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5 Multichannel Data Combined with Machine Learning

6 Author: Xiangqian Wei<sup>1,\*</sup>,

7 1. Hanjiang Normal University

8 \*. Correspondence: [weixiangqian@hjnu.edu.cn](mailto:weixiangqian@hjnu.edu.cn)

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# Retrieval of Cloud Optical Thickness Based on FY-4B Geostationary Satellite Multichannel Data Combined with Machine Learning

Xiangqian Wei<sup>1,\*</sup>,

1. Hanjiang Normal University

\*. Correspondence: weixiangqian@hjnu.edu.cn

**Abstract:** Accurate real-time retrieval of cloud optical thickness (COT) is of great significance for meteorological operations and climate research. To address the limitations of traditional physical methods, which rely on prior parameters, exhibit slow response times, and suffer from poor adaptability, this study proposes a COT retrieval method based on multichannel data from the FY-4B geostationary satellite combined with machine learning. Using FY-4B visible (0.65  $\mu\text{m}$ ) and near-infrared (3.7  $\mu\text{m}$ ) data as inputs and high-precision COT products from the FY-3F polar-orbiting satellite as ground truth, a total of 342 valid samples were constructed through spatiotemporal matching and quality control. Two neural network models were designed to achieve end-to-end retrieval. The results indicate that Model A, which employs a decoupled feature extraction strategy, achieves the best performance, with a correlation coefficient of 0.770 and a root mean square error of 4.532 relative to the measured values, along with good spatiotemporal consistency. This approach overcomes the observational limitations of polar-orbiting satellites and provides a new pathway for intelligent cloud parameter retrieval.

**Keywords:** cloud optical thickness; FY-4B; geostationary satellite; machine learning; neural network; remote sensing retrieval

## 1.Introduction

Clouds play a central role in regulating the energy balance and hydrological cycle of the Earth–atmosphere system. Cloud optical thickness (COT), a key parameter characterizing the attenuation of solar radiation by clouds, directly reflects cloud layer thickness, condensate content, and vertical structure, and maintains a well-defined physical relationship with cloud geometric thickness and effective droplet radius<sup>[1][2][3]</sup>. In operational applications, accurate and real-time COT retrievals are essential for nowcasting precipitation, identifying severe convective cloud clusters, and enabling quantitative precipitation estimation. They also provide critical support for weather modification operations, aircraft icing risk warnings, and solar energy resource

44 assessment<sup>[4][5][6]</sup>. In research contexts, COT serves as a fundamental input for  
45 calculating atmospheric radiative budgets, constraining climate models, and  
46 investigating aerosol–cloud interactions, with the accuracy and timeliness of retrievals  
47 directly determining the reliability of such studies<sup>[7][8][9][10][11]</sup>.

48  
49 Current mainstream COT retrieval methods are primarily based on traditional  
50 physical models, including lookup table approaches using radiative transfer models  
51 such as SBDART and 6S, optimal estimation methods, and empirical statistical  
52 regression techniques<sup>[12][13]</sup>. While these methods are physically transparent and form  
53 the algorithmic basis for existing satellite COT products, they face significant  
54 challenges in large-scale operational applications. First, they rely heavily on a priori  
55 inputs such as surface albedo and atmospheric profiles, requiring multi-source  
56 observational data from weather radars and radiosondes, which incur high acquisition  
57 costs, complex processing workflows, and long processing times<sup>[14]</sup>. Second, the  
58 computational complexity of radiative transfer simulations and lookup table matching  
59 leads to long operational latency, making it difficult to meet the real-time demands of  
60 nowcasting<sup>[15]</sup>. Third, their adaptability across diverse cloud scenes remains limited;  
61 they struggle with both the weak signals from thin cirrus clouds and the saturation  
62 issues in thick convective clouds, resulting in substantially reduced accuracy under  
63 heterogeneous cloud conditions<sup>[16][17][18][19]</sup>.

64 The emergence of machine learning methods has provided a new pathway for the  
65 operational retrieval of cloud optical thickness (COT). Characterized by an end-to-end  
66 retrieval paradigm, these approaches eliminate the need for complex radiative transfer  
67 simulations and manual a priori inputs, enabling the automatic extraction of  
68 deep-level features such as spatial texture and inter-band correlations from  
69 multispectral satellite data<sup>[20][21][22][23]</sup>. Furthermore, the inference speed of a trained  
70 model can be exceptionally fast, meeting the requirements of both real-time  
71 performance and adaptability to complex scenarios<sup>[24][25][26]</sup>. To this end, this paper  
72 proposes a COT retrieval method based on multispectral data from the FY-4B  
73 geostationary satellite combined with deep learning. Leveraging the advantages of  
74 FY-4B’s high temporal resolution (minute-level) and multispectral (visible to infrared)  
75 observations, the method captures the dynamic evolution of cloud systems in real time.  
76 High-precision COT products from the FY-3F polar-orbiting satellite are used as  
77 ground truth labels to construct a spatiotemporally complementary training dataset,  
78 thereby overcoming the operational bottlenecks of traditional methods and addressing  
79 the reliance on simulated data that characterizes existing machine learning-based  
80 approaches.

