

# EFAL: EDRS Feeder Link from Antarctic Latitudes

## - Preliminary Results of Site Investigations, Availability, and System Requirements

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**Abstract**—Laser communications from ground to geostationary satellites can enable high-rate data repatriation from remote ground station sites. When employing Arctic or Antarctic ground hubs, the low link elevations impose a major challenge due to the strong atmospheric index-of-refraction turbulence impact and increased attenuation. The usability of the European Data Relays System (EDRS) for data uplinks from an Antarctic ground station has been analyzed in terms of cloud-availability and feasibility in terms of atmospheric turbulence. For model-verification, an on-site wavefront measurement campaign has been carried out. This scenario also serves as worst test-case for future optical GEO-feeder links

**Keywords**—Optical geostationary feeder link; low elevation atmospheric propagation; wavefront quality measurement; focal speckle pattern

### I. INTRODUCTION

The European Data Relay System (EDRS) consists of a GEO space segment, able to receive optical BPSK modulated payload data from Earth observation satellites at up to 1.8Gbps. This unique space-asset can also be used for data repatriation from a polar X-band or S-band ground hub, which otherwise would not have a high-rate data link. DLR is investigating the feasibility of such a high-speed data uplink from an optical ground station located in the Antarctic, to double the Earth observation data throughput capacity together with its northern hemisphere counterpart [1]. The major challenge of this low-elevation ( $10^\circ$ ) optical uplink is the long atmospheric path in the lower link section, imposing strong index-of-refraction turbulence (IRT) effects onto the laser beam. Investigations of beam propagation show that the uplink beam wander necessitates increased beam divergence together with increased transmit power to ensure illuminating the GEO satellite's

position. However, the exact quantification of this effect is delicate due to the uncertainty in the turbulence profile over the Antarctic landscape. In this paper we present preliminary results of availability-assessment of an *EDRS Feeder link from Antarctic Latitudes* (EFAL) in terms of cloud-blockage, and theoretical  $C_n^2$ -profile estimations as well as in-situ measurements of the Fried-parameter. For the later, a measurement campaign was carried out in the vicinity of the Princess Elizabeth Antarctic Station (PEA) near the Antarctic coast, using the method of tilt-removed short-term focal speckle pattern size statistics [2]. This measurements campaign to our knowledge is the first time that the wavefront statistics have been evaluated for such low elevations on the Antarctic continent.

### II. LINK SCENARIO FROM ANTARCTIC OGS

#### A. EDRS optical link system parameters

The feeder link from Arctic latitudes will connect to Laser Communication Terminals (LCTs) embarked on three different GEO stationary satellites. On the GEOs, the LCT is a part of a hybrid optical- RF payload for data relay. The LCT is serving as input section for RF payloads that have different capabilities regarding the programs:

**Alphasat Mission:** The data output of the LCT [3] is directly connected to a 600Mbit Ka-band modulator (transparent connection).

**EDRS Mission:** The data output of the LCT is forwarded to a framing, encrypting and coding group. Due to the resulting overhead, the data volume is increased and dumped through  $n$  Ka-band channels, each with 600Mbps data rate. The ground segment performs decoding, decryption and de-framing.

The two scenarios are presented in more detail in Fig. 1. The data from a mass memory of a LEO satellite is RS encoded. In order to prepare the data for the optical ISL (OISL) between a LEO and a GEO satellite, framing and additional RS encoding is performed. A repetition code increases the data rate from 600 Mbps to 1800 Mbps for the LCT. After optical transmission, the GEO LCT receives the data and decodes the repetition code.

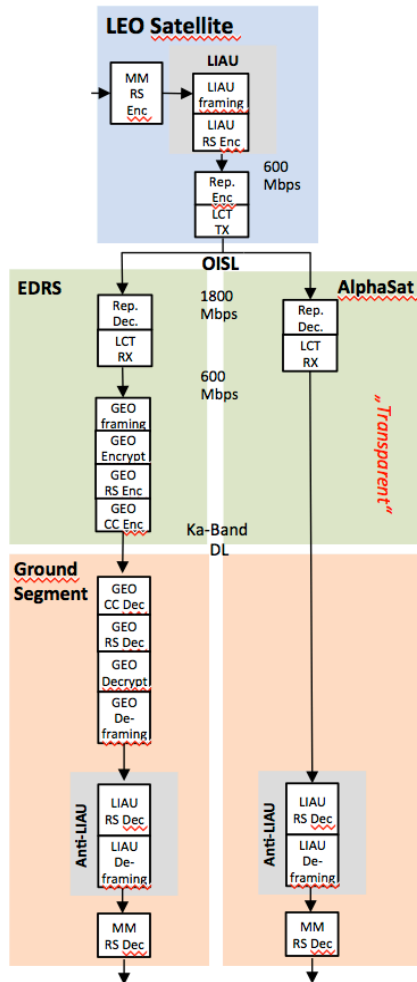


Fig. 1. Hybrid optical-RF payload for data relay for different missions.

In contrast to the transparent Alphasat mission, the data is further processed for the Ka-band downlink at the EDRS spacecraft. Framing and encryption is followed by an RS and convolutional coding stage. After Ka-band downlink the ground segment performs decoding and error correction.

In case of an optical uplink, the optical ground station acts as a LEO satellite. LIAU framing of the user data needs to be applied, even for the transparent Alphasat mission.

In Fig. 2 the GEO LCT and the Ka-band antenna mounted on the Alphasat satellite are shown. In Fig. 3 the EDRS-A LCT is presented being mounted in a TV chamber at Tesat Spacecom during acceptance tests.

