

Final Draft of the original manuscript:

Gouirand, I.; Moron, V.; Zorita, E.: **Teleconnections between ENSO and North Atlantic in an ECHO-G simulation of the 1000–1990 period** In: Geophysical Research Letters (2007) AGU

DOI: 10.1029/2006GL028852

1	Teleconnections between ENSO and North Atlantic in an ECHO-G simulation of
2	the 1000-1990 period
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19	Revised version
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24	submitted to Geophysical Research Letters (January, 12, 2007)
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1 Abstract

2 The North Atlantic sea level pressure anomalies (SLPA) associated with El Niño Southern 3 Oscillation (ENSO) have been analyzed in a guasi-millennial (1000-1990) simulation with 4 the ECHO-G model. In November-December, the ENSO-related SLPA over the North 5 Atlantic area are weak, while a realistic pattern already appears over the North Pacific 6 and North America. In January-March, the SLPA over North Atlantic are stronger and 7 realistic from the North Pacific to Europe : the Aleutian low is strengthened (weakened), 8 SLPA are positive (negative) over the central and eastern North America, and SLPA 9 display a negative (positive) NAO-like pattern over North-Atlantic during warm (cold) 10 ENSO events, as in observations. The results also confirm the existence of a strong inter-11 event SLPA associated with warm and cold ENSO events, especially over the North 12 Atlantic, while the relationship is stationary at multidecadal timescales. It seems that 13 neither the intensity nor geographical longitude of the equatorial Pacific sea surface 14 temperature anomaly (SSTA) and intensity of tropical Atlantic SSTA, nor the volcanic 15 forcing, simply introduced here as a decrease of the solar constant, significantly induce 16 an inter-event variability, which seems, in this run, mostly of atmospheric origin.

17

18 **1. Introduction**

19 The relationships between El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) and wintertime 20 extratropical sea level pressure anomalies (SLPA) are well documented, especially over 21 North Pacific and North America [Ropelewski and Halpert, 1987; Kumar and Hoerling, 22 1998; Pozo-Vazquez et al., 2001; Lee et al., 2002]. These studies indicate lower (higher) 23 pressure than normal over the north-eastern part of the North Pacific and the south-24 eastern part of North America, and higher (lower) pressure than normal over the western 25 part of North America during the warm (cold) phase of ENSO. These anomalies are close 26 to the Pacific-North-America or Tropical North America patterns [i.e. Wallace and Gutzler, 27 1981; Mo and Livezey, 1986]. Over the North Atlantic, the SLPA associated with ENSO 28 are weaker. The December-February SLPA during cold ENSO events resembles to a 29 positive North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO)-like pattern, while those observed during the

1 warm ENSO phase are weaker in absolute sense and close to a negative NAO-like pattern 2 [May and Bengtsson, 1998; Pozo-Vazquez et al., 2001]. Part of the weakness of the 3 mean SLPA response in December-March stems from a seasonal modulation of the ENSO 4 response between November and March [Huang et al., 1998; Gouirand and Moron, 2003; 5 Moron and Gouirand, 2003; Moron and Plaut, 2003]. A negative (positive) NAO-like 6 pattern occurs during the cold (warm) ENSO phase in the early winter (November-7 December), followed by a positive (negative) NAO-like pattern during the cold (warm) 8 ENSO phase during the late winter (January-March). The linearity and stationarity of the 9 North Atlantic SLPA relationship with ENSO have been discussed and a large inter-event 10 variability, mainly during the warm phase of ENSO, has been established [Pozo-Vazquez 11 et al., 2001; Lee et al., 2002; Moron and Gouirand, 2003].

