

Quantification of potential methane emissions associated with organic matter amendments following oxic soil inundation

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Abstract

Methane (CH₄) emissions are a potent contributor to global warming and wetlands can be a significant CH₄ source. In a microcosm study, we evaluated how the practice of amending soils with organic matter as part of wetland restoration projects may affect CH₄ production potential. Organic amendments including hay, manure, biosolids, composted yard waste, and wood mulch were evaluated at three different levels. Using 1-liter glass microcosms, we measured the production of biogenic gases over 60 days in two soils designated by texture: a sandy loam (SL) and a sandy clay loam (SCL). Fresh organic amendments increased CH₄ production, leading to potentially higher global warming potential and wetland C loss, and CH₄ production was more pronounced in the SL. We observed biogenic gas production in two sequential steady state phases: Phase 1 produced some CH₄ but was mostly carbon dioxide (CO₂) followed by Phase 2, two to six weeks later, with higher total gas and nearly equal amounts of CH₄ and CO₂. If this is generally true in soils, it may be appropriate to report CH₄ emissions in the context of inundation duration. The CH₄ from the SCL soil ranged from 0.003 – 0.8 cm³ Kg⁻¹ day in Phase 1 to 0.75 – 28 cm³ Kg⁻¹ day in Phase 2, and from the SL range from 0.03 – 16 -cm³ Kg⁻¹ day in Phase 1 to 1.8 – 64 cm³ Kg⁻¹ day in Phase 2. Adding fresh organic matter

(e.g., hay) increased ferrous iron (Fe^{2+}) concentrations whereas in some cases composted organic matter decreased both Fe^{2+} concentrations and CH_4 production. Methanogenesis normally increases following the depletion of reduceable Fe; however, we observed instances where this was not the case, suggesting other biogeochemical mechanisms contributed to the shift in gas production.

Keywords Methane emissions, mitigation wetlands, organic amendments

1 Introduction

The ecological benefits of wetlands are well documented, including their role as carbon (C) sinks to stabilize global climate (Mitsch et al., 2015). Driven in part by this ecological contribution, from 1970 to 2015 human-made wetlands have increased 233% (Darrah et al., 2019). Between 2004 and 2009 the United States saw a net gain of 16,670 hectares of freshwater wetlands: 360,820 hectares of new wetlands to offset 344,140 hectares of existing (presumably C-sink) wetlands that were destroyed (Dahl, 2011). Although created or restored wetlands may effectively sequester C, it may take hundreds of years to offset their radiative forcing due to methane (CH_4) emissions (Neubauer, 2014). With such a large number of human-made wetlands, and their potential to increase global warming, it is vital to consider factors that may contribute to CH_4 emissions.

Organic amendments such as straw, wood mulch, manure, and biosolids, mixed into the soil, are thought to accelerate C storage by enhancing the conversion of plant-derived compounds to microbial residues (Richardson et al., 2016). Microbial residues, largely aliphatic-C from cell membrane lipids, can accumulate in soil and are not directly accessible by methanogens (Chen et al., 2018). Plants contribute both above and

48 belowground organic matter (OM). Belowground plant materials are preferentially
49 converted to soil organic carbon (SOC) (Mazzilli et al., 2015). In saturated soils root
50 residues of wetland plants contain suberin and cutin (Watanabe et al., 2013), which
51 persist, reducing biogenic gas production (Mikutta et al., 2006). Before contributing to
52 SOC, standing litter in natural wetlands is partially decomposed by fungi (Kuehn et al.,
53 2011), and further decomposed by aerobic bacteria (Yarwood, 2018). Allochthonous
54 organic amendments are derived from above-ground material, but they have not been
55 subjected to wetland biogeochemical processes. Studies suggest these materials are less
56 amenable to soil C stabilization compared to natural plant inputs and may increase CH₄
57 production (Scott et al., 2020). In addition to increasing CH₄ production directly, organic
58 amendments may cause SOC priming that produces additional CH₄ (Nottingham et al.,
59 2009), and can lead to an increase in iron (Fe) reduction and toxicity (Saaltink et al.,
60 2017).

61 Iron oxides play multiple roles in anoxic soils, being both an electron acceptor for
62 organic C metabolism (Straub et al., 2001), and a stabilizing agent for SOC on mineral
63 surfaces (Lehmann and Kleber, 2015). As a metabolite, Fe reduction competes with CH₄
64 production (Huang et al., 2009) and can facilitate sulfur recycling (which also competes
65 with CH₄ production) in freshwater sediments (Hansel et al., 2015). However, recent
66 literature suggests the relationship of Fe reduction and methanogenesis is more complex.
67 Some methanogens appear capable of switching between methanogenesis and Fe
68 reduction (Sivan et al., 2016). In cultures with *Methanosarcina acetivorans*, adding Fe
69 oxides increased methane production (Ferry, 2020), presumably by the utilization of a

70 metabolic pathway where electron flow is bifurcated with some electrons going toward
71 Fe reduction to increase energy yield (Zhuang et al., 2015; Prakash et al., 2019). In
72 systems that are near pH neutral, Fe reduction does not necessarily have an energetic
73 competitive advantage over CH₄ production (Bethke et al., 2011). In addition to
74 influencing metabolic pathways, metal-oxide surfaces can stabilize organic matter,
75 making it less bioavailable, which can affect both Fe reduction (Poggenburg et al., 2018),
76 C mineralization (Amendola et al., 2018; Lalonde et al., 2012) and production of CH₄.

77 We carried out a lab experiment using organic amendments commonly used in
78 wetland restoration (biosolids (Bloom®) - B, manure - M, composted yard waste
79 (LeafGro®) - L, wood chips - W, and hay - H) and measured how they affected CH₄
80 production and Fe reduction. One-liter (1-L) glass jar microcosms were incubated with
81 two different soils collected from sites where freshwater wetlands were recently created.
82 The microcosms were kept under anaerobic conditions to compare the ability of these
83 substrates to support anaerobic metabolism. We hypothesized that organic amendments
84 would stimulate dissimilatory Fe-reduction in soils (measured as soluble ferrous iron,
85 Fe²⁺). Further, we hypothesized that amendments promoting Fe reduction would limit
86 methanogenesis. We also tested differences between cured (i.e., aged/composted) and
87 uncured (fresh) organic amendments and hypothesized that uncured amendments would
88 increase Fe reduction due to the presence of more labile, soluble, compounds. In the
89 United States organic amendments are often required in mitigation wetlands, that is,
90 wetlands created or restored to offset wetland losses; however, there has not been a

91 systematic evaluation of whether or not amendments promote hydric soil conditions (Fe
92 reduction), lead to Fe toxicity (from Fe reduction), or increase CH₄ production.

93 **2 Materials and methods**

94 **2.1 Microcosm setup**

95 Saturated incubations were established using soil from two recent mitigation
96 wetlands located in Maryland, USA. The first site (76°50'40.35"W, 38°47'5.41"N) was
97 most recently a horse pasture and will be referred to as SCL denoting the texture (sandy
98 clay loam). The second site (75°47'40.20"W, 39°1'52.42"N) was most recently a corn/soy
99 farm with tile drains and was likely a wetland prior to conversion to farmland. The
100 second site will be referred to as SL (sandy loam). Both sites had been recently graded to
101 establish wetland topography, so the upper portion of the soils, where soil samples were
102 collected, were mixed endo- and umbr-aquic horizons but with no ped structure. Soil was
103 collected from these recently constructed surface horizons to a depth of 15 cm, a typical
104 depth for mixing-in organic amendments, sieved (2mm) and homogenized prior to use.
105 Additional soil information is shown on Supplemental Table S1.

