

1 **Internally Driven and Externally Forced Pacific**
2 **Decadal Variability in the CESM Last Millennium**
3 **Ensemble**

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7 **Key Points:**

- 8 • A last millennium large climate model ensemble was used to characterize the Pa-
9 cific Decadal Oscillation and Interdecadal Pacific Oscillation
- 10 • The external forcing contributions on Pacific decadal variability is small compared
11 to internal variability during years 850–2005 CE
- 12 • Multiple marine based proxy records can be used to better constrain Pacific decadal
13 variability compared to a single proxy record

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Abstract

Pacific decadal variability are known to drive global and regional climate and ecosystems changes. However, the relative role of internal variability and external forcings in driving PDV and the prospects of obtaining a more accurate PDV reconstruction using a wider marine proxy network remain unclear. Here, we analyze simulations from the Community Earth System Model Last Millennium Ensemble using an information theory metric and find that internal variability dominates PDV, with minor contributions from greenhouse gases and volcanic forcing. Using a more extensive marine proxy network for PDV reconstruction is also shown to outperform PDV reconstruction based on a single proxy record. Collectively, these results offer new insights on the drivers of PDV and pathways to improve PDV reconstruction.

Plain Language Summary

Variations of Pacific sea surface temperature over decades can pose huge influence on global and regional climate. Therefore, we want to understand whether these variations happen naturally in the climate system or can be forced by factors that are not part of the climate system. But, previous studies only provide partial answers because paleoclimate reconstructions do not show a consistent picture of past changes in the Pacific and that there are other factors that can influence results from climate models, but are not sufficiently considered. In this study, we use a climate model with multiple simulations of the past 1000 years to offer a more complete answer. Specifically, we show that decadal scale variations in the Pacific ocean arise mostly from interactions within the climate system. We also show that by using multiple records in the Pacific ocean in a hypothetical scenario, we can obtain a more comprehensive and accurate view of how the Pacific ocean has changed every decades. These results together paint a more complete picture of changes in the Pacific and tell us how we can better understand changes in the Pacific beyond the instrumental record.

1 Introduction

Pacific Decadal Variability (PDV) is a collection of basin-wide phenomena that impose significant impacts on global and regional climate. Based on spatiotemporal patterns used to describe PDV, primarily the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) (Y. Zhang et al., 1997), Interdecadal Pacific Oscillation (IPO) (Power et al., 1999), and North Pacific Gyre Oscillation (NPGO) (Di Lorenzo et al., 2008), past studies have shown that PDV drives decadal

45 scale global mean temperature variations (Dai et al., 2015; Kosaka & Xie, 2016; Meehl et
46 al., 2016), regional temperature and hydroclimate (B. Dong & Dai, 2015; McCabe et al.,
47 2004), and ecosystems (Mantua & Hare, 2002; Di Lorenzo et al., 2008). The widespread
48 impacts of PDV highlight the importance to understand how it varies internally and changes
49 in response to different external forcings.

50 Extensive analyses have been done to understand the characteristics, dynamics and
51 drivers of PDV. Multiple review studies have highlighted the role of the atmosphere, ocean,
52 atmosphere-ocean interactions in the Pacific, tropical-extratropical interactions, and inter-
53 basin connections in driving PDV (see Di Lorenzo et al., 2023; Liu, 2012; Newman et al.,
54 2016, and references therein). These processes are shown to occur internally without any
55 external perturbations (Capotondi et al., 2020; L. Zhang & Delworth, 2015). However, more
56 recent studies also noted the influences of greenhouse gases (Bonfils & Santer, 2011; Meehl
57 et al., 2013), volcanic eruptions (Maher et al., 2014), and aerosols (Boo et al., 2015; Dittus
58 et al., 2021) on PDV (L. Dong et al., 2014; Hua et al., 2018).

59 Despite identifying both the internally driven and externally forced components of
60 PDV, prior studies mostly focus on the instrumental era, which spans only the past ~ 150
61 years (e.g., Roemmich et al., 2012; Davis et al., 2019; Giese et al., 2016) and contains ~ 15
62 non-overlapping decadal samples. As such, the short time period considered undermines
63 our ability to accurately characterize internal decadal variability (Stevenson et al., 2010)
64 and quantify the role of external forcing on PDV due to the limited range of magnitude and
65 sources during this limited window (e.g., Jungclauss et al., 2017; Sigl et al., 2015). Hence,
66 our understanding on the spatiotemporal characteristics of PDV and the role of external
67 forcings on PDV remains incomplete.

