

1 **Insights on the spatial distribution of global, national and subnational greenhouse gas**
2 **emissions in the Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research (EDGAR v8.0)**

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16 **Abstract**

17 To mitigate the impact of greenhouse gas (GHG) and air pollutant emissions, it is of the utmost
18 importance to understand where emissions occur. In the real world, atmospheric pollutants are
19 produced by various human activities from point sources (e.g. power plants and industrial
20 facilities) and also from diffuse and area sources (e.g. residential activities and agriculture).
21 However, as tracking all these single sources of emissions is practically impossible, emission
22 inventories are typically compiled using national-level statistics by sector, which are then
23 downscaled at the grid-cell level using spatial information. In this work, we develop high-
24 spatial-resolution proxies for use in downscaling the national emission totals for all world
25 countries provided by the Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research (EDGAR).

26 In particular, in this paper we present the latest EDGAR v8.0 GHG, which provides readily
27 available emission data at different levels of spatial granularity, obtained from a consistently
28 developed GHG emission database. This has been achieved through the improvement and
29 development of high-resolution spatial proxies that allow the more precise allocation of
30 emissions over the globe.

31 A key novelty of this work is the potential to analyse subnational GHG emissions over the
32 European territory and also over the United States, China, India and other high-emitting
33 countries. These data not only meet the needs of atmospheric modellers but can also inform
34 policymakers working in the field of climate change mitigation. For example, the EDGAR
35 GHG emissions at the NUTS 2 level (nomenclature of territorial units for statistics level 2)
36 over Europe contribute to the development of EU cohesion policies, identifying the progress
37 of each region towards achieving the carbon neutrality target, as well as providing insights on
38 the most highly emitting sectors. The data can be accessed at
39 <https://doi.org/10.2905/b54d8149-2864-4fb9-96b9-5fd3a020c224> specifically for EDGAR
40 v8.0 (Crippa, 2023a) and <https://doi.org/10.2905/D67EEDA8-C03E-4421-95D0-0ADC460B9658>
41 for the subnational dataset (Crippa et al., 2023b).

42

43 1. Introduction

44 Knowing where emissions are released is essential to support the design of effective mitigation
45 actions and for atmospheric modelling purposes. Emission inventories are typically developed
46 at the national level and provide sector-specific emission estimates. In order to disaggregate
47 national emissions over high-resolution grids, information on the location of the different
48 emission sources (e.g. point, linear and area sources) must be collected, and ‘spatial proxies’
49 should be developed and applied to national sector-specific emission totals to downscale them
50 over grid maps. The correct allocation of point source emissions is essential to avoid misplacing
51 high emission levels. However, gathering information on point sources covering the entire
52 globe and a wide temporal domain (1970 to present) is challenging because of limitations in
53 data availability, in the accuracy of the reporting (real location vs legal address, etc.) and in the
54 completeness of data.

55 The Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research (EDGAR) provides global
56 greenhouse gas (GHG) and air pollutant emissions over the global grid map at $0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$
57 resolution, obtained through a downscaling process of national emissions using high-resolution
58 spatial data. The development and maintenance of the EDGAR grid maps is essential, since
59 several regional and global databases rely on the EDGAR emission grid maps to disaggregate
60 national emissions to the grid. This is the case for the Community emissions data system (Feng
61 et al., 2020; Hoesly et al., 2018) or the European monitoring and evaluation programme
62 (EMEP) Centre on Emission Inventories and Projections, which supports Parties to the
63 Convention on Long-range Transboundary Air Pollution in meeting their official gridded
64 emission reporting obligations (CEIP, 2021).

65 This work is an update of previous EDGAR publications dealing with spatial data (Janssens-
66 Maenhout et al., 2019; Crippa et al., 2021), and describes all the new developments in the
67 spatialisation of the emissions from EDGAR v8.0 onwards, focusing on high-emitting sectoral
68 point sources, such as power plants and industrial activities, but also on more diffuse sources
69 such as residential activities. High-resolution spatial information has been gathered at the
70 global level by combining data from the Global Energy Monitor, official registries and satellite
71 retrievals. The relevance of using updated spatial information is also assessed through regional
72 case studies.

73 The purpose of this publication is to describe the EDGAR v8.0 GHG gridded emission datasets,
74 focusing on the updates to the spatial proxies included in this data release. The analysis of
75 EDGAR v8.0 emission time series (European Union, 2023; IEA-EDGAR CO₂, 2023) and the
76 methodology behind emission calculations is available in Crippa et al. (2023c).

77 The main novelties of this work are (i) an update on emission point sources using global
78 datasets (e.g. Global Energy Monitor), (ii) the development of a gap-filling method for non-
79 population-based sources using built-up surface information for non-residential areas(*) from
80 the Global Human Settlements Layer (GHSL), (iii) an update of population-based proxies using

(*) This information is compliant with the definition of ‘building’ as per the infrastructure for spatial information in Europe (Inspire) directive (<https://inspire.ec.europa.eu/id/document/tg/bu>) for non-residential areas (e.g. industrial or commercial facilities, warehouses) from the Global Human Settlements Layer.

81 the latest GHSL data, including a weighting for the temperature-dependent need for heating,
 82 and (iv) an update on international ship tracks and weights by vessel type. In addition,
 83 information at the subnational level (e.g. for Europe at the NUTS 2 level (nomenclature of
 84 territorial units for statistics level 2)) is included when developing the new spatial proxies for
 85 EDGAR, thus allowing a more accurate allocation and analysis of subnational emissions. The
 86 EDGAR v8.0 GHG global emission maps can be accessed at
 87 <https://doi.org/10.2905/D67EEDA8-C03E-4421-95D0-0ADC460B9658> for the subnational
 88 emissions and at <https://doi.org/10.2905/b54d8149-2864-4fb9-96b9-5fd3a020c224> for v8.0
 89 for the emission grid maps at $0.1 \times 0.1^\circ$ resolution.

90 **2. Overview of the methodology and data sources used for updating spatial information** 91 **in EDGAR**

92 Bottom-up global inventories (such as EDGAR) compute emissions for each sector, pollutant
 93 and year at the national level, making use of international statistics and official guidelines for
 94 emission computation (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2019; Crippa et al., 2018). However,
 95 atmospheric modellers, policymakers, local authorities and scientists may need to analyse
 96 spatially distributed emissions at a higher resolution than country-level data. Therefore, annual
 97 country-specific emissions are distributed over the globe making use of spatial information,
 98 representing the exact location of point sources (e.g. power plants, industrial facilities), linear
 99 tracks (e.g. road network, ship and aeroplane tracks) or area sources (e.g. populated areas,
 100 industrial areas). Within the EDGAR database, over 130 proxy datasets (f) varying over time
 101 are developed to distribute the contribution of sector-specific emissions ($EM_{i,j,k}$) of each
 102 country (C) and pollutant (x) over time (t) to each grid cell ($em_{i,j,k}$) at $0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$ resolution
 103 (about 10 km spatial resolution at the equation, considering the World Geodetic System
 104 WGS84, EPSG:4326). The Heaviside function (i.e. unit step function whose value is zero for
 105 negative arguments and 1 for positive arguments) is also used, equalling 1 when the grid cell
 106 belongs to the country area, accordingly with the following formula:

$$107 \quad em_{i,j,k}(lon, lat, t, x) = EM_{i,j,k}(C, t, x) \cdot \frac{f_{i,j,k}(lon, lat, t)}{\sum_{lon, lat} (f_{i,j,k}(lon, lat, t) \cdot H_{i,j}(C, lon, lat))}$$

108

109 where

110 $H_{i,j}(C, lon, lat) =$ fraction/weight of grid cell within C ,

111 $i =$ sector,

112 $j =$ fuel,

113 $k =$ technology.

114 Table 1 summarises the data sources and the methodology used to update spatial information
 115 for each emitting sector in the EDGAR database, highlighting the most relevant and latest
 116 updates compared with previous EDGAR data releases. These updates apply from EDGAR
 117 v8.0 onwards. Being a global database of emissions, the spatial data sources are typically
 118 developed at the global level (e.g. satellite-based retrievals) but often rely on national data
 119 collection (e.g. national point source information reported to fulfil legal requirements).
 120 Therefore, the same data sources may be used by other inventory developers to update their

121 spatial disaggregation of the emission data. In the following sections, a detailed description of
122 the data sources and the approach used for updating each emission sector is provided,
123 distinguishing between point sources, area sources and linear sources. For all sectors not
124 subjected to a recent revision in the EDGAR database, we refer the reader to the overview
125 Table S1 in the Supplement and the references therein.

126 A key methodological advance in the EDGAR gridding system is the inclusion of subnational
127 attributes for each spatial proxy and in particular for each point source. This implies attaching
128 to each point not only its exact location, expressed in longitude and latitude, but also the related
129 NUTS 2 code (EUROSTAT, 2021) for Europe or the Global ADMInistrative layer at level 1
130 (GADM version 4.1). The decision to include NUTS 2 rather than NUTS 3 information aims
131 to enhance the capability of a global database such as EDGAR to represent subnational regional
132 emissions in support of the development of regional policies (e.g. EU cohesion reports
133 (European Commission, 2022)) or the 2040 climate impact assessment. The attribution of
134 subnational details is developed not only with an EU-oriented focus but also for other countries
135 such as China, India and the United States by providing emissions at the state or province level.

136 The purpose of our work is to provide readily available emission data at the subnational level
137 estimated in a consistent way for all countries. The EDGAR data may represent an
138 approximation for those countries with a developed statistical infrastructure (e.g. those
139 including subnational statistics and very precise spatial proxies); however, they provide a
140 default if such data are not available, as is the case for many countries in the world. In the
141 results section, case studies on subnational emissions are presented for the EU, China, India
142 and the United States.

143 **3. Point sources of emissions**

144 Gathering information on point sources covering the globe and spanning a wide temporal
145 domain (1970 to present) is challenging because of the limited data available and their accuracy
146 and completeness in the reporting (real plant location vs legal address, etc.). Establishing the
147 correct location of point sources is essential, since they are often super-emitters (e.g. power
148 plants for CO₂ emissions). In EDGAR v8.0, the locations of the main industrial point sources
149 (e.g. power plants, iron and steel industries, coal mines, venting and flaring activities), which
150 contribute around half of global CO₂ emissions, have been updated using state-of-the-art
151 information from global databases, such as the Global Oil and Gas Plant Tracker and Global
152 Coal Plant Tracker of the Global Energy Monitor. A complete overview of the data sources
153 and updates included in EDGAR v8.0 is provided in Table 1.

154 However, point source databases are characterised by some limitations, such as the
155 completeness of information on the point sources, the availability of time series for
156 information, the misplacement of data points compared with their actual country location, etc.
157 In EDGAR v8.0, quality control procedures are applied to validate the correct location of each
158 point source to the corresponding country or subnational attribute. Moreover, missing
159 information is completed using assumptions on the lifetime of power plants (i.e. 40 years) to
160 indicatively attribute the opening or closing years for each plant.

161 No consistency checks between CO₂ emissions estimated using independent methods have
162 been performed. here However, Guevara et al. (2024) have proven that there is good agreement

163 between national CO₂ emissions from power plants reported by EDGAR (which are based on
164 international statistics) and plant-level inventories.