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13 The analysis of ENSO teleconnection during the contemporaneous period is limited by the 14 length of the observed record. One way to overcome this limitation is to use either 15 climate reconstructions as Brönnimann et al. [2005] or long-term simulations from 16 coupled ocean-atmosphere model. In this paper, a quasi-millennial ECHO-G (ECham 17 Hope-G) run has been used to identify the ENSO teleconnection over North Atlantic and 18 Europe on the period 1000-1990. The aim is to test whether the model driven only by 19 variable solar radiation, a simple volcanism scheme and a realistic variation of 20 greenhouse trace gases is able to reproduce the mean ENSO response over the North 21 Atlantic domain and to identify possible origins of inter-event variability. Three different 22 sources of inter-event variation will be considered here: (i) an external forcing 23 (volcanism [i.e. Brönnimann et al., 2005]), (ii) an atmospheric forcing (intensity and 24 polarity of North Pacific SLPA [i.e. Honda et al., 2001]) and (iii) an oceanic forcing 25 (intensity and location of sea surface temperature anomalies (SSTA) over equatorial 26 Pacific [i.e. Larkin and Harrison, 2005] and intensity of Tropical North Atlantic SSTA [i.e. 27 Robertson et al., 2000; Cassou and Terray, 2001]).

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29 **2**. **Data**

2 The AOGCM used in this paper is ECHO-G model [Legutke and Voss, 1999]. The 3 atmospheric component is ECHAM4 [Roeckner et al., 1996] and the ocean model is 4 HOPE-G [Wolff et al., 1997]. More details about this model can be found in Min et al., 5 [2005a,b]. These authors showed that ECHO-G skilfully simulates the seasonal mean 6 climatology and interannual variability of near surface temperature in the Tropical Pacific 7 and sea level pressure in the North Atlantic. The seasonal cycle of the ENSO event is 8 guite realistic but the frequency of warm and cold events is too high and too regular (one 9 event every 2-3 years) compared to observations, and their amplitude is too strong. 10 Simulated Northern Hemisphere extratropical wintertime atmospheric circulation, 11 especially the NAO pattern, and its variability are quite well reproduced by the model 12 [Min et al., 2005b].

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The main forcings driving the model, CO₂, CH₄, solar variations and effective volcanic forcing are described in detail in Zorita *et al.* [2005]. For this analysis, the volcanic forcing is implemented as a reduction of the solar constant. Yoshimori *et al.* [2005] also implemented this forcing in the CSM model and found a NAO response and high-latitude winter warming after "volcanic eruptions". The mechanism does not involve stratospheric aerosols but just tropospheric temperature gradient.

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21 Simulated monthly anomalies, relative to the long-term 1000-1990 mean, have been 22 filtered using a recursive Butterworth filter with a cut-off at 0.1 cycle-per-year to remove 23 the long-term variability, which could blur the typical ENSO-related variability. Several 24 regional indices have been computed; Niño3 index is defined as the average of the SSTA 25 between [150°W-90°W and 5°S-5°N] [Min et al., 2005a,b] and warm (207 events) and 26 cold (199 events) ENSO are defined as Niño3 anomalies $> 1^{\circ}$ C and $< -1^{\circ}$ C, respectively. 27 A Tropical Atlantic SSTA index (TROP_ATL) is the average of the SSTA in the region 28 [60°W-0° and 0°-25°N]. A North Atlantic SLPA index (NATL) is defined as the difference 29 between the average of SLPA in the region [10°W-60°W and 30°N-45°N] and in the

region [10°W-70°W and 50°N-70°N] and corresponds roughly to the NAO. An Aleutian
 SLPA index (AL) is the average of the SLPA in [160°W-130°W and 40°N-60°N], that is
 the mean location of the Aleutian low.

