31st May Munich

We would like to thank the editor and the reviewers for their constructive efforts to improve this manuscript. Their suggestions and observations are truly useful. Below we comment on the editor's suggestions.

Comments to the Author:

Dear Authors

Thank you for the reply to the review comments.

I am happy to invite you to submit a suitably revised manuscript. Please take all comments by the reviewers carefully into account during the revision process and please aim to remove potential sources of misunderstanding or confusion when revising the text.

Specifically, I would like to highlight the following issues:

1) When revising your manuscript, please give appropriate attention to the issue of aggregated versus spatially-explicit estimates as raised by reviewer 1 in his first "technical remarks on p.2 line 52" and as reiterated further in the comment on Figure 2b ("Figure 2b depicts the uncertainties in AFOLU emissions and (coincidence or not) the regions with the highest emissions have also the highest uncertainty. What does this mean for the overall conclusion and robustness about the authors claim that this spatial explicit approach is better than the country level estimates from FAOSTAT and EDGAR, since the uncertainties are so high?").

We have addressed these points separately, because they are separate topics.

1. Why spatially explicit is better than non-spatially explicit in the context of mitigation is addressed in lines 85-88. Please be aware that EDGAR also offers spatially explicit (1 degree data), although we chose the Fast Track dataset which is at the country level. This is clearly stated in the database description. Detailed spatial resolution offers subnational information on where to act (emissions are high) and where to promote the most effective mitigation action (uncertainties are low), by addressing the emission sources that emit the most in those areas (largest emitting sources). Moreover, due to assumptions on data correlation (complete data dependence), uncertainties are smaller at more detailed spatial scales than when aggregated to less detailed scales. So, spatially explicit data offer less uncertain data than spatially aggregated (this is explained in lines 323-328, and also in lines 359-360 and 479-486.

2. The fact that the higher uncertainties coincide with the higher emissions has been better explained in lines 358-373. However, the coincidence of these two facts has nothing to do with, and does not invalidate, our statement that more spatially precise data assist more targeted mitigation implementation.

2) **Reviewer 2 raises issues regarding gross versus net fluxes, emissions and the like. As diverse communities are likely to use your data it is important to avoid any misunderstanding. What may be obvious for the authors may not be obvious for others.The terms "net" and "gross" should be carefully explained in the revised manuscript; you provide some indication on how this could be achieved in your reply to comment 6.**

Our AFOLU assessment focuses on gross emissions. We agree with the reviewer 2 that gross and net is a complex topic. We struggled to decide whether to create a separate section to describe it or not, but finally left it in the introduction since it is a core description of our research (lines 103-123). We have also added references for further reading on the gross-net topic (e.g Richter and Houghton, 2011; Houghton et al., 2012; Iversen et al., 2014)

3) Please also clarify your statement around line 100 here or in the method section in the revised MS. The text in the submitted version reads: "Net land use emissions balance the emissions by the sources with the absorptions by the sinks and offer emission data that are closer to what the atmosphere receives from human activities."

This sentence has been removed to avoid confusions. Lines 277-303 describe in more detail the assumptions behind our gross emissions in terms of managed land, direct emissions, legacies, instantaneous emissions and transboundary effects + life-cycle substitution effects for harvested wood products.

-To which temporal and spatial scales do your definitions of net (and gross) apply? The material and method section, Lines 140-150 describe that our gross emissions refer to 2000-2005 and to the tropics and subtropics, and justify the selection of this spatio-temporal context. Individual information about the spatio-temporal context of each emission dataset are available at the Material and Method section and in the supplementary material (SOM)

-Are legacy fluxes (such as regrowth of previously cleared forests or burned areas) included in your definitions or not?

The topic of legacies is important, but complicated, and it introduces complexity to our method section, which we believe deviates the attention from the main goals of this paper. We have, however, explained the topic of legacies in lines 281-292. We are working with gross emissions and no forest sinks are included for the period 2000-2005 (e.g. forest regrowth of cleared, burned or harvested forests, and associated soil carbon). However, some emission sources used models that included temporal spin-ups to promote emission stability for their time periods under analysis. Some flux legacies are, therefore, included. Readers are invited to search further information in the references of each emission source.

-Are "net land use emissions" equal to (i) net anthropogenic land use emissions of carbon or GHG from the land to the atmosphere evaluated as difference in the sum of source and sink fluxes relative to a natural reference state or equal to (ii) the sum of fluxes of carbon (or GHGs) to (from) the atmosphere from (to) an area under anthropogenic use or (iii) something else?

Since we do not work with net emissions, we prefer to concentrate on defining gross emissions, and skipping other definitions to avoid confusions.

-Is "the absorption by the sinks" natural or anthropogenically-induced?

Since we do not work with sinks, we would rather avoid including this in the manuscript.

-Is abandoned land included in your assessment?,

We do not mentioned it specifically in the text, and prefer not to enter into this level of detail. Managed land could be abandoned or not.

While I appreciate that this information is largely provided in the manuscript, I recommend to give a clear and explicit explanation of your definitions of net and gross early on in the manuscript. It might also be good to refer to alternative definitions of land use emissions as for example applied by the modelling community to provide additional context for the general reader.

Our land use definition follows IPCC 2006, as exposed in line 306. Our SOM offers detailed further information on the individual emission datasets and references are given for further information. Specifying what each land use includes in each emission dataset (e.g. fallow land, abandoned land, degraded land, etc) would lead this paper to a level of detail that would unfocus the attention of the readers.

3) A brief discussion on the interpretation of the fire fluxes from woodlands, forests, and peatlands is required in the main text to avoid confusion. Specifically, you may explain why tropical fire emissions from GFED are taken here as anthropogenic and move the information of the first sentence on top of page 5 in the SOM to the main text.

Please see lines 293-299.

4) I recommend to add a brief discussion on potential double counting (reviewer 2: comments 10-12) in the revised manuscript.

Comments on fire and deforestation double counting, including peat and deforestation are inserted in lines 179-183. Deforestation and wood harvesting double counting are exposed in lines 200-204.

5) I recommend to add a statement in the conclusion section that gross emissions as determined in this study are not to be confused with the overall net land-to-atmosphere flux due to human land use. This difference arises as important components of the overall terrestrial and atmospheric carbon balance such as legacy effects and changes in litter and soil organic matter are not included in this work.

We have included some of these comments in lines 286-289 instead of in the conclusions, since we found it awkward to finish with a warning of what our gross emissions were not. Instead, we chose to give the readers the right context of what our gross emissions include, and what they don’t, in earlier sections (e.g. lines 103-123)

I would appreciate to receive also a manuscript version where your changes are indicated/highlighted by using track change or similar tools. This would ease the further assessment of your work.

Thank you for submitting your work to Biogeosciences. I am looking forward to read your revised manuscript.

Your sincerely,

Fortunat Joos

Hotspots of tropical land use emissions: patterns, uncertainties, and leading emission sources for the period 2000-2005

Short title: AFOLU greenhouse gas emissions hotspots

Authors affiliation:

Rosa Maria Roman-Cuesta[1,2]*, Mariana C. Rufino[1], Martin Herold[2*], Klaus Butterbach-Bahl[3,4], Todd S. Rosenstock[5], Mario Herrero[6], Stephen Ogle[7], Changsheng Li[8], Benjamin Poulter[9], Louis Verchot[1,10], Christopher Martius[1], John Stuiver[2], Sytze de Bruin[2].

[1] Center for International Forestry Research (CIFOR), P.O Box 0113 BOCBD, Bogor 16000, Indonesia.

[2] Laboratory of Geo-Information Science and Remote Sensing - Wageningen University. Droevendaalsesteeg 3, 6708PB. Wageningen. The Netherlands.

[3] International Livestock Research Institute (ILRI) P.O. Box 30709. Nairobi 00100, Kenya

[4] Karlsruhe Institute of Technology, Institute of Meteorology and Climate Research (IMK-IFU), Garmisch-Partenkirchen, Germany

[5] World Agroforestry Centre (ICRAF). PO Box 30677-00100, Nairobi. Kenya.

[6] Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation, Agriculture Flagship, 306 Carmody Road, St Lucia, Qld 4067, Australia.

[7] Natural Resource Ecology Laboratory, Campus Delivery 1499, Colorado State University, Fort Collins, Colorado 80523-1499, USA.

[8] Institute for the Study of Earth, Oceans, and Space, University of New Hampshire, Durham, NH 03824. USA.

[9] Ecosystem Dynamics Laboratory. Montana State University. P.O. Box 172000.Bozeman, MT 59717-2000. USA.

[10] Earth Institute Center for Environmental Sustainability, Columbia University, New York, USA.

* Corresponding author: Rosa Maria Roman-Cuesta rosa.roman@wur.nl. Telephone : 0031-(0)317-481276

Keywords: AFOLU, mitigation, greenhouse gases, CO_2, CH_4, N_2O, Land use emissions, tropics.

Abstract

According to the latest report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), emissions must be cut by 41-72% below 2010 levels by 2050 for a likely chance of containing the global mean temperature increase to 2 °C. The AFOLU sector (Agriculture, Forestry and Other Land Use) roughly contributes with a quarter (~ 10 -12 $PgCO_2e.yr^{-1}$) of the net anthropogenic GHG emissions mainly from deforestation, fire, wood harvesting, and agricultural emissions including croplands, paddy rice and livestock. In spite of the importance of this sector, it is unclear where are the regions with hotspots of AFOLU emissions, and how uncertain these emissions are. Here we present a novel spatially comparable dataset containing annual mean estimates of gross AFOLU emissions (CO_2, CH_4, N_2O), associated uncertainties, and leading emission sources, in a spatially disaggregated manner (0.5°), for the tropics, for the period 2000-2005. Our data highlight: i) the existence of AFOLU emissions hotspots on all continents, with particular importance of evergreen rainforest deforestation in Central and South America, fire in dry forests in Africa, and both peatland emissions and agriculture in Asia; ii) a predominant contribution of forests and CO_2 to the total AFOLU emissions (75%) and to their uncertainties (98%), iii) higher gross fluxes from forests coincide with higher uncertainties, making agricultural hotspots more appealing for effective mitigation action, and iv) a lower contribution of non-CO_2 agricultural emissions to the total gross emissions (ca. 25%) with livestock (15.5%) and rice (7%) leading the emissions. Gross AFOLU tropical emissions 8.0 (5.5-12.2) were in the range of other databases 8.4 and 8.0 $PgCO_2e.yr^{-1}$ (FAOSTAT and EDGAR respectively), but we offer a spatially detailed benchmark for monitoring

progress on reducing emissions from the land sector in the tropics. The location of the AFOLU hotspots of emissions and data on their associated uncertainties, will assist national policy makers, investors and other decision-makers who seek to understand the mitigation potential of the AFOLU sector.

1. INTRODUCTION

Currently unabated CO_2e emissions need effective mitigation action (UNEP, 2015). Emissions modelling suggests that to maintain the global mean temperature increase on track with the 2°C target and to remain close to the 450 ppm of CO_2e by 2100, global greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions must be cut in a range of 41-72% below the 2010 levels by 2050, and global emissions levels must be reduced to zero (a balance between sources and sinks) by 2070 and below zero through removal processes after that (IPCC, 2014; Anderson, 2015; UNEP 2015). To reach these ambitious goals, it is imperative to identify regions where the mitigation of key emission sectors may be most promising in terms of reducing fluxes, reducing emission trends, and/or maximizing returns on mitigation investments. From all the sectors contributing to the total anthropogenic GHG emissions, the Agriculture, Forestry and Other Land Use (AFOLU) sector participates with roughly one quarter (10-12 $PgCO_2e.yr^{-1}$) of the total emissions (49 $PgCO_2e.yr^{-1}$) (IPCC, 2014). Optimistic estimates suggest that the AFOLU sector -here used as synonym of land use sector- could contribute 20 to 60% of the total cumulative abatement to 2030 through land-related mitigation including bioenergy (Smith et al., 2014). However, it is unclear where are the regions with the largest AFOLU emissions (hotspots of emissions), and how large their associated uncertainties are.

