

reached because only 41–45 % of the CO₂ emitted between 1850 and 2010 remained in the atmosphere while the rest was sequestered by lands and oceans (Jones and Cox, 2005; Canadell et al., 2007; Raupach et al., 2008; Knorr, 2009) (Fig. 1). This largely constant ratio, generally referred to as the “airborne fraction” (denoted as “ γ ” in this paper), was conventionally used to evaluate the efficiency of global carbon sinks (carbon sequestered by lands and oceans) in assimilating the extra CO₂ from the atmosphere (Jones and Cox, 2005; Canadell et al., 2007). A few recent studies found that the airborne fraction can also be influenced by trends and variations in anthropogenic emissions and other extrinsic forcing events (e.g., volcanic eruptions), and thus may not be an ideal indicator for monitoring changes in the carbon sink efficiency (Knorr, 2009; Gloor et al., 2010; Frölicher et al., 2013). Although these previous studies mainly focused on explaining the constancy of the airborne fraction from the perspective of global carbon-cycle dynamics, we can look at the problem from a different perspective. For instance, we can use the stable airborne fraction to examine the dynamic characteristics of the carbon cycle. This paper is dedicated to address the latter question. In particular, we propose that the responses of atmospheric CO₂ concentration to the disturbances of anthropogenic CO₂ emissions since 1850s can be properly approximated by a linear dynamic system with largely constant parameters.

Our hypothesis is based on two important observations. First, it is a basic feature of a stable linear system that its responses to an exponentially increasing forcing [e.g., $\exp(\alpha t)$, $\alpha > 0$, $t \geq 0$] will approach the input signal with a constant ratio. Indeed, because exponential functions are invariant (to the extent of a constant factor) to differential operators, the effects of a linear system on an exponential input are simply to delay the signal or/and to regulate its magnitude (Naylor and Sell, 1982). Because the intrinsic responses of a stable linear system must be decaying with time, the output from the system will be increasingly dominated by an exponential signal proportional to the input [i.e., $\propto \exp(\alpha t)$].

Second, a nonlinear dynamic system can be linearly approximated around a steady point within a neighborhood in its state space (Khalil, 2001). In the case of the global

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carbon cycle, the existence of such a (quasi) steady state is evident in that the atmospheric CO₂ concentration (and the corresponding global climatology) had been stable for thousands of years before the industrial era (IPCC 2007). Therefore, the observed simple proportional relationship between the atmospheric CO₂ concentrations and the increasing CO₂ emissions suggest that recent changes of the global carbon cycle may be still within the linear neighborhood of the system’s last steady state.

Another disturbance that this study intends to examine is the impact of climate changes on the atmospheric CO₂ dynamics. Global surface temperature has increased by $\sim 1^\circ\text{C}$ since the beginning of the 20th century (Hansen et al., 1999; Brohan et al., 2006). Given the tight coupling between temperature and the carbon cycle (Keeling et al., 1995; Joos et al., 1999, 2001; Lenton, 2000; Rafelski et al., 2009), the warming alone may release a large amount of CO₂ from the land and the oceans into the atmosphere, redistributing carbon among these reservoirs. The impacts of temperature changes on the carbon system have different dynamic characteristics than those of CO₂ emissions and need to be analyzed separately (see below).

We demonstrate our analytical framework by developing a simple two-box model that represents carbon exchanges between the atmosphere and the surface (i.e. land and ocean) reservoirs. Although such a “toy” model only represents a first-order approximation of the global carbon cycle, important characteristics of the atmospheric CO₂ dynamics can still be learned from it. Throughout the analysis we compare the results obtained from the two-box model to those from the more advanced Bern model (Siegenthaler and Joos, 1992; Enting et al., 1994; IPCC 1996, 2001), which is slightly revised and recalibrated in this study (see the Appendix). The Bern model couples the atmosphere with a process-based ocean biogeochemical scheme (Siegenthaler and Joos, 1992; Shaffer and Sarmiento, 1995; Joos et al., 1999) and a multi-component terrestrial biosphere module (Siegenthaler and Oeschger, 1987). The global carbon-cycle processes described in the Bern model help us diagnose the biogeophysical mechanisms underlying the characteristics of the atmospheric CO₂ dynamics identified with our simple linear model.

