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Running Title: kinetics of water-extractable zinc from seaweed in soil

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Kinetics of water-extractable zinc release from seaweed (*Fucus serratus*) as soil amendment

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1 ABSTRACT

2 Soil fertilization with trace-metal rich organic fertilizers such as *Fucus serratus* seaweed may
3 be an effective way to combat micronutrient deficiency. In this study the kinetics of zinc release
4 from *Fucus serratus* seaweed was investigated in a packed soil column leaching experiment
5 over 1,776 hours. The release of zinc from control (soil only) and treatment (soil + seaweed;
6 equivalent zinc application rate of 1.42 kg ha⁻¹) columns, measured by ICP-MS, demonstrated
7 two distinct release stages. The cumulative zinc release data for each phase were fitted to five
8 kinetic models: zero order, first order, Elovich, power function and parabolic diffusion. In the
9 first stage (0-400 hours) the release of zinc from both control and treatment was best described
10 by a parabolic rate law, indicating release of zinc from a soluble soil reservoir. In the second
11 stage (400-1,776 hours) zinc release followed a zero order rate law indicative of slow release
12 from an essentially insoluble reservoir. The modelled difference between the amount of zinc
13 released from treatment and control columns in stage 1 ($230 \pm 11 \mu\text{g}$) represented the total
14 amount of zinc added *via* seaweed. The parabolic rate constant for seaweed zinc release was
15 $12.09 \mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-0.5}$. In summary, the addition of *F. serratus* to soil is a viable source of labile
16 zinc and a low cost agronomic option for mitigating zinc deficiency in soils.

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25 **1 Introduction**

26 Zinc is an essential nutrient needed for normal growth in plants, animals and humans, and its
27 entry into the food chain is directly related to its solubility in soils (*Alloway, 2008 and*
28 *Poblaciones et al., 2017*). However, more than fifty percent of the world's agricultural soils
29 have been reported to suffer medium to widespread zinc deficiency (*Sillanpää, 1990; Alloway,*
30 *2008; Welch et al., 2013; RLF, 2015*). This has significantly contributed to poor crop yield
31 (*Noulas et al., 2018*) and aggravated poor-diet-induced zinc deficiency in humans (*Cakmak et*
32 *al., 1999; Alloway, 2009*), thus making it of global concern (*WHO and FAO, 2006; Cakmak,*
33 *2009; Sharma et al., 2016*).

34 In recent years, soil Zn fertilization with inorganic Zn sources has become widespread with
35 ZnSO₄ being the major source used for correcting Zn deficiency (*Karak et al., 2005; Shaver et*
36 *al., 2007; Alloway, 2008; Cakmak, 2008; Taheri et al., 2011*). Organic farming methods seek
37 to provide inexpensive and sustainable agricultural approaches. Recent research has
38 investigated the potential of organic amendments as Zn fertilizers. Suitable potential sources
39 include: sewage sludge (*Motaghian and Hosseinpur, 2013*), green manures made from red
40 clover and sunflower (*Aghili et al., 2014*), poultry manure (*Ravindran et al., 2017*), cow manure
41 and vermicompost (*Motaghian and Hosseinpur, 2017*), biogas slurry (*Malav et al., 2015 and*
42 *Dey et al., 2019*), brewery waste sludge (*Ahmed et al., 2019*) and seaweed (*Possinger, 2013*).

43 Generally, seaweeds contain higher concentrations of micronutrients than terrestrial
44 plants (*Strik et al., 2003; MacArtain et al., 2007; Rohani-Ghadikolaei et al., 2012; Astorga-*
45 *Espana et al., 2015*). Seaweed has been used by humans as source of food, medicine, fodder
46 and fertilizer for millennia (*Kenicer et al., 2000; Dillehay et al., 2008; Possinger, 2013*). It is a
47 naturally abundant resource; in the coasts of Britain alone, more than 600 species of different
48 seaweed flora have been identified (*Kenicer et al., 2000*). Thus, seaweed plays a great role as
49 an organic fertilizer especially in coastal agriculture where soil fertility is traditionally
50 maintained by direct seaweed application (*WSH, 2016*), either as compost (*Eyras et al., 1998;*

51 *Kenicer et al. 2000*) or dried amendment (*Possinger et al., 2013*). For instance, such practice
52 has been carried on in the coastal regions of Scotland, and especially in the Machair community
53 till date (*Angus and Dargie, 2002*). Machair community has a cultural tradition of crofting
54 which involves spreading harvested or beach-cast brown seaweeds on arable farm lands as soil
55 conditioners or fertilizers. The seaweeds are usually collected at low tides during autumn and
56 winter months when large quantities of brown seaweed are washed ashore (*WSH, 2016*). The
57 seaweed types usually harvested in large quantities in Scotland include
58 *Ascophyllum, Laminaria* species and *Fucus serratus* (*WSH, 2016*). The Scottish Natural
59 Heritage organization promotes soil application of seaweed as part of sustaining small-scale,
60 diversified agriculture (*Angus and Dargie, 2002*). In the present study, two locally abundant
61 species of coastal, benthic brown seaweed (*Fucus serratus* and *Laminaria digitata*) were
62 harvested from the sea at low tide for further processing and analysis. *F. serratus* was selected
63 as the model fertilizer for this study because its Zn composition is approximately double that
64 of *L. digitata*.