165 Atmospheric modellers require information not only on the spatial patterns of the emissions
166 but also on their temporal and vertical distribution, as described in Ahsan et al. (2023), Bieser
167 et al. (2011) and de Meij et al. (2006). For example, de Meij et al. (2006) found that the vertical
168 distribution of emissions of SO₂ and nitrogen oxides (NO_x) plays an important role in
169 understanding the differences between emission inventories in calculated gas and aerosol
170 concentrations. Accordingly, in the EMEP model, industrial point source and power plant
171 emissions occur in up to the third level (top up to 184 m), while shipping emissions happen in
172 the first level (top up to 20 m). However, addressing the vertical distribution of the emissions
173 in beyond the scope of this work. In the following sections, we will describe sector by sector
174 how the most up-to-date spatial data on point sources have been collected and implemented in
175 the EDGAR database to downscale national emissions over the global grid map.

176

177 **3.1. Power plants**

178 Power plants represent a major source of fossil fuel-derived CO₂ and other GHG emissions
179 globally, nowadays contributing around 38 % and 18 %, respectively, of the corresponding
180 global totals (Crippa et al., 2023c). It is therefore of utmost importance to spatially allocate
181 these emissions correctly at the global level and understand their trends over time, in order to
182 design and implement adequate emission mitigation measures.

183 In EDGAR v8.0, fuel-specific spatial proxies have been developed using data from the Global
184 Coal Plant Tracker and Global Oil and Gas Plant Tracker of the Global Energy Monitor (for
185 coal and gas) (Global Energy Monitor, 2022b, c), the Global Power Plant Database v1.3.0
186 (World Resources Institute, 2018; WRI, 2021) for oil and biofuels, the Carbon Monitoring for
187 Action database (CARMA v3.0) for autoproducers (i.e. plants and industries producing power
188 for their own use). In addition, information on autoproducers and biofuel-fired power plants in
189 Europe has been integrated using the European Pollutant Release and Transfer Register
190 (EPRTTR v18) (EPRTTR, 2020). For the US domain, the location of fossil fuel-fired power plants
191 is taken from the US Energy Information Administration (US EIA, 2022b), as it represents the
192 most up-to-date source for the United States. The time frame covered by the new power plant
193 spatial proxy datasets developed in EDGAR v8.0 is 1970–2022, which includes, for each plant,
194 information on opening and closing years (including beyond 2022 for recently built power
195 plants), capacity, main fuel type, etc. When only partial information is available for the years
196 of operation, assumptions based on the typical lifetime of power plants are made (e.g. 40 years).
197 The capacity of each power plant is used to relatively weight within a country the fuel-specific
198 emissions from power plants. An additional adjustment is performed for the US data to account
199 for the different sulphur content in the fuel used in different US states based on EIA and Federal
200 Energy Regulatory Commission utility surveys.

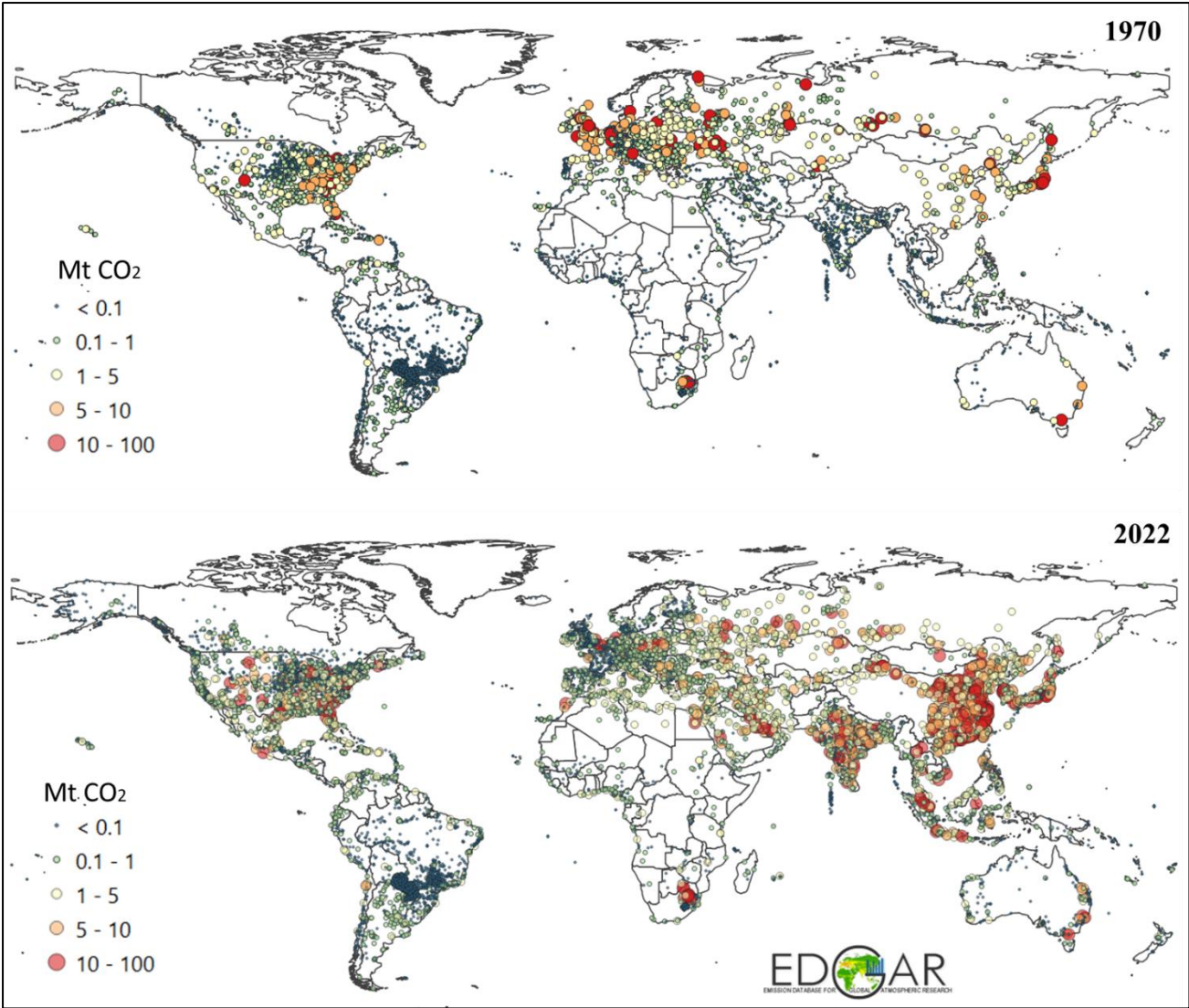
201 The Global Energy Monitor is chosen as the main data source for updating power plant proxies,
202 since it relies on data from public and private data sources (including the Global Energy
203 Observatory, CARMA, Platts World Energy Power Plant database, national-level trackers
204 developed by environmental organisations, and various company and government sources). It
205 is validated with (i) government data on individual power plants, (ii) country energy and

206 resource plans and government websites tracking coal plant permits and applications, (iii)
207 reports by state-owned and private power companies, (iv) news and media reports, and (v) local
208 non-governmental organisations tracking coal plants or permits. Local experts are also
209 involved in the review of coal and gas plant data. Regular biannual updates of these databases
210 also guarantee the possibility of including further updates in future EDGAR releases. As of
211 January 2019, the Global Coal Plant Tracker included the exact locations of 95.3 % of
212 operating units (6 411 out of 6 725). Independent use and validation of the Global Coal Plant
213 Tracker and Global Oil and Gas Plant Tracker is also performed by Guevara et al. (2024).
214 Figure S1 in the Supplement shows the comparison between the geographical coverage of
215 EDGAR v8.0 and the previous EDGAR spatial data for power plants, while Figure S2 provides
216 a view of the global coverage of power plants in EDGAR v8.0 by fuel type.

217 Figure 1 shows the global coverage and intensity of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel-fired power
218 plants from EDGAR v8.0 for the years 1970 and 2022. As a general trend, the number of power
219 plants increased strongly from 1970 to 2022 (see also Figure 2) due to global industrialisation
220 over those five decades, although the number of power plants in 1970 is more uncertain than
221 that for the present day.

222 The total number of power plants grew from around 8 500 in 1970 to 13 000 in 2022, with the
223 sharpest increases occurring in China (4.5 times more) and North America (2 times more).
224 However, the intensity of the emissions has changed over the past five decades, depending on
225 the region. As shown in Figure 2, despite the increase in the regional number of power plants,
226 the shift towards cleaner fuels in historically industrialised regions (such as Europe and North
227 America), together with increased energy efficiency, has led to stable and lower CO₂ emissions
228 in these regions (e.g. a 13 % decrease in emissions in Europe between 1970 and 2022). In
229 contrast, emerging regions are characterised by significantly higher emissions in 2022 and the
230 use of high-carbon-content fuels, such as coal. Over the past five decades, fossil CO₂ emissions
231 from power plants have increased up to 42 and 38 times in China and India, respectively.
232 Country-specific trends in CO₂ and GHG emissions from power plants are presented in Crippa
233 et al. (2023c).

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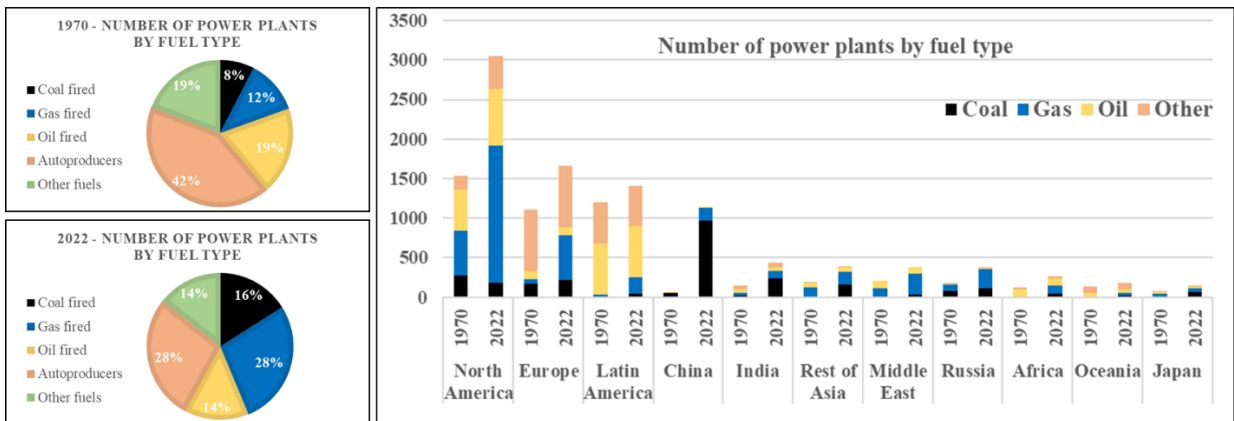


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Figure 1 – CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel-fired power plants in 1970 and 2022 from EDGAR v8.0. The size of the circles is proportional to the magnitude of the emissions.