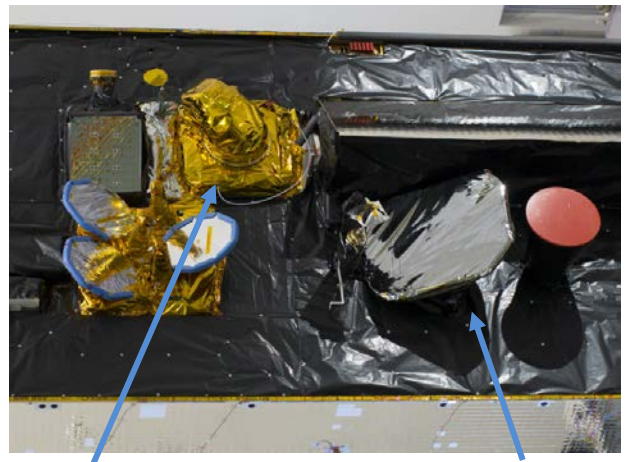


Fig. 2. LCT on earth deck of Alphasat Satellite and dedicated Ka antenna.

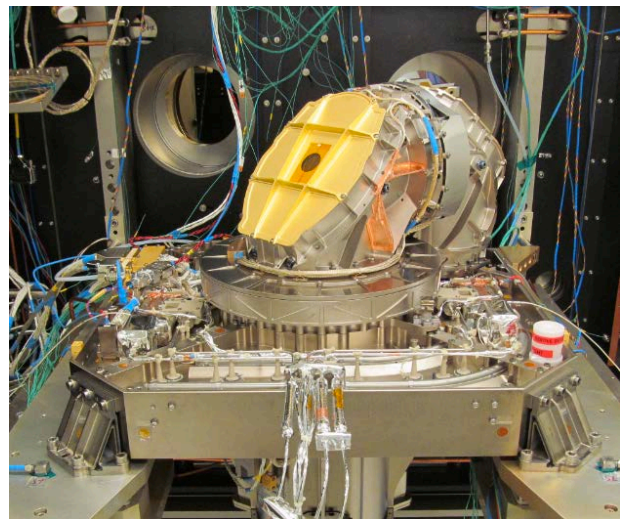


Fig. 3. EDRS-A LCT during acceptance tests in TV chamber at Tesat Spacecom.

### B. Geographic situation to EDRS-satellites

Figure 1 shows the orbital positions as well as visibility contours (0° and 10° elevation) of both EDRS spacecraft, EDRS-A being a hosted payload aboard the EUTELSAT 9B satellite. Additionally, the figure shows orbital position of the Alphasat satellite which could also be used for investigations of the optical link quality. All aforementioned spacecraft are visible under 10° elevation from a narrow strip of Antarctic coast stretching approximately between 12°E and 28°E. The range of options for a possible OGS location can be widened if the visibility of only one EDRS spacecraft is considered sufficient.

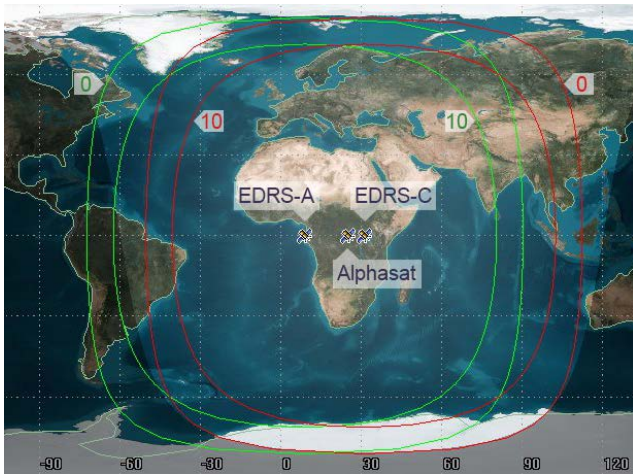


Fig. 4. Orbital positions as well as visibility contours for 0° and 10° elevation of the EDRS spacecraft (green – EDRS-A, red – EDRS-C). The orbital position of the Alphasat satellite is also shown. The Antarctic coastline east and west of +20° longitude sees these GEO-satellites at more than 10° elevation.

### C. Isoplanatic angle versus point ahead

The geometric situation in an optical link to a geostationary satellite is defined mainly by three angles: the uplink beam divergence, the point-ahead-angle (PAA, typical 18 $\mu$ rad for a geostationary satellite) due to the relative velocity of the satellite versus the optical ground station (OGS), and the isoplanatic angle (IPA) of the atmospheric index-of-refraction turbulence structure. The uplink beam divergence should be made as small as possible to produce the highest signal intensity at the satellite. However, the IRT-induced turbulent beam spread sets a lower limit to this angle. When pointing the laser beam towards the satellite, the atmospheric beam-wander should be compensated by tracking the angle-of-arrival (AoA, caused by IRT) of a reference signal from the satellite, and pointing the outgoing beam accordingly. However, here the IPA sets a limit, as incoming and outgoing beams traverse through different atmospheric volumes when IPA < PAA. While the magnitude of the IPA depends on the local IRT-profile structure and the wavelength, this condition is usually the case for low link elevations, as here the IPA becomes very small (figure 5). This leads to the situation, that the observed AoA can no longer serve as reference for pointing the uplink beam in the correct direction to compensate atmospheric beam-wander deviations. Instead, the beam-wander must be balanced by increasing the uplink beam divergence. This effect causes a challenging link-budget in any low-elevation satellite-uplink, requiring very high transmit powers from ground. The quality of pointing-by-tracking has been analyzed and verified in another OGS-GEO measurement campaign [4].

