

1 Quantification of potential methane emissions associated with 2 organic matter amendments following oxic soil inundation

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7 Abstract

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

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

29 **Keywords** Methane emissions, mitigation wetlands, organic amendments

30

31 **1 Introduction**

32

33 The ecological benefits of wetlands are well documented, including their role as
34 carbon (C) sinks to stabilize global climate (Mitsch et al., 2015). Driven in part by this
35 ecological contribution, from 1970 to 2015 human-made wetlands have increased 233%
36 (Darrah et al., 2019). Between 2004 and 2009 the United States saw a net gain of 16,670
37 hectares of freshwater wetlands: 360,820 hectares of new wetlands to offset 344,140
38 hectares of existing (presumably C-sink) wetlands that were destroyed (Dahl, 2011).
39 Although created or restored wetlands may effectively sequester C, it may take hundreds
40 of years to offset their radiative forcing due to methane (CH_4) emissions (Neubauer,
41 2014). With such a large number of human-made wetlands, and their potential to increase
42 global warming, it is vital to consider factors that may contribute to CH_4 emissions.

43 Organic amendments such as straw, wood mulch, manure, and biosolids, mixed
44 into the soil, are thought to accelerate C storage by enhancing the conversion of plant-
45 derived compounds to microbial residues (Richardson et al., 2016). Microbial residues,
46 largely aliphatic-C from cell membrane lipids, can accumulate in soil and are not directly
47 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 CH₄ and Fe²⁺ 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 cm³ soil. The microcosm setup was the same as Experiment 1
142 except we used the same volume of soil (600 cm³) in all microcosms. These microcosms
143 were incubated for 13 days and sampled periodically for Fe²⁺ and biogenic gases.

144 **2.2.3 Experiment 3**

145 We measured a) CH₄ and b) Fe²⁺ 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 cm³ 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 cm³ 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 cm³ of liquid (leachate
153 volume), so we prepared microcosms using 125 cm³ of 20 mN MES buffer.

154 **2.2.4 Experiment 4**

155 We measured Fe²⁺ 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 cm^3 (for Fe^{2+}) and 1 cm^3 (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.

212 **3.1 Experiment 1a: Effect of organic amendments and soil type on CH₄ gas production**

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

221 Gas production varied by soil texture. In general, the SL soil produced 2.6 times
222 as much total gas (Figure 2a) and 2.4 times as much CH₄ as the SCL (Figure 2b). In the

223 SCL soil, CH₄ production in Phase 1 was 0.003 cm³ CH₄⁻¹ Kg soil⁻¹ day and with
224 amendments increased to as much as 0.8 cm³ CH₄⁻¹ Kg soil⁻¹ day (Table 2a). In Phase 2
225 1.9 cm³ CH₄⁻¹ Kg soil⁻¹ day was produced in control soils and with amendments
226 increased to as much as 28 cm³ CH₄⁻¹ Kg soil⁻¹ day (Table 2b). In the SL soil,
227 amendments increased the rate from 0.04 to 16 cm³ CH₄⁻¹ Kg soil⁻¹ day Phase 1 and from
228 1.8 to 64 cm³ CH₄⁻¹ Kg soil⁻¹ day in Phase 2.

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

241 Using fresh H, biogenic gas production followed a sinusoidal pattern and we
242 reported maximum CH₄ production rate at the inflection point (Table 2c). Hay was prone
243 to floating at higher loading rates and was present in the water column above the surface
244 (not in contact with soil). In the instances where this occurred (H3 and H6 in the SCL),

245 there was a decrease in overall gas production rate and very low CH₄ – much lower than
246 unamended soils (Table 2c and Supplemental Figure S2z). Floating also occurred in one
247 replicated for H6 in SL – the pattern is shown on Supplemental Figures S2&3z, but not
248 used in the average reported value (Table 2c).

249 **3.2 Experiment 1b: Effect of organic amendments and soil type on Fe²⁺**

250 The type and loading rate of organic amendments affected total soluble Fe²⁺
251 production, compared to the unamended control, in a limited number of cases (Figure 3,
252 Supplemental Table S2). In the SL soil, L caused a decrease ($p < 0.05$) in supernatant
253 Fe²⁺ concentrations whereas H increased supernatant Fe²⁺ in both soils ($p < 0.05$). In a
254 separate set of experiments, we documented the relationship between supernatant Fe and
255 pore water Fe (Supplemental Figure S5). Soil type affected the amount of soluble Fe²⁺
256 produced ($p < 0.05$). We did not see a difference in Fe²⁺ in the unamended microcosms
257 even though the SCL had 2.2x the amount of hydrochloramine hydrochloride extractable
258 Fe (FeHHCl) compared to the SL and had 7.6x more dithionite extractable Fe
259 (Supplemental Table S1). Of the FeHHCl in soil, 19% or less in the SCL and 61% or less
260 in the SL was reduced to Fe²⁺. Hay was an exception, where up to 155 % of the FeHHCl
261 in the SCL and 236 % in the SL was reduced to Fe²⁺ (Supplemental Table S2). During
262 the SL soil incubations, aqueous Fe²⁺ was measured simultaneous to CH₄ production. In
263 the H and M treatments, there was a marked increase in CH₄ production when Fe²⁺
264 became asymptotic. However, with the other amendments, Fe²⁺ production continued or
265 even increased during periods of high CH₄ production. Figure 4 shows two examples that
266 highlight this pattern and the complete set of curves is in Supplemental Figure S6.

