



Seismo-acoustic and GNSS monitoring of a record-breaking storm in the Black Sea: Evidence of climate change and intensifying natural hazards

Laura Petrescu^{1,2,*}, Bogdan Antonescu^{1,2}, Sorin Nistor³, Iustin Floroiu^{4,5}, Dragoş Ene¹, Daniela Ghica¹, Constantin Ionescu¹, Andrei Anghel⁴, Mihai Datcu⁴

1. National Institute for Earth Physics, Magurele, Romania
2. University of Bucharest, Faculty of Physics, Magurele, Romania
3. University of Oradea, Faculty of Construction, Cadaster and Architecture, Oradea, Romania
4. Politehnica University of Bucharest, Faculty of Electronics, Telecommunications and Information Technology, Bucharest, Romania
5. Politehnica University of Bucharest, Doctoral School of Electronics, Telecommunications & Information Technology, Bucharest, Romania

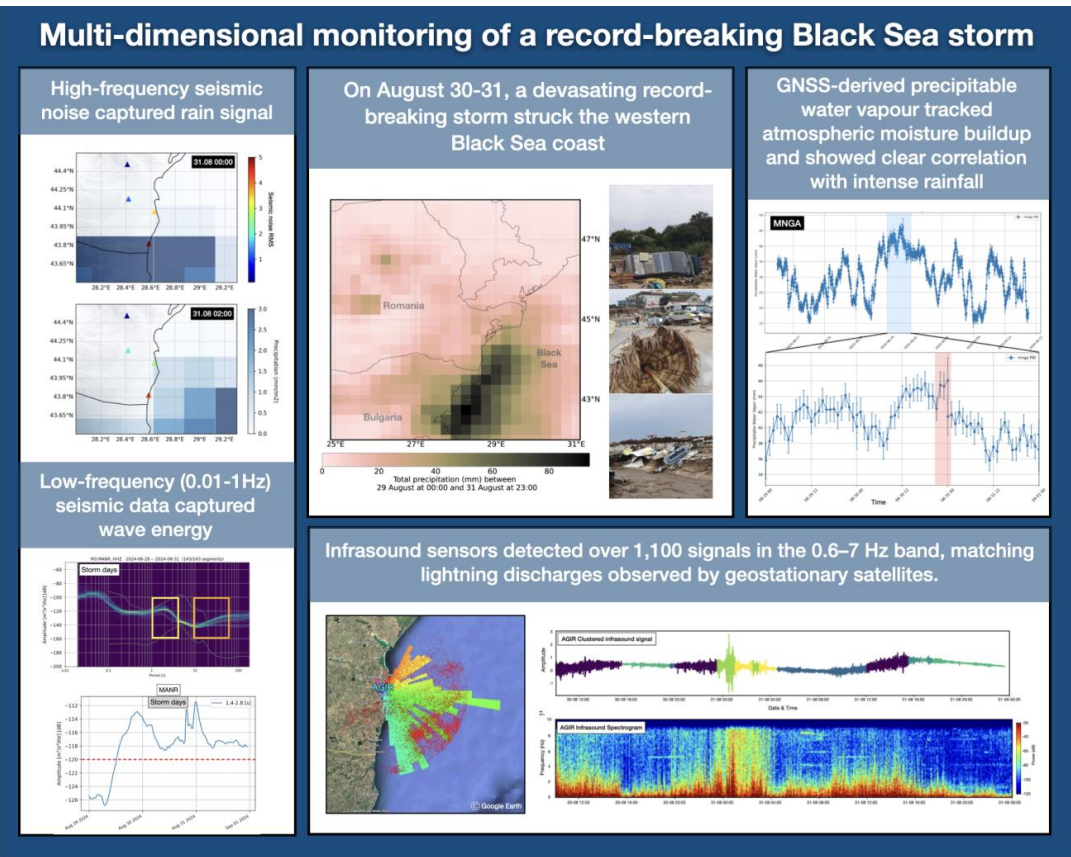
* laura.petrescu@infp.ro

Abstract

In August 2024, a devastating storm struck Romania's Black Sea coast, setting new precipitation records and highlighting the increasing frequency of extreme weather events. This study explores the integration of non-conventional sensors (seismic, GNSS, infrasound, and satellite data) with ERA5 meteorological reanalysis to monitor storm dynamics. High-frequency (>30 Hz) seismic signals captured precipitation, while microseismic bands (0.1-1 Hz) reflected wave-induced ground motion. Infrasound data, analyzed using unsupervised learning, revealed distinct storm phases and showed strong spectral correlation with recorded ground motion, pointing to coupled atmosphere-lithosphere processes induced by the storm. The infrasound array also detected over 1,100 signals in the 0.6-7 Hz band, matching lightning discharges observed by geostationary satellites. GNSS-derived estimates of precipitable water vapor tracked atmospheric moisture buildup and showed clear correlation with intense rainfall, including potential precursory signals days before peak precipitation. This study highlights the value of integrating diverse, non-traditional datasets to enhance the resolution and depth of storm analysis. Their combined use offers a more holistic understanding of storm evolution and supports the development of improved early-warning systems in vulnerable coastal regions.



Graphical abstract





50 1. Introduction

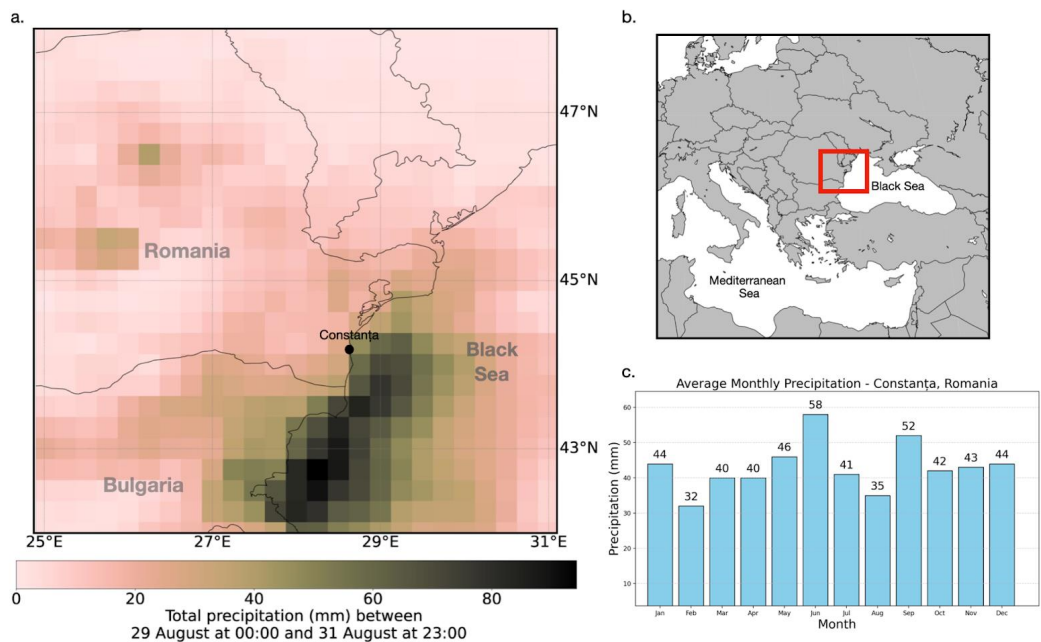
51 Climate change has become a critical global issue, with far-reaching effects on weather patterns
52 and the frequency and intensity of extreme events (Stott, 2016). These changes are not only
53 contributing to more severe weather events but also altering the timing, location, and duration of
54 storms, making them harder to predict and manage (Bengtsson et al., 2006). Understanding how
55 to effectively monitor and predict the behavior of storms, particularly extreme ones, is crucial for
56 improving forecasting models, enhancing early warning systems, and mitigating their impacts on
57 both natural and human systems.

58 Traditional meteorological monitoring relies heavily on ground-based stations, weather radars, and
59 satellite observations to track and predict storm behavior (Kober and Tafferner, 2009). These
60 systems have been the backbone of weather forecasting for decades, providing valuable data on
61 temperature, pressure, wind speed, and precipitation. However, while these methods are effective,
62 they often have limitations in terms of spatial coverage (e.g. Sokol et al., 2021), particularly in
63 remote or hard-to-reach areas. Additionally, they may struggle to capture certain atmospheric
64 phenomena in real-time. As a result, non-conventional monitoring methods are increasingly being
65 integrated into storm tracking efforts to complement existing meteorological approaches (e.g. Bosy
66 et al., 2012; Burtin et al., 2016; Diaz et al., 2023; Coviello et al., 2024).

67 In this context, our study focuses on the integration of alternative environmental datasets, including
68 GNSS stations, infrasound sensors, and seismic data, to track the dynamics of an extreme storm
69 event, as part of a national climate change resilience strategy, implemented through the DTE
70 Climate project (<https://dteclimate.upb.ro/>). GNSS data provide valuable information on
71 atmospheric water vapor, helping to track moisture changes that influence storm formation and
72 intensity (Bosy et al, 2012; Marut et al., 2022). Infrasound sensors detect low-frequency acoustic
73 waves generated by storm activity, such as lightning or large-scale weather system movements
74 like microbaroms (e.g. Landès et al., 2012). Seismic data, though traditionally used for earthquake
75 monitoring, can also record vibrations caused by storm-induced pressure changes, making it useful
76 for detecting rainstorms, floods, or tropical cyclones (e.g. Retaillieu and Gualtieri, 2021). Through
77 the integration of these diverse sensor networks, our work highlights their synergy in improving
78 storm detection, monitoring capabilities, and early warning systems, contributing to more robust
79 climate resilience strategies.

80 2. Study area and storm overview

81
82 The Black Sea region (Figure 1) is characterized by a unique combination of geographic and
83 meteorological features that significantly influence its climate and weather patterns. Nestled
84 between Europe and Asia, the Black Sea is bordered by six countries with diverse landscapes, from
85 mountainous areas to flat plains. This geography, combined with the Black Sea's relatively shallow
86 waters compared to oceanic environments and its connection to the Mediterranean through the
87 Bosphorus Strait, creates an environment where rapid changes in weather are common.
88 Understanding the dynamics of these extreme weather events is crucial, as they can have a
89 profound impact on the environment, economy, and daily life in the region. Monitoring such events
90 is key to improving our ability to predict their occurrence and intensity. By studying the complex
91 atmospheric processes that govern these storms, we can enhance predictive models and refine early
92 warning systems, ultimately helping to mitigate the risks and protect the communities and
93 ecosystems most vulnerable to these extreme weather phenomena.



94
95 *Figure 1. a. Total precipitation accumulated (in mm, shaded according to the scale) between 29*
96 *August 00 UTC and 31 August 23:00 UTC extracted from ERA5 data. The positions of the seismic*
97 *stations in eastern Romania are also indicated; b. Map of Europe with red square marking the*
98 *study region; c. Average monthly precipitation rates in Constanța, Romania.*

99 In August 2024, Romania experienced severe flooding, largely driven by a storm that brought
100 unusual precipitation patterns to the Black Sea coastal region. Exceptional precipitation totals were
101 recorded over south-eastern Romania in Mangalia (225.9 mm), Agigea (145 mm), and Tuzla (118
102 mm), leading to significant flooding in coastal towns (Figure 1). Over 800 emergency calls
103 prompted large-scale intervention by ISU Dobrogea, focusing on evacuations, debris clearance,
104 and infrastructure restoration (Antonescu et al. 2024).