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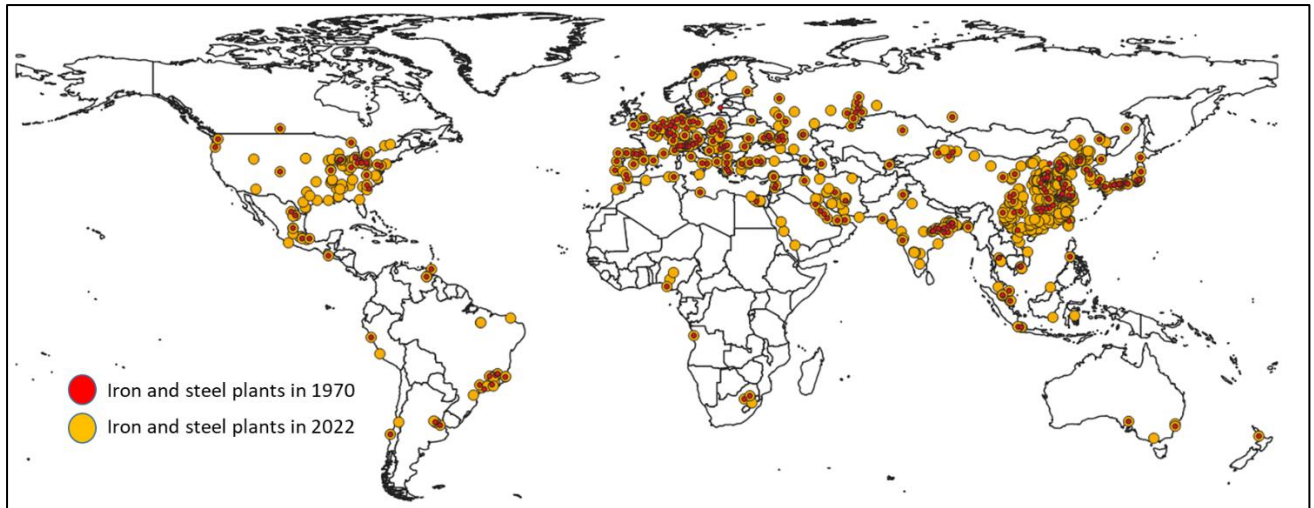
Figure 2 – Increase in the total number of power plants (including fossil fuel- and biofuel-fired plants) from 1970 to 2022 by world region, as included in the updated EDGAR spatial proxies.

243 3.2. Industrial facilities and other point sources

244 Industrial activities cover a wide range of sectors encompassing the production of iron and
245 steel, cement, glass, metals, chemicals and fertilisers and the use of solvents but also intensive
246 animal farming (see Section 3.4). Gathering information on industrial activities (e.g.
247 production, capacity, location of the facilities) at the global level is challenging, in part because
248 of confidentiality and data protection issues. For this reason, we focused not only on the
249 updating of information on industrial point sources (when available) but also on improving the
250 gap-filling method for all industrial activities if data are incomplete or missing (as discussed in
251 detail in Section 3.5). In EDGAR v8.0, we included the latest EPRTTR (EPRTTR v18) locations
252 for all industrial facilities (with the exception of power plants, iron and steel facilities, and coal
253 mines, for which dedicated spatial proxies have been developed at the global level). Several
254 manual adjustments were made to overcome data quality issues related to missing spatial
255 information and inconsistencies. The analysis of the EPRTTR dataset also inspired the idea of
256 attributing only a fraction of the emissions to the reported point sources. This is justified by the
257 fact that industrial facilities have to report their emissions only if they fall above a certain
258 threshold. The fraction of the emissions to be allocated to the available point sources is
259 determined through the ratio between the EPRTTR emissions (typically of CO₂) and the
260 corresponding EDGAR emissions. When the ratio is 1, all emissions are allocated to the point
261 sources; when the ratio is lower than 1, the complementary fraction is then attributed to the
262 gap-filling grid (i.e. non-residential proxy as defined in Section 3.5).

263 In EDGAR v8.0, we have also updated the global locations of iron and steel plants, which are
264 among the most energy-intensive industries. The Global Steel Plant Tracker of the Global
265 Energy Monitor (2022d) was used as a data source because of its global and temporal
266 completeness (1970 to present). The installed capacity was used to weight the relative
267 contribution of each iron and steel plant, although it may represent an approximation of the real
268 capacity in use. A map of iron and steel production plants in 1970 and 2022 is presented in
269 Figure 3. The number of iron and steel plants increased around 10-fold over the last five
270 decades (from 77 to 728) with the sharpest increases in China (5-fold) and the United States
271 and India (2.7-fold).

272 Coal mines are also a relevant source of fugitive emissions of GHGs and air pollutants (e.g.
273 volatile organic compounds). In EDGAR v8.0, we updated the information on coal mines at
274 the global level using the Global Coal Mine Tracker of the Global Energy Monitor (2022a)
275 complemented with the EIA data for the United States (US EIA, 2022a). For countries not
276 covered by these data sources, we relied on the previous EDGAR spatial proxies including data
277 from the United States Geological Survey (USGS, 2019). More specifically, we included
278 information on surface and underground mines for both hard and brown coal.



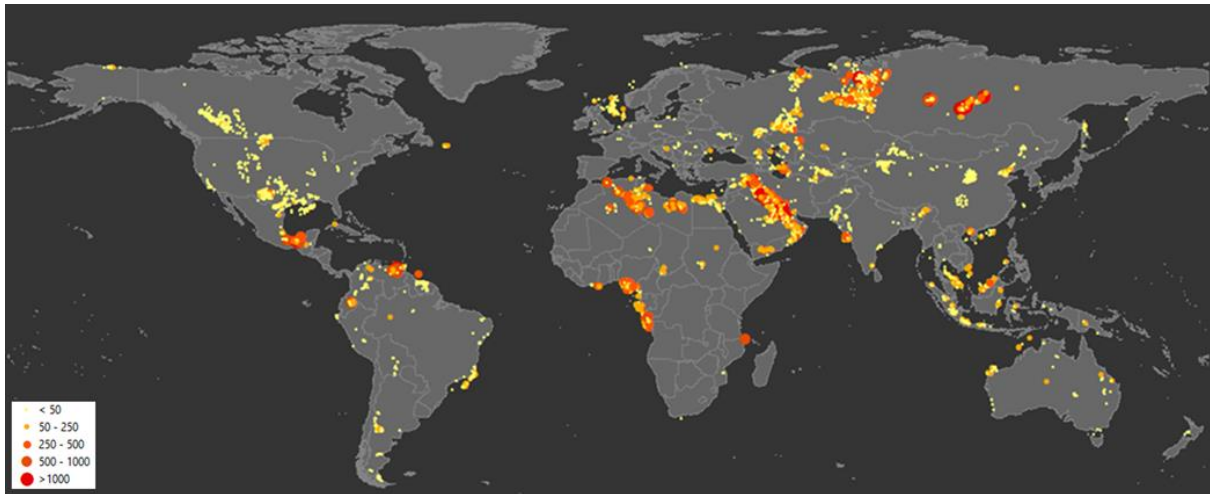
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280 **Figure 3 – Global locations of iron and steel plants in 1970 and 2022.**

281 **3.3. Venting and flaring**

282 Gas flaring is the burning of the natural gas that results from oil extraction. Although this
 283 practice is highly polluting and represents a waste of resources, it still takes place in several
 284 countries because of economic constraints and a lack of appropriate legislation. Flaring takes
 285 place at both onshore and offshore installation, and it is a source of GHG and air pollutant
 286 emissions.

287 Global CO₂ emissions related to flaring accounted for 276 Mt in 2022, of which 76 % was
 288 emitted by 10 countries, namely Russia (18 % of the global total), Iraq (13 %), Iran (12 %) and
 289 Venezuela (7 %), followed by Algeria, United States, Mexico, Libya, Nigeria and China.
 290 Although this emission source represents only 0.8 % of global CO₂ emissions, it is particularly
 291 relevant for certain regions of the world, such as Venezuela (20 % of the country’s total CO₂
 292 emissions), Iraq (18 %), Libya (17 %), Algeria (10 %) and Nigeria (9 %). Considering the
 293 relevance of venting emissions and the potential for control measures, it is essential to
 294 accurately quantify and attribute this source to the correct location. Flaring emissions can also
 295 be localised and quantified using spaceborne measurements (Elvidge et al., 2017; NOAA,
 296 2017). In EDGAR v8.0, data from the World Bank *Global Gas Flaring Tracker Report* (2023)
 297 were used for estimating both the emissions and the location of global flaring activities from
 298 2012 to 2022. These spatial data were also used as a best approximation to spatially distribute
 299 emissions from venting, which is the controlled release of natural gas without it being burned,
 300 although the two activities may not overlap. The resulting map of CO₂ emissions in 2012 and
 301 2022 is shown in Figure 4.



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Figure 4 – Global map of CO₂ emissions (kt) from flaring in 2022.

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3.4. Intensive livestock and fertiliser-manufacturing industries

