1 Tree height integrated into pan-tropical forest biomass

2 estimates

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114

116 Abstract

117 Above-ground tropical tree biomass and carbon storage estimates commonly ignore tree 118 height. We estimate the effect of incorporating height (*H*) on forest biomass estimates using 119 37,625 concomitant *H* and diameter measurements (n=327 plots) and 1816 harvested trees 120 (n=21 plots) tropics-wide to answer the following questions:

- 121 1) For trees of known biomass (from destructive harvests) which *H*-model form and 122 geographic scale (plot, region, and continent) most reduces biomass estimate 123 uncertainty?
- 124 2) How much does including *H* relationship estimates derived in (1) reduce uncertainty in
 125 biomass estimates across 327 plots spanning four continents?
- 3) What effect does the inclusion of *H* in biomass estimates have on plot- and continental-scale forest biomass estimates?

128 The mean relative error in biomass estimates of the destructively harvested trees was half 129 (mean 0.06) when including H, compared to excluding H (mean 0.13). The power- and 130 Weibull-*H* asymptotic model provided the greatest reduction in uncertainty, with the regional 131 Weibull-H model preferred because it reduces uncertainty in smaller-diameter classes that 132 contain the bulk of biomass per hectare in most forests. Propagating the relationships from 133 destructively harvested tree biomass to each of the 327 plots from across the tropics shows errors are reduced from 41.8 Mg ha⁻¹ (range 6.6 to 112.4) to 8.0 Mg ha⁻¹ (-2.5 to 23.0) when 134 including H. For all plots, above-ground live biomass was 52.2 ± 17.3 Mg ha⁻¹ lower when 135 136 including H estimates (13%), with the greatest reductions in estimated biomass in Brazilian Shield forests and relatively no change in the Guyana Shield, central Africa and southeast 137 138 Asia. We show fundamentally different stand structure across the four forested tropical 139 continents, which affects biomass reductions due to H. African forests store a greater portion 140 of total biomass in large-diameter trees and trees are on average larger in diameter. This 141 contrasts to forests on all other continents where smaller-diameter trees contain the greatest 142 fractions of total biomass. After accounting for variation in H, total biomass per hectare is 143 greatest in Australia, the Guyana Shield, and Asia and lowest in W. Africa, W. Amazonia, 144 and the Brazilian Shield (descending order). Thus, if closed canopy tropical forests span 1668 million km^2 and store 285 Pg C, then the overestimate is 35 Pg C if H is ignored, and the 145 146 sampled plots are an unbiased statistical representation of all tropical forest in terms of 147 biomass and height factors. Our results show that tree H is an important allometric factor that 148 needs to be included in future forest biomass estimates to reduce error in estimates of 149 pantropical carbon stocks and emissions due to deforestation.

151 **1 Introduction**

152 Accurate estimates of tropical tree biomass are essential to determine geographic patterns in 153 carbon stocks, the magnitudes of fluxes due to land-use change, and to quantify how much 154 carbon has not been emitted via mechanisms such as REDD+ (Reducing Emissions from 155 Deforestation and forest Degradation). Global estimates of tree carbon in tropical forests vary 156 between 40 to 50% of the total carbon in terrestrial vegetation (Watson et al., 2000; 157 Kindermann et al., 2008), indicating considerable uncertainty. Such uncertainty is consequent on the complex process that links individual tree measurements to large-scale patterns of 158 159 carbon distribution, as well as definition as to what constitutes "forest." The accurate 160 estimation of tree-, plot-level or regional global mass of tropical trees requires first harvesting 161 and weighing trees (Fittkau and Klinge, 1973), and subsequently estimating biomass on a 162 larger population by measuring tree stem diameter (D) and converting D to biomass based on 163 allometric equations developed using the destructive harvest data (Brown et al., 1989; 164 Overman et al., 1994; Ogawa et al., 1965).

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166 Biomass can also be estimated using active (e.g. radar) and passive (e.g. Landsat) remote 167 sensing-based methods (e.g. Drake et al., 2003; Steininger, 2000; Mitchard et al., 2011). 168 Nevertheless, these all require plot-based biomass estimates derived from stem diameter 169 measurements and allometric equations (either calibrated "on-site" or from the literature to 170 "ground-truth" data (e.g. Lucas et al., 2002; Mitchard et al., 2009)) and have large 171 uncertainty. For example, carbon stock estimates for Amazonia based on spatial 172 interpolations of direct measurements, relationships to climatic variables, and remote sensing 173 data vary by a factor of two (Houghton et al., 2001) due to allometric models and different 174 representations of the spatial extent of forest type and associated biomass.

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The most widely used allometric equation for tropical forest biomass estimates are based on ~1300 harvested and weighed moist forest trees (Chave et al., 2005; Chambers et al., 2001), and with no biomass data from Africa included. The small sample size and geographical limits of this dataset are due to the tremendous efforts required to work in remote forests dissecting and determining mass of trees, some of which may weigh over 20 Mg. Such a lack of calibration data may bias estimates of carbon stocks in tropical forests (Houghton et al., 2000; Malhi et al., 2004). One major uncertainty in carbon stock estimates is related to architectural differences in tropical trees. For example, across plots, regions and continents there is significant and systematic variation in tropical forest tree height (*H*) for a given diameter (Feldpausch et al., 2011). This applies both to multispecies equations and to those restricted to individual species (Nogueira et al., 2008b). Hence, accounting for *H*:*D* allometry may reduce uncertainty associated with tropical forest biomass estimates from plot to pantropical scales.

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190 Improving the accuracy of such estimates is important as almost all tropical forest regions of 191 the world are currently undergoing major changes which must inevitably involve changes in 192 their biomass and carbon stocks. For example, it is now apparent that many remaining intact 193 tropical forests are not at carbon equilibrium, but rather are accumulating biomass (Lewis et al., 2009; Phillips et al., 1998), but an accurate quantification of this pantropical sink hinges 194 195 on, amongst other factors, unbiased biomass estimates for individual trees. Similarly, 196 quantifying changes in global carbon stocks and emissions where much of the active 197 deforestation occurs (e.g. arc of deforestation in Brazil, INPE, 2009) can be overestimated 198 when ignoring the effect of tree H in biomass estimates, because trees tend to be shorter trees 199 for a given H in transitional forests where the most active deforestation fronts often occur 200 (Nogueira et al., 2008b). As a result, carbon emissions from tropical deforestation (INPE, 201 2009) may be biased. More generally, incorporation of H in biomass estimates may help to 202 account for variation in carbon stocks and could represent potential changes in calculated 203 carbon emissions under deforestation (INPE, 2009), selective logging (Pinard and Putz, 1996; 204 Feldpausch et al., 2005), sinks caused by forest regrowth (Uhl and Jordan, 1984; Feldpausch 205 et al., 2004) and carbon valuation under Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and 206 Degradation (REDD) (Aragao and Shimabukuro, 2010; Asner et al., 2010; Gibbs et al., 207 2007).

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Along with wood specific gravity (ρ_W) (Baker et al., 2004b), tree *H* has already been incorporated into some regional and pantropical forest biomass models (Brown et al., 1989; Chave et al., 2005). Biomass estimation is then based on a four-step process:

212 i) measure individual tree *D*;

213 ii) estimate ρ_W at the finest taxonomic level available from ρ_W databases (Chave et al., 214 2009; Fearnside, 1997); 215 iii) measure or estimate H from allometric models based on the relationship between H216 and D alone (Brown et al., 1989) or with additional forest structure and climate 217 variables to parameterise H estimates (Feldpausch et al., 2011);

- 218 iv) use these data to calculate biomass for individual trees from allometric equations 219 based on D, ρ_W , and H.
- 220

Wood specific gravity is highly variable across regions and is a key determinant of largerscale tree biomass spatial patterns (Baker et al., 2004b; Chave et al., 2006), and therefore accounting for it holds a central role in reducing uncertainty in biomass estimates. Despite the early recognition of the importance of H in biomass estimates (Crow, 1978; Ogawa et al., 1965), in practice H has less frequently been accounted for in pantropical biomass estimates due to lack of data.

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Nevertheless, where data have been available inclusion of *H* has been shown to appreciably reduce errors in the estimation of destructively sampled biomass. For example, the standard error in estimating stand biomass for a destructively sampled dataset of trees $\geq 10 \text{ mm } D$ was 12.5% if an equation including *H* was used, but 20% if an equation ignoring *H* (but calibrated on the same dataset) was applied (Chave et al., 2005). This same study showed that *H* was more important than a precipitation-based forest categorisation (dry, moist, wet) in more accurately estimating biomass.

