



1 **Timing of the anthropogenic carbon invasion in the Southern** 2 **California Current**

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11 **Abstract**

12 The role of Eastern Boundary Upwelling Systems (EBUS), such as the southern California Current System,
13 is a well-known high productivity region driven by alongshore winds, although their role as atmospheric
14 carbon sources and sinks is poorly understood in the global carbon cycle. In the southern CCS, off Baja
15 California, wind-driven vertical mixing upwells nutrient and carbon-rich waters from late winter to early
16 summer, while weaker winds during the rest of the year allow the intrusion of nutrients and carbon-depleted
17 subtropical surface waters. Here, we interpret the isotopic composition of organic carbon and calcitic
18 records spanning 150 years from high-resolution sediment cores collected off Baja California in the context
19 of seasonal variability observed between 1990 and 2011. The results show a clear trend toward lighter
20 carbon isotopic compositions of the organic and inorganic carbon for the past seven decades. These trends
21 are similar to the atmospheric records associated with the Suess effect, suggesting an atmospheric carbon
22 invasion into the surface waters of the California Current. Nevertheless, the slope of the atmospheric carbon
23 isotopic records is steeper than our marine record, most likely related to the upward mixing of subsurface
24 waters with a relatively heavier carbon isotopic signature and advection processes inherent to the strong
25 seasonality of the CCS southern boundary. These results will allow a better characterization of the relative
26 role of the EBUS regions in the global carbon cycle.



27 1 Introduction

28 The CO₂ exchange between the ocean and the atmosphere is driven by a combination of physical and
 29 biogeochemical processes, making an accurate sea–air CO₂ flux assessment challenging. A better
 30 understanding of these processes is necessary to improve our knowledge of the biogeochemical cycles,
 31 notably the carbon cycle, which has implications for climate change and ocean acidification (Wanninkhof
 32 et al., 2013). Over the past century, the ocean’s carbon uptake from the atmosphere has been estimated to
 33 be equivalent to 25 to 35 % of the total CO₂ emissions from fossil fuels, cement production, and land use
 34 changes, among others (Sabine et al., 2004). This oceanic carbon uptake has slowed down the increase of
 35 atmospheric CO₂, reducing the magnitude of the anthropogenically driven climate warming (Fung et al.,
 36 2005), and lowered the pH in surface waters with important implications for ocean acidification and marine
 37 ecosystems (Feely et al., 2004). Studies of Eastern Boundary Currents (EBUS) have shown that these
 38 systems can act as either carbon sources or sinks, depending on the season and latitude (Brady et al., 2019;
 39 Chikamoto and DiNezio, 2021; Feely et al., 2008; Lachkar et al., 2024; Lefèvre et al., 2023), making their
 40 representation in global carbon models particularly challenging.

41 The CO₂ released from fossil fuel combustion has a carbon isotopic composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) value of -26 to -28
 42 ‰, leading to a decline in the natural atmospheric $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values from approximately -7 ‰ to -8.7 ‰ (Baldwin
 43 et al., 2005). This phenomenon, known as the Suess effect (Keeling et al., 1979) is transferred to the ocean
 44 through air-sea exchange, and surface and subsurface water masses are the most affected by this
 45 perturbation, altering the global oceanic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ distribution (Eide et al., 2017). Therefore, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of
 46 dissolved inorganic carbon ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$) in surface waters is a useful tracer of oceanic uptake of anthropogenic
 47 CO₂ (hereafter referred to as C_{ant} uptake) (Sarmiento and Gruber, 2002), and has been previously used to
 48 evaluate the uptake and distribution of anthropogenic CO₂ in EBUS (Aguilera et al., 2020; Racapé et al.,
 49 2013).

50 In the surface ocean, biological processes preferentially take up the lighter isotope (^{12}C), shifting its $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$
 51 towards relatively heavier values, and thermodynamic processes tend to make the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ values in cold
 52 waters heavier than those in warm waters via air-sea exchange (Gruber et al., 1999). On the other hand, the
 53 uptake of atmospheric carbon by the surface ocean is progressively shifting its $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ towards lighter
 54 values. Gruber et al. (1999) reported a 15-year-long decrease in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of -0.25 ‰ per year at the time series
 55 station near Bermuda. Depth-integrated analysis from the Atlantic, Indian, and Pacific oceans also shows a
 56 decrease in the surface ocean $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ for the past few decades (Quay et al., 2003; Quay et al., 2007; Quay
 57 et al., 2017).



58 A high absolute variability in the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ has been observed in the Pacific Ocean basin, linked to the
59 spatiotemporal heterogeneity in CO_2 concentrations, phytoplankton growth rates, and biological production,
60 all influenced by ocean mixing processes (Tagliabue and Bopp, 2008).

