

1 Intensified upwelling: normalized sea surface temperature trends

2 expose climate change in coastal areas

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8

9 **Abstract.**

10 The Eastern Boundary Upwelling Systems (EBUS) provide valuable natural resources due to their high
11 primary production. However, there is significant uncertainty in how climate change may affect the
12 mechanisms that sustain these ecosystems in the future. Therefore, assessing the effects of climate change
13 on the EBUS under the current global warming scenario is crucial for efficient ecosystem management.
14 In 1990, Andrew Bakun suggested an increase in the upwelling intensity due to the rise of the ocean-land
15 pressure gradient. Since there is a significant link between thermal gradients and offshore Ekman
16 transport, we use sea level pressure (SLP) and deseasonalized sea surface temperature (SST) data from
17 remote sensing to elucidate this hypothesis and validate it using in-situ observations. SST is an indicator
18 of coastal upwelling, and our long-term analysis of monthly and deseasonalized SST records shows that
19 the seasonal and synoptic processes have minimal influence on the SST-upwelling intensity relationship.
20 Upwelling within the same EBUS is not usually evenly distributed along coastlines, leading to upwelling
21 in specific areas, upwelling centers. We compare the SST trends in the main upwelling centers of the four
22 EBUS with those in open ocean waters through a new index, α_{UI} , designed to characterize upwelling
23 changes in the EBUS. An adimensional number allows us to normalize the trends independently of the
24 upwelling system and compare all of them. Furthermore, we have complemented the SST index with sea
25 level pressure gradient data. This new index (supported by SLP gradient trends) indicates intensification
26 in all the EBUS, revealing a coherent pattern within EBUS in the same ocean (i.e., Canarian and Benguela
27 or Californian and Humboldt Upwelling Systems).

28 **1. Introduction**

29 The world's major coastal upwelling areas exist along the eastern margins of the Pacific and the Atlantic
30 Oceans. These extended coastal upwelling systems are known as Eastern Boundary Upwelling Systems
31 (EBUS) and sustain the most important fisheries in the world (Pauly and Christensen, 1995). The rise of
32 cool, nutrient-rich waters supports the high primary production needed to maintain these complex
33 ecosystems (Ekman, 1905). Their economic and ecological relevance explains the association of the
34 EBUS with the world's major Large Marine Ecosystems (LME) (Fig 1). LME are a globalized approach
35 to a management framework that defines and ranks marine regions based on their gross primary
36 production (Sherman and Hempel, 2008), and four of the largest LME are embedded in the EBUS
37 worldwide (Kämpf and Chapman, 2016).

38 Bakun, (1990) hypothesized that the sea-land temperature gradient will increase under climate change
39 and therefore, it should increase the upwelling intensity. The hypothesized increase in the temperature
40 gradient arises from an increased atmospheric pressure gradient between the low-pressure cell that
41 develops over the heated land mass and the high-pressure cell existing over the colder ocean. Therefore,
42 as the land warms faster than the ocean, it enhances the low-pressure cells. Thus, the increase in the
43 pressure gradient drives more intense upwelling favorable winds, intensifying the cold imprint in the Sea
44 Surface Temperature (SST) near the shore. However, previous studies that have tested Bakun's hypothesis
45 with in-situ data have found contradictory long-term trends (Barton et al., 2013; Belkin, 2009; McGregor
46 et al., 2007; Rykaczewski et al., 2015; Sambe et al., 2016).

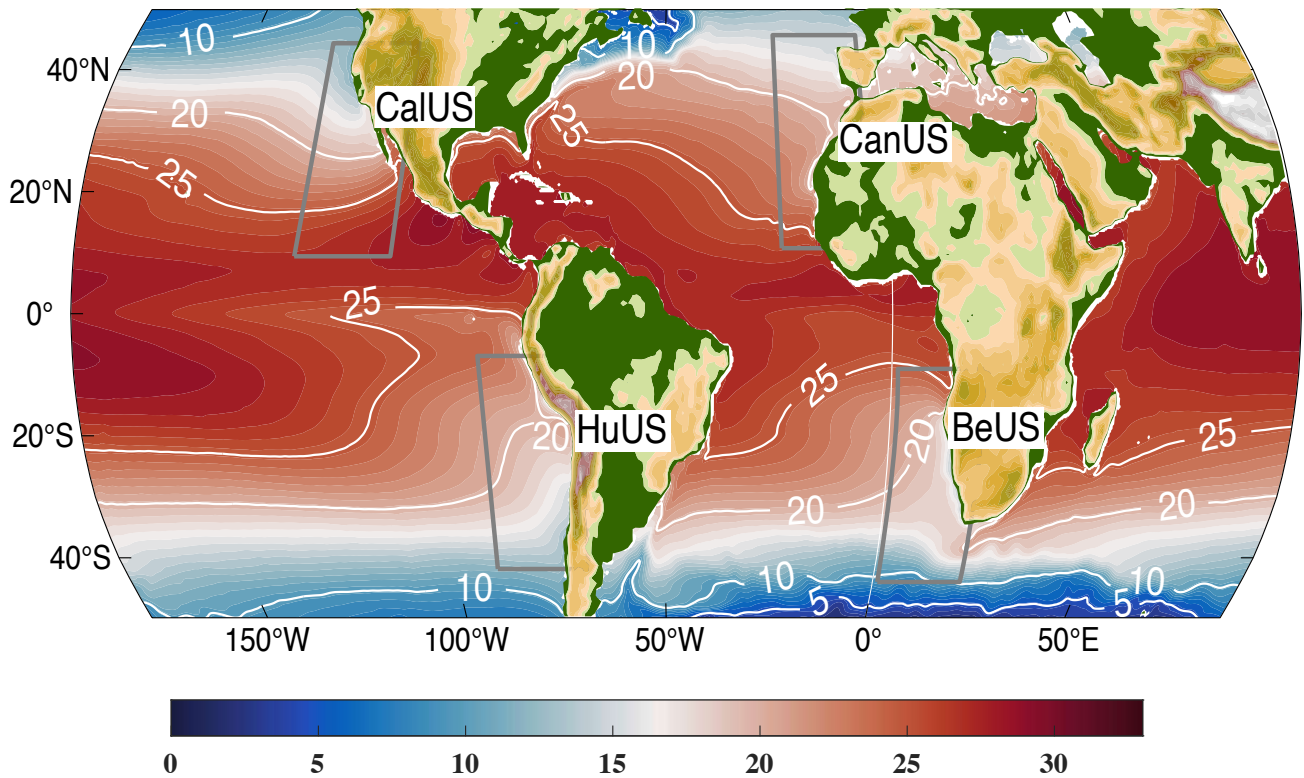


Fig 1: Location of the EBUS (enclosed and labelled areas) in the world, associated with eastern boundary currents.

47 Sydeman et al., (2014) performed a meta-analysis of 18 trends obtained from independent studies of wind
 48 stress, both from observational and model data. Observational data were more likely to report an increase
 49 in wind stress in the four EBUS than model data (excluding Benguela, where no observations were
 50 considered). However, the model data were less consistent between EBUS, showing agreement with
 51 observations only in the case of the California system (both supporting intensification) and for the Iberian
 52 system (with a consistent weakening of the wind stress). García-Reyes et al., (2015) also remarked that
 53 in climate change models, the upwelling-related cooling trends were difficult to reproduce due to the
 54 small spatial scale of the coastal upwelling process. Such a controversy between the model, and different
 55 observations reflects the complexity of EBUS dynamics.

56 Upwelling within the same EBUS is not usually evenly distributed due to irregular coastlines and
57 seafloors, resulting in more pronounced upwelling in specific 'upwelling centers'. In these areas, the sea
58 surface temperature (SST) drops significantly as cold subsurface water rises, leading to a stronger
59 relationship between SST and upwelling intensity (Kämpf and Chapman, 2016). Consequently, these
60 upwelling centers exhibit a stronger signal-to-noise ratio between SST and Ekman transport, making them
61 ideal for studying long-term upwelling trends.

62 The main motivation of this study is to assess the impacts of climate change on the four EBUS. This is
63 pursued by using satellite-derived SST trends as a proxy for changes and a new index that normalizes the
64 upwelling trend of the coastal upwelling with the oceanic background trends. Specifically, we have
65 chosen points representative of each dynamical regime at each EBUS: offshore oceanic waters (OC1),
66 non-upwelling (DW1) areas nearshore, and upwelling centers (UP1 and UP2). These points were chosen
67 based on the consistency of the year-round upwelling centers deduced from the mean SST field and the
68 relevance of the area as spawning and nursery emplacements for the pelagic fisheries associated with
69 upwelling centers. Then, we compare the SST trends in the main upwelling centers of the four EBUS
70 with those in open ocean waters through a new index, α_{UI} , designed to characterize upwelling changes in
71 the EBUS, following Bakun's (1990) hypothesis. The manuscript is organized as follows: sections 2 and
72 3 describe the dataset and the analysis carried out in the study. Section 4 describes the relevant results,
73 which are discussed and contrasted with other studies, and finally, Section 5 summarizes and presents the
74 conclusions.

75 **2. Data**

76 We based our study on the SST blended analyses for sea surface temperature of the National Ocean and
77 Atmosphere Administration (NOAA) (Reynolds et al., 2007), which combines SST satellite retrievals
78 with in-situ measures from ships and buoys. This dataset has a spatial resolution of 0.25° and covers
79 nearly 40 years (from 1982 to 2021). Following Barton et al. (2013), the 40 years used in this study allow
80 us to estimate significant trends. Their analysis involved a comprehensive examination of both wind stress
81 and SST. They segmented these datasets into various subsets of different lengths. Within this analysis,

82 the trends derived from wind datasets are not significantly different from zero for all considered subset
83 periods.
84 In contrast, SST trends demonstrated statistical significance with a 40-year length dataset. In addition, we
85 incorporated reliable in-situ data in the North Pacific and the North Atlantic oceans for validation. These
86 records were obtained from the National Buoy Data Center (NDBC) and the CalCOFI (California
87 Cooperative Fisheries Investigations) program for the Pacific. For the Atlantic, the data were gathered
88 from Puertos del Estado and the RaProCan (Radial Profunda de Canarias) observational program of the
89 Spanish Institute of Oceanography in the Canary Islands (Tel et al., 2016). The in-situ data, limited to the
90 northern hemisphere, is used to validate the satellite observations. Given the significantly greater density
91 existing in the Pacific Ocean compared to the Atlantic Ocean, a lower error is expected in the reanalysis
92 for the Pacific Ocean. We have also used the EN4 (ENhanced ocean data assimilation and climate
93 Prediction) dataset from the Met Office Hadley Centre (Good et al., 2013), a collection of global
94 observations from diverse sources interpolated into a monthly product and a spatial resolution of 1°. Due
95 to the limited sampling in the cruise data, we cannot align it with the monthly resolution of the EN4
96 product. To maintain statistical rigor, we choose not to employ the cruise data for the validation of EN4.
97 Additionally, two sea level pressure (SLP) datasets are used: the NCEP and ERA5 reanalysis data. The
98 ERA5, from the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts, offers a high resolution of ~0.25
99 degrees and uses advanced data assimilation methods, covering the period from 1950 to present. While
100 the NCEP/NCAR Reanalysis, from the National Centers for Environmental Prediction and the National
101 Center for Atmospheric Research, offers a resolution of 2.5 degrees and covers the period from 1948 to
102 present.

