates how strongly a surface reflects the radar signal, providing information about the physical properties of the target. The phase, on the other hand, contains information about the distance between the satellite and the observed surface. These two components form the basis for extracting meaningful information from SAR data. Radar systems typically operate in the microwave region of the electromagnetic spectrum. These wavelengths are

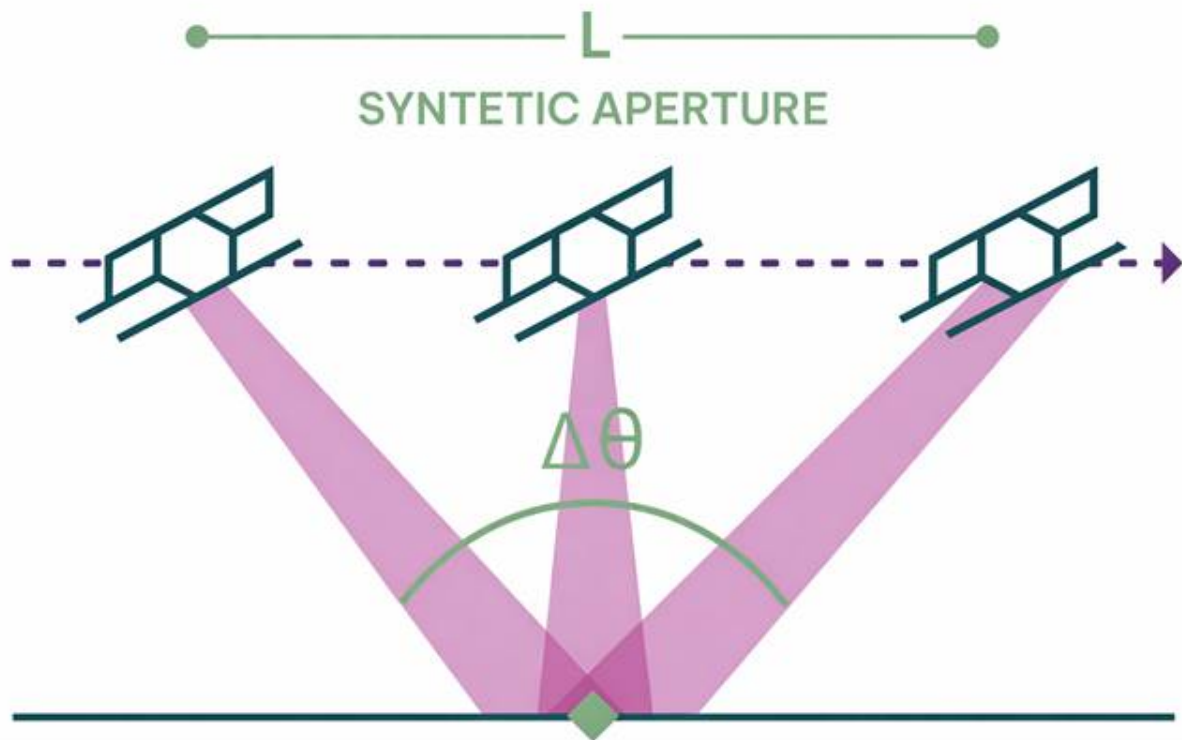
particularly useful because they interact with the physical structure of the surface in distinctive ways. For example, microwave signals can penetrate vegetation canopies and, in some conditions, even dry soil. This makes radar particularly effective for observing features that are not directly visible with optical sensors.