68 The last millennium provides a better baseline to more comprehensively characterize
69 PDV that arise through chaotic processes in the climate system and those driven by exter-
70 nal perturbations. Proxy reconstructions offer the most direct measurements of past PDV
71 beyond the instrumental record (e.g., d'Arrigo et al., 2001; Felis et al., 2010; O'Mara et
72 al., 2019; Porter et al., 2021). However, most PDV reconstructions to date either rely on
73 a small number of coral records from a localized region or a network of terrestrial based
74 proxy records. Consequently, they might not be able to represent PDV faithfully due to
75 nonstationary teleconnections (Du et al., 2020). Climate model simulations have also been
76 used to understand the spatiotemporal characteristics of PDV (e.g., Fleming & Anchukaitis,

2016; Sun et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2012; Zanchettin et al., 2013; Stevenson et al., 2019). Yet, these analyses either focus on multi-model ensemble or model simulations with a single realization that is subject to both internal and forced variability. Such experimental protocols impede our ability to separate internal variability from differences in model physics and individual forcing effects on PDV.

To better understand the relative roles of internal variability and external forcings on PDV, as well as to determine whether we can improve PDV reconstruction by using a more spatially extensive marine proxy network, we analyze the the Community Earth System Model Last Millennium Ensemble (CESM-LME) (Otto-Bliesner et al., 2016). The CESM-LME contains full forcing and single-forcing simulations, thus offers an opportunity to better distinguish the role of internal variability and external forcings on PDV that is previously unattainable. In addition, efforts to compile proxy records over the Common Era (Walter et al., 2023) now provide adequate information for us to use the CESM-LME as a testbed to understand the sensitivity of PDV reconstructions to a realistic proxy network.

Here, we use CESM-LME and apply an information theory metric (Sane et al., 2021, 2024) to determine (1) the spatiotemporal fingerprint of each external forcing and internally driven decadal sea surface temperature in the Pacific, (2) the contribution of each forcing to total variability of PDV, (3) whether the influence of each forcing on PDV has changed in recent decades, and (4) the prospect of using multiple marine proxy records of those available to reconstruct PDV.

2 Data and Method

2.1 Data

We used the CESM-LME (Otto-Bliesner et al., 2016) for analysis in this study. CESM-LME uses CESM version 1.1, which has a climate sensitivity between that of CCSM4 and CESM2 (Meehl et al., 2013; Gettelman et al., 2019) making it suitable for paleoclimate studies (Zhu et al., 2020). The nominal resolution is $\sim 2^\circ$ for the atmosphere and land components and $\sim 1^\circ$ for the ocean and ice components. CESM-LME contains multiple realizations of full forcing (13), greenhouse gas (GHG) only (3), land use (LULC) only (3), orbital only (3), solar only (4), and volcanic only (5) simulations that span from 850-2005 CE. Similar versions of CESM1 used in the CESM-LME have been shown to capture the spatial pattern (Fasullo et al., 2020) and processes associated with PDV (Newman et al., 2016)

108 more accurately than other climate models that are from the same generation. Nonetheless,
109 CESM1 is also known to exhibit too strong El Niño Southern Oscillation (Capotondi et al.,
110 2020), which can influence PDV, and an inaccurate tropics-PDO linkage (Newman et al.,
111 2016).

112 We used information from the PAGES CoralHydro2k database (Walter et al., 2023) for
113 pseudoproxy reconstructions. The CoralHydro2k database contains a compilation of coral
114 records with oxygen isotopic composition ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) and strontium-to-calcium ratio (Sr/Ca)
115 measurements from the tropical and subtropical oceans. $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in coral is sensitive to ambient
116 temperature and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of seawater (Epstein et al., 1953) whereas changes in Sr/Ca in corals
117 are primarily related to temperature changes (Corrège, 2006, and references therein). Some
118 of these proxy records have previously been used to characterize PDV (e.g., Linsley et al.,
119 2015).

120 **2.2 Method**

121 ***2.2.1 Spatial and temporal metrics of PDV***

122 We characterized the temporal characteristics of PDV using the PDO index and the
123 IPO tripole index (TPI). PDO is a principal component based index that is commonly used
124 to characterize decadal SST variability in the north Pacific (Y. Zhang et al., 1997), whereas
125 TPI is an index that does not rely on principal components and is used to characterize
126 Pacific basin-wide decadal SST variability (Henley et al., 2015). Details can be found in
127 Text S1. To understand the spatial pattern of forced and internal PDV, we applied a 13-year
128 low pass filter to SST at each grid cell. A 4th order Butterworth filter was used in all the
129 low-pass filtering procedures.

