2002 SUMMARY REPORT
of
LAKE HOLLOWAY

Lake County, Illinois

Prepared by the

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Lake Holloway encompasses approximately 12.8 acres and has a shoreline length of approximately one mile. The lake is privately owned and managed by The Ivanhoe Club, a private 27-hole golf course. The area on which the lake is located was known as the Smith Estate, prior to the development of the current golf course.

Water clarity, as measured by Secchi disk transparency readings, averaged 3.37 feet for the season. Clarity decreased as the summer progressed, partially as a result of the severe algae blooms that occurred during July, August, and September. The decreased clarity corresponded with an increase in total suspended solids (TSS). While algae contributed to the high TSS concentrations, inorganic material, such as sediment was largely responsible for the high values.

Lake Holloway exhibits polymictic tendencies, meaning stratification and turnover occur repeatedly over the year. The lake was not stratified in May, but was stratified during the remainder of the study, however, the strength of the thermocline was highly variable indicating the lake likely experienced turnover on several occasions.

Total phosphorus (TP) concentrations in Lake Holloway were high. The 2002 average TP concentration was 0.132 mg/L in the epilimnion and 0.281 mg/L in the hypolimnion. The county median is 0.056 mg/L in the epilimnion and 0.170 mg/L in the hypolimnion. The lake also had high average concentrations of Total Kjeldahl Nitrogen (TKN) in both the epilimnion (2.052 mg/L) and hypolimnion (3.380 mg/L). Due to the severe algae blooms that were occurring in the lake in July, August, and September, the accumulation of dead and decaying algae in the hypolimnion became concentrated, causing the high values.

Dissolved oxygen (DO) concentrations in Lake Holloway did not indicate any significant problems, although algae blooms caused the DO concentrations to fluctuate widely daily and seasonally.

The lake was sparsely populated with plants. Only two aquatic plant species, one macro-algae and several emergent shoreline plants were found and only very small populations of each were found. One piece of chara (a macro-algae) was found in May, in August only duckweed (floating on the water’s surface) and horned pondweed (rooted near shore) were found, and in September only duckweed was found. The poor aquatic plant presence in the lake is probably due, in part, to the poor water clarity which limited light penetration and the hard substrate near the shoreline.

The shoreline of Lake Holloway was classified as 100% developed. Buffer habitat comprised approximately 58% of the shoreline, followed by riprap (32%), woodland (5%), and shrub (5%). While buffer habitats constituted over half of the shoreline, much of the buffer was less than five feet wide and consisted of unmowed turfgrass or was inhabited by exotic plant species. Several areas (approximately 1,057 feet or 21% of the shoreline) around Lake Holloway were classified as moderately eroding.
LAKE IDENTIFICATION AND LOCATION

Lake Holloway (T44N, R10E, Section 22) is located north of State Highway 176 and west of State Highway 60/83 in unincorporated Ivanhoe (Fremont Township). It is part of the Long Lake (or Squaw Creek) drainage of the Fox River watershed.

Lake Holloway is near the top of its drainage, with the eastern edge of the drainage being State Highway 60/83 and the southern edge being just south of State Highway 176. The area surrounding the lake is primarily rural, although increased residential development is occurring around the golf course. Several agricultural fields can be found to the east of the lake. Water enters the lake at the southeastern end from a series of small ponds. Additional water may enter the lake from the northern channel. Water exits the lake at the northwestern end through a small spillway structure, eventually draining into Squaw Creek.

Lake Holloway encompasses approximately 12.8 acres and has a shoreline length of approximately one mile. The maximum depth, as measured in April of 2002, was 11.1 feet. This measurement was recorded near the outlet channel. The maximum depth in the main body of the lake was 8.6 feet. Since no bathymetric (depth contour) map of Lake Holloway is known to exist, the volume of the lake was estimated based on data from lakes with known depths and volumes. Mean depth was obtained by multiplying the maximum depth by 0.5. Volume was obtained by multiplying the mean depth by the lake surface area. Based on these calculations, Lake Holloway has an estimated mean depth of 5.6 feet and an estimated volume of 71.7 acre-feet. Lake elevation is approximately 805 feet above sea level.

BRIEF HISTORY OF LAKE HOLLOWAY

The origin of Lake Holloway is unknown, although it was likely a shallow wetland that was damned. The area on which the lake is located was known as the Smith Estate. A 1939 aerial photograph (Figure 1 in Appendix A) indicates that a golf course has been part of the lake for some time. A developer purchased the land in 1986 and construction of the current golf course (The Ivanhoe Club) began in 1987. The 18-hole course opened in 1991 and subsequently expanded to 27 holes.

Grass carp were stocked in Lake Holloway sometime before 1994. Exact stocking dates and densities are unknown.

SUMMARY OF CURRENT AND HISTORICAL LAKE USES

Lake Holloway is privately owned and managed by The Ivanhoe Club, a private 27-hole golf course. The lake is entirely surrounded by the golf course, which uses the lake for irrigation. Based on estimates from golf course personnel, about 8–20 million gallons of water are used for irrigation annually. Approximately one-third of this irrigation water
comes from the sewage treatment lagoons located south of State Highway 173. This effluent is mixed with stormwater effluent that is captured in various ponds throughout the golf course, then applied to the golf course.

A well pump pipe is located along the shoreline south the spillway that occasionally pumped water into the lake. It has a 140 gallon per minute capacity. Potential implications of this water will be discussed in the Water Quality Assessment below.

No watercraft is permitted on the lake. Limited shoreline fishing does occur on Lake Holloway, but is limited to members only. No herbicides or algaecides have been used on the lake in the past three years.

The Audubon Cooperative Sanctuary Program has certified The Ivanhoe Club as a cooperative sanctuary since 1995. A nest box program monitors over 80 nest boxes that have been erected for use by bluebirds, swallows, and wrens. In addition, several purple martin houses and bat houses can be found on the golf course grounds. Several areas around the golf course have been modified to restore habitats of native plant communities.

LIMNOLOGICAL DATA – WATER QUALITY

Water samples were taken monthly from May - September at the deep-hole location (Figure 2). See Appendix B for water sampling methods.

Lake Holloway’s water quality is similar to many lakes in Lake County (Table 1, Appendix A). Most of the water quality parameters measured were above the averages of other lakes that the Lake County Health Department (LCHD) has monitored (1998-2002). Several important findings were noted.

Water clarity, as measured by Secchi disk transparency readings, averaged 3.37 feet for the season, which is below the county median (where 50% of the lakes are above and below this value) of 3.81 feet. Secchi disk readings decreased as the season progressed from a high of 8.63 feet in May to 0.38 feet in August.

Correlated with the decrease in clarity is the increase in total suspended solids (TSS; Figure 3), since solids suspended in the water reduce the depth at which the Secchi disk can be seen. In May and June when the Secchi depths were the deepest, TSS values were low (1.6 mg/L and 3.6 mg/L, respectively). However, in July, August, and September, TSS values were higher, corresponding to the lower Secchi disk readings. Planktonic algae blooms during the summer probably contributed to the higher TSS readings and reduced water clarity. However, other solids, such as sediment suspended in the water were actually a larger source of the poor water clarity since most of the TSS consisted of non-volatile suspended solids (NVSS) in all months sampled. Increases in suspended sediment in the water likely are the result of wind and wave action and carp activity.
Figure 2.
Figure 3.
Since Lake Holloway is shallow and has limited aquatic vegetation, the sediment can be easily resuspended into the water by these activities.

Lake Holloway exhibits polymictic tendencies, meaning stratification and turnover occur repeatedly over the year. This may have been the result of climatic factors (i.e., wind and wave action, temperature) or possibly from the well pipe that was pumping cold groundwater into the lake. Since this pipe is located within 100 feet of the water sampling point, changes in the water temperature due to the groundwater may have caused the breakdown of the thermocline. The lake was not stratified in May, but by the June sampling date was strongly stratified with the thermocline occurring at the 4-foot depth. In July the thermocline weakened considerably and was at the 3-foot depth. The thermocline strengthened in August (at 4 feet), then weakened again in September (at 4 feet). It is possible that the lake destratified between sampling dates allowing nutrients trapped in the hypolimnion to mix with water in the epilimnion. This phenomenon may explain many of the nutrient concentrations found in the water samples during this study.

In addition, the anoxic conditions (i.e., when dissolved oxygen [DO] conditions are below 1 mg/L) that occur in the hypolimnion causes nutrient release from the sediment, exascerbating the problems.

