

**Phytoplankton communities as indicators of environmental change and nutrient deposition in  
the Canadian Rockies**

by

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## Abstract

Remote mountain water bodies integrate the impacts of regional factors (e.g. climate change, atmospheric pollutants) well because of the relative absence of confounding local perturbations (e.g. human land-use). Climatic factors can alter the abiotic environments within mountain lakes through changes in precipitation and temperature while atmospheric nutrient deposition potentially fertilizes their primary production. Therefore, changes in alpine phytoplankton communities may be among the first indicators of the cumulative impact of modern global change on mountain lake and pond ecosystems, particularly as recent rates of warming are positively correlated with elevation. I investigated the potential sensitivities of 29 alpine lake and pond ecosystems along the Eastern Front range of the Canadian Rockies to increased deposition of nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) were investigated based on their water chemistry (i.e. dissolved inorganic N (DIN): total P (TP) mass ratios) and phytoplankton responses to *in vitro* nutrient amendment bioassays previously conducted in 2008. Previous evidence of low DIN:TP mass ratios and experimental N amendments stimulating algal communities in shallower alpine sites motivated my hypothesis that nutrient limitation of phytoplankton shifts from being P- to N-driven with decreasing water depth from lakes to ponds. Although inferred and experimental lines of evidence of nutrient limitation agreed in 55% of all cases, there were some discrepancies involving co-limitation. Contrary to my hypothesis of ponds being N-limited, I found little evidence of N-limitation from bioassays of phytoplankton for sites shallower than 5 m in depth. Overall, most phytoplankton communities exhibited responses to nutrient amendments indicating that they were P- or NP- co-limited. Chromophytes and chlorophytes drove the greater responsiveness of whole phytoplankton communities to P relative to N.

Next, I investigated the inferred sensitivity of mountain phytoplankton to climatic factors and tested whether the nature of nutrient limitation had changed in the study area over the past 10 years as

a result of nutrient deposition. Water samples were collected during the ice-free season of 2017 and 2018 from a total of 82 mountain lakes within the National Parks of the Canadian Rockies, and a subset of 14 alpine lakes chosen for nutrient enrichment bioassays, following the same protocol as the 2008 bioassays. Linear regression analysis was performed to determine significant environmental predictors of net algal production and redundancy analysis was used to determine the best set of explanatory variables of taxonomic variance in phytoplankton communities across the surveyed lakes. TP was identified as both the only significant predictor of chlorophyll-inferred phytoplankton biomass across the 82 surveyed lakes, and the key nutrient stimulating phytoplankton production in the bioassays. The bioassay results also revealed a strong synergistic response to the combined NP nutrient amendments. Results also revealed local features that mediate the influence of climate change to be the most important correlates of phytoplankton community composition, namely dissolved organic carbon and light availability along with proportion of carbonate sedimentary bedrock and bare catchment. Taken together, these findings highlight the sensitivity of phytoplankton communities in the Canadian Rockies to the indirect impacts of global warming, including the increased incidence of wildfires that fuel P deposition. The synergistic response to N and P also emphasizes a need for further research into potential fertilizing effects of combined anthropogenic N emissions and P deposition on lake ecosystems at high elevations.

## **Preface**

A portion of this thesis reflects a manuscript prepared in collaboration with fellow researchers. A version of Chapter 2 has been published as: Cook J, Stuparyk BR, Johnsen MA, Vinebrooke RD (2020)

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analyzed the data and composed the manuscript. Rolf Vinebrooke conceived of the idea for the study and contributed to the study design and manuscript revisions. Blake Stuparyk and Mitchell Johnsen provided feedback on data analysis and contributed to manuscript revisions.

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# Chapter 1 : Introduction

## Background and Rationale

### *Phytoplankton as Indicators of Change*

Lake ecosystems integrate the effects of local and regional factors across their entire catchments and airsheds and have been identified as sentinels of environmental change (Williamson et al. 2008).

Phytoplankton consists of relatively small photoautotrophic eukaryotes and cyanobacteria with short life spans, fast reproduction rates, and wide dispersal potential, which results in them being very responsive to environmental changes (Schindler 1987). These algae and cyanobacteria integrate chemical changes occurring terrestrially and atmospherically, responding to a wide range of pollutants and thermal variations, leading to them being labelled as bioindicators (McCormick and Cairns 1994; Williamson et al. 2008; Adrian et al. 2009; Parmar et al. 2016). For example, Schindler (1987) summarized findings from several whole-lake experiments conducted at the Experimental Lakes Area and emphasized that shifts in boreal phytoplankton communities were among the most sensitive indicators of the early stages of stress to lake ecosystems. They can better integrate the biological effects of environmental changes over time, providing meaningful ecological information that cannot be obtained through routine intermittent environmental monitoring of water quality of surface waters (Reynolds 2006; Adrian et al. 2009).

Phytoplankton in mountain lakes and ponds can serve as warning systems because climate-driven impacts are frequently accelerated at higher elevations, and the relatively pristine nature of many remote mountain lakes make them especially sensitive to extreme or novel anthropogenic perturbations, or “stressors” (Catalan et al. 2013). Being relatively removed in many cases from local anthropogenic disturbance, mountain lakes can better represent average global changes, filtering some

noise caused by human perturbations (Adrian et al. 2009; Catalan et al. 2013). Several variables change predictably with elevational gradients including temperature, ultraviolet (UV) radiation and UV-attenuating dissolved organic carbon (DOC) concentration. This knowledge allows a space-for-time substitution for lakes studied within the same geographic area and the possibility to test the response to environmental change (Moser et al. 2019). Mountain lakes have become reference points, used to evaluate current and future effects of anthropogenic pollution (Catalan et al. 2013).

### *Importance of Mountain Lakes as Headwaters*

The vulnerability of mountain lakes has important implications beyond their own water quality because they provide water to downstream, lowland regions (Viviroli et al. 2007). It has been estimated that half of the global population is dependent on water originating from mountains for power and water supplies (Woodwell 2004). Some mountain lakes are already experiencing decreased water quality (Thies et al. 2007; Bajard et al. 2018). Thus, mountain research involving predictive effects of climate change will not only serve as a warning, but also have important implications for water management.

### *Atmospheric Deposition of Nutrients to Mountain Lakes*

The chemically dilute and unproductive, or “oligotrophic”, nature of alpine lakes and ponds allows them to be early indicators of deposition of external nutrients (Murphy et al. 2010) and even small changes in nutrient concentrations can have relatively large impacts (Sickman et al. 2003; Baron et al. 2011).

Nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) are the two nutrients that often limit the growth of freshwater primary producers (Reynolds 2006). Human activity has increased the reactive nitrogen globally, through agricultural practices and combustion of fossil fuels (Vitousek et al. 1997). N is primarily deposited as

wet deposition, with alpine sites often receiving higher N input through greater precipitation than lower elevations (Moser et al. 2019). P is deposited as dry deposition, released through biomass burning such as wildfires and contained in aeolian dust, which can be transported extended distances (Mahowald et al. 2008; Zhang et al. 2018).

Nutrient input to alpine lakes is a current topic of interest because it can stimulate primary productivity or impact the limiting nutrient of the system. The limiting nutrient is often predicted by the in-lake dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN): total phosphorus (TP) mass ratio, which represents the biologically available N and P to phytoplankton (Morris and Lewis 1988; Bergström 2010). Moreover, lake nitrate concentrations are strongly correlated with the amount of N deposition (Bergström and Jansson 2006; Elser et al. 2009). Thus, the deposition of nutrients can alter the limiting nutrient. However, some previous studies have found the DIN:TP mass ratio alone was not always accurate in predicting the limitation type, particularly for co-limitation by N and P (Slemmons and Saros 2012; Symons et al. 2012; Daggett et al. 2015; Williams et al. 2016).

Studies within the United States have found mountain lakes to be naturally N-limited, with increased N deposition resulting in a switch to P-limitation (Bergström and Jansson 2006; Elser et al. 2009). The United States have implemented long-term atmospheric monitoring of N deposition, the National Atmospheric Deposition Program (NADP), with 186 sites across the country to collect wet N deposition records (Baron et al. 2011). Results from the NADP have revealed elevated N deposition in the Sierra Nevada and US Rocky Mountains, with estimates of critical load revealing high-elevation sites are most vulnerable to the impacts of elevated N deposition, several of which have already been reached (Baron et al. 2011; Nanus et al. 2012). However, P deposition is frequently overlooked, though changes in alpine algal assemblages have been linked to P deposition (Brahney et al. 2014; Brahney et al. 2015).

Atmospheric deposition of nutrients over the Canadian Rockies remains largely unknown relative to other parts of the industrialized world. However, lakes in the Canadian Rockies are generally situated in less developed areas than those in Norway, Sweden and the Colorado Sierra Nevada where high rates of N deposition have been recorded (Elser et al. 2009). There is a likelihood that N and P deposition rates will increase, due to growing populations, continued use of fossil fuels and greater agricultural pressure, and a predicted increase in frequency and extent of wildfires in western Canada due to climate change (Wang et al. 2017). This provides an opportunity to assess the potential sensitivity of lakes to nutrient deposition over the Canadian Rockies, a region that is assumed to be relatively unimpacted thus far by atmospheric deposition of N and P. Here, previous research on alpine ponds showed that their low DIN:TP mass ratios (McMaster and Schindler 2005; Murphy et al. 2010) are indicative of the algal communities being highly responsive to experimental additions of N (Vinebrooke et al. 2014), making these ecosystems potentially very sensitive to future increases in N deposition.

### *Anticipated Changes Associated with Warming*

Characterized by colder temperatures, long periods of ice and snow cover, hydrology dominated by snow and glacier melt and frequently chemically dilute, mountain lakes are especially vulnerable to climate-driven events (Catalan et al. 2013). Alpine sites are warming at a faster rate due to elevation dependent warming (Wang et al. 2014; Pepin et al. 2015; Palazzi et al. 2019). Warmer air temperatures have several effects on lakes including warmer surface temperatures, longer ice-free seasons, earlier snowmelt, changes in snowpack and continued melting of glaciers (Thompson et al. 2005; Clow 2010; Fountain et al. 2012; Huss et al. 2017). Preston et al. (2016) presented long-term ice-off data for seven Colorado alpine lakes revealing that ice-off dates were seven days earlier over the 33-year span of the study, and the length of the ice-free season is projected to lengthen further (Roberts et al. 2017). A

longer ice-free season could result in increases in primary productivity (Vinebrooke et al. 2010). The timing of snowmelt is shifting as well. Clow (2010) found that over a 29-year span peak snowmelt shifted 2-3 weeks earlier in the Colorado Rockies. Nutrients often accumulate in the snowpack, and lakes receive a nutrient pulse when snowmelt begins after winter (Fountain et al. 2012). The timing of snowmelt can also affect other in-lake processes, affecting lake hydrology and phytoplankton biomass (Huss et al. 2017; Sadro et al. 2018). Responses associated with climate change could also result in the advancement of treelines, which could contribute to brownification of nearby lakes through increased terrestrial loading of coloured allochthonous DOC (Vinebrooke and Leavitt 1998).

Glaciers continue to recede, currently at accelerated rates (Fountain et al. 2012) with predictions of a 90% loss by 2100 in the Canadian Rockies (Clarke et al. 2015). Glaciers can be a source of pollutants such as organochlorine (Blais et al. 2001), or nutrients like nitrogen and DOC when lakes are glacially-fed (Slemmons et al. 2013; Li et al. 2018; Colombo et al. 2019). In studies in the US Rocky Mountains, nitrate concentrations were 40 times greater in glacially fed lakes and experienced greater primary productivity compared to snowpack-fed lakes (Slemmons and Saros 2012; Slemmons et al. 2017). The high N content in the meltwater was attributed to previously deposited and stored nutrients (Slemmons and Saros 2012). However, the nitrate content can vary regionally due to differences in N deposition, geology or climate. A study in the North Cascades found no positive relationship between glacier area and lake nitrate, and no differences in phytoplankton biomass between glacially and non-glacially fed lakes (Williams et al. 2016).

The phytoplankton response to glacial melting can also result from changes in turbidity. Glacier meltwater contains a high concentration of suspended minerals, termed glacial flour, which increases lake turbidity thereby reducing light availability (Sommaruga 2015). Vinebrooke et al. (2010) found in a paleolimnological study in the Canadian Rockies that when an alpine lake was glacially fed, primary productivity was reduced owing to the colder temperatures and reduced light. Primary productivity

increased following the ablation of the glacier (Vinebrooke et al. 2010). Therefore, the effects of melting glaciers are complex, with varying factors involving geology, soil and vegetation cover, glacial flour content and historic nutrient deposition.

### *Value of Pond Studies*

Much of our understanding of the effects of climate change have come from deeper waterbodies, however smaller and shallower waterbodies (< 5 m; hereafter referred to as 'ponds'), may respond differently to the effects of climate change. The shallow nature allows UV light to penetrate to the bottom sediment which could favour more UV tolerant taxa. Additionally, they are polymictic and strong mountain winds can result in complete mixing, potentially releasing stored nutrients from the sediment (Orihel et al. 2015). Ponds also respond readily to changes in temperature and precipitation because the lower volume does not as effectively dilute deposited nutrients compared to large lakes (McMaster 2003). The importance of pond studies is also reinforced by their pervasiveness, as they make up more area globally than lakes (Downing 2010), and in Banff National Park alone there are over 3000 alpine ponds (McMaster and Schindler 2005).

### **Conclusion**

Mountain lakes are sentinels of change, and phytoplankton respond rapidly to even subtle changes. Conducting a large-scale survey of mountain lakes offers an opportunity to investigate the potential of phytoplankton communities to serve as bioindicators of ecological impacts of various local and regional environmental changes on their phytoplankton. There are several predicted changes associated with climate change for mountain lake ecosystems, including enhanced external deposition of nutrients,

alterations on snowmelt timing, changes in DOC concentration, increased glacier melting, and longer ice-free seasons with higher lake temperatures. Several factors may have negative effects, leading to enhanced algal growth or changes to phytoplankton communities, potentially deteriorating headwaters which is particularly concerning given the importance of water originating in the mountains. The question also remains whether deeper water bodies will respond differently than shallow ponds to changes in climate and anthropogenic effects such as enhanced nutrient deposition.

### **Main Research Objectives:**

- 1) Determine if alpine lakes versus ponds differ in their sensitivity to N or P deposition (Chapter 2).
- 2) Investigate how well chemically inferred and experimental nutrient enrichment experiments agree in their conclusions of nutrient limitation (Chapter 2).
- 3) Identify the best set of measured environmental variables explaining the variation in phytoplankton abundance and community composition across an elevational gradient which consists of 82 mountain lakes and ponds in the Canadian Rockies (Chapter 3).
- 4) Determine if the limiting nutrient within alpine lakes and ponds in the Eastern Front range of the Canadian Rockies in 2018 has shifted after ten years of nutrient deposition (Chapter 3).

To achieve the first two objectives, 29 alpine lakes and ponds were previously surveyed in 2008 for water chemistry and phytoplankton communities, which were each assayed *in vitro* for nutrient limitation using crossed factorial (N × P) experiments. After a 12-day incubation in the growth chamber, the concentrated pigments from each vial were extracted using high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) for pigment analysis. I then analyzed the HPLC chromatograms and used one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine the limitation type for each site. These results were compared to inferred limitation types using the DIN:TP mass ratios which categorize N-, co- or P-

limitation dependent on known thresholds. To determine if lakes and ponds differ in their sensitivity to N versus P a linear regression analysis of depth and DIN:TP mass ratio was performed.

To achieve the third objective, we surveyed 82 mountain lakes within 5 national parks in the Canadian Rockies in 2017 and 2018. At each site, an integrated water sample was taken for later chemical analysis of key nutrients, 1000 mL was filtered to concentrate phytoplankton for later HPLC analysis, and physical factors were measured *in situ* from the deepest point of each lake. With the catchment, chemical and physical data from each lake and phytoplankton community data from HPLC analysis, a redundancy analysis (RDA) and ordination were used to determine the key drivers of the phytoplankton communities.

To achieve the fourth objective, N × P enrichment bioassays were performed from a subset of 14 alpine lakes from the 82-lake survey. Following the same methodology as in 2008, the form of nutrient limitation was determined, and the overall limiting nutrient for the Eastern Front ranges of the Canadian Rockies was compared to the results from Chapter 2.

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## Chapter 2 : Concordance of chemically inferred and assayed nutrient limitation of phytoplankton along a depth gradient of alpine lakes in the Canadian Rockies

### Introduction

Remote alpine environments are relatively free of local anthropogenic perturbations, making them ideal indicators of the potential impacts of regional events, such as atmospheric wet and dry deposition of pollutants (Williamson et al. 2009; Mladenov et al. 2012; Brahney et al. 2015). Alpine lakes have relatively species-poor food webs, sparse surrounding vegetation, cold temperatures, short growing seasons and dilute nutrient concentrations (Clow and Sueker 2000; Sickman et al. 2003; Vinebrooke and Leavitt 2005; Elser et al. 2009; Bergström et al. 2013). Thus, alpine lakes are expected to be highly responsive to anthropogenic nutrient deposition as it is not readily retained within the surrounding barren landscape (Nanus et al. 2012), prompting concern over the deterioration of water quality, particularly given the prevalence of synergistic responses by freshwater phytoplankton to combined amendments of nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P; Elser et al. 2007). Although most research has focused on the net effects of N and P on phytoplankton in alpine lakes (e.g. Maberly et al. 2002; Williams et al. 2016; Jacquemin et al. 2018), a knowledge gap exists involving shallower or smaller lentic systems despite these being globally the most abundant type of inland water body (Downing et al. 2006; but see Vinebrooke et al. 2014).

Anthropogenic burning of fossil fuels and use of agricultural fertilizers has greatly increased release of N into the atmosphere, elevating rates of wet N deposition, contained in precipitation, over remote alpine areas (Wolfe et al. 2001; Fenn et al. 2003). The impacts of N deposition in mountain lakes have been monitored more closely in recent years (Elser et al. 2009; Baron et al. 2011; Pardo et al. 2011; Nanus et al. 2012). N deposition has been linked to changes in water chemistry and algal communities,

and therefore, also potential deterioration of water quality in high-elevation lakes (Fenn et al. 2003; Sickman et al. 2003; Wolfe et al. 2003). High rates of deposition leading to N-saturation have also been shown to shift phytoplankton from being N- to P-limited (Fenn et al. 2003; Bergström et al. 2008; Elser et al. 2009).

However, the impacts of atmospheric P deposition on alpine lakes have been relatively overlooked compared to those by N deposition. Although mass deposition of P is less than N, the impact of P deposition per unit on lake stoichiometry can be sixteen times greater than that of N deposition (Brahney et al. 2015). Dry deposition of P from aeolian dust has altered nutrient limitation of alpine phytoplankton in the Sierra Nevada Mountains of California (Sickman et al. 2003) and in the Spanish Pyrenees (Camarero and Catalan 2012). Further, P can be deposited as ash as a by-product of fires (Zhang et al. 2002; Brahney et al. 2015), which are predicted to increase in the number of active burning days (Wang et al. 2015). A greater than 50% increase in the number of fire spread days is predicted over the next century in Western Canada (Wang et al. 2017).

N and P are key factors that can limit the growth of freshwater phytoplankton (Reynolds 2006). Dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) often functions as the metric for the bioavailability of N to algae because direct uptake of larger forms of organically bound N is not possible. Total phosphorus (TP) is frequently used because all chemical species of phosphorus are potentially bioavailable, as hydrolytic enzymes (phosphatases) can release phosphorus bound to organic complexes (Bergström 2010). Also, because the DIN:TP responds more directly to atmospheric N deposition than does total N (TN; Bergström 2010), it is a better predictor of nutrient limitation than TN:TP in assessing the effects of nutrient deposition (Morris and Lewis 1988; Bergström 2010). In general, a low DIN:TP predicts N-limitation while high ratios predict P-limitation. We use the thresholds put forth by Morris and Lewis (1988) where DIN:TP mass ratios  $< 0.5$  are predicted to be N-limited,  $> 4$  predicted to be P-limited, and ratios within the range to be co-limited. These thresholds have been frequently used to infer nutrient

limitation in mountain lakes in the Canadian Rockies (McMaster and Schindler 2005; Murphy et al. 2010), in the United States Sierra Nevada lakes (Sickman et al. 2003; Sadro et al. 2012; Heard and Sickman 2016), La Caldera high elevation lake in Spain (Medina-Sánchez et al. 2004; García-Jurado et al. 2012). Other threshold values have also been proposed (Bergström 2010; Williams et al. 2017) to infer nutrient limitation and to assess the impacts of atmospheric N deposition (Saros et al. 2010; Baron et al. 2011; Crowley et al. 2012; Jacquemin et al. 2018).

N and P deposition may also alter the community composition of phytoplankton due to differential responses by major algal groups (Reynolds 2006) and species (Sommer 1984) to nutrient availability. For example, N deposition may eliminate the competitive advantage that nitrogen-fixing cyanobacteria otherwise have over other algae under N-limited conditions. Conversely, P deposition may favour diazotrophic cyanobacteria if iron availability and temperature are not limiting (Bergström et al. 2013). Further, P deposition can benefit larger celled chlorophycean species that have greater storage capacity for P, which enables them to dominate certain phytoplankton communities as nutrient concentrations become more dilute during the late summer (Cottingham et al. 1988; Gardner et al. 2008; Teufel et al. 2017; Jacquemin et al. 2018).

