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24		Late Holocene climate reorganisation and the North American Monsoon
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26		Matthew D. Jones ¹ *, Sarah E. Metcalfe ¹ , Sarah J. Davies ² and Anders Noren ³
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29	1.	School of Geography, University of Nottingham, NG7 2RD,UK
30		(matthew.jones@nottingham.ac.uk; sarah.metcalfe@nottingham.ac.uk)
31	2.	Department of Geography and Earth Sciences, Aberystwyth University, SY23 3DB, UK
32		(sjd@aber.ac.uk)
33	3.	Limnological Research Center (LRC), University of Minnesota, Minneapolis MN 55455,
34		USA (noren021@umn.edu)
35		
36	*Co	prresponding author: Tel: +44(0)115 8468406
37		

38 Abstract

39	The North America Monsoon (NAM) provides the majority of rainfall for central and northern		
40	Mexico as well as parts of the south west USA. The controls over the strength of the NAM in		
41	a given year are complex, and include both Pacific and Atlantic systems. We present here an		
42	annually resolved proxy reconstruction of NAM rainfall variability over the last ~6ka, from an		
43	inwash record from the Laguna de Juanacatlán, Mexico. This high resolution, exceptionally		
44	well dated record allows changes in the NAM through the latter half of the Holocene to be		
45	investigated in both time and space domains, improving our understanding of the controls on		
46	the system. Our analysis shows a shift in conditions between c. 4 and 3 ka BP, after which		
47	clear ENSO/PDO type forcing patterns are evident.		
48			
49	Keywords		
50	Mexico, North American Monsoon, Holocene, XRF scanning, ENSO, PDO, AMO		
51			
52	Highlights		
53	Annual proxy rainfall record of the late Holocene North America Monsoon		
54	 Significant variability at ~2000, ~565, ~65 and ~22 year frequencies 		
55	Present day North American Monsoon patterns were established after 3ka BP		
56			

57 **1. Introduction**

58 The North American Monsoon (NAM) is a crucial precipitation source within its core region of 59 Mexico and the south-west USA, providing up to 60% of annual precipitation (Metcalfe et al. 60 2015, Fig. 3b; Ropelewski et al., 2005), and is vital to sustaining agriculture, industry and biodiversity. Climate change projections for the NAM region suggest that both increased 61 62 temperatures and reduced precipitation are likely in the coming century (Karmalkar et al., 63 2011). Better understanding of NAM variability and its controls are therefore essential 64 (Englehart and Douglas, 2002). High temporal resolution proxy records (e.g. Stahle et al., 65 2012) are necessary to identify both the long term evolution of the NAM and its variability under different climate modes. 66

The NAM arises from the seasonal, insolation driven, northward migration of the 67 68 Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) in the Northern Hemisphere (NH) summer, the 69 development of a thermal low over the SW USA, and the development of a strong thermal 70 contrast off the coast of Baja California (Barron et al., 2012). Its duration and intensity are 71 affected by conditions in both the eastern tropical Pacific and the North Atlantic (Englehart 72 and Douglas, 2002, 2010; Mendez and Magaña, 2010). Investigations into the controlling 73 role of the Pacific have focussed on the El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) (Castro et al., 74 2001; Magaña et al., 2003) and the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO), recognising that these 75 are not entirely independent (Gutzler, 2004), as the PDO can be seen as an example of 76 ENSO-type variability operating over different timescales (Castro et al., 2001; Wilson et al, 77 2010). In Mexico, NAM summer rainfall is reduced during El Niño events and positive 78 phases of the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) (Castro et al., 2001; Magaña et al., 2003; 79 Bhattacharya and Chiang, 2014) when the eastern tropical Pacific warms and the thermal 80 gradient to the continental interior is reduced. During La Niña or negative PDO phases, summer NAM rainfall increases. NAM drivers associated with the North Atlantic, specifically 81 the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO) and the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) (Mendez 82 83 and Magaña, 2010), seem to have their greatest impact on the NAM in the summer season. 84 Positive (warm) phases of the AMO give rise to wetter summers in central and southern

Mexico and the wider Caribbean, as the ITCZ moves north, generating more Atlantic tropical
cyclones (Knight et al., 2006; Mendez and Magaña, 2010).

