

Mirror Lake

2018 Water Quality Report



PAUL SMITH'S COLLEGE
Adirondack Watershed Institute



Acknowledgments

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Photos by Brendan Wiltse.



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Executive Summary

This is the third annual report on the water quality of Mirror Lake issued by the Ausable River Association (AsRA) and Paul Smith's College Adirondack Watershed Institute (AWI). Our ongoing work to study Mirror Lake, and threats to its water quality, continually yield new insights about the lake. Our goal is to provide stakeholders with the data and science necessary to make informed and effective decisions about how best to protect Mirror Lake. Road salt remains the top threat to the lake and, despite some steps toward salt reduction, there has not been a documented improvement in the water quality of Mirror Lake. As outlined in the 2017 report, collaboration between the state, town, village, local businesses, and residents is needed to achieve reductions in salt loading to protect Mirror Lake. Report highlights include:

1. Measures of the lake's trophic status (total phosphorus, nitrate, chlorophyll-a, transparency, and trophic state index) continue to show no significant long-term trends. While many lakes across the state and country are facing threats related to eutrophication, this is not an immediate concern for Mirror Lake at this time. The lake is oligotrophic (low nutrients) and has remained that way over the period of record. However, road salt pollution does put the lake at higher risk of algal blooms both through foodweb interactions and elevated internal phosphorus loading.
2. There is a significant long-term increase in calcium, this may be the product of soil cation exchange as a result of road salt and/or the maintenance of a crushed limestone beach on a portion of the lake. Increased calcium poses no specific threat to the water quality of the lake, other than an increased likelihood that zebra mussels could become established in the lake if they were introduced.
3. An invasive gastropod, the banded mysterysnail, was confirmed in the lake and a limited survey documented high densities in the littoral area along the southwestern shore of the lake.
4. Significant long-term upward trends in conductivity, sodium, and chloride remain. Elevated bottom water chloride concentrations were documented and evidence exists that this is impeding the natural turnover of the lake in the spring. The disruption of this important physical process has the potential for the greatest negative effect on aquatic life.
5. A prolonged period of bottom water anoxia was documented throughout 2018. This condition is likely natural for Mirror Lake, but is significantly worsened by the lack of spring turnover. If fall turnover were to also not occur, a significant die off of many aquatic organisms as a result of low dissolved oxygen would be likely. There is additional cause for concern related to climate change extending the length of the summer stratified period and delaying the replenishing of oxygen that occurs during fall turnover.



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Introduction

Mirror Lake is an iconic Adirondack waterbody located adjacent to downtown Lake Placid. The lake is a focal point for activities in the Village of Lake Placid. In the summer months, residents and visitors ply the waters in canoes, kayaks, and stand up paddle boards or swim at the public beach. The lake is home to the swim portion of the IRONMAN triathlon held each year in Lake Placid. In the winter months, there is a flurry of activity including ice skating, hockey tournaments, tobogganing, and dog sled rides. Throughout the year, Mirror Lake serves as a valuable resource to the Village of Lake Placid and the whole community.

Mirror Lake is in western Essex County in the Town of North Elba and Village of Lake Placid. The lake has a surface area of 50 ha (124 acres) and watershed area of 301 ha (741 acres). The watershed is mostly covered by several forest types (Figure 1; Table 1). However, 27% of the total watershed area is developed. The percentage of developed area rises to 34% if we only consider land area (Table 1). Much of the developed area is covered in impervious surfaces (Figure 2). Mirror Lake has over twice the percentage of developed land compared to any other lake in the Adirondack Lake Assessment Program (ALAP; Laxson et al. 2016). As a more direct comparison, 1% of Lake Placid's watershed is developed, and 8% of the Lake George's watershed is developed (Laxson et al. 2015; The Lake George Association 2016). When viewed in the context of other Adirondack lakes, Mirror Lake is one of the most developed lakes in the Adirondack Park.

The headwaters of the watershed include Echo Lake which drains into the north bay of Mirror Lake. This upstream portion of the watershed is mostly forested. Downstream, in the areas surrounding Mirror Lake, much of the land is developed (Figure 1). The lake drains to the south, into the Chubb River which flows into the West Branch of the Ausable River. Mirror Lake's outlet stream has been manipulated to run underground for much of its length and is connected to a network of storm drains. The outlet comes above ground just before it enters the Chubb River at Mill Pond.

The entire shoreline of the lake is developed and encompassed by roads. 1.1 km (0.68 mi) of state roadway and 7.6 km (4.72 mi) of local roadway drain into Mirror Lake. For the most part, the roads and impervious surfaces around the lake flow directly into the lake through more than 20 stormwater outfalls. The Village of Lake Placid, with the encouragement of the Mirror Lake Watershed Association, has been proactive in installing hydrodynamic separator units for stormwater from the streets around Mirror Lake. The Village retrofitted several stormwater outfalls along Main Street to flow through these units. The Village has also sought funding to consolidate the stormwater collection along Main Street



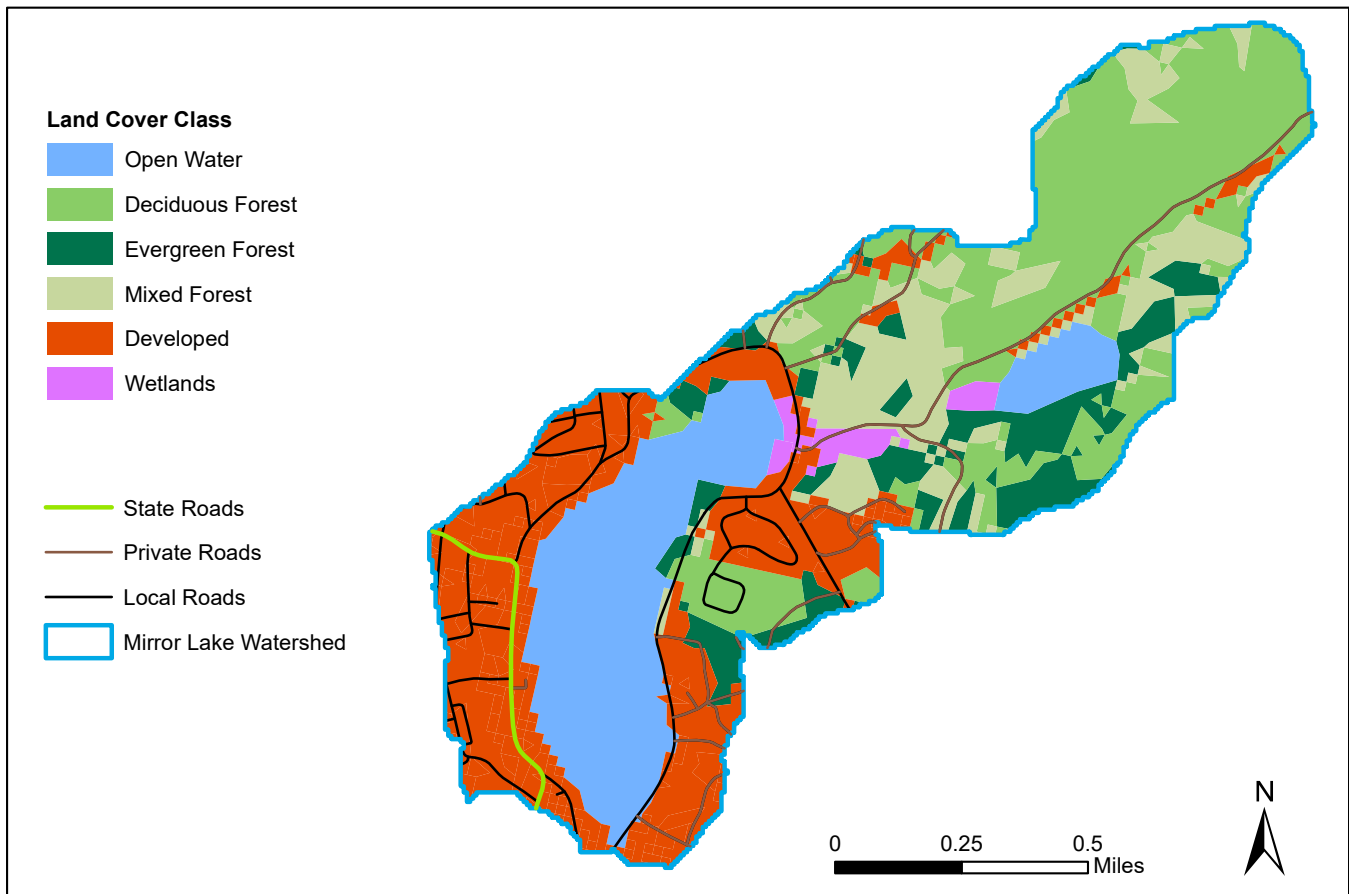


Figure 1. Distribution of land cover class and road types within the Mirror Lake watershed.

and divert it away from the lake. A project for stormwater consolidation along the southeast side of the lake was completed in July 2017. That stormwater is now directed away from Mirror Lake and enters the Chubb River just below the municipal wastewater treatment plant.

The water quality and health of Mirror Lake has been a topic of interest to residents and scientists alike for many years (Table A1). The first known report on the water quality of Mirror Lake was published by Ray Oglesby (1971). The report was commissioned by the Lake Placid Shore Owners' Association as part of a study of Lake Placid. Its objectives were specific. "(1) To establish a baseline scientific description of Lake Placid and Mirror Lake by means of which future significant changes in water quality could be assessed through comparison with the present state. (2) To obtain evidence as what substance or substances are now critical to the growth of phytoplankton (free-floating algae) in the lake. In other words, what would increase the growth of algae if added to the water in increased amounts. (3) Based on the data available, to make recommendations for the protection and/or improvement of water quality in the two lakes." Oglesby conducted a previous study in March 1971, which we have not been able to obtain. The initial study was followed up by Oglesby in 1974 with a second report (Oglesby & Mills 1974). The objectives of this report were to "further establish baselines" and "determine what, if any, actions should be taken to safeguard or improve the water quality of the two lakes."

