



# 1 **Contrasting physical drivers of chlorophyll-a responses to marine** 2 **heatwaves in the South China Sea**

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8 **Abstract.** In recent years, more frequent marine heatwaves (MHWs) in the South China Sea (SCS) have affected surface  
9 chlorophyll-a (Chl-a). Traditional linear statistical methods have limited capacity to identify the contributions of multiple  
10 highly interrelated physical drivers in complex oceanic systems. To address this limitation, we applied the Synergistic–  
11 Unique–Redundant Decomposition (SURD) method to investigate MHW-related Chl-a anomalies from 1998 to 2024.  
12 Analyses reveal a marked regional contrast during summer MHWs, with positive Chl-a anomalies in the northern SCS and  
13 negative anomalies in the western SCS. Although summer thermal extremes in both regions were linked to similar anomalous  
14 atmospheric circulations associated with the western North Pacific subtropical high, the local physical mechanisms controlling  
15 Chl-a responses differed. In the South Vietnam upwelling region, weakened wind forcing reduced Ekman pumping and vertical  
16 transport, limiting surface cooling and nutrient replenishment to the euphotic zone, thereby contributing to negative Chl-a  
17 anomalies. In the Pearl River Estuary, enhanced incident shortwave radiation promoted rapid surface warming, while  
18 weakened wind-driven export favoured the nearshore retention of low-salinity plume water. The SURD results indicate that  
19 retained plume water enhanced surface layer stratification and likely increased nutrient supply, allowing plume retention to  
20 act synergistically with cumulative heat stress and supporting positive Chl-a anomalies. However, unresolved optical and  
21 biological processes in the Pearl River Estuary introduce uncertainty into the inferred nutrient pathway. These results suggest  
22 that besides thermal forcing, Chl-a responses to MHWs in marginal seas are also significantly affected by regional physical  
23 pathways.

## 24 **1 Introduction**

25 Under excessive greenhouse gas emissions, the Earth's climate system is experiencing an unprecedented energy imbalance  
26 (Robinson et al., 2021; von Schuckmann et al., 2020). As the largest heat sink in the climate system, the ocean has absorbed  
27 more than 90 % of the excess heat, contributing to a continued rise in global sea surface temperature (SST) and more frequent  
28 marine heatwaves (MHWs) (Cheng et al., 2019). Since the twentieth century, global MHW frequency and mean duration have  
29 increased by approximately 34 % and 17 %, respectively (Oliver et al., 2018). As global warming intensifies during the twenty-  
30 first century, MHWs are projected to expand nonlinearly in spatial extent and destructive potential (Oliver et al., 2018; Yao et



31 al., 2020), exerting diverse impacts on the marine biosphere, including shellfish diseases and mollusk mortality (Jones et al.,  
32 2018; Oliver et al., 2017), coral reef bleaching (Le Nohaïc et al., 2017), functional extinction of kelp forests (Wernberg et al.,  
33 2016), harmful algal blooms, and mass strandings of marine mammals and seabirds (Cavole et al., 2016).

34 Marine phytoplankton underpin global primary productivity and biogeochemical cycles, and their sensitivity to environmental  
35 variability is reflected in variations in chlorophyll a (Chl-a) (Fernández-González et al., 2022). However, the mechanisms by  
36 which MHWs influence Chl-a are complex and spatially heterogeneous. In low-latitude waters, MHW-induced thermal  
37 stratification can restrict the vertical transport of subsurface nutrients, leading to declines in Chl-a concentrations (Le Grix et  
38 al., 2021; Montie et al., 2020; Noh et al., 2022). By contrast, in high-latitude light-limited regions, a shallower mixed layer can  
39 enhance phytoplankton blooms by improving light availability within the euphotic zone (Le Grix et al., 2021; Noh et al., 2022).  
40 Such spatial variability makes it difficult to generalize or evaluate the ecological impacts of MHWs based on a single physical  
41 mechanism.

42 The South China Sea (SCS), the largest marginal sea in the western Pacific Ocean, is governed by a complex monsoon  
43 circulation system and hosts extensive coral reef ecosystems (Li et al., 2011), rendering it highly sensitive to climate change.  
44 Observational and reanalysis data identify the SCS as a hotspot for MHWs, with their frequency, duration, and intensity  
45 showing significant upward trends (Li et al., 2019; Yao and Wang, 2021). In particular, previous studies have identified the  
46 northern SCS continental shelf and the western SCS as active regions of MHW occurrence, with documented regional  
47 differences in coastal warming amplitudes and seasonal variability (Wang et al., 2022, 2023). Although previous studies have  
48 characterized the spatiotemporal evolution of MHWs in the SCS (Wang et al., 2021), their ecological impacts remain less well  
49 understood, partly because of methodological challenges.

50 Previous studies have documented anomalous Chl-a responses during MHWs in the SCS (Chen et al., 2024; He et al., 2023).  
51 However, most attribution analyses still rely on traditional linear statistical methods, such as correlation analysis and multiple  
52 linear regression. These methods have inherent limitations when applied to complex marine systems where environmental  
53 variables are highly interrelated. In particular, they struggle to disentangle overlapping influences among drivers such as SST,  
54 wind fields, and mixed layer depth (MLD), and rarely resolve synergistic effects of these factors. Thus, a key scientific question  
55 remains unresolved: are Chl-a anomalies during MHWs mainly driven by direct thermal effects, or by concurrent changes in  
56 the physical environment?

57 To address these limitations, this study applies the Synergistic–Unique–Redundant Decomposition (SURD) method (Martínez-  
58 Sánchez et al., 2024). SURD decomposes the information shared between candidate drivers and the target variable into  
59 redundant, unique, and synergistic components. This allows us to distinguish independent, overlapping, and joint contributions  
60 of physical drivers to Chl-a anomalies during MHWs. By applying this framework to the SCS, this study aims to clarify why  
61 Chl-a responses differ among regions and to identify the physical pathways associated with these differences. These results  
62 provide a clearer view of regional Chl-a variability during MHWs in the SCS and improve our understanding of physical–  
63 biological coupling in marginal seas.



64 The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Sect. 2 describes the datasets, MHW identification, Chl-a anomaly analysis,  
65 and SURD method. Sect. 3 presents the spatiotemporal characteristics of MHWs in the SCS and the associated Chl-a responses.  
66 Sect. 4 examines the regional physical–biological mechanisms in the Vietnam upwelling area and the Pearl River Estuary.  
67 Sect. 5 summarizes the main conclusions.

## 68 **2 Materials and methods**

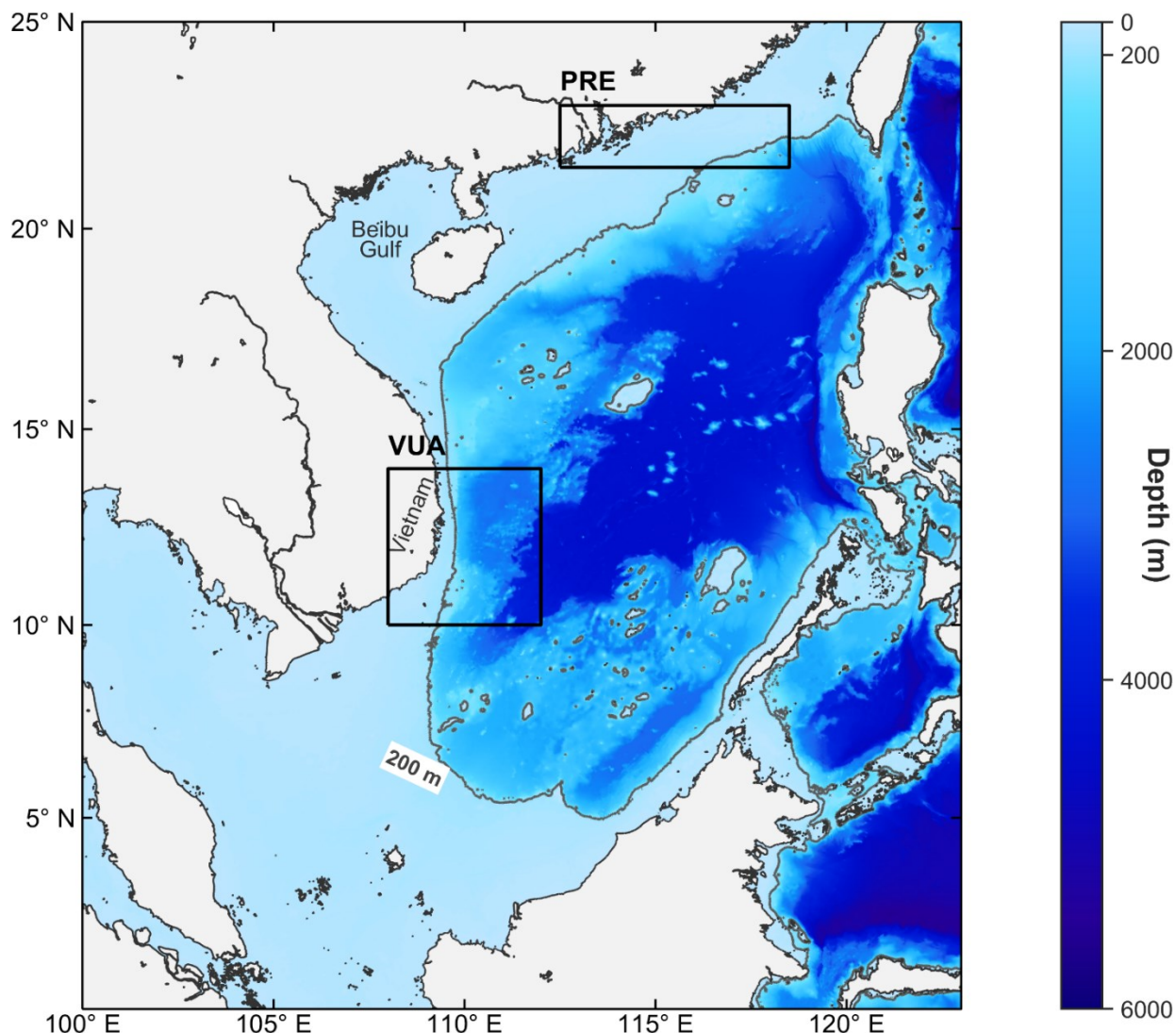
### 69 **2.1 Study area**

70 The SCS is a semi-enclosed basin whose circulation is governed by the East Asian monsoon system (Jiang et al., 2023). The  
71 prevailing southwest winds in summer and northeast winds in winter (Liu and Xie, 1999) drive a seasonally reversing basin-  
72 scale circulation and shape a range of complex coastal dynamical processes. In recent years, the region has also become a  
73 hotspot for MHWs, posing a growing threat to marine ecosystem stability.