Modelling efforts by the carbon community have long offered useful data but their focus is rather global and CO_2 oriented, which omits other land use gases such as CH_4 and N_2O (Schulze et al., 2009; Houghton et al., 2012; LeQuéré et al., 2012; Canadell et al., 2014; Tian et al., 2016). Currently, the most used AFOLU data belong to two global multi-gas (CO_2, CH_4, N_2O) CO_2e databases: FAOSTAT and EDGAR) (Smith et al., 2014; Tubiello et al., 2015). While they offer very valuable data, they suffer from several shortcomings: they do not provide uncertainties or uncertainties are not provided at the spatial scale at which emissions are offered; they suffer from untransparent documentation (e.g EDGAR) or data are offered at inappropriate spatial scales to effectively navigate mitigation implementation (e.g. country level in FAOSTAT). Thus, unlike aggregated estimates, spatially explicit data favour targeted mitigation action and implementation by identifying where are the areas within a country that hold the largest emissions, and what are the key emission sources to address in these areas (e.g. deforestation, degradation, livestock, cropland soils, paddy rice). Spatially explicit ~~s~~assessments ~~napshots~~ of ~~the location of~~ AFOLU emissions ~~hotspots (CO_2, CH_4, N_2O)~~ and their associated ~~data on their~~ uncertainties would assist national policy makers, investors and other decision-makers who seek to understand the mitigation potential of the AFOLU sector, and which areas to prioritize~~.~~ This potential is here defined as the maximum mitigation reduction that could be achieved without technical or economic considerations. Better understanding of the AFOLU mitigation potentials will also ~~be needed under~~be important under the Paris Agreement (PA) since ~~the success of the PA will be measured against~~ the fulfilment of the 2°C target ~~and it~~ is dependent on the mitigation ambition presented by individual countries in their Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs). To safeguard this ambition ~~is the~~ a stock-take process has been defined, by which ~~where~~ countries are required to update their NDCs every five years, starting from 2020, and to enhanc~~ing~~e their mitigation commitments from previous submissions (Bodle et al., 2016). It is therefore imperative to improve our understanding of where and how much could countries enhance their AFOLU ambition from what ~~is~~ they have currently reported.

Mitigation action can be directed to reducing emissions by the sources, or to increasing the absorptions by the sinks, or to both. While gross and net emissions are equally important, they offer different information (Richter and Houghton, 2011; Houghton et al., 2012). Net land use emissions consider the emissions by the sources and the removals by the sinks in a final emission balance where the removals are discounted from the emissions. Land use sinks refer to any process that stores GHGs (e.g. forest growth, forest regrowth after disturbances, organic matter stored in soils, etc) (see Richter and Houghton, 2011, for further details). Countries report their emissions and their reduction targets based on net AFOLU balances (IPCC, 2006; Iversen et al., 2014; Smith et al.,2014). Gross assessments can consider both the emissions produced by the sources (gross emissions) and the removals absorbed by the sinks (gross removals), but they are not offered in a final balance where the sinks are discounted from the emissions. They are offered separate fluxes, instead. Gross fluxes are useful to navigate mitigation implementation since they offer direct information on the sources and sinks that need to be acted upon through policies and measures to enhance and promote mitigation.~~.~~ However, l~~L~~ack of ground data makes the assessment of the sinks much more difficult than the assessment of the sources (Lewis et al., 2009; Houghton et al., 2012; Grace et al., 2014; Brienen et al., 2015) with a particular gap on disturbed standing forests (Poorter et al., 2016).

For these reasons, we present here an assessment of AFOLU gross emissions in the tropics and subtropics that focuses only on the emissions by the sources, excluding the sinks (e.g. no regrowth of cleared forests or burned areas, nor soil carbon storage are included for the 2000-2005 period). We offer spatially explicit (0.5°) multi-gas (CO_2, CH_4, N_2O) CO_2e gross emission data that help identifying the ~~of~~ hotspots ~~the~~ of land use emissions ~~hotspots~~ in the tropics and subtropics, and associated uncertainties~~,~~ for 2000-2005. Our method uses ~~, using a~~a consistent approach to overcome problems of different definitions, methods, and input data present in other approaches (e.g. nationally reported data), allowing data comparability. It is a top-down approach based on published spatially explicit~~available~~ ~~published~~ GHG datasets for the key sources of emissions in the AFOLU sector as identified in~~by~~ the Fifth Assessment Report of the IPCC (AR5) (Smith et al. 2014): deforestation, fire, wood harvesting, crop soil emissions, paddy rice emission, enteric fermentation and manure management. ~~We also provide information on the leading sources of emissions per cell.~~ We address three questions at the landscape, tropical, and continental scales: 1. Where are the hotspots of tropical AFOLU emissions and how uncertain are they? 2. What are the main GHGs behind these hotspots?, 3. What are the emission sources behind these hotspots? 4. How do our gross AFOLU emissions relate to other AFOLU datasets such as FAOSTAT or EDGAR?

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

Our study area covers the tropics and the subtropics, including the more temperate regions of South America (33° N to 54° S, 161° E to 117° W). It expands over a diversity of ecosystems that range from dry woodlands and dry forests such as the African Miombo and South American Chaco, to rainforests and moist forests such as evergreen broadleaved rainforests or montane cloud forests. The years considered by our datasets varied, yet we selected the period 2000-2005 as the common temporal range for all the datasets. The exception was the rice emissions dataset, that took 2010 as its baseline (See Table S2 in supplementary).This time period represents a useful historical baseline against which countries can contrast the evolution of their AFOLU gross emission performances. We consider the pixel size (0.5°) appropriate for landscape research, and useful to visualize emissions hotspots. More detailed information about each data source and a descriptive summary is available in the SOM (Table S2).

2.1 Datasets

Deforestation (Harris et al., 2012): Deforestation refers to gross emissions, associated to the area of forest cover removed due to human or natural disturbances and their above ground and below ground carbon stocks, at 18.5 km of spatial resolution and aggregated for a 5 year period (2000-2005). Deforestation areas are based on MODIS data at 18.5 km resolution, while carbon loss derives from Saatchi et al., (2012) carbon map, at 1 km resolution. The disparate spatial resolution of these two maps is solved by a randomization procedure (Harris et al. 2012). Information of uncertainties is expressed as 5^{th} and 95^{th} percentiles, estimated through Monte Carlo simulations and showed non-Gaussian distributions. Harris et al data defines the spatial and temporal extent of our tropical AFOLU analysis.

Fire (Van der Werf et al., 2010): Fire emissions (CO_2, CH_4, N_2O) were obtained from the Global Fire Emission Database (GFED) (www1) at 0.5° resolution, based on the CASA model which includes four carbon pools (above and below ground biomass, litter and coarse woody debris). Only carbon from organic soils was included.. Original data were of global coverage for the period 1997-2013. We extracted a subset for the tropics and 2000-2005. Annual uncertainties for different regions are expressed in Van der Werf et al. (2010) as the 5th, 25th, 50th, 75th, and 95th percentiles of 2000 Monte Carlo runs. 1σ uncertainties (expressed as percentage of the 50th percentile) were also given, and considered Gaussian distributions. To move to pixel (0.5°) uncertainties, we assigned the regional 1σ to all the pixels within each region, for each gas. Total fire emissions (CO_2e) per pixel were the sum of the annual means. The uncertainties of the different gases (CH_4, N_2O and CO_2) were assumed independent and estimated by square rooting the sum of their variances. Fire emissions are partitioned into six classes (savannah, agriculture, woodlands, forests, peatlands and deforestation), which helped us remove CO_2 emissions from savannahs and agriculture since the burning of these non-woody land uses is assumed carbon neutral (e.g. biomass burned gets recovered by biomass growth in the next growing season) (IPCC, 2006). CH_4 and N_2O emissions were, however, retained. We also removed deforestation fires, to avoid double counting with deforestation emissions from Harris et al. (2012). Some overlapping of deforestation and soil peat burning might, however, occur in Indonesia, where peat fires and deforestation fires show similar fire recurrences and might be wrongly labelled (Van der Werf et al. 2010). Some peat fires might therefore respond to deforestation fires and cause some double counting with Harris deforestation emissions in Indonesia, particularly for the year 2005.

Wood harvesting (Poulter et al., 2015): Wood harvesting is a 1° global gridded data set that was generated in the frame of the GEOCARBON project. It uses National Forest Inventory data and the FAO Forest Resources Assessment (FRA). Aboveground biomass data were downscaled using a forest mask from the Global Land Cover (GLC) 2000, and assuming that wood harvest was distributed evenly. The original data was produced at the resolution of the GLC2000 (approx. 1X1 km) and finally aggregated to the 1° scale. Wood Harvesting data consisted of five layers: 1. Round wood Forest Area in hectares for each cell, 2. Fuelwood forest area in hectares for each cell, 3. Round wood (industrial) harvest volume in m^3, 4. Fuelwood harvest volume in m^3, 5. Total harvest volume (round wood + fuelwood) in m^3. We chose fuel and industrial round wood harvest (m^3) as our harvest data. We assumed instantaneous emissions assigned to the place of removal. Emissions were transformed from m^3 to $MgCO_2.yr^{-1}$ using an emission factor of 0.25 (Mg C/m^3) (Grace et al., 2014), and a C to CO_2 factor shown in Table 1. Because the resolution of this layer was larger than our grid, the original value of wood volume at 1° was equally distributed among the

0.5° grid cells. Uncertainties were not estimated in the original harvest emission data and we rely on a 20 percent value of the per-pixel harvest emissions, based on the author's expert opinion. Since wood harvesting mainly derives from national reporting to FAO, it was assumed to mainly come from forests remaining forests (legal logging), and emissions were assigned to forested areas by Porter et al. (2015). Figure S3 in the SOM shows different spatial locations for deforestation and wood harvesting emissions. However, this assumption might be wrong and some, unprecise, amount of emissions double counting may occur.

Cropland soils (USEPA 2013): Cropland emissions (N_2O and soil dSOC) (changes in soil organic carbon) were produced by Ogle et al., for the Environmental Protection Agency MAC-Report (USEPA, 2013), at 0.5° resolution, for time periods 2000-2030 with five-year increments, based on the DAYCENT ecosystem model (Ogle et al., 2007). For our AFOLU analysis we used the annual mean emission data for the period 2000-2005. The original units (g N_2O-N.m-^{2}.y^{-1} and gC.m^{-2}.5y^{-1}) were transformed to CO_2e.y^{-1}.grid cell^{-1} (Table 1). The original dataset included direct and indirect emissions from mineral-based cropland soil processes: synthetic and organic fertilization, residue N, mineralization and fixation). To be consistent with other data sets we did not include indirect emissions (e.g. NO_3^- leaching, N runoff in overland water flow). Emissions estimated by the DAYCENT include soil and litter pools and modelled six major crop types only (maize, wheat, barley, sorghum, soybean and millet) excluding other important tropical crops (sugar, coffee, cacao, cotton, tobacco, etc). As a result, the cropland area simulated by DAYCENT was about 61% of the global non-rice cropland areas reported by FAOSTAT, which resulted in lower cropland emissions when compared to other databases (e.g. FAOSTAT and EDGAR). Moreover, due to the known poor performance of the DAYCENT model over organic soils, cropland emissions over drained histosols were not part of the estimated emissions. Uncertainties were offered per pixel (0.5°) as standard deviations per dSOC and N_2O separately. Final CO_2e uncertainties per pixel were propagated as independent data using the squared root of the summed variances. To complement the emission gap from the organic cultivated soils, we used a Tier 1 approach that relied on the location of the tropical areas of histosols (ISRIC's global soil database), the location of cropland areas per crop types (Monfreda et al., 2008) and a Tier 1 annual emission factor for cultivated organic soils (20 MgC.ha^{-1} yr^{-1}) derived from the IPCC (IPCC 2006) (Supplementary).

Paddy Rice (USEPA 2013): We used data by Li et al., from the USEPA's MAC Report (2013). Emissions were estimated by the Denitrification-Decomposition (DNDC) model, which simulates production, crop yields, greenhouse gas fluxes (CH_4, N_2O) and organic soil carbon (dSOC) of global paddy rice, at 0.5° resolution under "business-as-usual" (BAU) condition and various mitigation strategies as explained in Li et al., (2001, 2006). This model includes soil, litter, above and below ground biomass as main carbon pools. Model outputs were reported for 2010 as the baseline, and used 22 years of replications to account for climate variability. The original units (KgC.ha^{-1}.yr^{-1} for dSOC and CH_4 and KgN. ha^{-1}.yr^{-1} for N_2O) were re-projected to equal-area values, and transformed to CO_2e (Table 1). Emissions were estimated using the MSF (Most Sensitive Factor) method which relies on an envelope approach and estimates maximum and minimum emissions based on extreme soil properties. No mean values were offered. The distribution of the data were known to be right skewed, and through the authors' expert judgement a log-normal approach was considered to be the best –although not perfect- fit, from where to estimate the mean (50th percentile), max and min (10th and 90th percentile) for each cell.