65 The total zinc available for plant uptake is largely determined by the amount of zinc released
66 from soil surfaces into solution (*Dang et al., 1994*). Hence, an understanding of the kinetics of
67 zinc release at the solid-liquid interface is of fundamental importance to a complete
68 understanding of the dynamics of zinc in soils. Most studies on zinc sorption-desorption by
69 soils have been based on equilibrium conditions whereby thermodynamic approaches are used
70 to predict only the final state of reactions (*Taylor et al., 1995; Reyhanitabar and Gilkes, 2010;*
71 *Reyhanitabar et al., 2011*). However, processes of ionic exchange in soils rarely assume
72 equilibrium state due to fertilizer addition, slow chemical reactions, plant uptake, edaphic and
73 climatic factors (*Dang et al., 1994; Taylor et al., 1995; Reyhanitabar et al., 2011*). Therefore,
74 a more comprehensive approach to understanding the dynamics of zinc release in soils requires
75 an investigation of the kinetics of zinc sorption-desorption processes at a given time.

76 In recent years, the kinetics of zinc release from different soils has drawn considerable attention
77 as different kinetic models have been employed to describe Zn release patterns. The models
78 include parabolic diffusion (*Dang et al., 1994; Taheri et al., 2011*), power function
79 (*Reyhanitabar and Gilkes, 2010; Ghasemi-Fasaei et al., 2012; Motaghian and Hosseinpur,*
80 *2013*), *Elovich* (*Taylor et al., 1995; Reyhanitabar et al., 2011*), zero order (*Padidar, 2015*), first
81 order and second order equations. The models were employed to investigate the nature of
82 reactions and zinc release patterns in acid-leached soils (*Alghanmi et al., 2015; Padidar, 2015*),
83 DTPA- extracted soils (*Dang et al., 1994; Motaghian and Hosseinpur, 2013*), zinc sulphate-
84 amended and cropped soils (*Taheri et al., 2011*).

85 *Eghball et al. (2002)* reported that, in order to apply manure or compost to fulfil the nutrient
86 requirements of a crop, knowledge of the amount of nutrients mineralized following application
87 is needed as this should be considered when determining application rates. Hence, *Dey et al.*
88 *(2019)* engaged kinetic studies to assess nutrient release from different organic amendments so
89 as to decide the rates and frequency of application. Kinetic studies of nutrient release from
90 organic amendments are now gaining attention while investigation of zinc release kinetics from
91 organic fertilizer-amended soils is very limited. *Motaghian and Hosseinpur (2013)* investigated
92 the kinetics of Zn release in wheat rhizosphere of some sewage sludge amended soils, their
93 study indicated that zinc desorption rate was higher in wheat rhizosphere than in bulk soils and
94 that the process was modelled by the power function model.

95 Thus, it is important to study zinc kinetics in an uncropped organically amended soil with a
96 view to understanding zinc dynamics in soils and organic fertilizers, and ameliorating soil zinc
97 reservoirs. Understanding zinc release kinetics is useful for synchronization of zinc release
98 peak in soils with zinc peak demands of prospective crops. For instance, *Taheri et al. (2011)*
99 employed kinetic models to investigate patterns of Zn release from fertilizers into soil so as to
100 understand application timing, frequency and magnitude of Zn dose application (as suggested

101 by *Eghball et al.*, 2002). They reported that, similar to soluble ZnSO₄, tire ash is a fast-release
102 Zn fertilizer which supplies plants with readily available Zn, hence lower application rates may
103 be required. On the other hand, they observed that ground rubber is a slow-release fertilizer of
104 which intermittent application of higher Zn rates is required; as such, they recommended
105 application of ground rubber in Zn deficient soils before seeding, to provide long term Zn
106 fertilization. This is key to achieving high nutrient use efficiency hence maximization of crop
107 productivity and minimization of negative environmental impacts.

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109 In assessing the relevance of seaweed as a source of zinc in organic agriculture, understanding
110 zinc release rate into the soil solution is an important factor in regulating zinc supply to plants,
111 informing timings and scale of fertilizer applications. Here, we present the first study of zinc
112 release kinetics from seaweed. Specifically, we present the results of a study of zinc release
113 kinetics in uncropped, water-leached, seaweed-amended soil employing a soil column
114 protocol.