106 Microcosm experiments were conducted in 1-L glass straight-sided wide-mouth
107 food canning jars. Each microcosm had a total of 600cc of solid material and was filled
108 with water for a total volume of 660cc. The volumes needed to be precise in order to
109 facilitate headspace and liquid sampling and to allow space for soil expansion. When
110 amendments were added, an equal volume of soil needed to be removed so the total
111 volume of solid material was a constant 600cc. At the start of the experiment, the
112 headspace was purged with nitrogen gas. The incubation temperature was 20°C. Jar lids

113 had precision drilled holes fitted with grey butyl rubber stoppers, making it possible to
114 non-destructively remove the overlying liquid (for Fe and pH analyses) using a 7.5 cm
115 needle. Since the head-space pressure increased due to biogenic gas production,
116 atmospheric pressure was re-established during gas sampling events by piercing the septa
117 with a 24-gauge needle connected to a 50mL gas-tight syringe. This procedure allowed us
118 to record the total volume of gas produced and collect gas samples (0.01 - 1000 μ L)
119 under atmospheric pressure (Supplemental Figure S1). A small coating of silicone
120 applied to stoppers after piercing prevented leaks. All microcosm trials were run with
121 three replicates except where noted.

122 **2.2 Microcosm Experiments**

123 **2.2.1 Experiment 1**

124 We measured CH₄ and Fe²⁺ production with various organic amendments,
125 including composted yard waste (L), composted wood chips (W), class 1 biosolids - (B),
126 manure (M), and hay (H) at three treatment levels: 8.8% (v/v), 26%, and 53%, in two
127 soils, a SL and a SCL. We used horse M for the SCL incubations and cow M for the SL
128 incubations. This matched the wetland mitigation conditions at each field location. The
129 treatment levels reflect the Maryland Department of Environment (MDE)
130 recommendation for wetland restoration (60 cubic yards per acre assuming a 6" mixing
131 depth) = 1x, 3x, and 6x the MDE recommended level. All amendments were sieved to
132 5mm. Hay was chopped with a Wiley mill, blended, or cut with scissors until it could
133 easily pass a 5mm sieve.

134 2.2.2 Experiment 2

135 We measured CH_4 and Fe^{2+} production using cured (aged) and uncured (fresh)
136 organic materials. We used two amendments, B and M. The two cured materials were
137 from the same two sources as the fresh material but had been cured for a minimum of 3
138 months. We added the same amount of amendment to each microcosm based on OM
139 content. Each amendment was evaluated for OM by loss-on-ignition (LOI) (550°C for
140 2h). Based on the percent OM we adjusted the amount of amendment so the final loading
141 rate was 20g OM/ 600 cm^3 soil. The microcosm setup was the same as Experiment 1
142 except we used the same volume of soil (600 cm^3) in all microcosms. These microcosms
143 were incubated for 13 days and sampled periodically for Fe^{2+} and biogenic gases.

144 2.2.3 Experiment 3

145 We measured a) CH_4 and b) Fe^{2+} production as a function of pH. We used H
146 leachate as a substrate (McMahon et al., 2005). We leached 5.63 g H with 125 cm^3 cold
147 de-ionized water, shaking horizontally at 5°C for 24 hours. The leachate was filtered to
148 20 μm and immediately placed into jars with 600 cm^3 SL soil and incubated for 22 days.
149 The pH was adjusted to target levels of 5.6, 6.1, and 6.6 using a non-substrate buffer: 2-
150 (N-morpholino) ethanesulfonic acid (MES). To determine the necessary concentration of
151 MES, we titrated SL (pH 5.8) to our maximum desired pH (6.6). We determined that the
152 buffering capacity of the soils corresponded to ~ 2 mN in the 125 cm^3 of liquid (leachate
153 volume), so we prepared microcosms using 125 cm^3 of 20 mN MES buffer.

154 2.2.4 Experiment 4

155 We measured Fe^{2+} production using leached H as a substrate (as in Experiment 3)
156 but compared these finding to those with unleached H, and the H residuals.

157 2.3 Soil, Liquid, and Gas Analyses

158 Prior to the start of the experiments, we analyzed the SL and SCL for soil texture,
159 percent soil C, and extractable Fe (Supplemental Table S1). Soil texture was determined
160 by adding 50 g soil to a 1000 ml cylinder with 0.5% hexametaphosphate. Sand settled
161 after 1 minute and silt after 24 hours. Soil moisture content was determined as weight
162 loss of approximately 5 g of soil dried at 105°C for 48 hours. We determined percent soil
163 C using thermal combustion at 950°C on a LECO CHN-2000 analyzer (LECO Corp., St.
164 Joseph, MI). Iron extractions were performed sequentially with 1 M hydroxylamine
165 hydrochloride (HHCL) in 25% v/v acetic acid; 50 g / 1 sodium dithionite in solution 0.35
166 M ace-tic acid / 0.2 M sodium citrate buffered to pH 4.8; 0.2 M ammonium oxalate / 0.17
167 M oxalic acid (pH 3.2) (Poulton and Canfield, 2005). The HHCL extraction targets
168 bioavailable iron, primarily ferrihydrite and lepidocrocite. Dithionite also includes more
169 crystalline iron oxide forms, hematite and goethite. Oxalate includes the bioavailable iron
170 oxides and magnetite.

171 Throughout the experiments we measured Fe^{2+} , pH, and biogenic gases in the
172 headspace. In some cases, Fe^{2+} and pH were measured only at the end of the incubation.
173 Using a 3” needle, we extracted 0.3 - 1 cm³ (for Fe^{2+}) and 1 cm³ (for pH) of the
174 supernatant liquid to avoid disturbing soil in the jars. Samples of liquid supernatant were
175 removed during gas sampling, when atmospheric pressure was maintained, to avoid loss
176 of biogenic gases and atmospheric contamination. For the final sample point the jar
177 contents were thoroughly mixed prior to sampling to include pore water and gases.
178 Ferrous iron in supernatant liquid was measured with a HACH DR4000

179 spectrophotometer. The spectrophotometer was also used to measure Fe in the Fe-oxide
180 extractions. Prior to analysis, extracted Fe-oxides were reduced by adding thioglycolic
181 acid. To confirm the spectrophotometer accuracy, a subset of samples was also analyzed
182 on a PerkinElmer PinAAcle 900T atomic absorption spectrometer. An Orion 9142BN
183 electrode was used to determine pH.

184 Gas samples were collected in 12 cm³ N-purged exetainer vials and analyzed by
185 injecting 5 cm³ into a Varian Model 450-GC gas chromatograph. Since sample volume
186 was typically 1 cm³ or less, 5 cm³ nitrogen gas was added to the vials immediately prior
187 to analysis for CO₂ and CH₄, and measured concentrations were corrected for dilution
188 and prior headspace gas concentrations. We also performed fluorescent spectral scans on
189 dissolved organic matter that was extracted from organic materials with 1:10 solid
190 (weight) / deionized water (volume) for 24 hours and filtered to 0.45 µm (Fischer et al.
191 2020). After diluting samples, emission spectra were recorded using an Aqualog
192 fluorometer (Horiba Scientific; Edison, NJ).

193 **2.4 Data analysis**

194 Unless otherwise noted, statistical determinations were done using ANOVA in R
195 or SAS. The Fe²⁺ concentrations were evaluated using contrasts for each of the
196 amendments compared to the control using the R multcomp package. The gas curves
197 were modelled as piecewise, bimodal linear functions using the R “Segmented” package
198 (Muggeo, 2008). Breakpoints were determined using the total gas curves but, in some
199 cases, Segmented could not identify a breakpoint in the total gas curve, so CH₄ curves
200 were used as noted in Supplemental Figures S2 & S3. Gas curves from H amendments

201 did not fit a piecewise model and were modelled as sigmoidal functions using the
202 SSgompertz function in R. However, SSgompertz is sensitive to data scatter, particularly
203 at the beginning and end of the curve, so the gas curves for H6x in the SL were fitted
204 with a power function in Excel.

