1	Short-lived climate forcers have a long-term climate
2	forcing through the climate-carbon feedback
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19 Abstract

Short-lived climate forcers (SLCFs) are dubbed because of their shorter atmospheric 20 lifetime in comparison with CO₂. SLCFs are generally assumed to have only a short-term 21 effect on the climate system: should their emission cease, so would their radiative forcing 22 (RF). However, SLCFs have an effect on the carbon cycle through climate-carbon feedbacks. 23 24 In this study, we quantify the following feedback loop: SLCF change the climate, climate 25 change modifies land and ocean carbon sinks, impacting the atmospheric CO₂, and therefore causing additional climate change. The compact Earth System Model OSCAR v2.2 is used to 26 attribute the present-day RF of CO₂ to direct CO₂ emissions and to the climate-carbon 27 feedbacks. This study illustrates and quantifies this long-term impact that short-lived species 28 have on the climate system through the carbon cycle. It also indicates that past (and future) 29 30 change in atmospheric CO_2 cannot be attributed only to CO_2 emissions.

31

32 Introduction

33 SLCFs are substances with a relatively short lifetime in the atmosphere compared to CO_2^{1} . They include methane, ozone and aerosols (anthropogenic and natural), and their 34 respective impact on clouds ²⁻⁵. By warming or cooling the climate, SLCFs also affect the 35 carbon cycle through the climate-carbon feedback $loop^{6-11}$. Although there are differences in 36 estimates of the climate-carbon feedback between models, it is a consensus that warming or 37 higher temperature increases atmospheric CO_2 concentration¹², which is a positive feedback 38 process. A few studies have estimated the influence of aerosol cooling effects on terrestrial 39 carbon cycling, although there are large variations among the results¹³⁻¹⁵. In addition, it is 40 41 understood that the climate effects of SLCFs through the climate-carbon feedback are longer-term compared to their own lifetime^{16,17}, but quantification of the time-scale of this 42 43 effect remains limited.

In this study, we used the compact Earth system model OSCAR v2.2¹⁸ to evaluate the contributions of SLCFs to the radiative forcing (RF) of CO_2 in 2010 through the climate-carbon feedback. Here, the role of SLCFs is through the direct radiative imbalance

they cause and therefore impact on temperature. Other impacts, e.g. the impact of aerosols on 47 diffuse radiation and therefore photosynthesis, the impact of ozone damage on plant function 48 and therefore photosynthesis are not included. To do so, we proceeded in three steps. First, 49 50 we attributed historical climate change to the radiative forcing caused by all anthropogenic 51 and natural climate forcers, as reported by the IPCC in their fifth assessment report (AR5). Second, we attributed the historical change in atmospheric CO₂ concentration and its RF to 52 fossil fuel (FF) CO₂ emissions, land-use change (LUC) CO₂ emissions, and to the 53 54 climate-carbon feedback. Third, we combined the first two steps to attribute the climate-carbon feedback to the non-CO₂ climate forcers, which includes the SLCFs like 55 methane, ozone and aerosols in particular. The 'marginal attribution method' is used here (see 56 Methods for more details). 57

58 OSCAR is a model of reduced-complexity that embeds modules for the terrestrial carbon cycle, the oceanic carbon cycle, and the climate system that were all calibrated to reproduce 59 the response of complex process-based CMIP5 Earth system models¹⁸. The carbon cycle in 60 OSCAR consists of two components: ocean and land. The ocean carbon cycle includes the 61 62 dissolution of anthropogenic CO_2 in the surface ocean and transport to the deep ocean. The 63 land carbon cycle includes the response to change in CO₂ concentration or climate. The model was used in a previous study to investigate another aspect of the climate-carbon 64 feedback¹⁰. And the model performs well compared to CMIP5 models in the same '1pct CO₂' 65 experiment¹⁹ when calculating the feedback sensitivities (Extended Data Fig.2-4). The RF 66 attribution itself followed an established methodology that we previously used to quantify the 67 68 contribution of Chinese emissions of greenhouse gases and aerosols to the global present-day RF²⁰. To illustrate the attribution exercise and the model response to a perturbation of SLCF, 69 we performed an idealized experiment before the main result. We removed one year of the 70 71volcano forcing of year 1964, to study the model's response to this pulse of SLCF, both in 72 intensity and time scale.

