



1 **Global CO emissions and drivers of atmospheric CO trends constrained by**
2 **MOPITT satellite observations**

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4 Zhaojun Tang^{1,2}, Panpan Yang³, Kazuyuki Miyazaki⁴, John Worden⁴, Helen Worden⁵, Daven
5 K. Henze⁶, Dylan B. A. Jones⁷ and Zhe Jiang^{3*}

6
7 ¹Key Laboratory of Atmospheric Optics, Anhui Institute of Optics and Fine Mechanics, HIPS,
8 Chinese Academy of Sciences, Hefei, Anhui, 230031, China.

9 ²School of Earth and Space Sciences, University of Science and Technology of China, Hefei,
10 Anhui, 230026, China.

11 ³Institute of Surface–Earth System Science, School of Earth System Sciences, Tianjin
12 University, Tianjin, 300072, China.

13 ⁴Jet Propulsion Laboratory, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, CA, 91009, USA.

14 ⁵Atmospheric Chemistry Observations and Modeling Laboratory, National Center for
15 Atmospheric Research, Boulder, CO, 80301, USA.

16 ⁶Department of Mechanical Engineering, University of Colorado, Boulder, CO, 80309, USA.

17 ⁷Department of Physics, University of Toronto, Toronto, ON, M5S 1A7, Canada.

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19 *Correspondence to: Zhe Jiang (zhejiang@tju.edu.cn)

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22 **Abstract**

23 Carbon monoxide (CO), an important atmospheric pollutant produced from incomplete
24 combustion and hydrocarbon oxidation, significantly influences atmospheric chemistry and air
25 quality. Accurate quantification of its global emissions and the underlying drivers of
26 atmospheric trends is essential for understanding and improving global environmental
27 conditions. Using 20 years (2003–2022) of satellite observations from the Measurement of
28 Pollution in the Troposphere (MOPITT) instrument, here we analyze changes in global CO
29 emissions and atmospheric concentrations. The a posteriori simulations show improved
30 consistency with independent surface and aircraft measurements compared to the a priori
31 simulations. Sensitivity analyses further confirm that inferred emissions remain robust against
32 uncertainties associated with satellite vertical sensitivity and variations in hydroxyl radical (OH)
33 concentrations. Our results indicate a substantial decline in global anthropogenic CO emissions
34 of 14–17% (approximately 85–110 Tg) over the two-decade period, largely driven by reductions



35 in the United States, Europe, and eastern China. In contrast, biomass burning emissions
36 exhibited strong interannual variability, with recent increases in Northern Hemisphere high-
37 latitude forests. A key finding is that rising biomass burning emissions have offset about 37%
38 of the global anthropogenic emission reduction (47% in the Northern Hemisphere alone),
39 underscoring the considerable moderating influence of wildfires on atmospheric composition
40 trends. This study provides a comprehensive assessment of global CO emissions and the
41 mechanisms governing atmospheric CO trends, offering a scientific basis for integrated
42 policies addressing both climate change and air pollution.

43

44 **1. Introduction**

45 Carbon monoxide (CO) is a key atmospheric pollutant produced from incomplete
46 combustion and the oxidation of hydrocarbons. As the main sink for the hydroxyl radical (OH),
47 CO critically influences the oxidative capacity of the atmosphere (Zhao et al., 2020; Tan et al.,
48 2022), and is an important precursor for tropospheric ozone (Whaley et al., 2015; Hu et al.,
49 2024). With a chemical lifetime of approximately one to two months, CO is frequently
50 employed as a valuable tracer for elucidating variations in anthropogenic activities and biomass
51 burning, providing critical insights into the long-range transport of atmospheric constituents
52 (Tang et al., 2019; Buchholz et al., 2022; Smoydzin and Hoor, 2022). Accurate quantification
53 of global CO emissions and a clear understanding of the drivers behind its atmospheric trends
54 are therefore essential for formulating effective policies to address the challenges of air quality
55 and climate change.

56 The advent of long-term satellite observations has revolutionized our ability to monitor
57 global CO distributions (Warner et al., 2013; Worden et al., 2013; Hedelius et al., 2021). This
58 data has enabled a shift from short-term, regional emission estimates (Arellano et al., 2004;
59 Heald et al., 2004; Kopacz et al., 2010) to analyses of decadal-scale changes. Numerous studies



60 have leveraged these records to report substantial declines in anthropogenic CO emissions
61 (Fortems-Cheiney et al., 2011; Jiang et al., 2017; Miyazaki et al., 2020), especially across the
62 Northern Hemisphere, contributing to improved air quality. However, a critical and emerging
63 challenge is to disentangle the competing influences on atmospheric CO concentrations. While
64 anthropogenic emissions are generally decreasing due to pollution control measures, biomass
65 burning emissions exhibit strong interannual variability and a growing sensitivity to climate
66 change. An important unanswered question is to what extent the recent intensification of
67 wildfires, particularly in high-latitude forests (Jain et al., 2024; Jones et al., 2024), is offsetting
68 the gains achieved from anthropogenic emission reductions. This has profound implications,
69 as CO shares common combustion sources with major greenhouse gases like methane (CH₄)
70 and carbon dioxide (Worden et al., 2017; Zheng et al., 2023).

71 Constraining global emissions and robustly attributing observed concentration trends
72 require the application of sophisticated inverse modeling approaches. These methods, which
73 include ensemble-based techniques (e.g., the ensemble Kalman filter) and variational methods
74 (e.g., four-dimensional variational, 4D-Var, data assimilation), provide powerful frameworks
75 for optimizing emission estimates by reconciling model simulations with satellite observations,
76 while accounting for complex atmospheric transport and chemistry (Müller et al., 2018;
77 Miyazaki et al., 2020; Jiang et al., 2025). Among these, the 4D-Var data assimilation,
78 implemented within chemical transport models like GEOS-Chem and its adjoint (Henze et al.,
79 2007), has been widely and successfully applied to constrain CO emissions (Kopacz et al.,
80 2010; Jiang et al., 2015b; Tang et al., 2023), owing to its strengths in handling nonlinear
81 constraints and providing computationally efficient gradients. However, long-term multi-
82 decadal trend analyses based on this system has often been hindered by limitations such as
83 inconsistent meteorological inputs across years and the use of outdated a priori emission
84 inventories (Jiang et al., 2017; Qu et al., 2022).



85 To address these limitations, we employ a recent extension of the GEOS-Chem adjoint
86 model (Tang et al., 2023) that features support for consistent MERRA-2 meteorological data
87 and modern emission inventories via the HEMCO emissions component (Keller et al., 2014;
88 Lin et al., 2021). By assimilating MOPITT (Measurements of Pollution in the Troposphere)
89 observations from 2003 to 2022, this study aims to provide an analysis with the following
90 specific objectives: (1) to quantify the long-term evolution of global CO emissions; (2) to
91 attribute the observed trends in atmospheric CO concentrations to changes in emissions and
92 meteorological variations, in particularly, the effect of increasing biomass burning emissions
93 on atmospheric CO decline driven by anthropogenic reductions; and (3) to evaluate the
94 sensitivity of inferred emissions to uncertainties in satellite vertical sensitivity and OH
95 concentrations. By doing so, this work aims to improve the understanding of key drivers behind
96 atmospheric CO changes and offer a refined emission inventory to support future climate and
97 air quality policies.

98 The paper is structured as follows: Section 2 describes the methodology, including the
99 assimilation framework, observational data, and the design of sensitivity experiments. Section
100 3 presents the results on the long-term emission trends, the robustness tests, and the attribution
101 of concentration changes. Conclusions are provided in Section 4.

102

103 **2. Methodology and Data**

104 **2.1 Assimilation framework**

105 We utilize the adjoint of the GEOS-Chem model (version 35n) with extended support for
106 MERRA-2 meteorological data and HEMCO emission inventories. The analysis is conducted
107 at a horizontal resolution of $2^\circ \times 2.5^\circ$ with 47 vertical levels (MERRA-2) and employs a CO-
108 only simulation (tagged-CO mode). Two types of archived OH fields are used in this study:
109 fixed monthly OH fields for 2013 from the GEOS-Chem full chemistry simulation (Fisher et



al., 2017), and variable monthly OH fields for 2005-2020 from the Tropospheric Chemistry Reanalysis version 2 (TCR-2, Miyazaki et al. (2020)). The TCR-2 OH fields have been validated against various aircraft observations and show generally good agreement (Miyazaki et al., 2020). The interannual variability of global mean tropospheric OH concentrations from TCR-2 is illustrated in Fig. S2 (see the SI).

The global default anthropogenic emission inventory is the CEDS (Community Emissions Data System) (Hoesly et al., 2018). Regional emissions are replaced as follows: MIX (Li et al., 2017) over Asia, NEI 2016 (National Emissions Inventory) over the United States, DICE_AFRICA and EDGARv4.3 over Africa, and APEI over Canada. Biogenic emissions are simulated using the Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature, version 2.0 (MEGANv2.0, Guenther et al. (2006)). Biomass burning emissions are based on the Global Fire Emissions Database version 4 (GFED4, van der Werf et al. (2010)). The distribution of the annual mean CO emissions from 2003 to 2022 is shown in Figs. 1a-c. The annual global sources are 536.3 Tg yr⁻¹ from anthropogenic emissions, 312.5 Tg yr⁻¹ from biomass burning, and 623 Tg yr⁻¹ from the oxidation of biogenic VOCs.

