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24 **Late Holocene climate reorganisation and the North American Monsoon**

25

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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 (Metcalf et al.  
60 2015, Fig. 3b; Ropelewski et al., 2005), and is vital to sustaining agriculture, industry and  
61 biodiversity. Climate change projections for the NAM region suggest that both increased  
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  
66 under different climate modes.

67 The NAM arises from the seasonal, insolation driven, northward migration of the  
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,  
81 summer NAM rainfall increases. NAM drivers associated with the North Atlantic, specifically  
82 the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO) and the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) (Mendez  
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

85 Mexico and the wider Caribbean, as the ITCZ moves north, generating more Atlantic tropical  
86 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  
89 (Englehart and Douglas, 2010; Stahle et al., 2012) and variability in, often localised, storm  
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.

95 Here we present an annually resolved proxy record of precipitation through the last  
96 6000 years from the Laguna de Juanacatlán (Jalisco, Mexico) which is located close to the  
97 tropical core of the NAM (Englehart and Douglas, 2002). The record shows a marked shift in  
98 the dominant frequencies of variability between 4 and 3 cal ka BP. This change in the  
99 frequency domain coincides with a general shift in conditions through this time period to the  
100 pattern of precipitation seen today.

101

## 102 **2. Site Description**

103 Laguna de Juanacatlán (20°37'N, 104°44'W; 2000 m.a.s.l.) is a lava-dammed lake with a  
104 maximum depth of 25–30 m, in the Sierra de Mascota close to the Pacific coast of Mexico.  
105 The basin (approximately 10 km<sup>2</sup>) is orientated in a southeast to northwest direction, with the  
106 lake occupying about 0.5 km<sup>2</sup> at the northwest end (Metcalfe et al., 2010). The closest  
107 meteorological station is in Mascota (800 m lower and 12 km away) where annual average  
108 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 (Metcalf 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**

121 Two parallel, continuous cores (both ca. 9 m long) were taken from the deepest part of  
122 Laguna de Juanacatlán using a Kullenberg coring system, resulting, once disturbed sections  
123 of core had been avoided and instantaneous turbidites excluded from the record, in a 7.25m  
124 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  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  (Metcalf et al., 2010).

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

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

140

141 **4. Discussion**

142 The striking feature of the Juanacatlán Ti record is the change between 3 and 4 cal ka BP  
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  
145 reduced (Fig. 2a), recording the lowest average Ti values for any individual 1000 year period  
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.

162 Further evidence of the links between rainfall at Juanacatlán and Pacific forcing post  
163 3 cal ka BP comes from a comparison of the Juanacatlán Ti record with a tree ring PDO  
164 reconstruction (MacDonald and Case, 2005) over the last millennium (Fig. 5), showing  
165 similarity in significant periodicities at centennial time scales, and to a lesser extent at 26 and  
166 40 years (Fig. 5). These periodicities are rarely dominant at Juanacatlán prior to 4 cal ka BP,  
167 but do become more important after 3 cal ka BP. The period of most persistent positive PDO



168 values, AD 1400 – 1600 was marked by a dry phase at Juanacatlán (Fig. 5), again consistent  
169 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  
172 tropical Americas (Fig. 6) reveals substantial evidence for drying in the present day summer  
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).

181         However, both the PDO (Minobe, 1999) and the AMO (Gray et al., 2004) are potential  
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  
192 resolve this issue although Bernal et al. (2011) interpret a shift in  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  at 4.3 ka in the Cueva  
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  
211 ENSO from the Atlantic ITCZ ~ 2,600 cal yr BP.

