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31 **Keywords:** AFOLU, mitigation, greenhouse gases, CO₂, CH₄, N₂O, Land use emissions, tropics.

32

33 **Abstract**

34 According to the latest report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC),
35 emissions must be cut by 41-72% below 2010 levels by 2050 for a likely chance of containing the
36 global mean temperature increase to 2 °C. The AFOLU sector (Agriculture, Forestry and Other
37 Land Use) roughly contributes with a quarter (~ 10 -12 PgCO₂e.yr⁻¹) of the net anthropogenic GHG
38 emissions mainly from deforestation, fire, wood harvesting, and agricultural emissions including
39 croplands, paddy rice and livestock. In spite of the importance of this sector, it is unclear where are
40 the regions with hotspots of AFOLU emissions, and how uncertain these emissions are. Here we
41 present a novel spatially comparable dataset containing annual mean estimates of gross AFOLU
42 emissions (CO₂, CH₄, N₂O), associated uncertainties, and leading emission sources, in a spatially
43 disaggregated manner (0.5°), for the tropics, for the period 2000-2005. Our data highlight: i) the
44 existence of AFOLU emissions hotspots on all continents, with particular importance of evergreen
45 rainforest deforestation in Central and South America, fire in dry forests in Africa, and both
46 peatland emissions and agriculture in Asia; ii) a predominant contribution of forests and CO₂ to the
47 total AFOLU emissions (75%) and to their uncertainties (98%), iii) higher gross fluxes from forests
48 coincide with higher uncertainties, making agricultural hotspots more appealing for effective
49 mitigation action, and iv) a lower contribution of non-CO₂ agricultural emissions to the total gross
50 budget (ca. 25%) with livestock (15.5%) and rice (7%) leading the emissions. Gross AFOLU
51 tropical emissions 8.2 (5.5-12.2) were in the range of other databases 8.4 and 8.0 PgCO₂e.yr⁻¹
52 (FAOSTAT and EDGAR respectively), but we offer a spatially detailed benchmark for monitoring



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

57

58 INTRODUCTION

59 Currently unabated CO₂e emissions need effective mitigation action (UNEP, 2015). Emissions
60 modelling suggests that to maintain the global mean temperature increase on track with the 2°C
61 target and to remain close to the 450 ppm of CO₂ by 2100, global greenhouse gas (GHG)
62 emissions must be cut in a range of 41-72% below the 2010 levels by 2050, and global emissions
63 levels must be reduced to zero (a balance between sources and sinks) by 2070 and below zero
64 through removal processes after that (IPCC, 2014; Anderson, 2015; UNEP 2015). To reach these
65 ambitious goals, it is imperative to identify regions where the mitigation of key emission sectors
66 may be most promising in terms of reducing fluxes, reducing emission trends, and/or maximizing
67 returns on mitigation investments. From all the sectors contributing to the total anthropogenic GHG
68 budget, the Agriculture, Forestry and Other Land Use (AFOLU) sector participates with roughly one
69 quarter (10-12 PgCO₂e.yr⁻¹) of the total emissions (49 PgCO₂e.yr⁻¹) (IPCC, 2014). Optimistic
70 estimates suggest that the AFOLU sector could contribute 20 to 60% of the total cumulative
71 abatement to 2030 through land-related mitigation including bioenergy (Smith et al., 2014).
72 However, it is unclear where are the regions with the largest AFOLU emissions (hotspots of
73 emissions), and how large their associated uncertainties are. While there are several global multi-
74 gas (CO₂, CH₄, N₂O) databases for the AFOLU sector (e.g. FAOSTAT, EDGAR), none of them
75 currently provides emissions uncertainties. Moreover, the available data are either inappropriate to
76 effectively navigate mitigation implementation due to their coarse scale (e.g. data available at
77 country level only, FAOSTAT), or suffer from non-transparent documentation (e.g. EDGAR).
78 Modelling efforts by the carbon community are starting to focus on national scales (Murray-
79 Tortarolo et al., 2016) but their focus is yet on CO₂ dynamics, omitting other key land use gases
80 such as CH₄ and N₂O (Houghton et al., 2012; LeQuerre et al., 2012; Canadell et al., 2014), which



81 are known to counteract terrestrial CO₂ sinks (Schulze et al., 2009) and the positive effects of
82 these sinks on climate forcing (Tian et al., 2016).

83

84 A spatially explicit snapshot of the location of AFOLU emissions hotspots (CO₂, CH₄, N₂O) and
85 associated data on their uncertainties would assist national policy makers, investors and other
86 decision-makers who seek to understand the mitigation potential of the AFOLU sector. This
87 potential is here defined as the maximum mitigation reduction that could be achieved without
88 technical or economic considerations. Better understanding of the AFOLU mitigation potentials will
89 also be needed under the new Paris Agreement (PA) since the success of the PA will be measured
90 against the fulfilment of the 2°C target and it is dependent on the mitigation ambition presented by
91 individual countries in their Intended Nationally Determined Contributions (INDCs). One of the
92 elements to safeguard this ambition is the stocktake process through which countries are required
93 to submit updated INDCs every five years, starting from 2020, and to enhance their commitments
94 from previous contributions (Bodle et al., 2016). It is therefore imperative to improve our
95 understanding of where and how much could countries enhance their AFOLU ambition from what
96 is currently reported.

97

98 Mitigation action can be directed to reducing emissions by the sources, or to increasing the
99 absorptions by the sinks, or to both. While gross and net emissions are equally important, they
100 offer different information. Net land use emissions consider the emissions and the absorptions and
101 offer emission data that are closer to what the atmosphere receives from human activities.
102 Countries report their emissions and their reduction targets based on net AFOLU balances.
103 However, gross assessments are useful to navigate mitigation implementation since they offer
104 direct information on the sources of anthropogenic emissions, and removals by natural sinks, that
105 need to be acted upon through policies and measures to enhance and promote mitigation. Lack of
106 ground data makes, however, the assessment of the sinks much more difficult than the
107 assessment of the sources (Lewis et al., 2009; Pan et al., 2011; Grace et al., 2014; Brienen et al.,
108 2015; Federici et al., 2015) with a particular gap on disturbed standing forests (Poorter et al.,
109 2016).



110

111 For these reasons, and for the relevance of the tropics in global AFOLU emissions (Smith et al.,
112 2014; Tubiello et al., 2015), here we present a new gross AFOLU dataset that is produced using a
113 consistent approach, which overcomes problems of different definitions, methods, and input data
114 present in nationally reported data. We offer, for the first time, a spatially explicit (0.5°) view of the
115 emissions hotspots in the tropics (CO₂, CH₄, N₂O) and associated uncertainties, for 2000-2005, in
116 a way that allows data comparability. We also provide information on the leading sources of
117 emissions per cell. It is a top-down approach based on available published GHG datasets for the
118 key sources of emissions in the AFOLU sector as identified by the IPCC AR5: deforestation, fire,
119 wood harvesting, crop soil emissions, paddy rice emission, enteric fermentation and manure
120 management. We address three questions at the landscape, tropical, and continental scales: 1.
121 Where are the hotspots of tropical AFOLU emissions and how uncertain are they? 2. What are the
122 main GHG behind these hotspots?, 3. What are the emission sources behind these hotspots?

