### **IODINE BIOAVAILABILITY IN ACIDIC SOILS OF NORTHERN IRELAND.**

Bowley H.E.<sup>1,2</sup>, Young S.D.<sup>1,\*</sup>, Ander E.L.<sup>2</sup>, Crout N.M.J.<sup>1</sup>, Watts M.J.<sup>2</sup> & Bailey E.H.<sup>1</sup> \* Corresponding Author: scott.young@nottingham.ac.uk

<sup>1</sup> University of Nottingham, School of Biosciences, Sutton Bonington Campus, Loughborough, Leicestershire, LE12 5RD UK.

<sup>2</sup> British Geological Survey, Keyworth, Nottingham, NG12 5GG, UK.

## **Abstract**

1 Iodine is an essential trace element for humans and grazing animals and is often deficient. Our aim was 2 to investigate the role of soil properties in retaining and 'fixing' iodine in soils and thereby controlling its 3 phyto-availability to grass. Soils were spiked with labelled <sup>129</sup>IO<sub>3</sub> and rye grass (*Lolium perenne* L.) was 4 grown to measure iodine uptake by grass as a function of yield, soil properties and continuous <sup>127</sup>l inputs 5 from irrigation water. Iodine-129 added at the start of the uptake trial was rapidly fixed ( $t<sub>x</sub>$  c. 40 hr) into 6 non-labile humus-bound forms in soil. The  $^{129}$ I/<sup>127</sup>I isotopic ratio in grass, compared to the ratio in soil, 7 declined over time confirming progressive  $129$  fixation into the soil solid phase. The rate of fixation was 8 controlled by soil properties. A model describing iodine dynamics and uptake accounted for c. 75% of the 9 variation in iodine concentration in grass. For most of the soils studied, the main source of iodine in 10 herbage probably arises from the transient availability of periodic rainfall inputs rather than from soil 11 sources. This is expected to improve biofortification strategies.

### **Highlights**

- Vegetation I concentration may be controlled by recent I inputs rather than (re)supply from soil
- Iodine is rapidly fixed into non-labile humus-bound forms in soils ( $t_{\gamma}$  c. 40 hr)
- Rate of iodine fixation is controlled by soil properties
- Irrigation water inputs of iodine will likely provide the most effective biofortification strategy.

### **Keywords**

Iodine; rainfall input; irrigation input; soil; plant uptake; speciation.

### **1. Introduction**

12 Iodine (I) is an essential trace element for humans and grazing animals and low dietary concentrations give rise to a range of iodine deficiency diseases (IDDs). While IDDs are frequently reported in remote continental regions (Johnson et al., 1999; Johnson et al., 2002; Fordyce et al., 2003; Watts and Mitchell, 2009), they are not exclusive to these areas (Kelly and Snedden, 1960). For example, IDDs have been reported in the UK, where iodine concentrations in soil are not considered to be low (Whitehead 1973b; Phillips, 1997; Saikat et al., 2004). There is also anecdotal evidence of cattle in Northern Ireland (NI) suffering from IDDs despite soil iodine concentrations that are high in comparison with other European and worldwide values (Smyth and Johnson, 2011). Thus, soil iodine concentration alone cannot be the 20 only predictor of the likelihood of IDDs; other factors must be involved (Stewart et al., 2003; Saikat et al., 2004).

22 Soil iodine concentration represents a balance between iodine input from rainfall and marine sources, and output through leaching and uptake by vegetation (Fuge, 1996; Fuge and Johnson, 2015), with soil properties determining the extent of retention. Typically only a small fraction of soil iodine is phyto- available. Factors which encourage retention in soils probably also operate to reduce iodine availability 26 to vegetation. Iodine in vegetation originates from the medium in which it grows (Whitehead, 1975), rainfall or direct aerial deposition (Whitehead, 1984; Shaw et al., 2007; Tschiersch et al., 2009). It may 28 therefore be expected that low concentrations of iodine in vegetation and associated IDDs in grazing animals are more likely in low rainfall inland locations - although such an assumption is potentially compromised by iodine contributions from groundwater used in irrigation. Furthermore, low iodine in grass and in animal feedstuffs may then result in low iodine concentrations in milk, an important dietary source in human populations (Bath et al., 2012; Bath et al., 2017; Schöne et al., 2017).

 Biofortification by addition of iodine to soil, or directly to plants, has been studied for more than 90 years as a means of improving dietary intake, but with mixed sucess (Hercus and Roberts 1927; Orr, et al. 1928; Smith et al. 1999; Landini et al. 2011; Cakmak et al. 2017). Addition of iodine to crops via irrigation water seems particularly effective for increasing human and animal intake (Cao et al. 1994; Fordyce et al. 2003; Ren et al. 2008) and it is now widely accepted that understanding the dynamic equilibrium between phyto-available and unavailable forms is essential for optimum iodine management (Fordyce et al. 2003; Johnson 2003).

 Iodine is not an essential element for plant growth (Whitehead 1973c). Purely 'passive' uptake in the transpiration stream might result in iodine assimilation being strongly related to uptake of soil solution. However there is evidence to suggest this does not occur. Whitehead (1973c) observed that more iodide was taken up by rye grass, timothy and clover grown hydroponically than would be expected from purely passive uptake, and Weng et al. (2008b) found that iodine concentration in radish, aubergine and 45 cucumber increased linearly up to soil iodine concentrations of ~55 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>, after which the rate of uptake decreased. Iodine speciation is also important – both in relation to affinity for plants and reaction with 47 soil. Dai et al. (2006) found that iodate uptake from potted soil by spinach was greater than uptake of iodide; this contrasts with observations from hydroponic studies (Zhu et al. 2003). Thus, Dai et al. (2006) found that iodide concentrations in the soil solution were lower than those of iodate - an observation consistent with work by Shetaya et al. (2012) who demonstrated that iodide was more rapidly fixed by soils than iodate. Kashparov et al. (2005) compared uptake into radish, lettuce, beans and wheat from four types of  $^{125}$ I-contaminated soil and concluded that both plant species and soil type affect iodine phyto-availability.

 This aim of this work was to investigate the role of soil properties in (i) retaining iodine in soils and thereby (ii) controlling its phyto-availability, using Northern Ireland (NI) as the study area. The sorption rates of iodide and iodate in soils are critically dependent on soil properties (Shetaya et al., 2012; Duborská et al., 2019). The balance between iodine inputs and outputs and the effect of soil properties were investigated using soil and vegetation sampled at a range of distances from the coast in areas that have contrasting rainfall inputs and soil types. In addition the bioavailability of iodine to rye grass was also established for 60 the same soils, spiked with , in a pot experiment. Rye grass has been used to investigate iodine dynamics previously (Whitehead 1973c; Whitehead 1975; Ashworth and Shaw 2006), and is particularly important due to its widespread use as a fodder crop, thereby providing a link between soil and the human diet, via transfer from grass to dairy products, as well as being directly linked with animal health (Barry et al. 1983; Hauschild and Aumann 1989; Smith et al. 2006).

