A Moored Array Observation Dataset for Air-Sea·SurfaceMASCS

1.0: Synchronous atmospheric and Oceanoceanic data from a cross-

shaped moored array in the Northernnorthern South China Sea

⁵ **during 2014–2015 (MASCS 1.0)**

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25 conductivity, temperature, and depth (CTD) recorders. It also includes currents from the surface to a depth of 850 m measured byusing acoustic Doppler current profilers (ADCPs) and measured at 10 m, 50 m, and 100 m above the floor measured byusing current meters. Additional measurements were taken for sea surface radiation, air visibility, chlorophyll, turbidity, and chromophoric dissolved organic matter at Buoybuoy 3, which was located at the center of the moored array. The data reveals air-–sea interactions and oceanic processes in the upper and bottom ocean, especially the transition of the air-–sea interface

30 and ocean conditions from summer to winter monsoon along withand the effects of six tropical cyclones on the moored array. multiscaleMultiscale processes were also recorded, such as air--sea fluxes, tides, internal waves, and low-frequency flows also recorded.. The data isare valuable and has multiplehave many potential applications, including analysis ofanalyzing the phenomena and mechanisms of air--sea interactions and ocean dynamics, as well as validation and improvement of and validating and improving numerical model simulations, data reanalysis, and assimilations. All the data described here are made

35 publicly available fromat https://zenodo.org/records/1382781[9https://zenodo.org/records/13925651](https://zenodo.org/records/13925651) (Zhang et al. 2024).

1 Introduction

The South China Sea (SCS) is a semi-enclosed marginal sea with a deep basin, making it the largest marginal sea in the tropics, covering nearlyapproximately 3.5×10^6 km². The South China SeaSCS is also the largest marginal sea in the western Pacific₇ and is known for its powerful internal tides and abundant internal waves (Alford et al., 2015). Mesoscale eddies in the 40 SCS transport heat and salt from the Kuroshio loop near the Luzon Strait (Yang et al., 2019) and modulate sea surface fields (Tan et al., 2023). The background circulations in the SCS are cyclonic in the upper and deep layers, whilewhereas they are anticyclonic in the middle layer (Cai et al., 2020). The three factors contributing to the generally cyclonic gyre in the upper ocean of the northern SCS (Jilan, 2004; Liu et al., 2008) are: (1) quasi-seasonal wind forcing; (2) net water transport into the SCS through the Luzon Strait;, and (3) vorticity advection from the Kuroshio. The Kuroshio carrying the northwestern Pacific 45 water intrudes into the SCS through the Luzon Strait (Nan et al., 2015).

The SCS is Atmospheric forcing significantly influenced by atmospheric forcinginfluences the SCS, such as monsoons (Chen et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2022), tropical cyclones (TCs) (Guan et al., 2024; Shan et al., 2023), and the world's strongest boreal summer quasi-biweekly oscillation (Qi et al., 2023). Marine heat waves (Wang et al., 2022) and variations in air--sea heat flux variations (Song et al., 2023; Zhang, 2023) are also observed in the northern SCS. This sector features broad 50 continental shelves and steep continental slopes, leading to complex local ocean dynamical processes. For example, breaking internal tides on the continental slope induce along-slope deep sea bottom currents (Xie et al., 2018), and cross-isobathic motion of the water column or synoptic processes (e.g., TCs) induce continental shelf waves, such as topographic Rossby (Wang et al., 2019) and Kelvin mode (Li et al., 2024) waves.

OwingDue to the complexity of air-–sea interaction and oceanic processes in the SCS, local in- situ observations are 55 essential to uncover theuncovering their phenomena and mechanisms. From 2014 to 2015, a cross-shaped moored array consisting ofcomprising five buoys and four moorings was deployed in the northern SCS to acquire sea surface meteorological and oceanic data as well as upper and near-bottom oceanic data. This study lists the details of these observations and the resulting dataset. Part of thisSome data have already been used in several studies focusing on air--sea heat flux, ocean

temperature--salinity, and dynamical responses to tropical cyclonesTCs (Zhang et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2018; Liu et al., 60 2020; Zhang, 2023), to investigate the effect of drag coefficients on surface heat flux during typhoontyphoons (Liu et al. 2022), the influence of typhoons on the pre-existing preexisting eddies (He et al., 2024), ocean mixing and heat flux by nearinertial waves (Hong et al. 2022; Lu et al., 2024), sea surface wind patterns (Zhang et al., 2020) and the comparison experisms comparing microseism signals generated by typhoons (Lin et al., 2022), the validity of numerical model simulations (Wu et al., 2020; Lim Kam Sian et al., 2020; Lu et al., 2023), and the study of deep ocean energy variability in the 65 SCS (Quan et al., 2022). However, the full potential of this dataset has yet to be realized.

