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4

5 Clarifying the trophic state concept to advance limnology, management, and interdisciplinary  
6 collaboration

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## 39 **Significance Statement**

40

41 Trophic state (TS) characterizes a waterbody's biological productivity and depends on its  
42 morphometry, physics, chemistry, biology, climate, and history. However, multiple TS  
43 operational definitions have emerged to meet use-specific classification needs. These differing  
44 operational definitions can create inconsistent understanding, can lead to miscommunication,  
45 and can result in siloed management strategies for TS. For example, some regulatory agencies  
46 use TS to signify ecological integrity as opposed to biological productivity, where TS  
47 classification may trigger intervention efforts. These inconsistencies may be compounded when  
48 interdisciplinary projects employ varied TS frameworks. To emphasize the consequences of  
49 using multiple TS classification schemes, we present three scenarios for which an improved  
50 understanding of the TS concept could advance limnological research, management efforts, and  
51 interdisciplinary collaboration. As the field of limnology continues to expand, we highlight the  
52 importance of re-evaluating even the most fundamental limnological concepts, such as TS, to  
53 ensure congruence with evolving, cutting-edge science.

54

## 55 **Introduction**

56

57 Trophic state (TS) is a fundamental concept in limnology that describes a waterbody's  
58 characteristic productivity. Conceptually, TS is an integration of internal and external drivers that  
59 influence a waterbody's biological productivity. But operationally, productivity can be challenging  
60 to estimate, and therefore, several proxies for identifying TS have emerged over the 20th  
61 century (Box 1; Supplemental Table S1). In lentic ecosystems, Hutchinson (1957) focused on  
62 hypolimnetic oxygen depletion rates as driven by production. Lindeman (1942) and Horne and  
63 Goldman (1983) focused on TS as phases of a waterbody's ontogeny, which are identified by  
64 net ecosystem exchange. Carlson (1977) focused on autochthony, whereas Naumann (1917),  
65 Thienemann (1921), Wetzel (2001), and Dodds and Cole (2007) focused on characteristic  
66 productivity as a function of both autochthony and allochthony. In lotic ecosystems, the TS  
67 concept has likewise focused on productivity as a function of autochthony and allochthony, but  
68 more specifically the ratio of photosynthesis to respiration at the scale of river reach (Odum  
69 1956; Dodds and Cole 2007).

70

71 Over decades, the proxies used to classify TS have become synonymous with its conceptual  
72 definition, potentially leading TS to be "[a] terminology that is so widely and often so inaccurately  
73 employed in discussing productivity" (Hutchinson 1957). However, limnology and water  
74 management relies upon these categorizations to simplify complex processes into a single  
75 metric (Kraemer 2020). Furthermore, these categories can be an expedient way to convey  
76 complex information and to guide policy and mitigation efforts. As science advances, there  
77 arises an increasing need to re-evaluate how the use of multiple proxies and classification  
78 schemes may alter our understanding of ecosystem productivity.

79

80 Given the pervasiveness of the TS concept for categorizing aquatic ecosystems, the use of  
81 several related, yet diverging, classification schemes hinders effective communication. As new  
82 developments in limnology, management, and technologies (e.g., remote sensing estimates of

83 aquatic chlorophyll) continue to emerge, it becomes essential to re-evaluate and clarify how the  
84 most cutting-edge science informs and evolves existing categories. Without this epistemological  
85 evolution, the fields of limnology and water quality management run the risk of developing  
86 divergent understandings of how ecosystems function. Here, we detail three instances where  
87 clarifying the TS concept can impact the scope of limnology and management efforts. We  
88 showcase how descriptions of TS could benefit from including (1) the ecosystem type  
89 considered, (2) the proxies used to compute TS, and (3) the spatial region and temporal period  
90 that are represented. Communicating these pieces of information is an initial step in improving  
91 clarity in TS assessments and ensuring scientific reproducibility, thereby furthering the  
92 development of limnology, water resource management, and interdisciplinary collaboration.