Our specific objectives were to:

- investigate the relationship between iodine concentrations in soil and grassland vegetation in a range of soils from NI;
- grow ryegrass on the same soils and determine how plant uptake varies as a function of soil 69 properties, yield and growth rate, using a single initial spike of iodine  $(129)$ ) and continuous 70 addition of iodine in irrigation water  $(1271)$ ;
- 71 investigate changes in the proportions of spiked iodine in the grass over time, as progressive sorption of the  $^{129}$ -spike occurred;
- **•** develop and parameterise a predictive model to quantify plant iodine uptake as a function of soil properties and time.

### **2. Materials and Methods**

#### *2.1 Soil and plant sampling and characterisation*

75 Soils were sampled from twenty sites across eastern NI chosen to cover a range of properties (pH, organic 76 carbon and total I concentration), underlying geology and distances from the coast. At each location five 77 topsoil (0-15 cm) sub-samples were obtained using an auger at the corners and centre of a square ( $\approx$  20 78 m x 20 m), combined (c. 1 kg), and placed into paper bags for transport. Samples were subsequently 79 allowed to air dry just sufficiently to be sieved to < 4 mm before storage at 4<sup>o</sup>C under aerobic conditions. 80 The intention was to preserve the soil biota and provide an aggregate size suitable for a pot trial. 81 Vegetation was sampled close to the five soil sampling positions, using stainless steel scissors; care was 82 taken to exclude soil. The five sub-samples were combined, mixed and divided into two samples; one 83 portion was washed in Milli-Q (MQ) water (18.2 MΩ cm) and both samples then oven-dried at 30°C for 3 84 days, cut into 1 cm lengths and ground in a centrifugal mill (Retsch ZM200). Samples were stored in the 85 dark at room temperature.

86 Soil pH was determined in water (1:2.5 or 1:3.5 for organic soils) after shaking for 30 minutes. Organic 87 carbon was determined using an Elementar Vario Max C/N analyser on ground soil that had been dried 88 (at 100-105°C) in Ag cups, acidified with excess 50% v/v HCl and then further dried (100-105°C) for 90 89 minutes before combustion at  $1050^{\circ}$ C.

 Reactive Fe, Mn and Al oxides were determined using a method (DCB) adapted from Kostka and Luther (1994) and Anschutz et al. (1998). To 0.3 g of dry, ground soil 25 mL of 0.22 M tri-sodium citrate, 0.11 M 92 sodium hydrogen carbonate and 0.1 M sodium dithionite was added. Samples were shaken at 45 °C for 22 hr before being centrifuged for 20 min at 3000 rpm, filtered using 0.22 μm Millipore filters, and diluted 94 with 2 % trace analysis grade (TAG)  $HNO<sub>3</sub>$  before analysis by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS; Thermo–Fisher Scientific X-series II) operated in collision cell mode (7% helium in hydrogen). Scandium, Ge and Rh were used as internal standards. Calibration was undertaken using 0-  $100 \mu g$  L<sup>-1</sup> Fe, Mn and Al standards (Spex CertiPrep).

#### *2.2 Rainfall*

98 Rainfall samples were collected over seven day periods at Hillsborough, Co. Down, NI, between January 99 and June 2012 using permanently open bulk collectors. Samples were stored unfiltered at  $4^{\circ}$ C and 100 analysed for total iodine with, and without, addition of 0.1% tetramethyl ammonium hydroxide (TMAH) 101 as a test of preservation.

### *2.3 Pot trial: experimental approach*

102 Moist soil (c. 900 g) was mixed with  $^{129}$ IO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> at rates equivalent to 64.1 g ha<sup>-1</sup> of I then split equally 103 between three replicate pots (c. 300 g per pot, surface area of pot 64 cm<sup>2</sup>). Pots were necessarily small 104 because of the <sup>129</sup> I addition. Additions of iodine were based on area rather than mass as this most 105 closely mimics rainfall inputs. Fifteen soils with a range of SOC between 3.46 – 22.9% had mass based 106 concentrations between 0.108 -0.263 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>. Five soils where SOC was between 39 – 53.4% had mass 107 based concentrations in the range 0.400-1.021 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>. The average ratio <sup>129</sup>I/<sup>127</sup>I was 2.5 ± 1.7%.

 Perennial ryegrass (*Lolium perenne*) seeds (1 g per pot) were sown on the surface of the soil. Iodate-129 was prepared from a National Institute of Standards (NIST) certified iodide standard by oxidation with 110 sodium chlorite using a method adapted from (Yntema and Fleming, 1939). Successful oxidation to IO<sub>3</sub> was confirmed by ICP-MS with in-line chromatographic separation using a Dionex ICS-3000 ion chromatography system operated in isocratic mode with a Hamilton PRP-X100 anion exchange column 113 (250 x 4.6 mm; 5 µm particle size). The mobile phase was 60 mmol L<sup>-1</sup> NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub>, 1 x 10<sup>-5</sup> mmol L<sup>-1</sup> Na<sub>2</sub>-114 EDTA, 2% methanol, pH was adjusted to 9.5 with TMAH; the eluent flow rate was 1.3 mL min<sup>-1</sup>. Ryegrass was germinated and grown for 15 weeks under conditions typical of June in NI (Belfast); sunrise at 04.45, with full light intensity 2 hr later; sunset commenced at 19.45, with full darkness 2 hr later; average temperatures were 17 °C in the daytime and 9 °C at night; average daytime light level was 118 250 µmol s<sup>-1</sup> m<sup>-2</sup>. Pots were fertilised with KNO<sub>3</sub> in water at a rate equivalent to 50 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> on days 31, 45, 67 and 90 after sowing. Soil moisture content was maintained by adding small volumes of deionised water to the soil surface every 1–3 days to minimise drainage. For 12 days during the growing period, the 121 volume of water added to each pot was recorded, to give an estimated daily water input per pot.

122 Grass was cut on four occasions (cuts 1-4) at a height of approximately 1 cm from the soil surface on days 123 29, 44, 67 and 104 (growth intervals of 28, 15, 23 and 37 days respectively), transferred to paper bags and 124 dried at 30 °C for 3 days before chopping into small pieces with stainless steel scissors. Yield of dry 125 material was recorded for each sample. After the final harvest, sufficient deionised water was added to 126 all pots to make the soils wet, but not draining, the potted soil was incubated in this state for 3 days. A 127 portion of wet soil was then centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 20 mins using custom-made centrifuge tubes 128 (Di Bonito et al., 2008) to collect the soil solution which was then filtered to  $\leq$  0.45 µm using Millex syringe 129 filters and stored at 4 °C before analysis.