The primary objective of this study was to determine how well chemically inferred and experimental lines of evidence of nutrient limitation of phytoplankton support each other along a gradient of deep to shallow lakes situated along the Eastern Front range of the Canadian Rockies. We hypothesized that nutrient limitation of phytoplankton shifts from P- to N-driven with declining water depth based on evidence of shallow and small alpine lakes in the study area having relatively low DIN:TP mass ratios together with N amendments stimulating growth of their phytoplankton and phytobenthos (McMaster 2003; McMaster and Schindler 2005; Murphy et al. 2010; Vinebrooke et al. 2014). Here, the lower water volume would dilute internal loading of P from sediments less than larger mountain lakes, resulting in shallower and smaller waterbodies (i.e. ponds) containing relatively higher concentrations of

P (Vinebrooke et al. 2014). We also expected some evidence of nutrient co-limitation to occur at intermediate DIN:TP mass ratios (0.5 – 4.0) based on meta-analyses showing its prevalence in freshwater ecosystems (Elser et al. 2007; Harpole et al. 2011). Two-factor N × P enrichment bioassays were previously conducted in 2008, where I then analyzed the data to determine the nutrient limitation for 29 lentic ecosystems in this region because these lakes remain relatively understudied for ecological sensitivity to anthropogenic nutrient deposition.

## **Methods**

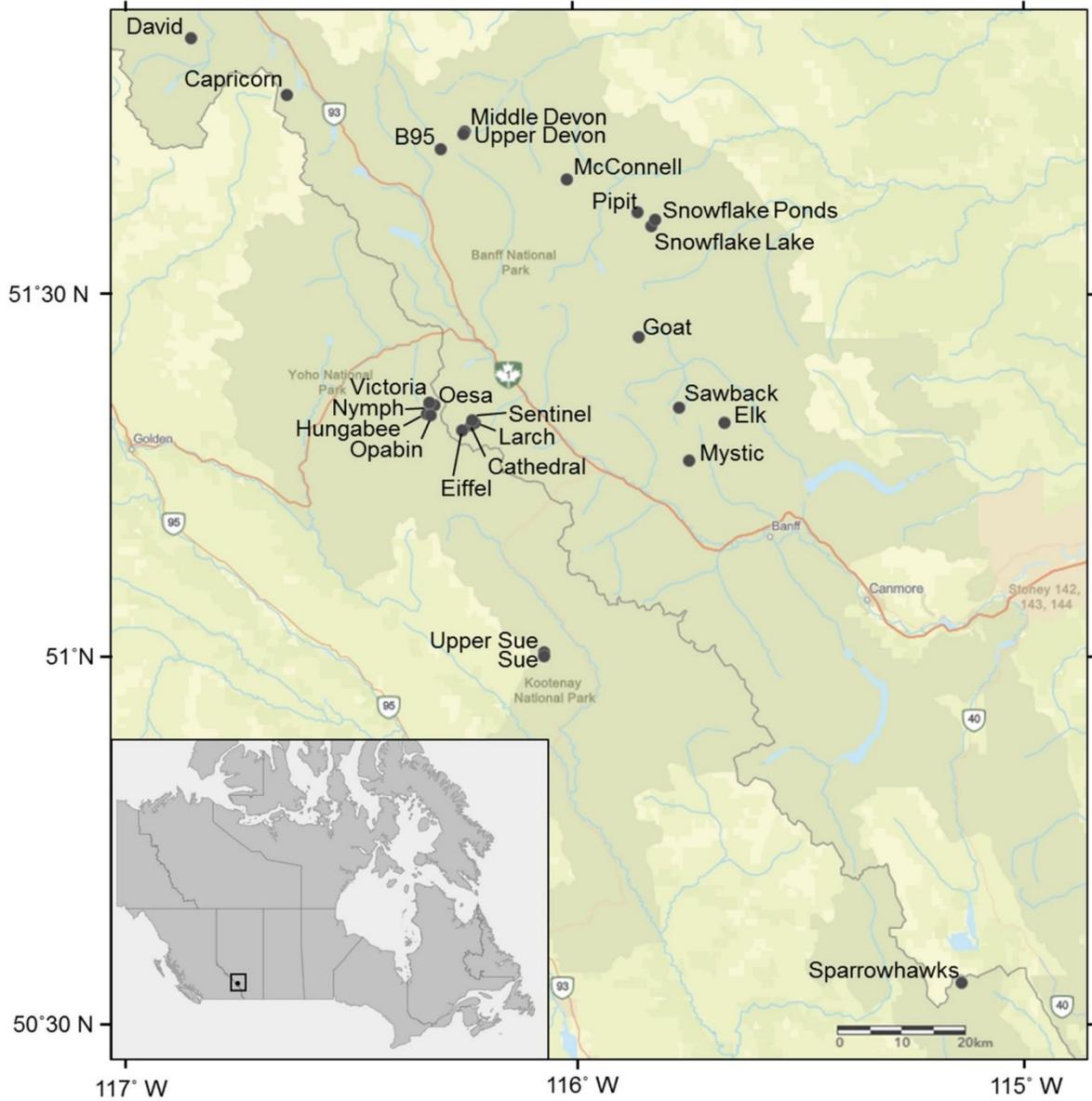
### *Field Survey*

The alpine study area was located along the Eastern Front range of the Canadian Rockies in Banff National Park (Figure 2.1). Atmospheric N-deposition along the lower foothills east of the Canadian Rockies is an order of magnitude greater than background levels, but still relatively low (~3 kg wet inorganic N ha<sup>-1</sup> year<sup>-1</sup>; Alberta Environment, unpublished data) compared to that reported elsewhere for lower montane areas, which can range from 13-15 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> (Kopáček et al. 2000). Nevertheless, elevated atmospheric N-deposition at lower elevations in the Canadian Rockies highlighted the potential for phytoplankton in the remote alpine backcountry to be affected by N-saturation similar to those communities in lakes already impacted along the Colorado Front Range (Fenn et al. 2003). The 29 sites (Figure 2.1; Table 2.1) were selected based on their fishless, non-glacial status to avoid potential confounding influences of introduced sportfish and glacial flour on nutrient limitation of the phytoplankton (Murphy et al. 2010). All alpine catchments were covered by sparse sedge and heath vegetation amidst predominantly barren rock fields and outcroppings.

In 2008, lakes were accessed via helicopter and on foot in August, and all sampling conducted from an inflatable Alpacka raft positioned at the middle of the waterbody. Water temperature was recorded at 1 m intervals using a YSI submersible probe. A Secchi disk was used to measure light penetration, and the euphotic zone was calculated as double the Secchi depth (Wetzel and Likens 2000). In cases where the calculated euphotic zone was greater than the depth of the lake, it was reported as equalling the maximum depth. A 2 L capacity Van Dorn bottle was used to collect water from the top, middle and bottom of the euphotic zone at each lake and pooled in a 10 L acid-washed cubitainer. For the shallow (< 2 m depth) sites, water was collected from the surface only. One liter of the collected water was filtered onto a Whatman GF/F (0.7  $\mu\text{m}$ ) filter to concentrate phytoplankton cells. The filter paper was then immediately folded in half, wrapped in aluminum foil, and stored on ice. A 500 mL aliquot of the filtrate and 2 L of unfiltered water were stored in opaque Nalgene containers on ice for later total dissolved nutrient analysis and total nutrient analysis, respectively. The remaining water from the pooled water sample was passed through a 64  $\mu\text{m}$  stainless steel sieve to remove any large-bodied crustacean zooplankton, and the water was transported via helicopter and truck in 2 L capacity, acid-washed Nalgene containers on ice in a cooler for bioassays within three days of sample collection.

Chemical analyses of total and dissolved nutrients in collected water samples were performed at the University of Alberta Biogeochemical Analytical Service Laboratory using their nationally certified protocols (URL: [www.biology.ualberta.ca/basl](http://www.biology.ualberta.ca/basl)). A Lachat Quikchem 8500 FIA automated ion analyzer was used to measure the total nitrogen (TN), total dissolved nitrogen (TDN), ammonia ( $\text{NH}_4$ ), and nitrate/nitrite ( $\text{NO}_3 + \text{NO}_2$ ) with detection limits of 7, 7, 2, and 1  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  respectively. Dissolved organic carbon was measured with a Shimadzu 5000A TOC Analyzer with a detection limit of 0.1  $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ . Particulate nitrogen (PN) was measured with an Exeter 440 CHN analyzer. Total phosphorus (TP) and total dissolved phosphorus (TDP) were measured using a Lachat Quikchem 8500 multichannel flow analyzer

with a detection limit of  $1 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ . The mass of dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) and total phosphorus (TP) in  $\mu\text{g}$  were used to calculate the DIN:TP mass ratio.



**Figure 2.1** Map of the alpine study locations in the Canadian Rocky Mountains.

**Table 2.1** Chemical and physical variables for the 29 alpine sites surveyed along the Eastern Front range of the Canadian Rockies.

Site	Latitude	Longitude	Elevation (m)	Area (m <sup>2</sup> )	Depth (m)	TN (µg L <sup>-1</sup> )	NH <sub>4</sub> (µg L <sup>-1</sup> )
B95	51.701954	-116.288943	2400	25300	12.5	249	2
Capricorn	51.772085	-116.626776	2371	327826	8	205	2
Cathedral P	51.328493	-116.225367	2100	38000	1	272	10
David	51.848027	-116.830934	2200	37991	22	170	2
Eiffel	51.32117273	-116.2437963	2300	17142	9.3	121	4
Elk	51.330862	-115.6715	2200	6713	5.8	168	26
Goat	51.44707864	-115.8592225	2438	329427	43	165	9
Hungabee	51.34339722	-116.319354	2100	6230	4	195	8
Larch P	51.3307324	-116.2152474	2393	745	1	139	2
McConnell	51.661813	-116.015577	2390	883	28	178	10
Middle Devon	51.725054	-116.237033	2200	18700	24.1	218	2
Mystic	51.278927	-115.749225	2047	2676	9	102	18
Nymph P	51.356942	-116.314086	2350	231	1	129	2
Oesa	51.35469396	-116.3029872	2285	88450	32	164	8
Opabin	51.34079116	-116.3119414	2234	10200	12.5	163	3
Pipit	51.61721449	-115.8625882	2217	7426	26	185	2
Sawback	51.350941	-115.770141	2045	1725	19.5	142	16
Sentinel	51.33472579	-116.2207633	2423	4053	4	133	4
Snowflake L	51.59860432	-115.8327036	2320	38400	18.5	149	11
Snowflake P 1	51.604497	-115.819594	2290	862	1	789	25
Snowflake P 2	51.599223	-115.815983	2290	191	0.5	307	48
Snowflake P 3	51.597043	-115.807467	2290	151	0.3	319	28
Snowflake P 4	51.602144	-115.799605	2290	NA	1	956	2
Sparrowhawk 1	50.919636	-115.2272085	2698	1953	6.7	40	2
Sparrowhawk 2	50.918612	-115.271142	2649	NA	4.8	447	14
Sue	51.01718	-116.065371	2371	2327	29.5	230	2
Upper Devon	51.722284	-116.241338	2200	444246	24	174	24
Upper Sue	51.012392	-116.066022	2438	57500	4.1	146	2
Victoria	51.35830299	-116.3141925	2225	5750	2.6	199	7

Table 2.1 (continued)

Site	NO <sub>2</sub> +NO <sub>3</sub> (µg L <sup>-1</sup> )	TDN (µg L <sup>-1</sup> )	PN (µg L <sup>-1</sup> )	TP (µg L <sup>-1</sup> )	TDP (µg L <sup>-1</sup> )	DOC (mg L <sup>-1</sup> )	DIN:TP	Total Chl (µg L <sup>-1</sup> )
<b>B95</b>	89	209	12	8	4	0.3	11.1	1.4
<b>Capricorn</b>	1	152	9	9	8	0.7	0.3	0.2
<b>Cathedral P</b>	2	215	134	15	3	2.9	0.8	0.2
<b>David</b>	1	130	3	6	2	0.8	0.5	0.3
<b>Eiffel</b>	53	15	43	9	3	0.9	6.3	0.3
<b>Elk</b>	6	69	48	9	6	1	3.6	0.3
<b>Goat</b>	64	63	12	4	4	1	18.3	0.3
<b>Hungabee</b>	15	95	13	3	1	0.8	7.7	0.7
<b>Larch P</b>	66	82	1	5	3	0.5	22	0.2
<b>McConnell</b>	95	82	28	7	3	1.2	15	0.9
<b>Middle Devon</b>	85	213	8	11	3	0.5	7.7	1.2
<b>Mystic</b>	7	110	18	4	3	1.8	6.3	0.4
<b>Nymph P</b>	109	132	16	4	1	0.5	27.2	0.9
<b>Oesa</b>	103	64	20	3	1	0.2	37	0.4
<b>Opabin</b>	41	91	33	4	1	0.3	11	0.2
<b>Pipit</b>	95	96	18	4	1	0.6	23.8	0.3
<b>Sawback</b>	18	73	32	5	2	1.3	6.8	2
<b>Sentinel</b>	36	68	22	6	1	1.3	6.7	0.6
<b>Snowflake L</b>	71	77	33	7	2	0.8	11.7	0.9
<b>Snowflake P 1</b>	6	766	87	42	31	12	0.7	0.7
<b>Snowflake P 2</b>	6	316	61	25	18	6.6	2.2	2.3
<b>Snowflake P 3</b>	5	359	119	20	14	6.1	1.7	0.7
<b>Snowflake P 4</b>	4	890	285	72	55	13.5	0.1	2
<b>Sparrowhawk 1</b>	74	89	76	28	3	1.8	2.6	1.2
<b>Sparrowhawk 2</b>	331	440	40	24	4	0.8	13.8	0.4
<b>Sue</b>	65	65	9	4	4	0.8	16.3	2.7
<b>Upper Devon</b>	14	154	1	4	3	0.5	12.7	2
<b>Upper Sue</b>	1	45	37	2	1	0.8	1.5	1.4
<b>Victoria</b>	102	114	6	1	1	0.2	109	0.1

Abbreviations are total nitrogen (TN), total dissolved nitrogen (TDN), particulate nitrogen (PN), total phosphorus (TP), total dissolved phosphorus (TDP), dissolved organic carbon (DOC), dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN). NA represents data were not available. In cases where concentrations were below detection limits, the detection limit was reported.

### *Nutrient Enrichment Bioassays*

To determine the type of nutrient limitation, in 2008, a two-factor (N × P) bioassay was performed in triplicate (n=3) for a total of 12 culture vessels for each of the 29 sites sampled in August. The sieved water was shaken and then transferred into 250 mL vented culture vessels (Corning, USA). Nitrogen additions consisted of 1 mg L<sup>-1</sup> of N with ammonium nitrate while phosphorus additions involved 30 µg L<sup>-1</sup> of P with phosphoric acid. Concentrations of nutrients were chosen to double ambient nutrient concentrations. In addition, an equal volume of double deionized water was added to the controls to account for any dilution effect. Hereafter, the four treatment groups will be referred to as C for the control, N for the nitrogen-only, P for the phosphorus-only, and NP for nitrogen combined with phosphorus. Vessels were maintained in a growth chamber (12:12 hour light/dark cycle) at 12°C for 12 days at an illuminance of 4100 lx using Phillips 44 watts fluorescent lights. Light levels in the growth chamber represented 10% of the solar irradiance, which approximates the light levels near the bottom of the euphotic zone. All vessels were shaken vigorously and repositioned randomly every three days. Logistical constraints involving delivery of water samples for bioassays necessitated a 12-day incubation period after which they were harvested for analysis of phytoplankton pigments by shaking the vessels for 30 seconds and filtering 150 mL onto Whatman GF/F filters. Concentrations of chlorophylls and taxonomically diagnostic xanthophylls (Jeffrey et al. 2005), described below, were determined using high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) based on the protocol reported by Vinebrooke and Leavitt (1999). All the nutrient enrichment bioassays and HPLC analyses were performed in 2008.

### *Statistical Analysis*

Using the previously derived pigment concentrations for each nutrient bioassay, I then used two statistical approaches to characterize the nature of nutrient limitation of the pigment-inferred response

by the whole phytoplankton community and its major taxonomic groups. Here, chlorophyll *a* was used as a proxy for total phytoplankton community biomass while taxonomically diagnostic pigments were used to estimate the abundance of major algal groups (Vinebrooke and Leavitt 1999; Jeffrey et al. 2005). Specifically, chromophytes were represented by the sum of the representative pigments fucoxanthin, diadinoxanthin, and diatoxanthin. The abundance of chlorophytes was inferred based on the sum of chlorophyll *b*, violaxanthin, neoxanthin, and lutein. Alloxanthin was the representative pigment of cryptophytes. Cyanobacterial abundance was estimated based on the sum of zeaxanthin and canthaxanthin concentrations. First, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed on the log-transformed pigment data with Tukey's honest significance difference (HSD) post-hoc test to determine the effects of N and P. Levene's test was used to test the assumption of homogeneity for ANOVA. In cases where the assumption of homogeneity was violated, the Welch's ANOVA with Games-Howell post-hoc test was used. Next, the relative responses (RR) of the entire phytoplankton community and each of its four detected algal groups (chromophytes, chlorophytes, cryptophytes and cyanobacteria) were calculated to normalize the mean pigment response to each of three nutrient amendments (N only, P only, and N plus P) relative to the mean of controls.

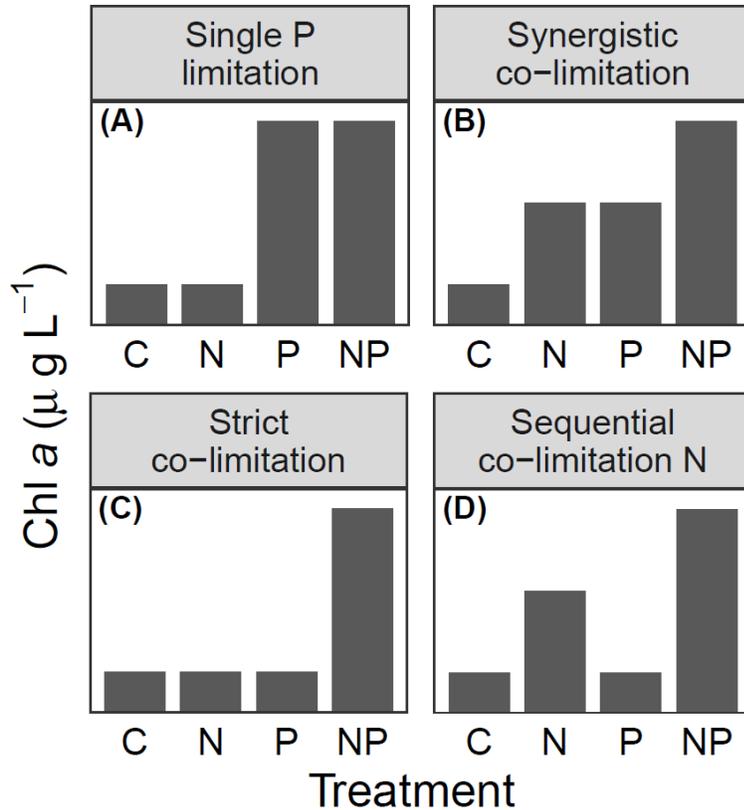
$$RR = \left( \frac{\text{Pigment}_X}{\text{Pigment}_C} \right) \quad (1)$$

where "Pigment" refers to the concentrations of a specific algal group, and the subscript *X* refers to the N, P, or NP treatment while *C* is the control. Relative responses to the three nutrient amendments were compared using *t*-tests, with a Bonferroni correction, to identify significant differences in response to nutrient additions and to identify how each pigment group differentially responded to nutrient additions. Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS Version 23 with a significance level of  $P < 0.05$ .

The pigment-based statistical results were used to classify the evidence from the bioassays into the various types of nutrient limitation according to Elser et al. (2009) and Slemmons and Saros (2012).

The response was classed as “no response” if there were no significant responses. In cases of a significant response of N or P greater than the control and no significant difference from the NP treatment, it was deemed “single ( $X$ ) limited” where  $X$  represents N or P (Figure 2.2a). In cases where both N and P were greater than the control and not significantly different from the NP treatment, the response was classed as “additive dual nutrient limitation”. When both N and P showed significant differences from the control and NP showed a greater significant response than N and P, the response was labelled “synergistic co-limitation” (Figure 2.2b). When the response was only significant when N and P were added together the response was “strict co-limitation” (Figure 2.2c). In cases where only one single nutrient ( $X$ ) was significantly greater than the control, and NP was significantly greater than the response to  $X$  alone, the limitation type was labelled “sequential co-limitation ( $X$ )” where  $X$  is designated as being the primary limiting nutrient (e.g. Elser et al. 2009). For example, in Figure 2.2d, the response of  $Chl_P$  is not significant,  $Chl_N$  is greater than the control, and combined  $Chl_{NP}$  shows the greatest response, indicating a form of primary N-limitation.

The DIN:TP mass ratio and bioassay results for each site were then compared to determine the degree of concordance between chemically inferred and experimentally determined types of nutrient limitation. Here, DIN:TP ratios were compared to expected threshold values proposed by Morris and Lewis (1988) as a basis for inferring the type of nutrient limitation. To enable a clear comparison between the limitation types with the DIN:TP mass ratio predictions, communities classified as single N and sequential co-limitation N were labelled N-limited. Similarly, single P and sequential co-limitation P were grouped as P-limited. Strict co-limitation, synergistic co-limitation and dual limitation were grouped as co-limited. A chi-square goodness of fit test was used to determine if the concordance with the limitation thresholds was significant. Lastly, DIN:TP was related to waterbody depth using regression analysis to determine if the nature of inferred nutrient limitation was a function of waterbody depth (e.g. Murphy et al. 2010).



