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Effects of Lake Management on Chemical, Physical, and

Phycological Characteristics of a Hypereutrophic Reservoir
(11111)

BY

Kaye J. Surratt

# THESIS

# SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

Master of Science

# IN THE GRADUATE SCHOOL, EASTERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY CHARLESTON, ILLINOIS

1990 YEAR

# I HEREBY RECOMMEND THIS THESIS BE ACCEPTED AS FULFILLING THIS PART OF THE GRADUATE DEGREE CITED ABOVE

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#### ABSTRACT

Surratt, Kaye J. M.S., Eastern Illinois University. June 1990. Effects of Lake Management on Chemical, Physical, and Phycological Characteristics of a Hypereutrophic Reservoir.

Lake Charleston is a 1.1 billion gallon capacity side channel reservoir which was constructed in 1982 as a public drinking water supply for the City of Charleston in Coles County, Illinois. Past studies of the lake indicated an increase in eutrophication and the capacity to support large algal populations. Recent lake management practices include copper sulfate applications as an algicide and aeration to reduce flavor and odor.

In order to assess present lake status and to evaluate the effectiveness of lake management practices, two lake sites were sampled on a weekly basis from May to October, 1989. Chemical, physical, and phycological analyses followed standard methods (APHA 1985).

Carlson's Trophic State Indices calculated from data on secchi depth (m), chlorophyll <u>a</u> (ug/L), and total phosphorus (mg/L) indicated that Lake Charleston is hypereutrophic. Phosphorus probably limited algal standing crop at site 3 while light was most likely the limiting factor at site 1. Abundance of phosphorus at site 1 was attributed to the circulation of hypolimnetic phosphorus by the aeration unit.

Phytoplankton density has increased by a factor greater than five since 1982. During a bloom in July, bluegreen algae dominated

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at site 3, however bluegreens never comprised more than fifty percent of total algae at site 1. The inability of bluegreens to dominate at site 1 could have resulted from low pH/high carbon dioxide water circulated from the bottom which would favor dominance by green algae. After copper sulfate treatment in late July, phytoplankton density decreased dramatically and green algae resumed dominance at site 3.

Several chemical, physical, and phycological parameters were significantly correlated. Site specific differences were observed and attributed to the effects of aeration.

Aeration may be a good management option for Lake Charleston with higher carbon dioxide and lower pH levels at site 1 presumably preventing bluegreen algal dominance. Total algal biomass should decrease with continued and/or extended aeration as nutrient concentrations level off and algae become light limited. Copper sulfate, which is toxic to zooplankton, could then be eliminated as a management technique and increased zooplankton populations could possibly provide biological control for phytoplankton. Dissolved oxygen has not yet increased, possibly because of an increase in oxygen demanding substances and a decrease in photosynthesis, both of which are attributable to circulation. With constant aeration, dissolved oxygen should eventually increase and overall lake conditions should improve.

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#### INTRODUCTION

Most of the time, the loss of attractiveness and usefulness of a body of water is due to the process of eutrophication. Symptoms of eutrophication include bluegreen algal blooms, loss of volume, noxious odor, tainted fish flesh, degradation of domestic water supplies, dissolved oxygen depletion, fish kills, and nuisance animal populations (such as carp). Eutrophication is caused by excessive additions of plant nutrients, organic matter, and silt (Cooke et al. 1986). Management and protection of clean water systems and restoration of eutrophic water bodies are greatly needed due to increased recreational, industrial, and domestic use (Wetzel 1983). Lake management techniques include: i) physical and chemical control of nutrients using methods such as aeration, bank stabilization or presettling basins for contributing waters, ii) decreasing human contributions (runoff of lawn fertilizers and discharge of sewer wastes), and iii) controlling plant biomass by physical removal of aquatic macrophytes or use of algicides (Cooke et al. 1986).