The objective of the 4D-Var approach is to minimize the difference between simulations and observations by minimizing the cost function (Henze et al., 2007):

$$J(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^N (\mathbf{F}_i(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{z}_i)^T \mathbf{S}_\Sigma^{-1} (\mathbf{F}_i(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{z}_i) + \gamma (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_a)^T \mathbf{S}_a^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_a) \quad (1)$$

where $\mathbf{x}$ is the state vector of CO emissions, N is the number of observations distributed in time over the assimilation period, $\mathbf{z}_i$ are the MOPITT CO observations, and $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x})$ is the forward model. Error estimates are assumed to be Gaussian: $\mathbf{S}_\Sigma$ is the observational error covariance, which combines a 10% uniform error and the MOPITT CO retrieval error covariance; and $\mathbf{S}_a$ is the a priori error covariance. Here the combustion-related CO sources (fossil fuel, biofuel, and biomass burning) and the oxidation source from biogenic VOCs are combined, with a uniform a priori error of 50% assumed. The CO source from CH₄ oxidation



135 is optimized separately as an aggregated global source, with the a priori uncertainty of 25%.
 136 The cost function is minimized by iteratively adjusting the CO emissions using the quasi-
 137 Newton gradient-based optimization L-BFGS-B algorithm (Zhu et al., 1997) and the adjoint
 138 gradients:

$$139 \quad \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} J(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^N \left[2 \left(\frac{\partial F_i}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \right)^T \mathbf{S}_z^{-1} (\mathbf{F}_i(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{z}_i) \right] + 2\gamma (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_a)^T \mathbf{S}_a^{-1} \quad (2)$$

140 The LOGX2 method (Jiang et al., 2015a; Jiang et al., 2017) is employed to improve the
 141 reduction of negative gradients.

142 Following Jiang et al. (2017), we applied a two-step approach to mitigate the influence of
 143 systematic biases in the model simulations. First, a sequential Kalman filter (Todling and Cohn,
 144 1994; Tang et al., 2022) was used to assimilate MOPITT CO observations, providing optimized
 145 CO concentration fields with lower bias. As illustrated in Fig. 2a, the GEOS-Chem model
 146 driven by the original monthly CO initial conditions and a priori emission inventories (referred
 147 to as GC-original) substantially underestimated column CO concentrations by approximately
 148 30–40% (mean bias = -39.4×10^{16} molecules cm^{-2} ; Table 1). In contrast, simulations using the
 149 monthly CO initial conditions derived from the sequential Kalman filter together with a priori
 150 emissions (GC-a priori) showed markedly improved agreement with MOPITT observations
 151 (Fig. 2b), reducing the mean bias to about 10% (mean bias = -9.7×10^{16} molecules cm^{-2}).
 152 Similarly, the use of optimized monthly CO initial conditions led to considerable improvement
 153 in model performance against independent surface and aircraft measurements (Table 1). The
 154 mean bias decreased from -20.1 ppb (GC-original) to -2.4 ppb (GC-a priori) for WDCGG
 155 surface observations; from -18.9 ppb to -3.8 ppb for HIPPO aircraft data; and from -16.2 ppb
 156 to -3.4 ppb for ATOM aircraft measurements. These results suggest that the substantial
 157 negative biases seen in Fig. 2a largely originate from the accumulation of biases over preceding
 158 months.

159 Furthermore, ocean scenes (red grids in Fig. S3) were defined as land boundary conditions.



160 The optimized CO fields from the Kalman filter were used to update CO concentrations over
161 the ocean at hourly intervals during the forward simulation within the 4D-Var process.
162 Meanwhile, the 4D-Var system constrained CO emissions over land without modifying oceanic
163 CO distributions. As demonstrated by Jiang et al. (2017), the use of optimized CO land
164 boundary conditions in 4D-Var assimilation effectively reduces systematic biases associated
165 with long-range transport. By adopting this two-step assimilation framework, the inversion
166 focuses on optimizing fresh continental CO emissions, while reducing the influence of
167 uncertainties arising from transport and chemical processes, which tend to exhibit larger
168 systematic biases. Consequently, the a posteriori CO emissions estimated in this study are
169 expected to be lower than those derived without adjustments to the initial and boundary CO
170 conditions. This reflects both the specific inverse modeling setup and a possible
171 underestimation in our a posteriori emission estimates, attributable to the emphasis on
172 constraining fresh continental CO sources.

173 Based on this assimilation framework, three sets of CO emission inversion experiments
174 are designed:

175 (1) Col-FixOH: uses MOPITT CO column concentration data with default OH fields fixed
176 in 2013.

177 (2) Prof-FixOH: uses MOPITT CO profile data with default OH fields fixed in 2013.

178 (3) Col-VarOH: uses MOPITT CO column concentration data with variable OH fields
179 from the TCR-2 tropospheric chemistry reanalysis.

180 By comparing the results of Col-FixOH and Prof-FixOH, the influence of different MOPITT
181 CO observation types on CO source estimates can be assessed. Similarly, comparing Col-
182 FixOH and Col-VarOH allows for evaluation of the impact of different OH fields on CO source
183 estimates.

184 **2.2 MOPITT CO measurements**



185 The MOPITT instrument was launched on December 18, 1999, aboard the NASA Terra
 186 spacecraft. The satellite follows a sun-synchronous polar orbit at 705 km altitude, crossing the
 187 equator at 10:30 local time. The instrument made measurements over a 612 km cross-track
 188 scan, with a footprint of 22 km × 22 km. The MOPITT data used in this study are from the
 189 joint retrieval (version 9J) of CO, which combines thermal infrared (TIR, 4.7μm) and near-
 190 infrared (NIR, 2.3μm) radiances using an optimal estimation approach (Worden et al., 2010;
 191 Deeter et al., 2022). The retrieved volume mixing ratios are reported as layer averages across
 192 10 pressure levels (surface, 900, 800, 700, 600, 500, 400, 300, 200, and 100 hPa). The
 193 relationship between the retrieved CO profile and the true atmospheric state is expressed as:

$$194 \quad \hat{\mathbf{z}} = \mathbf{z}_a + \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{z}_a) + \mathbf{G}\epsilon \quad (3)$$

195 where $\mathbf{z}_a$ is the MOPITT a priori CO profile, $\mathbf{z}$ is the true atmospheric state, $\mathbf{G}\epsilon$ represents
 196 the retrieval error, and $\mathbf{A} = \partial\hat{\mathbf{z}}/\partial\mathbf{z}$ is the MOPITT averaging kernel matrix, indicating the
 197 sensitivity of the retrieval to the actual atmospheric CO. We exclude MOPITT data with CO
 198 column amounts less than 5×10^{17} molecules cm⁻² and those with low cloud observations. Since
 199 the NIR channel relies on reflected solar radiation, only daytime data are considered.

200 **2.3 Aircraft and surface CO measurements**

201 The HIAPER Pole-to-Pole Observations (HIPPO, Wofsy and HIPPO Science Team
 202 (2011)) were conducted using the Gulfstream V aircraft from 2009 to 2011. The flights
 203 primarily covered the Pacific Ocean, spanning latitudes from 67°S to 87°N, with continuous
 204 sampling from 0.2 to 12 km altitude. The Atmospheric Tomography Mission (ATom, Wofsy
 205 and Atom Science Team (2018)) used the DC-8 aircraft from 2016 to 2018. ATom covered
 206 similar altitude and latitudinal ranges as HIPPO but with broader spatial coverage, particularly
 207 over the Atlantic Ocean. For HIPPO, a total of 687 CO profiles from five missions were used
 208 directly. For ATom, CO measurements during continuous ascents and descents were used to
 209 construct 523 CO profiles from four missions. Surface CO measurements from the World Data



210 Centre for Greenhouse Gases (WDCGG) are also included in this analysis. The WDCGG,
 211 operated by the Japan Meteorological Agency under the World Meteorological Organization's
 212 Global Atmosphere Watch (GAW) program, collects, archives, and distributes atmospheric
 213 greenhouse gas data, including CO, contributed by various institutions worldwide.

214

215 **3. Results and Discussion**

216 **3.1 Evaluation of assimilation system performance**

217 Before presenting the estimated emission trends and their drivers, we first evaluate the
 218 performance of our assimilation system. The evaluation involves comparing modeled CO
 219 concentrations from the GC-original, GC-a priori, and the a posteriori simulations (Col-FixOH,
 220 Prof-FixOH, Col-VarOH) over the period 2003-2022 against MOPITT satellite retrievals, as
 221 well as independent surface observations from WDCGG and aircraft measurements from
 222 HIPPO and ATom. As summarized in Table 1, the a posteriori simulations exhibit mean biases
 223 relative to MOPITT observations ranging from -5.1 to -7.3×10^{16} molecules cm^{-2} . These values
 224 are notably lower than the biases in the GC-a priori simulation (-9.7×10^{16} molecules cm^{-2})
 225 and the GC-original simulation (-39.4×10^{16} molecules cm^{-2}). Similarly, for the HIPPO aircraft
 226 observations, the a posteriori simulations show mean biases between -2.5 and -2.1 ppb,
 227 improved compared to the GC-a priori (-3.8 ppb) and GC-original (-18.9 ppb) simulations. For
 228 ATom aircraft data, the a posteriori mean biases range from -2.9 to -1.6 ppb, also lower than
 229 those from the GC-a priori (-3.4 ppb) and GC-original (-16.2 ppb) simulations. These results
 230 confirm that the a posteriori emission estimates lead to improved agreement with atmospheric
 231 CO observations.

232 In the case of surface CO concentrations, the a posteriori simulations yield mean biases
 233 between 0.4 and 1.8 ppb relative to WDCGG observations (Table 1), which are reduced
 234 compared to the GC-a priori (-2.4 ppb) and GC-original (-20.1 ppb) simulations. This supports



the conclusion that the assimilation improves the representation of surface-level CO. It is worth noting that the a posteriori simulations tend to slightly overestimate surface concentrations relative to WDCGG data, while generally underestimating CO in the free troposphere according to MOPITT and aircraft observations. This systematic pattern may be attributable to uncertainties in convective transport parameterizations within the model. Overall, the enhanced consistency between the a posteriori simulations and multiple independent observation platforms demonstrates the capability of our assimilation system to effectively constrain CO emissions. Given this confidence in the system's performance, we now present the central findings of this study: the long-term evolution of CO emissions as derived from the assimilation constraints.

