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8 **Comparison of soil phosphorus index systems for grassland in the cross-border region of Ireland**

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17 **ABSTRACT**

18 **Background:**

19 The use of soil phosphorus (P) tests and index systems provides a guide for agronomic nutrient
20 requirements and frequently, is also used to estimate risk of P losses to watercourses. Use of soil
21 testing and management based on the results thereof, is mandated in some regions. Several P
22 extraction methods are available which evaluate different P pools and are designed for particular soil
23 types. Further to this, index systems categorising specific ranges of plant-available P, differ. Hence,
24 translation between different tests and index systems is not straightforward. In cross-border
25 regions, where hydrologic basins encompass more than one political jurisdiction, different tests and
26 rules are implemented in adjacent lands. This can create disparities in land management, confusion
27 as to what legislation applies, and obscures the impacts of best management practices at catchment
28 scale.

29 **Aims**

30 The aim of this research was to compare the Morgan's and Olsen soil tests used to quantify plant-
31 available P and the respective index systems, in a border region of the Republic of Ireland (ROI) –
32 Northern Ireland (NI).

33 **Methods**

34 Olsen, Morgans, and water extractable P (WEP) were evaluated (N=1,038). Statistical analysis was
35 conducted to derive conversion equations to translate between the statutory test methods and
36 comparison of the respective index categories was performed.

37 **Results**

38 The conversion equations compared favourably with previous attempts. A stronger relationship was
39 observed between Morgan P and WEP ($R^2=0.60$) than between Olsen P and WEP ($R^2=0.45$) (including
40 pH and site as interaction factors). The ROI index system was found to indicate lower levels of plant
41 available P in the soil compared to the NI system, for the same soils.

42 **Conclusions**

43 The differences in categorization of P availability using either index system creates differences in
44 fertiliser recommendations and also perceived aquatic risks even within small cross-border
45 catchments. This study points to a wider implication for international cross-border catchments,
46 suggesting that evaluation of the relationships between adjacent national soil index systems is
47 required to achieve harmonised management of shared waterbodies.

48 **Keywords:** Phosphorus, Soil fertility, Soil Index Systems, Water quality, grassland, harmonization

49 **1. INTRODUCTION**

50 Management of waterbodies requires understanding of and use and management, climate, geology,
51 and soil characteristics. This becomes increasingly complex in hydrologic catchments which span
52 multiple political jurisdictions with distinct approaches to both regulation and characterisation. The
53 European Environment Agency technical report (EEA, 2012) identified the need for vertical
54 integration between adjacent states sharing waterbodies, including elements of spatial planning and
55 environmental characterisation, if Water Framework Directive (WFD) objectives are to be achieved.
56 This could similarly be said of any water quality goals in transboundary regions, including those

57 outside of the EU. It has been estimated that 310 international river basins exist, spanning 47.1% of
58 Earth's surface and including 150 nations (McCracken and Wolf, 2019). Discrepancies in approaches
59 to data collection relevant for hydrologic modelling and apportionment of nutrient pressures on
60 waterbodies is a challenge to characterisation and to the design and implementation of effective
61 mitigation measures. This was illustrated in modelling of the Nemunas river, as one example, the
62 basin of which includes areas of Belarus, Lithuania, Poland, and Kalingrad Oblast (Čerkasova et al.,
63 2018). That study identified several challenges in modelling transboundary waters, including the
64 unification of measurements used in individual nations and the need for 'flexibility' in using
65 commonly available fertilizer, land use, and crop data to derive model inputs.

66 Soil phosphorus (P) is one issue around which such discrepancies occur, which bears particular
67 relevance within the agricultural sector and landscapes due to the concurrent need to satisfy crop
68 requirements and to achieve national and international quality goals for shared waterbodies. A
69 variety of methods are available for estimating the amount of plant available P in soils using
70 extraction methods which evaluate different P pools. Standardised soil testing has been devised
71 primarily as a means to determine fertiliser requirements, but frequently, elevated soil P has been
72 correlated with sub-optimal water quality exceeding target thresholds for dissolved phosphorus
73 (Cassidy et al., 2017; Daly et al., 2002; Horta and Torret, 2007; Jordan et al., 2000; and others). Index
74 systems are widely used to categorise ranges of soil P according to their ability to satisfy crop
75 requirements and/or the level of environmental risk via runoff (Tóth et al., 2014). As described by
76 Tóth et al. (2014) P recommendations in Europe are derived from a three-step development
77 process. Firstly, statutory extraction methods are selected based on soil type. Secondly, index
78 ranges for soil P are identified based on the results of yield response trials, typically specifying
79 the likelihood of response to additional fertilizer. Finally, fertilizer recommendations are made
80 according to the index of an individual field or parcel, and in some instances crop, soil, or pH
81 characteristics. Conversely, in other parts of the world including much of the United States, index
82 systems are primarily oriented towards environmental risk, rather than yield (Sharpley et al.,