Assessment of trophic state is essential for planning lake protection and/or restoration (Ravera 1983). Various indices have been developed by placing a numerical range on different trophic states based on specific parameters. These indices allow comparisons of a lake's present and past trophic conditions, and can help predict possible future states. Phosphorus is probably the most important nutrient associated with eutrophication while chlorophyll <u>a</u> is considered one of the more useful parameters for measuring manifestations of nutrient enrichment (Taylor et al. 1979). The major benefit of chlorophyll analysis is increased speed and ease of algal biomass determinations in comparison to cell counts and species identification.

Carlson's Trophic State Index (TSI), calculated from secchi depth, total phosphorus, and/or chlorophyll <u>a</u>, is useful for lakes with few macrophytes and little nonalgal turbidity (Cooke et al. 1986). This index assumes that turbidity is due mostly to algal cells and that total phosphorus is the limiting nutrient. Given that these assumptions are true, phosphorus concentrations should directly affect algal biomass (chlorophyll <u>a</u>), and algal biomass will correlate negatively with transparency (secchi depth). Comparisons of TSI's calculated from secchi depth, chlorophyll <u>a</u> and total phosphorus may be used to identify possible nutrient or light limitation and presence of non-algal turbidity (Carlson 1977).

Phytoplankton structure and biomass may be the most useful indicator of trophic state since algae depend upon the quality and quantity of nutrients available (Ravera 1983). Rott (1984) found that each trophic state has its own general seasonal changes in phytoplankton community structure which can be used for determining specific trends of development for a body of water. Several algal divisions have been shown to be collectively associated with eutrophication and used as indicators. Nygaard's Trophic State Indices (Nygaard 1949) classify a body of water as oligotrophic or eutrophic based on taxonomic ratios. In more recent studies, Mantere and Heinonen (1982) and Somashekar (1984) found that populations of

desmids (Zygnematales, Chlorophyceae) and Chlorococcales (Chlorophyceae) increased with eutrophication. Species distributions may also reflect water quality changes because some species are typically found in eutrophic lakes while other species apparently prefer oligotrophic conditions. Palmer (1969) assigned pollution index numbers to certain genera and species known to be sensitive to or tolerant of organic pollution. Summation of the index numbers for the species present in a body of water provides a guideline for assessing the extent of organic pollution.

Lake Charleston (Figure 1), located in Coles County of eastcentral Illinois, is a 1.1 billion gallon capacity reservoir with 346 acres of surface area which was constructed in 1982. Historical data on the formation of the lake was reviewed by Lookis (1983). In 1880, the Embarras River became the public drinking water supply for the City of Charleston. Construction of a dam in the early 1930's and enlargement of this impoundment in 1947 by the Riverview Dam ensured a constant water supply for the growing population. Flow of the Embarras River through Lake Charleston resulted in sedimentation problems and by 1974 the lake was losing 2.3 percent of its storage capacity annually (Yang 1974). In an attempt to alleviate the sedimentation problem, Lake Charleston was converted to a side channel pump storage reservoir in 1982 by constructing a dike to separate it from the flow of the Embarras River.

Previous studies of Lake Charleston (Morris et al. 1978, Lookis 1983, Hawes 1988) indicated increases in algal densities and eutrophication. Present management of the lake as a public water

Figure 1. Contour map of Lake Charleston Side Channel Reservoir showing the locations of sites 1 and 3. This map was produced from data collected in 1988 by Dr. Vincent Gutowski of the Geology/ Geography Department, and Mr. Mark Christ and Mr. Robert Young of the Environmental Biology program at Eastern Illinois University.



supply involves treatments which include aeration near the raw water intake to reduce flavor and odor, and up to three additions per year of copper sulfate (at a rate of 2000 lb. per treatment) as a phycological control. Citric acid is added as a chelating agent at the rate of 1000 lb. per application of copper sulfate. The purposes of this study were to: i) assess water quality changes in Lake Charleston by comparing present algal abundance, structure and diversity data to past studies, ii) identify correlations between algal community and various chemical and physical parameters and, iii) assess effects of management practices on phytoplankton and trophic state.

