Deriving Sea Subsurface Temperature Fields from Satellite Remote Sensing Data Using a Generative Adversarial Network Model

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Abstract

Ingenious use of multisource satellite observations to accurately invert global and regional subsurface thermohaline structure is essential for understanding ocean interior processes, but extremely challenging. This study proposes a new method from the sea surface information inverting daily subsurface temperature (ST) based on generative adversarial network (GAN) model in China's marginal seas. The proposed GAN-based model can project the STs from sea surface information (SLA, SSTA, SST) with a high resolution of 1/12°. A traditional regression-based model, Modular Ocean Data Assimilation System (MODAS), is set up the same experiments for the sake of comparison. The results show that the averaged RMSE results are less than 1.45°C in upper 200m and the highest averaged R2 of 0.97 at the 70m level, which are better than that of MODAS. Errors analysis and typical oceanographic phenomena analysis results show the superiority of the proposed GAN-based model in this study. This study can provide high-precision daily ST data from sea surface information, which can be expanded to further studies on the ocean interior variation characteristics.

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10 Key Points:

- A Generative Adversarial Network based model is proposed for deriving high-resolution
 daily subsurface temperature fields.
- Feature-wise loss is introduced in adversarial learning for extracting complex
 hydrographical characteristics from satellite observations.
- This model can accurately reflect the physical oceanographic phenomena both normal
 and extreme conditions.

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18 Abstract

Ingenious use of multisource satellite observations to accurately invert global and regional 19 20 subsurface thermohaline structure is essential for understanding ocean interior processes, but extremely challenging. This study proposes a new method from the sea surface information 21 inverting daily subsurface temperature (ST) based on generative adversarial network (GAN) 22 23 model in China's marginal seas. The proposed GAN-based model can project the STs from sea surface information (SLA, SSTA, SST) with a high resolution of 1/12°. A traditional regression-24 based model, Modular Ocean Data Assimilation System (MODAS), is set up the same 25 experiments for the sake of comparison. The results show that the averaged RMSE results are 26 less than 1.45°C in upper 200m and the highest averaged R2 of 0.97 at the 70m level, which are 27 better than that of MODAS. Errors analysis and typical oceanographic phenomena analysis 28 29 results show the superiority of the proposed GAN-based model in this study. This study can provide high-precision daily ST data from sea surface information, which can be expanded to 30 further studies on the ocean interior variation characteristics. 31

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33 Plain Language Summary

GANs are undoubtedly one of the most creative advances in deep learning due to their good 34 35 generation performances but are not widely used for interior ocean variables' deriving. Deriving 36 sea subsurface temperature fields from satellite remote sensing data using deep learning methods are significance but full of challenges. Most of the existing models are based on a single 37 38 observation point or monthly average fields, without considering the daily fields in high spatial resolution, so they lack application value to some extent. In this study, we propose a sea surface 39 information-guided GAN (SSIG-G) to deriving daily sea subsurface temperature fields in 40 China's marginal seas with a high-resolution. We find that this model can more accurately reflect 41 42 the typical physical oceanographic phenomena in China's marginal seas among daily, seasonally and extreme weather conditions than traditional inversion method or reanalysis data. Thus, our 43 44 results indicate that the proposed SSIG-G model have great application value of real-time ocean physical phenomena researches and this study can provide methodological support for using 45 GANs' in ocean variables' deriving. 46

47 **1 Introduction**

As a leading space technology, satellite remote sensing allows the observation of the state 48 of Earth's resources and their processes at several spatial-temporal scales; for several decades, 49 50 notable contributions have been made in monitoring and understanding global and regional 51 atmospheric, ocean, and climate changes using satellite remote sensing (Yang et al., 2013; Yuan et al., 2020). Oceans have absorbed approximately 93% of the global heat entering Earth's 52 53 climate system and play a decisive role in regulating and stabilizing the Earth's climate system (Johnson & Lyman, 2020; Su et al., 2021). In recent decades, the ocean heat content has 54 55 significantly increased, causing global ocean warming (Boyer et al., 2016; Cheng et al., 2020; Cheng & Zhu, 2018). An improved understanding of the distribution and redistribution of heat 56 57 interior ocean will help better monitor Earth's energy budget and its consequences (Drijfhout et al., 2014; Dulvy et al., 2014; Yan et al., 2016). High-precision observation data within the ocean 58 59 are crucial for improving the understanding of ocean interior and subsurface thermal structures, which are highly relevant to global warming. Since making observations covering the entire 60

ocean with high spatial and temporal resolution is difficult, it is significant and challenging to
 accurately estimate ocean subsurface thermal structures based on multi-satellite remote sensing
 data.

Although satellite remote sensing has provided high-resolution and long time series of 64 ocean data, its observations are confined to sea surface phenomena. Thus, most of the research 65 on ocean interior characteristics has traditionally relied on models and in situ measurements. 66 Extensive subsurface in situ measurement projects, such as the Integrated Ocean Observing 67 System (IOOS) and the Global Ocean Observing System (GOOS), which adopt different 68 observation platforms, have been established to achieve simultaneous observations of the global 69 ocean both in time and space (Su et al., 2021; Yan et al., 2016). However, the existing subsurface 70 observations are spatially sporadic and temporally scarce in most parts of the ocean. Studies of 71 72 ocean interior characteristics are extremely limited by sparse and uneven in situ data, which leads to uncertainties in the full depth steric height from ocean interior variability analysis and 73 prediction (Su et al., 2021; Wu et al., 2012). 74

The ocean surface is dynamically influenced by both the sea surface and interior ocean (e.g., thermal expansion) (Wu et al., 2012). Many subsurface phenomena have surface manifestations that can be measured and used for deriving key parameters of subsurface ocean processes, making it possible to obtain the internal parameters of the ocean from the sea surface (Klemas & Yan, 2014; Su et al., 2019). Sea surface height changes very likely reflect the traces left by sea subsurface variations, and research shows that ocean temperature is associated with thermohaline expansions that contribute substantially to sea level rise (Syst et al., 2018).

Deeper ocean remote sensing (DORS) is a technique used to obtain subsurface 82 information from satellite measurements by using specially developed algorithms/techniques 83 (Klemas & Yan, 2014). The DORS technique has become an important research subject because 84 of its great potential to indirectly retrieve ocean interior information from satellite observations 85 (Su et al., 2018). Previous studies have highlighted that the DORS technique can be used to 86 reconstruct or invert the sea subsurface thermal structure from satellite observations mainly by 87 using traditional dynamic and statistical methods or comprehensive dynamic and statistical 88 methods (Fox et al., 2002; Guinehut et al., 2012; Jeong et al., 2019; Nardelli & Santoleri, 2005; 89 Yan et al., 2020); insufficient attention has been paid to advanced machine learning approaches. 90