81 The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Chapter 2 provides a detailed  
82 description of the study data and the construction of the dataset. Chapter 3 presents  
83 the retrieval model architecture and training strategy. Chapter 4 describes the model  
84 validation and analysis of results. Chapter 5 discusses the limitations of the model and  
85 directions for future optimization. Chapter 6 concludes the paper.

## 86 **2. Dataset Construction Methodology**

### 87 **2.1 Data Sources and Key Characteristics**

88 This study utilizes data from China's Fengyun series of satellites, with the study  
89 area covering China and the surrounding Asia-Pacific region ( $70^{\circ}\text{E}$ – $140^{\circ}\text{E}$ ,  
90  $15^{\circ}\text{N}$ – $55^{\circ}\text{N}$ ). Model inputs are derived from the core channel data of the Advanced  
91 Geostationary Radiation Imager (AGRI) onboard the FY-4B geostationary satellite for  
92 the year 2025<sup>[27][28]</sup>, including the visible ( $0.65\ \mu\text{m}$ ) and near-infrared ( $3.7\ \mu\text{m}$ )  
93 channels. The data have a temporal resolution of 15 minutes and a spatial resolution  
94 of 4 km for the visible and infrared channels, with the original data stored in image  
95 format.

96 The cloud optical thickness (COT) product retrieved from the Medium  
97 Resolution Spectral Imager II (MERSI-LL) onboard the FY-3F polar-orbiting satellite  
98 during the same period is selected as the ground truth label. The satellite operates on a  
99 sun-synchronous orbit at an altitude of 830 km, with a single daily overpass (local  
100 time 10:30–11:30) and a spatial resolution of 5 km. The retrieval accuracy of the valid  
101 data is better than 15%. The product includes fields for COT, cloud phase, and quality  
102 flags, and is stored in HDF5 format.

### 103 **2.2 Data Preprocessing and Spatiotemporal Matching**

104 The FY-4B data undergo coordinate calibration and georeferencing, followed by  
105 bilinear interpolation to uniformly resample all channels onto a  $0.1^{\circ} \times 0.1^{\circ}$   
106 equal-latitude-longitude grid. Abnormal pixels affected by radiance saturation or  
107 calibration failure are removed. The FY-3F products are subjected to geographic  
108 coordinate correction and then interpolated onto the same unified grid using the  
109 inverse distance weighting method, with simultaneous spatial matching of cloud  
110 phase and quality flags.

111 For temporal matching, the FY-3F overpass center time is used as the reference,  
112 and the nearest FY-4B observations within a  $\pm 15$ -minute window are paired. Spatially,  
113 a pixel-to-pixel correspondence between inputs and labels is achieved based on the  
114 unified grid.

### 115 **2.3 Quality Control and Dataset Partitioning**

116 A three-tier quality control procedure is implemented to screen valid samples:

117 ① Physical outliers with  $\text{COT} < 0$  or  $\text{COT} > 100$ , as well as pixels with invalid  
118 quality flags, are removed.

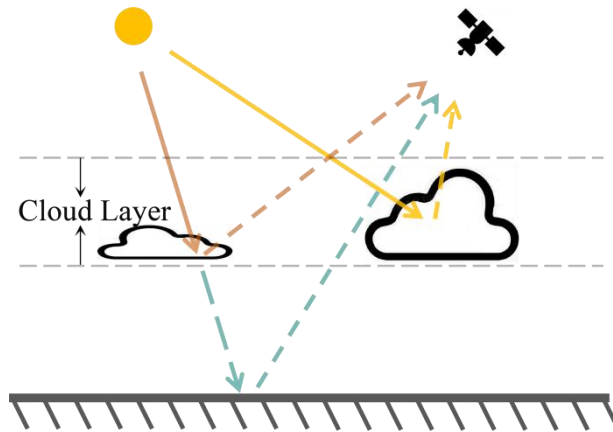
119 ② Sample groups with a cloud region overlap ratio between the two satellites of  
120 at least 80% are retained.

121 ③ Sample groups in which invalid pixels account for more than 20% of the total  
122 are excluded. Following this procedure, a total of 342 valid sample groups are  
123 obtained.

124 For dataset partitioning, a temporal stratified random partitioning strategy is  
125 adopted. Each month is divided into three subsets (early, middle, and late ten-day  
126 periods), and each subset is divided into training, validation, and test sets at a ratio of  
127 7:1:2. During training, temporal reshuffling is applied to enhance sample diversity,  
128 with samples grouped in batches of four to form training combinations.

### 129 3. Neural Network Model Architecture

130 Traditional physical methods for retrieving cloud optical thickness rely on  
131 radiative transfer models, such as SBDART, to simulate the contributions of various  
132 radiative pathways. However, these methods require precise a priori parameters,  
133 including surface albedo and atmospheric profiles, and involve substantial  
134 computational complexity.



135  
136

Figure 1 Schematic diagram of the radiative transfer path observed by the satellite.

