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Abstract

The growth rate of atmospheric CO₂ on inter-annual time scales is largely controlled by the response of the land and ocean carbon sinks to climate variability. Therefore, the effect of CO₂ emission reductions to achieve the Paris Agreement on atmospheric CO₂ concentrations may be disguised by internal variability, and the attribution of a reduction in atmospheric CO₂ growth rate to CO₂ emission reductions induced by a policy change is unclear for the near term. We use 100 single-model simulations and interpret CO₂ emission reductions starting in 2020 as a policy change from scenario Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP) 4.5 to 2.6 in a comprehensive causal theory framework. Five-year CO₂ concentration trends grow stronger in 2021–2025 after CO₂ emission reductions than over 2016–2020 in 30% of all realizations in RCP2.6 compared to 52% in RCP4.5 without CO₂ emission reductions. This implies that CO₂ emission reductions are sufficient by 42%, necessary by 31% and both necessary and sufficient by 22% to cause reduced atmospheric CO₂ trends. In the near term, these probabilities are far from certain. Certainty implying sufficient or necessary causation is only reached after, respectively, ten and sixteen years. Assessments of the efficacy of CO₂ emission reductions in the near term are incomplete without quantitatively considering internal variability.

1. Introduction

Substantial year-to-year variations in the growth rate of global atmospheric CO₂ concentrations show variations that cannot be explained by land-use changes, fossil fuel emissions or the increase of carbon sink capacities due to increasing atmospheric CO₂ concentrations (Friedlingstein *et al* 2019, Peters *et al* 2017). The variations originate instead from the variability of the global carbon cycle in response to climate variability, which is inherent to the physics of the Earth System. For instance, the variations of the tropical land carbon sink is dominated by the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (Jones *et al* 2001, Zeng *et al* 2005), and the pronounced Southern Ocean carbon sink is susceptible to changes in atmospheric circulation patterns (Landschützer *et al* 2015, McKinley *et al* 2017). Therefore, this internal variability of the global carbon cycle in atmospheric CO₂ may disguise the detection of potential CO₂ emission reductions

in atmospheric CO₂ observations. But CO₂ emission reductions are required to achieve the targets of the Paris Agreement (UNFCCC 2015). Here we ask what the probability is that a slowdown in atmospheric CO₂ growth is attributable to a policy change implementing CO₂ emission reductions as the difference between Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP) 4.5 and RCP2.6, in the face of internal climate variability. This question becomes policy-relevant as policy-makers assess the efficacy of CO₂ emission reductions in the Global Stocktake every 5 years (Peters *et al* 2017, Schwartzman and Keeling 2020). Furthermore, we ask after how many years this policy change will cause atmospheric CO₂ growth rates to slow down for certain.

The challenge of emissions reductions verification in atmospheric CO₂ concentrations was first outlined by Peters *et al* (2017). We address this challenge by using a large ensemble of Earth System Model (ESM) simulations (Maher *et al* 2019).

We integrate 100 simulations based on the code of a single ESM with slightly perturbed initial conditions that serve as different realizations of the Earth System. Our analysis compares RCP4.5, which is close to the pledged and current policies until 2035 (Rogelj *et al* 2016, Hausfather and Peters 2020), with an emission reductions scenario compatible with the Paris targets under RCP2.6 (figure S4 (<https://stacks.iop.org/ERL/15/114058/mmedia>)). We attribute a reduction of trend in atmospheric CO₂ concentrations to CO₂ emission reductions in the comprehensive causation framework of Pearl (2000) and Hannart *et al* (2016). In the context of CO₂ emission reductions, necessary causation means that a factual trend reduction would not have occurred without a policy change. By contrast, sufficient causation implies that while a policy change may trigger a trend reduction, this trend reduction is not certain.

We go beyond approaches in previous studies (Tebaldi and Friedlingstein 2013, Peters *et al* 2017, Marotzke 2019, Samset *et al* 2020, Schwartzman and Keeling 2020) by comprehensively diagnosing atmospheric CO₂ variability in an ESM, which is compatible with the terrestrial and oceanic carbon sinks variations. The recently formalized emissions reductions verification of Schwartzman and Keeling (2020) uses an autoregressive model based on the observed carbon imbalance and a different statistical framework. While Tebaldi and Friedlingstein (2013) only focus on causation in a necessary causation sense, we here complete the probabilistic setting by asking also about sufficient causation. We compare two RCP scenarios in a single-model framework; formally only internal variability may undermine the detectability of CO₂ emission reductions. Assessing the contribution of our quantitative results against structural model uncertainty and imperfections is left for future study.