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117 **2. Material and methods**

118 2.1 Collection and Preparation of Soil Samples

119 Soil samples were collected from surface soils (0 – 15 cm) of an uncultivated garden (54° 34'
120 48.75" N, 1° 19' 29.81" W) in Stockton, County Durham, UK in August 2016. The soil samples
121 were air dried, passed through a 2 mm sieve and stored in polythene bags. Soil physical
122 properties were determined using standard methods as described for soil particle-size
123 determination (*Kettler et al.*, 2001), pH (*Hendershot et al.*, 2006), bulk density and porosity.

124 2.2 Collection and Processing of Seaweed (*Fucus serratus*)

125 Live samples of brown seaweed (*Fucus serratus*) were collected at low tide from Saltburn-by-
126 the-Sea, Yorkshire, England (54° 35' 16.1" N, 0° 57' 24.3" W) on 31st of August 2016 at low
127 tide 10 am BST. They were transported to the laboratory within two hours of collection and
128 immediately stored in a fridge at 4°C until the next day (i.e. for 17 hours). After refrigeration,
129 samples were thoroughly washed, detached from other sea plants and fauna and soaked in
130 deionized water for 17 hours. They were then drained, weighed and oven-dried to constant
131 weight at 50°C. In order to increase the surface area of dried biomass for faster
132 biodegradability, the seaweed was ground to powder in an agate planetary ball mill (*Fritsch,*
133 *Pulverisette 6*) for 40 minutes at rotational speed of 200 rpm. Ground seaweed was then sieved
134 to determine its particle size distribution. The particle size distribution of seaweed, shown in
135 Figure 1, ranged from 0.15 – 0.5 mm. Seaweed pH was measured using the procedures
136 described by *Singh et al. (2017)* as follows: 1g of seaweed was added to 10 mL of deionised
137 water and mixed for 1 hour using a reciprocating shaker. The mixture was then allowed to stand
138 for 30 minutes after which pH was measured using a benchtop pH / mV meter (*Fisher Scientific*
139 *AE150*).

140 ((Figure 1))

141 2.3 Total Zinc Determination

142 Total zinc concentrations in soils and seaweed were determined before and after the experiment
143 through microwave-assisted 70% nitric acid digestion (*Mars- 6, CEM, One Touch Technology*
144). Approximately 0.1 g of each biomass was weighed in twelve replicates into Teflon tubes (50
145 mL), and blanks were also prepared for each biomass. Concentrated nitric acid (70 %, 10 mL)
146 was added to each sample. The tubes were equidistantly arranged on the circular tube rack and
147 then loaded into the microwave digester and digested for 105 minutes at 1800 W. The digestion
148 process was followed by multi-element analyses on inductively coupled plasma mass

149 spectrometer (ICP-MS) *Agilent 7500 series, Octopole Reaction System*. Prior to analysis the
150 digested samples were serially diluted as follows: each digested sample was made up to 100
151 mL in a volumetric flask with deionised water, diluted (1:10) in deionized water and further
152 diluted (1:10) with 2% nitric acid. This solution was analysed on the ICP-MS. Estimation of
153 error in total zinc concentration was reported as 95% confidence interval.

154 2.4 Zinc Leaching Experiment

155 The apparatus used for the zinc leaching experiment is shown in Figure 2. A transparent
156 cylindrical acrylic (pexiglass) tube measuring 250 mm long and 54 mm internal diameter was
157 used as soil column. The bottom of the column was sealed with a rubber stopper having a 2
158 mm hole outlet tube at the center. The rubber stopper was overlaid with perforated acrylic
159 circular disc (having seventeen 1 mm holes) on top of which was a Whatman #54 filter paper.
160 The filter paper was covered with a 1 cm layer of quartz sand. The column was then filled with
161 300 g of 2 mm-sieved and air-dried soil, following the protocols of soil column set-up for
162 unsaturated dry-packing (*Lewis and Sjöstrom, 2010; DEMEAU, 2012*). For the treatment, 3 g
163 of the processed *F. serratus* (that is, $213 \pm 6 \mu\text{g}$ of zinc) was mixed evenly throughout the soil
164 column, an application rate equivalent to 20 tonnes of seaweed per hectare (*Motaghian and*
165 *Hosseinpour, 2013*) since the mass of soil per hectare at 15 cm surface depth is 2 million kg ha^{-1}
166 ¹(*Hinrich et al., 2002*).

167 ((Figure 2))

168 After filling, the top of the soil was first overlaid with Whatman #54 filter paper, followed by
169 1 cm layer of quartz sand and then by a perforated acrylic circular disc (of similar column
170 diameter) having thirteen 1 mm holes. The top of the column was sealed with a rubber stopper
171 fitted with an inlet valve through which there was a continuous flow of irrigation (deionized)
172 water from a reservoir. The flow rate of irrigation water was manually controlled and set at 30
173 mL h^{-1} . Leachate in each 24 hour period was collected and analysed for zinc by ICP-MS. The

174 transparent part of the column was wrapped with an aluminum foil to simulate light conditions
175 encountered in the subsurface and prevent the growth of photolithotrophic microorganisms and
176 photodegradation of organic fertilizer resulting from exposure to light. There were two soil
177 columns set-up – treatment and control – with the control having no seaweed. The experiment
178 was conducted from September 29 to December 12, 2016 during which zinc release was
179 monitored daily for 1,776 hours (74 days) at ambient temperatures of between 15 – 20°C.