Livestock (Herrero et al., 2013): Livestock emission data includes enteric fermentation (CH_4) and manure management (N_2O, CH_4) for the year 2000, for twenty-eight regions, eight livestock production systems, four animal species (cattle, small ruminants, pigs, and poultry), and three livestock products (milk, meat, and eggs), at 0.1°cell resolution. The CO_2e of enteric fermentation and manure management were then summed to obtain a total emission value of livestock per grid cell. Since no spatially explicit uncertainty data were provided, and based on the authors' expert judgement, we applied a 20% value for livestock emissions per cell and per gas. Per cell livestock GHG uncertainties were estimated by square rooting the sum of their variances.

Other AFOLU d~~D~~atabases

FAOSTAT database: covers agriculture, forestry and other land uses and their associated emissions of CO_2, CH_4 and N_2O, following IPCC 2006 Guidelines at Tier 1 (Tubiello et al., 2014). Emissions are estimated for nearly 200 countries, for the reference period 1961–2012 (agriculture) and 1990–2012 (FOLU), based on activity data submitted to and collated by FAO (www1). FAOSTAT includes estimates of emissions from biomass fires, peatland drainage and fires, based on geo-spatial information, as well as on forest carbon stock changes (both emissions and absorptions) based on national-level FAO Forest Resources Assessment data (FRA, 2010). FOLU carbon balances in FAOSTAT are emissions from afforestation, reforestation, degradation, regrowth, and harvest activities. The FAOSTAT emission estimates are based on annual FAO emissions updates for AFOLU (Tubiello et al., 2014).

EDGAR database: The Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research (EDGAR) provides global GHG emissions from multiple gases (CO_2, CH_4, N_2O) at 0.1° and country levels. It covers all IPCC sectors (energy, industry, waste management, and AFOLU), mainly applying IPCC 2006 guidelines for emission estimations (EDGAR, 2012). We selected EDGAR's 4.2 Fast Track 2010 (FT 2010) data (www2). Emissions cover the period 2000-2010 in an annual basis, at the country level and are offered as Gg of gas. No uncertainties are provided. Transformation to CO_2e used AR4 100year-Global Warming Potential values to be consistent with other datasets. Metadata can be found at EDGAR (2012), although further transparency and more complete documentation are required for this database.

2.2 Methods

Hotspots dataset

Our AFOLU assessment is based on several assumptions: we focus~~ed~~ on human-induced gross emissions only, excluding ~~natural~~ fluxes from unmanaged land (e.g. CH_4 or N_2O emissions from ~~undisturbed~~ unmanaged natural wetlands). We focused on direct gross emissions excluding indirect emissions whenever possible (e.g. indirect emissions from nitrate leaching and surface runoff from croplands). Delayed fluxes (legacies) are important (e.g. underestimations of up to 62% of the total emissions when recent legacy fluxes are excluded) (Houghton et al., 2012) but are frequently omitted in GHG analyses that derive from remote sensing, such as our deforestation emissions from Harris et al., (2012). Wood harvesting emissions also excluded legacy fluxes. Therefore, no forest regrowth of cleared, burned, or disturbed forests are included in our AFOLU 2000-2005 assessment. Other important components of the overall terrestrial and carbon balance such as changes in litter, coarse woody debris and soil carbon, are also not part of the emissions from deforestation and wood harvesting, since these pools were not considered in the original datasets (see Table S2, SOM). For the other land uses, fire, agricultural soils, and paddy rice, their emission models (e.g. CASA, DAYCENT and~~,~~ DCDN) included temporal spin-ups to guarantee the stability of the emissions for their temporal scales under analysis. Certain legacies have, therefore, been ~~-~~considered (please see references for further understanding of these models). ~~-~~In the case of fires, since 90 percent of tropical fires are the result of human activity (Roman-Cuesta et al., 2003; Van der Werf et al., 2010), we assumed all emissions to be human-induced. This might have resulted in an overestimation of some fire emissions in drier unmanaged ecosystems (e.g. lightings over African woodlands) but since we have excluded deforestation fires (to avoid double counting with deforestation), and we have also excluded savanna and agricultural fires (under the assumption of carbon neutrality), we are quite certain that our gross fire emissions for 2000-2005 are rather conservative. We assumed instantaneous emissions of all carbon that is lost from the land after human action (Tier 1, IPCC 2006) (e.g. deforested and harvested wood), with no transboundary considerations (e.g. the emissions are assigned wherever the disturbance takes place, particularly important for the~~-~~Harvested Wood Products). Life-cycle substitution effects~~)~~ are neither considered for harvested wood (Peters et al., 2012).

Figure 1 describes the steps followed to produce our spatially explicit layers of gross AFOLU emissions and uncertainties. We first assessed all possible emissions, ~~and~~ land uses and human activities under the framework of the IPCC 2006 AFOLU guidelines. We then selected the key AFOLU emissions sources as identified in the IPCC Fifth Assessment Report (AR5) (Smith et al., 2014). There were seven key emission sources, three within the forest sector: deforestation, fire, and wood harvesting (these last two were considered as forest degradation), and four within agriculture: cropland soils, paddy rice, enteric fermentation and manure management (aggregated as livestock). We chose 100-year global warming potentials as provided in the Fourth Assessment Report (AR4) (IPCC, 2007) (Table 1) because all emission datasets were prior to the launching of AR5. We have preserved their choice to be consistent with their published estimates and with emissions that could not be reproduced. To promote the spatial assessment we produced an empty grid with cells of 0.5°x0.5° in a World Geographical reference System (WGS-84, lat-lon). To correct for the unaccounted Earth distortions that come with a geographical system we used equal area re-projected values whenever we needed area-weighted estimates of the emissions. This grid was then populated with the seven emission sources, unit transformed and quality controlled and assessed (see Supplementary). We used Monte Carlo simulations to aggregate the gross AFOLU emissions and their uncertainties and produced four final estimates, per cell: mean annual AFOLU emissions (50^{th} percentiles) ($CO_2e.y^{-1}$), associated variance, and 5^{th} and 95^{th} confidence intervals. Data were then aggregated to continental, and tropical scales. When aggregating uncertainties at the pixel level we assumed emission sources to be mutually uncorrelated. However, when the aggregation of the uncertainties included a change of spatial support (e.g. pixel to continental, or pixel to tropical) we assumed data complete dependence, which offered a conservative (worst-case) scenario approach for the final aggregated uncertainties (see supplementary for further information). To understand which emission sources (e.g. deforestation, degradation, livestock, paddy rice, etc) contributed the most to the final uncertainties at the continental scale, we used the variance data produced per pixel and aggregated them using the dependence assumption expressed above. The attribution of the uncertainty was then estimated as percentages of the final aggregated variance, for each emission source.

Database comparison

We contrast our hotspots of gross AFOLU emissions against the FAOSTAT and EDGAR databases. We run the comparisons at the country level, and produce the estimates selecting the same countries, years, emission sources, assumptions (e.g. carbon neutrality of grasslands and agricultural waste), and rules (e.g. only direct emissions) to guarantee comparability.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 AFOLU hotspots of emissions and uncertainties

Tropical AFOLU hotspots were located on all continents but spatially concentrated in a few areas only, with 25% of the tropical area responsible for 70% of the tropical AFOLU emissions (Figure 2a). Gross fluxes reached values of up to 90 $MgCO_2e$ ha^{-1} yr^{-1}in the hotspots, with Brazil, India, Indonesia, Democratic Republic of Congo, Angola, Central African Republic, Mozambique, Zambia, Malaysia, Sudan and Bangladesh, as the major contributors of tropical AFOLU emissions. Hotspots were mainly led by forest emissions, both by deforestation and degradation, with large hotspots over humid rainforests in the arch of deforestation in Brazil, and over the Miombo-Mopane dry forests of Africa. Deforestation and peatland fires were important in Indonesia, combined with agricultural hotspots from livestock and paddy rice. Agricultural emissions contributed less to the hotspots, with Asia, particularly India and Bangladesh, as main emitting regions with different relative contributions from livestock, paddy rice and cropland emissions (Figure 3). Southern Brazil, northern Argentina and southeastern Paraguay also showed agricultural hotspots, mainly related to livestock. Main GHGs followed these patterns, with CO_2 dominating the emissions from forest activities, turning this gas into the main target for mitigation action. CH_4 dominated rice and livestock emissions, while N_2O explained high cropland emissions (Figure 4).

Emissions uncertainties were the highest for the hotspot regions, reaching values of up to 30% of the mean AFOLU emissions (Figure 2b), which is lower than the reported uncertainties for global AFOLU values (e.g. 50 percent) (Smith et al., 2014). The coincidence of high AFOLU emissions and high uncertainties is not surprising since the emissions from the hotspots were led by forests, and forests host the largest emission uncertainties, in particular -humid tropical forests undergoing deforestation, such as Brazil and Indonesia, and forests with high fire emissions such as dry Miombo ecosystems in Africa or peatlands in Asia. Deforestation has long been identified as a main source of emissions uncertainties in the tropics due to the combined effect of uncertain areas and uncertain carbon densities (Houghton 2010, Baccini et al., 2012, Houghton et al., 2012). ~~However, similar uncertainties for biomass burning were unexpected. These h~~High uncertainties ~~values~~ in fire emissions relate to ~~-are due to the contribution of~~ biomass, burned soil depths, and combustion completeness, which are the most uncertain components -of Van der Werf et al.(2010)'s ~~the~~ fire emission model. ~~s components and are key in woodland fires in Africa and peatland fires in Asia.~~ Consequently, e~~E~~quatorial Asia and the African continent were the regions with ~~hosted~~ the largest fire uncertainties of the globe~~all the regions~~ (Van der Werf et al., 2010) (Fig S5 in Supplementary).

Areas with high gross emissions ~~but~~ that also host high uncertainties (e.g. forests) complicate the effectiveness of the mitigation action. Thus, while these areas have higher mitigation potentials (e.g. high emissions that could potentially be reduced) their uncertainties affect the reliability of their emissions estimates and, therefore, the effectiveness to implement actions to stabilize atmospheric GHGs (Grassi et al., 2008). For this reason, from a climate mitigation perspective and without economic nor technical considerations, optimal mitigation scenarios would rather focus on areas with large gross fluxes and low(er) uncertainties. These areas would include agricultural hotspots (croplands, paddy rice and livestock) without much contribution from forest emissions such as parts of ~~in~~ India, Southeastern Brazil, Northern Argentina, and Central and Southern Africa (southern DRC, Zambia, Angola) (Figure 5). Carter et al. (2015) identified that agricultural intensification and the use of available non-forest land offer opportunities for agricultural mitigation of up to 1 $PgCO_2e$. This value coincides with sectorial analyses of mitigation targets for 2030 that would keep agricultural emissions in line with the 2 degree target (Wollenberg et al. 2016). However, food security and economic development in countries with agro-businesses make supply-based agricultural mitigation challenging (Smith et al., 2008; 2013). Moreover, as discussed in Wollenberg et al. (2016) more transformative technical and policy options will be needed to help agriculture achieve this 1 $PgCO_2e$ target. Mitigation in the agricultural sector is further complicate by being technically more complex and more expensive than forest mitigation (USEPA, 2013, Smith et al., 2014). For these reasons, and in spite of their higher uncertainties, forests still remain high in the mitigation agenda, as recently seen in the Paris Agreement, associated COP decisions, and the New York Declaration on Forests.

