

1 **Estimating ocean heat content from the ocean thermal expansion** 2 **parameters using satellite data**

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7 **Abstract.** Ocean heat content (OHC) is a depth-integrated physical oceanographic variable used to precisely measure ocean
8 warming. Because of the limitations associated with in-situ CTD data and Ocean Reanalysis system products, satellite-based
9 approaches have gained importance in estimating the daily to decadal variability of OHC over the vast oceanic region. Efforts
10 to minimize the biases in satellite-based OHC estimates are needed to realize the actual response of the ocean to the brunt of
11 climate change. In the current study, an attempt has been made to better implement the satellite-based ocean thermal expansion
12 method to estimate OHC at 17 depth extents ranging from the surface to 700m. To achieve this objective, artificial neural
13 network (ANN) models were developed to derive thermosteric sea level (TSL) from a given dataset of sea surface temperature,
14 sea surface salinity, geographical coordinates, and climatological TSL. The model-derived TSL data were further used to
15 estimate OHC changes based on the thermal expansion efficiency of heat. Statistical analysis showed high correlation
16 coefficients and low errors in satellite-derived TSL / OHC of 700 m modeling depth (N 388469, R 0.9926 / 0.9922, RMSE
17 1.16 m / 1.56 GJ m⁻², MBE -0.1917 m / -0.2400 GJ m⁻², MBPE -0.4560% / -0.0290%, MAE 0.763 m / 1.029 GJ m⁻², and
18 MAPE 2.34% / 0.13%) and nearly similar results at the remaining modeling depths. These results suggest that the proposed
19 ANN models are capable of generating satellite-based daily OHC maps by covering both shallower and deeper oceanic regions
20 of varying bathymetry levels (≥ 20 m). In addition, the first-ever attempt to estimate the ocean thermal expansion component
21 (*i.e.*, TSL) from satellite data was successful and the model-derived TSL can be used to obtain high-end sea-level rise products
22 in the global ocean.

23 **1. Introduction**

24 Owing to the vast spatial coverage and high heat capacity, oceans balance the planet's temperatures by absorbing 89% of the
25 excess atmospheric heat caused by the greenhouse effect and global warming (Abraham et al., 2013; IPCC, 2014; Roemmich
26 et al., 2015; Riser et al., 2016; Trenberth et al., 2016; Meyssignac et al., 2019; Von Schuckmann et al., 2023). A precise
27 understanding of the depth-wise penetration of this heat and its accumulation in the upper oceanic layers is of great importance
28 to the scientific community (Liang et al., 2015; Baxter, 2016; IPCC, 2022). Ocean heat content (OHC), a depth-integrated
29 physical oceanographic variable that refers to the amount of heat energy accumulated between any two depths, has gained

30 attention in various studies of the Earth's Energy Imbalance (Von Schuckmann et al., 2016; Trenberth et al., 2016; Cheng et
31 al., 2017; Meyssignac et al., 2019; Cheng et al., 2022). Thus, accurate estimation of OHC changes at various depth extents is
32 vital and is the motivation of the current study.

33 To obtain a complete picture of OHC changes at different depths, the direct measurements of in-situ conductivity,
34 temperature, and depth (CTD) profiles are necessary. These in situ measurements of the ocean properties are limited in terms
35 of depth and spatial coverages, leading to the biased global reconstruction of OHC estimates owing to the sparse measurement
36 data and spatial coverage deficiencies (Jagadeesh et al., 2015; Meyssignac et al., 2019; Marti et al., 2022). However, the in-
37 situ CTD profile measurements have been used to develop and validate the different OHC models (Momin et al., 2011;
38 Jagadeesh et al., 2015; Su et al., 2020; Prakash and Shanmugam, 2022). On the other hand , synthetic CTD profile data
39 generated by the Ocean Reanalysis systems (ORA) have been used to study OHC variability in spatial and temporal scales
40 (Balmaseda et al., 2015; Palmer et al., 2017). More recently, satellite-based methods have become crucial to overcome the
41 limitations associated with in-situ CTD data and Ocean Reanalysis system products , to ensure the OHC trend at a global scale,
42 and to understanding the evolution of the Earth's climate system (Meyssignac et al., 2019; Prakash and Shanmugam, 2022).

43 The existing satellite-based OHC algorithms can be broadly grouped into three approaches based on the employed
44 principles/parametrizations: (i) internal tide oceanic tomography (ITOT), (ii) ocean net surface heat fluxes, and (iii) ocean
45 thermal expansion. Apart from these approaches, research is exploring ways to make use of tidal magnetic satellite observations
46 (Irrgang et al., 2019), electrical conductance (Trossman and Tyler, 2019), and atmospheric oxygen & carbon dioxide
47 concentrations (Resplandy et al., 2018) to infer OHC changes. The ITOT technique involves correlating the satellite altimeter-
48 derived internal tide phase changes with ocean warming to estimate the OHC variability. This technique is still at the proof-
49 of-concept level and the associated challenges remain to be addressed (Zhao, 2016a, 2017; Meyssignac et al., 2019). The OHC
50 estimation through the ocean net surface heat fluxes employs several assumptions and approximations in deriving the input
51 parameters to compute the radiative and turbulent heat fluxes, which in turn leads to higher uncertainty in global OHC changes
52 (Wild et al., 2015; L'Ecuyer et al., 2015; Meyssignac et al., 2019).

53 On the other hand, the ocean thermal expansion method is a promising technique for the estimation of OHC by
54 considering the thermosteric sea level (TSL) and expansion efficiency of heat (EEH). Numerous satellite-based OHC models
55 have been developed based on the sea surface height anomaly data from altimeters, water mass change equivalent sea level
56 anomaly data from the Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment mission (GRACE), sea surface temperature from the various
57 radiometers onboard satellites, and wind speed/stress from scatterometers/numerical weather models. Pioneering work done
58 by White and Tai (1995), Chambers et al. (1997), Polito et al. (2000), and Sato et al. (2000) have attempted to implement the
59 ocean thermal expansion method based on a relationship between OHC and satellite altimeter-based sea surface height anomaly
60 (SSHA). It should be mentioned that regardless of the source, the volume of seawater changes when it is subjected to
61 heating/cooling, and it eventually reflects in sea surface topography. The SSHA data recorded by the satellite altimeters
62 comprise the sea surface topography changes due to tides, atmospheric pressure, salinity (haline), and barotropic flows along
63 with the thermal effects. The SSHA changes due to the tides and atmospheric pressure can be corrected, but the effects of

64 salinity and barotropic flows remain unresolved with the OHC estimates produced by Wang and Tai (1995) and Chambers et
65 al. (1997). Sato et al. (2000) have introduced a haline correction factor as the integral product of the haline contraction
66 coefficient and salinity anomaly from in-situ CTD profile data. Owing to the limitations associated with in-situ data, the in-
67 situ-based haline correction cannot be applied to satellite altimeter-based SSHA data while correlating with the space and time-
68 varying OHC data. Jayne et al. (2003) have proposed the Alt-GRACE approach to resolve the effect of barotropic flows in sea
69 surface topography by subtracting the satellite gravimetry-derived water mass change component from SSHA data. Though
70 the Alt-GRACE approach has improved the accuracy of satellite-based OHC estimates compared to Wang and Tai (1995),
71 Chambers et al. (1997), Polito et al. (2000), and Sato et al. (2000), the issues associated with the haline effects and other
72 approximations on the ocean thermal expansion coefficient and seawater density data have led to significant uncertainties in
73 satellite-based OHC estimates.

74 With the advancement of artificial intelligence, several researchers have attempted to model OHC by directly relating
75 it with the satellite-based parameters of relevance by using deep-learning regression techniques (Jagadeesh and Ali, 2006;
76 Momin et al., 2011; Chacko et al., 2015; Jagadeesh et al., 2015; Su et al., 2020, 2021; Marti et al., 2022; Lyman and Johnson,
77 2023). These deep-learning models have oversimplified the OHC problem by neglecting the effects of salinity and barotropic
78 flows. In addition, no previous work have accounted for the space and time-varying nature of the ocean thermal expansion
79 coefficient and seawater density in OHC computations. The other common drawbacks with the existing work are discussed in
80 Sect. 4.3. Consequently, there is a need for developing a satellite-based model to accurately implement the ocean thermal
81 expansion method to estimate OHC by resolving all the issues associated with salinity variation, barotropic flows, ocean
82 thermal expansion, seawater density, choice of temperature and its units.

83 Given the above background, we have made a major attempt to develop and implement the satellite-based ocean
84 thermal expansion models for estimating OHC changes at various depth extents (such as 20 m, 30 m, 40 m, 50 m, 100 m, 150
85 m, 200 m, 250 m, 300 m, 350 m, 400 m, 450 m, 500 m, 550 m, 600 m, 650 m, and 700 m). It enables the research community
86 to generate satellite-based OHC maps of varying bathymetry levels (≥ 20 m) by covering both shallower and deeper oceanic
87 waters. For this, artificial neural network (ANN) architectures were developed to estimate TSL for the given sea surface
88 temperature (SST), sea surface salinity (SSS), geographical coordinates, and climatological TSL. The model-derived TSL
89 estimates were then used to estimate OHC changes by accounting the expansion efficiency of heat. The proposed models are
90 capable of estimating TSL and OHC accurately at multiple depth extents. The robustness of the new models was tested by
91 comparison of model-derived TSL and OHC with in-situ data.

92 **2. Data**

93 **2.1. In-situ data for model development and in-situ validation**

94 For this study, in-situ CTD profile data (collected by Argo floats) were obtained from the World Ocean Database-2018 of the
95 NOAA's National Centers for Environmental Information Data Archive for the period of 2005-2020 (Boyer et al., 2018a).

96 These data have been extensively used by the research community for various ocean applications (Levitus et al., 2009; Momin
 97 et al., 2011; Levitus et al., 2012; Cheng et al., 2014; Roemmich et al., 2015; Jagadeesh et al., 2015; Su et al., 2020). The World
 98 Ocean Database (WOD) comprises the oceanographic data of diverse biogeochemical parameters that have been collected by
 99 various institutions, agencies, individual researchers, and data recovery initiatives. The quality-controlled CTD profile data
 100 (*accepted_value* flag) of standard depth levels recommended by the International Association of Physical Oceanography
 101 (1936) were considered in this study to compute the TSL_d and OHC_d parameters and to obtain the SST and SSS data. The
 102 standard depth levels considered for deriving the TSL and OHC are given as 20 m, 30 m, 40 m, 50 m, 100 m, 150 m, 200 m,
 103 250 m, 300 m, 350 m, 400 m, 450 m, 500 m, 550 m, 600 m, 650 m, and 700 m. The in-situ TSL_d and OHC_d parameters were
 104 computed by applying the integration formulae (Eqs. 1 & 2) on the CTD profile data of depth range from the ocean surface to
 105 the respective standard depth (d) and the corresponding SST and SSS values were extracted. Similarly, the climatological
 106 parameters such as $TSL_{clim,d}$ and $OHC_{clim,d}$ were computed from the monthly climatological temperature and salinity data of 41
 107 vertical levels obtained from the World Ocean Atlas-2018 (WOA) (Boyer et al., 2018b). The theoretical considerations for
 108 computing OHC change at a depth can be found in Prakash and Shanmugam (2022) (Prakash and Shanmugam, 2022), and the
 109 same were adopted in this study. The Gibbs-SeaWater (GSW) Oceanographic Toolbox of TEOS-10 (IOC et al., 2010) was
 110 used to compute the in-situ-based parameters including

$$111 \quad OHC_d = \int_0^d \rho C_P \theta \, dz \quad (1)$$

$$112 \quad TSL_d = \int_0^d \alpha \theta \, dz \quad (2)$$

113 where OHC_d refers to the heat energy accumulated in an oceanic layer of depth range from the surface to a stipulated depth
 114 (d) and is given in the units of joules per unit area ($J \, m^{-2}$). Similarly, TSL_d (in meters) refers to the thermosteric sea level
 115 integrated from the surface to a stipulated depth (d). And, θ is the conservative temperature in K (derived from in-situ
 116 temperature, absolute salinity, and pressure), ρ is the seawater density in $kg \, m^{-3}$ (derived from the conservative temperature,
 117 absolute salinity, and pressure), C_P is the specific heat capacity ($= 3991.87 \, J \, kg^{-1} \, K^{-1}$), and α is the thermal expansion coefficient
 118 in K^{-1} (derived from the conservative temperature, absolute salinity, and pressure).