267 **3.3 Experiment 2a: Effect of cured versus fresh organic amendments on CH₄ gas production**

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

282 **3.4 Experiment 2b: Effect of cured versus fresh organic amendments on Fe²⁺ production**

283 In Experiment 1b, we observed that curing also had an effect on the amount of
284 Fe²⁺ produced. Hay was the only amendment that produced significantly more Fe²⁺ and L
285 produced a significant reduction in Fe²⁺ (Figure 3). In Experiment 2 we used biosolids
286 (B) and manure (M) that had been cured at least 3 months. Whether the material had been
287 cured had a strong influence on Fe²⁺ production and Fe²⁺ was higher using fresh material
288 in both cases (Figure 5).

289 **3.4.1 Spectral Analysis: Effect of organic amendments and soil type on CH₄ gas production**

290 We observed differences in CH₄ and Fe reduction rates when using organic
291 material that had been cured versus uncured. The fluorescent spectral signatures of the
292 cured materials (B and M) were similar as were the signatures of fresh material
293 (Supplemental Figure S7), so curing differentiated the materials more than the source.
294 The difference in signatures was indicative of higher concentrations of organic (humic)
295 acids and lower nominal oxidation state in the cured materials. We considered other
296 organic matter characterization methods such as the material's carbon to nitrogen ratio,
297 but we did not find another reliable predictor of CH₄ and Fe²⁺ production other than
298 curing.

299 **3.5 Experiment 3: Effect of pH on a) CH₄ and b) Fe²⁺ production**

300 The soil pH affected both CH₄ and Fe²⁺ production. In Experiment 1, we observed
301 that Fe²⁺ varied with pH in the SL soil (p<0.001; Supplemental Figure S8a), but there
302 was little variation in the SCL (p=0.45; Supplemental Figure S8b). In order to isolate the
303 effect of pH, we performed experiment 3 using a single substrate (H leachate) in the SL
304 soil. Higher pH increased the CH₄ production rate in both Phase 1 and 2 (Table 4) and
305 reduced the production of Fe²⁺ (Figure 6).

306 **3.6 Experiment 4: Leached versus unleached H and pH considerations**

307 In Experiment 4 we measured Fe²⁺ produced from H, H leachate, and H residuals
308 (Figure 7). We expected the soluble fraction to be more labile and produce more Fe²⁺;
309 however, the H residuals (solid fraction) appeared to produce more Fe²⁺ than the
310 leachate. As noted on the figure, separate leached fractions changed the system pH. Using
311 the results from Experiment 2, we predict that at comparable pH there would have been

312 no difference in Fe^{2+} production between H, H residuals, and leachate (Supplemental
313 Figure S9). Given the potentially strong influence of pH, we re-evaluated the results from
314 Experiment 2b, correcting for pH and confirmed that the organic material age accounts
315 for differences in Fe^{2+} production (Supplemental Figure S10). Similarly, we considered
316 whether pH may have affected the out-come of Experiment 1. A MANOVA analysis of
317 the Experiment 1 data (Supplemental Table S3) indicated that pH and soil type had a
318 small effect ($p=0.30$ and 0.81 , respectively) compared to organic matter type and loading
319 rate ($p<0.0001$).

320 **4 Discussion**

321 Net CH_4 emissions are a primary factor that determines whether a wetland is a C
322 sink or contributes to long term global warming (Neubauer and Verhoeven, 2019). Soil
323 management practices, such as wetland restoration methods, can have a large impact on
324 CH_4 production and total greenhouse gas emissions (Paustian et al., 2016). Our data
325 indicate that organic amendments used in created or restored wetlands may have a large
326 influence on CH_4 production. Organic amendments that had been cured (L and W) only
327 slightly increased CH_4 emissions, but fresh material (M and H) resulted in large increases
328 (Tables 1a&b). This is consistent with field studies where comparable cured amendments
329 (composted wood and yard waste), did not result in increased CH_4 emissions (Winton and
330 Richardson, 2015), but straw (Ballantine et al., 2015) and peat bales (Green, 2014)
331 increased CH_4 emissions. Organic material is commonly cured, or composted, to remove
332 plant pathogens (Noble and Roberts, 2004) and to reduce the amount of cellulosic
333 material (Hubbe et al., 2010), which competes for oxygen, contributing to phytotoxicity

334 (Saidpullicino et al., 2007; Hu et al., 2011). Curing produces humic acids and increases
335 the nominal oxidation state (NOSC) of C (Guo et al., 2019). When cured material is then
336 subjected to anaerobic conditions, less CH₄ is produced (Yao and Conrad, 1999), which
337 would make composted material more suitable in a wetland restoration context.

