

# The urban share and regional urban dynamics of global greenhouse gas emissions

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## Article

### Keywords:

Posted Date: June 2nd, 2026

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-9868204/v1>

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**Additional Declarations:** There is **NO** Competing Interest.

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# 1 The urban share and regional urban dynamics of global greenhouse gas 2 emissions

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9 **Abstract:** The share of global GHG emissions in urban areas, home to the majority of global  
10 population, is a central metric in establishing the importance and prioritization of cities for global  
11 GHG emissions mitigation efforts. However, the urban share of global GHG emissions remains  
12 poorly quantified due to a paucity of accurate and comprehensive urban GHG emissions data and  
13 lack of clarity on both geographical and system boundaries. Here, we use a new machine  
14 learning-based global fossil fuel CO<sub>2</sub> (FFCO<sub>2</sub>) emissions dataset (*Vulcan-UrbanML*) to estimate  
15 the global urban share of territorial FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions. We quantify the urban share for multiple  
16 geographic boundaries, system boundaries, and IPCC regional domains over the 2010 to 2022  
17 time period. We find a 2022 global territorial FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions urban share range of 63.6-69.9%,  
18 depending upon the urban boundary considered. The consumption-based global urban share is  
19 estimated as 65.3%-79.3%. Per capita urban emissions are significantly lower than their rural  
20 counterparts in the Developed Countries, the Middle East, and Eastern Europe and West-Central  
21 Asia regions. The global territorial FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions urban share increased 1.4% over the 13  
22 year time period examined here.

23 **One sentence summary:** Cities are responsible for between 63.6% and 69.9% of global fossil  
24 fuel CO<sub>2</sub> emissions.

25

26 **Main:** Cities and urban areas, home to the majority of global population, occupy a pivotal  
27 planetary role as they face the risks and responses to climate change. Chief among these is the  
28 potential to mitigate GHG emissions through a wide collection of policies and measures (Lwasa  
29 et al., 2022). Much of the justification for this recognition in recent literature and assessment  
30 reports, including the upcoming IPCC Special Report on Cities, is driven by the recognition that  
31 cities and urban areas constitute a large share of global GHG emissions and are thereby crucial to  
32 global progress on combating climate change (Gurney et al., 2022).

33 In spite of its importance, surprisingly few estimates of the global GHG emissions urban share  
34 have been made. More importantly, the few estimates that have been made vary considerably and  
35 are sensitive to a series of underlying assumptions and approximations. The first, and perhaps  
36 most important limitation, is that there is no globally comprehensive, bottom-up collation of  
37 urban GHG emissions though national and regional subsets exist (Ahn et al., 2023; Huo et al.,  
38 2022; Kona et al., 2021; Kongboon et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2024; Moran et al., 2022; Nangini et  
39 al., 2019). The aggregation of gridded global GHG emissions data to urban areas offers a “top-  
40 down” alternative estimate of city GHG emissions, and two studies have taken this approach.  
41 The first, aggregated a global 250m consumption-based CO<sub>2eq</sub> (CO<sub>2</sub>+CH<sub>4</sub>) emissions dataset into  
42 cities and towns estimating a global urban share of 68% in the year 2015 (Moran et al., 2018).

1 This was later extrapolated to 2020 arriving at a 67-72% range for the global urban consumption-  
2 based CO<sub>2eq</sub> share (Gurney et al., 2022; Lwasa et al., 2022).

3 A global 0.1° x 0.1° gridded territorial CO<sub>2</sub> emissions dataset was aggregated into “urban  
4 centers” (akin to a central core in cities, leaving out peri-urban or suburban portions of a city)  
5 and estimated the global urban anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions share at 35% (Crippa et al., 2021).  
6 Earlier estimates, scaled from mean regional per capita urban emission estimates synthesized by  
7 the IPCC, reported an urban share range of 71-76% for territorial CO<sub>2</sub> emissions for the early  
8 2000s time period (Seto et al., 2014).

9 The variation in these estimates owes to three fundamental choices. Given that there is no single  
10 standard database of urban GHG emissions, the first element of variation in the estimation of the  
11 global urban GHG emissions share is the emission dataset used, its time period, and how the  
12 spatial scaling (i.e., downscaling from nation, aggregation from grid cells) is performed (Shi et  
13 al., 2025; Sun et al., 2026; Gurney et al., 2026).

14 The second choice is the specification of system boundaries. System boundaries refer to which  
15 elements of the within- and trans-boundary GHG emission flows are to be included in a given  
16 urban GHG emissions account (Chen et al., 2020). Examples of within-boundary choices are  
17 which sectors/processes are included (e.g., residential, railroad, industrial, combustion-only),  
18 whether to include biological GHG exchange, and which gases or categories of gases are  
19 included (e.g., CO<sub>2</sub> versus CO<sub>2eq</sub>). An example of a trans-boundary GHG emissions flow the  
20 GHG emissions in city A associated with the supply chain of goods consumed within a city B.  
21 Trans-boundary emission differences are conventionally classified as territorial emissions  
22 (physically entering the atmosphere within a city) and consumption-based emissions (accounting  
23 for emissions regardless of location driven by the consumption of goods and services within a  
24 city).

