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4	The ULR-repro3 GPS data reanalysis and its estimates of
5	vertical land motion at tide gauges for sea level science
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21 Abstract

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23 A new reanalysis of Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS) -data at or near tide gauges 24 worldwide was produced by the <u>uUniversity</u> of La Rochelle (ULR) group within the 3rd 25 International GNSS Service (IGS) reprocessing campaign (repro3). The new solution, called 26 ULR-repro3, complies with the IGS standards adopted for repro3, implementing advances in data modelling and corrections since the previous reanalysis campaign, and extending the 27 28 average record length by about 7 years. The results presented here focus on the main products of interest for sea level science, that is, the station position time series and associated velocities 29 30 on the vertical component at tide gauges. These products are useful to estimate accurate vertical 31 land motion at the coast and supplement data from satellite altimetry or tide gauges for an 32 improved understanding of sea level changes and their impacts along coastal areas. To provide 33 realistic velocity uncertainty estimates, the noise content in the position time series was 34 investigated considering the impact of non-tidal atmospheric loading. Overall, the ULR-repro3 position time series show reduced white noise and power-law amplitudes and station velocity 35 uncertainties compared to the previous reanalysis. The products are available via SONEL 36 37 (https://doi.org/10.26166/sonel_ulr7a; Gravelle et al., 2022).

38 1 Introduction

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40 Vertical land motion plays a crucial role in understanding sea level changes and its spatial 41 variability (Wöppelmann & Marcos, 2016; Frederikse et al., 2020; Hamligton et al., 2020; for 42 recent reviews and references therein). This is especially true along the coasts, where its 43 monitoring is often an essential requirement to assess the extent of the environmental and socio-44 economic threats posed by changing sea levels in a warming climate at regional or local scales 45 (Magnan et al., 2020). Changes in sea level can be measured relative to the land by tide gauges, 46 or relative to the Earth's center of mass by satellite altimeters (e.g., Marcos et al., 2019). In both relative (tide gauge) and geocentric (satellite) measuring systems, accurate estimates of 47 48 vertical land motion are essential, either to disentangle the solid Earth contribution from other 49 factors in tide gauge records (Woodworth et al., 2019), or to supplement satellite altimetry data 50 to assess relative sea level change for coastal studies and planning (Poitevin et al., 2019).

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52 In the last decades, significant efforts have been undertaken to produce accurate estimates of 53 vertical land motion at tide gauges using Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS) data (e.g., Sanli and Blewitt, 2001; Wöppelmann et al., 2007; Hammond et al., 2021). Wöppelmann et al. 54 55 (2007) showed the importance of applying a homogeneous GNSS data reanalysis strategy 56 across the entire data span; that is, using the same modelling, corrections and parameterization, 57 to address the demand of accurate position time series and velocities for sea level studies. This conclusion was reached independently by Steigenberger et al. (2006) within the International 58 59 GNSS Service (IGS; Johnston et al., 2017). Since then, the IGS has conducted several data 60 reanalysis campaigns, stimulated by progress in modelling and corrections, lengthening of 61 measurement records and updates of the International Terrestrial Reference Frame (ITRF) 62 realizations (Rebischung et al., 2016).

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64 In 2019, the IGS launched a third reprocessing campaign, designated as 'repro3', involving the 65 international GNSS community (Rebischung, 2021). The University of La Rochelle (ULR) 66 group contributed to this effort with a solution (ULR-repro3), that-which specifically includes 67 a large selection of reliable GNSS stations near tide gauges. This paper describes the latest ULR solution in a series, succeeding previous releases described in Wöppelmann et al. (2009) and 68 69 Santamaria-Gomez et al. (2017). This solution complies complying with the modelling and 70 corrections adopted for 'repro3' (Rebischung, 2021; http://acc.igs.org/repro3/repro3.html), for 71 example, corrections are made for antenna phase centre and solid Earth tides (see Section 2.2.1)

which succeeds previous releases (Wöppelmann et al., 2009; Santamaria-Gomez et al., 2017). 72 73 It specifically highlights the time series of station positions and their vertical velocities, which 74 are the main products of interest for the sea level community. A crucial piece of information for the practical use of these products is their uncertainties, which must account for the presence 75 of time-correlated stochastic variations (or noise) in the position time series (Williams et al., 76 77 2004). Consequently, this paper also presents the statistical modelling strategies employed to 78 derive realistic uncertainty estimates. These results are presented together with a comparison 79 with respect to the previous ULR solution to appraise the progress accomplished over the past 80 seven years.