73

74 Results

75 Figure 1 shows this response, calculated as the difference between the simulation without the volcanic SLCF pulse of year 1964 (Rm64) and a control simulation with it (Figure 1a). It 76 shows that in OSCAR, the effects of a pulse of SLCF on temperature and atmospheric CO₂ 77 78 concentration are lagging in time behind the pulse duration (Figure 1b and 1c). After 79 removing the 1964 volcanic RF, the peak response of global mean surface temperature (GMST) was faster than the peak response of atmospheric CO₂ concentration, with time lag 80 81 of a few years. Notably, the response of GMST returned to its base level at a faster pace than 82 that of atmospheric CO_2 . The response of atmospheric CO_2 is further split into the response of the terrestrial carbon cycle (Figure 1d) and that of the ocean carbon cycle (Figure 1e). 83 84 Immediately after removing the 1964 negative volcanic RF, climate is warmer than in the control simulation (Fig. 1b), causing a positive anomaly of atmospheric CO₂ (Fig. 1c), 85 86 because carbon sinks are transiently weaker (Fig 1d and 1e). This anomaly of CO₂ is then slowly re-absorbed as the system tends towards is former steady-state. This behavior is in line 87 with what an earlier study also based on OSCAR¹⁰. 88

89 We produced our main results by repeating such a perturbation experiment with every 90 single RF reported in the IPCC AR5, and for several individual years or periods of the past (see Methods). First, the GMST change in 2010 against the preindustrial era (the year of 1750) 91 92 was calculated (Figure 2a) and attributed to all climate forcers (Figure 2b). The largest 93 positive contributions to GMST change come from atmospheric CO_2 (684±198 mK), other 94 long-lived greenhouse gases (195±57 mK), methane (200±59 mK), and tropospheric O3 (165±48 mK). Aerosols (-387±114 mK), volcanoes (-67±23 mK) and LUC albedo (-52±19 95 mK) contributed the most to negative changes. It must be noted that aerosols here combine 96 97 the net effect of both warming and cooling aerosols. Second, the radiative forcing of CO₂ in 2010 was attributed to FF-CO₂ emissions, LUC-CO₂ emissions and the climate-carbon 98 feedback (Figure 2c). In 2010, we estimated CO₂ radiative forcing was 1.81±0.17 W m⁻². 99 where CO₂ emissions contribute 1.71±0.28 W m⁻², split into 1.25±0.17 W m⁻² from FF and 100 0.47 ± 0.23 W m⁻² from LUC, and the remaining 0.09 ± 0.05 W m⁻² came from the 101 102 climate-carbon feedback. Finally, the contribution of the climate-carbon feedback to the RF of CO₂ in 2010 was attributed to each individual climate forcers. Following a similar 103

hierarchy as that of the attribution of GMST change, atmospheric CO₂, other long-lived greenhouse gases and methane contributed the most to the feedback, reaching 118 ± 7 mW m⁻², 38 ± 7 mW m⁻², and 45 ± 18 mW m⁻², respectively. The contributions of tropospheric O₃ (36 ± 16 mW m⁻²), aerosols (- 86 ± 41 mW m⁻²), black carbon snow effect (15 ± 7 mW m⁻²), volcanoes (- 25 ± 13 mW m⁻²) and LUC albedo effect (- 12 ± 6 mW m⁻²) constituted the remainder.

It is reasonable that the greater its influence on temperature, the greater a forcer 109 110 contributes to the climate-carbon feedback (Figures 1b and 1d). However, this strong correlation between the two attributions is somewhat mitigated by the specific effect each 111 climate forcer has on the hydrological cycle^{21,22}, as precipitation does impact the carbon cycle 112 in OSCAR. We acknowledge that our results are therefore model-dependent, and a simple 113 model such as OSCAR still requires further development to keep track of features observed 114 115 in the real climate system. Especially, the climate response for each climate forcer appears to be different on short time-scales²³, which is absent from this version of OSCAR. 116 Nevertheless, the quantitative conclusion remains that warming SLCFs such as methane, 117tropospheric ozone, and black carbon may be regarded as indirect sources of CO₂ because 118 119 they warm the climate, which makes weaker carbon sinks (positive climate -carbon feedback) 120 and thus accelerate the growth rate of atmospheric CO₂ concentration. Accordingly, cooling SLCFs such as scattering aerosols may be considered as indirect sinks of CO₂. 121