**Figure 2.2** An illustration of possible forms of nutrient limitation as defined by Elser et al. (2009). **a** Single P-limitation: a response only to one of the single nutrients. **b** Synergistic co-limitation: a response to both N and P alone, and a greater response when combined. **c** Strict co-limitation: a response only when NP are both added. **d** Sequential co-limitation N: a direct response to N and a greater response to the NP treatment (i.e. a form of primary N-limitation). Limitation types not depicted are dual nutrient limitation: a significant response to N and P alone with no response to NP, and no response: no treatment responses being significantly different from the control.

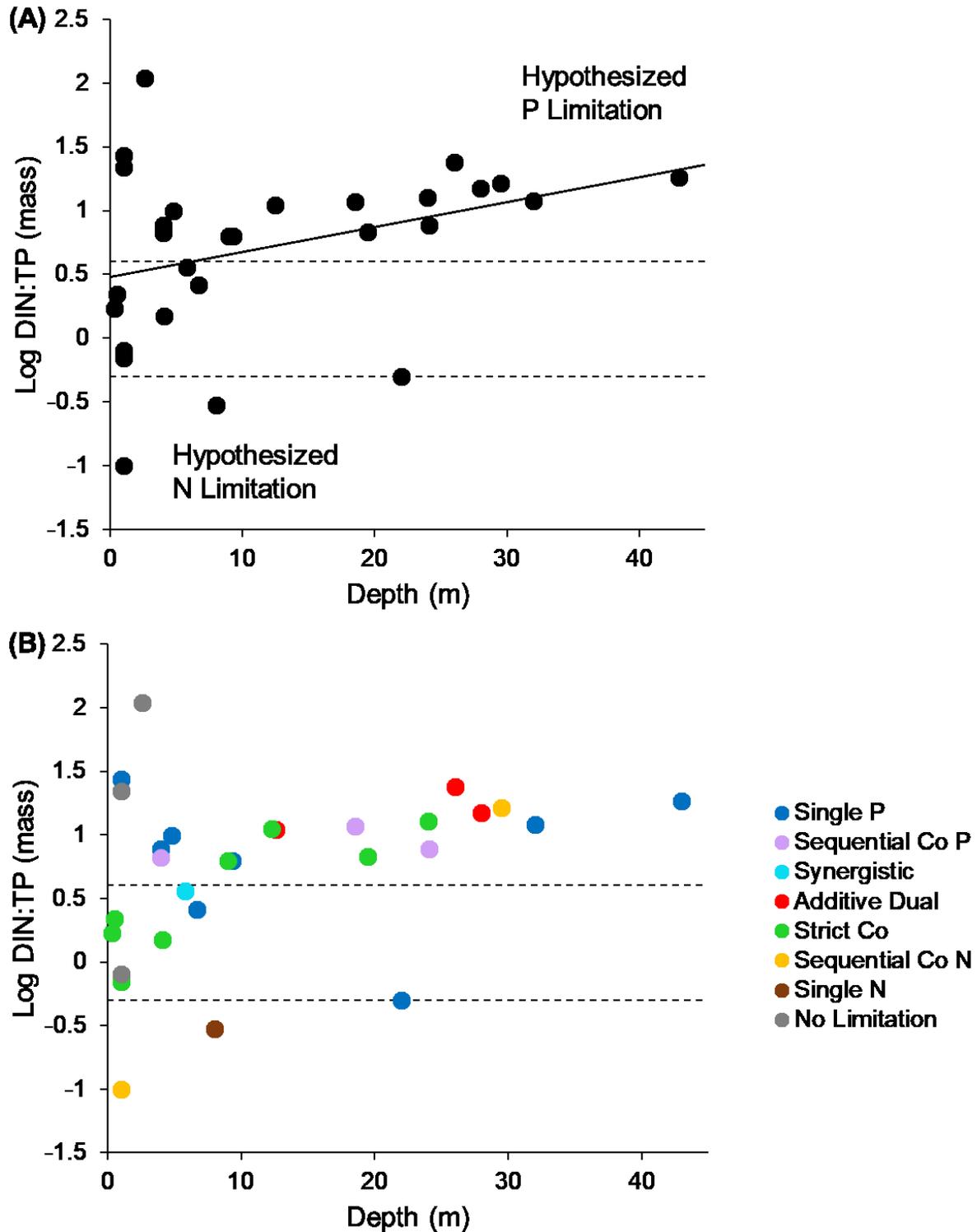
## Results

The measured chemical and physical variables varied considerably among the 29 alpine study sites (Table 2.1).  $\text{NO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$  ranged from 1 to 331  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  and the DIN:TP ranged from 0.1 to 109. The majority of sites had relatively low TP ( $< 10 \mu\text{g}^{-1}$ ) and DOC ( $< 2 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ). All sites also contained low total chlorophyll concentrations ( $< 3 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ), confirming their ultraoligotrophic status. Shallower lake depth was a weak predictor of lower DIN:TP mass ratios (Figure 2.3a;  $R^2 = 0.112$ ,  $F_{1,28} = 3.747$ ,  $P = 0.063$ ).

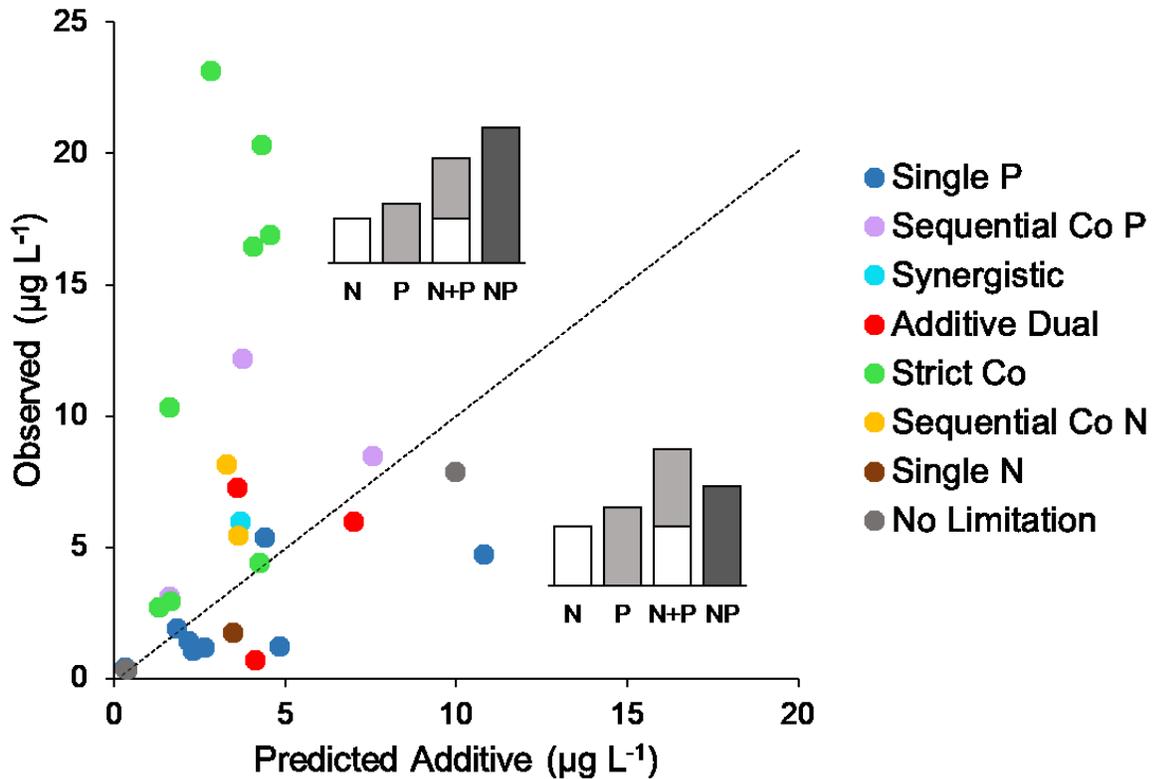
Phytoplankton communities in most sites were hypothesized to be P-limited while only a few shallower ( $< 5 \text{ m}$  deep) sites were expected to be responsive to N based on the DIN:TP mass ratio thresholds of N-limitation ( $< 0.5$ ) and P-limitation ( $> 4$ ) inferred by Morris and Lewis (1988; Table 2.1). However, chemical inferences and bioassays of nutrient limitation agreed in only 16 out of the 29 cases (55%; Figure 2.3b), with a chi-square test revealing the concordance was not significant ( $\chi^2 = 1.375$ ,  $\text{df} = 2$ ,  $P = 0.503$ ). Nine of 19 sites with DIN:TP mass ratios pointing to P-limitation (i.e.  $> 4$ ) were supported by bioassays showing the same result (47% concordance). However, the DIN:TP ratios did not consistently predict bioassay results of NP co-limitation. Specifically, while DIN:TP ratios in the range of 0.5 – 4.0 were supported by bioassays showing NP co-limitation in five out of seven cases (71% concordance), seven other cases of inferred P-limitation (i.e.  $\text{DIN:TP} > 4$ ) failed to predict the assayed evidence for NP co-limitation (Figure 2.3b). Relatively shallow ( $< 5 \text{ m}$  depth) waterbodies made up 12 of the 29 bioassays. One of these sites showed N-limitation, supporting the chemical inference of these sites being more responsive to N than P. However, bioassays for the other relatively shallow sites showed a variety of responses involving primary P-limitation and strict co-limitation. Two of three sites having DIN:TP mass ratios below 0.5 also showed experimental evidence of N-limitation (67% concordance).

The combined effect of N and P on the chlorophyll *a* concentration was most often synergistic, exceeding the sum of the individual effects of the two nutrients (Figure 2.4; Table 2.2). In all cases of co-limitation, strict co-limitation was the most common form across the study area. Twelve of 29 sites were NP co-limited, with eight communities strictly co-limited, one instance classified as synergistic co-limitation, and three communities showing additive dual limitation. P-limitation was the second most common occurring in 11 of 29 sites. Eight communities were single P-limited and three showed primary P-limitation (sequential co-limitation P). Three of 29 sites were N-limited with two sites showing primary N-limitation (sequential co-limitation N) and only one instance of single N-limitation. Lastly, there were three cases of no chlorophyll response to either N or P amendments.

In most cases, the four major algal groups and chlorophyll *a* responded similarly to the nutrient treatments (Figure 2.5). Chlorophyll *a*, chromophytes and chlorophytes all showed significant relative responses to P alone ( $P = 0.0039$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ,  $P = 0.0018$ , respectively) that did not differ significantly from their responses to the NP treatment; thereby, indicating strict P-limitation. In comparison, responses by cyanobacteria and cryptophytes to all nutrient treatment combinations were statistically non-significant. However, when considering the response of the algal groups for each site separately, the limitation type varies considerably (Table 2.3). Differences in chlorophyll *a* concentrations among the nutrient amendments matched those for taxonomically diagnostic pigments in 19 cases (66%) for chromophytes, 16 cases (55%) for chlorophytes, six cases for cryptophytes, and five cases for cyanobacteria.



**Figure 2.3** The relationship between maximum depth (m) and DIN:TP ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) for the alpine study sites with the defined nutrient limitation categories. The dotted lines represent predicted DIN:TP mass ratios for N- and P-limitation (Morris and Lewis 1988). **a** shows the predicted limitations and **b** the bioassay results. The solid line indicates a linear trendline.



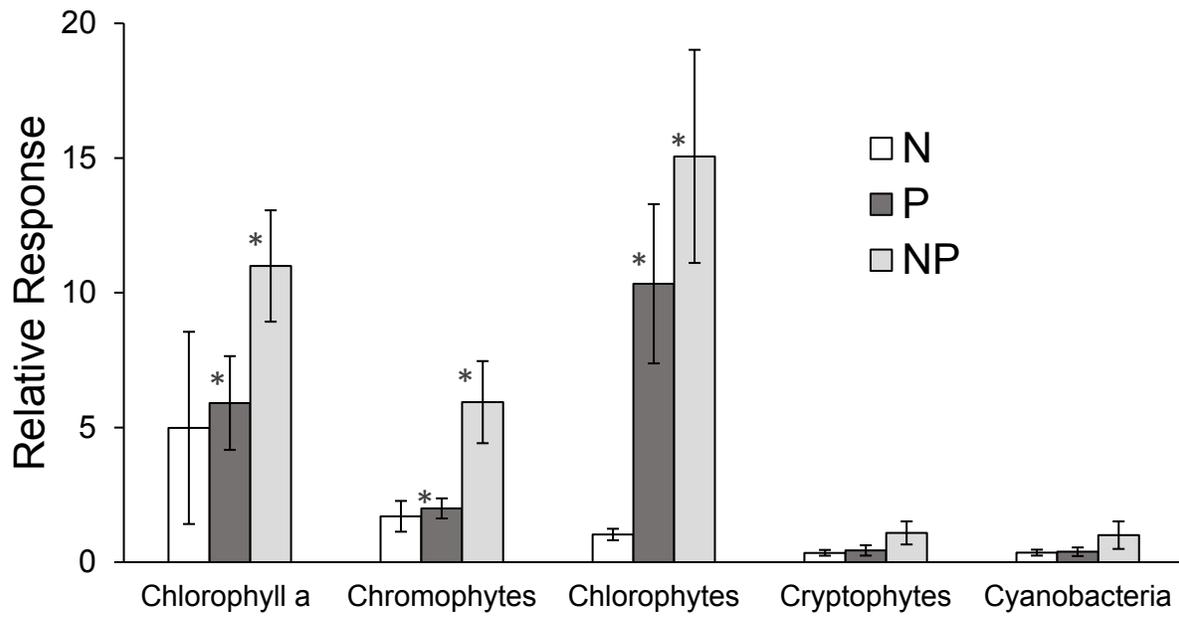
**Figure 2.4** The predicted versus observed mean response of chlorophyll *a*. Predicted additive represents the sum of individual chlorophyll *a* responses to N and P treatments while the observed is the actual chlorophyll *a* response to the NP treatment. Dashed line represents 1:1 relationship. Each data point represents the bioassay results from individual study sites (n=29). Points above the dashed line illustrate a synergistic response where the response to NP is greater than the additive response of the single N and P treatments, demonstrated by the upper inset graph. The alternative scenario is demonstrated by the lower inset graph for points below the dashed line.

**Table 2.2** Summary of the phytoplankton responses to enrichment with N, P or combined NP, and the statistical results of the ANOVAs used to determine the nutrient limitation type for the 29 alpine study lakes.

Site	RR-N	RR-P	RR-NP	RR-N/RR-P	P value N effect	P value P effect	P value NP effect	Limitation Type
B95	1.83	2.75	4.80	0.67	0.419	0.091	<b>0.005</b>	Strict Co-limitation
Capricorn	104.80	1.96	53.92	53.34	< <b>0.0001</b>	0.993	< <b>0.0001</b>	Single N
Cathedral P	0.86	1.10	1.55	0.78	0.91	0.977	0.193	No Response
David Lake	0.95	11.50	15.27	0.08	1	< <b>0.0001</b>	< <b>0.0001</b>	Single P
Eiffel	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1	<b>0.046</b>	0.078	Single P
Elk	2.06	1.88	6.42	1.10	< <b>0.0001</b>	< <b>0.0001</b>	< <b>0.0001***</b>	Synergistic Co-limitation
Goat	1.07	11.68	3.25	0.09	0.999	< <b>0.0001</b>	<b>0.003</b>	Single P
Hungabee	1.18	28.73	14.00	0.04	0.444	<b>0.023</b>	<b>0.444</b>	Single P
Larch P	1.18	1.35	2.44	0.87	0.989	0.923	0.108	No Response
McConnell	2.99	10.08	11.22	0.30	<b>0.007</b>	< <b>0.0001</b>	< <b>0.0001</b>	Additive Dual
Middle Devon	1.46	3.56	5.67	0.41	0.053	< <b>0.0001</b>	< <b>0.0001**</b>	Sequential Co-limitation P
Mystic	0.73	3.50	9.02	0.21	0.542	0.392	<b>0.005</b>	Strict Co-limitation
Nymph P	2.67	4.91	7.91	0.54	0.117	<b>0.004</b>	< <b>0.0001</b>	Single P
Oesa	2.10	45.05	31.40	0.05	0.939	< <b>0.0001</b>	< <b>0.0001</b>	Single P
Opabin	3.38	4.48	16.02	0.75	<b>0.016</b>	<b>0.004</b>	<b>0.036</b>	Additive Dual
Pipit	2.00	2.65	0.81	0.76	<b>0.026</b>	<b>0.003</b>	<b>0.832</b>	Additive Dual
Sawback	1.20	1.47	9.95	0.82	0.852	0.446	< <b>0.0001</b>	Strict Co-limitation
Sentinel	0.56	7.17	25.14	0.08	0.161	<b>0.028</b>	< <b>0.0001**</b>	Sequential Co-limitation P
Snowflake Lake	1.58	4.91	12.72	0.32	0.876	<b>0.031</b>	< <b>0.0001**</b>	Sequential Co-limitation P
Snowflake P 1	1.18	1.28	11.69	0.93	0.496	0.232	< <b>0.0001</b>	Strict Co-limitation
Snowflake P 2	1.16	1.35	10.24	0.86	0.659	0.141	< <b>0.0001</b>	Strict Co-limitation
Snowflake P 3	1.15	1.19	19.23	0.97	0.948	0.868	< <b>0.0001</b>	Strict Co-limitation
Snowflake P 4	1.42	0.71	3.22	2.02	<b>0.007</b>	0.017	< <b>0.0001*</b>	Sequential Co-limitation N
Sparrowhawk 1	1.38	5.09	2.97	0.27	0.118	< <b>0.0001</b>	< <b>0.0001</b>	Single P
Sparrowhawk 2	1.02	4.40	2.38	0.23	0.999	<b>0.001</b>	<b>0.041</b>	Single P
Sue	2.20	2.52	11.82	0.87	<b>0.009</b>	0.063	<b>0.009*</b>	Sequential Co-limitation N
Upper Devon	1.19	1.49	17.45	0.80	0.544	0.618	< <b>0.0001</b>	Strict Co-limitation
Upper Sue	0.77	0.85	2.99	0.91	0.325	0.574	<b>0.003</b>	Strict Co-limitation
Victoria	0.45	3.70	5.33	0.12	0.631	0.096	0.594	No Response

RR-N, RR-P, and RR-NP are the response ratios for the three treatments relative to the unamended control. The relative response to N or P is shown as RR-N/RR-P.

\* Denotes the NP treatment was significantly greater than N, \*\* denotes the NP treatment was significantly greater than P, and \*\*\* denotes cases where the NP treatment was significantly greater than both N and P responses. Bolded *P* values are significant ( $P < 0.05$ ) with a positive effect.



**Figure 2.5** The mean relative response (RR) of chlorophyll *a* and four major algal groups (n=29). \* indicates significantly greater than the control. Error bars represent standard error.

**Table 2.3** Nutrient limitation types for chlorophyll *a* and the four main algal groups of the 29 alpine study sites.

<b>Site</b>	<b>Chlorophyll <i>a</i></b>	<b>Chromophytes</b>	<b>Chlorophytes</b>	<b>Cryptophytes</b>	<b>Cyanobacteria</b>
<b>B95</b>	Strict Co	No Response	Sequential Co P	No Response	No Response
<b>Capricorn</b>	Single N	Single N	No Response	No Response	No Response
<b>Cathedral P</b>	No Response	No Response	Sequential Co P	Strict Co	No Response
<b>David</b>	Single P	Single P	Strict Co	Sequential Co P	No Response
<b>Eiffel</b>	Single P	No Response	Single P	No Response	No Response
<b>Elk</b>	Synergistic Co	Sequential Co N	Synergistic Co	Strict Co	No Response
<b>Goat</b>	Single P	Single P	Single P	No Response	No Response
<b>Hungabee</b>	Single P	Single P	Single P	No Response	No Response
<b>Larch Pond</b>	No Response	No Response	No Response	No Response	No Response
<b>McConnell</b>	Additive Dual	Single P	Single P	Strict Co	No Response
<b>Middle Devon</b>	Sequential Co P	Synergistic Co	Sequential Co P	Strict Co	No Response
<b>Mystic</b>	Strict Co	No Response	Strict Co	No Response	No Response
<b>Nymph</b>	Single P	Single N	No Response	No Response	No Response
<b>Oesa</b>	Single P	Single P	Single P	Single P	No Response
<b>Opabin</b>	Additive Dual	Single N	Synergistic Co	No Response	Sequential Co P
<b>Pipit</b>	Additive Dual	No Response	Additive Dual	No Response	No Response
<b>Sawback</b>	Strict Co	Strict Co	No Response	No Response	No Response
<b>Sentinel</b>	Sequential Co P	Sequential Co P	Sequential Co P	No Response	No Response
<b>Snowflake Lake</b>	Sequential Co P	Sequential Co P	Sequential Co P	Strict Co	No Response
<b>Snowflake P 1</b>	Strict Co	Strict Co	Strict Co	No Response	No Response
<b>Snowflake P 2</b>	Strict Co	Strict Co	Strict Co	Strict Co	Single P
<b>Snowflake P 3</b>	Strict Co	Strict Co	Strict Co	Strict Co	No Response
<b>Snowflake P 4</b>	Sequential Co N	Sequential Co N	Strict Co	Synergistic Co	No Response
<b>Sparrowhawk 1</b>	Single P	Single P	Single P	Single P	No Response
<b>Sparrowhawk 2</b>	Single P	Strict Co	Strict Co	No Response	No Response
<b>Sue</b>	Sequential Co N	Sequential Co N	Strict Co	Strict Co-limitation	No Response
<b>Upper Devon</b>	Strict Co	Strict Co	Strict Co	Sequential Co	Strict Co
<b>Upper Sue</b>	Strict Co	Strict Co	Strict Co	No Response	Strict Co
<b>Victoria</b>	No Response	No Response	No Response	No Response	No Response

## Discussion

We found marginal concordance between chemically-inferred and bioassay-based evidence of nutrient limitation of alpine phytoplankton communities from our study area in the Eastern Front range of the Canadian Rockies. The lack of agreement mainly involved cases where DIN:TP mass threshold ratios pointed to P-limitation while bioassays revealed co-limitation by N and P, supporting our hypothesis that phytoplankton would often respond synergistically to the addition of both nutrients. However, our results only provided limited support for the hypothesis of nutrient limitation being a function of lake depth. Although DIN:TP mass ratios were correlated with lake depth, the bioassays did not show the expected shift from P- to N-limitation in the shallower sites. Overall, chlorophytes and chromophytes were the main drivers of whole community responses to the nutrient amendments rather than cyanobacteria or cryptophytes. The demonstrated prevalence of P-driven limitation amongst the tested alpine phytoplankton communities suggests that increased P deposition resulting from recently more frequent and intense wildfires in the Canadian Rockies could stimulate phytoplankton production above treeline. Below, we offer potential explanations for these key findings.