83 2017). In the present study, the two index systems used on the island of Ireland refer primarily to
84 crop yield, although extensive work has subsequently related both index systems to
85 environmental risk (Roberts et al., 2020; Cassidy et al., 2017; Roberts et al., 2017; Watson et al.,
86 2007; Jordan et al., 2000).

87 Within the island of Ireland, which includes the Republic of Ireland (ROI) and Northern Ireland (NI),
88 two statutory soil test methods (STP) are implemented for determining grassland P requirement. In
89 ROI Morgan extract (Morgan, 1941) is used, while in NI, Olsen extract (Olsen, 1954) is used. Other
90 differences in the statutory soil testing methodologies between these two regions are a) different
91 depths of sampling, and b) different index systems. Ireland represents a relatively simple
92 transboundary scenario, involving just two nations, and so provides an example to evaluate the
93 mechanics and consequences of contrasting approaches. There are 7 cross-border surface-water
94 catchments on the island (Bann, Castletown, Erne, Fane, Flurry, Foyle, and Lough Melvin) which
95 represent c. 17% of the total land area (McCracken and Wolf, 2019). The objective of this study was
96 to compare the classification of soil P availability according to the ROI and NI grassland index
97 systems and to examine the catchment management implications of using either index system in a
98 border-region region.

99 1.1 ROI Approach

100 Statutory agronomic soil P testing is conducted on mineral soils in ROI cored to a depth of 10 cm in a
101 W-shaped pattern across fields or paddocks, composited, dried (40°C) and sieved (2 mm). For farms
102 availing of derogation to the Nitrates Directive, soil testing must be conducted every four years.
103 Estimates of the proportion of ROI farmers regularly soil testing have been reported in the literature:
104 63% (n=1009) (Daxini et al., 2018), or 66% (Buckley et al., 2015). The Morgan extraction process used
105 in this region extracts P held in the labile pool (available and readily available) and is considered to
106 be suitable for neutral and acidic soils. For naturally alkaline soils (≥ 7.5 pH), the Morgan extraction

107 may overestimate plant available P due to its efficiency in breaking Al and Fe bonds and the low
108 solubility of Ca-P (Courtney and Harrington, 2010; Fan et al., 2021).

109 1.2 NI Approach

110 Agronomic soil P testing in NI is conducted in alignment with the rest of the United Kingdom. Soil
111 coring is shallower than in ROI; cores are extracted to a depth of 7.5 cm, air dried, and sieved (2
112 mm). The Olsen test used in this region extracts phosphate which is exchangeable with bicarbonate
113 and some readily soluble calcium phosphate (Rowell, 1994). Lumsdon et al. (2016) indicated that the
114 Olsen extraction process likely causes the desorption of organic and inorganic P bound to
115 (oxy)hydroxide mineral particles. The Olsen test is considered to be suitable for calcareous soils
116 (Mallarino, 1995), although it is generally suited to most soils and is widely used.

117 1.3 Comparing Morgan and Olsen P

118 Past comparisons of the Morgan and Olsen extraction processes have developed regression
119 equations by which they can be correlated. Poulton et al. (1997) ascertained the following
120 relationship ($R^2=0.67$) for soils across ROI [Eq. 1]:

121

$$P^{Olsen} = 5.8 + 2.91P^{Morgan} \quad [Eq. 1]$$

122

123 Further to that work, Foy et al. (1997) examined the relationship between Morgan and Olsen P
124 values for 199 soils in the cross-border region of Ireland. They established a non-linear relationship
125 ($R^2=0.74$) [Eq. 2]:

