

# Energy budget diagnosis of changing climate feedback

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This paper is a non-peer reviewed preprint submitted to EarthArXiv.

*Short title:* Observed climate feedback change

*One-Sentence Summary:* Records of Earth’s energy budget indicate that Earth’s climate feedback has changed substantially over the past 50 years.

*Keywords:* Climate change; climate feedback; pattern effect; radiative forcing; ocean heat content; climate modelling

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1 **Abstract**

2 The climate feedback determines how Earth’s climate responds to anthropogenic forcing. It has been more negative  
3 in recent decades than predicted by Earth system models due to a sea surface temperature ‘pattern effect’, whereby  
4 warming is concentrated in the western tropical Pacific, where nonlocal radiative feedbacks are very negative. This  
5 phenomenon has however primarily been studied within climate models. We diagnose a pattern effect from historical  
6 records as an evolution of the climate feedback over the past five decades. The climate feedback has decreased by  
7  $0.8 \pm 0.5 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}$  over the past 50 years, corresponding to a reduction in climate sensitivity. Earth system models’  
8 climate feedbacks instead increase over this period. Understanding and simulating this historical trend and its future  
9 evolution are critical for reliable climate projections.

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11 Earth’s climate feedback – the amount of extra energy radiated to space per degree of global warming ( $-\lambda$ ,  $[\text{W/m}^2\text{K}]$ )  
12 – is a central object of study in climate science, being one of the essential parameters determining Earth’s response  
13 to anthropogenic emissions of greenhouse gases and other forcing agents [1]. If  $\lambda$  is more negative, Earth’s global  
14 mean surface temperature  $T$  [K] is less sensitive to the anthropogenic radiative forcing  $F$   $[\text{W/m}^2]$ , i.e.  $-\lambda$  is inversely  
15 proportional to effective climate sensitivity (defined as the projected equilibrium warming following a doubling of the  
16 preindustrial  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration) [2]. Though myriad physical processes contribute to  $\lambda$ , a crucial factor is the spatial  
17 pattern of warming. In particular, warming in the western tropical Pacific produces a much larger global radiative  
18 response, and hence a more negative climate feedback, than warming elsewhere; this phenomenon has been termed the  
19 ‘pattern effect’ [3, 4, 5, 6, 7]. Warming in this region, where air moves upwards in the lower atmosphere, results in  
20 increased stability of the lower tropical atmosphere in remote subsidence regions; this in turn increases low cloud cover  
21 and hence upwards shortwave radiation. In recent decades, global warming has been concentrated in this region of very  
22 negative radiative feedbacks [8, 9, 4, 10], leading to a more negative value of  $\lambda$  (hence lower climate sensitivity).

23 When simulating the historical climate over recent decades, Earth system models (ESMs) tend to produce spatial  
24 warming patterns that lack this concentration of warming in regions of very negative radiative feedbacks. The ESM  
25 projections lead to less negative  $\lambda$  (higher climate sensitivity) than when the observed spatial pattern of sea surface  
26 temperature is imposed on the same atmospheric models [11]. Furthermore, for standard ESM simulations with fixed  
27 atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations quadrupling from preindustrial levels – the primary model experiment for diagnosing  
28 the global climate feedback  $\lambda$  – the spatial pattern of warming is again quite different, leading to a less negative  $\lambda$  than

29 indicated by observations [12]. The pattern effect is thus sometimes quantified by the difference between the  $\lambda$  values  
 30 associated with a CO<sub>2</sub>-quadrupling experiment and an experiment with prescribed sea surface temperatures [9], based  
 31 on the argument that the surface warming should eventually adjust to the modelled long-term warming pattern. The  
 32 pattern effect quantified as such has been almost exclusively studied within ESMs because we cannot instantaneously  
 33 quadruple the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration.

34 It would be advantageous to quantify a pattern effect from historical records, not only to assess the probability,  
 35 magnitude, and implications of this effect for Earth’s recent climate, but also to provide a benchmark with which  
 36 to assess ESM performance. This observationally-based viewpoint is especially important because it is increasingly  
 37 common to weight models in multi-model projections by their relative performance in capturing historical trends,  
 38 which they may do for the wrong reasons, thereby biasing projections, if they do not capture the influence of the  
 39 pattern effect [13, 14, 15, 16].

40 Here we propose an alternative metric for the pattern effect – the *trend* in the climate feedback  $\lambda$  over recent decades  
 41 – that can be diagnosed from historical records without reference to hypothetical scenarios. We show that this trend  
 42 is significantly different from zero over the past five decades of global energy budget records, and large in amplitude  
 43 with substantial implications for global warming. We also show that ESMs fail to capture this trend, irrespective of  
 44 their climate sensitivity. We use the past five decades because this is the time period over which reliable records exist  
 45 [17] (Methods). The bulk of global warming has occurred since 1970, with four of the first six years of the 1970s being  
 46 within 0.2°C of the 1850–1900 average [18], as has the bulk of the increase in ocean heat content  $\mathcal{H}$  [W yr/m<sup>2</sup>] and  
 47 radiative forcing [17, 19]. We stress from the outset that we only investigate this period of 1970–2019; we make no  
 48 assumptions or speculations about the future trends in  $\lambda$ , though the pattern effect is generally expected to reverse in  
 49 future, whether due to adjustment of the warming pattern to the radiative forcing over a multidecadal timescale, or to  
 50 future changes in radiative forcing patterns.