212

## 213 **5. Conclusions**

214 Given the complexity of the NAM system and uncertainty about its forcings and their internal  
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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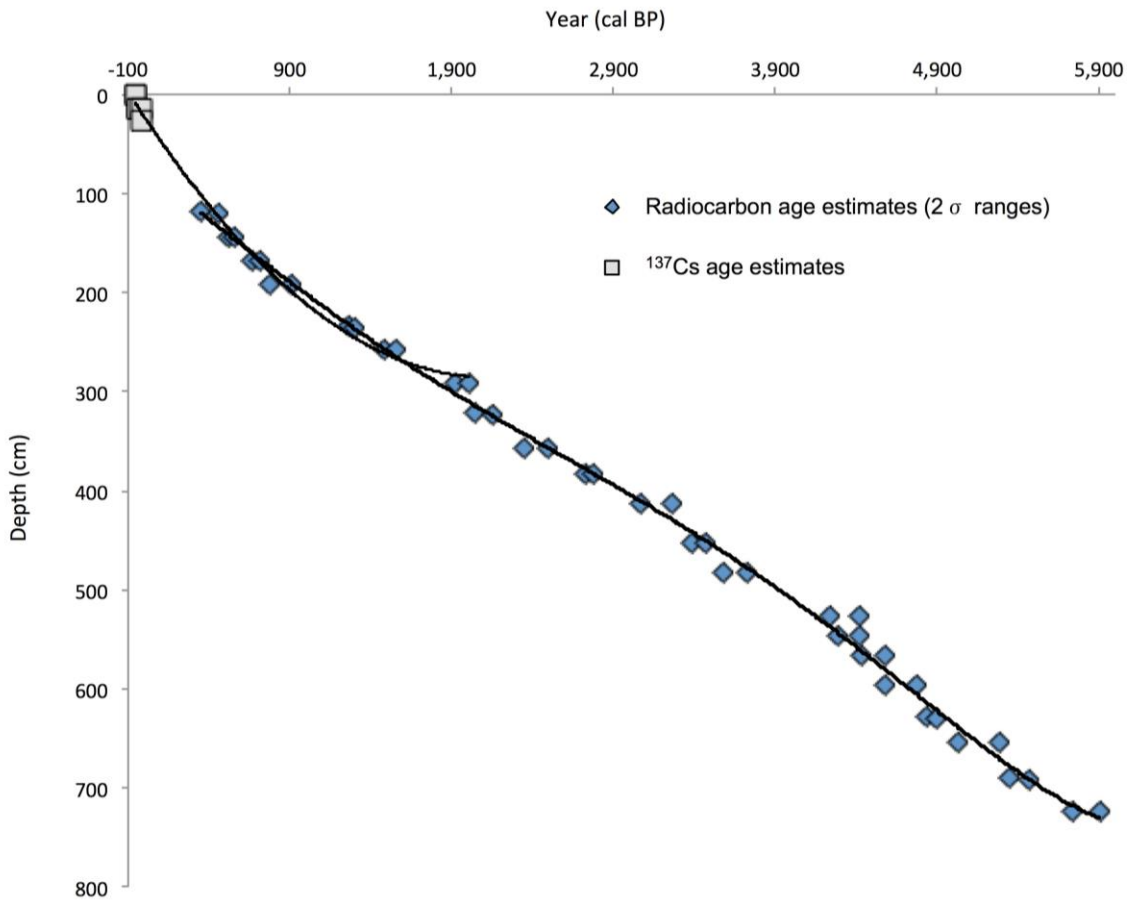
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349 **Figures**  
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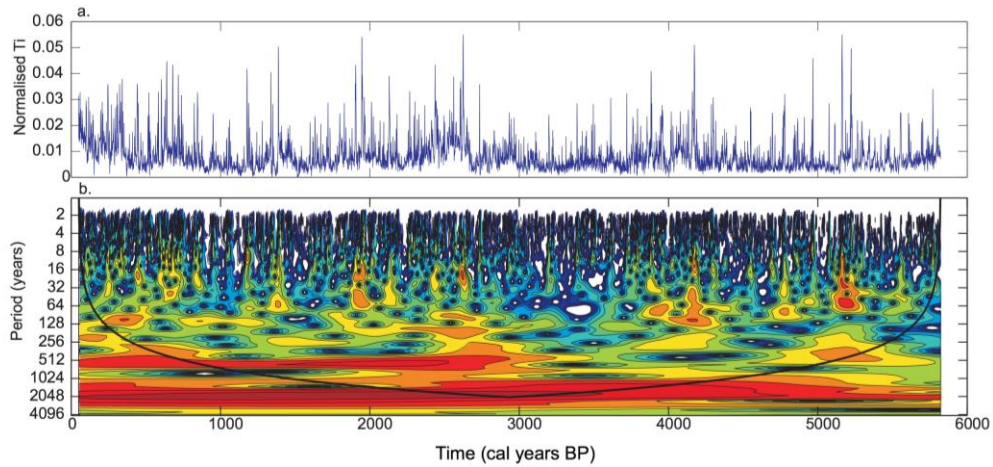


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353 **Figure 1** Age-depth model for the Juanacatlán core sequence. The model is based on a 2<sup>nd</sup>  
354 order polynomial trend at the top of the core, until 262.21 cm, and then a 5<sup>th</sup> order  
355 polynomial model through the 2  $\sigma$  age ranges as shown. The full list of radiocarbon dates  
356 from the Juanacatlán sequence can be found in Supplementary Table 1.