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82 2 The ULR-repro3 products

83 **2.1 Input data**

84 Although the term GNSS is employed throughout the manuscript, the ULR-repro3 reanalysis 85 considered Global Positioning System (GPS) observations only. The GNSS measurements were retrieved from the SONEL archive (www.sonel.org) in the form of station-specific daily files 86 in the international standard RINEX format (https://igs.org/wg/rinex/). These contain dual-87 frequency carrier phase and pseudo-range measurements with a typical sampling of 30s. 88 89 SONEL holdings include data from over 1,200 stations around the world, amounting to over 6,300,000 daily files. A station selection was applied with the criteria of targeting time series 90 91 with over three years of continuous GNSS measurements and 70% completeness, located at or 92 near a tide gauge (within 15km). The term "continuous" denotes that no offset discontinuity in 93 the station position was anticipated from the metadata available, that is, from the station 94 operation logfiles, which should report changes in instrumentation, or from the co-seismic 95 displacements predicted using the earthquakes database and modelling described by Métivier 96 et al. (2014), updated to 2020. Some exceptions to these selection criteria concerned the French 97 GNSS stations at tide gauges, as part of the ULR commitment for France to the global sea level 98 observing (GLOSS) programme of the Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission. This programme was initiated in 1985 to establish a well-designed, high-quality in situ sea level 99 100 observing network to support a broad research and operational user base. Its primary products are sea levels from permanent tide gauges provided with different sampling rates, data latencies 101 102 and averaging periods (IOC, 2012). SONEL is one of the five global data centres of GLOSS, dedicated to assembling raw measurements from permanent GNSS stations at or near tide 103 104 gauges, as well as products of their analysis (GNSS position time series and velocities).

106 The spatial distribution of the GNSS stations considered in ULR-repro3 is shown in Figure 1 107 with symbols coloured according to the record length, ranging from 3 months to 21 years. The last year processed is 2020, instead of 2013 for the previous ULR reanalysis (Santamaria-108 109 Gomez et al., 2017), reaching an overall extension of seven years with a median station record 110 length of 13.1 years. The station network shows a global distribution (Figure 1) with stations 111 that are obviously far from coastlines: they were added from the IGS repro3 station priority list as reference frame stations to ensure an optimal alignment to the International Terrestrial 112 113 Reference Frame (ITRF) and estimation of the satellite orbits. The ULR-repro3 station network 114 ultimately consists of 601 GNSS stations (Figure 1), among which 176 are reference stations.





Figure 1: Spatial distribution of the 601 GNSS stations in ULR-repro3 and record length (colour bar),
whose median is 13.1 years, spanning the 2000.0-2021.0 period.

- 119
- 120 **2.2 GNSS processing**

121 Estimating accurate vertical land motion from GNSS measurements involves several essential 122 steps, such as computing daily station positions from GNSS measurements or deriving trends 123 from the position time series. In the first step, many corrections are applied, and other 124 parameters such as satellite orbits or atmospheric delays are adjusted along with the station 125 positions (details in Section 2.2.1). It requires advanced modelling and corrections (details 126 below) and is usually best performed in a free-network approach or loosely constrained strategy 127 (Heflin et al., 1992; Altamimi et al., 2002), whose major output is a global set of daily station positions expressed in an undetermined terrestrial frame. The next step is to align these global 128 129 solutions of daily station positions to a stable and well-defined terrestrial frame such as the 130 ITRF2014 (Altamimi et al., 2017). The last step involves modelling the kinematics described 131 by the position time series, to obtain the quantity of interest (trends, periodic oscillations, step discontinuities, etc.). Each step involves analyst choices that can affect the estimated quantity 132 133 of interest, and subsequently the geophysical interpretation. The details below can thus be 134 crucial to understand the results and their uncertainties.

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136 2.2.1 Modelling & Corrections

137 The ULR-repro3 processing considered the advances that occurred over the past seven years, 138 since the second IGS reanalysis campaign (Rebischung et al., 2016). It complies with the 139 highest international standards, which were adopted by the IGS for the third reprocessing campaign (http://acc.igs.org/repro3/repro3.html). The new modelling and corrections were 140 141 implemented in the GAMIT/GLOBK software packages (Herring et al., 2015; 2018) used here, 142 in particular the International Earth Rotation and Reference Systems Service (IERS) linear pole 143 model adopted in 2018 and the high-frequency (subdaily) Earth Orientation Parameters (EOP) tide model from Desai and Sibois (2016). Table 1 provides a summary of the main modelling 144 145 features and corrections applied in the ULR-repro3 reanalysis.