The main reason for only 55% concordance between our DIN:TP- and bioassay-based findings of nutrient limitation involved conflicting results of inferred P-limitation versus experimental co-limitation, respectively. Elsewhere, DIN:TP ratios have also been found to be unreliable predictors of phytoplankton responses to these nutrients in mountain lakes (Slemmons and Saros 2012; Symons et al. 2012; Williams et al. 2016). A possible explanation for this lack of concordance between DIN:TP-based inferences and bioassays of nutrient limitation involves a difference in temporal scale. For example, our use of relatively long 12-day bioassays may have increased the likelihood of co-limitation by better enabling turnover in species that differed in their individual nutrient limitations. Harpole et al. (2011) in their meta-analysis did report that the length of experiment appeared to be a factor of apparent

nutrient limitation. In contrast, DIN:TP ratios may better serve as indicators of more short-term physiological rate responses of phytoplankton to nutrients, such as primary productivity. Another potential explanation for the lack of concordance between the two lines of evidence is that DIN:TP is not representative of the potential bioavailability of certain fractions of the dissolved organic nitrogen (DON) pool in mountain lakes (Morris and Lewis 1988; Bunting et al. 2010). Adaptive responses by algae to N-limitation have been shown to involve greater use of DON through up-regulation of genes involved in transport of amino acids, polyamine oxidase, and extracellular proteinases and peptidases (Cooper et al. 2016). Nevertheless, our two lines of evidence for P-limitation did agree in nine out of 11 cases. Similarly, Slemmons and Saros (2012) and Gardner et al. (2008) also found DIN:TP ratios to often be reliable predictors of P-limitation in their bioassays of glacially and non-glacially fed alpine lakes in the central Rocky Mountains, and alpine lakes in the front ranges of the Colorado Rocky Mountains.

Our findings of nutrient co-limitation being widespread across the study area adds to the growing evidence of the ubiquity of synergistic, rather than simply additive, joint effects of N and P on primary producers in freshwater ecosystems (Elser et al. 2007; Allgeier et al. 2011; Harpole et al. 2011; Bracken et al. 2015). More recently, several studies have demonstrated nutrient co-limitation, including lakes in northeast Germany (Kolzau et al. 2014), Lake Baikal in Russia (O'Donnell et al. 2017) a shallow reservoir on the southeast coast of Australia (Müller and Mitrovic 2015). As well, oligotrophic lakes in the Arctic (Levine and Whalen 2001; Ogbebo et al. 2009; Teufel et al. 2017) and high-elevation lakes show evidence of nutrient co-limitation (Morris and Lewis 1988; Sickman et al. 2003; Slemmons and Saros 2012; Bergström et al. 2013; Warner et al. 2017). Potential explanations for synergistic responses by phytoplankton to N plus P range from biochemical to ecological in nature. Such nutrients may have differential effects on both metabolic pathways that interactively stimulate cell growth, and species that vary in their respective limiting nutrient (Harpole et al. 2011). It is also possible that in the presence of both N and P, one nutrient supersedes the other in defining resource limitation, resulting in a net

positive effect on algal growth that is greater than the sum of the individual effect of each nutrient (Davidson and Howarth 2007).

Our hypothesis of nutrient limitation being a function of lake depth was minimally supported as the DIN:TP mass ratios were correlated with lake depth but the DIN:TP mass ratios were higher than anticipated for the shallow sites and therefore N-limitation was uncommon. Here, only three experimental sites had a DIN:TP mass ratio less than 0.5, which was fewer than expected based on a previous survey of shallow (< 1 m depth) sites in the Canadian Rockies by McMaster and Schindler (2005). The majority of their 28 shallow study sites had a DIN:TP < 1, predicting N-limitation. A possible explanation for the higher than anticipated DIN:TP mass ratios is that the shallow systems are mixing from wind events, releasing N from the disturbed sediment (Alexander et al. 1989, Luettich et al. 1990). Alpine environments generally have little cover and are subject to strong winds (Billings and Mooney 1968), making mixing events of shallow sites likely. In a nutrient limitation study of lentic systems in the subarctic, Symons et al. (2012) found a higher concentration of nutrients in sites sampled under high wind conditions. Alternatively, the high DIN:TP mass ratios could be a function of catchment characteristics such as the surrounding vegetation. Greater terrestrial vegetation and soil mineralization rates can equate to increased inputs of organic nitrogen, which can thereafter be microbially converted into inorganic forms (Bunting et al. 2010). This could explain the high occurrence of P-limitation in the shallow sites. While the DIN:TP mass ratios were weakly correlated with depth, lake water chemistry has previously been related to catchment characteristics such as slope, catchment area and surrounding vegetation, and local factors including length of ice cover (Kopáček et al. 2000; Kamenik et al. 2001; Marchetto et al. 2009; Bergström et al. 2013). These factors may have been stronger predictors of relative N and P compared to lake depth as originally hypothesized and provide an avenue for future studies in the Canadian Rockies.

The major algal groups exhibited various types of nutrient limitation, occasionally agreeing with the limitation type of the total chlorophyll. The chlorophytes and chromophytes made up the majority of the algal abundance and were often the drivers of the community-level chlorophyll responses to the nutrient treatments. Due to the relatively low cyanobacterial abundance in the treatment amendments and control groups, the chlorophytes were dominant and able to outcompete other taxa for phosphorus due to their larger size and greater storage capacity (Reynolds 2006; Gonzales 2000). The strong response of chlorophytes to enrichments can be due to the dominance of one or a few strongly responding species (Cottingham et al. 1988; Gardner et al. 2008), which may be the case in the current study as well. Our results were similar to Teufel et al. (2017) and Gardner et al. (2008) who found chlorophyte growth accounted for the majority of the phytoplankton growth for the P and NP treatments in bioassays of two oligotrophic lakes in the Antarctic, and an alpine lake in the Colorado front ranges. Diatom abundance (contained within the chromophytes) has been demonstrated to increase from N and NP enrichments in N-limited alpine lakes (Baron et al. 2000; Wolfe et al. 2003). Similarly, Vinebrooke and Leavitt (1998) found a strong response for chrysophytes (contained within the chromophytes) to NP nutrient amendments. Though eutrophication of alpine lakes has occurred elsewhere (Sickman et al. 2003), phytoplankton communities in our study contained few cyanobacteria, which as a group did not exhibit a significant response to either nutrient. Lack of a cyanobacterial response to P amendments potentially involved colder temperatures suppressing their ability to compete against other algal groups by limiting their ability for nitrogen fixation (Tilman et al. 1986). For example, Gallina et al. (2011) found that cyanobacterial biomass was lowest under colder conditions and increased with warmer temperatures in a study of peri-Alpine lakes.

Overall, the bioassay results revealed P-limitation more frequently than N-limitation with 11 P-limited sites and only three N-limited. Phosphorus and nitrogen are considered the primary limiting nutrients for freshwater phytoplankton (Schindler 1974; Elser et al. 1990), with the atmospheric

deposition of nutrients affecting the nutrient status of the phytoplankton in some cases. Concern over the effects of external nutrient deposition on the nature of nutrient limitation of lake ecosystems has increased (Elser et al. 1990; Sickman et al. 2003; Bergström et al. 2005; Elser et al. 2009). Some lakes in high-N deposition regions have become saturated with N, increasing the DIN:TP ratios and shifting to P-limitation from their natural N-limited state (Bergström et al. 2005; Bergström and Jansson 2006; Elser et al. 2009). These conclusions have been drawn in general from regions more heavily impacted by anthropogenic deposition of  $\text{NO}_x$  relative to our study area in the remote backcountry of the Canadian Rockies (Bunting et al. 2010). Thus, we expect that N deposition has not yet elevated DIN:TP ratios in this area enough to account for them being mainly P-limited. Further, historical records indicate that alpine lakes in our study area have remained in their ultraoligotrophic state because of near undetectable concentrations of TP for the past several decades (Loewen et al. 2019).

Our findings of nutrient co-limitation of alpine phytoplankton by N and P being common along the Eastern Front range of the Canadian Rockies highlight the potential for their future synergistic responses to anthropogenic N emissions and wildfires. In general, DIN:TP mass ratios and bioassay results point to the greater relative importance of dry deposition of P from wildfires as being the driver of future changes in phytoplankton communities in this region due to the higher occurrence of P-limitation compared to N. As a caveat, use of DIN:TP to infer phytoplankton threshold responses to N and P could not consistently account for nutrient co-limitation when detected in our study. Therefore, we recommend that future limnological research into the combined effects of N deposition and wildfires on mountain lakes and ponds scale up from nutrient bioassays to more ecologically realistic approaches by conducting whole-ecosystem experiments (e.g. Vinebrooke et al. 2014) and paleolimnological investigations (e.g. Waters et al. 2019).

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## Chapter 3 : Phytoplankton communities as indicators of environmental change and nutrient deposition across an elevational gradient

### Introduction

Mountain lakes are considered to be sensitive indicators of regional factors (e.g. climate change, atmospheric pollutants) because they are often located in areas protected from local human disturbances (Vinebrooke and Leavitt 1999a). These lake ecosystems integrate the effects of regional and local factors across entire catchments, making them ideal sentinels of environmental change (Williamson et al. 2008; Adrian et al. 2009). At high elevations, relatively small and oligotrophic alpine lakes with short growing seasons are especially responsive to environmental events (Campbell et al. 2000; Moser et al. 2019). Here, phytoplankton are among the first responders to environmental change because of their relatively small sizes, fast growth rates, and wide dispersal potentials (Schindler 1987; Adrian et al. 2009). Local catchment features can mediate the effects of regional factors on lakes by influencing their biogeochemistry (Kopáček et al. 2000; Kamenik et al. 2001; Sadro et al. 2012). For example, higher elevations are characterized by more precipitation, and steeper slopes, thereby receiving greater deposition of nutrients. Alternatively, lower montane sites have higher concentrations of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and more vegetated catchments (Moser et al. 2019). A survey of phytoplankton communities along a compressed but large environmental gradient as found in mountains offers an excellent opportunity to study the direct and indirect effects of regional and local factors on lake ecosystems.

The implicit assumption that remote alpine lakes are pristine is being increasingly challenged because of increased wet and dry deposition of nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P), respectively (Bergström et al. 2008; Elser et al. 2009; Baron et al. 2011; Kopáček et al. 2011; Camarero and Catalan 2012; Brahney et al. 2015; Jacquemin et al. 2019). The burning of fossil fuels and use of agricultural

fertilizers has increased atmospheric N, leading to elevated rates of wet N deposition (Wolfe et al. 2001; Fenn et al. 2003). P can be deposited as dry deposition from aeolian dust or as a by-product from wildfires, which are predicted to increase in frequency and magnitude (Zhang et al. 2002; Brahney et al. 2015; Wang et al. 2015). Mountain lakes are sensitive to deposition of nutrients because of their short growing season, steep slopes, sparse vegetation and hydrology dominated by snowmelt (Campbell et al. 2000; Nydick et al. 2003; Moser et al. 2019). The atmospheric nutrient deposition regime can affect the limitation type of the system by altering the N:P mass ratio of the lake, which frequently determines the limiting nutrient (Morris and Lewis 1988; Bergström 2010; Williams et al. 2017). Though some studies have found several mountain lakes to be naturally N-limited (Bergström et al. 2008; Elser et al. 2009), previous work found mountain lakes in the Tatra Mountains (Kopáček et al. 2000), the French Alps (Jacquemin et al. 2018) and the Canadian Rocky Mountains to be primarily P-limited (Chapter 2, Parker et al. 2008). Recent meta-analyses have also demonstrated frequent co-limitation of phytoplankton and the synergistic response to N and P nutrient amendments (Elser et al. 2007; Harpole et al. 2011). Evidence of common synergistic responses from bioassay experiments in alpine lakes (Chapter 2) reveals the possibility of heightened algal growth and potential deterioration of headwaters in the Canadian Rockies.

Mountain lakes and the carbon cycle are both sensitive to climate change, therefore studies assessing changes of DOC within these systems is important (Vinebrooke and Leavitt 1998; Parker et al. 2008; Moser et al. 2019). Increased input of organic carbon due to climate change can involve higher temperatures enhancing decomposition of organic matter in soil (Freeman et al. 2001; Evans et al. 2005), and precipitation flushing DOC into lakes (Weyhenmeyer et al. 2016; Ejarque et al. 2018; Moser et al. 2019). The elevational gradient in DOC concentration could influence the response of alpine versus montane sites to increased input. In high-ultraviolet (UV) systems, such as the alpine, the chromophoric component of DOC functions as a photoprotectant for the phytoplankton (Morris et al. 1995;

Vinebrooke and Leavitt 1999b; Pienitz and Vincent 2000; Sanders et al. 2015). However, the source of DOC will affect the UV attenuation. Allochthonous DOC, entering the lake from runoff in the catchment, is more chromophoric compared to autochthonous DOC, which is produced within the lake, and is nonchromophoric with lower UV absorption. Bacterial and photochemical mineralization of DOC can release organically bound N and P (Vähätalo et al. 2003) and DOC and total phosphorus (TP) are frequently co-exported from the catchment soil (Camarero et al. 2009). DOC enrichment can therefore promote algal production (Klug 2002; Kissman et al. 2013) particularly under warming conditions (Weidman et al. 2014).

Fish introductions into naturally fishless lakes can also stimulate primary production. Previously, widespread fish stocking occurred in numerous lakes in the mountain national parks to increase angling tourism, several of which were naturally fishless (Schindler 2000). Introducing a new, top predator affects the food web and water quality (Leavitt et al. 1994; Schindler and Parker 2002). The introduced fish selectively prey on large, herbivorous zooplankton, releasing smaller and less efficient grazing species from competition (MacLennan et al. 2015; Loewen and Vinebrooke 2016). Phytoplankton can thrive under reduced grazing (Schindler 2000), and due to greater P concentrations being added to the system by fish accessing benthic P, by predating on benthic prey, which was previously unavailable to pelagic communities (Schindler et al. 2001). Warmer temperatures may also interact with fish presence, increasing the nutrient excretion rates by stocked fish under higher temperatures (Vanni 2002). The elevated nutrient availability can promote cyanobacterial growth, particularly in lower elevation montane systems where warmer water temperatures better align with their higher temperature growth optima (O'Neil et al. 2012).

Cyanobacteria can out-compete other algal groups when nutrient concentrations are high (Paerl and Paul 2012; Beaulieu et al. 2013; Taranu et al. 2015). The predicted effects of climate change including warmer temperatures and greater quantities of external deposition of nutrients could favour

the bloom- and toxin-forming algal group. Because of higher concentrations of N and P and warmer temperatures, cyanobacteria have increased over the past 200 years, and in greater proportion than other phytoplankton, including a presence in mountain lakes (Brahney et al. 2015; Taranu et al. 2015). Picocyanobacteria (0.2-2  $\mu\text{m}$ ) are frequent in oligotrophic mountain lakes and have also been demonstrated to increase under experimental P amendments and warming in northern, high-latitude lakes in subarctic Quebec (Przyulska et al. 2017). Moreover, others have called for greater attention focused on picocyanobacteria in response to climate change (Śliwińska-Wilczewska et al. 2018).

The main goal of this study was to identify the best suite of environmental predictors of mid-summer phytoplankton communities along an elevational gradient consisting of 82 lakes in the Canadian Rocky Mountain National Parks. I hypothesized that nutrients (N and P) and light availability as regulated by DOC would be the key explanatory variables of taxonomic variation across phytoplankton communities. I also expected a positive association between cyanobacterial abundance and higher temperatures and fish presence. A second objective was to chemically infer the nature of nutrient limitation of the surveyed lakes based on their total nitrogen (TN):TP mass ratios and then test these inferences for a subset of 14 high-alpine lakes using nutrient enrichment factorial (N  $\times$  P) bioassays. Here, I hypothesized that lakes in this region would have remained either P- or NP- co-limited as they had been when last assayed 10 years prior (Chapter 2) as they are located in areas of relatively low nutrient deposition.

## **Methods**

### *Field Survey*

The 82 study lakes are located within a large geographical area within five national mountain parks, including Banff (n = 27), Jasper (n = 25), Waterton (n = 15), Yoho (n = 10) and Kootenay (n = 5; Figure 3.1). The selected sites span a large elevational gradient from 1024 to 2423 m asl, maximum depth from 1.3 to 70.1 m and surface temperature from 1.9 to 19.6 °C (Table 3.1; See Appendix A for full data set). GIS-derived catchment features and fish stocking data were obtained from Loewen et al. (2019). Study sites varied in their catchment properties, including area, % bare or vegetated cover and lithography with differences in % mixed sedimentary, % non carbonate sedimentary and % carbonate sedimentary bedrock. Lakes were sampled once, between June 13 to August 24, 2017 or July 17 to August 22, 2018. Lower elevation sites were sampled earlier in the summer, and alpine sites were sampled in August in an effort to control for seasonality effects and timing of ice-off. Fourteen alpine lakes from the survey were selected for nutrient enrichment bioassays, and nutrient limitation was determined following the same protocol as reported in Chapter 2.

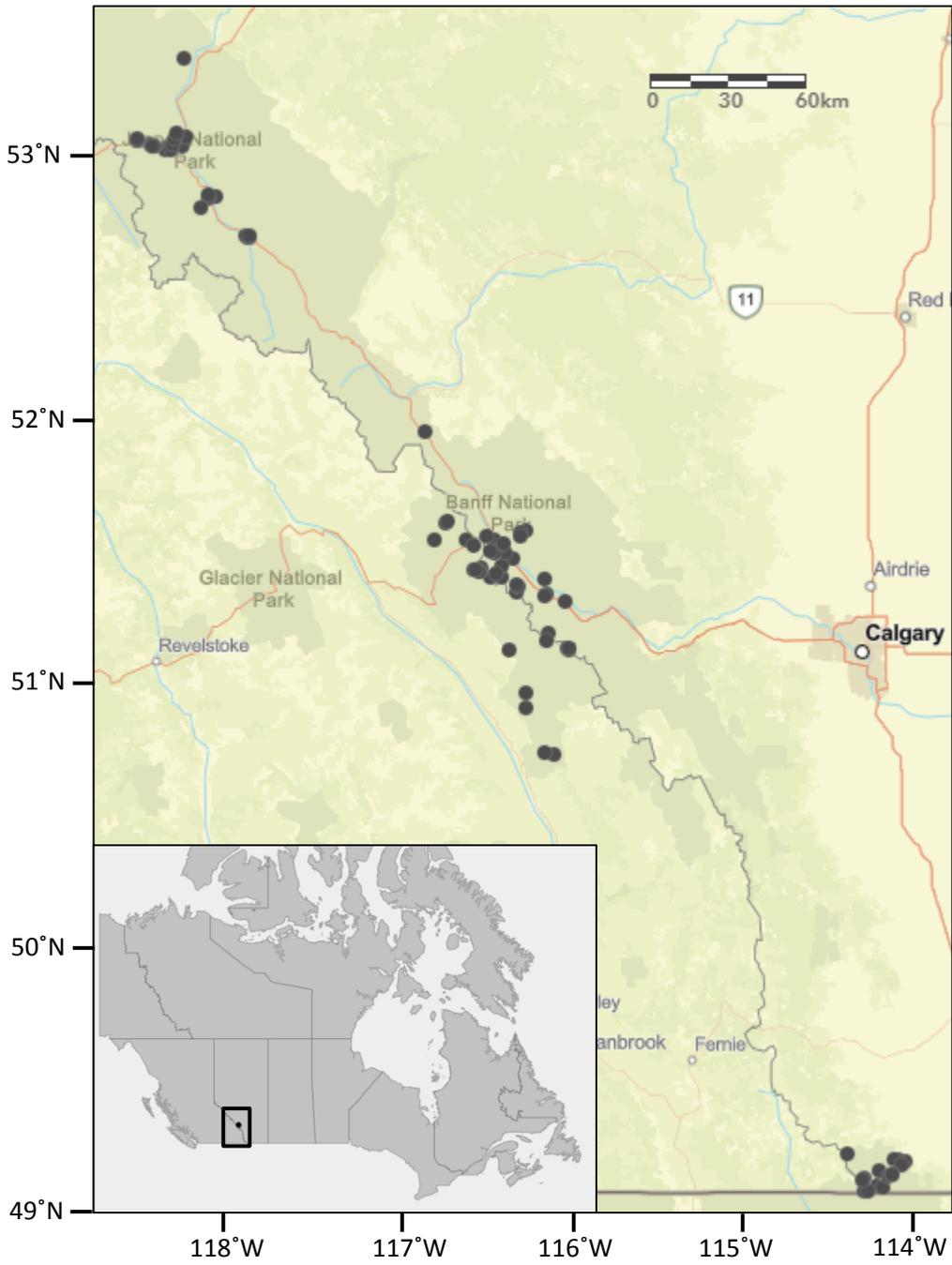
From the deepest point of each lake, a portable solid-state submersible YSI probe (sonde) was used to quantify depth profiles in temperature, % dissolved oxygen, pressure, conductivity and pH. A Secchi disk was used to measure light penetration, and the euphotic zone was calculated as double the Secchi depth (Wetzel and Likens 2000). When the calculated photic zone was greater than the depth of the lake, the maximum depth was reported. Depth-integrated water samples were collected from the euphotic zone using tygon tubing. Collected water was pooled in a triple rinsed 10 L cubitainer. 1 L of the pooled water was filtered to concentrate phytoplankton cells onto a Whatman GF/F filter paper. The filter paper was immediately folded in half, wrapped in tinfoil and stored on ice. 500 mL of the filtrate and 500 mL of the pooled unfiltered raw water were collected and stored on ice until later analysis of total dissolved nutrients and total nutrients, respectively.