119 Python programming was used to prepare the individual databases for all the standard depth levels by extracting CTD
 120 profile data from the WOD and WOA NetCDF files with the help of NetCDF4, NumPy, Pandas, and GSW libraries. Each
 121 database (in-situ OHC, in-situ TSL, in-situ SST, in-situ SSS, climatological OHC, climatological TSL, and WOA geographical
 122 coordinates) was divided into two datasets, one for the model development spanning from 2005-2016 and one for (in-situ-
 123 based) validating the model spanning from 2017-2020, by ensuring a well distribution in spatiotemporal scales over the global
 124 open ocean. The spatial distribution of data points used to model TSL_{700} and OHC_{700} is shown in Fig. A1. The in-situ CTD
 125 profiles of depth coverage shallower than 700 m are also included in this process of deriving the TSL and OHC of other depth
 126 extents. Indeed, the number of CTD profiles and their distribution in global oceans is higher than the CTD profile density as
 127 shown in Fig. A1.

128 2.2. Satellite-based validation

129 For the validation period 2017-2020, the NOAA Advanced Very High-Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR) Optimum
130 Interpolation Sea Surface Temperature products (OISST v2.1) were used for daily SST data of 0.25° spatial resolution (Huang
131 et al., 2021). Daily SSS data of the same spatial resolution were obtained from the ORAS5 Ocean reanalysis system of the
132 European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts at the CMEMS portal (Product ID:
133 GLOBAL_REANALYSIS_PHY_001_031) (Zuo et al., 2017). The NetCDF4 and NumPy Python libraries were used to read
134 and resample satellite data to the WOA-18 grid, and to collocate with the corresponding Argo in-situ data points. The accuracy
135 of the satellite-based SST and ORA-based SSS was verified by Argo-measured SST and SSS data (N = 244722). The observed
136 R, RMSE, MBE, and MAE values in SST & SSS validations are 0.99 & 0.99, 0.51°C & 0.26 PSU, -0.05°C & -0.006 PSU,
137 and 0.33°C & 0.12 PSU, respectively. High correlation coefficients and low errors indicate the minimal deviation of satellite-
138 based data from the actual (in-situ) data and ensure the reliability of satellite data in accurately representing the physical
139 oceanographic conditions.

140 3. Methodology

141 3.1. Theoretical formulations

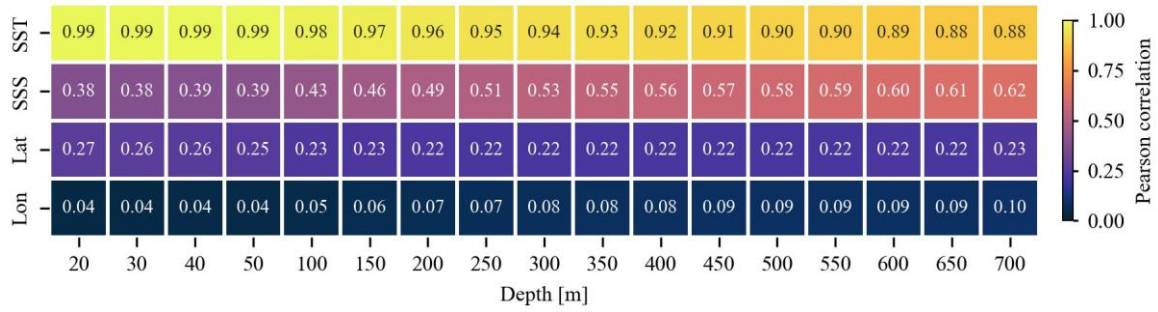
142 Ocean thermal expansion is the best proxy to model the heat content accumulated in an oceanic layer. Unlike freshwater,
143 seawater expands when it warms and contracts when it cools to temperatures above its freezing point. The volumetric
144 expansion of seawater is non-isotropic in nature due to the differences in the degree of constraint in different directions. In a
145 vertical direction, atmospheric pressure exerts a normal force on the seawater parcel at the surface. The magnitude of this
146 normal/vertical force is less compared to the horizontal forces exerted by physical barriers such as continental boundaries and
147 geographic features on the ocean floor. It allows the ocean thermal expansion of seawater in the vertical direction rather than
148 the horizontal direction, as the seawater is less constrained in the vertical direction compared to the horizontal direction. The
149 amount of change in seawater volume in response to the net warming/cooling depends on the absolute conservative temperature
150 and ocean thermal expansion coefficient (Eq. 2). Following are the GSW functions (Eqs. 3-5) (IOC et al., 2010) involved in
151 the calculation of TSL (Eq. 2) for the given set of measured temperature (T), practical salinity (SP), pressure (P), longitude
152 (x), and latitude (y).

$$153 \text{ Absolute salinity } (SA) = gsw.SA_from_SP(SP, P, x, y) \quad (3)$$

$$154 \theta = gsw.CT_from_T(SA, T, P) \quad (4)$$

$$155 \alpha = gsw.Alpha(SA, \theta, P) \quad (5)$$

156 Hence, an attempt has been made in this study to model TSL as a function of SST, SSS, and geographical coordinates. The
157 existing correlations between the proposed input parameters and the targeted output parameter were explored by employing
158 in-situ-based data used in the model development process (Fig. 1).



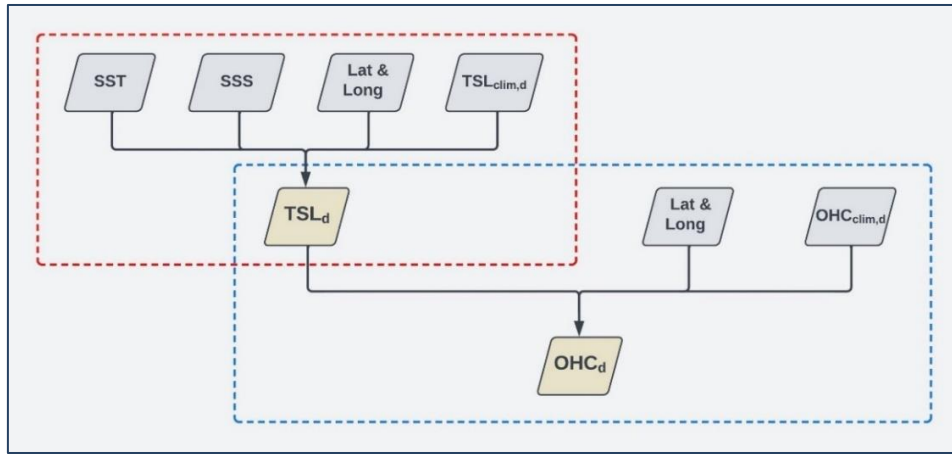
159

160 **Figure 1.** Heatmap showing the Pearson correlation coefficients between the input parameters (*i.e.*, SST, SSS, and
 161 geographical coordinates) and the output parameter (TSL) of various depth extents.

162 It is observed that SST has an almost one-to-one correlation with TSL at shallower depth extents, and can be solely
 163 used to model the thermal expansion of upper oceanic layers. Despite a decreasing trend in correlation strength when moving
 164 towards deeper depths, SST plays a primary role in accounting for TSL variations at deeper depths, because of its strong
 165 correlations with TSL. Observed weaker correlations between SSS and TSL which are plausible owing to the salinity's
 166 secondary role in TSL variations as compared to the temperature variable. However, an increasing trend in correlation
 167 coefficients between SSS and TSL is observed towards the deeper depth extents. Hence, SST and SSS are complementary to
 168 each other in resolving the TSL variations, and their combination plays a major role in modelling TSL of all depth extents
 169 considered in this study. Apart from these physical parameters, absolute salinity used in the computation of seawater density,
 170 conservative temperature, and ocean thermal expansion coefficient is a function of geographical coordinates along with
 171 practical salinity and pressure (Eq. 3). By considering all these theoretical considerations and observed correlations, an attempt
 172 has been made to model TSL of various depth extents by employing SST, SSS, and geographical coordinates as the input
 173 parameters along with the climatological TSL (Fig. 2). Here, TSL_d is an external manifestation of OHC_d stored in an oceanic
 174 layer based on EEH_d (Eq. 6). The model-derived TSL is further used to estimate OHC changes (as shown in Fig. 2 along with
 175 climatological OHC) as follows,

$$176 \quad OHC_d = \frac{TSL_d}{EEH_d} \quad (6)$$

177 where EEH is a conversion factor that explains the relationship between the relative changes in ocean heat content and the
 178 corresponding seawater thermal expansion. As it varies as a function of temperature, salinity, and pressure, EEH is not a
 179 constant value over the global ocean. Hence, ANN modelling is employed in this study to derive OHC from TSL by accounting
 180 the complex variations in EEH .



181

182 **Figure 2.** Flow chart representing the parameters involved in TSL and OHC modelling. The red and blue dashed boxes
 183 represent the TSL and OHC frameworks employed in ANNs, respectively.

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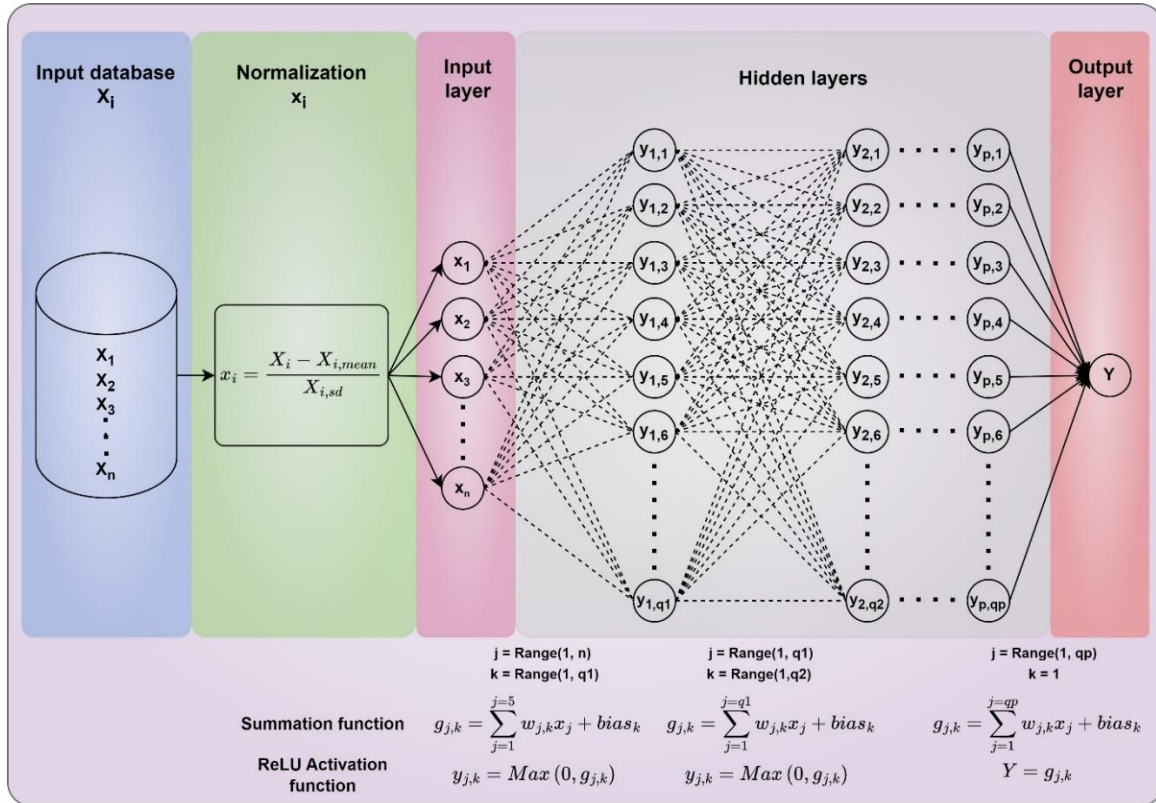
185 3.2. ANN model description

186 This section explains the various steps and architectures involved in the ANN modelling of TSL and OHC. The multilayer
 187 perceptron regressor algorithm of deep neural networks was used to model both TSL and OHC (Pedregosa et al., 2011). It is
 188 observed that the input data of geophysical parameters are given in different units and scales. The range and order of SST,
 189 SSS, latitude, and longitude data are $-1.8\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ to $34.15\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ & $O(10^1)$, 2.53 PSU to 40.45 PSU & $O(10^1)$, -76° to 80° & $O(10^1)$,
 190 and -180° to 180° & $O(10^2)$, respectively. In addition, the range and order of $\text{TSL}_{\text{clim},d}$ and $\text{OHC}_{\text{clim},d}$ are also distinct and vary
 191 with water depth. Hence, the input data were normalized using the StandardScaler class of Scikit-Learn and feed-forwarded
 192 through the neural networks. This StandardScaler normalizes the raw data to ensure the mean and standard deviation of each
 193 input parameter as 0 and 1, respectively. It allows the ANN model to focus on the relative importance and relationships between
 194 the input parameters rather than their magnitude. The standardized input data were injected into the corresponding neurons in
 195 the input layer and forward propagated through the hidden layers and then the output layer by applying the random weights
 196 and rectified linear unit (ReLU) activation function at each neuron (Fig. 3). The model outputs were compared with the actual
 197 data and computed mean squared error (MSE) using a loss function (Eq. 7). In addition, L2 regularization (α_{L2}) was employed
 198 to add a penalty term to the loss value to prevent overfitting. The observed error was then backpropagated through the network
 199 to update weights and biases using the Adam optimizer based on the learning rate and gradient of the error (see Eq. 8 in Prakash
 200 and Shanmugam, 2022). This process is repeated until the validation score improves more than 0.0001.

$$201 \text{MSE} = \frac{1}{N} \sum (Y_{\text{pred},i} - Y_{\text{act},i})^2 \quad (7)$$

202 where N is the number of samples, $Y_{\text{pred},i}$ is the predicted data, and $Y_{\text{act},i}$ is the actual data. The model development work was
 203 carried out by employing both the input and output parameters from the in-situ sources. It enables the ANN models to
 204 implement the input data of any remote sensing sources to produce OHC estimates subject to the reliability and accuracy of

205 those data sources. The particle swarm optimization technique (Kennedy and Eberhart, 1995; Shi and Eberhart, 1998) was
 206 employed for hyperparameter tuning, and the hyperparameters' combinations corresponding to each modelling depth are
 207 presented in Table 1. The Joblib module of Scikit-Learn library was used to save all the TSL and OHC models of various
 208 depths considered in this study, and the same module was used to load the TSL and OHC models of desired depth with the
 209 help of a unified Python script.