126

$$P^{Olsen} = 5.96(P^{Morgan})^{0.773} \quad [Eq. 2]$$

127

128 The previous studies, and others, have described relationships between the Olsen and Morgan
129 methods for individual soil types. Although the Morgan's and Olsen tests are fundamentally different
130 extraction methods, the common principles behind the resulting index systems are the same i.e.,
131 whether there will be a plant response to added fertilizer P and from which fertilizer
132 recommendations for farmers are formulated. In the UK, the Olsen Index system has been derived
133 from comprehensive agronomic trial data from multiple sites across the country. These trials have
134 demonstrated that as the amount of plant-available phosphate in the soil increases from a very low
135 level, plant yield increases rapidly at first and then more slowly until it reaches a maximum.
136 Typically, maximum yield of grass was reached at Olsen P Index 2 (AHDB, 2019). Above Index 2 there
137 would be no further agronomic response. The ROI system specifies indices from 1-4, where 1
138 indicates low plant available P and a definite response to fertilizer while 4 indicates excessive P and
139 no response to fertilizer addition. The NI index system is divided from 0-4, where 2 is sub-divided
140 into 2- and 2+ (DAERA, 2019). The index ranges for both systems are described in Table 1. An
141 optimal index under the ROI system (Index 3) is not equivalent to the target index in the NI system
142 (Index 2- or 2+). From an agronomic perspective, this may lead to under or over-application of
143 fertiliser P with respect to plant demands. From an environmental perspective, although both index
144 systems have been used as indicators of potential P loss to watercourses (Cassidy et al. 2017;
145 Roberts et al., 2017; Daly and Casey, 2005; Daly et al., 2002; Jordan et al., 2000 and others), they
146 were each developed solely from an agronomic perspective. If used as a basis for inferences of
147 potential risk of P loss to waterbodies, it is unclear which system provides a more adequate indicator
148 of risk, or whether the perceived levels of risk are the same. Indeed, tests including water
149 extractable P (WEP), DESPRAL, or degree of P saturation may provide a more realistic assessment of
150 the potential for loss to watercourses. For example, McDowell et al. (2020) used Olsen P and WEP in
151 conjunction, to project timeframes of soil P decline from excessively loaded soils (from an agronomic
152 perspective) to environmental targets. The WEP test identifies only that phosphorus in the sample
153 which is readily available and so most vulnerable to loss (Kleinman et al., 2002). However, transfer of

154 P is contingent upon connectivity to a receptor (Haygarth et al., 2005). At present, only the
155 agronomic tests are required by law in ROI and NI for the purpose of farm level nutrient accounting.

156 Although Foy et al. (1997) compared the Olsen and Morgan extraction methods, no comparison of
157 the index systems is currently available. Discrepancies between the two approaches confounds
158 assessment of P legacy and accounting for whole-island P load. In the cross-border region (counties
159 Armagh, Cavan, Donegal, Down, Fermanagh, Monaghan, and Tyrone) many farmers own or lease
160 land in both NI and ROI. These individuals must adhere to the respective soil testing regulations and
161 fertilizer application rates corresponding to their geographic location. Lack of clarity as to the
162 relationship between both the STP extraction methods and between the NI and ROI index systems
163 makes farm-level decision making difficult.

164 From scientific and policy perspectives, models of soil P loading and loss to watercourses,
165 interpretation of outlet data, and catchment-scale decision making requires consistent
166 characterisation of inputs and land management. Models which use either quantitative values of soil
167 P (such as PSYCHIC – Davison et al., 2008, which uses Olsen P as an input variable) could more easily
168 be applied in jurisdictions using the alternative STP or index system if conversion factors were
169 available. While the STP conversion equations mentioned previously (Foy et al., 1997 and Poulton et
170 al., 1997) can convert between soil tests, no evaluation of index systems was provided there, so the
171 second instance of difference is not addressed. At present, catchment scientists and advisory
172 agencies are forced to make *ad hoc* equivalencies, which preclude consistency across individual
173 studies.

174

175 In this study soil samples from the cross-border region of Ireland were analysed using both Olsen
176 and Morgan extraction methods and characterised according to the respective index systems.
177 Statistical analysis was conducted to derive equations for conversion between tests, and the
178 consequences are contextualised within the framework of nutrient management best practices.

