Volcano monitoring using GPS: Developing data analysis strategies based on the June 2007 Kīlauea Volcano intrusion and eruption

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[1] The global positioning system (GPS) is one of the most common techniques, and the current state of the art, used to monitor volcano deformation. In addition to slow (several centimeters per year) displacement rates, GPS can be used to study eruptions and intrusions that result in much larger (tens of centimeters over hours–days) displacements. It is challenging to resolve precise positions using GPS at subdaily time intervals because of error sources such as multipath and atmospheric refraction. In this paper, the impact of errors due to multipath and atmospheric refraction at subdaily periods is examined using data from the GPS network on Kīlauea Volcano, Hawai‘i. Methods for filtering position estimates to enhance precision are both simulated and tested on data collected during the June 2007 intrusion and eruption. Comparisons with tiltmeter records show that GPS instruments can precisely recover the timing of the activity.


1. Introduction

[2] The study of volcanoes continues to benefit from the revolution in space geodesy (see e.g., Dzurisin [2007]). Space-based techniques such as interferometric synthetic aperture radar (InSAR) provide high-spatial-density images of volcano deformation, often in regions that are difficult to instrument on the ground [Jónsson et al., 1999; Pritchard and Simons, 2004]. In contrast, global positioning system (GPS) volcano monitoring systems must be installed on the ground and thus are at risk of destruction during eruptions and may be influenced by adverse weather conditions or other problems [Cervelli et al., 2006; Lisowski et al., 2008]. Nevertheless, a GPS monitoring system has the advantage that it can place precise constraints on the timing of eruptions that cannot be retrieved from InSAR data. It also provides three-dimensional positions that complement terrestrial deformation data sets that are sensitive at other timescales (i.e., continuous tilt and strain).

[1] GPS receivers routinely collect data at fairly high sampling rates (15 or 30 s), but it is less common to estimate positions at those rates. Most GPS studies of deformation on volcanoes are based on 24-h averaged positions [Cervelli et al., 2002a, 2002b, 2006; Lisowski et al., 2008]. This is clearly advantageous when deformation rates are relatively slow, <5 mm/d. In addition to daily positions, Owen et al. [2000] and Segall et al. [2001] used hourly GPS solutions to examine large signals associated with a dike intrusion. Irwan et al. [2003] estimated 30 s GPS positions in their study of Miyakejima volcanic event of June 2000. No evaluation of coordinate precision is given by Irwan et al. [2003], but it is clear that the noise level is small compared to the very large signals for this event, 40 cm subsidence and 80 cm lengthening.

[4] Recent work that demonstrated GPS positions estimated at 1 s could be used to observe seismic displacements [Larson et al., 2003; Bock et al., 2004; Ji et al., 2004] suggests that volcano monitoring should also move to sampling (and positioning) rates of 1 s, particularly since existing GPS receivers can be operated at 1 or 30 s at the same cost (telemetry for the two data streams is a separate issue). Some initial work at these higher sampling rates has already been done. For example, Mattia et al. [2004] collected GPS data on Stromboli Island at 1 s but then averaged positions for 10 min time periods. Presumably 10 min was chosen to reduce noise in the average position estimates, but the tradeoff between precision and averaging interval is not known. The methodology used by Mattia et al. [2004] is well suited to real-time monitoring but is limited to short baselines (several km), reporting 5 and 25 mm precision in the horizontal and vertical coordinates, respectively. Patané et al. [2007] also calculated 1 s GPS positions for the Stromboli volcano but passband filtered the data at 2–5 min periods to study the magmatic system.

[5] This paper is an update of a previous assessment of GPS data analysis strategies for volcano monitoring [Larson et al., 2001]. In that work, data from the GPS network on Kīlauea Volcano were used to evaluate Kalman filtering strategies in an effort to optimize subdaily position estimates. Only position results at 15 min time intervals were...
discussed. The geophysical signals used to test the Kalman filtering methods were quite small, with a maximum size of 3 cm. The data used in that study were collected in the first half of 1998. This study focuses on a data set collected nearly 10 years later, in June 2007. In the decade between the two studies, there have been numerous changes in the GPS system. The GPS constellation is now ~15% larger. International Terrestrial Reference Frame 2005 (ITRF2005), a newer and more accurate terrestrial reference frame [Altamimi et al., 2007], is embedded in the International Global Navigation Satellite Systems Service (IGS) [Beutler et al., 1994] orbits used in data processing. The IGS orbits currently report an average radial RMS precision of 8 mm, whereas in 1998 the stated precision of orbits computed in the ITRF94 reference frame was 32 mm. Improved orbit precisions directly relate to improved positioning precision.