Chemical analyses of total and dissolved nutrients in collected water samples were performed at the University of Alberta Biogeochemical Analytical Service Laboratory using their nationally certified

protocols (URL: [www.biology.ualberta.ca/basl](http://www.biology.ualberta.ca/basl)). Total nitrogen (TN), total dissolved nitrogen (TDN), total phosphorus (TP) and total dissolved phosphorus (TDP) were analyzed with a Lachat QuickChem QC8500 FIA Automated Ion Analyzer with detection limits of 6, 6, 1 and 2  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ , respectively. Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) was measured with a Shimadzu TOC-5000A Total Organic Carbon Analyzer with a detection limit of 0.1  $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ . High-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) was used to determine concentrations of chlorophylls and taxonomically diagnostic carotenoids (Jeffrey et al. 2005; Table 3.2), based on the protocol reported by Vinebrooke and Leavitt (1999a).

**Table 3.1** Summary statistics for environmental, physical and chemical variables from the 82 mountain lakes surveyed in the Canadian Rockies.

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation
Elevation (m asl)	1024	2423	1653	1582	407
Annual mean air temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ )	-3.8	4.0	0.1	0.4	2.1
Annual mean precipitation (mm)	468.95	723.98	618.61	631.28	69.05
Mean solar radiation ( $\text{WH m}^{-2}$ )	771269.19	940206.09	859670.10	860084.36	49678.91
Lake area (ha)	0.07	265.04	29.58	10.61	44.10
Catchment area (ha)	2.19	20295.69	1077.65	188.90	2629.28
Catchment area/lake area	2.18	867.79	49.61	20.35	109.03
Vegetation cover (%)	3.25	100.00	64.67	71.89	25.71
Barren land (%)	0.00	93.77	22.75	11.56	26.25
Catchment slope ( $^{\circ}$ )	0.18	39.47	16.89	15.17	10.94
Mixed sedimentary rock (%)	0.00	100.00	74.16	100.00	41.08
Non-carbonate sedimentary rock (%)	0.00	100.00	19.18	0.00	35.57
Carbonate sedimentary rock (%)	0.00	100.00	6.36	0.00	18.42
Maximum depth (m)	1.3	70.1	14.2	10.5	13.9
Secchi depth (m)	0.5	14	5.4	5.1	3.1
Surface water temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ )	1.9	19.6	13.8	14.9	4.1
Conductivity ( $\mu\text{S}^{-\text{cm}}$ )	5.80	671.00	208.25	178.60	125.67
TN:TP (mass)	2.61	290.33	38.72	25.78	39.86
TP ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	1.00	61.00	11.02	8.00	10.65
TDP ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	1.00	58.00	6.18	3.00	9.54
TN ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	39	2060	314	189	334
TDN ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	42	1820	300	167	314
DOC ( $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ )	0.2	16.8	4.1	2.3	3.9
pH	6.40	9.98	8.52	8.41	0.63
Surface dissolved oxygen (%)	59.9	109.7	90.4	90.1	9.5
Fish (presence/absence)	0	1	0.79	1	0.41



**Figure 3.1** Locations of the 82 lakes surveyed within the national mountain parks of Banff, Jasper, Waterton, Kootenay and Yoho, Canada.

**Table 3.2** Taxonomically diagnostic carotenoids and chlorophylls from high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) and the major algal groups they represent.

Pigment	Algal group
Chlorophyll <i>a</i>	All algae
Chlorophyll <i>b</i>	Chlorophytes
Alloxanthin	Cryptophytes
Canthaxanthin	Filamentous cyanobacteria
Diadinoxanthin	Chromophytes
Diatoxanthin	Diatoms
Fucoxanthin	Chromophytes (chrysophytes, diatoms and some dinoflagellates)
Lutein	Chlorophytes
Zeaxanthin	All cyanobacteria
Myxoxanthophyll	Colonial cyanobacteria
Violaxanthin	Chlorophytes

### *Statistical Analysis*

#### Algal abundance

Multiple linear regression with forward selection was performed to identify significant relationships between measured environmental variables on the total algal abundance (total chlorophyll = chlorophyll *a* + chlorophyll *b*). Prior to the regression analysis, a Pearson correlation matrix was used to determine which environmental variables from Table 3.1 were highly collinear. Related environmental variables that violated the assumption of multicollinearity ( $r > 0.7$ ) were removed from the analysis, resulting in the removal of solar irradiance, TDN, TN, TN:TP, catchment area, % bare catchment, % mixed sedimentary, elevation, montane, slope, and air temperature. All remaining variables were included in the analysis.

#### Community composition

Ordination analyses were conducted to determine the set of chemical and physical variables that best explained variance among the taxonomically diagnostic algal pigments across the surveyed lakes.

Preliminary correspondence analysis of the pigment data set revealed that the length of the first

ordination axis equalled 2.1 standard deviation units, and therefore the linear method of Redundancy Analysis (RDA) was chosen to further investigate relationships between the pigments and measured environmental variables. Explanatory environmental variables were sequentially eliminated if their variance inflation factor (VIF) was greater than 20, to eliminate highly correlated variables. As a result, TDN, elevation and catchment area were excluded from the RDA. Forward selection was performed on the remaining explanatory variables to determine which variables significantly explain ( $P < 0.05$ ) the phytoplankton community composition. To determine the significance of the axes a Monte Carlo permutation test ( $n = 999$ ) was used. Prior to all statistical analyses, pigment data were  $\log(1000x + 1)$  transformed and environmental data, except for pH, were  $\log(x+1)$  transformed to best improve normality and downweigh the influence of rare or dominant pigments. Pigments that did not contribute more than 1% of total mass in any sample were excluded from the analysis (e.g. neoxanthin). A principal component analysis (PCA) was also performed to determine how much variance is explained by the measured environmental variables. All ordination analyses were performed using Canoco 5 (ter Braak and Smilauer 2012), and regression analyses using SPSS version 23.

## Results

### *Algal Abundance and Nutrient Limitation*

Across all 82 surveyed lakes, TP was identified as the only significant predictor of chlorophyll-inferred total algal abundance ( $\text{TotChl} = 0.413 + 0.557 \cdot \text{TP}$ ;  $r^2 = 0.162$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). Most lakes contained relatively low concentrations of TP, resulting in TN:TP mass ratios being greater than 25 and predictions of their phytoplankton being P-limited (Table 3.1; Morris and Lewis 1988). In general, the bioassays provided supportive evidence that most of the alpine communities (9 out of 14) responded to the P amendment

(Table 3.3). The mean response of all 14 sites was sequential co-limitation driven by the effect of P (Figure 3.2).

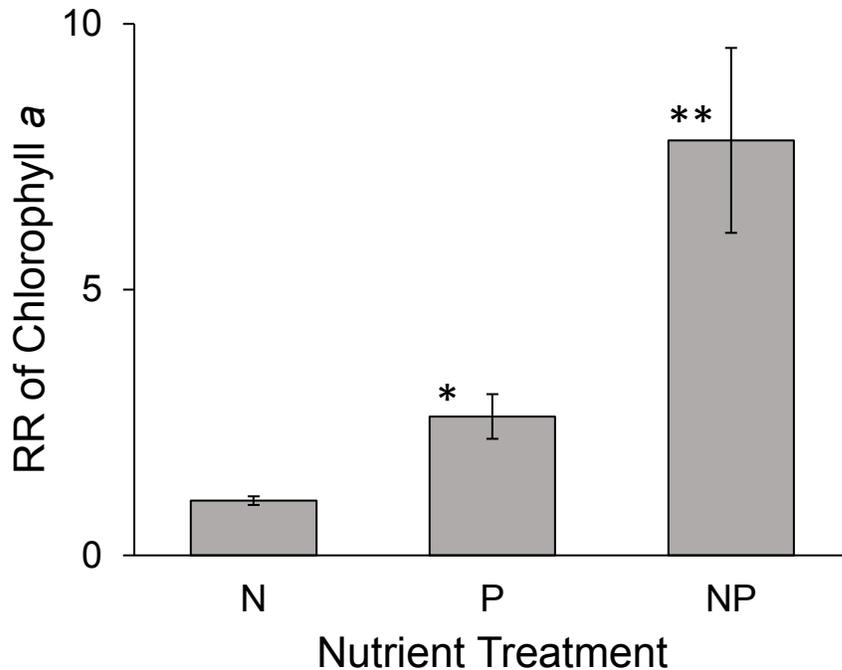
There were five sites that were analyzed using nutrient enrichment bioassays in 2008 (Chapter 2) and performed again in 2018. Eiffel and Sentinel remained in their P-limited state between 2008 and 2018, while Opabin and Osea showed additive dual limitation and single P limitation in 2008, respectively, and were both classified as no response for the 2018 bioassays. Lastly, Hungabee was classified as single P limited in 2008 and showed strict co-limitation in 2018.

**Table 3.3** Summary of the phytoplankton responses to enrichment with N, P or combined NP, and the statistical results of the ANOVAs used to determine the nutrient limitation type for the 14 alpine study lakes.

Sites	RR-N	RR-P	RR-NP	RR-N/RR-P	<i>P</i> value N effect	<i>P</i> value P effect	<i>P</i> value NP effect	Limitation type
Pharaoh	1.26	2.18	2.17	0.58	0.82	<b>0.02</b>	<b>0.021</b>	Single P
Mummy	1.02	2.32	3.28	0.44	0.99	< <b>0.0001</b>	< <b>0.0001</b> **	Sequential Co-limitation P
Oesa	0.48	0.86	1.45	0.56	0.82	0.997	0.823	No Response
Opabin	1.52	1.16	3.23	1.31	0.65	0.902	0.602	No Response
Hungabee	1.11	0.86	3.53	1.29	0.62	0.819	<b>0.009</b>	Strict Co-limitation
Mary	1.03	4.82	23.31	0.21	1.00	< <b>0.0001</b>	< <b>0.0001</b> **	Sequential Co-limitation P
Rockbound	1.13	2.29	2.74	0.49	0.99	0.056	<b>0.014</b>	Strict Co-limitation
Tower	1.16	1.55	11.33	0.75	0.16	< <b>0.0001</b>	< <b>0.0001</b> **	Sequential Co-limitation P
Eiffel	0.81	4.61	10.75	0.17	0.99	<b>0.005</b>	< <b>0.0001</b>	Sequential Co-limitation P
Sentinel	0.89	5.15	11.24	0.17	0.89	< <b>0.0001</b>	< <b>0.0001</b>	Sequential Co-limitation P
Agnes	0.43	3.19	3.25	0.13	0.03	<b>0.001</b>	<b>0.001</b>	Single P
Grizzly	1.31	1.02	8.31	1.28	<b>0.01</b>	0.984	< <b>0.0001</b> *	Sequential Co-limitation N
Laryx	0.97	2.01	17.73	0.48	0.90	<b>0.011</b>	< <b>0.0001</b> **	Sequential Co-limitation P
Rock Isle	1.30	4.57	6.99	0.28	0.31	< <b>0.0001</b>	< <b>0.0001</b> **	Sequential Co-limitation P

RR-N, RR-P, and RR-NP are the response ratios for the three treatments relative to the unamended control. The relative response to N or P is shown as RR-N/RR-P.

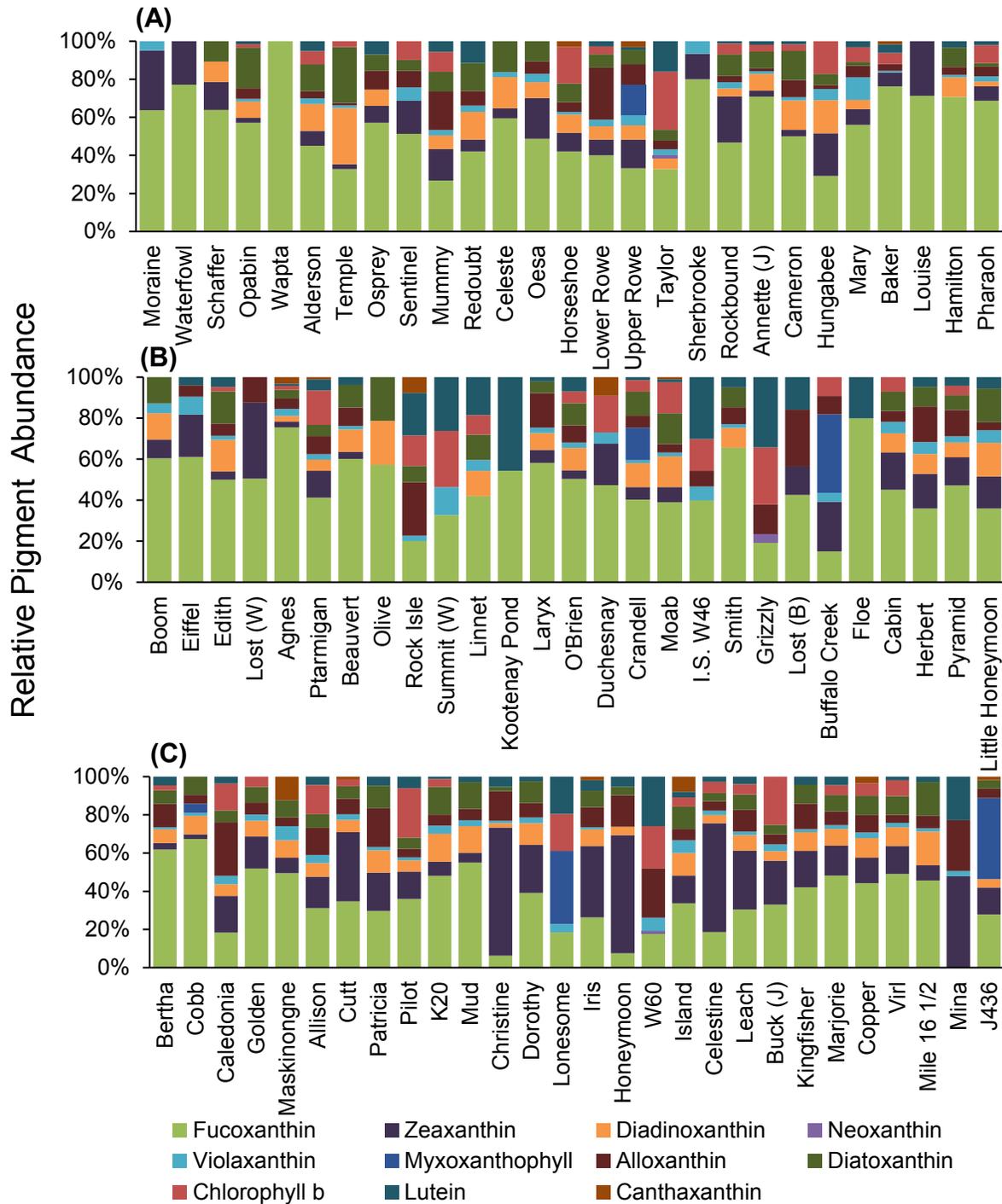
\* Denotes the NP treatment was significantly greater than N, \*\* denotes the NP treatment was significantly greater than P. Bolded *P* values are significant ( $P < 0.05$ ) with a positive effect.



**Figure 3.2** The mean relative response (RR) of chlorophyll *a* to nutrient amendments from two factor N × P nutrient enrichments bioassay experiments for (n=14) alpine lakes in the Canadian Rockies. \* indicates significantly greater than the control and \*\* indicates significantly greater than P. Error bars represent standard error.

### *Community Composition*

Based on analysis of algal pigments, phytoplankton communities consisted primarily of chromophytes (fucoxanthin, diadinoxanthin; Figure 3.3). Chlorophytes (chlorophyll *b*, lutein and violaxanthin) were most abundant under low to intermediate concentrations of DOC (Figure 3.3a,b), while cyanobacteria (zeaxanthin), including filamentous forms (canthaxanthin) were more evident at higher DOC concentrations (Figure 3.3c). Colonial cyanobacteria (myxoxanthophyll) were usually not present, except in the three high-DOC lakes. Cryptophytes (alloxanthin) were typically present but represented a small component of the overall community.



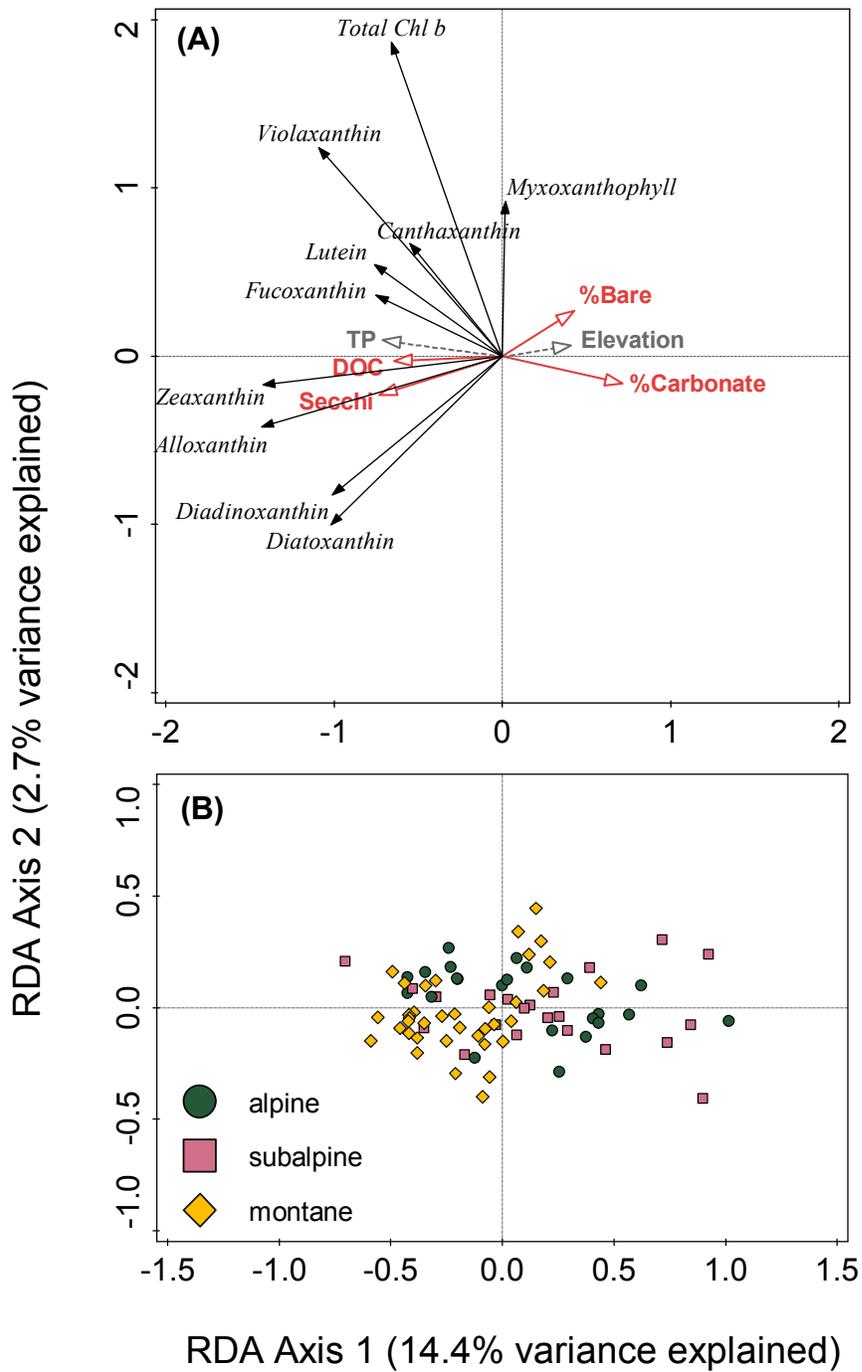
**Figure 3.3** Relative abundance of taxonomically diagnostic phytoplankton pigments in 82 mountain lakes along a DOC gradient in the Canadian Rockies. **a** low DOC ( $< 1 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) lakes, **b** intermediate DOC ( $1.1\text{-}4.9 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) lakes, and **c** high DOC ( $> 5 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) lakes. The chlorophytes are represented by chlorophyll *b*, lutein, violaxanthin and neoxanthin, the chromophytes by diadinoxanthin and fucoxanthin. The diatoms are represented by diatoxanthin, the cryptophytes by alloxanthin, and cyanobacteria is represented by zeaxanthin, myxoxanthophyll and canthaxanthin.