DO concentrations in Lake Holloway did not indicate any significant problems. Generally concern arises when DO concentrations fall below 5 mg/L in the epilimnion. In 2002, all DO concentrations at the surface were above 5 mg/L. Anoxic conditions (where DO concentrations drop below 1 mg/L) did exist below 7 feet in June, 8 feet in August, and 4 feet in September. Conditions in the lake (i.e., shallow morphology, water temperature, algae dominance) may cause DO concentrations to fluctuate widely, which may cause low DO concentrations at various times. In order to determine if these DO conditions are a problem, the volume of the lake at specific depths (preferably in one foot increments) is needed. Since no bathymetric map of Lake Holloway exists, an accurate assessment of the DO conditions cannot be made. In some lakes like Lake Holloway that are polymictic, it may be advantageous to install an aeration system to prevent the repeated stratification that causes anoxic conditions and subsequent nutrient release from the sediment. However, in order to determine the degree of anoxic area a detailed bathymetric map is needed.

Total phosphorus (TP) concentrations in Lake Holloway were high. The 2002 average TP concentration was 0.132 mg/L in the epilimnion and 0.281 mg/L in the hypolimnion. The county median is 0.056 mg/L in the epilimnion and 0.170 mg/L in the hypolimnion. Values above 0.03 mg/L in the epilimnion are considered sufficient enough to cause nuisance algae blooms. The phosphorus in the lake may be coming from internal (sediment, algae decay, etc.) or external sources (run-off). Of particular interest was the TP and soluble reactive phosphorus (SRP) concentrations (0.831 mg/L and 0.658 mg/L, respectively) in the hypolimnion in September. Due to the severe algae blooms that were occurring in the lake in July, August, and September, the accumulation of dead and decaying algae in the hypolimnion became concentrated and the subsequent decomposition under anaerobic conditions caused the high concentrations. Most of these
nutrients are probably recycled internally through algae growth and decay and sediment resuspension.

Lake Holloway had high average concentrations of total Kjeldahl nitrogen (TKN) in both the epilimnion (2.052 mg/L) and hypolimnion (3.380 mg/L), which are considerably higher than the county medians (1.170 mg/L in the epilimnion and 2.150 mg/L in the hypolimnion). TKN concentrations in August and September in both samples were particularly high. These concentrations are likely due to the severe algae blooms that were occurring during the summer. As mentioned previously, the accumulation of decaying algae may have caused the elevated concentrations. In addition, nitrogen fertilizer and irrigation water from sewage and stormwater effluent applied to the golf course may be entering the lake following rain events. Also, the stratification of the lake causes nutrients to become concentrated in the hypolimnion, which are subsequently released into the epilimnion following turnover.

Another factor that should be considered when assessing the source of nutrients currently in Lake Holloway is its history. An indicated previously, in a 1939 aerial photograph a golf course can be seen. Decades of fertilizer application to the golf course may have contributed to the nutrients in the lake. These nutrients may be recycled over and over again through algae and plant uptake and decomposition.

The average ratio between total nitrogen and total phosphorus for Lake Holloway was 26:1, indicating a phosphorus-limited system. Nitrogen, as well as carbon, naturally occur in high concentrations and come from a variety of sources (soil, air, etc.) that are more difficult to control than sources of phosphorus. Lakes that are phosphorus-limited may be easier to manage, since controlling phosphorus is more feasible than controlling nitrogen or carbon.

Water levels on Lake Holloway fluctuated throughout the season. The maximum change in water level occurred from July to August (7.25 inch decrease), with a maximum seasonal change of 10.38 inches during the study. Fluctuations in water levels may be the result of the irrigation practices of the golf course or natural rain events. Significant changes in water levels may have negative impacts on water quality. In addition, lakes with fluctuating water levels potentially have more shoreline erosion problems.

Rain events probably contribute additional sediment or nutrients (like phosphorus) to a lake, which may have influenced the water sample results. However, rain occurred within 48 hours only once prior to water sampling (in May, 0.01 inches) as recorded at the Lake County Stormwater Management Commission rain gauge in Wauconda.

Based on data collected in 2002, standard classification indices compiled by the Illinois Environmental Protection Agency (IEPA) were used to determine the current condition of Lake Holloway. A general overall index that is commonly used is called a trophic state index or TSI. The TSI index classifies the lake into one of four categories: oligotrophic (nutrient-poor, biologically unproductive), mesotrophic (intermediate nutrient availability and biological productivity), eutrophic (nutrient-rich, highly productive), or
hypereutrophic (extremely nutrient-rich productive). This index can be calculated using total phosphorus values obtained at or near the surface. The TSIp for Lake Holloway in 2002 classified it as a hypereutrophic lake (TSIp = 74.6). Eutrophic lakes are the most common types of lakes throughout the lower Midwest, and they are particularly common among manmade lakes. See Table 2 in Appendix A for a ranking of average TSIp values for Lake County lakes (Lake Holloway is currently #84 of 103). This ranking is only a relative assessment of the lakes in the county. The current rank of a lake is dependent upon many factors including lake origin, water source, nutrient loads, and morphometric features (volume, depth, substrate, etc.). Thus, a small shallow manmade lake with high nutrient loads could not expect to achieve a high ranking even with intensive management.

In Lake Holloway, the IEPA aquatic life impairment index was low, indicating a full degree of support for all aquatic organisms in the lake. However due to the poor water clarity, the swimming index indicated only a partial degree of support. Similarly, the recreation use index showed a partial impairment. LCHD did not test for bacteria or other harmful pathogens in Lake Holloway in 2002.

**LIMNOLOGICAL DATA – AQUATIC PLANT ASSESSMENT**

Aquatic plant species presence and distribution in Lake Holloway were assessed monthly from May through September 2002 (see Appendix B for methods). The lake was sparsely populated with plants. Only two aquatic plant species, one macro-algae, and several emergent shoreline plants were found (see Table 3, below) and of those aquatic plants only very small populations of each were found. One piece of chara (a macro-algae) was found in May, in August duckweed (floating on the water’s surface) and horned pondweed (rooted near shore) were found, and in September only duckweed was found (Table 4, Appendix A).

The poor aquatic plant presence in the lake is probably due, in part, to the poor water clarity that limited light penetration. The 1% light levels (the point where plant photosynthesis ceases) ranged from the bottom (approximately 9 feet) in May to 1 foot in August. This explains why chara was found in May at 6.5 feet, but not found again later in the summer. Similarly, horned pondweed was only found in less than one foot of water in August when light penetration was very low. Light levels are extinguished due mostly to the algae that dominate the lake and sediment resuspension. The lake’s morphometry also contributes to the lack of aquatic plants. The lake bottom near the shoreline is relatively steep, which reduces the amount of shallow areas (i.e., the littoral zone) where submersed aquatic plants may become established. Also, the substrate of the lake bottom is very hard and in some places rocky, which would inhibit plant growth. Total aquatic plant coverage in Lake Holloway is estimated at less than one percent. The Illinois Department of Natural Resources recommends 25-40% aquatic plant coverage to maintain ideal fish habitat conditions.
As mentioned previously, grass carp were stocked into Lake Holloway prior to 1994. If any of these fish are still alive, their presence also explains the lack of aquatic plants in the lake. Future stocking of grass carp is not recommended, due to their non-selective feeding habits and the negative impact they may have on water clarity and fish reproduction.

Floristic quality index (FQI; Swink and Wilhelm 1994) is an assessment tool designed to evaluate the closeness that the flora of an area is to that of undisturbed conditions. It can be used to: 1) identify natural areas, 2) compare the quality of different sites or different locations within a single site, 3) monitor long-term floristic trends, and 4) monitor habitat restoration efforts. Each aquatic plant in a lake is assigned a number between 1 and 10 (10 indicating the plant species most sensitive to disturbance). This is done for only the floating and submersed plants found in the lake. These numbers are averaged and multiplied by the square root of the number of species present to calculate an FQI. A high FQI number indicates that there are a large number of sensitive, high quality plant species present in the lake. Non-native species were counted in the FQI calculations for Lake County lakes. In 2002, Lake Holloway had a FQI of 10.6. The average FQI of lakes studied by LCHD from 2000-2002 is 14.2.

