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Retrieving real-time co-seismic displacements using GPS/GLONASS: a preliminary report from the September 2015 $M_w$ 8.3 Illapel earthquake in Chile

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SUMMARY

Compared with a single GPS system, GPS/GLONASS observations can improve the satellite visibility, optimize the spatial geometry and improve the precise positioning performance. Although the advantage over GPS-only methods in terms of positioning is clear, the potential contributions of GPS/GLONASS to co-seismic displacement determination and the subsequent seismic source inversion still require extensive study and validation. In this paper, we first extended a temporal point positioning model from GPS-only to GPS/GLONASS observations. Using this new model, the performance of the GPS/GLONASS method for obtaining co-seismic displacements was then validated via eight outdoor experiments on a shaking table. Our result reveals that the GPS/GLONASS method provides more accurate and robust co-seismic displacements than the GPS-only observations in a non-optimal observation environment. Furthermore, as a case study, observation data recorded during the September 2015 $M_w$ 8.3 Illapel earthquake in Chile were re-processed. At some stations, obvious biases were found between the co-seismic displacements derived from GPS-only and GPS/GLONASS observations. The subsequent slip distribution inversion on a curved fault confirms that the differences in the co-seismic displacements causes differences in the inversion results and that the slip distributions of the Illapel earthquake inferred from the GPS/GLONASS observations tend to be shallower and larger.

Key words: Satellite geodesy; Transient deformation; Earthquake ground motions; Early warning.

1 INTRODUCTION

The potential of using GPS to retrieve co-seismic displacements was discussed as early as decades ago (see, e.g. Hirahara et al. 1994; Tsuji et al. 1995; Ge 1999; Ge et al. 2000). These early studies first experimentally demonstrated that GPS was able to capture transient co-seismic deformation. Following these pioneering studies, GPS has been widely exploited in monitoring seismic waveforms and extracting co-seismic offsets (see, e.g. Simons et al. 2002; Larson et al. 2003; Bock et al. 2004; Vigny et al. 2005; Banerjee et al. 2007). Consequently, an interdisciplinary subject of study, namely GPS seismology, was put forward (Larson 2009). Based on the near-real-time co-seismic displacements derived from GPS, seismic characteristics (e.g. magnitude, centroid location and slip distribution) can be inverted and can contribute to earthquake early warning and tsunami early warning systems, a current research hotspot (see, e.g. Blewitt et al. 2006; Sobolev et al. 2007; Allen & Ziv 2011; Li et al. 2013a,b; Melgar et al. 2013, 2016b; Melgar & Bock 2015; Riquelme et al. 2015). Compared with the traditional seismograph approach, the GPS sensor does not saturate and provides ground displacements without limits; thus, it is especially valuable for near-field tsunami early warning systems (Blewitt et al. 2009).

As a matter of fact, GPS is just one component of the Global Navigation Satellite Systems (GNSSs). With respect to the determination of co-seismic displacements, however, in most cases, only GPS is currently utilized. This is understandable considering that only GPS and the Global Navigation Satellite System (GLONASS) built by Russia currently offer global coverage. Moreover, GPS is the oldest and the most mature system, and the related error models and products, for example, satellite antenna phase centre offset, satellite orbit and clock biases, are the most precise. As a result, for many GNSS-based networks (e.g. GEONET in Japan and PBO in U.S.), most of the receivers have only received and recorded GPS signals over the past years.

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Currently, both GPS and GLONASS are undergoing modernization, and other navigation satellite systems, for example, Galileo built by the European Union and BeiDou built by China, have also been pilot tested or are providing regional service (see, e.g. Hofmann-Wellenhof et al. 2007; Yang et al. 2014). In total, there will be over 100 navigation satellites available, which improves observation redundancy significantly. Compared with a single system, a multi-GNSS can significantly improve the satellite visibility, optimize the spatial geometry, reduce dilution of precision and greatly benefit both scientific applications and engineering services (Li et al. 2015). Accordingly, the Multi-GNSS Experiment has been initiated by the International GNSS Service to pave the way for providing accurate products for all constellations (Montenbruck et al. 2014). Thus, the multi-GNSS era is coming.

