

1 **Stability of ENSO and its tropical Pacific teleconnections**

2 **over the Last Millennium**

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9

10 **Abstract**

11 Determining past changes in the amplitude, frequency and teleconnections of the El Niño-Southern
12 Oscillation (ENSO) is important for understanding its potential sensitivity to future anthropogenic
13 climate change. Palaeo-reconstructions from proxy records can provide long-term information of
14 ENSO interactions with the background climatic state through time. However, it remains unclear how
15 ENSO characteristics have changed on long timescales, and precisely which signals proxies record.
16 Proxy interpretations are typically underpinned by the assumption of stationarity in relationships
17 between local and remote climates, and often utilise archives from single locations located in the
18 Pacific Ocean to reconstruct ENSO histories. Here, we investigate the long-term characteristics of
19 ENSO and its teleconnections using the Last Millennium experiment of CMIP5 (Coupled Model
20 Intercomparison Project phase 5) (Taylor et al., 2012). We show that the relationship between ENSO
21 conditions (NINO3.4) and local climates across the Pacific basin differs significantly for 100-year
22 epochs defining the Last Millennium and the historical period 1906-2005. Furthermore, models
23 demonstrate decadal- to centennial- scale modulation of ENSO behaviour during the Last
24 Millennium.. Overall, results suggest that the stability of teleconnections may be regionally dependent
25 and that proxy climate records may reveal complex changes in teleconnected patterns, rather than
26 large-scale changes in base ENSO characteristics. As such, proxy insights into ENSO may require
27 evidence to be considered over large spatial areas in order to deconvolve changes occurring in the
28 NINO3.4 region from those relating to local climatic variables. To obtain robust histories of the
29 ENSO and its remote impacts, we recommend interpretations of proxy records should be considered
30 in conjunction with palaeo-reconstructions from within the central Pacific.

33 1. Introduction

34 The El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) is an important determinant of climate variability, altering
35 global rainfall patterns and modulating global temperatures. Understanding the long-term
36 characteristics of ENSO variability and its sensitivity to external forcings, such as greenhouse gases,
37 represents a fundamental climate modelling and data challenge. While changes in ENSO behaviour
38 may occur under future global warming (Power et al., 2013), previous studies indicate a large
39 dispersion in global climate model (GCM) projections of changes in ENSO characteristics (e.g.
40 Collins et al., 2010; Vecchi and Wittenberg, 2010), and hence the sensitivity of the coupled ocean-
41 atmosphere system to future changing boundary conditions may be uncertain (DiNezio et al., 2012).
42 Recent model-based studies suggest changes in ENSO occur under future greenhouse warming
43 (Power et al., 2013; Santoso et al., 2013; Cai et al., 2014). However, investigations of the sensitivity
44 of ENSO to anthropogenic climate change are restricted by the relatively short instrumental record,
45 which provides us with limited guidance for understanding the range of ENSO behaviours. For
46 example, the observed changes in the character of ENSO in the 20th and 21st centuries (including
47 dominance of El Niño, rather than La Niña, episodes from the mid-1970s, and a La Niña-like mean
48 state since the 1990s (England et al., 2014)) are difficult to evaluate in terms of a forced response or
49 unforced variability given that the limited observational record almost certainly does not capture the
50 full range of internal climate dynamics.

51 High resolution palaeo-reconstructions, including from tree rings, sediment cores, corals and
52 speleothems, have the potential to provide long-term information about changes in modes of climatic
53 variability and their sensitivity to different boundary conditions. Some tropical proxy records reveal
54 ENSO interactions with the background mean climatic state. Data from long-lived fossil corals are
55 often interpreted quantitatively as estimates of ENSO changes through time that show a range of
56 ENSO frequencies and amplitudes through time. Central Pacific coral reconstructions generally reveal
57 a weakened ENSO during the early Holocene (McGregor et al., 2013) and highly variable ENSO
58 activity throughout the Holocene (Cobb et al., 2013), which may have arisen from internal ocean-
59 atmosphere variability (Cobb et al., 2003). Developing robust estimates of natural ENSO variability
60 over a period longer than permitted through the instrumental record is a useful research avenue, with
61 the potential for informing meaningful adaptive strategies for future climate change.

62 Palaeo-ENSO proxy records of the Last Millennium (1,000 years) are sparsely populated temporally
63 and spatially, and reconstructions remain uncertain (Cobb et al., 2003; Khider et al., 2011). It also
64 remains unclear as to precisely which climatic signals associated with ENSO are being recorded in
65 these individual proxy records and whether these provide the necessary resolution to reconstruct
66 ENSO changes. The assumption of stationarity of relationships between local and remote climates
67 (teleconnections) underpins the interpretation of many palaeoclimate reconstructions. However,

68 stationarity should not necessarily be assumed in terms of ENSO variability (Gallant et al., 2013). Are
69 palaeo-reconstructions from the tropical Pacific recording base changes in the ENSO system or rather
70 changes in teleconnected patterns? Previous model-based studies have identified sensitivity in the
71 relationship between ENSO and the background climate state, and urged caution in the reconstruction
72 of ENSO from proxy records under the assumption of stationarity of observed teleconnections (Coats
73 et al., 2013; Gallant et al., 2013).

74 However, these studies have not comprehensively addressed the degree to which uncertainty about the
75 non-stationarity of ENSO teleconnections can be assessed for particular locations and for particular
76 mean climatic states. Previous studies have combined proxy record with simulations using global
77 climate models (GCMs) (Cobb et al., 2013). However, these approaches primarily focused on using
78 palaeo-ENSO reconstructions to test the performance of GCMs for the purpose of constraining
79 uncertainty in future projections of ENSO behaviour under climate change. Furthermore, although we
80 previously investigated the potential non-stationarity of hydrologic responses to ENSO-like
81 conditions under disparate boundary conditions in idealised model simulations (Lewis et al., 2014),
82 we did not provide guidance for interpreting tropical proxy records in particular regions.

83 As such, precisely which expressions of ENSO are being recorded in proxy archives under differing
84 climatic boundary conditions have not been comprehensively interrogated. A new generation of
85 climate models and experiments has recently become available (Taylor et al., 2012), providing an
86 opportunity for the first time to investigate ~1200 years of ENSO variability and establish a
87 framework for understanding ENSO changes through time, using more models than previously
88 possible. Hence in this current study, we investigate changes in ENSO characteristics (frequency and
89 amplitude) in model experiments of the Last Millennium ('past1000'). Focusing on three key climatic
90 regions (East, Central and West Pacific), where explicit palaeo-ENSO reconstructions have been
91 made, teleconnected patterns (the relationship between local and remote climates) throughout the Last
92 Millennium are examined for surface temperatures and precipitation. We ultimately aim to determine
93 whether proxy archives in the tropical Pacific are likely to be recording alterations in ENSO base
94 frequencies or local-scale teleconnections under differing boundary conditions.

95 **2. Datasets and methods**

96 **2.1 Definitions**

97 The study is primarily focused on palaeo-ENSO variability from the tropical Pacific. Model data were
98 investigated in three regions that have been identified as sensitive to modern ENSO variability and
99 have also been used explicitly to reconstruct past ENSO changes (e.g. Cobb et al., 2013; McGregor et
100 al., 2013). Area-mean anomalies for precipitation and surface temperature were calculated for the
101 West (10°S-10°N, 105°-155°E), Central (10°S-10°N, 170°-130°W) and East Pacific (20°S-5°N, 65°-
102 90°W) region and surface temperature for the NINO3.4 region (5°N - 5°S, 170° - 120°W) (Fig. 1).

103 These regions are not intended to provide exhaustive coverage of ENSO impacts, but are large enough
104 to provide useful comparisons with model-based data.

105 El Niño episodes were defined based on simulated surface air temperature anomalies in the NINO3.4
106 region, with events defined in the models when NINO3.4 temperature anomalies were >0.5 K for at
107 least six consecutive months (Trenberth, 1997). Conversely, La Niña episodes were defined when
108 NINO3.4 temperature anomalies were <-0.5 K for at least six consecutive months. Spatial patterns are
109 examined by compositing monthly temperature and rainfall anomalies into positive (El Niño) and
110 negative (La Niña) phases using these definitions for all CMIP5 models analysed (Figs 1 and 2). We
111 utilise the NINO3.4 region as an index to classify ENSO conditions. Although the NINO3.4 region is
112 commonly used to categorise ENSO episodes, it should be noted that there are other indices of ENSO
113 that may also provide useful information beyond the central tropical Pacific conditions described by
114 the NINO3.4 (see Supplementary Figs 1-3).