180 2.5 Models for Zn Release Kinetics

181 Amounts of zinc released from treatment and control columns with time were modelled using
182 five kinetic models: zero order, first order, Elovich, power and parabolic diffusion functions,
183 as detailed in (Table 1). The models that best described zinc release in both conditions were
184 determined by linear regression using Microsoft Excel. Total zinc release from seaweed was
185 modelled as the difference between zinc release from the treatment and control columns.

186 ((Table 1))

187 2.6 Statistical Analysis

188 Column soil data before and after the experiment were analyzed using the one-way ANOVA
189 to evaluate significant difference among means at $P < 0.05$. Also, the significance or otherwise
190 of differences at the 95% confidence level between modelled rate constants was established
191 using t-tests for slope coefficient difference (*Paternoster et al., 1998*).

192 3. Results

193 3.1 Properties of Studied Soil and Seaweed fertilizer

194 The initial textural classification of the column soil was loam (37% sand, 40% silt, 23% clay)
195 with bulk density of 1.15 g cm^{-3} and porosity of 57%. This is ideal for plant growth and water
196 infiltration; the bulk density is less than the maximum 1.40 g cm^{-3} recommended by USDA-
197 NRCS (2014). The soil pH was 6.35 and that of the seaweed was 5.72, both within the range
198 (5.5 – 6.5) at which soil Zn is most available.

199 The initial concentration of total zinc in the soil was $210 \pm 30 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$, within the acceptable
200 total Zn concentration for agricultural soils ($10 - 300 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$; Barber (1995)). The initial
201 chemical characteristics of the *F. serratus* used in this study are presented in Table 2. . The
202 total zinc concentration of seaweed was $71 \pm 2 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$. At the end of the experiment,
203 concentration of zinc in soil (control) was $200 \pm 40 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ while it was $200 \pm 20 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ in
204 seaweed-amended soil (treatment). That is, there is no statistically significant difference
205 between the zinc content of the original soil and of the control and treatment after the
206 experiment ($F(2, 12) = 0.069, P = 0.93$).

207 ((Table 2))

208 3.2 Cumulative Release of Zinc from the Soil Column

209 The cumulative mass of zinc released between 0 and 1,776 hours from both the control and
210 treatment columns are as presented in Figure 3. Both columns show a steady increase in
211 cumulative zinc release over time and there is an apparent discontinuity at about 400 hours
212 defining two distinct stages of zinc release. In stage 1 (0 – 408 hours) the control column
213 displays an initial rapid loss of zinc that slows over the period, whereas in stage 2 (>400 hours)
214 the zinc loss rate is essentially constant. The treatment column exhibits behavior similar to that
215 of the control in both stages but the cumulative mass of zinc release from the treatment is
216 positively offset relative to that of the control, reflecting the additional labile zinc present.

217 ((Figure 3))

218 3.3 Kinetics of Zinc Release

219 In order to understand the processes by which Zn is released, data were fitted to the kinetic
220 models detailed in Table 1. The results of model fits are presented in Table 3. Based on the
221 values of coefficient of determination (R^2) and standard error of the slope of each kinetic model,
222 the best model fit for zinc release was selected in both stages. In stage one, zinc release was

223 best described by the parabolic diffusion model for both treatment and control (Figure 4). In
224 stage 2, zinc loss was best described as a zero order process for both treatment and control.

225 ((Table 3))

226 ((Figure 4))

227 It is of interest to note that, out of all the tested models, only the zero order and parabolic
228 diffusion models had their rate constant values higher in treatments than in controls (Table 3):
229 that is, for only these two models is seaweed acting as a source of zinc. For the best kinetic
230 models in both stages of Zn release, *t-tests* were done to establish significant differences in rate
231 constants (*k*) between treatment and control. In stage 1, there was a significant difference
232 between parabolic rate constants, *k* of the treatment ($k = 28.95$, $SE = 0.52$) and control ($k =$
233 16.85 , $SE = 0.26$), $t(15) = 20.67$, $p < 0.05$ whereas in stage 2, there was no significant difference
234 in *k* for treatment ($k = 1.13$, $SE = 0.02$) and control ($k = 1.11$, $SE = 0.01$), $t(53) = 0.917$, $p >$
235 0.05 . That is, zinc release is faster from the treatment than from control during stage 1 but there
236 is no difference in rate between treatment and control during stage 2.