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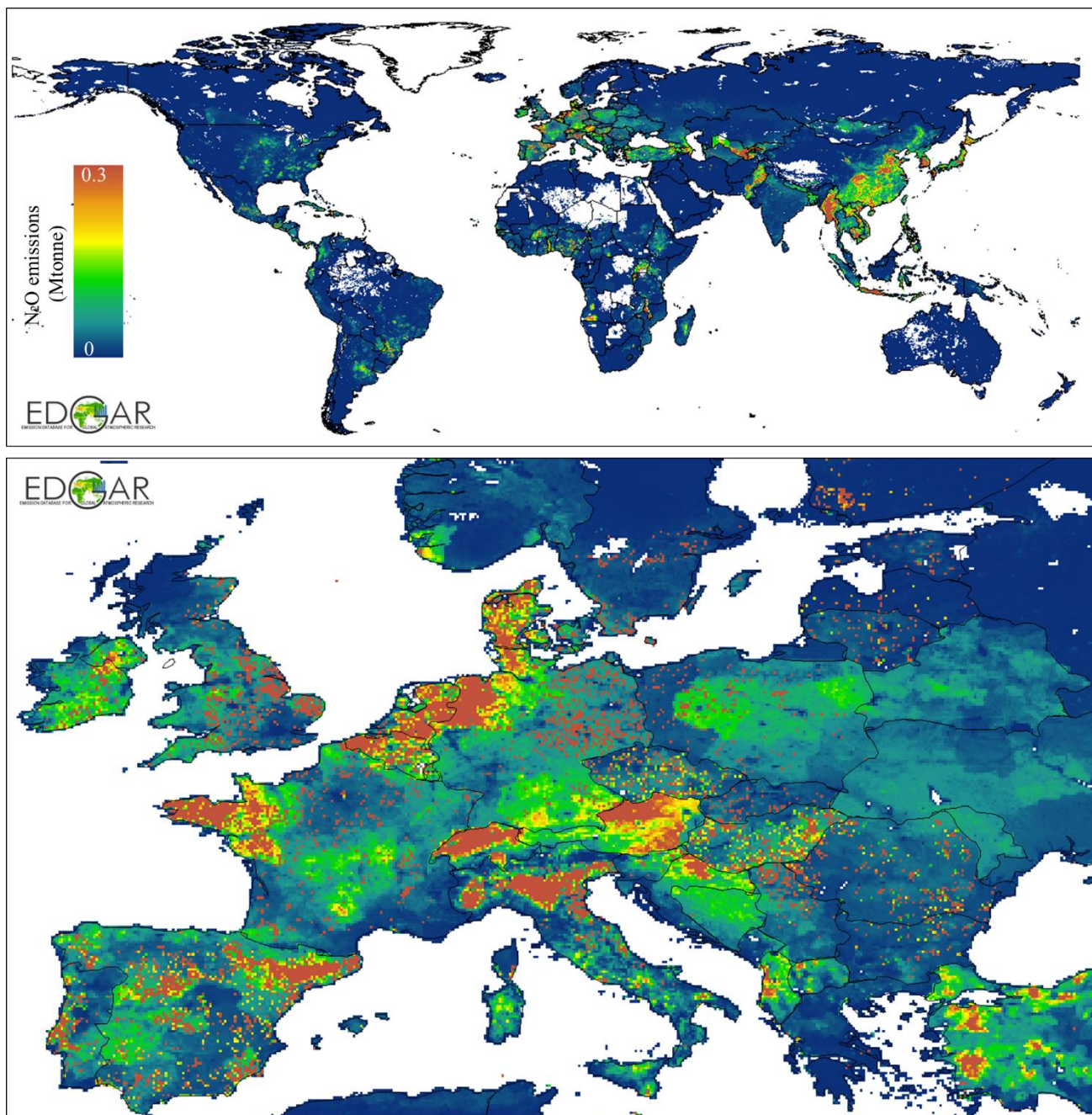
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Agriculture includes a variety of activities that are typically distributed over large areas (e.g. crop areas, animal pastures). However, several agricultural activities can be defined as hotspots or point sources and include intensive animal farming and manure management practices. In a broader sense, we also allocate to this sector the fertiliser-manufacturing industry, which represents an important source of NH₃ and N₂O. In EDGAR v8.0, the infrared atmospheric sounding interferometer (IASI) satellite-derived NH₃ point source database (Van Damme et al., 2018; Clarisse et al., 2019) is included to map emissions from animal farming and fertiliser production with yearly information for the period 2008–2022. It includes 270 agricultural hotspots and 251 synthetic NH₃ production facilities worldwide. Since the NH₃ point source database includes only hotspots, we decided to allocate to these points only a fraction of the total emissions for that sector and country derived from approximate estimates of NH₃ emission fluxes from IASI measurements, while distributing the remaining fraction to livestock density maps formerly available in EDGAR. Similarly to what was done for other industries, for Europe, intensive livestock and fertiliser production point sources were taken from EPRTR v18. Similarly, the satellite-based information on fertiliser industries was integrated into the previous EDGAR proxy for this sector. This update represents a significant improvement in representing nitrogen-related hotspots (Van Damme et al., 2018) compared with earlier EDGAR releases which mostly used animal density as a proxy (see Table S1), albeit taking into account that the uncertainty of IASI information is around 50 %. A snapshot of N₂O emissions from manure management at the global level and in Europe, where intensive livestock activities appear as emission hotspots, is shown in Figure 5.



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327 **Figure 5 – N₂O emissions from manure management at the global level and in Europe, where intensive**
 328 **livestock activities appear as emission hotspots.**

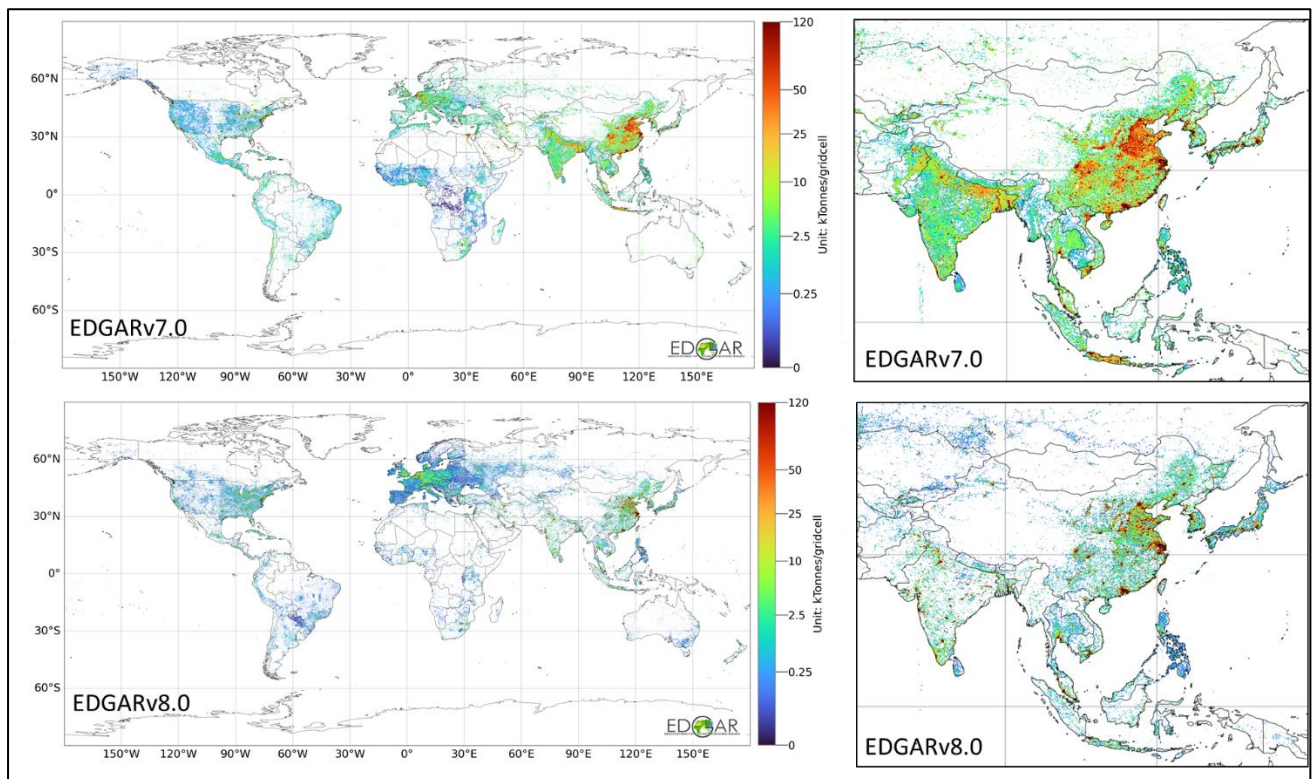
329 **3.5. Gap filling missing information for point sources**

330 A significant improvement is represented by the development and use of a new spatial proxy
 331 to gap fill missing information for all industry-related emissions. Until EDGAR v7.0,
 332 population-related proxies were used as backup information when no spatial data were
 333 available to represent the emissions for a sector within a country (Crippa et al., 2021). However,
 334 here we decided to use the non-residential built-up surface information developed by the GHSL
 335 (Pesaresi and Politis, 2023; European Commission, 2023) as a backup proxy to distribute the
 336 emissions of all the activities not related to small-scale combustion for which no point source
 337 information was available (even for individual countries). This methodological assumption is
 338 a key novelty of this work because of its application at the global level. However, it is in line

339 with methodologies already applied in regional inventories, such as in Europe (Kuenen et al.,
340 2022), where the Corine Land Cover dataset is used to spatially allocate emissions to areas
341 with industrial activity, thus supporting the validity of this assumption.

342 For certain sectors and regions, this non-residential gap-filling proxy is also used to allocate a
343 fraction of the emissions of certain sectors (see, for example, the industrial facilities section for
344 Europe). The overall effect of using this new proxy is a change in the industrial contribution
345 over densely populated areas, which was previously higher in EDGAR than in other inventories
346 over Europe in particular (Thunis et al., 2023). Figure 6 shows CO₂ emission maps from
347 manufacturing industries obtained from EDGAR v7.0 and v8.0. This figure highlights the
348 implications of using different gap-filling proxies for the industrial sector and in particular
349 contrasts those based on population (EDGAR v7.0) with the new ones based on non-residential
350 built-up surface data (EDGAR v8.0).

351 Overall, using non-residential built-up information to allocate emissions of industrial activities
352 to complement point source information leads to lower emission levels being allocated to urban
353 areas and a less densely distributed map over certain regions (e.g. China, India). Figure S3
354 shows the impact of this update on global fossil fuel-derived CO₂ emissions from the industrial
355 sector over global functional urban areas (FUAs) in 2022. The share of CO₂ industrial
356 emissions of the national total over FUAs is typically higher, on average by around 30 %, in
357 EDGAR v8.0 than in EDGAR v7.0 for several developing countries (e.g. Africa, India, South
358 America) because of the presence of industrial point sources and non-residential activities still
359 close to urban areas. However, lower emissions from industries (on average around 20 % less)
360 are found in many industrialised regions (e.g. Europe, Oceania, United States) because of the
361 displacement of industrial activities in remote areas or outside the FUAs. This result represents
362 the effect of using non-population-based proxies for industrial emissions in EDGAR v8.0
363 compared with previous EDGAR proxies.



364

365 **Figure 6 – CO₂ emissions from industrial combustion in 2021 from EDGAR v7.0 (top) and v8.0 (bottom),**
366 **showing the impact of the gap-filling proxies used for industrial sources.**

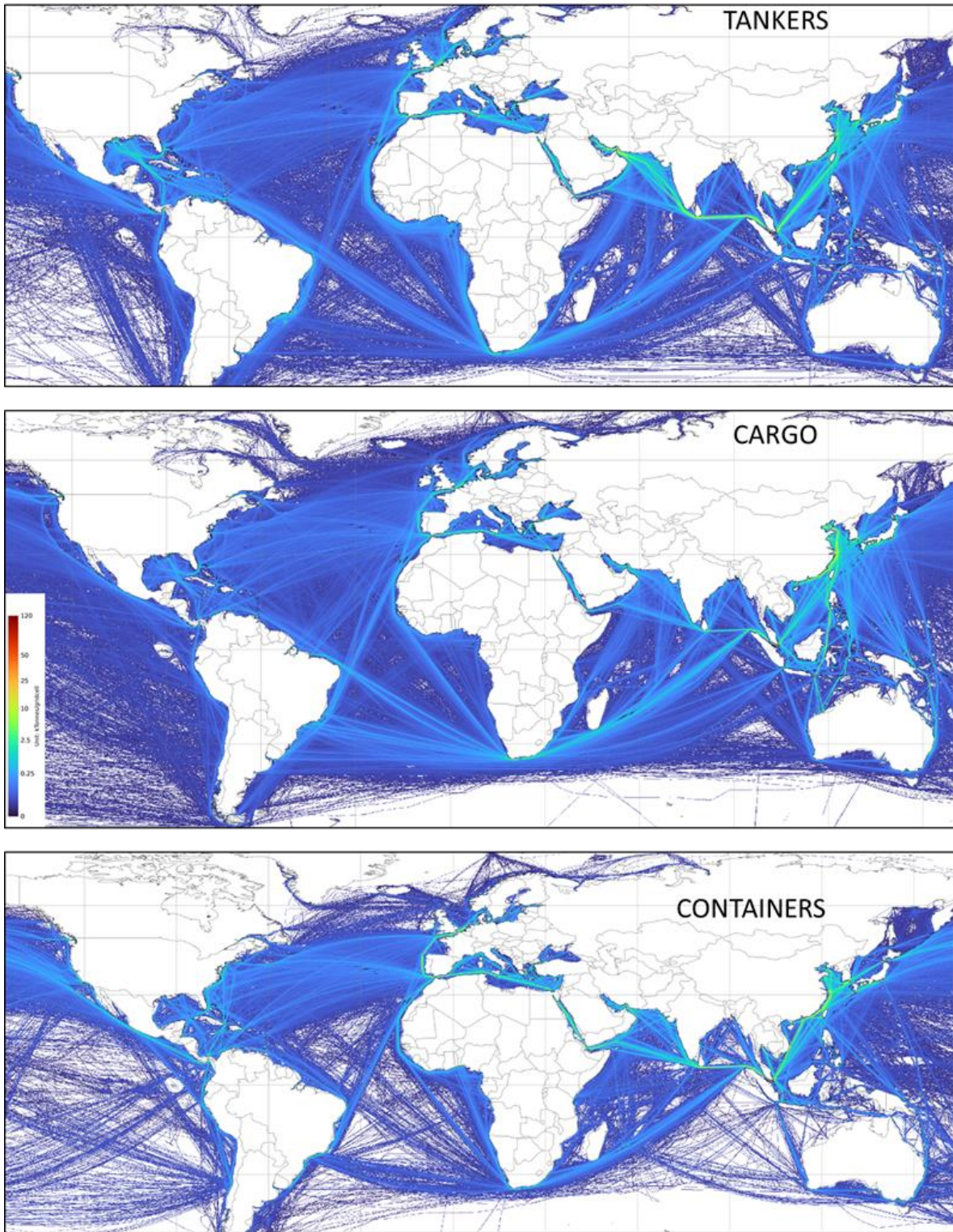
367 **4. Linear sources of emissions: international shipping**