From a policy-maker's perspective looking into the near-term future, necessary and sufficient causation of CO₂ emission reductions slowing down atmospheric CO₂ trends deal with two different questions (Pearl 2000, Hannart *et al* 2016):

1. Will a policy change towards CO₂ emission reductions suffice to slow down atmospheric CO₂ growth? Other factors, such as a weakening uptake by the natural carbon sinks, may induce an increase in atmospheric CO₂ growth despite policy measures. From the viewpoint of a pathway without CO₂ emission reductions, the uncertainty in this question is based on sufficient causation.
2. Would a factual atmospheric CO₂ growth slowdown have occurred even without the policy change? This question asks whether the policy change was necessary to achieve the policy goal. From the viewpoint of a factual pathway of

CO₂ emission reductions and a factual slowdown, the uncertainty in this question is based on necessary causation.

Based on this causation framework, we obtain probabilities that a policy change causes atmospheric CO₂ trends to decline. However, this causation may be far from certain depending on the time-scale assessed. Should CO₂ emission reductions not soon lead to reduced atmospheric CO₂ growth trends, we might face a debate analogous to the warming hiatus debate (Lewandowsky *et al* 2015, Fyfe *et al* 2016) about why CO₂ rises faster despite falling emissions. Therefore, scientists need to communicate the role of internal variability to policy-makers and the public (Deser *et al* 2012).

Marotzke (2019) shows the uncertain effect of emission reductions on global mean surface temperature (GMST) 15-year trends. As atmospheric CO₂ drives the forced GMST signal, the emissions reduction signal should become detectable earlier in atmospheric CO₂. Analyzing the effect of individual climate forcers, Samset *et al* (2020) confirms that anthropogenic CO₂ has the highest potential for emission reduction detection.

In our study, we also ask after how many years internal variability can still obscure the identification of CO₂ emission reductions in atmospheric CO₂. In other words, how long does it take until certainty arises in causation? This is a distinctly different question than the classical time-of-emergence of anthropogenic signals, which asks on which timescales the climate change signal emerges from natural variability (McKinley *et al* 2016). Here, we ask on which time-scales a forcing change induced by this policy change causes a climate response considering sufficient and necessary causation (Marotzke 2019). These time-scales of CO₂ emission reduction detection might be longer than the periodicity of the Global Stocktake in which policy-makers will assess the efficiency of mitigation measures.

2. Methods

2.1. Causation attribution framework

To identify whether CO₂ emission reductions cause a reduction in atmospheric CO₂ growth, we apply the concept of event causation (Pearl 2000, Hannart *et al* 2016, Marotzke 2019). We use the scenario RCP2.6 as implementing CO₂ emission reductions and RCP4.5 for the near-term future without CO₂ emission reductions (for a detailed justification see section 2.2). Taking a decline in atmospheric CO₂ growth as an effective consequence of CO₂ emission reductions policy, we define a reduction in the linear trend in global atmospheric CO₂ concentration as the policy goal, comparing the period before emission reductions started with the period afterwards. While

this response is expected as the forced response averaged over all realizations, the trend of single ensemble members could potentially increase due to internal variability. For a five-year trend period and a scenario separation in 2020, compatible with the switch from RCP4.5 to RCP2.6, we hence compare the trends 2016–2020 and 2021–2025. The fraction of responses in a given scenario s yields the probability of trend reduction P_{RCPs} . The two scenarios serve as either the real world, labeled as factual, or the alternative world, labeled as counter-factual. The probabilities of trend reduction can be translated into a probability $P_{\{S,N\}}$ that the trend reduction is caused by the policy change (Pearl 2000, Hannart et al 2016):

- In a currently pledged policy pathway (factual RCP4.5 world) without CO₂ emission reductions in near-term, we ask in advance whether CO₂ emission reductions (a policy change towards the counterfactual RCP2.6) would be *sufficient* to cause a reduction in atmospheric CO₂ trends. The probability P_S means how likely a policy change would be sufficient to cause a reduced trend:

$$P_S = \frac{P_{RCP2.6} - P_{RCP4.5}}{1 - P_{RCP4.5}}. \quad (1)$$

In our case of CO₂ emission reductions, P_S is important when answering questions whether the policy goal of reduced atmospheric CO₂ growth will be achieved from the perspective of a planner.

- Considering CO₂ emission reductions in RCP2.6 as the factual where in retrospect atmospheric CO₂ trends have indeed declined and no CO₂ emission reductions in RCP4.5 as the counter-factual world, the probability P_N that the policy change was necessary to cause the trend reduction is:

$$P_N = 1 - \frac{P_{RCP4.5}}{P_{RCP2.6}}. \quad (2)$$

In our case of CO₂ emission reductions, P_N is important when answering questions whether the policy goal would not have been reached without the policy change.

- Combining the two aforementioned, P_{NS} describes the probability that the policy change is both *necessary and sufficient* to cause the respective trend reduction:

$$P_{NS} = P_{RCP2.6} - P_{RCP4.5}. \quad (3)$$

This strongest causation probability P_{NS} means how likely a reduced trend would occur in case of a policy change and would not occur without.