61 Studies in EBUS—such as the California, Humboldt, and Benguela Currents—have shown that $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$
62 exhibits marked seasonal and regional variability. During active upwelling periods (spring–summer), the
63 upward transport of CO_2 -rich subsurface waters leads to enhanced remineralization and lower $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$
64 values at the surface. Conversely, during periods of weaker upwelling, biological fixation of carbon tends
65 to dominate, resulting in relatively higher $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ signatures (DeVries, 2014; Ge et al., 2022; Olsen et al., 2020).
66 For instance, in the Humboldt Current System, intensified upwelling events have been associated with
67 lower SST and repeated episodes of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ depletion, consistent with increased contributions of
68 remineralized carbon and reduced biological uptake during these events (Ge et al., 2022).

69 However, these studies are based on relatively short-term observations that began after significant fossil
70 fuel–derived carbon had already entered the system, complicating efforts to assess the timing and magnitude
71 of oceanic uptake. To better understand the ocean's response to increasing fossil fuel emissions since the
72 late 19th century, it is necessary to rely on paleoceanographic proxies, as instrumental records are too recent
73 to capture long-term trends (Berger et al., 1982).

74 Planktic foraminifera incorporate DIC from seawater into their calcite shells in near equilibrium with the
75 ambient $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ of their preferred surface ocean habitats, typically within the upper tens of meters. This
76 process leaves a stable isotopic signature in their shells that is preserved in sediments and widely used to
77 reconstruct past ocean circulation, carbon reservoir exchange, surface productivity, and nutrient dynamics
78 (Broecker and Peng, 1987; Fairbanks and Wiebe, 1980; Gruber et al., 1999).

79 The different preferred depth habitats of planktic foraminifera have allowed for the reconstruction of the
80 vertical water column stratification of the ocean by using geochemical proxies for temperature ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$,
81 Mg/Ca) and for carbon proxies ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) between near-surface and deeper-dwelling species (Berger, 1971;
82 Emiliani, 1954; Fairbanks and Wiebe, 1980; Ravelo and Fairbanks, 1992; Sautter and Thunell, 1991; Wefer
83 and Berger, 1991). In addition, the organic carbon $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{OC}}$ also serves as a valuable proxy, as it reflects the
84 photosynthetic conditions under which carbon was fixed, offering insights into past surface CO_2
85 concentrations (Tagliabue and Bopp, 2008).

86 The isotopic composition of the organic carbon preserved, mostly derived from phytoplankton, is linked to
87 their physiological function (Young et al., 2013) through the fractionation of preferentially lighter ^{12}C due



88 to the kinetics of enzymatic processes. $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{OC}}$ provide complementary information on carbon
 89 cycle processes and ocean-atmosphere interactions across multiple timescales. This study uses the ratio of
 90 stable isotopes for two phases of carbon, calcite in two species of planktic foraminifera living at different
 91 depths, and organic carbon preserved in marine laminated sediments from San Lazaro Basin (SLB), off
 92 Baja California, to evaluate the carbon balance between the atmosphere and surface waters in the southern
 93 domain of the CCS since the preindustrial era.

94 **2 Materials and methods**

95 **2.1 Site description**

96 SLB, sometimes referred to as the Soledad Basin (Van Geen et al., 1995) is located off the western edge of
 97 the continental shelf off the Baja California Peninsula ($25^{\circ}10' \text{ N}$, $112^{\circ}45' \text{ W}$) (Fig. 1). SLB is situated
 98 below the dynamic boundary between the cooler and slightly fresher CCS waters advected from the north
 99 and the relatively warmer and saltier tropical and subtropical waters from the south (Abella-Gutiérrez and
 100 Herguera, 2016). The warmer and saltier tropical and subtropical waters are associated with the poleward
 101 advection of the California surface Countercurrent close to the coast (also known as Davison Current), and
 102 subsurface nutrients and carbon-enriched and oxygen-depleted waters, with an origin in the equatorial
 103 region, known as the California Undercurrent (CUC) (Hickey, 1979).

104 The CCS shows a strong seasonality, characterized by an intensification of the equatorward alongshore
 105 winds during spring to early summer that intensify the advection of the northern cooler and fresher waters
 106 of the CC and the upwelling of nutrient and carbon-enriched waters from the subsurface that fuels biological
 107 productivity (Lynn and Simpson, 1987; Sverdrup and Allen, 1939) and carbon export (Abella-Gutiérrez et
 108 al., 2020; Abella-Gutiérrez and Herguera, 2016). From late summer to early winter, the relaxation of the
 109 winds retreats the CC, which allows the invasion of warm stratified Tropical and Subtropical waters in the
 110 region, which reduces the biological productivity and carbon export (Durazo, 2015).

111 This seasonality is enhanced or weakened at different timescales, from interannual to multidecadal, as
 112 happens during La Niña-like conditions that extend the spring upwelling and El Niño-like conditions that



113 enhance stratification throughout the year (Abella-Gutiérrez et al., 2020; Durazo, 2015; O'Mara et al.,
 114 2019).

