



Neural Network Based Estimation of Regional Scale Anthropogenic CO₂ Emissions Using OCO-2 Dataset Over East and West Asia

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Abstract. Atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) is the most significant greenhouse gas and its concentration is continuously increasing mainly as a consequence of anthropogenic activities. Accurate quantification of CO₂ is critical for addressing the global challenge of climate change and designing mitigation strategies aimed at stabilizing the CO₂ emissions. Satellites provide the most effective way to monitor the concentration of CO₂ in the atmosphere. In this study, we utilized the concentration of column-averaged dry-air mole fraction of CO₂ i.e., XCO₂ retrieved from a CO₂ monitoring satellite, the Orbiting Carbon Observatory 2 (OCO-2) to estimate the anthropogenic CO₂ emissions using Generalized Regression Neural Network over East and West Asia. OCO-2 XCO₂ and the Open-Data Inventory for Anthropogenic Carbon dioxide (ODIAC) CO₂ emission datasets for a period of 5 years (2015-2019) were used in this study. The annual XCO₂ anomalies were calculated from the OCO-2 retrievals for each year to remove the larger background CO₂ concentrations and seasonal variabilities. Then the XCO₂ anomaly and ODIAC emission datasets from 2015 to 2018 were used to train the GRNN model, and finally, the anthropogenic CO₂ emissions were estimated for 2019 based on the XCO₂ anomalies derived for the same year. The XCO₂-based estimated and the ODIAC actual CO₂ emissions were compared and the results showed a good agreement in terms of spatial distribution. The CO₂ emissions were estimated separately over East and West Asia. In addition, correlations between the ODIAC emissions and XCO₂ anomalies were also determined separately for East and West Asia, and East Asia exhibited relatively better results. The results showed that satellite-based XCO₂ retrievals can be used to estimate the regional scale anthropogenic CO₂ emissions and the accuracy of the results can be enhanced by further improvement of the GRNN model with the addition of more CO₂ emission and concentration datasets.



35 1 Introduction

Climate change is one of the greatest challenges to the future of Earth arising from global warming, which in turn is accelerated by anthropogenic emissions of greenhouse gases (Lamminpää et al., 2019). The major warming effects are caused by the atmospheric CO₂ emissions and significant amounts of these emissions are contributed by fossil fuel combustion and some industrial activities, such as the calcination of limestone during cement production (Hutchins et al., 2017). The levels of atmospheric CO₂ are continuously increasing (Mustafa et al., 2020) and if these levels continue to increase at the same rate, 1.5 °C of global warming will be reached between 2030 and 2052, which will cause more climate extremes (Hoegh-Guldberg et al., 2018). Estimates of CO₂ emissions at national, regional, and global levels are now widely reported and have become an important element of public policy and mitigation strategies. Many countries are making efforts to reduce CO₂ emissions. It is becoming increasingly important to find efficient and reliable ways to monitor the CO₂ reduction progresses and evaluation of how well specific CO₂ reduction policies are working.

Satellites provide the most effective way to monitor atmospheric CO₂ with great spatiotemporal resolutions (Mustafa et al., 2021). Several satellites such as GOSAT, GOSAT-2, OCO-2, OCO-3, and TanSAT are orbiting around the Earth and dedicatedly monitoring the atmospheric CO₂ (Crisp, 2015; Liu et al., 2018; Matsunaga et al., 2019; Taylor et al., 2020, p.3). These satellites calculate the average atmospheric CO₂ concentrations in the path of sunlight reflected by the surface through spectrometers carried onboard. OCO-2 measures the CO₂ optical depth with bands centered around 1.6 and 2.0 microns and determines O₂ optical depth with band A, which is centered around 0.76 microns (Crisp et al., 2017, p.2). The information from these bands is combined to calculate the column-averaged dry-air mole fraction of CO₂ (XCO₂) (Crisp et al., 2012; O'Dell et al., 2012). Several studies suggest that XCO₂ can be used to detect the CO₂ concentration induced by anthropogenic activities by removing the background concentration from the satellite XCO₂ retrievals. (Bovensmann et al., 2010; Hakkarainen et al., 2019, p.2; Keppel-Aleks et al., 2013). The results from these studies have reported an enhancement of nearly 2 ppm over megacities and high-density urban regions of the United States and China. The XCO₂ retrievals derived from the satellite measurements show a positive correlation with the CO₂ emission inventories (Hakkarainen et al., 2016, p.2; Yang et al., 2019) which implies that these space-based observations can be used to assess the anthropogenic CO₂ emissions by enhancing the anthropogenic XCO₂ concentration.

Asia is the home to the most populous nations with the highest amounts of CO₂ emissions. East Asia, in particular, China significantly contributes to the global carbon budget and has accounted for ~30% of the overall growth in global CO₂ emissions over the past 15 years (EDGAR, 2017). This increment in the CO₂ levels is mainly due to the rapid economic growth and anthropogenic activities (Shan et al., 1997). China has pledged to make aggressive efforts to reduce the CO₂ emissions per unit GDP by 60–65% relative to 2005 levels, and peak carbon emissions overall, by 2030 (UNFCC, 2015). West Asia is also a region with higher rates of anthropogenic CO₂ emissions (Mustafa et al., 2020) and some of its countries, such as Iran, Saudi Arabia, and Turkey are listed among the 10 largest CO₂ emitting nations in the world. Several studies have been carried out to estimate the CO₂ emissions using various machine learning techniques but most of them do not deal with the spatial