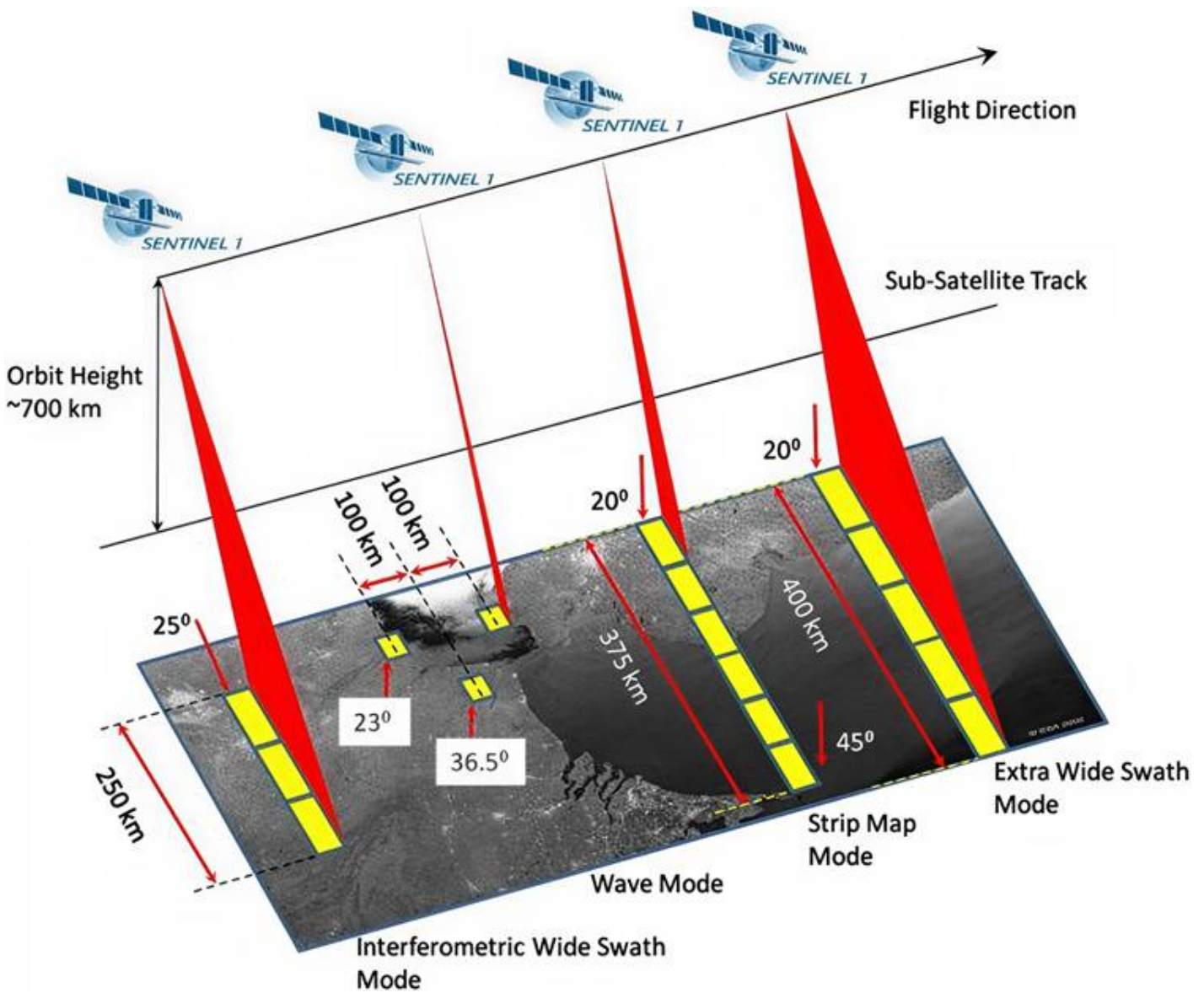
When a radar wave reaches the Earth's surface, the way it is reflected depends on several physical characteristics, the most important of which is surface roughness. If the surface is smooth relative to the radar wavelength, the signal is reflected away from the sensor in a specular manner, similar to a mirror. This is why calm water surfaces often appear very dark in radar images. If the surface is rough, the signal is scattered in multiple directions and a portion of that energy returns to the sensor. Urban environments are a typical example of this behavior, where buildings and infrastructure generate strong radar reflections due to multiple scattering between vertical and horizontal surfaces, a phenomenon often referred to as the corner reflector effect. This results in a strong backscatter signal, making urban areas clearly distinguishable in radar imagery.

Another important factor is the dielectric property of the material. Surfaces with higher dielectric constants, such as wet soils, tend to reflect more radar energy than dry surfaces. This allows radar data to be used for detecting variations in soil moisture and surface water conditions. Vegetation also plays a significant role in radar scattering. Leaves, branches and trunks create complex interactions with the radar signal, generating patterns that can be used to infer vegetation structure and density. Understanding these interaction mechanisms is essential for correctly interpreting SAR imagery, as the observed signal is always the result of a combination of surface geometry, material properties and environmental conditions.

