Influence of station density and multi-constellation

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GNSS observations on troposphere tomography

3 Qingzhi Zhao¹, Kefei Zhang ^{2,3} and Wanqiang Yao¹

4 ¹College of Geomatics, Xi'an University of Science and Technology, Xi'an, China.

5 ²School of Environment Science and Spatial Informatics, China University of Mining and

6 Technology, Xuzhou, China

7 ³Satellite Positioning for Atmosphere, Climate and Environment (SPACE) Research Centre, RMIT

8 University, Melbourne, Australia

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10 Abstract: Troposphere tomography, using multi-constellation GNSS observations, has become a novel approach for the three-dimensional (3-d) reconstruction of water vapour fields. An analysis 11 12 of the integration of four Global Navigation Satellite Systems (BeiDou, GPS, GLONASS and Galileo) observations is presented to investigate the impact of station density and 13 14 single/multi-constellation GNSS observations on troposphere tomography. Additionally, the optimal horizontal resolution of the research area is determined in Hong Kong considering both 15 the number of voxels divided, and the coverage rate of discretized voxels penetrated by satellite 16 signals. The results show that densification of the GNSS network plays a more important role than 17 using multi-constellation GNSS observations in improving the retrieval of 3-d atmospheric water 18 19 vapour profiles. The RMS of SWD residuals derived from the single-GNSS observations has been 20 decreased by 16% when the data from the other four stations are added. Furthermore, additional experiments have been carried out to analyse the contributions of different combined GNSS data 21 22 to the reconstructed results, and the comparisons show some interesting result: (1) The number of 23 iterations used in determining the weighting matrices of different equations in tomography 24 modelling can be decreased when considering multi-constellation GNSS observations; (2) the 25 reconstructed quality of 3-d atmospheric water vapour using multi-constellation GNSS data can be improved by about 11% when compared to the PPP-estimated SWD, but this was not as high as 26 27 expected.

Keywords: Tropospheric tomography; Multi-constellation GNSS; Station density; Atmospheric
 water vapour.

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31 **1. Introduction**

For some years, GNSS-based tropospheric tomography has been regarded as one of the most promising techniques to reconstruct the temporal-spatial variation of atmospheric water vapour (Flores et al., 2000; Grespi et al., 2008). By discretising the area of interest into finite voxels, the water vapour information in divided voxels can be reconstructed under the assumption that the unknown estimated parameters are constant during a given period (Radon, 1917; Flores et al., 2000). So far, this technique has been proven by some feasibility studies with GPS-only observations (Troller, 2002; Bender and Raabe, 2007; Chen and Liu, 2014) as well as the
simulated multi-constellation GNSS observations (Grespi et al., 2008; Bender et al., 2011; Wang
et al., 2014; Benevides et al., 2015c; Benevides et al., 2017). In addition, a great improvement of
tomographic result has been achieved using the multi-constellation GNSS observation when
compared to that using GPS-only observations (Bender et al., 2011; Benevides et al., 2015c;
Benevides et al., 2017).

The geometry of the observed-signal distribution likes an inverted cone due to the fixed GNSS 44 45 stations in the regional network and the distribution of satellite rays, which has a negative effect 46 on tropospheric tomography (Benevides et al., 2015a, 2015b). The main disadvantage caused by 47 such phenomenon is the sparse filling of the discretised voxels at the edge and lower sections of 48 the area of interest (Bender and Raabe, 2007), and sparse filling means fewer voxels are crossed 49 by satellite rays. Therefore, the distances are almost zero for those voxels not crossed by satellite 50 signals, which consist the design matrix. Optimising the design matrix of observation equation is a 51 way to overcome such bad condition by selecting a non-uniform symmetrical division of horizontal voxels and a non-uniform thickness of the vertical voxel layers (Nilsson and 52 53 Gradinarsky, 2006; Yao and Zhao, 2016a, 2016b). Imposing the satellite rays which come out 54 from the side of the research area onto the reconstructed model is another effective way to 55 optimise the structure of the design matrix (Yao and Zhao, 2016b; Yao et al., 2016; Zhao and Yao, 56 2017). In addition, using more slant-path observations derived from the upcoming fully-operational GNSS constellations (BeiDou, GLONASS, and Galileo) is a possible way to 57 solve this issue (Grespi et al., 2008; Bender et al., 2011; Benevides et al., 2017). Finally, 58 59 densifying the GNSS network is another feasible way to improve the stability and structure of the 60 design matrix (Nilsson and Gradinarsky, 2006).