distribution. Rao (2021) estimated the CO₂ emissions using Support Vector Machine (SVM). Zhonghan Chen et al. (2018) predicted the CO₂ flux emissions based on published data including latitude, age, potential net primary productivity and mean
70 depth using Back Propagation Neural Network (BPNN) and Generalized Regression Neural Network (GRNN). Yang et al. (2019) estimated the anthropogenic CO₂ emissions using GOSAT XCO₂ retrievals over China and the results showed a good agreement between the estimated and the ODIAC CO₂ emission dataset. In this study, we proposed a method to estimate the regional scale anthropogenic CO₂ emissions using OCO-2 XCO₂ retrievals over East and West Asia. OCO-2 and ODIAC CO₂ datasets were obtained for a period of five years from January 2015 to December 2019. XCO₂ anomalies were calculated from
75 the OCO-2 retrievals for each year, GRNN model was trained using XCO₂ anomalies and ODIAC CO₂ emissions with four years of data from 2015 to 2018 and then anthropogenic CO₂ emissions were estimated for the year 2019 based on 2019 XCO₂ anomalies. The details about the datasets and methods are provided in Section 2. The results including estimated CO₂ emissions and evaluation of these emissions, and correlation between ODIAC CO₂ emissions and XCO₂ anomalies are discussed in Section 3.

80 **2 Materials and Methods**

2.1 Datasets

2.1.1 OCO-2 Dataset

The Orbiting Carbon Observatory 2 (OCO-2) was launched by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA)
85 on 2 July 2014 to monitor the concentration of atmospheric CO₂ at regional and global levels (Crisp, 2015). It carries a three-channel imaging grating spectrometer that collects high-resolution, bore-sighted spectra of reflected sunlight. Spectra are collected in the molecular oxygen A-band at 0.765 microns and the CO₂ bands at 1.61 and 2.06 microns (Hakkarainen et al., 2019). Information from all these bands is combined to calculate the XCO₂. More details about the instrument design, calibration approach, on-orbit performance, and measurement principles are provided in a previous study (Crisp, 2015). A
90 comprehensive study about the validation of OCO-2 XCO₂ retrievals against the Total Carbon Column Observing Network (TCCON) CO₂ dataset reported an absolute median difference of less than 0.4 ppm and the RMS difference less than 1.5 ppm between the two datasets (Wunch et al., 2017). Similar experiments have been carried out for validation of different versions of OCO-2 XCO₂ products and the results showed that the OCO-2 dataset was consistent and reliable for atmospheric CO₂ monitoring (Kiel et al., 2019; O'Dell et al., 2018). In this study, the OCO-2 ACOS/XCO₂ version 10r Level 2 Lite product
95 was used and the dataset was downloaded from the Earthdata platform (<https://earthdata.nasa.gov>).

2.1.2 ODIAC Dataset

ODIAC is a global fossil-fuel CO₂ (FFCO₂) emission dataset with 1 × 1 km, monthly resolution over land and 1×1 degree, annual resolution for international bunkers from the year 2000 onward (Oda et al., 2018). It shares country scale estimates with



100 Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center (CDIAC) but distributes the emissions differently within the countries and
includes gridded international bunker emissions (Oda and Maksyutov, 2015). CDIAC distributes the CO₂ emissions based on
the population density while ODIAC incorporates power plant profiles and nighttime light observation for emission
distribution (Wang et al., 2020). ODIAC shows a better agreement with the US bottom-up inventory (Gurney et al., 2009) than
105 et al., 2011). In this study, we used the 2020 version of ODIAC emission dataset (Oda, Tomohiro, 2015).

2.2 Methods

Estimation of anthropogenic CO₂ emissions includes three major steps as shown in Figure 1. The first step includes enhancing
the XCO₂ concentration influenced by anthropogenic activities, the second step is about setting up the GRNN model using
XCO₂ and ODIAC datasets, and the final step is the validation of estimated CO₂ emissions against the actual ODIAC emission
110 dataset.

CO₂ has a larger background concentration and a longer atmospheric life period compared to other greenhouse gases
(Hakkarainen et al., 2019). Because of this, XCO₂ varies by nearly 2% over the seasonal cycle and from pole to pole. In
addition, XCO₂ variations influenced by anthropogenic activities are also smaller on the scale of satellite sounding (2–4 km²).
Therefore, high precision is critical for accurate quantification of the XCO₂ anomalies related to anthropogenic activities. To
115 highlight the emission areas, CO₂ seasonal variability and the large background concentrations must be removed.

To highlight the emission areas and extract the information associated with the anthropogenic activities, we used the
concept of XCO₂ anomaly suggested by a previous study (Hakkarainen et al., 2019, 2016, p.2), defined as the difference
between the individual XCO₂ value measured by satellite and the daily background:

$$120 \quad XCO_2 \text{ (anomaly)} = XCO_2 \text{ (individual)} - XCO_2 \text{ (daily background)} \quad (1)$$

This equation calculated the XCO₂ anomalies for each observation. Subtraction of daily background concentration removes
the seasonal variability. Daily background concentration was obtained by calculating the daily medians. Once the anomalies
were calculated, a grid with a spatial resolution of 0.5°×0.5° Longitude/Latitude was defined and the mean against each grid
125 point was calculated for each year. The annual mean of XCO₂ (anomaly) can detrend the seasonal variation (Hakkarainen et
al., 2016). The annually-averaged XCO₂ anomalies were resampled at a grid with a spatial resolution of 1°×1°
Longitude/Latitude and used along with 1°×1° Longitude/Latitude ODIAC emission dataset to setup the GRNN model.