Synthetic Aperture and SAR Image Formation

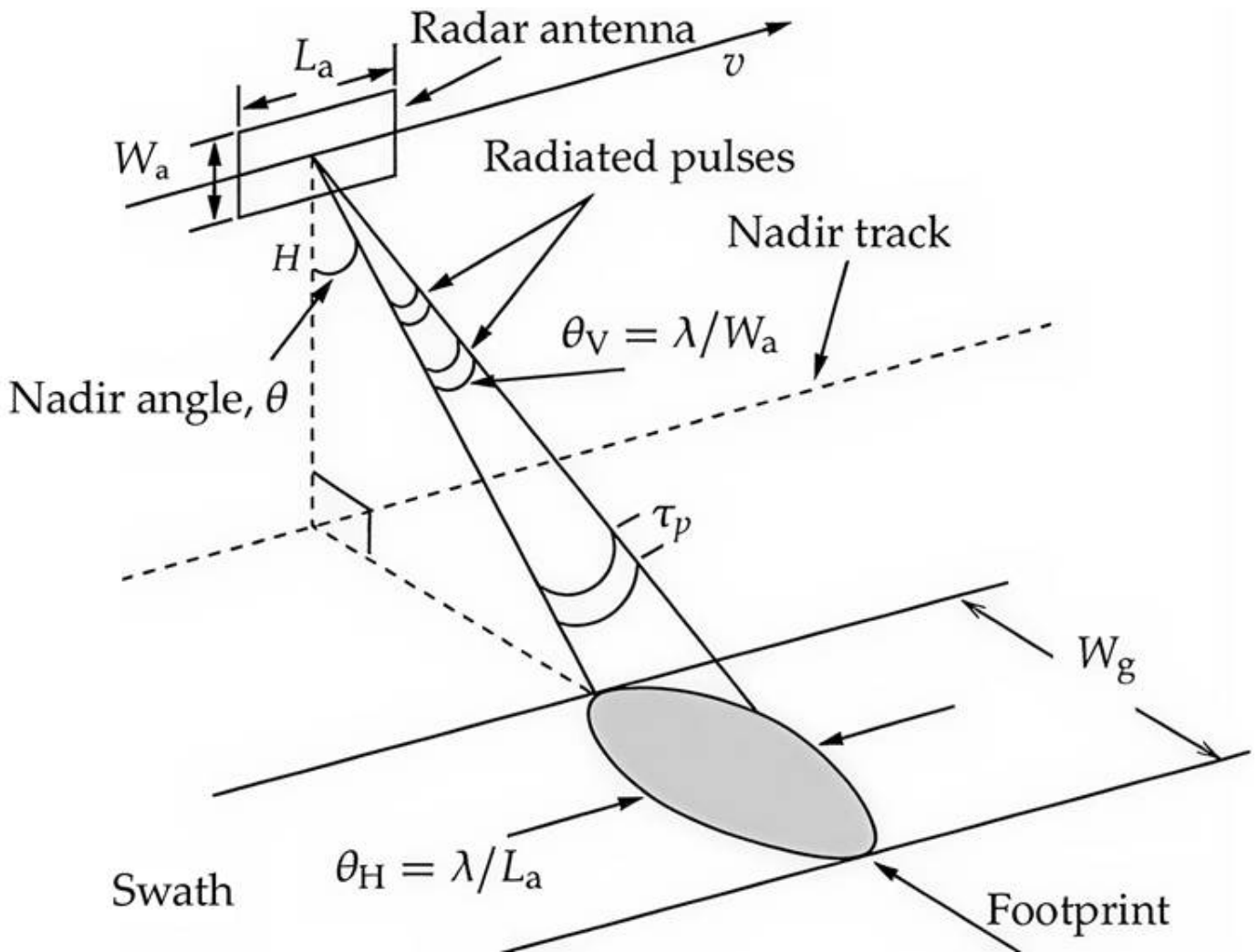


The term Synthetic Aperture Radar refers to a specific imaging technique that allows radar systems to achieve high spatial resolution without requiring physically large antennas. In traditional radar systems, image resolution depends directly on the size of the antenna. A larger antenna provides better angular resolution, but in satellite applications, building very large antennas is not practical. SAR overcomes this limitation by exploiting the motion of the satellite along its orbit. As the satellite moves, the radar instrument repeatedly transmits pulses toward the same ground area. Each of these pulses is recorded together with the amplitude and phase of the returned signal.



Because the satellite changes position over time, each measurement is effectively acquired from a slightly different location along the orbit. By combining all these observations through advanced signal processing, it is possible to simulate the effect of a much larger antenna. This process creates what is known as a synthetic aperture, which is significantly larger than the physical antenna mounted on the satellite. The result is a radar image with much higher spatial resolution than would otherwise be achievable.

SAR images are constructed using two spatial dimensions: range and azimuth. The range dimension corresponds to the distance between the radar sensor and the target. Range resolution depends on the duration of the transmitted radar pulse, with shorter pulses providing finer resolution.



