## <u>Quantification of potential methane emissions associated with</u> <u>organic matter amendments following oxic soil inundation</u>

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## Abstract

8 Methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) emissions are a potent contributor to global warming and 9 wetlands can be a significant CH<sub>4</sub> source. In a microcosm study, we evaluated how the 10 practice of amending soils with organic matter as part of wetland restoration projects may 11 affect CH<sub>4</sub> production potential. Organic amendments including hay, manure, biosolids, 12 composted yard waste, and compostwood mulch were evaluated at three different levels. 13 Using 1-liter glass microcosms, we measured the production of biogenic gases over 60 14 days in two soils designated by texture:, a sandy loam (SL) and a sandy clay loam (SCL). 15 Fresh organic amendments increased CH<sub>4</sub> production, leading to potentially higher global 16 warming potential and wetland C loss, particularly in sandy soils. Organic amendments 17 increased and CH<sub>4</sub> production was more pronounced in the SL. We observed biogenic gas 18 production in two sequential steady state phases: Phase 1 produced some CH<sub>4</sub> but was 19 mostly carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) followed by Phase 2, two to six weeks later, with much 20 higher total gas and nearly equal amounts of CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub>. If this is generally true in 21 soils, it may be appropriate to report CH4methane emissions in the context of inundation 22 duration. The CH<sub>4</sub> from the SCL soil ranged from  $0.003 - 0.8 \text{ eecm}^3 / \text{Kg}^{-1} / \text{day}$  in Phase 1 to  $0.75 - 28 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ Kg}^{-1} \text{ day}$  in Phase 2, and from the SL range from  $0.03 - 16 \text{ ee cm}^3 \text{ Kg}^{-1}$ 23

24	$day \text{ cm}^{3}/\text{Kg/day}$ in Phase 1 to $1.8 - 64 \text{ cm}^{3} \text{ Kg}^{-1} day$ in Phase 2. We had set out to
25	identify an organic amendment that would promote iron (Fe) reduction without excess
26	CH4, but amendments were not needed to produce Fe and make soils hydric. Adding
27	fresh organic matter (e.g., hay) resulted in both excess Fe <sup>2+</sup> and CH4 increased ferrous
28	iron (Fe <sup>2+</sup> ) -concentrations whereas in some cases composted amendments had little
29	effect. The potential for excess methanogenesis should organic matter decreased both Fe <sup>2+</sup>
30	concentrations and CH <sub>4</sub> production. Methanogenesis normally increases following the
31	depletion of reduceaible ironFe; however, we observed instances where this was not the
32	case, suggesting other biogeochemical mechanisms must be taken into account when
33	considering organic matter amendmentscontributinged to the shift in mitigation
34	wetlands.gas production.
35 36	Keywords Methane emissions, mitigation wetlands, organic amendments
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39	1 Introduction
40 41	The ecological benefits of wetlands are well documented, including their role as
42	carbon (C) sinks to stabilize global climate (Mitsch et al., 2015). Driven in part by this
43	ecological contribution, from 1970 to 2015 new, (human-madeconstructed human-made)
44	wetlands have increased 233% (Darrah et al., 2019). Between 2004 and 2009 the United
45	States saw a net gain of <u>16,670 hectares</u> of freshwater wetlands: <u>360,820 hectares</u> of new
46	wetlands to offset <u>344,140 hectares</u> of existing (presumably carbonC-sink) wetlands that
46 47	wetlands to offset <u>344,140 hectares</u> of existing ( <u>presumably carbonC</u> -sink) wetlands that were destroyed (Dahl, 2011). Although <u>human-madeconstructed</u> created or restored

their radiative forcing due to methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) emissions (Neubauer, 2014). With such a
large number of new human-madeconstructedhuman-made wetlands, and their potential
to increase global warming, it is vital to consider factors that may contribute to CH<sub>4</sub>
emissions.

53 Some researchers have suggested that Organic amendments such as straw, wood 54 mulch, manure, and biosolids, mixed into the soil, are thought to accelerate C storage by 55 enhancing the conversion of plant-derived compounds to microbial residues (Richardson 56 et al., 2016). Microbial residues, largely aliphatic-C from cell membrane lipids, can 57 accumulate in soil and are not directly accessible by methanogens (Chen et al., 2018). 58 Plants contribute both above and belowground organic matter (OM). MMicrobial 59 residues, largely aliphatic-C from cell membrane lipids, can accumulate under anoxic 60 conditions and are not directly accessible by methanogens (Chen et al., 2018). 61 Belowground plant materials are preferentially converted to soil organic carbon (SOC) 62 (Mazzilli et al., 2015). In saturated soils root residues of wetland plants contain suberin 63 and cutin (Watanabe et al., 2013), which persist, reducing biogenic gas production (Mikutta et al., 2006). Before contributing to SOC, standing litter in natural wetlands is 64 65 partially decomposed by fungi (Kuehn et al., 2011), and further decomposed by aerobic 66 bacteria (Yarwood, 2018). Allochthonous organic amendments are derived from above-67 ground material, but they have not been subjected to wetland biogeochemical processes. 68 Studies suggest these materials are less amenable to soil C stabilization compared to 69 natural plant inputs and may increase CH<sub>4</sub> production (Scott et al., 2020). In addition to 70 increasing CH<sub>4</sub> production directly, organic amendments may cause SOC priming that

- 71 produces additional CH<sub>4</sub> (Nottingham et al., 2009), and can lead to an increase in iron
- 72 (Fe) reduction and iron-toxicity (Saaltink et al., 2017).
- 73 Iron (Fe) oxides play <u>multiple</u> roles in anoxic soils, being both an electron 74 acceptor for organic C metabolism (Straub et al., 2001), and a stabilizing agent for SOC 75 on mineral surfaces (Lehmann and Kleber, 2015). As a metabolite, Fe reduction 76 competes with CH<sub>4</sub> production (Huang et al., 2009) and can facilitate sulfur recycling 77 (which also competes with CH<sub>4</sub> production) in freshwater sediments (Hansel et al., 2015). 78 However, some recent literature suggests the relationship of ironFe reduction and 79 methanogenesis is more complex. Some methanogens appear capable of switching 80 between methanogenesis and ironFe reduction (Sivan et al., 2016). In cultures with 81 Methanosarcina acetivorans, adding ironFe oxides increased methane production (Ferry, 82 2020), presumably by the utilization of a metabolic pathway where electron flow is 83 bifurcated with some electrons going toward ironFe reduction to increase energy yield 84 (Zhuang et al., 2015; Prakash et al., 2019). In systems that are near pH neutral, Fe 85 reduction does not necessarily have an energetic competitive advantage over CH<sub>4</sub> 86 production (Bethke et al., 2011). In addition to influencing metabolic pathways, metal-87 oxide surfaces can stabilize organic matter, making it less bioavailable, which can affect 88 both Fe reduction (Poggenburg et al., 2018), and C mineralization (Amendola et al., 89 2018; Lalonde et al., 2012) and production of CH4. - one of the primary methods for 90 determining if soils are hydric National Technical Committee for Hydric Soils (NTCHS 91 2015), a key indicator of wetland success under mitigation guidelines.

92	We carried out a lab experiment using organic amendments commonly used in
93	wetland restoration (biosolids (Bloom <u>R</u> ) - B, manure - M, composted yard waste
94	(LeafGro®) - L, wood chips - W, and hay - H) and measured how they affected $CH_4$
95	production and Fereduction. A series of 1-literOneliter (1-L) glassjar microcosms
96	were incubated with two different soils, a sandy elay loam (SCL), and a sandy loam (SL),
97	both from collected from sites where recently created freshwater wetlands were recently
98	created. The microcosms were kept under anaerobic conditions to compare the ability of
99	these substrates to support anaerobic metabolism. We hypothesized that organic
100	amendments would stimulate dissimilatory Fe-reduction in soils (measured as soluble
101	ferrous iron, Fe <sup>2+</sup> ). Further, we hypothesized that amendments promoting Fe reduction
102	would limit methanogenesis. We also tested differences between cured (i.e.,
103	aged/composted) and uncured (fresh) organic amendments and hypothesized that uncured
104	amendments would increase Fe reduction due to the presence of more labile, soluble,
105	compounds. In the United States organic amendments are often required inmitigation
106	wetlands, that is, wetlands created or restored to offset wetland losses;- h-However, there
107	has not been a systematic evaluation of whether or not amendments promote hydric soil
108	conditions (Fe reduction), or may lead to Fe toxicity (excess from Fe reduction), or my
109	cause excessmay increase CH4 production.
110	
111	2 Materials and methods
112	2.1 Microcosm setup

