

Utilization of phosphogypsum and red mud in alfalfa cultivation

Pedro Palencia^{a*}, José Luis Guerrero^{b,c}, Rebeca Millán^b, Fernando Mosqueda^b and

Juan Pedro Bolívar^b

^aDepartment of Organisms and System Biology, Polytechnic School of Mieres, Oviedo University, Mieres, 33600 Asturias, Spain. Email: palencia@uniovi.es

^bValorization of Waste and Environmental Radioactivity Unit, Center for Natural Resources, Health and Environment (RENSMA), University of Huelva, Huelva, 21071, Spain.

^cDepartment of Biology and Geology, Physics and Inorganic Chemistry, Higher School of Experimental Sciences and Technology, Rey Juan Carlos University, c/Tulipán s/n, 28933 Móstoles, Spain.

*Correspondence: palencia@uniovi.es (Pedro Palencia)

Abstract

In this work, the utilization of phosphogypsum (PG), a waste coming from the manufacture of phosphate fertilizers, as fertilizer for alfalfa (*Medicago sativa* L.) crops was investigated using pot experiments. The objective of this study was to evaluate the effects of both phosphogypsum and red mud (RM) in two soils representative of the pasture production area in Southern Spain. The morpho-physiological parameters of biomass, plant height, number of stems and number of leaves, as well as the chemical parameters of soil content, were measured. High doses of PG inhibited seed germination in some treatments. In addition, the treatment substrate (2550 g soil + 50 g kg⁻¹ PG + 100 g kg⁻¹ RM) also affected seed germination, possibly due to the large amount of RM. The application of PG and RM

25 to the soil increased the availability of important nutrients for alfalfa, such as phosphorus
26 (P), calcium (Ca^{2+}) and magnesium (Mg^{2+}). The results demonstrate that the treatment with
27 PG significantly improved the uptake of P in alfalfa.

28

29 **Keywords:** *Medicago sativa* L.; seed germination; soil fertility; yield; soil acidity.

30

31 **1. Introduction**

32 Two types of residues are produced during the processing of phosphoric acid (PA) (H_3PO_4)
33 and extraction of alumina, which are phosphogypsum (PG) and red mud (RM),
34 respectively. Approximately 300 million metric tons of PG are produced globally each year
35 [1]. On the other hand, RM is a waste product generated during the extraction of alumina
36 from bauxite ore, and it is generated at a rate of up to 175.5 million tons per year [2]. Both
37 PG and RM have the potential to be repurposed or utilized in various applications,
38 depending on their chemical and physical properties [3].

39 Most of the PG generated is disposed of by dumping it in large stacks, which are often
40 located in coastal areas near the factories that produce it. This disposal method can have
41 negative environmental impacts, as PG is exposed to weathering agents, such as wind and
42 rainfall, which can cause it to break down and release of harmful substances into the
43 surrounding environment. This can lead to severe environmental damages, including
44 contamination of soil and water bodies, by both heavy metals and natural radionuclides and
45 their subsequent bioaccumulation in marine fauna and animal species [4, 5]. PG presents
46 high concentrations of toxic trace elements, posing potential health and environmental risks
47 such as Cd, Cr, Cu, Zn, Pb, As, and Hg [6, 7, 8]. Although, all metals at high concentrations

48 can induce toxicity in humans, it's noteworthy that As, Hg, Cd, and Pb have no known
49 biological essential function and exhibit toxicity even at relatively minimal doses [9].
50 Specifically, non-degradable pollutants like Cd and Pb carry inherent risks to human health,
51 manifesting a range of degenerative effects including implications for the central nervous
52 system, gastrointestinal disorders, and potential carcinogenicity [10]. On the other hand,
53 the radioactivity can affect several organs and lead to many diseases, including cancer [11,
54 12, 13]. Radioactive elements such as uranium can be intake via inhalation, orally, or
55 through dermal pathways, and even bioaccumulate in cells [14]. Therefore, it is important
56 to consider alternative methods of disposal or utilization for PG in order to minimize these
57 negative impacts [15]. Despite the potential uses of PG, only about 15% of global
58 production is recycled [16].

59 In recent times, PG have been extensively used in agriculture as a valuable aid in restoring
60 both acidic and alkaline soils, as well as a plant nutrient source, soil amendment for saline
61 conditions, and an enhancer for soil physical properties like permeability and structure [17,
62 18, 19]. The beneficial impact of PG on acidic soil rehabilitation is commonly linked to its
63 ability to decrease the levels of mobile aluminum and sodium [17, 20]. All these effects can
64 contribute to increasing plant biomass yield, or the amount of plant material produced by a
65 plant [21]. However, the downside of using PG in soil treatments is an elevation in soil
66 radioactivity, often leading to levels that exceeds internationally regulated thresholds. In
67 addition, high mobility of the heavy metals contained in PG must also be considered, such
68 as cadmium and lead, which have specific regulations within the European Union (EC
69 Regulation No. 466 / 2001). Thus, it is necessary to control the use of PG in agriculture,
70 since its uncontrolled use could lead to a public health problem due to the potential toxicity
71 of the food produced. PG is currently considered a NORM according to both European

72 Union and IAEA regulations (IAEA, 2003; Directive, 2013/59/Euratom) [22]. Naturally
73 Occurring Radioactive Materials (NORM) are substances that contain naturally occurring
74 radioactive nuclides, or atoms with unstable nuclei that emit radiation as they decay. These
75 nuclides can be found in certain rocks, minerals, and fertilizers, and they include
76 radionuclides of uranium, thorium, radium, radon, lead, and polonium. Therefore, it is
77 important to carefully manage and regulate the handling and disposal of NORM in order to
78 minimize these risks [23, 24].

79 RM is an insoluble product manufactured in the extraction of alumina by digesting bauxite
80 at high temperature and pressure. RM is generated in large quantities and ends up piled up
81 in natural areas in Saudi Arabia, in the same way as PG [25]. Consequently, about 160
82 million tons of RM are being generated annually worldwide [26]. This practice results in a
83 serious environmental problem, as RM, which has a very basic pH (about 12), alters soils
84 and soil biological activity.

85 Soils are an essential part of terrestrial ecosystems, as they play a fundamental role in
86 agricultural production and ecological stability [27]. Excess exposure to soil contamination
87 with toxic elements affects plant growth and physiological processes by disrupting nutrient
88 uptake [28], inhibiting plant growth [29], and decreasing seed germination [30].

89 Phytoremediation is a widely used *in situ* remediation of soils contaminated with potentially
90 toxic elements due to its simple operation, low cost, and environmental safety [31].

91 Phytoremediation is the most promising phytotechnology for the remediation of metal-
92 contaminated soils [32]. Phytoremediation can be carried out through five different
93 strategies: phytoextraction, phytostabilization, phytovolatilization, phytofiltration and
94 phytotransformation [31]. The two main strategies for metal phytoremediation are
95 phytoextraction and phytostabilization. In the former case, plants can extract metals from

96 the soil, while, in latter case, they reduce metal bioavailabilities in soil and their
97 phytouptake [25]. Therefore, phytoextraction is a technique that uses plants for the removal
98 of potentially toxic elements from contaminated soils by accumulating these elements in
99 the aerial parts [33]. RM is used in various fields, including soil remediation [34]. Several
100 studies have shown that alfalfa (*Medicago sativa* L.) can tolerate heavy metals without their
101 growth being impacted [35, 36], with alfalfa being a reference crop, as it shows an excellent
102 accumulation capacity and strong resistance against soil contamination with toxic elements,
103 thus it is a preferential candidate for phytoremediation when grown in soil contaminated
104 with toxic elements [31].