237 The cumulative zinc release from seaweed was estimated as the difference between the
238 parabolic models for treatment and control in stage one. Hence, seaweed released $230 \pm 11 \mu\text{g}$
239 of zinc during stage 1 and there was no statistically significant difference between this amount
240 and the actual amount of zinc added to the system by seaweed ($213 \pm 6 \mu\text{g}$). The modelled rate
241 constant for parabolic release of zinc from *F. serratus* in this experiment was $12.09 \mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-$
242 0.5 .

243 **4. Discussion**

244 4. 1 Seaweed Decomposition

245 With C/N ratio of 25:1 (Table 2), seaweed degradation is expected to happen over a
246 somewhat longer timeframe than that of the experiment. However, Zn release in stage 1 (0-408

247 hours) is parabolic, indicating that trans-membrane transport processes are not rate limiting for
248 zinc release.

249 4.2 Cumulative Zinc Release from Soil Column

250 As shown in Figure 3 there was a discontinuity in the slope of cumulative zinc release
251 at about 408 h suggesting that different mechanisms of release are operating in stages one and
252 two. Over the 1,776 hours of the experiment, approximately 2 mg of zinc (~1% of total soil
253 zinc) was released from the column in both treatment (soil + seaweed) and control (soil only)
254 conditions. This is in line with our expectations because more than ninety percent of soil zinc
255 is insoluble (*Broadley et al., 2007*). The total cumulative zinc release from the treatment
256 condition was higher than that from the control condition, indicating that seaweed is a source
257 of zinc. Furthermore, the offset between the two conditions was constant over stage 2 and was
258 equal to the zinc content of the seaweed. That is, all the seaweed zinc is released in the
259 experiment and this release happens exclusively in stage 1.

260 4.3 Kinetics of Zinc Release in Stage 1

261 The observation of two stages of zinc release suggests the existence of two types of
262 zinc reservoir in this system. The zinc release in stage 1 was rapid and exhibited parabolic
263 kinetics implying that the overall rate of zinc release from this reservoir was controlled by
264 diffusion phenomena (*Aharoni et al., 1991* and *Rao et al., 1998*). For highly soluble material,
265 diffusion processes, for example, exchange/replacement of surface zinc in the solid and/or
266 diffusion of dissolved zinc away from surfaces and into the bulk liquid are expected to be rate
267 limiting. That is, any additional steps that may be operating in the mechanism of zinc release
268 from this reservoir are fast with respect to diffusion. The initial rapid release of zinc during the
269 first 408 h is considered to be due to desorption of zinc from soil particle surfaces with weak
270 binding energy (e.g. weakly bound zinc on macro-aggregate surfaces or on the outer surfaces
271 of micro-aggregates) or sources with high zinc-solubility. Soluble zinc is typically at low

272 concentration in soils (approximately 10^{-8} M; *Barber (1995)*), hence the short duration of stage
273 1 release.

274 The suitability of the parabolic diffusion model in adequately describing zinc release in stage
275 one is consistent with the finding of *Ghiri et al. (2012)*. They investigated the kinetics of zinc
276 desorption in calcareous soils of southern Iran; of all the tested models, the parabolic diffusion
277 model best described zinc desorption from the soils. Metals release from soils is, however,
278 complex and is influenced strongly by the particular nature (mineral content, organic matter
279 content, pH, particle size, etc.) of the soil under study. A recent study by *Wisawapipat and*
280 *Pongpom (2019)* investigated the kinetics of ligand-controlled Zn release in acid sulfate paddy
281 soils of Thailand, using ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) as extractant. Their result
282 showed that, over the course of 192 hours at soil pH 4.0, kinetics of Zn release was best
283 described by the parabolic model, compared with other models. Hence, they concluded –
284 equivocally – that diffusion-controlled exchange was one of the processes governing ligand-
285 controlled Zn dissolution in the studied soils. Similar to the present study, *Hosseinpour and*
286 *Motaghian (2013)* observed a two-stage pattern of nutrient release when they studied the
287 kinetics of potassium release from calcareous soils of central Iran, and they reported that the
288 parabolic diffusion model best described potassium release in the second stage (168 – 2017 h).
289 However, in an investigation of zinc release kinetics in different soil orders by *Ghasemi-Fasaei*
290 *et al. (2012)* using time-dependent zinc extraction techniques, it was shown that the parabolic
291 diffusion model did not adequately describe zinc release from the soils whereas the power
292 function did. Nonetheless, based on the rapid and short-lived parabolic release seen in our
293 experiment, we conclude that the first stage represents loss of soluble zinc.

294 The amount of zinc released from the seaweed alone during stage 1 can be modelled
295 as:

296 *Zn released from seaweed*

297 $= \text{zinc released from treatment} - \text{zinc released from soil}$

298 Using the parabolic models in Table 1 to describe zinc release from the treatment and
299 control conditions, the amount of zinc released from seaweed was $230 \pm 11 \mu\text{g}$. That is, the
300 zinc contributed to the system by the seaweed ($213 \pm 6 \mu\text{g}$) augments the soluble zinc reservoir,
301 and only this reservoir. Hence, seaweed is a potential zinc fertilizer from a soil-application
302 perspective.