113 Saturated incubations were established using soil from two recent mitigation wetlands\_located in Maryland, USA. The first site (76°50'40.35"W, 38°47'5.41"N) was  $_5$ 114

115 most recently a horse pasture and will be referred to as SCL denoting the texture (sandy 116 clay loam), a mesic anthrudult.). The second site (75°47'40.20"W, 39°1'52.42"N) was 117 most recently a corn/soy farm with tile drains and was likely a wetland prior to 118 conversion to farmland. The second site will be referred to as SL (sandy loam). Both sites 119 had been recently graded to establish wetland topography, so the upper portion of the 120 soils, where soil samples were collected, were mixed endo- and umbr-aquic horizons. All 121 soils were air-dried but with no ped structure. Soil was collected from these recently 122 constructed surface horizons to a depth of 15 cm, a typical depth for mixing-in organic 123 amendments, sieved  $(2mm)_{5}$  and homogenized prior to use. Additional soil information 124 is shown on Supplemental Table XS1. 125 Microcosm experiments were conducted in 1000-mL1--L glass straight-sided 126 wide-mouth food canning jars. Each microcosm had a total of 600cc of solid material and 127 was filled with water for a total volume of 660cc. The volumes needed to be precise in

128 order to facilitate headspace and liquid sampling and <u>to</u> allow space for soil expansion.

129 When amendments were added, an equal volume of soil needed to be removed so the

130 total volume of solid material was a constant 600cc. At the start of the experiment, the

131 headspace was purged with nitrogen gas. The incubation temperature was 20°C. Jar lids

had precision drilled holes fitted with grey butyl rubber stoppers, making it possible to

non-destructively remove the overlying liquid (for Fe and pH analyses) using a <u>7.5 cm</u>

134 needle. Since the head-space pressure increased due to biogenic gas production,

135 atmospheric pressure was re-established during gas sampling events by piercing the septa

136 with a 24-gauge needle connected to a 50mL gas-tight syringe. This procedure allowed us

137 to record the total volume of gas produced and collect gas samples  $(0.01 - 1000 \,\mu\text{L})$ 

138 under atmospheric pressure (Supplemental Figure S1). A small coating of silicone

139 applied to stoppers after piercing prevented leaks. All microcosm trials were run with

140 three replicates except where noted.

141 **2.2 Microcosm Experiments** 

142 **2.2.1 Experiment 1** 

We measured CH<sub>4</sub> and Fe<sup>2+</sup> production with various organic amendments,
including composted yard waste (L), composted wood chips (W), class 1 biosolids

145 (Bloom®) – ( $B_{\overline{j}}$ , manure – ( $M_{\overline{j}}$ , and hay – (H) at three treatment levels: 8.8% (v/v),

146 26%, and 53%, in two soils, a SL and a SCL. We used horse M for the SCL incubations

147 and cow M for the SL incubations. This matched the wetland mitigation conditions at

148 each field location. The treatment levels reflect the Maryland Department of Environment

149 (MDE) recommendation for wetland restoration (60 cubic yards per acre assuming a 6"

150 mixing depth) = 1x, 3x, and 6x the MDE recommended level. All amendments were

151 sieved to 5mm. Hay was chopped with a Wiley mill, blended, or cut with scissors until it

152 could easily pass a 5mm sieve.

153 **2.2.2 Experiment 2** 

We measured CH<sub>4</sub> and Fe<sup>2+</sup> production using cured (aged) and uncured (fresh) organic materials. We used two amendments, B and M. The two cured materials were from the same two sources as the fresh material but werehad been cured for a minimum of 3 months. We added the same amount of amendment to each microcosm based on organic matter (OM\_content. Each amendment was evaluated for OM by loss-on-ignition (LOI) (550°C for 2h). Based on the percent OM we adjusted the amount of amendment 160 so the final <u>doseloading rate</u> was 20g OM/ <u>600ee600 cm<sup>3</sup></u> soil. The microcosm setup was 161 the same as Experiment 1 except we used the same volume of soil (<u>600ee600 cm<sup>3</sup></u>) in all 162 microcosms. These microcosms were incubated for 13 days and sampled periodically for 163  $Fe^{2+}$  and biogenic gases.

164 **2.2.3** Experiment 3

We measured a)  $CH_4$  and b)  $Fe^{2+}$  production as a function of pH. We used H 165 166 leachate as a substrate (McMahon et al., 2005). We leached 5.63 g H with 125 cm<sup>3</sup> cold 167 de-ionized water, shaking horizontally at 5°C for 24 hours. The leachate was filtered to 168 20  $\mu$ m and immediately placed into jars with 600 eecm<sup>3</sup> SL soil and incubated for 22 169 days. The pH was adjusted to target levels of 5.6, 6.1, and 6.6 using a non-substrate 170 buffer: 2-(N-morpholino) ethanesulfonic acid (MES). To determine the necessary 171 concentration of MES, we titrated SL (pH 5.8) to our maximum desired pH (6.6). We 172 determined that the buffering capacity of the soils corresponded to  $\sim 2$  mN in the 125 173 eecm<sup>3</sup> of liquid (leachate volume), so we prepared microcosms using 125 eecm<sup>3</sup> of 20 174 mN MES buffer.

175 **2.2.4 Experiment 4** 

176 We measured  $Fe^{2+}$  production using leached H as a substrate (as in Experiment 3)

177 but compared these finding to those with unleached H, and the H residuals.

178 **2.3 Soil, Liquid, and Gas Analyses** 

179 Prior to the start of the experiments, we analyzed the SL and SCL for soil texture,

- percent soil C, and extractable iron\_Fe (Supplemental Table S1). Soil texture was
- 181 determined by hyprometer method: adding 50 g soil-was added to a 1000 ml cylinder with
- 182 0.5% hexametaphosphate. Sand settled after 1 minute and silt after 24 hours. Soil

183	moisture content was determined as weight loss of approximately 5 g of soil dried at
184	105°C for 48 hours. We determined percent soil C using thermal combustion analysis at
185	950°C on a LECO CHN-2000 analyzer (LECO Corp., St. Joseph, MI). Iron extractions
186	were performed sequentially with 1 M hydroxylamine hydrochloride (HHCL) in 25% v/v
187	acetic acid; 50 g / 1 sodium dithionite in solution 0.35 M ace-tic acid / 0.2 M sodium
188	citrate buffered to pH 4.8; 0.2 M ammonium oxalate / 0.17 M oxalic acid (pH 3.2)
189	(Poulton and Canfield, 2005). The HHCL extraction targets bioavailable iron, primarily
190	ferrihydrite and lepidocrocite. Dithionite also includes more crystalline iron oxide forms,
191	hematite and goethite. Oxalate includes the bioavailable iron oxides and magnetite.
192	Throughout the experiments we measured Fe <sup>2+</sup> , pH, and biogenic gases in the
193	headspace. In some cases, $Fe^{2+}$ and pH were measured only at the end of the incubation.
194	Using a 3" needle, we extracted 0.3 - 1 $\frac{\text{cecm}^3}{\text{cecm}^3}$ (for Fe <sup>2+</sup> ) and 1 $\frac{\text{cecm}^3}{\text{cecm}^3}$ (for pH) of the
195	supernatant liquid to avoid disturbing soil in the jars. Liquid samples Samples of liquid
196	supernatant were removed during gas sampling, when atmospheric pressure was
197	maintained, to avoid loss of biogenic gases and atmospheric contamination. For the final
198	sample point the jar contents were thoroughly mixed prior to sampling to include pore
199	water and gases. Ferrous iron in supernatant liquid was measured with a HACH DR4000
200	spectrophotometer. The spectrophotometer was also used to measure Fe in the Fe-oxide
201	extractions. Prior to analysis, extracted Fe-oxides were reduced by adding thioglycolic
202	acid. To confirm the spectrophotometer accuracy, a subset of samples was also analyzed
203	on a PerkinElmer PinAAcle 900T atomic absorption spectrometer. An Orion 9142BN
204	electrode was used to determine pH.