105 An analysis conducted by ClimaMeter (www.climameter.org, Faranda et al. 2024, Antonescu et
106 al. 2024) immediately after the event, showed that low pressure systems similar to the one that
107 caused the floods typically result in reduced rainfall (7 mm day⁻¹, or up to 15% less) in eastern
108 Romania compared to historical trends. However, this particular storm led to a significant local
109 increase in precipitation, particularly in Constanța, one of the coastal cities severely affected by
110 the flooding. In Constanța, daily rainfall reached up to 5 mm day⁻¹, or up to 10% more than usual,
111 marking a notable deviation from the region's typical weather behavior. The changes in
112 precipitation that contributed to the flooding are largely attributed to human-induced climate
113 change, with natural climate variability likely playing a modest role. As climate change continues
114 to influence weather patterns, understanding the connection between changing precipitation levels
115 and extreme weather events like flooding is crucial for improving forecasting and resilience in the
116 face of such disasters.

117



3. Data and Methods

The analysis of the storm event integrates a variety of data sources and methodologies to provide a comprehensive understanding of its dynamics. Seismic data, infrasound measurements, GNSS water vapor data, and ERA5 reanalysis data are all utilized to capture different aspects of the storm's behavior (Figure 2). Seismic data offers insights into ground vibrations and atmospheric disturbances, while infrasound monitoring detects low-frequency acoustic signals generated by lightning and other meteorological phenomena. GNSS water vapor data provides valuable information on atmospheric moisture. Additionally, ERA5 reanalysis data (Hersbach et al. 2020), which provides detailed atmospheric and wave dynamics data, helps contextualize the storm's impact within broader weather patterns. Together, these diverse data sources enable a multifaceted approach to studying the storm and its effects.

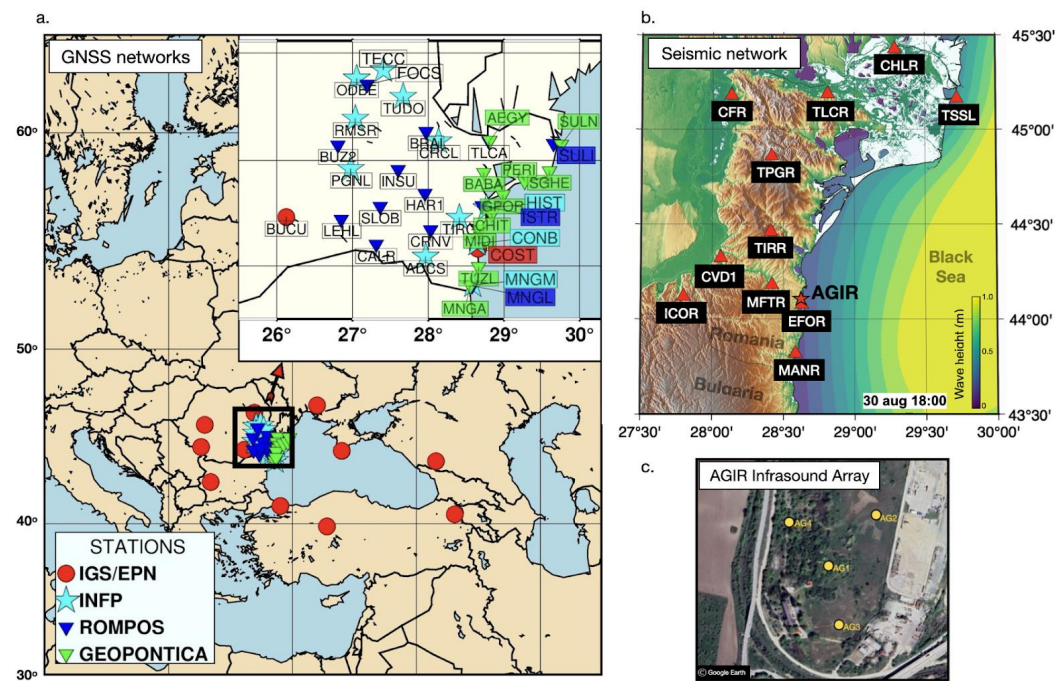


Figure 2. a. Map of Europe and the Black Sea coast showing GNSS stations and their belonging networks used for analysis in this study. b. Map of the Romanian sea coast showing seismic stations (red triangles) and the location of the AGIR infrasound array (star). Coloured contours represent total wave height at 18:00 on the 30th of August 2024 from ERA5 reanalysis data. c. The layout of the AGIR infrasound array.

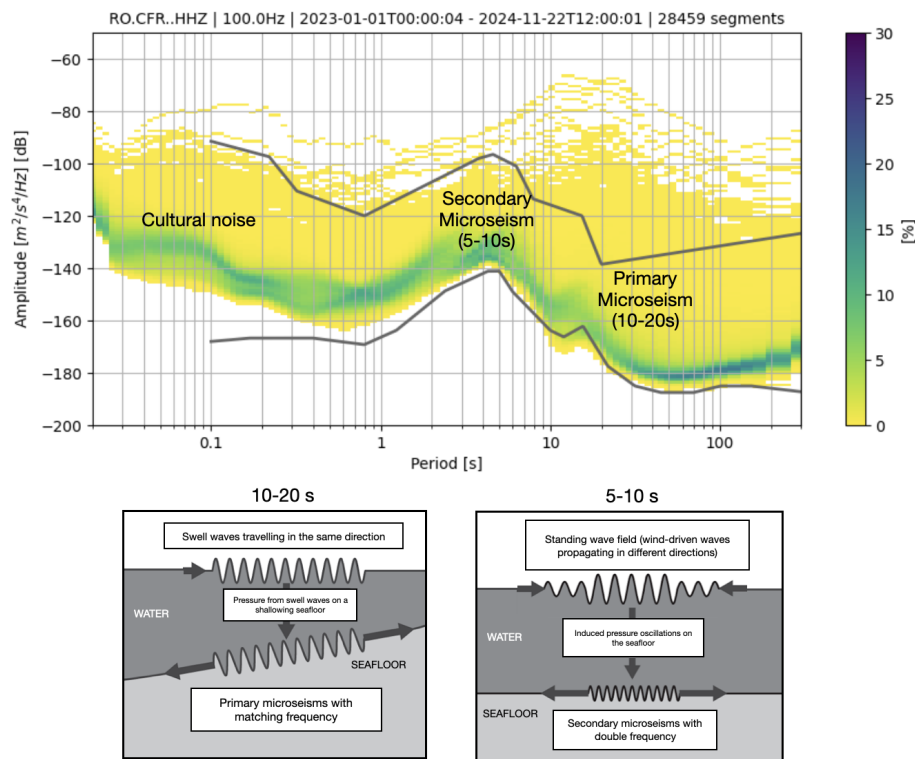


137

138 **3.1 Seismic Data**

139 Seismic data represents vibrations of the Earth's surface, commonly referred to as seismic noise.
140 These low-amplitude movements are recorded across the Earth's surface and are traditionally used
141 to study the Earth's internal structure and detect earthquakes. Recently, it has increasingly found
142 applications in meteorology and hydrology, particularly for monitoring weather events (e.g. Dias
143 et al. 2023; Hua et al., 2023), destructive flood episodes (Burtin et al., 2016), ocean storms, and
144 tropical cyclones (Gualtieri et al., 2018). Seismic noise can reveal the impact of atmospheric and
145 oceanic conditions, providing valuable insights into weather events and climate changes (e.g.
146 Bromirski et al. 2002; Aster et al., 2008; 2023). In particular, seismic data helps track variations
147 in the Earth's surface caused by factors such as ocean waves, wind, and precipitation, offering a
148 unique perspective on these phenomena (e.g. Grevemeyer et al., 2000; Borzi et al., 2022).

149 Seismic data also reveals two primary peaks (Figure 3) related to ocean wave interactions (Koper
150 et al., 2015; Ardhuin et al., 2019; Tanimoto et al., 2023). The primary peak, observed in the range
151 of 10–20 seconds (0.05–1 Hz), is generated by the impact of "swell" waves traveling in the same
152 direction, inducing pressure variations in the Earth's crust that match the period of the waves. The
153 secondary peak, in the range of 5–10 seconds (0.1–0.5 Hz), is produced by wind-driven waves,
154 which propagate in different directions and generate pressure oscillations on the ocean floor
155 (Ebeling et al., 2012). These seismic signals directly link ocean conditions with seismic activity
156 (Li et al., 2020), providing insights into large-scale weather phenomena like ocean storms.



157

158 *Figure 3. Probabilistic Power Spectral Density (PPSD) of seismic noise for station CFR, over two years,*
159 *showing key sources of primary and secondary microseisms. Below, sketches illustrate the generation*
160 *mechanisms: primary microseisms are caused by unidirectional swell waves inducing pressure fluctuations*
161 *on a shoaling seafloor, while secondary microseisms result from nonlinear interactions of wind-driven*
162 *waves over deeper water (modified after Ebeling, 2012).*

163 Higher frequencies above 30 Hz are associated with the effects of precipitation and wind, as seen
164 in studies like Rindrahariasona et al. (2022) or Diaz et al. (2023). These higher-frequency seismic
165 signals help track more localized weather events, such as storms and heavy rainfall. Seismic data,
166 when integrated with other meteorological tools, enhances the ability to monitor and predict
167 weather events.

168 To analyse seismic data, the raw traces are first corrected for instrument response and converted
169 to units of velocity. These are then filtered with butterworth filters adapted to capture the target
170 signal: low pass filtering (<1 Hz) for wave-seafloor coupled interactions and high pass filtering
171 (>30 Hz) to identify possible signatures of precipitation, essentially induced pressure fluctuations
172 in the ground converted to weak seismic vibrations due to rain drops. Spectrograms of these
173 filtered seismic traces are also used to visualise the potential signature of the two hydro-
174 meteorological phenomena in the frequency content of ground vibrations.

175 Potential environmental signals in the seismic data were also investigated using power spectral
176 density (PSD) analysis. To account for variations over time, a Probabilistic Power Spectral Density



177 (PPSD) method is applied. This approach combines PSD estimates from overlapping time
178 windows into a probability distribution, providing a comprehensive view of the range and
179 likelihood of noise levels at different frequencies. Typical noise conditions, as well as transient or
180 extreme events, are captured in this analysis. To compute the PPSD, ObsPy was used (Beyreuther
181 et al., 2010), which handles data gaps and ensures reliable normalization.

182 Temporal variations in PSD amplitudes are also analyzed to track changes in seismic noise at
183 specific frequencies. By extracting PSD values at selected frequencies that are expected to capture
184 primary and secondary microseisms, time series of noise levels are generated. These temporal
185 PSDs allow for the identification of trends and correlations with environmental factors, such as
186 ocean wave activity or weather conditions.

