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Evaluating how variants of floristic quality assessment indicate wetland condition

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1 **The ecological mechanisms driving floristic quality assessment of wetland integrity**

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19 **Highlights**

- 20
- Understanding response is critical to bioindicator utility.
 - Plant conservatism responds predictably to specific and aggregate disturbance.
 - Plant species richness confounds predictable response of conservatism in FQA.
 - Non-native species are important for assessing wetland integrity with FQA.
 - Proportional abundance bolsters FQA utility for site-level wetland assessment.
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26 **Abstract**

27 Biological indicators are useful tools for the assessment of ecosystem condition. Multi-metric
28 and multi-taxa indicators may respond to a broader range of disturbances than simpler indicators,
29 but their complexity can make them difficult to interpret, which is critical to indicator utility for
30 ecosystem management. Floristic Quality Assessment (FQA) is an example of a biological
31 assessment approach that has been widely tested for indicating freshwater wetland condition, but
32 less attention has been given to clarifying the mechanisms controlling its response. FQA indices
33 quantify the aggregate of vascular plant species tolerance to habitat degradation (conservatism),
34 and variants have incorporated species richness, abundance, and indigenuity (native or non-
35 native). To assess bias, we tested FQA variants in open-canopy freshwater wetlands against three
36 independent reference measures, using practical vegetation sampling methods. FQA variants
37 incorporating species richness did not correlate with our reference measures and were influenced
38 by wetland size and hydrogeomorphic class. In contrast, FQA variants lacking measures of
39 species richness responded linearly to reference measures quantifying individual and aggregate
40 stresses, suggesting a broad response to cumulative degradation. FQA variants incorporating
41 non-native species improved performance over using only native species, and incorporating
42 relative species abundance did not improve performance further. We relate our empirical
43 findings to ecological theory to clarify the mechanisms and functional implications of the FQA
44 variants. Our analysis indicates that (1) aggregate conservatism declines with increased
45 disturbance; (2) species richness has varying relationships with disturbance and increases with
46 site area, confounding FQA response; (3) non-native species are favored by human disturbance;
47 and (4) proportional abundance of species provides important functional information at the site
48 level. Using our practical sampling methods, an FQA variant ignoring species richness and
49 incorporating non-native species and relative species abundance can be logistically efficient,
50 easily understood, and effective for wetland assessment.

51

52 **Keywords**

53 Biological indicator; ecological integrity; non-native species; species richness; vascular plant;
54 wetland assessment

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1. Introduction

Biological indicators (or bioindicators) are widely used to indicate environmental condition (U.S. EPA, 2006). Effective bioindicators act as continuous, integrative in-situ ecosystem monitors that react predictably to multiple, cumulative, or synergistic environmental factors, and detect episodic events that periodic physical or chemical monitoring may not capture (Barbour et al., 1996). Bioindicators range in complexity from single indicator species to multi-metric indices based on multiple attributes of multiple taxa. Multi-metric and multi-taxa indicators are attractive to practitioners interested in assessing ecological integrity because they theoretically integrate a more diverse response to environmental conditions than simpler indicators (Birk et al., 2012; Karr, 1991), but the complexity of these indicators requires additional time and taxonomic expertise over simpler measures, and may be a drawback if the component metrics show interactive or countervailing responses that make the final indicator difficult to interpret (Karr and Chu, 1999). Interpretability of response is often overlooked (Birk et al., 2012; Niemi and McDonald, 2004) but is central to indicator utility and relies on a clear understanding of the underlying ecological mechanisms (Dale and Beyeler, 2001; U.S. EPA, 2002).

Floristic Quality Assessment (FQA) is an example of a biological assessment approach that has been widely tested, yet remains subject to misuse because the underlying mechanisms driving its functionality have not been fully clarified. FQA is a relatively simple bioindicator, using one to three attributes of vascular flora viewed as a single taxonomic group, yet it has shown potential to integrate and reflect broad aspects of freshwater wetland condition (DeBerry et al., 2015). Like several other bioindicators, FQA relies on ranking species' response to human disturbance. Early bioindicators in aquatic systems used coefficients to characterize species' response to specific stressors, for example rankings of tolerance to organic pollutants (e.g. Hilsenhoff, 1981). FQA, instead, uses "coefficients of conservatism" (CC) that rank the tolerance of plant species to rapid habitat change caused by human disturbance. In the United States, region-specific CC are typically assigned through consensus of a panel of expert botanists. High CC are assigned to plants with narrow environmental tolerances and high sensitivity to recent human disturbance. Low CC are assigned to disturbance-insensitive species with broad tolerances, and the prevalence of species with high versus low CC is assumed to reflect ecological condition. Although FQA was originally developed to use existing plant inventory data to indicate sites' conservation value (Swink and Wilhelm, 1979), targeted vegetation sampling for FQA is increasingly used to assess freshwater wetland integrity and restoration success (Bried et al., 2013; Cohen et al., 2004; Freyman et al., 2016; Lopez and Fennessey, 2002; Matthews et al., 2009; Matthews et al., 2015; Miller and Wardrop, 2006).

FQA is typically used to indicate broad wetland integrity rather than any single stressor, operating under the general assumptions that aggregate plant conservatism (i.e., sensitivity to human disturbances) responds monotonically to the cumulative effects of a range of human disturbances (U.S. EPA, 2002), and that this response signal is not compromised by inherent variation in other factors such as wetland size, basin morphology, and hydrology (Bried et al., 2013). The original FQA Index (*FQAI*) uses only native species and incorporates species richness as well as conservatism (Swink and Wilhelm, 1979; Table 1). Like other bioindicators that incorporate species richness, it relies on the assumption that native species richness declines with increasing environmental degradation. The *FQAI* attracted the interest of freshwater wetland managers because plant species composition is a key functional component of vegetated

106 wetlands (Mitsch and Gosselink, 2000). Additionally, combining measures of tolerance and
107 diversity is intuitively meaningful, and *FQAI* can be applied using basic plant inventory methods
108 (Bourdaghs et al., 2006; Lopez and Fennessey, 2002).