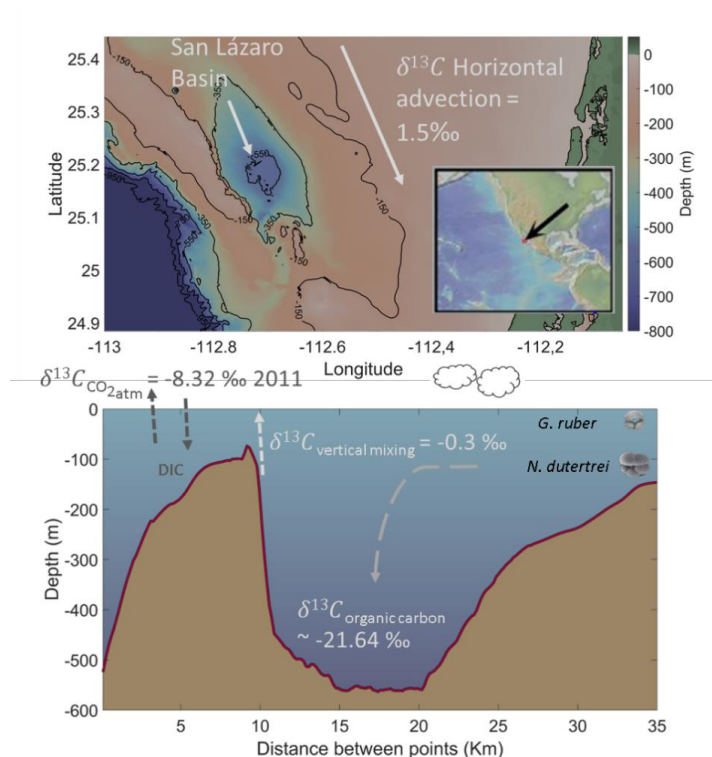


Figure 1. Localization of SLB, Baja California Sur, Mexico, and the isotopic composition of the main processes that imprint the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ to the DIC in the mixed layer. The above image was generated from GeoMapApp using the Global Multi-Resolution Topography (Ryan, et al., 2009) with modifications.

115 SLB has a maximum depth of ~540 m and is enclosed in its western margin by an uplifted branch of the
 116 Tosco-Abreojos fault system with depths around 100 m that is broken by a narrow sill of 350 m depth (

117 Figure 1. Localization of SLB, Baja California Sur, Mexico, and the isotopic composition of the main
 118 processes that imprint the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ to the DIC in the mixed layer. The above image was generated from
 119 GeoMapApp using the Global Multi-Resolution Topography (Ryan, et al., 2009) with modifications.). The
 120 reduced ventilation over the sill, the oxygen-depleted waters of the CUC entering the basin through these
 121 depths, and the high productivity help to maintain the suboxic conditions on the seafloor that prevent
 122 bioturbation and enhance the preservation of the laminated sediments accumulating on its bottom (Juillet-
 123 Leclerc and Schrader, 1987; Phleger and Soutar, 1973; Thunell, 1998; Van Geen et al., 1995).



124 2.2 Sample collection

125 Two box cores (SALA11-E19MC-1 and BAP96-6C) were collected (Table 1) from the deepest part of the
 126 basin, with a Soutar-type box core that recovered a well-preserved sediment-water interface. We made
 127 further use of the top section of the Kasten core (PCM00-78K), which was previously employed in earlier
 128 studies, to describe the CCS, sea surface temperature (SST), and paleoproductivity variability (Abella-
 129 Gutiérrez et al., 2020; Abella-Gutiérrez and Herguera, 2016; O'Mara et al., 2019) to extend the record back
 130 to the preindustrial era.

131 After recovery, the cores were refrigerated until sampling in the lab, where they were cut into 2 cm slabs
 132 along the depth axis. Several slabs were archived and X-radiographed, and the rest were continuously
 133 sampled perpendicular to the depth axis at 2-3 mm resolution, roughly translating into 1–4 year time slices.

134 Two species of planktic foraminifera preserved in the sediments were selected for analysis:
 135 *Neogloboquadrina dutertrei* and *Globigerinoides ruber*. *G. ruber* is a spinose species known to be
 136 colonized with symbionts under relatively higher light conditions, close to the surface of the water column,
 137 and has been reported to occupy a near-surface niche (Gastrich and Bartha, 1988), whereas *N. dutertrei* is
 138 a non-spinose species mostly found within the upper seasonal thermocline, usually closely associated with
 139 the depth of the chlorophyll maximum in the CC (Field, 2004; Sautter and Thunell, 1991; Spindler et al.,
 140 1984).

Table 1. Localization and year of the collected cores in SLB

Core	Latitude	Longitude	Depth	Year	Type
SALA11-E19MC-1	25.1961 N	112.7986 W	-540 m	2011	Soutar box core
PCM00-78K	25.1883 N	112.6783 W	-540 m	2000	Kasten
BAP96-6C	25.2163 N	112.7333 W	-528 m	1996	Soutar box core

141 2.3 Stable isotopic determinations on carbonates and organic carbon

142 To determine the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{calc}}$, we used selected planktic foraminifera from cores SALA11-E19MC-1 and
 143 BAP96-6C. Freeze-dried samples were disaggregated in a solution of sodium hexametaphosphate. The
 144 sediment was washed through a 64 μm sieve mesh and then transferred and treated with a 3 % hydrogen
 145 peroxide (H_2O_2) in an ultrasonic bath for 3 minutes to help disaggregate the sediment samples to pick
 146 planktic foraminifera.



