

# Passive-ocean radial basis function approach to improve temporal gravity recovery from GRACE observations

Fan Yang<sup>1,2</sup>, Jürgen Kusche<sup>2</sup>, Ehsan Forootan<sup>3</sup>, and Roelof Rietbroek<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>School of Physics, Huazhong University of Science and Technology, Wuhan, China

<sup>2</sup>Institute of Geodesy and Geoinformation, University of Bonn, Bonn, Germany

<sup>3</sup>School of Earth and Ocean Science, Cardiff University, Cardiff, United Kingdom

## Key Points:

- Radial basis function approach for GRACE gravity recovery
- Accounting for the passive ocean response in the gravity recovery
- More accurate coastal gravity modelling

11      **Abstract**

12      We present a new state-of-the-art of passive-ocean Modified Radial Basis Functions (MRBFs) that  
 13      improves the recovery of time-variable gravity fields from GRACE. As is well known, spherical  
 14      harmonics (SHs), which are commonly used to estimate GRACE level 2 gravity field products, are  
 15      orthogonal basis functions with global coverage. However, the chosen SH truncation involves a  
 16      global compromise between data coverage and obtainable resolution, and strong localized signals,  
 17      such as melting glaciers, may not be fully captured. Radial basis functions (RBFs) provide another  
 18      representation, which has been proposed in earlier works as being better suited to retrieve regional  
 19      gravity signals. In this paper, we propose a MRBF approach by embedding the known coastal  
 20      geometries in the RBF parameterization and imposing global mass conservation and equilibrium  
 21      behavior of the oceans. Our hypothesis is that, with this physically justified constraint, the GRACE-  
 22      derived gravity signals can be more realistically partitioned into the land and ocean contributions  
 23      along the coastlines. The numerical results from GRACE level 1b data inversion indicate that: (1)  
 24      MRBF-based gravity modelling reduces the number of parameters by approximately 10%, and allows  
 25      for more flexible regularization when compared to ordinary RBF solutions; and (2) the resulting  
 26      MRBF mass flux is shown to better confine the coastal mass variability within the continents. The  
 27      latter is particularly tested in the Southern Greenland, and our results indicate that the trend of  
 28      mass loss from the MRBF solution is approximately 11% larger than that from the SH solution, and  
 29      approximately 4% ~ 6% larger than that from the RBF solution.

30      **1 Introduction of the gravity recovery**

31      Since the launch of Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment (GRACE) space gravity mission,  
 32      jointly by NASA and DLR in 2002 with a planned 5-year lifetime [Tapley *et al.*, 2004], GRACE  
 33      products have been widely used in a number of disciplines to study geophysical processes including  
 34      earthquake events, melting of ice sheets, as well as oceanic and hydrologic processes [see e.g., Kusche  
 35      *et al.*, 2012; Wouters *et al.*, 2014]. The majority of these studies relied on the monthly estimates of  
 36      the Earth's gravity fields, which are publicly available as Level-2 (L2) products released by Center  
 37      for Space Research at the University of Texas (CSR), NASA's Jet Propulsion Laboratory (JPL), and  
 38      the German Research Center for Geosciences Potsdam (GFZ), in the form of fully normalized Stokes  
 39      coefficients [Bettadpur, 2012; Dahle *et al.*, 2014; Watkins and Yuan, 2012]. However, a significant  
 40      problem that users of these products face is the presence of correlated and resolution-dependent  
 41      noise in the Stokes coefficients [Kusche, 2007], which manifests itself as “striping” errors in the  
 42      spatial domain. Therefore, various filtering techniques have to be applied before any geophysical

43 interpretation can be made, for example: (i) applying post-processing filtering on already computed  
 44 L2 products; (ii) regularizing the conversion of level-1b (L1b) to L2 products [e.g., *Bruinsma et al.*,  
 45 2010; *Save et al.*, 2012].

46 Designing filters have been extensively addressed in the literature, for instance the implementa-  
 47 tion of the isotropic filter [*Jekeli*, 1981] or more sophisticated anisotropic filters that decorrelate the  
 48 Stokes coefficients [e.g., *Swenson and Wahr*, 2006; *Kusche*, 2007]. After filtering, however, mass  
 49 estimations from GRACE L2 products still contain errors due to the spectral and spatial leakage.  
 50 The spectral leakage is mainly due to the truncation of the Stokes coefficients (at d/o 60, 90 or 120  
 51 in the official products), whereas the spatial leakage is mainly introduced by filtering techniques as  
 52 most of the available filtering methods contain an averaging kernel that attenuates the magnitude of  
 53 mass signals accompanied by a possible contamination from neighboring signals. Both classes of  
 54 leakage errors will lead to a smearing of the actual signals in gravity products because the spatial  
 55 resolution is not sufficient to capture the processes accurately. In particular, in coastal regions this is  
 56 a concern as the ocean and land signals are expected to behave very differently, and a signal mixing is  
 57 undesirable. The state-of-the-art approaches to compensate for signal attenuation due to the spatial  
 58 leakage mainly comprise post-processing of L2 Stokes coefficients, such as the scale factor method  
 59 [e.g., *Landerer and Swenson*, 2012; *Long et al.*, 2015] or forward modelling [*Chen et al.*, 2006]. Yet,  
 60 here we suggest accounting for the leakage correction while inverting L1b data to L2 products. Our  
 61 work is inspired by *Clarke et al.* [2007], who proposed an application of the sea level equation [see  
 62 e.g., *Dahlen*, 1976; *Blewitt and Clarke*, 2003] in the SH domain to derive a set of more representative  
 63 basis functions, which helps to distinguish mass signals distributed over the land and the oceans in  
 64 the inversion of geodetic site displacement data. This will serve as the foundation for the proposed  
 65 regional base function approach.

66 Previous studies addressed the selection of proper basis function as an alternative to the SH  
 67 approach [see e.g., *Klees et al.*, 2008]. As for instance, the regional geopotential representations by  
 68 the radial basis functions (RBF) [see e.g., *Schmidt et al.*, 2007; *Eicker*, 2008; *Eicker et al.*, 2013] and  
 69 mass concentrations (mascon) [see e.g., *Luthcke et al.*, 2006, 2013; *Rowlands et al.*, 2010], have been  
 70 suggested to be conveniently tailored to the signal characteristics of the specific areas of interest. This  
 71 feature allows distributing a special type of basis functions along the coastlines, where the spatial  
 72 leakage is expected to appear, and trying to mitigate it within the GRACE L1b inversion rather  
 73 than later within the post processing filtering of L2 products. Only recently, *Luthcke et al.* [2013]  
 74 and *Watkins et al.* [2015] introduced a mass-redistribution step into the mascon parameterization,  
 75 which aims to more accurately define the coastlines and therefore reduce the spatial leakage. This

76 step in JPL RL05M mascon model is described as an algorithm to redistribute the mass within a  
 77 land/ocean mascon (that is placed across coastlines) independently to the land and ocean portions of  
 78 the particular mascon. This mass redistribution however contains no physical interpretation unlike  
 79 the implementation of the sea level equation in *Clarke et al.* [2007].

80 For the first time in this study, we present the parameterization of gravity field recovery using  
 81 passive-ocean RBFs that are constrained by the sea level equation to account for the spatial leakage.  
 82 We will particularly show that the application of this method is beneficial along the coastal regions,  
 83 where considerable spatial leakage smears the actual signals in gravity recovery using the SH or  
 84 ordinary RBF representation. It is worth mentioning that the RBFs generally comprise two classes:  
 85 (i) an analytic expression of e.g., point mass as in *Baur and Sneeuw* [2011] and the Abel-Poisson  
 86 wavelet as in *Schmidt et al.* [2005], and (ii) the so called “band-limited” RBF, which is expressed in a  
 87 finite spherical harmonic expansion with its spectral behavior generally controlled by a shape kernel  
 88 such as Shannon, Blackman windows [e.g., *Bentel et al.*, 2013; *Naeimi*, 2013], and harmonic spline  
 89 functions [*Eicker*, 2008]. Both classes of RBF parameterization have been applied for GRACE L1b  
 90 inversion [see e.g., *Schmidt et al.*, 2006, 2007; *Wittwer*, 2009; *Gunter et al.*, 2012]. However, prior  
 91 to this study no attempt has been undertaken to account for the leakage correction during the RBF  
 92 parameterization.

93 The proposed passive-ocean RBF is modified from the band-limited RBF class, with the con-  
 94 straint imposed by the sea level equation in three steps: (1) the continental surface mass load is first  
 95 subtracted from each individual RBF, (2) the passive ocean response to the continental load is then  
 96 calculated according to the sea level equation, and (3) the continental load and oceanic response are  
 97 summed to form the modified RBF (MRBF). Our hypothesis is that, the recovered gravity fields via  
 98 this proposed MRBF allow variability of the load over the continents, and simultaneously impose  
 99 global mass conservation and equilibrium behavior of the oceans. The contributions of this paper  
 100 are twofold: (i) mathematically, we show how an ordinary RBF can be modified and constrained by  
 101 the sea level equation (i.e., here, generating the MRBF), and (ii) an alternative time series of monthly  
 102 constrained gravity fields in terms of MRBF is now available, and we illustrate that it captures the  
 103 coastal gravity signals with less spatial leakage compared to the ordinary RBF and SH solutions.

104 The paper is organized as follows: In Section 2, the theory of RBF modelling and MRBF  
 105 construction is described. The GRACE L1b processing chain in our in-house gravity field analysis  
 106 software (called *Hawk*) is outlined in Section 3. Based on this platform, we calculate the monthly  
 107 gravity products in terms of SH (*Hawk-SH*), RBF (*Hawk-RBF*), and MRBF (*Hawk-MRBF*). In

108     Section 4, a case study on May 2009 is conducted to illustrate the numerical stability and efficiency  
 109     of the MRBF. In Section 5, the numerical results for the SH and (M)RBF gravity models are presented.  
 110     Finally, Section 6 provides a brief summary of the main findings of the study and an outlook of the  
 111     potential development of the presented MRBF method.

## 112     2 Methods

### 113     2.1 Radial basis function modelling

114     The most general form of a band-limited RBF  $\Phi_i(\Omega_i, \Omega)$ , located at the geographic position  
 115      $\Omega_i$  on the sphere, is defined as a finite SH series [Eicker, 2008] as

$$116 \quad \Phi_i(\Omega_i, \Omega) = \frac{GM}{R} \sum_{n=2}^{N_{max}} \left( \frac{R}{r} \right)^{n+1} \phi_n \sum_{m=-n}^n Y_{nm}(\Omega_i) Y_{nm}(\Omega) , \quad (1)$$

117     where  $\Omega$  is the geographic position of an arbitrary point,  $r$  is the distance from the geocenter,  $GM$   
 118     is the Earth constant parameter,  $R$  is the mean radius of the Earth, and  $Y_{nm}$  is the SH of truncation  
 119     degree  $n$  and order  $m$ . In particular, the shape coefficients  $\phi_n$  that define the shape of the RBF,  
 120     and the truncated degree  $N_{max}$  that relates to the bandwidth of RBF, are the most critical factors  
 121     to determine the spectral behavior of the RBF. To date, there are various RBFs in use for gravity  
 122     recovery, of which the simplest is defined by the Shannon kernel [Keller, 2004]:

$$123 \quad \phi_n = \begin{cases} 1 & n \in [2, N_{max}] \\ 0 & n, elsewhere \end{cases} . \quad (2)$$

124     This Shannon kernel with  $N_{max} = 90$  is also employed in our study to construct the RBF, since it  
 125     does not impose additional smoothness constraints in the spectral domain. Subsequently, we model  
 126     the gravity field  $V(\Omega)$  using this set of RBFs distributed on the sphere, as follows:

$$127 \quad V(\Omega) = \sum_{i=1}^{I_{max}} a_i \Phi_i(\Omega_i, \Omega) , \quad (3)$$

128     with those scaling parameters  $a_i$  found by least-squares adjustment from GRACE L1b observations.  
 129     In particular, the parameter  $I_{max}$  defines the number of RBFs distributed on the Earth surface in  
 130     a given network geometry. Since the icosahedral gridding [Sadourny *et al.*, 1968] in the level of  
 131      $I_{max} = 9002$  enables a relatively uniform and sufficiently dense coverage on the sphere, it is chosen  
 132     to construct our RBF gridding network.

## 133 2.2 Developing the modified radial basis function(MRBF)

134 RBFs are entirely isotropic, according to their definition (Eq. (1)). Yet, ocean mass represented  
 135 by isotropic RBFs does not account for the passive ocean response [e.g., *Dahlen*, 1976] that land  
 136 load causes and that has a significant effect along coastlines. Our hypothesis is that by developing an  
 137 anisotropic MRBF that accurately models this response we will be able to separate land and ocean  
 138 mass signals and more adequately reduce possible leakage.

