



A global dataset of high-resolution CO₂ enhancements derived from OCO-3 measurements

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Abstract. We present a novel global dataset of CO₂ enhancements (ΔXCO_2) derived by fusing NASA's OCO-3 satellite and NOAA ground-based observations. CO₂ enhancements quantify the spatially resolved excess in atmospheric CO₂ concentrations arising from anthropogenic emissions, biospheric CO₂ exchanges, and atmospheric CO₂ transport. Leveraging decades of monthly CO₂ measurements from eight remote stations strictly selected from NOAA ESRL network, such as the Mauna Loa station, we address the critical challenge of isolating localized CO₂ signals from background concentrations by developing a latitude-dependent global CO₂ baseline model that effectively captures spatial and seasonal variability in background CO₂. The developed baseline model demonstrates near-perfect hemispheric predictive accuracy (Northern: $R^2=0.988$, RMSE=1.78 ppm; Southern: $R^2=0.995$, RMSE=1.09 ppm). Spatially explicit ΔXCO_2 is then estimated by removing the column-corrected background CO₂ from co-located OCO-3 observations. Validations of the estimated ΔXCO_2 against tropospheric NO₂ ($R^2=0.896$) and prior in-situ urban CO₂ measurements, along with the dataset's high spatiotemporal resolution ($\sim 3 \text{ km}^2$), demonstrates its potential for tracking anthropogenic and biospheric CO₂ dynamics. Global ΔXCO_2 maps reveal mean CO₂ enhancements of 0.58 ± 1.81 ppm, with urban areas exhibiting 1.5-fold higher enhancements (1.43 ± 2.04 ppm). North Hemisphere land areas exhibits an approximately 81% higher ΔXCO_2 average (0.67 ± 1.98 ppm) compared to the South Hemisphere (0.37 ± 1.32 ppm), with urban enhancements amplifying this hemispheric contrast up to 95%. Comprising 54 million observations across more than 200 countries, this open-access dataset provides an alternative metric for monitoring complex atmospheric CO₂ variability and actionable insights for regional climate policies, available at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.15209825>.

1 Introduction

Mapping global CO₂ enhancements with fine spatio-temporal resolution is essential for tracking anthropogenic and natural CO₂ sources, validating emission inventories and climate models, and assessing localized climate impacts, including effects on agricultural productivity. The CO₂ enhancement (ΔXCO_2) quantifies the combined influence of anthropogenic carbon emissions, the net CO₂ exchange between vegetation and the atmosphere, and large-scale atmospheric transport processes



(Kiel et al., 2021; Mitchell et al., 2018; Reuter et al., 2019; Lei et al., 2022). A positive ΔXCO_2 signifies the net positive impacts of CO_2 sources and sinks with atmospheric transport processes on accumulation of atmospheric CO_2 concentration (Park et al., 2021; Kiel et al., 2021; Mitchell et al., 2018). ΔXCO_2 can become negative when enhanced terrestrial CO_2 uptake surpassing the amount emitted and atmospheric conditions such as prevailing wind result in a net decline in atmospheric CO_2 compared to long-term baseline. Accurate global ΔXCO_2 measurements are critical for understanding the current net contributions of local human and plant activities on atmospheric CO_2 increases. These fundamental measurements underpin the development of targeted strategies for future emission cuts and climate mitigation. Nevertheless, a comprehensive global dataset of CO_2 enhancements remains absent.

Carbon satellites have been reported as objective, independent data sources for monitoring spatiotemporal disparities of atmospheric CO_2 conditions (Pan et al., 2021; Nisbet and Weiss, 2010; Schwandner et al., 2017), by providing the top-down observations of column-averaged dry-air mole fraction of CO_2 (XCO_2 ; ppm). Satellite-derived CO_2 observations enhance data disclosure, transparency, and data equity especially in underdeveloped countries where data infrastructure is lacking and the accounting capacity of environmental departments is often weak. Moreover, the global coverage and high spatiotemporal resolution of satellite instruments are key advantages that support the characterization of large-scale fine-grained atmospheric CO_2 levels. These capabilities, first, enable effective comparisons among multiple sites, cities, and countries; second, help refine the general patterns underlying local CO_2 variability, and ultimately, aid CO_2 mitigation efficacy by facilitating local governments making dynamic and targeted decisions.

Mapping ΔXCO_2 based on satellite remote-sensing data remains challenging, although CO_2 satellites have been popular for global atmospheric observations (Streets et al., 2013). The century-long persistence of CO_2 causes the immensely strong signal and notable spatial variability of background CO_2 concentration in the atmosphere, even in desert-like places (Hakkarainen et al., 2019). This accumulation masks the true CO_2 signals from local human and natural processes. Localized atmospheric CO_2 fluctuations are around two orders of magnitude smaller than the background CO_2 concentration (Canadell et al., 2023; Reuter et al., 2019). This substantial difference complicates the global differentiation of enhanced CO_2 signals from the accumulative trend of background CO_2 . Therefore, a key step in isolating localized ΔXCO_2 is deducting accurate fine-resolution background CO_2 concentration from the satellite CO_2 observations.

Satellite-driven ΔXCO_2 measurements are typically single site-specific, individual city-specific, or estimated from multiple-site gradients, rather than offering spatially-continuous coverage. Previous efforts to correct background CO_2 concentration have struggled with scale and seasonal sensitivity (Lindenmaier et al., 2014; Verhulst et al., 2017; Zeng et al., 2021; Miller et al., 2020; Che et al., 2024; Kort et al., 2012; Schneising et al., 2013). These issues constrain the effectiveness in delivering large-scale spatial analysis for fine-resolution ΔXCO_2 data. Site-specific ΔXCO_2 estimates are derived from the difference between satellite observation of atmospheric CO_2 and CO_2 records at ground-truth stations with minimal human and plant interference. These ground-truth stations include remote in-site stations from the Total Carbon Column Observing Network (Kiel et al., 2021) and mountaintop CO_2 observation sites in Salt Lake County, North America (Mitchell et al., 2018). City-specific ΔXCO_2 estimates rely on the deviations of satellite observations in urban centers from the daily median (Hakkarainen et al., 2016; Park et al., 2021) or monthly median (Labzovskii et al., 2019) remote-sensing CO_2 observations in rural areas assuming that rural



atmospheric CO₂ concentration should be considerably lower than that in urban cores (Wu et al., 2020; Reuter et al., 2019; Ye et al., 2020). The former site-specific approach cannot be effectively generalized for regional or global applications due to significant spatial heterogeneity in atmospheric conditions. The latter city-specific approach is sensitive to the seasonal timing of satellite overpasses, since seasonal biospheric-atmospheric CO₂ fluxes obscure the differentiation of urban-derived ΔXCO₂ signals from background CO₂ concentration in the rural areas. This limited generalizability can be in large part improved by leveraging the cooperative air sampling network of the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA), which provide a range of remote marine stations for the developments of latitudinal references for background CO₂ concentration (Masarie and Tans, 1995; Tans et al., 1989). However, the continental-to-global spatial scales along multiple-site gradients of atmospheric background CO₂ (Mitchell et al., 2018) remain too coarse for precisely tracking background CO₂ dynamics in cities. This underscores the need for more spatially-explicit measurement techniques to better characterize subtle ΔXCO₂ variations within cities that contribute significant shares to global emissions (Duren and Miller, 2012).

To present both globally comprehensive and locally representative measurements of ΔXCO₂, we leverage a NASA's new Orbiting Carbon Observatory 3 (OCO-3) satellite that offers the state-of-the-art highest resolution observations (≈ 3 km²) covering the period from August 2019 to November 2023, and further remove atmospheric background CO₂ corrected from a novel global CO₂ baseline model based on ground-sourced CO₂ data from the Global Monitoring Laboratory (NOAA ESRL network). The satellite-derived dataset of global CO₂ enhancements enables objective, timely and spatially-explicit diagnosis of net impacts of CO₂ sources, sinks, and transport on atmospheric CO₂ increases, contributing to sub-city scale decision making on global net-zero strategies and climate actions.

