

1 **Towards real-time verification of carbon dioxide emissions**

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20 *The Paris Agreement has raised the incentive to verify reported anthropogenic carbon dioxide emissions*
21 *with independent Earth system observations. Reliable verification requires a step change in our*
22 *understanding of carbon cycle variability.*

23 Emissions of carbon dioxide (CO₂) from fossil fuels and industry were flat from 2014 to 2016, yet there
24 was a record increase in CO₂ concentrations in the atmosphere¹. This apparent inconsistency is
25 explained by the response of the natural carbon cycle to the 2015/2016 El Niño², but it raises important
26 questions about our ability to detect a sustained change in emissions from the atmospheric record.
27 High-accuracy calibrated atmospheric measurements, diverse satellite data, and integrative modeling
28 approaches could, and ultimately must, provide independent evidence of the effectiveness of collective
29 action to address climate change. This verification will only be possible if we can fully filter out the
30 background variability in atmospheric CO₂ concentrations driven by natural processes, a challenge that
31 still escapes us.

32 **Recent changes in the carbon cycle**

33 The atmospheric CO₂ increase of nearly 3 parts per million in both 2015 and 2016 were record highs,
34 raising the concentration to a level of 402.8±0.1ppm in 2016¹. During the same period, CO₂ emissions
35 from fossil fuel and industry remained approximately constant³. The much smaller but more variable
36 CO₂ emissions from land-use change were higher than average in 2015, due to increased fires in some

37 deforestation frontiers^{4,5}. Total CO₂ emission³ (fossil fuels, industry, land-use change) grew 1.1% in 2015
38 to a record high of 41.5±4.4 billion tonnes CO₂, and declined 2.1% in 2016 (Figure 1). Despite the
39 increase in total CO₂ emissions in 2015, the record high increase in the atmospheric CO₂ concentration in
40 2015 and 2016 occurred primarily due to a reduction in the uptake of carbon by terrestrial ecosystems
41 in response to hotter and drier conditions associated with the 2015/2016 El Niño event², as seen in past
42 El Niño events⁶.

43 We project fossil fuel and industry emissions to increase by about 1.8% [0.9% to 2.9%] in 2017, based on
44 increased emissions in China of 3.5% [0.7% to 5.4%], decreased emissions in the US of -0.3% [-2.8% to
45 +2.2%], and increased emissions in India of 1.4% [-0.9% to +3.7%] and in the rest of the world of 1.6% [-
46 0.9% to +3.7%]³. The increased fossil fuel and industry emissions technically bring an end to the three
47 years of approximately constant emissions that persisted from 2014 to 2016. Fire observations using
48 satellite data suggest land-use change emissions in 2017 should be similar to their 2016 level⁵. When
49 combining CO₂ emissions from fossil fuels, industry, and land-use change, we project 2017 global
50 emissions to be 41.5±4.4 billion tonnes CO₂, similar to 2015 levels. Even though the projected 2017
51 emissions match those of the record year in 2015, they are not expected to increase atmospheric CO₂
52 concentration as much as in 2015 because of reinvigorated carbon uptake in natural reservoirs after the
53 2015/2016 El Niño event (Figure 1).

54 **Variability limits verification**

55 CO₂ entering the atmosphere from combustion of fossil fuels, industrial processes, and land-use change
56 is either absorbed by the carbon ‘sinks’, namely ocean (about 25%) and land (about 30%), or retained in
57 the atmosphere (about 45%). While measurements of atmospheric concentrations have low
58 uncertainty, the attribution of concentration changes from year-to-year to specific sources and sinks is
59 plagued by large uncertainties³. These uncertainties, combined with the inherent interannual to decadal
60 variability in the land and ocean sinks, limit our ability to independently verify reported changes in fossil
61 fuel and industrial emissions.

62 One indicator of our ability to verify global CO₂ emissions is the number of years required to detect a
63 change in the trend of atmospheric concentration after a sustained change in global emissions takes
64 place (Figure 2). To quantify this detection delay, we use a well-established simple carbon-cycle model⁷
65 to project future atmospheric concentrations for different emission trajectories without natural
66 interannual variability (Figure 2). We estimate atmospheric concentrations for three different emission
67 trajectories: sustained growth of 1%/yr, approximately consistent with the pledges to the Paris
68 Agreement⁸, constant emissions as observed from 2014 to 2016, and an arbitrary sustained reduction of
69 1%/yr.