Another important improvement in the last decade has been the availability of more precise troposphere modeling strategies [e.g., Bar-Sever et al., 1998]. All of these changes should produce better precision in GPS position estimates at higher sampling rates than was possible a decade ago. We also have the opportunity to test high-rate GPS data analysis strategies on a larger geophysical signal than was available to Larson et al. [2001] (i.e., the June 2007 Kilauea Volcano dike intrusion and eruption) [Poland et al., 2008; Montgomery-Brown et al., 2010].

2. Geologic Setting

Since 1983, Kilauea Volcano, on the island of Hawai‘i, has erupted almost continuously from the Pu‘u ‘Ō‘ō and Kupaianaha vents on the east rift zone (Figure 1) [Heliker and Mattox, 2003]. These vents are fed by magma that is transported laterally from storage reservoirs beneath the volcano’s summit caldera [e.g., Cervelli and Miklius, 2003]. The Pu‘u ‘Ō‘ō-Kupaianaha eruption has been interrupted on several occasions by small intrusions and eruptions between the summit and Pu‘u ‘Ō‘ō. These events result in rapid summit deflation and collapse of the Pu‘u ‘Ō‘ō cone (as magma drains from both areas to feed the intrusion or eruption) and in dilation of the rift zone due to magma injection, as exemplified by events in 1997 [Owen et al., 2000] and 1999 [Cervelli et al., 2002a].

[7] The most geodetically well characterized of these east rift zone intrusions and eruptions occurred in 2007. At 12:16 Coordinated Universal Time (UTC) on 17 June (the Father’s Day holiday), rapid summit deflation began coincident with the onset of a seismic swarm and dilation at the east rift zone. Sometime during the local night of 18 and 19 June, a small eruption occurred on the east rift zone between the summit and Pu‘u ‘Ō‘ō. Summit deformation switched to inflation at 20:30 UTC on June 19, indicating the end of the Father’s Day intrusion/eruption. During this event the summit caldera subsided by a maximum of ~0.12 m near Halema‘uma‘u Crater, while the east rift zone dilated by a maximum of about 1 m near Makaopuhi Crater. The reader is directed to Poland et al. [2008] and Montgomery-Brown et al. [2010] for additional information on the Father’s Day event.

[8] Although most GPS sites on Kilauea were dominated by signals associated with the intrusion during 17–19 June, GPS sites on the coast, far from the summit and east rift zone and outside the region affected by intrusion-related deformation, experienced displacements consistent with aseismic flank slip. This deformation started about 15–20 h after the initiation of the intrusion, leading Brooks et al. [2008] to hypothesize that the Father’s Day intrusive/eruptive activity triggered a slow earthquake.

[9] At the time of the Father’s Day eruption and intrusion, there were 20 GPS stations operating on Kilauea Volcano (Figure 1). The default sampling interval for all GPS receivers was 30 s, although some receivers recorded data at 1 s. Most of the stations have antennas on masts in concrete pillars or metal monuments about 1 m high, cemented into bare or ash-mantled lava flows. The sites UWEV, AHUP, and BYRL are most sensitive to motions near Kilauea caldera, while the middle-east rift zone is monitored by two rift-crossing baselines (NUPM-KTPM and HALR-WAOP). One GPS station was located on Pu‘u ‘Ō‘ō (PUOC), and several stations measure deformation of Kilauea’s mobile south flank (PGF1-6, GOPM, MANE, KAEP, and HOLE). One station tracks deformation in the southwest rift zone (KOSM) and one station monitors the lower-east rift zone (WAPM). This study focuses on data recorded at the summit, south flank, and middle-east rift zone. Modeling of the GPS data is discussed.
by Montgomery-Brown et al. [2010]; this paper emphasizes resolution of the GPS data.

3. Subdaily GPS Data Analysis Methodologies

[10] Any GPS data analysis strategy should be based on a careful evaluation of both the frequency band of the geophysical signal of interest and likely GPS error sources. Overall, subdaily GPS position estimates are affected by the same error sources as daily averaged positions. But with GPS (radial) orbit precisions of better than 1 cm, the most important error sources impacting subdaily GPS precision are multipath and water vapor. We also will also discuss the impact of receiver sampling rate, averaging and filtering on positioning precision. We discuss these issues in turn.