75 2 Methods

This work develops a novel dataset of global CO₂ enhancements from 2019 to 2023 by integrating satellite-derived and ground-sourced CO₂ observations. Fig. 1 demonstrates the dataset involved and the main workflows. The following three subsections elaborate on carbon satellite XCO₂ product (XCO₂), the global CO₂ baseline estimation (CO_{2*b*}), and the global CO₂ enhancements (ΔXCO₂), respectively.

80 2.1 Satellite-retrieved XCO₂ Observations

Satellite-derived XCO₂ observations (column-averaged dry air mole fraction of CO₂; ppm) are from the Orbiting Carbon Observatory 3 (OCO-3). This NASA satellite, launched in 2019, collects the global magnitude and distribution of atmospheric CO₂ concentrations with the highest spatial-temporal resolution to date, allowing it to track XCO₂ variations with a grid resolution of 2.2×1.6 km². Studies have proven that the OCO-3 is capable of detecting localized emission sources by giving diurnal and geographically diverse XCO₂ observations (Kiel et al., 2021; Schwandner et al., 2017) and are less vulnerable to the impacts of small-scale atmospheric processes on the accuracy of local emission accounting (McKain et al., 2012). We use OCO-3 Level 2 bias-corrected XCO₂, version 10.4r data (OCO3_L2_Lite_FP), which is publicly available through the NASA Goddard Earth Science Data and Information Services Center (GES DISC) (<http://disc.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/>). We filter the OCO-

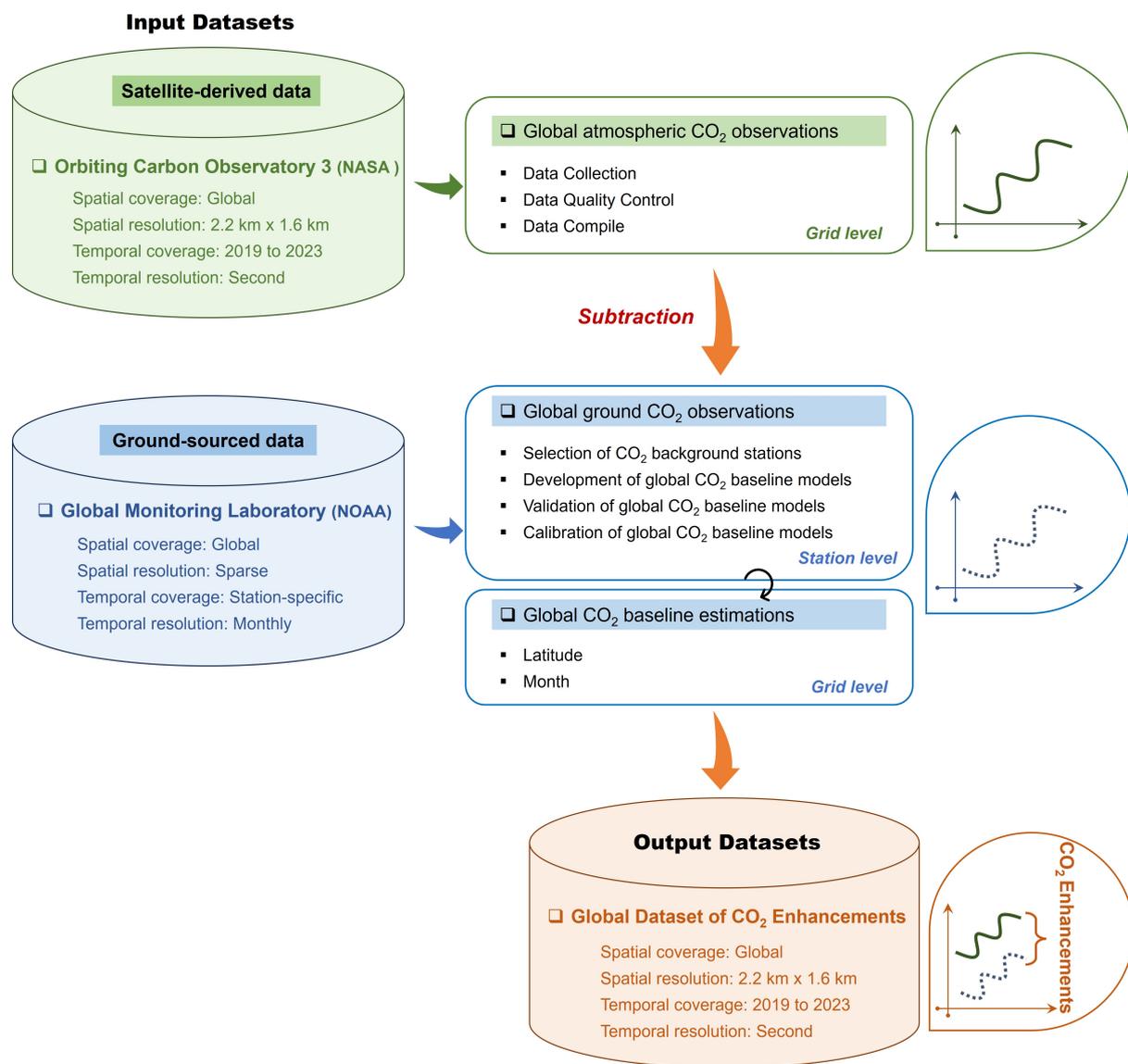


Fig. 1. A conceptual diagram of the generation process of the global CO₂ enhancements dataset.



Table 1. The descriptive statistics of OCO-3 XCO₂ product.

Periods	Number of Observations	Mean (ppm)	1 st quantile (ppm)	99 th quantile (ppm)
2019-08 to 2019-12	3,807,526	408.49	402.39	413.67
2020-01 to 2020-12	15,045,735	411.52	405.17	416.70
2021-01 to 2021-12	13,526,529	414.17	408.36	419.57
2022-01 to 2022-12	12,383,251	416.44	409.86	421.94
2023-01 to 2023-11	9,685,130	418.49	412.58	424.02
Total	54,448,171	414.33	405.29	422.60

3 dataset using the ‘Quality flag’. Quality flag 0 indicates high-quality remote-sensing data for scientific analysis. The full window of August 2019 through November 2023 with 90,714,334 XCO₂ samples is covered, of which, a total of 54,448,171 terrestrial observations are used for developing global XCO₂ dataset (Table 1).

2.2 Global CO₂ Baseline Estimation

2.2.1 Selection of global CO₂ background stations

Global Monitoring Laboratory (GML) within the Earth System Research Laboratories (ESRL) of NOAA operates a wide network of global ground-truth stations that accurately monitor long-term near-surface CO₂ levels. These stations are strategically deployed based on their geographical locations to represent background CO₂ concentrations.

The global CO₂ background stations are first required to be situated at considerable distances from urban infrastructures and anthropogenic activities to minimize human interference. Utilizing the global ESA Sentinel-2 10m land use/land cover map (Zanaga et al., 2022) to detect urban areas, we select monitoring stations that exhibit less than 2% built-up land cover within a radius of 5 kilometers (10×10 km² area). To further minimize local ‘contamination’ from dense vegetation, we additionally select stations with an Enhanced Vegetation Index (EVI) of less than 0.3 within the predefined box size, based on MODIS Vegetation Index Products (Didan, 2021). Moreover, sea-level flask samples are excluded to minimize the influence of air-ocean exchanges. This approach, different from NOAA’s marine station selection (Conway and others, 1994), focuses exclusively on terrestrial sampling stations and provides enhanced representations of terrestrial CO₂ patterns. Stations situated within the Arctic and Antarctic circles, where carbon cycles exhibit unique characteristics (Bruhwiler et al., 2021), as well as those positioned downwind of emission sources, are similarly screened out. In addition, we conduct a visual inspection of the built-up surfaces and vegetation characteristics within a 5-km buffer zone around each monitoring station to avoid misguidance in station selection due to local heterogeneity. This examination is especially crucial for island stations, which often lack detailed land use and vegetation cover data. On this basis, we exclude stations with nearby vegetation or built-up areas, even if these are minimal within the buffer zone. In accordance with baseline modelling requirements, we ensure that the selected background stations have CO₂ time series data for at least 10 years between 2000 and 2023.