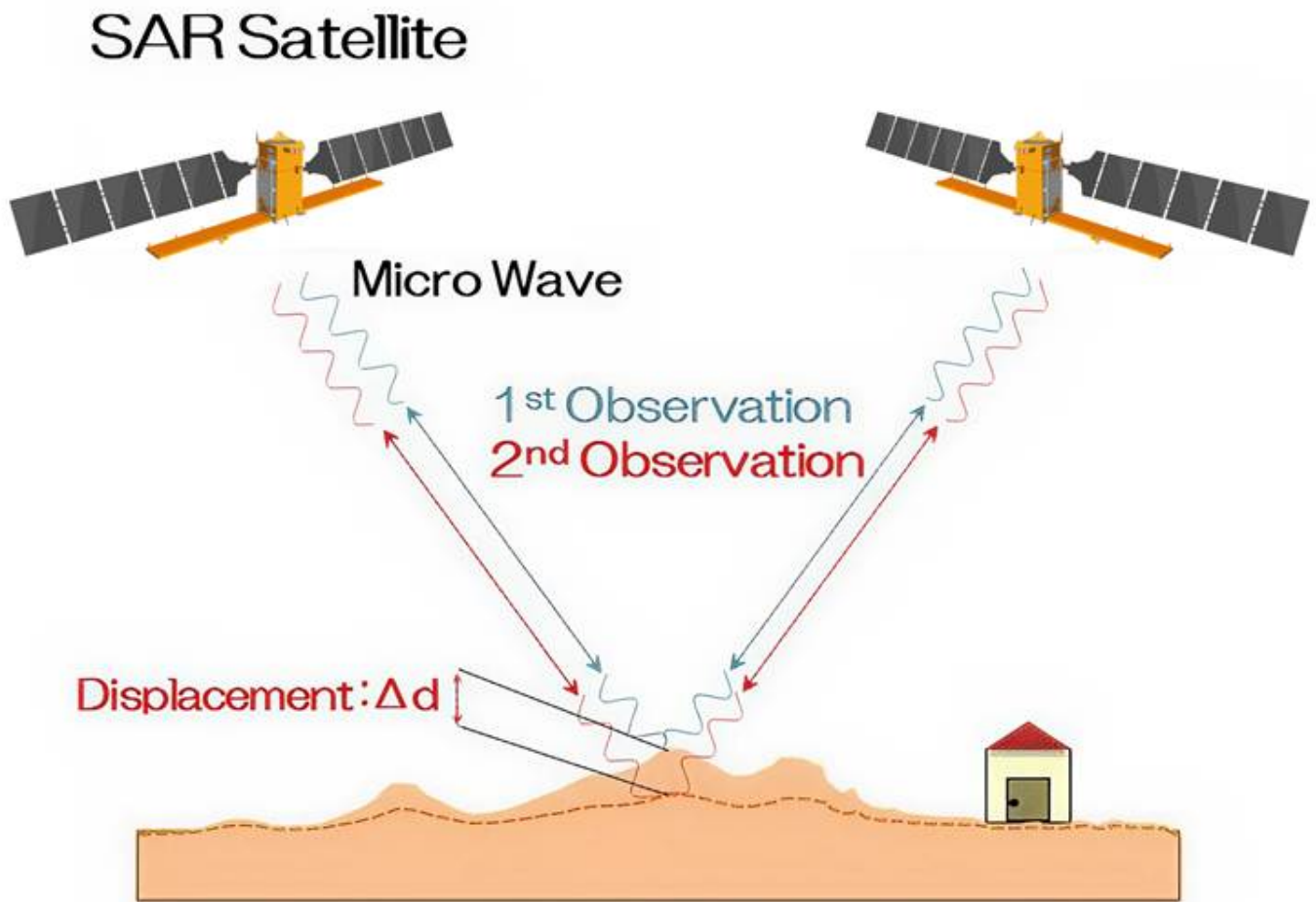
The azimuth dimension corresponds to the direction of the satellite's motion. Azimuth resolution is achieved through the synthetic aperture process, which combines multiple observations collected over time. By coherently integrating radar echoes acquired along the orbit, the system can distinguish objects that are very close to each other along the flight path. This process requires precise control and analysis of the phase information contained in the radar signal.

The generation of a SAR image involves several processing steps. Initially, the radar system records raw echoes as complex signals containing both amplitude and phase. These signals must then be processed to reconstruct a coherent and geometrically accurate image. Key steps in this process include range compression, azimuth compression, motion compensation and radiometric calibration. Range compression improves resolution in the distance direction by correlating the received signal with the transmitted pulse.