123

124 MATERIAL AND METHODS

125 Our study area is defined by the deforestation layer (Harris et al., 2012). It covers the tropics and
126 the subtropics, including the more temperate regions of South America (33° N to 54° S, 161° E to
127 117° W). It expands over a diversity of ecosystems that range from dry woodlands and dry forests
128 such as the African Miombo and South American Chaco, to rainforests and moist forests such as
129 evergreen broadleaved rainforests or montane cloud forests. The years considered by our datasets
130 varied, yet we selected the period 2000-2005 as the common temporal range for all the datasets.
131 The exception was the rice emissions dataset, that took 2010 as its baseline (See Table S2 in
132 supplementary). This time period represents a useful historical baseline against which countries
133 can contrast the evolution of their AFOLU gross emission performances. We consider the pixel
134 size (0.5°) appropriate for landscape research, and useful to visualize emissions hotspots.

135

136 Datasets

137 Deforestation (Harris et al., 2012): Tropical carbon losses were at 18.5 km of spatial resolution,
138 aggregated for a 5 year period (2000-2005). Deforestation areas are based on MODIS data at 18.5



139 km resolution, while carbon loss derives from Saatchi et al., (2012) carbon map, at 1 km resolution.
140 Information of uncertainties is expressed as 5th and 95th percentiles, estimated through Monte
141 Carlo simulations and showed non-Gaussian distributions. Harris et al data defines the spatial and
142 temporal extent of our tropical AFOLU analysis.

143

144 *Fire (Van der Werf et al., 2010)*: Fire emissions (CO₂, CH₄, N₂O) were obtained from the Global
145 Fire Emission Database (GFED) (www1) at 0.5° resolution, based on the CASA model. Original
146 data were of global coverage for the period 1997-2013. We extracted a subset for the tropics and
147 2000-2005. Annual uncertainties for different regions were expressed as the 5th, 25th, 50th, 75th,
148 and 95th percentiles of 2000 Monte Carlo runs. 1σ uncertainties (expressed as percentage of the
149 50th percentile) were also given, and considered Gaussian distributions. To move to pixel (0.5°)
150 uncertainties, we assigned the regional 1σ to all the pixels within each region, for each gas. Total
151 fire net emissions (CO₂e) per pixel were the sum of the annual means. The Uncertainties of the
152 different gases (CH₄, N₂O and CO₂) were assumed independent and estimated by square rooting
153 the sum of their variances. Fire emissions were originally partitioned into six classes (savannah,
154 agriculture, woodlands, forests, peatlands and deforestation), which helped us remove CO₂
155 emissions from savannahs and agriculture since the burning of these land uses is assumed carbon
156 neutral (e.g. biomass burned gets recovered by biomass growth in the next growing season). CH₄
157 and N₂O emissions were, however, retained. We also removed deforestation fires, to avoid double
158 counting with deforestation emissions.

159

160 *Wood harvesting (Poulter et al., 2015)*: Wood harvesting is a 1° global gridded data set that was
161 generated in the frame of the GEOCARBON project. It uses National Forest Inventory data and the
162 FAO Forest Resources Assessment (FRA). Data were downscaled using a forest mask from the
163 Global Land Cover (GLC) 2000, and assuming that wood harvest was distributed evenly. The
164 original data was produced at the resolution of the GLC2000 (approx. 1X1 km) and finally
165 aggregated to the 1° scale. Wood Harvesting data consisted of five layers: 1. Round wood Forest
166 Area in hectares for each cell, 2. Fuelwood forest area in hectares for each cell, 3. Round wood
167 (industrial) harvest volume in m³, 4. Fuelwood harvest volume in m³, 5. Total harvest volume



168 (round wood + fuelwood) in m^3 . We chose fuel and industrial round wood harvest (m^3) as our
169 harvest data. We assumed instantaneous emissions assigned to the place of removal. Emissions
170 were transformed from m^3 to $\text{MgCO}_2\text{.yr}^{-1}$ using an emission factor of 0.25 (Mg C/m^3) (Grace et al.,
171 2014), and a C to CO_2 factor shown in Table 1. Because the resolution of this layer was larger than
172 our grid, the original value of wood volume at 1° was equally distributed among the 0.5° grid cells.
173 Uncertainties were not estimated in the original harvest emission data and we rely on a 20 percent
174 value of the per-pixel harvest emissions, based on the author's expert opinion.

175

176 Cropland soils (USEPA 2013): Cropland emissions (N_2O and soil dSOC) (changes in soil organic
177 carbon) were produced by Ogle et al., for the Environmental Protection Agency MAC-Report
178 (USEPA, 2013), at 0.5° resolution, for time periods 2000-2030 with five-year increments, based on
179 the DAYCENT ecosystem model. For our AFOLU analysis we used the annual mean emission
180 data for the period 2000-2005. The original units ($\text{g N}_2\text{O-N.m}^{-2}\text{.y}^{-1}$ and $\text{gC.m}^{-2}\text{.5y}^{-1}$) were
181 transformed to $\text{CO}_2\text{e.y}^{-1}\text{.grid cell}^{-1}$ (Table 1). The database included direct and indirect emissions
182 from mineral-based cropland soil processes: synthetic and organic fertilization, residue N,
183 mineralization and fixation). To be consistent with other data sets we did not include indirect
184 emissions (e.g. NO_3^- leaching, N runoff in overland water flow). Emissions estimated by the
185 DAYCENT modelled six major crop types only (maize, wheat, barley, sorghum, soybean and
186 millet) excluding other important tropical crops (sugar, coffee, cacao, cotton, tobacco, etc). As a
187 result, the cropland area simulated by DAYCENT was about 61% of the global non-rice cropland
188 areas reported by FAOSTAT, which resulted in lower cropland emissions when compared to other
189 databases (e.g. FAOSTAT and EDGAR). Moreover, due to the known poor performance of the
190 DAYCENT model over organic soils, cropland emissions over drained histosols were not part of
191 the estimated emissions. Uncertainties were offered per pixel (0.5°) as standard deviations per
192 dSOC and N_2O separately. Final CO_2e uncertainties per pixel were propagated as independent
193 data using the squared root of the summed variances. To complement the emission gap from the
194 organic cultivated soils, we used a Tier 1 approach that relied on the location of the tropical areas
195 of histosols (ISRIC's global soil database), the location of cropland areas per crop types (Monfreda



196 et al., 2008) and a Tier 1 annual emission factor for cultivated organic soils ($20 \text{ MgC}\cdot\text{ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$)
197 derived from the IPCC (IPCC 2006) (Supplementary).

198

199 Paddy Rice (USEPA 2013): We used data by Li et al., from the USEPA's MAC Report (2013).

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

212

213 Livestock (Herrero et al., 2013): Livestock emission data includes enteric fermentation (CH_4) and
214 manure management (N_2O , CH_4) for the year 2000, for twenty-eight regions, eight livestock
215 production systems, four animal species (cattle, small ruminants, pigs, and poultry), and three
216 livestock products (milk, meat, and eggs), at 0.1° cell resolution. The original units ($\text{kg CO}_2\text{e}\cdot\text{km}^{-2}\cdot\text{yr}^{-1}$)
217 were transformed to $\text{CO}_2\text{e}\cdot\text{grid cell}^{-1}$ by applying equal area re-projected values. The CO_2e of
218 enteric fermentation and manure management were then summed to obtain a total emission value
219 of livestock per grid cell. Livestock was entered in the AFOLU Monte Carlo simulations as one
220 variable only. No spatially explicit uncertainty data were provided in the original layers and we
221 applied a 20% value per cell and gas, based on the authors' expert judgement. Final gas
222 uncertainties were propagated by square rooting the sum of their variances.