Figure 3a shows how the present-day (2010) RF of CO₂ is attributable to past climate 122 forcing caused by CO₂ emission and climate-carbon feedback. Figure 3b illustrates that 123 SLCFs do influence atmospheric CO₂ concentration through the climate-carbon feedback 124 over a much longer duration than their own lifetime. Schematically, the effect we quantify in 125126 Figure 3b is the result of the convolution between the typical responses illustrated by the experiment in Figure 1, and the time-series of radiative forcing of SLCFs. Therefore, only a 127128 strong anomaly in the RF can compensate the natural decay in the response. It is for instance the case with the Pinatubo volcanic eruption: we estimate that 8 ± 4 mW m⁻² of the total CO₂ 129 RF in 2010 was actually due to the strong effect of stratospheric volcanic aerosols emitted by 130 this event in 1990-1995. More generally, however, we find that older radiative forcing 131contributions from SLCFs impact less the present-day CO₂, owing to both the decay in the 132

response and the increase in their historical RF value. For instance, tropospheric ozone and anthropogenic aerosols emitted in the 1970s caused $0.4\pm0.2 \text{ mW m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and $-1.0\pm0.5 \text{ mW}$ $m^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ in 2010, whereas those emitted in the 2000s caused $1.3\pm0.6 \text{ mW m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and -3.0 ± 1.4 mW m⁻² yr⁻¹, respectively.

Nevertheless, our results show that SLCFs have a long lasting influence on atmospheric 137 CO₂ concentration through climate-carbon feedback and thus have long-term (50-60 years) 138 radiative forcing, which is much longer than their own atmospheric lifetime. Again, the 139 overall effect of SLCFs is found to be small compared to the total RF of CO₂, but this small 140 value results from a compensating effect between warming and cooling SLCFs. Although 141 142 each SLCF has a significant contribution in our simulations, the sign of total contribution is uncertain $(-13 \pm 50 \text{ mW m}^{-2})$. This is mainly due to the fact that the magnitude of the warming 143 144 SLCFs and cooling SLCFs is about the same. As the climate system will remain perturbed by anthropogenic non-CO₂ species, the future evolution of this effect will depend on whether 145 this compensation of warming and cooling SLCF will last in the future. If warming and 146 cooling SLCFs have different reduction rates in the future, then this competition will weaken 147148 and the overall effect will be more prominent.

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150 Conclusions

Previous studies on the influence of SLCFs focused mainly on the aerosol cooling 151 effect¹³⁻¹⁵. While some found that aerosols increased the global carbon sink by cooling the 152climate¹³, others argued it was not a significant effect¹⁴. The knowledge gaps were shown to 153come from uncertainties both in aerosol simulation and the carbon cycle process modeling¹⁵. 154155Our study contributes to this debate, as our prescribed non-CO₂ RFs and probabilistic simulations with OSCAR, which emulates more complex model. As non-CO₂ RFs are 156prescribed using IPCC data, we avoid aerosol simulation in this study. And the probabilistic 157simulations with OSCAR show the results of several more complex models. We find that 158 anthropogenic and volcanic aerosols contributed together -0.11±0.01 W m⁻² out of the 159 1.81±0.17 W m⁻² of the total RF of CO₂ in 2010. Although statistically significant, this is a 160 rather small value, because insofar emissions of cooling and warming aerosols have opposed 161

162 each other.

But aerosols are only one part of the picture: other SLCFs such as tropospheric ozone 163 also have a significant warming impact on the climate system, and therefore on the carbon 164 cycle. According to this study, warming SLCFs like methane, black carbon and tropospheric 165 ozone, contributed 6% radiative forcing (102 ± 26 mW m⁻²) to the total RF of CO₂ in total, 166 through climate-carbon feedback. Cooling SLCFs contributed slightly more (-115±43 mW 167 m⁻²), but with the opposite sign. Although the effects are relatively small in comparison with 168 the total CO_2 radiative forcing (1.81 W m⁻²) and offset each other, the long-term legacy 169 climate forcing of SLCFs (50-60 years) should not be neglected in global climate modeling. 170 Furthermore, as global SO₂ emissions continue to decline²⁴ (mainly due to stricter emission 171 controls in North America, Europe and China), the contribution of sulfate aerosol cooling 172173effect to global RF of CO₂ may be reduced, which may increase the overall SLCFs positive contribution to the RF of CO₂ in the future. 174

Our study is thus more comprehensive than previous estimates¹³⁻¹⁵, although it is 175inherently limited by the simplicity of our model. One such limitation, already discussed 176 earlier, is the lack of a differing response of the climate system when forced by different 177climate forcers. This caveat is supposed to be mitigated by the use of "effective" radiative 178forcing (ERF), as per definition the non-CO₂ ERF are supposed to be comparable to the CO₂ 179RF¹ (and our climate response is derived from a CO₂ forcing). Although not all climate 180 181 forcers were evaluated in terms of ERF in the AR5, anthropogenic aerosols were, which adds a degree of confidence to our results. 182