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236 Thus, allometric model choice, rather than sampling error or plot size, may be the most 237 important source of error in estimating biomass (Chave et al., 2004). With the pantropical 238 destructive biomass dataset sample size restricted by sampling cost and effort, H estimates 239 from regional or continental-scale H:D models may provide a simple way to improve 240 aboveground biomass estimates. Selection of the "best" model form to represent H in 241 biomass models is, however, not straightforward with numerous statistical forms, 242 geographical and environmental parameterisations, separations by growth form (etc) having 243 been tested (e.g., Fang and Bailey, 1998; Feldpausch et al., 2011; Rich et al., 1986; Thomas 244 and Bazzaz, 1999; Banin et al., 2012). In a global tropical analysis using multi-level models 245 to examine the relationship between H and diameter, Feldpausch et al. (2011) found that after 246 taking into account the effects of environment (annual precipitation coefficient of variation, 247 dry season length, and mean annual air temperature) and forest basal area, there to be two

248 main regional groups differing in their H:D relationships. Forests in Asia, Africa and the Guyana Shield are all similar in their H:D allometry, but with trees in the forests of much of 249 250 the Amazon Basin and tropical Australia typically being shorter at any given diameter. Using 251 an overlapping but different dataset, Banin et al, (2012) showed significantly different H:D 252 allometry on all four continents, after accounting for differences in environment, forest 253 structure and wood specific gravity. These results suggest that either continental, or sub-254 continental geographic H:D patterns may, in addition to model form, be important in 255 reducing error in biomass estimates.

256

Here, using the largest available dataset of tree H, destructive biomass data (i.e. actual tree biomass is known) and pantropical permanent plot data (where information on H and D is known, but not the true biomass of a plot), we provide a first pantropical evaluation of the effects of H on biomass estimates, including by geographical location (plot, region, and continent). Specifically, we address the following questions:

- Which is the best *H*-model form and geographic scale for inclusion in biomass models to
 significantly reduce site-level uncertainty in estimates of *destructive* biomass?
- 264 2) What is the reduction in uncertainty in plot-level biomass estimates based on census data265 from *permanent plots* across the tropics?
- 3) How does inclusion of *H* in biomass estimation protocols modify plot- and continental-level biomass estimates across the tropics?
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269 **2** Methods

270 We developed above-ground forest biomass estimates and evaluated biases using tree 271 diameter (D), wood specific gravity ($\rho_{\rm W}$) and H based on destructive sampling and 272 permanent-plot census data. This assessment was based on the following steps, (1) compiled 273 pantropical destructive biomass, tree H, and permanent sample plot census data, (2) 274 computed new pantropical biomass models that include or exclude tree H, (3) develop H275 models, (4) used the destructive data to evaluate the effect of inclusion or exclusion of actual 276 or simulated H in biomass estimates, (5) apply the new biomass models and error estimate 277 from destructive biomass estimates to pantropical plot-based tree census data to (6) determine 278 how biomass estimates change when including H_{1} (7) determine the error associated with 279 biomass estimates for pantropical permanent plots, (8) assess regional and continental 280 changes in biomass estimates due to *H* integration in biomass estimates.

282 Destructive biomass data was compiled from published and non-published data from 21 plots 283 in 10 countries (described below). H and D measurements are identical to those in 284 Feldpausch et al. (2011). The tree census data reported here (Figure 1; SI Table S1) are from permanent sample plots primarily from the RAINFOR (Peacock et al., 2007; Baker et al., 285 286 2004a; Phillips et al., 2009) and AfriTRON (Lewis et al., 2009) networks across South 287 America and Africa respectively, the TROBIT network of forest-savanna transition sites 288 (Torello-Raventos et al., in review), the CSIRO network in Australia (Graham, 2006), and 289 data from Asia (Banin, 2010) curated in the www.forestplots.net data repository (Lopez-Gonzalez et al., 2011). In addition, for each plot, mean annual precipitation, annual 290 291 precipitation coefficient of variation, and dry season length were obtained from WorldClim 292 global coverage at 2.5 minute resolution based on meteorological station data from 1950-293 2000 (Hijmans, Cameron, Parra, Jones, & Jarvis, 2005).

294

295 [Figure 1]

296

297 2.1 The destructive dataset

298 To determine the efficacy of biomass models to predict biomass, we assembled a 299 destructively sampled tree biomass dataset (n=1816 trees) based on actual cut and weighed 300 tropical forest trees (Chave et al., 2005; Nogueira et al., 2008a; Hozumi et al., 1969; Araújo et al., 1999; Mackensen et al., 2000; Brown et al., 1995; Lescure et al., 1983; Yamakura et 301 302 al., 1986; Djomo et al., 2010; Henry et al., 2010; Deans et al., 1996; Ebuy et al., 2011; 303 Samalca, 2007). We hereafter refer to this as the "destructive data." The destructive data are 304 pantropical but with relatively few samples from Africa (n=116). The main differences between the dataset used by Chave et al. (2005) are that we excluded mangrove and 305 306 subtropical biomass data from Chave et al. (2005) from our analysis; and, we included new 307 destructive biomass datasets from Africa (Ghana, the Democratic Republic of Congo, and 308 Cameroon) (Djomo et al., 2010; Henry et al., 2010; Deans et al., 1996; Ebuy et al., 2011), 309 Kalimantan, Indonesia (Samalca, 2007) and Brazil (Nogueira et al., 2008a). To classify sites, 310 climate data for the destructive dataset were extracted from the WorldClim data based on plot 311 coordinates. For the destructive site data, mean annual precipitation ranged from 1520 to 312 2873 mm, dry season length 0 to 6 months, D from 1.2 to 1800 mm, and H from 1.9 to 70.7 313 m.

315

2.2 Tree height measurements

316 Tree height (H) had been previously measured at many of the permanent census plots from 317 each of the four continents. Methodology and sites are specified in Feldpausch et al. (2011). 318 To summarise the methods, in general a minimum of 50 trees per plot were sampled for H319 (total tree *H* above the ground) from 100 mm binned diameter classes (*i.e.*, 100 to 200, >200 320 to 300, > 300 to 400 mm, and > 400 mm). For some plots every tree was measured for H. 321 Tree H was measured using Vertex hypsometers (Vertex Laser VL400 Ultrasonic-Laser 322 Hypsometer III, Haglöf Sweden), laser range-finders (e.g. LaserAce 300, LaserAce 323 Hypsometer, Leica Disto-5), mechanical clinometers, physically climbing the tree with a tape 324 measure, or by destructive methods. To examine how tree architectural properties related to 325 stem D, independent of external factors such as trees damaged by treefalls, trees known to be 326 broken or with substantial crown damage were excluded from analyses.

327

328 **Biomass calculations** 2.3

329 Above-ground biomass of trees for each destructively sampled site or permanent sample plot was calculated from a combination of variables. Wood specific gravity, ρ_W , was extracted 330 331 from a global database ((Zanne et al., 2010); data dryad database). Where species-specific 332 values were unavailable, we applied genus-level values. Likewise when genus-level values 333 were missing, we applied family level values. Where tree identification was lacking, we 334 applied the mean $\rho_{\rm W}$ from all stems in the plot. Based on the moist forest biomass model form 335 proposed by Chave et al. (2005), we developed bootstrapped biomass model (1) as described 336 below to estimate biomass based on either just the measured diameter and estimated $\rho_{\rm W}$ (i.e., 337 excluding tree *H*) using the model form:

338

339
$$B = \exp(a + b\ln(D) + c(\ln(D))^2 - d(\ln(D))^3 + e\ln(\rho_W)),$$
(1)

340

341 Alternatively, using a range of *H*:*D* allometric models developed by Feldpausch *et al.* (2011) 342 we inferred H and then used that inferred value in a bootstrapped biomass model (2) based on 343 the form proposed by Chave et al. (2005) as described below. The model parameterisation, 344 which includes H in addition to diameter and $\rho_{\rm W}$ is:

346
$$B = \exp(a + b\ln(\rho_{\rm W} D^2 H))$$

348 **2.4** Biomass error estimation with and without height

349 From the destructive dataset, we evaluated the ability of a range of models to estimate 350 biomass (kg) from a combination of D and $\rho_{\rm W}$, or D, $\rho_{\rm W}$ and H, also examining error 351 distributions across diameter classes and sites. To develop the H:D allometric relationships 352 for inclusion in biomass models we used *H* measurements for individual trees made in 283 353 plots in 22 countries representing 39,955 individual concurrent H and D measurements. 354 Because the global destructive tree biomass dataset is small compared to this and with the 355 distribution of trees in the destructive dataset is not necessarily similar to biomass/size 356 distribution of a natural forest, we applied a three-step approach to scale biomass estimates 357 and their associated errors from the destructive dataset to permanent plots and landscape.