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361 **Figure 2** The annual Juanacatlán Ti record (a), shown here as the Ti peak area normalised

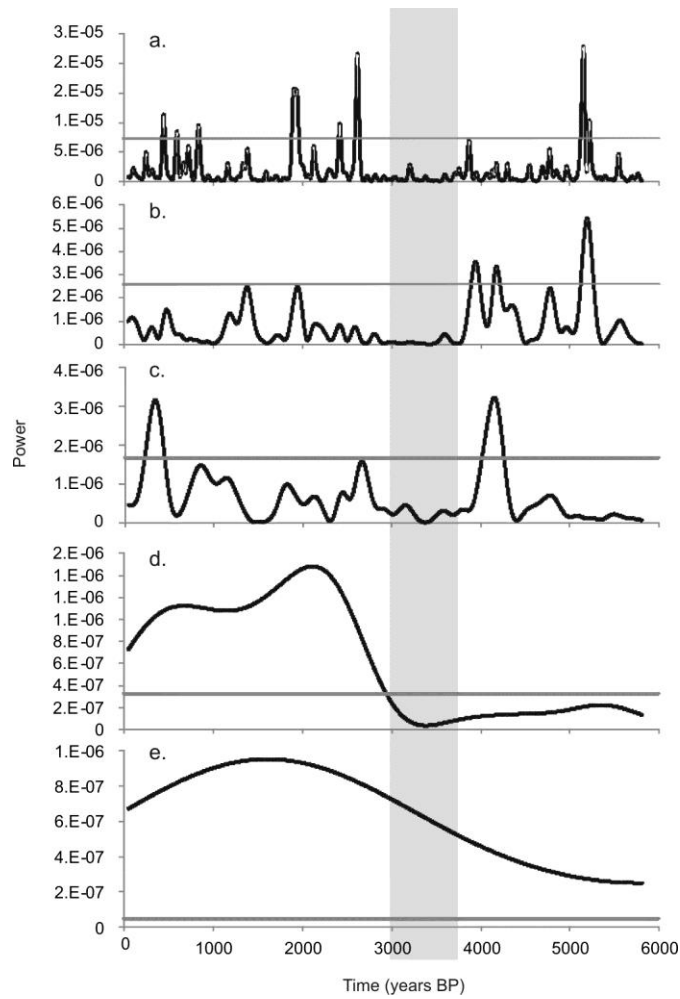
362 to the incoherent peak area (equivalent to Compton scattering) from the XRF

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.

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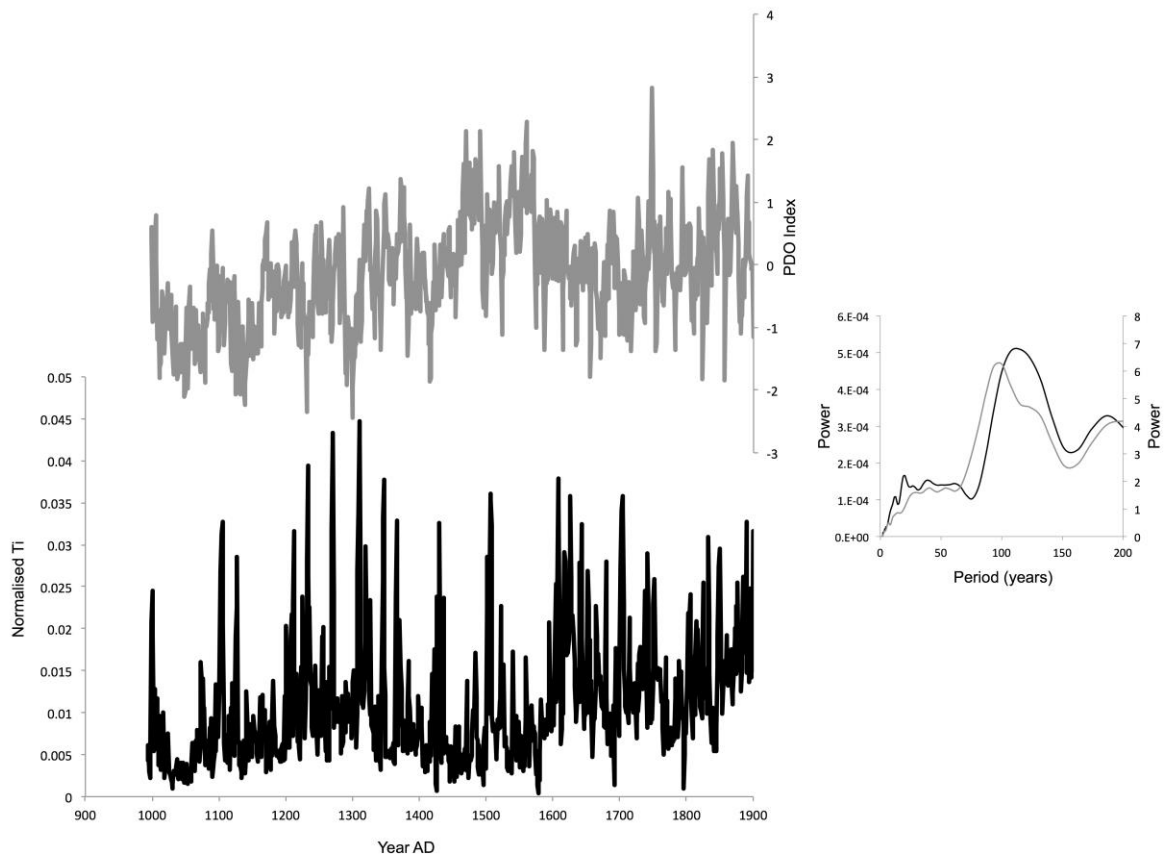
368 **Figure 3** Varying strength of the significant periodicities in the Juanacatlán Ti record (Fig. 2).