These probabilities hence describe probabilities that trend reductions over a given trend length are caused by the policy change, but how long do these trends need to be in order to be virtually certain that CO₂ emission reductions caused them? To answer this

question, we define *Time to Detection of CO₂ emission reductions in a causation sense* $D_{\{S,N\}}$ as the trend length around CO₂ emission reductions start in 2020 for which $P_{\{S,N\}} > 99\%$, using the probability framing of Mastrandrea (2010). This time-scale marks the maximum range of influence of internal variability over changes in the forced signal due to a policy change.

2.2. Choice of scenarios

We identify RCP2.6 as roughly compatible with the Paris targets (van Vuuren et al 2011). Compared to the pre-industrial control, MPI-ESM Grand Ensemble warms by 1.4 ± 0.2 °C in RCP2.6 and 2.2 ± 0.2 °C in RCP4.5 until the end of the century (Suarez-Gutierrez et al 2018, Maher et al 2019). Anthropogenic CO₂ emissions in RCP2.6 are increasing until 2020; after 2020, emissions are expected to decrease by 2% per year in RCP2.6 until 2030 (figure S3). By contrast, RCP4.5 has similar anthropogenic CO₂ emission levels as RCP2.6 until 2020 and continues a moderate emissions increase until 2040 with a 1% per year increase until 2030 (figures S3, S4). This scenario was designed to reach a forcing stabilization at the end of this century (Thomson et al 2011) at about 3 °C warming. Although RCP8.5 is closer to the most recently recorded combined land-use and fossil-fuel emissions, we choose RCP4.5 as a reference scenario, because the differences between RCP4.5 and reported emissions until 2018 originate in land-use change whereas fossil-fuel emissions match (figure S3). More importantly, the levels of projected fossil-fuel emissions based on current and pledged policy until 2035 parallel RCP4.5 (Rogelj et al 2016, Hausfather and Peters 2020).

In the above-described comparison under the causal theory framework, we compare trends before and after this policy change to assess causality of this policy change on changes in trends with respect to the period before the policy change. This policy change is assumed to happen in one scenario (RCP2.6), and not in the other one (RCP4.5). Therefore, we require simulations under mostly identical forcing before this policy change. We assume that this policy comes into effect as implemented by the RCP scenarios (Meinshausen et al 2011). We identify the combination of RCP2.6 vs RCP4.5 with a scenario split in 2020 as suitable scenario comparison. This scenario combination and timing also describes the present quest aiming for an at most 2 °C warmer world with net emissions reduction of 3% per year over 10 years.

Comparing RCP2.6 with RCP8.5 would be another possible combination. However, RCP8.5 entails higher fossil-fuel CO₂ emissions than recently observed and much higher levels than what current policies pledge for until 2035 (Rogelj et al 2016, Hausfather and Peters 2020). Furthermore, RCP2.6 and RCP8.5 separate at a time when emissions in RCP2.6 still grow. This would make the definition

of climate event as trend reduction awkward, if our goal is to investigate the effect of policy on possible trend reductions. Therefore we compare RCP2.6 and RCP4.5 and include the comparison against RCP8.5 in the supplementary material.

2.3. Large-ensemble simulations

The Max-Planck-Institute Earth System Model (MPI-ESM) Grand Ensemble comprises 100 members started from different initial conditions branched off a pre-industrial control simulation (Maher *et al* 2019). MPI-ESM contains comprehensive terrestrial and oceanic carbon cycle sub-models, which capture the dynamics of the global carbon cycle (Ilyina *et al* 2013, Schneck *et al* 2013, Li and Ilyina 2018). The Grand Ensemble is based on a model version close to the CMIP5 version (Giorgetta *et al* 2013). To our knowledge this is the largest ensemble of comprehensive climate models available up to date (Branstator and Selten 2009, Kay *et al* 2014, Rodgers *et al* 2015, Kirchmeier-Young *et al* 2016, Frankignoul *et al* 2017, Stolpe *et al* 2018). Its statistics have proven to be useful in investigating internal variability in the Southern Ocean carbon sink (Li and Ilyina 2018) and enable a 1% resolution for climate event probabilities (see section 2.1). From the year 2006 onward, the 100 historical simulations are extended under RCP2.6 and RCP4.5 (Meinshausen *et al* 2011, Taylor *et al* 2011). The Grand Ensemble simulations are forced with a scenario-dependent prescribed atmospheric CO₂ concentration, aerosols, non-CO₂ greenhouse gases and land-use change (Meinshausen *et al* 2011, Taylor *et al* 2011).