105 Alfalfa is a type of legume that is known for its fast growth rate and high biomass
106 productivity. It is an important perennial forage crop that grows in various parts of the
107 world [37, 38] and it is relatively easy to grow, with an extension of 32 million hectares
108 worldwide, with great economic value, owing to its high biomass yield and quality forage,
109 wide adaptability to different environments, nitrogen fixation capacity and soil
110 improvement value [39]. Alfalfa has a high phosphorus (P) requirement [40] and yield
111 varies depending on soil P conditions [41]. Alfalfa is a crop that can tolerate a moderately
112 low-quality water supply [42]. It is widely cultivated around the world and is relatively
113 easy to grow. In addition to its high productivity, alfalfa plants are also known for their
114 ability to accumulate large amounts of persistent toxic elements, particularly in their root
115 systems. This ability to take up and accumulate toxic elements makes alfalfa plants a
116 potential tool for the remediation of contaminated soil. Due to the fact that PG is an acidic
117 material ($\text{pH} \approx 2$), and RM is very alkaline ($\text{pH} \approx 12$), the aim of this study was to combine
118 the use of both wastes to reuse and valorize them in the cultivation of plant species. The
119 effect of the different combined doses of PG and RM on the biomass generated by alfalfa

120 plants and the physiological development of the plant were studied. The utilization of PG
121 and RM as soil amendments and mineral fertilizers in soils of the province of Cádiz for
122 alfalfa planting were investigated by pot experiments. The transfer of pollutants from these
123 wastes into the alfalfa crop is out of the scope of this paper.

124 **2. Materials and methods**

125 **2.1 Materials and site location**

126 Alfalfa, a perennial and herbaceous forage legume, was used in this experiment. The seeds
127 were supplied by a seed company and had a 1,000 grain weight of 2.5 g and a germination
128 rate of 95%. This study was carried out in a greenhouse at the University of Huelva (Spain),
129 in Carmen Campus (37°16'N latitude, 6°55'W longitude and 36 m above sea level), under
130 conditions of natural light and temperature, between October 2020 and May 2021. Alfalfa
131 (*Medicago sativa* L., cultivar 'Victoria') was sown in October 2020 (week one), with 20
132 seeds in every plastic pot (10 cm x 20 cm x 2.5 cm), filled with 3 kg of substrate.

133 The soil was collected from the area around Cádiz in the south of Spain (36°47'N latitude,
134 5°30'W longitude and 386 m above sea level), with pH = 7.1, and it was homogenized by
135 quartering [43]. The total soil weight was 250 kg. The soil was amended with PG from the
136 Huelva piles (37°15'N latitude, 6°54'W longitude and 10 m above sea level) located next
137 to the city of Huelva (SW Spain) [22, 44]. RM waste was obtained from Saudi Arabia and
138 has been used in some treatments to neutralize the acidity of PG [45, 26]. Chemical
139 characteristics of soil, PG and RM are summarized in Table 1. The chemical properties of
140 PG showed high Ca, P and S contents, whereas RM showed high Ca, Fe and Na contents
141 (5.4%, 10.5% and 3.0 %, respectively) (Table 1).

142 Soils treated with different proportions of waste, i.e., PG and RM, were used, generating

143 the different types of substrates. Thus, the different substrates gave rise to the different
144 types of treatments. Treatment 1 was used as control, and it only contained soil from the
145 Cádiz province, without waste. Treatments 2, 3 and 4 had 0.5% PG, treatments 5, 6 and 7
146 had 5% PG, and treatments 8, 9 and 10 had 30% PG. Treatments 1, 2, 5 and 8 were not
147 mixed with RM, while treatments 3, 6 and 9 contained 1% RM, and treatments 4, 7 and 10
148 contained 10% RM (Table 2).

149 **2.2. Plant establishment**

150 Plastic pots (10 cm x 20 cm x 2.5 cm), each containing 3,000 g of substrate, were seeded
151 with 20 seeds of alfalfa per pot. A total of 30 pots (ten treatments, with three replicates
152 each) were sown at the beginning of October 2020 (week one), under optimal temperature
153 conditions as identified for alfalfa (soil temperature > 10 °C). The plastic pots filled with
154 the substrates were placed on polyethylene plates (40 cm in diameter; one pot per plate) on
155 the ground, and they were watered with distilled water on demand, when the pot dishes had
156 no water in them. The substrate of each pot was mixed before sowing with 2 g of a
157 commercial NPK-S (15-15-15+25 S) fertilizer, together with micronutrients (21.43 mg
158 Zinc and 8.18 mg Boron). All pots were watered on the same day to avoid leaching. Alfalfa
159 seeds germinated between November 2nd and 13th. The mean temperature and luminosity
160 during the experiment were 20.8 °C and 170 $\mu\text{mol/s/m}^2$, respectively. Plant growth was
161 estimated by measuring plant height, number of stems and number of leaves. The height of
162 the plant was determined every two weeks, and the first measurement was taken 15 days
163 after the germination of the alfalfa. For this purpose, ten plants were selected from each
164 pot, and the height was measured using a 30 cm ruler. The plant height value for each pot
165 was the result of the average of the measurements of the 10 plants recorded every two
166 weeks. Measurements were repeated 12 times until the first and only cutting 224 days after

167 sowing.

168 The drainage was analyzed two times (in winter and spring) to verify the possibility of their
169 discharge into the environment, and pH and electrical conductivity (EC) were recorded.

170 Alfalfa samples were collected from the selected pots at the end of the experimental period
171 (week 32) for the analysis of their multielemental composition.

172 Substrates of all treatments were analyzed 15 weeks after sowing by extracting the soil
173 profile (Table 3). The alfalfa in all pots were cut at a height of 5 cm above the ground.

174 Plants cut from the same pot, together with the rest of the replicates of the same treatment,
175 were stored until they were dried, and they were then transferred to the laboratory for
176 analysis. All plant tissues were dried at 75°C to a constant weight to determine their dry
177 weight (DW) for each treatment.

178 **2.3 Statistical Analysis**

179 The trial was performed using a completely randomized design with three replicates per
180 treatment and the entire replication was rotated to minimize the impact of environmental
181 variables within the greenhouse. A one-way ANOVA was used to test for differences in the
182 following variables recorded during the crop cycle: pH and CE of soil; Ca, Mg, K and Na
183 of substrate.

184 Growth parameters (height, stems and leaves) recorded during the crop cycle were analyzed
185 by a two-way ANOVA in which treatments and week were included as factors. Differences
186 were considered significant at $p < 0.05$ and when statistically significant effects were
187 detected Tukey's multiple range test was applied to separate mean values. Growth
188 parameters exhibiting statistically significant differences in the interaction between
189 treatment and week were visually represented in graphical form. Statistical Package for

190 Social Sciences (SPSS) v27.0 software (IBM SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) was used for
191 all statistical calculations and graphics.

192 **3. Results and Discussion**

193 **3.1. Seed germination**

194 Seed germination is one of the most important phases in the plant life cycle and it is
195 normally limited by increasing strength of abiotic stresses, such as high salinity and drought
196 [46]. Furthermore, seed germination is easily affected by the toxicity of soil contaminated
197 with toxic elements [47]. The initial trial design had 10 treatments, although only alfalfa
198 seeds from the first 6 treatments germinated, thus only these 6 treatments could be used in
199 the data treatment (Fig. 1). Applying high amounts of PG (300 g kg^{-1} PG) to soil may
200 negatively impact alfalfa seed germination. In this case, the high levels of PG in the soil
201 may have had a toxic effect on the alfalfa seeds, preventing them from germinating or
202 hampering their growth and development. It is important to carefully consider the potential
203 effects of soil amendments, including PG, on seed germination and plant growth [48].