3.1. Multipath

[11] There are no physics-based multipath models used in routine analysis of GPS data. There are, however, empirically based multipath models which for some situations are very helpful. For example, modified sidereal filtering [Genrich and Bock, 1992; Choi et al., 2004] or aspect repeat time adjustment [Larson et al., 2007] has been shown to reduce multipath error in 1 s GPS data sets. It has been less rigorously tested for the 30 s data typically available in the Hawai‘i data set. Nevertheless, if the multipath periods are sufficiently long (for reflections from the ground, multipath periods depend on antenna height), a technique like modified sidereal filtering should reduce multipath errors. Ground multipath for antenna heights in the range 0.5–2 m used in Hawaii produces errors at periods of ∼30–10 min, meaning that the 30 s sampled data should be more than adequate for modeling multipath, if the ground surface at Kilauea GPS sites produces strong specular (mirror-like) reflections.

[12] Evidence of ground multipath (or lack thereof) can be seen in the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) data or in the power spectra of high-rate positions. Bilich and Larson [2007] advocated making frequency-specific multipath maps, but their code (1) was never generalized for common usage and (2) did not specifically address ground multipath frequencies. Here we show that a simple examination of the raw SNR data can be used to evaluate whether ground reflections are prevalent in the data. Since multipath signals are much stronger at low elevation angles, this analysis only includes measurements between 10° and 25° elevation angles.

[13] Figure 2 shows SNR data for 12 Kilauea GPS sites (PGF1–3 and PGF6 are Ashtech Z-12 s, the remainder are Trimble NetRSs), 1 GPS site in southern California (DHLG, Ashtech Z-12), and another from Colorado (P041, Trimble NetRS), and a simulation. For the latter, we use the analytic results for a planar horizontal reflector described by Georgiadou and Kleusberg [1988] and extended by Larson et al. [2008]. DHLG and P041 were chosen as comparison sites because (1) they use the same receivers as the Kilauea network and (2) their (specular) multipath characteristics have previously been evaluated [Larson et al., 2007, 2008]. In other words, we know that multipath modeling works at these sites. Both choke rings and zephyr antenna types are used in Kilauea. While both antenna types mitigate multipath effects, neither remove them entirely. Because SNR data are fairly noisy, tracks for multiple satellites in one quadrant are shown and averaged. In this example, the southeast azimuths were used.

[14] Because multipath periods are not intuitively obvious, we have also simulated L1 SNR data for a perfect reflector at the two antenna heights most common used at Kilauea (2.0 and 0.7 m). DHLG and P041 show very clear constant frequency oscillations that are consistent with their ∼1.8 m antenna heights and theory. The simulations agree reasonably well with the SNR observations at only two HVO sites: BYRL and PGF6, with slight correlation at KAEP. There is no correlation at the other HVO sites. Figure 2 underscores the site-specific character of multipath and serves as a cautionary tale. Even if multipath modeling works in one region [Langbein and Bock, 2004; Choi et al., 2004; Larson et al., 2007], as was shown for sites in California, it does not mean that it can be modeled successfully in your network. The failure of multipath models for some of the stations in the Kilauea data set is likely related to the nonuniformity of the reflecting surface (generally barren or ash-mantled pahoehoe lava), where ridges, troughs, and surface blocks are tilted in dimensions that are close to the GPS wavelengths (19 and 24.4 cm).

3.2. Atmospheric Water Vapor

[15] For the past two decades, the geodetic community has continually adapted its troposphere modeling strategies to improve positioning precision. Part of the improvement has come from developments in mapping functions [Niell, 1996; Boehm et al., 2006] and tracking satellites to lower elevation angles. The introduction of azimuthal troposphere gradient terms [Bar-Sever et al., 1998] has also enhanced positioning precision [Miyazaki et al., 2003]. However, there is little literature on how to utilize gradients when significant time-varying displacements occur. Another issue relates to the gradients themselves. Default analysis strategies frequently use a constant gradient for a 24-h period. Mattia et al. [2004] and Larson et al. [2007] did not use gradients at all when evaluating GPS analysis methods for 1 s positioning. The GIPSY software used in this study treats gradients as a stochastic parameter, and thus allowing time-varying behavior is straightforward. But it would be unrealistic to expect that time-varying position changes and time-varying gradients could be estimated simultaneously without some degradation of positioning precision.