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are closely associated with the response times of the atmosphere and surface carbon reservoirs. For instance, the initial decaying rate of an impulse of CO₂ emitted into the atmosphere is mainly influenced by the response time of the atmosphere, but the proportion of the extra CO₂ that stays in the atmosphere at long-term time scales is determined by the ratio between the response times of the atmosphere and the surface reservoirs. Unfortunately, the collinearity exhibited by the observed time series of CO₂ emissions and atmospheric CO₂ concentrations has obscured the determination of the response times for individual surface reservoirs, inducing uncertainties of the estimated long-term responses of the global carbon system. In other words, although the steady CO₂ airborne fraction allows us to represent the carbon-system dynamics with a simple model, it prevents us to resolve further details of the surface carbon reservoirs.

Our model results also have important biogeophysical implications. They highlight that the responses of the global carbon cycle to recent anthropogenic and climatic disturbances are still within the resilience zone of the system, such that annual (gross) terrestrial and ocean carbon sinks linearly increases with the atmospheric CO₂ levels. On one hand, the elevated atmospheric CO₂ concentration must have enhanced land carbon uptakes through the “fertilization” effects and the associated ecological changes. On the other hand, however, the enhanced gross carbon uptakes are partially offset by the increases in global surface temperatures, which accelerate the release of carbon from the surface reservoirs into the atmosphere. As a result, the “net” efficiency of global land and oceans in sequestering atmospheric CO₂ may have slowed by ~ 30 % since 1960s, although the airborne fraction of CO₂ emissions remains largely constant.

Finally and importantly, we emphasize that the linear approximation of the global carbon cycle discussed in this paper is conditioned on the pre-industrial (quasi) steady state of the system. The global climate-carbon system is clearly nonlinear beyond this scope (Archer et al., 2009), which can establish different steady states over glacial/interglacial time scales (Sigman and Boyle, 2000). A major concern stemming from climate change is that, because the post-industrial anthropogenic disturbances on the global carbon cycle are so strong and rapid, they may abruptly alter the pace

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at which the natural climate-carbon system evolves and drive the system into a different state at a drastically accelerated rate (IPCC 2001). Our results clearly indicate that the rising atmospheric CO₂ concentrations and the associated increases in global temperature have significantly intensified the global carbon cycle in the past one and half centuries. Although such intensification of the carbon system seems to be within the linear zone as of now, its resilience may be weakened, or lost, in the future. As the anthropogenic CO₂ emissions continue to increase and the global temperature continues to warm, scientists generally expect surface – in particular, terrestrial – carbon reservoirs to saturate and their CO₂ sequestration efficiency to decrease, such that the responses of the global carbon cycle to the anthropogenic disturbances will eventually deviate from their original path. With this concern regarded, the simple linear model developed in this study may serve as a convenient tool to monitor the early signs when the natural carbon system is pushed away (by anthropogenic emissions) from its linear zone.

15 **Appendix A: Calibrations of the Bern carbon-cycle model**

The Bern model is a coupled global carbon-cycle box model (Siegenthaler and Joos, 1992; Enting et al., 1994) that was used in previous IPCC Assessment Reports to study changes in atmospheric CO₂ concentration under different emission scenarios (IPCC 1996, 2001). It couples the High-Latitude Exchange/Interior Diffusion–Advection (HILDA) ocean biogeochemical model (Siegenthaler and Joos, 1992; Shaffer and Sarmiento, 1995; Joos et al., 1999) with an atmosphere layer and a multi-component terrestrial biosphere model (Siegenthaler and Oeschger, 1987). The HILDA model describes ocean biogeochemical cycling through two well-mixed surface layers in low and high latitudes, a well-mixed deep ocean in the high latitude and a dissipative interior ocean in the low latitude. Ocean tracer transport is represented by four processes: (1) eddy diffusion within the interior ocean (k , $3.2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$), (2) deep upwelling in the interior ocean (w , $2.0 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m s}^{-1}$), which is balanced by lateral trans-