25 The final key ingredient is the choice of urban geographical boundaries. Since the definition of  
26 what constitutes a city or urban area is often dependent upon political, physical, and social norms  
27 which vary across the globe, common or systematically agreed upon geographic extent has been  
28 difficult to establish (Uchiyama & Mori, 2017).

29 The differences in these three fundamental aspects of generating an estimate of the global urban  
30 share of GHG emissions makes the few existing estimates incomparable and can be misleading if  
31 used without qualifications as to the boundaries and data used.

32 Here, we overcome the shortcomings of the existing studies by building a new machine-learning-  
33 based, city-scale global estimate of annual fossil fuel CO<sub>2</sub> (FFCO<sub>2</sub>) emissions trained on a well-  
34 established, high-resolution, atmospherically tested U.S. FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions estimate spanning the  
35 2010-2022 time period. We estimate these territorial FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions for four globally available  
36 urban geographic boundaries. We also aggregate an existing consumption-based global gridded  
37 GHG (CO<sub>2</sub> + CH<sub>4</sub>) emissions dataset into the same urban boundary ensemble to provide insight  
38 into the implications of differing system boundaries. We estimate the global and regional urban  
39 share and further examine the relationship between population, economics, and land area in  
40 relation to the global and regional urban FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions share across the 13 years of urban  
41 FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions.

1 Results and Discussion:

2 The urban share of global and regional FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions for the year 2022 across all four urban  
3 boundary definitions and two different system boundaries using the Vulcan-UrbanML estimates  
4 are shown in Table 1 (see SI, Table S1 for results across all years). Globally, the urban share of  
5 territorial FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions ranges from 63.6% - 69.9%, reflecting the range of values across  
6 four urban boundary definitions. This contrasts with the recent estimate of 35% based on urban  
7 aggregation of the Emissions Database Global Atmospheric Research (EDGAR) global gridded  
8 anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions (Crippa et al., 2024). A key distinction is that the urban boundary  
9 used in that study, the Global Human Settlement - Urban Centre Database (GHS-UCDB)  
10 boundary, is representative of the urban center or “core” area of cities (Melchiorri et al., 2024).  
11 Using that boundary with the Vulcan-UrbanML dataset developed here arrives at an urban share  
12 of 40.6% (see SI, Table S2).

13 For the consumption-based emissions, the 2022 global urban share ranges from 65.3% - 79.3%,  
14 somewhat larger than the territorial emissions share. This consumption-based range is consistent  
15 with a previously reported consumption-based urban GHG emissions share of 67-72% (Gurney  
16 et al., 2022; Lwasa et al., 2022).

17 Regionally, the 2022 territorial urban FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions shares range from 44.4%-56.0% (Eastern  
18 Europe & West-Central Asia) to 69.8-72.9% (Asia & Developing Pacific). The consumption-  
19 based equivalent emissions range from 55.1%-72.2% (Africa) to 70.9%-85.7% (Developed  
20 Countries).

21 The absolute 2022 global territorial urban FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions range from 5.42-5.96 GtC. In the six  
22 IPCC regions, the values range from 0.16-0.22 GtC (Africa) to 2.96-3.09 GtC (Asia and  
23 Developing Pacific) (Figure 1 and SI Table S1).

24 The relationship between land area, population, GDP, and FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions across the six  
25 regional aggregations in the year 2022 is presented in Figure 3. The urban emissions share value  
26 is commensurate with the population share in roughly half of the six global regions. Where the  
27 population share exceeds the urban FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions share, the urban per capita emissions are,  
28 by definition, less than the per capita value for the remainder of the region (the rural land area),  
29 and vice-versa. This occurs near-consistently for the Developed Countries (excepting the GUB  
30 boundary), the Eastern Europe & West-Central Asia, and the Middle East regions where urban  
31 per capita values are lower than the regional rural per capita value. In the Asia & Developing  
32 Pacific, Latin America & Caribbean, and Africa regions, the urban per capita value exceeds the  
33 regional rural per capita value.

34 All regions, with the exception of the GCTB boundary, suggest that urban economic  
35 productivity, represented by urban GDP, occupy a greater share of the regional total than their  
36 population share. This is particularly evident for the FUA urban boundary and this may reflect  
37 the inclusion of outlying industrially active areas with a disproportionately smaller population  
38 that is found in the less expansive GUB urban boundary (Bradley et al., 2025; Kerr et al., 2024).  
39 In the case of the GCTB boundary, the inclusion of smaller settlements (“towns”) may result in  
40 an increase in population with limited increase in commercial or industrial activity.

41 The amount of land within the urban boundaries as a share of the regional total is consistently  
42 largest for the Developed Countries and Asia & Developing Pacific regions, regardless of the  
43 boundary considered.

1 Between 2010 and 2022, the global urban FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions grew at average rate of 0.88%-  
2 0.90%/year ( $\pm 0.08\%$ /year) which was dominated by an annual decline of -1.08% to -1.14%/year  
3 ( $\pm 0.16\%$ /year) in the Developed Countries region and a more than compensating increase of  
4 +2.25%-2.50%/year ( $\pm 0.16\%$ /year) in the Asia & Developing Pacific region. The Developed  
5 Countries and Asia & Developing Pacific regions together account for 81.1%-84.2% of the  
6 global urban FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions. The urban share grew 1.4% ( $\pm 0.03\%$ /year) over the 13 year time  
7 period examined here.