115 **2.2 Model experiments**

116 CMIP5 simulations (Taylor et al., 2012) were used for the historical (1850-2005 CE) experiment,
117 which is forced using changing atmospheric compositions due to observed anthropogenic and
118 volcanic influences, solar forcings and emissions of short-lived species from natural and
119 anthropogenic aerosols. In addition, simulations were used of the Last Millennium (past1000) (850-
120 1849 CE), in which reconstructed time evolving exogenous forcings are imposed, including changes
121 in volcanic aerosols, well-mixed greenhouse gases, land use, orbital parameters and solar changes.
122 Each model's pre-industrial control simulation (piControl) with non-evolving pre-industrial forcings
123 was analysed.

124 Data (precipitation (pr) and surface temperature (ts)) for six remaining models were regridded onto a
125 common 1.5° latitude by 1.5° longitude grid. For the piControl and past1000 experiments, monthly
126 anomalies were calculated by subtracting the mean seasonal cycle for each model. For the historical
127 experiment the 100-year period of 1906-2005 is considered. Additional experiments were analysed
128 for CMIP5-participating models, where available. For GISS-E2-R and IPSL-CM5A-LR models,
129 extended control simulations of >500 years in duration were analysed and compared to forced,
130 past1000 experiments.

131 **2.3. Models and evaluation**

132 The basic properties of El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) simulated in Coupled Model
133 Intercomparison Project phase 5 (CMIP5) models (Taylor et al., 2012), relative to observations, have
134 been comprehensively evaluated in previous studies (e.g., Bellenger et al., 2013; Guilyardi et al.,
135 2012). For example, Bellenger et al. (2013) examined ENSO through 6 metrics - 1) ENSO amplitude
136 (Niño3 sea surface temperature (SST) standard deviation), 2) structure (Niño3 vs. Niño4 amplitude),
137 3) frequency (root mean square error of Niño3 SST anomaly spectra), 4) heating source (Niño4

138 precipitation standard deviation), 5) the amplitude of the ENSO biennial component (the ratio of the
139 Niño3 SST anomaly timeseries power in the 3–8 years and 1–3 years bands) and 6) seasonality of
140 ENSO (ratio between winter November–January over spring March– May average Niño3 SST
141 anomalies standard deviations. The Bellenger et al. (2013) study showed a significant improvement in
142 model skill compared with CMIP3 generation models, including improved sea surface temperature
143 anomaly location, seasonal phase locking and ENSO amplitude.

144 In our current study, all CMIP5 models were analysed where past1000 simulations were archived on
145 the Australian ESG node. This provided nine models for selection, although bcc-csm1-1 was excluded
146 from analysis because its dominant ENSO periodicity is too short and MIROC-ESM model was also
147 excluded, as it exhibits large drift related error in the form of long-term trends that cannot be
148 attributed to natural variability (Gupta et al., 2013) (see Supplementary Fig. 4). We use the remaining
149 seven models with CMIP5 Last Millennium simulations (see Table 1). For GISS-E-2-R, we include
150 only one contributing realisation (r1i1p121) to constitute a multi-model ensemble of one member
151 from each model.

152 Models were compared to twentieth century reanalysis data (20CR) (Compo and Whitaker, 2011),
153 which is widely used a proxy of observed climate (King et al., 2014; Klingaman and Woolnough,
154 2013). In order to focus on ENSO characteristics, we compare these datasets for the period of 1976-
155 2005, rather than an extended historical period, due to greenhouse forced non-stationarities over the
156 post-industrial era. It should be noted that ENSO properties have changed over the last several
157 decades, in particular with increased frequency of Central Pacific-centred events in recent decades,
158 which have substantially different characteristics (Pascolini-Campbell et al., 2014). Hence model skill
159 in recent decades does not ensure that all ‘flavours’ of ENSO are equally well captured. CMIP5
160 historical simulations were compared to reanalysis precipitation and surface temperature over the
161 1976-2005 period for several ENSO-related characteristics.

162 To investigate the model representation of ENSO spatial patterns, the first empirical orthogonal
163 function of the tropical Pacific surface temperature anomalies was calculated for 20CR reanalysis and
164 CMIP5 multi-model mean (MMM) EOF (Figs 3a and 3b). Precipitation anomalies were also analysed
165 (Figs 3c and 3d). Surface temperature and precipitation patterns are qualitatively similar for reanalysis
166 and models; temperature patterns are generally of the same sign, although the meridional width of
167 tropical temperature anomalies is narrower than in the reanalysis estimates, and simulated
168 precipitation patterns are similar to the reanalysis estimate in the central Pacific, although positive
169 anomalies are located too far westward in the CMIP5 MMM, compared with observations. In
170 addition, the relationship between NINO3.4 surface temperature anomalies and global precipitation
171 fields in reanalysis was compared to the CMIP5 MMM (Figs 3e and 3f). The correlation coefficients
172 between NINO3.4 temperature anomalies and local precipitation are generally of the same sign in
173 simulated and reanalysis fields, including positive correlations in the Central and East Pacific and

174 negative correlations in the west Pacific. These reanalysis-model comparisons are broadly insightful
175 about the model representations of ENSO.

176 **3 Diagnosing ENSO changes and teleconnections**

177 The location of ENSO activity in the historical and Last Millennium experiments was first explored
178 using the leading empirical orthogonal function (EOF) of the tropical Pacific surface temperature
179 (Supplementary Fig. 5). Spatial patterns were compared to the NINO3.4 index to determine possible
180 non-stationarities in the site of ENSO activity through time (Li et al., 2011). In both experiments, the
181 surface temperature patterns are loaded in the NINO3.4 region, indicating that areal-average NINO3.4
182 temperatures provide a useful metric of ENSO activity in both experiments. It should be noted that
183 EOF analysis does not necessarily reveal modes that can be readily interpreted physically. However,
184 in this study we utilise an identical set of models for each experiment, and hence possible biases in
185 ENSO representations in the models are not considered prohibitive to investigating changes in the
186 stability of teleconnections through time. A wavelet analysis was next used to examine the frequency
187 and amplitude of NINO3.4 surface temperature variability in each model for statistically significant
188 changes. Wavelet analysis shows that the frequency and amplitude of NINO3.4 exhibit statistically
189 significant changes. The spectral power was calculated for the historical simulation (years 1906-2005)
190 and compared to the range of spectral power displayed in the past1000 experiment, calculated using
191 ten 100-year epochs (Fig. 4).

192 The relationship between ENSO variability and teleconnected patterns in the tropical Pacific regions
193 (East, Central and West) was diagnosed through several complementary approaches. First, an
194 ordinary least squares regression between monthly NINO3.4 mean surface temperature and remote
195 area-mean surface temperature, and between monthly NINO3.4 mean surface temperature and remote
196 area-mean precipitation was compared for the historical and Last Millennium experiments, for each
197 region. Second, the relationship between local and NINO3.4 climates was considered using the
198 correlation between variables ($\text{Corr}(\text{Local}, \text{Remote})$), analogous to considering land-surface coupling
199 strength (Lorenz et al., 2012). Correlations coefficients were calculated for monthly timeseries in ten
200 100-year epochs comprising the Last Millennium. Values were determined at each model gridbox and
201 an area-weighted mean calculated for each region. The significance of correlations was assessed at the
202 95% confidence level for each coefficient using a t-test. Third, the significance of identified changes
203 in local-remote relationships during the Last Millennium was investigated.

204 For each 100-year epoch comprising the Last Millennium, the El Niño- and La Niña- associated local
205 temperature and precipitation anomalies were selected for each region. A two-sided Kolmogorov-
206 Smirnov (KS-) test was used to investigate whether the distribution of local climate variables in 100-
207 year epochs within the Last Millennium could statistically have been drawn from the same population
208 (at the 5% significance level). A two-sided KS-test was applied to each ENSO phase for each variable

209 (surface temperature, precipitation) in each region (East, Central, West) comparing every permutation
210 of epochs sequentially (e.g. comparing El Niño-associated Central Pacific temperatures during 850-
211 949 with 950-1049, then 1050-1149, then 1150-1249 etc.). A KS-test was used for detecting changes
212 in ENSO-remote climate relationships in Last Millennium timeseries as it is non-parametric and
213 requires no assumptions to be made regarding the distribution of the data. A change is detected where
214 the null hypothesis (that the distributions considered were drawn from the same population) is
215 rejected at the 5% significance level.

216 **4. ENSO during the Last Millennium**

217 **4.1 ENSO characteristics**

218 Models demonstrate a range of variance in the ENSO-relevant band (2-8 years) for the historical
219 experiment (Fig. 4). In the historical experiment, ENSO amplitude is generally weaker at relevant
220 periods for the MRI-CGMC3, GISS-E2-R and HadCM3 models. Notably, the amplitude of higher
221 ENSO-relevant periods (6-8 years) in the historical simulations is generally outside the range
222 exhibited in the Last Millennium for each model (Fig. 2). However, previous model-based studies
223 (Coats et al., 2013; Wittenberg, 2009) that reveal strong inter-decadal to inter-centennial modulation
224 of ENSO behaviour warn that such modulation may not be fully revealed by the comparatively short
225 instrumental climate record available. Hence, large uncertainties may exist in ENSO metrics
226 diagnosed from short records.

