Advancing geodynamic research in Antarctica: Reprocessing GNSS data to infer consistent coordinate time series (GIANT-REGAIN)

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Abstract. For nearly three decades, geodetic GNSS measurements in Antarctica have provided direct observations of bedrock displacement, which is linked to various geodynamic processes, including plate motion, post-seismic deformation and glacial isostatic adjustment (GIA). Previous geodynamic studies in Antarctica, especially those pertaining to GIA, have been constrained by the limited availability of GNSS data. This is due to the fact that GNSS data are collected by a wide range of
5   institutions and network operators, with the raw observational data either not publicly available or scattered across various repositories. Further, the metadata necessary for rigorous data processing has often not been available or reliable. Consequently, the potential of GNSS observations for geodynamic studies in Antarctica has not been fully exploited yet. Here, we present consistently processed coordinate time series for GNSS sites in Antarctica and the sub-Antarctic region for the time span from 1995 to 2021. The data set is composed of 286 continuous and episodic sites, with 258 sites having a time span
10   longer than three years. The coordinate time series were obtained from a combination of four independent processing solutions using different GNSS software and products, allowing the identification of inconsistencies in individual solutions. From these, we infer a reliable and robust combined solution. A key issue was the thorough reassessment of station metadata to minimise artefacts and biases in the coordinate time series. The resulting data set provides coordinate time series with unprecedented spatio-temporal coverage, promising significant advancements in future geodynamic studies.

15 # 1 Introduction

The deformation of the solid Earth is caused by a multitude of geodynamic processes that occur on different temporal and spatial scales. Measurements using geodetic GNSS on bedrock were first conducted in Antarctica in the mid-1990. These have proven to be highly effective for determining bedrock displacement to quantify and characterise underlying geodynamic processes, such as the determination of plate motion (Bouin and Vigny, 2000; Dietrich et al., 2001, 2004; Savchyn et al.,
20   2023), the assessment of post-seismic deformation (King and Santamaría-Gómez, 2016; Nield et al., 2023), the validation of

ocean tide models (King et al., 2005) or studies of local deformation due to volcanism (Grapenthin et al., 2022). In terms of current research, deformation processes originating from the interaction of the solid Earth with the Antarctic Ice Sheet (AIS), which manifest themselves predominantly as vertical bedrock displacement, are of greatest importance. Here, traditionally a distinction is made between the instantaneous, elastic response of the solid Earth to contemporary ice mass changes caused by dynamic ice mass loss and variations in the surface mass balance (SMB) (Koulali et al., 2022), and the visco-elastic response to earlier ice-ocean loading changes - known as glacial isostatic adjustment (GIA).

The determination of GIA plays a prominent role in current climate research (King et al., 2010). Gravity observations from the GRACE and GRACE-FO missions are used to determine the mass change of the Antarctic ice sheet (King et al., 2012; Groh and Horwath, 2021; Otosaka et al., 2023) and consequently its contribution to current sea-level rise. Here, the standard procedure involves a reduction of the GRACE observations by the mass effect of GIA, to isolate the mass signals of present-day ice-mass change. However, both inverse and empirical GIA models differ significantly in their spatial pattern and amplitude (Martín-Español et al., 2016; Whitehouse, 2018), making the GIA correction the largest contributor to the uncertainty of estimated ice mass changes from GRACE and GRACE-FO observations (Otosaka et al., 2023).

A multitude of studies employed GNSS observations to ascertain GIA-induced vertical rates on regional (Bevis et al., 2009; Argus et al., 2011; Scheinert et al., 2006; Zanutta et al., 2017; Hattori et al., 2021; King et al., 2022) and continental scale (Thomas et al., 2011; Argus et al., 2014; Rülke et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2018; Li et al., 2022). Regional studies can make an important contribution to highlight local or regional deficiencies of GIA models. For example, King et al. (2022) utilised GNSS observations to report on widespread rates of subsidence in the East Antarctic region between 77°E and 120°E, after correcting for SMB induced variations and common mode errors, which are not included in any GIA forward model. King et al. (2022) suggested shortcomings in the assumed ice-load history, postulating a late Holocene re-advance of the ice sheet in the region west of Denman Glacier. In West Antarctica, the Amundsen Sea region exhibits particularly high uplift rates of up to $60\,\mathrm{mm\,yr^{-1}}$ with steep spatial gradients (Groh et al., 2012; Busch et al., 2017; Barletta et al., 2018), which are not reflected in most GIA models. Barletta et al. (2018) used GNSS observations to derive a regional GIA model, obtaining a low-viscosity of the upper mantle ranging from just $4 \times 10^{18}\,\mathrm{Pa\,s}$ to $2.5 \times 10^{19}\,\mathrm{Pa\,s}$. The derived upper mantle viscosity is two to three orders of magnitude lower than that typically used for GIA models covering whole Antarctica, resulting in a significantly reduced GIA response time to ice mass changes of just decades to centuries. Similarly low viscosity mantle had been identified using GNSS and models in the northern Antarctic Peninsula (Nield et al., 2014; Samrat et al., 2020, 2021).

Given the diversity of spatio-temporal patterns inherent in various geodynamical processes, the requirements for a comprehensive data set inferred from GNSS time series to observe these processes are manifold:

- To accurately assess the GIA effect on a continental scale as well as signals with smaller spatial wavelengths it is essential to provide a data set with the best possible spatial coverage both in extent and resolution.

- To correctly resolve non-linear geodynamic processes (Nield et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2018; Koulali et al., 2022; Nield et al., 2023) it is necessary to produce time series with a sufficient temporal resolution, typically daily resolution. To derive accurate secular rates, or detect changes in rates, one aims to maximise the time span of the GNSS time series.

55   – To allow for an assessment of GIA models on the accuracy level of $1\,\mathrm{mm\,yr^{-1}}$, highly consistent and accurate data are
       required. As demonstrated by Martín-Español et al. (2016), a GIA model error of $1\,\mathrm{mm\,yr^{-1}}$ integrated over the area of
       East Antarctica translates into a mass effect of $45\,\mathrm{Gt\,yr^{-1}}$ which is equivalent to the magnitude of the signal itself.

Presently, no data set can be considered to fulfil the above points to the best possible extent. The reasons are manifold. While
for some large GNSS networks the observation data are freely accessible, e.g. the POLENET network (The Polar Earth Ob-
60   serving Network) (Wilson et al., 2019) or the IGS network (International GNSS Service) (Johnston et al., 2017; Vardić et al.,
2022), the observation data of smaller networks or individual stations are either scattered over various repositories or are not
freely accessible. In particular, historic campaign/episodic measurements are often unavailable even though they can greatly
enhance the spatial coverage of a data set. Metadata, i.e. information on the site setup, are essential to determine consistent
coordinate time series but are often insufficiently documented, especially for past (mostly episodic) sites and measurement
65   campaigns, leading to potential misinterpretation of derived coordinate trajectories. Coordinate time series data sets produced
with a high degree of automation such as those provided by the Nevada Geodetic Laboratory (NGL) (Blewitt et al., 2018) rely
on metadata stored in the observational RINEX files (Receiver Independent Exchange Format), which can be prone to errors.
The combination of coordinate time series or displacement rates derived from heterogeneous or independent studies (e.g. com-
bining regional and continent-wide studies) is not advisable, since different studies rely on differing processing conventions,
70   like the adopted reference frame or specific geophysical reductions, resulting in an inconsistent data set. Before realising a data
combination of this kind, a consistent processing of all observation data is mandatory.

To exploit the full potential of GNSS observations in Antarctica, the SCAR (Scientific Committee on Antarctic Research)
-endorsed project GIANT-REGAIN (Geodynamics In ANTarctica based on REprocessing GNSS dAta Initiative) was initiated
which aimed for the acquisition and consistent processing of all available GNSS recordings on bedrock in Antarctica for the
75   period from 1995 to 2021. Here we present the results of the GIANT-REGAIN project providing coordinate time series as
the main product. We report on the acquisition of observational data that originate from more than twenty different networks
and institutions, including freely accessible data and data from past measurement campaigns. We obtained observational data
from previously unpublished GNSS sites. The relevant site metadata, which are indispensable for the correct assignment of the
hardware setup, were re-evaluated and, if necessary, corrected.
80   The observational data were processed by four contributing analysis centers (ACs), namely the Dresden University of Tech-
nology (TUD), the University of Tasmania (UTAS), the Ohio State University (OSU) and Newcastle University (NEWC). The
inclusion of multiple independent ACs allows us to evaluate the processing noise, especially:

       – to validate and detect inconsistencies in the individual solutions;

       – to assess systematic differences (biases) in the resulting coordinate time series on different temporal scales;

85   – to assess and compare noise characteristics of the individual coordinate time series.

Subsequently, the individual coordinate time series were used to form a combined final data set. This is beneficial as not all
centers produced solutions for every site-day and so the combination enables us to maximise the spatio-temporal coverage

compared to the individual solutions while preserving the noise level of the individual solutions. The final data set comprises coordinate time series for 286 GPS sites. This data set provides, therefore, the most comprehensive spatio-temporal coverage

90 ever for Antarctica. Equipment changes can alter the trajectory of GPS coordinate time series. We rigorously revised the metadata records for all sites within our data set to ensure the correct interpretation of the coordinate time series w.r.t. to geodynamic processes. Clear and accurate metadata records also allow for between-centre consistency and provide a reliable foundation for future reprocessing. Furthermore, GPS sites with a missing or incomprehensible metadata record as well as sites showing clear monument instability in their coordinate trajectory were not considered for the final product.

95 We compared our resulting coordinate time series to the latest data set provided by the Nevada Geodetic Laboratory (NGL) (Blewitt et al., 2018) which provided, until present, the most extensive record of processed GNSS coordinate time series in Antarctica. This is a convenient and widely used open-access data set, having been used in several recent studies (Li et al., 2022; Savchyn et al., 2023). We assess differences between the data sets on secular time scales (linear rates), and demonstrate the impact of the updated GIANT-REGAIN metadata information on adopted antenna heights.

