

Tree stem methane emissions are regulated by site-level biogeochemistry over species identity in Amazon floodplain forests

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Summary

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- Tree stems in Amazonian floodplains emit substantial methane (CH₄), yet controls on emission variability remain unclear. Emissions span orders of magnitude between várzea (nutrient-rich) and igapó (nutrient-poor) forests and among trees, suggesting controls beyond flooding.
- We tested whether site-level biogeochemistry better explains stem CH₄ variability than species identity by measuring emissions from two co-occurring species with contrasting wood densities – *Eschweilera coriacea* and *Hevea spruceana* – across várzea and igapó forests. Emissions were paired with porewater chemistry (electrical conductivity, dissolved oxygen, dissolved CH₄, and dissolved organic carbon), methane production potential (MPP), and root biomass.
- Stem CH₄ emissions were significantly higher in várzea than in igapó, independent of species or stem height. Várzea porewaters displayed higher conductivity, dissolved CH₄ and MPP, near-neutral pH, and lower oxygen, with fine roots concentrated in the 0- to 50-cm soil layer, indicating a shallow CH₄ supply zone. Basal stem emissions in várzea correlated with shallow porewater chemistry and fine-root biomass, whereas relationships in igapó were weak.
- These findings show that Amazonian floodplain stem CH₄ emissions are governed by shallow site-level biogeochemistry, rather than species identity alone and should be incorporated into basin-scale CH₄ budgets and process models to capture spatial variability.

Introduction

Tropical wetlands are the largest natural source of atmospheric methane (CH₄), with the Amazon basin contributing a substantial proportion due to widespread annual flooding, which transforms over 800 000 km² into forested wetlands (Hess *et al.*, 2015; Saunio *et al.*, 2025). While CH₄ emissions have previously been attributed mainly to anoxic soils and waterbodies, recent studies have identified tree stems as major emission pathways, with emissions in Amazonian floodplain forests exceeding those of tropical peatlands and temperate wetlands by up to two orders of magnitude (Pangala *et al.*, 2013, 2017). Despite their global significance, the controls on CH₄ emissions from Amazonian tree stems remain poorly understood.

Two basin-scale studies show strong hydrological control on seasonal patterns (Pangala *et al.*, 2017; Gauci *et al.*, 2022), yet stem emissions vary by orders of magnitude among ecosystems and among trees within sites at single time points, implying

additional controls beyond flooding (Pangala *et al.*, 2017; Gauci *et al.*, 2022). Proposed explanations point to interactions between woody traits (e.g. wood density, porosity, and lenticel abundance) and belowground biogeochemistry that shape CH₄ production, availability, transport, and subsequent emission (Pangala *et al.*, 2015; van Haren *et al.*, 2021; Soosaar *et al.*, 2022; Epron *et al.*, 2023; Moisan *et al.*, 2024). In the Amazonian floodplains, where within-season temperature is relatively stable, hydrology typically dominates seasonality (Pitz *et al.*, 2018; Gauci *et al.*, 2022); however, once flooded, increasing water depth does not necessarily increase emissions (Gauci *et al.*, 2022; Jeffrey *et al.*, 2023), suggesting that flooding serves as an ‘on/off’ switch for soil-driven methanogenesis, with finer-scale variability controlled by other variables.

Woody traits such as wood density, porosity, and anatomical adaptations have previously been linked to variability in stem CH₄ emissions. Lower density wood is often associated with higher emissions due to reduced diffusion resistance (Pangala *et al.*, 2014;

van Haren *et al.*, 2021; Soosaar *et al.*, 2022), while porosity, parenchyma, lenticel density, and moisture content also influence CH₄ emissions (Pangala *et al.*, 2015; Epron *et al.*, 2023). Tree functional traits shaped by flood adaptation may also interact with internal CH₄ production or oxidation processes within woody tissues (Parolin *et al.*, 2004; Epron *et al.*, 2023; Jeffrey *et al.*, 2023; Moisan *et al.*, 2024), making stem emissions potentially sensitive to species-specific anatomical characteristics. Because many of these traits covary among species (Chave *et al.*, 2009; Poorter *et al.*, 2010; Yang *et al.*, 2024), comparing species with contrasting wood density provides a practical way to test whether species identity helps explain variation in stem CH₄ emissions when the full suite of woody traits is not measured directly. However, in Amazonian floodplain forests, it remains unclear whether variation in stem CH₄ emissions is better explained by species identity, as a proxy for differences in wood structure and transport potential, or by site-level belowground biogeochemistry that governs CH₄ production and availability.

Amazonian flooded forests, with their unique water chemistry, present a particularly complex setting. White-water várzea floodplains receive Andean-derived, sediment-rich waters (electrical conductivity (EC) 50–150 $\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$, near-neutral pH) while black-water igapó forests receive acidic (pH < 5), low-EC (< 50 $\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$), nutrient-poor waters from weathered Guiana and Brazilian shields (Furch & Wolfgang, 1997; Junk *et al.*, 2011) – contrasts that shape microbial communities and methanogenic activity. These biogeochemical differences likely modulate soil CH₄ production and dissolved CH₄ availability for stem transport, driving spatial variability across the basin. Furthermore, porewater properties such as pH, dissolved oxygen (DO), electrical conductivity (EC), dissolved organic carbon (DOC), and dissolved CH₄ are also known to play significant roles in regulating soil methanogenesis and CH₄ availability (Wang *et al.*, 1996; Teh *et al.*, 2005; Liu *et al.*, 2012), while fine-root biomass density regulates local CH₄ production and availability through substrate supply and access to soil CH₄ (Aulakh *et al.*, 2001; Liu *et al.*, 2012; Bridgman *et al.*, 2013; Ge *et al.*, 2024; Määttä & Malhotra, 2024).

Although flooding is a prerequisite for anaerobic processes, the rate and magnitude of CH₄ production and emissions including stem emissions are expected to be shaped by these finer-scale belowground variables. Yet, stem CH₄ measurements have not been systematically paired with tree-specific porewater chemistry, methane production potential (MPP), and root biomass across this biogeochemistry gradient. Here, we address this gap by quantifying CH₄ emissions from two co-occurring species with contrasting wood density – *Eschweilera coriacea* (high wood density) and *Hevea spruceana* (low wood density) – in nutrient-rich white-water várzea and nutrient-poor black-water igapó during the flooded season. Using species identity as a proxy for contrasting wood density, we paired stem emission measurements with tree-specific porewater chemistry (pH, EC, DO, DOC, dissolved CH₄), MPP, and root biomass to 150 cm depth. We tested whether below-ground biogeochemistry better explains variability in stem CH₄ emissions than species identity across contrasting black- and white-water flooded forests.