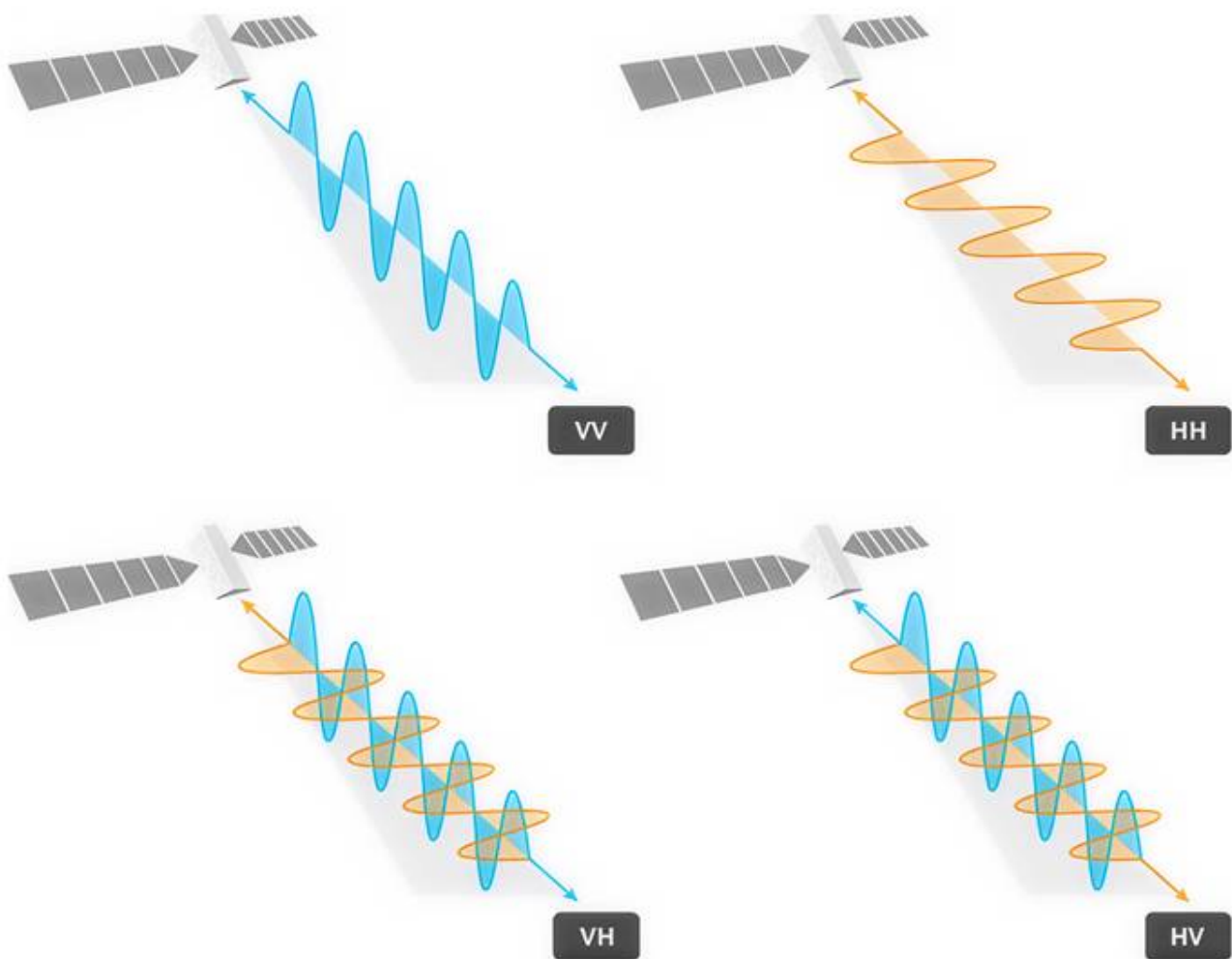
Azimuth compression combines multiple radar echoes acquired during the satellite motion, enabling the synthetic aperture effect. Motion compensation ensures that any deviations in the satellite trajectory are correctly accounted for, preserving geometric accuracy. Radiometric calibration converts the raw signal into standardized backscatter values, allowing meaningful comparison across different acquisitions. The final result is a radar image in which each pixel represents the backscatter intensity associated with a specific ground location.