227 Decadal- to centennial-scale El Niño- and La Niña-like episodes during the Last Millennium
228 simulations are evident in all models analysed here (Fig. 5). This low frequency modulation may
229 result from internal variability (e.g., Karnauskas et al., 2012; Borlace et al., 2013), or may be related
230 to external forcings. For example, external forcings from large tropical volcanic eruptions occurring
231 between 1250 and 1600 CE (Supplementary Fig. 6) may produce decadal- to centennial-scale ENSO
232 responses, which are discussed further in section 6. Alternatively, decadal- to centennial-scale
233 modulation of ENSO behaviour may result from internal ocean-atmosphere dynamics rather than a
234 response to exogenous forcings. The properties of ENSO simulated in the control simulations (Fig. 6)
235 that do not impose external forcings, exhibit qualitatively similar variability to that shown in the
236 externally forced Last Millennium experiment (Fig. 5). This similarity includes multi-decadal to
237 centennial- scale El Niño- and La Niña-like phases.

238

239 **4.2 ENSO impacts and teleconnections**

240 Models show broadly similar global impacts associated with NINO3.4 regional temperature
241 anomalies in the Last Millennium and historical experiments (Figs. 1 and 2). The composited patterns
242 of global surface air temperature anomalies associated with positive (El Niño) and negative (La Niña)
243 ENSO phases derived from all analysed models spatially coherent across the experiments. However,

244 both El Niño and La Niña anomalies associated with the historical period (1906-2005) are generally
245 of greater magnitude than for the Last Millennium, for the MMM and in various models including
246 FGOALS-s2 and CCSM4. These experiments are most similar in the tropical Pacific, with larger
247 differences evident at remote locations outside the equatorial Pacific, including over North America
248 and the south Pacific.

249 The relationship between NINO3.4 regional temperature anomalies and the mean local climate is
250 examined in each analysed Pacific region (East, Central, West) using the correlation between
251 variables (Corr(Local, Remote). This approach is analogous to considering land-surface coupling
252 strength (Lorenz et al. 2012). We diagnose temporal stability using this correlation in ten 100-year
253 epochs that comprise the Last Millennium and the 100-year historical period of 1906-2005 (Figs 7
254 and 8). The strength of the remote-local relationship varies temporally and is also both regionally and
255 climate variable dependent. In the West Pacific, particularly, this coupling is generally weak and not
256 found to be statistically significant for most epochs and models. It is notable that the strongest West
257 Pacific-NINO3.4 correlation for the MMM, and FGOALS-s2 and IPSL-CM5A-LR models is
258 calculated for the historical experiment. There is, however, a large dispersion in correlations
259 calculated across the models, with negative correlations calculated from CCSM4, which also shows
260 the strongest El Niño-related cool features in the Warm Pool region (Figs 1 and 2). The remote- local
261 temperature relationship is consistently stronger in the East and Central Pacific regions. The strongest
262 local precipitation coupling occurs for the Central Pacific, with no statistically significant
263 relationships found for the West and East Pacific across the model ensemble (with the exception of
264 CCSM4) (Fig. 8).

265 We also investigate the significance of identified Last Millennium changes in local-remote
266 relationship across these epochs. A KS test reveals there are detectable differences (5% level) in the
267 distribution of ENSO-associated local climate variables in these 100-year epochs. West Pacific El
268 Niño- and La Niña- associated temperatures, for example, significantly vary in character through the
269 Last Millennium and with the historical 100-year epoch for the multi-model mean. Temporal changes
270 in local ENSO fingerprints (Corr(Local, Remote) of the Last Millennium, also likely result from
271 external forcings and/or internal ocean-atmosphere dynamics, which are discussed further in section
272 6. However, these same relationships were not explored in the extended control simulations because
273 of the small number of contributions available from different models. Differing teleconnections may
274 result at different points in time and may also differ from present-day relationships. In addition, Last
275 Millennium variability in ENSO-local climate relationships across sites in the tropical Pacific
276 suggests that global ENSO changes do not necessarily scale linearly to local scales and cannot be
277 assumed to do so.

278 **5. ENSO under differing boundary conditions**

279 The CMIP5 archive also provides simulations of the mid-Holocene (midHolocene, circa 6,000 years
280 ago) from multiple participating climate models, which are also investigated here. The mid-Holocene
281 provides a well-constrained target for model-based studies (Schmidt et al., 2004) with substantially
282 larger time-evolving forcings than those imposed during the Last Millennium, and this period has also
283 been the target of palaeo-reconstructions. Mid-Holocene simulations are run for at least 100 years
284 after reaching equilibrium and have changed orbital parameters and atmospheric concentrations of
285 greenhouse gases imposed. Other boundary conditions such as aerosols, solar constant, vegetation and
286 topography are prescribed as the same as in the pre-industrial control simulation. We note that
287 although the limited 100 model years contributed by various models may not provide an exhaustive
288 representation of ENSO behaviour in the mid-Holocene, they nonetheless provide valuable insight
289 into the potential influences of varying boundary conditions.

290 By way of context, Cobb et al. (2013) report that central Pacific corals record highly variable ENSO
291 activity through the Holocene, although no systematic trend in ENSO variance was demonstrated in
292 this study. A complementary Central Pacific reconstruction from Kiritimati Island suggests that
293 ENSO variance was persistently reduced by 79%, compared with today at this location about 4,300
294 years ago (McGregor et al., 2013). Central Pacific coral-based evidence of ENSO variability is
295 substantially different from lower-resolution records from the eastern equatorial Pacific (Conroy et
296 al., 2008; e.g. Moy et al., 2002). Collectively, East Pacific records suggest a systematic decrease in
297 mid-Holocene ENSO variance. On the West Pacific side of the basin, corals from northern Papua
298 New Guinea reveal a reduction in ENSO frequency and amplitude over the period of 7.6-5.4 ka
299 (thousand years ago) compared with today, and also identifies large and protracted El Nino events for
300 2.5–1.7 ka (McGregor and Gagan, 2004). These Mid-Holocene ENSO reconstructions do not
301 necessarily provide contradictory information, but may instead reflect geographic complexities (Carre
302 et al., 2014; Cobb et al., 2013). However, as proxy-based reconstructions from each of these regions
303 have been used to infer changes in the ENSO coupled ocean-atmosphere system, we examine
304 teleconnected patterns in the mid-Holocene.

305 We consider the subset of participating CMIP5 models with contributions of mid-Holocene
306 simulations (MRI-CGCM3, IPSL-CM5A-LR, FGOALS-s2, CCSM4) and find a general reduction in
307 spectral power across ENSO-relevant frequencies that has also been reported in model experiments of
308 this period conducted prior to the release of CMIP5 (Chiang et al., 2009). This reduced spectral power
309 in the ENSO band can be considered a metric for reduced ENSO amplitude (Stevenson, 2012).
310 Previous model and proxy-based studies have also hinted at subdued ENSO activity in the mid-
311 Holocene. For example, early studies using simple numerical models of the coupled ocean-
312 atmosphere system by Clement et al. (2000) demonstrate increasing ENSO variability throughout the
313 Holocene in response to time varying orbital forcings. The impact of mid-Holocene orbital changes
314 on ENSO variability has not been demonstrated comprehensively from proxy records. However,

315 various fossil coral reconstructions indicate that there may have been reductions in ENSO variability
316 in the mid-Holocene (Cobb et al., 2013).

317 In addition, when CMIP5 midHolocene model data are composited into positive (El Niño) and
318 negative (La Niña) phases, the magnitude of simulated mid-Holocene spatial patterns of ENSO
319 impacts (Supplementary Fig. 7) are subdued, relative to the historical. The relationship between
320 NINO3.4 mean surface temperature anomalies and regional (East, Central, West Pacific) temperature
321 and precipitation was also examined and shows particularly that the relationship between West Pacific
322 surface temperature anomalies and corresponding NINO3.4 temperature anomalies differs from the
323 midHolocene and historical simulations. The frequency of high and low local surface temperature
324 anomalies in the West Pacific during El Niño defined conditions is reduced in the midHolocene
325 experiment compared with the historical. The NINO3.4 impacts on East and Central Pacific regional
326 temperatures are broadly similar for the historical and mid-Holocene.

327 **6. Towards reconstructing robust ENSO histories**

328 This study uses palaeoclimate simulations conducted using a suite of CMIP5-participating models
329 with various forcing to investigate changes in ENSO and its teleconnections under differing boundary
330 conditions (the Last Millennium and mid-Holocene). The models show broadly similar global impacts
331 associated with NINO3.4 temperature anomalies between the Last Millennium and historical
332 experiments, although the magnitude of anomalies in the historical simulation is generally larger. We
333 find that ENSO-local climate relationships are typically weak in the West Pacific region, with remote-
334 local temperature relationships consistently stronger in the East and Central Pacific regions. The
335 relationships between NINO3.4 and local precipitation are weak and found to be significant only in
336 the Central Pacific. Furthermore, in the West Pacific particularly, El Niño- and La Niña- associated
337 temperatures vary significantly in character throughout the Last Millennium and with the historical
338 100-year epoch.

