Coral oxygen isotope and in situ records capture the 2015/2016 El Niño event in the central equatorial Pacific

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Abstract

Coral oxygen isotopes (δ 180) from the central equatorial Pacific provide monthly-resolved records of El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) activity over past centuries to millennia. However, calibration studies using in situ data to assess the relative contributions of warming and freshening to coral δ 180 records are exceedingly rare. Furthermore, the fidelity of coral δ 180 records under the most severe thermal stress events is difficult to assess. Here, we present six coral δ 180 records and in situ temperature, salinity, and seawater δ 180 data from Kiritimati Island (2°N, 15°W) spanning the very strong 2015/16 El Niño event. Local sea surface temperature (SST) anomalies of +2.4±0.4°C and seawater δ 180 records can provide reliable reconstructions even during the largest class of El Niño events.

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25 **3 Key Points**

26	•	An ensemble of coral oxygen isotope timeseries from the central equatorial Pacific tracks
27		the 2015/16 El Niño event.

- Coral oxygen isotope records reflect ~70% contribution from warming and ~30% from
 freshening during the 2015/16 El Niño event.
- In situ seawater oxygen isotope data provide quantitative constraints on temperature
 versus hydrological contributions to coral records.
- 32 Abstract

Coral oxygen isotopes (δ^{18} O) from the central equatorial Pacific provide monthly-33 34 resolved records of El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) activity over past centuries to 35 millennia. However, calibration studies using *in situ* data to assess the relative contributions of warming and freshening to coral δ^{18} O records are exceedingly rare. Furthermore, the fidelity of 36 coral δ^{18} O records under the most severe thermal stress events is difficult to assess. Here, we 37 present six coral δ^{18} O records and *in situ* temperature, salinity, and seawater δ^{18} O data from 38 39 Kiritimati Island (2°N, 157°W) spanning the very strong 2015/16 El Niño event. Local sea surface temperature (SST) anomalies of +2.4 \pm 0.4°C and seawater δ^{18} O anomalies of -40 0.19±0.02‰ contribute to the observed coral δ^{18} O anomalies of -0.58±0.05‰, consistent with a 41 ~70% contribution from SST and ~30% from seawater δ^{18} O. Our results demonstrate that 42 Kiritimati coral δ^{18} O records can provide reliable reconstructions even during the largest class of 43 44 El Niño events.

45 Plain Language Summary

46 Oxygen isotope anomalies in coral skeletons provide reconstructions of year-to-year 47 ocean temperature variations in the tropical Pacific, which in turn have a profound influence on global temperature and rainfall extremes. However, only a handful of calibrations exist that 48 49 quantify the relationship between ocean temperature and coral isotopic composition at a given 50 site, especially across extreme events where this relationship may vary most strongly. Here we 51 compare ocean temperature data from loggers installed on the reef at Kiritimati Island (2°N, 52 157°W) to coral oxygen isotopic records spanning the record-breaking 2015/16 El Niño event. 53 We find that the corals provide accurate reconstructions of ocean temperature extremes during 54 this very strong El Niño event, with ~70% of the signal originating from ocean temperature and 55 the remainder from increased rainfall.

56 **1 Introduction**

57 The El Niño/Southern Oscillation (ENSO) is the dominant mode of interannual climate 58 variability, but its response to greenhouse warming remains highly uncertain (Stevenson, 2012, 59 Bellenger et al., 2014, Ng et al., 2021). Although projections of ENSO-related SST variability 60 differ across climate models, simulations forced with projected anthropogenic greenhouse gas 61 emissions generally agree on an increase in the hydrological extremes associated with ENSO 62 (Power et al., 2013; Cai et al., 2014, Bonfils et al., 2015, Brown et al., 2020). This tendency 63 translates to an increase in the occurrence of 'extreme' El Niño events (as defined based on 64 equatorial Pacific precipitation) under continued greenhouse warming (Cai et al., 2015), although 65 models reflect a range of responses (Stevenson et al. 2021). Another question is whether greenhouse gas-driven changes to ENSO have already taken place: observational studies of 20th 66 67 century ENSO extremes suggest a shift towards more Central Pacific warming events (Wang et 68 al., 2019), consistent with results from analysis of a large network of coral records spanning the

