

1 **Insights into the mechanism of diurnal variations in methane emission**
2 **from the stem surfaces of *Alnus japonica***

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30

31 **Brief heading (< 93 characters)**

32 Diurnal amplitudes in stem CH₄ emissions are season-dependent.

33

34

35 **Summary**

- 36 ● Recent studies have suggested that in certain environments, tree stems emit methane (CH₄). This
37 study explored the mechanism of CH₄ emission from the stem surfaces of *Alnus japonica* in a
38 riparian wetland. Stem CH₄ emission rates and sap flux were monitored year-round, and fine-root
39 anatomy was investigated.
- 40 ● CH₄ emission rates were estimated using a closed-chamber method. Sap flux was measured using
41 Granier-type thermal dissipation probes. Root anatomy was studied using both optical and cryo-
42 scanning electron microscopy.
- 43 ● CH₄ emissions during the leafy season exhibited a diurnally changing component superimposed
44 upon an underlying continuum in which the diurnal variation was in phase with sap flux. We
45 propose a model in which stem CH₄ emission involves at least two processes: a sap flux-
46 dependent component responsible for the diurnal changes, and a sap flux-independent component
47 responsible for the background continuum. The contribution ratios of the two processes are
48 season-dependent.
- 49 ● The background continuum possibly resulted from the diffusive transport of gaseous CH₄ from
50 the roots to the upper trunk. Root anatomy analysis indicated that the intercellular space of the
51 cortex and empty xylem cells in fine roots could serve as a passageway for transport of gaseous
52 CH₄.

53

54 **Key words:** methane flux, stem, diurnal variations, sap flux, *Alnus japonica*, fine-root, anatomy,
55 optical and cryo-SEM images

56

57 **Introduction**

58 Atmospheric methane (CH₄) is an important greenhouse gas; therefore, the identification of its
59 source and its quantification are crucial issues in addressing climate change. The global CH₄ budget
60 remains highly uncertain because of the diversity of biogenic and abiotic CH₄ sources and emission

61 processes, reduction by chemical reaction with the short-lived hydroxyl radical, and lack of
62 observations of sources and sinks (Saunois et al., 2020). Wetland CH₄ emissions are recognized as the
63 largest natural source in the global CH₄ budget, contributing to roughly one third of total natural and
64 anthropogenic emissions. However the estimated CH₄ emission strengths are still highly uncertain
65 (Kirschke et al., 2013), clearly indicating that there is a need for improved estimates.

66 In recent years, emission of CH₄ from the stems of living and dead trees has drawn considerable
67 attention as a potentially important new source of atmospheric CH₄ (Carmichael et al., 2014, 2018,
68 Barba et al., 2019a; Covey and Megonigal, 2019). Findings of experimental studies have increasingly
69 suggested that tree-mediated processes can contribute significantly as a pathway of CH₄ emission in
70 wetland ecosystems (Terazawa et al., 2007, Gauci et al., 2010; Pangala et al., 2015, Pangala et al., 2017,
71 Terazawa et al., 2021). Even in upland forest ecosystems in which surface soils under aerobic
72 conditions are generally considered to act as CH₄ sinks, emission of CH₄ from tree stems may diminish
73 the capacity of surface soils to take up CH₄ (Pitz and Megonigal, 2017, Pitz et al., 2018). However,
74 the understanding of the mechanisms by which CH₄ is emitted from the stems of living trees remains
75 ambiguous. For example, it is unclear whether trees function as passive “pipes” through which CH₄ is
76 transported diffusively from the rhizosphere to the atmosphere, whether they serve as pipes in which
77 xylem flow transports CH₄ in the dissolved state, or whether living trees produce CH₄ in the heartwood
78 (Covey et al., 2012, Barba et al., 2019a). A unique application of ²²²Rn gas in a recent study by
79 Megonigal et al. (2020) enabled them to investigate the mechanism for gas transport through trees of
80 three species of *Fagus grandifolia* Ehrh., *Liriodendron tulipifera* L., and *Quercus rubra* L. Their
81 suggested mechanism is based on the fact that transpiration lowers stem water content. Transpiration
82 draws water out from water-filled intercellular spaces in the xylem, reducing the tortuosity of diffusion
83 pathways, and thereby increasing methane diffusion rates. Aside from soil and heartwood production
84 of CH₄, methane-oxidizing bacteria have recently been identified within tree bark (*Melaleuca*
85 *quinquenervia*) and sapwood (*Populus* sp.), which may be able to affect CH₄ emissions from trees
86 (Jeffrey et al., 2021a; Feng et al. 2022). In addition, under conditions where tree stems are waterlogged,

87 transport of gaseous CH₄ through the bark has been reported for *M. quinquenervia* that features a
88 distinctive bark that is thick, layered, spongy, paper-like, shaggy and peeling bark (Jeffrey et al., 2020).

89 The aim of the present study was to elucidate the mechanisms of CH₄ transport inside wetland
90 trees. Our group has been investigating the process by which CH₄ is emitted from the stems of *Alnus*
91 *japonica* (Thunb.) Steud. trees growing in a riparian wetland with a monsoon climate. We recently
92 reported CH₄ emission rates and seasonal variations dependent on individual trees based on year-round
93 measurements using a closed-chamber method coupled with near-infrared laser spectrometry for *in*
94 *situ* CH₄ detection (Sakabe et al., 2021). The rates of CH₄ emission from the stems of *A. japonica* trees
95 exhibited maxima in summer and minima in winter, and this pattern was closely related to the
96 methanogenic activity in the soil, as demonstrated by path analysis. In addition, our results indicated
97 that intensive rainfall could modulate the rates of CH₄ emission, as transient rainfall-associated
98 changes in the soil environment, such as fluctuations in groundwater level, could affect the rates of
99 CH₄ emission. In the present study, hourly based measurements conducted throughout the year enabled
100 us to examine the diurnal properties of CH₄ emission rates in detail. We discuss the possible processes
101 giving rise to diurnal variation in the rates of CH₄ emission from the stem surfaces of *A. japonica*,
102 especially in terms of the relation between the CH₄ emission rates and sap flux. A diurnal feature of
103 stem CH₄ flux was clearly observed in *L. tulipifera* L in an upland forest (Pitz and Megonigal, 2017),
104 but their data were limited to only three days. They briefly discussed the need to study the relationship
105 between diurnal variations in CH₄ flux and sap flow. Thereafter, sap flux has been shown to associate
106 with temporal CH₄ emissions at diurnal and seasonal scales (Barba et al., 2019b; Jeffrey et al., 2020).
107 Sap flux occurs when water in the soil is absorbed by the roots and ascends via the transpiration of
108 leaves; this system connects the underground to the aboveground parts through the inside of trees.
109 Attention has also been focused on the relation between the day-night variations in CH₄ flux and air
110 temperature (Barba et al., 2019b; Jeffrey et al., 2020). By contrast, other studies have found no clear
111 evidence of diurnal variations in CH₄ emissions (Pangala et al., 2014; Terazawa et al., 2015; Schindler
112 et al., 2021). In the present study, we conducted a detailed examination of the relationship between the

113 properties of diurnal CH₄ emission and the results of sap flux measurements.