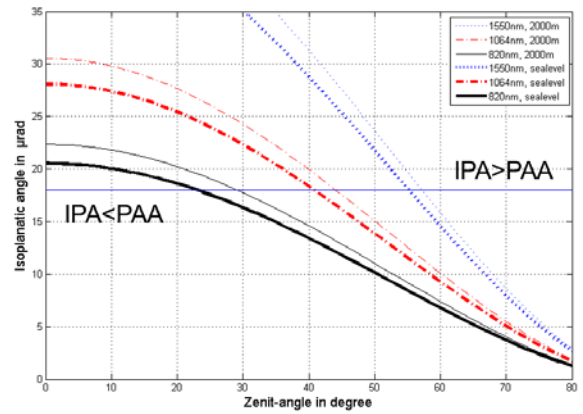


Fig. 5. Isoplanatic angle over zenith-angle for typical IRT-profiles. At 10° elevation (80° zenith angle) in all cases IPA < PAA (compare with the horizontal line at PAA=18 $\mu$ rad for a geostationary satellite).

### D. Fried-parameter estimation from focal speckle patterns

To estimate the turbulence conditions at a given OGS-site one can measure the Fried-parameter  $r_0$  as statistical value of the wavefront distortion. Here we utilized the focal speckle pattern method as described in [2] to estimate  $r_0$  by measuring short-term tilt removed values of focal speckle sizes from stars at daytime (Antarctic summer). This method furthermore allows to assess the short-term quality of heterodyning-efficiency to rate the quality of a coherent receiver. In EFAL we employed a 9¼ inch (235mm) aperture telescope with a focal length of 2350 mm to record videos of the focal speckle patterns. Figure 6 shows two examples of focal speckle patterns for good and bad IRT-situation under 10° elevation. Values are collected with an optical band-pass around 600nm wavelength and later converted for the target-wavelength of 1064nm. When using method [2] with stars as reference sources the atmospheric dispersion must be taken into account, leading to a vertically elongated speckle pattern whose size is depending on filter bandwidth and elevation [5][6]. According to [5], for our measurement scenario we have to expect angular dispersion of up to 5 $\mu$ rad.



Fig. 6. Example of a small focal speckle pattern due to a large Fried parameter (left), and a bad IRT-situation, causing a large focal speckle pattern (right); measured during EFAL Antarctic  $r_0$  measurement campaign Dec'13-Feb'14.



### III. CLOUD COVER STATISTICS

The presence of clouds in the line of sight can prohibit the optical link due to exorbitantly high attenuation. For water cloud types like Cumulus, Stratus, Stratocumulus, Altostratus, and Nimbostratus this may be as high as 100 up to 600 dB/km and even the thinnest Stratus and Stratocumulus clouds bear over 30 dB of total attenuation [7]. Ice clouds attenuate less. Typical values are 1-6 dB/km and 1-15 dB of total attenuation [8]. Thus, only very thin water clouds and ice clouds bear attenuation low enough to be included in a link margin. However, in most cases the link is totally blocked. Therefore, a statistical analysis of cloud cover occurrence of the particular site must be performed in the planning phase of any ground-satellite laser communication link. Studies do exist, for instance for sites and networks in Europe [7][12], USA [9][10][14], and Japan [11]. Antarctic clouds in the troposphere were examined in general in [17], but not investigated yet addressing link availability. Herein, different kinds of data base for cloud cover estimation are discussed: surface-based observations, airborne measurements and satellite passive/active remote sensing all having particular advantages and disadvantages which are, however, not under discussion here.

Passive remote sensing data is most often used. GEO satellite images from GOES-West, GOES-East, GOES-9, Meteosat-7, and Meteosat-5 were used in [9] to assess link availability for a world spanning ground station network for Deep-Space links. The same image sources together with the measurements from the GEO MTSAT were applied in [10] to estimate worldwide distributed ground stations and network availability for LEO downlinks and Deep-Space links. MTSAT data was also applied to assess availability of LEO-downlinks to the Japanese region [11]. Records from the LEO NOAA satellites were used in [7] to estimate HAP (High-Altitude-Platform)-ground link availability. MSG and METOP images were used in [12] for analysis of satellite down-links in Europe. Active remote measurements from a LEO LIDAR (CALYPSO) and passive measurements from MSG data were used in [13] to derive attenuation with co-aligned LIDAR/camera data for ground stations in Europe. Ground observations, also quite wide spread, were used in [14] to estimate single and joint site availabilities, again for a Deep-space link.

This actual preliminary study shall give a first estimate for expected availability for a particular Antarctic site. The long term mean cloud coverage is the first parameter of interest and therefore investigated here. Neither long term surface-based observations nor airborne measurements at PEA do exist. The Terra (launch 1999, local equatorial crossing time ~10:30 a.m.) and Aqua satellites (launch 2002, local equatorial crossing time ~1:30 p.m.) with MODIS (Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer) on board are polar orbiting and have big data availability and are therefore first choice for this preliminary analysis. Also the METOP satellites with the AVHRR/3 (Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer) would be suitable. As active sensors, also polar orbiting CloudSat with the CPR (cloud profiling radar) and CALIPSO with the CALIOP (Cloud-Aerosol LIDAR with Orthogonal

Polarization) are available. However, these just bear low spatial sampling and therefore, only monthly or seasonal statistics are meaningful [17]. MODIS data is chosen because of a large available data base, easy access of the necessary data products, reasonable spatial resolution (1° grid map resolution) and good visibility from PEA. The MODIS Level 3 Atmosphere Products (MOD08 [15][16]) are selected and herein the parameter for Mean Cloud Fraction. The mean cloud cover at PEA over the year derived from Terra data is shown in Fig. 7. The values are based on 10 year of images, 2000-2009.

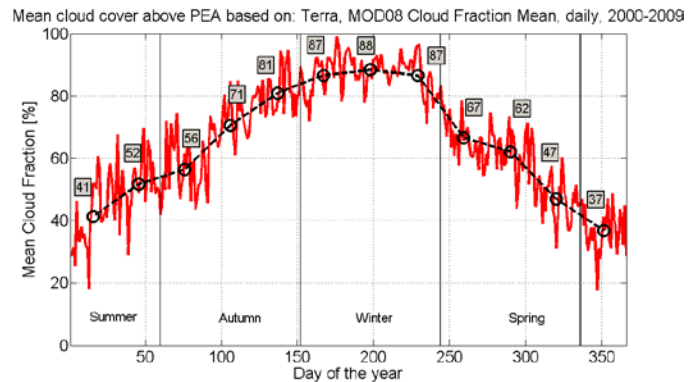


Fig. 7. Course of the year of cloud cover over PEA. Ten years of MODIS data MOD08 are used. The solid red line denotes mean cloud fraction for the day of the year, the black dashed line the according monthly averages.