339 Previous studies of ENSO variability over the period encompassed in the CMIP5 past1000
340 simulations suggest that the most robust ENSO influence occurs over the Maritime Continent, in the
341 western part of the Pacific basin, with teleconnections generally stronger when ENSO variance is
342 higher (Li et al., 2013). Conversely, in our present study the correlation between West Pacific
343 climates and NINO3.4 is lower than for the Central and East Pacific, and also most variable between
344 epochs. This apparent mismatch has several possible causes. First, Li et al. (2013) focused on tree ring
345 records, and the Maritime Continent region they describe lies to the west of the West Pacific region
346 we define to encompass published coral records. This is likely an important difference in definition,
347 due to the subtle shifts in the western extent of the warm tongue characterising positive (El Niño)
348 episodes, and conversely to the cool anomalies charactering La Niña episodes. Furthermore,
349 simulated climates of the Warm Pool region are likely highly sensitive to model bias (Brown et al.,

350 2012; 2013) and hence model dispersion is expected (e.g., CCSM4 model in Fig. 7). Hence, subtle
351 changes in the Pacific basin may impact this region through several ocean-atmosphere mechanisms.

352 Although our current results appear to contradict those previously reported on ENSO teleconnections
353 (e.g., Li et al., 2013), collectively these studies suggest that remote reconstructions of ENSO require a
354 regional perspective. It may be inherently difficult to deconvolve variability in the NINO3.4 region
355 and local-scale, teleconnected climatic change in remote regions. Palaeoclimate studies often utilise
356 archives from single locations located in the Pacific Ocean to reconstruct generalised basin-scale
357 histories of ENSO. However, multiple studies demonstrate that proxies in one location alone should
358 not be considered regionally representative, or singularly insightful about robust ENSO
359 reconstructions without explicit examination of the stability of ENSO teleconnections. We argue that
360 proxy insights into change and variability in ENSO system are likely to be most robust when evidence
361 is being synthesised over large spatial areas. That is, considering changes only at a singular location
362 does not provide complete information about temporal changes in a large-scale system like ENSO.

363 Considering multi-dimensional information in the form of spatial patterns of change through time is
364 likely to yield more robust insights in large-scale systems. For example, combined evidence from the
365 West and Central Pacific is more likely to reveal the potentially subtle changes in ENSO-associated
366 spatial patterns of temperature and precipitation perturbations across the Pacific. For remote regions
367 outside the equatorial Pacific, the non-stationarity of ENSO teleconnections is likely to be more
368 problematic. These sites should be considered in conjunction with palaeo-reconstructions from within
369 the central Pacific basin, the so-called “centre of action” of ENSO (Cobb et al., 2013). This provides
370 a framework for enhanced interpretations of the invaluable information of palaeoclimatic change
371 provided by proxy records. Under boundary conditions significantly different from present, such as the
372 mid-Holocene ENSO teleconnections are likely to be more variable, and hence potential non-
373 stationarities in local-remote relationships require explicit consideration in proxy interpretations.
374 Spatially integrated approaches have already been undertaken and provide valuable information over
375 the recent past (e.g. Li et al., 2013), and several multi-proxy reconstructions of ENSO are now
376 available (e.g., Braganza et al., 2009; Wilson et al., 2010, Emile-Geay et al., 2013a; 2013b). These
377 provide highly valuable records of aspects of the ENSO system but are often limited in terms of
378 temporal coverage to the past few centuries, or derived from extratropical record and hence not
379 directly representative of ENSO variability.

380 In this study, we investigated teleconnected changes using NINO3.4 to represent ENSO, which was
381 based on the determined similarity of the leading EOF of the multi-model mean in the historical and
382 Last Millennium simulations. However, important spatial changes in ENSO patterns are known to
383 occur and have been identified over the observational period (McPhaden et al., 2011), with impacts of
384 teleconnected patterns (Graf and Zanchettin, 2012). Furthermore, during periods of varying boundary
385 conditions, such as the mid-Holocene it is likely that while ENSO remained active, there was an

386 important change in the spatial pattern of the sea surface temperature anomalies (Karamperidou
387 and Di Nezio, 2015). This change in the spatial structure of ENSO was not explicitly explored here,
388 though explicit analysis of NINO3 and NINO4 (see Supplementary Fig. 1) may be insightful about
389 changes in the ENSO system and its teleconnections through time. In addition, various studies have
390 linked remote proxy variability to the tropical Pacific (e.g., Li et al., 2013) and hence it would useful
391 in the future to investigate regions remote from the Pacific basin, such as in North America or China.
392 Regardless of the spatial dynamics of surface temperature anomalies in the NINO3.4 region, we do
393 not expect that the recommendation of considering proxy information from multiple locations is
394 dependent on the NINO3.4 metric used to define ENSO utilised here.

395 We have also identified decadal- to centennial-scale modulation of ENSO behaviour, which has been
396 highlighted previously (e.g., Karaukas et al., 2012; Borlace et al., 2013). As such, a range of ENSO
397 variability may exist during the Last Millennium that is not fully revealed by the comparatively short
398 instrumental climate record. The existence of varying ENSO characteristics throughout the Last
399 Millennium is also supported by proxy-based climate reconstructions (Cobb et al., 2003), which show
400 variable ENSO characteristics include changing frequency and amplitude compared to modern during
401 the Last Millennium. In ENSO-sensitive regions, temporally limited proxy-based ENSO
402 reconstructions, such as from corals, may provide only a snapshot of ENSO history that cannot be
403 extrapolated through time. The decadal- to centennial-scale modulations of ENSO may plausibly
404 result from either internal variability or external forcings, such as volcanic eruptions, or both. We find
405 multi-decadal to centennial- scale El Niño- and La Niña-like phases in CMIP5 piControl simulations
406 (with no imposed external forcings). These are qualitatively similar to those shown in the externally
407 forced Last Millennium experiment, suggesting that multi-decadal ENSO modulation can be
408 stochastic. While Li et al. (2013), for example, agree that substantial stochastic ENSO modulation on
409 these timescales can occur, model-based studies indicate that CMIP5 simulations of the Last
410 Millennium demonstrate a more energetic and variable ENSO system on centennial timescales than in
411 control runs (Ault et al., 2013). In Ault et al.'s study, control simulations did not agree with a suite of
412 recent reconstructions while forced simulations are compatible, while Last Millennium simulations
413 demonstrate ENSO variability closer to reconstructions. Overall, Ault et al. (2013) suggest that ENSO
414 variability in models results from a thermodynamic response to reconstructed solar and volcanic
415 activity.

416 On seasonal to annual timescales, previous model evidence suggests the radiative forcing due to
417 volcanic stratospheric aerosols induces a La Niña episode that is followed by an El Niño episode after
418 the peak of the forcing (McGregor and Timmermann, 2011). The association of eruptions and
419 subsequent El Niño episodes has been demonstrated for forcings larger than that observed during the
420 historical period for Mt Pinatubo (Emile-Geay et al., 2008). For large volcanic eruptions, El Niño-like
421 conditions are favoured, with both the likelihood and amplitude of an El Niño episode subsequently

422 enhanced (Timmreck, 2012). Furthermore, proxy reconstructions derived from tree rings across the
423 Pacific reveal similar ENSO responses to those simulated, with anomalous cooling reconstructed in
424 the east-central tropical Pacific in the year of volcanic eruption, followed by anomalous warming
425 occurring one year after (Li et al., 2013). In this study, we also suggest that large tropical volcanic
426 eruptions occurring between 1250 and 1600 CE (Supplementary Fig. 7), may produce decadal- to
427 centennial-scale ENSO responses. We find, for example, that West Pacific El Niño- and La Niña-
428 associated temperatures differ in character through the Last Millennium and with the historical 100-
429 year epoch for the multi-model mean. The largest changes in this relationship occur in epochs
430 coinciding with the timing of major volcanic eruption (e.g., 1258, Samalas, 1458 Kuwae) (Fig. 7),
431 suggesting an extended influence of short-term volcanic forcings. Differences in ENSO-local climate
432 relationships in these epochs indicates a notable ENSO response to large volcanic eruptions and
433 suggests that short proxy records spanning periods of significant volcanic activity may be recording
434 temporally-specific influences.