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2 Data acquisition

2.1 Observational data

The primary objective of this study is to analyse and provide a data set that includes all GNSS observations on bedrock for the period 1995 to 2021 inclusive. Before going into detail, we want to briefly emphasize the usage of the terms GNSS and GPS.

105 The first GNSS deployments tracked only GPS satellites. Many of these sites have since been upgraded with receivers capable of tracking multi-GNSS constellations, making it more correct to refer to these specific sites as GNSS stations. However, the processing strategies applied in this study were limited to GPS observations, resulting in coordinate time series based on GPS-only observations. Therefore, we use the terms GPS stations and GPS coordinate time series throughout the rest of this paper. The required GPS observational data, in the form of raw binary files or the RINEX format (Receiver INdependent EX-

110 change), were as far as possible obtained from publicly accessible repositories. The Geodetic Facility for the Advancement of Geoscience (GAGE) manages the observational data and metadata for POLENET-associated stations and make them publicly available. Observational data for GPS sites contributing to the global IGS network are made publicly available via multiple repositories (e.g. the CDDIS - Crustal Dynamics Data Information System). The observational data from smaller networks or past measurement campaigns are included in GAGE or scattered over smaller data repositories or are not publicly available at

115 all (see supplement Tab. S1 for the complete list of DOI listed observational data).

Following a first call for data contribution by the initiators of the GIANT-REGAIN project in 2016, more than twenty station operators and national Antarctic research programs supported the provision of GPS data for this project. This included stations with already processed and published time series as well as GPS stations with so far unpublished coordinate time series. Fig. 1 provides an overview of the spatial distribution of the GPS sites and their associated networks. To observe geodynamic pro-

120 cesses related to solid Earth deformation, the measurements need to refer to specifically marked points in the bedrock. With

only 0.18 % of the Antarctic continent consisting of ice-free bedrock (Burton-Johnson et al., 2016), the location for GPS sites are limited to the coastal regions and mountain ranges.

Antarctic GPS sites have been occupied in two ways: campaign-style with episodic measurements (eGPS) and as continuously operating installations (cGPS). Episodic measurements are realised using the antenna on a fixed marker in the bedrock, with
125 equipment removed at the end of each campaign and reinstalled after an interval typically of a year or more. Occupations typically last a few days to a few weeks.

The first cGPS sites were set up near research stations in the early and mid-1990s. These sites contribute to the global IGS network (Johnston et al., 2017) and provide the longest and most complete observation record within this study. These initial IGS sites were set up at staffed Antarctic stations, namely Casey (CAS1), Mawson (MAW1), Dumont d'Urville (DUM1),
130 Davis (DAV1), McMurdo (MCM4) and Syowa (SYOG). Later additional sites were incorporated into the IGS network, such as Scott Base (SCTB), Mt. Coates (COTE), O'Higgins (OHI2, OHI3), Arrival Heights, McMurdo (ARHT), Rothera (ROTH), Palmer Station (PALM), while other sites lost their IGS status (Vesleskarvet, VESL) or were decommissioned (PALV, OHIG). Starting in 1995, several projects were launched to establish additional regional and local GPS networks. The SCAR (Scientific Committee on Antarctic Research) Epoch Crustal Movement Campaigns from 1995 to 1999 focused on the regions of the
135 Antarctic Peninsula and Dronning Maud Land, and comprised coordinated episodic measurements with contributions and support from several national polar programs (Dietrich et al., 2001, 2004). The TAMDEF (Transantarctic Mountains Deformation) project, with its first observations in 1996, established a GPS network covering large parts of the Transantarctic Mountains, consisting of 25 episodic, six quasi-continuous and two continuous sites (Raymond et al., 2004; Vázquez Becerra, 2009). The first sites of the VLNDEF (Victoria Land Network for DEformation Control) network were installed during field campaigns in
140 1999/2000 and 2000/2001 (Zanutta et al., 2017, 2018) with 28 sites in the final configuration. The WAGN (West Antarctic GPS Network) was operated between 2001 and 2006 and covered yet unobserved regions of West Antarctica (Bevis et al., 2009). A small GPS array of episodic sites was installed in the region of western Marie Byrd Land over 1999-2002 (Donnellan and Luyendyk, 2004) and around the Amery Ice Shelf in East Antarctica Tregoning et al. (1999, 2000).

The harsh Antarctic conditions, such as low temperatures and the polar night, introduced particular technological and logistical
145 challenges to the establishment and maintenance of GPS stations. Establishing a continuous and resilient energy supply has posed significant problems. Undertaking maintenance work presents a significant logistical challenge, and data transfer must be accomplished either remotely or through manual collection. An essential increase in the spatial coverage of remote cGPS was achieved following the International Polar Year (IPY) from 2007 to 2009 (see Fig. 1b). The POLENET embedded network ANET formed the nucleus of the initiative. The ANET network extends from Victoria Land to the Amundsen Sea Embayment
150 and Filchner-Ronne Ice Shelf, covering major parts of West Antarctica. Within the POLENET initiative some of the previous eGPS sites of the WAGN, TAMDEF and Marie Byrd Land network were reoccupied and upgraded to cGPS sites. International partners contributed to the ANET network. Three sites of the VLNDEF (VL01, VL12 and VL30) network were upgraded to cGPS sites and included in the POLENET network in the season 2014/2015 (Zanutta et al., 2017). The POLENET-UKANET network of cGPS sites covers large parts of the Antarctic Peninsula and the surroundings of the Filchner-Ronne Ice Shelf
155 (Whitehouse et al., 2020). It includes sites of the LARISSA (LARsen Ice Shelf System, Antarctica) network, consisting of six

cGPS sites (installed in 2008 and 2010) covering the northern part of the Antarctic Peninsula (Nield et al., 2014) and the CAP-GIA (Constraints on Antarctic Peninsula GIA) network (King et al., 2013; Wolstencroft et al., 2015) installed in the Antarctic summer season 2009/2010 which consists of nine cGPS sites. In addition to these large-scale networks, there exist networks with smaller spatial extent operated by various institutions. TU Dresden continues to operate eGPS stations in the area of the Antarctic Peninsula, in Dronning Maud Land and the Amundsen Sea Embayment, which in part represent the continuation of the initial measurements of the SCAR Epoch Crustal Movement Campaigns (Rülke et al., 2015; Scheinert et al., 2023). The Japanese Antarctic Research Expedition (JARE) operates a local network at the Lützow-Holm Bay (37°E – 40°E and 69°S – 70°S) (Hattori et al., 2021). In addition to the IGS station SYOG, episodic measurements were initially carried out and later partially upgraded to cGPS stations (the observational data from the cGPS stations were not available for this study). King et al. (2022) installed a network of six cGPS sites, providing observations for the so far barely covered coastal area of East Antarctica between Davis and Casey Stations (70°E – 120°E). Observational data from five sites were available for this study. Several sites are not affiliated to larger networks and are often co-located to research stations (e.g., ABOA (Andrei et al., 2018), NONS, SVEA, KOH2, VESL, LXAA). These sites can contribute significantly to an increased spatial coverage, especially in East Antarctica where the coverage is otherwise very sparse. The number of daily observations within Antarctica had increased steadily since 1995 (Fig. 1b) with a significant increase in 2008 with the initiation of the POLENET project. The peak number of daily site observations (100) was reached in 2016 and has remained somewhat steady afterwards. However, the observation count decreased in 2020, partly due to the COVID pandemic, when maintenance work and manual data retrieval were not possible for some sites.

2.2 Metadata

Correct metadata are essential to determine consistent time series from GPS. In the context of GPS data processing, the metadata contains information about the hardware setup. Incorrect information can lead to biased, more noisy time series and subsequently to errors in derived deterministic parameters, such as linear trends. Correct metadata are of utmost importance for eGPS (Scheinert et al., 2023), since errors in the metadata (e.g. antenna heights) can bias measurement campaigns and are not necessarily detectable by the analysis of the coordinate trajectories (depending on the number of measurements).

Basic information are usually provided in the RINEX header section and include, among others, information about the installed antenna (type, serial number), receiver (type, serial number, firmware version) and antenna eccentricities. For past sites, the RINEX header often contains incomplete or even false information. For this study, we confirmed or corrected the metadata information, using metadata logs, observation protocols, images of the GPS stations (with a focus on the antenna setup), published metadata information, or personal communication with site operators.

To ensure the reproducibility of the processing and to enable possible future reprocessings, the metadata are provided in the established and comprehensive format of the station log files [1] of the IGS (Buchta et al., 2024d).

Multiple studies (Argus et al., 2014; Konfal et al., 2016; Koulali and Clarke, 2020) reported on the effect of snow intrusion into the GPS antenna radomes through drainage holes in the ground plates for a subset of ANET and UKANET cGPS sites,

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[1]https://files.igs.org/pub/station/general/sitelog_instr.txt, last visited 15 July 2024

leading to offsets and quasi-periodic (annual) signals in the coordinate time series. As a countermeasure, the drainage holes were initially closed with tape and later sealed with permanent plugs. A comprehensive list of efforts regrading the sealing of drainage holes was provided for this study (pers. comm., D. Saddler, OSU, 11 October 2023). Understanding the sealing efforts is crucial for accurately interpreting the coordinate time series, as this can significantly alter the coordinate trajectory. The efforts on antenna sealing are listed within the auxiliary data published in conjunction with the coordinate time series (Buchta et al., 2024c).