[16] The first question we can address is as follows: How variable are azimuthal troposphere gradients in the Kilauea network? This might at least demonstrate the validity of using no gradients or a single 24-h gradient. Previous studies using GPS data from the island of Hawai‘i suggest that zenith delays in the GPS signal due to the water content of the troposphere can vary over both time and space [Foster et al., 2003; Foster and Bevis, 2003]; thus, there is reason to believe that subdaily azimuthal troposphere gradients will be necessary to improve positioning precision. We used the precise point positioning strategy and products from the Jet Propulsion Laboratory [Zumberge et al., 1997] to compute solutions for 21 and 22 June. Displacements associated with the dike intrusion (which initiated on 17 June) are subcentimeter on these days. The direction and size of the gradient terms are plotted in Figure 3. Colors are used to show time dependence of the gradients. For comparison, we also show gradients estimated for the same days for eight
sites in the Parkfield GPS array. These sites have been used extensively for high-rate GPS studies [Langbein and Bock, 2004; Langbein et al., 2006; Choi et al., 2004]. Note that, overall, the Parkfield gradient terms are much smaller and vary little with time. This explains why estimating a constant tropospheric gradient term for a 24 h period might be appropriate for Parkfield but not on Kīlauea. Not estimating a gradient might also work at Parkfield when assessing differential positions, because most of the error would be present in both solutions. The situation at Kīlauea is quite different. The gradients on 21 and 22 June bear little resemblance to each other although the stations are only 5–20 km apart. Furthermore, the gradients are 2–3 times larger than those observed at Parkfield. We will be unable to estimate accurate subdaily positions at Kīlauea if this variation in tropospheric delay is not properly modelled.

3.3. Sampling, Averaging, and Filtering

[17] The vast majority of Kīlauea GPS receivers record measurements every 30 s, and intrinsically this limits how often positions can be estimated. The secondary questions are (1) how often should positions be estimated and (2) should the positions be filtered. The first question is clearly determined by the geophysical signal of interest. If a geophysical signal is tens of millimeters per second, as it could be for seismic displacements, unconstrained (white noise) positions should be estimated at the highest possible rate. If, however, positions change slowly (e.g., 2–20 mm/h), which is the case for the Father’s Day eruption/intrusion, it is better to perform some kind of averaging and produce more accurate positions less frequently. While the next section will refocus this discussion using results from the Father’s Day event, here we can review the differences between some end-member estimation strategies.

[18] For this discussion, we will take advantage of the GIPSY software simulation capabilities. While this does not allow us to evaluate the impact of systematic errors, such as multipath and troposphere mismodeling, it does provide guidance on averaging and filtering. White noise position estimates using simulated 30 s data are shown in Figure 4. A
Figure 3. Estimated azimuthal troposphere gradient terms on 21 and 22 June for the Kilauea and Parkfield GPS networks. Scale (2 mm) is shown. Timing (in UTC) is given by the color scale in the lower left corner.

Figure 4. Position simulation for 30-s, 4-min, and 1-h increments using 30-s observations and white noise estimation strategy. Horizontal (left) and vertical (right) components are shown. Note change in scale between horizontal and vertical results.
carrier phase noise level of 5 mm was assumed. The same orbits that will be used to analyze data from the Father’s Day event were used for the simulation. A site on Kīlauea (AHUP) and the same time epoch (15 June 2007) was used to ensure that the same satellite geometry is used as was available during the dike intrusion. Three estimation intervals are compared: 30 s, 4 min, and 1 h. In both horizontal and vertical components, the 30 s positions show the largest random variations. These are significantly reduced by averaging measurements into 4 min positions, yielding standard deviations of 1.4 mm horizontally and 4.9 mm vertically. Finally, hourly positions are also shown. For very small geophysical signals (millimeters per day), these hourly measurements would clearly be sufficient and preferred.

Figure 5. Position simulation for 30-s and 4-min increments using random walk estimation strategy. The value of $\sigma_{rw}$ used is given in units of km/$\sqrt{s}$. Horizontal and vertical components are shown in the left and right columns, respectively.