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port between the two surface layers as well as the down-welling in the polar deep ocean, (3) lateral exchange between the interior ocean and the well-mixed polar deep ocean (q , $7.5 \times 10^{-11} \text{ s}^{-1}$); and (4) vertical exchange between the high-latitude surface layer and the deep polar ocean (u , $1.9 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m s}^{-1}$) (Shaffer and Sarmiento, 1995).
5 The effective exchange velocity between surface ocean layers and the atmosphere in both low and high latitudes is assumed to be the same ($2.32 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m s}^{-1}$) (Shaffer and Sarmiento, 1995). Ocean carbonate chemistry (e.g., the Revelle buffer factor) is based on the formulation given by Sarmiento et al. (1992). In addition, we implemented the influence of sea surface temperature on the partial pressure of dissolved
10 CO_2 in seawater with a sensitivity of $\sim 4.3\% \text{ }^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$ (Gordon and Jones, 1973; Takahashi et al., 1993; Joos et al., 2001). The changes in global mean sea-surface temperature (SST) is approximately $0.8\text{--}1.0 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ from 1850s to 2000s (Rayner et al., 2003; Brohan et al., 2006) slightly lower than that of the tropical land-based air temperature ($\sim 1.0 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) but with a trend resembling the latter (Rayner et al., 2003; Jones et al., 2003; Hansen et al., 2006). For simplicity, therefore, we used the long-term trend of the tropical land
15 air as a proxy for the corresponding trend in global SST.

The terrestrial biosphere in the Bern model is represented by four carbon compartments (ground vegetation, wood, detritus, and soil) with prescribed turnover rates and allocation ratios. The global net primary production (NPP), the influx to the biosphere, is assumed to be 60 GtC yr^{-1} at the pre-industrial level; and the effect of CO_2 fertilization on NPP (i.e., the β effect) is described with a logarithmic function with a β parameter of 0.38 (Enting et al., 1994). The original Bern model does not consider the effects of
20 changing global temperatures on terrestrial ecosystem respiration, which have been suggested to play an important role in regulating the variability of the global carbon cycle at interannual to multi-decadal time scales (Wang et al., 2013; Rafelski et al., 2009). Therefore, we implemented temperature's effects on terrestrial ecosystem respiration in the Bern model with an overall sensitivity (Q_{10}) of ~ 1.5 (Lenton, 2000; Davidson and Janssens, 2006; Wang et al., 2013). We also changed the pre-industrial CO_2 concen-
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tration to 285 ppm in the Bern model to reflect the findings obtained from the observations (Fig. 4 of the main text).

We calibrated the Bern model so that the model outputs fit the observed atmospheric CO_2 data most favorably. Because no major revisions were made to the ocean carbon cycle module (HILDA), we focused mainly on calibrating the biosphere module.
5 With the original biosphere model parameters, the simulated atmospheric CO_2 concentrations were found to be distinctly higher than observations, reaching ~ 411 ppm in 2010. These results are induced because rising temperatures enhance respiration in the model, reducing the net land carbon sinks to an unrealistic $\sim 0.5 \text{ ppm yr}^{-1}$ in
10 2010. To balance the temperature-enhanced respiration, we need to increase the β parameter from 0.38 to 0.64 to incorporate a higher rate of gross biosphere carbon uptake as enhanced by CO_2 fertilization (Long et al., 2004) and the associated ecological changes (Keenan et al., 2013). With the β parameter set at 0.64, the simulated global terrestrial NPP increased by 14 % from its pre-industrial level and reached
15 $\sim 69 \text{ GtC yr}^{-1}$ in 2010, which qualitatively agrees with recent estimates inferred from the isotope measurements (Welp et al., 2011). As such, the re-calibrated Bern model is able to simulate accurately the observed changes/variations in atmospheric CO_2 concentration and growth rate in the past 150 years (Fig. 2 of the main text). The simulated ocean and land components of global carbon sinks are also consistent with
20 estimates found in previous studies (e.g., Canadell et al., 2007; Le Quéré et al., 2009).