DOC, underwater light availability (Secchi depth), % carbonate sedimentary bedrock and % bare catchment best explained variance among the algal pigments across all surveyed lakes (Fig. 3.4; Table 3.4). Forward selection identified DOC as the most significant ( $P = 0.001$ ), followed by Secchi ( $P = 0.002$ ), % carbonate ( $P = 0.025$ ) and % bare catchment ( $P = 0.027$ ). RDA axes 1 and 2 accounted for 14.4% and 2.7% respectively. The first RDA axis was significant ( $F = 13.0$ ,  $P = 0.001$ ), as was the entire ordination ( $F = 4.4$ ,  $P = 0.001$ ). Results from the PCA revealed that axes 1 and 2 explained a total of 58.2% of the variance, which highlights that some potentially important explanatory variables may be missing from the RDA.

RDA axis 1 was best defined by DOC and Secchi depth, which reflected the elevational and trophic (i.e. TP) gradients spanned by the study (Figure 3.4). In general, axis 1 separated sparse alpine and subalpine phytoplankton communities from those that were more diverse at lower elevations primarily based on higher concentrations of cyanobacterial zeaxanthin in the lower montane valley lakes. RDA axis 2 represented a less well-defined gradient of % bare catchment, contrasting chlorophytes (Chl *b*, lutein, violaxanthin) and cyanobacteria (canthaxanthin, myxoxanthophyll) in lakes within relatively barren catchments from diatoms (diatoxanthin, diadinoxanthin) that were more abundant in lake catchments containing greater vegetative cover.

**Table 3.4** Significant and independent explanatory variables of variance in taxonomically diagnostic phytoplankton pigments across 82 mountain lakes as identified using forward selection.  $P$  values are based on 999 Monte Carlo random permutations.

Variable	Abbreviation	Taxonomic variance explained %	$F$ value	$P$ value
Dissolved organic carbon ( $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ )	DOC	6.7	6.1	0.001
Secchi depth (m)	Secchi	6.4	5.5	0.002
Carbonate sedimentary rock (%)	% Carbonate	2.9	2.7	0.025
Bare catchment (%)	% Bare	2.7	2.6	0.027



**Figure 3.4** Ordination of carotenoids and chlorophyll *b* using a forward selection of **a** explanatory variables that explained a significant amount of variation in the phytoplankton community composition across **b** 82 mountain lakes in the Canadian Rockies along an elevational gradient, based on the redundancy analysis (RDA). Red vectors represent significant explanatory variables while grey vectors show passive supplementary variables. Montane = < 1500 m asl, subalpine = 1500-2000 m asl, alpine = > 2000 m asl. Abbreviations are dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and total phosphorus (TP).

## Discussion

TP was the overriding factor both explaining patterns in chlorophyll-inferred phytoplankton biomass across the 82 surveyed lakes and driving most of the alpine phytoplankton responses to experimental nutrient amendments. In contrast, DOC and underwater light availability best explained pigment-inferred taxonomic variation among the surveyed phytoplankton communities. These results also highlighted a greater influence of local catchment heterogeneity (e.g. % barren cover) and water chemistry (e.g. carbonate content) on the algal communities, compared to elevational patterns (i.e. montane, subalpine and alpine). Although fish presence was expected to exert a fertilizing effect on the phytoplankton, it was also not identified as a significant independent predictor of total algal biomass or taxonomic composition. Collectively, my findings suggest that phytoplankton in these study lakes are more directly influenced by changes in local environmental heterogeneity than variation in regional factors (e.g. climate change). In the following paragraphs I will provide potential explanations for these main findings.

Phytoplankton abundance was significantly related to TP (Figure 3.2), supporting both my original hypothesis and findings of previous similar studies conducted in the Canadian Rocky Mountains (McMaster and Schindler 2005). In comparison, N was not identified as a factor of phytoplankton abundance. While N and P are considered the key limiting nutrients for freshwater phytoplankton (Elser et al. 2007), previous nutrient bioassays of phytoplankton from this study area indicated the prevalence of P-limitation (Chapter 2). Most lakes in the current survey had high TN:TP mass ratios predicting P-limitation (Morris and Lewis 1988) and the current bioassays corroborate the finding as most were still primarily P-limited, with an overall synergistic response to N and P, supporting the secondary hypothesis. Phosphorus is a required nutrient for algal growth (Reynolds 2006) and the relationship between total chlorophyll and TP is common (Schindler 1977). The explanation for the occurrence of P-

limitation in the Canadian Rocky Mountain lakes remains uncertain. While some regions, such as Sweden, Norway and the Colorado Sierra Nevada have experienced elevated levels of N deposition, resulting in a switch to P-limitation (Bergström et al. 2008; Elser et al. 2009), the Canadian Rockies remain less developed, and likely have not experienced such elevated N deposition (Schindler et al. 2006; Bunting et al. 2010). Lakes in the Canadian Rockies have remained in their oligotrophic state (Loewen et al. 2019), and the prevalence of P-limitation presumably reflects their natural state. However, continuous long-term monitoring of nutrient deposition, and paleolimnological studies interpreting past changes in deposition are required to best understand and predict the response to additional nutrient deposition. Further studies on the different responses of varying algal groups may also be valuable for future predictions (Chapter 2).

Mid-summer phytoplankton pigment composition in the study lakes consisted mainly of fucoxanthin (chrysophytes and some dinoflagellates), followed by high concentrations of chlorophycean pigments (Chl *b*, lutein, violaxanthin; Figure 3.3). Similarly, previous surveys of the study area also identified a dominance of chrysophytes and chlorophytes in mountain lakes (Vinebrooke and Leavitt 1999a; McMaster 2003; Tolotti et al. 2006). The high cellular surface area:volume ratios of chrysophytes allows for relatively fast nutrient uptake, making them well adapted for systems with high N:P ratios (Sandgren 1988; Watson et al. 1997) and to low-nutrient, oligotrophic systems typical of mountain lakes (Tolotti et al. 2003). In addition, the nutritional flexibility of certain chrysophytes (i.e. mixotrophy) is also thought to play a role in their ability to inhabit resource-poor environments (Bird and Kalff 1986). The high TN:TP mass ratio is also favourable to chlorophytes which have a high N optimum (Sandgren 1988).

Cyanobacterial zeaxanthin was closely associated with DOC and Secchi depth. Picocyanobacteria (0.2-2µm) often account for high concentrations of zeaxanthin, especially in dilute and unproductive lakes (Vinebrooke and Leavitt 1999b; Krajewska et al. 2019). Several studies have attempted to find a pattern of picocyanobacterial abundance along a trophic gradient, however, there

remains a knowledge-gap in explaining their distribution (Vörös et al. 1998; Callieri and Stockner 2000; Ruber et al. 2016). Unlike mesotrophic conditions that favour most picocyanobacteria in marine systems (Zwirgmaier et al. 2007), certain genera (e.g. *Synechococcus*) are more indicative of clear, oligotrophic freshwater lakes (Vörös et al. 1998; Callieri et al. 2007; Ruber et al. 2016; Watson and Kling 2017; Porcel et al. 2019). Alternatively, others have found that picocyanobacterial distribution responds not only to a trophic gradient, rather there are several potential factors, including grazing pressure, lake residence time and light (Vörös et al. 1998; Callieri and Stockner 2000; Camacho et al. 2003; Watson and Kling 2017). In agreement with my results, DOC was previously found to be significantly related to picocyanobacteria in a large-scale study spanning from Argentinean Patagonia to Maritime Antarctica (Schiaffino et al. 2011), a multi-basin lake in Ontario (Watson and Kling 2017) and to the abundance of benthic cyanobacteria in mountain lakes (Vinebrooke and Leavitt 1999a), suggesting DOC may be a potential resource for picocyanobacteria. It is possible that light availability is also a significant driver of the picocyanobacteria. *Synechococcus* has a sophisticated light-harvesting system, the phycobilisome, allowing growth in differing light regimes, environmental conditions and depths (Vörös et al. 1998; Callieri 2017; Cabello-Yeves et al. 2018). Lastly, DOC was also associated with the lower, montane lakes, which are warmer than the alpine sites, favouring cyanobacteria which require higher temperatures for optimal growth (Reynolds 2006). For example, higher temperatures often favour cyanobacteria over algae as witnessed recently by picocyanobacterial blooms in certain warming lakes (Śliwińska-Wilczewska et al. 2018).

The best predictor of phytoplankton community composition was DOC, which was also partly correlated with underwater light availability (i.e. Secchi depth). DOC across the surveyed lakes appeared to be primarily nonchromophoric in nature. In contrast, DOC concentrations in other lakes often exists as coloured dissolved organic matter (CDOM; Griffin et al. 2018), imparting a brownish appearance to surface waters in which it can act as a photoprotectant against DNA-damaging ultraviolet (UV) radiation

(Vinebrooke and Leavitt 1998; Pienitz and Vincent 2000; Sanders et al. 2015). Importantly, the chromophoric nature, or colour, of DOC indicates its source of origin. DOC from an allochthonous source (e.g. decomposed lignified plant material) is brownish while an autochthonous source (e.g. within-lake algal production) is relatively clear. Moreover, Sommaruga and Augustin (2006) argue that DOC is not an accurate predictor of CDOM in alpine lakes when DOM production is autochthonous. McKnight et al. (1997) found DOC derived from algae in an alpine lake had lower aromaticity and UV absorption because fulvic acids derived from phytoplankton have lower light absorbance than terrestrially derived fulvic acids (McKnight et al. 1994; Martin et al. 2005). Previous research in the Canadian Rocky Mountains also revealed a positive relationship between DOC concentration and Secchi depth providing further support for DOC concentrations in the region being nonchromophoric and autochthonous in nature (Parker et al. 2008).

My results also revealed that chromophycean pigments and cryptophycean alloxanthin were positively associated with DOC. The importance of DOC in promoting algal growth has been reported elsewhere (Weyhenmeyer et al. 2004; Graham and Vinebrooke 2009) by stimulating mixotrophic phytoflagellates, such as certain chrysophytes and cryptophytes (Vinebrooke and Leavitt 1999a). In a factorial (warming × DOC) experiment, Weidman et al. (2014) found that a combination of warming and DOC input resulted in an increase of fucoxanthin. Parker et al. (2008) also found a greater abundance of mixotrophic algae in years of higher DOC, explained by their ability to obtain required nutrients directly from DOC (Rothhaupt 1996). Organically bound N and P can also be mineralized and released from DOC, making the major nutrients bioavailable for algal uptake (Vähätalo et al. 2003). Evidence of allochthonous DOC amendments stimulating larger chlorophytes and colonial chrysophytes (Graham and Vinebrooke 2009) and large cryptophytes (Weyhenmeyer et al. 2004) was attributed to their larger cell size, which enables greater storage capacity of nutrients released from DOC during its photodegradation by solar irradiance. Lastly, my evidence of a positive association between

chromophytes and DOC could also be partly explained by how it functions as a carbon source for bacteria, which in turn serve as nutritious prey for certain phagotrophic chrysophytes under otherwise resource-poor conditions (Bird and Kalff 1986).

Catchment features of % bare cover and % carbonate sedimentary bedrock were also identified as explanatory variables of the community composition of mountain phytoplankton. Similarly, a large-scale survey of zooplankton along the North American Cordillera also highlighted the greater importance of local catchment features (land cover and lithology) compared to more regional climatic factors, such as precipitation and temperature for community composition (Loewen et al. 2019). The proportion of bare catchment is generally greater at higher elevations where more harsh environmental conditions suppress vegetation. While the weathering of exposed sedimentary bedrock can be a source of P to lakes, the results from the RDA demonstrate a negative relationship between TP and % bare catchment. Therefore, loading of P into these study lakes is possibly more controlled by soil mineralization than weathering of bare rock. Results from the Tatra Mountains have also demonstrated an inverse relationship between TP and vegetation cover, with TP being lowest at alpine sites (Kopáček et al. 2000). The nutrient concentrations were attributed to vegetation cover representing the pools of soil organic matter (Kopáček et al. 2004). Most sites in the current study had a mixed sedimentary lithology, with only 19 sites containing proportions of carbonate bedrock, most of which also occurred at higher elevations, which are characterized by lower species diversity (Stomp et al. 2011), possibly explaining the negative relationship with most algal pigments.

My analyses lacked zooplankton data that would have enabled exploration of the importance of grazing to the phytoplankton communities, possibly helping explain the low amount of taxonomic variance captured by the RDA. Vinebrooke and Leavitt (1999a) did earlier report that zooplankton biomass was a significant predictor of phytoplankton community composition across mountain lakes

and ponds in the Canadian Rockies. Nevertheless, the unexpected lack of significance of fish presence as a predictor of algal biomass or taxonomic composition suggests that trophic interactions affecting the phytoplankton in these mountain lakes are weak. Introduction of sportfish into many of these lakes during the mid-20<sup>th</sup> century had several negative ramifications on the water quality by increasing phosphorus loading (Schindler et al. 2001) and reducing grazing pressure on the primary producers through the elimination of herbivorous zooplankton (McNaught et al. 1999). Thereafter, Parker et al. (2008) found in four of these alpine lakes that integration of several climatic rather than trophic variables better explained phytoplankton dynamics despite differences in fish-stocking histories among the study lakes.

My findings revealed local water chemistry and associated catchment features to be more important than climate-related factors as predictors of mid-summer phytoplankton community composition in mountain lakes along the Eastern Front range of the Canadian Rockies. The taxonomic variance explained by the factors available was relatively low, which can in part be attributed to the influence of unmeasured environmental variables (e.g. lake flushing rates, glacially derived turbidity) and the importance of seasonality (Reynolds 2006). Nonetheless, the importance of TP to total algal abundance, as well as the prevalence of P-limitation and high TN:TP mass ratios agrees with previous bioassays discussed in Chapter 2. The current study provides further support highlighting the importance of future P deposition from wildfires and the potential impacts of dual nutrient additions, given the strong overall response to NP treatments driving phytoplankton communities.

Interactions between the identified local factors and potential regional variables could result in climate change indirectly affecting mountain phytoplankton communities. Increased melting of glaciers under a warming climate could increase turbidity in lakes while also lowering their temperatures as glacial flour reduces penetration of solar radiation into surface waters (Sommaruga 2015). Further, the expected advancement of treelines to higher elevations would reduce the proportion of bare

catchment, possibly leading to increased brownification and warming of alpine lakes situated currently near treelines (Vinebrooke and Leavitt 1998, 2005; Harsch et al. 2009). Clearly, an on-going challenge for limnologists will be to better predict and understand how regional and local factors interact and to determine their cumulative impacts on phytoplankton communities and their functional roles in mountain lakes under a rapidly changing climate.

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## Chapter 4 : Conclusions

### Synthesis

Mountain lakes are chemically dilute which allows phytoplankton to respond readily to even small increases in nutrient content (Schindler 1987; Adrian et al. 2009; Catalan et al. 2013). My research of mountain lakes in the Canadian Rockies showed a greater importance of phosphorus (P), in driving nutrient limitation in alpine lakes and ponds and in explaining total algal abundance across a large elevational gradient. In the ten-year span between samples obtained for Chapter 2 and Chapter 3, the greater importance of P compared to nitrogen (N) remained the same. The results also highlighted a strong synergistic response to the addition of N and P, which has been reported elsewhere (Elser et al. 2007; Harpole et al. 2011). With growing populations, increased land-use development, continued burning of fossil fuels, and the prediction of more wildfires releasing and transporting N and P, the algal communities could be vulnerable to dual nutrient additions.

The ecosystem response to climate change is complex, and phytoplankton may respond differently depending on catchment characteristics, warming rate and nutrient deposition regimes (Bayer et al. 2016; Jacquemin et al. 2019). The large-scale survey of 82 lakes provides evidence that the phytoplankton community composition may be susceptible to indirect effects associated with climate change as well, resulting from the potential advancement of treeline affecting the proportion of bare catchment and DOC input altering light availability. Changes in precipitation patterns, timing of snowmelt and glacier melting could affect nutrient input as well (Sommaruga 2015; Huss et al. 2017). My research highlights that mountain phytoplankton assemblages in the Canadian Rocky Mountain Parks are sensitive to future indirect effects of climate change and increased nutrient deposition which corroborates previous findings within the Canadian Rockies (McMaster and Schindler 2005; Parker et al. 2008; Murphy et al. 2010) and other mountain regions globally (Morales-Baquero et al. 2006; Battarbee

et al. 2009; Thies et al. 2012; Bergström et al. 2013). However, there were some shortcomings of the research and together with the results, provide some avenues for future investigations.

## **Shortcomings**

Small-scale bioassay experiments offer the opportunity for several replicates of each treatment, high statistical power and short time frames. Factorial ( $N \times P$ ) nutrient-enrichment bioassays allow for conclusions based on the individual and interactive effects of the two nutrients (Elser et al. 1990). From there, responses can be classified as additive or synergistic which is valuable when predicting the impacts of increased dual nutrient deposition. However, some argue that results from small-scale experiments are not relevant to whole-lake processes because they do not account for changes in nutrient cycling, nutrients released from the sediment, and the succession of algal communities (Carpenter 1996; Schindler 2012). Instead, reliable conclusions should only be drawn from whole-lake experiments (Schindler 2012). There may be a difference between proximate limiting nutrients that will result in immediate algal growth, compared to ultimate limiting nutrients which have a transformative effect on the ecosystem (Vitousek et al. 2010).

The 82-lake survey had a large elevation and geographic span, providing an indication of important broad-scale factors for phytoplankton in the Canadian Rockies. Even with several chemical, physical and environmental factors included in the redundancy analysis, some potentially important variables were unavailable. Zooplankton biomass could have an important impact on the total phytoplankton abundance and preferential grazing can affect the community composition as well (Sterner 1989; Reynolds 2006). Information on whether a lake was glacier-fed or not may also be valuable, along with measures of turbidity. Melting glaciers can have significant effects on algal assemblages (Vinebrooke et al. 2010; Saros et al. 2010; Slemmons et al. 2017), which will be increasingly

important with the retreat of mountain glaciers (Fountain et al. 2012; Clarke et al. 2015). Future investigations on the impacts of glacially fed compared to snowmelt fed lakes with a large sample size within the Canadian Rockies would be interesting.

Lastly, while the total N (TN): total P (TP) has been used previously to infer limitation type (Downing and McCauley 1992; Elser et al. 2009), dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) is a better representation of the fraction of N available to the phytoplankton (Morris and Lewis 1988). Therefore, the DIN:TP is frequently a better predictor of limitation type than TN:TP (Morris and Lewis 1988; Bergström 2010). Because of logistical and monetary constraints, we were only able to use TN:TP for inferences of limitation type for the 82-lake survey (Chapter 3). It would have been interesting and allowed for a better comparison with the alpine lakes and ponds used in the bioassays from 2008 (Chapter 2) to have DIN information for the surveyed lakes.

## **Future Research**

Algal pigment data derived using high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) can demonstrate changes in algal abundance and community composition, however the taxonomic resolution is limited. Future research of phytoplankton in lakes of the Canadian Rockies to species level would be valuable. These lakes lack a taxonomically comprehensive species inventory of phytoplankton, which would provide valuable baseline data for future biomonitoring efforts. The use of phytoplankton as indicators at the species level is also useful. For example, the diatom species *Asterionella formosa* is responsive to reactive nitrogen and can be used as an indicator of N deposition in alpine lakes (Saros et al. 2005).

The lack of certainty regarding the historical deposition of nutrients and missing estimates of critical load provides another important avenue for future research. Consistent long-term monitoring of

nutrient deposition within the national parks, and especially at alpine sites, would be helpful for future studies assessing the impacts of external deposition. By pairing deposition rates with paleolimnological studies, inferences can be made for past ecological responses of diatoms. Previous work in the Colorado front range (Wolfe et al. 2001) and the central US Rocky Mountains (Saros et al. 2003) were able to determine detectable shifts in diatoms in response to elevated anthropogenic N deposition.

Paleolimnological studies investigating the past impacts of wildfires in this region and associated changes to algal assemblages and nutrient concentrations would also be an interesting direction for future research.

To better assess the sensitivity of alpine lakes and ponds to nutrient deposition, whole-lake experiments are recommended as another avenue for future research in the Canadian Rockies. A previous attempt to determine the response of phytoplankton to nutrient amendments was complicated by the response of benthic algae and the presence of fairy shrimp (Vinebrooke et al. 2014), demonstrating some of the possible complex ecological interactions when entire lake ecosystems are considered. Further, whole-lake experiments will enable a comparison between the response *in situ* and the bioassay results, determining if the bioassay results represent the proximate or ultimate limiting nutrient (Vitousek et al. 2010) for lakes in the Canadian Rockies. These future avenues of research will continue to contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of the impacts of anthropogenic-induced global changes.

