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## Predictability Horizons in the Global Carbon Cycle Inferred From a Perfect-Model Framework

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### Key Points:

- Global annual atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> variations are potentially predictable up to 3 years in advance
- The global oceanic CO<sub>2</sub> flux is predictable for 2 years with regional predictability up to a decade
- The global land CO<sub>2</sub> flux predictability of 2 years is dominated by the tropical forests

### Supporting Information:

- Supporting Information S1

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**Abstract** On interannual timescales the growth rate of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> is largely controlled by the response of the land and ocean carbon sinks to climate variability. Yet, it is unknown to what extent this variability limits the predictability of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> variations. Using perfect-model Earth System Model simulations, we show that variations in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> are potentially predictable for 3 years. We find a 2-year predictability horizon for global oceanic CO<sub>2</sub> flux with longer regional predictability of up to 7 years. The 2-year predictability horizon of terrestrial CO<sub>2</sub> flux originates in the tropics and midlatitudes. With the predictability of the isolated effects of land and ocean carbon sink on atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> of 5 and 12 years respectively, land dampens the overall predictability of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> variations. Our research shows the potential of Earth System Model-based predictions to forecast multiyear variations in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>.

**Plain Language Summary** The amount of anthropogenic carbon emissions absorbed by land and ocean from the atmosphere varies annually due to their sensitivity to climate. Therefore, the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> growth rate does not strictly follow the emissions signal. Whether decadal prediction systems can also predict variations of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> has not been shown yet but is crucial to inform policy makers about the efficiency of the implementation of the Paris Agreement. Using numerical Earth System simulations in an idealized prediction framework, we show that global atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> is predictable up to 3 years in advance. The global ocean and land CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes are predictable for 2 years. The isolated effects of the land and ocean carbon sink on atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> are predictable for 5 and 12 years, respectively. Therefore, the land carbon cycle limits atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> predictability. Our study demonstrates that simulation-based multiyear forecasts have the potential to predict natural atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> variations.

## 1. Introduction

The atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratio rises in response to increasing anthropogenic carbon emissions. The terrestrial and oceanic carbon sinks modulate the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratio by currently absorbing about 30% and 25% of the anthropogenic carbon emissions, respectively (Friedlingstein et al., 2019). However, the interannual atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> growth rate does not strictly follow the changes in anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions (Bacastow, 1976; Keeling et al., 1995; Peters et al., 2017). This discrepancy is due to internal variability of the oceanic and terrestrial carbon sinks driven by the large-scale modes of variability of the climate system (Doney et al., 2006; Heinze et al., 2015; Li & Ilyina, 2018; McKinley et al., 2017) and volcanic eruptions (Eddebbbar et al., 2019; Frölicher et al., 2013; Jones et al., 2001). Indeed, this internal climate variability of the natural carbon sinks might obscure the identification of the anthropogenic emissions signal in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratio (Peters et al., 2017). This sensitivity of interannual changes in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration to natural climate variability is a major uncertainty in our understanding of the near-term evolution of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and the remaining carbon budget. How this sensitivity limits the near-term predictability of the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> growth rate has not been addressed before.

The Paris Agreement (UNFCCC, 2015) aims to limit global warming to at most 2 °C by mostly mitigation of fossil fuel emissions. Article 14 demands for an assessment of collective progress periodically every five years “in the light ( . . . ) of the best available science.” The potential of prediction systems with prognostic CO<sub>2</sub> has to be explored in the context of their ability to predict near-term atm. CO<sub>2</sub> variations in response to the changes of the natural carbon sinks. Given that CO<sub>2</sub> predictions are feasible, changes in emissions can

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be earlier separated from internal variability. Therefore, the near-term efficacy of the planned mitigation efforts can be skillfully forecasted in atm. CO<sub>2</sub> in advance until the prediction horizon, rather than being assessed only in the following Global Stocktake. As a first step toward a viable atm. CO<sub>2</sub> prediction system, we here show its potential to be successful in an idealized setup.

Over the last decade, multiyear climate predictions have been established. Decadal prediction systems based on comprehensive Earth System Models (ESM) take advantage of the memory of the climate system. Observational products are assimilated into an ESM and used as initial conditions of the forecast (Meehl et al., 2009). While decadal prediction systems are not perfect, they proved themselves successful for many aspects of the climate system (Marotzke et al., 2016; Meehl et al., 2013; Yeager et al., 2018). Having established prediction skill for many climate variables, which the carbon cycles are sensitive to, prediction systems can be used to assess decadal predictability of the global carbon cycle.