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	ULR-repro3 modelling and corrections
Observations	double-differenced phase observations (GPS only, L1 & L2)
Sessions and sampling	24-hr sessions; 2 min. sampling (30s in the data cleaning)
Elevation cut-off angle	<u>10 degrees</u>
Antenna phase center	igsR3_2135.atx (IGS Mail by A. Villiger, Dec. 2020)
Ionosphere refraction	ionosphere-free linear combination (1st order effect); 2nd and 3rd order
	corrections using IGRF13 (Alken et al., 2021) and IGS combined IONEX files.
	A priori zenith delays from Saastamoinen model, mapped with VMF1 functions
Troposphere refraction	(Böhm et al., 2006); zenith wet delays estimated at 1-hr intervals and gradients
	in north-south and east-west directions at 24-hr intervals.
Gravity field model	EGM2008 up to degree and order 12 (Pavlis et al., 2012)
Solid Earth tides	IERS conventions (Petit & Luzum, 2010)
Ocean tide model	FES2014b (Lyard et al., 2021)
Mean pole	linear mean pole as adopted by IERS in 2018
Subdaily EOP model	Earth Orientation Parameters tide model from Desai and Sibois (2016)
Ocean tide loading	Provided by the EOST loading service (J.P. Boy; http://loading.u-strasbg.fr)
	using the ocean tide model FES2014b (Lyard et al., 2021)

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Table 1: Main features of the GNSS data analysis strategy adopted for ULR-repro3 following 149 the IGS recommendations (http://acc.igs.org/repro3/repro3.html).

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151 The remaining aspects of the ULR-repro3 data analysis strategy align with the approach used 152 in Santamaria-Gomez et al. (2017), so the following only briefly outlines them to understand 153 the analyst choices for geophysical application and interpretation. For each network of stations, double-differenced GPS phase observations were processed in the ionosphere-free L1/L2 linear 154 155 combination. To minimize the impact of mismodeled low-elevation tropospheric delays, satellite observations below 10 degrees were not considered. This cut-off angle aims to mitigate 156 157 the limitation due to ground antennas without absolute calibration (13% of the antennas in the 158 ULR-repro3 network)., These antennas have a relative calibration (with respect to an antenna 159 with absolute calibration) converted from relative to absolute considering only elevationdependent phase centre variation (PCV) down to 10 degrees. For the other (calibrated) GNSS 160 161 antennas, phase centre offsets with azimuth-dependent and elevation-dependent absolute PCV 162 corrections were applied (igsR3_2135.atx; IGS Mail by A. Villiger, 2020). Satellite-specific 163 antenna phase centre offsets and block-specific nadir angle-dependent absolute PCV were 164 applied for the transmitting antennas.

166 The first-order ionospheric delays were removed using the ionosphere-free linear combination 167 observations, whereas the second and third orders were corrected using the International 168 Geomagnetic Reference Field model (Alken et al., 2021) and total electron content maps from the IGS IONEX files. For the tropospheric delays, a priori hydrostatic zenith delays at the 169 170 ellipsoidal surface were obtained for each station from the VMF1 grids (Böhm et al., 2006). 171 They were then reduced to the station heights using the GPT2 model (Lagler et al., 2013). The 172 residual zenith tropospheric delays were adjusted at 1-hr intervals (i.e., 25 parameters per day) 173 for every station using a piecewise linear model, assuming the unmodeled wet component 174 dominates. Both the hydrostatic and wet zenith tropospheric delays were mapped to the 175 observation elevations using the VMF1 functions. The azimuthal asymmetry in the tropospheric 176 delay was accounted for by estimating a linear change in gradients (north-south and east-west) 177 over each day and station using the mapping function from Chen and Herring (1997).

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179 The phase observations were weighted by elevation angle in the first iteration, and then by 180 elevation angle and station-dependent scatter of the phase residuals obtained from the first 181 iteration. The double-differenced phase ambiguities were adjusted to real values except when 182 they could be confidently fixed to integer values (more than 85% fixed). Within the same 183 inversion, GNSS satellite orbital parameters were adjusted using 24-hr arcs, IGS orbits as a 184 priori values and loose constraints consistent with the station position constraints (free-network 185 approach). Non-gravitational constant and once-per-revolution accelerations on the satellites 186 were adjusted too, using the ECOMC model. This model is a -combination of the ECOM1 and 187 ECOM2 models (Springer et al., 1999; Arnold et al., 2015) with specific parameters 188 constrained in post-processing). Nominal satellite attitude corrections were applied, except 189 during eclipse periods where yaw rates were modelled (Kouba, 2009). Phase rotations due to 190 changes in the satellite antenna orientation away from the Earth-pointing direction were also 191 applied (Wu et al., 1993). Regarding the Earth orientation parameters (pole position, rate and length of day), these were estimated daily with a priori values from the IERS Bulletin A. 192 193 Modelled diurnal and semi-diurnal terms were added to the a priori pole and UT1 values 194 following the IERS Conventions (Petit and Luzum, 2010).