69 last several centuries (Freund et al., 2019). A number of paleoclimate ENSO reconstructions document enhanced late 20th-century ENSO variability relative to the preindustrial era 70 (McGregor et al., 2013; Li et al., 2013; Cobb et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2017; Grothe et al., 2020), 71 72 supporting the idea that greenhouse warming has already led to a significant shift in ENSO 73 properties. However, it remains unclear how much of the observed shift in ENSO variance is due 74 to a strengthening of SST anomalies or hydrological extremes during ENSO events. This is 75 especially true for the largest trove of monthly-resolved ENSO reconstructions based on modern and fossil corals from the central tropical Pacific, which documents a 25% increase in 76 77 interannual variability from the last millennia to the most recent decades (Grothe et al., 2020).

78 Oxygen isotope ratios (δ^{18} O) in corals from the central tropical Pacific track ENSO-related 79 changes in SST and hydrology, with warmer and wetter conditions during El Niño events driving negative coral δ^{18} O anomalies, while cool and dry conditions during La Niña events drive 80 positive coral δ^{18} O anomalies (Evans et al., 1999; Cobb et al., 2001; Nurhati et al., 2009). Cores 81 82 collected from living and fossil coral colonies have provided high-fidelity records of past ENSO 83 activity over recent decades (Cobb et al., 2001; Nurhati et al., 2009, 2011), centuries (Cobb et al., 84 2003), and millennia (Cobb et al., 2013; McGregor et al., 2013; Grothe et al., 2020). The largest 85 such dataset comes from Kiritimati Island (2°N, 157°W), where ENSO dominates coral δ¹⁸O variability as evidenced by correlation coefficients of ~0.80 between modern coral δ^{18} O records 86 87 and the NIÑO3.4 index (Grothe et al., 2020) - a key index of large-scale ENSO variability.

Bespite their high-fidelity representation of instrumental SST variability over the satellite era, coral δ^{18} O-based ENSO reconstructions are associated with a number of uncertainties. For one, extremely high SSTs during strong El Niño events can induce thermal stress, which slows

91 or halts coral calcification, limiting the ability of coral proxies to capture the full extent of 92 temperature SST change during such events (e.g., Carilli et al., 2017). Indeed, previous coral 93 studies from the Eastern Pacific and Western Atlantic have found skeletal growth hiatuses during 94 very strong El Niño events (Dunbar et al., 1994), as well as systematic geochemical biases 95 initiated by extreme El Niño events (Hetzinger et al., 2016). Due to limited coral ensemble sizes 96 and in situ climate data, it remains unknown how well corals from the central tropical Pacific record ENSO activity during extreme events. Second, coral δ^{18} O values reflect the combined 97 98 influence of SST and seawater $\delta^{18}O(\delta^{18}O_{sw})$, but the relative contribution of SST vs. seawater δ^{18} O to Kiritimati coral δ^{18} O records during ENSO extremes is difficult to assess without *in situ* 99 data. Previous work using paired Sr/Ca and coral δ^{18} O measurements showed a stronger than 100 normal $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ contribution in Kiritimati coral $\delta^{18}O$ during the very strong 1997/98 El Niño event 101 102 (McGregor et al., 2013), but coverage among multiple strong events paired with *in situ* data is 103 needed to better understand these contributions. In particular, there are no systematic surveys of 104 seawater δ^{18} O variations across El Niño events, even though such variability has been inferred 105 from both models and observational data (Fairbanks et al., 1997, Russon et al., 2013, Conroy et 106 al., 2014).

In this study, we present six new coral δ^{18} O records as well as *in situ* records of SST, salinity, and $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ from Kiritimati Island spanning the 2015/16 El Niño event, one of the strongest El Niño events on record. These data allow us to quantify the oceanographic changes that occurred across this event, and their contribution to the observed coral δ^{18} O anomalies. By comparing our results from the 2015/16 El Niño event to available coral δ^{18} O records and *in situ* SST, salinity, and $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ data from Kiritimati across past strong El Niño events of the 20th

113 century, we assess the stability of the relationship between SST, $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$, and coral $\delta^{18}O$ across 114 different El Niño events. This assessment is key to improving interpretation of coral $\delta^{18}O$ records 115 from the region.