3.2 Tropical AFOLU emissions

AFOLU data from the AR5 (e.g. Figure 11.2 in Smith et al., 2014) show how the tropics have contributed with ≥70% of the global AFOLU emissions in the last decades, making this region the right place to search for hotspots of land use emissions. Our aggregated gross AFOLU emissions estimates of 8.0 (5.5-12.2) $PgCO_2e.yr^{-1}$ were in the range of other gross estimates for the same region and time period: 8.4, and 8.0 $PgCO_2e.yr^{-1}$ for FAOSTAT and EDGAR respectively (Table 2). In spite of this good agreement, databases disagreed on the relative contribution of the leading emissions sources (Figure 6). Forests emissions showed the largest divergences, particularly forest degradation (fire and wood harvesting emissions). This outcome was expected since forest emissions were responsible for ≥70% of the tropical gross AFOLU emissions in all the databases (Table 2). Gross degradation emissions –rather than deforestation- led the forest emissions in our AFOLU gross emissions (39% *vs* 36% of the tropical emissions, respectively) (Table 2), with a degradation to deforestation emission ratio of 108%, reinforcing the great importance of reducing degradation for effective mitigation. Ratios above 100% for gross degradation *vs* deforestation had already been reported by Houghton et al. (2012) and Federici et al. (2015). Lower ratios have been observed in smaller areas (e.g. 40% Amazon, 47% Peruvian Amazon) (Asner et al., 2010; Berenguer et al., 2014) or when the ratio focuses on net fluxes of degradation (e.g. 25-35% of the net LULCC flux, if wood harvesting and shifting cultivation were not considered, and an extra 11% over the net LUCC flux when excluding peatland fire emissions in Southeast Asia alone) (Houghton et al., 2012).

In our hotspots analyses, fire led forest degradation in the tropics with almost a quarter (24.6%) of the gross AFOLU emissions. Since we had excluded deforestation fires, most of our fire emissions relate to woodlands and forest degradation. Their exclusion or incomplete inclusion would therefore result in large emission omissions in gross AFOLU assessments, and their management are key for reducing tropical emissions. Fire degradation emissions are recurrently omitted in global AFOLU assessments under the assumption of carbon neutrality of the affected burned areas (e.g. whatever carbon is emitted through fire will be fixed again by regrowth and recovery). (Houghton et al., 2012; Le Quéré et al., 2012; Canadell et al., 2014; Smith et al. 2014). This assumption does not consider current evidence of non-steady states after fire due to climatic pressures, humanized landscapes (fragmented, multi-disturbed), and increased frequencies of fires (Cochrane et al., 1999; Roman--Cuesta et al., 2014; Alencar et al., 2011, 2015; Brando et al., 2014; Oliveras et al., 2014; Pütz et al., 2014). Halted successional pathways and vegetation shifts represent a large, yet unknown proportion of the burned forest ecosystems in the tropics that require further research. Recent estimates suggest that post-fire carbon recoveries in the Amazon are leading to degradation emissions in the order of 46±29.9 $MgC.ha^{-1}$ (Balch et al., under review). In spite of our uncomplete knowledge of forest post-disturbance recovery pathways (e.g. poorly understood processes, omitted emissions, missing pools, unconsidered GHGs), the importance of the forest sector for mitigation action is evidenced by the large amount of countries explicitly mentioning it in their INDCs (60%) (Grassi et al., 2015). Moreover, countries count on financial support to minimize their forest emissions and enhance their sinks, at national scale, through the REDD+ mechanism, which has now become part of the Paris Agreement (Climate Focus, 2015).

In the agricultural sector, our emissions reached estimates of 1.9 (1.5-2.5) $PgCO_2e.yr^{-1}$, in the range of the other databases (2.5, 2.1 $PgCO_2e.yr^{-1}$ for FAOSTAT and EDGAR respectively). These values, represent a relatively small part of the AFOLU emissions in the tropics (25-30%) but an attribution of the forest emissions to their drivers would highlight back the importance of agriculture as the main engine behind tropical forest loss and emissions. Thus, for the period 1980-2000, 83% of the agricultural expansion in the tropics was at the expense of forests (Gibbs et al., 2010), calling for integrated mitigation programmes that simultaneously include forestry and agriculture (Carter et al., 2015). Our agricultural estimates represented only ca. half of the agricultural emissions reported globally for 2000-2009 (5-6 $PgCO_2e.yr^{-1}$) (Smith et al., 2014; Tubiello et al., 2015).This highlights the major role of agriculture in non-tropical countries and emergent economies like China, although agricultural emissions are rising faster in developing countries than in developed ones (Smith et al., 2014). The agricultural sector is the largest contributor to global anthropogenic non-CO_2 GHGs, accounting for 56 % of emissions in 2005 (USEPA, 2013). Enteric fermentation and agricultural soils are globally the main sources of agricultural emissions (Smith et al., 2014), and show a strong rising trend since the 70's (1% per decade) due to increases in animal heads and the use of synthetic fertilizers (Tubiello et al., 2015). Areas with growing emission trends are attractive for land-based mitigation action and countries are engaging in agricultural mitigation in their INDCs through climate smart initiatives (Richards et al., 2015). However, more transformative technical and policy options and higher level of financial support will be needed for further achievements in this sector (Wollenberg et al., in press). The most prominent agricultural mitigation practices include improved cropland and grazing land management, restoration of degraded lands, and cultivated organic soils. Lower, but still significant mitigation potential is provided by water and rice management, livestock management and manure management, set-aside, land use change and agroforestry (Smith et al., 2008).

In terms of gases, CO_2 led the AFOLU emissions in the tropics with ca.70% of the tropical emissions 5.5 (3.3-9.5) $PgCO_2e.yr^{-1}$ (Table 2, Figure 4). The remaining non-CO_2 contribution (30%) was mainly led by CH_4 1.5 (1.1-1.9) $PgCO_2e.yr^{-1}$, due to livestock and rice. Non-CO_2 emissions from biomass burning (N_2O and CH_4), represented 15-34% of the CO_2 emissions in the tropics (Table 2). These values reinforce the need to run multi-gas assessments (CO_2, CH_4, N_2O) for the AFOLU sector in order to gain a more coherent understanding on how the land affects the atmospheric composition and forces the climate. Thus, while temperature rise by around the end of this century will relate to the total emissions of long-lived greenhouse gases between 2000 and 2100 (e.g. CO_2) (Anderson 2012) recent research concludes that cumulative warming capacity of concurrent biogenic CH_4 and N_2O emissions is about a factor of 2 larger than the cooling effect resulting from the global land CO_2 uptake in the 2000s (Tian et al., 2016). This results in a net positive cumulative impact of the three GHGs on the planetary energy budget, which calls for shorter-term mitigation initiatives (Tian et al., 2016).

At the aggregated tropical scale, uncertainties were higher (up to 50% of the mean emissions) than at the landscape scale (0.5º) (30%), in line with other reports (Smith et al., 2014; Tubiello et al., 2015). The spatial scale of the emission assessments influences, therefore, the final uncertaint~~y~~ies ~~estimates~~due to assumptions about the spatial correlation of the errors. Several authors have suggested the importance of working at more detailed spatial scales (e.g.30m) to reduce the uncertainties, particularly of forest emissions, by having more accurate data on forest area changes and carbon densities (Houghton, 2005; Grassi et al., 2008; Asner et al., 2010; Baccini et al., 2012; Houghton et al., 2012).

To better understand the uncertainty role of the different emission sources at the tropical aggregated scale, we ran a partitioning of the tropical uncertainty. We found a disproportional contribution of deforestation to the tropical uncertainty budget (92.5%) (Table 2), which agreed with the results from other researchers (Morton et al., 2011) but left the remaining emission sources with a surprisingly modest contribution to the final uncertainty (7.5%). As it was the case for the hotspots, untangling the relative contribution of the emission sources to the tropical uncertainty budget brings in trade-offs between prioritizing mitigation action on sources that are large emitters but are highly uncertain (e.g. deforestation is responsible for 36% of the emissions but carries almost all the tropical emission uncertainty (92.5%) (Table 2) or choosing emitters that contribute less to the total emissions but are more certain (e.g livestock contributed less to the tropical emissions (15%) but had a very small part on the uncertainty budget (1.4%) (Table 2) (Figure 5).

3.3 Continental AFOLU emissions

Continents contributed similarly to the tropical AFOLU gross emissions: 2.7 (1.8-4.5), 2.8 (1.9-4.0), 2.5 (1.7-3.8) $PgCO_2e.yr^{-1}$, for Central and South (CS) America, Africa, and Asia, respectively (Table 2). Area-weighted emissions would, however, turn Asia into the largest continental source with a mean of 3.2 $MgCO_2e.ha^{-1}. yr^{-1}$ followed by Africa and CS America with 1.3 and 1.35 $MgCO_2e.ha^{-1}. yr^{-1}$, each. The leading sources for the continental emissions disagreed among databases but our hotspot research suggested that African emissions were dominated by fire over dry forests (52.6% of the African emissions, Table 2) which corroborates its description as “the fire continent” (Figure 7) (Mbow, 2014). Any effective mitigation action will therefore need to consider fire management, particularly in Miombo dry forests and Sudano-Sahelian woodlands, which are the most affected forests and the largest contributors to emissions hotspots. Contrastingly, Central and South America were mainly led by deforestation (60% of the continental emissions) and forest degradation (20%), mostly affecting humid forests. And while deforestation in Brazilian rainforests has since reduced, it has increased in dry forest in the region (e.g. the Chaco region in Argentina, Paraguay, and Bolivia) (Hansen et al., 2013), and forest degradation has also increased (Brando et al., 2014; Federici et al., 2015). The Asian emissions were the most diverse and were similarly led by different sources: i) paddy rice (Asia is the world's largest rice-producing region and is responsible for over 80% of the total CH4 emissions) (USEPA 2013); ii) livestock activities (Tubiello et al., 2014); iii) deforestation (Hansen et al., 2013), and iv) fire over peatlands, particularly in Indonesia (Van der Werf et al., 2010; Gaveau et al., 2014) (Table 2). Moreover, the Asian continent has the peculiarity of emitting almost half of the tropical non-CO_2 emissions (47%, Table 2), as observed by other authors (USEPA, 2013) and still has positively growing emission trends (Tubiello et al., 2014). Effective mitigation action on non-CO_2 emissions is therefore key for Asian and global mitigation.

The partitioning of the tropical AFOLU uncertainty at continental level showed that CS America contributed with half of the variance (48%, Table 2), which was expected since the emissions of this continent are led by the most uncertain source (deforestation). Africa and Asia contributed similarly to the rest of the uncertainty (27.3% and 24.7% respectively). Based on the uncertainty of the emissions, mitigation investments in CS America, would be, therefore, less effective than investing in Africa and Asia, particularly out of the forests.

4. CONCLUSIONS

Our dataset offers novel landscape scale information on the spatial distribution of hotspots of AFOLU emissions and their uncertainties, disaggregated by gases and by leading emission sources. As countries improve their technical capacities, new more accurate data will be produced, however, this AFOLU analysis can be useful as a benchmark against which counties can assess their progress on reducing AFOLU emissions, in a comparable and comprehensive manner. These datasets can also support countries in identifying mitigation measures and setting priorities for mitigation action within their AFOLU sector. Moreover, this study contributes to the debate on tropical mitigation potentials of agriculture and forestry. Thus, even if global estimates of agriculture and forestry emissions have roughly similar mitigation potentials (Smith et al., 2014; Tubiello et al., 2015), economic feasibilities differ. Thus, the forest sector has two to three-fold greater economic mitigation potentials than agriculture (e.g. 0.2-13 *vs* 0.3-4.6 $PgCO_2e.yr^{-1}$ respectively), at prices up to 100 USD/$MgCO_2e$ (Bajzelj et al., 2014; Havlik et al., 2014; Smith et al., 2014). This means that for the same price, more emission reductions can be achieved in the forest sector. These unequal results relate to the forest sector being much more carbon dense and also to the lower costs per area unit of monitoring/implementing actions to avoid deforestation and degradation. While at least 100 countries reported agricultural mitigation action under the Paris Agreement through their National Determined Contributions (Richards et al, 2015), agricultural mitigation suffers from concerns about food security and adaptation needs, which makes it unlikely that supply-side mitigation options alone (e.g. agricultural intensification) will help keep in track with the 2 degree target, and creative ways to avoid waste and include demand-side mitigation are required (e.g. change in societal diets) (Smith et al., 2013; Havlik et al., 2014, Wollenberg et al, 2016). Thus, notwithstanding the importance of agricultural mitigation, forests are more cost effective alternatives and, although uncertain, their multiple ecosystem services will keep them high as desirable mitigation targets in the political arena.

5. REFERENCES

Alencar, A., Asner, G., Knapp, D., Zarin, D.: Temporal variability of forest fires in eastern Amazonia. Ecol. Appl., 21, 2397-2412, 2011.