103 **3. Method**

104 **3.1. Selection of Representative Dynamical Regimes in EBUS.**

105 We have selected areas representative of the different dynamical regimes for further analysis, to avoid
106 mixing observations in dynamically different areas. Areas UP1 and UP2 are year-round upwelling
107 centers. The DW1 are areas of convergence where the upwelling does not dominate on an annual average,

108 and these areas are characterized by higher SST averages than those in the upwelling centers. The OC1
109 is representative of open ocean (>100 km offshore) areas with trends driven by Global Warming. Given
110 the distinctive and unique features that characterized each EBUS, as commented in Section 1, we based
111 the selection of the representative locations on the literature and the SST mean field (Fig. 2):

112 **Californian Upwelling System (CaIUS)**

113 In the Californian system, the strongest wind stress takes place in spring in the southern portion of the
114 CalUS. In summer the strongest winds occur offshore of northern California around 38° N. This wind
115 stress pattern diminishes as we move away from this latitude in both directions (Bakun and Nelson, 1991).
116 Among the four regions depicted by Kämpf and Chapman (2016), the strongest upwelling occurs in two
117 well-known upwelling centers (see Fig 2a) that we have selected for the analysis in this study: Cape
118 Mendocino (UP1) (Abbott and Zion, 1987) and north to Point Conception (UP2) (Dugdale and Wilkerson,
119 1989), south of it, the wind's seasonal variability is different.

120 **Canarian Upwelling System (CanUS)**

121 Following Kämpf and Chapman (2016), the CanUS is divided into two distinct upwelling areas, which
122 experience limited continuity of flows between them. This division arises due to the coastline interruption
123 in the Strait of Gibraltar that leads to two upwelling areas: the Iberian Upwelling System and the Canarian
124 Upwelling System. Given the lack of permanent upwelling centers in the Iberian Upwelling System, we
125 have focused on the Canarian Upwelling System. Following Cropper et al. (2014), we selected the two
126 upwelling centers (UP1 and UP2) on the cold SST cores (see Fig 2b) within the permanent upwelling
127 area.

128 **Humboldt Upwelling System (HuUS)**

129 The HuUS is characterized by prominently strong upwelling zones along the Peruvian-Chilean coastline,
130 due to the topographical influence of headlands, as described by Figueroa & Moffat, (2000) and Mesias
131 et al., (2003). Notable regional upwelling centers encompass the continental shelf near Pisco (13.7°S),
132 Antofagasta (21-25°S), and the Mejillones Peninsula (23°S), as well as extending further south to

133 Coquimbo Bay (30°S), Valparaíso (33° S), and the Bay of Concepción (37°S). Moreover, in the
134 Mejillones Peninsula (23°S), both observational (e.g., Marín, 2003) and modeling studies (Escribano et
135 al., 2004) have revealed that the dynamics of coastal ecosystems in this area heavily rely on the generation
136 of upwelling filaments. Additionally, the continental shelf near Pisco (13.7°S) emerges as an
137 exceptionally productive and distinctive upwelling center. Hence, the two upwelling centers (Fig 2c)
138 selected are Pisco (UP1) and the Mejillones Peninsula (UP2).

139 **Benguela Upwelling System (BeUS)**

140 As Kämpf and Chapman (2016) described, within the Benguela Upwelling System, numerous upwelling
141 centers extend along the shelf area of the Benguela Current region. These centers include Cape Frio
142 (18.5°S), Walvis Bay (22.95°S), Lüderitz (26.45°S), Namaqualand (28.55°S), Cape Columbine
143 (32.85°S), and Cape Town (33.95°S). Lüderitz stands out as a particularly noteworthy upwelling center
144 within this system (Andrews and Hutchings, 1980; Lutjeharms and Meeuwis, 1987; Peard, 2007). As
145 Hutchings et al. (2009) defined, Lüderitz represents an intensive perennial upwelling center characterized
146 by intense winds, high turbulence, and robust offshore transport. Another significant area of interest lies
147 in Cape Columbine, primarily due to its biological importance (Andrews and Hutchings, 1980; Bang and
148 Andrews, 1974; Andrews and Cram, 1969). Given these distinctive features, we have selected Lüderitz
149 (UP1) and Cape Columbine (UP2) as the upwelling centers for our analysis (Fig 2d).

150 **3.2. Trends Analysis**

151 With a minimum data length of over 30 years, a climate series can usually be described as a combination
152 of multiple variabilities at different time scales. Since we are interested in the trend of the record, we
153 removed the high-frequency variability (<1 yr) by averaging the daily NOAA SST analyses data (1982-
154 2021) into monthly means and removing the seasonal cycle. The seasonal cycle is a recursive signal
155 throughout the entire record, and therefore, it does not influence the trend but induces noise in the target
156 scale. The monthly climatology was subtracted from the record to remove the seasonal cycle. After this
157 pre-analysis, we calculated the trend with the ordinary least square method. We evaluated the strength of
158 these correlations using the Pearson Correlation Coefficient (PCC). The following qualitative

159 classification will be used throughout the manuscript: Perfect (1), very high (>0.9), high (>0.7), and
 160 moderate (>0.5). Additionally, we employed the simple Mann-Kendall (MK) test to evaluate the statistical
 161 robustness (Kendall, 1975; Mann, 1945). The MK tests verify whether an n-length series holds a
 162 monotonic increase or decrease trend. In addition, we need to consider the instrumental error since,
 163 historically, a warm coastal bias is found in satellite records compared to in-situ records (Smale and
 164 Wernberg, 2009). This bias was assessed in the northern hemisphere by validating the data using in-situ
 165 observations. Additionally, to assess the drivers of change in upwelling intensity, we calculated the sea
 166 level pressure gradients for each EBUS. The gradients were calculated between the cores of the high- and
 167 low-pressure systems (exact positions provided in supplementary material, Fig S1). To corroborate more
 168 recent hypothesis that suggests an alternative mechanism, a poleward shift of the oceanic high-pressure
 169 system would stimulate latitude-dependent changes in the magnitude and timing of the upwelling winds
 170 (Rykaczewski et al., 2015). A displacement of the pressure systems would increase the standard deviation
 171 of the trends around their cores.

172 3.3. Angular Index of Upwelling Intensification (α_{UI})

173 To test Bakun's hypothesis, a new index, named the Angular Index of Upwelling Intensification (α_{UI}), is
 174 proposed. This new index uses the angle between the trend of the most robust upwelling cell at each
 175 EBUS and the trend at the corresponding open ocean area. If the upwelling intensifies, as Bakun proposed,
 176 the trends in the open ocean and the cell are expected to differ significantly, resulting in a higher angle
 177 between the trends. To calculate α_{UI} , two vectors (in the time-temperature space) may be constructed from
 178 the upwelling (\overrightarrow{Up}) and oceanic (\overrightarrow{Oc}) trends. The rotation sense (clockwise or anticlockwise) is used to
 179 calculate the relative orientation of (\overrightarrow{Up}) over (\overrightarrow{Oc}), needing to consider an additional unit vector (\vec{n})
 180 normal to \overrightarrow{Up} and \overrightarrow{Oc}

181 The mathematical formulation of α_{UI} is

$$182 \quad \alpha_{UI} = \arctan^* \left(\frac{((\overrightarrow{Up} \times \overrightarrow{Oc}) \cdot \vec{n})}{\overrightarrow{Up} \cdot \overrightarrow{Oc}} \right) = \arctan \left(\frac{|\overrightarrow{Up}| |\overrightarrow{Oc}| \sin(\alpha_{UI})}{|\overrightarrow{Up}| |\overrightarrow{Oc}| \cos(\alpha_{UI})} |\vec{n}| \cos(\beta) \right)$$

183 * We used the four-quadrants arc tangent in this analysis since it allows to determine the sign of the
184 angle based on the signs of the arguments.

185 Following the right-hand rule, if the cross product of (\vec{Up}) and (\vec{Oc}) is anticlockwise (that is, if the open
186 ocean trend (\vec{Oc}) is greater than the upwelling trend (\vec{Up}) , the resulting vector of the cross product has the
187 same orientation as \vec{n} . This implies that the dot product $(\vec{Up} \times \vec{Oc}) \cdot \vec{n}$ is positive since the angle (β)
188 between \vec{n} and $(\vec{Up} \times \vec{Oc})$ is 0° . In case the upwelling trend is greater than the open ocean trend, $\vec{Up} \times \vec{Oc}$
189 results negative since β is now 180° . Note that this methodology is susceptible to the order of the vectors,
190 as $\vec{Up} \times \vec{Oc} = -\vec{Oc} \times \vec{Up}$. Since we are interested in the relative position of the upwelling trend concerning
191 the oceanic waters, the order used is $\vec{Up} \times \vec{Oc}$. It is important to note that the angle derived from
192 trigonometric functions are not influence by units associated with the original vectors. Therefore, this
193 new index is independent of temperature and time units.

194 We also conducted a probabilistic assessment of uncertainties for α_{UI} , taking into account the uncertainties
195 associated with upwelling and open ocean SST series. We performed an error estimation using the Monte
196 Carlo method: individual data points were separately and randomly sampled 10,000 times within their
197 respective uncertainty ranges for (Up) and (Oc). These new sampled series were then used to calculate
198 α_{UI} . The standard deviation of the 10,000 simulations represents the uncertainty of α_{UI} .

199 3.4. Satellite Validation

200 Taking advantage of the in-situ observations available in the study areas defined in Fig 2, we performed
201 a validation through linear regression between in-situ and the deseasonalized satellite data. Records with
202 no systematic error correspond to a linear regression slope with a value of 1 (perfect). Since the Pacific
203 Ocean is better sampled than the Atlantic, better reanalysis performance and higher correlation are
204 expected in the Pacific Ocean.

205 4. Results

206 4.1. Satellite Validation

207 We first carried out a regional validation, in the northern hemisphere, with in-situ observations (Fig 2a
208 and 2b) to test the consistency of the NOAA SST analyses between oceans. A linear fit between in-situ
209 and satellite data gives insights into the reliability of the SST data in both oceans. As described in Section
210 2, the in-situ dataset was divided into two categories: mooring and cruise data. Because each record has
211 a different spatial and temporal resolution, categories are not comparable. Nonetheless, all the linear fits
212 are statistically significant.

