

1 Evaluation of In-situ observations on Marine Weather Observer during 2 the Typhoon Sinlaku

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16 **Correspondence:** Wenying He (hwy@mail.iap.ac.cn) and Hongbin Chen (chb@mail.iap.ac.cn)

17 18 19 **Abstract**

20 The mobile ocean weather observation system, named Marine Weather Observer
21 (MWO), developed by the Institute of Atmospheric Physics (IAP), consists of a fully
22 solar-powered, unmanned vehicle and meteorological and hydrological instruments.

23 One of the MWOs completed a long-term continuous observation, actively
24 approaching the Typhoon Sinlaku center from July 24 to August 2, 2020, over the
25 South China Sea. The in-situ and high temporal resolution(1-min) observations
26 obtained from MWO were analyzed and evaluated by comparing with the observations
27 made by two types of buoys during the evolution of Typhoon Sinlaku. First, the air
28 pressure and wind speed measured by MWO are in good agreement with those
29 measured by the buoys before the typhoon, reflecting the equivalent measurement
30 capabilities of the two methods under normal sea conditions. The sea surface

31 temperature (SST) between MWO and the mooring buoys is highly consistent
32 throughout the observation period ~~and even less difference after the typhoon's arrival,~~
33 indicating the high stability and accuracy of SST measurements from MWO during the
34 typhoon evolution. The air temperature and relative humidity measured by MWO have
35 significant diurnal variations, generally lower than those measured by the buoys,
36 which may be related to the mounting height and sensitivity of ~~the~~ sensors. When
37 actively approaching the typhoon center, the air pressure from MWO can reflect some
38 drastic and subtle changes, such as a sudden drop to 980 hPa, which is difficult to
39 obtain by other observation methods. As a mobile meteorological and oceanographic
40 observation station, MWO has shown its unique advantages over traditional
41 observation methods, and the results preliminary demonstrate the reliable observation
42 capability of MWO in this paper.

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44 **1 Introduction**

45 Marine meteorological hazards, including typhoons, fog, strong winds, and many
46 other extreme weather events, occur frequently over China (Xu et al., 2009). In
47 particular, typhoons that make landfall off the southeast coast of China cause direct
48 economic losses of about 0.4% of gross domestic product and more than 500 deaths
49 per year (Lei, 2020). Many efforts have been made in recent decades to improve the
50 understanding of typhoon genesis and evolution and the forecasting of typhoon paths
51 (Bender et al. 2007; Black et al. 2007; Sanford et al. 2007; Bell et al. 2012). However,
52 errors in model initial conditions remain the main cause of typhoon forecast

53 uncertainty due to the scarcity of real-time ocean meteorological observations,
54 especially in distant waters (Zheng et al. 2008; Rogers et al. 2013; Emanuel and
55 Center 2018). Currently, marine observations over China are very limited and rarely
56 occur in the deep ocean (Dai et al., 2014). This situation greatly limits the
57 development of marine meteorology, especially the improvement of typhoon
58 forecasting. Therefore, there is a urgent need to develop advanced observation
59 techniques at sea. With the rapid development of satellite communication and
60 navigation technology as well as sensor technologies in recent years, marine
61 unmanned autonomous observation systems have been increasingly broken and
62 applied at sea (Lenan and Melville, 2014; Wynn et al., 2014; Thomson and Girton,
63 2017).

64 To obtain more meteorological observations at sea, the Institute of Atmospheric
65 Physics (IAP), Chinese Academy of Sciences, has developed an automatic and mobile
66 marine weather observations system based on a solar-powered, unmanned vehicle,
67 named Marine Weather Observer (MWO). To test the observation capability and
68 endurance, one of the MWOs cruised over the South China Sea from June to August
69 2020, during which a tropical cyclone formed and turned into a weak typhoon. The
70 MWO was then remotely controlled to actively approach the center of Typhoon
71 Sinlaku on August 1st, 2020, providing valuable in-situ observations for typhoon
72 research and forecasting (Chen et al., 2021, hereafter Chen21).

73 To better understand the quality of observations obtained from MWO, we directly
74 compared the observations of MWO and several buoys around it over the South China

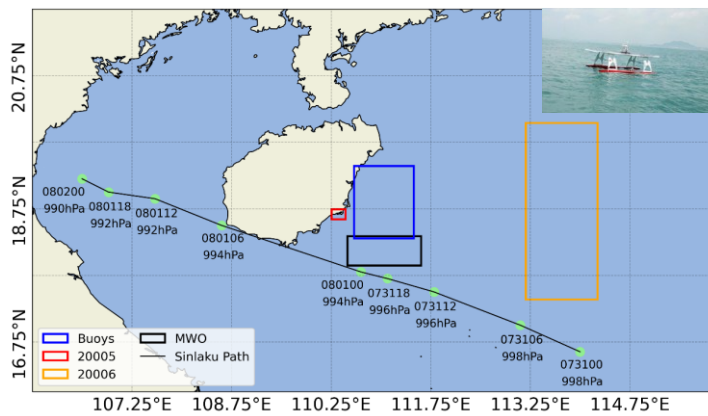
75 Sea during the evolutions of Typhoon Sinlaku. The outline of the paper is described
76 below. In Section 2, we briefly describe Typhoon Sinlaku and the observations
77 obtained from MWO and the buoys. Then MWO observations and the comparisons
78 with buoys observations are presented in Section 3. The observation difference
79 between MWO and buoys are discussed in Section 4, and finally a summary is given
80 in Section 5.

81 **2 Typhoon Sinlaku and the related observations**

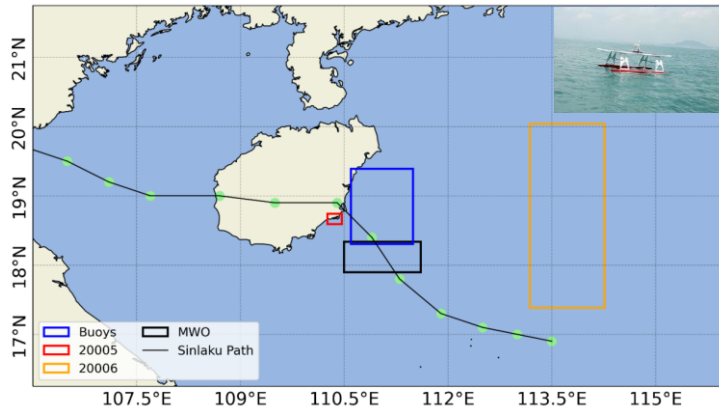
82 Typhoon Sinlaku (No. 2003) formed as a tropical depression over the South
83 China Sea on July 31, 2020, then intensified into a typhoon on August 1. The center of
84 the typhoon crossed Hainan Island, China at a speed of 25 km/h and finally made
85 landfall off the coast of Thanh Hoa City, Vietnam, at 0840 UTC on August 2.