210
 211 **Figure 3.** Schematic of the ANN architecture employed in the modelling of TSL and OHC parameters. The flow of the
 212 modelling and the associated mathematical transformations/formulations are given by considering a typical ANN architecture
 213 with n input parameters, one output parameter, p hidden layers, and $q1$ to qp neurons in each hidden layer.

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 221

222 **Table 1.** The ANN model hyperparameters employed in TSL (regular font) and OHC (bold font) modelling of various depth
 223 extents.

Depth (m)	Hidden layers	Batch size	α_{L2}	Learning rate	No. of iterations
20	38, 10, 55	178	0.00422	0.0004	14
	49, 12, 34	183	0.09023	0.0001	26
30	100, 97, 36	165	0.00001	0.0001	14
	11, 50, 55	58	0.00079	0.0001	16
40	64, 71, 5	106	0.00001	0.0001	16
	57, 89, 46	148	0.09691	0.0001	19
50	64, 99, 30	241	0.01478	0.0001	17
	56, 59, 10	139	0.07188	0.0001	22
100	70, 100, 100	256	0.00001	0.0009	30
	25, 36, 63	256	0.03556	0.0016	44
150	47, 83, 92	60	0.00001	0.0005	34
	49, 77, 28	69	0.05176	0.0318	16
200	100, 100, 16	256	0.00315	0.0022	33
	27, 48, 67	202	0.05638	0.0367	18
250	56, 82, 67	174	0.00001	0.0019	39
	2, 100, 77	73	0.00001	0.0037	22
300	83, 28, 74	128	0.00001	0.0028	36
	48, 92, 10	87	0.01364	0.0459	12
350	85, 25, 67	128	0.04606	0.0013	20
	27, 53, 48	141	0.08585	0.0851	14
400	89, 75, 96	64	0.04859	0.0007	26
	49, 1, 80	138	0.00001	0.0031	20
450	51, 83, 95	128	0.08582	0.0005	42
	47, 27, 52	32	0.00263	0.0055	24
500	71, 100, 62	128	0.00001	0.0012	27
	45, 100, 63	126	0.05162	0.0607	15
550	47, 89, 91	256	0.00843	0.0011	44
	64, 75, 78	114	0.05176	0.0634	15
600	98, 65, 6	16	0.00001	0.0001	48
	63, 17, 10	180	0.04654	0.0538	23
650	100, 69, 75	16	0.00001	0.0001	18
	53, 74, 40	176	0.07072	0.0048	20
700	98, 37, 37	164	0.04262	0.0015	32
	83, 63, 79	216	0.01217	0.0742	19

224 **4. Results and discussion**

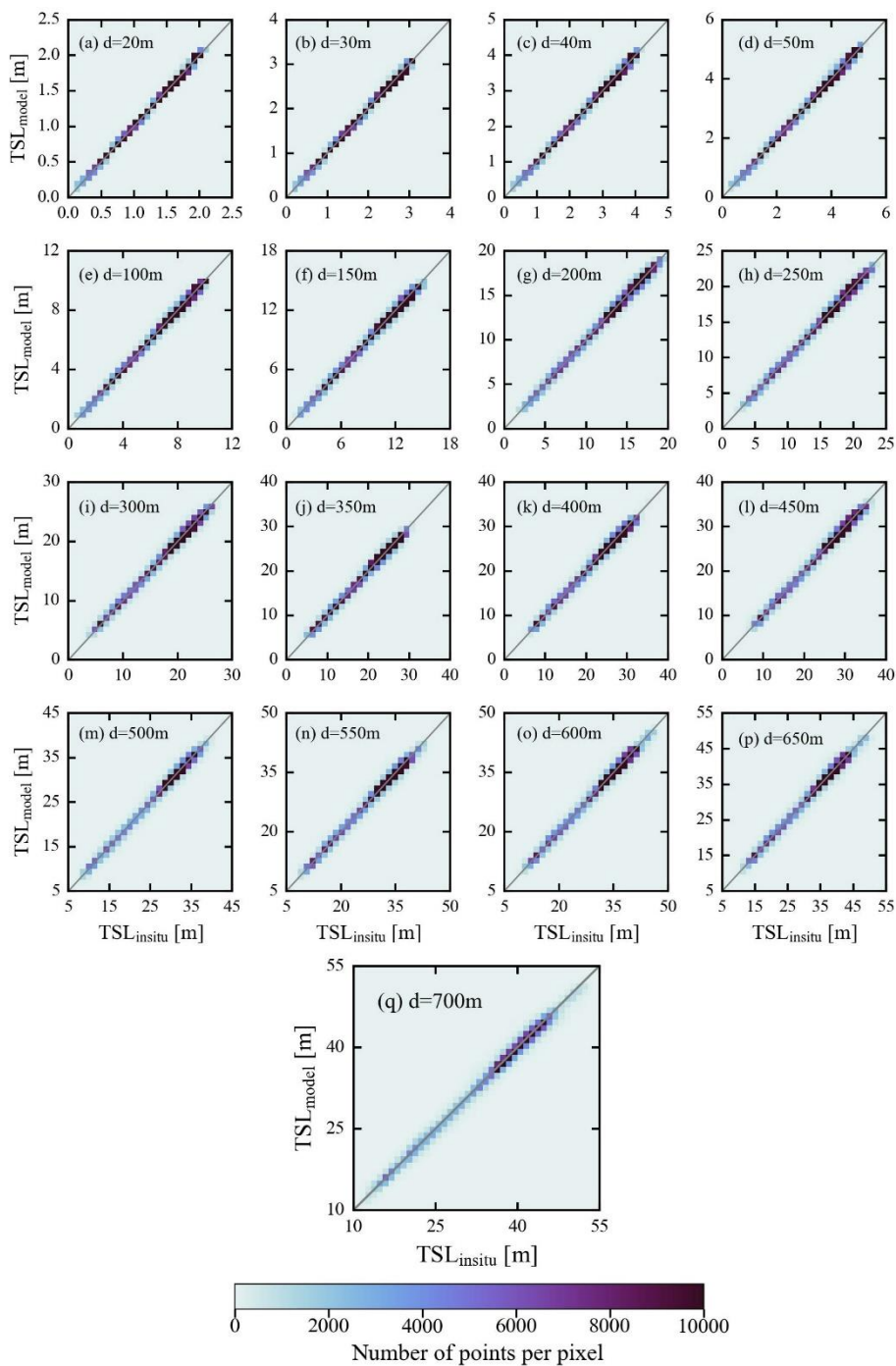
225 The performance of TSL and OHC models on unseen data from the in-situ and satellite sources was assessed using density
226 scattergrams and statistical metrics. These metrics include mean bias error (MBE), mean bias percentage error (MBPE), mean
227 absolute error (MAE), mean absolute percentage error (MAPE), root mean square error (RMSE), Pearson correlation
228 coefficient (R), slope, and intercept (also referred and presented in Prakash and Shanmugam, 2022). To better understand the
229 model performance, mean values of in-situ data were computed for the validation period and used to compute the weighted
230 average of validation metrics across all the depth extents.

231 **4.1 In-situ validations with unseen data**

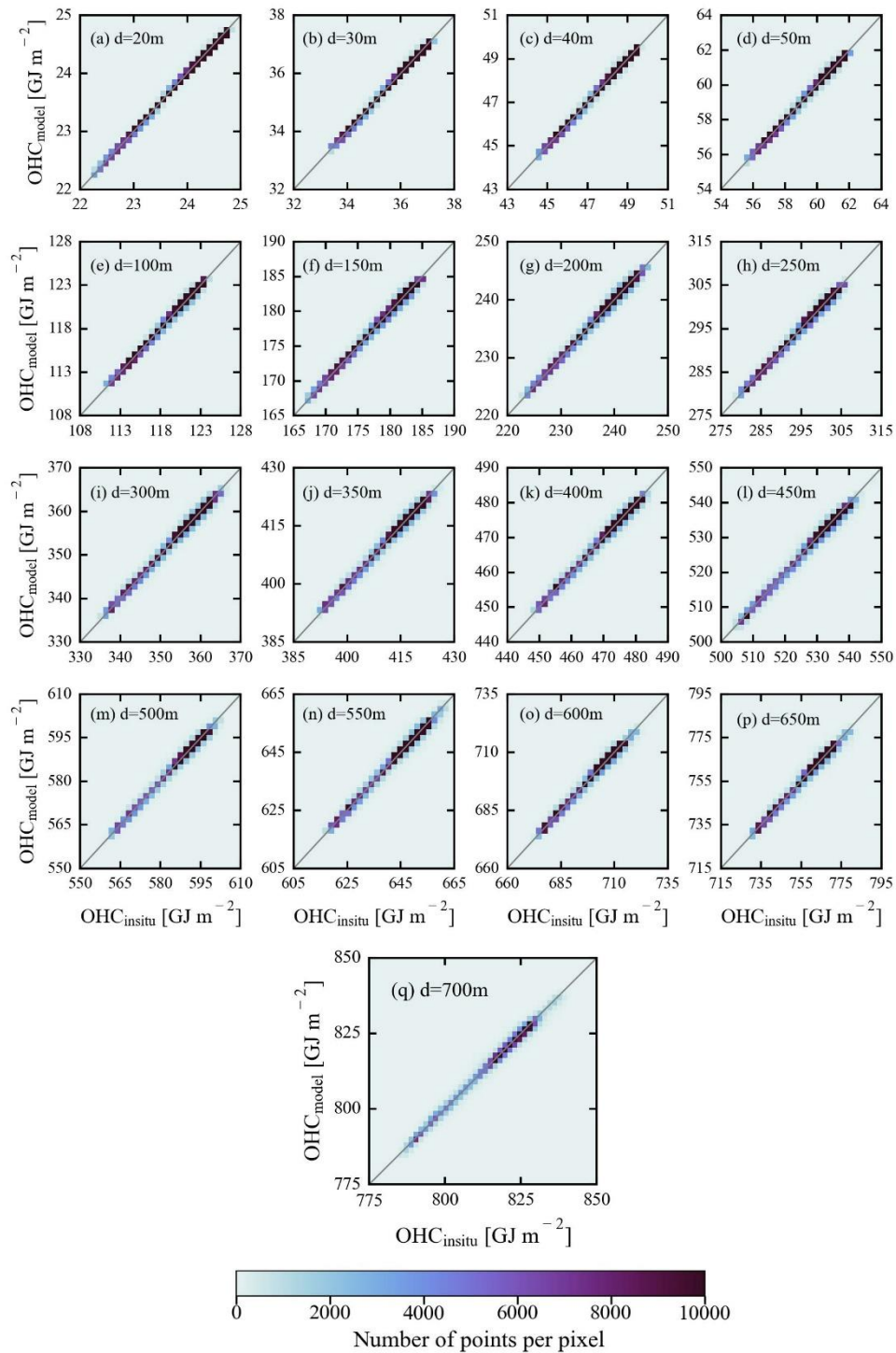
232 The main objective of the in-situ-based validation with unseen data is to evaluate the generalization ability and overall accuracy
233 of TSL and OHC-ANN models on unseen data. For this purpose, the in-situ measured variables such as SST, SSS, and latitude
234 / longitude were inputted into these models to output the predicted values which were then compared with in-situ TSL and
235 OHC data. The number of validation (unseen) data points and their spatial distribution are presented in Table 2 and Fig. A1(b).
236 The validation density scattergrams showed high correlation and low errors with the model-predicted values (Figs. 4 and 5).
237 The performance of the TSL models is exceptionally good on unseen data of all the depth extents without any overfitting
238 (Table 2 and Fig. 4). Similar model performance can also be observed in the case of OHC estimates as it primarily depends on
239 the TSL estimates (Table 2 and Fig. 5). The high values of R indicate a strong positive correlation between the predicted and
240 in-situ OHC (TSL) values. This suggests that the models are generally capable of capturing OHC (TSL) patterns in the data.
241 The slope and intercept of the regression line between predicted and actual values are close to 1 and 0, respectively. This
242 suggests that the model-predicted values have good agreement with the actual values with a minimal bias. The RMSE values
243 are notably small implying that the predicted OHC values have a little random error when compared to the actual data. The
244 MBE and MBPE values are close to zero, indicating that the model-predicted values have a negligible systematic error when
245 compared to the actual values. The low MAE and MAPE values are also indicating a high accuracy with the model-predicted
246 OHC values. These results clearly demonstrate that the proposed ANN models succeeded in generalizing and accurately
247 predicting the measured OHC (TSL) data with a high accuracy.

