A Method for Disentangling El Niño-Mean State Interaction

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Abstract. The amplitude of the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) is 1 known to fluctuate in long records derived from observations and general $\mathbf{2}$ circulation models (GCMs), even when driven by constant external forcings. 3 This involves an interaction between the ENSO cycle and the background 4 mean state, which affects the climatological precipitation over the eastern $\mathbf{5}$ equatorial Pacific. The changes in climatological rainfall may be ascribed to 6 several factors: changes in mean sea surface temperature (SST), changes in $\overline{7}$ SST variability, and changes in the sensitivity of precipitation to SST. We 8 propose a method to separate these effects in model ensembles. A case study 9 with a single GCM demonstrates that the method works well, and suggests 10 that each factor plays a role in changing mean precipitation. Applying the 11 method to 16 pre-industrial control simulations archived in the Coupled 12Model Intercomparison Project phase 5 (CMIP5) reveals that the 13inter-model diversity in mean precipitation arises mostly from differences 1415in the mean SST and atmospheric sensitivity to SST, rather than from differences in ENSO amplitude. 16

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18 1. Introduction

19 Realistic simulation of the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) 20 phenomenon using coupled general circulation models (GCMs) is of great 21 importance for predicting ENSO and evaluating its impact on global 22 weather. The ability to simulate an ENSO with properties (amplitude, 23periodicity, spatial structure, phase asymmetry, etc) close to observations is a good test of a GCM. Despite improved ENSO simulations [AchutaRao and 2425Sperber 2006, there was a large diversity in ENSO properties among the state of the art GCMs included in the Coupled Model Intercomparison 26Project phase 3 (CMIP3) [Guilyardi et al. 2009, Vecchi & Wittenberg 2010]. 27Errors in coupled feedback processes [Collins et al. 2010, Philip et al. 2010, 28*Lloyd et al. 2011*] are probably the major cause of the diversity of ENSO 2930 amplitudes among GCMs. However, the nonlinear nature of the coupled system makes it difficult to clarify how the error in a particular process 31affects ENSO and the mean state. In addition, intrinsic modulation can 32contribute to uncertainties in ENSO properties diagnosed from centennial 33 and shorter records, such as the observed instrumental record and many 34climate simulations [*Wittenberg 2009*]. 35

ENSO is known to interact with other phenomena on a variety of time 36 scales: the annual cycle [Jin et al. 1994; Guilyardi 2006], atmospheric 37 disturbances [Vecchi et al. 2006; Jin et al. 2007], and decadal variability [An 38and Wang 2000, Choi et al. 2009, all of which also affect the mean state. 3940 Here, we loosely define the 'mean state' as a time average spanning a period 41 much longer than ENSO's interannual time scale. Changes in this 42background mean state can affect the growth rate and frequency of El Niño/La Niña, as has been clarified using a hierarchy of models [*Jin 1997*, 4344 Fedorov and Philander 2001, Wittenberg 2002. ENSO can also feed back

onto the mean state: El Niño exhibits a different spatial pattern of SSTAs
than does La Niña, leading to a net warming of the eastern equatorial
Pacific and cooling of the western Pacific during active ENSO epochs [*An and Jin 2004*]. Climate variables having a skewed probability distribution,
such as precipitation, also exhibit mean state changes in response to
changes in ENSO amplitude [*Watanabe et al. 2011*].

To improve understanding of ENSO in complex GCMs, it is necessary to devise useful metrics and methods for evaluating ENSO [*Guilyardi et al.* 2012]. Until now, there has been no simple method to isolate the ENSO feedback effect on changes in the tropical Pacific mean state. Here we propose such a method, using monthly time series of precipitation and SST from a sufficiently long simulation or an ensemble of simulations.