Materials and Methods

Study site

The study was conducted in the central Amazonian floodplain of Brazil (*c.* 500 km west of Manaus) within two sustainable development reserves (Fig. 1): (i) a black-water igapó forest plot in Amanã Sustainable Development Reserve (ASDR; 2°38.598 'S, 64°39.980 'W; south of Amanã lake) and (ii) a white-water várzea forest plot in Mamirauá Sustainable Development Reserve (MSDR; 2°48.916 'S, 65°05.192 'W; near Japurá river). The igapó plot is influenced by two hydrologically distinct river systems: the white-water Solimões-Japurá confluence and the black-water Negro River. In the dry season, waters from the Solimões-Japurá dominate at the site, whereas in the flooded season, Negro River waters predominate. At the time of sampling, the site was inundated with *c.* 1.5 m of water. The igapó forest plot contains *c.* 500 trees within the 1 ha plot from 80 species (data provided by the Mamirauá Institute). The várzea forest plot was bounded by the Solimões, Japurá, and Auati Paraná Rivers and located close to the Japurá River along a smaller river channel. The várzea forest plot contains *c.* 400 trees within the 1-ha plot from 100 species (data provided by the Mamirauá Institute), with flooding of *c.* 4 m at the time of sampling. Understorey vegetation is denser in igapó forests than in várzea, whereas aboveground biomass production is substantially higher in várzea reaching 17.4 t ha⁻¹ compared with 8.7 t h⁻¹ in igapó forests (Furch, 1997).

The two sites were chosen based on their contrasting hydrology: a nutrient-poor, low-pH, relatively high-DO black-water igapó with 1–2 m flooding for up to 45 d (igapó plot; Supporting Information Fig. S1), vs a nutrient-rich, sediment-laden white-water várzea with 2–4 m flooding for up to 3 months (várzea plot; Fig. S1). The mean annual temperatures at both plots were 27°C.

Within our 1-ha plots, two tree species, *Hevea spruceana* (Spruce ex Benth.) Müll.Arg. (Euphorbiaceae), commonly known as Seringa Barriguda, and *Eschweilera coriacea* (DC.) S.A.Mori (Lecythidaceae), commonly known as Matamata, were selected for this study. Five mature individuals of each species were sampled per plot. These species were chosen because they were among the few species occurring in both plots and represented contrasting wood densities, making them ideal for testing species identity as a proxy for woody traits. Across the two plots, only 10 species were shared, and *H. spruceana* and *E. coriacea* were the only pair with markedly different wood density (0.5 ± 0.2 g cm⁻³ for *H. spruceana* and 0.8 ± 0.08 g cm⁻³ for *E. coriacea*) (Table S1). Both species were sufficiently abundant (≥ 10 mature individuals per plot) and spatially distributed across each plot (trees ≥ 3–6 m apart), ensuring representative sampling without clustering bias. Both species are large canopy trees that occur in Amazonian forests but differ in habitat specialisation and wood structure. *Hevea spruceana*, a relative of the rubber tree *H. brasiliensis*, is primarily associated with seasonally flooded riverine environments and is characteristic of várzea and igapó forests, where it is adapted to periodic inundation (Wittmann *et al.*, 2006, 2010). By contrast, *E. coriacea* is one of the most widespread and abundant canopy tree species in



Fig. 1 Locations of the two field study plots in the Brazilian Amazon: the igapó site, situated within the Amanã Sustainable Development Reserve (in blue), and the várzea site, located within the Mamirauá Sustainable Development Reserve (in red).

Amazonia and occurs across a broader range of habitats, including both terra firme and seasonally flooded forests (Wittmann *et al.*, 2006; Steege *et al.*, 2013; Heuertz *et al.*, 2020). The two species therefore represent contrasting ecological strategies and wood densities, with *E. coriacea* typically forming dense hardwood characteristic of Lecythidaceae taxa, whereas *H. spruceana* exhibits lower wood density typical of many Euphorbiaceae species (Wycherley, 1992). Tree diameter at breast height ranged from 18 to 52 cm for *H. spruceana* and 19–50 cm for *E. coriacea* (Table S1).

Tree stem CH₄ measurements

Tree stem CH₄ emissions were measured during daylight hours over 3 wk in May 2022 in the flooded season at both plots (Table 1). Emissions were measured at two heights: 30–60 cm and 70–100 cm above the floodwater line (*c.* 1.5 m in igapó and *c.* 4 m in várzea), using chambers as described in

Table 1 Summary of measurements by year and site for each field campaign.

Year	Site ID	Analysis
2019	Igapó; várzea	EC, pH, DO, fine-root biomass and coarse root biomass from three soil depths (0–50 cm, 50–100 cm, and 100–150 cm) per tree in each plot
2021	Igapó; várzea	EC, pH, DO, dissolved CH ₄ , DOC, MPP from three soil depths (0–50 cm, 50–100 cm, and 100–150 cm) per tree in each plot
2022	Igapó; várzea	Stem CH ₄ emissions at two stem heights (30–60 cm and 70–100 cm) from five trees per species (<i>Eschweilera coriacea</i> and <i>Hevea spruceana</i>) per plot

Pangala *et al.* (2017). The flexible transparent polycarbonate chambers with neoprene gas tight foams around the edges were strapped to the stems using ratchet straps, and the visible gaps

around the edges were plugged with modelling clay. Once attached to the tree stems, the chambers were connected via gas-tight tubing to the microportable greenhouse gas analyser (ABB LGR GLA131-GGA), which analysed CH₄ concentration changes from the tree stem chamber in real time. CH₄ emissions were calculated based on the linear change in CH₄ concentration over time within the chamber headspace.

$$F = \frac{d(\text{CH}_4)}{dt} \times \frac{PV}{ART}$$

where F is the flux in $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$, P is atmospheric pressure, T is temperature, R is the universal gas constant, A is the surface area of the chamber, and V is the volume of air enclosed by the chamber. A linear regression was applied to each 5-min chamber closure time series, and only emission estimates with a correlation coefficient (R^2) > 0.97 were retained for analysis (all emissions met this threshold). Final emission values are reported $\text{mg CH}_4 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$, normalised to the stem surface area enclosed by the chamber.