61 Multi-constellation GNSS observations simulated with ideal data have been used for GNSS tomography technique, however, it cannot reflect the real conditions of multi-constellation GNSS 62 63 observations, including the variations in latitudes, areas, topography, and the surroundings of 64 GNSS stations (Nilsson and Gradinarsky, 2006; Grespi et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2014). Therefore, the preliminary result concluded from those studies needs further verification based on the 65 66 observed multi-constellation GNSS data. Although some tomographic experiments have been 67 performed using the observed multi-GNSS observations (Benevides et al., 2017; Dong et al., 2018; Zhao et al, 2018), the influence of station density and different combination of multi-GNSS 68 observations on troposphere tomography have never been well-investigated, which is the focus of 69 70 this study. In this paper, a method is proposed to determine the optimal division of voxels in the 71 horizontal direction automatically according to the range of the tomography area as well as the 72 number and distribution of GNSS stations. The influence of the number of stations in a network 73 on the tomographic result and the reconstructed wet refractivity field derived from multi-GNSS 74 observations are both analysed. Finally, the quality and reliability of tomographic atmospheric 75 water vapour obtained from different combined multi-constellation GNSS observations is analysed. 76

The aim of this paper is to analyse the influence of station density and single/multi-constellation GNSS observations on tropospheric tomography in an upcoming future scenario of having the multi-GNSS constellations fully operated. The structure of this paper is organised as follows: Sect. II presents the theory of tropospheric tomography, Sect. III describes the experimental data and the determination of horizontal resolution. The importance and influence of station density and single/multi-constellation GNSS observations on troposphere tomography are analysed in detail
and compared in Sects IV and V, respectively, and key conclusions are presented in Sect. VI.

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2. GNSS tropospheric tomography

Generally, slant wet delay (SWD) and slant water vapour (SWV) are two types of input
observations used in building the observation equations, and the corresponding output results are
wet refractivity and water vapour density, respectively (Flores et al., 2000; Skone and Hoyle, 2005;
Notarpietro et al., 2011; Champollion et al., 2005). Two kinds of reconstructed output information
can be inter-converted with atmospheric temperature field information (Bender et al., 2011). In
this paper, the SWD is selected to reconstruct the atmospheric wet refractivity field.

92 The zenith tropospheric delay (ZTD) is estimated with high precision using the GNSS observation, 93 consists of two parts, which includes zenith hydrostatic delay (ZHD) and zenith wet delay (ZWD). 94 The former can be accurately estimated based on the empirical model, *e.g.*, Saastamoinen (1973), 95 with the observed surface pressure information. Therefore, the latter is obtained by subtracting the 96 ZHD from ZTD. In our study, the observed multi-constellation GNSS data are processed using the 97 multi-constellation GNSS Precise Point Positioning (PPP) software with precise orbit and clock 98 error products (Zhao et al., 2018). Consequently, the SWD can be expressed as:

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$$SWD_{azi,ele} = m_w(ele) \cdot ZWD + m_w(ele) \cdot cot(ele) \cdot (G_{NS}^w \cdot cos(azi) + G_{WE}^w \cdot sin(azi))$$
(1)

100 Where m_{w} is the wet mapping function. In our processing, the wet Vienna Mapping Function 101 (VMF) is adopted; *ele* refers to the satellite elevation angle while *azi* represents the azimuth 102 angle. G_{NS}^{w} and G_{WE}^{w} are the north-south and west-east gradients of wet delay, respectively, 103 which are caused by the non-isotropic nature of atmospheric water vapour distributions (Bi et al., 104 2006).