338 Following soil inundation, we observed two distinct gas production phases (Phase
339 1 and 2). This pattern is difficult to distinguish in unamended soils but has been reported
340 previously (Yao and Conrad, 1999; Drake et al., 2009). Our breakpoint (5 – 45 days
341 Table 2b) was similar to Yao and Conrad (1999) (5 – 36 days). The Phase 2 rates in
342 unamended soils were also similar: 0.96 – 3.98 cm³ CH₄⁻¹ Kg soil⁻¹ day in Yao and
343 Conrad (1999) and 1.82 – 1.94 cm³ CH₄⁻¹ Kg soil⁻¹ day in our study (Table 2b).

344 There are several explanations that could account for the observed gas production
345 pattern. One is the lag period required to re-establish populations of methanogenic
346 archaea, which are likely dormant under oxic conditions and regrowth can be on the order
347 of days (Jabłoński et al., 2015). In our study, B had the earliest shift to Phase 2 CH₄
348 production (Table 2b), possibly due to elevated levels of dormant methanogens present
349 from anaerobic digestion. The two-phase gas production could also be due to depletion
350 of bioavailable Fe-oxides, thus relieving the competition between Fe reducers and
351 methanogens (Megonigal et al., 2004). Our data were mixed, with some treatments
352 showing evidence of competition by Fe reducers, but in other cases we did not see
353 competition. In treatment M1, for example, ferrous Fe in the supernatant plateaued at
354 about the same time as the breakpoint (Figure 4b), after which CH₄ production increased.
355 In contrast, in W3 soluble Fe continued to be produced well after the breakpoint, and the

356 amount of bioavailable Fe used during the course of the incubation was less than $28 \pm 4\%$
357 (Figure 4b, Supplemental Table S2). In addition to quantifying Fe oxide concentrations,
358 the CO₂:CH₄ ratios can be indicative of interactions between methanogens and other
359 reducers (Bridgham et al. 2013). If Fe reduction or other reduction stops during Phase 2,
360 we would expect the CO₂:CH₄ ratio to be near 1:1 (Bridgham et al. 2013). However, we
361 observed notable exceptions. The SCL L1 treatment had a ratio of 73:1 in Phase 2 (Table
362 2b), yet still had the characteristic shift to higher overall gas production (4.67x). Other
363 treatments also had higher CO₂:CH₄ ratios: L3, L6, W1, B1, C, and W1-3 in the SL soil
364 (Table 2b). Our mixed observations may have been due to microsite formation. In high
365 producing microcosms, microsite development may have been disrupted by gas
366 ebullition, which was substantial enough in H amended trials to cause effervescence.
367 Amendments with low gas production and limited gas ebullition (e.g. L, W and C)
368 continued to produce Fe²⁺ after the breakpoint, possibly because methanogens were
369 active in undisturbed microsites, as described in Yang et al. (2017).

370 The increased gas production from organic amendments was more pronounced in
371 SL compared to SCL, where there was 2.4x higher CH₄ and 2.6x higher gas production
372 (Figures 2a & b). We observed a more pronounced effect than a recent rice field study
373 where there was more CH₄ from SL soils versus SCL, although in that study results were
374 not statistically significant (Kim et al., 2018). Yagi and Minami (1990) observed that
375 compost (approximate loading rate the same as our 1x treatment) increased respiration
376 rates by 1.8x in a SCL versus a loam soil. Maietta, Hondula, et al. (2020) observed that
377 respiration rates were higher in a sandy loam soil compared to a silty clay, with and

378 without 3.3% & 23% wetland hay amendments. Thus, we might conclude that in general
379 coarser grained (sandy) soil textures emit more CH₄; however, there are a number of
380 investigations where this was not the case (Yagi and Minami, 1990; Glissmann and
381 Conrad, 2002). Other factors may have contributed. In our experiment the SCL had 7.6x
382 dithionite extractable Fe, and 4.6x as much %C (Supplemental Table S1), so additional
383 studies would be needed to isolate texture as the controlling factor.