3.2 Long-term evolution of global CO emissions

3.2.1 Anthropogenic CO emissions: global decline and regional differentiation

At the global scale, anthropogenic CO emissions were 7-14% higher than the a priori estimate (Figs. 1d, 1g, 1j and Table 2) showing a clear declining trend superimposed with notable interannual fluctuations (Fig. 3f and Table S1). Under the Col-FixOH configuration, global emissions from 2003 to 2022 ranged from 546.1 to 654.1 Tg yr⁻¹, with a multi-year average of approximately 610 Tg yr⁻¹ and a total reduction of about 17%; Similar ranges and reduction magnitudes (14-17%) were observed under the Prof-FixOH and Col-VarOH configurations. As shown in Fig. 4a, negative trends (blue) were concentrated in three major industrialized regions: eastern North America, Europe, and eastern China, forming a distinct "reduction belt". These regions collectively accounted for over 65% of global anthropogenic CO emissions, and their systematic reductions constituted the principal driver of the global downward trend. In contrast, positive trends (red) were primarily distributed in northern India



259 (increases of 15.2-22.3%) and Central Africa, corresponding to rapid urbanization and
 260 industrialization processes.

261 Developed economies exhibited continuous decreases with distinct phases (Figs. 3a-b). In
 262 the United States (US), emissions declined rapidly from 2003 to 2009, followed by a period of
 263 slower reduction. Over the entire period (2003-2022), US CO emissions decreased at rates of
 264 2.0-2.2 Tg yr⁻¹, resulting in a cumulative reduction of 46-49% (Table S1). This phased
 265 reduction pattern is consistent with the diminishing marginal effects of widespread
 266 transportation control technologies, as supported by independent studies (Elguindi et al., 2020;
 267 Miyazaki et al., 2020). European CO emissions showed a similar trend (a cumulative reduction
 268 of 32-34% in 2003-2022), with an average reduction rate of approximately 1.44 Tg yr⁻¹ from
 269 2003 to 2014, slowing after 2015. This finding differs slightly from that of Fortems-Cheiney
 270 et al. (2024), a discrepancy possibly attributable to differences in the processing of initial and
 271 boundary CO conditions (e.g., the use of climatological CO concentrations in Fortems-Cheiney
 272 et al. (2024)).

273 China's CO emissions demonstrated a distinct turning point from growth to decline (Fig.
 274 3c). The evolution can be divided into four stages: (1) a growth period until 2007, reaching a
 275 peak; (2) a sharp decline of approximately 7% during the 2008 global financial crisis; (3) a
 276 temporary rebound from 2009 to 2011 under economic stimulus policies; and (4) a continuous
 277 decline phase after 2011. From 2003 to 2022, anthropogenic CO emissions from eastern China
 278 decreased at an average rate of 3.0-4.0 Tg yr⁻¹ (Table 2), with a cumulative reduction of 23-
 279 32% (Table S1). This evolution is corroborated by multiple studies: Zhao et al. (2012) and Xia
 280 et al. (2016) confirmed the transformation of China's CO emission trend around 2007,
 281 attributing it to improved energy efficiency and emission control regulations; Lin and McElroy
 282 (2011) and Tong et al. (2016) emphasized the significant suppressive effect of the 2008 global
 283 economic recession; and Zheng et al. (2018) quantified a 27% reduction in CO emissions



284 between 2010 and 2017. Notably, the emission reduction rate accelerated during 2019-2022
 285 (4.8-8.3 Tg yr⁻¹), reflecting not only the short-term impact of the COVID-19 pandemic but also
 286 the long-term cumulative effects of clean air policies and energy structure transformation.

287 In contrast, India exhibited a consistent growth trend in CO emissions, with an average
 288 annual increase of 0.5-0.8 Tg yr⁻¹. This growth was primarily driven by rapid industrialization
 289 and urbanization, particularly from coal and biomass fuel combustion in the residential sector
 290 in earlier years, and from the industrial and transportation sectors more recently (Kurokawa
 291 and Ohara, 2020). Comparisons with the CEDS inventory (Hoesly et al., 2018; Wang et al.,
 292 2022) indicate that India's anthropogenic emissions of major air pollutants like NO_x, CO, and
 293 NMVOCs have increased at a much faster rate than in other regions, reflecting sustained
 294 growth in fuel consumption across its industrial, energy, and transport sectors.

295 This regional analysis underscores the close association between CO emission evolution
 296 and stages of economic development, the intensity of policy interventions, and technological
 297 pathway choices. Developed, post-industrialized economies achieved continuous reductions
 298 through mature environmental policies. China, as a rapidly developing emerging economy,
 299 exhibited a transition consistent with an environmental Kuznets curve; India, in an accelerated
 300 industrialization phase, continues to show emission growth, though with emerging signs of
 301 policy intervention.

302 **3.2.2 Biomass burning emissions: high variability and climate-driven characteristics**

303 Globally, biomass burning CO emissions were 4-11% higher than the a priori estimate
 304 (Figs. 1e, 1h, 1k and Table 3). In contrast to the clear decline of anthropogenic emissions,
 305 biomass burning CO emissions exhibited high interannual variability without a significant
 306 long-term trend (Fig. 5). Under the Col-FixOH configuration, global emissions from 2003 to
 307 2022 ranged from 277.4 to 477.9 Tg yr⁻¹, averaging 342 Tg yr⁻¹ (Table S1). The interannual
 308 variability (standard deviation of 41.7 Tg yr⁻¹) far exceeded any secular trend, underscoring the



309 high sensitivity of biomass burning to climatic conditions and ecosystem states. Spatial analysis
 310 revealed a pronounced latitudinal differentiation (Figs. 4d-f). Positive trends (red) were
 311 concentrated in Northern Hemisphere high-latitude coniferous forests, while negative trends
 312 (blue) dominated tropical and subtropical regions. This pattern is consistent with the "global
 313 fire emission geographic reconstruction" observed by Zheng et al. (2023), reflecting the
 314 differential impacts of climate change across latitudinal zones.

315 Emissions from North American and Asian high-latitude coniferous forest regions
 316 increased dramatically. In 2021, CO emissions from boreal North America reached 52.2-91.9
 317 Tg, an increase of 189-434% compared to 2003; emissions from boreal Asia increased by 48-
 318 117% over the same period. These two regions accounted for 39-51% of global total biomass
 319 burning emissions in 2021, reaching the highest level during the study period. This latitudinal
 320 amplification of emissions aligns with observations that carbon emission density from boreal
 321 forest fires is 4-10 times higher than from grasslands (Zheng et al., 2021), explaining the
 322 substantial increase despite potential decreases in global burned area. Furthermore, climate
 323 warming has led to extended fire seasons and increased frequency of extreme fire weather
 324 events (Justino et al., 2021). The record-breaking emissions in 2021 were triggered by severe
 325 concurrent droughts across North America and Eurasia (Zheng et al., 2023).

326 South American biomass burning CO emissions showed a long-term decrease but with
 327 significant interannual fluctuations (Fig. 5c), with high emission periods in 2004-2007, 2010,
 328 and 2019-2022. The trend shift in CO emissions after 2013 can be linked to changes in policy
 329 enforcement (Silva Junior et al., 2021), combustion efficiency (Bloom et al., 2015) and climate
 330 variability (Hooghiemstra et al., 2012; Jolly et al., 2015). In Africa, the overall trend of biomass
 331 burning CO emissions was not significant (Fig. 5d), but pronounced regional differentiation
 332 occurred (Fig. 4d-f), with increases in central Africa and decreases in surrounding areas,
 333 consistent with the "strong contrast" pattern observed by Andela et al. (2017). Emission



334 patterns in Southeast Asia and Australia highlighted their high sensitivity to large-scale climate
335 oscillations. Major fire events in Indonesia in 2006, 2009, 2015, and 2019 were closely linked
336 to El Niño-induced droughts (Page, 2009; Field et al., 2016; Huijnen et al., 2016). Australia's
337 extreme fires in 2019 resulted from compound extreme climate conditions influenced by the
338 El Niño-Southern Oscillation, the Southern Annular Mode, and the Indian Ocean Dipole (Deb
339 et al., 2020).

340 **3.2.3 Difference between combustion and biogenic NMVOC sources**

341 CO from combustion sources in the Northern Hemisphere showed strong regional
342 differentiation (Figs. 4j-l), reflecting a dynamic redistribution between declining anthropogenic
343 sources and increasing biomass burning sources. Positive trends were densely distributed in
344 high-latitude regions, mainly due to climate-driven increases in wildfires; Negative trends
345 dominated mid-to-low latitude industrialized areas. Tropical regions showed a mixed pattern,
346 while the Southern Hemisphere exhibited generally weaker trends. This spatial heterogeneity
347 confirms a net global decrease in combustion-related CO, revealing a clear contrast between
348 increases at high northern latitudes and decreases at mid-latitudes, reflecting the compound
349 influences of climate change and policy interventions.

350 In contrast, CO produced from the oxidation of biogenic VOCs remained relatively stable
351 from 2003 to 2022 (Fig. 4g-i). This stability aligns with findings by Messina et al. (2016),
352 suggesting that global-scale biogenic VOC emissions are less sensitive to short-term climate
353 and land cover changes. The global stability of biogenic VOC-derived CO is important for
354 atmospheric chemistry, as these compounds are key reactants for OH radicals and play a
355 regulatory role in atmospheric oxidation capacity. This stable background provides a crucial
356 baseline for understanding changes in atmospheric oxidation processes. The weaker trends
357 compared to those reported by Jiang et al. (2017) may be associated with our use of continuous
358 MERRA-2 meteorological data, which enhances consistency in long-term analysis.



359

360 **3.3 Impacts of systematic errors on inferred CO emissions**

361 **3.3.1 Impacts of vertical sensitivity of satellite retrievals**

362 The MOPITT instrument provides observations for both CO total column and vertical
 363 profile. The degrees of freedom for signal (DFS) for MOPITT multi-spectral profile retrievals
 364 (TIR+NIR) is approximately 1.5-2.0 over land, reducing to about 1.0 when converted to a total
 365 column (Worden et al., 2010). The discrepancy between a posteriori emission estimates
 366 constrained by CO column (Col-FixOH) and profile (Prof-FixOH) data helps evaluate the
 367 influence of systematic errors associated with the vertical sensitivity of the satellite retrievals
 368 (Tang et al., 2024). This comparison also aids in understanding the influence of parameterized
 369 model processes, such as convective transport, which shape the vertical distribution of CO
 370 concentrations.