51 The method we present is described in detail in the Methods. Briefly, we work from a simple Earth energy balance  
 52 equation, which states that the rate of global warming is proportional to the net rate of energy storage in the upper  
 53 ocean

$$\eta\dot{T}(t) = F(t) + \lambda(t)T(t) - H(t), \quad (1)$$

54 where  $T$  [K] is the global mean surface temperature anomaly,  $\eta$  [W yr/m<sup>2</sup>K] is the heat capacity of the upper ocean  
 55 layer,  $F$  [W/m<sup>2</sup>] is the radiative forcing imposed upon Earth’s surface,  $\lambda$  [W/m<sup>2</sup>K] is the climate feedback, and  $H$   
 56 [W/m<sup>2</sup>] is the ocean heat uptake (the flux of energy into the deeper ocean from the upper layer). From this equation  
 57 one can derive the energy budget  $\mathcal{F}(\tau) - \mathcal{H}(\tau) = \mathcal{R}(\tau)$ , where  $\mathcal{F}(\tau)$  is the cumulative energy fluxed to the top of the  
 58 atmosphere via radiative forcing by time  $\tau$ ,  $\mathcal{H}(\tau)$  is the total ocean heat content anomaly at time  $\tau$  (including the upper  
 59 layer), which approximates the Earth’s energy imbalance, and  $\mathcal{R}(\tau)$  is the cumulative energy fluxed back to space by

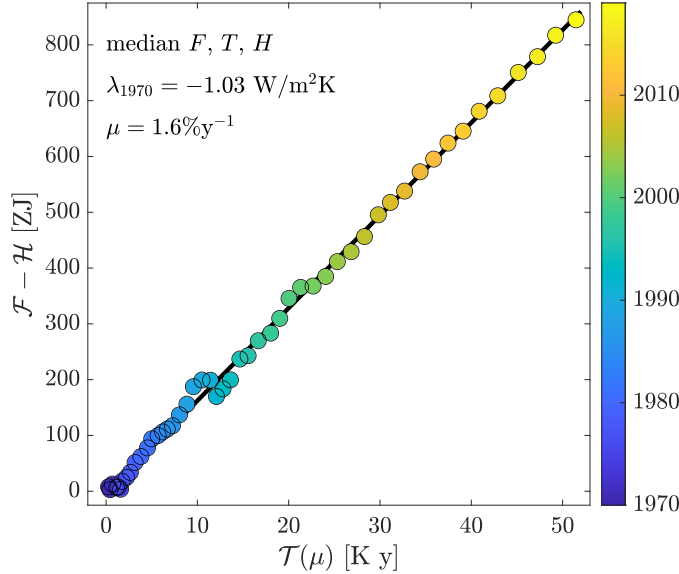


Figure 1: Illustration of diagnosis of model parameters from time series, using the medians of radiative forcing, ocean heat content, and global mean surface temperature; see Methods for details.  $x$ -axis is the weighted temperature anomaly integral;  $y$ -axis is the cumulative anomaly in energy radiated to space ( $\mathcal{F} - \mathcal{H}$ ); color is year.

60 time  $\tau$ ; this is just a restatement of conservation of energy. We then make the ansatz that  $\lambda$  changes linearly with time  
61 from 1970, i.e.  $\lambda(t) = \lambda_{1970}(1 + \mu t)$  where  $t$  is time in years since 1970. This choice is motivated by its simplicity as a  
62 means to capture the expected change in  $\lambda$  from 1970–2019 as warming concentrated in the western tropical Pacific,  
63 and is justified post hoc by the absence of systematic behavior in the residuals (Methods). Substituting this ansatz  
64 into the energy budget yields

$$\mathcal{F}(\tau) - \mathcal{H}(\tau) = -\lambda_{1970}\mathcal{T}(\mu, \tau), \quad (2)$$

65 where  $\mathcal{T}(\mu, \tau)$  is a weighted integral of the temperature anomaly (Methods). The parameter combinations  $(\lambda_{1970}, \mu)$   
66 that minimize the residuals of this equation are selected. Ensembles for  $\mathcal{F}$ ,  $T$ , and  $\mathcal{H}$  are used to quantify uncertainty;  
67 the HadCRUT5 [18] global annual mean surface temperature  $T$  product, the  $F$  ensemble from the recent Working  
68 Group I contribution to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change’s Sixth Assessment Report [19], and a  $\mathcal{H}$   
69 ensemble generated from three observational ocean heat content products are used [20, 21, 22]. Figure 1 shows a  
70 regression that illustrates this process for the median radiative forcing and temperature anomaly, and the associated  
71 parameter values; heuristically the  $\mu$  is chosen that makes the relationship between the  $x$ - and  $y$ -axis variables most  
72 linear (Methods), and the slope of this relationship corresponds to  $\lambda_{1970}$ .