#### METHODS

Lake sites (Figure 1) were sampled initially on 5 May 1989 and on a weekly basis with few exceptions through 24 October 1989. Grab samples were collected from the upper meter of water in one liter acid rinsed plastic screw cap bottles. Secchi depth, temperature, dissolved oxygen, and pH were measured on site. A 100 mL portion of each sample was preserved for phycological examination by the addition of 3 ml of Lugol's solution, with the remainder being used for chemical analysis.

All of the chemical tests except for phosphorus were performed within six hours after samples were collected. Portions of the samples were frozen for 1-3 days for determinations of total phosphorus. Standard methods (APHA 1985) were used for all physical, chemical, and biological analyses (Table 1). Quality control included testing of known samples from the USEPA for each parameter except phytoplankton, and all results were within the 95% confidence intervals reported. Statistical analyses were performed using the Statpak version 4.1 (Northwest Analytical). Phytoplankton samples were concentrated by filtration, and enumeration followed the methods of McNabb (1960). Identification was accomplished using a phase contrast microscope with a total magnification of 1000X. Algae were identified at least to genus, and to species when possible using the keys of Smith (1950), Taft and Taft (1971), and Prescott (1978). Species richness was defined as the number of algal taxa present in a

Table 1. APHA methods (1985) utilized for chemical, physical, and bioloical analyses by the author (XS) or the Charleston Water Treatment Plant (CWTP).

Paraseter 	Reported as	Standard method	Section number	Analyzer
Chlorophyll <u>a</u>	ug/L	Spectrophotometric	10026 I	CWTP
Secchi depth	1			CWTP
pH		рЖ	423	CXIP
Total alkalinity	∎g/L CaCO₃	Alkalinity	403	CWTP
Hardness	ng/L CaCos	EDTA titrisetric	3148	CWTP
Turbidity	NTU	Nephelometric	214A	CWTP
Teaperature	٥C	Temperature	212	CWTP
Dissolved orygen	ag/L	Membrane electrode	421F	CWTP
Total solids	∎g/L	Dried at 103-105 °C	209A	KS
Suspended solids	eg/L	Dried at 103-105 °C	2090	KS
Total phosphorus	ag/L	Persulfate digestion	424C III	KS
•••	•	Ascorbic acid colorimetry	424F	KS

\_\_\_\_\_

sample. Phytoplankton diversity was calculated using the Shannon-Weaver Index (Shannon and Weaver 1963):

H' =  $-\sup p_1 \log_{10} p_1$ where  $p_1$  = number of individuals of species i divided by the total number of individuals.

Evenness (J') was calculated as a ratio of observed diversity to maximum diversity for a given number of taxa (Pielou 1969), using the formula:

## J' = H'/H'max

where H'max = log s

s = number of taxa present in a given sample.

Carlson's Trophic State Indices were calculated from data on total phosphorus, chlorophyll  $\underline{a}$ , and secchi depth (Carlson 1977).

## Lake Trophic State

Carlson's (1977) Trophic State Indices (TSI) were calculated from data on secchi depth, chlorophyll <u>a</u>, and total phosphorus (Appendix A, Appendix B). TSI values (Figure 2) ranged from 65-85 indicating that Lake Charleston is hypereutrophic. At both sites, trophic states calculated from data on total phosphorus and secchi depth were comparable. TSI values at site 1 based on chlorophyll <u>a</u> were lower than those calculated from the other two parameters from early June until the time of the bloom in mid-July, and again shortly after the bloom until mid-September. At site 3, trophic state as determined by chlorophyll <u>a</u> was lower than trophic states based on total phosphorus and secchi depth only from early June until the onset of the algal bloom.