87 Understanding controls on NAM region precipitation is complicated by complex and 88 variable connections between the two regions of NAM forcing i.e. Atlantic and Pacific Oceans (Englehart and Douglas, 2010; Stahle et al., 2012) and variability in, often localised, storm 89 90 events (Curtis, 2008). It is also increasingly evident that NAM rainfall patterns are not 91 spatially homogeneous and it has been suggested (Castro et al., 2001) that the NAM in 92 Mexico should be treated separately from the NAM in the south-west USA, where winter rain 93 is more significant and El Niño or positive PDO give rise to increased winter precipitation and 94 overall wetter conditions.

Here we present an annually resolved proxy record of precipitation through the last 6000 years from the Laguna de Juanacatlán (Jalisco, Mexico) which is located close to the tropical core of the NAM (Englehart and Douglas, 2002). The record shows a marked shift in the dominant frequencies of variability between 4 and 3 cal ka BP. This change in the frequency domain coincides with a general shift in conditions through this time period to the pattern of precipitation seen today.

101

102 2. Site Description

Laguna de Juanacatlán (20°37′N, 104°44′W; 2000 m.a.s.l.) is a lava-dammed lake with a maximum depth of 25–30 m, in the Sierra de Mascota close to the Pacific coast of Mexico. The basin (approximately 10 km²) is orientated in a southeast to northwest direction, with the lake occupying about 0.5 km² at the northwest end (Metcalfe et al., 2010). The closest meteorological station is in Mascota (800 m lower and 12 km away) where annual average precipitation is 1026 mm/yr, of which 88% falls between June and October.

109 The sediments of Juanacatlán contain fine, mm scale laminations, with alternating 110 organic, diatomaceous layers and pink clay from catchment in-wash. In addition a number of 111 thick, cm scale, fining up layers consisting of sands and clays are present, which are 112 interpreted as instantaneous turbidites.

113 Titanium (Ti) has been shown, via XRF scanning (see methods below), to mark the 114 pink clay layers in the core and through comparison with observational, instrumental and 115 historical records and other regional rainfall proxies through the last 2000 years, has been 116 established as a proxy for run-off, which is derived principally from summer rainfall in this 117 catchment (Metcalfe et al., 2010). The Ti profile from high resolution XRF scanning has been 118 shown to follow sedimentary changes, recording higher values in the pink clay layers.

119

120 **3. Methods and results**

Two parallel, continuous cores (both ca. 9 m long) were taken from the deepest part of
Laguna de Juanacatlán using a Kullenberg coring system, resulting, once disturbed sections
of core had been avoided and instantaneous turbidites excluded from the record, in a 7.25m
continuous composite core sequence.

125 27 AMS radiocarbon age estimates from bulk organic matter were obtained from the 126 core sequence, including two dates from sediment trap and core-top material to check for 127 any reservoir effect (Fig. 1; Supplementary Table 1). Additional age control for the top of the 128 core is supplied by clear peaks in ¹³⁷Cs (Metcalfe et al., 2010).

U-channels (2cm wide) were taken from the cores and scanned using an ITRAX XRF scanner at 200 µm resolution (Croudace et al., 2006). An annually resolved Ti record was produced from the original 200 µm data set between 50 and 5821 years BP; each 200 µm data point was given an age from the age-depth model and then rounded to the nearest year. Annual values were then calculated as the mean value for all the data points rounded to that given year.

The resulting record of rainfall variability (Fig. 2) shows variation at all time scales from inter-annual to millennial through the last 6000 years. Wavelet analysis of the Ti record identified variation at different frequencies (Fig. 2); significant (95% confidence interval) cycles appear at ~2000, ~565, ~105 and ~65 and ~22 years through large parts of the record (Fig. 3).

140

141 **4. Discussion**

The striking feature of the Juanacatlán Ti record is the change between 3 and 4 cal ka BP 142 143 that marks a shift in the dominant frequencies of variability (Fig. 3). This period, particularly 144 between 2.8 and 3.8 cal ka BP, is also a time during which overall precipitation apparently reduced (Fig. 2a), recording the lowest average Ti values for any individual 1000 year period 145 146 in the record. Frequencies similar to the significant multi-centennial and millennial 147 frequencies (~565 and ~2000 years) found in the Juanacatlán record, which both increase 148 notably in strength after 3ka BP, have been observed elsewhere regionally in the Gulf of 149 Mexico (Poore et al., 2004) and Chihuahua, northern Mexico (Castiglia and Fawcett, 2006) 150 as well as in Lake Pallcacocha, Ecuador (Moy et al., 2002; Fig. 4). Interestingly, the ~200 151 year cycle, reported from other parts of the NAM region and often associated with solar 152 activity (e.g. Jimenez-Moreno et al., 2008), is not evident here.