Of the 88 active sites across 38 countries from the Global Monitoring Laboratory (NOAA ESRL network), a total of eight CO₂ background stations with wide latitudinal and longitudinal coverage (Fig. 2, Table 2) are chosen to model the global CO₂ baseline.

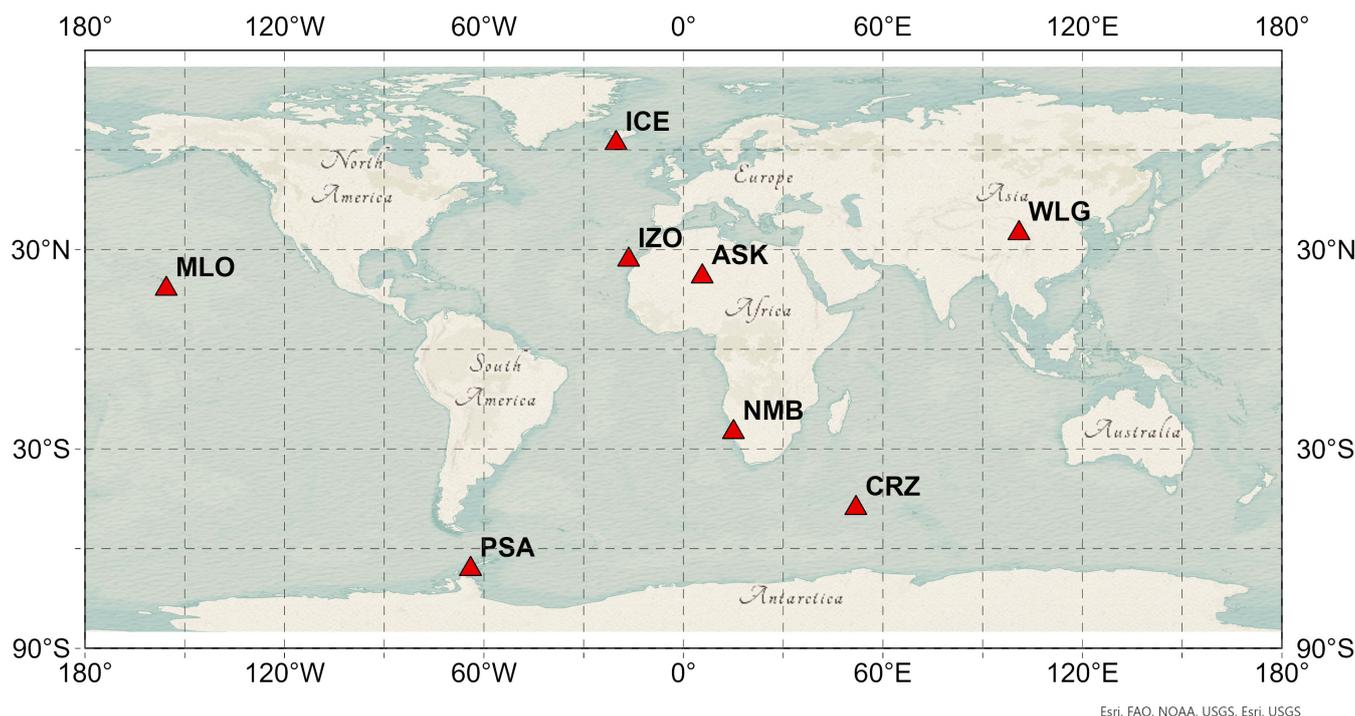


Fig. 2. The locations of eight CO₂ background stations. Station codes and names are highlighted in bold, including ICE: Storhofdi, Vestmannaeyjar; WLG: Mt. Waliguan; IZO: Izana, Tenerife, Canary Islands; ASK: Assekrem; MLO: Mauna Loa, Hawaii; NMB: Gobabeb; CRZ: Crozet Island; PSA: Palmer Station, Antarctica. Sources of Basemap: Esri, TomTom, Garmin, FAO, NOAA, USGS, © OpenStreetMap contributors, and the GIS User Community.

115 2.2.2 Development of a global CO₂ baseline model

We construct a global model to estimate spatio-temporal CO₂ baseline (CO_{2b}) using a simple and interpretable near-sinusoidal growth function (Eq.1). The mathematical form is an addition of a sinusoidal function and a linear function, both depending on a time parameter, m , denoting the number of months since January 2000. While the sinusoidal function simulates the wave-like periodicity and oscillation of seasonal CO₂ swings caused by seasonal changes in ecosystem photosynthesis and respiration (Arrigo et al., 1987; Hall et al., 1975), the linear function simulates the long-term trend of atmospheric CO₂ concentration, which has been documented for decades (Groves et al., 1978). $\pi/6$ is the unit angle of one month in the sinusoidal function. f is the frequency of CO₂ seasonal variations. ϕ_h signifies the phase shift due to the inconsistent interhemispheric seasonality. ϵ_h denotes a residual term. h can be North or South Hemisphere.



Table 2. The location, percentages of built-up area, vegetation greenness, and satellite images of CO₂ background stations. The red triangles are the locations of background stations. Source: Google Maps (© Google, accessed July 11, 2024)

Station	Location	Built-up Percentage (%)	Average EVI	Data Range	Satellite Images
ICE	63.400°North, 20.288°West	0.00	0.14	1992-2023	
WLG	36.288°North, 100.896°East	0.00	0.21	1990-2023	
IZO	28.309°North, 16.499°West	0.31	0.17	1991-2023	
ASK	23.263°North, 5.632°East	0.00	0.05	1995-2023	
MLO	19.536°North, 155.576°West	0.00	0.00	1969-2023	
NMB	23.580°South, 15.030°East	0.23	0.07	1997-2023	
CRZ	46.434°South, 51.848°East	0.02	0.21	1991-2023	
PSA	64.774°South, 64.053°West	0.00	NoData	1978-2023	



Further, we allow parameters, $\beta_{2,h}$, $\beta_{1,h}$, and $\beta_{0,h}$, in Eq.1 to be linearly dependent on latitude, l (Eq.2), considering that
125 latitudinal gradient exerts considerable influence on human activities (Lei et al., 2021), naturally terrestrial biota, and air
transmission through the troposphere (Denning et al., 1995) and thereby affecting the spatiotemporal distributions of CO₂
baseline levels (Conway and Tans, 1999; Shim et al., 2013). Specifically, studies reported a non-linear latitude dependence of
seasonal CO₂ amplitude from the South Pole to the North Pole (Yun et al., 2022; Forkel et al., 2016; Heimann et al., 1998).
The seasonal CO₂ amplitude varies slightly with latitude in the South Hemisphere whereas it shows a reinforced trend at high
130 latitudes in the North Hemisphere. The growth rate of atmospheric CO₂ is also sensitive to latitude (Taylor and Orr, 2000).
 $\beta_{0,h}(l)$ represents the latitude-dependent prehistoric CO₂ concentration. In addition, Eq.3 ensures that baseline estimations in
the North and South Hemispheres are continuous at the equator.