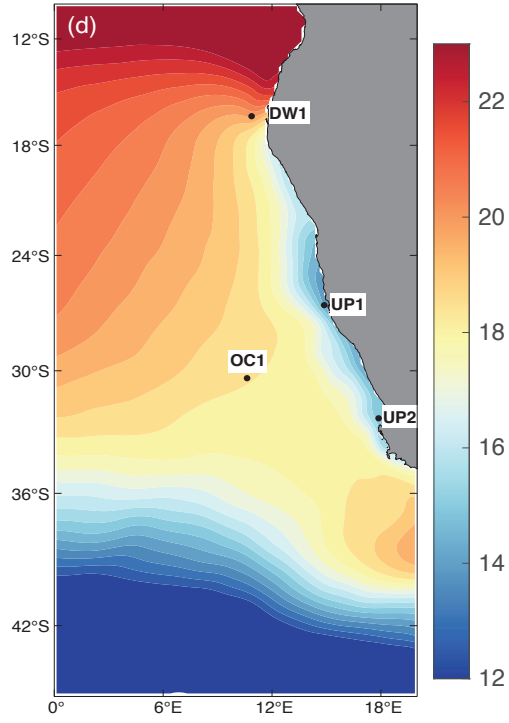
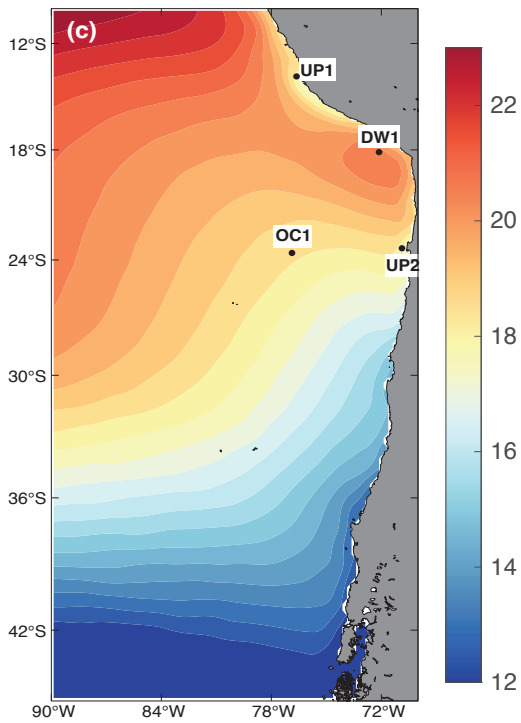
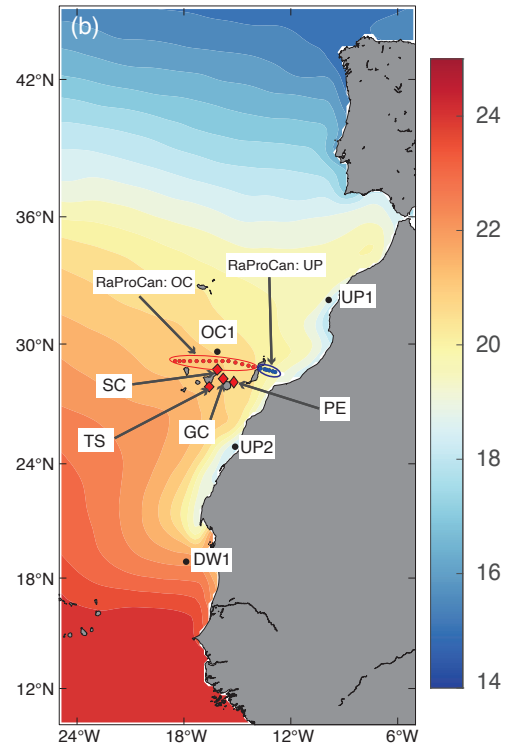
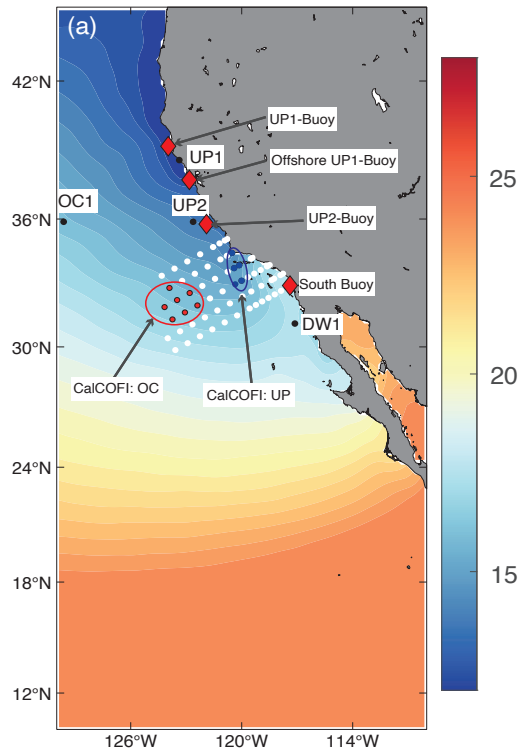


Fig 2: Average SST (°C) maps for each of the Upwelling Systems: CalUS (a), CanUS (b), HuUS (c), and BeUS (d). Overlaid are the locations of the moorings (red diamond) and cruise data (black dots) used for the satellite validation with their corresponding names. The cruise stations were divided into upwelling (blue dots) and open ocean areas (red dots). The representative points of UP, DW, and OC in each basin are shown as black dots. The colour scales are presented at the right margin of each graph.

213 In the Pacific Ocean, the moorings selected were those as close as possible to the areas UP1, UP2, DW1,
214 and OC1 described in section 3.1 and 3.4. We found the highest correlations inside the upwelling center
215 of this region, where the UP1-Buoy and UP2-Buoy presented a linear regression fit of 0.99, supported by
216 a very high correlation strength (0.94 and 0.92, respectively, Table 1). In the area where the upwelling
217 meets the oceanographic background, the correlation of the offshore UP1-Buoy with the NOAA SST data
218 decays slightly, presenting a linear slope of 0.84 and a correlation strength of 0.86. For the South-Buoy,
219 close to DW1, the lineal fit and correlation (0.97 and 0.92) are closer to the values inside of the upwelling
220 cell than of the offshore UP1-Buoy (Table 1). The results obtained for the offshore UP1-Buoy exemplify
221 the effect of using a large averaging area surrounding the upwelling centers instead of a point, as the
222 average introduces noise by adding points where upwelling might not be taking place, reducing the
223 correlation in the transitional zone.

224 The cruise observations in the Pacific Ocean (CalCOFI) were divided into two different areas, open ocean
225 (CalCOFI: OC) and upwelling (CalCOFI: UP), and we avoid data at transitional areas, as seen in Fig 2a.
226 The results of the linear fit between the cruise and the reanalysis data are similar to those obtained with
227 the mooring data (Table 1 and supplementary material Fig S2). The average within the upwelling cell,
228 CalCOFI: UP, has a very high linear regression value (0.91), while for the offshore stations, CalCOFI:
229 OC, the regression is 0.81. Nevertheless, the strength of the correlation is sensitive to the amount of data
230 available from the cruise data in the ocean versus the upwelling areas. Additionally, due to the time
231 resolution of the cruise, the correlation strength is moderate (0.68) for the CalCOFI: OC and high (0.71)
232 for the CalCOFI: UP.

233 We also compared the EN4 dataset (Table 1, two last columns) against the NOAA SST analysis. As
234 described in section 2, due to the coarse temporal resolution of the cruise data, it was not possible to
235 compare with the EN4 monthly. Overall, the EN4 has lower correlation and regression values than the
236 NOAA SST analyses. The correlation has the same pattern in both datasets (NOAA and EN4): moderate

237 in the northern locations (0.60 and 0.63) and high in the southern locations (both with 0.76), although the
 238 data length of the EN4, unlike the cruise records, is the same as the mooring.

In-situ Data	NOAA		EN4	
	Linear Slope	Correlation	Linear Slope	Correlation
UP1-Buoy (46014).	0.99	0.92	0.70	0.60
Offshore UP1-Buoy (46028).	0.84	0.86	0.72	0.63
UP2-Buoy (46225).	0.99	0.94	0.78	0.76
South-Buoy (46026).	0.97	0.92	0.77	0.76
CalCOFI: OC	0.81	0.71	-	-
CalCOFI: UP	0.91	0.68	-	-

239 **Table 1. Values of the linear regression and Pearson's correlation strength between the in-situ data (listed in the**
 240 **first column, with the designation within the manuscript and, in brackets, the official NDBC station ID). The in-**
 241 **situ data are compared with the NOAA SST reanalysis (second and third columns) and the EN4 product (last two**
 242 **columns) validation for the Pacific Ocean. The last two rows are for the CALCOFI cruise data of the Pacific**
 243 **Ocean.**

244 In the Atlantic Ocean, the number of in-situ measurements available is more limited than in the Pacific
 245 Ocean. Therefore, the long-term records are shorter than in the Pacific Ocean and are only available in
 246 the surroundings of the Canary Islands. The results reflect these limitations since none of the linear
 247 regressions or correlation coefficients ever exceeds 0.9, unlike the results for the Pacific Ocean (Table 1).
 248 As in the Pacific Ocean, the mooring data shows a better linear regression and higher correlation
 249 coefficient than the cruise data (Table 2 and supplementary material, Fig S3). The correlation coefficients
 250 for the buoys of Santa Cruz, Gran Canaria, and Tenerife Sur are high, with values of 0.89 (0.84), 0.84
 251 (0.87), and 0.83 (0.88), respectively. The result of Las Palmas East-Buoy is comparable to the linear slope
 252 for the cruise data, 0.71. However, the Las Palmas East-Buoy has a higher correlation coefficient (0.89),
 253 which agrees with the other moorings.

254 For the cruise data, we follow the same approach as in the Pacific Ocean, dividing the data into open
 255 ocean areas (RaProCan: OC) and upwelling centers (RaProCan: UP). As occurred for the results in the
 256 Pacific, the regression is better for the upwelling cell with values of 0.73 and a correlation strength of
 257 0.71. For the open ocean areas (RaProCan: OC), the linear slope is slightly lower (0.63) but has a higher
 258 correlation strength coefficient (0.77).

259 The EN4 dataset was also used in these areas and showed linear regressions and correlation coefficients
 260 similar to the cruise data, as shown in Table 1. In Table 2, the linear regressions of EN4 are close to the
 261 results of the moorings, even though EN4 performs similarly compared to Table 1. Thus, EN4 seems a
 262 better alternative in the Atlantic Ocean than in the Pacific Ocean, but only due to the lower performance
 263 of the NOAA SST analyses in the Atlantic Ocean. However, the correlation strength of the EN4 showed
 264 lower values than NOAA SST analyses, with three out of five locations under 0.70. Hence, using the
 265 NOAA SST analyses for long-term analysis in both oceans is a better approach.

In-situ Data	NOAA		EN4	
	Linear slope	Correlation	Linear Slope	Correlation
Las Palmas East Buoy.	0.71	0.89	0.80	0.71
Santa Cruz Buoy.	0.89	0.84	0.71	0.66
Gran Canaria Buoy.	0.84	0.87	0.76	0.54
Tenerife South Buoy.	0.83	0.88	0.77	0.53
RaProCan: OC	0.63	0.77	-	-
RaProCan: UP	0.73	0.71	-	-

266 **Table 2. Values of the linear fit and correlation strength between in-situ data (listed in the first column) and both**
 267 **the NOAA SST analyses (second and third columns) and the EN4 product (last two columns) for the Atlantic**
 268 **Ocean. The last two rows are for the RaProCan cruise data of the Atlantic Ocean.**

269 4.2. Trend patterns on the EBUS

270 We begin by identifying the overall pattern of the long-term trends in each EBUS, which we show in Fig
 271 3. A general pattern of cooling (negative) trends within the upwelling centers and warming (positive)
 272 trends offshore is found in most of the regions. An exception is found in the HuUS, where there is also a
 273 cooling trend offshore. This cooling mode, however, is not as pronounced as the trends onshore driven
 274 by the upwelling process. On top of these general patterns, each region presents unique features that will
 275 be described in the following paragraphs.

276 The mean trend for the CalUS (Fig 3a) is 0.10 (SD= 0.06) °C/decade. The minimum values, -0.17
 277 °C/decade, are located near Cape Mendocino, around 43-39°N, and 32°N corresponding to the permanent
 278 upwelling centers. On the other hand, maximum values (excluding the shallower Gulf of California),

279 reaching up to 0.20 °C/decade, are located south, at 30°N, where the winds are non-favorable for year-
280 round upwelling, and there is convergence (Kämpf & Chapman, 2016). At around 22 °N, there is an
281 offshore negative trend area with mean values of -0.02 °C/decade. However, the MK test revealed that
282 these trends in the offshore area are not significant. The extensive non-significant regions in the MK test
283 support the idea that the trends in the CalUS coastal upwelling are only statistically distinguishable from
284 zero within the upwelling centers.