74 This study focuses on two representative regions within the SCS that exhibit contrasting dynamical characteristics:

75 The Pearl River Estuary (PRE) and its adjacent waters are located on the northern continental shelf of the SCS (Fig. 1) and  
76 represent a typical runoff-dominated estuarine ecosystem. The Pearl River, the second-largest river system in China, delivers  
77 substantial summer runoff to the continental shelf, transporting freshwater and terrestrial nutrients (Harrison et al., 2008) that  
78 sustain high primary productivity in this region (Ye et al., 2020).

79 The Vietnam Upwelling Area (VUA) defined in this study is located off southeastern Vietnam and lies within the broader  
80 South Vietnam upwelling region (Fig. 1). It represents a principal summer wind-driven upwelling system of the SCS. The  
81 strong summer southwest monsoon generates offshore Ekman transport in this region (Ngo and Hsin, 2021), driving the  
82 upwelling of cold subsurface water. This process transports nutrient-rich deep water into the euphotic zone, forming a  
83 characteristic summer belt of high Chl-a concentration (Liu and Tang, 2022).



84

85 **Figure 1.** Bathymetry of the South China Sea (SCS) and locations of the two study regions. Shading indicates water depth (m), and  
86 the grey contour denotes the 200 m isobath. Black rectangles mark the Pearl River Estuary (PRE) and the Vietnam Upwelling Area  
87 (VUA).

## 88 2.2 Data sources and preprocessing

89 A daily dataset covering 1998–2024 was compiled from physical, biological, and atmospheric variables. MHWs were  
90 identified using the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) Optimum Interpolation Sea Surface  
91 Temperature version 2.1 (OISST v2.1) product at 0.25° resolution (Huang et al., 2020), and Chl-a concentrations were obtained  
92 from the Copernicus Marine Environment Monitoring Service (CMEMS) GlobColour level 4 (L4) merged product (Global  
93 Ocean Colour, 2025). Oceanic physical variables, including sea surface salinity (SSS), MLD, and ocean currents, were  
94 obtained from the CMEMS GLORYS12V1 reanalysis, an eddy-resolving product at 1/12° resolution suitable for examining



95 upper-ocean physical variability (Lellouche et al., 2021; Global Ocean Physics Reanalysis, 2023). Sea level anomaly (SLA)  
 96 was obtained from the Copernicus Marine Service sea level climate product (Global Ocean Gridded, 2024). The SLA in this  
 97 product is referenced to the product mean sea surface for 1993–2012, rather than to the 1998–2024 climatology used in this  
 98 study. Thus, the climatological SLA fields shown later should be interpreted as study-period mean departures from the product  
 99 reference mean surface. The GlobColour L4 product has also been used in studies of Chl-a variability in the SCS, including  
 100 analyses of MHW-related Chl-a responses and summer upwelling-associated phytoplankton changes (Liu and Tang, 2022; He  
 101 et al., 2023). Atmospheric variables were obtained from the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF)  
 102 ERA5 reanalysis. The 10 m winds and surface downward shortwave radiation (SWR) were obtained from ERA5 post-  
 103 processed daily statistics on single levels (Hersbach et al., 2023b), while 500 hPa geopotential height (GH500) and 850 hPa  
 104 wind components were obtained from ERA5 post-processed daily statistics on pressure levels (Hersbach et al., 2023a). These  
 105 atmospheric variables were used to diagnose local wind forcing, radiative forcing during MHWs, and the circulation  
 106 background related to the western North Pacific subtropical high (WNPSH). Ekman pumping velocity (EPV) was derived  
 107 from the wind stress curl calculated using ERA5 10 m wind components and was used as an indicator of wind-driven vertical  
 108 transport. The calculation followed  $EPV = (\partial\tau_y / \partial x - \partial\tau_x / \partial y) / (\rho_0 f)$ , where  $\tau_x$  and  $\tau_y$  are the zonal and meridional wind  
 109 stress components,  $\rho_0$  is the reference seawater density, and  $f$  is the Coriolis parameter. To ensure spatiotemporal consistency  
 110 among variables for SURD analysis, the OISST grid ( $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ ) was adopted as the reference grid, and the remaining  
 111 datasets were resampled onto this grid using bilinear interpolation. The temporal coverage of all datasets was restricted to  
 112 1998–2024, the common period with consistent availability of the key Chl-a, oceanic, and atmospheric variables used in this  
 113 study. This procedure yielded a unified spatiotemporal dataset for the SURD analysis. Detailed information on the data sources  
 114 is summarized in Table 1.

115 **Table 1. Summary of the observational and reanalysis datasets.**

Category	Variable	Source / Product ID	Temporal resolution	Spatial resolution
Ocean physics	SST	NOAA OISST v2.1	Daily	$0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$
	SSS, currents (u, v), MLD, temperature	CMEMS GLORYS12V1	Daily	$1/12^\circ \times 1/12^\circ$
	SLA	CMEMS SEALEVEL L4	Daily	$0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$
Ocean biology	Chl-a	CMEMS GlobColour L4	Daily	4 km × 4 km
Atmosphere	10 m wind (u, v), SWR	ERA5 single levels	Daily	$0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$
	GH500, 850 hPa wind (u, v)	ERA5 pressure level	Daily	$0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$
Derived variable	EPV	Calculated from ERA5 10 m wind components via wind stress curl	Daily	$0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$



## 116 2.3 Research methods

### 117 2.3.1 MHW identification and metric calculation

118 MHW events were identified following the definition of Hobday et al. (2016), using the MATLAB code package developed  
119 by Zhao and Marin (2019). Under this framework, MHWs are defined as discrete extreme events characterized by anomalously  
120 high SST. The detection criteria were as follows. An MHW event was recorded when daily SST exceeded the seasonally  
121 varying 90th percentile threshold for at least five consecutive days. If two events were separated by a gap of two days or less,  
122 they were merged into a single event. The period 1982–2011 was used as the climatological baseline for calculating daily  
123 thresholds, and detection was applied to SST time series from 1998 to 2024.

124 Four metrics were calculated at each grid cell to describe the spatial distribution of MHW occurrence and event-scale temporal  
125 properties: frequency, duration, total days, and cumulative intensity. MHWs were identified independently from the daily SST  
126 time series at each grid cell. Frequency and total days were calculated as the annual number of MHW events and MHW days  
127 at each grid cell, respectively, and were then averaged over 1998 to 2024. Duration and cumulative intensity were first  
128 calculated for each grid-cell event and were then averaged over all events detected at that grid cell during 1998 to 2024.

### 129 2.3.2 SURD causality analysis

130 To disentangle the causal contributions of environmental drivers to Chl-a anomalies, this study adopted the SURD method.  
131 SURD is grounded in information theory and quantifies causality as the reduction in uncertainty (Shannon entropy) of a future  
132 target variable provided by the past states of observed drivers. In this study, the target variable  $Q_j^+$  was defined as the Chl-a  
133 anomaly at future time  $t + \tau$ , where  $\tau$  is the response lag. The observed physical vector  $Q = [Q_1, Q_2, \dots, Q_N]$  represents the  
134 states of the selected physical variables at time  $t$ . This framework is suitable for the present problem because Chl-a anomalies  
135 during MHWs in the SCS are shaped by highly coupled physical drivers and potentially nonlinear interactions. Following the  
136 principle of forward information propagation, the total entropy  $H(Q_j^+)$ , representing the uncertainty of the future Chl-a  
137 anomaly, can be decomposed into redundant, unique, synergistic, and residual components:

$$138 \quad H(Q_j^+) = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{C}} \Delta I_{i \rightarrow j}^R + \sum_{i=1}^N \Delta I_{i \rightarrow j}^U + \sum_{i \in \mathcal{C}} \Delta I_{i \rightarrow j}^S + \Delta I_{\text{leak} \rightarrow j} \quad (1)$$

139 Here,  $\mathcal{C}$  denotes the set of all driver combinations involving two or more observed drivers. In the redundant and synergistic  
140 sums,  $i \in \mathcal{C}$  indexes a driver combination, whereas in the unique term,  $i = 1, \dots, N$  indexes individual drivers. In this study,  
141 causality refers to lagged information-theoretic predictive causality under the prescribed driver set and response lag, rather  
142 than direct experimental causation. The unique causality  $\Delta I^U$  quantifies the causal information provided by a single driver that  
143 is not contained in any other individual driver, thus serving as a key indicator for identifying independent drivers. The  
144 redundant causality  $\Delta I^R$  represents the overlapping information arising from shared dependencies among drivers. By  
145 separating this shared information, SURD reduces misattribution caused by multicollinearity in traditional models (Han et al.,



146 2025), preventing correlated signals from being interpreted as independent mechanisms. The synergistic causality  $\Delta I^S$   
147 represents causal information about future Chl-a anomalies that can be obtained only from the joint states of multiple selected  
148 physical drivers, rather than from any single driver alone. It therefore indicates additional information on the future Chl-a  
149 response arising from interactions among the selected drivers. The causality leak  $\Delta I_{\text{leak}}$  quantifies target uncertainty not  
150 assigned to the selected driver set under the prescribed lag, variable subset, and discretization scheme. It may reflect unresolved  
151 processes, observational uncertainty, finite-sample effects, or missing variables.

152 In practice, SURD requires the estimation of the joint probability distribution between the future Chl-a anomaly and the  
153 selected physical drivers. Given the continuous nature of these anomalous time series, they were first discretized into a finite  
154 number of states before estimating the joint probability distribution. The number of bins defines the number of discrete states  
155 used to represent each variable and therefore controls the resolution of the discretized state space. Too few bins may merge  
156 distinct anomaly states and obscure variability, whereas too many bins may leave insufficient samples in each state and lead  
157 to unstable probability estimates. We tested bin numbers from 2 to 10 and selected the final bin number based on a low causality  
158 leak and stable dominant contribution patterns. The lag  $\tau$  defines the time interval between the past physical drivers and the  
159 future Chl-a anomaly. Lag sensitivity tests were conducted for  $\tau = 1, 2,$  and 3 days to examine whether the main SURD  
160 contribution rankings were sensitive to the assumed response lag. Because the dominant rankings were stable across these  
161 tested lags,  $\tau = 1$  day and nine bins were retained for the main analysis.

162 The non-leak SURD terms were normalized by the mutual information captured by the selected driver subset. Therefore, for  
163 a given non-leak term  $k$ , the percentage shown in Figs. 5b and 8b was calculated as

164 
$$P_k = 100 \times \frac{\Delta I_k}{\sum_{\ell \in \Omega} \Delta I_\ell} \quad (2)$$

165 where  $\Omega$  includes all unique, redundant, and synergistic terms of the selected driver subset, but excludes the causality leak.  
166 These percentages therefore represent relative information contributions within the information captured by the selected  
167 physical drivers. They should not be interpreted as fractions of total Chl-a variance or total target entropy. The causality leak  
168 is reported separately because it is normalized by  $H(Q_j^+)$  and measures the fraction of target uncertainty that remains  
169 unexplained by the selected driver set.

