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The South American Monsoon Variability over the Last Millennium in climate models

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#### 5 Abstract

6 In this paper we assess South American Monsoon System (SAMS) variability in the Last 7 Millennium as depicted by global coupled climate model simulations. High-resolution 8 proxy records for the South American monsoon over this period show a coherent regional 9 picture of a weak monsoon during the Medieval Climate Anomaly and a stronger monsoon 10 during the Little Ice Age (LIA). Due to the small external forcing during the past 1000 11 years, model simulations do not show very strong temperature anomalies over these two 12 specific periods, which in turn do not translate into clear precipitation anomalies, in 13 contrast with the rainfall reconstructions in South America. Therefore, we used an ad-hoc 14 definition of these two periods for each model simulation in order to account for model-15 specific signals. Thereby, several coherent large-scale atmospheric circulation anomalies 16 are identified. The models feature a stronger Monsoon during the LIA associated with: (i) 17 an enhancement of the rising motion in the SAMS domain in austral summer, (ii) a stronger 18 monsoon-related upper-tropospheric anticyclone, (iii) activation of the South American 19 dipole, which results in a poleward shift of the South Atlantic Convergence Zone, and (iv) a 20 weaker upper-level subtropical jet over South America. The diagnosed changes provide 21 important insights into the mechanisms of these climate anomalies over South America 22 during the past millennium.

23

# 24 Keywords

South American monsoon, Last Millennium, Little Ice Age, Medieval Climate Anomaly,
 CMIP5/PMIP3 simulations, precipitation reconstruction

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### 28 **1. Introduction**

29 It is well established that monsoon systems respond to orbital forcing (Kutzbach and Liu, 30 1997; Kutzbach et al., 2007; Bosmans et al., 2012). At orbital timescales (especially related 31 to the precessional cycle of approx. 19 and 21 kyrs), changes in the latitudinal insolation 32 gradient, and hence temperatures, force the monsoon circulation globally (e.g., Bosmans et 33 al., 2012). In the precession frequency band the summer insolation is in anti-phase between 34 hemispheres (for example, when Northern Hemisphere (NH) summer insolation is at its 35 maximum, summertime insolation in the Southern Hemisphere (SH) is at its minimum). 36 This results in a weakening of the monsoon circulation and precipitation in one hemisphere 37 while in the other the monsoon is strengthened. The mechanism for the orbital-induced 38 monsoon variability is therefore mainly related to meridional temperature gradients. Thus, 39 it is not surprising that other phenomena that produce important changes in hemispheric 40 temperature gradients are also responsible for monsoon variability. Examples of these are 41 abrupt Dansgaard-Oeschger events during the last glacial (Kanner et al., 2012; Cheng et al.,

2013) and Heinrich events, including the Heinrich 1 event, during the last deglaciation (ca.
17 ka BP) (e.g., Griffiths et al., 2013; Deplazes et al., 2014; Cruz et al., 2006; Strikis et al.,
2015).

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46 In recent years, similar variability has also been observed for shorter timescales, in 47 particular between the two most prominent climate anomalies over the Last Millennium 48 (LM), the Medieval Climate Anomaly (MCA, ca. 950-1250 CE) and the Little Ice Age 49 (LIA, ca. 1450-1850 CE) (e.g., Masson-Delmotte et al., 2013a). Recent high-resolution 50 records from the area of the South American Monsoon System (SAMS) domain have been 51 used to reconstruct precipitation over this region. Records include speleothems (Novello et 52 al., 2012, 2016; Kanner et al., 2013; Apaestegui et al., 2014), pollen (Ledru et al., 2013), 53 lake sediments (Bird et al., 2011), as well as tree-ring reconstructions (Morales et al., 2012). 54 Vuille et al. (2012) reviewed current available proxy records for the SAMS region. Most 55 reconstructions show good correlations with NH temperature and Intertropical 56 Convergence Zone (ITCZ) reconstructions. According to these paleoclimate studies, the 57 LIA was characterized by a cool north equatorial Atlantic and a warm south equatorial 58 Atlantic (Haug et al., 2001; Polissar et al., 2006) whereas an opposite pattern was present 59 during the MCA. This meridional temperature gradient led to a southward (northward) 60 migration of the Atlantic ITCZ during the LIA (MCA) (Haug et al., 2001). Indeed, SAMS 61 reconstructions during the last millennium show a weaker monsoon during the MCA period 62 and a relatively stronger monsoon during the LIA period (e.g. Bird et al., 2011; Vuille et al., 63 2012; Ledru et al., 2013; Apaestegui et al., 2014), indicating an anti-correlation with reconstructions of the Southeast Asian monsoon (Zhang et al., 2008; Shi et al., 2014; 64 65 Polanski et al., 2014), as well as with the North African and North American monsoons (Asmerom et al., 2013), for those periods. 66