Carlson's TSI assumes that phytoplankton growth is limited by available phosphorus, and that secchi depth is determined primarily by algal density. Given that these assumptions are true, similar TSI values should be calculated whether based on chlorophyll <u>a</u>, total phosphorus, or secchi depth (Carlson 1977). In Lake Charleston, (Figure 2) algal standing crop at site 1 was probably not limited by available phosphorus from June to late July, but may have been limited by phosphorus during the bloom in late July and from late September to the end of October. At site 3, phosphorus probably limited algal standing crop at all times except during June and July. Through August and early September, the reduced standing crop at both

Figure 2. A) Carlson's Trophic State Index as determined from secchi depth (m), chlorophyll <u>a</u> (ug/L), and total phosphorus (mg/L) at site 1. B) Carlson's Trophic State Index as determined from secchi depth (m), chlorophyll <u>a</u> (ug/L), and total phosphorus (mg/L) at site 3.



sites was probably caused by the addition of copper sulfate. Abundance of phosphorus at site 1 is most likely attributable to increased internal phosphorus loading resulting from circulation of water from the hypolimnion.

## Phytoplankton density, species diversity, and community dominance

Lake Charleston was classified as eutrophic in 1973 and supported 702-8,980 algal units  $mL^{-1}$  from May through October (Morris et al. 1978). Following conversion to a side channel pump storage reservoir in 1982, algal density ranged from 10-20,000 units  $mL^{-1}$ during the summer months, but no bluegreen algal blooms were observed (Lookis 1983). By 1987, Lake Charleston was classified as hypereutrophic by the U.S. EPA Volunteer Lake Monitoring Program with nutrients and suspended solids the major causes of impairment (Hawes et al. 1988). Phytoplankton density during 1989 at site 3 normally ranged from 55,022 to 140,994 units  $mL^{-1}$  with numbers reaching as high as 312,939 on July 26 (Figure 3). At site 1, algal density ranged from 61,126 to 174,528 units  $mL^{-1}$  with the highest numbers being recorded in late August (Figure 4).

In 1972, twenty-four algal taxa were identified from Lake Charleston and algal diversity ranged from 0.608 to 0.716 (Morris et al. 1978). Fifty-seven taxa were identified from the lake during 1989 (Appendix C) and increased diversity, ranging from 0.695 to 1.077, was observed. Algal diversity at site 1 was typically lower than diversity at site 3 except during the bloom (Figure 5). Fluctuations in diversity generally followed patterns of species Figure 3. Phytoplankton density and community structure fluctuations with time at site 1.



days after initial sample date

Figure 4. Phytoplankton density and community structure fluctuations with time at site 3.



days after initial sample date

Figure 5. Algal diversity differences between sites 1 and 3.



diversity

richness (Figure 6A). Bluegreen algae became dominant during the bloom at site 3 (Figure 7A), thereby producing a decline in both species richness and evenness (Figures 6A, 6B). Higher species richness and evenness values which were observed at site 1 (Figures 6A, 6B) resulted from the codominance of bluegreen and green algae (Figure 7B).

Aeration at site 1 is presumed to be responsible for differences in the patterns of algal diversity and community dominance observed at sites 1 and 3. The inability of the bluegreen algae to become dominant at site 1 may be attributable to increased circulation at that site brought about by the aerator. Increased circulation can result in elevated carbon dioxide levels and decreased pH in the euphotic zone by verticle transport of bottom water which has a high carbon dioxide content due to bacterial respiration and lack of photosynthetic activity. Bluegreen algal dominated cultures shift to ones dominated by green algae in response to decreased pH and associated increases in free carbon dioxide concentrations (Shapiro 1984). This phenomenon is due to the possible lysing of the bluegreen algae by viruses favored at low pH and the lack of the advantage bluegreen algae have over green algae in their capacity to absorb carbon dioxide when present at low concentrations (Shapiro 1982).

#### Chemical, Physical, and Phycological Correlations

Correlation coefficients between selected physical, chemical, and phycological data are presented in Table 2. Correlation

Figure 6. A) Species richness fluctuations with time at sites 1 and 3. B) Evenness fluctuations with time at sites 1 and 3.