109 As it has been tested and applied, however, researchers have suggested that different
110 components and variants of the original *FQAI* formula may better predict wetland integrity. Each
111 of these variants alters the underlying implicit assumptions of the index. Rooney and Rogers
112 (2002) discount the assumption that native species richness declines with increasing
113 environmental degradation, and suggest that *Mean CC_n* alone may better reflect ecological
114 condition and be easier to interpret. A *Mean CC* variant including non-native species (*Mean CC_s*,
115 where *s* indicates total species) assumes non-native species are relevant to environmental
116 condition. A variant weighting *Mean CC_n* by species abundance (*Weighted mean CC_n*), and a
117 weighted variant incorporating non-native species (*Weighted mean CC_s*) both assume that
118 intolerant species decline in abundance disproportionately with increasing environmental
119 degradation (Bourdaghs et al., 2006; Bried et al., 2013; Chamberlain and Brooks, 2016; Cohen et
120 al., 2004). In these variants, non-native species are typically assigned a CC of 0, regardless of
121 their actual conservatism, which assumes they are uniformly insensitive to human disturbance
122 and broadly tolerant. Miller and Wardrop (2006) argued on empirical grounds for a variant that
123 discounts species richness and incorporates non-native species (*FQAI'*), whereas Matthews et al.
124 (2009) proposed a version of the original *FQAI* incorporating both non-native species and
125 richness (*FQAI_s*). Finally, Ervin et al. (2006) found that simply *% Native*, discounting both
126 richness and conservatism, outperformed *FQAI*.

127 As FQA gains recognition as an indicator of freshwater wetland condition, there is a
128 growing need to clarify the implications of selecting particular FQA variants (e.g., Bourdaghs,
129 2012; Mirazadi et al., 2017). While the utility of several variants of the original FQA metric has
130 been empirically evaluated, less attention has been given to comparing their ecological and
131 functional interpretation, leading to disagreement among researchers over the best choice of
132 indicator. In this paper, we empirically test several FQA variants from the literature against three
133 tested, independently-derived (1) landscape, (2) rapid, and (3) biological measures (hereafter,
134 reference measures). By using three separate reference measures representing (1) indirect
135 aggregate stress, (2) direct individual and cumulative stress, and (3) biological response, we
136 assess the robustness of empirical evaluation to bias in any one reference measure. Because some
137 metric components, particularly species richness, are sensitive to sampling effort (DeBerry et al.
138 2015), we apply data-collection methods designed to be practical and effective for state and
139 tribal assessment protocols and analyze how the FQA variants respond to reduced sampling.
140 Most importantly, we use relevant ecological theory to interpret our empirical findings and
141 clarify the functional mechanisms of the FQA variants, which may help practitioners to better
142 plan and interpret assessments and manage wetland resources.

143

144 2. Methods

145

146 2.1 Study sample

147 Our study was conducted in Rhode Island (RI), USA. Our study sample comprised 20
148 freshwater wetland sites that had been previously assessed using landscape, rapid, and biological
149 assessment measures (Kutcher and Bried, 2014), which were also applied as reference measures
150 in this study. The sites were selected evenly across rapid assessment index scores from a larger
151 set of wetlands (n = 51) to represent a broad range of undisturbed through highly-disturbed

152 conditions. The sites were spread geographically across Rhode Island. The site boundaries were
153 delineated by basin continuity, bound by any combination of upland, riverine open water, or
154 lacustrine open water, large roads or railways lacking culverts, or changes in
155 hydrogeomorphology. We selected open-canopy vegetated wetlands (tree cover < 50%) with
156 substantial emergent vegetation (> 25% cover), but sites were not divided by vegetation type,
157 thus a single site could contain multiple vegetation community types. Sites ranged in size from
158 0.12 to 12 hectares with a mean of 2.5 hectares and fell into three hydrogeomorphic classes
159 (modified from Brinson (1993)): isolated depression ($n = 10$), connected depression ($n = 5$), and
160 floodplain riverine ($n = 5$). The most commonly represented vegetation classes (per Cowardin et
161 al., 1979) were emergent (in 20 sites), scrub-shrub (in 15 sites), and forested (in 12 sites)
162 wetlands.

163 164 *2.2 Vegetation sampling for FQA*

165 To address the assumptions of FQA methodology, while considering metric operability
166 and user practicality, our vegetation sampling aimed to efficiently produce a nearly-complete list
167 of vascular plant species per site and estimate the coarse relative cover of each species.
168 Vegetation data were collected along three 4-m wide belt transects, the first running entirely
169 across the longest dimension of the site, and the remaining two running entirely across the site
170 perpendicular to the first at one-third and two-thirds the distance from the start of the first
171 transect. For riverine wetlands that were sinuous and narrow, the first transect was composed of
172 the fewest connected straight lines needed to approximately follow the contours of the site.
173 Transects were hand-drawn on aerial photographs prior to site visits, and landmarks visible on
174 the maps (such as evergreen trees, rocks, roads) were used to navigate in the field. The data were
175 collected during a single site visit at the peak of the growing season (mid-July through
176 September). Every vascular plant observed was identified to species and recorded onto field
177 datasheets. Plants that could not be identified in the field were tagged and placed in plastic bags
178 for laboratory identification. The few immature samples that could not be identified in the field
179 or laboratory were not included in our analysis.

180 Following the survey of each transect, an abundance rank of each species was estimated
181 as follows: rank 1 = scarce (< 10% cover), rank 2 = common (10 - 60% cover), and rank 3 =
182 dominant (> 60% cover). Site-wide mean ranks were used as replicates for data analysis.
183 Incidental observations of species observed outside of the transects were added to species totals
184 and assigned a site-wide abundance rank of 1. We chose broad, easily-estimated cover classes to
185 capture key functional aspects of species relative groundcover dominance (e.g., habitat value,
186 productivity), while minimizing the labor-intensive logistics that may hinder more rigorous cover
187 class estimation methods (Bourdagh et al. 2006).

188 189 *2.3 Generating FQA indices*

190 We tested FQA index variants and components taken directly from prior studies, or
191 developed based on a logical extension of published, empirically-tested formulas (Table 1).
192 Values for each FQA index were calculated for each of our 20 study sites using recent Rhode
193 Island-specific plant CC. The CC were assigned, by R. Enser (unpublished data), to all vascular
194 plant species known to exist in Rhode Island, according to methods detailed in Bried et al.
195 (2012). The CC were based mainly on each species' relative sensitivity to human disturbances
196 and, to a lesser degree, on niche width (R. Enser, personal communication). Non-native species
197 (not native to Rhode Island) were assigned a CC of zero. In total, 1558 species were assigned

198 CC; values ranged from 0 to 10 with a mean of 3.7 ± 2.9 and a median of 3; non-native species
 199 comprised 28% of these species. For the FQA indices that use species abundance, calculations
 200 were made using midpoints of cover class ranges, where Rank 1 = 5% cover, Rank 2 = 35%
 201 cover, and Rank 3 = 80% cover.

