

1    Supplementary Information: Regression methods

2    In the general case, we denote  $Y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  the predictand, which corresponds to the AMV index,  
3    and  $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ , which corresponds to the matrix of observations from  $p$  proxy records  
4    associated to the observations of  $Y$ . We then denote  $x' \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$ , other observations for  
5    which we search to reconstruct  $Y$ . Each regression method needs to optimise one or more  
6    statistical parameters. For example, for PCR, the reconstruction is highly sensitive to the  
7    number of Principal Components used for regressing the climate index. Hence, each of these  
8    statistical parameters are optimized using K-Fold cross validation metric (KFCF, with K=10 in  
9    this study) (cf. Methods, section “K-Fold cross-validation (KFCV)”)<sup>49,97,98</sup>.

10    - Principal Components Regression (PCR):

11    The PCR<sup>49</sup> consists in finding the best linear combination to regress  $Y$  using the principal  
12    components of  $x$ . We denote  $S = x^T x \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$ , the variance-covariance matrix of  $x$ , where  
13     $x^T$  is the transposed vector of  $x$ . The eigenvectors of  $S$ , or Empirical Orthogonal Functions  
14    (EOFs), denoted  $V = (v^j)_{1 \leq j \leq p}$ , are obtained by diagonalising  $S$ , which is equivalent to  
15    calculate the EOFs such that the variance of the projection of  $x$  on themselves is maximized.  
16    The Principal Components (PCs), denoted  $U = (u^j)_{1 \leq j \leq p}$ , are calculated by projecting  $x$  on  
17     $V$ :  $U = xV$ . Using KFCV (cf. Methods, section “K-Fold cross-validation (KFCV)”), we determine  
18     $q \leq p$  PCs kept for the regression. The PCR model is constructed by estimating the best linear  
19    regression between  $(U^1, \dots, U^q)$  and  $Y$ . The linear regression model is:

20     $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 U^1 + \dots + \beta_q U^q + \varepsilon$ , where  $\varepsilon$  is a gaussian white noise.

21     $\beta = (\beta_k)_{0 \leq k \leq q}$  is estimated by  $\hat{\beta} = (\hat{\beta}_k)_{0 \leq k \leq q}$ , defined as the Ordinary Least Squares  
22    estimator. The extended AMV index is obtained by applying the estimated regression  
23    coefficients to the projected new observations on the EOFs:

$$\hat{Y}_q = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 U^1 + \dots + \hat{\beta}_q U^q$$

24 - Partial Least Squares (PLS):

25 PLS regression<sup>50</sup> is an alternative to the PCR, where the EOFs, are calculated such that they  
26 are orthogonal and that the covariance between  $Y$  and the projection of  $x$  on the EOFs is  
27 maximized. To do so, we need to resolve the following dependent equations:

$$\begin{aligned}v^1 &= \arg \max_{\substack{\nu \in \mathbb{R} \\ |\nu|=1}} \text{Cov}(Y, X\nu) \\v^2 &= \arg \max_{\substack{\nu \in \mathbb{R} \\ |\nu|=1 \\ v^T v^1 = 0}} \text{Cov}(Y, X\nu) \\&\dots \\v^p &= \arg \max_{\substack{\nu \in \mathbb{R} \\ |\nu|=1 \\ v^T v^1 = 0 \\ \dots \\ v^T v^{p-1} = 0}} \text{Cov}(Y, X\nu)\end{aligned}$$

28  
29 Analogously to the PCR, the latent variables (LVs; PCs analog in PLS) are calculated by  
30 projecting  $X$  on the matrix  $V = (v^j)_{1 \leq j \leq p}$ :  $U = xV$ . Using KFCV (cf. Methods, section “K-Fold  
31 Cross-Validation (KFCV)”), we determine  $l \leq p$  LVs kept for the regression. We then construct  
32 the regression model by estimating the best linear regression between  $(U^1, \dots, U^l)$  and  $Y$ :

33  $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 U^1 + \dots + \beta_q U^q + \varepsilon$  where  $\varepsilon$  is a gaussian white noise.

34  $\beta = (\beta_k)_{0 \leq k \leq q}$  is estimated by  $\hat{\beta} = (\hat{\beta}_k)_{0 \leq k \leq q}$ , the Ordinary Least Squares estimator. The  
35 extended AMV index is then obtained by applying the estimated regression coefficients to  
36 the projected new observations on the EOFs:

$$\hat{Y}_q = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 U^1 + \dots + \hat{\beta}_q U^q$$

37 - Elastic Net regression (Enet):

38 In the multiple regression case,  $\hat{\beta} = (\hat{\beta}_0, \dots, \hat{\beta}_p)$  is estimated by the Ordinary Least Squares  
39 estimator. This usual regression is known to often result in a poor reconstruction accuracy  
40 due to several assumptions made on the original data, such as homoscedasticity. Previous  
41 studies developed regularized regression approaches to overcome the OLS defaults. The  
42 Elastic Net regression<sup>51</sup> is a combination of the Ridge regression and the Lasso regression.

43 The Ridge regression shrinks towards zero the estimated coefficients associated to predictors  
 44 unlinked to the predictand. By contrast, Lasso also reduces the variability of the estimates,  
 45 but in this case by shrinking to zero the estimated coefficients associated to unreliable  
 46 variables. Hence, a selection is made by rejecting variables associated to coefficients shrunk  
 47 to zero.