205 **3 Results**

206 We present results from four separate experiments, summarized in Table 1. In
207 Experiment 1, we evaluated Fe and CH₄ production by varying OM type and dose, and
208 soil type (SL vs SCL). In Experiment 2 we controlled other factors and compared
209 composted versus fresh OM. In Experiment 3 we characterized the effects of pH. In
210 Experiment 4 we compared iron reduction from the soluble and particulate fraction of
211 fresh hay, and the results were used to emphasize the pH effect.

213 **3.1 Experiment 1a: Effect of organic amendments and soil type on CH₄ gas production**

214 Gas production occurred in two distinct steady-state gas production periods,
215 which we identified as Phase 1, and then after a breakpoint, Phase 2 (~~Figure 1~~Figure 1)
216 with individual gas curves are shown in Supplemental Figures S2 (SCL) and S3 (SL).
217 Some CH₄ was produced almost immediately upon inundation (~~Table 1a~~Table 21a), but
218 after the breakpoint (40 days in both the SL and SCL soils), there is a large increase in
219 CH₄ as well as an average $4.7x \pm 1.9$ increase in total gas production (~~Table 1b~~Table
220 21b). One of our amendments, H, did not fit the linear bimodal pattern, so we reported
221 rates separately on ~~Table 1c~~Table 21c.

Gas production varied by soil texture. In general, the SL soil produced 2.6 times as much total gas (Figure 2a) and 2.4 times as much CH₄ as the SCL (Figure 2b). In the SCL soil, CH₄ production in Phase 1 was 0.003 cm³ CH₄⁻¹ Kg soil⁻¹ day and with amendments increased to as much as 0.8 cm³ CH₄⁻¹ Kg soil⁻¹ day (Table 2a). In Phase 2 1.9 cm³ CH₄⁻¹ Kg soil⁻¹ day was produced in control soils and with amendments increased to as much as 28 cm³ CH₄⁻¹ Kg soil⁻¹ day (Table 2b). In the SL soil, amendments increased the rate from 0.04 to 16 cm³ CH₄⁻¹ Kg soil⁻¹ day Phase 1 and from 1.8 to 64 cm³ CH₄⁻¹ Kg soil⁻¹ day in Phase 2.

Gas production rates generally increased with amendment loading rate (Table 2a & b), as expected. With the exception of L in the SL, all amendments reduced the time required to transition from Phase 1 to Phase 2 (i.e. the breakpoint). Biosolids caused the largest shift, decreasing the breakpoint to as little as 5 days. While amendments generally increased CH₄ production there were exceptions. Low loading rates of cured amendments (L and W) had lower CH₄ production rates than unamended soil: L1 in Phase 1 in both soils; L3 in the SL; L3 in the SCL (Phase 2 only); and W1 in the SCL (Phase 2). Biosolids (B1) also lowered CH₄ production rates in the SL soil (Phase 1) (Table 2a). We examined the normalized CH₄ production rates (per g C in soil), but in most cases results were not statistically different at p < 0.05 (Supplemental Figure S4). The general trends indicate uncured amendments (e.g. B and M) produce more methane per unit carbon than cured amendments (L).

Using fresh H, biogenic gas production followed a sinusoidal pattern and we reported maximum CH₄ production rate at the inflection point (Table 2c). Hay was

244 prone to floating at higher loading rates and was present in the water column above the
245 surface (not in contact with soil). In the instances where this occurred (H3 and H6 in the
246 SCL), there was a decrease in overall gas production rate and very low CH₄ – much
247 lower than unamended soils (Table 2+c and Supplemental Figure S2z). Floating also
248 occurred in one replicated for H6 in SL – the pattern is shown on Supplemental Figures
249 S2&3z, but not used in the average reported value (Table 2+c).

250 3.2 Experiment 1b: Effect of organic amendments and soil type on Fe²⁺

251 The type and loading rate of organic amendments affected total soluble Fe²⁺
252 production, compared to the unamended control, in a limited number of cases (Figure
253 3, Supplemental Table S2). In the SL soil, L caused a decrease ($p < 0.05$) in
254 supernatant Fe²⁺ concentrations whereas H increased supernatant Fe²⁺ in both soils ($p <$
255 0.05). In a separate set of experiments, we documented the relationship between
256 supernatant Fe and pore water Fe (Supplemental Figure S5). Soil type affected the
257 amount of soluble Fe²⁺ produced ($p < 0.05$). We did not see a difference in Fe²⁺ in the
258 unamended microcosms even though the SCL had 2.2x the amount of hydrochloramine
259 hydrochloride extractable Fe (FeHHCl) compared to the SL and had 7.6x more dithionite
260 extractable Fe (Supplemental Table S1). Of the FeHHCl in soil, 19% or less in the SCL
261 and 61% or less in the SL was reduced to Fe²⁺. Hay was an exception, where up to 155 %
262 of the FeHHCl in the SCL and 236 % in the SL was reduced to Fe²⁺ (Supplemental Table
263 S2). During the SL soil incubations, aqueous Fe²⁺ was measured simultaneous to CH₄
264 production. In the H and M treatments, there was a marked increase in CH₄ production
265 when Fe²⁺ became asymptotic. However, with the other amendments, Fe²⁺ production

266 continued or even increased during periods of high CH₄ production. ~~Figure 4~~Figure 4
267 shows two examples that highlight this pattern and the complete set of curves is in
268 Supplemental Figure S6.

269 3.3 Experiment 2a: Effect of cured versus fresh organic amendments on CH₄ gas production

270 In Experiment 1a, it appeared that curing may have had an effect on CH₄
271 production. Fresh H produced the most CH₄. The H1 trials had maximum production
272 rates of 18.2 and 27.8 -cm³ CH₄⁻¹ Kg soil⁻¹ day in the SCL and SL soils, respectively
273 (Table ~~2~~4c). The H3 and H6 loading rates would likely have been higher had some
274 portion of the H not floated. The M6 trials produced the most CH₄ at 27.7 and 64.0 -cm³
275 CH₄⁻¹ Kg soil⁻¹ day in the SCL and SL soils, respectively. Of the amendments used, M
276 was cured the least (after fresh H, which was uncured). LeafGro, a commercial
277 composted yard waste, was cured the most and produced very little CH₄, in some cases
278 less than the controls. Since we could not specify precisely how long the organic material
279 had been cured, we conducted a separate experiment with organic materials of known
280 curing periods (at least 90 days), using B and M. Rather than use the same volumetric
281 quantities, we used the same loading rate based on OM content. The results confirmed
282 that curing has a strong influence on CH₄ production. Methane production was higher
283 using fresh material in both cases and cured material sometimes decreased CH₄
284 production (~~Table 2~~Table 3).

285 3.4 Experiment 2b: Effect of cured versus fresh organic amendments on Fe²⁺ production

286 In Experiment 1b, we observed that curing also had an effect on the amount of
287 Fe²⁺ produced. Hay was the only amendment that produced significantly more Fe²⁺ and L

288 produced a significant reduction in Fe^{2+} (Figure 3). In Experiment 2 we used biosolids
289 (B) and manure (M) that had been cured at least 3 months. Whether the material had been
290 cured had a strong influence on Fe^{2+} production and Fe^{2+} was higher using fresh material
291 in both cases (~~Figure 5~~Figure 5).

292 3.4.1 Spectral Analysis: Effect of organic amendments and soil type on CH_4 gas production

293 We observed differences in CH_4 and Fe reduction rates when using organic
294 material that had been cured versus uncured. The fluorescent spectral signatures of the
295 cured materials (B and M) were similar as were the signatures of fresh material
296 (Supplemental Figure S7), so curing differentiated the materials more than the source.
297 The difference in signatures was indicative of higher concentrations of organic (humic)
298 acids and lower nominal oxidation state in the cured materials. We considered other
299 organic matter characterization methods such as the material's carbon to nitrogen ratio,
300 but we did not find another reliable predictor of CH_4 and Fe^{2+} production other than
301 curing.