187 **3.2 Acoustic Data**

188 Infrasound waves are low-frequency acoustic waves that are inaudible to the human ear, typically
189 below 20 Hz. These waves are generated by a variety of natural and anthropogenic sources,
190 including meteorological events, volcanic eruptions, earthquakes, and human activities such as
191 explosions and industrial processes (Campus, 2009; Bondár et al., 2022). In particular, infrasound
192 is often associated with phenomena like thunderstorms, ocean waves, and large-scale atmospheric
193 events, which generate pressure fluctuations that propagate through the atmosphere (e.g. Stopa et
194 al., 2012; Landès et al., 2012; Listowski et al., 2022). These waves provide valuable information
195 about the dynamics of weather systems (e.g. Hupe et al., 2019), making them an essential tool for
196 monitoring and understanding environmental processes (e.g. Brachet et al., 2009; Hupe et al.,
197 2022).

198 For the monitoring of infrasound signals, we use data from an infrasound array system located at
199 Eforie Nord-Agigea, Romania (AGIR, Figure 2). This array consists of multiple sensors, including
200 SIS-1 infrasonic sensors (Seismowave), equipped with global positioning systems (GPS) and noise
201 reduction technology.

202 To analyze the seismo-acoustic characteristics of the August 30–31 Black Sea storm, we used a
203 two-pronged approach: (1) single-station signal analysis based on feature extraction and
204 unsupervised machine learning, and (2) array-based analysis using classic multi-channel
205 correlation algorithms. Together, these methods provide complementary insights into the acoustic
206 behavior of the storm, capturing both local signal characteristics and spatial coherence across
207 sensors.

208 For the single-station analysis, infrasound data recorded at the AGIR sensor (Figure 2) was
209 segmented into 30-minute windows, and a set of time-frequency features was extracted to
210 characterize the signal dynamics. These features describe how energy and frequency content
211 evolve over time, providing insights into the signal's structure. The spectral centroid, spectral flux,
212 spectral rolloff, and spectral entropy capture various aspects of the frequency distribution and its
213 complexity, while the zero-crossing rate, mean, and variance of the power spectrum reflect signal
214 activity and variability. These features together form a multidimensional representation of the
215 infrasound signal during the storm.

216 The extracted features were used as input for K-Means clustering (MacQueen, 1967), an
217 unsupervised machine learning algorithm that partitions data into a predefined number of groups,
218 in this case, seven. K-Means minimizes within-cluster variance by iteratively assigning feature



219 vectors to the nearest cluster centroid and updating the centroids based on the grouped data. This
220 clustering method enables the identification of distinct acoustic patterns in the signal (e.g. Pásztor
221 et al., 2023), offering a data-driven way to segment the storm's infrasound profile without requiring
222 prior labels or assumptions.

223 In parallel with the single-station analysis, we also applied the Progressive Multi-Channel
224 Correlation (PMCC) method (Cansi and Le Pichon, 2008; Le Pichon et al., 2010) to detect and
225 analyze coherent acoustic signals across an infrasound array. The PMCC method targets signals
226 generated by atmospheric sources such as lightning or pressure disturbances, operating in the low-
227 frequency range of 0.7 to 7 Hz. It is specifically suited for mini-array configurations, where signal
228 coherence between closely spaced sensors can be exploited for precise signal detection and
229 characterization.

230 The PMCC algorithm divides waveform recordings into overlapping time windows and processes
231 them across logarithmically spaced frequency bands. Within each time-frequency segment, cross-
232 correlations are computed between all sensor pairs to identify coherent wavefronts, signals that
233 exhibit consistent arrival times across the array. From these detections, PMCC estimates several
234 key propagation parameters, including back-azimuth (the direction of arrival), horizontal trace
235 velocity, amplitude, duration, and dominant frequency. This approach is particularly effective in
236 noisy environments and enables the discrimination of storm-generated infrasound from
237 background signals or unrelated acoustic sources. The algorithm's output consists of a time-
238 frequency map of signal detections enriched with physical metadata, allowing for detailed
239 interpretation of the storm's acoustic footprint and its temporal evolution.

240

241 **3.3 Satellite Observations**

242 We also incorporated data from the Meteosat Third Generation (MTG) satellite system (Holmlund
243 et al., 2021), specifically from its Lightning Imager (LI) sensor (Viticchie et al., 2020). The MTG
244 satellites operate in geostationary orbit at approximately 36,000 km altitude, providing continuous
245 observations over Europe, Africa, and surrounding waters. The Lightning Imager detects cloud-
246 to-cloud, cloud-to-ground, and intra-cloud lightning flashes using four cameras that collectively
247 cover 86% of the Earth's visible disc from the satellite's perspective.

248 For this study, we used Level 2 group data, which includes the geographical coordinates and timing
249 of each detected flash. By mapping these detections, we were able to analyze the spatial
250 distribution and temporal evolution of the storm's lightning activity. The dataset also offered
251 insights into the storm's intensity and structure, complementing other meteorological observations.

252 **3.4 GNSS Data**

253 The use of GNSS technology for atmospheric monitoring provides a powerful tool for analyzing
254 extreme weather events. Beyond its well-known applications in navigation and timing, GNSS has
255 become a reliable method for sensing tropospheric water vapour, an essential driver of weather
256 systems and a key variable in forecasting models (Gueroa et al., 2016; Vaquero-Martínez and
257 Antón, 2021). Over the past two decades, ground-based GNSS networks in Europe have
258 contributed significantly to operational meteorology by providing near real-time estimates of
259 atmospheric water vapour, aiding in the detection and tracking of severe weather, including heavy



rainfall and storms (Karabatić et al., 2011; Priego et al., 2017; Jones et al., 2020). These high-resolution observations have proven valuable for both nowcasting and validating numerical weather prediction models (Wilgan et al., 2015; Bosy et al., 2012; Awange, 2012).

In this study, GNSS data were collected from several networks (Figure 2), including the International GNSS Service (IGS, Johnston et al., 2017), the EUREF Permanent Network (EPN, Bruyninx et al., 2012), the Romanian Position Determination System (ROMPOS, Iliescu et al., 2019), and GEOPONTICA (Dimitriu et al., 2017). A total of 37 permanent GNSS stations were analyzed over a 30-day period, with the rainiest interval selected at the midpoint of the study period. These stations provide high-quality, continuous observations critical for atmospheric monitoring.

The data were processed using a double-differenced, ionosphere-free combination of L1 and L2 carrier phases. This approach helps minimize errors such as ionospheric delays, satellite clock biases, and other common atmospheric effects. The resulting Zenith Tropospheric Delay (ZTD) values were then corrected using the Vienna Mapping Functions 3 (VMF3, Landskron et al., 2018), which improve the accuracy of ZTD by accounting for variations in the troposphere's atmospheric conditions. Once the ZTD was refined, it was converted into integrated precipitable water vapor (PWV) using surface meteorological data (temperature and pressure) from co-located weather stations, following the method outlined by Bosy et al. (2012). This process allowed for the derivation of high-resolution atmospheric water vapor content, critical for analyzing the dynamics of the extreme storm event over the Black Sea. By combining GNSS-derived PWV with data from other observational sources, the study captured the temporal and spatial variations in atmospheric moisture, offering valuable insights into the storm's development and intensity.

3.5 Meteorological Data

To compare the infrasound signals captured during the Black Sea extreme storm event, we extracted meteorological data from the open-access ERA5 reanalysis dataset, produced by the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF). This dataset provides a comprehensive record of global weather conditions from 1950 to the present (Hersbach et al., 2023). ERA5 combines observational data and advanced numerical models to generate high-resolution atmospheric parameters, including precipitation (Figure 1), wind speed, and wave height.

For our study, the ERA5 data was used to track the meteorological context of the storm, offering insights into the intensity of precipitation, the evolution of wind patterns, and the development of oceanic wave heights. With high temporal (1 hour) and spatial ($0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$) resolution, ERA5 allows for a detailed comparison of the storm's meteorological characteristics over time. These comparisons help us understand the storm's dynamics and assess its impact, further enhancing the interpretation of infrasound signals and aiding in future storm prediction and monitoring efforts. The open-access nature of ERA5 ensures broad accessibility, contributing to the transparency and reproducibility of our storm analysis (Copernicus Climate Change Service, Climate Data Store, 2023).



301 4. Results

302 4.1 Seismic signatures of storm evolution

303 High frequency (>30 Hz) analysis of seismic noise reveals strong signals at times when high
304 precipitation values were also recorded (Figure 4). Specifically, an example of the velocity
305 envelope at station MANR and its spectrogram plotted for the period 29th of August at 12 AM
306 (00:00) to 31st of August midnight UTC (Figures 4b,c) reveal strong signal around the 18:00 UTC
307 - 00:00 UTC, when most precipitation was estimated in the grid cell of the station (more than 3
308 mm m^{-2} , Figure 4a). Similar signatures and precipitation-seismic spectrogram visualisations
309 showed correlation with hourly precipitation levels, indicating that the high amplitude signal
310 present on the high frequency velocity envelope and the time-frequency spectrogram at
311 frequencies above 30 Hz is likely caused by rain. Previous research showed a correlation with rain
312 drop size as well (Rindraharisaona et al., 2022), although we did not have access to such
313 information.

314

315

316

317

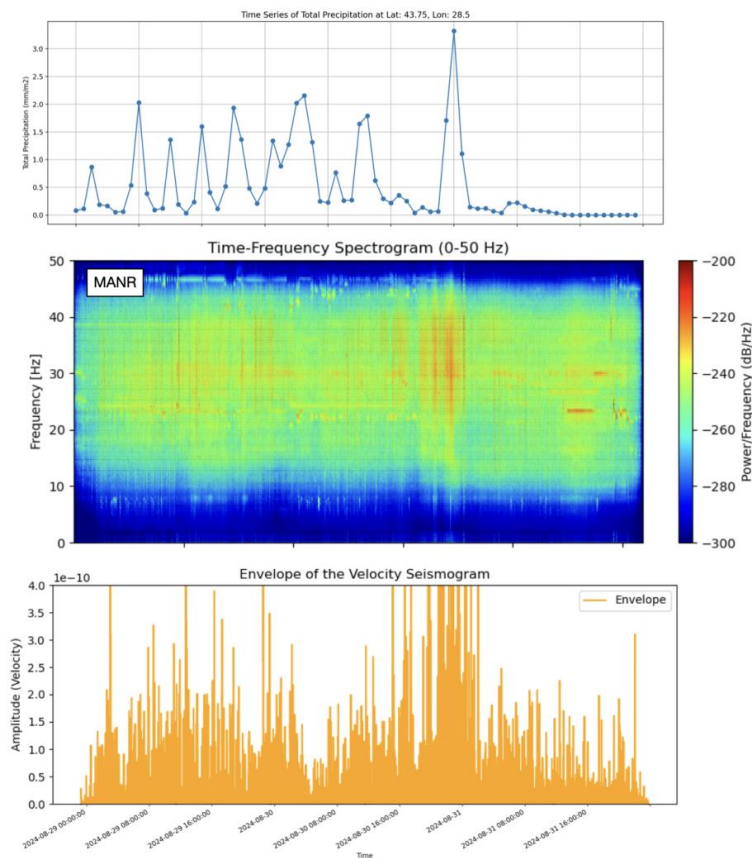
318

319

320

321

322



323

324 *Figure 4. High frequency (30-50Hz) observations of the storm at station MANR. a. Time series of total*
325 *precipitation per hour from ERA5 at the grid location of station MANR. b. Spectrogram of the velocity time*
326 *series for station MANR. c. Envelope of the velocity seismogram at station MANR.*

327 To visualise the signature of the storm passing over the network of broadband seismic stations in
328 the coastal area, we also plotted the hourly precipitation values with the hourly root-mean-square
329 amplitudes of the high-frequency (>30 Hz) seismic velocity envelopes recorded at seismic stations.
330 Figure 5 shows three snapshots of hourly plots, illustrating a correlation between changing
331 precipitation patterns from ERA5 data and the amplitudes of high-frequency seismic noise. This
332 observation further supports the likelihood of a causal relationship.