The seasonal variation is clearly visible. In the winter, cloud cover can be as high as 88 % (monthly average for July), allowing only very limited link times. However in spring, autumn and especially in summer, cloud occurrence decreases significantly allowing monthly averaged link times up to 63 %. The yearly mean cloud cover is depicted in Fig. 8. The overall mean cloud occurrence is 65 %. However, this appears to have considerable high deviation amongst the individual years. Yearly means of up to 71 % occur two times out of ten years and the best year bears 61 % coverage.

The next steps of this PEA cloud cover analysis are the comparison with the Aqua measurements to identify a diurnal tendency if existing. Furthermore, ground observations with higher temporal resolution shall be analyzed as plausibility check and calculation of temporal statistics.

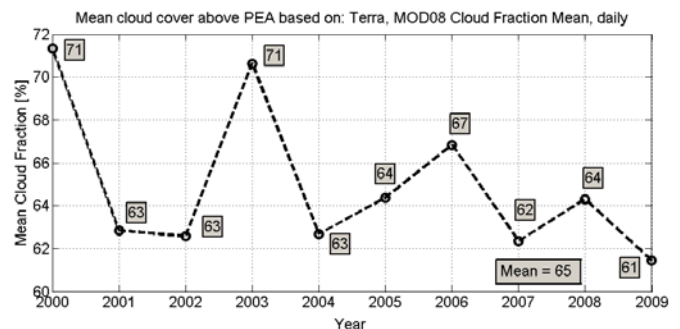


Fig. 8. Course of cloud cover over PEA over the years.

#### IV. TURBULENCE PROFILE AND ANALYTICAL LINK FLUCTUATION ASSESSMENT

The atmospheric turbulence can be defined by the strength of the fluctuations in the refractive-index, represented with the refractive-index structure parameter  $C_n^2$  in units of  $m^{-2/3}$ . Along the optical propagation distance the value of  $C_n^2$  has small variations for horizontal paths, while for slant and vertical paths these variations become significant. When a vertical path is considered, the behavior of  $C_n^2$  is conditioned by temperature changes along the different layers within the Earth's atmosphere; hence, the refractive-index structure parameter becomes a function of the altitude above ground.

Many authors have tried to predict the behavior of the refractive-index structure parameter, and various models have been proposed. However, it should be noted that most of these models are based on fittings from experiments conducted in specific places, which makes difficult their generalization. The most widespread model is the Hufnagel-Valley, best suited for inland daytime and nighttime conditions. Unfortunately, currently there is no standard model of  $C_n^2$  profile for Antarctic locations.

##### A. Theoretical $C_n^2$ -profiles PEA-OGS and other Antarctic locations

Concerning Antarctic locations most of the literature dealing with the atmospheric quality focus on the *seeing* parameter, which is a scaled version of the Fried parameter given in units of arcseconds, usually measured at zenith for a 550nm wavelength [18][19][20]. Regarding  $C_n^2$  profile measurements at Antarctic locations the literature is rather limited and only a few references are available [19][21]. Masciadri et al. [21] using validated simulations by means of mesoscale models have produced a series of nighttime  $C_n^2$  profiles for three different locations in the Antarctic continent, namely Dome A, Dome C and South Pole. Fig. 9 reproduces the data from [21] including the altitude for each of the locations plotted.

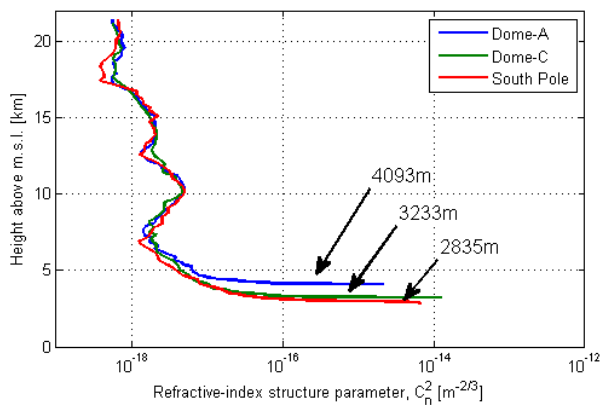


Fig. 9. Median  $C_n^2$  vertical profiles simulated with a mesoscale model for Dome A, Dome C and South Pole, including the altitude a.m.s.l. of each location.

If there is an initial estimation for the  $C_n^2$  profiles at Antarctic latitudes, a particular expression could be fitted to this data in order to obtain a suitable model to make an

extrapolation for what could be the situation at Princess Elizabeth Antarctica station. For the sake of versatility we chose the  $C_n^2$  Izaña model [22], due to their multiple defining parameters. The expression for the nighttime Izaña model used in this work is given by

$$C_n^2(h) = \begin{cases} C_{n0}^2 \left(\frac{h}{h_s}\right)^{-2/3} & ; h \leq h_s \\ C_{n0}^2 & ; h_s < h < h_i \\ C_{n0}^2 \exp\left(\frac{h_i}{h_r}\right) \exp\left(-\frac{h}{h_r}\right) + C_{nl}^2 \exp\left(-\frac{h}{h_i}\right) & \\ 12C_{nl}^2 W^2 \left(\frac{h}{h_i}\right)^{10} \exp\left(-\frac{10h}{h_i}\right) & ; h > h_i \end{cases}, \quad (1)$$

where  $h$  is the height above the terrain;  $h_s$  is the surface layer height;  $C_{n0}^2$  is assumed uniform throughout the inversion layer extending between the heights  $h_s$  and  $h_i$ ;  $h_r$  is the space constant for the transition between the inversion layer and the free atmosphere;  $C_{nl}^2$  is the structure parameter for free atmosphere;  $h_i$  is the height characterizing the exponential fall-off in the free-atmosphere region;  $W$  is the root-mean-squared wind velocity averaged over the 5 to 20 km altitude interval, and  $h_i$  is the tropopause height. It shall be noted that in original reference, the constant scaling factor for the last term in Eq. (1) is 3 instead of the value 12 used in this paper, which was found to produce a better fit to the  $C_n^2$  profiles presented by Masciadri et al. [21]. The daytime version of Eq. (1) can be found in [22], along with a more detailed explanation of the defining parameters.