302 3.5 Experiment 3: Effect of pH on a) CH_4 and b) Fe^{2+} production

303 The soil pH affected both CH_4 and Fe^{2+} production. In Experiment 1, we observed
304 that Fe^{2+} varied with pH in the SL soil ($p < 0.001$; Supplemental Figure S8a), but there
305 was little variation in the SCL ($p = 0.45$; Supplemental Figure S8b). In order to isolate the
306 effect of pH, we performed experiment 3 using a single substrate (H leachate) in the SL
307 soil. Higher pH increased the CH_4 production rate in both Phase 1 and 2 (~~Table 3~~Table 4)
308 and reduced the production of Fe^{2+} (~~Figure 6~~Figure 6).

309 3.6 Experiment 4: Leached versus unleached H and pH considerations

310 In Experiment 4 we measured Fe^{2+} produced from H, H leachate, and H residuals
311 (~~Figure 7~~[Figure 7](#)). We expected the soluble fraction to be more labile and produce more
312 Fe^{2+} ; however, the H residuals (solid fraction) appeared to produce more Fe^{2+} than the
313 leachate. As noted on the figure, separate leached fractions changed the system pH. Using
314 the results from Experiment 2, we predict that at comparable pH there would have been
315 no difference in Fe^{2+} production between H, H residuals, and leachate (Supplemental
316 Figure S9). Given the potentially strong influence of pH, we re-evaluated the results from
317 Experiment 2b, correcting for pH and confirmed that the organic material age accounts
318 for differences in Fe^{2+} production (Supplemental Figure S10). Similarly, we considered
319 whether pH may have affected the out-come of Experiment 1. A MANOVA analysis of
320 the Experiment 1 data (Supplemental Table S3) indicated that pH and soil type had a
321 small effect ($p=0.30$ and 0.81 , respectively) compared to organic matter type and loading
322 rate ($p<0.0001$).

323 4 Discussion

324 Net CH_4 emissions are a primary factor that determines whether a wetland is a C
325 sink or contributes to long term global warming (Neubauer and Verhoeven, 2019). Soil
326 management practices, such as wetland restoration methods, can have a large impact on
327 CH_4 production and total greenhouse gas emissions (Paustian et al., 2016). Our data
328 indicate that organic amendments used in created or restored wetlands may have a large
329 influence on CH_4 production. Organic amendments that had been cured (L and W) only
330 slightly increased CH_4 emissions, but fresh material (M and H) resulted in large increases

331 (Tables 1a&b). This is consistent with field studies where comparable cured amendments
332 (composted wood and yard waste), did not result in increased CH₄ emissions (Winton and
333 Richardson, 2015), but straw (Ballantine et al., 2015) and peat bales (Green, 2014)
334 increased CH₄ emissions. Organic material is commonly cured, or composted, to remove
335 plant pathogens (Noble and Roberts, 2004) and to reduce the amount of cellulosic
336 material (Hubbe et al., 2010), which competes for oxygen, contributing to phytotoxicity
337 (Saidpullicino et al., 2007; Hu et al., 2011). Curing produces humic acids and increases
338 the nominal oxidation state (NOSC) of C (Guo et al., 2019). When cured material is then
339 subjected to anaerobic conditions, less CH₄ is produced (Yao and Conrad, 1999), which
340 would make composted material more suitable in a wetland restoration context.

341 Following soil inundation, we observed two distinct gas production phases (Phase
342 1 and 2). This pattern is difficult to distinguish in unamended soils but has been reported
343 previously (Yao and Conrad, 1999; Drake et al., 2009). Our breakpoint (5 – 45 days
344 Table 2**4**b) was similar to Yao and Conrad (1999) (5 – 36 days). The Phase 2 rates in
345 unamended soils were also similar: 0.96 – 3.98 cm³ CH₄⁻¹ Kg soil⁻¹ day in Yao and
346 Conrad (1999) and 1.82 – 1.94 cm³ CH₄⁻¹ Kg soil⁻¹ day in our study (Table 2**4**b).

347 There are several explanations that could account for the observed gas production
348 pattern. One is the lag period required to re-establish populations of methanogenic
349 archaea, which are likely dormant under oxic conditions and regrowth can be on the order
350 of days (Jabłoński et al., 2015). In our study, B had the earliest shift to Phase 2 CH₄
351 production (Table 2**4**b), possibly due to elevated levels of dormant methanogens present
352 from anaerobic digestion. The two-phase gas production could also be due to depletion

353 of bioavailable Fe-oxides, thus relieving the competition between Fe reducers and
 354 methanogens (Megonigal et al., 2004). Our data were mixed, with some treatments
 355 showing evidence of competition by Fe reducers, but in other cases we did not see
 356 competition. In treatment M1, for example, ferrous Fe in the supernatant plateaued at
 357 about the same time as the breakpoint (Figure 4b), after which CH₄ production increased.
 358 In contrast, in W3 soluble Fe continued to be produced well after the breakpoint, and the
 359 amount of bioavailable Fe used during the course of the incubation was less than $28 \pm 4\%$
 360 (Figure 4b, Supplemental Table S2). In addition to quantifying Fe oxide concentrations,
 361 the CO₂:CH₄ ratios can be indicative of interactions between methanogens and other
 362 reducers (Bridgham et al. 2013). If Fe reduction or other reduction stops during Phase 2,
 363 we would expect the CO₂:CH₄ ratio to be near 1:1 (Bridgham et al. 2013). However, we
 364 observed notable exceptions. The SCL L1 treatment had a ratio of 73:1 in Phase 2 (Table
 365 [24b](#)), yet still had the characteristic shift to higher overall gas production (4.67x). Other
 366 treatments also had higher CO₂:CH₄ ratios: L3, L6, W1, B1, C, and W1-3 in the SL soil
 367 (Table [24b](#)). Our mixed observations may have been due to microsite formation. In high
 368 producing microcosms, microsite development may have been disrupted by gas
 369 ebullition, which was substantial enough in H amended trials to cause effervescence.
 370 Amendments with low gas production and limited gas ebullition (e.g. L, W and C)
 371 continued to produce Fe²⁺ after the breakpoint, possibly because methanogens were
 372 active in undisturbed microsites, as described in Yang et al. (2017).

373 The increased gas production from organic amendments was more pronounced in
 374 SL compared to SCL, where there was 2.4x higher CH₄ and 2.6x higher gas production

375 (Figures 2a & b). We observed a more pronounced effect than a recent rice field study
376 where there was more CH₄ from SL soils versus SCL, although in that study results were
377 not statistically significant (Kim et al., 2018). Yagi and Minami (1990) observed that
378 compost (approximate loading rate the same as our 1x treatment) increased respiration
379 rates by 1.8x in a SCL versus a loam soil. Maietta, Hondula, et al. (2020) observed that
380 respiration rates were higher in a sandy loam soil compared to a silty clay, with and
381 without 3.3% & 23% wetland hay amendments. Thus, we might conclude that in general
382 coarser grained (sandy) soil textures emit more CH₄; however, there are a number of
383 investigations where this was not the case (Yagi and Minami, 1990; Glissmann and
384 Conrad, 2002). Other factors may have contributed. In our experiment the SCL had 7.6x
385 dithionite extractable Fe, and 4.6x as much %C (Supplemental Table S1), so additional
386 studies would be needed to isolate texture as the controlling factor.

387 We considered the gas production from H microcosms separately because they
388 followed a different pattern than the other amendments, but the pattern was similar to
389 other studies using hay (Glissmann and Conrad, 2002) and wetland hay (Maietta et al.,
390 2020b). Our study adds to these findings by observing that H produced very low CH₄ in
391 the water column (after floating) compared to being mixed with soil (Table 2c). This
392 may merit further study because if this is generally true, applying fresh organic matter as
393 a mulch, rather than mixed into the soil, could greatly reduce the adverse consequence of
394 increased CH₄ emissions.