114 In addition, in order to explore the mechanistic insights into stem CH₄ emissions in the present
115 study, samples of fine roots were collected and observed using optical and cryo-scanning electron
116 microscopy (cryo-SEM). Previous optical microscopy studies have indicated that the pathway for gas
117 exchange between the roots and aboveground environment is composed of the aerenchyma, a type of
118 tissue comprising a relatively high proportion of spaces or lacunae (Evert 2006; Takahashi et al., 2014).
119 The function and formation of lysigenous aerenchyma have been well studied, particularly in roots of
120 rice and maize. These structures, which are formed by cell death and subsequent lysis, provide oxygen
121 from shoots to root, enabling the plant to tolerate anaerobic conditions (Drew et al., 2000; Yamauchi
122 et al., 2013). Distinct root aerenchymas have also been observed in mature mangrove trees, the
123 proportion of which expands from the root apex (Purnobasuki & Suzuki, 2004). The other tissue, called
124 secondary aerenchyma, is a white sponge tissue formed in the stem, hypocotyl, tap root, adventitious
125 roots, and root nodules of some leguminous, herbaceous, and woody plants, which plays a role in flood
126 tolerance (Stevens et al., 2002; Verboven et al., 2012; Yamauchi et al., 2013). In addition to the
127 characteristics of these specific tissues that can be examined using optical microscopy, cryo-SEM can
128 provide unique information regarding the distribution of water in the observed tissue at a given point
129 in time (e.g., Webb et al., 1986; Azuma et al., 2016). Using these tools to examine the root tissues of
130 *A. japonica* could help elucidate the mechanisms by which CH₄ is transported in fine roots, either in
131 the gaseous form or dissolved in sap flow. Here, we report the identification of intercellular spaces that
132 could function as conduits for transporting CH₄ molecules in the gaseous state.

133

134 **Materials and methods**

135 ***Measurements of stem CH₄ emission and sap flux***

136 The experimental design and the target wetland for *in situ* measurements of CH₄ flux from the
137 stem surfaces of *A. japonica* was the same as that described in our recent paper (Sakabe et al., 2021);
138 thus, only a brief description will be given here. Measurements were conducted in a temperate

139 coniferous forest in the Kiryu Experimental Watershed (KEW, 34°58'N, 136°00'E) in Shiga Prefecture,
140 which is located in central Japan. The detailed site description including a topographic map has been
141 provided elsewhere (Kogusi et al., 2007; Itoh et al., 2007; Sakabe et al., 2016, 2021). The elevation
142 range of the study site is 190 – 255 m. The forest comprises 60-year-old Japanese cypress trees
143 (*Chamaecyparis obtusa* Sieb. et Zucc.) that were planted in 1959. Some riparian wetlands were located
144 upstream of check dams that were constructed across the main stream of the watershed approximately
145 100 years ago.. The dominant tree species in the wetland is *A. japonica*. Three mature *A. japonica* trees
146 growing naturally in the riparian wetland were selected for this study (hereafter: Trees 1, 2, and 3).
147 The height and diameter at breast height of Trees 1, 2, and 3 were 11.3 m and 12.7 cm, 8.3 m and 8.9
148 cm, and 12.2 m and 10.8 cm, respectively. The trunks of *A. japonica* trees were not waterlogged at all.
149 Surface soil around the trees may be saturated with water for a few hours during and after extreme
150 heavy rainfall..

151 Stem CH₄ flux was measured using a dynamic closed-chamber system, in which a laser-based
152 instrument (FGGA907-0010, Los Gatos Research, CA, USA) was employed for interference-free, real-
153 time monitoring of gaseous CH₄ concentrations at atmospheric levels. The span of the laser
154 spectrometer was calibrated against standard gas containing atmospheric levels of CH₄ diluted in
155 synthetic air (Koatsu Gas Kogyo Co., Ltd., Osaka, Japan). A chamber that enclosed the whole stem
156 circumference was attached to each tree. Each chamber consisted of a custom-made cylinder made of
157 clear acrylic resin (25 cm outer diameter × 30 cm high) and was equipped with an inlet and outlet
158 connected to the laser-based analyzer via PFA tubes (4.25 mm inner diameter). The chambers were
159 attached to the stem surface at a specific height to cover all directions, and remained in place
160 throughout the observation period. The height with respect to the bottom of the chamber ranged from
161 30 to 50 cm above the ground surface. The chambers were usually ventilated using ambient air. The
162 target chamber system was temporally closed for 10 min during measurements, and the air from the
163 chamber was circulated using a diaphragm pump. The sample air flow was circulated at a constant
164 flow rate of 1.5 L min⁻¹, which was regulated using a mass flow controller (MPC0005BBRN010000,

165 azbil, Tokyo, Japan). Sequential switching among the chambers was regulated using solenoid valves
166 (CKD-CD16AC, Campbell Scientific, UT, USA). The sampled air was pre-dried using a gas dryer
167 (PD-50T-24MPS, Perma Pure Inc., NJ, USA). A portion of the circulating sample air was introduced
168 into the laser spectrometer to measure the concentrations of CH₄ and residual water vapor. The CH₄
169 concentrations were corrected for water vapor dilution. The stem CH₄ flux per stem surface area (nmol
170 m⁻² s⁻¹) was deduced from the temporal changes in gas concentration using the following equation:

$$171 \quad Flux = \frac{dc}{dt} \times \frac{V}{S} \times \rho$$

172 where dc/dt represents the slope of the linear regression of the temporal change in gas concentration *c*
173 (ppm) at time *t* (s) during chamber closure, *V* represents the volume of the chamber headspace, *S*
174 represents the surface area of the stem, and *ρ* represents the air mole density (mol m⁻³). In our study,
175 *S* was determined based on geometric measurements, and the bark of *A. japonica* characteristically
176 exhibits small, shallow cracks. The flux data from each of the three chambers were obtained hourly.
177 All flux values determined in this study were positive, which means that net emission of CH₄ occurred
178 throughout the year. The CH₄ fluxes were accepted with a condition that the determination coefficient
179 of linear regression was larger than 0.90. The flux data discarded were 0.3, 0.5, and 0.3 % of the raw
180 data of measurements for Tree 1, 2, and 3, respectively. Based on the root mean square error of the
181 linear regression within the measurements, the minimum detection limits for CH₄ flux were 0.04, 0.07,
182 and 0.04 nmol m⁻² s⁻¹ for Trees 1, 2, and 3, respectively, for the 6-min chamber deployment period.