8 The juxtaposition of four trend values: the urban FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions share, the urban per capita  
9 FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions, the absolute urban FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions, and the absolute regional FFCO<sub>2</sub>  
10 emissions, provide additional insight into the regional urban dynamics (Figure 4). Firstly, the  
11 Eastern Europe & West-Central Asia and the Middle East regions show mostly insignificant  
12 trends for the urban share and the urban per capita emissions but significant positive and  
13 commensurate trends in absolute urban and region-wide FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions. This suggests  
14 increasing urban population with limited efficiency or economies of scale associated with the  
15 urban emissions.

16 By contrast, the Africa region shows positive significant absolute urban emissions coupled with a  
17 decline in both the urban per capita and urban share values. The total Africa region FFCO<sub>2</sub>  
18 emissions are also growing slightly faster than the urban component. This is suggestive of  
19 increasing urban economies of scale whereby growth in urban emissions occur in spite of decline  
20 per capita values.

21 The Asia & the Developing Pacific region shows a combination of positive significant growth in  
22 the urban per capita FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions and both the absolute urban and region total FFCO<sub>2</sub>  
23 emissions but insignificant changes for the urban share. This is suggestive of a combination of  
24 urban population growth and increasing per capita fossil fuel consumption potentially tied to  
25 increasing individual wealth. The lack of significant change in the urban share is consistent with  
26 the aligned growth in both the urban and region absolute FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions.

27 The Developed Countries region shows declines in the urban per capita emissions, the absolute  
28 urban emissions, and absolute regional emissions but an increase in the urban share. This  
29 suggests both urban and rural emission declines, somewhat great in urban areas. This could be  
30 driven by increasing economies of scale in urban areas.

31 Finally, the Latin America & Caribbean region shows all four metrics declining, though with  
32 large uncertainties. This mixture of trends implies multiple potential change dynamics from  
33 overall urban decline to gains in urban energy consumption efficiency outpacing regional trends.

34 The distribution of FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions in cities across the planet is lognormally distributed. The  
35 cumulative distribution of 2022 urban territorial FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions indicates that, out of 48,262  
36 cities, the top 2 cities (Guangzhou and Shanghai, China) emit an amount equivalent to the  
37 national total of Germany (Figure 5). The top 15 cities and amount equal to the national total of  
38 India, the top 42 cities an amount equal to the United States and the top 323 cities equivalent to  
39 the national total FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions of China.

40 Though there is no independent means to verify the Vulcan-UrbanML urban emission estimates,  
41 we compare the predicted values to a curated set of individual self-reported city emissions  
42 (N=77) from the Carbon Disclosure Project (see Methods) (Nangini et al., 2019). The  
43 comparison shows a mean relative difference (calculated as: [CDP-Vulcan

1 UrbanML]/mean[CDP,Vulcan UrbanML]) for the FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions of -13.4% ( $\pm 7.8\%$ ) and a  
2 mean relative difference of -5.1% ( $\pm 8.9\%$ ) on a per unit area basis (acknowledging that the urban  
3 polygon boundaries cannot be identically matched). Additional information is provided in the  
4 Supplementary Information.

## 5 **Methods**

6 Overview: The urban share analysis in this study is based on a machine learning (ML) approach to estimate urban  
7 FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions globally. This method includes different geospatial input datasets, harmonized to the same  
8 grid/pixel resolution. These datasets are aggregated to four urban polygon definitions and trained on United States  
9 Vulcan version 4.0 territorial FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions similarly aggregated to the same urban polygon definitions across  
10 the 2010-2022 time period. The predicted urban FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions are analyzed at the IPCC regional and global  
11 scales (see SI, Figure S4).

12 Input and training data: Open-source, globally consistent geospatial data, aggregated to common urban polygons are  
13 used as inputs to the Vulcan-UrbanML model (SI, Table S5). The input data includes a mixture of human energy  
14 consumption activity proxies (nighttime lights), economic metrics (GDP), transportation infrastructure (road  
15 density), demographic distributions (population), urban infrastructure (building volume and build-up area), and  
16 pollutant emissions (NO<sub>x</sub>). Combining these yields a multidimensional representation of FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions. The  
17 input datasets are harmonized to a common 1km x 1km resolution and reprojected to the WGS84 geographic  
18 coordinate system (EPSG:4326). The aim is to achieve annual input data spanning the 2010-2022 time period.  
19 However, the input data represent a mixture of annual data, 5-year interval data (population, building volume, build-  
20 up area), in addition to timespans that do not extend to the full length of the 2010-2022 time period (nighttime lights,  
21 GDP, NO<sub>x</sub>). The 5-year interval data is linearly interpolated to annual increments. Shorter time series are  
22 extrapolated, fixing the out-years to the closest annual value. Road density is available for a single year, 2018, and  
23 hence, has no interannual variation. The urban boundaries are similarly fixed with no growth or decline over the  
24 time period examined here (see information below).

25 The training dataset used in the ML-based prediction model is the Vulcan version 4.0 annual FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions from  
26 2010 to 2022 (Gurney et al., 2025). This training data is only available for the United States. It has the distinct  
27 advantage of having been compared to both atmospheric observations and to in situ monitoring. It shows close  
28 consistency with observations in numerous analyses (Basu et al., 2020; Dass et al., 2025; Gurney et al., 2025;  
29 Lauvaux et al., 2020).