While numerous previous studies have focused on using a single GPS system to obtain co-seismic displacements (see, e.g. Shi et al. 2010; Colosimo et al. 2011; Li et al. 2013a,b; Chen et al. 2015a), in this paper, we tested the performance of using GPS/GLONASS for co-seismic displacement retrieval and subsequent seismic source inversion as a pioneering case study of a multi-GNSS method for seismic hazard applications. In Section 2, the mathematical model of obtaining co-seismic displacements based on GPS/GLONASS observations is described. In Section 3, first, the results of eight outdoor experiments are shown for validation, then GPS/GLONASS data recorded during the September 2015 Illapel earthquake in Chile were re-processed and analysed in detail. In addition, the slip distribution inversion based on co-seismic offsets derived from GPS-only and GPS/GLONASS methods were conducted. Finally, Section 4 summarizes the main results and presents an outlook.
Figure 3. Displacements of the eight experiments retrieved from GPS/GLONASS, GPS-only and camera recordings.

2 GPS/GLONASS MODEL TO RETRIEVE REAL-TIME CO-SEISMIC DISPLACEMENTS

In the context of GPS/GLONASS constellations, the combined GPS+GLONASS observation model can be written as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
L_{G,ij}^r &= \rho_{rg}^G - t^G + t_r + \lambda_{ij}^G (b_{ij}^G - b_r^G) + \lambda_{ij}^N N_{ij}^r - \kappa_{ij}^G \cdot I_{r,1}^G + T_r^G + \varepsilon_{r,ij}^G \\
L_{R,k,ij}^r &= \rho_{rg}^R - t^R + t_r + \lambda_{kj,R}^G (b_{r,k}^R - b_r^R) + \lambda_{kj,R}^N N_{r,k}^R - \kappa_{r,k}^R \cdot I_{r,1}^R + T_r^R + \varepsilon_{r,ij}^R \\
P_{G,ij}^r &= \rho_{rg}^G - t^G + t_r + c (d_{r,G,j}^G - d_r^G) + \kappa_{ij}^G \cdot I_{r,1}^G + T_r^G + \varepsilon_{r,ij}^G \\
P_{R,k,ij}^r &= \rho_{rg}^R - t^R + t_r + c (d_{r,R,k}^R - d_r^R) + \kappa_{r,k}^R \cdot I_{r,1}^R + T_r^R + \varepsilon_{r,ij}^R 
\end{align*}
\]

(1)

where the indices \( G, R \) refer to the GPS and GLONASS systems, respectively, and \( R_k \) represents the GLONASS satellite with a frequency factor \( k \); \( r \) and \( j \) denote the receiver and frequency, respectively; \( \rho_{rg} \) is the geometric distance from the satellite to the receiver; \( t^G, t^R \) and \( t_r \) represent the clock biases; \( \lambda \) is the wavelength of the corresponding frequency; \( b \) is the receiver and satellite un-calibrated phase delay; \( N \) is the integer ambiguity; \( c \) is the speed of light in vacuum; \( d \) is the code biases for receiver and satellite; \( I \) is the ionospheric delay; \( T \) is the slant tropospheric delay; and \( \varepsilon \) is the sum of the measurement noise and multipath error for the carrier phase and pseudo-range observations. With regard to other error budgets, for example, tidal loading, phase centre offsets and variations, the phase wind-up must be corrected according to the existing models as well.

Please note, because the signal frequencies and structures are different for each system, the code biases \( d_{G,r}, d_{R,k} \) are also different in each GPS/GLONASS receiver. Specially, for GLONASS satellites with different frequency factors, the receiver code biases \( d_{r,k} \) are also different. To eliminate the differences between the receiver clock and code bias, the code bias for GPS satellites is usually set zero.
Eq. (1) can be rewritten as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
I_{r,j}^G &= -u^G_x \cdot t_r + \lambda_{jG}(b_{G,j} - b^G_j) + \rho_{jG}N_G^N - \kappa_{jG} \cdot I_{r,1}^G + T^G_j + \varepsilon^G_{r,j} \\
I_{r,j}^R &= -u^R_x \cdot t_r + \lambda_{jG}(b_{R,j} - b^R_j) + \rho_{jR}N_R^N - \kappa_{jR} \cdot I_{r,1}^R + T^R_j + \varepsilon^R_{r,j} \\
T_{r,j}^G &= -u^G_x \cdot t_r + c(d_{G,j} - d^G_j) + \rho_{jG} \cdot I_{r,1}^G + T^G_j + \varepsilon^G_{r,j} \\
T_{r,j}^R &= -u^R_x \cdot t_r + c(d_{R,j} - d^R_j) + \rho_{jR} \cdot I_{r,1}^R + T^R_j + \varepsilon^R_{r,j}
\end{align*}
\]

where \( I_{r,j}^G \) and \( I_{r,j}^R \) denote the ‘observed minus computed’ phase and pseudo-range observables, respectively. \( u^G_x \) denotes the unit vector from satellite \( s \) to receiver \( r \), and \( x \) denotes the vector of position increments relative to \textit{a priori} position \( x_0 \), which is used for linearization.