183 Sap flux was measured for each tree every 30 min using the thermal dissipation method and
184 Granier-type sensors (Granier, 1987). Sap flux was measured using the same method reported by
185 Tateishi et al. (2008). Each sensor consisted of a pair of thermocouple probes (a heater probe and a
186 reference probe) 20 mm in length and 2 mm in diameter. The probes were inserted vertically into the
187 sapwood (150-mm apart, 0-20 mm depth). All sensors were installed on the north-facing side of the
188 trunk and covered to avoid exposure to direct sunlight. The upper heater probe was continually
189 supplied with a power of 0.2 W. The heat generated by the heater probe dissipated into the sapwood

190 and the vertical sap flow surrounding the probe. The temperature difference between the heater and
191 reference probes (ΔT) was converted to the sap flux per cross-sectional area of the sapwood at the
192 heater probe ($\text{cm}^3 \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) as reported by Granier (1987). ΔT values were measured every second, and
193 all values averaged over 30 min were recorded using a CR-1000 data logger (Campbell Scientific,
194 USA). The highest temperature difference was defined as the zero-flux condition for each day.

195 Environmental parameters including air temperature, rainfall, and short-wave radiation in the
196 KEW were measured as described in previous studies (Kosugi et al., 2007; Sakabe et al. 2016, 2021).
197 The average annual air temperature was 13.7°C , and the average annual rainfall between 2010 and
198 2019 was 1,799 mm. The amount of rainfall was measured using a tipping bucket rain gauge (RT-5,
199 Ikeda Keiki, Japan). This paper analyses the observation data of CH_4 flux, sap flux and environmental
200 parameters between September in 2017 and August in 2018.

201

202 ***Optical microscopy and cryo-SEM***

203 To elucidate the pathway of CH_4 transport in plant tissue from the soil, fine roots ($n = 6$) were
204 carefully collected from approximately 5-cm depth of soil close to the study trees and then flash frozen
205 *in situ* in liquid nitrogen. The frozen fine roots were then cut from the individual trees, sealed in plastic
206 tubes, transported to the laboratory under a large amount of dry ice, and stored at -80°C until analysis.
207 To observe the anatomic characteristics of the fine roots without dehydrating the tissues, which would
208 alter the water status at the time of collection, transverse sections were observed using cryo-SEM
209 (SU8230, Hitachi, Japan). Secondary electron images were obtained at an accelerating voltage of 3 kV
210 with shallow sublimation. To examine the fine root anatomy in detail, some fine roots were sealed in
211 plastic bags before flash freezing and transported to the laboratory. Transverse sections ($26 \mu\text{m}$
212 thickness) of these fine roots were prepared and double stained with safranin–fast green. The sections
213 were then observed under an optical microscope (Eclipse 80i, Nikon, Tokyo) and photographed using
214 a digital camera (E-620, Olympus, Tokyo). Fine root samples examined by cryo-SEM were also
215 sectioned transversely and photographed under the optical microscope, as described above.

216 The potential for sublimation of moisture from frozen fine root tissues during transport from
217 the field to the laboratory or during storage in a freezer raises concerns regarding artifacts that may
218 appear on cryo-SEM images. To determine whether any such artifacts were present in the above
219 observations, the samples were compared with those prepared in an experiment using an *A. japonica*
220 sapling grown in the laboratory under well-watered conditions (tree height = 83 cm). In this experiment,
221 fine roots of the sapling (n = 3) were observed under cryo-SEM using the same procedure described
222 above, with the exceptions of sample transport from the field to the laboratory and storage in a freezer.
223 That is, in the sapling experiment, cryo-SEM was conducted immediately after the samples were flash
224 frozen, as this condition is unlikely to introduce artifacts. Comparison of the cryo-SEM images of the
225 sapling experiments (Fig. S1) confirmed that no artifacts were present in the images of the samples
226 collected at the study site.

227

228 **Results**

229 *Diurnal properties of stem CH₄ flux and model of the emission mechanism*

230 Figure 1 shows the stem CH₄ fluxes from three *A. japonica* trees in different seasons, along
231 with the air temperature, rainfall, downward short-wave radiation, and sap flux. Flux measurements
232 with a high time resolution of one hour revealed the existence of diurnal changes that were
233 superimposed over the background continuum. Stem CH₄ emissions peaked **about an hour after noon**
234 in the afternoon in all three trees. In addition, the daytime increase in CH₄ emission was almost
235 synchronous with the increase in sap flow. Intriguingly, declines in sap flux due to rainfall or cloudy
236 weather were related to a decline in the magnitude of the daytime increase in CH₄ emissions (Fig. 1A),
237 suggesting that the diurnal amplitude in CH₄ emissions depends on sap flux. We note that
238 measurements of the stem CH₄ fluxes and sap flux were conducted between September in 2017 and
239 August in 2018, of which such diurnal features were evident only during leafy season. Another feature
240 to be addressed here is that the *total* CH₄ emission rates exhibited overall decreasing and increasing
241 trends in autumn and summer, respectively. This is due to the seasonal variation in CH₄ emissions, in

242 which they differed by up to about two orders of magnitude between the minima in February-March
243 during defoliation and the maxima in August of leafy season (Sakabe et al., 2021). Similarly, as
244 reported previously, relative differences in sap flux between autumn and summer were due to its
245 seasonality in which the sap fluxes kept quite low during defoliation and began to increase with the
246 spread of leaves in April, and decreased gradually after the summertime maxima as the season
247 progressed.

248 Figure 2 shows the monthly average stem CH₄ and sap fluxes for the three study trees over the
249 periods September to November 2017 and May to July 2018. The CH₄ emission peaks were almost
250 synchronous with the sap flux peaks. In calculating the monthly averages, data for periods when the
251 rainfall amount over the previous 24 h exceeded 10 mm were excluded. Intense rainfall events were
252 associated with transient increases in stem CH₄ emissions, and these increases were typically triggered
253 within a few hours of the start of the intense rainfall event and then gradually faded over the course of
254 several days (Fig. 1A). This phenomenon will be associated with the dynamic response to rainfall of
255 the vertical distributions of gaseous and dissolved CH₄ concentrations in subsurface soil layers, as
256 discussed in our recent paper (Sakabe et al., 2021). The data in Figure 2 show that the diurnal amplitude
257 of CH₄ emissions declined with the progression from autumn to winter, along with a seasonal decrease
258 in sap flux, whereas the diurnal amplitude increased with the progression from spring to summer. It
259 should be noted that no diurnal component of CH₄ emissions could be detected from late autumn to
260 early spring, although emission of CH₄ could be clearly detected even in winter, as we recently reported
261 (Sakabe et al., 2021). At the study site, *A. japonica* trees drop their leaves in late November, and begin
262 to leaf in April. In addition, a careful look at Fig. 2 shows that, in Tree 3, the diurnal peaks in stem
263 CH₄ emission and sap flux **appeared about an hour** later than those in Tree 1 and 2. This may be due
264 to the fact that the study trees grow in a shallow valley, which causes individual differences in the time
265 of sunlight exposure. Sap flow is linked to leaf transpiration, and leaf transpiration is linked to sunlight
266 exposure.