139 It should be kept in mind that the RBF by Eq. (1) describes potential changes, while adding the  
 140 underlying spatial constraint has to be applied at the level of the surface mass distribution. Therefore,  
 141 each potential function RBF  $\Phi_i(\Omega_i, \Omega)$  is transformed first to the function of EWH (Equivalent-Water  
 142 Height) by  $\Psi_i(\Omega_i, \Omega)$  that represents the surface mass [e.g., *Wahr et al.*, 1998] as follows,

$$143 \Psi_i(\Omega_i, \Omega) = \sum_{n=2}^{N_{max}} \frac{R\rho_e}{3\rho_s} \frac{2n+1}{1+k_n} \phi_n \sum_{m=-n}^n Y_{nm}(\Omega_i) Y_{nm}(\Omega) , \quad (4)$$

144 where  $\rho_e$  denotes the average Earth density,  $\rho_s$  denotes the sea water density and  $k_n$  is the elastic  
 145 load Love number (LLN) for degree  $n$ . The LLNs from *Wang et al.* [2012] are used in this study.

146 One can observe from Eq. (4) that, any physical constraint added to  $Y_{nm}(\Omega)$  will ultimately  
 147 transfer to  $\Psi_i(\Omega_i, \Omega)$  via a linear transformation. This finding suggests a directly modifying  $Y_{nm}(\Omega)$   
 148 rather than  $\Psi_i(\Omega_i, \Omega)$ , since  $Y_{nm}(\Omega)$  is free of the quantity  $\Omega_i$  that varies with the gridding type.  
 149 Consequently, before the  $\Psi_i(\Omega_i, \Omega)$  being investigated, we first need to introduce constraint of the sea  
 150 level equation into  $Y_{nm}(\Omega)$ , to creat a new set of functions  $B_{nm}(\Omega)$  that consistently and accurately  
 151 represent the surface mass load. Here, we follow the approach proposed by *Clarke et al.* [2007] to  
 152 derive them.

153 In the first step, we form an initial basis  $B'_{nm}(\Omega)$  (representing the continental load) by applying  
 154 the ocean mask  $C(\Omega)$ , a function defined to be zero over the continents and unity over the oceans, to  
 155 the spherical harmonic  $Y_{nm}(\Omega)$ , following

$$156 B'_{nm}(\Omega) = (1 - C(\Omega)) \cdot Y_{nm}(\Omega) \approx \sum_{j=0}^{N_{max}} \sum_{k=-j}^j b'_{nm,jk} Y_{jk}(\Omega) . \quad (5)$$

157 The coefficients  $b'_{nm,jk}$  are derived from the product-to-sum operator that comes from the Wigner- $3j$   
 158 symbol [*Rasch and Yu*, 2004] in combination with the SH expansion coefficients of the ocean func-  
 159 tion. As pointed out by [*Blewitt et al.*, 2005; *Clarke et al.*, 2007], the evaluation of  $b'_{nm,jk}$  up to  
 160 degree and order 90 ( $N_{max} = 90$ ) requires the availability of the ocean coefficients up to twice the  
 161  $N_{max}$  (i.e. 180). Otherwise, an omission error likely appears.

In addition to the continental (dynamic) load  $B'_{nm}(\Omega)$ , the total time-variable load exerted on the Earth also comprises the oceanic response, introducing a passive oceanic load  $S_{nm}(\Omega)$ . This term follows the ‘sea level equation’, prescribing that the oceanic passive load is in hydrostatic equilibrium with the gravitational potential field due to the total (dynamic plus passive) load [Clarke *et al.*, 2005]. This mathematically enforces that (i) the degree-zero terms of  $S_{nm}(\Omega)$  and  $B'_{nm}(\Omega)$  cancel out so that total mass load is conserved, and (ii) the remaining harmonic coefficients of  $S_{nm}(\Omega)$  yield to the input load  $B'_{nm}(\Omega)$  in the form of

$$S_{nm}(\Omega) = \xi(B'_{nm}(\Omega)) = \sum_{j=0}^{N_{max}} \sum_{k=-j}^j s_{nm,jk} Y_{jk}(\Omega) , \quad (6)$$

where  $\xi$  represents the operator that solves the sea level equation in the spectral domain, and the  $s_{nm,jk}$  are the Stokes coefficients that should be estimated. Further details on the sea level equation and its solution can be found in e.g. Dahlen [1976], Spada and Stocchi [2007] as well as the provided electronic supporting material.

In the final step, we correct the  $B'_{nm}(\Omega)$  by adding the passive oceanic load  $S_{nm}(\Omega)$ , and form the “self-consistent” base  $B_{nm}(\Omega)$ , which therefore enforces global mass conservation and simultaneously separates ocean signals from land load. With a summation of Eq. (5) and Eq. (6),  $B_{nm}(\Omega)$  is represented in an expansion of SHs, given by

$$B_{nm}(\Omega) = B'_{nm}(\Omega) + S_{nm}(\Omega) = \sum_{j=1}^{N_{max}} \sum_{k=-j}^j b_{nm,jk} Y_{jk}(\Omega) , \quad (7)$$

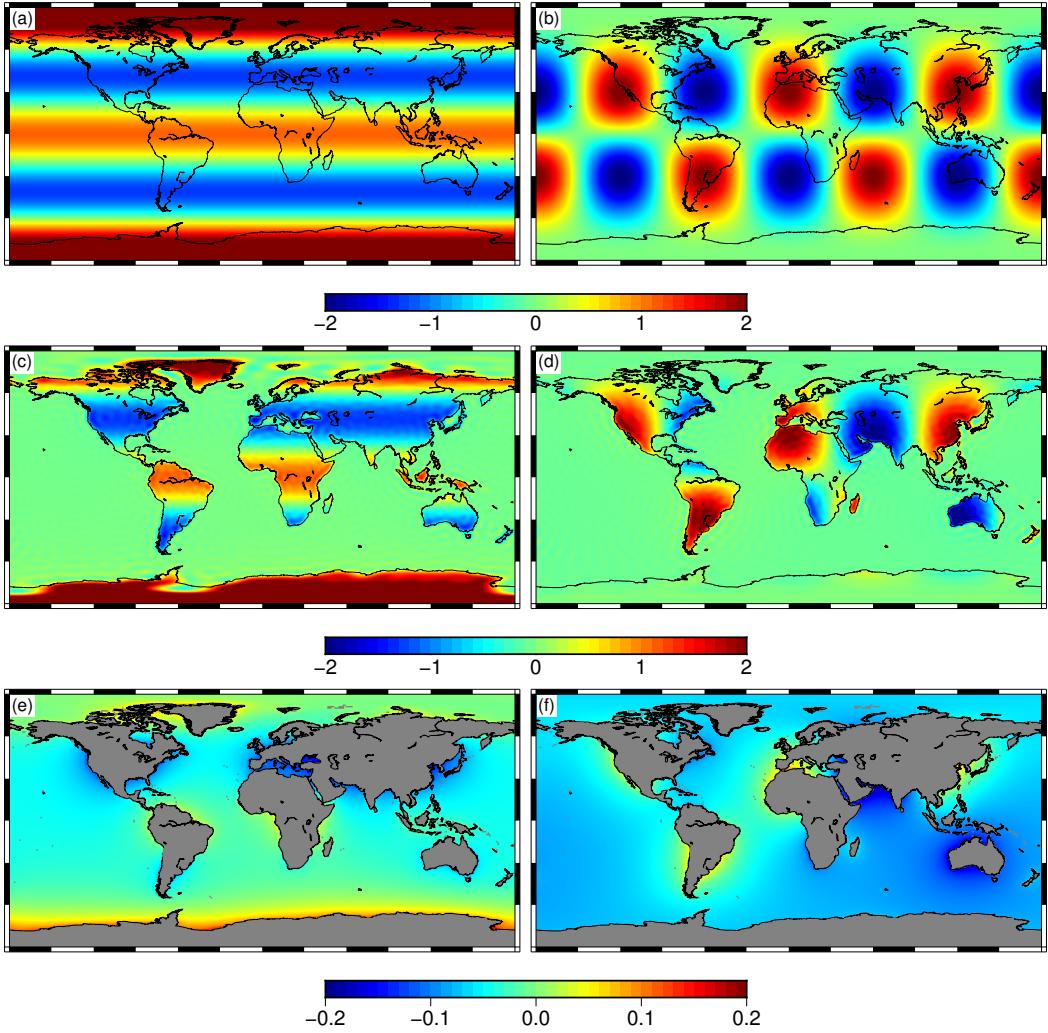
$$b_{nm,jk} = b'_{nm,jk} + s_{nm,jk} .$$

As shown here by a number of examples ( $Y_{4,0}, B_{4,0}, S_{4,0}$ ), ( $Y_{4,3}, B_{4,3}, S_{4,3}$ ) in Fig. 1, the physical constraints built inside the  $B_{nm}$  do take effect and successfully distinguish between the land and ocean. Nevertheless, our ultimate objective is to transform the constraints into the radial basis functions. Having  $B_{nm}(\Omega)$  from Eq. (7), we replace them in Eq. (4), which yields

$$\Psi_i^{new}(\Omega_i, \Omega) = \sum_{n=2}^{N_{max}} \frac{R\rho_e}{3\rho_s} \frac{2n+1}{1+k_n} \phi_n \sum_{m=-n}^n Y_{nm}(\Omega_i) B_{nm}(\Omega) \quad (8)$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{N_{max}} \sum_{k=-j}^j \left\{ \sum_{n=2}^{N_{max}} \sum_{m=-n}^n \frac{R\rho_e}{3\rho_s} \frac{2n+1}{1+k_n} \phi_n Y_{nm}(\Omega_i) b_{nm,jk} \right\} Y_{jk}(\Omega) .$$

In this manner, the revised surface mass distribution  $\Psi_i^{new}(\Omega_i, \Omega)$  automatically inherits the physical constraint within  $B_{nm}(\Omega)$ , so that  $\Psi_i^{new}(\Omega_i, \Omega)$  is self-consistent as well. Furthermore, the modified radial basis function (MRBF), shown by  $\Phi_i^{new}(\Omega_i, \Omega)$ , can be obtained by converting the



179 **Figure 1.** Spherical harmonics  $Y_{nm}$  and the respective self-consistent bases  $B_{nm}$  as well as the passive ocean  
180 response  $S_{nm}$ : (a)(c)(e) are  $Y_{4,0}$ ,  $B_{4,0}$ ,  $S_{4,0}$ , respectively; and (b)(d)(f) are  $Y_{4,3}$ ,  $B_{4,3}$ ,  $S_{4,3}$ , respectively.

189 surface mass distribution  $\Psi_i^{new}(\Omega_i, \Omega)$  into a potential function, such that

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi_i^{new}(\Omega_i, \Omega) &= \frac{GM}{R} \sum_{j=1}^{N_{max}} \left(\frac{R}{r}\right)^{j+1} \frac{\rho_s}{R\rho_e} \frac{1+k_j}{2j+1} \sum_{k=-j}^j \left( \sum_{n=2}^{N_{max}} \sum_{m=-n}^n \frac{R\rho_e}{3\rho_s} \frac{2n+1}{1+k_n} \phi_n Y_{nm}(\Omega_i) b_{nm,jk} \right) Y_{jk}(\Omega) \\ &= \frac{GM}{R} \sum_{j=1}^{N_{max}} \left(\frac{R}{r}\right)^{j+1} \sum_{k=-j}^j \left( \sum_{n=2}^{N_{max}} \sum_{m=-n}^n \frac{1+k_j}{2j+1} \frac{2n+1}{1+k_n} \phi_n Y_{nm}(\Omega_i) b_{nm,jk} \right) Y_{jk}(\Omega) , \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

190 from which the summation is found to begin from degree-one ( $j = 1$ ) rather than from degree-two.  
191 Therefore, the degree-one terms are added in our inversion as well. But on the other hand, as current  
192

