

1 Revised and updated geospatial monitoring of twenty-first century 2 forest carbon fluxes

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11 Short Summary

12 Updated global maps of greenhouse gas emissions and sequestration by forests from 2001 onwards using satellite-derived data
13 show that forests are strong net carbon sinks, capturing about as much CO₂ each year on average as the United States emits
14 from fossil fuels [in 2019](#). After reclassifying fluxes to countries' reporting categories for national greenhouse gas inventories,
15 we found that roughly two-thirds of the ~~total~~-net [CO₂](#) flux from forests is anthropogenic and one-third is non-anthropogenic.

16 Abstract

17 ~~Forests are a key component of climate change mitigation strategies because they both emit and remove atmospheric carbon~~
18 ~~dioxide~~. Earth observation data are increasingly used to estimate the magnitude and geographic distribution of greenhouse gas
19 (GHG) fluxes and reduce overall uncertainty in the global carbon budget, including for forests. Here we report on a revised
20 and updated geospatial, Earth observation-based ~~forest carbon flux~~-modelling framework that maps GHG emissions ([Gibbs et](#)
21 [al. 2024a](#)), carbon removals ([Gibbs et al. 2024b](#)), and the net balance between them ([Gibbs et al. 2024a](#), [Gibbs et al. 2024b](#),
22 [Gibbs et al. 2024c](#), respectively) globally [for forests](#) from 2001 ~~onwards to 2023~~ at roughly 30-meter resolution ([Harris et al.](#)
23 [2021](#), hereafter referred to as the Global Forest Watch (GFW) model ([see Data and Code Availability section](#)). ~~Beyond~~
24 ~~updating the model to include the most recent years through 2023~~, ~~r~~Revisions address some of the original model's limitations,
25 improve model inputs, and refine the uncertainty analysis. We found that between 2001 and 2023, global forest ecosystems
26 were, on average, a net ~~carbon~~-sink of -5.5 ± 8.1 (one standard deviation) gigatonnes CO₂ equivalent yr⁻¹ (Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹), which
27 reflects the balance of 9.0 ± 2.7 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹ of GHG emissions and -14.5 ± 7.7 [Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹](#) of ~~carbon~~-removals, with an
28 additional -0.20 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹ transferred into harvested wood products. Uncertainty in gross removals was greatly reduced
29 compared to the original model due to refinement of temperate secondary forest carbon removal factor uncertainties. [After re-](#)

30 ~~allocating GFW's gross CO₂ fluxes estimates~~ into anthropogenic fluxes from forest land and deforestation categories to
31 ~~increase the conceptual similarity with national greenhouse gas inventories (NGHGs), we estimated a global net~~
32 ~~anthropogenic forest sink of -3.65 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹, including excluding harvested wood products, and consider~~with the remaining
33 ~~net CO₂ flux of -2.2 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹ reported by the GFW model as non-anthropogenic. Although the magnitude of GFW's~~
34 ~~translated estimates align relatively well with aggregated NGHGs, their temporal trends differ. Translating Earth -observation-~~
35 ~~based flux estimates into the same reporting framework as countries use for NGHGs can help build consensus confidence~~
36 ~~and build confidence on~~around land use carbon fluxes and support independent evaluation of progress towards Paris
37 Agreement goals.

38

39 1 Introduction

40 Land is among the most uncertain components of the global carbon cycle (Friedlingstein et al. 2023). The highly dynamic and
41 bi-directional nature of forest-terrestrial carbon fluxes, both spatially and temporally, as well as the contributions of
42 anthropogenic and non-anthropogenic processes, pose unique challenges for monitoring fluxes. Top-down atmospheric
43 observations, e.g. from sensors such as NASA's Orbiting Carbon Observatory, are not precise enough to attribute fluxes to
44 specific drivers, and the current suite of bottom-up approaches for estimating global terrestrial carbon fluxes (Friedlingstein et
45 al. 2023) is based on models that are not fully consistent with each other (i.e., bookkeeping models and dynamic global
46 vegetation models (DGVMs) to estimate anthropogenic and natural fluxes, respectively) (Dorgeist et al. 2024, Walker et al.
47 2024). An additional complication is that these models separate anthropogenic and natural fluxes from land differently from
48 how national greenhouse gas inventories (NGHGs) do, which are used within climate policy treaties and to drive national
49 climate actions (IPCC 2024). This makes it difficult for models to provide estimates directly relevant to climate policy
50 frameworks and national climate action. Top-down atmospheric approaches do not make this separation, while global estimates
51 of anthropogenic land use fluxes from bookkeeping models (Friedlingstein et al. 2023) are 6.7 Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹ higher than
52 aggregate NGHGs (Grassi et al. 2023). This gap is due primarily to definitional and conceptual differences around what is
53 classified as anthropogenic vs. natural fluxes from forests (Grassi et al. 2018), with recent studies focusing on reconciling these
54 differences (e.g., Schwingshackl et al. 2022, Grassi et al. 2023). Thus, despite improved data acquisition and advances in
55 modelling capabilities, large uncertainty and variation in estimates of land emissions and sinks remain. Moreover, the spatial
56 distribution of forest emissions and, even more so, forest carbon removals are not well understood, impeding the ability of a
57 range of actors, such as governments, companies, and civil society, to monitor the effectiveness of land-based climate
58 mitigation actions that reduce emissions from forest loss and maintain or increase forest carbon sinks.

59 To address some of these limitations, Global Forest Watch (GFW) introduced an Earth observation-based framework and
60 model for estimating forest carbon fluxes globally (Harris et al. 2021) that aligns with calls for geospatial monitoring of forest

61 carbon fluxes (EC 2018; Nyawira et al. 2024; Ochiai et al. 2023; Turubanova et al. 2023). It was designed to fill a gap among
62 existing forest carbon monitoring approaches by combining global forest change maps, benchmark carbon density maps, and
63 other Earth observation data based on the [IPCC-Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change \(IPCC\) Guidelines for National](#)
64 [Greenhouse Gas Inventories \(IPCC 2006, IPCC 2019\)](#) that countries use to estimate emissions and removals for their NGHGs.
65 Within the scope of the Agriculture, Forestry, and Other Land Uses (AFOLU) sector, only GHG fluxes from forest-related
66 land uses and land-use changes (forest remaining forest, non-forest converted to forest, forest converted to non-forest) were
67 included. The framework was designed around the UNFCCC guiding principles for NGHGI preparation: transparency,
68 accuracy, completeness, comparability and consistency. All GFW carbon flux model inputs and outputs and code are publicly
69 available ([see Data and Code Availability section](#)).

70 Recognizing that both Earth observation and ground data increase and improve through time, we designed GFW's flux
71 [monitoring](#) framework and the model implementing it with the flexibility to accommodate updates to existing components and
72 add new components. Here we document updates to the model, report ~~the~~ results from the current version, present a revised
73 uncertainty analysis, and [- following the recommendations of a recent IPCC expert meeting on reconciling land use emissions](#)
74 [\(IPCC 2024\) -](#) introduce a new translation ~~of~~ GFW model [of CO₂](#) emissions and removals into NGHGI reporting categories
75 of deforestation and forest land that provides an Earth observation perspective on forest fluxes conceptually similar to what
76 countries are expected to report under IPCC guidelines.

77 **2 Methods**

78 Harris et al. 2021 includes a detailed explanation of the GFW forest flux monitoring framework, but some key elements are
79 described here. The framework encompasses gross CO₂ emissions from loss of carbon in aboveground and belowground
80 biomass pools, dead wood, litter, and soil organic carbon in mineral soils due to stand-replacing disturbances, carbon loss from
81 drainage of organic soils, and methane (CH₄) and nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions from forest fires and drainage of organic soils.
82 Carbon removals include sequestration into aboveground and belowground forest biomass. All model inputs are resampled to
83 the spatial resolution of a Landsat pixel (0.00025x0.00025°, roughly 30x30 m at the equator), and outputs are generated at the
84 same resolution. The model uses Landsat resolution because it is the highest resolution for which the global forest change
85 maps and an aboveground biomass map for the year 2000 are publicly available. Higher-resolution maps of forest change and
86 biomass exist but are not publicly available, [are available](#) only for ~~more~~-recent years, and/or include only certain [geographic](#)
87 regions (e.g., Vancutsem et al. 2019, Yang and Zeng 2023).

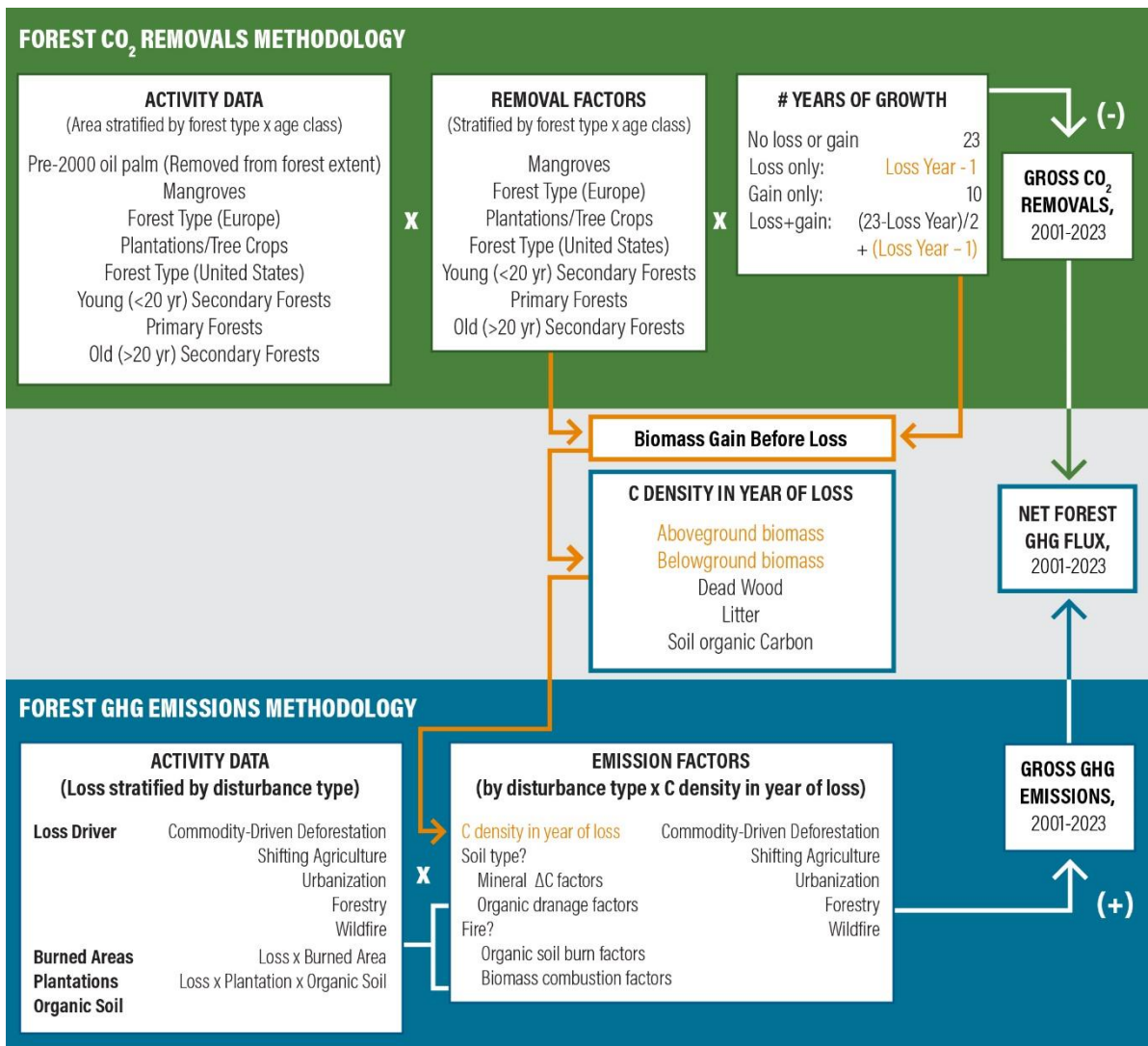
88 The IPCC GHG inventory guidelines, the methodological basis of GFW's forest carbon flux monitoring framework, lay out
89 two methods by which terrestrial carbon stock changes associated with land use, land-use change, and forestry (LULUCF, part
90 of the broader AFOLU sector) can be calculated: gain-loss and stock-difference (IPCC 2006). Methods can be applied

91 according to different Tiers (from 1 to 3) with increasing complexity and presumed accuracy. In the gain-loss method, ~~at a~~
92 ~~high level~~, carbon emissions and removals are calculated separately by multiplying activity data such as forest area lost, gained,
93 or maintained (ha) by emission or removal factors ($t\ C\ ha^{-1}$); the net carbon stock change, or flux, is the difference between
94 gross emissions and gross removals. In the stock-difference method, carbon stocks are measured during repeated inventories
95 and the difference between remeasurements is the estimate of net carbon stock change, or flux. GFW's framework employs
96 the gain-loss approach, in which the activity data and other contextual information are estimated using global, Earth
97 observation-based maps trained on local ground plot data and/or airborne and spaceborne lidar observations.

98 GFW's gain-loss modeling approach is initialized in the year 2000 with global maps of carbon densities in five forest ecosystem
99 carbon pools (Fig. 1). ~~The model is runs for all pixels with canopy density >1% in 2000 (Hansen et al. 2023) but our default~~
100 ~~outputs define forests as:~~We define forest as follows: 1) >30% canopy cover in 2000 (Hansen et al. 2013) or subsequent tree
101 cover gain (Potapov et al. 2022), 2) non-zero aboveground biomass in 2000 (Harris et al. 2021), 3) mangroves in 2000 (Giri
102 et al. 2011), and 4) exclusion of oil palm plantations in 2000 (see Table 2). We use this definition of forests because a canopy
103 density of >30% is a common threshold used in for national definitions of forests (Harris et al. 2018) and because some of the
104 input removal factors are applicable specifically to denser forest. All outputs and results use canopy density >30%, unless
105 otherwise specified. However, because the model is runs without any a priori canopy density threshold and the forest definition
106 is applied after the fact, results fluxes can be generated estimated users can obtain results for a lower canopy density thresholds
107 applied. Within the resulting forest maskWithin pixels with canopy cover in 2000, gross removals are mapped based on
108 locations of forest extent and regrowth, while gross emissions are subsequently mapped based on locations of stand-replacing
109 forest disturbances, ~~while gross removals are mapped based on locations of forest extent and regrowth~~. In this system of
110 tracking the forest/non-forest status of individual pixels over time, the model adheres to IPCC Approach 3 for land
111 representation (IPCC 2019).