4. Results

4.1. Data

GPS data collected between 14–22 June 2007 were analyzed with the GIPSY software [Lichten and Border, 1987]. These dates were chosen to encompass the Father’s Day intrusion and eruption (17–19 June), with the additional data providing information on the precision of the position estimates. In principle, one could analyze the data for all Kīlauea stations for the 9-day period of this study in one batch. In practice, the GIPSY software has limitations on the number of observations that can be analyzed simultaneously. Because of this, the data were analyzed in subnetworks consisting of 10 stations each for a period of 3 days. Four of these 3 d solutions were analyzed, with a 24 h overlap period to ensure that there were no day-boundary discontinuities. All the 30 s GPS data were used in this analysis, but a position was estimated only every 4 min. This temporal resolution was sufficient for the needs of modeling the event [Montgomery-Brown et al., 2010]. Satellite and receiver clocks were estimated as a white noise process, and the ionosphere-free data combination was used [Lichten and Border, 1987]. Precise IGS ephemerides and Earth orientation were held fixed [Beutler et al., 1994]. An elevation angle cutoff of 10° was used. A time-varying zenith tropo-
sphere delay was estimated with a constraint of $10^{-7}$ km/s. When estimated, we used a constraint of $5 \times 10^{-9}$ km/s for the azimuthal atmospheric gradients [Bar-Sever et al., 1998]. We also constrained the coordinates of three sites far from the deforming zone (MLPR, WAPM, and MKPM, Figure 1a) to their ITRF2005 values; these sites serve as a “minifiducial network” [Larson et al., 1991]. Ambiguity resolution was successful on ~90% of baselines [Blewitt, 1989].

4.2. Systematic Errors

[21] Figures 4 and 5 show the kind of positioning precision that can be achieved with GPS when models are perfect and errors in the data are randomly distributed. The geophysical signal in those simulations was the absence of any motion. The Kilauea data set (examples shown in Figure 6), on the other hand, has both imperfect models and systematic errors. There are also a variety of signals: very large signals (KTPM, >30 cm), substantial deflation at the caldera (AHUP, ~7 cm), and much more subtle signals on the southwest flank (PGF3, ~1 cm). Systematic errors are also evident in Figure 6. Assuming that ground motions are fairly smooth after the first day of deformation, significant noise is visible at PGF3 4 days after the event began (June 21). More than 10 cm of east component ground motion occurs in 3 h. There is no volcanic or tectonic signal that can explain the motion at PGF3. Similar excursions are seen at other sites, most notably GOPM (not shown). We can see the signature of this signal more clearly when we apply the tight random walk constraint ($\sigma_{rw} = 10^{-8}$ km/s). Constraining the motion reduces the apparent signal from 10 to 4 cm.

[22] The apparent PGF3 motion is correlated in time with the large azimuthal troposphere gradients shown in Figure 3. When we reanalyzed the GPS data using both the tight random walk positioning constraint and azimuthal troposphere gradients, there is significant reduction in the position changes at PGF3 on both 21 and 22 June. Adding troposphere gradients also improves positions at longer periods. Figure 7 summarizes the improvement in precision for the entire network when azimuthal troposphere gradients

![Figure 6](image_url)  

**Figure 6.** East, north, and vertical time series for PGF3, AHUP, and KTPM. Estimation strategies are (a) white noise position estimation, (b) tight random walk position estimation ($\sigma_{rw} = 10^{-8}$ km/s), (c) tight random walk position estimation with time-varying troposphere gradients.

![Figure 7](image_url)  

**Figure 7.** The rms standard deviations for variations in 4-min east and north estimated components (black) with and (gray) without estimated azimuthal troposphere gradients only days before and after the dike intrusion are used to calculate rms. The same value for $\sigma_{rw}$ was used for each case. Area covered is the same as in Figure 1b.
Figure 8. Time series for KTPM for three estimation strategies; $\sigma_{rw}$ is given in the legend, with units of km/$\sqrt{s}$.

are used. Because of the large displacements during the dike intrusion, only data from 14–16, 21, and 22 June were used to calculate coordinate precisions from the 4 min time series. Sites near the coast (PFG3, GOPM, KAEP) and KOSM show the greatest improvement in precision when gradients are estimated.