XCO₂ variations are primarily influenced by anthropogenic activities and terrestrial ecosystems, there are both linear
and non-linear mapping between the XCO₂ and the emissions. We adopted the GRNN algorithm to represent the non-linear
130 mapping between the independent variable (XCO₂ anomaly) and dependent variable (CO₂ emission) suggested by a previous
study (Yang et al., 2019). The GRNN is a memory-based network that provides estimates of continuous variables and
converges to underlying regression. The regression of a dependent variable on an independent variable is the computation of



the most probable value of the dependent variable for each value of the independent variable based on a finite number of possibly noisy measurements of the independent variable and the associated values of the dependent variable. The dependent and the independent variables are usually vectors (Rooki, 2016). The architecture of GRNN is shown in Figure 2. It consists of four layers including an input layer, a hidden layer, a summation layer, and a decision layer. In the input layer, each neuron corresponds to the independent variable that is expressed as a mathematical function and the independent variable values are standardized. Then the standardized values of the independent variable are transferred to the neurons in the hidden layer. In this layer, each neuron stores the values of the dependent and independent variables and calculates a scalar function. The third layer known as the summation layer contains two neurons; the denominator summation unit which sums the weight values being received from the hidden layer, and the numerator summation unit which sums the weight values multiplied by the actual target-dependent variable value for each hidden neuron. Finally, the target-dependent value is obtained in the decision layer by dividing the value accumulated in the numerator summation unit by the value in the denominator summation unit. To develop a neural network, the dependent and the independent training variables must be standardized, so that in the input layer all training data will have the same order of magnitudes (Yang et al., 2019).

$$d(x_0 - x_i) = \sum_{j=1}^p \left[\frac{x_{0j} - x_{ij}}{\sigma} \right]^2 \quad (2)$$

where p is the dimension of the variable vector x_i , σ is the spread parameter and an optimal spread parameter value is obtained after several runs following the mean squared error of the estimated values, which must be kept at a minimum (Rooki, 2016). In this study, values of spread parameters were optimized using the Holdout Method. More detail about the Holdout Method is provided in a previous study (Specht, 1991). The weight of the denominator neuron was set to 1.0. The predicted target dependent variable was defined by the following equation:

$$\hat{y}(x_0) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i e^{-d(x_0, x_i)}}{\sum_{i=1}^n e^{-d(x_0, x_i)}} \quad (3)$$

where the values calculated with the scalar function in a hidden neuron i are weighted with the corresponding values of the training samples y_i . n is denoting the number of training samples.

3 Results and Discussions

3.1 Spatial Distribution of XCO₂ Observations and Anomalies

The satellite-based observations are sensitive to clouds and aerosols, therefore, much of the data is discarded during the preprocessing due to the presence of cloud and aerosol content (Mustafa et al., 2021). Figures 3a and 3b show the quantity of XCO₂ retrievals from 2015 to 2019 on a spatial grid of 0.5°×0.5° Longitude/Latitude over West and East Asia, respectively.



OCO-2 shows a good spatial coverage over East Asia, however, southern parts of the region, in particular, the Tibetan plateau
165 has a relatively lower number of XCO₂ retrievals. The Tibetan plateau is the most extensively elevated surface on Earth and
satellite measurements show larger uncertainties over this region (Yang et al., 2019). In the case of West Asia, the southern
parts of the region have a lower number of XCO₂ retrievals. In the southern parts of West Asia, a very large desert, the Rub'
al Kahli is located that stretches across Saudi Arabia, Yemen, Oman, and United Arab Emirates (UAE) and often observes
dust storms. The lower number of XCO₂ retrievals in these parts of the region might be due to the ACOS XCO₂ retrieval
170 algorithm that excludes the satellite measurements with high aerosol optical depth and cloud optical thickness (Crisp et al.,
2012; O'Dell et al., 2012, p.1).

Figure 3c shows the spatial distribution of five years-averaged XCO₂ anomalies calculated using the method described in
section 2.2 over West Asia. The higher concentrations of XCO₂ anomalies were observed over central parts of the region that
included Iran, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, and Iraq. These countries contribute a large fraction of the world's oil. Iran and Saudi
175 Arabia are listed among the top 10 CO₂ emitting nations and produce over 6% of the global CO₂ emissions (Jalil, 2014). In
addition, Iran, Saudi Arabia, and Iraq are the major fuel consumers and contribute more than 60% of the region's total fossil
fuel CO₂ emissions (Boden et al., 2017). Figure 4d shows the multiyear-averaged XCO₂ anomalies over East Asia. The eastern
parts of the region including eastern China, Japan, and South Korea show the highest concentrations of XCO₂ anomalies.
China's Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei area, Korea and Japan are the most populated urban regions with the highest amount of
180 anthropogenic emissions in the world (Mustafa et al., 2020).

Figure 3e shows the monthly-averaged XCO₂ over East and West Asia. The monthly-averaged XCO₂ concentrations show
seasonal fluctuations. Moreover, the XCO₂ concentrations during each month are higher than those in the same month of the
previous year and it reflects that the XCO₂ concentration in the atmosphere is continuously increasing in both regions. The
XCO₂ concentration starts increasing from September and reaches its maximum value in April, then it starts decreasing and
185 reaches the minimum value in August. The decrement in its concentration from May to August is due to several reasons,
primarily due to the strong photosynthesis and weak respiration rate by the plants, and this process is enhanced during the
monsoon or rainy season (Mustafa et al., 2020). The increment in XCO₂ concentration from September to April is likely to be
caused by weak photosynthesis and strong respiration, the use of heating systems in winter, and strong microbial activity (Cao
et al., 2017; Mustafa et al., 2021).