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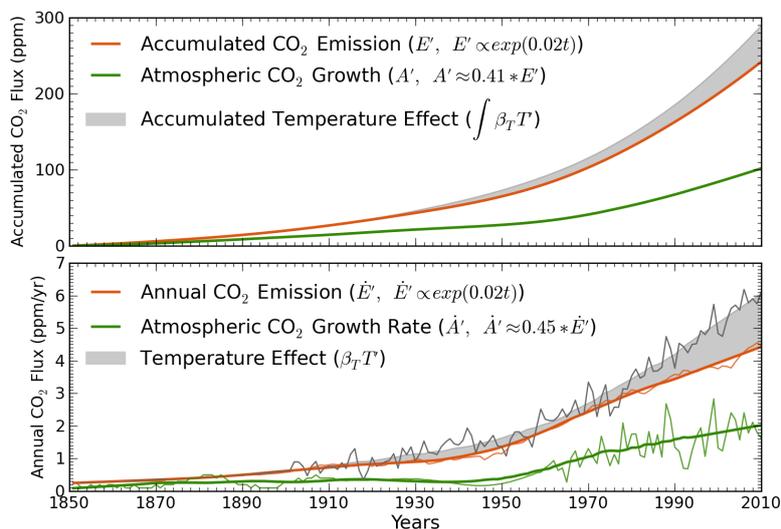


Figure 1. Time series of global anthropogenic CO₂ emissions (red line), atmospheric CO₂ concentrations (green line), and the anomalous CO₂ fluxes induced by warming surface temperatures (gray shade) between 1850 and 2010. The Top panel indicates the accumulated CO₂ fluxes or the total concentration changes while the Bottom panel shows them at annual steps. The thick and the thin lines indicate long-term and interannual variations of the time series, respectively. The mathematical symbols are the same as in Eq. (1) and explained in the text. In both annual and accumulative cases, CO₂ emissions largely increase as an exponential function of time, while changes in the atmospheric CO₂ concentrations are proportional to the corresponding emissions by a factor about 0.41–0.45.

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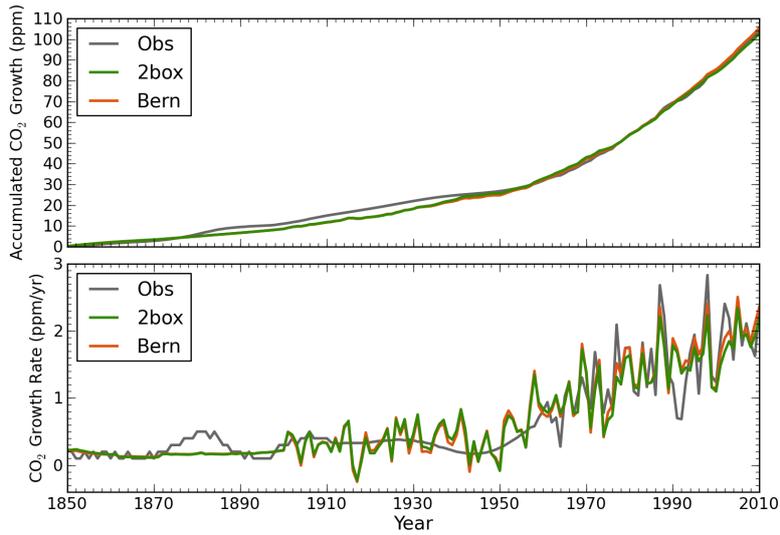


Figure 2. Simulations of the observed atmospheric CO₂ concentrations (Top Panel) and growth rates (Bottom Panel) from anthropogenic CO₂ emissions and land-surface air-temperature data using the two-box model (“2box”) and the Bern model (“Bern”). The atmospheric CO₂ concentration in 1850 (i.e., 284.7 ppm) is used as the initial condition for the model integration. Long-term mean temperature before 1901 is assumed to be stable and represented by the 1901–1920 mean. Other model parameters used in these simulations are explained in the main text (the two-box model) or the Appendix (the Bern model).