204 The use of RM causes a significant increase in Na, as occurred with the use of fresh beet
205 vinasse in the study of Tejada et al. [49], who observed that the physical, chemical and
206 biological properties of the soil deteriorated despite the high organic matter content in the
207 soil, possibly due to the high monovalent Na^+ cation content. High doses of PG and RM
208 could have inhibited seed germination in some treatments, thus the amount of PG added in
209 the pots where no alfalfa germination occurred was 300 g kg^{-1} in treatments 8, 9 and 10. In
210 addition, the substrate of treatment 7 ($2550 \text{ g soil} + 50 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ PG + 100 g kg^{-1} RM) also
211 affected seed germination, possibly due to the high amount of RM (100 g kg^{-1}). Plants can
212 be exposed to different environmental stresses during their growth stages. In this sense,

213 Zhang et al. [50] found that higher concentrations of iron nanoparticles FeNPs (50-200 mg
214 L⁻¹) inhibited the growth of alfalfa seedlings. Salinity is amongst the most severe stressors,
215 with adverse effects on the germination and growth of plants. To study the effects of
216 different levels of salt concentrations on seed germination, many experiments have been
217 conducted under laboratory and field conditions [51]. Wang et al. [46] studied the
218 differential responses of six alfalfa cultivars to salt and drought stresses during germination
219 by analyzing the germination rate under stresses corresponding to different NaCl
220 concentrations; authors selected some alfalfa varieties as stress-tolerant and stress-sensitive
221 cultivars for further characterization. Wang et al. [46] reported that transgenic alfalfa with
222 enhanced stress tolerance could be useful for sustainable agriculture in marginal soils,
223 including desertified areas and alkalinized soils.

224 **3.2. pH and EC for the substrate combinations**

225 The pH of the substrate can also affect the availability of nutrients to plants, as some
226 nutrients are more readily available at certain pH ranges. The pH and EC (dS cm⁻¹) of the
227 drainage were analyzed at midterm and at the end of the study for all treatments (Table 3).
228 Significant effects of treatments were found on pH and EC. The pH varied among the
229 prepared substrate combinations both halfway through and at the end of the cultivation,
230 changing between 6.1 and 7.6 halfway through the trial. In the treatments with the highest
231 PG content (5%), the drainages were most acidic. This suggests that the presence of high
232 levels of PG in soil can lead to the production of more acidic drainage, mainly due to the
233 remaining phosphoric acid trapped between the PG particles after the industrial process
234 [52]. Treatments 5 and 6 showed a similar behavior with pH values below 7. In addition,
235 the pH of this group became more acidic at the end of the study: T5 from 6.1 to 6.08 and
236 T6 from 6.6 to 6.55. It is important to carefully consider the potential impacts of PG on the

237 acidity of drainage, as acidic drainage can have negative environmental impacts, such as
238 soil and water contamination, if they are released into the environment. It may also be
239 necessary to implement measures to neutralize the acidity of drainages containing high
240 levels of PG to minimize these potential impacts. Nevertheless, alfalfa plants are known to
241 have strong root systems capable of effectively taking up nutrients and other substances
242 from the soil [53]. This ability to absorb nutrients and other substances from the soil can
243 make alfalfa plants particularly useful for remediation of contaminated sites, as they are
244 able to effectively remove potentially toxic elements from the soil. However, it is important
245 to consider the potential impacts of using alfalfa for remediation, as the plants may also
246 take up and accumulate harmful substances that can be toxic to humans or animals if
247 ingested. Additionally, the effectiveness of alfalfa for remediation may depend on the
248 specific contaminants present in the soil and the specific conditions at the contaminated
249 site.

250 Treatments 1, 2, 3 and 4 formed the same group with values above 7. As was the case
251 halfway through the investigation, treatments 1, 2, 3 and 4 behaved in a similar manner
252 under pH values ranging from 7.8 for treatment 2 to 8.2 for Treatment 4. In addition, the
253 pH of this group became more alkaline at the end of the investigation: T1 from 7.6 to 8.1,
254 T2 from 7.5 to 8.8, T3 from 7.5 to 7.9, and T4 from 7.8 to 8.2. On the other hand, at the
255 end of the investigation, the most acidic pH was generated in treatment 5, with a value of
256 6.1. It is important to highlight that the pH was also the highest with the same value in the
257 month of February (Table 3).

258 RM is a highly alkaline material, with a pH value that can range from 11 to 13.5. As a
259 result, it can be used to increase the pH of soil, which can be beneficial for certain plants
260 that prefer more alkaline conditions, in addition to its pH-adjusting properties [54].

261 Similarly, the EC values of substrate combinations varied between winter (February) and
262 spring (May) (i.e., crop cycle). EC values increased with increasing PG and RM contents
263 in both winter and spring. The initial EC value of the PG-based substrates ranged from 0.89
264 to 2.7 mS cm⁻¹ compared to the control value of 0.46 mS cm⁻¹. Treatments 4, 5 and 6
265 behaved similarly, with values above 2.5 mS cm⁻¹ halfway through and at the end of the
266 cultivation. The highest substrate EC values were observed for T6 halfway through and at
267 the end of the cultivation. The addition of PG and RM to soil increased the EC of the soil,
268 which is a measure of the amount of salts present in the soil. When the EC of soil increases,
269 it can indicate an increase in the concentration of salts in the soil, including both beneficial
270 and potentially harmful salts [55]. This increase in salts can have several impacts on plants,
271 including changes in the uptake of nutrients, the ability of plants to absorb water, and the
272 overall health and growth of the plants. In particular, the presence of high levels of salts in
273 the rhizosphere zone (the area of soil surrounding plant roots) can affect the plants' ability
274 to absorb water and nutrients, which can impact their growth and development. It is
275 important to carefully consider the potential impacts of increased salt levels in soil and to
276 manage the levels of PG and RM applied to soil to minimize potential negative effects on
277 plants.

278 All treatments, except for the control treatment (T1), showed an increase in EC obtained
279 halfway through and at the end of the cultivation (Table 3).

280 **3.3. Influence of substrates on plant tissue mineral content**

281 The type of substrate used can have a significant influence on the levels of nutrients and
282 other elements in the soil, which can impact the growth and development of plants. It is
283 important to carefully consider the potential impacts of different substrates on the nutrient

284 levels in soil and to select the most appropriate substrate based on the specific needs of the
285 plants being grown. In this study, the content of N and K did not show significant
286 differences between treatments. However, T3 showed the lowest N value (4.8%) and T4
287 showed the highest N value (5.1%). On the other hand, the control treatment (T1) showed
288 the lowest K value ($0.75 \text{ cmol}_c \text{ kg}^{-1}$) and T5 obtained the highest K value ($0.86 \text{ cmol}_c \text{ kg}^{-1}$)
289 (Table 4).

290 Significant differences in P, Ca, Mg and Na were observed in the substrates throughout the
291 crop cycle in relation to treatment. The results showed that, in the substrates, the highest
292 concentrations of P (800 mg kg^{-1}) and Mg ($2.57 \text{ cmol}_c \text{ kg}^{-1}$) were observed in T5 (Table 4)
293 and the Na concentration was higher ($10.11 \text{ cmol}_c \text{ kg}^{-1}$) in T4 than in the rest of the
294 treatments, which is due to the high RM content in T4 (10%), being the highest percentage
295 of RM among all the substrates used. In addition, treatments 1, 2, 3 and 5 formed the same
296 group, with mean Na values below $2.25 \text{ cmol}_c \text{ kg}^{-1}$. The substrates that were mixed with
297 RM (T3, T4 and T6) obtained the highest Na values ($2.24 \text{ cmol}_c \text{ kg}^{-1}$, $10.11 \text{ cmol}_c \text{ kg}^{-1}$ and
298 $3.18 \text{ cmol}_c \text{ kg}^{-1}$, respectively). The use of RM caused a significant increase in Na, as
299 occurred with the use of fresh beet vinasse in Tejada et al. [49], who observed that the
300 physical, chemical and biological properties of the soil deteriorated despite the high organic
301 matter content in the soil, possibly due to the high content of monovalent Na^+ cation.