368 Since EDGAR v6.0, international shipping emissions have been distributed using the Ship
369 Traffic Emission Assessment Model (STEAM 3) from the Finnish Meteorological Institute
370 (Jalkanen et al., 2012; Johansson et al., 2017) and this approach has remained unchanged in
371 EDGAR v8.0. Emissions are distributed on a yearly basis from 2000 to 2018, including multi-
372 vessel information (cargo, container, fishing, passenger cruiser, service, tanker, vehicle carrier,
373 miscellaneous). Compared with the previous EDGAR proxy, the use of the STEAM data allows
374 a better representation of the trend over time in international shipping emissions, differentiating
375 on an annual basis the variation in the routes and their intensity for the different vessels
376 consistently with the information available in EDGAR (see Figure 7). Only data covering sea
377 areas are included, since inland data over big rivers or lakes is not robust enough to be included
378 in EDGAR. Information on emission control areas, and in particular on sulphur emission
379 control areas and NO_x emission control areas, is not yet included, although this may be
380 considered in future updates of EDGAR. A comparison of the international shipping intensities
381 available in EDGAR before and after this update is presented in Figure S4 of the Supplement.

382 Figure 8 focuses on three main vessel types representing the largest fraction of GHG emissions
383 from international shipping in 2022 and contributing specifically around 22 % (tankers), 24 %
384 (containers) and 28 % (cargo) of total international shipping GHG emissions. The impact of
385 using the STEAM data to develop the new spatial proxies for international shipping is shown
386 in Figure 8, which presents a comparison between EDGAR v5.0 and EDGAR v8.0 CO₂
387 emissions from the three main vessel types over the different oceans and seas. EDGAR v5.0
388 used an in-house EDGAR proxy based on Wang et al. (2008), improved with long-range
389 identification and tracking information (Alessandrini et al., 2017) for European seas, as
390 described in Janssens-Maenhout et al. (2019). EDGAR v5.0 proxies were allocating most of
391 the international shipping emissions over the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, while the new
392 proxies of EDGAR v8.0 allocate the largest portion of these emissions (40 %) over the seas
393 around China, Japan and the Philippines. The relative share of tanker emissions over the
394 Mediterranean Sea is also very different between the two versions, with the largest contribution
395 (85 %) from the three categories considered in EDGAR v5.0. Emissions allocated to the Gulf
396 of Mexico and Arabian Sea are two times higher using the STEAM-based proxies in EDGAR
397 v8.0.

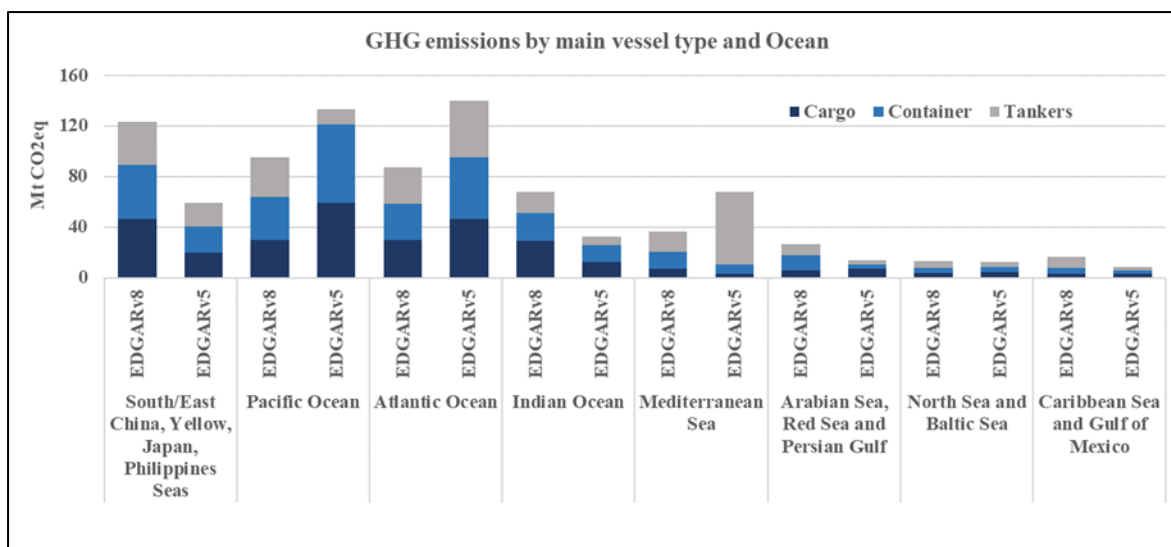
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Figure 7 – International shipping GHG emissions in 2021 showing the ship tracks for tankers, cargo vessels and containers as in EDGAR v8.0.



404

405 **Figure 8 – Comparison of GHG emissions from international shipping in 2022 by main vessel type and**
 406 **ocean or sea from EDGAR v5.0 and v8.0. Fishing-, service- and passenger-related emissions are excluded**
 407 **from this comparison.**

408 **5. Area sources of emissions**

409 **5.1. Residential activities**

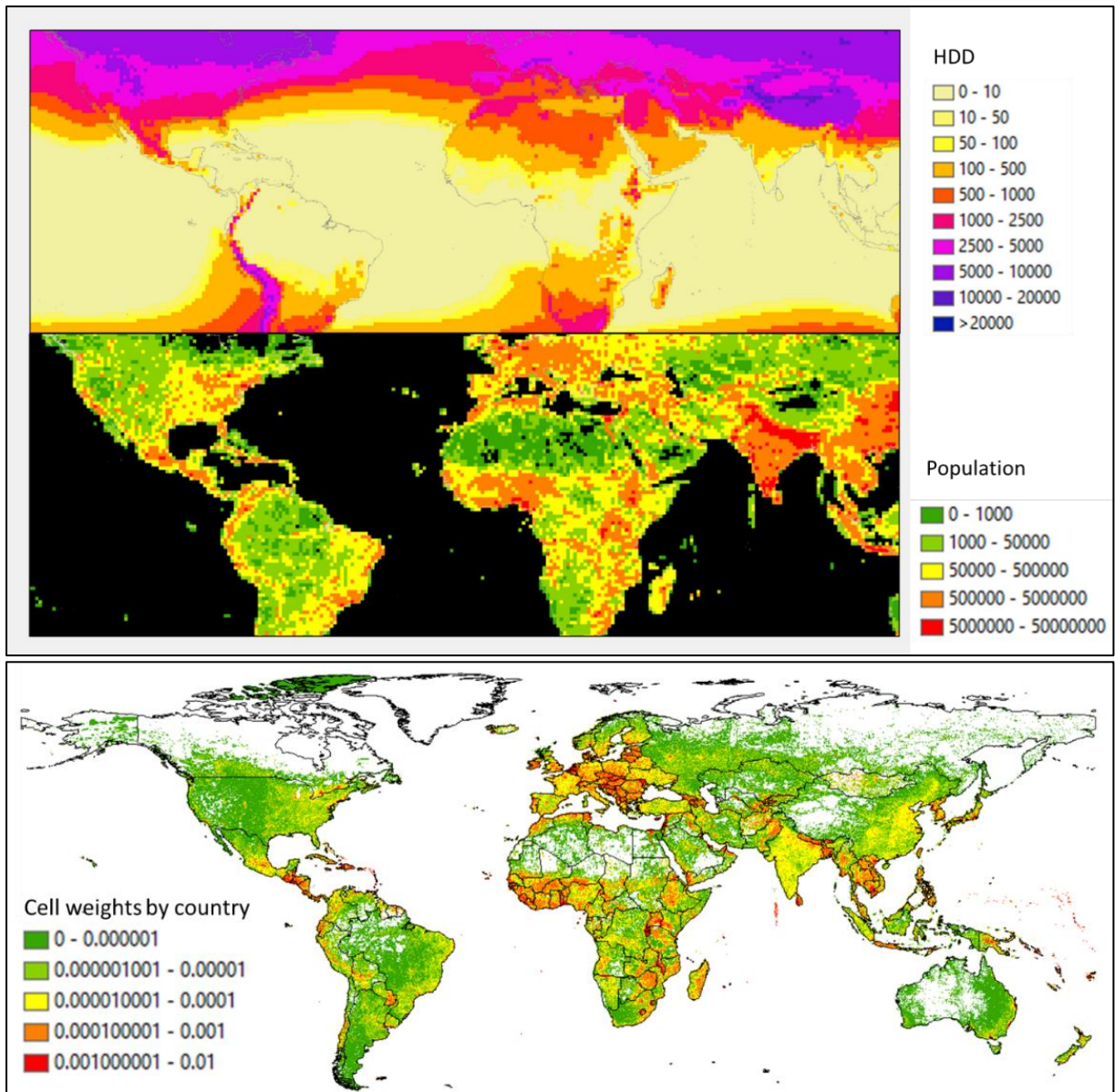
410 Small-scale combustion emissions are mostly related to non-industrial activities, such as those
 411 from the residential, commercial, agricultural and fishing sectors. Therefore, population-based
 412 spatial proxies are often used to downscale national emissions. EDGAR v8.0 aims to couple
 413 population distribution with heating degree-days, since the amount of emissions is not only
 414 dependent on the number of people living in a certain area but also on the meteorological
 415 conditions and the need for heating of indoor spaces. Residential emissions are therefore
 416 distributed considering both population intensities and heating needs, with varying profiles
 417 from 1970 to 2022. EDGAR v8.0 includes the latest population grid maps developed by Global
 418 Human Settlements, GHS-POP R2023A (Schiavina et al., 2023b; Freire et al., 2016), which
 419 comprise residential population information for 12 epochs, over 1975–2020 with 5-year time
 420 steps and projections to 2025 and 2030 obtained by distributing census data from CIESIN
 421 GPWv4.11 over global grid maps. GHS-POP R2023A data at 30 arc-seconds (WGS84,
 422 EPSG:4326) (or about 1 km) spatial resolution were used to develop the corresponding spatial
 423 proxies in EDGAR. Population density is then calculated for each grid cell and used as a proxy
 424 to allocate household emissions over populated areas. Small-scale combustion activities related
 425 to agriculture are distributed using rural population maps obtained from the GHS-SMOD
 426 R2023 product (including only low- and very low-density rural grid cells) (Schiavina et al.,
 427 2023a). For missing years, the closest population map to each epoch is taken (e.g. for the years
 428 2001 and 2002 the population map from 2000 is used, while for the years 2003 and 2004 the
 429 2005 map is used).