$$CO_{2b,h}(l, m) = \beta_{2,h}(l) \cdot \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{6} \cdot m \cdot f + \phi_h\right) + \beta_{1,h}(l) \cdot m + \beta_{0,h}(l) + \epsilon_h, \quad h \in \{south, north\} \quad (1)$$

$$135 \quad \beta_{i,h}(l) = \beta_{1,i,h} \cdot l + \beta_{0,i,h} + \epsilon_{i,h}, \quad i \in \{0, 1, 2\} \quad (2)$$

$$\text{subject to, } CO_{2b,south}(0, m) = CO_{2b,north}(0, m) \quad (3)$$

The global CO₂ baseline model is constructed using 2,097 monthly observations collected between 2000 and 2023 from
eight selected CO₂ background stations. This model has achieved near-perfect goodness-of-fit with R²=0.988 and RMSE=1.78
140 for North-Hemisphere curves, and R²=0.995 and RMSE=1.09 for South-Hemisphere curves. Fig. 3 illustrates time-series CO₂
observations and estimations at eight CO₂ background stations. For model simplicity, the student's t-test are applied to examine
the statistical significance of all model parameters and only the significant ones (p-value < 0.05) remain in the final model.
Eq.4 and 5 represent estimated CO₂ baseline models respectively for the North and South Hemispheres. These should be able
to offer accurate estimates of CO₂ baseline levels at any latitude without being constrained by ground-truth station layout.

$$145 \quad CO_{2b,north} = -0.625 \cdot \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{6} \cdot m \cdot 1.002 + 0.846\right) + 0.129 \cdot l \cdot \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{6} \cdot m \cdot 1.002\right) + 0.186 \cdot m + 0.035 \cdot l + 366.240 \quad (4)$$

$$CO_{2b,south} = -0.625 \cdot \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{6} \cdot m \cdot 1.002 + 0.846\right) + (1.180e^{-4} \cdot l + 0.186) \cdot m + 0.027 \cdot l + 366.240 \quad (5)$$

$$CO_{2b}(0, m) = -0.625 \cdot \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{6} \cdot m \cdot 1.002 + 0.846\right) + 0.186 \cdot m + 366.240 \quad (6)$$

150 2.2.3 Sensitivity Analysis

Parameter sensitivity analysis is performed to examine the robustness of the developed global CO₂ baseline model over dif-
ferent criteria for background station selection. Multi-criteria combinations of the percentage of built-up areas, the EVI-based
vegetation greenness, and buffer size of background stations are used for this purpose. By setting the thresholds of built-up
percentages at 2% and 5%, the thresholds of EVI values at 0.2 and 0.3, and the thresholds of buffer radius at 2.5 km and 5.0
155 km, we compare the selected CO₂ background stations and their fitting performances. The background CO₂ estimations are
highly stable and not sensitive to changes in background station selection criteria (Table 3).

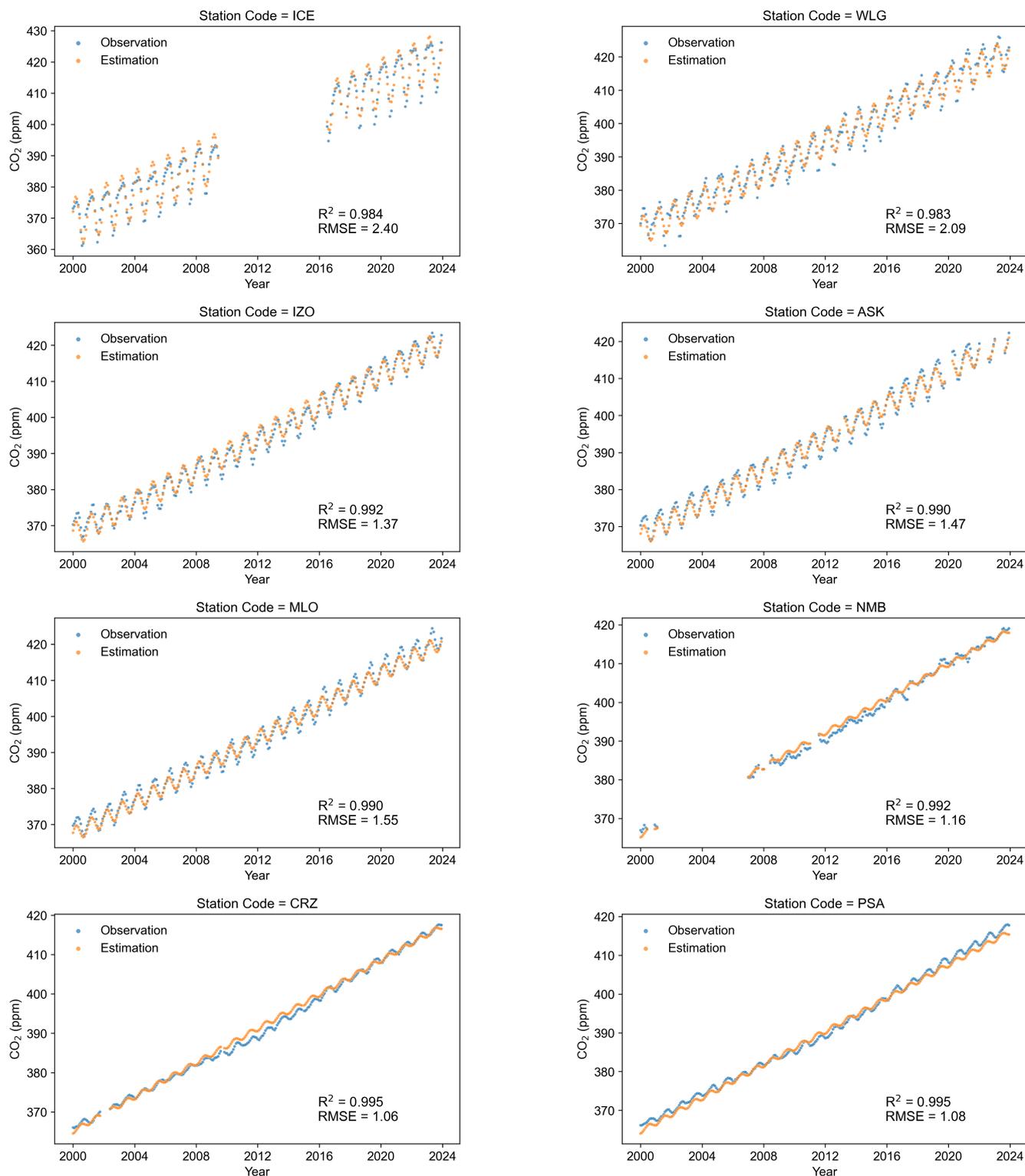


Fig. 3. The performance of the developed global CO₂ baseline model at eight CO₂ background stations.