267 We make an attempt to separate the CH₄ flux data into two components, namely, diurnally

268 varying and unvarying components, based on their comparison with the sap flux data. The diurnal
269 patterns of stem CH₄ and sap fluxes were found to be almost in phase with each other, which allows
270 us to infer that there could be a process associated with sap flow. Accordingly, we will henceforth refer
271 to the diurnally varying component as the “sap flux-dependent” component, whereas the diurnally
272 unvarying component as the “sap flux-independent” component. We note that, however, using the
273 terms of “sap flux-dependent” and “sap flux-independent” does not negate any CH₄ transporting
274 process driven by other than sap flow. Possible CH₄ transport mechanisms regulating the stem CH₄
275 emissions from the stem surface of *A. japonica* trees will be discussed later. Here, we propose a model
276 enabling estimation of the relative contribution of the sap flux–dependent and –independent
277 components to the rate of stem CH₄ emission. Figure 3 shows scatter plots of the stem CH₄ and sap
278 flow fluxes in September 2017 for each of the study trees. Linear regression analysis was used to
279 determine the y-intercept corresponding to the stem CH₄ flux at which the sap flux becomes virtually
280 zero. Assuming that the estimated y-axis intercept value is constant over the entire sap flux of interest,
281 we calculated the monthly–averaged ratio of the relative contribution of the sap flux–dependent to –
282 independent components in the stem CH₄ flux for each tree. The estimated relative contribution ratios
283 over a 7-month period were found to be sample tree–dependent, with a maximum relative contribution
284 of the sap flux-dependent component occurring around July with no more than about 11 % (Table 1).
285 To our knowledge, no such estimate has been reported previously.

286

287 *Anatomy of fine roots*

288 The vascular cylinder (stele) was surrounded by a thick cortex in the primary growth root (Fig.
289 4A), and secondary growth gradually proceeded (Fig. 4B). The outermost layer of roots in primary
290 growth was surrounded by ectomycorrhizal hyphae (Fig. 4A). Analysis of longitudinal sections of
291 roots during secondary growth revealed intercellular spaces extending vertically in the cortex (Fig. 4C).
292 We expected that such lacunae function as pathways for the diffusion of CH₄ in the gaseous form
293 through the root. Cryo-SEM was used to determine whether the fine-root tissues were filled with water

294 (Fig. 5A and B). In the cortex, a number of large, empty (i.e., no water) intercellular spaces were
295 observed (Fig. 5C and D). By contrast, in the endodermis, the intercellular spaces were small and filled
296 with water (Fig. 5E and F). All parenchyma cells were filled with water and cytoplasm, whereas some
297 xylem cells were empty in the vascular cylinder (Fig. 5G and H). Similar results were observed in all
298 six fine-root samples analyzed (Fig. S2).

299

300 Discussion

301 Year-round measurements of the CH₄ emission rates from the stem surfaces of *A. japonica*
302 trees revealed the presence of a diurnal component in the emission rates, and the daytime increase in
303 emission was found to be almost synchronous with a daytime increase in sap flux. We propose here a
304 simple model in which the total CH₄ emission rate consists of “sap flux–dependent” and “sap flux–
305 independent” components. A possible mechanism of CH₄ transport for the sap flux–dependent
306 component could involve absorption of soil water containing dissolved CH₄ by the roots, with
307 subsequent transport of the dissolved CH₄ through the conduits; volatilized CH₄ could then be detected
308 with the daytime increase in the stem CH₄ emission rates. However, we note that the observed
309 synchrony between CH₄ and sap fluxes does not exclude the possibility that the diurnal variation
310 cannot be explained solely by sap flow. The mechanisms regulating stem CH₄ emission in plants
311 remain controversial, although most previous studies have supported the primary importance of CH₄
312 transport in the gaseous form within the tree (Barba et al., 2019a). As mentioned in the introduction
313 section, a variety of the CH₄ transport mechanism inside the trees have recently been suggested, for
314 example, plant transport of soil gases is controlled by plant hydraulics as reported by Megonigal et al.
315 (2020). Some studies have suggested that methanogen living in the heartwood could also be a source
316 of CH₄ (Wang et al., 2016, 2017; Yip et al., 2018). Aside from CH₄ production in soil and heartwood,
317 microbial oxidation within trees may weaken stem emissions (Jeffrey et al., 2021a; Feng et al. 2022).
318 Clearly further investigation is needed for understanding the **sap flux-dependent and -independent CH₄**
319 **emission** mechanisms functioning in *A. japonica* trees. Our recent study (Sakabe et al., 2021)

320 suggested that, as supported by most studies for different wood species, the transport of gaseous CH₄
321 produced by methanogenic archaea in rhizospheric soil is primarily responsible for stem CH₄ emission
322 from *A. japonica* throughout the year. This conclusion was based on the following evidence: (i) stem
323 emission was observed even in winter; and (ii) stem emission was observed even during the night,
324 when the sap flow rate was nearing zero (see also Fig. 1 of this paper).

325 The ratio of the relative contribution of the sap flux–dependent and sap flux–independent
326 components, estimated based on the model proposed above, were found to vary seasonally (Table 1).
327 The sap flux–dependent component reached a maximum in summer with no more than about 11 %
328 (Table 1). It will be intriguing to consider whether the contribution ratio depends on the height of the
329 stem chamber within a given *A. japonica* tree. Measurements of the vertical profile of stem CH₄
330 emission from some species provided clear evidence that the stem CH₄ emission rates vary widely,
331 with a general trend toward decreasing CH₄ emission with increasing stem height for flux
332 measurements (Wang et al., 2016; Pitz & Megonigal, 2017; Barba et al., 2019b; Jeffrey et al., 2020).
333 This observation was explained by the gradual flow of gaseous CH₄ out of the tree and into the
334 atmosphere during transport from the roots to the upper trunk. Our preliminary measurements
335 indicated that the rate of CH₄ emission from *A. japonica* stems decreased with increasing height of the
336 stem flux monitoring chambers, consistent with the results of previous studies. However, the sap flux–
337 dependent component also likely depends on stem height, as CH₄ taken up by the roots and dissolved
338 in the sap may gradually volatilize as it moves through the tree. In addition, there is no information on
339 whether stem-height dependent microbial CH₄ oxidation within trees, which was evident for *M.*
340 *quinquenervia* and *C. glauca* (Jeffrey et al., 2021), are occurring in *A. japonica*. Accordingly, the
341 possibility that the contribution ratio estimated for each tree does not remain constant throughout an
342 individual tree cannot be ruled out.

343 Besides sap flow, another possible factor associated with the diurnal feature of stem CH₄ flux is
344 the molecular diffusivity and its temperature dependency. The coefficient of molecular diffusivity of
345 CH₄ in air, for example at 30 °C, is 6% larger than that at 20 °C, according to Massman (1998). The

346 rate of increase in diffusion coefficient seems to be comparable to the estimated contributions of
347 diurnally varying component (Table 1). Although the gas diffusivity through wood (Sorz and Hietz,
348 2006) as well as stem height dependence of the relative contribution ratios need to be quantified, it
349 would be worthwhile to examine this physical chemistry mechanisms in the future. Possible effects of
350 temperature on diffusive transport of CH₄ in *Alnus glutinosa* were briefly discussed by Pangala et al
351 (2014). Relation between air temperature or stem temperature and stem CH₄ flux was tested to discuss
352 the day-night variations in CH₄ flux (Barba et al., 2019b; Jeffrey et al., 2020).