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68 Moreover, modelling studies support a southward (northward) shift of the Atlantic ITCZ 69 during LIA (MCA). For instance, model simulations by Vellinga and Wu (2004) suggest 70 that anomalous northward ocean heat transport during the MCA was linked to an enhanced 71 cross-equatorial temperature gradient in the Atlantic and a northward movement of the 72 ITCZ. Kageyama et al. (2013) analysed freshwater hosing simulations over the North 73 Atlantic to force fluctuations in the strength of the Atlantic Meridional Overturning 74 Circulation (AMOC). Their analyses suggest that the model response to an enhanced high 75 latitude freshwater flux is characterized by a general cooling of the North Atlantic, a 76 southward shift of the Atlantic ITCZ, and a weakening of the African and Indian monsoons. 77 Furthermore, modelling experiments discussed by Broccoli et al. (2006) and Lee et al. 78 (2011) indicate that cooler-than-normal temperatures imposed in the North Atlantic domain, 79 as occurred during the LIA, shifts the Atlantic ITCZ southward. In their experiments, this 80 shift is related to a strengthening of the northern Hadley cell in austral summer and a slight 81 shift in its rising branch to the south. Thus, a number of paleoclimate reconstructions and 82 modelling studies suggest that the particular temperature anomalies observed during the

83 MCA and LIA periods, especially in the North Atlantic, were large enough to modify the

- 84 location of the ITCZ over the tropical Atlantic, thereby affecting the strength of the summer
- 85 SAMS throughout the past millennium (see also a review by Schneider et al., 2014).
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Recent climate modelling experiments for the LM (850–1850 CE) have been incorporated
in the third phase of the Paleoclimate Modelling Intercomparison Project (PMIP3). About a
dozen models included in the Climate Model Intercomparison Project Phase Five (CMIP5)
ran this experiment, which considers solar, volcanic, greenhouse gases, and land use
scenarios during the LM (Schmidt et al., 2011, 2012).

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93 In this paper, we explore if and how these coupled General Circulation Models (GCMs) 94 simulations capture the variability of the SAMS associated with LIA and MCA temperature 95 anomalies, as suggested by rainfall reconstructions and diverse modelling studies in the 96 region. This evaluation provides further insights regarding the response of the current 97 generation of GCMs to external forcing during the LM. We focus on the models' ability to 98 simulate the variability of the main characteristics of the South American climate during 99 the MCA and LIA. These characteristics are analysed by concentrating on three main 100 features: precipitation, temperature, and atmospheric circulation.

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102 This paper is organized as follows: section 2 presents a short description of the model 103 simulations considered and the methodology used to identify the MCA and LIA periods; 104 section 3 presents the main results from the climate simulations of the SAMS during both 105 periods; and section 4 presents a discussion and the main conclusions from this study.

106

# 107 2. Methodology and Model Simulations

108 We use nine available coupled GCMs, eight of which correspond to CMIP5/PMIP3 LM 109 simulations and one that does not follow the exact PMIP3 experimental setup. The model simulations are listed in Table 1. These simulations cover the period 850-1850 CE, 110 111 although some of them continued up to the present. But since not all modeling groups have 112 continuous runs to the present (including the period 1850-2000) available, the analysis in 113 this paper covers only the period until 1850 CE. The LM simulations were forced with 114 orbital variations (mainly shifts in the perihelion date), common solar irradiance, two 115 different volcanic eruption reconstructions, land-use change, and greenhouse gas (GHG) 116 concentrations. A full description of the exact forcings used in these LM simulations is 117 given by Schmidt et al. (2011, 2012). Furthermore, a detailed list of individual forcings 118 applied in each simulation is given in Annex 2 of Masson-Delmotte et al. (2013a).