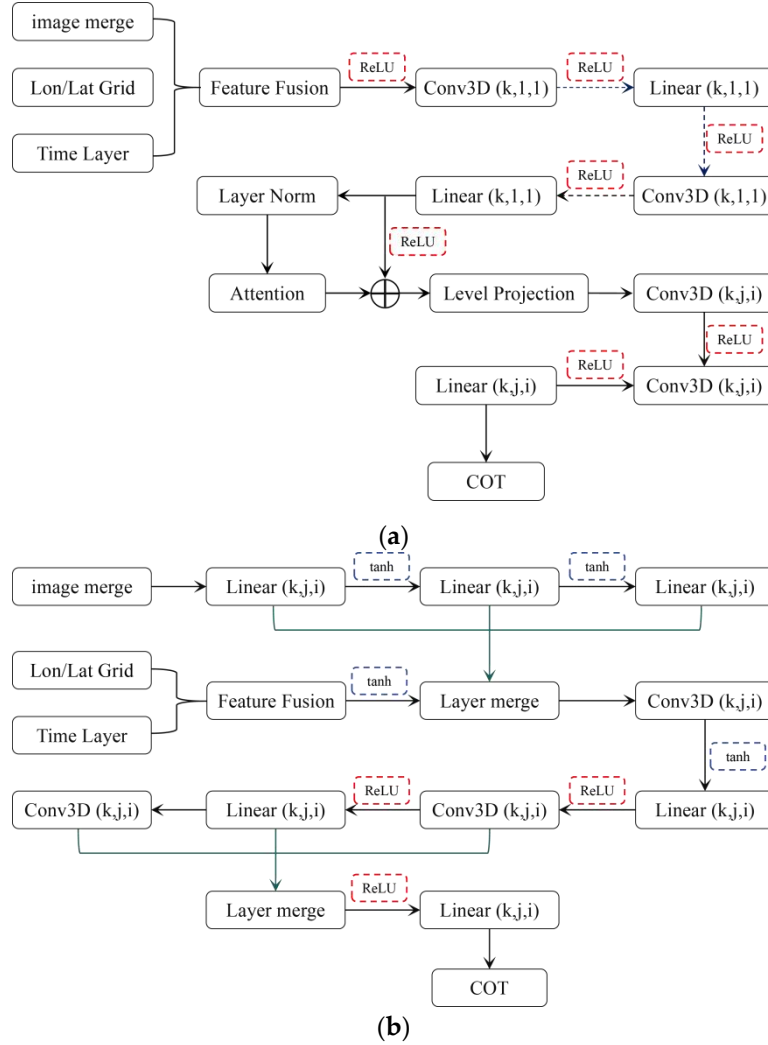
137 As illustrated in Figure 1, the diagram depicts the reflection path of light by  
138 clouds. Optical thickness characterizes the degree of attenuation of direct solar  
139 radiation by the cloud layer. A portion of the solar radiation obstructed by the cloud is  
140 reflected toward the satellite receiver. Consequently, a distinct relationship exists  
141 between satellite remote sensing imagery and cloud optical thickness.

142 Neural network methods, through end-to-end learning, can automatically extract  
143 key features associated with in-cloud reflection, thereby avoiding reliance on complex  
144 physical models while simultaneously improving retrieval efficiency and adaptability  
145 to diverse scenarios.

### 146 3.1 Overall Model Computational Framework

147 In this study, two neural network models are designed to achieve end-to-end COT  
148 retrieval. Both models take FY-4B multispectral fusion data as input, adapt to the

149 observational characteristics of polar-orbiting satellites, and optimize the error only  
 150 over effective observation regions.



151

Figure 2 Flowchart framework of the two models. (a) Model A; (b) Model B.

152 As illustrated in Figure 2, Model A adopts a decoupled design that prioritizes the  
 153 extraction of vertical dimensional features to reduce computational redundancy.  
 154 Model B employs an end-to-end full extraction architecture that fully exploits  
 155 three-dimensional spatiotemporal correlations. A comparative validation is conducted  
 156 to evaluate the applicability of the vertical feature decoupling strategy.

### 157 3.2 Model A

158 As illustrated in Figure 2a, Model A adopts a design philosophy of "vertical  
 159 dimension prioritization supplemented by global feature extraction." After inputting  
 160 multispectral fused images, latitude–longitude grids, and temporal features, the model  
 161 employs Conv3D (k,1,1) and Linear (k,1,1) layers to extract core features along the  
 162 vertical dimension. The Level Projection layer subsequently performs vertical  
 163 information fusion, followed by Layer Normalization and attention mechanism  
 164 enhancement. Through Linear (k,j,i) and Conv3D (k,j,i) layers, three-dimensional

165 global feature fusion is accomplished, and the final COT result is output after ReLU  
166 activation. Specifically, the Level Projection layer first expands the number of vertical  
167 levels to a specified count of  $2n$  layers and then reduces them to  $n$  layers via  
168 convolution, thereby achieving information fusion along the vertical direction.

