

Carbon dioxide and climate impulse response functions for the computation of greenhouse gas metrics: A multi-model analysis

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8 **Abstract**

9 The responses of carbon dioxide (CO₂) and other climate variables to an emission
10 pulse of CO₂ into the atmosphere are often used to compute the Global Warming
11 Potential (GWP) and Global Temperature change Potential (GTP), to characterize
12 the response time-scales of Earth System models, and to build reduced-form models.
13 In this carbon cycle-climate model intercomparison project, which spans the full
14 model hierarchy, we quantify responses to emission pulses of different magnitudes
15 injected under different conditions. The CO₂ response shows the known rapid decline
16 in the first few decades followed by a millennium-scale tail. For a 100 Gt-C emission
17 pulse added to a constant CO₂ concentration of 389 ppm, 254±109% is still found in
18 the atmosphere after 1000 years; the ocean has absorbed 6059±128% and the land
19 the remainder (16±14%). The response in global mean surface air temperature is an
20 increase by 0.2049±0.120°C within the first twenty years; thereafter and until year
21 1000, temperature decreases only slightly, whereas ocean heat content and sea
22 level continue to rise. Our best estimate for the Absolute Global Warming Potential,
23 given by the time-integrated response in CO₂ at year 100 times-multiplied by its
24 radiative efficiency, is 92.7×10^{-15} yr W m⁻² per kg-CO₂. This value very likely (5 to
25 95% confidence) lies within the range of (70-68 to 1175) $\times 10^{-15}$ yr W m⁻² per kg-CO₂.
26 Estimates for time-integrated response in CO₂ published in the IPCC First, Second,
27 and Fourth Assessment and our multi-model best estimate all agree within 15%.
28 during the first 100 years. The integrated CO₂ response, normalized by the pulse
29 size, is lower for pre-industrial conditions, compared to present day, and lower for
30 smaller pulses than larger pulses. In contrast, the response in temperature, sea level
31 and ocean heat content is less sensitive to these choices. Although, -choices in pulse

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1 size, background concentration, and model lead to uncertainties, the most important
2 and subjective choice to determine AGWP of CO₂ and GWP is the time horizon.

3

4 1 Introduction

5 Emissions of different greenhouse gases (GHGs) and other agents that force the climate to
6 change are often compared by simplified metrics in economic frameworks, emission trading
7 and mitigation schemes, and climate policy assessments. The Global Warming Potential
8 (GWP) introduced by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) in 1990 (Shine
9 et al., 1990), is the most widely used emission metric. GWPs are applied for emission
10 reporting under the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC,
11 2002) and in the emission basket approach of the legally-binding Kyoto Protocol (UNFCCC,
12 1998) to compare emissions of different GHGs carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄), nitrous
13 oxide (N₂O), sulphur hexafluoride (SF₆), hydrofluorocarbons (HCFs) and perfluorocarbons
14 (PFCs) and to compute the so called “CO₂-equivalent” emissions. The initial Kyoto Protocol
15 covered emissions of carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄), nitrous oxide (N₂O), sulphur
16 hexafluoride (SF₆), hydrofluorocarbons (HCFs) and perfluorocarbons (PFCs) in the first
17 commitment period (2008-2012). The Doha Amendment to the Kyoto Protocol covers
18 emissions in a second commitment period of 2013-2020, and nitrogen trifluoride (NF₃) is
19 added to the basket of greenhouse gases. The GWP compares the radiative forcing (Forster et
20 al., 2007) integrated over a time period caused by the emission of 1 kg of an agent relative to
21 the integrated forcing caused by the emissions of 1 kg CO₂. As CO₂ is used as a reference gas
22 in the GWP definition, any changes in the computation of the radiative influence of CO₂
23 affect the GWP of any other agent.

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24 The purpose of this study is to compute the response in atmospheric CO₂, in ocean and land
25 carbon, global mean surface air temperature, ocean heat uptake and sea level change to a
26 pulse-like (i.e., instantaneous) emission of CO₂ into the atmosphere. Best estimates for the
27 mean and the 5 to 95% confidence range are provided for the Absolute Global Warming
28 Potential (AGWP) and the Absolute Global Temperature change Potential (AGTP) introduced
29 by (Shine et al., 2005). We analyse the responses of fifteen carbon cycle-climate models,
30 covering the full model hierarchy, and including two large ensembles of simulations by two
31 of the models constrained with observations as well as an ensemble of runs of a box model
32 substituting for a suite of more complex models. This allows us to address model-related

1 uncertainties by investigating within-model and between-model differences. Uncertainties
2 related to the size of the emission pulse, the atmospheric and climatic background conditions
3 [or the choice of the future scenario](#), and the carbon cycle-climate feedback are assessed in
4 sensitivity simulations. Results are also compared to CO₂ response functions as published in
5 the IPCC First (FAR) (Shine et al., 1990), Second (SAR) (Schimel et al., 1996), and Fourth
6 Assessment Report (AR4) (Forster et al., 2007).

7 A reevaluation of the CO₂ response appears timely as (i) past GWP calculations applied
8 results from a single model and (ii) the atmospheric and climatic conditions influencing the
9 CO₂ response continue to change [with time](#). The GWP adopted for the first commitment
10 period of the Kyoto protocol (2008-2012) (UNFCCC, 1997, 1998) and used for reporting
11 under the UNFCCC (UNFCCC, 2002) are given by the SAR (Schimel et al., 1996) and based
12 on the CO₂ response of the Bern model (Bern-SAR), an early generation reduced-form carbon
13 cycle model (Joos et al., 1996). Its behaviour was compared to other carbon cycle models in
14 Enting et al. (1994) and it was found to be a middle of the range model. The GWP provided
15 in the AR4 (Forster et al., 2007) relies on the CO₂ response from the Bern2.5CC (here
16 Bern2.5D-LPJ) Earth System Model of Intermediate Complexity (EMIC) (Plattner et al.,
17 2008). More recently, the Conference of the Parties serving as the meeting of the Parties to
18 the Kyoto Protocol decided (UNFCCC, 2011a, b) that the GWP from the AR4 should be used
19 for the second commitment period of the Kyoto Protocol and the Conference also noted in its
20 decision that metrics are still being assessed by IPCC in the context of its Fifth Assessment
21 Report (AR5). A much broader set of models covering the whole model hierarchy from
22 reduced-form models, to EMICs, to comprehensive Earth System Models (ESMs) are now
23 available.

24 The redistribution of additional CO₂ emissions among the major carbon reservoirs in the
25 Earth System depends on previous emissions and on climate. In addition, radiative forcing of
26 CO₂ depends logarithmically on its own concentration. The response functions are calculated
27 by modelling the response to a pulse emission added to a given concentration and climate
28 state, but these background conditions have changed and will continue to change. For
29 example, the concentration of atmospheric CO₂ continued to increase from 354 ppm in 1990,
30 to 378 ppm at the time of the preparation of the IPCC AR4 report to 389 ppm in 2010
31 (Conway and Tans, 2012). [Such changes in the background concentration cause both the](#)

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1 [radiative forcing and the response function to change, but the changes partially cancel leading](#)
2 [to smaller changes in the AGWP](#) (Caldeira and Kasting, 1993;Reisinger et al., 2011).

3 Additional uncertainties are of a fundamental nature as any metric to compare greenhouse gas
4 emissions represents a crude simplification. Different forcing agents are distinct and have
5 distinct impacts on climate and the Earth system. Differences include different atmospheric
6 perturbation lifetimes ranging from weeks to many millennia, different regional and vertical
7 distributions within the atmosphere and thus different influences on the energy fluxes within
8 the atmosphere and to the Earth's surface, different indirect effects such as confounding
9 impacts on the lifetimes of other GHGs (Prather and Hsu, 2010).

10 A complication is the complex and regionally and temporally distinct relationship between
11 anthropogenic emissions, atmospheric abundances, radiative forcing, climate change and
12 impacts and damages on socio-economic and natural systems. Other metrics have been
13 proposed in addition to GWP such as global temperature change potential (GTP) (Shine et al.,
14 2005;Fuglestedt et al., 2010), the integrated temperature change potential (iGTP) (Peters et
15 al., 2011;Azar and Johansson, 2012;Gillett and Matthews, 2010), the TEMPerature proxy
16 index (TEMP) (Tanaka et al., 2009a), global damage potentials (GDP) (Kandlikar, 1995),
17 global cost potentials (GCP) (Tol et al., 2012;Manne and Richels, 2001) and the Cost-
18 Effective Temperature Potential (CETP) (Johansson, 2012). These metrics compare, for equal
19 mass emissions of two GHGs, the global average surface air temperature change at a given
20 point in time (GTP), the relative damages (GDP), or [the ratio of the shadow price of a gas to](#)
21 [the shadow price of CO₂](#)~~the relative marginal abatement costs for two gases~~ when a given
22 climate change target is achieved at least cost (GCP). TEMP is defined so that it provides a
23 best fit to the temperature ~~projection trajectory~~ of a given period and CETP is based on an
24 approximation of the GCP. Uncertainties generally increase along the cause-effect chain from
25 emissions to impacts (Prather et al., 2009) and there is a trade-off for the selection of metrics
26 between completeness and complexity versus simplicity and transparency, [implying](#) ~~and~~ the
27 necessity of subjective judgments (Fuglestedt et al., 2003;Plattner et al., 2009;Tanaka et al.,
28 2010).

29 While the GWP is a proxy for climate impacts, non-climatic effects are not captured by the
30 GWP or similar metrics. Air pollutants, such as ozone, aerosols, nitrogen oxides, carbon
31 monoxide, or volatile organic compounds, influence human health and ecosystems directly.
32 Anthropogenic CO₂ emissions cause not only global warming, but also ocean acidification by

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1 the uptake of excess CO₂ (Orr et al., 2005;Joos et al., 2011;Friedrich et al., 2012) – a threat to
2 coral reefs, marine ecosystems, and related economic sectors (Gattuso et al., 2011).

3 The different perturbation lifetimes-timescales imply that near-term effects of short-lived
4 agents must be compared with the persistent effects of long-lived agents if a metric is to be
5 defined. Attempts involve the restriction to a distinct time horizon for the numerical
6 evaluation of the metric (traditionally 20, 100 or 500 years for GWP) or the application of
7 discounting rates, typically giving little weight to effects in the more distant future. In
8 summary, any metric used to compare emissions of GHGs and other agents involves
9 subjective choices and value judgments and represents a considerable simplification (e.g.,
10 (Tanaka et al., 2010;Fuglestvedt et al., 2003;Boucher, 2012).

11

12 2 Emission Metrics and Impulse Response Functions

13 2.1 Global Warming Potential

14 The Global Warming Potential is based on the time-integrated radiative forcing due to a *pulse*
15 emission of a unit mass of gas at nominal time, $t=0$. It can be given as an Absolute Global
16 Warming Potential for gas x ($AGWP_x$) or as a dimensionless value by dividing the $AGWP_x$ by
17 the $AGWP$ of a reference gas, usually CO₂. The GWP is thus defined as:

$$18 \quad GWP_x(TH) = \frac{AGWP_x(TH)}{AGWP_{CO_2}(TH)} \quad (1)$$

19 and the $AGWP$ by:

$$20 \quad AGWP_x(TH) = \int_0^{TH} RF_x(t) dt = \int_0^{TH} A_x \cdot IRF_x(t) dt, \quad (2)$$

21 where $RF_x(t)$ is the radiative forcing at time t caused by the emission pulse released at time
22 $t=0$. TH is the time horizon of choice over which the radiative forcing is integrated. For the
23 GWP used by the UNFCCC and in the Kyoto Protocol, a time horizon TH of 100 years is
24 applied, though this choice lacks a scientific basis (Shine et al., 1990).

25 Forster et al., 2007 (Forster et al., 2007)(Table 2.14, page 212) report the GWP of many gases
26 and for different time horizons. A problem related to reporting GWP only is that each update

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1 in AGWP_{CO2} affects the reported GWP values of all other gases. This could be easily avoided
2 by reporting Absolute Global Warming Potentials in addition to GWP.

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3 The radiative forcing, $RF_{x,x}$, of gas x can be written as the product of its radiative efficiency,
4 $A_{x,x}$, and the perturbation in its abundance or burden, $IRF_{x,x}$. $A_{x,x}$ is defined as the radiative
5 forcing per kg increase in atmospheric ~~abundance~~ burden of gas x . $IRF_{x,x}(t)$ is the impulse
6 response function (IRF) or Green's function. $IRF_{x,x}$ represents the time-dependent abundance
7 of gas x caused by the additional emission of one kg of gas x at time 0. In other words, the
8 $IRF_{x,x}(t)$ is the fraction of the enhancement in concentration due to the added emission pulse
9 ~~additional emission pulse~~ remaining in the atmosphere at time t . For sufficiently small
10 emissions and approximately constant background conditions the radiative efficiency, $A_{x,x}$, can
11 be approximated as time-invariant.

12 The radiative forcing by a perturbation in the atmospheric burden of CO₂, ΔN_{CO2} , relative to a
13 reference burden, $N_{CO2,0}$, is parameterized following (Myhre et al., 1998):

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$$14 \quad RF_{CO2}(\Delta N_{CO2}) = 5.35 \text{ W m}^{-2} \ln\left(\frac{N_{CO2,0} + \Delta N_{CO2}}{N_{CO2,0}}\right) \quad (3)$$

15 This yields for small perturbations:

$$16 \quad RF_{CO2}(\Delta CO_2(t)) = 5.35 \text{ W m}^{-2} \frac{\Delta N_{CO2}}{N_{CO2,0}} = A_{CO2} \cdot \Delta N_{CO2} \quad \text{for } \Delta N_{CO2} \rightarrow 0 \quad (4)$$

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17 Thus in the limit of a small perturbation, the radiative efficiency of CO₂ is 5.35 W m⁻² divided
18 by the constant reference burden and is thus itself a constant and time-invariant.

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20 It is convenient to describe the IRF_x by exponential functions (Prather, 2007;Maier-Reimer
21 and Hasselmann, 1987;Aamaas et al., 2012).

$$22 \quad IRF_x(t) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_{x,i} \cdot \exp\left(\frac{-t}{\tau_{x,i}}\right) \quad \text{for } t \geq 0. \quad (5)$$

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23 The unitless coefficients $a_{x,i}$ represent a fraction that is associated with a certain nominal
24 timescale $\tau_{x,i}$ and their sum equals 1. In turn the AGWP for gas x is:

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$$25 \quad AGWP_x(t) = A_x \sum_{i=0}^n a_{x,i} \cdot \tau_{x,i} \left(1 - \exp\left(\frac{-t}{\tau_{x,i}}\right)\right) \quad (6)$$

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It is convenient to describe the IRF_x by exponential functions. Many agents, although not CO_2 , are removed from the atmosphere with an approximately constant decay rate, $1/\tau$, and thus their removal can be represented by exponential decay. In this case, the IRF is:

$$IRF_x(t) = \exp\left(-\frac{t}{\tau_x}\right) \quad (3)$$

where τ_x is the mean perturbation lifetime of agent x . Then, the integrated radiative forcing up to TH is given by:

$$AGWP_x(TH) = A_x \tau_x \left(1 - \exp\left(-\frac{TH}{\tau_x}\right)\right) \quad (4)$$

AGWP increases with increasing time horizon TH to finally approach a constant value for TH several times larger than the largest perturbation timescale of gas x , τ_x . The AGWP becomes the product of the mean “steady-state” life time of a perturbation, $\tau_{x,SS}$ (Prather, 2007) and the radiative efficiency, i.e., $AGWP_x = A_x \tau_{x,SS}$. The steady-state perturbation lifetime is the weighted sum over all timescales ($\tau_{x,SS} = \sum a_{x,i} \tau_{x,i}$), i.e., $AGWP_x = A_x \tau_x$. This implies that a change in the integration horizon from, for example, 100 years to 1000 years has no impact on the AGWP of gases with up to decadal perturbation lifetimescales such as methane, but AGWP continues to increase with TH for long-lived gases such as CO_2 , N_2O , or SF_6 . Consequently, the GWP of gases with a short life time generally decreases with increasing time horizon and the variation in GWP values with time horizon only reflects properties of the reference gas CO_2 . For instance, the GWP values for CH_4 (which has an adjustment time of approximately 12 years) decrease with increasing time horizon (except for time horizons of a few years only), since GWP is defined with the (increasing) integrated RF of CO_2 in the denominator. As TH increases past the adjustment time of CH_4 , the development in GWP_{CH_4} with time horizon is purely controlled by the development in $AGWP_{CO_2}$ (Aamaas et al., 2012). For long-lived gases (e.g. N_2O , SF_6) the development in GWP is controlled by both the increasing integrals of the SF_6 and CO_2 -radiative forcing by the long-lived gas and CO_2 . In conclusion, the GWP depends strongly on the behavior of the reference gas and sensitively on the (subjective) choice of the time horizon (see e.g., (Shine, 2009)).

Most GHGs are involved in complex chemical reactions in the atmosphere and are transported within the atmosphere. A local perturbation in one species invokes perturbations elsewhere on a range of timescales and often involving many other species. The chemistry-

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1 [transport system can be linearized and represented with the help of eigenvalue decomposition](#)
2 [following Prather, 2007. Then, it becomes clear that the perturbation timescales \$\tau_{x,i}\$ represent](#)
3 [the \(negative inverse\) eigenvalues characterizing the leading chemical modes of gas x.](#)

4 CO₂ is, unlike most other agents, not destroyed by chemical reactions in the atmosphere or
5 deposited on the earth surface, but redistributed within the major carbon reservoirs
6 atmosphere, ocean, land biosphere involving multiple timescales for exchange among and for
7 overturning within these reservoirs. A substantial fraction of the [initial perturbation by the](#)
8 [emission pulses](#) remains [airborne in the atmosphere and the ocean](#) for millennia. This fraction
9 is only removed by ocean-sediment interactions and interactions with the weathering and
10 burial cycle of carbon involving timescales from many millennia to hundred thousand years
11 (Archer et al., 2009).

12 [The IRF for CO₂ is commonly approximated by a sum of exponentials:](#)

13
$$IRF_{CO_2}(t) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i \exp\left(\frac{-t}{\tau_i}\right) \quad (5)$$

14 [The unitless coefficients \$a_i\$ represent a fraction that is associated with a certain nominal](#)
15 [lifetime \$\tau_i\$ and their sum equals 1. In turn the AGWP for CO₂ is:](#)

16
$$AGWP_{CO_2}(t) = A_{CO_2} \sum_{i=0}^n a_i \tau_i \left(1 - \exp\left(\frac{-t}{\tau_i}\right)\right)$$

17 [The continuum of timescales involved in the redistribution of CO₂ can be approximated in](#)
18 [practice by a few timescales only. It is usually sufficient to consider three to four terms in the](#)
19 [sum in equation \(5\). Generally Then](#) the coefficients $a_{CO_2,i}$ and $\tau_{CO_2,i}$ have no direct process-

20 based meaning, but are fitting parameters chosen to represent a given model-based IRF_{CO_2} .
21 The IRF of a model is normally computed by calculating the response to a pulse-like
22 perturbation. In our case, the IRF for atmospheric CO₂ is computed within the suite of carbon
23 cycle-climate models by monitoring the simulated decrease of an initial atmospheric CO₂
24 perturbation due to a pulse-like CO₂ release into the model atmosphere. Similarly, IRFs for
25 surface temperature, ocean heat uptake, sea level rise or any other variable of interest are
26 obtained by monitoring its simulated evolution after the initial perturbation.

27 The IRFs or Green's functions computed in this study are also useful to characterize the
28 carbon cycle-climate models. The theoretical justification is that IRFs represent a complete
29 characterization of the response of a linear system to an external perturbation. For CO₂, the

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1 value of the IRF at any particular time is the fraction of the initially added carbon which is
 2 still found in the atmosphere. In a linear approximation, the change in atmospheric CO₂
 3 inventory at time t can be represented as the sum of earlier anthropogenic emissions, e , at time
 4 t' multiplied by the fraction still remaining airborne after time $t-t'$, $IRF_{CO_2}(t-t')$:

$$5 \quad CO_2(t) = \int_{t_0}^t e(t') \cdot IRF_{CO_2}(t-t') dt' + CO_2(t_0) , \quad (77)$$

6 where $CO_2(t_0)$ is the atmospheric CO₂ inventory at a time when the system was in
 7 (approximate) [equilibrium steady state](#). The IRF is thus a first-order approximation how
 8 excess anthropogenic carbon is removed from the atmosphere by a particular model.

9 Non-linearities in the carbon cycle-climate system, however, limit the accuracy of the above
 10 equation substantially. The IRF_{CO_2} is not an invariant function, but depends on the magnitude
 11 of the carbon emissions (Maier-Reimer and Hasselmann, 1987). Non-linearities arise from the
 12 non-linearity of the carbonate chemistry in the ocean, from changes in ocean circulation with
 13 global warming that affect the surface-to-deep transport of excess anthropogenic CO₂ as well
 14 as from other effects such as non-linear dependencies of terrestrial productivity or soil
 15 overturning rates on climate and atmospheric CO₂. It has been shown that the atmospheric
 16 response, as simulated with a comprehensive model, is better approximated using oceanic and
 17 terrestrial impulse response functions that include major non-linearities of the carbon cycle
 18 (Joos et al., 1996; Meyer et al., 1999). In conclusion, the IRF and thus also the AGWP for CO₂
 19 depends on the details of the experimental setup ([background concentration, pulse size](#)) as
 20 well as on the characteristics of the carbon cycle-climate model used for its determination.

21 **2.2 Global Temperature change Potential**

22 The GWP has been critiqued from several angles (e.g.,(Shine, 2009;O'Neill, 2000)), ~~but~~ [and](#) an
 23 important critique is that the AGWP does not directly translate into a well-known climate
 24 response. The Global Temperature change Potential (GTP) was developed as an alternative
 25 (Shine et al., 2005). The Absolute Global Temperature change Potential (AGTP) is the change
 26 in global mean surface temperature, ΔT , at time TH in response to a pulse emission, e , of one
 27 unit of agent $\ast x$ at time $t=0$. It corresponds to $IRF_{T,\ast x}$, the impulse response of temperature, T ,
 28 to a unit emission of agent $\ast x$:

1
$$AGTP_x(TH) = \frac{\Delta T(TH)}{e_x(t=0)}. \quad (88)$$

2 The Global Temperature change Potential, GTP_x , is the AGTP of x compared to that of CO_2 :

3
$$GTP_x(TH) = \frac{AGTP_x(TH)}{AGTP_{CO_2}(TH)} \quad (99)$$

4 The AGTP is often written as convolution integral of the radiative forcing:

5
$$AGTP_x(TH) = \int_0^{TH} RF_x(t) \cdot R(TH - t) dt, \quad (100)$$

6 where $R(t)$ is the [temporally displaced](#) response in T to a [unit \$\delta\$ -function](#) change in radiative
 7 forcing [at time \$t=0\$. and not to be confused with \$IRF_{T,x}\$](#) . R is influenced by the uncertain
 8 properties of the global climate system such as the climate sensitivity, the heat capacity of the
 9 lower atmosphere-earth surface system, and by the rate of ocean heat uptake.