285 In the CanUS (Fig 3b), the mean trend in the region is warmer than in CalUS, with a value of 0.20 (SD=
286 0.04) °C/decade. The minimum values (-0.20 °C/decade) are confined to two upwelling centers in the
287 permanent annual upwelling zones, located north of Cape Ghir and south of Cape Bojador. The maximum
288 warming trend is 0.60°C/decade, located west of Cape Timiris in the Mauritania-Senegalese convergence
289 zone. Because of the low spatial variability of the trend in the CanUS, the mean offshore value is the same
290 as the average value of the entire CanUS.

291 For the HuUS (Fig 3c), the mean value of the region is 0.007 (SD= 0.09) °C/decade. A cooling signal
292 stands out as the general pattern in the tropic, with a mean value of -0.15 °C/decade. Despite this cooling
293 of the overall trend, there are two clear upwelling centers, at 13°N and 24°N, with minimum values of -
294 0.36 °C/decade. In these upwelling centers, the negative trends are stronger than in the open ocean at the
295 same latitudes.

296 Finally, in the BeUS (Fig 3d), the mean trend is 0.19 (SD= 0.09) °C/decade, closer to the average of the
297 CanUS. Two warm fronts with trends over 0.40 °C/decade can be found in the north and south ends. In
298 the year-round upwelling area, the Lüderitz cell (Andrews and Hutchings, 1980; Lutjeharms and
299 Meeuwis, 1987; Peard, 2007), the minimum value is -0.25 °C/decade. In contrast, for the open ocean area
300 between the two warm fronts, the values are similar to those found in the CanUS (Fig 3b), around 0.20
301 °C/decade.

302 The average trend for each region reveals stronger open ocean warmings for the Atlantic EBUS (0.20 and
303 0.19 °C/decade for the CanUS and BeUS, respectively) than the Pacific Ocean (0.10 and 0.007 °C/decade,
304 for the CalUS and HuUS, respectively), with the weaker trends observed in the HuUS. However, the
305 trends along the coast are rather heterogeneous, responding to the variability of the local upwelling

306 dynamics, as seen in Fig 3, where several permanent upwelling centers (negative trends) exist along the
307 coast on both continents.

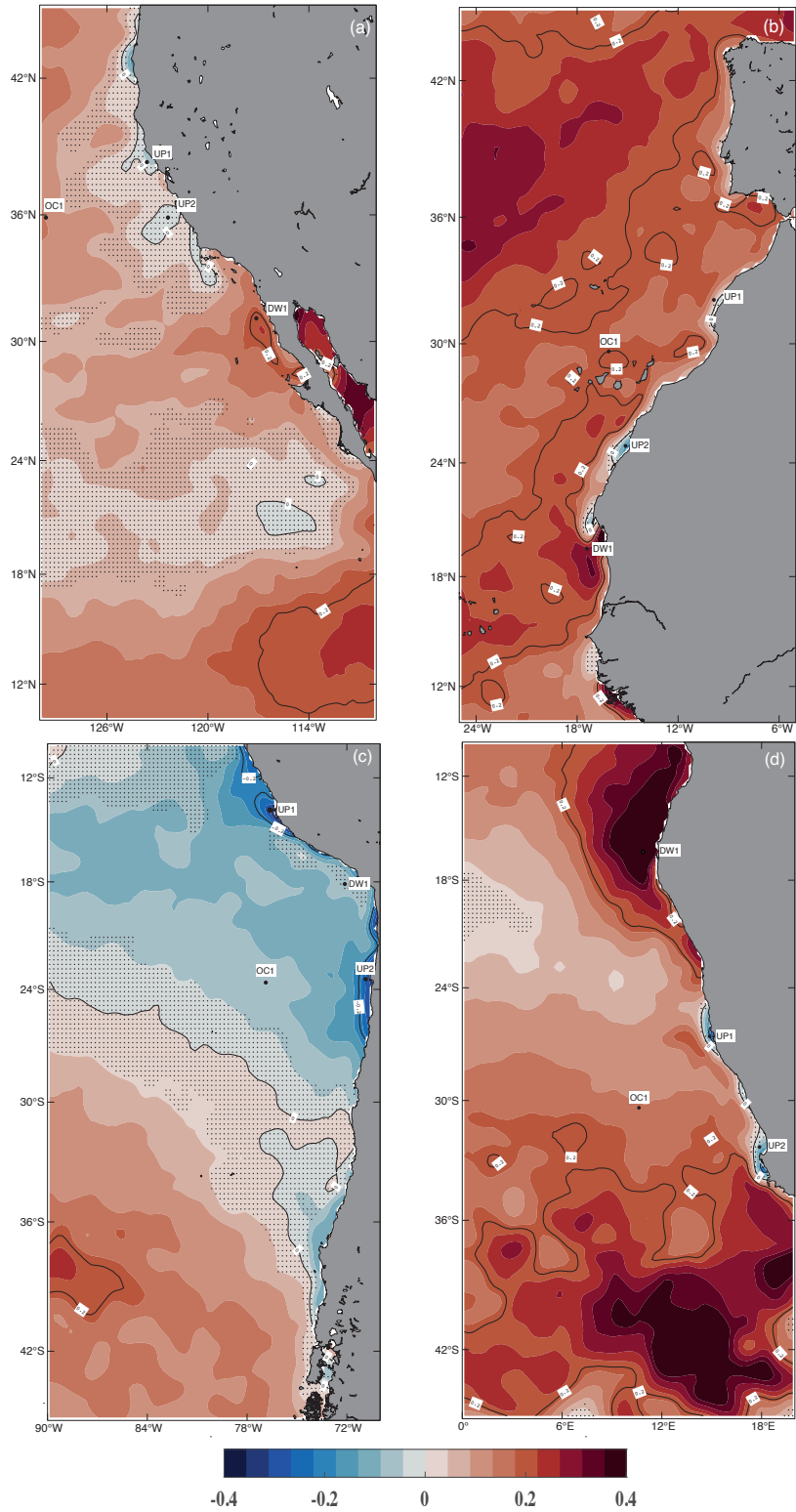


Fig 3: Mapped SST trends (°C/decade) for the major EBUS: a) California -CalUS, b) Canary-CanUS, c) Humboldt-HuUS, and d) Benguela-BeUS. The colour scale indicates the trend values at the bottom of the figure. Black-dots shaded areas indicate non-significant trends. The locations of the areas selected (UP1, UP2, OC1, and DW1) are marked with solid black circles and labelled with their names. Black contours enclosed the isotrends -0.20, 0, and 0.20°C/decade.

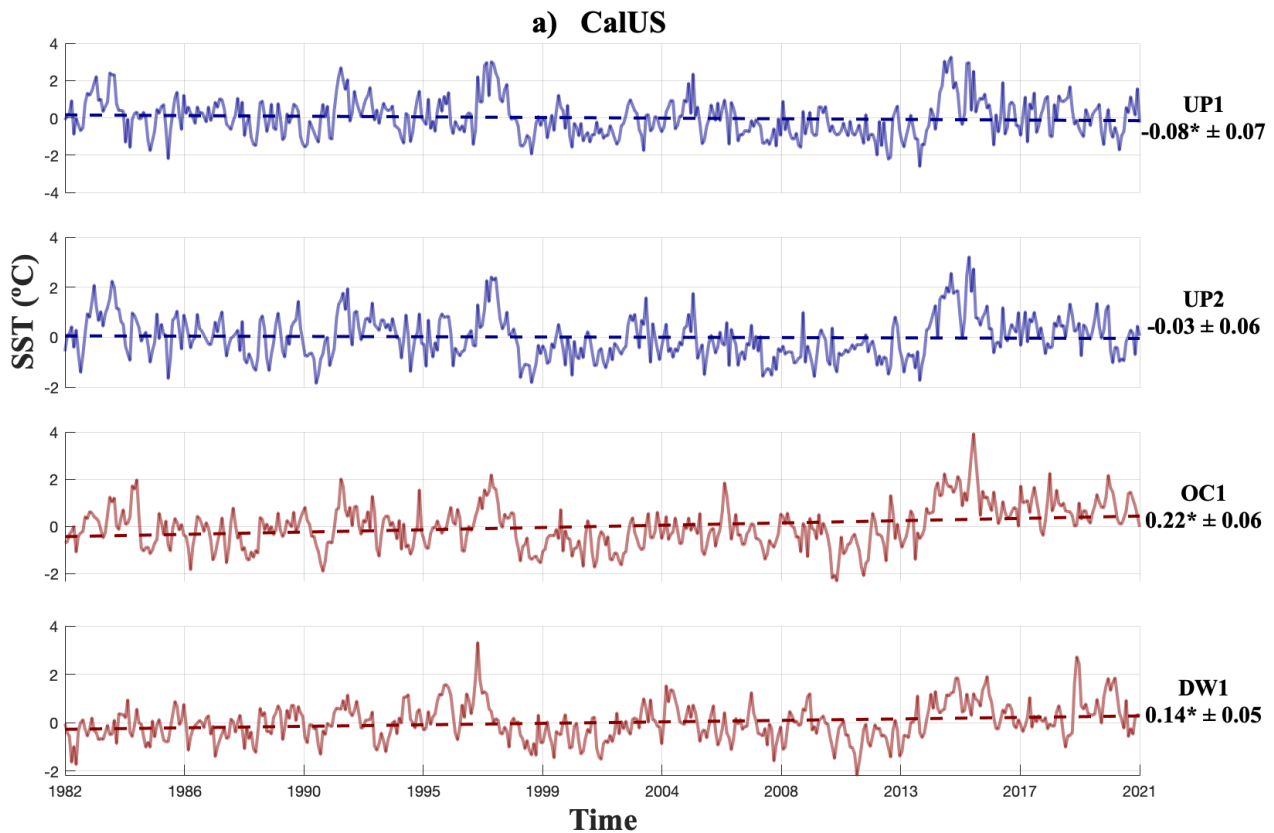
308 4.3. Trends in the upwelling cells and open ocean areas.

309 Although we got an overview of the long-term trends for each EBUS in the previous section, the
310 validation of Bakun's hypothesis would require a finer resolution to describe the local dynamics of the
311 upwelling and identify those areas where the coastal upwelling is the main forcing. In this sense, we have
312 chosen representative points (see criteria in Section 3.4 and Figs 2 and 3) of both EBUS and non-EBUS
313 areas instead of using the large-averaged regions shown in Fig 3. These points include the upwelling
314 centers (UP1, UP2), the nearshore areas where the upwelling is not the primary process (DW1), and the
315 open ocean areas (OC1).