435 Overall we suggest that 1) changes in ENSO do not necessarily scale linearly to local scale impacts,
436 2) that there is likely a sensitivity of ENSO to the background climate state and 3) the decadal- to
437 centennial-scale modulation of ENSO behaviour may arise from internal variability and/or external
438 forcings such as volcanic eruptions. However, we considered only a subset of CMIP5 models that
439 contributed palaeo-simulations and these contain systematic biases in ENSO representations (Power
440 et al., 2013). If simulated ENSO and its teleconnected patterns are physically unrealistic, models
441 provide limited insights to understanding proxy records in these regions. In their study focused on
442 understanding ENSO responses to volcanic forcings, Emile-Geay et al. (2008) suggested further
443 forcing/response insights could be provided by GCMs with realistic ENSO cycles and asked whether
444 the current generation of models were up to the task. Deficiencies in our theoretical knowledge of
445 ENSO and the difficulties in representing physically realistic ENSO cycles in GCMs (Guilyardi et al.,
446 2012) are a limit on providing robust quantitative understanding of forced and unforced changes in
447 the ENSO system. Nonetheless, existing model simulations are useful for examining palaeoclimates,
448 despite their biases and reveal spatially and temporally complex changes in ENSO and its
449 teleconnected patterns under differing boundary conditions that should be considered when
450 developing robust proxy interpretations and ENSO histories in order that these are most useful for
451 constraining future ENSO behaviour under greenhouse forcings.

452 The palaeo-modelling type approaches utilised here do not attempt to replace proxy reconstructions,
453 but rather demonstrate that combining multiple approaches can provide enhanced interpretations of
454 reconstruction of past climate guiding our understanding of the most consistent physical explanations
455 for change (Schmidt, 2010). This study highlights several avenues for further model-based research
456 on ENSO variability and teleconnections:

457 • Several models have known difficulties simulating aspects of ENSO, such as the
458 nonlinear response of rainfall to extreme El Niño episodes (e.g., Cai et al., 2014). Additional
459 targeted experiments within a single climate model would provide further insight into the
460 apparent complexity of ENSO impacts through time.

461 • Our present study did not comprehensively investigate the relative influences on various
462 external forcings (solar and volcanics) and internal variability on ENSO characteristic, which
463 would provide useful information for comparison with proxy records. These mechanisms
464 could be investigated, for example, using a suite of simulations with single or varying
465 forcings, which may provide valuable general insight into ENSO response to external
466 forcings, including increased anthropogenic radiative forcings.

467 • More direct comparisons between model output and proxy reconstructions can be provided
468 by employing pseudo-proxy techniques. Using this approach, a simulated time series intended
469 to mimic actual proxy records ('pseudo-proxy') is generated from a climate model simulation
470 (Anchukaitis and Tierney, 2012). The pseudo-proxy approach can be used to interrogate the
471 necessary proxy density required for producing skilful regional climate field reconstructions
472 and provide guidance on interpretations of reconstructions from particular locations
473 (Smerdon, 2011; Wahl et al., 2014).

474

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484

485 **Figure Captions**

486 **Figure Captions**

487 **Figure 1** Compositing anomaly maps for surface temperature (K) for CMIP5 models (left, El Niño
488 episodes; right, La Niña episodes) for historical experiment, showing multi-model mean (MMM) and
489 each model. Rectangular boxes indicate the West, Central and east Pacific regions. Stippling indicates
490 where more than 80% of the models agree on the sign of the ENSO-associated anomaly.

491 **Figure 2** As for Figure 1, but showing composites from Last Millennium experiment.

492 **Figure 3** Comparison of leading patterns (standardised, first EOFs) of monthly variability in surface
493 temperature and precipitation for 20CR reanalysis (left: a, surface temperature; b, precipitation),
494 CMIP5 models (b, surface temperature; d, precipitation). CMIP5 historical patterns are the multi-
495 model mean (MMM) of the first EOF of each individual model for model years 1976-2005. Spatial
496 correlation coefficients between NINO3.4 index and 20CR precipitation (e) and the CMIP5 MMM
497 (f). Stippling indicates Spearman's rank correlations significant at the 95% level. Rectangular boxes
498 indicate the East, Central and West Pacific regions. Only model years 1976-2005 are used for
499 comparison as the historical experiment necessarily produces a non-stationary climate due to the time-
500 evolving anthropogenic greenhouse gas forcings imposed.

501 **Figure 4** Global mean NINO3.4 power spectrum ($K^2/\text{unit frequency}$, black) of Last Millennium
502 simulations, relative to the red-noise (AR(1)) benchmark (dashed), for the multi-model mean (MMM)
503 and each model analysed. The historical simulation is shown in black and the 5th-95th percentile range
504 across the Last Millennium shown by purple envelope, calculated using 100-year epochs. Spectral
505 power was calculated using a Morlet wavelet of degree 6.

506 **Figure 5** Running annual-mean surface temperature anomalies (K) over the NINO3.4 region (5°N -
507 5°S, 170° - 120°W) for Last Millennium simulation for each model. Red/blue shading highlights
508 departures from each model's long-term mean. Running means were calculated using a 240-month
509 triangle smoother.

510 **Figure 6** Running annual-mean surface temperature anomalies (K) over the NINO3.4 region (5°N -
511 5°S, 170° - 120°W) for extended piControl simulations conducted with GISS-E2-R (a) and IPSL-
512 CM5A-LR (c) models. Red/blue shading highlights departures from each model's long-term mean.
513 Running means were calculated using a 240-month triangle smoother. Control simulations are spun
514 up to quasi-equilibrium and run for ideally >500 years, providing an arbitrary timeseries of model
515 internal variability. Global mean NINO3.4 power spectrum ($K^2/\text{unit frequency}$, black), relative to the
516 red-noise (AR(1)) benchmark (dashed) for GISS-E2-R (b) and IPSL-CM5A-LR (d) models.

517 **Figure 7** Area-mean correlation coefficients (R) of NINO3.4 and local surface air temperature for the
518 East (black square), Central (red cross) and West (blue cross) calculated for the MMM, and for each

519 model. Data points show correlation coefficients calculated for ten 100-year epochs comprising the
520 Last Millennium simulation and for the historical simulation (1906-2005). Plot markers in grey
521 indicate correlations that are not statistically significant (at the 5% significance level).

522 **Figure 8** As for Figure 7 but showing correlation coefficients (R) of NINO3.4 and local precipitation.

523 **Table Caption**

524 **Table 1.** Details of CMIP5 experiments and models analysed. Further details can be found through
525 the Program for Climate Model Diagnosis and Intercomparison (PCMDI).

526

527

528 **Supplementary Figure Captions**

529 **Supplementary Figure 1** Location of NINO3, NINO3.4 and NINO4 index regions.

530 **Supplementary Figure 2** Composit ed anomaly maps for surface temperature (K) for CMIP5 models
531 for El Niño episodes for historical experiment (left) and past1000 experiment (right), showing multi-
532 model mean (MMM). El Niño events are defined using the NINO3.4 (upper), NINO3 (middle) and
533 NINO4 (lower) indices. Rectangular boxes indicate the West, Central and east Pacific regions. Plots
534 indicate that teleconnected patterns may differ with ENSO index considered.

535 **Supplementary Figure 3** As for Supplementary Figure 2 but showing composit ed La Niña episodes.

536 **Supplementary Figure 4** Running annual-mean surface temperature anomalies (K) over the
537 NINO3.4 region (5°N - 5°S, 170° - 120°W) for Last Millennium simulations conducted with MIROC-
538 ESM and bcc-csm1-1 models. Red/blue shading highlights departures from each model's long-term
539 mean. Running means were calculated using a 240-month triangle smoother.

540 **Supplementary Figure 5** Comparison of leading patterns (standardised, first EOFs) of monthly
541 variability in surface temperature for CMIP5 multi-model mean (MMM) for (a) historical and (b) Last
542 Millennium experiments. The location of the NINO3.4 region (5°N - 5°S, 170° - 120°W) is indicated
543 by a rectangular box.

544 **Supplementary Figure 6** Evolution of prescribed volcanic forcings for CMIP5 Last Millennium
545 experiment, showing the two alternative data sets used by modelling groups, including (a) timeseries
546 of stratospheric aerosol optical depth (AOD) at 0.55µm provided by Crowley et al. (2008) and (b)
547 global hemisphere total stratospheric injections (Tg) from Gao et al. (2008). Large volcanic eruptions
548 occurring between 1200 and 1500 are evident in both data sets.

549 **Supplementary Figure 7** Composit ed anomaly maps for surface temperature (K) for CMIP5 models
550 (left, El Niño episodes; right, La Niña episodes) for midHolocene experiment, showing multi-model
551 mean (MMM) and each model. Rectangular boxes indicate the West, Central and east Pacific regions.
552 Stippling indicates where more than 80% of the models agree on the sign of the ENSO-associated
553 anomaly.