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10 ~~While the AGWP is an integrated metric, the AGTP is an instantaneous (end-point) metric.~~ In
 11 most previous work (Fuglestevedt et al 2010), the AGTP has been estimated from the
 12 convolution of the RF_x with R_T (Eq. (10)), where the RF_x and R_T often come from different
 13 models that are likely not consistent in terms of ocean heat and carbon uptake (for example,
 14 the RF_{CO_2} is from the Bern-SAR model and the R_T is from HadCM3). It is also possible to
 15 estimate $AGTP_{CO_2}$ and IRF_{T,CO_2} directly from a climate-carbon cycle model in response to a
 16 pulse emission. This is done in this study with the suite of carbon-cycle climate models. Apart
 17 from the box models, these models feature a consistent treatment of heat and carbon transport.
 18 Following similar logic, it is possible to derive similar expressions for the time-integrated
 19 GTP, ocean heat content, and sea level rise. Recent research has shown that the GWP and the
 20 time-integrated GTP are numerically similar over a range of time horizons, other than for very
 21 short lived species like black carbon (Peters et al., 2011; Azar and Johansson, 2012).

22

23 3 Model description and experimental setup

24 An open call was directed to the carbon cycle-climate modelling community to participate in
 25 this IRF_{CO_2} intercomparison project (Joos et al., 2012). A common protocol defines model
 26 setup, ~~and~~ requested simulations (Table 1), and output ~~and~~ [and it](#) is given as supporting online
 27 information (SI). The procedure corresponds to that for the calculation of the IRF_{CO_2} for the
 28 IPCC SAR (Enting et al., 1994) and the IPCC AR4. In addition, output was also requested

1 for the change in global mean surface air temperature as well as ocean heat content, and steric
2 sea level rise. This allows us to derive the impulse response functions for temperature, ocean
3 heat content and steric sea level rise to an emission pulse of CO₂ and correspondingly the
4 AGWP and AGTP for CO₂ and similar metrics for ocean heat content and steric sea level rise.

5 Results from fifteen models were submitted (Tables 2 and 3) and these are briefly described
6 and referenced in the Appendix A. The models include three comprehensive Earth System
7 Models (~~NCAR CSM1.4~~, HADGEM2-ES, MPIM-ESM, [NCAR CSM1.4](#)), seven Earth
8 System Models of Intermediate Complexity (EMICs), and four box-type models (ACC2,
9 Bern-SAR, MAGICC, TOTEM). Many of these EMICs also participated in three model
10 intercomparison projects [see](#) targeted to study the evolution of the climate and the carbon cycle
11 over the historical period (Eby et al., 2012) and under different future scenarios (Zickfeld et
12 al., 2012) and to explore the evolution of the North Atlantic Meridional Overturning
13 Circulation scenarios (Weaver et al., 2012). The EMICs are of varying complexity and
14 include either a 3-dimensional dynamic ocean (Bern3D-LPJ, GENIE, LOVECLIM, MESMO,
15 Uvic-2.9), a 2-dimensional dynamic ocean (Bern2.5D-LPJ, Climber2.4-LPJmL), or a box-
16 type ocean (DCESS). Nine models include a Dynamic Global Vegetation Model
17 (HADGEM2-ES, MPI-ESM, Bern2.5-LPJ, Bern3D-LPJ, Climber2.4-LPJmL, GENIE,
18 LOVECLIM, MESMO, Uvic-2.9), one model a spatially-resolved terrestrial carbon cycle
19 with prescribed vegetation distribution (NCAR CSM1.4) and five models (ACC2, Bern-SAR,
20 DCESS, MAGGIC6, TOTEM) a box-type biosphere with a simple logarithmic dependency of
21 NPP on CO₂. Land use and land use changes and their impacts on the carbon cycle and
22 biophysical forcing are explicitly included as internal part of the model in five models
23 (HADGEM2-ES, MPI-ESM, Bern3D-LPJ, GENIE, Uvic-2.9). [One model \(Bern3D-LPJ,](#)
24 [ensemble version\) also includes a representation of peatlands and permafrost processes and](#)
25 [corresponding carbon stocks](#) (Tarnocai et al., 2009). The equilibrium climate sensitivity of the
26 models ranges between 1.5 to 5.7°C for a nominal doubling of atmospheric CO₂. Eight
27 models include an ocean-sediment and weathering/burial module to address long-term (multi-
28 millennial) carbon cycle changes. However, here we restrict the time horizon to 1000 years
29 and do not provide results for the multi-millennial CO₂ evolution. The models used to
30 compute IRF_{CO_2} for the SAR (Bern-SAR) and for the AR4 (Bern2.5-LPJ) as used by the
31 UNFCCC are included for traceability of results.

1 The “standard” setup corresponds to a pulse input of 100 GtC added to a constant background
 2 concentration of 389 ppm. The emission pulse is equivalent to a mean atmospheric change
 3 of 47.10 ppm when using a unit conversion factor of 2.123 GtC/ppm (Enting et al., 1994).
 4 Recently, the factor to convert ppm into mol was slightly revised to 0.1765 (±5%) Pmol/ppm
 5 (Prather et al., 2012); this yields a conversion factor of 2.120 GtC/ppm (0.1765 Pmol/ppm x
 6 12.01 gC/mol) when assuming that CO₂ is distributed evenly in the atmosphere as done here.
 7 For current emissions, the increase in the stratosphere lags the tropospheric increase and a 1
 8 ppm change in the troposphere may corresponds to a mean atmospheric change that is about 1
 9 to 2% lower. In the following these uncertainties of order 2% are neglected. Three simulations
 10 are performed to determine the “standard” *IRF* from individual models. An example figure
 11 showing results from these three simulations in terms of atmospheric CO₂ can be found in the
 12 protocol added in the SI.

13 In run 1, a model is forced with historical concentration up to a reference year (here $t_{ref}=2010$)
 14 and then concentration is kept fixed thereafter at a constant value (here $CO_{2,ref}=389$ ppm). A
 15 data file with the reconstructed distribution of atmospheric CO₂ over the period 850 to 2010
 16 AD was distributed to all groups. The model emissions, that are compatible with the
 17 prescribed CO₂ evolution, are diagnosed from the simulated change in total carbon inventory
 18 (prescribed atmospheric change plus modelled ocean and terrestrial carbon uptake and any
 19 imbalance in the weathering/burial cycle).

20 In run 2, a model is forced with the diagnosed emissions obtained from run 1 with the same
 21 model. Run 2 serves for control purposes only and was not provided for the MPI-ESM and
 22 NCAR CSM1.4 model as CPU time was lacking. In run 3, the same forcing and setup as in
 23 run 2 is applied, but in addition 100 GtC are added instantaneously to the atmosphere five
 24 years after the reference year (here in 2015.0). The normalised *IRF* is then approximately:

$$IRF_{CO_2}(t=t_{model}-2015.0) = (CO_2(t_{model})-CO_{2,ref})/(100 \text{ GtC}/2.123\text{GtC/ppm}) \text{ for } t_{model} \geq 2015$$

26 The general advice in the protocol was to include non-CO₂ forcing and land use area changes
 27 to the extent possible. Non-CO₂ forcing as well as land use area are kept constant at 2010
 28 level after 2010. While the total radiative forcing is kept constant in run 1 and 2 after 2010,
 29 the climate is evolving freely. The response to a 100 GtC pulse obtained from run 1 to 3 for a
 30 present day (PD) background is also termed “PD100” and represents our standard case.

31 In addition to these standard experiments, groups were also asked to provide results for
 32 emissions pulses of 100 GtC (run 5, case PI100) and 5000 GtC (run 6, PI5000) added to a

1 preindustrial (PI) background. A preindustrial control simulation with constant boundary
2 conditions and freely evolving CO₂ was also requested (run 4). 5000 GtC is of the same order
3 as available conventional (coal, oil, gas) fossil carbon resources and has been used in past
4 pulse experiments (e.g., (Archer et al., 2009;Eby et al., 2009)). This experiment is thus
5 indicative of the long-term consequences for burning all conventional fossil resources. The
6 influence of different background CO₂ concentrations is quantified by comparing the standard
7 run with the 100 GtC pulse added to the preindustrial CO₂ concentration.

8 Sensitivity simulations with one model (Bern3D-LPJ, see figures in protocol in SI) for PD100
9 suggest that the simulated response is insensitive to the inclusion of non-CO₂ forcing and
10 whether the emissions pulse is released at the beginning of the year or distributed over one
11 year. On the other hand, the simulated IRF_{CO_2} is about 0.02 higher if anthropogenic land use
12 is explicitly included compared to a simulation with natural vegetation only as less carbon is
13 taken up on the converted land.

14 Three of the participating modeling groups delivered results from an ensemble of simulations.
15 The GENIE group reported results from an ensemble with 69 members where model
16 parameters were varied within uncertainties. The 69-member ensemble was derived from a
17 set of around 1500 simulations combined with a statistical modelling and filtering procedure
18 applying eight preindustrial climatic constraints (Holden et al., 2012). The 69 member
19 ensemble was reduced to 20 members by requiring a plausible present-day CO₂ concentration
20 in an emission–forced simulation over the industrial period and beyond. Here, median and 5%
21 to 95% intervals from these 20 different model setups are reported.

22 The 69-member ensemble has an ensemble-averaged CO₂ concentration of 404±50ppm
23 (mean±1 sdv) at 2000AD, compared to 370 ppm measured at Mauna Loa. CO₂ is on average
24 lowered to 364±14ppm at 2000 AD in the reduced set. The cases that give the better
25 agreement with observed CO₂ have the larger land uptake through the model’s CO₂
26 fertilization mechanism. Gross primary productivity in GENIE increases by 27±18%
27 (mean±1 sdv) in the full set and by 39±17% in the reduced set for a doubling of the
28 atmospheric CO₂ concentration and considering fertilization only.

29 The MAGICC model version 6.3 has been run in 171 different parameter settings that emulate
30 19 AOGCMs and 9 coupled climate-carbon cycle models from the Coupled Model
31 Intercomparison Project Three (CMIP3) and the Coupled Carbon Cycle Climate Model

1 Intercomparison Project (C4MIP). The application of this model to simulate IRFs has been
2 described in (Reisinger et al., 2010).

3 The Bern3D-LPJ model was run in 1069 different setups selected from a 5000-member
4 ensemble following a Bayesian approach. Nineteen key model parameters are varied. These
5 are related to terrestrial and ocean carbon and heat exchange, uncertainties in anthropogenic
6 radiative forcing, and the transient and equilibrium climate sensitivity of the model. The 5000
7 member ensemble is constrained by a large set of observation-based data including estimates
8 for surface air temperature change, ocean heat uptake, atmospheric CO₂ change and ocean and
9 land carbon uptake rates, seven physical and biogeochemical 3-d ocean tracer fields, and land
10 carbon stocks and fluxes.

11 Additional sensitivity simulations were carried out with the standard setup of the Bern3D-LPJ
12 model. These include a series of runs with emission pulses ranging from 10 to 10,000 GtC
13 added to a preindustrial background. These simulations are used to demonstrate the
14 dependency of the *IRF* on the magnitude of emissions. The model was also run in a mode
15 where climate was kept constant for emission pulses of 100 and 5000 GtC. These simulations
16 allow us to quantify the impact of carbon-cycle climate feedbacks on the *IRF*_{CO₂} within the
17 Bern3D-LPJ model.

18 The pulse size of 100 GtC applied in the standard simulation (run 3) is larger than the pulse
19 size of 10 GtC applied to determine the *IRF*_{CO₂} in the Bern-SAR model for the SAR and the
20 pulse of 40 GtC applied in the Bern2.5D-LPJ for the AR4. The choice of the larger pulse size
21 is to improve signal-to-noise ratio in the simulated response. The simple Bern-SAR model
22 does not feature any internal variability and [so](#) a small pulse size [still](#) permits us to compute
23 its response reliably. In contrast, the Bern2.5d-LPJ used in the AR4 and even more the ESM
24 used in this study feature considerable internal variability in atmospheric CO₂ and climate that
25 would mask the response to a small emission pulse.

26 Model output was smoothed to remove short-term variability using a spline-fit method
27 (Enting, 1987). A cut-off period is chosen as input parameter to the spline routine such that
28 the amplitude of a sine wave with this period is attenuated by 50%. ~~Results from the control
29 simulations from the models with a dynamic atmosphere (NCAR CSM1.4, HadGEM2-ES,
30 MPIM ESM, and LOVECLIM) are smoothed with a cut off period of 30 years during
31 nominal year 0 to 30 after the pulse emission; afterwards a cut off period of 200 years was
32 applied. This choice of cut off periods yields the removal of interannual to decadal~~

1 ~~variability, while still following the initial adjustment of the system after the trend in~~
2 ~~atmospheric CO₂ is abruptly changed five years before the emission pulse release in year~~
3 ~~2010. Smoothing was not applied for the control runs of the other models.~~ The results from
4 run 3 are subtracted from the (~~smoothed~~) control run (run 2; run 1 for MPIM-ESM and NCAR
5 CSM1.4). The resulting response is smoothed using cut-off periods of 4, 20, 50, 250, and 500
6 years for the periods from year 0 to 10, from year 10 to 50, from year 50 to 100, from year
7 100 to 300 and year 300 to 1000, respectively. The response of all models to the 100 GtC
8 pulse added to a 389 ppm background was smoothed in this way for consistency. This
9 treatment has virtually no effect on results from box-models and from EMICs with small or
10 absent internal variability and on the integrated IRF_{CO_2} that is used to compute the AGWP and
11 GWP.

12 The multi-model mean IRF_{CO_2} and responses in other quantities are fitted by a sum of
13 exponentials:

$$14 \quad IRF_{CO_2}(t) = a_0 + \sum_{i=1}^3 a_i \cdot \exp\left(\frac{-t}{\tau_i}\right) \quad \text{for } 0 \leq t \leq 1000 \text{ years} \quad (11)$$

15 For IRF_{CO_2} the conditions is applied that the sum of the coefficients a_i equals 1 and for the
16 other variables that the sum equals zero. We suggest to use numerical values as obtained by
17 these fits for the multi-model mean in future studies. Note that the fits only apply for the
18 period from 0 to 1000 year. We use the values from the fit as our best estimates.

19 The responses as simulated by individual models were also fitted using equation 11. The
20 coefficients (a_i, τ_i) are tabulated in the supplementary information for all models and for the
21 responses in CO₂. Results of the fits are compared with the model output in a complementary
22 figure in the supplementary information.

24 **4 Results**

25 **4.1 Impulse Response Functions and Absolute Global Warming Potentials for** 26 **CO₂**

27 The evolution of the IRF_{CO_2} (Figure 1a) shows a rapid decrease in the first few years after the
28 emission pulse and then a continued but slow decline. It reaches a fraction of 0.60 ± 0.14 (\pm two
29 sdv) at year 20 and 0.41 ± 0.13 at year hundred. In other words, while 40% of the initial

1 atmospheric CO₂ perturbation is on model-average removed from the atmosphere within 20
 2 years, it takes additional 80 years to mitigate the next 19% of the perturbation. At year 1000,
 3 more than 254% (± 940%) of the perturbation is still airborne. This evolution is consistent
 4 with earlier model results (Maier-Reimer and Hasselmann, 1987;Cao et al., 2009;Siegenthaler
 5 and Joos, 1992;Sarmiento et al., 1992;Enting et al., 1994;Archer et al., 2009;Eby et al., 2009).
 6 It is also consistent with our understanding of the carbon cycle as two-way transfers of carbon
 7 between reservoirs with different timescales (Prentice et al., 2001;Denman et al.,
 8 2007;Oeschger et al., 1975;Broecker et al., 1980).

9 The time-integrated IRF_{CO_2} (Figure 1b), and thus $AGWP_{CO_2}$, increases continuously with time
 10 and there is no sign of approaching an equilibrium a steady state value at year 1000. The time-
 11 integrated IRF_{CO_2} for the individual models is tabulated in Table 4. The multi-model mean
 12 increases from 14.3±1.8 years (mean±2 sdv) –at year 20, to 30.2±5.67 at year 50, to
 13 52.4±11.37 at year 100, to 185.6±487 at year 500, and to 308±945 at year 1000.

14 The multi-model mean IRF_{CO_2} over the first 1000 years is fitted by a sum of exponentials and
 15 and the conditions that the sum of the coefficients a_i equals 1:

$$16 \quad IRF_{CO_2}(t) = a_0 + \sum_{i=1}^3 a_i \exp\left(\frac{-t}{\tau_i}\right) \quad \text{for } 0 \leq t \leq 1000 \text{ years} \quad (11)$$

17 The coefficients for IRF_{CO_2} and for other responses are given in Table 5 $a_0 = 0.21787$, $a_1 =$
 18 0.22896 , $a_2 = 0.28454$, $a_3 = 0.26863$ and the time scales $\tau_1 = 381.33$ yr, $\tau_2 = 34.785$ yr,
 19 and $\tau_3 = 4.1237$ yr. We note that the time-integrated IRF_{CO_2} as calculated with this fit is the
 20 same for a time horizon of 100 years and slightly different for the time horizons of 20, 50,
 21 500, and 1000 years than those given in Table 4. (the values from the fit are: 14.2 yr, 30.3 yr,
 22 52.4 yr, 184 yr, 310 yr). We use these values from the fit as our best estimates in Table 4.

23 *Uncertainty ranges across models and from model ensembles:* There are uncertainties in the
 24 IRF_{CO_2} and the $AGWP_{CO_2}$. The range in integrated IRF_{CO_2} across all models is 405 to 657
 25 years at year hundred. This is comparable to the 5-95% interval ranging from 40 to 64 years
 26 for the MAGICC6 ensemble that emulates a number of carbon-climate models. The 5-95%
 27 confidence interval for the Bern3D-LPJ ensemble, constrained with a broad set of
 28 observations, is 49 to 65 years at year 100 and somewhat smaller than the model range. The
 29 ensemble interval from the GENIE model is larger than the other ranges at year 100; the time-
 30 dependence of this ensemble was constrained only by preindustrial to modern CO₂ change. At

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1 year 20 and 50, the situation with regard to uncertainties ranges is qualitatively similar as for
2 year 100. However, the 5-95% confidence range for the MAGICC6 ensemble is smaller than
3 the range across all models at year 500, whereas the width of the confidence range is larger
4 than that of the model range for the observation-constrained Bern3D-LPJ and GENIE
5 ensembles. This may suggest that observational-constraints as applied in the Bern3D-LPJ
6 narrow the uncertainty range for a time horizon of up to 100 years.

7 [An alternative, linear programming approach:](#) An alternative approach is to constrain the
8 uncertainty in IRF_{CO_2} by assuming a linear carbon system and constraining the IRF_{CO_2} with
9 estimates of the 20th century airborne fraction of CO_2 . If we consider the uncertainty in the
10 integrated response, then clearly if IRF_{CO_2} lies between 0 and 1, the integral to time TH will
11 lie between 0 and TH , regardless of the form of the function IRF_{CO_2} . However not all
12 functions have physically reasonable behaviour and not all functions will be consistent with
13 the 20th century pattern of emissions and concentrations. Including such considerations can
14 narrow the range of possible values of the integrated response. Finding the maximum and
15 minimum possible values of the integral (and the functions that give these extrema) is a
16 problem in mathematical optimisation that can be analysed using the calculus of variations. If
17 the constraints are linear, then the discretised form of the optimisation can be expressed as a
18 problem in linear programming for which well-established computational techniques are
19 available (Press et al., 1986). Such an approach to analysing the carbon cycle response was
20 introduced earlier (Enting and Mansbridge, 1987).

21 For the present study we consider functions with $IRF_{CO_2}(t=0) = 1$, $IRF_{CO_2}(t) \geq 0$, $d/dt IRF_{CO_2}$
22 $(t) \leq 0$, and $d^2/dt^2 IRF_{CO_2}(t) \geq 0$, and which give behavior consistent with observations for the
23 20th century. This last condition is expressed in terms of the [20th century cumulative](#) airborne
24 fraction γ . If we take γ as known precisely then we find that for $TH = 100$, the integrated
25 response is constrained to lie in the range 39.7 to 52.4 years. The implication is that regardless
26 of the model structure, no [linear](#) model that exhibits the dissipative behaviour expressed by
27 the constraints on the derivatives, can have an integrated response that lies outside this range.
28 This range of 13 years is thus an upper bound on the amount of uncertainty that can arise from
29 differences in model structure (and termed "structural uncertainty" (Enting et al., 2012)).

30 If, however, it is acknowledged that the 20th century [cumulative](#) airborne fraction is not
31 known precisely, mainly because of uncertainties in land-use emissions (Stocker et al., 2011),
32 then a wider class of response functions and a wider range of integrals is possible.

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1 Constraining the airborne fraction to lie in the range 0.5 ± 0.05 gives the range 33.6 to 57.6
2 years –for possible values of the integral for $TH=100$. This expanded range of uncertainty is a
3 combination of the "structural uncertainty" described above, and a "calibration uncertainty"
4 arising from uncertainties in the calibration data (Enting et al., 2012).

5 Since we are primarily concerned with the range rather than the specific value, the 20th
6 century constraint has been approximated in terms of carbon emissions that grew
7 exponentially over 150 years with a time-scale of 50 years (emissions are proportional to
8 $\exp(t/(50 \text{ years}))$). This is a truncation of the expression for the airborne fraction in terms of
9 the Laplace transform of the response (Enting, 1990). In principle, the same approach can be
10 used for $TH=20$ years but because the 20 year time-scale is less representative of 20th century
11 changes, the "calibration" constraint does little to constrain the range of uncertainty for the
12 integral.

13 5-95% confidence range: In conclusion, different approaches to estimate the uncertainty in
14 the integrated IRF_{CO_2} for a time horizon of 100 years yield comparable results. Taken
15 together, these approaches yield an average uncertainty range of 26 years or of 49% for the
16 100-yr integrated response (Table 4). We assume that this average range represents
17 approximately a 5-95% confidence range and that it is symmetrically distributed around the
18 multi-model mean to arrive at our best estimates for the mean and 5-95% confidence range for
19 the time-integrated IRF_{CO_2} .

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20 The MAGICC and Bern3D-LPJ ensemble ranges are roughly symmetrically distributed
21 around the median for time horizons of 20, 50, and 100 years and skewed, but in different
22 directions, for 500 year. These results tend to support the assumption that the uncertainty
23 range is symmetric around the best estimate, though the ensemble range from the GENIE
24 model is skewed towards high values.