369 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.

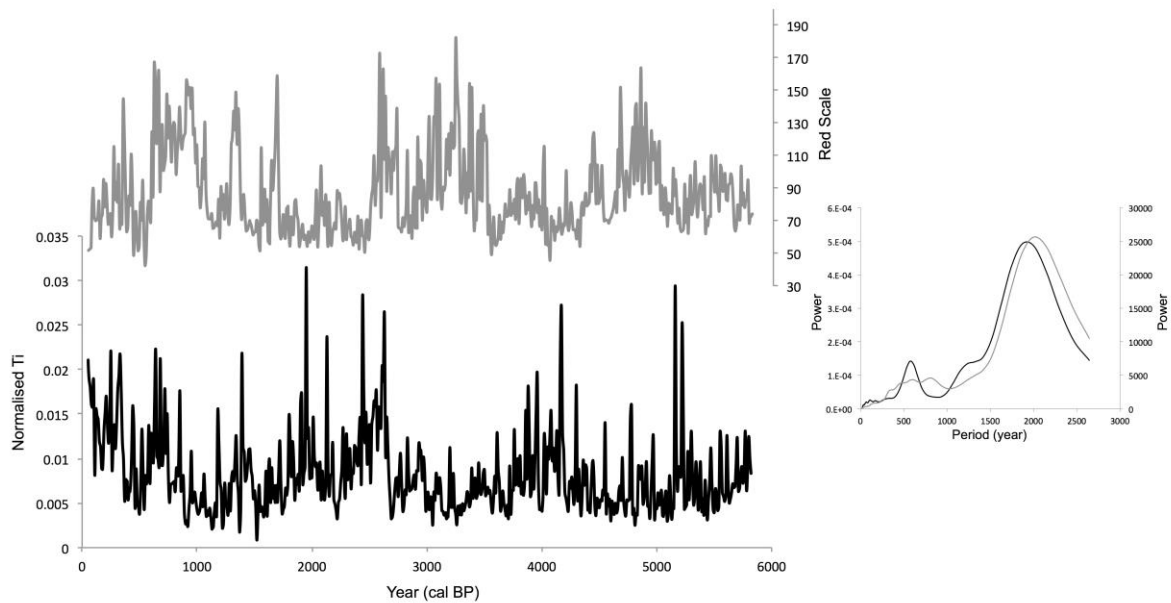
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374 **Figure 4** Comparison of the Juanacatlán Ti record (black line) with the PDO reconstruction of  
 375 MacDonald and Case (2005) (grey line) between AD 993 and AD 1900. Also shown is a  
 376 comparison of the global wavelet power spectrum of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