Using the Izaña nighttime model a fit was made to the profiles for Dome A, Dome C and South Pole. Then, using the fitted model an extrapolation of the  $C_n^2$  profile is made to the conditions of the PEA station and the resulting profile at plotted in Fig. 10, where the model fitted to the South Pole  $C_n^2$  profile given by [21] is also shown as reference.

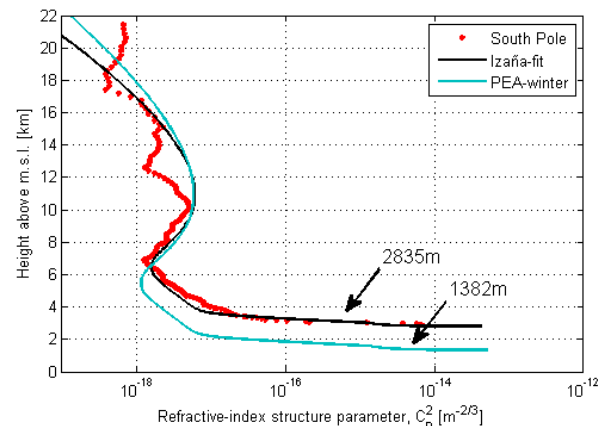


Fig. 10. South Pole  $C_n^2$  profile (red dots), the fitted Izaña model (solid black line) to the South Pole profile, and the extrapolation made from the Izaña model to the expected conditions at PEA (solid blue line) for nighttime - i.e. Antarctic winter - including the altitude a.m.s.l. of each location.

Additional to the extrapolation of the Izaña model for PEA station at nighttime conditions, i.e. Antarctic winter, the same strategy was followed to provide a daytime, i.e. Antarctic summer, version of the PEA  $C_n^2$  profile under the assumption that during the summer the refractive-index structure parameter  $C_n^2$  value at ground level and the surface layer height  $h_s$  should be larger than in winter time. TABLE I. gives the assumed parameter values used for the definition of the  $C_n^2$  profile at PEA station for nighttime and daytime conditions, all other parameters of the Izaña model not shown in the table are set the default values given in [22].

TABLE I. PARAMETER VALUES IN THE IZAÑA MODEL FOR THE ASSUMPTIONS MADE FOR GENERATING  $C_n^2$  PROFILE AT PEA STATION UNDER NIGHTTIME AND DAYTIME CONDITIONS.

Condition	Corresponding Izaña model parameters			
	$C_{n0}^2$ [m <sup>-2/3</sup> ]	$h_s$ [m]	$C_{nl}^2$ [m <sup>-2/3</sup> ]	$h_l$ [m]
Winter	$1.5 \cdot 10^{-15}$	200	$1.2 \cdot 10^{-17}$	9600
Summer1	$9.0 \cdot 10^{-11}$	200	$1.0 \cdot 10^{-16}$	9600
Summer2	$2.0 \cdot 10^{-11}$	400	$1.0 \cdot 10^{-16}$	9600

### B. Expected IRT-Related Parameter Ranges

Once a set of  $C_n^2$  profiles have been selected, a more detailed analysis can be done regarding the IRT effects on a OGS-GEO optical uplink, for which the elevation angle is 9° under the EFAL scenario.

The Fried parameter measures the integrated turbulence strength along the optical path through the atmosphere, where smaller  $r_0$  values correspond to larger atmospheric index-of-refraction turbulence. The Fried parameter is given by [23]

$$r_0 = \left[ 0.42 \sec(\zeta) k^2 \int_{h_0}^H C_n^2(h) dh \right]^{-3/5}, \quad (2)$$

where  $\zeta$  is the zenith angle,  $k=2\pi/\lambda$  is the wavenumber and  $\lambda$  is the wavelength;  $h_0$  is the OGS altitude and  $H$  is the GEO satellite height.

On the other hand, beam wander  $\langle r_c^2 \rangle$  measures the average displacement of the beam at the receiver from the boresight, while the angular beam wander gives the same information but referred as an angular tilt at transmitter side. The beam wander can be calculated as [23]

$$\langle r_c^2 \rangle = 0.54(H - h_0)^2 \sec(\zeta) \left( \frac{\lambda}{2W_0} \right)^2 \left( \frac{2W_0}{r_0} \right)^{5/3}, \quad (3)$$

where  $W_0$  is the beam radius at the transmitter plane.

Both the Fried parameter and angular beam wander expected behavior are presented in Fig. 11, where other locations than PEA are show for reference.