25 Absolute Global Warming Potential: Multiplying the time-integrated IRF_{CO_2} with the
26 radiative efficiency of CO_2 , A_{CO_2} , yields the Absolute Global Warming Potential, $AGWP_{CO_2}$.
27 Here, A_{CO_2} is computed for an atmospheric background of 389 ppm and in the limit of a small
28 perturbation by using the derivative of the simplified radiative forcing expression of (Myhre
29 et al., 1998) (Equation (3) and (4) and converting ppm into kg- CO_2): $A_{CO_2} = 5.35 \text{ W m}^{-2} (389$
30 $\text{ppm})^{-1} \times (2.123 \times 10^{12} \text{ kg-C/ppm})^{-1} \times (12 \text{ kg-C} / 44 \text{ kg-}CO_2) = 1.77 \cdot 10^{-15} \text{ W m}^{-2} \text{ kg-}CO_2^{-1}$.

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31 The uncertainty in the radiative efficiency of CO_2 is given as $\pm 10\%$ in the IPCC TAR and
32 AR4 (90% confidence interval; see page 140 of (Forster et al., 2007)) and guided by the

1 spread in published estimates. [An uncertainty of ±10% translates to an uncertainty range of](#)
2 [20%](#). The overall uncertainty in $AGWP_{CO_2}$ is ~~insignificantly only slightly~~ larger than that for
3 IRF_{CO_2} as the uncertainty in A_{CO_2} is much smaller than that of the time integrated IRF_{CO_2} .
4 Assuming quadratic error propagation, the uncertainty range in $AGWP_{CO_2}(TH=100 \text{ yr})$ ~~would~~
5 ~~be~~ [53%](#) (~~sqrt~~ $\sqrt{(0.49^2+0.24^2)=0.53}$) compared to 49% of the integrated IRF_{CO_2} (Table 4).
6 ~~Here, we use the same relative uncertainty for $AGWP_{CO_2}$ and IRF_{CO_2} .~~ Our best estimate for the
7 $AGWP_{CO_2}$ is a mean value of $92.57 \times 10^{-15} \text{ yr W m}^{-2} \text{ kg-CO}_2^{-1}$ and a 5-95% confidence range
8 of [\(6870.1 to 1175\)](#) $\times 10^{-15} \text{ yr W m}^{-2} \text{ kg-CO}_2^{-1}$ for a time horizon of 100 years. In IPCC
9 uncertainty language (Solomon et al., 2007), it is very likely that the $AGWP_{CO_2}$ for a time
10 horizon of 100 years is within a range of [\(70-68 to 1175\)](#) $\times 10^{-15} \text{ yr W m}^{-2} \text{ kg-CO}_2^{-1}$.

11 **4.2 Response in surface air temperature and AGTP, ocean heat uptake and** 12 **steric sea level rise**

13 The response in radiative forcing to the 100 GtC pulse [\(equivalent to 47.1 ppm\) corresponds](#)
14 [to a step increase by \$0.61 \text{ W m}^{-2}\$ at year 0, followed by a decrease to \$0.26 \text{ W m}^{-2}\$ at year 100](#)
15 [and to \$0.16 \text{ W m}^{-2}\$ at year 1000.](#) ~~as~~ ~~These values are~~ computed from the multi-model mean
16 IRF_{CO_2} ~~with the help of~~ ~~equation (3) and for a reference mixing ratio of 389 ppm~~
17 $(RF(t)=5.35 \text{ W m}^{-2} \ln((389 \text{ ppm} + IRF_{CO_2}(t) \times 47.1 \text{ ppm})/389 \text{ ppm}))$. ~~(Myhre et al., 1998)~~
18 ~~corresponds to a step increase by 0.61 W m^{-2} at year 0, followed by a decrease to 0.26 W m^{-2}~~
19 ~~at year 100 and to 0.15 W m^{-2} at year 1000.~~ ~~What magnitude in the SAT response is to be~~
20 ~~expected from this forcing?~~ The equilibrium response in global mean surface air temperature
21 (SAT) to these forcing values are 0.49°C [\(year 0\)](#), 0.212°C [\(year 100\)](#) and 0.132°C [\(year](#)
22 [1000\)](#) ~~and~~ when assuming [for illustrative purposes](#) a typical mid-range climate sensitivity of
23 3°C for a nominal doubling of CO_2 .

24 The multi-model mean response in SAT to the 100 GtC pulse emission (Figure 2a, Tables [6](#)
25 [and 75](#)) is an increase by $0.2019 \pm 0.120^\circ\text{C}$ within the first 20 years. Afterwards, SAT remains
26 almost constant until year 100. This evolution is a consequence of the delayed response in
27 SAT to the initial increase in radiative forcing as it takes time to heat the surface layers of the
28 ocean with its large heat capacity and heat exchange with the deep ocean. After year 100,
29 SAT is generally closer to [equilibrium-steady state](#) with the simulated radiative forcing and
30 decreases slowly to $0.14 \pm 0.089^\circ\text{C}$ by year 1000. Our best estimates for the mean and 5 to 95%
31 uncertainty ranges in SAT changes and AGTP for CO_2 are tabulated for a range of time
32 horizons in Table [65](#). For a time horizon of 100 years, AGTP of CO_2 is $0.4946 \times 10^{-15} \text{ }^\circ\text{C per}$

1 kg-CO₂ and the estimated 5 to 95% confidence range is (0.~~22-05~~ to 0.7492)×10⁻¹⁵ °C per kg-
2 CO₂.

3 (Fuglestedt et al., 2010) applied the analytical response functions for CO₂ as given in the
4 AR4 and the analytical response function for temperature to a change in radiative forcing (*R*)
5 by (Boucher and Reddy, 2008) to estimate *AGTP*_{CO₂} to 0.68, 0.58 and 0.51×10⁻¹⁵ °C per kg-
6 CO₂ for time horizons of 20, 100, and 500 years respectively. These values are higher than
7 our best estimates of 0.552, 0.5546 and 0.38×10⁻¹⁵ °C per kg-CO₂, but well within the 5 to
8 95% confidence range (Table 65). The different values are explained by the difference in
9 temperature responses and less due to the differences in *IRF*_{CO₂}.

10
11 The response in SAT is fairly smooth in most EMICs and box models and the response in
12 SAT is well defined in these models. However, the models that feature a dynamic atmosphere
13 (HadGEM2-ES, MPI-ESM, NCAR CSM1.4, LOVECLIM) show strong interannual-to-
14 decadal variability in SAT of several tenths of a degree Celsius both in the control and in the
15 pulse simulation. We note that the three Earth System Models were run over the first 100
16 years only. This internal variability of the more comprehensive models makes the extraction
17 of the response in SAT challenging for these models and a well-defined separation of the
18 forced response from the models' internal variability is not achieved when relying on single
19 simulations. For example HadGEM2-ES shows a positive variation in annual SAT values of
20 several tenths of a degree Celsius towards the end of the simulation in the standard pulse
21 experiment. This yields a difference in SAT of about 0.43°C between the smoothed
22 HadGEM2-ES response and the multi-model mean response near year 100 (Figure 2). This
23 indicates that it is difficult to extract the temperature response for use in GTP from
24 comprehensive models when they are forced with a pulse of modest size as applied here.
25 Excluding the four models with dynamic atmosphere from the averaging has a relatively
26 small effect on the multi-model mean SAT and deviations are well within the uncertainty
27 range.

28 The response in ocean heat content (OHC) and steric sea level rise (SSLR) is ~~of-on~~ multi-
29 century ~~type-timescales~~ (Figure 2b,c, Table 86). The responses in these quantities are in
30 general much smoother than for SAT as they mainly reflect the time-integrated, cumulative
31 perturbation in air-sea heat fluxes. Multi-model SSLR is 1.87 ±1.7 cm (±2 sdv) at year 100
32 and 4.6±6.10 cm at year 1000 in response to the 100 GtC pulse. The median in SSLR

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1 response in the Bern3D-LPJ ensemble is close to the multi-model mean at year 100, while the
2 5 to 95% confidence interval ranges from 0.7 to 2.8 cm and is thus smaller than the multi-
3 model range.

4 The multi-model response in OHC [for the 100 GtC pulse](#) reaches $154 \pm 134 \times 10^{22}$ J by year 100
5 and $40 \pm 41 \times 10^{22}$ J by year 1000. The upper and lower extreme cases in the multi-model
6 ensemble are the [ESMs](#): the MPIM and NCAR CSM1.4 on the low side and the HadGEM2-
7 ES on the high side. This indicates that the responses in globally aggregated values do not
8 depend on the type of model, e.g., ESM versus EMIC. The 5 to 95% interval in OHC of the
9 MAGICC ensemble and of the observation-constrained Bern3D-LPJ ensemble is smaller at
10 year 100 and comparable to the model range at year 500.

11 In conclusion, AGTP of CO₂ varies much less than AGWP for time horizons between 20 and
12 1000 years. However, [relative uncertainties \(e.g., in percent of the mean value\)](#) in the
13 estimates of AGTP are much larger than those for AGWP, as also inferred with a box model
14 ensemble by (Reisinger et al., 2010), and [relative uncertainties](#) in the response in ocean heat
15 content and steric sea level rise are also larger than for AGTP.

16 **4.3 Response in ocean and land carbon**

17 The carbon that is removed from the atmosphere is taken up by the ocean and the land
18 biosphere (Figure 3). In the first decade, both the ocean and the land contribute substantially
19 to removing the atmospheric carbon perturbation. Land and ocean absorb on multi-model
20 mean close to 20 GtC during the first 20 years after the emission. The ocean continues to
21 absorb carbon from the atmosphere and the multi-model perturbation in the ocean carbon
22 inventory is 1920 ± 78 GtC by year 20, 332 ± 125 GtC by year 100 and 5960 ± 128 GtC by year
23 1000. In other words, [6059%](#) of the emission pulse (multi-model average) has been
24 transferred to the ocean by year 1000 (Figure 3a)

25 In contrast, the land perturbation remains fairly constant after a few decades up to year 100
26 and decreases thereafter in most models. On multi-model average, the land has sequestered
27 198 ± 16 GtC by year 20, 232 ± 204 GtC by year 100 and 167 ± 148 GtC by year 1000. It is
28 interesting to note that the three ensembles include also cases where the land loses carbon to
29 the atmosphere in response to the 100 GtC emission pulse (Figure 3b). In these model
30 realizations, the climate change resulting from an emission pulse forces a carbon loss from
31 land ecosystems that is larger than the positive impacts of elevated atmospheric CO₂. This

1 loss is likely predominantly driven by accelerated turnover of soil and litter carbon in
2 response to warming (Joos et al., 2001).

3 The response in ocean carbon inventory to an emission pulse is relatively well understood.
4 Ocean uptake is mainly driven by physico-chemical processes and uptake rates are governed
5 by the quantitatively well-understood carbonate chemistry in surface waters and by the rates
6 of surface-to-deep transport. The latter are constrained by the distribution of transient tracers
7 such as CFCs and bomb-produced radiocarbon in the thermocline (Key et al., 2004). In early
8 generation carbon cycle models such as the Bern-SAR model only these physico-chemical
9 processes were included. This first-order response is modified by other processes such as
10 ocean warming and changes in ocean circulation and marine biogeochemistry (Plattner et al.,
11 2001;Sarmiento et al., 1998;Joos et al., 1999).

12 The response of the land biosphere carbon inventory is associated with considerable
13 uncertainties. It is currently not clear whether the land will continue to act as a strong carbon
14 sink or whether climate change will lead to a loss of land carbon that overwhelms the
15 potentially positive influence of elevated atmospheric CO₂ and nitrogen input on net primary
16 productivity and carbon stocks. This limited understanding is reflected in the large uncertainty
17 range. We estimate the 5 to 95% confidence range for the response in land carbon inventory
18 to 45 GtC at year 100. For comparison, the corresponding uncertainty range for the ocean
19 inventory is 29 GtC.

20 In conclusion, carbon uptake by the land biosphere is about equally important for the
21 evolution of IRF_{CO_2} as uptake by the ocean during the first two decades after the release.
22 Subsequently, the ocean becomes the dominant carbon sink. The uncertainty range of the
23 terrestrial and oceanic carbon inventories remain substantial over the 1000 year analysis
24 period. ▲

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4.4 Influence of background conditions, pulse size, and carbon cycle-climate feedback

4.4.1 Background conditions

The response in atmospheric CO₂ and cumulative air-to-sea and air-to-land carbon fluxes depends sensitively on the background conditions (Figure 4). Ten out of fifteen models were also used to run the simulations where a 100 GtC emission pulse is added to preindustrial (PI) in addition to present day (PD) conditions. For these models, the time integrated IRF_{CO_2} at year 100 ranges between 34 and 47 years for the PI100 case and between 45 and 62 years for the PD100 case. The lower CO₂ perturbation for PI100 is generally due to a higher uptake by both the ocean and the land biosphere and is consistently lower for PI than PD conditions for all individual models.

The responses in SAT, OHC, and SSLR are similar for PI100 and PD100. This is due to two compensating effects (Caldeira and Kasting, 1993; Wuebbles et al., 1995; Reisinger et al., 2011). The time-integrated CO₂ response decreases by roughly 23% from PD to PI conditions. On the other hand, the radiative forcing per unit change in atmospheric CO₂ increases by 39% from PD to PI conditions. The range in time-integrated forcing at year 100 is then almost identical (32 to 43 yr W m⁻² for PI100 versus 29 to 40 yr W m⁻² for PD100).

The ocean uptake capacity regulated by the carbonate chemistry decreases with increasing CO₂ and warmer climate conditions are generally associated with a lower solubility of CO₂ and a more sluggish surface-to-deep transport (Joos et al., 1999; Roy et al., 2011). As expected, the model range in cumulative air-to-sea flux is smaller for PD (24 to 40 GtC) than for PI (32 to 47 GtC) conditions and at year 100. The ocean carbon uptake is consistently lower for PD than PI conditions in all models during the first hundred years. In the long-run, the time-integrated ocean uptake becomes larger for PD100 than PI100 in the Bern3D-LPJ model. This is likely related to the large difference in the land carbon responses (~267 GtC at year 500) between the PI100 and PD100 cases in this model.

The land carbon uptake in the model depends on factors such as the spatio-temporal evolution of net primary productivity (NPP) under changing CO₂ and climate and the change in soil and litter carbon turnover rates with changing climate conditions. It is beyond the scope of this paper to discuss the processes affecting land carbon stocks in detail for the range of models. The response in land carbon inventory to changes in CO₂ and climate is complex and

1 regionally distinct. Generally, the models react with an increase in NPP to increasing
2 atmospheric CO₂. Temperature and precipitation changes can have both positive and negative
3 effects on NPP, while most models assume that soil and litter turnover rates increase
4 approximately exponentially with increasing temperatures.

5 The response in land carbon inventory at year 100 ranges between 212 and 365 GtC for PI100
6 compared to 10 to 42 GtC for PD100. The model spread is thus considerably smaller for the
7 PI100 than for the PD100 case. The response is not consistent among models. LOVECLIM
8 shows a higher land carbon uptake under PD than PI conditions, NCAR CSM1.4 and DCESS
9 show similar changes, whereas most models simulate a reduced land uptake for PD100
10 compared to PI100.

11 The response for temporally varying background conditions is in addition explored with one
12 model (Bern3D-LPJ) for illustrative purposes. Emissions of CO₂ and non-CO₂ agents are
13 prescribed to follow those from the Representative Concentration Pathways RCP2.6, RCP4.5,
14 RCP6.0 and RCP8.5 in the control setup. The same procedure was applied to determine the
15 IRF as in the standard setup. However, forcing (CO₂, non-CO₂, aerosoles, landuse area) was
16 extended based on the RCPs until year 2300 as described in (Zickfeld et al., 2012). After year
17 2300, the forcing is extended until year 3010 by using 2300 values. The pulse was released in
18 year 2010 instead of 2015 as in the 389 ppm background scenario. The evolution of *IRF_{CO2}*
19 (Figure 5a) is relatively similar between the standard case (389 ppm background) and
20 RCP2.6, but very different for the three other RCP cases. *IRF_{CO2}* decreases in all cases to
21 about 70% in the first two decades after the pulse. Then, it continues to decrease for the
22 standard and the RCP2.6 cases, whereas *IRF_{CO2}* increases again in the other cases as
23 atmospheric CO₂ and global warming continues to rise in these scenarios. For RCP8.5, the
24 pulse fraction remaining airborne is still well above 80% at year 1000. The time-integrated
25 *IRF_{CO2}* evaluated at year 100 is 62 years for the 389 ppm background and 66, 68, 69 and 75
26 years for RCP2.6, RCP4.5, RCP6.0, and RCP8.5, respectively. The resulting perturbation in
27 radiative forcing is evaluated as difference in forcing between the control without pulse and
28 the corresponding pulse run and using the non-linear equation (3). AGWP range between 105
29 and 85×10^{-15} yr W m⁻² kg-CO₂⁻¹ for the five cases and at year 100. The RCP8.5 case,
30 although featuring the largest time-integrated *IRF_{CO2}*, has the smallest AGWP of the five
31 cases as the radiative efficiency decreases with higher CO₂ concentration.

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1 4.4.2 Pulse size

2 We next turn to the case where 5000 GtC were released into the atmosphere (PI5000) (Figure
3 6). The 5000 GtC pulse run was carried out with 10 models. With this higher input, a
4 considerably greater proportion of CO₂ remains in the atmosphere, compared to the release of
5 100 GtC (PI100). For the PI5000 simulation, the integral of IRF_{CO_2} through to year 100 is
6 about double that from the PI100 simulation. In other words, the time integrated IRF_{CO_2}
7 depends sensitively on the pulse size. In particular the ocean uptake of carbon per unit carbon
8 emitted is substantially smaller for the PI5000 than PI100 case.

9 As for pulse sizes of 100 GtC, the SAT increases rapidly within the first two decades after the
10 pulse and remains high for the centuries to follow, while ocean heat content and steric sea
11 level rise increase more gradually. The simulated SAT at year 100 per unit carbon emission is
12 roughly 40% smaller in the PI5000 than the PI100 case (~~0.052-6~~ to ~~8-6~~ 1.7 °C versus ~~4-0~~ 0.8 to
13 0.345°C per ~~50~~ 100 GtC). Similarly, the responses in ocean heat content and steric sea level
14 rise are smaller per unit emission for the larger pulse. This smaller climate response per unit
15 emission is a consequence of the smaller time-integrated forcing per unit emissions for larger
16 pulses. The time-integrated radiative forcing at year 100 is smaller by 39% for PI5000 than
17 for PI100. The decrease in radiative efficiency (Equation 3) more than compensates for the
18 larger time-integrated IRF_{CO_2} in PI5000 than PI100.

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19 Next, the influence of the pulse size on the Absolute Global Warming Potential of CO₂ at year
20 100 is investigated in more detail (Figure 5b). Specifically, we ask how representative is the
21 AGWP_{CO₂} as determined with a pulse input of 100 GtC in our standard setup for the limiting
22 case of an infinitely small pulse. The pulse size was varied between 1 GtC and 5000 GtC in
23 the Bern3D-LPJ both for constant background conditions of 389 ppm as well as for the
24 RCP6.0 case. AGWP_{CO₂}($t=100$ yr) is plotted versus pulse size in Figure 5b. A polynomial fit
25 through the data points yields a continuous relationship between pulse size and AGWP over
26 the range from 0 to 5000 GtC. The results show that AGWP_{CO₂}($t=100$ yr) for an infinitely
27 small pulse is only about 1.2% higher than for a pulse size of 100 GtC. Results also show that
28 internal climate variability affect the computed AGWP_{CO₂} significantly for small pulses of a
29 few GtC only in the Bern3D-LPX. This is evidenced by the scatter in results for small pulses.
30 In conclusion, the AGWP_{CO₂} values tabulated in Table 4 are a good approximation for the
31 limiting case of infinitely small carbon additions or removals to the atmosphere.

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4.4.3 Carbon Cycle-Climate Feedbacks

The influence of the carbon cycle-climate feedbacks is investigated with the Bern3D-LPJ model for emission pulses of 100 and 5000 GtC added to preindustrial conditions (Figure 76). Results are compared between a setup where climate varies in response to an emission pulse and a setup where climate is kept invariant at preindustrial conditions and for a range of pulse sizes. The time-integrated IRF_{CO_2} at year 20, 50, 100, 500, and 1000 is 5%, 10%, 13%, 13%, 8% lower for the 100 and 4%, 9%, 15%, 33%, 40% lower for the 5000 GtC around 13% and 15% lower for the 100 and 5000 GtC pulses if the carbon cycle-climate feedback is suppressed. At year 1000, the reduction is similar for the small pulse, but about 40% for the 5000 GtC pulse. The reductions in the time-integrated IRF_{CO_2} due to the carbon cycle-climate feedback are similar to the effects of reducing the pulse size from 5000 GtC to about 2000 GtC and from 100 GtC to 10 GtC, respectively (Figure 76).

In summary, IRF_{CO_2} and its time integral is lower for preindustrial than present day background conditions and for smaller compared to larger emission pulses. On the other hand, the ocean uptake per unit emission decreases with increasing background CO_2 concentrations (and related warmer climate conditions) and increasing pulse sizes. The responses in SAT, ocean heat content and steric sea level rise show little differences between the two 100 GtC cases and a smaller response per unit emission for larger pulse sizes. The time-integrated IRF_{CO_2} and thus the AGWP depend also on the carbon cycle-climate feedback. However, the most important factor that determines the time-integrated IRF_{CO_2} and AGWP is the choice of time horizon.

5 Discussion and Conclusion

We have reassessed the response of the coupled carbon cycle-climate system to an emission pulse of carbon for present day CO_2 and climate conditions using a suite of models of various complexity. The multi-model mean response in atmospheric CO_2 was fitted by an analytical function (sum of exponentials) for easy use by others. A novel element of the study is a thorough assessment of uncertainties in the simulated responses based on the spread of the multi-model ensemble and of three ensembles with individual models as well as using a linear programming approach constrained by observations. These different approaches to estimate the uncertainty in the integrated IRF_{CO_2} yield comparable results. We also quantified the sensitivity of the responses to the magnitude of the emission pulse and the atmospheric and

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1 climatic background conditions. The influence of the climate-carbon cycle feedback on results
2 was investigated within one model. [-A recent study investigates how differences among the
3 IRFs impact the estimates of GWP and GTP \(Olivie and Peters, 2012\).](#)

4 [It is important to update the AGWP and AGTP of CO₂ and to assess their uncertainty since
5 CO₂ is the reference gas in GWP and GTP calculations. It therefore exerts a significant
6 control on the GWP and GTP of any other gas.](#) We find that that the absolute global warming
7 potential (AGWP) of CO₂ for a time horizon of 100 year is 92.7×10^{-15} yr W m⁻² per kg-CO₂
8 with a 5 to 95% confidence range of (70-68 to 1175) $\times 10^{-15}$ yr W m⁻² per kg-CO₂ (Table 4).
9 Although, the ocean absorbs most of the emission pulse, the uncertainty in the perturbation of
10 the land carbon inventory (in absolute units) is larger than for the perturbation in the ocean
11 carbon inventory. This is related to different responses of the land biosphere models to
12 changes in atmospheric CO₂ and climate and reflects our incomplete knowledge on these
13 terrestrial processes.