248 Spatial distribution of mean percentage error (MPE) over the global open oceanic region was computed by averaging
249 the observed percentage errors of all modelling depths available at each pixel (Fig. A2) for estimating the OHC changes. It is
250 observed that the models' performance is comparatively low over the north-western parts of the North Atlantic gyre,
251 southwestern parts of the South Atlantic gyre, Kuroshio extension, and Antarctic circumpolar regions due to the high eddy
252 kinetic energy (Beech et al., 2022; Ni et al., 2023). An elaborate note on the potential sources of the observed MPE values is
253 given in Sect. 4.4. Further, the entire validation dataset was divided into two parts in terms of the observed overestimation and
254 underestimation of data. In the cases of overestimation (underestimation), 95% of the data points have a MPE of less than or
255 equal to 0.47% (0.44%). The lower values of MPE indicate that the proposed ANN models succeed in capturing the OHC

256 patterns in all major oceanic basins and can be used to produce accurate OHC products based on their implementation on real-
257 time data.



258
259 **Figure 4.** Density scatterplots showing the observed agreement between model-predicted TSL values and in-situ measured
260 TSL values during insitu-based validation.



261
 262 **Figure 5.** Density scatterplots showing the observed agreement between model-predicted OHC values and in-situ measured
 263 OHC values during insitu-based validation.

264 **Table 2.** Statistical results from the insitu-based validation data of TSL (regular font) and OHC (bold font) against unseen
 265 Argo measured in-situ data. The units for the various metrics used in TSL & OHC validations are given as follows: Mean (m
 266 & GJ m⁻²), RMSE (m & GJ m⁻²), MBE (m & GJ m⁻²), MBPE (%), MAE (m & GJ m⁻²), MAPE (%), and intercept (m & GJ m⁻²).
 267 ²).

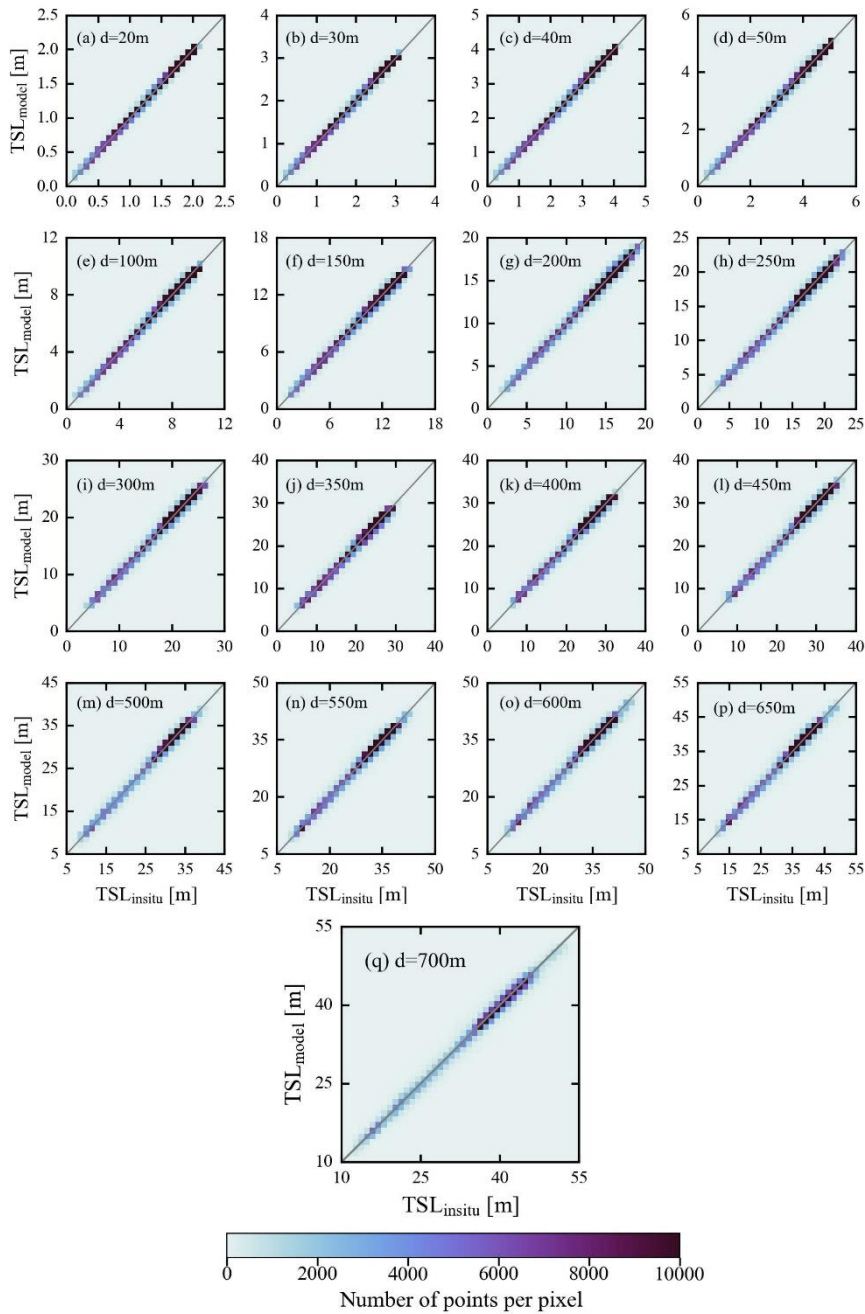
Depth (m)	N		Mean	R	RMSE	MBE	MBPE	MAE	MAPE	Slope	Intercept
	Data for model development	Data for model validation									
20	801303	536719	1.44	0.9997	0.01	-0.0007	0.0575	0.006	0.60	0.9981	0.002
			23.91	0.9997	0.02	-0.0011	-0.0047	0.009	0.04	0.9987	0.030
30	794166	532149	2.15	0.9993	0.03	0.0029	0.3764	0.015	0.99	0.9982	0.007
			32.85	0.9992	0.04	0.0010	0.0027	0.021	0.06	0.9992	0.030
40	787074	526571	2.85	0.9988	0.05	-0.0009	0.1325	0.027	1.28	0.9988	0.002
			47.78	0.9988	0.07	-0.0008	-0.0014	0.038	0.08	0.9978	0.103
50	779134	520102	3.54	0.9984	0.07	-0.0008	0.0861	0.042	1.47	0.9975	0.008
			59.70	0.9984	0.10	0.0015	0.0028	0.057	0.10	0.9972	0.169
100	731065	476709	6.80	0.9974	0.18	-0.0129	-0.1725	0.120	2.09	0.9960	0.015
			119.00	0.9973	0.25	-0.0279	-0.0233	0.169	0.14	0.9981	0.196
150	712120	460278	9.83	0.9967	0.29	-0.0407	-0.3419	0.205	2.41	0.9905	0.053
			177.97	0.9965	0.40	-0.0369	-0.0198	0.279	0.16	0.9867	2.331
200	697314	446979	12.64	0.9961	0.38	-0.0001	0.0571	0.272	2.51	0.9960	0.050
			236.62	0.9959	0.53	-0.0076	-0.0029	0.372	0.16	0.9939	1.426
250	686378	436906	15.28	0.9959	0.46	-0.0361	-0.1803	0.332	2.49	0.9943	0.051
			295.04	0.9957	0.63	-0.0242	-0.0078	0.450	0.15	0.9918	2.392
300	678526	429501	17.80	0.9956	0.55	-0.0471	-0.0023	0.392	2.53	0.9851	0.218
			353.29	0.9954	0.74	-0.0155	-0.0039	0.525	0.15	0.9889	3.902
350	672148	423688	20.23	0.9949	0.65	-0.1035	-0.3383	0.462	2.59	0.9860	0.179
			411.40	0.9947	0.87	-0.0357	-0.0081	0.613	0.15	0.9861	5.676
400	666605	418686	22.57	0.9947	0.72	-0.0425	-0.0526	0.505	2.52	0.9887	0.213
			469.39	0.9945	0.97	-0.0067	-0.0010	0.676	0.14	0.9879	5.683
450	661336	413987	24.83	0.9946	0.78	-0.1227	-0.4726	0.547	2.47	0.9916	0.087
			527.25	0.9943	1.06	-0.1681	-0.0315	0.741	0.14	0.9872	6.588
500	654880	408240	27.03	0.9949	0.80	-0.0604	-0.1866	0.558	2.29	0.9945	0.089
			585.03	0.9947	1.07	-0.0761	-0.0127	0.747	0.13	0.9894	6.105
550	649850	403357	29.14	0.9948	0.85	-0.0462	-0.0937	0.586	2.19	0.9911	0.213
			642.69	0.9945	1.15	0.0347	0.0057	0.787	0.12	0.9900	6.479
600	645150	398855	31.21	0.9945	0.91	-0.0390	-0.0205	0.623	2.18	0.9883	0.327
			700.28	0.9942	1.23	0.0298	0.0046	0.838	0.12	0.9873	8.937
650	640479	392921	33.18	0.9941	0.99	0.0185	0.0903	0.670	2.19	0.9949	0.189
			757.74	0.9939	1.33	0.0086	0.0014	0.892	0.12	0.9904	7.296
700	633004	388469	35.13	0.9941	1.04	-0.1928	-0.4791	0.711	2.17	0.9858	0.307
			815.15	0.9938	1.41	-0.2413	-0.0292	0.960	0.12	0.9836	13.134
Weighted average				0.9961	0.74	-0.0620	-0.1591	0.513	2.29	0.9927	0.177
				0.9960	1.03	-0.0515	-0.0087	0.708	0.13	0.9914	6.648