Interferometric SAR, Polarization and Applications

One of the most powerful capabilities of SAR technology is interferometry, commonly referred to as InSAR. InSAR is based on the comparison of multiple radar images acquired either from slightly different positions or at different times. By analyzing the phase differences between these acquisitions, it becomes possible to detect very small variations in the distance between the satellite and the ground.



These variations can correspond to ground displacement on the order of millimeters, making InSAR a highly effective tool for monitoring surface deformation. Because Sentinel 1 provides frequent and geometrically consistent observations of the same areas, it is particularly well suited for interferometric analysis over time. Through this approach, it is possible to monitor a wide range of geophysical processes, including land subsidence, tectonic deformation, volcanic activity, landslides and infrastructure stability. In addition to interferometry, another important concept in radar remote sensing is polarization.



Radar signals can be transmitted and received with different polarization states, typically horizontal or vertical. Different surface types interact with these polarization configurations in different ways, producing distinct scattering responses. By analyzing multiple polarization channels, it is possible to extract additional information about surface structure and scattering mechanisms. This is particularly useful in applications such as vegetation analysis, forest monitoring and agricultural assessment.

The combination of SAR imaging, interferometric techniques and polarization analysis makes Sentinel 1 a highly versatile system for Earth observation. For example, in flood monitoring, water surfaces tend to appear dark in radar imagery due to specular reflection, allowing flooded areas to be identified even under cloud cover. In deformation monitoring, interferometric analysis enables the detection of slow ground movements that are not visible through conventional observation methods. In agriculture, the sensitivity of radar signals to soil moisture and vegetation structure provides valuable insights into crop conditions.

In maritime applications, SAR can detect ships and monitor sea ice regardless of weather conditions. In infrastructure monitoring, radar-based deformation measurements can help identify structural instability in buildings, bridges and other assets. Overall, SAR represents a fundamental component of modern Earth observation. By combining microwave sensing,

satellite motion and advanced signal processing, it enables continuous monitoring of the Earth's surface under conditions where optical systems are limited.

The Sentinel 1 mission has made this technology widely accessible through the Copernicus programme, providing a reliable source of data for scientific, operational and decision-making applications. When integrated with optical and atmospheric observations from other Sentinel missions, SAR contributes to a more comprehensive and multi-dimensional understanding of environmental processes.

Advanced Applications of Sentinel 1: Landslides, Subsidence and Phase Displacement

We now move from the theoretical principles of SAR and interferometry to a set of advanced applications based on Sentinel 1 data. In particular, we will focus on three key phenomena: landslides, subsidence and phase displacement monitoring. All these applications rely on interferometric analysis, which allows us to measure ground deformation with millimetric precision and to observe how it evolves over time. The objective is to understand how these techniques can be applied in real-world scenarios to monitor terrain stability, assess risks and support decision-making processes.

Sentinel 1 is particularly well suited for this type of analysis thanks to its acquisition characteristics. It provides consistent observations over time, frequent revisit intervals and stable imaging geometry, all of which are essential for reliable time-series analysis. By applying interferometric techniques such as Differential InSAR, Persistent Scatterer Interferometry and Small Baseline Subset approaches, it becomes possible to detect very small surface displacements and to track their evolution across multiple acquisitions. These approaches differ in how they select stable targets and reconstruct deformation over time, enabling reliable analysis even in complex environments.

Let us begin with landslide monitoring. Landslides are often associated with factors such as intense rainfall, soil saturation, seismic activity or slope instability. However, in many cases, they are preceded by gradual ground deformation that may not be detectable through traditional observation methods. Sentinel 1 allows the identification of these pre-failure signals by analyzing phase variations over time. By comparing repeated acquisitions of the same slope, it is possible to detect slow displacement patterns and identify areas that are progressively becoming unstable. Through time-series analysis, operators can recognize active slopes, areas with increasing deformation rates and zones that may be at risk of failure.

In operational scenarios, this information can be used to support early warning systems. Monitoring a slope over time makes it possible to detect acceleration in displacement, which is often a critical precursor of slope failure. This allows authorities to take preventive actions, such as restricting access, reinforcing the terrain or deploying additional monitoring systems.

We now move to subsidence monitoring. Subsidence refers to the gradual sinking of the ground surface and can affect large areas over long periods. It is commonly associated with groundwater extraction, mining activities, soil compaction or urban development. Using Sentinel 1 data, subsidence can be measured through time-series interferometric analysis. This process typically involves identifying stable reference points, tracking phase changes across multiple acquisitions and converting these phase variations into displacement values. By tracking phase changes across multiple acquisitions, it is possible to estimate displacement velocities and generate maps that represent ground movement over time. In these maps, negative values typically indicate downward motion, while positive values correspond to uplift.