### 169 **3.3 Model B Computational Workflow**

170 As illustrated in Figure 2b, Model B adopts a framework of "full  
171 three-dimensional extraction and iterative multilevel fusion." After integrating the  
172 multisource input features, Conv3D ( $k,j,i$ ) and Linear ( $k,j,i$ ) layers are used to  
173 simultaneously extract three-dimensional spatiotemporal features. Nonlinear  
174 expressiveness is enhanced through multiple rounds of ReLU activation. Layer merge  
175 operations are employed to superimpose and fuse features from different levels, and  
176 the "Conv3D/Linear + ReLU" modules are iteratively applied to deepen feature  
177 mining, ultimately producing the COT result directly.

### 178 **3.2 Model Training Configuration**

179 Framework and Data: Implemented using PyTorch 2.0, with the training data  
180 consisting of a spatiotemporally matched cloud optical thickness dataset derived from  
181 FY-4B and FY-3F.

182 Optimization Strategy: The AdamW optimizer is employed with a weight decay  
183 of  $1e-4$  and an initial learning rate of  $0.001$ . This is combined with a cosine annealing  
184 scheduler ( $T_{max}=100$ , minimum learning rate= $1e-6$ ) and an early stopping  
185 mechanism that terminates training if the validation loss does not decrease for 30  
186 consecutive epochs. Mixed precision training (FP16) is adopted.

187 Loss Function: A masked mean squared error (Masked MSE) is utilized to  
188 compute the loss exclusively over valid observation regions, thereby avoiding  
189 interference from non-observed areas. The formula is as follows:

$$190 \quad MSE = \frac{1}{N_{valid}} \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - y_{simu,i})^2 \quad (1)$$

191 Here,  $N_{valid}$  denotes the number of valid samples,  $y_i$  represents the true Cloud  
192 Optical Thickness (COT) value of the  $i$ -th sample (derived from FY-3F data), and  
193  $y_{simu,i}$  is the corresponding simulated value from the model.

194 This loss function effectively avoids the interference of invalid errors from  
195 unobserved regions during training, focusing on optimizing model parameters with  
196 valid data. It has a smooth gradient and is computationally efficient, enabling stable  
197 model convergence.

### 198 **3.3 Model Performance Evaluation**

199 To comprehensively quantify the retrieval accuracy of the model, three core

200 metrics are employed on an independent test set, collectively assessing the error  
 201 magnitude, dispersion, linear correlation, and explanatory power:

202 (1) Mean Absolute Error (MAE)

$$203 \quad MAE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N |y_i - y_{simu,i}| \quad (2)$$

204 (2) Root Mean Square Error (RMSE)

$$205 \quad RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - y_{simu,i})^2} \quad (3)$$

206 (3) Correlation Coefficient (CC)

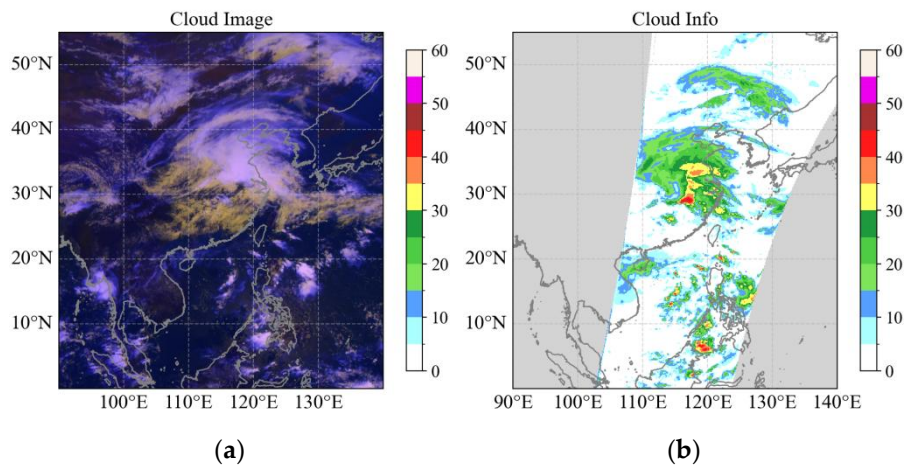
$$207 \quad CC = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \bar{y})(y_{simu,i} - \bar{y}_{simu})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \bar{y})^2 \sum_{i=1}^N (y_{simu,i} - \bar{y}_{simu})^2}} \quad (4)$$