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196 Note that neither loading displacements due to atmospheric tides nor non-tidal (atmospheric, 197 oceanic, hydrolog<u>yic</u>) loading displacements were corrected during the first step, which aimed 198 at estimating daily station positions from the GNSS measurements. By contrast, the 199 displacements of the crust due to solid-Earth and pole tides (solid Earth and ocean) were corrected following the IERS Conventions (Petit and Luzum, 2010). Crustal motion due to the
ocean tide loading was corrected too, using the tidal constituents computed by EOST loading
service at each station from the FES2014b model (Lyard *et al.*, 2021).

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204 2.2.2. Offset detection & terrestrial frame alignment

205 Figure 2 shows the number of stations selected for ULR-repro3 with GNSS observations available each day over the time period considered (2000.0-2021.0), ranging from 110+ to 206 207 nearly 500 stations. For computational efficiency, the stations were split into several (up to 10) 208 regional subnetworks, each having between 29 and 70 stations processed independently. For 209 the reader interested in this technicality, Figure S1 shows the regional subnetworks distribution 210 for the day 2018-01-01. An additional subnetwork of globally distributed stations was 211 considered to allow the daily combination of the regional subnetwork results in a unique daily 212 global solution. This global subnetwork was made up of IGS reference frame stations, each of 213 which also appeared in one – and only one – of the regional subnetworks. In turn, one regional 214 subnetwork included one IGS reference frame station at least, but could include more depending 215 on the total number of subnetworks. Moreover, to strengthen the physical link between regional 216 subnetworks, two stations from adjacent regional subnetworks were also included, that is, one 217 station from one nearby subnetwork and another from another nearby subnetwork, exclusive of 218 the stations in the global subnetwork. All the subnetworks vary day by day depending on the station data actually available for the day considered. This network strategy has changed 219 220 compared to past ULR reanalyses, benefitting from the experience of the Massachusetts 221 Institute of Technology (MIT) IGS analysis centre.





Figure 2: <u>a)</u> Evolution of station availability in ULR-repro3 (all in black), within 15 km and 1 km distance from a tide gauge (red and orange, respectively), and GLOSS tide gauge site (blue); <u>b) Spatial</u> <u>distribution of GNSS stations and their distance to tide gauges considered in this study.</u>

228 The loosely-constrained station positions and tropospheric delays for the common stations and 229 the satellite orbital and Earth rotation parameters estimated from the subnetwork data analyses 230 were combined using GLOBK (Herring et al., <u>2021</u> <u>2015</u>) to obtain the daily global solutions, 231 which include all stations available each day with their positions expressed in a common but 232 yet undetermined terrestrial frame. These daily global solutions were then stacked into a long-233 term solution using the CATREF software package (Altamimi et al., 2018) with a time-234 dependent functional model that included translation, rotation and scale transformation 235 parameters between daily and long-term frames, estimated simultaneously with the mean 236 station positions (at the reference epoch 2010.5), annual and semi-annual signals and velocities. 237 The scale parameters, that represent the mean height changes of all the sites, are available upon 238 request, especially for users interested in global sea level rise.

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240 Note that position offset discontinuities (mostly due to equipment changes and earthquakes), as 241 well as station velocity changes and post-seismic displacements, were added to the above 242 modelling, where appropriate. Since experimented experienced analysts still tend to perform 243 better than automatic methods (Gazeaux et al., 2013), the position offsets were identified and 244 adopted by expert eyeball using all positioning components (i.e., including north and east 245 components). To facilitate this task, the equipment changes reported in the GNSS station logs 246 were considered, as well as the co-seismic displacements larger than 2 mm predicted with the 247 earthquakes database and modelling by Métivier et al. (2014). When a position discontinuity 248 was detected in a time series, the station position was estimated separately before and after the 249 discontinuity together with the offset amplitude. The velocities before and after each position discontinuity were tightly constrained (0.01 mm/yr), unless a velocity discontinuity was
suspected. In the latter case (less than 2% of the GNSS stations considered in ULR-repro3), no
constraint was applied and different velocities were estimated for each period of data around
the discontinuity.



Figure 3: Average station position offsets per decade (histogram) and offsets origin (piechart)

The above procedure also included manual editing to identify (and remove) outliers as well as additional non-documented position offset discontinuities. It was iterated until convergence (expert eyeball). Overall, 1.2 offset discontinuities were detected per decade and per station, mostly caused by equipment changes (66.8%) and earthquakes (19.6%), whereas the remaining 13.6% were flagged as unknown (Figure 3) due to the lack of available metadata.