14 There are also uncertainties related to the experimental setup. The time-integrated CO₂
15 impulse response at year 100 is about twice as large for an emission pulse of 5000 GtC
16 compared to our standard pulse size of 100 GtC. An emission of 5000 GtC is an extreme case
17 in the context of Global Warming Potential (GWP), though within reach when burning all
18 fossil resources. [Such large pulses are also used in other studies to assess the evolution in the
19 CO₂ perturbation over several centuries and up to 10 000 years.](#) (Archer et al., 2009;Eby et al.,
20 2009). [These studies also find a long-lasting perturbation in atmospheric CO₂. A more
21 modest](#) increase of the pulse size [from 100 GtC](#) to 1000 GtC yields an increase in the time-
22 integrated CO₂ impulse response, used to compute AGWP and GWP, by one third. The
23 influence of the carbon-cycle climate feedback is found to be of order 10% to 20% on the
24 time integrated CO₂ impulse response and the AGWP of CO₂. The magnitude of this effect
25 varies across models (Friedlingstein et al., 2006;Gillett and Matthews, 2010). The carbon-
26 cycle climate feedback was not included in the IRF of CO₂ derived with the Bern-SAR model,
27 but is included in the Bern model versions as used in the TAR and AR4 and corresponding
28 IRFs. [A potential inconsistency in GWP can arise if climate feedbacks are included in the
29 calculation of *IRF*_{CO₂} and AGWP_{CO₂}, but not in the calculation of the gas under consideration.](#)
30 Although, choices in pulse size, background concentration, and model lead to considerable
31 uncertainties in AGWP and GWP, the most important variable is the time horizon (Table 97).

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1 The subjective choice of the time horizon ~~dominates uncertainties in~~ has a much larger
2 influence on the range in absolute global warming potential of CO₂ and ~~related uncertainties~~
3 ~~in the~~ global warming potential of most other agents than uncertainties associated with the
4 computation of these values for a given time horizon. The uncertainty in AGWP (in units of
5 yr W m⁻² per kg-CO₂) can be mapped to a ~~range uncertainty~~ in the time horizon (in units of
6 year). For a time horizon of 100 years, the lower and upper bound of the 5-95% confidence
7 range of the AGWP for CO₂ correspond to the multi-model mean value of AGWP evaluated
8 at the time horizon of 6870 years and 1352 years. This ~~uncertainty~~ range of 672 years,
9 stemming from uncertainties in the carbon cycle-climate model response, is much smaller than
10 the differences resulting from the subjective choice of alternative time horizons; in the AR4
11 IPCC report (Table 2.14, page 212 in (Forster et al., 2007)) GWP are tabulated for illustrative
12 time horizons of 20, 100, and 500 years. Table 97 illustrates how the GWP of methane,
13 nitrous oxide, and sulphur hexafluoride calculated with a single e-fold decay with
14 ~~perturbation life times~~ of 12 years, 114 years and 3200 years changes with the choice of time
15 horizon. For example, one could select a time horizon of 1000 years instead of 100 years in
16 the UNFCCC process and thereby account somewhat more explicitly for the long-time-scales
17 involved in the Earth System. In this case, the GWP for methane would be more than 5 times
18 smaller and only 17% (13 to 245%; 5 to 95% confidence range considering uncertainty in
19 IRF_{CO2} only) of that for 100 years. The GWP for N₂O would be more than 3 times smaller and
20 only 29% (232 to 412%) of that for 100 years, whereas the GWP for SF₆ would be about 48%
21 (153% to 1104%) larger than that for a time horizon of 100 years. On the other hand,
22 selecting a time horizon of 20 years instead of 100 years yields a three times larger GWP for
23 methane. A strong influence of the time horizon is also found for GTP and time-integrated
24 GTP (Peters et al., 2011).

25 The IPCC presented impulse response functions of CO₂, *IRF_{CO2}*, in its major assessment
26 reports. Figure 87 shows how *IRF_{CO2}* has changed from the IPCC First Assessment Report
27 (FAR), to the Second Assessment Report (SAR), to the Fourth Assessment Report (AR4)
28 and compares these responses with the results of this study. *IRF_{CO2}* was not updated in the
29 Third Assessment Report. Differences in the *IRF_{CO2}* are relatively small. The higher initial
30 airborne fraction published in the FAR is related to the application of an atmosphere-ocean
31 model with a neutral land biosphere, whereas in subsequent reports the land biosphere model
32 absorbs a considerable fraction of the initial emission pulse during the first few decades. The
33 responses published in the SAR and the AR4 are lower than the multi-model model mean

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1 | response of this study. This is predominantly due to the smaller pulse size and lower CO₂
2 | background in the SAR and AR4 setup. The time-integrated IRF_{CO_2} for the AR4 (Bern2.5D-
3 | LPJ) and SAR (Bern-SAR) models under the setup of this study (Table 4) are with 49 and 51
4 | years only slightly lower than the multi-model mean of 52 years at year 100. We do not find
5 | indications that there are systematic differences in IRF_{CO_2} between models of different
6 | complexities such as EMICs and comprehensive Earth System Models.

7 | In addition to the Absolute Global Warming Potential, we have also quantified the Absolute
8 | Global Temperature change Potential and corresponding responses in ocean heat content and
9 | steric sea level rise by directly applying the suite of carbon cycle-climate models. The
10 | uncertainty in these responses is much larger than the uncertainty in the IRF_{CO_2} and the
11 | AGWP of CO₂. This is mainly a consequence of the large range in the climate sensitivity of
12 | the different models (Table 2) and their ocean heat uptake efficiency. More general,
13 | uncertainties increase along the cause-effect chain from emissions to atmospheric abundance
14 | to radiative forcing to climate change (Steinacher et al., 2012). In addition, it is difficult to
15 | extract the temperature signal from a relatively small CO₂ emission pulse from results of
16 | comprehensive ESM as these models feature considerable interannual-to-decadal temperature
17 | variability. Larger pulse sizes and/or running ensembles instead of single simulations would
18 | improve signal-to-noise ratio. Intercomparison studies that look into the responses of non-
19 | CO₂ agents might further improve the quantification of metrics and their uncertainties. Yet
20 | fundamental issues will remain. Different forcing agents are distinct and any simple metric
21 | intended to compare forcing agents relies on subjective choices.

22 | CO₂ continues to dominate ~~man-made~~anthropogenic –warming. For the current crop of
23 | emission scenarios from the integrated assessment community (Weyant et al., 2006; Van
24 | Vuuren et al., 2008), the contribution of CO₂ to the anthropogenic warming by 2100 is
25 | estimated using an emission-driven climate model to be 58 to 76% of that of all greenhouse
26 | gases together (Strassmann et al., 2009). Independent from the choice of emission metric, the
27 | long life time of the anthropogenic CO₂ perturbation implies that anthropogenic emissions of
28 | CO₂ must be reduced if greenhouse gas forcing and anthropogenic climate change are to be
29 | stabilized (Siegenthaler and Oeschger, 1978).

30

31 | **Appendix A: Model Descriptions**

1 **ACC2:** The Aggregated Carbon Cycle, Atmospheric Chemistry and Climate model (ACC2)
2 (Tanaka et al., 2007; Tanaka, 2008) consists of a box model of the global carbon cycle, simple
3 parameterizations of the atmospheric chemistry, and a land-ocean energy balance model.
4 Most relevant to this study is the carbon cycle component, which is a four-layer atmosphere-
5 ocean box model coupled with a four-reservoir land biosphere box model (Section 2.1 of
6 (Tanaka, 2008)). The saturation of the ocean CO₂ uptake under rising atmospheric CO₂
7 concentration is dynamically reproduced by the thermodynamic equilibrium for carbonate
8 species. The CO₂ fertilization effect is parameterized by the β factor. The temperature
9 sensitivity of the soil respiration is modeled through the Q10 parameter. The land and ocean
10 CO₂ uptake is influenced by the temperature change. Values of uncertain parameters
11 (including the β factor and the Q10 parameter) are estimated based on an inverse estimation
12 setup (Section 3 of (Tanaka, 2008)), in which a large number of parameters are
13 simultaneously optimized by using associated historical observations and prior parameter
14 estimates including their uncertainties from year 1750 to 2000 (Tables 3.1 and 3.2 of (Tanaka,
15 2008)). Parameter values estimated through the inverse estimation are consistently used in
16 projections beyond 2000. The simplified process representations in ACC2 allow one to
17 perform a sensitivity analysis for the CO₂ response under various sets of assumptions. ACC2
18 has been applied to several studies (Tanaka et al., 2009a; Tanaka et al., 2009b; Tanaka et al.,
19 2012).

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20 **Bern-SAR:** This model was applied to calculate the CO₂ impulse response function as used
21 for the Global Warming Potentials of IPCC 1994 report on Radiative Forcing, the IPCC
22 Second Assessment Report and the Kyoto Protocol. The Bern model (Siegenthaler and Joos,
23 1992; Joos et al., 1996) is designed to compute the uptake of anthropogenic carbon by land
24 and ocean. It links a well-mixed atmosphere with the High-Latitude Exchange/Interior
25 Diffusion-Advection (HILDA) ocean model and a 4-box representation of the land biosphere
26 (Siegenthaler and Oeschger, 1987). Model parameters of the box-diffusion-type ocean model
27 were determined such that the model reproduces the oceanic distribution of natural and bomb-
28 produced radiocarbon. Net primary production on land increases with the natural logarithm of
29 CO₂ and the scaling factor ($\beta=0.27$) was chosen in order to close the atmospheric CO₂ budget
30 in the early nineties.

31 **Bern2.5D-LPJ:** This model was used to calculate the CO₂ impulse response function for the
32 IPCC AR4 report (Forster et al., 2007) (p.213). Here, the same code version as in the AR4

1 was used and subsequent updates of the land biosphere component (LPJ) are not included.
2 The Bern2.5D-LPJ (or Bern2.5CC in (Plattner et al., 2008)) reduced complexity climate
3 model includes components describing 1) the physical climate system, 2) the cycling of
4 carbon and related elements, and 3) a module to calculate concentrations of non-CO₂
5 greenhouse gases and radiative forcing by atmospheric CO₂, non-CO₂ greenhouse gases, and
6 aerosols (Plattner et al., 2008). The ocean physical component is the zonally averaged, three-
7 basin circulation model of (Stocker et al., 1992), coupled to a zonally and vertically averaged
8 atmospheric energy balance model, including an active hydrological cycle (Schmittner and
9 Stocker, 1999). The ocean biogeochemical component includes a simple prognostic
10 description of the cycles of carbon, carbon isotopes, oxygen, and carbon-related tracers
11 (Marchal et al., 1998; Joos et al., 1999; Plattner et al., 2001). The terrestrial biosphere
12 component is the Lund–Potsdam–Jena (LPJ) dynamic global vegetation model at 3.75° x 2.5°
13 resolution as used by (Joos et al., 2001; Gerber et al., 2003) and described in detail by (Sitch
14 et al., 2003). Vegetation is represented by nine plant functional types. Fertilization of plants
15 by increasing atmospheric CO₂ concentrations is modeled according to a modified Farquhar
16 scheme (Farquhar et al., 1980; Haxeltine and Prentice, 1996). The module designed to
17 calculate radiative forcing by atmospheric CO₂, non-CO₂ greenhouse gases, and aerosols is
18 based on work summarized in (Fuglestedt and Berntsen, 1999) and (Joos et al., 2001). The
19 climate sensitivity is 3.2 K for a nominal doubling of CO₂.

20 **Bern3D-LPJ:** Bern3D-LPJ is an Earth System Model of Intermediate Complexity with a
21 fully coupled carbon cycle and components that represent the ocean and sea ice, ocean
22 sediments, the atmosphere, and the terrestrial biosphere. The ocean component is a seasonally
23 forced three-dimensional frictional geostrophic global ocean model (Edwards et al., 1998)
24 with a resolution of 36 × 36 boxes in the horizontal direction and 32 vertical layers (Müller et
25 al., 2006). Marine biogeochemical cycles are implemented following OCMIP-2 (Najjar and
26 Orr, 1999; Orr et al., 1999; Najjar et al., 2007) with the addition of prognostic formulations for
27 biological productivity and the cycling of iron, silica, ¹³C and ¹⁴C (Parekh et al.,
28 2008; Tschumi et al., 2008), as well as a sedimentary component (Tschumi et al., 2011; Gehlen
29 et al., 2006; Heinze et al., 1999). The atmosphere is represented by a single-layer energy and
30 moisture balance model with the same horizontal resolution as the ocean component (Ritz et
31 al., 2011). The CO₂ forcing is calculated after (Myhre et al., 1998) and the model is tuned to
32 simulate an equilibrium climate sensitivity of 3°C. Other greenhouse gases and volcanic

1 aerosols are prescribed as global radiative forcing, while tropospheric sulphate aerosols are
2 taken into account by changing the surface albedo locally (Steinacher, 2011;Reader and Boer,
3 1998). The climate sensitivity is 3 K for a nominal doubling of CO₂. The terrestrial biosphere
4 component is based on the Lund-Potsdam-Jena (LPJ) Dynamic Global Vegetation Model at
5 3.75° × 2.5° resolution (Joos et al., 2001;Sitch et al., 2003). Vegetation is represented by 12
6 plant functional types and CO₂ fertilization is modeled according to the modified Farquhar
7 scheme (Farquhar et al., 1980;Haxeltine and Prentice, 1996). The model has recently been
8 extended with modules to account for land use (Strassmann et al., 2008;Stocker et al., 2011),
9 peatlands and permafrost dynamics (Gerten et al., 2004;Wania et al., 2009a, b), and land
10 surface albedo (Steinacher, 2011). The LPJ component is driven by global mean CO₂
11 concentrations and changes in surface air temperature relative to a reference period by scaling
12 global mean surface temperature change simulated by the Bern3D with spatial patterns of
13 precipitation and temperature (Steinacher, 2011;Stocker et al., 2011).

14 **CLIMBER2-LPJmL:** CLIMBER2-LPJmL (Kleinen et al., 2010) consists of the Earth System
15 Model of Intermediate Complexity (EMIC) CLIMBER2, coupled to the dynamic global
16 vegetation model (DGVM) LPJmL. CLIMBER2 (Petoukhov et al., 2005) consists of a 2.5-
17 dimensional statistical-dynamical atmosphere with a resolution of roughly 51° (longitude) by
18 10° (latitude), a zonally averaged ocean resolving three basins with a latitudinal resolution of
19 2.5°, and a sea ice model. CLIMBER2 also contains oceanic biogeochemistry, a model for
20 marine biota, and a sediment model (Archer, 1996;Brovkin et al., 2002;Brovkin et al., 2007).
21 Weathering rates scale to runoff from the land surface. To this EMIC we have coupled the
22 DGVM LPJmL (Sitch et al., 2003;Bondeau et al., 2007;Fader et al., 2010;Portmann et al.,
23 2008) in order to investigate land surface processes at a significantly higher resolution of
24 0.5x0.5°. Agricultural land use is included in this version of LPJ. Monthly anomalies from the
25 climatology of the climate fields are passed to LPJ, where they are added to climate patterns
26 based on the Climatic Research Unit CRU-TS climate data set (New et al., 2000). The carbon
27 flux between atmosphere and land surface is determined from the annual change in the LPJ
28 carbon pools, and employed in CLIMBER2 to determine the CO₂ concentration.
29 Biogeochemical feedbacks are thus determined by the combination of CLIMBER2 and
30 LPJmL, while biogeophysical effects are solely determined by CLIMBER2. The climate
31 sensitivity is 3 K.

32 **DCESS:** The DCESS model consists of fully coupled modules for the atmosphere, ocean,

1 ocean sediment, land biosphere and lithosphere (Shaffer et al., 2008). The model geometry
2 consists of one hemisphere, divided into two $360^\circ \times 52^\circ$ zones. Long term climate sensitivity
3 has been calibrated to 3°C . The atmosphere component considers radiation balance, heat and
4 gas exchanges with other modules, and meridional transport of heat and water vapor between
5 low-mid latitude and high latitude zones. The ocean component is 270° wide and extends
6 from the equator to 70° latitude. Both ocean sectors are divided into 55 layers with 100 m
7 vertical resolution. Each layer is assigned an ocean sediment section, with width determined
8 from observed ocean depth distributions. Sea ice and snow cover are diagnosed from
9 estimated atmospheric temperature profiles. Circulation and mixing are prescribed, with
10 values calibrated from observations as in the HILDA model (Shaffer and Sarmiento, 1995).
11 Biogenic production of particulate organic matter in the ocean surface layer depends on
12 phosphate availability but with lower efficiency in the high latitude zone. The calcite to
13 organic carbon rain ratio depends on surface layer temperature. The ocean sediment
14 component considers calcium carbonate dissolution as well as oxic-anoxic organic matter
15 remineralisation. The land biosphere component includes leaves, wood, litter and soil. Here, it
16 has been modified to include prescribed land use change carbon losses, distributed in
17 proportion to the initial inventory sizes of the module components. With this change, the
18 model CO_2 fertilization factor, originally 0.65, has been recalibrated to 0.37. Finally, the
19 lithosphere component considers outgassing and climate-dependent weathering of carbonate
20 and silicate rocks, as well as rocks containing old organic carbon and phosphorus. The
21 atmospheric methane module was not used here.

22 **GENIE:** The GENIE-1 physical model comprises the 3D frictional geostrophic ocean model
23 GOLDSTEIN, with a resolution of 36×36 boxes in the horizontal direction and 16 vertical
24 levels, coupled to a 2D energy moisture balance atmosphere and a thermodynamic-dynamic
25 sea-ice model (Edwards and Marsh, 2005). Recent developments (Marsh et al., 2011)(Marsh
26 et al. 2011) include the incorporation of stratification-dependent mixing, a more general
27 equation of state through a parameterization of thermobaricity, and improvements to the
28 representation of fixed wind forcing. The land surface component is ENTS, a dynamic model
29 of terrestrial carbon storage (Williamson et al., 2006) with a relatively simple implementation
30 of spatiotemporal land use change. Ocean chemistry is modeled with BIOGEM (Ridgwell et
31 al., 2007), including iron limitation (Annan and Hargreaves, 2010), and is coupled to the
32 sediment model SEDGEM with fixed weathering, diagnosed during the model spin-up to
33 simulated observed ocean alkalinity (Ridgwell and Hargreaves, 2007). All GENIE results are

1 derived from ensembles applying the same 20-member parameter set. The selected parameters
2 were filtered from a 100-member, 28-parameter pre-calibrated ensemble, constrained for
3 plausible present-day CO₂ concentrations.

4 **HadGEM2-ES:** HadGEM2-ES (Collins et al., 2011) couples interactive ocean
5 biogeochemistry, terrestrial biogeochemistry and dust, interactive tropospheric chemistry and
6 aerosol components into an update of the physical model HadGEM1. The physical model
7 contains a 40 level 1x1 degree, moving to 1/3rd degree at the equator ocean, and a 38 level
8 1.875 x 1.25 atmosphere (Martin et al., 2011). HadGEM2-ES has been set-up and used to
9 perform all of the CMIP5 simulations as described by (Jones et al., 2011). The ocean
10 biogeochemistry uses the Diat-HadOCC model (Totterdell and Halloran in prep), an update
11 of HadOCC (Palmer and Totterdell, 2001), now simulating diatom and non-diatom
12 phytoplankton functional types, a single zooplankton, and cycling of nitrogen, silica and iron.
13 Diat-HadOCC is coupled to other earth system components through the model's physics, iron
14 supplied through dust, air-sea exchange of CO₂ and oceanic emission of dimethylsulphide.
15 The terrestrial carbon cycle is represented by the MOSES2 land surface scheme (Essery et al.,
16 2003) which simulates exchange of water, energy and carbon between the land surface and
17 the atmosphere, and the TRIFFID dynamic global vegetation model (Cox, 2001) which
18 simulates the coverage and competition between 5 plant functional types (broadleaf tree,
19 needleleaf tree, C3 and C4 grass and shrub) and 4 non-vegetated surface types (bare soil,
20 urban, lakes and land-ice).

21 **LOVECLIM:** The Earth system model of intermediate complexity LOVECLIM (version 1.1)
22 (Menviel et al., 2008) links the ECBilt atmosphere, the CLIO sea-ice ocean model and a
23 bucket model for land hydrology with the VECODE dynamic vegetation model and the
24 LOCH ocean carbon model. The atmosphere model (ECBilt) is a spectral T21 model, based
25 on quasigeostrophic equations with 3 vertical levels and a horizontal resolution of about
26 5.625x5.625 degree. Ageostrophic forcing terms are estimated from the vertical motion field
27 and added to the prognostic vorticity equation and thermodynamic equation.

28 The sea ice-ocean component (CLIO) (Goosse et al., 1999) consists of a primitive equation
29 ocean general circulation model with 3x3 degree resolution on a partly rotated grid in the
30 North Atlantic. CLIO uses a free surface and is coupled to a thermodynamic-dynamic sea ice
31 model (Fichefet and Maqueda, 1997). In the vertical there are 20 unevenly spaced levels .
32 Mixing along isopycnals, diapycnal mixing, as well as the effect of mesoscale eddies on
33 transports and mixing and downsloping currents at the bottom of continental shelves are

1 parameterized (Goosse et al., 2011). The ocean, atmosphere and sea ice components model
2 are coupled by exchange of momentum, heat and freshwater fluxes. The hydrological cycle
3 over land is closed by a bucket model for soil moisture and simple river runoff scheme. The
4 global dynamic terrestrial vegetation is modeled using VECODE (Brovkin et al., 1997).
5 Annual mean values of precipitation and temperature are communicated to the vegetation
6 from the atmospheric model. On the basis of these mean values the evolution of the
7 vegetation cover described as a fractional distribution of desert, tree, and grass in each land
8 grid cell is calculated once a year. In the current version, only land albedo (as seen by the
9 atmospheric model) outside the ice sheets is changed by VECODE. LOCH is a three-
10 dimensional global model of the oceanic carbon cycle with prognostic equations for dissolved
11 inorganic carbon, total alkalinity, phosphate, dissolved and particulate organic matter, oxygen
12 and silicates (Goosse et al., 2011;Menviel et al., 2008). The phytoplankton growth is a
13 function of temperature, light and phosphate concentration. The sink term depends on grazing
14 and mortality. Although phytoplankton biomass is a prognostic variable it is not subject to
15 advective transports. Remineralization below the euphotic zone (0-120 m) is a function of
16 oxygen concentrations. Anoxic remineralization can occur in oxygen-depleted areas but is
17 less efficient. The export production is accompanied by the export of opal assuming a
18 constant silicate-to-phosphate ratio. Furthermore CaCO₃ (calcite and aragonite) shells are
19 formed as a function of phytoplankton growth. The dissolution of shells occurs in the deepest
20 ocean layer. LOCH is coupled to CLIO, using the same time step. Biogeochemical tracers that
21 are subject to advection and mixing are advected and mixed using the same circulation field
22 and mixing parameters respectively as in CLIO.