130 Iodine in soil and chopped grass samples was determined after extraction in TMAH according to the 131 method of Watts & Mitchell (2009) with the following amendments: 20 mL water was added after heating 132 and vegetation samples were left overnight to allow any suspended plant material to settle before 133 filtration (0.22 µm) directly into tubes for analysis. Soil extracts were diluted to 1 % TMAH immediately

- 134 before analysis. Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) in soil solution samples was determined, by difference,
- 135 after analysis of *total* carbon and dissolved *inorganic* carbon (DIC) using a Shimadzu TOC-VCPH analyser.

### *2.4 Iodine analysis*

136 Total iodine concentrations ( $^{127}$ I and  $^{129}$ I) in soil and grass extracts, soil solution, irrigation water (deionised 137 water) and rainfall was measured by ICP-MS using Rh and Re (10  $\mu$ g L<sup>-1</sup>) as internal standards. Stock 138 standards for <sup>127</sup>I were prepared at 1000 mg L<sup>-1</sup> of I from oven-dried KI and KIO<sub>3</sub>, and stored at 4 °C in 1 % 139 TMAH. Standards for <sup>129</sup>I analysis were diluted from a stock <sup>129</sup>I NIST SRM 4949C standard solution which 140 also contained <sup>127</sup>l equivalent to c. 12% of the <sup>129</sup>l concentration. A correction for <sup>127</sup>l when spiking with 141 <sup>129</sup>I was implemented. All standards were freshly diluted in 1 % TMAH or Milli-Q water as required before 142 each analytical run. Limits of detection (3 x standard deviation of operational blanks) were 0.047  $\mu$ g L<sup>-1</sup> 143 for  $127$ I and 0.014  $\mu$ g L<sup>-1</sup> for  $129$ I.

144 Iodine speciation in soil solution samples was determined using size exclusion chromatography (SEC) ICP-145 MS. Samples (25 µl) were introduced directly into the nebuliser from a Superose 12 10/300 GL column 146 (GE Healthcare) at a flowrate of 1 ml min<sup>-1</sup> using isocratic elution with a 0.1 M tris(hydroxymethyl)amine 147 (TRIS) eluent adjusted to pH 8.8 with 50 % TAG HNO<sub>3</sub>. Concentrations of inorganic iodine species required 148 calibration standards of  $^{127}$ I,  $^{127}$ IO<sub>3</sub>,  $^{129}$ I and  $^{129}$ IO<sub>3</sub>. Organic iodine concentrations were calculated for 149 each isotope by difference. Drift correction was applied using repeated standards through the run. Limits 150 of detection were 0.25 µg L<sup>-1</sup> for both isotopes. A Xe correction factor for <sup>129</sup>I (typically c. 1.08) was 151 calculated individually for each run to give an average <sup>129</sup>I baseline of zero and applied to speciation data 152 before peak integration (Equation 1):

$$
^{129}I_{corr} = {}^{129}I_{meas} - (x \times {}^{131}Xe_{meas})
$$
 Eq. 1

153 where  $^{129}$ *l<sub>corr</sub>* = corrected counts per second (CPS) for  $^{129}$ *l*;  $^{129}$ *l<sub>meas</sub>* = measured CPS for  $^{129}$ *l*;  $x$  = correction 154 factor due to the presence of  $^{129}$ Xe in argon plasma;  $^{131}$ Xe<sub>meas</sub> = measured CPS for  $^{131}$ Xe.

### *2.5 Modelling*

155 The concentration of iodine in grass was calculated as the product of a concentration ratio (CR) and soil 156 (abile' iodine (L; mg mL<sup>-1</sup> of soil) which was assumed to be subject to first-order exchange with 'non-labile' 157 iodine (N; mg mL<sup>-1</sup> of soil) (Figure 1). The model is expressed as

$$
\frac{dL}{dt} = -k_1 L + k_2 N + I
$$
 Eq. 2

$$
\frac{dN}{dt} = k_1 L - k_2 N \tag{Eq. 3}
$$

$$
I_G = CR \times L \tag{Eq. 4}
$$

158 where I<sub>G</sub> is the grass concentration (mg kg<sup>-1</sup>), k<sub>1</sub> and k<sub>2</sub> are rate coefficients (hr<sup>-1</sup>) and I is the rate of iodine 159 addition (mg mL<sup>-1</sup> of soil).

 $160$  The model was solved simultaneously for  $1271$  and  $1291$  using the same values of the rate coefficient and 161 concentration ratio for both isotopes. Such an approach assumes a lack of any isotopic discrimination. 162 Initial conditions reflected the experimental design; i.e. the spike  $^{129}$  was assumed to be initially labile and 163 non-labile <sup>129</sup>l was set to zero. Any pre-existing <sup>127</sup>l was assumed to be at an equilibrium distribution 164 between labile ( $L_{127}$ ) and non-labile (N<sub>127</sub>) according to

165 
$$
L_{127} = \frac{k_2}{k_1 + k_2}^{127} I_S
$$
 Eq.5

166 
$$
N_{127} = \frac{k_1}{k_1 + k_2}^{127} I_S
$$
 Eq.6

167 where  $^{127}$ I<sub>S</sub> is the total soil  $^{127}$ I concentration prior to the experiment.

168 In order to identify potentially applicable relationships with soil pH and organic matter concentration the 169 parameters  $k_1$ ,  $k_2$  and CR were initially estimated individually for each soil by fitting the predicted plant 170 concentrations of  $^{127}$ I and  $^{129}$ I to the time series of observed values. These results indicated a number of 171 possible alternative model formulations to relate  $k_1$ ,  $k_2$  and CR to soil pH and organic carbon across the 172 range of soils studied so a number of candidate models were systematically considered (Table A, 173 Electronic Annex (EA)). Initially, linear functions were used to relate the model parameters defined in 174 Table A (EA) to soil characteristics, but in the case of CR this was noted to lead to the possibility of CR < 0 175 at higher pH values. Therefore, an exponential relationship between CR and pH was also included (models  $176$  E<sup>\*</sup>-G<sup>\*</sup> in Table A, EA).

177 The models were implemented using *OpenModel* (www.openmodel.info) and solved using a 4<sup>th</sup> order 178 Runge-Kutta procedure (Press et al., 1986). Model fitting was undertaken using the log-transformed 179 observed concentrations of <sup>127</sup>l and <sup>129</sup>l in grass samples using the Marquardt-Levenberg method (Press 180 et al., 1986). Akaike (AIC) and Bayesian Information Criteria (BIC) were used for model selection (e.g. 181 Myung and Pitt, 2002).