30 Urban boundaries: Three different boundary definitions are used to predict the urban FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions. The first is  
31 the Functional Urban Areas (FUA) dataset (Moreno-Monroy et al., 2021). The FUA is defined using a combination  
32 of population density and vehicle commuting flows by combining dense urban cores with their surrounding  
33 functional labor-market catchments. Globally, there are 9,030 urban entities in the FUA dataset covering an area of  
34  $2.49 \times 10^6$  km<sup>2</sup>. The second boundary is the Global Urban Boundaries (GUB) dataset (Li et al., 2020). GUB is  
35 derived from satellite-observed built-up extent delineating contiguous urbanized land purely on the basis of physical  
36 infrastructure and settlement morphology (Li et al., 2020). Both FUA and GUB reflect conditions circa 2015.  
37 Globally, there are 65,432 urban entities in the GUB dataset covering an area of  $8.1 \times 10^5$  km<sup>2</sup>. Hence, though there  
38 are far fewer FUA urban entities, they occupy a much larger total land area than the GUB boundary. Third, is the  
39 Global City and Town Boundaries (GCTB) dataset which relies on a combination of remotely-sensed impervious  
40 surface information and 1km<sup>2</sup> population (Bai et al., 2025). It represents annually resolved information and includes  
41 89,034 urban entities (“cities” and “towns”) encompassing  $8.04 \times 10^5$  km<sup>2</sup> of land surface.

42 Given the different metrics used to delineate these boundaries there are instances where the FUA and GUB urban  
43 entities fully or partially overlap and instances in which they are discrete. This is particularly the case for the GUB  
44 boundary where there are many GUB urban entities that are not associated with a FUA urban entity. These are  
45 typically smaller urban areas that do not achieve the threshold cutoff for the FUA definition but are considered  
46 urban entities under the GUB definition. To represent a final more encompassing urban boundary definition, we  
47 combined the FUA and GUB boundaries into a fourth urban boundary definition (“FUGUB”). Where a GUB  
48 boundary is partly or wholly contained within a FUA boundary the portion contained is fully eliminated from the  
49 GUB dataset. GUB delineations that are partly or wholly outside of a FUA urban boundary are retained. This leads  
50 to 48,267 FUGUB urban entities covering with an urban area of  $2.8 \times 10^6$  km<sup>2</sup>.

1 Two additional boundaries were explored, but not used in this study, the GADM, and the UCDB boundaries. See SI,  
2 Text S1 for additional details on their consideration.

3 Model development and evaluation: After upscaling the input and training datasets to the urban boundaries, the  
4 resulting dataset is a polygon-year feature matrix, where each observation corresponds to a specific urban area and  
5 year. This structure enables supervised learning of relationships between input data (urban characteristics) and the  
6 target urban FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions. Input variables are transformed (e.g., logarithmic scaling) to reduce skewness and  
7 standardized to improve numerical conditioning.

8 Vulcan v4 FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions were upscaled from the point, line, and polygon intrinsic spatial scale to the same urban  
9 boundaries as the input dataset. Because the Vulcan dataset is only available in the U.S. domain; hence, the model  
10 was trained and tested in the U.S. and used to estimate FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions globally.

11 Since U.S. urban areas may not offer adequate representation of cities in other global geographies, the U.S.-specific  
12 input variables aggregated into the urban polygons are matched to the input variables calculated and aggregated to  
13 the IPCC region-specific polygons, and only those U.S. urban polygons that have similar input variable  
14 characteristics for the region are selected. This is accomplished via the following series of steps: 1) normalize each  
15 input variable to standardized units; 2) screen the U.S. urban polygons, retaining only those with standardized input  
16 variable values that are within ±1 standard deviation of matched IPCC regional variable distributions; and 3) rank  
17 the U.S. urban polygons according to their overall similarity to the IPCC region input variables using Euclidean  
18 distance in the standardized feature space (with smaller distances indicating closer matches). The polygons that  
19 matched most closely were retained as region-specific training analogs for model development. This is done to  
20 minimize the differences due to regionally specific infrastructure, energy consuming behavior, and economic  
21 conditions between U.S. cities and cities in the rest of the world. Hence, only the selected polygons for each region  
22 and boundary are used to train and test the model.

23 Three ML models are used, and the best-performing model is selected for global urban FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions estimation.  
24 Ridge regression is used as a linear baseline (Hoerl & Kennard, 1970). Histogram-based Gradient Boosting  
25 Regressor (HGBR) (Friedman, 2001) and Light Gradient Boosting Machine (LightGBM) (Ke et al., 2017) are used  
26 as ensemble ML techniques considered very good for transfer learning. Model performance was assessed using k-  
27 fold cross-validation (k = 5–10), with hyperparameter tuning conducted via grid and random search strategies  
28 (Bergstra & Bengio, 2012). Feature importance was evaluated using permutation importance and SHAP (SHapley  
29 Additive exPlanations) values (Lundberg & Lee, 2017).

30 Coefficient of determination (R<sup>2</sup>), mean absolute error (MAE), root mean squared error (RMSE), mean absolute  
31 percentage error (MAPE), and bias are the model performance assessment parameters. Among the tested models,  
32 LightGBM consistently achieved superior predictive performance and was selected for estimating global FFCO<sub>2</sub>  
33 emissions. Detailed diagnostics are shown in Table S6.