For Temporal Point Positioning (TPP), proposed by Li et al. (2013a), precise satellite orbits and clocks are used, and the related errors are neglected in the two equations. By taking into account that pseudo-ranges are used mainly for initializing receiver clock bias in precise positioning, they are omitted in the following equations for simplicity.

Following the TPP approach, assuming that the position increment at the epoch \( t_0 \) (before the earthquake) is \( x(t_0) \), the ambiguities \( N_{t_0} \) can be estimated along with the receiver clock \( t_r(t_0) \) and tropospheric delay \( T(t_0) \) (fixed to an \textit{a priori} model) at this epoch as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
t_r(t_0) + \lambda_{jG}(b_{G,j} - b^G_j) + \lambda_{jR}(b_{R,j} - b^R_j) + T(t_0) &= I_{r,j}^G(t_0) + u^G_x(t_0) \cdot x(t_0) - \varepsilon^G_{r,j}(t_0) \\
t_r(t_0) + \lambda_{jG}(b_{G,j} - b^G_j) + \lambda_{jR}(b_{R,j} - b^R_j) + T(t_0) &= I_{r,j}^R(t_0) + u^R_x(t_0) \cdot x(t_0) - \varepsilon^R_{r,j}(t_0)
\end{align*}
\]

Assuming that the ambiguities are unchanged over the time of interest, if an epoch difference is formed between \( t_0 \) and \( t_0 \) (after the earthquake breaks), we obtain the following:

\[
\begin{align*}
\Delta I_{r,j}^G(t_0, t_0) + u^G_x(t_0) \cdot x(t_0) - \varepsilon^G_{r,j}(t_0) &= u^G_x(t_0) \cdot x(t_0) - \Delta t_r(t_0, t_0) - \Delta T(t_0, t_0) \\
\Delta I_{r,j}^R(t_0, t_0) + u^R_x(t_0) \cdot x(t_0) - \varepsilon^R_{r,j}(t_0) &= u^R_x(t_0) \cdot x(t_0) - \Delta t_r(t_0, t_0) - \Delta T(t_0, t_0)
\end{align*}
\]

Here, we can see that it is cancelled out through epoch differencing, which is one special advantage that should be emphasized because the inter-system/inter-frequency bias does not have impact on the TPP strategy.
Real-time co-seismic displacements using GPS/GLONASS

Figure 5. Vertical displacements retrieved from the GPS/GLONASS and GPS-only data. Please note that the benchmark of the vertical displacements is zero.

Usually, the station position is precisely known (millimetre- to centimetre-level accuracy) for the epoch before the earthquake breaks, that is, \( x(t_0) \) can be treated as zero. Thus, eq. (4) can be rewritten as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
\Delta l_{G,i}(t_0, t_n) - \varepsilon_{G,i}(t_n) + \Delta T_{G}(t_0, t_n) &= u_{G,i}(t_n) \cdot x(t_n) - \Delta t(t_0, t_n) \\
\Delta l_{R,i}(t_0, t_n) - \varepsilon_{R,i}(t_n) + \Delta T_{R}(t_0, t_n) &= u_{R,i}(t_n) \cdot x(t_n) - \Delta t(t_0, t_n)
\end{align*}
\]

(5)

As clearly shown in eq. (5), the accuracy of the relative position change \( X(t_n) \) is mainly affected by variation in the tropospheric delay from epoch \( t_0 \) to \( t_n \). Promisingly, after correction with an empirical model (e.g. Saastamoinen 1972), the tropospheric delay residual is limited to several centimetres (Schüler 2014). Moreover, due to the spatial and temporal correlation, the tropospheric delay can be further reduced through epoch differencing. Thus, for a few tens of minutes, \( \Delta T(t_0, t_n) \) is expected to be at the centimetre level. Consequently, the estimation of \( x(t_n) \) is presumed to be at the centimetre level as well.