48 A regularized regression adds a threshold constraint using the  $l_k$ norm of  $\beta$ :  $\|\beta\|_k^k =$   
 49  $\sum_{j=1}^k |\beta_j|^k$ . With  $k=1$  for Lasso and  $k=2$  for Ridge. The loss function of Elastic Net is given by:

$$L^{enet}(\beta) = \left\| Y - \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j X^j \right\|_2^2 + \lambda_1 \sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j| + \lambda_2 \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2$$

50 Where,  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  are penalty factors.

51 Let  $w = (w_j)_{1 \leq j \leq p} = (sgn(\beta_j))_{1 \leq j \leq p}$ , where  $sgn$  is the sign function. The loss function can  
 52 then be denoted as:

$$53 \quad L^{enet} = \|Y - X\beta\|_2^2 + \lambda_1 w^T \beta + \lambda_2 \beta^T \beta$$

54 The estimated coefficients by minimizing the loss functions are:

$$55 \quad \hat{\beta}^{enet} = (X^T X + (1 - \alpha) \lambda I)^{-1} (X^T Y - \frac{\alpha \lambda}{2} w)$$

56 Where  $\alpha \in [0,1]$ . If  $\alpha = 1$ , a Ridge regression is performed, and if  $\alpha = 0$ , a Lasso regression  
 57 is performed.

58 The reconstruction is obtained by applying the estimated regression coefficients  $\hat{\beta}^{enet}$  on  
 59  $x^1, \dots, x^p$ .

$$60 \quad \hat{Y}_{\lambda, \alpha} = \sum_{j=1}^p x^j \hat{\beta}_j^{enet}$$

61 The optimization of  $\alpha$  and  $\lambda$  is performed using KFCV (cf. Methods, section “K-Fold cross-  
 62 validation (KFCV)”) for both by crossing different possible values for each of them. As they  
 63 respectively take their values in the continuous sets  $[0,1]$  and  $\mathbb{R}^p$ , they have to be

64 discretized. The more they are, the more robust the reconstruction will be, at the expance of  
65 the computational time.

66 Random Forest (RF):

67 The RF regression has been introduced in the early 21<sup>st</sup> century<sup>52</sup> and consists in aggregating  
68 regression trees.

69 We denote each set of predictand/predictor  $\{(Y_i, x_i)\}_{1 \leq i \leq n}$  put on the root of the tree. The  
70 first step consists in cutting that root in two child nodes. A cut is defined as:  $\{x^j \leq d\} \cup$   
71  $\{x^j \geq d\}$ . Where  $j \in \{1, \dots, p\}$  and  $d \in R$ . Cutting a node with  $\{x^j \leq d\} \cup \{x^j \geq d\}$ , means  
72 that the years of observations for which the  $j^{th}$  value of the proxy record is lower than  $d$  are  
73 placed in the left child node  $c_1$  and the others in the right child node  $c_2$ . The method selects  
74 the best pair  $(j, d)$  that minimizes a loss function. Here, we aim at minimizing the variance of  
75  $Y$  in each child node. The variance of a given node  $c$  is defined as:

$$\sum_{i: x_i \in c} (Y_i - \bar{Y}_c)^2$$

76 Where  $\bar{Y}_c = \frac{1}{\text{card}(c)} \sum_{i: x_i \in c} Y_i$ .

77 Two subsets of  $\{(Y_i, x_i)\}_{1 \leq i \leq n}$  are thus obtained through the optimal cut:  $\{(Y_i, x_i)_{i \in c_1}\}$  and  
78  $\{(Y_i, x_i)_{i \in c_2}\}$ .

79 The same procedure is recursively applied to the child nodes  $c_1$  and  $c_2$ . We then stop these  
80 recursive calculations when a chosen depth of the tree is reached.

81 There exists different kind of regression trees<sup>14</sup> in random forest, the commonly used  
82 regression trees are called random-input regression trees. It consists in only a randomly  
83 selected set of  $q < p$  variables between  $(x^j)_{1 \leq j \leq p}$  used for constructing the tree. A large  
84 number of K random-input regression trees is computed. For each tree,  $q < p$  proxy records  
85 are randomly selected with probability  $\frac{1}{p}$  and the method is applied until the depth of the

86 tree reaches  $m$ . It should be noted that for each tree, the  $q$  selected variables can contain  
87 variables not used if it does not give any optimal cut through the different nodes. Thereby, a  
88 single variable can be used more than one time in the same tree.

89 The reconstruction is obtained by splitting each testing series in the different random input  
90 regression trees previous constructed. In each tree, the estimation attributed to an  
91 observation is the empirical average of  $Y$  inside the node where the corresponding  
92 observation ends up, given the cuts made on the corresponding predictors. For each testing  
93 series, the  $K$  reconstructions are averaged to give the final reconstruction.

94 A priori, this method requires the optimization of two parameters: the number of trees  $K$  and  
95 the number of proxy records for each tree  $m$ . In practice,  $K$  does not require to be tuned, as  
96 long as  $K$  is large given  $p$ , which guarantees convergent reconstructions for a given  $m$ .  $m$  is  
97 the only parameter to optimize here. KFCV (cf. Methods, section “K-Fold Cross-Validation  
98 (KFCV)”) is then applied to optimize  $m$ , with a high  $K$  (here set to 200, different  $K$  than the  
99 KFCV one), to empirically select the best RF model.

100 We here simplified the Random Forests theory such that only the main steps are presented.  
101 However, this theory is complex and for more information, the reader can refer to ref. 52.