86 To better monitor the evolution of Typhoon Sinlaku, MWO was used for the first
87 time to obtain in-situ meteorological observations under extreme sea conditions. The
88 detailed MWO design and performance were described in Chen21. Measurements of
89 atmospheric and oceanic environment variables are accomplished with instruments
90 mounted on MWO, including the AirMar 220WX automatic weather station, mini-CT
91 sensor, and pyranometer. High temporal resolution (1 minute) data on atmospheric
92 temperature and humidity, air pressure, wind speed, wind direction, sea surface
93 temperature (SST), seawater conductivity, and total radiation can be automatically
94 transmitted to the ground control center via the Beidou communication satellite.
95 Detailed technical specifications of the meteorological and hydrological sensors can
96 be found in Chen21.

97 To evaluate the quality of the observations obtained from MWO, we mainly
98 compared them in this paper with the buoy observations conducted simultaneously
99 during the typhoon Sinlaku observation experiments from July 22 to August 4 (Zhang
100 et al., 2021, Qin et al., 2022). The buoy data consisted mainly of five mooring and two
101 drifting buoys that were able to provide the same environmental variables measured
102 on MWO from July 23 to August 2 but with a 10-minute interval. Thus, the 1-minute
103 observations from the MWO were averaged into 10-minute results and then matched
104 with the 10-minute observations from the buoys. More than 1300 matched samples at
105 10-minute intervals were obtained from July 24 to August 2, 2020, covering the main
106 evolution periods of Typhoon Sinlaku in the South China Sea.



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Fig.1. Observation ranges of three observation methods, including 5 mooring buoys in the blue box, 2 drifting buoys (20005 and 20006), and MWO(as shown in the small photo in the upper right corner). The red, orange, and black boxes are the observation ranges of two drifting buoys and MWO from July 24 to Aug.2, 2020, respectively. The light green dots marked with date and surface level pressure on the black line are the locations of Typhoon Sinlaku from 0000UTC on July 31 to 0000UTC on August 2, which is from the best track typhoon provided by JMA. The light green dots on the black line are the locations of Typhoon Sinlaku during the period from 0600UTC on July 31 to 0000 UTC on August 2, with a 3-hour interval.

From the locations and the observation ranges of the buoys and MWO in Fig.1, it can be seen that for the two drifting buoys (20005 and 20006, named D05 and D06, respectively), the drifting range of D05 is very close to the moving area of MWO, while the drifting path of D06 is about 3-4 degree from MWO in longitude. For the five mooring buoys in the blue box, one buoy named M64 is the closest, while the others are located within about 100 km from MWO.

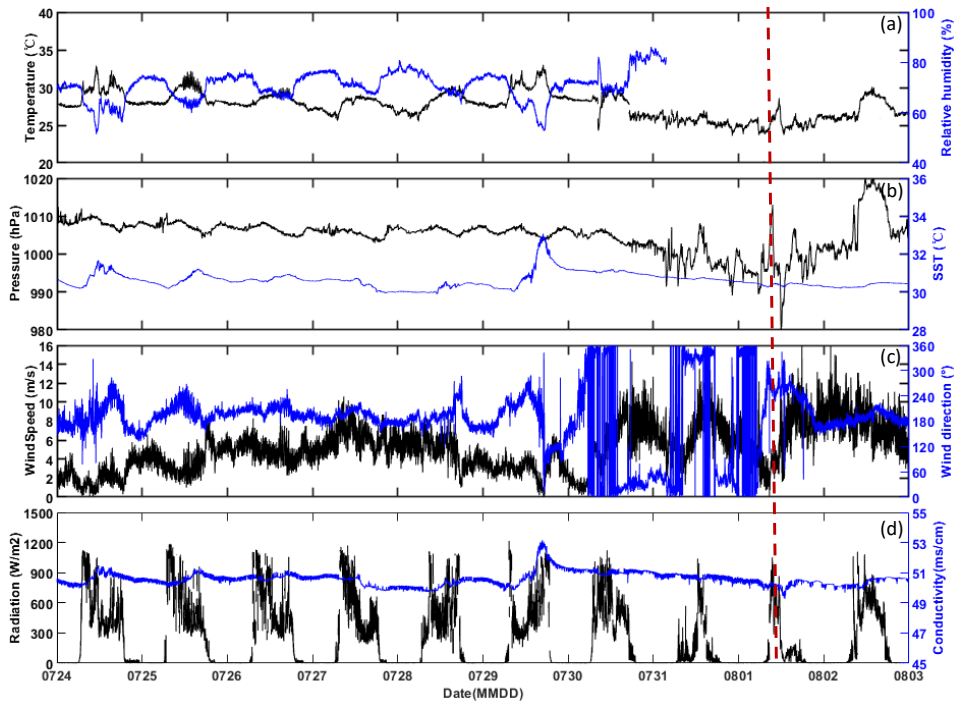
3 Results

3.1 The observations from MWO

127 First, Fig.2 presents the time series of environmental variables measured by
128 MWO at **1-minute** interval from July 24 to August 2, 2020. It should note that the
129 time used in the following is local time (shorted for LT), also known as Beijing time. It
130 can be seen that in the first stage before the arrival of the typhoon, such as July 24-29,
131 the air temperature and humidity show a clear diurnal variation and negative
132 correlations, and the air pressure, SST, and seawater conductivity also show small and
133 stable variation.