### **3. Results and Discussion**

### *3.1 Soil Characteristics*

182 All soils were acidic, with pH values in the range 2.8 - 5.9 (median = 4.79) and total organic carbon 183 concentrations between 3 and 53% (median 8.22%). Reactive oxide Mn was typically < 1 g kg<sup>-1</sup>, with 184 slightly more Al (median 2.2 g kg<sup>-1</sup>) and greater concentrations of Fe (median 10.2 g kg<sup>-1</sup>) (Table 1). Soil 185 iodine concentrations (I<sub>S</sub>, Table 2) varied substantially; most were in the range 2.89 - 32.0 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>, but two

186 soils (sampled close to the coast) contained substantially more iodine (NI05 = 274 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> and NI08 = 127 187 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>). The median iodine concentration for all samples was 10.6 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>. Measured I<sub>s</sub> values were in 188 good agreement with those determined by X-ray Fluorescence Spectroscopy (XRFS) as part of the Tellus 189 survey (Smyth and Johnson, 2011). In the context of European and worldwide soil iodine values (European 190 mean 5.56 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>, worldwide range 0.1 – 72 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> and mean 5.09 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>), the I<sub>s</sub> concentrations 191 measured were relatively high (Johnson 2003a; Smyth and Johnson, 2011). They were also slightly higher 192 than the reported range for UK soils (0.5 – 98.2 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>, mean 9.2 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>, Whitehead (1979)), reflecting 193 the relative proximity of the entire NI landmass to the sea.

 The highest iodine concentrations were observed in peats and humic rankers where pH was low (2.8 – 3.7) and SOC was high (38 – 53 %), promoting retention of large amounts of aerially deposited iodine (Keppler et al. 2003) (Table 2). The gley soils had lower iodine concentrations which may be a consequence of waterlogging resulting in reducing conditions and iodide formation, which is less well adsorbed by metal oxides and leached (Muramatsu et al., 1990; Allard et al., 2009; Dai et al., 2009). A significant positive correlation between SOC and I<sup>S</sup> (r = 0.642, p = 0.004) was observed when the two soils with highest iodine 200 concentrations (NI05 and NI08) were excluded. A significant negative correlation between soil pH and Is 201 (r = -0.584, p = 0.011) was also observed but no correlation was seen between  $I_s$  and Al, Fe or Mn content 202 although metal oxides are an important reservoir of iodine in some soils, particularly at pH < 5 (Whitehead, 1973a; Schmitz and Aumann, 1995). Organic matter is generally more important for iodine retention (Sheppard and Thibault, 1992; Hansen et al., 2011), especially under low pH conditions such as podzolic 205 soils and peats. Shetaya et al., (2012) discuss the inter-relationship of Fe/Al oxides, humus and pH in 206 determining the fixation rates and retention of iodine in soils.

### *3.2 Vegetation iodine – Field samples*

207 Vegetation iodine concentration ( $I_V$ , Table 2) was determined on both unwashed samples and the same 208 samples washed in MQ water. Concentrations ranged from 0.185 – 3.62 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> (median 0.758 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) 209 in unwashed samples and were similar in washed samples (0.174 – 2.61 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>; median 0.730 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>). 210 There was no significant difference between the two sets of results (paired t-test,  $p = 0.366$ ) therefore 211 only unwashed vegetation values will be discussed. The concentrations measured were within the ranges 212 of those quoted in the literature for a variety of vegetation and soil types from field studies (e.g. 213 Whitehead, 1984; McGrath & Fleming, 1988; Rui et al., 2009) but higher by a factor of ten than those 214 observed by Johnson et al. (2002) in areas of Morocco where IDDs are common.

215 A significant positive correlation between  $I_5$  and  $I_1$  was observed for all samples:  $r = 0.756$ ,  $p < 0.001$ , which 216 was weaker when the two soils with very high iodine concentrations (NI05 and NI08) were removed:  $r =$ 217 0.625, p = 0.006 (Figure 2). Values of  $I_V$  in these two soils were comparable to those in other vegetation  $218$  samples of similar type despite the corresponding Is values being up to a factor of ten greater. Similar

- 219 observations were made in experiments by Weng et al. (2008a; 2008b). They observed an approximate
- 220 Iinear increase in I<sub>V</sub> for cucumbers, radishes and aubergines and Chinese cabbage up to I<sub>s</sub>  $\approx$  50 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>,
- 221 beyond which point the rate of increase in  $I_v$  dropped.
- 222 The concentration ratios (CR;  $I_V/I_S$ ) determined in this study ranged from 0.00953 to 0.277 (median =
- 223 0.0612). The values are, with one exception (NI01, CR = 0.277), within the ranges quoted in other studies
- 224 (e.g. Sheppard et al. 1993).

#### *3.3 Rainfall Iodine*

- 225 Measured iodine concentrations in rainfall samples ( $I_{IR}$ ) are presented in Table B (EA). They ranged from 226 0.778 - 6.36  $\mu$ g L<sup>-1</sup> (median 2.25  $\mu$ g L<sup>-1</sup>) with no apparent dependence on season. There was no significant 227 difference between values measured in the presence or absence of 0.1 % TMAH therefore the mean of 228 the two values has been used. Concentrations were similar to those reported for Western Europe: 229 Aldahan et al. (2009) reported 2.37 - 2.77  $\mu$ g L<sup>-1</sup> at low-altitude sites in Sweden and Denmark and 1.05  $\mu$ g 230 I L<sup>-1</sup> at higher altitudes. Over the North Sea, Campos et al. (1996) measured 0.86  $\pm$  0.95 µg L<sup>-1</sup>. Neal et al. (2007) determined a value of 1.55 µg L<sup>-1</sup> in rainfall over Wales and a concentration of 1.27 µg L<sup>-1</sup> was 232 reported for Wallingford, England (Truesdale and Jones, 1996).
- 233 A significant linear correlation between total annual rainfall and  $I_s$  was observed (r = 0.671, p = 0.002)
- 234 when the two highest iodine soils (NI05 & NI08) were excluded, in agreement with the observations of
- 235 other studies (Schnell and Aumann, 1999; Truesdale and Jones, 1996; Aldahan et al., 2009). No significant
- 236 relationship between total annual rainfall and  $I_V$  was observed.

### *3.4 Pot Trial*

237 *3.4.1. Total iodine in soil and grass*

238 All <sup>127</sup>I concentrations in grass  $(^{127}I_G)$  were above the limit of detection (LOD) for all cuts and, excluding 239 soils NI05 and NI08, ranged from 92.7 to 627  $\mu$ g kg<sup>-1</sup> (median 195  $\mu$ g kg<sup>-1</sup>) which represented 4.66 x 10<sup>-4</sup> % 240 to 2.51 % (median 0.347 %) of the <sup>127</sup>I content of the soil based on concentrations and masses of grass 241 and soil. Concentrations of <sup>127</sup>I<sub>G</sub> in NI05 and NI08 were higher than in other samples (1.22 – 4.23 µg kg<sup>-1</sup> 242 and 0.274 – 2.90 µg kg<sup>-1</sup> respectively) but uptake as a proportion of soil iodine content was similar. One 243 soil (NI16) did not support grass growth but typically growth was healthy and showed no sign of nutrient 244 deficiency (Figure B, EA).