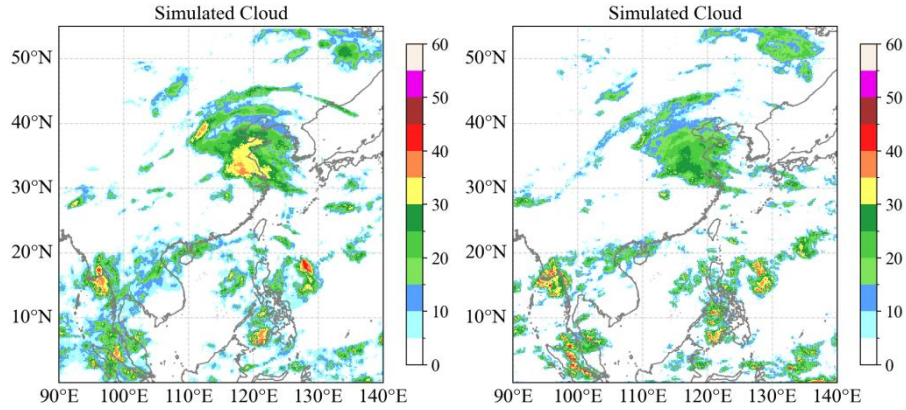
208 Here, N denotes the total number of samples,  $y_i$  represents the true Cloud Optical  
 209 Thickness (COT) value of the  $i$ -th sample (derived from FY-3F data),  $\bar{y}$  is the mean  
 210 value of the sample  $y$ ,  $y_{simu,i}$  is the simulated value, and  $\bar{y}_{simu,i}$  is the mean value of the  
 211 simulated values.

212 These metrics comprehensively evaluate model performance from four  
 213 dimensions: error magnitude, error distribution, linear correlation, and model  
 214 explanatory power.

## 215 4.Result

216 This chapter evaluates the COT retrieval performance of two models (Model A and  
 217 Model B) from the perspectives of quantitative accuracy and spatial distribution using  
 218 an independent test set, with the effectiveness validated through typical cloud system  
 219 case studies and statistical analysis.





220

(c)

(d)

221

Figure 3 Remote sensing data and optical thickness retrieval results, taking the results at 2:30 on May 8,

222

2025, as an example. (a) FY-4B visible light image; (b) FY-3F cloud optical thickness product; (c)

223

Cloud optical thickness retrieval results of Model A; (d) Cloud optical thickness retrieval results of Model B.

224

As illustrated in Figure 3, Figure a is the visible light image from the FY-4B

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geostationary satellite, and Figure b is the cloud optical thickness image retrieved

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from the FY-3F polar-orbiting satellite. Figures c and d show the outputs of Model A

227

and Model B, respectively. It can be observed from the figure that the application of

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the neural network models extends the detection coverage of the polar-orbiting

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satellite. Given that the FY-3F polar-orbiting satellite passes over the same region

230

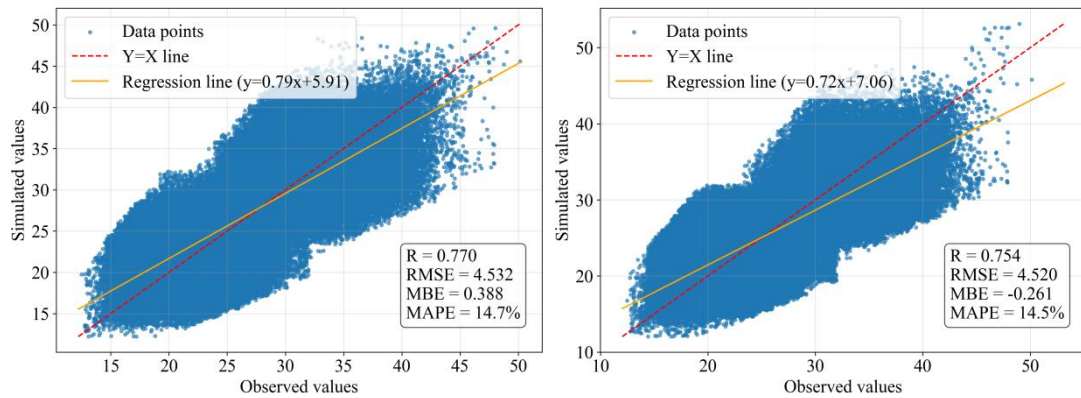
only once per day, resulting in sparse observational data, the use of neural network

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models significantly addresses this limitation and effectively captures the spatial

232

distribution characteristics of cloud systems.



233

(a)

(b)

234

Figure 4 Regression scatter plots for the test set of the two models. (a) Results of Model A; (b) Results

235

of Model B.

236

As shown in Figure 4, the relationship between the cloud optical thickness

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retrieved by the models and the actual observations is presented in the form of scatter

238

plots. The horizontal axis represents the observed values (ground truth), while the