302 The contribution of Ca to the soil through the amendment with PG can influence the
303 absorption of other elements, either enhancing or inhibiting it, which could lead to
304 deficiencies of certain trace elements, or to the increase in plant concentrations of some
305 heavy metals [56]. The Ca value was highest in T6 ($111.79 \text{ cmol}_c \text{ kg}^{-1}$), followed by T5,
306 thus treatments with a higher PG content showed the highest Ca inputs, as can be expected.
307 The Ca content of PG is relatively high, and it can be a source of this essential plant nutrient.

308 The long-term application of PG to soil can have a range of beneficial effects on
309 physiological and biochemical processes in plants. These effects include reducing soil
310 acidity, increasing the availability of important nutrients like phosphorus (P), calcium
311 (Ca^{2+}), magnesium (Mg^{2+}), and sulfur (SO_2^{-4} -S), and improving plant nutrition. PG can
312 also improve the overall health of the plant and lead to higher biomass yield (or the amount
313 of plant material produced). These effects can be particularly beneficial for plants growing
314 in soil with low fertility or high levels of stress, as PG can help to improve soil quality and
315 support healthier plant growth [21]. RM also contains a range of plant nutrients, including
316 silicon, iron, and aluminum, which can support plant growth. Regarding biomass, some
317 authors suggest that the treatments studied can increase alfalfa biomass [50], while others
318 report no significant differences in biomass per plant among different treatments [57].

319 **3.4. Time-evolution of the alfalfa growth parameters**

320 Table 4 shows the alfalfa plant growth parameters measured throughout the crop cycle, up
321 to the first and only cutting of the plants. Analyses of the data showed that the week effects,
322 treatments and the interaction of treatments and week were significant, and the results were
323 consistent across the week. The interaction between the two factors (treatment and week)
324 on the response of height (cm) means that the effect of the treatments on the height of alfalfa
325 depends on the week. This is evident in the graph, as the lines cross, indicating that the
326 effect of the treatments varies depending on the week. For example, in the case of T4, the
327 mean values of height (9.22 cm) are lower than those of T3, T5 and T6 (12.78 cm, 11.87
328 cm and 12.61 cm, respectively). Height growth showed the typical continuous length
329 pattern in all treatments, including the control (Table 4). In all cases, the highest growth
330 rate was observed between weeks 29 and 32 of cultivation. The maximum height reached
331 by the control plants was 11.4 cm, while in the different treatments this value ranged

332 between 9.22 and 12.78 cm. The application of PG + RM in T3 improved plant height
333 (12.78 cm) and the number of stems (12.43) as compared with the control treatment. Except
334 for treatment T4, the mixtures of PG and RM used in the other treatments can be considered
335 sufficient to produce plants of adequate height. Stem number in the different treatments
336 showed significant differences ($p \leq 0.05$). Treatment 4 behaved differently from the rest of
337 the treatments for the number of stems and the number of leaves, with values below 12 and
338 13, respectively.

339 The time effect was also significant, as the significance difference for plant height, and
340 number of stems and leaves (Fig. 2). The alfalfa plants performed as expected over time,
341 showing sustained growth in plant height, number of stems and number of leaves.

342 **3.5. Determinations of alfalfa dry matter at the end of the trial**

343 Data related to the influence of PG and RM application on dry matter yield of alfalfa and
344 uptake of macro and micronutrients are presented in Table 5. Treatment 4 showed the
345 highest Ca and Fe values (2.44 g kg^{-1} and 138.8 mg kg^{-1} , respectively). In addition, the
346 plants in T2 assimilated the least amount of Fe, with a mean value of 53.8 mg kg^{-1} , and the
347 highest amount of Mg, with a mean value of 3.07 g kg^{-1} . On the other hand, plants in
348 treatment 3 had the lowest Ca, Mg, Mn and P uptake, with mean values of 1.17 g kg^{-1} , 2.06
349 g kg^{-1} , 2.73 g kg^{-1} and 13.8 mg kg^{-1} , respectively. The control treatment (T1) showed the
350 highest values for Cu, S and Zn, being 10.96 mg kg^{-1} for Cu, 3.31 g kg^{-1} for S, and 45.0 mg
351 kg^{-1} for Zn. However, the plants in T5 assimilated the least amount of Cu, S and Zn, with
352 mean values of 6.92 g kg^{-1} , 2.39 g kg^{-1} and 24.2 mg kg^{-1} , respectively.

353 PG application improved the uptake of P in alfalfa. The substrates containing the highest
354 amount of PG obtained the highest P values, with the mean values in T5 and T6 being 4.79

355 g kg⁻¹ and 5.07 g kg⁻¹, respectively. Furthermore, the alfalfa plants in T6 assimilated the
356 highest amount of K, with a mean value of 37.5 g kg⁻¹. Treatment 4 showed the lowest
357 mean value of K, with 30.9 g kg⁻¹ (Table 6).

358 **4. Conclusion**

359 The study found that high levels of phosphogypsum (PG) in soil can be toxic to alfalfa
360 seeds and hamper their growth and development, but the application of PG and red mud
361 (RM) to soil can increase the availability of certain nutrients for alfalfa, suggesting that
362 waste materials like PG and RM could be used as a valuable resource for plant nutrition.

363 Germination is a critical stage in the life cycle of a plant, and it can be sensitive to soil
364 contaminated with toxic substances. In this case, the high levels of PG in the soil had a
365 toxic effect on the alfalfa seeds, preventing them from germinating or hampering their
366 growth and development. It is crucial to consider the potential impact of soil amendments
367 such as PG on both seed germination and plant growth. The reported results showed that,
368 as salinity increased, the percentage of germination decreased. Applying high amounts of
369 PG to soil (300 g kg⁻¹ PG) will negatively affect alfalfa seed germination. In addition, the
370 use of RM causes a significant increase in Na.

371 Giving due consideration to the potential effects of PG on drainage acidity is essential,
372 since acidic drainage, if released into the environment, can cause harmful environmental
373 consequences, such as soil and water pollution, and measures to neutralize the acidity of
374 drainages containing high levels of PG may also be necessary to minimize these potential
375 impacts. The addition of PG and RM to soil can increase the electrical conductivity of the
376 soil. The presence of high levels of salts due to PG and RM inputs in the rhizosphere zone
377 (the area of soil surrounding plant roots) can affect the ability of plants to absorb water and

378 nutrients, which can impact their growth and development. Our results may be the first to
379 show the feasibility of using PG as input for plant nutrition, since, when applying higher
380 doses (50 g of PG per kg of soil), the concentration of Ca rises. PG application improved
381 the uptake of P in alfalfa. The application of PG and RM to the soil increased the availability
382 of important nutrients for alfalfa, such as phosphorus (P), calcium (Ca^{2+}) and magnesium
383 (Mg^{2+}). However, further research is necessary to optimise the doses of waste (PG and RM)
384 for each crop, such as alfalfa growing systems in this case.

385 The European Union has identified and documented certain natural resources as critical
386 raw materials (CRM) to prevent their scarcity, and phosphate is one of these. Thus, the
387 buried PG ponds may be used in the future as an agricultural supply of elements such as P
388 and Ca.

389 **Acknowledgements**

390 This research has been partially funded by the following projects and programs: 1) Operative
391 FEDER Program-Andalucía 2014-2020 (Ref.: UHU-202020); 2) National Research Agency (Refs.:
392 PID2020-116461RB-C21, TED2021-130361B-I00); Andalusian government excellence program
393 2020 (Ref.: PY20_00096); 3); This work has been partially funded by the European Union
394 Next Generation EU grant to Professor Dr. Pedro Palencia and the Margarita Salas research
395 grant funded from the Spanish Ministry of Universities to Professor Dr. José Luis Guerrero.