70 Our current capability to detect a change in emissions trajectory is captured by in the difference
71 between observed and reconstructed historical atmospheric concentration changes (Figure 2). The
72 reconstructed atmospheric growth is the difference between the reported emissions from fossil fuel,
73 industry, and land-use change, and the estimated land and carbon sinks from models³. Over the
74 observational period, the difference between observed and reconstructed concentrations changes,
75 which we call the carbon budget imbalance³, has zero mean but is large at ±3 billion tonnes CO₂ per year
76 (1 standard deviation). With sustained changes in emission trajectories from 1%/yr to 0%/yr, it may take
77 10 years to distinguish the different emission trajectories using atmospheric observations and carbon

78 cycle models with a probability of 68% (Figure 2). This detection delay is too long to inform the five
79 yearly stocktake of the Paris Agreement.

80 **Steps to reduce key uncertainties**

81 A step-change in our ability to understand and quantify the inter-annual to decadal variability in
82 emissions and sinks of CO₂ is needed before reported emissions can be challenged by Earth system
83 observations. On top of continuous atmospheric measurements essential for verification, we propose
84 several ways to better constrain each component of the global carbon budget.

85 *Emissions from fossil fuels and industry:* Global fossil fuel and industry emissions are summed over
86 countries with declining emissions (e.g., US and Europe) and those with rising emissions (e.g., China and
87 India), also between declines in coal and growth in renewables, partially offset by growth in oil and
88 natural gas⁹. Economic growth and new policies will play an important role in determining short-term
89 emission pathways¹⁰. Emission uncertainty persists at the country level¹¹, limiting our ability to
90 accurately understand emission trends and drivers¹⁰. Considerable improvements are needed in
91 estimating recent emission trends and their drivers, particularly in rapidly emerging economies and
92 developing countries. High-precision measurements of ¹⁴CO₂ could quantify, objectively and
93 transparently, the contribution of fossil and biogenic CO₂ sources¹².

94 *Emissions from land-use change:* Whereas emissions from land-use change are only about 10% of the
95 global anthropogenic total, land-use change emissions are highly uncertain³. The two dominant fluxes
96 that make up the net flux from land-use change are emissions from land clearing and sinks from
97 regrowth, such as, afforestation, reforestation, land abandonment and shifting cultivation practices¹³.
98 Major improvements in emission estimates will come from better estimates of standing biomass carbon
99 and changes in carbon density across landscapes that include land degradation and disturbances
100 currently poorly understood or not captured, and from better quantification of emissions associated
101 with land management such as harvesting, afforestation, and shifting cultivation^{13,14}.

102 *Land sink:* The variability in the land sink is estimated from terrestrial ecosystem models driven by
103 observed changes in environmental conditions. However, the understanding of the land sink is limited
104 by the lack of spatially explicit observations of changes in carbon in vegetation and soils¹³. Major
105 improvements can come from systematic benchmarking of these models against the increasing
106 availability of observations of key components of the biosphere (e.g., biomass, productivity, leaf area),
107 and also taking advantage of emerging constraints from atmospheric CO₂ data to reduce uncertainties in
108 the sensitivity of fluxes to climate variability, CO₂, and nutrients^{15,16}.

109 *Ocean sink:* Our understanding of the ocean sink is limited primarily by the insufficiency of physical,
110 chemical and biological observations that would allow for quantitative understanding of the causes of
111 interannual to decadal variability¹⁷⁻¹⁹. To reduce the uncertainty in the ocean sink and quantify its
112 variability sufficiently so as to make a material contribution to the five year or less detection goal, two
113 types of observations are critical: (1) an optimized system of long-term, sustained observations to
114 directly monitor the ocean carbon sink, and (2) targeted field studies that elucidate critical processes
115 driving interannual to decadal variability. These observations will allow both for direct estimation of the
116 sink and support improvements in model-based estimates.