105 The SWD value from the satellite to GNSS station antenna is an integral expression, given by:

SWD = $10^{-6} \cdot \int N_w(s) ds$

(2)

107 Where N_w represents the wet refractivity (mm/km) and *s* is the distance over which the 108 satellite signal penetrates the troposphere (km). According to this tomographic technique, the area 109 of interest is divided into a number of voxels and the wet refractivity parameters are considered 110 unchanged during the selected period. Consequently, the total SWD value can be expressed as the 111 sum of discretised delay parts in each voxel along the satellite ray path:

112 $SWD = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{p} (a_{ijk} \cdot x_{ijk})$ (3)

113 Where *m* and *n* are the total number of voxels divided in longitudinal and latitudinal 114 directions while *p* is the total number in vertical direction, respectively; a_{ijk} is the distance of 115 satellite rays, and x_{ijk} is the unknown wet refractivity parameters in voxel (i, j, k), respectively. 116 Therefore, the observation equation of tomography modelling can be established for all GNSS 117 stations in a network of interesting area.

As mentioned above, the geometric distribution of satellite rays in the tomographic area is an 118 inverted cone, thus the design matrix of observation equations is a sparse matrix and not all of the 119 unknowns can be determined. To solve the problem of rank deficiency, some external constraints 120 are required (Flores et al., 2000; Troller et al., 2006; Rohm and Bosy., 2011). Two constraints are 121 122 imposed in this paper, the one is the horizontal weighted constraint, and the other is the vertical constraint based on the observed radiosonde data in the first three days of the reconstructed epoch. 123 Consequently, the conventional tomographic modelling imposed the following constraint 124 125 equations:

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$$\begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{A} \\ \boldsymbol{H} \\ \boldsymbol{V} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \boldsymbol{x} = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{y}_{swd} \\ \boldsymbol{0} \\ \boldsymbol{y}_{rs} \end{pmatrix}$$
(4)

127 Where H represents to the horizontal coefficient matrices while V refers to the vertical 128 coefficient matrices, respectively. y_{swd} is a vector with SWD values while y_{rs} is the *a priori* 129 information obtained from the radiosonde information. The form of solution of the unknown wet 130 refractivity vector can be written as:

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$$\hat{\boldsymbol{x}} = (\boldsymbol{A}^T \cdot \boldsymbol{P}_A \cdot \boldsymbol{A} + \boldsymbol{H}^T \cdot \boldsymbol{P}_H \cdot \boldsymbol{H} + \boldsymbol{V}^T \cdot \boldsymbol{P}_V \cdot \boldsymbol{V})^{-1} \cdot (\boldsymbol{A}^T \cdot \boldsymbol{P}_A \cdot \boldsymbol{y}_{swd} + \boldsymbol{V}^T \cdot \boldsymbol{P}_V \cdot \boldsymbol{y}_{rs})$$
(5)

132 Where P_A, P_H , and P_V are the weighting matrices of observation, horizontal and vertical

equation, respectively. The weighting matrices for different equations are determined by an optimal weighting method and the homogeneity test was adopted to verify the statistical equality of three kinds of *a posteriori* unit weight variances (Bartlett, 1937; Guo et al., 2016). Here, the radiosonde data of the tomographic epoch is also used as the a priori information for the location of radiosonde station.

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3. Tomography experiment and description

140 **3.1 Experimental data**

A network consisting of fourteen GNSS Satellite Reference Stations (SatRef) in Hong Kong was 141 selected to perform the tomography experiment during the period of Doy 4 to 26, 2017. The 142 geographic locations of GNSS and radiosonde stations are presented in Fig. 1. The sampling 143 interval of the GNSS observations used here was 30 s. The radiosonde station in the experimental 144 area is used to test the reconstructed result of GNSS troposphere tomography. The range of 145 tomographic region is from 113.87 °E to 114.35 °E and 22.18 °N to 22.54 °N while the vertical 146 height is from 0 to 9 km. The horizontal resolution, in voxel terms, is 4×12 in latitudinal and 147 longitudinal directions as determined by an optimal voxel division method, which will be 148 149 described below. The vertical resolution adopts a non-uniform vertical layer strategy (Yao and 150 Zhao, 2016b) with two layers of a thickness of 500 m, three layers of 600 m, four layers of 800 m, 151 and three layers of 1000 m from the ground to the top of tomography region.