Table 3. Aquatic and shoreline plants on Lake Holloway, May - September 2002.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aquatic Plants</th>
<th>Shoreline Plants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chara/Nitella</td>
<td>Alopecurus sp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small Duckweed</td>
<td>Asclepias syriaca</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horned Pondweed</td>
<td>Bidens coronata</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Carya ovata</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Solidago canadensis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cirsium arvense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Crataegus sp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Daucus carota</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Eleocharis sp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Iris hexagona</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fraxinus sp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hieracium sp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lonicera sp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lythrum salicaria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Melilotus alba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Parthenocissus quinquefolia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Phragmites australis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Phalaris arundinacea</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3. Aquatic and shoreline plants on Lake Holloway, May - September 2002 (cont’d).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plant</th>
<th>Scientific Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English Plantain</td>
<td>Plantago lanceolata</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pin Oak</td>
<td>Quercus palustris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buckthorn</td>
<td>Rhamnus cathartica</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiflora Rose</td>
<td>Rosa multiflora</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Common Arrowhead</td>
<td>Sagittaria latifolia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Willow</td>
<td>Salix sp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hardstem Bulrush</td>
<td>Scirpus acutus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bittersweet Nightshade</td>
<td>Solanum dulcamara</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field Pennycress</td>
<td>Thlaspi arvense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cattail</td>
<td>Typha sp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staghorn Sumac</td>
<td>Rhus typhina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basswood/Linden</td>
<td>Tilia americana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elm</td>
<td>Ulmus sp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blue Vervain</td>
<td>Verbena hastata</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wild Grape</td>
<td>Vitis sp.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

LIMNOLOGICAL DATA – SHORELINE ASSESSMENT

A shoreline assessment was conducted in August 2002 to determine the condition of the lake shoreline (see Appendix B for methods). Of particular interest was the condition of the shoreline at the water/land interface.

The shoreline of Lake Holloway was classified as 100% developed. Buffer habitat comprised approximately 58% of the shoreline, followed by riprap (32%), woodland (5%), and shrub (5%; see Figure 4). Buffer habitat is a strip of unmowed vegetation, preferably consisting of native herbs and shrubs, located at the water’s edge. It should be noted that while over half of the shoreline has classified as buffer habitat, the quality of that buffer varied greatly. The buffer along the southwestern shoreline and parts of the northern shoreline is less than 5 feet wide, which minimizes the buffer’s effectiveness. The buffer along much of the remaining shoreline was wider (>10 feet).

Several areas around Lake Holloway were classified as moderately eroding (see Figure 5). The moderately eroding areas (approximately 1,057 feet or 21% of the shoreline) including a large section located along the northern shoreline and on each side of the bridge located in the northern channel of the lake. All areas classified as moderately eroding were also classified as buffer habitat. It should be noted that most of the eroded area on the northern section was in the process of rehabilitation. However, most of the rehabilitation was being conducted on the upland portion of the shoreline and not at the land/water interface. Additional rehabilitation may be needed in this section to prevent future erosion.
Figure 4.
Figure 5.
In addition to shoreline plants, emergent vegetation should be planted or encouraged to grow. These plants (arrowhead, bulrushes, spikerushes, etc.) help stabilize the shoreline by buffering wind and wave action. Small populations of common arrowhead and hardstem bulrush are present along the shoreline of Lake Holloway and should be encouraged to expand. Similarly, buffer strips should be expanded or installed between the water and manicured lawns to reduce nutrient-rich runoff into the lake. Both emergent vegetation and buffer strips also provide habitat for fish and wildlife that use the lake. More information can be found in the section **Objective IV: Shoreline Erosion Control**.

Several exotics were found growing along the shoreline, including reed canary grass, purple loosestrife, multiflora rose, honeysuckle, buckthorn, and others. The purple loosestrife was not found in large numbers (mainly in the buffer area on the southeastern section of the shoreline), but has the potential to cause significant problems in the future as it spreads. Honeysuckle and buckthorn are currently a problem along the wooded areas. Similar to aquatic exotics, these terrestrial exotics are detrimental to the native plant ecosystems around the lake. Removal or control of exotic species is recommended.

**LIMNOLOGICAL DATA – WILDLIFE ASSESSMENT**

Good numbers of wildlife, particularly birds, were noted on and around Lake Holloway. See Appendix B for methods. Several of the species listed in Table 5 (below) were seen during spring or fall migration and were assumed not to be nesting around the lake.

Good habitat exists along the wooded area near the outlet and several bird species were noted along the northern shoreline where the plant rehabilitation is located and along the northeastern section that consisted of mixed shrub and tree species. Decent numbers of insectivorous birds were noted during the year.

As mentioned previously, the Audubon Society’s Cooperative Sanctuary Program has certified The Ivanhoe Club as a certified cooperative sanctuary since 1995.

LCHD did not conduct any fish surveys in 2002.
Table 5. Wildlife species observed on Lake Holloway, April – September, 2002.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bird</th>
<th>Scientific Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Double-crested Cormorant</td>
<td>Phalacrocorax auritus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada Goose</td>
<td>Branta canadensis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mallard</td>
<td>Anas platyrhynchos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesser Scaup</td>
<td>Aythya affinis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ring-billed Gull</td>
<td>Larus delawarensis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great Blue Heron</td>
<td>Ardea herodias</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green Heron</td>
<td>Butorides striatus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Killdeer</td>
<td>Charadrius vociferus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spotted Sandpiper</td>
<td>Actitis macularia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Red-tailed Hawk</td>
<td>Buteo jamaicensis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mourning Dove</td>
<td>Zenaida macroura</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Common Flicker</td>
<td>Colaptes auratus</td>
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<tr>
<td>Red-bellied Woodpecker</td>
<td>Melanerpes carolinus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Downy Woodpecker</td>
<td>Picoides pubescens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Phoebe</td>
<td>Sayornis phoebe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Pewee</td>
<td>Contopus virens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barn Swallow</td>
<td>Hirundo rustica</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tree Swallow</td>
<td>Iridoprocne bicolor</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rough-wing Swallow</td>
<td>Stelgidopteryx ruficollis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chimney Swift</td>
<td>Chaetura pelagica</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Crow</td>
<td>Corvus brachyrhynchos</td>
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<tr>
<td>Blue Jay</td>
<td>Cyanocitta cristata</td>
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<tr>
<td>Black-capped Chickadee</td>
<td>Poecile atricapillus</td>
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<td>White-breasted Nuthatch</td>
<td>Sitta carolinensis</td>
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<tr>
<td>House Wren</td>
<td>Troglodytes aedon</td>
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<tr>
<td>Eastern Bluebird</td>
<td>Sialia sialis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Robin</td>
<td>Turdus migratorius</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cedar Waxwing</td>
<td>Bombycilla cedrorum</td>
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<tr>
<td>Warbling Vireo</td>
<td>Vireo gilvus</td>
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<tr>
<td>Black-throated Green Warbler</td>
<td>Dendroica virens</td>
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<tr>
<td>Yellow-rumped Warbler</td>
<td>Dendroica coronata</td>
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<tr>
<td>Palm Warbler</td>
<td>Dendroica palmarum</td>
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<tr>
<td>Yellow Warbler</td>
<td>Dendroica petechia</td>
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<tr>
<td>Northern Waterthrush</td>
<td>Seiurus noveboracensis</td>
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<tr>
<td>Red-winged Blackbird</td>
<td>Agelaius phoeniceus</td>
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<td>Brown-headed Cowbird</td>
<td>Molothrus ater</td>
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<td>Common Grackle</td>
<td>Quiscalus quiscula</td>
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<td>Northern Oriole</td>
<td>Icterus galbula</td>
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<tr>
<td>Northern Cardinal</td>
<td>Cardinalis cardinalis</td>
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<tr>
<td>House Finch</td>
<td>Carpodacus mexicanus</td>
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<tr>
<td>American Goldfinch</td>
<td>Carduelis tristis</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wildlife species observed on Lake Holloway, April – September, 2002 (cont’d).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>White-throated Sparrow</strong></td>
<td><em>Zonotrichia albicollis</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Chipping Sparrow</strong></td>
<td><em>Spizella passerina</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>American Tree Sparrow</strong></td>
<td><em>Spizella arborea</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Song Sparrow</strong></td>
<td><em>Melospiza melodia</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Mammals**

| **Eastern Chipmunk** | *Tamias striatus* |
| **Gray Squirrel** | *Sciurus carolinensis* |
| **Muskrat** | *Ondatra zibethicus* |

**Amphibians**

| **Green Frog** | *Rana clamitans melanota* |

**Reptiles**

None noted.

**Insects**

| **Monarch Butterfly** | *Danaus plexippus* |
| **Tiger Swallowtail Butterfly** | *Papilio glaucus* |
| **Cicadas** | Cicadidae |
| **Dragonfly** | Anisoptera |

* Endangered in Illinois
+Threatened in Illinois
EXISTING LAKE QUALITY PROBLEMS

- **Lack of a Quality Bathymetric Map**

  A bathymetric (depth contour) map is an essential tool for effective lake management since it provides critical information on the morphometric features of the lake (i.e., acreage, depth, volume, etc.). This information is particularly important when intensive management techniques (i.e., chemical treatments for plant or algae control, dredging, fish stocking, etc.) are part of the lake’s overall management plan. Currently, no such map exists for Lake Holloway.