70 2015 (Table 1). The water depth at $\frac{1}{\text{B1}}$ and $\frac{1}{\text{mooring 1 (M1)}}$ was approximately 1600 m, whilewhereas the depths at the other stations were greater than 3000 m. Tropical cyclones TCs significantly influenced the observations, as shown in (Fig. 1_z), including Hagibis in June, Rammasun and Matmo in July, Kalmaegi and Fung-wong in September, and Hagupit in December. The information regarding these tropical evelonesTCs was obtained from the China Meteorological Administration [\(https://tcdata.typhoon.org.cn/en/zjljsjj.html\)](https://tcdata.typhoon.org.cn/en/zjljsjj.html), which were deemedis more accurate for tropical eyelonesTCs affecting China 75 (Lu et al., 2021; Ying et al., 2014). Although the designdesigns of some buoys and moorings have already been shown in previous works (e.g. studies (Zhang et al., 2016; Zhang, 2023), the designs of all the stations are redrawn to give more accurate

information of the deployment of the instruments (Fig. 1b, Fig. 3). Table 1 shows the locations of the observation stations as well asand their time range. The moorings (M1, M2, M4, and

- M5) were deployed during 8 to 10 June 8–10, 2014, and successfully recovered during 29 to 31 March 29–31, 2015 (Table 1). 80 B1 was deployed on $\frac{19}{2}$ June 19, 2014, and maintained once on 5-September 5, 2014, it. It lost contact on $\frac{15}{2}$ October while did15 and was not recoverrecovered by two cruises during 23from March 23 to 4 April 4, 2015. Buoy 2 (B2) and 4 (B4) were deployed on 29-July 29 and 20 June 20, 2014, while respectively, and recovered on 30 March 30, 2015. B4 was maintained once on 30 July 30, 2014. Buoy 3 (B3) was deployed on 11 September, the 11, 2014. The tether of B3 snapped on 15 September 15, 2014, when typhoon Kalmaegi passed over the observation array (Zhang et al., 2016). B3 then became a drifter, initially
- 85 moving northeastward with circular tracks (Fig. 2a) attributed to the rightward advection and near-inertial surface currents induced by the typhoon. B3 returned to its initial location on $2+$ September 21, 2014, moved eastward and turned back on 25 September 25, 2014, and followed a southwestward track thereafterafter that (Fig. 2a). B3 wasA ship recovered by a shipB3 on $\frac{17}{2}$ October 17, 2014, and it was brought back to land on $\frac{21}{2}$ October 21, 2014. Moored The moored part of B3 was recovered on 34 -March 31, 2015. Buoy 5 (B5) was deployed on 26 -August 26, 2014, and lost contact on 44 -October 11, 2014, while the.
- 90 The moored part of B5 was recovered on March 31 March, 2015. The horizontal movement of the buoys was minimal during

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observations, as because they primarily moved in a circular region with a radius shorter than 3 km (Figs. 2b-–e). Typhoon Kalmaegi also increased the horizontal circular movement of B1 to approximately 4 km on the northwest side on $\frac{15\text{ September}}{15}$ 15, which was attributed to the northwestward winds on the right-hand side of the typhoon and may indicate, indicating that the typhoon moved the anchor of B1 was northwestward moved by the typhoon asbecause its tether length was approximately

Figure 1: Topography (m) map with the positions of and the deployed locations of the buoys (red dots) and moorings (yellow dots). **(b)** Designs of buoy 2 (B2) and mooring 2 (M2) are shown as examples**,**; the dot-and-dash line indicates the tether length in the middle water of the buoy, **while**and the dashed line indicates the depth of the two ADCPs on the top of the mooring. **Tracks**The tracks of **tropical** 100 **cyclones**the TCs are shown (colored lines**), along with**) and their positions every 6 h (dots). The text boxes indicate the dates and the sustained maximum wind speed at UTC 00:00 on each date.

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Figure 2^{*n*} Distributions of the buoy locations, with the track of buoy 3 (B3). (b—e)+) Tracks of buoybuoys 3, 1, 2, 4 and 5 (B3, B1,
B2, B4_a and B5) with their locations relative to their initial deployed positions i 105 lines represent the buoy tracks, **while**and the white hollow dots indicate the positions of B3 every day after **15** September 15, 2014, when its tether snapped and it became a drifter.

*B1 **were**was lost and not recovered, and the end time of B1 represents the latest time when observation data were received. Otherwise, the time range represents the deployment and recovery time for the stations.

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115 * Acoustic Doppler current profiler (ADCP) 1 was the downward -looking ADCP deployed at the buoy, ADCPADCPs 2 and 3 were the upward and downward-looking ADCPs on the mooring-, respectively. The 300 kHz ADCPs were binned in 4 m, with the first bin at 8 m (B4) or 6.24 m (M1, M2) and the last bin at 124 m (B4) or 122.24 m (M1, M2). The 150 kHz ADCPs were binned in 8 m_a with the first bin at 14 m and the last bin at 246 m. 75kHz ADCPThe 75 kHz ADCPs were binned in 16 m intervals, with the first bin at 24.7 m and the last bin at 568.7 m. ADCP 1 at B5 was lost during observation and no data were recovered.