Alencar, A., Brando, P., Asner, G., Putz, F.: Landscape fragmentation, severe drought, and the new Amazon forest fire regime. Ecol Appl., 25, 1493-1505, 2015.

Anderson, K.: The inconvenient truth of carbon offsets. Nature, 484, 7, 2012.

Anderson, K.: Duality in climate science. Nature Geoscience, 8, 898–900, 2015.

Asner, G., Powel, G., Mascaro, J., Knapp, D., Clark, J., Jacobson J., Kennedy-Bowdoin T., Balaji A., Paez-Acosta, G., Victoria, E., Secada, L., Valqui, Mi., Flint Hughes, R.: High resolution forest carbon stocks and emissions in the Amazon. P. Natl. Acad. Sci.,107,16738-16742, 2010.

Baccini, A., Goetz, S., Walker, W., Laporte, N., Sun, M., Sulla-Mensashe, D., Hackler, J., Beck, P., Dubayah, R., Friedl, M., Samanta, S., Houghton, R.: Estimated carbon dioxide emissions from tropical deforestation improved by carbon-density maps. Nature Climate Change, 2, 182-185, 2012.

Bajzelj, B., Richards, K., Allwood, J., Smith, P., Dennis, J., Curmi, E., Gilligan, C.: Importance of food-demand management for climate mitigation. Nature Climate Change, 4, 924-929, 2014.

Balch, J., Andrade, R., Parsons, A., Armenteras, D., Roman-Cuesta, RM., Bulkan, J.: A synthesis of tropical forest degradation scenarios and carbon stock trajectories for REDD+. Under review. Conservation Biology.

Berenguer, E., Ferreira, J., Gardner, T., Aragao, L., Barbosa-DeCarmargo, P., Cerri, C., Durigan, M., Cosme de Olivera, R., Vieira, C., Barlow, J.: A large-scale field assessment of carbon stocks in human-modified tropical forests. Glob. Change Biol., 20, 3713-3726, 2014.

Bodle, R., Donat, L., Duwe, M.:The Paris Agreement: Analysis, Assessment and Outlook. German Federal Environment Agency (UBA) Research Paper. Dessau-Roßlau: Umweltbundesamt, 2016. Available at: http://ecologic.eu/13321

Brando, P., Balch, J., Nepstad, D., Morton, D., Putz, F., Coe, M., Silverio, D., Macedo, M., Davidson, E., Nobrega, C., Alencar, A., Soares-Filhio, B:Abrupt increases in Amazonian tree mortality due to drought-fire interactions. . P. Natl. Acad. Sci., 11, 6347-6352, 2014.

Brienen, R., Phillips, O., Feldspausch, T., Gloor, E., Lloyd, J., Lopez-Gonzalez, G., Morteagudo-Mendoza, A., Malhi, Y., Lewis, S., Vasquez Martinez, R., Alexiades, M., Alvarez, E., Alvarez-Loayzada, P., Zagt, R.: Long term decline of the Amazon carbon sink. Nature, 519, 344-361, 2015.

Canadell, J., Schulze. D. Global potential of biospheric carbon management for climate mitigation. Nature Communications, 5, 5282-5293, 2014.

Carter, S., Herold, M., Rufino, M., Neumann, K., Kooistra, L. Verchot, L.: Mitigation of agricultural emissions in the tropics: comparing forest land-sparing options at the national scale. Biogeosciences,12, 4809-4825, 2015.

Climate Focus. Forest and land use in the Paris Agreement. Climate Focus Brief on the Paris Agreement. 2015. Available at: http://www.climatefocus.com/sites/default/files/20151223%20Land%20Use%20and%20the %20Paris%20Agreement%20FIN.pdf

Cochrane, M., Alencar, A., Schulze, M., Souza, C., Nepstad, D., Lefebvre, P., Davidson, E.: Positive feedbacks in the fire dynamics of closed canopy tropical forests. Science, 284, 1832-1835, 1999.

EDGAR. The Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research. Part III: Greenhouse gas emissions, 2012. Available at: http://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/docs/IEA_PARTIII.pdf

FRA. Forest Resources Assessment, 2010. Available at http://www.fao.org/forestry/fra/fra2010/en/

Federici, S., Tubiello, F., Salvatore, M., Jacobs, H., Schmidhuber, J.: New estimates of CO_2 forest emissions and removals: 1990-2015. Forest Ecol.Manag., 3, 89-98, 2015.

Gaveau, D., Salim, M., Hergoualc'h, K., Locatelli, B., Sloan, S., Wooster, M., Marlier, M., Molidena, E., Yoen, H., DeFries, R., Verchot, L., Murdisarso, D., Nasi, R., Holgrem, P., Sheil, D.: Major atmospheric emissions from peat fires in Southeast Asia during non-drought years: evidence from the 2013 fires. Scientific Reports, 4,6112-6119, 2014.

Gibbs, H., Ruesch, A., Achard, F., Clayton, M., Holmgren, P., Ramankutty, N., Foley, A.:Tropical forests were the primary sources of new agricultural land in the 1980s and 1990s. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.,107,16732–16737, 2010.

Grace, J., Mitchard, E., Gloor, E.: Perturbations in the carbon budget of the tropics. Glob. Change Biol., 20, 3238-3255, 2014.

Grassi, G., Monni, S., Federici, S., Achard, F., Mollicone, D.:Applying the conservativeness principle to REDD to deal with uncertainties of the estimates. Environ. Res. Lett., 3, 035005, 2008.

Grassi, G., Dentener, F.: Quantifying the contribution of the Land Use Sector to the Paris Climate Agreement. The LULUCF sector within the Intended Nationally Determined Contributions. EUR 27561.JRC Science for Policy Report. Ispra, Italy, 2015. Available at: http://publications.jrc.ec.europa.eu/repository/bitstream/JRC98451/jrc%20lulucf-indc%20report.pdf

Hansen, M., Potapov, P., Moore, R., Hancher, M., Turubanova, S., Tuykavina, A., Thau, D., Stehman, S., Goetz, S., Loveland, T., Kommareddy, A., Egorov, A., Chini, L., Justice, C., Townshend, J.: High-resolution global maps of 21st-century forest cover change. Science, 342, 850-853, 2013.

Harris, N., Brown, S., Hagen, S., Saatchi, S., Petrova, S., Salas, W., Hansen, M., Potapov, P., Lotsch, A.: Baseline Map of Carbon Emissions from Deforestation in Tropical Regions. Science, 336, 1576-1578, 2012.

Havlik, P., Valin, H., Herrero, M., Obersteiner, M., Schmid, E., Rufino, M., Mosnier, A., Thornton, P., Böttcher, H., Conant, R., Frank, S., Fritz, S., Fuss, S., Kraxner, F., Notenbaert, A.: Climate change mitigation through livestock system transitions. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci., 111, 3709–3714, 2014.

Herrero, M., Havlik, P., Valin, H., Notenbaert, A., Rufino, M., Thornton, P., Blümmel, M., Weiss, F., Grace, D., Obesteiner, M.: Biomass use, production, feed efficiencies, and greenhouse gas emissions from global livestock systems. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci., 110, 20888-20893, 2013.

Houghton, R.:Aboveground forest biomass and the global carbon balance. Glob. Change Biol., 11, 945-958, 2005.

Houghton, R.: How well do we know the flux of CO_2 from land-use change? Tellus B, 62, 337-351, 2010.

Houghton, R.: Carbon emissions and the drivers of deforestation and forest degradation in the tropics. Curr. Opin. Environ. Sustain., 4, 597-603, 2012.

IPCC. Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Guidelines for National Greenhouse gas Inventories. Vol. 4: Agriculture, Forestry and Other Land Use (eds Eggleston S, Buendia L, Miwa K, Ngara T, Tanabe K). IGES, Kanagawa, Japan, 2006.

IPCC. Changes in Atmospheric Constituents and in Radiative Forcing. In: Contribution of Working Group I to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change: The Physical Science Basis (eds Solomon S, Qin D, Manning M, Chen Z, Marquis M, Averyt KB, Tignor M, and Miller HL). Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA, 2007.

IPCC. Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Summary for Policymakers. In: Climate Change 2014: Mitigation of Climate Change. Contribution of Working Group III to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (eds Edenhofer O, Pichs-Madruga R, Sokona Y, E, Farahani E, Kadner S, Seyboth K, Adler A, Baum I, Brunner S, Eickemeier P, Kriemann B, Savolainen J, Schlomer S, von Stechow C, Zwickel T, Minx JC). Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA, 2014.

Iversen P., Lee D., and Rocha M.: Understanding Land Use in the UNFCCC, Summary for Policymakers, 2014. Available at: http://www.fcmcglobal.org/documents/Land_Use_Guide_Summary.pdf

Le Quéré, C., Peters, G.P., Andres, R. J., Andrew, R. M., Boden, T. A., Ciais, P., Friedlingstein, P., Houghton, R.A., Marland, G., Moriarty, R., Sitch, S., Tans, P., Arneth, A., Arvanitis, A., Bakker, D. C.E., Bopp, L., Canadell, J. G., Chini, L. P., Doney, S. C., Harper, A., Harris, I., House, J.I., Jain, A. K., Jones, S. D., Kato, E., Keeling, R. F., Klein Goldewijk, K., Körtzinger, A.,Koven, C., Lefèvre, N., Maignan, F., Omar, A., Ono, T., Park, G.-H., Pfeil, B., Poulter, B., Raupach, M. R., Regnier, P., Rödenbeck, C., Saito, S., Schwinger, J., Segschneider,J., Stocker, B. D., Takahashi, T., Tilbrook, B., van Heuven, S., Viovy, N., Wanninkhof,R., Wiltshire, A., and Zaehle, S. Global carbon budget 2013, Earth Syst. Sci.Data, 6, 235-263, 2014.

Lewis, S., Lopez-Gonzalez, G., Sonké, B., Affum-Baffoe, K., Baker, T., Ojo, L., Phillips, O., Reitsma, J., White, L., Comiskey, J., Djuikouo, M., Ewango, E., Feldspausch, T., Reitsma, J., Wöll, H.: Increasing carbon storage in intact African tropical forests. Nature, 457,1003-1007, 2009.

Li, C.: Biogeochemical concepts and methodologies: Development of the DNDC model. Quaternary Sciences, 21, 89-99, 2001.

Li, C., Salas, W., DeAngelo, B., Rose, S.: Assessing alternatives for mitigating net greenhouse gas emissions and increasing yields from rice production in China over the next 20 years. J. Environ. Qual., 35, 1554-1565, 2006,

Mbow, Ch.: Biogeoscience: Africa’s greenhouse gas budget is in the red. Nature, 508,192-193, 2014.

Monfreda, C., Ramankutty, N., Foley, A.: Farming the planet: Geographical distribution of crop areas, yields, physiological types, and net primary production in the year 2000. Global Biogeochem. Cycles, 22, 1022-1041, 2008.

Morton, D., Sales, M., Souza, C., Griscom, B.: Historic emissions from deforestation and forest degradation in Mato Grosso Brazil: 1) source data uncertainties. Carbon Balance Management, 6, 18-31, 2011.

Ogle, S.,Breidt, F., Easter, M., Williams, S., Paustian, K.: An empirically based approach for estimating uncertainty associated with modelling carbon sequestration in soils. Ecological modelling, 205, 453-463, 2007

Oliveras, I., Anderson, D., Malhi, Y.:Application of remote sensing to understanding fire regimes and biomass burning emissions of the tropical Andes. Global Biogeochem. Cycles, 28, 480-496, 2014.

Peters, G., Davis, S., Andrew, R.: A synthesis of carbon in international trade. Biogeosciences, 9, 3247–3276, 2012.

Poorter, L., Bongers, F., Aide, M., Almeyda-Zambrano, A., Balvanera, P., Becknell, J., Boukili, V., Brancalion, P., Broadbent, E., Chazdon, R., Craven, D., de Almedida-Cortez, J., Cabral, G., deJong, B., Rozendaal, D.: Biomass resilience of Neotropical secondary forests. Nature, 530, 211-214, 2016.

Poulter, B.:Global Wood Harvest 2010. Operational Global Carbon Observing System - GEOCARBON Project Report, 2015 (data available upon request)

Pütz,S., Groeneveld, J., Henle, K., Knogge, C., Martensen, A., Metz, M.: Long-term carbon loss in fragmented Neotropical forests. Nature communications, 5, 5037-5045, 2014.