223

224 **Databases**



225 FAOSTAT database: covers agriculture, forestry and other land uses and their associated
226 emissions of CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O, following IPCC 2006 Guidelines at Tier 1 (Tubiello et al., 2014).
227 Emissions are estimated for nearly 200 countries, for the reference period 1961–2012 (agriculture)
228 and 1990–2012 (FOLU), based on activity data submitted to and collated by FAO (www1).
229 FAOSTAT includes estimates of emissions from biomass fires, peatland drainage and fires, based
230 on geo-spatial information, as well as on forest carbon stock changes (both emissions and
231 absorptions) based on national-level FAO Forest Resources Assessment data (FRA, 2010). FOLU
232 carbon balances in FAOSTAT are first-order estimates of emissions from afforestation,
233 reforestation, degradation, regrowth, and harvest activities. The FAOSTAT emission estimates are
234 based on annual FAO emissions updates for AFOLU (Tubiello et al., 2014).

235

236 EDGAR database: The Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research (EDGAR) provides
237 global GHG emissions from multiple gases (CO₂, CH₄, N₂O) at 0.1° and country levels. It covers all
238 IPCC sectors (energy, industry, waste management, and AFOLU), mainly applying IPCC 2006
239 guidelines for emission estimations (EDGAR, 2012). We use EDGAR's 4.2 Fast Track 2010 (FT
240 2010) data (www2). Emissions cover the period 2000-2010 in an annual basis, at the country level
241 and are offered as Gg (G=10⁹) of gas. Transformation to CO₂e used AR4 100year-Global Warming
242 Potential values to be consistent with other datasets. Metadata can be found at EDGAR (2012),
243 although further transparency and more complete documentation are required for this database.

244

245 **Methods**

246 *Hotspots dataset*

247 Our AFOLU analysis focused on human-induced emissions, excluding natural fluxes (e.g. CH₄
248 emissions from undisturbed natural wetlands). Whenever possible, we focused on direct emissions
249 excluding legacy effects in our snapshot analysis. Delayed fluxes are important (e.g.
250 underestimations of up to 62% of the total emissions when recent legacy fluxes are excluded)
251 (Houghton et al., 2012) but are frequently omitted in GHG analyses that derive from remote
252 sensing, such as some of our datasets (e.g. Harris et al., 2012). We assumed instantaneous



253 emission released from the forest sector, with no transboundary considerations (e.g. final
254 destination of the Harvested Wood Products nor life-cycle substitution effects) (Peters et al., 2012).
255 Figure 1 describes the steps followed to produce our spatially explicit layers of gross AFOLU
256 emissions and uncertainties. We first assessed all possible emissions and land use activities under
257 the framework of the IPCC 2006 AFOLU guidelines. We then selected the key AFOLU emissions
258 sources as identified in the IPCC Fifth Assessment Report (AR5) (Smith et al., 2014). There were
259 seven key emission sources, three within the forest sector: deforestation, fire, and wood harvesting
260 (these last two were considered as forest degradation), and four within agriculture: cropland soils,
261 paddy rice, enteric fermentation and manure management (aggregated as livestock). We produced
262 an empty grid with cells of $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$ in a World Geographical reference System (WGS-84, lat-lon).
263 To correct for the unaccounted Earth distortions that come with a geographical system we used
264 equal area re-projected values whenever area-weighted estimates of the emissions were needed.
265 This grid was then populated with the seven emission sources, unit transformed and quality
266 controlled and assessed (see Supplementary). We used Monte Carlo simulations to aggregate the
267 gross AFOLU emissions and their uncertainties and produced four final estimates, per cell: mean
268 annual AFOLU emissions (50th percentiles) ($\text{CO}_2\text{e.y}^{-1}$), associated variance, and 5th and 95th
269 confidence intervals. Data were then aggregated to continental, and tropical scales. When
270 aggregating uncertainties at the pixel level we assumed emission sources to be mutually
271 uncorrelated. However, when the aggregation of the uncertainties included a change of spatial
272 support (e.g. pixel to continental, or pixel to tropical) we assumed complete dependence of the
273 uncertainty data, which offered a conservative (worst-case) scenario approach for the final
274 aggregated uncertainties (Supplementary). To understand which emission sources (e.g.
275 deforestation, degradation, livestock, paddy rice, etc) contributed the most to the final uncertainties
276 at the continental scale, we used the variance data produced per pixel and aggregated them using
277 the dependence assumption expressed above. The attribution of the uncertainty was then
278 estimated as percentages of the final aggregated variance, for each emission source.

279

280 *Database comparison*

281 We contrast our hotspots of gross AFOLU emissions against the FAOSTAT and EDGAR



282 databases. We run the comparisons at the country level, and produce the estimates selecting the
283 same countries, years, emission sources, assumptions (e.g. carbon neutrality of grasslands and
284 agricultural waste), and rules (e.g. only direct emissions) to guarantee comparability.

285

286 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

287 **AFOLU hotspots of emissions and uncertainties**

288 Tropical AFOLU hotspots were located on all continents but spatially concentrated in a few areas
289 only, with 25% of the tropical area responsible for 70% of the tropical AFOLU emissions (Figure
290 2a). Gross fluxes reached values of up to $90 \text{ MgCO}_2\text{e ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ in the hotspots, with Brazil, India,
291 Indonesia, Democratic Republic of Congo, Angola, Central African Republic, Mozambique,
292 Zambia, Malaysia, Sudan and Bangladesh, as the major contributors of tropical AFOLU emissions.
293 Hotspots were mainly led by forest emissions, both by deforestation and degradation, with large
294 hotspots over humid rainforests in the arch of deforestation in Brazil, and over the Miombo-Mopane
295 dry forests of Africa. Deforestation and peatland fires were important in Indonesia, combined with
296 agricultural hotspots from livestock and paddy rice. Agricultural emissions contributed less to the
297 hotspots, with Asia, particularly India and Bangladesh, as main emitting regions with different
298 relative contributions from livestock, paddy rice and cropland emissions (Figure 3). Southern Brazil,
299 northern Argentina and southeastern Paraguay also showed agricultural hotspots, mainly related to
300 livestock. Main GHGs followed these patterns, with CO_2 dominating the emissions from forest
301 activities, turning this gas into the main target for mitigation action. CH_4 dominated rice and
302 livestock emissions, while N_2O explained high cropland emissions (Figure 4).

303

304 Emissions uncertainties were the highest for the hotspot regions, reaching values of up to 30% of
305 the mean emissions (Figure 2b). Most uncertain AFOLU emissions related to areas with humid
306 tropical forests undergoing deforestation such as Brazil and Indonesia, and to areas with high fire
307 emissions such as dry Miombo ecosystems in Africa or peatlands in Asia. Deforestation has long
308 been identified as a main source of emissions uncertainties in the tropics due to the combined
309 effect of uncertain areas and uncertain carbon densities (Houghton 2010, Baccini et al., 2012,
310 Houghton et al., 2012). However, similar uncertainties for biomass burning were unexpected.



311 These high values are due to the contribution of herbaceous biomass, burned soil depth, and
312 combustion completeness, which are the most uncertain of the fire emissions components and are
313 key in woodland fires in Africa and peatland fires in Asia. Equatorial Asia and the African continent
314 hosted the largest fire uncertainties of all the regions (Van der Werf et al., 2010) (Fig S5 in
315 Supplementary).