For weighting of the observations, the classical elevation-dependent model is adopted:

\[
P = \begin{cases} 
2 \cdot \sin(E) & E \leq 30^\circ \\
1 & E > 30^\circ
\end{cases}
\]

(6)

Here, \( E \) is the elevation angle. Finally, with regard to real-time precise GPS/GLONASS clock and orbit determinations, we follow the same procedure as described in (Li et al. 2015).

3 PERFORMANCE ASSESSMENT OF GPS/GLONASS FOR RETRIEVING REAL-TIME CO-SEISMIC DISPLACEMENTS

In this contribution, the application of GPS/GLONASS to obtain co-seismic displacements, was first analysed based on an outdoor experimental platform and then tested using data from the 2015 Illapel earthquake in Chile.

3.1 Outdoor experimental validation

To better validate the performance of GPS/GLONASS in retrieving co-seismic displacements, outdoor experimental 1 Hz GPS/GLONASS data recorded in December 2012 by Tu & Chen (2014) were first reprocessed in a real-time scenario and analysed in detail. The antenna was
pushed forward and backward along a horizontal straight track (see Fig. 1). In total, there were eight individual experiments with movements of different frequencies and amplitudes. For comparison, the antenna motion was also captured by a camera at 25 fps (frames per second) with a pixel resolution of 3 mm, and the displacements revealed from the camera were set as benchmarks.

As a precise position of the station before the movement is crucial for the TPP method, 3 hr of GPS/GLONASS data collected before the motion started was processed in static PPP mode to obtain cm level antenna position. Then, GPS-only data and GPS/GLONASS data were processed using TPP. The sky view of the observed satellites during the experimental period is depicted in Fig. 2. As clearly shown,
the GPS-only satellites show a good geometry with nine evenly distributed GPS satellites in view. Taking into account that the camera recorded total displacements, we converted the east–west and north–south motion components derived from GPS and GPS/GLONASS to displacements.

The corresponding results are shown in Fig. 3. The displacements from the GPS/GLONASS, GPS-only and camera recordings show a high degree of consistency. Setting the camera recordings as the benchmarks, the horizontal displacement differences are shown in Fig. 4, and the vertical displacement differences are shown in Fig. 5. The statistical accuracies of the GPS/GLONASS and GPS-only data are both 0.012 m in the horizontal and are 0.017 and 0.018 m in the vertical, respectively.

However, an optimal distribution of GPS satellites similar to this study cannot always be guaranteed in practice. To simulate adverse observation conditions, two GPS satellites were excluded (see in Fig. 2), and the new TPP results from GPS/GLONASS and GPS-only are presented in Figs 6 and 7. Not surprisingly, the displacements feature more evident differences between the GPS-only and camera observations. Nonetheless, the GPS/GLONASS results are more robust and closer to the benchmark. As a matter of fact, in this scenario, the accuracies
of the GPS/GLONASS and GPS-only data are 0.013 and 0.018 m, respectively, for the horizontal components and 0.020 and 0.029 m, respectively, for the vertical components.

Through the outdoor experiments, it is concluded that GLONASS contributes slightly to positioning accuracy in situations where sufficient GPS satellites are tracked. However, when positioning is conducted in adverse conditions, for example, GPS signal blockages, adding a couple of GLONASS satellites can improve the GPS satellite geometry and consequently improve positioning reliability, availability and accuracy significantly.

3.2 A case study of the September 2015 $M_w$ 8.3 Illapel earthquake in Chile

While many earthquakes have been recorded by real-time GPS arrays and analysed intensively by previous studies, few have been recorded by GPS/GLONASS arrays. Thus, limited data are available for validation of the GPS/GLONASS combination performance. In this paper, our example is observation data from the 2015 September 16 $M_w$ 8.3 Illapel earthquake, and the high-rate GPS/GLONASS data were provided by the Centro Sismológico Nacional, Universidad de Chile. The megathrust event occurred at 22:54 (UTC) as the result of thrust faulting along the interface between the Nazca and South America plates in central Chile. A notable tsunami was triggered and observed along the coast of Coquimbo and the cities of Coquimbo (http://www.ioc-sealevelmonitoring.org/).