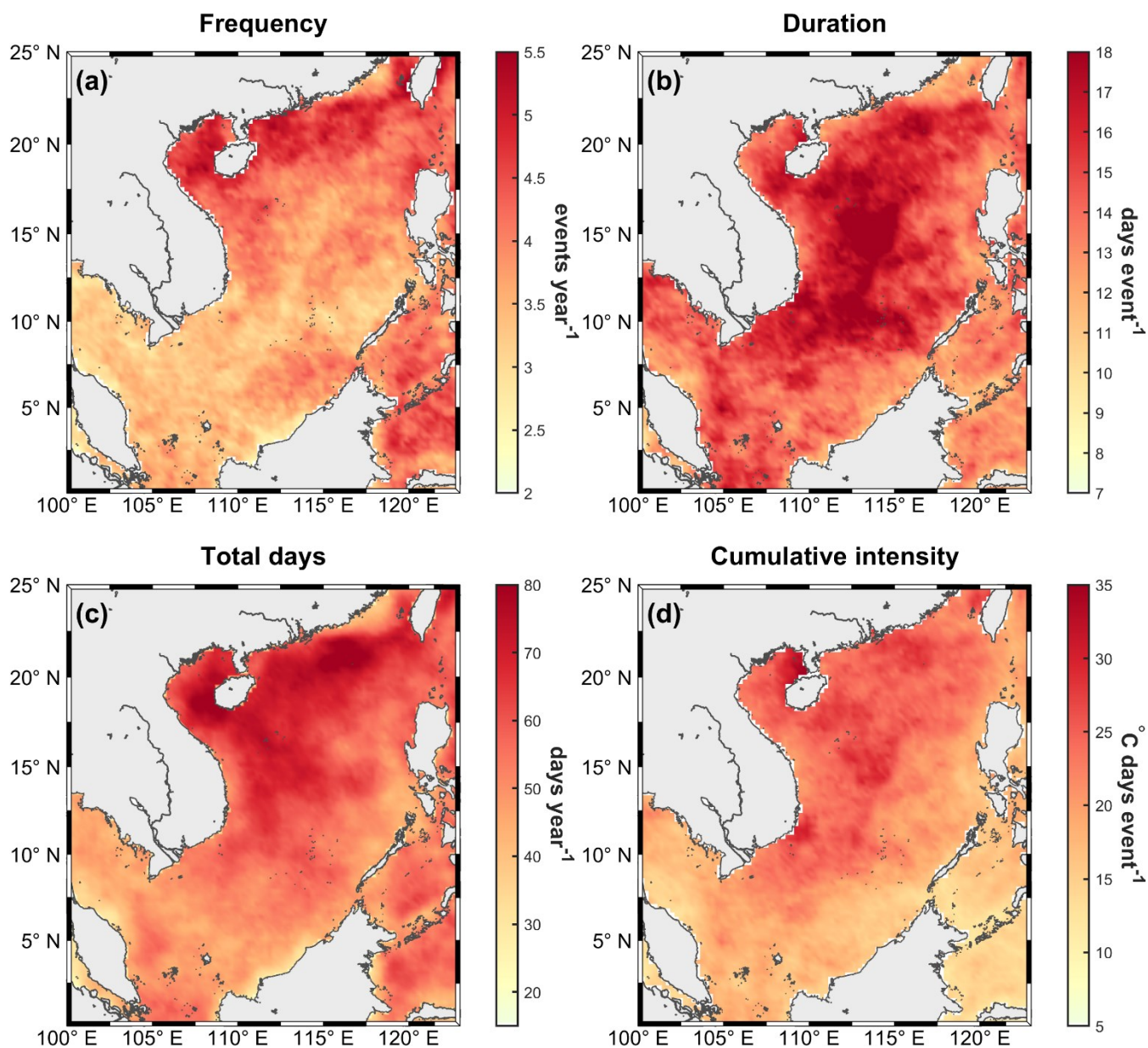
## 170 **3 Results**

### 171 **3.1 Spatial distribution of MHWs**

172 MHW metrics in the SCS exhibit marked spatial heterogeneity (Fig. 2). In terms of occurrence frequency (Fig. 2a), high values  
173 are mainly concentrated on the northern continental shelf, with annual occurrence frequencies generally exceeding 4 events  
174 year<sup>-1</sup>. High values of single-event duration (Fig. 2b) and cumulative intensity (Fig. 2d) are present in the Beibu Gulf, off  
175 Vietnam, and in the western SCS basin, where the mean duration exceeds 15 days. Annual total MHW days display a spatial  
176 pattern characterized by higher values in coastal regions and lower values in the open basin (Fig. 2c). In the Beibu Gulf and



177 PRE, annual total MHW days exceed 50 days. These patterns indicate pronounced MHW activity in the northern shelf region,  
178 including the PRE, and in the VUA.

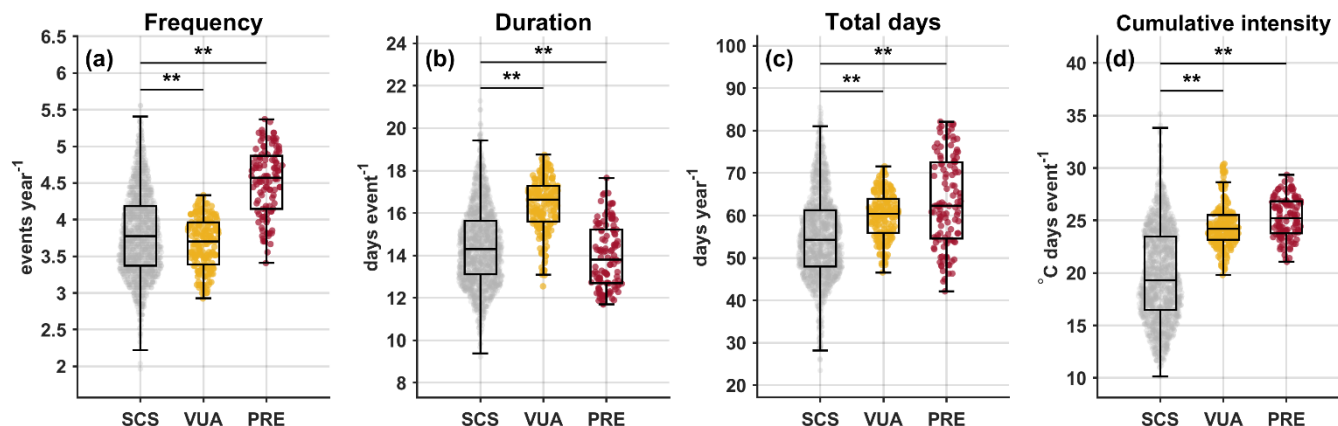


179  
180 **Figure 2. Mean spatial distribution of MHW characteristics in the SCS during 1998 to 2024. The panels show (a) annual mean**  
181 **occurrence frequency (events year<sup>-1</sup>), (b) mean duration (days event<sup>-1</sup>), (c) annual mean total MHW days (days year<sup>-1</sup>), and (d)**  
182 **annual mean cumulative intensity (°C days event<sup>-1</sup>).**

183 Statistical analyses further quantified the MHW characteristics of the VUA and the PRE relative to the basin-wide SCS  
184 statistics ( $p < 0.01$ ; Fig. 3). The PRE is characterized as a typical high-frequency area. The annual occurrence frequency ranges  
185 from 3.41 to 5.37 events year<sup>-1</sup>, with a median of 4.57 events year<sup>-1</sup>, which is higher than the basin-wide SCS median of 3.78



186 events year<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 3a). The VUA, by comparison, is characterized as a long-duration area. In this region, the median duration  
 187 of individual events reaches 16.63 days event<sup>-1</sup>, exceeding the basin-wide SCS median of 14.30 days event<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 3b). In  
 188 addition, both the PRE and the VUA exhibit higher median annual total MHW days and cumulative intensity than the basin-  
 189 wide SCS median values (Fig. 3c, d).

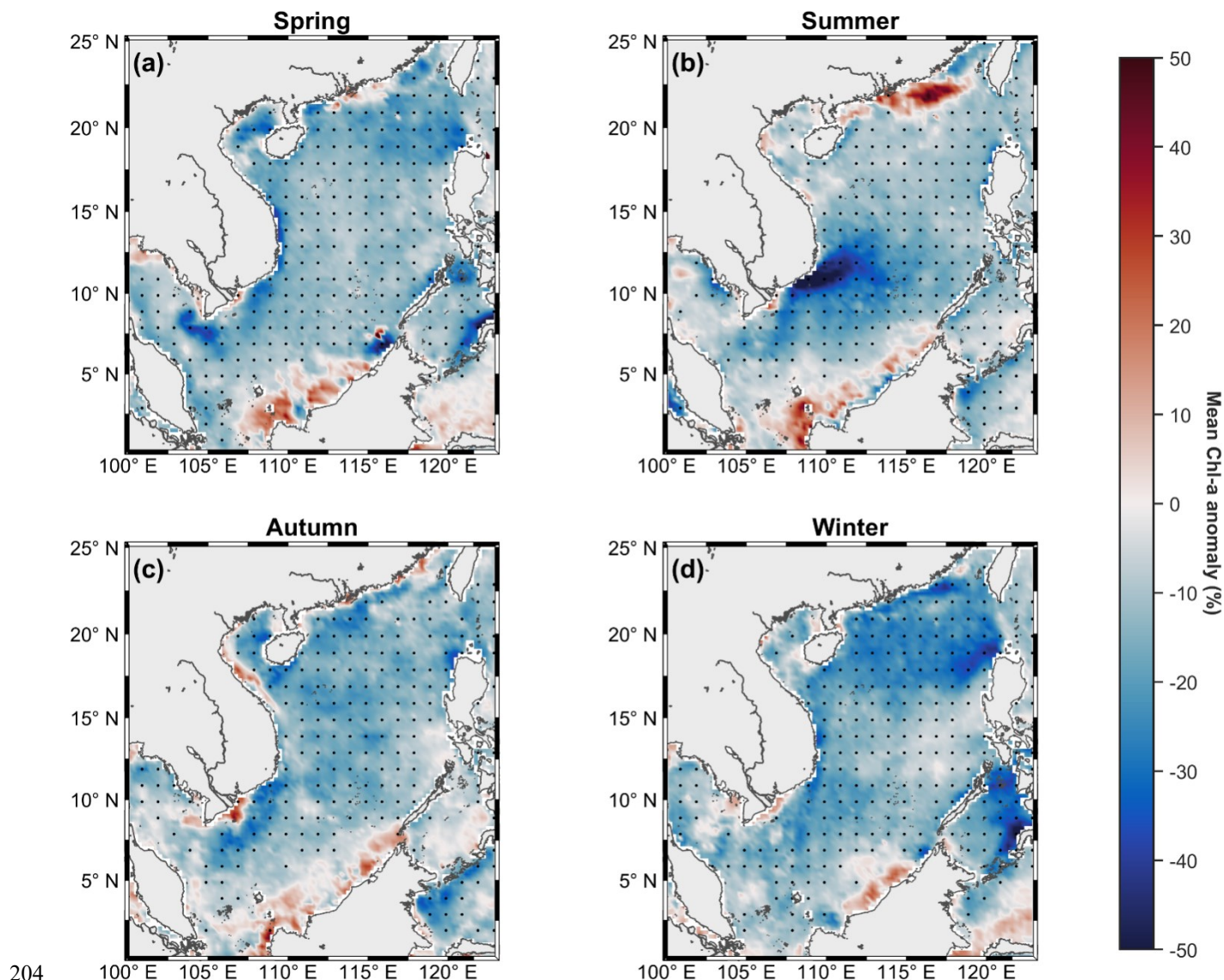


190

191 **Figure 3. Comparison of MHW characteristics among the SCS, the VUA, and the PRE. The panels show (a) annual mean occurrence**  
 192 **frequency, (b) mean duration, (c) annual mean total MHW days, and (d) annual mean cumulative intensity. Each point represents**  
 193 **one valid grid cell, with values averaged over 1998 to 2024. Boxes indicate the interquartile ranges, and central horizontal lines**  
 194 **denote medians. Horizontal bars indicate comparisons of VUA versus SCS and PRE versus SCS; double asterisks indicate significant**  
 195 **differences based on two-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum tests (Wilcoxon, 1945; \*\*,  $p < 0.01$ ).**