202
 203 Table 1. Variants and components of the *FQAI* formula and exemplary applications in freshwater
 204 wetland assessment

FQA Variant or Component	^a Formula	Recent Applications	Equivalent Formula
<i>FQAI</i>	$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^N CC_i}{N} \times \sqrt{N}$	Lopez and Fennessy, 2002	
<i>FQAI_s</i>	$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^S CC_i}{S} \times \sqrt{S}$	Bourdagh's et al., 2006; Matthews et al., 2009	
<i>Mean CC_n</i>	$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^N CC_i}{N}$	Bourdagh's et al., 2006; Cohen et al., 2004; Miller and Wardrop, 2006; Rooney and Rogers, 2002	
<i>Mean CC_s</i>	$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^S CC_i}{S}$	Bourdagh's et al., 2006; Chamberlain and Brooks, 2016; Cohen et al., 2004; Matthews et al., 2009	$Mean CC_n \times \frac{N}{S}$
^b <i>Weighted Mean CC_n</i>	$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (CC_i \times P_N)}{\sum_{i=1}^N P_N}$	Cohen et al., 2004; Bourdagh's et al., 2006	
<i>Weighted Mean CC_s</i>	$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^S (CC_i \times P_S)}{\sum_{i=1}^S P_S}$	Bell et al., 2017; Bourdagh's et al., 2006	
^c <i>FQAI'</i>	$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^N CC_i}{N \times 10} \times \frac{\sqrt{N}}{\sqrt{S}} \times 100$	Chamberlain and Brooks, 2016; Miller and Wardrop, 2006	$Mean CC_n \times \sqrt{\frac{N}{S}} \times 10$
<i>% Native</i>	$\frac{N}{S}$	Ervin et al., 2006	

205 ^aCC = plant species coefficient of conservatism; *N* = number of native plant species recorded; *S* = total number of
 206 plant species recorded (including non-natives); *P_N* = proportional cover of native plant species recorded and *P_S* =
 207 proportional cover of all plant species recorded. ^bNot tested in this study. ^cThe formulas of two richness-free FQA
 208 variants that incorporate non-native species, *Mean CC_s* and *FQAI'*, are nearly equivalent. Miller and Wardrop (2006)

209 present $FQAI'$ as “ $FQAI$ relative to maximum-attainable $FQAI'$ ”, but this is algebraically equivalent to the product of
210 $Mean CC_n$ and the square root of the proportion of native species ($\times 10$, which in relative terms is irrelevant).
211 Similarly, because the assigned CC for any non-native species is typically zero (0), $Mean CC_s$ is equivalent to the
212 product of $Mean CC_n$ and the proportion of native species ($\% Native$). Functionally, $FQAI'$ only differs from $Mean$
213 CC_s in that the influence of non-native species is reduced by applying the square root in the former.

214

215 *2.4 Three reference measures of wetland condition*

216 2.4.1 Impervious Surface Area. Impervious surface area (ISA) values were generated for
217 each site as a landscape-level reference measure of wetland stress. Using ESRI ArcMap® 9.3
218 GIS software, 305-m surrounding-area polygons were generated for each site using the “buffer”
219 command and selecting “outside only”. Resulting surrounding-area polygons were used to clip
220 recent high-resolution impervious surface raster data (RIGIS Impervious Surfaces, available:
221 <http://www.rigis.org>), from which we calculated the proportion of impervious cover surrounding
222 each site.

223 2.4.2 Rhode Island Rapid Assessment Method. Rhode Island Rapid Assessment Method
224 (RIRAM) was conducted according to Kutcher (2010). RIRAM is an evidence-based rapid
225 assessment method that was developed to produce a relative index of freshwater wetland
226 condition based on rating and summing the estimated intensity and impact of multiple human
227 disturbances (Table S1), which closely follows EPA wetland monitoring and assessment
228 guidelines (U.S. EPA, 2006). RIRAM scoring is based on the assumption that that the impacts of
229 diverse human disturbances additively contribute to the degradation of general wetland condition
230 (Fennessy et al., 2004; U.S. EPA, 2006); thus, a perfect RIRAM score of 100 indicates no
231 observed evidence of anthropogenic disturbance or degradation. RIRAM meets EPA criteria for
232 establishing a “reference gradient” of wetland condition across sites (Faber-Langendoen et al.,
233 2009; U.S. EPA, 2006), as was applied in this study.

234 2.4.3 Odonata Index of Wetland Integrity. We used the Odonata Index of Wetland
235 Integrity (OIWI) as an independent bioindicator of wetland disturbance (Kutcher and Bried,
236 2014). OIWI uses the aggregate conservatism of adult (winged) dragonflies and damselflies
237 (Insecta: Odonata) to indicate relative ecological condition. Odonate CC were generated
238 empirically by relating odonate survey data to landscape features reflecting human disturbance
239 (Kutcher and Bried, 2014). For this current study, we refined odonate CC using additional survey
240 data. The OIWI value for each of our 20 sites was calculated as the mean CC of odonate species
241 surveyed.

242

243 *2.5 Relating FQA indices to reference measures*

244 Statistical analyses were conducted using WinSTAT® statistical software (2006, R. Fitch
245 Software). Rank-based and non-parametric methods were used to compensate for the ordinal
246 nature of the RIRAM data and for the skews and gaps inherent in the samples. Correlations
247 between FQA variants and OIWI, RIRAM, and ISA values were tested using Spearman rank
248 correlation (r_s). Additionally, box-and-whisker analysis was used to evaluate FQA capacity to
249 discriminate among disturbance classes, following Barbour et al. (1996). Specifically, sites were
250 classified using quartiles of the RIRAM and ISA index values as: (1) least-disturbed (below 25th
251 percentile), (2) intermediately-disturbed (25th - 75th percentile), and (3) most-disturbed (above
252 75th percentile). For each FQA variant, the degree of interquartile range separation or overlap
253 was used to evaluate the capacity for the variant to discriminate among the disturbance classes
254 (Barbour et al., 1996; Veselka et al., 2010).

255

256 2.6 Reduced effort analysis

257 The effects of reduced sampling effort on the performance of FQA was tested by re-
258 calculating the FQA indices with a sub-set of the data from each site, and then re-running
259 statistical analyses for comparison against full-effort results. We assessed the effect of reducing
260 effort in three ways: reducing the number of transects sampled, reducing the number of plants
261 used per transect, and reducing both. Specifically, FQA indices calculated using vegetation data
262 from a single (first) transect were compared with values using all three transects. Next, FQA
263 indices calculated using only species with $\geq 10\%$ cover (ranks 2 and 3) were compared to indices
264 calculated with species from all cover classes. Finally, FQA indices calculated using only species
265 with $\geq 10\%$ cover surveyed in the first transect were compared with indices using all species in
266 all transects.