Figure 7. A) Percentage composition of algal groups at site 3. B) Percentage composition of algal groups at site 1.



rsi rss r₅∃X SECCHI DEPTH vs pH 0.70 ----------TURBIDITY -0.73 -0.65 -0.81 TSS -0.56 -0.61 -0.63 TP04 -0.72 -0.47 -0.54 TOTALG -0.54 -0.46 \_\_\_\_ BLGRNS -0.43 \_\_\_\_ vs TURBIDITY -0.76 pН \_\_\_\_ \_\_\_\_ TSS -0.62 -----\_\_\_\_ ------TP04 -0.78 \_\_\_\_ TOTALG -0.71 0.52 \_\_\_\_ TOTGRNS -0.51 \_\_\_\_ \_\_\_\_ 0.56 BLGRNS -0.41 \_\_\_\_ TOTALK vs CHL-a -0.56 -0.66 -0.47 -0.74 BLGRNS -0.70 -0.77 GRNS -----------0.52 vs TOTPO4 \_\_\_\_ HARDNESS -0.60 CHL-a -0.66 -0.60 -0.55 -0.68 \_\_\_\_ TOTALG ---------------0.49 GRNS -0.57 -0.44 -0.49 BLGRNS DIATOMS -0.48 \_\_\_\_ \_\_\_\_ TURBIDITY vs TSS 0.88 0.47 0.50 TP04 0.67 -----\_\_\_\_ ------TOTALG 0.61 \_\_\_\_ GRNS 0.69 \_\_\_\_ \_\_\_\_ -----\_\_\_\_ DIATOMS 0.47 TS vs TPO4 0.44 -----0.47 \_\_\_\_ TOTALG \_\_\_\_ 0.71 GRNS \_\_\_\_ 0.60 0.75 BLGRNS 0.42 \_\_\_\_\_ \_\_\_\_ TSS vs TPO4 0.69 0.70 0.74 \_\_\_\_ TOTALG 0.51 0.62 0.72 0.53 0.56 GRNS 

Table 2. Significant correlations (p < 0.05) between selected physical, chemical, and biological parameters at site 1 ( $r_{\pm 1}$ ), and at site 3 with ( $r_{\pm 3}$ ) and without ( $r_{\pm 3}$ \*) an outlier.

Table 2. (cont.)

TP04		VS	CHL-a	0.48	0.66	0.58
			TOTALG	0.78	0.57	0.61
			GRNS	0.51		
			BLGRNS	0.61	0.53	0.51
			OTHERS	0.46	0.56	0.44
CHL-a		VS	TOTALG	0.71	0.66	
			BLGRNS	0.65	0.74	0.59
τοται σ		VS	GRNS	0.67	0.58	0.56
		. 2	BLGRNS	0.77	0.95	0.60
			DIATOMS	0-43		
				0010		
TOTALK	=	Total	alkalinity			
TS	=	Total	solids			
TSS	=	Total	suspended solids			
TP04	=	Total	phosphorus			
CHL-a	=	Chloro	ophyll a			
TOTALG	=	Total	algae			
GRNS	=	Total	areen			
BLGRNS	=	Total	blue-oreen aloae			
DIATOMS	=	Total	diatoms			
OTHERS	=	Total	others			

coefficients of pH versus total algae and total bluegreens were negative at site 1 ( $r_{*1} = -0.71$ ,  $r_{*1} = -0.41$ ) but positive at site 3 ( $r_{*3} = 0.52$ ,  $r_{*3} = 0.56$ ). Scattergrams of pH versus total bluegreens and total greens at site 1 (Figure 8) and site 3 (Figure 9) suggest that this magnitude of difference is due to one extreme data point at site 3. When this outlier is omitted (Figure 10), the correlations are not significant for total algae ( $r_{*3}$ \* = -0.06) or bluegreens ( $r_{*3}$ \* = 0.06). The marked increase in pH observed at site 3 during the bluegreen bloom is to be expected if carbon dioxide is being taken out of solution by the algae.