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262 The long-term terrestrial frame, in which the estimated velocities are ultimately expressed, was 263 finally aligned to the ITRF2014 (Altamimi et al., 2017) by applying minimal constraints to all 264 the transformation parameters (translation, rotation, scale, and their rates) with respect to the 265 positions and velocities of a stable subset of about 35 well-distributed reference frame stations. 266 This step resulted in daily position time series expressed in the ITRF2014 frame for all (601) 267 stations considered in ULR-repro3. From this set of position time series, only stations having more than three years between two consecutive position discontinuities and with data gaps not 268 269 exceeding 30% were retained for the next step as input (546 stations, among which 161 are 270 reference stations and 457 are nearby a tide gauge).

272 2.2.3. Stochastic modelling and time-correlated noise

The last step was the estimation of the parameters of interest (primarily here station velocities) and their uncertainties, where both a functional and a stochastic model were adjusted to each of the position time series <u>found using the procedure described in Section 2.2.1</u> from the previous step on a station by station basis. <u>following the equation (E1):</u>

$$x(t) = x_{ref} + v_x \left(t - t_{ref} \right) + \sum_{i=1}^{N_0} a_i H(t - t_i) + \sum_{j=1}^3 \left[s_j \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{\tau_j}t\right) + c_j \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{\tau_j}t\right) \right] + \sum_{d=1}^8 \left[s_d \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{\tau_d}t\right) + c_d \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{\tau_d}t\right) \right] + \sum_{f=1}^3 \left[s_f \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{\tau_f}t\right) + c_f \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{\tau_f}t\right) \right] + \sum_{k=1}^{N_{PSD}} PSD_k(t)$$
(E1)

- 277 where x_{ref} is the position at the reference epoch t_{ref} , defined arbitrarily as the mid of the 278 observation period considered (2000.0-2021.0),
- 279 $\frac{v_x \text{ is the linear velocity,}}{P_{280}} = \frac{P_t (t t_i)}{P_1 (t t_i)} = \begin{cases} 0 \text{ if } t < t_i \\ 1 \text{ if } t \ge t_i \end{cases} \text{ is the Heaviside function that multiplies the position offset } a_i \\ 1 \text{ if } t \ge t_i \end{cases} \text{ is the period in years of the seasonal term j (annual, semi-annual and ter-annual),} \\ 281 \quad \tau_j = \frac{1}{j} \text{ is the period in years of the seasonal term j (annual, semi-annual and ter-annual),} \\ 282 \quad \tau_d = \frac{P_D}{365.25} \text{ is the period in years } (P_D \text{ in days}) \text{ of the draconitic signals,} \\ 283 \quad \tau_f = \frac{P_F}{365.25} \text{ is the period in years } (P_F \text{ in days}) \text{ of the fortnightly signals.} \\ 284 \quad PSD_k(t) = \begin{cases} a_{1k} \log\left(1 + \frac{t t_k}{\tau_{1k}}\right) \text{ if } PSD \text{ model is } \log q \\ a_{1k} \log\left(1 + \frac{t t_k}{\tau_{1k}}\right) + a_{2k} \left(1 e^{-\frac{t t_k}{\tau_{2k}}}\right) \text{ if } PSD \text{ model is } \log q + exp \\ a_{1k} \log\left(1 + \frac{t t_k}{\tau_{1k}}\right) + a_{2k} \log\left(1 + \frac{t t_k}{\tau_{2k}}\right) \text{ if } PSD \text{ model is } \log q + \log q \\ a_{1k} \left(1 e^{-\frac{t t_k}{\tau_{1k}}}\right) + a_{2k} \left(1 e^{-\frac{t t_k}{\tau_{2k}}}\right) \text{ if } PSD \text{ model is } \log q + \log q \\ a_{1k} \left(1 e^{-\frac{t t_k}{\tau_{1k}}}\right) + a_{2k} \left(1 e^{-\frac{t t_k}{\tau_{2k}}}\right) \text{ if } PSD \text{ model is } \log q + \log q \\ a_{1k} \left(1 e^{-\frac{t t_k}{\tau_{1k}}}\right) + a_{2k} \left(1 e^{-\frac{t t_k}{\tau_{2k}}}\right) \text{ if } PSD \text{ model is } \log q + \log q \\ a_{1k} \left(1 e^{-\frac{t t_k}{\tau_{1k}}}\right) + a_{2k} \left(1 e^{-\frac{t t_k}{\tau_{2k}}}\right) \text{ if } PSD \text{ model is } \log q + \log q \\ a_{1k} \left(1 e^{-\frac{t t_k}{\tau_{1k}}}\right) + a_{2k} \left(1 e^{-\frac{t t_k}{\tau_{2k}}}\right) \text{ if } PSD \text{ model is } \log q + \log q \\ a_{1k} \left(1 e^{-\frac{t t_k}{\tau_{1k}}}\right) + a_{2k} \left(1 e^{-\frac{t t_k}{\tau_{2k}}}\right) \text{ if } PSD \text{ model is } \exp q + \exp q \\ a_{1k} \left(1 e^{-\frac{t t_k}{\tau_{1k}}}\right) + a_{2k} \left(1 e^{-\frac{t t_k}{\tau_{2k}}}\right) \text{ if } PSD \text{ model is } \exp q + \exp q \\ a_{1k} \left(1 e^{-\frac{t t_k}{\tau_{1k}}}\right) + a_{2k} \left(1 e^{-\frac{t t_k}{\tau_{2k}}}\right) \text{ if } PSD \text{ model is } \exp q + \exp q \\ a_{1k} \left(1 e^{-\frac{t t_k}{\tau_{1k}}}\right) + a_{2k} \left(1 e^{-\frac{t t_k}{\tau_{2k}}}\right) \text{ if } PSD \text{ model is } \exp q + \exp q \\ a_{1k} \left(1 e^{-\frac{t t_k}{\tau_{1k}}}\right)$