In the emerging predictability studies of terrestrial and ocean carbon cycle components, only physical climate variables such as ocean temperature and salinity are nudged toward observations due to the sparse and short observational period of biogeochemical variables. Li et al. (2016) find predictability skill of 4 to 7 years in the winter North Atlantic air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> uptake when evaluating against an ocean reconstruction with uninitialized biogeochemical components. The global oceanic carbon uptake can be skillfully predicted for up to 2 years evaluated against observations (Li et al., 2019) and ocean reconstruction (Lovenduski, Yeager, et al., 2019). S  ferian et al. (2018) estimates the potential predictability horizon of the global carbon sink predictability of 4 to 6 years in idealized perfect-model simulations. Unlike the previously mentioned ESM-based predictions, Betts et al. (2016, 2018) use a statistical model to forecast the growth rate of the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratio at Mauna Loa. A regression of previous imprints of the El Ni  o–Southern Oscillation (ENSO) on atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratio and anthropogenic emissions predicts the next year atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. Although ENSO is one of the main drivers of CO<sub>2</sub> flux variability (Jones & Cox, 2005; Zeng et al., 2005), this method lacks the representation of other dynamic processes and a multiyear outlook. Zeng et al. (2008) demonstrate technical feasibility of ESM-based seasonal air-land CO<sub>2</sub> flux predictions. They find a higher prediction skill for Mauna Loa atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> than a statistical ENSO regression and thereby indicate the added value of ESM-based carbon cycle predictions. A very recent study finds 2-year predictability in terrestrial net ecosystem production predictability, which is closely linked to terrestrial CO<sub>2</sub> flux predictability (Lovenduski, Bonan, et al., 2019).

Previous studies on carbon cycle predictability lack a fully coupled global carbon cycle. Terrestrial carbon cycle based studies (Betts et al., 2018; Zeng et al., 2008) miss the oceanic carbon sink and multiyear lead times. (Oceanic) carbon cycle based predictability studies (Li et al., 2016, 2019; Lovenduski, Yeager, et al., 2019; Lovenduski, Bonan, et al., 2019; S  ferian et al., 2018) rest upon *concentration-driven* simulations, in which atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratio is prescribed. In such simulations, air-sea and air-land CO<sub>2</sub> flux do not alter atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratio. We go beyond previous studies by using fully coupled carbon cycle ESM simulations. In our simulations, the atmospheric mixing ratio of CO<sub>2</sub> is a prognostic property and can be physically consistently predicted. We examine the limits of predictability of air-sea and air-land surface CO<sub>2</sub> flux as well as the resulting atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratio. Furthermore, we determine the isolated contributions of the terrestrial and oceanic carbon sinks to the limits of predictability of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. We examine the relevance of different regions of the overall land and ocean predictability based on two metrics.

We use a perfect-model framework, in which we assume that the model can reproduce observed variability (Griffies & Bryan, 1997). As it is free of initialization from reanalysis products, the perfect-model framework cannot perform predictions, but only estimate time scales after which the state of initialization is lost in the ensemble due to the chaotic nature of the Earth system. The assimilation of reanalysis products in prediction systems inevitably induces drifts from the reanalysis climatology toward the native model climatology due to biases between reanalysis and ESMs (Kr  ger et al., 2017). As marine biogeochemical cycles are highly sensitive to changes in ocean circulation, such ocean reconstructions can disrupt biogeochemical tracer distributions (Park et al., 2018; Toggweiler et al., 1989). This perfect-model framework offers the only self-consistent setup to examine processes leading to predictability without methodological artifacts due to initialization from reanalysis. We therefore use it as a first-order approach study to examine the limits of predictability of a fully coupled global carbon cycle.

## 2. Methods

### 2.1. Model Description

Our perfect-model framework study is based on perturbed initial conditions ensemble simulations from a pre-industrial control simulation with prognostic atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratio, which is known as *esm-piControl* in the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 6 framework (Eyring et al., 2016). We use the close to equilibrium spin-up simulation of the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 6 version of the Max Planck Institute ESM (MPI-ESM) (Mauritsen et al., 2019) taken for the Coupled Climate-Carbon Cycle Model Intercomparison Project (C<sup>4</sup>MIP) (Jones et al., 2016) in its low-resolution configuration (horizontal resolution of about 1.8° in the atmosphere and on land, and about 1.5° in the ocean).