Richards, M., Bruun, T., Campbell, B., Huyer, S., Kuntze, V., Gregersen, L., Madsen, S., Oldvig, M., Vasileiou, I.: How countries plan to address agricultural adaptation and mitigation: An analysis of Intended Nationally Determined Contributions. CGIAR Research Program on Climate Change, Agriculture and Food Security (CCAFS), Copenhagen, 2015. Available at: https://cgspace.cgiar.org/rest/bitstreams/63683/retrieve

Richter, D., Houghton, RA.: Gross CO2 fluxes from land-use change: implications for reducing global emissions and increasing sinks. Carbon management, 2, 41-47, 2011.

Román-Cuesta, RM., Carmona-Moreno, C., Lizcano, G., New, M., Silman, S., Knoke, T., Malhi, Y., Oliveras, I., Asbjornsen, H., Vuille, M.: Synchronous fire activity in the tropical high Andes: an indication of regional climate forcing. Glob. Change Biol., 20, 1929-1942, 2014.

Roman-Cuesta, RM., Gracia, M., Retana, J.: Environmental and human factors influencing fire trends in Enso and non-Enso years in tropical Mexico. Ecological Applications, 13, 1177–1192, 2013.

Schulze, E., Luyssaert, S., Ciais, P., Freibauer, A., Janssens, I., Soussana, J., Smith, P., Grace, J., Levin, I., Thiruchittampalam, B., Heimann, McDolman, A., Valentini, R., Bousquet, P., Peylin, P., Peters, W., Gash, J.: Importance of methane and nitrous oxide for Europe's terrestrial greenhouse-gas balance. Nature Geosciences, 2, 842-850, 2009.

Smith, P., Martino, D., Cai, Z., Gwary, D., Janzen, H., Kumar, P., McCarl, B., Ogle, S., O'Mara, F., Rice, C., Scholes, B., Sirotenko, O., Howden, M., McAllister, T., Pan, G., Romanenkov, V., Schneider, U., Towprayoon, S., Wattenbach, M., Smith, J.: Greenhouse gas mitigation in agriculture. Phil. Trans. R. Soc. B., 363, 789‑813, 2008.

Smith, P., Haberl, H., Popp, A., Erb, K., Lauk, C., Harper, R., Tubiello, F., Siqueira Pinto, A., Jafari, M., Sohi, S., Masera, O., Bottcher, H., Berndes, G., Bustamante, M., Al Ahammad, H., Clark, H., Rose, S.: How much land-base greenhouse gas mitigation can be achieved without compromising food security and environmental goals? Global Change Biol., 19, 2285-2302, 2013.

Smith, P., Bustamante, M., Ahammad, H., Van Minnen, J.: Agriculture, Forestry and Other Land Use (AFOLU) In: Climate Change 2014: Mitigation of Climate Change. Contribution of Working Group III to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (eds Edenhofer O, Pichs-Madruga R, Sokona Y, E, Farahani E, Kadner S, Seyboth K, Adler A, Baum I, Brunner S, Eickemeier P, Kriemann B, Savolainen J, Schlomer S, von Stechow C, Zwickel T, Minx JC). Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA, 2014.

Tian, H., Lu, C., Ciais, P., Michalak, A., Canadell, J., Saikawa, E., Huntzinger, D., Gurney, K., Sitch, S., Zhang, B., Yang, J., Bousquet, P., Bruhwiler, L., Chen, G., Dlugokencky, E., Wofsy, S.: The terrestrial biosphere as a net source of greenhouse gases to the atmosphere. Nature, 531, 225-228, 2016.

Tubiello, F., Salvatore, M., Cóndor Golec, R., Ferrara, A., Rossi, S., Biancalani, R., Federici, S., Jacobs, H., Flammini, A.:Agriculture, Forestry and Other Land Use Emissions by Sources and Removals by Sinks 1990 – 2011 Analysis. Working Paper Series ESS/14-02.FAO Statistical Division. Rome, Italy, 2014. Available at: http://www.fao.org/docrep/019/ i3671e/i3671e.pdf

Tubiello, F., Salvatore, M., Ferrara, A., House, J., Federici, S., Rossi, S., Biancalani, R., Condor Golec, R., Jacobs, H., Flammini, A., Prosperi, P., Cardenas-Galindo, P., Schmidhuber, J., Sanz

Sanchez, MJ., Srivastava, N., Smith, P. The contribution of Agriculture, Forestry and other Land Use Activities to Global Warming, 1990-2012. Global Change Biol., 21, 2655–2660, 2015.

UNEP. United Nations Environmental Programme. The Emissions Gap Report 2015. Nairobi, 2015. Available at http://uneplive.unep.org/theme/index/13#indcs

USEPA. United States Environmental Protection Agency. Global Mitigation of non-CO_2 Greenhouse Gases: 2010-2030. Technical Report-430-R-13-011, 2013. Available at: http://www.epa.gov/climate change/Downloads/EPAactivities/MAC_Report_2013.pdf

Van der Werf, G., Randerson, J., Giglio, L., Collatz, G., Mu, M., Kasibhatla, P., Morton, D., DeFries, R., Jin, Y., van Leeuwen, T.: Global fire emissions and the contribution of deforestation, savannah, forest, agricultural, and peat fires (1997–2009). Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics, 10, 11707–11735, 2010. Available at: The Global Fire Emission Database (GFED): http://www.globalfire data.org/

Wollenberg, L., Richards, M., Smith, P., Havlik, P., Obersteiner, M., Tubiello, F., Herold, M., Gerber, P., Carter, S., Reisinger, A., van Vuuren, D., Dickie, A., Neufeldt, H., Sander, B., Wassman, R., Sommer, R., Amonette, J., Falcucci, A., Herrero, M., Opio, C., Roman-Cuesta, RM., Campbell, B. Reducing emissions from agriculture to meet the 2ºC target. Global Change Biol. DOI: 10.1111/gcb.13340.

Websites

www1: http://faostat3.fao.org/home/E

www2: http://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/overview.php?v=42FT2010

www3: http://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/docs/IEA_PARTIII.pdf

6. CONTRIBUTIONS

RMRC, MR, MH1, KBB, TR, JS, LV designed the study. RMRC, MH2, CM, CL, SO, BP provided data and ran quality control, quality assessments and uncertainties expert judgements on the data sets. SdB guided on statistics and developed all the scripts for the Monte Carlo aggregation of the data. JS assisted with GIS analyses and scripts. RMRC, MR, MH1, KBB, TR, SdB, LV, CM, JS, MH2, CL, SO, BP, discussed the results and contributed to writing.

7. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research was generously funded by the Standard Assessment of Mitigation Potential and Livelihoods in Smallholder Systems (SAMPLES) Project as part of the CGIAR Research Program Climate Change, Agriculture, and Food Security (CCAFS). Funding also came from two European Union FP7 projects: GEOCarbon (283080) and Independent Monitoring of GHG Emissions-N° CLIMA.A.2/ETU/2014/0008. Partial funds came through CIFOR from the governments of Australia (Grant Agreement # 46167) and Norway (Grant Agreement #QZA-10/0468). In memoriam: Dr. Changsheng Li. The authors of this manuscript would like to homage Dr. Li for his life-long dedication to science.

Figure legends

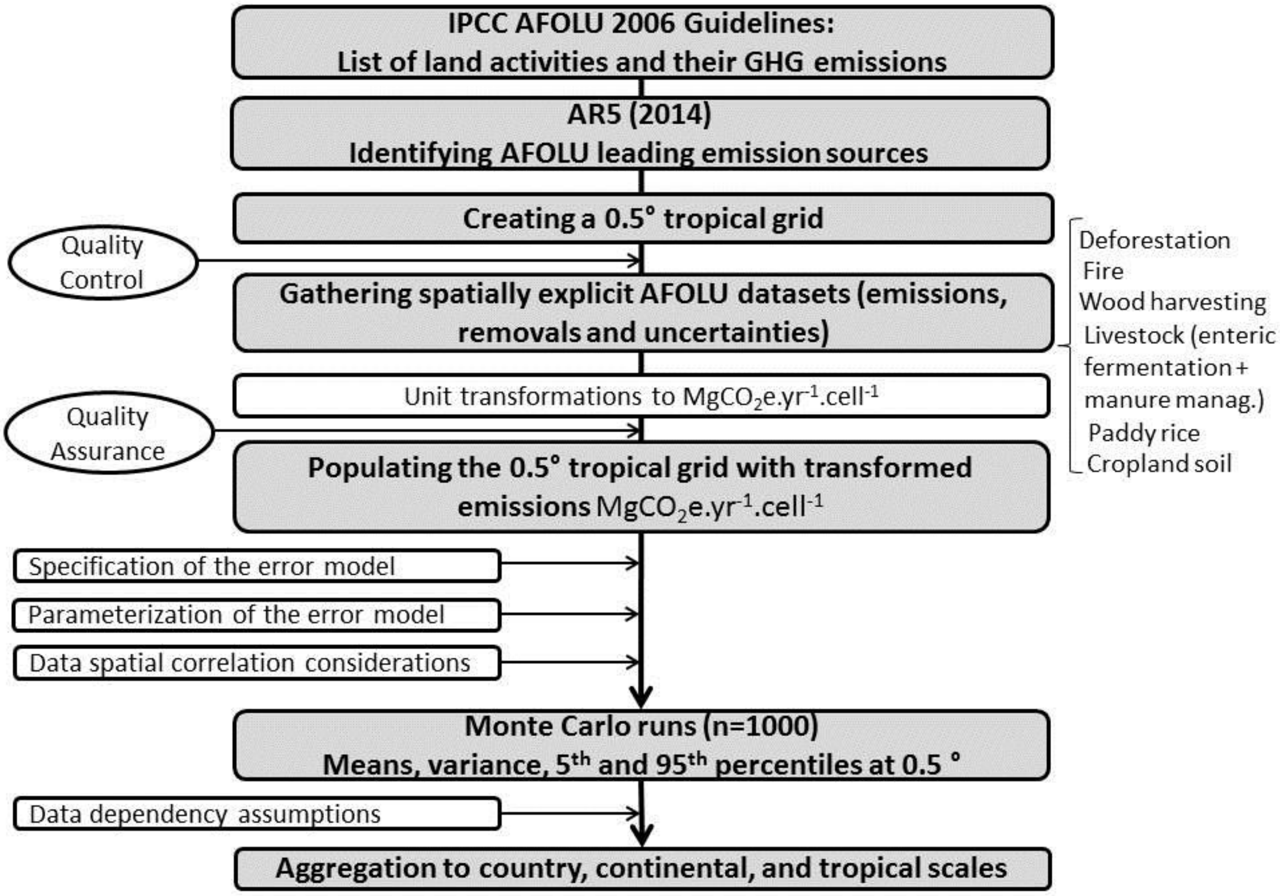

Figure 1: Methodological framework used to estimated the aggregated AFOLU emissions (annual means) and associated uncertainties (variance, 5^{th}, 95^{th} percentiles) at 0.5° resolution, for 2000-2005.