4

5 3. Results

6 3.1. Mean SLPA response

7 Following Moron and Gouirand [2003], composite mean SLPA associated to warm and 8 cold ENSO events have been calculated for the 1000-1990 period in November-December 9 and January-March (Fig. 1) and on ten 100-years sub-periods (1001-1100, 1101-1200, 10 ...1901-1990 (not shown). In November-December, there is a significant strengthening 11 (weakening) of the Aleutian low during the warm (cold) ENSO events (Fig. 1a,b). Over 12 the North-Atlantic, the ENSO response is weak (Fig. 1a,b). In January-March, the 13 deepening (weakening) of the Aleutian low during the warm (cold) ENSO events is 14 stronger than in November-December, which also happens for the positive (negative) 15 SLPA over the north western part of America (Fig. 1c,d). Over North Atlantic, the SLPA 16 during the warm ENSO events is now close to the negative (positive) NAO-like pattern 17 (i.e. positive (negative) SLPA north (south) of 45°N) and vice-versa for the cold ENSO 18 events (Fig. 1c,d). SLPA associated with cold ENSO events are slightly stronger (Fig. 19 1c,d). The hypothesis of the stationarity of the relationship between NATL and ENSO in 20 January-March is tested using a bootstrap method. The standard deviation of averaged 21 NATL anomalies corresponding to warm and cold ENSO events during running 50- and 22 100-year periods is computed. The significance level is assessed with the standard 23 deviations, computed in the same way, from randomly permuted pairs of NATL and Niño3 24 time series. The model standard deviations are always surpassed by at least 25% of the 25 bootstrapped ones. The null hypothesis that the relationship between NAO and Niño3 is 26 stationary at multi-decadal time scales in this ECHO-G simulation cannot be rejected, 27 consistent with the findings of Brönnimann et al. [2005] using climate reconstructions. 28 Moreover, there is no systematic increase of the NATL anomalies at the end of the 29 simulation (not shown). In summary, the ECHO-G model is able to reproduce a realistic

and stationary mean North America/North-Atlantic response to the ENSO events in
 January-March [Moron and Gouirand, 2003]. The simulated atmospheric response over
 the North Atlantic in November-December is weak and not consistent with the one
 observed during the contemporaneous period [Moron and Gouirand, 2003].

5

6 The relation between Niño3 and NATL is globally linear and stronger than for the 7 contemporaneous period (Fig. 2; r = -0.49). However, if we focus separately on warm 8 and cold ENSO events (r = -0.12 and -0.13 for NATL-Niño3 correlations on warm and 9 cold ENSO events), it appears that the intensity of the equatorial Pacific SST seems not 10 to be the main factor for the strength and polarity of the North-Atlantic SLPA response. 11 In other words, it means that when analyzing warm and cold ENSO events separately, 12 the bulk of ENSO signal is almost filtered out, leaving a large inter-event variability (not 13 related to ENSO), also suggested by the dispersion around the mean linear response 14 (Fig. 2).

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16 *3.2.* The inter-event variability

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18 We now focus on the inter-event variability of North Atlantic SLPA in January-March only. 19 The SLPA pattern in phase with the mean composites (Fig. 1c,d) will be called hereafter 20 'typical' response (i.e. negative (positive) NATL for warm (cold) events) and the SLPA out 21 of phase with the mean composites (Fig. 1c,d) will be called 'non typical' response (i.e. 22 positive (negative) NATL for warm (cold) events). According to Robock [2000], the 23 tropical volcanic eruptions are associated with a positive NAO phase in the following few 24 winters. In that sense, in the real world, the 'non typical' (respectively 'typical') response 25 to warm (respectively cold) ENSO events should be more prevalent following volcanic 26 eruptions. The Robock response is mostly due to the stratospheric aerosols and the 27 meridional gradient of the heating (i.e. more heating in the tropics than in high 28 latitudes). The volcanic forcing is here spatially uniform and the NATL response to 29 volcanism doesn't include Robock's mechanism, so that, in principle, we cannot expect a

1 classical Robock response in the model. Indeed, 25 out of 158 (9/49) warm ENSO events 2 are associated with a 'typical' ('non typical') SLPA response and a volcanic eruption in the 3 simulation. Both ratios are not significantly different suggesting that volcanic eruptions, 4 introduced here as a simple decrease of the solar constant, do not systematically induce 5 a non typical response during warm ENSO events in the model. Similarly 30/160 (8/39) 6 cold ENSO events are associated with a 'typical' ('non typical') response and a volcanic 7 eruption. The occurrence of a 'typical' response during cold ENSO events associated with 8 a volcanic eruption is thus not significantly stronger. This is also observed when the 9 eruptions occurring one and two years before the ENSO events are included (not shown).