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58 2. Method and model ensembles

59 The precipitation (*P*) over the tropical region depends nonlinearly on 60 the underlying SST (*T*) [*Graham and Barnett 1987*]. The climatological 61 mean precipitation \overline{P} can be expressed as:

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$$\overline{P} = \iint p(P,T)dPdT$$

$$= \iint p(T)p(P|T)dPdT$$

$$= \iint f(T)C(T)dT$$
(1)

64 where p(X) denotes the probability distribution of X, f is the probability 65 density function (PDF) of T, and C(T) is the weighted-average composite of P66 with respect to T. In principle, the expression (1), hereafter referred to as the PDF method, holds exactly everywhere, regardless of the degree ofcorrelation or causal linkage between *P* and *T*.

Given an ensemble of realizations (e.g. from different models, or different forcing scenarios), we may define references, denoted as \overline{P}_0 , C_0 , and f_0 , and derive an equation for deviations from them, ()';

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$$\overline{P} - \overline{P}_0 = \int f' C_0(T) dT + \int f_0 C'(T) dT + \int f' C'(T) dT$$
, (2)

where C_0 represents the typical shape of the precipitation composite and is 73obtained from the ensemble average of C(T), i.e., $C_0 \equiv \langle C(T) \rangle$. At extreme 74values of T, the C_0 defined this way will be representative of only one or 75two models, but fortunately those extreme values of T are, by definition, 76rarely visited by the models. We have further assumed that wherever *f*=0, 77i.e. at those values of T not sampled by the ensemble member, C can be 78approximated as C_0 , such that C'=0 at those values of T. The reference 79PDF f_0 is defined as $f_0 \equiv \left\langle f\left(T - \overline{T} + \langle \overline{T} \rangle \right) \right\rangle$, where \overline{T} is the annual-mean 80 climatology of T and $\left< \overline{T} \right>$ is the ensemble average, to represent the 81 82plausible mean shape of the PDF while sharing the mean position with $\langle f \rangle$. \overline{P}_0 is expressed as $\overline{P}_0 \equiv \int f_0 C_0(T) dT$, so that the left hand side denotes the 83 excess mean precipitation in a single ensemble member. The reference 84 mean precipitation is slightly different from $\langle \overline{P} \rangle$, but the difference is about 85 5 % and negligible for the results presented in the next section. The first 86 term on the right hand side of (2) captures the impact of a member's 87 difference in SST PDF on \overline{P} , given the reference sensitivity of P to T. The 88

second term, which captures the impact of a member's different sensitivity of *P* to *T*, given the reference PDF of *T*, is called the precipitation sensitivity feedback. The third term, which represents nonlinear impacts on \overline{P} , is small in most of the cases that we have tested. Here we apply (2) to the Niño 3 region (150° W-90° W, 5° S-5° N), so that the monthly time series of the Niño 3-averaged SST and precipitation are used for the analysis. The composite of *P* is computed using a Niño 3 SST bin width of 0.2 K.

A similar method has been used in cloud regime analysis, where cloud amounts are sorted by mid-tropospheric vertical velocity [*Bony et al. 2004*; *Bony and Dufresne 2005*]. In the present application, one has to be careful when interpreting the term involving f' since it includes not only the change in ENSO properties, but also biases or changes in mean SST and the seasonal cycle. The first term in (2) can therefore be decomposed as

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$$\int f' C_0(T) dT = \int \left(f - \hat{f} \right) C_0(T) dT + \int \left(\hat{f} - f_0 \right) C_0(T) dT \quad , \tag{3}$$

where \hat{f} has the shape of f_0 but the mean \overline{T} of f (Fig. 1). The first term 103 on the right hand side represents the effect of the change in the shape of the 104 temperature PDF, typically associated with an ENSO amplitude difference; 105106 we shall refer to it as the ENSO SSTA amplitude effect. The second term 107 indicates the effect of the change in mean SST. While the difference in PDF shape, $f - \hat{f}$, is affected by the seasonal cycle, we confirmed that the 108results did not change much when the seasonal cycle was removed from T in 109110 advance (see discussion). Since the mean SST can be changed by either model biases or external forcing, the magnitude and impact of the meanSST effect will depend on the ensemble.