Following Oglesby's initial studies, there was a long period when no data was collected on the lake. A few visits to the lake were made by Don Charles in 1976 and 1978 as part of work he was doing with the Paleoecological Investigation into Recent Lake Acidification (PIRLA) project to study recent lake

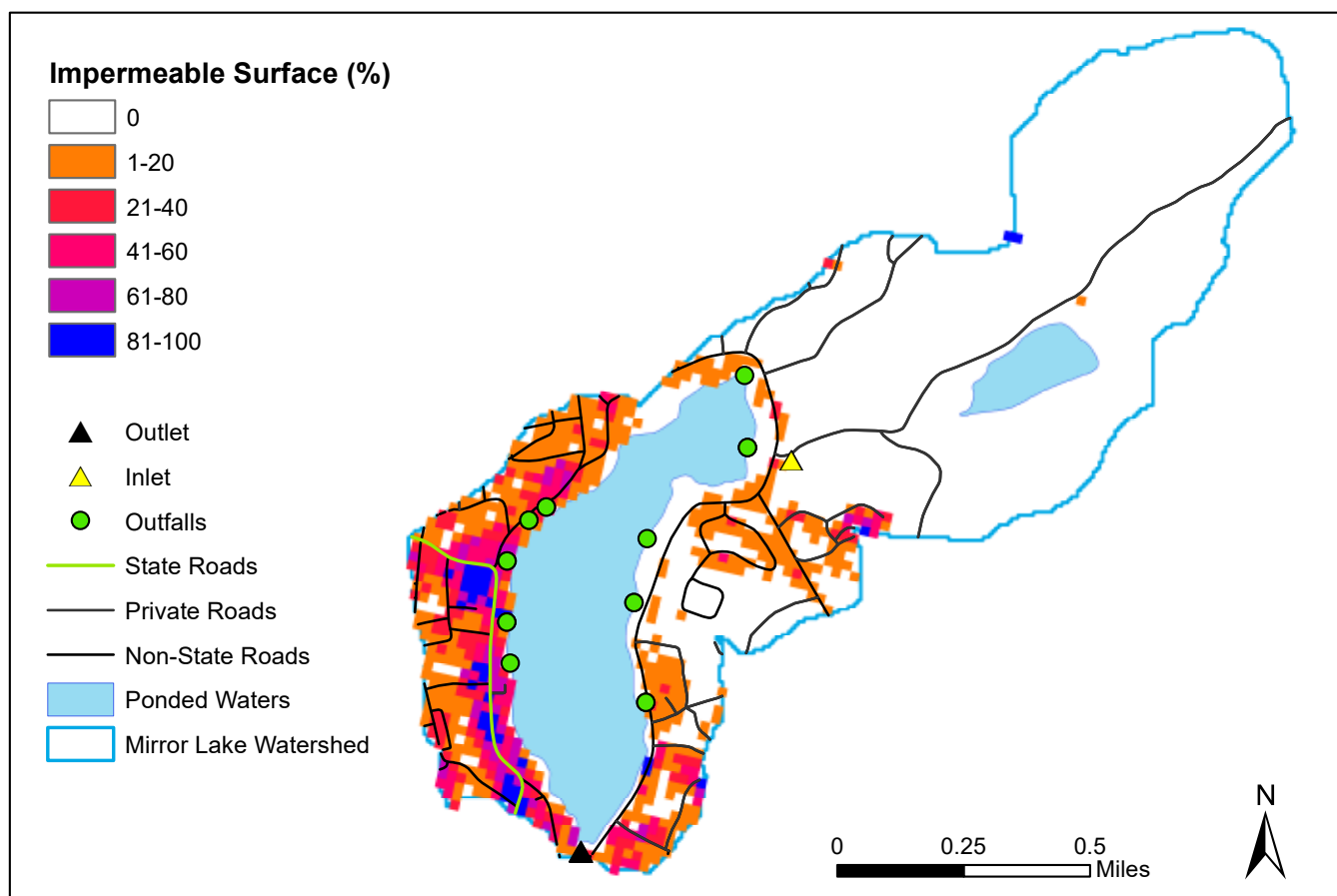


Figure 2. Distribution of impermeable surfaces and stormwater outfalls within the Mirror Lake watershed.

acidification (Whitehead et al. 1990). Paul Smith’s College students did a series of reports on the lake during the winters of 1996, 1998, and 2000 (Martin 1998; Muray et al. 2000; Schmall et al. 1996). In 2001, the lake was studied by Upstate Freshwater Institute as part of a study of Lake Placid funded by the Lake Placid Shoreowners Association (UFI 2002). In 1998, a volunteer started monitoring the lake through the Citizens Statewide Lake Assessment Program (CSLAP)(Kishbaugh 2016). That monitoring effort has continued through 2018 with the exceptions of 2002 and 2012. In 2014, the lake was enrolled in the Adirondack Lake Assessment Program (ALAP). The lake remained enrolled in this program in 2015 but the monitoring was taken over by the Ausable River Association, which added additional parameters to the standard ALAP sampling.

In 2016, the Ausable River Association (AsRA) and the Adirondack Watershed Institute (AWI) initiated a partnership to expand the monitoring of the lake. This effort was supported by the Mirror Lake Watershed Association, Village of Lake Placid, Town of North Elba, IRONMAN Foundation, and NYS Department of State. The goal of this partnership is to develop a more comprehensive understating of Mirror Lake’s water quality given that the lake is an iconic, valuable resource facing challenges from the ring of urban development surrounding it – Scientifically informed management is essential to the lakes continuing health.



Objectives

The objectives of the current monitoring program and this report are to: 1) establish a comprehensive picture of Mirror Lake that incorporates all known historical water quality data; 2) develop a better understanding of the impact of road salt, and of elevated sodium and chloride concentrations on the lake; 3) lay the ground work necessary to establish a scientifically rigorous monitoring program to provide baseline data about Mirror Lake; and, 4) collect the data necessary to inform stakeholders on best management practices to protect the lake.

Participants in Discovering the Ausable: An Aquatic Stewardship Program collecting water quality data on Mirror Lake.





Methods

2018 field data were collected from a canoe over the deepest location of the lake, bi-weekly during the open-water season and monthly when the lake was covered with ice of sufficient thickness for access by foot. During each sample visit a surface water sample, hypolimnetic sample, and profiles of temperature, dissolved oxygen, specific conductance, and pH were collected. The surface water samples were collected from a depth of 0 to 2 meters with an integrated tube sampler. The tube sampler was emptied into a field rinsed 1L sample bottle. A portion was poured off into an acid-washed and field rinsed sample bottle for laboratory analysis and 250ml was filtered through a 0.45 µm cellulose membrane filter. The filter was folded in half twice, wrapped in foil, and stored on ice for chlorophyll-*a* analysis. Hypolimnetic samples were collected using a 1.5L Kemmerer bottle from approximately 1 meter above the bottom. This sample was immediately transferred to an acid-washed and field rinsed sample bottle and stored on ice. All water samples and the chlorophyll-*a* sample were transported on ice until they could be frozen before being transported to the Adirondack Watershed Institute. Samples were analyzed for pH, conductivity, alkalinity, total phosphorus, nitrate, ammonium, total nitrogen, chlorophyll-*a*, chloride, sodium, and calcium at the Adirondack Watershed Institute Environmental Research Lab following the analytic methods described in Table A2. Transparency was measured during the ice-free period using a 20cm black and white Secchi disk from the shady side of the boat. Profiles of temperature, dissolved oxygen, specific conductance, and pH were collected at 1m intervals from the surface to 17m using a YSI Professional Plus hand held sonde.

Field and laboratory data have been combined from multiple sources for this report to provide a record of water quality from 1971 to 2018. Sampling frequency and methodology, as well as laboratory methodology, is slightly different between these sources. Data points in each figure have been categorized into those following the methodology outlined in this report (circles) and those that have not (triangles). Nevertheless, as an exploratory analysis, linear regressions were fit to the annual average data for each parameter and plotted if a significant trend was detected. This analysis should be approached cautiously due to the inconsistency in the data throughout the period of record.

Table 1. Summary of land area of different cover classes for the Mirror Lake watershed. Values are also represented as percentage of the total watershed area (301.23 ha) and percentages of the watershed land area (236.93 ha). Percentage of land area is useful when considering the amount of a particular land cover class, such as development, compared to the potential area that cover class could occupy.

Cover Type	Area (ha)	% Watershed Area	% Land Area
Evergreen	29.99	9.96	12.66
Deciduous	87.06	28.90	36.74
Mixed Forest	38.73	12.86	16.35
Wetlands	5.34	1.77	-
Surface Water	58.95	19.57	-
Developed	81.16	26.94	34.25
Agriculture	0.00	0.00	0.00
Commercial	0.00	0.00	0.00
Total	301.23	100.00	100.00



Findings

Total Phosphorus

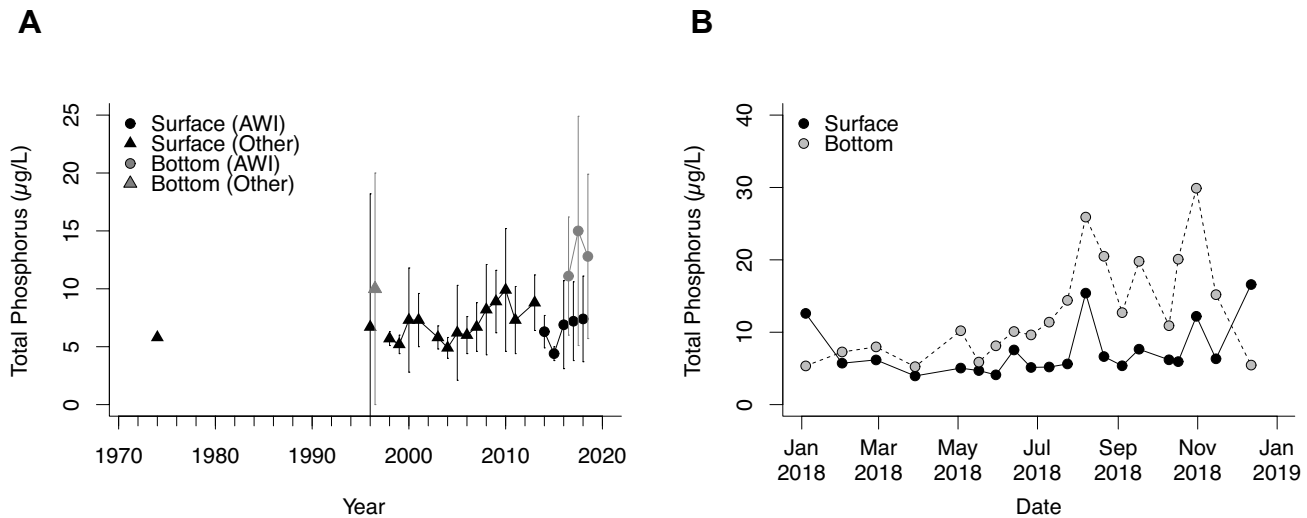


Figure 3. Annual average (a) and 2018 (b) total phosphorus. Black triangles represent data collected by other programs from the epilimnion, black circles represent 2m integrated samples collected by AsRA and AWI. The gray triangles and circles are from discrete samples collected 1m off the lake bottom. Vertical bars represent one standard deviation of the mean.

Phosphorus is relatively common in igneous rocks such as those found in the Adirondacks and is also abundant in sediments. The concentration of phosphorus in natural waters is low however, because of the low solubility of these inorganic forms (Wetzel 2001). Phosphorus is also a component of wastewater and is a primary source of phosphorus in many waters. Typical concentrations of phosphorus in surface water are a few micrograms per liter. Additions of phosphorus to the aquatic environment enhance algal growth and accelerate eutrophication that leads to depletion of dissolved oxygen (Schindler 1977; Wetzel 2001).

Phosphorus is also added to surface waters from non-point sources such as eroding soils, stormwater, runoff from fertilized fields, lawns, and gardens, and runoff from livestock areas or poorly managed manure pits. Poorly maintained or sited septic systems can also add phosphorus to surface waters. In addition, analyses of water chemistry in Adirondack upland streams shows that streams coming off old growth forest have higher phosphorus concentrations than those flowing off managed forests (Myers et. al, 2007).

Phosphorus plays an important role in biology and is an important nutrient in aquatic ecosystems. Phosphorus is often a limiting nutrient in lakes, meaning that it is a lack of phosphorus that limits aquatic primary production (Schindler 1977). Phosphorus normally enters a lake bound to soil and sediment through overland flow. In developed or urban areas, excess phosphorus can enter a lake due to application to the land as fertilizer or through poor wastewater management. This increase in phosphorus may lead to increased primary production, resulting in aesthetic changes to the lake. If the increase in primary production is large enough, there may be subsequent problems with oxygen depletion because of decomposition. The reduction in oxygen can lead to fish kills and other negative impacts (Carpenter et al. 1998).