Belowground measurements

Because of logistical constraints and pandemic-related travel disruptions, belowground measurements and stem emission measurements were NOT all measured in the same year; details of when each of the measurements were made are included in Table 1. Interannual comparisons (2019 vs 2021) of porewater chemistry (EC, pH and DO) indicated minimal variation between sampling campaigns.

Porewater chemistry

Porewater was sampled from standpipe piezometers constructed from PVC pipes, installed at depths of 0–50 cm, 50–100 cm, and 100–150 cm. Each piezometer had 3-mm holes drilled *c.* 1.5 cm apart within its designated 50-cm segment (0–50 cm, 50–100 cm, or 100–150 cm), with end caps fitted to the top of the piezometer to exclude rainwater. Water was extracted from the target depth via tubing connected to a peristaltic pump. During the dry season, piezometers were installed at the desired depths within a 50 cm radius around each monitored tree (20 trees in total; three piezometers per tree) and allowed to stabilise for a year before sampling commenced in May 2019 (Table 1). Each tree had its own set of piezometers at all three depths, enabling assessment of tree-specific effects relative to belowground conditions. No samples were collected during the 2022 campaign as piezometers were submerged under water.

Water samples extracted from piezometers were analysed for dissolved CH₄, DOC, pH, EC, and DO. Dissolved CH₄ concentrations were measured from the equilibrated headspace of porewater samples. 60 ml of porewater and 40 ml of atmospheric air were shaken vigorously for 5 min inside a 100-ml syringe, after which a 10-ml aliquot of atmospheric air was added to a 3-ml Exetainer vial (Labco, Lampeter, UK) for analysis of CH₄

concentrations using gas chromatography (GC) (Clarus 480 Perkin Elmer, Shelton, CT, USA). Samples were corrected for atmospheric contamination, and dissolved CH₄ concentrations were calculated from the headspace CH₄ mixing ratio using Henry's law, accounting for partitioning between water and gas phases and corrected for temperature at the time of equilibration using the NEONDISSGAS package (Cawley *et al.*, 2020).

Samples for DOC concentration were collected from piezometers at all depths and filtered through a Whatman 40- μm filter. Due to the remote location of sampling, all samples were placed on ice to keep them < 4°C while in the field. Samples were frozen within 14 d of collection for preservation (Cook *et al.*, 2016) and analysed using a Shimadzu TOC-L CPH analyser (Kyoto, Japan).

EC and pH were measured using a multiparameter pocket tester (Apera Instruments PC60 Premium, Shanghai, China). The handheld device was calibrated against a Hanna Instruments HI 2003 Edge[®] EC Meter and Hanna Instruments HI5221 pH Meter (Smithfield, RI, USA). EC reflects the concentration of dissolved ions in the water column and was used here as an indicator of differences in ionic and nutrient content between white-water (várzea) and black-water (igapó) floodplain environments, rather than as a measure of salinity. DO was analysed in porewater using a Hanna Dissolved Oxygen Meter (Model HI9143). Belowground samples were collected in the wet seasons of May 2019 and 2021. In May 2019, only DO, EC, and pH were measured, with analysis expanded in 2021 to include DOC and dissolved CH₄ (Table 1).

CH₄ production potential (MPP)

Intact soil cores were extracted to 150 cm during the wet season in 2021 using a Russian-type peat auger (Eijkelkamp, Giesbeek, the Netherlands) and sectioned into depth intervals of 0–5, 5–30, 30–50, 50–100, and 100–150 cm. Each section was placed into a gas-tight incubation container, consisting of a PVC pipe cut to fit the intact core and sealed with two PVC end caps. One end cap sealed the bottom of the core, and the other was attached to the top and fitted with a three-way valve for gas sampling. It was flushed with N₂ to establish anoxia and incubated in the dark at field temperature (average of 26°C) for 14 d. Headspace gas samples (2 ml) were withdrawn at 0, 6, 12, 24, 48, and 72 h, then every 24 h to Day 7 and every 48 h until Day 14, and analysed for CH₄ on a Shimadzu GC-FID (Kyoto, Japan), and replaced with equal volumes of N₂ to maintain pressure. MPP was calculated as follows:

$$\text{MPP} = \frac{\Delta n\text{CH}_4}{A\Delta t}$$

where $\Delta n\text{CH}_4$ is the cumulative increase in moles of CH₄ in the headspace over the incubation interval (after correcting concentrations for N₂ backfilling), and $A\Delta t$ is the product of the core cross-sectional area and incubation time, giving units of $\text{mmol CH}_4 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$, which were converted to $\text{mg CH}_4 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ using the molar mass of CH₄.

Root biomass

Three soil cores per tree per depth were extracted using a soil auger (5 cm diameter, 150 cm long) in May 2019 (wet season). The soil cores were extracted within a 75 cm radius around the tree (same 20 trees that were measured for tree stem emissions), with samples taken at three soil depths, with three replicates at each depth: 0–50 cm, 50–100 cm, and 100–150 cm. Root biomass was measured by separating roots from the soil by wet sieving and manual sorting, and separating roots > 2 mm (coarse roots) and < 2 mm (fine roots) in diameter. Roots were then oven-dried at 60°C for 72 h and weighed to determine root biomass per volume of soil.

Although roots from neighbouring trees may also have been present within the sampled volume, focal trees were generally well-spaced (most separated from their nearest neighbours by *c.* 3 m in igapó and *c.* 5 m in várzea), so sampling within a 75 cm radius of each stem likely captured a substantial proportion of roots from the focal tree and its immediate neighbourhood while not guaranteeing exclusive attribution.