371 Globally, a posteriori anthropogenic CO emissions from Prof-FixOH were slightly lower
 372 than those from Col-FixOH, with an average difference of -6.6% over 2003–2022 (Table 2).
 373 This difference was more pronounced over North America (-7.9%) and Europe (-7.3%),
 374 potentially reflecting weaker convective transport and thus more chemically aged air in the free
 375 troposphere over these continents (Jiang et al., 2015a). Eastern China exhibited a unique
 376 dynamic evolution (Fig. 3c): a posteriori CO emissions from Prof-FixOH were lower than those
 377 from Col-FixOH during 2003-2015 but gradually exceeded them after 2016, reaching a
 378 difference of approximately 7% by 2022 (Table S1). Similarly, global biomass burning CO
 379 emissions from Prof-FixOH were slightly lower (-5.5% on average) than those from Col-
 380 FixOH (Table 2). However, the response of inferred biomass burning emissions to satellite
 381 retrievals showed more complex regional discrepancies (Table 3): Prof-FixOH estimates were
 382 lower than Col-FixOH in Africa (-11.2%) and Australia (-9.2%) but higher in other regions,
 383 particularly Southeast Asia (9.7%).



Furthermore, we found broadly consistent trends in inferred anthropogenic CO emissions between two configurations over 2003-2022. Both Prof-FixOH and Col-FixOH suggest a decrease in global anthropogenic CO emissions of approximately $-0.9\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$, with slightly larger regional discrepancies for eastern China ($-2.1\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and $-1.6\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$, respectively) and India ($1.1\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and $0.7\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$, respectively). Similarly, trends in global biomass burning CO emissions were consistent ($0.3\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ for Col-FixOH and $0.5\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ for Prof-FixOH), though regional discrepancies were slightly larger for boreal North America ($3.1\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and $4.9\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) and Australia ($-1.5\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and $-0.7\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$). The limited differences in inferred emissions between the two configurations led to consistent declining trends in simulated CO columns ($-0.5\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ for both). The generally small differences in emission magnitudes and trends inferred from column versus profile retrievals demonstrate the robustness of our central finding, a significant long-term decline in global anthropogenic CO emissions. The regional discrepancies, particularly the evolving difference over eastern China, invite further investigation into potential changes in atmospheric stability or pollution source characteristics differentially constrained by the retrieval types.

3.3.2 Impacts of CO sinks (OH concentrations)

OH concentrations in model simulations significantly influence the inverse analysis of CO emissions (Jiang et al., 2011; Müller et al., 2018). By assimilating MOPITT CO column data, we compared the inverted CO emission estimates driven by fixed (Col-FixOH) and variable (Col-VarOH) OH fields to investigate the potential influence of uncertainties in CO sinks. As shown in Fig. 6c, OH concentrations from the TCR-2 reanalysis are broadly 10-40% lower than the fixed climatological OH concentrations over land (differences over the ocean are not considered here due to the use of CO land boundary conditions in the 4D-Var assimilation). Lower OH concentrations over land lead to reduced chemical loss, which is compensated by lower CO emissions in the Col-VarOH inversion to maintain atmospheric chemical equilibrium



409 between CO sources and sinks (Fig. 6f). From 2003 to 2022, global anthropogenic emissions
 410 in Col-VarOH averaged 590.1 Tg yr^{-1} (Table 2), approximately 3.7% lower than in Col-FixOH
 411 (612.8 Tg yr^{-1}). Similarly, a posteriori CO emissions in Col-VarOH were approximately 5.5%,
 412 4.6%, and 7.6% lower than those in Col-FixOH over the US, East China, and India, respectively.

413 Furthermore, both inversion configurations captured similar temporal evolution in
 414 emission changes, including key turning points (e.g., the peak in eastern China's emissions in
 415 2007 and trough in 2008, Fig. 5c) and extreme events (e.g., the biomass burning emission peak
 416 in 2021, Fig. 5g). From 2003 to 2022, both configurations suggest consistent trends in global
 417 anthropogenic CO emissions ($-0.9\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$). Regional trends were also similar: $-3.5\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and -
 418 $3.4\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (US), $-1.6\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and $-2.0\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (eastern China), and $0.7\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and $1.1\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (India)
 419 for Col-FixOH and Col-VarOH, respectively. The limited discrepancies in the magnitude and
 420 trends of a posteriori CO emissions driven by different OH fields suggest that the impact of
 421 uncertainties in CO sinks on our derived emission estimates is minor. This insensitivity can be
 422 partially attributed to the use of optimized land boundary CO conditions, which, as indicated
 423 by Jiang et al. (2015b), can reduce the impact of OH concentration uncertainties by
 424 approximately 50%.

425 3.3.3 Synthesis and Robustness Assessment

426 The sensitivity experiments described above collectively address the third objective of this
 427 study, which is to evaluate the robustness of our central findings against potential systematic
 428 errors associated with satellite retrieval vertical sensitivity and OH concentrations. The
 429 comparison between emissions constrained by MOPITT column (Col-FixOH) and profile
 430 (Prof-FixOH) data revealed limited discrepancies in both the magnitude and, crucially, the
 431 long-term trends of global and regional CO emissions (Section 3.2.1). Similarly, employing
 432 variable OH fields (Col-VarOH) instead of a fixed climatology led to only modest differences
 433 in the derived emission estimates, without altering the key temporal evolution characteristics



434 (Section 3.2.2). This robustness can be attributed, in part, to our two-step inversion framework,
435 which mitigates systematic biases through optimized initial and boundary CO conditions.
436 Therefore, we conclude that uncertainties in MOPITT vertical sensitivity and modeled OH
437 fields do not significantly undermine the primary emission trends quantified in this study,
438 thereby increasing confidence in our assessment of the long-term evolution of global CO
439 emissions.

440

441 **3.4 Long-term evolution and drivers of global CO concentrations**

442 Building on the emission estimates evaluated above, this section investigates their ultimate
443 influence in the atmosphere by analyzing the spatiotemporal patterns and trends of CO
444 concentrations. We first present the mean state and long-term changes in CO concentrations,
445 and then quantitatively attribute these changes to their underlying drivers: emissions and
446 meteorology. Figs. 7a-c show the mean surface CO concentrations in 2003-2022 from the a
447 posteriori simulations and WDCGG surface observations. Higher CO concentrations are
448 evident in regions with strong anthropogenic emissions, such as East Asia, India, and Southeast
449 Asia, as well as in areas with significant biomass burning, i.e., Central Africa and South
450 America. The long-term trends in surface CO (Figs. 7d-f) reveal declining concentrations over
451 North America, Europe, East Asia, and South America, which contrast with rising trends over
452 India, Boreal Asia, Central Africa, and Australia. The 20-year mean CO columns (Figs. 8a-c)
453 show a consistent spatial pattern, with the highest column concentrations over East Asia and
454 Central Africa, followed by South America, India, and Southeast Asia. In contrast, the long-
455 term trend of CO columns (Figs. 8d-f) exhibits a more uniform decrease across the Northern
456 Hemisphere, lacking the distinct regional hotspots observed in the surface trends. This suggests
457 that changes in CO are more thoroughly mixed within the column.

458 To quantitatively attribute the concentration trends to specific drivers, we conducted a



459 series of sensitivity experiments. The results indicate that meteorological influences induced
460 positive trends in surface CO concentrations in regions such as central Africa, Southeast Asia,
461 and the Tibetan Plateau ($0.6\text{--}1.8\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$), along with slight negative trends in areas such as South
462 America. The meteorological impact on CO column concentrations was comparatively weaker
463 (Fig. 9b), showing positive trends of $0.45\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ over central Africa and the Tibetan Plateau.
464 This vertical differentiation implies that meteorological influences may primarily alter the
465 vertical distribution of CO through changes in convective transport, with a more limited effect
466 on larger horizontal scales. The derived meteorological impact is noticeably weaker than that
467 reported by Jiang et al. (2017), a discrepancy likely attributable to our use of consistent
468 MERRA-2 meteorological fields, which enhances the reliability of the long-term trend analysis.
469 Similarly, the impact of biogenic VOC changes on CO concentrations (Figs. 9g, 9h) was
470 markedly weaker than in Jiang et al. (2017).

471 Anthropogenic emission changes were identified as the principal driver behind declining
472 CO levels, inducing strong negative trends in industrial regions of the Northern Hemisphere,
473 such as eastern North America, Europe, and eastern China. This signal is consistent across both
474 surface and column concentrations. Globally, anthropogenic emission changes led to an
475 average annual decrease of $0.27\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ in CO column concentrations, with a more pronounced
476 decline rate of $0.51\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ in the Northern Hemisphere. Regionally, the US, Europe, and eastern
477 China exhibited the most substantial decreases, at $-0.57\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$, $-0.69\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and $-0.69\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$,
478 respectively. In contrast, India experienced a slight concentration increase ($0.03\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) due to
479 rising emissions, while Southeast Asia showed a more moderate decline ($-0.19\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$)
480 compared to other major industrial regions.

481 Conversely, changes in biomass burning emissions generally contributed to positive CO
482 trends, particularly in high-latitude regions. Globally, biomass burning emissions led to an
483 average annual increase of $0.10\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ in CO column concentrations, with a more significant



484 rise of $0.24\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ in the Northern Hemisphere. Notable increases occurred in Boreal North
485 America ($0.43\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) and Boreal Asia ($0.48\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$), whereas South America, Australia, and
486 Southeast Asia experienced declining trends ranging from $-0.13\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ to $-0.22\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$; Africa
487 exhibited a slight increase of $0.09\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$.