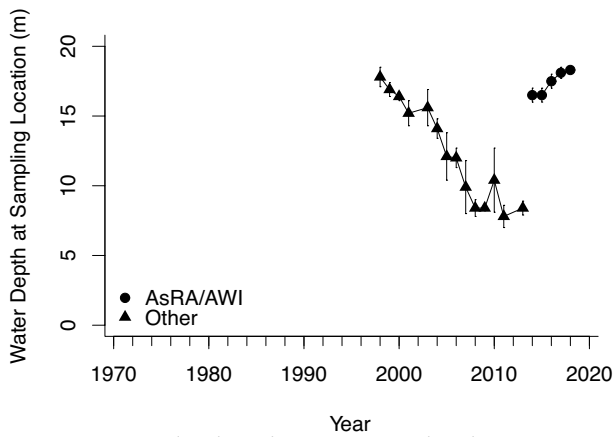


Figure 4. Water depth at the water sampling location. CSLAP samples are represented as closed triangles, ALAP data are closed circles.

internal phosphorus loading in the lake. As long as this phosphorus remains trapped in the cold, dark hypolimnion it will not result in increased primary production. However, if the lake were to partially mix during a period when hypolimnion phosphorus concentrations are high, this could trigger an algal bloom. The small surface area and orientation of the long axis of the lake perpendicular to the predominant wind direction, reduces the likelihood of mixing during the summer stratified period. If a strong southerly wind were to create a seiche in the lake it is possible that a portion of the phosphorus rich bottom water could be mixed to the surface and trigger an algal bloom.

Corey Laxson and Elizabeth Yerger from Paul Smith's College Adirondack Watershed Institute collecting water samples through the ice. Mirror Lake is one of only a handful of lakes in the state to be sampled year-round.

Interpreting long-term trends in water quality parameters for Mirror Lake is challenging due to inconsistency in sampling location in the CSLAP data set (Figure 4). A detailed discussion of this is presented in the 2016 Mirror Lake Water Quality Report (Wiltse et al. 2017). It is important to interpret changes in water quality from the period of roughly 2003 to 2014 with caution.

In 2018, total phosphorus concentrations at the surface were generally low and consistent with an oligotrophic lake. Hypolimnion total phosphorus concentrations increased through the summer stratified period. When phosphorus rich organic sediments are exposed to anoxic conditions for prolonged periods of time, phosphorus is released from sediments and moves back into the water column (Wetzel 2001). This results in





Nitrogen

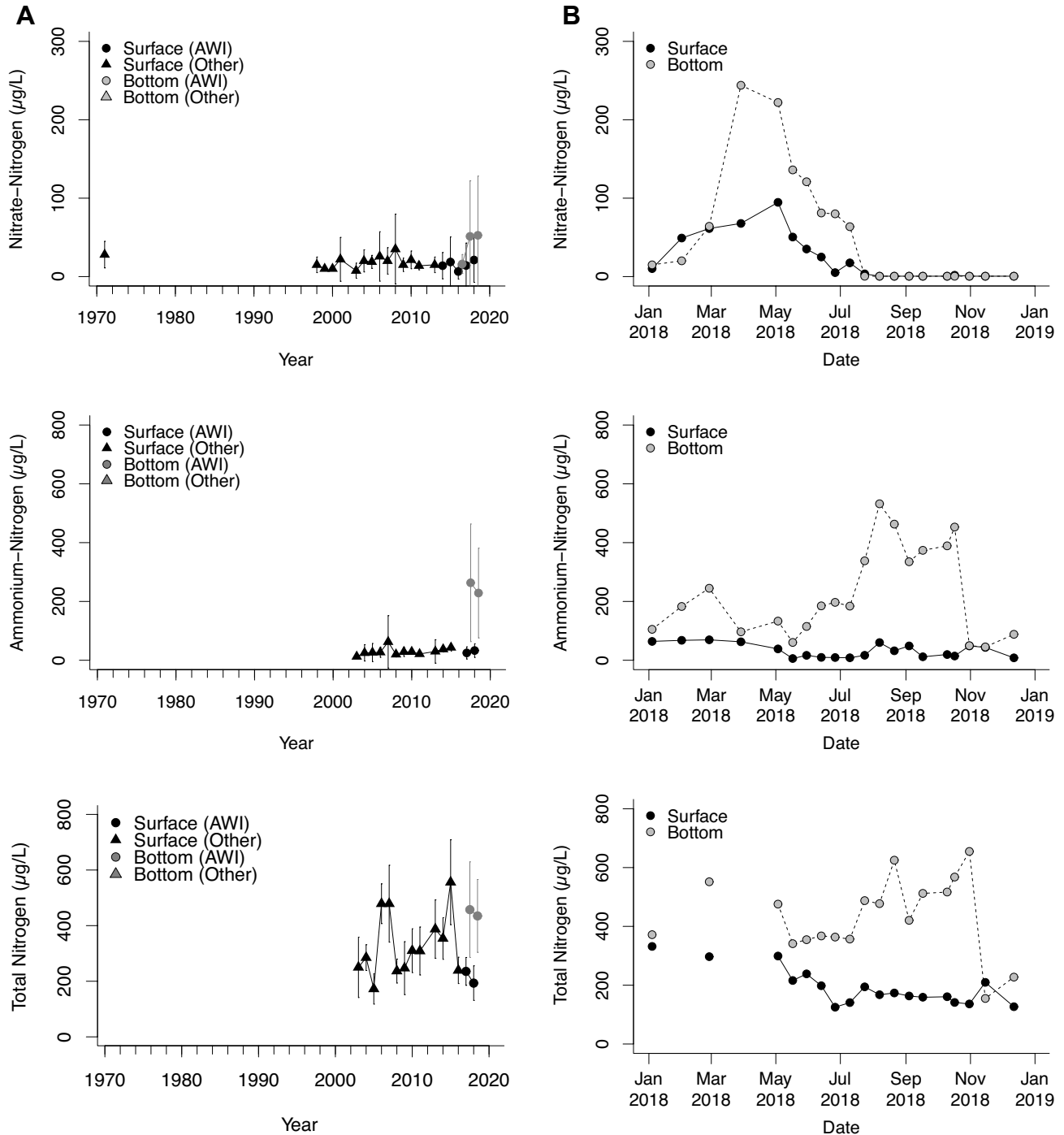


Figure 5. Annual average (a) and 2018 (b) nitrate, annual average (c) and 2018 (d) ammonium, and annual average (e) and 2018 (f) total nitrogen. Black triangles represent data collected by other programs from the epilimnion, black circles are 2m integrated samples collected by AsRA and AWI. The gray triangles and circles are from discrete samples collected 1m off the lake bottom. Vertical bars represent one standard deviation of the mean.



Nitrogen continued

Nitrogen is present in many forms in the atmosphere, hydrosphere, and biosphere, and is the most common gas in the earth's atmosphere. The behavior of nitrogen in surface waters is strongly influenced by its vital importance to plant and animal nutrition. Nitrogen occurs in water as nitrite (NO_2^-) or nitrate (NO_3^-) anions, ammonium (NH_4^+) cations, or organic nitrogen. Excessive, or high levels of nitrite are an indicator of organic waste or sewage. Nitrate or ammonium may also be from a pollutant source, but, generally, are introduced at a site far removed from the sample point. This is because nitrate is stable over a range of conditions but nitrite rapidly volatilizes in oxygenated water. Ammonium is an important nutrient for primary producers, but, at high concentrations, is a dangerous pollutant in lakes and rivers, because the bacterial conversion of NH_4 to NO_3 robs water of oxygen. Generally, nitrogen is not a limiting nutrient in aquatic ecosystems (Schindler 1977).

In 2017, ammonium and total nitrogen were added as analytes to provide a more complete understanding of nitrogen availability in the lake. There are no long-term trends in any forms of nitrogen in Mirror Lake (Figure 5a,c,e). Nitrate concentrations are low, indicating it is not likely the lake is receiving significant additional inputs of nitrogen from the watershed. Throughout the year, nitrate varies considerably due to rapid utilization by primary producers in the water column (Figure 5b). Concentrations of nitrate were higher in the hypolimnion than the epilimnion through the spring and early summer months. This is a common pattern for lakes in our area. The nitrification process carried out by chemoautotrophic bacteria convert ammonium to nitrate in the presence of oxygen. Production by photosynthetic organisms is substantially lower in the hypolimnion so the concentration of nitrate builds while there is oxygen in the hypolimnion. When the hypolimnion goes anoxic in the early- to mid-summer, the nitrification process works in reverse, resulting in a sharp decrease in nitrate in the hypolimnion that persists until the late fall when the water completely mixes, returning oxygen to the bottom of the lake.

Ammonium NH_4 is even more bioavailable to photosynthetic organisms than nitrate, and therefore remains low in the upper portion of the water column. In the bottom waters, ammonium is rapidly converted to nitrate in the presence of oxygen. Under anoxic conditions bacteria stop converting ammonium to nitrate, therefore concentrations in hypolimnion begin to build (Figure 5d). Sediment absorption of ammonium is also reduced under anoxic conditions, at which point a release of ammonium from the sediments can occur (Wetzel 2001). Additionally, ammonium is generated by the decomposition of organic matter and therefore adds to the accumulation of ammonium in the hypolimnion in the early-summer through fall. At periods of turnover, early-spring and late-fall, when the water column is well oxygenated, ammonium concentrations are uniform and low throughout the water column (Figure 5d). Total nitrogen largely reflects the combined trends in nitrate and ammonium, but with absolute numbers higher due to the inclusion of other forms of nitrogen (Figure 5e,f).



Nitrogen to Phosphorus Ratio

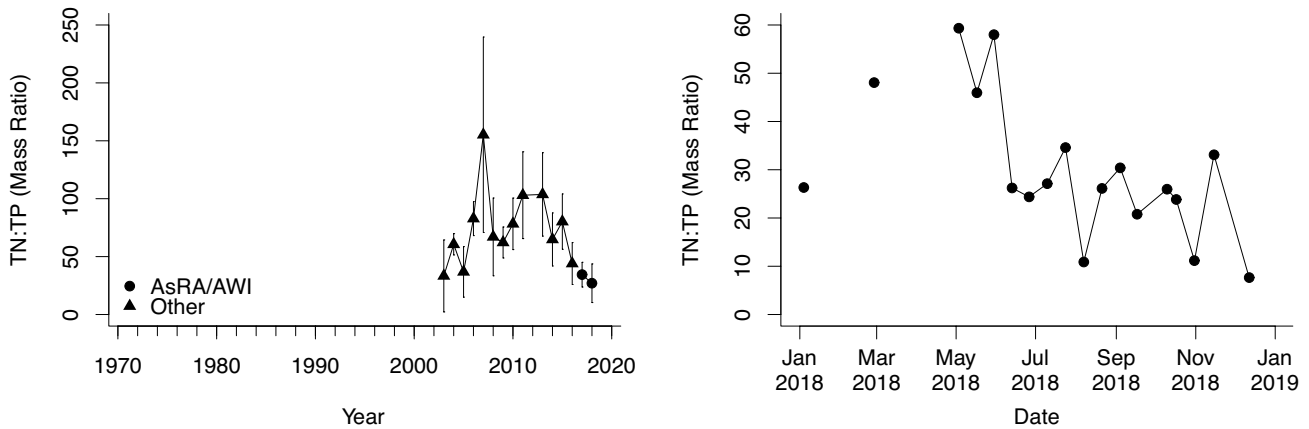


Figure 6. Annual average (a) and 2018 (b) nitrogen to phosphorus mass ratio. Black triangles represent data collected by other programs from the epilimnion, black circles 2m integrated samples collected by AsRA and AWI. Vertical bars represent one standard deviation of the mean.

As the two primary nutrients in aquatic ecosystems, the ratio of nitrogen to phosphorus can influence nutrient limitation and which phytoplankton species are dominant. Increasing occurrence of harmful algal blooms has renewed interest in lake nutrient cycling and how that relates to the occurrence of toxic blooms. The importance of TN:TP to cyanobacterial blooms is debated, but there is evidence that low TN:TP mass ratios favor both nitrogen fixing and non-nitrogen fixing cyanobacteria (Smith 1983). A TN:TP mass ratio of 22:1 appears to be a threshold under which lakes are more likely to be dominated by N-fixing cyanobacteria (Smith et al. 1985). Laboratory experiments have shown that the non-nitrogen fixing *Microcystis* to dominate below ratios of 44:1 (Fujimoto & Sudo 1997). While TN:TP ratios may be an important driver of cyanobacterial blooms, it is important to recognize that other factors are important as well, such as temperature, salinity, $\text{NO}_3:\text{NH}_4$ mass ratios, and pH (Liu et al. 2011).