93

### 94 **Clarifying the TS concept can enhance our understanding of limnology**

95

96 One of the most powerful ways we can clarify the TS concept is by testing how TS estimates  
97 vary across seasons or latitudinal zones outside those used in its original formulations. For  
98 example, the TS concept was historically crafted around characteristics of northern temperate  
99 lakes, which tend to freeze and experience strong seasonal shifts in precipitation and air  
100 temperature. However, a broader view across biomes and seasons demands consideration of  
101 how climate and geology influence trophic state (Dodds et al. 2019). Limnological studies often  
102 focus on summer; however, winter studies have highlighted how decreased lake ice cover can  
103 trigger a cascade of ecological and environmental consequences that influence TS (Sharma et  
104 al. 2019; Hébert et al. 2021). Under-ice chlorophyll-a concentrations can reach those of  
105 summertime concentrations, where under-ice algae can develop blooms and be vital resources  
106 for grazing invertebrates (Hampton et al. 2017). Moreover, summertime productivity for  
107 seasonally freezing lakes can be a function of antecedent winter conditions, where decreased  
108 ice cover can lead to decreased summertime productivity (Hrycik et al. 2021).

109

110 What information do we lose by focusing on summer conditions? In other words, “Is a eutrophic  
111 lake still eutrophic in the winter?” This distinction depends on how one classifies “eutrophic.” For  
112 lakes that seasonally freeze, eutrophic lakes may be equally productive in winter, but this  
113 productivity is neither immediately visible nor frequently considered. For eutrophic lakes  
114 experiencing reductions in ice cover, winter may be an ecological reset. In this instance,  
115 diminishing ice cover over coming decades could hinder ice-obligate algal communities.  
116 However, cold temperatures may suppress warm water taxa during winter. Ice loss, then, may  
117 homogenize the behavior of eutrophic and oligotrophic waterbodies during winter, but the  
118 trophic state still remains a classification system that relies on summertime productivity.

119

120 In contrast to temperate ecosystems, tropical aquatic ecosystems have less pronounced  
121 seasonal variation in temperature and radiation but are driven by hydrological variation in the  
122 dry and wet seasons (Cunha et al 2021). Therefore, the productivity of these aquatic systems  
123 can be influenced by water level changes and the allochthonous nutrient loading related to the  
124 seasonal shifts. With this alternative framing of seasonality, the comparability of TS  
125 assessments made across biomes becomes even less clear.

126

127 When expanding the TS concept across biomes and seasons, the spatial and temporal domains  
128 of classifications become essential. If we assume that TS is based on cyclical degrees of  
129 autotrophy and heterotrophy (Wetzel 2001), characterizing TS on an annual baseline is  
130 necessary. If we assume that TS reflects summertime productivity, then only summertime  
131 estimates are necessary. As most TS assessments are already based on summertime  
132 productivity, our current understanding of characteristic productivity is likely limited to  
133 summertime and primarily in temperate regions. Yet, the growth of our understanding of  
134 wintertime and tropical productivity highlights how important seasonality can be for holistically  
135 understanding waterbody productivity worldwide. These disparate spatial and temporal domains  
136 raise the question “Given strong differences in characterizing seasonality, how comparable are  
137 TS estimates across biomes?”

138  
139 As limnology continues to expand into seasons and geographic locations that are poorly  
140 represented in the literature (Mejia et al. 2018; Barbosa et al. 2023; Rogers et al. 2023), we can  
141 create opportunities to expand the TS concept beyond the specific time periods and biomes  
142 used to lay its foundations. By looking at lower latitudes and non-summertime seasons, we can  
143 further assess how limnological ecosystems function, how this functionality varies regionally and  
144 seasonally, and how to contextualize regional ecosystem functioning within global patterns.

#### 145 146 **Clarifying the TS concept can benefit freshwater management**

147  
148 For management purposes, TS can classify ecosystems in relation to water quality and  
149 ecosystem services. For example, eutrophic conditions may be desirable for increasing fish  
150 production. Conversely, hypereutrophic conditions may promote anoxia, which can lead to fish  
151 kills. In a drinking water context, source water protection is an instance where TS classifications  
152 can connect water quality characteristics to services. Eutrophic water supplies have higher  
153 filtration needs, a higher likelihood of creating health hazards from algal toxins and disinfection  
154 byproducts, more taste and odor problems, and greater treatment costs (Cooke and Kennedy  
155 2001). Dystrophic waters characterized by a dark brown color and high carbon also require  
156 greater disinfection; however, high concentrations of organic matter can result in carcinogenic  
157 byproducts following the disinfection process (Mukundan and Van Dreason 2014). Clarified  
158 understanding of metrics within a TS classification scheme may help to predict measures of  
159 interest, such as cyanobacterial biomass, within source waters (Fernandez-Figueroa et al.  
160 2021).