To conclude, our study is a first step towards switching the attribution of the RF of CO₂ 183 from concentration-based to emission-based, similarly to what was done for chemically 184 active species in the AR5. The second-step analysis that remains to be carried out is the 185inclusion of direct effects caused by SLCFs on the carbon cycle: the deposition of aerosols 186 containing nitrogen and phosphorus which increases productivity²⁵⁻²⁷ and may decrease 187 respiration²⁸, ozone phytotoxicity²⁹, and change in diffuse radiation from increased aerosol 188 content in the atmosphere^{30,31}. In addition, feedbacks between climate and natural aerosol 189 should also be included in the future steps³². Existing studies do provide quantifications of 190

these effects, but they remain to be integrated in a comprehensive and consistent attribution framework such as ours. Our work on the climate-carbon feedback already shows that non-CO₂ species are key perturbations of the carbon cycle, and achievement of the second step would likely strengthen that conclusion.

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271 Methods

272 Model and data.

This study uses a compact Earth system model, OSCAR v2.2¹⁸, to simulate the climate 273 effect of SLCFs through climate-carbon feedbacks and its time scale. OSCAR v2.2 is a 274 reduced-form model already used in the climate change research community 20,33-35, and it 275 includes all components of the Earth system necessary to simulate climate change: terrestrial 276 and ocean carbon cycles, tropospheric and stratospheric chemistry, albedo changes, and 277 climate responses. In addition, OSCAR v2.2 is a meta-model that emulates the sensitivity of 278higher resolution or complexity models. Parameters of the model are calibrated by outputs 279 280 from complex Earth system models that participated in intercomparison projects. For example, the parameters for land carbon cycle are calibrated by seven CMIP5 models and the 281 parameters for ocean carbon cycle are calibrated by three CMIP5 models. Although OSCAR 282 v2.2 is not a gridded model, emissions and key responses of climate to forcing are 283 regionalized. In OSCAR, regional temperatures are linear related to GMST and regional 284 precipitations are calculated with regional temperatures and radiatively active species. 285 Consequently, OSCAR is suitable for using in a probabilistic framework. We run simulations 286 with different parameters as a Monte Carlo ensemble and then constrained with observations. 287

288 In this study, OSCAR v2.2 was driven by fossil fuel CO₂ (FF-CO₂) emission data, land-use change (LUC) data, and non-CO₂ radiative forcing (RF) data. FF-CO₂ emissions 289 data comes from CDIAC³⁶ and EDGAR³⁷. Land-use change data from the LUH v1.1 290 dataset³⁸, which is used with the bookkeeping module of OSCARv2.2 to calculate carbon 291 292 emissions from LUC. Non-CO₂ climate forcers are prescribed by the Annex II of the IPCC AR5 WG1 report¹, including other greenhouse-gases and water vapor, stratospheric and 293 troposphere ozone, aerosol, albedo change of land-use change and black carbon on snow, 294 295 volcano, solar and contrails. We split the 'other greenhouse-gases' to methane and long-lived 296 greenhouse-gases, by calculating methane radiative forcing with its historical abundances reported in the Annex II while other RFs remained unchanged. We chose the model 297 prescribed non-CO₂ radiative forcing instead of driving the model with non-CO₂ emission 298 299 data to limit the potential biases in our attribution. The prescribed radiative forcing data can 300 be found in Supplementary Data.

301 Idealized experiment.

Before the main result of attributions, we performed an idealized experiment to illustrate the model response to a perturbation of pulse SLCF. A control simulation is run driven by CO_2 emissions and non-CO₂ RF from IPCC. Another simulation is run identically except that the volcano RF in 1964 is removed. The differences between the two simulations represent the climate and carbon cycle responses to the pulse of SLCF.

307 Attribution method.

In this study, the normalized marginal method was used to attribute the GMST and RF of CO₂. This method was advised by the UNFCCC³⁹ for attributions within the climate system that account its nonlinearity and feedbacks. It attributes contributions to causes proportionally to the marginal effects of the individual causes, and the total is equal to the whole effect, so it is named 'normalized marginal method'. This method was used in many earlier studies to attribute changes in a variable of the climate system to physical processes or to emissions^{7,20,33,34}.