Fig. 1. Geographic location of GNSS and radiosonde stations in SatRef of Hong Kong. The blue
 triangles are used to increase the station density, while the station HKSC marked in red and

radiosonde station 45004 marked in green are used to evaluate the performance of tomographic

result

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159 **3.2 Determination of horizontal resolution**

In the procedure of horizontal voxel division, an approach is developed which enables the 160 determination of the optimal horizontal resolution according to the scope of tomography region as 161 162 well as the number and distribution of GNSS stations. The specific principle is that: guaranteeing the relatively large coverage rate of GNSS stations located in the bottom layer to optimize the 163 design matrix of the observation equation, and considering a higher horizontal resolution to reflect 164 165 the atmospheric water vapour distribution in as much detail as possible, therefore, a comparative experiment is performed to validate the developed approach of determining horizontal resolution. 166 Here, the coverage rate refers to the ratio between the voxels crossed by satellite rays and total 167 168 voxels divided in the tomographic area. Nine schemes are designed (Table 1): the number of voxels for the bottom layers and the coverage rate of distributed stations located at the bottom 169 170 layer are calculated. It can be concluded that Scheme 3 was optimal while considering both the number of voxels divided and the coverage rate of GNSS stations located in the bottom layers. 171

C -1	Longitude	Total	Step of	Step of	Coverage rate
Scheme	×Latitude	voxels	longitude	latitude	of stations (%)
1	12×9	108	0.04	0.04	13.0
2	12×6	72	0.04	0.06	18.1
3	12×4	48	0.04	0.09	29.2
4	8×9	72	0.06	0.04	19.4
5	8×6	48	0.06	0.06	25.0
6	8×4	32	0.06	0.09	43.8
7	6×9	54	0.08	0.04	25.9
8	6×6	36	0.08	0.06	36.1

Table 1. Statistical result of determining a horizontal resolution for nine schemes

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In addition, the coverage rate of the satellite rays for the entire research region is analysed for the 174 date of doy 4, 2017 under nine combined multi-constellation GNSS observations. In this study, the 175 time period for each tomography is selected as five minutes. The specific statistical result is 176 presented in Table 2, where G/C/R/E refer to GPS, BeiDou, GLONASS, and Galileo, respectively. 177 The conclusion can be drawn that the coverage rate of satellite rays in Schemes 3, 6, 8, and 9 are 178 relatively large. Considering the number of voxels and coverage rate of stations located in the 179 bottom layers, Scheme 3 is also considered as the optimal choice. Further to the conclusion above 180 it can also be concluded that the coverage rate of voxels penetrated by satellite signals for the 181 entire region using two/three/four-GNSS observations both increased with the minimum coverage 182 rate by approximately 5% when compared to the single-GNSS conditions. 183

				(Uni	t: %)				
Scheme	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
G	51.3	60.8	72.7	61.0	69.8	81.4	67.2	76.0	85.8
С	50.0	61.2	73.9	57.4	68.5	80.6	62.2	72.6	82.5
R	44.0	54.4	67.7	53.5	62.9	78.0	61.5	71.5	84.1
Е	30.9	40.3	53.1	40.0	50.6	64.9	47.0	57.7	72.1
GC	62.1	71.2	79.3	69.0	77.6	85.0	72.8	81.2	87.8
GR	60.4	68.8	79.5	68.0	75.8	85.2	73.1	80.9	88.5
CR	59.2	69.5	79.1	65.9	75.9	84.4	70.9	80.3	86.9
GCR	65.6	74.1	81.7	71.6	80.0	86.5	75.5	83.3	89.2
GCRF	66.9	75 3	823	72 5	80.5	86.8	76.1	83.6	89.5

184Table 2. Coverage rate of satellite rays for nine combined multi-constellation GNSS observations

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4. Influence of station density on tropospheric tomography