333

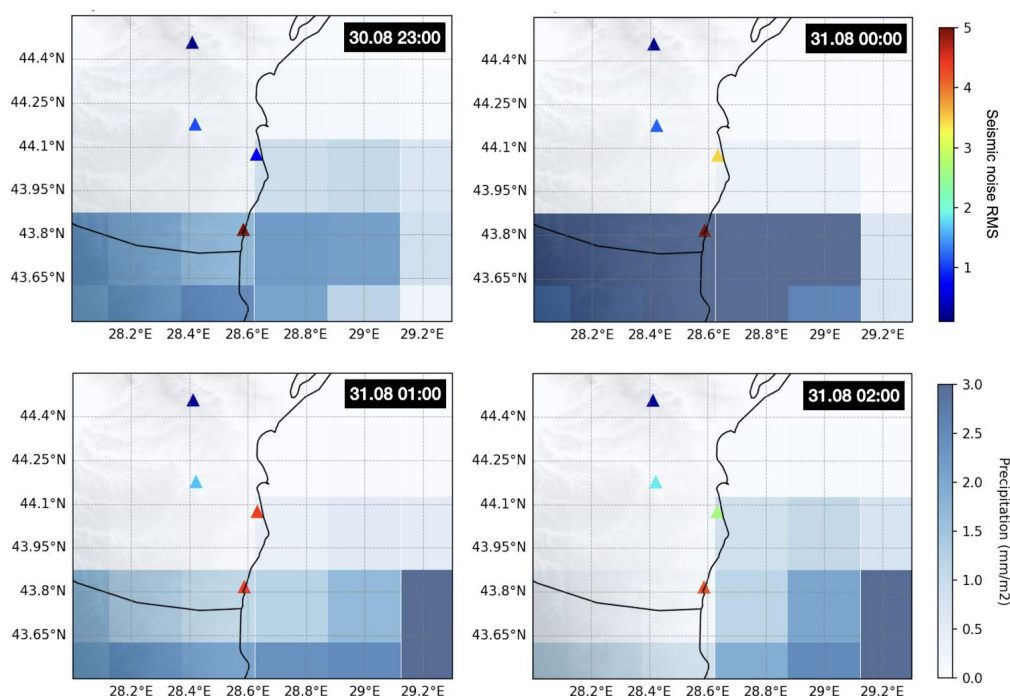
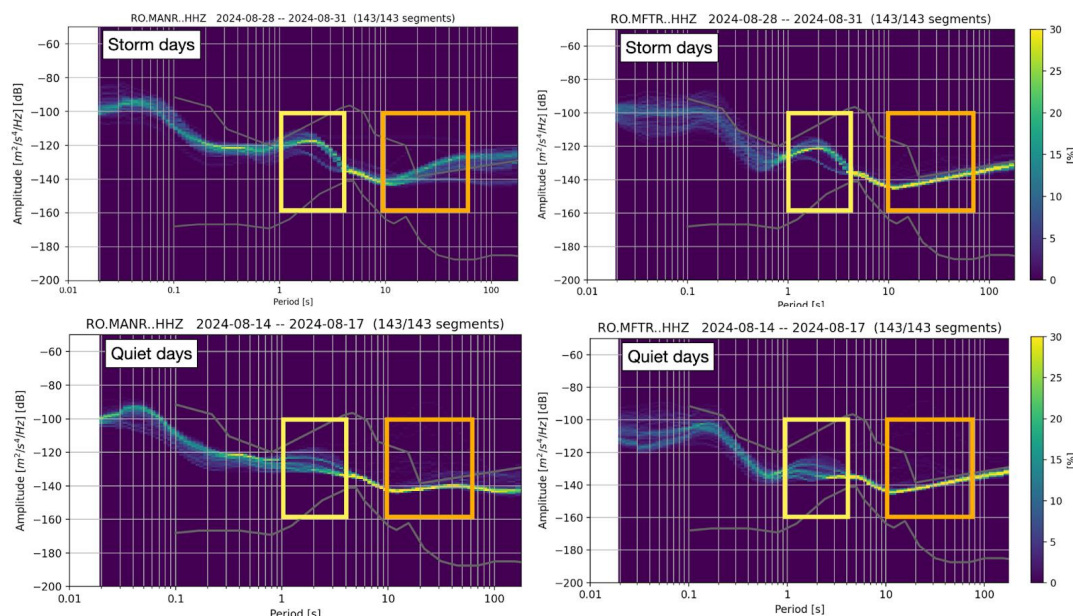


Figure 5. Distribution of hourly RMS of high pass filtered (>30 Hz) seismograms and precipitation data. Colours indicate hourly RMS amplitude of velocity envelopes filtered 30-50 Hz. Background coloured grid indicates the total precipitation (mm/m²) from ERA5 data.

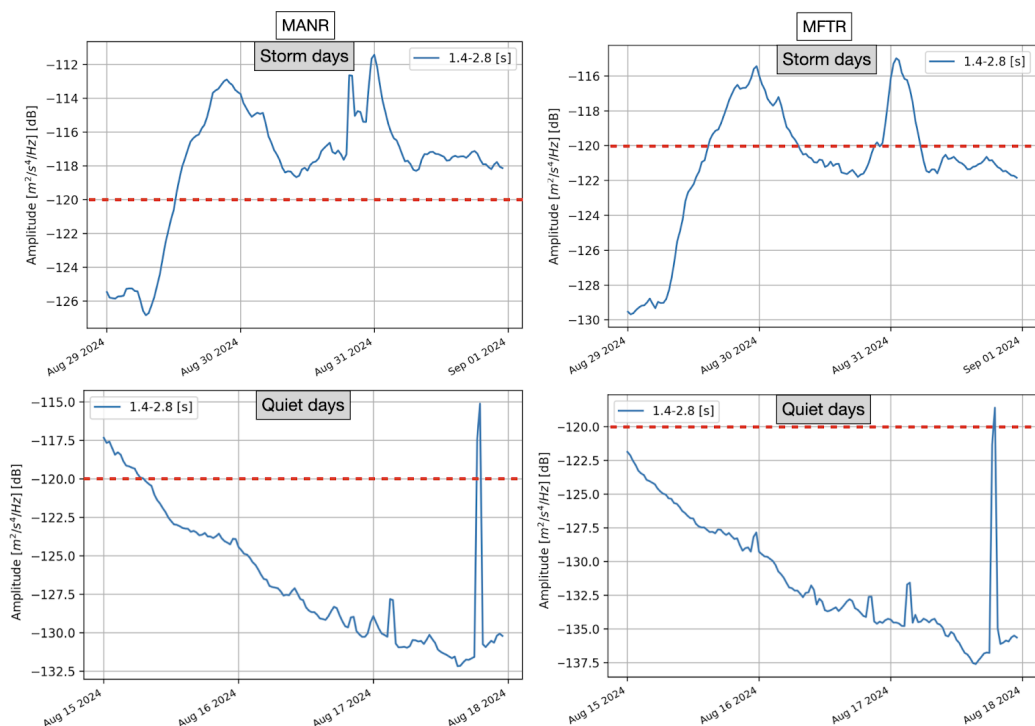
The analysis of the microseismic noise frequency band is closely linked to the interaction between ocean waves and the seafloor, which is influenced by storm conditions. To assess the storm's impact, we analyze the PPSD (Probabilistic Power Spectral Density) of noise recorded at several stations during both storm and quiet days, using the latter as a baseline. Figure 6 shows examples of PPSD at stations MANR and MFTR (Figure 2), revealing differences in PSD amplitudes across the primary and secondary microseismic bands. These differences indicate the presence of high-intensity wind-driven waves and swell energy in the sea.

The secondary microseismic band shows a significant rise in amplitude during storms, driven by wind-induced pressure fluctuations in the shoaling seafloor (Figure 3, Ebeling et al., 2012). On quiet days, the PSD remains consistently lower, typically staying below the -120 dB threshold. This stark contrast emphasizes the role of atmospheric conditions in modulating seismic noise, with storms causing a notable increase in energy across both frequency bands. The temporal evolution of the PSD values (Figure 7) further highlights the storm's impact, with fluctuations corresponding to changes in environmental factors, reinforcing the connection between storm activity and the observed seismic signals.



354

355 *Figure 6. Probabilistic Power Spectral Density (PPSD) plots for two seismic stations near the Black Sea*
 356 *coast capturing the target storm signal in the microseismic bandwidths (marked with rectangles). The top*
 357 *panels show the PPSD distributions across frequencies, indicating the probability of power spectral*
 358 *density values in percentage for days including the Black Sea storm. The bottom panels show PPSD for*
 359 *days with no recorded events.*



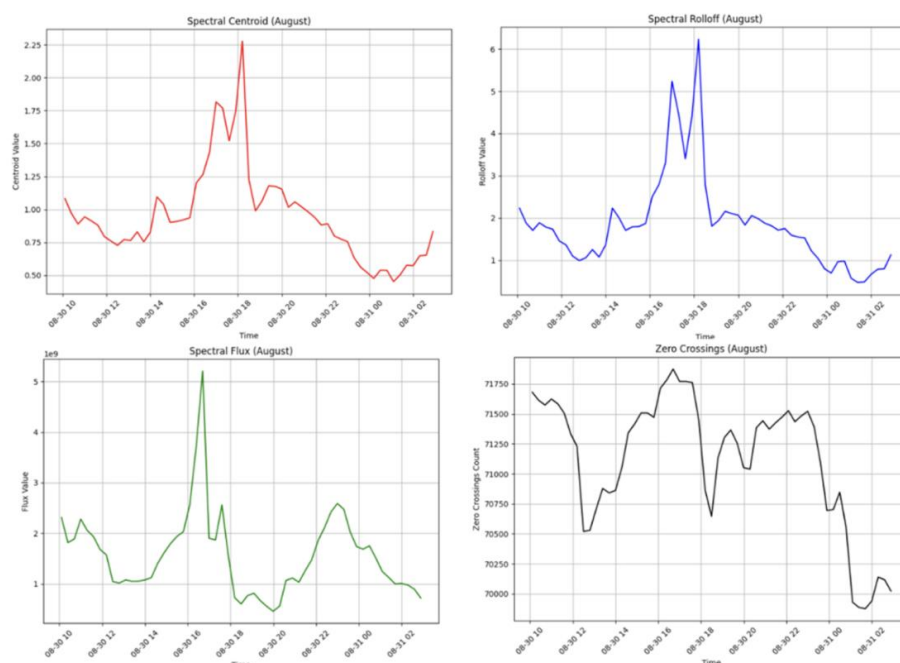
360

361 *Figure 7. Temporal PSDs for two seismic stations near the Black Sea Coast in the secondary microseismic*
362 *band showing significantly higher values (>-120 dB) during stormy days compared to days without*
363 *recorded precipitation.*

364 **4.1 Infrasound and satellite lightning observations**

365 **4.1.1 Single station feature extraction**

366 The evolution of time-frequency features over the duration of the Black Sea storm revealed distinct
367 patterns in the infrasound signal (Figures 8 and 9). Most features, including spectral flux, spectral
368 centroid, and spectral rolloff, exhibited a clear peak or a slightly bimodal peak corresponding to
369 the storm's peak intensity, indicating a strong relationship between these features and the storm's
370 dynamics. The peak in these features was most pronounced during the storm's active periods,
371 reflecting rapid changes in the atmospheric conditions. However, the zero-crossings feature did
372 not show a similarly distinct pattern, with its evolution being less evident in relation to the storm's
373 phases. This suggests that most spectral features are sensitive to storm-related acoustic shifts.