73 Within this framework, we begin by testing the null hypothesis of a constant climate feedback from 1970–2019, i.e.  
74  $\mu = 0$ . We reject this hypothesis for three reasons. When we fit our statistical model with  $\mu = 0$  to the historical  
75 records, 92% of ensemble members yield curvature of the same sign in the residuals, indicating systematic behavior not  
76 captured by a constant climate feedback (Figure S1, Methods). When we compare the  $\mu = 0$  model with a model with

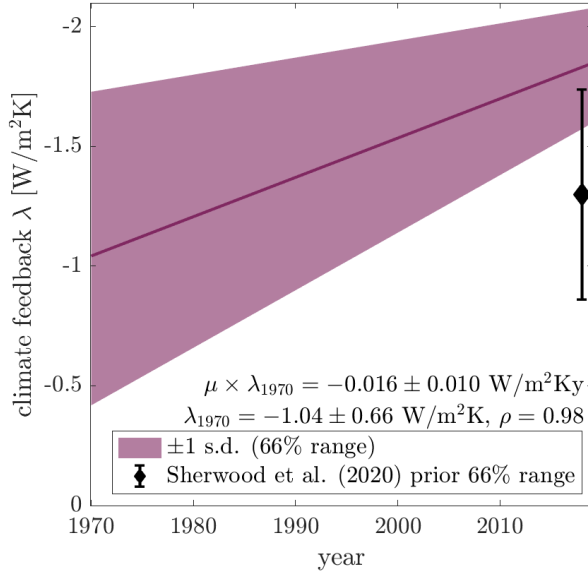


Figure 2: Median and 66% range ( $\sim \pm 1$  s.d.) of the climate feedback  $\lambda$ . Black error bars show (time-invariant)  $\lambda$  mean and 66% prior range from [9] from theory and ESMs.

77 a nonzero  $\mu$ , 91% of ensemble members yield higher Akaike Information Criterion values for the  $\mu = 0$  model (Figure  
 78 S1, Methods), indicating that a time-varying climate feedback describes these data better even after penalising for the  
 79 additional free parameter. Finally, when  $\mu$  is allowed to be nonzero, we find a decreasing climate feedback trend for  
 80 92% of ensemble members (Figure S1).

81 Our analysis thus suggests that  $\lambda$  became more negative with time (decreasing climate sensitivity) over the period  
 82 1970–2019 (i.e.  $\mu > 0$ ). Figure 2 shows our main result; we find that  $\lambda$  has decreased by  $0.8 \pm 0.5$  W/m<sup>2</sup>K ( $\pm$  indicates  
 83 half of 66% range, or  $\sim 1$  standard deviation, throughout) from  $-1.0 \pm 0.7$  W/m<sup>2</sup>K in 1970 to  $-1.8 \pm 0.2$  W/m<sup>2</sup>K in  
 84 2019. This corresponds to an annual decrease of  $\mu \times \lambda_{1970} = 0.016 \pm 0.010$  W/m<sup>2</sup>K per year. The reduced uncertainty  
 85 in the 2019 values is because uncertainties in  $\mu$  and  $\lambda_{1970}$  are strongly correlated (Spearman rank correlation of 0.98).  
 86 This is a large change, from a  $\lambda$  estimate that moves from the low end of a priori expectations ( $-1.3 \pm 0.44$  W/m<sup>2</sup>K  
 87 [9]; Figure 2) in 1970 to the high end in 2019. Our estimate of the change over this period of  $0.8 \pm 0.5$  W/m<sup>2</sup>K is  
 88 consistent with the ESM-based quantifications of the pattern effect of  $0.5 \pm 0.5$  W/m<sup>2</sup>K [9] or  $0.6$  W/m<sup>2</sup>K with a range  
 89 of  $0.3$ – $1.0$  W/m<sup>2</sup>K [11]. We note that our results are consistent with the sliding window method applied to the same  
 90 time series [11, 8] (Figure S2), but that this latter method has drawbacks (Methods).

91 One way to estimate the impact of this trend is in terms of the time taken to reach a certain warming threshold, such  
 92 as those laid out in the Paris agreement [23]. To this end, we compare the time taken to reach  $1.5^\circ\text{C}$  and  $2^\circ\text{C}$  for the  
 93 1970 and 2019 values of  $\lambda$ . Under the idealised scenario where atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations increase 1% each year  
 94 [24], this results in a substantial difference in the time taken to cross these temperature thresholds; in a world with  
 95 the 2019  $\lambda$  value, it takes  $21 \pm 14$  ( $28 \pm 19$ ) additional years to reach  $1.5^\circ\text{C}$  ( $2^\circ\text{C}$ ) than in a world with the 1970 value.  
 96 While this is an idealised scenario and calculation, this difference demonstrates the importance of understanding and