488 This attribution analysis quantitatively confirms a substantial offsetting effect from
489 biomass burning emissions. Although anthropogenic emission reductions lowered Northern
490 Hemisphere CO column concentrations by approximately $0.51\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$, the concomitant rise in
491 biomass burning emissions counteracted this trend by adding about $0.24\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$. As a result, the
492 net concentration decline was limited to approximately $0.27\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$, indicating that nearly half
493 (47%) of the potential air quality improvement from anthropogenic emission controls has been
494 offset by the intensification of fires. This finding provides a clear mechanistic explanation for
495 the attenuated decline in atmospheric CO concentrations in recent years, establishing a direct
496 link to climate-change-amplified wildfire activity.

497 **4. Conclusions**

498 This study provides an updated, quantitative analysis of global CO emissions and drivers
499 of atmospheric CO trends from 2003 to 2022, using an extended GEOS-Chem adjoint model
500 constrained by MOPITT satellite observations. A key methodological advancement was the
501 use of continuous MERRA-2 meteorological data and updated a priori emission inventories,
502 which improved the long-term consistency and convergence efficiency of the 4D-Var
503 assimilation system. The implementation of a two-step bias mitigation strategy, optimizing
504 both initial conditions and land boundary conditions for CO, effectively reduced the
505 accumulated impacts of transport and chemistry uncertainties, lending to weaker sensitivity to
506 uncertainties in satellite vertical sensitivity and OH concentrations.

507 The optimized a posteriori emission estimates were rigorously evaluated against
508 independent surface (WDCGG) and aircraft (ATOM, HIPPO) observations. This evaluation



509 demonstrated a noticeable improvement in model performance. The mean bias in simulated
 510 CO concentrations was reduced from -3.8 ppb in the a priori simulation to between -2.5 and -
 511 2.1 ppb in the a posteriori simulation for HIPPO, and from -3.4 ppb in the a priori simulation
 512 to between -2.9 and -1.6 ppb in the a posteriori simulation for ATOM. Similarly, biases against
 513 surface observations were reduced, confirming the robustness of the inversion results.
 514 Consistent with previous studies focusing on shorter periods, our two-decade analysis reveals
 515 a pronounced decline of 14-17% in global anthropogenic CO emissions, equivalent to a
 516 reduction of approximately 85-110 Tg. This decline was primarily driven by emission
 517 reduction efforts in major industrialized regions, with cumulative reductions estimated at 46–
 518 49% in the US, 32–34% in Europe, and 23–32% in eastern China. In contrast, biomass burning
 519 emissions exhibited strong interannual variability, with a notable recent increase in Northern
 520 Hemisphere high-latitude forests.

521 A critical finding of this work is the substantial offsetting effect of increasing biomass
 522 burning emissions on atmospheric CO levels. Our attribution analysis shows that while
 523 anthropogenic emission reductions decreased the Northern Hemisphere CO column
 524 concentration at a rate of approximately $0.51\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$, concurrent increases in biomass burning
 525 emissions counteracted this trend by adding about $0.24\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$. The net decline was therefore
 526 limited to only $0.27\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$, indicating that nearly half (47%) of the potential air quality
 527 improvement from anthropogenic emission controls was offset by enhanced biomass burning.
 528 This substantial offsetting effect implies that the carbon mitigation benefits achieved by
 529 reducing fossil fuel combustion are being concurrently attenuated by climate-driven carbon
 530 releases from wildfires. Our analysis thus not only clarifies the past evolution of global CO
 531 emissions and concentrations but also highlights an increasingly critical challenge: climate
 532 change is actively undermining emission control efforts by intensifying natural fire activities,
 533 underscoring the need for integrated policies that address both anthropogenic sources and the



534 climate-driven amplification of natural emissions.

535

536 **Code and data availability:** The MOPITT CO data can be downloaded from
537 <https://asdc.larc.nasa.gov/data/MOPITT/>. The adjoint of GEOS-Chem model can be
538 downloaded from http://wiki.seas.harvard.edu/geos-chem/index.php/GEOS-Chem_Adjoint.
539 The a posteriori CO emission estimates (Col-FixOH, Prof-FixOH and Col-VarOH) can be
540 downloaded from <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.17221834>.

541

542 **Author Contributions:** Z.J. designed the research. Z.T. developed the model code and
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545

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553

554 **Tables and Figures**

555 **Table 1.** Mean biases of modeled CO concentrations relative to satellite and in-situ
556 observations for five model configurations. Configurations include GC-original (using original
557 monthly CO initial conditions + a priori emission inventories), GC-a priori (using optimized
558 monthly CO initial conditions + a priori emission inventories), and three a posteriori
559 simulations (using optimized initial conditions + optimized emission inventories). Biases are
560 presented in units of 10^{16} molecules cm^{-2} for MOPITT and ppb for other datasets.



561

562 **Table 2.** Mean anthropogenic CO emissions (Tg yr^{-1}) and their trends in 2003-2022 in the a
 563 priori inventories and those constrained by MOPITT column (Col) and profile (Prof) retrievals
 564 with fixed (Fix) and variable (Var) OH fields. The region definition is shown in Figure S1e.

565

566 **Table 3.** Mean biomass burning CO emissions (Tg yr^{-1}) and their trends in 2003-2022 in the a
 567 priori inventories and those constrained by MOPITT column (Col) and profile (Prof) retrievals
 568 with fixed (Fix) and variable (Var) OH fields. The region definition is shown in Figure S1f.

569

570 **Table 4.** Trends in column CO concentrations ($\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) driven by changes in anthropogenic and
 571 biomass burning emissions (based on Col-FixOH in 2003-2022). Values represent the annual
 572 percentage change in CO columns due solely to changes in one type of sources.

573

574 **Fig. 1.** (a-c) Mean a priori CO emissions from 2003 to 2022 with unit $10^{12} \text{ molecules cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$;
 575 (d-f) Scaling factors of Col-FixOH; (g-i) Scaling factors of Prof-FixOH; (j-l) Scaling factors
 576 of Col-VarOH. The scaling factors are the ratios between a posteriori to a priori CO emissions.

577

578 **Fig. 2.** Relative bias in column CO for 2003-2022, calculated as $(\text{Model} - \text{MOPITT}) / \text{MOPITT}$
 579 for GC-original (a), GC-a priori (b), and the a posteriori simulations (c-e).

580

581 **Fig. 3.** Twelve-month moving average of anthropogenic CO emissions (Tg month^{-1}) in 2003-
 582 2022. The series includes the a priori emission (green) and the a posteriori emissions
 583 constrained with Col-FixOH (blue), Prof-FixOH (magenta) and Col-VarOH (red). The region
 584 definition is shown in Figure S1e.

585

586 **Fig. 4.** Trends in CO emissions ($10^{10} \text{ molecules cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) from 2003 to 2022, as constrained
 587 by different MOPITT data sets and OH configurations. Months where biomass burning CO
 588 emissions contributed $>50\%$ of the total emissions in a grid cell were excluded from the trend
 589 calculations for anthropogenic and biogenic VOC emissions.

590

591 **Fig. 5.** Monthly biomass burning CO emissions (with unit Tg month^{-1}) in 2003-2022: a priori
 592 emission (green) and a posteriori emissions constrained with Col-FixOH (blue), Prof-FixOH
 593 (magenta) and Col-VarOH (red). The region definition is shown in Figure S1f.

594



595 **Fig. 6.** Comparison of OH fields and their impact on emission estimates. (a-c) Tropospheric
 596 OH columns (10^{12} molecules cm^{-2}) averaged over 2003-2022 from (a) the fixed OH field, (b)
 597 the variable OH field, and (c) their difference (Variable - Fixed). (d-f) The corresponding CO
 598 emission scaling factors from (d) the Col-FixOH inversion, (e) the Col-VarOH inversion, and
 599 (f) the difference between them (Col-VarOH - Col-FixOH).

600

601 **Fig. 7.** (a-c) Mean surface CO concentrations (ppb) for 2003-2022 from WDCGG observations
 602 and model simulations. (d-f) Trend of surface CO concentration from observations and model
 603 simulations. Only stations with 20 year observations (the time range between the first and last
 604 observations) during 2003-2022 are included.

605

606 **Fig. 8.** (a-c) Mean modeled column CO concentrations (10^{18} molecules cm^{-2}) from 2003 to
 607 2022. (d-f) Trend of modeled column CO concentrations ($\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) from 2003 to 2022.

608

609 **Fig. 9.** Attribution of trends ($\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) in surface and column CO from 2003 to 2022 to specific
 610 emission sectors, based on sensitivity simulations. Trends are shown for scenarios with: (a, b)
 611 all emissions fixed at 2003 levels; (c, d) only anthropogenic emissions varying over time; (e,
 612 f) only biomass burning emissions varying; (g, h) only biogenic VOC emissions varying. The
 613 varying emissions in these scenarios are prescribed from the Col-FixOH a posteriori inversion.

614

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Observations	GC-original	GC-a priori	Col-FixOH	Prof-FixOH	Col-VarOH
MOPITT	-39.4	-9.7	-7.3	-6.8	-5.1
WDGCC	-20.1	-2.4	1.8	1.7	0.4
HIPPO	-18.9	-3.8	-2.5	-2.1	-2.2
ATOM	-16.2	-3.4	-2.1	-2.9	-1.6

Table 1. Mean biases of modeled CO concentrations relative to satellite and in-situ observations for five model configurations. Configurations include GC-original (using original monthly CO initial conditions + a priori emission inventories), GC-a priori (using optimized monthly CO initial conditions + a priori emission inventories), and three a posteriori simulations (using optimized initial conditions + optimized emission inventories). Biases are presented in units of 10^{16} molecules cm^{-2} for MOPITT and ppb for other datasets.