Table 3. The sensitivity test of the estimated global CO₂ baseline model

Buffer Radius: 2.5 km		
Built-up Percentage (%)	Average EVI	Model Performance
< 2%	< 0.2	North Hemisphere Model: R ² =0.989; RMSE=1.67
		South Hemisphere Model: R ² =0.994; RMSE=1.10
< 5%	< 0.2	North Hemisphere Model: R ² =0.989; RMSE=1.67
		South Hemisphere Model: R ² =0.994; RMSE=1.10
< 2%	< 0.3	North Hemisphere Model: R ² =0.988; RMSE=1.78
		South Hemisphere Model: R ² =0.995; RMSE=1.09
< 5%	< 0.3	North Hemisphere Model: R ² =0.986; RMSE=1.88
		South Hemisphere Model: R ² =0.994; RMSE=1.10
Buffer Radius: 5.0 km		
Built-up Percentage (%)	Average EVI	Model Performance
< 2%	< 0.2	North Hemisphere Model: R ² =0.989; RMSE=1.67
		South Hemisphere Model: R ² =0.994; RMSE=1.10
< 5%	< 0.2	North Hemisphere Model: R ² =0.989; RMSE=1.67
		South Hemisphere Model: R ² =0.994; RMSE=1.10
< 2%	< 0.3	North Hemisphere Model: R ² =0.988; RMSE=1.78
		South Hemisphere Model: R ² =0.995; RMSE=1.09
< 5%	< 0.3	North Hemisphere Model: R ² =0.988; RMSE=1.78
		South Hemisphere Model: R ² =0.995; RMSE=1.09

2.3 A global dataset of CO₂ enhancements

The CO₂ enhancements, ΔXCO_2 , is estimated as the difference between remote-sensing CO₂ observations (XCO_2) and a column-average concentration equivalent of the CO₂ baseline (XCO_{2b}) (Eq.7), considering the vertical profile of atmospheric CO₂ by altitude (Bischof et al., 1980). We derived XCO_{2b} by applying a linear calibration function to CO_{2b} , based on 28,397 co-located observations from OCO-3 and CO₂ background stations (R²=0.909). The calibration function, with both its coefficients and constant terms linearly dependent on latitude due to the sensitivity of atmospheric vertical mixing and circulation to latitude changes (Monte-carlo and Sun, 1985; Huth et al., 2008), can scale ground-sourced CO₂ observations to satellite-based column average concentration.

$$\Delta XCO_2 = XCO_2 - XCO_{2b} \quad (7)$$



3 Dataset description

This study develops a cutting-edge dataset featuring instantaneous and highest-resolution ($\approx 3 \text{ km}^2$) estimates of global CO_2 enhancements, which contains 54,448,171 ΔXCO_2 observations across terrestrial regions (between approximately 52.88°S and 53.58°N) from August 2019 to November 2023. Of them, 1,231,856 ΔXCO_2 samples locate in urban areas, as defined by a published global urban extents map (Zhao et al., 2022). The dataset's high spatiotemporal resolution enables precise detection of short-term CO_2 enhancements driven by human activities and natural processes. For long-term evolution of atmospheric CO_2 burden, monthly or annual aggregations are recommended.

However, the spatio-temporal coverage of ΔXCO_2 is incomplete owing to OCO-3 observations loss attributed to cloud coverage and other data quality issues (Table. 1). Users are advised to examine the data coverage within their specific study area. Efforts are underway to mitigate this problem leveraging spatio-temporal interpolation techniques (Wu et al., 2024). Ongoing improvements of dataset coverage are expected as OCO-3 observations accumulate. A future work will involve cross-verifying background CO_2 estimates at a regional scale to ensure the consistency and accuracy of baseline models at different spatial resolutions.

The global dataset of CO_2 enhancements is stored in a NetCDF file with data attributes including latitude, longitude, time, satellite-derived CO_2 , and CO_2 enhancements. At the time of writing this article, this dataset has been updated to November 2023. Future updates will also be available alongside with newly available OCO-3 data and NOAA ESRL station data.

4 Results and discussion

4.1 Dataset validation

4.1.1 Validation against tropospheric NO_2 measurements

The validation of this developed CO_2 enhancements dataset is performed by comparing ΔXCO_2 values in urban areas with co-located tropospheric NO_2 columns. This is a well-accepted approach because of the CO_2 - NO_x co-emission (Dou et al., 2023; Huo et al., 2022; Lei et al., 2022). Due to its shorter lifetime (hours), NO_2 is less affected by long-distance atmospheric transport, making it easier to be detected (Reuter et al., 2014; Richter et al., 2005). It means that the NO_2 column variation can trace the enhanced urban CO_2 compared to the global baseline due to human activities or natural processes (Wang et al., 2020). This study uses the Sentinel-5P TROPOMI Tropospheric NO_2 L2 product (<https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/>), which provides the tropospheric NO_2 column measures at a spatial resolution of $3.5 \times 5.5 \text{ km}^2$. Observations with a quality assurance (qa) value higher than 0.75 are utilized here to ensure trustworthiness. We geospatially match the hourly ΔXCO_2 samples and the co-located NO_2 observed throughout the three-hour window covering one hour before and one hour after the specified hour of the day. We also perform aggregation by averaging the ΔXCO_2 values within the NO_2 grids. Since the NO_2 data is coarser than our dataset, we only use NO_2 grids that have at least three ΔXCO_2 observations to illustrate the relationship

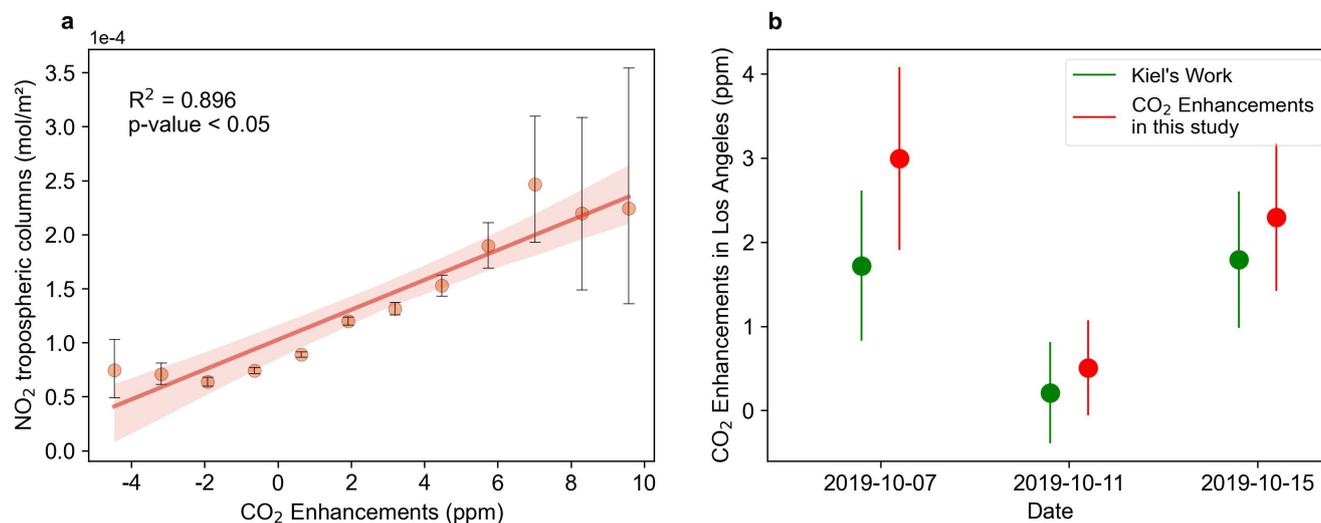


Fig. 4. Validation of global CO₂ enhancements (ΔXCO_2). (a) Relationship between the binned ΔXCO_2 and co-located average NO₂ values in built-up areas worldwide. The error bar denotes the 95% Confidence Interval. (b) Compare the hourly ΔXCO_2 on three days in Los Angeles with a previous study (Kiel et al., 2021). The error bar denotes standard deviations.

between binned ΔXCO_2 and average NO₂ values. Using ΔXCO_2 samples from global built-up regions, we confirm a strong correlation between the proposed CO₂ enhancements and NO₂ values, with $R^2=0.896$ (Fig. 4a).

4.1.2 Comparison with existing urban CO₂ enhancements

We also compare ΔXCO_2 data proposed in this article with a previous urban CO₂ enhancements paper focusing on the Los Angeles megacity which measured background concentration using a remote surface station (Kiel et al., 2021). Kiel et al. (2021) reported intra-urban enhanced CO₂ relative to the background CO₂ for specific one hour on four days. To mitigate the wind impacts on locally atmospheric CO₂, only urban CO₂ observations from three of those days are compared (Fig. 4b). We find that the hourly ΔXCO_2 estimates provided by our datasets align closely with those reported in Kiel et al. (2021). The Mann-Whitney U test, with a p-value of 0.4, indicates insignificant difference between the ΔXCO_2 averages of two datasets. This suggests a great agreement between our CO₂ enhancements dataset and prior works.