23 **MAGICC6:** MAGICC is a reduced-complexity climate model with an upwelling-diffusive-
24 entrainment ocean and is coupled to a simple carbon cycle model including CO₂ fertilization
25 and temperature feedback parameterizations of the terrestrial biosphere and oceanic uptake.
26 MAGICC version 6 has been calibrated to AOGCMs (Meehl et al., 2007) and carbon cycle
27 models (Friedlingstein et al., 2006) used in the Fourth IPCC Assessment Report (see
28 (Meinshausen et al., 2011b;Meinshausen et al., 2011a) for details). Varying the parameters in
29 MAGICC to emulate AOGCM/C4MIP model combinations allows to explore the climate
30 response space in terms of concentrations, radiative forcing, and hemispheric land/ocean
31 surface air temperatures spanned by the range of complex climate models. This version of
32 MAGICC6 was also used to produce harmonized GHG concentrations for the new set of
33 Representative Concentration Pathways (Meinshausen et al., 2011b). For this

1 intercomparison, we used a set of 19 AOGCM calibrations and 9 coupled climate-carbon
2 cycle model calibrations.

3 **MESMO:** MESMO version 1 (Matsumoto et al., 2008) is based on the C-GOLDSTEIN
4 ocean model (Edwards and Marsh, 2005). It consists of a frictional geostrophic 3-D ocean
5 circulation model coupled to a dynamic-thermodynamic sea ice model and atmospheric model
6 of energy and moisture balance. Ocean production is based on prognostic nutrient uptake
7 kinetics of phosphate and nitrate with dependence on light, mixed layer depth, temperature,
8 and biomass. Interior ocean ventilation is well calibrated against natural radiocarbon on
9 centennial timescale and against transient anthropogenic tracers on decadal time-scales. Here
10 MESMO1 is coupled to a simple prognostic land biosphere model (Williamson et al., 2006)
11 that calculates energy, moisture, and carbon exchanges between the land and the
12 atmosphere. Prognostic variables include vegetation and soil carbon as well as land surface
13 albedo and temperature.

14 **MPI-ESM:** The fully comprehensive Earth System Model MPI-ESM of the Max-Planck-
15 Institute for Meteorology in Hamburg, Germany consists of the atmospheric model ECHAM6
16 (here in T63L47 resolution) with land surface model JSBACH, (Raddatz et al., 2007). Each
17 land grid cell is divided into tiles covered with 8 natural and 4 anthropogenic PFTs;
18 vegetation model in JSBACH includes an efficient module for vegetation dynamics (Brovkin
19 et al., 2009). Anthropogenic land use is predetermined. The physical ocean model is MPIOM,
20 which further includes a sea-ice model (Marsland et al., 2003) on a nominal 1.5° grid with
21 higher resolution in the North Atlantic. Marine biogeochemistry is represented by the
22 Hamburg Ocean carbon cycle HAMOCC 5.1 which operates on the same grid as MPIOM and
23 includes the full carbonate chemistry and a NPZD type model of the biological pump (Maier-
24 Reimer et al., 2005;Maier-Reimer, 1993). MPI-ESM is used here in the same version that is
25 employed for the CMIP5 experiments ‘MPI-ESM-LR’. CO₂ is allowed to float freely between
26 the model’s carbon reservoirs (i.e., atmosphere, land, and ocean) depending on the state of the
27 compartments and climate-carbon cycle feedbacks are simulated by the model.

28 **NCAR CSM1.4:** The physical core of the Climate System Model of the National Centre for
29 Atmospheric Research (NCAR CSM1.4-carbon) (Doney et al., 2006;Fung et al., 2005) is a
30 modified version of the NCAR CSM1.4 coupled physical model, consisting of ocean,
31 atmosphere, land and sea ice components integrated via a flux coupler without flux
32 adjustments. Atmospheric CO₂ is treated as a prognostic variable whose balance is
33 determined by exchange fluxes with the land and ocean. The ocean model includes a derivate

1 of the OCMIP-2 (Ocean Carbon-Cycle Model Intercomparison Project Phase 2) ocean
2 biogeochemistry model (Najjar et al., 2007) with prognostic formulations for marine
3 biological production. The main processes of the organic and inorganic carbon cycle within
4 the ocean and air-sea CO₂ flux are included. A parameterization of the marine iron cycle
5 (Doney et al., 2006) considers atmospheric dust deposition/iron dissolution, biological uptake,
6 vertical particle transport and scavenging. Prognostic variables in the ocean include
7 phosphate, dissolved inorganic carbon, alkalinity, oxygen, and dissolved organic phosphorus.
8 The land carbon module combines the NCAR Land Surface Model with a modified version of
9 the terrestrial biogeochemical Carnegie-Ames-Stanford Approach (CASA; (Randerson et al.,
10 1997)) providing full coupling of energy (via dynamic leaf phenology and hence albedo),
11 water (via transpiration), and carbon cycles of the atmosphere and land. CASA follows the
12 life cycles of plant functional types from carbon assimilation via photosynthesis, to mortality
13 and decomposition, and the return of CO₂ to the atmosphere via respiration. NPP is allocated
14 to leafs, roots, and wood with preferred allocation to roots during water-limited conditions
15 and to wood/leaves during light-limited conditions. There are nine soil carbon pools. The
16 transfer rates between them and to the atmosphere are sensitive to soil temperature and soil
17 moisture saturation. The land model does not include other land surface processes that affect
18 atmosphere-biosphere interactions such as an explicit nitrogen cycle, fires and other
19 disturbances, herbivory, dynamic vegetation cover, or anthropogenic land cover change.
20

21 **TOTEM2:** TOTEM2 (Ver et al., 1999; Mackenzie et al., 2011) is a global biogeochemical
22 model of the life-essential elements carbon, nitrogen, and phosphorus. The model comprises
23 thirteen reservoirs: the atmosphere; six terrestrial reservoirs (living biota, humus, inorganic
24 soil, continental soilwater, shallow groundwater, and lakes); three coastal-zone reservoirs
25 (organic matter, water, and sediments); and three open ocean reservoirs (organic matter,
26 surface water, and deep water). The coupling of the individual cycles is achieved by the
27 average C:N:P ratios associated with oceanic and terrestrial photosynthesis (Redfield ratios),
28 autorespiration on land and in ocean waters, humus formation, and sedimentation of organic
29 matter in the coastal zone and open ocean. We make a simplifying assumption that these
30 biologically mediated coupling processes apply over many different species and
31 environments, and occur with the same global mean elemental ratios on the decadal to century
32 time-scale. All the transfer processes between the model reservoirs are represented by linear
33 or nonlinear equations describing reaction mechanisms and physical transport processes. The

1 model has been shown to reproduce well the atmospheric CO₂ concentration for the past 300
2 years (Ver et al., 1999).
3 **UVic ESCM:** The UVic ESCM version 2.9 (Eby et al., 2009) consists of a primitive equation
4 3-D ocean general circulation model coupled to a dynamic-thermodynamic sea-ice model and
5 an atmospheric energy-moisture balance model with dynamical feedbacks (Weaver et al.,
6 2001). The model conserves heat, moisture, and carbon between components to machine
7 precision without flux adjustments. The land surface and terrestrial vegetation components are
8 represented by a simplified version of the Hadley Centre's MOSES land-surface scheme
9 coupled to the dynamic vegetation model TRIFFID (Meissner et al., 2003). Land carbon
10 fluxes are calculated within MOSES and are allocated to vegetation and soil carbon pools
11 (Matthews et al., 2004). Ocean carbon is simulated by means of an OCMIP-type inorganic
12 carbon-cycle model and a NPZD marine ecosystem model with two nutrients (PO₄ and NO₃),
13 two phytoplankton classes, and prognostic denitrification (Schmittner and Galbraith, 2008) .
14 Sediment processes are represented using an oxic-only model of sediment respiration (Archer,
15 1996). Terrestrial weathering is diagnosed from the net sediment flux during spin-up and held
16 fixed at the [equilibrium-steady state](#) pre-industrial value for transient simulations. The model
17 was spun up with boundary conditions from the year 1800 for more than 10,000 years.

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1 Table 1: Overview on main simulations. All simulations are started from a preindustrial state.

Simulation	Model setup
	<i>PD100, standard impulse</i>
run 1	Atmospheric CO ₂ prescribed to follow the historical evolution up to year 2010 and kept at 389 ppm thereafter. Compatible emissions are diagnosed. Non-CO ₂ and land use forcing constant after 2010.
run 2	Model is forced with diagnosed emissions from run 1 and atmospheric CO ₂ is computed. Other forcings as in run 1.
run 3	Setup as in run 2. An emission pulse of 100 GtC is added in 2015 AD
	<i>PI100 and PI5000 preindustrial impulses</i>
run 45	Control simulation under preindustrial conditions and freely evolving CO ₂
run 56	As run 45 . An emission pulse of 100 GtC is added in year 10
run 67	As run 45 . An emission pulse of 5000 GtC is added in year 10

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1 Table 2: Characterization of the climate models: physical components, ΔT_{2x} denotes the equilibrium climate sensitivity for a nominal doubling of CO_2 . ΔT_{2x} reported here for the Bern3D-
 2 LPJ, CLIMBER2, DCESS, LOVECLIM, MESMO1.0, UVic2.9 are those determined by doubling preindustrial CO_2 in a simulation over 1000 year (Eby et al., 2012).

Model	Atmosphere ^a	Ocean and Sea ice ^b	Land surface	ΔT_{2x} (Celsius)
ACC2	Land-ocean energy balance model	Diffusion model, simple sea-ice correction factor	Simple land surface albedo parameterization	4.04
Bern-SAR	1-box	upwelling-diffusion-entrainment model	n/a	n/a
Bern2.5D-LPJ (or Bern2.5CC)	1-dim (zonally and vertically averaged) energy moisture-balance model, $7.5^\circ \times 15^\circ$	2-d friction-geostrophic circulation model with thermodynamic sea ice; 3 ocean basins, connected in Southern Ocean, $7.5^\circ \times 15^\circ$, 14 vertical levels	n/a	3.2
Bern3D-LPJ	2-dim energy-moisture balance model; $10^\circ \times (3-19)^\circ$	3-d friction-geostrophic circulation model with sea ice; $10^\circ \times (3-19)^\circ$, 32 levels	1-layer soil temperature, no soil moisture storage, river routing	3.3
CLIMBER-2-LPJmL	3-dim statistical-dynamical model; $10^\circ \times 51^\circ$, 10 layers	2-d friction-geostrophic circulation model with sea ice; 2.5° , 21 levels	1-layer soil temperature, 2-layer soil hydrology, snow cover, river routing	3.0
DCESS	2-box energy-moisture balance model	2-box parameterized circulation and exchange, no explicit sea ice; 55 levels	No explicit soil temperature and moisture calculation	2.8
GENIE	2-dim energy-moisture balance model ; $10^\circ \times (3-19)^\circ$	3-d friction-geostrophic circulation model with sea ice; $10^\circ \times (3-19)^\circ$, 16 levels	1-layer soil temperature, bucket soil moisture model, river routing	4.0 ± 0.8
HADGEM2-ES	3D GCM, 38 vertical levels, N96 (1.25×1.875 degree) resolution	3-d ocean GCM, 1-degree, increasing to 1/3 degree at equator. 40 vertical levels	MOSES-2: tiled land-surface with 4-layer soil temperature and hydrology, river routing.	4.58
LOVECLIM 1.1	3-dim quasi-geostrophic circulation model ; $5.6^\circ \times 5.6^\circ$, 3 levels	3-d primitive equation circulation model with sea ice; $3^\circ \times 3^\circ$, 20 levels	1-layer soil temperature, bucket soil moisture model, river routing	1.5
MAGICC6	4-box energy-balance model.	2 hemispheric columns, upwelling-diffusion-entrainment, 50 levels, simple sea-ice correction factor.	Simple land surface albedo parameterization; soil temperature/moisture only parameterized for permafrost area.	1.9 to 5.7 (Average 2.88)
MESMO 1.0	2-dim energy-moisture balance model; $10^\circ \times (3-19)^\circ$	3-d friction-geostrophic circulation model with sea ice; $10^\circ \times (3-19)^\circ$, 16 levels	1-layer soil temperature, bucket soil moisture model, river routing	3.7
MPI-ESM	ECHAM6 3D GCM T63L47	MPIOM 3-d primitive equation GCM + sea ice GR15L40 grid	JSBACH: tiled land-surface, 5-layer soil temperature, 1-layer hydrology, HD river routing model	3.4
NCAR CSM1.4	CCM3 T31, L18	NCOM 3.6° lon $0.8-1.8^\circ$ lat, 25 levels with sea ice	LSM T31	2.0
TOTEM	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
UVic 2.9	2-dim energy-moisture balance model ; $1.8^\circ \times 3.6^\circ$	3-d primitive equation circulation model with dynamic & thermodynamic sea ice $1.8^\circ \times 3.6^\circ$, 19 levels	1-layer soil temperature, complex soil moisture model, river routing	3.6

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1 Table 3: Characterization of the carbon cycle models.

Model	Land Carbon Cycle	Land use (LU) (LU area data and anthropogenic LU classes)	Marine Biogeochemistry & Ecosystem	Sediment / Weathering
ACC2	4-box, β -factor (CO ₂ fertilization) and Q10 temperature sensitivity of soil respiration)	n/a	4-box global atmosphere-ocean, temperature-sensitive carbonate chemistry	n/a
BernSAR	4-box, β -factor (CO ₂ fertilization)	n/a	n/a (perturbation approach)	n/a
Bern2.5D-LPJ (or Bern2.5CC)	Dynamic Vegetation Model, 9 Plant Functional Types, multiple-litter/soil pools, 3.75° x 2.5°	n/a	Prognostic export production, P, DIC, DOC, (POC), ALK, O ₂ , no ecosystem	n/a
Bern3D-LPJ	Dynamic Vegetation Model, 9 Plant Functional Types, multiple-litter/soil pools, 3.75° x 2.5°	Hyde 3.1	Prognostic export production, P, Fe, Si, DIC, DOC, POC ALK, O ₂ , no ecosystem	yes / diagnosed
CLIMBER2-LPJmL	Dynamic Vegetation Model 9 Plant Functional Types, 12 Crop Functional Types, 0.5° x 0.5°	Landuse dataset 1700-2005 (Portman et al 2008, Fader et al. 2010)	Prognostic export production, P, DIC, DOC, POC, ALK, O ₂ , NPZD ecosystem	yes / yes
DCESS	4-box, β -factor (CO ₂ fertilization) and Q10 temperature sensitivity of soil respiration	n/a	Prognostic export production, P, O ₂ , POC PIC, DIC and ALK, no ecosystem	yes / yes
GENIE	Efficient Numerical Terrestrial Scheme (ENTS). 1 Plant Functional Type; 10° x (3-19)°	PMIP3 (800-1699), CMIP5 (1500-2005) 1 LU class	Prognostic export production, P, Fe, DIC, DOC, POC, ALK, O ₂ , no ecosystem	yes / diagnosed
HADGEM2-ES	TRIFFID Dynamic global vegetation model, with 5 PFTs. Half-hourly carbon fluxes from vegetation physiology and soil respiration. 4-pool soil carbon model.	Hurt et al harmonized; Anthropogenic agricultural fraction	DiatHadOCC (Totterdell and Halloran)	n/a
LOVECLIM1.1	Dynamic Vegetation Model 2 Plant Functional Types; 5.6° x 5.6°	n/a	Prognostic P, DIC, POC, DOC, ALK, O ₂ , export production / no ecosystem	preservation /no
MAGICC6	4-box global carbon cycle model, calibrated towards 9 C4MIP carbon cycle model's pools and fluxes.	n/a.	n/a (perturbation approach)	n/a.
MESMO 1.0	Efficient Numerical Terrestrial Scheme (ENTS). 1 Plant Functional Type; 10° x (3-19)°	n/a	Prognostic export production, P, Fe, Si, N, DIC, DOC, POC, ALK, no ecosystem	n/a
MPI-ESM	JSBACH; 3 living, 4 litter, 1 slow soil carbon pool, dynamical vegetation, 12 PFTs	Prescribed 1994 distribution of agricultural land	Full carbonate chemistry, NPZD type ecosystem, PO ₄ , NO ₃ , Fe colimitation of biological production	yes / diagnosed
NCAR CSM1.4	CASA, prescribed veg. distribution	n/a	Modified OCMIP-2 with prognostic export	n/a
TOTEM	Global carbon-nitrogen-phosphorus cycle model, explicit treatments of rivers, erosion, fertilizer appl.	n/a	Global carbon-nitrogen-phosphorus cycle model, explicit treatments of coastal zone	param./param
UVic 2.9	Dynamic Vegetation Model, 5 Plant Functional Types, 3.6° x 1.8°, 3 carbon pools per PFT, 1 soil carbon pool	Hyde 3.1, 2 grass PFTs used for agriculture, LUC carbon split evenly to soil and atmosphere	NPZD, 2 nutrient and 2 phytoplankton classes, prognostic PO ₄ , NO ₃ , O ₂ , DIC, ALK, denitrification	yes / diagnosed

1 Table 4: Time-integrated airborne fraction for different time horizons in units of years and
2 corresponding uncertainty ranges. Multiplication with $1.77 \cdot 10^{-15} \text{ W m}^{-2} \text{ kg-CO}_2^{-1}$ yields the
3 Absolute Global Warming Potential (AGWP) for CO_2 . Values in parentheses for the Bern3D-
4 LPJ, GENIE, and MAGICC6 ensembles represent median and 5% to 95% confidence range.
5 The median for each of these models is included in the multi-model mean; reference setup of
6 the Bern3D-LPJ is not included. The errors of the multi-model mean represent \pm two standard
7 deviations. Our best estimate for the mean is the [value from the fit to the](#) multi-model mean
8 and the best estimate for the 5 to 95% confidence range is the average range from the different
9 methods centered at the mean.

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Time Horizon	20 yr	50 yr	100 yr	500 yr	1000 yr
	<i>time-integrated IRF_{CO2} (yr)</i>				
NCAR CSM1.4	13.8	27.8	46.6	n/a	n/a
HadGEM2-ES	14.7	30.9	53.3	n/a	n/a
MPI-ESM	14.5	29.2	48.8	n/a	n/a
Bern3D-LPJ (reference)	15.4	34.3	61.9	241	417
Bern3D-LPJ ensemble	15.1	32.7	57.6	205	n/a
	(14.0-16.0)	(28.9-36.0)	(48.9-65.6)	(160-265)	n/a
Bern2.5D-LPJ	13.9	29.7	51.1	163	283
CLIMBER2-LPJ	13.0	26.8	49.2	181	306
DCESS	14.6	31.8	56.3	199	329
GENIE ensemble	13.6	28.9	50.5	173	n/a
	(10.9-17.6)	(21.7-41.4)	(38.3-77.9)	(143.68-271)	n/a
LOVECLIM	13.5	27.9	45.3	170	280
MESMO	15.1	33.6	61.1	238	410
UVic2.9	13.7	29.5	53.0	209	376
ACC2	13.7	27.9	46.5	151	252
Bern-SAR	14.0	29.0	48.9	161	270
MAGICC6 ensemble	14.0	29.6	51.8	199	nan
	(12.0-16.1)	(23.6-35.7)	(40.0-64.2)	(148-233)	n/a
TOTEM2	16.9	38.3	66.6	180	281
multi-model mean	14.3±1.8	30.2±5.7	52.4±11.3	186±48	308±94
	<i>Uncertainty ranges (yr)</i>				
multi-model range	3.6	11.3	22.6	96	189
Bern3D-LPJ	2.1	7.2	16.7	105	n/a

GENIE	6.7	19.8	39.5	128	172
MAGICC6	4.1	12.1	24.2	85	n/a
Linear Programming	n/a	n/a	24.0	n/a	n/a
Average of ranges	4.1	12.6	25.8	103	180
in % of multi-model mean	28.8	41.6	49.1	56	58

Best estimates for time-integrated IRF_{CO2} (yr)

mean	14.23	30.32	52.4	1846	31008
5-95% confidence range	(12.12-16.23)	(24.09-36.65)	(39.56-65.3)	(1324-2357)	(22018-400398)

Best estimates for AGWP of CO₂ (10⁻¹⁵ yr W m⁻² kg-CO₂⁻¹)

mean	25.2	53.54	92.57	3248	5486
5-95% confidence range	(20.8-29.6)	(41.24-65.98)	(688.4-117)	(22731-4215)	(3786-7153)

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Table 5: Coefficients to fit multi-model mean responses to a pulse emission of 100 GtC following Equation 11 in the main text and for $0 < t < 1000$ yr. The mean relative error of the fit is given in percent. The error is calculated from annual values as the average of the absolute differences between fit (f) and multi-model mean (m) divided by the multi-model mean ($1/N \sum (m-f)/m$). Multiplication by $(12/(100 \times 44 \times 10^{12}))$ yields the change per kg-CO₂ for ocean and land carbon storage, surface air temperature (SAT), time-integrated SAT (iSAT), steric sea level rise (SSLR), and ocean heat content (OHC). The timescales τ_j are given in years and units of a_j are indicated in parentheses in the first column.

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	rel. error	a_0	a_1	a_2	a_3	τ_1	τ_2	τ_3
<u>IRF_{CO2}</u>	0.6	0.2173	0.2240	0.2824	0.2763	394.4	36.54	4.304
<u>Ocean (GtC)</u>	0.6	60.29	-26.48	-17.45	-16.35	390.5	100.5	4.551
<u>Land (GtC)</u>	1.3	17.07	332.1	-334.1	-15.09	74.76	70.31	6.139
<u>SAT (°C)</u>	1.8	0.1383	0.05789	-0.06729	-0.1289	264.0	5.818	0.8062
<u>iSAT (°C yr)</u>	1.8	3934	-4432	777.7	-280.0	16080	2294	1144
<u>SSLR (cm)</u>	1.5	5.259	-3.789	-0.9351	-0.5350	581.7	75.71	5.963
<u>OHC(10²² J)</u>	1.0	42.63	-32.86	-6.589	-3.182	420.4	54.82	6.340

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1 Table 65: Response in global mean surface air temperature to an emission pulse of 100 GtC
 2 added to an atmospheric concentration of 389 ppm.