161  
162 Owing to incongruences in TS classification schemes, categories detectable by each scheme  
163 can narrow the focus of which water quality aspects are monitored. For example, managers  
164 may use Secchi disk depth (SDD) to calculate trophic state index (TSI), and then use TSI to  
165 identify waterbodies that are hypereutrophic and at greater risk of cyanobacterial blooms.  
166 However, autochthony-focused metrics define this classification, whereas dystrophic and  
167 mixotrophic systems are not distinguished. This incongruence can be consequential for water  
168 quality estimates because mixotrophic lakes may have elevated risk of cyanobacterial blooms  
169 (Leech et al. 2018), yet their SDD can be indiscernible from eutrophic and dystrophic lakes  
170 (Figure 1). Even when TS classification schemes are interoperable, they can be insensitive to

171 capturing marked water quality changes. For example, a marginal change in phosphorus  
172 concentrations can propel a waterbody across a class boundary (Meyer et al. 2023). These  
173 realities can make TS-based classifications complex measurements of ecological change,  
174 where a meaningful classification change may correspond to a marginal water quality change.  
175

176 Spatial and temporal heterogeneities can further confound TS classifications and influence the  
177 scales required for management efforts. Spatially, sample collection tends to occur at the  
178 waterbody's center, failing to capture heterogeneous conditions, especially in nearshore and  
179 benthic habitats (Vadeboncoeur et al. 2021). For lotic ecosystems, samples collected near  
180 riparian vegetation may influence TS signals due to hyporheic exchange or terrestrial-aquatic  
181 connections. In instances where spatial heterogeneities are monitored, resulting TS  
182 classifications may not be consistent across a waterbody. How these spatial heterogeneities  
183 might be communicated and interpreted will depend on the resolution of tools available to  
184 measure TS and resources of local management agencies to act on that information.  
185

186 Temporally, samples for monitoring TS tend to be collected as snapshots in time, and a lack of  
187 contemporaneously collected samples can hinder the ability to crosswalk classification  
188 schemes. For example, TSI and Ecological Status (ES) can rely upon total phosphorus, SDD,  
189 and chlorophyll data, which are abundant across monitoring programs relative to true color or  
190 dissolved organic matter/carbon (DOM, DOC) data needed for nutrient-color paradigm (NCP;  
191 Box 1). TSI and ES, then, might allow for finer-scale temporal assessments for a waterbody, but  
192 less frequent true color or DOM data collection may miss details used in NCP classifications.  
193 Further, the focus of TSI on autotrophic components of an ecosystem makes translating from  
194 TSI-derived TS estimates to NCP-derived TS estimates challenging, which can skew  
195 understanding of TS frequency and spatial distribution across landscapes (Figure 2).  
196

197 Clarifying the spatial, temporal, proxy data, and classification scheme limitations of TS refines  
198 management effectiveness and water quality reporting. TS classification schemes that account  
199 for variation across spatial and temporal scales as well as TS classification schemes may  
200 identify a waterbody as, for example, "generally oligotrophic with hot spots or hot moments of  
201 mixotrophy". Ensuring consistent TS proxies can suggest drivers of TS, thereby optimizing  
202 successive management decisions. From this fusion of data and TS classification schemes,  
203 management can better contextualize individual waterbodies and address drivers of those water  
204 quality conditions.  
205

### 206 **Clarifying the TS concept can increase the interdisciplinarity of limnology**

207

208 Limnology has benefited from a suite of disciplines. Similarly, other disciplines can benefit from  
209 limnology. Limnologists can maximize these benefits by providing greater consistency in usage  
210 of concepts and categorizations to avoid confusion in their applications across disciplines.  
211

212 Remote sensing is a pertinent example of a technology that has enabled the integration of  
213 limnological concepts into multidisciplinary research. Legleiter et al. (2022) used remotely  
214 sensed hyperspectral data in tandem with genus-level, pigment signatures to detail