Root biomass measurements preceded stem CH₄ emission measurements by *c.* 2 yr (2019 vs 2022). Although absolute root biomass may vary between years due to turnover, the vertical distribution of roots in mature Amazon floodplain forests is largely structured by the annual flood pulse, which regulates oxygen availability and root development (Parolin *et al.*, 2004; Wittmann *et al.*, 2010). Root dynamics typically vary more across hydrological phases within a year than between years within the same season. As both root sampling and emission measurements were conducted during the flooded season, they represent comparable stages of the flood cycle. We therefore interpret the observed root distribution as representative of the relative rooting environment influencing methane supply, recognising that inter-annual turnover may affect absolute biomass but is unlikely to change the vertical pattern or its relationship with stem CH₄ emissions.

Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were conducted in R v.12.0. Normality was visually assessed, and data were transformed where necessary. Stem CH₄ emissions were analysed with linear models (log-transformed), including site, species, height, and two-way interactions. Model simplification was guided by Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC), with residuals inspected for assumption violations.

The effect of belowground parameters (EC, DO, pH, MPP) on dissolved CH₄ was analysed with linear mixed effect models including tree species, site, soil depth, and tree identity as a random effect. We also tested for species-dependent effects by including an interaction between tree species and site. Model selection was based on AIC values, and the final model retained only significant predictors.

Fine and coarse root biomass were analysed using linear mixed-effects models. For each root type, a global model included soil depth, tree species, site, and the interaction

between species and site as fixed effects, with tree identity included as a random effect to account for repeated sampling.

To examine the relationship between stem CH₄ emissions and belowground variables, we used Pearson's correlation coefficients. Correlations were performed separately for várzea and igapó forests, and then further stratified by species and stem height. Fine and coarse root biomass were analysed at depths of 50, 100, and 150 cm. A significance threshold of $P < 0.05$ was used throughout, with P -values between 0.05 and 0.1 interpreted as indicative of trends. All reported correlations include Pearson's r and associated P -values.

Results

Stem CH₄ emission magnitude and variability across sites and species

Across both forest types and species, there was a pronounced vertical decline in emissions: stem CH₄ emissions were consistently higher at 30–60 cm than at 70–100 cm ($P < 0.001$; Fig. 2). At a given height, emissions were also higher in várzea than in igapó forests ($P = 0.041$; Fig. 2). Although mean emissions differed between tree species within sites, species identity did not explain significant variation in stem CH₄ emissions once site and height were accounted for – the final model for CH₄ emissions only retained site and height as fixed effects. Stem CH₄ emissions exhibited substantial variability among individual trees, particularly at 30–60 cm height, with the greatest variability observed in the várzea forest.

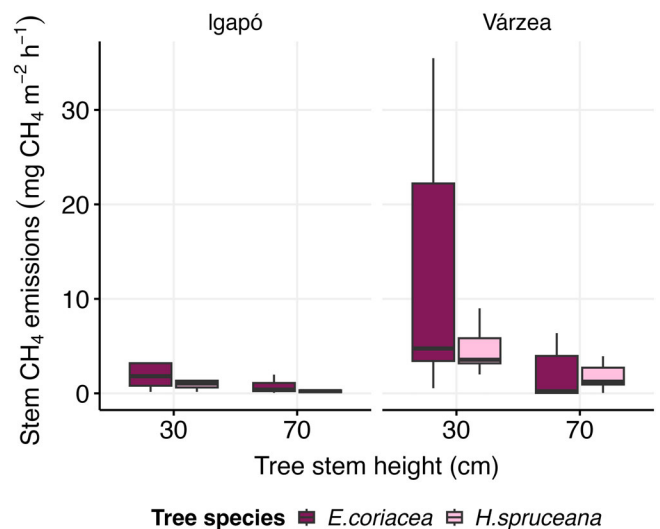


Fig. 2 Stem CH₄ emissions for two species (*Eschweilera coriacea*, $n = 10$; *Hevea spruceana*, $n = 10$) in two floodplain forest types (várzea, igapó), measured at two heights (30–60 cm and 70–100 cm relative to the water surface). Emissions ($\text{mg CH}_4 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$) are reported per unit area of the stem surface enclosed by the chamber. The central line represents the median; the box spans the interquartile range (IQR; 25th–75th percentiles); and the whiskers extend to the most extreme values within $1.5 \times \text{IQR}$.

In the igapó forest, mean stem CH₄ emissions at 30–60 cm were lower overall, averaging 3.14 ± 3.86 mg CH₄ m⁻² h⁻¹ for *E. coriacea* and 0.92 ± 0.53 mg CH₄ m⁻² h⁻¹ for *H. spruceana*. At 70–100 cm, emissions further declined to 0.75 ± 0.79 mg CH₄ m⁻² h⁻¹ for *E. coriacea* and 0.24 ± 0.14 mg CH₄ m⁻² h⁻¹ for *H. spruceana*. At 30- to 60-cm stem height in the várzea forest, mean stem CH₄ emissions were 13.3 ± 15.0 mg CH₄ m⁻² h⁻¹ for *E. coriacea* and 4.71 ± 2.77 mg CH₄ m⁻² h⁻¹ for *H. spruceana*. At 70–100 cm, emissions declined substantially in both species, averaging 2.12 ± 2.91 mg CH₄ m⁻² h⁻¹ for *E. coriacea* and 1.77 ± 1.55 mg CH₄ m⁻² h⁻¹ for *H. spruceana*.

Porewater chemistry and CH₄ production potential variability across depth and sites

No significant interannual differences (2019 vs 2021) were found in porewater chemistry measured (DO, pH, and EC) after accounting for soil depth ($P > 0.05$; Table 2). Based on the absence of detectable year effects, we assumed that belowground parameters measured in 2021 were representative of belowground conditions during the 2022 stem CH₄ emission measurements (Table 2). Accordingly, tree stem CH₄ emissions were modelled against belowground parameters measured in 2021.

Dissolved CH₄ concentrations exhibited strong vertical structure across soil profiles, with concentrations highest at 0- to 50-cm soil depth and declining with depth (Table 2; Fig. 3). In the mixed-effects model, dissolved CH₄ decreased significantly with increasing soil depth, was higher beneath *H. spruceana* than *E. coriacea*, and increased with increasing MPP.