205	Gas samples were collected in 12 eecm <sup>3</sup> N-purged exetainer vials and analyzed
206	by injecting 5 eecm <sup>3</sup> into a Varian Model 450-GC gas chromatograph. Since sample
207	volume was typically 1 eecm <sup>3</sup> or less, 5 eecm <sup>3</sup> nitrogen gas was added to the vials
208	immediately prior to analysis for CO <sub>2</sub> and CH <sub>4</sub> , and measured concentrations were
209	corrected for dilution and prior headspace gas concentrations. We also performed For
210	fluorescent spectral scans <u>on</u> -dissolved organic matter <u>that</u> was extracted from organic
211	materials with 1:10 solid (weight) / deionized water (volume) for 24 hours and filtered to
212	$0.45 \ \mu m$ (Fischer et al. 2020). After diluting samples, emission spectra were recorded
213	using an Aqualog fluorometer (Horiba Scientific; Edison, NJ).
214	2.4 Data analysis
215	Unless otherwise noted, statistical determinations were done using ANOVA in R
216	or SAS. The Fe <sup>2+</sup> concentrations were evaluated using contrasts for each of the
217	amendments compared to the control using the R multcomp package. The gas curves
218	were modelled as piecewise, bimodal linear functions using the R "Segmented" package
219	(Muggeo, 2008). Breakpoints were determined using the total gas curves but, in some
220	cases, Segmented could not identify a breakpoint in the total gas curve, so $CH_4$ curves
221	were used as noted in Supplemental Figures S2 & S3. Gas curves from H amendments
222	did not fit a piecewise model and were modelled as sigmoidal functions using the
223	SSgompertz function in R. However, SSgompertz is sensitive to data scatter, particularly
224	at the beginning and end of the curve, so in two cases, the total the gas and CO2-curves
225	for H6x in the SL_ <del>,</del> we <u>re</u> fit the data with a power function in Excel.

226 3 Results

227 **3.1 Experiment 1a: Effect of organic amendments and soil type on CH4 gas production** 

- <u>Results for CH<sub>4</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub>, and tTotal gas production rates are shown on The addition</u>
   of organic amendments increased CH<sub>4</sub> production (Table 1). The amount of the increase
- 230 depended on the soil type, when CH<sub>4</sub> samples were collected, amendment type, and dose.
- In general, the SL soil produced 2.4 times as much CH<sub>4</sub> as the SCL (Table 1 and
- 232 Supplemental Figure S4a). <u>GMethane gas production occurred in two distinct steady-</u>
- state gas production periods, which we identified as Phase 1, and then after a breakpoint,
- Phase 2- (Figure 1) with -(iIndividual gas curves are shown in Supplemental Figures S22
- 235 (SCL) and S<u>3</u>3 (SL). Therefore, we reported Phase 1 & 2 gas production rates, as well as
- the breakpoint (Table 1). A typical piecewise gas production curve is shown in
- 237 Supplemental Figure S5 with individual ABH Some CH4 was produced almost immediately
- upon inundation (<u>Phase 1Table 1a)</u>, but after the breakpoint (40 days in both the SL and
- SCL soils), there is a large increase in CH<sub>4</sub> as well as an average  $4.7x \pm 1.9$  increase in
- total gas production (<u>Supplemental Table 1bS2</u>). <u>One of our amendments, H, did not fit</u>
- 241 <u>the linear bimodal pattern, so we reported rates separately on Table 1c.</u>
- 242 <u>Gas production varied by The amount of the increase depended on the soil</u>
- 243 texture, the incubation time point when CH<sub>4</sub> samples were collected, amendment type,
- 244 and dose. gas curves shown in Supplemental Figures S2 (SCL) and S3 (SL).
- 245 Supplemental Table S2 shows CH4 and includes total gas and carbon dioxide (CO2). In
- 246 general, the SL soil produced 2.6 times as much total gas (Figure 2a) and 2.4 times as
- 247 <u>much CH<sub>4</sub> as the SCL (Figure 2b).</u> In the SCL soil, CH<sub>4</sub> production in Phase 1 was 0.003

248	eecm <sup>3</sup> CH <sub>4</sub> - <sup>1</sup> /Kg soil <sup>-1</sup> /day and with amendments increased to as much as 0.8 ee cm <sup>3</sup>
249	<u>CH<sub>4</sub><sup>-1</sup> Kg soil<sup>-1</sup> day cm<sup>3</sup>/Kg/day (Table <u>11a</u>). In Phase 2 CH<sub>4</sub> was 1.9 ce cm<sup>3</sup> CH<sub>4</sub><sup>-1</sup> Kg</u>
250	soil <sup>-1</sup> day was produced in control soils em <sup>3</sup> /Kg/day and with amendments
251	increased to as much as 28 ee_cm <sup>3</sup> CH <sub>4</sub> <sup>-1</sup> Kg soil <sup>-1</sup> day em <sup>3</sup> /Kg/day (Table 11b). In the SL
252	soil, amendments increased the rate CH4-from 0.04 to 16 ee cm3 CH4-1 Kg soil-1 day
253	$\frac{\text{cm}^3/\text{Kg/day in}}{\text{Phase 1}}$ and from 1.8 to $64 \frac{\text{cm}^3 \text{CH}_4^{-1} \text{Kg soil}^{-1} \text{day}}{\text{cm}^3 \text{CH}_4^{-1} \text{Kg soil}^{-1} \text{day}}$ in Phase 2.
254	Gas production rates generally increasedd with amendment doseloading rate
255	(Table 1a & b), as expected With the exception of L in the SL, all amendments reduced
256	the breakpoint.time required to transition from Phase 1 to Phase 2 (i.e. the breakpoint).
257	Biosolids caused the largest shift, decreasing the breakpoint to as little as 5 days. While
258	amendments generally increased CH <sub>4</sub> production there were exceptions. Low doseloading
259	rates of cured amendments (L and W) had lower CH4 production rates than unamended
260	soil: L1 in Phase 1 in both soils; L3 in the SL; L3 in the SCL (Phase 2 only); and W1 in
261	the SCL (Phase 2). Biosolids (B1) also lowered CH <sub>4</sub> production rates in <u>the SL both</u> soils
262	(Phase 1) (Table 41a). We examined the normalized CH <sub>4</sub> production rates (per g C in
263	soil), but in most cases results were not statistically different at $p < 0.05$ (Supplemental
264	Figure S4). The general trends indicate uncured amendments (e.g. B and M) produce
265	more methane per unit carbon than cured amendments (L).
266	Using fresh H, biogenic gas production followed a sinusoidal pattern and we
267	reported maximum CH <sub>4</sub> production rate at the inflection point (Table <u>41c</u> ). Hay was
268	prone to floating and at higher doseloading rates and was mostly present in the water
269	column above the soil surface (not in contact with soil). In the in-stances instances where
I	12

270	this occurred (H3 and H6 in the SCL), there was a decrease in overall gas production rate
271	and very low $CH_4$ – much lower than unamended soils (Table <u>1c</u> and Supplemental
272	Figures S22z & S3z). Floating also occurred in one replicated for H6 in SL – the pattern
273	is shown on Supplemental Figures S2&3z, but not used in the average reported value
274	(Table 1c).
275	<b>3.2 Experiment 1b: Effect of organic amendments and soil type on Fe<sup>2+</sup></b>
276	The type and doseloading rate of organic amendments affected total soluble $Fe^{2+}$
277	production, compared to the unamended control, in only a limited number of cases
278	(Figure 31, Supplemental Table S2). In the SL soil, L caused a decrease ( $p < 0.05$ ) in
279	supernatant $Fe^{2+}$ concentrations whereas H increased <u>supernatant</u> $Fe^{2+}$ in both soils (p <
280	0.05). In a separate set of experiments, we documented the relationship between
281	supernatant Fe and pore water Fe (Supplemental Figure S5). Soil type affected the
282	amount of soluble $Fe^{2+}$ produced (p < 0.05). We did not see a difference in $Fe^{2+}$ in the
283	unamended microcosms even though the SCL had 2.2x the amount of hydrochloramine
284	hydrochloride extractable Fe (FeHHCl) compared to the SL and had 7.6x more dithionite
285	extractable Fe (Supplemental Table S1). Of the FeHHCl in soil, 19% or less in the SCL
286	and 61% or less in the SL was reduced to $Fe^{2+}$ . Hay was an exception, where up to 155 %
287	of the FeHHCl in the SCL and 236 % in the SL was reduced to $Fe^{2+}$ (Supplemental Table
288	S23). During the SL soil incubations, aqueous $Fe^{2+}$ was measured simultaneous to $CH_4$
289	production. In the H and M treatments, there was a marked increase in CH4 production
290	when $Fe^{2+}$ became asymptotic. However, with the other amendments, $Fe^{2+}$ production
291	continued or even increased during periods of high CH4 production. Figure 4 shows two
1	

292 <u>examples that highlight this pattern, is a subset of the and for the complete set of curves is</u>