Anthropogenic emissions		US	Europe	E. China	India	SE. Asia	Global
GC-a priori	Emissions	53.5	33.7	179.6	72.7	26.1	536.3
	Trends	-1.8 ± 0.1	-0.7 ± 0.1	-1.4 ± 0.3	0.3 ± 0.1	0.1 ± 0.0	-3.6 ± 0.4
Col-FixOH	Emissions	61.6	39.2	195.8	73.3	26.9	612.8
	Trends	-2.2 ± 0.3	-0.9 ± 0.2	-4.0 ± 0.8	0.8 ± 0.3	0.0 ± 0.1	-5.6 ± 0.9
Prof-FixOH	Emissions	56.7	36.3	188.3	69.9	26.8	572.2
	Trends	-2.0 ± 0.3	-0.8 ± 0.2	-3.0 ± 0.4	0.5 ± 0.2	0.1 ± 0.1	-5.0 ± 0.4
Col-VarOH	Emissions	58.2	38.5	186.7	67.7	26.3	590.1
	Trends	-2.0 ± 0.3	-0.9 ± 0.2	-3.7 ± 0.8	0.7 ± 0.2	-0.0 ± 0.1	-5.3 ± 0.8

Table 2. Mean anthropogenic CO emissions (Tg yr^{-1}) and their trends in 2003-2022 in the a priori inventories and those constrained by MOPITT column (Col) and profile (Prof) retrievals with fixed (Fix) and variable (Var) OH fields. The region definition is shown in Figure S1e.

Biomass burning	Boreal N. America	Boreal Asia	S. America	Africa	SE. Asia	Australia	Global
GC-a priori	21.50	39.50	44.00	136.90	25.00	12.00	312.50
Col-FixOH	20.41	45.38	37.42	167.51	17.99	15.08	345.61
Prof-FixOH	21.24	46.68	38.37	148.76	19.73	13.70	326.56
Col-VarOH	18.03	41.02	33.30	159.48	18.98	15.81	325.75

Table 3. Mean biomass burning CO emissions (Tg yr^{-1}) and their trends in 2003-2022 in the a priori inventories and those constrained by MOPITT column (Col) and profile (Prof) retrievals with fixed (Fix) and variable (Var) OH fields. The region definition is shown in Figure S1f.



Region	Anthropogenic	Region	Biomass burning
United States	-0.57%	Boreal N. America	0.43%
Europe	-0.69%	Boreal Asia	0.48%
Eastern China	-0.69%	South America	-0.13%
India	0.03%	Africa	0.09%
Southeast Asia	-0.19%	Southeast Asia	-0.22%
\	\	Australia	-0.12%
Northern Hemisphere	-0.51%	Northern Hemisphere	0.24%
Global	-0.27%	Global	0.10%

Table 4. Trends in column CO concentrations (% yr⁻¹) driven by changes in anthropogenic and biomass burning emissions (based on Col-FixOH in 2003–2022). Values represent the annual percentage change in CO columns due solely to changes in one type of sources.

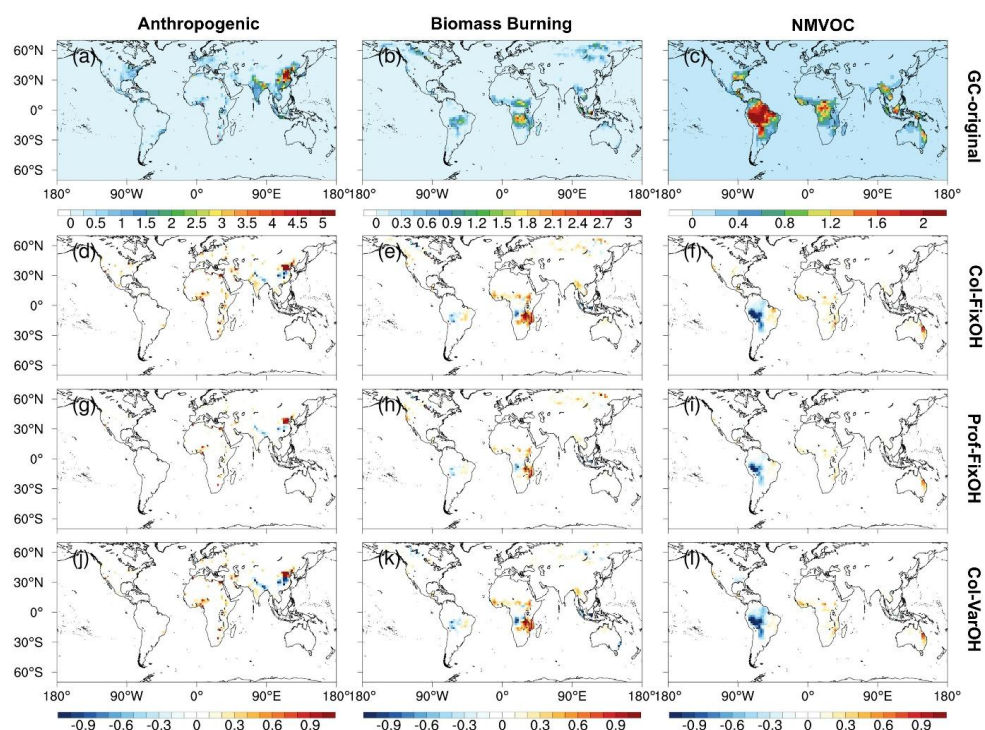


Fig. 1. (a–c) Mean a priori CO emissions from 2003 to 2022 with unit 10^{12} molecules $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$; (d–f) Scaling factors of Col-FixOH; (g–i) Scaling factors of Prof-FixOH; (j–l) Scaling factors of Col-VarOH. The scaling factors are the ratios between a posteriori to a priori CO emissions.

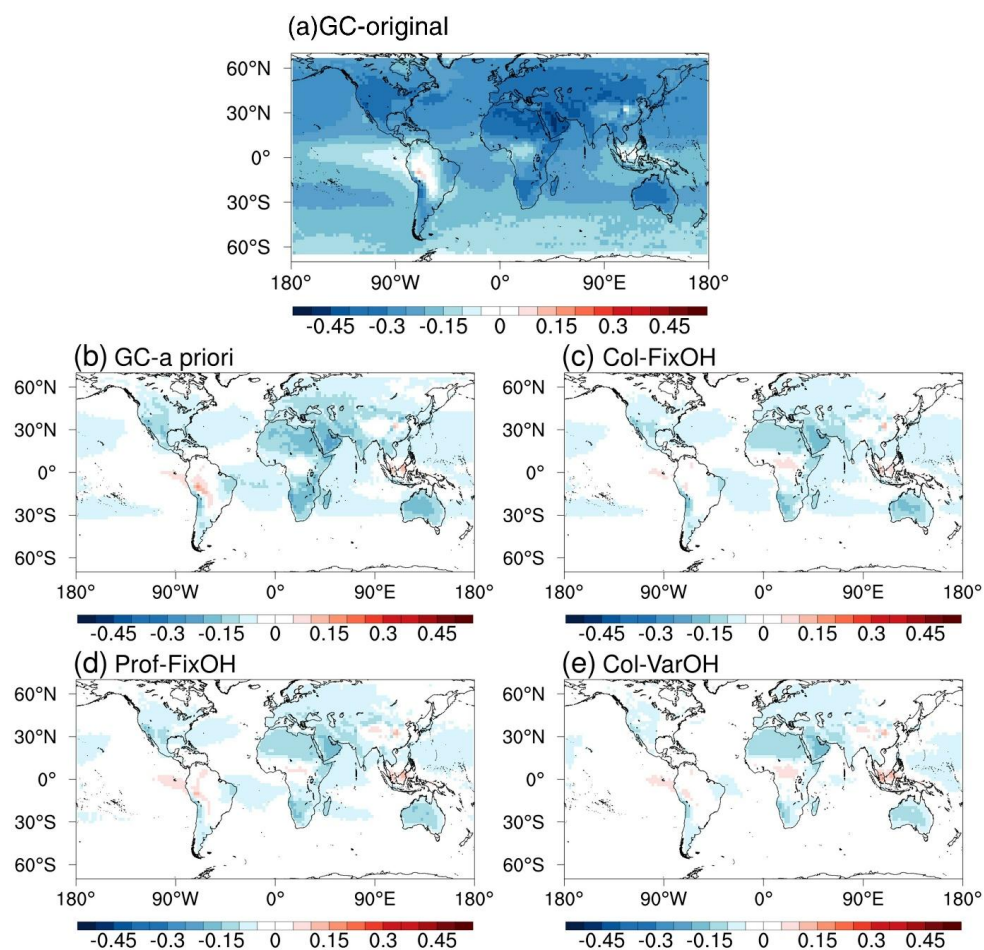


Fig. 2. Relative bias in column CO for 2003-2022, calculated as $(\text{Model} - \text{MOPITT}) / \text{MOPITT}$ for GC-original (a), GC-a priori (b), and the a posteriori simulations (c-e).

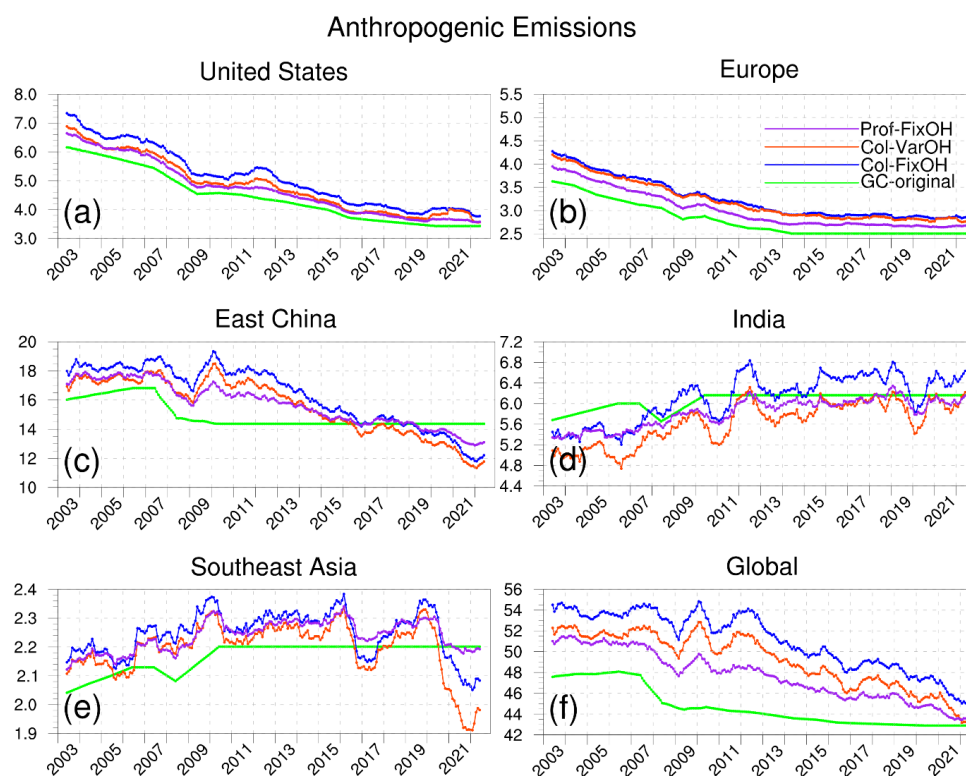


Fig. 3. Twelve-month moving average of anthropogenic CO emissions (Tg month⁻¹) in 2003–2022. The series includes the a priori emission (green) and the a posteriori emissions constrained with Col-FixOH (blue), Prof-FixOH (magenta) and Col-VarOH (red). The region definition is shown in Figure S1e.