Machine learning/deep learning approaches are increasingly being used to extract 91 patterns and insights from the ever-increasing stream of satellite remote sensing data, from which 92 93 a further understanding of Earth system science problems is expected to be gained. Various forms of data-driven machine learning (ML) methods have played a valuable role in 94 environmental remote sensing (Reichstein et al., 2019; Yuan et al., 2020). Some researchers have 95 developed ML algorithms to estimate regional and basin-scale ocean interior thermal structures 96 using multiple satellite observations. Backpropagation (BP) is an early ML algorithm used to 97 retrieve subsurface temperature. Ali et al. (Ali et al., 2004) adopted the BP algorithm to estimate 98 the subsurface temperature of the Arabian Sea by using sea surface temperature, sea surface 99 height, wind stress, net radiation, and net heat flux. In recent years, more advanced ML 100 algorithms have been applied to the study of ocean subsurface temperature inversion. Wu et al. 101 (2012) developed a self-organizing map (SOM) (Wu et al., 2012) neural network to estimate 102 subsurface temperature anomalies (STAs) in the North Atlantic by using remote sensing data and 103 Argo gridded datasets. Su et al. (Su et al., 2015) proposed a support vector machine (SVM) 104 method to estimate STAs in the Indian Ocean from a suite of satellite remote sensing 105

measurements. Su et al. (Su et al., 2018) proposed a random forest (RF)-based ML algorithm to 106 invert STAs in the global ocean from multisource satellite observations. Lu et al. (Lu et al., 2019) 107 reported a combined pre-clustering process and a neural network approach to determine STAs by 108 109 using ocean surface temperature, surface height, surface wind observations and gridded monthly Argo data. Meng et al. (Meng et al., 2021) proposed a generative adversarial network (GAN)-110 based framework combined with a numerical model to predict sea subsurface temperature. In 111 addition, popular deep learning algorithms, such as convolutional neural networks (CNNs), long 112 short-term memory (LSTM) neural networks, extreme gradient boosting (XGBoost) and light 113 gradient boosting machine (LightGBM), have also been adopted to invert ocean interior thermal 114 structures from multisource satellite observations (Han et al., 2019; Su et al., 2019; Su, Wang, et 115 al., 2021; Su, Zhang, et al., 2021). 116

Existing ML/DL algorithms can be used to retrieve subsurface thermal structures from 117 sea surface parameters; while they are still in their infancy in the DORS field, they have great 118 potential given the accumulation of ocean observation data (Su et al., 2021). In particular, there 119 is a paucity of contributions to subsurface temperature inversion compared with sea surface 120 temperature prediction research. Although some studies have employed advanced ML/DL 121 algorithms in DORS, more attention was paid to estimating monthly STA fields rather than 122 directly inferring the subsurface temperature fields from remote sensing data. In other studies, 123 124 the subsurface temperature was only directly inverted at one subsurface point, not over an entire area. In addition to the deficiencies of input sea surface elements and time frequency of 125 subsurface temperature inversion, the existing studies also lack algorithm improvements to 126 specific research problems. Thus, there is still much room for improvement with respect to 127 advanced ML/DL model algorithms and inversion elements in DORS. There is also room for 128 further improvements in the accuracy of regional and basin-scale ocean interior thermohaline 129 130 structures using multiple satellite observations with high resolution.

In this study, we propose a new remote sensing inversion method based on a GAN model to address the abovementioned limitations in the existing ML/DL algorithms for ST inversion. The remote sensing inversion method can be used to accurately reconstruct daily ST at 1/12° in China's marginal seas from multiple satellite observations, including sea surface height anomaly (SSHA), sea surface temperature (SST), sea level anomaly (SLA), and the reanalysis data products of the Hybrid Coordinate Ocean Model (HYCOM) and China Ocean Reanalysis 2.0 (CORA 2.0), for training and testing.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the study area and satellite observations used in this study. Section 3 presents the GAN model and proposes ST inversion via the sea surface information-guided GAN model. The experimental results and discussions are given in Section 4. Finally, Section 5 concludes the paper.

142 2 Study area and data

The study area covers China's marginal seas, which include the Bohai Sea (BHS), the Yellow Sea (YS) and the East China Sea (ECS) from 24°N to 41°N and from 117°E to 130°E (Fig. 1). The YS is a shallow marginal sea with an obvious seasonality of the vertical temperature structure. In winter, the temperature from the surface to the bottom in the shallow continental shelf region of the YS becomes homogeneous, while a surface boundary layer is observed in summer (Zhang et al., 2012). The BHS is the innermost gulf of the YS and is located at the western boundary of the Northwest Pacific Ocean with a maximum depth of approximately

60 m; it covers an area of approximately 78,000 km2 (Shi et al., 2011). The ECS is a typical 150 epicontinental shelf bounding the North Pacific Ocean in the west and is connected to the YS in 151 the north. The broad shelf of the ECS covers an area of approximately 770,000 km2. It has a 152 153 mean depth of 349 m, including the narrow and deep regions of the Okinawa Trough (2100 m maximum depth). The ECS and YS are influenced by Kuroshio flows and the Northeast 154 Asian Monsoon. The Kuroshio flows northeastward along the continental slope of the ECS with 155 seasonal and interannual variations; the Northeast Asian Monsoon brings different air masses 156 during the winter monsoon and the summer monsoon (Lie & Cho, 2016). The SST of the ECS 157 has stable positions and strong seasonal variability, and the isotherms are mostly parallel to 158 isobaths running in the southwest-northeast direction (Huang et al., 2010; Ji et al., 2018). The 159 vertical temperature in the southern ECS is thought to have a three-layer structure, namely, an 160 upper mixed layer, barrier layer and bottom mixed layer (Xuan et al., 2019). In this study, 161 China's marginal seas could play an important role in modulating Pacific climate fluctuations and, 162 to some extent, influence global climate variability. In addition, China's marginal seas have 163 rich fishery resources. The Wentai fishing ground and Mindong fishing ground are located in the 164 western ECS, a typical subtropical coastal ocean ecosystem (Sun et al., 2021). The Lvsi fishing 165 ground is located at the junction of the ECS and East Yellow Sea and is the spawning ground and 166 feeding ground of the main economic fish in the East Yellow Sea (Gao et al., 2021). The 167 dynamics of food webs and the stability of ecosystems are key topics for studies of coastal ocean 168 ecosystems, and mesozooplankton, which are key components in this framework, affect the 169 stability and productivity of fish communities (Heneghan et al., 2016). The body size of an 170 individual mesophyte as proxy for many other traits is sensitive to temperature and 171 eutrophication and is a key factor driving trophic interactions in aquatic food webs (Sun et al., 172 2021; Ward et al., 2012). Therefore, understanding and predicting the thermal structures in this 173 area is of vital importance. 174



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Figure. 1 Bathymetry map of China's marginal seas