268

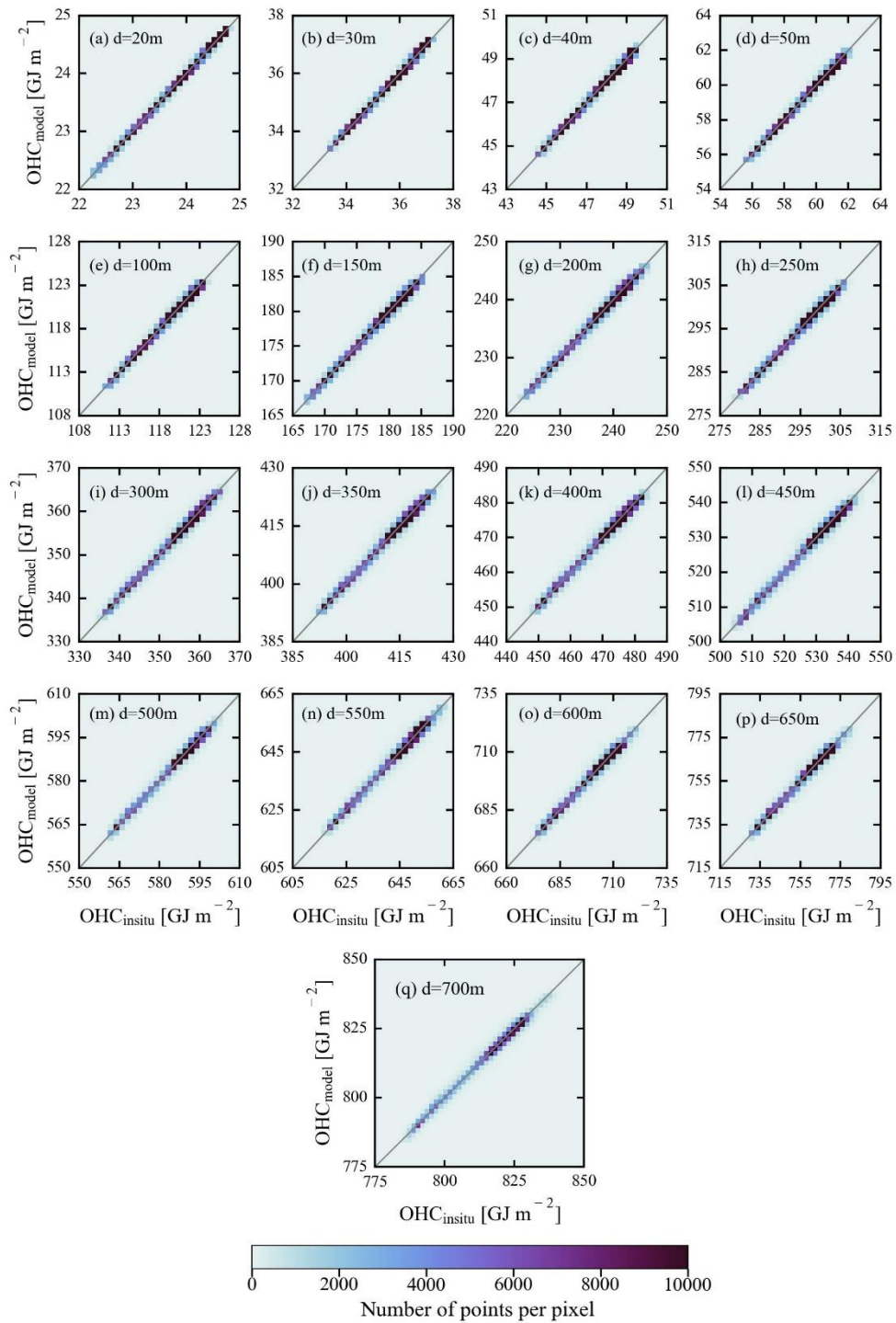
269 4.2. Satellite validations with unseen data

270 The performance of the proposed ANN models in satellite-based applications has been assessed by injecting daily SST and
271 SSS data from the satellite sources (refer to Sect. 2.2) in place of the in-situ sources. The choice of satellite sources for SST
272 and SSS data is completely subjective to the intended application and their compatibility in terms of spatial and temporal
273 resolutions, whereas geographical coordinates data can be employed from WOA corresponding to the climatological TSL and
274 OHC data. It is recommended to resample SST and SSS data to the WOA grid to eliminate the discrepancies arising from the
275 non-uniform spatial references among the input data. The satellite-based SST, ORA-based SSS, latitude, and longitude data
276 were then given as the inputs to the ANN models for producing TSL and OHC estimates of all the depth extents considered in
277 this study. Consequently, the model-derived TSL and OHC estimates were compared with Argo-measured in-situ data, and
278 the satellite-based validation results are presented in this section (Table 3 and Figs. 6 and 7).

279 The performance of the proposed ANN models on satellite-based validation data (Table 3, Figs. 6 and 7) is rather
280 similar to their performance on in-situ-based validation data (Table 2, Figs. 4 and 5). However, the models' performance on
281 satellite-based validation data was marginally low as compared to the in-situ-based validation data, likely due to the errors
282 associated with the satellite-derived products. According to the statistical results, the R values were observed to be slightly
283 lower by an average percentage decrease of 0.11% across all depth extents. Similarly, the RMSE, MBE, MBPE, MAE, and
284 MAPE were slightly larger than those values observed during the in-situ-based validation datasets. This relatively lower
285 performance of the proposed models on the satellite-based validation datasets can be observed by comparing the spatial maps
286 and the distribution of MPE (Figs. A2 and A3). The relatively higher magnitudes of MPE can be observed over the
287 northwestern parts of the North Atlantic gyre, southwestern parts of the South Atlantic gyre, Kuroshio extension, and Antarctic
288 circumpolar regions based on in-situ-based validation data. And, 95% of the data have a MPE of less than or equal to 0.56%
289 (0.5%) in the cases of overestimation (underestimation), which is higher than those reported in Sect. 4.1. Though the
290 performance of the proposed models' on satellite-based data is comparatively lower than the in-situ-based validation data, the
291 observed difference in various validation metrics is rather insignificant. It substantiates the efficiency of the proposed models
292 in estimating OHC from satellite data at various depth extents over the major oceanic basins. However, it should be noted that
293 the validation results presented in this section are subject to vary with the other sources of satellite-based SST and SSS data.



294
 295 **Figure 6.** Density scatterplots showing the observed agreement between model-predicted TSL values and in-situ measured
 296 TSL values during satellite-based validation.



297
 298 **Figure 7.** Density scatterplots showing the observed agreement between model-predicted OHC values and in-situ measured
 299 OHC values during satellite-based validation.

300 **Table 3.** Statistical results from satellite-based validation data of TSL (regular font) and OHC (bold font) against unseen Argo
 301 measured in-situ data. The units for the various metrics used in TSL & OHC validations are given as follows: Mean (m & GJ
 302 m⁻²), RMSE (m & GJ m⁻²), MBE (m & GJ m⁻²), MBPE (%), MAE (m & GJ m⁻²), MAPE (%), and intercept (m & GJ m⁻²).

Depth (m)	N		Mean	R	RMSE	MBE	MBPE	MAE	MAPE	Slope	Intercept
	Data for model development	Data for model validation									
20	801303	536719	1.44	0.9987	0.03	-0.0034	-0.0822	0.016	1.67	0.9960	0.002
			23.91	0.9987	0.04	-0.0049	-0.0201	0.023	0.09	0.9965	0.080
30	794166	532149	2.15	0.9984	0.04	-0.0008	0.2562	0.027	1.88	0.9961	0.008
			32.85	0.9984	0.06	-0.0043	-0.0118	0.037	0.10	0.9969	0.108
40	787074	526571	2.85	0.9980	0.07	-0.0054	0.0211	0.041	2.08	0.9969	0.003
			47.78	0.9980	0.09	-0.0070	-0.0143	0.057	0.12	0.9959	0.191
50	779134	520102	3.54	0.9977	0.09	-0.0060	-0.0262	0.057	2.17	0.9960	0.008
			59.70	0.9976	0.12	-0.0056	-0.0090	0.077	0.13	0.9956	0.257
100	731065	476709	6.80	0.9966	0.20	-0.0206	-0.2651	0.140	2.56	0.9951	0.013
			119.00	0.9965	0.28	-0.0385	-0.0322	0.194	0.16	0.9971	0.301
150	712120	460278	9.83	0.9958	0.32	-0.0496	-0.4165	0.229	2.81	0.9897	0.052
			177.97	0.9956	0.44	-0.0491	-0.0266	0.311	0.17	0.9858	2.474
200	697314	446979	12.64	0.9951	0.43	-0.0091	-0.0022	0.300	2.83	0.9951	0.053
			236.62	0.9950	0.59	-0.0200	-0.0081	0.409	0.17	0.9929	1.653
250	686378	436906	15.28	0.9948	0.52	-0.0450	-0.2117	0.364	2.79	0.9928	0.065
			295.04	0.9946	0.71	-0.0365	-0.0119	0.492	0.17	0.9904	2.807
300	678526	429501	17.80	0.9943	0.62	-0.0556	-0.0279	0.428	2.79	0.9837	0.235
			353.29	0.9941	0.83	-0.0271	-0.0071	0.571	0.16	0.9875	4.398
350	672148	423688	20.23	0.9939	0.71	-0.1052	-0.3291	0.494	2.80	0.9846	0.206
			411.40	0.9936	0.95	-0.0381	-0.0086	0.655	0.16	0.9847	6.264
400	666605	418686	22.57	0.9935	0.79	-0.0450	-0.0422	0.540	2.72	0.9869	0.252
			469.39	0.9933	1.06	-0.0103	-0.0017	0.723	0.15	0.9860	6.557
450	661336	413987	24.83	0.9934	0.87	-0.1234	-0.4559	0.586	2.67	0.9898	0.129
			527.25	0.9931	1.17	-0.1694	-0.0316	0.792	0.15	0.9854	7.508
500	654880	408240	27.03	0.9934	0.91	-0.0707	-0.2034	0.605	2.50	0.9924	0.134
			585.03	0.9933	1.21	-0.0909	-0.0151	0.807	0.14	0.9874	7.293
550	649850	403357	29.14	0.9932	0.97	-0.0484	-0.0768	0.636	2.40	0.9887	0.280
			642.69	0.9929	1.30	0.0315	0.0053	0.851	0.13	0.9876	8.021
600	645150	398855	31.21	0.9930	1.03	-0.0431	-0.0139	0.675	2.38	0.9861	0.392
			700.28	0.9927	1.39	0.0242	0.0039	0.906	0.13	0.9850	10.52
650	640479	392921	33.18	0.9926	1.11	0.0193	0.1132	0.719	2.37	0.9925	0.267
			757.74	0.9924	1.48	0.0092	0.0015	0.957	0.13	0.9880	9.090
700	633004	388469	35.13	0.9926	1.16	-0.1917	-0.4560	0.763	2.34	0.9835	0.387
			815.15	0.9922	1.56	-0.2400	-0.0290	1.029	0.13	0.9813	14.982
Weighted average			0.9950	0.83	-0.0657	-0.1645	0.554	2.54	0.9909	0.224	
			0.9948	1.15	-0.0566	-0.0104	0.763	0.14	0.9896	7.799	

303

304 4.3. Comparison with the contemporary satellite-based OHC models

305 Comparison of our ANN models with the existing models is crucial to determine the relative uncertainty in the OHC estimates.
 306 Previously, an ANN algorithm suite was developed by the National Remote Sensing Centre (NRSC) of ISRO to disseminate
 307 the daily OHC products over the North Indian Ocean (40°E-120°E, 0°-30°N) at a spatial resolution of 0.25 degree (Ali et al.,
 308 2012; Jagadeesh et al., 2015). This algorithm suite includes ANN models to estimate OHC at multiple depth extents such as
 309 50 m, 100 m, 150 m, 200 m, 300 m, 500 m, and 700 m for the given input data of sea level anomaly (SLA), SST, and OHC_{clim,d}.
 310 It estimates OHC changes by utilizing the satellite altimetry-based SLA data from AVISO (Archiving, Validation, and
 311 Interpretation of Satellite Oceanographic data) data portal, SST from the Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiometer-2
 312 (AMSR2) onboard JAXA's Global Change Observation Mission 1st-Water (GCOM-W1), and climatological OHC from the
 313 World Ocean Atlas-2009 monthly climatological CTD profiles. The multilayer perceptron regressor algorithm of neural
 314 networks with three hidden layers was used to estimate OHC of all seven depth extents. The number of data points used to
 315 develop and validate the NRSC-ANN algorithm were 11472 and 2479, respectively. To estimate OHC changes at different
 316 depths, this algorithm employs the Celsius scale, in-situ temperature, and average density data instead of the Kelvin scale,
 317 conservative temperature, and instantaneous density, respectively (see Eq. 3 in Jagadeesh et al., 2015).

318 For this inter-comparison purpose, validation datasets were prepared for the period of 2017-2020 by calculating in-
 319 situ OHC in both Kelvin and Celsius scales for the depth extents of 50 m, 100 m, 150 m, 200 m, 300 m, 500 m, and 700 m.
 320 Daily OHC data were obtained from the NRSC's Bhuvan portal and collocated with the corresponding Celsius-scaled in-situ
 321 OHC data to evaluate the NRSC-ANN model products. Similarly, satellite-based SST and ORA-based SSS data, and
 322 climatological TSL and OHC data were extracted by collocating with Kelvin-scaled in-situ OHC data for our ANN model to
 323 generate the OHC products. Evaluation of these two OHC products was done separately by means of the normalized metrics
 324 such as R, MBPE, and MAPE (Table 4).

325 **Table 4.** Statistical results for our ANN model and NRSC-ANN model obtained from another unseen dataset of different depth
 326 extents used in this study.