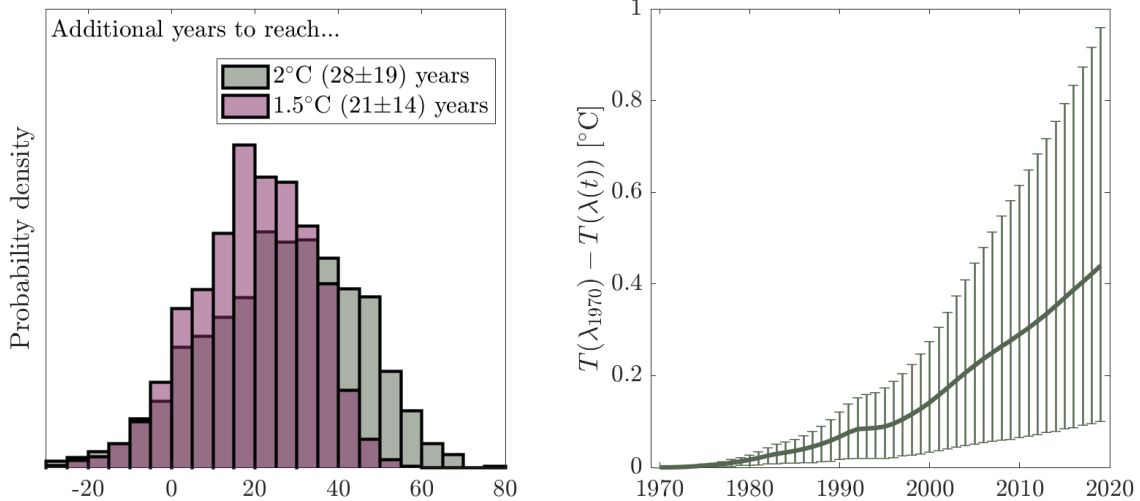


Figure 3: Left: histogram of additional years necessary to reach 1.5°C or 2°C under a 1%-per-year increase in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations using the 2019 values of  $\lambda$  versus the 1970 values of  $\lambda$  in a simple energy balance model (eq. 1). Right: Difference in  $T$  as a function of time between a scenario with observed  $\lambda$  trend vs. constant 1970  $\lambda$  value.

97 predicting the evolution of  $\lambda$  in recent and coming years. Similarly, we estimate that if  $\lambda$  had remained at its 1970  
 98 value for 1970–2019, an additional  $\sim 0.4^\circ\text{C}$  (66% range 0.1–1.0) warming would have occurred by 2019 (Figure 3) in  
 99 addition to the  $\sim 1.2^\circ\text{C}$  that has occurred since 1900.

100 We repeated our analysis of the historical time series with time series of model output of ensembles of historical  
 101 simulations from six ESMs from CMIP6 [24] spanning a range of climate sensitivities. The ESM  $\lambda$  trends are either of  
 102 the opposite sign to the observed trend or consistent with zero (Figure 4), because many of the climate models do not  
 103 capture observed surface warming patterns [12].

104 On the basis of observations alone, without reference to climate models, our analysis exposes the substantial trend  
 105 in the climate feedback over recent decades. Other work attributes this trend to changing patterns of sea surface  
 106 warming. It remains a substantial challenge to understand this pattern effect and the evolution of climate feedback,  
 107 and addressing that challenge is of paramount importance for climate projections.

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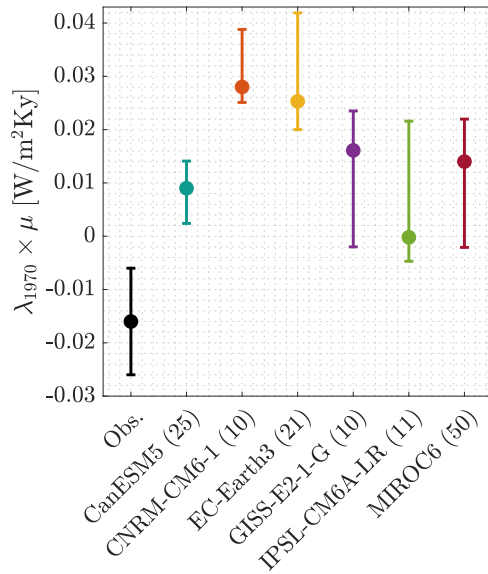


Figure 4: Median and 66% range of the trend of the climate feedback (i.e.  $\mu \times \lambda_{1970}$  [W/m<sup>2</sup>Ky]) for the historical records (black) and their analogs from historical simulations of six climate models (color). Ensemble size for the climate models is given in parentheses.

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167 [30] Acknowledgements – **Funding:** Cael acknowledges support from the National Environmental Research Council  
168 through Enhancing Climate Observations, Models and Data, and the European Union’s Horizon 2020 Research and  
169 Innovation Programme under grant agreement No. 820989 (project COMFORT). The work reflects only the authors’  
170 view; the European Commission and their executive agency are not responsible for any use that may be made of the  
171 information the work contains. Ceppi was supported by an Imperial College Research Fellowship and by the UK Natural  
172 Environment Research Council grants NE/T006250/1 and NE/V012045/1; Smith was supported by a NERC/IIASA  
173 Collaborative Reserach Fellowship (NE/T009381/1); Williams was supported by UK Natural Environment Research  
174 Council grant NE/T007788/1; Bloch-Johnson and Gregory were supported by the European Research Council (grant  
175 agreement No 786427, project “Couplet”). **Author contributions:** Cael led and all other authors contributed to  
176 all aspects of this work. **Competing interests:** The authors have no competing interests to declare. **Data and  
177 materials availability:** All data are available from sources cited in the text. All code and model output will be made  
178 available at [github.com/bbcael](https://github.com/bbcael) and given a Zenodo DOI should this manuscript be accepted for publication.