395 Reduction of Fe-oxides occurs in saturated soils in the presence of an organic
396 substrate and is a key biogeochemical process in wetland soils. With sufficient time,

397 hydric soils may develop redoximorphic features from Fe reduction; however, studies
398 have not shown lasting redoximorphic development due to organic amendments (Gray,
399 2010; Ott et al., 2020). Organizations responsible for constructing mitigation wetlands
400 have an interest in documenting Fe reduction prior to redoximorphic feature development
401 as evidence soils that are hydric. Some mitigation wetland practitioners experience
402 challenges meeting hydric soil testing standards. Although reports in the scientific
403 literature are rare, there are examples of sites meeting vegetation and hydrology wetland
404 indicators, but not hydric soils (Berkowitz et al., 2014). Both the soils we tested produced
405 sufficient Fe^{2+} and would have passed hydric soils tests, so a soil amendment would not
406 be needed.

407 We observed that fresh organic matter resulted in increased Fe^{2+} compared to
408 cured organic matter (Figure 3), likely due to the presence of labile carbon, allowing
409 access to more crystalline Fe-oxides (Lentini et al., 2012). In some soils, Fe-reducing
410 bacteria using fresh organic matter amendments could access crystalline Fe making it
411 more bioavailable. However, without an anoxic/oxic cycle, increased Fe^{2+} production
412 could lead to Fe^{2+} toxicity and ferrollysis (Kirk, 2004), similar to the way fresh organic
413 matter leads to SOC priming (Blagodatsky et al., 2010). Ferrollysis occurs when
414 bioavailable Fe-oxides are reduced to Fe^{2+} and are subject to hydraulic transport. We
415 observed that cured amendments, like L, lowered Fe^{2+} concentrations (Figure 3), possibly
416 due to the presence of humic acids that are generated during curing (Guo et al., 2019).
417 Humic acids often contain insufficient biogeochemical energy to drive dissimilatory Fe

418 reduction (Keiluweit et al., 2017), chelate Fe^{2+} , removing it from the liquid phase
 419 (Catrouillet et al., 2014), and create insoluble precipitates (Shimizu et al., 2013).

420 Regulating Fe^{2+} production, through the selection of the appropriate OM
 421 amendment, could influence the growth of wetland plants. For example, rice growth may
 422 be stimulated under low Fe^{2+} doses of 1 mg/L (Müller et al., 2015), but higher doses can
 423 produce detrimental Fe plaque (Pereira et al., 2014). Some native wetland species are
 424 adapted to high Fe^{2+} concentrations. *Juncus effusus* growth is stimulated at 25 mg/L Fe^{2+}
 425 (Deng et al., 2009). North American native reed *Phragmites australis* ssp. *americanus*
 426 was stimulated at 11 mg/L Fe^{2+} from ferrous sulfate (Willson et al., 2017), but the
 427 invasive Eurasian lineage of *Phragmites australis* seedling growth was inhibited by Fe^{2+}
 428 as low as 1 mg/L (Batty, 2003). Soils high in free Fe^{2+} adversely affected *P. australis*
 429 growth by creating an Fe-oxide plaque on roots (Saaltink et al., 2017).

430 Our results show that pH has a significant effect on both the production of Fe^{2+}
 431 (Figure 3) and CH_4 (Table 3). Between pH 5.6 and 6.6, the lower pH produced more Fe^{2+}
 432 and less CH_4 , consistent with thermodynamic predictions (Ye et al., 2012).

433 Hydrogenotrophic methanogens can maximize CH_4 production at pH 5 (Bräuer et al.,
 434 2004). In rice paddy soils, CH_4 emissions had a clear peak at pH 7, but almost none
 435 below pH 5.5 (Wang et al., 1993). The strong effect of pH underscores the need to take
 436 this parameter into account when interpreting data from experiments evaluating Fe-
 437 reduction and methanogenesis. Attempting to control the pH of soils could potentially
 438 introduce confounding effects. We used an MES buffer with 10x the quantity we
 439 estimated from a soil titration and still saw shifts in the pH after incubation. With a high

440 residual soil acidity, the amount of buffer needed to control soil pH may increase the
441 ionic strength to a level that could influence cellular sorption to mineral and Fe-oxide
442 surfaces (Mills et al., 1994) as well as enzyme activity (Leprince and Quiquampoix,
443 1996).

444 **5 Implications**

445 In our experiment, we observed that organic amendments can increase CH₄
446 production, particularly after extended anaerobic periods. We quantified CH₄ production
447 potential from several organic amendments, and in a separate field experiment
448 (unpublished) show that these results are useful in predicting field CH₄ production. There
449 is mounting concern that CH₄ from restored and created wetlands may result in net global
450 warming for decades to centuries (Neubauer, 2014). Our results suggest that not only do
451 organic amendments increase CH₄ gas production overall, but uncured amendments can
452 also decrease the time it takes before there is a large increase in both total gas production
453 and CH₄. Methane production is not constant and dramatically increases after several
454 weeks. Because of this, it may be beneficial to report wetland CH₄ data along with
455 inundation duration, which can strongly affect CH₄ (Hondula et al., 2021). It may be
456 possible to limit CH₄ in many wetland settings, particularly mitigation wetlands where
457 hydrology is part of the design: shorter flooding or inundation durations with alternating
458 drier conditions. This strategy has been proposed for rice paddy fields (Souza, 2021). Our
459 lab study demonstrates the potential for significant CH₄ emissions, but in a real system,
460 methanotrophic activity could attenuate some of the emissions (Chowdhury and Dick,
461 2013); however, this would not decrease the overall C loss from soils, it only changes the

462 pathway. If organic amendments are to be used, cured amendments may be preferable
463 because they are not as prone to high CH₄ generation and may attenuate Fe²⁺ toxicity.
464 Amendments that lower the soil pH increase Fe reduction and limit methanogenesis
465 (Marquart et al., 2019). When deciding whether or not to use organic amendments for
466 wetland mitigation consideration should be given to whether or not the material has been
467 cured, the pH, the soil texture, and expected hydroperiod.