215 cyanobacterial abundance within a reservoir. Gardner et al. (2021), Topp et al. (2021), and  
216 Yang et al. (2022) used lake surface water color as a metric of whole-ecosystem productivity.  
217 Wang et al. (2018) and Gilarranz et al. (2022) quantified TS and its associated variability from  
218 remotely sensed surface reflectance for hundreds of lakes worldwide. Many of these studies  
219 refer to the TS concept, but few explain what specific proxies or spatio-temporal scales are used  
220 to characterize ecosystems. This lack of clarity could lead to spurious conclusions. Remotely  
221 sensed aquatic surface reflectances may imply oligotrophic status for both a river and a lake,  
222 but the limnological processes associated with those classifications may be completely different.  
223 In a lake, oligotrophic conditions could imply low productivity in the water column, thereby  
224 showing strong blue reflectance, whereas lotic systems with stable hydrology and low turbidity  
225 can have high benthic algal productivity and green reflectance under oligotrophic conditions.  
226 Although remote sensing approaches have the potential to revolutionize the spatial and  
227 temporal coverage of trophic state monitoring, stronger links need to be made between  
228 limnological and remote sensing science to take full advantage of remotely sensed data  
229 sources.

230  
231 Data science techniques, such as Knowledge-Guided Machine Learning (KGML), have started  
232 integrating limnological processes to understand complex system dynamics. For example,  
233 Hanson et al. (2020) used KGML to model phosphorus dynamics in a lake over 20 years, where  
234 the integrated model replicated a downward trend in lake TP concentrations. That study focused  
235 on characterizing patterns related to TS (i.e., TP), yet the potential exists for model predictions  
236 to extend beyond individual constituents and into holistic ecosystem characteristics. Consistent  
237 and clear communication of TS classifications schemes used in developing training data will  
238 maximize the predictive accuracy of these data-driven modeling approaches.

239  
240 New information gathered via emerging technologies may deepen our understanding of aquatic  
241 ecosystem properties across scales but also will demand re-evaluation of how TS classification  
242 is operationalized. Remote sensing and data science can expand spatial and temporal domains  
243 that may be physically impossible to sample. Consequently, these techniques may provide the  
244 most tractable paths to understanding broadscale patterns in aquatic productivity. However,  
245 remote sensing and data science may not take full advantage of the rich history of TS within  
246 limnology without clear consideration of the processes and operational definitions underlying  
247 TS. Further clarification of TS can benefit the interdisciplinarity of limnology by clarifying  
248 concepts for non-limnologists, thereby enabling broader insights.

## 249 **Moving Forward: Clarifying the TS concept to advance the freshwater sciences**

251  
252 For many limnologists, TS is often the first conceptual model for understanding limnetic  
253 processes. The casual mention of TS can carry immense meaning to a limnologist, but there  
254 may be inconsistencies across usage. Although we are not proposing a unified classification  
255 scheme, we aim to underscore that clarity in TS classifications can benefit limnology,  
256 management, and interdisciplinary collaboration.

257

258 Given divergent TS schemes and end-user needs, three pieces of metadata are critical when  
259 reporting TS: (1) the ecosystem type, (2) the proxies used to compute TS, and (3) the spatial  
260 region and temporal period that are represented with the TS classification. Each informatic  
261 details how TS can be understood in a given ecosystem. “Ecosystem Type” can describe how  
262 lotic or lentic a waterbody may be, and estimates of hydrologic residence time may further  
263 explain drivers behind a waterbody’s TS (e.g., Hotchkiss et al. 2018). The proxies used for a  
264 classification scheme detail how a TS estimate is generated, its comparability to other  
265 ecosystems, and the balance of autotrophy and heterotrophy considered. Finally, defining the  
266 spatial and temporal domains of the TS classification allows for nuanced understanding of a  
267 classification, where inferences can be conveyed based on the scales considered in the TS  
268 formulation. Regardless of the level of detail given to each metadata criterion, communicating  
269 these pieces of information is an initial step forward in improving clarity among TS concepts.