2.4. Diagnostic atmospheric CO₂ concentration

CO₂ concentration-driven simulations do not represent a variable atmospheric CO₂ concentration tracer. To quantify the expected variations in global atmospheric CO₂ concentration that are compatible with variations of the global land and ocean carbon sinks, we diagnose a virtual tracer of global atmospheric CO₂ based on the changes due to internal variability of the land and ocean carbon sinks in atmospheric CO₂ [figure S2]. The global residual CO₂ flux $G_{i,s}$ is the difference of CO₂ flux $F_{i,s}$ of the each ensemble member i to the ensemble mean of CO₂ flux F_s :

$$G_{i,s} = \sum_{\text{global}} (F_{i,s} - \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M F_{m,s}) \quad (4)$$

where $M = 100$ is the number of ensemble members and i the number of a single ensemble member and s the scenario. The ensemble mean F_s is subject to all forcings (anthropogenic fossil-fuel CO₂ emissions, non-CO₂ emissions, land-use change, aerosols) on CO₂ flux, but *no* internal variability. The remaining residual shows the variations of CO₂ flux around neutral flux *only* due to internal variability. The forced atmospheric CO₂ signal f_s is scenario

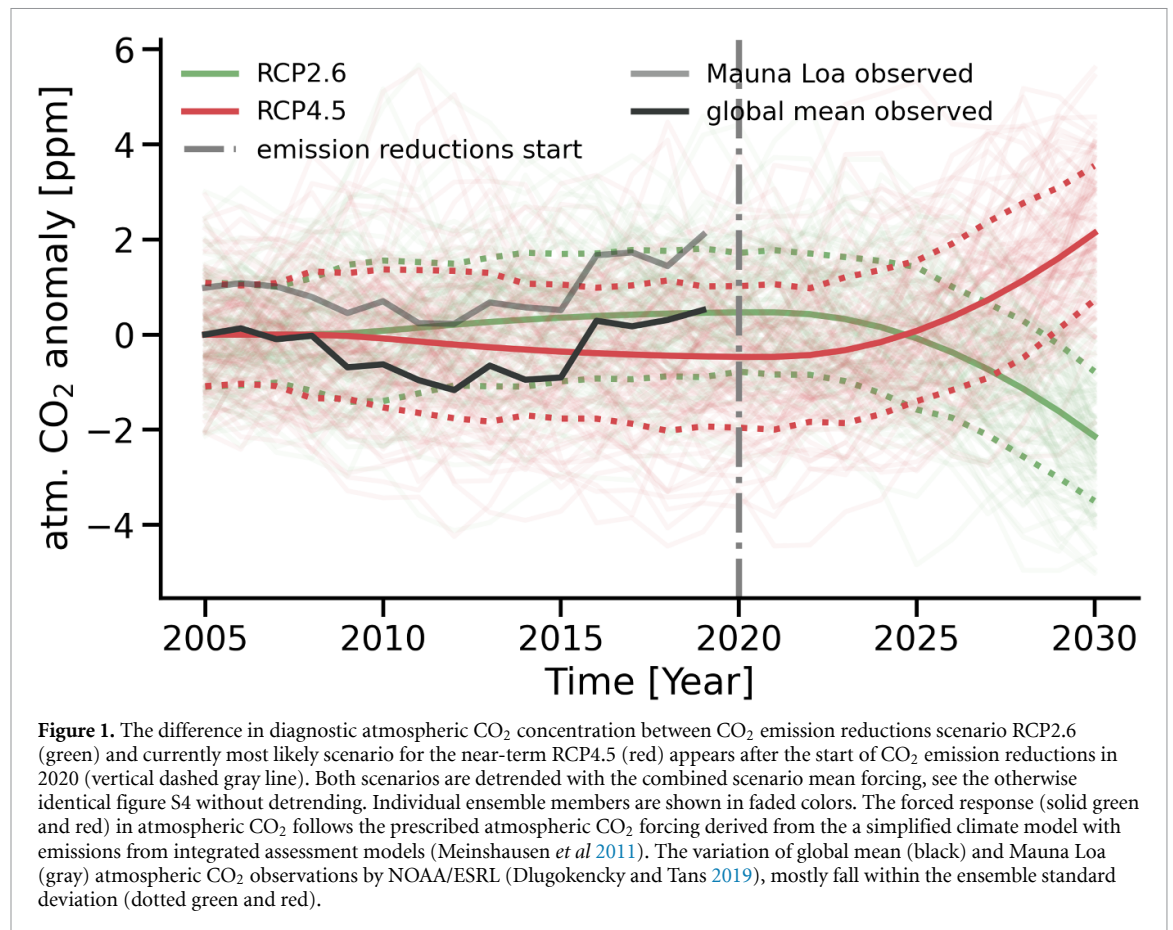
s -dependent and generated by a simplified climate model fed with emissions from integrated assessment models (Meinshausen *et al* 2011) incorporating the strengthening of the carbon sinks with higher CO₂ concentrations and land-use CO₂ emissions. This internal variability component of time-accumulated global CO₂ flux is then superimposed on the smooth atmospheric CO₂ forcing f_s and defines internally varying diagnostic global atmospheric CO₂ concentration $X\text{CO}_{2,i,s}$:

$$X\text{CO}_{2,i,s}(t) = \sum_{t'}^t G_{i,s}(t') \cdot \frac{\text{ppm}}{2.124\text{PgC}} + f_s. \quad (5)$$