119

# 120 **2.1 Definition of periods**

- 121 The fifth Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) assessment report (AR5)
- 122 (IPCC, 2013), defined the two periods of most prominent climate anomalies over the past

millennium as the MCA (950–1250 CE) and the LIA (1450–1850 CE). This report also

- 124 concluded that the MCA was a period of relative global warmth, although in general less
- 125 homogenous than the current warmth, whereas the LIA was a much more globally uniform
- 126 cold period (Masson-Delmotte et al., 2013a). A recent analysis of the consistency of the
- 127 CMIP5/PMIP3 LM temperature simulations indicates that these simulations often differ
- 128 from available temperature reconstructions in their long-term multi-centennial trends,
- 129 which is related to the transition from the MCA to the LIA period (Bothe et al., 2013;
- 130 Fernández-Donado et al., 2013). Figure 1a shows the NH temperature anomaly time series
- 131 for each of the nine models considered, as well as its ensemble mean. For comparison,
- 132 reconstructions used in Figure 5.7 of the fifth IPCC report are shown (Masson-Delmotte et
- al, 2013a,b). From Figure 1a it is clear that the temperature anomalies over the last
- 134 millennium are small, and that clearly common MCA and LIA periods are not easily
- identifiable across models. This is consistent with the notion that both periods are partially
- a result of internal climate variability (PAGES 2k Consortium, 2013), particularly the MCA
- 137 (Neukom et al, 2014).

138 The hypothesis that guides our analysis used to asses the SAMS variability in models is that 139 both periods resulted substantially from internal (non-forced) variability. In addition, given 140 that not all GCM simulations used the exact same forcing, we cannot expect the models to 141 exactly reproduce the temporal variability as indicated by the reconstructions. Therefore, 142 we identify these two periods individually in each model, using two criteria. First, for each 143 model, the warmest period during 950-1250 CE (MCA) and coldest period during 1450-144 1950 CE (LIA) are defined by calculating the annual temperature anomaly over the NH 145 (north of 30°N) with respect to the 1000-1850 mean (the longest common period in the 146 simulations) and lying above and below the mean for the MCA and LIA respectively. 147 Second, given the evidence for Atlantic southward/northward shifts of the ITCZ related to 148 altered meridional sea surface temperature gradients between the tropical north and south 149 Atlantic, we also verify that the periods identified with the first criterion correspond to periods when the surface temperature difference between the boxes (5°-20°N) and (20°-5° 150 151 S) in the Atlantic were negative (positive) for LIA (MCA). We then verify that both criteria 152 coincide. For example, for the LIA, the period with cold NH temperature anomalies 153 coincide with temperature anomalies in the North Atlantic box colder than that its South 154 Atlantic box counterpart (negative gradient, not shown). The MCA and LIA periods identified in each model are shown in Table 1. Note that in general the periods are on the 155 156 order of 80-110 years long; shorter than the more general MCA and LIA definition. Figure 1b shows the Gaussian fit of the frequency distribution of NH temperatures of all the years 157 158 defined as LIA years (red curve) and MCA years (blue curve) respectively. The difference 159 between the two periods is statistically significant (bootstrap test, 5% significance level). 160 Even though the anomalies are rather weak during both periods, a comparison with the 161 values from their respective control simulation (piControl) shows that both periods are also

162 significantly different, at the 5% significance level from the long-term mean. In addition,

Figure 2 shows the maps of the annual mean temperature anomalies during LIA and MCA, as well as their difference, for the ensemble mean. Temperature anomalies in the models are largest over the NH and in particular over the North Atlantic domain. Importantly, however, the LIA and MCA periods identified in the models are not synchronous, as shown in Table 1.

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# 169 2.2 Variables used

To identify the main differences in LM simulations of the SAMS, particularly during the LIA and MCA periods, we analyse monthly CMIP5/PMIP3 output for rain rate, and 850 hPa and 200 hPa horizontal winds. We also analysed vertical wind (omega) at 500 hPa in order to evaluate regions of ascending motion. However, not all modelling groups have saved this variable, so that this analysis was done with 5 models only and a figure of the vertical wind changes is not included in the paper. All variables have been re-gridded using a simple linear interpolation to a common 2x2 degree grid.

The oceanic Inter-tropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) is identified following the method proposed by Frierson and Hwang (2012). They define the ITCZ location by the precipitation centroid, as the tropical latitude with the maximum precipitation, at all longitudes over the ocean. Following their method, the precipitation was first interpolated onto a grid of 0.1 degrees to allow the precipitation centroid to vary. We explicitly do not consider the precipitation maxima over continents due to known problems in the correct definition of the ITCZ (e.g. see Laderrach and Raible, 2013; Nicholson, 2009).

184

The next section examines the performance of the models and whether they simulate a stronger SAMS during the LIA, in comparison to the MCA, as suggested by precipitation proxies and previous modelling experiments. In addition, since the SAMS is a dominant feature of the South American climate during austral summer (e.g., Vera et al., 2006), we focused on its mature phase, the December-January-February (DJF) season.