130 ***2.2.2 Information theory based metric***

131 Because of the complexity of the indices used and described, as well as their potentially
132 nonlinear responses to different forcings and non-Gaussian statistics, we employ information
133 theory-based metrics to quantify the relative role of internally forced and externally forced
134 variability on PDV. Whereas the traditional approach relies on comparing the variance of
135 model ensemble average with across realizations (e.g., Deser et al., 2020; Leroux et al., 2018;
136 Llovel et al., 2018), this approach builds on the mutual information between time series,
137 not just their correlation, and thus is robust to nonlinear relationships between the forcing

138 and response and does not rely on assumed shapes for their probability distributions (Sane
139 et al., 2024).

140 Following Sane et al. (2024), we used two information theory metrics to quantify shared
141 variability between two variables and variability of a variable: Shannon entropy and mutual
142 information (Text S2). Shannon entropy characterizes variability of a variable (Carcassi et
143 al., 2021), and can be understood as a quantity that increases with the likelihood of finding
144 a surprising or unprecedented result, or as the number of bits needed to count all of the
145 states that a system visits. On the other hand, mutual information describes how much
146 information entropy within the x signal can be explained by the y signal and vice versa. In
147 the context of this study, the Shannon entropy of all realizations of full forcing simulations
148 can be used to represent total variability, whereas the mutual information between each
149 realization and the ensemble average can represent external variability assuming internal
150 variability of each realization is independent from the other ensemble members.

151 For our analysis, we first defined f as all full forcing ensemble members, and g_x as the
152 ensemble mean of a model ensemble (either a single-forcing or initial conditions ensemble),
153 where x represents different forcing scenarios. Then, following Sane et al. (2024), we defined
154 a metric γ (Equation 1) to estimate the fraction of information in externally forced variability
155 x within the information in the total variability. Because we are interested in the relative
156 fraction of each forcing x to total variability, we calculated γ using different g_x afterwards.
157 g_x was derived from the initial conditions ensemble (i.e., full forcing) to estimate the fraction
158 of all forcings to total variability, and g_x derived from different single forcing ensembles (i.e.,
159 GHG, LULC, orbital, solar, and volcanic forcings) to understand the fraction of forcing x
160 on total variability. By calculating a g_x for each forcing x , $I(f; g_x)$ then can be used to
161 represent the variability driven by forcing x . Consequently, γ of x will then represent the
162 fraction of variability driven by forcing x relative to total variability.

$$\gamma = \frac{I(f; g_x)}{H(f)} \quad (1)$$

163 As this fraction is a fraction of bits of information entropy explained by external forcing
164 versus bits of information entropy explained by internal and external processes, it does not
165 equal numerically to the ratios of variance in other studies (Llovel et al., 2018). Nonetheless,
166 it monotonically increases from 0 to 1 as more and more of the signal is explained by external
167 forcing. It is also noteworthy that this calculation was done by combining all members of full
168 forcing ensemble into a single vector (f), and by generating multiple copies of the ensemble

169 mean in a single vector (g_x) so that the length of f and g_x would match. More complex
 170 methods to compare all ensemble members against each other (Watanabe, 1960) have proven
 171 too expensive computationally to be tractable in this type of application (Chen, 2024).

172 **2.2.3 Pseudoproxy reconstruction**

173 To better understand and quantify the advantage of a multiproxy record over a sin-
 174 gular proxy record based PDV reconstruction, we carried out pseudoproxy reconstructions
 175 (Smerdon, 2012) of annual PDO and IPO indices. Pseudoproxies were generated using the
 176 CESM-LME and based on information from the HydroCoral2k database (Figure 1), and
 177 were then used to reconstruct annual PDO and IPO indices using a nested composite-plus-
 178 scaling approach (e.g., Wilson et al., 2006, 2010) (Text S3). Using the CESM-LME as a
 179 perfect model framework allows evaluations of the reconstructed PDV against the actual
 180 PDV in model. We used Shannon entropy, mutual information, and coefficient of determi-
 181 nation to compare each reconstruction’s ability to capture the actual PDO and IPO in each
 182 nest, outside of the calibration period (1958-1994).