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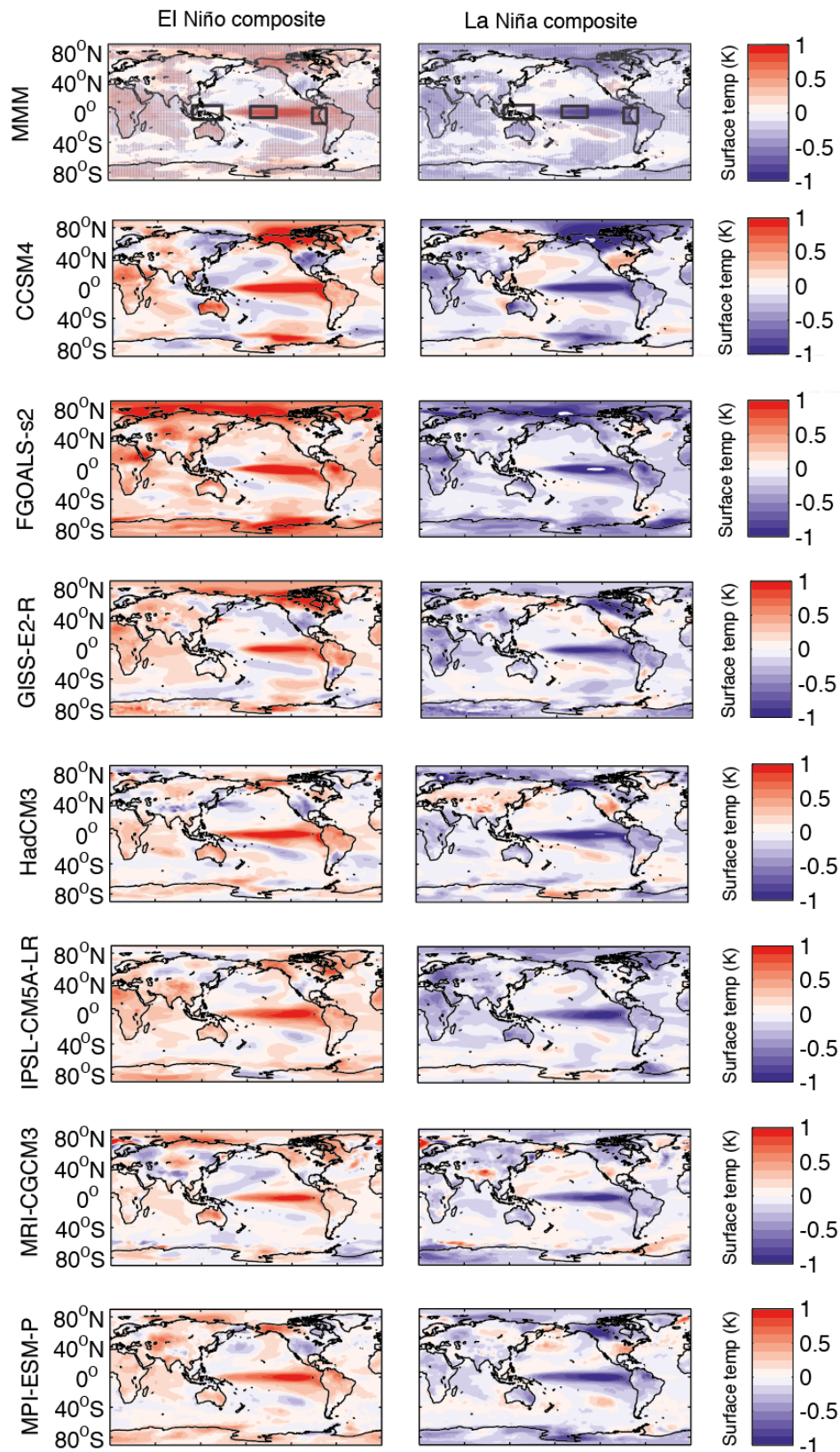
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724	Figures
725	Figure 1
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Figure 2

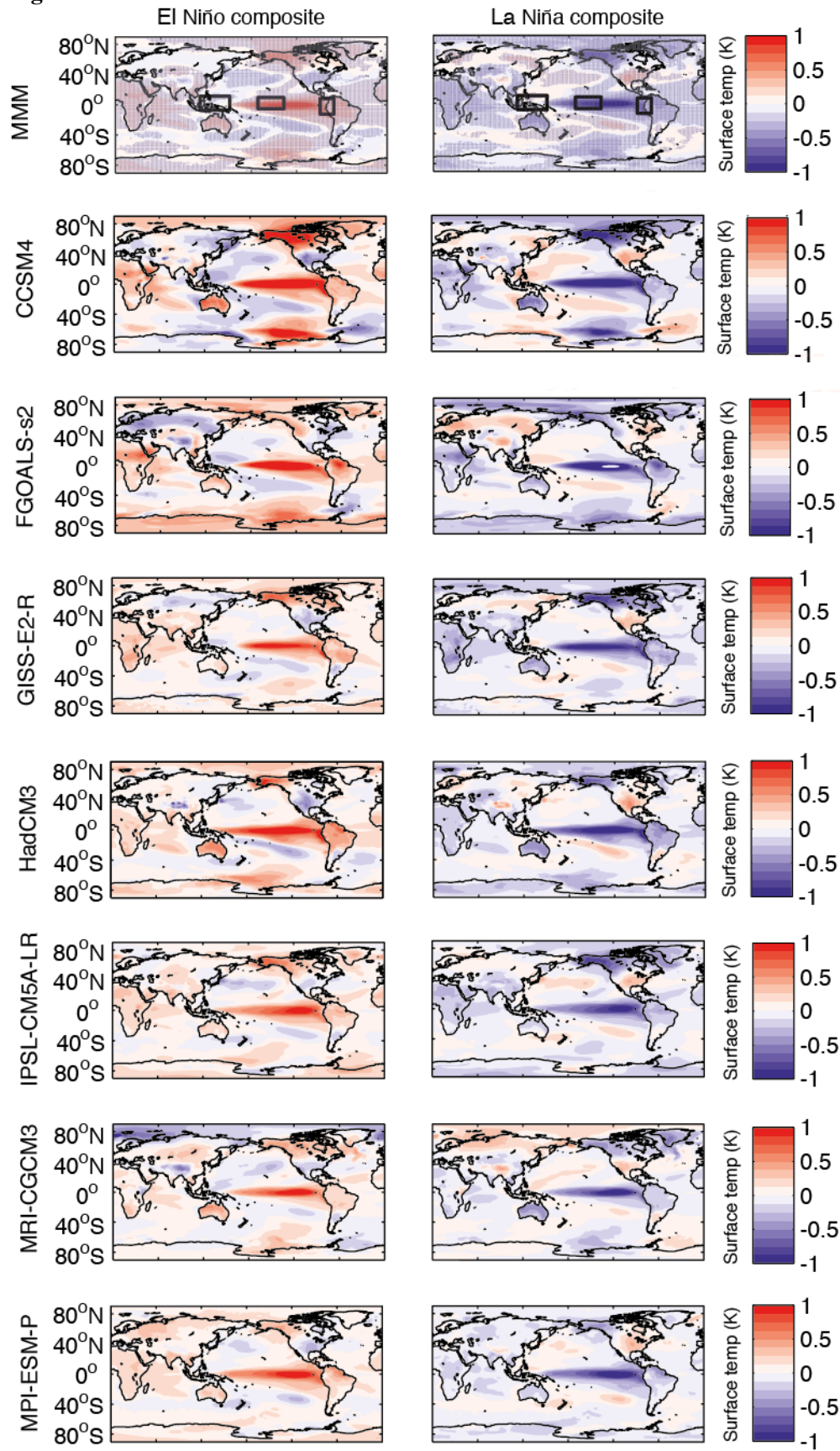
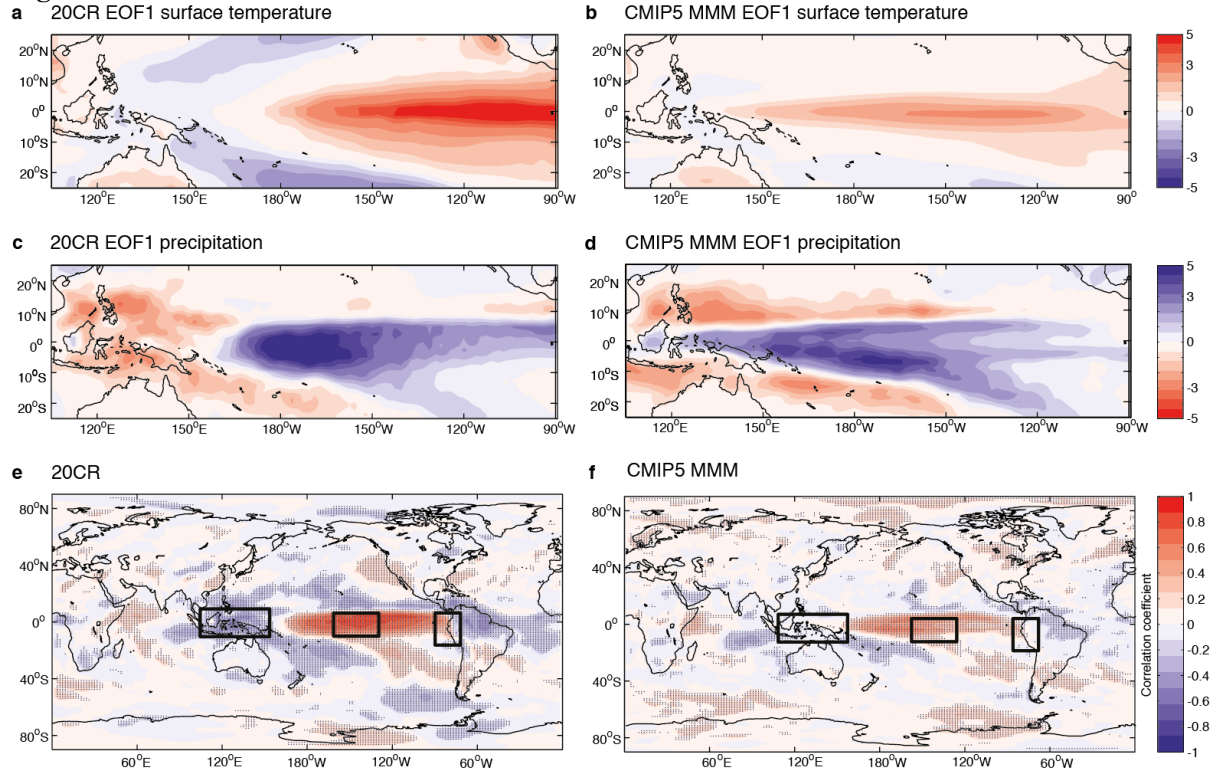
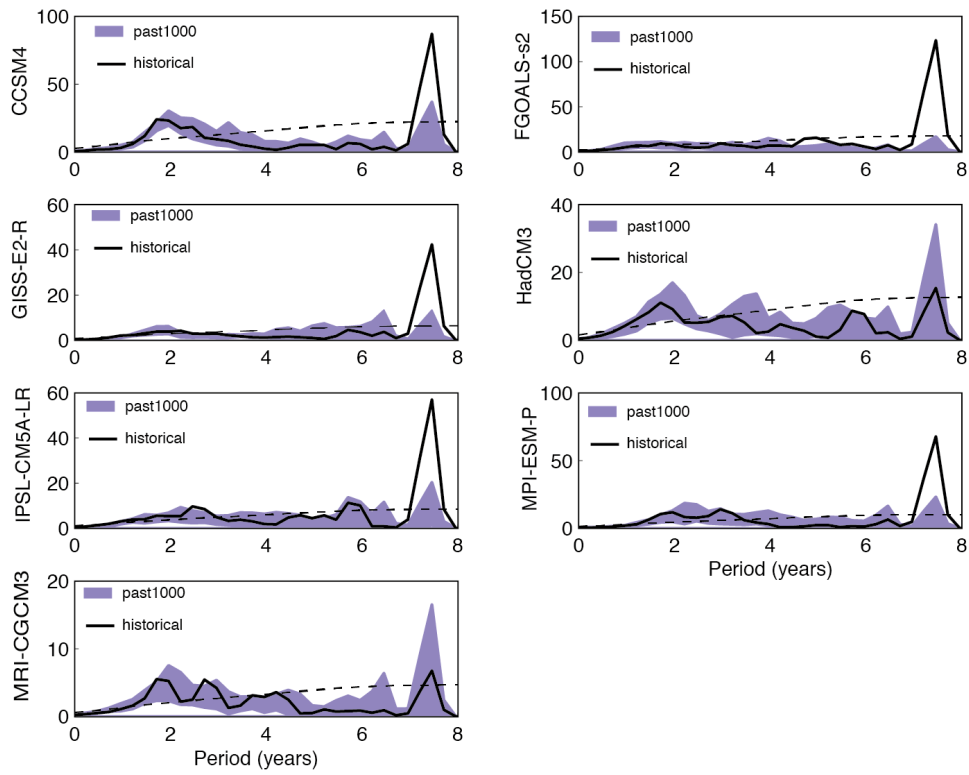