In total, 23 continuous GPS/GLONASS stations with excellent spatial coverage near the epicentre (see Fig. 8) were replayed using TPP in a simulated real-time mode, and the precise GPS/GLONASS orbit and clock data were calculated using the Position And Navigation Data Analysis (PANDA) software following the strategies described in Li et al. (2015). On average, the number of visible satellites during this period increased from eight (GPS-only) to fourteen (GPS/GLONASS). To extract permanent deformation from the derived displacement waveforms, we applied a 100 s moving average to each displacement record in each coordinate component. The static displacements were determined on-the-fly by differencing the average value and the nominal starting position (position at 10 s before the theoretical $P$-wave arrival time), and the process lasted until differences between the neighbouring obtained static offsets were less than 1 cm. The displacement waveforms and final permanent displacements from GPS/GLONASS are shown in Figs 8 and 9. Moreover, the differences between displacements obtained from GPS/GLONASS and from GPS-only are shown in Fig. 10.

Fig. 8 clearly shows that the co-seismic offsets at most of the stations are not obvious (less than 5 cm), whereas the four stations located closest to the epicentre experienced more significant shaking. Fig. 10 indicates that the scale of the co-seismic offset differences vary from station to station. At some stations, the differences are negligible. However, the biases could be up to 2 cm in the horizontal direction and almost 3 cm in the vertical direction at some other stations. To explore the possible reasons, the stations LNQM (where the difference is small) and TAMR (where the difference is large) are analysed in detail. In Figs 11 and 12, we show the satellite sky views at station LNQM.
Real-time co-seismic displacements using GPS/GLONASS

Figure 11. Sky view of station LNQM and co-seismic displacements retrieved from the GPS/GLONASS and GPS observations, together with PDOP.

and TAMR together with the co-seismic displacement waveforms derived from the GPS/GLONASS and GPS-only observations. In addition, positional dilution of precision (PDOP) is also present.

As Figs 11 and 12 show, for station LNQM, there were eight GPS satellites observed during the earthquake time, and the PDOP is 2.7 on average, which indicate ideal observation conditions. In this case, even though adding seven GLONASS satellites can reduce PDOP to 2.1 on average, there are almost no differences in the co-seismic displacement waveform retrieval. In contrast, at station TAMR, six GPS satellites were tracked, and the PDOP is 3.2 on average. Having four more GLONASS satellites in view improves the constellation geometry greatly (PDOP is reduced to 2.2 on average), leading to biases in the co-seismic displacement retrieval.
3.3 Slip distribution inversions

For a geo-hazard early warning system, a high-resolution slip model should be inverted once the near-field co-seismic offsets are determined, thereby playing an important role further in other applications, for example, tsunami early warning and seismic hazard assessments. As the results show in Section 3.2, clear differences were observed between the static offsets based on the GPS/GLONASS and GPS-only observations. To determine how and to what extent these differences affect the inferred slip distribution, several inversions were performed and the results were compared. Constrained by the solved co-seismic displacements, the well-developed Steepest Descent Method (Wang et al. 2009, 2013) inversion code was applied to invert for slip distribution on a predefined 3-D plate interface. A curved fault geometry, inferred from the SLAB 1.0 model (Hayes et al. 2012), was assumed to be the rupture fault and was then discretized into 330 rectangular fault patches. The layered crustal model CRUST 5.1 (Mooney et al. 1998) was implemented beneath the surface stations to compute the Green’s
function. We used the trade-off curve method as described in Diao et al. (2011) to fix the smoothing factor in the inversion. The final slip distributions inverted from co-seismic offsets are shown in Fig. 13.

The derived slip models are generally consistent in terms of moment magnitude, rupture scales and location. The moment magnitude of the earthquake inferred from GPS-only observations is 8.22, with a max slip of 3.91 m and a mean slip of 0.49 m. In comparison, the inverted moment magnitude from GPS/GLONASS observations is slightly larger (8.25), with a max slip of 4.50 m and a mean slip of 0.57 m. Most importantly, the latter slip distributions tend to be shallower and towards the trench, which may produce a greater tsunami wave height in the scenario of a geo-hazard early warning system.

In addition, both slip models fit the observed data pretty well. To be exact, for the GPS-only case, the root mean square (RMS) residuals in the north–south, east–west and vertical directions are 0.8, 0.9 and 2.6 cm, respectively. For the GPS/GLONASS case, the RMS residuals are 0.7, 0.8 and 1.6 cm, respectively. In general, the model predictions better explain the observations from GPS/GLONASS in the vertical direction, suggesting a higher observation precision of this system.