The strong negative relationship between pH and algae at site 1 may exist because of the positive correlations of total phosphorus with total algae ( $r_{s1} = 0.78$ ), green algae ( $r_{s1} = 0.51$ ), bluegreen algae  $(r_{\pm 1} = 0.61)$ , and other algae  $(r_{\pm 1} = 0.46)$ . In addition to being negatively correlated with algal parameters, pH was also negatively correlated with total phosphorus ( $r_{e1} = -0.78$ ) at site 1. Circulation of bottom waters theoretically could decrease pH and increase phosphorus loading from sediments as stated in previous sections. Although normally these trends would be expected to level off with constant circulation, the aeration system was not operating on a constant basis due to mechanical problems. Intermittent operation of the aeration system resulted in periodically elevated total phosphorus concentrations which increased algal growth potential at the same time pH levels were declining. Thus, there was probably no cause and effect relationship between pH and the algal community.

Figure 8. A) Scatter diagram of pH versus bluegreen algal units per milliliter at site 1 ( $r_{m1} = -0.41$ , p < 0.05). B) Scatter diagram of pH versus total algal units per milliliter at site 1 ( $r_{m1} = -0.71$ , p < 0.05).





Figure 9. A) Scatter diagram of pH versus bluegreen algal units per milliliter at site 3 ( $r_{*3}$  = 0.56, p < 0.05). B) Scatter diagram of pH versus total algal units per milliliter at site 3 ( $r_{*3}$  = 0.52, p < 0.05).

A 200000 ster. bluegreen algal units / mL 20000 20000 a the 100 - Q.P 樂 0 8.00 8.50 8.75 9.00 9.25 8.25 pН

B 400000 total algal units / mL *ile* 300000 200000 - 北方 激 袋 100000 な湯 Cardon Cardon (A) 学会 0 8.00 8.25 9.25 8.75 9.00 8.50 рΗ

Figure 10. A) Scatter diagram of pH versus bluegreen algal units per milliliter at site 3 without the outlier. B) Scatter diagram of pH versus total algal units per milliliter at site 3 without the outlier.





Secchi depth was correlated negatively with turbidity ( $r_{*1} = -0.73$ ,  $r_{*3}* = -0.81$ ), total suspended solids ( $r_{*1} = -0.56$ ,  $r_{*3}* = -0.63$ ), and total algae ( $r_{*1} = -0.54$ ). A similar correlation would be expected between secchi depth and total algae at site 3, but this was not significant ( $r_{*3}* = -0.37$ ). Total suspended solids including algal cells and non-organic particulate matter directly affect the turbidity of water, and as turbidity increases the depth of light penetration (secchi depth) decreases. The fact that total phosphorus was highly correlated with total algae ( $r_{*1} = 0.78$ ,  $r_{*3}* = 0.61$ ) and chlorophyll <u>a</u> ( $r_{*1} = 0.48$ ,  $r_{*3}* = 0.58$ ) may explain why total phosphorus and secchi depth were inversely related ( $r_{*1} = -0.72$ ,  $r_{*3}* = -0.47$ ).

When comparing the percentage composition of major algal groups, a high correlation of bluegreen algae  $(r_{\bullet 1} = 0.77, r_{\bullet 3}* = 0.60)$ and green algae  $(r_{\bullet 1} = 0.67, r_{\bullet 3}* = 0.56)$  with total algae is anticipated. Chlorophyll <u>a</u> was highly correlated with bluegreen algae  $(r_{\bullet 1} = 0.65, r_{\bullet 3}* = 0.59)$  and with total algae at site 1  $(r_{\bullet 1} = 0.71)$ . Chlorophyll <u>a</u> is the major photosynthetic pigment of algae and is estimated to account for 0.5-2.0 percent of a cell's dry weight (Reynolds 1984). Because of this relationship, chlorophyll <u>a</u> is often used to estimate algal density instead of direct cell counts and therefore should be highly correlated with algal parameters.