4.2 Spatial patterns of global CO₂ enhancements

Fig.5a illustrates the spatial distributions of global ΔXCO_2 measurements aggregated to $2^\circ \times 2^\circ$ grids. From 2019 to 2023, the global land exhibits ΔXCO_2 ranging from -49.86 ppm to 21.25 ppm with an average of 0.58 ppm and a standard deviation of 1.81 ppm (Fig. 5b). North Hemisphere shows an average ΔXCO_2 at 0.67 ppm (std=1.98), which is approximately 81% higher than the average ΔXCO_2 of 0.37 ppm observed in the South Hemisphere (std=1.32) (Fig. 5b). We note that major CO₂ enhancements are concentrated in Eastern and South-Eastern Asia as well as equatorial tropical forests (e.g., Indonesia



forest cover and tropical savannahs) (Fig. 5a). High ΔXCO_2 levels in Eastern and South-Eastern Asia are primarily driven by anthropogenic factors including accelerated socioeconomic development and population growth. In contrast, the elevated ΔXCO_2 near the equator can be attributed to biospheric factors. First, frequent fires in the tropical savannahs of the Sahel-
215 Sudano-Guinean region emit substantial amounts of CO_2 into the atmosphere (Van Der Werf et al., 2017), Second, tropical woody vegetation increasingly functions as net carbon sources due to degradation and deforestation (Baccini et al., 2017).

With fine spatio-temporal resolution, the global dataset of CO_2 enhancements also provides detailed information for monitoring and characterizing ΔXCO_2 within urban areas. There are significant heterogeneity in urban ΔXCO_2 levels across six continents (Fig. 6a). North America has the highest average (mean = 1.76 ppm; std = 2.04 ppm), displaying relatively lower
220 ΔXCO_2 in the east than the west, because larger quantities of plants in the east absorb atmospheric CO_2 and attenuate the ΔXCO_2 levels. Asia follows, with an average of 1.72 ppm and a standard deviation of 2.08 ppm. By comparison, Oceania has the lowest ΔXCO_2 levels, averaging 0.59 ppm (std = 1.27 ppm) from 2019 to 2023.

The ΔXCO_2 values observed in global urban areas range from -16.89 ppm to 18.66 ppm with an average approximation of 1.43 ppm and a standard deviation of 2.04 ppm (Fig. 6b). The urban average ΔXCO_2 worldwide being roughly 1.5 times
225 higher than the global terrestrial mean highlights the significant influence of urban environments on the rise of atmospheric CO_2 levels. Urban areas in the North Hemisphere have an average ΔXCO_2 of 1.52 ppm, about 95% higher than the average level in the counterparts of South Hemisphere (Fig. 6c-d), owing to populated city distributions in the North. Fig. 7 exemplifies the spatial maps of ΔXCO_2 across six global cities. The spatially-explicit ΔXCO_2 values at sub-city scale have been clearly depicted and varying ΔXCO_2 levels between urban areas are also shown.

230 4.3 Temporal dynamics of global CO_2 enhancements

The temporal patterns of global CO_2 enhancements differ between the North and South Hemispheres, both in terms of changes in monthly ΔXCO_2 averages and in their seasonal variability. In the North Hemisphere, the monthly trend of ΔXCO_2 mean has a statistically significant increase (p-value<0.05 tested by a linear least-squares regression) from 2019 to 2023 with a slope of roughly 0.03 ppm per month ($R^2=0.31$). Within North hemisphere urban areas, the monthly ΔXCO_2 mean increases
235 approximately 0.04 ppm per month ($R^2=0.33$) (Fig. 8a). No notable trend in the monthly ΔXCO_2 averages has been detected in the South Hemisphere and its urban areas (Fig. 8b). Moreover, the North Hemisphere, regardless of terrestrial land or urban coverage, experiences more pronounced seasonal fluctuations compared to the South Hemisphere which has lower terrestrial vegetation biomass.

Seasonal disparities in average ΔXCO_2 are evident (Fig. 8c), with the highest average (mean = 1.05 ppm) occurring in
240 autumn in which terrestrial ecosystem increases net carbon release due to stronger total ecosystem respiration relative to gross primary productivity (Tang et al., 2022; Piao et al., 2008). In contrast, spring experiences the lowest average ΔXCO_2 (mean = 0.02 ppm) because of the onset of growing season and reduced human heating and cooling demands (Shen et al., 2014). Human cooling- and heating-caused CO_2 emissions explain the increases in averaged ΔXCO_2 during summer (mean = 0.67 ppm) and winter (mean = 0.40 ppm), respectively, compared to spring.

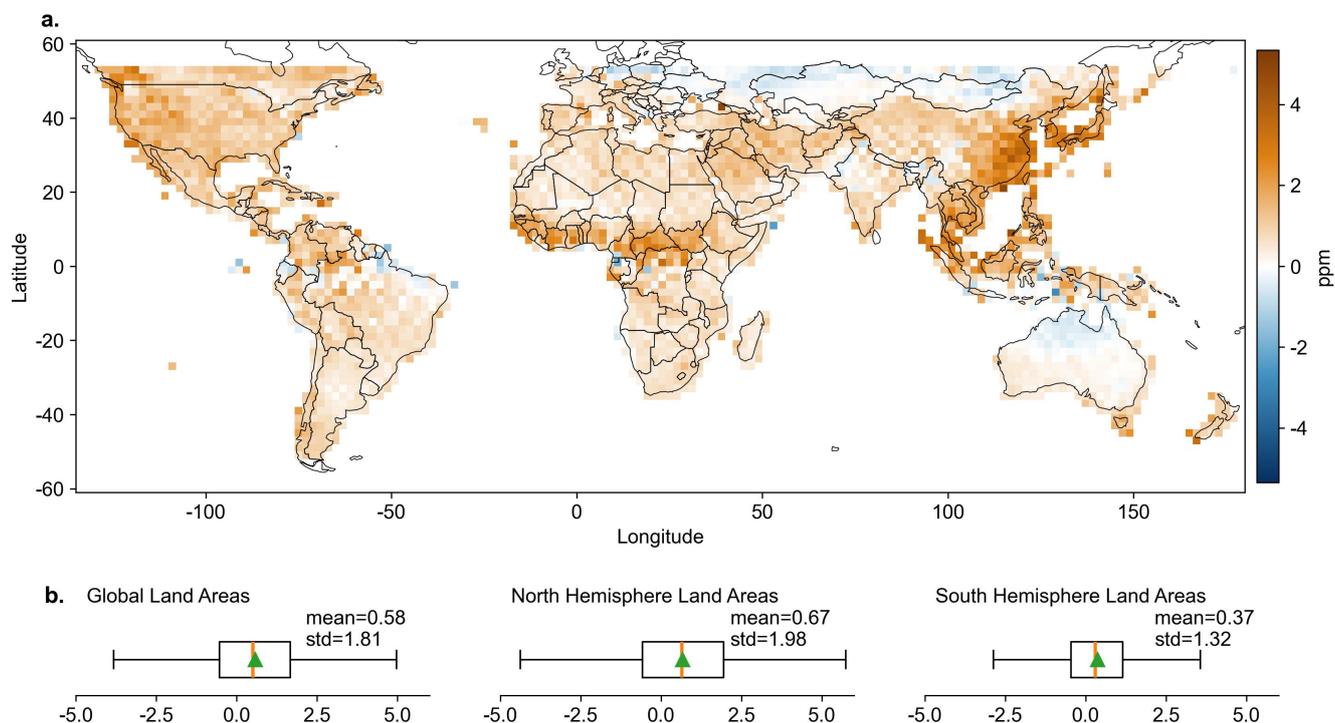


Fig. 5. The spatial map of CO₂ enhancements (ΔXCO_2) in global land areas at grids of 2° latitude by 2° longitude for illustration purpose (a). The box-plots display the ΔXCO_2 distributions at the original resolution ($2.2 \times 1.6 \text{ km}^2$) across land areas globally, as well as within the North and South Hemisphere (b). The ‘whiskers’ of box-plots extend to 1.5 times the Interquartile Range (IQR) from Q1 and Q3, and outliers are hidden. The green triangle denotes the mean value and the orange line signifies the median value.