430 To account for the effect of the weather (ambient temperature) on heating needs in the
 431 residential sector, heating degree-days (HDDs) were computed using the 2 m surface air
 432 temperature data with hourly time resolution and 1° spatial resolution using the Copernicus
 433 ERA5 atmospheric reanalysis produced by the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather
 434 Forecasts for the years 1970–2022

435 (<https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-single-levels?tab=form>).

436 HDDs is the cumulative number of degrees by which the mean daily temperature falls below a
437 reference temperature (usually 18 °C or 19 °C, which is adequate for human comfort). HDDs
438 were calculated following the methodology described by Spinoni et al. (2018) and assuming a
439 reference temperature of 18 °C. Cooling degree-days are not included in the development of
440 the spatial proxies, since they are mainly related to electricity consumption rather than to fuel
441 combustion in the residential sector. An additional weight is therefore added to the population
442 distribution by using the HDD metric, thus increasing the emissions arising in colder regions
443 with a greater need for heating than in warm areas for the same amount of population.

444 Our approach does not aim to identify and represent heating habits for all countries but within
445 a single country modulates the differences in combustion of fuels for, for example, heating
446 purposes due to the different mean temperatures across latitudes (climatic zones). Country
447 populations may also have different habits in terms of turning on and off their heating systems,
448 thus requiring the use of different reference temperature values in the calculation of HDDs
449 (Atalla et al., 2018), which is not taken into account here. The process of building the residential
450 proxy in EDGAR is shown in Figure 9.



451

452

453 **Figure 9 – Coupling HDDs (top) and population density (middle) as a proxy (bottom) to downscale**
 454 **residential emissions. Data are for the year 2020.**

455

456 6. Results

457 The purpose of this work was to describe the methodological improvements included in
 458 EDGAR v8.0 linked to the update of the spatial data used to downscale country- and sector-
 459 specific emissions. In addition, a specific focus is dedicated to case studies showing the
 460 relevance of understanding the trends in GHG emissions at the subnational level in order to
 461 support the development of regional climate mitigation and adaptation policies (Kuramochi et
 462 al., 2020). The reader can refer to Crippa et al. (2023c) for a description of country- and sector-
 463 specific GHG emission trends at the global level. In the following sections, insights on the
 464 global distribution of GHG emissions and their subnational features are described.

465 6.1. Global greenhouse gas emissions in EDGAR v8.0

466 Figure 10 shows global GHG emissions in 2022 as a result of the EDGAR v8.0 gridding
467 process, while Figure 11 reports the same emissions at the country and subnational levels.
468 Complementary figures are also presented in the Supplement. The maps in Figures S5–S8 show
469 the trends in global emissions of GHGs and fossil fuel-derived CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O from 1970
470 to 2022.

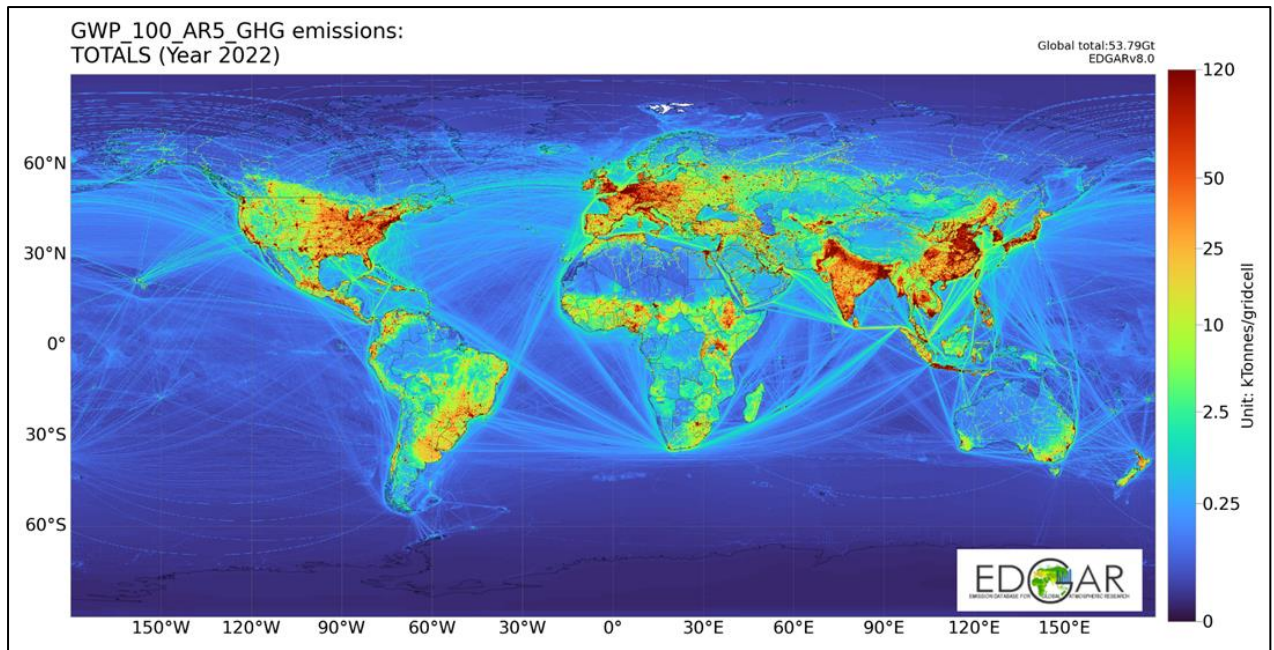
471 The main strength and novelty of EDGAR v8.0 is related to the production of a global GHG
472 emission database at different levels of granularity to support local, regional and global climate
473 actions. The high-spatial-resolution global maps are available at 0.1° × 0.1° resolution WGS84
474 (EPSG:4326), about 10 km spatial resolution at the equator, as both emissions and emission fluxes
475 (.txt and .NetCDF files, https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/dataset_ghg80) fulfilling the
476 requirements of the global atmospheric modelling community but also bridging bottom-up and
477 top-down (mostly satellite-based) GHG emission estimates (see Figure 10).

478 EDGAR v8.0 allows full flexibility in the aggregation of emissions at the subnational level,
479 thus supporting the analysis of the spatio-temporal variability of the emissions not only at the
480 grid-cell level but also over wider administrative domains, or areas of interest such as urban
481 centres (Melchiorri, 2022). A second key product from EDGAR v8.0 is represented by GHG
482 emissions at the subnational level using the Global ADMInistrative layer version 4.1
483 (https://gadm.org/download_country.html) at level 1 and the NUTS 2 level for the EU
484 extended geographical domain, as shown in Figure 11.

485 Looking at province- or city-scale emissions requires not only associating, for example, point
486 sources to the NUTS 3 level but also relying on an approach different from the downscaling of
487 national totals, which may include the use of statistical information available over smaller
488 territorial units. Therefore, considering the current purposes of EDGAR, the NUTS 2 level
489 represents the right balance between the accuracy of the final emission data and downscaling
490 of national totals. The relevance of including not only country-specific details but also
491 subregional information is essential when doing emission data extraction at the subnational
492 level, thus avoiding border issues. Some inventory compilers (Kuenen et al., 2022) report point
493 source information as just points without distributing them over a grid map with a certain
494 resolution. This approach is accurate, since it provides the exact geographical coordinates of
495 individual facilities; however, it does not reduce data extraction issues, since the allocation of
496 a specific point to a certain grid cell may fall at the border of, for example, two or more regions.

497 Another challenge that we address with this new gridding approach is related to the
498 harmonisation of national and subnational data. Local and regional inventories are often
499 developed independently, thereby undermining the possibility of combining subnational
500 emission data to retrieve the national values. The challenge of using different and
501 unharmonised databases is overcome by the EDGAR database, as users are able to work
502 consistently at both the national and regional levels, thus offering them the possibility of
503 working across different geographical scales. This is achieved through the downscaling of
504 national emission data to subnational data, making use of high-spatial-resolution proxies, as
505 discussed in this paper. In Sections 6.2 and 6.3 case studies in the European, American and
506 Asian domains are discussed more in detail.

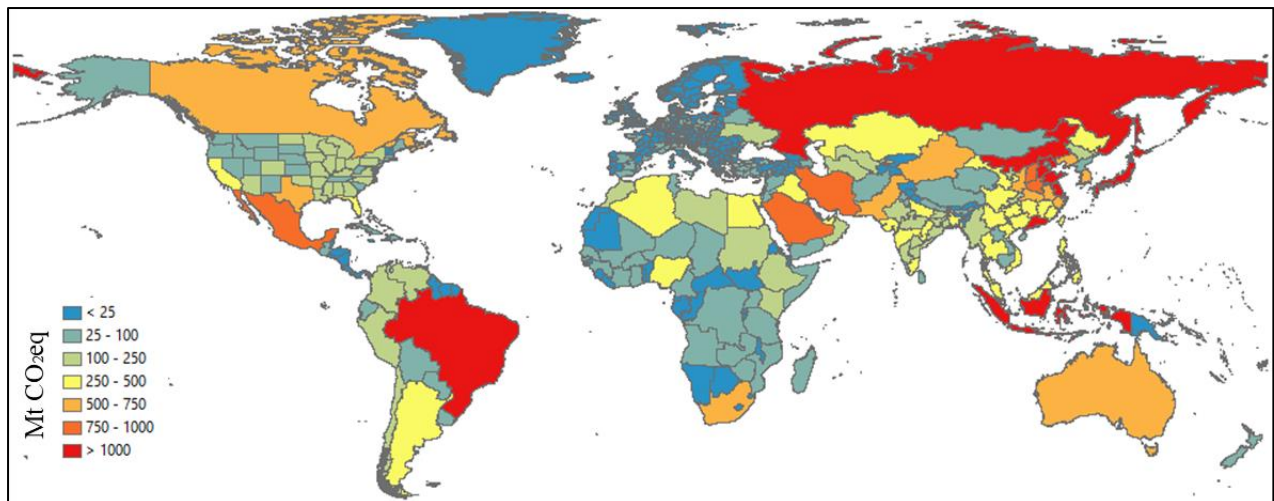
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509

Figure 10 – Global GHG (expressed in kt CO₂ equivalent) emission map in 2022 from EDGAR v8.0.



510

511

Figure 11 – Global GHG emissions at the national and subnational levels in 2022 from EDGAR v8.0.