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

392 Reduction of Fe-oxides occurs in saturated soils in the presence of an organic
393 substrate and is a key biogeochemical process in wetland soils. With sufficient time,
394 hydric soils may develop redoximorphic features from Fe reduction; however, studies
395 have not shown lasting redoximorphic development due to organic amendments (Gray,
396 2010; Ott et al., 2020). Organizations responsible for constructing mitigation wetlands
397 have an interest in documenting Fe reduction prior to redoximorphic feature development
398 as evidence soils that are hydric. Some mitigation wetland practitioners experience
399 challenges meeting hydric soil testing standards. Although reports in the scientific

400 literature are rare, there are examples of sites meeting vegetation and hydrology wetland
401 indicators, but not hydric soils (Berkowitz et al., 2014). Both the soils we tested produced
402 sufficient Fe^{2+} and would have passed hydric soils tests, so a soil amendment would not
403 be needed.

404 We observed that fresh organic matter resulted in increased Fe^{2+} compared to
405 cured organic matter (Figure 3), likely due to the presence of labile carbon, allowing
406 access to more crystalline Fe-oxides (Lentini et al., 2012). In some soils, Fe-reducing
407 bacteria using fresh organic matter amendments could access crystalline Fe making it
408 more bioavailable. However, without an anoxic/oxic cycle, increased Fe^{2+} production
409 could lead to Fe^{2+} toxicity and ferrolysis (Kirk, 2004), similar to the way fresh organic
410 matter leads to SOC priming (Blagodatsky et al., 2010). Ferrolysis occurs when
411 bioavailable Fe-oxides are reduced to Fe^{2+} and are subject to hydraulic transport. We
412 observed that cured amendments, like L, lowered Fe^{2+} concentrations (Figure 3), possibly
413 due to the presence of humic acids that are generated during curing (Guo et al., 2019).
414 Humic acids often contain insufficient biogeochemical energy to drive dissimilatory Fe
415 reduction (Keiluweit et al., 2017), chelate Fe^{2+} , removing it from the liquid phase
416 (Catrouillet et al., 2014), and create insoluble precipitates (Shimizu et al., 2013).

417 Regulating Fe^{2+} production, through the selection of the appropriate OM
418 amendment, could influence the growth of wetland plants. For example, rice growth may
419 be stimulated under low Fe^{2+} doses of 1 mg/L (Müller et al., 2015), but higher doses can
420 produce detrimental Fe plaque (Pereira et al., 2014). Some native wetland species are
421 adapted to high Fe^{2+} concentrations. *Juncus effusus* growth is stimulated at 25 mg/L Fe^{2+}

422 (Deng et al., 2009). North American native reed *Phragmites australis* ssp. *americanus*
423 was stimulated at 11 mg/L Fe²⁺ from ferrous sulfate (Willson et al., 2017), but the
424 invasive Eurasian lineage of *Phragmites australis* seedling growth was inhibited by Fe²⁺
425 as low as 1 mg/L (Batty, 2003). Soils high in free Fe²⁺ adversely affected *P. australis*
426 growth by creating an Fe-oxide plaque on roots (Saaltink et al., 2017).

427 Our results show that pH has a significant effect on both the production of Fe²⁺
428 (Figure 3) and CH₄ (Table 3). Between pH 5.6 and 6.6, the lower pH produced more Fe²⁺
429 and less CH₄, consistent with thermodynamic predictions (Ye et al., 2012).

430 Hydrogenotrophic methanogens can maximize CH₄ production at pH 5 (Bräuer et al.,
431 2004). In rice paddy soils, CH₄ emissions had a clear peak at pH 7, but almost none
432 below pH 5.5 (Wang et al., 1993). The strong effect of pH underscores the need to take
433 this parameter into account when interpreting data from experiments evaluating Fe-
434 reduction and methanogenesis. Attempting to control the pH of soils could potentially
435 introduce confounding effects. We used an MES buffer with 10x the quantity we
436 estimated from a soil titration and still saw shifts in the pH after incubation. With a high
437 residual soil acidity, the amount of buffer needed to control soil pH may increase the
438 ionic strength to a level that could influence cellular sorption to mineral and Fe-oxide
439 surfaces (Mills et al., 1994) as well as enzyme activity (Leprince and Quiquampoix,
440 1996).