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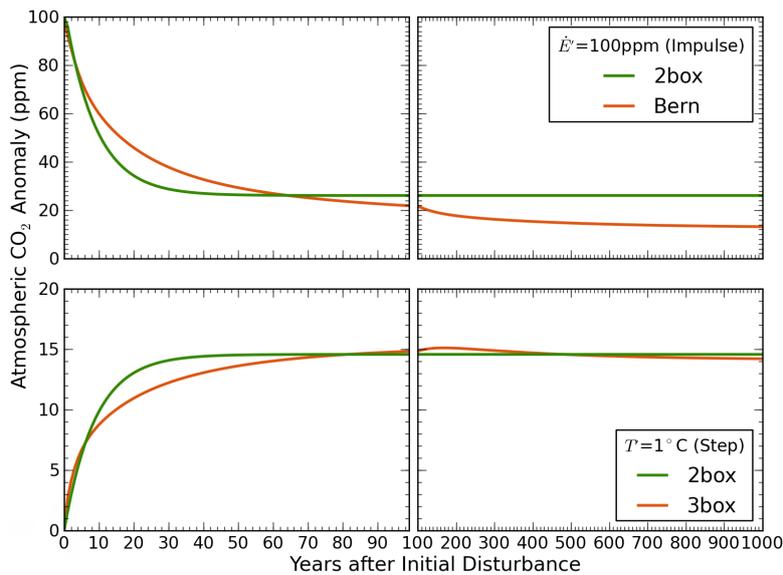


Figure 3. Disturbance-response functions of the atmospheric CO₂ concentration simulated by the two-box model (“2box”) and the Bern model (“Bern”). The Top panel shows the responses of atmospheric CO₂ concentration to an impulse increase (of 100 ppm) in anthropogenic CO₂ emissions and the Bottom panel shows the corresponding responses to a step increase (of 1 °C) in surface temperatures.

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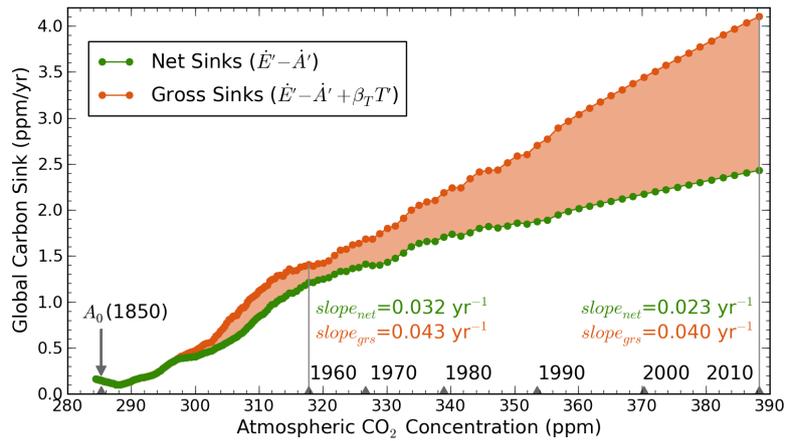


Figure 4. Global annual carbon sinks (ppm/yr) as a function of atmospheric CO₂ concentration from 1850 to 2010. The green dots indicate the observed “net” carbon sinks and the red dots indicate the “gross” carbon sinks that accounted for the effects of temperature changes (Eq. 7). The differences between the gross and the net carbon sinks (the shaded area) indicate the extra carbon fluxes released into the atmosphere as a result of warming temperatures (Fig. 1). The gray arrow (“A”) indicates the estimated atmospheric CO₂ level (284.7 ppm) that was stable at pre-industrial CO₂ emission rates and climate conditions. The slopes between the global annual carbon sinks and corresponding changes in atmospheric CO₂ concentration (relative to A) generally reflect carbon-sequestration efficiencies of global land and ocean reservoirs.