147 Once dried, we handpicked specimens of planktic foraminifera *N. dutertrei* and *G. ruber* from the 250-350
 148 μm fraction; the number of specimens per species is approximately 14 shells needed to weigh a minimum
 149 total of 140 μg of carbonate per sample. These were placed in Exetainer tubes and dried at 110 °C for 24 h.
 150 Once at room temperature, the air was evacuated with ultra-pure helium (99.99 %).

151 After closing the Exetainer, we injected ~0.05 ml of 99 % orthophosphoric acid to dissolve the foraminifera
 152 tests, and the resulting carbon dioxide was carried with He to a gas chromatograph (GasBench II®) coupled
 153 to a DeltaPlus Advantage® mass. Each run of 45 samples was accompanied by two international reference
 154 standards, NBS19 and LSVEC, and laboratory internal references. The average precision from certified
 155 values during the runs was $\pm 0.06\text{‰}$ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ for both standards and four internal laboratory standards.
 156 Results are reported as δ values with reference to the international standard VPDB.

$$157 \quad \delta^{13}\text{C}(\text{‰}) = \left(\frac{R_{\text{sample}}}{R_{\text{standard}}} - 1 \right) \times 1000 \quad (1)$$

158 Where R is the $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ ratio, and the "standard" refers to PDB belemnite.

159 To determine the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Corg}}$ in the sediment samples, we analyzed 330 samples from the three cores described
 160 above. Samples were freeze-dried, and the carbonate component was dissolved with dilute hydrochloric
 161 acid (HCl). We added deionized water and centrifuged the samples to discard the supernatant, after which
 162 these were dried and encapsulated to determine their $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Corg}}$ composition.

163 Samples were loaded in a carousel and combusted in an oxygen atmosphere in a COSTECH elemental
 164 analyzer coupled to a Thermo DeltaV Advantage IR mass spectrometer in the Laboratorio de Isótopos
 165 Estables (LIE) at CICESE. Each run of 30 samples was accompanied by international reference standards
 166 USGS 40 (L-glutamic acid) and Sucrose ANU, and internal laboratory references, with average precision
 167 from certified values of $\pm 0.06\text{‰}$ for both standards, as well as six internal laboratory standards, reported as
 168 δ values with reference to the international standard VPDB.

$$169 \quad \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Corg}}(\text{‰}, \text{VPDB}) = \left(\frac{R_{\text{sample}}}{R_{\text{standard}}} - 1 \right) \times 1000 \quad (2)$$

170 Where R is the $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ ratio, and the "standard" refers to VPDB belemnite.

171 2.4 Age model

172 The core BAP96-6C was radiometrically dated by excess ^{210}Pb , and the presence of the isotope ^{137}Cs was
 173 reported in (Esparza-Alvarez et al., 2007). Core PCM00-78K was dated using radiocarbon measurements,



174 as detailed in Abella-Gutiérrez et al., 2020. Core SALA11-E19MC-1 was stratigraphically correlated with
 175 the carbonate record of BAP96-6C (as shown in the supplementary material, Figure S1).

176 2.5 Data analysis

177 To understand the behavior of this region of the CC and its role in carbon cycling, particularly the C_{ant}
 178 uptake relative to the atmosphere over a year, we calculated the CO_2 fugacity ($f\text{CO}_2$) in seawater using the
 179 data from the Surface Ocean CO_2 Atlas (Bakker, et al., 2016) between 1990 and 2011. We gathered all the
 180 existing data points over 12 months (Figure 2).

181 To characterize the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ variability in the upper water column, we analyzed $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of *N. dutertrei* ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Nd}}$)
 182 and *G. ruber* ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Gr}}$), preserved in cores SALA11-E19MC-1 and BAP96-6C, respectively (Figure 1). The
 183 combined use of modern CO_2 observations and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ records from species occupying different depth habitats
 184 allows for a complementary approach to assess past and present carbon cycling, providing insights into
 185 vertical variability in carbon uptake and redistribution.

186 We applied two complementary approaches to reconstruct the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ in the water column. First, we
 187 averaged the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Corg}}$ values from the 1800-1940 time series and used the data to derive a phytoplankton
 188 fractionation factor of -21‰ . Second, we used the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{calc}}$ from *G. ruber* and *N. dutertrei*, assuming isotopic
 189 equilibrium fractionation at the depths where each species calcifies. We estimated the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ yearly by
 190 subtracting the organic carbon fractionation factor from the corresponding $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{calc}}$. This difference
 191 represents the inferred $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ throughout the water column.