## 293 <u>in</u> (Supplemental Figure S<u>66</u>).

294 3.3 Experiment 2a: Effect of cured versus fresh organic amendments on CH<sub>4</sub> gas production 295 In Experiment 1a, it appeared that curing may have had an effect on CH<sub>4</sub> 296 production. Fresh H produced the most CH<sub>4</sub>. The H1 trials had maximum production rates of 18.2 and 27.8 mg cm<sup>3</sup> CH<sub>4</sub><sup>-1</sup> Kg soil<sup>-1</sup> day cm<sup>3</sup>/Kg/day in the SCL and SL soils, 297 298 respectively (Table 11c). The H3 and H6 doseloading rates would likely have been higher 299 had some portion of the H not floated. The M6 trials produced the most CH4 at 27.7 and 300 64.0 mg cm<sup>3</sup> CH<sub>4</sub><sup>-1</sup> Kg soil<sup>-1</sup> day cm<sup>3</sup>/Kg/day in the SCL and SL soils, respectively. Of 301 the amendments used, M was cured the least (after fresh H, which was uncured). 302 LeafGro, a commercial composted yard waste, was cured the most was cured the most 303 and produced very little CH<sub>4</sub>, in some cases less than the controls. Since we could not 304 specify <u>precisely</u> how long the organic material had been cured, we conducted a separate 305 experiment with organic materials that had been cured of known curing periods (at least 306 90 days, using B and M. Rather than use the same volumetric quantities, we used the 307 same doseloading rate based on OM content. The results confirmed that curing has a 308 strong influence on CH<sub>4</sub> production. Methane production was much higher using fresh 309 material in both cases and cured material resulted in a decrease insometimes decreased 310 CH<sub>4</sub> production (Table 2). **3.4** 3.4 Experiment 2b: Effect of cured versus fresh organic amendments on Fe<sup>2+</sup> production 311 312 In Experiment 1b, we observed that curing also had an effect on the amount of

313  $Fe^{2+}$  produced. Hay was the only amendment that produced significantly more  $Fe^{2+}$  and

the use of L sawproduced a significant reduction in  $Fe^{2+}$  (Figure 13). In Experiment 2 we used biosolids (B) and manure (M) that had been cured at least 3 months. Whether the material had been cured had a strong influence on  $Fe^{2+}$  production and  $Fe^{2+}$  was higher using fresh material in both cases (Figure 2).-5).

318 **3.4.1-3.4.1 Spectral <u>analysisAnalysis: Effect</u> of <del>cured and uncured</del> organic <u>matter amendments and</u>** 

319 <u>soil type on CH4 gas production</u>

320

We observed differences in CH<sub>4</sub> and Fe reduction rates in when using organic

321 <u>material that had been</u> cured versus uncured-<u>organic material</u>. The fluorescent spectral

322 signatures of the cured materials (B and M) were similar as were the signatures of fresh

323 material (Supplemental Figure S7), so. The fluorescent signatures varied due to curing

<u>differentiated the materials more than</u>, but not due to the source-material. The difference

325 in signatures was indicative of higher concentrations of organic (humic) acids and lower

326 nominal oxidation state in the cured materials. We considered other organic matter

327 characterization methods such as the material's carbon to nitrogen ratio, but we did not

328 find another reliable predictor of  $CH_4$  and  $Fe^{2+}$  production other than curing.

**3.5 Experiment 3: Effect of pH on a) CH4 and b) Fe<sup>2+</sup> production** 

The soil pH affected both CH<sub>4</sub> and Fe<sup>2+</sup> production. In Experiment 1, we observed that on-Fe<sup>2+</sup> varied with pH in the SL soil (p<0.001; Supplemental Figure S8a), but there was little variation in the SCL (p=0.45; Supplemental Figure S8b). In order to isolate the effect of pH, we performed experiment 3 using a single substrate (H leachate) in the SL

soil. Higher pH increased the CH<sub>4</sub> production rate in both Phase 1 and 2 (<u>Table 3</u>) and

reduced the production of  $Fe^{2+}$  (Figure <u>36</u>).

**3.6 Experiment 4: Leached versus unleached H and pH considerations** 

- In Experiment 4 we measured Fe<sup>2+</sup> produced from H, H leachate, and the-H
- residuals (Figure 47). We expected the soluble fraction to be more labile and produce
- more  $Fe^{2+}$ ; however, tThe H residuals (solid fraction) appeared to produce more  $Fe^{2+}$  than
- the leachate. <u>AHowever, as noted on the figure</u>, leaching also resulted in a change
- 341 inseparate leached fractions changed the system pH. Using the results from Experiment 2,
- 342 we predict that had the pHs been the same, at comparable pH there would have been no
- 343 difference in Fe<sup>2+</sup> production between H, H residuals, and leachate (Supplemental Figure
- 344 <u>S9S9</u>). <u>Given the potentially strong influence of pH, Therefore, we re-evaluated the</u>
- 345 results from Experiment 2b, correcting for pH and confirmed that the organic material
- 346 age accounts for differences in  $Fe^{2+}$  production (Supplemental Figure S10). Similarly, we
- 347 considered whether pH <u>may have</u> affected the out-come of Experiment 1-results.
- B48 However, a<u>A</u> MANOVA analysis of the Experiment 1 data (Supplemental Table <u>\$453</u>)
- 349 indicated that pH and soil type had a small effect (p=0.30 and 0.81, respectively)
- $\beta$  compared to organic matter type and <u>doseloading rate</u> (p<0.0001).
- 351 4 Discussion

Net CH<sub>4</sub> emissions are a primary factor that determines whether a wetland is a C sink or contributes to long term global warming\_(Neubauer and Verhoeven, 2019). Soil management practices, such as wetland restoration methods, can have a large impact on CH<sub>4</sub> production and total greenhouse gas emissions (Paustian et al., 2016). Our data indicate that organic amendments used in <u>mitigation-created or restored</u> wetlands <u>may</u> ean-have a large influence on CH<sub>4</sub> production. Organic amendments that had been cured 358 (L and W) only slightly increased CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, whereas but fresh material (M and H) 359 resulted in large increases (Tables 1a&b). This is consistent with field studies where 360 comparable cured amendments (composted wood and yard waste), did not result in 361 increased CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (Winton and Richardson, 2015), but straw (Ballantine et al., 362 2015) and peat bales (Green, 2014) increased CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. Organic material is 363 commonly cured, or composted, to remove plant pathogens (Noble and Roberts, 2004) 364 and to reduce the amount of cellulosic material (Hubbe et al., 2010), which competes for 365 oxygen, contributing to phytotoxicity (Saidpullicino et al., 2007; Hu et al., 2011). Curing 366 produces humic acids and increases the nominal oxidation state (NOSC) of C (Guo et al., 367 2019). When cured material is then subjected to anaerobic conditions, less  $CH_4$  is 368 produced (Yao and Conrad, 1999), which would make composted material more suitable 369 in a wetland restoration context-to-maintain an electron balance. 370 Following soil inundation, we observed two distinct gas production phases (Phase 371 1 and 2). This pattern is difficult to distinguish in unamended soils but has been reported 372 previously (Yao and Conrad, 1999; Drake et al., 2009). Our The-breakpoint (5 – 45 days 373 Table 1b)) was similar to from 5 - 36 days in a study by Yao and Conrad (1999) (5 - 36 374 days)and 5 45 days in our study (Table 4.1). The Phase 2 CH<sub>4</sub> production rates in unamended soils were also similar: 0.96 - 3.98 cm<sup>3</sup> CH<sub>4</sub>-<sup>1</sup> Kg soil<sup>-1</sup> day cm<sup>3</sup>/Kg/day in 375 Yao and Conrad (1999) and  $1.82 - 1.94 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ CH}_4^{-1} \text{ Kg soil}^{-1} \text{ day}$  in our study (Table 376 377 4.1b). There are several known contributors to thi There are several explanations that 378

379 <u>could account for the observeds gas production pattern. One is the lag period required to</u>