The multisource satellite observations used in this study include sea-surface temperature (SST) and sea level anomaly (SLA). All the sea-surface remote sensing observations are daily data provided by the Copernicus Marine Environment Monitoring Service (CMEMS). Near real time level 4 SST products from 2007 with a spatial resolution of $0.05^{\circ} \times 0.05^{\circ}$ are obtained from OSTIA (https://resources.marine.copernicus.eu/product-detail/). The SST products use in situ and satellite data from both infrared and microwave radiometers. SLA products from 1993 with a spatial resolution of $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$ are also obtained (https://resources.marine.copernicus.eu/product-

detail/SEALEVEL GLO PHY L4 MY 008 047/). Altimeter satellite gridded SLA data are 185 computed based on a twenty-year mean. The SLA is estimated by optimal interpolation, merging 186 the measurements from the different altimeter missions. There are two subsurface temperature 187 (ST) datasets used in this experiment. The first subsurface temperature (ST) data are reanalysis 188 data produced by the near real time Global Ocean Forecasting System (GOFS) 3.1 and are 189 available at https://www.hycom.org/data/glbv0pt08/. This system uses the Navy Coupled Ocean 190 Data Assimilation (NCODA) system (Cummings, 2005; Cummings and Smedstad, 2013) for 191 data assimilation. Available satellite altimeter observations, satellites, in situ sea surface 192 temperatures as well as other in situ observations are assimilated using this system. The ST data 193 have a $1/12^{\circ} \times 1/12^{\circ}$ horizontal spatial resolution and 41 vertical levels, but only the upper 200 194 m data with 13 depth levels (0, 2, 10, 15, 20, 25, 35, 50, 70, 100, 125, 150, and 200 m) are used 195 in this study. The other ST dataset is reanalysis data produced by the National Marine Data and 196 Information Service (NMDIS) of China (http://mds.nmdis.org.cn/). In the reanalysis data product 197 CORA 2.0, key technologies, such as high-resolution MITgcm-CICE coupled numerical 198 simulation and multivariable and multiscale assimilation, are adopted, and the field observation 199 data of WOD18, GSTPP, Argo, NMDIS, satellite remote sensing observations, etc. are 200 assimilated. The daily ST data have a $1/10^{\circ} \times 1/10^{\circ}$ horizontal spatial resolution and 50 vertical 201 levels. The depth levels used are the same as those used for the HYCOM reanalysis data product. 202

To train the model, the daily SST, SLA, and SSTA data from China's marginal seas are 203 input. The SSTA is the SST anomaly with respect to the daily mean gridded SST fields. Since 204 the sea surface parameters have different horizontal resolutions, the nearest neighbor 205 interpolation method is adopted for all the above remote sensing variables (SST and SLA) to 206 unify the sea surface data to a $1/12^{\circ} \times 1/12^{\circ}$ horizontal resolution, which is consistent with the 207 horizontal resolution of the ST data. To spatially match all variables, if any variable data are 208 209 missing on a certain day, the day is removed and not included in model training. Then, the SST data are subtracted from their monthly averages to obtain their daily SST anomaly (SSTA) 210 values. Similarly, the nearest neighbor interpolation method is adopted all the CORA 2.0 ST data 211 to unify the sea surface data to a $1/12^{\circ} \times 1/12^{\circ}$ horizontal resolution, and all the ST data on the 212 upper 200 m (12 depth levels) are employed as labels for training and testing after the quality 213 control process. Maximum-minimum normalization is applied to normalize the training and 214 215 testing datasets to the range of [0,1], which ensures effective training.

For the verification of the inversion results, the measured data adopts NMDIS's Integrated Temperature & Salinity dataset (http://mds.nmdis.org.cn). The sources of this dataset include international exchange and cooperation institutions or projects and international business observations, including the observation data of China's marginal seas. After quality control, more than 300 profiles distributed in the range of 24°N-41°N and 117°E-130°E in 2018 are used in the study.

222 **3 Methods**

3.1 Generative adversarial network (GAN)

GANs are undoubtedly one of the most creative advances in deep learning (DL) in recent 224 years (Goodfellow et al., 2014; Jozdani et al., 2022). GANs are based on the min-max, zero-sum 225 game theory. In GAN, two neural networks are trained simultaneously in an adversarial manner: 226 the generator (G) is used to capture the real data distribution to generate fake samples, and the 227 228 discriminator (D) is used to estimate the probability that the samples originate from the real data rather than G. Competition in the training process drives both G and D to improve their 229 performances until the generated fake data are very similar to real data, causing D to fail to 230 distinguish generated data from real data. 231

GANs use the Mini-max loss function define the objective which competes in an adversarial way through a two-player minimax game as presented in Equation (1):

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$$\min_{G} \max_{D} V(G, D) = \min_{G} \max_{D} E_{x \sim P_{data}(x)} [\log D(x)] + E_{x \sim P_{z}(z)} [1 - \log D(G(z))]$$
(1)

The goal of G is to learn a distribution pg(x) over input data x (a prior noise distribution z $\sim pz$) in the space of probability density functions, so that it is possible to generate samples resemble the real data distribution pdata(x). The D is a cross-entropy classifier which aims to distinguish fake data generated by the generator from the real data x \sim Pdata. For any given G, the optimal discriminator D is shown in Equation (2):

240
$$D_{G}^{*}(x) = \frac{P_{data}(x)}{P_{data}(x) + P_{g}(x)}$$
(2)

241 The generator minimizes the Jensen–Shannon (JS) divergence to reach the goal of Pg(x)242 = Pdata(x) during training. When the discriminator is uncertain, the outputs of the discriminator 243 have a probability of 1/2 whether the sample is fake or real.

Basic GANs have the advantages that Markov chains are never needed, only 244 backpropagation is used to obtain gradients, no inference is required during learning, and a wide 245 variety of factors and interactions can easily be incorporated into the model (Mirza & Osindero, 246 2014). However, it suffers from being noisy and incomprehensible by using random noise 247 248 through a multilayer perceptron (MLP). The generated samples of basic GANs become uncontrollable by taking random noise as the generator's inputs, which leads to ambiguity in data 249 generation. In addition, the locally optimal solution and gradient disappearance lead to 250 considerable inaccuracy in the results of basic GANs. 251

To satisfy more high-level training goals, conditional generative adversarial nets (cGANs) 252 253 were proposed by conditioning the model on additional information, such as class labels, some part of the data for inpainting or data from different modalities (Mirza & Osindero, 2014). In 254 cGANs, the training process is supervised, and the training results are predictable. In deep 255 256 convolutional generative adversarial networks (DCGANs), the popular deep learning algorithm convolutional neural networks (CNNs) (Fukushima & Miyake, 1982) were successfully 257 combined with basic GANs for the first time (Radford et al., 2016). In DCGAN, both G and D 258 use the architectural constraints of CNNs, which are better at image processing than MLP. As a 259 result, stable training is achieved, and complex high-quality generators can be developed by 260 enforcing certain constraints. 261

At present, basic GANs, cGANs, DCGANs and their prevalent variants have been widely 262 used in a variety of science-related tasks, including computer vision applications (Gonog & Zhou, 263 2019; Isola et al., 2017; Ledig et al., n.d.; Zhu et al., 2017), video generation, prediction and 264 remote sensing (RS) (Dash et al., 2021). Fortunately, the RS community quickly recognized the 265 value of GANs and successfully adopted them in RS image reconstruction/restoration, RS image 266 denoising, RS data translation and other RS-related tasks. Jozdani et al. (Jozdani et al., 2022) 267 reviewed the relevant research on GANs in the context of RS, expecting to help the RS 268 community understand the potential and limitations of GANs in this field. Although there have 269 been several studies on GANs in the context of RS in recent years, remote sensing research on 270 the applications of GANs in the ocean is still insufficient. 271

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3.2 ST inversion via sea surface information-guided GAN (SSIG-G)