-In this step, an additional and independent time series editing was considered to eliminate
possibly remaining unreliable estimates from the previous step. The position estimates were
compared to a running monthly median. Any epoch with a position showing a difference from

the median exceeding five times the median absolute deviation in at least one component wasdiscarded.

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291 The stochastic model considered a linear combination of white noise and power law process 292 (WN+PL), whose parameters (the stochastic process amplitudes and the spectral index of the 293 power-law process) were estimated using the Restricted Maximum Likelihood Estimation 294 method (Patterson & Thompson, 1971; Koch, 1986; Gobron et al., 2022 in press). To obtain 295 realistic stochastic parameter estimates, non-tidal atmospheric loading (NTAL) displacements 296 were also subtracted from the position time series prior to this adjustment, following the 297 recommendation of Gobron et al. (2021). These NTAL displacements were obtained from the 298 Earth System Modelling team of the German Research Center for Geosciences in Potsdam (Dill 299 and Dobslaw, 2013).

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The functional model included an intercept, a linear trend (velocity), the position offsets 301 302 identified in the previous step, three seasonal terms (annual, semiannual, and terannual), 303 periodic terms at the first eight harmonics of the GPS draconitic year (351.4 days; Ray et al., 304 2008), and three fortnightly terms with periods of 13.62, 14.19 and 14.76 days (Penna and 305 Stewart, 2003; Amiri-Simkooei, 2013). The parameters of this functional model, and their 306 uncertainties, were estimated using the weighted least squares estimator with the inverse of the 307 estimated WN+PL model covariance matrix as weight matrix. During the observation time 308 span, some stations (44) recorded significant co-seismic offsets and transient post-seismic 309 signals, in which case the modeling was further extended to include velocity changes, and 310 logarithmic or exponential decay functions according to the observed time evolution.

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312 **2.3 Estimates of vertical land motion**

313 2.3.1 Position time series & Vertical velocities

The GNSS products of primary interest for sea level studies are the station position time series and <u>vertical</u> velocity estimates on the vertical component, as underlined in the founding charter of the IGS working group "GNSS Tide Gauge Benchmark Monitoring" (Schöne *et al.*, 2009) and later on in the implementation plan of the GLOSS programme (IOC, 2012). In the following, we focus on the vertical positioning component. However, the horizontal components are made available too, and can be useful for other geophysical applications. Figure 4 shows the ULR-repro3 vertical velocity field, and the corresponding uncertainties. This GNSS velocity field ultimately consists of 546 stations, among which 457 are within 15 km from a
tide gauge. This number decreases to 135 for stations less than 1 km from a tide gauge. Note
that the stations inland are IGS reference frame stations (section 2.1).



Figure 4: Vertical velocities (a), and associated uncertainties (b), estimated for the stations with at least 3 years of continuous measurement (see text).

Overall, the geographical patterns observed in Figure 4.a are consistent with known geophysical
processes such as uplift in the northern latitudes of Europe and North America due to Glacial
Isostatic Adjustment (GIA), or subsidence along the northern coastlines of the Gulf of Mexico
primarily driven by ground water depletion and sediment compaction, also observed in previous
and independent <u>GNSS GPS</u>-analysis results (e.g., Blewitt *et al.*, 2018; Hammond *et al.*, 2021).
<u>The eight s</u>tations with velocity discontinuities are not plotted in Figure 4.