- 380 re-establish populations of methanogenic archaea, which become are likely dormant under
- 381 oxic conditions and doubling times for regrowth can be on the order of days (Jabłoński et
- al., 2015). In our study, B had the earliest onset of shift to Phase 2 CH<sub>4</sub> production (Table
- <u>1b), possibly due to elevated levels of dormant methanogens present from anaerobic</u>
- 384 <u>digestion</u>. Another cause for The the two-phase gas production is the could also be due to
- 385 <u>depletion of bioavailable ironFe-oxides</u>, which suppress thus relieving the competition
- between Fe reducers and methanogens methanogenesis (Megonigal et al., 2004).
- 387 <u>However, some The Our of our data seemed to contradict this model were mixed, with</u>
- 388 some treatments showaving evidence of competition by for slower Fe reducerstion, and
- 389 <u>but in others cases we did not see competition<del>not</del>. In treatment Figure 4a shows that the</u>
- 390 trial with the amendment M1, (for example,) fit the expected pattern ferrous iron Fe in
- 391 the supernatant plateaued at about the same time as the breakpoint (Figure 4b), after
- 392 which methaneCH<sub>4</sub> production increased. In contrastFigure 4b, in shows that with W3
- 393 soluble ironFe continued to be produced well after the breakpoint, and the amount of
- bioavailable ironFe used during the course of the incubation was less than  $28 \pm 4\%$
- 395 (Figure 4b, Supplemental Table S2). We also looked at
- 396 In addition to quantifying Fe oxide concentrations, the CO<sub>2</sub>:CH<sub>4</sub> ratios can be
- 397 <u>indicative of interactions between methanogens and other reducers (Bridgham et al.</u>
- 398 <u>2013</u>). As with iron-oxide utilization, welf Fe reduction or other reduction stops during
- 399 <u>Phase 2, we would expect the CO<sub>2</sub>:CH<sub>4</sub> ratio to be near 1:1 (after the methane breakpoint</u>
- 400 Bridgham et al. (2013). However, we observed notable exceptions. (also discussed in
- 401 <u>Bridgham et al. 2013). The SCL L1 trial treatment had a ratio of 73:1 after the</u>

- 402 <u>breakpointin Phase 2 (Table 1b)</u>, yet still had the characteristic shift to higher overall gas
- 403 production (4.67x). Other treatments also had higher CO<sub>2</sub>:CH<sub>4</sub> ratios: r trials (L3, L6,
- 404 <u>W1, B1, C, and W1-3 in the SL soil (Table 1b)) showed similar unexpected behaviours</u>,
- 405 <u>but to a lesser degree. Therefore, there are likely underlying mechanisms that contributes</u>
- 406 <u>to the breakpoint other than depletion of iron-oxides and a shift to methanogenesis. One</u>
- 407 possible explanation put forth in other work is that redox dynamics can be controlled by
- 408 the development of microsites (Yang et al., 2017). Our mixed observations may have
- 409 <u>been due to microsite formation. In high producing microcosms, In our experiments</u>
- 410 <u>microsite development may have been disrupted by gas ebullition, which was</u>
- 411 <u>severesubstantialtainal enough in H amended trials to cause effervescence. Amendments</u>
- 412 with low gas production and limited gas ebullition (e.g. L, W and C) continued to
- produce Fe<sup>2+</sup> after the breakpoint, however, possibly because methanogens were active in
- 414 <u>undisturbed microsites, as described in -(Yang et al. (-2017).</u>
- 415 The increased gas production from organic amendments was more pronounced in
- 416 SL compared to SCL, where there was 2.4x higher CH<sub>4</sub> and 2.6x higher gas production
- 417 (Figures 4.21a & b). There are few studies that compare CH<sub>4</sub> production rates by soil
- 418 type. We observed a more pronounced effect than a recent rice field study where there
- 419 was more methaneCH<sub>4</sub> from SL soils versus SCL, ; although in that study results were
- 420 <u>not statistically significant (Kim et al., 2018).</u> Yagi and Minami (1990) observed that
- 421 compost (approximate dose loading rate the same as our 1x treatment) increased
- 422 respiration rates by 1.8x in a SCL versus a loam soil. Maietta, Hondula, et al. (2020)
- 423 observed that respiration rates were higher in a sandy loam soil compared to a silty clay,

424 with and without 3.3% & 23% wetland hay <u>amendments</u>. <u>Thus, we might conclude that</u>

425 <u>in general coarser grained (sandy) soil textures emit more methaneCH4; however, there</u>

426 <u>are a number of investigations where this was not the case (Yagi and Minami, 1990;</u>

427 Glissmann and Conrad, 2002). Other factors may have contributed. In our experiment the

428 SCL had 7.6x dithionite extractable Fe, and 4.6x as much %C (Supplemental Table S1),

429 so additional studies would be needed to isolate texture as the controlling factor.

430 We considered the gas production from H microcosms separately because they 431 followed a different pattern than the other amendments (Table 4.1), but the pattern was 432 similar to other studies using hay (Glissmann and Conrad, 2002) and wetland hay 433 (Maietta et al., 2020b). Our study adds to these findings by observing that H produced 434 very low CH<sub>4</sub> in the water column (after floating) compared to being mixed with soil 435 (Table 1c). This may merit further study because if this is generally true, applying fresh 436 organic matter as a mulch, rather than mixed into the soil, could greatly reduce the 437 adverse consequence of increased CH<sub>4</sub> emissions.

Reduction of Fe-oxides occurs in saturated soils in the presence of an organic 438 439 substrate and is a key biogeochemical process in wetland soils. With sufficient time, 440 hydric soils may develop redoximorphic features from Fe reduction; however, studies 441 have not shown lasting redoximorphic development due to organic amendments (Gray, 442 2010; Ott et al., 2020). Organizations responsible for constructing mitigation wetlands 443 have an interest in documenting Fe reduction prior to redoximorphic feature development 444 as evidence soils that are hydric. Some mitigation wetland practitioners experience 445 challenges meeting hydric soil testing standards. Although reports in the scientific

<u>literature are rare, there are examples of sites meeting vegetation and hydrology wetland</u>
 indicators, but not hydric soils (Berkowitz et al., 2014). Both the soils we tested produced

448 <u>sufficient</u>  $Fe^{2+}$  and would have passed hydric soils tests, so a soil without the aid of an

amendment would not be needed.

450 We observed that fresh organic matter resulted in increased  $Fe^{2+}$  compared to

451 cured organic matter (Figure 4.3), likely due to the presence of labile carbon, allowing

452 access to more crystalline Fe-oxides (Lentini et al., 2012). Fresh material such as hay has

453 been promoted as a soil amendment in wetland construction (Melvin 2003). In some

soils, Fe-reducing bacteria using fresh organic matter amendments could access

455 crystalline Fe making it more bioavailable. However, without an anoxic/oxic cycle,

456 increased Fe<sup>2+</sup> production could lead to Fe<sup>2+</sup> toxicity and ferrolysis (Kirk, 2004), similar

457 to the way fresh organic matter leads to SOC priming (Blagodatsky et al., 2010).

458 Ferrolysis occurs when bioavailable Fe-oxides are reduced to Fe<sup>2+</sup> and are subject to

459 hydraulic transport. We observed that cured amendments, like L, lowered Fe<sup>2+</sup>

460 concentrations (Figure <u>34.1</u>), likely due to combination of factors including displacement

461 of the Fe-bearing soil by the amendment possibly due to the presence of humic acids that

462 are generated during curing (Guo et al., 2019). Humic acids often contain insufficient

463 biogeochemical energy to drive dissimilatory Fe reduction (Keiluweit et al., 2017),

464 <u>chelate</u> Fe<sup>2+</sup>, removing it from the liquid phase (Catrouillet et al., 2014), and create

465 insoluble precipitates (Shimizu et al., 2013).

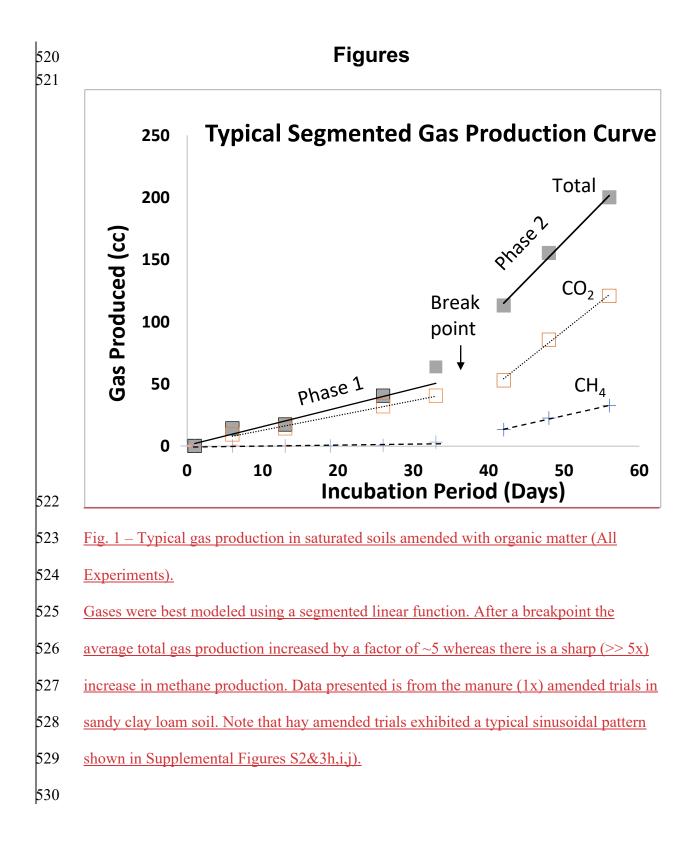
466 Regulating Fe<sup>2+</sup> production, through the selection of the appropriate OM