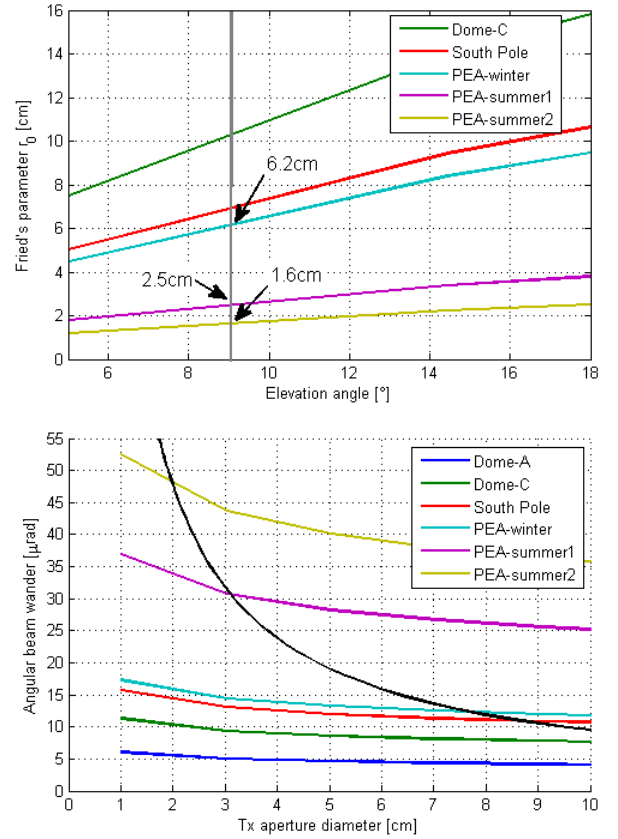


Fig. 11. Fried parameter  $r_0$  vs. elevation angle (top plot) for different Antarctic  $C_n^2$  profiles. The 9° elevation angle for the EFAL scenario is indicated by a gray vertical line, and the corresponding  $r_0$  value is shown for the turbulence profiles for PEA station. Angular beam wander (bottom plot) vs. transmitter aperture diameter for different Antarctic  $C_n^2$  profiles. The black line represents the points where the angular beam wander has the same value as the diffraction limited half-angle beam divergence.

The expected on-axis scintillation index (SI) in the uplink for a tracked beam at 9° elevation angle is presented in Fig. 12, where it is noteworthy that the SI for the two summer profile models at the PEA station are practically the same. This is due to the fact that the scintillation process is mostly influenced by turbulence by the surface layer height, and for these two models the upper part the  $C_n^2$  profile was chosen to be characterized by the same value as shown in TABLE I. It should be noted that the on-axis SI value is rather constant for the smallest transmitter aperture diameters up to 10cm, regardless of the turbulence profile used in the calculations with the corresponding change in SI value. The expression for the SI used to produce Fig. 12 can be found in Chapter 12 of [23].

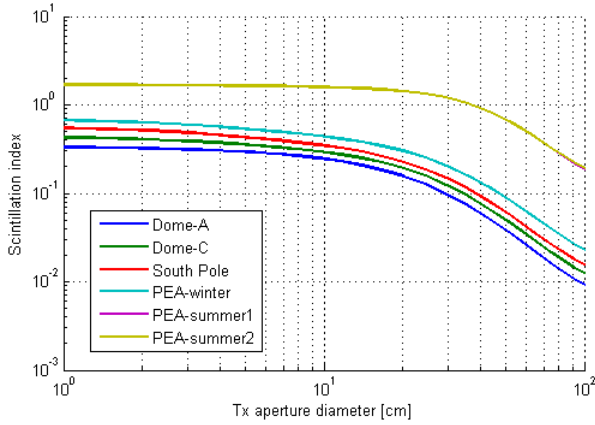


Fig. 12. On-axis uplink scintillation index for tracked beam for different Antarctic  $C_n^2$  profiles, at  $9^\circ$  elevation angle corresponding to the EFAL scenario. Note that the curves for PEA-summer1 and PEA-summer2 are overlapping.

## V. FRIED-PARAMETER MEASUREMENT CAMPAIGN AT ANTARCTIC STATION

To confirm theoretical parameter ranges and substantiate the understanding of low-elevation wavefront distortion, a measurement campaign at the Princess Elizabeth Station was prepared and carried out in the Antarctic Summer 2013/14.

### A. Focal Camera Measurement Setup

The instrument assembled to measure the Fried parameter  $r_0$  at Princess Elizabeth Antarctic station consist primarily of a Celestron CPC Goto telescope with an aperture diameter of 235mm and 2350mm focal length, which produces a focal ratio (F-number) of 10. The imaging device is a Skyris 445M Monochrome CCD camera with square pixels of size  $3.75\mu\text{m}$ . Along with the camera a red color filter centered at 633nm and 100nm bandwidth was used, in order to reduce the background noise due to the blue sky. Additionally, the instrument makes optional use of a Barlow lens that can effectively increase the focal length of the telescope by a factor of 2.25.

The limit of maximum resolution offered by the complete system is determined through the diffraction limited Airy disk zero-ring diameter  $D_{\text{Airy}}$ , which is given by

$$D_{\text{Airy}} = 2.44 \cdot \lambda \cdot f / D_{\text{aperture}}, \quad (4)$$

where  $f$  is the effective focal length (2.35m without, and 5.29m with the Barlow). Thus, the minimum possible Airy pattern in the focal point of the telescope, at the central wavelength of the red color filter, becomes  $34.8\mu\text{m}$  and  $15.5\mu\text{m}$  when the Barlow lens is installed or not, respectively. These values translate for the CCD camera images into a diffraction limited Airy pattern of 9 and 4 pixels in diameter, which should be enough for obtaining reasonable estimations of the Fried parameter  $r_0$ .

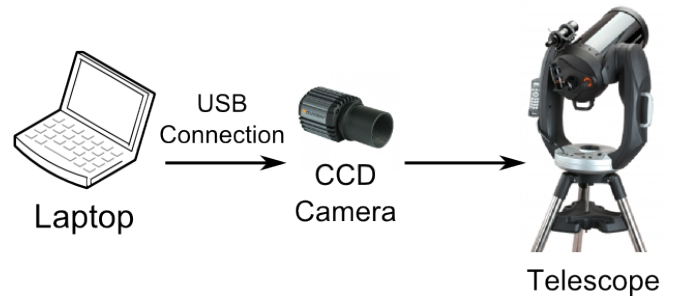


Fig. 13. Schematic diagram for the instrument setup used during the EFAL  $r_0$  measurement campaign Dec'13-Feb'14 at Princess Elizabeth Antarctica Station.