### 196 3.2 Chl-a responses to MHWs

197 Seasonal composite analysis of Chl-a anomalies during MHWs reveals a predominantly negative response across most seasons  
 198 (Fig. 4). In spring, autumn, and winter, negative Chl-a anomalies dominate the SCS (Fig. 4a, c, d). By contrast, the summer  
 199 response exhibits a marked spatial contrast between the northern shelf and the western SCS (Fig. 4b). In the PRE and adjacent  
 200 northern shelf regions, Chl-a concentrations show positive anomalies during MHWs, with increases exceeding 40 % in some  
 201 nearshore core areas. Meanwhile, the VUA shows negative Chl-a anomalies. The following sections therefore focus on the  
 202 PRE and VUA, which represent coherent positive and negative summer anomaly centres, to examine the coupled processes  
 203 underlying these contrasting responses.



204

205 **Figure 4. Spatial distribution of the seasonal mean Chl-a percentage anomalies during MHWs in the SCS for 1998 to 2024. The**  
206 **panels show composite anomalies for (a) spring, (b) summer, (c) autumn, and (d) winter. Chl-a anomalies are expressed as percentage**  
207 **differences between event-mean values during MHWs and the seasonal climatology at each grid cell. Black stippling indicates**  
208 **anomalies significantly different from zero ( $p < 0.05$ ).**

## 209 4 Regional physical pathways of Chl-a responses during MHWs

### 210 4.1 SURD-based attribution of regional physical drivers

211 To identify the dominant physical signals associated with summer Chl-a anomalies during MHWs across different regions, we  
212 applied SURD for causal attribution analysis. Cumulative SST intensity (SST\_CUM) was used as the core thermal-stress



213 metric and was retained in all tested variable subsets. This design allowed us to evaluate whether Chl-a anomalies during  
214 MHWs were mainly associated with cumulative heat stress itself or with concurrent changes in other physical processes. For  
215 each region, three additional variables were combined with SST\_CUM from the remaining candidate pool: SSS, SLA, MLD,  
216 EPV, zonal and meridional current components, wind speed, and zonal ( $u_{wind}$ ) and meridional ( $v_{wind}$ ) wind components.  
217 These variables cover key physical pathways known to regulate Chl-a variability in the SCS, including monsoon wind forcing,  
218 Ekman pumping, coastal and offshore circulation, mesoscale modulation, and upper-ocean thermohaline structure (Lu and  
219 Gan, 2015; Chen et al., 2021; Hong et al., 2022; Zhi et al., 2022). Nutrient and biological variables were not included in the  
220 SURD driver pool because daily, spatially continuous, and regionally consistent datasets for these variables are not available  
221 with sufficient reliability over 1998 to 2024 for both study regions. This limitation is important in nearshore and estuarine  
222 waters, where optically complex water affects satellite retrievals and model-derived biogeochemical variables are subject to  
223 uncertainties related to parameterization and limited observational constraints (Aurin and Dierssen, 2012; Mammun et al., 2022;  
224 Skákala et al., 2024). We therefore constrained the main SURD analysis to physical variables from mature satellite and  
225 reanalysis products, while treating unresolved nutrient, optical, and biological processes as sources of causality leak in Sect.  
226 4.3. Adding more variables can reduce the causality leak in principle because the future Chl-a state is conditioned on a larger  
227 set of drivers. However, a lower leak alone does not necessarily indicate a more physically interpretable driver set. We therefore  
228 used four-variable subsets as a parsimonious setting that balances leak reduction, probability-estimation stability, and  
229 mechanistic interpretability. This choice also avoids an overly high-dimensional joint probability space and higher-order  
230 SURD terms that are difficult to relate to specific physical processes. Within this constrained framework, the selected subset  
231 was the four-variable combination with the lowest mean causality leak over the tested bin numbers. As defined in Sect. 2.3.2,  
232 the SURD contribution percentages reported below refer to non-leak terms normalized within the mutual information captured  
233 by each selected variable subset. The causality leak is normalized separately and is shown independently.

#### 234 4.1.1 Suppressed upwelling in the VUA

235 As a typical wind-driven upwelling system, the VUA is strongly regulated by local air–sea interactions during summer (Ngo  
236 and Hsin, 2021). Within the tested four-variable subsets described above, the combination of SSS, SLA, EPV, and SST\_CUM  
237 had the lowest mean causality leak over the tested bin numbers, with a leak of approximately 0.55 under the selected nine-bin  
238 discretization (Fig. 5a). This subset was therefore used to examine the physical information associated with VUA Chl-a  
239 anomalies.

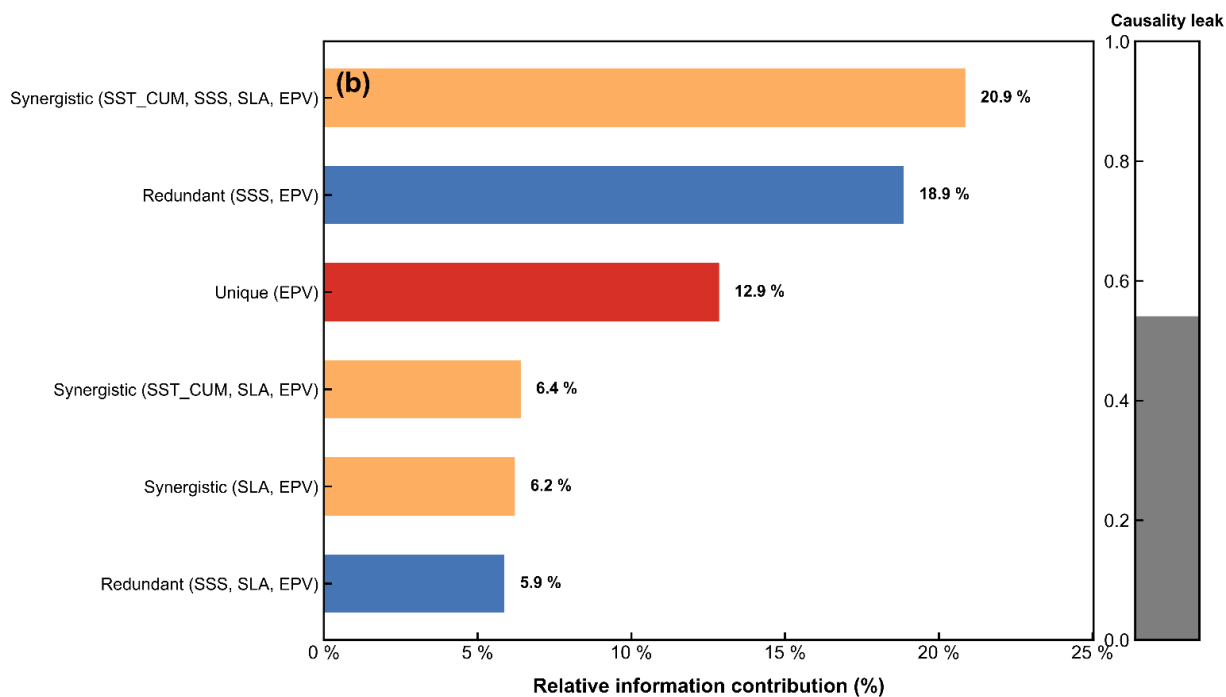
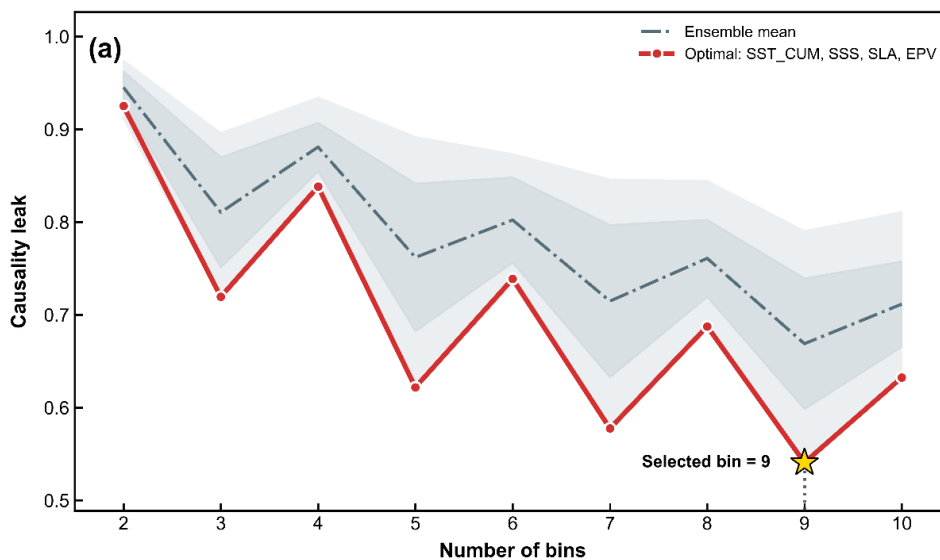
240 Figure 6 illustrates climatological fields and MHW-related composite anomalies for key variables in the VUA during summer.  
241 The climatological fields show the canonical summer upwelling signature off southeastern Vietnam, including relatively lower  
242 SST, enhanced EPV, lower nearshore SLA, and a nearshore high-Chl-a belt (Fig. 6a, b, d, e). This pattern agrees with previous  
243 studies indicating that southwest monsoon forcing and Ekman processes drive coastal and offshore upwelling in the western  
244 SCS, thereby supporting elevated Chl-a in the upwelling zone (Herrmann et al., 2023; To Duy et al., 2022; Zhao and Tang,  
245 2007).