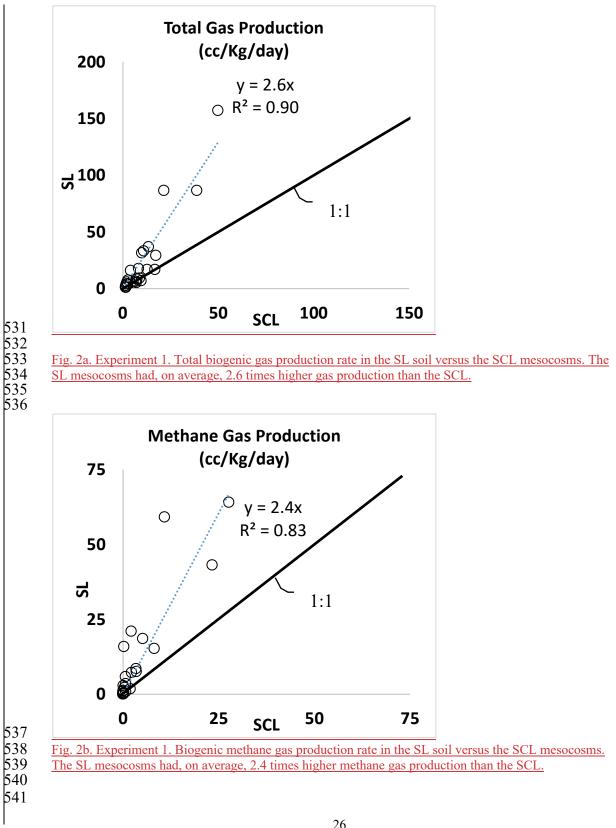
467 <u>amendment</u>, could influence the growth of wetland plants. For example, rice growth may

468	be stimulated under low Fe <sup>2+</sup> doses of 1 mg/L (Müller et al., 2015), but higher doses can
469	produce detrimental Fe plaque (Pereira et al., 2014). Some native wetland species are
470	adapted to high $Fe^{2+}$ concentrations. Juncus effusus growth is stimulated at 25 mg/L $Fe^{2+}$
471	(Deng et al., 2009). North American native reed Phragmites australis ssp. americanus
472	was stimulated at 11 mg/L Fe <sup><math>2+</math></sup> from ferrous sulfate (Willson et al., 2017), but the
473	invasive Eurasian lineage of <i>Phragmites australis</i> seedling growth was inhibited by Fe <sup>2+</sup>
474	as low as 1 mg/L (Batty, 2003). Soils high in free Fe <sup>2+</sup> adversely affected P. australis
475	growth by creating an Fe-oxide plaque on roots (Saaltink et al., 2017). Therefore,
476	promoting Fe reduction could have a beneficial effect on native wetland plant growth
477	while limiting invasive species seedling recruitment or growth. In our experiment, fresh
478	organic amendments increase Fe production, but had the detrimental side effect of high
479	CH <sub>4</sub> -generation.
479 480	<del>CH<sub>4</sub> generation.</del> Our results show that pH has a significant effect on both the production of Fe <sup>2+</sup>
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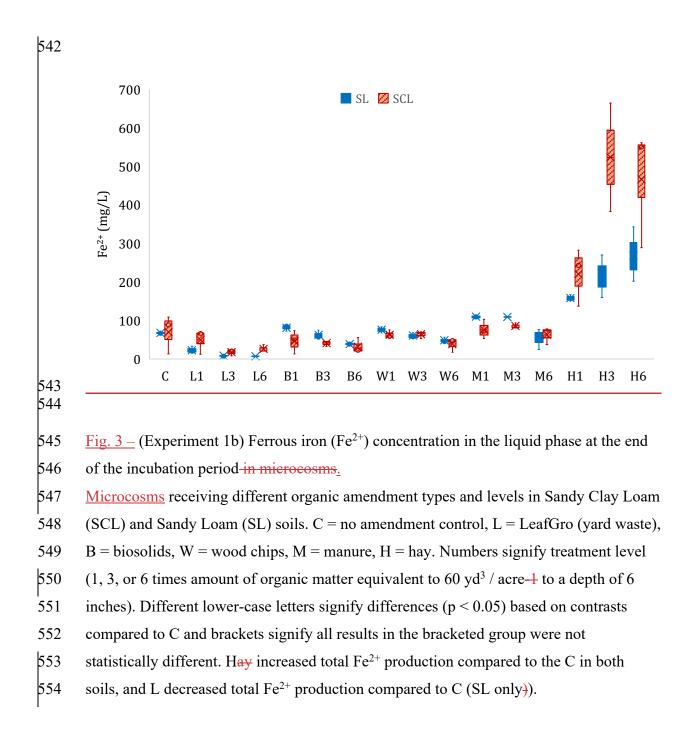
490 residual soil acidity, the amount of buffer needed to control soil pH may increase the 491 ionic strength to a level that could influence cellular sorption to mineral and Fe-oxide 492 surfaces (Mills et al., 1994) as well as enzyme activity (Leprince and Quiquampoix, 493 1996). 494 **5** Implications 495 In our experiment, we saw-observed that organic amendments can increase  $CH_4$ 496 production, particularly after extended anaerobic periods. We quantified methaneCH<sub>4</sub> 497 production potential from several organic amendments, and in a separate field experiment 498 (unnot yet-published) show that these results are useful in predicting field methaneCH<sub>4</sub> 499 production. There is mounting concern that CH<sub>4</sub> from mitigation-restored and created 500 wetlands may result in net global warming for decades to centuries (Neubauer, 2014). 501 Our results suggest that not only do organic amendments increase CH<sub>4</sub> gas production 502 overall, but uncured amendments can also decrease the time it takes before there is a 503 large increase in both total gas production and CH<sub>4</sub>. Methane production is not constant 504 and dramatically increases after several weeks. Because of this, it may be beneficial to 505 report wetland methaneCH<sub>4</sub> data along with inundation duration, which can strongly 506 affect CH<sub>4</sub> (Hondula et al., 2021). ITherefore, it may be possible to limit CH<sub>4</sub> in many 507 wetland settings, particularly mitigation wetlands where hydrology by designing systems 508 is part of the design: swith shorter flooding or saturation inundation periods durations, with 509 alternating with drier conditions. This, strategy has been proposed for rice paddy fields 510 (Souza, 2021). Our lab study demonstrates the potential for significant CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, 511 but in a real system, methanotrophic activity could attenuate CH4-some of the emissions

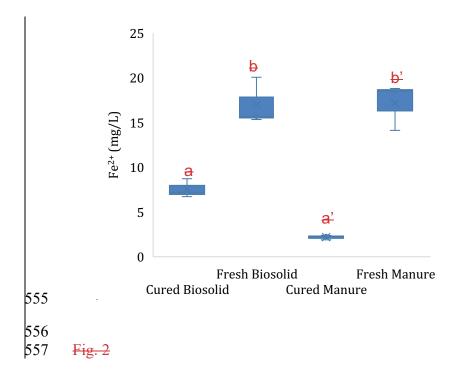
512 (Chowdhury and Dick, 2013); however, this would not decrease the overall C loss from 513 soils, it only changes the pathway. If organic amendments are to be used, cured 514 amendments may be preferrable because they are not as prone to high CH<sub>4</sub> generation and may attenuate Fe<sup>2+</sup> toxicity. Amendments that lower the soil pH increases Fe 515 reduction and limits methanogenesis (Marquart et al., 2019). When deciding whether or 516 517 not the to use of organic amendments for wetland mitigation is beneficial, or necessary, 518 consideration should be given to whether or not the material has been cured, the material pH, the soil texture, and expected hydroperiod. 519