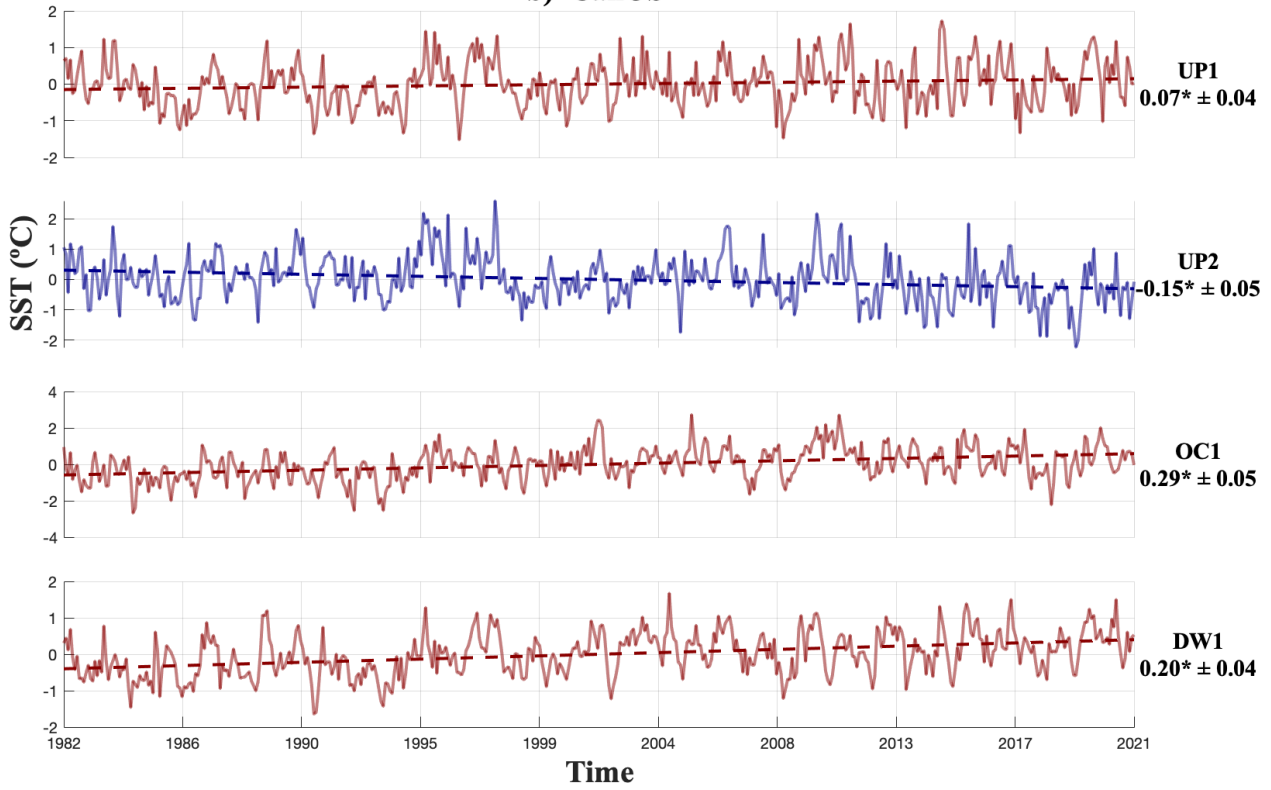
316 The CalUS presents the weakest trends of all the EBUS in both year-round upwelling centers, being -0.06
317 °C/decade for UP1 and non-significant in UP2 (-0.03 °C/decade, Fig 4a). For the open ocean area, the
318 OC1 trend is positive with a value of 0.14 °C/decade, a lower value than the trend of 0.22° C/decade of
319 the DW1. In the Atlantic, the CanUS (Fig 4b) possesses the only positive trend (0.07 °C/decade) of all
320 the EBUS in an upwelling area (UP1). Despite UP1 being positive, the trend is closer to zero than in the
321 OC1 (0.20 °C/decade). Furthermore, the UP2 cell in the CanUS shows a trend twice as negative (-0.15
322 °C/decade) as the one in the CalUS upwelling UP1. The OC1 and DW1 areas show a warmer trend in the
323 CanUS than in the North Pacific region (Fig 4). All of the above suggests that in the Northern Hemisphere
324 EBUS, Bakun's hypothesis is fulfilled, and this is even more significant in the CanUS despite having been
325 dismissed in previous studies (Sydeman et al., 2014).

326 In the HuUS (Fig 4c), we find a different behavior than the one seen in the other EBUS, showing negative
327 trends in all the representative locations. The upwelling centers of the HuUS present the greatest cooling
328 trend of all the EBUS, -0.30 °C/decade at UP1 and -0.26 °C/decade at UP2. As observed in CanUS, the
329 values for HuUS in OC1 (0.06 °C/decade) are similar to the ones of DW1, although DW1 is non-
330 significant in the HuUS. Its counterpart in the Atlantic Ocean, the BeUS (Fig 3d), presents significant
331 large negative trends in the year-round upwelling areas (-0.23 °C/decade for UP1 and -0.10 °C/decade for

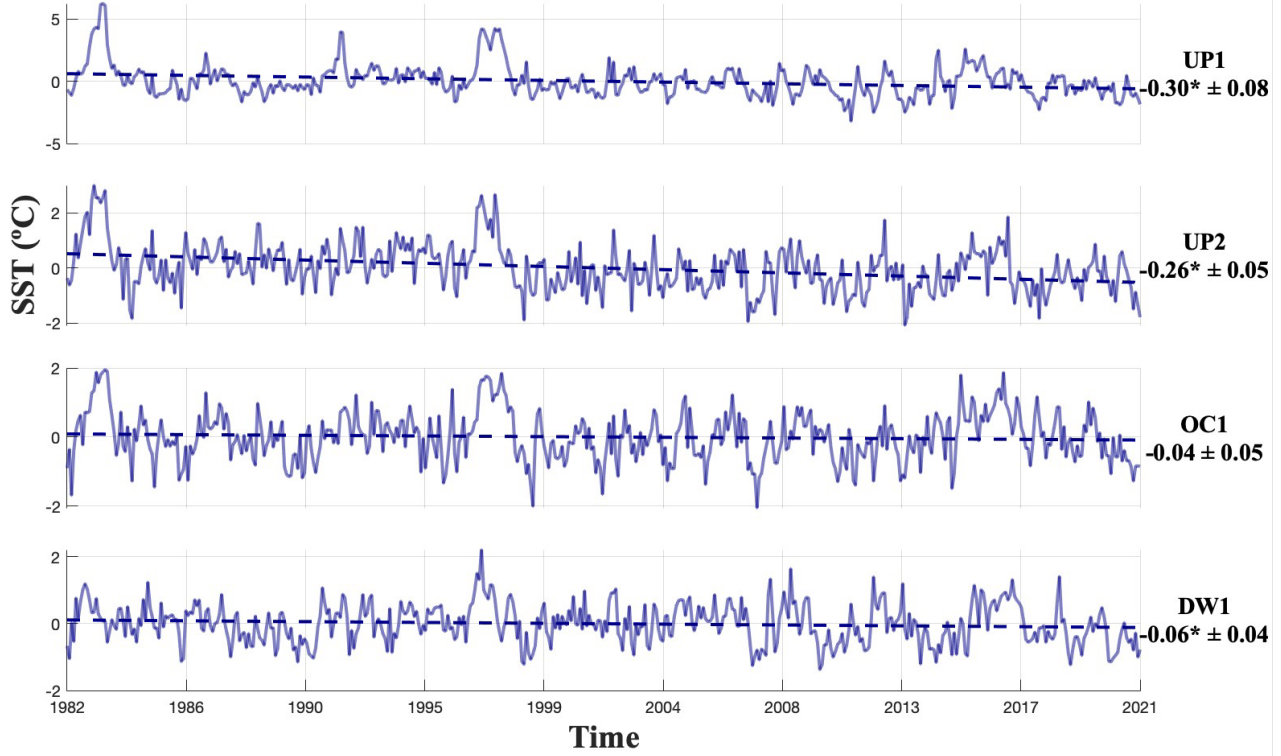
332 the UP2) and positive trends in OC1, 0.14 °C/decade. The trend of the DW1 is the warmest (0.57
333 °C/decade) found in all the EBUS, and it is related to the warm inflow from the Indian Ocean.
334 Overall, the trends show warming in the OC1 areas while cooling in the upwelling areas, except for the
335 HuUS, where the trend at the OC1 is also slightly negative. The contrast between the trends of upwelling
336 and open ocean areas found throughout the EBUS indicates upwelling intensification. To quantify this
337 intensification, it is necessary to have an index that compares the intensification of the upwelling with the
338 global warming trend in the open ocean area, that can be compared for all the EBUS. To compare the
339 intensification between upwellings and to further understand the impact of the oceanic background on
340 these trends, we will use the index α_{UI} described before to normalize the trends of each EBUS.



b) CanUS



c) HuUS



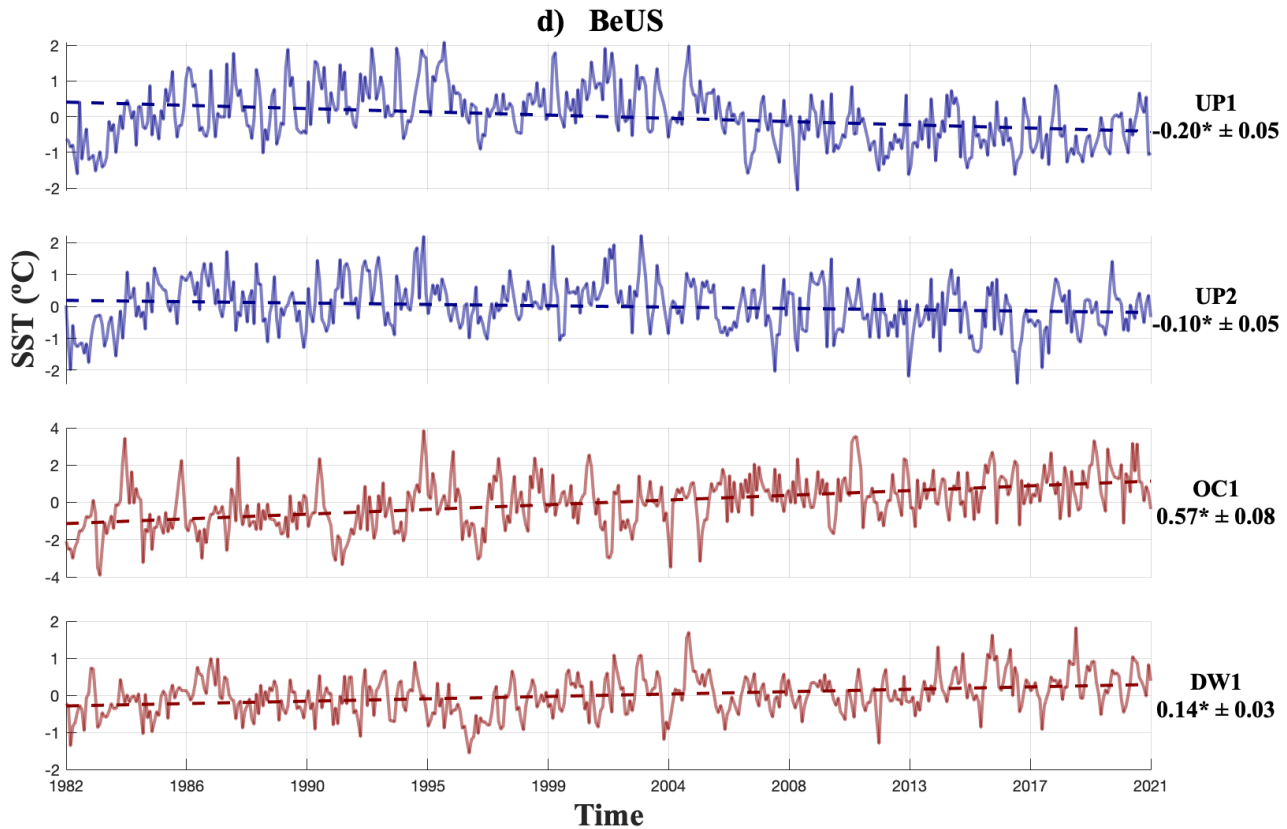


Fig 4: SST time series and trends (°C/decade) for the selected areas for each one of the EBUS (DW1, UP1, and UP2) and the areas representative of the open ocean (OC1) in each EBUS: a) California, b) Canary, c) Humboldt and d) Benguela. The blue lines are for negative (cooling) trends, and the red ones are for positive (warming) trends. On the right side of the Y-axis, the trends are shown in °C/decade, along with the area's label and confidence interval. Mann-Kendall significant trends (p-value<0.05) are marked with an asterisk next to their value.