10

11 To test the influence of atmospheric and oceanic forcings on the SLPA response over the 12 North Atlantic, four samples have been extracted: (i) warm and (ii) cold ENSO events 13 associated with the 'typical' SLPA response over the North Atlantic (i.e. respectively 14 Niño3 > 1°C and NATL < 0 and Niño3 < -1°C and NATL > 0) and (iii) warm and (iv) cold 15 ENSO events associated with 'non typical' SLPA response over the North Atlantic (i.e. 16 respectively Niño3 > 1°C and NATL > 0 and Niño3 < -1°C and NATL < 0). Subequatorial 17 SSTA (5°N-5°S) have been firstly averaged across the Pacific and the location in 18 longitude and intensity of SSTA have been extracted for each warm and cold ENSO 19 events. The occurrence of 'typical' versus 'non typical' ENSO is not related to a 20 significantly different location in longitude and/or intensity of the warm or cold SSTA in 21 the subequatorial Pacific (not shown). The sensitivity of the Northern Hemispheric 22 atmosphere anomalies to a "dateline" or "conventional" (i.e. Eastern Pacific) location of 23 the highest SSTA depicted by Larkin and Harrison [2005] in reanalyses is thus not found 24 in this simulation. Then, the monthly mean of SLP and SST indices has been computed 25 from November to March (Fig. 3). Note that the largest North Atlantic SLPA (i.e. dashed 26 line in Fig. 3a) are observed in February as in the observations [Moron and Gouirand, 27 2003]. As suggested before, the intensity of Niño3 anomalies (full line in Fig. 3c,d) are 28 not significantly different between the 'typical' and 'non typical' warm (and cold) ENSO 29 events. TROP_ATL anomalies are significantly different between the 'typical' and 'non

typical' warm and cold ENSO events in February and March (dash-dotted bold line in Fig. 3c,d), but this SSTA difference could be forced by the different SLPA pattern. AL anomalies exhibit rather large differences in January and February (grey bold lines in Fig. 3a,b and Table 1). A possibly unstable atmospheric see-saw between Aleutian and Icelandic low [Honda *et al.*, 2001] could be then a significant factor of modulation of the ENSO teleconnection over the North Atlantic domain.

7

8 4. Conclusion

9 The aim of this paper was to analyze the North Atlantic SLPA response to warm and cold 10 ENSO events and to test the possible origins of its inter-event variability in a quasi-11 millennial (1000-1990) run of ECHO-G model. Such analysis is needed in the context of 12 long-term climate changes as those associated with the increase of greenhouse gases 13 [Müller and Roeckner, 2006]. SLPA and SSTA have been high-pass filtered to focus on 14 the typical timescale of ENSO (i.e. less than 10 years). In November-December, the 15 North Atlantic response is weak and not in agreement with the observations [Moron and 16 Gouirand, 2003]. The mean SLPA are stronger and quite realistic in January-March. In 17 this season, the mean SLPA associated to warm (cold) events simulated by ECHO-G 18 model correspond to a strengthening (weakening) of the Aleutian low, positive (negative) 19 SLPA over the northern part of North America, and to a negative (positive) NAO-like 20 pattern over the North Atlantic area. The North Pacific/North America response is already 21 observed in November-December but with a weaker amplitude. This SLPA pattern in 22 January-March is similar to the one observed by Pozo-Vazquez et al. [2001] and 23 Gouirand and Moron [2003] for the contemporaneous period and by Brönnimann et al. 24 [2005] for the last three centuries. The relationship between ENSO and North Atlantic 25 SLPA is stationary at multi-decadal time scales, and in particular, does not increase at 26 the end of the 20th century The linear relationship between North Atlantic SLPA and ENSO 27 is stronger than in observed record, partly because model filters out some of the 28 atmospheric noise and also because the timescale of modelled ENSO is shorter than in 29 observations, and thus closer to the interannual variability of the NAO.