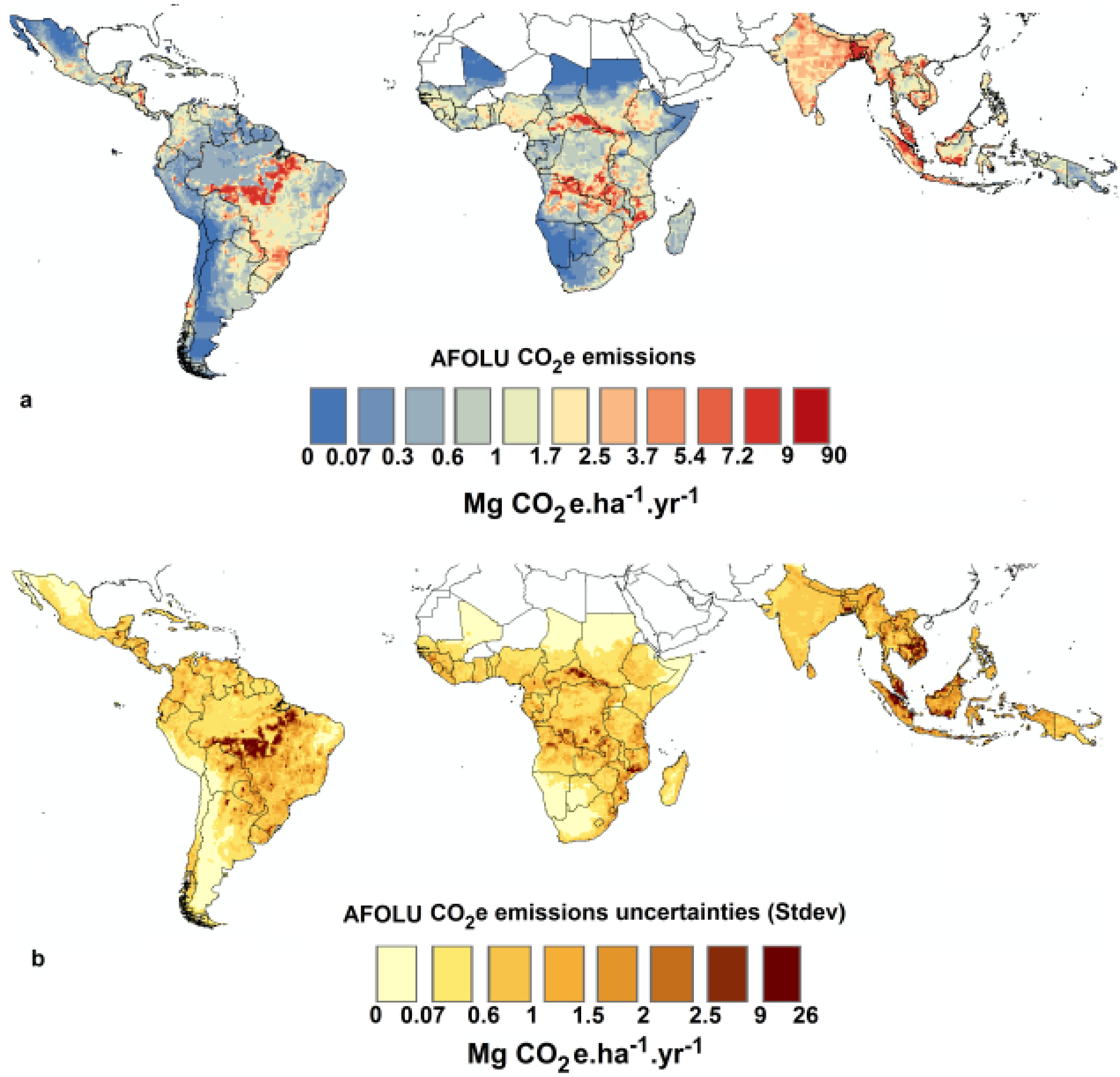

Figure 2: (a) Hotspots of annual AFOLU emissions (red cells) and (b) associated uncertainties (1σ) in $MgCO_2e.ha^{-1}.yr^{-1}$ for the tropical region, for the period 2000-2005, at 0.5°resolution. Emissions are the result of 1000 Monte Carlo simulations for the leading AFOLU emission sources (deforestation, degradation (fire, wood harvesting), soils (crops, paddy rice), livestock (enteric fermentation and manure management)

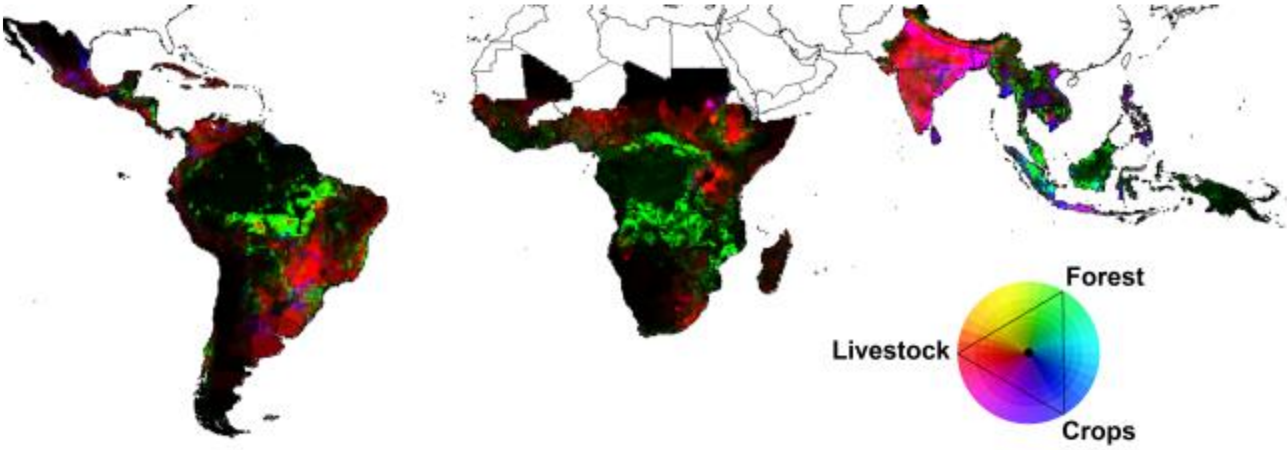

Figure 3: Contribution of the leading emission sources in percent of total emissions (grouped into forests, crops and livestock) to the per pixel (0.5°), for 2000-2005. Forest emissions include fire, deforestation and wood harvesting. Crops emissions includes paddy rice, cropland soil and croplands over drained histosols. Livestock includes enteric fermentation and manure management emissions. This figure is an RGB image where final colours represent the strength of the emissions for the three sources (e,g, fuchsia colours in Asia represent equal emissions from livestock (red) and crops (blue). Dark represent areas of low emissions.

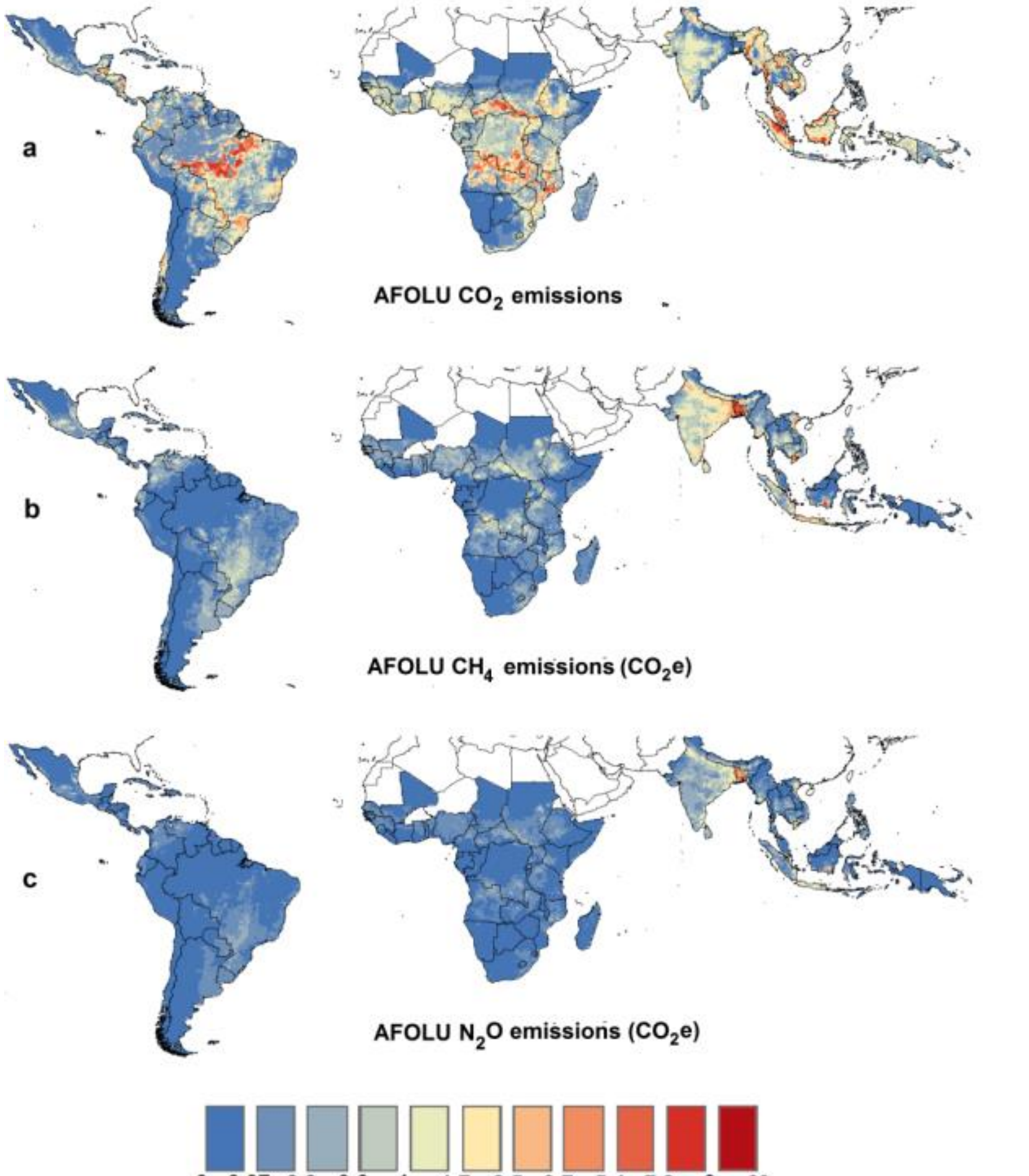

Figure 4: Mean annual AFOLU emissions ($MgCO_2e.ha^{-1}.yr^{-1}$), for the period 2000-2005, disaggregated by greenhouse gases: a) CO_2 emissions, which are a proxy of forest emissions, (b) CH_4, and (c) N_2O emissions, which are proxies of agricultural emissions. Emissions are the result of 1000 Monte simulations for the considered leading AFOLU emission sources.

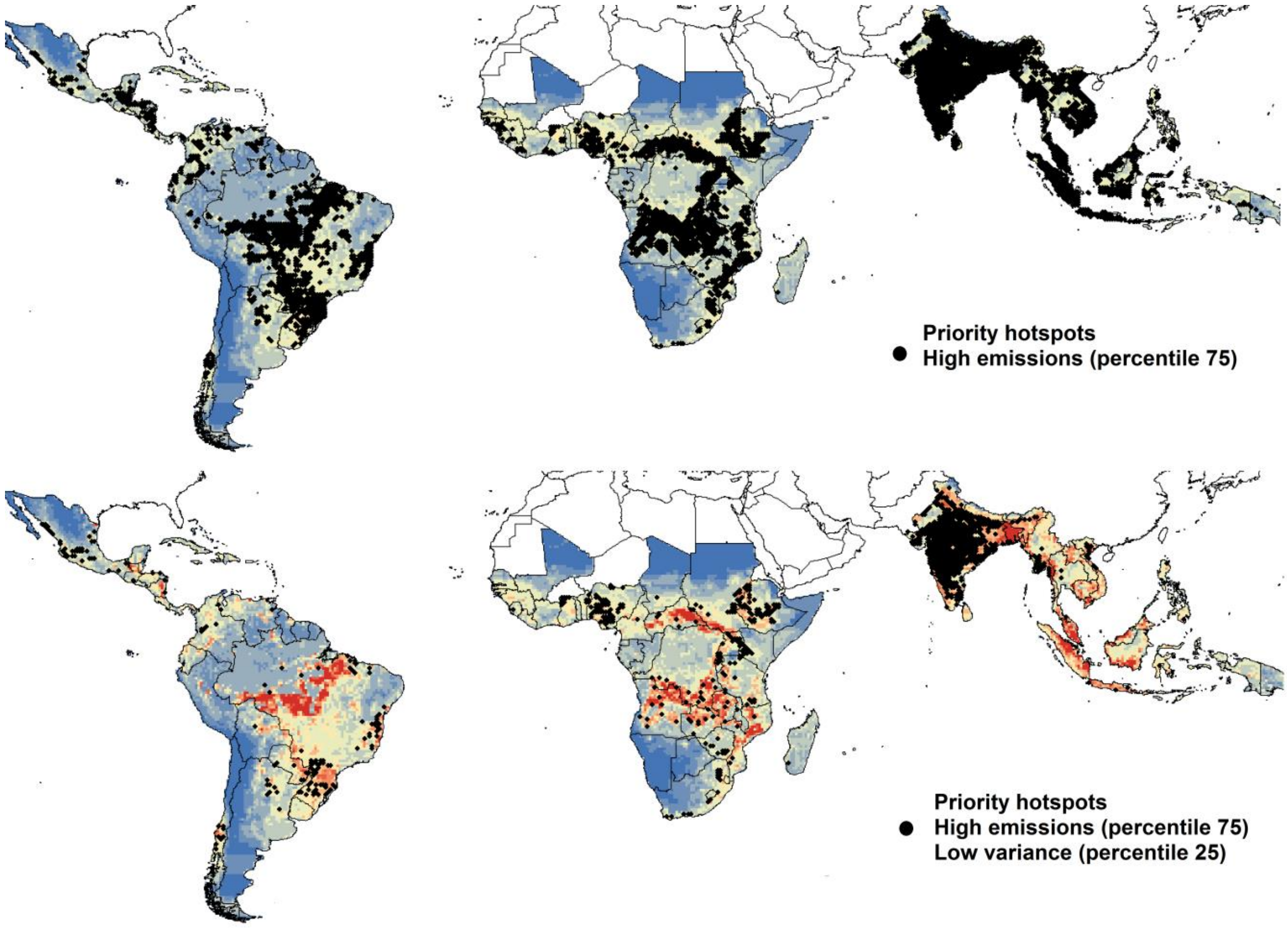

Figure 5: Identification of priority regions for mitigation in the AFOLU sector in the tropics, for 2000-2005 considering mitigation potentials only (higher emissions, percentile 75), and degree of certainty of these potentials (low uncertainties, percentile 25 of the variance). Economic feasibility would lead to different priority regions.