Figures

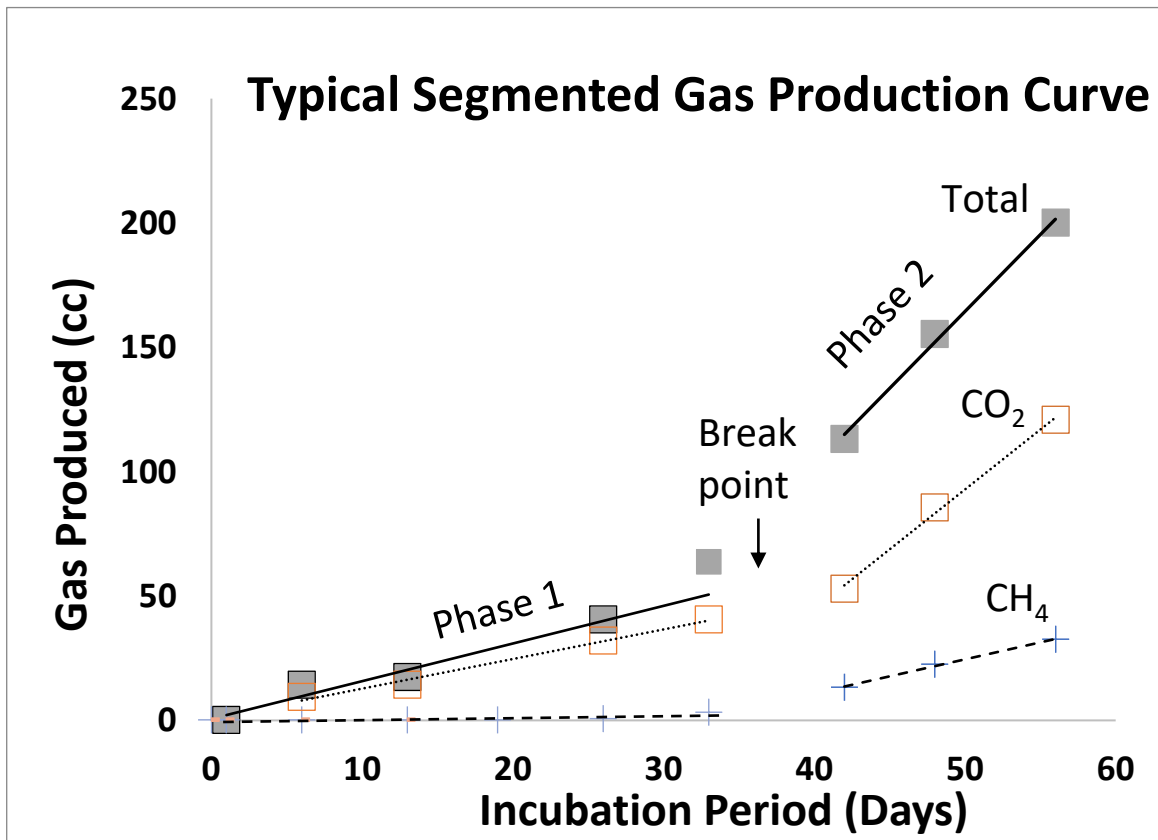


Fig. 1 – Typical gas production in saturated soils amended with organic matter (All Experiments).

Gases were best modeled using a segmented linear function. After a breakpoint the average total gas production increased by a factor of ~5 whereas there is a sharp (>> 5x) increase in methane production. Data presented is from the manure (1x) amended trials in sandy clay loam soil. Note that hay amended trials exhibited a typical sinusoidal pattern shown in Supplemental Figures S2&3h,i,j).

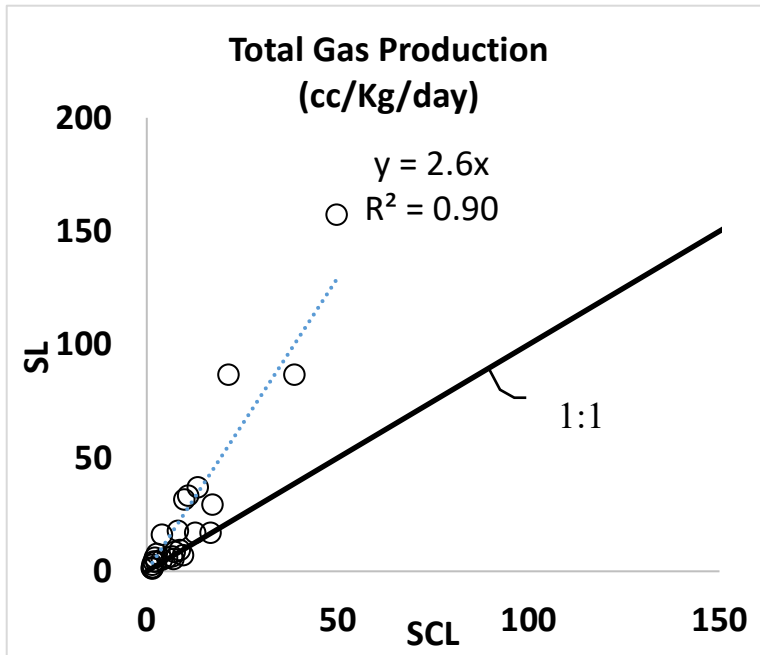


Fig. 2a. Experiment 1. Total biogenic gas production rate in the SL soil versus the SCL mesocosms. The SL mesocosms had, on average, 2.6 times higher gas production than the SCL.

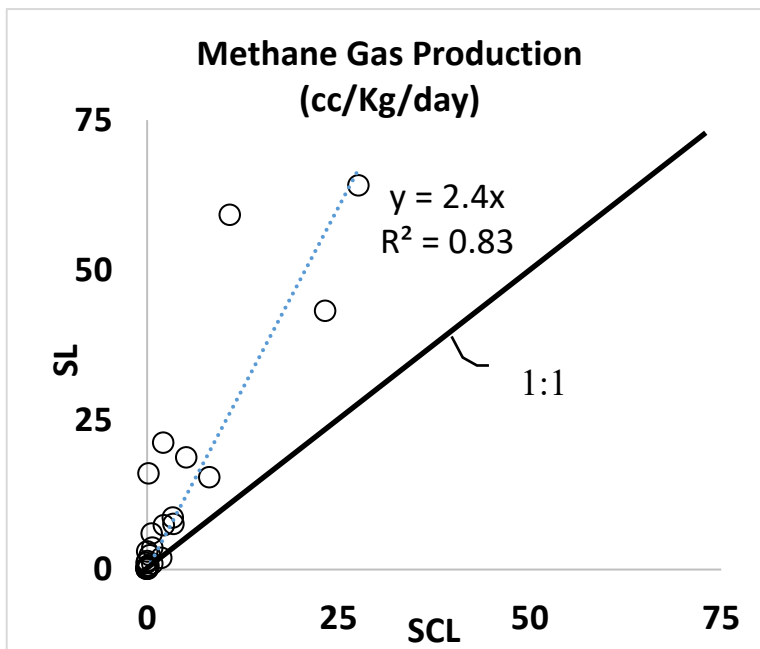
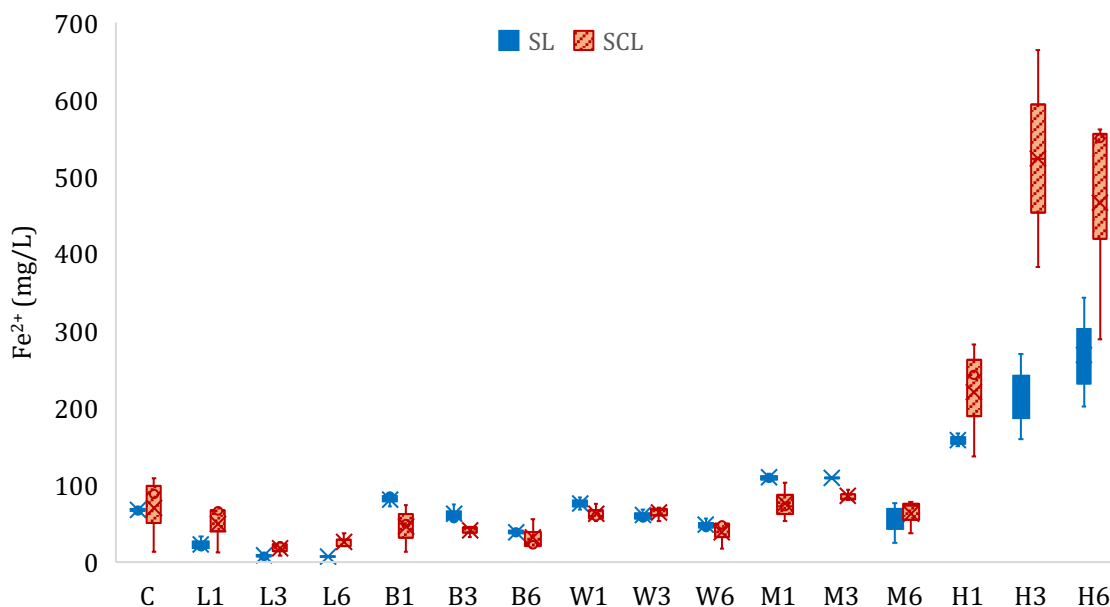


Fig. 2b. Experiment 1. Biogenic methane gas production rate in the SL soil versus the SCL mesocosms. The SL mesocosms had, on average, 2.4 times higher methane gas production than the SCL.