34 A complete description of the Vulcan-UrbanML model and results are in Aslam and Gurney (2026).

35 Calculation of results: The trained LightGBM model was applied globally to all urban polygons across the four  
36 urban boundaries for each year from 2010 to 2022. This yielded spatially estimates of urban territorial FFCO<sub>2</sub>  
37 emissions worldwide (Figure 2). Predicted emissions were aggregated to regional and global scales using the IPCC  
38 AR6 regional classification framework (IPCC, 2021). The 6 regions and the member countries are shown in SI,  
39 Table S7. Feature importance indicated that the most influential variables were Nighttime lights, population, road  
40 density and the two built metrics (volume and area), in that order (SI, Figure S4). GDP and NO<sub>x</sub> contributed  
41 information, but the relative feature importance of these two variables was less than 5%.

42 To identify the urban FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions share, the EDGAR v8.0 national totals are aggregated to each of the six  
43 IPCC regions and these are used as the share denominator (Crippa et al., 2024). The urban share is thus calculated  
44 as:

$$45 \quad \text{Urban FFCO}_2 \text{ emissions share (\%)} = \frac{\sum \text{Predicted urban FFCO}_2 \text{ emissions}}{\text{EDGAR total FFCO}_2 \text{ emissions}} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

46 It is also important to note that, since Vulcan does not include fugitive emissions, fuel exploitation, and agricultural  
47 emissions, these sectors are removed from the EDGAR national totals to match the sector composition of the  
48 predicted urban FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions.

49 Consumption-based CO<sub>2eq</sub> emissions: The consumption-based GHG emissions used in this study is based on the  
50 work of Moran et al., (2018). This 250m resolution consumption-based CO<sub>2eq</sub> emissions dataset is upscaled into the

1 four urban boundaries considered in this study. The gases included in this dataset are somewhat different than the  
2 predicted values in the Vulcan-UrbanML model results. The consumption-based account includes CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> and  
3 therefore, in calculating the consumption-based urban share, the EDGAR regional totals include both anthropogenic  
4 CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> are used.

5 Independent check: We obtained city self-reported inventories from Nangini et al. (2017), which have data from 373  
6 global cities. We matched the cities using fuzzy string-matching, which subsequently reduced the number of  
7 comparable cities to 117 for 2016 and 2017. Because the polygon boundaries in this data differ from the geographic  
8 urban boundaries used in the Vulcan-UrbanML boundaries, we choose the boundary in the Vulcan-UrbanML results  
9 that provide the closest match in total urban area. However, a two-standard-deviation (2SD) filter is subsequently  
10 applied to exclude cities with unusually large boundary-area differences. The final dataset included 77 cities  
11 worldwide, of which 61 were outside the U.S.. Regionally, the fewest cities were available in the Middle East, with  
12 just 1.

13 We paired these urban emissions to the Vulcan-UrbanML estimates and calculated both an absolute emissions and  
14 emissions per area relative difference. This cannot be considered a form of validation as the self-reported inventories  
15 can contain large biases and the system boundaries are not consistently reported (Gurney et al., 2021).

16 **Acknowledgements:** Thanks to Jocelyn Turnbull and Angel Hsu for insightful discussion. This  
17 work was made possible through the generous support of the Builders Bridge/Grantham/Sant  
18 Foundations combined grant.

19 **Author Contributions:** KRG conceptualized the research and wrote the manuscript. BA  
20 performed analysis and calculations. PD, SP, and AK performed elements coding, data collection  
21 and contributed to the manuscript development.

22 **Competing Interests:** The authors declare no competing interests.

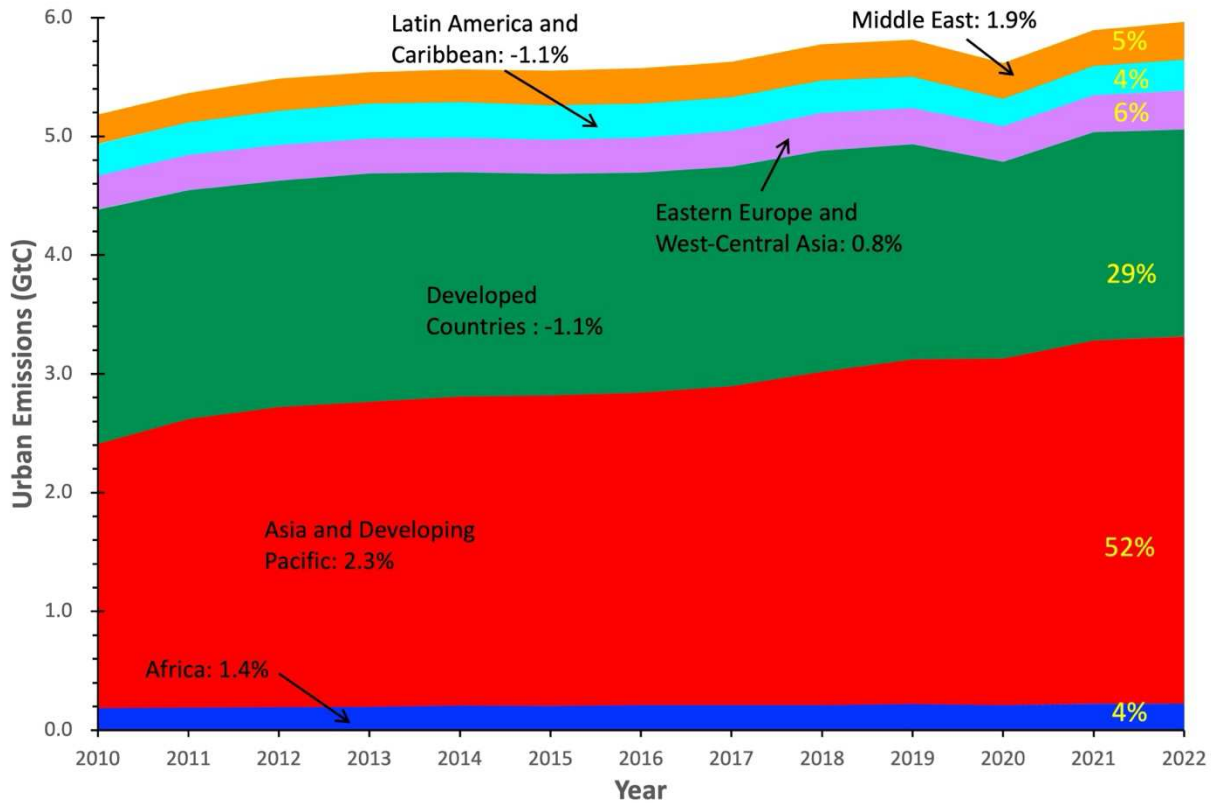
23 **Data availability:** The complete Vulcan-UrbanML output is publicly available at (repository  
24 TBD).