316

317 Areas with high gross emissions but also high uncertainties complicate the targeting of mitigation
318 action and the selection of priority hotspots areas. Thus, while these areas have higher
319 mitigation potentials their uncertainties affect the reliability of the estimates and therefore the
320 effectiveness of the land use sector to implement actions to stabilize atmospheric GHGs (Grassi et
321 al., 2008). Optimal mitigation scenarios would rather focus on areas with large gross fluxes and low
322 uncertainties: in our study these are the agricultural hotspots in India, Southeastern Brazil,
323 Northern Argentina, and Central and Southern Africa (southern DRC, Zambia, Angola) (Figure 5).
324 Carter et al., (2015) identified that agricultural intensification and the utilization of available non-
325 forest land offer opportunities for agricultural mitigation of up to 1 PgCO₂. However, food security
326 and economic development concerns in countries with strong agro-businesses, might limit the
327 feasibility of this option. Moreover, the need to preserve and enhance forest ecosystem services,
328 including carbon sinks and reservoirs, will retain forest mitigation high in the climate agendas
329 independently of its uncertainties, as recently seen in the Paris Agreement, associated COP
330 decisions, and the New York Declaration on Forests.

331

332 **Tropical AFOLU emissions**

333 AFOLU data from the AR5 (e.g. Figure 11.2 in Smith et al., 2014) show how the tropics have
334 contributed with $\geq 70\%$ of the global AFOLU budget in the last decades, making this region the right
335 place to search for hotspots of land use emissions. Our aggregated gross AFOLU emissions
336 estimates of 8.2 (5.5-12.2) PgCO₂e.yr⁻¹ were in the range of other gross estimates for the same
337 region and time period: 8.4, and 8.0 PgCO₂e.yr⁻¹ for FAOSTAT and EDGAR respectively (Table 2).
338 In spite of this good agreement, databases disagreed on the relative contribution of the leading
339 emissions sources (Figure 6). Forests emissions showed the largest divergences, particularly



340 forest degradation (fire and wood harvesting emissions). This outcome was expected since forest
341 emissions were responsible for $\geq 70\%$ of the tropical gross AFOLU budget in all the databases
342 (Table 2). Gross degradation emissions –rather than deforestation- led the forest emissions in our
343 AFOLU gross budgets (39% vs 36% of the tropical budget, respectively) (Table 2), with a
344 degradation to deforestation emission ratio of 108%, reinforcing the great importance of reducing
345 degradation for effective mitigation. Ratios above 100% for gross degradation vs deforestation had
346 already been reported by Houghton et al. (2012) and Federici et al. (2015). Lower ratios have been
347 observed in smaller areas (e.g. 40% Amazon, 47% Peruvian Amazon) (Asner et al., 2010;
348 Berenguer et al., 2014) or when the ratio focuses on net fluxes of degradation (e.g. 25-35% of the
349 net LULCC flux, if wood harvesting and shifting cultivation were not considered, and an extra 11%
350 over the net LUC flux when excluding peatland fire emissions in Southeast Asia alone)
351 (Houghton et al., 2012).

352

353 In our hotspots analyses, fire led forest degradation in the tropics with almost a quarter (24.6%) of
354 the gross AFOLU emissions. Since we had excluded deforestation fires, most of our fire emissions
355 relate to woodlands and forest degradation. Their exclusion or incomplete inclusion would
356 therefore result in large emission omissions in gross AFOLU assessments, and their management
357 are key for reducing tropical emissions. Fire degradation emissions are recurrently omitted in net
358 global AFOLU assessments under the assumption of carbon neutrality of the affected burned
359 areas (e.g. whatever carbon is emitted through fire will be fixed again by regrowth and recovery).
360 (Houghton et al., 2012; Le Quere et al., 2012; Canadell et al., 2014; Smith et al. 2014). This
361 assumption does not consider current evidence of non-steady states after fire due to climatic
362 pressures, humanized landscapes (fragmented, multi-disturbed), and increased frequencies of
363 fires (Cochrane et al., 1999; Roman Cuesta et al., 2014; Alencar et al., 2011, 2015; Brando et al.,
364 2014; Oliveras et al., 2014; Pütz et al., 2014). Halted successional pathways and vegetation shifts
365 represent a large, yet unknown proportion of the burned forest ecosystems in the tropics that
366 require further research. Recent estimates suggest that post-fire carbon recoveries in the Amazon
367 are leading to degradation emissions in the order of $46 \pm 29.9 \text{ MgC} \cdot \text{ha}^{-1}$ (Balch et al., under review).



368 In spite of our incomplete knowledge of forest post-disturbance recovery pathways (e.g. poorly
369 understood processes, omitted emissions, missing pools, unconsidered GHGs), the importance of
370 the forest sector for mitigation action is evidenced by the large amount of countries explicitly
371 mentioning it in their INDCs (60%) (Grassi et al., 2015). Moreover, countries count on financial
372 support to minimize their forest emissions and enhance their sinks, at national scale, through the
373 REDD+ mechanism, which has now become part of the Paris Agreement (Climate Focus, 2015).

374 In the agricultural sector, our emissions reached estimates of 1.9 (1.5-2.5) PgCO₂e.yr⁻¹, in the
375 range of the other databases (2.5, 2.1 PgCO₂e.yr⁻¹ for FAOSTAT and EDGAR respectively). These
376 values, represent a relatively small part of the AFOLU budget in the tropics (25-30%) but an
377 attribution of the forest emissions to their drivers would highlight back the importance of agriculture
378 as the main engine behind tropical forest loss and emissions. Thus, for the period 1980-2000,
379 83% of the agricultural expansion in the tropics was at the expense of forests (Gibbs et al., 2010),
380 calling for integrated mitigation programmes that simultaneously include forestry and agriculture
381 (Carter et al., 2015). Our agricultural estimates represented only ca. half of the agricultural
382 emissions reported globally for 2000-2009 (5-6 PgCO₂e.yr⁻¹) (Smith et al., 2014; Tubiello et al.,
383 2015). This highlights the major role of agriculture in non-tropical countries and emergent
384 economies like China, although agricultural emissions are rising faster in developing countries than
385 in developed ones (Smith et al., 2014). The agricultural sector is the largest contributor to global
386 anthropogenic non-CO₂ GHGs, accounting for 56 % of emissions in 2005 (USEPA, 2013). Enteric
387 fermentation and agricultural soils are globally the main sources of agricultural emissions (Smith et
388 al., 2014), and show a strong rising trend since the 70's (1% per decade) due to increases in
389 animal heads and the use of synthetic fertilizers (Tubiello et al., 2015). Areas with growing
390 emission trends are attractive for land-based mitigation action and countries are engaging in
391 agricultural mitigation in their INDCs through climate smart initiatives (Richards et al., 2015).

392 However, more transformative technical and policy options and higher level of financial support will
393 be needed for further achievements in this sector (Wollenberg et al., in press). The most prominent
394 agricultural mitigation practices include improved cropland and grazing land management,
395 restoration of degraded lands, and cultivated organic soils. Lower, but still significant mitigation
396



397 potential is provided by water and rice management, livestock management and manure
398 management, set-aside, land use change and agroforestry (Smith et al., 2008).