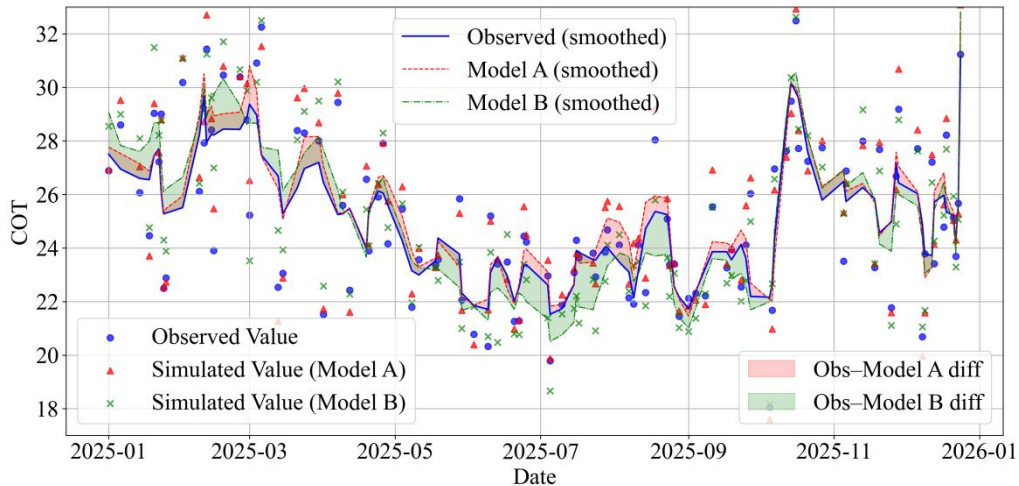
239

vertical axis represents the simulated values (model retrievals). Ideally, all points

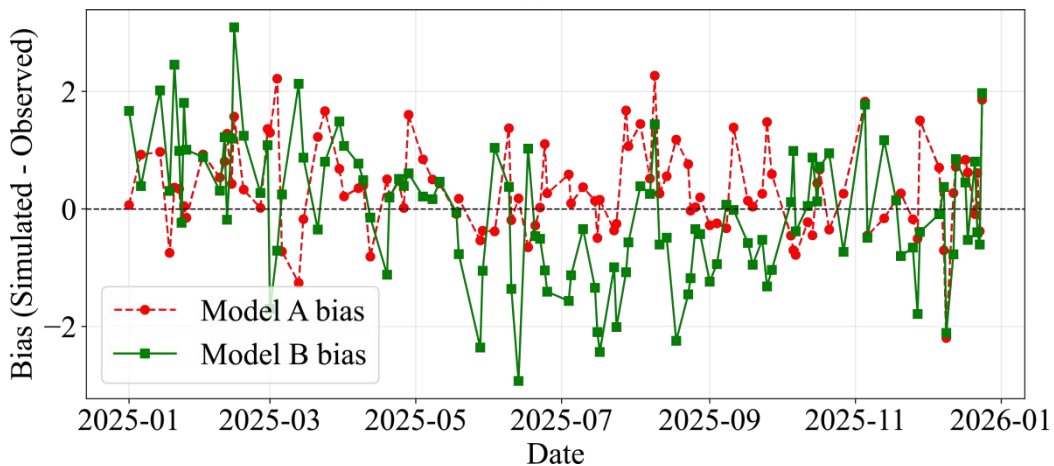
239

should lie near the  $y = x$  diagonal line; the closer and more concentrated the points are

240 around this diagonal, the higher the model accuracy. The scatter points of Model A are  
 241 tightly distributed around the  $y = x$  diagonal across a wide range, indicating high  
 242 accuracy and low systematic error in cloud optical thickness retrieval. In contrast, the  
 243 scatter points of Model B are predominantly located below the diagonal, with the  
 244 retrieved values generally lower than the observations, revealing a clear systematic  
 245 underestimation, along with a narrower dynamic range of the retrieved values. These  
 246 results demonstrate that both models are capable of achieving spatiotemporal  
 247 extension of polar-orbiting satellite cloud optical thickness, yet Model A exhibits  
 248 superior quantitative accuracy.



(a)