192 3 Results

193 3.1 Seasonal variability

194 The seasonal variability of CO_2 fugacity in seawater shows that the surface waters act as a carbon source
 195 between July and November, while the rest of the year, the surface waters act as a sink, with most of the
 196 values below $400 \mu\text{atm}$ (Figure 2-A). The observed internal variability in surface waters (ρCO_2) is
 197 apparently phase locked with the seasonal cycle, as the observed fluctuations of internal variability closely
 198 track the peaks and troughs of the seasonal SSTs in this region. This upwelling region shows ρCO_2 maxima,
 199 and thus CO_2 outgassing, in August-September and its minimum ρCO_2 (and thus CO_2 uptake) in April-
 200 May.



201 This seasonal cycle has a thermal component, driven by the seasonality of SST, and a non-thermal
 202 component driven by the seasonality of other factors such as DIC and alkalinity (Takahashi et al., 2002).
 203 These observations suggest that the phase of the seasonal cycle of this upwelling region in the southern
 204 CCS is partly controlled by thermal (solubility) effects. However, the large scatter observed during late
 205 summer to fall may be modulated by non-thermal factors (Figure 2-A). These non-thermal factors may be
 206 driven by the seasonal cycle of DIC modulated by photosynthetic uptake of CO₂ and respiration processes
 207 in the summer and fall.

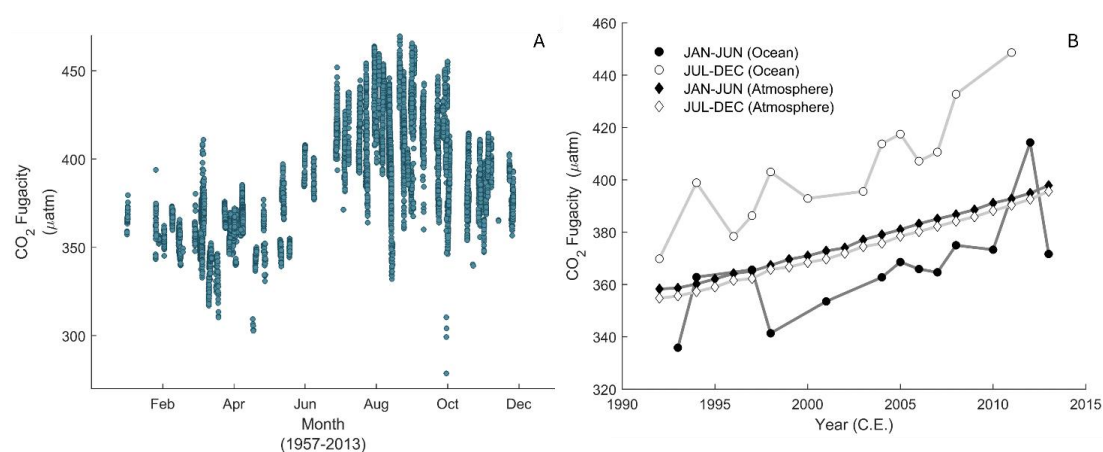


Figure 2. Seasonal and interannual variability of CO₂ in surface waters of the southern California Current, based on SOCAT data (Bakker et al., 2016). (A) Seasonal cycle from 1957 to 2013. (B) Annual average fCO₂ time series (1993–2013): January–June (solid blue), July–December (solid grey), and atmospheric values from Mauna Loa (dotted blue and grey).

209 The time series averages for the winter to late spring period of 1993–2013 (Figure 2-B) consistently show
 210 an offset of ± 20 µatm above and below the CO₂ concentrations measured at the Mauna Loa station (Global
 211 Monitoring Laboratory - Carbon Cycle Greenhouse Gases, 2024).

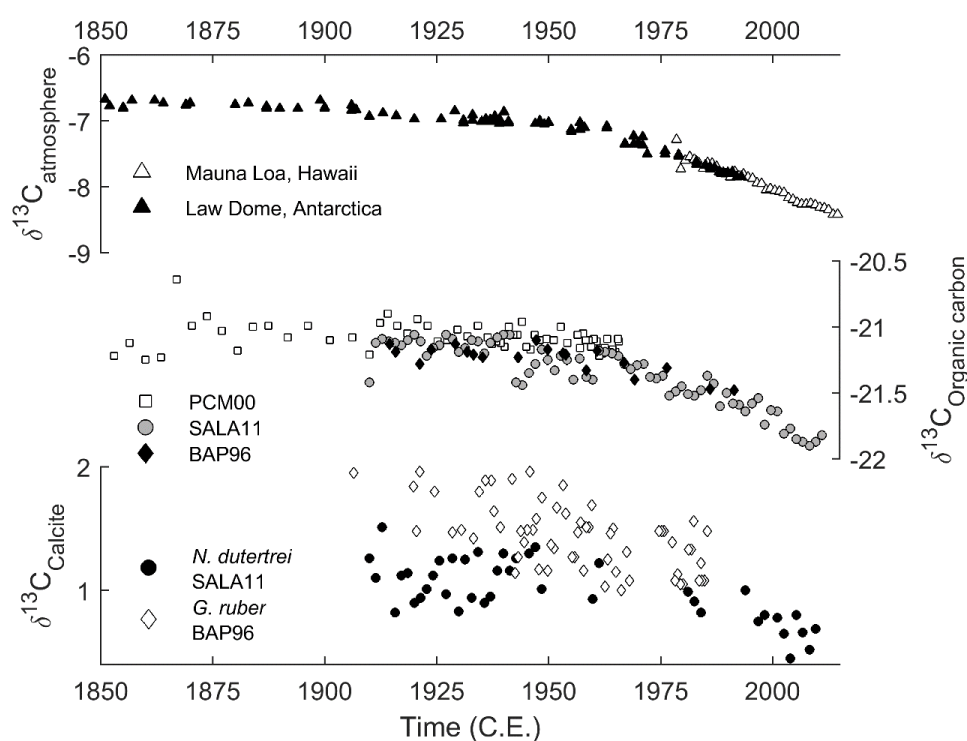
212 Seasonally, the surface waters exhibit a consistent positive offset ranging from +20 to +25 µatm from July
 213 to November, relatively higher SSTs, and a negative offset between -10 to -15 µatm from winter to spring,
 214 coincident with the lower SSTs. In both cases, there is a clear trend towards higher pCO₂ values for both
 215 ocean seasons throughout the past 20 years of the record, following the upward trend observed for the
 216 atmospheric CO₂ for the same period.