341 **4.4. The relation between Oceanic and EBUS trends.**

342 Global warming induces the increase of oceanic SST, and under Bakun's hypothesis, it also enhances the
 343 favorable upwelling winds responsible for intensifying the upwelling areas. We define an angle between
 344 the upwelling and oceanic trends, as described in the methodology section, to discern Bakun's hypothesis
 345 from the global increase in SST. As described previously (Fig 4), the upwelling centers UP1 (except for
 346 the CanUS, where UP2 will be used due to the warming detected on UP1 in Section 4.3) have the strongest

347 cooling, and we will use these trends (hereafter, in this section UP) to create the angle contrasts with the
348 positive warming trend of the open ocean (OC1) area for each EBUS (Fig 4).
349 For CanUS, the α_{UI} obtained between the UP and OC1 trends is $20^\circ \pm 2^\circ$ whereas it is $11^\circ \pm 3^\circ$ in the CalUS,
350 $21^\circ \pm 2^\circ$ for the BeUS, and $14^\circ \pm 3^\circ$ for the HuUS. The smallest angle is found in the CalUS because of the
351 low cooling and warming trends described in Section 4.3. This result for the CalUS is coherent with the
352 overall non-significant trends in the Mann-Kendall test (Fig 3a). The BeUS and CanUS have the highest
353 contrast between the two regression lines (recall that we observed similar UP and OC1 trends in the
354 Atlantic Ocean in Section 4.3) presenting similar α_{UI} .
355 The BeUS and CanUS show a weaker negative trend than the HuUS, but the oceanic background at the
356 HuUS leads to a smaller angle. At the HuUS, a negative SST trend is observed for the whole study area.
357 The existing hypotheses suggest that this trend is led either by a stronger cool phase of El Niño Southern
358 Oscillation (ENSO) or related to the Southern Ocean SST changes (Meehl et al., 2016, Kang et al., 2023b,
359 a). Nevertheless, at the HuUS, we have the most prominent upwelling negative trend. However, when
360 normalized with the open ocean trend, the Bakun's effect is reduced. In the annual upwelling series of
361 CalUS and HuUS, two prominent peaks associated with the warm phase of ENSO around 1983 and 1997.
362 In general, we found positive α_{UI} for all the EBUS, supporting the intensification of the upwelling-oceanic
363 gradient, as expected from Bakun's hypothesis.

Upwelling cell vs Open Ocean

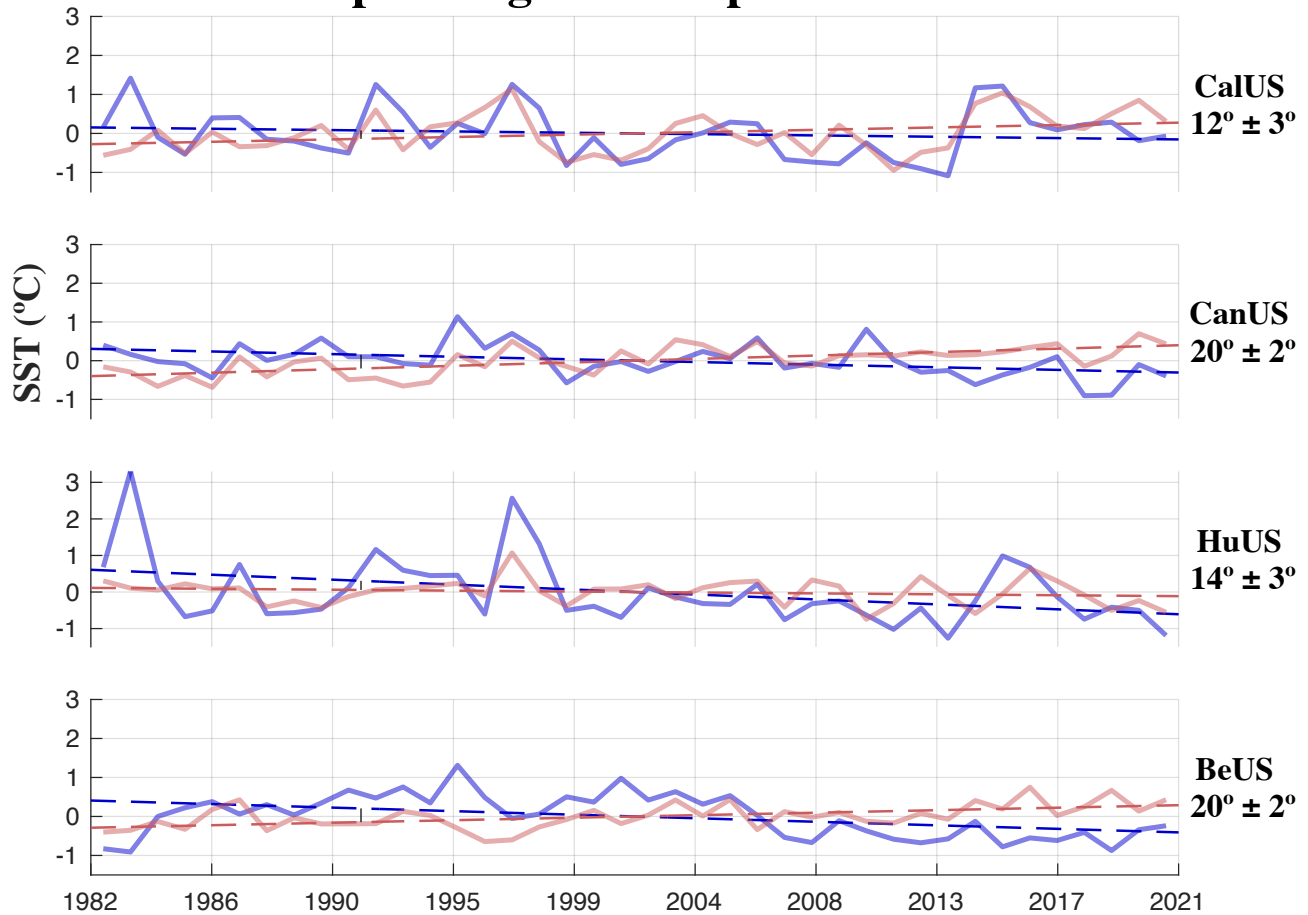


Fig. 5: EBUS SST trends ($^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{decade}$) against non-EBUS areas trends for each region. The EBUS annual series (continuous line) and trend (dotted line) are shown in blue; the same is true for the non-EBUS but is represented in red. On the opposite side of the Y-axis is labelled the α_{UI} with their corresponding EBUS.

364

365 4.5. Latitudinal distribution of α_{UI}

366 Many authors have previously tested the Bakun hypothesis, providing little consensus on both historical
 367 and projected records (Barton et al., 2013; Belkin, 2009; McGregor et al., 2007; Sambe et al., 2016, and
 368 Sydeman et al, 2014;). Such controversy has yielded alternative hypotheses to explain changes observed
 369 in the magnitude and timing of upwelling processes. Rykaczewski et al. (2015), suggests an alternative
 370 mechanism to the intensification of the upwelling process. They suggest a poleward shift of the oceanic

371 high-pressure system which would stimulate latitude-dependent changes in the upwelling winds. To
372 address this, we have calculated the latitudinal distribution of the α_{UI} (see Fig 6) in each EBUS. The
373 spatial variability of the upwelling intensity proxy, α_{UI} , reveals distinct patterns and regional differences.
374 In the CalUS, upwelling intensification demonstrates consistent upwelling activity between 35°N to 45°N
375 with α_{UI} values reaching up to approximately 10° (Fig 6a). Conversely, in the CanUS, significant
376 upwelling intensification is observed between 20°N and 30°N, with α_{UI} values peaking at 20° and in
377 locations consistent with our dynamical analysis based on literature review (Fig 2b, UP1 and UP2).
378 Similarly, in the HuUS upwelling intensification is confined to low latitudes (10-20 °S, Fig 6c), and the
379 values are close to those of the CalUS, (index values around 10°), as seen in the previous section. In
380 contrast with the other regions, the BeUS shows intensification at high latitudes with maximum values of
381 α_{UI} (20°) in the upwelling center of this region – Lüderitz upwelling center at 25°S and Cape Columbine
382 (around 32°S)-. While results of BenUS and CalUS appear consistent with the findings by Rykaczewski
383 et al, (2015), there is no supportive evidence in the other regions. To elucidate the possible mechanism
384 responsible for such differences we will attend to the driver of the upwelling-favourable wind, the sea
385 level pressure gradient

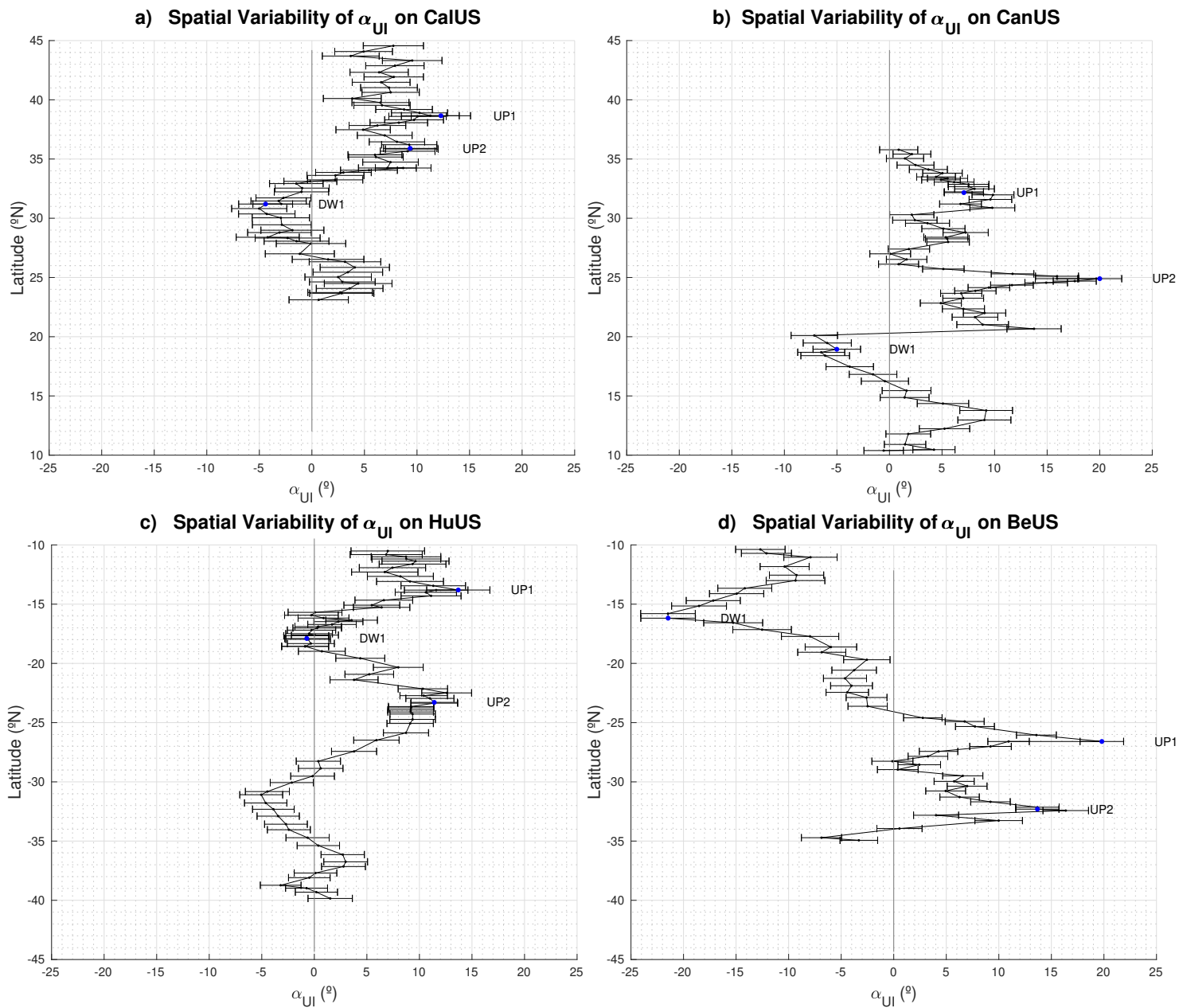


Fig 6: Spatial distribution of the α_{UI} (over the period of 1982-2021) along the coast for CalUS (a), CanUS (b), HuUS(c) and BeUS(c). The α_{UI} is calculated between grid points along the coast and OC1.