The following uses mathematical language to describe the 'normalized marginal method'. Suppose an effect A is caused by n causes, denoted as equation (1). If we want to attribute effect A to the causes (x1,x2,...,x3) using the method, we first calculate the marginal effects of each cause, which is the difference in function values when a cause is changed slightly, as in equation (2). In this study, the slight ratio ε is 0.1% for OSCAR¹⁸. Then the relative contributions of the causes are calculated by normalization as in equation (3), and the relative contributions are available as in equation (4).

322
$$A = f(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$$
 (1)

323
$$\Delta_i A = f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_n) - f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_i - \varepsilon x_i, \dots, x_n)$$
(2)

324
$$\alpha_i = \frac{\Delta_i A}{\Delta_1 A + \Delta_2 A + \dots + \Delta_n A} \quad (3)$$

$$325 C_i = \alpha_i \times A (4)$$

In this study, we assume that 1) the climate change can be attributed only to the radiative forcing ignoring natural variability, 2) the RF of CO_2 is attributable to CO_2 emissions and the climate and 3) climate feedbacks of other non- CO_2 RF is negligible in the marginal 329 simulations. These three assumptions allow us to obtain the main results following three attributions. First, historical climate change is attributed to the radiative forcing caused by all 330 climate forcers (GMST = $f(RF_{CO_2}, RF_{CH_4}, ..., RF_{solar})$). Second, the historical change in RF 331 of CO_2 is attributed to CO_2 emissions and the climate change (RF_{CO_2} = 332 $f(ECO_2^{FF}, ECO_2^{LUC}, climate variables)$). Third, the contribution of the climate-carbon 333 including **SLCFs** 334 feedback attributed to forcers $RF_{CO_2} =$ is ($f(ECO_2^{FF}, ECO_2^{LUC}, RF_{CH_4}, \dots, RF_{solar})).$ 335

336 Monte Carlo setup and constraint.

In this study, we design a Monte Carlo ensemble (n=3000) to obtain the uncertainties of the results, taking advantage of the characteristics of OSCAR, in which random configurations are drawn from the pool available in OSCAR v2.2. As a meta-model, different configurations of OSCAR v2.2 emulate different higher complexity models. So the probabilistic simulations with OSCAR v2.2 are kind of model comparison, showing the uncertainties of model.

To reduce uncertainties and get a best-guess result, we followed Steinacher et al's 343 constraint method in their study⁴⁰. Each member of the Monte Carlo ensemble is given a 344 weight, following a chosen statistical likelihood, according to the deviations between their 345 simulation results and historical observations in temperature and CO₂ concentration. Here, 346 The weights w_i are calculated by Gaussian distribution probability density function $w_i =$ 347 $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{(x_i-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$, where μ and σ are the average and standard deviation of the constraining data. 348 The constraining data for GMST is from the HadCRUT4 dataset⁴¹, and that for CO₂ is from 349 IPCC AR5¹. Ensemble members with better historical simulations were given higher weights, 350 those with larger historical simulation deviations have lower weights. The best-guess value is 351 then calculated as $\overline{x_w} = \frac{\sum w_i \cdot x_i}{\sum w_i}$ and the standard deviation is calculated as $\sigma_w =$ 352 $\int \frac{\sum w_i \cdot (x_i - \overline{x_w})^2}{\sum w_i}.$ 353

354 Validation of model and Monte Carlo framework.

355 Two validation works are conducted for this study. One is comparison of atmosphere

356 CO_2 concentration simulated by OSCAR v2.2 with Global Carbon Budget (GCB) 357 assessment⁴². The other is comparison of feedback sensitivities calculated by OSCAR with 358 CMIP5 models¹⁹

In Extended Data Fig.1, OSCAR v2.2 model results are driven by CO₂ emissions and non-CO₂ RFs with Monte Carlo setup and constraint. OSCAR modeled atmosphere CO₂ concentration meets well with GCB assessment, both in trend and values.

In Extended Data Fig.2-4, the feedback sensitivities calculated by OSCAR v2.2 are shown, following the same method which *Arora et al* used for CMIP5 models¹⁹. The magnitude and evolution of parameters that characterize feedbacks are calculated, based on results from biogeochemically, radiatively, and fully coupled simulations in which CO_2 increases at a rate of 1% yr⁻¹. All these results showed that OSCARv2.2 performs in line with CMIP5 model median, so we conclude OSCAR v2.2 is reliable in studying climate-carbon feedback.

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370 Data availability

Input data used in this paper are all available online.