374

375 *Figure 8. Time-frequency feature analysis for the single-station infrasound signal recorded at AGIR during*
376 *the Black Sea Storm.*

377 K-means clustering of the segmented infrasound signal, based on extracted time-frequency
378 features, further revealed the relationship between the storm's acoustic dynamics and its temporal
379 evolution, using 7 clusters for the enhancement of both detection of storm phases and event
380 detection. The segmented signal highlighted distinct phases of the storm, with each segment
381 corresponding to clusters representing specific changes in spectral content. These segments
382 exhibited clear matches with the storm's progression, indicating that the clustering technique
383 effectively tracked variations in storm intensity and the corresponding acoustic features.
384 Interestingly, the spectral content of the infrasound signal showed similarities to seismic signal
385 envelopes, particularly in the high frequency ranges (Figure 9), which may suggest a connection
386 between the atmospheric pressure waves detected by infrasound and the ground vibrations
387 captured by seismic instruments. This overlap implies that both seismic and infrasound signals
388 could be complementary in capturing different aspects of storm dynamics, with seismic signals
389 reflecting ground vibrations and infrasound capturing the atmospheric processes.

390

391

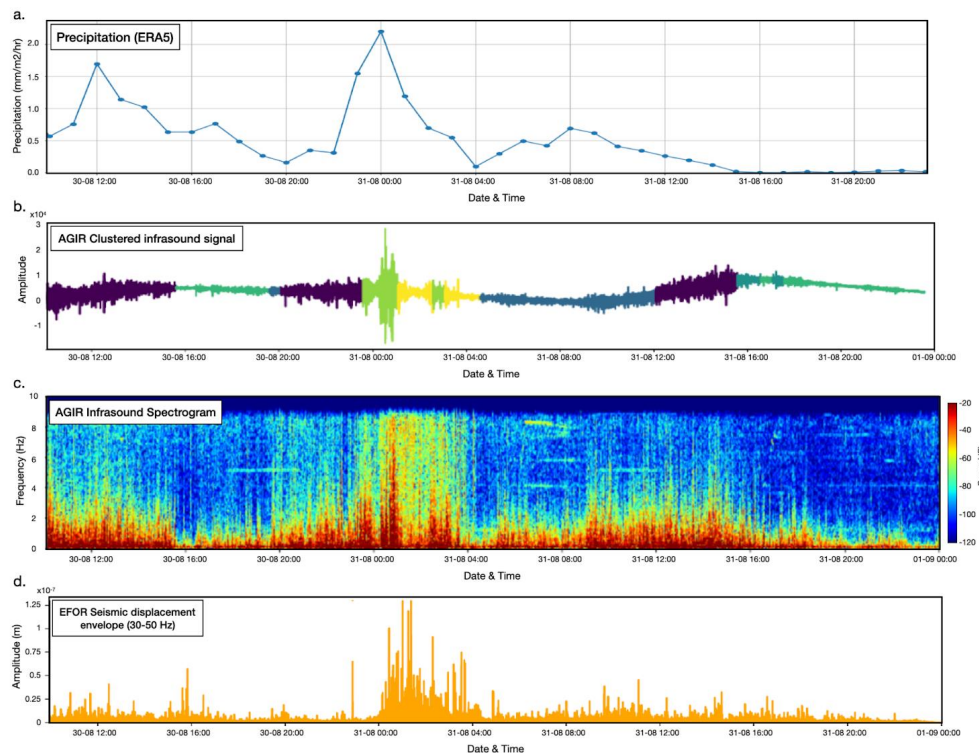


Figure 9. Clustering results of infrasound signals recorded at AGIR from the August Black Sea storm event compared with precipitation data and seismic signal from EFOR station. a. Average precipitation data from 1°x1° around AGIR. b. Raw infrasound signal recorded at the AGIR sensor during the period of August 30–31, 2024, with different segments color-coded according to the cluster they belong to, based on K-means clustering of 30-minute time-frequency feature windows. c. The corresponding spectrogram generated using Blackman windowing with 128 samples and 70% overlap; d. Seismic displacement envelope at station EFOR, filtered between 30–50 Hz.

4.1.2 Array analysis and lightning detection

The PMCC algorithm allowed us to isolate coherent infrasound signals and estimate their propagation parameters, such as back-azimuth and arrival times, across the sensor network. These detections were cross-referenced with data from the MTG Lightning Imager, which recorded nearly 11,000 lightning strikes within a 50 km radius of the station during the Black Sea storm. The selected range ensured that the detected infrasound signals could be reliably linked to nearby lightning activity.

Approximately 1,100 infrasound detections were identified within the relevant frequency range of 0.6 to 7 Hz (Figure 10). These signals primarily consisted of long-duration wave trains, characterized by frequent amplitude peaks, likely associated with electrical discharges from lightning. The dominant frequency of these infrasound signals was approximately 3 Hz, with amplitudes varying between 0.01 and 3.4 Pa. These acoustic signatures, identified through the PMCC method, provide valuable insights into the storm's behavior, correlating infrasound signals



with specific lightning events detected by the MTG Lightning Imager and enhancing our understanding of the atmospheric effects during the storm.

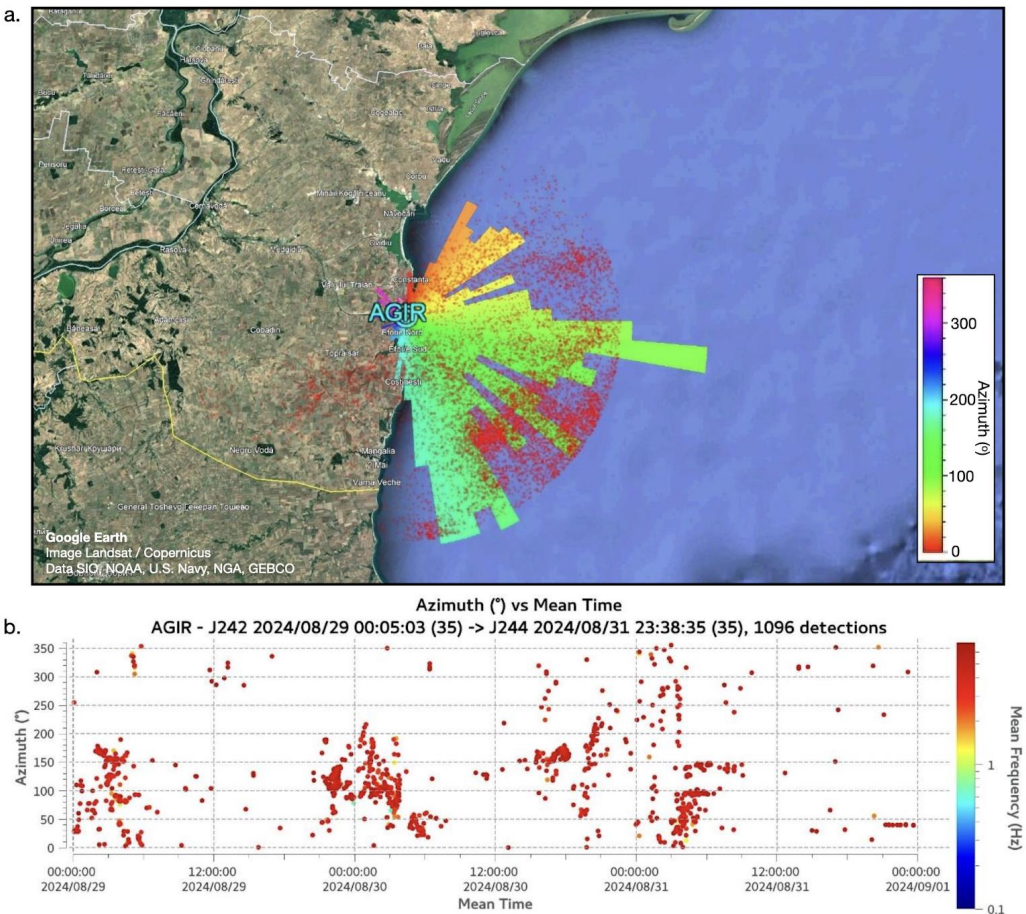


Figure 10. a. Polar histogram of infrasound detections from the AGIR station, displayed with © Google Earth, along with the locations of lightning strikes detected by the MTG Lightning Imager system for the period from August 29 to 31, 2024. The geographical position of the AGIR infrasound station is also shown on the map. b. diagram of high-frequency detections from the AGIR infrasound station between August 29 and 31, 2024.

4.4 GNSS-derived precipitable water vapor trends

The analysis of daily GNSS-derived precipitable water vapor (Figure 11) reveals clear temporal variations, with the highest PWV values consistently recorded on stormy days (>900 mm per day on DOY 240–243). Notably, the peak values occurred between DOY 241 and DOY 243 (Figure 11b), when the heaviest rainfall was observed (Figure 1). Coastal stations showed extremely high PWV values (>950 mm per day) compared to inland stations (>800 mm per day), with a slight decrease in PWV as we moved inland (Figure 11a). This spatial distribution highlights the geographical gradient of atmospheric moisture, with the highest PWV concentrations near coastal



429 areas, decreasing gradually toward the north. Interestingly, some inland stations (BUCU, PGNL,
430 RMSR) recorded their peak PWV on DOY 255, corresponding to the onset of the Boris storm,
431 another significant extreme rainfall event that swept through Central and Eastern Europe
432 (Athanas et al., 2024).

433 Elevated PWV was observed as early as DOY 239 (Figure 12a), suggesting that the tropospheric
434 moisture loading began to increase several days before the onset of the rainfall. This accelerated
435 increase in PWV can serve as an early indicator of a developing weather system. Remarkably,
436 although HAR1, located inland, did not directly experience the extreme rainfall, it exhibited
437 similar PWV behavior to coastal stations, suggesting that GNSS stations, even outside the
438 immediate storm zones, can capture atmospheric signals indicative of intense precipitation. This
439 finding offers a valuable precedent, showing that PWV measurements at GNSS stations not
440 directly in the storm's path can still provide critical insights into moisture dynamics at the
441 tropospheric level.