- **High Nutrient Concentrations**

  Lake Holloway had high concentrations of total suspended solids, total phosphorus, soluble reactive phosphorus, and total Kjeldahl nitrogen. All of these lead to poor water clarity, particularly in the months of July, August, and September when severe algae blooms were occurring. Most of the nutrients are probably recycled internally through algae growth and decay and sediment resuspension.

- **Lack of Aquatic Vegetation**

  Only three species of aquatic plants were found in Lake Holloway in 2002. Lack of aquatic vegetation may have negative impacts on many of the organisms in the lake, including fish. Beneficial native plants (both submersed and emergent) could be planted to enhance habitats for fish and other wildlife, with minimal impact to the aesthetic qualities of the lake.

- **Invasive Shoreline Plant Species**

  Numerous exotic plant species (i.e., purple loosestrife, honeysuckle, multiflora rose, buckthorn, and reed canary grass) were found on the shores of Lake Holloway. Loosestrife and buckthorn are particularly problematic as they outcompete native plants and offer little value in terms of shoreline stabilization or wildlife habitat. Plants should be removed and replaced with native shoreline plants. Buffer strips should be expanded where present and installed where absent.

- **Shoreline Erosion**

  Approximately 1,057 feet or 21% of the shoreline of Lake Holloway was classified as moderately eroding. Most of this erosion was along the northern section of the lake where recent upland plant rehabilitation has taken place. Additional locations are on each side of the bridge located in the northern channel of the lake. These areas should be addressed and rehabilitated as needed.
POTENTIAL OBJECTIVES FOR THE LAKE HOLLOWAY MANAGEMENT PLAN

I. Bathymetric Map
II. Illinois Volunteer Lake Monitoring Program
III. Nuisance Algae Management Options
IV. Shoreline Erosion Control
V. Control Exotic Plant Species
VI. Enhance Wildlife Habitat Conditions
OPTIONS FOR ACHIEVING THE LAKE MANAGEMENT PLAN
OBJECTIVES

Objective I: Bathymetric Map

A bathymetric (depth contour) map is an essential tool for effective lake management since it provides critical information on the morphometric features of the lake (i.e., acreage, depth, volume, etc.). This information is particularly important when intensive management techniques (i.e., chemical treatments for plant or algae control, dredging, fish stocking, etc.) are part of the lake’s overall management plan. Some bathymetric maps for lakes in Lake County do exist, but they are frequently old, outdated and do not accurately represent the current features of the lake. Currently no bathymetric map of Lake Holloway exists.

Maps can be created by agencies like the Lake County Health Department - Lakes Management Unit or other companies. Costs vary, but can range from $3,000-10,000 depending on lake size.
Objective II: Participate in the Volunteer Lake Monitoring Program

In 1981, the Illinois Volunteer Lake Monitoring Program (VLMP) was established by the Illinois Environmental Protection agency (Illinois EPA) to gather fundamental information on Illinois inland lakes, and to provide an educational program for citizens. Annually, 150-200 lakes (out of 3,041 lakes in Illinois) are sampled by approximately 250 citizen volunteers. The volunteers are primarily lake shore residents, lake owners/managers, members of environmental groups, public water supply personnel, and citizens with interest in a particular lake.

The VLMP relies on volunteers to gather a variety of information on their chosen lake. The primary measurement is Secchi disk transparency or Secchi depth. Analysis of the Secchi disk measurement provides an indication of the general water quality condition of the lake, as well as the amount of usable habitat available for fish and other aquatic life.

Microscopic plants and animals, water color, and suspended sediments are factors that interfere with light penetration through the water column and lessen the Secchi disk depth. As a rule, one to three times the Secchi depth is considered the lighted or euphotic zone of the lake. In this region of the lake there is enough light to allow plants to survive and produce oxygen. Water below the lighted zone can be expected to have little or no dissolved oxygen. Other observations such as water color, suspended algae and sediment, aquatic plants, and odor are also recorded. The sampling season is May through October with volunteer measurements taken twice a month. After volunteers have completed one year of the basic monitoring program, they are qualified to participate in the Expanded Monitoring Program. In the expanded program, selected volunteers are trained to collect water samples that are shipped to the Illinois EPA laboratory for analysis of total and volatile suspended solids, total phosphorus, nitrate-nitrite nitrogen and ammonia nitrogen. Other parameters that are part of the expanded program include dissolved oxygen, temperature, and zebra mussel monitoring. Additionally, chlorophyll a monitoring has been added to the regiment of selected lakes. These water quality parameters are routinely measured by lake scientists to help determine the general health of the lake ecosystem.

For more information about the VLMP contact the VLMP Regional Coordinator:

Holly Hudson
Northeast Illinois Planning Commission
222 S. Riverside Plaza, Suite 1800
Chicago, IL 60606
(312) 454-0400
Objective III. Nuisance Algae Management Options

The growth of nuisance or excessive algae can cause a number of problems. Excessive algal growth can cause decreases in water clarity and light penetration. This can lead to several major problems such as loss of aquatic plants, decline in fishery health, and interference with recreational activities. Health hazards, such as swimmer’s itch and other skin irritations have been linked to nuisance algae growth. Normally, excessive/nuisance algae growth is a sign of larger problems such excessive nutrients and/or lack of aquatic plants. Some treatment methods, such as copper sulfate, are only quick remedies to the problem. Solving the problem of nuisance algal growth involves treating the factors that cause the growth not the algae itself. Long-term solutions typically include an integrated approach such as alum treatments, revegetation with aquatic plants, and limiting external sources of nutrients. Interestingly enough, these long-term management strategies are seldom used, typically because of their high initial costs. Instead, the cheap, quick fix of using copper sulfate, though temporary, is much more widely used. However, the costs of continually applying copper sulfate over years, even decades, can eventually far exceed the costs of a slower acting, eventually more effective, integrated approach.

As with aquatic plant management techniques, algae management practices have both positive and negative characteristics. If used properly, they can be beneficial to a lake’s well being. If misused or abused, they all share similar outcomes - negative impacts to the lake. Putting together a good management plan should not be rushed. Plans should consist of a realistic set of goals well thought out before implementation. The plan should be based on the management goals of the lake and involve usage issues (beaches, boat ramps, etc.), habitat maintenance/restoration issues, and nutrient levels. For an algal management plan to achieve long term success, follow up is critical. The management of the lake’s algae problem does not end once the blooms and/or mats have been reduced/eliminated. It is critical to continually monitor problematic areas for regrowth and treat as necessary. An association or property owner should not always expect immediate results. A quick fix of the algal problem may not always be in the best interest of the lake. Sometimes the best solutions take several seasons to properly address the problem. The management options covered below are commonly used techniques and those that are coming into wider acceptance, and have been used in Lake County. There are other algae management options that are not covered below as they are not very effective, unproven, unfounded, or are too experimental to be widely used.

Option 1: No Action

With a no action management plan nothing would be done to control the nuisance algae regardless of type and extent. Nuisance algae, planktonic and/or filamentous, could continue to grow until epidemic proportions are reached. Growth limitations of the algae and the characteristics of the lake itself (light penetration, nutrient levels.) will dictate the extent of growth. Unlike aquatic plants, algae are not normally bound by physical factors such as substrate type. The areas in which filamentous and thick surface planktonic blooms (scum) occur can be affected by wind and wave action if strong enough. However, under normal conditions, with no action, both filamentous and planktonic algal
blooms can spread to cover 100% of the surface. This could cause major inhibition of the lakes recreational uses and impact fish and other aquatic organisms adversely.

**Pros**
There are positive aspects associated with the no action option for nuisance algae management. The first, and most obvious, is that there is no cost. However, if an active management plan for algae control were eventually needed, the cost would be substantially higher than if the no action plan had been followed in the first place. Another benefit of this option would be the lack of environmental manipulation. Under the no action option, chemicals or introduction of any organisms would not take place. Use of the lake would continue as normal unless blooms worsened. In this case, activities such as swimming might have to be suspended due to an increase in health risks. Other problems such as strong odors (blue-green algae) might also increase in frequency.