116 **2 Methods**

117 Six modern coral cores from *Porites* spp. were recovered from a leeward open ocean reef flat 118 ranging from 20-30 ft depth (labelled "drill site" on Figure S1) at Kiritimati Island during expeditions in April and November 2016. The cores were prepared and analyzed for coral δ^{18} O 119 120 composition using standard procedures (Sayani et al., 2019, see Supplement for X-rays) on either 121 a Thermo-Finnigan Delta V or MAT253, both equipped with a Kiel IV Carbonate Device, with 122 analytical precisions of $\pm 0.05\%$ (1 σ) and $\pm 0.06\%$ (1 σ), respectively. Age models for each record were reconstructed by peak matching the coral δ^{18} O data with 1° x 1° monthly NOAA 123 124 OISSTv2 SST data (Reynolds et al., 2002) from the grid box containing Kiritimati Island, 125 following procedures outlined in Cobb (2002). Each record covers the 2015/16 El Niño event 126 and extends back 3-9 years prior to the event, depending on core length. Following Sayani et al. 127 (2019), we apply offsets of up to 0.19‰ to each record to align them to a common ensemble 128 mean (see Supplement).

We also present *in situ* SST, salinity, and $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ data spanning the 2015/16 El Niño event from Kiritimati Island. We present continuous time series of SST from a Seabird SBE56 temperature logger (Site 5 logger), and SST and salinity from a Seabird SBE37 conductivitytemperature-depth (CTD) sensor (see Figure S1 for locations). We present 97 paired salinity and $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ data from seawater samples collected during field expeditions to Kiritimati Island from 2014 to 2016, and ~30 paired salinity and $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ samples collected on the RV Moana Wave

from October to November, 1997. We include two *in situ* SST logger datasets from Kiritimati Island presented by Claar et al., 2019 in our analyses: the first from the drill site, where corals in this study were collected, and the second from a southward-facing reef flat several kilometers away (Figure S1). We also use data from three gridded SST products, using the grid point closest to Kiritimati Island: $1^{\circ}x1^{\circ}$ weekly OISSTv2, $1^{\circ}x1^{\circ}$ monthly HadISSTv1.1 (Rayner et al., 2003), and $2^{\circ}x2^{\circ}$ monthly ERSSTv5 (Huang et al., 2017).

142 **3 Results**

143 **3.1 Coral \delta^{18}O records**

All six coral δ^{18} O records closely follow instrumental SST and are highly reproducible on 144 monthly to annual timescales (Figure 1). Most of the variability in coral δ^{18} O is driven by ENSO, 145 146 as seasonal SST variability at this site is relatively small. The records are well correlated with 147 ERSSTv5, HadISST, and OISSTv2 (R between -0.81 and -0.91, p<0.05, Table S8). A composite coral δ^{18} O record formed by averaging overlapping records has a greater correlation with these 148 SST products than any individual record (R ~ -0.93; Figure 1b, Table S8). All coral δ^{18} O records 149 150 demonstrate consistent monthly variability across the study period, with correlations among records ranging between 0.64 and 0.90 (p<0.05). The 1σ spread in coral δ^{18} O values during any 151 given month of overlapping coral δ^{18} O records ranges from 0.04‰ to 0.24‰, with the maximum 152 153 variance occurring in November 2015, during the peak of the 2015/16 El Nino event.

During the 3-month peak of the event (October 2015 to December 2015), all six coral records exhibit significant coral δ^{18} O depletion (mean of -5.59 ± 0.05‰ (1SE)) coinciding with warmer and fresher conditions. For the two-year baseline preceding the El Niño event (from January 2013 to January 2015, ending 9 months prior to the 3-month peak), the coral δ^{18} O records exhibit 158 a mean isotopic value of -5.01 \pm 0.02‰ (1 standard error (1SE)), reflecting a change in coral

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$$\delta^{18}$$
O of -0.58 ± 0.05‰ (1SE).