117 Now that we see signs of a sustained change in emission trajectory away from the high growth rates of
118 the 2000's, independent verification of global emissions takes on a new imperative. Providing
119 independent verification in the context of the Paris Agreement, with its five-yearly stocktake cycle, leads
120 to a new urgency for the scientific community to focus on reducing key uncertainties and quantifying
121 natural variability in all components of the carbon cycle so that it can collectively meet the demands of
122 policy makers and society.

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130 **Author contributions**

131 G.P.P., C.L.Q., and J.G.C. designed the research; G.P.P. made Figure 1; G.P.P., C.L., P.F., F.J. made Figure
132 2; All authors analysed the data, figures, and contributed to the text.

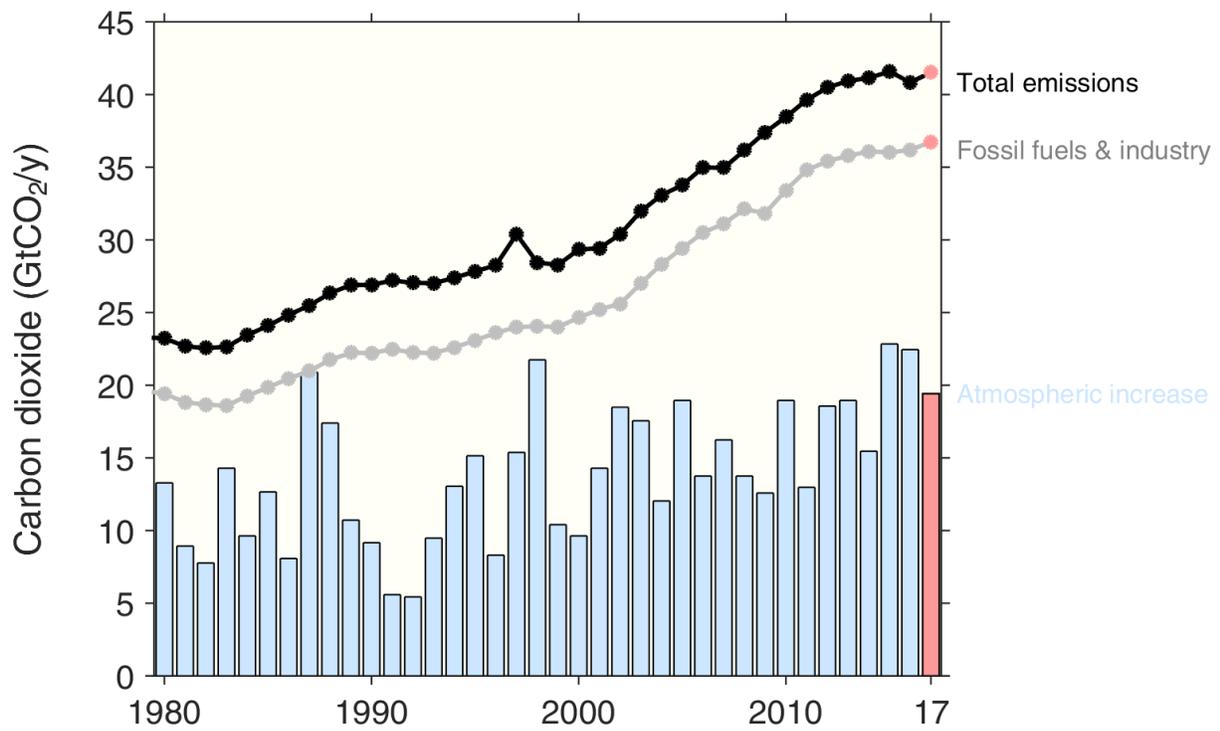
133 **Additional information**

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135 and requests for materials should be addressed to G.P.P.