Time Horizon	20 yr	50 yr	100 yr	500 yr	1000 yr
<i>temperature response (°C)</i>					
NCAR CSM1.4	0.10	0.14	0.01	n/a	n/a
HadGEM2-ES	0.31	0.18	0.59	n/a	n/a
MPI-ESM	0.27	0.09	0.10	n/a	n/a
Bern3D-LPJ (reference)	0.26	0.26	0.24	0.23	0.17
Bern3D-LPJ ensemble	0.18	0.18	0.17	0.14	n/a
	(0.10-0.27)	(0.10-0.30)	(0.09-0.33)	(0.06-0.39)	n/a
Bern2.5D-LPJ	0.18	0.17	0.17	0.13	0.13
CLIMBER2-LPJ	0.16	0.17	0.18	0.12	0.11
DCESS	0.21	0.22	0.21	0.15	0.12
GENIE ensemble	0.22	0.23	0.22	0.16	n/a
	(0.17-0.35)	(0.17-0.46)	(0.15-0.49)	(0.12-0.29)	n/a
LOVECLIM	0.09	0.06	0.13	0.07	0.08
MESMO	0.26	0.27	0.28	0.23	0.2
UVic2.9	0.19	0.19	0.18	0.19	0.19
ACC2	0.23	0.21	0.18	0.12	n/a
Bern-SAR	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
MAGICC6 ensemble	0.19	0.17	0.16	0.13	n/a
	(0.14-0.26)	(0.12-0.27)	(0.10-0.26)	(0.09-0.26)	n/a
TOTEM2	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
multi-model mean	0.20+0.12	0.17+0.11	0.20+0.26	0.14+0.08	0.14+0.08
<i>Uncertainty ranges (°C)</i>					
Multi-model range	0.24	0.21	0.52	0.17	0.16
Bern3D-LPX	0.17	0.21	0.25	0.33	n/a
GENIE	0.18	0.28	0.34	0.16	0.13
MAGICC6	0.12	0.15	0.16	0.17	n/a
Average of ranges	0.18	0.21	0.32	0.21	0.14
in % of multi-model mean	90	123	160	144	101

Best estimates for temperature response (°C)

mean	0.192	0.197	0.182	0.154	0.14
5-95% confidence range	(0.104-0.289)	0.3028	(0.024-0.346)	(0.054-0.265)	(0.07-0.21)

Best estimates for AGTP of CO₂ (10⁻¹⁵ °C kg-CO₂⁻¹)

mean	0.525	0.5146	0.4955	0.4038	0.38
5-95% confidence range	0.2730-0.769	0.2419-0.8176	0.0511-0.928	0.131-0.7068	0.19-0.57

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Table 7: Response in time-integrated global mean surface air temperature to an emission pulse of 100 GtC added to an atmospheric concentration of 389 ppm.

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Time Horizon	20 yr	50 yr	100 yr	500 yr	1000 yr
<i>time-integrated temperature response (°C yr)</i>					
<u>NCAR CSM1.4</u>	<u>2.53</u>	<u>7.36</u>	<u>10.6</u>	<u>n/a</u>	<u>n/a</u>
<u>HadGEM2-ES</u>	<u>4.24</u>	<u>12.4</u>	<u>30.3</u>	<u>n/a</u>	<u>n/a</u>
<u>MPI-ESM</u>	<u>3.83</u>	<u>8.84</u>	<u>19.1</u>	<u>n/a</u>	<u>n/a</u>
<u>Bern3D-LPJ (reference)</u>	<u>4.11</u>	<u>12.1</u>	<u>24.5</u>	<u>121</u>	<u>219</u>
<u>Bern3D-LPJ ensemble</u>	<u>3.20</u>	<u>8.61</u>	<u>17.3</u>	<u>79.7</u>	<u>n/a</u>
	<u>(2.1-4.6)</u>	<u>(5.1-13.5)</u>	<u>(9.5-29.3)</u>	<u>(38-175)</u>	<u>n/a</u>
<u>Bern2.5D-LPJ</u>	<u>3.15</u>	<u>8.40</u>	<u>17.1</u>	<u>71.0</u>	<u>133</u>
<u>CLIMBER2-LPJ</u>	<u>3.05</u>	<u>7.96</u>	<u>16.5</u>	<u>74.2</u>	<u>134</u>
<u>DCESS</u>	<u>3.38</u>	<u>9.96</u>	<u>20.6</u>	<u>89.8</u>	<u>158</u>
<u>GENIE ensemble</u>	<u>3.77</u>	<u>10.54</u>	<u>21.6</u>	<u>96.6</u>	<u>n/a</u>
	<u>(3.0-5.2)</u>	<u>(8.2-17.5)</u>	<u>(17-42)</u>	<u>(76 -195)</u>	<u>n/a</u>
<u>LOVECLIM</u>	<u>0.22</u>	<u>3.46</u>	<u>7.83</u>	<u>36.8</u>	<u>80.8</u>
<u>MESMO</u>	<u>4.41</u>	<u>12.5</u>	<u>26.0</u>	<u>129</u>	<u>236</u>
<u>UVic2.9</u>	<u>3.40</u>	<u>9.17</u>	<u>18.5</u>	<u>94.8</u>	<u>189</u>
<u>ACC2</u>	<u>3.99</u>	<u>10.55</u>	<u>20.0</u>	<u>76.9</u>	<u>n/a</u>

Bern-SAR	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
MAGICC6 ensemble	3.64	8.96	17.2	74.4	n/a
	(2.7-4.7)	(6.6-12.7)	(12-26)	(49-129)	n/a
TOTEM2	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
multi-model mean	3.29+2.03	9.13+4.45	18.7+11.1	82.2+44.5	158+91
	<i>Uncertainty ranges (°C yr)</i>				
Multi-model range	4.06	8.9	22.1	89.1	182
Bern3D-LPX	2.52	8.34	19.8	137	n/a
GENIE	2.13	9.27	24.7	119	184
MAGICC6	2.00	6.11	14.4	80.4	n/a
Average of ranges	2.68	8.16	20.3	106	183
in % of multi-model mean	81.4	89.3	108	130	116
	<i>Best estimates for time-integrated temperature response (°C yr)</i>				
mean	3.31	8.67	17.4	82.2	155
5-95% confidence range	(2.2-4.8)	(4.8-13.5)	(7.3-27.5)	(29-135)	(64-247)
	<i>Best estimates for time-integrated AGTP of CO₂ (10⁻¹⁵ °C yr kg-CO₂⁻¹)</i>				
mean	9.03	23.6	47.6	224	424
5-95% confidence range	5.38-13.2	12.5-34.7	19.0-75.2	79.0-369	174-673

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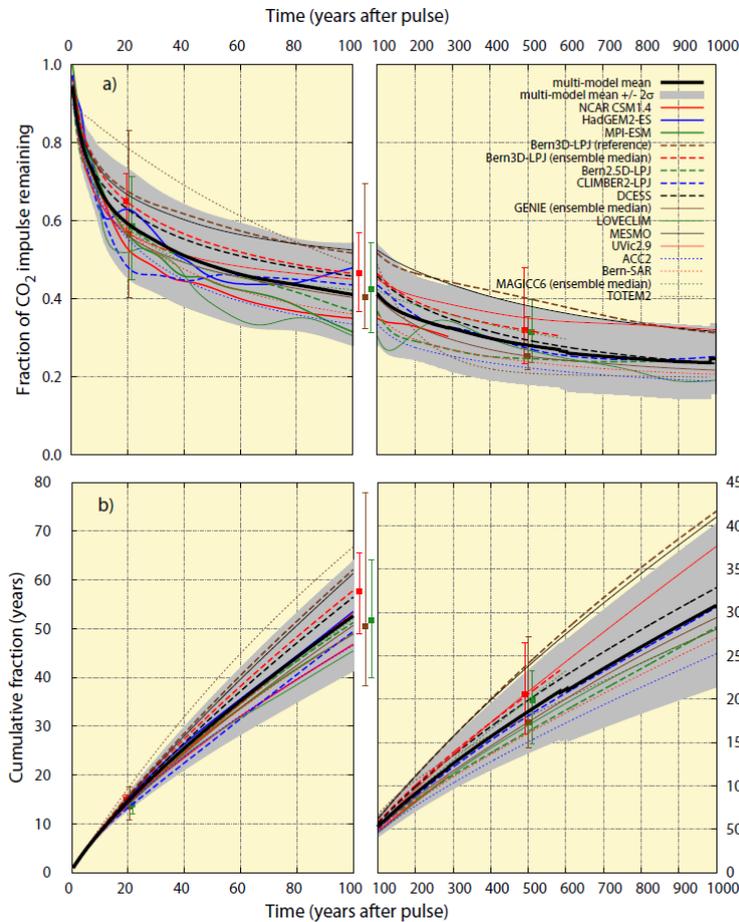
Table 86: Response in ocean heat content and steric sea level rise to an emission pulse of 100 GtC added to an atmospheric concentration of 389 ppm. Multiplication by $(12 / (100 \times 44 \times 10^{12}))$ yields the change per kg-CO₂.

Time Horizon	20 yr	50 yr	100 yr	500 yr	1000 yr
<i>Best estimates for steric sea level rise (cm)</i>					
mean	0.8 67	1. 3028	1. 8175	3. 6558	4.5 85
5-95% confidence range	(0.3 78 - 1.3 56)	(0.4 64 - 2.1 53)	(0.5 82 - 3.0 32-97)	(1.1 70 - 6.1 407)	(0.9 96 - 8.1 85)
<i>Best estimates for ocean heat content change (10²² J)</i>					
mean	6. 5978	10. 86	15. 74	32. 62	39. 63
5-95% confidence range	(4.0 726 - 9.4 930)	(5.2 05 - 16.3 +)	(6.3 00 - 25.2 49)	(12.2 +-8 - 52.9 5)	(13.5 8 - 65.3 0)

Table 97: Sensitivity of GWP on the time horizon TH and the perturbation life time of a gas.

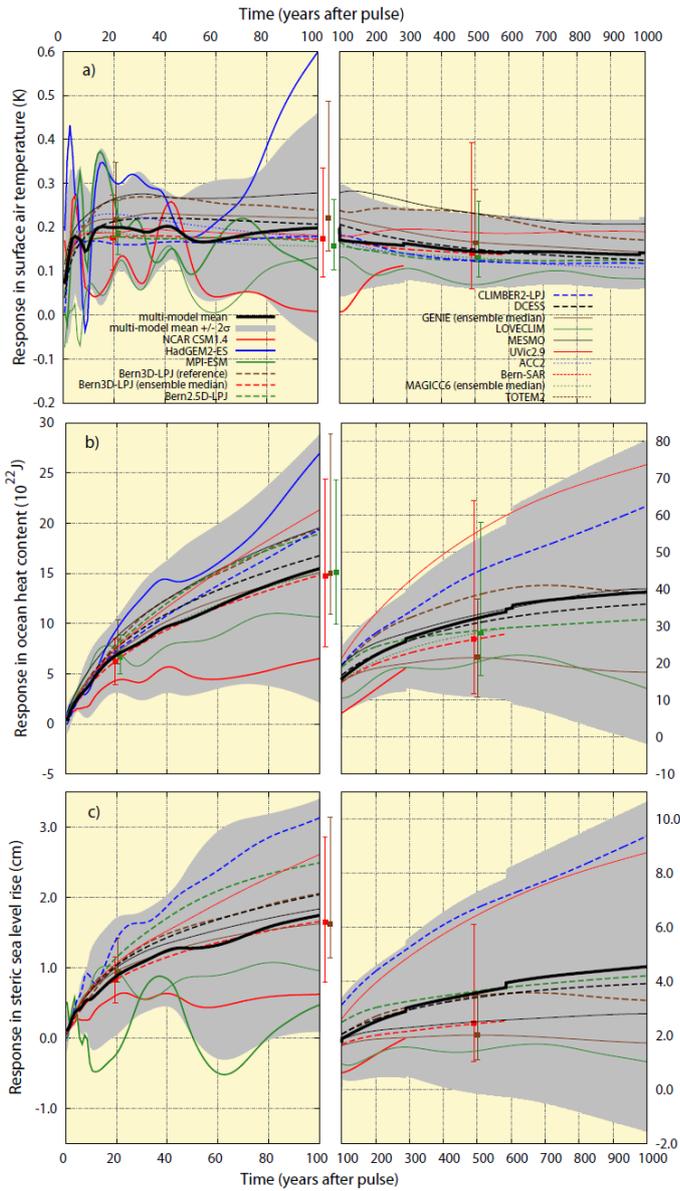
Gas/TH		20 yr	50 yr	100 yr	500 yr	1000 yr
	<i>life time (yr)</i>					
		<i>ratio of GWP(TH) to GWP(TH=100)</i>				
CH ₄	12	2.9 87	1.71	1.00	0.28	0.17
N ₂ O	114	1.01	1.05	1.00	0.48	0.29
SF ₆	3200	0.74	0.87	1.00	1.33	1.48

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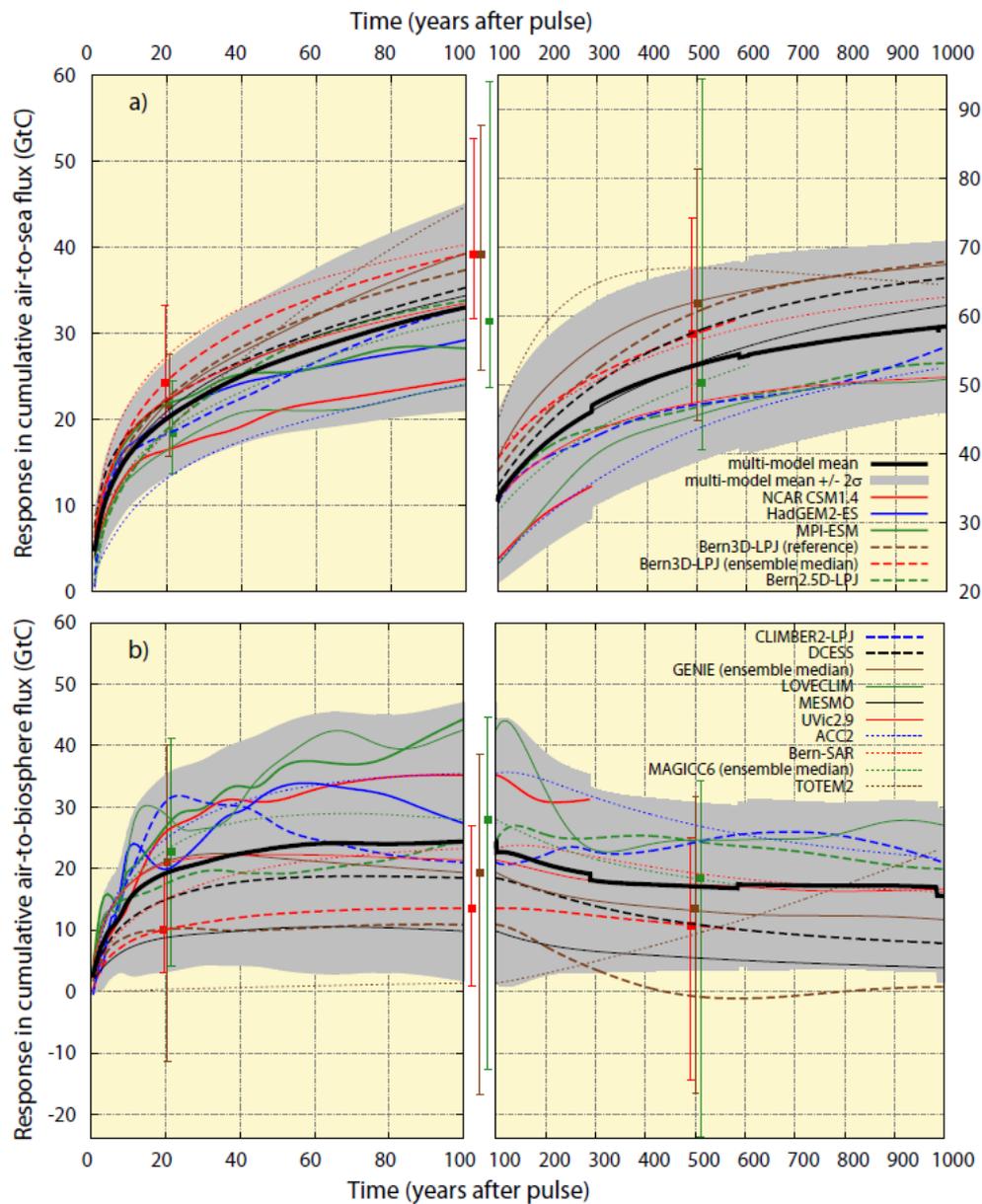
3 Figure 1: a) The evolution of the impulse response function for CO₂, IRF_{CO_2} , for an emission
 4 pulse of 100 GtC added to an atmospheric background concentration of 389 ppm (PD100) for
 5 a range of Earth System Models (thick solid), EMICs (dashed and thin solid), and reduced-
 6 form models (dotted). The multi-model mean, computed by giving each available model equal
 7 weight, and the corresponding \pm two standard deviation range is shown by the black solid line
 8 and the grey shading. Note that not all models were run to year 1000 and thus the number of
 9 models included in the average changes with time. For three models, Bern3D-LPJ (red),
 10 GENIE (brown) and MAGICC (green), an ensemble of simulations is available and the
 11 ensemble median and 5 to 95% confidence intervals are given by error bars for year 20, 100,
 12 and 500. Only the ensemble medians are included in the multi-model mean and range. b)
 13 Same as a) but for the time-integrated IRF_{CO_2} .



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 2 Figure 2: As figure 1 but for the perturbation in global mean surface air temperature (a), in ocean heat content
 3 (b), and in steric sea level rise (c). Results are for a CO₂ emission pulse of 100 GtC added to a current CO₂
 4 concentration of 389 ppm (PD100). We note that the signal-to-noise ratio is small for the models that feature a
 5 dynamic atmosphere (HadGEM2-ES, MPI-ESM, NCAR-CSM1.4, and LOVECLIM) and the plotted evolutions
 6 for these models represent both the forced response and a contribution from the models' internal (unforced)
 7 climate variability. Small abrupt changes in the multi-model mean and confidence range arise from a change in
 8 the number of model simulations; different groups run their model over different periods, pending on CPU
 9 availability.

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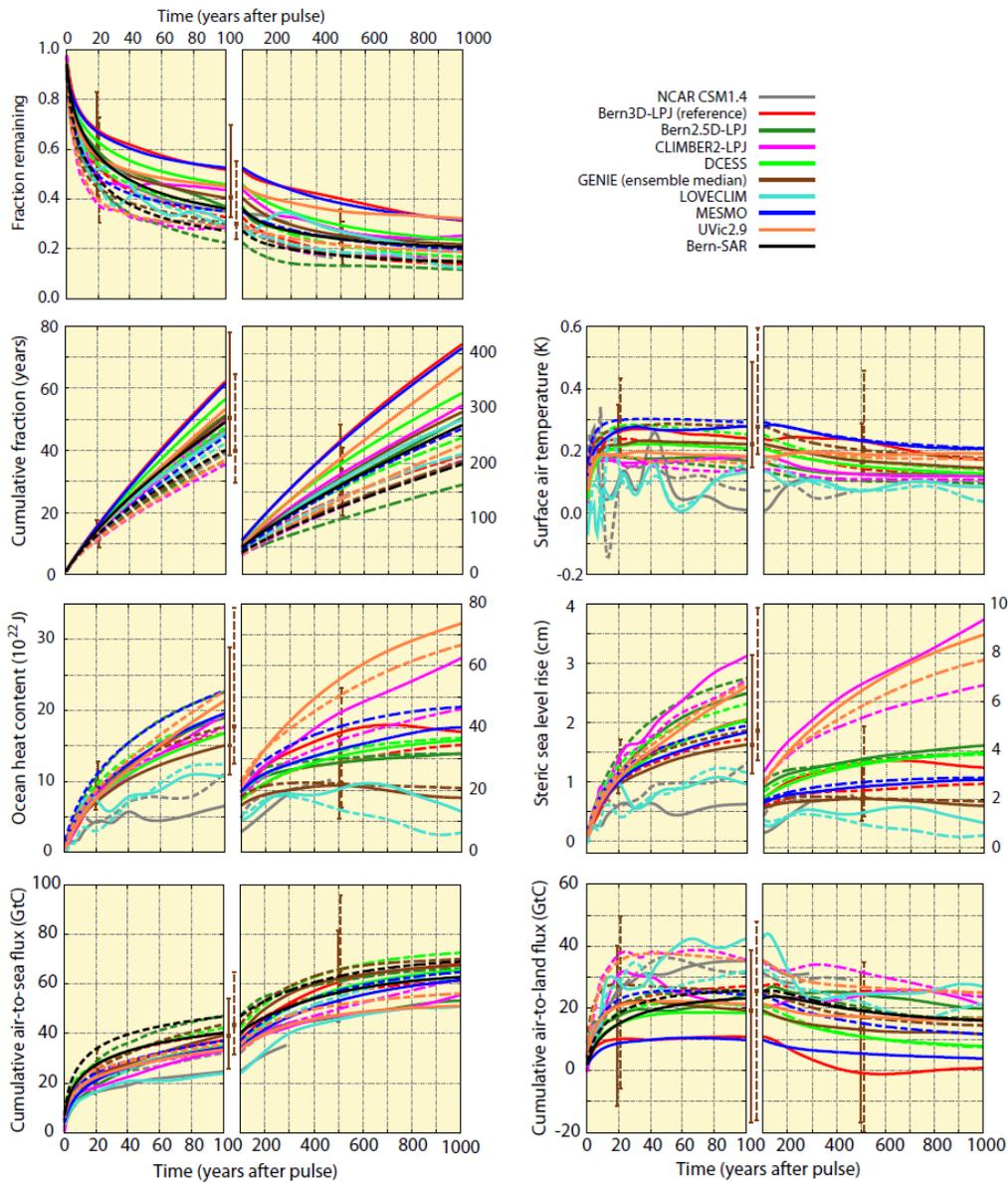
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 2 Figure 3: as figure 1, but for the time-integrated perturbation in air-to-sea (a) and air-to-land
 3 biosphere carbon fluxes (b). Results are for a CO₂ emission pulse of 100 GtC added to a
 4 present day CO₂ concentration of 389 ppm (PD100).