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## Appendix A: Supplemental Information for Chapter 3

**Table A-3.1** Environmental, physical and chemical variables from surveyed lakes and ponds in Banff National Park (n=27)

Lake	Year	Julian Date	Elevation (m asl)	Annual mean air temperature (°C)	Annual mean precipitation (mm)	Mean solar radiation (WH m <sup>-2</sup> )	Lake area (ha)	Catchment area (ha)	Catchment area/lake area
Agnes	2018	227	2118	-2.30	684.57	920617.53	52.29	1774.63	33.93
Baker	2017	221	2207	-2.92	662.16	927292.75	32.08	851.23	26.53
Boom	2017	201	1893	-1.69	675.04	894234.59	86.09	1705.56	19.81
Copper	2017	202	1434	1.00	567.11	834672.55	1.25	63.78	50.97
Eiffel	2017	186	2281	-3.00	694.56	929969.67	7.25	421.75	58.19
Grizzly	2018	234	2170	-2.49	658.43	920269.86	38.06	5632.87	148.01
Herbert	2017	172	1600	0.097	619.81	857342.49	5.29	108.77	20.56
Island	2017	209	1570	0.34	622.62	859313.89	14.72	307.70	20.90
Kingfisher	2017	209	1539	0.23	605.25	859786.35	1.45	49.53	34.14
Laryx	2018	234	2189	-2.20	654.84	922218.55	76.90	877.68	11.41
Lost	2017	194	1692	-0.39	640.75	860701.87	4.39	41.38	9.43
Louise	2017	180	1731	-0.63	681.62	872122.04	75.85	2582.49	34.05
Moraine	2017	180	1887	-1.03	684.72	884494.67	39.04	2665.62	68.29
Mud	2017	172	1600	0.00	614.00	863554.61	5.88	27.50	4.68
Mummy	2018	198	2230	-2.36	669.96	925330.41	163.22	1686.89	10.33
O'Brien	2017	210	2118	-2.40	677.85	919660.67	4.71	196.25	41.69
Pilot	2017	202	1408	1.10	543.00	839942.28	3.04	14.56	4.79
Pharaoh	2018	198	2110	-2.19	661.59	911593.42	81.72	861.80	10.55
Ptarmigan	2017	222	2332	-3.23	665.23	940206.09	25.88	138.01	5.33
Redoubt	2017	221	2393	-3.85	671.14	924256.56	17.38	74.17	4.27
Rockbound	2018	220	2202	-3.04	662.49	924398.04	265.04	5271.62	19.89
Rock Isle	2018	234	2251	-2.49	657.38	929256.53	61.82	2822.84	45.66
Sentinel	2018	221	2423	-3.60	688.23	871634.19	14.69	82.76	5.63
Smith	2017	202	1560	0.06	593.67	839833.36	3.71	34.16	9.22
Taylor	2017	210	2057	-2.54	674.19	911793.68	25.69	313.80	12.22
Temple	2017	186	2179	-3.03	682.30	928975.06	3.11	77.78	25.03
Waterfowl	2017	180	1670	-0.61	684.33	856559.75	71.22	20295.69	284.97

Table A-3.1 (continued)

Lake	Vegetation cover (%)	Barren land (%)	Catchment slope (°)	Mixed sedimentary rock (%)	Non-carbonate sedimentary rock (%)	Carbonate sedimentary rock (%)	Maximum depth (m)	Secchi depth (m)	Surface water temperature (°C)
<b>Agnes</b>	97.43	0.12	6.33	100.00	0.00	0.00	20.5	7.0	12.2
<b>Baker</b>	92.90	2.90	12.43	100.00	0.00	0.00	12.4	12.4	15.8
<b>Boom</b>	95.17	0.00	1.69	100.00	0.00	0.00	13.2	10.0	15.0
<b>Copper</b>	55.30	0.98	13.85	36.41	63.59	0.00	10.4	8.5	15.9
<b>Eiffel</b>	93.83	1.20	9.31	100.00	0.00	0.00	13.3	11.7	9.6
<b>Grizzly</b>	31.85	33.05	30.73	96.82	3.05	0.13	3.0	2.0	12.8
<b>Herbert</b>	42.11	44.82	25.02	98.45	1.11	0.44	12.8	6.5	14.1
<b>Island</b>	88.51	0.00	2.51	100.00	0.00	0.00	6.4	4.5	17.3
<b>Kingfisher</b>	9.81	90.19	23.87	78.15	0.08	21.77	6.7	5.0	17.2
<b>Laryx</b>	38.36	59.72	30.52	100.00	0.00	0.00	10	8.0	14.0
<b>Lost</b>	84.04	1.88	1.38	100.00	0.00	0.00	5.5	2.3	18.5
<b>Louise</b>	50.70	49.30	30.90	100.00	0.00	0.00	70.1	0.5	9.5
<b>Moraine</b>	39.33	60.61	17.56	100.00	0.00	0.00	22.8	5.0	6.9
<b>Mud</b>	30.72	68.30	24.27	100.00	0.00	0.00	6.9	3.0	14.1
<b>Mummy</b>	8.41	90.59	18.33	100.00	0.00	0.00	24.0	9.0	10.5
<b>O'Brien</b>	85.24	12.96	10.60	71.23	0.48	28.28	20.6	5.0	6.3
<b>Pilot</b>	44.55	55.45	31.62	100.00	0.00	0.00	8.0	6.0	15.5
<b>Pharaoh</b>	99.41	0.59	11.21	100.00	0.00	0.00	18.0	7.5	13.5
<b>Ptarmigan</b>	52.81	45.37	28.46	100.00	0.00	0.00	22.0	10.5	14.5
<b>Redoubt</b>	48.86	49.13	30.82	100.00	0.00	0.00	10.6	8.5	14.3
<b>Rockbound</b>	42.16	36.62	22.00	99.50	0.21	0.29	16.0	10.0	13.8
<b>Rock Isle</b>	97.43	0.12	6.33	100.00	0.00	0.00	12.5	8.5	14.1
<b>Sentinel</b>	92.90	2.90	12.43	100.00	0.00	0.00	6.7	6.0	12.5
<b>Smith</b>	95.17	0.00	1.69	100.00	0.00	0.00	9.7	2.5	10.8
<b>Taylor</b>	55.30	0.98	13.85	36.41	63.59	0.00	43.9	4.0	9.6
<b>Temple</b>	93.83	1.20	9.31	100.00	0.00	0.00	14.0	6.5	3.1
<b>Waterfowl</b>	31.85	33.05	30.73	96.82	3.05	0.13	4.7	0.5	9.7

Table A-3.1 (continued)

Lake	Conductivity ( $\mu\text{S}\cdot\text{cm}^{-1}$ )	TN:TP (mass)	TP ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	TDP ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	TN ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	TDN ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	DOC ( $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ )	pH	Surface dissolved oxygen (%)	Fish (presence /absence)
Agnes	151.1	12.33	9	8	111	78	1.2	7.90	84.1	1
Baker	133.9	9.11	9	1	82	64	1.0	8.46	90.3	1
Boom	174.4	14.25	4	1	57	75	1.1	9.39	82.2	1
Copper	158.0	90.20	10	2	902	878	10.6	8.49	98.2	1
Eiffel	83.3	2.61	36	32	94	107	1.2	8.19	78.0	0
Grizzly	202.9	37.33	9	6	336	319	3.1	8.40	100.8	1
Herbert	337.2	96.00	4	1	384	406	4.2	8.12	84.9	1
Island	198.9	102.00	6	4	612	568	9.6	8.69	99.2	0
Kingfisher	209.9	21.14	35	27	740	740	10.4	8.51	102.6	1
Laryx	163.5	16.64	11	7	183	168	2.2	8.20	84.5	1
Lost	205.8	50.75	4	2	203	201	3.3	9.30	90.4	1
Louise	174.7	19.71	7	5	138	178	1.0	8.51	86.6	1
Moraine	173.4	51.33	3	1	154	153	0.2	8.27	86.5	1
Mud	231.2	57.80	5	2	289	299	7.4	8.30	84.6	1
Mummy	383.7	17.75	4	3	71	60	0.5	9.10	79.9	1
O'Brien	63.9	19.33	3	9	58	103	2.3	8.11	87.2	1
Pilot	326.9	76.50	20	8	1530	1520	7.2	8.23	98.3	1
Pharaoh	89.8	5.4375	16	13	87	78	1.0	8.66	82.4	1
Ptarmigan	70.9	4.82	34	29	164	74	1.3	8.75	86.8	1
Redoubt	108.1	14.20	5	1	71	90	0.6	7.79	87.0	1
Rockbound	150.2	8.33	12	5	100	74	0.8	8.27	83.3	1
Rock Isle	159.6	23.75	8	4	190	164	1.5	8.30	80.1	1
Sentinel	145.6	22.40	5	4	112	83	0.4	9.15	82.4	0
Smith	264.5	6.625	16	13	106	112	2.9	8.02	86.3	1
Taylor	65.1	9.75	4	4	39	59	0.8	7.66	87.7	1
Temple	107.5	12.33	12	2	148	95	0.4	7.88	74.8	1
Waterfowl	197.2	94.00	1	1	94	107	0.2	8.39	83.9	1

Abbreviations are total phosphorus (TP), total dissolved phosphorus (TDP), total nitrogen (TN), total dissolved nitrogen (TDN), dissolved organic carbon (DOC). In cases where concentrations were below detection limits, the detection limit was reported.

**Table A-3.2** Environmental, physical and chemical variables from surveyed lakes and ponds in Jasper National Park (n=25)

Lake	Year	Julian Date	Elevation (m asl)	Annual mean air temperature (°C)	Annual mean precipitation (mm)	Mean solar radiation (WH m <sup>-2</sup> )	Lake area (ha)	Catchment area (ha)	Catchment area/lake area
<b>Annette</b>	2017	205	1024	2.90	468.95	771269.19	27.15	152.34	5.61
<b>Beauvert</b>	2017	205	1030	2.85	490.68	773555.13	35.19	409.95	11.65
<b>Buck</b>	2017	206	1405	0.79	535.00	815806.11	20.87	56.18	2.69
<b>Cabin</b>	2017	208	1217	1.93	592.72	793645.15	34.86	1934.37	55.48
<b>Caledonia</b>	2017	208	1161	2.07	555.19	790266.36	15.16	922.65	60.84
<b>Celestine</b>	2017	212	1260	1.54	520.32	796146.61	40.93	328.79	8.03
<b>Christine</b>	2017	207	1338	1.50	548.00	814940.41	1.11	12.40	11.14
<b>Cutt</b>	2017	215	1455	0.72	585.67	810125.63	5.99	27.46	4.59
<b>Dorothy</b>	2017	207	1336	1.35	554.11	809746.79	25.55	207.25	8.11
<b>Edith</b>	2017	207	1024	2.90	469.63	772760.67	53.91	117.36	2.18
<b>Golden</b>	2017	215	1485	0.75	585.03	804641.79	5.07	13.60	2.68
<b>Honeymoon</b>	2017	206	1405	0.80	534.21	814869.24	17.02	58.77	3.45
<b>Horseshoe</b>	2017	206	1230	1.00	547.63	799502.23	8.04	93.95	11.68
<b>Iris</b>	2017	207	1302	1.42	552.47	805955.02	5.37	254.20	47.34
<b>J436</b>	2017	215	1455	0.80	584.33	822592.44	7.65	35.62	4.66
<b>Leach</b>	2017	206	1237	1.60	521.97	797943.99	8.04	135.39	16.85
<b>Little</b>									
<b>Honeymoon</b>	2017	206	1310	1.00	534.24	811752.41	0.81	68.58	84.50
<b>Marjorie</b>	2017	208	1143	2.15	516.98	782772.40	9.48	251.73	26.55
<b>16 ½ Mile</b>	2017	206	1174	1.72	517.22	794550.94	7.69	57.13	7.43
<b>Mina</b>	2017	208	1214	2.05	505.24	794055.68	9.23	35.62	3.86
<b>Moab</b>	2017	206	1204	1.55	583.25	796771.94	21.34	487.71	22.85
<b>Osprey</b>	2017	206	1387	0.75	581.19	810528.30	4.90	428.17	87.47
<b>Patricia</b>	2017	205	1180	2.20	498.65	790551.25	64.53	251.48	3.90
<b>Pyramid</b>	2017	205	1186	2.15	553.40	790205.18	124.19	2958.50	23.82
<b>Virl</b>	2017	207	1305	1.60	543.12	809473.62	3.71	42.70	11.51

Table A-3.2 (continued)

Lake	Vegetation cover (%)	Barren land (%)	Catchment slope (°)	Mixed sedimentary rock (%)	Non-carbonate sedimentary rock (%)	Carbonate sedimentary rock (%)	Maximum depth (m)	Secchi depth (m)	Surface water temperature (°C)
<b>Annette</b>	72.92	1.25	3.86	100.00	0.00	0.00	22.8	10.5	16.8
<b>Beauvert</b>	74.65	1.28	6.88	100.00	0.00	0.00	24.8	12.0	14.9
<b>Buck</b>	59.23	0.00	2.23	100.00	0.00	0.00	6.2	6.0	18.1
<b>Cabin</b>	83.00	12.87	14.85	100.00	0.00	0.00	27.0	5.5	17.1
<b>Caledonia</b>	92.99	0.43	9.93	100.00	0.00	0.00	11.3	4.0	17.3
<b>Celestine</b>	85.11	0.83	12.98	29.72	70.28	0.00	13.4	5.5	18.4
<b>Christine</b>	85.57	0.00	11.43	100.00	0.00	0.00	9.2	3.0	16.6
<b>Cutt</b>	53.19	0.00	5.76	100.00	0.00	0.00	8.0	5.5	18.1
<b>Dorothy</b>	78.88	0.73	10.54	100.00	0.00	0.00	14.8	4.0	17.0
<b>Edith</b>	44.20	0.05	2.14	100.00	0.00	0.00	17.3	11.5	18.2
<b>Golden</b>	56.31	0.00	6.47	100.00	0.00	0.00	10.6	8.0	17.6
<b>Honeymoon</b>	70.83	0.00	0.18	100.00	0.00	0.00	7.4	4.0	15.6
<b>Horseshoe</b>	66.47	21.35	23.88	100.00	0.00	0.00	28.6	14.0	16.2
<b>Iris</b>	78.94	0.75	9.56	100.00	0.00	0.00	14.5	4.5	17.1
<b>J436</b>	75.84	0.71	3.87	100.00	0.00	0.00	2.8	2.8	18.5
<b>Leach</b>	83.08	0.61	4.36	100.00	0.00	0.00	11.0	5.5	16.9
<b>Little</b>									
<b>Honeymoon</b>	71.49	0.65	0.25	100.00	0.00	0.00	5.0	5.0	15.2
<b>Marjorie</b>	89.80	0.38	9.18	100.00	0.00	0.00	8.2	5.5	18.5
<b>16 ½ Mile</b>	83.50	0.00	11.16	100.00	0.00	0.00	5.8	5.8	17.5
<b>Mina</b>	72.29	0.00	5.82	100.00	0.00	0.00	13.8	5.5	19.0
<b>Moab</b>	50.55	39.71	16.77	100.00	0.00	0.00	18.1	9.0	16.1
<b>Osprey</b>	73.37	24.04	20.08	100.00	0.00	0.00	7.5	2.5	8.1
<b>Patricia</b>	67.61	0.33	5.45	100.00	0.00	0.00	41.2	6.9	16.4
<b>Pyramid</b>	80.38	13.53	15.51	100.00	0.00	0.00	18.2	7.0	15.6
<b>Virl</b>	91.11	0.00	7.23	100.00	0.00	0.00	5.8	2.2	19.6

Table A-3.2 (continued)

Lake	Conductivity ( $\mu\text{S}^{-\text{cm}}$ )	TN:TP (mass)	TP ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	TDP ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	TN ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	TDN ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	DOC ( $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ )	pH	Surface dissolved oxygen (%)	Fish (presence/ absence)
Annette	291.1	24.33	9	2	219	176	0.9	9.43	95.6	1
Beauvert	251.4	21.11	9	2	190	155	1.4	9.24	97.7	1
Buck	164.6	290.33	3	3	871	857	10.1	9.68	93.9	1
Cabin	132.7	35.50	4	2	142	150	3.9	8.51	96.7	1
Caledonia	142.5	29.60	10	6	296	252	5.5	8.42	96.9	1
Celestine	222.1	41.71	17	10	709	652	9.6	9.46	109.7	1
Christine	226.3	37.59	17	5	639	535	7.5	8.21	92.6	1
Cutt	126.6	16.10	21	10	338	297	6.9	8.76	86.3	1
Dorothy	265.2	55.25	8	1	442	442	7.9	8.65	98.6	1
Edith	303.1	30.25	4	1	121	87	1.2	7.67	103.1	1
Golden	80.9	13.70	20	15	274	264	6.3	8.52	92.6	1
Honeymoon	186.1	89.13	8	3	713	608	8.5	9.60	94.4	1
Horseshoe	306.7	32.75	8	2	262	261	0.7	7.97	107.4	1
Iris	248.5	42.10	10	1	421	456	8.1	7.88	100.2	1
J436	227.2	138.75	8	4	1110	1070	16.8	9.25	101.9	0
Leach	229.1	71.22	9	1	641	595	9.9	8.28	99.1	1
Little Honeymoon	50.4	87.25	4	2	349	365	4.4	7.67	66.9	0
Marjorie	289.0	25.56	25	4	639	606	10.4	8.38	98.8	1
16 ½ Mile	256.9	66.45	11	8	731	733	11.8	8.33	105.5	1
Mina	605.0	47.91	43	9	2060	1820	16.5	8.91	106.1	1
Moab	182.5	17.13	8	1	137	117	2.6	7.74	92.5	1
Osprey	108.1	44.00	2	1	88	101	0.4	9.23	97.1	1
Patricia	671.0	66.00	7	3	462	444	7.1	9.51	100.3	1
Pyramid	273.6	16.10	10	3	161	149	4.3	8.68	95.4	1
Viril	215.7	53.83	12	1	646	599	11.1	8.09	93.4	1

Abbreviations are total phosphorus (TP), total dissolved phosphorus (TDP), total nitrogen (TN), total dissolved nitrogen (TDN), dissolved organic carbon (DOC). In cases where concentrations were below detection limits, the detection limit was reported.

**Table A-3.3** Environmental, physical and chemical variables from surveyed lakes and ponds in Waterton National Park (n=15)

Lake	Year	Julian Date	Elevation (m asl)	Annual mean air temperature (°C)	Annual mean precipitation (mm)	Mean solar radiation (WH m <sup>-2</sup> )	Lake area (ha)	Catchment area (ha)	Catchment area/lake area
<b>Alderson</b>	2017	166	1811	-0.43	701.10	897442.93	11.75	107.75	9.17
<b>Allison</b>	2017	165	1274	4.00	537.35	856757.59	7.72	114.66	14.85
<b>Bertha</b>	2017	193	1774	0.73	684.25	898629.44	30.25	506.21	16.73
<b>Buffalo Creek Pond</b>	2017	165	1323	3.70	577.97	864692.70	0.85	737.97	867.79
<b>Cameron</b>	2017	164	1660	1.57	683.27	891296.69	141.01	792.01	5.62
<b>Crandell</b>	2017	196	1524	2.31	639.29	874508.43	6.09	121.10	19.89
<b>Indian Springs W47</b>	2017	165	1348	3.70	562.53	866987.37	2.30	56.23	24.48
<b>Linnet</b>	2017	195	1280	-0.20	601.42	854222.84	4.06	112.66	27.75
<b>Lonesome</b>	2017	195	1280	3.60	623.27	860382.36	15.69	394.65	25.15
<b>Lost</b>	2017	194	1875	0.40	695.77	883399.51	1.45	41.72	28.82
<b>Lower Rowe</b>	2017	192	1957	0.10	694.94	882170.97	1.76	35.53	20.15
<b>Maskinongne</b>	2017	196	1276	4.00	549.15	857504.56	53.74	1698.80	31.61
<b>Summit</b>	2017	164	1931	0.70	685.41	922941.53	1.88	42.37	22.56
<b>Temporary Pond W60</b>	2017	195	1293	3.80	560.00	865357.25	0.07	2.19	30.52
<b>Upper Rowe</b>	2017	192	2168	-0.60	711.60	905267.98	6.93	61.07	8.82

Table A-3.3 (continued)

Lake	Vegetation cover (%)	Barren land (%)	Catchment slope (°)	Mixed sedimentary rock (%)	Non-carbonate sedimentary rock (%)	Carbonate sedimentary rock (%)	Maximum depth (m)	Secchi depth (m)	Surface water temperature (°C)
<b>Alderson</b>	20.76	34.73	36.71	100.00	0.00	0.00	60.0	7.0	3.0
<b>Allison</b>	86.73	8.44	2.72	0.00	100.00	0.00	2.4	0.9	15.3
<b>Bertha</b>	54.93	35.15	27.80	100.00	0.00	0.00	50.8	9.5	15.7
<b>Buffalo Creek Pond</b>	92.99	4.15	9.81	18.32	81.68	0.00	2.2	2.2	14.6
<b>Cameron</b>	59.86	13.41	22.56	69.03	5.95	1.00	39.0	5.0	4.6
<b>Crandell</b>	84.66	8.90	23.63	100.00	0.00	0.00	15.5	4.5	13.4
<b>Indian Springs W47</b>	91.06	4.70	4.62	0.00	100.00	0.00	4.0	3.5	15.2
<b>Linnet</b>	67.37	27.99	27.48	100.00	0.00	0.00	4.7	2.5	15.9
<b>Lonesome</b>	86.42	10.84	24.10	100.00	0.00	0.00	2.6	1.0	13.9
<b>Lost</b>	86.68	4.06	30.88	100.00	0.00	0.00	12.0	6.0	14.4
<b>Lower Rowe</b>	55.84	14.72	30.99	100.00	0.00	0.00	8.0	5.5	14.0
<b>Maskinongne</b>	94.40	3.86	3.31	0.00	100.00	0.00	2.0	1.0	13.7
<b>Summit</b>	94.64	0.00	7.85	100.00	0.00	0.00	2.3	2.3	1.9
<b>Temporary Pond W60</b>	82.35	17.65	2.90	100.00	0.00	0.00	1.6	0.5	19.6
<b>Upper Rowe</b>	52.59	25.86	24.36	100.00	0.00	0.00	3.0	3.0	15.4

Table A-3.3 (continued)

Lake	Conductivity ( $\mu\text{S}^{-\text{cm}}$ )	TN:TP (mass)	TP ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	TDP ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	TN ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	TDN ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	DOC ( $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ )	pH	Surface dissolved oxygen (%)	Fish (presence /absence)
<b>Alderson</b>	273.6	100.50	2	1	201	203	0.3	8.21	78.8	1
<b>Allison</b>	215.7	30.21	14	6	423	439	6.7	8.35	85.3	0
<b>Bertha</b>	379.6	4.92	12	43	59	103	5.0	9.80	107.4	1
<b>Buffalo Creek Pond</b>	120.6	26.00	10	1	260	235	3.4	8.97	97.6	1
<b>Cameron</b>	497.0	14.00	5	2	70	96	0.9	7.62	80.3	1
<b>Crandell</b>	581.0	20.88	8	1	167	152	2.5	8.355	86.8	1
<b>Indian Springs W47</b>	309.7	34.57	7	1	242	247	2.8	9.10	90.6	0
<b>Linnet</b>	135.5	17.18	11	1	189	139	2.1	8.61	91.5	1
<b>Lonesome</b>	345.7	37.30	10	7	373	393	7.9	8.71	89.9	0
<b>Lost</b>	287.4	9.57	7	6	67	71	1.2	9.33	88.5	0
<b>Lower Rowe</b>	107.4	16.00	5	2	80	42	0.7	9.98	88.5	0
<b>Maskinongne</b>	89.6	30.92	12	2	371	372	6.6	8.45	86.3	1
<b>Summit</b>	239.2	10.71	7	6	75	86	2.0	6.40	72.8	0
<b>Temporary Pond W60</b>	369.5	14.07	46	28	647	602	8.5	7.74	59.9	0
<b>Upper Rowe</b>	228.5	22.33	6	4	134	105	0.7	9.35	82.7	0

Abbreviations are total phosphorus (TP), total dissolved phosphorus (TDP), total nitrogen (TN), total dissolved nitrogen (TDN), dissolved organic carbon (DOC). In cases where concentrations were below detection limits, the detection limit was reported.