**Cons**
Under the no action option, if nuisance algae becomes wide spread and able to reach epidemic proportions, there will be many negative impacts on the lake. The fishery of the lake may become stunted due to the lack of quality forage fish habitat and reduced predation. This will cause an explosion in the small fish population and with food resources not increasing, growth of fish will be reduced. Fish kills can result from toxins released by some species such as some blue-green algae. Blue-green algae can also produced toxins that are harmful to other algae. This allows blue-green algae to quickly dominate a body of water.

Decreased dissolved oxygen levels, due to high biological oxygen demand from the excessive algae growth, will also have negative impacts on the aquatic life. Wildlife populations will also be negatively impacted by dense growths of algae. Birds and waterfowl will have difficulty finding quality plants for food or in locating prey within the turbid green waters. Additionally, some species, such as blue-green algae, are poor sources of food for zooplankton and fish.

Water quality could also be negatively impacted with the implementation of a no action option. Decomposition of organic matter and release of nutrients upon algal death is a probable outcome. Large nutrient release with algae die back could lead to lake-wide increases of internal nutrient load. This could in turn, could increase the frequency or severity of other blooms. In addition, decomposition of massive amounts of algae, filamentous and planktonic, will lead to a depletion of dissolved oxygen in the lake. This can cause fish stress, and eventually, if stress is frequent or severe enough, fish kills. All of the impacts above could in turn have negative impacts on numerous aspects of the lake’s ecosystem.

In addition to ecological impacts, many physical lake uses will be negatively impacted. Boating could be nearly impossible without becoming entangled in thick mats of filamentous algae. Swimming could also become increasingly difficult and unsafe due to thick mats and reduction in visibility by planktonic
blooms. Fishing could become more and more exasperating due in part to the thick mats and stunted fish populations. In addition, the aesthetics of the lake will also decline due to large areas of the lake covered by large green mats and/or blooms of algae and the odors that may develop, such as with large blue-green blooms. The combination of above events could cause property values on the lake to suffer. Property values on lakes with algae problems have been shown to decrease by as much as 15-20%.

**Costs**
No cost will be incurred by implementing the no action management option.

**Option 2: Algicides**
Algicides are a quick and inexpensive way to temporarily treat nuisance algae. Copper sulfate (CuSO₄) and chelated copper products are the two main algicides in use. These two compounds are sold by a variety of brand names by a number of different companies. They all work the same and act as contact killers. This means that the product has to come into contact with the algae to be affective. Algicides come in two forms, granular and liquid. Granular herbicides are spread by hand or machine over an effected area. They can also be placed in a porous bag (such as a burlap sack) and dragged through the water in order to dissolve and disperse the product. Granular algicides are mainly used on filamentous algae where they are spread over the mats. As the granules dissolve, they kill the algae. Liquid algicides, which are much more widely used, are mixed with a known amount of water to achieve a known concentration. The mixture is then sprayed onto/into the water. Liquid algicides are used on both filamentous and planktonic algae. Liquid algaecides are often mixed with herbicides and applied together to save on time and money. The effectiveness of some herbicides is enhanced when mixed with an algicide. When applying an algicide it is imperative that the label is completely read and followed. If too much of the lake is treated at any one time an oxygen crash may occur. This may cause fish kills due to decomposition of treated algae. Additionally, treatments should never be made when blooms/mats are at their fullest extent. It is best to divide the lake into at least two sections depending on the size of the lake. Larger lakes will need to be divided into more sections. Then treat the lake one section at a time allowing at least two weeks between treatments. Furthermore, application of algicides should never be done in extremely hot weather (>90°F) or when D.O. concentrations are low. This will help lessen the likelihood of an oxygen crash and resulting fish kills. When possible, treatments should be made as early in the season as possible when temperature and D.O. concentrations are adequate. It is best to treat in spring or when the blooms/mats starts to appear there by killing the algae before they become a problem.

**Pros**
When used properly, algicides can be a powerful tool in management of nuisance algae growth. A properly implemented plan can often provide season long control with minimal applications. Another benefit of using algicides is their low costs. The fisheries and waterfowl populations of the lake would greatly benefit due to a decrease in nuisance algal blooms. By reducing the algae, clarity would increase. This in turn would allow the native aquatic plants to return to the lake.
Newly established stands of plants would improve spawning habitat and food source availability for fish. Waterfowl population would greatly benefit from increases in quality food sources, such as large-leaf pondweed (Potamogeton amplifolius) and sago pondweed (Potamogeton pectinatus). Additionally, copper products, at proper dosages, are selective in the sense that they do not affect aquatic vascular plants and wildlife.

By implementing a good management plan, usage opportunities for the lake would increase. Activities such as boating and swimming would improve due to the removal of thick blooms and/or mats of algae. Health risks associated with excessive algae growth (toxins, reduced visibility, etc.) The quality of fishing may recover due to improved habitat and feeding opportunities. In addition to increased usage opportunities, overall aesthetics of the lake would improve, potentially increasing property values.

**Cons**
The most obvious drawback of using algicides is the input of chemicals into the lake. Even though the United States Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA) approved these chemicals for use, human error and overuse can make them unsafe and bring about undesired outcomes. By continually killing particular algal species, lake managers may unknowingly be creating a larger problem. As the algae are continuously exposed to copper, some species are becoming more and more tolerant. This results in the use of higher concentrations in order to achieve adequate control, which can be unhealthy for the lake. In other instances, by eliminating one type of algae, lake managers are finding that other species that are even more problematic are filling the empty gap. These species that fill the gap can often be more difficult to control due to an inherent resistance to copper products. Additionally, excessive use of copper products can lead to a build up of copper in lake sediment. This can cause problems for activities such as dredging. Due to a large amount of copper in the sediment, special permits and disposal methods would have to be utilized.

**Costs**
To calculate total cost it will be necessary to calculate surface acreage (SA) or acre-feet (AF) of the area(s) to be treated according to each lake’s aquatic plant management plan. A chelated copper product such as Cutrine–Plus® is applied at 0.5 to 1.5 gallons per acre-foot at a cost of $35 per gallon.

**Option 3: Alum Treatment**
A possible remedy to excessive algal growth is to eliminate or greatly reduce the amount of phosphorus. This can be accomplished by using aluminum sulfate (alum). Alum does not directly kill algae as copper sulfate does. Instead, alum binds phosphorus making it unavailable, thus reducing algal growth. Alum binds water-borne phosphorus and forms a flocculent layer that settles on the bottom. This floc layer can then prevent sediment bound phosphorus from entering the water column. Phosphorus inactivation using alum has been in use for 25 years. However, cost and sometimes unreliable results deterred its
wide spread use. Currently, alum is commonly being used in ponds and small lakes, and its use in larger lakes is increasing. Alum treatment typically lasts 1 to 20 years depending on various parameters. Lakes with low mean depth to surface area ratio benefit more quickly from alum applications, while lakes with high mean depth to surface area ration (thermally stratified lakes) will see more longevity from an alum application due to isolation of the flocculent layer. Lakes with small watersheds are also better candidates because external phosphorus sources can be limited. Alum treatments must be carefully planned and carried out by an experienced professional. If not properly done, there may be many detrimental side effects.

**Pros**

Phosphorus inactivation is a possible long-term solution for controlling nuisance algae and increasing water clarity. Alum treatments can last as long as 20 years. This makes alum more cost effective in the long-term compared to continual treatment with algaecides. Studies have shown reductions in phosphorus concentrations by 66% in spring and 68% in summer. Chlorophyll \(a\), a measure of algal biomass, was reduced by 61%. Reduction in algal biomass caused an increase in dissolved oxygen and a 79% increase in Secchi disk readings. Effects of alum treatments can be seen in as little as a few days. The increase in clarity can have many positive effects on the lake’s ecosystem. With increased clarity, plant populations could expand or reestablish. This in turn would improve fish habitat and provide improved food/habitat sources for other organisms. Recreational activities such as swimming and fishing would be improved due to increased water clarity and healthy plant populations. Typically, there is a slight invertebrate decline immediately following treatment but populations recover fully by the following year.

**Cons**

There are several drawbacks to alum. External nutrient inputs must also be reduced or eliminated for alum to provide long-term effectiveness. With larger watersheds this could prove to be physically and financially impossible. Phosphorus inactivation may be shortened by excessive plant growth or motorboat traffic, which can disturb the flocculent layer and allow phosphorus to be released. Also, lakes that are shallow, non-stratified, and wind blown typically do not achieve long term control due to disruption of the flocculent layer. If alum is not properly applied toxicity problems may occur. Typically aluminum toxicity occurs if pH is below 6 or above 9. Most of Lake County’s lakes are in this safe range. However, at these pHs, special precautions must be taken when applying alum. By adding the incorrect amounts of alum, pH of the lake could drastically change. Due to these dangers, it is highly recommended that a lake management professional plans and administers the alum treatment.