396 **References**

397 [1] B. Bouargane, K. Laaboubi, M.G. Biyoune, B. Bakiz, A. Ali Atbir, Effective and
398 innovative procedures to use phosphogypsum waste in different application domains:
399 review of the environmental, economic challenges and life cycle assessment. J Mater
400 Cycles Waste Manag. (2023) 1288–1308. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10163-023-01617-8>

401 [2] M. Archambo, S. Kawatra, Red Mud: Fundamentals and New Avenues for Utilization.
402 Miner. Process. Extr. Metall. Rev. 42 (2020) 1-24.
403 <https://doi.org/10.1080/08827508.2020.1781109>.

404 [3] L. Yang, Y. Zhang, Y. Yan, Utilization of original phosphogypsum as raw material for
405 the preparation of self-leveling mortar. J. Clean. Prod. 127 (2016) 204–213.
406 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2016.04.054>

407 [4] A. El Kateb, C. Stalder, A. Rüggeberg, C. Neururer, J.E. Spangenberg, S.J., Spezzaferri,
408 Impact of Industrial Phosphate Waste Discharge on the Marine Environment in the Gulf of
409 Gabes (Tunisia), PloS One, 13 (2018) e0197731.
410 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0197731>

411

412 [5] R. El Zrelli, L. Rabaoui, H. Abda, N. Daghbouj, R. Pérez-López, S. Castet, T. Aigouy,
413 N. Bejaoui, P. Courjault-Radé, Characterization of the Role of Phosphogypsum Foam in
414 the Transport of Metals and Radionuclides in the Southern Mediterranean Sea. J. Hazard.
415 Mater. 363 (2019) 258–267. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2018.09.083>

416

417 [6] K. Kovler, Radioactive Materials. Toxicity of Building Materials. Elsevier (2012) 196–
418 240. <https://doi.org/10.1533/9780857096357.196>

419 [7] F. Macías, C.R. Cánovas, P. Cruz-Hernández, S. Carrero, M.P. Asta, J.M. Nieto, R.J.
420 Pérez-López, An Anomalous Metal-Rich Phosphogypsum: Characterization
421 and Classification According to International Regulations, J. Hazard. Mater. 331 (2017)
422 99–108. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2017.02.015>

- 423 [8] R. El Zrelli, L. Rabaoui, N. Daghbouj, H. Abda, S. Castet, C. Josse, P. van Beek, M.
424 Souhaut, S. Michel, N. Bejaoui, P. Research, Characterization of Phosphate Rock and
425 Phosphogypsum from Gabes Phosphate Fertilizer Factories (SE Tunisia): High Mining
426 Potential and Implications for Environmental Protection. *Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res.* 25
427 (2018) 14690–14702. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-018-1648-4>
- 428 [9] S. Stankovic, M. Jovic, A.R. Stankovic, L. Katsikas, Heavy Metals in Seafood Mussels.
429 Risks for human health. *Environ. Chem. Sustainable world*, Springer, (2012) 311–373.
430 https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-2442-6_9
- 431 [10] P.B. Tchounwou, C.G. Yedjou, A.K. Patlolla, D.J.J.M. Sutton, Heavy Metal Toxicity
432 and the Environment. In: Luch, A. (eds) *Molecular, Clinical and Environmental*
433 *Toxicology. Experientia Supplementum*, Springer, Basel. 101 (2012) 133–164.
434 https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-7643-8340-4_6
- 435 [11] D. Dewar, L. Harvey, C.J.C.F.P. Vakil, Uranium mining and health. *Can Fam*
436 *Physician.* 59 (2013) 469–471.
- 437 [12] L. Hund, E.J. Bedrick, C. Miller, G. Huerta, T. Nez, S. Ramone, C. Shuey, M., Cajero,
438 J. Lewis, A Bayesian Framework for Estimating Disease Risk Due to Exposure to Uranium
439 Mine and Mill Waste on the Navajo Nation, *J. R. Stat. Soc. Ser. A Stat. Soc.* 178 (2015)
440 1069–1091. <https://doi.org/10.1111/rssa.12099>
- 441 [13] E.J. Dashner-Titus, J. Hoover, L. Li, J.-H. Lee, R. Du, K.J. Liu, M.G. Traber, E. Ho,
442 J. Lewis, L.G. Hudson, Metal Exposure and Oxidative Stress Markers in Pregnant Navajo
443 Birth Cohort Study Participants, *Free Radic. Biol. Med.* 124 (2018) 484–492.
444 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.freeradbiomed.2018.04.579>
- 445 [14] S. Keith, O. Faroon, N. Roney, F. Scinicariello, S. Wilbur, L. Ingerman, F. Lladós, D.

446 Plewak, D. Wohlers, G. Diamond, Toxicological Profile for Uranium. Agency for Toxic
447 Substances and Disease Registry (US), Atlanta (GA) (2013),

448 [15] H. Tayibi, M. Choura, F.A. López, F.J. Alguacil, A. López-Delgado,. Environmental
449 impact and management of phosphogypsum. *J. Environ. Manage.* 90 (2009) 2377–2386.
450 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2009.03.007>

451 [16] Q. Guan, Y. Sui, W. Yu, Y. Bu, C. Zeng, C. Liu, Z. Zhang, Z. Gao, R. Chi, Deep
452 removal of phosphorus and synchronous preparation of high-strength gypsum from
453 phosphogypsum by crystal modification in NaCl-HCl solutions, *Sep. Purif. Technol.* 298
454 (2022) 121592.

455 [17] I.S. Alcorido, J.E. Rechcigl, Phosphogypsum in Agriculture: A Review, *Adv. Agron.*
456 49 (1993) 55–118. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2113\(08\)60793-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2113(08)60793-2)

457 [18] C. Papastefanou, S. Stoulos, A. Ioannidou, M. Manolopoulou, The Application of
458 Phosphogypsum in Agriculture and the Radiological Impact, *J. Environ. Radioact.* 89
459 (2006) 188–198. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvrad.2006.05.005>

460 [19] J.M. Abril, R. García-Tenorio, S.M. Enamorado, M.D. Hurtado, L. Andreu, A.
461 Delgado, The cumulative effect of three decades of phosphogypsum amendments in
462 reclaimed marsh soils from SW Spain: (226)Ra, (238)U and Cd contents in soils and tomato
463 fruit. *Sci. Total Environ.* 403 (2008) 80–88.
464 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2008.05.013>

465 [20] S. Churka Blum, E. Caires, L. Alleoni, Lime and Phosphogypsum Application and
466 Sulfate Retention in Subtropical Soils under No-Till System, *J. Soil Sci. Plant Nutr.* 13
467 (2013) 279–300. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4067/S0718-95162013005000024>

468 [6] M.M. Hanafi, P. Azizi, J. Vijayanathan, Phosphogypsum Organic, a Byproduct from
469 Rare Earth Metals Processing, Improves Plant and Soil. *Agronomy* 11 (2021) 2561.
470 <https://doi.org/10.3390/agronomy11122561>

471 [7] J.W. Bossolani, C.A.C. Crusciol, L.G. Moretti, A. Garcia, J.R. Portugal, L. Bernart,
472 R.G. Vilela, E.F. Caires, T.J. Carneiro, T.J.C. Amado, J.C. Calonego, A.R. Reis, Improving
473 soil fertility with lime and phosphogypsum enhances soybean yield and physiological
474 characteristics, *Agron. Sustain. Dev.* 42 (2022) 26. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s13593-022-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s13593-022-00765-9)
475 [00765-9](https://doi.org/10.1007/s13593-022-00765-9)