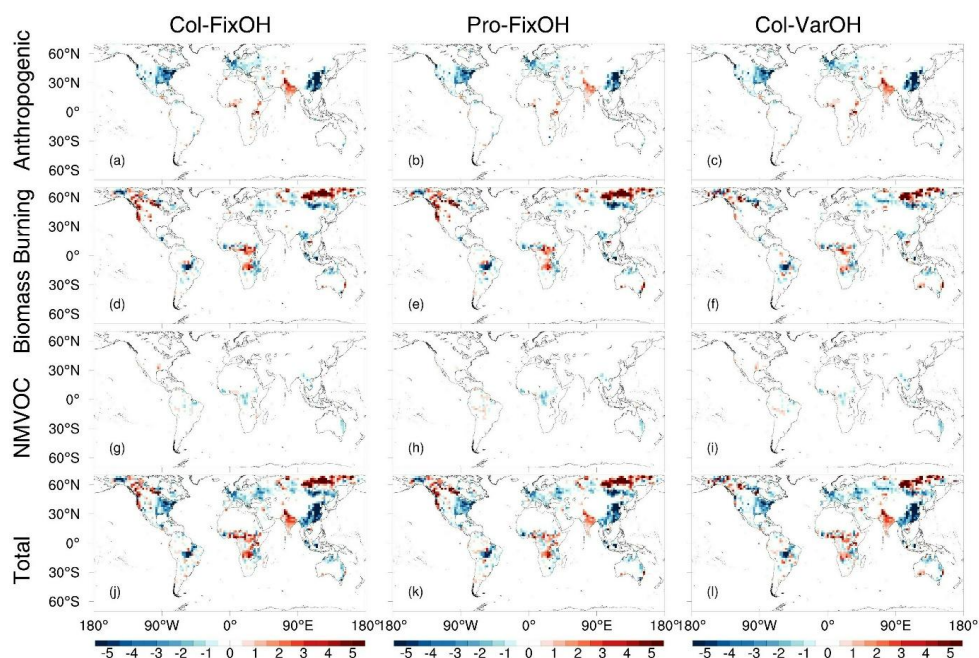


Fig. 4. Trends in CO emissions (10^{10} molecules $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$) from 2003 to 2022, as constrained by different MOPITT data sets and OH configurations. Months where biomass burning CO emissions contributed $>50\%$ of the total emissions in a grid cell were excluded from the trend calculations for anthropogenic and biogenic VOC emissions.

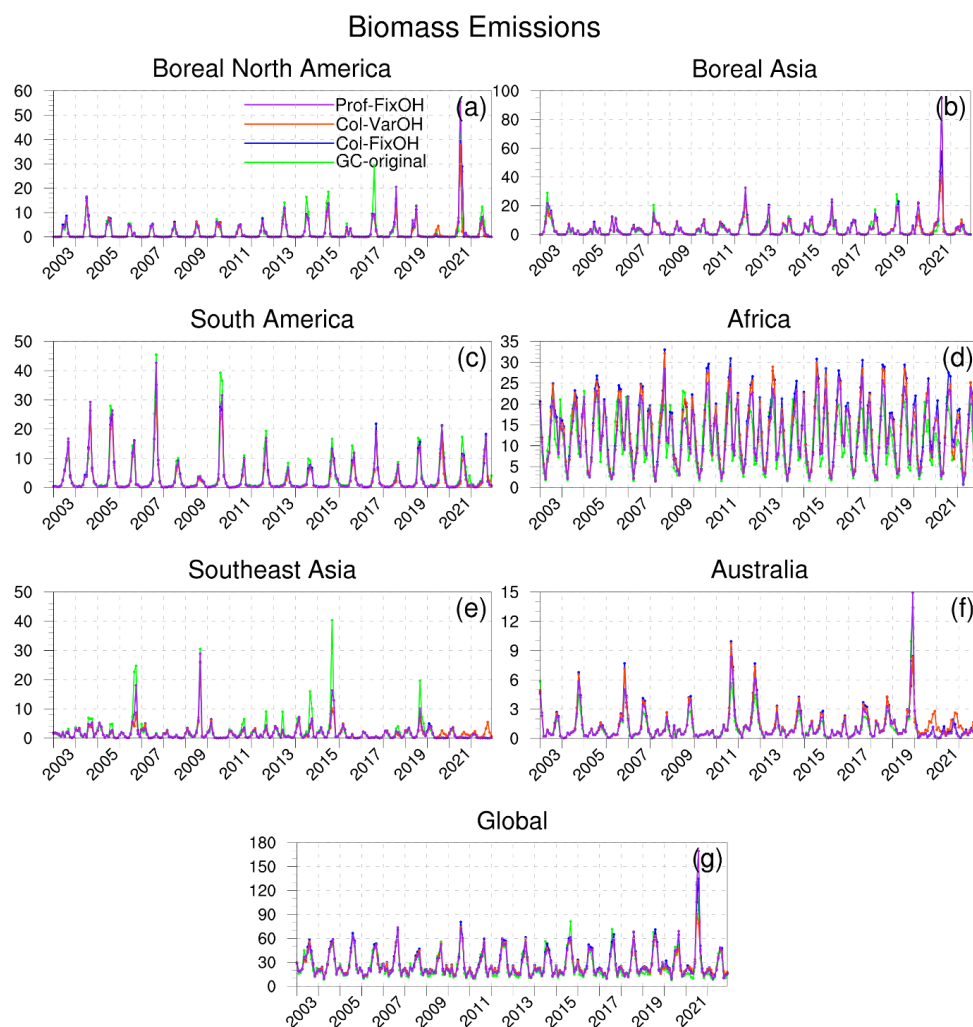


Fig. 5. Monthly biomass burning CO emissions (with unit Tg month^{-1}) in 2003-2022: a priori emission (green) and a posteriori emissions constrained with Col-FixOH (blue), Prof-FixOH (magenta) and Col-VarOH (red). The region definition is shown in Figure S1f.

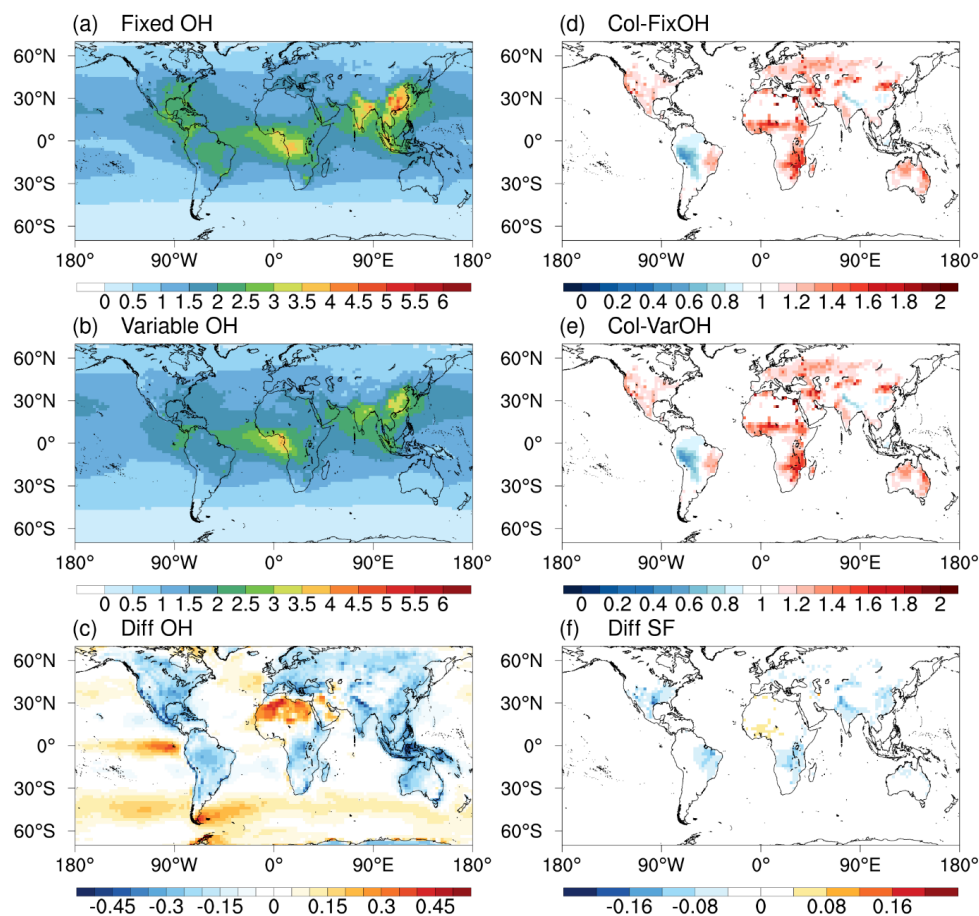


Fig. 6. Comparison of OH fields and their impact on emission estimates. (a-c) Tropospheric OH columns (10^{12} molecules cm^{-2}) averaged over 2003-2022 from (a) the fixed OH field, (b) the variable OH field, and (c) their difference (Variable - Fixed). (d-f) The corresponding CO emission scaling factors from (d) the Col-FixOH inversion, (e) the Col-VarOH inversion, and (f) the difference between them (Col-VarOH - Col-FixOH).