In this section, four schemes are designed to analyse the influence of station density and 188 multi-constellation GNSS data on the reconstructed atmospheric wet refractivity. For Schemes 1 189 190 and 2, only ten GNSS stations are used, as shown by the nine black triangles and one red triangle 191 in Figure 1, but considering the single-GNSS observation and different multi-constellation GNSS 192 combinations. The single-GNSS observation is abbreviated to G-10, C-10, R-10, and E-10, respectively while those combinations are abbreviated to GC-10, GR-10, CR-10, GCR-10, and 193 194 GCRE-10, respectively. For Schemes 3 and 4, all fourteen GNSS stations are selected for this 195 tomographic experiment but considering single-GNSS observation and different 196 multi-constellation GNSS combinations. The single-GNSS observation is abbreviated to G-14, C-14, R-14, and E-14, respectively while those combinations are abbreviated to GC-14, GR-14, 197 CR-14, GCR-14, and GCRE-14, respectively. The following analysis focussed on: (1) the 198 investigating of four schemes in the number of GNSS rays used and coverage rate of the voxels 199 penetrated by GNSS rays, respectively; (2) the comparison of reconstructed result with radiosonde 200 data as well as the PPP-estimated SWD values of station HKSC, respectively. 201

4.1 Comparison of GNSS rays used and the coverage rate of voxels penetrated

203 23 days of data during the period doy 4-26, 2017 are analysed and Table 3 shows the mean value

of GNSS rays used and coverage rate of voxels penetrated by signals for the test period. It can be concluded from the statistical results (Table 3) that the number of signals used in Schemes 2 and 4 is apparently large (double to triple) compared to that of Schemes 1 and 3, however, percentage difference of voxels crossed by rays between Schemes 1/3 and Schemes 2/4 is not as expected except for the cases of E-10 and E-14. The number of Galileo satellite observations is small during the test period, therefore, a low number of signals used and a low coverage rate of voxels penetrated by GNSS signals existed for the cases of E-10 and E-14 in Schemes 1 and 3.

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Table 3. Number of GNSS rays used and the coverage rate of crossed voxels in different schemes during the experimental period

			0	1	1				
		Scher	me 1				Scheme	e 2	
	G	С	R	Е	GC	GR	CR	GCR	GCRE
	-10	-10	-10	-10	-10	-10	-10	-10	-10
Number of signals used	673	761	471	233	1433	1144	1232	1905	2137
Coverage rate of voxels (%)	66.6	60.8	57.3	37.0	73.8	73.6	71.2	76.9	77.4
		Schei	me 3			6	Scheme	4	
	G	С	R	Е	GC	GR	CR	GCR	GCRE
	-14	-14	-14	-14	-14	-14	-14	-14	-14
Number of signals used	974	1123	693	349	2097	1668	1816	2791	3139
Coverage rate	75.3	71.8	68.0	50.0	80.0	79.8	78.8	82.0	82.3

*-14 refers to the statistical result with single-GNSS observations derived from fourteen stations

*-10 refers to the statistical result with multi-constellation GNSS observations derived from tenstations

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To analyse the number of SWDs used and the coverage rate of voxels, the average values of four schemes for each day is calculated in Figures 2-5, respectively. Due to the number of Galileo satellites is lower, therefore, the cases associated with Galileo are not considered in four schemes. Figures 2 and 4 reveals that the signals used for each day in Schemes 2 and 4 are more than double that in Schemes 1 and 3, however, Figures 3 and 5 reveals that the proportion of voxels penetrated by GNSS signals in Schemes 2 and 4 are only improved by approximately 12% and 8.7%, respectively than that in Schemes 1 and 3.