399
400 In terms of gases, CO₂ led the AFOLU emissions in the tropics with ca.70% of the tropical budget
401 5.7 (3.3-9.5) PgCO₂e.yr⁻¹ (Table 2, Figure 4). The remaining non-CO₂ contribution (30%) was
402 mainly led by CH₄ 1.48 (1.1-1.9) PgCO₂e.yr⁻¹, due to livestock and rice. Non-CO₂ emissions from
403 biomass burning (N₂O and CH₄), represented 15-34% of the CO₂ budget in the tropics (Table 2).
404 These values reinforce the need to run multi-gas assessments (CO₂, CH₄, N₂O) for the AFOLU
405 sector in order to gain a more coherent understanding on how the land affects the atmospheric
406 composition and forces the climate. Thus, while temperature rise by around the end of this century
407 will relate to the total emissions of long-lived greenhouse gases between 2000 and 2100 (e.g. CO₂)
408 (Anderson 2012) recent research concludes that cumulative warming capacity of concurrent
409 biogenic CH₄ and N₂O emissions is about a factor of 2 larger than the cooling effect resulting from
410 the global land CO₂ uptake in the 2000s (Tian et al., 2016). This results in a net positive cumulative
411 impact of the three GHGs on the planetary energy budget, which calls for shorter-term mitigation
412 initiatives (Tian et al., 2016).

413
414 At the aggregated tropical scale, uncertainties were higher (up to 50% of the mean emissions) than
415 at the landscape scale (0.5°) (30%), in line with other reports (Smith et al., 2014; Tubiello et al.,
416 2015). The spatial scale of the emission assessments influences, therefore, the uncertainty
417 estimates and several authors have suggested the importance of working at more detailed spatial
418 scales (e.g. 250, 30m) to reduce the uncertainties of forest emissions by having more accurate
419 data on forest area changes and carbon densities (Houghton, 2005; Grassi et al., 2008; Asner et
420 al., 2010; Baccini et al., 2012; Houghton et al., 2012).

421
422 To better understand the uncertainty role of the different emission sources at the tropical
423 aggregated scale, we ran a partitioning of the tropical uncertainty. We found a disproportional
424 contribution of deforestation to the tropical uncertainty budget (92.5%) (Table 2), which agreed with
425 the results from other researchers (Morton et al., 2011) but left the remaining emission sources



426 with a surprisingly modest contribution to the final uncertainty (7.5%). As it was the case for the
427 hotspots, untangling the relative contribution of the emission sources to the tropical uncertainty
428 budget brings in trade-offs between prioritizing mitigation action on sources that are large emitters
429 but are highly uncertain (e.g. deforestation is responsible for 36% of the emissions but carries
430 almost all the tropical emission uncertainty (92.5%) (Table 2) or choosing emitters that contribute
431 less to the total budget but are more certain (e.g livestock contributed less to the tropical emissions
432 (15%) but had a very small part on the uncertainty budget (1.4%) (Table 2) (Figure 5).

433

434 **Continental AFOLU emissions**

435 Continents contributed similarly to the tropical AFOLU gross emissions: 2.8 (1.8-4.4), 2.8 (1.9-4.0),
436 2.6 (1.7-3.8) PgCO₂e.yr⁻¹, for Central and South (CS) America, Africa, and Asia, respectively
437 (Table 2). Area-weighted emissions would, however, turn Asia into the largest continental source
438 (0.9 TgCO₂e.yr⁻¹.ha⁻¹) followed by Africa and CS America (0.39, 0.36 TgCO₂e.yr⁻¹.ha⁻¹,
439 respectively). The leading sources for the continental emissions disagreed among databases but
440 our hotspot research suggested that African emissions were dominated by fire over dry forests
441 (52.6% of the African emissions, Table 2) which corroborates its description as “the fire continent”
442 (Figure 6) (Mbow, 2014). Any effective mitigation action will therefore need to consider fire
443 management, particularly in Miombo dry forests and Sudano-Sahelian woodlands, which are the
444 most affected forests and the largest contributors to emissions hotspots. Contrastingly, Central and
445 South America were mainly led by deforestation (60% of the continental emissions) and forest
446 degradation (20%), mostly affecting humid forests. And while deforestation in Brazilian rainforests
447 has since reduced, it has increased in dry forest in the region (e.g. the Chaco region in Argentina,
448 Paraguay, and Bolivia) (Hansen et al., 2013), and forest degradation has also increased (Brando et
449 al., 2014; Federici et al., 2015). The Asian emissions were the most diverse and were similarly led
450 by different sources: i) paddy rice (Asia is the world’s largest rice-producing region and is
451 responsible for over 80% of the total CH₄ emissions) (USEPA 2013); ii) livestock activities
452 (Tubiello et al., 2014); iii) deforestation (Hansen et al., 2013), and iv) fire over peatlands,
453 particularly in Indonesia (Van der Werf et al., 2010; Gaveau et al., 2014) (Table 2). Moreover, the
454 Asian continent has the peculiarity of emitting almost half of the tropical non-CO₂ emissions (46%,



455 Table 2), as observed by other authors (USEPA, 2013) and still has positively growing emission
456 trends (Tubiello et al., 2014). Effective mitigation action on non-CO₂ emissions is therefore key for
457 Asian and global mitigation.

458

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

465

466 **CONCLUSIONS**

467 Our dataset offers novel landscape scale information on the spatial distribution of hotspots of
468 AFOLU emissions and their uncertainties, disaggregated by gases and by leading emission
469 sources. As countries improve their technical capacities, new more accurate data will be produced,
470 however, this AFOLU analysis can be useful as a benchmark against which progress on reducing
471 AFOLU emissions may be assessed tropically, in a comparable and comprehensive manner.

472 These data sets can also support countries in identifying mitigation measures and setting priorities
473 for mitigation action within their AFOLU sector. Moreover, this study contributes to the debate on
474 tropical mitigation potentials of agriculture and forestry. Thus, even if global estimates of agriculture
475 and forestry emissions have roughly similar mitigation potentials (Smith et al., 2014; Tubiello et al.,
476 2015), economic feasibilities differ. Thus, the forest sector has two to three-fold greater economic
477 mitigation potentials than agriculture (e.g. 0.2-13 vs 0.3-4.6 PgCO₂e.yr⁻¹ respectively), at prices up
478 to 100 USD/MgCO₂e (Bajzelj et al., 2014; Havlik et al., 2014; Smith et al., 2014). This means that
479 for the same price, more emission reductions can be achieved in the forest sector. These unequal
480 results partly relate to the forest sector being much more carbon dense, but also to the fact that
481 agricultural mitigation is difficult to implement due to concerns for food security and adaptation
482 needs, which makes it unlikely that supply-side mitigation options alone (e.g. agricultural
483 intensification) will satisfy food security for 9 billion people in 2050 (Smith et al., 2013). Therefore,



484 some level of agricultural expansion seems unavoidable and creative ways to include agricultural
485 demand-side mitigation are required (e.g. change in societal diets) (Smith et al., 2013; Havlik et al.,
486 2014). Notwithstanding the importance of agricultural mitigation, forests are more cost effective
487 alternatives and, although uncertain, their multiple ecosystem services will keep them high as
488 desirable mitigation targets in the political arena.