## 179 Methods

### 180 Theory

181 We begin with the energy balance equation, which states that the rate of warming of the Earth’s surface is proportional  
182 to its net energy imbalance at the top of the atmosphere:

$$\eta \dot{T}(t) = F(t) + \lambda(t)T(t) - H(t), \quad (1)$$

183 where  $\eta$  [W yr/m<sup>2</sup>K] is the heat capacity of the layer represented by  $T$ ,  $T$  is the global mean surface temperature  
184 anomaly [K],  $F$  is the radiative forcing [W/m<sup>2</sup>],  $\lambda$  is the climate feedback [W/m<sup>2</sup>K], and  $H$  is the heat uptake in the  
185 ocean below the layer represented by  $T$  [W/m<sup>2</sup>]. Note that different authors use different sign conventions for  $\lambda$ ; here,  
186 a stable climate has a negative  $\lambda$ . Here we are interested in the evolution of the climate feedback  $\lambda(t)$ . We approximate  
187 this evolution with the ansatz  $\lambda(t) = \lambda_{1970}(1 + \mu t)$ ; for simplicity  $t$  is set to zero at 1970. We choose 1970 because both  
188 ocean heat content and global mean surface temperature increase very little prior to 1970 compared with uncertainty  
189 and interannual variability, and ocean heat content in particular before 1970 is very uncertain and sparsely observed.  
190 Inserting this ansatz and integrating both sides of this equation yields:

$$\eta T(\tau) - \eta T(1970) = \int_{1970}^{\tau} F(t) dt + \lambda_{1970} \int_{1970}^{\tau} (1 + \mu t) T(t) dt - \int_{1970}^{\tau} H(t) dt.$$

191 We then define the integrals

$$\mathcal{F}(\tau) = \int_{1970}^{\tau} F(t) dt, \quad \mathcal{R}(\tau) = - \int_{1970}^{\tau} \lambda(t) T(t) dt, \quad \mathcal{H}(\tau) = \eta(T(\tau) - T(1970)) + \int_{1970}^{\tau} H(t) dt,$$

192 such that  $\mathcal{F}$  is the cumulative energy fluxed to the Earth's surface via radiative forcing,  $\mathcal{R}$  is the cumulative energy it  
 193 has fluxed back to space, and  $\mathcal{H}(\tau)$  is the cumulative energy stored in the ocean and Earth's surface. These last two are  
 194 combined because i) the energy stored as warming of the Earth's surface boundary layer,  $\eta T$ , is predominantly stored in  
 195 the upper ocean, and ii) observational records of ocean heat content cannot distinguish between the portion of energy  
 196 storage in the ocean which corresponds to this  $\eta T$  and energy stored below this layer, corresponding to  $\int_{1970}^{\tau} H(t) dt$ ,  
 197 so combining these terms is essential for comparison to observations. We can then use our ansatz and the definition of  
 198  $\mathcal{R}(\tau)$  to define

$$\mathcal{T}(\mu, \tau) = \int_{1970}^{\tau} (1 + \mu t) T(t) dt,$$

199 which after substituting in these integral terms above and rearranging yields

$$\mathcal{F}(\tau) - \mathcal{H}(\tau) = -\lambda_{1970} \mathcal{T}(\mu, \tau), \tag{2}$$

200 which simply states that amount of excess energy radiated back to space is equal to the excess energy added to the  
 201 climate system by radiative forcing, minus the amount stored in Earth system. The term on the right hand side encodes  
 202 the assumption that the climate feedback is changing with time at a constant rate. If the ansatz is valid and the correct  
 203  $\mu$  is selected, this  $\mu$  will capture the time-dependence of  $\lambda$  and the slope of the regression of the left hand side against  
 204 the right hand side of the above equation will be constant in time, i.e. there will be no systematic behavior or curvature  
 205 in the residuals of  $\mathcal{F}(\tau) - \mathcal{H}(\tau)$  regressed against  $\mathcal{T}(\mu, \tau)$ ; see Figure 1.

206 The bulk of surface warming, and hence the bulk of the concentration of warming in very negative feedback regions,  
 207 occurred since 1970. Thus the diagnosed difference between  $\lambda$  in 1970 versus 2019 is to some extent qualitatively  
 208 comparable to the pattern effect defined as difference between the climate feedback in the absence versus presence of  
 209 the historical warming patterns concentrated in very negative feedback regions.

210 **Data**

211 For  $F$ , we use the time series ensemble (2237 members) from the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change’s Working  
212 Group I contribution to the Sixth Assessment Report [19], which is available through 2019.