The ocean general circulation model Max Planck Institute Ocean Model (Jungclaus et al., 2013) provides the circulation field to the marine biogeochemical cycle model HAMOCC (Ilyina et al., 2013). HAMOCC encompasses carbonate chemistry and an NPZD-type ecosystem including additional nitrogen-fixating cyanobacteria (Paulsen et al., 2017), nutrient-light-temperature colimitation, calcite and opal export treated explicitly and iron as a macronutrient. The terrestrial carbon cycle model JSBACH incorporates wildfires, dynamic vegetation, soil carbon decomposition, and storage (Schneck et al., 2013). The atmospheric general circulation model ECHAM6 relies on a flux-form semi-Lagrangian scheme (Lin & Rood, 1996) to represent the transport of the three-dimensional atmospheric prognostic atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> tracer (Stevens et al., 2013).

### 2.2. Perfect-Model Framework

The simulations in the perfect-model framework are started from 12 randomly chosen initialization states. From each of those states of a stable 300-year control simulation, we branch off nine ensemble members and integrate them for 20 years. Ensemble members are generated by perturbing the stratospheric horizontal diffusion by 1.0000{member} in the first year after initialization. This initialization approach induces only tiny perturbations to the climate system as the ocean and land initial conditions remain identical. Therefore, this perfect-model initialization presents an upper limit estimate of predictability. As a result of such initialization approach, the ensemble members first follow a similar evolution and then diverge until reaching the time scale of the predictability horizon, when temporal variability is statically indistinguishable from variability across members (Figure S1a in the supporting information).

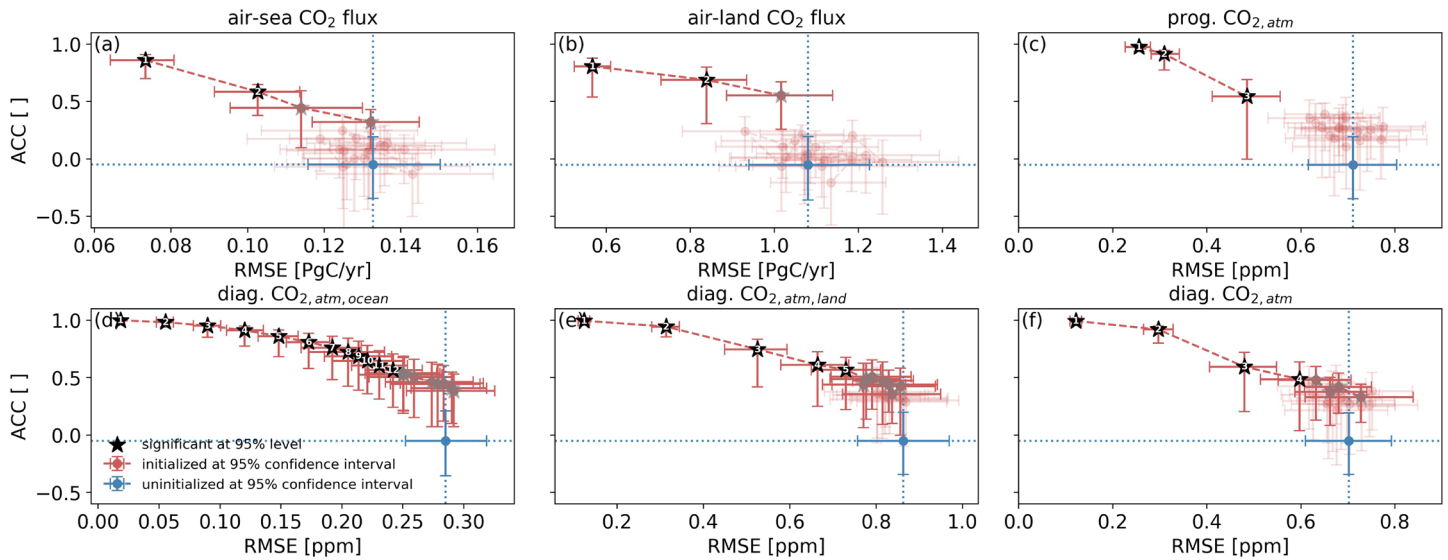
### 2.3. Predictability Skill Assessment

Because only slightly perturbed initial conditions distinguish ensemble members, all ensemble members can equally serve as a verification to compute predictability according to a certain metric. Therefore, we compute predictability skill as the anomaly correlation coefficient skill score (ACC) and root-mean-square-error (RMSE) between the ensemble member mean, with verification member excluded, as forecast and every single ensemble member as verification (Jolliffe & Stephenson, 2011; Wilks, 2006). ACC assesses the linear association of the forecast and the verification and therefore measures synchronous evolution. RMSE measures the second-order distance between forecast and verification. RMSE describes how the individual ensemble members spread over lead time and is therefore a more conservative attribute of predictability skill. The two metrics measure related but different attributes of predictability skill (Murphy, 1988). Find additional details about the metrics in the supporting information.