These maps allow the identification of spatial patterns, such as uniform subsidence across an area or localized deformation linked to specific activities. In urban environments, this type of analysis is particularly valuable. It enables the detection of differential subsidence that may affect buildings, roads or infrastructure networks. By identifying areas with higher deformation rates, planners and engineers can prioritize interventions, monitor critical zones and reduce the risk of structural damage.

The third aspect is phase displacement monitoring, which represents a more general approach to deformation analysis. Phase displacement refers to changes in the radar signal phase over time, which correspond to variations in the distance between the satellite and the ground along the radar line of sight. This measurement includes both vertical motion and horizontal motion toward or away from the satellite, meaning it does not represent purely vertical displacement. By analyzing multiple acquisitions, it is possible to reconstruct deformation time series for individual locations. This allows the identification of gradual trends, seasonal variations and sudden changes in ground movement.

Phase displacement monitoring is widely used in infrastructure analysis. For example, bridges, buildings or other structures can be monitored over time by identifying stable radar targets and tracking their displacement. If the observed time series shows consistent movement, acceleration or irregular behavior, this may indicate potential structural issues. One of the key advantages of this approach is that it is non-invasive, as it does not require the installation of physical sensors on the structure. In real-world applications, landslide monitoring, subsidence analysis and phase displacement are often used together.

Each approach provides a different perspective on ground dynamics. Landslide analysis focuses on slope instability, subsidence highlights vertical ground movement over large areas and phase displacement provides a detailed temporal description of deformation. By integrating these analyses, it becomes possible to obtain a more comprehensive understanding of terrain behavior. To further improve interpretation, Sentinel 1 data can be combined with additional sources of information, such as Digital Elevation Models, rainfall data, geological maps or in-situ measurements. This multi-source approach increases the reliability of the analysis and supports more informed decision-making.

At the same time, it is important to consider some limitations of radar-based measurements. Displacement is measured along the radar line of sight, which means it does not directly

correspond to purely vertical or horizontal motion. Vegetation can reduce signal coherence, atmospheric conditions may introduce noise and complex terrain can lead to phase interpretation challenges. Understanding these limitations is essential for correctly interpreting the results and avoiding misinterpretation.

Data Visualization in EagleArca

We are now going to explore how Sentinel 1 radar data can be visualized and used within the EagleArca platform and how its analytical value increases when it is combined with other geospatial information. The objective is not simply to access satellite data, but to understand how this data is transformed into an interactive analytical layer that allows users to observe and interpret ground deformation processes such as subsidence and displacement over time. Within EagleArca, Sentinel 1 data is available as a dedicated geospatial layer derived from interferometric analysis. This layer provides information about ground displacement along the radar line of sight, enabling the monitoring of terrain dynamics over time.

By interacting with the map, it is possible to select specific areas of interest and access the associated data. Among the available information is the average deformation velocity, typically calculated over a temporal baseline of approximately two years. This value represents the rate of ground movement and allows users to quickly identify areas affected by subsidence or uplift. In addition to this aggregated value, the platform also provides access to the temporal evolution of deformation. For each selected location, a time series is available, showing how displacement changes over time.

This temporal representation makes it possible to recognize different patterns. A linear trend may indicate a steady and continuous deformation process, while non-linear trends, seasonal oscillations or sudden variations may reveal more complex dynamics related to environmental conditions or structural factors. In this way, the Sentinel 1 layer is not just a static map, but an analytical tool that allows users to understand not only where deformation occurs, but also how it evolves over time. A key feature of the EagleArca platform is that all layers are georeferenced within the same coordinate system. This allows Sentinel 1 data to be seamlessly combined with other geospatial datasets, enabling integrated analysis.

For example, when deformation data is combined with a Digital Elevation Model, it becomes possible to analyze how ground movement relates to terrain morphology. Subsidence in flat areas may indicate potential water accumulation issues, while deformation along slopes may suggest instability or landslide risk. Similarly, integrating Sentinel 1 data with land use or land cover information helps distinguish between deformation occurring in urban areas, agricultural fields or natural environments, providing essential context for interpretation.