120 **2.2 Dataset description**

The dataset is composed of comprises 52 files in netcdf file (.nc) format containing air and ocean observation data as well asand the positions of the buoys during the period of $2014-2015$, along with a metadata file in-txt format to give a brief interial of the data. The observation instruments were calibrated before deployment and the . After output from the observation instruments, the observation data are transformed directly to netcdf files after output from the

- 125 instruments, with the units and FillValues labeled. No special modification or say quality control was applied in order to keep the original output data unchanged. All the files include time values both Coordinated Universal Time (UTC) and local time, which is eight hours ahead of the Coordinated Universal TimeUTC (UTC +8) since 0000-01-01 00:00:00. The local time is also called China Standard Time (CST) or Beijing Time (BJT). The location data includesare longitude (°E) and latitude (°N)), observed by Global Positioning System (GPS) sensors. There were B1, B2, B4, and B5 had three GPS sensors on buoys 1, 2,
- 130 4, and 5, and B3 had two GPS sensors on buoy 3.. Location-1 data waswere obtained from the mainprimary GPS sensors on the body of the buoys, Location-2 data waswere obtained from the GPS sensors approximately 4 m above the sea surface, and Location-3 data waswere obtained from the low-frequency GPS sensors at the bottom of the buoys (approximately 0 m). The measurement accuracies of the GPSs were <50 m.

The air data includesinclude observations approximately 4 m above the sea surface from meteorological sensors 135 (Meteorologymeteorology data) and the automatic meteorological station (200WX data). In Two sets of meteorological stations are deployed on the buoys in order to haveprovide a backup in case whenif the sensors of a meteorological station break down during observation. The 200WX data are similar to the meteorology data, but does not include exclude rain guagegauge data. The wind direction of wind indicates the direction of the incoming wind; for example, 0° indicates wind passing from north to south, and 90° indicates wind passing from east to west. The compass indicates the direction of the 140 compass on the meteorological sensors or stations, which referspeferring to the attitude of the sensors or stations. For the measurement accuracies of 200WX, the air pressure is ± 1 hPa, the air temperature accuracy is ± 1.1 °C, the relative humidity

- is \pm 5-%, the compass is 1° for static heading and 2° for dynamic heading, whileand the measurement accuracy of wind is different differs in dry and wet conditions. In dry eonditionconditions, the wind speed accuracy is $0.5 \text{ m/s} + 10\%$ of reading for low winds (0 to –5 m/s), or thea greater value of 1 m/s or 10% for high winds (5 to –40 m/s), the wind direction accuracy is 5° 145 for low winds (2 to –5 m/s) and 2° for high winds \leftrightarrow (>5 m/s). In wet conditionconditions, the wind speed accuracy is 2.5 m/s
- and 8°. The measurement accuracy of the meteorological sensors hasis in the same order withas 200WX. For the meteorology data of buoy 3B3, there was a visibility meter to measure air visibility (km), while also a Campbell Scientific NR01 fourcomponent net radiometer approximately 4 m above the sea surface with outputs every 1 h, measured upward and downward shortwave and longwave radiation (W/m²) as well as), and air temperature observed by the radiometer (\degree C). The measurement 150 accuracy is $\pm 10\%$ of the measurement range for air visibility, $\leq 2.4\%$ the measurement range% for shortwave radiation, and

 \leq 7-% for longwave radiation.

The ocean data includes sea surface waves observed by a TRIAXYSTM OEM wave recorder (Wave data), the temperature, salinity, and pressure using conductivity, temperature, and depth (CTD) recorders observed by Sea-Bird Scientific 37 recorders (SBE data), currents observed by Teledyne RD Instruments (TRDI) acoustic dopplerDoppler current profilers (ADCP data)), 155 and currents observed by Aanderaa Data Instruments SeaGuard Recording Current Meter (SeaGuard data), andas well as Biochemistry data observed by multi-parameter Richard Brancker Research (RBR) sensors (RBR data). The 75 kHz ADCP was a TRDI Workhorse Long Ranger, the 150 kHz ADCP was a TRDI Workhorse Quartermaster, and the 300 kHz ADCP was a TRDI Workhorse Sentinel. Sea surface wave data includes significant wave height (m), maximum wave height (m), mean wave direction (°), peak period (s), and wave spread (Table 2). The observation accuracy is better than 2% of the 160 measurement range for pressure for wave height and period, while and $\pm 1^{\circ}$ for wave direction. Wave recorders were deployed on buoys $1, 4B1, B4$, and $5B5$, but the wave recorder on buoy $5B5$ broke down, resulting in low-quality data. Consequently,

only sea surface wave data from **buoys** 1B1 and 4B4 were included in the ocean data.

SBE data includesinclude temperature (°C), salinity (psu), and pressure (dbar) observed by SBE-37 CTD sensors. The measurement accuracies of SBE-37 isare ± 0.002 °C (-(-5 to 35 °C) or ± 0.01 °C (35 ± 0 -45 °C) for temperature, ± 0.0003 S/m 165 for electrical conductivity, and 1% of the measurement range for pressure. Serial 1-to-15 in the SBE data refersrefer to the SBE-37 sensors from the surface to the ocean bottom. All SBE sensors are deployed on the buoys, except for three SBE-37s