225 Table 4 lists statistical results relating to SWD numbers and the coverage rate of voxels for the 226 four Schemes mentioned above. From Table 4 we concluded that although the number of satellite 227 rays has been doubled, the percentage of crosses voxels is increased by approximately 12% and 228 8%, respectively for the comparisons of schemes 1 and 2 as well as schemes 3 and 4. However, 229 the voxels crossed by rays have been improved by 10% and 6%, respectively when comparing the schemes 1 and 3 as well as schemes 2 and 4 under the conditions that only considering additional 230 231 four GNSS stations for single-GNSS and multi-GNSS. This indicates that the station density has a 232 more important influence on the coverage rate of voxels crossed by rays than multi-constellation GNSS observations. 233







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Figure 2. Average number of SWDs used in 5 minutes for Schemes 1 and 2 during the experimental period



Figure 3. Average coverage rate of voxels penetrated by GNSS signals for Schemes 1 and 2 during
the experimental period





Figure 4. Average number of SWDs used in 5 minutes for Schemes 3 and 4 during the

experimental period



Figure 5. Average coverage rate of voxels penetrated by GNSS signals for Schemes 3 and 4 during
 the experimental period
 Table 4. Statistical information of GNSS signals used and the percentage of voxels penetrated

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during the tested period for four schemes

Sahama	Number of	Percentage of
Scheme	signals used	crossed voxels (%)
1	635	61.6
2	1429	73.9
3	930	71.7
4	2093	80.2

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251 4.2 Comparison with radiosonde data

252 In this section, we further compared the influence of station density on the tomographic result. In 253 the experimental area, there is a radiosonde station, as shown by the green circle in Figure 1. Several studies have proved that radiosonde data has a high accuracy in providing the water 254 vapour profiles (Niell et al., 2001; Liu et al., 2013), and the result calculated from radiosonde is 255 256 used as a reference in this paper to evaluate the tomographic result. The comparison experiment of 257 reconstructed wet refractivity profile information using different GNSS observations at the radiosonde station with the radiosonde data is carried out at two specific epochs (UTC 00:00 and 258 259 12:00, respectively). Figure 6 shows the root mean square (RMS) error of wet refractivity difference between different tomography conditions and radiosonde data. Table 5 gives the 260 specific statistical information pertaining to RMS, bias, and mean absolute error (MAE) for 261 different Schemes. From Figure 6 and Table 5, we can conclude that the tomographic results using 262 different single/multi-constellation GNSS observations are similar at the radiosonde location. This 263 264 is because (1) the priori information of radiosonde has been imposed into the tomography 265 modelling for the location of radiosonde station; (2) station HKSC is near the radiosonde station, and a relatively large amount of GNSS observations distributed for the location of radiosonde 266 station. However, such a result cannot represent the quality of reconstructed results of wet 267 refractivity fields for the entire region. Therefore, the performance of the tomographic result for 268







Figure 6. RMS error of wet refractivity difference derived from various conditions during the experiment period

 Table 5. Statistical result of RMS, Bias and MAE of wet refractivity difference for different

 Schemes during the experimental period

		8 1	1	
Sahama		RMS	Bias	MAE
Scheme		(mm/km)	(mm/km)	(mm/km)
	G-14	9.78	1.54	7.12
Simala	C-14	9.78	1.55	7.14
Single	R-14	9.75	1.64	7.15
	E-14	9.76	1.66	7.14
	GC-10	9.72	1.40	7.10
	GR-10	9.71	1.40	7.10
Multi	CR-10	9.72	1.46	7.10
	GCR-10	9.68	1.41	7.07
	GCRE-10	9.66	1.42	7.07

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277 4.3 Comparison with PPP-estimated SWDs

278 To assess the reconstructed result of the entire region, two new schemes are designed: Scheme 1, 279 only the single-GNSS observations of thirteen GNSS stations (except for HKSC) are used for 280 reconstructing the atmospheric wet refractivity; Scheme 2, nine GNSS stations, as shown by the black triangles in Figure 1, are selected using combined multi-constellation GNSS observations. 281 The slant wet delays (SWDs) of station HKSC are computed based on the different tomographic 282 results and against the GNSS PPP-estimated SWDs. The RMS and MAE of SWD residuals for 283 284 each day in two schemes are presented in Figures 7 and 8, where the red dashed line represents the 285 average RMS and MAE obtained under conditions G-13, C-13, R-13, and E-13 while the blue dashed line represents the average RMS and MAE obtained from cases GC-9, GR-9, CR-9, 286 287 GCR-9, and GCRE-9, respectively. Figures 7 and 8 reveal that the average RMS and MAE of Scheme 1 is mostly lower than that of Scheme 2 over the experimental period, which shows that 288 289 the reconstructed atmospheric wet refractivity field of Scheme 1 over the entire research area is

superior to the tomographic result of Scheme 2. Statistical results pertaining to different schemes are listed in Table 6, from which it is seen that, compared to Scheme 2, the average RMS and MAE accuracy of Scheme 1 is increased by 16% and 33.4%, respectively. Hence it was concluded that, compared to the tomographic result of multi-constellation GNSS observations, increasing the station density has greater significance to the reconstruction of the atmospheric water vapour field.