190

# 191 **3. Simulated SAMS circulation**

#### 192 **3.1 Precipitation**

193 Figure 3a shows the annual mean precipitation difference between the LIA and MCA 194 periods. Blue and red curves correspond to the annual mean position of the oceanic ITCZ 195 during LIA and MCA periods, respectively. The ensemble mean shows that the 196 precipitation differences are small and statistically significant only in some regions 197 (bootstrap test, p < 0.05). There is more precipitation during the LIA compared with the 198 MCA in Northeastern Brazil and across the tropical Atlantic, which are regions directly 199 affected by the ITCZ position in the current climate. The mean position of the ITCZ between the two periods does not show any significant shifts (see Figure 3b), but a small 200 201 southward shift in the Atlantic during the LIA is found, in accordance with the precipitation 202 signal. Individually, models do show that during the LIA the ITCZ was shifted further southward at some longitudes (Pacific and Atlantic Oceans) when compared with the MCA(not shown).

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206 Figure 4a shows climatological precipitation and 850 hPa atmospheric circulation over the 207 SAMS region during austral summer. In general, models are able to reproduce the main 208 summer circulation and precipitation characteristics over South America observed in 209 present-day climate. A narrow oceanic ITCZ, a broad area of maxima rainfall over the 210 continent (SAMS), and a southeast-northwest oriented South Atlantic Convergence Zone 211 (SACZ) are observed in LM simulations, consistent with present-day observations (e.g., 212 Garreaud et al., 2009). However, some models exhibit a double ITCZ over the eastern 213 Pacific. This bias has been previously identified in CMIP3 and CMIP5 simulations, 214 especially during austral summer and fall seasons (Hirota and Takayabu, 2013; Sierra et al., 215 2015). Despite the limitations of model resolution, austral summer lower tropospheric 216 circulation simulated by the ensemble mean reproduces a cyclonic circulation over 217 southeastern Bolivia (a.k.a. "Chaco low") as seen in observations and its associated 218 northerly low-level jet, which is channelled by the Andes topography, transporting moisture 219 to southern South America (Marengo et al., 2004).

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221 When comparing LIA and MCA composites for DJF (Figure 4b), the models exhibit an 222 increased easterly flow at approximately 5°S over the Atlantic and a weaker northerly low-223 level jet north of the Chaco low region, consistent with less precipitation over the SACZ 224 during the LIA. Models also simulate less summer SAMS precipitation during LIA over the 225 Amazon and the SACZ, but more in the Nordeste. When analysing the associated vertical 226 motion in models for which this variable is available, during the LIA, compared to MCA, 227 there is stronger ascending motion in most of the SAMS domain (not shown). This 228 precipitation pattern is in opposition to rainfall reconstructions over the western Amazon, 229 the SACZ, as well as Nordeste (e.g., Vuille et al., 2012; Novello et al, 2012; Apaestegui et 230 al., 2014; Novello et al., 2016). By contrast, when considering annual mean simulations 231 (Figure 3), most models show a southward migration of sections of the Atlantic ITCZ (not 232 very visible in the ensemble mean) and enhanced precipitation over the SAMS domain 233 during the LIA, particularly over the eastern and southern Amazon, in agreement with 234 paleo-climatological records for this period. This indicates that the LM simulations are not 235 able to reproduce the expected changes of the austral summer Atlantic ITCZ location and SAMS rainfall during LIA and MCA periods. The positive changes in the annual mean 236 237 seen in Figure 3 are due to the spring and autumn transition seasons.

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# 239 **3.2 Bolivian high and subtropical jet**

The well-documented southward migration of the Hadley Cell and its rising centre from 10°N in JJA to 10°S in DJF is only a part of the monsoon rainfall seasonal migration over the Americas, which reaches a more southward location in austral summer (Dima and Wallace, 2003). Furthermore, this wide area of continental convection, although related to local convergence zones, is not only a result of the shift of the ITCZ into subtropical
latitudes. The establishment of the Bolivian high, the characteristic monsoon upper-level
anticyclone located over the central Andes during austral summer, and the position and
strength of the SH subtropical jet (SHSJ) in South America are also related to this
monsoonal convective activity (Lenters and Cook, 1997; Garreaud et al., 2003; Yin et al.,
2014).