179 **2. Materials and Methods**

180 2.1 Soil Sampling

181 Three individual datasets are used in the present study, combining both new soil testing and
182 archived material/previous soil analyses. While the Blackwater and its sub-catchment fall within a
183 similar overall area, the sampled farms do not overlap, and samples were taken during separate
184 campaigns. The three sites are all agriculturally dominated, grassland catchments in the border
185 region of Ireland. Sample sites are summarized in Table 2. In all cases, paddocks were sampled using
186 a W-shaped sampling protocol (20-40 cores per sample), and composited. Depth of sampling varies
187 depending on study and is detailed in Table 2. Samples were dried at 40°C and sieved to 2 mm.

188 Corduff is a 5.7 km² catchment in Co. Monaghan. The catchment is poorly drained and has a drumlin
189 topography. Soil type varies depending on slope position, with acid brown earths on hilltops and
190 stagnic luvisols and gleys on slopes and valley bottoms. This catchment is part of the Teagasc
191 Agricultural Catchments Programme (Shortle and Jordan, 2017). Soil samples were taken in
192 December 2013 – February 2014 to a depth of 10 cm on all farms within the catchment.

193 Blackwater is a 1,491 km² catchment participating in the INTERREG CatchmentCARE project. Soil
194 samples were taken on 17 participating study farms within the catchment during January-February
195 2019, in order to deliver nutrient management advice. The 17 farms were scattered throughout the
196 catchment. Samples were taken to a depth of 7.5 cm.

197 A 5 km² sub-catchment within Blackwater was investigated by Campbell et al. (2015) as part of the
198 TRACE project. The sub-catchment is located in the south of the Blackwater catchment. Sampling
199 was conducted in December 2004-February 2005. Samples were taken to a depth of 7.5 cm.

200 2.2 Laboratory Analysis

201 The Morgan test was conducted in accordance with Morgan (1941). In brief, samples were extracted
202 using a buffered 10% sodium acetate (pH 4.8, 1:5 (v/v) soil to solution ratio) extraction over 30
203 minutes. The Olsen extraction process (Olsen, 1954) used a 0.5 M NaHCO₃ solution buffered at pH
204 8.5. Samples were extracted at a 1:20 v/v soil to solution ratio for 30 minutes at 180 rpm. Extracts
205 were filtered (No.40 Whatman filter paper). Results were categorised into the respective indices
206 according to both the ROI and NI statutory index systems. WEP was measured by shaking 2 g soil
207 with 20 ml distilled water (1:10 (v/v) soil to solution ratio), followed by centrifugation at 6,000 rpm.
208 Subsequently, for each analysis samples were filtered (°2 Whatman filter paper) and analysed
209 colorimetrically using a Skalar San Plus Autoanalyser.

210 2.3 Statistical Analysis

211 Statistical analysis was conducted using STATA (2017). Linear regression was performed to estimate
212 the relationship between Olsen P and Morgan P. Data was not transformed. To account for
213 collinearity between pH and P, an interaction term is included. A binary variable, that takes on a
214 value of one for all observations from the Corduff site, and zero otherwise (Blackwater
215 CatchmentCARE and Trace sites), is also included to reflect a statistically significant difference in the
216 relationship between Olsen P and Morgan P at that site, compared to the other two. Two empirical
217 models are estimated, to identify conversion factors both to and from each extraction method,
218 respectively [Eqs. 3 and 4]. In each case, the required P value is predicted based on a constant (*a*),
219 and the three independent variables described above multiplied by a coefficient (*b*).

220

$$P^{Olsen} = a_1 + b_1 P^{Morgan} + b_2 (pH \times P^{Morgan}) + b_3 S^{Corduff} \quad [\text{Eq.3}]$$

$$P^{Morgan} = a_2 + b_4 P^{Olsen} + b_5 (pH \times P^{Olsen}) + b_6 S^{Corduff} \quad [\text{Eq.4}]$$

221

222 To test for evidence of differences in how well Olsen and Morgan P can be used to predict WEP, four
223 empirical models are estimated independently, using both univariate regression and also a
224 multivariate regression adding in the pH interaction term and site dummy (equations not shown).

225

226 **3. RESULTS**

227 3.1 Soil Analysis

228 Summary statistics are shown in Table 3. Median Olsen and Morgan P values fell within the high and
229 optimal ranges for the NI and ROI index systems, respectively. Regarding pH, while the overall range
230 was wide, standard deviation was low, and most samples fell below the optimum value for grassland
231 (6.2). At the most recent evaluation, 19% of Irish soils were close to the median pH observed in this
232 study (Plunkett et al., 2020).