270  
271 Ultimately, how the TS concept is implemented will stem from the task at hand. In the case of  
272 management, TS may be a tool to characterize water quality, to identify drivers dictating water  
273 quality, and to communicate that water quality characteristic to decision makers. In the case of  
274 scientific investigations, varying classification schemes may be applied to characterize  
275 ecosystems occurring at a particular spatial or temporal scale. Beyond any single approach to  
276 classifying TS, there is a need for limnology to re-evaluate existing classification schemes;  
277 otherwise, the implications of these diverging schemes can hinder the growth of basic and  
278 applied science, interdisciplinarity across fields, and robust adoption by a suite of end users.

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## 294 **Author Contribution Statement**

295  
296 MFM conceived the idea for the manuscript and provided leadership throughout its  
297 development. MFM, BMK, SEH, AIP, AKF, TVK, RL, IAO, SNT, and LSB, contributed to the  
298 design of the manuscript. MFM and BMK wrangled and harmonized data for the manuscript.  
299  
300



301 RMP, BMK, and MFM contributed to table and figure development. All co-authors contributed  
302 either to writing or critically editing the manuscript.

303

304 **Data Availability Statement**

305

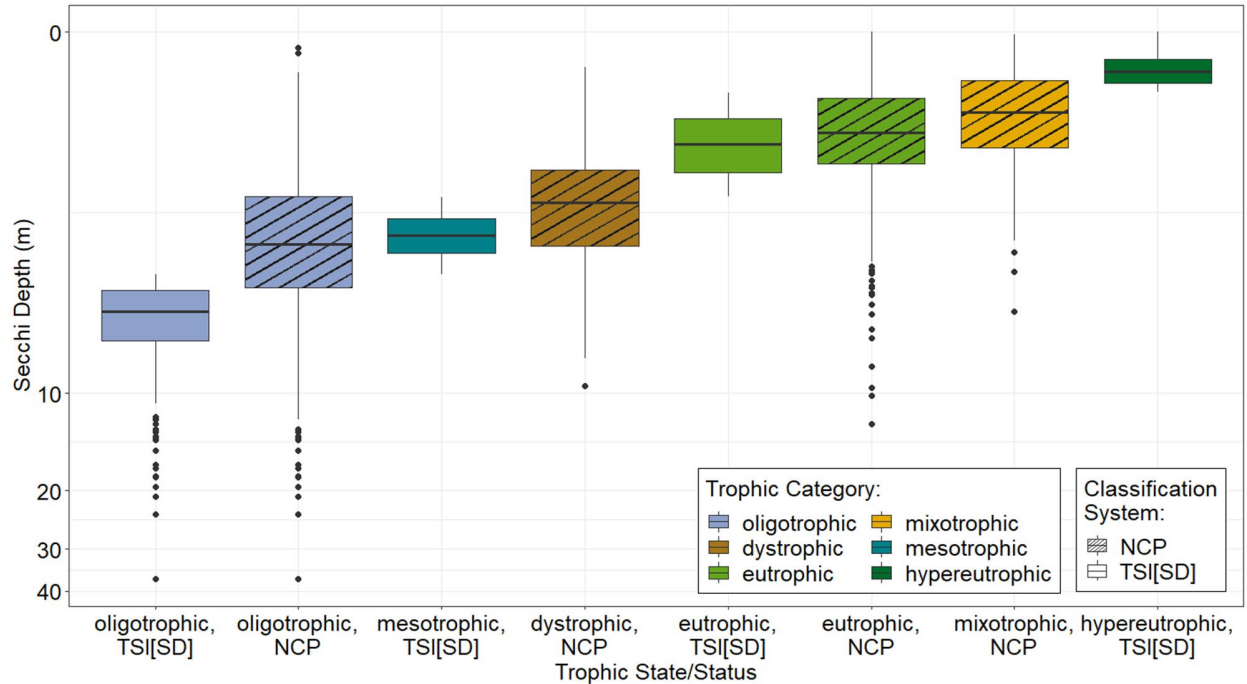
306 No new data were generated for this paper. All US EPA NLA data are available at  
307 <https://www.epa.gov/national-aquatic-resource-surveys/data-national-aquatic-resource-surveys>.