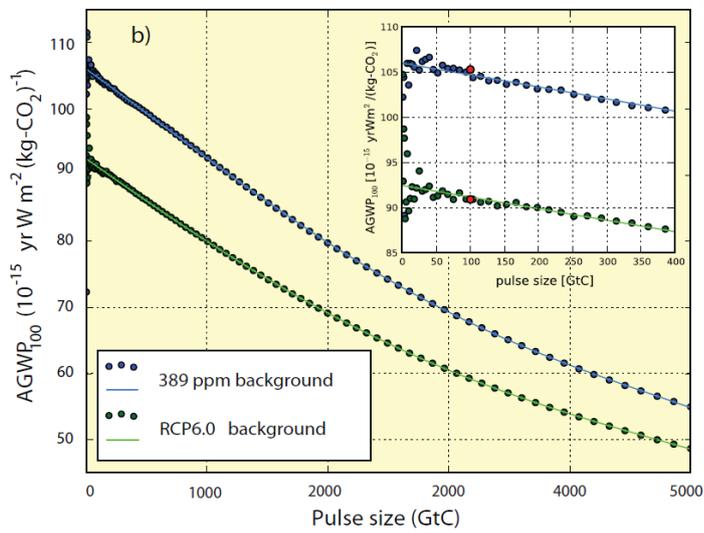
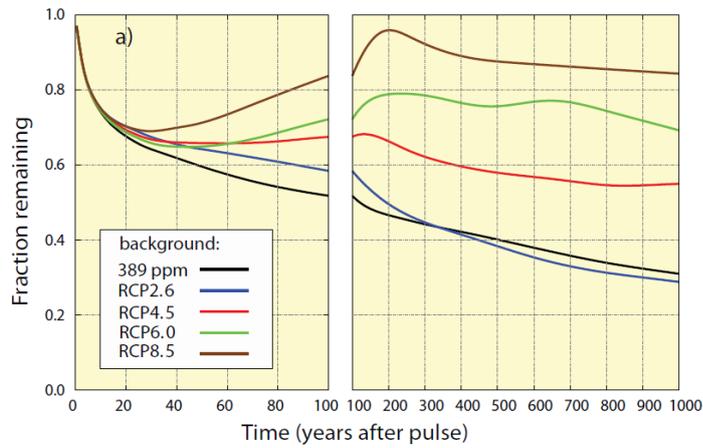
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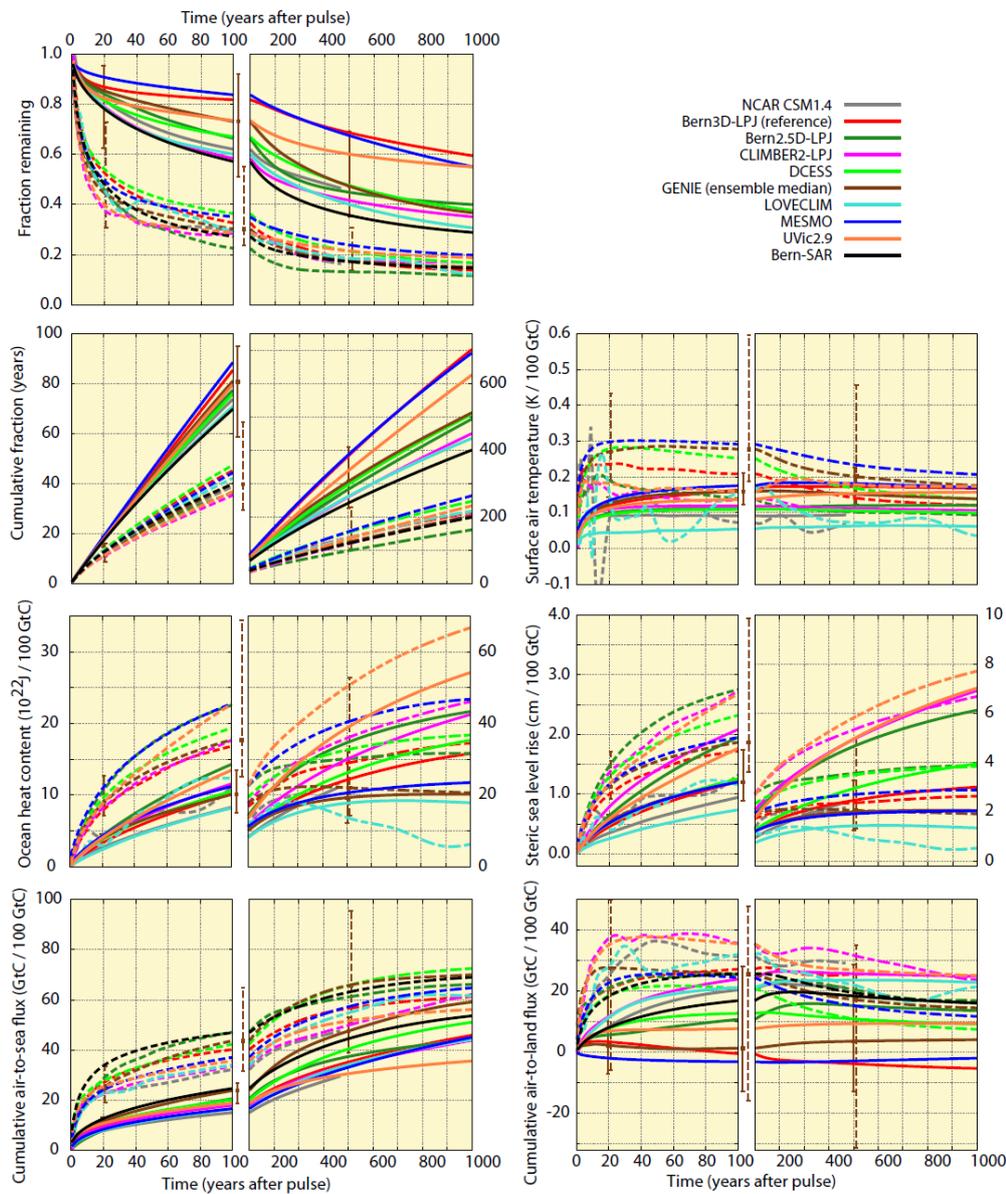
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 2 Figure 4: Influence of the background conditions on the climate-carbon cycle response to a
 3 pulse emission of 100 GtC into the atmosphere. Solid lines are for current conditions (CO_2, ref
 4 $= 389$ ppm, PD100) and dashed lines for preindustrial conditions ($\text{CO}_2, \text{ref} \sim 280$ ppm, PI100).

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2 [Figure 5: \(a\) \$IRF_{CO_2}\$ for different background conditions as simulated with the Bern3D-LPJ](#)
3 [model \(reference\). Carbon emissions and emissions of other agents, and land use maps are](#)
4 [prescribed following those of the Representative Concentration Pathways. In the runs](#)
5 [without pulse, atmospheric CO₂ is projected to reach 421, 538, 670, 936 ppm by 2100 and](#)
6 [360, 543, 752, 1962 ppm by year 3000 and for RCP2.6, RCP4.5, RCP6, and RCP8.5](#)
7 [respectively. The \$IRF_{CO_2}\$ for the standard setup with a constant CO₂ background of 389 ppm](#)
8 [is shown by the black line. \(b\) AGWP_{CO₂} versus pulse size for two different background](#)
9 [conditions. Circles represent results from individual simulations and the lines fits through the](#)
10 [results. The standard pulse size of 100 GtC is indicated by red circles.](#)

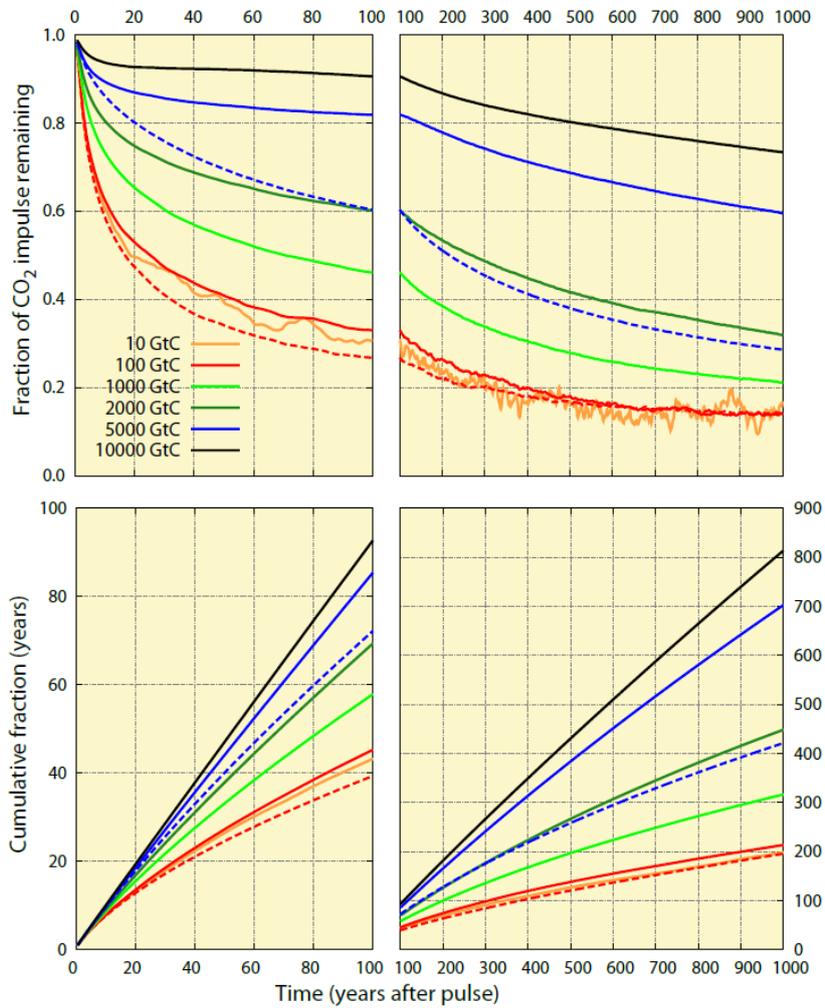
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3 Figure 65: Response of the carbon cycle-climate system to a pulse emission of 5000 GtC
 4 (solid, PI5000) and 100 GtC (dashed, PI100) added to the atmosphere under preindustrial
 5 conditions. [The responses in surface air temperature, ocean heat content, steric sea level rise,](#)
 6 [and in carbon fluxes for PI5000 are scaled by a factor of 50 for a better comparison with the](#)
 7 [100 GtC pulse.](#)

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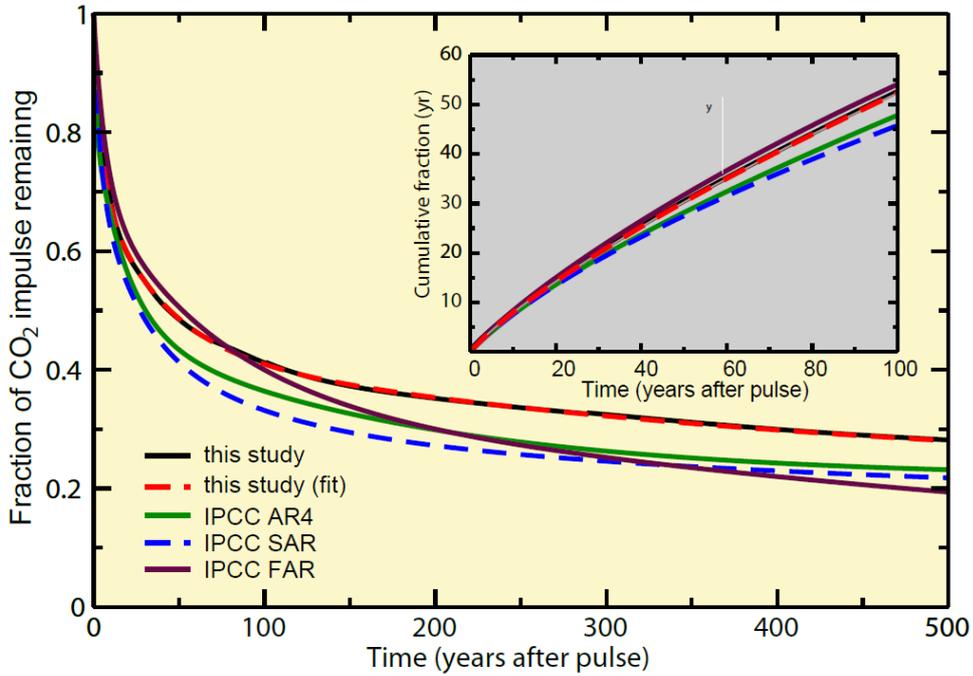


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5 Figure 76: Influence of pulse size and climate-carbon cycle feedback on the response in
6 atmospheric CO₂ and the time-integrated IRF_{CO_2} as simulated with the Bern3D-LPJ model
7 (standard setup). Pulse emissions, ranging from 10 to 10,000 GtC in the individual
8 simulations, are added to the atmosphere under preindustrial conditions. Dashed lines
9 represent simulations where climate was kept constant in the model.

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5 Figure 87: The impulse response function for CO₂ (IRF_{CO_2}) as used to compute GWP in the
6 IPCC First (FAR), Second (SAR) and Fourth (AR4) Assessment Report and from this study.
7 The red curve is a fit to the multi-model mean shown in black. The inset shows the time-
8 integrated IRF_{CO_2} for the first 100 years after the emission pulse.

Impulse response function of climate-carbon cycle models: a model intercomparison study

Protocol V1.1

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Documents and updates are available online: http://www.climate.unibe.ch/~joos/IRF_Intercomparison

Global warming potentials (GWP) of different gases are used as a metric to compare emissions of various greenhouse gases in the Kyoto Basket approach. The response in atmospheric CO₂ to an instantaneous release of carbon into the atmosphere, the atmospheric CO₂ impulse response function (IRF), is used for the computation of global warming potentials (GWP) and global temperature change potential (GTP) (Shine et al., 2005).

The goal of this exercise is to determine the atmospheric CO₂ impulse response function (IRF) by a suite of carbon-cycle climate models to explore model-model differences. Results will be written up for publication in a peer-reviewed journal in spring 2012 (IPCC AR5 WG1 deadline is summer 2012) in order to be available for calculations of GWPs in IPCC AR5. The results will also be useful for metrics and simplified climate models in other contexts.

Model requirements

The model must be able to compute the redistribution of anthropogenic carbon among the principal carbon reservoirs atmosphere, land biosphere, and ocean. Further compartments such as ocean sediments may also be included. Preferentially, the model simulates changes in climate in response to CO₂ radiative forcing and includes a representation of the relevant carbon cycle-climate feedbacks.

Model runs: overview

The scenario setup is inspired by the calculation of the IRF function as done for the Second Assessment Report (SAR) and as used in the Kyoto GWP with the Bern SAR model version and as repeated in preparation of the Fourth Assessment. The setup relies on that described in Enting, Wigley, Heimann, CSIRO Division of Atmospheric Research. Technical Paper No 31, 1994:

Three simulations are performed:

- (a) The model is forced with historical concentration up to a reference year (here $t_{ref}=2010$) and then concentration are kept fixed thereafter at a constant value (here $CO_{2,ref}=389$ ppm). The allowed emission are calculated from the change in total inventory (prescribed atmospheric change plus modelled ocean and terrestrial uptake)
- (b) A simulation with prescribed emissions from (a)
(or concentration prescribed up to the reference year and emissions prescribed thereafter)
- (c) same as (b) but an impulse of carbon, here of 100 GtC, added instantaneously to the atmosphere five years after the reference year (here in 2015).

The normalised IRF is then approximately:

$$IRF(t=t_{\text{model}}-2015.0) = (\text{CO}_2(t_{\text{model}})-\text{CO}_{2,\text{ref}})/(100 \text{ GtC}/2.123\text{GtC/ppm}) \quad \text{for } t_{\text{model}} > 2015$$

Model runs: detailed description

A) CO₂ background concentration of 389 ppm

1. PresCO2_389ppm: The simulation starts from preindustrial conditions. Atmospheric CO₂ is prescribed and compatible emissions (=change in all carbon reservoirs) diagnosed. Atmospheric CO₂ is prescribed to follow the historical evolution up to year 2010. After 2010, the concentration is kept fixed at the value of 389.0 ppm. The diagnosed emissions should be written frequently (at least annually); these will be used to drive the model in run 2 and 3. An input file with the historical concentrations is provided (file name: co2ccn_irf_850_2010_v1.0.dat).
A restart file may be written in 2010 to start simulation 2 and 3 in 2010
2. PresEmiss_389ppm: run 2 may either start in 2010 as a continuation of run 1 or at the same preindustrial initial conditions used in run 1. Atmospheric CO₂ is evolving freely. Diagnosed emissions from run PresCO2_389ppm are used to force the model. (Expected result: the computed CO₂ evolution should be close to the evolution prescribed in run PresCO2_389ppm, see Figure 1).
3. PresEmiss100_389ppm: Atmospheric CO₂ is evolving freely. Diagnosed emissions from run PresCO2_389ppm are used to force the model as in run PresEmiss_389ppm. In addition, 100 GtC are released at the beginning of year 2015. (Expected results: Atmospheric CO₂ will increase by 47.1032 ppm above the background concentration (~389 ppm) in 2015 and then slowly decline over the coming decades, see Figure 1)

Remarks:

- It is crucial that the carbon pulse will be added to a constant background concentration of 389 ppm for comparability (roughly 2010 value).
- run 1 (PresCO2_389ppm): An existing run or setup from the CMIP or EMIC Intercomparison projects may be used up to a concentration of 389 ppm.
- run 3 (PresEmiss100_389ppm): The atmospheric CO₂ concentration should be increased at the beginning of year 2015 by 47.1032 ppm (100 GtC/2.123 GtC/ppm) in all atmospheric grid cells.
- non-CO₂ forcing agents should be included to the extent possible. Non-CO₂ forcing should be kept constant at 2010 level after 2010 (or at the year at which 389 ppm CO₂ is reached).
- land use and land use changes should be included to the extent possible. Land use area should be kept constant at 2010 level after 2010.
- If CPU time is an issue and if a group is sure that CO₂ remains at a constant value with the emissions diagnosed in run #1, run#2 may be skipped. This may only apply to ESMs and it is strongly recommended to perform run #2 to avoid problems with model drift.

B) Preindustrial Set

Runs 4 to 5 start from preindustrial conditions

4. CTRL: Control simulation with constant boundary conditions and freely evolving atm. CO₂
5. PI100: Freely evolving atm. CO₂. 100 GtC are released into the atmosphere during year 10 of the control simulation and then continued. (Expected result: atm CO₂ will increase from the preindustrial value of around 280 ppm by about 45 ppm to 325 ppm in year 10. Afterwards, the CO₂ concentration will then decrease due to uptake by the ocean and the land biosphere).
6. PI5000: as PI100, but 5000 GtC are released instead of 100 GtC

Remark: an available control simulation may be used to minimize work

Resulting IRFs

We will use your results to compute impulse response functions for CO₂ and other variables:

- a) IRF_100GtC_389ppm: The difference in atm. CO₂ of run PresEmiss100_389ppm and PresEmiss_389ppm divided by the pulse size of 47 ppm will yield the (normalized) IRF for a background concentration of 389 ppm and a pulse size of 100 GtC (see Figure 2)
- b) IRF_100GtC_PI: The difference in atm. CO₂ of run PI100 and CTRL will yield the IRF for preindustrial background conditions and a pulse size of 100 GtC
- c) IRF_5000GtC_PI: The difference in atm. CO₂ of run PI5000 and CTRL will yield the IRF for preindustrial background conditions and a pulse size of 5000 GtC

Duration of runs

Preferentially, simulations are run for 2000 years after the pulse release until a complete equilibrium between atmosphere-ocean-land biosphere is re-established. If this is not feasible, runs of shorter duration are also welcome. Usually models are close to equilibrium after 1000 years. Global Warming Potentials for which the IRFs will be used were tabulated in past IPCC reports for 500, 100, and 20 years. A time horizon of 100 years is used in the Kyoto protocol.

A minimum of 100 years after the pulse release is requested.

Models that include ocean sediments and/or weathering and that are cost-efficient enough may also be run over many millennia (e.g. 100 ka).

Priority of runs

The *top priority* is to get results needed to compute the IRF for a background concentration of 389 ppm (IRF_100GtC_389ppm). For this, *runs 1, 2, and 3* are required.

Alternative: If computing requirements are too high for run 1 to 3, please provide at least results for runs 4 and 5 (PI100, CTRL).

Conversion factor GtC to ppm

Please use a conversion factor of 2.123 GtC per ppm

Preindustrial condition

It is up to the researcher to define the exact preindustrial state and the exact evolution how to reach the 2010 atmospheric CO₂ value of 389 ppm. However, model runs should start before 1900 AD and concentration should be kept fixed at a value of 389 ppm a few years before and during the pulse release. The idea is that the carbon pulse is added for the same background concentration of 389 ppm in all models.

Other forcings

Non-CO₂ forcings and land use are preferentially included in run 1 to 3; keep non-CO₂ forcing and land use area constant after 2010 at the level of year 2010. A suitable set of forcing is provided by the EMIC Intercomparison Project (<http://climate.uvic.ca/EMICAR5/forcing>).

Output

Ascii files with global mean values, provide at least 5 significant digits for each run.

- a) File name: RUNNAME_MODELNAME_Modelversion_startyear_endyear.dat, e.g. "PresCO2_2010_Bern3DLPX_v1.0_1750_4015.dat" for run 1 with the Bern3DLPX model, version 1.0 and simulation starting at 1750 AD and ending at 4015
- b) Header:
 - start each comment line with: #
 - indicate run name
 - provide contact address,
 - indicate model name and version and model components included,
 - indicate climate sensitivity of model
 - conversion factor used to convert GtC into ppm and/or pulse size in ppm
 - description of non-CO₂ forcing applied
 - indicate whether tabulated data show annual averages or instantaneous values
 - column headers with units
- c) Tabulated data including year, global mean values of atmospheric CO₂ in ppm (CO2atm), global mean net air-to-sea carbon flux in GtC per year (Fas,net), global mean net air-to-land carbon flux in GtC per year (Fab,net), global mean surface temperature in Celsius (T) , global mean sea level rise in cm (SLR), ocean heat content in Joule (Heat)


```
# year CO2atm [ppm] Fas,net [GtC/yr] Fab,net [GtC/yr] T [deg Celsius] SLR[cm] Heat[J]
```

A text file in ascii describing the model, model resolution, model components, climate sensitivity, and appropriate references. File name: MODELNAME_Modelversion_description.txt. Include contact address.