267

268 **3. Results**

269

270 3.1 FQA vegetation data

271 The FQA vegetation surveys identified 271 vascular plant species, of which 27 (10%) were
272 classified as non-native and 10 (3.7%) were classified as natives endangered in Rhode Island (RI
273 Natural Heritage Program). Red maple (*Acer rubrum*) was the most commonly-identified species
274 (19 sites), followed by highbush blueberry (*Vaccinium corymbosum*) (17 sites), although
275 emergent forbs were most common overall (96 species in 293 occurrences), followed by shrubs
276 (48 species in 240 occurrences) and graminoids (54 species in 179 occurrences). The number of
277 species identified per site ranged from 19 to 96 (mean \pm SD = 50 ± 21), of which 0 to 28% were
278 non-native. *FQAI* values ranged from 15.4 to 41.3 (28.5 ± 6.36), *FQAI_s* values ranged from 13.7
279 to 43.4 (27.5 ± 6.74), *FQAI'* values ranged from 30.7 to 51.0 (41.6 ± 6.22), *Mean CC_n* values
280 ranged from 3.53 to 5.15 (4.29 ± 0.48), *Mean CC_s* values ranged from 2.56 to 5.04 (4.02 ± 0.76),
281 *Weighted Mean CC_s* values ranged from 1.78 to 5.19 (3.96 ± 0.96), and *% Native* values ranged
282 from 72.2 to 100 (93.1 ± 8.85) (Table S2).

283

284 3.2 Reference measure data

285 ISA values ranged from 0.00 to 62.4% ($11.5 \pm 17.1\%$), RIRAM values ranged from 44.2 to
286 100 (79.9 ± 18.2), and OIWI values ranged from 4.68 to 7.29 (5.92 ± 0.80) (Table S2). ISA was
287 strongly correlated with RIRAM (Spearman rank, $r_s = -0.92$, $P < 0.01$) and OIWI ($r_s = -0.87$, $P <$
288 0.01), and RIRAM was strongly correlated with OIWI ($r_s = 0.80$, $P < 0.01$). According to
289 RIRAM data, the most commonly-observed stressors within sites were *dams* and *roads*, whereas
290 the most common stressors from the surrounding landscape were *raised roads*, *footpaths*, and
291 *residential development*. Twelve of the 20 sites were impounded by dams or roads and 12 were
292 partly filled to upland grade, primarily from public roads and development filling. Invasive
293 species cover ranged from *none noted* at nine sites to *high* (51-75% cover) at two sites, with non-
294 native common reed (*Phragmites australis*), being the most-commonly detected invasive species.

295

296 3.2 FQA variant performance

297 Metric scores for four FQA index variants and for the proportion of native species (*%*
298 *Native*) were strongly correlated with all of our reference measures (Table 2); none of these
299 incorporated proxies of species richness. The remaining two FQA indices tested, both of which
300 incorporate information of species richness, were not correlated with any reference measures.
301 Nor were two simple proxies for species richness (number of *native species identified* and *total*

302 *species identified*), except that the number of total (including non-native) species identified
 303 significantly decreased with increasing RIRAM condition scores. Both proxies of species
 304 richness, and the two floristic variants incorporating those proxies, were strongly influenced by
 305 hydrogeomorphic class and were more likely to vary with site area, whereas
 306 hydrogeomorphology and site area had no effect on the four FQA indices that ignored richness
 307 (Table 3).

308
 309 Table 2. Spearman rank correlation coefficients and probability values comparing various
 310 floristic measures against reference measures of freshwater wetland condition among 20 wetland
 311 sites.

Floristic Index	<i>OIWI</i>		<i>RIRAM</i>		<i>ISA</i>	
	r_s	<i>P</i>	r_s	<i>P</i>	r_s	<i>P</i>
<i>FQAI</i>	0.24	0.31	-0.08	0.73	-0.09	0.69
<i>FQAI_s</i>	0.39	0.09	0.11	0.64	-0.27	0.25
<i>Mean CC_n</i>	0.75	<0.01	0.70	<0.01	-0.70	<0.01
<i>Mean CC_s</i>	0.82	<0.01	0.81	<0.01	-0.84	<0.01
<i>Weighted Mean CC_s</i>	0.82	<0.01	0.85	<0.01	-0.86	<0.01
<i>FQAI'</i>	0.82	<0.01	0.78	<0.01	-0.80	<0.01
<i>% Native</i>	0.81	<0.01	0.89	<0.01	-0.89	<0.01
<i>Native Species Richness</i>	-0.13	0.58	-0.40	0.08	0.27	0.25
<i>Total Species Richness</i>	-0.29	0.21	-0.54	0.01	0.44	0.05

312
 313 Table 3. Kruskal-Wallis *H*-values (non-parametric analog to ANOVA) and Spearman rank
 314 correlation coefficients (r_s) comparing measures of freshwater wetland condition against
 315 hydrogeomorphic class and site size ($n = 20$), among 20 freshwater wetland sites

Floristic Index	<u>Hydrogeomorphic Class</u>		<u>Site Area</u>	
	<i>H</i>	<i>P</i>	r_s	<i>P</i>
<u>Floristic Index Incorporating Richness</u>				
<i>Native Species</i>	10.25	0.01	0.44	0.06
<i>Total Species</i>	7.84	0.02	0.48	0.03
<i>FQAI</i>	11.11	<0.01	0.43	0.06
<i>FQAI_s</i>	10.06	0.01	0.31	0.18
<u>Floristic Index Discounting Richness</u>				
<i>Mean CC_n</i>	1.05	0.59	0.18	0.45
<i>Mean CC_s</i>	1.70	0.43	0.03	0.88
<i>Weighted Mean CC_s</i>	0.84	0.65	-0.07	0.77
<i>FQAI'</i>	1.65	0.44	0.06	0.79
<i>% Native</i>	3.74	0.15	-0.28	0.23
<u>Reference Measure</u>				
<i>OIWI</i>	2.28	0.32	-0.07	0.39
<i>RIRAM</i>	2.91	0.23	-0.30	0.20
<i>ISA</i>	1.93	0.38	0.25	0.29