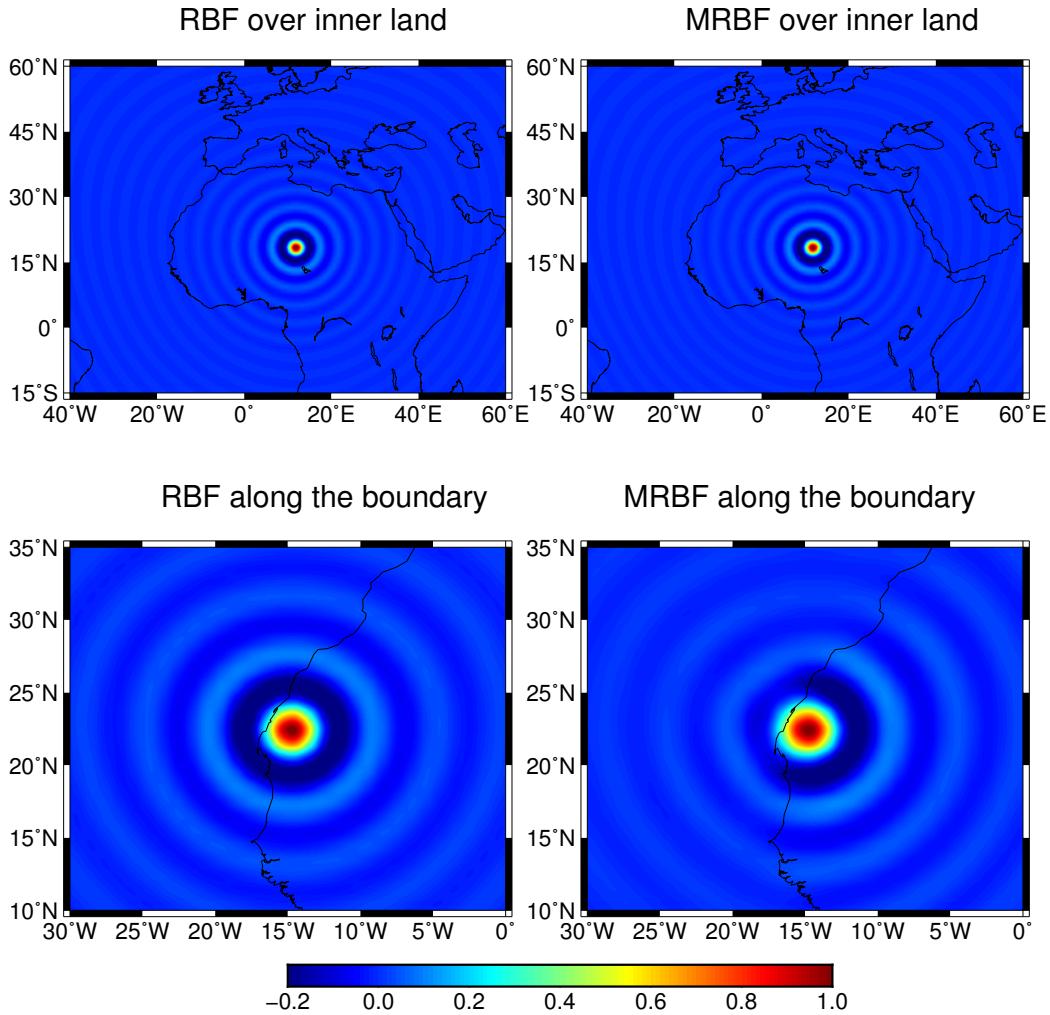
193 GRACE mission is not sensitive to the degree-one potential, one would not be able to derive a  
 194 meaningful degree-one harmonic from the MRBF coefficients by transformation. By substituting  
 195 Eq. (9) into Eq. (3), the ultimate gravity field represented by MRBFs is derived.

196 As of now, the method of constructing MRBF has been fully established. In what follows, we  
 197 give an insight into the nature of the proposed MRBF. Unlike the RBFs that have the same shape, we  
 198 realize from Eq. (9) that each individual MRBF is unique and its shape varies with the location  $\Omega_i$ .  
 199 To this end, we exemplarily investigate the four scenarios in Fig. 2, which display how the (M)RBF  
 200 bases will perform if they are near or far from the coastline. One can see from Fig. 2 that, (i) the  
 201 MRBF and RBF over the interior land are fairly similar (Fig. 2 top-right versus top-left), indicating  
 202 this MRBF maintains the property of mass-concentration; (ii) however, the oceanic signals of the  
 203 MRBF along the coastline has been considerably attenuated as expected, compared to that of the RBF  
 204 along the coastline (Fig. 2 bottom-right versus bottom-left). Nevertheless, it has to be made clear  
 205 that the spatial leakage of MRBF (signals over the ocean) cannot be completely reduced because  
 206 MRBFs are still represented by a band-limited harmonic expansion ( $N_{max} = 90$ ).

210 Additionally, we note that our MRBF solution does not indicate a global distribution of MRBF  
 211 bases, but a scheme of combining ordinary RBFs over the ocean (ocean-RBFs) with MRBFs over the  
 212 land (land-MRBFS) together. Our reasoning is: (i) the ocean-RBFs rather than the ocean-MRBFS can  
 213 remain the property of mass-concentration, so that the orthogonality of the bases can be guaranteed.  
 214 (ii) The actual ocean variability generally consists of three contributions: ocean-land mass exchange,  
 215 equilibrium ocean response to the land load, and non-equilibrium ocean dynamic variability. The  
 216 former two components have been inherently considered by the land-MRBFS, while modelling the  
 217 latter one component is only feasible by the ocean-RBFs rather than ocean-MRBFS. (iii) In principle,  
 218 land-MRBFS have only considered the first class of spatial leakage from land to ocean, whereas use  
 219 of the ocean-RBFs does not account for the second class of leakage from ocean to land; however, the  
 220 amplitudes are less over the oceans [see, *Clarke et al.*, 2007].

### 221 3 The GRACE L1b data processing chain

222 *Hawk*, our in-house software for the analysis of gravity recovery from GRACE observations,  
 223 comprises code implementations of all procedures described and applied within this study. Based on  
 224 *Hawk* and release 02 GRACE L1b raw data [*Case et al.*, 2002], all generated gravity fields presented  
 225 here share the same data processing chain.



207 **Figure 2.** EWHs derived from RBF (left) that consists of  $Y_{nm}$ , as well as from MRBF (right) that consists  
 208 of  $B_{nm}$ . Two types of locations (near the coastline, and over the inner land far away from the coastline) are  
 209 investigated.

### 226 3.1 Reference systems, background models and data

227 The reference systems we rely on consist of (i) an inertial coordinate system within IERS  
 228 (International Earth Rotation Service) celestial reference frame, and (ii) an Earth-fixed coordinate  
 229 system consistent with the ITRF2008 (International Terrestrial Reference Frame 2008) convention.  
 230 The EOP (Earth Orientation Parameters) are obtained from the public IERS file EOP-08-C04.

244

**Table 1.** Summary of background models implemented in the *Hawk* software

Force Model	Source	Resolution
Mean gravity field	GIF48	Degree/order 160
Solid tide	IERS2010 non-elastic Earth	Degree 2,3 and 4 <sup>a</sup>
Ocean tide	EOT11a	Degree/order 120
Solid pole tide	IERS2010 non-elastic Earth	
Ocean pole tide	IERS2010 convention	Degree/order 30
Non-tidal atmosphere and ocean de-aliasing	AOD1B RL05	Degree/order 100
Third-body perturbations	JPL DE405	Sun and Moon only <sup>b</sup>
General relativity	IERS2010 convention	Sun and Earth
Non-conservative forces	ACC1B and SCA1B	GRACE L1b product

<sup>a</sup>it contains 234 secondary tides. <sup>b</sup>J2 indirect effect is also considered.

231

Additionally, JPL DE405 planetary ephemeris [Standish, 1995] is adopted to approximate trajectories of Sun and Moon.

232

Background models employed within our work are briefly summarized in Table 1. The nominal mean gravity field is modeled by GIF48 [Ries *et al.*, 2011] complete up to d/o 160, which is sufficient in practice to recover monthly gravity signals up to d/o 60 or 90. Subsequently, third-body gravitational perturbations, together with the indirect J2 effect, are computed from the positions and velocities of Sun and Moon only. Effects of ocean tides are removed via EOT11a model [see, e.g., Savcenko and Bosch, 2012], which is up to d/o 120 and comprises 18 major waves (eight long periodic, four diurnal, five semidiurnal, one nonlinear waves) and 238 secondary waves. Furthermore, the short period nontidal variability in the atmosphere and oceans are removed using the official AOD1B RL05 de-aliasing product [Flechtner *et al.*, 2013]. The remaining gravitational forces including solid Earth (and pole) tides, ocean pole tides, as well as general relativistic perturbations are modeled according to the International Earth Rotation Service (IERS) 2010 conventions [Petit and Luzum, 2010].

233

K-band range rate (KBRR) measurements [Kim, 2000], along with GPS pseudo-range and phase measurements, are in general the primary observations processed in official GRACE L2 products. However, in our analysis scheme, the kinematic orbits published by ITSG (Institute of Theoretical Geodesy and Satellite Geodesy) at Graz University of Technology (<ftp://ftp>.

234

235

236

237

238

254

**Table 2.** Summary of GRACE measurements used in *Hawk* software

Observations	Version	Sampling rate
Kinematic orbit	ITSG	Uneven, mostly 10s
K-band range-rate	GRACE L1b RL02	5s

249  
250  
251  
252  
253

`tugraz.at/outgoing/ITSG/tvgogo/orbits/`), along with the L1b KBRR measurements, serve as the observations instead. It is known that the main contribution to GRACE gravity recovery comes from the KBRR measurements because of its high accuracy, hence the random error introduced by kinematic orbits will not significantly bias the solution. An overview of the measurements used in this study is given in Table 2.

255

### 3.2 Parameterization

256  
257  
258  
259

The theoretical method we adopt to set up observation equations follows the classical variational-equation approach, which is employed by CSR, GFZ and JPL in their official GRACE L2 analysis schemes as well. However the length of orbital arcs is selected as 3 hours in our work, which differs from the strategy of other institutes.

260  
261  
262  
263  
264  
265  
266  
267

For each 3 hour arc, the partial derivatives for Stokes coefficients (or (M)RBF scaling factors), accelerometer instrument biases and drifts along 3-axes [Bettadpur, 2009], GRACE twin-spacecraft initial state vectors, and KBRR nuisance parameters [Kim, 2000] (for more details, see Table 3) are derived. With these partial derivatives, the observation equations are set up for the KBRR observations and kinematic orbit pseudo-observations separately. Subsequently, these two types of equations are combined in terms of a constant weight determined by the nominal accuracy information of kinematic orbit and KBRR, which are regarded as 1~2 cm and 0.1~0.2 um/s [Kang *et al.*, 2009; Beutler *et al.*, 2010].

269  
270  
271  
272  
273

After eliminating the arc-specific parameters, we form the individual normal equations arc by arc. The arc-specific parameters in this study generally comprise the accelerometer biases and drifts, the initial state vectors and the KBRR biases. With these procedures, the final normal equations are accumulated for one month and solved for the global geopotential parameters, such as the Stokes coefficients or (M)RBF parameters.

268

**Table 3.** Summary of estimated parameters in the *Hawk* software

Parameter	Physical quantities	Number of		Time
		estimate	sampling	
Twin Satellite state	Position and velocity	12	3 hourly	
Accelerometer bias	X,Y,Z components	6	3 hourly	
Accelerometer drift	X,Y,Z components	6	3 hourly	
KBR range-rate biases	Constant, drift, one CPR	4	3 hourly	
Stokes coefficients or (M)RBF scaling	90×90 or 60×60 Level 30 icosahedral factors	8366 or 3776 9002	Monthly	Monthly
			gridding <sup>a</sup>	

<sup>a</sup> The number of estimate  $I_{max}$  for icosahedral gridding relates to the level  $i$  as  $I_{max} = 10 \cdot i^2 + 2$ .

274

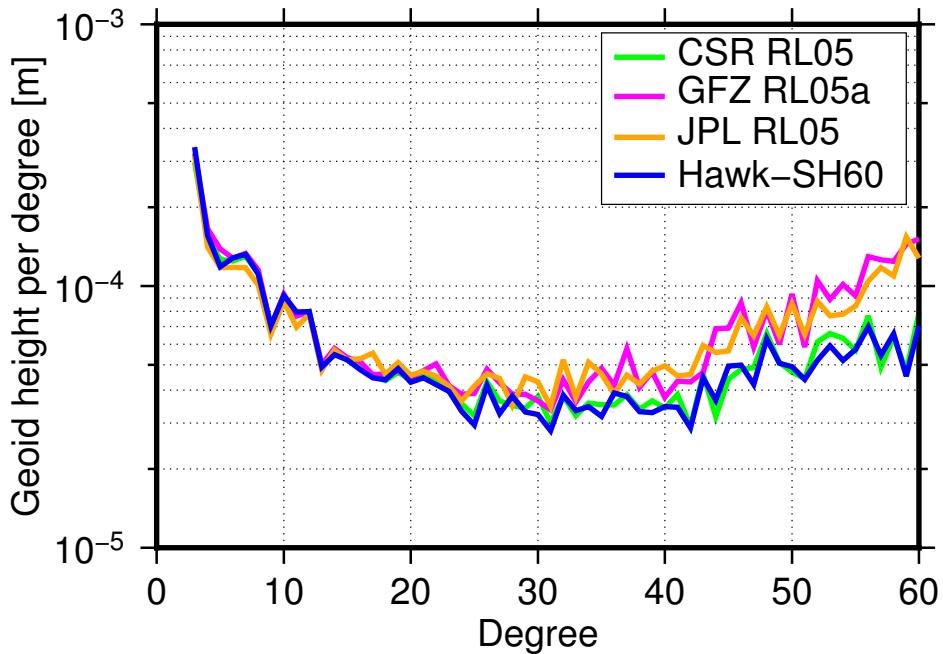
### 3.3 Validation via real GRACE L1b data inversion

275

To enable an objective assessment of (M)RBF approach, we have to isolate the parameterization-specific effects. To this end, a validation of the parameterization is essential. A time series of unconstrained monthly gravity fields in terms of spherical harmonic up to d/o 60, called *Hawk*-SH60, is produced and compared to the state-of-the-art SH-based gravity models that are publicly available at International Center for Global Earth Model (ICGEM <http://icgem.gfz-potsdam.de>).