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493 **Fig. 3** – (Experiment 1b) Ferrous iron (Fe²⁺) concentration in the liquid phase at the
 494 end of the incubation period.
 495 Microcosms receiving different organic amendment types and levels in Sandy Clay Loam
 496 (SCL) and Sandy Loam (SL) soils. C = no amendment control, L = LeafGro (yard waste),
 497 B = biosolids, W = wood chips, M = manure, H = hay. Numbers signify treatment level
 498 (1, 3, or 6 times amount of organic matter equivalent to 60 yd³ / acre to a depth of 6
 499 inches). Different lower-case letters signify differences (p < 0.05) based on contrasts
 500 compared to C and brackets signify all results in the bracketed group were not
 501 statistically different. H increased total Fe²⁺ production compared to the C in both soils,
 502 and L decreased total Fe²⁺ production compared to C (SL only).
 503

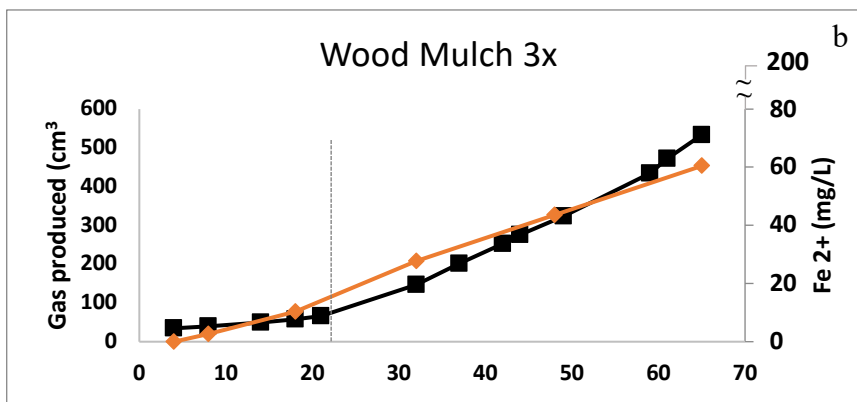
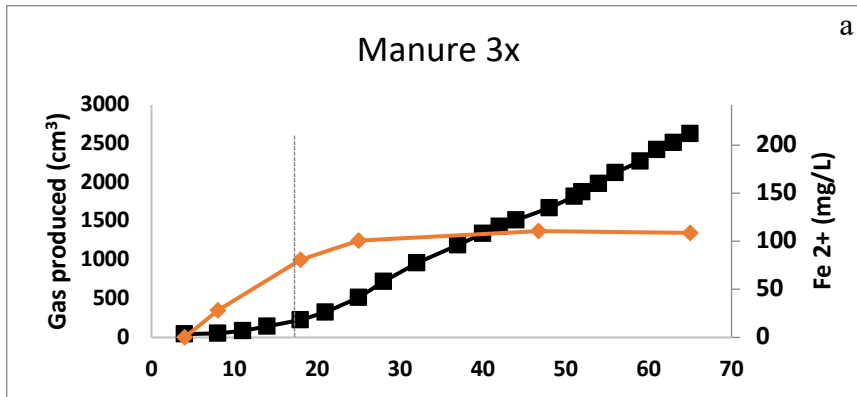
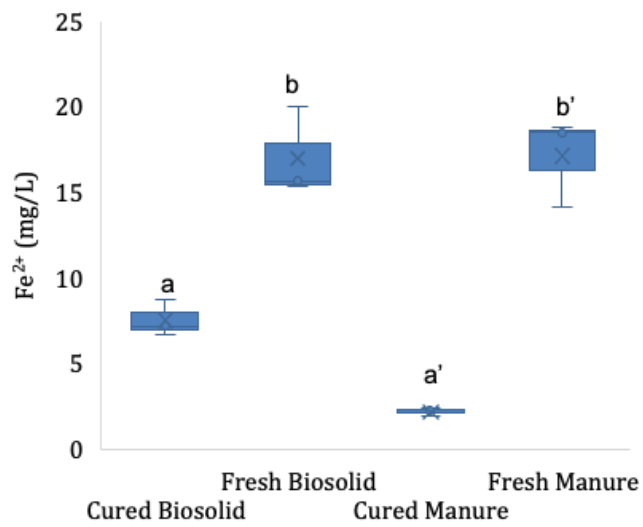


Fig. 4 – (Experiment 1b) Ferrous iron (Fe^{2+}) and methane (CH_4) in selected microcosms.

Depletion of Fe coincided with the breakpoint (dashed line) with manure, but not with wood mulch. Other examples of this pattern are shown in Supplemental Figure S6. The maximum value on the secondary x-axis is the maximum expected Fe^{2+} concentration based on the HHCL extraction.



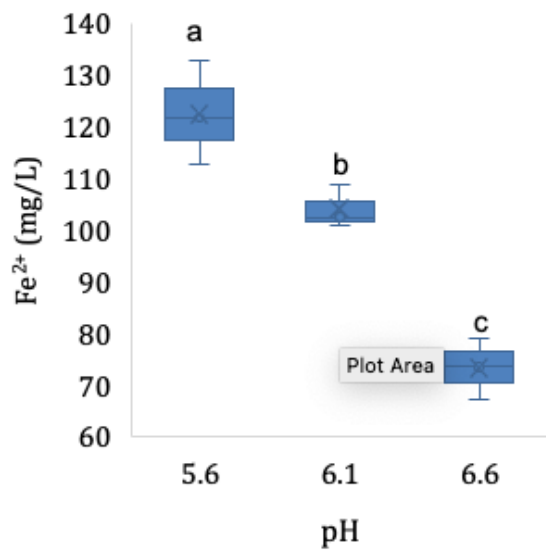
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519 **Fig. 5** – (Experiment 2b) Ferrous iron (Fe^{2+}) concentration in the liquid phase at the
 520 end of the incubation period (13 days).

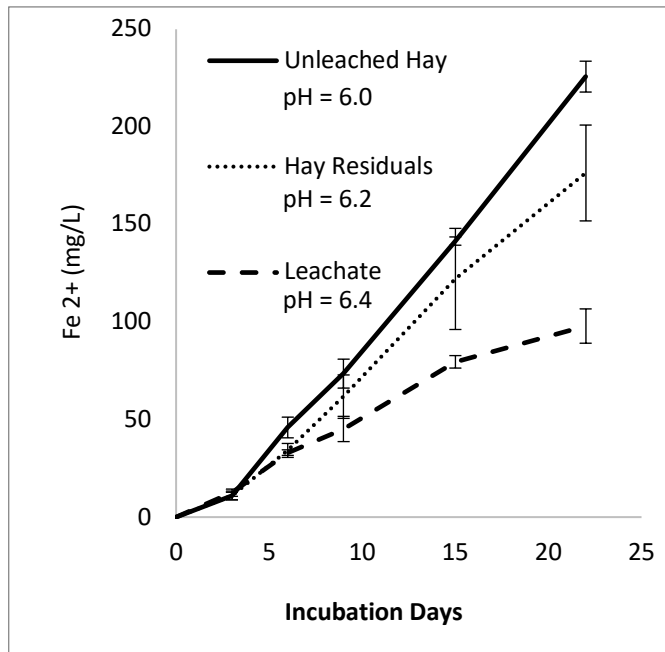
521 Incubation was carried out in sandy loam soil. Different letters indicate a difference at
 522 $p < 0.001$.

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 526 **Fig. 6** – (Experiment 3) Ferrous iron (Fe²⁺) concentration in the liquid phase with
 527 varied pH in microcosms receiving hay in Sandy Loam soils.
 528 Different letters indicate a difference at p<0.05.
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535 **Fig. 7** – (Experiment 4) Ferrous iron (Fe^{2+}) concentration in the liquid phase with
536 hay as substrate.