233 3.2 Relationship between Olsen and Morgan soil test values

234 Regressions between Morgan P and Olsen P for all soils are shown in Figure 1. As expected, there is a
235 positive relationship between the two soil tests for each site. Variability increases at higher P values.
236 The Corduff catchment typically exhibited higher Olsen P values relative to Morgan P, compared to
237 the Blackwater catchment and sub-catchment, which showed no significant difference in
238 relationship.

239 Results of the multiple linear regressions to convert between Olsen and Morgan P including pH and
240 site factors are shown in Table 4. No significant difference was observed between the Blackwater
241 catchment and sub-catchment soils, however the Corduff catchment did differ significantly
242 ($P \leq 0.001$)¹ and so was treated as a factor. The interaction term between pH and P is also statistically
243 significant.

244 3.3 Relationship between Olsen and Morgan soil test values and WEP

245 As expected, and in agreement with the literature, there is a significant positive relationship
246 between each statutory test and WEP although the strength of these relationships was moderate.
247 Olsen P vs. WEP exhibited an R^2 of 0.39, which improved to 0.45 when pH and site were added as

¹ A version of the empirical model was run with all three sites differentiated (a reference case and two binary indicators), however the Corduff site was the only statistically significant indicator. Therefore, it is the only site dummy included in the final empirical model reported here and used within the pilot conversion tool.

248 interaction terms. Morgan P vs. WEP exhibited an R^2 of 0.58, which improved to 0.60 when pH and
249 site were added as interaction terms. The relatively low R^2 indicates that to improve predictions of
250 WEP, additional variables need to be identified and empirically tested.

251 3.4 Relationship between indices

252 As the ROI and NI grassland index systems have a different number of individual indices it is not
253 possible to directly compare across approaches. However, the individual indices can be clustered
254 into deficient (NI 0 and 1, ROI - 1 and 2), optimal (NI - 2- and 2+, ROI 3) and excessive (NI - 3 and 4,
255 ROI - 4) P indicative categories. The percentage of soils in each index group (deficient, optimal, and
256 excessive) for the NI (A) and ROI (B) index systems are shown in Figure 2. The NI system tends to
257 overestimate P availability relative to the ROI system. In other words, the NI system is more likely to
258 assume adequate or surplus P than the ROI system, for the same soil. For the sampled soils, the ROI
259 system suggests that 37% more soils are deficient in P compared to the NI system, while the NI
260 system suggests 30% more soils are excessive in P. Comparing across individual samples using both
261 index systems (Fig. 2C), 41% of soils received the same indicative categories. However, 57% of
262 samples were placed in a higher category when the NI system was used, relative to the ROI system.
263 Within that group, 26% diverged by two classes, indicating high P (NI index 3 or 4) versus low P (ROI
264 1 or 2).

265 When the conversion equations [Eq. 3 and 4] were applied to convert between soil tests the
266 appropriate index was allocated 60% and 70% of the time for NI to ROI and ROI to NI, respectively. A
267 higher index was estimated 16% and 24% of the time, respectively, and a lower 14% and 16%.

268

269

4. DISCUSSION

270 4.1 Comparison of Olsen and Morgan Tests

271 Three practical differences occur in the standard approaches to soil testing in ROI and NI; different
272 sampling depths, extraction methods, and index systems. The present study examined the latter two
273 discrepancies with a view to comparing how land in cross-border catchments is characterised
274 depending on jurisdiction. Based on the analysis, the relationship between Olsen and Morgan tests
275 exhibited similar R^2 values to previous studies including Foy *et al.* (1997) – $R^2=0.74$, Poulton *et al.*
276 (1997) – $R^2=0.67$, Stutter and Richards (2018) – $R^2=0.75$. In the current study the conversion of Olsen
277 to Morgan $R^2=0.801$ [Eq. 4], while conversion of Morgan to Olsen $R^2=0.805$ [Eq. 3]. Such conversion
278 may be sufficient for modelling studies using legacy or available soil data but not replace soil test P
279 analysis, where possible. For fertility testing prescribed by legislation (i.e., for derogation farms in
280 ROI) soil should be tested using the prescribed national methodology.