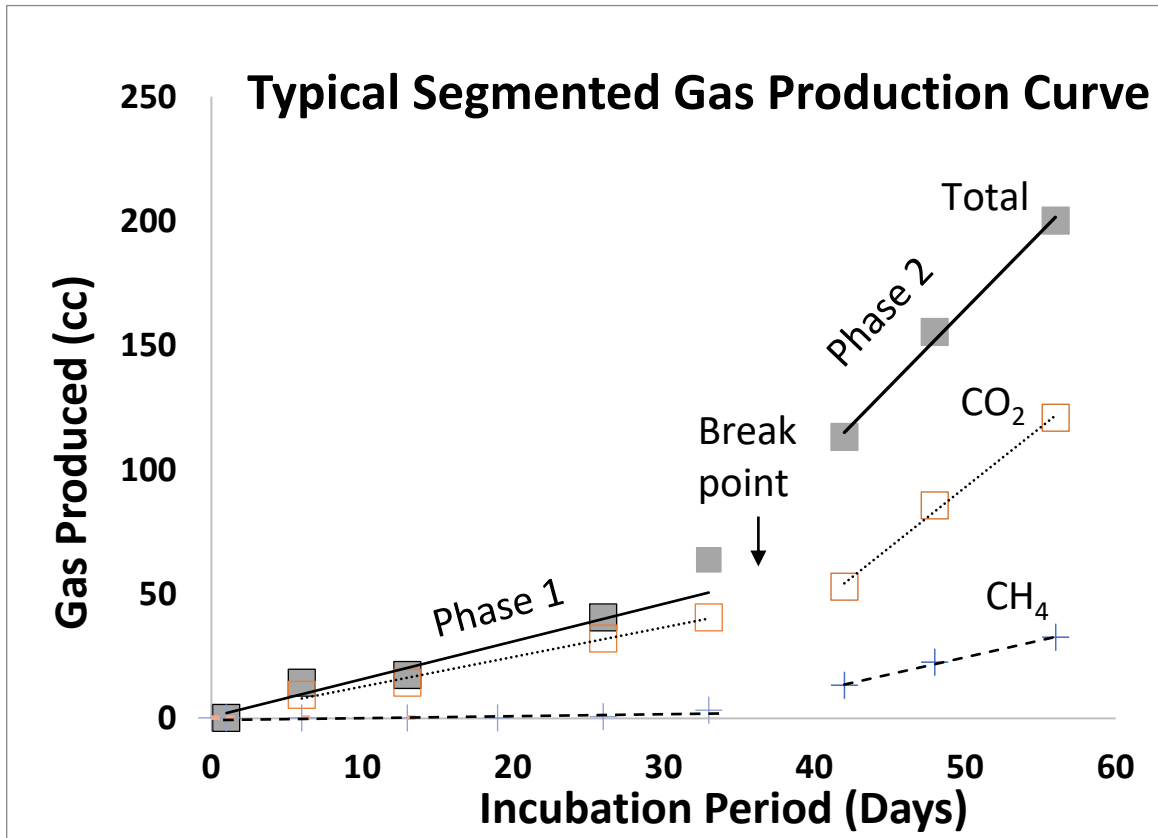
441 **5 Implications**

442 In our experiment, we observed that organic amendments can increase CH₄
443 production, particularly after extended anaerobic periods. We quantified CH₄ production

444 potential from several organic amendments, and in a separate field experiment
445 (unpublished) show that these results are useful in predicting field CH₄ production. There
446 is mounting concern that CH₄ from restored and created wetlands may result in net global
447 warming for decades to centuries (Neubauer, 2014). Our results suggest that not only do
448 organic amendments increase CH₄ gas production overall, but uncured amendments can
449 also decrease the time it takes before there is a large increase in both total gas production
450 and CH₄. Methane production is not constant and dramatically increases after several
451 weeks. Because of this, it may be beneficial to report wetland CH₄ data along with
452 inundation duration, which can strongly affect CH₄ (Hondula et al., 2021). It may be
453 possible to limit CH₄ in many wetland settings, particularly mitigation wetlands where
454 hydrology is part of the design: shorter flooding or inundation durations with alternating
455 drier conditions. This strategy has been proposed for rice paddy fields (Souza, 2021). Our
456 lab study demonstrates the potential for significant CH₄ emissions, but in a real system,
457 methanotrophic activity could attenuate some of the emissions (Chowdhury and Dick,
458 2013); however, this would not decrease the overall C loss from soils, it only changes the
459 pathway. If organic amendments are to be used, cured amendments may be preferable
460 because they are not as prone to high CH₄ generation and may attenuate Fe²⁺ toxicity.
461 Amendments that lower the soil pH increase Fe reduction and limit methanogenesis
462 (Marquart et al., 2019). When deciding whether or not to use organic amendments for
463 wetland mitigation consideration should be given to whether or not the material has been
464 cured, the pH, the soil texture, and expected hydroperiod.