2 The model also shows inter-event variability in the ENSO-related response, in agreement 3 with observations and climate reconstructions [Pozo-Vazquez et al. 2001; Gouirand and 4 Moron, 2003; Brönninman et al. 2005]. This inter-event variability seems neither 5 associated with the intensity and the location in longitude of the warm or cold ENSO 6 events, nor with the intensity of Tropical Atlantic SSTA, at least at high frequency, also in 7 agreement with previous observational studies [Moron and Gouirand, 2003, Pozo-8 Vazguez et al. 2005]. It seems that the effective volcanic forcing implemented in the 9 model as a simple decrease of the solar constant is not able to systematically modulate 10 the North Atlantic SLPA response to ENSO, but it could be related to the lack of realism in 11 producing a meridional thermal gradient in the stratosphere. The results also show that 12 the magnitude of SLPA over the North Pacific is weaker in January-February when the 13 SLPA pattern over North Atlantic is out-of-phase with the mean response. There are no 14 precursors in North Pacific SLPA and it is difficult to conclude if both sectors interact 15 through internal atmospheric dynamics as Rossby wave, or are both forced by another 16 factor not considered here.

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1 Table

2 Table 1 : Student's T test significance of the difference between 'typical' and 'non typical' 3 warm and cold El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) events for Aleutian sea level pressure 4 index (i.e. average of sea level pressure anomalies in 160°-130°W and 40°-60°N) 5 between November and March. The warm and cold ENSO events are defined as Niño3 6 sea surface temperature anomalies > 1° C and < -1° C respectively using high-pass 7 filtered data (without frequencies < 0.1 cycle-per-year). The 'typical' and 'non typical' 8 samples correspond respectively to positive (negative) and negative (positive) North 9 Atllantic Oscillation phase (from the North Atlantic sea level pressure index) in January-10 March during cold (warm) ENSO events.

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	November	December	January	February	March
Cold ENSO	0.21	0.47	0.09	0.07	0.40
Warm ENSO	0.22	0.60	0.11	< 0.01	0.58

12 13

1 Figure captions

2

Figure 1: Mean sea level pressure anomaly (SLPA) (in hPa) in November-December (a,b) and January-March (c,d) during warm (a,c) and cold (b,d) ENSO events, respectively defined as Niño3 sea surface temperature anomalies (SSTA) > 1°C and < -1°C. Positive (negative) SLPA are displayed as full (dashed) lines and shading indicates significant values at two-sided 0.1 significance level according to a Student's t-test (null hypothesis is that the mean of the sample is zero). SLPA and SSTA are high-pass filtered by removing all frequencies < 0.1 cycle-per-year before the analysis.

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Figure 2: Contour plot between high-pass filtered (i.e. without frequencies < 0.1 cycleper-year) Niño3 (in °C) in abcissa and NATL (in hPA) in ordinates. The frequency is counted by bins of 2 hPa and 0.4°C and the contours are drawn for 1, 5, 10, 15, 20 and 25 observations in bin.

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16 Figure 3: Monthly mean anomaly of sea level pressure indices (NATL index (dashed 17 line), AL index (grey full line)) in panel (a) and (b), and of sea surface temperature 18 indices (Niño3 index (full line) and TROP_ATL index (dash-dotted bold line)) in panel (c) 19 and (d) (see text for the exact definition of the indices) during warm (a,c) and cold (b,d) 20 El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) events for the 'typical' (triangle-up) and the 'non 21 typical' samples (triangle-down). Warm and cold ENSO are determined as high-pass 22 filtered (i.e. without frequencies < 0.1 cycle-per-year) Niño3 sea surface temperature 23 anomalies > 1° C and < -1° C respectively. The 'typical' and 'non typical' samples 24 correspond respectively to positive (negative) and negative (positive) North Atlantic 25 Oscillation phase (determined from the NATL index) in January-March during cold (warm) 26 ENSO events.