We assume that the internal variability of the global carbon cycle to be driven by climate variability. This ignores the short-term effects of atmospheric CO₂ variability on CO₂ flux as in all concentration-driven simulations. Explicitly, for diagnostic atmospheric CO₂, we use as forcing f_s the concentration scenarios generated by the simplified climate model and not directly the CO₂ emissions generated by the integrated assessment models. This assumes that the emission scenarios from the integrated assessment model roughly match the resulting concentration scenarios from the simplified climate model (figure S9). The hereby diagnosed variations of global atmospheric CO₂ capture the observed global atmospheric CO₂ variations (figures 1, S7; Spring and Ilyina (2020)). For a detailed method description and verification in emission-driven simulations, see Supplementary Information section S1.

2.5. Method limitations

The generalisability of our results strongly depend on the strength and timing of the CO₂ emission reductions underlying the two compared scenarios, where causation probabilities $P_{\{N,NS\}}$ are even more sensitive than the probabilities of reducing atmospheric CO₂ trend $P_{\text{RCP}x}$ in scenario x . Here, we present one special case of CO₂ emission reductions as the difference between RCP4.5 and RCP2.6 representing a net 3% annual emission reductions until 2030. There is an active debate whether RCP4.5 (argued for by Hausfather and Peters 2020) or RCP8.5 (argued for by Schwalm *et al* 2020) tracks the current anthropogenic CO₂ emissions pathway best. Also the attribution probabilities are contingent upon whether the climate model simulates realistic magnitudes of internal variability (Marotzke 2019). Furthermore, our attribution method focuses only on one observable variable under internal variability, although atmospheric CO₂ is the most important indicator for CO₂ emission reductions. Lastly, we use the atmospheric CO₂ concentration prescribed to MPI-ESM generated by the simplified climate model based on CO₂ emission scenarios from the integrated assessment model and not the CO₂ emissions from the integrated assessment models themselves to calculate diagnostic



atmospheric CO₂ Meinshausen *et al* (2011). While this is consistent with the forcing applied to the the climate system in MPI-ESM, this leads to small differences between in the compatible emissions of concentration-driven RCPs and actual CO₂ emissions as discussed by Jones *et al* (2013) and demonstrated for MPI-ESM (figure S9).

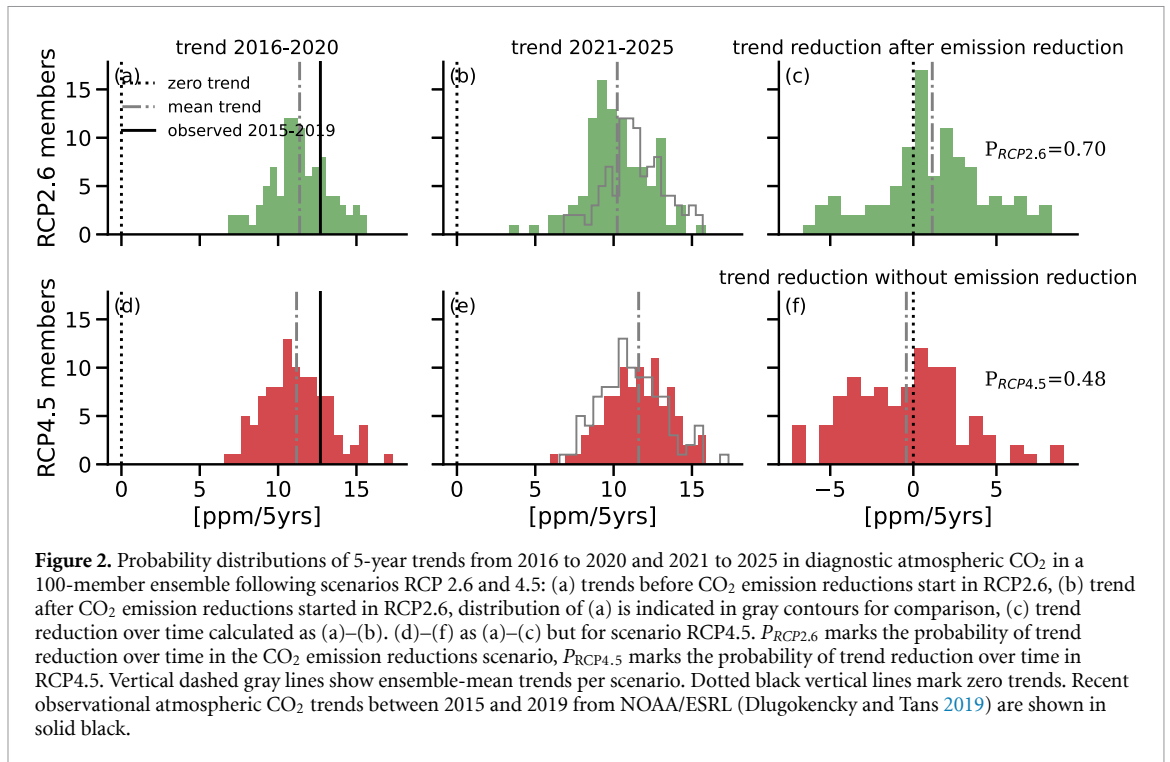
3. Probability of CO₂ emission reductions causing changes in atmospheric CO₂ growth trend