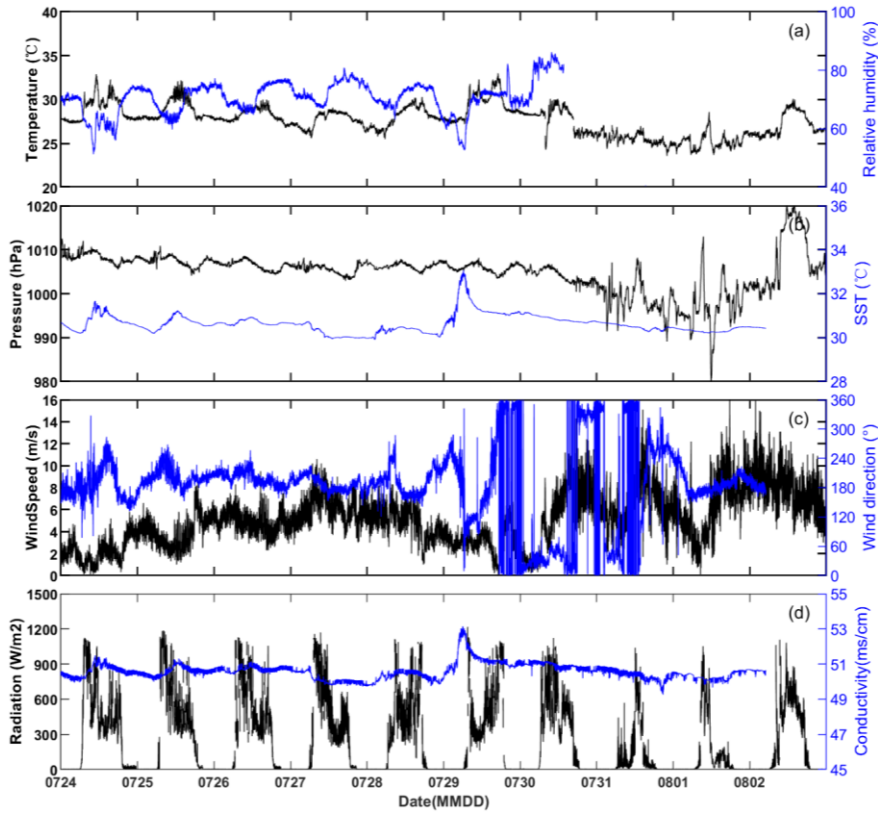
134 Then from late July 29 to August 1, the typhoon moved toward the observation
135 area of MWO. The wind gradually strengthened, and the wind direction frequently
136 changed from south to north. The air pressure, air temperature, SST, and seawater
137 conductivity gradually decreased. On July 31, MWO was about 30 km away from
138 Typhoon Sinlaku and then actively moved to the predicted path of Sinlaku by remote
139 control. The drastic changes in air pressure and wind speed can be seen around noon
140 on August 1st. Unfortunately, the humidity sensor stopped working on July 31.

141 MWO arrived at the predicted passing area of Sinlaku on August 1st at 09:28
142 ~~LST (Local Standard Time)~~, with a pressure of 1011 hPa at that time. Then the air
143 pressure decreased to 992 hPa around 11:40 ~~LST~~ and even rapidly dropped to the
144 lowest 980 hPa at 11:58 ~~LST~~. Subsequently, the pressure gradually rose and increased
145 to 992 hPa at 12:56 ~~LST~~, accompanied by strong winds of 15.1 m/s.



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148 **Fig.2.** Time series (~~LST~~) of (a) air temperature and relative humidity, (b) SST and atmospheric
 149 pressure, (c) wind speed and direction, and (d) total radiation and seawater conductivity collected
 150 onboard MWO in the **1-min interval** during the South China Sea typhoon observation experiment
 151 from July 24 to August 02, 2020. The dashed red line represents the nearest times of MWO passing
 152 through the typhoon center.

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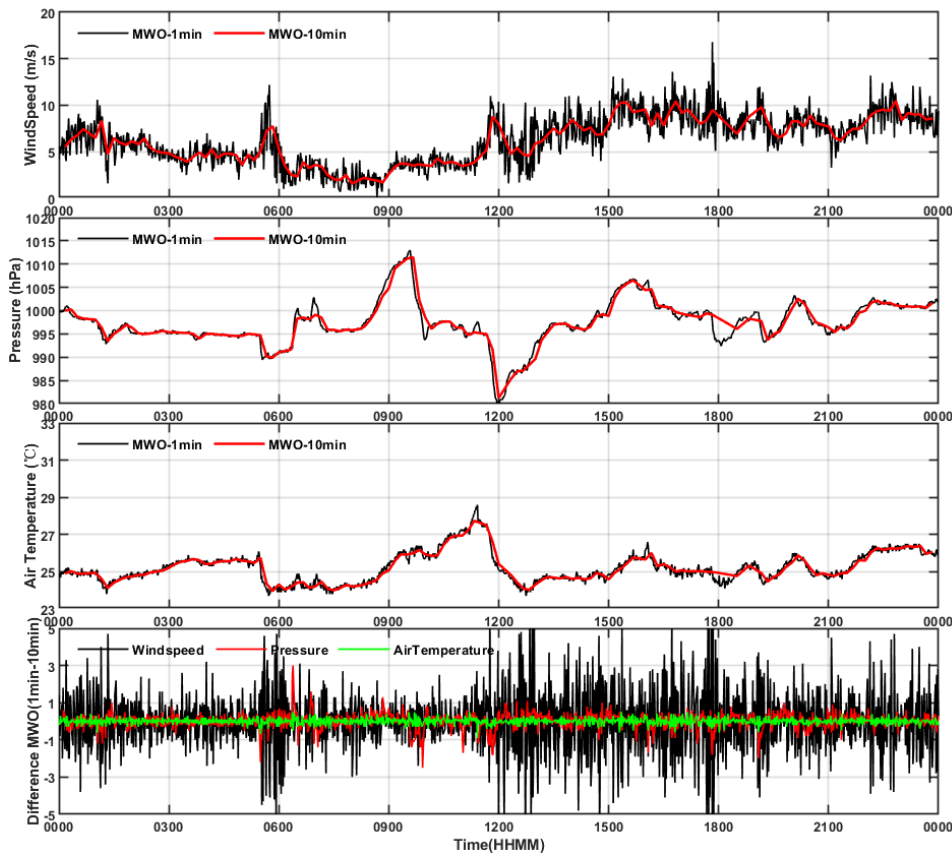
154 Such drastic fluctuations of air pressure over sea indicated that MWO might be
 155 cross the typhoon center around 12 hr on Aug.11200 LST. The subsequent path
 156 verification also proved that MWO was nearly 2.4 km away from the typhoon path
 157 issued by the Central Meteorological Observatory (CMO) of the China Meteorological
 158 Administration, which reflected that MWO successfully passed through the center of
 159 Typhoon Sinlaku. When Sinlaku was moved away from MWO observation range on

160 August 2, the wind speed gradually decreased and varied less in direction. Compared
161 with the normal sea conditions in the first stage, we call the next four days (from July
162 30 to Aug.2) as the second stage with larger changes in sea conditions.

163 To match the 10-minute observations from the buoy, we reprocessed the 1-minute
164 observations provided by MWO to the 10-minute average. Usually, under stable sea
165 conditions, the differences in meteorological variables over time may be slight in the
166 short term. When the typhoon arrived on August 1 and MWO approached the typhoon
167 center, the variables measured on MWO showed significant changes in Fig. 2.
168 Therefore, the difference between 1-minute and 10-minute averaged meteorological
169 variables may be useful for detecting fine-scale structure during typhoons.