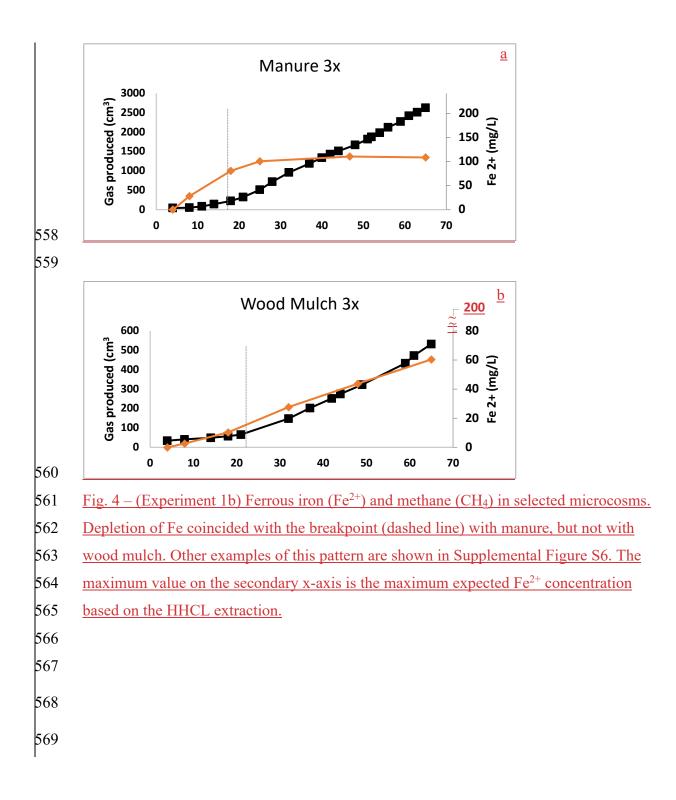


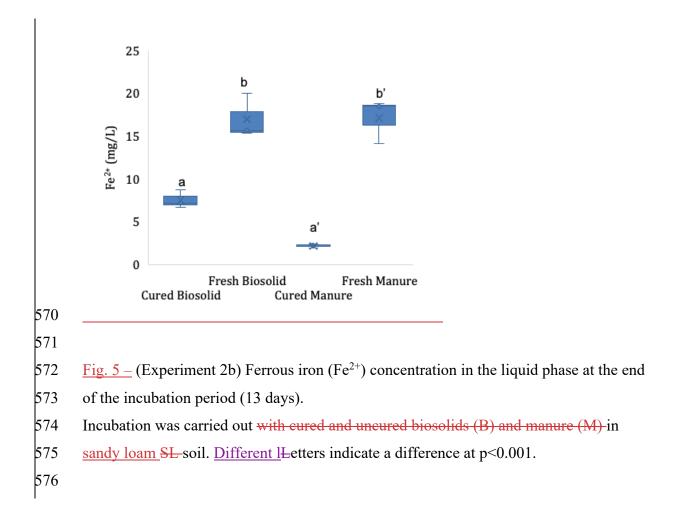


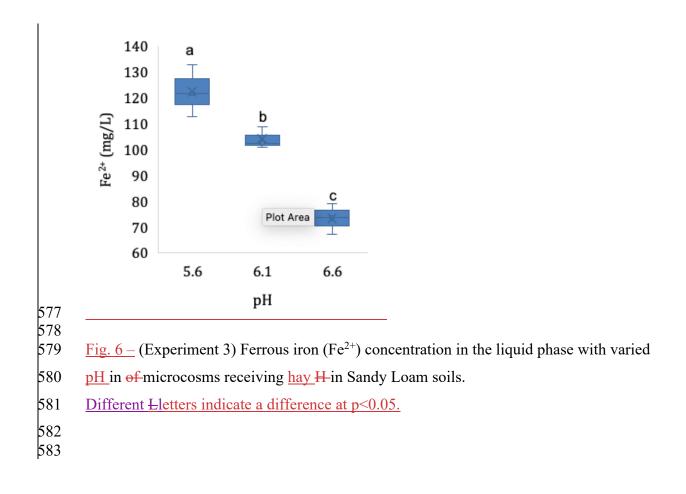


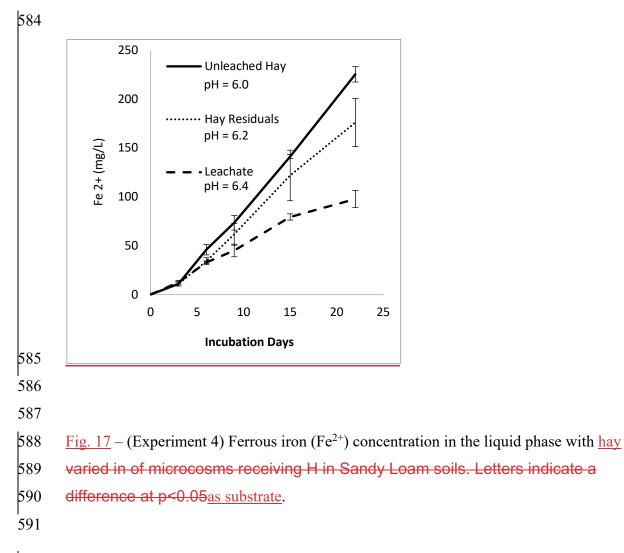












593	Tables								
594 595	<u>Table 1a – (Experiment 1a[AB2] – Phase 1</u> ). Carbon dioxide (CO <sub>2</sub> ), methane (CH <sub>4</sub> ) and								
596	total gas data for incubationsproduction. of different oOrganic amendment types: B								
597	(biosoilids), M (manure), L (composted yard waste), W (composted wood chips) and								
598	levels $(1 = 60 \text{ yd}^{43} / \text{ acre equivalent: } 3 = 180; 6 = 360)$ in silty clay loam (SCL) and sandy								
599	loam (SL) soils. Instances where organic amendments did not increase CH4 production								
600	are bolded. Note: CO <sub>2</sub> : CH <sub>4</sub> ratios are based on calculated gas production rates, not total								
601	gas produced[SAY3].								
	CO2     CH4     Total Gas       Soil     Treatment     Soil     cm <sup>3</sup> /day     CO2·CH4								

			CO <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>4</sub>			Tot			
Soil	Treatment	Soil (g)	cm <sup>3</sup> /day	cm <sup>3</sup> /Kg/day	cm <sup>3</sup> /day	cm <sup>3</sup> /Kg/day	cm <sup>3</sup> /day	cm <sup>3</sup> /Kg/day	CO <sub>2</sub> :CH <sub>4</sub>
SCL	Control	621.63	0.97	1.56	0.002	0.003	0.99	1.59	520.0
SCL	B1	425.24	1.53	3.61	0.08	0.18	4.13	9.70	20.1
SCL	B3	544.53	1.50	2.76	0.44	0.80	3.85	7.06	3.5
SCL	B6	468.02	2.09	4.46	0.06	0.13	3.53	7.55	34.3
SCL	M1	583.40	0.74	1.27	0.02	0.04	1.33	2.27	31.8
SCL	M3	495.56	1.79	3.61	0.32	0.64	2.05	4.13	5.6
SCL	M6	394.39	1.49	3.77	0.12	0.30	4.35	11.03	12.6
SCL	L1	586.46	0.83	1.42	0.001	0.001	0.85	1.45	1420.0
SCL	L3	516.34	0.89	1.72	0.01	0.01	0.91	1.77	172.0
SCL	L6	410.17	0.67	1.63	0.04	0.09	0.80	1.95	18.1
SCL	W1	593.36	1.00	1.68	0.01	0.01	0.92	1.56	168.0
SCL	W3	539.61	0.98	1.81	0.10	0.19	1.39	2.58	9.5
SCL	W6	457.42	1.03	2.25	0.11	0.24	1.29	2.81	9.4
SL	Control	634.60	0.50	0.79	0.03	0.04	0.56	0.88	19.8
SL	B1	606.80	1.25	2.06	0.02	0.04	4.13	6.80	51.5
SL	B3	551.50	1.57	2.84	0.44	0.79	2.92	5.29	3.6
SL	B6	467.87	2.08	4.44	0.59	1.27	3.81	8.15	3.5
SL	M1	619.92	2.62	4.22	0.58	0.93	3.49	5.63	4.5
SL	M3	588.37	4.48	7.61	3.44	5.85	9.42	16.02	1.3
SL	M6	540.93	8.63	15.95	8.59	15.87	17.92	33.13	1.0
SL	L1	600.10	0.35	0.58	0.02	0.03	0.73	1.22	19.3
SL	L3	530.30	0.61	1.15	0.02	0.03	0.78	1.46	38.3
SL	L6	425.87	0.62	1.47	0.11	0.26	1.66	3.89	5.7
SL	W1	603.27	0.98	1.62	0.06	0.10	1.55	2.56	16.2
SL	W3	538.77	1.42	2.64	0.20	0.36	2.14	3.98	7.3
SL	W6	442.57	3.05	6.88	0.24	0.54	3.23	7.31	12.7

I

Table 1b – (Experiment 1a AB4) – Phase 2). Carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>), methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) and total gas production pre and post breakpoint. Phase 2, and the Phase 1 : Phase 2 breakpoint. Organic amendment types: B (biosolids), M (manure), L (composted yard waste), W (composted wood chips) and levels ( $1 = 60 \text{ yd}^3$  / acre equivalent: 3 = 180; 6 = 360) in silty clay loam (SCL) and sandy loam (SL) soils. Instances where organic amendments did not increase CH<sub>4</sub> production are bolded. Note: r^2 values represent the combined best fit curve, using triplicate samples, for Phase 1 (Table 1a) and Phase 2.