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3.2 Estimated CO₂ Emissions

The annually-averaged XCO₂ anomalies and ODIAC CO₂ emission datasets for a period of four years from 2015-2018 were
used as a training dataset for the GRNN model built to estimate the CO₂ emissions using the method described in section 2.2.
Then the GRNN model was applied to 2019 annually-averaged XCO₂ anomalies to predict the CO₂ emissions with the same
195 unit as the ODIAC CO₂ emissions. The analyses were carried out separately over East and West Asia. Figures 4a and 4b show
the estimated and the actual ODIAC CO₂ emissions over East Asia, respectively. The results show that the estimated and the
actual CO₂ emissions exhibit nearly the same spatial distribution pattern. The eastern part of the region shows higher CO₂



emissions and the western and northern parts, in particular, the Tibetan plateau and Mongolia show the minimum CO₂ emissions. The pattern is also similar to XCO₂ anomalies distribution over East Asia (Figure 3d). Figure 4c shows the difference between the estimated and the actual CO₂ emissions over East Asia. The estimated CO₂ emissions show smaller magnitudes compared to the actual emissions over the eastern parts of the region, however, it has larger magnitudes relative to the actual CO₂ emissions over western parts of the region. Figure 4d shows the landcover distribution of East Asia provided by the Copernicus Global Land Services (Buchhorn et al., 2020, p.2). Most of the area where the predicted CO₂ emission is underestimated is covered by agriculture and forest. This underestimation of the CO₂ emissions predicted based on the XCO₂ anomalies indicates the presence of uncertainties in the XCO₂ anomalies that are likely to be produced by the CO₂ uptake of the biosphere which is still remaining in the XCO₂ anomalies. The areas where the predicted CO₂ emission is overestimated are covered by herbaceous vegetation and bare land. This overestimation in the predicted CO₂ emissions might be caused by the nearby CO₂ emitting sources which raise the CO₂ concentration of the nearby areas through atmospheric transport. Previous studies demonstrated that the concentration of atmospheric CO₂ was influenced by atmospheric transport (Cao et al., 2017; Kumar et al., 2014). In addition, the areas where the estimated CO₂ emissions are overestimated have higher elevations. OCO-2 observations show larger uncertainties over elevated and mountainous areas, especially the Tibetan Plateau where the OCO-2 retrievals are significantly overestimated (Kong et al., 2019; Mustafa et al., 2020) and this might also have a contribution to the overestimation of estimated CO₂ emissions. The difference between the estimated and the actual CO₂ emissions was ranging from 10^{-3.4} tons to 10³ tons and the magnitude of difference between 10^{-1.5} tons to 10^{1.5} tons accounted for 80% of the total grids. Yang et al. (2019) estimated the CO₂ emissions by a machine learning approach using GOSAT XCO₂ retrievals over China and differences between the estimated and the ODIAC actual CO₂ emissions were between -5 Mt to 5 Mt. Our study showed better results and it might be due to the higher resolution of OCO-2 and improvements in the XCO₂ retrieval algorithm

Figures 5a and 5b show the spatial distribution of satellite-based estimated CO₂ emissions and the actual ODIAC CO₂ emissions over West Asia, respectively. The spatial distribution pattern of both the estimated and the original CO₂ emissions is similar with some differences in their magnitudes. Figure 5c shows the difference between the estimated and the actual CO₂ emissions. The satellite-based estimated CO₂ emissions are overestimated compared to the actual ODIAC CO₂ emissions over Iran and Saudi Arabia, whereas, these are underestimated over the rest of the region. Figure 5d shows the landcover distribution of West Asia. It can be seen that the predicted CO₂ emissions are overestimated over the areas that are covered by either urban settlements or bare land. The overestimation of estimated CO₂ over these areas is likely to be caused by atmospheric transportation that influences the spatial distribution of atmospheric CO₂ (Cao et al., 2017). Moreover, a large part of West Asia is covered by deserts and these deserts observe a notably lower number of OCO-2 retrievals (Figure 3a). The overestimation of the predicted CO₂ emissions over the largest desert of the region, the Rub' al Kahli, located in southern parts is likely to be caused by the uncertainties in the satellite-based XCO₂ anomalies and these uncertainties are likely to be produced due to a lower number of OCO-2 retrievals. In addition, a previous study also indicated that the ACOS XCO₂ retrieval algorithm showed uncertainties over deserts (Bie et al., 2018). Similar to East Asia, the predicted CO₂ emissions over West



Asia are also underestimated over the areas that are covered by agriculture, herbaceous vegetation, or forest and this underestimation might be due to the presence of CO₂ uptake of the biosphere in the XCO₂ anomalies calculated using the satellite-based retrievals. The difference between the estimated and the actual CO₂ emission was ranging from 10^{-3.5} tons to 235 10² tons and the magnitude of difference between 10^{-1.5} to 10^{1.5} tons accounted for 86% of the total grids.