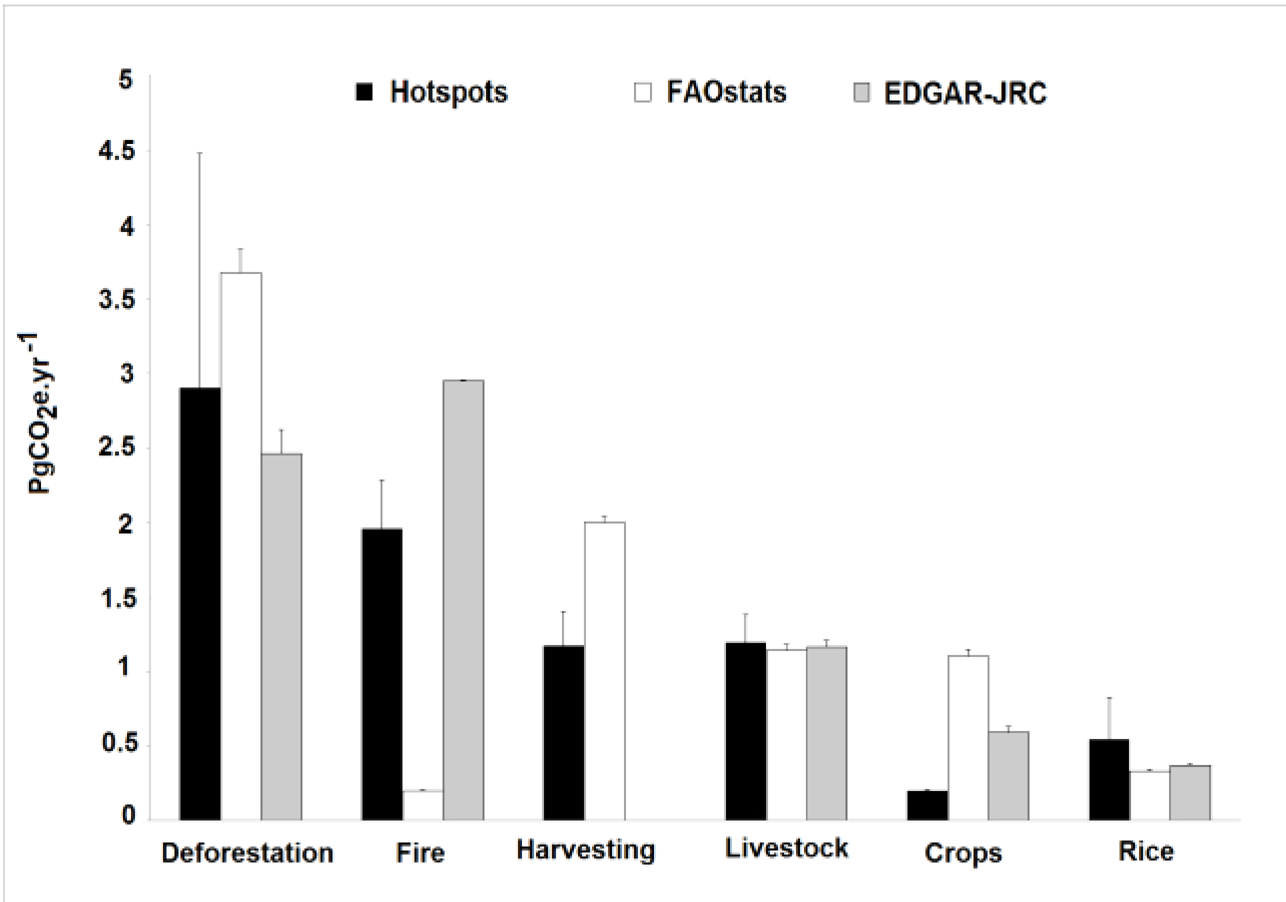

Figure 6: Distribution of mean annual emissions per sources of emissions for the three data bases, in the tropics, for 2000-2005. Bars indicate uncertainty estimates for the hotspot data base, and standard deviations for FAOstats and EDGAR-JRC estimated from country data variability since no uncertainty data exist for these two data bases.

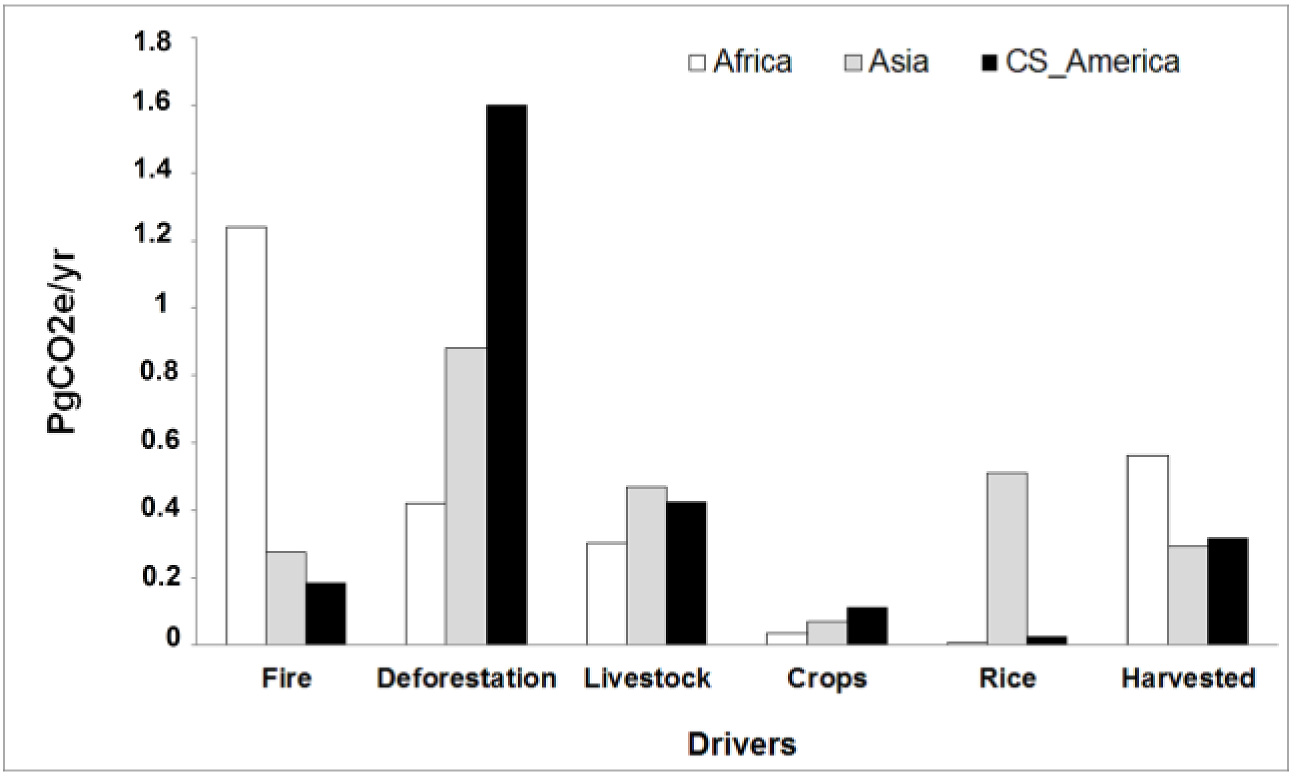

Figure 7: Continental contribution of the leading emission drivers for our hotspot data base, in the tropics, for the period 2000-2005.

Tables

From units	To units	Molecular weights conversion	Global Warming Pontentials 100-yr
kgC (dSOC)	kg CO_2eq.	kgC * 44 / 12	1
kgC (CH_4)	kg CO_2eq.	kgC * 16 / 12	21
kgN (N_2O)	kg CO_2eq.	kgN * 44 / 28	310

Table 1: Data conversions to CO_2e for different chemical elements (C, N). dSOC is the change in Soil Organic Carbon. Molecular weights and global warming potentials use values from the Fourth Assessment Report (IPCC 2007)

Gross AFOLU emissions ($PgCO_2e.yr^{-1}$)						
		CO_2e	CO_2	CH_4	N_2O	
Tropical		8.0 (5.5-12.2)	5.5 (3.3-9.5)	1.5 (1.1-1.9)	1 (0.8-1.2)	
Central & South America		2.7 (1.8-4.5)	2.1 (1.3-3.8)	0.35 (0.25-0.45)	0.25 (0.2-0.3)	
Africa		2.8 (1.9-4.0)	2.1 (1.4-3.2)	0.39 (0.27-0.5)	0.3 (0.22-0.39)	
Asia		2.5 (1.7-3.8)	1.3 (0.7-2.4)	0.74 (0.56-0.95)	0.41 (0.35-0.47)	
Contribution of leading emission sources to the tropical AFOLU emissions (%)						
	Deforestation	**Fire**	**Rice**	**Wood Harvesting**	**Livestock**	**Crops**
Tropical	36.3	24.6	6.9	14.6	15	2.5
Central & South America	59.6	8.2	1.1	11.9	15.9	3.4
Africa	15.2	52.6	0.3	20.3	11	0.7
Asia	34.8	11.3	20.2	11.5	18.5	3.7
Contribution of leading emission sources to total uncertainty (%)						
	Deforestation	**Fire**	**Rice**	**Harvesting**	**Livestock**	**Crops**
Tropical	92.5	4.5	0.2	1.4	1.4	0.0
Central & South America	98.4	0.3	0.0	0.5	0.8	0.0
Africa	69.8	25.5	0.0	3.7	1.1	0.0
Asia	91.4	2.4	2.1	1.1	2.9	0.0
Contribution of gases to the tropical AFOLU emissions (%)						
		CO_2e	**CO_2**	**CH_4**	**N_2O**	
Tropical			69	19	12	
Central & South America		34	78	13	9	
Africa		35	75	14	11	
Asia		31	53	30	17	
Contribution of gases to total uncertainty (%)						
Tropical			98.3	1.3	0.4	
Central & South America		48	99.4	0.5	0.1	
Africa		27.3	98.2	1.1	0.7	
Asia		24.7	95.5	3.9	0.6	

Table 2: i) Contribution of the different greenhouse gases (CO_2, CH_4, N_2O) to continental and tropical AFOLU annual mean emissions for the period 2000-2005 (in parenthesis are the 5th and the 95th percentiles of the aggregated AFOLU emissions). ii) Contribution of the different leading emission sources to the tropical and continental AFOLU emission emissions (expressed as % of emissions). And iii) partitioning of the AFOLU emissions uncertainties among the leading emission sources and the considered GHG gases (expressed as % of variance) AFOLU emissions are the result of 1000 Monte Carlo runs for the leading emission sources.