			CO <sub>2</sub>	CH <sub>4</sub>		To	tal Gas				
Soil	Treatment	cm3/day	cm <sup>3</sup> /Kg/day	cm3/day	cm3/Kg/day	cm3/day	cm <sup>3</sup> /Kg/day	CO <sub>2</sub> :CH <sub>4</sub>	Break	r^2	Ph 2: Ph1
									Point		
SCL	<u>C</u> ( 1	2.06	3.31	1.20	1.94	2.54	4.09	1.7	$40.0 \pm 4.5$	0.959	2.57
SCL	Control B1	2.06 5.58	13.13	1.20	3.45	5.49	4.09	3.8	$40.0 \pm 4.5$ $29.3 \pm 1.9$	0.959	1.33
SCL	B1 B3	3.74	6.86	4.45	<u> </u>	9.48	12.91	0.8	$29.3 \pm 1.9$ $20.1 \pm 3.4$	0.987	2.46
SCL	B5 B6	7.42	15.85	10.90	23.29	9.48	38.89	0.8	$20.1 \pm 3.4$ $10.3 \pm 2.4$	0.974	5.15
SCL	<u>В0</u> М1	2.26	3.88	1.29	2.22	5.82	9.97	1.7	$10.3 \pm 2.4$ $40.2 \pm 2.1$	0.994	4.39
SCL	M3	4.64	9.37	5.39	10.89	10.69	21.58	0.9	$40.2 \pm 2.1$ $20.8 \pm 0.8$	0.997	5.23
SCL	M6	5.85	14.83	10.91	27.67	19.69	49.93	0.9	$20.8 \pm 0.8$ $22.1 \pm 3.2$	0.997	4.53
SCL	L1	3.85	6.57	0.05	0.090	3.96	6.76	73.0	$32.2 \pm 1.6$	0.966	4.67
SCL	L1 L3	4.21	8.16	0.03	0.090	4.54	8.79	10.9	$32.2 \pm 1.0$ $32.0 \pm 2.2$	0.983	4.07
SCL	L5 L6	5.90	14.39	0.92	2.24	6.95	16.95	6.4	$32.0 \pm 2.2$ $32.0 \pm 3.7$	0.923	8.68
SCL	W1	1.56	2.63	0.27	0.460	3.22	5.42	5.7	$34.0 \pm 3.7$	0.986	3.48
SCL	W3	1.93	3.58	1.90	3.52	4.51	8.35	1.0	$24.2 \pm 3.1$	0.989	3.23
SCL	W6	2.19	4.79	2.36	5.15	6.22	13.60	0.9	$13.0 \pm 2.4$	0.981	4.84
SL	Control	1.00	1.58	1.16	1.82	3.11	4.91	0.9	$40.0 \pm 3.2$	0.957	5.55
SL	B1	4.44	7.31	5.16	8.50	10.19	16.79	0.9	$8.6 \pm 3.0$	0.880	2.47
SL	B3	8.76	15.89	8.42	15.28	16.12	29.23	1.0	$4.7 \pm 1.8$	0.989	5.53
SL	B6	12.61	26.96	20.15	43.07	40.39	86.33	0.6	9.1 ± 1.2	0.992	10.59
SL	M1	8.64	13.93	13.03	21.02	19.41	31.30	0.7	$16.7 \pm 0.7$	0.998	5.56
SL	M3	15.23	25.88	34.77	59.10	50.79	86.33	0.4	$17.2 \pm 1.5$	0.992	5.39
SL	M6	29.50	54.53	34.62	64.00	84.92	156.98	0.9	$29.4\pm1.4$	0.974	4.74
SL	L1	1.35	2.24	1.71	2.85	3.76	6.26	0.8	$38.3\pm1.2$	0.992	5.12
SL	L3	2.27	4.27	1.86	3.50	4.82	9.09	1.2	$40.5\pm2.0$	0.977	6.22
SL	L6	4.25	9.99	3.07	7.21	7.15	16.78	1.4	$44.8\pm1.3$	0.988	4.31
SL	W1	2.10	3.48	1.32	2.19	3.47	5.76	1.6	$25.6\pm7.6$	0.762	2.25
SL	W3	6.58	12.22	4.05	7.51	9.46	17.56	1.6	$23.2\pm2.3$	0.974	4.41
SL	W6	10.10	22.83	8.23	18.60	16.22	36.65	1.2	$23.2\pm1.1$	0.991	5.02
									AVERA		4.7
									STDE	V	1.9

<u>Table 1c</u> – <u>Experiment 1a.</u> Carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>), methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) and total gas production with hay (<u>H</u>) amendment. <u>H amended trials</u> fit a sigmoidal, not segmented, pattern, and therefore there was no breakpoint and we present p values for the sigmoidal fit, except H6 SL rates where we used a power function in Excel and report the  $r^{2}$  value. Gas production rates (cm 3 gas Kg soil -1 day -1) represent maximum at the inflection point. <u>T</u>The amendment amendment hay (<u>H</u>) floated to the surface in the <u>SCL</u> H3 and H6 trials, which resulted in unusually low CH<sub>4</sub> production rates. <u>in SCL</u>.

Sigmoid	Sigmoidal curve values			CO <sub>2</sub>			CH <sub>4</sub>			Total Gas		
Soil	Treatment	Soil	cm <sup>3</sup> /day	cm <sup>3</sup> /Kg/day	p	cm <sup>3</sup> /day	cm <sup>3</sup> /Kg/day	p	cm <sup>3</sup> /day	cm <sup>3</sup> /Kg/day	p	CO <sub>2</sub> :CH <sub>4</sub>
		(g)										
SCL	H1	573.03	9.70	16.93	<u>2.0E-16</u>	10.40	18.15	<u>0.164</u>	<del>18.40<u>37.</u></del>	<u>64.75</u> 32.11	<u>1.3E-12</u>	0.93
									1			
SCL	H3	477.85	7.50	15.70	<u>3.0E-14</u>	0.02	0.04	0.933	9.90	20.72	<u>7.8E-6</u>	393
SCL	H6	334.20	6.60	19.75	<u>0.019</u>	0.09	0.27	<u>0.921</u>	6.70	20.05	<u>9.6E-13</u>	73
SL	H1	582.57	8.90	15.28	<u>5.5E-14</u>	16.20	27.81	0.283	18.40	31.58	<u>2.9E-4</u>	0.55
SL	H3	478.00	20.80	43.51	1.8E-13	12.20	25.52	0.636	36.80	76.99	0.0093	1.7
SL	H6	321.13	<del>14.70<u>50</u></del>	<u>158.0</u> 45.78	0.93(r^2)	<del>13.20</del> 77.	<u>242.1</u> 41.10	<u>0.69(r^2)</u>	<del>35.60</del> <u>79.</u>	<del>110.86</del>	<u>0.74(r^2)</u>	<u>0.65</u> 1.1
			.71			<u>7</u>			<u>79</u>	<u>248.47</u>		

<u>Table 2</u> – (Experiment 2a). Methane gas data for incubations with fresh and cured organic matter in <u>sandy loam soilSL (Experiment 1)</u>.

Control data (\*) from Experiment 1a (Table 1a) included for reference. Different l-Letters indicate a difference at p<0.001.

	Phase 1	Phase 2
Treatment	Methane	Methane
	(cm <sup>3</sup> /Kg/day)	(eecm <sup>3</sup> /Kg/day)
Control*•	0.04	1.8
Cured Biosolids <sup>a</sup>	0.003	0.37
Fresh Biosolids <sup>b</sup>	3.29	17.48
Cured Manure <sup>a</sup> '	0.22	5.4
Fresh Manure <sup>b'</sup>	3.85	42.36

Table 3 – (Experiment 3). Methane gas data versus pH-of microcosms.

<u>Microcosms</u> receiving <u>hay</u>H in Sandy Loam soils (Experiment 3). <u>Different l</u>Letters indicate a difference at p<0.001.

pН	Phase 1 CH <sub>4</sub>	Phase 2 CH <sub>4</sub>
	(cm <sup>3</sup> /Kg/day)	(cm <sup>3</sup> /Kg/day)
5.6 <sup>a</sup>	0.44	10.6
6.1 <sup>b</sup>	1.0	13.0
6.6 <sup>c</sup>	1.8	13.8

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