476 [21] J.W. Bossolani, C.A.C. Crusciol, A. Garcia, L.G. Moretti, J.R. Portugal, V.A.
477 Rodrigues, M.C. Fonseca, J.C. Calonego, E.F. Caires, T.J.C. Amado, A.R. Reis, Long-
478 Term Lime and Phosphogypsum Amended-Soils Alleviates the Field Drought Effects on
479 Carbon and Antioxidative Metabolism of Maize by Improving Soil Fertility and Root
480 Growth, *Front. Plant Sci.* 12 (2021) 650296. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpls.2021.650296>

481 [22] J.L. Guerrero, I. Gutiérrez-Álvarez, F. Mosqueda, M.J. Gázquez, R. García-Tenorio,
482 M. Olías, J.P. Bolívar, Evaluation of the radioactive pollution in the salt-marshes under a
483 phosphogypsum stack system, *Environ. Pollut.* 258 (2020) 113729.
484 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2019.113729>

485 [23] H. Gu, N. Wang, S. Liu, Radiological restrictions of using red mud as building material
486 additive, *Waste Manag. Res.* 30 (2012) 961–965.
487 <https://doi.org/10.1177/0734242X12451308>

488 [24] D. Koppel, F. Kho, A. Hastings, D. Crouch, A. MacIntosh, T. Cresswell, S. Higgins,
489 Current understanding and research needs for ecological risk assessments of naturally
490 occurring radioactive materials (NORM) in subsea oil and gas pipelines, *J. Environ.*

491 Radioact. 241 (2022) 106774. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvrad.2021.106774>

492

493 [25] M. Gautam, M. Agrawal, Identification of metal tolerant plant species for sustainable
494 phytomanagement of abandoned red mud dumps, *Appl. Geochemistry* 104 (2019) 83–92.

495 [26] A. Russkikh, G. Shterk, B.H. Al-Solami, B.A. Fadhel, A. Ramirez, J. Gascon, Turning
496 Waste into Value: Potassium-Promoted Red Mud as an Effective Catalyst for the
497 Hydrogenation of CO₂, *ChemSusChem* 13 (2020) 2981–2987.
498 <https://doi.org/10.1002/cssc.202000242>

499 [27] J. Beiyuan, L. Fang, H. Chen, M. Li, D. Liu, Y. Wang, Nitrogen of EDDS enhanced
500 removal of potentially toxic elements and attenuated their oxidative stress in a
501 phytoextraction process, *Environ. Pollut.* 268 (2021) 115719.
502 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2020.115719>

503 [28] J. Li, L. Su, A. Lv, Y. Li, P. Zhou, Y. An, MsPG1 alleviated aluminum-induced
504 inhibition of root growth by decreasing aluminum accumulation and increasing porosity
505 and extensibility of cell walls in alfalfa (*Medicago sativa*), *Environ. Exp. Bot.* 175 (2020)
506 104045. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envexpbot.2020.104045>

507 [29] L. Fang, W. Ju, C. Yang, C. Duan, Y. Cui, F. Han, G. Shen, C. Zhang, Application of
508 signaling molecules in reducing metal accumulation in alfalfa and alleviating metal-
509 induced phytotoxicity in Pb/Cd-contaminated soil, *Ecotoxicol. Environ. Saf.* 182 (2019)
510 109459. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoenv.2019.109459>

511 [30] Z. Yahaghi, M. Shirvani, F. Nourbakhsh, J.J. Pueyo, Uptake and effects of lead and
512 zinc on alfalfa (*Medicago sativa* L.) seed germination and seedling growth: Role of plant
513 growth promoting bacteria, *S. Afr. J. Bot.* 124 (2019) 573–582.

514 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sajb.2019.01.006>

515 [31] L. Chen, J. Beiyuan, W. Hu, Z. Zhang, C. Duan, Q. Cui, X. Zhu, H. He, X. Huang, L.
516 Fang, Phytoremediation of potentially toxic elements (PTEs) contaminated soils using
517 alfalfa (*Medicago sativa* L.): A comprehensive review, *Chemosphere* 293 (2022) 133577.
518 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2022.133577>

519 [32] A.B. Cundy, R.P. Bardos, M. Puschenreiter, M. Mench, V. Bert, W. Friesl-Hanl, I.
520 Müller, X.N. Li, N. Weyens, N. Witters, J. Vangronsveld, Brownfields to green fields:
521 Realising wider benefits from practical contaminant phytomanagement strategies, *J.*
522 *Environ. Manage.* 184 (2016) 67–77. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2016.03.028>

523 [33] I. Diarra, K.K. Kotra, S. Prasad, Assessment of biodegradable chelating agents in the
524 phytoextraction of heavy metals from multi–metal contaminated soil, *Chemosphere* 273
525 (2021) 128483. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2020.128483>

526 [34] A. Rai, P. Chauhan, S. Bhattacharya, Remediation of Industrial Effluents, *Water*
527 *Remediation* (2018) pp. 171–187. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-10-7551-3_10

528 [35] S. Hattab, S. Hattab, H. Boussetta, M. Banni, Influence of nitrate fertilization on Cd
529 uptake and oxidative stress parameters in alfalfa plants cultivated in presence of Cd, *J. Soil*
530 *Sci. Plant Nutr.* 14 (2014) 89–99. <https://doi.org/10.4067/S0718-95162014005000007>

531 [36] V. Kumar, S. AlMomin, A. Al-Shatti, H. Al-Aqeel, F. Al-Salameen, A.B. Shajan, S.M.
532 Nair, Enhancement of heavy metal tolerance and accumulation efficiency by expressing
533 *Arabidopsis* ATP sulfurylase gene in alfalfa, *Int. J. Phytoremediation* 21 (2019) 1112–
534 1121. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15226514.2019.1606784>

535 [37] S. Cai, B. Liu, J. Li, Y. Zhang, Y. Zeng, Y. Wang, T. Liu, Fertilizer Efficiency and
536 Risk Assessment of the Utilization of AOD Slag as a Mineral Fertilizer for Alfalfa

537 (*Medicago sativa* L.) and Perennial Ryegrass (*Lolium perenne* L.) Planting, Sustainability
538 14 (2022) 1575. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su14031575>

539 [38] G.J. Zhang, Y. Wang, Y.H. Yan, M.H. Hall, D.J. Undersander, D.K. Combs,
540 Comparison of two in situ reference methods to estimate indigestible NDF by near infrared
541 reflectance spectroscopy in alfalfa, *Heliyon*, 7. (2021), e07313.
542 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2021.e07313>

543 [39] M.P. Russelle, Alfalfa: After an 8,000-year journey, the “Queen of Forages” stands
544 poised to enjoy renewed popularity, *American Scientist* 89 (2001) 252–261.

545 [40] A.C. de Campos, C.R. de Oliveira, Improved Alfalfa Phosphate Utilization Using
546 Zeolite Amendments in Low pH Soil, *J. Soil Sci. Plant Nutr.* 21 (2021) 1307–1317.
547 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s42729-021-00441-z>

548 [41] X. Li, J. An, X. Hou, Effects of Six Consecutive Years of Irrigation and Phosphorus
549 Fertilization on Alfalfa Yield, *Plants* 12 (2023) 2227.
550 <https://doi.org/10.3390/plants12112227>

551 [42] A.M. Helalia, O.A. Al-Tahir, Y.A. Al-Nabulsi, The influence of irrigation water
552 salinity and fertilizer management on the yield of alfalfa (*Medicago sativa* L.), *Agric. Water*
553 *Manag.* 31 (1996) 105–114.