In Mirror Lake, there is no long-term trend in TN:TP ratios. For much of the record mean annual ratios are above 50:1. Mean annual ratios aren't as important as the seasonal variation, as blooms occur at specific times of the year when conditions are favorable. For much of 2018, TN:TP ratios were below 44:1 suggesting the potential for *Microcystis* to bloom, and dipped below 22:1 on several occasions during the late-summer and fall. These dips were associated with spikes in TP, the source of which is undetermined. Further investigation is needed to determine if this is common for Mirror Lake or if there is a local source of phosphorus driving these changes.



Chlorophyll-a

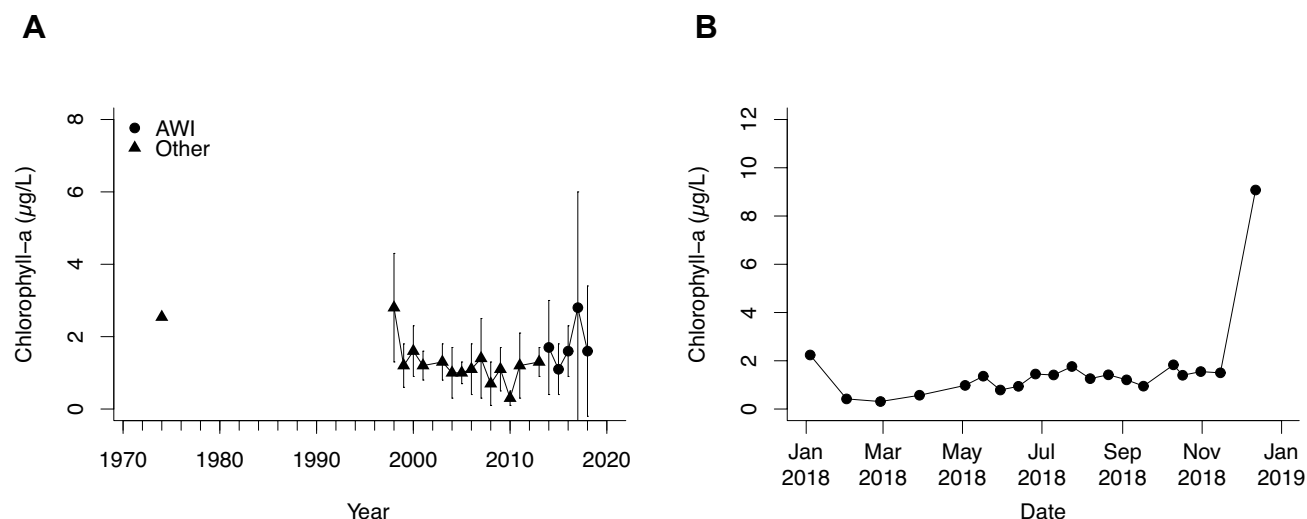


Figure 7. Annual average (a) and 2018 (b) chlorophyll-a. Black triangles represent data collected by other programs from the epilimnion, black circles 2m integrated samples collected by AsRA and AWI. Vertical bars represent one standard deviation of the mean.

Chlorophyll-a is the primary photosynthetic pigment in all photosynthetic organisms including algae and cyanobacteria. The concentration of chlorophyll-a is used as an index for algal biomass, or productivity. Nutrient concentrations, light, and water temperature all control algal productivity. Depending on the time of year, these three variables change and can limit algal production. Therefore, we expect to see variability in chlorophyll-a throughout the year. Major shifts in chlorophyll-a concentration over many years can usually be attributed to changes in nutrients (phosphorus, nitrogen, and silica) (Wetzel, 2001).

In Mirror Lake, chlorophyll-a concentrations vary throughout the year (Figure 7b), with the highest concentrations typically occurring in the spring. These times of the year typically see the highest productivity in the surface waters due to increased nutrient availability and relatively low zooplankton herbivory. During these times of the year, lake turnover, complete mixing of the water column, redistributes the nutrient rich bottom waters up to the lake surface where there is plenty of light.

Analysis of the annual data shows no significant trend in chlorophyll-a (Figure 7a). There was a particularly high concentration reported in 1971 (Ogelsby 1971). It is possible that these measurements were inaccurate as there are not a corresponding low secchi readings or high total phosphorus concentrations, both of which would be expected if there was significantly higher primary production during that time. Therefore, we have omitted this measurement from Figure 6a. During the period (2003 to 2010) that total phosphorus was increasing in the CSLAP dataset, chlorophyll-a concentrations were not changing. This is further evidence that the increase in total phosphorus reported by CSLAP may be the result of inconsistent sampling.

A spike in chlorophyll-a occurred in December 2018 after the lake had frozen. This is associated with an increase in TP, but that doesn't fully explain the increase in primary production. It is possible to have significant primary production under the ice when the ice is sufficiently thin to allow light to penetrate to the water below. This is also a time of year when zooplankton herbivory is low, removing the grazing pressure on phytoplankton communities.



Transparency

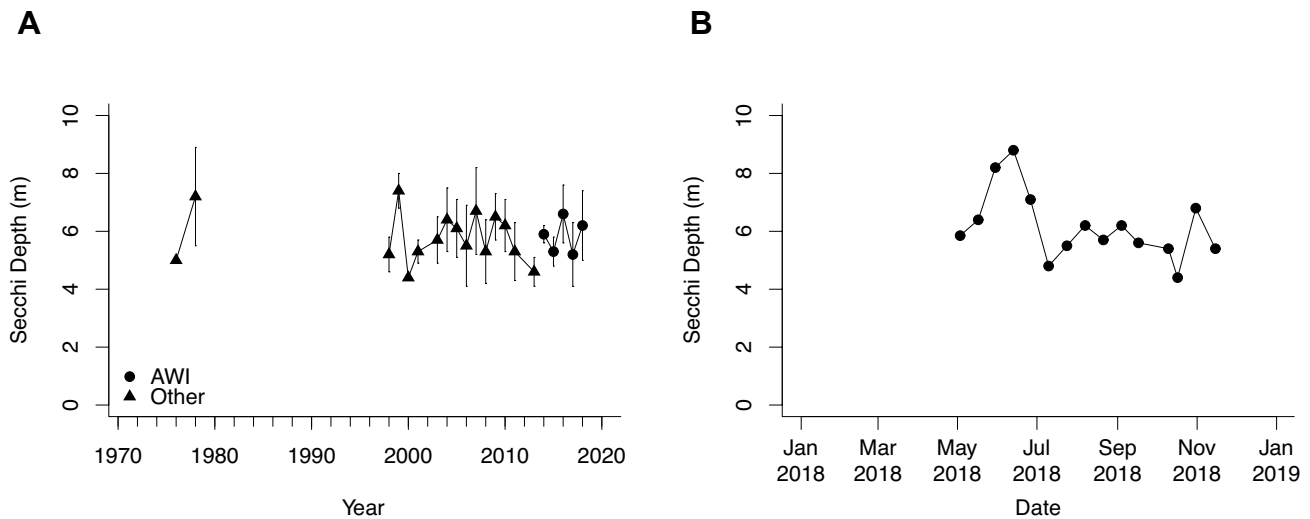


Figure 8. Annual average (a) and 2018 (b) transparency. Black triangles represent data collected by other programs from the epilimnion, black circles 2m integrated samples collected by AsRA and AWI. Vertical bars represent one standard deviation of the mean.

Water column transparency is a simple measure of lake productivity. Generally, secchi depth is lower in highly productive eutrophic lakes and higher in less productive oligotrophic lakes. Secchi depth can also be influenced by other water quality parameters that impact clarity, such as dissolved organic carbon, total suspended solids, colloidal minerals, and water color. Therefore, it is valuable to keep other water quality parameters, such as total phosphorus and chlorophyll-*a*, related to lake productivity in mind when looking at changes in transparency. Changes in watershed characteristics, such as the amount of runoff from precipitation or the export of organic matter, can also influence transparency.

No significant change in lake water transparency was detected in Mirror Lake (Figure 8a). The highest water column transparency during 2018 was observed in spring and early summer. During the remainder of the year transparency measurements are consistent. In some Adirondack Lakes water column transparency is declining as a result of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) increasing due to recovery from acid deposition (Warren et al. 2016). The exact mechanism driving regional increases in DOC is not fully understood. Cultural eutrophication can also lead to a decline in water column transparency (Wetzel 2001). Neither appears to be the case in Mirror Lake (Figure 8a).

High school student taking a secchi reading in Mirror Lake as part of a teen program.





Trophic Status

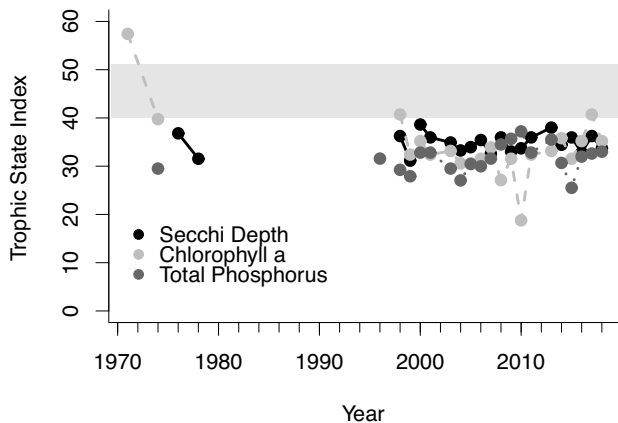


Figure 9. Annual average trophic state index based on secchi depth (black), chlorophyll-a (light gray), and total phosphorus (dark gray).

Trophic status is used by limnologists to refer to the overall productivity of a lake. Lake productivity is influenced by the nutrient supply, light availability, regional climate, watershed characteristics, and lake morphology. The term cultural eutrophication is often used to describe the process whereby human activities increase lake productivity through an increase in the nutrient supply. This process usually results in unwanted outcomes such as declines in lake aesthetics, increase chance of harmful algal blooms, and fish kills due to elevated bacterial decomposition utilizing all the available oxygen in the water column.

Lakes can be assigned to three main classification categories based on their overall productivity; oligotrophic, mesotrophic, eutrophic. Oligotrophic lakes have the lowest productivity

due to low nutrient content. These lakes are often characterized by clear, highly transparent water, with low phytoplankton biomass. The entire water column is often well oxygenated, making these lakes capable of supporting cold water fish species such as Lake Trout. Mesotrophic lakes are an intermediate state between oligotrophy and eutrophy. Eutrophic lakes are characterized by high productivity and high nutrient content. As a result, the water column is less clear due to increased phytoplankton production. The greater production of organic matter leads to higher rates of bacterial decomposition at the bottom of the lake. Bacteria utilize oxygen, resulting in a decrease in oxygen availability in the bottom waters during the summer stratified period. This reduction in oxygen is referred to hypoxic (low oxygen) or anoxic (no oxygen) conditions and is not conducive to supporting cold water fish.

Carlson’s Trophic Status Index (TSI) can be used to identify which of these trophic classifications a lake belongs to. TSI uses phytoplankton biomass as a measure for the trophic state of the lake. It utilizes independent estimates of phytoplankton biomass using chlorophyll-*a* pigment concentrations, secchi depth, and total phosphorus concentrations (Carlson 1997). Values of less than 40 are common among oligotrophic lakes, 40-50 is common for mesotrophic lakes, and greater than 50 is common for eutrophic lakes.