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Tables

Table 1 – Summary of Results

<u>Treatment</u>	<u>Effect</u>		
	<u>Iron Reduction</u>	<u>Methane</u>	<u>Breakpoint</u>
<u>Organic Matter</u>	↔	↑	↓
<u>Increased Dose</u>	↘	↑	↓
<u>Composting/Curing</u>	↓	↓	↑
<u>Decreased pH</u>	↑	↓	<u>N/A</u>
<u>SL vs SCL</u>	↓	↑	<u>N/A</u>
<u>Soluble vs. particulate OM</u>	↔	<u>N/A</u>	<u>N/A</u>

Breakpoint = time to increased methane production

SL = Sandy Loam, SCL = Sandy Clay Loam

↔ No change, ↑ increase, ↓ decrease, ↘ slight decreasing trend

Table 1a-Table 2a – (Experiment 1a_[AB1] – Phase 1). Carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄) and total gas production. Organic amendment types: B (biosolids), M (manure), L (composted yard waste), W (composted wood chips) and levels (1 = 60 yd³ / acre equivalent: 3 = 180; 6 = 360) in silty clay loam (SCL) and sandy loam (SL) soils. Instances where organic amendments did not increase CH₄ production are bolded. Note: CO₂ : CH₄ ratios are based on calculated gas production rates, not total gas produced_[SAY2].

Soil	Treatment	Soil (g)	CO ₂		CH ₄		Total Gas		CO ₂ :CH ₄
			cm ³ /day	cm ³ /Kg/day	cm ³ /day	cm ³ /Kg/day	cm ³ /day	cm ³ /Kg/day	
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

Table 1b **Table 2b** – (Experiment 1a_[AB3] – Phase 2). Carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄) and total gas production, 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 yd³ / acre equivalent; 3 = 180; 6 = 360) in silty clay loam (SCL) and sandy loam (SL) soils. Instances where organic amendments did not increase CH₄ production are bolded. Note: r² values represent the combined best fit curve, using triplicate samples, for Phase 1 (Table 1a) and Phase 2.

Soil	Treatment	CO ₂		CH ₄		Total Gas		CO ₂ :CH ₄	Break Point	r ²	Ph 2: Ph1
		cm ³ /day	cm ³ /Kg/day	cm ³ /day	cm ³ /Kg/day	cm ³ /day	cm ³ /Kg/day				
SCL	Control	2.06	3.31	1.20	1.94	2.54	4.09	1.7	40.0 ± 4.5	0.959	2.57
SCL	B1	5.58	13.13	1.47	3.45	5.49	12.91	3.8	29.3 ± 1.9	0.987	1.33
SCL	B3	3.74	6.86	4.45	8.17	9.48	17.40	0.8	20.1 ± 3.4	0.974	2.46
SCL	B6	7.42	15.85	10.90	23.29	18.20	38.89	0.7	10.3 ± 2.4	0.994	5.15
SCL	M1	2.26	3.88	1.29	2.22	5.82	9.97	1.7	40.2 ± 2.1	0.997	4.39
SCL	M3	4.64	9.37	5.39	10.89	10.69	21.58	0.9	20.8 ± 0.8	0.997	5.23
SCL	M6	5.85	14.83	10.91	27.67	19.69	49.93	0.5	22.1 ± 3.2	0.956	4.53
SCL	L1	3.85	6.57	0.05	0.090	3.96	6.76	73.0	32.2 ± 1.6	0.966	4.67
SCL	L3	4.21	8.16	0.39	0.75	4.54	8.79	10.9	32.0 ± 2.2	0.983	4.97
SCL	L6	5.90	14.39	0.92	2.24	6.95	16.95	6.4	32.0 ± 3.7	0.923	8.68
SCL	W1	1.56	2.63	0.27	0.460	3.22	5.42	5.7	34.0 ± 3.7	0.986	3.48
SCL	W3	1.93	3.58	1.90	3.52	4.51	8.35	1.0	24.2 ± 3.1	0.989	3.23
SCL	W6	2.19	4.79	2.36	5.15	6.22	13.60	0.9	13.0 ± 2.4	0.981	4.84
SL	Control	1.00	1.58	1.16	1.82	3.11	4.91	0.9	40.0 ± 3.2	0.957	5.55
SL	B1	4.44	7.31	5.16	8.50	10.19	16.79	0.9	8.6 ± 3.0	0.880	2.47
SL	B3	8.76	15.89	8.42	15.28	16.12	29.23	1.0	4.7 ± 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 ± 0.7	0.998	5.56
SL	M3	15.23	25.88	34.77	59.10	50.79	86.33	0.4	17.2 ± 1.5	0.992	5.39
SL	M6	29.50	54.53	34.62	64.00	84.92	156.98	0.9	29.4 ± 1.4	0.974	4.74
SL	L1	1.35	2.24	1.71	2.85	3.76	6.26	0.8	38.3 ± 1.2	0.992	5.12
SL	L3	2.27	4.27	1.86	3.50	4.82	9.09	1.2	40.5 ± 2.0	0.977	6.22
SL	L6	4.25	9.99	3.07	7.21	7.15	16.78	1.4	44.8 ± 1.3	0.988	4.31
SL	W1	2.10	3.48	1.32	2.19	3.47	5.76	1.6	25.6 ± 7.6	0.762	2.25
SL	W3	6.58	12.22	4.05	7.51	9.46	17.56	1.6	23.2 ± 2.3	0.974	4.41
SL	W6	10.10	22.83	8.23	18.60	16.22	36.65	1.2	23.2 ± 1.1	0.991	5.02
									AVERAGE		4.7
									STDEV		1.9

~~Table 1e~~ **Table 2c** – Experiment 1a. Carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄) and total gas production with hay (H) amendment. H amended trials 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 r² value. Gas production rates (cm³ gas Kg soil⁻¹ day⁻¹) represent maximum at the inflection point. The amendment floated to the surface in the SCL H3 and H6 trials, which resulted in unusually low CH₄ production rates.

Sigmoidal curve values			CO ₂			CH ₄			Total Gas			
Soil	Treatment	Soil (g)	cm ³ /day	cm ³ /Kg/day	p	cm ³ /day	cm ³ /Kg/day	p	cm ³ /day	cm ³ /Kg/day	p	CO ₂ :CH ₄
SCL	H1	573.03	9.70	16.93	2.0E-16	10.40	18.15	0.164	37.1	64.75	1.3E-12	0.93
SCL	H3	477.85	7.50	15.70	3.0E-14	0.02	0.04	0.933	9.90	20.72	7.8E-6	393
SCL	H6	334.20	6.60	19.75	0.019	0.09	0.27	0.921	6.70	20.05	9.6E-13	73
SL	H1	582.57	8.90	15.28	5.5E-14	16.20	27.81	0.283	18.40	31.58	2.9E-4	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	50.71	158.0	0.93(r ²)	77.7	242.1	0.69(r ²)	79.79	248.47	0.74(r ²)	0.65

~~Table 2~~ Table 3 – (Experiment 2a). Methane gas data for incubations with fresh and cured organic matter in sandy loam soil.

Control data (*) from Experiment 1a (Table 2~~4~~a) included for reference. Different letters indicate a difference at $p < 0.001$.

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

~~Table 3~~Table 4 – (Experiment 3). Methane gas data versus pH.

Microcosms receiving hay in Sandy Loam soils (Experiment 3). Different letters indicate a difference at $p < 0.001$.

pH	Phase 1 CH ₄ (cm ³ /Kg/day)	Phase 2 CH ₄ (cm ³ /Kg/day)
5.6 ^a	0.44	10.6
6.1 ^b	1.0	13.0
6.6 ^c	1.8	13.8

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Conflicts of interest/Competing interest

Authors declare no conflict of interest

Availability of data and material

Significant data detail is available in the supplementary materials. Additional raw data available upon request.

Code availability

None

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