489

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676 **Websites**

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

680

681 **Contributions**



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

687

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696

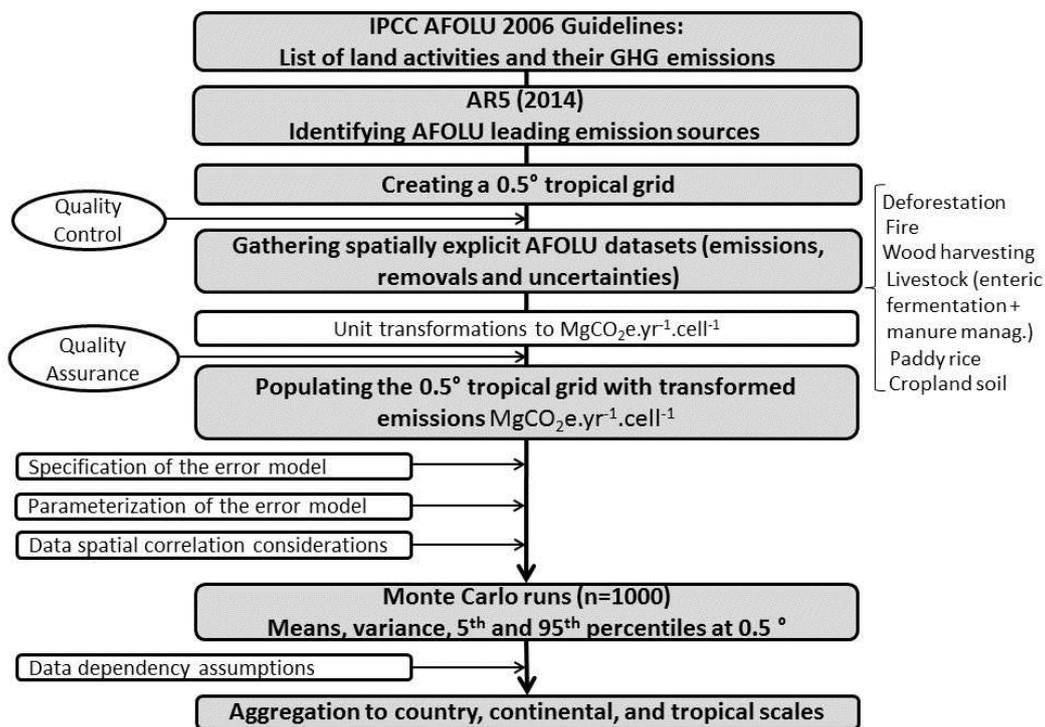
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700 Figure legends



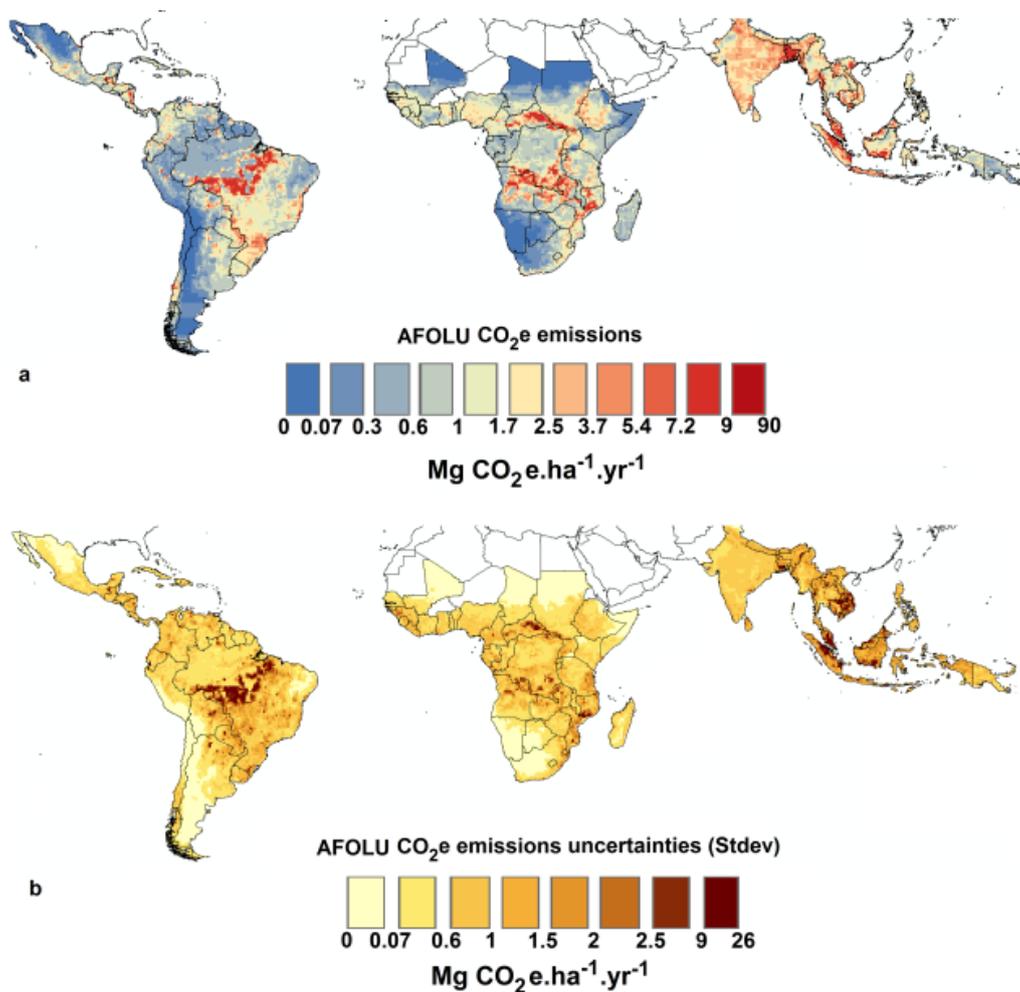
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702 **Figure 1:** Methodological framework used to estimate the aggregated AFOLU emissions (annual means)
 703 and associated uncertainties (variance, 5th, 95th percentiles) at 0.5° resolution, for 2000-2005.

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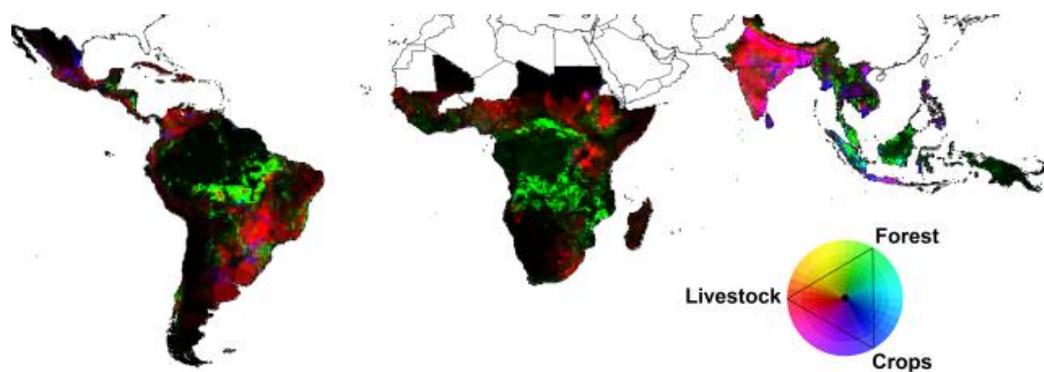
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Figure 2: (a) Hotspots of annual AFOLU emissions (red cells) and (b) associated uncertainties (1σ) in $\text{MgCO}_2\text{e}\cdot\text{ha}^{-1}\cdot\text{yr}^{-1}$ for the tropical region, for the period 2000-2005, at 0.5° resolution. Emissions are 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))