246 Elevated SST\_CUM values span the entire region, with high-value centres ( $>30$  °C days) concentrated in offshore waters and  
247 along the nearshore band south of  $12^{\circ}$  N (Fig. 6f). Correspondingly, Chl-a concentrations show negative anomalies (Fig. 6j),  
248 with the core decline zone ( $10$  to  $12^{\circ}$  N) overlapping the coastal region experiencing the strongest cumulative heat stress.  
249 These negative Chl-a anomalies spatially coincide with the summer climatological high-Chl-a belt (Fig. 6e), suggesting that  
250 MHWs suppress productivity in a climatologically productive area.

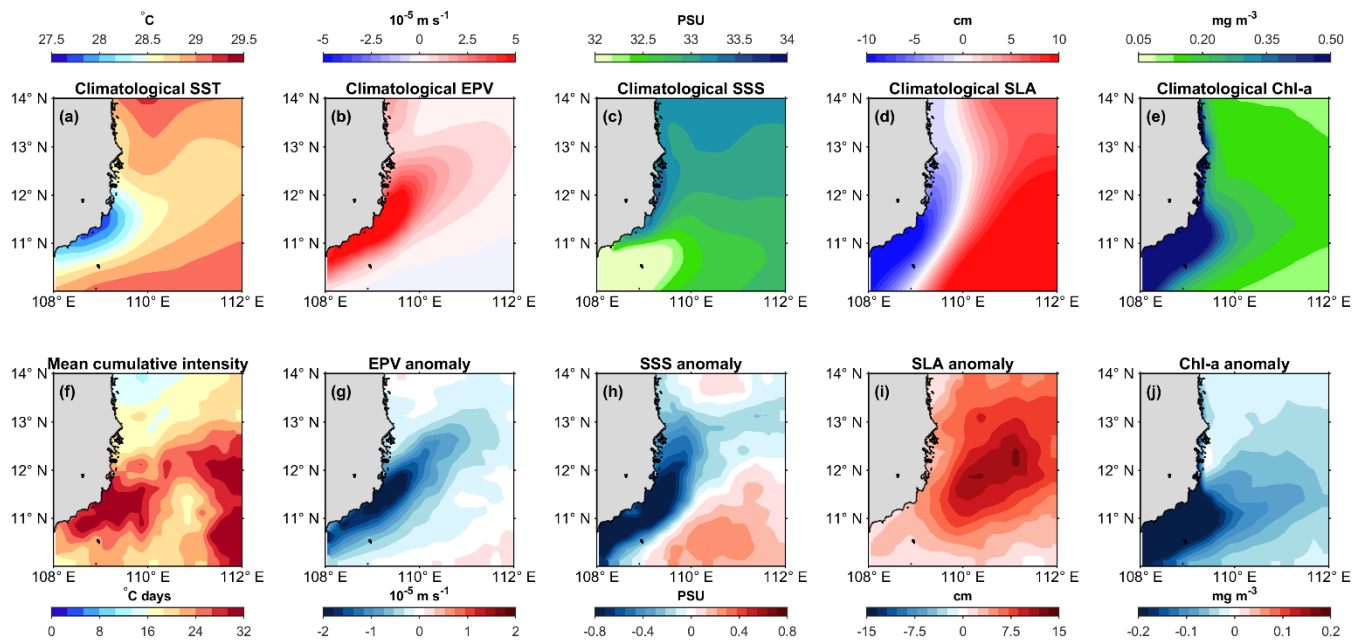
251 These negative Chl-a anomalies cannot be solely explained by direct surface warming. As indicated by the SURD analysis  
252 (Fig. 5b), among the individual variables, EPV provides the largest unique information contribution (12.9 %). This result  
253 identifies vertical transport as the primary independent physical driver of the Chl-a decline within the selected variable set.  
254 EPV exhibits negative anomalies along the coast, with a spatial extent that generally coincides with the core region of negative  
255 Chl-a anomalies (Fig. 6g, j). This phenomenon further supports that negative EPV anomalies contribute to the Chl-a decline.  
256 Substantial redundant information is shared by SSS and EPV (18.9 %; Fig. 5b), consistent with the spatial overlap of their  
257 negative anomalies (Fig. 6g, h). This redundancy suggests that SSS variability contains information linked to EPV. Reduced  
258 EPV suppresses the upward transport of subsurface high-salinity water, contributing to surface freshening (Ngo and Hsin,  
259 2021; To Duy et al., 2022). Thus, the negative SSS anomaly can be interpreted as a hydrographic tracer of weakened wind-  
260 driven upwelling (Dippner et al., 2007; Wu et al., 2025).

261 Within the explainable information captured by the selected subset, the largest single contribution (20.9 %) arises from the  
262 synergistic interaction among SSS, SLA, EPV, and SST\_CUM. Given SURD terms are not stepwise marginal effects, the four-  
263 variable synergy should not be interpreted as the incremental effect of adding SSS to a lower-order combination. The SSS–  
264 EPV redundancy mainly reflects shared upwelling-related information. The dominant four-variable synergy therefore supports  
265 a joint-state interpretation rather than a single-driver explanation. The vertical structure further supports this point (Fig. 7).  
266 During MHWs, positive temperature anomalies penetrate into the subsurface layer (Fig. 7f), strengthening water-column  
267 stratification, as reflected by positive  $N^2$  anomalies (Fig. 7i).  $N^2$  denotes the squared Brunt–Väisälä frequency, which was  
268 estimated from the vertical density gradient derived from the temperature and salinity sections. Positive SLA anomalies (Fig.  
269 6i) correspond to thermocline deepening (Fig. 7e, f), while negative EPV anomalies indicate weakened upwelling. This synergy  
270 can be interpreted as a dual suppression mechanism: dynamically, reduced wind-driven upwelling limits the upward transport  
271 of nutrients (He and Mahadevan, 2021); thermally, enhanced stratification further restricts vertical nutrient exchange in the  
272 upper ocean (Yao and Wang, 2021; Noh et al., 2022). Together, these processes reduce nutrient replenishment to the euphotic  
273 zone and ultimately suppress phytoplankton biomass (He et al., 2023; Ma and Chen, 2025).



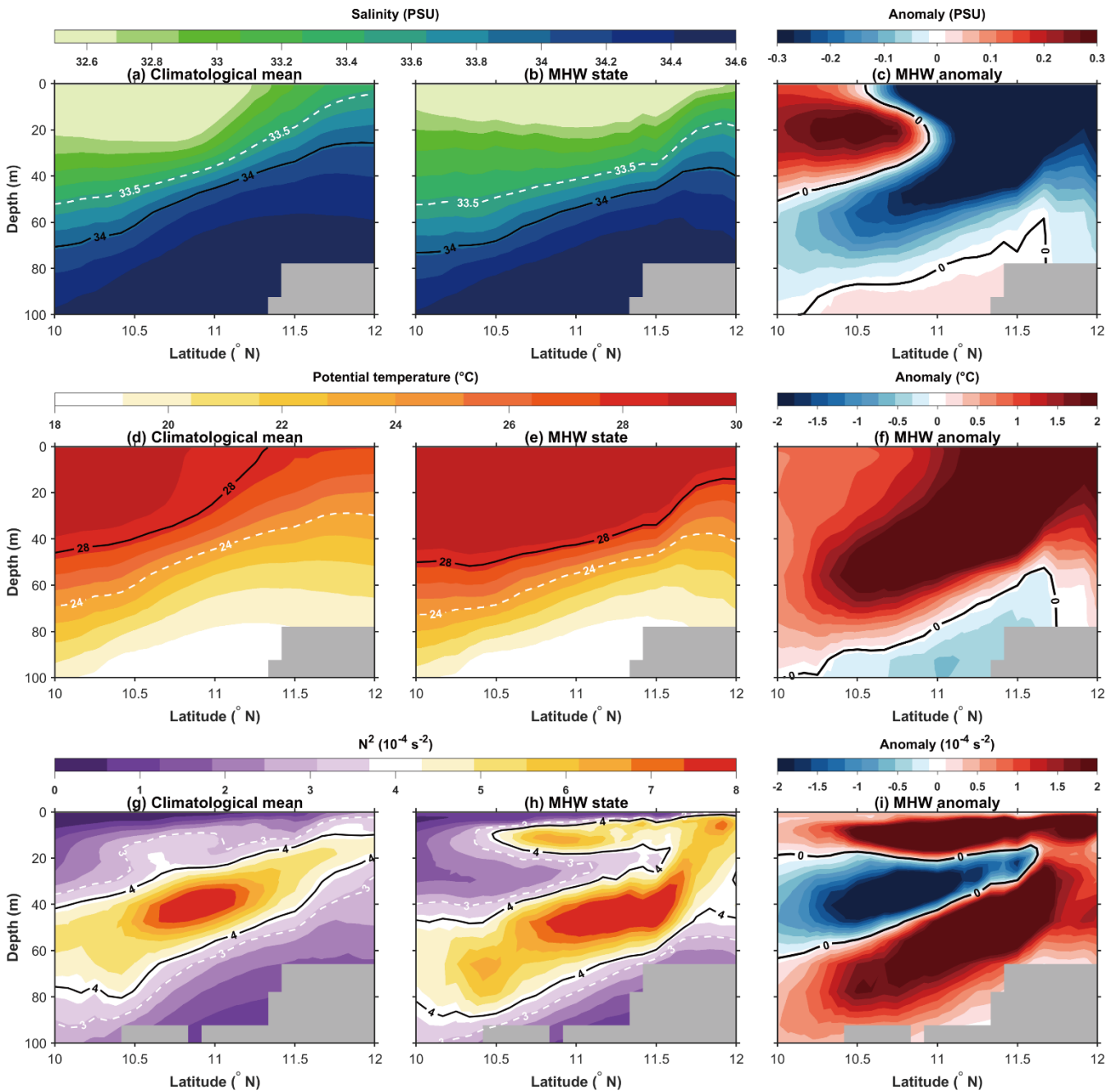
274

275 **Figure 5. Selection of the four-variable subset and SURD decomposition for the VUA during summer MHWs (a) Sensitivity of the**  
 276 **causality leak to the number of bins. The solid red line denotes the selected variable subset, and the dot-dashed grey line denotes the**  
 277 **ensemble mean across all four-variable subsets. Shading indicates the full range and  $\pm 1$  standard deviation of the ensemble. The**  
 278 **yellow star marks the selected discretization parameter of nine bins. (b) Relative non-leak information contributions to the future**  
 279 **Chl-a anomaly. Percentages are normalized by the sum of all unique, redundant, and synergistic SURD terms for the selected subset.**  
 280 **The grey bar indicates the causality leak,  $\Delta I_{\text{leak} \rightarrow j} / H(Q_j^+)$ , which is normalized separately. Only the six largest non-leak terms are**  
 281 **shown; therefore, the displayed percentages do not sum to 100 %.**



282

283 **Figure 6. Summer climatological fields and MHW-related anomaly composites in the VUA. Panels show (a) climatological SST (°C),**  
 284 **(f) mean cumulative intensity of summer MHWs (°C days), and climatological fields with corresponding anomaly composites for (b,**  
 285 **g) EPV ( $10^{-5} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ), (c, h) SSS (PSU), (d, i) SLA (cm), and (e, j) Chl-a ( $\text{mg m}^{-3}$ ). The anomaly fields were calculated from daily**  
 286 **departures relative to the day-of-year climatology and then averaged using an event-equal composite.**



287

288 **Figure 7.** Vertical upper-ocean structure (0 to 100 m) along the 109.33° E transect in the VUA during summer (June to August). The  
 289 rows display, from top to bottom, the (a–c) salinity (PSU), (d–f) potential temperature (°C), and (g–i) squared Brunt–Väisälä  
 290 frequency ( $N^2$ ,  $10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-2}$ ). The left, middle, and right columns represent the climatological mean, MHW state, and MHW anomaly field,  
 291 respectively. In the left and middle columns, solid black and dashed white contours indicate selected salinity, potential-temperature,  
 292 and  $N^2$  values. In the right column, thick black contours denote zero anomalies. Grey shading at the bottom of each panel represents  
 293 seafloor bathymetry.