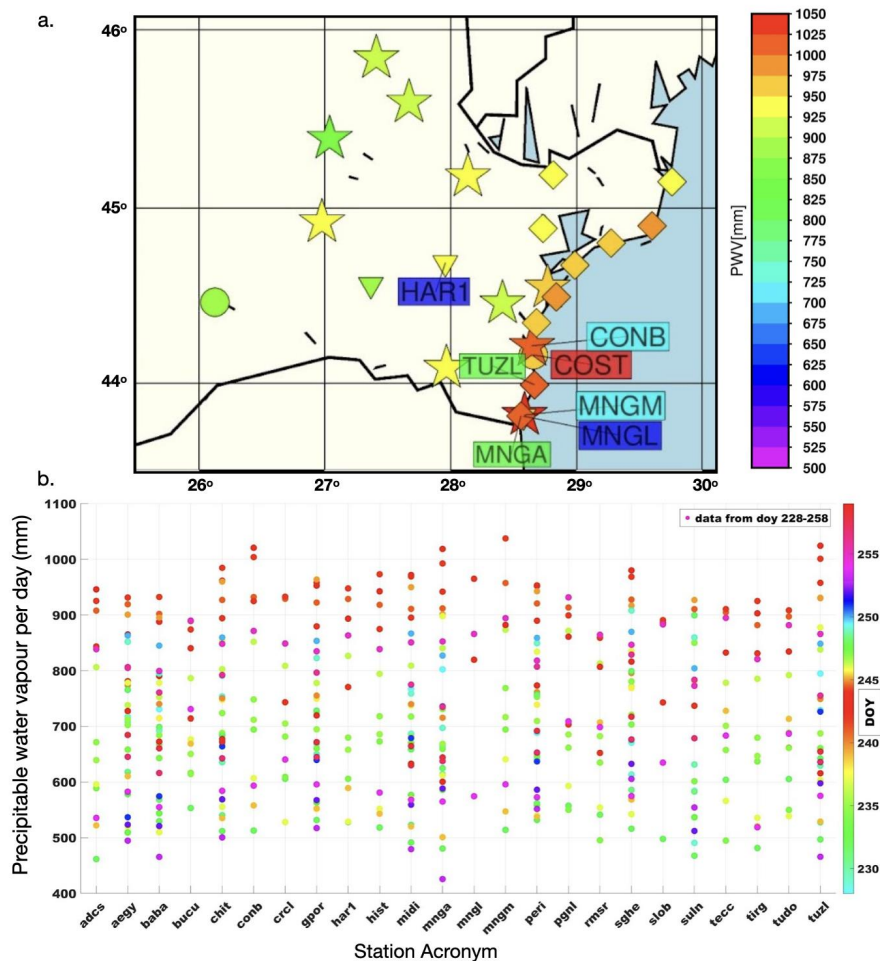




Figure 11. a: Map of GNSS stations coloured as a function of PWV estimated a day before the heavy rainfall in August 2024. b: Daily PWV values for each station showing the difference between rainy days (red circles) and non-rainy days (coloured as a function of Julian day index).

Shifting focus to hourly PWV data, Figure 12b shows the results from the MNGA station, which recorded the heaviest rainfall in the study area. Notably, MNGA also showed a rapid buildup of PWV, reaching values greater than 44 mm/hr just a few hours before the storm event. This rapid increase in PWV strongly suggests that the accumulation of atmospheric moisture is a precursor to extreme weather events, such as intense rainfall and storms. This observation aligns with known atmospheric dynamics, where a significant increase in water vapor content precedes heavy precipitation, providing further evidence of the potential for GNSS-based PWV monitoring to serve as an early warning tool for extreme weather.

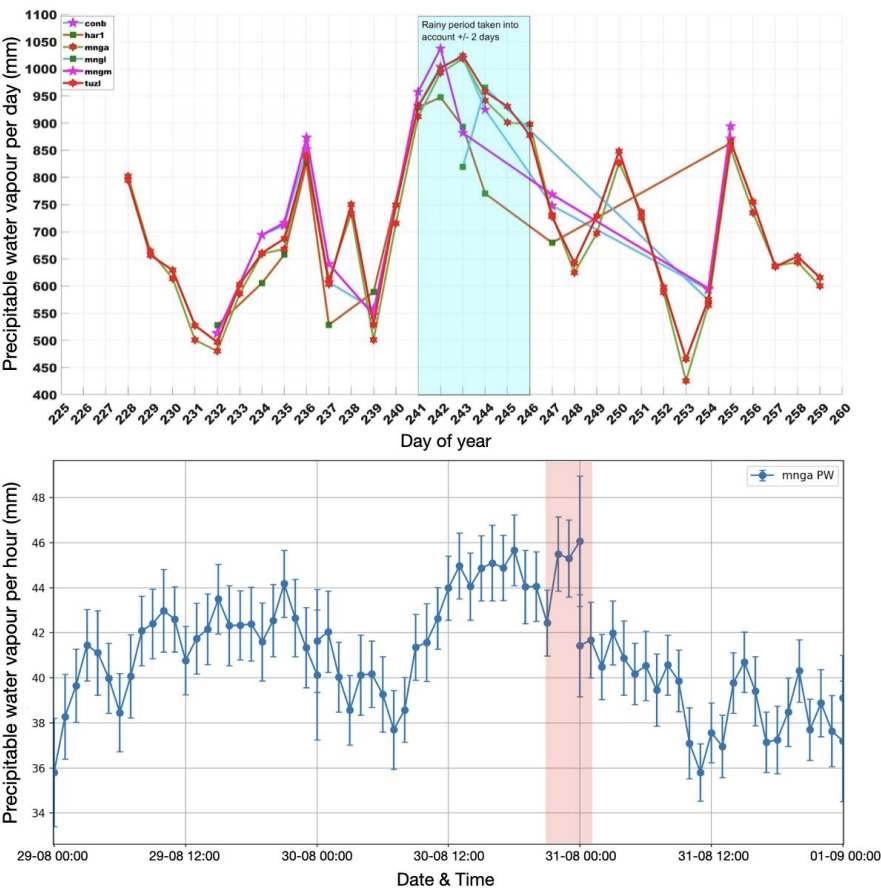


Figure 12. Time series of precipitable water vapour per day estimated at several GNSS stations (Figure 2), shown over the period of a month centered on the storm event (highlighted in blue); b. Hourly rates of PWV for station MNGA with the heaviest recorded rainfall at the location of the station, highlighted in blue.



459 5. Discussion

460 The integration of infrasound, seismic, and GNSS data in monitoring the extreme storm event over
461 the Black Sea provides valuable insights into the dynamics of storm behavior and demonstrates
462 the potential of non-conventional sensors for meteorological analysis. Infrasound data, for
463 instance, revealed a clear acoustic signature of lightning activity, with signals detected in the range
464 of 0.6 to 7 Hz corresponding to electrical discharges. The high frequency of infrasound detections
465 (around 1,100) supports its utility as a reliable tool for tracking storm-related phenomena,
466 particularly lightning, which is difficult to capture with traditional methods. However, the signals
467 did not always perfectly align with lightning strikes, indicating that other factors, such as the
468 movement of storm systems or variations in atmospheric conditions, may influence infrasound
469 signatures. This suggests that refining the correlation between infrasound signals and lightning
470 activity could be an avenue for future research, particularly in cases of sparse lightning or in remote
471 regions.

472 A key aspect of the analysis was the use of unsupervised learning methods, such as K-means
473 clustering, to identify patterns in the infrasound data. This approach segmented the infrasound
474 signals into distinct clusters, suggesting the evolution of different phases of the storm. By
475 identifying these phases, we can correlate shifts in spectral content with variations in storm
476 intensity. However, a major goal for future work is to perform joint clustering with seismic data,
477 which could provide a more comprehensive understanding of the storm's acoustic and seismic
478 dynamics. Seismic data, particularly high-frequency seismic noise, closely resembled infrasound
479 spectral decay, suggesting a coupling between the two types of signals. This spectral similarity
480 may indicate that both infrasound and seismic signals are influenced by the same atmospheric and
481 oceanic processes, such as pressure fluctuations caused by rainfall, wind, and storm-induced
482 waves. The coupling between seismic and infrasound signals further emphasizes the need to
483 integrate these data sources, as they capture different but complementary aspects of storm
484 behavior. Future studies using joint clustering techniques will be crucial in enhancing the detection
485 of storm phases and improving the understanding of the coupling between seismic and infrasound
486 data.

487 Seismic data alone also showed a strong connection between high-frequency seismic noise and
488 heavy rainfall, supporting previous studies that linked seismic signals to rainfall intensity. The
489 distinction between high-frequency and low-frequency seismic noise is particularly noteworthy.
490 High-frequency seismic noise correlated with precipitation, while low-frequency signals were
491 associated with wave height and storm-driven winds. This suggests that different seismic
492 frequencies capture distinct storm dynamics, with high-frequency signals reflecting localized
493 rainfall impacts and low-frequency signals tied to broader atmospheric and oceanic interactions.
494 This dual-frequency approach provides a more nuanced interpretation of seismic data in storm
495 monitoring, highlighting its complexity.

496 The temporal variations observed in GNSS-derived integrated precipitable water vapor (PWV)
497 provide valuable insights into atmospheric moisture dynamics before extreme weather events. The
498 pronounced increase in PWV, particularly in the days leading up to and during the storm (DOY
499 241-243), supports the link between elevated atmospheric water vapor and precipitation. Notably,
500 the buildup of PWV starting as early as DOY 239 suggests that rising moisture levels in the
501 troposphere can serve as an early indicator of impending extreme rainfall. Even stations located
502 up to 130 km inland, such as HAR1, recorded similar PWV trends, indicating that GNSS stations
503 outside direct storm zones can still provide crucial atmospheric data. Hourly PWV trends further



revealed a rapid increase several hours before precipitation, with values exceeding 44 mm/hr, highlighting the accumulation of moisture just before heavy rainfall. These findings align with the notion that increasing atmospheric moisture acts as a precursor to intense precipitation, highlighting the potential of GNSS-based PWV monitoring as a real-time tool for tracking moisture and understanding short-term atmospheric fluctuations.

The integration of GNSS, infrasound, and seismic data provides a more comprehensive understanding of storm dynamics than any single data source alone. The synergy between these diverse sensor types allows for the detection of atmospheric moisture, lightning activity, rainfall-induced seismic signals, and storm-driven oceanic interactions. Future research should focus on refining unsupervised learning algorithms for infrasound and seismic signal classification, optimizing joint clustering techniques, and improving the integration of these data sources to enhance storm forecasting and early-warning systems. We believe this multi-sensor approach holds promise for improving our ability to predict extreme weather events, understand their impacts, and mitigate associated risks.