217 3.2 Long-term ocean-atmosphere carbon exchange

218 The reconstructed isotopic compositions of organic carbon from cores PCM-78K, SALA11-E19MC-1, and
 219 BAP96-6C show minor oscillations around mean values of -21 ‰ between 1850 and 1950 and a marked



220 trend toward more negative values as we approach the present period (Figure 3). Similarly, $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Nd}}$ and
 221 $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Gr}}$ time series exhibit a similar change towards lighter values around the 1950s. However, these trends
 222 in our proxy records show a lower slope than the atmospheric trend (Figure 4), suggesting that additional
 223 processes influence the isotopic composition in the marine sediments.



224

Figure 3. Time series of the carbon isotopic composition are presented in three sections: the upper panel illustrates the atmospheric reservoir from an ice core (Rubino et al., 2019) and instrumental data (Keeling et al., 2001). The middle panel shows the organic carbon phase obtained from sediment cores, and in the lower panel, the calcite phase obtained from planktic foraminifera *N. dutertrei* and *G. ruber* from sediment cores.

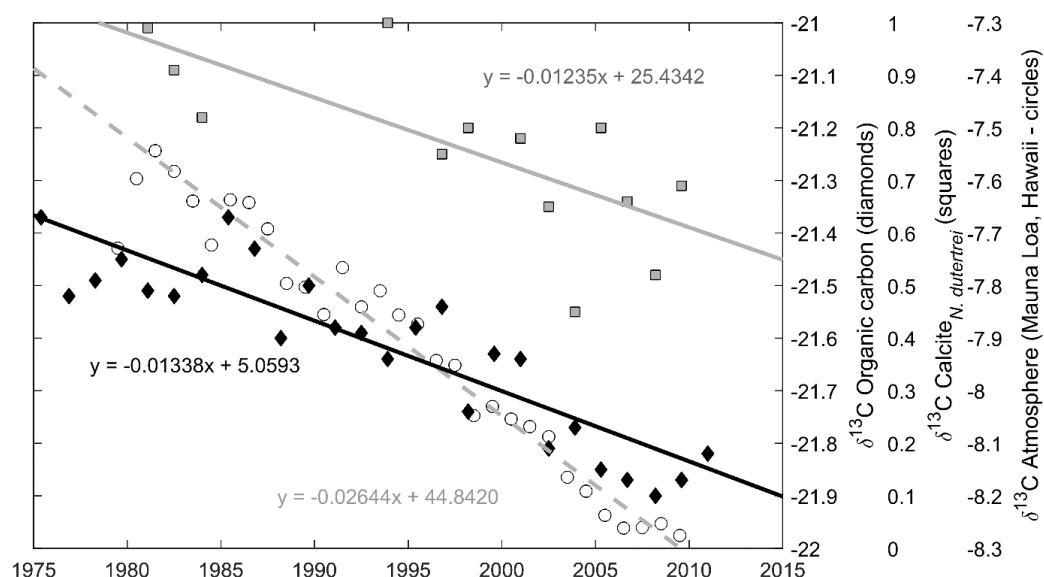


Figure 4. Time series slopes of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{atm}}$ (hollow circles), $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Nd}}$ of *N. dutertrei* (solid black diamonds), and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Corg}}$ (solid gray squares) between 1975 and 2011.

To understand the controls on variability in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Corg}}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Nd}}$, we reconstructed the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$, from $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Corg}}$ using a constant fractionation factor ($\epsilon = -21\text{‰}$), corresponding to the mean isotopic offset between organic and dissolved inorganic carbon during 1800 to 1940. The reconstructed $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ values were then compared with the inorganic carbon of planktic foraminifera preserved in sediments (Figure 5). Our reconstructed $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ shows intermediate values and follows the same trend as planktic foraminifera $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, suggesting that it reflects the integrated productivity of the mixed layer and water column. This also indicates that the long-term trend observed in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Corg}}$ is a reliable tracer of upper-ocean $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ variability.