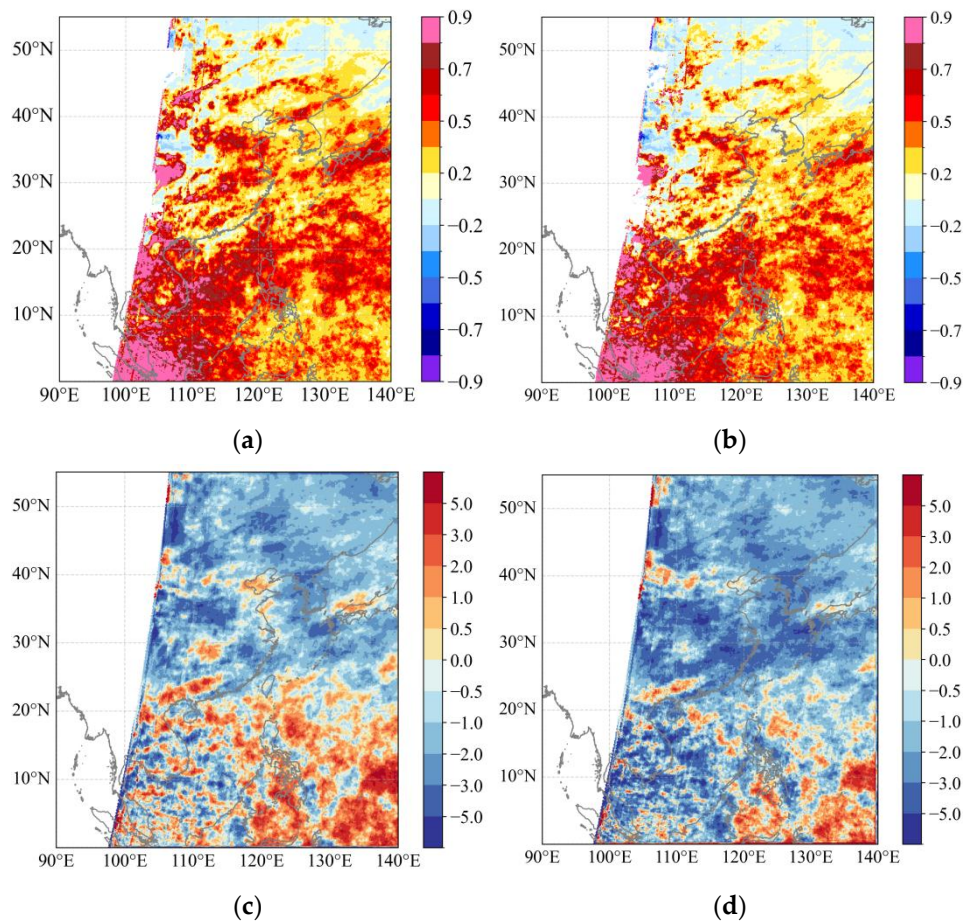


(b)

249 Figure 5 Daily mean distribution of the two models on the test set. (a) Distribution results of the two  
 250 models; (b) Difference between the two models and the observations.

251 In the initial model design, training and test sets were established for each month.  
 252 Figure 5a presents the daily mean distribution of the two models (Model A and Model  
 253 B) on the test set, along with their differences from the observations, to evaluate the  
 254 temporal consistency and bias characteristics of the model retrieval results. The  
 255 horizontal axis represents the date (from January 2025 to January 2026), and the  
 256 vertical axis represents the daily mean cloud optical thickness (COT), with the curves

257 showing the 7-point smoothed results of the scatter points. In terms of distribution  
 258 trends, the simulated values of Model A (red triangles) exhibit a high degree of  
 259 consistency with the observations (blue circles) in daily variation, covering a wide  
 260 range with closely matched values. Although the simulated values of Model B (green  
 261 crosses) show a generally similar trend, the deviation is slightly larger. Figure 5b  
 262 shows the differences between the two models and the observations. Model A  
 263 demonstrates a high alignment with the observations in daily variation, with smaller  
 264 and more stable errors (narrow and uniform difference range), whereas Model B  
 265 exhibits systematic underestimation (with simulated values generally lower than the  
 266 observations).



267  
 268 Figure 6 Statistical results of the two models against the measured data. (a) Temporal correlation  
 269 coefficient between Model A and the measured data; (b) Temporal correlation coefficient between  
 270 Model B and the measured data; (c) Mean error distribution between Model A and the measured data;  
 (d) Mean error distribution between Model B and the measured data.

271 Figure 6 presents the statistical results between the two models (Model A and  
 272 Model B) and the measured data on the test set. Figures a and b show the correlation  
 273 coefficient distributions of Model A and Model B with respect to the measured data,  
 274 respectively, while Figures c and d show the mean error distributions of the  
 275 differences between Model A and Model B and the measured data, respectively.  
 276 Figures a and b indicate that both Model A and Model B exhibit an overall positive  
 277 correlation with the measured data, with some negative correlations observed in

278 regions north of 30°N. The spatial correlation coefficient of Model A is slightly higher  
279 than that of Model B. Figures c and d show that for Model B, the differences from the  
280 measured data are predominantly negative across most regions. For Model A, the  
281 differences from the measured data are negative in regions north of 30°N and positive  
282 in regions south of 30°N.

## 283 **5. Discussion**

### 284 **5.1 Model Performance Advantages and Limitations**

285 In this study, two neural network models based on FY-4B multi-channel data are  
286 proposed to achieve end-to-end retrieval of cloud optical thickness. The key  
287 advantage lies in overcoming the spatiotemporal resolution limitations of the  
288 polar-orbiting satellite FY-3F. By leveraging the minute-scale, wide-coverage  
289 observation characteristics of geostationary satellites, the proposed approach  
290 accomplishes spatiotemporal extension retrieval of cloud optical thickness, addressing  
291 the challenges of traditional physical methods such as reliance on prior parameters,  
292 slow operational response, and limited scenario adaptability. This provides an  
293 efficient machine learning solution for real-time retrieval of cloud optical thickness.

294 Although both models achieve effective retrieval, notable limitations remain.  
295 Model A demonstrates superior overall quantitative accuracy but exhibits a weak  
296 negative correlation in high-latitude regions, which may be attributed to the training  
297 data being concentrated in the time window of UTC 2:00–2:30, where such regions  
298 are predominantly under nighttime conditions. Additionally, its retrieval accuracy for  
299 extremely thick convective clouds (COT > 40) still requires improvement, as the  
300 dispersion of simulated results in high-value areas remains to be reduced. Model A, in  
301 contrast, exhibits pronounced systematic underestimation, which is speculated to  
302 result from overfitting to three-dimensional spatiotemporal features due to its  
303 full-extraction architecture, leading to insufficient signal response for high-value  
304 cloud systems. Furthermore, its spatial consistency is inferior to that of Model A, with  
305 retrieval errors being more pronounced in regions characterized by strong cloud  
306 inhomogeneity.