3.3 Correlation Analysis Between OCO-2 XCO₂ Anomalies and ODIAC Emissions

Figure 6 shows the correlation analysis between the ODIAC CO₂ emissions and the XCO₂ anomalies calculated using the OCO-2 retrievals over East and West Asia. A previous study found that the cluster of XCO₂ changes derived from satellite-
240 based observations showed a better and more significant correlation with the CO₂ emissions relative to a single grid of XCO₂ (Yang et al., 2019) and it might be due to the reason that the atmospheric CO₂ measurement is an instantaneous snapshot of the realistic atmosphere (Liu et al., 2015). For that, we segmented the ODIAC emissions which were binned according to every 0.3 tons/year of IgE using mean emissions calculated from annual emissions during 2015–2019, and then the correlation analysis was carried out between the mean of emissions and the mean of the XCO₂ anomalies within the binned regions. The
245 results showed a positive and significant correlation between the two datasets. Figures 6a and 6b show the spatial distribution of segmented ODIAC emissions over East Asia and the scatterplot between the mean of emissions and mean of XCO₂ anomalies, respectively. The two datasets show a positive and significant correlation with the determined coefficient (R²) of 0.81. The spatial distribution of segmented ODIAC emissions over West Asia and the scatterplot between the mean of emissions and mean of XCO₂ anomalies are shown in Figures 6c and 6d, respectively. The two datasets showed a good
250 correlation with the determined coefficient (R²) of 0.60. Several studies correlated the satellite-based XCO₂ anomalies with the CO₂ emissions (Fu et al., 2019; Shekhar et al., 2020). Yang et al. (2019) performed a correlation analysis between the GOSAT based XCO₂ anomalies with the ODIAC CO₂ emissions over China and found a significant correlation with a determined coefficient (R²) of 0.82 which increased up to 0.95 if the analysis was carried out with higher values of CO₂ emissions. In our study, the correlation between the CO₂ emissions and XCO₂ anomalies is relatively low for West Asia and
255 it might be due to the uncertainties in the OCO-2 retrievals. A large part of West Asia is covered by deserts and Bie et al. (2018) reported that the ACOS XCO₂ retrieval algorithm showed uncertainties over deserts.

4 Summary and Conclusions

In this study, a neural network-based approach was suggested to estimate the CO₂ emissions using OCO-2 XCO₂ retrievals.
260 The study was carried out using ODIAC and OCO-2 CO₂ products from 2015 to 2019. To remove the CO₂ seasonal variability and the large background concentration from the OCO-2 XCO₂ retrievals, XCO₂ anomalies were calculated for each year. Then a GRNN model was built and XCO₂ anomalies and CO₂ emissions from 2015 to 2018 were used as a training dataset and finally, CO₂ emissions were predicted for 2019 based on XCO₂ anomalies calculated for the same year. The analyses were carried out separately over East and West Asia. The XCO₂-based estimated and ODIAC actual CO₂ emission datasets were
265 compared and both of the datasets showed a good agreement in terms of spatial distribution. The estimated CO₂ emissions



showed better results over East Asia compared to West Asia and it might be due to the uncertainties in the XCO₂ retrievals because previous studies reported that the ACOS XCO₂ retrieval algorithm produced uncertainties over deserts. The predicted CO₂ emissions were mostly underestimated over agricultural areas and forests and it was likely to be caused by the uncertainties in the calculated XCO₂ anomalies and these uncertainties were produced due to the presence of CO₂ uptake of the biosphere.

270 The CO₂ emission results were overestimated compared to the actual ODIAC emissions mostly over bare land. These overestimations might be due to the nearby high emission CO₂ sources that raised the XCO₂ concentration due to the effects of atmospheric transportation. Moreover, correlation analysis was also carried out between the ODIAC CO₂ emissions and OCO-2 XCO₂ anomalies and the results were significant with R² of 0.81 and 0.60 over East and West Asia, respectively. The results were in agreement with the previous studies.

275 The results from our study suggested that the CO₂ emissions can be estimated using the observations obtained from the CO₂ monitoring satellites. Currently, several satellites are orbiting around the Earth and dedicatedly monitoring atmospheric CO₂. Joint utilization of the observations obtained from these satellites might reduce the spatiotemporal gaps and uncertainties. In future studies, we intend to improve the GRNN model by the addition of CO₂ uptake datasets and joint utilization of multi-sensor data.

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Author contributions. FM carried out the analysis under the supervision of LB, with inputs and supports from QW, NY, MS, MB, RWA, and RI. FM wrote the original article with feedback from all the co-authors.

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Competing Interests. All the authors declare that there is not any personal or financial conflict of interest.

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Data Availability Statement. OCO-2 Level 2 XCO₂ product is available at <https://earthdata.nasa.gov> and ODIAC CO₂ emission dataset is available at <http://db.cger.nies.go.jp/dataset/ODIAC/>.

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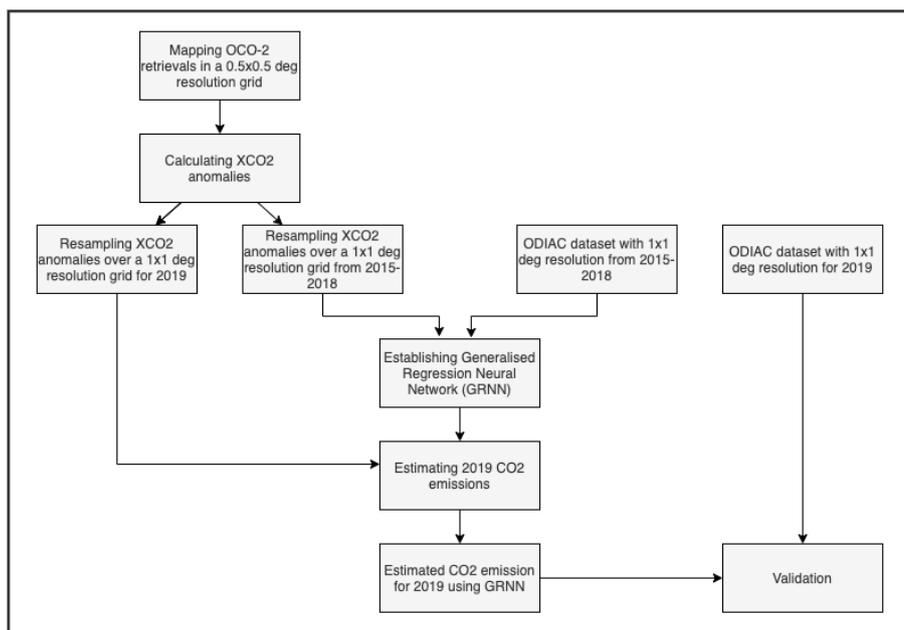


Figure 1: Flowchart explaining steps to estimate the anthropogenic CO₂ emissions using OCO-2 XCO₂ retrievals.