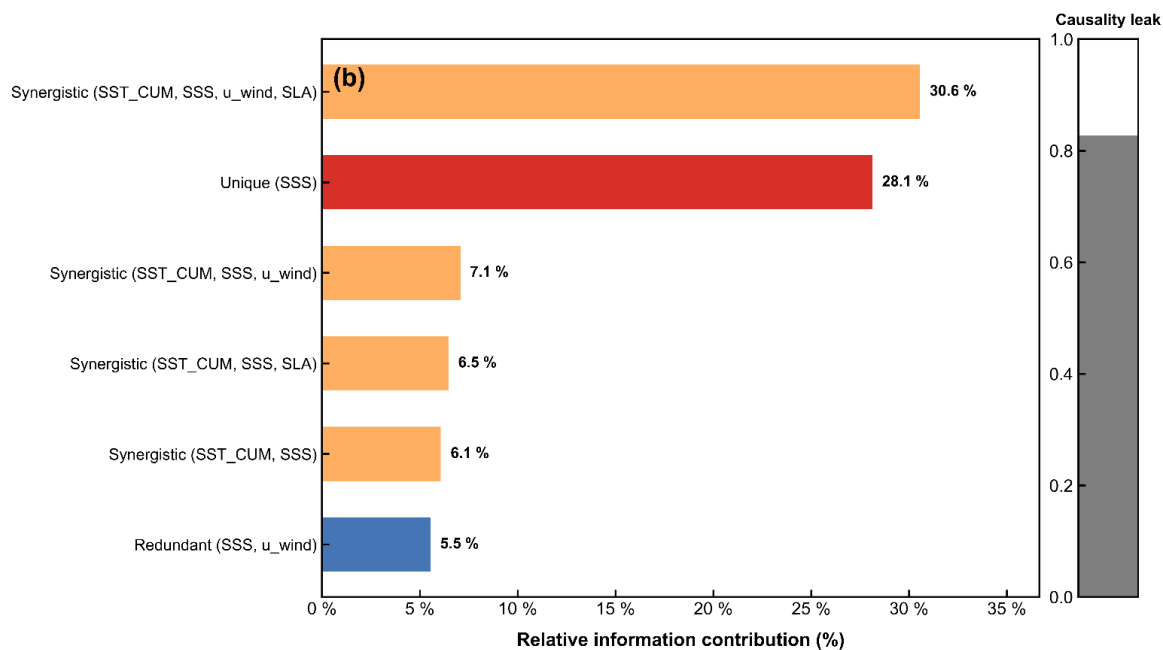
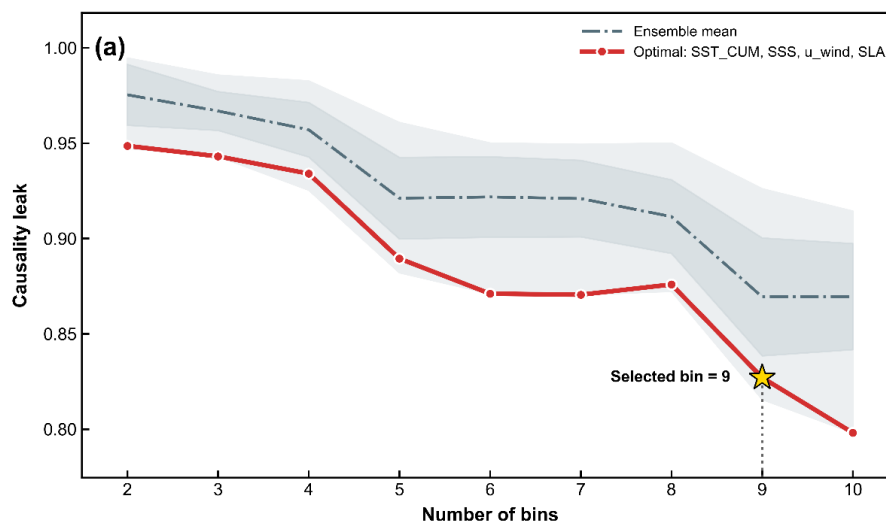
#### 294 4.1.2 Horizontal plume retention in the PRE

295 Using the same four-variable selection framework as in the VUA, the PRE subset selected at the nine-bin discretization  
296 consisted of SSS, SLA, SST\_CUM, and u\_wind (Fig. 8a). Although the causality leak continued to decrease at 10 bins, nine  
297 bins were retained for the main analysis to maintain comparability with the VUA and to avoid excessive sparsity in the  
298 discretized joint probability estimates. Within this selected subset, the largest non-leak contribution was the four-variable  
299 synergistic term involving SST\_CUM, SSS, SLA, and u\_wind (30.6 %; Fig. 8b). SST\_CUM had a negligible unique  
300 contribution, indicating that cumulative heat stress provided little independent information on the positive Chl-a anomalies  
301 within the selected physical-variable framework. Instead, SSS provided the largest unique information contribution within the  
302 explainable component captured by the selected subset (28.1 %; Fig. 8b), pointing to plume-related hydrographic variability  
303 as the key independent signal. This interpretation is supported by the spatial pattern of SSS. The climatology shows low-  
304 salinity plume water near the estuary and more saline offshore waters (Fig. 9e), while the MHW composite exhibits positive  
305 SSS anomalies dominating the area outside the plume-affected region (Fig. 9f). Therefore, the intrusion of high-salinity  
306 offshore waters—both climatological and anomalous—cannot account for the pronounced negative SSS anomalies in the  
307 nearshore area (Fig. 9f). In addition, the pronounced negative SSS anomalies were mainly concentrated in the plume-affected  
308 region (Fig. 9e, f). These results suggest that the nearshore freshening is caused by the enhanced influence or local retention  
309 of low-salinity Pearl River plume water. In the eutrophic PRE, where nutrient concentrations often exhibit a negative  
310 correlation with salinity (Dai et al., 2008; Niu et al., 2020), this low-salinity signal supports the interpretation that nutrient-rich  
311 plume water was retained near the coast, providing favourable conditions for positive Chl-a anomalies. The same low-salinity  
312 surface layer can also reduce surface density and strengthen salinity-driven stratification, as supported by the salinity and  $N^2$   
313 anomaly sections in Fig. S1a and c in the Supplement.

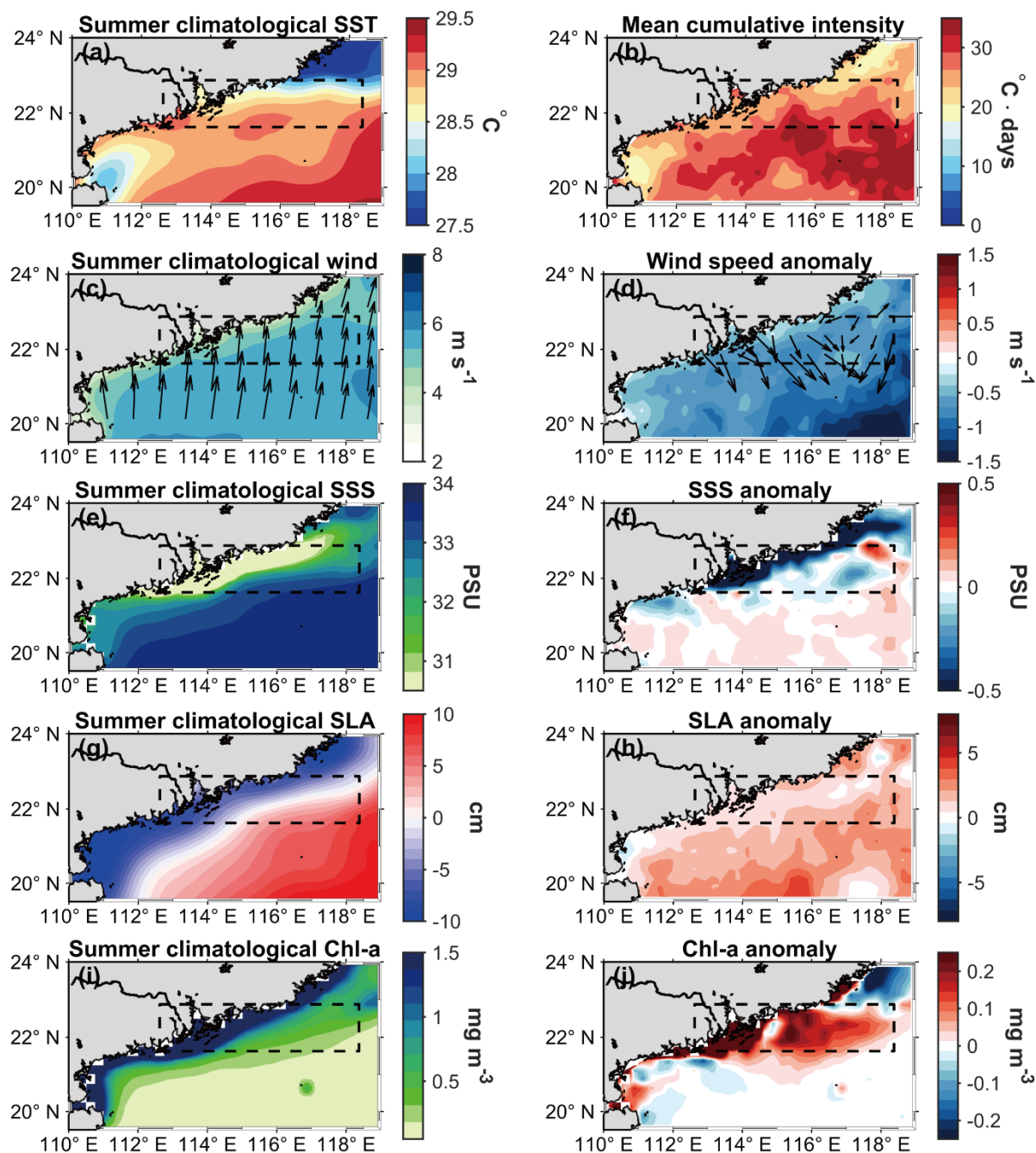
314 The four-variable synergy among SST\_CUM, SSS, SLA, and u\_wind supports a joint-state interpretation rather than a single-  
315 driver response. This term should not be interpreted as the sum of separate marginal effects from u\_wind and SLA. The  
316 negligible unique contributions of u\_wind and SLA indicate that neither variable provides strong independent information on  
317 themselves. Instead, they become informative in the joint state because they help distinguish plume-retention conditions during  
318 cumulative heat stress. The composite fields show weakened winds relative to the summer monsoon background (Fig. 9c, d),  
319 reducing wind-driven offshore Ekman transport and favouring nearshore plume retention. Positive SLA anomalies over the  
320 adjacent shelf suggest elevated nearshore sea level during MHWs (Fig. 9h). This sea-level rise would reduce the estuary–shelf  
321 water-level gradient and slow the offshore spreading of plume water, reinforcing the retention effect of weakened winds.  
322 Sustained surface heating could further stabilize the upper layer, as indicated by positive temperature and  $N^2$  anomalies in Fig.  
323 S1b and c in the Supplement. This stratified surface layer would help maintain nutrient-rich plume water within the euphotic  
324 zone. Under these nutrient-rich and stratified conditions, elevated temperatures can favour Chl-a accumulation by enhancing  
325 phytoplankton growth rates (Marañón et al., 2018), and extreme temperatures in eutrophic coastal waters have been shown to  
326 promote rather than inhibit phytoplankton blooms (Hayashida et al., 2020). Although the selected physical variables support