245 Concentrations of <sup>129</sup>I<sub>G</sub> were 0.00 – 15 µg kg<sup>-1</sup> (Table 2) and, with a few exceptions (NI13 cuts 2-4, NI14 246 cuts 2 & 3 and NI07 cut 4), were above the LOD for iodine analysis. As a percentage of  $^{129}$ I<sub>S</sub>, uptake was 247 very low in all cases, at 0.0003 % - 4.53 % (median 0.276 %). Post-harvest recovery of  $^{129}$ I<sub>s</sub> was estimated 248 by extraction of soil with 10% TMAH and comparison with the amount applied. Recovery ranged from 249 77 % (NI10) to 100 % (NI08), excluding one soil (NI04, 51%) where analytical error was suspected; the 250 median % recovery of  $^{129}$ I added was 88 %. The high % recovery of added  $^{129}$ I confirms strong retention 251 of both iodide and iodate by soil with limited uptake by grass or loss by leaching or volatilization. A 252 significant positive correlation was observed between  $^{127}I_6$  and  $^{127}I_5$  (r = 0.818, p < 0.01), however, this 253 was dominated by soils NI05 and NI08 and the correlation was not significant when these soils were 254 excluded. Concentrations of  $^{127}$ I<sub>G</sub> were also generally greater in later cuts. For  $^{129}$ I, concentrations in the 255 grass progressively decreased in sequential cuts. The correlation of  $^{129}$ I<sub>G</sub> against  $^{129}$ I<sub>s</sub> was not significant.  $256$  Although the same  $^{129}$  spike was added to all soils, those with larger SOC contents had a greater 257 gravimetric concentration of  $^{129}$  due to their lower dry bulk densities. Soils with large SOC contents may 258 also be expected to sorb the  $^{129}$ I more quickly. Thus, the overall trend in uptake with  $^{129}$ I concentration is 259 complicated by these contradictory factors.

# 260 *3.4.2. Effect of Yield and Growth Rate*

261 Yield information for all cuts is presented in Figure A (Electronic Annex). Yield varied more between soils 262 than between cuts of grass growing in the same soil with the result that no correlation was observed 263 between yield and the growth period of each cut ( $t<sub>G</sub>$ , days); differences in yield between soils were 264 ascribed mainly to variation in pH (Table 1 and EA Fig. A). The median yield (dw) for all soils and cuts was 265 0.593 g, with a range of 0.257 to 1.36 g per pot, excluding soils NI10 (0.140 – 0.231 g) and NI17 (0.133 – 266 0.273 g). An influence of growth period ( $t_G$ ) on <sup>127</sup>l<sub>G</sub> was observed where, for each soil, <sup>127</sup>l<sub>G</sub> followed the 267 pattern cut 2 < cut 3  $\approx$  cut 1 < cut 4, reflecting the number of days of growth between cuts. No relationship 268 between  $^{129}$ I<sub>G</sub> and t<sub>G</sub> was observed suggesting continuing soil sorption of the single initial addition of  $^{129}$ I 269 determined availability during the pot trial. To check whether the variation in t<sub>G</sub> and yield influenced <sup>127</sup>l<sub>G</sub> 270 and <sup>129</sup>I<sub>G</sub>, a growth rate GR (g day<sup>-1</sup>) was calculated for each soil, cut and replicate as the ratio of Y (g) to  $271$  t<sub>G</sub> (days). No significant correlations were found.. Plant available iodine in soil solution must result from 272 transient rainfall inputs and/or replenishment from sorbed iodine (Dai, et al. 2009; Landini, et al. 2011; 273 Shetaya, et al. 2012) therefore at higher rates of growth, if plant iodine uptake exceeds the rate at which  $274$  it can be replenished, lower overall I<sub>v</sub> concentrations would be expected.

275 To further understand the influence of soil on iodine uptake, it is useful to consider the ratio of  $^{129}I_6$  to  $276$  <sup>127</sup>l<sub>G</sub> as an index of relative availability especially because all soils contained different gravimetric 277 concentrations of <sup>127</sup>l and <sup>129</sup>l. A 'grass/soil ratio' ( $I<sub>G/S</sub>$ ) can be expressed as in Eq. 7;

278 
$$
I_{G/S} = \frac{129_{I_G} 127_{I_S}}{127_{I_G} 129_{I_S}}
$$
 Eq. 7

279 where  $I<sub>G/S</sub>$  is the ratio of <sup>129</sup>I to <sup>127</sup>I in the grass divided by the equivalent ratio in the soil. If spiked <sup>129</sup>I is 280 initially more available than <sup>127</sup>l then you would expect  $I_{G/S} > 1$  with a decrease towards  $I_{G/S} = 1$  with 281 progressive mixing of the two isotopes within the soil. Most soils did show a relative reduction in  $^{129}$ 282 availability over the four cuts (Figure 3), however  $I_{G/S}$  was < 1 for most soils even for the first cut. This  $283$  would be unexpected considering only soil iodine sources because the added  $^{129}$ I should be more 284 bioavailable than the native soil  $127$ . However, the data reflect the role of  $127$  in the irrigation water 285 (0.8  $\mu$ g L<sup>-1</sup>) added throughout the trial which was apparently more phyto-available than the <sup>129</sup>l spike by 286 the time of the first cut. Apparent concentrations ratios (CR,  $I_G/I_S$ ) for both isotopes were similar but 287 generally greater for  $127$ , again emphasising the important role of irrigation water in providing phyto-288 available iodine. This is consistent with findings of Smoleń et al. (2016) who showed greater iodine 289 bioavailability to spinach from continuous fertigation than from initial soil applications of iodate.

290 An approximately constant value of I<sub>G/S</sub>, across all 4 cuts was observed for three soils (NI09, NI10 & NI17) 291 vith SOC concentrations > 38% suggesting that very rapid sorption of the single initial  $^{129}$ IO<sub>3</sub> spike 292 (Shetaya, et al. 2012) may have resulted in a pseudo-steady state before cut 1. Whitehead (1975) 293 demonstrated that adding organic matter to a sandy loam soil reduced ryegrass uptake of recently added 294 iodine (as KI, KIO<sub>3</sub> and  $I_2$ ).