303 Rate constants are good indices for measuring the mineral supplying capacity of a
304 material (*Hosseinpur and Motaghian, 2013 and Li et al., 2015*). The difference between the
305 modelled parabolic zinc release from treatment and control in stage one yields a parabolic rate
306 constant for zinc release from seaweed only of $12.09 \mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-0.5}$.

307 4.4 Kinetics of Zinc Release in Stage 2

308 The zero order zinc release in stage two implies release from a recalcitrant mineral phase for
309 which the zinc concentration is large relative to the flux of zinc into the liquid phase:
310 desorption/dissolution is the limiting step in zinc release in stage two. *Sparks (2003)* described
311 the kinetics of zero order dissolution as a surface-controlled phenomenon in which
312 concentrations of solutes near surfaces are equal to the bulk solution. Therefore, the slow and
313 long term zinc release in this stage is considered to be due to zinc release from, for example,
314 the inner surfaces of macro- or micro-aggregates with stronger binding energies and/or surface
315 release processes There has been widespread observations of similar Zn release kinetics. For
316 example, *Zahedifar et al. (2012)* and *Baranimotlagh and Gholami (2013)* studied the kinetics
317 of Zn desorption in calcareous soils of Iran and observed a rapid Zn release phase followed by
318 slower and long-term release. Both studies attributed the slower release to desorption of Zn
319 from inside macro- or micro- aggregates, while *Sadusky et al. (1987)* described zero order
320 nutrient release as a surface-controlled process attributable to weathered nature of soils. In a

321 laboratory study to investigate time-dependent release of Zn from biochar over the course of
322 120 days, *Dey et al. (2019)* observed a Zn accumulation throughout the period, which, although
323 formally statistically non-significant, conformed to zero order release kinetics. Hence, our
324 observation of zero order kinetics in stage 2 indicates the release of zinc from the recalcitrant
325 soil reservoir.

326 **5. Conclusions**

327 This study investigated the kinetics of water extractable zinc release from seaweed
328 using a packed soil column leaching protocol. In the treatment condition (soil + seaweed), two
329 stages of zinc release were observed. In stage 1, zinc was released from soluble reservoirs with
330 parabolic kinetics. In stage 2, zero order kinetics indicated release of zinc from less labile soil
331 reservoirs. Kinetic modelling of zinc release in stage 1 allowed the kinetics of release from
332 seaweed-only to be determined: seaweed released zinc rapidly, following parabolic kinetics.
333 Hence, seaweed is understood to contribute all its zinc to the stage 1 labile reservoir
334 exclusively, thereby increasing the overall flux from this reservoir. Soil application of seaweed
335 as a low cost and readily available organic fertilizer provides a source of rapid release, labile
336 zinc and presents potential value in meeting the challenge of zinc deficiency in soils.