170 Thus, the differences between the 1-minute and 10-minute results for the three
171 variables, including wind speed, air pressure, and air temperature on August 1 are
172 shown in Fig.3. It is clear that the trends in air pressure (Fig.3b) are consistent for both
173 time windows, for example, there are two peaks from 06 ~~hr00-LST~~ to 10 ~~hr00-LST~~
174 and a sharp drop to 980 hPa around 12 ~~hr00-LST~~. the air temperature in Fig.3c also
175 shows a highly consistent variation in the 1-min and 10-min results. However, there is
176 a significant difference in the wind speed between the two time windows (Fig. 3a).
177 Before 12 ~~hr00-LST~~, both wind speeds are close to each other and are relatively
178 consistent. As the MWO approaches the typhoon center after 12 ~~hr00-LST~~, the
179 1-minute wind speed varies more significantly than the 10-minute wind speed until 18
180 ~~hr00-LST~~. it is assumed that the 10-minute window may reflect the average state of
181 the wind field to some extent. the significant difference between the 1-minute and

182 10-minute wind speeds reflects the changes in the fine-scale structure of the wind field
183 during the typhoon evolution. As shown in Fig. 3d, the differences in pressure and
184 temperature in the two time windows were mostly close to zero and did not vary much
185 throughout the day on August 1. In contrast, the wind speed varies greatly with
186 different time interval during most of the day, especially around 06 ~~hr~~~~LST~~ and
187 ~~1200-1800~~ ~~hr~~~~LST~~, where the wind speed difference is as high as 5 m/s. This also
188 reflects the apparent fluctuating behavior of the 1-minute wind field, indicating strong
189 turbulent activity in the near-surface atmosphere. There has been a lot of research
190 work on horizontal roll and tornado-scale vortices of typhoons, which are closely
191 related to the drastic changes in the wind field (Morrison et al. 2005; Lorsolo et al.
192 2008; Wurman and Kosiba 2018; Wu et al. 2020). Most of the previous work has been
193 based mainly on landfalling hurricanes observed by Doppler radar deployed near the
194 coast. In this work, in situ observations of MWOs that can actively cross typhoon
195 centers in distant oceanic regions will provide a new perspective to study the fine
196 structural changes during typhoon evolution.



197
 198 Fig.3 The difference between 1-min and 10-min results for wind speed, air pressure, and temperature
 199 on Aug.1.
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201 3.2 Comparisons of the observations between MWO and buoys

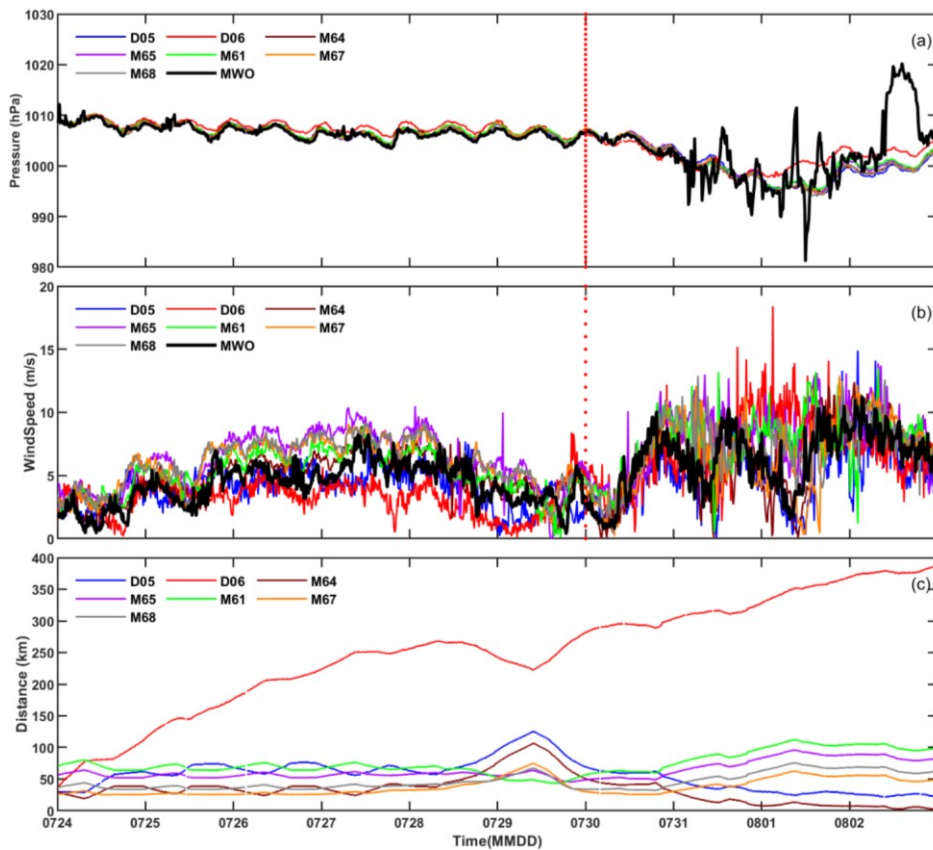
202 To assess the quality of MWO observations, we first compared the air pressure
 203 and wind speed measured by MWO and all buoys (drifting and moored) as shown
 204 in Fig. 4. Before seeing the differences in the observations, it is best to know the
 205 spatial distance variation between MWO and the buoys as shown in Fig. 4c. For the
 206 two drifting buoys, the D05 was always closer to the MWO, within 100 km, from July

207 24 to August 2. While D06 gradually moved away from MWO over time, from less
208 than 100 km on July 24 to 400 km on August 2. For the five mooring buoys, M64 is
209 less than 50 km from MWO from July 24 to 31 and very close to MWO from August 1
210 to 2. The rest of the buoys are within 100 km from MWO.

211 Then for the air pressure comparison in Fig. 4a, all buoys and the MWO
212 measurements in the first stage match very well and basically overlap, except for a
213 slight difference in the farthest D06. With the arrival of the typhoon, the measured
214 pressure from MWO changed more obviously, especially around 12 ~~hr:00 LST~~ on
215 August 1 the lowest pressure was about 980 hPa when MWO was close to the typhoon
216 center. In addition, an abnormally high pressure was measured on MWO ~~at:round~~ 14
217 ~~hr:00~~ on August 2, and the cause of the abnormality is unknown at present. The
218 pressure measured by the buoys was relatively close and consistent throughout the
219 period, except for a slight change in the farthest buoy D06.