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Figure 1. Coral δ^{18} O records (colored lines) from Kiritimati Island plotted with monthly resolved ERSSTv5 (gray dashed line) at Kiritimati Island (note inverted y-axis for coral δ^{18} O). (a) New modern coral δ^{18} O records spanning the 2015/16 El Niño event as presented in this study. (b) Same as in (a), but with the ensemble mean of the corals shown. Coral δ^{18} O offsets have been applied (Supplement) and are denoted in the legend in panel (a) in units of per mil.

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169 **3.2** *In situ* SST, salinity, and seawater δ^{18} O measurements

170 We compare *in situ* SST, salinity, and $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ from Kiritimati Island to constrain the 171 individual contributions of SST and $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ to coral $\delta^{18}O$ during 2015/16 El Niño event. The 172 four *in situ* SST datasets all capture the 2015/16 El Niño event with varying coverage (Figure

173 2a). Monthly averaged *in situ* SST timeseries exhibit strong correlations with all three gridded 174 SST data products (R values of 0.90 to 0.99, Table S8). We calculate change in SST across the 175 2015/16 El Niño by subtracting the 2-year-averaged baseline SST (2013-2015) from the 3-month 176 peak of the event. Using just the Site 5 logger (which has the longest coverage across this event), 177 we calculate an increase in SST of 2.4 ± 0.4 °C (1SE) at Kiritimati Island. In comparison, 178 ERSSTv5 and HadISST show similar warming of 2.4 ± 0.4 °C (1SE) and 2.4 ± 0.3 °C (1SE), 179 respectively, and OISSTv2 shows a slightly larger change of $2.8 \pm 0.5^{\circ}$ C (1SE). 180 To constrain the hydrological contribution to the interannual variability in the coral records, we analyze in situ CTD salinity and salinity/ $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ from seawater bottle samples (Figures 2b 181 182 and 2c). Due to the shorter duration of these timeseries, we use a 1-year baseline from mid-2014 183 to mid-2015 to calculate the change in salinity during the event. The CTD tracks a decrease in 184 salinity of 0.91 \pm 0.05 psu (1SE), reaching a value of 34.14 psu during the peak of the El Niño 185 event. Salinity data from 148 seawater bottle samples show a mean decrease of 0.96 ± 0.08 psu 186 (1SE), reaching a mean value of 34.41 psu during the peak of the event. Although the absolute 187 salinity of the two data sources is offset by approximately 0.3 psu (which may be attributed to 188 differences in instrumental calibration), they capture the same relative change across the study interval. Using the same time periods as the salinity calculation, the $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ data capture a 189 190 decrease of $0.19 \pm 0.02\%$ (1SE), reaching a mean of 0.19% during the peak of the event. We 191 note that the use of a 1-year baseline here may underestimate the magnitude of the El Niño

anomalies, as there is less warming (and likely less freshening) from this 2014/15 baseline
(Figure 1). We account for this in conclusions based on this calculation.



Figure 2. In situ SST, salinity, and $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ data spanning the 2015/16 El Niño event at Kiritimati Island. (a) Weekly SST records from 4 *in situ* temperature loggers (see Figure S1 for locations). Also plotted are weekly OISSTv2, monthly HadISSTv1.1, and monthly ERSSTv5. (b) Salinity records from the CTD (red) and seawater bottle samples (green circles). (c) Seawater $\delta^{18}O$ measurements from seawater bottle samples (blue diamonds). Orange lines represent the median of the $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ data, the boxes show the 25-75% interquartile range.

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202 **3.3 Comparison to past strong El Niño events**

203 Coral δ^{18} O timeseries from Kiritimati Island show progressive depletion in mean coral δ^{18} O 204 during the peaks of the 1982/83, 1997/98, and 2015/16 strong El Niño events. Mean coral δ^{18} O 205 anomalies (3-month average centered around the peak of each event) were -5.23‰ during the

206 peak of the 1982/83 El Niño event, decreased to -5.49‰ during the 1997/98 event, and then 207 decreased to -5.59‰ during the 2015/16 event (Figure 3, Table 1). However, these El Niño are 208 superimposed on background warming and freshening trends in the tropical Pacific (Nurhati et al., 2009), which produce more depleted coral δ^{18} O values over this time interval. When the 209 210 magnitude of each event is isolated from the mean state of the Pacific (by taking the difference 211 between the 3-month average during the peak and the 2-year baseline prior to the event; Figure 3), a student t-test (p<0.05) shows no statistically significant difference in coral δ^{18} O magnitude 212 213 of these three events (Figure S3).