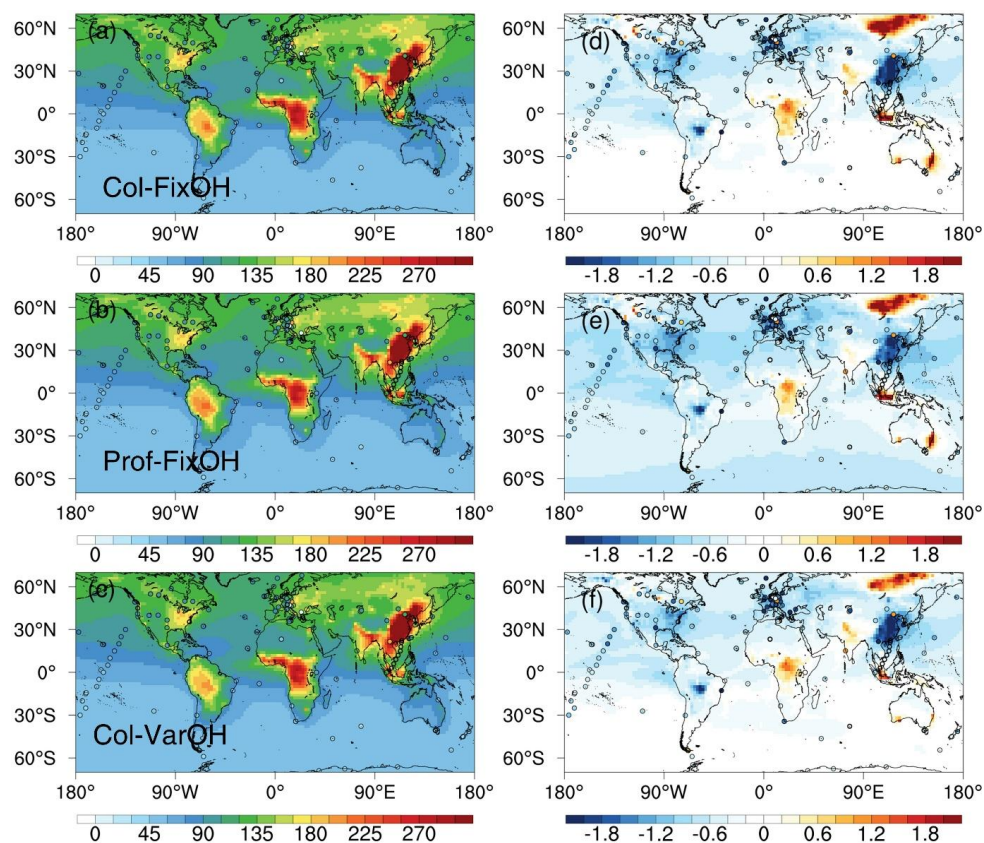


Fig. 7. (a-c) Mean surface CO concentrations (ppb) for 2003-2022 from WDCGG observations and model simulations. (d-f) Trend of surface CO concentration from observations and model simulations. Only stations with 20 year observations (the time range between the first and last observations) during 2003-2022 are included.

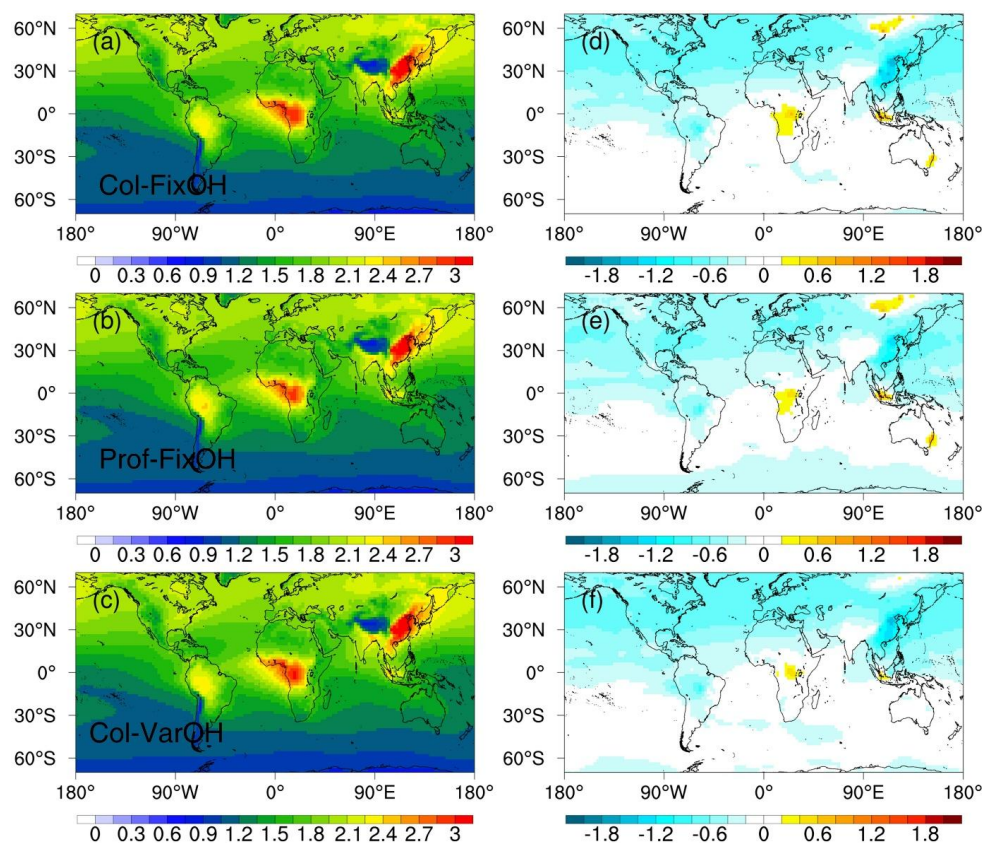


Fig. 8. (a-c) Mean modeled column CO concentrations (10^{18} molecules cm^{-2}) from 2003 to 2022. (d-f) Trend of modeled column CO concentrations ($\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) from 2003 to 2022.

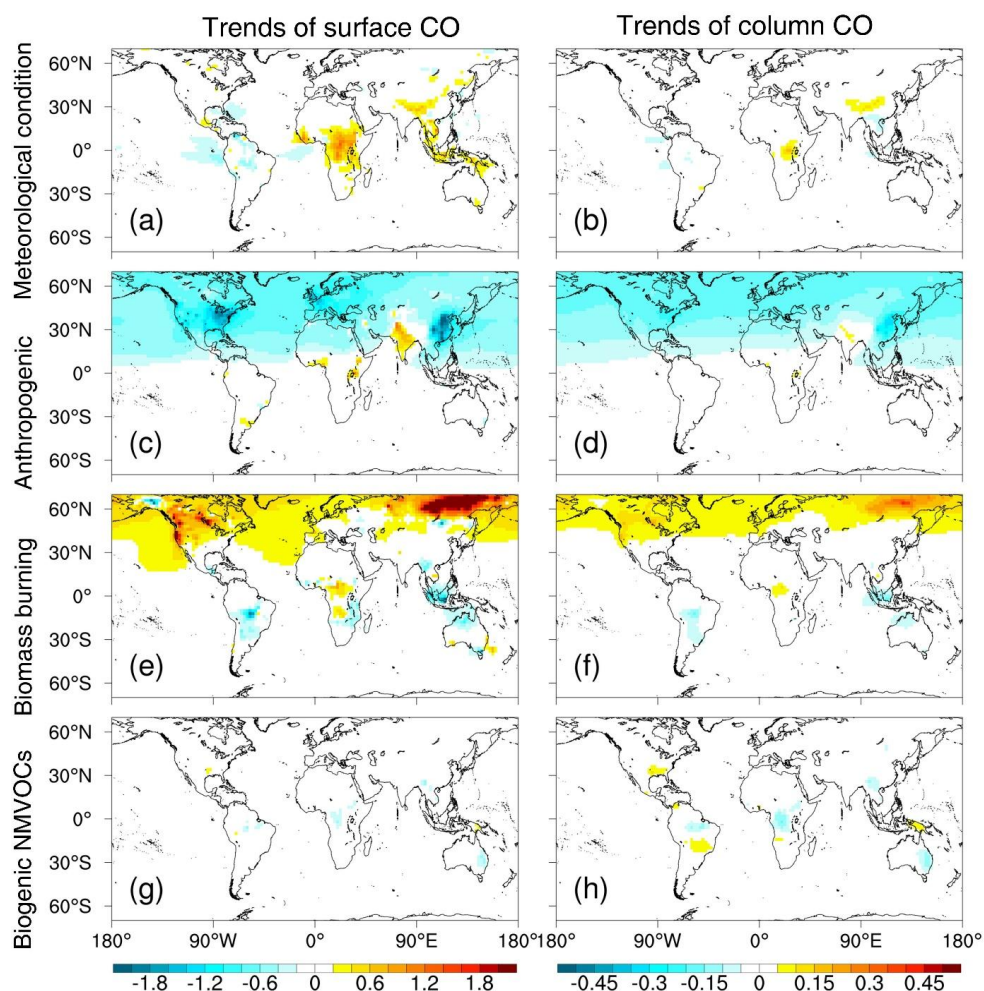


Fig. 9. Attribution of trends ($\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) in surface and column CO from 2003 to 2022 to specific emission sectors, based on sensitivity simulations. Trends are shown for scenarios with: (a, b) all emissions fixed at 2003 levels; (c, d) only anthropogenic emissions varying over time; (e, f) only biomass burning emissions varying; (g, h) only biogenic VOC emissions varying. The varying emissions in these scenarios are prescribed from the Col-FixOH a posteriori inversion.