250

251 To identify changes in the Bolivian high during the LM, we analyse the austral summer 252 upper-troposphere circulation during the LIA and MCA (Figure 5). Results indicate a 253 stronger and more southeastward location of the SAMS anticyclone during the LIA. This 254 strengthening of the Bolivian high is consistent with a stronger SAMS circulation. The 255 southward shift of this upper-level anticyclone is related to an enhanced summer easterly 256 flow over the central Andes, as suggested by previous studies (Lenters and Cook, 1999), 257 and in turn would favour moisture transport and rainfall over the region (Garreaud et al., 258 2003). Moreover, the upper tropospheric wind anomalies strikingly resemble the South 259 American dipole (e.g. Robertson and Mechoso, 2000), a primary mode of variability over 260 this region. An anticyclonic anomaly is associated with a diffuse SACZ, enhancing 261 moisture convergence and precipitation on its southwestern flank (i.e. leading to a poleward 262 shift in the location of the SACZ). Again, model simulations do not show this enhanced 263 austral summer rainfall in the Amazon and central Andes during the LIA, and feature only 264 marginally more precipitation to the southwest (Figure 3).

265

266 On the other hand, recent studies have identified that the strength and location of the SHSJ, 267 which corresponds to the southward extent of the Hadley Cell, is a key factor for triggering 268 convection during the dry-to-wet season transition in the Amazon (Yin et al., 2014). 269 Particularly, when the SHSJ is weaker and/or reaches a more equatorward location, it 270 promotes the incursion of synoptic disturbances to subtropical South America (e.g., 271 Garreaud, 2000), enhancing lower-troposphere convergence and triggering the wet season 272 onset over the region (e.g., Li and Fu, 2006). To identify simulated changes of the SHSJ 273 during the LIA and the MCA, Figure 6 shows the 30m/s isotach of the climatological 274 September-November 200 hPa zonal wind as well as the difference between LIA and MCA 275 periods. In general, the ensemble mean does not exhibit significant changes in the SHSJ 276 location over South America during either period, as also indicated by Figure 5b; however, the models simulate a weaker SHSJ during the LIA, not only in austral spring, but also for 277 278 the annual mean and summer seasons (not shown). This weaker SHSJ, particularly during 279 austral spring (i.e., the transition season from dry to wet conditions in the SAMS), would 280 allow a stronger influence of cold air incursions to trigger SAMS convection and probably 281 maintain a stronger monsoon during the LIA.

282

#### 283 4. Discussion and conclusions

284 According to our analysis, LM simulations are able to identify circulation features coherent

with a stronger SAMS during the LIA: (i) an enhancement of the rising motion in the 285 SAMS domain in austral summer, (ii) a stronger monsoon-related upper-troposphere 286 287 anticyclone, (iii) activation of the South American dipole, which results to a certain extent 288 in a poleward shift in the SACZ and (iv) a weaker spring SHSJ over South America. 289 However, austral summer simulations do not exhibit the expected increase in precipitation 290 in this region during this cold period, as suggested by proxy evidence, except over the 291 Nordeste, where it is not expected based on proxy data (Novello et al., 2012). Furthermore, 292 LM simulations only reproduce a slight, but insignificant, southward (northward) shift of 293 the austral summer Atlantic ITCZ during the LIA (MCA), unlike results found in other 294 modelling studies (Vellinga and Wu, 2004; Lee et al., 2011; Kageyama et al., 2013). This 295 disagreement might be partially related to the fact that the above-mentioned modelling 296 studies impose much stronger external forcing than the forcing used in the LM simulations. 297 This meridional shift of the Atlantic ITCZ is commonly considered a key aspect to explain 298 the changes in SAMS rainfall observed during these periods (e.g., Vuille et al., 2012).

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Recent studies indicate that the new generation of models included in the CMIP5 still tend to perform poorly in simulating precipitation in South America, especially over the Amazon basin, and the Atlantic ITCZ (Yin et al., 2013; Siongco et al., 2014; Sierra et al., 2015). However, CMIP5 models have shown further improvement in simulating precipitation over the region, in comparison to the CMIP3 generation (Jones and Carvalho, 2013; Yin et al., 2013; Hirota and Takayabu, 2013).

306

307 What could bias the simulated austral summer SAMS rainfall response of the CMIP5 308 models during the past millennium? Recent studies indicate that CMIP5 simulations tend to 309 overestimate rainfall over the Atlantic ITCZ (Yin et al., 2013) and exhibit either an East or 310 West Atlantic bias, in association with overestimated rainfall along the African (Gulf of 311 Guinea) or South American (Brazil) coasts, respectively (Siongco et al., 2014). Such a misinterpretation of the local ITCZ has been shown to bias rainfall simulations in the core 312 313 of the SAMS (Bombardi and Carvalho, 2011). A stronger Atlantic ITCZ, for example, may 314 contribute to enhanced surface divergence over tropical South America, inducing drier 315 conditions in the region (e.g., Li et al., 2006), as observed in CMIP5 historical simulations 316 (Yin et al., 2013; Sierra et al., 2015). However, a stronger local ITCZ does not necessarily 317 translate into reduced SAMS rainfall since moisture convergence in this region is mainly 318 influenced by the SACZ (Vera et al., 2009). Thus, the weaker SACZ during the LIA 319 simulated by these models (Figure 3) could reduce moisture convergence and rainfall over 320 the SAMS. Furthermore, positive feedbacks between land surface latent heat flux, rainfall, 321 surface net radiation, and large-scale circulation are also found to contribute to the dry 322 biases over the Amazon and SAMS in most of the CMIP5 historical simulations (Yin et al., 323 2013).