297 Figure 7. Average RMS of SWD residuals for different schemes over the experimental period



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Figure 8. Average RMS of MAE residuals for different schemes over the experimental period
 Table 6. Statistical result of RMS and MAE of different tomographic strategies over the

experimental period						
Scheme		RMS	MAE			
	G-13	9.78	7.12			
Single	C-13	9.77	7.14			
Single	R-13	9.79	7.15			
	E-13	9.76	7.14			
	GC-9	11.64	10.62			
Multi	GR-9	11.99	11.09			
	CR-9	11.50	10.66			

GCR-9	11.55	10.61
GCRE-9	11.52	10.58

5 Analysis of multi-constellation GNSS troposphere tomography

5.1 Comparison of signals used and coverage rate of voxels penetrated

305 Here, all fourteen GNSS stations are selected to reconstruct the atmospheric wet refractivity, and the tomographic results derived from different multi-constellation GNSS observations are 306 compared and analysed. Nine types of single/multi-constellation GNSS observations are designed 307 in schemes designated: G-14, C-14, R-14, E-14, GC-14, GR-14, CR-14, GCR-14, and GCR-14, 308 respectively. Before evaluating the performance of the tomographic result, the average number of 309 GNSS signals used and the percentage of voxels penetrated over the experimental period for each 310 311 tomography step are first analysed (Table 7). Table 7 reveals that compared to schemes G-14 C-14, R-14, and E-14, multi-constellation GNSS schemes have more voxels crossed by rays, but the 312 change is relatively small with respect to the coverage rate of voxels. 313

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Table 7. Statistical information of the number of GNSS rays used and the coverage rate of voxels

penetrated									
	G	С	R	Е	GC	GR	CR	GCR	GCRE
_	-14	-14	-14	-14	-14	-14	-14	-14	-14
Number of signals used	974	1123	693	349	2097	1168	1816	2791	3139
Coverage rate of voxels (%)	75.3	71.8	68.0	50.0	80.0	79.8	78.8	82.0	82.4

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5.2 Evaluation of multi-constellation GNSS troposphere tomography

To analyse the performance of the multi-constellation GNSS troposphere tomography, the wet 319 refractivity profile derived from nine schemes is first compared with the result from the 320 321 radiosonde data thereat. The average RMS, Bias and MAE of wet refractivity difference between 322 different schemes and radiosonde data over the experimental period are calculated (Table 8). As 323 mentioned in Section 2, an iterative procedure is required to determine the weighting matrices of different equations in tomographic modelling. Therefore, the number of iterations and the average 324 325 elevation angle of satellite signals for different schemes are also considered (Table 8). It can be observed from Table 8 that the average RMS, Bias, and MAE of different schemes are similar, 326 327 which reflects the fact that the reconstructed wet refractivity profile obtained from different schemes applied at the radiosonde station have equivalent accuracy. 328

However, the number of iterations of various schemes are different when determining the weighting matrices of the different types of equations used in tomographic modelling. By analysing the relationship between the number of iterations and elevation angles over the tested period, a negative linear relationship is found between two factors and the fitted data are presented in Figure 9. Such a negative correlation reveals that the resolving time of tomographic modelling can be decreased with multi-constellation GNSS observations, which is important in the real-time reconstruction of atmospheric water vapour.