Salinity1, and Pressure1) waswere obtained. Two SBEs on buoy 4B4 broke down during observation, resulting in data from 170 only 13 SBEs. The ADCP data consists of comprise current speed (cm/s-Speed), current direction (°-direction), temperature observed by ADCP (°C temperature), depth of the ADCP (m depth), designed depth (depth0), and bin intervals of the ADCP observation (m-bin). The SeaGuard data includesinclude current speed (cm/s-speed) and current direction (° direction). Unlike wind direction, current direction indicates the direction of the current flow, $\frac{1}{2}$ for example, 0° indicates the current passing from south to north, and 90° indicates the current passing from west to east. In SeaGuard data, the accuracy is $\pm 1^\circ$ of reading for 175 current speed, while and $\pm 3^{\circ}$ (if the tilt is 0--15°) or $\pm 5^{\circ}$ (if the tilt is 15--35°) for the current direction. Negative Binbin values refer to downward-looking ADCPs and vice versa. ADCPs on the buoys (ADCP 1) were downward-looking, located at the sea surface (approximately 0 m), so); their observation range was depth $0 + \text{bin}$. The ADCP data on the moorings consist ofcomprise upward-looking (ADCP 2) and downward-looking (ADCP 3) observations with ranges depth + Bin₇as because the depth of the ADCPs at the moorings varies during observation. Note that buoy 3B3 did not 180 have ADCP or SeaGuard observation (see observations (Fig. 3 and Table 2), and the ADCP at buoy 5B5 broke down, and no data were obtained. For the bin sizes of the ADCPs, the 300 kHz ADCPs were binned in 4 m, with the first bin at 8 m (buoy

on the moorings located near the ocean bottom (Figs. 1b and 2). Note that the The SBE-37 strings on buoys 1B1 and 3B3 were lost during deployment period, so; therefore, only SBE data at the sea surface located at the bottom of the buoy (Temperature1,

4B4) or 6.24 m (mooring 1M1 and 2M2) and the last bin at 124 m (buoy 4B4) or 122.24 m (mooring 1M1 and 2). M2). The 150 kHz ADCPs were binned in 8 m, with the first bin at 14 m and the last bin at 246 m. 75 kHz ADCPThe 75 kHz ADCPs were binned in 16 m intervals, with the first bin at 24.7 m and the last bin at 568.7 m. The velocity accuracy for the 75 kHz

185 ADCPADCPs is 1% of water velocity relative to the ADCP ± 0.01 m/s (written as 1% $\pm \pm 0.01$ m/s), while the). The accuracies for the 150 and 300 kHz ADCPADCPs are $1\% \pm \pm 0.005$ m/s and 0.5% $\pm \pm 0.005$ m/s, respectively. The RBR sensors were only deployed at buoy 3, B3 and observed water pressure (dbar), turbidity (V) by two sensors, chlorophyll (ug/L Chla)), and Coloredcolored dissolved organic matter (ppb -CDOM; ppb). The measurement accuracy of water pressure was $\pm 0.05\%$ -of measurement range%, $\pm 2\%$ for turbidity and chlorophyll, and ± 0.01 ppb 190 for CDOM₇.

3 Results

The data at station 2 (B2 and M2) were longlonger and more complete relative tothan those at the other stations, and isare shown first to provide an example of the observations at the stations. Subsequently, observations differing from station 2 are also shown, including near-bottom observations at B1, sea surface waves at B1 and B4, and the observations 195 at B3 after its rope snapped on 15 September 15, causing it to become a drift.

3.1 Sea surface air and ocean observation at station 2

The prevailing wind direction was approximately 200° (nearly south wind) from late July to mid-August, then shifted primarily in the range of 20°–80° (nearly northeast wind) after October, with wind direction variations during September (Fig. 4b, d). This finding indicates that the transition occurred from local summer to winter monsoon, with September as the 200 transition month. AverageThe average wind speed iswas less than 10 m/s during July and August, often exceeding 10 m/s after October (Fig. 4a, c), indicating that the winter monsoon was stronger than the summer monsoon at B2. B2 likely traveled through the eye of typhoon Kalmaegi, with two peaks in wind speed peaks accompanied by minimum air pressure (Zhang et al., 2016). Note that typhoonTyphoon Kalmaegi and severe tropical storm Fung-wong during September significantly influenced the wind direction at B2, with the wind direction turning counter-clockwisecounterclockwise near September 15 205 and 21, consistent with B2 being on the left side of both TCs.

B2 also recorded a drop in sea surface air and ocean temperature (Fig. 4g, i) from summer to winter, ranging from approximately 28.5 °C to 30.5 °C in August, decreasing from approximately 29 °C to approximately 27 °C in October, and continuing to decrease further. SurfaceThe surface air temperature was slightly lower than the sea surface temperature during the observation period, indicating local sensible heat flux from the ocean to the atmosphere, as because the water cooled slower

210 than air during autumn. The fall. Due to their high time resolution (2 min) , the observations also captured the diurnal variation of temperature, variation attributed to daytime solar radiation heating and, nighttime outward longwave radiation cooling, and the deepening of the ocean mixed layer, were also captured by the observations due to their high time resolution (2 min). Typhoon Kalmaegi and tropical storm Fung-wong successively decreased the sea surface air and ocean temperatures during September, with Kalmaegi suddenly decreasing the sea surface temperature by approximately 2.5 $^{\circ}$ C, as because B2 was 215 located in the core cooling area on the right-hand side of the typhoon track.

Rain guagegauge data waswere measured byusing a tipping bucket rain gauge, with a maximum measurement of 255 mm. The bucket empties when full (255 mm)), and the measurement starts from 0 mm again. RainThe rain rate can be calculated by dividing the difference in rain guagegauge values by the time interval. Significant rainfall events were recorded near 2around August, 6 2, September 6, 15 September, and 21 September. The strong rainfall near 15 September and 21 220 September was induced by typhoon. Typhoon Kalmaegi and severe tropical storm Fung-wong. Note that evaporation induced strong rainfall around September 15 and 21. Evaporation also affected rain guagegauge values, which decreased slowly over time without precipitation, indicating that rain guagegauge data reflected precipitation and evaporation. Sea surface salinity

increased from approximately 33.3 psu near \pm October 1 to approximately 33.8 psu near \pm 0 November 10 (Fig. 4i), owing) due to little rainfall during this period, with salinity primarily controlled by evaporation.