Depth (m)	N	R		MBPE (%)		MAPE (%)	
		NRSC-ANN model	Proposed ANN model	NRSC-ANN model	Proposed ANN model	NRSC-ANN model	Proposed ANN model
50	15595	0.9223	0.9303	-0.0012	0.0227	1.4762	0.1104
100	14546	0.8575	0.8780	-0.3539	0.0303	2.5145	0.1732
150	14303	0.7678	0.8215	-0.6887	-0.0263	3.2401	0.2053
200	13513	0.7169	0.8152	-1.1048	0.0072	3.4667	0.1903
300	12833	0.7732	0.8690	-1.2656	0.0218	3.1671	0.1525
500	12410	0.8965	0.9346	-0.6996	-0.0052	2.3939	0.1073
700	11959	0.9447	0.9628	-0.6214	-0.0370	2.0035	0.0891

327

328

329 As expected, our ANN model gave more accurate OHC estimates for all depth extents and hence yielded higher
330 correlation coefficients and lower errors as compared to the NRSC-ANN model. The accuracy of OHC estimates produced by
331 our ANN model also increased with depth in contrast to that of NRSC-ANN OHC estimates. Our ANN model was
332 accomplished with the selection of key input parameters based on a precise theoretical basis, accurate computation of in-situ
333 parameters, and selection of separate ANN architectures.

334 It should be mentioned that SLA is the combined outcome of temperature (thermosteric), salinity (halosteric), and
335 water mass changes in the oceanic water column. The direct use of satellite altimeter-derived SLA without eliminating
336 halosteric and water mass change components results in weaker correlations with OHC of various depth extents. Moreover,
337 the different time spans were used in the computation of the mean sea level at AVISO (1993-2012) and monthly climatology
338 data at WOA09 (1955-2006). The pair of merged SLA data from AVISO/CMEMS and climatological OHC data from WOA
339 could lead to discrepancies in OHC estimates. Hence, the prime criterion followed in choosing the input parameters in the
340 current study is the theoretical relationship between the input and output parameters rather than the direct usage of all the
341 relevant parameters. The one-to-one relationship between OHC and TSL is employed in the OHC modeling. To arrive at TSL,
342 the theoretical dependency of TSL on temperature and salinity is considered in TSL modeling work. However, SLA and
343 climatological OHC data of the same base period are desirable and can be used in OHC (TSL) modeling if available in the
344 future.

345 Celsius scale can be used to compute in-situ OHC where the temperature gradient is always on the positive side. The
346 usage of the Celsius scale when the temperatures are less than zero and greater than the seawater freezing point is not
347 appropriate because of the potential negative values. In addition, the conservative temperature is an accurate variable compared
348 to the direct in-situ temperature or potential temperature. It represents the actual heat content of a mixture of two water masses
349 which are characterized by variations of salinity, pressure, and temperature (Pawlowicz, 2013). Thus, the conservative
350 temperature is defined in absolute scale (Kelvin scale) and used to calculate the in-situ OHC. On the other hand, employing
351 instantaneous density rather than average density is essential to account for the variations in seawater density which is
352 determined by temperature and salinity changes.

353 The vertical distribution of conservative temperature varies from equatorial to polar regions, and it follows a non-
354 linear profile with a mixed layer at the top, a thermocline at the middle, and a deep ocean layer at the bottom. This suggests
355 that it is appropriate to customize the ANN hyperparameters for each modelling depth. In this study, hyperparameter tuning
356 was performed for each modelling depth and it resulted in a better understanding of OHC patterns at various depth extents.
357 Though a clear improvement was achieved with the proposed OHC models, a relatively lower correlation was observed for
358 our ANN models in the depth range of 100-300 m over the North Indian Ocean (refer to Table 4). Similar results were obtained
359 for the NRSC-ANN models as well. It implies that the proposed ANN models less generalized the OHC patterns at the
360 intermediate depths over the North Indian Ocean. The underlying factors for the less generalized OHC patterns are described
361 in the following section. Nevertheless, the results demonstrated that the proposed ANN models contributed to improving the
362 accuracy and quality of OHC products through the ocean thermal expansion method.

363 **4.4. Potential sources of uncertainty in OHC estimates**

364 The relationship between the surficial parameters (SST and SSS) and depth-integrated parameters (TSL and OHC) is the prime
365 factor for determining the efficiency of the proposed OHC models of various depth extents (Klemas and Yan, 2014). This
366 relationship is mainly influenced by a wide range of geophysical processes including ocean currents, vertical mixing
367 (upwelling/downwelling), stratification, fronts, gyres, eddies, and air-sea interface processes. In addition, different climate
368 modes and oscillations, solar radiation, sea ice, phytoplankton growth, freshwater inputs, and winds can also be considered in
369 this context. Monthly climatological CTD profiles obtained from the WOA-18 database were objectively analyzed to calculate
370 the mean SST and SSS fields over a period of 1955-2017. Hence, these climatological data along with real-time SST and SSS
371 data enabled the ANN models to better generalize the prevailing geophysical processes and subsequent patterns in TSL &
372 OHC of various depth extents. The same can be perceived from the improved accuracy levels observed during the validations
373 carried out on unseen data (refer to Sects. 4.1 and 4.2) and the comparison with NRSC-OHC model products (Sect. 4.3).

374 It should be noted that the established relationship between the input parameters (surficial and climatological) and
375 output parameters (TSL & OHC patterns) may not hold great in the events of the above complex geophysical processes where
376 the physical oceanographic conditions differ significantly from the prevailing conditions. Moreover, the relative contributions
377 of these geophysical processes are subject to vary depending on the time and location of the water parcel in oceans. Slightly
378 lower accuracy of the proposed ANN models can be attributed to the influence of these complex geophysical processes. The
379 in-situ and satellite-based retrieval of all these atmospheric/surface/subsurface processes and their incorporation into the ANN
380 models is difficult because of the scarcity/sparsity of the required datasets in different spatial, temporal, and vertical scales.
381 The above factors constitute a potential source of uncertainty in OHC estimates and reduce the generalization ability of the
382 model. Hence, it is advisable to carry out vicarious calibration with the help of contemporary in-situ CTD profiles before
383 adopting the OHC estimates for further scientific analyses of specific interest in both regional and global scales. Further efforts
384 are needed to better understand, quantify, and eliminate the different sources of observed uncertainties caused by the complex
385 geophysical oceanic processes. More number of in-situ CTD profiles are required to be collected and analyzed in such oceanic
386 regions to address the associated complex patterns and processes.

387 **5. Spatiotemporal variability of OHC**

388 Here, we present the long-term variability of model-derived OHC and its comparison with the existing global OHC products
389 for the period 1993-2020. The time period (1993-2020) was chosen based on the availability of satellite-based input data to
390 generate the model-derived OHC estimates and the existing OHC products considered. Thus, model-derived annual OHC
391 estimates were generated from 1993 to 2020 and computed annual time series of model-derived OHC anomalies (OHCA) with
392 reference to the 1993-2020 long-term mean. It is worth mentioning that the model-derived heat content estimates presented in
393 this section represent OHC changes in both shallower and deep oceanic basins of bathymetry levels ≥ 20 m. The bathymetry

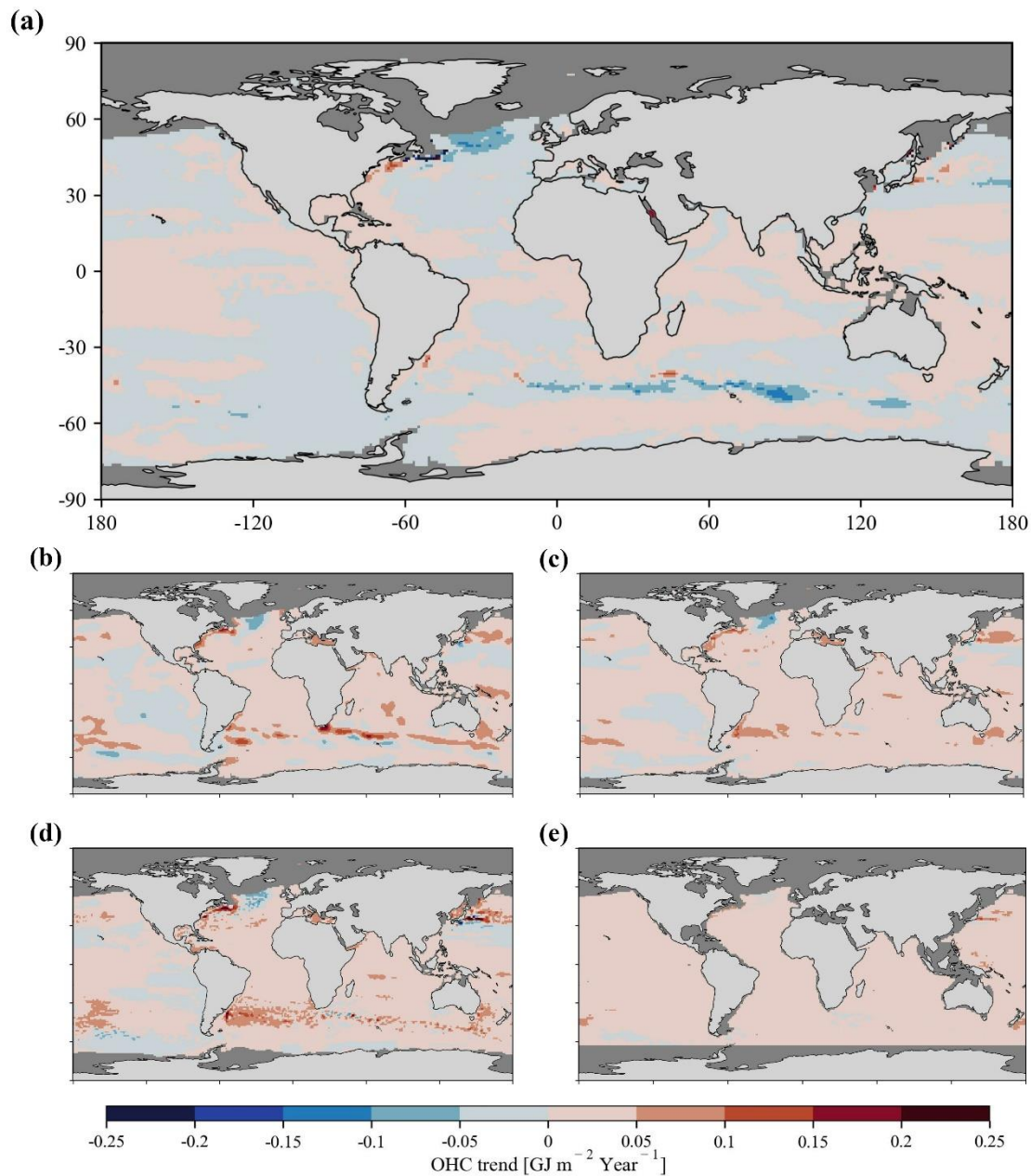
394 values of each pixel were rounded off to the nearest and lowest modeling depth (d) with the help of GEBCO-2020 bathymetry
395 data, and the corresponding OHC_d values were considered for that pixel (GEBCO Compilation Group, 2020).

396 On the other hand, OHCA time series annual maps obtained from various global OHC products such as the National
397 Centers for Environmental Information (NCEI), Institute of Atmospheric Physics (IAP), Pacific Marine Environmental
398 Laboratory (PMEL), and OPEN-LSTM have been employed for comparison. NCEI employs the Objective analysis method
399 on in-situ CTD profile data of World Ocean Database-2009 and estimates annual OHCA at a spatial resolution of 1° with
400 reference to the 1955-2006 long-term mean (Levitus et al., 2012). Similarly, IAP employs the ensemble optimal interpolation
401 with a dynamic ensemble approach on in-situ CTD profile data of World Ocean Database-2013 and distributes monthly OHC
402 estimates at a spatial resolution of 1° (Cheng et al., 2017). Annual OHC means were computed from IAP monthly OHC data,
403 and annual OHCA estimates were generated with reference to the 1993-2020 long-term mean. Recently, PMEL has developed
404 a random forest regression model to predict OHCA of 0-40 m, 40-90 m, 90-190 m, 190-290 m, 290-450 m, 450-700 m, 700-
405 950 m, 950-1450 m, etc with reference to the 1993-2022 long-term mean. This PMEL random forest regression model employs
406 satellite-based SST, SSH (SLA), latitude, longitude, and time data to predict weekly OHCA estimates at a spatial resolution
407 of 0.25° (Lyman and Johnson, 2023). In the current study, PMEL layer-wise OHCA estimates from surface to 700 m have
408 been summed up at each pixel to arrive at weekly OHCA spatial maps, and subsequently computed corresponding annual
409 OHCA estimates. Similarly, Su et al., (2021) have developed a long short-term memory neural network method to produce
410 monthly OHC estimates (OPEN-LSTM) at a spatial resolution of 1° . OPEN-LSTM employs satellite-based SSH (SLA), SST,
411 zonal and meridional components of sea surface wind, latitude, longitude, and day of the year to predict monthly OHC. Annual
412 OHC means were computed from OPEN-LSTM monthly OHC data, and annual OHCA estimates were generated with
413 reference to the 1993-2020 long-term mean.