112 For activity data, rather than combining and reconciling national or regional geospatial forest monitoring data in the limited
113 places where it exists continuously since 2000, we deliberately use global, independent (non-governmental) data sources to
114 maintain global consistency and comparability within the framework, recognizing that global data are generally not the most
115 locally accurate or relevant data, but remain useful for large-scale analyses and potentially for verification purposes of other
116 approaches. To identify forest loss, the GFW model uses the Global Forest Change (GFC) data of Hansen et al. 2013, updated
117 annually. Because of the framework's use of GFC, emissions are limited to those from stand-replacing disturbances or other
118 disturbances severe enough to be detected by GFC. Tree cover gain (Potapov et al. 2022) is gross gain and is assigned to the
119 period 2000-2020, ~~assigned~~ to a specific year. In the model, forest pixels can have loss only (assigned to a specific year),
120 neither loss nor gain (i.e., no change), or both loss and gain (although in which the sequence order is unknown). Non-forest
121 pixels can have either tree cover gain or no gain; in the latter case they are outside the framework as they are non-forest
122 remaining non-forest.

123 Emission and removal factors likewise use spatially explicit data as much as possible to capture spatial variation in forest
124 properties and dynamics and move beyond ecozone-level representation of forests. GFW model emission and removal factors
125 are generally independent of national data sources, with the exception of some removal factors in temperate forests, which are
126 derived directly from the Forest Inventory and Analysis (FIA) database maintained by the USDA Forest Service (see Harris et
127 al. 2021 and Glen et al. 2024 for details). The model uses a combination of IPCC default (Tier 1) and localized (Tier 2)
128 emission/removal factors, with the goal of using more Tier 2 factors over time, just as countries are encouraged to do in their
129 NGHGs. (Note that some Tier 1 removal factors come from national forest inventories, particularly USFS FIA data (IPCC
130 2019).) For example, removal factors in primary forests use IPCC defaults (IPCC 2019, Tier 1), while ~~pre-disturbance~~initial
131 (year 2000) aboveground biomass carbon densities use a global benchmark map of woody biomass developed from field data
132 and remote sensing (Harris et al. 2021, Tier 2). Removal factors are applied in a hierarchy from six sources: 1) mangrove-
133 specific rates (IPCC 2014a), 2) Europe-specific rates by forest type (combination of Table 4.11 of the updated IPCC
134 Guidelines, FAO Planted Forest Assessment and factors published in national forest inventories), 3) planted tree rates from
135 the Spatial Database of Planted Trees (SDPT) Version 2.0 (Richter et al. 2024), 4) US-specific rates by region, forest type and
136 age class derived from the FIA database (Glen et al. 2024), 5) young secondary forest rates (Cook-Patton et al. 2020), and 6)
137 IPCC default rates for all other areas (e.g., primary forest, older secondary forest in the tropics and in temperate forests outside
138 Europe and the US) (IPCC 2019). The framework supports the addition of other geospatial removal factors as they become
139 available. Gross removals are added to pre-disturbance biomass until the year of loss to determine the biomass in the year of
140 loss. Emission factors are estimated using a map of tree cover loss drivers (Curtis et al. 2018) and burned area (Tyukavina et
141 al. 2022); the combination of these determine the extent to which carbon pools (including soil organic carbon in mineral soils)
142 are emitted by forest disturbance. Emission factors are estimated using “committed” emissions (Hansis et al. 2015) or
143 instantaneous oxidation (IPCC 2019), whereby carbon loss from all relevant pools is assumed to occur in the year of
144 disturbance rather than modeling delayed carbon fluxes through time.



145

146 **Figure 1. Updated conceptual framework for modeling forest-related GHG fluxes.** The model estimates gross forest-related emissions
 147 and removals as the product of activity data and emission/removal factors for each ~30-m pixel. The net forest GHG flux is the sum of gross
 148 emissions (+) and removals (-). Text and arrows in orange are portions of the removals methodology that are passed into the emissions
 149 methodology.

150 **2.1 Changes to GFW model input data**

151 Since the original release of GFW’s carbon model framework in 2021, which estimated forest carbon flux results through
 152 2019, we have made several changes to the model inputs because new data were published or existing data were improved
 153 (Table 1). These changes keep the model aligned with [the latest recent](#) advances in global Earth observation [data](#) and address
 154 some limitations in the original version but do not change the underlying conceptual framework. The updated geospatial inputs

155 are shown in the context of all inputs in Table 2. We summarize changes to the input data with respect to extension of the
 156 model from 2019 to 2023 (Sect. 2.1.1), changes to activity data (Sect. 2.1.2), and changes to emission and removal factors
 157 (Sect. 2.1.3).

158

159 **Table 1. Changes to GFW model inputs since the original version (Harris et al. 2021).**

Framework component (article section)	Original version	Current version	Affects emissions	Affects removals
Temporal coverage of tree cover loss (2.1.1)	Tree cover loss through 2019 (Hansen et al. 2013, updated annually on GFW)	Tree cover loss through 2023 (Hansen et al. 2013, updated annually on GFW)	Yes	Yes
Temporal coverage of drivers of tree cover loss (2.1.1)	Dominant driver of tree cover loss through 2015 (Curtis et al. 2018)	Dominant driver of tree cover loss through 2023 (Curtis et al. 2018, updated annually on GFW)	Yes	No
Temporal coverage of burned area (2.1.1)	Burned area through 2019	Burned area through 2023	Yes	No
Transfers to harvested wood products (country-level only) (2.1.1)	Transfers to HWP through 2015 (FAOSTAT 2021)	Transfers to HWP through 2021 (FAOSTAT 2024)	No	Yes
Temporal coverage of tree cover gain (2.1.2)	2000–2012 (Hansen et al. 2013)	2000–2020 (Potapov et al. 2022)	Yes	Yes
Burned area extent (2.1.2)	MODIS burned area (Giglio et al. 2018, updated annually)	Tree cover loss from fires (Tyukavina et al. 2022, updated annually)	Yes	No
Organic soils extent (2.1.2)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Indonesia and Malaysia (Miettinen et al. 2016) Below 40° N (Gumbricht et al. 2017) Above 40° N (Hengl et al. 2017) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Indonesia and Malaysia (Miettinen et al. 2016) Central Africa (Crezee et al. 2022) Lowland Amazonian Peru (Hastie et al. 2022) Below 40° N (Gumbricht et al. 2017) Above 40° N (Xu et al. 2018) 	Yes	No
Planted tree extent (2.1.2)	Spatial Database of Planted Trees v1.0 (Harris et al. 2019)	Spatial Database of Planted Trees v2.0 (Richter et al. 2024)	Yes	Yes
Belowground biomass (R:S ratio) (2.1.3)	Global ratio of 0.26 for belowground carbon to aboveground carbon for non-mangrove forests (Mokany et al. 2006)	Map of ratio of belowground carbon to aboveground carbon for non-mangrove forests (Huang et al. 2021) ¹	Yes	Yes
Planted tree removal factors and their uncertainties (2.1.3)	Spatial Database of Planted Trees v1.0 (Harris et al. 2019)	Spatial Database of Planted Trees v2.0 (Richter et al. 2024)	Yes	Yes

Older secondary (>20 year) temperate forest removal factors and their uncertainties (2.1.3)	2019 Refinement to the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories, Volume 4, Chapter 4, pages 4.34–4.38 Table 4.9 (IPCC 2019)	4th Corrigenda to the 2019 Refinement to the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories, Volume 4, Chapter 4, pages 4.18–21, Table 4.9 (IPCC 2023) ²	Yes	Yes
Global Warming Potential (GWP) values (2.1.3)	IPCC Fifth Assessment Report, Table 8.7 (100-year, no climate-carbon feedback) (IPCC 2014b)	IPCC Sixth Assessment Report, Table 7.15 (100-year, no climate-carbon feedback) (IPCC 2022)	Yes	No

160 ¹ The R:S map was extended outwards to fill gaps in the original map.

161 ² Removal factors for other climate domains and ages were not updated.

162

163

164 **Table 2. Geospatial data components and sources currently used in the GFW model.** Updated components and sources are denoted
165 with an * and *italics*. This updates Table S3 in Harris et al. 2021.

Model component	Source
Forest extent 2000	
Tree cover extent	Hansen et al. 2013
Mangrove forest extent	Giri et al. 2018
Tropical humid primary forest extent	Turubanova et al. 2018
Intact forest landscapes (boreal/temperate)	Potapov et al. 2017
<i>Planted tree extent (plantations and tree crops)</i>	<i>*Richter et al. 2024 (Spatial Database of Planted Trees v2.0)</i>
<i>*Peatland extent</i>	Miettinen et al. 2016 (Indonesia and Malaysia)
	<i>*Crezee et al. 2022 (Congo Basin)</i>
	<i>*Hastie et al. 2022 (Amazonian Peru)</i>
	Gumbrecht et al. 2017 (<40° N)
	<i>*Xu et al. 2018 (≥40° N)</i>
Oil palm extent 2000 (areas excluded from model)	Austin et al. 2017 (Indonesia)
	Gaveau et al. 2014 (Borneo)
	Miettinen et al. 2016 (Sumatra, Borneo)
	Gunarso et al. 2013 (peninsular Malaysia)
Carbon density 2000	
Aboveground live woody biomass density	Updated from Zarin et al. 2016 (non-mangrove)
	Simard et al. 2019 (mangrove)
<i>*Belowground biomass density ratio</i>	<i>*Huang et al. 2021 (root:shoot ratio for non-mangrove forests), with Mokany et al. 2006 filling in gaps</i>
Soil organic carbon density	Hengl et al. 2017 (non-mangrove)
	Sanderman et al. 2018 (mangrove)
Ecological zone (for deadwood and litter)	FAO 2012
Elevation (for deadwood and litter)	Farr et al. 2007
Mean annual precipitation (for deadwood and litter)	Fick and Hijmans 2017
Activity data	
<i>*Tree cover loss</i>	<i>*Hansen et al. 2013 (2001–2023)</i>
<i>*Tree cover gain</i>	<i>*Potapov et al. 2022 (2000–2020)</i>

<i>*Burned areas</i>	<i>*Tyukavina et al. 2022 (tree cover loss from fires, updated through the year 2023)</i>
Emission factors	
<i>*Drivers of forest loss</i>	<i>*Curtis et al. 2018 (updated through year 2023)</i>
Climate zone	FAO 2012
Fire combustion and emission factors	IPCC 2019 (Tables 2.5 and 2.6)
Removal Factors	
Ecological zone	FAO 2012
Mangrove removal factors	IPCC 2014a (Wetlands Supplement, Tables 4.4 and 4.5)
US forest type	Ruefenacht et al. 2008
US stand age	Pan et al. 2011
US removal factors (by region x type x age class)	Forest Inventory and Analysis Program
Europe forest type	Brus et al. 2011
Europe removal factors (by forest type)	IPCC 2019 (Table 4.11)
	FAO Planted Forest Thematic Study
	Portugal's National GHG inventory
<i>*Planted tree removal factors</i>	<i>*Richter et al. 2024 (Spatial Database of Planted Trees v2.0) (including uncertainties)</i>
Agroforestry removal factors	IPCC 2019 (Tables 5.1 and 5.3)
Natural regrowth removal factors (<20 yrs)	Cook-Patton et al. 2020
Primary forest removal factors	IPCC 2019 (Table 4.9)
<i>*Old secondary forest removal factors (>20 yrs)</i>	<i>*IPCC 2019 (Table 4.9 for non-temperate forests only)</i> <i>*IPCC 2019/IPCC 2023 (Table 4.9 Corrigenda 4 for temperate forests (including uncertainties))</i>
Harvested wood products (country only)	
<i>*Production, import and export statistics of sawnwood, wood-based panels and paper & paperboard</i>	<i>*FAOSTAT (2001–2021)</i>

166

167 2.1.1 Annually updated data

168 We have updated four inputs to the framework annually since the original GFW model was published: tree cover loss, dominant
169 driver of tree cover loss, burned area, and country-level transfers to harvested wood products (HWP). In the original version,
170 they extended to 2019, 2015, 2019, and 2015, respectively. The first three inputs now extend through 2023 and we plan to
171 continue to update them annually, lagging one year behind the calendar year. Country-level HWP transfers now extend through
172 year 2021 based on data from FAOSTAT that currently extend through year 2022 (Access date: 5 May 2024). These constitute
173 the core updates to the model each year.

174 2.1.2 Updated activity data

175 Beyond the annual updates described above, we **have** made four additional updates to the model's activity data:

- 176 1. Temporal coverage of tree cover gain: Tree cover gain originally covered 2000–2012 but now covers 2000–2020. In
177 the original version, tree cover gain covered seven fewer years than tree cover loss did (12 years of tree cover gain
178 vs. 19 years of tree cover loss); currently, tree cover gain covers three fewer years than tree cover loss (20 years vs.
179 23 years). Tree cover gain is still reported in one interval, so the framework does not assign gain to a specific year
180 within 2000–2020. The shorter duration of tree cover gain and its lack of information on timing is an ongoing
181 limitation of the inputs to the framework (see Sects. 4.3 and 4.4).
- 182 2. Burned area extent: The original version of the GFW model used MODIS burned area (500-m resolution) (Giglio et
183 al. 2018), but now it uses Global Land Analysis & Discovery Lab tree cover loss due to fires (TCLF) (30-m resolution)
184 (Tyukavina et al. 2022). This burned area product is designed to be used with GFC. As in the original version of the
185 model, emissions from fires are included only where stand-replacing disturbances are detected by GFC, meaning that
186 emissions from relatively low severity forest fires remain unquantified in the model.
- 187 3. Organic soils extent: We added two new regional tropical peatland maps (Peru and Congo basin, Hastie et al. 2022
188 and Crezee et al. 2022) and replaced the peat map above 40° N (Xu et al. 2018). These maps reflect a more recent
189 understanding of the extent of organic soils in those regions. This is one of the few inputs to the model that composites
190 regional maps with pan-tropical and global maps.
- 191 4. Planted tree extent: Planted trees are part of managed ecosystems, and using distinct removal factors for planted trees
192 instead of removal factors for natural forests better represents the associated carbon sequestration of these managed
193 landscapes. The original version of the GFW model used SDPT v1.0 (Harris et al. 2019) but now it uses SDPT v2.0
194 (Richter et al. 2024), which includes planted tree extent in 45 additional countries. Richter et al. defines planted trees
195 as plantation forests and tree crops. This dataset aggregates maps of tree crops and planted forests globally in a
196 bottom-up approach that captures roughly 90% of planted tree area globally circa 2020. Each polygon in the database
197 has the most taxonomically resolved information available, from broad type of production (e.g. orchard) to species.