324

325 Another circulation feature related to SAMS rainfall is the intensity and location of the

326 South Atlantic subtropical high. The eastward displacement of this anticyclone and its 327 interaction with the SACZ provide favourable conditions for monsoon precipitation (Raia 328 and Cavalcanti, 2008). Recent analysis of CMIP5 projections under different scenarios 329 suggests that this surface anticyclone is likely to strengthen in association with globally 330 warmer conditions (Li et al., 2013). Thus, a detailed examination of the response of this 331 subtropical high to LM forcing is necessary in order to provide further explanations for the 332 inadequate CMIP5/PMIP3 simulations of the SAMS rainfall variability throughout the past 333 millennium.

334

335 The previous generation of LM model simulations reproduced warmer temperatures during 336 the MCA when compared with the LIA, but generally underestimated the regional changes 337 detected from available reconstructions or failed to simulate a synchronous response in 338 accordance with these reconstructions (e.g., Gonzalez-Rouco et al., 2011). The latter has 339 been mainly related to uncertainties in the forcing estimates, as well as reduced sensitivity 340 to external perturbations, underestimated internal variability, or incorrect representation of 341 important feedbacks in GCMs (e.g. Goosse et al. 2005; Braconnot et al., 2012). Some of 342 these problems still persist in the PMIP3 LM simulations (PAGES 2k-PMIP3 group, 2015). 343 Furthermore, a recent model simulation of the global monsoon during the LM, performed 344 in a non PMIP3-experiment, indicates that the NH summer monsoon responds more 345 sensitively to GHG forcing than the SH monsoon rainfall, which appears to be more 346 strongly influenced by solar and volcanic forcing (Liu et al., 2012; Colose et al., 2016; Novello et al., 2016). Hence, a stronger sensitivity of SAMS rainfall to LM forcing 347 348 estimations and the inadequate response of current GCMs to such forcings may also bias 349 the CMIP5/PMIP3 simulations of the summer SAMS rainfall during the past millennium. 350 Therefore, weak temperature response seen in these models during the MCA (Figures 1 and 351 2) could contribute to the inadequate changes of austral summer rainfall in South America 352 between LIA and MCA (Figures 3 and 4).

353

354 This evaluation of the SAMS throughout the past 1000 years in the latest generation of LM 355 simulations confirms previous findings regarding the ability of the current generation of GCMs to reproduce large-scale circulation features in South America and their lack of an 356 357 adequate representation of precipitation over the region. However, the weak or absent 358 temperature and precipitation response to the imposed forcing in climate models provides a 359 formidable challenge for proxy-model comparisons. To better compare and eventually 360 reconcile model reconstructions with proxy evidence will require a more detailed analysis 361 of precipitation-generating mechanisms in climate models. Our results indicate that the 362 CMIP5/PMIP3 models guite accurately reproduce changes in the large-scale circulation 363 that in turn are consistent with proxy evidence of precipitation changes over the past millennium. These changes, however, do not translate into corresponding precipitation 364 365 changes. This implies that the models may lack relevant feedbacks or that precipitation in the models may be too dependent on the microphysics and convective parameterization 366

367 schemes, but not sufficiently sensitive to large-scale circulation mechanisms. On the proxy 368 side, a stronger effort to not only reconstruct surface climate at individual locations, but 369 also focus on reconstructions of modes of variability or entire climate components such as 370 the SAMS, which implicitly include circulation changes, are needed. Proxies such as pollen 371 or stable hydrogen and oxygen isotopes from lakes, speleothems and ice cores have shown 372 potential to record larger-scale climate signals and changes in the tropical hydrological 373 cycle over South America (Vuille and Werner, 2005; Vimeux et al., 2009; Bird et al., 2011; 374 Vuille et al., 2012, Ledru et al., 2013; Flantua et al., 2016; Hurley et al., 2015). Multi-proxy 375 reconstructions from such networks, which implicitly incorporate remote and large-scale 376 circulation aspects, may therefore provide a better tool to assess the performance of climate 377 models than reconstructions that are based solely on local precipitation estimates.