4 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

In this study, we extended the TPP from GPS-only to GPS/GLONASS observations and tested the performances of the GPS/GLONASS in co-seismic displacement retrieval through outdoor experiments. Compared with the GPS-only system, GPS/GLONASS has more visible satellites and optimizes the constellation spatial geometry, and it has the advantage of providing more robust and accurate co-seismic displacements, especially when the GPS-only observations are not ideal.

The case study of the September 2015 Illapel earthquake in Chile reveals that the biases between the co-seismic displacements derived from GPS-only and GPS/GLONASS observations vary from station to station and could be up to 2 cm in the horizontal direction and almost 3 cm in the vertical direction. The analyses show that there is an evident relationship between the bias scales and the satellites observed. For example, when only six GPS satellites were tracked and the PDOP of the GPS-only observations is relatively large, adding several GLONASS satellites can lead to significant differences in the co-seismic displacement determination. Considering the results from the outdoor experiments, we believe that the co-seismic displacements obtained from GPS/GLONASS are closer to the true values.

Subsequent slip distribution inversion on a curved fault confirms that the differences in the co-seismic displacements cause variations in the inversion results. The slip distributions of the Illapel earthquake inferred from the GPS/GLONASS observations tend to be shallower and larger, which implies a greater tsunami impact. Nonetheless, it should also be noted that for the slip distribution inversions, besides co-seismic displacements, there are other options that can affect the inversion results, for example, the inversion algorithm implemented, the GPS/GLONASS array distribution, and the fault geometry. However, it should mentioned that the inversion results shown in Section 3.3 were derived from the same inversion frame (fault geometry, earth structure and inversion parameter). For example, if we use a single rectangular fault and run the inversion again, the differences are found to be negligible (see Fig. 14). However, it should be mentioned that the inversion results shown in Section 3.3 were derived from a more realistic inversion frame (a curved fault geometry and a layered earth structure). The only difference is the input co-seismic displacements captured by the GPS/GLONASS system and GPS-only system. We therefore infer that the differences between the inverted slip models are mainly induced by input observations, which highlights the importance of utilizing more precise observations.
Figure 14. Slip inversions based on co-seismic displacements from GPS and GPS/GLONASS on a single fault consisting of $23 \times 9$ uniform patches. The length and width of the fault are 450 and 190 km, respectively. The strike angle is set as $4^\circ$, and the dip angle is set as $19^\circ$. The red vectors denote observed co-seismic static offsets, and the black ones represent synthetic values.

Furthermore, other inversion results (e.g. Melgar et al. 2016a) show observable differences compared with our results in terms of peak slip and detailed slip pattern, though the rupture scale and moment magnitude show general agreement. They carried out a joint inversion by employing local high-rate GPS records, strong motion seismograms, InSAR data and tide gauge records, which should yield a more comprehensive model. However, perhaps only a few sources of data (high-rate GPS data and strong motion seismograms) are available for near-real-time inversions, and the resolution of inversion results (as shown by this study) may suffer from the limited dataset. To provide a rapid response and tsunami early warning, a more robust estimation of rupture scale and moment magnitude is perhaps imperative (Diao et al. 2016), whereas more details are necessary for studies on rupture dynamics. In fact, as the recent work of Melgar et al. (2016a,b) and Chen et al. (2016) shows, if we just focus on tsunami early warning, the tsunami scenarios are similar, in spite of the differences in source inversions.

Because GLONASS employs Frequency Division Multiple Access for signal transmission, which leads to integer ambiguity resolution difficulty, the accuracy of the obtained GLONASS orbit and clock data is not as good as that of GPS. Recently, Liu et al. (2015) proposed a new method to improve the GLONASS precise orbit determination, and it is expected to improve GPS/GLONASS precise positioning.

In addition to GPS/GLONASS, recent studies (Chen et al. 2015b; Geng et al. 2015) have demonstrated the feasibility of using BeiDou for earthquake and tsunami monitoring in the Asia-Pacific region. The TPP model can be easily extended to the GPS/GLONASS/BeiDou/GALILEO systems once data recorded during earthquake by the four systems is publicly available, and the application of multi-GNSS for geo-hazard monitoring could then be evaluated.

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