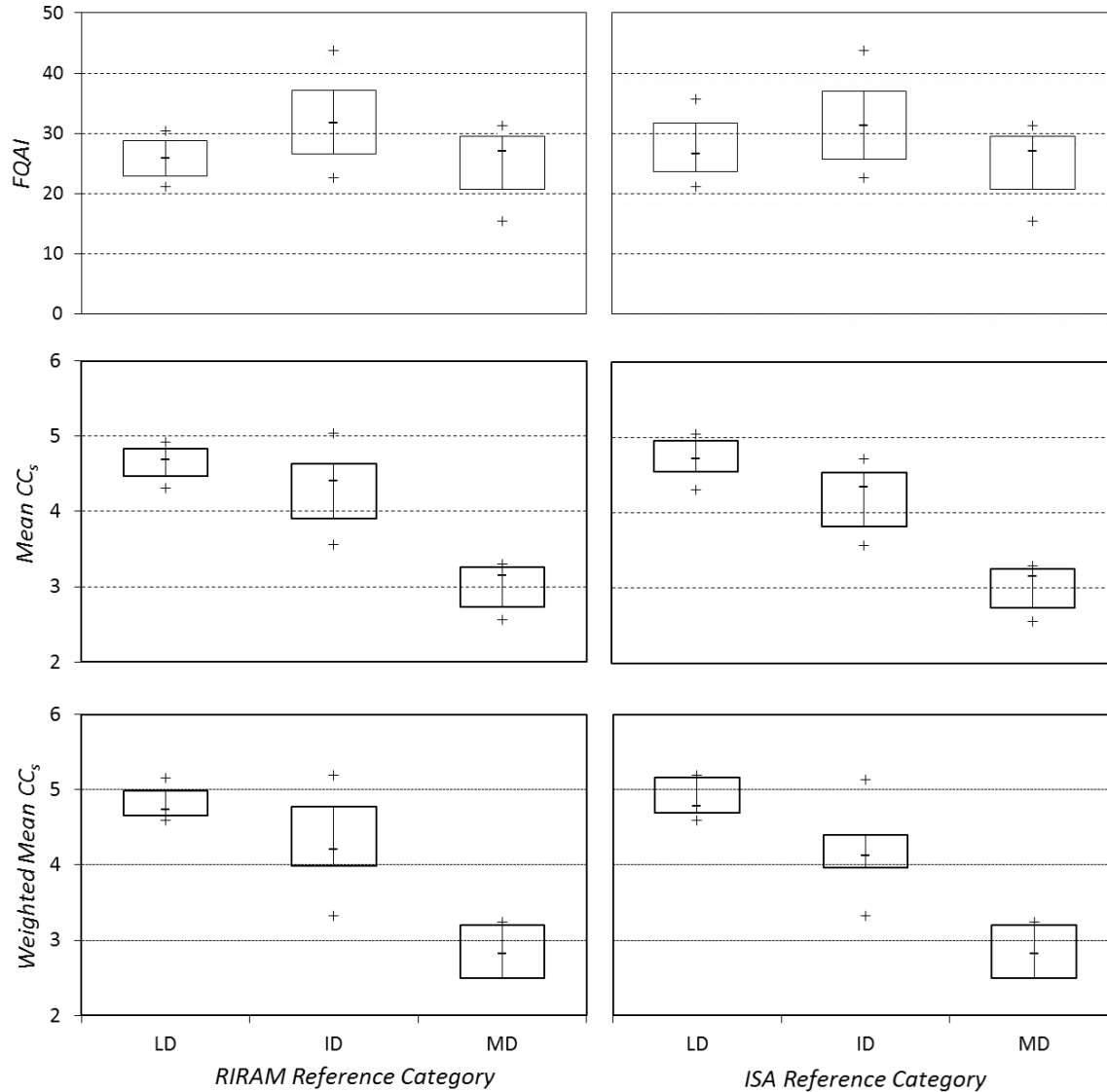
316
 317 *Mean CC_s*, *Weighted Mean CC_s*, and *% Native* index values were most strongly
 318 correlated with the three reference measures (r_s always > 0.80, Table 2), and were thus
 319 considered best-fit floristic indices in further analyses. The variant *FQAI'* was not included as a
 320 best-fit index or discussed further in detail because it is functionally similar to the more-

321 straightforward *Mean CC_s* (Table 1). The best-fit indices were significantly correlated with
 322 several of the component metrics of the RIRAM index, suggesting that a wide range of
 323 anthropogenic factors contributed to floristic variability (Table 4). However, none of the best-fit
 324 indices was strongly correlated with RIRAM metrics rating hydrologic modification, including
 325 impoundment, draining or diversion of water, and apparent hydrologic integrity, even though
 326 60% of the sites were at least partly impounded.

327
 328 Table 4. Spearman rank correlation coefficients comparing FQA indicators with RIRAM metrics
 329 and submetrics among 20 wetland sites. Parenthetic values are not significant using a
 330 Bonferroni-adjusted critical *P* value of 0.0036.

RIRAM Metric	<i>Mean CC_s</i>	<i>Weighted Mean CC_s</i>	%Native	<i>FQAI</i>
<u>RIRAM Stress Metric</u>				
Buffer Integrity	0.77	0.76	0.85	(0.31)
Surrounding Land Use Integrity	0.85	0.84	0.89	(0.13)
Impoundment	(-0.09)	(-0.16)	(-0.18)	(0.43)
Draining or Diversion of Water	(0.50)	(0.59)	(0.49)	(0.07)
Fluvial Inputs	-0.74	-0.77	-0.84	(-0.15)
Filling and Dumping	-0.76	-0.83	-0.62	(0.00)
Substrate Disturbance	-0.69	-0.73	(-0.62)	(0.01)
Vegetation Removal	(-0.37)	(-0.46)	(-0.38)	(-0.12)
Invasive Species Cover	-0.74	-0.73	-0.91	(0.00)
<u>RIRAM Observed State Submetric</u>				
Hydrologic Integrity	(0.50)	(0.57)	(0.43)	(-0.27)
Water and Soil Quality	0.80	0.82	0.84	(0.17)
Vegetation / Microhabitat Structure	0.89	0.87	0.89	(0.23)
Vegetation Composition	0.72	0.71	0.90	(0.08)
Habitat Connectivity	0.69	0.72	0.83	(-0.15)

331
 332 Distributions of *Mean CC_s* and *Weighted Mean CC_s* values were completely non-
 333 overlapping between least-disturbed and most-disturbed reference categories identified by
 334 RIRAM and ISA (Fig. 1). In contrast, the distributions of *FQAI* values between least-disturbed
 335 and most-disturbed categories overlapped nearly completely according to both reference
 336 measures. The *FQAI* distribution showed a tendency toward higher values with intermediate
 337 disturbance according to RIRAM designations (Kruskal-Wallis, $H = 5.1$, $P = 0.08$).
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339
 340 Fig. 1. Box plots depicting the distributions of FQA index values among RIRAM and ISA-based
 341 reference designations of freshwater wetland condition for 20 wetlands; boxes represent
 342 interquartile ranges, crosses represent minimum and maximum values, and dashes represent
 343 median values; LD = least disturbed, ID = intermediately disturbed, and MD = most disturbed.

344
 345 *3.3 Reduced sampling effort*

346 Single-transect vegetation sampling of all cover classes (ranks 1-3) produced 15 to 71
 347 vascular plant species per site with a mean of 39 ± 17 ; three-transect sampling of only rank 2 and
 348 3 cover classes ($\geq 10\%$ total cover) produced 3 to 10 species per site with a mean of 6.1 ± 2.1 ;
 349 and single-transect sampling of only rank 2 and 3 cover classes produced 3 to 12 species per site
 350 with a mean of 6.9 ± 2.4 . The strength of correlations between the best-fit floristic indices and
 351 the reference measures declined incrementally as sampling effort was reduced; this decline was
 352 most pronounced for % *Native* with a reduction in cover classes sampled (Table 5).