281 There was a significant difference between the Corduff site and the other two sites. This could be
282 explained by the effect of sampling depth, as textural analysis indicated overall similarity. As this
283 catchment was wholly in ROI, soil was sampled to 10 cm depth, as per legislative requirements.
284 Samples from the Blackwater catchment and its sub-catchment (TRACE soils) were sampled to 7.5
285 cm depth, as per UK legislative requirements. Therefore, the site factor (Corduff) could be
286 considered to represent sampling depth. For the purposes of translating a sample from 10 cm depth
287 between indices, a factor of 1 should be applied, whereas 0 should be applied when samples are
288 obtained from 7.5 cm. Daly and Casey (2005) found a significant effect of sample depth on
289 extractable P. Deeper sampling depth under the ROI regime tends towards lower estimates of P than
290 more shallow depths which reflect accumulations near to the surface.

291

292

293 4.2 Comparison with Water Extractable Phosphorus

294 Although various soil tests have been correlated with P in runoff, drainflow, and leachate at various
295 scales and using laboratory, field, and catchment techniques (Kurz et al., 2005; Watson et al., 2007;
296 Cassidy et al. 2017; Roberts et al., 2017; Daly and Casey, 2005; Daly et al., 2002; Jordan et al., 2000),
297 WEP is used herein as an independent measure of potential P solubility (McDowell et al., 2020;
298 Hooda et al., 2000) against which the Morgan and Olsen tests can be compared. A greater
299 relationship was observed between WEP and Morgan P than Olsen P, suggesting that Morgan P may
300 better reflect the easily mobilised soluble P fraction of a given soil. Similarly, Horta and Torrent
301 (2007) identified that P desorption was poorly predicted at low Olsen P values (<20 mg kg). Lumsden
302 et al. (2016) found a strong relationship between the modified Morgan test and WEP ($R^2=0.87$), and
303 further identified that additional research is required to elucidate the relationship and controlling
304 factors for Olsen P-WEP relationships. Stutter and Richards (2018) similarly found Morgan P
305 correlated more strongly with total dissolved P and dissolved reactive P in drainflow than Olsen P.
306 However, WEP alone does not equate to environmental risk, independent of hydrologic connectivity.
307 Connectivity is not considered with regards the either index system, which reflect limited chemical
308 parameters. In a plot study ranging for Index 0 to 4 (NI system), Cassidy et al. (2016) observed no link
309 between P index and water quality over 6 years. They observed that 'Soil Olsen P status alone does
310 not indicate risk to water quality.' and additionally assessing other soil characteristics such as
311 buffering capacity may improve the current index system as an environmental indicator. Roberts et
312 al. (2017) presented one such framework for assessing risks of P transfer which incorporated not
313 only P index (source), but mobilization and transport factors. It cannot be conclusively determined
314 from the present study if either index system provides a more reliable indicator of environmental
315 risk to water quality for island of Ireland and perhaps wider implementation of a more
316 comprehensive risk assessment would support decision-making at farm and field-scale.

317

318 4.3 Comparison of Index Systems and Potential Consequences

319 While simple conversion between index systems can be implemented, caution is required as these
320 conversions have not been validated against field trials (Mallarino, 1995). Consequently, 'optimal'
321 indices in either system may not reflect equal capacity to fulfil plant nutritional requirements
322 although each system has independently been developed to estimate fertilizer response (e.g.,
323 Schulte and Herlihy, 2007; Higgins et al., 2021). Essentially, the two agronomic soil tests extract
324 different pools of the stored phosphorus and their ability to adequately reflect P availability to the
325 growing plant or for loss to the environment depends on their suitability for specific soil types
326 (Koopmans et al., 2006). The absolute values of P extracted via either approach do not in themselves
327 indicate kg P ha⁻¹ which will be taken up by the plant, but rather, are an indication of plant response
328 to added P, which has been shown over many years of agronomic trials, resulting in the formulation
329 of current fertilizer recommendations in both the UK and Ireland. These guidelines are reviewed and
330 updated regularly in response to research findings (Higgins et al., 2021). The results of such trials
331 provide the basis of qualitative indices. Furthermore, as new grass varieties become available
332 variations in fertilizer response may occur. This latter point has been particularly examined with
333 reference to nitrogen use efficiency (Lee et al., 2012). Continuous assessment, modification and
334 revision of indices would allow application to be matched to requirements and limit opportunities
335 for loss or under-application. Indeed, even within political jurisdictions a single prescribed soil test
336 method may not adequately reflect P availability for various soil types, i.e., where hydrologic
337 characteristics, pH, or iron and aluminium contents differ (Schroeder et al., 2004). The present study
338 has examined only the grassland sampling procedures and index systems. Arable soils are sampled
339 to greater depths and the ranges within the index systems also differ. Hence, the conclusions of this
340 study should not be extended to arable (tillage) land.