Our ultimate goal is to train a generator of a GAN-based model to generate daily ST data 273 274 with typical feature representation in the study areas. In this scenario, one input to the generator is a dataset consisting of daily SST, SSTA and SSHA, and the generator is expected to invert 275 STs from the sea surface information. In contrast to the basic GAN, the proposed GAN's 276 generator is guided with sea surface information data as input rather than random noise, and the 277 conditioning of the data generation process is provided by the ground truth ST data. This further 278 motivates us to exploit a more comprehensive GAN structure, i.e., cGAN. The cGAN-based 279 model can be used to take such conditioning inputs, which have great feature representation and 280 generation capabilities, to address the lack of control in the basic GAN. As observed in Fig. 2 281 282 and Fig. 3, the proposed model includes two parts: 1) the SSIG generator and 2) the SSIG discriminator. 283



284 285

Figure 2. The structure of SSIG-generator







For the SSIG generator, CNN architectures are chosen as generators to extract latent 288 289 subsurface dynamic parameters because of their superiority in previous ST inversion tasks (Han et al., 2019; Su et al., 2021). The aim of the SSIG generator is to generate ST data that resembles 290 the ground truth ST data as best as possible. The SST, SSTA and SSHA data are integrated into a 291 concatenation method, and the SSIG generator learns a mapping from the concatenated sea 292 surface data x to the real ST data y: G: $\{x, z\} \rightarrow y$, where z represents a random noise vector, 293 which is provided only in the form of dropout and applied on several layers of the SSIG 294 295 generator (Isola et al., 2017). The SSIG generator mainly consists of three parts: 1) shallow feature extraction; 2) convolutional network modules; and 3) upsampling and reconstruction. For 296 297 more high-quality inversion data, the SSIG generator is structured in terms of the U-Net deep learning structure, which is used to concatenate multilevel features between the input and output 298 299 layers using skip connection (Navab et al., 2015). The SSIG generator applies six convolutional network modules (CNMs) in the following form: convolution-BatchNorm-LeakyReLU, for 300 feature extraction, where batch normalization is used to counteract the internal covariate shift in 301 302 training. Correspondingly, there are six transposed convolutional modules using ReLU as the activation function for upsampling and reconstruction. 303

As for the SSIG-discriminator, a convolutional "PatchGAN" classifier (Betina, 2016; Zhu 304 et al., 2017) is chosen as discriminator to let N*N overlapping patches of inversed data can be 305 separately taken into account. The input to SSIG-discriminator is a channel wise concatenation 306 307 of the sea surface data and the corresponding generated ST (ground truth ST). Through adversarial learning, the SSIG-discriminator will not be able to discriminate the generated STs 308 and ground truth STs. For the purpose of capturing local statistics, SSIG-discriminator 309 convolutationally crosses the data, generating probability maps at the scale of data patches and 310 averaging all responses to provide the ultimate output of SSIG-discriminator. 311

We use three different loss functions for ST inverse: adversarial loss, L1 loss and featurewise loss. For adversarial learning, the SSIG-G adopts the adversarial loss consistent with cGAN. Adversarial loss is the key idea to GANs' success, an adversarial loss forces the generated data to be, in principle, indistinguishable from real data (Zhu et al., 2017). The objective function is given as follows:

$$L_{cGAN}(G,D) = E_{x,y}[\log D(x,y)] + E_{x,z}[\log(1 - D(x,G(x,z)))]$$
(3)

where Ex,y represents the expectation operator with respect to x and y, G is SSIGgenerator and G (x, z) learns the mapping from concatenated sea surface data x to real ST data; G is SSIG-discriminator and D (x, y) distinguishes whether x and y are the true paired data. Flowing the previous research of a well-known cGAN model Pix2Pix (Isola et al., 2017), we use L1 loss to further improve the inversion performance. L1 loss provides an objective similarity measure between real ST and inversed ST, the loss function is defined as follows:

$$L_{L1}(G) = E_{x,y,z}[||y - G(x,z)||_{1}]$$
(4)

325 Where Ex,y,z represents the expectation operator with respect to x, y and z.

In deep generative networks, some data generation losses are optimized in a grid-based 326 manner (grid-to-grid), so generated data typically lack high-frequency details; thus, the 327 perceptual difference between the real data and the generated data is not understood (Kiasari et 328 al., 2017; Wang et al., 2018). Our study area covers a large area of China's marginal seas, 329 including the BHS, YS and ECS, with a high spatial resolution. Coupled with climate changes 330 and offshore currents, the temperature in these areas has strong horizontal and vertical gradients 331 (Lie & Cho, 2016; Simonyan & Zisserman, 2015). In addition, unique geographic topography 332 333 and complex hydrographical characteristics are challenges for obtaining high-quality inversion ST results. To avoid undesired "blurry" inversion results in some areas with strong dynamic 334 interactions, the proposed model needs to perceive multiscale features from other domains rather 335 336 than only through a grid-to-grid approach. Inspired by image super-resolution and denoising of computer visual research, especially successes in RS image-related tasks (Ledig et al., 2017; 337 Simonyan & Zisserman, 2015; Wang et al., 2018), we adopt a feature-wise loss by using 338 339 pretrained visual geometry group (VGG) networks to capture correspondences between higherlevel appearance structures, which is of great help for modeling mappings of highly complex SSI 340 features. To fit the fixed input size of $224 \times 224 \times 3$ of VGG-Net during training, the input data 341 342 need to be resized before being fed into the network. The feature-wise loss is defined as:

343
$$L_{PL}(G) = \frac{1}{W_{i,j}H_{i,j}} \sum_{j=1}^{H_{i,j}} (\sum_{i=1}^{W_{i,j}} (|| \phi_{ij}(y) - \phi_{ij}(G(x,z))||_{\gamma}))$$
(5)

where $\phi_{i,j}$ is the feature map obtained by the j-th convolution of the well-trained VGG19 network before the i-th maxpooling layer; W is the row number of input data, and H is the column number of input data.

According to the above discussions, the overall loss function for the proposed SSIG-G is denoted as follows, where λ is the control coefficient for the relative importance of the three objectives.

350 351

$$L(G,D) = L_{CGAN}(G,D) + \lambda L_{II}(G) + L_{PI}(G)$$
(6)

352 3.3 The Modular Ocean Data Assimilation System (MODAS)

353 MODAS is a modular system for ocean analysis designed to meet the U.S. Navy's need to produce rapid estimates of present and near-term ocean conditions, often in situations where 354 little or no in situ data are available (Fox et al., 2002). Not only a static climatology, MODAS 355 also provides a vehicle for assimilating real-time observations to provide an adjusted climatology, 356 including remotely sensed sea surface temperature (SST) and sea surface height (SSH) data and 357 local observations from ships, aircraft, or buoys, referred as Dynamic MODAS. As an effective 358 traditional method, Dynamic MODAS inverses ST profiles by using stored regression 359 relationships between remotely sensed SSH and SST data with historical temperature profile data 360 in this area. The ocean temperature outputs of Dynamic MODAS are daily three-dimensional 361

gridded analysis field with grid resolution ranging from 1/2° in the open ocean to 1/8° near the coasts. In this study, MODAS's inputs are daily sea surface temperature anomaly and sea level anomaly observed by satellite, and daily subsurface temperature data in China's marginal seas is retrieved from the sea surface information. The outputs of MODAS include 50 depth levels ranging from 0 to 9000 m. The MODAS tool used in this study is from NMDIS of China.