We first assess the frequency distributions of five-year trends in atmospheric CO₂. These distributions over the period 2016–2020 in RCP2.6 and RCP4.5 are nearly indistinguishable (figures 1, 2(a) and (d)). The most recent 2015–2019 observations-based estimate for global atmospheric CO₂ (Dlugokencky and Tans 2019) trend is in the upper tercile and thereby captured by our model (figures 2(a) and (d), S7). Comparing the distributions before and after CO₂ emission reductions onset in 2020 in RCP2.6, we find overlapping distributions with a tendency towards lower trends after CO₂ emission reductions (figures 2(a) and (b)). The ensemble mean responds to CO₂ emission reductions with a decrease in trend of 1 ppm over 5 years. The trend reduces in 70 ensemble members, resulting in $P_{RCP2.6} = 70\%$ (figure 2(c)). This implies that with a 30%

probability, atmospheric CO₂ growth will strengthen despite emissions reductions. In RCP4.5, the distributions of atmospheric CO₂ trends before and after 2020 look similar because the emissions rise steadily. Hence, only roughly half of the ensemble members show a reduced trend, with $P_{RCP4.5} = 48\%$ (figure 2(d)–(f)).

The atmospheric CO₂ may increase more strongly despite the onset of CO₂ emission reductions, when the global carbon cycle triggered by internal climate variability releases more CO₂ than CO₂ emission reductions save. For instance, this is possible when the tropical forests react to higher temperature and less precipitation caused by a strong El Niño event (Jones *et al* 2001, Zeng *et al* 2005). The released CO₂ from the tropical biosphere persists in the atmosphere and can overwhelm the reduction of anthropogenic emissions (figure 1). These stronger atmospheric CO₂ growth trends despite CO₂ emission reductions might occur for trend comparisons around the CO₂ emission reductions start of up to ten years (figure 3).

These probabilities of trend reduction of the two scenarios can be converted into probabilities of trend reduction being *caused* by CO₂ emission reductions (see section 2.1). If asked in advance in 2015, the answer would be that a policy change from RCP4.5 to RCP2.6 representing CO₂ emission reductions starting in 2020 are *sufficient* to cause a five-year trend reduction in atmospheric CO₂ growth by



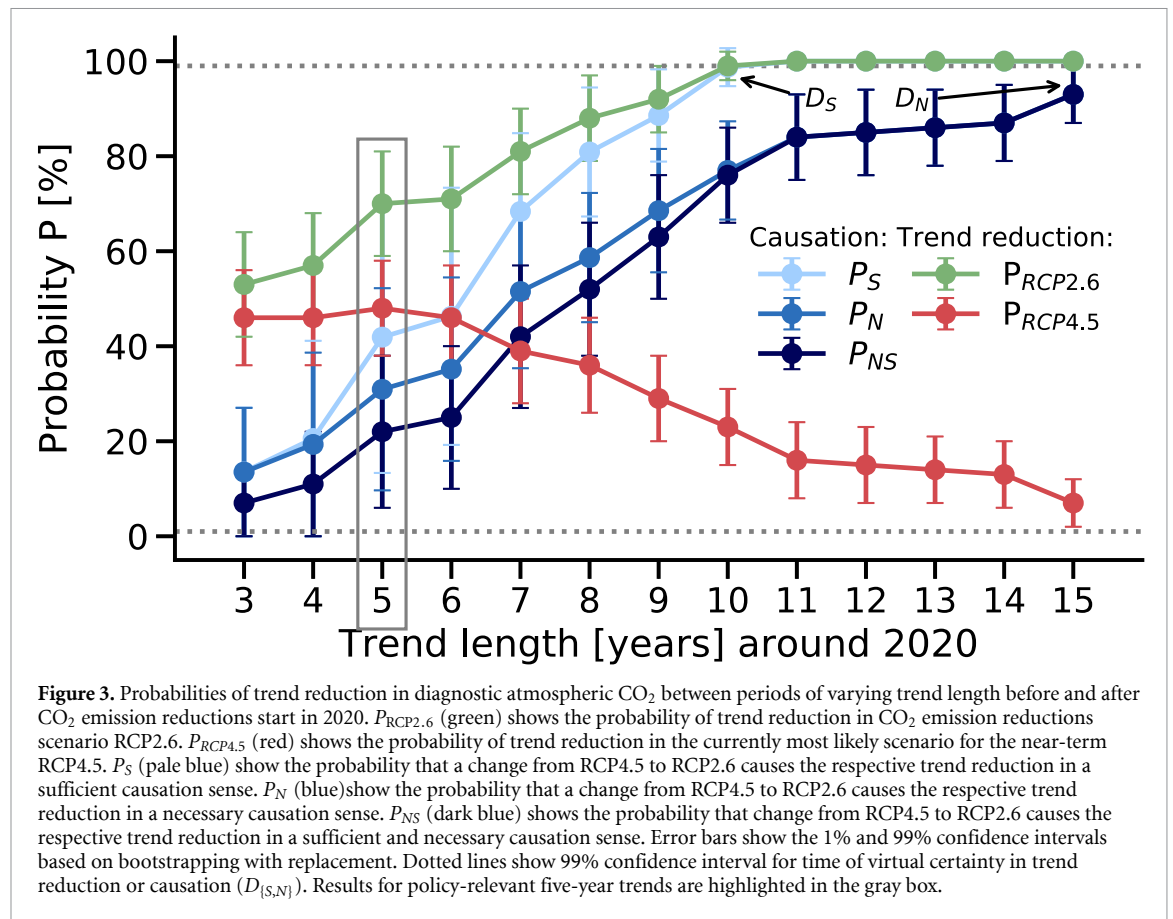
$P_S = 42\%$ (figure 3). Here, this policy change works toward a trend reduction, but the trend reduction might also be prevented by internal variability. Asking from a 2025 perspective looking into the recent past, CO₂ emission reductions in 2020 were *necessary* by $P_N = 31\%$ to cause trend reductions (figure 3). This policy change causes the five-year trend reduction in a *necessary and sufficient* sense by $P_{NS} = 22\%$ (figure 3, dark blue in box). These results show that CO₂ emission reductions are far from certain to cause trend reductions in global atmospheric CO₂ growth when considering five-year trends.