341 The tendency of the Olsen P index to measure a higher percentage of soils with Olsen P Index of 3 or
342 above (no further plant response to additional P fertilizer) means that system tends towards a more

343 conservative approach to fertilizer allocation, i.e., it will propose that less additional fertilizer would
344 be required to meet plant requirements than under the Morgan P Index system (ROI). This reflects
345 depth of sampling as well as the strength of extraction (Daly and Casey, 2005), and the ranges set
346 within the index system. Neither index is objectively 'correct' for all landscapes and soil types – they
347 are fundamentally guidelines for agronomic advice which should be considered in conjunction with
348 liming recommendations, considering the strong control of pH on P availability. The complexity of
349 soil types and geology within the small land area in Ireland makes it very difficult to obtain a test
350 that will be ideal for each soil type and field within the region. For example, the Olsen P test has
351 been found to poorly indicate availability from basaltic soils along the north coast of NI (Bell et al.,
352 2005). However, the implications of index systems which are oriented towards greater or lesser
353 fertilizer applications should be considered. Estimates which suggest a lower index (indicating an
354 under-supply of P from existing soil stores) may result in greater application of P relative to plant
355 requirements or an under-estimation of environmental risk. In the former scenario, this may reduce
356 the margins of profitability due to increased fertiliser inputs. In the latter scenario, greater loading of
357 soil P may incur losses to waterbodies via runoff or leaching. Conversely, estimates of higher index
358 may result in under-application of P relative to plant demands, potentially impairing yields, or over-
359 estimation of environmental risk. This latter issue contributes to perceived failures of existing
360 environmental measures. Potentially compounding the difference between the index systems is the
361 choice of sampling depth; 10 cm in ROI and 7.5 cm in NI (for grassland). Daly and Casey (2005)
362 observed significant difference in Morgan P with depth (decreasing P) in samples taken from 2, 5 and
363 10 cm, and a trend towards decreasing variance which increased with depth. This suggests that
364 shallower sampling (as per NI regulations) will result in greater estimation of soil P content. From an
365 agronomic perspective, shallow sampling may not be wholly representative of P reserves which are
366 available for plant use, depending on root characteristics (Roberts et al., 2020; Gahoonia and
367 Nielsen, 2004). However, in a grassland the majority of the root mass is within the top 7.5cm of the
368 soil profile, and this forms the reasoning behind the shallower sampling depth (Wedderburn et al.,

369 2010). Conversely, from an environmental risk perspective (assuming overland pathways are the
370 primary route for P loss), the depth of interaction with water will strongly influence P losses.
371 Previous research has indicated that samples taken from shallow depths (≤ 5 cm) exhibited greater
372 variability in P due to localised effects such as dung and urine deposition (Daly and Casey, 2005)
373 which may make it difficult to obtain a representative sample in the field.

374 If objectives under water quality legislation include reduction in nutrient sources, the choice of index
375 system makes a difference as to the apparent success of individual catchments. Taking the Corduff
376 catchment, for example, for which all 587 fields were sampled, under the Olsen P NI index system
377 9%, 41% and 50% would be classified as P deficient, optimal, and excessive, respectively. Conversely,
378 under the Morgan P ROI system, it would be classified as 66%, 22% and 12% P deficient, optimal,
379 and excessive, respectively. The implications of this are a greater perceived 'failure' to achieve low P
380 balance under the NI system. The NI index could be therefore considered to be more stringent from
381 an environmental perspective and perhaps less generous regarding P inputs from an agronomic
382 perspective. In practice, P loss does not depend only on soil properties, but also on factors
383 influencing water movement either via overland flow or leaching (Roberts et al., 2017). The choice of
384 soil test used on the island of Ireland is dictated by an administrative border, not a difference in soil
385 type, nor is it aligned with catchment boundaries. Hence, farmers with adjacent fields and farms
386 including land on both sides of that border, are subject to different testing and index systems.