367 3.4 Experimental setup

368 The training process consists of three steps: HYCOM reanalysis data training, fine tuning with satellite and CORA 2.0 data and model inversion. First, the SSIG-G model is trained on 369 HYCOM ocean reanalysis data from 2000-2015 (a 15-year period), and the data from 2014 are 370 used as the validation dataset. This training step is designed for ST inversion at each depth level 371 (12 levels in total) by using sea surface parameter combinations (SST, SSTA, SSHA) as input. 372 Ocean reanalysis is a reconstruction of historical and current ocean states by combining various 373 374 ocean observations with a dynamical ocean model using ocean data assimilation (Han et al., 2011). As a well-known reanalysis product, HYCOM ocean reanalysis is often used to generate 375 initial conditions for forecasts. HYCOM ocean reanalysis is used to assimilate multiple types of 376 377 data (i.e., in situ temperature and salinity profiles and remotely sensed SST and altimeter sea surface height anomalies) using the Navy Coupled Ocean Data Assimilation (NCODA) three-378 dimensional variational data assimilation (3DVAR) technique (Jang et al., 2022). There are 5478 379 380 sets of sea surface parameter combinations (SST, SSTA, SSHA) after removing some daily combinations with poor quality grid points for one or more parameters. For a GAN-based model, 381 382 it is difficult to measure the quality of generated data in an objective manner while training, as the loss value of GANs may not be indicative of the model's performance during training 383 (Jozdani et al., 2022). The maximum number of training epochs is set to 200, and the model with 384 the best performance on the validation dataset is saved as the final model. 385

Second, the trained model at each depth level was fine-tuned with satellite remote sensing 386 data and CORA 2.0 data. Meng et al. (Meng et al., 2021) used daily Argo data to fine-tune a 387 trained model which can improve the model performance. However, our study areas are the 388 marginal sea of China with only a few Argo buoys at the edge of the ECS. It is difficult to adjust 389 the model involving the whole study area using only a few observation points, especially the 390 offshore area far away from the observation points. Therefore, we adopted satellite remote 391 sensing data and CORA 2.0 daily data to fine tuning the entire model. CORA 2.0 data 392 assimilated the in-site observations in China's marginal seas from the National Marine Data 393 Information Center of China, so it has higher accuracy in our research area. Four years of CORA 394 2.0 daily data from 2016-2019 are used in the fine turning step, the data in 2018 is used as the 395 testing dataset. The training setting is similar to the first step and the final models are the best 396 performing model on validation datasets. 397

To evaluate the inversion accuracy, the root mean square error (RMSE) and the determination coefficient (R2) were employed as performance indexes, which are defined as follows:

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} d_i^2}{n}}$$
(7)

402
$$R^{2} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_{i} - Y_{i})^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_{i} - \overline{Y})^{2}}$$
(8)

403

404 where d is the error vector calculated by the difference between the inversed STs and the field 405 observed data, i is verification points index and n is the number of verification points; Yi 406 represents observed STs, Yi' represents inversed STs and \overline{Y} represents average of observations.

407 4 Results and discussion

In this study, we established the SSIG-G model to invert STs in China's marginal seas at 408 12 different depth levels in 2018. In this section, we first compared the inverted STs with field-409 observed data from NMDIS. Meanwhile, we used the traditional MODAS tool to carry out the 410 same experiments. The experimental results were used as a benchmark to further verify the 411 inversion accuracy of our proposed SSIG-G model. Fig. 4 and Fig. 5 and Figs. 7 to 8 show 412 comparisons of the inversion performance of the proposed SSIG-G model and MODAS tool 413 using different statistics and different perspectives. Next, to further verify the accuracy of the 414 inversion results and their utility in the study of relevant oceanographic phenomena, the 415 inversion results, MODAS results and reanalysis dataset CORA were used to analyze some 416 typical oceanographic physical phenomena in the study areas. 417

418 4.1 Error analysis of the inversion results

Fig. 4 shows the overall inversion performances of the proposed SSIG-G model and the traditional MODAS tool for STs at 12 different depths using the average root mean square error (RMSE) and the determination coefficient (R2) as evaluation criteria. For the SSIG-G model, the average RMSE first increases from 0 to 125 m, then decreases at 150 m, and finally increases from 150 m to 200 m.

The highest inversion accuracy occurs at the top level (2 m), with the average RMSE of 424 0.432 °C, and the average R2 of 0.906. The lowest inversion accuracy exist in the bottom level 425 of 200 m, with an average RMSE of 1.79 °C and an average R2 of 0.775. The highest R2 of 0.97 426 occurs at 70 m, and the average RMSE is 1.101 °C. For MODAS, the average RMSE variation 427 pattern of the 12 levels is the same as that of the SSIG-G model, and the highest inversion 428 429 accuracy occurs at 2 m. The average RMSE is 0.445 °C, and the average R2 is 0.897. The lowest inversion accuracy is the bottom level of 200 m, with an average RMSE of 2.152 °C and an 430 average R2 of 0.794. At 125 m, the average RMSEs of both the SSIG-G model and MODAS are 431 relatively high, which is due to the ST characteristics being significant and the variation range 432 being large at this depth. The results show that for the SSIG-G model and MODAS tool, the 433 accuracy of inversion results retrieved from sea surface information decreases gradually with 434 increasing depth. In addition, the inversion accuracy is affected when the temperature 435 436 characteristics change dramatically. Overall, we find that the inversion accuracy of the MODAS tool is not as high as that of the SSIG-G model at the 12 depth levels. The average RMSEs of the 437 inversion results obtained by the SSIG-G model from 2-200 m are less than 2 °C, while the 438 average RMSEs of the inversion results obtained by the MODAS tool are higher than 2 °C at 125 439 m and 200 m. 440



441

Figure 4. The performance measures of proposed model and MODAS products for STs inverse at different depths (12 levels) by employing (a) RMSE (Root Mean Squared Error) and (b) R2 (squared correlation coefficient).

445 Fig. 5 shows the average RMSEs of the inversion results at 12 different depths and different seasons using the proposed SSIG-G model and MODAS. Fig. 5 (a)-(d) shows the 446 results in winter, spring, summer and autumn, respectively. We can see that the highest inversion 447 448 accuracy occurs in winter; the average RMSEs at 2-200 m are less than 1.2 °C, and the inversion results of the SSIG-G model are slightly better. In winter, the cold northerly wind prevails in the 449 study sea area, and the vertical convection mixing of sea water is very strong. In the shallow sea 450 of the continental shelf, with a water depth of less than 100 m, the mixing depth can almost reach 451 the seabed, resulting in a very similar plane distribution of surface and bottom water 452 temperatures. Therefore, more accurate subsurface temperatures can be obtained from the sea 453 454 surface information.