In Lake Charleston, the negative correlations of total alkalinity with chlorophyll <u>a</u> ( $r_{m1} = -0.56$ ,  $r_{m3}$  = -0.47) and bluegreen algae ( $r_{m1} = -0.70$ ,  $r_{m3}$  = -0.74) may be attributable to increased phytoplankton densities accompanied by increased

photosynthetic activity. Total alkalinity refers to bicarbonates, carbonates, and hydroxides present in water which, when in equilibrium as shown below, constitute the major buffering mechanism in fresh waters (Wetzel 1983).

 $H_2CO_3$  <----->  $HCO_3^-$  <---->  $CO_3^{-2}$ Photosynthetic consumption of inorganic carbon (as carbon dioxide or as bicarbonate ions) could shift the above equilibrium to the left thereby decreasing alkalinity. Similarly negative correlations of blue-green algae and chlorophyll <u>a</u> with hardness probably existed because hardness is a measure of calcium and magnesium salts which are largely combined with carbonates and bicarbonates. At site 3 hardness was significantly correlated with total alkalinity ( $r_{*3}$  = 0.54) while at site 1 the correlation was fairly high ( $r_{*1}$  = 0.49) but not significant.

## CONCLUSIONS

Lake Charleston is a hypereutrophic reservoir which continues to increase its capacity to support large populations of phytoplankton with 55,022-312,939 algal units  $mL^{-1}$ . From Carlson's Trophic State Index, it appears that phosphorus is the limiting nutrient at unaerated site 3. Algal biomass is probably limited mostly by light at site 1 where nutrients may be supplied by the circulation of water from the hypolimnion and algal cells may be dispersed throughout the water column.

Application of copper sulfate as an algicide was effective at reducing algal numbers, but treatment is costly and the benefits are temporary. Algal biomass increased again after application especially at site 1 but was probably controlled by cooler temperatures in September. It has been suggested that rebound of algal populations after copper sulfate treatment, as seen in this study, may be due to toxic effects of copper on zooplankton (Cooke et al. 1986). One way in which aeration can decrease phytoplankton densities depends on higher zooplankton grazing rates attainable when algal community dominance shifts from bluegreen algae to green algae thus, with simultaneous use of copper sulfate and aeration as lake management techniques, aeration may not decrease phytoplankton

Between site comparisons can provide insight into the usefulness of aeration in this lake as a management scheme. Figure 11 shows the ideal effects of aeration. Although aeration did not decrease

Figure 11. Possible beneficial effects of aeration (modified from Shapiro, 1979).



phytoplankton biomass at site 1, it may have served to increase carbon dioxide concentration in the euphotic zone which could allow green algae to be co-dominant with bluegreen algae. Algal diversity was lower at the aerated site except during the bloom.

While circulation has served to improve dissolved oxygen concentrations in most studies (Cooke et al. 1986), Site 1 had a lower dissolved oxygen concentration than unaerated site 3 (Figure 12). Possible reasons for this are increases in oxygen demanding substances and a decrease in photosynthesis in the epilimnion with both conditions conceivably resulting from circulation. Dissolved oxygen concentration should increase at site 1 with continued aeration (Fast et al. 1975, Garrell et al. 1977, LaBaugh 1980).

Except during the bloom in July and during early October, secchi depth was lower at site 1 as expected (Figure 13). The decrease in secchi depth could be a result of increased algal cells below the surface and/or increased sediments in the water column. There were significant correlations between turbidity and total suspended solids at both sites, but the algae were also significantly correlated with turbidity at site 1. Decreased secchi depth values signify a decrease in light penetration. As light intensities decrease and as mixing depth increases, net photosynthesis should approach zero and in some cases might even be negative due to light limitation. As long as phytoplankton are circulated out of the euphotic zone, light limitation should eventually cause a decrease in biomass.

Site 1 had pH values lower than site 3 as expected with one exception (Figure 14). This probably resulted from circulation of

Figure 12. Dissolved oxygen concentration (mg/L) differences between sites 1 and 3.



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Figure 13. Secchi depth (m) differences between sites 1 and 3.