386 4.6. SLP Gradients

387 The coastal upwelling intensification postulated by Bakun mechanism, in 1990, would involve a stronger
388 increase of near-surface temperature over land than over the ocean, which would lead to an intensification
389 of the continental thermal low-pressure system relative to the ocean. To test this driver mechanism, we
390 have calculated the trends (Fig 7) of the gradient between the continental thermal low and the oceanic
391 high pressure.

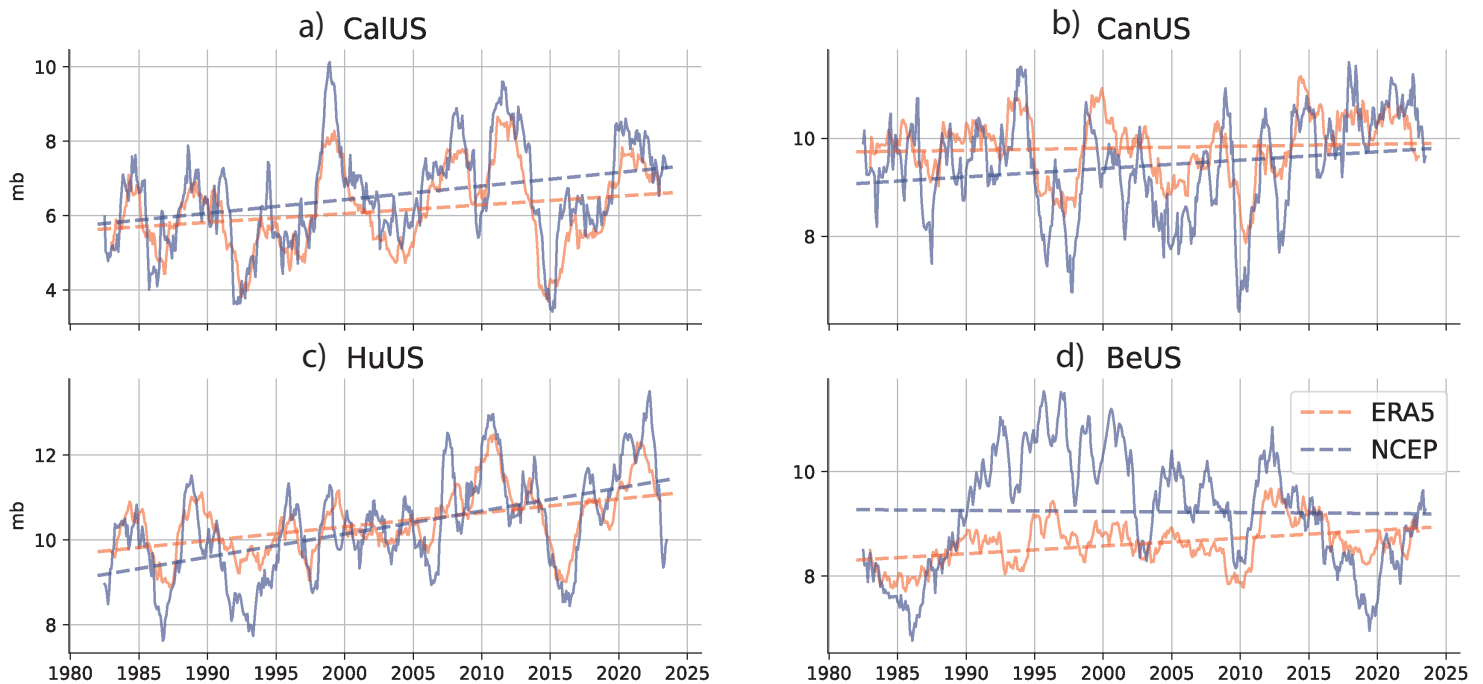


Fig 7: EBUS SLP gradients trends and temporal series for NCEP (blue lines) and ERA5 (red lines) datasets over the period 1982- 2023.

392 ERA5 data show positive and significant trends across all EBUS (see Table 3), while NCEP data indicate
393 negative trends in the BeUS. Despite these differences, both datasets show good overall agreement. The
394 strongest SLP gradient trends are found in the HuUS region, whereas the weakest trends occur in the
395 BeUS. Given its coarser resolution (2°) compared to ERA5 (0.25°), NCEP data are considered less
396 reliable. Despite these findings, both datasets support an intensification of the pressure gradient.

397

	CalUS (mbar/decade)	CanUS (mbar/decade)	HuUS (mbar/decade)	BeUS (mbar/decade)
<i>ERA5</i>	0.24 (0.039)	0.04 (0.017)	0.33 (0.038)	0.015 (0.051)
<i>NCEP</i>	0.37 (0.073)	0.17 (0.034)	0.54 (0.070)	-0.02 (0.072)

398 **Table 3. Values of the trend, over the period 1982-2023, for the ERA5 (first row) and NCEP (second row) for all**
399 **the EBUS. Parentheses enclose spatial standard deviation.**

400 5 Discussion and Conclusions.

401 Bakun proposes an intensification of the upwelling due to the increase of the continental low-pressure
402 system driven by global warming. However, controversies arise from discrepancies between wind stress
403 datasets and differences in the methodologies used.

404 On one hand, Barton et al. (2013) highlighted a lack of consensus among various wind datasets, since
405 they did not observe statistically significant changes in the meridional (upwelling-favorable) wind. These
406 discrepancies in wind data are consistent with those noted by Narayan et al. (2010), who, despite finding
407 significant increases in coastal upwelling areas when using COADS wind stress, also found that the
408 NCEP/NCAR wind stress indicated a significant decrease in the upwelling off NW Africa, and a non-
409 statistically significant trend for Lüderitz, California, and the Peruvian upwelling areas. Furthermore, they
410 also observed that the ERA-40 dataset showed an increasing coastal upwelling in the NW African and
411 Peruvian upwelling areas but a decrease in the California upwelling areas, with a non-statistically
412 significant trend in the Lüderitz upwelling areas. Therefore, using wind data as a proxy for upwelling leads
413 to a wide spread of results as it strongly depends on the data product used.

414 On the other hand, SST-based indexes are usually constructed from thermal differences between coastal
415 and offshore SST areas taken at the same latitude and following the coastline (Benazzouz et al., 2014;
416 Gómez-Gesteira et al., 2008; Santos et al., 2012). This methodology does not consider the regional
417 upwelling dynamics, and averages upwelling centers with areas without upwelling. Abrahams et al.
418 (2021) introduced an upwelling metric based on marine heatwave detection techniques, examining
419 favorable upwelling winds and SST data together. Their findings revealed a strong association between a
420 decrease in SST and an increase in upwelling intensity. Their novel methodology holds significant
421 importance in unraveling the connection between the physical upwelling phenomenon and its ecological

422 impacts. However, predicting ecological impacts remains challenging. While intensified upwelling could
423 mitigate habitat warming, it may also increase ocean acidification, hypoxic events and reduce suitable
424 food for fish larvae (Abrahams et al., 2021; Bakun et al., 2015). Nonetheless, they successfully establish
425 a link between decreased SST and changes in upwelling intensity, even when trends in wind dynamics do
426 not fully account for the upwelling response, reinforcing the notion that SST is a suitable proxy for
427 upwelling intensity. However, their SST metrics exhibited inconsistencies across upwelling areas, except
428 for the Humboldt system. These inconsistencies may be due to the averaging of data across extensive
429 areas, mixing upwelling areas with areas without the associated cold water of upwelling. Abrahams et al.
430 (2021) also explored these metrics in upwelling-favorable winds data, and their results indicated that
431 decadal trends were generally not significant. As previously discussed, wind products often yield
432 contradictory results despite their direct relevance to upwelling. Hence, our study complements Abrahams
433 et al. (2021) since we have focused on SST to understand longer term changes in the upwelling intensity,
434 using areas with optimal signal-to-noise ratio, namely the upwelling centers, revealing upwelling-related
435 cool water in all Eastern Boundary Upwelling Systems (EBUS).

436 Therefore, in this study, we assess the intensification of the upwelling from a regional perspective, by
437 using SST trends at locations representative of upwelling and of an open oceanic reference location for
438 each different EBUS.

439 Additionally, we tested the effects of averaging areas on the index (see supplementary material, Fig S4
440 and Table S1). Our findings indicate that the averaged response is influenced by the dynamical regions
441 involved, rather than by the size of the region averaged. This is evidenced by the invariant results when
442 including the three coastal areas (DW1, UP1 and UP2). In contrast, focusing on specific upwelling zones,
443 particularly around upwelling centers, made the intensification more evident. Moreover, we verified the
444 stability of the trend both spatially and temporally by performing the analysis of Barton et al. (2013)
445 across all the EBUS (supplementary material, Fig S5).

446 Furthermore, to assess the strength of the net upwelling intensification, we proposed an index that allows
447 inter-basin comparisons attending to their regional background. SST, often used as an indicator of coastal
448 upwelling, can be influenced by various factors, such as changes in surface mixing and offshore storm
449 activity. However, in our long-term analysis of monthly and deseasonalized SST records, the seasonal

450 and synoptic processes have minimal influence on the SST-upwelling intensity relationship. Moreover,
451 Wang et al. (2015) explored the connection between sea-land thermal gradients and offshore Ekman
452 transport using the CMIP5 models. Their findings underscore the significant link between thermal
453 gradients and offshore Ekman transport, even under greenhouse gas emission scenarios. McGregor et al.
454 (2007) and Santos et al. (2012) also support this relationship, emphasizing significant correlations
455 between coastal SST and offshore Ekman transport, reinforcing the utility of coastal SST as a proxy for
456 assessing upwelling intensity.