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# 379 Acknowledgments

380 We acknowledge the World Climate Research Programme's Working Group on Coupled 381 Modeling, which is responsible for CMIP5, and we thank the climate modeling groups for 382 producing and making available their model outputs. We appreciate the comments from 2 383 anonymous reviewers who helped to significantly improve the quality of this manuscript. 384 This work was partially funded by NC120066, FONDAP-CONICYT n. 15110009. MR 385 acknowledges support from FONDECYT grant #1131055. PAA was supported by 386 FONDECYT grant #3140570 and Colciencias grant #115-660-44588. VF acknowledges 387 funding from FONDECYT grant #11121543. AS acknowledges financial support from 388 NSF CAREER Award # 1056216 and NOAA grant NA11OAR4310109. MV was partially 389 supported by NSF award AGS-1303828.

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- 731
- 732 Figure Legends

- 733 Figure 1. (a) Northern Hemisphere (north of 30°N) temperature anomaly evolution. Grey
- shading: 15 reconstructions used in Fig. 5.7 of Masson-Delmotte et al (2013a,b), colour
- 735 lines: nine LM simulations considered in this study. (b) Distribution of Northern
- 736 Hemisphere temperature anomalies during the Medieval Climate Anomaly (MCA, red
- ranker curve) and Little Ice Age (LIA, blue curves), all with respect to the reference period 1500-
- 1850 CE, corresponding to the longest common period in the reconstructions.
- 739
- Figure 2. Multi-model average annual mean temperatures. (a) Difference between MCA
- and reference period 1000-1850 CE, (b) difference between LIA and reference period, (c)
- T42 LIA MCA. Stippling indicates regions where differences are significant at p < 0.05.
- Figure 3. (a) Multi-model average annual mean LIA MCA precipitation difference
- 744 (colours) and position of the oceanic Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) during the
- 745 MCA (red line) and LIA (blue line). Stippling indicates regions where precipitation
- 746 differences are significant at p<0.05. (b) Distribution of the zonal mean position [degrees]
- of the oceanic ITCZ during the MCA (red curve) and LIA (blue curve).
- Figure 4. (a) Model mean Dec-Jan-Feb (DJF) 850hPa winds (vectors) and precipitation
- 749 (colours) for the reference period (1000-1850 CE). (b) DJF mean LIA MCA winds
- 750 (vectors) and precipitation difference (colours). Red vectors indicate significant differences.
- Figure 5. Multi-model mean DJF wind field at 200 hPa. (a) Climatology for reference
- period (1000-1850 CE). (b): LIA MCA differences. Red box represents the South
- 753 American Monsoon System (SAMS) domain. Red vectors indicate significant differences (p < 0.05).
- 755 Figure 6. Multi-model mean LIA -MCA 200 hPa zonal wind for Sep-Oct-Nov (SON).
- Black contour corresponds to the 30m/s isotach of reference period zonal wind (1000-1850
- 750 Black contour corresponds to the Som/s isotaen of reference period zonal with 757 CE). Only significant differences (p < 0.05) are shown.
- 758

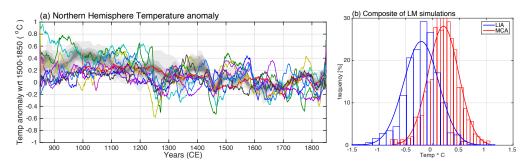
759

- 760 Table 1. LM model simulations used, including key reference and definition of LIA and
- 761 MCA periods in each model.
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- 763

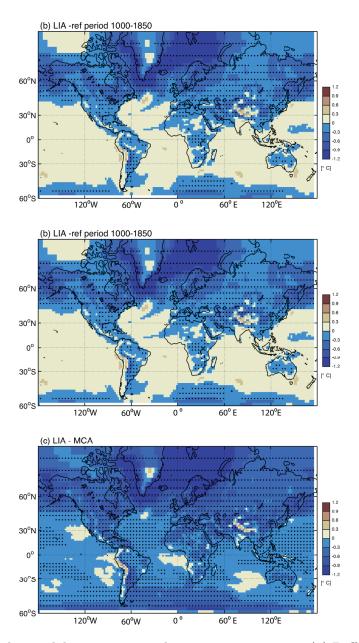
Model	MCA	LIA	Period (CE)	Reference
bcc-csm-1	1040-1130	1590-1790	851-2000	-
CCSM4	1110-1200	1710-1810	850-1850	Gent et al. (2001)
CSIRO-Mk3L-1-2	950-1050	1760-1850	851-2000	Phipps et al. (2011)
FGOALS-gl	1210-1270	1690-1820	1000-2000	Zhou et al. (2008)