220 The wind speeds measured from buoys and MWO (Fig.4b) have a good
221 consistency. They are very close to each other in the first stage due to stable sea
222 conditions, especially the closer buoys D05 and M64. In the second stage, especially
223 from July 31 to August 1, there are enhanced changes in wind speed due to the passing
224 of the typhoon. In the first half of August 1st, there was a significant trend difference
225 in wind speed from MWO and buoys, for example, the former gradually decreased and
226 reached its minimum value when MWO is closing to the typhoon center about 12 ~~hr:00~~
227 ~~LST~~, while the latter mostly increased during this period. Subsequently, in the second
228 half of August 1st, the wind speed from MWO rapidly increases to 10m/s, more

229 consistent with those measured from buoys and almost superimposed. As the typhoon
 230 gradually moved away from the observation domain of MWO and buoys on Aug.2, all
 231 wind speeds became closer and gradually decreased, returning to the first stage state.



232 **Fig.4.** Time series (LST) of (a) air pressure and (b) wind speed (c) distance collected from for the
 233 seven buoys (2 drifting and 5 mooring, legend begin with D and M, respectively) and MWO from
 234 July 24 to August 02, 2020. The dashed red line is on July 30 to separate the first and second stages.
 235
 236

237 Similarly, air temperature and SST obtained from MWO and buoys are compared
 238 in Fig.5. It seems in Fig.5a that air temperature from MWO is generally lower than
 239 those from buoys most of the time, especially during the night of the first stage and

240 when approaching the center of the typhoon in the second stage. The diurnal variations
241 of air temperature measured from MWO and the drifting buoy D05 are more
242 significant and close in the first stage. Relatively, the air temperature differences
243 among the mooring buoys are smaller and more stable in the first stage, then enhanced
244 due to the coming of the typhoon.

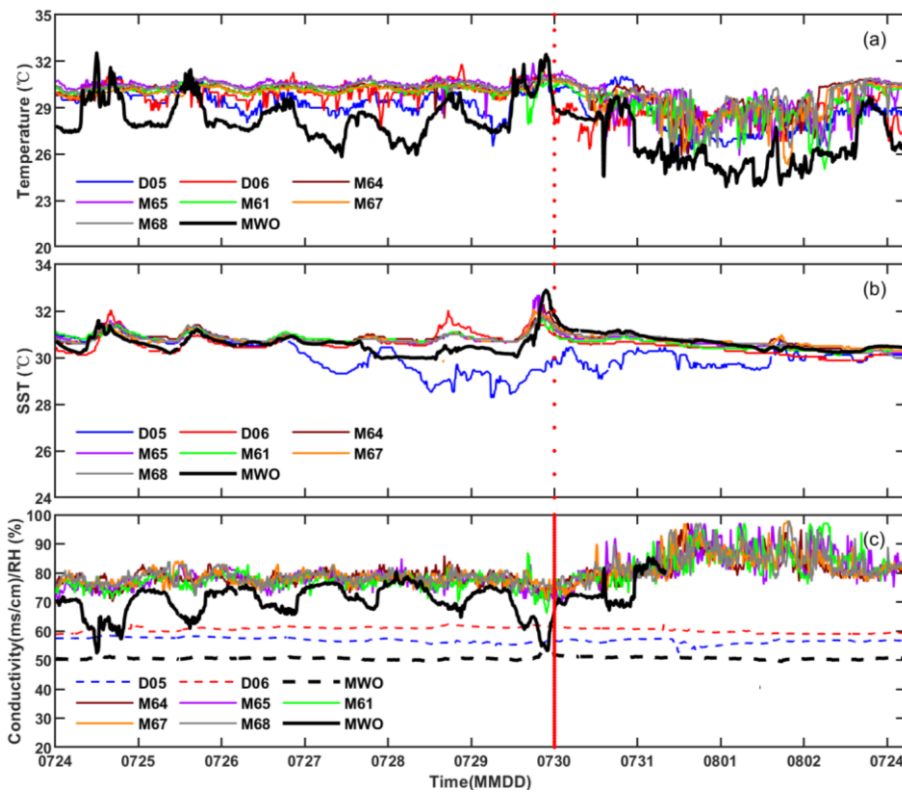
245 For SST shown in Fig.5b, the observations from MWO during the entire period
246 are very close to those from the five mooring buoys, and are more consistent, even
247 showing peak areas simultaneously, except for the slight difference from July 27-29.
248 For the two drifting buoys, the SST measured by the D05 buoy is 1-2 °C lower than
249 that measured by MWO on July 27-30, while SST measured by the D06 buoy is more
250 stable and close to that measured by MWO.

251 In addition, seawater conductivity and relative humidity (RH) can be obtained
252 from MWO. However, only the two drifting buoys can provide seawater conductivity
253 measurement, and the mooring buoys can provide relative humidity (RH)
254 measurement. Hence, the seawater conductivity and RH measured from MWO are
255 compared with those from the corresponding available buoys and displayed in Fig.5c.

256 Firstly, the seawater conductivity measured on MWO and two drifting buoys are
257 very different, but the detailed values of each instrument are constant throughout the
258 entire period. The conductivity measurement from D06 buoy is the highest, generally
259 exceeding 60 mscm⁻¹, followed by D05 buoy, which is basically around 57 mscm⁻¹,
260 and the lowest is about 50 mscm⁻¹ from MWO.

261 The RH difference between mooring buoys and MWO shown in Fig.5c is only

262 available in the first stage because the humidity sensor on MWO stopped working
 263 after July 30. The RH variations are similar to those of air temperature, that is, RH
 264 from MWO is mostly lower than that from mooring buoy, especially in the daytime.
 265 The diurnal variations of RH measured from MWO are more significant while RH
 266 differences among the mooring buoys are smaller and stable in the first stage.