358

(i) When biomass models included *H*, we recomputed the regional and continental *H* models
of Feldpausch et al. (2011) to test for their efficacy to reduce error in biomass estimates.
These *H* models were either a non-linear 3-parameter exponential (Fang and Bailey, 1998) *viz*:

As there is good evidence of a large difference between different geographical areas in *H:D* allometry (Feldpausch et al., 2011), we derived region- and continent-specific parameterisations for each *H:D* equation and report the residual standard error and Akaike Information Criterion for the selected models (Akaike, 1974). We then tested how these parameterisations of *H* increased or decreased biomass estimates.

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380 To test the effect of the inclusion of *H* estimates on biomass estimates, we computed a (ii) 381 biomass model of all sites with destructively harvested trees, except the site which we 382 wished to estimate. We then estimated the biomass of the trees in the site that was 383 excluded from the model. We them repeated dropping a different single site each time. 384 For each dropped site, the mean relative error in estimated biomass was calculated for a site, where relative error was represented as: $(B_P - B_M)/B_M$, where B_P is the predicted 385 biomass of a tree (with or without H model) and B_M is the biomass measured by 386 387 destructive sampling of individual trees.

388

389 (iii) To evaluate how the error from the destructive dataset relate to the distribution of 390 trees found in pantropical forests, we estimated biomass for 327 plots from the forest 391 permanent-plot database as described above by locale for tree-diameter classes, providing 392 a biomass distribution by diameter class for each geographic locale (note that the 393 destructive data come from "sites"—sample areas that may not have defined boundaries— 394 while the permanent plot data come from defined-area sample "plots"). We then 395 propagated error from (ii) from the destructive dataset to each diameter bin by 396 geographical location and report the mean relative error for each region. The log-397 transformation of tree D and biomass data produces a bias in final biomass estimation so 398 that uncorrected biomass estimates are theoretically expected to underestimate the real 399 value (Sprugel, 1983; Baskerville, 1972). This effect can be corrected by multiplying the 400 estimate by a correction factor:

401

$$402 C_F = \exp(\frac{RSE^2}{2}) (6)$$

403

which is always a number greater than 1, and where RSE is the residual standard error ofthe regression model.

407 2.5 Permanent plot tree census data

To determine how H integration alters biomass estimates and affects error in biomass 408 409 estimates, we compiled a pantropical dataset of permanent sample plots (Supplemental 410 Information Table S1). All plots occur in intact (minimal recent direct anthropogenic 411 influence) forest, with a minimum plot size of 0.2 ha (mean = 0.95; max = 9 ha), area using 412 standardised sampling methodologies across all sites. Diameters of all live trees and palms (> 413 100 mm diameter at breast height (D)) were measured to the nearest 1 mm at 1.3 m above the 414 ground or 0.5 m above any buttresses or stilt-roots following international standards of 415 permanent sampling plot protocol (Phillips et al., 2010). Trees were identified by a local botanist. For unknown species, vouchers were collected, later identified and archived. Plots 416 417 were only included if some tree H information was available. This ranges from every tree to 418 just 4% of trees in a plot measured for *H*.

419

420 2.5.1 Africa

421 Censused permanent sample plots were grouped into three geographical regions: Western, 422 Eastern and Central Africa. Measurements were made in West Africa in Ghana and Liberia 423 (Lewis et al. 2009). Central African sites were sampled in central and southern Cameroon, 424 and Gabon (Lewis et al. 2009). Eastern African sites were established in the Eastern Arc 425 Mountains of Tanzania (Marshall et al., in review). The number of months with precipitation 426 < 100 mm per month, the estimated average monthly evapotranspiration of a tropical forest 427 (Shuttleworth, 1988) and a widely used index of dry season length (Malhi and Wright, 2004), 428 varies from 1 to 7 months across all sites.

429

430 2.5.2 Asia

We classified forests in Asia as one region for this study, with the division between Asian
and Australasian plots according to Lydekker's line (Lohman et al., 2011). Wet and moist
forests were sampled in Brunei and Malaysian Borneo (Banin, 2010; Banin et al., 2012).
These sites have zero months with mean precipitation < 100 mm per month.

436 2.5.3 Australasia

Trees were sampled in tropical forest permanent plots in northern Australia (Graham, 2006;
Torello-Raventos et al., in review). Precipitation varies over very short distance from coastal
to inland sites, with the dry season ranging from 4 to 10 months.

440

441 2.5.4 South America

442 Tree censuses conducted in South America are here grouped into four regions based on 443 geography and substrate origin: Western Amazonia (Colombia, Ecuador and Peru), with soils 444 mostly originating from recently weathered Andean deposits (Quesada et al., 2009); Southern 445 Amazonia encompassing the Brazilian shield (Bolivia and Brazil); on the opposite side of the 446 Basin to the north the Guyana shield (Guyana, French Guiana, Venezuela), and Eastern-447 Central Amazonia (Brazil) which is mostly comprised of old sedimentary substrates derived 448 from the other three regions. The number of months with precipitation < 100 mm per month 449 ranges from 0 to 9 months.

450

451 **2.6** Patterns and revision of biomass and carbon stocks

452 Spatial patterns in plot-level biomass estimates with and without *H* were examined by region 453 and continent. Plot-level biomass estimates with and without H were averaged by each 454 region. Based on the regional tropical forest area estimates of broadleaf deciduous open and closed and evergreen tree cover classification from GLC2000 (Global Land Cover Map 455 2000)(Bartholomé and Belward, 2005) reclassified in ArcGIS® (ESRI, 2010), we scaled 456 regional biomass estimates tropics-wide. Our estimates of tropical forest are lower than those 457 458 reported by Mayaux et al. (2005) since we excluded the more open vegetation classes. Biomass was converted to carbon values using a conversion factor of 0.5 (Chave et al., 2005). 459 460 Statistical analyses were conducted using the R statistical platform (R Development Core 461 Team 2011). Biomass and *H* models were developed using the lme and nlme functions of 462 R (Pinheiro et al., 2011).

463

464 **3 Results**

465 Using our expanded pantropical destructive biomass dataset (Figure 2a), we first examine 466 how estimates of real (destructive) biomass data using boot-strapped biomass models (Table 467 1) are affected by different H model forms and regional or continental parameterisations by examining the relative error by diameter bin (Figure 2b) and overall bias in biomass estimates 468 469 by destructively sampled site (Table 2). We next examine how the selected H models (Table 470 3) affect biomass estimates (Figure 3) and uncertainty (Figure 4) as a result of regional 471 variation in forest structure (SI Table S2) and distribution of biomass among diameter classes 472 for trees measured in pantropical permanent sample plots (SI Table S1), and finally 473 extrapolating our results to assess the influence of incorporating variations in H:D allometry 474 on regional/continental and global biomass estimates (Table 4 and 5).

475

476 3.1 How much does the inclusion of height reduce uncertainty in destructive477 biomass estimates?

478 The distribution of destructively sampled above-ground tree dry mass from the available 479 pantropical dataset was roughly equally sampled across the 50 mm increment diameter 480 classes from 250 mm < D < 500 mm but, although involving many more individual trees, 481 somewhat less for D < 250 mm (Figure 2a). Although relatively few trees had been sampled for large diameter classes (e.g. 17 trees \geq 1000 mm diameter), these larger trees clearly 482 483 accounted for a significant proportion of the total biomass to be simulated within the dataset. 484 The biomass in Figure 2a represents the nearly 1500 Mg of biomass destructively sampled to 485 date in moist tropical forest which we use to assess the effect of H in biomass estimates. 486 Some of these data have been used in the parameterisation of currently used pantropical 487 biomass models (e.g. Chave et al., 2005), but with newly published data from Africa, Asia, 488 and Brazil included in our analysis.

489

491

492 3.1.1 Measured heights

The effect of the inclusion of *H* using the biomass model forms of Chave et al. (2005) as applied to our dataset are presented in Table 1, where our allometric equations both with and without *H* included (i.e. Eq. 1 and Eq. 2) are compared. This shows that applying Eq. 1 (which excludes *H*) resulted in a considerably higher residual standard error (RSE) and Akaike information criteria (AIC) estimates than for when *H* was included (Eq. 2).

^{490 [}Figure 2]

499 3.1.2 Simulated heights

500 The effects of substituting estimates of H from Eqs. 3-5 into Eq. 2 are shown in Table 2. The 501 inclusion of *H* improved site-level estimates of aboveground biomass, bringing them closer to 502 the known destructive harvest values, with a relative error of, e.g. 0.06 for both the Weibull-503 H region and continent-specific H models (Table 2). Excluding H tended to produce overestimated aboveground biomass estimates, with a relative error of 0.13. Regionally 504 505 derived H estimates were non-significantly better than continental scale-derived H estimates 506 at predicting site-level biomass (table 2) Overall, the Weibull model outperformed the other 507 two function forms of H:D relationships (Table 2). Thus the best performance was obtained 508 by including Weibull regional-specific *H* models (Table 2).