We assess the significance of initialized forecast predictability by bootstrapping with replacement (Efron & Tibshirani, 1993; Goddard et al., 2013). To compare against random forecasts, we create hypothetical uninitialized ensembles randomly drawn as 20-year chunks from the control simulation. The *p* value denotes the probability that random forecasts are more skillful than the initialized forecast resampled with replacement over all initializations based on 5,000 iterations (except noted otherwise). This nonparametric approach relies on no further assumptions and is especially free from any normalization choice, which can bias the predictability horizon (Hawkins et al., 2016). We define the limit of predictability, the so-called *predictability horizon* of a metric as the last significant lead year (with *p* value < 0.05).

### 2.4. Diagnosing Global Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> Mixing Ratio

We furthermore disentangle the isolated effects of the global terrestrial and oceanic carbon sinks on the global atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratio. For this we convert zero-mean free-of-trend (denoted by ') temporally accumulated global surface CO<sub>2</sub> flux into diagnosed atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratio by multiplying with



**Figure 1.** Comparison of the mean potential prediction skill of the initialized ensemble (red) versus random uninitialized ensembles (blue) in global annual surface quantities of the carbon cycle with the anomaly correlation coefficient (ACC) on the y axis and root-mean-square-error (RMSE) on the x axis for lead years represented as dots: (a) air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux, (b) air-land CO<sub>2</sub> flux, (c) prognostic surface atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, (d) diagnosed atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> based on oceanic carbon sink, (e) diagnosed atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> based on the global terrestrial carbon sink, and (f) diagnosed atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> based on the global oceanic and terrestrial carbon sink (see section 2.4). Error bars show 95% confidence intervals based on bootstrapping with replacement ( $N = 5,000$ ). The last lead year with a bootstrapped  $p$  value (which represents that uninitialized ensembles beat initialized ensembles) lower than 5% marks the predictability horizon. Black stars with white integer denote significant lead years in ACC and RMSE, gray stars if only one metric is significant, and lead years nonsignificant in both metrics are blurred.

$\frac{ppm}{2.12PgC}$  (Ballantyne et al., 2012; Friedlingstein et al., 2019):

$$XCO_{2,atm,diag}(t) = XCO_{2,atm}(0) + \sum_{t'}^t CO_2 flux'(t') \cdot \frac{ppm}{2.124PgC}$$

where  $XCO_{2,atm}(0)$  is a free choice parameter of initial diagnosed atmospheric surface CO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratio. This approach assumes the atmosphere as one instantaneously mixed box and implicitly incorporates direct CO<sub>2</sub> flux from land to ocean. Converting the sum of terrestrial and oceanic CO<sub>2</sub> flux into diagnosed atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> yields a very similar evolution as prognostic atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>.

### 2.5. Variance-Weighted Mean Period

We infer potentially predictable regions from a single control simulation following Branstator and Teng (2010). Accordingly, the variance-weighted mean period highlights regions with low-frequency variations with longer potentially predictable periods:

$$P_x = \sum_k V(f_k, x) / \sum_k f_k V(f_k, x),$$

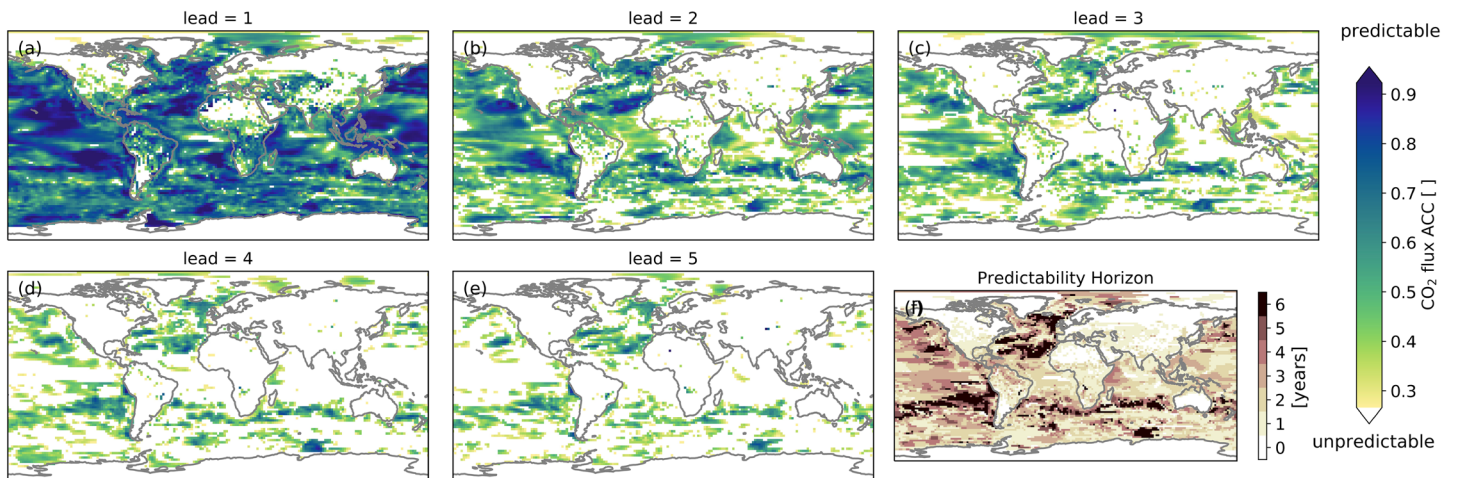
where  $V(f, x)$  is the variance per unit frequency for frequency  $f$  at location  $x$  and  $k$  are the individual frequencies from the power spectrum.