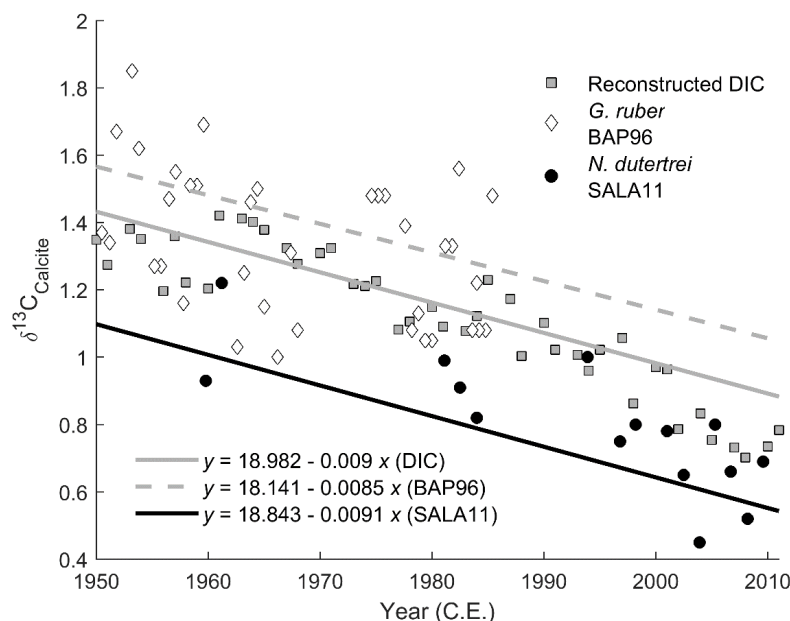


Figure 5. Time series and trends of the carbon isotopic composition of *G. ruber* (open diamonds) and *N. dutertrei* (black circles), as well as the DIC (grey squares), are derived from organic carbon in the sediments.

233 4 Discussions

234 The reconstructed $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of both organic carbon and calcite follows similar decreasing trends to the observed
 235 (Keeling et al., 2001) and reconstructed (Rubino et al., 2019) values of the atmosphere (Figure 3), associated
 236 with the Suess effect, driven by the combustion of fossil fuels (Keeling et al., 1979, 2001; Tans, 2022).
 237 However, the shallower slope found in our proxies ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Corg}}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Nd}}$) suggests other processes are
 238 involved, most likely related to the seasonal source and sink roles of EBUS regions on the carbon cycle.

239 Influenced by seasonal upwelling, our study area represents a complex setting for interpreting $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
 240 variability. Upwelling introduces relatively heavier $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ DIC-rich waters to the surface ocean, potentially
 241 buffering the lighter isotopic composition of atmospheric CO_2 ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{atm}}$) of the Suess effect (Tagliabue and
 242 Bopp, 2008; Quay et al., 2017). In these regions, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in surface waters are controlled on the one
 243 hand by air–sea CO_2 exchange and by respiration processes of organic matter and the DIC content of
 244 upwelled waters. As observed in our proxy records, this mixture of sources most likely leads to $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signals
 245 that diverge from atmospheric trends, particularly in eastern boundary current systems like the California
 246 Current.



247 The $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{calc}}$ trends of planktic foraminifera calcite show a slope of -0.12‰ per decade since 1970, while the
 248 $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Corg}}$ shows a slope of -0.15‰ per decade. These values lie at the low range of variability previously
 249 reported of $-0.20 \pm 0.06 \text{ decade}^{-1}$ for the North Pacific, which is already lower than the 0.27‰ decade^{-1}
 250 observed for the atmospheric CO_2 (Quay et al., 2017). According to Gruber et al., (1999) the highest Suess
 251 effect, $-0.25 \text{‰ decade}^{-1}$, is found in the subtropical gyres such as Bermuda and Hawaii, whereas the lowest,
 252 $-0.15 \text{‰ decade}^{-1}$, is found in the equatorial Pacific upwelling region. Our study region shows a decreasing
 253 decadal trend similar to the equatorial region, characteristic of its strong upwelling. Although temperature-
 254 dependent fractionation and total CO_2 fluxes are relevant, most observed trends towards lighter values in
 255 the surface ocean $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ can be attributed to the input of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{atm}}$. Therefore, understanding the spatial
 256 distribution of the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ Suess effect requires considering ocean mixing and circulation patterns (Tagliabue
 257 and Bopp, 2008).