308

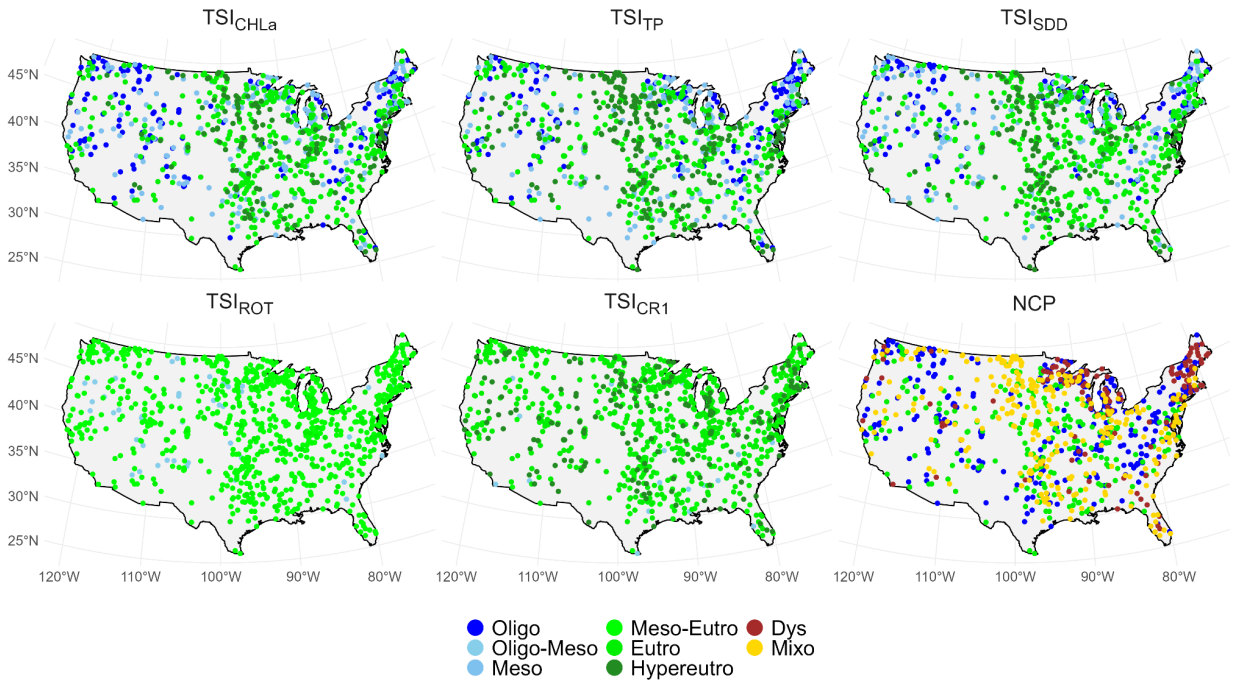
309 **Conflicts of Interest**

310

311 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.



312  
 313 Figure 1: Boxplots representing characteristic Secchi disk depths for lakes from the U.S.  
 314 Environmental Protection Agency’s 2012 and 2017 National Lake Assessment and their  
 315 associated trophic categories as determined by NCP and TSI. Boxplots are colored by the  
 316 trophic category. Boxplots representing NCP-based categories have diagonal hatches, whereas  
 317 boxplots lacking diagonal hatches represent TSI-based categories. Secchi disk depth, total  
 318 phosphorus, and true color data come from the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency’s  
 319 National Lake Assessment (USEPA 2011, 2012, 2017a; b). TSI delineations were made  
 320 following guidelines in (Carlson 1977). NCP delineations were made following thresholds  
 321 established in (Webster et al. 2008; Leech et al. 2018).