327 the plume-retention interpretation, the relatively high causality leak in the PRE indicates that unresolved biogeochemical  
 328 processes may also contribute to local Chl-a variability.



329  
 330 **Figure 8. Selection of the four-variable subset and SURD decomposition for the PRE during summer MHWs (a) Sensitivity of the**  
 331 **causality leak to the number of bins. The solid red line denotes the selected variable subset, and the dot-dashed grey line denotes the**  
 332 **ensemble mean across all four-variable subsets. Shading indicates the full range and  $\pm 1$  standard deviation of the ensemble. The**  
 333 **yellow star marks the selected discretization parameter of nine bins. (b) Relative non-leak information contributions to the future**  
 334 **Chl-a anomaly. Percentages are normalized by the sum of all unique, redundant, and synergistic SURD terms for the selected subset.**  
 335 **The grey bar indicates the causality leak,  $\Delta I_{\text{leak} \rightarrow j} / H(Q_j^+)$ , which is normalized separately. Only the six largest non-leak terms are**  
 336 **shown; therefore, the displayed percentages do not sum to 100 %.**



337

338 **Figure 9.** Summer climatological fields and MHW-related anomaly composites in the PRE. The first row shows (a) summer  
 339 climatological SST ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) and (b) mean cumulative intensity of summer MHWs ( $^{\circ}\text{C days}$ ). The remaining rows display, from top to  
 340 bottom, wind speed ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ), SSS (PSU), SLA (cm), and Chl-a ( $\text{mg m}^{-3}$ ); the left and right columns represent the summer climatological  
 341 mean and the corresponding MHW anomaly field, respectively. In the wind panels, arrows indicate climatological wind vectors in  
 342 (c) and wind-vector anomalies in (d). The dashed black box denotes the PRE region used for regional analysis. The anomaly fields  
 343 were calculated from daily departures relative to the day-of-year climatology and then averaged using an event-equal composite.

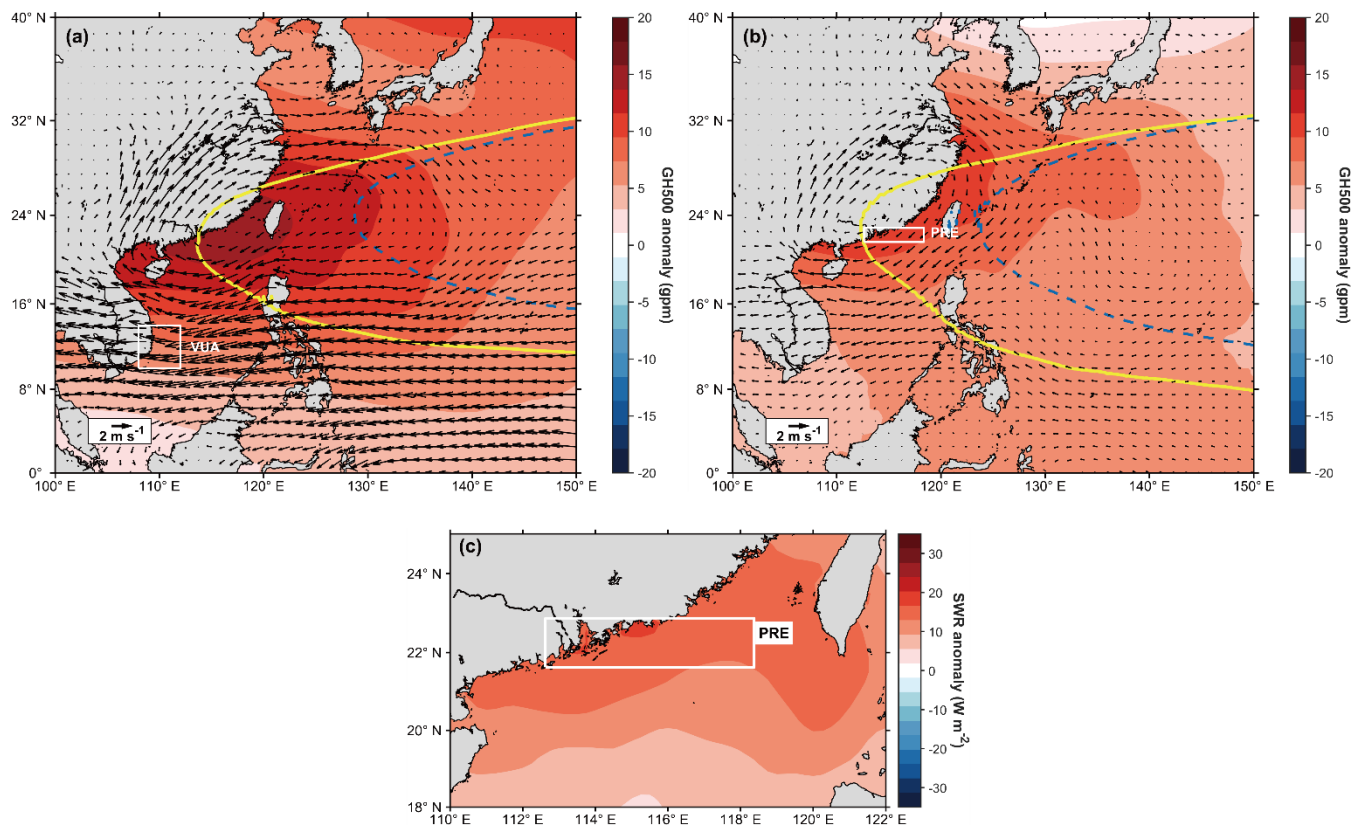


#### 344 4.2 Contrasting regional responses to the western North Pacific subtropical high

345 The VUA and the PRE exhibit contrasting Chl-a responses during summer MHWs, yet their respective event composites point  
346 to a similar large-scale atmospheric background associated with the westward extension and intensification of the western  
347 North Pacific subtropical high (WNPSH; Fig. 10a, b). Here, GH500 denotes 500 hPa geopotential height, expressed in  
348 geopotential metres (gpm), and the 5875 gpm contour is used as a proxy for the WNPSH extent (Basconcillo and Moon, 2022;  
349 Nie et al., 2024). Under similar large-scale circulation anomalies, differences in regional oceanographic settings give rise to  
350 distinct physical pathways and contrasting physical–biological coupling mechanisms (Fig. 11).

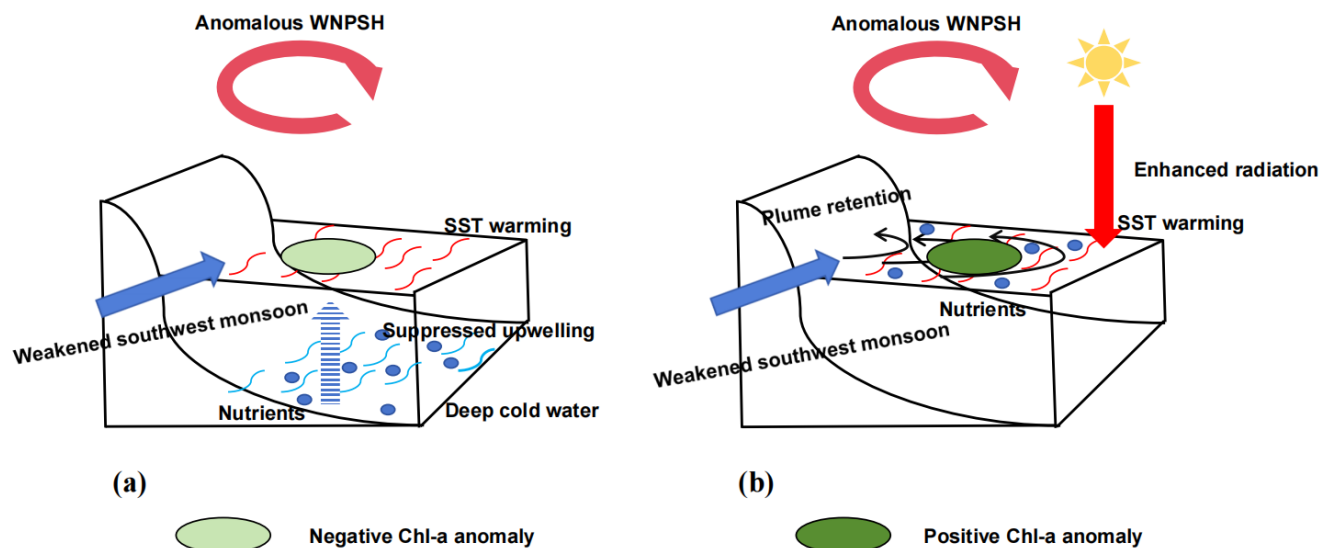
351 In the VUA, MHW occurrence and negative Chl-a anomalies are linked through a common physical pathway. For the VUA  
352 events, positive GH500 anomalies and the westward extension of the 5875 gpm contour are accompanied by anomalous low-  
353 level winds consistent with weakened southwest monsoon forcing (Yao and Wang, 2021; Li et al., 2022). This shift in  
354 dynamical forcing weakens coastal Ekman transport and EPV. This suppression produces two linked effects: first, reduced  
355 upwelling of cold subsurface water weakens surface cooling and favours elevated temperatures (Yao and Wang, 2021); second,  
356 restricted upward nutrient transport to the euphotic zone decreases Chl-a concentrations. These results indicate that MHW  
357 development and reduced Chl-a in the VUA represent coupled thermal and biological responses to weakened vertical dynamics  
358 under the same anomalous wind forcing.