TSI has been calculated based on annual average of chlorophyll-*a*, secchi depth, and total phosphorus for Mirror Lake (Figure 9). Over the period of record Mirror Lake has consistently stayed within the oligotrophic classification with no significant trends over time. An early estimate using chlorophyll-*a* placed the lake in the eutrophic category, but as discussed in the chlorophyll-*a* section this is likely an erroneous measurement. The estimate using total phosphorus indicated an increasing trend during the period which showed an increase in this parameter. As discussed in the total phosphorus section, these data are questionable due to the inconsistency in the sample location. Mirror Lake does not show evidence of cultural eutrophication or any obvious shifts in its trophic status since the late 1970’s.



Dissolved Oxygen

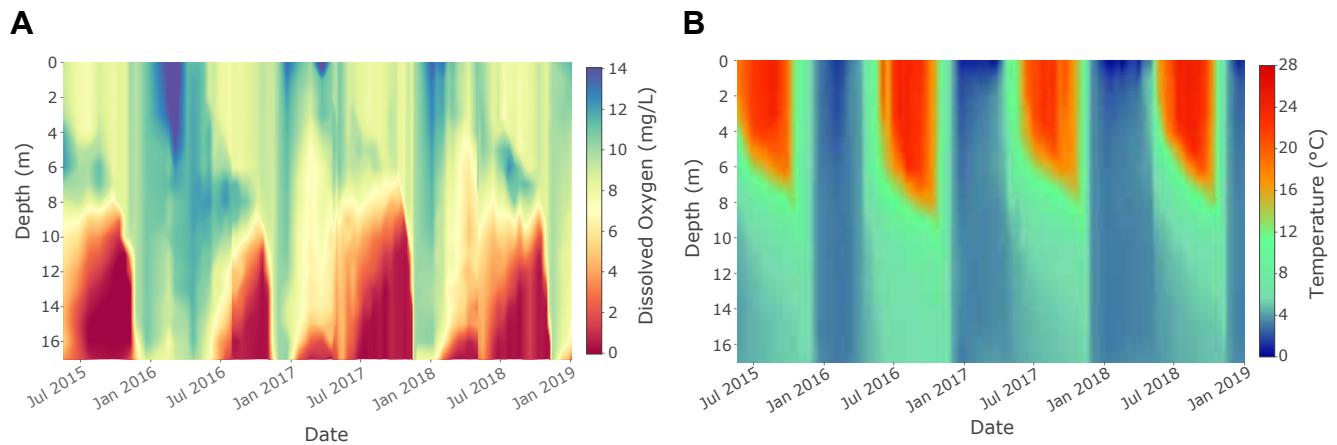


Figure 10. Dissolved oxygen (a) and temperature (b) from vertical profiles collected at 1m intervals over the deepest location of the lake during 2015-2017. A first order loess smoother was fit to the data to create the continuous plots depicted above.

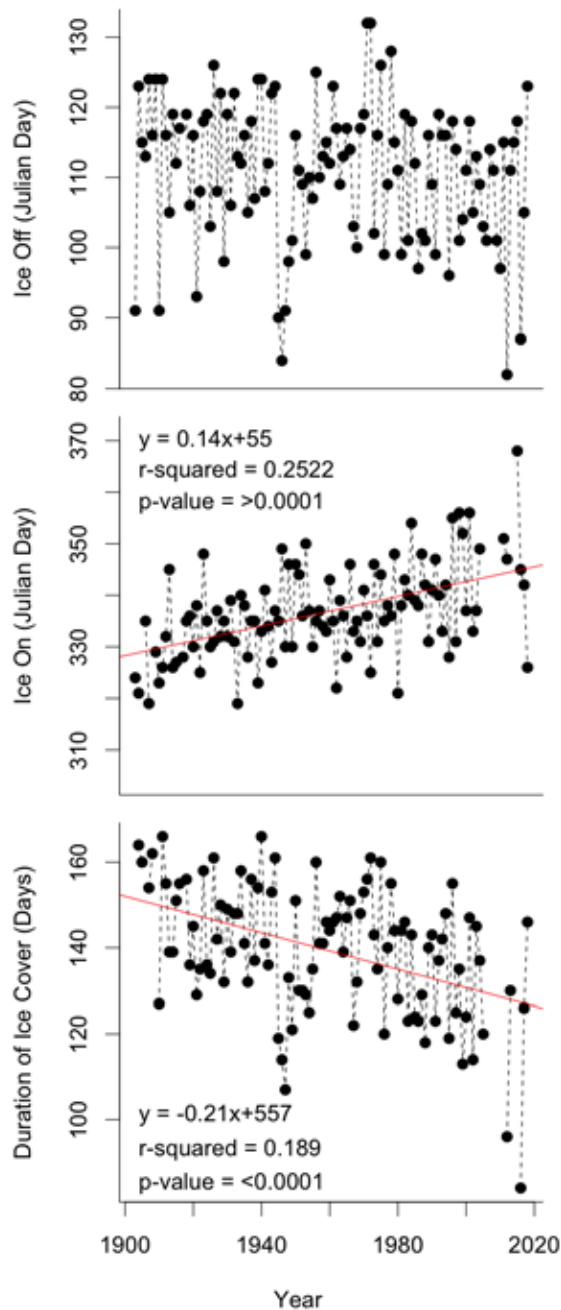
The primary sources of dissolved oxygen in lakes occur through diffusion from the atmosphere and primary production. Dissolved oxygen is consumed through respiration and decomposition. The solubility of oxygen in water is directly related to temperature and salinity, and decreases as both increase. Oxygen is vital to aerobic forms of life such as aquatic insects, zooplankton, and fish. Oxygen availability from the atmosphere and primary production vary throughout the year. During periods of lake turnover (spring and fall), oxygen is redistributed throughout the water column. During the summer stratified period, warm water at the surface of the lake prevents the cold bottom waters from mixing and cuts off the source of atmospheric oxygen. Similarly, during the winter months, while the lake is covered with ice, the supply of atmospheric oxygen is cut off and contributions from primary production are low.

Generally, oxygen depletion in the hypolimnion is a problem in eutrophic lakes with high rates of decomposition. It can also be prevalent in lakes that have a shallow hypolimnion and a large sediment surface area to volume ratio. Reductions in hypolimnetic dissolved oxygen are of primary concern to native salmonid species. During the summer months, these fish species seek out an optimal zone in the lake, an area which is both cool ($<18^{\circ}\text{C}$) and well oxygenated ($>7\text{ mg/L}$). In lakes with low hypolimnetic dissolved oxygen, this often pushes these species into a narrow range of depths as oxygen concentrations decline throughout the summer. Many lakes are experiencing longer periods of stratification due to climate change (De Stasio et al. 1996). This is causing the cold hypolimnetic waters to be cut off from atmospheric sources of oxygen for longer periods of time and threatening the ability of cold water fish species to find both cold and well oxygenated water.

Mirror Lake experienced hypoxic conditions ($<2\text{ mg/L}$ dissolved oxygen) in the hypolimnion during the summer in 2015, 2016, 2017, and 2018 (Figure 10a). By the end of the summer stratified period, only a few meters of the water column fit the optimal criteria for cold water fish (Figure 10a & b). When sampling started in June 2015, the bottom waters were low in dissolved oxygen and the size of the anoxic zone in the lake during the summer of 2015 was extensive. In the fall of 2015, the lake turned over, redistributing oxygen throughout the water column. Oxygen concentrations declined slightly throughout the winter, but the water column remained well oxygenated. This is typical for an oligotrophic lake with



Mirror Lake



low rates of decomposition. In the spring of 2016, the lake turned over, again redistributing oxygen throughout the water column. During the summer of 2016, anoxic conditions again appeared in the hypolimnion but to a lesser extent than in 2015. In the fall of 2016, the lake turned over and again the entire water column was well oxygenated. During the winter of 2017, a hypoxic zone began to form and persisted into the summer due to a lack of spring turnover. The lack of turnover resulted in an anoxic zone much larger in both duration and spatial extent than what was observed in 2016. A similar pattern was observed in 2018.

The anoxic conditions in the hypolimnion of Mirror Lake are a concern for the long-term survival of lake trout within the lake. This problem is expected to worsen as the regional climate warms and the period of stratification lengthens (De Stasio et al. 1996). The ice record for Mirror Lake shows a three-week increase in the open water season over the past 100 years (Figure 11). If the longer open water season is also resulting in a longer period of stratification, the lake may reach a point where there is no lake trout habitat left at the end of the summer stratified season. Dissolved oxygen concentrations and temperature profiles in Mirror Lake should continue to be monitored closely.

Figure 11. Ice record for Mirror Lake. There is no significant trend in ice off. Ice on ($y=0.14x+55$, $r^2=0.25$, $p<0.01$) and duration of ice cover ($y=-0.21x+557$, $r^2=0.19$, $p<0.01$) both show significant trends.





Acidity

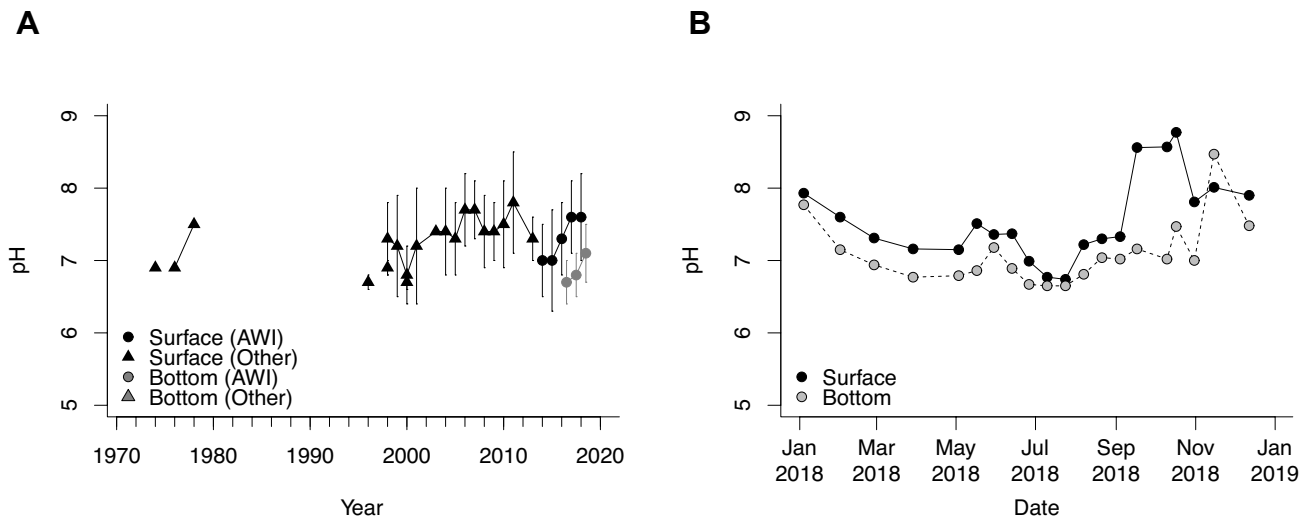


Figure 12. Annual average (a) and 2018 (b) pH. Black triangles represent data collected by other programs from the epilimnion, black circles 2m integrated samples collected by AsRA and AWI. The gray triangles and circles are from discrete samples collected 1m off the lake bottom. Vertical bars represent one standard deviation of the mean.

pH is an index of the hydrogen ion activity in solution, it is defined as the logarithm of the reciprocal of the concentration of free hydrogen ions in solution. Therefore, high pH values represent lower hydrogen ion concentrations than low pH values, and there is a 10-fold difference in hydrogen ion concentration across a single pH unit. The pH scale extends from 0 to 14, with 7 being neutral. pH values below 7 indicate acidic conditions and pH values greater than 7 indicate alkaline conditions.