Fig. 5(b) shows that the second highest inversion accuracy occurs in spring; the average RMSEs of the SSIG-G model are less than 1.5 °C, and the lowest inverse accuracy is at 50 m. The average RMSEs of the MODAS model are less than 1.5 °C, except at 50 m. It can be inferred that the thermocline is approximately 50 m in spring in this sea area.

The lowest inversion accuracy occurs in autumn, and the average RMSEs of the SSIG-G 459 model and MODAS are approximately 2.5 °C and 3 °C, respectively, at 200 m. In autumn, the 460 overall pattern of STs obtained by the two methods is consistent, and the inversion accuracy 461 decreases with increasing depth. This may be because in autumn, the water temperature 462 distribution begins to transition to the winter type; not only does the water temperature drop 463 significantly, but the thermocline essentially disappears, and the water temperature distribution 464 tends to be vertically uniform. Therefore, the STs obtained by the sea surface information only 465 show the characteristics that the accuracy decreases with increasing depth. 466

The inversion results in summer are shown in Fig. 5(c). The inversion accuracy of the
SSIG-G model is less than 2.5 °C, and levels shallower than 100 m have an inversion accuracy
below 2 °C. The inversion accuracy of MODAS is below 2.5 °C at these depth levels, except at

150 m. Although the results in summer are better than those in autumn, the inversion accuracy is 470 much different, compared with that in winter and spring. This is because the solar radiation is 471 strongest in summer, and the sea surface is affected by the warm and humid south wind, which is 472 473 the season with the highest water temperature throughout the year. Especially during the summer monsoon, the surface water of the Yellow Sea and East China Seas is heated by the absorption of 474 solar radiation and freshened by precipitation and freshwater discharge from land [36]. 475 Consequently, the most prominent feature of the sea temperature distribution is that in most of 476 the sea areas, the thermocline appears vertically, and the ST distribution pattern is very different 477 between the surface and bottom layers. This leads to large errors in inversion STs obtained from 478 sea surface information. 479

The seasonal results demonstrate that the SSIG-G model has high inversion accuracy and that the inversion results can better reflect the seasonal characteristics. Compared with the traditional MODAS tool, the SSIG-G model has a higher inversion accuracy of STs in different seasons. This indicates that the deep learning method SSIG-G has strong applicability and that the inversion results can be taken into account when studying seasonally related ocean phenomena.



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Figure 5. The average RMSEs of inversion results at 12 different depths and different seasons using the proposed SSIG-G model and MODAS, (a) winter, (b) spring, (c) summer and (d) autumn.

In order to further verify the accuracy distribution of the inversion results in the entire
study area, 4 square-areas were selected throughout the study area in the experiment, namely: A,
B, C, and D. Taking these 4 square-areas as verification areas, the inversion accuracy of
inversion results in the whole study area is analyzed. Fig. 6 is the distribution map of observation

495 points and schematic diagram of verification areas.

496



497

Figure 6. Distribution map of observation points and schematic diagram of verification area in 2018.

Fig.7 shows the average RMSEs of inversion results at 12 different depths in different 500 square-areas using the proposed SSIG-G model and MODAS, Fig.7 (a)-(d) show the results in 501 area A, B C and D respectively. We can see that square-area A has the highest inversion 502 accuracy; the average RMSEs at 2-200m are less than 1.2 °C, the inversion results of SSIG-G 503 model are slightly better. For the inversion results obtained by the two methods, the highest 504 accuracy is 2m, and the lowest accuracy is 200m. The accuracy of 50m is higher, and the 505 accuracy of the 70m-100m is significantly lower than that of the shallow depth levels. The 506 accuracy of the MODAS inversion results in 70m is slightly better than that of the SSIG-G 507 model. 508

The inversion results of square-area B are shown in Fig.7(b). As shown in Fig. 7(b), the 509 inversion results accuracy of SSIG-G model is all less than 2°C, and the average RMSEs of the 510 inversion results of 2-70m layers are 1°C or less. Fig.7(c) shows the inversion results accuracy 511 within the square-area C. The average RMSEs of the inversion results obtained by the two 512 methods are below 2°C, and the inversion accuracy of SSIG-G model is slightly better than that 513 of MODAS. Fig.7(d) shows the accuracy of inversion results within the square-area D. It can be 514 seen from this figure that the MODAS inversion results accuracy is lower at 50m, and the 515 average RMSE exceeds 2.5°C, which is inaccurate compared with the inversion results of the 516 SSIG-G model. 517

In general, the inversion result accuracy of the SSIG-G model is higher, and for some layers in some regions, the inversion result accuracy is slightly lower. This may be due to drastic changes in seasons or regions, such as the Kuroshio and California currents, and variations in the thermal structure in the upper ocean due to horizontal advection are large.



Figure 7. The average RMSEs of inversion results at 12 different depths and in different squareareas using the proposed SSIG-G model and MODAS, (a) square-area A, (b) square-area B, (c) square-area C, (d) square-area D.

Fig. 8 displays the daily error maps of STs inverted by the SSIG-G method and MODAS 527 at 5 depth levels (10 m 35 m, 50 m, 100 m, 200 m). These error maps represent the differences 528 between the inversion results and the field observations on June 27, 2018. The verification points 529 on this day are mainly within the range of 27°N and 126°E, and the visual results show that the 530 inversion STs by the SSIG-G method are closer to the ground truth observations. For example, it 531 can be seen from Fig. 8(b), (c) and (d) that at the corresponding verification points, the errors of 532 the SSIG-G model are obviously smaller than those of MODAS, and the errors of the other 533 levels are small when using the SSIG-G model. The errors at the 100 m and 200 m levels are 534 larger than those of shallower levels, which is consistent with the previous analysis results. The 535 536 daily error results demonstrate that the proposed SSIG-G method is accurate.

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538

539 540

Figure 8. Daily error maps of STs inversed by the SSIG-G method and MODAS at 5 selected depths levels, on June 27, 2018; (a) 10m, (b) 35m, (c) 50m, (d) 100m and (e) 200m.

543

4.2 Typical physical oceanographic phenomena analysis in China's marginal seas

The temperature distribution characteristics of China's offshore and adjacent areas can be 544 classified into three types: winter type, summer type and transitional type. In China's marginal 545 seas, the winter type appears from December to March of the following year, when the sea 546 temperature is the lowest throughout the year. At this time, the coastal sea temperature is low, 547 the outer sea temperature is high, the isotherm shows a roughly parallel distribution to the 548 coastline, and the horizontal gradient is large. The summer type, which is the season with the 549 highest sea temperature throughout the year, appears from June to August, and the surface sea 550 temperature generally rises. During this period, the strong solar radiation makes the sea surface 551 temperature rise faster and the deep sea temperature rise slower. In addition, convection and 552 eddy mixing are weak in summer, which makes the vertical distribution of sea temperature 553 554 exhibit strong stratification.