3 GPS processing

The data processing involved three major steps. First, the four analysis centres (TU Dresden (TUD), the University of Tasmania (UTAS), the Ohio State University (OSU) and Newcastle University (NEWC)) processed the provided observation data, considering the associated, consistent set of station metadata. Second, the resulting time series were transformed, using a rigid body (Helmert) transformation, to align the coordinates of a common set of regional IGS core sites. This minimises solution biases in the secular time scales of the individual solutions. Third, the final set of coordinate time series was computed by combining the transformed time series station by station.

3.1 GPS processing of individual AC solutions

The individual analysis methods of the ACs differ in the analysis software, the processing strategies (e.g. double differencing or zero differencing), auxiliary products, and the strategies to realise the terrestrial reference frame. All ACs based their analysis on the IGb14 reference frame, the GNSS-only realisation of the ITRF2014 (Altamimi et al., 2016), and adopted the associated absolute antenna corrections for satellite and ground antennas provided by the IGS (igs14.atx). As mentioned in sec. 2.1, we did not include observations to all GNSS, but restricted our analysis to GPS observations.

The TU Dresden (TUD) analysis centre adopted a standard network processing approach based on double-differenced phase observations using the Bernese GNSS Software v5.2 (Dach et al., 2015). The Antarctic GPS network was processed together with a selection of long running IGS sites surrounding Antarctica. Satellite orbits and Earth rotation parameters were fixed to final products provided by the Center for Orbit Determination in Europe (CODE) (Sušnik et al., 2016). A-priori zenith path delays (ZTD) were realised by employing the dry ZHD (hydrostatic delay in zenith) and the Vienna Mapping Function (VMF3) (Landskron and Böhm, 2018). The ZTD was parameterised as a piece-wise linear function with one hour resolution. A horizontal tropospheric gradient were estimated once a day. First order ionospheric effects were mitigated by forming the ionospheric-free linear combination. Second-order and third-order ionospheric effects were considered, based on global ionosphere maps (GIM) provided by CODE. Ocean tidal loading corrections and atmospheric tidal loading corrections were applied on the observation level using the ocean tide model FES2014b (Lyard et al., 2021) and the atmospheric tide model of Ray and Ponte (2003), respectively. Non-tidal loading corrections were not applied. Solid Earth tide and solid Earth pole tide corrections were applied according to the IERS2010 conventions (Luzum and Petit, 2012). Only observations above 5° elevation were considered. Phase ambiguities were fixed to integers if possible, using a sophisticated scheme of baseline-length

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dependent strategies (Dach et al., 2015). The Bernese Software v5.2 allows for the consideration of misalignment of ground antennas from true north. If the station meta data include information on the antenna orientation, the azimuth-dependent phase center corrections were applied accordingly. The geodetic datum was defined by using a minimum-constraint approach imposing a no-net translation (NNT) condition on a set of regional IGS core stations w.r.t. the IGb14 reference frame, when solving

225 the daily normal equations for station coordinates and tropospheric parameters.

The University of Tasmania (UTAS) AC analysed the GPS data using the GIPSY v6.4 software (Webb and Zumberge, 1995) and non-fiducial NASA Jet Propulsion Laboratory (JPL) orbit and clock products (repro3). A zero-differenced precise point positioning (PPP) methodology was adopted (Zumberge et al., 1997). Pseudorange data were phase-smoothed and all data were downsampled to $300\,\mathrm{s}$ interval. Only observations above $10°$ elevation were used. Receiver clock corrections were es-

230 timated every $300\,\mathrm{s}$ as a white noise process. Wet tropospheric zenith delays and gradients were estimated every $300\,\mathrm{s}$ with a random walk process noise of $5 \times 10^{-8}\,\mathrm{km\,s^{-0.5}}$ and $5 \times 10^{-9}\,\mathrm{km\,s^{-0.5}}$, respectively (Bar-Sever et al., 1998). The gridded VMF1 tropospheric mapping function was used, with hydrostatic and a priori zenith wet delays extracted from these grids which were based on ECMWF (European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts) products (Boehm et al., 2006; Kouba, 2008). Second-order ionospheric effects were corrected based on JPL IONEX files from year 1999 onwards. Solutions prior to

235 1999 instead used the International Reference Ionosphere model. A shell height of $600\,\mathrm{km}$ was used in both cases (Kedar et al., 2003). Solid Earth tide and solid Earth pole tide corrections were made as per the IERS2010 conventions (Luzum and Petit, 2012). Ocean tidal loading displacements were modelled based on the TPXO7.2.2010 ocean tide model in the CM frame as is appropriate for JPL orbits which are also in a CM frame (Fu et al., 2012), with 342 companion tidal constituents computed using the hardisp program (Luzum and Petit, 2012). Ambiguities were fixed to integers where possible (Bertiger et al., 2010).

240 Daily site coordinates were then transformed from the fiducial-free frame of the orbits to the IGS14 using the JPL 7-parameter transformation files.

The Ohio State University (OSU) processing was performed with double differences in "GPS At MIT"/Global Kalman filter (GAMIT/GLOBK) software 10.71 (Herring et al., 2016) using the Ohio State High Performance Computer facility and a paralellised Python wrapper for GAMIT known as Parallel.GAMIT[2]. The GPS data were processed using the IGS14 final

245 orbits.VMF1 grids (Boehm et al., 2006) were used with piece-wise linear functions of one hour resolution to estimate the atmospheric delay. FES2014b (Lyard et al., 2021) was applied to correct for ocean tidal loading. The Antarctic data was processed together with a regional network spanning most of the southern hemisphere to improve ambiguity resolution and network stability. Due to the large number of stations, we split the processing into sub-networks of about 40 sites which include stations from a daily "backbone" network (of about 50 sites with an aperture that spans the entire region of interest) and up to 9 sta-

250 tions from neighboring sub-networks. The daily solutions of the sub-networks were combined using GLOBK to produce daily GPS polyhedrons. The IGb14 frame was realised following the regional methodology of Gómez et al. (2022), where position, velocity, and seasonal (periodic) parameters were inherited from the parent frame (60 stations of the IGb14) using a highly consistent combination of daily solutions of about 400 stations.

The NEWC Antarctic Center analysed GPS observables using the "GPS At MIT"/Global Kalman filter (GAMIT/GLOBK) soft-

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[2]available through GitHub: https://github.com/demiangomez/Parallel.GAMIT

255　ware 10.70 (Herring et al., 2016). The GAMIT software employs double-difference network solutions based on ionospheric-free linear combination of GPS observables to mitigate phase biases resulting from errors in receiver and satellite clocks. The NEWC Antarctic processing strategy is similar to Koulali and Clarke (2020), utilising a two-step approach (Dong et al., 1998). In the first step, GPS phase observations from each day were used to generate loosely constrained position and covariance solutions. The solutions obtained from the first step were then utilised in the second step within the Kalman filter to estimate

260　a consistent set of coordinates, time series, and velocities. Similar to other ACs, satellite orbit parameters remained fixed to the IGS final orbit product values. Second-order ionospheric corrections were applied using the combined IGS IONEX files. The zenith wet delay (ZWD) was modelled using a piece-wise linear function with process noise uncertainty constraint of $20\,\mathrm{mm}\,\mathrm{h}^{-0.5}$, with three N/S and E/W atmospheric gradients per day. We implemented the time-varying a priori Zenith Hydrostatic Delay (ZHD) and Vienna Mapping Function (VMF1), derived from the ECMWF model (Boehm et al., 2006). An

265　elevation cut-off angle of $10°$ was used, and observations were weighted using an elevation-dependent scheme based on the post-fit residuals. We considered the effects of ocean tide loading by using the FES2014 model (Lyard et al., 2021) as well as non-tidal atmospheric pressure loading deformation (Tregoning and Watson, 2009). To perform a double-difference solution in GAMIT, a network of stations needs to be defined. For computational efficiency, the NEWC Antarctic network was divided into seven sub-networks, each containing up to 45 stations. The stations in each sub-network were chosen based on

270　geographic location to minimise station baseline lengths, which improves integer phase ambiguity resolution. IGS tie stations, which are common to all sub-networks, were included to allow the combination of the sub-networks into a single full-network solution using GLOBK. To ensure past data integrity, a set of 40 global IGS stations is included for processing data before the year 2000, enhancing ambiguity resolution. In addition to Antarctic networks, we processed a global network based on IGS14 core stations, facilitating the integration of all subnetworks into a unified network solution using the GLOBK Kalman filter.

275　Daily solutions were aligned with the ITRF2014 reference frame through estimation of rotations and translations, minimising position residuals at specified reference frame stations.

3.2　Strategy to infer combined coordinate time series

3.2.1　Transformation to a common frame

To ensure maximum consistency in the combination of the individual coordinate time series, biases between the solutions were

280　assessed and, if necessary, minimised. Each daily set of station coordinates from an AC j solution $\boldsymbol{X}_j(t)$ is related to a regional set of IGb14 core sites (Fig. 2) via a 6-parameter Helmert transformation:

$$\boldsymbol{X}_{I14}(t) = \boldsymbol{R}_z(\gamma(t)) \cdot \boldsymbol{R}_y(\beta(t)) \cdot \boldsymbol{R}_x(\alpha(t)) \cdot (\boldsymbol{X}_j(t) + \boldsymbol{T}(d_x(t), d_y(t), d_z(t))). \tag{1}$$

We estimated three translation parameters $d_x(t)$, $d_y(t)$, $d_z(t)$ and three rotation parameters $\alpha(t)$, $\beta(t)$, $\gamma(t)$ for each day t and each AC solution j by minimising the square sum of differences between the daily coordinate solution $\boldsymbol{X}_j(t)$ and the

285　reference coordinates $\boldsymbol{X}_{I14}(t)$ given by the IGb14. We subsequently estimated rates of the Helmert parameters (HP) $\dot{d}_{x,j}$, $\dot{d}_{y,j}$, $\dot{d}_{z,j}$ and $\dot{\alpha}_j$, $\dot{\beta}_j$, $\dot{\gamma}_j$ by fitting a deterministic model including linear trend, annual signal and offset to the time series of

the HP. Ideally, the linear rates of HP would be similar for all ACs, indicating no systematic biases between the solutions on secular time scales. The resulting rates (Fig. 3) reveal a maximum magnitude of $0.45\,\mathrm{mm\,yr^{-1}}$ for $\dot{\alpha}$ of the TUD solution. The differences in $\dot{d}_z$ for all solutions are in the range of up to $0.4\,\mathrm{mm\,yr^{-1}}$, with the biggest difference between OSU and TUD.