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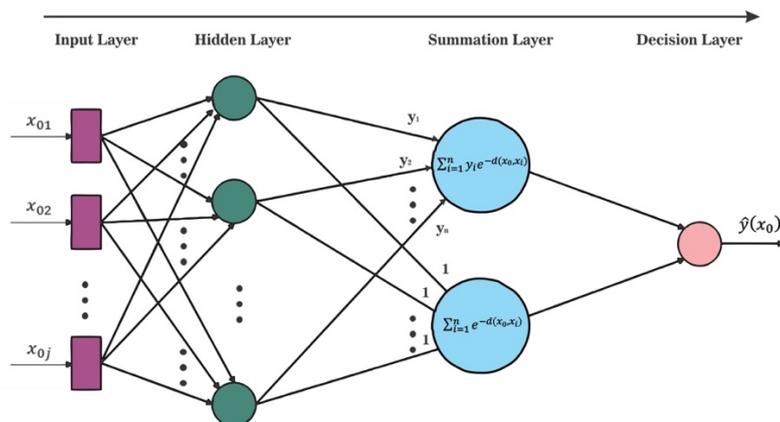
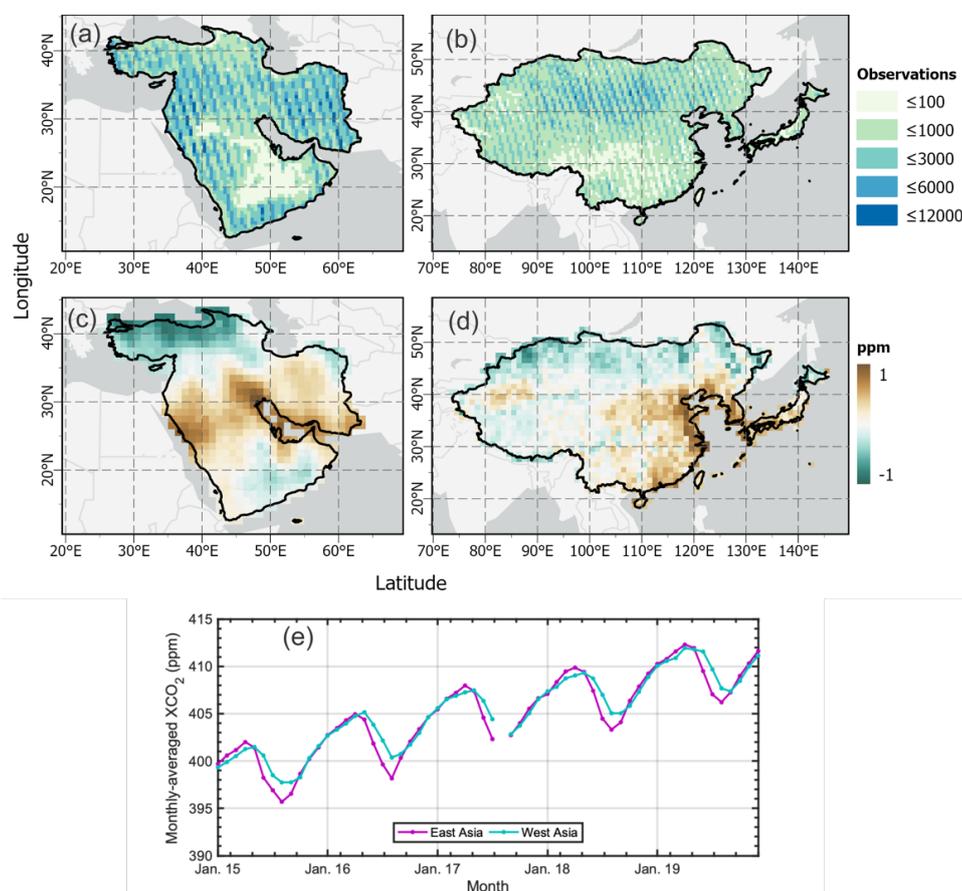
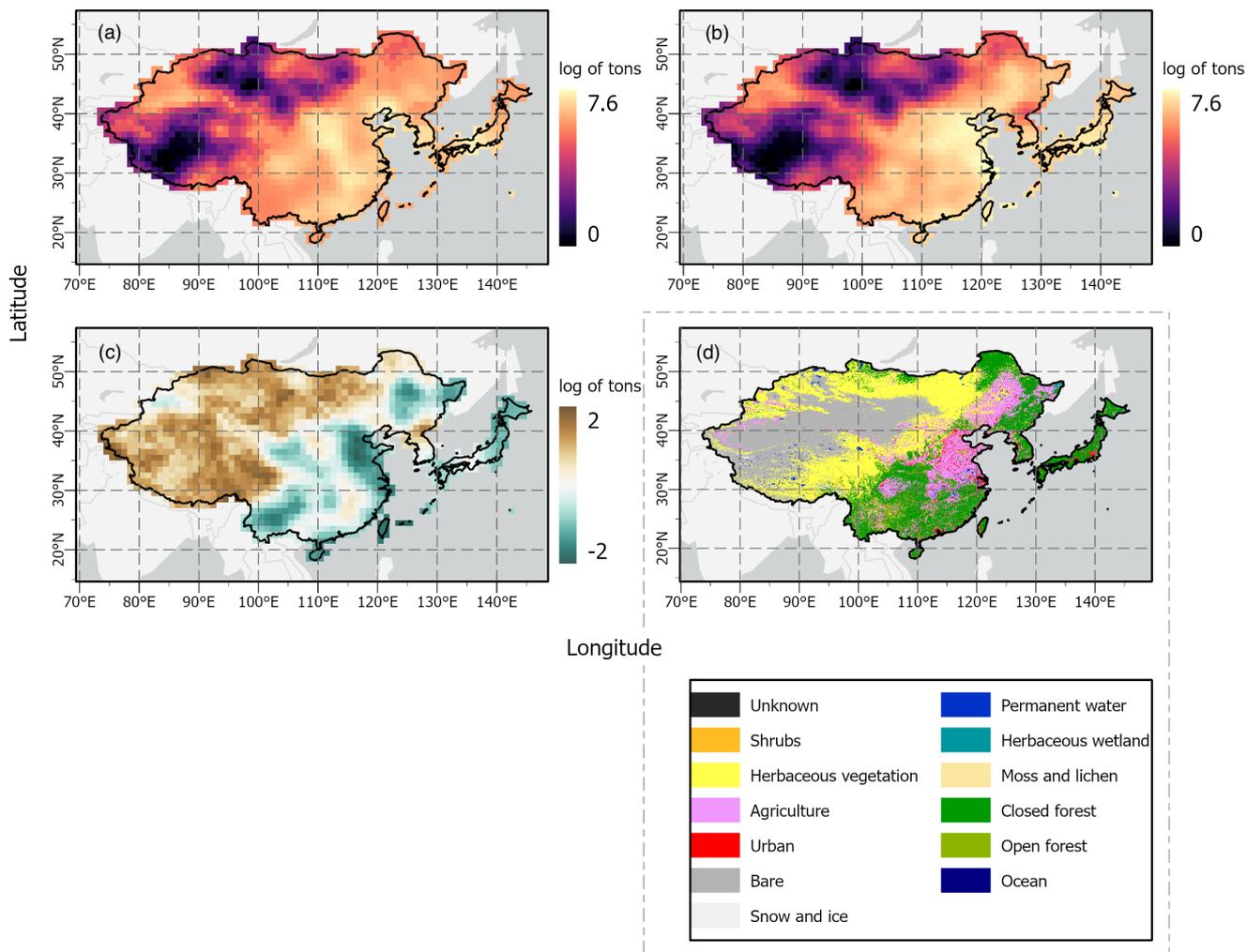