414 Model-derived annual OHCA estimates were regridded to 1° spatial resolution to maintain uniform spatial reference
415 among all the OHC products considered. As the proposed models are built for open oceanic regions, the regions covered by
416 sea ice are masked in both the north and south poles by verifying the corresponding sea ice concentration data obtained from
417 the National Snow and Ice Data Center (Meier et al., 2021). Subsequently, long-term variability maps (Fig. 8) and time series
418 plots (Fig. 9) were produced to compare model-derived OHC estimates with the existing global OHC products. Further, the
419 information on percentage variance explained (PVE) by the observed long-term trend values is provided to realise the short-
420 term trends or periodic signals in OHC variability (Fig. A4). Higher PVE values indicate the persistent increase or decrease in
421 OHC throughout the study period, and vice versa.

422 Lower magnitudes of long-term warming/cooling trends ($\pm 0.05 \text{ GJ m}^{-2} \text{ Year}^{-1}$) are observed throughout the global
423 ocean (Fig. 8a). The corresponding PVE values are observed to be very low ($\leq 30\%$) which infer the intermittent trends in
424 majority of the global ocean rather than persistent warming/cooling (Fig. A4a). The same can be observed from the non-linear
425 distribution of OHCA time series indicating short-term periods of alternate warming and cooling during the study period (Fig.
426 9). However, the oceanic regions linked with Kuroshio current, Gulf stream, Antarctic circumpolar current, North Atlantic

427 cold blob, southeastern Pacific are experiencing relatively higher magnitudes of persistent warming/cooling (± 0.1 to 0.15 GJ
428 $\text{m}^{-2} \text{Year}^{-1}$, PVE 50-90%).

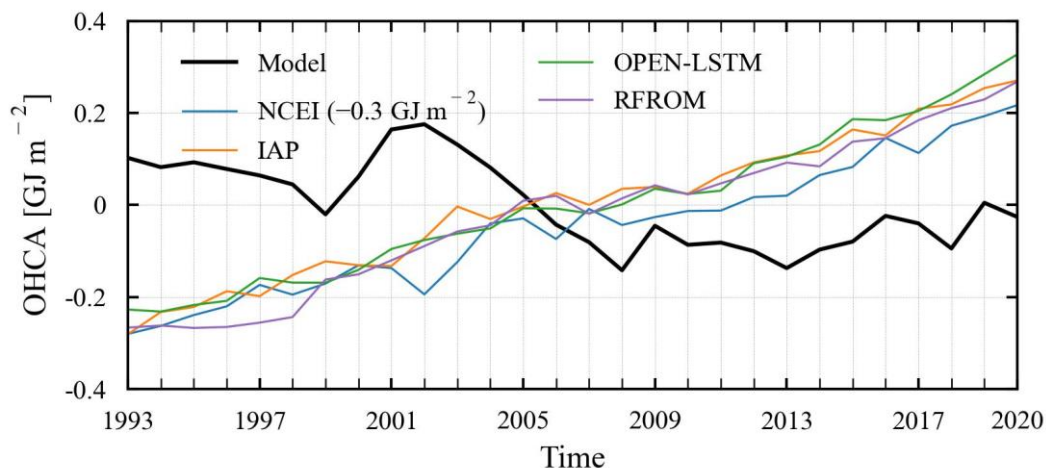


429

430 **Figure 8.** Spatial maps showing the long-term trends of OHC obtained from (a) the current model, (b) NCEI, (c) IAP, (d)
431 PMEL, and (e) OPEN-LSTM products. Note that the oceanic regions shallower than 20 m depth and/or covered with sea ice
432 are masked with a dark gray color.

433

434 The spatial patterns of OHCA trends observed from NCEI (Fig. 8b), IAP (Fig. 8c), and PMEL (Fig. 8d) products are
 435 almost similar and relatively more warming regions compared to the model-derived OHC estimates (Fig. 8a). Similarly, the
 436 spatial distribution of corresponding PVE values is also same in NCEI, IAP, and PMEL products with higher values over vast
 437 oceanic regions of the Atlantic, Indian, and southeastern Pacific Oceans (Figs. A4b-A4d). NCEI, IAP, and PMEL products
 438 indicating persistent warming conditions over the vast oceanic regions of the Pacific, Atlantic, and Indian Oceans. The same
 439 can be observed from the persistent long-term warming throughout the study period (Fig. 9). On the other hand, OPEN-LSTM
 440 OHC estimates indicating lower warming patterns all over the globe except the North Atlantic cold blob and some parts of the
 441 Antarctic circumpolar current (Fig. 8e) with higher PVE values over vast oceanic regions of Pacific, Atlantic, and Indian
 442 Oceans (Fig. A4e). As a result, persistent long-term warming has been observed throughout the study period (Fig. 9).



443
 444 **Figure 9.** Time series distribution of global mean OHCA obtained from the current model and the existing OHC products
 445 observed over the period 1993-2020. Note that the NCEI time series has been shifted by subtracting 0.3 GJ m^{-2} to better
 446 compare with the remaining OHC time series plots.

447 The observed time series plots have indicated contrasting trends between the current OHC model and the existing
 448 products. The observed time series plot of model-derived OHCA has indicated alternate periods of short-term cooling and
 449 warming during the current study period. Global open oceans have witnessed a cooling trend of $-0.017 \text{ GJ m}^{-2} \text{ Year}^{-1}$ (PVE
 450 76.99%) during 1993-1999, a warming trend of $+0.069 \text{ GJ m}^{-2} \text{ Year}^{-1}$ (PVE 92.73%) during 1999-2002, a cooling trend of
 451 $-0.054 \text{ GJ m}^{-2} \text{ Year}^{-1}$ (PVE 99.71%) during 2002-2008, and a warming trend of $+0.007 \text{ GJ m}^{-2} \text{ Year}^{-1}$ (PVE 36.50%) during
 452 2008-2020. The observed results indicate the efficiency of the current model by capturing the ocean cooling during 2003-2006
 453 (Loehle, 2009; Lyman et al., 2006) and the global warming hiatus during 1998-2013 (Trenberth, 2015). Whereas the observed
 454 time series plots of NCEI, IAP, PMEL, and OPEN-LSTM products indicated persistent warming trends of $+0.017 \text{ GJ m}^{-2} \text{ Year}^{-1}$
 455 1 (PVE 95.75%), $+0.019 \text{ GJ m}^{-2} \text{ Year}^{-1}$ (PVE 97.94%), $+0.0198 \text{ GJ m}^{-2} \text{ Year}^{-1}$ (PVE 97.19%), and $+0.0195 \text{ GJ m}^{-2} \text{ Year}^{-1}$ (PVE
 456 97.48%), respectively. However, full-depth pan-global mean OHCA estimates by including OHC estimates over ice-covered

457 oceanic regions are required to substantiate these global ocean cooling and global warming hiatus signatures, and to realize
458 the role of excess heat added by anthropogenic climate change.

459 **6. Conclusion**

460 Accurate reconstruction of OHC and analysis of its regional patterns and long-term global records are critical for estimating
461 the Earth Energy Imbalance and understanding the evolution of the climate change. Owing to the lack of instrumentation to
462 cover geographic and depth ranges, OHC estimates from the in-situ measured temperatures are temporally limited and
463 insufficiently widespread to capture its spatiotemporal changes and structures. OHC estimates from either different mapping
464 methods or Ocean reanalyses (ORAs) have yielded large uncertainties in past studies. Thus, improving OHC estimates through
465 a novel satellite-based method is the major step forward to overcome sparse observations and reduce the uncertainty in OHC
466 trends. In this study, we proposed an artificial network model to estimate OHC changes in global oceans. The proposed ANN
467 model incorporates the ocean thermal expansion method as a promising tool to estimate OHC changes from satellite data.
468 Accurate implementation of the ocean thermal expansion method was challenging due to the inability of the present-day
469 satellite systems to directly measure the ocean thermal expansion/contraction component. In this study, we proposed a satellite-
470 based novel approach to better implement the ocean thermal expansion method by establishing a relationship between the
471 surficial parameters such as SST & SSS and subsurface T-S profiles. This model predicts the depth-integrated TSL component
472 by making use of SST & SSS data and then utilizes the predicted TSL to estimate OHC changes. For this application, we
473 developed ANN models for TSL and OHC of various depth extents such as 20 m, 30 m, 40 m, 50 m, 100 m, 150 m, 200 m,
474 250 m, 300 m, 350 m, 400 m, 450 m, 500 m, 550 m, 600 m, 650 m, and 700 m. The performance of these TSL & OHC models
475 was assessed by using in-situ-based data and satellite-based validation data, which were extracted from the unseen in-situ CTD
476 profiles of the Argo program. Observed high correlations and low errors indicated that the proposed ANN models performed
477 exceptionally good on unseen data of all depth extents without any overfitting and can be used in conjunction with the sea ice
478 thermodynamics-based OHC model of the ice-covered oceanic regions (Prakash and Shanmugam, 2022) to better study the
479 pan-global OHC changes by covering both open and ice-covered oceans of varying bathymetry levels (≥ 20 m).

480 The model development and validation databases were prepared by using in-situ CTD profiles obtained from the Argo
481 program and collocated with the corresponding satellite-based daily data of SST (AVHRR v2.1) and SSS (ORAS5). The
482 multilayer perceptron regressor algorithm of deep neural networks was used and its architecture was optimized by evaluating
483 different combinations of hyperparameters for each modelling depth using the particle swarm optimization technique. Precise
484 consideration of theoretical aspects in the selection of input parameters, accurate computation of in-situ OHC, and customized
485 ANN architectures enabled the proposed models to establish the accurate relationships between the surficial parameters and
486 depth-integrated OHC (TSL) of various depths extents. The overall performance of the proposed models on satellite data was
487 good, suggesting that these models can be used for a variety of applications subjected to the accuracy requirements and can
488 produce accurate satellite-based OHC (TSL) estimates at various depth extents than previously possible. However, the
489 influence of complex geophysical processes on the generalization ability of ANN models is discussed, and realized that the

490 proposed models relatively less generalized the data in the events of complex geophysical processes. Further research should
491 focus on implementation of these models over the oceanic regions with complex geophysical processes. More number of in-
492 situ CTD profiles need to be collected and analyzed in such oceanic regions to address the associated complex patterns.
493 However, the scope of the current research includes minimizing the observed marginal gap by exploring new
494 methods/parametrizations in satellite-based OHC modelling approaches.

495 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

496 **Vijay Prakash Kondeti:** Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Funding acquisition, Investigation, Methodology,
497 Software, Validation, Visualization, and Writing - original draft. **Palanisamy Shanmugam:** Conceptualization, Formal
498 analysis, Funding acquisition, Investigation, Methodology, Project administration, Resources, Supervision, and Writing -
499 review & editing.

500 **Code and Data availability**

501 Data will be made available on request.

502 **Declaration of competing interest**

503 The authors declare no known competing financial or personal interests in this paper.

504 **Acknowledgement**

505 This research work was supported by The Prime Minister's Research Fellows (PMRF) Scheme and in part by the National
506 Geospatial Programme (NGP) of Department of Science and Technology of Government of India (Grant No:
507 OEC1819150DSTXPSHA). The authors are thankful to the Argo program for providing in-situ CTD profiles. They are grateful
508 to NOAA for WOD-18, WOA-18, and SST data; CMEMS for SSS data; NCEI, IAP, PMEL, and Science Data Bank for OHC
509 estimates; NSIDC for sea ice concentration data; and GEBCO for bathymetry data. The authors are thankful to the two
510 anonymous researchers for their constructive comments and recommendations.