## 3. Predictability of Air-Sea CO<sub>2</sub> Flux

We first examine predictability of the global ocean carbon sink. Global annual air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux is potentially predictable for 2 and 4 years, when assessed with ACC and RMSE, respectively (Figure 1a). This means that initialized ensembles predict each other significantly better due to initialization than uninitialized ensembles. When assessing predictability with the same metric RMSE and predictability horizon definition as Séférian et al. (2018), global air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux predictability horizon in our model MPI-ESM-LR is comparable to CNRM-ESM1 (for details see supporting information section S3.3).

On a regional scale longer predictability horizons are found. For instance, the North and Subtropical Atlantic as well as the North and Subtropical Pacific have a predictability horizon of more than 6 years and thereby





**Figure 2.** Spatial distribution of ACC-based surface CO<sub>2</sub> flux predictability: (a–e) predictability skill over the first five lead years. White areas indicate unpredictable areas where the uninitialized predictability skill exceeds the initialized skill at 5% probability based on bootstrapping with replacement ( $N = 1,000$ ). (f) The predictability horizon marks the last significant lead year.

exceed the global oceanic predictability horizon (Figures 2 and S2) (Li et al., 2016, 2019; Lovenduski, Yeager, et al., 2019). These are regions of potentially predictable low-frequency air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux variations (Figure 3b). However, which areas support the predictability of air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux at the global scale? Assessing the magnitude of CO<sub>2</sub> flux spread between ensemble members measured by RMSE shows very little relevance of the subtropical gyres for the global oceanic carbon sink predictability (Figure S2). While ACC shows linear association independent of magnitude, RMSE puts weight on the distance between ensemble members. The subtropical gyres are predictable in ACC up to a decade (Figure 2), but this region is irrelevant for the global oceanic carbon sink predictability as indicated by the low RMSE from this region in contrast to other regions. The larger areas of the Southern Ocean are predictable only for 1 year. We attribute this little memory in CO<sub>2</sub> flux to the wind-driven circulation that sets local oceanic pCO<sub>2</sub> in the Southern Ocean, but atmospheric processes with less memory are harder to predict than oceanic processes (Pohlmann et al., 2004; Kirtman & Power, 2013; Zhang, Delworth, Yang, et al., 2017; Zhang, Delworth, & Jia, 2017). Owing to the large magnitude of Southern Ocean CO<sub>2</sub> flux and short predictability horizon, the Southern Ocean is the main limiting contributor to the predictability of the global air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux (Figures S2 and S5b). The imprint of longer regional predictability in the subtropical gyres is erased in the global predictability signal.

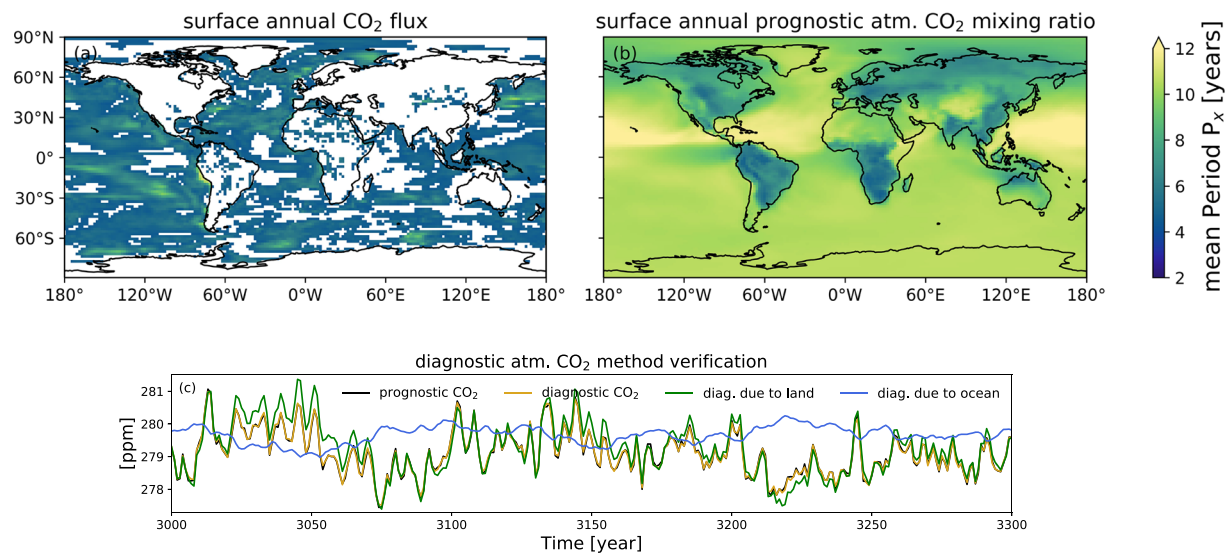
#### 4. Predictability of Air-Land CO<sub>2</sub> Flux