Across both sites, porewater chemistry and MPP displayed pronounced depth-related gradients. In igapó soils, dissolved CH₄ concentrations were lower overall but followed similar depth-related declines, peaking at 50 cm and averaging 64.6 μmol l⁻¹. MPP was lower than in várzea, averaging 1.14 mg CH₄ m⁻² h⁻¹ at 30 cm and declining to 0.29 mg CH₄ m⁻² h⁻¹ at 150 cm (Table 2). Igapó soils remained more acidic and less conductive than várzea soils, with pH ranging from 3.82 to 6.7 and EC averaging 38.8 μS cm⁻¹ at 50 cm, declining further with depth. DO concentrations decreased from 4.56 mg l⁻¹ at 50 cm to 1.11 mg l⁻¹ at 150 cm, while DOC declined from 19.7 to 3.9 mg l⁻¹ across the profile (Table 2).

In várzea soils, dissolved CH₄ averaged 129 μmol l⁻¹ at 50 cm and declined to 23.2 μmol l⁻¹ at 150 cm, while MPP was greatest in shallow soils (mean 9.27 mg CH₄ m⁻² h⁻¹ at 30 cm) and decreased sharply with depth. DO concentrations declined from 3.0 mg l⁻¹ at 50 cm to 0.25 mg l⁻¹ at 150 cm, and DOC concentrations decreased from 8.32 to 2.9 mg l⁻¹ across the same depth interval. Soil water pH ranged from near-neutral values in surface soils to slightly lower values at depth, while EC remained comparatively high throughout the profile (Table 2).

Dissolved CH₄ differed significantly across tree species, with greater quantities found in depths associated with *H. spruceana*, compared with *E. coriacea* ($P < 0.01$) – a pattern repeated in both igapó and várzea. Despite clear site-level differences in porewater chemistry and MPP, site, pH, DO, EC, DOC, and the site × species interaction did not explain additional variation in

dissolved CH₄ once soil depth, tree species, and MPP were included in the model ($P > 0.05$).

Root biomass distribution variability across depth and sites

Root biomass was strongly structured by soil depth, with both fine and coarse roots concentrated in the upper 0- to 50-cm soil layer (Table 2). Root biomass declined sharply with increasing depth and was negligible below 50 cm. No significant differences were found between the two tree species for either fine or coarse root biomass at any depth.

In the igapó forest, fine-root biomass at 0–50 cm averaged 945 ± 486 g m⁻³, while coarse root biomass was 949 ± 606 g m⁻³. Root biomass at greater depths was negligible: fine roots averaged 23.9 ± 31 g m⁻³ at 50–100 cm and 0.113 ± 0.621 g m⁻³ at 100–150 cm. Coarse root biomass at these depths was 4.38 ± 14.7 g m⁻³ and 1.93 ± 7.56 g m⁻³, respectively (Table 2). The várzea forest exhibited a similar depth-related pattern, but with higher biomass values than igapó (Table 2). Fine root biomass at 0–50 cm averaged 1257 ± 700 g m⁻³, while coarse root biomass averaged 978 ± 540 g m⁻³. At 50–100 cm, fine and coarse root biomass declined to 5.07 ± 13.6 g m⁻³ and 1.99 ± 5.29 g m⁻³, respectively, and decreased further at 100–150 cm to 2.61 ± 14.3 g m⁻³ for fine roots, with coarse roots at 7 ± 20.3 g m⁻³ (Table 2).

Relationships between belowground variables and stem CH₄ emissions

With lower overall stem CH₄ emissions in igapó, the relationship between belowground variables and emissions was weaker and not statistically significant (Table S2). Across all trees, moderate positive trends were observed for MPP ($r = 0.52$, $P = 0.067$) and EC ($r = 0.49$, $P = 0.081$), but these relationships were not significant. Fine-root biomass at 0–50 cm depth was weakly correlated with 30- to 60-cm stem emission ($r = 0.26$, $P = 0.36$), and no relationship was detected with coarse root biomass. Species-level analyses revealed no meaningful correlations for *E. coriacea* and for *H. spruceana*. At 70- to 100-cm stem height, emissions were lower, and all correlations with belowground variables diminished and were statistically nonsignificant (Table S3).

In várzea, stem CH₄ emissions at 30–60 cm height showed moderate-to-strong correlations with several belowground variables. Across all trees, pH ($r = 0.60$, $P = 0.026$) and EC ($r = 0.57$, $P = 0.034$) were the best predictors of stem emissions at 30–60 cm (Table S2). MPP in topsoil (0–50 cm) was also correlated positively with 30- to 60-cm emissions ($r = 0.62$, $P = 0.021$). Root biomass further explained variation in stem emissions. Fine-root biomass at 0–50 cm depth showed a positive correlation with stem emissions at 30–60 cm ($r = 0.49$; $P = 0.048$). Coarse root biomass was not significantly associated with stem emissions. Species-specific patterns revealed stronger belowground coupling in *E. coriacea*. For this species, 30- to 60-cm stem emission was significantly correlated with EC ($r = 0.70$, $P = 0.043$) and MPP ($r = 0.68$, $P = 0.048$), with a borderline association with fine-root biomass ($r = 0.56$, $P = 0.061$). For *H.*

Table 2 Belowground parameters measured at three soil depths (0–50 cm, 50–100 cm, and 100–150 cm) during the wet seasons of 2019 and 2021.