136 **Competing financial interests**

137 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

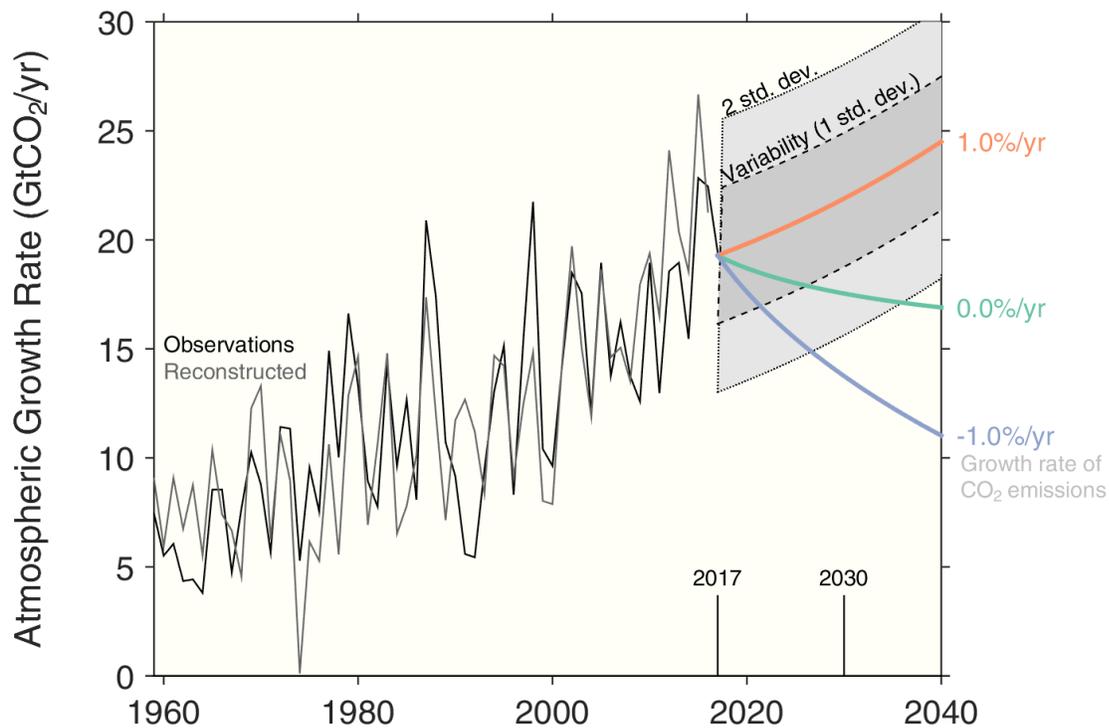
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140 *Figure 1: Even though CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel and industry, and total emissions including land-use change, have been*
 141 *relatively flat from 2014 to 2016, atmospheric concentrations saw a record increase in 2015 and 2016 (bars) due to El Niño*
 142 *conditions. We expect CO₂ emissions to grow in 2017 (red), but for the growth in atmospheric concentrations to be lower in 2017*
 143 *compared to 2015 and 2016 in the absence of an El Niño event.*

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146 *Figure 2: The observed atmospheric CO₂ growth rate compared to reconstructions. Observations show a large interannual to*
 147 *decadal variability (black), which can be only partially reconstructed through the global carbon budget (grey, growth rate*
 148 *diagnosed by difference between estimated fossil fuel and industry emissions, and the simulated land and ocean sinks³). Our*
 149 *limited ability to fully reproduce the observed variability is quantified through the budget imbalance³ (the difference between*
 150 *the black and grey lines). The budget imbalance has zero mean, but the standard deviation (3GtCO₂/yr) is used here to illustrate*
 151 *our current detection delay (grey bands). If CO₂ emissions stay flat for the next decades (green, 0%/yr growth), then it may take*
 152 *take 10 years before the estimated atmospheric concentrations would exceed the budget imbalance with a probability of 68% or*
 153 *more (and therefore it could be detected) compared to a pathway of atmospheric concentrations consistent with growth in CO₂*
 154 *emissions (orange, 1%/yr similar to the emission pledges submitted to the Paris Agreement). This delay increases to 20 years for*
 155 *a 95% probability. If emissions declined faster than expected (blue, -1%/yr), then a more marked change in atmospheric growth*
 156 *would be expected, and a much earlier detection.*

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