509

510 [Table 2]

511

512 Specifically, the Weibull-H (Eq. 5) (Table 3) consistently reduced the relative error in 513 biomass estimates over all diameter classes as compared to the non-H estimates. This 514 contrasted with the power-H model (Eq. 4) which, although reducing error even further in 515 some diameter classes, had greater error for other diameter classes, even than those derived 516 from Eq. 1 which excludes H (Figure 2b), The power model also had greater error for small 517 diameter classes.

518

520

521 **3.2** Improving biomass estimates from permanent sample plots

522 3.2.1 Effect of including height in biomass estimates

523 Integration of the region-specific Weibull-*H*, on average, reduced estimated biomass per plot 524 (\hat{B}) relative to excluding *H* in biomass estimates, on average by -52.2±17.3 Mg dry mass ha⁻¹ 525 (Figure 1b; Figure 3; Table 4). As shown by the cumulative biomass curves in Figure 3, 526 including *H* in biomass estimates did not affect all regions equally. For South America, 527 including *H* reduced biomass estimates for all regions except the Guyana Shield (by -55.9, -

^{519 [}Table 3]

528 66.6, and -47.9 Mg ha⁻¹ for the Brazilian Shield, east-central Amazonia and western 529 Amazonia, respectively). East and West Africa, and Northern Australia also had lower 530 biomass estimates when including H (-13.5, -107.9, -116.5 Mg ha-1, respectively) Southeast 531 Asia and central Africa showed no change in biomass estimates when including H. No region 532 had significantly higher biomass estimates after including H (see Supplemental Information, 533 Table S1, for Δ biomass estimates for all 327 plots).

534

535 3.2.2 Global differences in biomass distribution and tropical forest structure

536 There were appreciable differences in the biomass distribution among diameter classes reflecting strong regional and continental patterns (Figure 3). On average, biomass was found 537 538 to be concentrated in the smaller diameter-classes for South America, Australia and, to some 539 extent in Asia, than was the case the forests in Africa, which show a distinct biomass 540 distribution. Specifically the latter have a greater contribution to biomass from larger diameter trees, as shown by the linear cumulative biomass curves in Figure 3. Regions that 541 542 have the largest average diameter trees also have the lowest stem density (SI Table S2); 543 however, it is not always the case that regions with on average larger diameter trees have 544 higher biomass per hectare. The largest plot-level mean tree diameter for Africa (246 mm) 545 was larger than for the other continents (216 to 236 mm); stem density, however, was higher 546 on other continents compared to Africa (SI Table S2).

547

548 [Table 4]

550

It is because of the skewed biomass distributions of Figure 3 with a concentration of biomass in smaller diameter classes that in Sect 3.1 we chose of the Weibull-*H* model, which has lower relative error in small diameter classes (in contrast to the power-*H* model and threeparameter exponential model), and therefore has the greatest plot-level effect in reducing uncertainty. After accounting for regional tree *H* differences, total biomass per hectare is thus estimated to be greatest in Australia, the Guyana Shield, and Asia and lowest in W. Africa, W. Amazonia, and the Brazilian Shield (descending order) (Table 5).

^{549 [}Figure 3]

3.2.3 Estimating effects of *H* on errors in permanent sample plot biomassestimates

561 To estimate error in permanent plots due to error in destructive measurements, we multiplied 562 the relative error from the diameter bin from the small sample of destructive measurements for the Weibull-H model (Eqs. 2 and 5) as shown in Figure 2b by the biomass of the 563 564 equivalent size-class in each pantropical permanent plots. This relative error in pantropical field-based plots was greater when the same procedure was undertaken for the 'no-H' Eq. 1 565 (Figure 4). Specifically, by including H, the error in estimates is reduced in small diameter-566 567 classes, but not large diameter-classes. This is because of the increasing absolute errors of the 568 Weibull-*H* model for the larger trees. The mean error in biomass estimates for all regions when including Weibull-*H* in biomass estimates was an overestimate of 8.0 Mg ha⁻¹; a value 569 considerably less than the calculated overestimate of 41.8 Mg ha⁻¹ when H was excluded 570 (Figure 4). The alternative two H models of Eqs. 3 and 4 were also tested and found to 571 underestimate biomass by -8.2 and -5.5 Mg ha⁻¹, respectively. Overall, inclusion of Weibull-572 H (Eq. 5) in biomass estimates for tropical forest plots resulted in a smaller mean bias in 573 574 biomass estimates compared to when H was omitted. Specifically the bias with H included ranged from 6 to 9.5 Mg ha⁻¹ (South America), 10.1 to 10.6 Mg ha⁻¹ (Asia and Australia), and 575 5.3 to 7.3 Mg ha⁻¹ (Africa), as compared to estimation without H, which had biases of 28.6 to 576 47.2 Mg ha⁻¹ (South America), 48.9 to 63.2 Mg ha⁻¹ (Asia and Australia), and 40.5 to 49.4 577 Mg ha^{-1} (Africa) (Figure 4). 578

579

580 [Figure 4]

581

582 **3.3 Effect on global carbon estimates**

Based on published estimates of tropical forest area (GLC2000), and biomass and carbon estimated in our permanent plot networks, we have calculated the change in regional and continental above-ground live tree carbon stocks due to integration of H in biomass models. Using GLC2000 (Bartholomé and Belward, 2005) tropical forest categories and mean carbon storage in each region from the plot data, the tropical Americas had the largest relative reduction (-0.14) in estimated carbon storage due to H, and with Asia (-0.02) the smallest. Inclusion of region-specific H models to estimate carbon reduced tropics-wide estimates of total carbon in tropical forests from 320 to 285 Pg C, a reduction of 35.2 PgC, or 13%,
relative to when *H* was included (Table 5).

592

593 [Table 5]

594

595 **4 Discussion**

We show that (1) including H significantly improves the accuracy of estimation of tropical 596 597 forest aboveground biomass, (2) failing to include H usually causes an overestimate of 598 biomass, (3) such overestimates can have globally significant implications, with one estimate 599 being that carbon storage in tropical forests may be overestimated by 13%, and; finally (4) we 600 recommend continental or regional-specific asymptotic Weibull H:D functions to be included 601 in future estimates of biomass to reduce uncertainty in aboveground biomass estimates in 602 tropical forests. Below, we discuss some of the sources of variability in biomass and Hestimates, limitations of these models and implications for pantropical scaling and carbon 603 604 valuation under REDD.

605

606 **4.1 Compensating for imperfect biomass models**

607 4.1.1 Representing height in biomass estimates

608 In this study we selected the H model based on the region-specific parameterisation of the 609 Weibull-H (Eq. 5) model because it reduced error in estimating biomass for the smaller 610 diameter classes (Figure 2b), and with these classes constituting the bulk of the plot-level 611 biomass (Figure 3). Although the Weibull-H form is less than ideal for trees 800-1000 mm 612 diameter, the three-parameter exponential (Eq. 3) and power-H models (Eq. 4) were not 613 significantly better biomass estimators for the largest trees (Fig. 2b). This may be because 614 the parameterisation of the Weibull-H model should theoretically account for some of the 615 asymptotic nature of tree growth more than the power or 3-parameter-exponential-H model 616 (Banin et al. 2012). In general, however, asymptotic H is not as universal as may expected 617 among species growing in tropical forest (Poorter et al., 2006; Chave et al., 2003; Davies et 618 al., 1998; Thomas, 1996; Iida et al., 2011), where only one-fourth of species in sites sampled 619 in Bolivia did reach an asymptote (Poorter et al., 2006). Unlike the power model, the 3-620 parameter-exponential-H and Weibull function for tree H have an additional biologically

621 meaningful parameter, with a term for maximum tree height (*hmax*) here being applied at the 622 plot, regional, or continental (as opposed to species) level, and it is for this reason the hmax 623 should be interpreted carefully. For example, in the study here, the Weibull-H model 624 converged on a *hmax* of >200 m for the Brazilian Shield of Amazonia, an unrealistic tree H. 625 This model, however, gives an estimate of 11 and 47 m for trees of 100 and 1600 mm 626 diameter, respectively, demonstrating that although the model provides realistic values, use of 627 *hmax* alone to describe stand properties could give spurious interpretations. For some forests, 628 the power-*H* model provides a better fit for large-diameter trees (Feldpausch et al., 2011) and 629 in the current study the power model resulted in a lower mean error in estimating destructive tree biomass (SI Table S1). With a goal of reducing error in stand biomass estimates, the 630 631 asymptotic model form-which reduces error in small-diameter trees-outperforms the power model because of the skewed distribution of stand-level biomass found in smaller-632 633 diameter trees, and was, therefore, chosen (Figure 3).