282

In what follows, we calculate the mean of 6-years (from January 2005 to December 2010) gravity fields for CSR RL05, GFZ RL05a and JPL RL05 as well as *Hawk*-SH60, respectively. Figure 3 illustrates the spectrum of geoid heights versus degree derived from the respective mean model. Evidently, *Hawk*-SH60 agrees well with the official products at all spectral components. In particular, the correlation coefficient between *Hawk*-SH60 and CSR RL05 is as high as 0.99, whereas it only amounts to 0.89 between GFZ RL05a (up to d/o 90) and CSR RL05 (up to d/o 60). Reasons for the high correlation coefficient between our model and CSR RL05 are the use of the similar background models and the same truncation at d/o 60. In addition to the comparison of per-degree geoid heights, further validation results can be found in the provided electronic supporting material. Above result illustrates that our parameterization is well suited for accurate GRACE L1b inversion. In this context, any progress of (M)RBF-based gravity fields shown in the following will be always ascribed to the evolution of the geopotential representation itself, or more specifically, the embedded physical constraints.



280      **Figure 3.** Geoid heights per degree are derived from the mean (2005~2010) for CSR RL05, GFZ RL05a,  
281      JPL RL05 and *Hawk*-SH60 monthly gravity fields, with respect to GIC48.

## 295      4 The efficiency and stability of MRBF: case study on May 2009

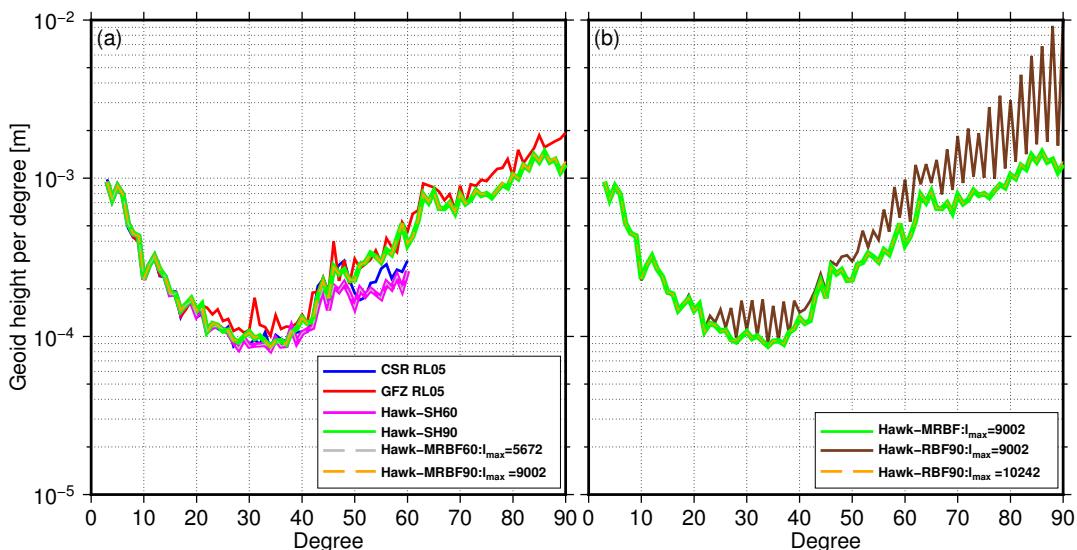
### 296      4.1 Test of the numerical efficiency for unconstrained solutions

297      In our experiments, the numerical efficiency of the inversion strongly depends on the number of  
298      unknowns, such as the Stokes coefficients for SH solution or gridding nodes for (M)RBF solutions.  
299      In this context, we intend to evaluate the RBF and MRBF unconstrained solutions with the minimum  
300      number of gridding nodes that is required to accurately model the gravity fields.

301      One assumption in our study is that, by increasing the gridding nodes, the unconstrained  
302      (M)RBF solutions will eventually get approximate to the unconstrained SH-based model like GFZ  
303      RL05a. Otherwise, too sparse gridding distribution will fail the solution. The departure of this  
304      assumption is the concept addressed by previously published results that, a simple base change  
305      from SH to RBF or mascon does not inherently provide an advantage in obtaining a more accurate  
306      global unconstrained gravity field. As for example, *Wittwer* [2009] demonstrated that the RBF-based  
307      solution (fundamentally different with our RBF parameterization) is fairly similar to the SH solution

308 particularly up to d/o 30; *Rowlands et al.* [2010] and *Watkins et al.* [2015] illustrated that their  
 309 unconstrained mascon solutions are equivalent to the state-of-the-art SH solutions up to d/o 60.

310 In support of our assumption, several scenarios of the unconstrained MRBF versus unconstrained  
 311 SH models are shown in Fig. 4a. Firstly, the results again illustrate that our data processing chain  
 312 is reliable, as evidenced by the fact that the correlation coefficient between GFZ RL05a curve (the  
 313 red solid line) and *Hawk*-SH90 curve (the green solid line) is as large as 0.96, and the correlation  
 314 coefficient between *Hawk*-SH60 curve (the purple solid line) and CSR RL05 curve (the blue solid  
 315 line) is 0.99. More importantly, we find from Fig. 4a that, the unconstrained MRBF solution and  
 316 SH solution indicate almost the same amount of power, for instance, the gray dashed line versus the  
 317 purple solid line (correlation coefficient is  $\sim 1.00$ ), and the orange dashed line versus the green solid  
 318 line (correlation coefficient is  $\sim 1.00$ ). This finding is consistent with the previously published results  
 319 [e.g., *Rowlands et al.*, 2010], and it shall serve as the foundation for assessing the efficiency of the  
 320 (M)RBF approaches.



321 **Figure 4.** Illustration of per-degree geoid heights [m] on May 2009 for various models, where *Hawk*-SH60  
 322 stands for our SH models up to degree 60, *Hawk*-MRBF60 denotes the MRBF model with shape coefficients  
 323 up to  $N_{max} = 60$ , and so on. **(a)** SH solutions versus the MRBF solutions associated with various schemes; **(b)**  
 324 MRBF solution in a gridding level  $I_{max} = 9002$  versus RBF solutions in gridding levels  $I_{max} = [9002, 10242]$ .

325 In this context, the unconstrained gravity fields in terms of RBFs and MRBFs are expected to  
 326 have roughly the same degrees of freedom ( $I_{max}$ ). Regarding that the network geometry  $I_{max} = 9002$

has enabled an accurate MRBF modelling (shown in Fig. 4a), we will mainly investigate how it performs in the RBF solution. The *Hawk*-RBF90's per-degree geoid height (denoted by the gray line) is displayed in Fig. 4b, from which we however find an unexpected oscillation occurring after degree 20. The gridding scheme  $I_{max} = 9002$ , which might be not sufficiently dense for the accurate RBF modelling, is assumed to be responsible for the oscillation. In support of our conjecture, we carry out an alternative RBF solution associated with  $I_{max} = 10242$  that is slightly larger than the previous, and for this time the oscillation vanishes and the *Hawk*-RBF90 ultimately converges to the *Hawk*-MRBF90 (see Fig. 4b, the green solid line and the orange dashed line overlap closely). As a summary, the minimal required  $I_{max}$  for RBF is 10242, while for MRBF the minimal required  $I_{max}$  is 9002. This reveals that the inherent physical constraints within MRBF are favorable for lowering the rigid requirement of gridding nodes ( $\sim 10\%$ ), as well as increasing the numerical efficiency rapidly.

#### 4.2 Test of the numerical stability via a Tikhonov regularization

Compared to the SH solution, the added value of (M)RBF approaches is their convenience to implementing tailored regularization at areas of interest, as (M)RBFs are more regionally specified. In general, GRACE L1b inversion is a typical ill-posed problem coupled with the necessity of regularization to stabilize the solution, given by [Tapley *et al.*, 2004]

$$(H^T W H + \lambda N) \hat{x} = H^T W y + \lambda N \bar{x} \quad . \quad (10)$$

In Eq. (10),  $H$  is a matrix of partial derivatives of the GRACE observations  $y$ , given in Table 2, with respect to vector of the estimated parameters  $\hat{x}$ , list in Table 3;  $W$  is a weighting matrix for the observations,  $\bar{x}$  are a-priori values of the estimated parameters  $\hat{x}$ ,  $N$  represents the regularization matrix that contains a priori covariance information of the estimated parameters,  $\lambda$  is introduced as the regularization parameter to tune the strength of regularization and the optimal  $\lambda$  can be found by various methods [see, e.g., Koch and Kusche, 2002; Kusche and Klees, 2002; Save, 2009]. According to Eq. (10), the components  $N, \bar{x}$  have to be predefined in a proper way. Among various regularization methods, Tikhonov regularization [Tikhonov and Arsenin, 1977] is perhaps the simplest and most commonly used one so far. In this study, Tikhonov regularization is specified by setting  $\bar{x} = 0$ , and

354  $N$  as a diagonal matrix with its diagonal elements designed with  $\sigma_i$ , that is

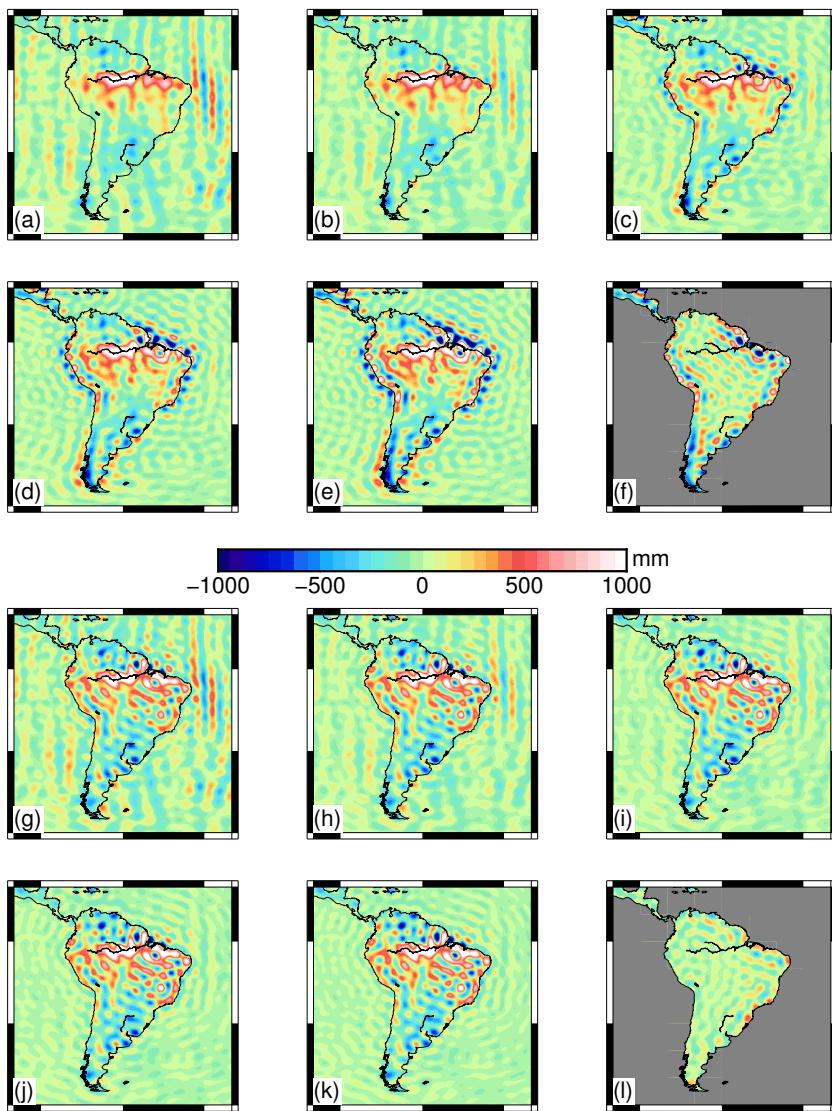
$$355 \quad N = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sigma_1^2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/\sigma_2^2 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/\sigma_{I_{max}}^2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (11)$$

356 where  $\sigma_i$  denotes the standard deviation of the signals. Regarding to the construction of the  
 357 regularization matrix  $N$ , we adopt a regionally adapted method according to *Eicker* [2008] that:  $\sigma_i$   
 358 of the (M)RBF is assigned with a relative value that, to some extent, infers the a priori feature of  
 359 the geophysical signals over the areas where the (M)RBF is located. To this end, we classify the  
 360 (M)RBF gridding into the ocean and land areas, which yields

$$361 \quad \sigma_i^2 = \begin{cases} 1 & i \in land \\ 1/\Sigma & i \in ocean \end{cases}. \quad (12)$$

362 In the majority of cases, a valid assumption is that, the geophysical signals over the oceans are  
 363 far less rough than that over the continents. Therefore, the standard deviation  $\sigma_i$  of oceanic signals  
 364 is supposed to be relatively small ( $\Sigma > 1$ ) in Eq. (12). To this end, we conduct several scenarios by  
 365 varying the ocean smoothness factor  $\Sigma = [1, 2, 5, 10, 20]$  within the regularization matrix  $N$  for RBF  
 366 and MRBF solutions, respectively.