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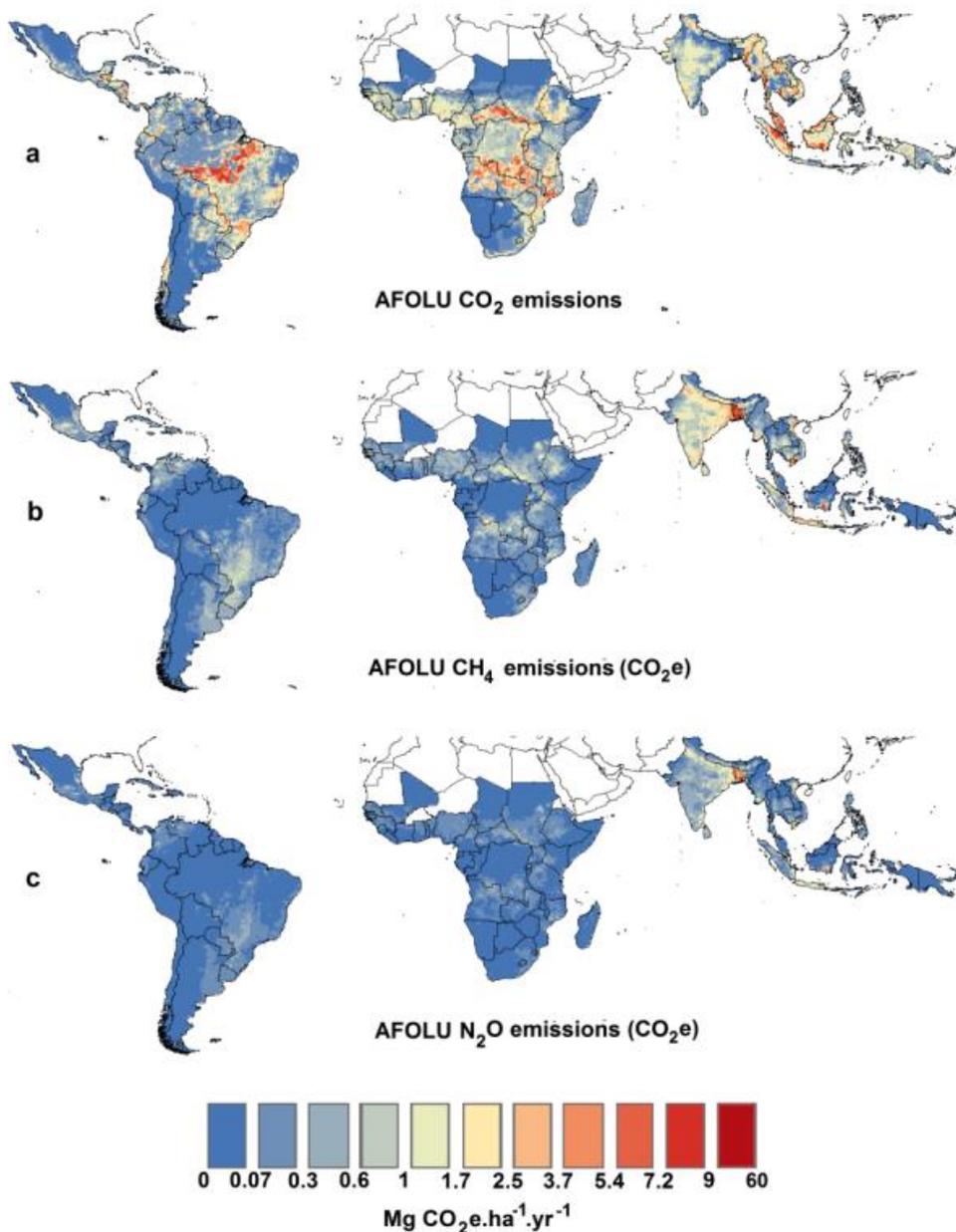
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716 Figure 3: Contribution of the leading emission sources in percent of total emissions (grouped into forests,
717 crops and livestock) to the per pixel (0.5°), for 2000-2005. Forest emissions include fire, deforestation and
718 wood harvesting. Crops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

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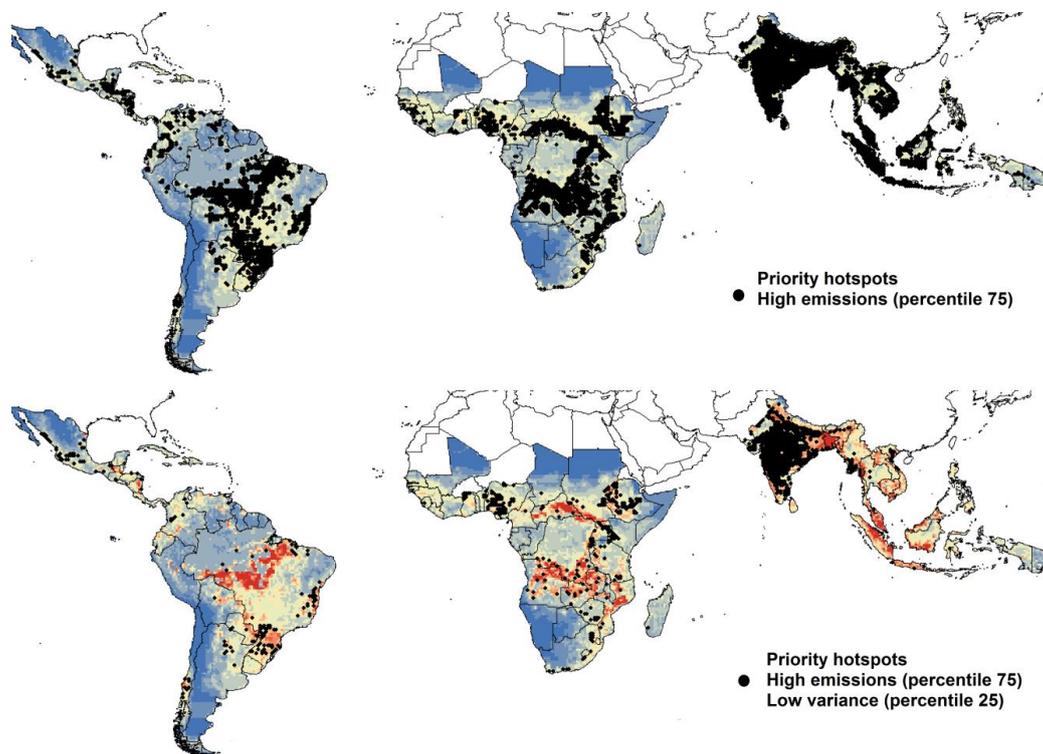
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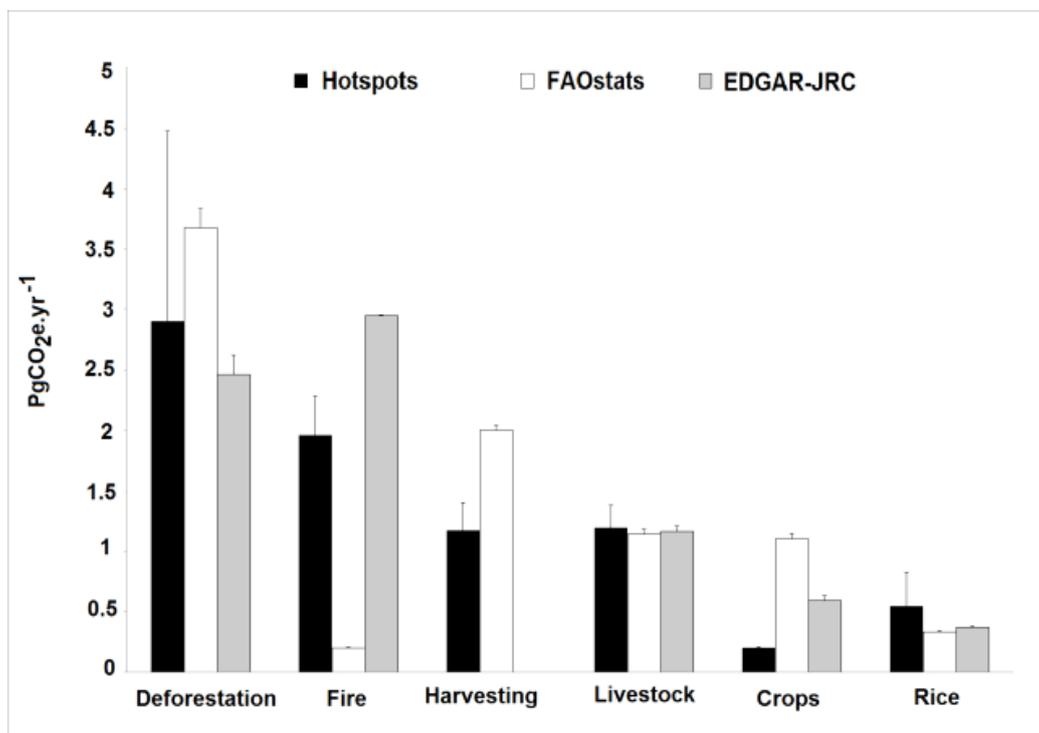
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Figure 4: Mean annual AFOLU emissions (MgCO₂e.ha⁻¹.yr⁻¹), for the period 2000-2005, disaggregated by greenhouse gases: a) CO₂ emissions, which are a proxy of forest emissions, (b) CH₄, and (c) N₂O emissions, which are proxies of agricultural emissions. Emissions are the result of 1000 Monte simulations for the considered leading AFOLU emission sources.