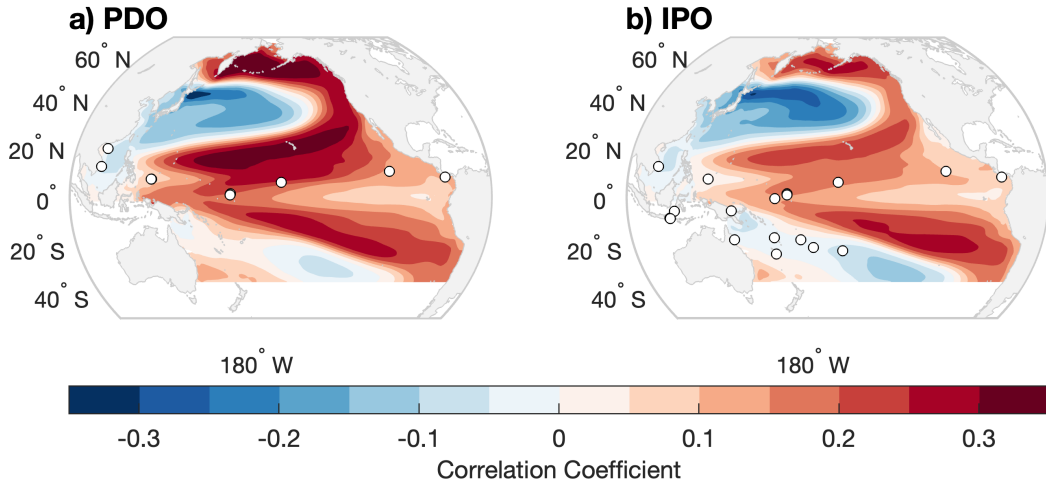


Figure 1. Correlation patterns of PDO and IPO and locations of proxy records. Correlation patterns between SST and (a) the PDO index and (b) the IPO index. The white circles represent proxy record locations used for each index based reconstruction.

183 3 Results

184 There are broad scale similarities in the spatial pattern and the strength of γ (fraction of
 185 externally forced decadal SST variability in total decadal SST variability) between forcings
 186 (Figure 2). The external forcing signal is most notable along the western boundary current
 187 in the Northern Hemisphere and off Baja California, whereas the internal forcing is most
 188 dominant in the eastern equatorial Pacific. The forced signal is most prominent in full forcing
 189 simulations (Figure 2a), with notable signals in GHG and volcanic simulations (Figure 2b,e).
 190 However, the overall forced decadal SST signal is relatively weak compared to internally
 191 driven decadal SST variability. Indeed, the spatial patterns of decadal total variability,
 192 as denoted by Shannon entropy (Figure 2g-l), do not resemble spatial patterns that are
 193 associated with forced changes.

194 The strength of γ in the time domain is similar to results obtained from analyzing the
 195 spatial pattern of γ . γ is strongest in the full forcing simulation ($\sim 0.035 - 0.045$) in both
 196 PDO and IPO. However, the relative strength between each forcing is dependent on the
 197 index used, with GHG and volcanic forcings have stronger roles for PDO, and GHG, LULC
 198 and orbital for IPO (Figure 3).

199 The time dependent information theory based metric suggests external forcing plays a
 200 minor role in PDV throughout the last millennium. For both PDO and IPO, γ is relatively
 201 low (< 0.1) throughout the last millennium (Figure 4). Interestingly, there are periods
 202 where the full forcing and volcanic forcing signal increases in PDO, but less so in IPO. The
 203 forced signal in the final 50 year window also does not appear to be anomalous relative to
 204 the last millennium.

205 Incorporating multiple proxy records appears to improve the reconstruction skill of
 206 PDO/IPO compared to using a single proxy record (Figure 5). Both γ and the coefficient of
 207 determination (R^2) are higher when multiple proxy records are incorporated into the proxy
 208 reconstruction.

209 4 Discussion and Conclusion

210 Our analysis based on CESM-LME suggests that the imprint of externally forced PDV
 211 is small relative to internally driven PDV. Typically, less than 5% of the Shannon entropy
 212 can be explained by mutual information. From an information theory perspective, this result
 213 can be understood as if files containing the record of PDV were optimally compressed, a