245 5 Conclusions

We generate a global dataset of CO₂ enhancements relative to the long-term CO₂ baseline, intending to identify ways that satellite-derived retrievals can guide local net-zero target and to foster international partnerships toward achieving carbon neutrality. Through synergistic integration of satellite-derived and ground-sourced CO₂ observations, this dataset provides 54,448,171 and 1,231,856 ΔXCO_2 records in global land areas and global urban areas over 2019-2023, respectively, with high
250 spatial ($\approx 3 \text{ km}^2$) and temporal (instantaneous) resolutions. The spatiotemporal patterns also reveal that this CO₂ enhancements dataset is capable of capturing and characterizing the variability in net effects of carbon sources, sinks, and atmospheric transport on atmospheric CO₂ increases, across the globe and down to minimal intra-city scale.

The core strength of this dataset is to deliver spatially-explicit maps that enable instantaneous monitoring and ensure continuous, equitable tracking of CO₂ enhancements at multiple scales (across continents, countries, and cities). By identifying
255 hot-spots and diagnosing temporal trends via a standardized metric, it equips international and domestic policy-makers with

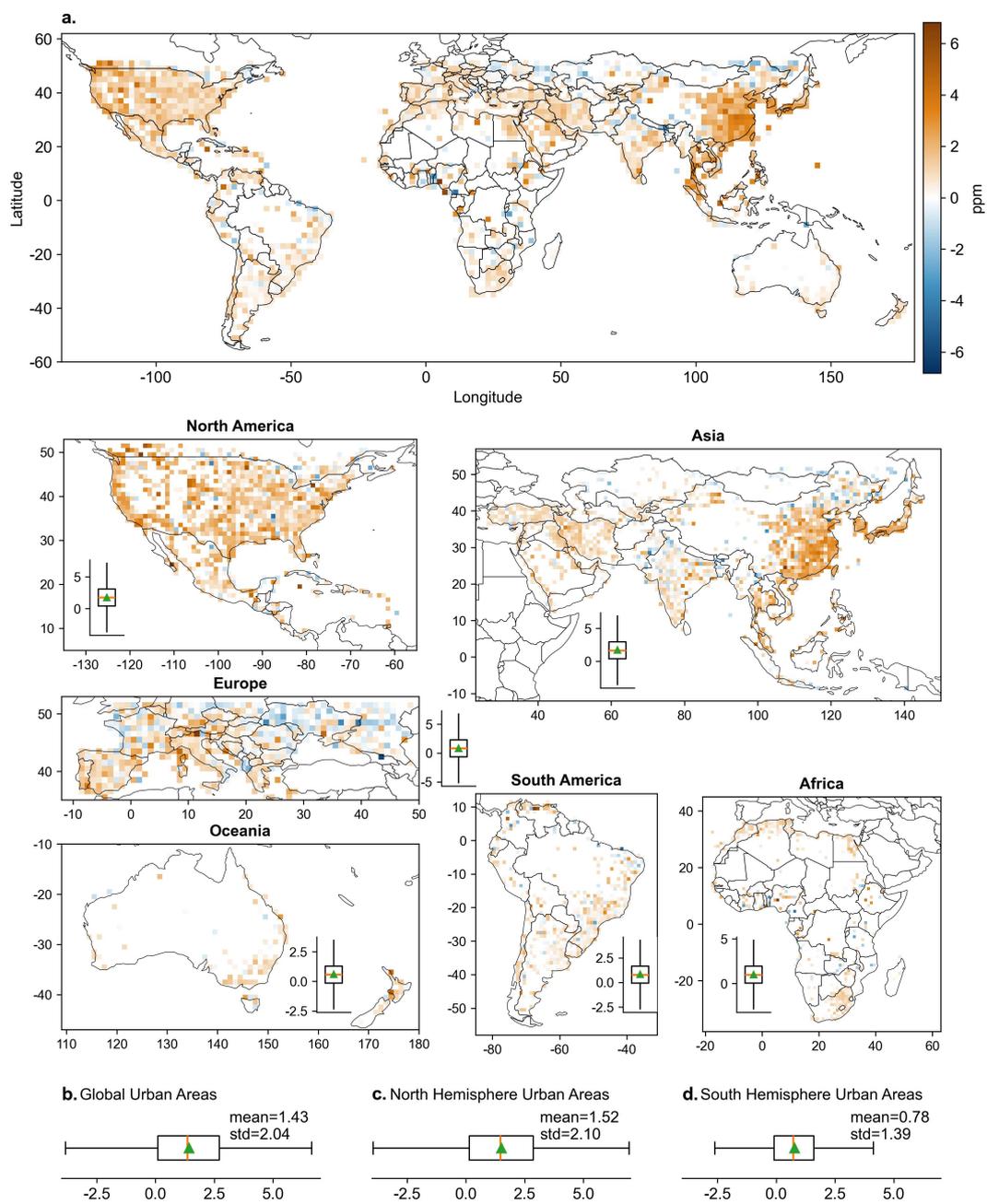


Fig. 6. The spatial maps of CO₂ enhancements (ΔXCO_2) throughout global urban areas ($2^\circ \times 2^\circ$) and six regions ($1^\circ \times 1^\circ$) (a). The ΔXCO_2 distributions within urban areas are presented for the global scale (b), the North Hemisphere (c), and the South Hemisphere (d). The ‘whiskers’ of box-plots extend to 1.5 times the Interquartile Range (IQR) from Q1 and Q3, and outliers are hidden. The green triangle denotes the mean value and the orange line signifies the median value.