225 There were some consistencies Some similarities and differences existed between the two sets of meteorological observations,: the European Centre for Medium-Rangerange Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) Reanalysis v5 data (ERA5, [https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/dataset/ecmwf-reanalysis-v5\)](https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/dataset/ecmwf-reanalysis-v5) isare used to evaluate thetheir performance of them. The average and maximum wind speed and direction in the Meteorologymeteorology and 200WX datasets are consistent-while.

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and the average wind matched the wind speed from ERA5 well, except that the average wind direction observed by 230 meteorological sensors suddenly turned to approximately 180° , and the maximum wind direction varied rapidly between 0° and 360° after 15 November 15 (Fig. 4b, d), indicateindicating some malfunctions of the wind meteorological observation sensor. Air pressure measurements from the meteorological sensors, 200WX station, and ERA5 are consistent before 27 August 27, with the diurnal variation of air pressure variation observed by the meteorological sensors amplifying and becoming inconsistent with the 200WX observations and ERA5 after 27 August 27 (Fig. 4f), indicateindicating some malfunction of the 235 pressure meteorological observation sensor. The sensitivity of the air temperature measurements by the 200WX was greater than that of the temperature meteorological sensor, with larger amplitude diurnal variations, whilewhereas their values of both of themwere a bit greater or different withfrom ERA5 data (Fig. 4g). Relative humidity measured by the meteorological sensor was consistent with ERA5 data and was greater than that measured by the 200WX, ranging from 0.% to 10.% (Fig. 4h). Both ets of meteorological observations showed missing data aboutapproximately 5 days near 6-October 6, which maymight 240 be due to the malfunction of the instruments or data recording.

Figure 4:¹/₃. Observation at Buoy 2. Average (B2): the average and maximum wind speedspeeds (**a**, **b**₃ m/s) and direction (**c**, **d**₃^o), rain **guage**gauge (**e**; mm), air pressure (**f**; hPa), air temperature (**g**; °C), relative humidity (**h**; %), sea surface salinity (**i**; psu), sea surface temperature (**i**; °C), and buoy compass (**j °). Blue**; °). The blue and red lines are data observed by the meteorological sensors and the 200WX 245 automatic meteorological station, approximately 4 m above the sea surface**, while**. The blue and red lines in (**i**) represent salinity and temperature observed by the SBE-37 sensor at the buoy bottom (approximately 0 m). **Wind**The wind directions indicate the direction from which the wind originates. The vertical dashed lines indicate the time when **TCTCs** Kalmaegi, Fung-wong, and Hagupit were closest to **Buoy 2**B2. The green lines are the European Centre for Medium-**Range**range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) Reanalysis v5 (ERA5) data.

3.2 Current, temperature, and salinity observation at station 2

250 At station 2, the current observations at the mooring $(F_{\text{H}}F_{\text{B}}F_{\text{B}}g, 5b-d)$ were longer than those at the buoy (Fig. 5a), as well asand the temperature and salinity (Fig. 6) observations at the buoy₃ due to the deployment and recovery times. The upwardlooking 300 kHz ADCP (Fig. 5b) and the SBE-37 recorder at the bottom of the buoy (Fig. 6) stopped working near $\frac{11}{2}$ November, 11 while the data quality from the downward-looking 75 kHz ADCP at the mooring decreased, especially in year 2015, with some missing data at several bins (Fig. 5b). Although the length of the SBE chain of SBEs was 400 m long, the 255 observation range of temperature and salinity was primarily shorter than 400 m₇ as because the rope swung and tilted during observationobservations, especially the deepest observation depth decreased to \sim 200 m near 21 September 21 under the influence of typhoon-induced near-inertial waves after Kalmaegi. Similarly, the positions of the ADCPs at the moorings also moved vertically due to the tilt of the mooring rope, especially when influenced by intensified currents after -Rammasun and Matmo in July, and Kalmaegi in September.

260 HorizontalADCPs and SeaGuards captured horizontal currents induced by diurnal and semi-diurnal tides were captured by ADCPs and SeaGuards, along with diurnal and semi-diurnalas well as vertical variations ofin temperature and salinity isolines. The upper ocean background current speed was primarily <20 cm/s, significantly increasing after tropical cyclones, e.g.,TCs Rammasun and Matmo in July, Kalmaegi in September, and Hagupit in December, with the mixed layer current speed reaching approximately 150 cm/s after Kalmaegi (Zhang et al., 2016). Typhoon Kalmaegi immediately strengthened the near-265 inertial mixed layer currents and kinetic energy, which then propagated horizontally and vertically with the dispersion of nearinertial waves and regulation by background vorticity (Lu et al., 2023; Lu et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2016). Near-bottom currents were mainly primarily <10 cm/s, while and near-bottom flow turned from northeastward to southeastward after the influence of typhoon Rammasun.