To estimate the time-scales when CO₂ emission reductions are virtually certain to cause reduced atmospheric CO₂ growth trends, we consider trends calculated over different time window lengths around the CO₂ emission reductions start. As expected, the shorter the trend-lengths considered, the more dominant internal variability is. Therefore, trend reductions are less likely occurring in the CO₂ emission reductions scenario. The 3-year-trend probabilities of trend reduction even overlap with the 50% random forecast (figure 3). Conversely, when longer trends are considered, the influence of the signal of emissions change becomes stronger. CO₂ emission reductions reduce atmospheric CO₂ trends in RCP2.6 virtually for certain only when considering ten-year-trends (figure 3). In contrast, trend reductions are still possible due to internal variability despite the absence of CO₂ emission reductions for much longer in RCP4.5 (figure 3). Note that under RCP4.5 the annual anthropogenic CO₂ emissions increase very little until the 2040 s. Therefore, a few members can still have reduced trends over

time. Consequently, $P_{RCP4.5}$ does not drop to 1% until 2042.

The low causation probabilities over short time-scales show the inability to clearly attribute reduced atmospheric CO₂ trends to a policy change from RCP4.5 to RCP2.6 due to the large internal variability. The longer the time-scales considered, the stronger the two scenario pathways differ, and the attribution probabilities rise. If $P_{RCP2.6} > P_{RCP4.5}$ as assumed by the response to CO₂ emission reductions, P_S increases more quickly than P_N when $P_{RCP2.6}$ approaches 1 faster than $P_{RCP4.5}$ 0. Therefore, in the context of the scenarios RCP2.6 and RCP4.5, $P_S > P_N$ (Marotzke 2019). This means that in our context, sufficient causation is a stronger causation facet than necessary causation. Sufficient causation P_S describes whether the objective of reduced atmospheric CO₂ trends is met, which might be prevented by internal variability. As soon as growth trends decline in all realizations ($P_{RCP2.6} = 1$), also P_S saturates. In contrast, necessary causation P_N describes whether the response of reducing atmospheric CO₂ would only have happened in the presence of CO₂ emission reductions. Therefore, as long as trend reductions are possible even without CO₂ emission reductions, necessary causation will not be certain, that is, if $P_{RCP4.5} > 0$, then $P_N < 1$.