Analogous to air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux, global air-land CO<sub>2</sub> flux is predictable for 3 years in ACC and for 2 years in RMSE, respectively (Figure 1b). These results are likewise comparable to S  ferian et al. (2018).

On the regional scale, terrestrial biogeochemical processes have weaker memory toward atmospheric circulation in contrast to variations of marine biogeochemical processes responding to lower-frequency oceanic circulation (Figure 3a). Also, the imprints of initial conditions over land are faster lost than over the ocean as shown by faster and stronger increasing RMSE (Figures 1a and 1b and S2a–S2e). This results in lower regional predictability horizons on land than over the oceans (Figures 2f and S2f). Terrestrial CO<sub>2</sub> flux RMSE also increases to higher magnitudes due to the larger magnitudes of variability of terrestrial CO<sub>2</sub> flux (Figure S5b).

As for the oceanic CO<sub>2</sub> flux predictability, we assess the relevance of different region for the global terrestrial CO<sub>2</sub> flux predictability signal. Terrestrial high-latitudes and deserts CO<sub>2</sub> flux is not predictable at lead year one in both metrics indicating no interannual memory. The midlatitudes and tropical forests, which are highly variable (Figure S5b), are predictable up to 2 years, and thereby dominate the predictability of global terrestrial CO<sub>2</sub> flux (Figures 2 and S2). Zeng et al. (2008) find also highest ACC-based predictability skill in the tropics and midlatitudes over three seasons, while skill in other regions drops quickly within 3 months.

The high-RMSE midlatitudes and tropics are also strongly variable areas in which net primary production and heterotrophic respiration respond heavily to temperature and precipitation patterns associated with



**Figure 3.** (a, b) Spatial distribution of variance-weighted mean period (Branstator & Teng, 2010) from the 300-year control simulation. In white areas the null hypothesis, that the variable is independent and random, is not rejected at 95% significance level based on  $N = 500$  resamplings with replacement: (a) surface annual  $\text{CO}_2$  flux and (b) prognostic annual surface atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  mixing ratio. (c) Verification of diagnostic global annual atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  mixing ratio (gold) with prognostic atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  (black) based on temporally accumulated surface  $\text{CO}_2$  flux of ocean (blue) and land (green) in the control simulation (see section 2.4).