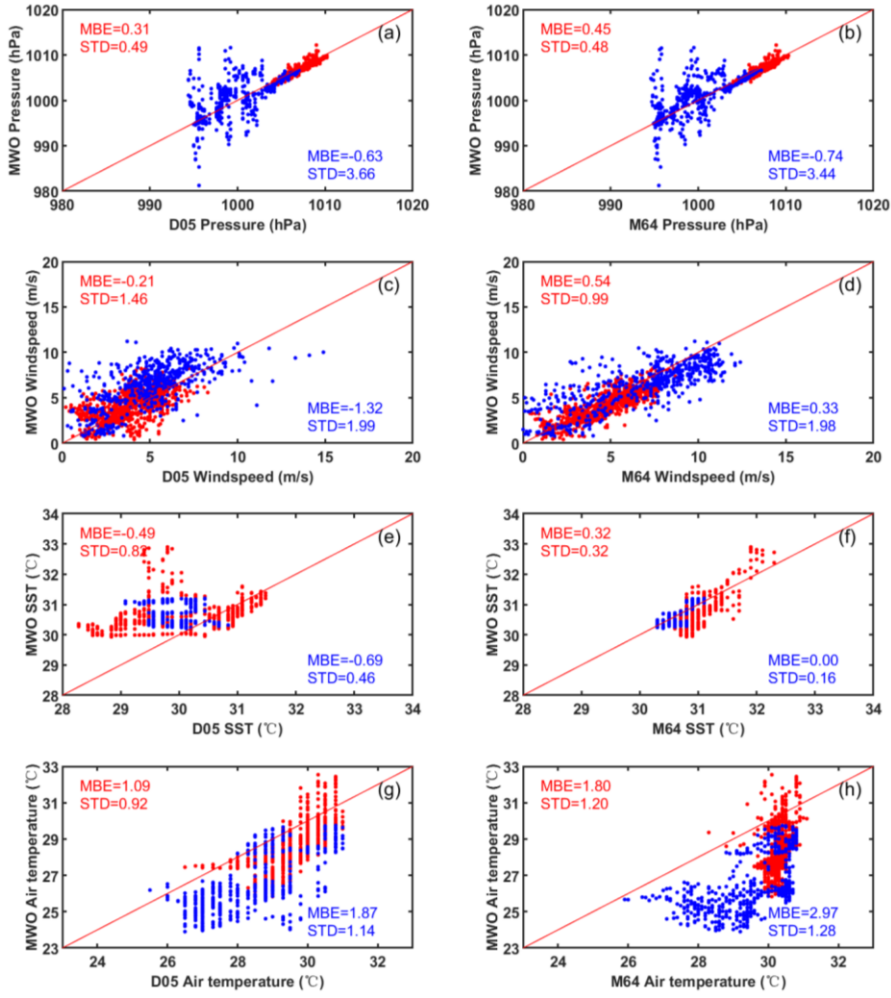


267
 268 **Fig.5.** Same as Fig.3, except for (a) air temperature, (b) SST, and (c) seawater conductivity (dotted
 269 line) for drifting buoys and RH (solid line) for the mooring buoys.

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 271 To better see the influence of typhoon moving on MWO observations, Fig.6
 272 shows the scattering plots of meteorological variables observed by MWO and the

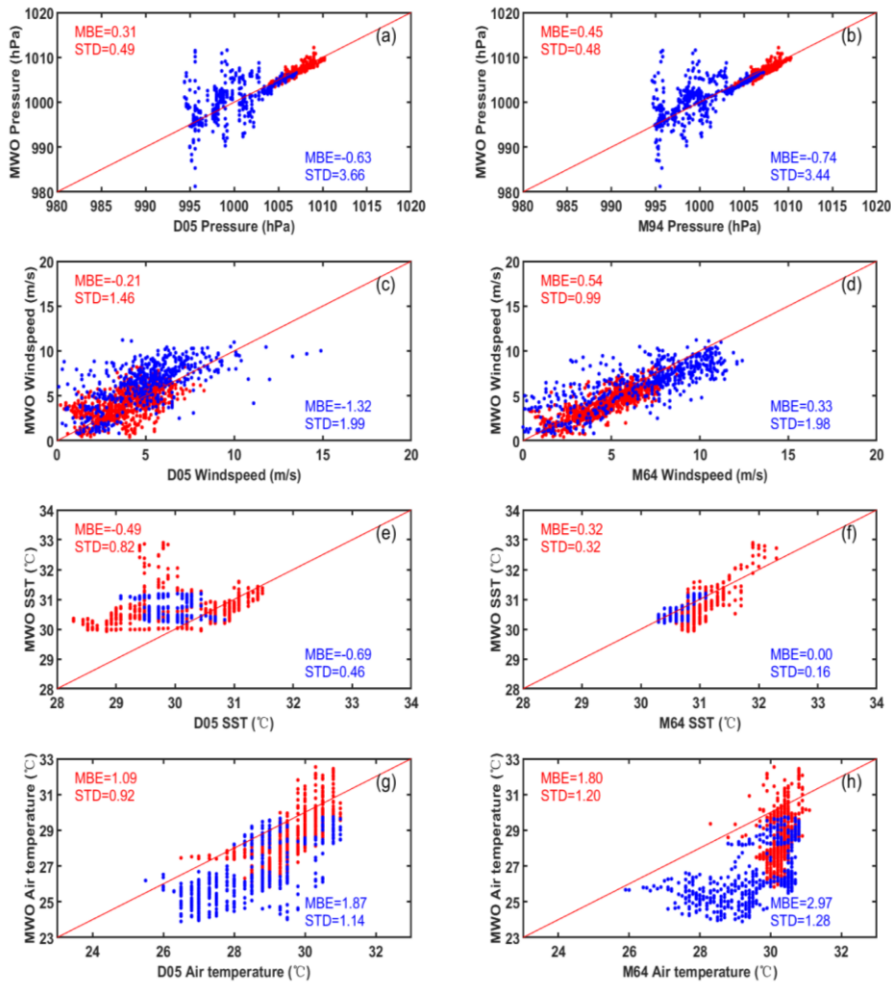
273 nearest buoys, including the drifting D05 and the mooring M94. The color samples
274 and their corresponding statistical results are used to quantify the observations
275 differences before (in red) and after the arrival of typhoons (in blue). Firstly, before the
276 arrival of the typhoon, air pressure differences between MWO and both buoys are in
277 good agreement, as shown in the red samples in Fig.6a,b. Both air pressure differences
278 are very close and smaller, such as mean bias error (MBE) and standard deviation
279 (STD) less than 0.5 hPa. However, in the second stage, the pressure difference is
280 significantly enhanced when MWO approaches the center of the typhoon, shown as
281 the highly scattered blue samples in Fig. 6a, b, with corresponding STD up to 3.5 hPa.

282 The wind speed measurements from both buoys and MWO have good
283 consistency in both stages, which is reflected in the good overlap of the red and blue
284 samples in Fig.6c,d, and the corresponding MBE and STD are very close. For SST
285 shown in Fig.6e,f, it is seen that the observations between MWO and the mooring
286 M64 buoy are quite consistent with a difference of less than 0.3°C before and after the
287 coming of the typhoon. The SST measurements from the drifting buoy D05 are more
288 scattering with those from MWO the most of time, especially significantly decreased
289 by about $1\text{-}2^{\circ}\text{C}$ from July 27 to Aug. 1st as shown in Fig.5b. The overall MBE and
290 STD of SST difference are less than 1.0°C due to partial overlap of the samples.