**Costs**

Morphometric data is required to make proper calculations. To treat Lake Holloway with alum (based on the estimated volume of 71.7 acre-feet) would cost approximately $1,004 – 3,442.
Option 4: Revegetation With Native Aquatic Plants
A healthy native plant population can reduce algal growth. Many lakes with long-standing algal problems have a very sparse plant population or none at all. This is due to reduction in light penetration brought about by years of excessive algal blooms and/or mats. Revegetation should only be done when existing nuisance algal blooms are under control using one of the above management options. If the lake has poor clarity due to excessive algal growth or turbidity, these problems must be addressed before a revegetation plan is undertaken. Without adequate light penetration, revegetation will not work. At maximum, planting depth light levels must be greater than 1-5% of the surface light levels for plant growth and photosynthesis. If aquatic herbicides are being used to control what vegetation does exist their use should be scaled back or abandoned altogether. This will allow the vegetation to grow back, which will help in controlling the algae in addition to other positive impacts associated with a healthy plant population.

There are two methods by which reestablishment can be accomplished. The first is use of existing plant populations to revegetate other areas within the lake. Plants from one part of the lake are allowed to naturally expand into adjacent areas thereby filling the niche left by the nuisance algae. Another technique utilizing existing plants is to transplant vegetation from one area to another. The second method of reestablishment is to import native plants from an outside source. A variety of plants can be ordered from nurseries that specialize in native aquatic plants. These plants are available in several forms such as seeds, roots, and small plants. These two methods can be used in conjunction with one another in order to increase both quantity and biodiversity of plant populations. Additionally, plantings must be protected from herbivory by waterfowl and other wildlife. Simple cages made out of wooden or metal stakes and chicken wire are erected around planted areas for at least one season. The cages are removed once the plants are established and less vulnerable. If large-scale revegetation is needed it would be best to use a consultant to plan and conduct the restoration. Table 6 lists common, native plants that should be considered when developing a revegetation plan. Included in this list are emergent shoreline vegetation (rushes, cattails, etc) and submersed aquatic plants (pondweeds, *Vallisneria*, etc). Prices, planting depths, and planting densities are included and vary depending on plant species.

Pros
By revegetating newly opened areas that were once infested with nuisance species, the lake will benefit in several ways. Once established, expanded native plant populations will help to control growth of nuisance algae by shading and competition for resources. This provides a more natural approach as compared to other management options. In addition, using established native plants to control excessive invasive plant growth is less expensive than other options. Expanded native plant populations will also help with sediment stabilization. This in turn will have a positive effect on water clarity by reducing suspended solids and nutrients that decrease clarity and cause excessive algal growth. Properly revegetating shallow water areas with plants such as cattails, bulrushes, and water lilies can help reduce wave action that can lead to shoreline erosion. Increases in
desirable vegetation will increase the plant biodiversity and also provide better quality habitat and food sources for fish and other wildlife. Recreational uses of the lake such as fishing and boating will also improve due to the improvement in water quality and the suppression of weedy species.

**Cons**
There are few negative impacts to revegetating a lake. One possible drawback is the possibility of new vegetation expanding to nuisance levels and needing control. However, this is an unlikely outcome. Another drawback could be high costs if extensive revegetation is needed using imported plants. If a consultant were used costs would be substantially higher. Additional costs could be associated with constructing proper herbivory protection measures.

**Costs**
See Table 6 for pricing. These prices do not include time and labor for plant installation.
Objective IV: Shoreline Erosion Control

Erosion is a potentially serious problem to lake shorelines and occurs as a result of wind, wave, or ice action or from overland rainwater runoff. While some erosion to shorelines is natural, human alteration of the environment can accelerate and exacerbate the problem. Erosion not only results in loss of shoreline, but negatively influences the lake’s overall water quality by contributing nutrients, sediment, and pollutants into the water. This effect is felt throughout the food chain since poor water quality negatively affects everything from microbial life to sight feeding fish and birds to people who want to use the lake for recreational purposes. The resulting increased amount of sediment will over time begin to fill in the lake, decreasing overall lake depth and volume and potentially impairing various recreational uses.

**Option 1: No Action**

**Pros**
There are no short-term costs to this option. However, extended periods of erosion may result in substantially higher costs to repair the shoreline in the future.

Eroding banks on steep slopes can provide habitat for wildlife, particularly bird species (e.g. kingfishers and bank swallows) that need to burrow into exposed banks to nest. In addition, certain minerals and salts in the soils are exposed during the erosion process, which are utilized by various wildlife species.

**Cons**
Taking no action will most likely cause erosion to continue and subsequently may cause poor water quality due to high levels of sediment or nutrients entering a lake. This in turn may retard plant growth and provide additional nutrients for algal growth. A continual loss of shoreline is both aesthetically unpleasing and may potentially reduce property values. Since a shoreline is easier to protect than it is to rehabilitate, it is in the interest of the property owner to address the erosion issue immediately.

**Costs**
In the short-term, cost of this option is zero. However, long-term implications can be severe since prolonged erosion problems may be more costly to repair than if the problems were addressed earlier. As mentioned previously, long-term erosion may cause serious damage to shoreline property and in some cases lower property values.

**Option 2: Install a Steel or Vinyl Seawall**
Seawalls are designed to prevent shoreline erosion on lakes in a similar manner they are used along coastlines to prevent beach erosion or harbor siltation. Today, seawalls are generally constructed of steel, although in the past seawalls were made of concrete or wood (frequently old railroad ties). Concrete seawalls cracked or were undercut by wave
action requiring routine maintenance. Wooden seawalls made of old railroad ties are not used anymore since the chemicals that made the ties rot-resistant could be harmful to aquatic organisms. A new type of construction material being used is vinyl or PVC. Vinyl seawalls are constructed of a lighter, more flexible material as compared to steel. Also, vinyl seawalls will not rust over time as steel will.

Due to the gentle sloping shoreline of Lake Holloway, seawalls would not be necessary or should be used when other options are deemed not feasible.

**Pros**
If installed properly and in the appropriate areas (i.e., shorelines with severe erosion) seawalls provide effective erosion control. Seawalls are made to last numerous years and have relatively low maintenance.

**Cons**
Seawalls are disadvantageous for several reasons. One of the main disadvantages is that they are expensive, since a professional contractor and heavy equipment are needed for installation. Any repair costs tend to be expensive as well. If any fill material is placed in the floodplain along the shoreline, compensatory storage may also be needed. Compensatory storage is the process of excavating in a portion of a property or floodplain to compensate for the filling in of another portion of the floodplain. Permits and surveys are needed whether replacing and old seawall or installing a new one (see costs below).

Wave deflection is another disadvantage to seawalls. Wave energy not absorbed by the shoreline is deflected back into the lake, potentially causing sediment disturbance and resuspension, which in turn may cause poor water clarity and problems with nuisance algae, which use the resuspended nutrients for growth. If seawalls are installed in areas near channels, velocity of run-off water or channel flow may be accelerated. This may lead to flooding during times of high rainfall and run-off, shoreline erosion in other areas of the lake, or a resuspension of sediment due to the agitation of the increased wave action or channel flow, all of which may contribute to poor water quality conditions throughout the lake. Plant growth may be limited due to poor water clarity, since the photosynthetic zone where light can penetrate, and thus utilized by plants, is reduced. Healthy plants are important to the lake’s overall water clarity since they can help filter some of the incoming sediment, prevent resuspension of bottom sediment, and compete with algae for nutrients. However, excessive sediment in the water and high turbidity may overwhelm these benefits.

Finally, seawalls provide no habitat for fish or wildlife. Because there is no structure for fish, wildlife, or their prey, few animals use shorelines with seawalls. In addition, poor water clarity that may be caused by resuspension of sediment from deflected wave action contributes to poor fish and wildlife habitat, since sight feeding fish and birds (i.e., bass, herons, and kingfishers) are less successful
at catching prey. This may contribute to a lake’s poor fishery (i.e., stunted fish populations).