353

354 Table 5. Spearman rank correlation coefficients comparing full and reduced-effort floristic
 355 measures against existing measures of freshwater wetland condition among 20 reference wetland
 356 sites. Parenthetical values are not significant using a *P* value of 0.05.

Floristic Index	<i>OIWI</i>	<i>RIRAM</i>	<i>ISA</i>
<u><i>Mean CC_s</i></u>			
Full Sampling	0.82	0.81	-0.84
Single Transect	0.82	0.79	-0.82
≥10% Cover	0.74	0.81	-0.79
Single Transect ≥10% Cover	0.77	0.74	-0.78
<u><i>Weighted Mean CC_s</i></u>			
Full Sampling	0.82	0.85	-0.86
Single Transect	0.82	0.83	-0.84
≥10% Cover	0.79	0.85	-0.82
Single Transect ≥10% Cover	0.80	0.77	-0.80
<u><i>% Native</i></u>			
Full Sampling	0.81	0.89	-0.89
Single Transect	0.82	0.86	-0.86
≥10% Cover	0.73	0.70	-0.71
Single Transect ≥10% Cover	0.73	0.67	-0.70
<u><i>FQAI</i></u>			
Full Sampling	(0.24)	(-0.08)	(-0.09)
Single Transect	(0.20)	(-0.05)	(-0.08)
≥10% Cover	(0.26)	(0.36)	(-0.24)
Single Transect ≥10% Cover	(0.21)	(0.09)	(-0.16)

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4. Discussion

4.1 Empirical evaluation suggests some FQA variants are good bioindicators

We evaluated FQA variants against reference measures representing three conceptual levels of assessment as recommended by U.S. EPA (2006): landscape (level 1), rapid (level 2), and intensive (level 3) methods. Each reference measure was independently conceptualized and developed based on ecological theory and not on improving its correlation with any other measure. It is assumed that these reference measures, representing indirect stress (*ISA*), direct and cumulative disturbance (*RIRAM*), and biological response (*OIWI*), are together reflecting a broad signal of disturbance, even as there is evidence of functional overlap. With this approach, we were able to evaluate broad aspects of FQA responsiveness and utility while increasing insight and confidence in our findings. The original *FQAI* did not effectively indicate wetland condition, whereas FQA variants excluding species richness were strongly correlated with all three reference measures of wetland condition and were able to clearly discriminate among disturbance classes, suggesting good indicator performance. Those richness-free variants incorporating non-native species (*Mean CC_s*, *Weighted Mean CC_s*, and *FQAI*) outperformed the variant based strictly on native species (*Mean CC_n*), and incorporating species cover (*Weighted Mean CC_s*) did not substantially improve empirical performance further. Interestingly, the percentage of native species alone (*% Native*) was also strongly correlated with our reference measures in full-effort sampling, suggesting a strong relationship between wetland disturbance and invasibility.

381 *4.2 Support for floristic conservatism as an indicator of wetland integrity*

382 Strong correlation of aggregate floristic conservatism (*Mean CC_n* and *Mean CC_s*) with
383 the proportion of surrounding impervious surface (ISA) and our additive multi-metric assessment
384 measure (RIRAM), supports the assumption that floristic conservatism can integrate and reflect
385 cumulative impacts of multiple agents of disturbance (DeBerry et al., 2015; Faber-Langendoen,
386 2009; Mack and Kentula, 2010; U.S. EPA, 2002), a necessary trait for the broad assessment of
387 ecological integrity (Barbour et al., 1996; Karr and Chu, 1999). Correlation with odonate
388 conservatism (OIWI) supports predictable responsiveness of disturbance tolerance across taxa
389 and the broader potential utility of conservatism. Floristic conservatism can be viewed as being
390 underpinned by the C-S-R (Competitor, Stress-tolerant, Ruderal) life history theory (Grimes,
391 1974, 1977), wherein increasing disturbance favors survival of R (disturbance-facilitated) species
392 (represented by low CC) over conservative (disturbance-intolerant) C and S species, and thus the
393 relative prevalence of R versus C-S species reflects the degree of effective disturbance. This
394 straightforward concept makes aggregate floristic conservatism a readily understood and
395 interpreted metric, increasing its utility for managers. Additionally, it is easily measured, non-
396 destructive, and measures a habitat characteristic closely tied to management concerns (Cairns et
397 al., 1993; Dale and Bayler, 2001; Karr, 2006).

398

399 *4.3 Lack of support for species richness as a component of FQA*

400 Our results suggest that species richness impedes the ability of FQA indices to reflect
401 changes in wetland condition due to human disturbances. We found that native species richness
402 (*N*) was not correlated with any measure of wetland condition (OIWI) or stress (RIRAM, ISA),
403 and our work is consistent with other studies that have found that variants excluding species
404 richness more reliably vary with wetland condition (Bried et al., 2013; Cohen et al., 2004;
405 Matthews et al., 2009; Miller and Wardrop, 2006; Vasselka et al., 2010). We also found that
406 richness-weighted FQA variants varied with hydrogeomorphic class, suggesting that species
407 richness is innately variable across wetland types, independent of disturbance (Bried et al., 2013;
408 Bourdaghs, 2012), which would confound comparison of condition across wetland types. In
409 contrast, the non-richness-weighted FQA variants did not vary with wetland type and correlated
410 strongly with our reference measures across wetland hydrogeomorphic and vegetation
411 community types, suggesting greater utility and reduced classification burdens for managers.

412 Alongside the lack of empirical support for including species richness, there are
413 conceptual grounds for care when including species richness in bioindicators. The widespread
414 use of species richness in biological assessment is often motivated by its use as a proxy for
415 community diversity in a broader sense, which is in turn considered to reflect high community
416 productivity, resilience, and functionality (Knops et al., 1999; Myers et al., 2000; Rosset et al.,
417 2013; Tilman et al., 1996). Under this assumption, reduced species richness is expected in areas
418 disturbed by human activity and high richness should indicate undisturbed habitat. Potentially
419 undermining this assumption is the fact that species richness is not always a reliable proxy for
420 other components of diversity (Keough and Quinn, 1991; Grimes, 1997; Waide et al., 1999). In
421 addition, ecological theory predicts varying and non-linear relationships between richness and
422 disturbance (Connell, 1978; Huston, 1979; Miller et al., 2011; Violle et al., 2010), and our
423 findings support other empirical studies substantiating this expectation (Mackey and Currie,
424 2001). When there is a monotonic decline in species richness with increasing disturbance, this
425 pattern may only hold for small, uniform habitat patches, and can be offset by patchy or

426 incomplete incursions that increase richness when sites encompass multiple habitat types
427 (Catford et al., 2012; Didham et al., 2005; Silliman and Bertness, 2004).