554 [43] M. Campos-M, R. Campos-C, Applications of quartering method in soils and foods,
555 *Int. j. eng. res. appl.* 7 (2017) 35–39. <https://doi.org/10.9790/9622-0701023539>

556 [44] R. Pérez-López, J.M. Nieto, I. López-Coto, J.L. Aguado, J.P. Bolívar, M. Santisteban,
557 Dynamics of contaminants in phosphogypsum of the fertilizer industry of Huelva (SW
558 Spain): From phosphate rock ore to the environment, *Appl. Geochemistry* 25 (2010) 705–
559 715. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apgeochem.2010.02.003>

- 560 [45] O. Alelweet, S. Pavia, Z. Lei, Pozzolanic and Cementing Activity of Raw and Pyro-
561 Processed Saudi Arabian Red Mud (RM) Waste, *Recent prog. mater.* 3 (2021) 1–1.
- 562 [46] W.B. Wang, Y.H. Kim, H.S. Lee, K.Y. Kim, X.P. Deng, S.S. Kwak, Analysis of
563 antioxidant enzyme activity during germination of alfalfa under salt and drought stresses,
564 *Plant Physiol. Biochem.* 47 (2009) 570–577. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.plaphy.2009.02.009>
- 565 [47] S.V. Kuriakose, M.N.V. Prasad, Cadmium stress affects seed germination and seedling
566 growth in *Sorghum bicolor* (L.) Moench by changing the activities of hydrolyzing enzymes,
567 *Plant Growth Regul.* 54 (2008) 143–156. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10725-007-9237-4>
- 568 [48] M.K. Samma, H. Zhou, W. Cui, K. Zhu, J. Zhang, W. Shen, Methane alleviates copper-
569 induced seed germination inhibition and oxidative stress in *Medicago sativa*, *Biometals* 30
570 (2017) 97–111. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10534-017-9989-x>
- 571 [49] M. Tejada, J.L. González, A.M. García-Martínez, J. Parrado, Application of green
572 manure and green manure composted with beet vinasse on soil restoration: effects on soil
573 properties, *Bioresour. Technol.* 99 (2008) 4949-4957.
574 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2007.09.026>
- 575 [50] M. Zhang, L. Zhao, Y. He, J. Hu, G. Hu, Y. Zhu, A. Khan, Y. Xiong, J. Zhang,
576 Potential roles of iron nanomaterials in enhancing growth and nitrogen fixation and
577 modulating rhizomicrobiome in alfalfa (*Medicago sativa* L.), *Bioresour. Technol.* 391
578 (2024) 129987. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2023.129987>.
- 579 [51] Y. Fan, W. Shen, P. Vanessa, F. Cheng, Synergistic effect of Si and K in improving
580 the growth, ion distribution and partitioning of *Lolium perenne* L. under saline-alkali stress,
581 *J. Integr. Agric.* 20 (2021) 1660–1673. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2095-3119\(20\)63277-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2095-3119(20)63277-4)
- 582 [52] J.L. Guerrero, S.M. Pérez-Moreno, I. Gutiérrez-Álvarez, M.J. Gázquez, J.P. Bolívar,

583 Behaviour of heavy metals and natural radionuclides in the mixing of phosphogypsum
584 leachates with seawater, *Environ. Pollut.* 268 (2021) 115843.
585 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2020.115843>

586 [53] C.D. Gan, T. Chen, J.Y. Yang, Growth responses and accumulation of vanadium in
587 alfalfa, milkvetch root, and swamp morning glory and their potential in phytoremediation,
588 *Bull. Environ. Contam. Toxicol.* 107 (2021) 559–564.

589 [54] N. Bolan, A. Kunhikrishnan, R. Thangarajan, J. Kumpiene, J. Park, T. Makino, M.B.
590 Kirkham, K. Scheckel, Remediation of heavy metal (loid)s contaminated soils - To
591 mobilize or to immobilize?, *J. Hazard. Mater.* 266 (2014) 141–166.

592 [55] M. Gondek, D.C. Weindorf, C. Thiel, G. Kleinheinz, Soluble Salts in Compost and
593 Their Effects on Soil and Plants: A Review, *Compost Sci. Util.* 28 (2020) 59-75.
594 <https://10.1080/1065657X.2020.1772906>

595 [56] M. Tsioka, E.A. Voudrias, Comparison of alternative management methods for
596 phosphogypsum waste using life cycle analysis, *J. Clean. Prod.* 266 (2020) 121386.

597 [57] W. Wang, Z-G. Cheng, M-Y. Li, B-Z. Wang, J-Y. Li, W. Wang, Y-Z. Su, A. Batool,
598 Y-C. Xiong, Increasing periods after seeding under twice-annually harvested alfalfa
599 reduces soil carbon and nitrogen stocks in a semiarid environment. *Land Degrad Dev.* 31
600 (2020) 2872–2882. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ldr.3592>

601

602 **Tables and Figures**

603

604 **Table 1.** Chemical characteristics of soil, phosphogypsum (PG) and red mud (RM) before
605 mixing to obtain the different substrates.

Element	Soil	PG	RM
Al (%)	2.05	0.10	8.87
Ca (%)	1.64	8.65	5.44
Fe (%)	1.52	0.03	10.5
K (%)	0.47	0.02	0.09
Mg (%)	0.33	<0.0025	0.17
Na (%)	0.12	0.11	>3
P (%)	0.43	0.28	0.097
S (%)	165.63	7.02	1.06
Si (%)	45.78	0.16	-
Ba (ppm)	104.58	42.50	130
Cr (ppm)	33.75	<25	394
Mn (ppm)	403.13	<25	211

606

607

608

609

610

611

612

613 **Table 2.** Mass proportions (soil/ phosphogypsum (PG)/ red mud (RM)) of the different
 614 substrates in relation to a total of 1000 parts for the resulting treatments.

Code	Treatments	Soil	PG	RM ¹⁵
1-0-0	1	1000	0	0 ⁶¹⁶
1-5-0	2	995	5	0 ⁶¹⁷
1-5-10	3	985	5	10 ⁶¹⁸
1-5-100	4	895	5	100 ⁶¹⁹
1-50-0	5	950	50	0 ⁶²⁰
1-50-10	6	940	50	10 ⁶²¹
1-50-100	7	850	50	100 ⁶²²
1-300-0	8	700	300	0 ⁶²³
1-300-10	9	690	300	10 ⁶²⁴
1-300-100	10	600	300	100 ⁶²⁵

628
 629
 630
 631

632 **Table 3.** ANOVA soil pH and CE recorded during the crop cycle (winter and spring).

Treatments (T)	pH ¹	EC ¹ (mS cm ⁻¹)	pH ²	EC ² (mS cm ⁻¹)	RAS
1	7.6 ± 0.4 a	0.459 ± 0.09 c	8.08 ± 0.04 a	0.414 ± 0.04 d	0.22 c
2	7.5 ± 0.3 a	0.899 ± 0.29 c	7.81 ± 0.08 a	1.151 ± 0.15 c	0.25 c
3	7.5 ± 0.4 a	1.544 ± 0.24 b	7.87 ± 0.07 a	1.688 ± 0.30 b	0.85 b
4	7.8 ± 0.4 a	2.571 ± 0.38 a	8.20 ± 0.31 a	2.826 ± 0.23 a	3.83 a
5	6.1 ± 0.2 b	2.291 ± 0.43 a	6.08 ± 0.12 c	2.653 ± 0.04 a	0.26 c
6	6.6 ± 0.2 b	2.746 ± 0.31 a	6.55 ± 0.14 b	3.040 ± 0.09 a	0.67 b
Significance	**	**	**	**	**

633 ¹ pH and CE date 20/2/2021 (winter). ² pH and CE date 31/5/2021 (spring). Means with same letter (s) are not
 634 significantly different at $p < 0.05$, * Significant at $p < 0.05$, *** significant at $p < 0.01$ NS: not significant.
 635

636
 637
 638
 639
 640
 641
 642

643 **Table 4.** ANOVA substrate Ca, Mg, K and Na recorded during the crop cycle.