(m) digade idoos

Figure 14. Differences in pH between sites 1 and 3.



hypolimnetic water with low pH and high carbon dioxide content to the surface waters. These two factors may have combined to prevent bluegreen algae from becoming dominant at site 1. Since circulated water contained higher concentrations of suspended solids and total phosphorus, it is logical that pH at site 1 also correlated with turbidity, total suspended solids, secchi depth, total algae and bluegreen algae.

Total phosphorus is also apparently supplied to the photic zone via circulation (Figure 15). As long as nutrients are not limiting production, algal biomass should eventually decrease due to light limitation (Cooke et al. 1986). If nutrients are limiting, algal densities could potentially increase and result in lower transparencies and carbon dioxide levels as well as higher pH values. These in turn would support dominance of a community by 'nuisance' bluegreen algae.

With these results, it appears that aeration may be a good management option for Lake Charleston although further monitoring is essential as the system becomes fully operational. If total biomass is not decreased by light limitation in the future, the number of aeration units could be increased in an effort to prevent blue green algal blooms throughout the entire lake. This then could possibly eliminate the need for copper sulfate treatments and increase zooplankton populations for biological control of phytoplankton densities.

Eventually controls will have to be directed to decrease nutrient loading. Internal loading may be decreased through nutrient

Figure 15. Total phosphorus (mg/L) differences between sites 1 and 3.





oxidation by the aeration system. Other options include phosphorus inactivation by the addition of aluminum salts and sediment removal if cost and disposal are not problems. The most important source of external loading for Lake Charleston is probably erosion, but bankline stabilization measures are expensive.

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CHI DROPHULL					33.80	32.70	55.40	149.50	ហ្វេ។ ហេ	72.75	50.70	72.10	36.10	83.00	55.70	70.00	55.40	48.10		51.60	66.75	40.75	58.70	150.20	152.85	92,75	55.25	67.30	73.00	77.50	60.10	78.20	60.10	49.00
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APPENIDIX A: BIOLOGICHL PARAHETERS IN LAKE CHARLESTON

RPPENDIX 8: CHEMICAL AND PHYSICAL PARAHETERS IN LAKE CHARLESTON

TOTAL PHOSPHORUS	0.106	0.108	0.128	0.200	0.164	0.148	0.214	0.186	0.179	0.164	0.155	0.222	0.140	0.110	0.126	0.134	0.084	0.152	0.039	0.108	0.122	0.172	0.128	0.148	0.171	0.160	0.154	0.122	0.110	0.118	0.094	0.126	0.128	0.126	0.084	0.130	0.027
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## APPENDIX C. ALGAE IDENTIFIED IN LAKE CHARLESTON WATER SAMPLES.

GREEN ALGAE Actinastrum sp. Ankistrodesmus sp. Aphanothece sp. Chlamydomonas sp. Chlorella sp. *Chodatella quadriseta* Closteridium sp. Coelastrum sp. Crucigenia alternans Crucigenia apiculata Crucigenia fenestrata Crucigenia quadrata Crucigenia rectangularis Crucigenia tetrapedia Dictyosphaerium sp. Eudorina sp. Golenkinia sp. Gonium sociale Kirchneriella lunaris Oocystis sp. Pandorina sp. Pedíastrum duplex Pediastrum tetras Polyedriopsis sp. Scenedesmus acuminatus Scenedesmus bijuga Scenedesmus dimorphis Scenedesmus quadricauda Selenastrum sp. Tetrastrum elegans Tetastrum staurogeniform Tetraedron sp.

DIATOMS Cyclotella meneghiniana Diatoma sp. Fragilaria sp. Melosira distans Melosira granulata Navicula sp. Nitzchia acicularis Nitzchia holsatica Pinnularia sp. Synedra tenera Tabellaria sp.

<u>BLUE GREEN ALGAE</u> Anabaena sp. Aphanizomenon flos-aquae Merismopedia sp. Microcystis sp. Oscillatoria sp. Spirulina sp.

<u>OTHER ALGAE</u> Ceratium sp. Closterium sp. Cosmarium sp. Euglena sp. Peridinium sp. Phacus sp. Staurastrum sp. Trachelomonas hispida