372 Figure 5 illustrates the resulting (M)RBF-based gravity fields in terms of EWH for May 2009. In  
 373 particular, we zoom in to the region of South America in Fig. 5 for a better comparison. Considering  
 374 the case of RBF (see Fig. 5, the six plots on top), it can be observed from the right side of Fig.  
 375 5(a) that, a striping error still exists over the ocean even after regularization  $\Sigma = 1$ . While as soon  
 376 as  $\Sigma = 1$  increases (from Fig. 5(a) to Fig. 5(e)), the striping error is getting smaller, revealing that  
 377 the ocean smoothness factor does take effect as expected. However, continental variability is getting  
 378 unstable and is rapidly deteriorating when  $\Sigma$  increases, since the signals are getting more and more  
 379 point-shaped from Fig. 5(a) to Fig. 5(e), which are not expected. To demonstrate the instability,  
 380 the differences of continental variability between Fig. 5(a) and Fig. 5(e) are given at Fig. 5(f), and  
 381 the statistic over the South America is  $\min/\max/wRMS = -917/1212/117[\text{mm}]$ , which is strong  
 382 enough to affect realistic mass estimation. On the contrary, for MRBF solution (see Fig. 5, the six  
 383 plots on bottom), no evident differences of the continental mass variability can be distinguished from  
 384 Fig. 5(g) to Fig. 5(k). The statistic of Fig. 5(l) is  $\min/\max/wRMS = -323/434/23[\text{mm}]$ , which  
 385 is much smaller than that of Fig. 5(f). Simultaneously, we find the oceanic striping noise is getting  
 386 smoothed as soon as  $\Sigma$  increases as well (see from Fig. 5(g) to Fig. 5(k)).



367 **Figure 5.** Mass anomaly in terms of EWH, derived from RBF (top six) and MRBF (bottom six) solutions  
 368 associated with different regularization scheme for May 2009: (a)(b)(c)(d)(e) are the RBF solutions with  
 369  $\Sigma = 1, 2, 5, 10, 20$ , respectively; (f) presents the differences between (e) and (a) with ocean mask; (g)(h)(i)(j)(k)  
 370 are the MRBF solutions with  $\Sigma = 1, 2, 5, 10, 20$ , respectively; (l) presents the differences between (k) and (g)  
 371 with ocean mask.

387 We suppose the spurious point-shaped continental variability in regularized RBF solutions are  
 388 introduced by the mixing between oceanic and continental signals while smoothing the ocean noise  
 389 ( $\Sigma = [1, 2, 5, 10, 20]$ ). However, the physical constraint that is satisfied by the MRBFs ensures an

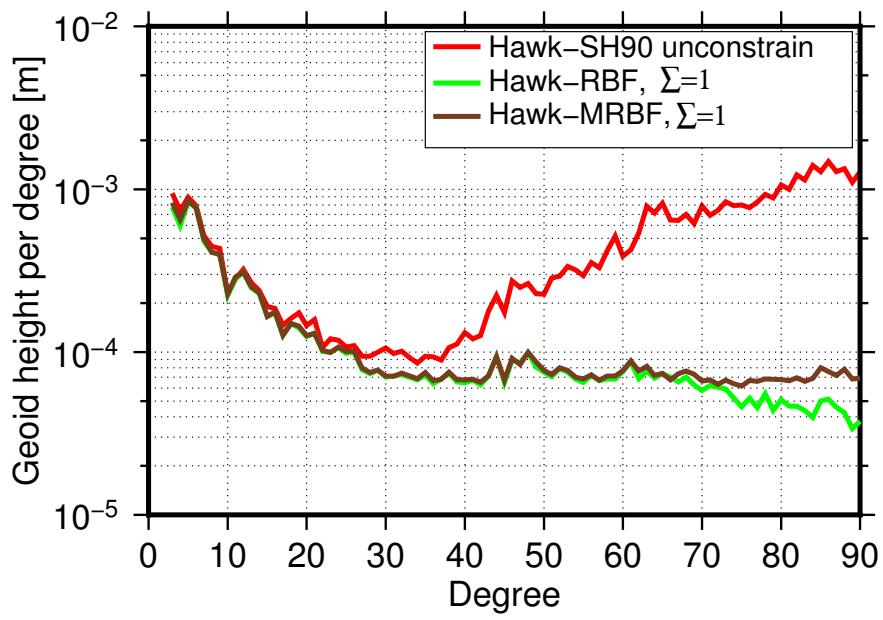
390 efficient separation of ocean and land signals across the coastlines. As a result, this yields a more  
 391 robust continental mass estimate that is less subjective to the ocean smoothing.

392 To confirm our hypothesis, we further assess the spectral behavior of the regularized RBF and  
 393 MRBF solution on May 2009. The per-degree geoid heights of standard ( $\Sigma=1$ ) Tikhonov regularized  
 394 (M)RBF and unconstrained SH solutions are illustrated in Fig. 6, from which it is evident that  
 395 both RBF and MRBF have shown an overall agreement prior to d/o 60. Although they both show  
 396 suppressed signals and errors in the higher degree spectrum, there are still considerable differences  
 397 after d/o 60, which indicate that the MRBF solution may improve the short-wave gravity signals. In  
 398 what follows we further vary the regularization schemes ( $\Sigma = [1, 2, 5, 10, 20]$ ) in Fig. 7, from which  
 399 we find the MRBF curves are gradually converging to a stable status when  $\Sigma$  increases; however,  
 400 the RBF curves are gradually getting unstable and divergent, particularly at around degree 30 and  
 401 further degrees that mainly infer the medium-wavelength gravity signals. Additionally, the stronger  
 402 ocean smoothing by  $\Sigma > 2$  has artificially led to a comeback of the high-degree error after d/o 60  
 403 (see Fig. 7(a), the end of cyan curve lies much higher than the red curve), which were shown in  
 404 Fig. 5(a-e) as the point-shaped perturbation. This experiment demonstrates that the regularization  
 405 of RBF solution has to be treated very carefully, while MRBF is robust to regularization in the sense  
 406 of a flexible ocean smoothing without increasing instability.

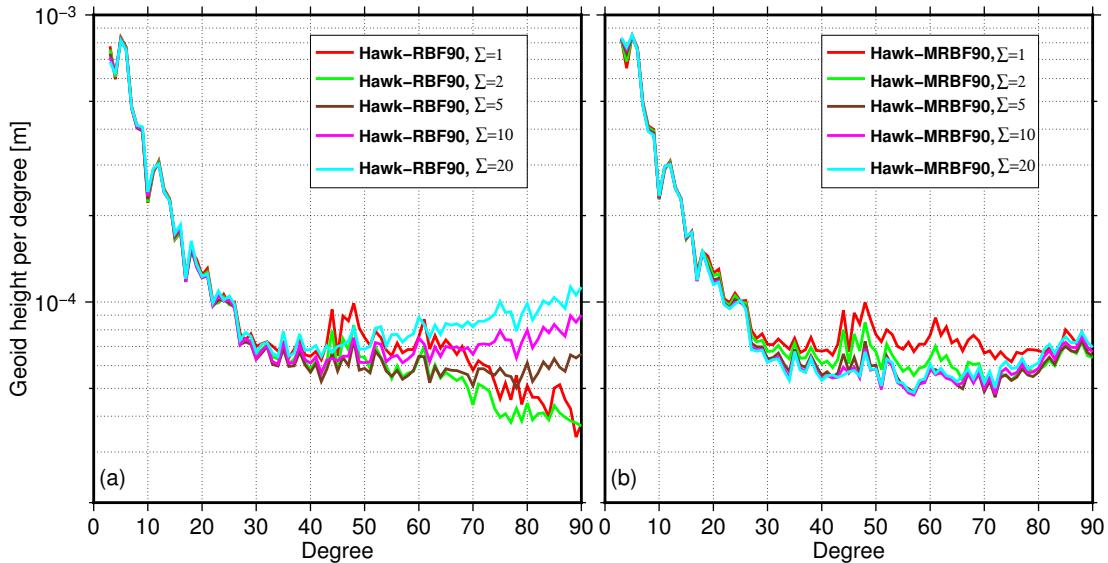
412 However, one can observe from the above experiments that, the side effects such as the spurious  
 413 continental noise brought by the regularization into MRBF and RBF gravity fields are unequal.  
 414 Therefore, to enable a fair comparison between RBF and MRBF solutions, both of these two solutions  
 415 in the following section shall be conditioned by the standard Tikhonov regularization ( $\Sigma = 1$ ) that  
 416 we believe to have the least inequity (see Fig. 6).

## 417 5 MRBF versus RBF and SH monthly solutions for 2005-2010

418 In general, the regularized gravity field from GRACE does not require to be spatially filtered as  
 419 this has been often considered in the regularization. Yet, in this study, the simple standard Tikhonov  
 420 regularization was found not to be sufficient to suppress the striping errors (see Fig. 5, the magnitude  
 421 of the noise is still non-negligible for both RBF and MRBF solutions). Therefore, another Gaussian  
 422 filtering with a radius of 200km has been applied to the regularized (M)RBF solutions for all the  
 423 following applications, unless otherwise mentioned. In this way, the global mass anomaly in terms  
 424 of EWH on January, May and September are exemplarily shown in Fig. 8 from the top to the  
 425 bottom. And from the left panels to the right panels in Fig. 8 are the EWH maps of RBF solutions,



407 **Figure 6.** Illustration of per-degree geoid height derived from following models: unconstrained SH solution  
 408 Hawk-SH90, constrained RBF solution Hawk-RBF90 with a standard Tikhonov regularization ( $\Sigma = 1$ ), and  
 409 MRBF solution Hawk-MRBF90 with a standard Tikhonov regularization ( $\Sigma = 1$ ).



410 **Figure 7.** Left are per-degree geoid heights derived from RBF solutions with  $\Sigma = 1, 2, 5, 10, 20$ , respectively;  
 411 Right are per-degree geoid heights derived from MRBF solutions with  $\Sigma = 1, 2, 5, 10, 20$ , respectively.

438

**Table 4.** Statistics for RBF and MRBF solutions in Fig. 8

Month	<i>Hawk-RBF</i> <sup>a</sup> [mm]	<i>Hawk-MRBF</i> [mm]	Correlation coefficients <sup>b</sup>
Jan 2010	Fig. 8(a): -714/194/53	Fig. 8(b): -685/204/49	0.92
May 2010	Fig. 8(d): -708/308/55	Fig. 8(e): -713/296/51	0.93
Sep 2010	Fig. 8(g): -777/293/71	Fig. 8(h): -733/320/66	0.92

<sup>a</sup>Statistics for spatial EWH: min/max/weighted RMS.

<sup>b</sup>In terms of the curves of the per-degree geoid height before d/o 30.

426

427

428

429

430

431

432

433

434

435

436

437

MRBF solutions and their differences, respectively. The statistic for Fig. 8 is given in the Table 4, from which we find that both of the spatial EWH and the correlation coefficients show a general agreement between the RBF and MRBF solutions, hinting that in large basins (or medium-to-long wavelength gravity field) both solutions perform well. We note that, in Table 4, the weighted RMS of MRBF solution is usually less than that of RBF solution because the MRBF reduces the oceanic signals. Furthermore, as illustrated by the maps of differences in Fig. 8(c)(f)(i), discrepancies between the RBF and MRBF solution exist mostly at coastal areas, such as the coast of Greenland and Antarctica that have the most significant spatial leakage in ordinary solutions. Considering the case of September 2010 (see Fig. 8(i)), the weighted RMS of oceanic signals within the region of Greenland ( $[5^{\circ}W, 85^{\circ}W], [58^{\circ}N, 85^{\circ}N]$ ) is 87mm for *Hawk-RBF*, and 34mm for *Hawk-MRBF*. This finding indicates a possible reduction of ocean leakage as well as the improvement of the resolution at coastal areas for the MRBF solutions.