### 295 *3.4.3. Role of irrigation water*

296 It is possible to estimate the proportion of iodine in grass originating from irrigation water if time-297 dependent changes in phyto-availability of added <sup>129</sup>l are ignored and perfect mixing is assumed between 298 added <sup>129</sup>I and native soil iodine (<sup>127</sup>I<sub>s</sub>). The added <sup>129</sup>I is then simply a label for the soil iodine permitting 299 discrimination between iodine in grass originating from irrigation water <sup>127</sup> I<sub>G(IR)</sub> and from soil (I<sub>G(S)</sub>). Whilst 300 the assumption of perfect isotopic mixing in the soil is not met in practice it is useful to follow the 301 calculation of plant iodine derived from irrigation water through the four cuts; as the  $^{129}$  gradually 302 assimilates more fully with the native soil iodine so the validity of the calculation increases. Thus it can 303 be assumed that, progressively (Eq. 8):

$$
\frac{^{127}I_{G(S)}}{^{127}I_S} = \frac{^{129}I_{G(S)}}{^{129}I_S}
$$
 Eq. 8

304 By mass balance  $^{127}I_G$  must be the sum of the contributions of  $^{127}I$  from soil  $(^{127}I_{G(S)})$  and irrigation  $305$  ( $^{127}I_{G(IR)}$ ) water hence (Eq. 9):

$$
^{127}I_{G(IR)} = {}^{127}I_G - \left( {}^{127}I_S \times \frac{{}^{129}I_{G(S)}}{129}I_S} \right)
$$
 Eq. 9

11

- 306 The result of imperfect mixing between  $^{129}$ I and  $^{127}$ I<sub>S</sub> is underestimation of  $^{127}$ I<sub>G(IR)</sub>. The mean proportion 307 (%) of <sup>127</sup> $I_{G(R)}$  for each cut is shown in Figure 4 with details for each soil in Table C (EA). Negative values 308 were observed where  $I_{G/S} > 1$  (i.e. availability of  $^{129}$ | >  $^{127}$ |) as the assumption of complete mixing of  $^{129}$ | 309 with <sup>127</sup>l<sub>s</sub> would be invalid. Even with perfect mixing of added <sup>129</sup>I with <sup>127</sup>l<sub>s</sub> variable contributions from I<sub>IR</sub> 310 to I<sub>G</sub> would be expected due to differences in  $^{127}$ I/<sup>129</sup>I between soils. Despite these caveats the estimated  $11^{127}$   $I_{G(R)}$  appears to move towards an asymptote over time with a reduction in standard deviation, therefore 312 a value of 74 ± 3 % represents a best estimate of the contribution of iodine from irrigation water to I<sub>G</sub> for 313 all soil types. The range in cut 4 values was  $42 \pm 13$  % (NI17) to  $96 \pm 1$  % (NI20).
- 314 Total iodine supplied from irrigation water as a percentage of  $I<sub>G</sub>$  was calculated and compared to the 315 estimated amount of  $I_G$  resulting from irrigation water for cut 4 (Eq. 10);

$$
I_{G(IR,A)} = 100 \times \left(\frac{^{127}I_{IR} V_{IR} t_G}{I_G Y}\right) \qquad \text{Eq. 10}
$$

 $316$  where I<sub>G(IR,A)</sub> is the actual amount of iodine provided by irrigation water during the experiment expressed 317 as a percentage of the iodine uptake in grass,  $V_{IR}$  is the mean volume of irrigation water provided 318 (L day<sup>-1</sup>), t<sub>G</sub> is the growth time (days) and Y is the yield (g). For all soils I<sub>G(IR,A)</sub> > estimated I<sub>G(IR)</sub> (ANOVA, p <  $319$  0.001) suggesting at least that irrigation water provided more than sufficient  $^{127}$  to account for iodine 320 offtake by grass (Figure 5).

### *3.4.4 Comparison of concentration ratios measured in the field and pot trial*

321 Concentration ratios for field samples ( $^{127}I_{CR,Field}$ ) were larger than values from pot trial samples ( $^{127}I_{CR,Pot}$ ) 322 (median <sup>127</sup>l<sub>CR,Field</sub> = 6.01 x 10<sup>-2</sup> c.f. median <sup>127</sup>l<sub>CR,Pot</sub> = 1.66 x 10<sup>-2</sup>) and for most soils, <sup>127</sup>l<sub>CR,Field</sub> was larger than  $123$   $^{127}$ I<sub>CR,Pot</sub> in all cuts of the pot trial. This is consistent with greater input of <sup>127</sup>I from wet and dry deposition 324 in the field where iodine in rainfall (I<sub>R</sub>) is in the range  $1-6 \mu$ g L<sup>-1</sup> compared to the pot experiment where 325 irrigation water provided ~0.8 µg L<sup>-1</sup>. Some field samples will also have received iodine from sea-spray and 326 dry deposition.

### *3.4.5 Iodine speciation in the soil solution*

Soil solution concentrations of  $^{127}$ I ( $^{127}$ I<sub>Soln</sub>),  $^{129}$ I ( $^{129}$ I<sub>Soln</sub>) and DOC were determined in soil solution extracted 328 at the end of the pot trial to investigate how well the spiked and native I had mixed. Partitioning between 329 soil solution and soil ( $R_{Kd}$ ) was calculated in Eq. 11:

$$
R_{Kd} = \frac{^{129} I_{Soln} \, ^{127} I_S}{^{127} I_{Soln} \, ^{129} I_S}
$$
 Eq. 11

330 where R<sub>Kd</sub> is the dimensionless ratio of Kd values ( $^{127}$ Kd/ $^{129}$ Kd);  $^{129}$ I<sub>Soln</sub> and  $^{127}$ I<sub>Soln</sub> are  $^{129}$ I and  $^{127}$ I 331 concentrations in soil solution respectively ( $\mu$ g L<sup>-1</sup>) and <sup>129</sup>I<sub>s</sub> and <sup>127</sup>I<sub>s</sub> are total concentrations of <sup>129</sup>I and <sup>127</sup>I 332 in soil measured from TMAH extraction (mg I kg<sup>-1</sup>). If <sup>129</sup>l and <sup>127</sup>l were fully mixed, then R<sub>kd</sub> = 1, however 333 results (Figure 6) indicate that <sup>129</sup>l was over-represented in solution (R<sub>Kd</sub> > 1) in all but one soil (NI14). The 334 observed over-representation of <sup>129</sup>l in solution (R<sub>Kd</sub> > 1) in all but one soil indicates a proportion of soil  $335$  <sup>127</sup>I in a pool that was not fully accessed by <sup>129</sup>I during the experiment. Soils with the greatest SOC 336 concentrations might be anticipated to have lower  $R_{Kd}$  as humus would be expected to reduce the 337 solution:soil ratio of <sup>129</sup>l. Conversely native iodine  $(1271)$  is likely to be tightly bound in humus, potentially 338 within hydrophobic moieties (Sheppard and Thibault 1992; Sutton and Sposito 2005) and therefore non-339 Iabile. Strongly fixed <sup>127</sup>l in the solid phase would delay full isotopic mixing. Furthermore, pore solutions 340 in high SOC soils are likely to contain more DOC into which <sup>129</sup>I may be rapidly assimilated and retained to 341 maintain a high  $^{129}$ I<sub>Soln</sub>/<sup>127</sup>I<sub>Soln</sub> against more complete mixing with the solid phase iodine pool. No 342 correlation was however observed between R<sub>Kd</sub> and DOC ( $r = -0.022$ ,  $p = 0.93$ ) for these soils (Figure 6).