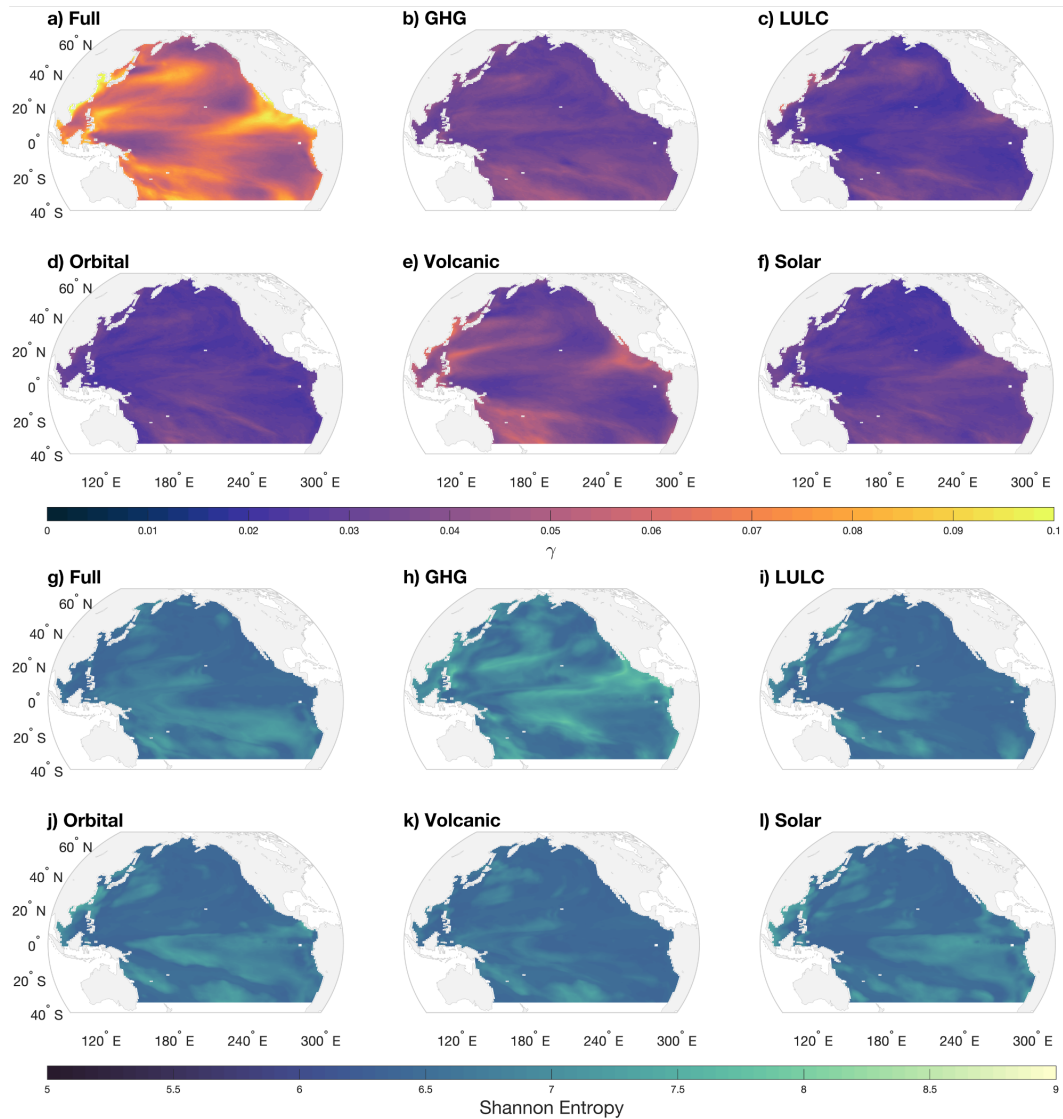


Figure 2. Spatial fingerprint of external forcing and total variability. Spatial patterns of the fractional contribution of external forcing to total information (a-f) and the Shannon entropy (g-l) at each grid point calculated using 13-year low pass filter SST data. Shown are results from (a,g) full forcing, (b,h) GHG forcing, (c,i) LULC forcing, (d,j) orbital forcing, (e,k) volcanic forcing, and (f,l) solar forcing simulations.