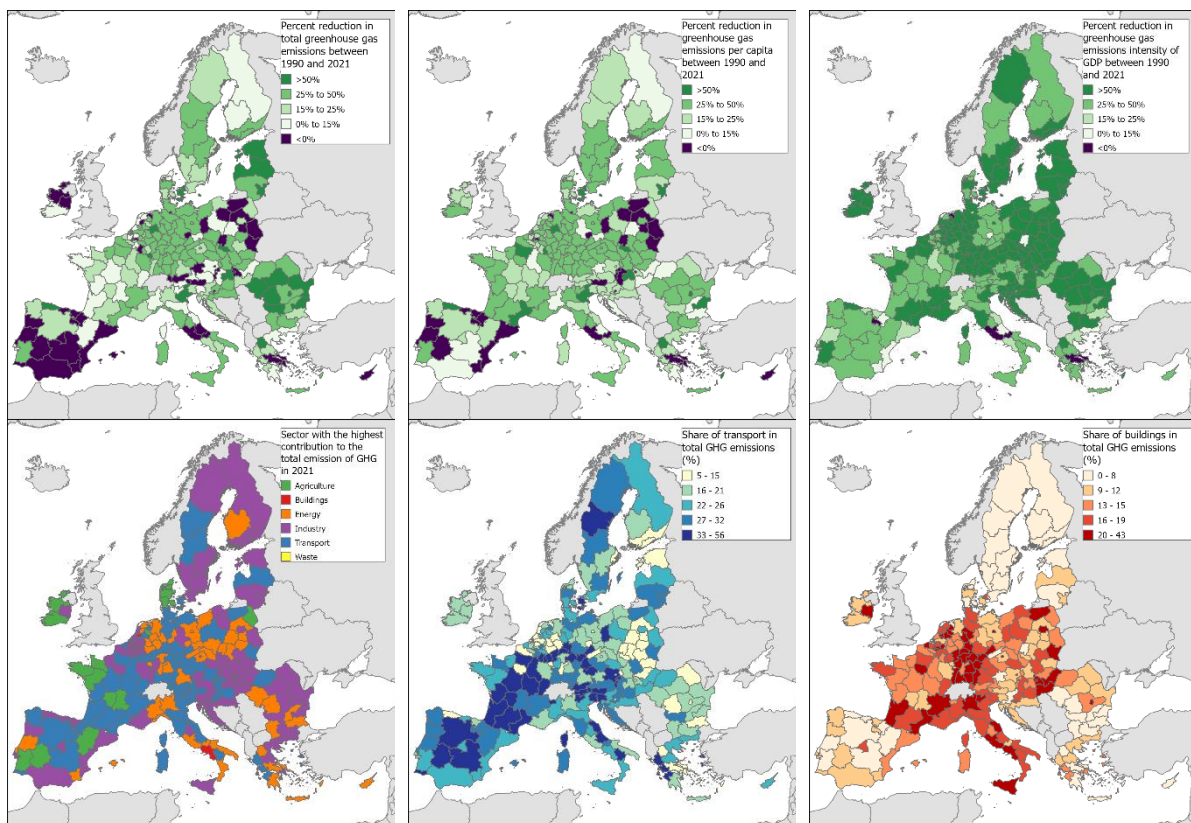
512

513 6.2. Subnational emissions: the EU case

514 Climate and environmental territorial policies require robust and consistent knowledge of GHG
 515 and air pollutant emissions at the subnational level (e.g. NUTS 2). No subnational official
 516 reporting is available and the high-spatial-resolution data available from EDGAR fill this
 517 knowledge gap. EDGAR subnational GHG emissions are used as a reference by the European
 518 Commission in cohesion reports (European Commission, 2022), the European semester
 519 process and climate action territorial analysis. Figure 12 shows how GHG emissions at the
 520 NUTS 2 level changed between 1990 and 2021 in absolute, per capita and per gross domestic
 521 product terms. Out of 242 EU regions, 155 regions have shown a downwards trend in emissions
 522 since 1990, and 206 and 204 regions have done so since 2005 (on average -1.27% per year)
 523 and 2010 (on average -1.35% per year), respectively. However, in 2021, only 34 regions

524 achieved GHG emissions of less than 5 t CO₂equivalent/person, which is the average value
 525 needed to achieve the 2030 EU climate targets. The sectors contributing most to total EU GHG
 526 emissions in 2021 are power generation (27 %), industry (23 %), transportation (20 %),
 527 buildings (14 %) and agriculture (11 %), showing that the different regions in the EU have
 528 different transition challenges. For example, when looking at the NUTS 2 level (see Figure 12,
 529 bottom middle panel) the transport sector is often the sector with the largest contribution at the
 530 regional level, in particular in rural regions of Spain, France, Italy and Germany. Figure 12
 531 (bottom right panel) also shows the share of GHG emissions arising from small-scale
 532 combustion (buildings sector) at the NUTS 2 level, highlighting several regions for which this
 533 sector contributes more than 15–20 % to the regional total.

534



535

536 **Figure 12 – Relative change in EU GHG emissions by NUTS 2 level between 1990 and 2021 (top panels).**
 537 **Sectoral contribution to EU GHG emissions by NUTS 2 level in 2021 (bottom panels). The sector with the**
 538 **highest contribution in 2021 for each NUTS 2 region is shown in the map in the left panel. The contribution**
 539 **of GHG emissions from transport (middle panel) and buildings (right panel) to total emissions in 2021**
 540 **in the EU by NUTS 2 level is also shown.**

541

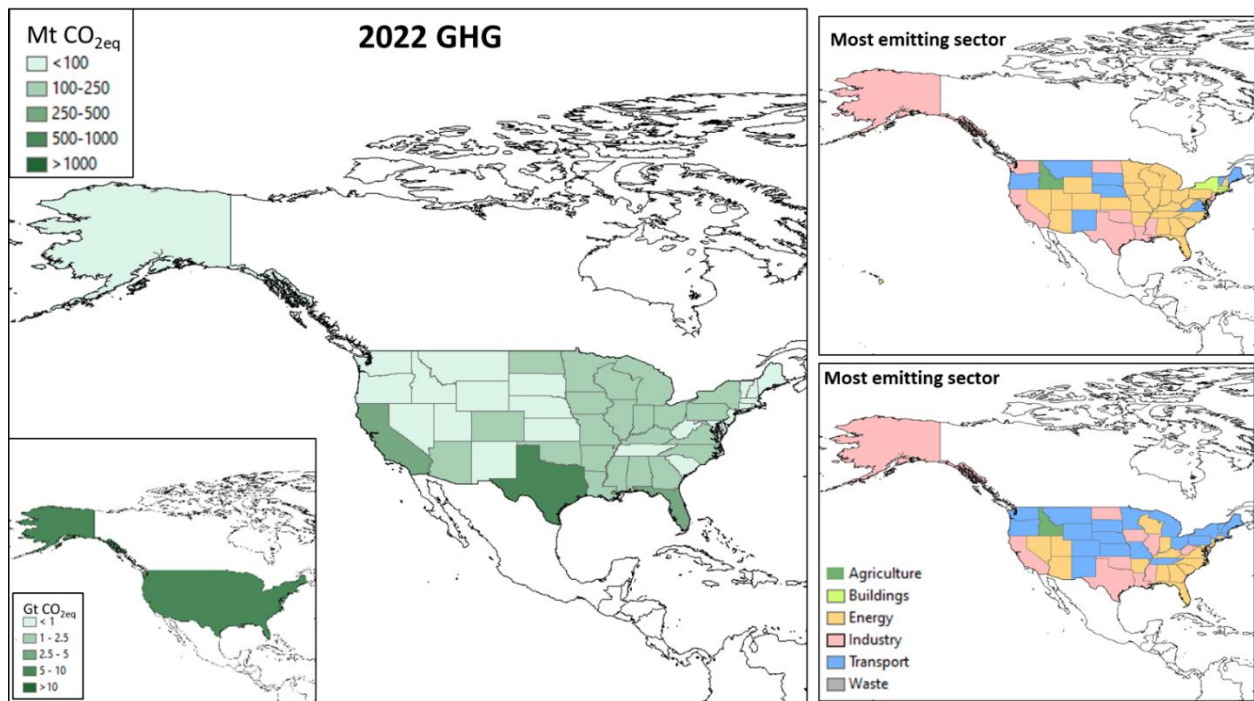
542 6.3. Subnational emissions in the United States, China and India

543 EDGAR v8.0 also includes GHG emission estimates at the subnational level for the United
 544 States (i.e. estimates for each US state, Figure 13) and for each Chinese province and Indian
 545 state (Figure 14). Based on our analysis, Texas emitted 11.5 % of the total US GHG emissions
 546 in 2022, followed by California with a contribution of 7.7 % and Florida with a share of 4.6 %.
 547 In 1990, Texas and California were the most emitting states, followed by Ohio, Pennsylvania

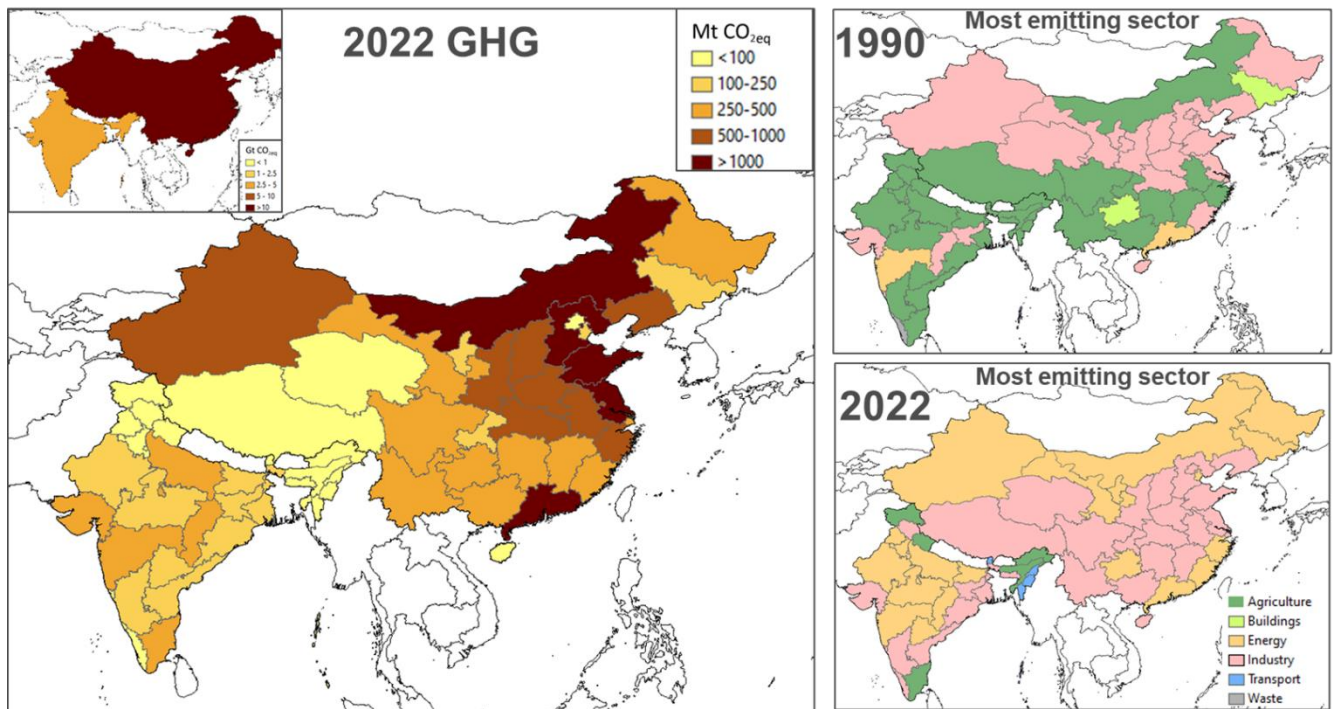
548 and Illinois. Over the past three decades, the sector with the highest share of GHG emissions
 549 at the state level over the United States has changed, with a shift from power generation and
 550 industry towards transport (see Figure 13).