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Figures



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

470 Gases were best modeled using a segmented linear function. After a breakpoint the

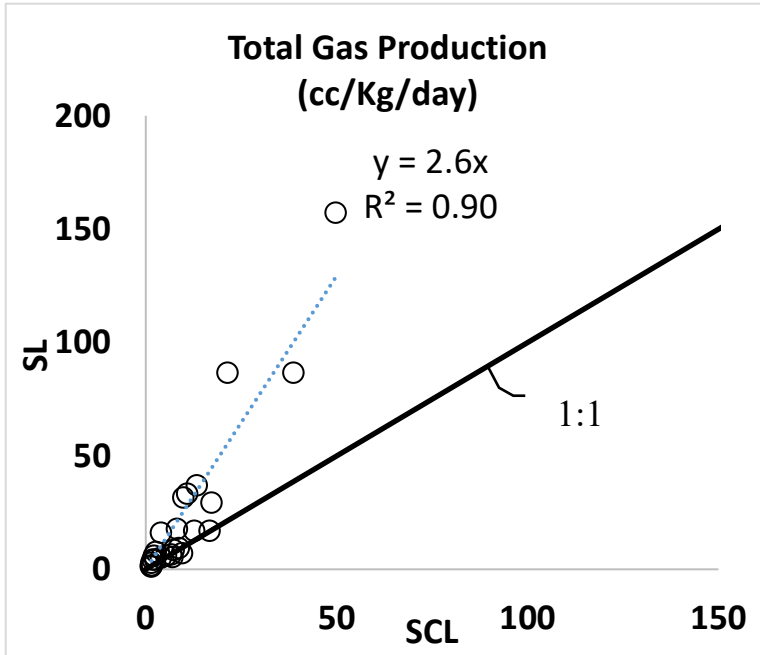
471 average total gas production increased by a factor of ~5 whereas there is a sharp (>> 5x)

472 increase in methane production. Data presented is from the manure (1x) amended trials in

473 sandy clay loam soil. Note that hay amended trials exhibited a typical sinusoidal pattern

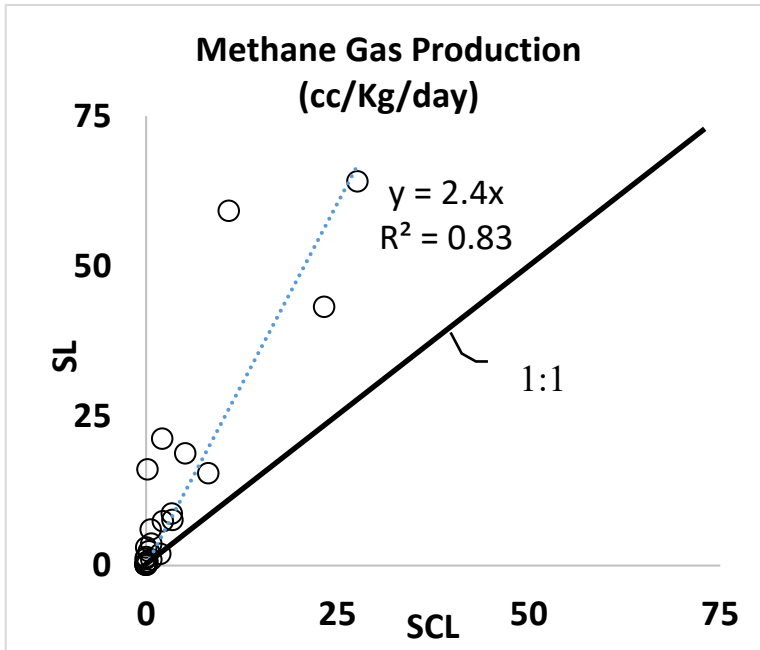
474 shown in Supplemental Figures S2&3h,i,j).

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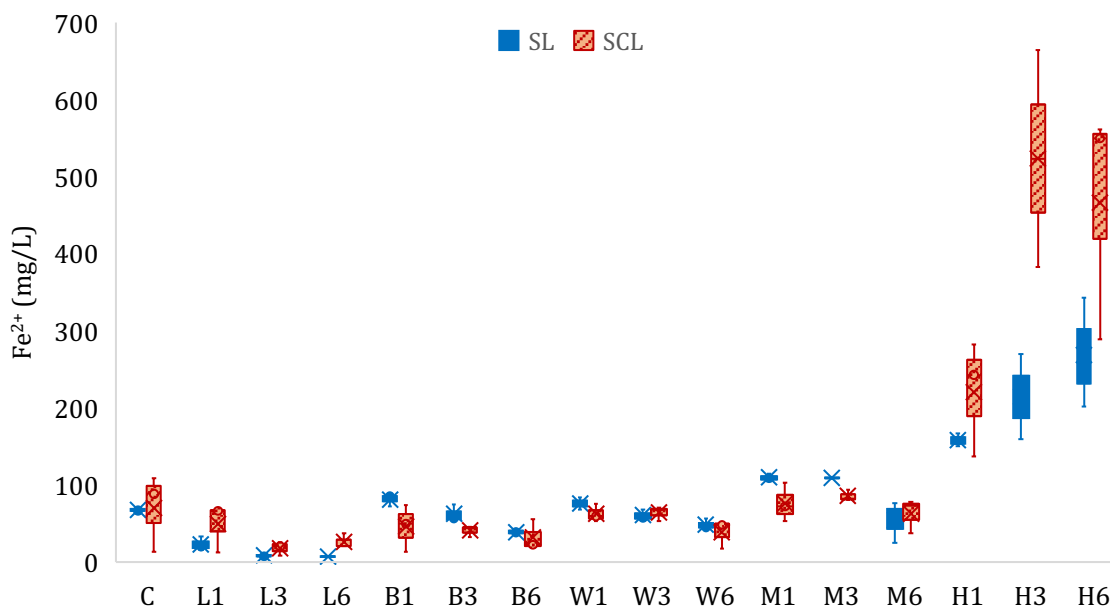
Fig. 2a. Experiment 1. Total biogenic gas production rate in the SL soil versus the SCL mesocosms. The SL mesocosms had, on average, 2.6 times higher gas production than the SCL.