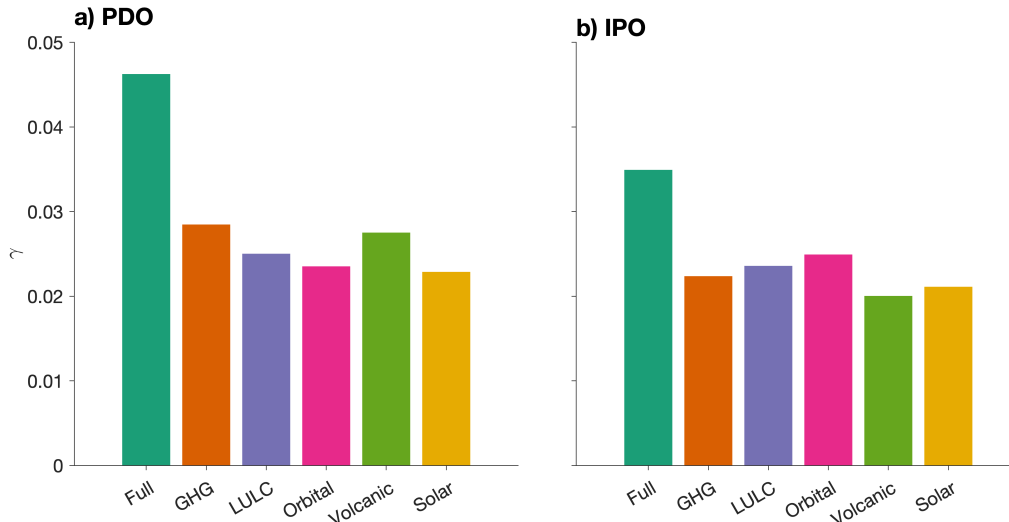


Figure 3. Fraction of information driven by external forcing. The fraction of shared information between ensemble average and all realizations relative to information from all realizations for (a) PDO and (b) IPO indices. Shown are results from full forcing (teal), GHG forcing (brown), LULC forcing (purple), orbital forcing (pink), solar forcing (green), and volcanic forcing (gold) simulations.

214 file containing fully-forced PDV responses (i.e., g_{full}) would be less than $1/20^{\text{th}}$ the size of
 215 a file capturing PDV in any ensemble member’s history (i.e., f). This result is analogous
 216 to detection and attribution studies where regression coefficients for forced changes based
 217 on regression fingerprinting methods are < 0.05 (Hegerl & Zwiers, 2011). Thus, internal
 218 variability is more pronounced everywhere in the Pacific basin, and also dominates the
 219 variability in indices that represent PDV. This agrees with previous last millennium studies
 220 that highlight the internal nature of PDV (Fleming & Anchukaitis, 2016; Zanchettin et al.,
 221 2013).

222 Although the influences of GHG and volcanic forcings on PDV are notable, these forc-
 223 ings only play a minor role in driving PDV. Even though we observe a strengthened forced
 224 signal during periods with notable volcanic eruptions (Figure 4), they are weak compared to
 225 internal variability. Furthermore, the GHG and volcanic signals in the final 50 years of the
 226 simulation (1966-2005) are also not anomalous in the context of the last millennium. Hence,
 227 although GHG and volcanic forcings can influence PDV during the historical period (e.g.,
 228 L. Dong et al., 2014; Hua et al., 2018), our results suggest that they have only played a minor
 229 role in driving PDV in comparison to internal variability over the last millennium and have
 230 not become more important during the instrumental era. From the emergence of climate

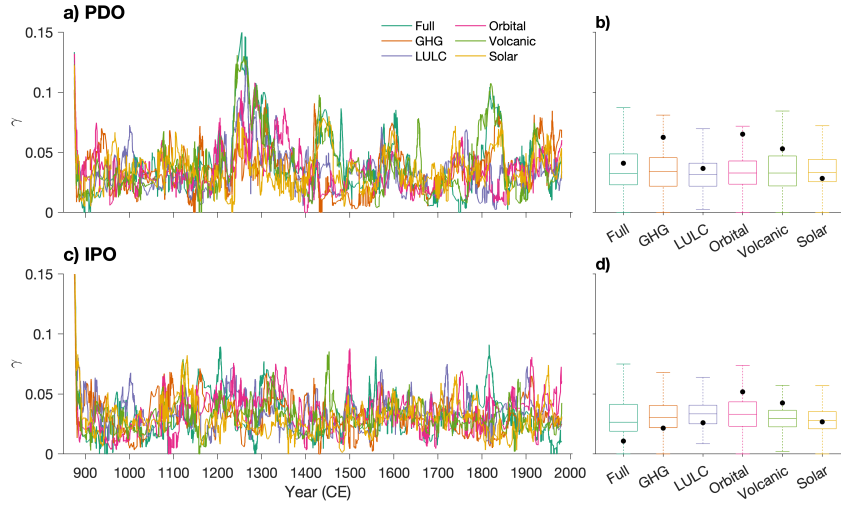


Figure 4. Time dependent fraction of information driven by external forcing. 50 year sliding window of the fraction of shared information between the ensemble average and all full forcing realizations relative to information from all realizations in a) PDO and c) IPO. Box plots of the different forcings' γ values in b) PDO and d) IPO. The black circles indicate the value at the final 50 year window (1966-2005).