213 For  $T$ , we use the HadCRUT5 temperature record for global mean surface temperature because uncertainties being  
214 expressed as ensemble members makes the propagation of uncertainty straightforward when integrating in time, and  
215 the HadCRUT5 ensemble captures the uncertainty across other temperature time series [25].  $T$  is defined as the  
216 temperature anomaly versus 1850–1900. HadCRUT5 is provided as a 200-member ensemble, described in detail in  
217 [18];  $T$  in HadCRUT5 is a combination of surface air temperature over land and sea surface temperature elsewhere.  
218 From this ensemble a 2,237 member ensemble is generated by calculating the estimated Gaussian covariance matrix  
219 based on the ensemble and simulating 2,237 members with the same covariance properties and mean as the original  
220 ensemble. Repeating the analysis resampling directly from the 200-member ensemble had a negligible impact on the  
221 results. Note that the possible issue of Earth’s climate not being well-represented as being in equilibrium in 1850–1900  
222 is implicitly captured by the variation amongst ensemble members of  $T(1970)$ . On this point, we found no relationship  
223 (Pearson, Spearman, and Kendall correlations  $<0.1$ ) between  $\mu$  or  $\lambda_{1970}$  and the initial temperature  $T(1970)$ , indicating  
224 that any difference between the average temperature in 1850–1900 and the ‘true’ equilibrium temperature that  $T$  in  
225 eq. 1 is an anomaly from, does not affect our conclusions. Further to this, adding  $0.08\pm 0.03$  W/m<sup>2</sup> to  $F$  following  
226 [26] to correspond to the energy imbalance during the latter part of the 19th century had a negligible impact on the  
227 results.

228 For  $\mathcal{H}$ , we use the same method as in [25]. The Japanese Meteorological Agency, [20], Cheng [21], and National Centers  
229 for Environmental Information [22] ocean heat content records are provided as ocean heat content over 0-2000m. A  
230 2,237 member ensemble is generated from these by calculating the estimated Gaussian covariance matrix from the three  
231 time-series and simulating ensemble members with the same covariance properties and mean. Years 1970 onwards are  
232 considered because ocean heat content changes are more sparsely observed and uncertain before this year and changes  
233 in both ocean heat content and temperature are very small over the years that ocean heat content data are available in  
234 a subset of these products prior to this year compared to both this uncertainty and interannual variability, indicating  
235 there is little to no signal to extract.

236 **Primary analysis:** To generate an estimate of  $\lambda_{1970}$  and  $\mu$  for each  $F$ ,  $T$ , and  $\mathcal{H}$  ensemble pair, the following  
237 procedure is followed: i) sample a large range of  $\lambda_{1970}$ , and  $\mu$  values (we sampled these at sufficiently large ranges that  
238 no parameter estimates were at the boundaries of our sampled parameter space, and at a sufficiently fine resolution in  
239 parameter space that increasing resolution by an order of magnitude did not change our results to the significant digits  
240 we report), ii) calculate the residuals in eq. 2 for these parameter values, iii) select the parameter values for which  
241 the linear regression has the lowest residual sum of squares. The linear ansatz is justified post-hoc by performing a  
242 quadratic regression of the residuals against  $\mathcal{T}(\mu, \tau)$ ; for 99% of ensemble members the quadratic term of this regression  
243 is not significantly different from zero, and it is positive for 57% of ensemble members and negative for the other 43%.

244 This indicates that the assumption that  $\lambda$  changes constantly in time successfully captures the temporal variation in  
245  $\lambda$ .

246 **Sliding window method:** Changes in  $\lambda$  over time have been studied in climate model simulations (particularly  
247 atmospheric simulations with prescribed sea surface temperatures) by regressing the change of global annual mean  
248 radiative response  $dR$  against surface air temperature change  $dT$  over a sliding 30-year window, e.g. [11]. We performed  
249 the same analysis on the historical time series, estimating  $dR$  as  $d(F - H)$ , with the standard 30-year window size.  
250 Figure S2 shows that this method agrees with our main result in Figure 2. However, it gives larger uncertainties, is  
251 dependent on the ad hoc choice of window size, can only provide estimates for the central 20 years of the time-series,  
252 over which period no significant trend in  $\lambda$  can be detected from either method, and use of a shorter sliding window  
253 produces estimates with large uncertainties and implausible fluctuations.