258 Surface ocean $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ is mainly controlled by input of atmospheric CO_2 either through air–sea exchange or
 259 lateral advection of anthropogenic CO_2 , the export of organic matter, respiration processes in the surface
 260 layer, the lateral advection of DIC, and mixing from subsurface waters. This intrusion of isotopically light
 261 atmospheric CO_2 into the ocean tends to erase natural $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ gradients (Eide et al., 2017), and consequently
 262 the variability of the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ downstream of upwelling zones introduced by primary productivity, upwelling
 263 of older water, and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{atm}}$ (Tagliabue and Bopp, 2008).

264 Our results clearly show this mixture of influences, as our proxies are partially tracking the atmospheric
 265 signal. Tracking the propagation of the Suess effect across Earth system components offers insights into
 266 the magnitude of anthropogenic CO_2 sinks (Eide et al., 2017). Gruber et al. (1999) estimated that the global
 267 oceanic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ Suess effect closely matches the atmospheric trend. In contrast, Tagliabue and Bopp (2008)
 268 reported $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ decline rates of -0.07‰ per decade between 1860 and 2000, increasing to -0.18‰ per
 269 decade between 1970 and 2000. Observations for 1970–1990 show ocean $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ changes of -0.15 to
 270 -0.171‰ per decade, representing roughly 65% of the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{atm}}$ decrease.

271 Although atmospheric inputs primarily drive the propagation of the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ Suess effect into the surface ocean,
 272 its oceanic expression is modulated by regional circulation, upwelling dynamics, and biological
 273 productivity. For instance, the upwelling of older, relatively heavier $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ deep waters, as observed in our
 274 study area, can offset the surface signal. If fossil-fuel-driven atmospheric changes were the only process
 275 involved, $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Corg}}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Nd}}$ would closely follow atmospheric trends. While upwelling delivers
 276 remineralized DIC with a heavier $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ than the atmospheric, depending on the age and origin of the water
 277 mass. This dual effect may partially buffer the surface $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ Suess signal in regions such as the California



278 Current (Tagliabue and Bopp, 2008; Quay et al., 2017). The mismatch in slope between atmospheric and
 279 marine $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ records reflects the role of other oceanic processes, such as lateral and subsurface mixing with
 280 the upper ocean mixed layer, as well as the integration of multiple carbon pools, including organic matter,
 281 upper ocean DIC, and pathways driven by biological productivity in the surface light waters. Our data
 282 reinforce that sedimentary $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ reflects a regional imprint of global carbon cycle perturbations, modulated
 283 by local oceanographic processes.

284 Upwelling regions like the southern California Current play a central role in shaping the marine isotopic
 285 carbon signal. The persistence of seasonal source/sink behavior in surface waters (Figure 2) likely
 286 contributes to the lower slope observed in sediment $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values. Although the Suess effect dominates the
 287 long-term trend, its regional expression depends on the balance between atmospheric CO_2 uptake and the
 288 delivery of older DIC from depth. As Le Quéré et al. (2018) emphasize, regional systems with dynamic
 289 vertical and horizontal transport processes are key components of the global carbon cycle and crucial to
 290 understanding the propagation of anthropogenic CO_2 through the ocean-atmosphere system.

291 **4 Conclusions**

292 The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ trends of planktic foraminifera calcite and organic carbon in our study, with slopes of -0.12‰
 293 and -0.15‰ per decade, respectively, lie at the lower end of the variability reported for the North Pacific,
 294 although similar to the decadal rates reported for the equatorial Pacific, and remain consistently below the
 295 $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{atm}}$ trend. These findings reflect the global imprint of the ^{13}C Suess effect and the influence of regional
 296 oceanographic processes such as mixing subsurface waters driven by upwelling processes.

297 The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ trend mismatch observed in marine sediments with respect to the atmospheric ones suggests a
 298 combined effect of anthropogenic CO_2 atmospheric source, and the upwelling of intermediate waters with
 299 relatively enriched $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures relative to the atmospheric values, in the California Current. These
 300 mechanisms modulate the isotopic imprint of atmospheric CO_2 on the ocean, leading to spatial
 301 heterogeneity in the marine $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ response.

302 Temporal patterns further confirm that the oceanic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ response partially buffers the atmospheric trend,
 303 highlighting the role of ocean circulation and ventilation timescales. The discrepancy between sediment
 304 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ records (Figure 4) and atmospheric ones underscores the need to consider the integration of multiple
 305 carbon pools and processes—such as biological export, remineralization, and lateral transport—when
 306 interpreting long-term isotopic trends in the ocean sediment records.



307 Our results emphasize the importance of the anthropogenic source of carbon to alter the oceanic carbon
 308 isotopic composition of the ocean, and how this trend has been significantly shifting in the CCS ever since
 309 the 1950s, mirroring the atmospheric CO₂ trend captured in the Law Dome ice core record in Antarctica.

310 **Author contributions**

311 YC: First author, laboratory and data analysis, data curation, and conceptualization. JA: Data analysis and
 312 writing. GV: Data analysis and writing. JH: Conceptualization, supervision, investigation, methodology,
 313 data curation, resources, project administration, funding acquisition, writing-review and editing, manuscript
 314 improvement. All authors contributed to the article and approved the submitted version.

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322 **Competing interests**

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

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