343 A correlation between  $^{129}$ I<sub>G</sub> /  $^{127}$ I<sub>G</sub> and  $^{129}$ I<sub>soln</sub> /  $^{127}$ I<sub>soln</sub> would be expected. This was not observed and in 344 almost all cases the ratio in soil solution was greater than that in grass. This may result from a difference 345 in speciation between the two isotopes. Speciation by SEC-ICP-MS indicated that  $^{129}$ I in the soil solution 346 was predominantly in organic forms and therefore potentially less phyto-available than the inorganic I 347 added in irrigation water. In two soils (NI05 & NI08) where contributions from irrigation water were 348 negligible  $^{129}I_{\text{Soln}}/^{127}I_{\text{Soln}} \approx {^{129}I_{\text{G}}}/^{127}I_{\text{G}}$ .

#### *3.4.6 Modelling*

 The fitting performance of the models considered is summarised in Table D (EA), the best fitting model 350 was E<sup>\*</sup>. This has  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  as linear functions of total organic carbon content and CR as a function of pH. However ck<sub>2</sub> was not significantly different to zero and refitting the model omitting this parameter gave 352 an almost identical result. The estimated parameters are shown in Table E (EA). The best fitting model results for both isotopes are compared to observations in Figure 7, the Nash-Sutcliffe model efficiency was 0.75 (Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970).

355 The half time for iodine fixation in soils, calculated from the forward fixation rate constant, was ~40 hours 356 and was an inverse function of SOC content; CR fell with increasing soil pH. The rate of return from non-357 labile to labile was effectively zero for newly added iodine. The rate coefficients are consistent with those 358 found by Shetaya et al. (2012) who found a rapid, effectively irreversible, fixation of iodine to non-labile 359 forms in soil.

360 Given that k<sub>2</sub> is small, there is a steady state result for the grass iodine concentration G<sub>0</sub> for an iodine input 361 I<sub>Input</sub> (Eq. 12):

$$
G_0 = \frac{I_{Input}}{k_1}CR = \frac{I_{Input}}{a_{k_1} + c_{k_1} \text{ or } gC} a_{CR} \exp(b_{CR} \text{ pH})
$$
 Eq. 12

 This result potentially provides a simple basis to forecast grass iodine concentrations given estimates of 363 soil pH, organic carbon content and iodine input. To test the applicability of Eq. 12 we compared it to the measurements of iodine concentration in samples of grass collected from the field (Table 2). Iodine input was estimated using the annual rainfall for each site (Table 1) and the median rainfall iodine concentration of 2.25 µg L<sup>-1</sup> reported earlier. This input was converted to a volumetric basis by assuming an effective rooting depth of 30 cm for all sites. The resulting comparison is presented in Figure 8 and, given the generalising assumptions required, shows an encouraging relationship between our prediction based on the pot trial calibration and field observation.

 A typical dietary iodine concentration recommendation for dairy cows is 0.6 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of dietary dry matter 371 (Merck Vet Manual). The grass at 11 of our 19 field sites (0.185 – 3.62 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>; median = 0.758 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) met this recommendation. By contrast a recent survey of feedstuffs in Swiss dairy farms (van der Reijden 373 et al., 2018; n=62) presented an median I concentration of only 0.11 mg  $kg^{-1}$ . Equation 12 implies that iodine concentration in grass will be dependent on inputs from precipitation and so will be reduced in lower rainfall environments. For example, this may apply in much of England and Wales where iodine concentration of rainwater is reported to be lower than we observed in Northern Ireland, for example Truesdale and Jones (1976) report a mean value of 1.27  $\mu$ g L<sup>-1</sup>. At this concentration a site with a soil pH value of 6 would need to receive 2600 mm of rain per year to meet the dietary iodine requirement without 379 the use of dietary supplementation. Similar conclusions apply to most of England and Wales.

### **4. Conclusions**

 Several studies, including the current work, have shown a significant correlation between iodine concentrations in soil and associated vegetation. This study has demonstrated that this relationship may 382 not necessarily imply a direct soil-to-plant transfer and that vegetation iodine concentration may be largely controlled by recent iodine inputs (rainfall/irrigation) rather than (re)supply from soil. Soils with high rainfall inputs can accumulate substantial iodine concentrations over time as rainfall iodine is fixed into organic forms, but prior to fixation this iodine represents a phyto-available pool. Fixation is rapid (c. 40 hours) and effectively irreversible. Kinetic models with pH and organic matter as dependent parameters can account for c. 75% of the variation in vegetation iodine concentration and imply a strong

- dependence between rainfall and iodine concentration in grass. Such models have modest input data
- requirements and could be applied spatially to estimate indicative pasture iodine concentrations.

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### **Electronic Annexes:**

**Table A:** Summary of the considered model formulations to relate kinetic and uptake parameters (k<sub>1</sub>, k<sub>2</sub>) and CR) to soil pH and organic carbon together with summary statistics.

Table B: Rainfall volumes and iodine concentrations (I<sub>IR</sub>) in samples collected in Hillsborough, NI over periods of seven days. NR = volume not recorded, or insufficient sample to analyse.

**Table C:** Model selection criteria RMSE, AIC and BIC for the models considered.

Table D: Values of fitted constants for CR calculated as kg m<sup>-2</sup>.

**Table E:** Estimated contribution of grass iodine from irrigation water, as a concentration (<sup>127</sup>I<sub>G(Ir)</sub>, mg I kg<sup>-</sup> <sup>1</sup>), and as a percentage of total iodine in grass (I<sub>G(Ir,E)</sub>, %). 'Neg' indicates that a negative value was calculated and so the calculation of  $I_{G(f, E)}$  is invalid. The SE of the replicates is shown in brackets.

# **Tables**

Table 1: Soil characteristics; elemental concentrations are on a dry weight basis. SE is the standard error of three replicate analyses, nd = none detected.

Table 2: Iodine in soil and vegetation in field and pot-trial samples. The SE of the replicates is shown in brackets, n= no of replicates, nd = none detected. Values below the LOD are underlined.



Table 1: Soil characteristics; elemental concentrations are on a dry weight basis. SE is the standard error of three replicate analyses, nd = none detected.