290 Since the HP were estimated from a set of regional distributed IGS sites, some HP (e. g. $\boldsymbol{R}_x$ and $\boldsymbol{T}_y$) can not be independently resolved. Therefore, we applied the linear trends of HP on a defined grid covering our region of interest, resulting in point-wise velocities. We then transform the point-wise geocentric velocities to local, topocentric velocities (north, east, vertical), resulting in maps depicted in Fig. 3b, which allow for a comparison of the velocity patterns. The OSU and NEWC processings exhibit a similar pattern, dominated by the rate of translation in Z, resulting in a maximum magnitude of $0.17\,\mathrm{mm\,yr^{-1}}$ (NEWC)

295 and $0.33\,\mathrm{mm\,yr^{-1}}$ (OSU) of local subsidence. The TUD pattern shows local vertical rates ranging from $0.27\,\mathrm{mm\,yr^{-1}}$ to $-0.10\,\mathrm{mm\,yr^{-1}}$, while the lateral velocities are well below $0.20\,\mathrm{mm\,yr^{-1}}$. The estimated HP parameters for $\dot{d}_x$, $\dot{d}_y$ and $\dot{\alpha}$ and $\dot{\beta}$ by UTAS are somewhat larger, but cancel out for our region of interest, resulting in a small deformation pattern of lateral components well below $0.10\,\mathrm{mm\,yr^{-1}}$ and uplift rates with a maximum of $0.13\,\mathrm{mm\,yr^{-1}}$.

The differences in the observed patterns can be explained, at least in part, by the application of different reference frame

300 realisation strategies. A maximum consistency to the ITRF is achieved when a globally, distributed set of IGS reference sites is used, as is the case for the processing of OSU and NEWC and inherently for the PPP solution of UTAS. Still, differences in the observed pattern are apparent and are in the same order of magnitude as differences to the TUD solution which relies on a reference frame realisation based on regionally distributed IGS sites. Considering the order of magnitude of the differences in the vertical rate pattern, a straightforward combination of the individual coordinate time series is prohibited to avoid introducing

305 biases. Therefore, we decided to transform all four individual AC solutions using the the daily six HP to a common frame in order to minimise the systematic differences between the solutions.

3.2.2 Identification of systematically biased solutions

After we minimised the biases between the networks of the individual solutions on the longest time scales, we identified remaining systematic biases between the solutions on a site-by-site basis with a semi-automated procedure. For each site, we

310 formed the median time series over the individual AC solutions for each local topocentric coordinate component (north, east and up) and computed the differences between each individual solution and the median time series. Sections of continuous time series or campaigns of episodic time series of individual solutions that showed differences larger than $10, 10, 20\,\mathrm{mm}$ in north, east and up, respectively, were flagged. If the flagged solutions could be related to processing choices and could, therefore, be considered as systematically biased, the biased solutions were excluded from the subsequent combination step. Examples

315 for systematic biases are displayed in Fig. 4. The systematic bias for the UTAS solution (Fig. 4a) following an upgrade to the Septentrio PolaNt-x-MF antenna (IGS code: SEPPOLANT_X_MF) and Alertgeo Resolute receivers is evident for every upgraded POLENET station and therefore requires the exclusion of the UTAS solution after the upgrade. The TUD analysis included a correction for an antenna misalignment from true north, which is not considered by the other ACs. If the lateral antenna phase centre offsets provided with the igs14.atx file are significant and the antenna misalignment from true north is

10

320 sufficiently large, the TUD solution shows biases in the lateral coordinate component relative to the other solutions (Fig. 4b). Sections of the TUD solutions showing the described biases were, therefore, excluded from the data combination.

3.2.3 Combining the individual coordinate time series

Finally, we combined the individual AC solutions to create the final data set. We implemented a site-wise combination approach by computing the weighted average over the ACs for each geocentric coordinate component:

$$x(t)_{combined} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{N} \sigma_{j,s}^2(t) \cdot x_j(t)}{N \cdot \sum_{j=1}^{N} \sigma_{j,s}^2(t)}, \tag{2}$$

325

with $\sigma_{j,s}^2$ the scaled variance and $x_j(t)$ the daily geocentric coordinate solution of the AC j. The uncertainties provided with the individual solutions do not provide a realistic measure of uncertainty for the daily coordinate solution. To obtain realistic uncertainty information on the estimated coordinates, error covariance information for the input products (orbits, clock corrections, tropospheric corrections, ...) would be required, to correctly propagate error information to the estimated

330 parameters (e. g. station coordinates). The error information provided by each AC has, therefore, limited meaning in an absolute sense and is not comparable between the AC solutions, but they do contain information about the relative uncertainty within the solution of an AC. This imposes the necessity to scale the variances for each AC solution. The unscaled variances $\sigma_j^2(t)$ were scaled in such a way that the temporal mean over the scaled variances $\sigma_{j,s}^2(t)$ of AC j equals the repeatability (variance) of the residual coordinate time series $\sigma_{j,res}^2 = var[x_{j,res}(t)]$:

$$\sigma_{j,s}^2(t) = \sigma_j^2(t) \frac{\sigma_{j,res}^2}{\sigma_j^2}. \tag{3}$$

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The advantage of this approach is twofold: First, the scaled variances are related to the repeatability of the residual coordinate time series and therefore have a physical, absolute meaning. Second, the coordinate time series of an AC showing less noise results in a smaller scaled variance and, consequently, higher weighting in the coordinate combination.

The required residual coordinate time series were formed by fitting and removing a deterministic trajectory model from the

340 coordinate time series. The trajectory model contains linear trend, annual and semi-annual signal terms, and where needed post-seismic relaxation and a Heaviside step function and, thus, resembleed a shortened version of the trajectory model described in Bevis and Brown (2014):

$$x(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{n_P} p_i(t - t_R)^i + \sum_{i=1}^{n_J} b_j H(t - t_j) + \sum_{i=1}^{n_F} s_i \sin(\omega_i t) + c_i \cos(\omega_i t) + \tag{4}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n_T} e_i(1 - exp(1 - (t - t_i)/T_i)) + \sum_{j=1}^{n_L} a_j \log(1 + (t - t_j)/T_j).$$

345 We limit the polynomial degree to $n_P = 1$ and the seasonal terms to annual and semi-annual signals. Post-seismic deformation terms were fitted for the sites BORC and DAL5. The automated identification of steps posed a difficult task (Gazeaux et al.,

2013). The limited number of sites within our study allowed for the manual (hand-picked) assessment of steps in the time series. We indicated the time stamps of equipment changes, changes in the antenna eccentricity, occurrence of nearby earthquakes and the efforts of sealing antenna ground plates (see sec. 2.2). If a jump was apparent in one coordinate component, steps were set up for all coordinate components. A full list of events potentially influencing coordinate trajectories is provided with the final data product.

We omitted the seasonal and postseismic deformation terms for eGPS sites. Additionally, we introduced a jump between each measurement campaign, removing inter-campaign biases. If the inter-campaign biases were not considered in the trajectory model, the residual time series would contain intra-campaign noise and inter-campaign biases. The number of solved measurement campaigns can vary between the AC solutions for eGPS sites. The AC solution which contained more campaigns would, therefore, contain a higher number of inter-campaign biases (if the number of campaigns is greater 2), resulting in an increased residual RMS. An AC solution would be downweighted in the combination (see Eg. 2 for solving more campaigns. We note that this approach leads to an overly optimistic scaling of the variances and in consequence smaller assigned scaled variances to eGPS sites in comparison to cGPS sites, in an absolute sense.

3.3 Inference of time series of the Zenith Total Delay (ZTD)

The site-wise tropospheric delay in the form of the zenith total delay (ZTD) were estimated together with the daily station coordinates by each AC as described in sec. 3.1. We provide the site-wise time series of ZTD estimates as an auxiliary data set (Buchta et al., 2024e). The TUD, OSU and NEWC ACs parameterise the ZTD as piece-wise linear functions, leading to duplicate estimates at the day boundaries. To form a continuous time series, the estimates for each AC were averaged at the day boundaries. The high rate UTAS solution was downsampled by forming hourly averages. Here, we decided against the combination of ZTD results and provide the individual AC solutions instead.

4 Results

4.1 Combined coordinate time series

As the major product we provide the combined coordinate time series for 286 bedrock sites in Antarctica (Buchta et al., 2024b). The individual ACs provided solutions for 286 (TUD), 286 (UTAS), 258 (OSU), and 270 (NEWC) sites. The differences in the number of solutions of the ACs are due to different approaches and thresholds concerning the quality or completeness of the observational data. The combination leads to a minimal increase in the total number of daily solutions. The comparison of the number of daily solutions per site between the combination and the individual solution with the most solutions results in a mean increase of 0.3%. The resulting mean time base of the combined product is 10.5 years. Fig. 5 shows an example coordinate time series both the individual and combined solution. To assess the repeatability and noise characteristics of the individual and the combined solutions, we analysed the coordinate time series of 29 stable cGPS sites. These sites were selected

Table 1. The median of the repeatability (RMS) derived from residual coordinate time series for the north, east and up coordinate component for a selection of 29 stable continuous sites.

	north RMS [mm]	east RMS [mm]	up RMS [mm]
TUD	1.9	1.5	5.4
OSU	1.8	1.2	4.1
UTAS	1.9	1.6	6.3
NEWC	1.2	1.2	4.5
combination	1.3	1.1	4.0

to have a timespan of at least six years, have no reported snow intrusions, are not subject to other external disturbances, and are well distributed over the Antarctic continent (see Fig. 6). First, residual time series were formed by fitting and subtracting a 380 deterministic model (Eq. 4) from the time series (see Fig. 5 for an example time series). Post-seismic deformation terms were neglected for the selected sites. Steps were consistently introduced for all ACs and the combined time series. The repeatability of the coordinate time series is then described by the derived RMS over the residual time series. Tab. 1 displays the median RMS for each AC and the combined solutions. The NEWC solution shows the lowest RMS for the lateral components with a median RMS of 1.2 and 1.2 mm for north and east, respectively. The solution of OSU reaches the smallest median RMS for 385 the vertical coordinate component with 4.1 mm. The repeatability for the TUD and UTAS solutions show higher values for the north and up components. The RMS values of the combined time series resemble the lowest RMS of the best-performing individual solutions, with 0.1, −0.1 and −0.1 mm for north, east and vertical respectively, compared to the best performing individual solution.