198 2.1.3 Updated emission and removal factors

199 We ~~have~~ made four updates to emission and removal factors:

- 200 1. Belowground biomass (R:S ratio): The original version of the GFW model used a single R:S ratio of 0.26 to estimate
201 belowground biomass applied globally to non-mangrove forests (Mokany et al. 2006). ~~([M](#)Mangroves had separate~~
202 ~~ratios from IPCC 2014a).~~ The updated model uses a global R:S map from Huang et al. 2021 to incorporate spatial
203 variability in R:S, ranging from less than 0.15 to greater than 0.5. Because the R:S map does not cover all land where
204 forest is present in our framework (e.g., some near-shore islands), we interpolated missing R:S pixels from nearby
205 ones; where interpolation was not possible (e.g., remote Pacific islands), we retained the original default ratio of 0.26.
206 We applied this ratio map to aboveground biomass in the year of tree cover loss to calculate carbon emissions from
207 loss of belowground biomass. We also used the R:S map to calculate carbon removals by belowground biomass based

208 on carbon removals by aboveground biomass. Including this input makes the belowground carbon stocks and removal
209 factors reflect local forest types better than using a single, global ratio.

- 210 2. Planted tree removal factors and their uncertainties: SDPT v2.0 (Richter et al. 2024) has a removal factor and
211 uncertainty associated with every planted tree (planted forest and tree crop) polygon included in the database. The
212 removal factors of polygons that were in SDPT v1.0 are largely unchanged in SDPT v2.0, but polygons newly
213 included in SDPT v2.0 have been assigned removal factors based on information about what kind of planted tree is
214 present using the most taxonomically resolved information available.
- 215 3. Older secondary (>20 year) temperate forest removal factors and their uncertainties: The original version of the
216 framework applied Tier 1 removal factors published in Table 4.9 of IPCC 2019 for primary and some secondary (>20
217 years) temperate forests. In 2023, IPCC released corrected default removal factors and their uncertainties for
218 temperate secondary forests in North and South America, which are also applied in the GFW model to >20 year old
219 forests in temperate ecozones outside of the United States and Europe where no better sources of data are currently
220 available. In the model update, we replaced the original IPCC defaults with the corrected ones.
- 221 4. Global Warming Potential (GWP) values: The original version of the framework converted non-CO₂ emissions from
222 CH₄ and N₂O into equivalent units of CO₂ using GWP values published in IPCC's Fifth Assessment Report. The
223 framework now uses GWP values for CH₄ and N₂O from IPCC's Sixth Assessment Report. This affects gross
224 emissions and net flux outputs only where non-CO₂ emissions are estimated (organic soil drainage, fires in organic
225 soils, or biomass burning).

226 **2.2 Updated uncertainty analysis**

227 With the original version of the framework, we presented an uncertainty analysis that used an error propagation approach for
228 inputs for which uncertainties (variances) were available and potentially substantial. This approach underlies Approach 1
229 (simple error propagation) outlined in the IPCC Guidelines and produces similar results but reflects exact calculations of
230 variances and standard deviations, whereas IPCC Approach 1 to uncertainty analysis is an approximated approach that yields
231 95% confidence intervals (IPCC 2019). For the model update, we repeated this uncertainty analysis with all the changes and
232 updates to the framework described in Sect. 2.1, using the same error propagation approach and the same components as used
233 in the original analysis.

234 **2.3 Anthropogenic fluxes from “managed” forests**

235 GFW's Earth observation-based modelling framework does not (and cannot) differentiate anthropogenic and non-
236 anthropogenic fluxes from forests. Rather, it includes fluxes from all forest land and therefore the combination of direct
237 anthropogenic, indirect anthropogenic, and natural fluxes. Thus, results from our model are not directly comparable with those
238 from NGHGIs or bookkeeping models, each of which define anthropogenic fluxes with different system boundaries for their

239 specific purposes (Grassi et al. 2022, Grassi et al. 2023). Under UNFCCC decisions and IPCC methodological guidance,
240 countries report only anthropogenic fluxes in their NGHGI, approximated by “managed land” (IPCC 2006, Ogle et al. 2018).
241 Therefore, if GFW’s forest carbon [flux](#) monitoring framework is to serve as an independent, Earth observation-based point of
242 reference for NGHGI, its results must be [able to be](#) reported in a conceptually similar way covering the same scope. In doing
243 so, we adopted the proposal of Grassi et al. (2023) in adjusting global data to the NGHGI framework for analyses focused on
244 country policy or action. ~~[limiting the scope of our comparison to CO₂ fluxes only](#)~~. In translating the GFW model’s fluxes into
245 the NGHGI reporting framework, we did what IPCC guidelines direct countries to do when compiling and reporting their
246 inventories rather than what countries necessarily do in practice for their inventories. The goal of this translation exercise was
247 not to reproduce [as closely as possible](#) how countries prepare their NGHGI ~~[as closely as possible](#)~~ using the GFW model, to
248 achieve maximum quantitative similarity to NGHGI, or to reconcile the GFW flux model with NGHGI but rather to present
249 ~~[GHGCO₂](#)~~ fluxes from a globally consistent, geospatial approach in the same conceptual terms that national policymakers use.

250 We developed a three-step process to translate the GFW model’s gross [CO₂](#) emissions and removals into three IPCC reporting
251 categories: anthropogenic flux from managed forest land, emissions from deforestation (anthropogenic), and non-
252 anthropogenic flux from unmanaged forest (Table 3). It builds upon the simpler comparison between the GFW model and
253 NGHGI conducted in the IPCC Sixth Assessment Report (Nabuurs et al. 2022), in which anthropogenic fluxes from the
254 ~~[former GFW model](#)~~ were those outside primary forests in the tropics and intact forest landscapes in the non-tropics. This
255 translation process does not change the GFW model’s bottom-line net flux estimates; rather, it reclassifies the gross [CO₂](#) fluxes
256 by intersecting the GFW model fluxes with other contextual geospatial data to provide fluxes more conceptually aligned with
257 those of NGHGI. The first step (Sect. 2.3.1) assigned each country to one of three cases based on how their NGHGI applies
258 the managed land proxy (Fig. 2). The second and third steps reclassified the GFW model’s emissions (Sect. 2.3.2) and removals
259 (Sect. 2.3.3), respectively, into three IPCC reporting categories according to the three cases assigned in step 1 (Fig. 2).
260 Emissions and removals within each IPCC reporting category were then summed to calculate net anthropogenic and non-
261 anthropogenic forest-related [CO₂](#) fluxes for each country. The GFW model calculates annual emissions, corresponding to the
262 year of tree cover loss, but does not calculate annual removals and instead calculates removals as an annualized average over
263 the entire model period. Thus, to generate timeseries from the GFW model using the NGHGI reporting categories, we
264 calculated the average annual removals in each reporting category by dividing gross removals by the number of model years.
265 The resulting time series for each reporting category is therefore the difference between the annual emissions for that year and
266 the average annual removals.

267 For this analysis, we used data from the GFW model for 2001–2022 to align with the temporal coverage of NGHGI. [We](#)
268 [limited our comparison to CO₂ fluxes only \(i.e. excluding CH₄ and N₂O emissions from the GFW model\) but note that some](#)
269 [developing countries report do not separately report CO₂ and non-CO₂ emissions.](#) Because the GFW model cannot currently
270 report emissions from organic soil separately from all other emissions, we combined NGHGI’s deforestation and organic soil

271 emissions (including emissions from forest land, from peat decomposition and peat fires typically associated to deforestation,
 272 and from agriculture soils) to achieve the same scope as the model. We excluded transfers into the harvested wood products
 273 pool from both data sources in this translation analysis because that is not a core element of our geospatial framework.

274 **Table 3. Translating GFW flux model gross CO₂ emissions and removals to national greenhouse gas inventory (NGHGI) reporting**
 275 **categories.** To calculate total net CO₂ flux for IPCC reporting categories, GFW flux model emissions and removals were reclassified
 276 according to managed land status (managed vs. unmanaged) and driver of tree cover loss. Following IPCC guidelines, for Case 2 countries
 277 we used information about the driver of tree cover loss to reassign initially delineated unmanaged forest to managed forest where direct
 278 human activity is observed to result in tree cover loss (i.e. forestry, commodity-driven deforestation (CDD), urbanization, and shifting
 279 agriculture). Thus, all associated fluxes from unmanaged forests reassigned to managed forests are reported in the corresponding
 280 anthropogenic IPCC reporting category (anthropogenic forest land flux and deforestation).

281

	Country case	Anthropogenic Forest Land Flux <i>Forest Remaining Forest and Non-Forest Land Converted to Forest</i>			Deforestation <i>Forest Converted to Non-Forest Land</i>			Non-Anthropogenic Forest Land Flux <i>Forest Remaining Forest</i>					
		1	2a	2b	1	2a	2b	1	2a	2b			
Step 1: Managed land delineation (2.3.1)	Managed land proxy	All forests managed	Managed land polygons	Non-intact/ non-primary forests	All forests managed	Managed land polygons	Non-intact/ non-primary forests	All forests managed	Managed land polygons	Non-intact/ non-primary forests			
	Managed land		Forestry ✓*	Wildfire ✓	Unknown ✓	Shifting ag + ¹	CDD ✗	Urbanization ✗					
Step 2: Reclassify gross emissions (2.3.2)	Managed land				Forestry ✗	Wildfire ✗	Unknown ✗	Shifting ag + ²	CDD ✓*	Urbanization ✓*			
	Unmanaged land		N/A						Forestry ✗	Wildfire ✓	Unknown ✓	Shifting ag ✗	CDD ✗
Step 3: Reclassify gross removals (2.3.3)	Managed land		✓			✗							
	Unmanaged land		N/A			N/A		N/A		✓			

✓ = Included

✗ = Excluded

+ = Included in certain scenario

282

283 * Includes emissions from not only the initial delineation of managed forests, but also from tree cover loss in unmanaged forests reassigned to managed forests due to direct human
 284 activity.

285 ¹ To calculate the maximum emissions in anthropogenic forest land, we count emissions from shifting agriculture (shifting ag) in secondary forest toward the anthropogenic forest
 286 land flux and emissions from shifting agriculture in primary forests toward deforestation.

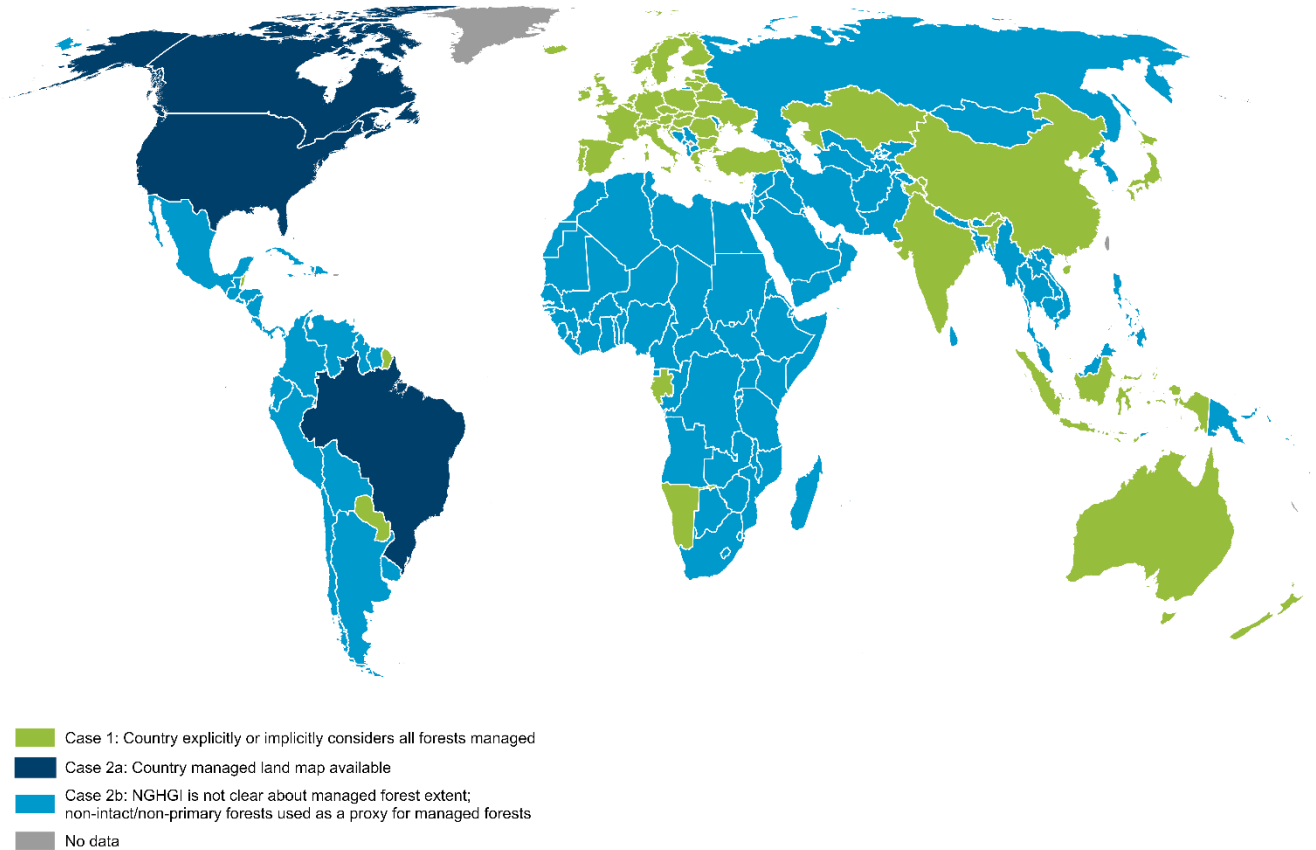
287 ² To calculate the maximum emissions from deforestation, we count all emissions from shifting agriculture in both primary and secondary forest toward deforestation. This also
 288 corresponds to a larger sink in anthropogenic forest land.