25

1 **Table 1.** 2022 Regional and global urban share of territorial and consumption-based FFCO<sub>2</sub>  
 2 emissions. Three urban boundaries are shown (Global Urban Boundaries - GUB; Global Cities  
 3 and Town Boundaries - GCTB; Functional Urban Area - FUA; hybrid FUA/GUB - FUGUB).

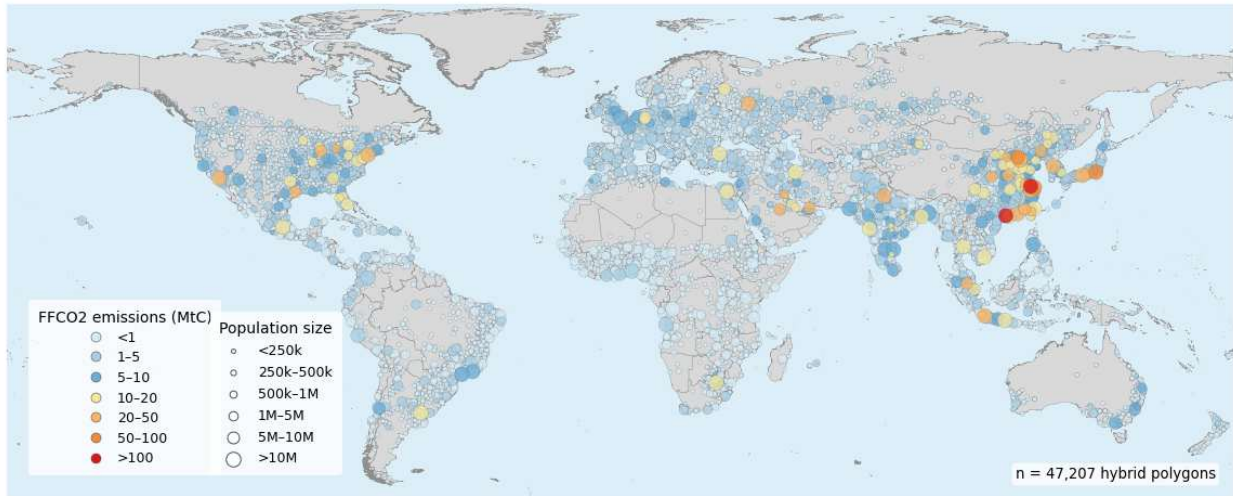
Region	Territorial (%)				Consumption (%)			
	GUB	GCTB	FUA	FUGUB	GUB	GCTB	FUA	FUGUB
Africa	62.3	50.4	55.7	69.2	55.1	64.0	65.2	72.2
Asia & Developing Pacific	69.8	72.6	72.9	73.0	60.8	67.3	62.4	74.1
Developed Countries	69.3	54.6	59.2	69.1	74.2	79.0	70.9	85.7
Eastrn Eurpe & West-Cntrl Asia	50.6	53.3	44.4	56.0	72.9	89.8	63.7	80.7
Latin America & Caribbean	57.2	64.6	68.4	69.9	68.5	83.1	69.1	73.0
Middle East	43.8	59.0	59.7	63.6	69.4	88.0	78.1	83.3
<b>Global</b>	<b>65.6</b>	<b>64.0</b>	<b>63.6</b>	<b>69.9</b>	<b>65.3</b>	<b>75.8</b>	<b>65.9</b>	<b>79.3</b>