428 Another practical drawback of using species richness in bioindicators, recognized by
429 early proponents (Fausch et al., 1990), is its dependence on site area and sampling effort (Connor
430 and McCoy 1979; Gotelli and Colwell, 2001; Rooney and Rogers, 2002). In theory, FQA
431 requires a complete floristic inventory, but this is not often practical, particularly for large or
432 complex areas. Bourdaghs et al. (2006) addressed site area dependence by aggregating *FQAI*
433 scores from several equal-sized subunits within a site. Our belt-transect sampling method
434 somewhat normalized effort in relation to site area, yet nearly all floristic measures incorporating
435 species richness varied with site area. Fully standardizing sampling effort could potentially
436 lessen, but not eliminate, these effects (Washington, 1984).

437 438 *4.4 Support for non-native species as components of FQA*

439 Of the FQA variants that did not incorporate species richness, those including non-native
440 species (*Mean CC_s*, *Weighted Mean CC_s*, and *FQAI*) were most-strongly associated with our
441 reference measures. In fact, the simplest measure of non-native-species prevalence (*% Native*),
442 was strongly correlated with our reference measures and with multiple RIRAM component
443 metrics. Some other studies also report improved performance when comparing FQA indicators
444 with and without non-native species, e.g. *Mean CC_s* vs. *Mean CC_n* (Cohen et al., 2004) and non-
445 native species richness vs. *FQAI* (Ervin et al., 2006), whereas others report no performance
446 differences (Bourdaghs et al., 2006; Miller and Wardrop, 2006). We cannot explain these
447 among-study differences in the empirical influence of non-native species on FQA indicators, but
448 speculate that it may reflect the overall prevalence of non-natives.

449 FQA variants that include non-native species generally assign all non-native species a CC
450 of 0, which assumes all are equally and highly tolerant of human disturbances. Although there is
451 support for the hypothesis that non-natives tend to differ in several performance-related traits
452 from native species (van Kleunen et al., 2010), their characteristics vary considerably (Sakai,
453 2001) so it is perhaps more realistic to assume their CC values are low, but variable, rather than
454 all zero (DeBerry et al., 2015). There is, perhaps, stronger evidence that native communities are
455 more invulnerable after human disturbance, supporting the assumption that high representation of
456 non-natives is a symptom (rather than a cause) of habitat disturbance (Didham et al., 2005;
457 Vitousek et al., 1996). Additionally, changes in plant species composition and structure
458 associated with invasive species presence and abundance are, by definition, direct changes in
459 ecological condition, which FQA typically seeks to measure. There is thus both empirical and
460 conceptual backing for the inclusion of non-native species in FQA, and the straightforward
461 aggregate conservatism of all species (*Mean CC_s*) is an understandable and reliable indicator for
462 practitioners seeking to evaluate general wetland condition.

463 464 *4.5 Conceptual support for incorporating abundance in FQA*

465 *Weighted Mean CC_s* performed similarly to *Mean CC_s* in this study, but there are
466 important ecological and practical implications of incorporating abundance in FQA. *Weighted*
467 *Mean CC_s* better reflects wetland condition in cases where a single or few ruderal species
468 dominate groundcover and remnant conservative vegetation remains (Bourdaghs, 2012), which is
469 common with incursions of nuisance and invasive species, such as *Phragmites australis*.
470 Weighting *Mean CC_s* by relative cover captures the structural and functional implications of
471 groundcover domination by ruderal species that *Mean CC_s* alone cannot, and therefore provides a

472 more relevant and defensible indication of wetland condition at the site scale, which is essential
473 for comparing individual assessment outcomes. Among wetlands with more even species
474 distributions, *Mean CC_s* and *Weighted Mean CC_s* function nearly equally. Prior studies with
475 similar empirical findings have suggested that incorporating abundance classes is not worth the
476 extra sampling effort (Bourdagh's et al., 2006; Cohen et al., 2004), but later, more-intensive work
477 emphasizes the importance of abundance weighting in FQA from both empirical and conceptual
478 standpoints (Bourdagh's, 2012). Unlike the more-rigorous methods used in the earlier studies, the
479 sampling methods developed for our study, which focus on species identification and the
480 estimation of broad cover classes, capture the functional consequences of cover domination with
481 little extra effort over identity sampling alone (~3 min. per transect × 3 transects = ~9 min. per
482 site for full-effort sampling). We argue that, using our simplified cover-estimation approach, the
483 increased functionality of *Weighted Mean CC_s* at the site scale is well worth the small added
484 increase in effort for evaluating individual wetlands.

485

486 *4.6 Sampling effort and performance*

487 Three practical considerations for FQA practitioners are index performance (reliability),
488 available botanical expertise, and the amount of time a method takes to conduct. Our full-effort
489 sampling time was practical, usually completed in less than three hours of field work and an hour
490 or two of laboratory support. Botanical expertise may therefore pose the most likely limitation to
491 practitioners (Chamberlain and Brooks, 2016). Our reduced cover-class sampling reduced
492 species identification requirements from a mean of 50 for full-effort sampling to a mean of 6 or 7
493 and as few as 3, greatly alleviating expertise and time limitations without strongly degrading
494 index performance. These findings support recommendations that a limited number of
495 commonly-occurring indicator species can be used to reduce botanical expertise requirements
496 without substantially degrading index reliability (Bourdagh's, 2012). Additionally, our findings
497 indicate that *Mean CC_s* and *Weighted Mean CC_s* became stable using data from a single transect,
498 suggesting that exhaustive sampling may be unnecessary for these richness-free FQA variants to
499 produce a reliable score (Bourdagh's et al., 2006).

500

501 *4.7 FQA indicators may not reflect hydrological modification to wetlands*

502 Despite good overall performance, FQA may not be a reliable indicator of hydrologic
503 modifications. Weak correlations between FQA measures and RIRAM metrics rating hydrologic
504 modification suggest that hydrologic modification does not strongly affect aggregate
505 conservatism or proportional nativeness of plant species, even though it is known to largely
506 control species composition (Mitsch and Gosselink, 2000). Consonantly, Ervin et al. (2006)
507 found wetland indicator status (fidelity to wetland hydrology) to be a relatively ineffective
508 indicator of wetland integrity. Our findings may reflect a resilient adaptability of wetlands to
509 hydrologic change and the potential for high quality wetlands to persist in artificial water
510 regimes.

511

512 *4.8 Study sample implications*

513 We are confident that our study sample represented a broad range of wetland conditions,
514 as RIRAM scores ranged from 100, indicating no perceived evidence of disturbance or
515 degradation, to 44.2, which indicates moderate to high-intensity disturbance and degradation
516 across multiple metrics (Tables S1 and S2). Our approach of using three largely independent
517 reference measures reduced reference measure bias, but it did not alleviate the limitations of our

518 study sample, which included mostly open-canopy vegetated wetlands. Recent work using this
519 same approach has indicated that FQA is similarly effective in forested wetlands in Rhode Island
520 (M. Peach-Lang, unpublished data), a finding shared by Bell et al. (2017) in Northern New
521 England forested wetlands. Other studies recommend interpreting FQA scores differently across
522 various wetland types (Bourdagh, 2012; DeBerry et al., 2015). We found no evidence that
523 hydrogeomorphic type confounded non-richness FQA across our sites, but our study sample was
524 too small to make determinations on whether or to what extent differential interpretation of FQA
525 may be necessary for specific wetland types in our region. We recommend rigorous study using
526 multiple independent reference measures for developing FQA protocols for specific regions.