Table 8. Statistical result of average RMS, Bias, MAE, elevation angle and iteration times for
 different schemes over the experimental period

different schemes over the experimental period						
Scheme	RMS	Bias	MAE	Iteration times	Elevation angle (°)	
G-14	9.78	1.54	7.12	4.8	39.8	
C-14	9.77	1.55	7.14	3.5	51.9	
R-14	9.79	1.64	7.15	5.0	40.2	
E-14	9.76	1.66	7.14	4.2	44.5	
GC-14	9.76	1.54	7.11	4.1	45.8	
GR-14	9.75	1.52	7.10	5.1	40.0	
CR-14	9.78	1.56	7.14	4.2	46.1	
GCR-14	9.76	1.55	7.09	3.8	44.0	
GCRE-14	9.75	1.55	7.10	3.7	44.1	



Figure 9. Relationship between iteration times and elevation angle during the experimental period

341 As mentioned above, the accuracy of different schemes evaluated for the location of radiosonde 342 cannot represent the tomographic quality across the entire region, therefore, a further comparison is carried out using only thirteen GNSS stations in the network except for station HKSC. The slant 343 wet delays of station HKSC, estimated using multi-GNSS PPP software, are compared with the 344 calculated SWDs derived from different schemes. Figures 10 and 11 show the average RMS and 345 346 MAE of SWD residuals on each day during the experiment, where the blue dashed line represents 347 the average of RMS and MAE obtained from schemes G-13, C-13, R-13, and E-13, while the red 348 dashed line represents the average of RMS and MAE obtained from schemes GC-13, GR-13, 349 CR-13, GCR-13, and GCRE-13. From those two Figures, it was found that the reconstructed 350 quality of atmospheric wet refractivity field data for the entire region using multi-constellation GNSS observations has been slightly improved when compared to that using single-constellation 351 GNSS data. By analysing the statistical results pertaining to different schemes (Table 9) it was 352 353 found that, compared to the single-constellation GNSS troposphere tomography, RMS accuracy of 354 the multi-constellation GNSS troposphere tomography improved by about 10%.





357 Figure 10. Average RMS of SWD residuals for different schemes over the experimental period



359 Figure 11. Average MAE of SWD residuals for different schemes over the experimental period

360 Table 9. Statistical result of RMS, Bias and MAE of SWD residuals from different schemes over

361

the experimental period						
Scheme	RMS	Bias	MAE			
G-13	9.83	6.71	8.62			
C-13	8.58	6.34	8.58			
R-13	9.05	7.65	9.05			
E-13	9.41	7.62	8.83			
GC-13	9.03	6.44	7.96			
GR-13	9.40	6.66	8.28			
CR-13	8.89	6.78	7.96			
GCR-13	8.78	6.38	7.77			
GCRE-13	8.75	6.36	7.73			

362

363 6 Conclusion

364 The observed multi-constellation GNSS (GPS, BeiDou, GLONASS, and Galileo) observations

have been used to investigate the importance and influence of station density and multi-GNSS
constellation data on troposphere tomography. The SWDs of fourteen GNSS stations in a network
in Hong Kong are estimated using the multi-constellation GNSS PPP software.

For GNSS troposphere tomography, the horizontal resolution of voxels is first determined 368 according to the number of voxels and the coverage rate of GNSS stations located in the bottom 369 370 layer. A comparative experiment using single/multi-constellation GNSS data derived from 371 different numbers of stations revealed that increasing the station density improved the quality of tomographic results with the RMS accuracy of SWDs residuals increasing by about 16% when 372 compared to the result of using multi-constellation GNSS troposphere tomography. In addition, 373 374 compared to the single-constellation GNSS observations, troposphere tomography using 375 multi-constellation GNSS data can: (1) reduce the resolving time when determining the weighting 376 matrices of different equations used in tomographic modelling, which has practical significance 377 for the real-time reconstruction of atmospheric water vapour profiles; and (2) improve the quality 378 of tomographic results to a certain extent.

The upcoming full operability of the multi-constellation GNSS is expected to increase the number of SWDs used for troposphere tomography. Although the improvement of reconstructed results is not as expected, it was mainly determined by the spatial distribution of GNSS stations, multi-constellation GNSS troposphere tomography is also worth studying, especially for potential application of this technique in real-time atmospheric water vapour reconstruction.

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