### B. Measurement Campaign at the Antarctic Station

To record the focal speckle pattern videos the brightest stars visible from the station's location were used, namely Betelgeuse and Procyon for elevations around  $10^\circ$ , and Sirius, Antares, and Rigel for higher elevations.

The measurement campaign at PEA encountered several difficulties associated with setting up and using a telescope not designed for field use in an exposed setting, at very low temperatures. Additionally the adverse weather in the Antarctic summer 2013/14 with long periods of storm and cloud cover limited the gathering of a higher number of measurements. More challenges were imposed by the strong wind causing vibrations to the telescope tube that prevented proper focusing. Moreover, the calibration of the telescope attitude was difficult as it required finding reference stars at daytime, as the sun was not setting during the whole measurement period. However, the resulting measurements proved very valuable in the end, and regarding the limited budget and short preparation time for the campaign, the outcome is conclusive.

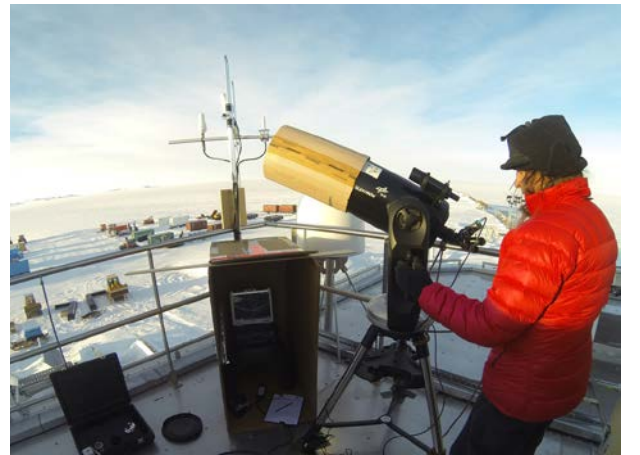


Fig. 14. Typical situation during focal speckle pattern measurements at PEA. The provisional cardboard tube was required during calibration with the Sun as reference object.

### C. Preliminary results summary of $r_0$ -measurements

The meteorological conditions for the Antarctic summer season 2013/14 were exceptionally bad, considerably reducing the available measuring time due to cloud blockage and strong



haze concentration on the horizon, which limited low elevation measurements options. Nevertheless, it was possible to obtain low elevation (about  $10^\circ$ )  $r_0$  measurements for two different days, and four days for higher elevation.

Available data is presented as a boxplot in 15, where the lower and the upper edges of the box represents the 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentile, respectively; the center red line is the median, and the whiskers extend to the most extreme data points not considered outliers, and outliers are plotted individually as red crosses.

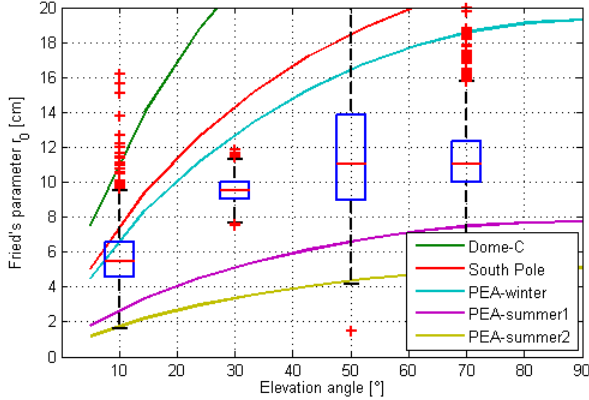


Fig. 15. Box plot from in-situ Fried parameter for different elevation angles, during EFAL Antarctic  $r_0$  measurement campaign Dec'13-Feb'14. Theoretical estimations for PEA station and other Antarctic location are also shown for reference.

It readily seen in Fig. 15 that the uncertainty in the *in-situ* Fried parameter  $r_0$  estimation is rather high, due to the low number of measurements available. Albeit this inconvenient situation, some trends can be identified in the data.

For the analysis of Fig. 15 it has to be taken into that all data for  $10^\circ$  elevation angles was taken when the sun was between  $9$  and  $10^\circ$  above the horizon. This scenario will place the  $r_0$  estimated values closer to the nighttime conditions, as it can be seen most left boxplot where the median  $r_0$  is closer to the estimation for PEA in winter. The same happens for the  $30^\circ$  elevation data, which was taken with a sun elevation of  $7^\circ$  above the horizon. For the rest of the measurement points the elevation of the sun above the horizon was between  $10$  and  $24^\circ$ , which should produce somewhat smaller  $r_0$  values than the predictions for nighttime but still higher values than those for daytime, that we estimated assuming the worst possible conditions.

Following the previous reasoning, a possible explanation for the data points in Fig. 15 - to be laid between the daytime and nighttime preliminary assumption for PEA station - is that the sun elevation was not either at its maximum or below the horizon, which cannot be regarded as limiting conditions as the ones assumed when estimating the PEA  $C_n^2$  profile for winter and summer condition, i.e. nighttime and daytime, respectively.

## VI. RESULTS AND UPLINK ASSESSMENT

Using the preliminary results from the EFAL  $r_0$  measurement campaign during the Antarctic summer 2013/14, the evaluation of the Fried parameter at  $10^\circ$  elevation resulted in a minimum and maximum value of 1.6 and 9.5cm, respectively; while the median value was 5.5cm. As it is clearly seen in Fig. 15, the minimum  $r_0$  value falls close to the PEA-summer1 turbulence profile estimation; the median value approaches the PEA-winter estimation, and the maximum  $r_0$  value improves the best assumption for PEA station falling close to the Dome C predictions for the Antarctic winter.