634

635 Independent of H model form, no current large-scale H models are parameterised to account 636 for successional variation of tropical forest trees. Secondary forest trees are frequently taller for a given D (Montgomery and Chazdon, 2001). Mechanical effects can also modify small 637 638 patches of forest over large areas, where, for example, bamboo can modify *H*:*D* relationships 639 (Griscom and Ashton, 2006) and wind may alter forest structure (Laurance and Curran, 640 2008). Our H models were developed from the most comprehensive dataset to date, which includes a range of forest types including bamboo and liana forests. Developing site- or 641 642 forest-specific H models is one alternative to account for localised variations in forest 643 structure, but requires substantial cost and field time to develop.

644

645 4.1.2 Modelling destructive biomass data

646 Examination of Figure 2b raises two questions: "Why does exclusion of H in biomass 647 estimates largely overestimate true biomass?" and "Why are biomass models unable to 648 reduce error in large trees?" Chave et al. (2005) had previously noted that pantropical 649 biomass models overestimate biomass in large trees. Some of this error was attributed to the 650 lack of sampling in large trees (Chave et al. 2004); however, close inspection of Figure 4 in 651 Chave et al. (2005) shows that biomass of the smallest trees (e.g., <100 mm diameter) is also 652 underestimated (with these trees having the largest sample size). This suggests a different 653 biomass model formulation may be necessary to remove the positive bias of trees ≥ 100 mm diameter either with or without including *H*. Other studies have confirmed that the model
parameterisation we use (Eqs. 1 and 2) provides a better fit than other parameterisations (e.g.
Vieilledent et al., 2011 (preprint)).

657

658 The challenge to reduce uncertainty in biomass estimates of large-diameter trees (e.g. > 800659 mm diameter) can be understood by examining the destructively sampled trees. Trees from 660 this diameter class have an enormous variation in mass, from 4.6 to 70.2 Mg (mean 15.3 Mg) and similarly, a wide range of wood specific gravity, 0.26 to 0.9 g cm^3 (mean 0.56), and vary 661 in *H* from 32 to 71 m (mean 46). These differences may represent the substantial variation in 662 life-strategies among "emergent" canopy species, where large diameter low-density light 663 demanding trees coexist with shade tolerant species. Thus, not only larger sample sizes of 664 large size trees are needed, but in the future perhaps two differing equation, for differing life 665 666 history strategies will be required (e.g. see Henry et al. 2011, for some data analysed in this 667 way).

668

669 Clearly, greater collaboration is required to unify the many destructively sampled tree datasets (e.g. Araújo et al., 1999; Chambers et al., 2001; Nogueira et al., 2008a; Carvalho et 670 671 al., 1998; Chave et al., 2005; Deans et al., 1996; Brown, 1997; Overman et al., 1994; Higuchi 672 et al., 1998; Henry et al., 2010; Djomo et al., 2010; Alvarez et al., 2012); into one database to improve regional or pan-tropical biomass equations with inclusion of H. Our study provides a 673 674 first step in dissecting one component of this vegetation-specific variation (regional H:D relationships) to adjust large-scale tropical biomass estimates: e.g. we show that African 675 676 forests differ strikingly in their distribution of biomass among D class compared to other 677 regions (Figure 3), and that as a result, effects of inclusion of H estimates on predicted 678 biomass values vary strongly from region to region (Table 5)

679

680 4.1.3 Regional and continental differences

Forest biomass, after taking H into account was highest in Australian forests. Biomass was also higher in the Guyana Shield than SE Asian forests. Previous studies have suggested that aboveground biomass storage is higher in Southeast Asia (e.g. Slik et al., 2010). Regional adjustments in biomass estimates due to elevation and tree H may be necessary for some areas. For example, tree H varies with elevation in Tanzania, with the tallest trees at midelevation (Marshall et al., in review).

687

688 We found fundamentally different biomass distribution among diameter classes and stand 689 structure across the four forested tropical continents. African forests store a greater portion of 690 total biomass in large-diameter trees and trees are on average larger in diameter, while stem 691 density is lower. This is as opposed to forests in Asia, Australia and South America where 692 smaller-diameter trees store the greatest percentage of total biomass, where stem density is 693 higher. These regional differences in stem density were previously shown for a smaller pan-694 tropical height:diameter dataset (Feldpausch et al. 2011). The most obvious causes for difference in forest structure between African and other forests is the large herbivore fauna, 695 696 specifically, gorillas and elephants. These may reduce smaller stems in forests, compared 697 particularly to South America, where humans have substantially modified the fauna with their 698 arrival 12,000 years ago. Alternatives include the input of nutrients from 'Harmattan winds' 699 and average higher soil fertility than South America (e.g. Sanchez (1976)). Larger sample 700 sizes are needed to assess if these biomass distributions differences are consistent when 701 expanded beyond the regional clusters in West Africa, East Africa, and Central Africa. Our 702 results indicate that the greater error in African large diameter trees is diluted by the small tail 703 in biomass distribution by diameter class found in those forests (Figure 3).

704

705 Feldpausch et al. (2011) showed a group of tall-stature forests (African, Asia and Guyana 706 Shield) and other lower-statured forests (Amazon and Australia), and Banin et al. (2012) 707 reported differences in *H*:*D* allometry between African forests and those of South America. 708 Intriguingly, the biomass distribution results follow a continental split, not a forest stature 709 split, with the Guyana shield forests grouping with the rest of South America and not African 710 forests. The reasons for this are unclear. Their study also showed that H:D relationships were 711 modified by stem density, with forests with higher stem density having shorter trees for a 712 given diameter. Trees of the Guyana Shield, for example, have the lowest stem density for 713 plots in South America, and also are on average taller and have the highest biomass stocks for 714 the continent (Table 4; SI Table S2). Our current results indicate that the inclusion of H in 715 biomass estimates for the Guyana Shield, Asia and Central Africa do not substantially modify 716 estimates compared to estimates based on the no-H Eq. 1, but that including H in biomass 717 estimates for those regions reduces the bias in destructive estimates relative to excluding H (Table 2). These results showing substantial variation in biomass distribution and forest structure among regions and continents indicate that future biomass models based on continents and regions may prove more robust than pantropical models.

721

4.1.4 Climate and biogeography

723 Furthermore, the patterns that emerge in tree *H* variation as a function of region, climate and, 724 forest structure suggest alternative structuring is needed for pantropical *Biomass:Diameter* 725 tree allometric models rather than basing them solely on forest moisture class (e.g., dry, 726 moist, wet). For example, H:D relationships vary not only according to climate (e.g., taller 727 trees in moist climates), but also by forest structure (e.g. taller trees in higher basal area 728 forests), soil quality, and geography (e.g. taller trees for a given diameter in the Guyana 729 Shield, Africa and Asia than in the rest of South America and Australia; Feldpausch et al., 730 2011). Biomass: Diameter allometry for most published large-scale biomass models, however, 731 is fixed by region (e.g. Amazonia, Chambers et al. 2001) or is pan-tropical (e.g., Chave et al., 732 2005), or is based on broad classifications of forest moisture (e.g., dry, moist, wet forest: Chave et al. 2005) or vegetation (e.g., diptercarp, secondary forest (Basuki et al., 2009; 733 734 Nelson et al., 1999)). These models therefore lack parameters to account for climate-driven or variation in *Biomass:Diameter* relationships. 735 biogeographic However. the clear 736 biogeographical differences amongst SE Asian and forests on other continents (dominance by 737 the Dipterocarpaceae) were not the proximate reason for differences in H:D allometry in Asia 738 versus elsewhere (Banin et al. 2012). Formation of region-specific H models provides a first step in parameterising regional biomass estimates based on reported variation in tree H739 allometry (Nogueira et al., 2008b; Feldpausch et al., 2011). 740

741

742 4.1.5 Crown biomass variation

Current pantropical biomass models are unable to cope with regional or forest-specific variation in crown diameter, where wider crowns may impart greater biomass for a given diameter. Based on high-resolution remote-sensing data, Barbier et al. (2010) indicated that crown size increases by ~20% from the wetter to the more-seasonal regions of Amazonia. The regional *H* patterns showing shorter trees in southern Amazonia (Nogueira et al., 2008b; Feldpausch et al., 2011) that would result in reduced biomass stocks, may be partially offset by wider crowns that contain more mass for a given diameter. Such possible effects remain to

750 be tested with field data.