335 2.3.2 Data availability

336 The ULR-repro3 products are available from the online Digital Object Identifier (DOI) landing 337 page (https://doi.org/10.26166/sonel_ulr7a; Gravelle et al., 2022). That is, the station position 338 time series together with the estimated velocities for all positioning components (north, east, 339 and up). These products are hosted at the SONEL scientific service, which serves as data 340 assembly centre dedicated to GNSS data at tide gauges (Wöppelmann et al., 2021) for the 341 international GLOSS programme (IOC, 2012). As a UNESCO-related programme, the service 342 complies with the UNESCO open access data policy (i.e., the data sets are available free of 343 charge without any barriers) and strives towards providing the highest international standards, 344 in particular in terms of long-term availability and permanent access. Note that the ULR-repro3 345 reanalysis yielded other parameter estimates, which can be of interest to other geophysical 346 applications (e.g., station position offsets related to earthquakes and seasonal signals). These 347 are also made available via SONEL.

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349 **3 Products quality**

350 **3.1 Average time correlation properties**

351 Previous studies have documented the presence of both power-law noise (PL) and white noise (WN) in GNSS station position time series (e.g., Williams et al., 2004; Santamaria-Gomez et 352 al., 2011; Gobron et al., 2021; Santamaria-Gomez & Ray, 2021). Such time-correlated 353 354 properties are also observed inevidenced by Figure 5 for ULR-repro3, where Lomb-Scargle 355 periodograms of all detrended station position time series were averaged. As highlighted by the 356 red curve in Figure 5 (in logarithmic scales), the power-law process induces the negative trend 357 at low frequencies (that is, a spectral power $\propto 1/f^{\alpha}$), whereas the white noise causes the 358 flattening at high frequencies. This flattening is especially visible above 22.8 cpy, where the 359 power of the white noise exceeds that of the power-law process. Note that, on the one hand, the background shape of the average periodogram (Figure 5) is accounted for by the WN+PL 360 stochastic model, presented in section 2.2.3, and adjusted to each position time series. On the 361 other hand, the functional model accounts for the spectral peaks marked by coloured vertical 362 363 lines, which correspond to well-identified periodic oscillations common to most GPS solutions 364 (Ray et al., 2008).



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Figure 5: Average Lomb-Scargle periodogram for the ULR-repro3 detrended vertical position time series corrected for NTAL displacements (frequency unit is cycles per year or cpy).

369 3.2 Stochastic properties of position time series

As tThe periodogram in Figure 5 does not provide information about the properties of individual
stations., the parameters, By contrast, Figure 6 highlights the stochastic process amplitudes and
the spectral index of, the WN+PL stochastic models adjusted to the individual vertical position
time series are presented in Figure 6.

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375 The median value of the spectral indices is -0.93, that is, close to -1.00, which confirms the 376 prevalence of a flicker-like noise in the low frequency band. The spectral indices show no clear 377 latitudinal dependency (Figure 6.g-h). Since power-law amplitudes depend on the spectral 378 index values, they were transformed into a modified empirical standard deviation (Gobron et 379 al., 2021), expressed in mm, enabling a more rigorous comparison between noise amplitudes 380 and Root Mean Squared Errors (RMSE) values. No latitudinal dependency is revealed in Figure 381 6.e. By contrast, the white noise amplitudes show largest values within the tropical band (Figure 382 6.c), and lower values at high latitude, but are mostly non-zero thanks to the NTAL corrections 383 (Gobron et al., 2021). Logically, this pattern also appears in the RMSE (Figure 6.a), as it 384 quantifies the combined influence of the white noise and power-law processes. 385



Figure 6: Vertical position time series RMSE (a) and (b), white noise amplitudes (c) and (d); modified
power-law amplitudes (e) and (f); and spectral indices (g) and (h). See text for details.

390 3.3 Vertical velocity uncertainties

An important consequence of temporally correlated noise in time series of GNSS positions is 391 392 its impact on the uncertainties of GNSS-derived velocities, which can be largely 393 underestimated, up to a factor of ten (Williams et al., 2004), if the temporal correlations are 394 ignored. Figure 7 shows the distribution of the vertical velocity uncertainties obtained for the 395 ULR-repro3 stations considering the stochastic properties estimated above. Their median value 396 is 0.27 mm/yr with 83% of the stations displaying a vertical velocity uncertainty below 0.5 397 mm/yr. The colouring in Figure 7.a indicates that the largest velocity uncertainties typically 398 correspond to the stations with the shortest records.