353 From the viewpoint of elucidating the CH₄ transport mechanism leading to the sap-dependent
354 component, we would like to mention one more point. A closer look at the data in Figure 2 shows,
355 there appeared to be a time lag between the daily peaks of stem CH₄ emission and sap flux, particularly
356 in Tree 3 in Sep.-Oct. 2017. This observation is qualitatively similar to the results of Pitz and
357 Megonigal (2017), in which a diurnal feature in stem CH₄ emission from *L. tulipifera* peaked in the
358 late afternoon, while the sap flux reached its maximum around noon. In order to achieve a better
359 understanding of the time lag, if existed, in *A. japonica*, CH₄ flux (and sap flux) with its stem height
360 dependence should be measured at a higher temporal resolution. Furthermore, effective gas diffusivity
361 in wood, both in axial and radial direction, and sunlight exposure conditions should also be investigated.

362 Our proposed model for the process of stem CH₄ emission in *A. japonica* suggests the primary
363 importance of gaseous CH₄ transport, which can be detected as sap flow-independent emission from
364 the stem surfaces. Therefore, in this study, we analyzed fine roots using optical and cryo-SEM to
365 explore plant tissues that may facilitate the diffusion and transfer of gaseous CH₄. Tree roots take up
366 and transport water and nutrients via their direct contact with the soil, and apical fine roots are
367 particularly active in this process (Strock & Lynch, 2020). In this study, no lysigenous aerenchyma or
368 secondary aerenchyma were observed in the cortex of the fine roots of *A. japonica*. However, the
369 presence of scattered longitudinal intercellular spaces (Figs. 4 and 5) suggests that CH₄ in the gaseous
370 form can be diffused from the soil to the tree stem via the roots. In addition, some xylem cells, such as
371 vessels and fibers, were empty in the vascular cylinder of the fine roots, thereby providing a possible

372 pathway for gas diffusion. Although other researchers have speculated that anatomical features such
373 as intercellular spaces or air-filled elements in the secondary xylem could function as gas pathways in
374 waterlogging tolerance (Philipson & Coutts, 1980), our present study is the first to demonstrate this
375 phenomenon by *in situ* field observations in adult *A. japonica* trees. However, optical microscopy
376 analyses of roots of cultivated seedlings of *A. japonica* and *Salix martiana* Leyb. under experimental
377 flooding conditions suggested the formation of aerenchyma (Yamamoto et al., 1995; De Simone et al.,
378 2002). As the results of the present study were based on roots collected from the surface soil layer, it
379 will be necessary to examine the anatomic features of roots in deeper soils as well as in a variety of
380 species. Lenticels are another potential plant gas transport pathway, as they permit the entry of air
381 though the periderm (Groh et al. 2002). As many lenticels were observed in visual observations of the
382 fine-root surfaces in the present study, these structures may also play a role in gas transport. Our
383 anatomical analyses suggest that the intercellular spaces in the cortex and the empty xylem cells in the
384 fine roots of *A. japonica* could serve as passageways for the diffusive transport of gas molecules.

385 Our long-term, hourly based measurements of CH₄ emission from the stem surfaces of *A.*
386 *japonica* growing in a riparian wetland revealed an interesting phenomenon of diurnal variation with
387 a season-dependent amplitude. Our results provide clear evidence that a component of the rate of stem
388 CH₄ emission is proportional to the sap flux, allowing us to infer a possible mechanism in which CH₄
389 molecules dissolved in the sap are volatilized and emitted from the trunk of *A. japonica* trees. However,
390 as discussed above, there could be another mechanism which accounts for diurnally varying
391 component in stem CH₄ flux, and therefore observed clear association between the diurnal properties
392 in CH₄ flux and sap flux merits further investigation. A large portion of stem CH₄ emission was found
393 to be independent of sap flow, indicating that gaseous CH₄ molecules are also transported diffusively
394 from the rhizosphere to the tree stem. Analysis of fine roots of *A. japonica* using optical microscopy
395 and cryo-SEM suggested that intercellular spaces in the cortex and empty xylem cells could serve as
396 passageways for the diffusive transport of gas molecules.

397

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405

406 Author Contributions

407 K.T., A.S., and W.A. are equally contributing first authors who designed and led the research. K.T.,
408 A.S., and M.I. conducted flux observations. W.A. and M.T. conducted the sap flux measurements.
409 W.A., T.I. and Y.M. conducted microscopic analyses of fine-roots. Y.K. measured
410 micrometeorological parameters. K.T, A.S. and W.A. drafted the manuscript. All authors contributed
411 to revision of the manuscript.

412

413 Data availability

414 The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon
415 reasonable request.

416

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538
539

540 **Supporting Information**

541 **Fig. S1** Cryo-SEM images of fine roots of *A. japonica* sapling grown in the laboratory under well-
542 watered conditions.

543 **Fig. S2** Optical and cryo-SEM images of fine roots of *A. japonica* trees.

544

545 **Table 1:** Ratios of the relative contribution of sap flux–dependent to sap flux–independent components
 546 in the rates of CH₄ emission from the stem surfaces of *Alnus japonica* trees: sap flux–dependent
 547 component / sap flux–independent component. Values in parentheses indicate the coefficient of
 548 determination for regression ($p < 0.01$), as typically shown in Figure 3 (see main text for details).

549

Observed	Tree 1	Tree 2	Tree 3
Month/year			
Sept 2017	2.7% (0.90)	3.8% (0.92)	8.7% (0.78)
Oct 2017	1.5% (0.26)	1.7% (0.36)	4.2% (0.41)
Nov 2017	2.0% (0.41)	1.0% (0.29)	2.2% (0.44)
May 2018	3.1% (0.75)	3.7% (0.77)	N/A*
June 2018	3.4% (0.84)	5.6% (0.86)	10.2% (0.87)
July 2018	4.1% (0.89)	N/A*	12.2% (0.62)
Aug 2018	3.3% (0.87)	2.8% (0.33)	9.7% (0.75)

550 *N/A: not estimated due to lack of sap flux data.

551

552

553 **Figure captions**

554 **Figure 1:** CH₄ flux from the stem surfaces of three *Alnus japonica* trees in (A) September 9-16, 2017,
555 and (B) July 11-18, 2018, together with sap flux, downward short-wave radiation (denoted as S↓), air
556 temperature, and rainfall (bar graph). Both periods in figure 1a and 1b are leafy season. Measurements
557 of CH₄ flux and sap flux were conducted with 1-h resolution (see main text for details). Sap flux data
558 for Tree 2 in (B) were not available due to unavoidable circumstances. Red, Tree 1; blue, Tree 2; green,
559 Tree 3. No rainfall was observed in July 11-18, 2018.