527

528 *4.9 Conclusion*

529 We demonstrate that a straightforward bioindicator can predictably integrate and reflect
530 the complex signal of cumulative wetland disturbance. We tested FQA against three
531 independently-derived reference measures, which provided a broad signal of wetland integrity
532 and increased our confidence that FQA variants were responding to the signal of disturbance
533 over the biases of our reference measures. Interpreting our empirical findings in the context of
534 established ecological theory provides insight into the mechanisms driving the FQA variants.
535 Our analysis discredits the assumption that species richness supports FQA functionality,
536 suggesting that richness will more often confound FQA function without providing predictably
537 meaningful information about wetland condition. Our findings support the assumptions that (1)
538 aggregate conservatism will reliably decline with increasing human disturbance; (2) non-native
539 species support conservatism by directly reflecting wetland ecological integrity; and (3) the
540 relative abundance of species can add important site-level functional information that species
541 presence alone cannot provide. Our analysis suggests that FQA variants incorporating non-native
542 species and discounting species richness respond meaningfully and predictably across a gradient
543 of ecological conditions, are resistant to the confounding influences of site size, sampling effort,
544 and hydrogeomorphology, and are easily interpreted and understood. Incorporating relative
545 abundance (*Weighted Mean CC_s*) using the coarse cover classes recommended in this study
546 improves relevance at the site level with little extra sampling effort. Accordingly, the
547 straightforward principles and methods of FQA can provide practitioners with a set of practical,
548 reliable, and informative tools for assessing freshwater wetland integrity.

549

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561

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705 Table S1. Components of the Rhode Island Rapid Assessment Method for evaluating freshwater
 706 wetland condition (modified from Kutcher and Bried 2014).

RIRAM Metric	Metric Scoring Criteria
1. Buffer Integrity	Estimates % cultural cover class within 100' (30.5 m) of site
2. Surrounding Land Use Integrity	Generates a weighted average of four land-use-intensity categories by relative proportion within 500' (152 m) of site
3. Impoundment	Estimates water regime change and proportion of site affected, and identifies barriers to resource movement
4. Draining or Diversion of Water	Estimates water regime change due to draining or diversion of water, and proportion of the site affected
5. Fluvial Inputs	Estimates impacts of four types of fluvial inputs including nutrients, sediments and solids, toxins and salts, and flashiness
6. Filling and Dumping	Estimates the intensity of fill and the proportion of the wetland affected
7. Substrate Disturbance	Estimates the intensity any substrate disturbances within the wetland and the proportion of the wetland affected
8. Vegetation Removal	Estimates the extent and the proportion of vegetation and detritus removal from each of five vegetation strata
9. Invasive Species Cover	Estimates the collective cover class of all identified invasive plant species
10. Observed State of Wetland Characteristics	Rates the apparent integrity of five wetland functional characteristics, including hydrologic integrity, water and soil quality, habitat structure, vegetation composition, and habitat connectivity

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Table S2. Values of floristic, Odonate, rapid, and landscape assessment indices of freshwater wetland condition from 20 wetland sites; $MCC_n = \text{Mean } CC_n$; $MCC_s = \text{Mean } CC_s$; $WMCC_s = \text{Weighted Mean } CC_s$

Site Code	<i>FOAI</i>	<i>FOAI_s</i>	<i>MCC_n</i>	<i>MCC_s</i>	<i>WMCC_s</i>	<i>FOAI'</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>%N</i>	<i>OIWI</i>	<i>RIRAM</i>	<i>ISA</i>
AUD-NEW-PND	30.9	30.4	3.86	3.74	3.95	38.0	64	66	97.0	5.83	87.2	3.3
PRV-BLRD-PRK	15.4	13.7	3.53	2.79	2.74	31.4	19	24	79.2	4.80	63.9	13
PRV-BOTH-PND	30.4	30.4	4.69	4.69	4.59	46.9	42	42	100	6.82	93.7	0.3
PRV-BRCH-STA	31.7	30.8	3.76	3.56	3.32	36.6	71	75	94.7	5.89	86.3	3.2
PRV-GLAC-PND	24.8	23.3	4.45	4.06	4.20	43.1	31	33	93.9	6.24	82.0	6.3
PRV-JACK-SCPD	32.3	32.3	4.43	4.43	4.06	44.3	53	53	100	5.95	84.9	1.6
PRV-LONS-MRSH	28.5	26.2	3.81	3.25	2.86	35.4	56	65	86.2	4.92	57.6	19
PRV-MOSH-PND	22.5	18.8	3.61	2.56	1.78	30.7	39	54	72.2	4.68	44.2	62
PRV-PYSZ-FEN	28.3	27.9	4.85	4.71	5.13	47.8	34	35	97.1	6.34	88.8	3.1
PRV-SLTR-PRK0	31.3	28.9	3.85	3.30	2.77	35.6	66	77	85.7	5.30	50.4	31
PRV-WOON-STA3	29.0	26.3	3.87	3.24	3.25	35.6	56	66	84.8	4.96	54.9	38
PRV-WOON-STA4	25.6	22.5	3.95	3.06	3.19	34.7	41	53	77.4	4.73	55.5	35
SMA-ARC-BFFEN	27.2	27.2	4.31	4.31	4.73	43.1	39	39	100	7.29	99.7	0.0
SMA-ARC-MOON	38.6	37.9	4.71	4.56	4.32	46.4	62	64	96.9	5.94	86.3	8.3
SMA-ARC-RBPD	43.7	43.4	4.46	4.41	4.43	44.4	95	96	99.0	6.77	87.7	0.8
SMA-BIG-CAP	35.7	35.3	5.15	5.04	5.19	51.0	48	49	98.0	6.54	87.2	0.7
SMA-BUCK-PD	24.5	24.5	4.63	4.63	4.82	46.3	27	27	100	5.85	99.7	0.7
SMA-CAR-FISH	21.2	21.2	4.74	4.74	5.16	47.4	19	19	100	6.47	100	0.0
SMA-CAR-WLPD	25.8	25.6	4.96	4.93	4.73	49.6	27	27	100	7.04	100	0.0
TNC-CRTR-WET1	22.7	22.7	4.29	4.29	4.03	42.9	28	28	100	6.15	87.8	3.6

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