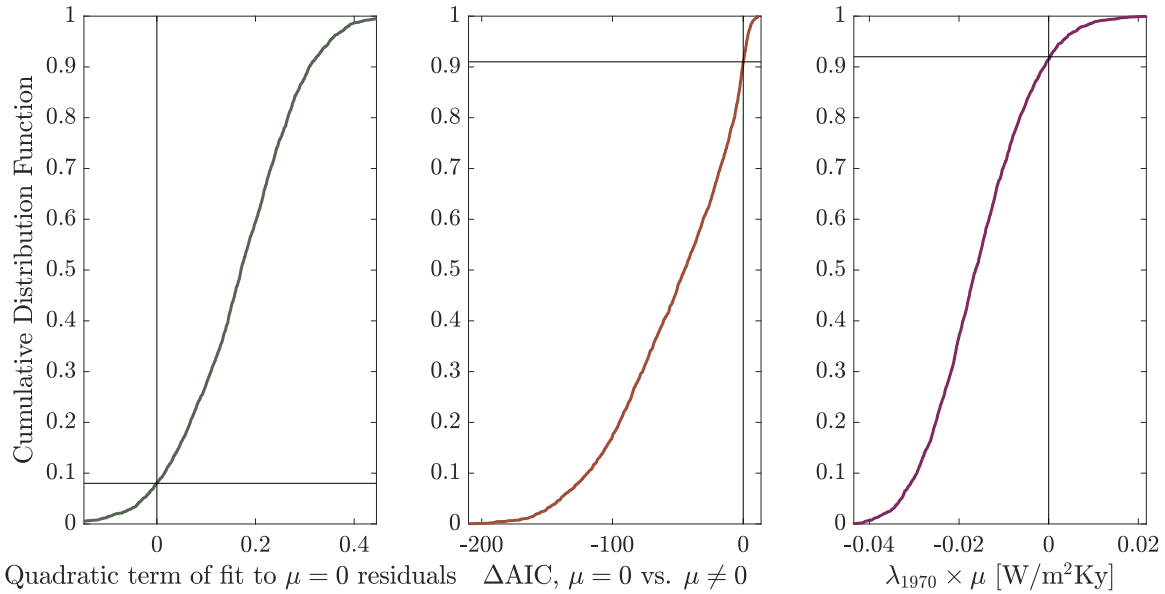
254 **Null hypothesis:** Time-evolution of  $\lambda$  is tested for initially by performing the primary analysis described above with  
255  $\mu = 0$ . To test for systematic behavior in the residuals of the  $\mu = 0$  model, a quadratic regression of Eq. 2 with  
256  $\mu = 0$  is performed for each ensemble member. For 92% of ensemble members the quadratic term is positive – i.e.  
257  $\mathcal{F}(\tau) - \mathcal{H}(\tau)$  increases superlinearly with  $\mathcal{T}(0, \tau)$  – indicating that  $\mu$  is significantly positive and a necessary parameter.  
258 We demonstrate this further by comparing the models with  $\mu \neq 0$  and  $\mu = 0$  in terms of their Akaike Information  
259 Criterion [27] (AIC), the difference of which between two models estimates the difference in model quality. Figure  
260 S1 shows that for 91% of ensemble members, the  $\Delta$ AIC values are negative, meaning the  $\mu \neq 0$  model is a better  
261 description of the data even after being penalised for having an additional parameter. Similarly we see no systematic  
262 behavior in the residuals of the main regression, indicating that unlike the  $\mu = 0$  case, there is no systematic behavior  
263 in the data that our  $\lambda = \lambda_{1970}(1 + \mu t)$  ansatz does not capture, though of course there are multiannual fluctuations  
264 that such a simple model cannot be expected to explain. Finally, Figure S1 also shows that 92% of estimates of the  
265 trend in  $\lambda$  are negative, indicating that  $\mu$  is significantly different from zero.

266 **Earth system models:** We perform our primary analysis on ensembles of historical simulations using six ESMS for  
267 which global  $F$ ,  $T$ , and top-of-atmosphere energy imbalance are available, whose time integral is approximately equal  
268 to  $\mathcal{H}$ , for which we therefore use the cumulative integral noted  $\mathcal{N}$ . The ESMS we use are the following: CanESM5  
269 ( $n = 25$  realisations), CNRM-CM6-1 ( $n = 10$ ), EC-Earth3 ( $n = 21$ ), GISS-E2-1-G ( $n = 10$ ), IPSL-CM6A-LR ( $n = 11$ ),  
270 and MIROC6 ( $n = 50$ ), obtained via the CMIP6 archive [24]. We append the  $F$ ,  $T$ , and  $\mathcal{N}$  estimates from these model  
271 realisations' Shared Socioeconomic Pathway 2-4.5 simulations for 2015–2019, because historical  $F$  is only available up  
272 until 2014, but excluding years 2015–2019 had a negligible impact on the results. We also obtained five realisations  
273 from HadGEM3-CG31-LL, one from GFDL-CM4, and three from NorESM2-LM, but these are not included in Figure  
274 4 because only one of these nine realisations (a HadGEM3-CG31-LL realisation where  $\lambda_{1970} \times \mu = +0.02 \text{ W/m}^2\text{Ky}$ )  
275 was within the range of the 2237 estimates from the observational historical ensemble, while the rest lie outside the  
276  $y$ -axis range of Figure 4.