560

561 **Figure 2:** Monthly average stem CH₄ flux and sap flux for three *Alnus japonica* trees for September
562 to November 2017 and May to July 2018; diurnal data with 1-h resolution were averaged over each
563 month. Shaded ranges represent 95% CI. Data were excluded when the cumulative rainfall in the
564 previous 24 h exceeded 10 mm. Color codes are the same as indicated in the legend for Figure 1. The
565 sap flux data for Tree 1 in May 2018 and for Tree 3 in July 2018 were not available due to instrument
566 malfunction.

567

568 **Figure 3:** Plots of correlation between CH₄ flux and sap flux for three *Alnus japonica* trees in
569 September 2017, using the data shown in Figure 2. Each graph has 24 data points, each of which is an
570 hourly one-month average corresponding to the data shown in Figure 2 (mean and 95% CI). The
571 determination coefficients for regression were 0.89, 0.93, and 0.84 for Tree 1, Tree 2, and Tree 3,
572 respectively ($p < 0.01$). The y-axis intercepts correspond to the stem CH₄ fluxes at which the sap fluxes
573 become virtually zero and were assumed to indicate the contribution of the diurnally unvarying
574 component of CH₄ emission from the stem surface. The estimated y-axis intercept value was subtracted
575 from the observed CH₄ flux values, whose output was integrated over the range of the observed sap
576 flux, thereby the contribution of the diurnally varying component could be calculated (See main text
577 for details).

578

579

580 **Figure 4:** Optical microscopy images of the fine-root anatomy of *A. japonica* trees. Transverse
581 sections were double stained with safranin-fast green to indicate roots in primary growth (A) and
582 secondary growth (B). Intercellular spaces (indicated by arrows) extended vertically in the cortex of a
583 longitudinal section double stained with safranin-fast green of a secondary growth root (C).

584

585 **Figure 5:** Optical and cryo-SEM images of fine roots of Japanese *A. japonica* trees. Transverse surface
586 of a root in primary growth observed by optical microscope (A) and cryo-SEM (B). Panel C–H are
587 magnified images corresponding to the rectangle-denoted areas in panel B. Large, empty (i.e., no
588 water) intercellular spaces were observed in the cortex (C, D). Intercellular spaces (arrows) were small
589 and filled with water (frozen) in the endodermis (E, F). All parenchyma cells were filled with water,
590 whereas some xylem cells were empty (i.e., no water) in the vascular cylinder (G, H).

591

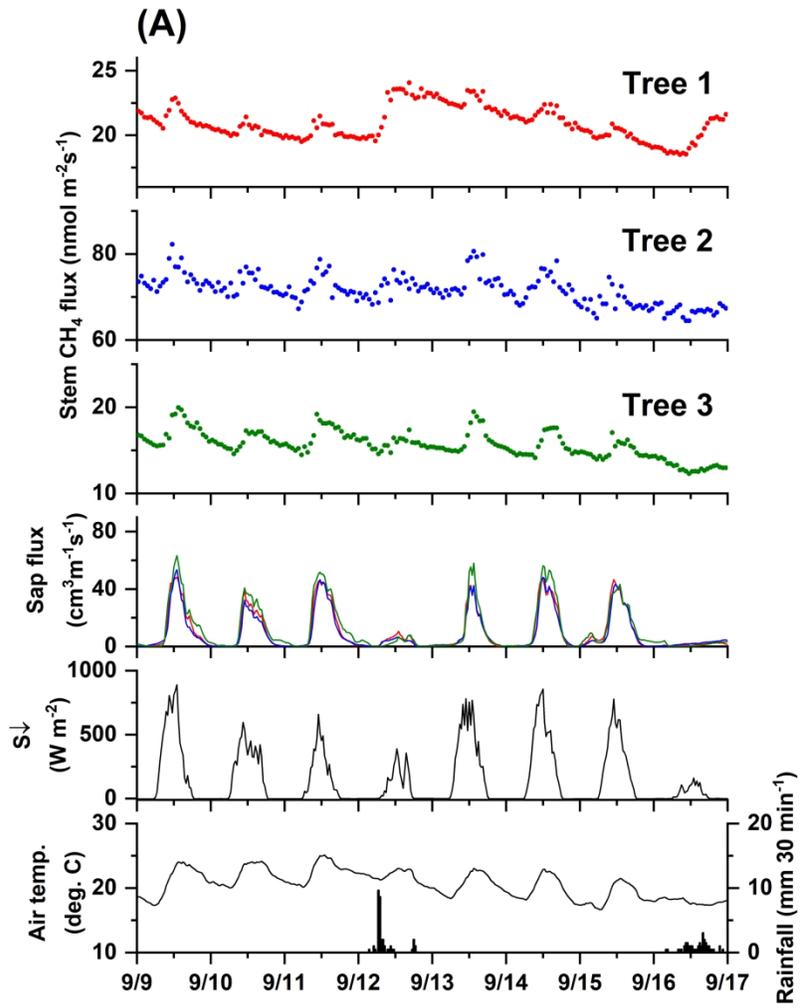


Fig. 1A

209x296mm (300 x 300 DPI)

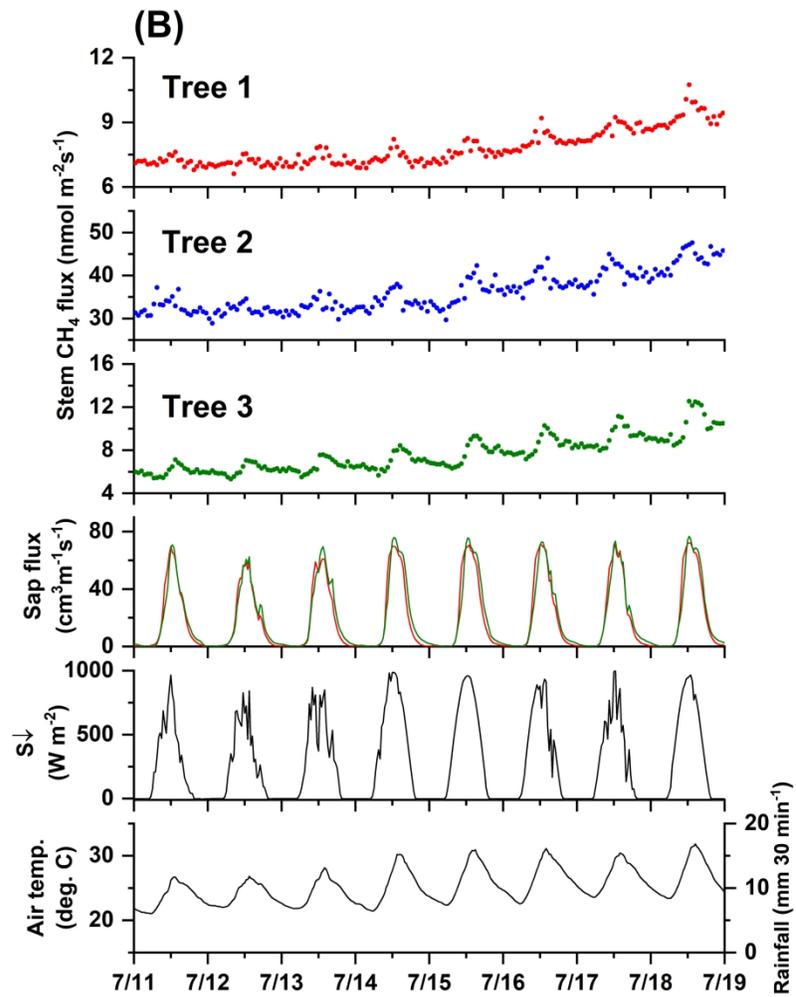


Fig. 1B

209x296mm (300 x 300 DPI)