289

290 2.3.1 Managed land delineation

291 In the first step ([top of Table 3](#)), we assigned countries to one of three cases based on careful review of NGHGs ([Melo et al.,](#)
292 [in preparation](#)) and the availability of in-country information on the distribution of managed and unmanaged forests. These
293 cases describe which land is considered managed and unmanaged according to information that countries provide in their
294 NGHGs regarding their use of the managed land proxy (Fig. 2). Case 1 included 46 countries (primarily UNFCCC Annex 1
295 countries, i.e. advanced economies with annual GHG reporting commitments) that explicitly consider all forest land managed
296 and another three countries (China, India, Indonesia) for which we assumed that all forest land is considered managed, based
297 on the information provided in their NGHGs. Case 2 included all other countries, which do not consider all forest to be
298 managed and thus consider some forest to be unmanaged. For the three Case 2a countries (Brazil, the United States, and
299 Canada), we used the georeferenced boundaries of managed and unmanaged lands that they use in their NGHGs. The
300 remaining 143 countries (UNFCCC non-Annex 1 countries, i.e. countries with historically less stringent GHG reporting
301 commitments) either report no information or not enough details regarding the use of the managed land proxy and its extent.
302 For example, Russia's inventory explicitly includes unmanaged land but reports areas by administrative unit rather than
303 spatially, which is not adequate for our analysis. For these Case 2b countries, we approximated managed forest in tropical
304 regions as forests outside humid tropical primary forests from 2001 (Turbanova et al. 2018) and in extratropical regions as
305 forests outside intact forest landscapes from 2000 (Potapov et al. 2017). For Case 2 countries, the initial managed forest
306 delineation was modified in steps 2 and 3 to include unmanaged land reassigned to managed land due to direct anthropogenic

307 activity. We note that while countries' definitions of forest land differ, we instead used a single, global definition of forest as
308 defined in Sect. 2, with a tree cover density >30% (Hansen et al. 2013).



310 **Figure 2. Country representation of managed land in their national greenhouse gas inventories (NGHGIs).** Countries consider fluxes
311 by forests in several ways in their national greenhouse gas inventories (Melo et al. in preparation). Some countries explicitly or implicitly
312 consider all forests to be managed and thus include all forest fluxes in their NGHGs (Case 1). The rest do not consider all forests to be
313 managed. Only a few countries (Case 2a) use maps of managed lands to delineate anthropogenic fluxes from non-anthropogenic fluxes. The
314 rest are not clear in their NGHGs about the spatial extent to which forests are or are not considered managed and thus which forest fluxes
315 are included in their inventories (Case 2b).

316

317

318 2.3.2 Reclassifying gross carbon dioxide emissions

319 In the second step (middle of Table 3), we combined the initial delineation of managed forests described in Sect. 2.3.1 with a
320 map of drivers of tree cover loss (Curtis et al. 2018, updated through 2023) to partition the GFW model’s gross CO₂ emissions
321 into IPCC reporting categories because not all of the GFW model’s gross emissions are from deforestation. For Case 1
322 countries, which classify all forests as managed, all emissions occurring within country borders were anthropogenic and no
323 emissions were non-anthropogenic. For Case 2 countries, all emissions within managed forest boundaries (defined in Sect.
324 2.3.1) were anthropogenic and the remaining emissions within initially delineated unmanaged forest boundaries were either
325 anthropogenic or non-anthropogenic depending on the driver of the tree cover loss. We expanded our definition of managed
326 forests to include initial unmanaged forest as defined in Sect. 2.3.1 where there is a direct human activity, such as forest harvest
327 or deforestation (IPCC 2006). Thus, we considered all emissions from direct human activity to be anthropogenic. The
328 remaining emissions—from natural or semi-natural drivers of tree cover loss, such as wildfire, occurring within unmanaged
329 forest boundaries—were the only emissions we considered to be non-anthropogenic.

330 Using this delineation of anthropogenic vs. non-anthropogenic, we reclassified the GFW model’s gross emissions into three
331 categories that are conceptually aligned with IPCC reporting categories (Table. 3): anthropogenic emissions on managed forest
332 land (“forest remaining forest” plus “non-forest land converted to forest”), anthropogenic emissions from deforestation (“forest
333 converted to non-forest land”), and emissions on unmanaged forest land that are non-anthropogenic by definition (“forest
334 remaining forest”).

335 Anthropogenic emissions from managed forest land. For all countries, this category included emissions from wildfire and the
336 ~~small amount of negligible~~ emissions not assigned to a driver (Curtis et al. 2018) occurring within managed forest areas. This
337 category also included emissions from forestry regardless of where they occurred (inside or outside initial delineated managed
338 land boundaries as defined in Sect. 2.3.1) because harvest activity is a direct human activity and thus any tree cover loss from
339 forestry activity results in the reclassification of unmanaged forest to managed forest.

340 Anthropogenic emissions from deforestation. For all countries, this category was the sum of all emissions from tree cover loss
341 due to commodity-driven deforestation and urbanization, regardless of where they occurred, as well as emissions from the loss
342 of intact/primary forests in areas of shifting agriculture because this is considered a permanent change in land use.

343 Non-anthropogenic emissions from unmanaged forests. For Case 1 countries, we assumed based on their NGHGs that all
344 forests are considered managed and thus no emissions are considered non-anthropogenic. The two categories above represent
345 all CO₂ emissions from the GFW model for those countries. For Case 2 countries, which have some unmanaged forest (as
346 defined in Sect. 2.3.1), non-anthropogenic emissions were the sum of the remaining emissions outside managed forests:
347 emissions from tree cover loss due to wildfires and the (small) unassigned drivers class (Curtis et al. 2018). Although some

348 fires in unmanaged land can be caused by humans, we classified emissions from them as non-anthropogenic to be consistent
349 with IPCC guidelines; separating emissions from human-caused fires in unmanaged land and reporting them as anthropogenic
350 forest land emissions could be improved in further iterations of this analysis.

351 It is often not clear to which land use categories emissions from shifting agriculture cycles are allocated in NGHGIs, because
352 this distinction is not required by the IPCC Guidelines (IPCC 2019). Following Curtis et al. (2018), shifting agriculture
353 landscapes are defined as “small- to medium-scale forest and shrubland conversion for agriculture that is later abandoned and
354 followed by subsequent forest regrowth.” To highlight the sensitivity of how emissions from shifting agriculture landscapes
355 are estimated, we created two scenarios for our emissions reclassification. In one scenario, we calculated the maximum
356 emissions from deforestation by including all emissions from the loss of both primary and secondary forests within shifting
357 agriculture landscapes and therefore no emissions from shifting agriculture are considered to be occurring in forest remaining
358 forest. In the other scenario, we calculated the maximum emissions from managed forest land by including emissions from the
359 loss of secondary forests in shifting agriculture landscapes in the anthropogenic forest land flux. This transferred a subset of
360 emissions considered to be deforestation under the alternative scenario to forest land. The remaining emissions from loss of
361 intact/primary forests due to shifting agriculture were still considered deforestation emissions, as described above. The two
362 scenarios do not change the total net anthropogenic forest flux (fluxes from forest land plus deforestation) because the same
363 emissions are assigned to either category. In both scenarios, emissions from the loss of intact/primary forests due to shifting
364 agriculture were always classified as deforestation because we considered them to arise from a permanent change from forest
365 to a non-forest land use.

367 **2.3.3 Reclassifying gross removals**

368 In the third step ([bottom of Table 3](#)), we partitioned carbon removals occurring on forest land as either anthropogenic or non-
369 anthropogenic. No forest carbon removals were included in deforested land; any removals in pixels with tree cover loss were
370 assigned to either anthropogenic forest land removals or non-anthropogenic forest removals, as described below. Since
371 NGHGIs do not treat removals uniformly, we used the three managed land proxy cases to align GFW flux model removal
372 estimates with how countries report removals in their NGHGIs (Fig. 2).

373 For Case 1 countries, which explicitly or implicitly consider all forest land to be managed, we classified all removals across
374 the full GFW model extent as anthropogenic forest land. No removals for these countries were considered non-anthropogenic.
375 For Case 2 countries, we separated removals into anthropogenic and non-anthropogenic categories following the same spatial
376 proxy used to delineate managed forests (Sect. 2.3.1). In this approach, we classified all removals in managed forest land as
377 anthropogenic, including unmanaged forest reclassified as managed forest due to tree cover loss from forestry and shifting
378 agriculture. All removals in unmanaged forest land were classified as non-anthropogenic.

379 3 Results

380 3.1 Emissions, removals, and net fluxes from GFW's updated flux model

381 In the updated GFW flux model, average annual global gross emissions from stand-replacing forest disturbances were 9.0 Gt
 382 CO₂e yr⁻¹ between 2001 and 2023 (with 98% from CO₂ and 2.4% from CH₄ and N₂O), average annual gross removals were
 383 14.5 Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹, and the average annual net forest ecosystem sink was -5.5 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹ (Table 4). Globally, the HWP pool
 384 was an additional net carbon sink of -0.20 Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹, resulting from the transfer of carbon out of forest ecosystems and into
 385 the HWP pool. Although the original and revised values in Table 4 are not directly comparable due to different temporal
 386 coverage and model updates, it does give a high-level view of the degree to which the collective changes to the model have
 387 affected (or not affected) fluxes. Figure 3 maps the updated gross emissions, gross removals, and net GHG flux for forests,
 388 and are derived from Gibbs et al. 2024a, [b](#) and [Gibbs et al. 2024b](#), and [Gibbs et al. 2024e -c](#), respectively.

389 Our framework allows flexible, yet consistent, estimates of carbon fluxes in a variety of forest types, spatial scales, and regions.
 390 [For example, defining forest as tree cover >10% instead of >30% \(Hansen et al. 2013\) results in gross emissions of 9.4 Gt](#)
 391 [CO₂e yr⁻¹, gross removals of -17.5 CO₂ yr⁻¹, and a net sink of -8.1 CO₂e yr⁻¹.](#) Tropical and subtropical forests continued to be
 392 the largest contributors to global forest carbon fluxes, contributing 74% of gross emissions (6.7 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹) and 60% of gross
 393 removals (-8.8 Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹). However, temperate forests are the largest net sink, comprising 40% of the global net sink (-2.2
 394 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹). Together, humid tropical primary forests (Turubanova et al. 2018) and intact forest landscapes (Potapov et al.
 395 2017) outside the tropics were a net ~~carbon~~ sink of -0.26 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹ (average annual emissions of 2.8 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹ and
 396 removals of 3.1 Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹). Forests within protected areas (UNEP-WCMC 2024) accounted for 31% (-1.7 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹) of
 397 the global net ~~carbon~~ sink. In 2023, gross emissions from Canada's wildfires exceeded emissions from all humid tropical
 398 primary forests loss that year (3.0 vs. 2.4 Gt CO₂e, respectively; MacCarthy et al. 2024). Updated emissions, removals, and
 399 net flux statistics by country and smaller administrative levels can be found on www.globalforestwatch.org.

400

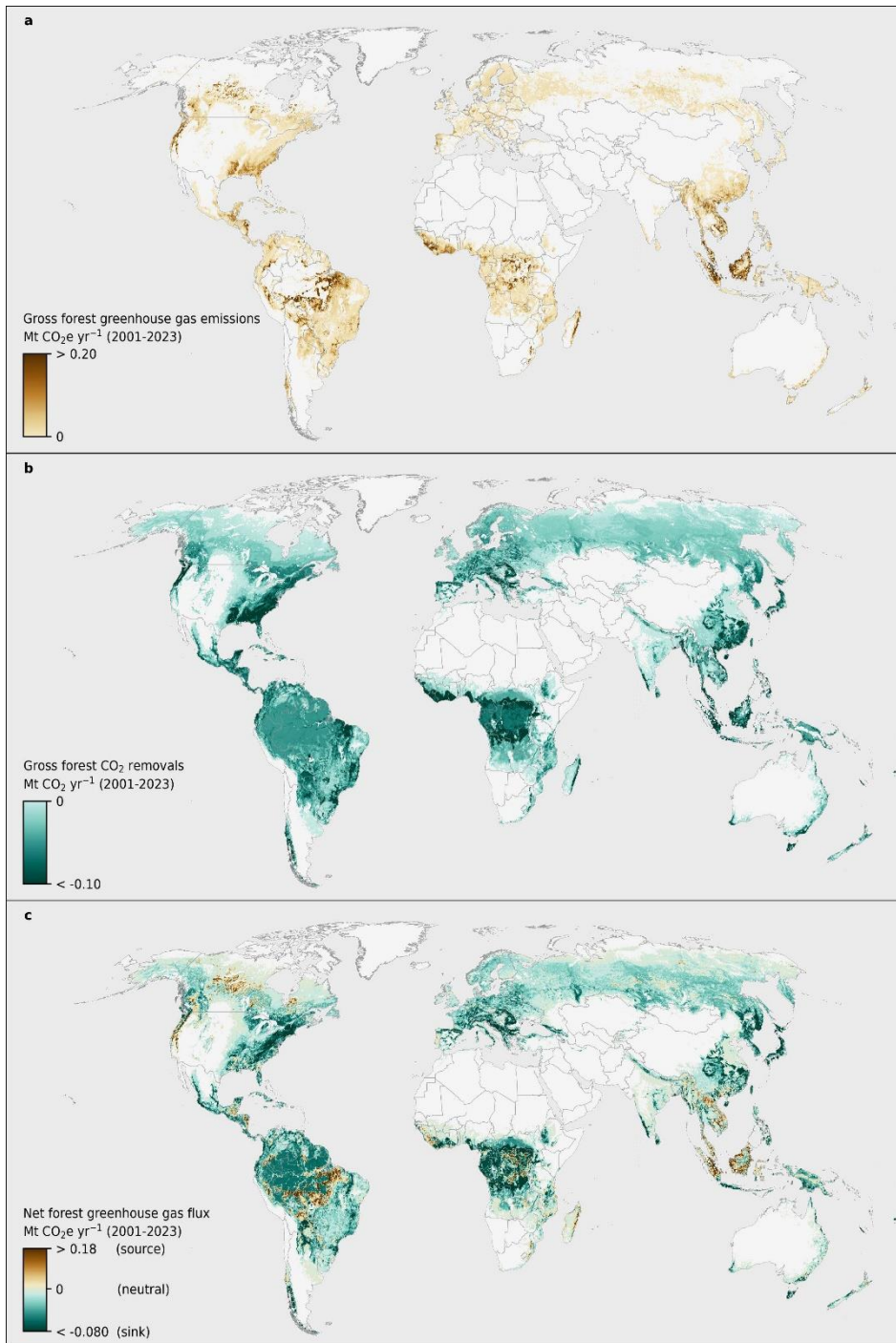
401 **Table 4. [Average annual forest GHG fluxes by climate domain and globally, with uncertainties expressed as standard deviations,](#)**
 402 **[for the original \(2010-2019\) and updated-revised models \(2001-2023\).](#)** Values in parentheses are the percent of the global flux that
 403 occurred in each climate domain. * denotes fluxes with major changes in the uncertainties in the revised GFW model (see Sect. 3.3). [In](#)
 404 [addition, average annual gross emissions from the revised model for 2001-2019 is provided.](#) The original and updated values are not directly
 405 comparable due to different temporal coverage and model updates.