FGOALS-s2	915-990	1710-1790	850-1850	Zhou et al. (2008)
HadCM3	1160-1250	1600-1700	801-2000	Schurer et al. (2013)
IPSL-CM5A-LR	910-950	1630-1710	850-1850	Dufresne et al. (2013)
MPI-ESM-P	1120-1220	1600-1680	850-1850	Raddatz et al. (2007)
MRI-CGCM3	1130-1230	1510-1620	850-1849	Yukimoto et al. (2011)

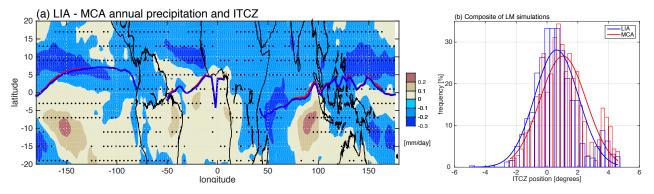
# The South American Monsoon Variability over the Last Millennium in coupled climate simulations



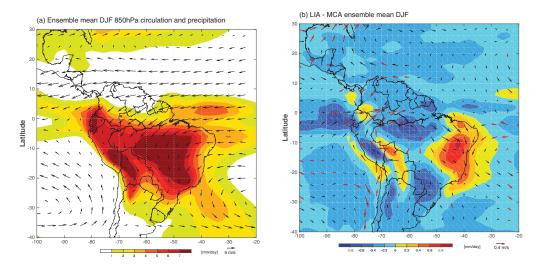
**Figure 1.** (a) Northern Hemisphere (north of 30°N) temperature anomaly evolution. Grey shading: 15 reconstructions used in Fig. 5.7 of Masson-Delmotte et al (2013a,b), colour lines: nine LM simulations considered in this study. (b) Distribution of Northern Hemisphere temperature anomalies during the Medieval Climate Anomaly (MCA, red curve) and Little Ice Age (LIA, blue curves), all with respect to the reference period 1500-1850 CE, corresponding to the longest common period in the reconstructions.



**Figure 2.** Multi-model average annual mean temperatures. (a) Difference between MCA and reference period 1000-1850 CE, (b) difference between LIA and reference period, (c) LIA - MCA. Stippling indicates regions where differences are significant at p<0.05.



**Figure 3.** (a) Multi-model average annual mean LIA - MCA precipitation difference (colours) and position of the oceanic Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) during the MCA (red line) and LIA (blue line). Stippling indicates regions where precipitation differences are significant at p<0.05. (b) Distribution of the zonal mean position [degrees] of the oceanic ITCZ during the MCA (red curve) and LIA (blue curve).



**Figure 4.** (a) Model mean Dec-Jan-Feb (DJF) 850hPa winds (vectors) and precipitation (colours) for the reference period (1000-1850 CE). (b) DJF mean LIA - MCA winds (vectors) and precipitation difference (colours). Red vectors indicate significant differences.

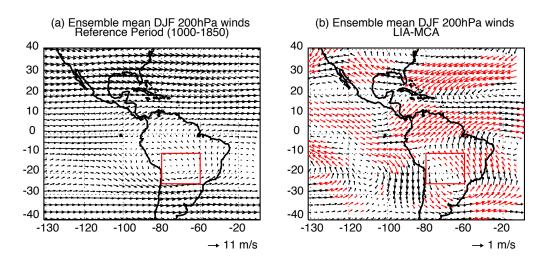
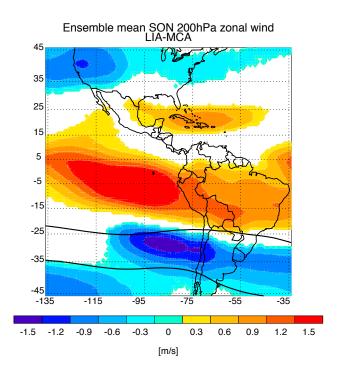


Figure 5. Multi-model mean DJF wind field at 200 hPa. (a) Climatology for reference period (1000-1850 CE). (b): LIA - MCA differences. Red box represents the South American Monsoon System (SAMS) domain. Red vectors indicate significant differences (p<0.05).



**Figure 6.** Multi-model mean LIA -MCA 200 hPa zonal wind for Sep-Oct-Nov (SON). Black contour corresponds to the 30m/s isotach of reference period zonal wind (1000-1850 CE). Only significant differences (p<0.05) are shown.