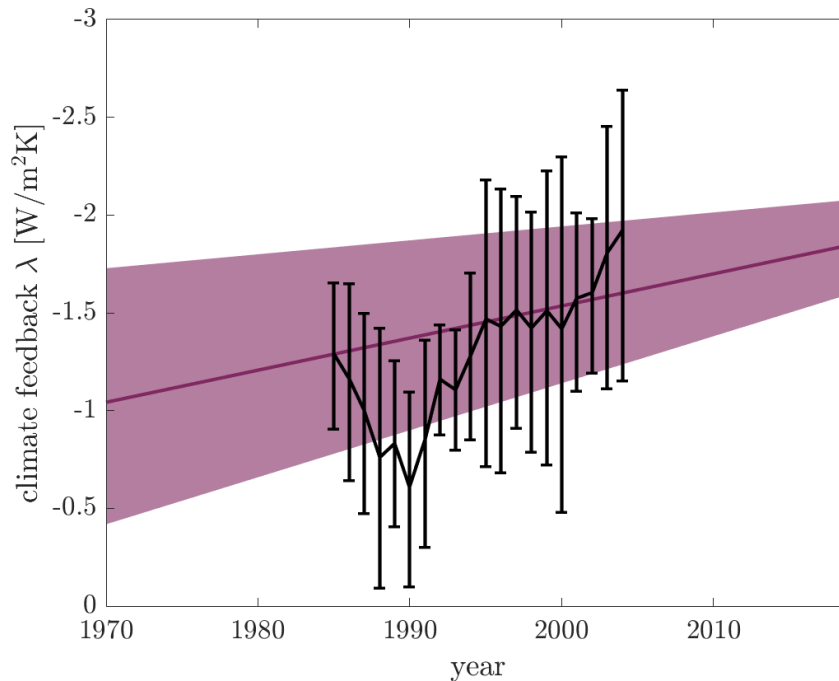
277 **Figure 3 calculations:** To estimate the difference in years taken to surpass  $1.5^\circ\text{C}$  or  $2^\circ\text{C}$  in a world that has the

278 1970 parameter values versus one that has the 2019 values (each as time-invariant constant values), a 1% scenario is  
 279 performed using each ensemble member's i)  $\lambda_{1970}$  value versus ii) its climate feedback in 2019, i.e.  $\lambda_{1970}(1+49\mu)$ . Under  
 280 the 1% scenario, atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations increase by 1% per year, which under the assumption of logarithmic  
 281 forcing [28] results in a linear increase in  $F$  from zero until it reaches  $F_{2\times\text{CO}_2} \sim N(4.0, 0.3)$  W/m<sup>2</sup> after 70 years [9].  
 282 A random value of  $F_{2\times\text{CO}_2}$  is sampled from  $N(4.0, 0.3)$  for each ensemble member. We use the time-mean ocean heat  
 283 uptake efficiency values,  $\kappa = 0.58 \pm 0.08$  W/m<sup>2</sup>K, estimated in a similar fashion to our primary analysis for 1970–2019  
 284 [25] in order to simulate ocean heat uptake as  $H(t) = \kappa T(t)$ ;  $\kappa$  values for each ensemble member are drawn from a  
 285  $N(0.58, 0.08)$  distribution. We use  $\eta$  values corresponding to the assumption that the surface layer represented by  $T$   
 286 has a heat capacity equal to the ocean's mixed layer, sampling from a  $N(9.67, 0.8)$  J/m<sup>2</sup>K distribution following the  
 287 calculation in [29]. Note that this  $\eta$  estimate is a conservative upper limit, and that reducing the  $\eta$  estimate to  $\sim 0$  had  
 288 a negligible impact on the results. Using these values for  $F(t)$ ,  $\eta$ ,  $\lambda$ , and  $\kappa$ , we simulate  $T$  using eq. 1 and find the  
 289 year at which  $T > 1.5^\circ\text{C}$  and  $T > 2^\circ\text{C}$  for the 1970 and 2019 parameter values, and plot the difference between these  
 290 in Figure 3. Note that this is a heuristic metric and is only intended to illustrate the potential impact of the change  
 291 in  $\lambda$  diagnosed herein. To estimate the difference in  $T$  resulting from the trend in  $\lambda$  over the period 1970–2019, eq. 1  
 292 is simulated using the historical ensembles'  $T(1970)$  values and  $F$  time-series, the same  $\eta$  and  $\kappa$  values as above, and  
 293 either a fixed  $\lambda = \lambda_{1970}$  or the time-evolving  $\lambda = \lambda_{1970}(1 + \mu t)$ . The right panel of figure 3 shows the difference between  
 294 these two  $\lambda$  cases'  $T$  evolutions. This difference therefore approximates the additional warming from 1970–2019 averted  
 295 due to the increase in  $\lambda$  over this period. Note that when the historical ensembles'  $H$  time-series are used instead of a  
 296 constant  $\kappa$  value, this difference is larger, with a median of  $0.6^\circ\text{C}$  (66% range 0.1–1.4).

## Supplementary figures



Supplementary Figure 1: Cumulative distribution functions across ensemble members of – Left: the value of the quadratic term in a quadratic polynomial fit to the residuals of the  $\mu = 0$  model. Center: the difference in the Akaike Information Criterion for the ansatz used here versus a ‘linear’ model with a constant climate feedback. Negative  $\Delta AIC$  values indicate that the ansatz used here is a better description of the historical time series. Right: the trend in  $\lambda$  from 1970–2019 diagnosed with the  $\mu \neq 0$  model. In each case the black lines indicate the fraction of ensemble members for which the quantity on the  $x$ -axis is negative.



Supplementary Figure 2: As Figure 2 but with climate feedback as estimated by regression of  $dR$  against  $dT$  over a sliding window of 30 years, as in [11], superimposed. Error bars in each case represent 66% confidence interval.