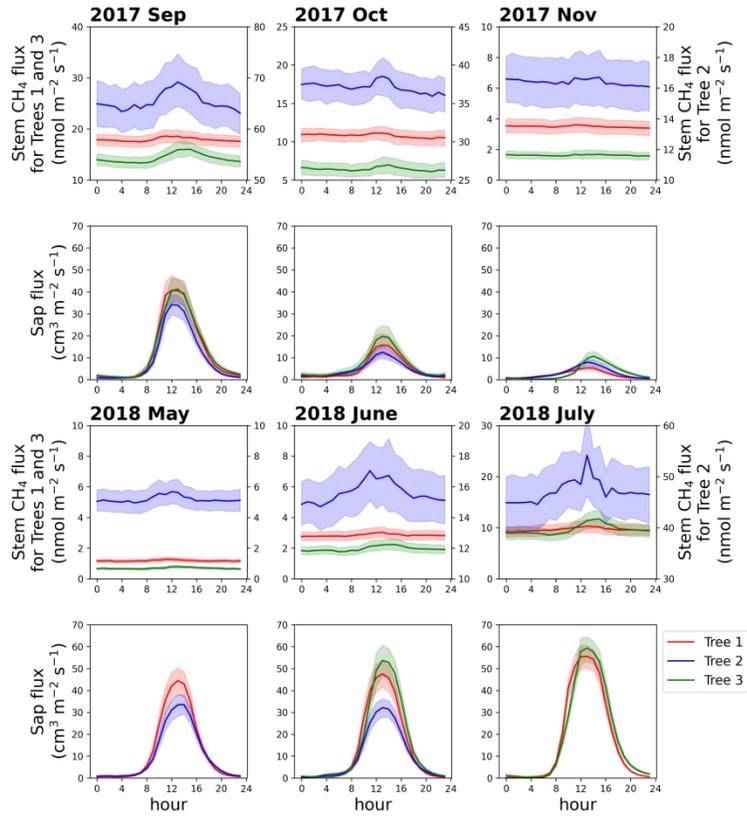


Fig. 2

1190x1190mm (96 x 96 DPI)

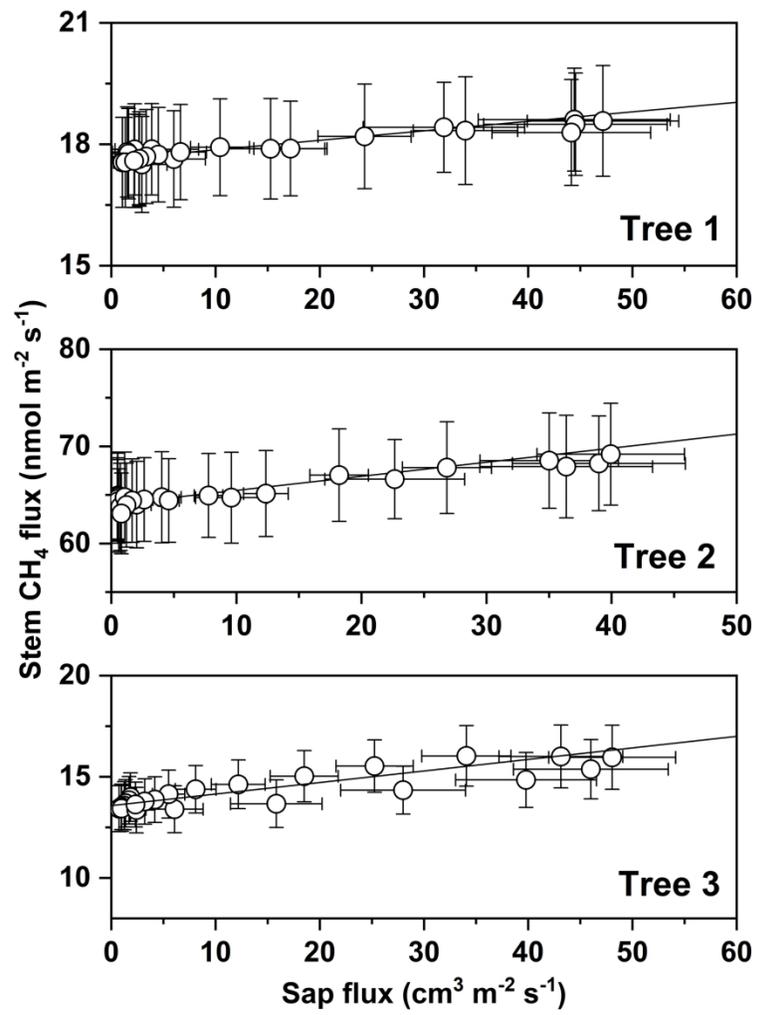


Fig 3

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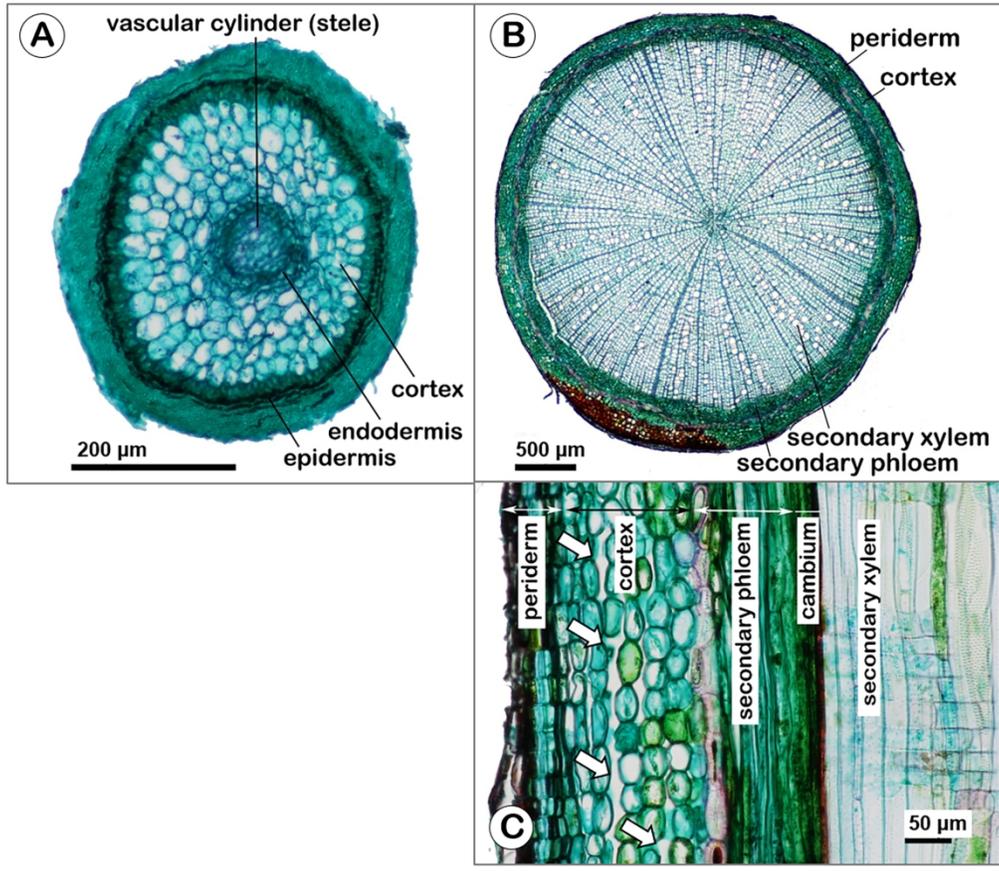