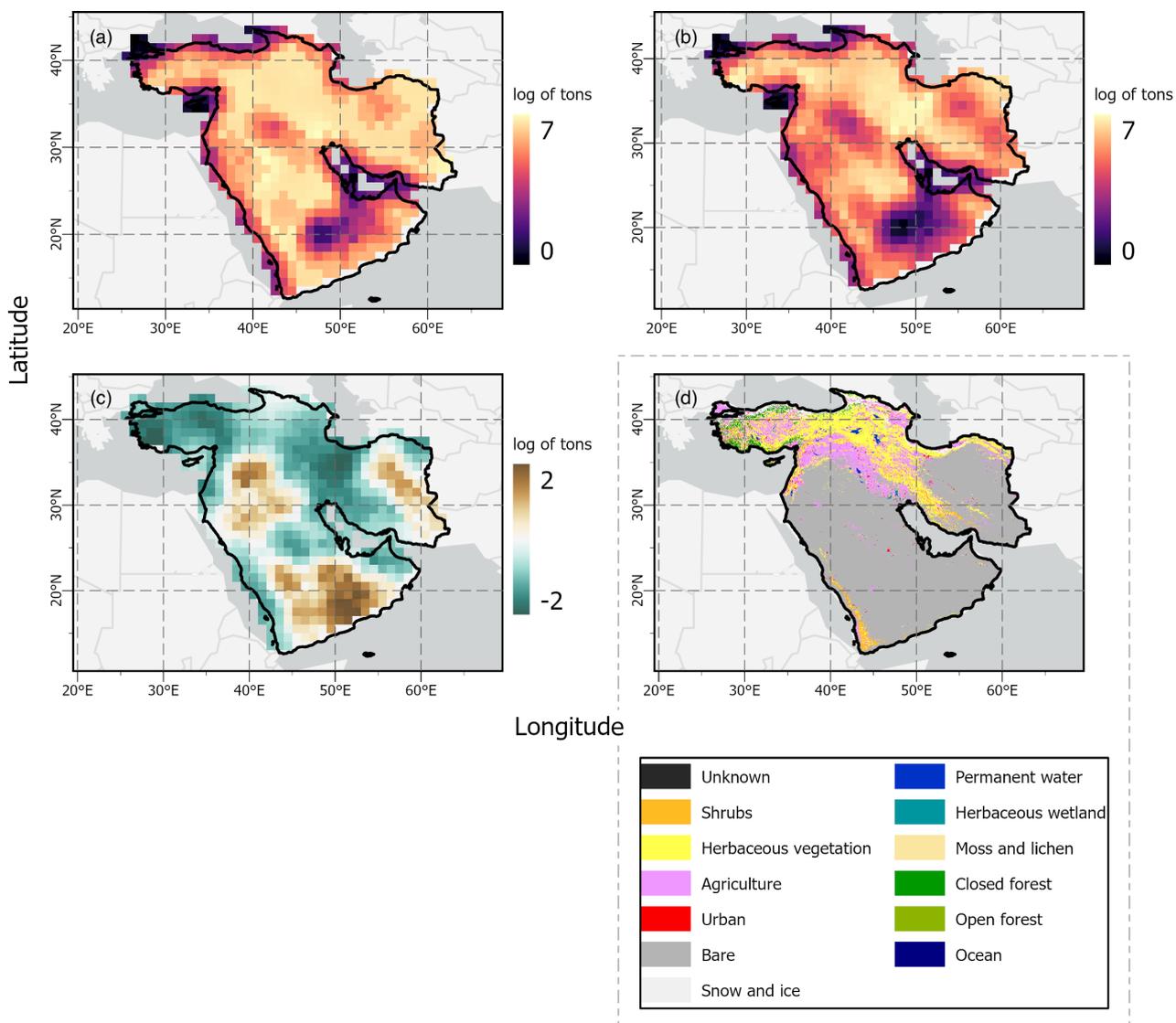
Figure 2: Flowchart explaining steps to estimate the anthropogenic CO₂ emissions using OCO-2 XCO₂ retrievals.