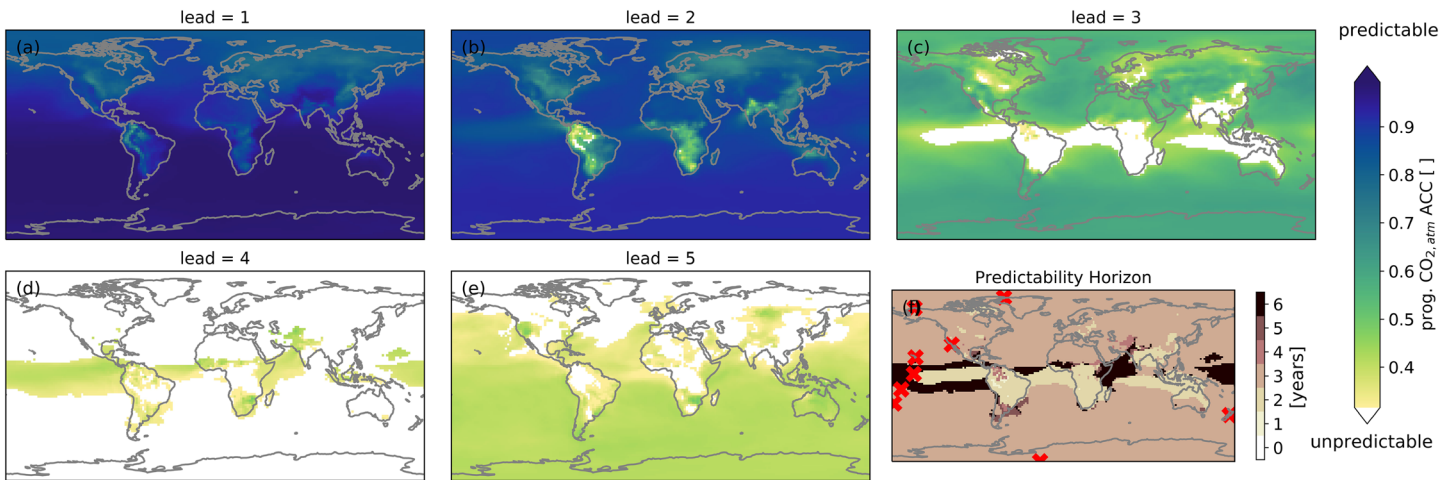
ENSO (Figures S5, S6, S10, and S11). Our results support ENSO as the limiting process of predictability of air-land  $\text{CO}_2$  flux (Betts et al., 2018; Keeling et al., 1995; Lovenduski, Bonan, et al., 2019; Jones et al., 2001; Zeng et al., 2005, 2008). Note that unlike global air-sea  $\text{CO}_2$  flux predictability, global air-land  $\text{CO}_2$  predictability is determined by regions which also show the longest predictability horizon.

### 5. Predictability of Atmospheric $\text{CO}_2$ Variations

Having examined the predictability of surface air-sea and air-land  $\text{CO}_2$  fluxes, we can now explain their implications for predictability of the mixing ratio of surface atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$ . Our results indicate that global atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  mixing ratio is predictable for 3 years assessed with both metrics (Figure 1c). Yet, if the combined global terrestrial and oceanic  $\text{CO}_2$  flux is predictable for 2 years only (Figures 1a and 1b), how can atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  mixing ratio be predictable longer than the global surface  $\text{CO}_2$  flux? As surface  $\text{CO}_2$  flux directly changes atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  content, atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  mixing ratio can be regarded as an integrator of surface  $\text{CO}_2$  flux (Keppel-Aleks et al., 2013). Reliable predictions in  $\text{CO}_2$  fluxes up to 2 years result in longer predictability of their imprints on atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$ .

To explain the limits of globally averaged atmospheric surface  $\text{CO}_2$  predictability, we diagnose the individual contributions of the global terrestrial and oceanic carbon sinks to the atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  mixing ratio. The predictability evolution of diagnosed atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  mixing ratio is very similar to that of prognostic atmospheric surface  $\text{CO}_2$  (Figures 1c and 1f). We find RMSE-based predictability horizons of 5 and 12 years for the global terrestrial and oceanic carbon sinks, respectively (Figures 1d and 1e). Consequently, the oceanic imprint on atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  would be predictable for more than a decade, but this atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  signal is overlaid by the dominant imprint of the terrestrial carbon sink on atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  mixing ratio. Note that the predictability horizons of the individual contributions of oceanic and terrestrial carbon sinks to atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  predictability are longer than when combined (Figure 1d–1f). We explain this by a lower combined global carbon sink variability compared to terrestrial  $\text{CO}_2$  flux (Figure 3c). This has been also illustrated in a previous study showing that the ocean acts to suppress the atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  variability. (Doney et al., 2006). Furthermore, the terrestrial and oceanic carbon sinks contributing to the atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  reservoir are both driven by climate variability but respond on different timescales with different magnitudes of variability.

The spatial distribution of atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  mixing ratio ACC predictability (Figure 4) is strongly influenced by the subjacent surface  $\text{CO}_2$  flux predictability (Figures 2 and S2). Atmospheric surface  $\text{CO}_2$  mixing ratio



**Figure 4.** Spatial distribution of ACC-based atmospheric surface CO<sub>2</sub> predictability: (a–e) predictability skill over the first five lead years. White areas indicate unpredictable areas where the uninitialized predictability skill exceeds the initialized skill at 5% probability based on bootstrapping with replacement ( $N = 1,000$ ). (f) The predictability horizon marks the last significant lead year. Red crosses show location of long-standing atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratio measurement stations (Keeling et al., 2005).

predictability persists over the first two lead years over the whole globe. Predictability decreases faster and stronger over areas close to the terrestrial biosphere. We explain this atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> predictability, which is more skillful than for the surface CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes, with the integrator feature of the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> leading to lower-frequency variations (Figures 3a and 3b). Strong high-frequency perturbations from underlying air-land CO<sub>2</sub> flux are subsequently transported zonally on the time scale of months (Figures S5b, S6a, and S6b) and dilute as they spread across the globe on annual time scales (Figure 2).