UpperThe upper ocean temperature decreased monotonously from the surface (approximately 0 m) to approximately 270 400 m, and salinity exhibited a "low-–high-–low" vertical structure with a maximum of approximately 34.5 psu from approximately 100 m to approximately 250 m. There is long-term upper ocean cooling and a decrease in salinity from summer to winter (Fig. 6), especially after mid-October. Kalmaegi reduced the sea surface temperature by approximately 1.9 $^{\circ}$ C at its maximum, with a subsurface cold anomaly of approximately 1.1 \degree C at its maximum (Zhang et al., 2016) owingdue to its proximity to the typhoon track, where upper ocean temperature was primarily modulated by typhoon-induced mixing and

275 upwelling primarily modulated the upper ocean temperature (Zhang, 2023; Zhang et al., 2018). Vertical variations ϵ fin temperature and salinity were also influenced by processes such as eddies, fronts, and flows (Liu et al., 2017; Lu et al., 2024), but these are not pursued further here. The downward propagation of warm or freshwater anomalies from the surface, along with and the diurnal cycle of the near-surface mixed layer, can also be observed (Fig. 6) and partly analyzed in Zhang (2023).

290 **3.3 Near -bottom observation at mooring 1**

The instruments at M1 differed from those at other moorings, so; their observations are analyzed and discussed here. Three SBEs were deployed near the ocean bottom in order to checkevaluate the homogeneity of the near-bottom layer. The variation $\frac{1}{2}$ near-bottom pressure observed by the three SBEs at approximately 10 m, 30 m, and 50 m above the ocean bottom is very smalltiny (Fig. 7a), indicating minimal swing and tilt of the rope near the bottom of M1. The water pressure at 295 approximately 10 m above the bottom was approximately 1710 dbar, corresponding to a depth of approximately 1690 m, indicating that the water depth of M1 was approximately 1700 m. The temperature varied from 2.5 °C to 2.7 °C, and salinity iswas close to 34.6 psu at the three SBEs (Fig. 7b, c). The temperature, salinity, and currents observed from the three SBEs and SeaGuards were-very close, indicating a uniform near-bottom layer greater than 100 m (Fig. 7d). However, the current at 100 m above the bottom differed from the other two layers during 29 July 19 to 12 August 12 and 20 December 13 to 13 300 December20, when the near-bottom flow also turned at M1, possibly influenced by super typhoons Rammasun and Hagupit

Sea surface waves observed at B1 and B4 also merit further explanation. The variations of in sea surface waves from the two wave gauges at B1 and B4 are similar (Fig. 8), indicating that the characteristicharacteristics of the sea surface waves at 310 the observation array were comparable. However, B4 showed more drastic variation $\frac{45 \text{ m}}{10 \text{ m}}$ the peak period than B1, with

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different mean wave directiondirections and wave spread during spreads from July 14 to 20 July and near 26 July, which may due to 26, indicating the influence of tropical cyclonesTCs Habibis and Matmo. The observationobservations at B1 were longer than at B4₇ but with some miss recording near $\frac{1}{2}$ missing recordings from August 1 to $\frac{1}{2}$ August. 17.

Sea surface waves were mainly controlled by sea surface winds, e.g., monsoon and tropical cyclones. TCs, primarily 315 controlled the sea surface waves. During the summer monsoon (before September), the significant wave height was primarily \leq 2 m, maximum wave height \leq 3 m, peak period \leq 10 s, and the mean wave direction was close to 180 $^{\circ}$ (northward). During the winter monsoon (after October), significant and maximum wave heights increased to >3 m and >5 m, respectively, as well asand the peak period \geq to $>$ 10 s and the mean wave direction nearly 90 \degree (westward). WaveThe wave spread ranged from 20 to 80 throughout the observation period of the two wave gauges (Fig. 8e). Tropical cyclones The TCs strongly influenced the 320 local sea surface waves. Significant wave height increased to approximately 5-m, 10-m, and 3 m (Fig. 8a), whilewhereas maximum wave height reached approximately 8 $-m$, 15–18 $-m$, and 5–6 m (Fig. 8b) dueowing to the influence of tropical eyelonesTCs Rammasun, Kalmaegi, and Fung-wong, respectively. SeaThe sea surface wave height increased rapidly in one

day, along with a clockwise rotation of the mean wave direction and an increase in the peak period, then returned to background conditions within approximately three days, with the mean wave direction rotating counterclockwise and a decrease in the 325 peak period (Fig. 8).

Figure 8:. Significant wave height (**a,**; m), maximum wave height (**b,**; m), peak period (**c,**; s), mean wave direction (**d,**; °), and wave spread observed by the wave recorders at the bottom of buoys 1 (blue) and 4 (red). The vertical dashed lines represent the time when tr **resthe TCs were the closest to the moored array.**

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330 **3.5 Observation at buoy 3**

AsSince the tether of B3 snapped on 15 September 15, causing the buoy to becamebecome adrift (Fig. 2), it is importantcrucial to describe B3 observations in this section, which partly reflects the air-–sea conditions in region B3 (Figs. 9 and 10).