Figure 3



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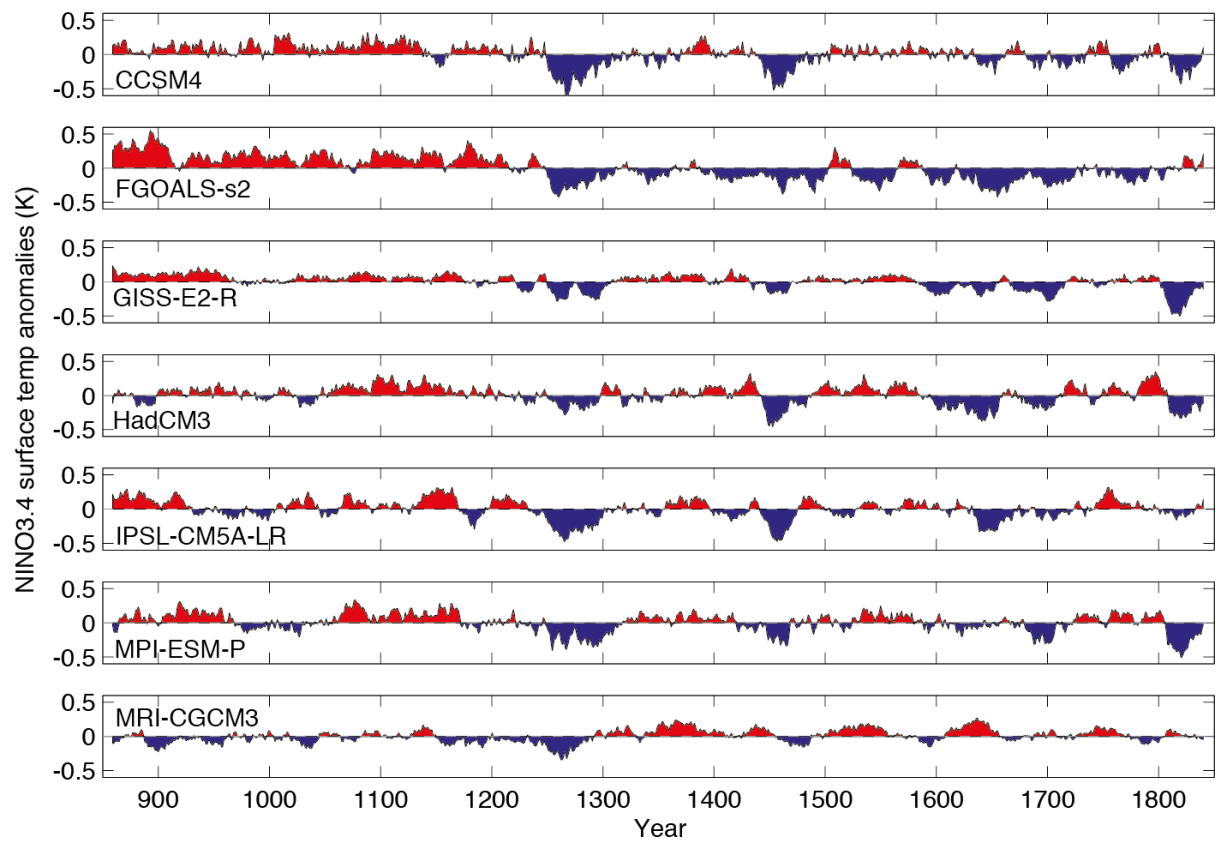
Figure 4



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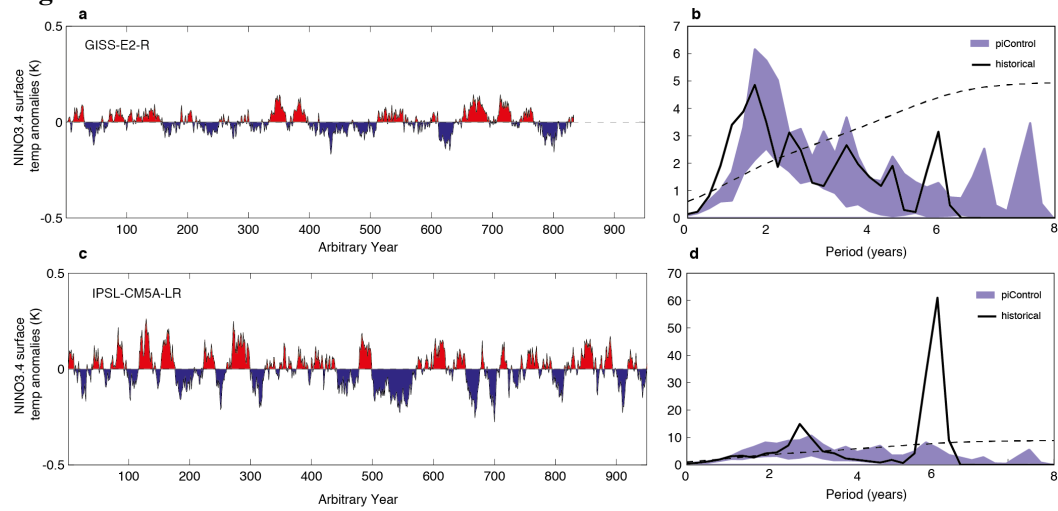
Figure 5