Interestingly, the atmospheric surface CO<sub>2</sub> ACC predictability, which was lost over the tropics in lead year three, reemerges in the fourth lead year and persists over a few lead years over the tropical oceans and Southern Hemisphere (Figure 4). The low probabilities at which initialized forecasts beat uninitialized forecasts at lead years three to seven in ACC indicate this reemergence also on global scale (Figure 1c). However, this reemergence, while significant, is only slightly better than uninitialized ACC and therefore unlikely to be exploited as a feature of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> predictions. The limited number of twelve initializations, in which positive, neutral and negative ENSO initial states are not normally distributed, might also have triggered this reemergence. We explain the weak reemergence of ACC predictability with the oscillatory behavior of ENSO. Strong ENSO events inject a large pulse of CO<sub>2</sub> into the atmosphere in the tropics (Figure S5), which is zonally transported within months and dilutes meridionally over years (Figure S6). When the opposite ENSO phase is reached after the typical 3–4 years, ensemble members follow similar evolutions, which is measured with the ACC metric (Figure S12). As RMSE-based predictability skill lacks reemergence (Figure S4), this illustrates the different attributes of predictability skill and also shows the metric dependence of predictability horizon.

We further examine atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> predictability in the context of the existing monitoring framework (Keeling, 2008). Due to the dilution and poleward transport of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> signals, the measurement station's predictability horizon is quite homogeneous over the ocean but can be higher in the tropics due to reemergence. The predictability horizon decreases in proximity to terrestrial CO<sub>2</sub> sources explainable by high terrestrial CO<sub>2</sub> flux variability (Figure 4f and Table S1). The highest ACC-based predictability horizon from Christmas Island station of 6 years is explained by the reemergence of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> predictability skill originating in the tropical forests, which reach this central Pacific island before the initial memory is lost (Figure 4f). The atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratio at the Mauna Loa station, which is an appropriate observational reference for global atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> variations, is predictable in ACC for 3 years (Figures 4f, S1b, and S1c).



## 6. Summary and Conclusions

This study estimates decadal potential predictability of the fully coupled global carbon cycle. Using a perfect-model approach, we estimate the upper bound of ESM-based predictability in the context of two metrics. We find the RMSE-based predictability horizon of the global air-sea and air-land CO<sub>2</sub> flux to be 2 years (Li et al., 2019; Lovenduski, Bonan, et al., 2019; Lovenduski, Yeager, et al., 2019). While the ACC-based 4- and 3-year predictability horizons of the air-sea and air-land CO<sub>2</sub> flux signal are longer, RMSE-based predictability illustrates the relevance of individual sinks and regions for the predictability of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. Previous estimates of predictability horizon were higher (Séférian et al., 2018), but end up comparable when computed by our proposed bootstrapping methodology, which is backed by the established prediction frameworks (Goddard et al., 2013; Marotzke et al., 2016; Yeager et al., 2018).

We furthermore show that the global oceanic CO<sub>2</sub> flux predictability is mainly controlled by the Southern Ocean. The global terrestrial CO<sub>2</sub> flux predictability is dominated by the tropical forests and midlatitudes affected by ENSO. We find a different regional contribution pattern for land and ocean to global predictability of CO<sub>2</sub> flux. On land, predictability is maintained due to regions with the longest predictability horizon. On the contrary in the ocean, regions with longest predictability horizon are less relevant for the global signal.

The predictability horizon for climate modulated variations in the global atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratio is 3 years. The isolated effect of global terrestrial carbon sink on atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> of 5 years dominates over the oceanic contribution of 12 years. Consequently, while the oceanic carbon cycle dampens the imprint of the terrestrial carbon cycle on atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, the predictability of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> is limited by the terrestrial carbon sink.

The atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> predictability horizon is globally quite homogeneous, except over parts of the tropical Pacific, because of a weak but significant re-emergence pattern which might also affect initialized predictions. As the dominant features of terrestrial CO<sub>2</sub> flux predictability in the tropics arise from ENSO, multiyear forecasts performed by initialized prediction systems for atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> variations are expected to be challenging.

In this study, we demonstrate that ESM-based initialized forecasts of the global carbon cycle may deliver multiyear outlooks on the evolution of the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratio. Hence, ESM-based predictions have the potential to constrain uncertainty of changes in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> due to internal climate variability in the near-term future and can thereby inform the pentadal stocktakes (UNFCCC, 2015).

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