It is assumed that group will store more output individually than just the few global numbers that we ask for as output. It is anticipated that the runs may be very useful to diagnose response patterns for a wide range of variables. In additions to IRFs for CO₂, temp, and sea level, one may also want to analyze pH, precip, etc.

Deadlines

Please let us know by *15 December 2011* whether you plan to contribute and submit the runs until **15 February 2012** to joos@climate.unibe.ch and roth@climate.unibe.ch

Further Reading

Section 2.10, page 210 ff in:

Forster, P., et al. (2007), Changes in Atmospheric Constituents and in Radiative Forcing, in *Climate Change 2007: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*, edited by S. Solomon, D. Qin, M. Manning, Z. Chen, M. Marquis, K. B. Averyt, M. Tignor and H. L. Miller, pp. 129-234, Cambridge United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA, New York, NY, USA.

Enting, I.G., Wigley, T.M.L., Heimann, M., 1994. Future Emissions and Concentrations of Carbon Dioxide: Key Ocean/Atmosphere/Land Analyses. CSIRO Division of Atmospheric Research Technical Paper no. 31.

Shine, K., Fuglestedt, J., Hailemariam, K., and Stuber, N.: Alternatives to the Global Warming Potential for Comparing Climate Impacts of Emissions of Greenhouse Gases, *Climatic Change*, 68, 281-302, 10.1007/s10584-005-1146-9, 2005

Results obtained with the Bern3D-LPJ model for a CO₂ background of 389 ppm (R. Roth)

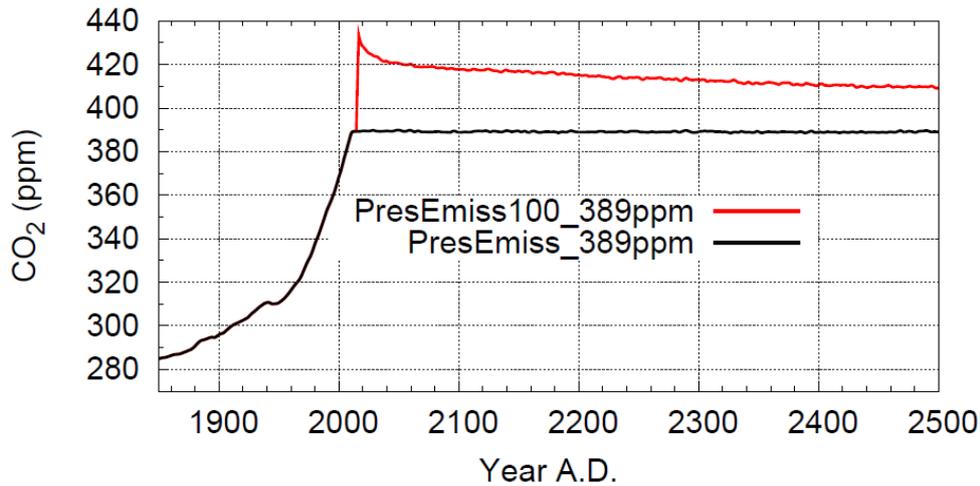


Figure 1: Simulated evolution of atmospheric CO₂ for runs 2 and 3 (PresEmiss_389ppm PresEmiss100_389ppm). 100 GtC are instantaneously released at the beginning of year 2015 in simulations PresEmiss100_389ppm (red) in addition to the emissions prescribed in run PresEmiss_389ppm (black). Prescribed emissions were diagnosed from a run in which atmospheric CO₂ was prescribed to follow the observed evolution until 2010 and kept constant at 389 ppm after 2010.

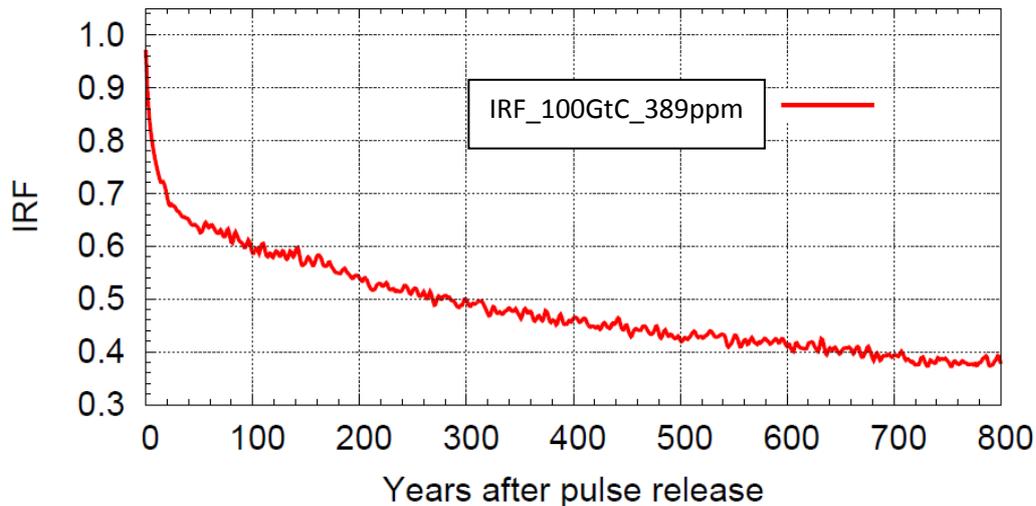
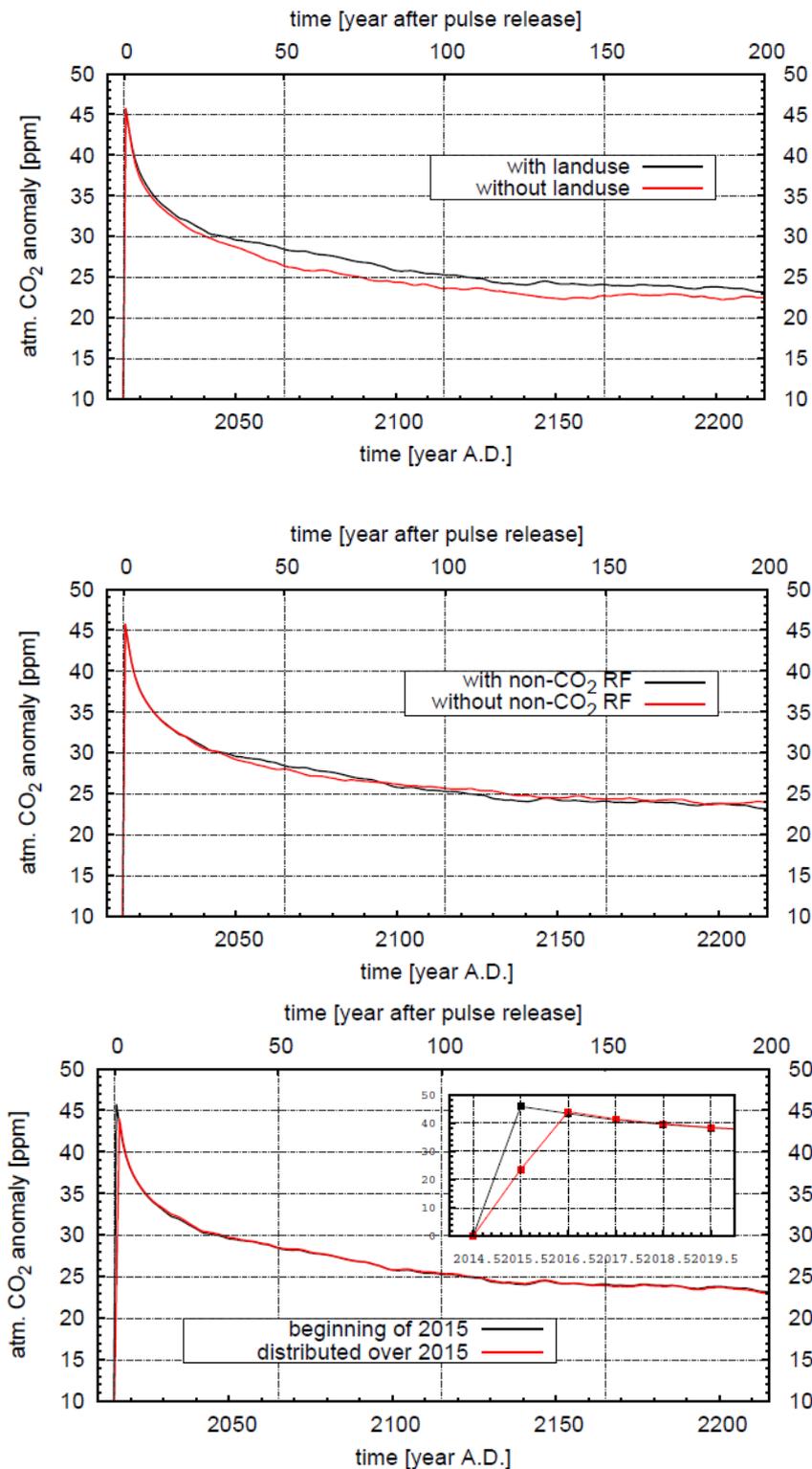


Figure 2: CO₂ impulse response function (IRF) as obtained from the difference of the runs shown in figure 1. The IRF is normalised by the size of the pulse input. Time is shifted such that year 0 corresponds to the time when the pulse of 100 GtC was released into the atmosphere.

Results of sensitivity runs with the Bern3D-LPJ model (Raphael Roth)



Differences in Impulse Response Function computed with the Bern3D-LPX model for different model setups. Top: Results from simulations with and without anthropogenic land use. Middle: Results from simulations with and without non-CO₂ forcings. Bottom: release of pulse emissions at the beginning of the year versus a release of 100 GtC over one year. Note that the Bern3D-LPX model considers CO₂ to be well mixed in the atmosphere. Thus differences in IRF may be larger for models that feature atmospheric carbon transport.

```
# -----  
  
# midyear CO2 concentrations 850-2010  
# to be used for the IRF intercomparison experiment "PresCO2_389ppm"  
#  
  
# author: Raphael Roth, roth@climate.unibe.ch  
# date: 24/11/2011  
# -----  
#  
# data used:  
# from 850 - 2005 EMIC AR5 forcing was used  
(http://climate.uvic.ca/EMICAR5/data/UVic\_data/co2ccn\_850-2005.nc.gz)  
# -->PMIP3 CO2 concentration (850 to 1800) and the CMIP5 historical  
CO2 concentration (1765 to 2005).  
# -->The data sets were linearly blended between 1765 and 1800.  
#  
# from 2005-2010, RCP6.0 midyear CO2-concentration  
# (value from 2010.5 of 389.072 was rounded to 389.00)  
# from 2010- constant value of 389.00 ppm  
#  
#  
# year co2 [ppm]  
#  
850.5 279.266  
851.5 279.272  
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1666.5	276.745
1667.5	276.688
1668.5	276.630
1669.5	276.572
1670.5	276.515
1671.5	276.460
1672.5	276.406
1673.5	276.355
1674.5	276.307
1675.5	276.263
1676.5	276.222
1677.5	276.186
1678.5	276.156
1679.5	276.131
1680.5	276.113
1681.5	276.101
1682.5	276.097
1683.5	276.100
1684.5	276.110
1685.5	276.126
1686.5	276.148
1687.5	276.173
1688.5	276.202
1689.5	276.234
1690.5	276.267
1691.5	276.301
1692.5	276.336
1693.5	276.370
1694.5	276.403
1695.5	276.435
1696.5	276.466
1697.5	276.496
1698.5	276.525
1699.5	276.553
1700.5	276.581
1701.5	276.607
1702.5	276.634
1703.5	276.660
1704.5	276.686
1705.5	276.712
1706.5	276.738
1707.5	276.764
1708.5	276.790
1709.5	276.818
1710.5	276.845
1711.5	276.874
1712.5	276.903
1713.5	276.934
1714.5	276.965
1715.5	276.998
1716.5	277.032
1717.5	277.068
1718.5	277.106
1719.5	277.145
1720.5	277.187
1721.5	277.230
1722.5	277.276
1723.5	277.324

1724.5	277.374
1725.5	277.425
1726.5	277.474
1727.5	277.521
1728.5	277.563
1729.5	277.600
1730.5	277.630
1731.5	277.651
1732.5	277.661
1733.5	277.659
1734.5	277.644
1735.5	277.614
1736.5	277.571
1737.5	277.518
1738.5	277.457
1739.5	277.390
1740.5	277.320
1741.5	277.250
1742.5	277.181
1743.5	277.117
1744.5	277.058
1745.5	277.005
1746.5	276.957
1747.5	276.912
1748.5	276.871
1749.5	276.832
1750.5	276.796
1751.5	276.761
1752.5	276.727
1753.5	276.695
1754.5	276.665
1755.5	276.638
1756.5	276.614
1757.5	276.595
1758.5	276.582
1759.5	276.575
1760.5	276.576
1761.5	276.585
1762.5	276.604
1763.5	276.634
1764.5	276.675
1765.5	276.728
1766.5	276.830
1767.5	276.943
1768.5	277.067
1769.5	277.202
1770.5	277.344
1771.5	277.493
1772.5	277.648
1773.5	277.809
1774.5	277.974
1775.5	278.143
1776.5	278.319
1777.5	278.501
1778.5	278.689
1779.5	278.882
1780.5	279.077
1781.5	279.275
1782.5	279.478
1783.5	279.685

1784.5	279.897
1785.5	280.115
1786.5	280.338
1787.5	280.565
1788.5	280.793
1789.5	281.016
1790.5	281.232
1791.5	281.440
1792.5	281.638
1793.5	281.828
1794.5	282.009
1795.5	282.180
1796.5	282.341
1797.5	282.494
1798.5	282.638
1799.5	282.773
1800.5	282.899
1801.5	283.007
1802.5	283.111
1803.5	283.211
1804.5	283.307
1805.5	283.400
1806.5	283.490
1807.5	283.578
1808.5	283.661
1809.5	283.735
1810.5	283.797
1811.5	283.847
1812.5	283.889
1813.5	283.926
1814.5	283.963
1815.5	284.001
1816.5	284.043
1817.5	284.086
1818.5	284.129
1819.5	284.167
1820.5	284.198
1821.5	284.223
1822.5	284.244
1823.5	284.263
1824.5	284.281
1825.5	284.300
1826.5	284.320
1827.5	284.340
1828.5	284.360
1829.5	284.380
1830.5	284.400
1831.5	284.385
1832.5	284.280
1833.5	284.125
1834.5	283.975
1835.5	283.825
1836.5	283.675
1837.5	283.525
1838.5	283.425
1839.5	283.400
1840.5	283.400
1841.5	283.425
1842.5	283.500
1843.5	283.600

1844.5	283.725
1845.5	283.900
1846.5	284.075
1847.5	284.225
1848.5	284.400
1849.5	284.575
1850.5	284.725
1851.5	284.875
1852.5	285.000
1853.5	285.125
1854.5	285.275
1855.5	285.425
1856.5	285.575
1857.5	285.725
1858.5	285.900
1859.5	286.075
1860.5	286.225
1861.5	286.375
1862.5	286.500
1863.5	286.625
1864.5	286.775
1865.5	286.900
1866.5	287.000
1867.5	287.100
1868.5	287.225
1869.5	287.375
1870.5	287.525
1871.5	287.700
1872.5	287.900
1873.5	288.125
1874.5	288.400
1875.5	288.700
1876.5	289.025
1877.5	289.400
1878.5	289.800
1879.5	290.225
1880.5	290.700
1881.5	291.200
1882.5	291.675
1883.5	292.125
1884.5	292.575
1885.5	292.975
1886.5	293.300
1887.5	293.575
1888.5	293.800
1889.5	294.000
1890.5	294.175
1891.5	294.325
1892.5	294.475
1893.5	294.600
1894.5	294.700
1895.5	294.800
1896.5	294.900
1897.5	295.025
1898.5	295.225
1899.5	295.500
1900.5	295.800
1901.5	296.125
1902.5	296.475
1903.5	296.825

1904.5	297.200
1905.5	297.625
1906.5	298.075
1907.5	298.500
1908.5	298.900
1909.5	299.300
1910.5	299.700
1911.5	300.075
1912.5	300.425
1913.5	300.775
1914.5	301.100
1915.5	301.400
1916.5	301.725
1917.5	302.075
1918.5	302.400
1919.5	302.700
1920.5	303.025
1921.5	303.400
1922.5	303.775
1923.5	304.125
1924.5	304.525
1925.5	304.975
1926.5	305.400
1927.5	305.825
1928.5	306.300
1929.5	306.775
1930.5	307.225
1931.5	307.700
1932.5	308.175
1933.5	308.600
1934.5	309.000
1935.5	309.400
1936.5	309.750
1937.5	310.000
1938.5	310.175
1939.5	310.300
1940.5	310.375
1941.5	310.375
1942.5	310.300
1943.5	310.200
1944.5	310.125
1945.5	310.100
1946.5	310.125
1947.5	310.200
1948.5	310.325
1949.5	310.500
1950.5	310.750
1951.5	311.100
1952.5	311.500
1953.5	311.925
1954.5	312.425
1955.5	313.000
1956.5	313.600
1957.5	314.225
1958.5	314.848
1959.5	315.500
1960.5	316.272
1961.5	317.075
1962.5	317.795
1963.5	318.397

1964.5	318.925
1965.5	319.647
1966.5	320.647
1967.5	321.605
1968.5	322.635
1969.5	323.902
1970.5	324.985
1971.5	325.855
1972.5	327.140
1973.5	328.677
1974.5	329.742
1975.5	330.585
1976.5	331.747
1977.5	333.272
1978.5	334.848
1979.5	336.525
1980.5	338.360
1981.5	339.728
1982.5	340.793
1983.5	342.198
1984.5	343.783
1985.5	345.283
1986.5	346.797
1987.5	348.645
1988.5	350.737
1989.5	352.487
1990.5	353.855
1991.5	355.017
1992.5	355.885
1993.5	356.777
1994.5	358.128
1995.5	359.837
1996.5	361.462
1997.5	363.155
1998.5	365.323
1999.5	367.348
2000.5	368.865
2001.5	370.467
2002.5	372.522
2003.5	374.760
2004.5	376.813
2005.5	378.813
2006.5	380.828
2007.5	382.777
2008.5	384.800
2009.5	386.935
2010.5	389.000
999999.	389.000

Supplementary Information: Part B

Responses in CO₂ for the 100 GtC emission pulse added to a constant background of 389 ppm (PD100 case) are fitted by a sum of exponentials:

$$IRF_{CO_2}(t) = a_0 + \sum_{i=1}^3 a_i \cdot \exp\left(\frac{-t}{\tau_i}\right) \quad \text{for } 0 \leq t \leq nyears \quad . \quad (S1)$$

For IRF_{CO_2} the conditions is applied that the sum of the coefficients a_i equals 1. Note that the fits only apply for the period from 0 to $nyears$, where $nyears$ is the number of available output years.

The mean relative error, mre , in permil is calculated from annual values:

$$mre = \frac{1}{nyears} \sum_{i=1}^{nyears} \frac{|f_i - m_i|}{m_i} \cdot 1000 \text{permil} \quad , \quad (S2)$$

where f_i are the annual data from the fit and m_i from the model output.

Table S1: Coefficients to fit model responses in CO₂ (IRF_{CO_2}) for the PD100 case. The mean relative error (mre) is given in permil.

model	$nyears$	mre	a_0	a_1	a_2	a_3	τ_1	τ_2	τ_3
NCAR CSM1.4	289	11	2.935E-07	3.665E-01	3.542E-01	2.793E-01	1.691E+03	2.836E+01	5.316E+00
HadGEM2-ES	101	40	4.340E-01	1.973E-01	1.889E-01	1.798E-01	2.307E+01	2.307E+01	3.922E+00
MPI-ESM	101	16	1.252E-07	5.864E-01	1.826E-01	2.310E-01	1.781E+02	9.039E+00	8.989E+00
Bern3D-LPJ (reference)	1000	5	6.345E-10	5.150E-01	2.631E-01	2.219E-01	1.955E+03	4.583E+01	3.872E+00
Bern3D-LPJ (ensemble)	585	3	2.796E-01	2.382E-01	2.382E-01	2.440E-01	2.762E+02	3.845E+01	4.928E+00
Bern2.5D-LPJ	1000	9	2.362E-01	9.866E-02	3.850E-01	2.801E-01	2.321E+02	5.850E+01	2.587E+00
CLIMBER2-LPJ	1000	20	2.318E-01	2.756E-01	4.900E-01	2.576E-03	2.726E+02	6.692E+00	6.692E+00
DCESS	1000	4	2.159E-01	2.912E-01	2.410E-01	2.518E-01	3.799E+02	3.631E+01	3.398E+00
GENIE (ensemble)	1000	5	2.145E-01	2.490E-01	1.924E-01	3.441E-01	2.701E+02	3.932E+01	4.305E+00
LOVECLIM	1000	58	8.539E-08	3.606E-01	4.503E-01	1.891E-01	1.596E+03	2.171E+01	2.281E+00
MESMO	1000	1	2.848E-01	2.938E-01	2.382E-01	1.831E-01	4.543E+02	2.500E+01	2.014E+00
UVic2.9	1000	4	3.186E-01	1.748E-01	1.921E-01	3.145E-01	3.046E+02	2.656E+01	3.800E+00
ACC2	985	4	1.779E-01	1.654E-01	3.796E-01	2.772E-01	3.862E+02	3.689E+01	3.723E+00
Bern-SAR	1000	3	1.994E-01	1.762E-01	3.452E-01	2.792E-01	3.331E+02	3.969E+01	4.110E+00
MAGICC6 (ensemble)	604	1	2.051E-01	2.533E-01	3.318E-01	2.098E-01	5.961E+02	2.197E+01	2.995E+00
TOTEM2	984	2	7.177E-06	2.032E-01	6.995E-01	9.738E-02	8.577E+04	1.118E+02	1.583E-02
multi-model mean	1000	6	2.173E-01	2.240E-01	2.824E-01	2.763E-01	3.944E+02	3.654E+01	4.304E+00

Table S2: Coefficients to fit model responses in CO_2 (IRF_{CO_2}) for the PI100 case with and without climate feedbacks and for the Bern3D-LPJ(reference). The mean relative error (mre) is given in permil.

	<i>nyears</i>	<i>mre</i>	a_0	a_1	a_2	a_3	τ_1	τ_2	τ_3
With climate feedback	1000	4	1.266E-01	2.607E-01	2.909E-01	3.218E-01	3.028E+02	3.161E+01	4.240E+00
Without climate feedback	1000	3	1.332E-01	1.663E-01	3.453E-01	3.551E-01	3.133E+02	2.999E+01	4.601E+00

Figure S1: Responses in IRF_{CO_2} from individual models (black) and corresponding fits (red).