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- **Figure 7**: Vertical velocity uncertainties as a function of the geographical latitude with colour corresponding to the record length (a) and histogram (b).
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404 **3.4 Highlights** *wrt* **previous ULR reanalysis**

405 To appraise the progress accomplished with the ULR-repro3 reanalysis, the position time series 406 from the previous reanalysis (Santamaria-Gomez et al., 2017) were retrieved at SONEL, and 407 the same processing (last step in section 2) was applied for a rigorous comparison (same non-408 tidal atmospheric loading corrections, and same functional and stochastic models). This 409 comparison involved the 251 common stations. Figure 8 indicates a substantial reduction of 410 28% in the median vertical velocity uncertainties, from 0.35 mm/yr down to 0.25 mm/yr (ULR-411 repro3), which is below the uncertainty threshold reported by Griffiths and Ray (2016) using 412 simulations to investigate the effect of position offsets and record lengthening. However, it is 413 worth noting that the community interested in monitoring vertical land motion at tide gauges 414 tend to limit changes in GNSS equipment to the strict strictly unavoidable (failure, destruction,

etc.) as recommended by the IGS-related working group (Schöne *et al.*, 2009). As a result, the
average return period of offsets is about four years longer here (Figure 3) than observed for the
entire set of stations contributing to the IGS repro3 campaign (Rebischung *et al.*, 2021), hence
partly explaining the improved velocity uncertainties observed with ULR-repro3 reanalysis.



421 Figure 8: Vertical velocity uncertainties for ULR-repro3 wrt the previous ULR solution based on the
422 251 common stations. The vertical dashed lines correspond to the medians.

The marked improvement in the quality of ULR-repro3 products can also be appraised from the RMSE position residuals (median value of 5.3 mm down to 4.9 mm now) and the amplitude of white noise (from 3.4 mm to 2.8 mm), whereas the power-law amplitude and spectral index remained equivalent (3.8 mm and -0.93, respectively).

In addition to the progress achieved over the previous ULR solution, the quality of the ULR repro3 solution was also confirmed by the comparisons undertaken within the IGS reanalysis

430 <u>campaign, showing that the noise content in ULR-repro3 is comparable to that of most of the</u>

- 431 <u>other contributing solutions and analysis centres (Rebischung *et al.*, 2021).</u>
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433 4 Concluding remarks

This paper has presented the latest GNSS data reanalysis carried out by the ULR group within the international IGS framework, yielding time series of position estimates to measure the vertical land motion nearby tide gauges. It includes an increased number of GNSS stations with an extended time span. Along with the velocity estimates, their uncertainties were obtained by modelling the temporally correlated noise processes inherent in the data, after correcting the position time series for non-tidal atmospheric loading displacements, as recommended by Gobron *et al.* (2021). Overall, the comparisons indicate that ULR-repro3 represents a marked
improvement in its <u>products_product_quality</u> over the previous reanalysis, with a notable
reduction in median <u>vertical</u> velocity uncertainty by 28% (Figure 8).

443 An interesting perspective will be to examine the differences with global reanalyses obtained 444 by other groups complying with the latest IGS standards, but using different analyst choices at 445 any of the major GNSS processing steps described in section 2 (e.g., Blewitt et al., 2016; 446 Männel et al., 2022). A related perspective will be to address the issue of which reanalysis is 447 best for the non-expert sea level user, if any (Ballu et al., 2019). In this respect, the Commission 448 on Mean Sea Level and Tides from the International Association for the Physical Sciences of 449 the Oceans (IAPSO) could provide a stimulating framework to gather experts and users 450 worldwide, and reflect on the issue posed by multiple high-quality GNSS reanalyses, as IAPSO 451 did nearly thirty years ago when the issue of geodetic fixing of tide gauge benchmarks was 452 considered with the advances of space geodesy (Carter et al., 1994).

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454 Acknowledgments

455 This study was financially supported by the CNRS/INSU research agency via the SONEL & 456 RENAG observation systems. Our study benefited tremendously from agencies making their 457 data available to IGS and SONEL. The authors would like to acknowledge the crucial role 458 played by the high-performance computing centre of La Rochelle University, especially with 459 Mozart & Thor supercomputers. Part of this research were made possible by support from 460 NASA grant 80NSSC18K0457 and NSF grant NSF-IF-1843686. This is IPGP contribution 461 number XXXX. We are grateful to Laurent Métivier for providing the modelled earthquake 462 displacements and Jean-Paul Boy for the ocean tidal loading corrections.

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464 Author contributions

465 The project was defined by MGr and GW as a contribution to the third reprocessing ('repro3') 466 campaign of the International GNSS Service (IGS). MGr processed the GPS data with support 467 from TH (GAMIT/GLOBK software packages, network design, and strategy for subnetwork 468 design and orbit adjustment), ZA (CATREF software and reference frame alignment), PR 469 (product quality assessment within 'repro3'), and MGu (strategic use of the high-performance 470 computing center). KG prepared the NTAL corrections, assessed the stochastic properties of 471 the time series and produced the final velocity field. All authors contributed to the analysis and 472 discussion of the results. The first manuscript draft was written by GW. All authors contributed 473 to the subsequent versions, and approved the final manuscript.

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475 Competing interests

- 476 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.
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