**Table A-3.4** Environmental, physical and chemical variables from surveyed lakes and ponds in Yoho National Park (n=10)

Lake	Year	Julian Date	Elevation (m asl)	Annual mean air temperature (°C)	Annual mean precipitation (mm)	Mean solar radiation (WH m <sup>-2</sup> )	Lake area (ha)	Catchment area (ha)	Catchment area/lake area
Celeste	2017	200	1997	-1.15	696.50	890780.31	2.13	18.74	8.82
Duchesnay	2017	199	1595	-0.52	681.95	843527.13	6.02	76.72	12.74
Hamilton	2017	199	2160	-2.62	723.98	911965.96	4.45	181.54	40.78
Hungabee	2018	205	2243	-3.00	698.81	926001.99	24.41	3301.72	135.27
Mary	2018	205	2034	-2.07	693.03	901502.02	53.61	952.96	17.78
Oesa	2018	205	2285	-3.48	699.52	928742.10	167.12	4783.21	28.62
Opabin	2018	205	2280	-3.00	698.96	930225.62	22.65	2618.64	115.62
Schaffer	2017	201	2170	-2.20	697.71	916953.30	1.26	107.31	85.36
Sherbrooke	2017	187	1803	-1.41	692.10	878046.16	36.14	2098.75	58.08
Wapta	2017	187	1595	0.26	685.86	854638.56	25.26	9577.80	379.10

Table A-3.4 (continued)

Lake	Vegetataion cover (%)	Barren land (%)	Catchment slope (°)	Mixed sedimentary rock (%)	Non-carbonate sedimentary rock (%)	Carbonate sedimentary rock (%)	Maximum depth (m)	Secchi depth (m)	Surface water temperature (°C)
Celeste	81.62	17.09	13.53	0.00	100.00	0.00	5.3	5.3	13.3
Duchesnay	85.40	10.08	21.53	0.00	100.00	0.00	1.3	1.3	16.4
Hamilton	3.25	93.77	30.91	0.00	64.67	35.33	12.0	5.0	7.2
Hungabee	24.65	65.91	34.36	0.44	89.67	9.90	2.7	2.2	14.4
Mary	31.95	60.93	30.99	0.00	100.00	0.00	3.5	4.0	14.5
Oesa	11.88	59.59	39.47	3.73	69.67	26.60	35.4	7.0	7.5
Opabin	13.47	73.52	36.41	0.55	86.97	12.48	12.3	6.0	10.1
Schaffer	46.60	48.98	25.22	0.00	72.69	27.31	2.5	1.9	6.7
Sherbrooke	39.34	49.69	26.73	0.74	50.46	48.81	12.0	2.5	9.2
Wapta	54.84	38.20	27.04	4.97	66.82	28.20	8.0	4.0	9.5

Table A-3.4 (continued)

Lake	Conductivity ( $\mu\text{S}^{-\text{cm}}$ )	TN:TP (mass)	TP ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	TDP ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	TN ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	TDN ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	DOC ( $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ )	pH	Surface dissolved oxygen (%)	Fish (presence/ absence)
<b>Celeste</b>	164.1	7.22	9	1	65	89	0.6	7.77	100.00	1
<b>Duchesnay</b>	163.8	38.5.0	4	2	154	166	2.3	8.41	100.00	1
<b>Hamilton</b>	139.4	4.31	29	6	125	101	1.0	7.61	41.67	0
<b>Hungabee</b>	21.4	23.67	3	1	71	53	0.9	9.00	81.48	0
<b>Mary</b>	204.3	43.67	3	1	131	93	0.9	9.50	114.29	0
<b>Oesa</b>	149.2	15.50	8	7	124	114	0.6	9.04	19.77	0
<b>Opabin</b>	80.9	68.33	3	2	205	73	0.2	9.15	48.78	0
<b>Schaffer</b>	113.8	30.50	2	1	61	69	0.2	7.48	76.00	1
<b>Sherbrooke</b>	174.6	24.00	3	1	72	88	0.8	8.31	20.83	1
<b>Wapta</b>	170.6	46.50	2	3	93	95	0.3	8.26	50.00	1

Abbreviations are total phosphorus (TP), total dissolved phosphorus (TDP), total nitrogen (TN), total dissolved nitrogen (TDN), dissolved organic carbon (DOC). In cases where concentrations were below detection limits, the detection limit was reported.

**Table A-3.5** Environmental, physical and chemical variables from surveyed lakes and ponds in Kootenay National Park (n=5)

Lake	Year	Julian Date	Elevation (m asl)	Annual mean air temperature (°C)	Annual mean precipitation (mm)	Mean solar radiation (WH m <sup>-2</sup> )	Lake area (ha)	Catchment area (ha)	Catchment area/lake area
<b>Cobb</b>	2017	201	1260	0.93	667.13	826626.98	2.32	407.61	176.04
<b>Floe</b>	2017	199	2036	-2.01	693.10	902121.67	50.44	524.05	10.39
<b>K20</b>	2017	200	1218	1.60	583.66	820365.11	0.52	37.72	73.17
<b>Kootenay Pond</b>	2017	171	1188	1.50	585.17	821782.37	2.48	488.65	197.37
<b>Olive</b>	2017	199	1631	0.10	644.92	853647.08	1.75	44.04	25.23

Table A-3.5 (continued)

Lake	Vegetation cover (%)	Barren land (%)	Catchment slope (°)	Mixed sedimentary rock (%)	Non-carbonate sedimentary rock (%)	Carbonate sedimentary rock (%)	Maximum depth (m)	Secchi depth (m)	Surface water temperature (°C)
<b>Cobb</b>	74.50	24.63	32.38	21.32	7.19	71.49	8.0	8.0	17.00
<b>Floe</b>	29.10	53.69	29.43	0.00	0.00	100.00	61.0	4.0	6.20
<b>K20</b>	99.34	0.00	4.88	0.00	100.00	0.00	3.5	2.5	18.00
<b>Kootenay Pond</b>	96.84	1.74	9.32	0.00	100.00	0.00	7.8	6.8	16.80
<b>Olive</b>	91.75	4.00	26.11	8.55	0.00	91.45	3.4	3.4	14.80

Table A-3.5 (continued)

Lake	Conductivity ( $\mu\text{S}^{-\text{cm}}$ )	TN:TP (mass)	TP ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	TDP ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	TN ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	TDN ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	DOC ( $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ )	pH	Surface dissolved oxygen (%)	Fish (presence /absence)
<b>Cobb</b>	379.6	6.48	61	58	395	401	5.3	8.11	90.8	1
<b>Floe</b>	120.6	14.56	18	14	262	284	3.5	8.99	81.7	1
<b>K20</b>	497.0	49.82	11	1	548	507	7.3	8.72	90.4	0
<b>Kootenay</b>										
<b>Pond</b>	581.0	50.20	5	2	251	241	2.2	8.16	109.5	1
<b>Olive</b>	309.7	72.50	2	1	145	322	1.5	8.18	96.0	1

Abbreviations are total phosphorus (TP), total dissolved phosphorus (TDP), total nitrogen (TN), total dissolved nitrogen (TDN), dissolved organic carbon (DOC). In cases where concentrations were below detection limits, the detection limit was reported.

**Table A-3.6** Algal pigment concentrations derived from high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) for all sites within the Canadian Rockies (n=82). All data are presented in  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ .

	<b>Fucoxanthin</b>	<b>Neoxanthin</b>	<b>Violaxanthin</b>	<b>Diadinoxanthin</b>	<b>Myxoxanthophyll</b>	<b>Alloxanthin</b>	<b>Diatoxanthin</b>	<b>Zeaxanthin</b>	<b>Lutein</b>	<b>Canthaxanthin</b>	<b>Chlorophyll <i>b</i></b>	<b>Chlorophyll <i>a</i></b>
<b>Agnes</b>	0.811	0.000	0.037	0.030	0.000	0.054	0.046	0.029	0.011	0.034	0.021	2.398
<b>Baker</b>	0.490	0.000	0.006	0.000	0.000	0.023	0.000	0.046	0.029	0.011	0.037	1.127
<b>Boom</b>	0.131	0.000	0.010	0.028	0.000	0.000	0.028	0.020	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.420
<b>Copper</b>	0.281	0.000	0.019	0.064	0.000	0.058	0.064	0.085	0.000	0.022	0.042	1.061
<b>Eiffel</b>	0.122	0.000	0.018	0.000	0.000	0.011	0.000	0.041	0.008	0.000	0.000	0.442
<b>Grizzly</b>	0.030	0.007	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.022	0.000	0.000	0.053	0.000	0.043	0.473
<b>Herbert</b>	0.097	0.000	0.016	0.026	0.000	0.047	0.026	0.046	0.013	0.000	0.000	0.546
<b>Island</b>	0.194	0.000	0.039	0.068	0.000	0.034	0.068	0.084	0.017	0.045	0.027	1.220
<b>Kingfisher</b>	0.380	0.000	0.014	0.090	0.000	0.121	0.090	0.172	0.038	0.000	0.000	1.308
<b>Laryx</b>	0.357	0.000	0.016	0.051	0.000	0.103	0.034	0.039	0.013	0.000	0.000	1.344
<b>Lost (B)</b>	0.043	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.028	0.000	0.014	0.016	0.000	0.000	0.335
<b>Louise</b>	0.062	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.025	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.227
<b>Moraine</b>	0.102	0.000	0.008	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.050	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.357
<b>Mud</b>	0.169	0.000	0.010	0.043	0.000	0.018	0.043	0.015	0.009	0.000	0.000	0.509
<b>Mummy</b>	0.055	0.000	0.006	0.015	0.000	0.042	0.021	0.034	0.012	0.000	0.022	0.472
<b>O'Brien</b>	0.890	0.000	0.046	0.193	0.000	0.147	0.193	0.073	0.124	0.000	0.100	3.735
<b>Pilot</b>	0.239	0.000	0.011	0.039	0.000	0.030	0.039	0.095	0.040	0.000	0.172	1.466
<b>Pharaoh</b>	0.906	0.000	0.037	0.034	0.000	0.064	0.024	0.099	0.026	0.000	0.127	1.964
<b>Ptarmigan</b>	0.208	0.000	0.013	0.027	0.000	0.045	0.027	0.067	0.027	0.006	0.085	0.990
<b>Redoubt</b>	0.075	0.000	0.006	0.026	0.000	0.014	0.026	0.011	0.020	0.000	0.000	0.313
<b>Rockbound</b>	0.180	0.000	0.013	0.016	0.000	0.012	0.044	0.094	0.004	0.000	0.022	0.650
<b>Rock Isle</b>	0.039	0.000	0.005	0.000	0.000	0.051	0.016	0.000	0.041	0.015	0.029	0.557
<b>Sentinel</b>	0.103	0.000	0.014	0.000	0.000	0.017	0.011	0.035	0.000	0.000	0.020	0.404
<b>Smith</b>	0.698	0.000	0.020	0.102	0.000	0.088	0.102	0.000	0.053	0.000	0.000	1.611
<b>Taylor</b>	0.392	0.022	0.035	0.068	0.000	0.055	0.068	0.000	0.192	0.000	0.366	2.231

<b>Temple</b>	0.357	0.000	0.016	0.320	0.000	0.013	0.320	0.027	0.000	0.000	0.032	1.873
<b>Waterfowl</b>	0.040	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.012	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.095
<b>Annette</b>	0.688	0.000	0.013	0.086	0.000	0.014	0.086	0.030	0.018	0.000	0.034	1.297
<b>Beauvert</b>	0.596	0.000	0.017	0.108	0.000	0.090	0.108	0.033	0.038	0.000	0.000	1.365
<b>Buck</b>	0.063	0.000	0.007	0.010	0.000	0.010	0.010	0.044	0.000	0.000	0.049	0.437
<b>Cabin</b>	0.098	0.000	0.012	0.020	0.000	0.012	0.020	0.040	0.000	0.000	0.016	0.484
<b>Caledonia</b>	0.100	0.000	0.025	0.033	0.000	0.153	0.033	0.104	0.020	0.000	0.076	1.525
<b>Celestine</b>	0.127	0.000	0.015	0.029	0.000	0.034	0.029	0.387	0.019	0.000	0.040	1.173
<b>Christine</b>	0.080	0.000	0.017	0.029	0.000	0.199	0.029	0.858	0.068	0.000	0.000	5.204
<b>Cutt</b>	0.217	0.000	0.018	0.040	0.000	0.051	0.040	0.227	0.000	0.010	0.022	1.097
<b>Dorothy</b>	0.198	0.000	0.015	0.058	0.000	0.038	0.058	0.127	0.012	0.000	0.000	0.878
<b>Edith</b>	0.273	0.000	0.011	0.085	0.000	0.033	0.085	0.021	0.026	0.000	0.013	0.611
<b>Golden</b>	0.291	0.000	0.018	0.046	0.000	0.035	0.046	0.094	0.000	0.000	0.030	0.974
<b>Honeymoon</b>	0.041	0.000	0.000	0.024	0.000	0.089	0.024	0.334	0.029	0.000	0.000	0.862
<b>Horseshoe</b>	0.423	0.000	0.014	0.097	0.000	0.052	0.097	0.100	0.000	0.030	0.195	1.605
<b>Iris</b>	0.202	0.000	0.009	0.066	0.000	0.081	0.066	0.286	0.041	0.015	0.000	1.878
<b>J436</b>	0.222	0.000	0.000	0.035	0.338	0.039	0.035	0.112	0.000	0.015	0.000	0.808
<b>Leach</b>	0.168	0.000	0.010	0.045	0.000	0.063	0.045	0.171	0.021	0.000	0.030	1.111
<b>Little</b>												
<b>Honeymoon</b>	0.076	0.000	0.013	0.035	0.000	0.008	0.035	0.033	0.012	0.000	0.000	0.461
<b>Marjorie</b>	0.367	0.000	0.016	0.066	0.000	0.054	0.066	0.120	0.034	0.000	0.039	1.715
<b>Mile 16 1/2</b>	0.175	0.000	0.007	0.068	0.000	0.025	0.068	0.030	0.011	0.000	0.000	0.805
<b>Mina</b>	0.000	0.000	0.046	0.000	0.000	0.462	0.000	0.830	0.395	0.000	0.000	0.000
<b>Moab</b>	0.264	0.000	0.012	0.101	0.000	0.028	0.101	0.050	0.010	0.007	0.102	1.463
<b>Osprey</b>	0.032	0.000	0.000	0.005	0.000	0.005	0.005	0.005	0.004	0.000	0.000	0.141
<b>Patricia</b>	0.083	0.000	0.005	0.033	0.000	0.057	0.033	0.056	0.013	0.000	0.000	0.474
<b>Pyramid</b>	0.163	0.000	0.011	0.025	0.000	0.044	0.025	0.047	0.015	0.000	0.016	0.786
<b>Virl</b>	0.703	0.000	0.034	0.141	0.000	0.060	0.141	0.209	0.027	0.000	0.118	2.289
<b>Alderson</b>	0.170	0.000	0.011	0.053	0.000	0.014	0.053	0.029	0.019	0.000	0.026	0.554
<b>Allison</b>	0.097	0.000	0.013	0.023	0.000	0.044	0.023	0.052	0.014	0.000	0.048	0.798

<b>Bertha</b>	0.757	0.000	0.015	0.087	0.000	0.148	0.087	0.041	0.056	0.000	0.033	1.934
<b>Buffalo</b>												
<b>Creek Pond</b>	0.049	0.000	0.014	0.000	0.124	0.029	0.000	0.079	0.000	0.000	0.030	0.381
<b>Cameron</b>	0.694	0.000	0.024	0.214	0.000	0.123	0.214	0.049	0.022	0.000	0.048	2.971
<b>Crandell</b>	0.394	0.000	0.015	0.114	0.155	0.058	0.114	0.060	0.014	0.000	0.056	1.281
<b>Indian</b>												
<b>Springs W47</b>	0.056	0.000	0.009	0.000	0.000	0.011	0.000	0.000	0.042	0.000	0.022	0.338
<b>Linnet</b>	0.576	0.000	0.073	0.169	0.000	0.000	0.169	0.000	0.255	0.000	0.130	2.265
<b>Lonesome</b>	0.044	0.000	0.011	0.000	0.092	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.047	0.000	0.047	0.447
<b>Lost (W)</b>	0.046	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.011	0.000	0.034	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.224
<b>Lower Rowe</b>	0.340	0.000	0.028	0.060	0.000	0.233	0.060	0.070	0.024	0.000	0.034	1.799
<b>Maskinongne</b>	0.139	0.000	0.021	0.026	0.000	0.013	0.026	0.023	0.000	0.035	0.000	1.488
<b>Summit</b>	0.027	0.000	0.011	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.022	0.000	0.023	0.137
<b>Temporary</b>												
<b>Pond W60</b>	0.213	0.019	0.084	0.000	0.000	0.311	0.000	0.000	0.314	0.000	0.268	3.636
<b>Upper Rowe</b>	0.205	0.000	0.034	0.046	0.098	0.066	0.046	0.093	0.010	0.019	0.000	0.751
<b>Celeste</b>	0.226	0.000	0.010	0.062	0.000	0.000	0.062	0.020	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.593
<b>Duchesnay</b>	0.069	0.000	0.008	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.030	0.000	0.013	0.026	0.728
<b>Hamilton</b>	0.571	0.000	0.010	0.083	0.000	0.034	0.083	0.000	0.026	0.000	0.000	1.376
<b>Hungabee</b>	0.109	0.000	0.021	0.065	0.000	0.008	0.022	0.084	0.000	0.000	0.064	0.607
<b>Mary</b>	0.122	0.000	0.026	0.011	0.000	0.013	0.004	0.018	0.007	0.000	0.017	0.465
<b>Oesa</b>	0.089	0.000	0.008	0.015	0.000	0.012	0.020	0.039	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.319
<b>Opabin</b>	0.589	0.000	0.014	0.089	0.000	0.058	0.220	0.025	0.014	0.000	0.020	1.608
<b>Schaffer</b>	0.034	0.000	0.000	0.006	0.000	0.000	0.006	0.008	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.097
<b>Sherbrooke</b>	0.142	0.000	0.012	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.024	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.496
<b>Wapta</b>	0.024	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.057
<b>Cobb</b>	1.713	0.000	0.038	0.245	0.124	0.115	0.245	0.061	0.000	0.000	0.000	3.641
<b>Floe</b>	0.040	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.010	0.000	0.000	0.098
<b>K20</b>	0.358	0.000	0.031	0.108	0.000	0.043	0.108	0.055	0.009	0.000	0.031	1.447

**Kootenay**

<b>Pond</b>	0.037	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.031	0.000	0.000	0.296
<b>Olive</b>	0.062	0.000	0.000	0.023	0.000	0.000	0.023	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.173

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