443

444

445

446

447

448

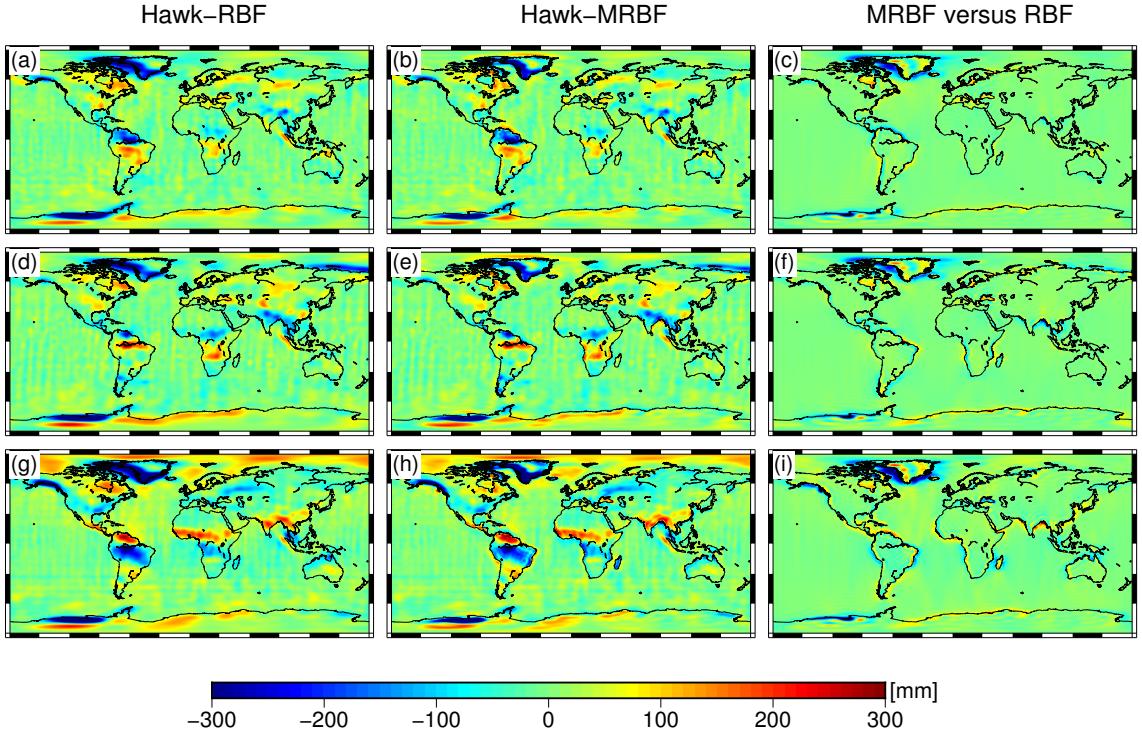
449

450

451

452

In what follows we particularly investigate the seasonal and secular mass flux signals for gravity solutions of different types. The comparisons of GFZ RL05a, *Hawk-SH*, *Hawk-RBF* and *Hawk-MRBF* are carried out, but we note that, because these models are computed from GRACE-only observations, this is indeed not an external validation experiment. It should be also pointed out that the Gaussian filter with a radius of 500km is applied to the unconstrained SH solutions (*Hawk-SH* and GFZ RL05a). The radius of 500km is selected because in this way the noises are found suitably damped in the SH-based solutions, and the noise level of these filtered SH-based solutions are comparable to that of the regularized (M)RBF solutions. As for example, the RMS (root mean square) value of the basin-averaged mass variation over Sahara desert ( $[21^{\circ}S, 5^{\circ}N], [45^{\circ}W, 80^{\circ}W]$ ) in 72 months (from Jan 2005 to Dec 2010) is selected as a measure of the noise level, since we expect

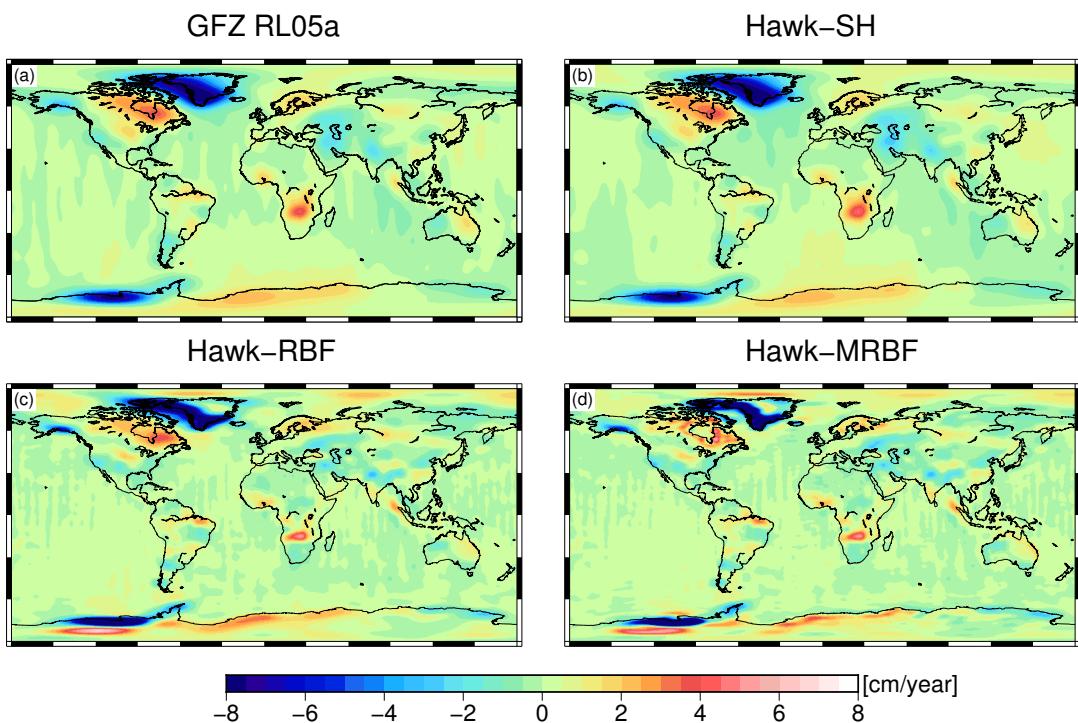


439 **Figure 8.** Mass anomaly in terms of EWH: (a) *Hawk-RBF* on January 2010; (b) *Hawk-MRBF* on January  
440 2010; (c) *Hawk-MRBF* versus *Hawk-RBF* on January 2010; (d) *Hawk-RBF* on May 2010; (e) *Hawk-MRBF*  
441 on May 2010; (f) *Hawk-MRBF* versus *Hawk-RBF* on May 2010; (g) *Hawk-RBF* on September 2010; (h)  
442 *Hawk-MRBF* on September 2010; (i) *Hawk-MRBF* versus *Hawk-RBF* on September 2010.

453 that here the hydrological signal is less dominate. And the results show that the respective RMS for  
454 the filtered SH (GFZ RL05a, *Hawk-SH*) and regularized (M)RBF (*Hawk-RBF*, *Hawk-MRBF*) are  
455 close to each other: 1.10 cm, 0.87 cm, 0.92 cm and 1.02 cm in terms of EWH.

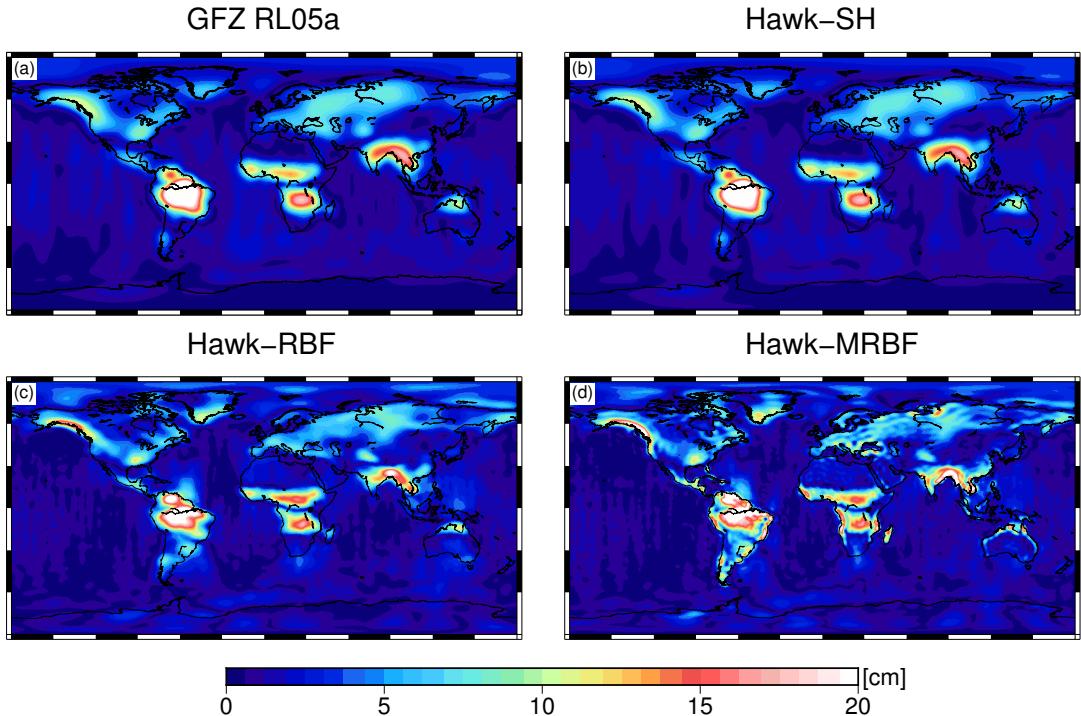
456 Figure 9 provides insight into the yearly trend maps from Jan 2005 to Dec 2010). We first  
457 compare the spectral contents of these four maps in Fig. 9(a-d), and find the correlation coefficients  
458 between GFZ RL05 and the other three models (*Hawk-SH*, *Hawk-RBF*, *Hawk-MRBF*) are 0.99, 0.92,  
459 0.91, in terms of per-degree geoid heights before d/o 20. This indicates that large-scale trend patterns  
460 derived from these four models agree well, in another word, the long-wavelength gravity signals  
461 from these four models have been appropriately retained after the regularization or post-filtering.  
462 However, differences are still remarkable at basin scale if we carefully distinguish between the SH  
463 and (M)RBF trend maps in Figure 9. Both RBF and MRBF solutions yield a better spatial resolution  
464 than SH solutions, as evidenced by Southern Greenland, West Antarctica, Amazon, South Asia and

465 the Europe. The question that now arises is: does the physical constraint embedded in MRBF affect  
 466 the recovered gravity signals? To address this, we assess EWH trends from Fig. 9 over a coastal  
 467 area: West Antarctica. The numerical result shows that *Hawk*-MRBF improves the TWS (total water  
 468 storage) trend of West Antarctica by 4% with respect to *Hawk*-RBF, and by 23% with respect to  
 469 GFZ RL05a (or *Hawk*-SH). Furthermore, a visual inspection by zooming in to *Hawk*-MRBF and  
 470 *Hawk*-RBF trend maps (see Fig. 11) also suggests that *Hawk*-MRBF has less leaked signals around  
 471 the coasts of West Antarctica. We also mention that, another added value of *Hawk*-MRBF is that the  
 472 MRBF process does not significantly affect the continental gravity signals that are far away from the  
 473 coastlines, such as West China.



474 **Figure 9.** The 2005-2010 yearly trends derived from GFZ RL05a, *Hawk*-SH, *Hawk*-RBF and *Hawk*-MRBF  
 475 products up to d/o 90, expressed in [cm/yr] of EWH.