751

4.1.6 Intra-species, diameter-specific and regional wood density variation

753 Tree wood specific gravity ($\rho_{\rm W}$) variation is another parameter that biomass models may 754 inadequately represent. Current biomass calculations use ρ_W databases to assign the finest 755 taxonomic value to an individual (e.g., species-specific $\rho_{\rm W}$) independent of stem diameter. 756 Data from Barro Colorado Island, Panama showed significantly lower $\rho_{\rm W}$ in large-diameter 757 trees than in smaller trees (Chave et al., 2004), while Patiño et al. (2009) showed, using branch wood density, that there is considerable plot-to-plot variation in wood specific gravity. 758 759 Additionally, tree ρ_W is significantly lower in some regions of Amazonia (Nogueira et al., 760 2007). In addition, engineering theory suggests that trees with low density wood have an 761 advantage in both H growth and in mechanical stability as compared to high-wood-density 762 trees (Anten and Schieving, 2010; Iida et al., 2012); in contrast to vertical growth, high-763 density wood imparts greater efficiency for horizontal expansion. Together, these results 764 suggest that biomass models may benefit from greater parameterisation.

765

766 Variation in the wood carbon fraction is another source of uncertainty in estimating regional 767 and pantropical carbon stocks. Many studies, as in the current study, take the wood carbon 768 fraction as 0.5 to convert estimated biomass to carbon (e.g. Lewis et al., 2009; Malhi et al., 769 2004; Clark et al., 2001). However, carbon content varies regionally (Elias and Potvin, 2003), 770 where, for example, a forest in Panama has mean carbon values of 0.474 ± 0.025 , which would result in an overestimate of 4.1-6.8 Mg C ha⁻¹ if the assumed 0.5 carbon content were 771 772 used (Martin and Thomas, 2011). Accounting for such variation may play an important role 773 in refining future pantropical carbon estimates.

774

775 4.1.7 Limited spatial extent

A further concern is the use of spatially limited destructively sampled biomass data forming the base of biomass models used to estimate biomass for trees in other regions. Until only recently, destructive data were unavailable for Africa, so that large-scale biomass estimates for this continent were based on data from elsewhere. Even regional equations may yield sitespecific bias. For example, the Chambers et al. (2001) equation, which is based on data from 781 a small area north of Manaus, Brazil, yet by necessity has been used to estimate biomass 782 across the Amazon Basin (Baker et al., 2004a; Malhi et al., 2004; Malhi et al., 2006), an area 783 with important variation in tree architecture (Nogueira et al., 2008b; Feldpausch et al., 2011), 784 taxonomy (Pitman et al., 1999) and wood density (Baker et al., 2004b). Application of this 785 model to southern Amazonia requires down-scaling biomass estimates for shorter, less dense 786 trees (Nogueira et al., 2008b; Nogueira et al., 2007). Country-level assessments of biomass 787 model-effects on estimates indicate that application of generic pantropical biomass models (e.g. Brown et al., 1989; Chave et al., 2005) should be evaluated prior to application, 788 789 especially those that lack H parameterisation (Alvarez et al., 2012; Vieilledent et al., 2011 790 (preprint); Marshall et al., in review). Our current results showed tropics-wide geographical 791 variation in biomass distribution among D classes in permanent plots, which, together with 792 tropics-wide variation in H:D relationships (Feldpausch et al., 2011), may not be represented 793 when forming small regional subsets or pooling pantropical destructive data without 794 accounting for *H*.

795

796 4.2 Consequences for remote sensing

797 Observed tropical forest H:D allometry differences in ground-based studies (Feldpausch et 798 al., 2011; Nogueira et al., 2008b; Banin et al., 2012) and their associated regional effects on 799 biomass estimates shown here will be important for improving retrieval of biomass estimates from light detection and ranging (LiDAR e.g. Drake et al., 2002; Lefsky et al., 2005; Asner et 800 801 al., 2010), a technique that either estimates a canopy H, or is used to estimate forest structure (full waveforem LiDAR), either of which is then translated into a biomass estimate. 802 803 Transforming variation in tropics-wide biomass estimates due to H into reliable biomass 804 estimates via remote sensing, however, has not, yet been fully addressed. For example, a 805 recent attempt using Geoscience Laser Altimeter System (GLAS) and Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS), a method dependent on tree H did not explain if/how 806 807 H was incorporated into biomass estimates (Baccini et al., 2012). A second recent study relies 808 on a large compilation of GLAS-estimated Lorey's H (basal-area weighted H) to estimate 809 biomass in tropical forest (Saatchi et al., 2011). This study estimates biomass based on 810 equations that were developed using height data collected from temperate forests from North 811 America and tropical forests (Lefsky, 2010) rather than exclusively primarily tropical forest, 812 which may introduce a bias in regional tropical estimates. Future remote sensing biomass

813 estimates that address regional variations in *H* should therefore assist in evaluating potential

814 bias and be able to provide tropical biomass estimates of a greatly improved accuracy.

815

816 **4.3** Implications for carbon sink and estimates of nutrient turnover

817 Permanent plot data indicate that mature tropical forests are not in biomass equilibrium, but have tended to gain biomass density. Tree recruitment has outpaced mortality (Phillips et al., 818 819 2004) and total tree above-ground biomass has increased over recent decades (Phillips et al., 1998; Lewis et al., 2009; Phillips et al., 2009). It has been estimated that, on average, trees in 820 tropical forests add 0.49 Mg C ha⁻¹ in above ground mass each year, implying a carbon sink 821 of 0.9 Pg C yr⁻¹ (Lewis et al., 2009). This process, however, is susceptible to drought, and for 822 823 Amazonia the 2005 drought reduced the long-term above-ground carbon sequestration 824 (Phillips et al., 2009).

825

Our biomass downscaling in pantropical forest plots implies that the calculated net carbon sink or the magnitude of any reversal or reduction in the sink due to drought may also be reduced for some regions as a direct result of H parameterisations using current pantropical biomass models. This assumes that the proportional sink remains unchanged. Our results indicate that H integration provides a tool to reduce uncertainty in estimating the magnitude of carbon stocks or sinks. Such H parameterisations might include LiDAR methods (e.g. Asner et al., 2010; Drake et al., 2003) and plot-specific ground-based tree H measurement.

833

Furthermore, biomass estimates for individual trees are frequently used to estimate nutrient stocks such as nitrogen and phosphorus in trees and stands (Feldpausch et al., 2010; Feldpausch et al., 2004; Buschbacher et al., 1988) based on component tissue concentrations (Martinelli et al., 2000). Downscaling biomass estimates due to H will therefore reduce the total estimated above ground nutrient stocks and flux due to land-use change (e.g., selective logging, deforestation, forest regrowth and fire).

840

841 **4.4 Comparison with global emissions**

842 The biomass and carbon downscaling due to *H* also affects estimates of carbon emissions.
843 The most recent IPCC estimate of global emissions contribution of tropical deforestation

844 estimates a net annual emission from this source of 1.6 PgC (range 1.0-2.2 PgC) (Denman et 845 al., 2007) based on the mean of estimates by DeFries et al. (2002) and Houghton et al. (2003) from the 1980s and 1990s. The most recent "unofficial" estimate with the same methodology 846 is 1.47 PgC yr⁻¹ for the 2000-2005 period (Houghton, 2008). Our new results incorporating H847 into these estimates imply that this is an overestimate of $\sim 0.1 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$, this being based on 848 849 the more recent number for the values used in the estimate for emissions from below-ground 850 biomass and uptake of secondary forest regeneration, the contribution of live aboveground biomass cut in tropical deforestation is 0.85 PgC yr⁻¹, and a 0.13 downward adjustment for 851 852 tree H (Table 5). For comparison, the last national inventory of the UK under Climate Convention indicates a total emission in 2007 of 0.17 Pg yr⁻¹ of CO₂-equivalent carbon (UK 853 Department of Energy and Climate Change, 2009). 854