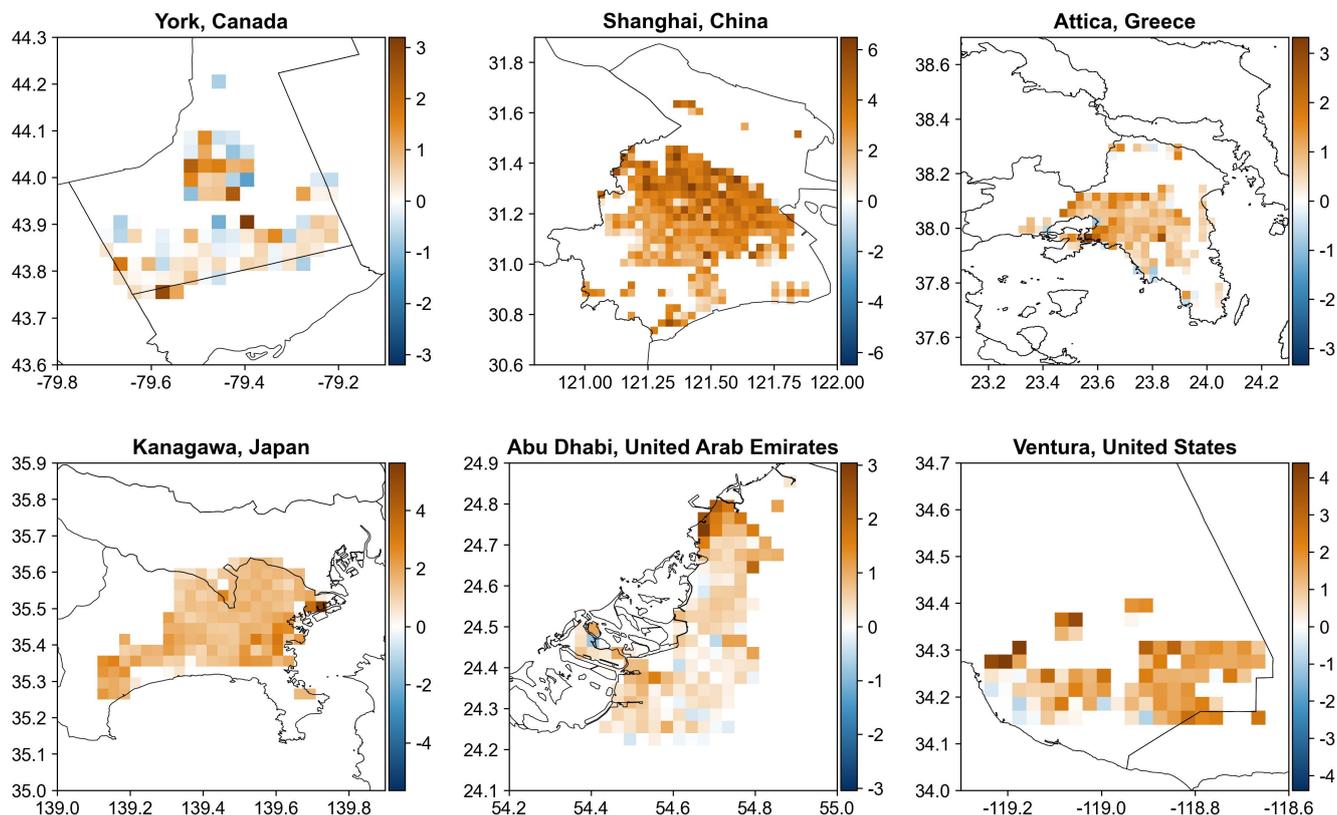


Fig. 7. The spatial maps of CO₂ enhancements (ΔXCO_2) of six global cities aggregated to 0.02° resolution grids.

evidence-based insights. This will support the development of targeted and well-informed strategies for hierarchical carbon governance, and ultimately enhancing effective responses to climate risks.

6 Data availability

The global dataset of CO₂ enhancements is freely available at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.15209825> (Zhou et al., 2025).
260 This dataset has been organized in NetCDF format under the WGS84 geographic coordinate system. It is compatible with Python, R, and free GIS software for reading and post-processing. As the satellite-derived and ground-sourced CO₂ observations update, the dataset will be continuously released aiming to consistently support in global carbon management and climate change mitigation.

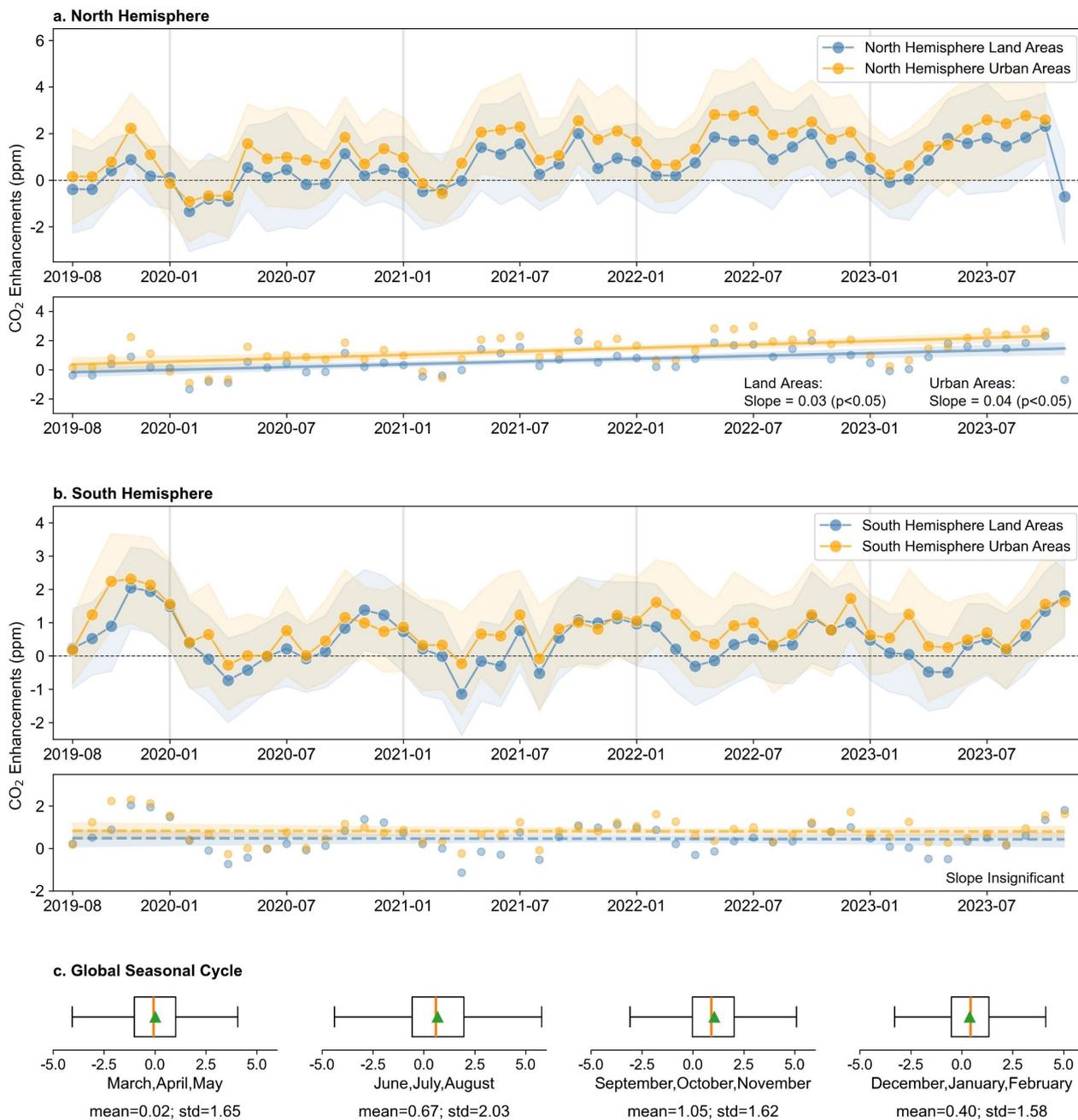


Fig. 8. The monthly variations of CO₂ enhancements (ΔXCO_2) in the North Hemisphere (a) and South Hemisphere (b). The monthly mean ΔXCO_2 values exhibit statistically significant upward trend over land and urban areas in the North Hemisphere (p -value<0.05) whereas no significant trend is observed in the South Hemisphere. Global seasonal cycles of CO₂ enhancements are shown at (c). The ‘whiskers’ of box-plots extend to 1.5 times the Interquartile Range (IQR) from Q1 and Q3, and outliers are hidden. The green triangle denotes the mean value and the orange line signifies the median value.



Author contributions. Y.Z. conceptualized the data product and supervised the project. P.F. and Y.Z. designed methodology, analyzed data, and wrote the manuscript. J.L. and Y.X. contributed to methodological design and manuscript editing. B.H. and C.W. contributed to conceptualization and manuscript editing.

Competing interests. The authors declare no competing interests.

Acknowledgements. This study is funded by National Key Research and Development Program of China (2022YFB3903704). J.L. acknowledges the funding from USMILE European Research Council (ERC CU18-3746). B.H. acknowledges the Senior Research Fellow Scheme from the Hong Kong Research Grants Council (SRFS2324-4H02).



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