Acidity in Adirondack surface waters has two sources: acid deposition (rain, snow, and dry deposition) and organic acids from evergreen needles and other plant matter. Long-term monitoring by the Adirondack Lakes Survey Corporation shows that 25% of lakes in the Adirondacks have a pH of 5.0 or lower and another 25% are vulnerable to springtime acidification (ALSC, 1990).

Shifts in pH can have major effects on the dominant biological and chemical process present within a lake. Many organisms have narrow pH tolerances, resulting in significant declines in individual health and population numbers if pH values stray outside of their tolerances. Changes in pH also influence the mobility of ions and heavy metals which can result in issues related to nutrient availability and toxicity (Driscoll 1985; Schindler et al. 1985).

Over the period of record, Mirror Lake has stayed within the circumneutral (6.5-7.5) to slightly alkaline (>7.5) range (Figure 12a). There is no long-term trend in pH present in Mirror Lake, but pH appeared to increase from 2003 to 2012. Data from the National Atmospheric Deposition Monitoring Program in Huntington Forest (central Adirondacks) reveals that the primary indices of acid deposition, pH, and the acid anions sulfate and nitrate, are all exhibiting significant reductions over the past 35 years. Likewise, recent research from 74 lakes in Northeast (60% in the Adirondacks) illustrate that several acid indicators such as sulfate concentration and ANC are exhibiting significant recovery (Strock et al 2014). Thus, it is reasonable to expect acid reduction in Mirror Lake.



Alkalinity

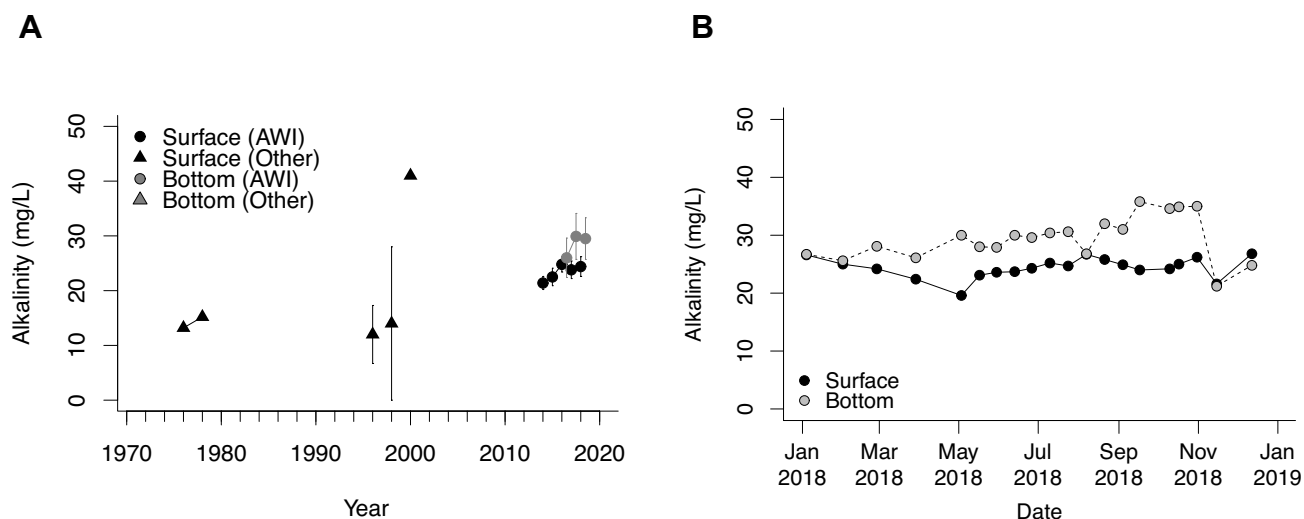


Figure 13. Annual average (a) and 2018 (b) alkalinity. Black triangles represent data collected by other programs from the epilimnion, black circles 2m integrated samples collected by AsRA and AWI. The gray triangles and circles are from discrete samples collected 1m off the lake bottom. Vertical bars represent one standard deviation of the mean.

Alkalinity is a measure of buffering capacity of a waterbody, typically expressed as mg/L of calcium carbonate (CaCO₃). The amount of calcium carbonate in a waterbody is primarily related to the bedrock geology of its watershed. Lakes with watersheds underlain by granitic bedrock tend to have low alkalinity due to slow rates of weathering of the bedrock and low amounts of calcium carbonate in the rock. Conversely, lakes underlain by sedimentary rocks such as limestone tend to both weather faster and contain more calcium carbonate. Many lakes in the Adirondacks are underlain by granitic bedrock, and therefore have lower alkalinity.

While there appears to be an increase in alkalinity, we detected no significant trend over the period of record (Figure 13a). Mirror Lake’s current alkalinity indicates that it has low sensitivity to acidification (Figure 13b). In other words, Mirror Lake has sufficient buffering capacity to resist acidification. The potential long-term increase may be a result of regional declines in acid deposition or may be related to development within the watershed. Increases in limestone based concrete associated with the development around the lake may be associated with an increase in alkalinity.

Calcium

The primary source of calcium in lakes is CaCO₃, thus the discussion of calcium is closely tied to that of alkalinity. CaCO₃ is not very soluble in water, but in the presence of carbonic acid it is converted to more soluble forms. The primary source of calcium in lakes is from weathering of parent material. Calcium is an important element in biology because it serves a role in the structure and physiology of many organisms. In the Adirondacks, the granitic parent material contains little calcium, and therefore Adirondack lakes tend to be low in calcium. Regionally, lakes are showing calcium declines, in part because of acid deposition. Acid deposition resulted in increased calcium leaching from watershed soil, eventually reducing the pool available for export to lakes (Keller et al. 2001). Concentrations are



Calcium continued

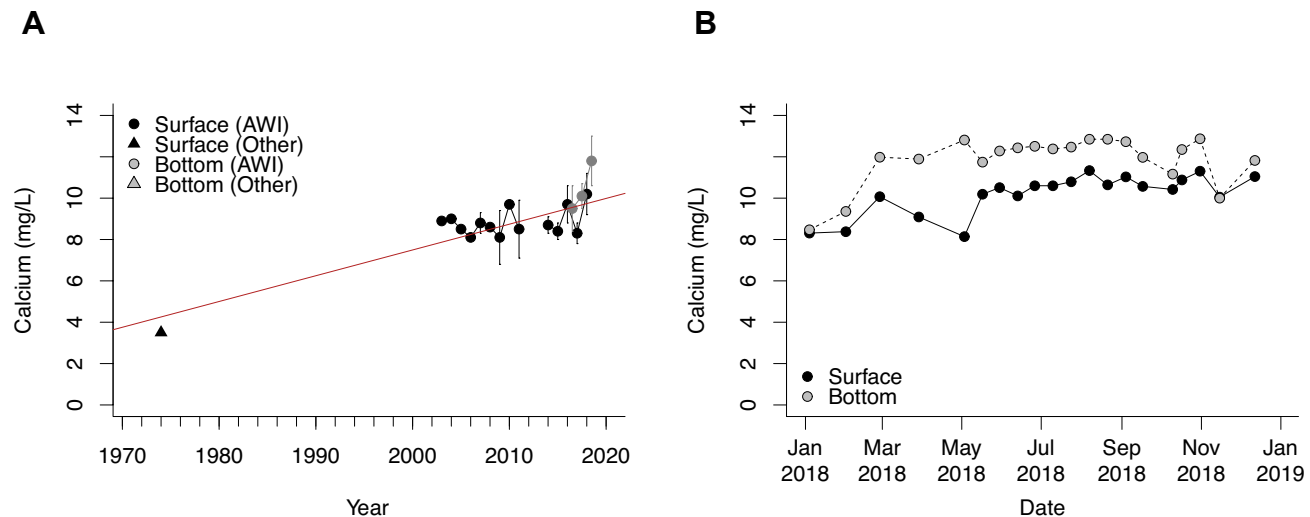


Figure 14. Annual average (a) and 2018 (b) calcium. Black triangles represent data collected by other programs from the epilimnion, black circles 2m integrated samples collected by AsRA and AWI. The gray triangles and circles are from discrete samples collected 1m off the lake bottom. Vertical bars represent one standard deviation of the mean. Calcium shows a significant trend over the period of record ($y=0.12x-234.7$, $R^2=0.74$, $p<0.001$)

low enough in some lakes (<2 mg/L) to cause declines in zooplankton that utilize calcium to build their carapace (Jeziorski et al. 2008).

Contrary to regional declines in calcium, Mirror Lake has exhibited an increase over time (Figure 14a). Current concentrations are well above other Adirondacks lakes (Figure 14b). Mirror Lake is above the 90th percentile for lakes monitored as part of the Adirondack Lake Assessment Program (Laxson et al. 2016). Kelting and Laxson (2017) observed 62% higher concentrations of calcium, magnesium, and potassium in lakes with paved roads in their watersheds. Application of sodium chloride (NaCl) as a road deicer results in increased export of these ions from the watershed to the lake when sodium replaces calcium, magnesium, and potassium on soil cation exchange sites (Kelting and Laxson 2017; Mason et al. 1999). In addition, these ions are commonly used with alternative road deicing agents (calcium chloride, magnesium chloride, and calcium magnesium acetate). It is also possible that the elevated calcium concentrations in Mirror Lake are the result of development. The import of calcium rich materials for construction, primarily limestone based concrete, and the subsequent weathering may be a significant source of calcium to Mirror Lake. A crushed limestone beach maintained on the lake is also a likely source of calcium to the lake.

Calcium is an important, and sometimes limiting, nutrient to mussels such as the zebra mussel. In many Adirondack lakes, calcium concentrations are too low (<12 mg/L) to support zebra mussel populations (Whittier et al. 2008). Calcium concentrations measured by Oglesby in 1971 were well below this threshold, but recent concentrations are high enough where it may be possible for a zebra mussel population to become established if they were introduced to Mirror Lake (Oglesby 1971; Whittier et al. 2008).



Conductivity

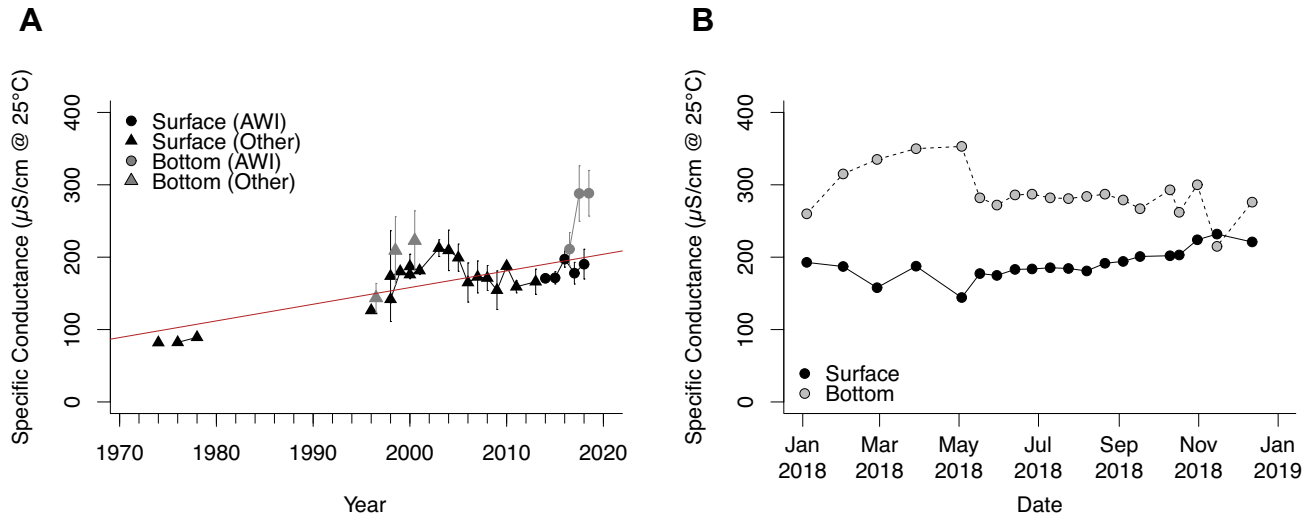


Figure 15. Annual average (a) and 2018 (b) nitrate-nitrogen. Black triangles represent data collected by other programs from the epilimnion, black circles 2m integrated samples collected by AsRA and AWI. The gray triangles and circles are from discrete samples collected 1m off the lake bottom. Vertical bars represent one standard deviation of the mean. Conductivity shows a significant trend over the period of record ($y=2.35x-4534$, $r^2=0.60$, $p<0.01$)

Conductivity—the ability of water to pass an electrical current because of the presence of dissolved ions—is often called the “watchdog” environmental test since it is informative and easy to perform. Calculations of specific conductance standardize conductivity measurements to the temperature of 25 °C for the purposes of comparison. Rain, erosion, snow melt, runoff carrying livestock waste, failing septic systems, and road salt raise conductivity because of the presence of ions such as chloride, phosphate, nitrite etc. Oil spills lower water conductivity. Temperature, shade, sunlight, and sampling depth all affect conductivity. A conductivity probe does not identify the specific ions in a water sample—it simply measures the level of total dissolved solids (TDS) in the water body.