Fig. 4

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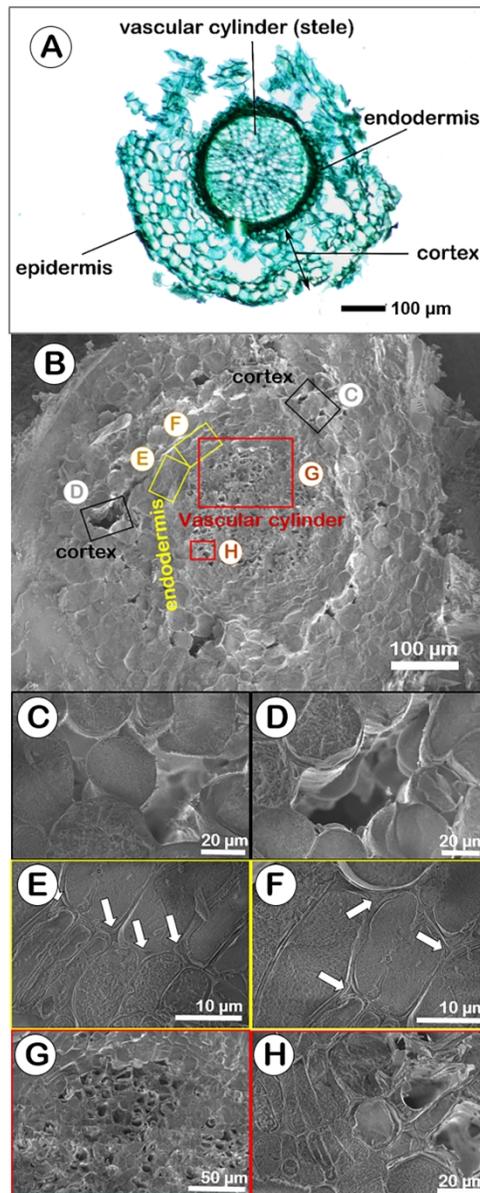


Fig. 5

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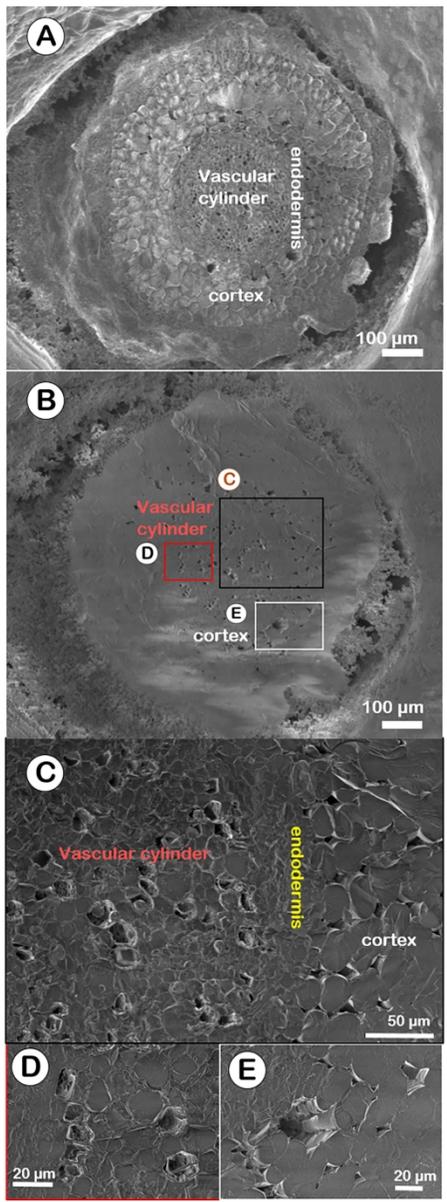


Fig. S1

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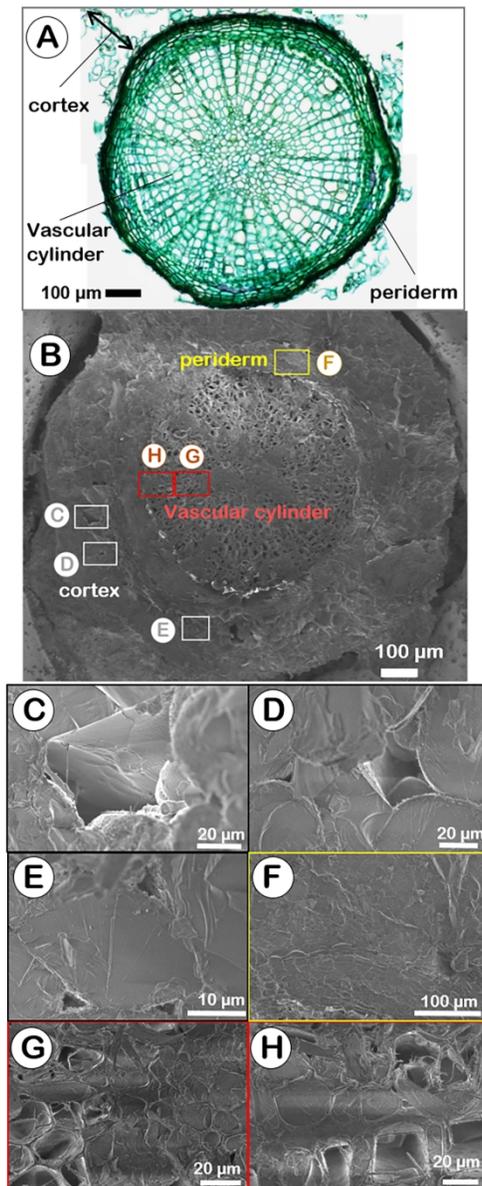


Fig. S2

98x234mm (300 x 300 DPI)