Forest GHG fluxes Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹ (± standard deviation)

Climate domain	Gross emissions			Gross removals ^a		Net GHG flux ^a	
	Original (2001-2019)	Revised (2001-2019)	Updated Revised (2001-2023)	Original (2001-2019)	R Updated e vised (2001-2023)	Original (2001-2019)	U pdated R e vised (2001-2023)
Boreal	0.88 ± 0.42 (11)	1.3 (15)	1.4 ± 0.75 (16)	-2.5 ± 0.96 (16)	-2.5 ± 0.95 (17)	-1.6 ± 1.1 (21)	-1.1 ± 1.2 (20)

Temperate	0.87 ± 0.60 (11)	1.0 (11)	0.93 ± 0.62 (10)	-4.4 ± 48* (28)	-3.1 ± 0.55* (22)	-3.6 ± 48* (47)	-2.2 ± 0.83* (41)
Subtropical	1.0 ± 0.59 (12)	0.9 (10)	1.0 ± 0.93 (11)	-1.6 ± 0.56 (10)	-1.7 ± 0.56 (12)	-0.65±0.81 (8.6)	-0.70± 0.80 (13)
Tropical	5.3 ± 2.4 (66)	5.4 (64)	5.7 ± 2.4 (63)	-7.0 ± 7.6 (45)	-7.1 ± 7.6 (49)	-1.7 ± 8.0 (22)	-1.4 ± 7.9 (26)
Global	8.1 ± 2.5 (100)	8.5 (100)	9.0 ± 2.7 (100)	-16 ± 49* (100)	-14.5 ± 7.7* (100)	-7.6 ± 49* (100)	-5.5 ± 8.1* (100)

406 [*The revised model does not have gross removals and net flux values for 2001-2019 because they are an annual average over the entire model period rather](#)
407 [than a timeseries and thus cannot be subset by year.](#)



408

409 **Figure 3. Forest-related GHG fluxes (annual average, 2001–2023).** a) Gross GHG emissions. b) Gross [carbon dioxide](#) CO₂ removals. c)
410 Net GHG flux. Fluxes are aggregated to 0.04 x 0.04° ([approximately 4x4 km](#)) cells for display purposes.

411 3.2 Effect of GFW model changes on forest carbon flux estimates

412 Updates to the GFW flux model changed gross emissions, gross removals, and net flux over all spatial scales. Average annual
413 gross emissions in the updated GFW model are 12% higher than in the original version, primarily due to higher gross annual
414 emissions since 2019 (8.5 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹ between 2001 and 2019 vs. 11.4 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹ between 2020 and 2023). Updated gross
415 annual removals are 7.3% lower than in the original model, primarily due to the use of corrected, lower IPCC Tier 1 removal
416 factors for temperate forests, which are applied to 290 Mha of secondary forests in the framework, primarily throughout Eurasia
417 and Canada. Annual average net GHG flux decreased accordingly by 28% from the original version because of both higher
418 [gross](#) emissions and lower [gross](#) removals.

419 Although we did not quantify the degree to which each change to the model individually affects emissions and removals
420 because we implemented multiple changes simultaneously, we describe how the inputs changed and some general impacts on
421 gross emissions and removals.

422 *Activity data:*

- 423 1. Temporal coverage of tree cover gain: The area of tree cover gain increased globally from 78 Mha in the original
424 version (gain through 2012) to 130 Mha in the current version (gain through 2020). Carbon removals associated with
425 areas of tree cover gain increased from -0.57 to -0.62 Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹. As in the original model, carbon removals occurring
426 in these young (<20 years) forests remain relatively small compared to gross removals occurring in older, established
427 forests that are much more extensive in total area (96% of gross removals occurred in older forests).
- 428 2. Data source for burned area: Use of the new source of fire data with higher spatial resolution (TCLF) combined with
429 an increase in forest fires across Australia, Spain, the United States and Canada between 2020 and 2023 led to an
430 increase of global average annual burned area that coincided with tree cover loss from 4.3 Mha yr⁻¹ (2001–2019) to
431 6.0 Mha yr⁻¹ (2001–2023). Global average emissions increased from 1.0 to 1.7 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹ in areas where tree cover
432 loss was ~~identified as burned~~[attributed to fire](#).
- 433 3. Data sources for organic soils extent: Improved data led to an increase in the extent of organic soils from 477 Mha to
434 760 Mha and the area of tree cover loss on organic soils increased from 0.77 Mha yr⁻¹ to 2.4 Mha yr⁻¹. Emissions from
435 organic soil drainage in areas with tree cover loss increased from 0.21 to 0.91 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹, occurring primarily in
436 Indonesia and Malaysia (17% and 3.1% of global total, respectively). Higher emissions from organic soil drainage is
437 due to a combination of increased organic soil extent, planted tree extent, and tree cover loss compared to the original
438 model.
- 439 4. Data sources for planted tree extent: Planted forest and tree crop extent increased from 140 Mha to 230 Mha and tree
440 cover loss in planted tree polygons increased from 42 Mha to 64 Mha.

441 *Emission and removal factors:*

- 442 1. Data source for R:S ratios: The previous global R:S used across the full model extent was 0.26. Now, the average
443 ratio of aboveground removals to belowground removals is 0.27 but with considerable geographic variation.
- 444 2. Planted tree removal factors and their uncertainties: The average aboveground removal factor in planted trees
445 originally was 3.2 t C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ but using SDPT v2.0 it is 2.3 t C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. Global planted forests and trees were
446 originally estimated to be a net ~~carbon~~ sink of -0.30 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹ but using SDPT v2.0 they are now a net sink of -
447 0.54 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹, with the increased area of planted trees compensating for the lower average removal factor.
- 448 3. Older secondary (>20 year) temperate forest removal factors and their uncertainties: Older secondary temperate
449 forests using IPCC Tier 1 removal factors (i.e., areas affected by this change) originally covered 310 Mha and now
450 cover 290 Mha. Gross removals in these forests declined from -2.7 to -1.3 Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹.
- 451 4. Global Warming Potentials: Updated model results of non-CO₂ emissions associated with biomass burning and
452 drainage of organic soils were negligibly impacted by using updated GWPs.

453 3.3 Updated uncertainty analysis

454 Nearly all changes to the framework are represented in the error propagation approach and therefore affect the global and
455 climate domain uncertainty analyses to some degree. However, the largest change to the uncertainty analysis in terms of input
456 values was the corrected IPCC Tier 1 temperate forest removal factors, which the model applies across large areas of Eurasian
457 and Canadian forests. Some of the largest changes for removal factors and their uncertainties include temperate mountain
458 forest >20 years old [~~previously 4.4 t aboveground biomass (AGB) ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ ± 100.7 (± standard deviation); now 2.1 ± 0.02 t~~
459 ~~AGB ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹]~~ and temperate oceanic forest >20 years old [~~previously 9.1 t AGB ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ ± 20.2; now 4.9 ± 0.25 t AGB ha⁻¹~~
460 ~~yr⁻¹]. We did not formally assess the contributions of individual model changes to uncertainty because the change in IPCC~~
461 Tier 1 temperate forest removal factor uncertainties was so dominant.

462 Uncertainty (reported as one standard deviation) in temperate gross removals declined from 48 Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹ in the original
463 GFW model to 0.55 Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹, with uncertainty for gross emissions in ~~temperate forests his biome~~ increasing slightly from
464 0.60 to 0.62 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹ and uncertainty for net flux decreasing from 48 to 0.83 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹ (Table 4). Reduced uncertainty
465 in temperate ~~forest~~ gross removals propagated to reduced uncertainty in global gross removals and net flux. In the uncertainty
466 analysis for the current version of the model, tropical gross removals has the highest uncertainty, driven by relatively high
467 uncertainty in IPCC's Tier 1 removal factors, which the GFW model applies to tropical primary forests and older secondary
468 forests. Large uncertainties for climate domain and global net flux estimates should be interpreted with caution; their
469 uncertainties are proportionately very large in part because net flux they reflect the sum of negative (removals) and positive
470 (emissions) terms, compounding the addition of their uncertainties.

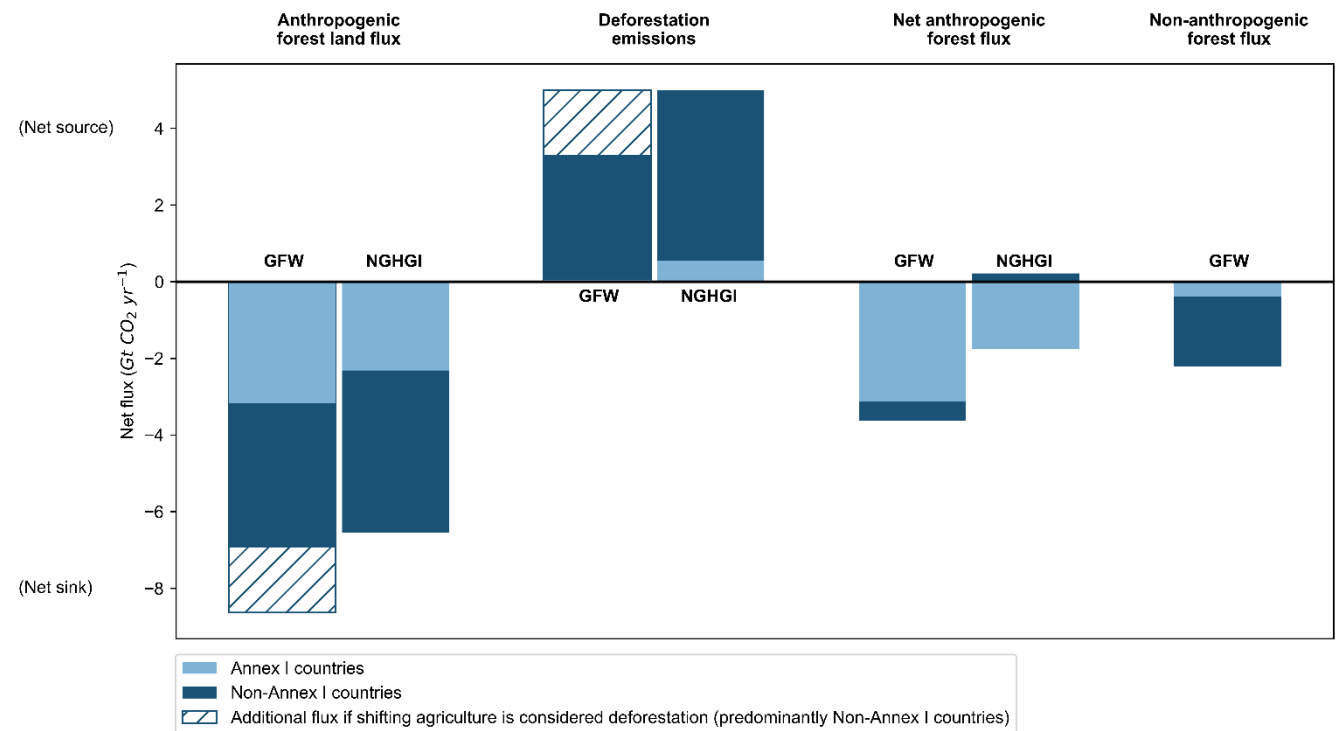
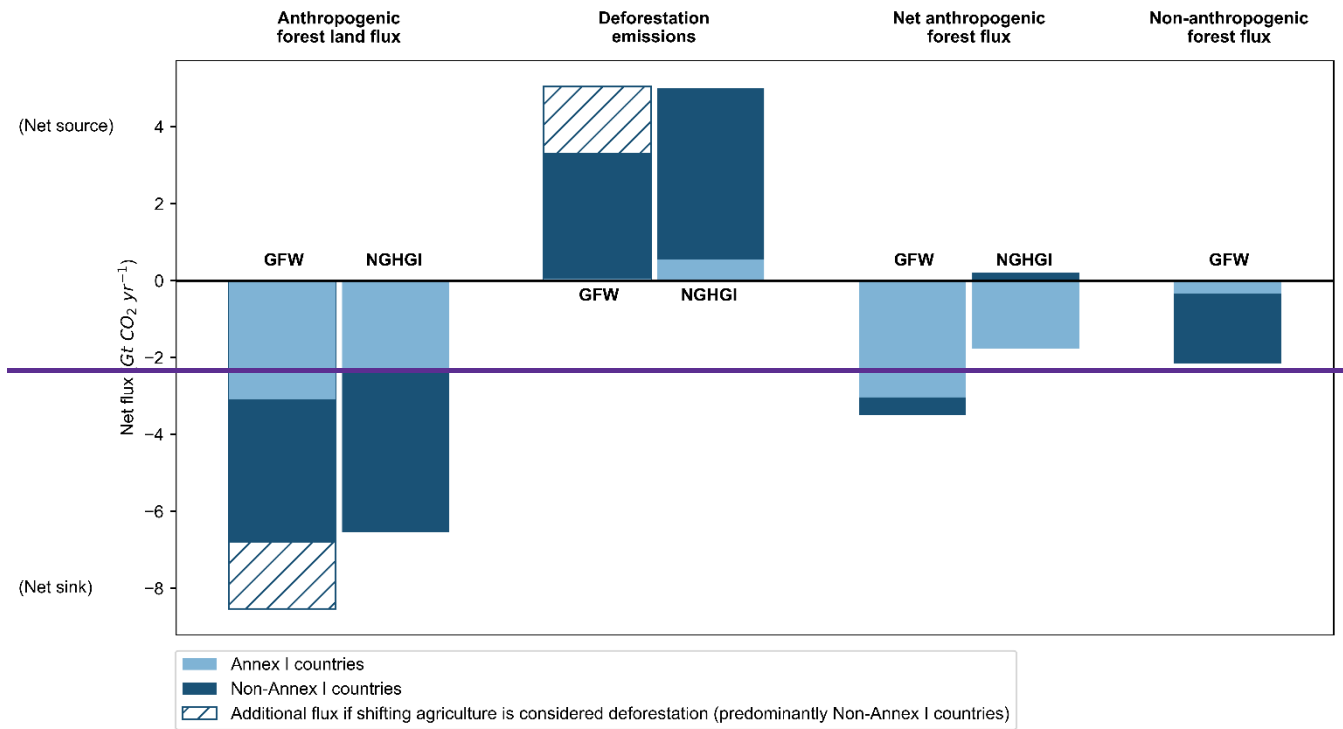
471 3.4 Anthropogenic fluxes from “managed” forests