Study year	Study site	Tree species	Soil depth (cm)	EC ± SD (µS cm ⁻¹)	pH ± SD	Dissolved CH ₄ ± SD (µmol l ⁻¹)	DO ± SD (mg l ⁻¹)	DOC ± SD (mg l ⁻¹)	MPP ± SD (mg CH ₄ m ⁻² h ⁻¹)	Fine-root biomass (g m ⁻³)	Coarse root biomass (g m ⁻³)	
2019	Igapó	<i>H. spruceana</i>	0–50	40.2 ± 6.4	4.9 ± 0.6	–	4.5 ± 1.1	–	–	817 ± 255	1029 ± 789	
			50–100	26.7 ± 6.6	4.4 ± 0.8	–	3.1 ± 0.3	–	–	–	29.1 ± 34.4	8.75 ± 20.1
			100–150	17 ± 4.6	4.2 ± 0.7	–	1.3 ± 0.6	–	–	–	0.22 ± 0.87	1.46 ± 5.65
	Várzea	<i>E. coriacea</i>	0–50	38.4 ± 3.97	5.29 ± 1.01	–	4.93 ± 1.08	–	–	–	1073 ± 622	867 ± 351
			50–100	24.9 ± 5.14	5.29 ± 1.07	–	2.78 ± 0.51	–	–	–	18.7 ± 29.3	0 ± 0
			100–150	12.6 ± 2.39	4.67 ± 1.42	–	1.08 ± 0.46	–	–	–	0 ± 0	2.39 ± 9.26
	Várzea	<i>H. spruceana</i>	0–50	128 ± 33.1	7.04 ± 0.44	–	3.17 ± 1.43	–	–	–	1394 ± 714	1098 ± 632
			50–100	72.7 ± 11.5	6.61 ± 0.98	–	1.47 ± 0.38	–	–	–	10.13 ± 18.2	2.24 ± 6.7
			100–150	54.5 ± 9.26	5.78 ± 1.34	–	0.37 ± 0.21	–	–	–	0 ± 0	4.33 ± 11.97
Várzea	<i>E. coriacea</i>	0–50	114 ± 26.6	6.55 ± 0.49	–	3.5 ± 0.77	–	–	–	1120 ± 682	857 ± 415	
		50–100	77.5 ± 15.4	6.75 ± 0.44	–	1.6 ± 0.27	–	–	–	0 ± 0	1.74 ± 3.61	
		100–150	57.2 ± 11.2	6.41 ± 0.22	–	0.39 ± 0.16	–	–	–	5.22 ± 20.3	9.67 ± 26.4	
2021	Igapó	<i>H. spruceana</i>	0–50	39.5 ± 7.4	4.7 ± 0.7	69.6 ± 15.1	4.3 ± 1	19.8 ± 7.1	0.76 ± 0.11	–	–	–
			50–100	26.7 ± 7.5	4.5 ± 0.7	42.7 ± 5.4	2.9 ± 0.6	10.9 ± 3.6	0.44 ± 0.07	–	–	–
			100–150	16.3 ± 3.6	4.4 ± 0.8	12.8 ± 5.6	1.3 ± 0.6	4.0 ± 2.3	0.29 ± 0.05	–	–	–
	Várzea	<i>E. coriacea</i>	0–50	38.3 ± 5.5	5.0 ± 1.1	59.6 ± 26.7	4.8 ± 0.9	19.6 ± 7.8	0.72 ± 0.12	–	–	–
			50–100	23.6 ± 4.2	4.8 ± 1.1	20.9 ± 10.4	2.7 ± 0.8	8.1 ± 1.0	0.47 ± 0.09	–	–	–
			100–150	11.9 ± 1.4	4.7 ± 1.3	7.9 ± 7.8	0.9 ± 0.3	3.8 ± 2.2	0.29 ± 0.02	–	–	–
	Várzea	<i>H. spruceana</i>	0–50	111 ± 19.7	6.5 ± 0.3	153 ± 37.3	2.7 ± 1.3	9.5 ± 1.3	5.07 ± 0.98	–	–	–
			50–100	75.4 ± 11.1	6.2 ± 0.7	76.0 ± 22.1	1.3 ± 0.5	4.7 ± 2.6	3.21 ± 0.65	–	–	–
			100–150	50.8 ± 9.4	5.7 ± 1.4	34.2 ± 8.3	0.2 ± 0.2	2.6 ± 0.6	1.44 ± 0.24	–	–	–
Várzea	<i>E. coriacea</i>	0–50	117 ± 31.7	6.83 ± 0.3	104.1 ± 41	3.3 ± 0.8	7.1 ± 2.1	5.42 ± 0.64	–	–	–	
		50–100	76.6 ± 18.8	6.76 ± 0.3	35.8 ± 13.7	1.6 ± 0.5	5.7 ± 2.2	2.76 ± 0.37	–	–	–	
		100–150	52.9 ± 14.3	6.6 ± 0.4	12.1 ± 12.6	0.3 ± 0.1	3.2 ± 1.3	1.20 ± 0.36	–	–	–	

Samples are presented separately by site (Igapó and várzea) and by the tree species associated with the piezometer locations. Results are expressed as mean ± SD.

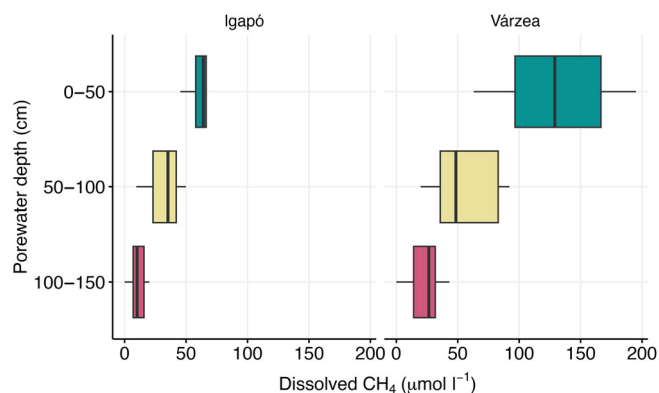


Fig. 3 Dissolved CH_4 concentrations ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) at three soil depths (0–50, 50–100, 100–150 cm) around each sampled tree across igapó and várzea forest plots. The central line represents the median; the box spans the interquartile range (IQR; 25th–75th percentiles); and the whiskers extend to the most extreme values within $1.5 \times \text{IQR}$.

spruceana, correlations were weaker and nonsignificant (e.g. MPP: $r = 0.41$, $P = 0.18$). As in igapó, correlations weakened at 70- to 100-cm stem height (Table S3).

Discussion

Our study demonstrates that stem CH_4 emissions in Amazonian floodplain forests are more strongly regulated by site characteristics (white-water vs black-water) than species identity (*E. coriacea* vs *H. spruceana*). In the high-emitting, white water site, we found that shallow soil biogeochemical properties were the best predictors of stem emissions at 30- to 60-cm stem height.