To further characterise the spectral properties of the residual time series, we used the Lomb-Scargle periodogram (LSP), a 390 representation of the power-spectral density for discrete, scattered data (VanderPlas, 2018). LSPs were computed for all sites and each coordinate component for each AC and for the combined solutions. Subsequently, the median LSP was formed over all 29 sites, allowing for the direct comparison between the solutions (Fig. 7).

Firstly, the periodograms confirm the generally lower noise levels of the NEWC and OSU solutions compared to the TUD and UTAS solutions, especially at high frequencies. All solutions follow the well-known power-law like behavior of GPS coordi- 395 nate time series, close to flicker noise (spectral index equals 1) and white noise for the very high frequencies (Liu et al., 2018; King et al., 2022). Differences between the solutions become apparent for distinct frequencies. Dominant peaks are visible for the, otherwise very low noise, periodograms of the NEWC (north, east, up) and OSU (east) solutions at the fortnightly periods of 13.63 and 14.16 d, possibly resulting from "direct" and "indirect/aliased" errors in tidal models (Ray et al., 2013). Smaller peaks are visible at 9.4 d for UTAS (up) and 9.14 d for NEWC (up), also resulting from direct and indirect errors in 400 tidal models, respectively. At lower frequencies distinct peaks at harmonics of the GPS "draconitic" year (351 d) are apparent (Ray et al., 2008). The combined time series reveals greatly reduced amplitudes for the spurious signals at high frequencies,

whereas the draconitic harmonics remain at high amplitudes.

Combining the individual solutions, as described in section 3.2.3, has several advantages over the individual solutions: repeatability is similar to the best-performing single AC solution, the amplitudes of high-frequency interfering signals have been
405   reduced, and the overall spatio-temporal coverage has been increased.

4.2   Comparison to the data set of the Nevada Geodetic Laboratory (NGL)

We compared and validated the results of our GIANT-REGAIN (GR) combined solution with the data products of the Nevada Geodetic Laboratory (NGL), University of Reno (Blewitt et al., 2018). The publicly available "living data set" consists of
410   coordinate time series of more than $17,000$ globally distributed GPS stations with more than $10,000$ stations updated every week. The NGL processing employs the PPP processing strategy of the GipsyX software, which provides a computationally efficient method to process an immense amount of data. The processing uses GPS observations only, and JPL orbit and clock products (Earth orientation parameters, satellite clocks and ephemerides). The coordinate solutions are realised in the IGS14 reference frame. We refer to web resources[3] for further details on the NGL processing setup. In their solutions, the crucial
415   metadata (including antenna types and heights) are extracted from the header section of RINEX observation files.

To compare the data sets we selected 157 sites (55% of the GR data set) available in both data sets and downloaded the final, cleaned NGL time series of geocentric coordinates (Fig. 8).

To check the consistency of the data sets, we compared the linear rates of coordinate change derived from both data sets. For this purpose, the NGL data set is limited to the GIANT-REGAIN period from 1995-001 to 2021-365 and we limited the
420   analysed stations to those that have an observation span of at least 3 years in both data sets, resulting in a selection of 143 sites. We used the local topocentric coordinate representation (north, east, up) for the analysis. The Hector software package v1.9 (Bos et al., 2013) was used to fit a deterministic model (eq. 4) to the time series, while assuming a white and flicker noise stochastic model. The deterministic model is limited to a linear trend and potential offsets for eGPS sites. We extracted information on discontinuities for the NGL data set from the provided master step file data base[4]. Steps in the GR data set are
425   consistent with the ones used in Sec. 3.2.3.

Sites with large trend differences exceeding $10\,\mathrm{mm\,yr^{-1}}$ in either north, east or up were considered outliers and excluded from the subsequent analysis. Five sites exceeded the threshold: MBL3, SLTR, VL06, VL20 and VLHG. The large differences can be explained by different assumptions regarding antenna heights and different identification of jumps in the GR and NGL data sets. The distributions of trend differences (GR - NGL) for the remaining stations reveal a high level of consistency (Fig.
430   9). The mean differences and standard deviations can be considered small with $0.1 \pm 0.6\,\mathrm{mm\,yr^{-1}}$, $-0.1 \pm 0.8\,\mathrm{mm\,yr^{-1}}$ and $0.2 \pm 1.1\,\mathrm{mm\,yr^{-1}}$ for north, east and up, respectively. The estimated rates are sensitive to the assumed steps in the deterministic models. We repeated the estimation of the trends for the NGL data set, but introduced step information consistent with the GR data set. The increased consistency of the deterministic models leads to a further reduction of the trend differences for the lateral

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[3]http://geodesy.unr.edu/gps/ngl.acn.txt
[4]http://geodesy.unr.edu/NGLStationPages/steps.txt

components to $0.0 \pm 0.4 \, \text{mm} \, \text{yr}^{-1}$, $0.0 \pm 0.5 \, \text{mm} \, \text{yr}^{-1}$ for the north and east, respectively. The differences of estimated rates

435   reflect differences a user would obtain using either data set for the defined time span. They do not solely describe differences that result from the different processing strategies. Individual site time series may have different temporal coverage for either data set and, therefore, be affected differently by nonlinear loading variations (Koulali et al., 2022; King et al., 2022).

The NGL data set is based on highly-automated processing and retrieves the necessary metadata from the header section of the observational RINEX file (Blewitt et al., 2018) which can be prone to errors. The NGL data set provides antenna heights

440   together with the coordinate time series, enabling the comparison with the revised metadata information of the GR data set. The comparison reveals different antenna heights for 57 sites and antenna height differences greater than $4 \, \text{mm}$ (approximate noise level of the up component, see table 1) for 43 sites, equaling $36 \, \%$ and $27 \, \%$ of sites respectively. Differences in the antenna heights do not necessarily result in differences in estimated trajectory models, e.g. if the antenna height difference is constant for the whole observation time or between estimated steps. We quantify the impact of the improved antenna height

445   information, by modifying the NGL time series of the up component $u_{NGL}(t)$ for the 57 sites as:

$$u_{NGL}^{mod}(t) = u(t)_{NGL} + H_{NGL}(t) - H_{GR}(t), \tag{5}$$

with $H_{NGL}(t)$ the antenna height provided by NGL at time t and $H_{GR}(t)$ the antenna height provided by the GR data set at time t. We detrended $u_{NGL}(t)$ and $u_{NGL}^{mod}(t)$ and computed the residual RMS for all 57 sites. The mean RMS shows a reduction from $21.3 \, \text{mm}$ to $8.5 \, \text{mm}$ and the median RMS from $9.1 \, \text{mm}$ to $7.9 \, \text{mm}$. The RMS reduction results from the correction of

450   outliers and the reduction of steps associated with antenna changes. Example coordinate time series displaying the effect of corrected antenna heights are given in the supporting material.

5   Conclusions

We collected and evaluated observational data and station metadata for 286 GPS sites in Antarctica from 1995 to 2021. The processing of the data was carried out by four analysis centres. This allowed us to maximise the temporal and spatial coverage

455   of our data set and to identify possible biases in individual solutions. In this way, we were able to generate a consistent combined data set of coordinate time series. Compared to the data set provided by the Nevada Geodetic Laboratory (NGL), which contains the largest number of GNSS sites in Antarctica to date, we were able to increase the spatial coverage, especially in East Antarctica. In some regions, such as Victoria Land and the Antarctic Peninsula, the comparably high density of stations could be increased even more. Our revised station metadata decreases the number of artefacts (e.g. outliers and jumps) in the

460   coordinate time series and provides the basis for a reliable analysis of episodic (eGPS) sites.

The main product – consistent GPS coordinate time series – is supplemented by the data sets of time series of the Zenith Total Delay as well as the station metadata in the form of IGS log files and a station event list. The latter is intended to serve as a possible starting point for analysing and interpreting the coordinate trajectory, as it contains information on equipment changes, nearby earthquakes and measures taken to mitigate snow contamination of the GPS antennas.