472 When gross CO₂ emissions and ~~carbon~~ removals from the GFW flux model for 2001–2022 were reclassified into NGHGI
473 reporting categories, the anthropogenic net flux in managed forest land ranged between -6.89 and -8.56 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹ (with and
474 without emissions from shifting agriculture in secondary forests, respectively) and emissions from deforestation ranged
475 between 3.3 and 5.0 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹ (without and with emissions from shifting agriculture in secondary forests, respectively)
476 (Fig. 4, Table A1). The resulting net anthropogenic forest flux—the combined flux from both anthropogenic forest land and
477 deforestation—was -3.56 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹. The non-anthropogenic net sink was -2.2 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹, comprised of -2.5 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹
478 removals and 0.372 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹ emissions from fires and tree cover loss without an assigned driver in unmanaged forests.
479 ~~The difference in global net flux estimates between the untranslated GFW model (-5.5 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹) and the NGHGI translated
480 one is that the latter includes only anthropogenic forest related CO₂ fluxes in managed land, while the former also includes
481 fluxes from unmanaged land and emissions from CH₄ and N₂O.~~ The combined NGHGI-translated anthropogenic and non-
482 anthropogenic forest ~~flux sink differs is about by about~~ 0.23 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹ ~~from larger than~~ the untranslated net flux (-5.8 vs. -
483 5.5 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹, respectively) because the former ~~does not include CH₄ and N₂O emissions,~~ does not include fluxes from 2023
484 ~~and, and~~ does not include fluxes from 32 countries (mostly small island countries), which ~~did do~~ not have comparable
485 NGHGIs.

486 Under the scenario which included emissions from shifting agriculture from secondary forests in deforestation (Fig. 4, hatched
487 bars), GFW's maximum estimate for global deforestation emissions aligned with the combined NGHGI deforestation and
488 organic soil emissions (5.0 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹). In that scenario, GFW's corresponding maximum estimate for global net sink in
489 anthropogenic forest land was larger than estimated by NGHGIs. Under the alternative scenario, which included emissions
490 from shifting agriculture in secondary forests in the anthropogenic forest land flux (Fig. 4, non-hatched bars), GFW's minimum
491 estimate for global net sink in anthropogenic forest land was similar to the NGHGI net forest sink (-6.6 Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹), but
492 GFW's corresponding minimum estimate for global deforestation emissions was lower than estimated by NGHGIs. The
493 combined GFW flux model net anthropogenic forest sink in managed lands is ~~1.92.0~~ 1.92 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹ greater than in NGHGIs (-
494 1.5 Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹).

495 For Non-Annex 1 countries, the GFW model high and low estimates for forest land and deforestation bracketed the
496 corresponding NGHGI fluxes. However, GFW estimated the net anthropogenic forest flux for Non-Annex 1 countries to be a
497 small net anthropogenic sink while NGHGIs estimates them to be a small net anthropogenic source. For Annex 1 countries,
498 deforestation emissions from the GFW model were much lower than from NGHGIs (0.046–0.049 and 0.55 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹,
499 respectively) and the net forest sink was somewhat larger (-3.42 and -2.3 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹, respectively).

500

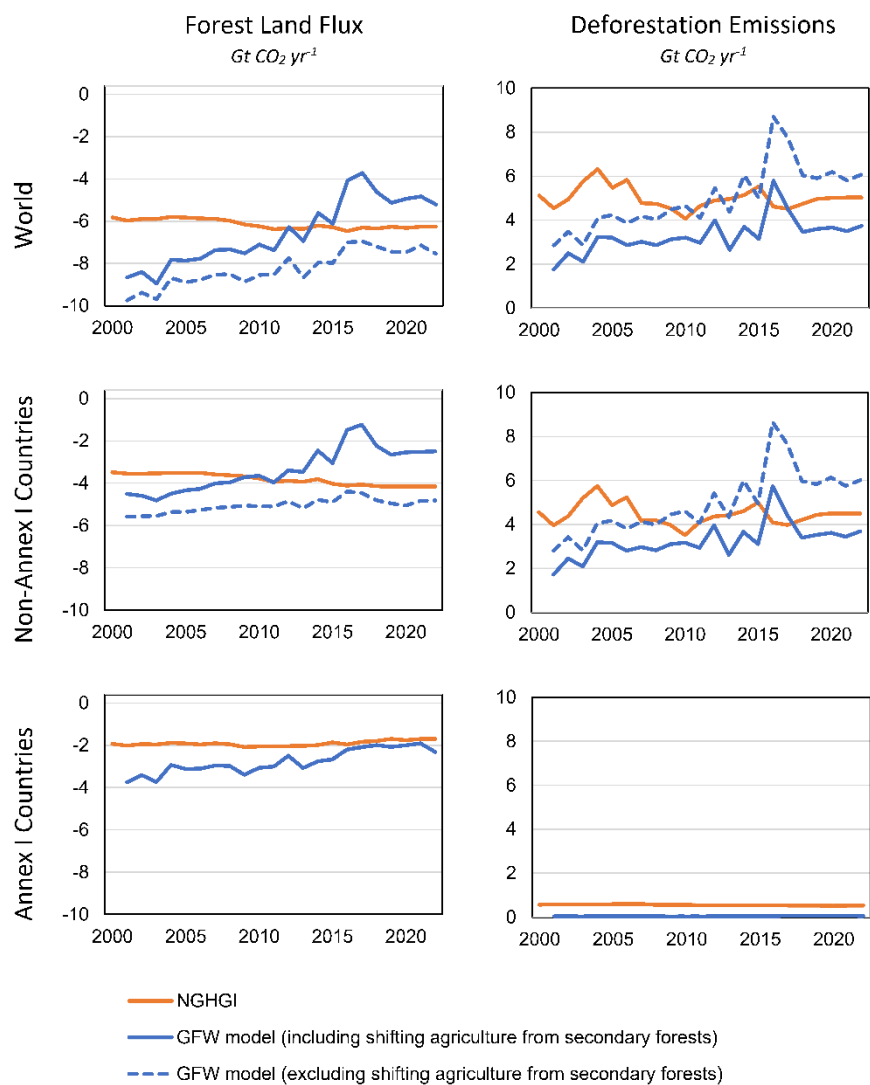


503 **Figure 4. Comparison of average annual forest carbon fluxes (2001–2022) between national greenhouse gas inventories (NGHGI)**
504 **and the updated GFW flux model.** For the GFW flux model, net anthropogenic forest flux is calculated as the sum of the net anthropogenic
505 forest land flux in managed forests and deforestation (Sect. 2.3). Non-anthropogenic forest flux is calculated as emissions and removals
506 occurring outside managed forests. Because country reporting on emissions from the loss of secondary forests associated with cycles of
507 shifting agriculture is ambiguous, these emissions are shown for the GFW model as hatched bars to indicate how they impact totals depending
508 on the reporting category (forest land or deforestation). Results from the GFW model are for CO₂ fluxes only and NGHGI results have also
509 been limited to CO₂ fluxes except for a few developing countries where non-CO₂ emissions could not be separated.

510 Although the magnitude of the global GFW model estimates for deforestation emissions and the anthropogenic sink in
511 forests align with the aggregated NGHGIs for 2001–2022 under different scenarios, their trends ~~through time~~ from 2001 to
512 2022 do not agree (Fig. 5). Both globally and for Non-Annex 1 countries, the NGHGIs suggest that from 2001 to 2022 forest
513 land became a slightly larger sink and deforestation emissions lacked a clear trend. However, the GFW flux model results
514 suggest the opposite: a reduced sink in forest land and increased deforestation emissions. The forest land flux and
515 deforestation emissions from NGHGIs and the GFW model for Non-Annex 1 countries appear to converge in the last 10

516 years (roughly $-6 \text{ Gt CO}_2 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and $5 \text{ Gt CO}_2 \text{ yr}^{-1}$, respectively). For Annex 1 countries, the forest land sink decreased much
517 more according to the GFW model than NGHGs, while deforestation emissions stayed fairly constant in both.





519

520 **Figure 5. Comparison of forest carbon fluxes timeseries (2001–2022) between national greenhouse gas inventories (NGHGIs) and**
 521 **the updated GFW flux model for Non-Annex 1, Annex 1 countries, and globally.** NGHGI values shown here exclude any fluxes from
 522 harvested wood products, and deforestation emissions are the combined emissions from both deforestation and organic soils to conceptually
 523 align with the scope of fluxes from the GFW framework. For the world and Non-Annex 1 countries, GFW model results are shown in two
 524 timeseries: one where emissions from shifting agriculture in secondary forests is included in that reporting category and one where those
 525 emissions are not included. For the GFW model in Annex 1 countries, the two scenarios are essentially the same and thus we show only one

526 line. [The GFW model has been limited to CO₂ only; NGHGI data includes only CO₂ except for a few developing countries where non-CO₂](#)
527 [emissions could not be separated.](#)

528 **4 Discussion**

529 We focus our discussion on the following topics. First, we examine how the updated GFW forest flux model compares with
530 results from a recent global estimate of forest fluxes by Pan et al. (2024) and the Global Carbon Budget (GCB). Second, we
531 discuss how fully geospatial, Earth observation-based forest flux estimates can be translated into the reporting categories of
532 NGHGIs and how transparency in both approaches can result in methodological improvements. Third, we discuss strengths
533 and limitations of GFW's Earth observation-based forest carbon flux model. Fourth, we outline future research [topics-priorities](#)
534 which provide partial solutions to the model's current limitations.

535 **4.1 Comparison with other recent global flux estimates**

536 Pan et al. (2024) is a relevant comparison for the GFW model because both include only forests and report gross rather than
537 net fluxes. Pan et al. (2024) estimated gross removals by forests, gross emissions from tropical deforestation, and the global
538 forest carbon sink by synthesizing forest plot data (inventories and long-term monitoring sites) from 1990 onwards. The
539 removals estimates are conceptually similar (e.g., both include established and new forests), but the emissions estimates have
540 different [geographic](#) scope (global for GFW, tropical for Pan et al. 2024) (Table 5). The global net fluxes from Pan et al. 2024
541 and the updated GFW model are remarkably similar given their entirely different approaches, and thus provide multiple lines
542 of evidence for a [net](#) forest sink of ~~around~~ [approximately](#) 6 Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹. Differences in gross emissions and removals between
543 the data sources likely arise from different scopes and system boundaries, but may be balanced out when combined in the
544 global net flux. Pan et al. estimated higher tropical gross emissions than the GFW model did for the tropics and subtropics for
545 2001-2019. When the GFW model's gross emissions (CO₂ only) are limited to the tropics and subtropics and one geospatially
546 implemented definition of deforestation (tree cover loss due shifting agriculture in primary forest, and all commodity- and
547 urbanization-driven tree cover loss), it estimates 3.2 Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹, well below the tropical deforestation estimate of Pan et al.
548 2024. More broadly including all tree cover loss in the tropics and subtropics, the GFW model estimates gross emissions of
549 6.3 Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹.

550

551

552

553

554 **Table 5. Comparison of GFW flux model results to Pan et al. 2024 and the Global Carbon Budget (GCB).** Estimates from the three
 555 data sources are not directly comparable due to differences in scope, data, methodologies and reporting structure. GFW model fluxes are
 556 limited to 2001–2022 for comparability with the GCB. [The GFW model and Pan et al. 2024 are for forests only, while the GCB also includes](#)
 557 [non-forest land-as-well.](#)

Flux	GFW model, 2001-2022 (Gt CO ₂ yr ⁻¹)	Pan et al. 2024, 2000-2019 (Gt CO ₂ yr ⁻¹)	Global Carbon Budget, 2001-2022 (Gt CO ₂ yr ⁻¹)
Emissions	8.6 (gross, all observed disturbances) ^a	7.4 (gross, tropical deforestation) ^b	4.9 (net, anthropogenic) ^c
Removals	-14.7 (gross, all forest ecosystems (-14.5) and HWP (-0.20)) ^d	-13 (gross, global)	-11.4 (net, non-anthropogenic) ^e
Net	-6.1 (net, all forests) ^{ef}	-5.6 (net, global)	-6.4 (net, all land)

558 ^aGross emissions from all forest disturbances (anthropogenic and non-anthropogenic) [observed from Landsat data for the period 2001–2022](#). Estimate includes
 559 CO₂ only for comparability with GCB; non-CO₂ emissions are 0.19 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹. This value is lower than that of Table 4 (9.0 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹) because this one
 560 includes emissions for 2001–2022 only and excludes non-CO₂ gases.

561 ^b Includes emissions from degradation.

562 ^c Estimates only net direct anthropogenic effects, including deforestation, afforestation/reforestation, [organic soils](#), and wood harvest. Gross fluxes higher but
 563 not reported.

564 ^d Gross removals from all forest processes (direct, indirect and natural). HWP = transfers to harvested wood products. [Removals are the annual average from](#)
 565 [2001-2023.](#)

566 ^e [Represents the land sink associated with indirect human-induced effects such as CO₂ fertilization, nitrogen deposition, etc.](#)

567 ^{ef} Calculated as the net balance between gross forest ecosystem emissions and removals (8.6 – 14.5 Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹) in this table plus an additional net removal
 568 of -0.20 Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹ into HWP. This value differs from that of Table 4 (-5.5 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹) because this one uses lower gross emissions (see note a).