The time to detection of CO₂ emission reductions $D_{\{S,N\}}$ describes after how many years this policy change is virtually certain to cause atmospheric CO₂ growth trends to decline. CO₂ emission reductions sufficiently cause trend reductions after $D_S = 10$ years and necessary cause of reduction after $D_N = 27$ years. We note that once sufficient



causation is certain, $P_S = 1$ in 2030 see (1), necessary causation and causation both necessary and sufficient coincide, $P_N = P_{NS}$; compare (2) and (3) with $P_{RCP2.6} = 1$. Virtual certainty in $P_{\{N,NS\}}$ is hindered by $P_{RCP4.5}$ above 1%. Due to the slow increase in emissions in the 2030 s, internal variability allows a few members to have increasing trends. Taking a less strict threshold of 95% certainty like in Tebaldi and Friedlingstein (2013), we obtain $D_N = D_{NS} = 16$ years. This time-scale of CO₂ emission reductions detection in a necessary causation sense D_N is a bit longer than the similarly defined estimate based on IPSL-CM5A-LR (Tebaldi and Friedlingstein 2013, table 1). Our analysis also shows that whether this policy change from RCP4.5 to RCP2.6 can be identified as the cause of reduced atmospheric CO₂ trends after 10 or 16 years depends on the causation attribute. The differently defined emission reduction detection protocol of Schwartzman and Keeling (2020) finds a similar detection delay of 9 ± 4 years for comparable 2% net annual emissions reduction.

4. Summary and conclusions

In the context of potential future CO₂ emission reductions, we ask whether atmospheric CO₂ growth trend reductions in the near term can be attributed

to a policy change. We focus on one specific pathway of CO₂ emission reductions interpreted as a policy change from scenario RCP4.5 without near-term CO₂ emission reductions to emissions reduction scenario RCP2.6 designed to achieve for the Paris targets representing 3% net annual CO₂ emission reductions until 2030. We apply a causation framework comprising two perspectives of policy elaboration (Hannart et al 2016, Marotzke 2019). We diagnose atmospheric CO₂ variations compatible with the natural carbon sinks variations and compare growth trends of atmospheric CO₂ before and after the onset of CO₂ emission reductions in 2020 in RCP2.6. While 5-year trends reduce in 70% of all realizations in the CO₂ emission reductions scenario RCP2.6 (consequently implying increasing trends despite of CO₂ emission reductions by 30%), there is 48% probability of trend reductions in RCP4.5. This translates into CO₂ emission reductions from RCP4.5 to RCP2.6 being sufficient to cause a five-year trend reduction beforehand by 42% and in hindsight necessary by 31%. The probability that this policy change is both necessary and will suffice to bring the desired outcome considering five-year trends is only 22%. These probabilities are far from certain for up to a decade. It takes ten or 16 years of CO₂ emission reductions from RCP4.5 to RCP2.6 to virtually certainty cause a trend reduction in a sufficient or necessary causation sense,

respectively. Communicating these probabilities in a clear manner is challenging but needed to inform policy-makers about the impact of internal variability on CO₂ emission reduction causation in the Earth system (Deser *et al* 2012, Hannart *et al* 2016, Howe *et al* 2019).

The five-year Global Stocktake following the Paris Agreement (UNFCCC 2015) makes the five-year internal variability highlighted in this study especially relevant for policy-makers. This study demonstrates the inherent uncertainty in near-term atmospheric CO₂ projections. As a partial solution to this challenge, initialized ESM-based prediction systems can reduce this uncertainty by predicting natural variations of the global carbon cycle. Global oceanic CO₂ flux is predictable for two to three years (Li *et al* 2019, Lovenduski *et al* 2019) and global atmospheric CO₂ variations have the potential to be predicted for up to three years in advance (Spring and Ilyina 2020). These multi-year ESM-based predictions of the global carbon cycle thereby bring added value about the expected natural variations of atmospheric CO₂ to policy-makers in the Global Stocktake process (UNFCCC 2015).

Our analysis shows that it is crucial to have realistic expectations of the efficacy of climate policy in the near term (Marotzke 2019, Samset *et al* 2020). Also Schwartzman and Keeling (2020) find a detection delay of up to a decade in a different approach. Even if anthropogenic emissions begin to decline after 2020, there still remains a substantial probability that atmospheric CO₂ trends will not have declined five years afterwards. In this case, the effects of CO₂ emission reductions on other iconic climate variables, such as global mean surface temperature, very likely get delayed even longer (Marotzke 2019). The likelihood of this happening is substantial. For instance, there is a three-out-of-ten chance that atmospheric CO₂ rises even stronger in the five years after CO₂ emission reductions started compared to before. Assuming the evolution of the RCPs (Meinshausen *et al* 2011) and the magnitude of internal variability in the global CO₂ fluxes in MPI-ESM-LR, such increasing atmospheric CO₂ growth trends despite CO₂ emission reductions from RCP4.5 to RCP2.6 are possible for up to a decade. Although this analysis relies on only a single model, internal variability may disguise CO₂ emission reductions efforts in the Earth System for a couple of years. Should this be the case, climate science should explain the observed atmospheric CO₂ evolution honoring internal variability. Policy makers should rather be informed by initialized predictions about the internal variability in the near-term evolution of atmospheric CO₂ (Betts *et al* 2018, Spring and Ilyina 2020). Evaluation of CO₂ emission reduction efficacy from an atmospheric CO₂ perspective needs to take internal variability, and therefore longer than 5-year trends, into account.

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