Mirror Lake has experienced a significant increase in conductivity over the period of record (Figure 15a). This trend is indicative of the lake being affected by the application of rock salt to roads and sidewalks in the watershed, and the subsequent runoff into Mirror Lake. The data from the early 1970s pre-dates the widespread increase in use of rock salt on Adirondack roadways, and is at the early period of widespread use of road salt nationally (Langen et al. 2006; TRB 1991). Over the course of 2018, we saw a difference in conductivity between the surface and hypolimnion during almost the entire year (Figure 15b). This indicates an accumulation of dense salt laden water at the lake bottom. During the fall of 2018 the lake turned over returning the water column to uniform conductivity. By December the conductivity gradient was reestablished as a result of road salt runoff entering the lake.



Sodium & Chloride

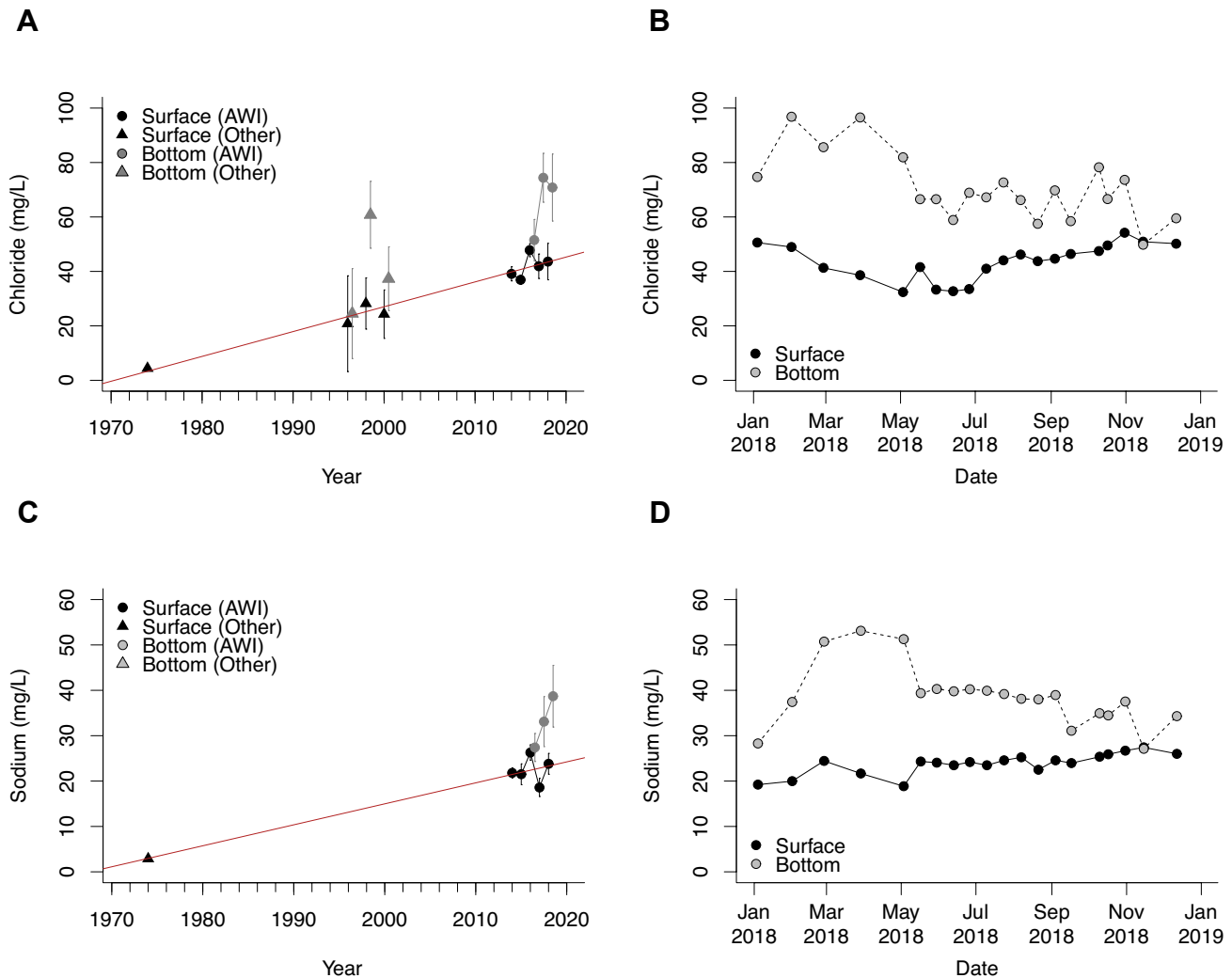


Figure 16. Annual average (a) and 2018 (b) chloride and annual average (c) and 2018 (d) sodium. Open squares represent data collected by other programs from the epilimnion, closed black circles 2m integrated samples collected by AsRA and AWI. The closed gray circles are from discrete samples collected 1m off the lake bottom. Vertical bars represent one standard deviation of the mean. Both chloride ($y=0.91x-1797$, $r^2=0.95$, $p<0.01$) and sodium ($y=0.46x-910$, $r^2=0.90$, $p=0.004$) show a significant trend over the period of record.

The element chlorine can occur in various forms or states of oxidation, but the chloride form (Cl⁻) is most common in surface waters. There are several natural sources of sodium and chloride, including various rocks that contain sodium- and chlorine-bearing minerals. The most abundant natural mineral form of sodium and chloride is NaCl or Halite, also known as rock salt. Large halite deposits form when ocean water evaporates and mineral deposits are buried, eventually becoming rock.

Chloride is present in most natural waters at very low concentrations, except where surface or groundwater mixes with ocean water. Minimally impacted Adirondack lakes have average chloride and sodium concentrations of 0.2 mg/L and 0.5 mg/L, respectively (Kelting et al. 2012). Another source of chloride is road runoff in regions where rock salt is used as a road deicing agent in winter. New York has



Sodium & Chloride continued

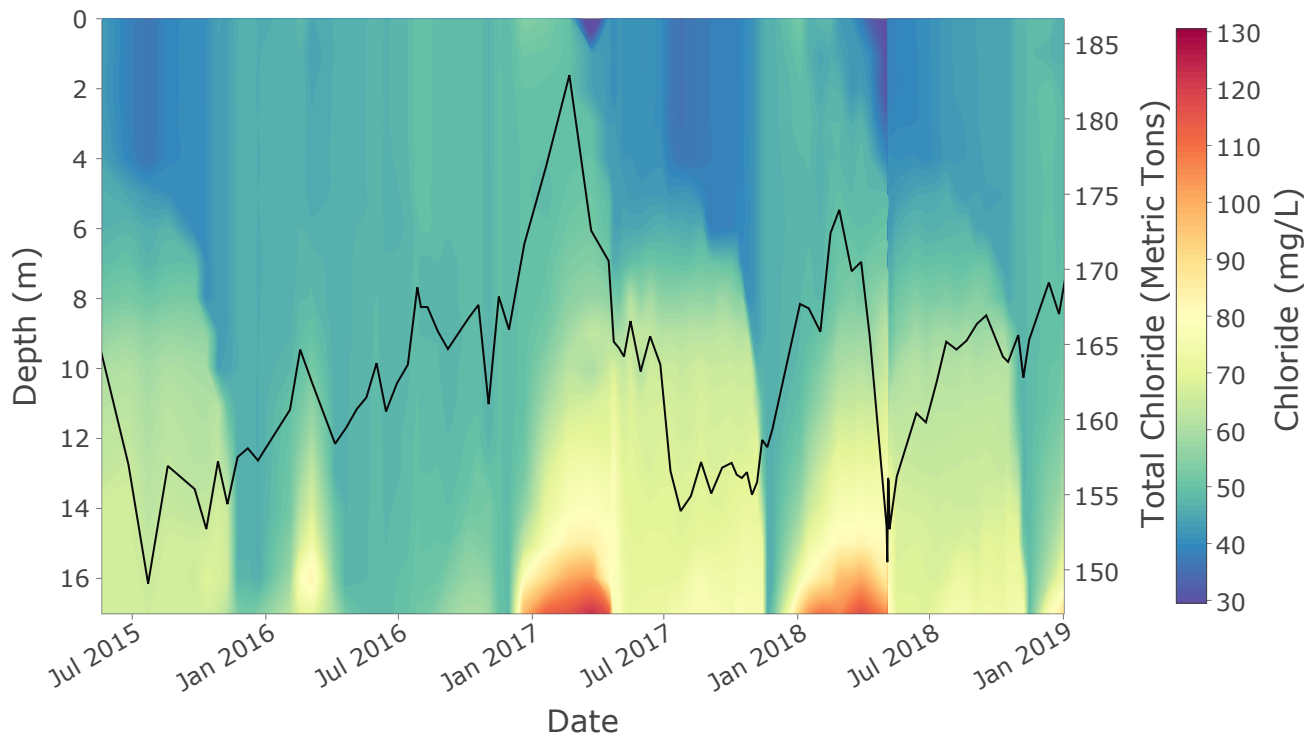


Figure 17. Chloride concentration inferred from conductivity measurements taken at 1m intervals over the deepest location of the lake from May 2015 through December 2018.

one of the highest rock salt application rates per lane mile in the United States (Kelting & Laxson 2010). These application rates are mandated on state roads across the state regardless of proximity to surface waters. Within the Village of Lake Placid, significant amounts of rock salt are applied to the sidewalk around Mirror Lake. The runoff from this area, and the adjacent roadways, goes directly into Mirror Lake. For a more detailed discussion of chloride toxicity see the Mirror Lake 2016 Water Quality report (Wiltse et al. 2017).

Sodium and chloride concentrations have increased significantly over the period of record (Figure 16a & c). The surface water samples collected by Oglesby in 1974 had sodium and chloride concentrations of 2.9 and 4.4 mg/L, respectively. In 2018, average concentrations were 23.8 and 43.6 mg/L, respectively.

To better understand the distribution of chloride throughout the water column we modeled chloride concentrations based on conductivity measurements. Under a linear model, field specific conductance explains 78% of the variation in chloride concentration ($y=0.27x-11.59$, $R^2=0.78$, $p<0.01$). Using this relationship, we modeled chloride concentrations at 1-m intervals throughout the water column on a bi-weekly basis during the open water season, and monthly while the lake is frozen.