The Western Pacific is the region with the highest frequency of tropical cyclones (TCs), and our research area is often affected by TCs. As a type of extreme weather, TCs have a great

impact on the upper ocean temperature in a short period. Therefore, in addition to the seasonal 557 variation characteristics, the inversion results also need to be able to correctly reflect the 558 temperature variations at the synoptic scale. 559

This section first takes summer and winter as examples to display and analyze some 560 typical physical features of China's marginal seas through the inversion results. Then, the 561 response of the upper ocean temperature to TCs will be further analyzed by using the SSIG-G 562 inversion results. 563

4.2.1 Temperature distribution characteristics of YS 564

The Yellow Sea (YS) cold water mass is a typical physical oceanographic phenomenon 565 in the shallow sea of China's continental shelf. YS cold water mass is a water body with a large 566 567 temperature difference, small salt difference and low temperature as the main features. It is located at the bottom of the depression in the middle of the YS. The vertical distribution of the 568 YS cold water mass is stratified, with three layers of structure, namely, upper and lower 569 homogeneous layers and a thermocline. From July to August, the cold water mass reached its 570 571 peak, with the strongest three-layer structure and high stability near the thermocline. Fig. 9 shows the cross-section of the YS cold water mass from the proposed SSIG-G method, MODAS 572 and CORA in August, Fig. 9(a) shows the monthly average temperature at 35°N and Fig. 9(b) 573 shows the monthly average temperature at 37°N. It can be seen from these figures that the 574 vertical structure of temperature is clearly stratified, the upper sea water temperature is high and 575 relatively evenly distributed, and below it is a strong thermocline. Most of the sea areas below 576 577 the thermocline have been covered by a fully formed YS cold water mass, and the temperature is low. 578





Figure 9. Monthly average temperature in August: (a) Monthly average temperature in 35°N, (b) 581 Monthly average temperature in 37°N. 582

In winter, since the outer sea water entering the YS mixes with the coastal water and 583 sinks to the deep bottom due to the cooling effect of the sea surface, the sea temperature is 584

vertically uniform. At this time, the northerly monsoon prevails in the sea area, and the mixing 585 effect of eddies and convection is strong. The sea temperature distribution characteristics in the 586 surface, middle and bottom layers of the entire YS are similar, showing the characteristics of low 587 temperature near the coast and high temperature in the central sea. Fig. 10 shows the monthly 588 average sea temperature of the 35°N and 37°N cross-sections in winter (February). A vertically 589 uniform temperature can be seen clearly from this figure. The results obtained by the three 590 methods are slightly different, but the overall characteristics are the same, which can sufficiently 591 reflect the winter sea temperature characteristics of this sea area. 592



594

595 Figure 10. Monthly average temperature in February: (a) Monthly average temperature in 35°N, (b) Monthly average temperature in 37°N. 596

597 Fig. 11 shows sea temperature's horizontal distribution in summer and winter in China's marginal seas. Fig. 11(a) shows the sea temperature's horizontal distribution near the bottom of 598 599 YS in summer, and the structure of YS cold water mass can be seen clearly. In particular, the SSIG-G inversion results show two obvious low temperature centers, located in the northern YS 600 and the southern YS, respectively, which is consistent with the hydrological characteristics of 601 this region. Fig. 11(b) shows the temperature near the bottom of the YS in winter, the 602 603 temperature of the YS showed a winter characteristic at this time, without cold water mass structure. 604



605

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Figure 11. Monthly average sea temperature's horizontal distribution in summer and winter in
China's marginal seas: (a) Monthly average sea temperature distribution near the bottom of the
YS in summer, (b) Monthly average sea temperature distribution near the bottom of the YS in
winter.

611 4.2.2 Temperature distribution characteristics of ECS

The cross-section of the ECS is selected at 31°N, which is a typical cross-section for 612 studying the hydrological characteristics of the ECS. The sea temperature distributions in this 613 section are different in summer and in winter. In summer, the sea temperature west of the cross-614 section shows a three-layer structure with increasing temperature. The sea surface temperature is 615 above 27 °C, but there is cold water near the bottom, with a clear thermocline in the middle. In 616 winter, the shallow water area west of this cross-section is mixed by convection directly to the 617 seabed, and the sea temperature distribution is consistent from top to bottom. The eastern part of 618 the cross-section is the Kuroshio high-temperature water, which shows the surface layer is above 619 18 °C, and the vertical distribution of sea temperature is relatively uniform to approximately 150 620 m. At a depth of more than 150 m, the water temperature decreases with increasing depth. The 621 isotherm east of the section bulges upward from the seabed, and the water temperature from the 622

surface to the bottom drops evenly. Fig. 12 shows the 31°N cross-section results obtained by the 623 three methods, of which Fig. 12(a) shows the results in summer. The results of the proposed 624 SSIG-G model and CORA are similar, which proves that the inverted STs can be used to 625 accurately reflect the physical oceanographic phenomena. The MODAS results are slightly 626 different from those obtained by the other two methods. There is a large temperature change at 627 128° E, and the eastern part of the cross-section does not reflect the fact that the isotherm bulges 628 upward well. Fig. 12(b) shows the winter results, and the three methods accurately reflect the 629 winter temperature distribution characteristics. 630



Figure 12. Monthly average temperature cross-section of the ECS in 31°N: (a) summer, (b) winter.

634 4.2.3 Responses of upper ocean temperature to tropical cyclones (TCs) in China's marginal seas 635

The ocean response and feedback to TCs are the most intense air-sea interactions 636 involving complex processes from weather to climate scales, from local to global scales, and 637 from dynamic and thermodynamic elements to multiple environmental variables. The specific 638 impacts of tropical cyclones on the upper ocean are as follows: during the passage of TCs, the 639 loss of water vapor and heat in the ocean surface, the cooling of the upper sea water and the 640 strong wind stress and wave action can penetrate the ocean at 100-200 m depth, and thus cause 641 turbulent mixing and strong upwelling (Chang et al., 2013). The cyclonic stress of TCs can also 642 play a "cold suction" role in the upper ocean by the strong uplift of the ocean thermocline 643 through Ekman suction (Chereskin & Price, 2001). 644

645 Due to the lack of in situ observations during TCs passage, response analysis of upper ocean temperature to TCs lacks sufficient data. To better verify our inversion results and further 646 expand the applications of our inversion results in studying typical physical oceanographic 647 phenomena in China's marginal seas, based on the China Meteorological Administration (CMA) 648 best-track dataset (Lu et al., 2021; Ying et al., 2014) provided by the Tropical Cyclone Data 649 Center of the CMA, four TCs that crossed China's marginal seas in 2018, "GAEMI", "YAGI", 650 "RUMBIA" and "KONG-REY", are selected, and the response of upper ocean temperature at 651 depths of 10-100 m during TC passage are analyzed. The sea temperature 7 days before TC 652

653 passage is taken as the reference temperature, and the responses of upper sea temperatures to 654 TCs are analyzed by calculating the abnormal changes in sea temperature at 10 m, 50 m, 75 m

TCs are analyzed by calculating the abnormal changes in sea temperature at 10 m, 50 m, 75 m and 100 m during TC passage. Fig. 13 shows the trajectory of four selected TCs in the study area.



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Figure 13. Trajectory of four selected TCs in the study area: (a) "GAEMI", (b) "YAGI", (c)
"RUMBIA" and (d) "KONG-REY".