4

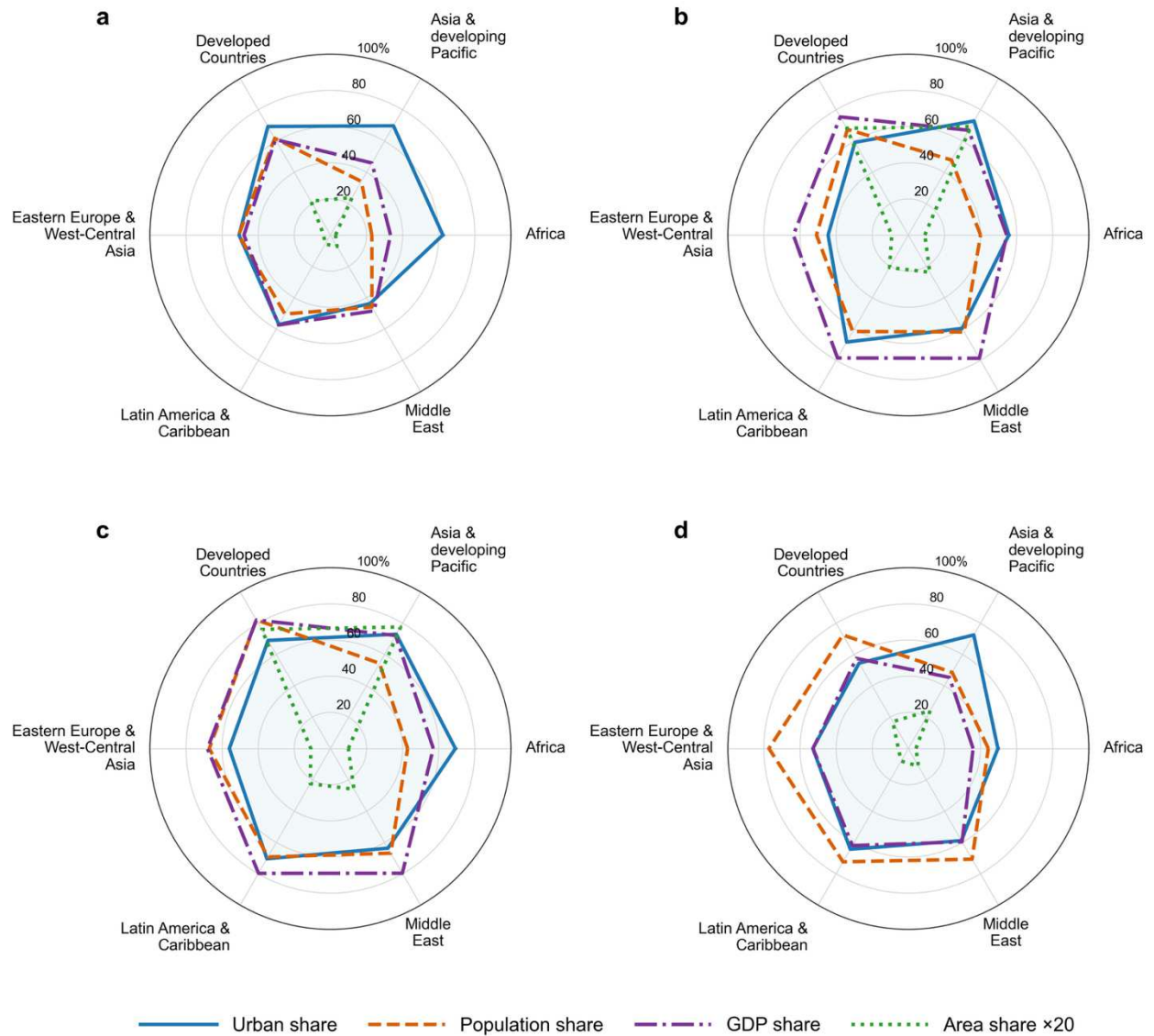


5

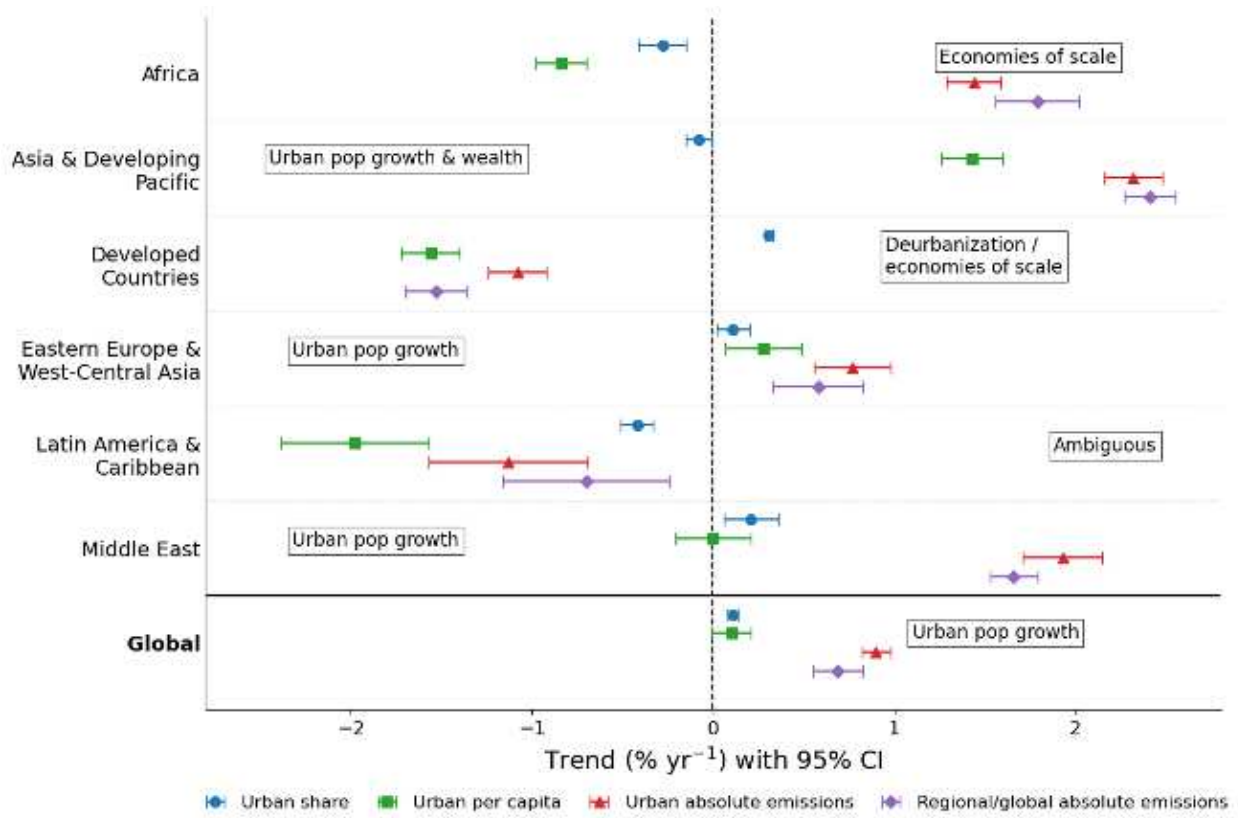
6 **Figure 1.** Vulcan-UrbanML urban FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions (FUGUB boundary) from 2010-2022  
 7 annotated with mean urban FFCO<sub>2</sub> emission growth rate and regional share of total urban  
 8 FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions (yellow type). (see SI, Table S1 for tabular values).



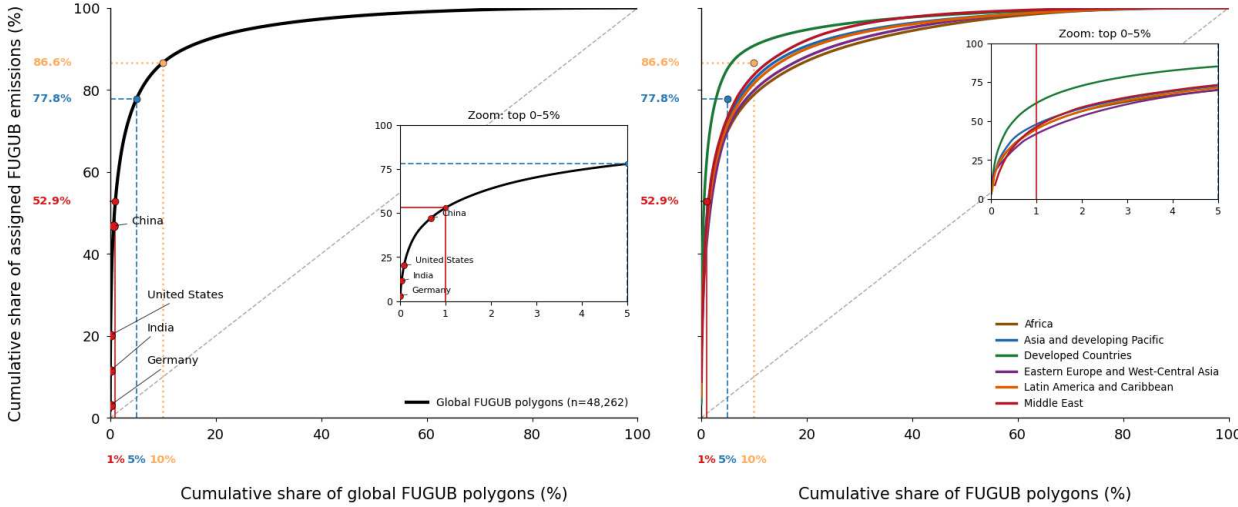
1  
 2 **Figure 2.** Urban FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions (MtC) by city and population from the Vulcan-UrbanML  
 3 model and the FUGUB boundary (N=48,267) for the year 2022.



1 ——— Urban share    - - - - - Population share    - · - · - GDP share    ····· Area share ×20  
2 **Figure 3.** 2022 Regional representation of the FFCO<sub>2</sub> urban share, urban population share,  
3 GDP share, and the urban land area share for the six IPCC regions and four urban boundaries:  
4 a) GUB; b) FUA; c) FUGUB; d) GCTB. See SI, table S3 for tabular information.



1 **Figure 4.** Trends (and 95% CI) associated with the regional urban FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions share,  
 2 urban per capita FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions, absolute urban FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions, and absolute regional  
 3 FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions over the 2010-2022 time period using the FUGUB boundaries. See SI, table S4  
 4 for tabular information.  
 5  
 6



7  
 8 **Figure 5.** The relationship between the accumulation of urban FFCO<sub>2</sub> emissions (y-axis) and the  
 9 accumulation of urban entities using the FUGUB boundaries (N=48,267). a) global  
 10 accumulation with additional information regarding the number of accumulated cities equivalent  
 11 to the given national total; b) regional accumulation.

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