478 In addition, annual amplitudes of the gravity variations are shown in Fig. 10, from which we  
 479 could gain some similar findings, following that: (i) the (M)RBF solutions capture finer scale gravity  
 480 changes than the SH solutions do, over the majority of the regions like Southern Greenland, Australia,  
 481 Africa, Amazon and South Asia, etc. (ii) Considerable differences between *Hawk*-MRBF and *Hawk*-  
 482 RBF solutions are mostly distributed along the coastlines, such as the northwestern coastline of North

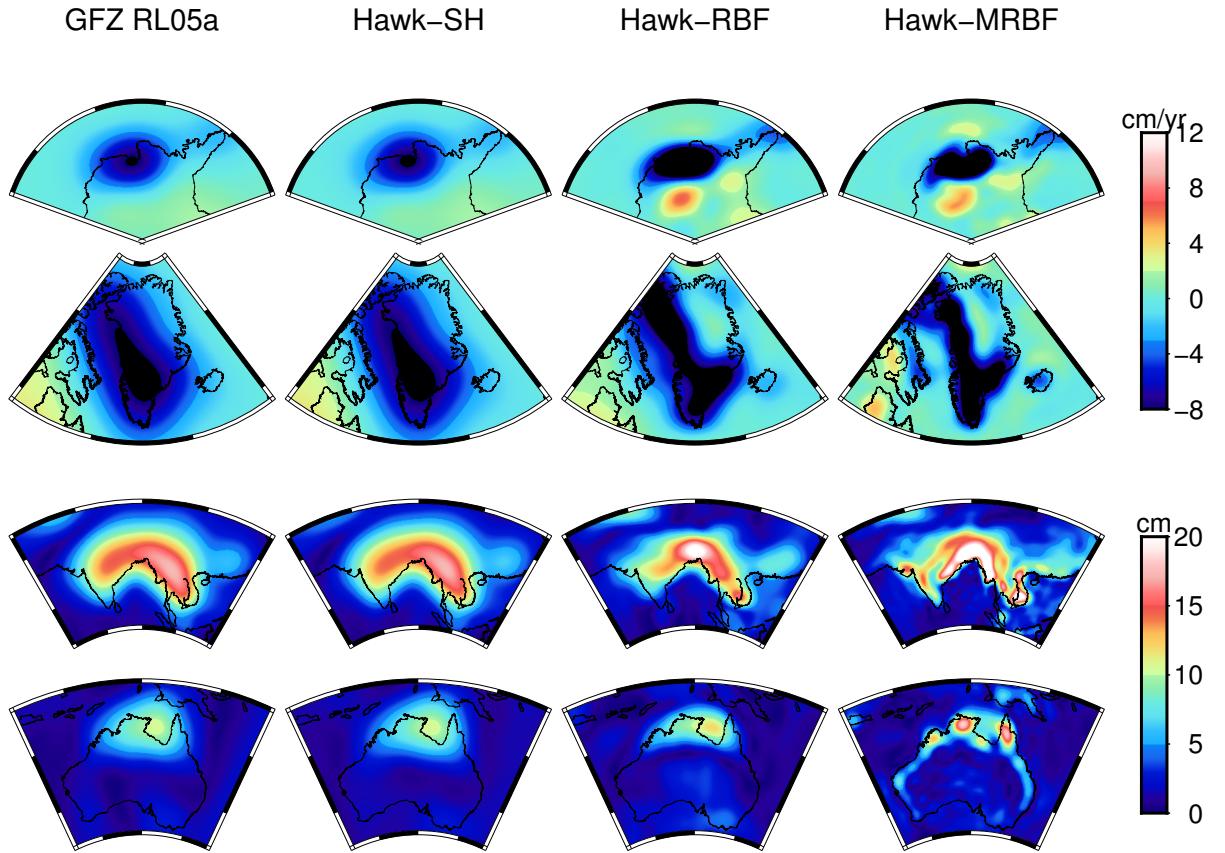


**Figure 10.** The 2005–2010 annual amplitudes derived from GFZ RL05a, Hawk-SH, Hawk-RBF and Hawk-MRBF products up to d/o 90, expressed in [cm] of EWH.  
476  
477

**483** America, western coastlines of Africa, coastlines of Black Sea, Indonesia etc. To better distinguish  
**484** the differences between *Hawk-RBF* and *Hawk-MRBF*, Fig. 11 illustrates an alternative zoomed-in  
**485** maps of the northern Australia and South Asia areas, where users of GRACE L2 products face a  
**486** significant leakage problem that was addressed in previous studies [see e.g., *Shum et al.*, 2010;  
**487** *Forootan et al.*, 2012]. In these regions, the proposed MRBF solutions appear in visual inspection  
**488** to have better localized continental signals as well as less oceanic leakage than the RBF and SH  
**489** solutions. But more tests with independent data such as e.g. high-quality hydrology modelling and  
**490** arrays of coastal ocean bottom recorders are required. This would however go beyond the scope of  
**491** the paper.

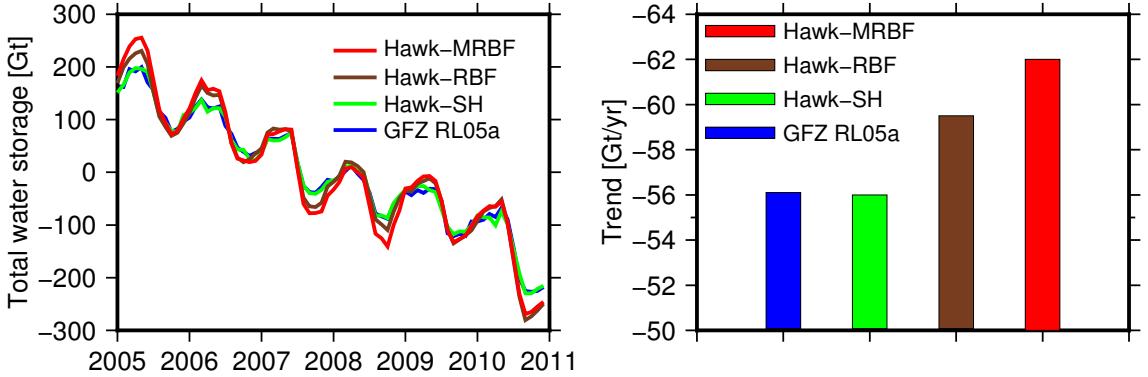
**492** It is worth mentioning that the obtained findings of (M)RBF products by far are well consistent  
**493** with those of JPL RL05M mascon solution. In particular, compared to the corresponding SH  
**494** solutions, Mascon [*Watkins et al.*, 2015] and MRBF estimations both indicate a better spatial  
**495** resolution and stronger signals at these regions, for instance, at northwestern coast of North America,

496 at the southwestern coast of South America, over Africa and India etc. This is not a coincidence but  
 497 probably due to the particular treatment of the spatial leakage embedded in the inversion.



498 **Figure 11.** From left to right, the 2005–2010 derived signals that are expressed in [cm/yr] of EWH for GFZ  
 499 RL05a, Hawk-SH, Hawk-RBF and Hawk-MRBF up to d/o 90, respectively. Row 1 and Row 2 respectively  
 500 represent the trend patterns over Greenland and Antarctica; Row 3 and Row 4 indicate the annual amplitude  
 501 patterns over South Asia and Australia, respectively.

505 In the following, we illustrate the zoomed-in signals over four selected regions as shown in Fig.  
 506 11, with however a major focus on Greenland. This polar glacier region has been frequently pointed  
 507 out that its mass-loss estimates suffer from a severe spatial leakage [see, e.g. *Velicogna and Wahr*,  
 508 2013; *Velicogna et al.*, 2014], as the majority of ice-melting is taking place along the coastal regions.  
 509 Therefore, a set of scale factors [*Baur et al.*, 2009] up to 1 ~ 2 is usually applied to rescale the mass  
 510 loss estimates in Greenland, but this is not used in our study. Here, we present the time series of  
 511 gravity changes in terms of TWS over the Southern Greenland (below Lat 70°, a major ice-melting



502 **Figure 12.** Left panel represents the 2005–2010 monthly TWS over Southern Greenland (below Lat 70°) for  
 503 GFZ RL05, Hawk-SH, Hawk-RBF and Hawk-MRBF; Right panel is the respective statistic of yearly trend for  
 504 each model.

512 region), for SH and (M)RBF models in Fig. 12 (left). The red and the brown curves are obviously  
 513 more steep than the green and the blue, and this indicates that the (M)RBF might have a larger yearly  
 514 trend and therefore lower the dependence on using scale factors. The statistical yearly trends for  
 515 GFZ RL05a, Hawk-SH, Hawk-RBF and Hawk-MRBF are -56.1 Gt/yr, -56.0 Gt/yr, -59.5 Gt/yr and  
 516 -62 Gt/yr in terms of TWS, which are also shown in Fig. 12 (right). The MRBF has considerably  
 517 improved the mass loss estimates by almost 11% during 2005–2010 when compared to SH solutions,  
 518 and we attribute this progress to our regional basis functions that better exploit the rich high-latitude  
 519 distribution of GRACE observations. Furthermore, the trend estimated from MRBF solutions is  
 520 found to be only 4% bigger than that of RBF. An alternative experiment of yearly trend estimate (not  
 521 shown here) is performed over the entire Greenland, and the result demonstrates that the difference  
 522 between trends of the RBF and MRBF solutions increases to 6% approximately without accounting  
 523 for Glacial Isostatic Adjustment (GIA) or any other corrections. The magnitude of the differences  
 524 might seem small, but it should not be ignored. In this context, the spatial leakage still contaminates  
 525 the MRBF solution, such that it also needs scale factors for providing an accurate mass estimate like  
 526 JPL RL05M mascon solution. The potential causes could be (i) the network geometric together with  
 527 the finite shape kernel within MRBFs contains an implicit spatial average that is unavoidable, and (ii)  
 528 the applied extra Gaussian filter with the radius of 200km introduces the additional spatial leakage.  
 529 However, quantifying the MRBF's leakage reduction with in situ or other independent measurements  
 530 will be more reliable, and this will be subject to future investigations.

531      **6 Conclusions and outlook**

532      This paper presents a set of non-isotropic self-consistent MRBF bases, which are similar to  
 533      RBFs but they impose the additional constraints of mass-conservation and passive ocean response  
 534      (Sec. 2). Prior to implementing MRBFs in GRACE L1b inversion, the data processing chain in  
 535      our in-house software was briefly introduced and validated by comparing the in-house SH-based  
 536      gravity field against those provided by the official centers (Sec. 3). We further calculated the time  
 537      series of gravity fields from GRACE observations in terms of RBF and MRBF, respectively. In  
 538      Section 4, a case study on May 2009 was carried out and demonstrated that both RBF and MRBF are  
 539      comparable to SH-based solutions unless the regularization is applied. There, it was also revealed  
 540      that the MBRF solution could achieve an accurate gravity estimate with a smaller amount of basis  
 541      functions participated in the inversion procedures, leading to a dimension reduction of estimated  
 542      parameters and a speed-up of the numerical calculation (Sec. 4.1). This case study also suggests that  
 543      the MRBF solutions indicate stronger numerical stability during the regularization, due to the lower  
 544      dependence between the oceanic and continental signals (Sec. 4.2). In Section 5, after analyzing the  
 545      annual amplitude and trend maps derived from the time series of (M)RBF and SH gravity fields, it  
 546      was shown that the MRBF solution improves the gravity recovery at coastal regions in terms of both  
 547      spatial resolution and magnitude, hinting that a more accurate modelling of coastal gravity signals  
 548      could be expected.

549      Despite the demonstrated advances already obtained by applying the self-consistent MRBF  
 550      representation, there is still potential for further improvements of this approach in the following  
 551      aspects: (i) Besides the proposed MRBF-I in this study, an complementary set of MRBF-II could  
 552      be developed to treat with another type of spatial leakage from ocean to land (not considered by  
 553      MRBF-I), and we hope in this way the leakage could be further reduced. (ii) Another improvement  
 554      in accuracy could be expected by applying a more appropriate regularization tailored to the reliable  
 555      a-priori geophysical information. This will well minimize the striping error without the necessity  
 556      of applying additional spatial averaging in a post-processing step. (iii) The original RBF that we  
 557      use here to develop MRBF is shaped by a Shannon kernel and consequently has a smooth spectrum,  
 558      but together with a strong spatial oscillation. This might be replaced by another type of RBF (e.g.  
 559      wavelet or Poisson RBF, or the very popular Mascons) that has a smooth spatial performance so  
 560      as to construct a new set of MRBFs, which will further reduce the spatial leakage and advance the  
 561      resolution of coastal gravity recovery.

562 **Acknowledgments**

563 The authors acknowledge financial supports through the Chinese Scholarship Council (CSC), the  
 564 COAST project (DFG KU1207/20-1), and the Strategic Priority Research Program of the Chinese  
 565 Academy of Sciences (Grant No. XDB23030100). We are grateful to the JPL for providing the  
 566 GRACE level 1B raw data. We thank ITSG in Graz for providing the GRACE kinematic orbits. The  
 567 authors thank Dr. Wang ChangQin from the Chinese Academy of Sciences for his great contribution  
 568 to the development of gravity solver. The authors would also like to thank editor Paul Tregoning and  
 569 the reviewers for their helpful comments.