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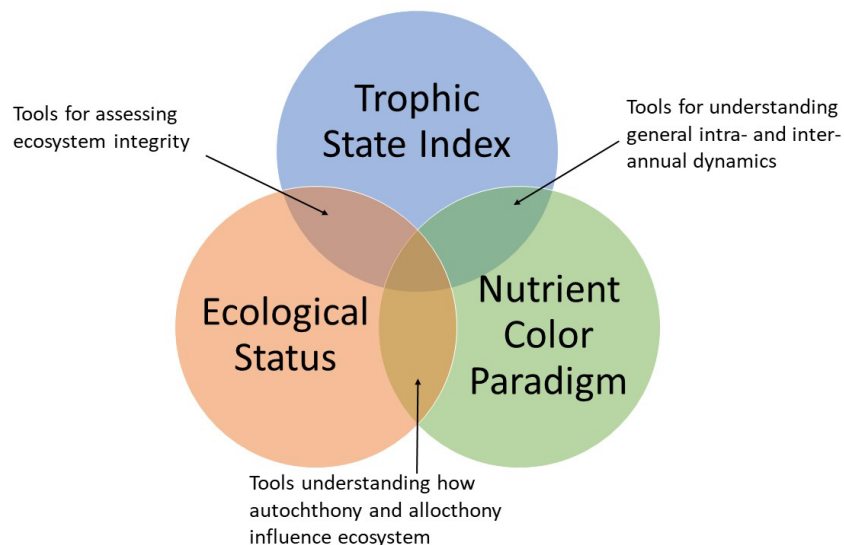
Figure 2: Map of lake trophic state using various classification schemes. Trophic state classification schemes include trophic state index (TSI) based on chlorophyll a ( $TSI_{CHLa}$ ), total phosphorus ( $TSI_{TP}$ ), and Secchi disk depth ( $TSI_{SDD}$ ), rotifer abundance ( $TSI_{ROT}$ ; (Ejsmont-Karabin and others 2012)), and crustacean zooplankton abundance ( $TSI_{CR1}$ ; (Ejsmont-Karabin and Karabin 2013)), as well as the Nutrient-Color Paradigm (NCP). Data for TS classifications come from the 2017 US EPA NLA sampling campaign (USEPA 2017a; b).

### Box 1: A comparison of selected lake TS classification schemes

**Trophic state index (TSI)**, developed by Carlson (1977) and subsequently refined, has been used as a descriptor of water quality in lentic waterbodies and has been frequently adopted by management agencies, including the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA 1990). It provides both a continuous metric and a categorical grouping but only indicates autotrophic productivity. Furthermore, TSI has been adapted to accommodate values typical to a given location. For example, in Brazil, TSI relationships have been adapted to classify tropical reservoirs to take into account the overall greater productivity of tropical ecosystems compared to other climate zones (Cunha et al. 2013).

**Nutrient-color paradigm (NCP)** groups lakes based on water clarity (measured as carbon concentration, water color, or absorption coefficient) and autotrophic capacity. Rohde 1969) first arranged the four quadrants of the NCP, placing autochthony on the horizontal axis and allochthony on the vertical axis. This second dimension discriminates “oligotrophic” (low autochthony, low allochthony) and “eutrophic” (high autochthony, low allochthony) lakes from “dystrophic” (low autochthony, high allochthony) lakes and “mixotrophic” (high autochthony, high allochthony) lakes.

**Ecological Status (ES)** is a component of the European Union’s Water Framework Directive (WFD) (Commission and Environment 2014), which introduces a planning process and assessment schema to manage, protect, and improve the surface and subsurface water environment. Ecological status is an assessment of the structure and function of surface waters. ES accounts for the abundance of aquatic flora and fish fauna, the availability of nutrients, and aspects like salinity, temperature, and presence of chemical pollutants. Notably, ES includes benthic variables as well as water column conditions. As defined in the WFD, ES refers not to a specific level of a variable or a characteristic of an ecosystem but rather to a change from the baseline undisturbed state.



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Supplemental Information for “Clarifying the trophic state concept to expand limnology, management, and interdisciplinary collaboration”

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This supplemental document contains a compiled list of trophic state (TS) classification schemes. For each TS, we collated: (1) the index’s name, (2) the data format required to implement a classification scheme, (3) the geography where the scheme was developed, (4) the season during which the scheme was developed, (5) the ecosystem type for which the scheme was developed, (6) the mixing zone and (7) spatial zone from which the scheme was developed.