We demonstrate the evaluation of the ENSO SSTA amplitude effect 113with two types of model ensembles. One is a four-member ensemble from 114the Model for Interdisciplinary Research on Climate version 5 (MIROC5) 115*Watanabe et al. 2010*. Each member consists of a 100-year pre-industrial 116control run, with slightly different values of an entrainment parameter in 117the cumulus convection scheme. The ensemble spans a wide range of ENSO 118amplitudes from 0.61 to 1.63 K [*Watanabe et al. 2011*]. The other ensemble 119is the multi-model ensemble (MME) of the CMIP5, which is only partly 120available as of this writing [*Taylor et al. 2011*]. We use pre-industrial control 121runs from 16 different models (Table 1). The length of each CMIP5 run 122123differs, but the statistics in (2)-(3) are calculated using all available data.

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125 3. Results

Figure 2 summarizes the results of the PDF method applied to the MIROC5 ensemble. The ENSO amplitude systematically increases from one experiment (L575) to the other (L500), the latter showing a positively skewed SST PDF (Fig. 2a). The shape of C(T) is similar for all the members, but the tail of intense precipitation extends as ENSO becomes stronger. The reconstruction of the Niño 3 mean precipitation, $\overline{P}_{niño}$, is successful by definition (black and purple bars in Fig. 2b). The decomposition of the total 133reconstruction into four components shows that in terms of the impact on mean precipitation, the change in ENSO SSTA amplitude can be as 134important as the change in mean SST. The change in precipitation 135sensitivity, which one might think of as being more directly affected by 136changes in convection parameters, here acts to counteract the change in 137 $\overline{P}_{\text{niño}}$. This result is consistent with the arguments in *Watanabe et al.* [2011]. 138Before presenting the results for the CMIP5 MME, the ensemble-mean 139precipitation and its diversity are shown in Fig. 3. A preliminary analysis of 140the mean precipitation fields reveals that the pattern is not significantly 141improved over the CMIP3 MME [N. Hirota, pers. comm.], and still suffers 142from a double-ITCZ bias [Bellucci et al. 2010]. The spread among the 16 143models (shading) indicates that the inter-model differences are especially 144large over the dry zones of the continents, subtropical oceans, and 145146equatorial Pacific.

Unlike the previous example, the PDFs of T in CMIP5 models are 147shifted relative to each other, representing biases in mean SST (Fig. 4a). 148149The shape of C(T) is also different across the models, especially at higher values of SST (Fig. 4b). Figure 4c shows the reconstruction of $\overline{P}_{\text{niño}}$ for the 15016 models, ordered following the ENSO amplitude. The diversity in \overline{P}_{nino} 151exceeds 3 mm day⁻¹ and is well reproduced by the PDF method. In contrast 152to the parameter ensemble shown in Fig. 2, the ENSO SSTA amplitude 153154feedback, highly correlated with the ENSO amplitude (r=0.75), is much smaller in the MME. $\bar{P}_{ni\tilde{n}o}$ is roughly explained by the two effects in (2)-(3), which are not unique; a different shape of C(T) revealed in Fig. 4b is critical in some models (*e.g.*, 2, 3, 11, 14, and 16) whereas the mean SST difference is critical in others (*e.g.*, 1, 4, 8, 12, and 13). Models showing that each term is very close to the ensemble mean (9 and 15) do not imply that they are "best," since the ensemble mean $\bar{P}_{ni\tilde{n}o}$ itself has a positive error of 0.27 mm day⁻¹.

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163 4. Summary and discussion

We have shown that the PDF equations (2)-(3) work well in 164decomposing \overline{P}_{nino} simulated in GCMs. The ENSO SSTA amplitude 165feedback works to increase \overline{P}_{nino} due to asymmetry in the precipitation 166167response to T. However, the relative importance of this term varies. In the parameter ensemble examined here from a single GCM, changes in $P_{\text{niño}}$ 168are largely attributable to changes in both mean SST and SSTA amplitude. 169Given that \overline{P}_{nino} can affect ENSO stability, a two-way feedback could 170conceivably contribute to low-frequency modulation of both ENSO and the 171mean state. In contrast, for the CMIP5 MME where models differ 172structurally in many aspects (dynamical core, physical parameterization 173scheme, and resolution), inter-model differences in \overline{P}_{nino} are explained 174mainly by differences in mean SST, and by different sensitivities of 175176precipitation to SST.