569

570 Another point of comparison is the GCB, released by the Global Carbon Project each year. The GCB provides annual estimates
 571 of GHG emissions and carbon sinks, when relevant, for all sectors. The GFW flux model is not designed to represent the land
 572 portion of the global carbon cycle, nor is it directly comparable with the land use fluxes included in the GCB because of
 573 differences in definitions, scope, reporting structure, and methods (Friedlingstein et al. 2023). Three overarching differences
 574 are: 1) The GCB reports net sources and sinks for all land (including croplands, grasslands, semi-arid savannas and shrublands),
 575 while the GFW model reports gross emissions and removals for forests only; 2) the GCB categorizes fluxes by process into
 576 net anthropogenic emissions from land use change and forestry and the “natural” land sink, while the GFW model categorizes
 577 fluxes by activity data; 3) the GCB uses global bookkeeping models to estimate [net anthropogenic carbon fluxes from land](#)
 578 [use and dynamic global vegetation models \(DGVMs\)](#) to estimate [net carbon fluxes from the natural land sink](#) ([Walker et al.](#)
 579 [2024](#)), while the GFW flux model uses a single integrated approach to estimate emissions and removals. Nevertheless,
 580 comparison of the GFW model with the GCB is useful because they use entirely different data sources and approaches, and,
 581 as such, convergence between them would represent multiple lines of evidence [towards the magnitude of the land sink](#).

582 We estimated a global net CO₂ sink by forest ecosystems of -6.1 Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹ between 2001 and 2022, which is similar to the
583 net CO₂ land sink of -6.4 Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹ in the GCB for all terrestrial fluxes over the same period (Table 5). The GCB's net
584 emission estimate (4.9 Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹) is lower than GFW's gross emissions estimate (8.6 Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹) partially because the
585 GCB's land-use change emissions (sources) reflect the net balance between anthropogenic emissions and anthropogenic
586 removals associated with forest regrowth. Similarly, the GFW model's gross removals reflect removals across all forest lands,
587 including removals implicit (but unreported) in the GCB net land-use change estimate (Friedlingstein et al. 2023). Additional
588 reclassification of fluxes from the GFW model into net anthropogenic fluxes from land-use change and the natural land sink
589 may be possible for further comparisons with the GCB, as has been done between the GCB and NGHGs (Schwingshackl et
590 al. 2022).

591 In the comparison of the original GFW model with the GCB, we included a non-spatial estimate of emissions from tropical
592 forest degradation of 2.1 Gt CO₂e yr⁻¹ from Pearson et al. 2017 that potentially included some emissions from small-scale
593 disturbances which we assumed our original model did not capture. For this and subsequent comparisons between the GFW
594 flux framework and the GCB, we are discontinuing the inclusion of a non-spatial estimate of degradation emissions from a
595 source external to our framework to maintain its internal consistency and fully geospatial nature. We acknowledge that the
596 GFW model itself is likely omitting both emissions (e.g., from degradation not detected by TCL) and removals (e.g., from low
597 canopy density or regenerating forest), but those are gaps that the model should be able to fill over time (see Sect. 4.4). Adding
598 external data such as Pearson et al. 2017 risks double-counting emissions in the global total. As more geospatial data on
599 distinguishing deforestation from degradation (Vancutsem et al., 2021) becomes available globally, and geospatial data on the
600 emission and removal factors associated with forest degradation (Holcomb et al., 2024) and recovery (Heinrich et al., 2023b)
601 becomes available is developed, it may be possible to reintegrate forest degradation and its associated fluxes.

602 **4.2 Translating between Earth observation-based fluxes and NGHGs**

603 The 6.7 Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹ gap in global land use emissions between NGHGs and the GCB has been largely explained (Grassi et al.
604 2023) and translation between NGHGs on the one hand and bookkeeping models and DGVMs on the other is becoming
605 routine (e.g., Schwingshackl et al. 2022); this work is the start of a similar process for explaining the gap between NGHGs
606 and Earth observation-based models, primarily through reallocation of emissions and removals to match NGHGs' land use
607 categories and filtering the results with maps of managed forest as a proxy to delineate anthropogenic from non-anthropogenic
608 fluxes. This approach follows the recommendations of a recent IPCC expert meeting on reconciling land use emissions (IPCC
609 2024). Our goal in translating GFW model results into a NGHGI reporting framework was to provide independent estimates
610 of forest-based GHG fluxes based on globally consistent, Earth observation-based forest flux-data in the reporting categories
611 that national policymakers use. It was not to reproduce how countries classify their managed land, report their forest fluxes in
612 practice, or compare fluxes for individual countries. For example, we did not rely solely on the use of managed land polygons
613 for Case 2a+ countries to define managed forest; if our observations detected direct human activity in unmanaged polygons,

614 we assigned those fluxes as anthropogenic forest land fluxes or deforestation. Thus, although this translation makes the GFW
615 model more conceptually similar with NGHGs in that the outputs are supposed to represent the same fluxes, they are still not
616 necessarily entirely comparable because we did not exactly reproduce what countries do in practice within their NGHGs. [This](#)
617 ~~It demonstrates~~ that the GFW model is sufficiently flexible to approximate the system boundaries of anthropogenic fluxes in
618 the IPCC reporting framework and that Earth observation-based models can be used to independently monitor anthropogenic
619 GHG fluxes from forests if adequate country data are made publicly available. ~~The 6.7 Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹ gap in global land use~~
620 ~~emissions between NGHGs and the GCB has been largely explained (Grassi et al. 2023) and translation between NGHGs on~~
621 ~~the one hand and bookkeeping models and DGVMs on the other is becoming routine (e.g., Schwingshaeckl et al. 2022); this~~
622 ~~work is the start of a similar process for explaining the gap between NGHGs and Earth observation based models, primarily~~
623 ~~through reallocation of emissions and removals to match NGHGs' land use categories and filtering the results with maps of~~
624 ~~managed forest as a proxy to delineate anthropogenic from non anthropogenic fluxes. [This approach follows the](#)~~
625 ~~[recommendations of a recent IPCC expert meeting on reconciling land use emissions \(IPCC 2024\).](#)~~

626 Although the conceptual alignment produces quantitatively similar annual average fluxes for the GFW model and NGHGs
627 globally and for Non-Annex 1 countries, the trends from NGHGs and the GFW model differ (Fig. 5). For Non-Annex 1
628 countries, where the trends in each data source are most evident, NGHGs reported the forest land sink strengthening slightly
629 while deforestation emissions fluctuated but were generally steady. The GFW model, on the other hand, reported a weakening
630 sink in forest land and deforestation emissions that increased correspondingly. [The decreasing forest land sink in the GFW](#)
631 [model is due to the use of average annual gross removals over time \(i.e. a constant value\), combined with increasing \(i.e.](#)
632 [annually variable\) tree cover losses not associated with deforestation](#)~~The tight association between the decreasing forest land~~
633 ~~sink and increasing deforestation emissions in the GFW model is due to the use of average annual gross removals over time~~
634 ~~(i.e. a constant value), with only gross emissions varying year to year.~~ In NGHGs, forest land and deforestation can both
635 change through time ~~and are therefore not driven by the trajectory of just one flux.~~ [The differing trends between the GFW flux](#)
636 [model and aggregated NGHGs is likely driven by generally increasing annual tree cover loss used in GFW \(Hansen et al.](#)
637 [2013\), as that has the greatest interannual variability present in either dataset.](#) Quantitative similarity between the GFW model
638 and NGHGs may be further improved when the GFW model's gross removals can vary through time as well (Sect. 4.4).
639 Moreover, for Non-Annex 1 countries, results from the GFW model and NGHGs have converged for forest land and
640 deforestation since around 2010, with the two GFW model scenarios bracketing NGHGI fluxes from both reporting categories
641 after that year. This indicates that the GFW model, and the tree cover loss data that underlies its gross emissions, were perhaps
642 under-detecting loss ~~as detected by~~[relative to](#) NGHGs in the early part of the time series.

643 Exploration of the differences between the GFW model and specific countries' NGHGs is beyond the scope of this paper;
644 future work may include more detailed reclassification of the GFW model's fluxes and comparisons with specific regions or
645 countries. [As an initial resource for country-level data, the European Union Joint Research Centre LULUCF Data Hub presents](#)

646 [graphs of national land fluxes according to their NGHGs, the Global Carbon Budget, and the translated fluxes from the GFW](https://forest-observatory.ec.europa.eu/carbon/fluxes)
647 [model \(https://forest-observatory.ec.europa.eu/carbon/fluxes\)](https://forest-observatory.ec.europa.eu/carbon/fluxes). Further sub-setting results from our framework to differentiate
648 anthropogenic and non-anthropogenic fluxes for comparison with NGHGs for individual regions, countries, and other local-
649 scale analyses is possible and encouraged. Indeed, comparison of the GFW model and countries' inventories is a way to explore
650 the complementarity and discrepancies between Earth observation data and inventories, encourage transparency for both, and
651 improve both approaches (Heinrich et al. 2023a). For example, one advantage of the GFW model, which includes forest fluxes
652 undifferentiated by human contribution, is that it encompasses both anthropogenic and non-anthropogenic fluxes. When this
653 translation exercise is conducted, GHG fluxes from managed [land forests](#) can be put in the context of all [land forest](#) fluxes and
654 compared with fluxes from unmanaged [land forests](#). Because NGHGs are not required to estimate fluxes from unmanaged
655 land (just report the area of unmanaged land), aggregation of NGHGs does not provide context for managed land fluxes with
656 unmanaged land fluxes. In other words, the GFW model can indicate the scale of non-anthropogenic fluxes that countries are
657 not reporting in their NGHGs (which ~~are~~ nevertheless affect atmospheric CO₂ concentrations and global temperature), while
658 NGHGs are necessary for the GFW model to approximate the anthropogenic fluxes that are being monitored by countries and
659 the focus of the Paris Agreement. An alternative approach for reconciling global models and NGHGs would be for NGHGs
660 to report all land fluxes in the country, in both managed and unmanaged land (Nabuurs et al. 2023), but adoption of this seems
661 unlikely.

~~662 Future improvements to our flux reclassifications, which may improve regional or country level comparisons, could include
663 customizing tree cover density thresholds that align more closely with countries' forest definitions to filter forest extent and
664 thus the associated fluxes on a country by country basis. Additionally, we used maps of primary forests and intact forest
665 landscapes from 2001 and 2000, respectively, to approximate the extent of unmanaged forests at the initial year of our model
666 framework. Further refinement to the GFW model's estimates of fluxes from managed lands could include recategorizing
667 forests as "managed" or "unmanaged" using updated primary/intact forest boundaries in different years to reflect changes to
668 countries' managed land area over time whenever known. Furthermore, for simplicity, we considered all forest removals as
669 forest land and did not differentiate the relatively small amount of removals from forest gain as "other land converted to forest",
670 which is a category that countries report in their NGHGs. Another improvement would be to separate the emissions from
671 drainage of organic soils and the emissions from deforestation in the GFW model; in the current translation, deforestation
672 emissions and organic soil emissions are combined in both data sources. Separating them would further narrow the conceptual
673 similarity, which would matter most in countries with high emissions from organic soils. Finally, emissions from fires
674 occurring in unmanaged land could theoretically be differentiated into anthropogenic vs. non-anthropogenic using additional
675 geospatial data, rather than our simplified assumption that all fires in unmanaged forests are non-anthropogenic in origin.~~

676 While our geospatial, Earth observation-based framework permits estimation of fluxes for any geospatially defined forest and
677 the inclusion (or exclusion) of any area of interest, it cannot distinguish between managed versus unmanaged land without

678 relevant spatial data. Thus, the ability of the GFW model, and Earth observation models in general, to be translated into IPCC
679 categories largely depends on the transparency with which countries report on their managed lands. Only three countries
680 have publicly available maps of managed and unmanaged forest (Canada, Brazil, and the United States) (Ogle et al. 2018) that
681 currently apply the managed land proxy (Canada, Brazil, and the United States) have publicly available managed land maps
682 (Ogle et al. 2018). For all remaining countries, the use and application of the managed land proxy was assumed based on the
683 available information from country reports. In the absence of this information, primary or intact forest have been used as proxy
684 for unmanaged forest. With sufficient transparency and flexibility in both the Earth observation-based products and NGHGs,
685 the differences between them can be explored.

686 A ~~crucial~~ key driver of forest disturbance, and thus emissions, in the GFW model is shifting agriculture. However, the
687 comparison between GFW and NGHGI is complicated by the fact that countries typically do not provide specific information
688 on shifting agriculture in their land representation; according to the IPCC guidelines it can be implicitly included either in
689 forest or in other land uses (e.g., cropland) (Grassi et al. 2023). Thus, we developed two scenarios for the treatment of fluxes
690 from shifting agriculture (Fig. 4). Hopefully, as countries begin to submit their Biennial Transparency Reports under the Paris
691 Agreement, their use of the managed land proxy, the treatment of shifting agriculture, and other exclusions from inventories
692 will be progressively clarified and translation between approaches will become more accurate. Although they are time-
693 consuming to implement, the goal should be for the kinds of Earth-observation based adjustments described by Heinrich et al.
694 2023a for Brazil to be achievable for all countries. This will ultimately facilitate comparisons between global models such as
695 the GFW model and NGHGs, provide national policymakers with timely geospatial data in their own reporting terms, and
696 build confidence in the magnitude and trends of land-based anthropogenic emissions and sinks (Grassi et al. 2023).

697 Future improvements to our flux reclassifications, which may improve regional or country-level comparisons, could include
698 customizing tree cover density thresholds that align more closely with countries' forest definitions to filter forest extent and
699 thus the associated fluxes on a country-by-country basis. Additionally, we used maps of primary forests and intact forest
700 landscapes from 2001 and 2000, respectively, to approximate the extent of unmanaged forests at the initial year of our model
701 framework. Further refinement to the GFW model's estimates of fluxes from managed lands could include recategorizing
702 forests as "managed" or "unmanaged" using updated primary/intact forest boundaries in different years to reflect changes to
703 countries' managed land area over time whenever known. Furthermore, for simplicity, we considered all forest removals as
704 forest land and did not differentiate the relatively small amount of removals from forest gain as "other land converted to forest",
705 which is a category that countries report in their NGHGs. Another improvement would be to separate the emissions from
706 drainage of organic soils and the emissions from deforestation in the GFW model; in the current translation, deforestation
707 emissions and organic soil emissions are combined in both data sources. Separating them would further narrow/refine the
708 conceptual similarity. This, which would matter most in countries with high emissions from organic soils. Finally, emissions
709 from fires occurring in unmanaged land could theoretically be differentiated into anthropogenic vs. non-anthropogenic using

710 [additional geospatial data, rather than our simplified assumption that all fires in unmanaged forests are non-anthropogenic in](#)
711 [origin.](#)

712

713 **4.3 Strengths and limitations of the GFW flux monitoring framework**

714 The strengths of the current GFW flux model are broadly similar to those described in Harris et al. 2021. Strengths include its
715 transparency, operational nature, flexibility, and updatability as new information becomes available. Here we focus on the
716 complementarity of the GFW model with other land flux monitoring approaches. A strength of flux monitoring based on Earth
717 observation, and therefore geospatial, data is its geographic specificity, while maintaining spatial consistency. Knowing where
718 changes in land use and land cover—and the emissions and removals they have caused—occurred may help identify what
719 factors are responsible for these changes and how to attribute them to specific human activities. While detailed information
720 from ground surveys and activity data generated using local training data may provide more detail and accuracy at local scales,
721 understanding the magnitude and distribution of global change requires a combination of both ground- and space-based
722 observations (Houghton and Castanho 2023). In this sense, it fills in the gaps among other flux monitoring approaches. In
723 terms of global consistency, the GFW model’s key data are global in breadth and independent of data from the United Nations
724 Food and Agriculture Organization, giving it a separate source for forest change data from bookkeeping models (Hansis et al.
725 2015, Gasser et al. 2020, Houghton and Castanho 2023). Moreover, by having an open-source model based on publicly
726 available data, others can evaluate the model, make improvements, and/or adapt it to use national or local rather than global
727 data. Users can keep some defaults while replacing others with better or more specific information, and understand how results
728 are impacted by the various changes made for regions or at scales that interest them most.