570 **References**

- 571 Baur, O., and N. Sneeuw (2011), Assessing Greenland ice mass loss by means of point-mass  
 572 modeling: a viable methodology, *Journal of Geodesy*, 85(9), 607–615.
- 573 Baur, O., M. Kuhn, and W. Featherstone (2009), GRACE-derived ice-mass variations over Greenland  
 574 by accounting for leakage effects, *Journal of Geophysical Research: Solid Earth*, 114(B6).
- 575 Bentel, K., M. Schmidt, and C. Gerlach (2013), Different radial basis functions and their appli-  
 576 cability for regional gravity field representation on the sphere, *GEM-International Journal on*  
 577 *Geomathematics*, 4(1), 67–96.
- 578 Bettadpur, S. (2009), Recommendation for a-priori bias and scale parameters for Level-1B ACC data  
 579 (version 2), *GRACE TN-02*.
- 580 Bettadpur, S. (2012), Insights into the Earth system mass variability from CSR-RL05 GRACE gravity  
 581 fields, in *EGU General Assembly Conference Abstracts*, vol. 14, p. 6409.
- 582 Beutler, G., A. Jäggi, L. Mervart, and U. Meyer (2010), The celestial mechanics approach: application  
 583 to data of the GRACE mission, *Journal of Geodesy*, 84(11), 661–681.
- 584 Blewitt, G., and P. Clarke (2003), Inversion of Earth's changing shape to weigh sea level in static  
 585 equilibrium with surface mass redistribution, *Journal of Geophysical Research: Solid Earth*,  
 586 108(B6).
- 587 Blewitt, G., P. Clarke, D. Lavallée, and K. Nurutdinov (2005), Application of Clebsch-Gordan  
 588 coefficients and isomorphic frame transformations to invert Earth's changing geometrical shape  
 589 for continental hydrological loading and sea level's passive response, in *A Window on the Future*  
 590 *of Geodesy*, pp. 518–523, Springer.
- 591 Bruinsma, S., J.-M. Lemoine, R. Biancale, and N. Valès (2010), CNES/GRGS 10-day gravity field  
 592 models (release 2) and their evaluation, *Advances in Space Research*, 45(4), 587–601.

- 593 Case, K., G. Kruizinga, and S. Wu (2002), GRACE level 1B data product user handbook, *JPL*  
594 *Publication D-22027*.
- 595 Chen, J., C. Wilson, and B. Tapley (2006), Satellite gravity measurements confirm accelerated  
596 melting of Greenland ice sheet, *Science*, 313(5795), 1958–1960.
- 597 Clarke, P. J., D. A. Lavallée, G. Blewitt, T. Van Dam, and J. Wahr (2005), Effect of gravitational con-  
598 sistency and mass conservation on seasonal surface mass loading models, *Geophysical Research*  
599 *Letters*, 32(8).
- 600 Clarke, P. J., D. A. Lavallée, G. Blewitt, and T. Van Dam (2007), Basis functions for the consistent  
601 and accurate representation of surface mass loading, *Geophysical Journal International*, 171(1),  
602 1–10.
- 603 Dahle, C., F. Flechtner, C. Gruber, D. König, R. König, G. Michalak, and K.-H. Neumayer (2014),  
604 GFZ RL05: An improved time-series of monthly GRACE gravity field solutions, in *Observation of*  
605 *the System Earth from Space-CHAMP, GRACE, GOCE and future missions*, pp. 29–39, Springer.
- 606 Dahlen, F. (1976), The passive influence of the oceans upon the rotation of the Earth, *Geophysical*  
607 *Journal International*, 46(2), 363–406.
- 608 Eicker, A. (2008), Gravity field refinement by radial basis functions from in-situ satellite data, Ph.D.  
609 thesis, University of Bonn.
- 610 Eicker, A., J. Schall, and J. Kusche (2013), Regional gravity modelling from spaceborne data: case  
611 studies with GOCE, *Geophysical Journal International*, 196(3), 1431–1440.
- 612 Flechtner, F., H. Dobslaw, and E. Fagioli (2013), AOD1b product description document for product  
613 release 05, *GFZ German Research Centre for Geosciences*.
- 614 Forootan, E., J. Awange, J. Kusche, B. Heck, and A. Eicker (2012), Independent patterns of water  
615 mass anomalies over Australia from satellite data and models, *Remote Sensing of Environment*,  
616 124, 427–443.
- 617 Gunter, B., T. Wittwer, W. Stolk, R. Klees, and P. Ditmar (2012), Comparison of regional and global  
618 GRACE gravity field models at high latitudes, in *Geodesy for Planet Earth*, pp. 171–177, Springer.
- 619 Jekeli, C. (1981), Alternative methods to smooth the Earth's gravity field, *Tech. rep.*, Ohio State  
620 Univ.
- 621 Kang, Z., B. Tapley, S. Bettadpur, and H. Save (2009), Quality of GRACE orbits using the reprocessed  
622 IGS products, in *AGU Fall Meeting Abstracts*, vol. 1, p. 05.
- 623 Keller, W. (2004), *Wavelets in geodesy and geodynamics*, Walter de Gruyter.
- 624 Kim, J. (2000), Simulation study of a low-low satellite-to-satellite tracking mission, Ph.D. thesis,  
625 The University of Texas at Austin.

- 626 Klees, R., X. Liu, T. Wittwer, B. Gunter, E. Revtova, R. Tenzer, P. Ditmar, H. Winsemius, and  
627 H. Savenije (2008), A comparison of global and regional GRACE models for land hydrology,  
628 *Surveys in Geophysics*, 29(4-5), 335–359
- 629 Koch, K.-R., and J. Kusche (2002), Regularization of geopotential determination from satellite data  
630 by variance components, *Journal of Geodesy*, 76(5), 259–268.
- 631 Kusche, J. (2007), Approximate decorrelation and non-isotropic smoothing of time-variable GRACE-  
632 type gravity field models, *Journal of Geodesy*, 81(11), 733–749.
- 633 Kusche, J., and R. Klees (2002), Regularization of gravity field estimation from satellite gravity  
634 gradients, *Journal of Geodesy*, 76(6-7), 359–368.
- 635 Kusche, J., V. Klemann, and W. Bosch (2012), Mass distribution and mass transport in the Earth  
636 system, *Journal of Geodynamics*, 59, 1–8.
- 637 Landerer, F., and S. Swenson (2012), Accuracy of scaled GRACE terrestrial water storage estimates,  
638 *Water Resources Research*, 48(4).
- 639 Long, D., Y. Yang, Y. Wada, Y. Hong, W. Liang, Y. Chen, B. Yong, A. Hou, J. Wei, and L. Chen  
640 (2015), Deriving scaling factors using a global hydrological model to restore GRACE total water  
641 storage changes for China's yangtze river basin, *Remote Sensing of Environment*, 168, 177–193.
- 642 Luthcke, S. B., H. Zwally, W. Abdalati, D. Rowlands, R. Ray, R. Nerem, F. Lemoine, J. McCarthy,  
643 and D. Chinn (2006), Recent Greenland ice mass loss by drainage system from satellite gravity  
644 observations, *Science*, 314(5803), 1286–1289.
- 645 Luthcke, S. B., T. Sabaka, B. Loomis, A. Arendt, J. McCarthy, and J. Camp (2013), Antarctica,  
646 Greenland and Gulf of Alaska land-ice evolution from an iterated GRACE global mascon solution,  
647 *Journal of Glaciology*, 59(216), 613–631.
- 648 Naeimi, M. (2013), Inversion of satellite gravity data using spherical radial base functions, Ph.D.  
649 thesis, Fachrichtung Geodäsie und Geoinformatik der Leibniz Universität Hannover.
- 650 Petit, G., and B. Luzum (2010), IERS conventions 2010. International earth rotation and reference  
651 systems service, *Tech. rep.*, IERS Technical Note.
- 652 Rasch, J., and A. Yu (2004), Efficient storage scheme for precalculated Wigner 3 j, 6 j and Gaunt  
653 coefficients, *SIAM Journal on Scientific Computing*, 25(4), 1416–1428.
- 654 Ries, J., S. Bettadpur, S. Poole, and T. Richter (2011), Mean background gravity fields for GRACE  
655 processing, in *GRACE science team meeting, Austin, TX*, pp. 8–10.
- 656 Rowlands, D., S. Luthcke, J. McCarthy, S. Klosko, D. Chinn, F. Lemoine, J.-P. Boy, and T. Sabaka  
657 (2010), Global mass flux solutions from GRACE: a comparison of parameter estimation strategies-  
658 mass concentrations versus Stokes coefficients, *Journal of Geophysical Research: Solid Earth*,

- 659 115(B1).
- 660 Sadourny, R., A. Arakawa, and Y. Mintz (1968), Integration of the nondivergent barotropic vorticity  
661 equation with an icosahedral-hexagonal grid for the sphere, *Monthly Weather Review*, 96(6),  
662 351–356.
- 663 Savcenko, R., and W. Bosch (2012), EOT11a-empirical ocean tide model from multi-mission satellite  
664 altimetry.
- 665 Save, H., S. Bettadpur, and B. D. Tapley (2012), Reducing errors in the GRACE gravity solutions  
666 using regularization, *Journal of Geodesy*, 86(9), 695–711.
- 667 Save, H. V. (2009), Using regularization for error reduction in GRACE gravity estimation, Ph.D.  
668 thesis, University of Texas at Austin.
- 669 Schmidt, M., O. Fabert, and C. Shum (2005), On the estimation of a multi-resolution representation  
670 of the gravity field based on spherical harmonics and wavelets, *Journal of Geodynamics*, 39(5),  
671 512–526.
- 672 Schmidt, M., M. Fengler, T. Mayer-Gürr, A. Eicker, J. Kusche, L. Sánchez, and S.-C. Han (2007),  
673 Regional gravity modeling in terms of spherical base functions, *Journal of Geodesy*, 81(1), 17–38.
- 674 Schmidt, R., P. Schwintzer, F. Flechtner, C. Reigber, A. Güntner, P. Döll, G. Ramillien, A. Cazenave,  
675 S. Petrovic, H. Jochmann, et al. (2006), GRACE observations of changes in continental water  
676 storage, *Global and Planetary Change*, 50(1), 112–126.
- 677 Shum, C., J.-Y. Guo, F. Hossain, J. Duan, D. E. Alsdorf, X.-J. Duan, C.-Y. Kuo, H. Lee, M. Schmidt,  
678 and L. Wang (2010), Inter-annual water storage changes in asia from GRACE data, in *Climate  
Change and Food Security in South Asia*, pp. 69–83, Springer
- 679 Spada, G., and P. Stocchi (2007), Selen: A Fortran 90 program for solving the sea-level equation,  
680 *Computers & Geosciences*, 33(4), 538–562.
- 681 Standish, E. (1995), The JPL planetary and lunar ephemerides DE402/LE402, in *Bulletin of the  
American Astronomical Society*, vol. 27, p. 1203.
- 682 Swenson, S., and J. Wahr (2006), Post-processing removal of correlated errors in GRACE data,  
683 *Geophysical Research Letters*, 33(8).
- 684 Tapley, B. D., S. Bettadpur, M. Watkins, and C. Reigber (2004), The gravity recovery and climate  
685 experiment: Mission overview and early results, *Geophysical Research Letters*, 31(9).
- 686 Tikhonov, A., and V. Y. Arsenin (1977), *Methods for solving ill-posed problems*, John Wiley and  
687 Sons, Inc.
- 688 Velicogna, I., and J. Wahr (2013), Time-variable gravity observations of ice sheet mass balance:  
689 Precision and limitations of the GRACE satellite data, *Geophysical Research Letters*, 40(12),

- 692 3055–3063.
- 693 Velicogna, I., T. Sutterley, and M. Van den Broeke (2014), Regional acceleration in ice mass loss  
694 from Greenland and Antarctica using GRACE time-variable gravity data, *Geophysical Research  
695 Letters*, 41(22), 8130–8137.
- 696 Wahr, J., M. Molenaar, and F. Bryan (1998), Time variability of the earth's gravity field: Hydrological  
697 and oceanic effects and their possible detection using GRACE, *Journal of Geophysical Research:  
698 Solid Earth*, 103(B12), 30,205–30,229.
- 699 Wang, H., L. Xiang, L. Jia, L. Jiang, Z. Wang, B. Hu, and P. Gao (2012), Load love numbers  
700 and Green's functions for elastic Earth models PREM, iasp91, ak135, and modified models with  
701 refined crustal structure from Crust 2.0, *Computers & Geosciences*, 49, 190–199.
- 702 Watkins, M. M., and D.-N. Yuan (2012), JPL Level-2 Processing Standards Document For Level-2  
703 Product Release 05.
- 704 Watkins, M. M., D. N. Wiese, D.-N. Yuan, C. Boening, and F. W. Landerer (2015), Improved methods  
705 for observing Earth's time variable mass distribution with GRACE using spherical cap mascons,  
706 *Journal of Geophysical Research: Solid Earth*, 120(4), 2648–2671.
- 707 Wittwer, T. (2009), Regional gravity field modelling with radial basis functions, Ph.D. thesis, TU  
708 Delft, Delft University of Technology.
- 709 Wouters, B., J. Bonin, D. Chambers, R. Riva, I. Sasgen, and J. Wahr (2014), GRACE, time-varying  
710 gravity, Earth system dynamics and climate change, *Reports on Progress in Physics*, 77(11),  
711 116,801.