153 The Juanacatlán record has comparative cycles to the Pallcacocha red intensity 154 record (Fig. 4); the two are out of phase in the 2000 yr cycle, with periods of increased 155 rainfall at Juanacatlán associated with reduced rainfall periods at Pallcacocha, as would be 156 expected from a modern day ENSO type forcing. The millennial periods of enhanced NAM 157 rainfall at Juanacatlán, which increase in strength after 3 cal ka BP (Fig. 2 and 3), are also 158 associated with warmer phases of the multi-millennial variability in the North Pacific Gyre 159 (Isono et al., 2009), again consistent with ENSO/PDO type forcing patterns. Carre et al. 160 (2014), Cobb et al. (2013), and Koutavas and Joanides (2012) have also all show an 161 increase in ENSO variance at around 3 cal ka BP.

Further evidence of the links between rainfall at Juanacatlán and Pacific forcing post 3 cal ka BP comes from a comparison of the Juanacatlán Ti record with a tree ring PDO reconstruction (MacDonald and Case, 2005) over the last millennium (Fig. 5), showing similarity in significant periodicities at centennial time scales, and to a lesser extent at 26 and 40 years (Fig. 5). These periodicities are rarely dominant at Juanacatlán prior to 4 cal ka BP, but do become more important after 3 cal ka BP. The period of most persistent positive PDO

values, AD 1400 – 1600 was marked by a dry phase at Juanacatlán (Fig. 5), again consistent
with Pacific, ENSO type, forcing of the NAM.

170 Spatial variability in change through the 4-3 cal ka BP transition also points to a 171 Pacific forcing of regional precipitation. Plotting changes over this period across the wider tropical Americas (Fig. 6) reveals substantial evidence for drying in the present day summer 172 173 rainfall region of the North American Tropics (NAT). Together with cooling in the Gulf of 174 Mexico and the onset of wetter conditions in the southern hemisphere summer rainfall zone, 175 this is consistent with the southward migration of the ITCZ during the later Holocene (Haug et 176 al., 2001) and the onset of more variable conditions (Lozano-Garcia et al., 2013; Metcalfe et 177 al., 2015), a pattern also observed in other monsoon systems (McRobie et al., 2015). At the 178 same time, records from the northern margin of the NAM region (where winter precipitation is 179 more important) also indicate a shift to wetter conditions, which has been attributed to 180 stronger ENSO or ENSO-type variability, including the PDO (Barron and Anderson, 2011). However, both the PDO (Minobe, 1999) and the AMO (Gray et al., 2004) are potential 181 182 drivers of the 60-70 year multi-decadal variability which is more important at Juanacatlán 183 prior to 4 cal ka BP. The AMO is increasingly invoked as a driver of change in the 184 predominantly summer rainfall regions of the NH tropical Americas (Stahle et al., 2012) and 185 also the SW USA (Oglesby et al., 2012). Both the persistence of the AMO over most of the 186 Holocene and its global signature have been emphasised (Knudsen et al., 2011; Wyatt et al., 187 2012). A similar pattern of reduced multidecadal variability, between 3.5 and 4.5 cal ka BP, 188 followed by increased significance of bidecadal cyclicity in the late Holocene has been 189 observed in the Pacific Northwest (Stone and Fritz, 2006), raising the possibility that the 190 change in dominant multi decadal frequency is linked to changes in PDO frequency, rather 191 than a link to more dominant Atlantic forcing. Insufficient data are currently available to fully resolve this issue although Bernal et al. (2011) interpret a shift in δ^{18} O at 4.3 ka in the Cueva 192 193 del Diablo in southwest Mexico as marking a decoupling of local moisture from North Atlantic 194 events to a more Pacific controlled precipitation regime.