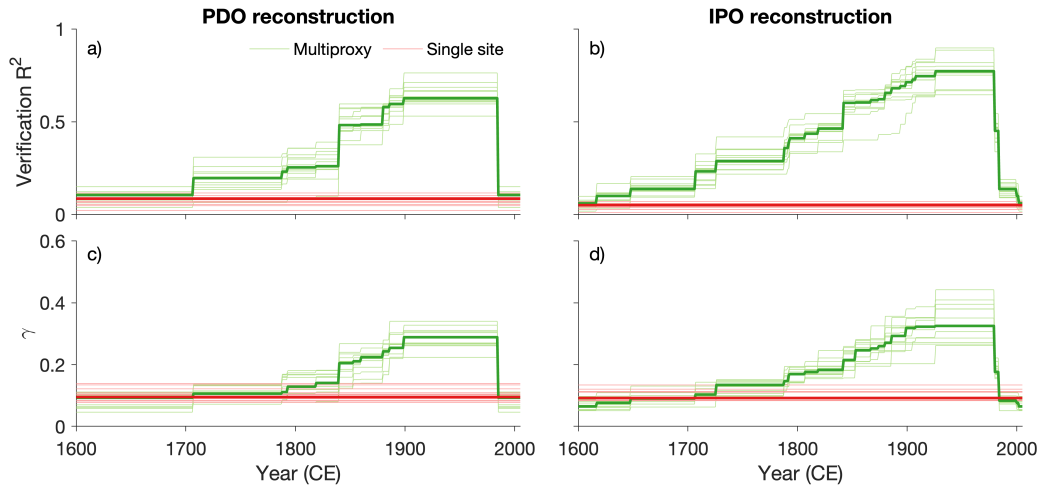


Figure 5. PDV pseudoproxy reconstruction skill. a-b) r^2 and c-d) γ of PDO (left) and IPO (right) pseudoproxy reconstructions using CESM-LME full forcing members. Green denotes multiproxy based reconstruction whereas red denotes single site based reconstruction skill. The thick lines represent median values across 13 ensemble members.

231 change signal perspective (Hawkins et al., 2020), our results represent small ‘signal-to-noise’
232 values in PDV indices over 1966-2005 CE compared to the last millennium. Nonetheless,
233 it is noteworthy that aerosols are not included in our analysis except through volcanism.
234 Prior studies have indicated that aerosols could be partially responsible for PDV shifts in
235 the historical period (Boo et al., 2015; Dittus et al., 2021). However, owing to the lack of
236 constraints of aerosols prior to the historical period, aerosol forcings are kept constant in
237 CESM-LME prior to 1850 CE (Otto-Bliesner et al., 2016). As a result, we are unable to
238 quantify the role of non-volcanic aerosols in the context of the last millennium.

239 The fact that PDV is primarily internally driven has significant implications on decadal
240 climate predictions. Most importantly, our results imply that future improvements in pre-
241 dicting PDV will be less dependent on how well we can model responses of the Pacific to
242 the forcings analyzed in this study, but more on our understanding of dynamics that can
243 generate PDV and models’ ability in representing processes in the Pacific Ocean. As such,
244 future studies should focus on improving our knowledge about mechanisms that generate
245 PDV. This implication is further corroborated by analyses on decadal prediction modeling
246 experiments that suggest external forcing exerts a smaller influence in predicting Pacific
247 than in the Atlantic (Yeager et al., 2018), and that initialization does not provide as much
248 skill in the Pacific as in the Atlantic (Smith et al., 2019; Yeager et al., 2018).

249 Lastly, our pseudoproxy reconstruction allows us to demonstrate the ability to use
250 multiple marine based proxy records to reconstruct PDV. Prior studies either relied on
251 terrestrial proxy records that were subject to influences of teleconnections or a small number
252 of coral records from a localized region. By using the HydroCoral2k network, we show that
253 there is a potential to improve PDV reconstructions using published proxy records within a
254 pseudoproxy framework. This open avenues to improve our understanding of PDV changes
255 and also calls for more high resolution marine based proxy records to be developed in the
256 Pacific basin.

257 Understanding the internal and external nature of PDV has significant implications on
258 near term climate predictions. Our work has advanced our understanding about PDV by
259 characterizing spatiotemporal fingerprints of internally driven and externally forced PDV
260 and determining how well current marine based proxies can capture PDV. Although, our
261 study is only based on one climate model, does not include an analysis on the impacts
262 of aerosols, and employs a pseudoproxy framework, these results are helpful to the climate

263 prediction and paleoclimate communities as we continue to try to improve our understanding
 264 about decadal variability in the Pacific.

265 **Open Research**

266 CESM-LME data are available on www.earthsystemgrid.org. HydroCoral2k data is
 267 available at Walter et al. (2022). The code to calculate mutual information and Shannon
 268 entropy by our methods will be made available at the Brown Digital Repository with doi
 269 provided upon acceptance.