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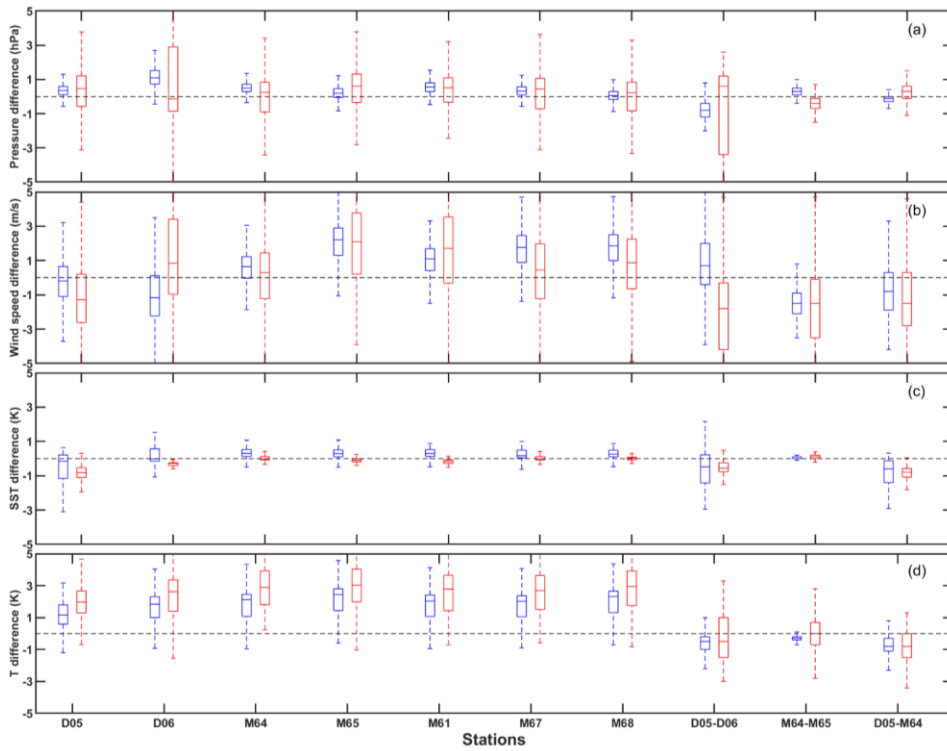
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293
 294 Fig.6 Scattering plots of observations from the nearest buoys and MWO, with the drifting
 295 D05 in the left column and the mooring M64 in the right column. From top to bottom, they are air
 296 pressure, wind speed, SST, and air temperature, respectively.

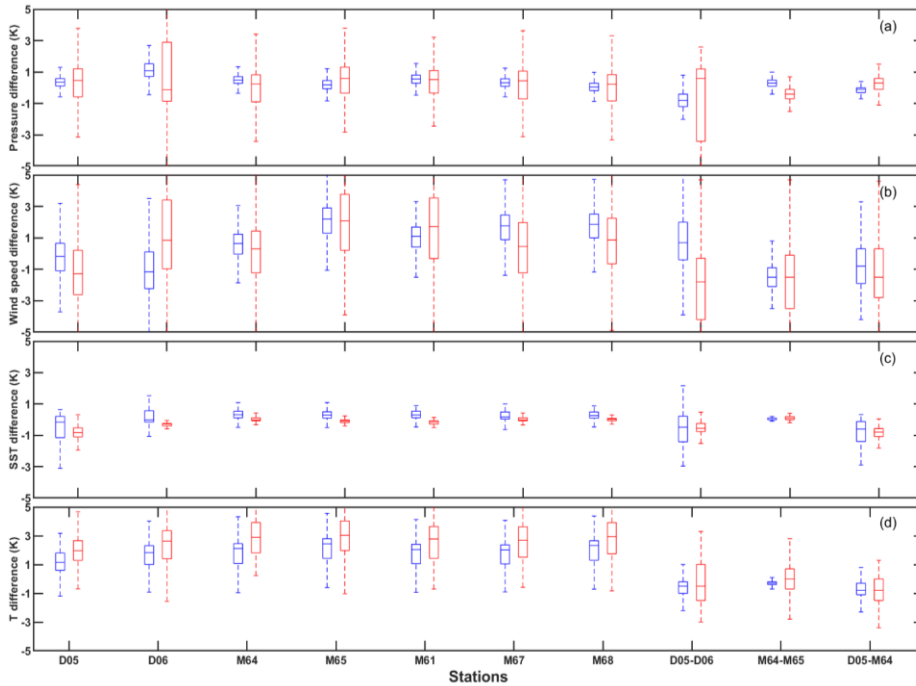
297 Regarding air temperature, the observations from MWO show significant
 298 fluctuations, while the mooring M64 shown in Fig.6h mostly fixes around 30°C in the
 299 first stage. In the second stage, the air temperature measured from MWO is lower than

300 that measured from both buoys, for example, the MBE corresponding to buoys D05
301 and M64 is close to 1.9°C and 3 °C, respectively. Relatively, the changed trends of air
302 temperature measured from MWO and D05 have good consistency in both stages.



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 305 Fig.7. The boxplots of observations difference (blue: the first stage; red: the second stage) between
 306 MWO and seven buoys, as well as between buoys (i.e. D05 and D06, M64 and M65, and D05 and
 307 M64). The observations from up to bottom are air pressure (a), wind speed(b), SST (c), and air
 308 temperature (d). The dotted line is zero-value line.
 309

310 To better understand the observed differences between MWO and buoys, as well
 311 as between buoys, the boxplots in Fig. 7 show the distribution of their differences in
 312 pressure, wind speed, SST, and air temperature during the first (blue) and second (red)
 313 stages. The center marker in each box indicates the median, and the bottom and top
 314 edges of the box indicate the 25th and 75th percentiles, respectively. The first seven
 315 buoys reflect the difference between the buoy observations and MWO observations.
 316 The last three reflect differences in observations between buoys, including the two
 317 drifting buoys D05 and D06, the nearest (M64) and farthest mooring buoys(M65)

318 from the MWO, and the nearest drifting D05 and moored M64 from the MWO.

319 The pressure difference in Fig. 7a shows a clear change in the first and second
320 stage. Before the arrival of the typhoon, the pressure difference between MWO and
321 the buoys are close to zero, and the magnitude of the differences between MWO and
322 the buoys vary relatively uniformly, indicating that the pressure measured by MWO
323 has the same level of accuracy as those measured by buoys under normal sea
324 conditions. In the second stage, the range of pressure difference between MWO and
325 buoy is 2-3 times larger than that in the first stage, but the median value of pressure
326 difference is still relatively close, mostly within 1hPa. Relatively, the pressure
327 differences between the buoys in both stages are relatively small and stable, except for
328 the farthest D06.

329 The median difference of wind speed between MWO and the buoys are mostly
330 within 1 m/s as shown in Fig. 7b. The wind speed difference in the second stage is
331 significantly larger than that in the first stage. The wind speed difference between
332 buoys seems to increase with the distance between buoys, as in the more distant buoys
333 D06 and M65. In general, the wind speed differences between MWO and buoys are
334 comparable to the wind speed differences between buoys.