It is noteworthy that results are heavily depending on the geographic location and time of the day, as the meteorological situation changes with ground altitude and prevailing wind directions and strength strongly depends on geographic topology.

The expression for the average optical power  $P_R$  detected at distance  $L$  is given by

$$P_R = P_T G_T \tau_T \tau_A S G_R \tau_R L_T, \quad (5)$$

where  $P_T$  is the transmitted average power from a source with aperture diameter  $D_T$  and full-angle divergence  $\theta_T = 2\lambda\sqrt{8/\pi D_T}$ ,  $G_T = 16/\theta_T^2$  and  $G_R = (\pi D_R/\lambda)^2$  are the transmitter and receiver gains, respectively;  $\tau_T$  and  $\tau_R$  are transmitter and receiver efficiencies, respectively;  $S = (\lambda/4\pi L)^2$  is the free-space loss, and  $L_T = \exp(-G_T \theta_{mp}^2)$  corresponds to the miss-pointing loss, where  $\theta_{mp}$  is the angular beam wander.

Using (5) one can optimize the transmitter aperture diameter in order to obtain the lowest possible losses in the optical link, provided that all other parameters are set fixed. In the EFAL scenario where transmission is to be done with EDRS GEO satellite, which will be equipped with a next generation laser communication terminal (LCT), the receiver aperture set to  $D_R = 13.5$ cm, the link distance is  $L = 40655$ km, and the receiver sensitivity for bit error-rate of  $10^{-8}$  at 600Mbps data rate, using BPSK modulation, is established to be -51dBm [3].

Adjusting the transmitter aperture diameter  $D_T$  and knowing the expected value of the Fried parameter  $r_0$ , for the specific EFAL scenario, results in a coupled loss between the beam divergence - which defines the spreading loss - and beam wander loss. Such relation can readily be seen in (5). Fig. 16 shows the estimated optical transmitter aperture size under different turbulence conditions defined by the *in-situ*  $r_0$  measurements at PEA station.



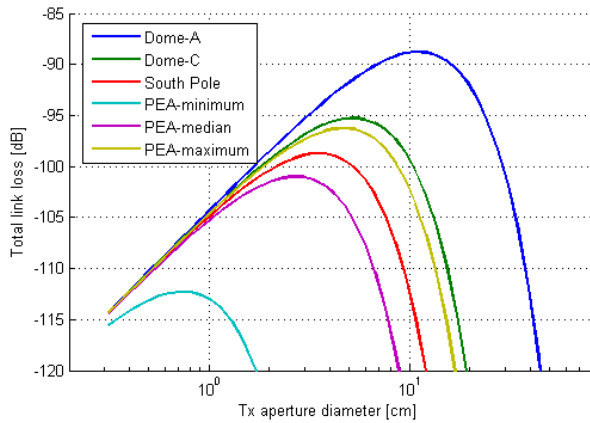


Fig. 16. Total link loss vs. transmitter aperture diameter estimated from *in-situ* measurements of the Fried parameter at Princess Elizabeth Antarctica station, for an optical uplink to a GEO satellite at 9° elevation. Other Antarctic locations are shown as reference.

Once an optimum size of the transmitter aperture diameter  $D_T$  has been found, a link budget calculation for EFAL scenario can be made. All the pertinent parameters and calculations are presented in TABLE II. where all the parameter values included in the final link budget calculations are shown in bold face.

TABLE II. LINK BUDGET CALCULATIONS FOR MINIMUM, MEDIAN AND MAXIMUM FRIED PARAMETER VALUES ESTIMATED FROM IN-SITU MEASUREMENTS AT PRINCESS ELIZABET ANTARCTICA STATION. ALL VALUES IN THE TABLE ARE GIVEN IN DECIBELS UNLESS OTHERWISE NOTED.

Parameter	Fried parameter $r_0$ value @ 1064nm		
	minimum <i>1.5cm</i>	median <i>5.5cm</i>	maximum <i>9.5cm</i>
Tx aperture diameter [cm]	0.72	2.70	4.72
Tx antenna gain	<b>83.54</b>	<b>95.02</b>	<b>99.87</b>
Tx optical loss	<b>-3.00</b>	<b>-3.00</b>	<b>-3.00</b>
Free-space loss	<b>-293.63</b>	<b>-293.63</b>	<b>-293.63</b>
Atmospheric loss	<b>-3.00</b>	<b>-3.00</b>	<b>-3.00</b>
Spreading loss	<b>-1.34</b>	<b>-1.39</b>	<b>-1.41</b>
Beam wander loss	<b>-3.82</b>	<b>-3.85</b>	<b>-4.05</b>
Rx antenna gain	<b>112.01</b>	<b>112.01</b>	<b>112.01</b>
Rx optical loss	<b>-3.00</b>	<b>-3.00</b>	<b>-3.00</b>
Total link loss	<b>-112.26</b>	<b>-100.85</b>	<b>-93.23</b>
Rx Sensitivity BER=10 <sup>-8</sup>	<b>-51.00</b>	<b>-51.00</b>	<b>-51.00</b>
Required Tx power [dBm]	<b>61.26</b>	<b>49.85</b>	<b>45.23</b>
Required Tx power [W]	1338.09	96.70	33.34

It becomes evident by inspecting the required transmitter power, in the EFAL framework, that the atmospheric turbulence imposes a major obstacle to achieve an operational system, as for coherent communication it is not possible to use transmitter spatial diversity to obtain the required transmitter power for a worst case scenario - i.e. when the Fried parameter is  $r_0=1.6$ cm. Although, it seems to be possible to meet power

requirements for the best case scenario ( $r_0=9.5$ cm) with current amplifier technology for 1064nm. For the case of the median value of  $r_0=5.5$ cm it should be possible to obtain additional gain by means of state-of-the-art forward error correction (FEC) code schemes

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