**Costs**

Depending on factors such as slope and shoreline access, cost of seawall installation ranges from $65-80 per linear foot for steel. The approximate costs to repair eroded shoreline on Lake Holloway with steel seawall would be $68,705 – 84,560 for the areas of moderate erosion (1,057 feet). A licensed contractor installs both types of seawall. Additional costs may occur if the shoreline needs to be graded and backfilled, has a steep slope, or poor accessibility. Price does not include the necessary permits required. Additional costs will be incurred if compensatory storage is needed. Prior to the initiation of work, permits and/or surveys from the appropriate government agencies need to be obtained. For seawalls, a site development permit and a building permit are needed. Costs for permits and surveys can be $1,000-2,000 for installation of a seawall. Contact the Army Corps of Engineers, local municipality, or the Lake County Planning and Development Department.

**Option 3: Install Rock Rip-Rap or Gabions**

Rip-rap is the term for using rocks to stabilize shorelines. Size of the rock depends on the severity of the erosion, distance to rock source, and aesthetic preferences. Generally, four to eight inch diameter rocks are used. Gabions are wire cages or baskets filled with rock. They provide similar protection as rip-rap, but are less prone to displacement. They can be stacked, like blocks, to provide erosion control for extremely steep slopes. Both rip-rap and gabions can be incorporated with other erosion control techniques such as plant buffer strips. If any plants will be growing on top of the rip-rap or gabions, fill will probably be needed to cover the rocks and provide an acceptable medium for plants to grow on. Prior to the initiation of work, permits and/or surveys from the appropriate government agencies need to be obtained (see costs below).

**Pros**

Rip-rap and gabions can provide good shoreline erosion control. Rocks can absorb some of the wave energy while providing a more aesthetically pleasing appearance than seawalls. If installed properly, rip-rap and gabions will last for many years. Maintenance is relatively low, however, undercutting of the bank can cause sloughing of the rip-rap and subsequent shoreline. Areas with severe erosion problems may benefit from using rip-rap or gabions. In all cases, a filter fabric should be installed under the rocks to maximize its effectiveness.

Fish and wildlife habitat can be provided if large boulders are used. Crevices and spaces between the rocks can be used by a variety of animals and their prey. Small mammals, like shrews can inhabit these spaces in the rock above water and prey upon many invertebrate species, including many harmful garden and lawn pests. Also, small fish may utilize the structure underwater created by large boulders for foraging and hiding from predators.
**Cons**
A major disadvantage of rip-rap is the initial expense of installation and associated permits. Installation is expensive since a licensed contractor and heavy equipment are generally needed to conduct the work. Permits are required if replacing existing or installing new rip-rap or gabions and must be acquired prior to work beginning. If any fill material is placed in the floodplain along the shoreline, compensatory storage may also be needed. Compensatory storage is the process of excavating in a portion of a property or floodplain to compensate for the filling in of another portion of the floodplain.

While rip-rap and gabions absorb wave energy more effectively than seawalls, there is still some wave deflection that may cause resuspension of sediment and nutrients into the water column.

Small rock rip-rap is poor habitat for many fish and wildlife species, since it provides limited structure for fish and cover for wildlife. As noted earlier, some small fish and other animals will inhabit the rocks if boulders are used. Smaller rip-rap is more likely to wash away due to rising water levels or wave action. On the other hand, larger boulders are more expensive to haul in and install.

Rip-rap may be a concern in areas of high public usage since it is difficult and possibly dangerous to walk on due to the jagged and uneven rock edges. This may be a liability concern to property owners.

**Costs**
Cost and type of rip-rap used depend on several factors, but average cost for installation (rocks and filter fabric) is approximately $30-45 per linear foot. Costs for gabions are approximately $20-30 per linear foot, and approximately $60-100 per linear foot when filled with rocks. To repair the eroded shoreline on Lake Holloway would cost $31,710 – 47,565 for the areas of moderate erosion (1,057 feet). The steeper the slope and severity of erosion, the larger the boulders that will need to be used and thus, higher installation costs. In addition, costs will increase with poor shoreline accessibility and increased distance to rock source. Costs for permits and surveys can be $1,000-2,000 for installation of rip-rap or gabions, depending on the circumstances. Additional costs will be incurred if compensatory storage is needed. Contact the Army Corps of Engineers, local municipalities, and the Lake County Planning and Development Department.

**Option 4: Create a Buffer Strip**
Another effective method of controlling shoreline erosion is to create a buffer strip with existing or native vegetation. Native plants have deeper root systems than turfgrass and thus hold soil more effectively. Native plants also provide positive aesthetics and good wildlife habitat. Cost of creating a buffer strip is quite variable, depending on the current state of the vegetation and shoreline and whether vegetation is allowed to become
established naturally or if the area needs to be graded and replanted. Allowing vegetation to naturally propagate the shoreline would be the most cost effective, depending on the severity of erosion and the composition of the current vegetation. Non-native plants or noxious weedy species may be present and should be controlled or eliminated.

Stabilizing the shoreline with vegetation is most effective on slopes no less than 2:1 to 3:1, horizontal to vertical, or flatter. Usually a buffer strip of at least 25 feet is recommended, however, wider strips (50 or even 100 feet) are recommended on steeper slopes or areas with severe erosion problems. Areas where erosion is severe or where slopes are greater than 3:1, additional erosion control techniques may have to be incorporated such as biologs, A-Jacks®, or rip-rap.

Buffer strips can be constructed in a variety of ways with various plant species. Generally, buffer strip vegetation consists of native terrestrial (land) species and emergent (at the land and water interface) species. Terrestrial vegetation such as native grasses and wildflowers can be used to create a buffer strip along lake shorelines. A table in Appendix A gives some examples, seeding rates and costs of grasses and seed mixes that can be used to create buffer strips. Native plants and seeds can be purchased at regional nurseries or from catalogs. When purchasing seed mixes, care should be taken that native plant seeds are used. Some commercial seed mixes contain non-native or weedy species or may contain annual wildflowers that will have to be reseeded every year. If purchasing plants from a nursery or if a licensed contractor is installing plants, inquire about any guarantees they may have on plant survival. Finally, new plants should be protected from herbivory (e.g., geese and muskrats) by placing a wire cage over the plants for at least one year.

A technique that is sometimes implemented along shorelines is the use of willow posts, or live stakes, which are harvested cuttings from live willows (Salix spp.). They can be planted along the shoreline along with a cover crop or native seed mix. The willows will resprout and begin establishing a deep root structure that secures the soil. If the shoreline is highly erodible, willow posts may have to be used in conjunction with another erosion control technique such as biologs, A-Jacks®, or rip-rap.

Emergent vegetation, or those plants that grow in shallow water and wet areas, can be used to control erosion more naturally than seawalls or rip-rap. Native emergent vegetation can be either hand planted or allowed to become established on its own over time. Some plants, such as native cattails (Typha sp.), quickly spread and help stabilize shorelines, however they can be aggressive and may pose a problem later. Other species, such as those listed in a table in Appendix A should be considered for native plantings.

This option in conjunction with Option 6: Install Biolog, Fiber Roll, or Straw Blanket with Plantings is the preferred option for the shoreline erosion on Lake Holloway.

**Pros**
Buffer strips can be one of the least expensive means to stabilize shorelines. If no permits or heavy equipment are needed (i.e., no significant earthmoving or filling
is planned), the property owner can complete the work without the need of professional contractors. Once established (typically within 3 years), a buffer strip of native vegetation will require little maintenance and may actually reduce the overall maintenance of the property, since the buffer strip will not have to be continuously mowed, watered, or fertilized. Occasional high mowing (1-2 times per year) for specific plants or physically removing other weedy species may be needed.

The buffer strip will stabilize the soil with its deep root structure and help filter run-off from lawns and agricultural fields by trapping nutrients, pollutants, and sediment that would otherwise drain into the lake. This may have a positive impact on the lake’s water quality since there will be less “food” for nuisance algae. Buffer strips can filter as much as 70-95% of sediment and 25-60% of nutrients and other pollutants from runoff.

Another benefit of a buffer strip is potential flood control protection. Buffer strips may slow the velocity of flood waters, thus preventing shoreline erosion. Native plants also can withstand fluctuating water levels more effectively than commercial turfgrass. Many plants can survive after being under water for several days, even weeks, while turfgrass is intolerant of wet conditions and usually dies after several days under water. This contributes to increased maintenance costs, since the turfgrass has to be either replanted or replaced with sod. Emergent vegetation can provide additional help in preserving shorelines and improving water quality by absorbing wave energy that might otherwise batter the shoreline. Calmer wave action will result in less shoreline erosion and resuspension of bottom sediment, which may result in potential improvements in water quality.