Index Name	Data Format	Geography	Season	Ecosystem Type	Mixing Zone	Spatial Zone	Reference
Trophic status	Categorical	Worldwide	all	Estuaries	NA	pelagic	(Lee and Jones 1981)
Trophic state index	Continuous	Midwest United States	summer	lakes	epilimnion	pelagic	(Carlson 1977)
Trophic state model	Categorical; Probabilistic	Tropical	all	lakes	epilimnion	pelagic	(Salas and Martino 1991)
Trophic state	Categorical; Continuous	Japan	all	lakes	epilimnion	pelagic	(Sakamoto 1966)
Nutrient color paradigm	Categorical	Americas	Summer	lakes	epilimnion	NA	(Williamson et al. 1999)
Trophic status	Categorical	United States	Summer	lakes	epilimnion	pelagic	(USEPA 2007, 2012, 2017)
Q index	Categorical; Continuous	Hungary	all	lakes	epilimnion	pelagic	(Padisák et al. 2006)
Trophic status	Categorical	Denmark	Summer	lakes	epilimnion	pelagic	(Nygaard 1949)
Water quality index	Continuous	United States	Summer	lakes	epilimnion	pelagic	(Harkins 1974)
Canadian Council of Ministers of the Environment (CCME) Water Quality Index	Categorical; Continuous	Canada	All	lakes	epilimnion	pelagic	(Saffran et al. 2001)
Modified Canadian Council of Ministers of the Environment (CCME) Water Quality Index	Categorical; Continuous	Canada	All	lakes	epilimnion	pelagic	(Khan et al. 2004)
Planktonic trophic index	Categorical; Continuous	Europe	Summer	lakes	epilimnion	pelagic	(Phillips et al. 2013)
Trophic index number	Categorical; Continuous	United States		lakes	epilimnion	pelagic	(Stachelek et al. 2018)

Trophic state	Categorical; Continuous; Probabilistic	United States	Summer	lakes	Epilimnion	pelagic	(Dodds and Cole 2007)
Trophic state	Categorical; Continuous	Canadian and Worldwide	Summer	lakes	epilimnion, hypolimnion	pelagic	(Nürnberg and Shaw 1998)
Nutrient color paradigm	Categorical	North temperate	Summer	lakes	NA	NA	(Webster et al. 2008)
Trophic state	Categorical; Continuous	North American temperate lakes	All	lakes	Sediment core	Sediment core	(Stockner 1972)
Trophic state	Categorical; Continuous; Probabilistic	Temperate		lakes and reservoirs	epilimnion	pelagic	(Vollenweider and Kerekes 1982)
Phyto-See-Index	Categorical; Continuous	Germany	all	lakes and reservoirs	epilimnion	pelagic	(Mischke 2015)
Organization for European Economic Cooperation Trophic Status Index	Categorical; Probabilistic	Worldwide	all	lakes and reservoirs	epilimnion	pelagic	(Vollenweider and Kerekes 1982)
Lake condition index	Categorical	Wisconsin		Large lakes			(Lueschow et al. 1970)
Trophic state	Categorical; Probabilistic	Worldwide	all	lotic	benthic	benthic	(Dodds 2007)
Trophic state	Categorical; Continuous; Probabilistic	United States	Summer	lotic	benthic	benthic	(Dodds and Cole 2007)
Trophic state	Categorical; Continuous; Probabilistic	Worldwide temperate ecosystems	Seasonal	lotic	benthic/ sestonic	benthic	(Dodds et al. 1998)
Trophic state index	Categorical; Continuous; Probabilistic	United States	Summer	Non-saline lakes, reservoirs and ponds		pelagic	(Farnaz Nojavan et al. 2019)

Trophic state index	Categorical; Continuous	Tropics/Subtropics	all	reservoirs	epilimnion	pelagic	(Cunha et al. 2013)
Trophic state	Categorical; Continuous	Tropical	all	reservoirs	epilimnion	pelagic	(Lamparelli 2004)
EU Water Framework Directive Ecological Status	Categorical		all	rivers, lakes, marine			(Commission and Environment 2012)
Lake evaluation index	Continuous	United States	Summer		epilimnion	pelagic	(Porcella et al. 1980)
Trophic state	Categorical; Continuous						(Zafar 1959)
Florida trophic state index	Continuous	Florida					(Brezonik 1984)
Florida trophic state index	Categorical; Continuous	Florida					(Shannon and Brezonik 1972)
Water Quality Index	Categorical; Continuous	Laurentian Great Lakes					(Chow-Fraser 2006)
Trophic level index	Categorical; Continuous	New Zealand					(Burns et al. 1999)

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