The amplitude of the 1997/98 event, both in terms of coral δ^{18} O and observed SST, is similar 214 215 to that of the 2015/16 event. Five out of six corals that span the 1997/98 event show similar 216 depletion in coral δ^{18} O during the peak of the 1997/98 event. The sixth coral (Nurhati-09) does 217 not fully capture SST and SSS changes across this event (Figure 3), possibly due to thermal 218 stress or sublethal bleaching (Nurthati et al., 2009). Excluding this record, the amplitude of the 219 1997/98 event is $-0.56 \pm 0.06\%$ (1SE), which is indistinguishable from the $-0.58 \pm 0.05\%$ (1SE) 220 amplitude of the 2015/2016 event. Similarly, ERSSTv5 shows statistically indistinguishable SST 221 anomalies during the 1997/98 El Niño and 2015/16 El Niño (+2.1 \pm 0.8°C vs 2.4 \pm 0.4 °C, 222 respectively; Figure 3). Similar results are found when this calculation is performed with 223 OISSTv2 and HadISST (Figure S4, Table S8).

As limited salinity and $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ data is available from the 1997/98 event, we only compare bottle $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ measurements from the peaks of the 1997/98 and 2015/16 events. Salinity during November 1997 reached a mean of 34.17 psu, slightly lower than that of the 2015/16 event mean in SW bottles (34.41 psu). Seawater $\delta^{18}O$ reached a minimum of 0.11‰ during October 1997, significantly less than the 0.19‰ observed during the peak of the 2015/16 event. Thus, available data show that the 1997/98 El Niño event was characterized by similar changes in coral δ^{18} O and SST but slightly lower minimum salinity and seawater δ^{18} O values compared to the 2015/16 event.

For the 1982/83 event, we use two of the three coral δ^{18} O records that span this interval to 232 233 calculate anomalies associated with this strong El Niño, excluding the Nurhati et al., 2009 record 234 as the authors note that it does not fully capture SST and SSS changes across the peak of the event. We calculate a coral δ^{18} O amplitude of -0.52 ± 0.05‰ (1SE) for the 1982/83 event, which 235 236 is statistically indistinguishable from the 1997/98 and 2015/16 events (Figure S3). ERSSTv5 237 shows an increase of $\pm 1.7 \pm 0.3$ °C (1SE) at Kiritimati across the 1982/83 El Niño, again 238 statistically indistinguishable from SST during the 1997/98 and 2015/16 events (Figure S3) and 239 consistent with previous work (Huang et al., 2016).

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Figure 3. Coral δ^{18} O records (solid lines) and monthly SST (dashed lines) during the (a) 243 244 1982/83, (b) 1997/98, and (c) 2015/16 El Niño. Horizontal bars at the top of each panel show the 245 2-year baseline (gray) and 3-month peak (red) periods used to calculate SST and coral δ^{18} O anomalies for each El Niño event. Coral δ^{18} O records shown are the "X16" corals (this study), 246 "X12-3" and "X12-6" (Grothe et al., 2020), "X12-FS" fossil corals and "X12-D6-1" fossil coral 247 248 (Hitt et al., submitted), "Nurhati-09" (Nurhati et al., 2009), and "Evans-99" (Evans et al., 1999). 249 Coral records are plotted with offsets applied, as shown in Tables S1 and S2. Gridded SST data are from ERSSTv5 and OISSTv2. Seawater δ^{18} O (open circles) and sea surface salinity (open 250 251 diamonds) measurements are shown where available.