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Supporting Information for “Internally Driven and Externally Forced Pacific Decadal Variability in the CESM Last Millennium Ensemble”

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Contents of this file

1. Text S1 to S3

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Text S1. PDO and TPI definitions

In this study, we relied on PDO and TPI to understand temporal characteristics of PDV. PDO is a principal component based index that is commonly used to characterize decadal SST variability in the north Pacific (Zhang et al., 1997), whereas TPI is an index that does not rely on principal components and is used to characterize basin-wide decadal SST variability (Henley et al., 2015). The PDO is defined as the first principal component of north Pacific ($20 - 70^{\circ}$ N; $110 - 260^{\circ}$ E) SST (Zhang et al., 1997), which was calculated before any filtering beyond the removal of the seasonal cycle. To avoid contamination from external forcings and allow direct comparison of the temporal characteristics of PDO between different forcing experiments, we calculated PDO by first defining their empirical orthogonal functions (EOFs) using the 850 CE pre-industrial simulation of CESM1.1, and then projecting them onto forced simulations. The seasonal cycle and global mean SST anomaly were removed from the preindustrial simulation latitudinally-weighted SST field prior to calculation. For other simulations, the latitudinally-weighted SST field was mean centered and the seasonal cycle was removed consistent with the preindustrial simulation training. The TPI is an index that does not rely on principal components and is used to characterize IPO (Henley et al., 2015). TPI is calculated by first removing the seasonal cycle from the temperature field, then computing the difference between temperature average of the eastern equatorial Pacific and the average temperature of the northwest and southwest Pacific (see Equation (1) in Henley et al. (2015) for details), and applying a 13-year low pass filter to the timeseries.

Text S2. Shannon Entropy and Mutual Information

We used Shannon Entropy and Mutual Information to quantify the relative role of internal variability and external variability on total PDV variability. Shannon Entropy is defined as (Shannon, 1948):

$$H = \sum_{i=1}^N p_i \log_2(1/p_i) \quad (1)$$

where H is the Shannon entropy with units of bits, and p_i is the probability of the i^{th} outcome. The factor $\log_2(1/p_i)$ measures the uncertainty shown by a variable or the freedom that a variable has in visiting different combinations of the N bins.

Mutual Information is defined as (Shannon, 1948):

$$I = \sum_{j=1}^N \sum_{i=1}^N p_{ij} \log_2 \left(\frac{p_{ij}}{p_i p_j} \right) \quad (2)$$

where p_{ij} is the joint probability of i^{th} outcome of x and j^{th} outcome of y . The marginal probability of i^{th} and j^{th} outcomes of x and y respectively are p_i and p_j . If the distributions are statistically independent, then $p_{ij} = p_i p_j$ and $I = 0$. Alternatively, if x and y are identical, then $p_{ij} = p_i = p_j$ and $I = H$.

Because the probability distribution in Shannon entropy and mutual information is estimated based on a binning procedure and the results are somewhat sensitive to binning choices, it is important to use an objective criterion to avoid biasing the probability estimates. Numerous techniques have been proposed to obtain optimal binning for precise measurements of information entropy (Papanas & Kugiumtzis, 2008). Here, we derived the histogram for Shannon entropy based on equidistant partitioning and determined the bin width based on the Freedman-Diaconis rule. The Freedman-Diaconis rule estimates the bin width by assuming the underlying distribution is Gaussian (Freedman & Diaconis,

1981). This bin width was then also used in marginal and joint probability distributions when calculating mutual information. Although a previous study showed the information theory metrics used here are sensitive to the uncertainty in bin width (Sane et al., 2024), slight deviation of the bin width from the optimal binning estimate does not appreciably change the ratio shown in Equation 1 in the main text, and the (Freedman & Diaconis, 1981) method seems to have the lowest bin uncertainty for geophysical applications (Chen, 2024). Until further research is done to improve the estimation of various entropies for data in the climate sciences, histogram based estimation is a reasonable approximation for practical purposes.

Text S3. Pseudoproxy Reconstruction

We carried out pseudoproxy reconstructions of annual PDO and IPO indices using the CESM-LME full forcing simulations to understand and quantify the advantage of a multiproxy record over a single proxy record based PDV reconstruction. To do so, we first identified coral records from the HydroCoral2k database (Walter et al., 2023) that are at least 80 years long, have an annual or higher temporal resolution, and are located in the North Pacific basin for PDO and the Pacific basin for IPO (Figure 1). Then, we isolated the model grid cell nearest to the proxy records and truncated these data points based on the temporal length of the proxy records. Since some proxy records do not have monthly resolution, we averaged the monthly timeseries that were isolated into annual timeseries. Afterwards, following prior pseudoproxy experiments, we added white noise ($\sigma=2$) into each annual timeseries to mimic characteristics of proxy records. Lastly, we used a nested

composite-plus-scaling approach (e.g., Wilson et al., 2006, 2010) to reconstruct annual PDO and annual IPO.

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