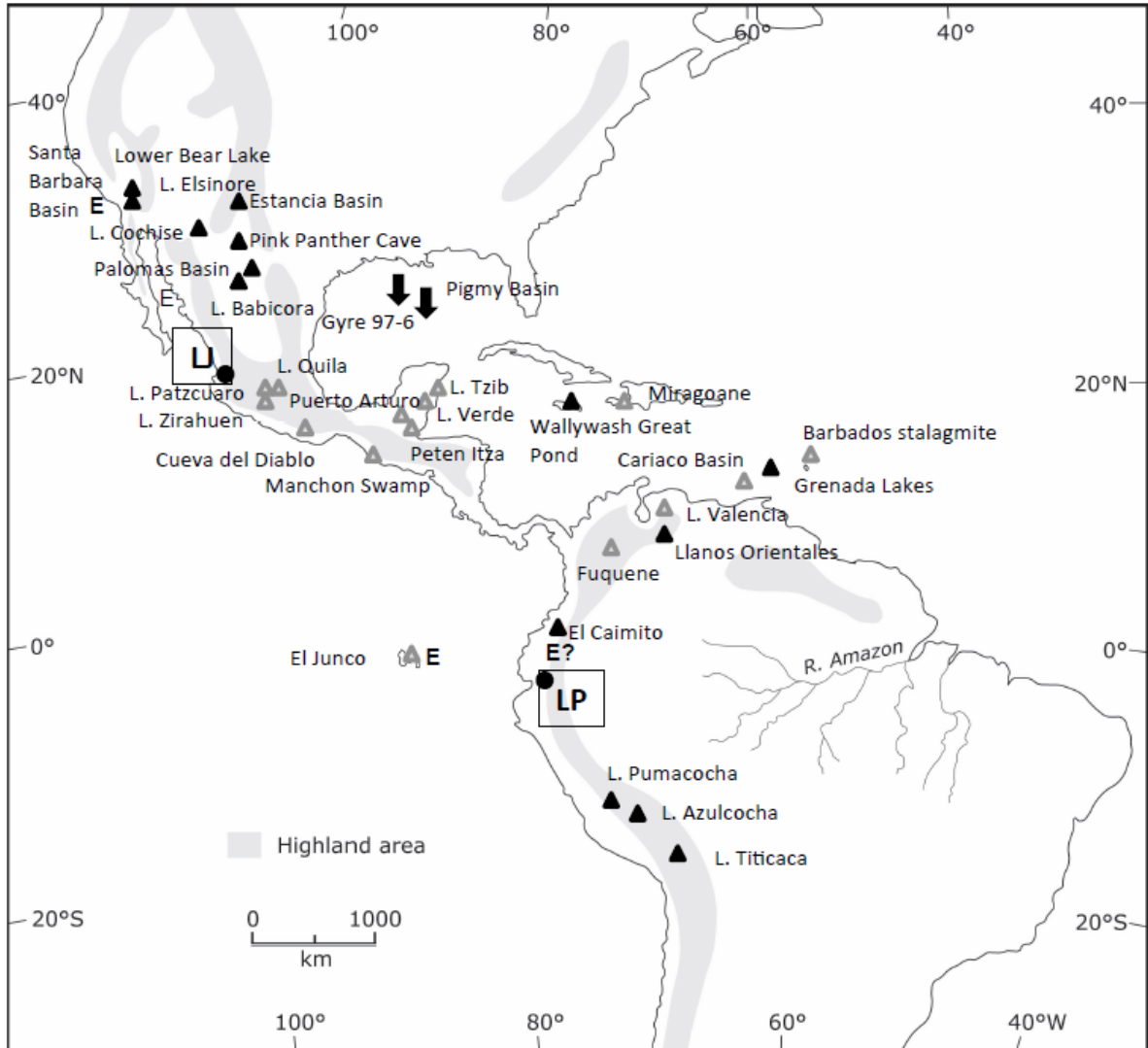
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381 **Figure 5** Comparison of decadal smoothed Juanacatlán Ti and Pallcacocha red scale (Moy  
382 et al., 2002) records through their common time period (50-5820 cal year BP). Also shown is  
383 a comparison of the global wavelet power spectrum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

386



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 388 **Figure 6** Spatial analysis of changes in climate conditions between 4 and 3 cal ka BP (sites  
 389 and references are listed in Supplementary Table 2). LJ = Laguna de Juanacatlán, LP =  
 390 Laguna Pallcacocha. Black triangles mark sites which get wetter through this time period,  
 391 grey triangles sites which get drier. E indicates increasing ENSO activity. Downward pointing  
 392 arrows indicate decreasing temperatures.  
 393