In urban scenarios, combining deformation data with infrastructure layers such as buildings, roads or pipelines allows the identification of critical assets that may be affected by ground movement, supporting risk assessment and maintenance planning. In agricultural contexts,

Sentinel 1 data can be combined with information derived from Sentinel 2 or other environmental indicators, making it possible to analyze the relationship between soil conditions, irrigation practices and seasonal dynamics. Another important integration is with meteorological data, such as rainfall and temperature. By correlating deformation patterns with environmental variables, it becomes possible to investigate how external factors influence ground movement.

The key point is that, while the Sentinel 1 layer provides valuable information on its own, its full analytical potential emerges when it is integrated with other datasets, such as terrain models, land use information, environmental indicators and meteorological data, allowing multiple variables to be analyzed together. From an operational perspective, EagleArca enables users to dynamically activate and deactivate layers, adjust visualization parameters and interact with specific locations to access detailed information. This interactive approach is particularly important when working with complex datasets such as SAR-derived deformation, which always require contextual interpretation. Moreover, the ability to observe both spatial distribution and temporal evolution within the same environment provides a comprehensive understanding of the monitored area.

In conclusion, the visualization of Sentinel 1 data in EagleArca demonstrates how advanced satellite analytics can be transformed into accessible and actionable information. By combining spatial analysis, temporal monitoring and multi-layer integration, the platform enables users to better understand and manage ground deformation phenomena.

Interpreting Geospatial Layers and Practical Applications

Once geospatial data has been visualized, the next step is to understand how to interpret it correctly and how to translate that information into practical applications. Geospatial analysis is based on the concept of layers, where each layer represents a specific type of information associated with a geographic location. These layers can include satellite-derived data, terrain models, land use classifications, infrastructure maps or environmental indicators. Each layer contains values that describe a particular physical or modeled variable. In the case of raster data, these values are organized in pixels, while vector data is represented through geometries such as points, lines and polygons.

Interpreting these layers requires understanding both what the data represents and how it has been generated. When analyzing a layer for the first time, it is important to avoid interpreting values in isolation. A single value may provide limited information, while its meaning becomes clearer when considered within its spatial context. For this reason, one of the most important aspects of geospatial interpretation is the ability to recognize spatial patterns. For example, clusters of high values may indicate localized anomalies, while linear patterns can follow infrastructure or geological features. The distribution of values across an area often reveals underlying processes that are not immediately visible at a single point. For example, clusters of similar values may indicate consistent environmental conditions, while gradients or abrupt

changes can suggest transitions between different states or the presence of anomalies.

In addition to spatial patterns, temporal analysis also plays a crucial role. When time-series data is available, it becomes possible to observe how a variable evolves over time, identifying trends, seasonal variations or sudden changes. This temporal dimension is particularly important in applications such as environmental monitoring, infrastructure assessment and agricultural analysis, where processes are dynamic rather than static. Another key principle is the integration of multiple layers. Individual datasets provide partial information, but when combined, they allow a more comprehensive understanding of the system being observed.

For instance, in agriculture, combining vegetation indices, soil moisture information and temperature data can help explain variations in crop performance. In urban environments, integrating deformation data with infrastructure layers can support risk assessment and maintenance planning. In environmental analysis, combining terrain data with meteorological information can help identify areas exposed to flooding or erosion. In practical scenarios, geospatial layers are used to support decision-making across different domains. In agriculture, they contribute to monitoring crop conditions and optimizing resource use. In urban contexts, they support infrastructure management and planning. In environmental monitoring, they help identify risks and understand natural processes.

It is also important to consider that geospatial data is not limited to a single platform. One of the strengths of modern geospatial systems is their interoperability. Data can be exported and used in external GIS environments, enabling more advanced or customized analysis. Common formats include raster files such as GeoTIFF and vector formats such as Shapefiles, which can be imported into tools like QGIS. These environments allow users to perform more detailed spatial analysis, apply custom processing workflows and integrate additional datasets. The ability to move between different tools ensures flexibility in the analytical process. Initial exploration and visualization can be performed within platforms like EagleArca, while more advanced processing and modeling can be carried out in dedicated GIS software.

Ultimately, interpreting geospatial layers is both a technical and analytical task. It requires understanding the nature of the data, recognizing spatial and temporal patterns and integrating multiple sources of information into a coherent framework. As the availability of geospatial data continues to grow, the ability to interpret and use these layers effectively becomes increasingly important across a wide range of applications. In conclusion, geospatial layers are not simply visual elements on a map, but structured representations of complex spatial processes. When correctly interpreted and combined, they provide valuable insights that support informed decision-making in agriculture, urban planning and environmental monitoring.

Sentinel EO Data - SAR and Multispectral Monitoring

Sentinel-2