337

338 **6. References**

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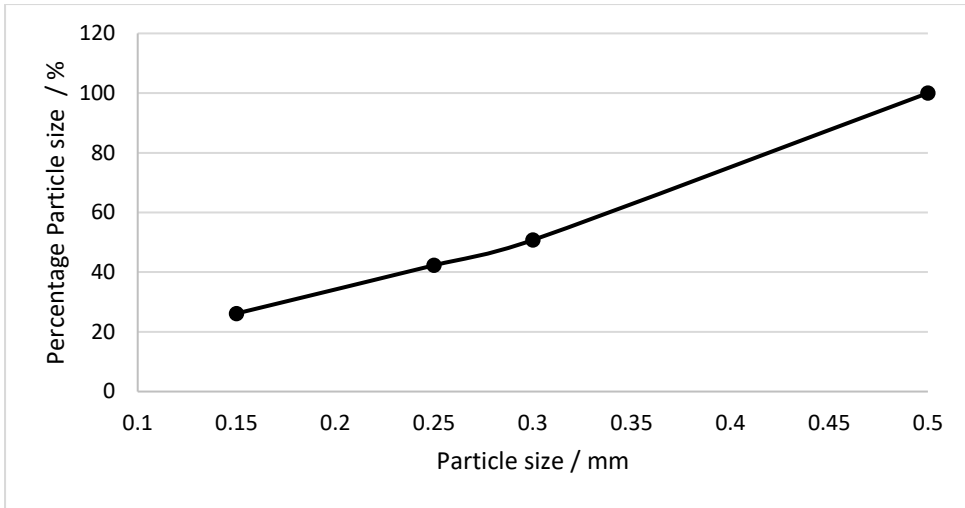
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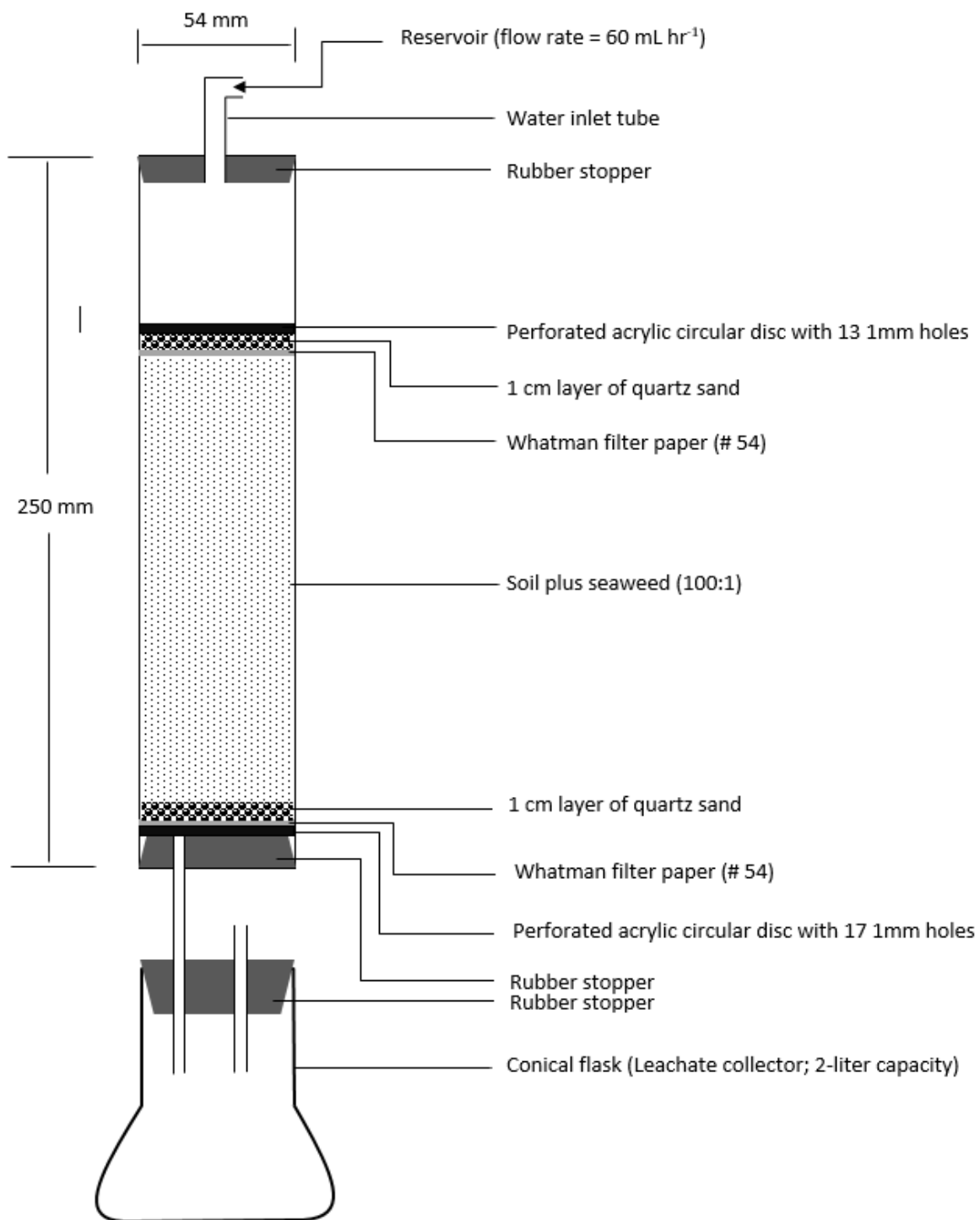
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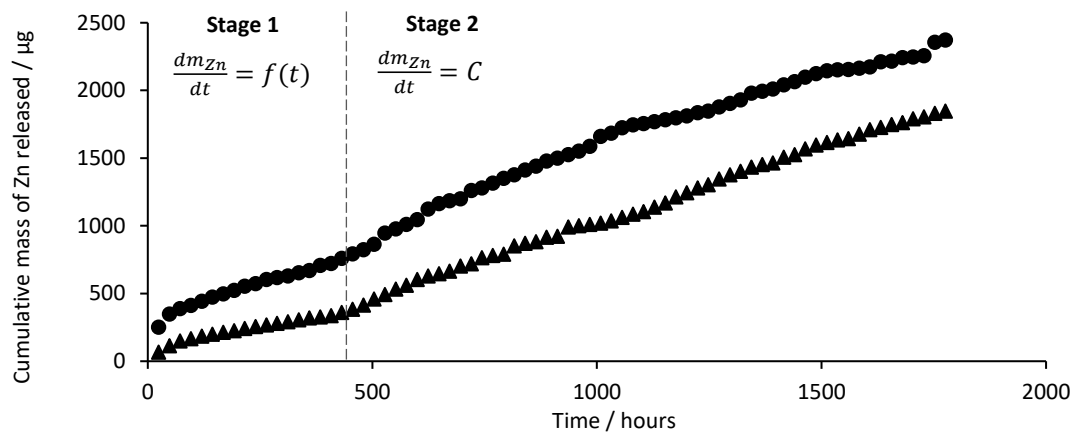
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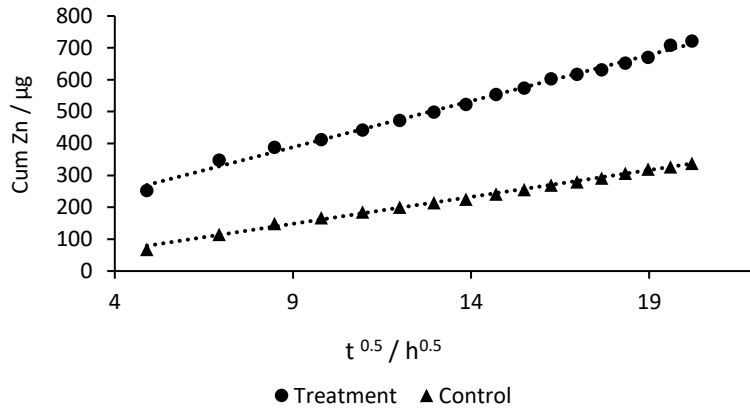
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531 Table 1: Kinetic models of Zn release from soil system used in this study