- The average and maximum wind speeds increased to approximately 20 m/s and 25 m/s, respectively, during Kalmaegi, 335 with the wind direction changing rapidly (Fig. 9a). The average and maximum wind speeds reached approximately 10 m/s during Fung-wong, with the wind direction rotating counterclockwise, as because B3 was on the left side of the TC track (Fig. 9b). In October, the wind direction was primarily close to 0°, consistent with B2 (Fig. 4), indicating that the monsoon controlled the local region was controlled by the monsoon from nearly north to south. RainfallThe rainfall was strong during Kalmaegi (approximately 250 mm) and Fung-wong (approximately 200 mm), accompanied by low air pressure (980 $\frac{hPa}{hA}$ and 1000 hPa),
- 340 while). However, there was little rainfall, and the air pressure increased to more than 1100 hPa after 24 September (Fig24 (Figs. 9e, f). The diurnal variation of air pressure variation can also be found in the observation. SeaThe sea surface temperature continuously reduceddecreased from ~30 °C to ~27.5 °C and ~26.5 °C after Kalmaegi and Fung-wong, respectively, and then recovered back to ~29 °C in October (Fig. 10d). Note that the surface air temperature (Fig. 9g) was 1–3 °C colder than the sea surface temperature (Fig. 10d) during the observation, indicate that there was indicating sensible heat flux from the ocean
- 345 to the air in Autumn along the track of B3. RelativeThe relative humidity was 85% to 100% during the influence of Kalmaegi and Fung-wong $(14 \text{ to } 25$ -September), $14-25$) and then continuously decreased to approximately 70% in October (Fig. 9h), consistent with the fact that the TC-induced cold wake results in reduced rainfall and sea surface humidity ($e.g.,$ Ma et al., 2020). Air visibility was approximately 10 km when B3 was deployed, then decreased to approximately 1 m due to cloud cover and adverse sea surface conditions from typhoon Kalmaegi, and rapidly increased to approximately 16 km on $\frac{15}{2}$ 350 September 15 due to the passage of the typhoon eye (Fig. 9i). Clear sky returned near 47 -September, 17 while subsequent
- tropical cyclone Fung-wong increased air visibility at B3 to approximately 16 km again on 20-September 20, lasting until 22– 23 September 22–23.

B3 was the only buoy equipped with a radiometer. The maximum shortwave radiation observed by the upward sensor was approximately 1900 W/m² near noon (Fig. 10a)₇) when solar radiation was the strongest, significantly reduced by cloud 355 cover from tropical cyclones the TCs from 13 to 23 -September, 13 to 23 and moderately reduced by local cloud cover in October. Conversely, the shortwave radiation observed by the downward sensor was much (one order) smaller than the upward shortwave radiation, indicating a minimal reflection of solar radiation. Similarly, the longwave radiation observed by the upward and downward sensors was close to 0 W/m² and approximately -50 W/m² (Fig. 10b), respectively, indicating that longwave radiation was primarily from the ocean to the atmosphere, with minimal contribution from the atmosphere to the 360 ocean. The sea surface temperature (Fig. 10(d)) decreased from approximately 30 °C to approximately 27 °C after Kalmaegi, recovering to approximately 29 °C in October. The air temperature observed by the radiometer (Fig. 10c) followed a similar variation pattern with air temperature to that observed by the meteorological sensors (Fig. 9a) and sea surface temperature (Fig.

10d), with significant diurnal variation. It is noteworthy that The sea surface salinity (Fig. 10d) increased from approximately 33.5 psu to approximately 33.7 psu due to typhoon Kalmaegi, despite strong rainfall (Fig. 9e). The variation in sea surface 365 salinity was consistent with the rain guagegauge data, except for a decrease in salinity from 3 to 5 October. There were 3 to 5.

Some recording errors of sea surface temperature and salinity occurred after 5-October 5 (Fig. 10d, e)), with a sudden change $\frac{1}{2}$ of the values. The SBE and RBR sensors were deployed at approximately 1.3 to –1.6 m from the surface, with pressures nearlyof 1.3 hPa-1.6 hPa (Fig. 10f). Chlorophyll observed by the RBR sensor (Fig. 10g) showed diurnal variation, 370 increasing from approximately 2 ug/L to approximately 2 ug/L to 2.5 ug/L after Kalmaegi and Fung-wong, then returning to approximately 2 ug/L afterward. Turbidity observed by the first sensor (Fig. 10h) is more than 0.05 V before September 15 $\frac{1}{2}$. It then decreased to approximately 0.005 V, making it difficulterallenging to determine whether the decrease is was attributable to Kalmaegi, which made the sea surface cleaner, or to damage to the turbidity sensor after B3'sB3's rope snapped. Conversely, turbidity observed by the second sensor (Fig. 10i) remained near 4.4569 throughout the observation period of B3 (Fig. 10i). 375 Chromophoric dissolved organic matter (CDOM, (Fig. 10j) gradually increased from 1.88 ppb in September to 2.1 ppb by mid-October.

Figure 9:. Similar to Figure 4 but for buoy 4. **Note that**Notably, **(i)** is the air visibility (km) observed by a visibility meter **located** 4 m above the sea surface. The vertical dashed lines represent the time when **tropical cyclones**the TCs were the closest to the moored array.