\*After Cruickshank (1997)





All variables are iodine concentrations  $(^{129}I$  or  $^{127}I$ ) in mg kg<sup>-1</sup> (field samples) or  $\mu$ g kg<sup>-1</sup> (pot trial) on a dry weight basis; subscripts 'S', 'V' and 'G' refer to soil, vegetation (field) or grass (pot trial) respectively.

# **Figures**

**Figure 1:** Conceptual model of iodine dynamics between a labile and non-labile pool in the soil and between the soil labile pool and grass. The parameters CR,  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  are the concentration ratio (Eq. 4) and forward and reverse first order rate coefficients.

**Figure 2:** Correlation between soil and vegetation iodine concentrations for sites in NI. Error bars represent the standard error of three replicates.

**Figure 3:** Grass/soil ratio (I<sub>G/S</sub>) for each cut. Error bars represent standard error of three replicates for each cut and soil.

**Figure 4:** Estimated proportion (%) of iodine in grass originating from irrigation water (I<sub>G(IR)</sub>). Mean values for each cut from three replicates of 17 soils (standard deviation shown by error bars). Results for NI05 and NI08 are excluded.

**Figure 5**: Comparison of the total iodine provision from irrigation water (I<sub>G(IR,A)</sub>) and the estimated contribution to total iodine in grass from irrigation ( $I_{G(R,E)}$ ), both expressed as a percentage of the total iodine uptake. Error bars show standard errors of the mean for triplicate values for each soil, for cut 4 only. Negative values (NI05 & NI08) have been omitted for clarity.

Figure 6: Ratio of Kd values (R<sub>Kd</sub> = <sup>127</sup>Kd/<sup>129</sup>Kd) for each soil in order of increasing %SOC content. Error bars show standard error of three replicates. Dashed line is at  $R_{Kd} = 1$ .

**Figure 7:** Modelled grass concentrations (Model E\*; Eq. 2-4) plotted against observations for all cuts and both isotopes. The parameters k1, k2 and CR in Model E\* (EA Table A) are defined as functions of organic carbon and pH, where k1 =  $a_{k1}$  +  $c_{k1}$ orgC; k2 =  $a_{k2}$  +  $c_{k2}$ orgC; CR =  $a_{CR}$ exp(b<sub>CR</sub>pH). Values of all fitting parameters are given in EA Table E.

**Figure 8:** Predicted grass iodine concentration compared to observations for the 19 field sites. Dashed line is 1:1.



**Figure 1:** Conceptual model of iodine dynamics between a labile and non-labile pool in the soil and between the soil labile pool and grass. The parameters CR,  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  are the concentration ratio (Eq. 4) and forward and reverse first order rate coefficients.



**Figure 2:** Correlation between soil and vegetation iodine concentrations for sites in NI. The two soils with iodine concentrations >100 mg  $kg<sup>-1</sup>$  have been excluded from the correlation (r = 0.625). Error bars represent the standard error of three replicates.



Figure 3: Grass/soil ratio (I<sub>G/S</sub>) for each cut (Eq. 8). Error bars represent standard error of three replicates for each cut and soil.



**Figure 4:** Estimated proportion (%) of iodine in grass originating from irrigation water (I $_{G(IR)}$ ) from Eq.10. Mean values for each cut from three replicates of 17 soils (standard deviation shown by error bars). Results for NI05 and NI08 are excluded.



Figure 5: Comparison of the total iodine input from irrigation water (I<sub>G(Ir,A)</sub>) and the estimated contribution to total iodine in grass from irrigation (I<sub>G(Ir,E)</sub>), both expressed as a percentage of the total iodine uptake. Error bars show standard errors of the mean for triplicate values for each soil, for cut 4 only. Negative values (NI05 & NI08) have been omitted for clarity.



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**Figure 8:** Predicted grass iodine concentration compared to observations for the 17 field sites where grass iodine concentrations were measured; sites NI05 and NI08 have been excluded because of exceptionally high iodine concentrations arising from a direct marine influence. Dashed line is 1:1.

# **Electronic Annex:**

**Table A:** Summary of the considered model formulations to relate kinetic and uptake parameters (k<sub>1</sub>, k<sub>2</sub> and CR) to soil pH and organic carbon together with summary statistics.

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**Table D:** Model selection criteria RMSE, AIC and BIC for the models considered.

Table E: Values of fitted constants for CR calculated as kg m<sup>-2</sup>.

**Figure A:** Grass yield for each soil and each cut. Error bars show standard error of triplicate points.

**Figure B:** Grass re-growth after cutting.

Model	k1	k2	<b>CR</b>
A	$a_{k1} + b_{k1} pH$	$a_{k2} + c_{k2}$ orgC	$a_{CR}$ + $b_{CR}$ pH + $c_{CR}$ orgC
B	$a_{k1} + c_{k1}$ org $C$	$a_{k2} + c_{k2}$ orgC	$a_{CR}$ + $b_{CR}$ pH + $c_{CR}$ orgC
C	$a_{k1} + c_{k1} orgC$	$a_{k2} + b_{k2} pH$	$a_{CR}$ + $b_{CR}$ pH + $c_{CR}$ orgC
D	$a_{k1} + c_{k1}$ org $C$	$a_{k2} + b_{k2} pH$	$a_{CR} + c_{CR}$ orgC
E	$a_{k1} + c_{k1}$ orgC	$a_{k2} + c_{k2}$ orgC	$a_{CR} + b_{CR} pH$
F	$a_{k1} + b_{k1}pH$	$a_{k2} + b_{k2}$ pH	$a_{CR} + b_{CR} pH$
G	$a_{k1} + c_{k1}$ orgC	$a_{k2} + b_{k2} pH$	$a_{CR} + b_{CR} pH$
F*	$a_{k1} + c_{k1}$ orgC	$a_{k2} + c_{k2}$ orgC	$a_{CR}$ exp $(b_{CR}$ pH)
F*	$a_{k1} + b_{k1}pH$	$a_{k2} + b_{k2} pH$	$a_{CR}$ exp $(b_{CR}$ pH)
G*	$a_{k1} + c_{k1}$ orgC	$a_{k2} + b_{k2} pH$	$a_{CR}$ exp $(b_{CR}$ pH)

Table A: Summary of the considered model formulations to relate kinetic and uptake parameters (k<sub>1</sub>, k<sub>2</sub> and CR) to soil pH and organic carbon together with summary statistics.



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**Table D:** Model selection criteria RMSE, AIC and BIC for the models considered.



**Table E:** Parameter values for Model E\* estimated using the pot trial and field observations.



**Figure A:** Grass yield for each soil and each cut. Error bars show standard error of triplicate points.



**Figure B:** Grass re-growth after cutting.