335 For the SST in Fig. 7c, the observed differences between MWO and the
336 moored buoys are very small throughout the period and even better in the second
337 stage. In contrast, the difference in SST between MWO and the two drifting buoys is
338 not as good as that between the moored buoys, especially for the closest buoy, D05,
339 which fluctuates more in the first period, which may indicate that the SST quality of

340 D05 buoy is not as good as its other measurements, such as pressure and wind speed.

341 The difference in air temperature between MWO and the buoys (Fig. 7d) is more
342 pronounced than the difference in SST. Because of the lower temperature measured by
343 MWO, the median of temperature difference with the buoys is mostly positive, e.g., 1
344 K in the first stage and 2 K in the second stage, while the temperature difference
345 between the buoys is smaller in the first stage and increases significantly by a factor of
346 2-3 in the second stage.

347 **4 Discussions**

348 In this paper, we first used 1-minute MWO in-situ observation data to monitor the
349 changes in air pressure, wind field, temperature, and humidity before and after the
350 arrival of typhoons. In particular, the air pressure significantly decreased from 1010
351 hPa under normal sea conditions to 980 hPa at the time when MWO crossed the center
352 of the typhoon. During this period the air pressure underwent obvious and detailed
353 fluctuations, which cannot be provided by previous observations. In addition, the wind
354 field reflected the detailed and obvious fluctuations when the typhoon approached.
355 The air temperature and relative humidity in the lower layers of the sea exhibited
356 obvious diurnal variations. In contrast, SST is more stable, showing slight changes
357 before and after the typhoon.

358 Further comparison with buoys observations during the same period revealed that
359 under normal sea conditions before the arrival of the typhoon, the air pressure and
360 wind speed measured by MWO and buoys showed good consistency, especially the
361 difference in air pressure was only less than 0.5hPa, and the wind speed difference was

362 less than 0.5 m/s. Moreover, the difference between MWO and buoys was comparable
363 to that of multiple buoys, indicating that the measurement accuracy of air pressure and
364 wind speed on MWO was equivalent to that of the buoys under normal sea conditions.
365 With the arrival of the typhoon, the air pressure measured on MWO fluctuated greatly,
366 while the corresponding measurements on the buoys were more stable, resulting in a
367 significant pressure difference between MWO and the buoys. This may mainly be
368 related to the location where MWO crossed the center of the typhoon. In addition, as
369 the typhoon departed, the air pressure and temperature measured on MWO showed
370 abnormally high values around 14:00 hr on August 2nd, and then returned to normal
371 range at night, which may be related to unknown external interference.

372 The trend of wind speed change between MWO and the buoys was more
373 consistent before and after the arrival of the typhoon. When MWO was closest to the
374 center of the typhoon, the wind speed change between MWO and the buoys was
375 slightly misaligned.

376 For the air temperature and relative humidity under normal sea conditions,
377 measurements made by the mooring buoys were relatively constant and little
378 variations in a day; the corresponding drifting buoys measurements showed slight
379 diurnal fluctuations; MWO measurements fluctuated significantly from day to night.
380 This may be related to the mounting height of the sensor. Usually, the sensor on the
381 mooring buoy can reach up to 10m, on the drifting buoy and MWO it may be about
382 1.0m (Cao et al.,2019)~~on the drifting buoy it may be about 1.5m, and on MWO it is~~
383 ~~close to 1.2m~~. The closer the sensor is to the ~~water's~~ surface, the more pronounced the

384 ~~impact of near-surface environmental changes obvious the impact on the marine~~
385 ~~environment.~~

386 Compared with other variables, the SST variation before and after the typhoon's
387 arrival was weak and appeared relatively stable. In particular, the SST measurements
388 from MWO and the mooring buoys were very close throughout the period, ~~and even~~
389 ~~better in the second stage.~~ However, the larger difference in SST between MWO and
390 the nearest drifting buoy may be caused by the quality of the SST measurement from
391 the latter.

392 **5 Summary**

393 During the typhoon observation experiment in the South China Sea in
394 July-August 2020, MWO completed long-term continuous observations, especially by
395 actively approaching the center of Typhoon Sinlaku in the deep sea. The in-situ
396 meteorological and hydrological observations obtained by MWO were evaluated by
397 comparing them with the observations made by two types of buoys during the
398 evolution of Typhoon Sinlaku. We obtained some preliminary results as follows.

399 1) Before the arrival of the typhoon, air pressure and wind speed measured by
400 MWO and the buoys were in good agreement, with the difference in air pressure less
401 than 0.5hPa and the difference in wind speed less than 0.5 m/s, indicating that the
402 measurement accuracy of air pressure and wind speed obtained by the two methods is
403 comparable under normal sea conditions.

404 2) The SST observations of MWO and the mooring buoys show highly consistent
405 in the entire period, ~~and even a smaller difference in SST after the arrival of the~~

406 ~~typhoon,~~ demonstrating the high stability and accuracy of SST measurements from
407 MWO during the typhoon evolution.

408 3) The air temperature and relative humidity measured from MWO have obvious
409 diurnal variations and are generally lower than those from the buoys, which may be
410 related to the mounting height and sensitivity of ~~the~~ sensors.

411 4) When actively approaching the typhoon center, the air pressure measured by
412 MWO can reflect some drastic and subtle changes, such as a sudden drop to 980 hPa,
413 which is difficult to obtain by other observation methods.

414 As a mobile meteorological and oceanographic observation station, MWO has
415 shown its unique advantages over traditional observation methods. Although we only
416 analyzed and evaluated the in-situ observations obtained in one individual case of
417 MWO crossing the Typhoon Sinlaku in this paper, the results preliminary demonstrate
418 the reliable observation capability of MWO. For better monitoring of typhoon systems,
419 it will be necessary to deploy a meteorological and hydrological observation network
420 composed of multiple MWOs in the future, which will provide comprehensive in-situ
421 observations on spatial and temporal scales required for forecasting, warnings, and
422 research of marine meteorological hazards.

423 ***Acknowledgments.*** This work is supported by the National Natural Science
424 Foundation of China (Grant No. 41627808), the Key Technologies Research and
425 Development Program (Grant No. 2018YFC1506401), the Shanghai Typhon Reseach
426 Foundation (Grant No. TFJJ202101). We wish to express our sincere gratitude to
427 Beijing Chunyi Aviation Technology Co., Ltd., Hainan Meteorological Service, Wang

428 Hu, and Wang Chunhua of Qionghai Meteorological Service, and all personnel who
429 participated in this experiment.

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