6. Conclusions

This study presents a comprehensive analysis of a record-breaking storm over the Black Sea, using a combination of GNSS, infrasound, and seismic data to capture the dynamics of extreme weather events. Our findings underscore the power of multi-sensor networks in enhancing the understanding of storm behavior, particularly in the context of atmospheric moisture, lightning activity, and storm-induced seismic signals. GNSS-derived integrated precipitable water vapor (PWV) indicates a clear buildup of atmospheric moisture hours before the onset of heavy rainfall, providing valuable insights into the lead-up to extreme precipitation events. Infrasound and seismic data further complemented this analysis, with infrasound serving as a reliable tool for tracking lightning activity and seismic data revealing the link between rainfall intensity and high-frequency seismic noise.

The storm we analyzed is not only a significant meteorological event but also serves as a powerful example of how climate change may be influencing the frequency and intensity of extreme weather phenomena. Record-breaking storms like this are increasingly being recognized as evidence of shifting atmospheric conditions, driven by global climate change. The integration of GNSS, infrasound, and seismic data provides a more nuanced and holistic view of storm dynamics, highlighting the need for advanced monitoring systems to predict and respond to such extreme events. Moving forward, the combination of these innovative tools holds great potential for improving early-warning systems, enhancing storm forecasting, and better understanding the impacts of climate change on atmospheric and oceanic processes.

7. Code availability

Seismic data were processed with the open-source python framework for seismology Obspy (Beyreuther et al., 2010). Infrasound data was processed with the WinPMCC software (Le Pichon et al., 2010) developed by CEA/DASE (French Atomic Energy Commission, Environmental Assessment and Monitoring Department) and open-source Python libraries for signal processing. Some of the figures were made with GMT (Generic Mapping Tools, Wessel et al., 2019). The GNSS data was processed using Gamit/Globk (Herring et al., 2020) developed by Massachusetts Institute of Technology (<http://www.gpsg.mit.edu/gg/>).



546 8. Data availability

547 Seismic data are part of the Romanian National Seismic Network maintained by the National
548 institute for Earth Physics (NIEP, www.infp.ro) and are freely available in the miniseed format via
549 EIDA (European Integrated Data Archive, <https://www.orfeus-eu.org/data/eida/>). GNSS data are
550 available for download from NIEP (<http://gps.infp.ro/#/download>) and are provided in the
551 standardized RINEX v2 format, with 24-hour files sampled at 30-second intervals. Infrasound data
552 at AGIR are available to download from NIEP via FDSN dataselect web service. Hourly hydro-
553 meteorological data were obtained from the Copernicus Climate Change Service, Climate Data
554 Store (<https://doi.org/10.24381/cds.bd0915c6>), ERA5 dataset (Hersbach et al., 2023). Lightning
555 data came from Meteosat Third Generation Lightning Imager operated by EUMETSAT (The
556 European Organisation for the Exploitation of Meteorological Satellites,
557 <https://www.eumetsat.int/>).

558 9. Author contribution

559 **Laura Petrescu:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Formal analysis, Data Curation,
560 Writing-Original Draft, Visualization, Funding acquisition; **Bogdan Antonescu:**
561 Conceptualization, Writing-Review & Editing, Visualization; **Sorin Nistor:** Software, Formal
562 Analysis, Data curation, Visualisation, Writing-Review & Editing; **Iustin Floroiu:** Methodology,
563 Software, Formal analysis, Data Curation, Writing-Original Draft, Visualization; **Dragoş Ene:**
564 Software, Formal analysis, Data Curation, Writing-Review & Editing; **Daniela Ghica:** Software,
565 Formal analysis, Data Curation; **Constantin Ionescu:** Funding Acquisition, Resources, Project
566 administration; **Andrei Anghel:** Methodology, Supervision; **Mihai Datcu:** Methodology,
567 Supervision, Funding Acquisition, Resources, Project administration.

568 10. Acknowledgments

569 We would like to thank the technicians and staff at NIEP for their support in installing,
570 maintaining, and ensuring the proper functioning of the equipment used in this study. Additionally,
571 we appreciate the efforts of those involved in data formatting and preparation (Cristian Neagoe,
572 Eduard Nastase, Victorin Toader) which were essential for this work.

573 11. Financial support:

574 This work was carried out in the framework of the “Competence Center for Climate Change Digital
575 Twin for Earth forecasts and societal redressment” Project PNRR- DTEClimate nr.
576 760008/31.12.2023, subproject Reactive “The Research center for climate change due to natural
577 disasters and extreme weather events”, supported by the Ministry of Research, Innovation and
578 Digitalization of Romania.

579 12. References

580 Antonescu, B., Dafis, S., & Faranda, D.: Changes in precipitation patterns driving August 2024
581 Romania floods mostly driven by human-driven climate change. *ClimaMeter, Institut Pierre*
582 *Simon Laplace, CNRS*. <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.14056214>, 2018.



- 583 Arduin, F., Gualtieri, L., Stutzmann, E., Nakata, N. and Fichtner, A.: Physics of ambient noise
584 generation by ocean waves. In *Seismic ambient noise*, Eds: Nakata, N., Gualtieri, L., Fichtner, A.
585 Cambridge University Press, 69-108, <https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108264808.005>, 2019.
- 586 Aster, R.C., McNamara, D.E. & Bromirski, P.D.: Multidecadal climate-induced variability in
587 microseisms. *Seismological Research Letters*, 79(2), 194-202,
588 <https://doi.org/10.1785/gssrl.79.2.194>, 2008.
- 589 Aster, R.C., Ringler, A.T., Anthony, R.E., & Lee, T.A.: Increasing ocean wave energy observed
590 in Earth's seismic wavefield since the late 20th century. *Nature Communications*, 14(1), 6984,
591 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-023-42673-w>, 2023.
- 592 Athanase, M., Sánchez-Benítez, A., Monfort, E., Jung, T. and Goessling, H.F.: How climate
593 change intensified storm Boris' extreme rainfall, revealed by near-real-time storylines.
594 *Communications Earth & Environment*, 5(1), 676, <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43247-024-01847-0>,
595 2024.
- 596 Awange, J.L.: Environmental monitoring using GNSS: Global navigation satellite systems,
597 Springer, Heidelberg, <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-540-88256-5>, 2012.
- 598 Beyreuther, M., Barsch, R., Krischer, L., Megies, T., Behr, Y. and Wassermann, J.: ObsPy: A
599 Python toolbox for seismology. *Seismological Research Letters*, 81(3), 530-533,
600 <https://doi.org/10.1785/gssrl.81.3.530>, 2010.
- 601 Bengtsson, L., Hodges, K.I. and Roeckner, E.: Storm tracks and climate change. *Journal of*
602 *climate*, 19(15), 3518-3543, <https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI3815.1>, 2006.
- 603 Bollinger, L., Perrier, F., Avouac, J.P., Sapkota, S., Gautam, U., Tiwari, D.R.: Seasonal
604 modulation of seismicity in the Himalaya of Nepal, *Geophysical Research Letters*, 34(8),
605 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2006GL029192>, 2007.
- 606 Bondár, I., Šindelářová, T., Ghica, D., Mitterbauer, U., Liashchuk, A., Baše, J., Chum, J., Czanik,
607 C., Ionescu, C., Neagoe, C. and Pásztor, M.: Central and Eastern European Infrasound Network:
608 contribution to infrasound monitoring, *Geophysical Journal International*, 230(1), 565-579,
609 <https://doi.org/10.1093/gji/ggac066>, 2022.
- 610 Borzi, A.M., Minio, V., Cannavò, F., Cavallaro, A., D'Amico, S., Gauci, A., De Plaen, R., Lecocq,
611 T., Nardone, G., Orasi, A., Picone, M., Cannata, A.: Monitoring extreme meteo-marine events in
612 the Mediterranean area using the microseism (Medicane Apollo case study). *Scientific Reports*,
613 12(1), <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-022-25395-9>, 2022.
- 614 Bosy, J., Kaplon, J., Rohm, W., Sierny, J. and Hadas, T.: Near real-time estimation of water vapour
615 in the troposphere using ground GNSS and the meteorological data, *Annales Geophysicae*, 30,
616 1379–1391, <https://doi.org/10.5194/angeo-30-1379-2012>, 2012.



- 617 Brachet, N., Brown, D., Le Bras, R., Cansi, Y., Mialle, P., Coyne, J.: Monitoring the Earth's
618 Atmosphere with the Global IMS Infrasound Network, in: *Infrasound Monitoring for Atmospheric*
619 *Studies*, edited by: Le Pichon, A., Blanc, E., Hauchecorne, A. , Springer, Dordrecht,
620 https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4020-9508-5_3, 2010.
- 621 Bromirski, P.D. and Duennebier, F.K.: The near-coastal microseism spectrum: Spatial and
622 temporal wave climate relationships. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Solid Earth*, 107(B8), ESE
623 5-1-ESE 5-20, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2001JB000265>, 2002.
- 624 Bruyninx, C., Habrich, H., Söhne, W., Kenyeres, A., Stangl, G. and Völksen, C.: Enhancement of
625 the EUREF permanent network services and products, in: *Proceedings of the International*
626 *Association of Geodesy, Symposium on Geodesy for Planet Earth, Buenos Aires, Argentina, 31*
627 *August-4 September 2009*, 27-34, 2012.
- 628 Burtin, A., Hovius, N. and Turowski, J.M.: Seismic monitoring of torrential and fluvial processes.
629 *Earth Surface Dynamics*, 4(2), 285-307, <https://doi.org/10.5194/esurf-4-285-2016>, 2016.
- 630 Campus, P. and Christie, D.R.: Worldwide observations of infrasonic waves, in: *Infrasound*
631 *monitoring for atmospheric studies*, edited by: Le Pichon, A., Blanc, E., Hauchecorne, A.,
632 Springer, Dordrecht, Netherlands, 185-234, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4020-9508-5_6, 2009.
- 633 Cansi, Y. and Pichon, A.L.: Infrasound event detection using the progressive multi-channel
634 correlation algorithm, in: *Handbook of signal processing in acoustics.*, edited by: Havelock, D.,
635 Kuwano, S., Vorländer, M., Springer, New York, 1425-1435, [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-30441-0_77)
636 [30441-0_77](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-30441-0_77), 2008.
- 637 Coviello, V., Palo, M., Adirosi, E. and Picozzi, M.: Seismic signature of an extreme hydro-
638 meteorological event in Italy, *Natural Hazards*, 1(1), 17, [https://doi.org/10.1038/s44304-024-](https://doi.org/10.1038/s44304-024-00018-7)
639 [00018-7](https://doi.org/10.1038/s44304-024-00018-7), 2024.
- 640 Diaz, J., Ruiz, M., Udina, M., Polls, F., Martí, D., Bech, J.: Monitoring storm evolution using a
641 high-density seismic network, *Scientific Reports*, 13(1), [https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-023-](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-023-28902-8)
642 [28902-8](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-023-28902-8), 2023.
- 643 Dimitriu, R.G., Stanciu, I.M., Barbu M.-B., Dobrev, N., Dumitru, P.: First results on the western
644 Black Sea coast geodynamics resulted from GeoPontica permanent GNSS stations network data
645 processing, in: *Proceedings of the 17th International Multidisciplinary Scientific GeoConference*
646 *SGEM, Albena, Bulgaria August 2017*, 17(11), 149-157, 2017.
- 647 Ebeling, C.W.: Inferring Ocean Storm Characteristics from Ambient Seismic Noise. A Historical
648 Perspective, *Advances in Geophysics*, 53, 1-33. [https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-380938-](https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-380938-4.00001-X)
649 [4.00001-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-380938-4.00001-X), 2012.
- 650 Faranda, D., Messori, G., Coppola, E., Alberti, T., Vrac, M., Pons, F., Yiou, P., Saint Lu, M., Hisi,
651 A. N. S., Brockmann, P., Dafis, S., Mengaldo, G., and Vautard, R.: ClimaMeter: contextualizing
652 extreme weather in a changing climate, *Weather Climate Dynamics*, 5, 959–983,
653 <https://doi.org/10.5194/wcd-5-959-2024>, 2024.