359 By contrast, the PRE exhibits a more complex response, reflecting the joint effects of thermal and dynamical processes. The  
360 WNPSH-related anomalies influence the PRE through two distinct pathways. Thermally, the PRE composite shows positive  
361 SWR anomalies over the northern shelf (Fig. 10c), indicating enhanced incident shortwave radiation during MHWs. Given  
362 that the SST variability in shallow areas is highly sensitive to surface heat fluxes, the enhanced radiation favours rapid surface  
363 warming and hence MHW development (Wang et al., 2022; Gao et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2025). Dynamically, WNPSH-related  
364 anomalous atmospheric circulations weakened low-level wind forcing over the northern SCS shelf (Fig. 10b), reducing wind-  
365 driven offshore transport. As a result, low-salinity river plume water is more likely to be retained nearshore, as reflected by  
366 negative SSS anomalies in the plume-affected region (Fig. 9f). In the eutrophic PRE, this retained plume water likely supplied  
367 nutrient-rich conditions that favoured positive Chl-a anomalies. These coupled pathways explain the simultaneous occurrence  
368 of elevated temperatures and positive Chl-a anomalies in the PRE, linking radiative warming with wind-regulated plume  
369 retention and inferred nutrient support.



370

371 **Figure 10. Composite large-scale atmospheric circulation and local shortwave-radiation anomalies during summer MHWs. (a, b)**  
 372 **Composite anomalies of 500 hPa geopotential height (GH500; geopotential metres, gpm) and 850 hPa wind ( $m s^{-1}$ ) for summer MHW**  
 373 **events in (a) the VUA and (b) the PRE during 1998 to 2024. The reference vector in panels (a) and (b) indicates  $2 m s^{-1}$ . The dashed**  
 374 **blue and solid yellow contours denote the summer-climatological and MHW composite 5875 gpm GH500 contours, respectively. (c)**  
 375 **Composite SWR anomalies ( $W m^{-2}$ ) during summer MHW events in the PRE. All anomalies are relative to the summer climatology**  
 376 **over the corresponding analysis period. White rectangles mark the focal study regions.**



377

378 **Figure 11.** Schematic diagram of the contrasting physical–biological coupling mechanisms in the VUA and the PRE during summer  
 379 MHWs under an anomalous WNPSH. (a) In the VUA, a weakened southwest monsoon suppresses coastal upwelling, which  
 380 simultaneously reduces surface cooling and restricts subsurface nutrient supply, thereby favouring MHW development and a  
 381 negative Chl-a anomaly. (b) In the PRE, enhanced shortwave radiation heats the surface water, while weakened wind-driven  
 382 offshore transport promotes the nearshore retention of nutrient-rich river plumes, thereby favouring MHW development and a  
 383 positive Chl-a anomaly. Arrows indicate key physical processes, and ellipse colours denote the sign of the Chl-a response.

#### 384 4.3 Causal leakage and uncertainty in SURD-based interpretation

385 In the SURD framework, the causality leak represents the residual uncertainty of the target variable that cannot be explained  
 386 by the selected driver set under the prescribed time lag, variable combination, and discretization scheme. It should not be  
 387 interpreted as model failure, but rather as the incompleteness of the current variable set in explaining Chl-a variability. The  
 388 causality leak is lower in the VUA than in the PRE, indicating that the selected physical variables capture a larger fraction of  
 389 the information associated with Chl-a anomalies in the upwelling system, whereas greater unresolved uncertainty remains in  
 390 the estuarine shelf system.

391 This regional difference reflects the contrasting process complexity of the two systems. In the VUA, negative Chl-a anomalies  
 392 are closely linked to wind-driven vertical dynamics. The selected variables, including EPV, SSS, SLA, and SST\_CUM,  
 393 represent key physical processes such as weakened upwelling, thermocline adjustment, and enhanced stratification. The SURD  
 394 decomposition thus provides a physically consistent interpretation of the Chl-a decline in the VUA. In comparison, the PRE is  
 395 more complex. Chl-a variability there is influenced by wind-regulated plume retention and surface warming, but it is also  
 396 modulated by biological processes, which are difficult to resolve using the current multi-source datasets, particularly sediment-  
 397 driven light limitation and zooplankton grazing pressure (Chen et al., 2009; Lu and Gan, 2015). These processes were not  
 398 included as SURD inputs and are therefore absorbed into the causality leak term.



399 Given these constraints, the PRE results should be interpreted as relative information contributions among the included  
400 physical variables, rather than as a complete attribution of estuarine Chl-a variability. The high unique contribution of SSS  
401 and the synergistic contribution among SST\_CUM, SSS, SLA, and u\_wind support a physically consistent plume-retention  
402 interpretation, but they are insufficient to establish the nutrient delivery pathway. The lag sensitivity tests and bin-based  
403 parameter selection support the robustness of the main SURD results. These tests cannot eliminate uncertainty arising from  
404 unresolved biological processes. Direct validation will require high-frequency in situ observations of nutrients, light  
405 attenuation, and plankton biomass during MHW events in the PRE.

## 406 **5 Conclusions**

407 This study used satellite observations and reanalysis data from 1998 to 2024 to investigate Chl-a responses to MHWs in the  
408 SCS. MHW metrics indicated prominent MHW activity in both the PRE and the VUA. During summer MHWs, Chl-a exhibited  
409 positive anomalies in the PRE and negative anomalies in the VUA. By applying SURD, we quantified the contributions of  
410 multiple physical drivers to these contrasting summer Chl-a responses.

411 Although WNPSH-related circulation anomalies provided a similar large-scale atmospheric background, the contrasting Chl-  
412 a responses were shaped largely by region-specific physical pathways. Direct thermal forcing alone was insufficient to explain  
413 these differences. In the VUA, the dominant unique contribution of EPV indicates that weakened upwelling was the key  
414 physical pathway linking MHW development and negative Chl-a anomalies. Reduced vertical transport restricted nutrient  
415 replenishment to the euphotic zone. In addition, weakened upwelling brought less cold subsurface water to the surface,  
416 enhancing the stratification during MHWs and thereby inhibiting vertical nutrient exchange. This process also contributed to  
417 the decline of the local Chl-a. In the PRE, the dominant unique contribution of SSS and its synergy with SST\_CUM, SLA, and  
418 u\_wind support a coupled radiative-warming and plume-retention interpretation. Enhanced shortwave radiation favoured rapid  
419 surface warming and MHW development in this shallow shelf region, while weakened wind-driven export promoted the  
420 nearshore retention of low-salinity plume water. The retained plume water strengthened upper-ocean stratification and likely  
421 enhanced nutrient availability, favouring for Chl-a accumulation within the euphotic zone.

422 By separating unique, redundant, and synergistic information, SURD distinguishes independent physical contributions from  
423 shared and joint effects among covarying drivers. The interpretation is limited by the variables in the current multi-source  
424 datasets, especially in the PRE. The higher causality leak in the PRE indicates that unresolved optical and biological processes,  
425 such as sediment-driven light limitation and zooplankton grazing, remain important sources of uncertainty. The plume-  
426 retention pathway in the PRE should therefore be treated as a physically supported interpretation rather than a complete  
427 explanation of the estuarine Chl-a response. Future high-frequency observations of nutrient, optical, and plankton observations  
428 will be needed to validate the inferred pathways.

429 Overall, this study shows that contrasting Chl-a responses to summer MHWs in the SCS cannot be explained by heat stress  
430 alone. In both the VUA and the PRE, heat accumulation acted mainly through joint effects with region-specific physical



431 processes rather than as the dominant independent driver. These findings help clarify why Chl-a responses differ among SCS  
432 regions and provide a more process-based view of physical–biological coupling during MHWs. Future applications of this  
433 SURD-based framework to other marginal seas, such as the Bohai Sea, Yellow Sea, and East China Sea, could help assess  
434 whether MHW-driven Chl-a responses arise from similar or regionally distinct physical–biological pathways.

#### 435 **Data availability**

436 The datasets used in this study are publicly available from their respective data providers. SST data were downloaded from  
437 NOAA OISST v2.1 (<https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/data/sea-surface-temperature-optimum-interpolation/v2.1/access/avhrr/>, last  
438 access: 23 May 2026). Chl-a data were obtained from the Copernicus Marine Service GlobColour L4 product  
439 ([https://data.marine.copernicus.eu/product/OCEANCOLOUR\\_GLO\\_BGC\\_L4\\_MY\\_009\\_104/services](https://data.marine.copernicus.eu/product/OCEANCOLOUR_GLO_BGC_L4_MY_009_104/services), last access: 23 May  
440 2026). Salinity, temperature, currents, and MLD data were obtained from the Copernicus Marine Service GLORYS12V1 ocean  
441 reanalysis product ([https://data.marine.copernicus.eu/product/GLOBAL\\_MULTIYEAR\\_PHY\\_001\\_030/services](https://data.marine.copernicus.eu/product/GLOBAL_MULTIYEAR_PHY_001_030/services), last access:  
442 23 May 2026). SLA data were obtained from the Copernicus Marine Service sea level product  
443 ([https://data.marine.copernicus.eu/product/SEALEVEL\\_GLO\\_PHY\\_CLIMATE\\_L4\\_MY\\_008\\_057/services](https://data.marine.copernicus.eu/product/SEALEVEL_GLO_PHY_CLIMATE_L4_MY_008_057/services), last access: 23  
444 May 2026). The 10 m wind and SWR data were obtained from ERA5 daily statistics on single levels  
445 (<https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/datasets/derived-era5-single-levels-daily-statistics?tab=download>, last access: 23 May  
446 2026). GH500 and 850 hPa wind data were obtained from ERA5 daily statistics on pressure levels  
447 (<https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/datasets/derived-era5-pressure-levels-daily-statistics?tab=download>, last access: 23 May  
448 2026). All datasets were used for the common analysis period of 1998–2024.

#### 449 **Author contributions**

450 YLF and LC conceived the study. YLF, LC, and CYC designed the analysis framework. YLF compiled and processed the  
451 datasets, conducted the analyses, generated the figures, and wrote the original manuscript. CYC and MYL contributed to  
452 dataset compilation and checked the analyses. LC, CYC, and PLL contributed to the analysis design and interpretation of the  
453 results. All authors reviewed and edited the final version of the manuscript.

#### 454 **Competing interests**

455 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.



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