The trajectory of TC "GAEMI" during its passage in the study area from 12:00 on June 659 15 to 6:00 on June 16, 2018 is shown in Fig. 13 (a). Fig. 14 shows the abnormal temperature 660 changes during TC "GAEMI" (June 16, 2018), and the inversion results are compared with 661 MODAS and CORA 2.0. Fig. 14(a) - (d) show the temperature anomalies of the 10 m, 50 m, 75 662 m and 100 m layers, respectively. It can be seen from this figure that the CORA does not well 663 reflect the cold anomaly of the upper ocean temperature during the transit of "GAEMI", which 664 indicates that the reanalysis data may not well reflect the changes under the influence of weather 665 scale without in situ observations. The inversion results of SSIG-G and MODAS obtained from 666 satellite observations, can better reflect real-time changes. The inversion results of SSIG-G show 667 a better cold anomaly near the "GAEMI" path. 668



669

Figure 14. Temperature anomaly during the transit of TC "GAEMI" (June 16, 2018): (a) 10m, (b)
50m, (c) 75m and (d) 100m.

The trajectory of TC " YAGI " during its transit in the study area from 00:00 on August 672 11 to 21:00 on August 15, 2018 is shown in Fig. 13 (b) and the trajectory of TC " RUMBIA " 673 during its transit in the study area from 12:00 on August 14 to 3:00 on August 17, 2018 is shown 674 in Fig. 13 (c). The transit time of these two TCs overlaps, so they are analyzed together. Fig. 15 675 shows the abnormal temperature changes of TCs "YAGI" and "RUMBIA" during their transit 676 (August 15, 2018). Fig. 15 (a) - (c) correspond to the temperature anomalies of 10m, 50m and 677 75m layers respectively. It can be seen from this figure that the results of CORA have large areas 678 of warm anomalies in the 50m and 75m layers, which do not reflect the "cold suction" effect 679 during the transit of TCs. The results of SSIG-G and MODAS reflect the response of the upper 680 ocean temperature to TCs. Besides, the inversion results show warm anomalies in some regions 681 besides cold anomalies because the subsurface temperature is also affected by the "heat pump" 682 effect. 683



684 685 Figure 15. Temperature anomaly during the transit of TCs " YAGI "(Black dots) and "RUMBIA" (Red dots) in August 15, 2018: (a) 10m, (b) 50m, (c) 75m and (d) 100m.

The trajectory of TC "KONG-REY" during its passage in the study area from 06:00 on October 4, 2018, to 00:00 on October 6, 2018, is shown in Fig. 13(d). Fig. 16 shows the abnormal temperature changes of TC "KONG-REY" during its passage (October 5, 2018). Fig. 16(a) - (d) show the temperature anomalies at the 10 m, 50 m, 75 m and 100 m layers, respectively. Consistent with the analysis results of other TCs, the SSIG-G and MODAS results can well reflect the "cold suction" effect of TCs.



694





698 **5 Conclusions**

In this study, a new GAN-based model was proposed for the inversion of high-resolution daily ST fields in the upper 200 m of China's marginal seas using multisource remote sensing and two reanalysis datasets. The traditional inversion tool MODAS was used for the sake of the comparison and validation. In this study, we first analyzed the inversion results at 12 different depth levels from different temporal and spatial perspectives, including seasonal and geographical distributions, and used NMDIS's integrated temperature and salinity data for accuracy verification. Next, we further verified the inversion results and their importance in oceanographic research by analyzing the YS cold water mass and temperature distribution characteristics of the ECS in China's marginal seas.

708 The results show that the proposed SSIG-G model can be used to invert the daily ST fields of China's marginal seas with a resolution of 1/12°. The accuracy of the inversion results 709 using both SSIG-G and MODAS decreases with an increase of depth, except at 125 m; the 710 average RMSEs are less than 1.45 °C and 2.23 °C, respectively, at all depth levels, and the 711 highest accuracy is 2 m with average RMSE of less than 0.45 °C. The highest R2 values are 0.97 712 and 0.898 when using the SSIG-G model and MODAS, respectively. At 70 m, the highest 713 average R2 values of 0.97 and 0.898 are obtained using the SSIG-G model and MODAS, 714 respectively. The results in different seasons show that the lowest inversion accuracy occurs in 715 autumn, and the highest inversion accuracy occurs in winter. The SSIG-G model and MODAS 716 have consistent seasonal change trends; the average RMSEs in winter are all less than 1.2 °C, 717 while the highest average RMSEs in autumn reaches 2.5 °C and 3 °C at 200 m, respectively. The 718 seasonal inversion results reflect the seasonal variation characteristics of China's marginal seas. 719 For the accuracy inversion distribution results in the entire study area, the highest inversion 720 721 accuracy is around square-area A, and the inversion results around square-area B is relatively poor; in square-area D, the accuracy inversion accuracy of the SSIG-G model is obviously better 722 than that of MODAS. Overall, the SSIG-G model has higher accuracy and model robustness in 723 724 both time and space.

725 Through the analysis of typical physical oceanographic phenomena in China's marginal seas and the comparison with MODAS and CORA, it can be seen that the inversion results 726 obtained by the proposed SSIG-G model can accurately reflect the physical oceanographic 727 phenomena, which has important research and application value. The vertical and horizontal 728 729 distributions of the YS cold water mass in summer and winter are clearly reflected, and the unique cold water mass structure is consistent with the actual hydrological characteristics. The 730 731 temperature characteristics of the ECS in summer and winter are also well reflected in the 732 inversion results. In addition, because it is derived from satellite data, this model provides more 733 real-time results than reanalysis data. Through the analysis of the abnormal changes of the upper ocean temperature during the passage of four tropical cyclones "GAEMI", "YAGI", "RUMBIA" 734 735 and "KONG-REY", the superiority of the inversion results in this study and its application value of ocean physical phenomena researches are further verified. 736

737 Overall, the proposed SSIG-G model can take into account the spatial-temporal variation characteristics of ST structures in China's marginal seas and has higher horizontal resolution and 738 accuracy than the traditional MODAS tool. SSHA, SSTA and SST are important sea surface 739 740 information in inverting STs, and the SSIG-G model has successfully adopted these data for retrieving ocean interior thermal structures. This study can provide methodological support for 741 the DORS technique, and the application of ML/DL in this field has once again proven to be of 742 great value. Of course, this study uses a relatively simple framework, and more targeted 743 improvement based on the research area and variables could be performed in the future. In 744 addition, we can use more multisource remote sensing data and advanced ML/DL networks to 745 improve the inversion accuracy and model robustness. Coping with ocean warming and climate 746 change is a common issue for mankind, and abundant, multisource, massive remote sensing data 747

and advanced ML/DL methods have created positive impacts. Our research has provided somevaluable foundations.

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752 Data Availability Statement

- 753 The SST and SLA data are provided by the Copernicus Marine Environment Monitoring Service
- 754 (CMEMS) and are available at <u>https://resources.marine.copernicus.eu/</u>. The reanalysis datasets
- 755 are produced by the near real time Global Ocean Forecasting System (GOFS) 3.1
- 756 (https://www.hycom.org/data/glbv0pt08/) and the National Marine Data and Information Service
- 757 (NMDIS) of China (http://mds.nmdis.org.cn/). The vertification temperature profile data are
- 758 provided by NMDIS of China and available at http://mds.nmdis.org.cn.
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