### 307 **5.2 Targeted Optimization Strategies**

308 To address the aforementioned limitations, lightweight optimization strategies are  
309 proposed from three aspects: model architecture, dataset, and training strategy.

310 Model architecture: A multi-scale feature fusion module (e.g., multi-kernel  
311 Conv3D) is introduced into Model A to enhance its feature representation capability  
312 for complex cloud systems in high-latitude regions. For Model B, an SE attention  
313 mechanism is embedded to guide the model in focusing on key features relevant to  
314 cloud optical thickness retrieval while suppressing redundant information, thereby

315 alleviating the systematic underestimation issue.

316 Dataset: Samples from high-latitude and complex terrain regions are  
317 supplemented to improve the model's adaptability to varying illumination and  
318 topographic conditions. Multi-source data, including FY-3F cloud phase products and  
319 ground-based observations, are integrated to impose additional physical constraints on  
320 extreme cloud system retrieval.

321 Training strategy: Adversarial training is employed to reduce model overfitting to  
322 specific cloud types. A spatial smoothing term is incorporated into the loss function to  
323 enhance the spatial consistency of retrieval results.

324

### 325 **5.3 Future Work**

326 In future work, the models will be refined based on the proposed optimization  
327 strategies and validated globally to further improve their generalization capability.  
328 Collaborative retrieval methods leveraging multi-source data from FY-4B, FY-3F, and  
329 other Fengyun series satellites will be explored to achieve accurate cloud optical  
330 thickness retrieval with high spatiotemporal resolution. Additionally, the retrieval  
331 results will be integrated with numerical weather prediction models to investigate  
332 their practical applicability in nowcasting of short-term heavy precipitation and  
333 identification of severe convective cloud clusters, thereby providing higher-quality  
334 cloud parameters for operational meteorological applications.

335 In summary, this study demonstrates the feasibility and advantages of machine  
336 learning methods for satellite-based cloud optical thickness retrieval. The identified  
337 model limitations and the proposed optimization strategies offer valuable insights for  
338 future research on intelligent retrieval of cloud remote sensing parameters.

### 339 **6 Conclusions**

340 This study proposes a machine learning-based method for retrieving cloud optical  
341 thickness (COT) using multi-channel data from the FY-4B geostationary satellite.  
342 High-precision COT products from the polar-orbiting FY-3F satellite are employed as  
343 ground truth labels to construct a spatiotemporally matched training dataset. Two  
344 models are designed: Model A, which adopts a decoupled feature extraction strategy,  
345 and Model B, which performs full three-dimensional feature extraction, enabling  
346 end-to-end COT retrieval. This approach effectively addresses the limitations of  
347 traditional physical retrieval methods, such as dependence on prior parameters, slow  
348 operational response, and limited scenario adaptability, while also overcoming the  
349 spatiotemporal resolution constraints of polar-orbiting satellites. Leveraging the  
350 minute-scale, wide-coverage observational advantages of FY-4B, this method  
351 achieves spatiotemporal extension retrieval of COT.

352 Experimental results demonstrate that both models effectively retrieve COT, with  
353 Model A exhibiting superior performance. For Model A, the correlation coefficient

354 with observed values reaches 0.770, with an RMSE of 4.532. Its temporal variation  
355 trends are highly consistent with observations, and it demonstrates better spatial  
356 correlation and more stable errors. Although Model B captures the overall distribution  
357 characteristics of COT, it suffers from systematic underestimation, with a correlation  
358 coefficient of 0.754 and slightly inferior spatial consistency compared to Model A.  
359 The decoupled feature extraction strategy, which prioritizes the vertical dimension,  
360 more efficiently captures the core features of COT while reducing computational  
361 redundancy, making it better suited for COT retrieval compared to the full  
362 three-dimensional feature extraction architecture.

363 This study validates the feasibility and practicality of machine learning methods  
364 for satellite-based COT retrieval, offering a novel approach for the intelligent retrieval  
365 of cloud parameters from geostationary satellites. Future efforts involving model  
366 architecture optimization, dataset expansion, and training strategy improvements can  
367 further enhance retrieval accuracy and spatial consistency for complex high-latitude  
368 scenarios and extreme cloud systems. Applying the optimized models to  
369 multi-satellite collaborative retrieval and integrating them with numerical weather  
370 prediction models can achieve accurate COT retrieval with high spatiotemporal  
371 resolution, providing high-quality cloud parameter support for meteorological  
372 operations and research, including nowcasting of short-term heavy precipitation,  
373 identification of severe convective cloud clusters, and atmospheric radiation budget  
374 calculations.

375

376 **Data Availability Statement:** The FY satellite data used in this study are available  
377 from the Fengyun Satellite Data Center (<http://fy4.nsmc.org.cn/>).

378

379 **Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

380

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