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Figure 10^{*t*}₂ Observation at Buoy 3. (a–c)⁺) Shortwave radiation (a₇^{*N*}/m²) and longwave radiation (b₇^{*i*} W/m²) observed by upward (red) and downward (blue) radiation sensors and the air temperature observed by the radiometer (c₅[°]C) observed by the radiometer.)₄(d–f): Sea surface temperature (f**,**; °C), salinity (g**,**; psu), and pressure (h**,**; hPa, blue) observed by SBE-37, with pressure (h**,**; hPa**,**; red) observed by RBR sensors. (g‒j**):**) Chlorophyll (g**,**; ug/L), turbidity observed by two sensors (g‒h**,**; V), and chromophoric dissolved organic matter 385 (DCOM; j**,**; ppb**, CDOM). Radiometer**). The radiometer is **located** 4 m above the sea surface, **while**and the SBE-37 and RBR sensors are

at the bottom of buoy 3 (approximately 0 m). The vertical dashed lines represent the time when **tropical cyclones**the TCs were the closest to the moored array.

4. Data availability

All data, are $\frac{made}{p}$ publicly available through the Zenodo repository 390 https://zenodo.org/records/1382781[9https://zenodo.org/records/13925651](https://zenodo.org/records/13925651) (Zhang et al.., 2024). The data will also be publicly available aton the website of the Southern Marine Science and Engineering Guangdong Laboratory (Zhuhai) (http://www.hellosea.org.cn/#/metadataDetail/en-US?detailId=8f32902492b84dc1a80f0f717a7c827e) ifwhen the manuscript is published. This study provides a detailed dataset description of the dataset, which includes, including a time series of sea surface meteorological elements, sea surface waves, ocean temperature, salinity, and currents collected from a moored array 395 eonsisting ofcomprising five buoys and four moorings during 2014-2015. MeteorologicalThe meteorological elements includedinclude wind, temperature, pressure, rain guagegauge, and humidity data. In additionFurthermore, data from the buoy at the center (B3) includedinclude sea surface visibility, radiation (shortwave and longwave), and biochemistry observations (chlorophyll, turbidity, and colored dissolved organic matterCDOM).

5 Conclusions

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- 400 This study presents an observation dataset from a cross-shaped moored array consisting of comprising five buoys (B1--B5) and four moorings (M1, M2, M4, M5) with synchronous atmospheric and oceanic data in the northern South China SeaSCS during 2014–2015 (MASCS 1.0). The dataset includes measurements of sea surface atmospheric data are observed by two meteorological data using two sets of instruments, sea surface at the buoys. The atmospheric data are observed by two meteorological instruments at the buoys. The oceanic data consist of sea surface waves recorded by a wave recorder, and
- 405 temperature and salinity from the surface to a depth of 400 m_s and at 10 m and 50 m above the ocean bottom using conductivity, erature, and depth (CTD) recorders. It also includes currents from the surface to a depth of 850 m measured by acoustic Doppler current profilers (ADCPs) and at 10 m, 50 m, and 100 m above the floor measured by current meters. Additional measurements were taken for sea surface radiation, air visibility, chlorophyll, turbidity, and chromophoric dissolved organic matterCDOM at Buoy 3B3, which was located at the center of the moored array. The whole moored array started to bewas
- 410 deployed atin June 2014 whileand totally recovered at the end of 2015. Although some instruments as well asand buoys broke down or were lost during observation, resulting in no data recovery or data deficiencies, this dataset is valuable for further studies to uncover air--sea interactions and oceanic processes in the northern South China SeaSCS.

For example, tropical cyclonesTCs Hagibis in June, Rammasun and Matmo in July, Kalmaegi and Fung-wong in September, and Hagupit in December 2014 traveled over the South China SeaSCS and influenced the time series of the

415 observations. The tropical eyelones TCs increased the sea surface wind speed, enhanced the sea surface wave height and nearsurface ocean currents, cooled the sea surface water and air temperature, also induced near-inertial waves as well asand nearbottom currents. The moored array also experienced a transitiontransitioned from the summer to winter monsoons, with prevailing nearly south wind (approximately 200°) and wavewaves (approximately 180°) with a sea surface significant wave height of ≤ 2 m and a peak period of ≤ 10 s from late July to mid-August₅. It then shifted to a nearly northeast wind 420 (approximately $20^{\circ} - 80^{\circ}$) and east wavewaves (approximately 90°)), with a sea surface significant wave height of >3 m and a peak period of <10 s after October. In additionFurthermore, ocean data may might have recorded multiscale air--sea interactions and ocean processes, such as air-–sea heat and momentum fluxes, ocean tides, internal waves, seasonal variations in temperature, salinity, and flows, as well asand background processes, such as mesoscale eddies and local circulations.

The data has alreadyhave been used for the analysis of analyzing the air-sea and ocean variations on the moored array 425 (Quan et al., 2022; He et al., 2024), validation of validating ocean (Zhang et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2020; Lu et al., 2023) and air-–sea coupled (Wu et al., 2020; Lim Kam Sian et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2024) model simulation, checkevaluating the parameterization of air--sea surface flux (Zhang et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2024), investigateand investigating the mechanisms and theory of ocean response to tropical cyclonesTCs (Hong et al., 2022; Zhang 2023). The dataset has the potential for further studies in these fields, while may also and can be used for other fields, such as data reanalysis and assimilations.

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Author Contributions. The dataset is made and the whole manuscript is written by HZ, the whole observation project is designed by DC, the flow of the manuscript is revised by TL and DT, the dataset is optimized by MH, QL, and JL.

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21

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