To quantify the relative contributions of SST and $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ to coral $\delta^{18}O$ during the 2015/16 El 254 Niño event, we calculated the expected temperature contribution to coral δ^{18} O using the 255 empirical relationship of -0.2% °C⁻¹ (Epstein et al., 1951), and then subtract the temperature 256 contribution from coral δ^{18} O to isolate δ^{18} O_{sw} changes (Supplement). The SST change of +2.4 ± 257 258 0.4°C (1SE) calculated from ERSSTv5 during the 2015/16 event corresponds to an expected coral δ^{18} O change of -0.48 ± 0.08‰ (1SE). As the observed coral δ^{18} O change during this event 259 is -0.58 \pm 0.05% (1SE), we estimate a $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ contribution of -0.10 \pm 0.08% (1SE), which 260 implies that $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ accounts for 18 ± 13% (1SE) of the observed coral $\delta^{18}O$ change during the 261 262 2015/16 event, with SST contributing to the remaining $82 \pm 13\%$ (1SE ; Table 1 and S4). We 263 find similar results when repeating this calculation with OISSTv2 and HadISST (Tables S5-S8). 264 We note that SST uncertainty dominates this calculation, and a full propagation of the 2SE uncertainties through SST, coral δ^{18} O, and δ^{18} O_{sw} would likely double the range of permissible 265 266 percentages.

The *in situ* $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ measurements provide a powerful additional constraint on the coral $\delta^{18}O$ budget, given the weak constraints afforded by SST and coral $\delta^{18}O$ observations outlined above. Given the observed change in $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ of -0.19 ± 0.02‰ (1SE) during the peak of the 2015/16 El Niño, the $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ contribution is constrained to ~30-35% (including all values that fall within the 1 SE uncertainty range; Tables 1, S4, Figure S5). These values do not change if different SST products are used (Tables S5, S6), and are relatively insensitive to the choice of 1-year versus 2year baselines for the calculations of anomalies (Table S7).

Using the same approach, we calculate the SST and $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ contributions to coral $\delta^{18}O$ changes across the 1997/98 and 1982/83 El Niño events (Tables 1, S5), although the lack of observed $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ data translates to large uncertainties in these estimates. For the 1997/98 event,

we find a hydrological contribution of approximately $26 \pm 28\%$ (1SE), which is similar in mean but associated with larger uncertainty. For the 1982/83 event, we find a $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ contribution of 34 $\pm 13\%$ (1SE). In short, we find consistent relative contributions from SST and $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ anomalies (roughly 70% and 30%, respectively) to coral $\delta^{18}O$ anomalies across the three strong El Niño events in question.

Table 1. Comparison of SST (from ERSSTv5) and estimated $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ contributions to observed coral $\delta^{18}O$ anomalies associated with strong El Niño events at Kiritimati Island. Changes are calculated as the 3-month peak of the event minus a 2-year baseline, reported with 1SE uncertainties (Supplement, Table S4). For the 2015/16 event, observed changes in $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ and associated contributions are also shown, with 1SE uncertainty, calculating using the available 1year baseline.

		1982/83 Event	1997/98 Event	2015/16 Event
Α	Observed peak mean coral $\delta^{18}O$	-5.23 ± 0.07 ‰	-5.49 ± 0.10 ‰	-5.59 ± 0.05 ‰
В	Observed $\Delta \operatorname{coral} \delta^{18}O$	-0.52 ± 0.05 ‰	-0.56 ± 0.06 ‰	-0.58 ± 0.05 ‰
С	Observed ΔSST (ERSSTv5)	+1.7 ± 0.3 °C	+2.1 ± 0.8 °C	$+2.4 \pm 0.4$ °C
D	Estimated SST-driven $\Delta \operatorname{coral} \delta^{18}O$ (<i>C</i> x 0.2 ‰°C ⁻¹)	-0.35 ± 0.07 ‰	-0.42 ± 0.16 ‰	-0.48 ± 0.08 ‰
E	Estimated $\Delta \text{ sw } \delta^{18} \text{O}$ (B - D)	-0.18 ± 0.07 ‰	-0.14 ± 0.15 ‰	-0.10 ± 0.08 ‰
F	Observed $\Delta \text{ sw } \delta^{18}$ O (SW bottle samples)	N/A	N/A	-0.19 ± 0.02 ‰
G	Estimated sw δ^{18} O contribution (<i>E/B</i> x 100)	34 ± 13 %	26 ± 28 %	18 ± 13 %
Н	Observed sw δ^{18} O contribution (<i>F</i> / <i>B</i> * 100)	N/A	N/A	33 ± 4 %

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290 4 Discussion and Conclusions