Kinetic Model	*Equation	Parameters
Zero order	$\frac{m_{\infty} - m_t}{\sigma} = \frac{m_{\infty}}{\sigma} - kt$	
First order	$\ln \left[\frac{m_{\infty} - m_t}{\sigma} \right] = \left[\ln \frac{m_{\infty}}{\sigma} \right] - kt$	m_{∞} mass of Zn at time infinity / μg m_t mass of Zn at time t / μg a, b, k : rate constants t time / hours σ : mass of soil / g
Elovich	$\frac{m_{\infty} - m_t}{\sigma} = \frac{1}{b} \ln(ab) + \frac{1}{b} \ln t$	
Power function	$\ln \left(\frac{m_{\infty} - m_t}{\sigma} \right) = \ln a + b \ln t$	
Parabolic diffusion	$\frac{m_{\infty} - m_t}{\sigma} = \frac{m_{\infty}}{\sigma} - kt^{0.5}$	

532 *Adapted from *Martin and Sparks, 1983; Havlin et al., 1985; Sparks 2003; Wu et al., 2009*

533

Table 2: Initial chemical characteristics of *F. serratus* used in this study.

Biomass	Zn / mg kg ⁻¹	C / %	N / %	pH	Hemicellulose %	Cellulose %	Lignin %	C/N ratio	Lignin/N ratio
<i>F. serratus</i>	71 ± 2	40.1	1.58	5.72	0.09	13.4	28.22	25	17.9

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536

537 Table 3: Parameters for each kinetic model for the two stages of Zn release (stages 1 and 2 for both control and treatment). For the Elovich model, the constant, b, is given. The
 538 units for the rate constants are as follows: $\mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ (zero order); h^{-1} (first order); $\mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ (Elovich); $\mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ (power function); $\mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-0.5}$ (parabolic).

Stages		Zero order			First order			Elovich			Power function			Parabolic Diffusion		
		<i>k</i>	R ²	SE	<i>k</i>	R ²	SE	<i>b</i>	R ²	SE	<i>k</i>	R ²	SE	<i>k</i>	R ²	SE
Control	1	0.629	0.965	0.031	0.006	0.956	0.000	0.010	0.969	4.465	0.805	0.763	0.116	16.847	0.996	0.261
	2	1.109	0.998	0.007	0.002	0.821	0.000	0.001	0.973	25.185	2.157	0.703	0.193	71.096	0.993	0.830
Treatment	1	1.085	0.970	0.049	0.006	0.939	0.000	0.006	0.959	8.740	0.778	0.741	0.119	28.949	0.995	0.524
	2	1.130	0.980	0.022	0.002	0.859	0.000	0.001	0.997	9.203	2.001	0.769	0.151	73.165	0.996	0.679

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540

541 *Figure 1: Cumulative particle size distribution of ground F. Serratus.*

542 *Figure 2: Schematic representation of the soil column apparatus used to study the kinetics of zinc release.*

543

544 *Figure 3: Cumulative mass of zinc released from treatment (soil + F. serratus; filled circles) and control (soil only; filled*
545 *triangles) over the course of the 1,776 hour leaching experiment. The inflection at approx. 400 hours defines two stages of*
546 *release kinetics: in stage 1 the cumulative release rate is a function of time; in stage 2 the rate is constant.*

547

548 *Figure 4: Fit of parabolic diffusion model to the cumulative zinc release data from treatment (soil + F. serratus; filled circles)*
549 *and control (soil only; filled triangles) over the course of the 408 hours of stage 1 release. These model fits best describe the*
550 *kinetics of zinc release during this time period and are used subsequently to calculate zinc release from seaweed.*

551