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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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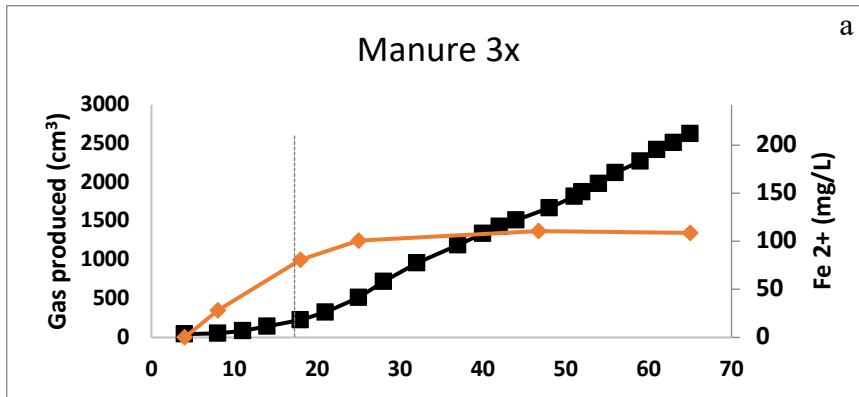
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490 Fig. 3 – (Experiment 1b) Ferrous iron (Fe²⁺) concentration in the liquid phase at the end
491 of the incubation period.

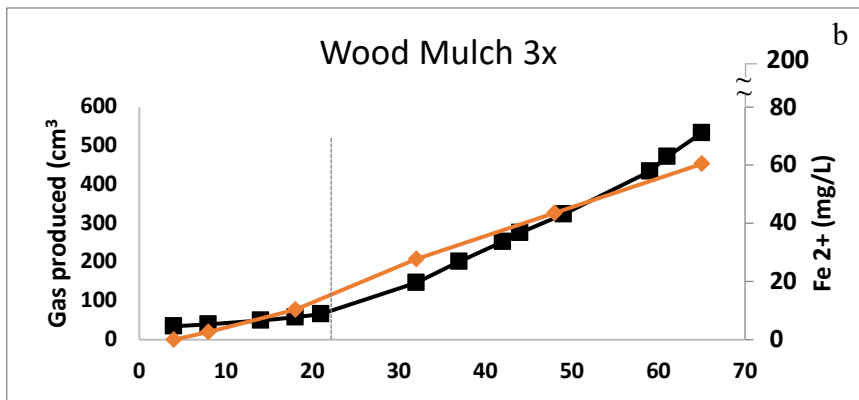
492 Microcosms receiving different organic amendment types and levels in Sandy Clay Loam
493 (SCL) and Sandy Loam (SL) soils. C = no amendment control, L = LeafGro (yard waste),
494 B = biosolids, W = wood chips, M = manure, H = hay. Numbers signify treatment level
495 (1, 3, or 6 times amount of organic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

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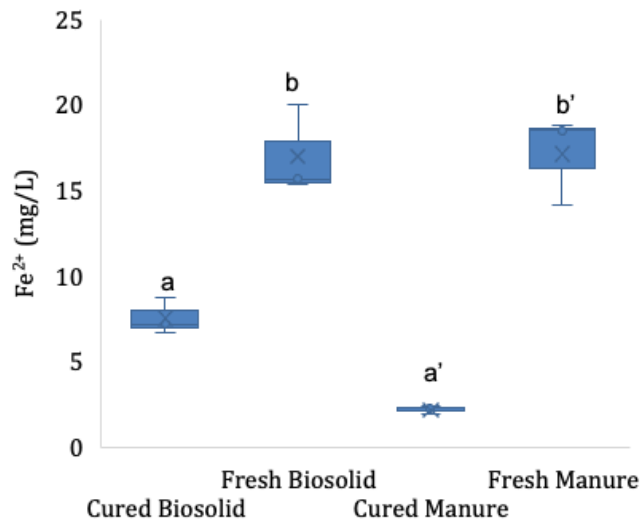