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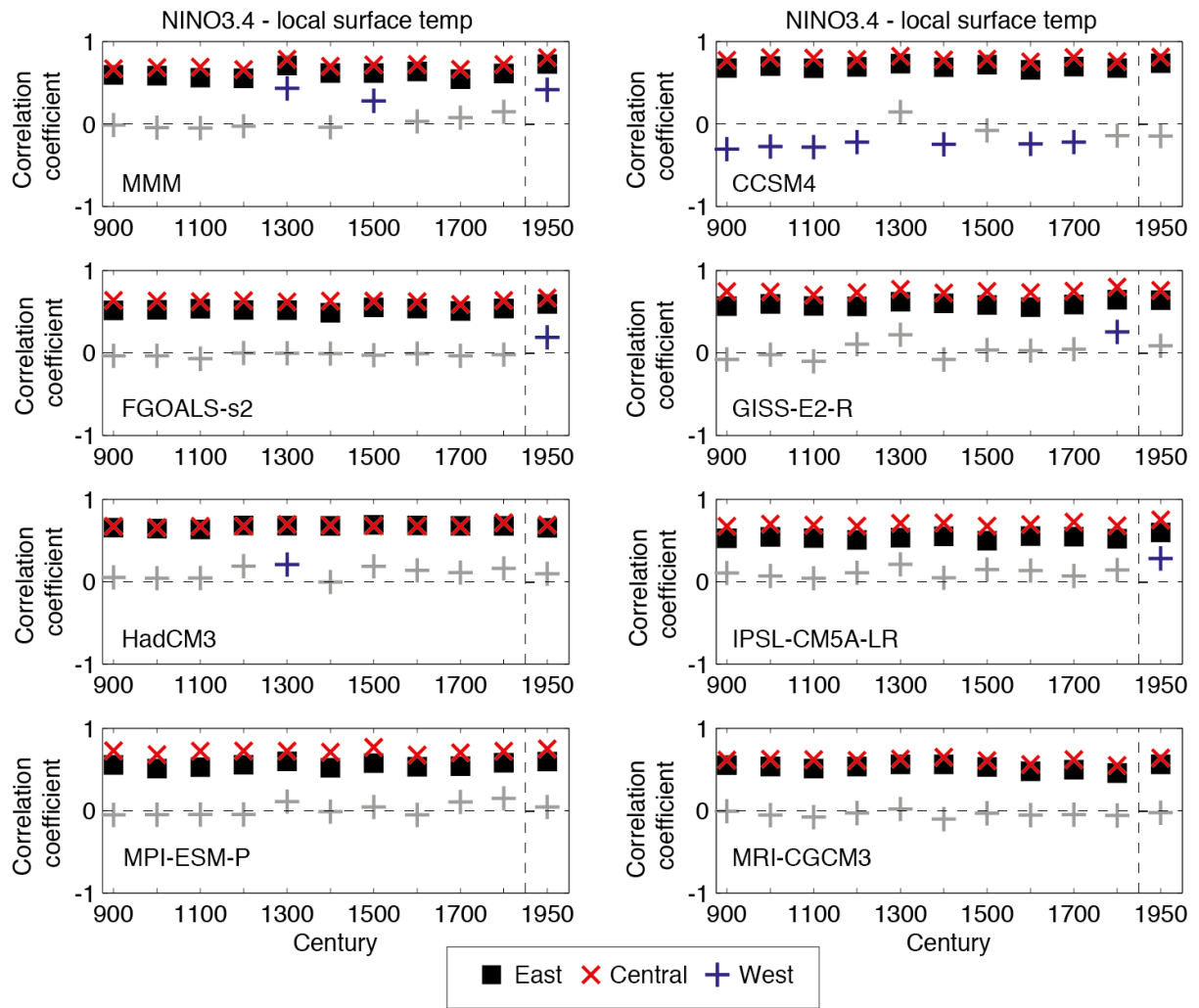
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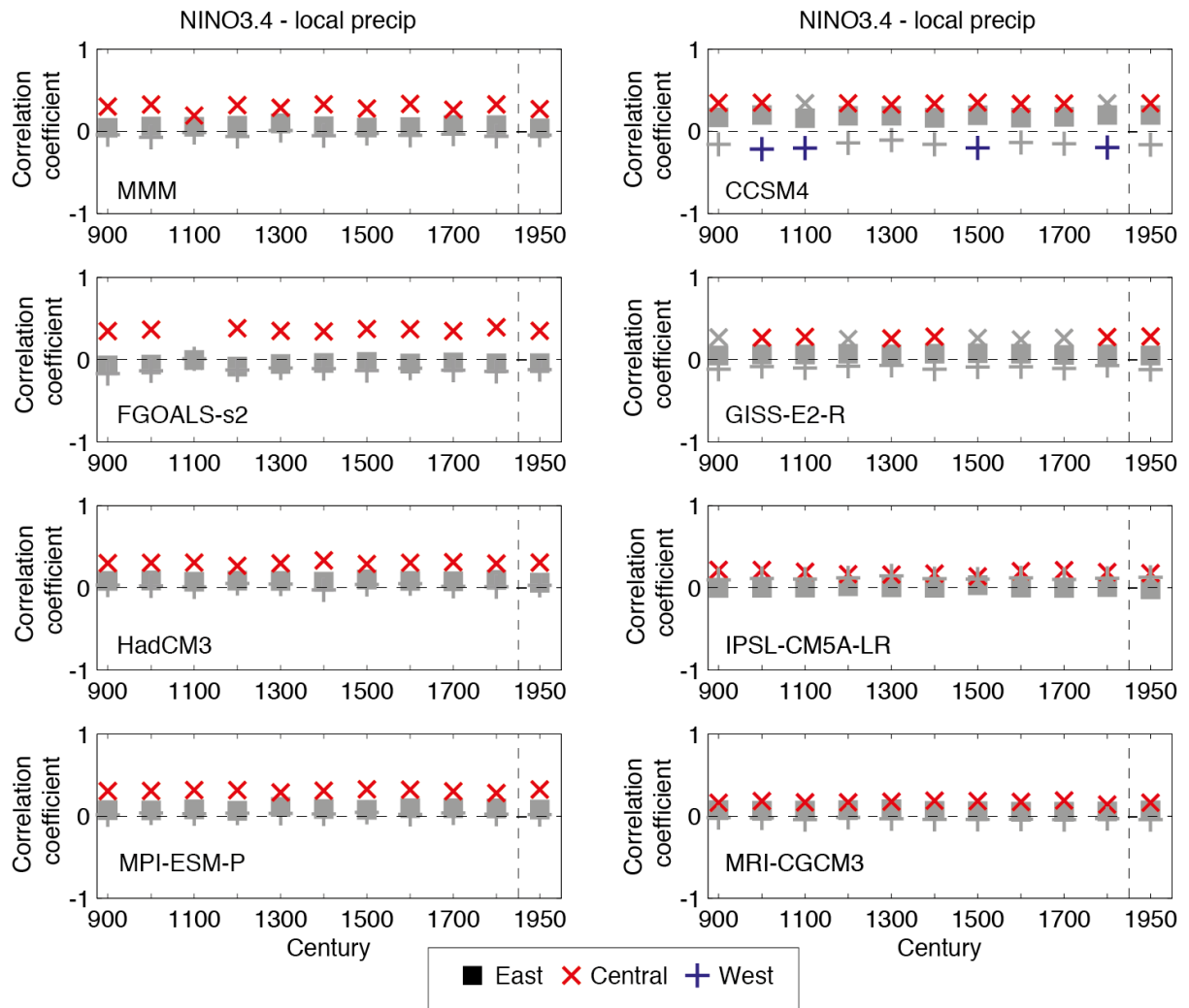
Figure 7



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Figure 8



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Table 1. Details of CMIP5 experiments and models analysed. Further details can be found through the Program for Climate Model Diagnosis and Intercomparison (PCMDI).

Experiment	Major forcings	Years Analysed	Models
historical	Time-evolving anthropogenic (greenhouse gases, aerosols, ozone) and natural (solar, volcanics)	1906-2005 CE	CCSM4, FGOALS-s2, GISS-E2-R, HadCM3, IPSL-CM5A-LR, MPI-ESM-P, MRI-CGCM3
past1000	Time-evolving greenhouse gases, solar, volcanics, land use and orbital parameters	850-1849 CE	CCSM4, FGOALS-s2, GISS-E2-R, HadCM3, IPSL-CM5A-LR, MPI-ESM-P, MRI-CGCM3
piControl	Non-evolving pre-industrial forcings	All	GISS-E2-R, IPSL-CM5A-LR

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