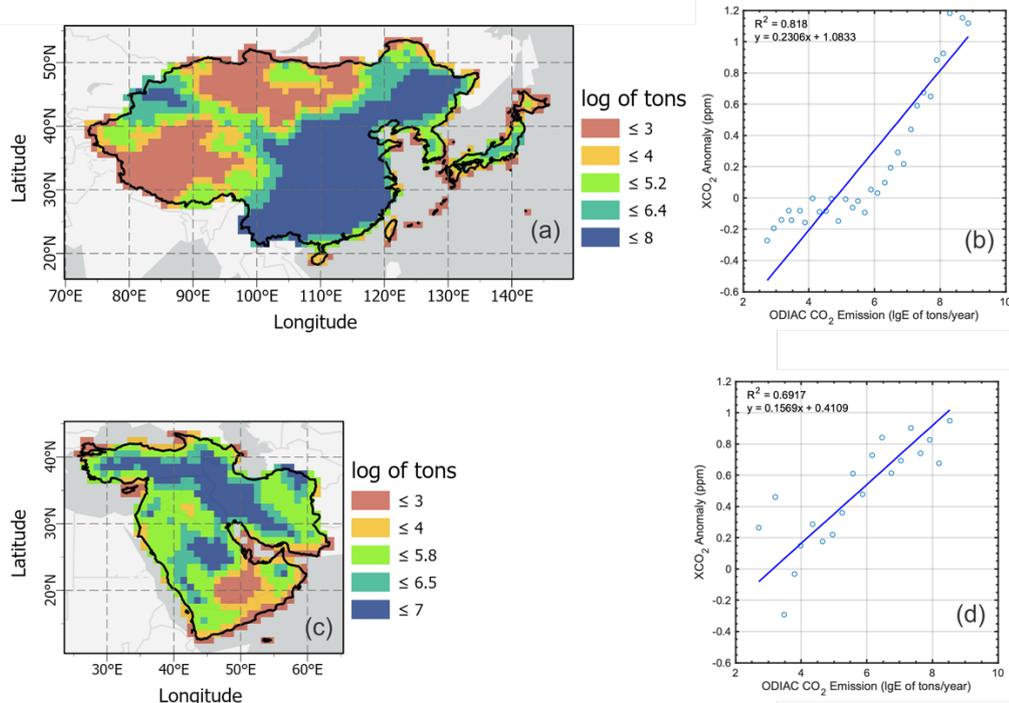
435 Figure 3: Number of observations in each cell of a 0.5x0.5 deg grid for a period of five years from 2015 to 2019 over (a) West Asia and (b) East Asia; Five years-mean of XCO₂ anomalies calculated using OCO-2 retrieval over (a) West Asia and (b) East Asia; and the monthly-averaged XCO₂ concentration from 2015 to 2019 over East and West Asia. (Basemap credits: OpenStreetMap).



440 **Figure 4: Spatial distribution of (a) OCO-2 XCO₂-based anthropogenic CO₂ emission estimates for 2019 (b) actual ODIAC emissions for 2019, (c) their difference (estimated emission-actual emission), and (d) 100 m resolution landcover distribution provided by Copernicus Global Land Services over East Asia (Basemap credits: OpenStreetMap).**



445 **Figure 5: Spatial distribution of (a) OCO-2 XCO₂-based anthropogenic CO₂ emission estimates for 2019 (b) actual ODIAC emissions for 2019, (c) their difference (estimated emission-actual emission), and (d) 100 m resolution landcover distribution provided by Copernicus Global Land Services over West Asia (Basemap credits: OpenStreetMap).**



450 **Figure 6: Spatial distribution of segmented ODIAC emissions, where the data are binned by every 0.3 tons/yr of lgE using mean emission calculated from annual emission during 2015–2019 over (a) East Asia and (c) West Asia; the correlation between mean ODIAC CO₂ emissions and mean XCO₂ anomalies calculated from annual XCO₂ during 2015–2018 for (b) East Asia and (d) West Asia (Basemap credits: OpenStreetMap).**