4.3. Large Accelerations

Although a tight random walk will reduce the noise in GPS position estimates, as noted by Elösegui et al. [1996], overconstraining $\sigma_{rw}$ will suppress true signals. The sites that clearly show signs of overconstraint with a $\sigma_{rw}$ of $10^{-8}$ km/$\sqrt{s}$ are the sites with the largest accelerations, the ERZ crossing sites KTPM and NUPM. In Figure 8 the north component of KTPM is shown. More than 20 cm of motion occurs in 20 h (1 cm/h), but nearly 5 cm of motion is indicated in the first 2 h (2.5 cm/h). Using a parameterization of $10^{-8}$ km/$\sqrt{s}$ suggests the dike intrusion began nearly 5 h too early. However, if we increase the random walk sigma to $3 \times 10^{-8}$ km/$\sqrt{s}$ for the first 4 h of the intrusion, we both recover the trend of the loosely constrained solution and the onset of the event. In this example, we did use the a priori knowledge of when the event began to set the $\sigma_{rw}$ in the filter. In order to recover a much faster deformation rate (25 cm/h), we would have to increase the $\sigma_{rw}$ by an order of magnitude. We have also found that increasing the $\sigma_{rw}$ for the caldera sites in the first few hours of the eruption improves the agreement between the constrained random walk and white noise solutions.

5. Discussion

Although we can evaluate the precision of random walk constrained GPS time series in terms of their agreement with simulations, white noise position estimates, and how well they agree with geophysical models [Montgomery-Brown et al., 2010], accuracy can only be determined by comparisons with independent measurements. Of the many geodetic instruments being used on Kilauea, only tiltmeters have the temporal resolution to provide a useful comparison with GPS. There were 13 tiltmeters operating on Kilauea during the intrusion, but only one (UWE) is colocated with a GPS receiver (UWEV). The UWE tiltmeter is an Applied Geomechanics model 722 analog tiltmeter. It is installed in a borehole 5 m deep and samples once per minute. Figure 9 shows excellent agreement between the GPS and tilt measurements in the eruption’s timing.

What can we learn from the Kilauea results about monitoring other volcanoes with GPS? One lesson is that geodetic advances in multipath and troposphere modeling may not be necessary (or valid) for your network. The ways we evaluated these error sources are straightforward and easily implemented. For example, SNR data are recorded by all geodetic-quality GPS receivers and do not require significant data processing. And even if your software does not support stochastic troposphere gradients, you can evaluate whether they are needed by free online processing services (http://milhouse.jpl.nasa.gov/ag). Second, if position changes are slow, as they often are on volcanoes, there is no reason not to incorporate position averaging or Kalman filtering. White noise position estimates can then be used as a check on whether the averaging interval is too long or the Kalman filter constraints are too tight. A final point relates to receiver sampling interval. For most deformation signals on volcanoes, we feel that high-rate (1 s) data are unnecessary. However, the cost of telemetry and archiving 1 s GPS data is becoming cheaper all the time. Maintaining a data stream at this level is not difficult for most users and might be useful for illustrating different signals, such as discussed by Patané et al. [2007]. If signals at seismic frequencies are of interest, then certainly very high-rate GPS data (10 Hz) are not only preferred but also necessary. One way to maintain access to these very high-rate GPS data is to buffer them on the receiver and download them only if needed [Larson, 2009].

Finally, what is the relevance of these results to real-time data processing strategies for volcano monitoring? There is really only one difference between what was done here and what needs to be done in real time and this concerns the precision of the orbits. Real-time orbits will always be less precise than postprocessed orbits. Frankly, this is not very limiting for most volcano monitoring because GPS sites on a volcano are likely to be relatively close to each other (e.g., 20–50 km). The effect of orbit errors on baselines of this length (even using real-time orbits) is very small (at the mm level). Rather than intrinsic limitations (such as orbits), the difficulty of real-time GPS volcano monitoring is really one of implementation and
computational resources. For example, easily the most computationally intensive part of the data analysis described here is ambiguity resolution. This is not because it could not be made faster but more because very fast ambiguity resolution algorithms have been developed and tested for 24 h position solution batches [Blewitt, 2008]. They cannot currently be used as configured for either real-time or multiple-day batches. Since subdaily positioning precision significantly benefits from ambiguity resolution, making sure that capability is available for volcano monitoring is strongly encouraged.

6. Conclusions

GPS data from the 2007 Father’s Day eruption and intrusion on Kilauea Volcano have been analyzed to emphasize subdaily resolution of ground motion. The multipath environment and variations in atmospheric water vapor were first evaluated to guide the development of an appropriate data analysis strategy. Based on this analysis, no multipath modeling was attempted. A tightly constrained random walk position estimation strategy was instead used to suppress noise. It was confirmed that time-averaging tropospheric gradients were needed to accurately analyze GPS data from Kilauea Volcano during this intrusion and eruption. The random walk constraint was used to allow for sites closest to the eruption and intrusion. The resulting GPS time series show good agreement with independent tilt measurements at the Kilauea summit caldera.

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