855

856 **4.5** Repercussions for carbon estimation and REDD

Integration of H into biomass estimates reduces estimates of tropical carbon storage by 13%. 857 858 This estimated decrease has potential economic implications based on the calculated high carbon storage of pantropical forests under Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and 859 860 Degradation (REDD) carbon-payment schemes (Miles and Kapos, 2008). In monetary terms, 861 our calculated decrease in carbon storage represents a reduction in value per unit area of tropical forests based on current carbon market prices (e.g. Chicago Climate 862 Exchange, European Climate Exchange) as a result of previous exclusion of H in biomass 863 864 estimates. We stress the obvious, i) the actual carbon storage of these forests has not changed, only the estimated amount; ii) the large-scale RAINFOR South American estimates of 865 biomass and change (e.g. Malhi et al., 2006; Phillips et al., 2009) used the Baker et al. 866 867 (2004b) regional biomass model; for Africa, Weibull asymptotic continental-scale H 868 equations were used in the Chave et al. (2005) pantropical allometric equations (Lewis et al., 869 2009); hence, the effect of accounting for H in their estimates remains unexplored; iii) that our adjustments in plot-based estimates are sensitive to the current pantropical biomass 870 871 equations as discussed above. Future improvement and inclusion of additional data (e.g. from 872 Africa), and harvested trees of larger diameter will further reduce uncertainty in estimates 873 over a heterogeneous landscape and at a variety of scales. New models may eventually show 874 that such downscaling is unnecessary; iv) tree H integration can reduce uncertainty in 875 biomass estimates (Figure 2b, Figure 4), which should benefit REDD. Furthermore, the 876 default tier-I estimation method of forest carbon density issued in support of REDD by the 877 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) is based on average carbon values for 878 biomes (IPCC, 2006), not plot-based estimates. The approached outlined in the present study, 879 harnessed to better measurement of H (e.g., using LiDAR: Asner et al., 2010) can help 880 generate accurate, verifiable biomass estimates which will ultimately increase confidence in 881 large-scale carbon estimates, lead to increased carbon credit, and greater investment per unit 882 of carbon (Asner et al., 2010).

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4 5 Conclusions and future considerations

885 Based on these results, it is possible to make a number of recommendations:

1) A global initiative is needed to improve the pantropical destructive tree data to support global carbon modelling and policy: additional sampling is needed from under-represented regions, forest types, growth forms (e.g., palms), and tree diameter classes to represent the full diversity of tropical forests. We showed distinct differences in the biomass distribution of tropical forests in Africa as compared to elsewhere, and such important differences will only be fully accounted for in biomass estimates when we have improved understanding through destructive sampling.

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2) Pantropical permanent forest plots, some monitored since the 1970s, are now a baseline standard by which scientists and policymakers understand forest dynamics and potential changes in net gain, and carbon valuation under REDD. There is known large variation in Hamong these plots. To account for this variation and make full use of permanent-plot data, we recommend a stratified random sample of H measurements. If possible, H measurements of every tree are desirable. Where local H-diameter relationships are not known, using those described in this paper is recommended.

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Biomass estimates of tropical forests are prone to error because of the very small destructive dataset, biomass models, *H* models and also because of uncertainty in their area. For example, the area of tropical forest at the start of the 21^{st} century is between 1572 to $1852 \times$ 10^{6} ha, depending on the estimation method (Mayaux et al., 2005). Our study has explored the uncertainty associated with current biomass estimates and shown the importance of accounting for tree-level variation in *H*:*D* relationships for scaling to more precise regional and global biomass estimates. By reducing uncertainty in pantropical estimates, we make a step forward in providing realistic, verifiable carbon estimates for models and policyinstruments such as REDD.

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Table 1: Pantropical models to estimate biomass from, Eq. 1 diameter (D, cm) and wood specific gravity (ρ_W , g cm⁻³), and Eq. 2 also including tree height (H, m) for trees in pantropical forests, including the residual standard error (RSE), Akaike information criterion (AIC) and number of trees (n) based on destructively sampled moist forest tree data from Africa, Asia, and South America.

Model	а	b	С	d	e	RSE	\mathbf{R}^2	AIC	n
Eq. 1: ln(B	$a = a + b \ln(D)$	$+c \left(\ln\left(D\right)\right)^2$	$d + d (\ln (D))$	$e^{3}+e\ln(\rho_{\rm W})$)				
	-1.8222	2.3370	0.1632	-0.0248	0.9792	0.3595	0.973	1444	1816
Eq. 2: ln(B	$a = a + b \ln(D^2)$	$ ho_{\mathrm{W}} H$)							
	-2.9205	0.9894				0.3222	0.978	1044	1816

1358 Table 2: Efficacy of bootstrapped biomass models including or excluding tree *H* to predict true (destructively) sampled biomass for trees ≥ 10 cm *D* for individual sites

excluded from model formulation. Values represent mean relative error, or bias ($(B_{\text{predicted}}, B_{\text{measured}})/B_{\text{measured}}$) for a site, in dry biomass estimated from a biomass model

1360 excluding H (Eq. 1) and biomass including H (Eqn. 2) using various H models (Eqs. 3-5) based on region- and continent- specific H models. Values in bold indicate the

1361 model with the lowest mean relative error (bias) for a site (this excludes the power model, which although has the lowest overall bias and standard deviation, fails to

1362 reduce error in the small diameter classes).*

				3PE		Weibull		Power		No Ht	Data source
Dropped Site [#]	Location	Region	п	Continent	Region	Continent	Region	Continent	Region		
BraCot	Cotriguaçu, Pará, Brazil	Brazilian Shield	151	0.01	-0.02	0.01	-0.09	-0.04	-0.07	0.09	Nogueira et al. 2008
BraJuruena	Juruena, Mato Grosso, Brazil	Brazilian Shield	49	-0.04	-0.06	-0.05	-0.13	-0.08	-0.11	0.05	Nogueira et al. 2008
BraMan1	Manaus, Amazonas, Brazil	Ecentral Amazonia	315	0.01	-0.07	-0.05	-0.14	-0.05	-0.13	-0.01	Chave et al. 2005
BraMan2	Manaus, Amazonas, Brazil	Ecentral Amazonia	123	0.05	-0.03	0.04	-0.06	0.00	-0.09	0.13	Chave et al. 2005
BraNPro	Novo Progesso, Mato Grosso, Brazil	Brazilian Shield	64	-0.22	-0.23	-0.25	-0.30	-0.25	-0.28	-0.20	Nogueira et al. 2008
BraPara1	Tomé Açu, Pará, Brazil	Brazilian Shield	127	-0.04	-0.12	-0.02	-0.10	-0.08	-0.16	0.07	Araujo et al. 1999
BraPara3	Belem, Pará, Brazil	Brazilian Shield	21	-0.14	-0.21	-0.09	-0.16	-0.18	-0.25	0.01	Chave et al. 2005
BraRond	Rôndonia, Brazil	Brazilian Shield	8	-0.50	-0.53	-0.46	-0.53	-0.52	-0.54	-0.39	Brown et al. 1995
FrenchGu	Piste St Elie, French Guiana	Guyana Shield	360	0.48	0.77	0.37	0.53	0.40	0.73	0.47	Chave et al. 2005
Llanosec	Llanos secondary	Western Amazonia	24	0.47	0.79	0.45	0.66	0.40	0.73	0.61	Chave et al. 2005
Llanosol	Llanos old-growth	Western Amazonia	27	0.10	0.35	0.17	0.35	0.07	0.35	0.32	Chave et al. 2005

CamCamp o-Ma'an	Campo-Ma'an, Cameroon	Central Africa	71	0.15	0.34	-0.01	0.22	0.03	0.24	0.13	Djomo et al. 2010
CamMbal mayo	Mbalmayo, Cameroon	Central Africa	4	0.09	0.11	0.15	0.29	0.04	0.05	0.33	Deans et al. 1996
DDCV	Yangambi,	Central Africa									Ebuy et al. 2011
mbi	Republic of Congo		12	-0.07	-0.04	-0.01	0.12	-0.13	-0.11	0.13	
GhaBoiTan	Boi Tano, Ghana	Western Africa	41	0.10	0.14	0.12	0.12	0.14	0.10	0.01	Henry et al.
0			41	-0.18	-0.14	-0.13	-0.13	-0.14	-0.10	-0.01	2010
IndoMala		South-east Asia	119	0.55	0.55	0.37	0.37	0.45	0.45	0.53	
	Kalimantan, Balikpapan,	South-east Asia									Chave et al. 2005
Kaliman1	Indonesia		23	-0.04	-0.04	-0.02	-0.02	-0.07	-0.07	0.01	
Kaliman2	Kalimantan, Sebulu, Indonesia	South-east Asia	69	-0.11	-0.11	-0.18	-0.18	-0.15	-0.15	-0.13	Yamakura et al. 1986
	PT Hutan Labanan	South-east Asia									Samalca 2007
	Sanggam Lestari, Kalimantan										
Kaliman3	Indonesia		40	-0.08	-0.08	-0.07	-0.07	-0.12	-0.12	-0.03	
Pasoh-01	Pasoh, Malaysia	South-east Asia	139	-0.07	-0.07	-0.13	-0.13	-0.11	-0.11	-0.09	Chave et al. 2005
	Sepunggur,	South-east Asia									Ketterings et al.
Sumatra	Sumatra, Indonesia		29	0.27	0.27	0.26	0.26	0.22	0.22	0.33	2001
Relative mean											
error				0.03	0.05	0.06	0.06	-0.01	0.02	0.13	
Std. Dev.				0.25	0.33	0.22	0.29	0.23	0.32	0.25	

*Biomass estimated from models based on tree diameter, wood density (Eqn. 1) and where applicable, H (Eqn. 2). Height is estimated from models developed from the pantropical tree H-D database of Feldpausch *et al.* (2011).