The chloride data show that during the summer of 2015, the chloride concentrations in the hypolimnion were 60-70 mg/L while surface water concentrations were 35-40 mg/L (Figure 17). During the winter of 2015-16, elevated chloride concentrations were observed in the hypolimnion (Figure 16b & d, Figure 17). The onset of this rise in concentration coincides with two runoff events in late-February



Sodium & Chloride continued

and early-March. The water column mixed completely in the spring of 2016 and stayed relatively uniform in concentration until early 2017 when chloride began to build in the bottom waters of the lake. High chloride concentrations persisted through 2017 due to a lack of complete mixing in the spring. The lake mixed in the fall of 2017, but immediately after chloride again began to build at the bottom of the lake. A similar pattern was observed in 2018, high chloride concentrations at the lake bottom in the winter persist through the spring and summer due to a lack of mixing and finally become uniform in the fall during the period of fall turnover.

Chloride builds in the bottom waters of the lake during the winter because the stormwater runoff has concentrations as high as 2,400 mg/L. The high concentration of salt in the stormwater makes it more dense than the lake water, causing it to flow along the lake bottom and accumulate in the deep waters. These density differences result in an increased amount of energy needed to completely mix the water column during spring turnover. In 2016, a combination of mild winter and use of alternative deicing practices by the village, resulted in much less salt building at the bottom of the lake. As a result, increase in energy required to mix the lake in the spring was 2.8 times greater than what would be required if the salt was evenly distributed. In comparison, 2017 saw much more salt build at the bottom of the lake. As a result the energy required to mix the lake was 75.5 times higher than would be required if the salt were evenly distributed. This additional energy requirement is likely the reason why Mirror Lake did not mix in the spring of 2017. Again, a similar pattern was observed in 2018, with the increase in energy required to mix the lake to uniform density due to road salt was 300 time higher than if the salt were evenly distributed.

Less chloride built up in the lake over the winter of 2018, as compared to 2017. There was about 9 fewer metric tons of chloride in the lake at its peak during the winter in 2018 compared to 2017. Despite less salt (chloride) accumulating in the lake over the winter, the lake experienced higher surface water concentrations during the summer due to a lack of flushing. This underscores the importance of variations in climate in influencing the cumulative impacts of road salt on the lake. Winter severity has a significant influence on the amount of salt applied in the watershed and the concentration of runoff entering the lake. Spring, summer, and fall precipitation heavily influences the ability of the lake to export salt during times of year when salt is not being applied to the watershed.

A weather station was installed by AsRA on the Lake Placid Club property in November 2018 to better understand local weather conditions. This station includes a water temperature sensor permanently installed at a depth of 1 meter. The data collected by this station will help inform our understanding of how changes in local weather influence the impact of road salt on Mirror Lake.



Winter Dissolved Oxygen Decline

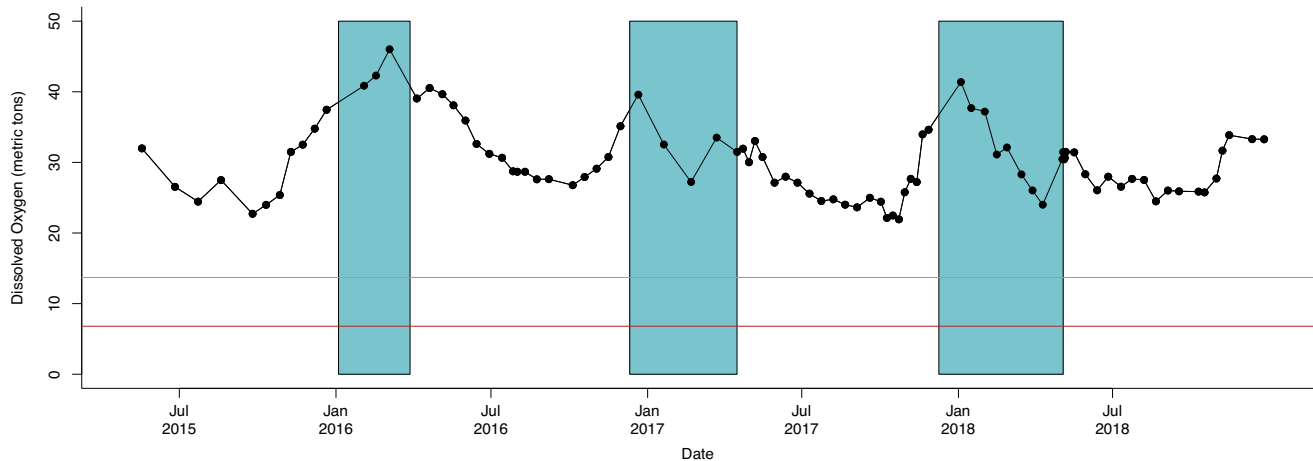


Figure 18. Total amount of dissolved oxygen retained in Mirror Lake. Cyan boxes represent periods when the lake was covered with ice. The orange horizontal line is the point at which the average dissolved oxygen concentration in the lake is 4 mg/L. The red horizontal line is the point at which the average dissolved oxygen concentration in the lake is 2 mg/L.

During the winter, dissolved oxygen in lakes typically declines due to ice cover eliminating exchange of oxygen with the atmosphere. Concerns related to hypoxic or anoxic conditions in the hypolimnion during the summer stratified period can also arise for the entire water column in the winter. If the snow and ice on the lake is thin enough to allow penetration of light, it is possible to have primary production under the ice surface, which would infuse oxygen into the water column. This was observed during the warm, mild winter of 2016 (Figure 18). If the ice is thicker and covered with a thick layer of snow very little light will penetrate to the water below and primary production will be limited. In this situation, respiration can be greater than the production of oxygen through photosynthesis, leading to a decline in dissolved oxygen. The rate and magnitude of the decline in dissolved oxygen is related to the limitations on primary production and respiration. Winter declines in lake water dissolved oxygen were observed in both 2017 and 2018 (Figure 18).

In some lakes, winter declines in dissolved oxygen can be large enough to drop below critical threshold needed to for aerobic organisms, such as fish, to survive. This can result in a winter fish kill, whereby large numbers of fish die over the winter due to a lack of dissolved oxygen. This typically occurs in small, shallow, eutrophic water bodies that have high rates of microbial respiration (Wetzel 2001). A reduction in fall mixing can also contribute to a winter fish kill.

Fall mixing in Mirror Lake increases the total amount of dissolved oxygen retained in the lake by 50-100%. This prevents the lake from experiencing a winter fish kill, even during winters when there dissolved oxygen is depleted quite substantially. If fall turnover were to be interrupted, Mirror Lake could slip below critical thresholds necessary to support fish and other aquatic life. During the winter of 2018 Mirror Lake had a net loss of dissolved oxygen of 15.3 metric tons. Had the lake not mixed the previous fall this would have dropped the total amount of dissolved oxygen retained in the lake to 6.6 metric tons. At 13.7 metric tons the mean concentration of dissolved oxygen in the lake is 4 mg/L and at 6.8 metric tons the mean concentration is 2 mg/L. At 6.6 metric tons the lake would have a mean dissolved oxygen



concentration below 2 mg/L. This would likely result in a winter fish kill and a substantial reduction in aquatic life.

The accumulation of road salt at the bottom of the lake during the winter has resulted in a density gradient in the water column of sufficient magnitude to reduce spring mixing, limiting the amount of oxygen distributed throughout the water column. This reduction in mixing threatens the cold-water organisms that are found at depth during the summer stratified period. If fall mixing were also to be interrupted due to road salt, the lake would be susceptible to winter declines in dissolved oxygen that could result in a winter fish kill. This would undoubtedly affect the perception of water quality in Mirror Lake and directly affect the recreational economy that relies on the health of Mirror Lake.

Invasive Banded Mysterysnail Confirmed

The banded mysterysnail was first reported in the Adirondack Park in Lake George in 1997 and is now known to be present in seven Adirondack waterbodies (see below). It's possible the banded mysterysnail is under reported because survey protocols used for invasive plants are not the most effective at detecting this species. The first report in the Ausable River watershed was Mirror Lake in 2015.

On September 14th, 2018 AsRA's Science & Stewardship Director, Dr. Brendan Wiltse, and board member, Dr. Larry Master, snorkeled Mirror Lake to develop a better understanding of the density and distribution of banded mysterysnail in the lake. They found the snails prevalent in almost all near-shore environments in the lake. Estimated densities ranged from 10-20 snails per square meter.

Banded mysterysnails live in shallow slow-moving waters, often in near-shore environments of lakes. They feed on diatoms, filamentous algae, and detritus found on the lake bottom. Densities as high as 864 per meter squared have been documented. In the fall, they move to deeper waters to overwinter.

The impact of banded mysterysnail on our freshwater ecosystems isn't entirely clear. USGS states that "at present there are no known impacts associated with this introduced species in the Great Lakes basin." They are known, however, to be a host of a trematode worm that is related to waterfowl deaths, and they predate on largemouth bass embryos. They may also outcompete native snail species.

An invasive banded mysterysnail found at 15 foot depth in the littoral zone of Mirror Lake.





Conclusions

The lack of spring turnover in Mirror Lake is a significant threat to the long-term health of the lake. If fall turnover is interrupted as well, there would be significant negative impacts to much of the life in the lake. Therefore, it is imperative that we move to quickly identify adaptive and measurable solutions for reducing road salting and restoring this important physical process in the lake. In order to accurately estimate the reduction in salt necessary to achieve this, we need the entire community within the Mirror Lake watershed to be willing participants in the study of this problem. The more we know and understand about how much salt is applied within the watershed, and where, the better we can understand how much of a reduction is necessary to protect the lake.

Mirror Lake is central to the identity of Lake Placid. Many people, both residents and visitors, have deep meaningful connections to the lake. Protecting the lake requires the entire community to serve as stewards of the lake, understanding its value, and recognizing the actions necessary to preserve it. The Village of Lake Placid, Town of North Elba, IRONMAN Foundation, Mirror Lake Watershed Association, Golden Arrow Lakeside Resort, and Mirror Lake Inn have all shown a commitment to using science to inform the protection of the lake. As we continue to study Mirror Lake and the threats it faces, it has become increasingly apparent that a much broader community oriented approach needs to be taken to address those threats.





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Appendix

Table A1: History of water quality research on Mirror Lake

Year(s)	Researchers/Program	Report
1971	Oglesby	A study of Lake Placid and Mirror Lake during 1971.
1974	Oglesby & Mills	A further study of Lake Placid and Mirror Lake, August 5-6, 1974
1976 & 1978	Don Charles	Personal communication
1996	Schmall et al. / Paul Smith's College	Mirror Lake
1998	Martin / Paul Smith's College	Mirror Lake
2000	Murray et al. / Paul Smith's College	Mirror Lake
1998-2001, 2003-2011, 2013-2016	CSLAP	Annually issued reports
2014	ALAP	Annually issued reports
2015-2018	Wiltse et al. / AsRA & AWI	Mirror Lake: 2016 Water Quality Report & Mirror Lake: 2017 Water Quality Report

Table A2: Analytical methods performed on water samples at the AWI Environmental Research Lab.

Analyte	Method Description	Reference
Lab pH	Mettler Toledo standard pH electrode	APHA
Conductivity	Conductivity at 25°C via Mettler Toledo conductivity cell	APHA 2510 B
Apparent Color	Single wavelength method with PtCO standards	APHA 2120 C
Chlorophyll-a	Trichromatic method uncorrected for phaeophyton	EPA 445.0 Rev 1.2
Total Phosphorus	Acid-persulfate digestion, automated ascorbic acid reduction	APHA 4500-P H
Nitrate + Nitrite	Automated cadmium reduction	APHA 4500-NO ₃ I
Alkalinity	Automated methyl orange method	EPA 301.2
Chloride	Automated ion chromatography	EPA 300.0
Calcium and Sodium	Inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectroscopy	EPA 200.7