195 It has been suggested that the last 6000 years may be marked by a change in overall 196 variability in the climate system brought about by a shift from external to internal forcing 197 (Wanner, et al., 2008; Debret et al., 2009). Despite some correlation through parts of the last 198 1000 years (Metcalfe et al., 2010), there is no clear relationship between solar variability and 199 the 6000 year record from Juanacatlán (Supplementary Figure), which is consistent with the 200 lack of a 200 year solar cycle (see discussion above), and of a dominantly internal forcing 201 regime for this longer time period. Evidence for a significant climate shift around 4 cal ka BP 202 has been identified across the tropics and sub-tropics (e.g. Liu and Feng, 2012; Ponton et al., 203 2012), with drier conditions in the northern hemisphere and wetter conditions in the southern 204 hemisphere tropics, consistent with a southward shift in the ITCZ (Fig. 6; Abbott et al., 2003). 205 The Juanacatlán Ti record, the first high resolution record of the NAM tropical core through 206 this time period, shows that the period between 4 and 3 cal ka BP marks a reorganisation in 207 climate against a background of declining NH summer insolation and a reduced seasonality 208 of insolation. This weakening of external forcing (Donders et al., 2008) apparently provided 209 the context for the development of strong ENSO-type forcing of the NAM. de Boer et al. 210 (2014) have suggested a similar pattern from records in the Indian Ocean with decoupling of ENSO from the Atlantic ITCZ ~ 2,600 cal yr BP. 211

212

213 **5. Conclusions**

Given the complexity of the NAM system and uncertainty about its forcings and their internal 214 215 relationships (Arias et al., 2012) high-resolution records with excellent chronological control 216 such as the Juanacatlán sequence are vital for robust mechanistic interpretations. Our 217 evidence points to a shift to predominantly Pacific forcing of the NAM between 4 and 3 cal ka 218 BP, following a period where the region of dominant forcing is less clear. This shift gave rise 219 to the present day climatic configuration of the NAM region where complex interactions of 220 climate controls results in differential climate responses to the same forcings across Mexico 221 and the SW United States.

222

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- 347
- 348

349 Figures



Figure 1 Age-depth model for the Juanacatlán core sequence. The model is based on a 2nd

order polynomial trend at the top of the core, until 262.21 cm, and then a 5th order

355 polynomial model through the 2 σ age ranges as shown. The full list of radiocarbon dates

from the Juanacatlán sequence can be found in Supplementary Table 1.



360



362 to the incoherent peak area (equivalent to Compton scattering) from the XRF

363 (Supplementary Data) and a wavelet analysis of this data (b), using a Morlet wavelet in the

364 Matlab code of Torrence and Compo (1998). The time periods when the dominant

365 frequencies (red in this figure) are statistically significant are shown in Figure 3.



368 **Figure 3** Varying strength of the significant periodicities in the Juanacatlán Ti record (Fig. 2).

a) 20 – 25 year b) 60 – 70 years c) 100 – 115 years d) 530 – 600 years e) 1850 – 2110

370 years. Significance levels (at the 95% confidence limit) are shown by the grey lines in each

371 plot. The transitional zone between 4 and 3 cal ka BP is shaded for reference.



Figure 4 Comparison of the Juanacatlán Ti record (black line) with the PDO reconstruction of
MacDonald and Case (2005) (grey line) between AD 993 and AD 1900. Also shown is a
comparison of the global wavelet power spectrum of the two time series, showing their
similarities; although none of the peaks in this plot are significant at the 95% confidence limit.





Figure 5 Comparison of decadally smoothed Juanacatlán Ti and Pallcacocha red scale (Moy
et al., 2002) records through their common time period (50-5820 cal year BP). Also shown is
a comparison of the global wavelet power spectrum of the two time series, showing their
similarities. Only the c. 2000 year periodicities are significant at the 95% confidence limit
when using the decadally smoothed data.



Figure 6 Spatial analysis of changes in climate conditions between 4 and 3 cal ka BP (sites
and references are listed in Supplementary Table 2). LJ = Laguna de Juanacatlán, LP =
Laguna Pallcacocha. Black triangles mark sites which get wetter through this time period,
grey triangles sites which get drier. E indicates increasing ENSO activity. Downward pointing
arrows indicate decreasing temperatures.