465   The inferred consistent coordinate time series will certainly advance the investigation of various geodynamic effects on different time scales. Derived linear rates may be employed to examine plate motion or to validate and constrain models of glacial

isostatic adjustment (GIA). The enhanced spatial and temporal coverage of this data set will allow the assessment of GIA models more rigorously than previously possible. This pertains to the spatial coverage, notably in East Antarctica, as well as the augmented station density in regions of increased lateral gradients in the vertical uplift rates, exemplified by the northern

470 Antarctic Peninsula (Koulali et al., 2022) and the Amundsen Sea region (Barletta et al., 2018). However, the isolation of the GIA signal, in particular in the vertical component, requires the removal of the instantaneous (elastic) deformation caused by the present-day mass change, i.e. superimposed loading due to SMB and changes in ice dynamics (Hattori et al., 2021; Koulali et al., 2022; King et al., 2022), which is not within the scope of the study. Therefore, we do not provide a product of secular rates from the coordinate time series. However, to demonstrate the potential of the data set, we derive linear rates for all sites

475 with a time base greater than $2.5\,\mathrm{yr}$ and at least ten data points (Fig. 10), using the trajectory models described in Sec. 3.2.3. Furthermore, this data set, especially the derived station metadata, will serve as a baseline for anticipated future reprocessing efforts, which could then take into account up-to-date ITRF realisation and associated conventions, extend the coordinate time series of existing stations and include new GPS stations in the data set. The compilation of all available GPS data provides an unprecedented insight into Antarctic solid Earth deformation. The comprehensive overview (e.g. Fig. 8) highlights gaps in

480 GPS coverage and will be used to plan future station deployments to further improve coverage and maintenance of the geodetic infrastructure.

6 Code availability

The GNSS analysis software used is available from the relevant research groups. Parallel.GAMIT is available through GitHub at https://github.com/demiangomez/Parallel.GAMIT.

7 Data availability

The product inferred by this project is available at the PANGAEA repository (https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.967515) (Buchta et al., 2024a) as a data set collection and comprises four individual data sets: the combined coordinate time series (https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.967516) (Buchta et al., 2024b), the time series of the tropospheric Zenith Total Delays (ZTD) from the individual analysis centres processing (https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.967529) (Buchta

490 et al., 2024e), the station information in the form of IGS log files (https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.967532) (Buchta et al., 2024d) and a list of events (https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.967533) (Buchta et al., 2024c), which can be employed in conjunction with the coordinate time series data to analyse the coordinate trajectory. The data sources of publicly available observational data are listed in Tab. S1 in the supplementary material.

Author contributions. MS and MAK conceptualized the study. CK, EB, EK, MS, MAK, PJC, PB and TW were involved in the collection and

495 compilation of the observational data and station metadata. EB, MAK, DG and AK conducted the individual GPS processing. EB performed

the data combination and comparison to the external data set. EB wrote the majority of the main text, and compiled all figures, except Fig. 10. All authors contributed to the writing and editing of the manuscript.

Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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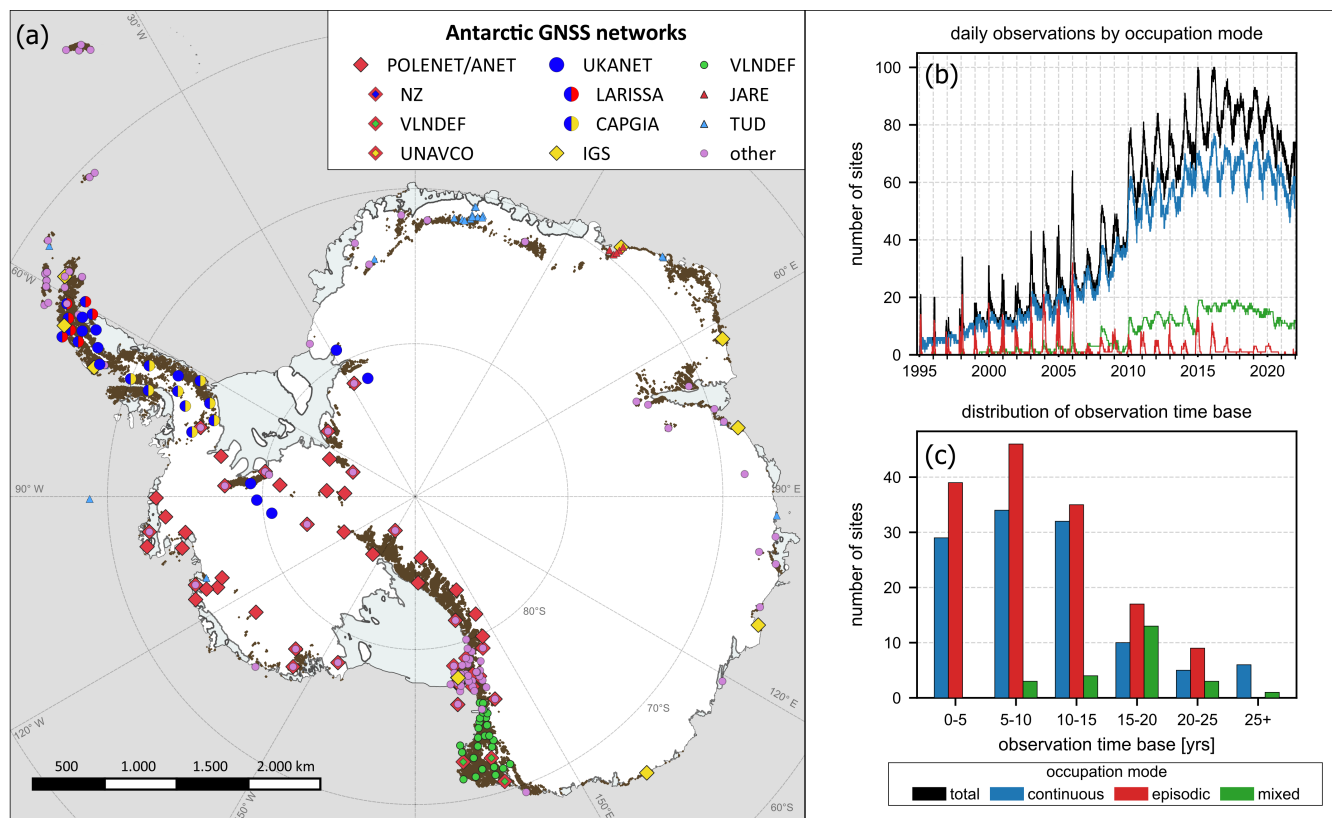
Figure 1. (a) Spatial distribution of GNSS sites on bedrock and selected network affiliations. Bedrock outcrops are indicated in brown (Burton-Johnson et al., 2016). The association of a GNSS site to a network is generally not unique, since sites can be attributed to multiple networks at a time or former networks were integrated in newly established ones. The temporal development of the observation data (b) reveals a steady increase in the amount of data up to 2016. Following the International Polar Year (IPY) in 2008/2009 a strong increase in observations of cGPS sites in particular can be seen, while the number of eGPS observations has decreased significantly. The occupation type "mixed" refers to sites that were initially installed as episodic sites and later upgraded to continuously operating installations. The observation time base (c) results from the difference between the first and last observation and, therefore, does not contain any information about the completeness of the observed period.
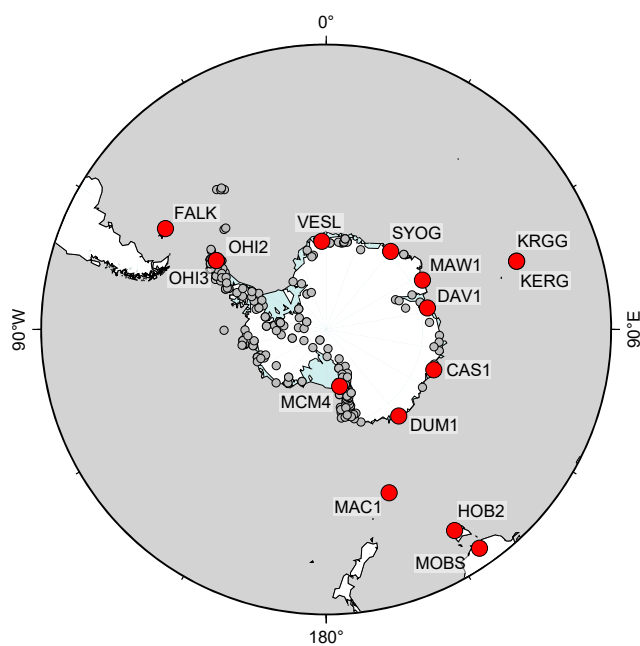
Figure 2. A selection of regionally distributed IGS reference sites to estimate Helmert parameters of individual AC solutions w.r.t. the IGb14 reference frame.
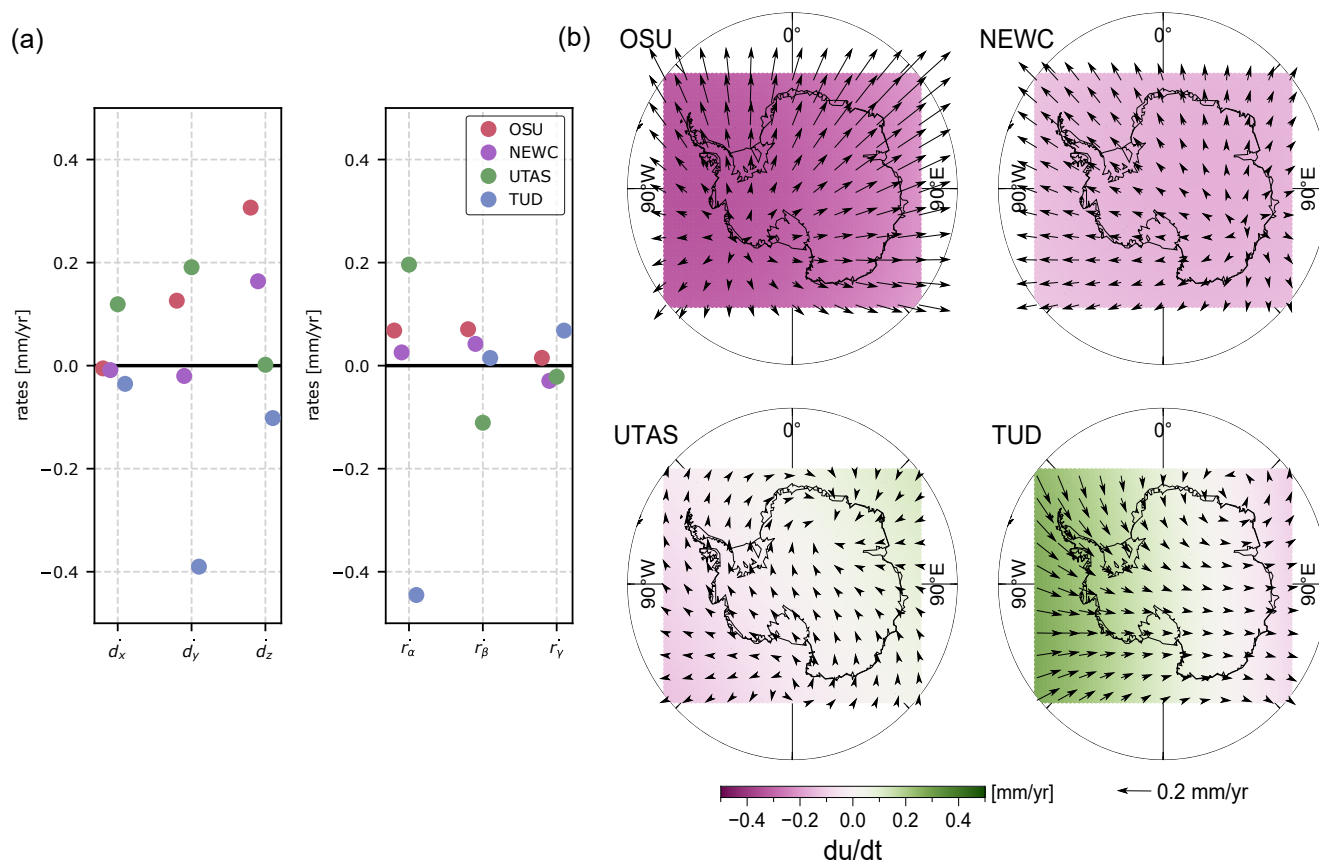
Figure 3. (a) Linear rates of translation and rotation Helmert Parameters for AC solutions w. r. t. IGb14 based on a selection of regionally distributed IGS sites. Angular velocities $\dot{\alpha}_j$, $\dot{\beta}_j$, $\dot{\gamma}_j$ are multiplied by the Earth radius to obtain tangential velocities $\dot{r_\alpha}$, $\dot{r_\beta}$ and $\dot{r_\gamma}$ for better comparability to translation parameters. Panel (b) displays the applied linear rates of HP on a defined grid covering the study area. The coloured grid displays the local uplift rates, arrows the lateral velocities.
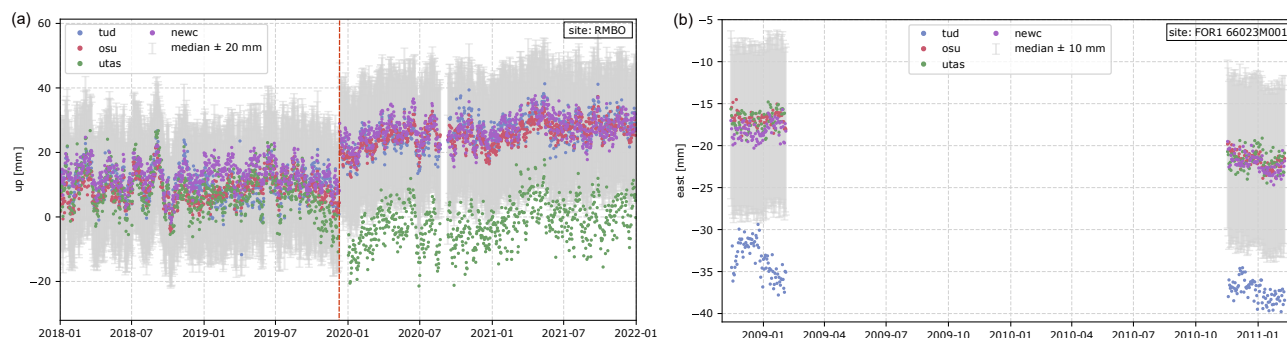
Figure 4. Sections of coordinate time series from the individual AC solutions and the median time series with 20 mm (up) and 10 mm (east) thresholds for the sites (a) RMBO (up component) and (b) FOR1 (east component). Panel (a) shows a systematic bias of the UTAS solution following an equipment upgrade to the Septentrio PolaNt-x-MF antenna and Alertgeo Resolute receiver (11 December 2019). Panel (b) displays the biased east component of the TUD solution, resulting from the correction of the antenna orientation from true north (about 140°), that is only applied by the TUD processing.
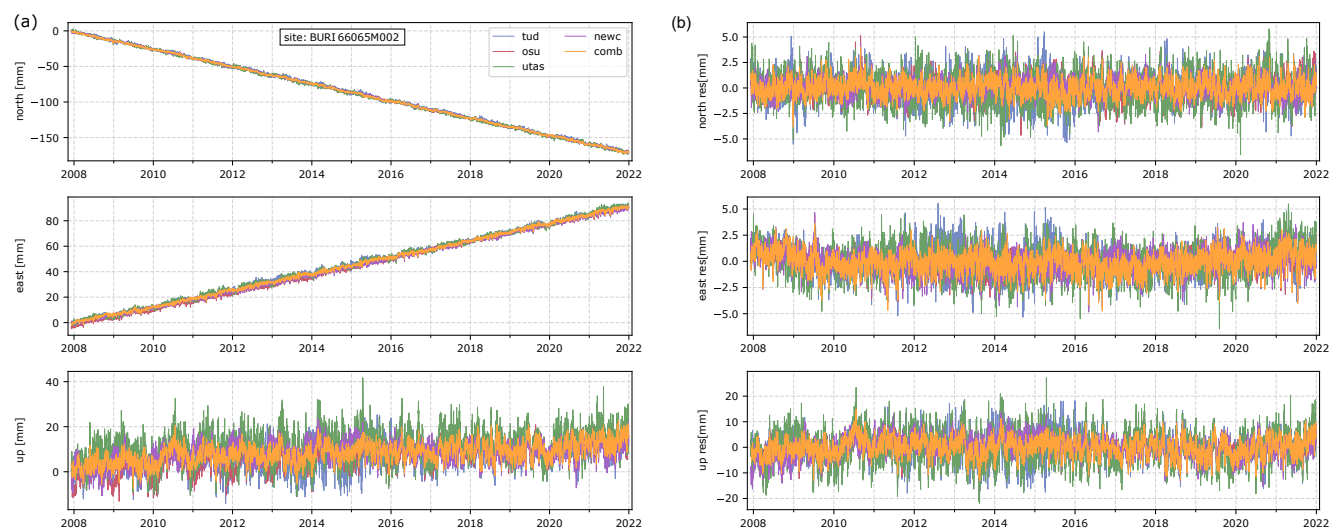
Figure 5. Coordinate time series (a) and the residual time series (b) for the site Butcher Ridge (BURI) from the individual AC solutions and the combined final time series. The RMS of the residual time series of the combined solution yields 0.9 mm, 1.0 mm, 3.7 mm for north, east and up, respectively. The individual solutions with lowest RMS reach values of 0.9 mm (NEWC), 0.9 mm (OSU) and 3.6 mm (OSU) for north, east and up respectively.
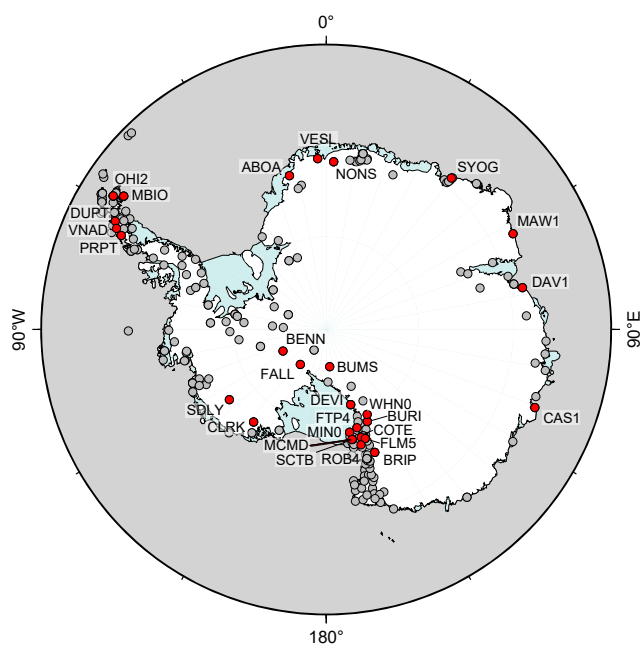
Figure 6. Selection of 29 stable cGPS sites (red) to assess noise characteristics of coordinate time series of the ACs and the combined solution.
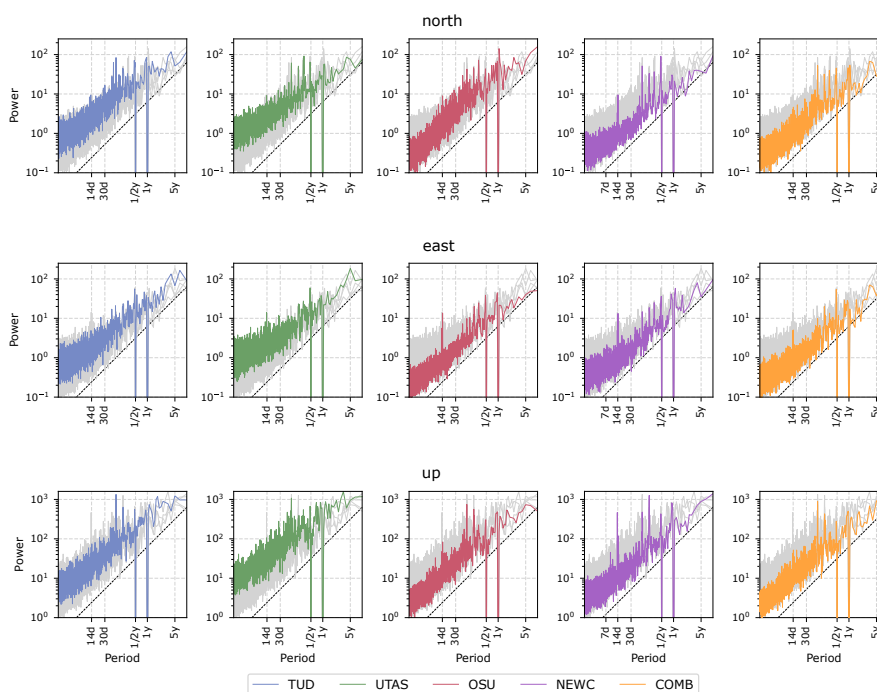
Figure 7. Median Lomb-Scargle periodograms of residual time series (east, north, up) for a selection of 29 cGPS sites for the four ACs and the combined solution. Each LSP plot displays the LSP of a specific solution in color and the LSPs of the other solutions in grey. The dashed line displays flicker noise with an arbitrary amplitude.
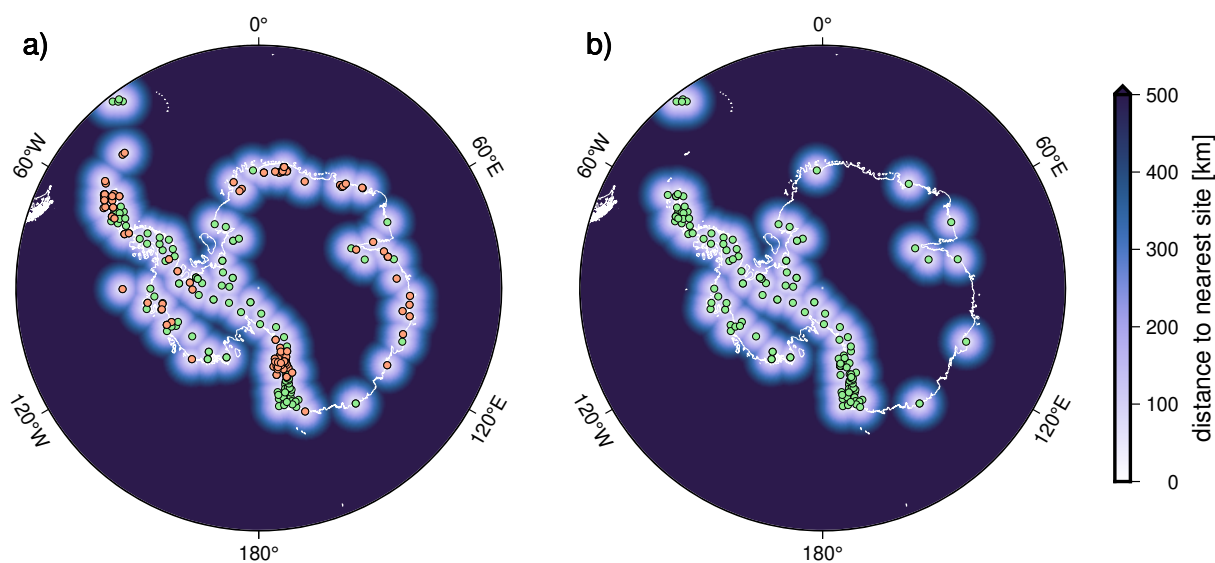
Figure 8. GPS station coverage of (a) the GIANT-REGAIN data set (GR) and (b) the Nevada Geodetic Laboratory (NGL) data set. Green markers indicate GPS sites included in both data sets, while orange sites are only included in the GR data set. The GR data set shows enhanced spatial coverage for East Antarctica from 30°W to 100°E and an increased station density for southern Victoria Land and the northern Antarctic Peninsula.
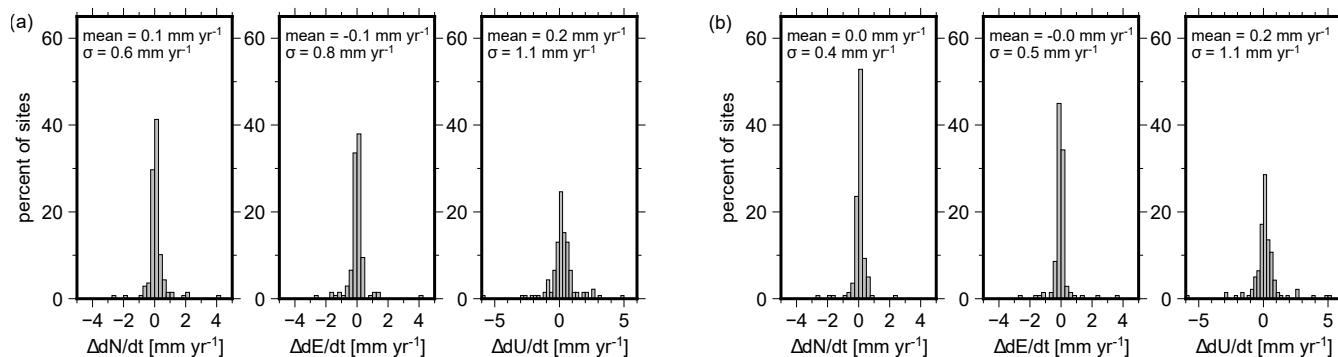