729 Limitations are also broadly similar to those described in Harris et al. 2021. First, combining multiple spatially explicit data
730 sources compounds the errors present in each individual source used in the framework. The GFW model partially manages
731 this over larger areas through uncertainty propagation analysis to identify the relative contributions of different model
732 components to uncertainty in each climate domain but cannot provide a pixel-level accuracy or uncertainty map. Extending
733 the uncertainty framework to smaller regions (e.g., biomes or countries) would require uncertainty information for each of the
734 individual data sources to be available at the desired scale of uncertainty propagation analysis. Second, the gain-loss approach
735 of starting with baseline carbon densities and adding gains and subtracting losses over time has the potential to generate
736 unrealistic estimates over longer periods due to drift from the original benchmark map. The GFW model could potentially
737 address this through recalibration of carbon densities and forest extent at one or more intermediate years (e.g., 2010, 2015).
738 Finally, the GFW model continues to have temporal limitations for both activity data and removal factors. The shorter gain
739 period compared to tree cover loss in the original publication (12 vs. 19 years, respectively) has largely been addressed with
740 the extension of tree cover gain through 2020. [More limiting than the mismatch of tree cover loss and gain durations is the](#)

741 [one-time nature of tree cover gain. Because the year of tree cover gain is not known, the model does not necessarily include](#)
742 [post-disturbance gross regrowth and removals, which may underestimate removals and decrease the net sink. This effect would](#)
743 [be particularly pronounced in forest where disturbance occurs earlier in the model and regrowth is substantial. The ~~but the~~](#)
744 [tree cover loss timeseries also](#) has its own inconsistencies (Weisse and Potapov 2021). The improvement in Earth observation
745 data and changes to processing confounds apparent trends in gross emissions based on tree cover loss; it is difficult to determine
746 how much the trends in emissions are due to real increases vs. better detection of disturbances through time. For removal
747 factors, the concern is not so much temporal inconsistency as temporal constancy; the model makes the simplifying assumption
748 of static removal factors, i.e. removal factors do not change as forests grow or climate changes [over the 23-year model period](#).
749 Thus, the GFW model does not incorporate growth-response curves or climate feedbacks, unlike in Earth System Models.

750 **4.4 [Research priorities and Anticipated model developments](#)**

751 Beyond annual updates to the GFW model, we anticipate continued, substantial changes to and research around both activity
752 data and emission and removal factors. These do not change the underlying conceptual framework but rather its implementation
753 as the model.

754 For activity data, anticipated model developments include:

- 755 1. Global forest change data: The model will use annual forest extent, loss, and gain maps for greater temporal detail
756 (similar to Potapov et al. 2019 or Turubanova et al. 2023) and improved representation of carbon dynamics. For
757 example, the year of tree cover gain will be known (at least approximately) and repeated forest disturbances in the
758 same location will be captured (unlike in Hansen et al. 2013), allowing the generation of annual time series of gross
759 emissions, gross removals, and net flux. This should further enhance comparability of ~~flux~~ [temporal trends in GFW's](#)
760 [fluxes](#) with the GCB and NGHGs.
- 761 2. Drivers of forest loss: The model currently uses a global map of drivers of forest loss at 10-km resolution (Curtis et
762 al. 2018, updated to 2023) but research on mapping drivers of forest loss is advancing. An anticipated 1-km resolution
763 global map of drivers of forest loss ([Sims et al., in review](#)) will detect drivers that are not dominant at 10-km (and are
764 therefore not mapped) but are important at smaller scales, such as loss due to small-scale infrastructure and built-up
765 areas amid loss due to agricultural commodity expansion. Moreover, a separate ~~driver~~-class of forest loss due to
766 natural disturbances ~~would will~~ further help with parsing natural and anthropogenic fluxes for translation into NGHGI
767 reporting categories.
- 768 3. Delineation of organic soils and their drainage status: The GFW model currently compiles several different data
769 sources (Table 2), which have different definitions and resolutions, to map organic soil extent. The GFW model would
770 benefit from a globally consistent organic soil map based on comprehensive aggregation of soil samples and
771 standardized mapping methods ([Hengl et al. in prep](#)). However, it is not just the extent of organic soils but their

772 drainage that affects emissions in the GFW model. Thus, we are exploring improved mapping of organic soil drainage
773 using recent improvements in delineating road networks (OSM 2010; Meijer et al. 2018; Engert et al. 2024), drainage
774 canal networks (Dadap et al. 2021), and land cover (Potapov et al. 2022). More comprehensive maps of organic soil
775 extent and drainage will improve where the GFW model reports these emissions, particularly affecting non-CO₂ GHG
776 emissions.

777 4. Improved initial forest age map: The GFW model currently classified forested pixels into primary forest, secondary
778 forest > 20 years, and secondary forest < 20 years old in 2000 using a few simple rules (described in Harris et al.
779 2021). However, a forest age map such as Besnard et al. 2021 could be used to refine the assignment of starting age
780 categories—particularly for secondary forests—or to determine where forest is along age-growth curves.

781 5. Extent of planted forests and trees: The model currently uses SDPT v2.0 (Richter et al. 2024) but plans are underway
782 for SDPT 3.0, which will improve differentiation between natural and artificial stands in the United States and
783 Canada, along with other improvements for delineating planted tree extent in other countries.

784 For emission and removal factors, anticipated model developments include:

785 1. Improved spatial and temporal resolution of forest carbon removals: The dominant role of removal factor uncertainties
786 in the uncertainty analysis highlights the need to further improve understanding of spatial and temporal variation in
787 forest carbon removals. Combining plot-level biomass estimates with spaceborne observations to produce static
788 biomass maps is well established (e.g., Saatchi et al. 2011, Santoro et al. 2021) and mapping biomass change is being
789 explored (Xu et al. 2021) but these do not provide spatiotemporally variable removal factors. An ecology-based, yet
790 still spatial, way to map removal factors could combine tree-level information collected in field plots with machine
791 learning methods to map forest population structure through time, including variables that influence biomass change
792 like upgrowth, mortality and recruitment for different forest types (Ma et al. 2020, [Liang et al. in review](#)). Such an
793 approach can generate spatial and temporal predictions of how biomass changes across space and time that can be
794 validated with forest plot data. In conjunction with a time series of tree cover gain (in activity data list above), this
795 would result in fully temporal gross removals. [Alternatively, growth curves for natural regeneration of forests could
796 be revised and expanded to include a greater range of forest ages, using similar methods to Cook-Patton et al. 2020
797 \(Robinson et al. under review\)](#)~~Alternatively, growth curves for natural regeneration of forests could be developed,
798 using methods similar to Cook-Patton et al. 2020.~~

799 2. Improved maps of soil carbon dynamics [in mineral soils](#): The GFW model currently uses a benchmark map of soil
800 organic carbon density in mineral soil in 2000 and assumes loss of specific fractions of carbon under certain types of
801 tree cover loss, following a Tier 1 approach from IPCC 2019. However, a timeseries of soil organic carbon density
802 in mineral soil would support more realistic mapping of SOC ~~dynamics~~[losses and gains](#).

803 [2-3. Improved maps of emissions from organic soil drainage: The GFW model currently assumes that organic soils are](#)
804 [drained only wherever tree cover loss, organic soils, and planted trees \(Richter et al. 2024\) coincide. Future](#)
805 [improvements could include expanding the proxies used to map for organic soil drainage, as well as including](#)
806 [emissions from extraction of organic soils.](#)

807 Additionally, opportunities remain to compare GFW model emissions and removals with NGHGs, bookkeeping models, and
808 regional or local data (e.g., Araza et al. 2023, Heinrich et al. 2023b). Such work would further our understanding of the
809 complementary roles of Earth observation-based forest carbon models and other approaches to forest flux monitoring.

810 **5 Data and code availability**

811 Gross emissions, gross removals, and net flux are available for download as 10x10 degree geotifs in 0.00025x0.00025-degree
812 resolution. [Data that correspond to the model version presented in this publication are as follows: g](#)Gross emissions [files](#) (Gibbs
813 et al. 2024a) ~~are at <https://doi.org/10.7910/DVN/LNPSGP>;~~ <https://doi.org/10.7910/DVN/LNPSGP/> [G](#)gross removals [files](#)
814 (Gibbs et al. 2024b) ~~are at <https://doi.org/10.7910/DVN/V2ISRH>;~~ <https://doi.org/10.7910/DVN/V2ISRH/> [N](#) net flux [files](#) (Gibbs et al. 2024c) ~~are at~~
815 <https://doi.org/10.7910/DVN/TVZVBI>. [Data are also available as assets on Google Earth Engine at](#)
816 <https://code.earthengine.google.com/ae55707e335894d7be515386195390d2>. Note that more recent versions of these datasets
817 [may be available from \[www.globalforestwatch.org\]\(http://www.globalforestwatch.org\).](#) ~~Data are also available as assets on Google Earth Engine at~~
818 <https://code.earthengine.google.com/ae55707e335894d7be515386195390d2>. ~~Code is available at~~
819 <https://github.com/wri/carbon-budget>.

820 **6 Conclusion**

821 The updated Earth observation-based GFW forest carbon flux framework continues to show a substantial net sink for CO₂ in
822 forests globally, while also reporting ~~sizeable~~ gross emissions over half as large as gross removals since 2001⁹. This highlights
823 ongoing opportunities to protect the forest carbon sink across a broad area and also reduce emissions from forest loss, especially
824 in hotspots of emissions that are discernable with our geospatial framework. The revised uncertainty analysis—with its
825 dramatic reduction in uncertainty in gross removals—demonstrates the importance of refining forest carbon sequestration rate
826 estimates. The flexibility of the model supports analyses at a range of spatial scales, while its operational nature means it can
827 incorporate new and existing Earth observation products and provide timely maps and data. Our translation of the GFW
828 model's fluxes into the reporting framework that NGHGs use ~~—~~ [following the recommendations of a recent IPCC expert](#)
829 [meeting on reconciling land use emissions \(IPCC 2024\)](#) ~~—~~ provides another lens through which to look at country-level, land-
830 based climate mitigation and is a resource for national policymakers interested in timely, spatial data on land fluxes. It also
831 demonstrates the two approaches' ability to improve, assess, and potentially confirm each other. Ultimately, confidence and

832 transparency are needed in assessments of progress towards the Paris Agreement, and Earth observation-based forest carbon
833 models are another tool to build consensus.

834 **Author contributions**

835 NH and DAG conceived the model updates, and DG and MR executed the model updates. DAG executed the updated
836 uncertainty analysis. GG, SR, and JM created the national greenhouse gas inventory data set, and MR and GG compared it to
837 the GFW model. VH contributed to the translation of the GFW model for Brazil. DAG led manuscript preparation with
838 contributions from all co-authors.

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1120 **Table A1. Comparison of forest carbon fluxes in Annex 1 countries, Non-Annex 1 countries, and globally between the GFW flux**
 1121 **model and national greenhouse gas inventories (NGHGs).** Ranges in reported GFW values here come from two different scenarios: one
 1122 scenario where emissions from shifting agriculture in secondary forests is included in forest land, while the other scenario includes all
 1123 emissions from shifting agriculture in deforestation. [Results from the GFW model are for CO₂ fluxes only and NGHGI results have also](#)
 1124 [been limited to CO₂ fluxes except for a few developing countries where non-CO₂ emissions could not be separated.](#)

	Net flux in forest land (Gt CO ₂ yr ⁻¹)		Deforestation emissions (Gt CO ₂ e yr ⁻¹)		Net anthropogenic forest flux (Gt CO ₂ e yr ⁻¹)		Non-anthropogenic forest flux (Gt CO ₂ e yr ⁻¹)	
	GFW	NGHGI	GFW	NGHGI	GFW	NGHGI	GFW	NGHGI
Annex 1 countries	-3.1- -3.1	-2.3	-0.046- 0.049	0.55	-3.0	-1.8	-0.34	N/A
Non-Annex 1 countries	-3.7- -5.5	-4.2	-3.3- 5.0	4.5	-0.46	0.2	-1.8	N/A
Global	-6.8- -8.5	-6.6	-3.3- 5.0	5.0	-3.5	-1.6	-2.2	N/A
	<u>Net flux in forest land (Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹)</u>		<u>Deforestation emissions (Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹)</u>		<u>Net anthropogenic forest flux (Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹)</u>		<u>Non-anthropogenic forest flux (Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹)</u>	
	<u>GFW</u>	<u>NGHGI</u>	<u>GFW</u>	<u>NGHGI</u>	<u>GFW</u>	<u>NGHGI</u>	<u>GFW</u>	<u>NGHGI</u>
Annex 1 countries	-3.2- -3.2	-2.3	-0.046- 0.049	0.55	-3.0	-1.8	-0.34	N/A
Non-Annex 1 countries	-3.7- -5.5	-4.2	-3.3- 5.0	4.5	-0.46	0.2	-1.8	N/A

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<u>Global</u>	<u>-6.9</u> <u>-8.6</u>	<u>-6.6</u>	<u>3.3</u> <u>5.0</u>	<u>5.0</u>	<u>-3.6</u>	<u>-1.5</u>	<u>-2.2</u>	<u>N/A</u>
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