457 To assess the quality of our results, we validated the NOAA SST reanalysis with in-situ data from both
458 the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans before estimating the trends in all EBUS. Overall, the Atlantic Ocean had
459 lower correlations with the satellite data than the Pacific Ocean, likely due to shorter in-situ records.
460 Nevertheless, we found high and robust correlation coefficients (>0.7) that sustain the satellite SST trends
461 in oceanic and upwelling areas. We observed negative SST trends in all the EBUS, being stronger in the
462 southern hemisphere (the strongest located in the HuUS-UP1 showing a trend of $-0.30^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{decade}$) than in
463 the northern hemisphere (the weakest in the CalUS-UP2 with a trend of $-0.06^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{decade}$). Our results are
464 consistent with the meta-analysis by Sydeman et al. (2014), who concluded, from observational and model
465 data, that a significant intensification of upwelling exists, except for the case of CanUS.

466 Other studies have investigated the SST trends in the EBUS but with an approach that did not consider
467 the heterogeneity of the upwelling areas. For instance, in the CalUS, Seabra et al. (2019) reported a
468 $0.06^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{decade}$ warming rate, over the period 1982–2018. However, their approach involved averaging a
469 500 km nearshore area, excluding non-significant regions. Thus, almost half of the extension was not
470 considered, resulting in the average of different dynamical areas and the exclusion of upwelling centers.
471 Belkin et al. (2009) performed a similar analysis but included the entire CalUS nearshore area. They found
472 a net change of $-0.035^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{decade}$ over the 1982-2007 period, agreeing in sign with our study but showing
473 a weaker trend due to the use of a large average. In contrast, Siemer et al. (2021) found negative trends
474 of $-0.14^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{decade}$, over the period 1982-2019, for the CanUS permanent upwelling area, like our results
475 ($-0.15^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{decade}$). However, this trend fades away and becomes positive when they average the whole
476 coastal upwelling area, highlighting the relevance of the methodology used in this study. Likewise, many
477 studies carried out in this area present positive trends for the upwelling due to the method used (Belkin,

478 2009; Demarcq, 2009; Seabra et al., 2019). In line with our study, Seabra et al. (2019) found the largest
479 cooling trends ($-0.07 \pm 0.08^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{decade}$) in the HuUS. However, like in other EBUS, using averaged areas
480 increased the trend values. This pattern is also observed by Belkin et al. (2009), where the net change of
481 the averaged nearshore area results in $-0.05^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{decade}$. For the BeUS, similar to CanUS, averaging the
482 entire coastal upwelling area results in the fading of the observed upwelling trend. Hence, a warming rate
483 of $0.17^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{decade}$ is found in Seabra et al. (2019). In contrast, Santos et al. (2012) investigated trends,
484 over the period 1982-2010, close to the shore without averaging areas and found a negative trend of the
485 BeUS, strongly agreeing with our results ($-0.13^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{decade}$). Hence, a warming rate of $0.17^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{decade}$ is
486 found in Seabra et al. (2019). In contrast, Santos et al. (2012) investigated trends close to the shore without
487 averaging areas and found a negative trend of the BeUS, strongly agreeing with our results (-0.13
488 $^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{decade}$).

489 While all the upwelling trends are negative and support the Bakun's hypothesis, the oceanic trends behave
490 differently across basins. We observed warming in all the open ocean areas except in the HuUS, where a
491 cooling of $-0.06^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{decade}$ is observed. Dong & Zhou (2014) studied the influence of the Interdecadal
492 Pacific Oscillation (IPO) on Global Warming trends. Their EOF analysis results indicate that the transition
493 to the negative phase of the IPO modes is responsible for the cooling trends observed in the Pacific.

494 The warming in the CalUS and BeUS is $0.14^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{decade}$ (over the period 1982-2023), while this trend is
495 slightly more prominent in the CanUS. Seabra et al. (2019) revealed oceanic warming rates
496 ($0.06^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{decade}$), over the period 1982–2018, on the averaged upwelling in CalUS lower than the OC1
497 trend ($0.14^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{decade}$). The open ocean positive trend of the CanUS is identical to the one in Siemer et al.
498 (2021) and further agrees with other studies (Belkin, 2009; Good et al., 2007; Signorini et al., 2015). The
499 result of Seabra et al. (2019) in HuUS also showed a very similar trend (-0.07°C) compared with our OC1
500 trend. Finally, in the BeUS, a good agreement is found with the average warming rate of Seabra et al.
501 (2019). Our study demonstrates good agreement with existing literature on oceanic trends despite the
502 differences in methodologies employed.

503 Although long-term changes, such as the North Atlantic Oscillation or the Pacific Oscillation, can impact
504 the SST gradient, their effect would not surpass the ability of our analysis to support Bakun's hypothesis.
505 In that sense, Nayaran et al. (2010) found that correlations between upwelling indices and climate indices

506 like the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation Index (AMOI) lack significance. Similarly, the North Atlantic
507 Oscillation Index (NAOI) exhibits a notable negative correlation with meridional wind stress off NW
508 Africa, yet its correlation with the SST index remains insignificant. In the case of the CalUS, the Pacific
509 Decadal Oscillation Index (PDOI) shows a weak but statistically significant correlation with the coastal
510 upwelling SST index off California. However, no substantial correlation is found with alongshore wind
511 stress. Cross-correlation analyses also reveal a lack of significant correlations across various time lags.
512 On the other hand, (Bonino et al., 2019) found that local drivers and trends favoring upwelling (e.g.,
513 equatorward wind stress, cyclonic wind stress curl, and thermocline depth variation) explain the low-
514 frequency modulation of upwelling. Bonino et al. (2019) also explored the link between wind-based
515 upwelling indices and climate modes. They found that Atlantic and Pacific upwelling variabilities are
516 mainly independent, while intra-basin domain variabilities present some coherency, which is consistent
517 with our results. This intra-basin covariability is especially marked in the Pacific Ocean, where the shared
518 variability is majorly due to the ENSO mode. In contrast, in the Atlantic Ocean, coherent variability is
519 associated with upwelling trends, whereas only in the CanUS is it linked to the AMO. These results
520 suggest that long-term climate indices may influence coastal upwelling dynamics, which is especially
521 important in the Pacific. However, our index, α_{UI} , by normalizing the trend for its oceanic background,
522 our results should account for the effects of local climate indices.

523 To assess Bakun's hypothesis and, thus, the upwelling capacity to overcome the oceanic warming effect,
524 we define the angle (α_{UI} , readers are referred to section 3.3) between oceanic water and upwelling trends.
525 Because this new index is directly based on trends, it captures only the low-frequency variability.
526 Additionally, we verified the method's robustness using a probabilistic assessment of the uncertainties
527 that showed consistent intensifications for all EBUS (Fig 5). This new approach differs from the
528 traditional trend analysis since it normalizes the upwelling trends by comparing them with open ocean
529 changes.

530 The EBUS in the Pacific Ocean yields minimum α_{UI} ($10^{\circ}\pm 3^{\circ}$ and $14^{\circ}\pm 3^{\circ}$ for CalUS and HuUS,
531 respectively), which is consistent with the low signal-to-noise ratio of global warming on this ocean,
532 given its natural variability. The overall cooling signal caused by the IPO enhances the HuUS open ocean
533 negative trends. Still, our index normalizes the upwelling trend to the full basin variability, suggesting the

534 possibility of a mild Bakun effect even at the HuUS. In the Atlantic Ocean, the α_{UI} for the CanUS and
535 BeUS are $20^{\circ}\pm 2^{\circ}$ and $21^{\circ}\pm 2^{\circ}$, respectively, twice as large as in the Pacific Ocean. The α_{UI} presents wider
536 angles at the southern hemisphere EBUS than in the northern hemisphere EBUS. Nevertheless, our results
537 show a significant difference between oceanic and coastal trends reflected in positive α_{UI} in all EBUS
538 (Fig 5).

539 The SST changes in the EBUS respond mainly to changes in the upwelling processes which are ultimately
540 driven by the pressure gradients. We analyzed the pressure gradients trends in all four EBUS. Our findings
541 further support the intensification of the pressure gradients driven by climate change, as stated by Bakun
542 (1990). However, there are probably other contributors to the intensification of the upwellings. Some
543 researchers question whether the impacts of differential heating on the pressure gradient force drives
544 intensification of coastal upwelling. Rather, a complementary hypothesis proposes that evidence of an
545 intensifying pressure gradient force is limited to poleward migration of the Hadley Cell (Arellano and
546 Rivas, 2019; Rykaczewski et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2015). Nevertheless, these projections are only
547 supported by observational records in the Humboldt and Benguela Systems, (Sydeman et al., 2014). In
548 contrast, we have tested this hypothesis on the historical record by computing the latitudinal distribution
549 of α_{UI} . The results shown in Fig 6 partially agree with Rykaczewski et al, (2015), as only CalUS and
550 BeUS presented a poleward intensification of α_{UI} . To further understand the drivers of these changes, we
551 examined the spatial stability of the trends in the SLP continental-oceanic gradient through Monte Carlo
552 simulation. The discrepancy between the latitudinal distribution of α_{UI} and the small standard deviation
553 of trends around the cores of the pressure systems suggests that the hypothesis of poleward displacement
554 of the high-pressure systems remains inconclusive.

555 In summary, in this study, we use SST at discrete locations and the pressure gradient to explore the
556 Bakun's hypothesis in the four major EBUS. Cooling trends are observed for all upwelling areas (the
557 strongest in the HuUS and the weakest in the CalUS), and mainly warming trends offshore except for the
558 HuUS. In addition, a novel index α_{UI} that normalizes the upwelling trends to their background open ocean
559 trend is proposed. This index is easy to estimate, allows interbasin trend comparisons, and helps
560 understand the role of changing upwellings in a changing climate. The index reveals that the Bakun

561 hypothesis remains a possible mechanism for upwelling intensification in all four EBUS, although the
562 Atlantic Basin shows a stronger intensification effect than the Pacific Ocean.

563 **Data availability.**

564 The moored data analyzed in this study are available
565 at <https://www.ndbc.noaa.gov/> and <https://www.puertos.es/es-es/oceanografia/Paginas/portus.aspx> for
566 the Pacific and Atlantic Ocean, respectively. The cruise data are also available
567 at <https://calcofi.org/data/> for the Pacific Ocean and at <https://www.seadatanet.org/> in the case of the
568 Atlantic Ocean. For the Satellite-based data, the SST NOAA reanalysis product
569 are available from [https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/data/sea-surface-temperature-optimum-
570 interpolation/access/avhrr-only/](https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/data/sea-surface-temperature-optimum-interpolation/access/avhrr-only/). And the ERA5 data

571 **Author contribution**

572 M, Gutierrez-Guerra processed the data, and carried out all data analyses. M, Gutierrez-Guerra wrote the
573 original paper with contributions from M, Gutierrez-Guerra, M.D, Perez-Hernandez and P, Velez. M.D,
574 Perez-Hernandez and P, Velez supervised the study. All authors reviewed and edited the final paper.

575 **Competing interests**

576 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interest.

577 **Acknowledgements**

578 This article is a publication of the Unidad Océano y Clima from Universidad de Las Palmas de Gran
579 Canaria, an R&D&I CSIC-associate unit. This work has been completed as part of the doctoral program
580 in Oceanography and Global Change at the Instituto de Oceanografía y Cambio Global (IOCAG). M.A.
581 Gutiérrez-Guerra acknowledges the Agencia Canaria de Investigación, Innovación y Sociedad de la
582 Información (ACIISI) and the Fondo Social Europeo Plus (FSE+) Programa Operativo Integrado de

583 Canarias 2021-2027, Eje 3 Tema Prioritario 74 (85%) grant program of “Apoyo al personal investigador
584 en formación” FPI2024010234 and the INVESTIGO grant program of “Plan de Recuperación,
585 Transformación y Resiliencia – Next Generation EU”.

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