- 372 CDIAC: https://cdiac.ess-dive.lbl.gov/trends/emis/meth_reg.html.
- EDGAR: http://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/overview.php?v=42.
- LUH v1.1 dataset:³⁸ IPCC annexes: https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar5/wg1/.
- 375 Global carbon budget: https://www.globalcarbonproject.org/carbonbudget/index.htm.

376 Model availability

- 377 The code used to generate all the results of this study is available at
- 378 https://github.com/pkufubo/OSCAR/tree/NCLIM-19122723. If more information or help
- about the code is needed, contact the corresponding author.

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407 Figure legends

408 Figure 1. Response of a pulse of SLCF on climate and carbon cycle (volcano activities in 1964 as an example). Two simulations are run: the control one is driven by RFs from IPCC, 409 and the 'Rm64' one is the same except that the volcano RF in 1964 is removed. (a) The 410 volcano RFs in control simulation (grey, dashed line), and in Rm64 simulation (blue, solid 411 412 line). The only difference is the removing of volcano RF in 1964. (b) Relative to control simulation, 'Rm64' simulation has an increase of global mean surface temperature (GMST) 413 and a return to the base level. (c) The response of atmospheric CO_2 concentration is similar, 414with a slower pace. (d) The land carbon sink's response is decomposed in the response of 415 heterotrophic respiration (RH, green line) and that of net primary productivity (NPP, blue 416 line). The decrease of net land sink is represented by a black line (positive value means sink 417 loss) (e) The ocean carbon sink's response is decomposed in the response of the outgoing flux 418

 $(F_{out}, green line)$ and that of the ingoing flux (F_{in} , blue line). The decrease of ocean sink is represented by a black line (positive value means sink loss). The solid lines in panel b) to e) represent the mean, and the dashed lines represent the ranges of one standard deviation.

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423 Figure 2. Attribution of global mean surface temperature change and RF of CO₂ in 2010 to climate forcers. (a) The global mean surface temperature (GMST) change in 2010, 424 425 relative to the preindustrial era, which is attributed to climate forcers in (b). The climate forcers include CO2, other long-lived greenhouse gases (LL-GHG other), LUC albedo, solar 426 irradiance and SLCFs. (c) CO₂ RF in 2010 is 1.81±0.17W m⁻². We attribute it to fossil fuel 427 (FF-CO₂) emissions, land-use change (LUC-CO₂) emissions and the climate-carbon 428 feedbacks. Contributions from emissions are noted with clear bars, and contributions from the 429 430 climate-carbon feedbacks are noted with bars hatched by dots. The climate-carbon feedback makes a non-negligible contribution of 0.09 ± 0.05 W m⁻² to the total. (d), The climate-carbon 431 feedback is further attributed into the contributions of the different climate forcers. All 432 uncertainties are one weighted standard deviation of our Monte Carlo ensemble (n=3000; see 433 434 Methods for details).

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Figure 3. Contribution of historical emissions of all forcers to RF of CO₂ in 2010. (a) 436 Attributions of RF of CO₂ in 2010 to historical CO₂ emissions (clear bars) and 437 climate-carbon feedback (bars hatched by dots). (b) Attributions of the contributions to RF of 438 CO₂ induced by climate-carbon feedback. Here, present-day RF of CO₂ is attributed to the 439 same climate forcers as in Figure 2 and to different periods of emissions. Those years of 440 441 forcing farther away from 2010 were grouped by bins covering a larger period to save computing resources, and since contributions from older periods are small. The area of each 442 443 bar represents the contribution of a past forcing to the RF of CO₂ in 2010, so that summing the area of all the bars of one color gives back the corresponding RF shown in Figure 2d. It 444 can be seen that SLCFs decades ago still contributed to the RF of CO₂ in 2010, which is a 445 time interval longer than their lifetime. The uncertainties can be found in Supplementary Data 446 Uncertainties of Fig3b. 447

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454 Author contributions

The authors declare no competing interests.

B.L., T.G., P.C., S. Piao designed the study. Simulations were performed by B.F. and T.G. 455 with model input data prepared by B.F., X.L., Y.H., J.A., S. Peng and J.X. Figures were 456 designed by B.F., B.L., W.L, T.Y and L.H. Writing was led by B.L., with substantial inputs 457 458 from B.F., T.G., P.C., S.T. and Y.B. All authors participated in the study, the interpretation of the results, and the outline of the paper, through regular meetings and discussion. 459 460 **Corresponding author:** Bengang Li (libengang@pku.edu.cn) 461 462 Competing interests 463

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