Site-level biogeochemistry as the dominant control

Stem CH_4 emissions were significantly higher in várzea than in igapó (c. 4× higher in várzea than igapó), irrespective of species or stem height (Fig. 2), consistent with basin-scale assessments that white-water floodplains emit more CH_4 than black-water systems (Pangala *et al.*, 2017; Gauci *et al.*, 2022). Várzea porewaters had higher EC, near-neutral pH, lower DO, and higher dissolved CH_4 , conditions favourable for methanogenesis (Segers, 1998; Conrad, 2007; Bridgman *et al.*, 2013). By contrast, igapó porewaters were acidic and more oxygenated, conditions that constrain methanogenesis and favour CH_4 oxidation (Teh *et al.*, 2005; Laanbroek, 2010; Table 2). Independent observations from Amazon floodplain lakes similarly report higher CH_4 production and greater diffusive and ebullitive emissions in white-water settings than in black-water environments (Engle & Melack, 2000; Barbosa *et al.*, 2016, 2021). Given our measurements were made within a single flooded season, hydrology cannot explain the order-of-magnitude between-site differences in stem emissions; instead, the contrast in porewater biogeochemistry appears to be the more plausible explanation.

Across both forests, the 0- to 50-cm soil layer emerged as the primary zone of CH_4 supply, with MPP, dissolved CH_4 , and

fine-root biomass generally declining with depth (Table 2). This vertical pattern suggests that deeper layers (50–100 cm and 100–150 cm) contributed less to CH_4 production and availability than the shallow soil, consistent with previous wetland studies showing that root activity, fresh carbon inputs, and strong redox gradients concentrate CH_4 production near the surface (Segers, 1998; Aulakh *et al.*, 2001; Le Mer & Roger, 2001; Liu *et al.*, 2012; Määttä & Malhotra, 2024). However, this shallow active zone was more pronounced in várzea than in igapó, with higher MPP and dissolved CH_4 concentrations in the 0- to 50-cm layer, and only in várzea did these shallow belowground variables show clear relationships with stem CH_4 emissions (Tables S2 and S3). Together, these results suggest that although the same near-surface depth zone is important in both forests, it contributes more strongly to stem CH_4 emissions in várzea than in igapó.

In várzea, basal stem CH_4 emissions were closely linked to shallow methanogenic conditions, rather than to bulk carbon availability (Table S2). Near-surface porewater chemistry and MPP explained variation in basal stem emissions, while DOC showed no relationship, indicating that process controls were more important than substrate quantity alone. Associations with fine roots were confined to the upper soil layers, again pointing to a shallow source zone. By contrast, basal stem emissions in igapó showed little sensitivity to below-ground variables, likely because acidic and relatively oxygenated conditions constrained CH_4 production despite high DOC availability. A similar pattern, in which high DOC does not necessarily translate into high net CH_4 emissions, has been reported in Amazon black-water systems and tropical peat swap forests (Pangala *et al.*, 2013, 2017; Sawakuchi *et al.*, 2014; Girkin *et al.*, 2020; Somers *et al.*, 2023).

Our measurements of MPP and dissolved CH_4 integrate the net effect of several belowground processes that were not quantified directly but are known to influence CH_4 production and availability in wetlands. Variation in litter inputs and quality, carbon-to-nitrogen (C:N) ratios, nutrient status, and the availability of alternative electron acceptors such as nitrate, ferric iron, and sulphate can all stimulate or suppress CH_4 production by altering substrate supply and redox constraints, as well as by shifting competition among microbial communities (Le Mer & Roger, 2001; Conrad, 2007; Bridgman *et al.*, 2013). The strong correlation between basal stem emission (30–60 cm), MPP, and dissolved CH_4 in the 0- to 50-cm layer in várzea indicates that these unmeasured processes likely acted through their effects on shallow CH_4 production, but explicitly quantifying litter inputs/quality, C:N ratio, nutrient, and redox chemistry may help explain residual within-site variability.

Species identity as a secondary driver

Tree species identity exerted only a secondary influence on stem CH_4 emissions relative to site-level biogeochemistry. Although mean stem emissions differed between *E. coriacea* and *H. spruceana* within sites, species were not retained as a significant predictor once site and stem height were included in the model.

This indicates that species identity, and by implication wood density alone, cannot explain the major spatial differences in stem CH₄ emissions observed between white-water várzea and black-water igapó forests.

This is particularly notable because our species comparison was designed around contrasting wood density. Based on previous work, lower wood density is often expected to promote higher stem CH₄ emissions by reducing resistance to internal gas transport (Covey *et al.*, 2012; Pangala *et al.*, 2013; van Haren *et al.*, 2021; Soosaar *et al.*, 2022). However, the opposite pattern was observed here: *E. coriacea* (high density, 0.6–0.9 g cm⁻³; Table S1) consistently emitted more CH₄ than *H. spruceana* (low density, 0.23–0.7 g cm⁻³; Table S1), especially in várzea. Emissions ranged from 0.007 to 35.5 mg CH₄ m⁻² h⁻¹ in *E. coriacea*, nearly fourfold higher at maximum than *H. spruceana* (0.04–9.15 mg CH₄ m⁻² h⁻¹). However, this comparison should be interpreted cautiously, as our inference is based on only two co-occurring species and uses species identity as a proxy for contrasting wood density rather than directly testing the broader range of woody traits across multiple floodplain taxa.

While wood traits are shown to influence gas transport and in stem CH₄ production and uptake (Soosaar *et al.*, 2022; Epron *et al.*, 2023), they cannot account for the order-of-magnitude differences observed between várzea and igapó for the same species. Our results are therefore more consistent with a framework in which species traits modulate emissions once CH₄ is available, rather than acting as the dominant control over spatial patterns in stem CH₄ emissions (Warner *et al.*, 2017; Pitz *et al.*, 2018; Barba *et al.*, 2019; Covey & Megonigal, 2019). Other stem and bark traits, including porosity, permeability, moisture content, parenchyma fraction, lenticel abundance, internal stem chemistry, bark and stem methanotrophy, and the abundance or activity of methanogenic and methanotrophic communities within bark and wood tissues, likely govern gas transport and in-stem CH₄ cycling, and may all therefore contribute to variation in net stem emissions (Covey & Megonigal, 2019; Yip *et al.*, 2019; Jeffrey *et al.*, 2021; Mochidome & Epron, 2024).

Intra- and interspecific variability

Pairing each tree stem emission with the belowground profile allowed us to examine variability within sites and between co-occurring species. Despite the dominant role of site-level biogeochemistry, stem CH₄ emissions varied by an order of magnitude among collocated trees in várzea, whereas ranges in igapó were much narrower (Fig. 2). This within-site variability has been reported in other wetland forests (Pangala *et al.*, 2013; Cugler *et al.*, 2024) and in global syntheses (Barba *et al.*, 2019), but our results suggest it is site-contingent: variability was greater in nutrient-rich, near-neutral várzea and dampened in acidic, more oxygenated igapó, consistent with geochemical constraints on CH₄ production and oxidation (Yip *et al.*, 2019; Li *et al.*, 2020; Wang *et al.*, 2021). Thus, when porewater chemistry is conducive to CH₄ production, both mean stem emissions and tree-to-tree variability appear to increase, but the cause of increased variability is unknown.