387 A further question pertinent to both index systems is whether they remain good indicators of grass
388 requirements under present climate conditions, improved grass varieties and modern production
389 systems that are currently preferred and which have driven increases in Irish and UK grassland
390 productivity (Higgins et al., 2019). It could be questioned therefore whether the present ranges in
391 both index systems accurately indicate deficiencies and requirements under the present production
392 system. In both the UK and Ireland, fertilizer recommendations are reviewed and updated regularly
393 by a committee of stakeholders involved in the production of the recommendations (Higgins et al.

394 2021) and are validated through a series of agronomic plot trials. Plant response to fertilizer remains
395 the central basis for the current index systems in Ireland. Perhaps in future (given the current
396 environmental pressures and legislation), plot trials should be devised to provide a dual examination
397 of plant response combined with environmental risk. Evaluation of the availability and patterns of P
398 release from different organic manure types would further attune fertiliser recommendations with
399 plant requirements and risks to water.

400 4.4 Wider Implications

401 The present study has identified three sequential misalignments in the grassland P index systems
402 used on the island of Ireland (ROI and NI); sampling depths, extraction methods, and index systems,
403 and demonstrated the perceived characterisation of soils within a transboundary catchment
404 dependent upon the choice of neighbouring systems.

405 Though both index systems are based in sound scientific knowledge, discrepancies in approaches
406 lead to confusion in agronomic advice, best practices, policy, and particularly, in elucidating
407 environmental risk and performance in cross-border catchments. The conversion approach
408 described herein provides a means by which P values may be converted between systems. The issue
409 of managing cross-border catchments is not restricted to Ireland; it is estimated that c. 60% of EU
410 territory is represented by river basin districts which cross one or more national borders (EEA, 2012).
411 In these instances, similar discrepancies in approach and challenges in management and
412 understanding occur. It is not suggested here that identical soil tests or index systems be
413 implemented across nations. Rather, that appropriate conversions be calculated for cross-border
414 catchments so that consistent understanding on P availability and understanding can be derived.

415 The conversion approach has some limitations. Firstly, for the purposes of nutrient management at
416 farm level it is essential that the correct STP method and index system are applied based on which
417 country the farm/field is in. Use of a mathematical conversion does not satisfy legislative
418 requirements. Secondly, when converting between index systems and the typical nutrient advice

419 derived from them, it cannot be assumed that either approach is 'better' or empirically 'correct.'
420 Factors such as hydrologic connectivity will influence the riskiness of a site to nutrient loss, and
421 timing and application method play an important role in encouraging crop uptake. A valuable
422 application of the P conversion equations and index comparisons is in the modelling of cross-border
423 waterbodies. Despite advances in computing power and mathematical modelling of hydrologic
424 systems, the efficacy of catchment models in cross-border regions has to date been constrained by
425 the incompatibility of input data (Ly et al., 2019). Using the comparisons explored here allow a
426 consistent estimation of critical source areas and P loads from different parts of a catchment to be
427 derived, despite farm-level soil data which supplies either Olsen or Morgan P values.

428 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

429 In this paper a comparison of the STP using the requisite analytical methods for the Republic and
430 Northern Ireland is presented. Relationship between STP methods was observed ($R^2 > 0.8$) and
431 regression equations were derived by which translation between methods can be implemented,
432 accounting for pH and site differences. Regarding the latter, this may reflect depth of sampling,
433 which is different under ROI and NI regulations. The conversion equations presented herein have
434 utility in evaluation of P reserves at catchment scale and facilitate modelling efforts to use
435 equivalent data. The Morgan P method had a closer correlation with WEP than the Olsen method,
436 which may provide a broad indication of environmental risk, but should not be considered
437 independently of hydrologic or connectivity factors.

438 Classification of the three sampling areas indicated consistently greater perceived fertility and also
439 environmental risk under the NI index system than the ROI system. This manifests in practice as
440 lower recommended fertiliser application and perhaps over-estimation of environmental risk.
441 Conversely, the ROI system may suggest greater P requirements which may lead to greater costs in
442 terms of chemical P imports or an under-estimation of risk and failure to implement appropriate

443 measures. Crucially, neither index system is presented herein as the optimal approach and further
444 research is needed examining both test methods and index systems to refine recommendations.

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