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504 Fig. 4 – (Experiment 1b) Ferrous iron (Fe^{2+}) and methane (CH_4) in selected microcosms.
505 Depletion of Fe coincided with the breakpoint (dashed line) with manure, but not with
506 wood mulch. Other examples of this pattern are shown in Supplemental Figure S6. The
507 maximum value on the secondary x-axis is the maximum expected Fe^{2+} concentration
508 based on the HHCL extraction.

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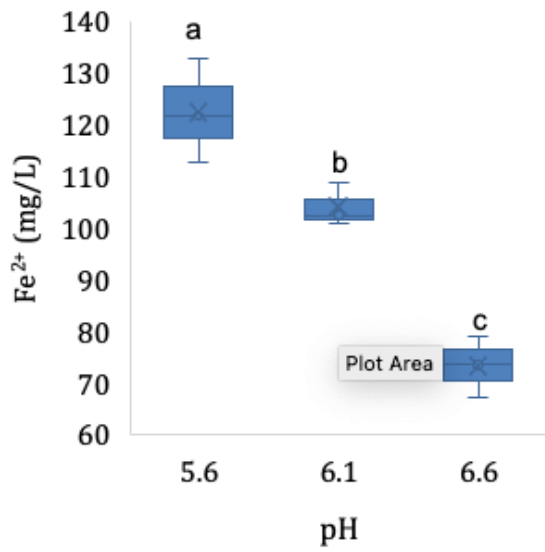
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515 Fig. 5 – (Experiment 2b) Ferrous iron (Fe²⁺) concentration in the liquid phase at the end
 516 of the incubation period (13 days).

517 Incubation was carried out in sandy loam soil. Different letters indicate a difference at
 518 p<0.001.

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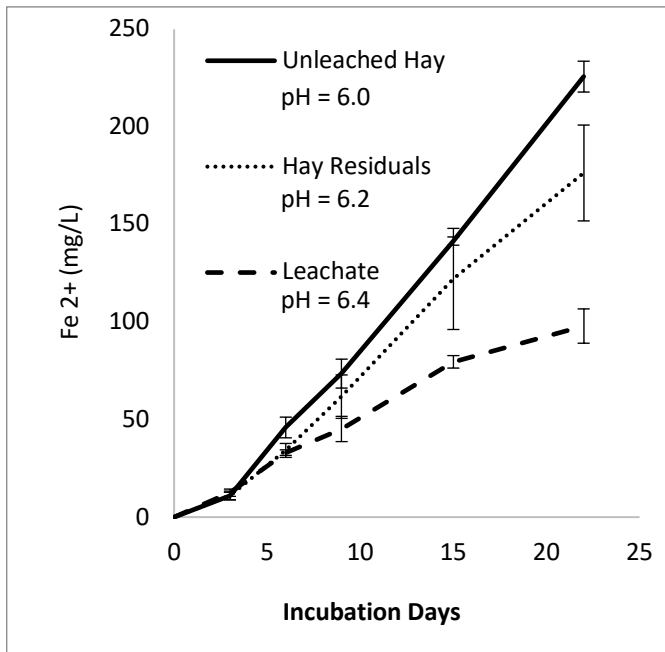
522 Fig. 6 – (Experiment 3) Ferrous iron (Fe²⁺) concentration in the liquid phase with varied
523 pH in microcosms receiving hay in Sandy Loam soils.

524 Different letters indicate a difference at p<0.05.

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531 Fig. 7 – (Experiment 4) Ferrous iron (Fe²⁺) concentration in the liquid phase with hay as
532 substrate.

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Tables

Table 1 – Summary of Results

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

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Breakpoint = time to increased methane production
 SL = Sandy Loam, SCL = Sandy Clay Loam
 ↔ No change, ↑ increase, ↓ decrease, ↘ slight decreasing trend

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

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

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Table 2b – (Experiment 1a – 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 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 3 – (Experiment 2a). Methane gas data for incubations with fresh and cured organic matter in sandy loam soil.

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

Treatment	Phase 1 Methane (cm ³ /Kg/day)	Phase 2 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 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

Declarations**Funding**

Work was made possible by funding from the Maryland State Highway Administration (SHA/UM/4-53), the Maryland Water Resources Research Center (2017MD340B), and USDA National Institute of Food and Agriculture, Hatch Project Number: MD-ENST-7741.

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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