[#] Efficacy of the biomass model to predict biomass was independently assessed for each "dropped site" which was exlcuded from the development of the
 biomass model.

1367	Table 3: Coefficients for Weibull- <i>H</i> region-, continent-specific and pantropical models ($H =$
1368	$a^*(1-\exp(-b^*D^c)))$ to estimate tree height (H, m) from diameter (D, cm) ≥ 10 cm in
1369	pantropical forests, including the residual standard error (RSE), Akaike information criterion
1370	(AIC), and number of trees (<i>n</i>).*

Continent	Region	a	b	С	RSE	AIC	n
Africa		50.096	0.03711	0.8291	5.739	75422	11910
	C. Africa	50.453	0.0471	0.8120	6.177	16671	2572
	E. Africa	43.974	0.0334	0.8546	5.466	10343	1658
	W. Africa	53.133	0.0331	0.8329	5.165	47020	7680
S. America		42.574	0.0482	0.8307	5.619	121167	19262
	Brazilian Shield	227.35#	0.0139	0.5550	4.683	20639	3482
	E.C. Amazonia	48.131	0.0375	0.8228	4.918	39688	6588
	Guyana Shield	42.845	0.0433	0.9372	5.285	32491	5267
	W. Amazonia	46.263	0.0876	0.6072	5.277	24201	3925
Asia	S.E. Asia	57.122	0.0332	0.8468	5.691	18623	2948
Australia	N. Australia	41.721	0.0529	0.7755	4.042	48073	8536
Pantropical		50.874	0.0420	0.784	5.479	266169	42656

1371 *Models adapted from the pantropical tree *H*:*D* database of Feldpausch et al. (2011).

[#]Although a unrealistic asymptotic maximum H coefficient (*a*), a tree of 10 and 160 cm diameter would have an estimated H of 11.0 and 47.2 m, respectively, with this model.

1374

1376 Table 4: Pantropical live tree above ground dry biomass (*B*) estimates (all values Mg ha⁻¹ ±St. 1377 dev.) when calculating as column a) biomass estimated as per most published studies 1378 excluding *H* using our recalculation of the Chave et al. (2005) model from with new 1379 published data; b) biomass estimated based on height (*H*) integration from a regional *H* 1380 model; c) shows the difference (b - a) in biomass due to *H* integration for 329 plots.

		п			
Continent	Region	plots	a) no <i>H</i> *	b) with H^*	c) ΔB due to H
Africa	C. Africa	16	392.9±145.7	379.4±137.5	-13.5±8.3
	E. Africa	20	470.3±161.3	362.5±126.5	-107.9±34.9
	W. Africa	26	374.4±69.9	330.2±62.7	-44.2±7.8
S.					
America	Brazilian Shield	36	250.3 ± 65.6	194.5±55	-55.9±12.5
	E.C. Amazonia	44	410.7±91.6	344.1±77.2	-66.6±14.5
	Guyana Shield	45	441.1±125.8	434.4±116.3	-6.7±12.4
	W. Amazonia	100	299.6±71.8	251.7±55.2	-47.9±17.7
Asia	S.E. Asia	16	434.6±137.3	424.2±134.7	-10.5±3.5
Australia	N. Australia	26	571.8±200.1	455.3±156.3	-116.5±44.0
Grand mean			405.1±118.8	352.9±102.4	-52.2±17.3

1381 * Biomass estimated from the moist forest pantropical model based on tree diameter and ρ_W

1382 or based on tree diameter, ρ_{W} and *H*, where *H* is estimated from Weibull region-specific tree

1383 *H* models based on the pantropical tree *H*:*D* database from Feldpausch *et al.* (2011).

			without height	with height	ΔC due to height		
Continent	Region	Area	Total C	Total C	Total C	Relative reduction	
		(10 ⁶ ha)	(Pg)	(Pg)	(Pg)		
Africa	C. Africa	422.6	83.0	80.2	-2.9	-0.03	
	E. Africa	123.1	29.0	22.3	-6.6	-0.23	
	W. Africa	69.8	13.1	11.5	-1.5	-0.12	
	Total	615.6	125.0	114.0	-11.0	-0.13	
South-Central America	Brazilian Shield	220.9	27.7	21.5	-6.2	-0.22	
	E.C. Amazonia	106.2	21.8	18.3	-3.5	-0.16	
	Guyana Shield	148.3	32.7	32.2	-0.5	-0.02	
	W. Amazonia	286.4	42.9	36.0	-6.9	-0.16	
	Total	761.9	125.1	108.0	-17.1	-0.14	
Asia	S.E. Asia	185.0	40.2	39.2	-1.0	-0.02	
Australia	N. Australia	105.1	30.1	23.9	-6.1	-0.20	
Total		1667.5	320.4	285.2	-35.2	-0.13	

1385 Table 5: Stocks and change in estimated pantropical C in above ground live trees due to H integrated into biomass estimates based on region-specific 1386 estimates of tree H, compared to the pantropical forest biomass model that excludes H.*

*Tree height estimated from region-specific Weibull-*H* models adapted from the pantropical tree *H*:*D* database of Feldpausch *et al.* (2011). Mean ΔC values (0.5 of biomass values) from each region in Table 4 were applied. Region geographic extent is shown in Figure 1. Tropical forest area was estimated for each region based on the broadleaf deciduous open and closed and evergreen tree cover classification from GLC2000 (Global Land Cover Map 2000) (Bartholomé and Belward 2005).

1391 Figure Text

Figure 1: Location of the pantropical permanent plots and a) biomass stocks (• Mg ha⁻¹) b) Δ 1392 biomass (Mg ha⁻¹) due to inclusion of H in biomass (B) estimates (relative to exclusion of H) 1393 for forests $(B_{\rm H} - B_{\rm No Ht})$ in Africa, Asia, Australia and South America. Symbols indicate an 1394 increase (blue \blacktriangle) or decrease (red \checkmark) in biomass estimates after including H in biomass 1395 1396 estimates compared to our biomass model Eq. 1 that excludes H. See Supplemental 1397 Information Table S1 for plot details. Biomass estimated from the moist forest pantropical 1398 models (Table 1) based on tree diameter and wood density, and when H (where applicable), 1399 with *H* estimated from Weibull region-specific tree *H* models (Eq 5) based on the pantropical 1400 tree H-D database from Feldpausch et al. (2011). Coloured shading indicates forest cover and 1401 different regions used in Figures 3 and 4.

1402

1403 Figure 2: a) Distribution of destructively sampled above ground tree dry mass (bars) by 1404 diameter class (cm) and cumulative biomass (line) on the second axis. Numbers above the 1405 bars indicate the number of trees sampled. The dataset represents the pantropical destructive 1406 data to date used to form biomass allometric models, including additional data from Africa, 1407 Asia, and South America; and b) Relative error associated with estimating the true (destructively) sampled above ground tree dry mass ($(B_{estimated} - B_{measured})/B_{measured}$) for the 1408 1409 same dataset estimated with and without estimated H in the biomass model by diameter class 1410 (cm). Height estimated by three model forms and either a continental or regional 1411 parameterisation. Positive values indicate the biomass model overestimates true destructively 1412 sampled mass.

1413

Figure 3: a) Biomass (Mg ha⁻¹) distribution (bars) among diameter class (cm) by region with
cumulative AGB (Mg ha⁻¹) on the second axis (lines) for trees in pantropical permanent plots.
Tree-by-tree biomass was estimated by model (1) without *H* or model (2) with Weibull (Eq.
5) region-specific *H*. See Table 4 for differences in biomass estimates due to *H* integration.

1418

1419Figure 4: Error in biomass estimates (Mg ha⁻¹) for trees in pantropical permanent plots due to1420biomass model inputs excluding or including H (relative error propagated from destructive1421data). Tree-by-tree biomass was estimated by model (1) without H or model (2) with Weibull1422(Eq. 5) region-specific H.



-24.999999 - 0.000000

Biomass increase (Mg ha-1)

1.632106 - 5.000000

5.000001 - 10.000000

- 1425 1426
- 1427
- 1428
- 1.20
- 1429
- 1430
- 1431 Figure 1

central Africa

Guyana Shield

E Africa



2

3 Figure 2



1437 Figure 3