We have also tried defining f to be the PDF of the SSTA in (1). In this case, 177178the first term in (2) cleanly represents just the ENSO SSTA amplitude influence on the 179mean precipitation. The second term then includes impacts of the change in mean SST on the precipitation response to SSTAs, which in the CMIP5 180 MME is larger than the impact of ENSO SSTA amplitude differences (Fig. 181 4). To estimate the SSTA amplitude impact on mean rainfall in an ensemble 182with large SST biases, it would be better to define *f* be the SSTA; however, 183the results are similar to those presented above. For example, the 184precipitation feedbacks (second term in (2)) in the CMIP5 MME are highly 185correlated (r=0.95) with the corresponding term when we use Niño3 SSTA to 186define f. 187

The PDF method has a potential for other applications. For example, 188189one can use surface wind stresses instead of precipitation to understand causes of the diversity in the mean dynamical fields in the CMIP5 MME. 190Another application is to use a long, single-member integration [e.g., 191*Wittenberg 2009*. The ensemble mean can be replaced by the long-term 192mean, while the deviation is defined using a particular epoch. The 193evaluation of MME can also be done by using observations to define f_0 and 194 $C_0(T)$. 195

The PDF method could be extended to decompose T into \overline{T} , mean seasonal cycle, and anomalies. While the isolation of the seasonal cycle was not crucial in the present analysis, for some applications there might be an

interaction among the mean state, seasonal cycle, and ENSO [*Guilyardi* 200 2006]. The asymmetric nature of ENSO can also modify \overline{P} through 201 changing \overline{T} [*An and Jin 2004*]. Thus, our method should ultimately 202 disentangle the impacts of changing variance and skewness of ENSO on the 203 mean precipitation and SST.

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- 281
- 282 Table and Figure Captions

- Table 1: List of the CMIP5 models and the integration length of thepre-industrial control experiments.
- Figure 1: Schematic of the SST PDF and its decomposition. \hat{f} has the same shape as f_0 , but the mean of the PDF follows that of f.
- Figure 2: (a) PDFs of the Niño 3 SST anomalies (thin curves) and associated
- composites of the Niño 3 precipitation (thick curves, mm day⁻¹) in the four

experiments by MIROC5. The shading indicates std dev of the composite. (b) Reconstruction of the mean Niño 3 precipitation, the reference value subtracted, following Eq. (2). The reference values obtained from the GCMs (black bars) are also presented. The std dev of the Niño 3 SST anomaly ($\sigma_{niño}$,

- K) is shown by yellow circles. The names of the experiments follow
 Watanabe et al. [2011].
- Figure 3: Multi-model ensemble mean of \overline{P} (contour, mm day⁻¹) and the inter-model spread scaled by the ensemble mean (shading, %) obtained from the pre-industrial control runs by 16 CMIP5 models.
- Figure 4: As in Fig. 2 but for 16 pre-industrial runs by CMIP5 models. The model number, sorted by σ_{nino} , is listed in Table 1. The decomposition uses (2) and (3).
- 302

303	Table	1

Model no.	Model name	Integration years	Model no.	Model name	Integration years
1	GISS-E2-R	850	9	MIROC5	500
2	INM-CM4	450	10	MPI-ESM-LR	1000
3	MRI-CGCM3	200	11	HadGEM2-CC	240
4	CSIRO Mk-3.6	500	12	CNRM-CM5	850
5	GISS-E2-H	1106	13	CanESM2	996
6	IPSL-CM5A-LR	800	14	NorESM1-M	500
7	IPSL-CM5A-MR	300	15	GFDL-CM3	500
8	GFDL-ESM2G	500	16	GFDL-ESM2M	500





308 Figure 1



Figure 2



Figure 3



Figure 4