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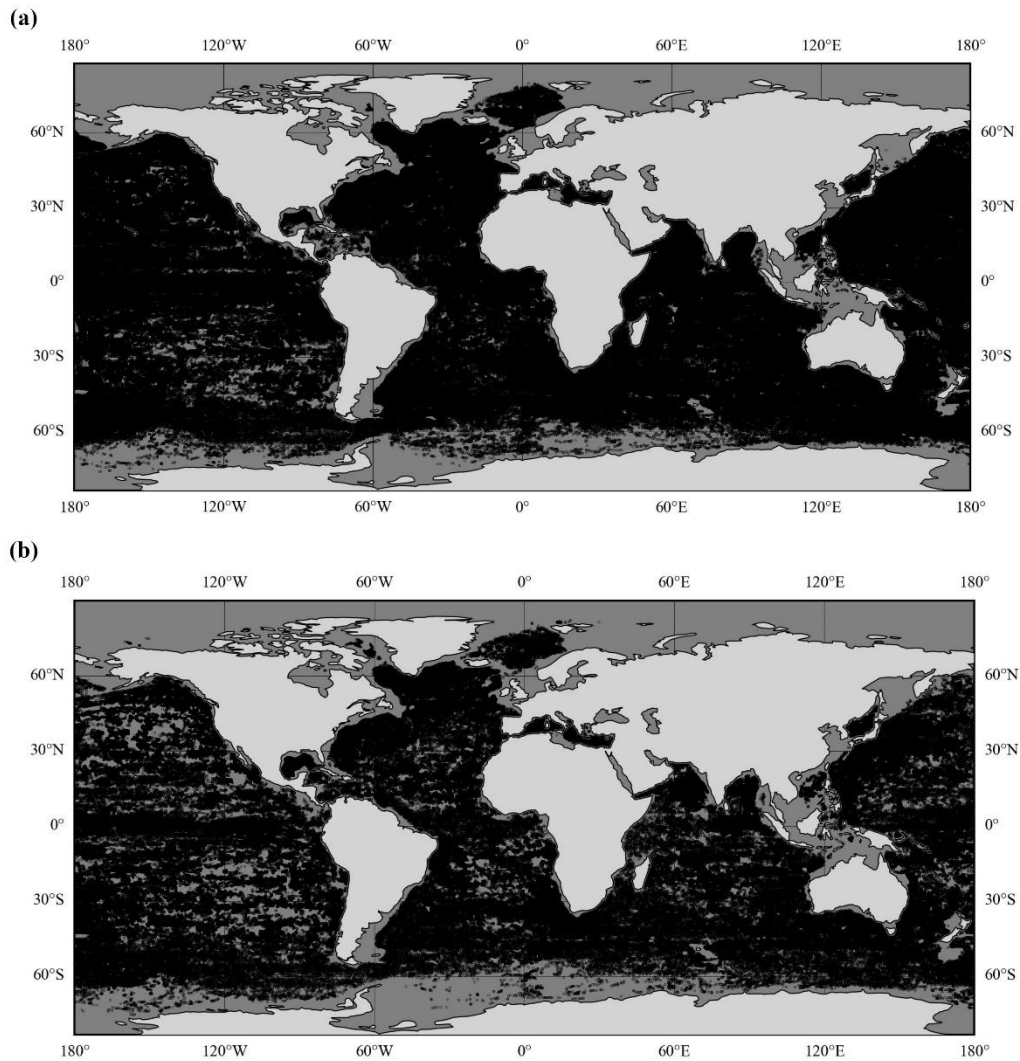
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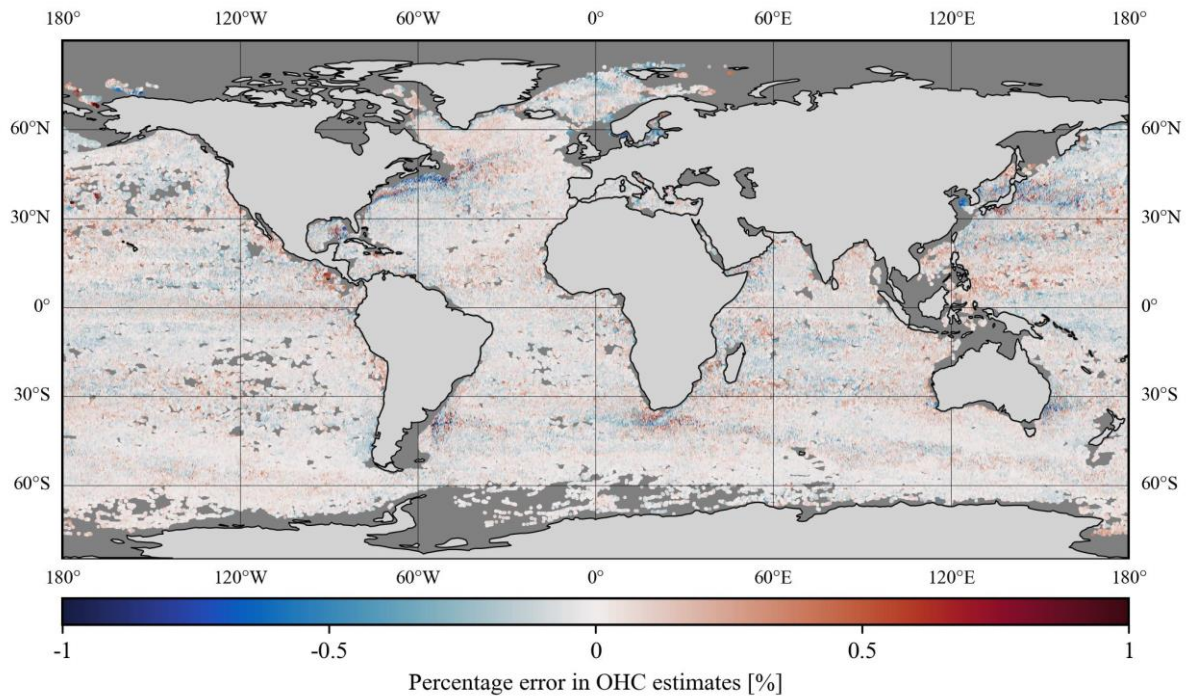
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 660 **Figure A1.** The spatial distribution of in-situ data points used for (a) model development (N=633004 Argo CTD profiles) and
 661 (b) validation (N=388469 unseen Argo CTD profiles) in the case of TSL₇₀₀ and OHC₇₀₀.

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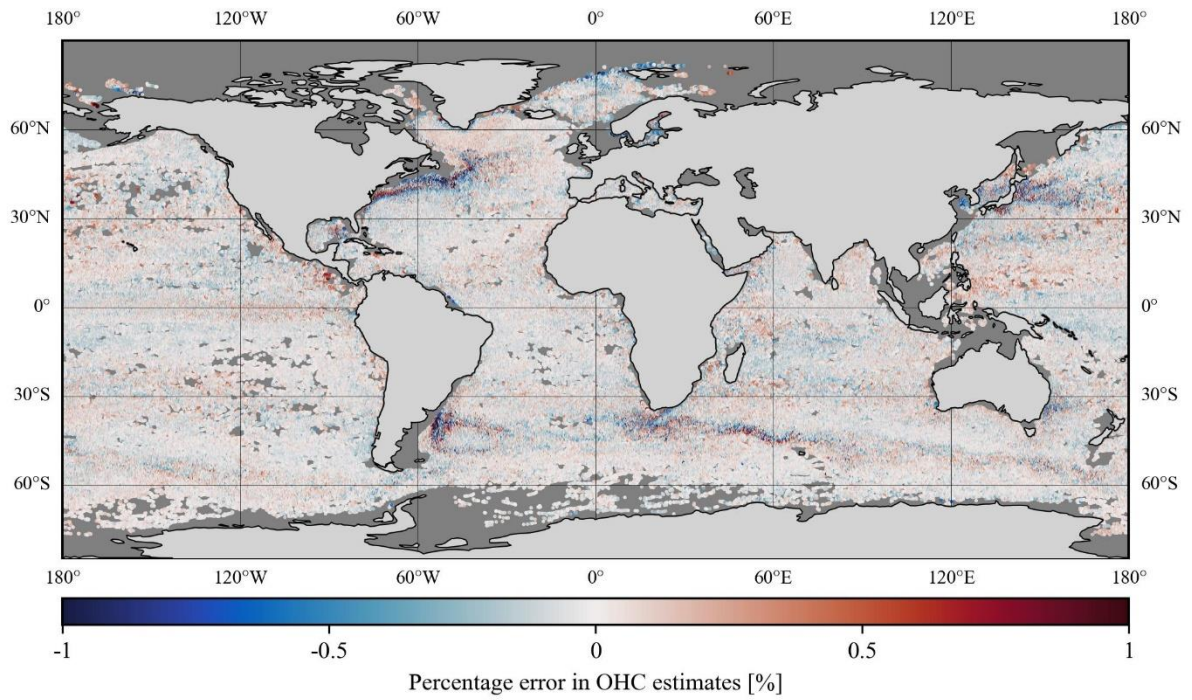


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667 **Figure A2.** Spatial distribution of mean percentage errors observed during the in-situ-based validation of OHC models. The
668 oceanic regions shallower than 20 m and/or covered with sea ice are marked with a dark gray color.

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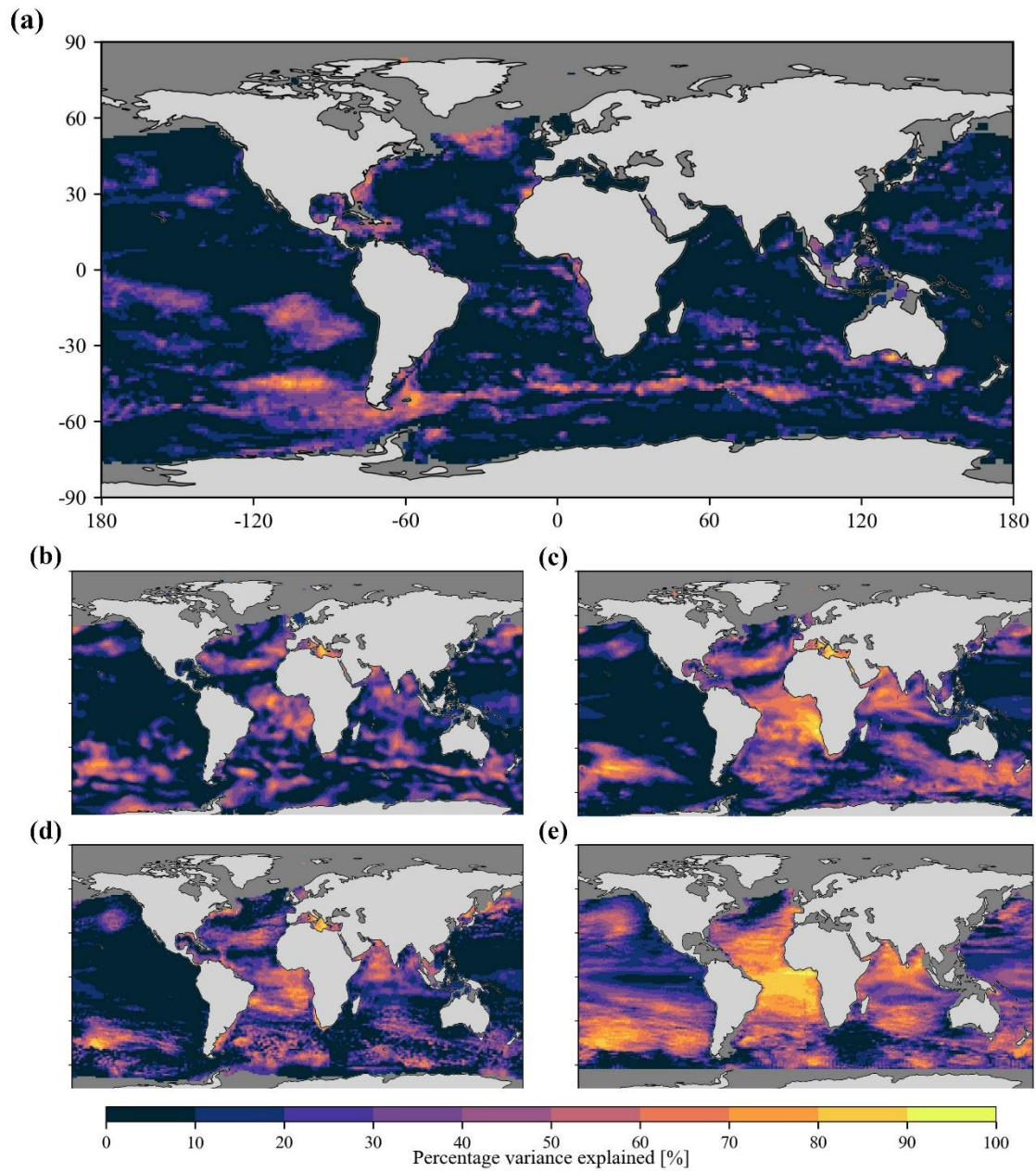
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672 **Figure A3.** Spatial distribution of mean percentage errors observed during the satellite-based validation of OHC. The oceanic
673 regions shallower than 20 m and/or covered with sea ice are marked with a dark gray color.

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676 **Figure A4.** Spatial maps showing the percentage variance explained by the OHC trends obtained from (a) the current model,
 677 (b) NCEI, (c) IAP, (d) PMEL, and (d) OPEN-LSTM products. Note that the oceanic regions shallower than 20 m depth and/or
 678 covered with sea ice are masked with a dark gray color.