Stem CH₄ emissions declined significantly with stem height (30–60 cm > 70–100 cm; Fig. 2). Similar decreases in emissions with stem height are widely reported across tropical, temperate, and boreal forests and are consistent with predominantly diffusive transport from a soil source, with strongest gradients at the stem base (Rusch & Rennenberg, 1998; Pangala *et al.*, 2017; Pitz & Megonigal, 2017; Sjögersten *et al.*, 2020; Jeffrey *et al.*, 2021; Gauci *et al.*, 2022; Machacova *et al.*, 2023). However, the magnitude of this decline differed between species: emissions declined *c.* sixfold with height in *E. coriacea* but *c.* two- to threefold in *H. spruceana* across sites. This suggests that species-specific traits may regulate gas conductance, transport, and degassing along the stem (Covey & Megonigal, 2019; Mochidome & Epron, 2024). Potential in-stem CH₄ cycling (production and oxidation) may further reshape these vertical emission patterns (Yip *et al.*, 2019; Li *et al.*, 2020; Zhou *et al.*, 2021; Epron *et al.*, 2023). Our observations of wet, degraded heartwood in *E. coriacea* are consistent with this possibility, though confirmation would require further investigation. The measured belowground variables explained only part of the within-site and between-species variation in stem CH₄ emissions. It appears that once CH₄ is available in the near-surface, additional stem-level traits likely shape stem emissions.

Root–soil interactions and CH₄ supply

Across both forest types, the upper 0- to 50-cm soil layer showed consistently elevated MPP, dissolved CH₄, and fine-root biomass relative to deeper soils (50–100 and 100–150 cm; Table 2). This pattern indicates a shallow active zone for potential CH₄ supply (increased CH₄ production and availability), consistent with previous wetland studies, showing that fresh carbon inputs, strong redox gradients, and root activity tend to concentrate CH₄ production in near-surface soils (Segers, 1998; Silver *et al.*, 1999; Conrad, 2007). Within várzea, basal (30–60 cm) stem CH₄ emission was positively correlated with fine-root biomass between 0 and 50 cm, whereas coarse roots showed no relationship. This suggests that fine roots may be more important than coarse roots in shaping the shallow belowground environment linked to stem CH₄ emissions. Through their greater surface area and metabolic activity, fine roots can influence rhizosphere carbon inputs, oxygen availability, and water uptake, thereby affecting CH₄ production, availability, and transport to the stem (Aulakh *et al.*, 2001; Bridgman *et al.*, 2013).

In várzea, the two species exhibited distinct associations with below-ground variables measured (Table S3): for *E. coriacea*, basal emissions were strongly correlated with EC and MPP and showed a near-significant correlation with fine-root biomass; for *H. spruceana*, pH and EC were the dominant controls. In igapó, correlations between stem emissions and belowground variables were weak or absent, consistent with acidic, more oxygenated porewaters limiting methanogenesis and reducing variation in CH₄ supply.

Our data collectively suggest a supply-then-transport hypothesis: where shallow porewater chemistry favours methanogenesis (várzea), dense fine roots likely enhance CH₄ supply to stems, increasing mean emissions and tree-to-tree variance; where

chemistry constrains methanogenesis (igapó), this root–stem coupling weakens, and emissions remain low. In this framework, species and wood traits act downstream of supply, modulating transport and in-stem processing once CH₄ is available, rather than determining supply itself (Pangala *et al.*, 2015; Covey & Megonigal, 2019; van Haren *et al.*, 2021; Soosaar *et al.*, 2022; Moisan *et al.*, 2024).

Conclusions

Our findings demonstrate that stem CH₄ emissions in Amazon floodplain forests are controlled primarily by site-level subsurface biogeochemistry rather than by species identity alone. Across two co-occurring tree species with contrasting wood density, emissions were consistently higher in white-water várzea than in black-water igapó. By linking stem emissions to porewater chemistry, MPP, and fine-root biomass, this study provides mechanistic insight into why white-water várzea forests function as CH₄ hotspots, while black-water igapó forests act as weaker sources. Together, these results indicate that variation in shallow methanogenic conditions or a near-surface zone of CH₄ supply between floodplain types underpins spatial variation in Amazonian tree stem CH₄ emissions. Species traits may still influence stem CH₄ emissions, but they appear to act as secondary modifiers rather than primary controls and should be examined more directly in future studies. More broadly, our results indicate that basin-scale assessments of Amazon floodplain CH₄ emissions will need to incorporate biogeochemical gradients and root-zone properties to better represent spatial variation in tree stem emissions. Scaling based solely on tree species composition will misrepresent emission patterns.

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Competing interests










None declared.

Author contributions

SRP and HRB conceived the study. HRB was supervised by SRP, NPM and AMH. HRB coordinated logistics and led fieldwork

with support from CG, JL and RNdS. RNdS and SRP collected the 2019 and 2021 belowground datasets; SRP and RNdS also established plots and installed instrumentation. DMOE supervised and trained HRB in laboratory analyses of belowground properties and supported subsequent data interpretation. DG and LPR facilitated site access and permissions. HRB and SRP analysed the data, and HRB, SRP and NPM wrote the manuscript; all authors contributed to revisions and approved the final version.

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Data availability

Data available in article Supporting Information (Dataset S1).

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Supporting Information

Additional Supporting Information may be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of the article.

Dataset S1 Dataset of the present study.

Fig. S1 Photographs of plots, flooded forest, and stem chamber.

Table S1 Tree-level stem CH₄ emissions, wood density, and diameter at breast height (DBH) by plot.

Table S2 Pearson correlation coefficients (*r*) and corresponding *P*-values (*P*) for stem CH₄ emission and belowground variables.

Table S3 Pearson correlation coefficients (*r*) and associated *P*-values (*P*) for stem CH₄ emission and belowground variables, separated by tree species.

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