- 654 Grevenmeyer, I., Herber, R. and Essen, H.H.: Microseismological evidence for a changing wave
655 climate in the northeast Atlantic Ocean. *Nature*, 408(6810), 349-352,
656 <https://doi.org/10.1038/35042558>, 2000.
- 657 Gualtieri, L., Camargo, S.J., Pascale, S., Pons, F.M.E., & Ekström, G.: The persistent signature of
658 tropical cyclones in ambient seismic noise, *Earth and Planetary Science Letters*, 484, 287-294.
659 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.epsl.2017.12.026>, 2018.
- 660 Gueroa, G., Jones, J., Douša, J., Dick, G., de Haan, S., Pottiaux, E., Bock, O., Pacione, R.,
661 Elgered, G., Vedel, H. and Bender, M.: Review of the state of the art and future prospects of the
662 ground-based GNSS meteorology in Europe, *Atmospheric Measurement Techniques*, 9(11),
663 5385–5406, <https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-9-5385-2016>, 2016.
- 664 Herring, T., King, R., Floyd, M., McClusky, S.: GAMIT Reference Manual GPS Analysis at MIT
665 Release 10.7. GAMIT/GLOBK, 2020.
- 666 Hersbach, H., Bell, B., Berrisford, P., Hirahara, S., Horányi, A., Muñoz-Sabater, J., Nicolas, J.,
667 Peubey, C., Radu, R., Schepers, D. and Simmons, A.: The ERA5 global reanalysis, *Quarterly*
668 *Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society*, 146(730), 1999-2049, 2020.
- 669 Hersbach, H., Bell, B., Berrisford, P., Biavati, G., Horányi, A., Muñoz Sabater, J., Nicolas, J.,
670 Peubey, C., Radu, R., Rozum, I., Schepers, D., Simmons, A., Soci, C., Dee, D., Thépaut, J.-N.:
671 ERA5 hourly data on single levels from 1940 to present. Copernicus Climate Change Service
672 (C3S) Climate Data Store (CDS), <https://doi.org/10.24381/cds.adbb2d47>, 2023.
- 673 Holmlund, K., Grandell, J., Schmetz, J., Stuhlmann, R., Bojkov, B., Munro, R., Lekouara, M.,
674 Coppens, D., Viticchie, B., August, T. and Theodore, B.: Meteosat Third Generation (MTG):
675 Continuation and innovation of observations from geostationary orbit, *Bulletin of the American*
676 *Meteorological Society*, 102(5), E990-E1015, <https://doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-D-19-0304.1>, 2021.
- 677 Hua, J., Wu, M., Mulholland, J.P., Neelin, J.D., Tsai, V.C. and Trugman, D.T.: High-resolution
678 precipitation monitoring with a dense seismic nodal array. *Scientific Reports*, 13(1), 11450,
679 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-023-38008-w>, 2023.
- 680 Hupe, P., Ceranna, L., Pilger, C., de Carlo, M., Le Pichon, A., Kaifler, B. and Rapp, M.: Assessing
681 middle atmosphere weather models using infrasound detections from microbaroms. *Geophysical*
682 *Journal International*, 216(3), 1761-1767, <https://doi.org/10.1093/gji/ggy520>, 2019.
- 683 Hupe, P., Ceranna, L., Le Pichon, A., Matoza, R.S. and Mialle, P.: International Monitoring
684 System infrasound data products for atmospheric studies and civilian applications. *Earth System*
685 *Science Data Discussions*, 14, 4201–4230, <https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-14-4201-2022>, 2022.
- 686 Iliescu, A. I., Rus, T., Danciu, V., Moldoveanu, C., & Ilie, A.: Current situation of GNSS networks
687 in Romania, *Bulletin of University of Agricultural Sciences and Veterinary Medicine Cluj-Napoca.*
688 *Horticulture*, 76(2), 2019.



- 689 Johnston, G., Riddell, A. and Hausler, G.: The international GNSS service, in: Springer handbook
690 of global navigation satellite systems, edited by: Teunissen, P.J. and Montenbruck, O., Springer,
691 Cham, Switzerland, 967-982, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-42928-1_33, 2017.
- 692 Jones, J., Guerova, G., Douša, J., Dick, G., de Haan, S., Pottiaux, E., Bock, O., Pacione, R. and
693 Van Malderen, R.: Advanced GNSS tropospheric products for monitoring severe weather events
694 and climate, COST Action ES1206 Final Action Dissemination Report, 563, 2020.
- 695 Karabatić, A., Weber, R. and Haiden, T.: Near real-time estimation of tropospheric water vapour
696 content from ground based GNSS data and its potential contribution to weather now-casting in
697 Austria, *Advances in Space Research*, 47(10), 1691–1703,
698 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asr.2010.10.028>, 2011.
- 699 Kober, K. and Tafferner, A.: Tracking and nowcasting of convective cells using remote sensing
700 data from radar and satellite, *Meteorologische Zeitschrift*, 1(18), 75-84,
701 <https://doi.org/10.1127/0941-2948/2009/359>, 2009.
- 702 Koper, K.D. & Burlacu, R.: The fine structure of double-frequency microseisms recorded by
703 seismometers in North America. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Solid Earth*, 120(3), 1677-
704 1691. <https://doi.org/10.1002/2014JB011820>, 2015.
- 705 Landès, M., Ceranna, L., Le Pichon, A. and Matoza, R.S.: Localization of microbarom sources
706 using the IMS infrasound network. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 117(D6),
707 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2011JD016684>, 2012.
- 708 Landskron, D., Böhm, J.: VMF3/GPT3: refined discrete and empirical troposphere mapping
709 functions, *Journal of Geodesy*, 92, 349–360, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00190-017-1066-2>, 2018.
- 710 Li, L., Boué, P., Retailleau, L., & Campillo, M.: Spatiotemporal Correlation Analysis of Noise-
711 Derived Seismic Body Waves With Ocean Wave Climate and Microseism Sources, *Geochemistry,*
712 *Geophysics, Geosystems*, 21(9), <https://doi.org/10.1029/2020GC009112>, 2020.
- 713 Listowski, C., Forestier, E., Dafis, S., Farges, T., De Carlo, M., Grimaldi, F., Le Pichon, A.,
714 Vergoz, J., Heinrich, P. and Claud, C.: Remote monitoring of Mediterranean hurricanes using
715 infrasound, *Remote Sensing*, 14(23), 6162, <https://doi.org/10.3390/rs14236162>, 2022.
- 716 MacQueen, J.: Some methods for classification and analysis of multivariate observations, in:
717 Proceedings of the Fifth Berkeley Symposium on Mathematical Statistics and Probability,
718 Berkeley, California, January 1967, 5, 281-298, 1967.
- 719 Marut, G., Hadas, T., Kaplon, J., Trzcina, E. and Rohm, W.: Monitoring the water vapor content
720 at high spatio-temporal resolution using a network of low-cost multi-GNSS receivers, *IEEE*
721 *Transactions on Geoscience and Remote Sensing*, 60, 1-14,
722 <https://doi.org/10.1109/TGRS.2022.3226631>, 2022.



- 723 Pásztor, M., Czanik, C. and Bondár, I.: A single array approach for infrasound signal
724 discrimination from quarry blasts via machine learning, *Remote Sensing*, 15(6), 1657,
725 <https://doi.org/10.3390/rs15061657>, 2023.
- 726 Le Pichon, A., Matoza, R., Brachet, N. and Cansi, Y.: Recent enhancements of the PMCC
727 infrasound signal detector. *Inframatics*, 26, 5-8, 2010.
- 728 Priego, E., Jones, J., Porres, M.J. and Seco, A.: Monitoring water vapour with GNSS during a
729 heavy rainfall event in the Spanish Mediterranean area, *Geomatics, Natural Hazards and Risk*,
730 8(2), 282–294, <https://doi.org/10.1080/19475705.2016.1201150>, 2017.
- 731 Retailleau, L. & Gualtieri, L.: Multi-phase seismic source imprint of tropical cyclones, *Nature*
732 *Communications*, 12(1), <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-22231-y>, 2021.
- 733 Rindraharisaona, E.J., Réchou, A., Fontaine, F.R., Barruol, G., Stamenoff, P., Boudevillain, B.,
734 Rigaud-Louise, F. and Delcher, E.: Seismic signature of rain and wind inferred from seismic data,
735 *Earth and Space Science*, 9(10), p.e2022EA002328, 2022.
- 736 Sokol, Z., Szturc, J., Orellana-Alvear, J., Popova, J., Jurczyk, A. and Célleri, R.: The role of
737 weather radar in rainfall estimation and its application in meteorological and hydrological
738 modelling—A review, *Remote Sensing*, 13(3), 351, 2021.
- 739 Stopa, J.E., Cheung, K.F., Garcés, M.A. and Badger, N.: Atmospheric infrasound from nonlinear
740 wave interactions during Hurricanes Felicia and Neki of 2009, *Journal of Geophysical Research:*
741 *Oceans*, 117(C12), <https://doi.org/10.1029/2012JC008257>, 2012
- 742 Stott, P.: How climate change affects extreme weather events. *Science*, 352(6293), 1517-1518,
743 <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aaf7271>, 2016.
- 744 Tanimoto, T. & Anderson, A.: Seismic noise between 0.003 Hz and 1.0 Hz and its classification,
745 *Progress in Earth and Planetary Science*, 10(1), <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40645-023-00587-7>,
746 2023.
- 747 Vaquero-Martínez, J. and Antón, M.: Review on the role of GNSS meteorology in monitoring
748 water vapor for atmospheric physics, *Remote Sensing*, 13(12), 2287,
749 <https://doi.org/10.3390/rs13122287>, 2021.
- 750 Viticchie, B., Lekouara, M., Hungershofer, K., Joro, S., Grandell, J., Maufrais, A., Marquez, M.J.,
751 Munro, R.: Algorithm Theoretical Basis Document (ATBD) for L2 processing of the MTG
752 Lightning Imager data, Rapp. Tech. EUMESTAT, 6, 2020.
- 753 Wessel, P., Luis, J.F., Uieda, L.A., Scharroo, R., Wobbe, F., Smith, W.H. and Tian, D.: The generic
754 mapping tools version 6, *Geochemistry, Geophysics, Geosystems*, 20(11), 5556-5564,
755 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2019GC008515>, 2019.



756 Wilgan, K., Rohm, W. and Bosy, J.: Multi-observation meteorological and GNSS data comparison
757 with numerical weather prediction model, *Atmospheric Research*, 156, 29–42,
758 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosres.2014.12.011>, 2015.