Treatments (T)	N ¹ %	P ¹ mg kg ⁻¹	K cmol _c kg ⁻¹	Ca cmol _c kg ⁻¹	Mg cmol _c kg ⁻¹	Na cmol _c kg ⁻¹
1	5.03 ± nd	16.40 ± 2.19 c	0.75 ± 0.03	29.00 ± 1.24 c	2.21 ± 0.09 abc	0.54 ± 0.01 c
2	5.02 ± nd	71.93 ± 11.41 c	0.79 ± 0.07	31.23 ± 1.35 c	2.44 ± 0.12 ab	0.63 ± 0.02 c
3	4.82 ± nd	80.46 ± 17.96 c	0.76 ± 0.03	33.88 ± 1.80 c	2.30 ± 0.08 abc	2.24 ± 0.28 bc
4	5.06 ± nd	69.82 ± 21.95 c	0.78 ± 0.09	33.90 ± 3.33 c	1.96 ± 0.18 c	10.11 ± 1.66 a
5	4.86 ± nd	800 ± 129 a	0.86 ± 0.12	88.27 ± 5.75 b	2.57 ± 0.18 a	1.10 ± 0.06 c
6	4.89 ± nd	610.98 ± 82.15	0.78 ± 0.05	111.79 ±	2.18 ± 0.10 bc	3.18 ± 0.22 b
Significance	nd	**	ns	**	**	**

644 ¹Total N determination though Dumas Method. P available extraction: Olsen, S.R., Cole, C.V.,

645 Watanabe, F.S. y Dean, L.A. (1954). Means with same letter (s) are not significantly different at

646 $p < 0.05$, * Significant at $p < 0.05$, ** significant at $p < 0.01$, NS: not significant.

647

648 **Table 5.** Growth parameters recorded during the crop cycle.

Treatments (T)	Height (cm)	Stems ¹	Leaves ¹
1	11.40 ± 3.89 bc	12.13 ± 6.14 a	14.261 ± 6.93 a
2	11.62 ± 3.86 bc	12.22 ± 5.97 a	14.10 ± 6.75 a
3	12.78 ± 5.32 a	12.43 ± 6.44 a	14.26 ± 7.06 a
4	9.22 ± 4.81 d	11.15 ± 6.86 b	12.53 ± 7.35 b
5	11.87 ± 4.62 abc	12.27 ± 6.16 a	14.26 ± 6.62 a
6	12.61 ± 6.04 ab	12.27 ± 6.65 a	13.50 ± 6.81 a
Significance	**	**	**
Week (W)			
4	4.77 ± 1.05 h	2.38 ± 0.61 i	3.66 ± 0.32 h
7	5.49 ± 1.34 h	4.57 ± 0.63 h	4.64 ± 0.39 h
10	8.56 ± 2.41 fg	8.42 ± 2.21 g	9.92 ± 2.42 fg
12	10.15 ± 3.18 ef	7.86 ± 0.88 g	9.03 ± 1.73 g
14	11.65 ± 2.59 de	8.19 ± 1.32 g	10.50 ± 2.40 f
16	13.54 ± 1.53 c	10.16 ± 0.70 f	12.32 ± 2.02 e
19	11.86 ± 1.37 cd	11.76 ± 0.87 e	13.82 ± 1.70 d
22	12.99 ± 1.94 cd	12.19 ± 0.64 e	13.91 ± 1.57 d
25	16.09 ± 2.10 b	16.45 ± 1.13 d	17.61 ± 1.11 c
27	17.52 ± 1.14 g	19.08 ± 0.80 c	21.66 ± 0.88 b
29	17.50 ± 3.55 ab	21.23 ± 0.58 b	23.74 ± 0.67 a
32	18.89 ± 3.63 a	22.68 ± 0.78 a	25.00 ± 0.66 a
Significance	**	**	**
Interaction TxW	**	**	*

649 ¹Number stems and leaves. Means with same letter (s) are not significantly different at $p < 0.05$, *

650 Significant at $p < 0.05$, ** significant at $p < 0.01$, NS: not significant.

651

652 **Table 6.** Mean values chemical characteristics of the alfalfa recorded at the end of the crop
653 cycle (mg kg⁻¹).

Treatments	Ca ¹	Cu	Fe	K	Mg	Mn	P	S	Zn
1	17517.50	10.96	100.72	36081.28	2645.95	18.26	3310.15	3421.02	45.04
2	23019.18	7.58	53.80	33464.54	3069.01	19.70	2880.34	3115.23	26.52
3	11710.81	7.73	90.27	30909.64	2065.73	13.82	2728.14	2721.64	24.80
4	24428.27	8.35	138.76	30893.51	2855.48	27.61	2915.78	3138.08	34.51
5	14647.32	6.92	92.22	31034.91	2298.92	151.71	4729.01	2397.12	24.24
6	16292.12	7.85	126.34	37554.09	2787.06	73.26	5071.23	3128.34	26.17

654

655

656

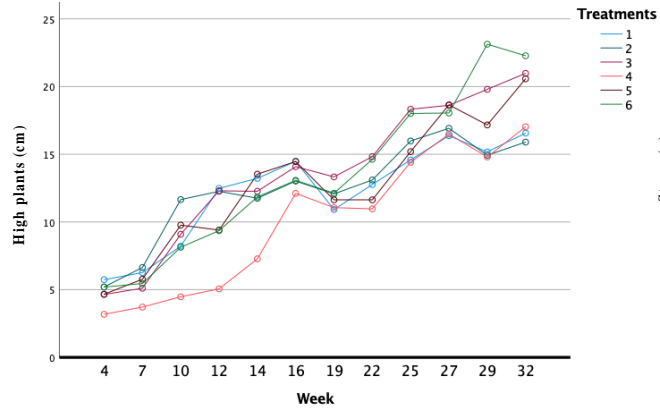
657 **Figures**



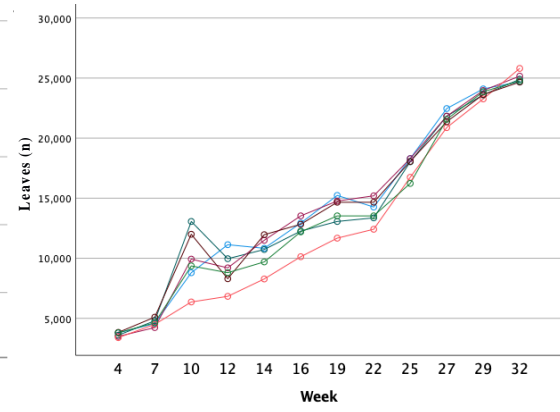
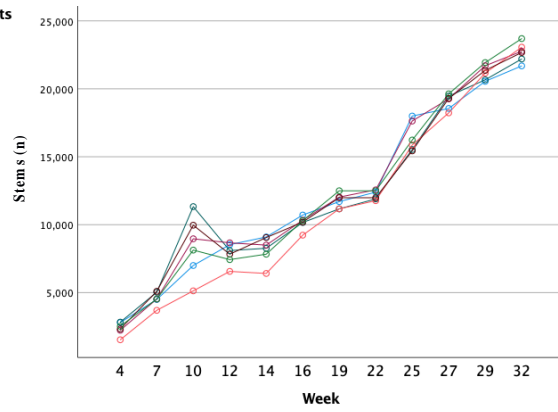
658

659 **Figure 1.** Seed germination in the different treatments. The pots were placed in the order
660 of the treatments for photography.

661



662



663 **Figure 2.** Growth parameters: height (cm), stems and leaves (numbers) recorded during the crop cycle.