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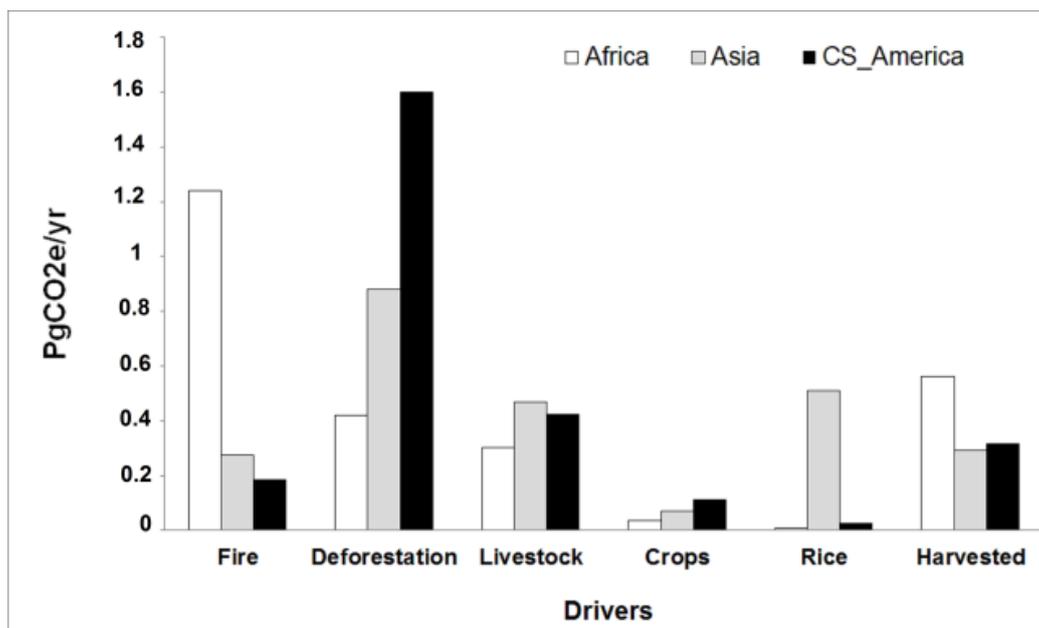
732 **Figure 5:** Identification of priority regions for mitigation in the AFOLU sector in the tropics, for 2000-2005
733 considering the contribution of the emissions to the total budget (high emissions, percentile 75), and the
734 associated uncertainties (low uncertainty, percentile 25 of the variance).



735
736 Figure 5: Distribution of mean annual emissions per sources of emissions for the three data bases, in the
737 tropics, for 2000-2005. Bars indicate uncertainty estimates for the hotspot data base, and standard
738 deviations for FAOstats and EDGAR-JRC estimated from country data variability since no uncertainty data
739 exist for these two data bases.

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743 Figure 6: Continental contribution of the leading emission drivers for our hotspot data base, in the tropics, for
744 the period 2000-2005.

745



746 Tables

From units	To units	Conversion
kgC (dSOC)	kg CO ₂ eq.	kgC * 44 / 12
kgC (CH ₄)	kg CO ₂ eq.	kgC * 16 / 12 * 21
kgN (N ₂ O)	kg CO ₂ eq.	kgN * 44 / 28 * 310

747 **Table 1:** Data conversions to CO₂e for different chemical elements (C, N). dSOC is the change in Soil
 748 Organic Carbon. Conversion factors and global warming potentials use values from the Fourth Assessment
 749 Report, to be coherent with the methods used to produce data by our authors.

750

Gross AFOLU emissions (PgCO ₂ e.yr ⁻¹) Monte Carlo results						
	CO ₂ e	CO ₂	CH ₄	N ₂ O		
Tropical	8.2 (5.5-12.2)	5.7 (3.3-9.5)	1.48 (1.1-1.9)	1 (0.8-1.2)		
Central & South America	2.8 (1.8-4.4)	2.3 (1.3-3.8)	0.32 (0.24-0.45)	0.22 (0.2-0.3)		
Africa	2.8 (1.9-4.0)	2.1 (1.4-3.2)	0.39 (0.27-0.5)	0.32 (0.24-0.39)		
Asia	2.6 (1.7-3.8)	1.4 (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 budget (%)						
	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 ₂ e	CO ₂	CH ₄	N ₂ O		
Tropical		70	18	12.2		
Central & South America	34.2	79	12.1	8.6		
Africa	34.2	75	13.9	11.4		
Asia	31.7	55	29	16		
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		

751

752 **Table 2:** i) Contribution of the different greenhouse gases (CO₂, CH₄, N₂O) to continental and tropical
 753 AFOLU annual mean emissions for the period 2000-2005 (in parenthesis are the 5th and the 95th percentiles
 754 of the aggregated AFOLU emissions). ii) Contribution of the different leading emission sources to the tropical
 755 and continental AFOLU emission budgets (expressed as % of emissions). And iii) partitioning of the AFOLU
 756 emissions uncertainties among the leading emission sources and the considered GHG gases (expressed as
 757 % of variance) AFOLU emissions are the result of 1000 Monte Carlo runs for the leading emission sources.