Figure 9. Distribution of differences in estimated linear rates between GR and NGL. In panel (a), the steps in the NGL data set are considered in accordance with the NGL master step file. Conversely, in panel (b), the step information for NGL is consistent with the GR data set.
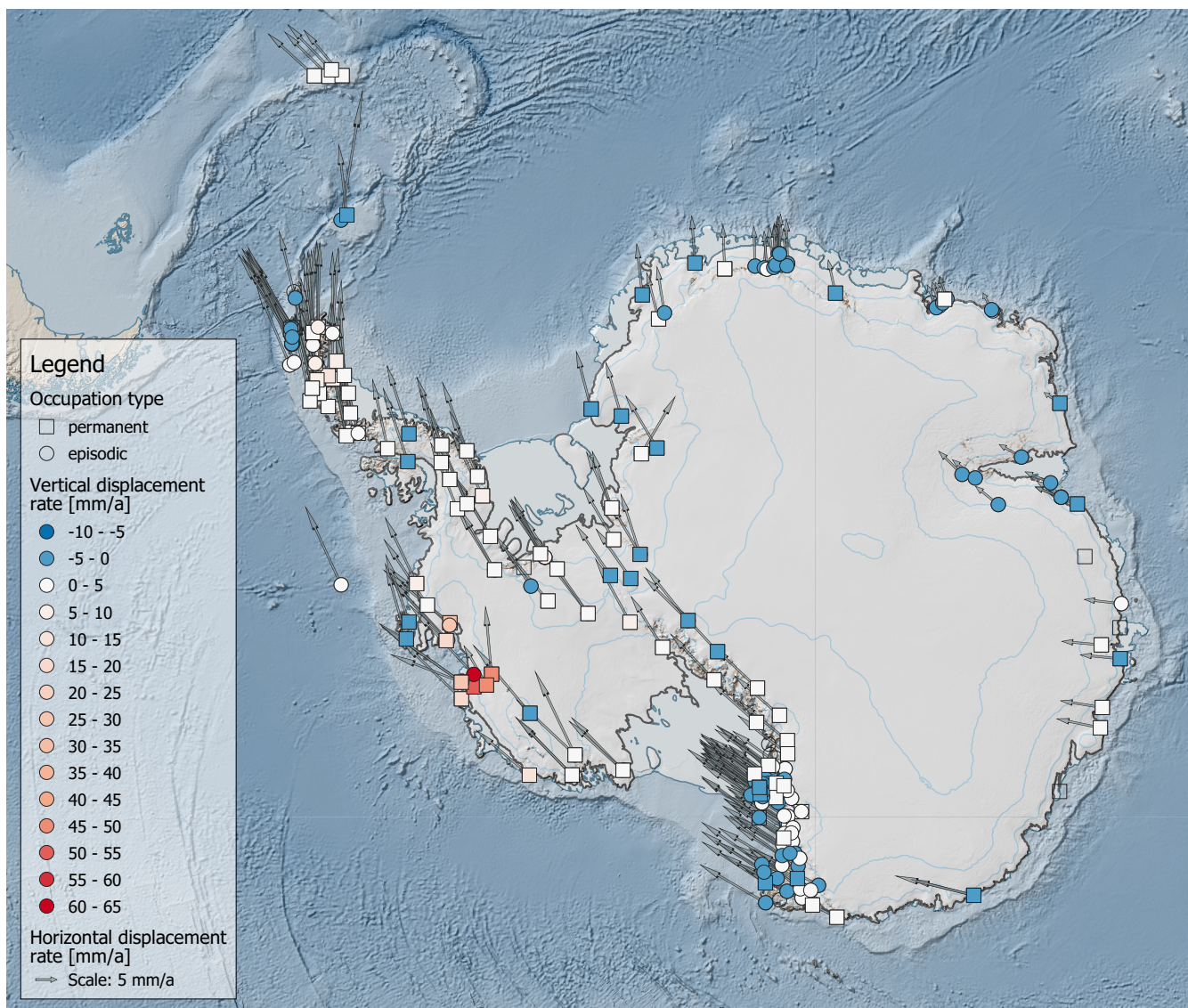
Figure 10. Horizontal and vertical displacement rates resulting from a preliminary analysis of the combined coordinate times series using the trajectory model as discussed above. Linear rates were estimated using the Hector software (Bos et al., 2013) using a flicker+white noise model. Only sites with a time base larger 2.5 yr and more than 10 data points were analysed. Note, that these rates still contain all geodynamic effects such as the response of the solid Earth to past and present-day ice-mass loading and unloading, or plate kinematics.