551 In 2022, the five most emitting Chinese provinces contributed around 40 % of China’s total
 552 GHG emissions. These were Shandong (8.9 % of the country total), Guangdong (8.4 %),
 553 Jiangsu (7.4 %), Hebei (6.6 %) and Nei Mongol (6.5 %), findings consistent with other studies
 554 addressing provincial CO₂ and GHG emissions in China (Jiang et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2020).
 555 In 1990, the top five emitting provinces were Shandong (8.1 %), Hebei (6.5 %), Jiangsu
 556 (6.2 %), Henan (5.9 %) and Nei Mongol (5.8 %), contributing around 30 % to China’s total
 557 GHG emissions.

558 In 2022, five Indian states contributed around 50 % of the country’s total GHG emissions,
 559 namely Maharashtra (11.8 %), Tamil Nadu (11.7 %), Uttar Pradesh (8.1 %), Gujarat (8.0 %)
 560 and Chhattisgarh (6.6 %). In 1990, the most emitting Indian states were Tamil Nadu (18.4 %),
 561 Maharashtra (9.5 %), Uttar Pradesh (9.3 %), West Bengal (6.6 %) and Andhra Pradesh (6.0 %).
 562 Compared with the US and European cases, the picture is different over the Asian domain in
 563 terms of the top emitting sectors at the subnational level (Figure 14). The effect of India’s
 564 economic growth and its transition from an agricultural economy to a more industrialised
 565 economy can be seen in Figure 14 (right panels). As a result, the sectors with the highest share
 566 of GHG emissions changed from agriculture (in 1990) to energy and industry (in 2022) over
 567 China and India, with the exception of a few regions (e.g. Tamil Nadu, Assam, Jammu and
 568 Kashmir, Uttarakhand) that still had an agriculture-based economy in 2022. This type of
 569 information and analysis is instrumental for the definition of effective sector-specific climate
 570 change mitigation actions at the subnational level.



571
 572 **Figure 13 – 2022 GHG emissions at the subnational level in the United States (left panel) and the sector**
 573 **with the highest contribution to total emissions in 1990 and 2022 for each US state (right panels).**



574

575 **Figure 14 – 2022 GHG emissions at the subnational level over the Asian domain, with a focus on China and**
 576 **India (left panel) and the sector with the highest contribution in 1990 and 2022 for each Chinese province**
 577 **and Indian state (right panels).**

578 **7. Data availability**

579 The EDGAR v8.0 GHG global emission maps can be freely accessed at
 580 <https://doi.org/10.2905/b54d8149-2864-4fb9-96b9-5fd3a020c224> (Crippa, 2023a). The
 581 EDGAR v8.0 subnational emissions can be accessed at [https://doi.org/10.2905/D67EEDA8-](https://doi.org/10.2905/D67EEDA8-C03E-4421-95D0-0ADC460B9658)
 582 [C03E-4421-95D0-0ADC460B9658](https://doi.org/10.2905/D67EEDA8-C03E-4421-95D0-0ADC460B9658) (Crippa et al., 2023b). All data can also be accessed
 583 through the EDGAR website at https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/dataset_ghg80 and
 584 https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/dataset_ghg80_nuts2.

585 Data are made available as emission grid maps for each species and for total GHGs as .txt and
 586 .nc files with emissions expressed in tonnes substance per $0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$ per year. Emission fluxes
 587 are available as .nc files and they are expressed in kilograms substance per m^2 per second.
 588 Emission maps are available as both total and sector-specific emissions.

589 **8. Conclusions**

590 Climate targets are often set at the global and national levels; however, their implementation
 591 may occur at the subnational level. It is therefore of the utmost relevance to develop subnational
 592 GHG emission estimates for policy development and to monitor progress towards climate
 593 targets or to evaluate their impacts.

594 This work summarises the main updates to EDGAR concerning the use of high-resolution and
 595 up-to-date spatial information to improve the global geospatial disaggregation of GHG
 596 emissions at the subnational level. Having accurate and up-to-date sector-specific global maps
 597 of GHG emissions at high spatial resolution ($0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$) is instrumental for the design of
 598 effective climate change mitigation options beyond (inter)national climate targets. EDGAR
 599 v8.0 spatial proxies include globally consistent spatial data derived, for example, from the

600 Global Energy Monitor, the GHSL work, satellite-based information for computing HDDs or
601 for identifying hotspots from agricultural activities, STEAM for ship tracking and many other
602 global datasets. The use of satellite data to improve the EDGAR spatial proxies represents a
603 successful cooperation between bottom-up inventory compilers and the Earth observation
604 community and the potential to integrate relevant satellite-based datasets and statistical
605 information. In addition, EDGAR v8.0 integrates spatial information from local databases (e.g.
606 EPRTTR for Europe, EIA data for the United States) when including data more detailed than
607 that available in global databases.

608 Continuous updates and improvements in the spatial data used to downscale national emissions
609 over the global grid are required to accurately represent trends in emission sources and their
610 location. The strength and uniqueness of the EDGAR work arises from its global coverage and
611 consistency in computing and representing emissions for all countries, thus becoming a
612 reference for many countries with limited capabilities to estimate their emissions. However,
613 several challenges are associated with the use of global databases, in particular dealing with
614 the collection of point sources. Therefore, the use of local data, if available, is recommended
615 when performing analysis at the highest spatial resolution (e.g. at the city level).

616 A further improvement in EDGAR is related to the inclusion of subnational information,
617 representing a unique feature that can address in a consistent way the evaluation of spatial
618 patterns in trends in subnational GHG emissions. Such spatial resolution and subnational
619 sector-specific variability prepares the ground for the production of city-level emission data
620 records, as used, for example, in the Urban Centre Database
621 (https://ghsl.jrc.ec.europa.eu/ghs_stat_ucdb2015mt_r2019a.php). In this paper, a few case
622 studies are presented, with the main focus on the European case where the EDGAR subnational
623 data are regularly used as input to the European semesters and contribute to climate action
624 territorial and cohesion policies through the EU cohesion reports.

625 The EDGAR v8.0 data release provides an improved GHG dataset that could be useful for air
626 quality modellers but also for policymakers willing to analyse subnational GHG emission
627 patterns. Future EDGAR activities will focus on delivering an updated dataset for air pollutants,
628 including the latest spatial information made available through this work.

629

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635 CO₂, EDGAR CH₄, EDGAR N₂O and EDGAR F-gases version 8.0 (2023). The IASI-NH₃
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637 project (<https://www.world-emission.com/>). The Université libre de Bruxelles also gratefully
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803 **Table 1 – Overview of updated spatial proxies in EDGAR v8.0, including data sources**
 804 **and methods**

Sector and spatial coverage	Old EDGAR proxies	New EDGAR proxies	Details of new EDGAR proxies	Period covered	Data access
Power plants (global)	CARMA v3.0 (no longer available): 2004, 2009, 2014, fuel type derived from plant capacity (assumption)	Global Coal Plant Tracker / Global Oil and Gas Plant Tracker (Global Energy Monitor)	Coal, gas	1970–2050	https://globalenergymonitor.org/projects/global-coal-plant-tracker/ and https://globalenergymonitor.org/projects/global-gas-plant-tracker/ (2022)
		Global Power Plant Database v1.3.0	Biomass, other, oil		https://datasets.wri.org/dataset/globalpowerplantdatabase
		US EIA	USA power plants, all fuels	All	https://atlas.eia.gov/datasets/eia::power-plants/explore?location=41.629235%2C-118.496000%2C3.79
		CARMA v3.0	Autoproducers, missing countries	2004, 2009, 2014	http://carma.org/
All other industries (Europe)	EPRTR v4*	EPRTR, v18	All industries and waste plants (with the exception of power plants, iron and steel plants, and coal mines)	2007–2017	https://www.eea.europa.eu/data-and-maps/data/member-states-reporting-art-7-under-the-european-pollutant-release-and-transfer-register-e-prtr-regulation-23/european-pollutant-release-and-transfer-register-e-prtr-data-base/eprtr_v9_csv.zip
Iron and steel (global)	In-house EDGAR	Global steel plant tracker (Global Energy Monitor)		1970–2050	https://globalenergymonitor.org/projects/global-steel-plant-tracker/

Coal mines (global)	USGS-derived proxies, Global Energy Observatory (China)	Global Coal Mine Tracker (Global Energy Monitor)	Brown and hard coal, surface and underground	1970–2050	https://globalenergymonitor.org/projects/global-coal-mine-tracker/
		Global Energy Monitor + EIA	United States all fuels, more precise opening and closing years	1970–2050	https://atlas.eia.gov/datasets/eia::coal-mines-1/explore
		EDGAR old proxy	For missing countries	Key years	
Flaring (global)	NOAA-NDGC (2015) VIIRS data (https://www.ngdc.noaa.gov/eog/viirs.html)	<i>Global Gas Flaring Tracker Report</i> (2023)	Used for both venting and flaring activities	2012–2022	https://www.worldbank.org/en/programs/gas-flaringreduction/global-flaring-data
Small-scale combustion (global)	GHSL (1975, 1990, 2000, 2015)	GHSL data package 2023 + HDDs from ERA5	For all fuels	Population every 5 years from 1975 to 2030; HDDs every year from 1970 to 2022	https://ghsl.jrc.ec.europa.eu/ghs_pop2023.php and https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-single-levels?tab=form
Small-scale combustion in agriculture (global)-rural population	GHSL (1975, 1990, 2000, 2015)	GHSL data package 2023, including GHS-SMOD R2023A – GHS settlement layers + HDDs from ERA5	For small-scale combustion in agriculture, which is mostly associated with rural areas	Population every 5 years from 1975 to 2030; HDDs every year from 1970 to 2022	https://ghsl.jrc.ec.europa.eu/ghs_pop2023.php , and https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-single-levels?tab=form
Intensive livestock and fertiliser-manufacturing industries (global)	Livestock density maps	European Space Agency world emission project + intensive livestock point sources were taken from EPRTR v18 for Europe	For intensive livestock and fertiliser industry + gap filling with livestock density map	2008–2022	https://www.world-emission.com/
Gap filling of industrial activities (global)	Population based	Built-up for non-residential areas from GHSL data package 2023	It is used entirely when no information is available or for attributing a fraction of	Every 5 years from 1975	https://ghsl.jrc.ec.europa.eu/ghs_buS2023.php

			emissions that is not allocated to point sources	to 2030	
International shipping	In-house EDGAR proxy based on long-range identification and tracking and Wang et al. (2007) and Alessandrini et al. (2017)	STEAM	Based on CO ₂ emissions for multiple vessels and multiple years	2000–2018	Jalkanen et al. (2012) Johansson et al. (2017)

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