Our analysis of Kiritimati coral records demonstrates that corals δ^{18} O at this site faithfully 291 292 record SST and hydrological anomalies associated with the strongest El Niño events. Paired in situ temperature, seawater δ^{18} O, and coral δ^{18} O confirm that all six cores collected in 2016 293 accurately capture the SST and $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ changes observed during the 2015/2016 El Nino event, 294 295 within uncertainties (Figure S5). We observe no evidence of hiatuses in x-rays of our cores 296 (Figure S6), such as those found in Galapagos coral during strong El Niños (Dunbar et al., 1994, Jimenez et al., 2018), nor do we observe any signs of thermal stress in our coral δ^{18} O data (e.g., 297 Hetzinger et al., 2016). However, we observe the largest variance in coral δ^{18} O during peak El 298 Niño warming, which could bias studies of past El Niño amplitudes based on single coral δ^{18} O 299 300 records. Nurhati et al., 2009 hypothesized that the attenuated signal of the 1997/98 El Niño event in their Kiritimati coral δ^{18} O records may have resulted from a reduced precipitation or a growth 301 hiatus. Alternatively, high coral δ^{18} O variance during peak El Niño conditions may reflect more 302 meter-scale variance in temperature and seawater δ^{18} O during El Niño extremes, given the strong 303 304 gradients that occur at this time between the surface and depth, and between the lagoon and the 305 open ocean, during a prolonged period of reduced wind-driven mixing.

Our investigation of the relative contributions of SST and $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ anomalies to Kiritimati coral $\delta^{18}O$ anomalies across the 2015/16 El Niño event shows that SST conditions are responsible for ~70% of the coral $\delta^{18}O$ signal. Similar estimates for SST contributions to Kiritimati coral $\delta^{18}O$ records spanning the 1982/83 and 1997/98 El Niño events (mean values of 66 ± 13 and $74 \pm 28\%$, respectively) bolsters our confidence in our findings from the 2015/16 El Niño event, although these estimates are associated with much larger uncertainties given the lack of *in situ* $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ observations. Our findings are consistent with isotope-enabled climate model studies (Russon et al., 2013) which found an upper bound of 75% for the SST contribution to Kiritimati coral $\delta^{18}O$, as well as with previous empirically derived estimates (e.g., McGregor et al., 2011).

When placed within the context of centuries worth of coral δ^{18} O data from Kiritimati Island 316 317 and nearby sites, our results provide key constraints on the physical drivers of the recent intensification of interannual coral δ^{18} O variability in central tropical Pacific corals (Grothe et 318 al., 2020). Given that our results show a ~30% contribution from $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ to the coral $\delta^{18}O$ 319 320 anomalies during the three largest El Niño events in recent decades, it is unlikely that the observed ~25% increase in interannual coral δ^{18} O variability in recent decades relative to the 321 322 past millennia (Grothe et al., 2020) is caused exclusively by an amplification of the hydrologic 323 response to ENSO-related SST anomalies. Furthermore, instrumental climate data indicate that 324 regional freshening is dynamically linked to warm SST anomalies during El Niño events in this location (Ropelewski and Halpert, 1987), suggesting that the observed increase in coral $\delta^{18}O$ 325 326 variability is driven by an increase in both temperature and hydrological variability.

Our data support the fidelity of Kiritimati coral δ^{18} O records for long-term ENSO 327 328 reconstruction, even under extreme temperature stress associated with a very strong El Niño event. Taken together, the coral δ^{18} O records, *in situ* SST, and δ^{18} O_{sw} data analyzed here show 329 that SST dominates the ENSO-related coral δ^{18} O signal (~70%), with a smaller influence from 330 $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ (~30%). Such quantitative constraints are made possible by *in situ* seawater $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ 331 332 observations collected across the event, demonstrating the value of prioritizing in situ seawater δ^{18} O observations in the design of regional to global-scale ocean observing systems, including 333 334 TPOS2020 (Kessler et al., 2019). Calibration studies such as these are necessary to better understand the ENSO signals captured in coral δ^{18} O records and provide insight on signals captured by coral records over longer timescales. Our results suggest that a documented increase in interannual coral δ^{18} O variability at the site from the preindustrial to the present (Grothe et al., 2020) likely reflects an increase in ENSO-related SST.

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