Many fish and wildlife species prefer the native shoreline vegetation habitat. This habitat is an asset to the lake’s fishery since the emergent vegetation cover may be used for spawning, foraging, and hiding. Various wildlife species are even dependent upon shoreline vegetation for their existence. Certain birds, such as marsh wrens (Cistothorus palustris) and endangered yellow-headed blackbirds (Xanthocephalus xanthocephalus) nest exclusively in emergent vegetation like cattails and bulrushes. Hosts of other wildlife like waterfowl, rails, herons, mink, and frogs to mention just a few, benefit from healthy stands of shoreline vegetation. Dragonflies, damselflies, and other beneficial invertebrates can be found thriving in vegetation along the shoreline as well. Two invertebrates of particular importance for lake management, the water milfoil weevils (Euhrychiopsis lecontei and Phytobius leucogaster), which have been shown to naturally reduce stands of exotic Eurasian water-milfoil (Myriophyllum spicatum). Weevils need proper over wintering habitat such as leaf litter and mud which are typically found on naturalized shorelines or shores with good buffer strips. Many species of amphibians, birds, fish, mammals, reptiles, and invertebrates have suffered precipitous declines in recent years primarily due to habitat loss. Buffer strips may help many of these species and preserve the important diversity of life in and around lakes.
In addition to the benefits of increased fish and wildlife use, a buffer strip planted with a variety of native plants may provide a season long show of various colors from flowers, leaves, seeds, and stems. This is not only aesthetically pleasing to people, but also benefits wildlife and the overall health of the lake’s ecosystem.

**Cons**
There are few disadvantages to native shoreline vegetation. Certain species (i.e., cattails) can be aggressive and may need to be controlled occasionally. If stands of shoreline vegetation become dense enough, access and visibility to the lake may be compromised to some degree. However, small paths could be cleared to provide lake access or smaller plants could be planted in these areas.

**Costs**
If minimal amount of site preparation is needed, costs can be approximately $10 per linear foot, plus labor. Cost of installing willow posts is approximately $15-20 per linear foot. The labor that is needed can be completed by the property owner in most cases, although consultants can be used to provide technical advice where needed. This cost will be higher if the area needs to be graded. If grading is necessary, appropriate permits and surveys are needed. If filling is required, additional costs will be incurred if compensatory storage is needed. The permitting process is costly, running as high as $1,000-2,000 depending on the types of permits needed.

**Option 5: Install A-Jacks®**
A-Jacks® are made of two pieces of pre-cast concrete when fitted together resemble a child’s playing jacks. These structures are installed along the shoreline and covered with soil and/or an erosion control product. Native vegetation is then planted on the backfilled area. They can be used in areas where severe erosion does not justify a buffer strip alone.

**Pros**
The advantage to A-Jacks® is that they are quite strong and require low maintenance once installed. In addition, once native vegetation becomes established the A-Jacks® can not be seen. They provide many of the advantages that both rip-rap and buffer strips have. Specifically, they absorb some of the wave energy and protect the existing shoreline from additional erosion. The added benefit of a buffer strip gives the A-Jacks® a more natural appearance, which may provide wildlife habitat and help filter run-off nutrients, sediment, and pollutants. Less run-off entering a lake may have a positive effect on water quality.

**Cons**
The disadvantage is that installation cost can be high since labor is intensive and requires some heavy equipment. A-Jacks® need to be pre-made and hauled in
from the manufacturing site. These assemblies are not as common as rip-rap, thus only a limited number of contractors may be willing to do the installation.

**Costs**
The cost of installation is approximately $40-75 per linear foot, but does not include permits and surveys, which can cost $1,000-2,000 and must be obtained prior to any work implementation. Additional costs will be incurred if compensatory storage is needed.

On Lake Holloway the cost to repair the erosion with A-Jacks® would be approximately $42,280 –79,275 for the moderately eroded areas (1,057 feet).

**Option 6: Install Biolog, Fiber Roll, or Straw Blanket with Plantings**
These products are long cylinders of compacted synthetic or natural fibers wrapped in mesh. The rolls are staked into shallow water. Once established, a buffer strip of native plants can be planted along side or on top of the roll (depending if rolls are made of synthetic or natural fibers). They are most effective in areas where plantings alone are not effective due to already severe erosion. In areas of severe erosion, other techniques may need to be employed or incorporated with these products.

**Pros**
Biologs, fiber rolls, and straw blankets provide erosion control that secure the shoreline in the short-term and allow native plants to establish which will eventually provide long-term shoreline stabilization. They are most often made of bio-degradable materials, which break down by the time the natural vegetation becomes established (generally within 3 years). They provide additional strength to the shoreline, absorb wave energy, and effectively filter run-off from terrestrial sources. These factors help improve water quality in the lake by reducing the amount of nutrients available for algae growth and by reducing the sediment that flows into a lake.

**Cons**
These products may not be as effective on highly erodible shorelines or in areas with steep slopes, as wave action may be severe enough to displace or undercut these products. On steep shorelines grading may be necessary to obtain a 2:1 or 3:1 slope or additional erosion control products may be needed. If grading or filling is needed, the appropriate permits and surveys will have to be obtained.

**Costs**
Costs range from $25 to $35 per linear foot of shoreline, including plantings. This does not include the necessary permits and surveys, which may cost $1,000 – 2,000 depending on the type of earthmoving that is being done. Additional costs may be incurred if compensatory storage is needed.
Objective V: Eliminate or Control Exotic Species

Numerous exotic plant species have been introduced into our local ecosystems. Some of these plants are aggressive, quickly out-competing native vegetation and flourishing in an environment where few natural predators exist. Plants such as purple loosestrife (*Lythrum salicaria*), buckthorn (*Rhamnus cathartica*), and reed canary grass (*Phalaris arundinacea*) are three examples. The outcome is a loss of plant and animal diversity. This section will address terrestrial shoreline exotic species.

Purple loosestrife is responsible for the “sea of purple” seen along roadsides and in wetlands during summer. It can quickly dominate a wetland or shoreline. Due in part to an extensive root system, large seed production (estimates range from 100,000 to 2.7 million seeds per plant), and high seed germination rate, purple loosestrife spreads quickly. Buckthorn is an aggressive shrub species that grows along lake shorelines as well as most upland habitats. It shades out other plants and is quick to become established on disturbed soils. Reed canary grass is an aggressive plant species that was introduced as a shoreline stabilizer. It is found on lakeshores, streambanks, marshes and exposed moist ground. Although it does serve to stabilize shorelines to some extent, it has low food value and does not provide winter habitat for wildlife. It is very successful in taking over disturbed areas and, if left unchecked, will dominate an area, particularly a wetland or shoreline, in a short period of time. Since it begins growing early in the spring, it quickly out-competes native vegetation that begins growth later in the year. Control of purple loosestrife, buckthorn, and reed canary grass are discussed below. However, these control measures can be similarly applied to other exotic species such as garlic mustard (*Allilaria officianalis*) or honeysuckle (*Lonicera* spp.) as well as some aggressive native species, such as box elder (*Acer negundo*).

Presence of exotic species along a lakeshore is by no means a death sentence for the lake or other plant and animal life. If controlled, many exotic species can perform many of the original functions that they were brought here for. For example, reed canary grass was imported for its erosion control properties. It still contributes to this objective (offering better erosion control than commercial turfgrass), but needs to be isolated and kept in control. Many exotics are the result of garden or ornamental plants escaping into the wild. One isolated plant along a shoreline will probably not create a problem by itself. However, problems arise when plants are left to spread, many times to the point where treatment is difficult or cost prohibitive. A monitoring program should be established, problem areas identified, and control measures taken when appropriate. This is particularly important in remote areas of lake shorelines where the spread of exotic species may go unnoticed for some time.

**Option 1: No Action**

No control will likely result in the expansion of the exotic species and the decline of native species. This option is not recommended if possible.
Pros
There are few advantages with this option. Some of the reasons exotics were brought into this country are no longer used or have limited use. However, in some cases having an exotic species growing along a shoreline may actually be preferable if the alternative plant is commercial turfgrass. Since turfgrass has shallow roots and is prone to erosion along shorelines, exotics like reed canary grass or common reed (*Phragmites australis*) will control erosion more effectively. Native plants should take precedence over exotics when possible. A table in Appendix A lists several native plants that can be planted along shorelines.

Cons
Native plant and wildlife diversity will be lost as stands of exotic species expand. Exotic species are not under the same stresses (particularly diseases and predators) as native plants and thus can out-compete the natives for nutrients, space, and light. Few wildlife species use areas where exotic plants dominate. This happens because many wildlife species either have not adapted with the plants and do not view them as a food resource, the plants are not digestible to the animal, or their primary food supply (i.e., insects) are not attracted to the plants. The result is a monoculture of exotic plants with limited biodiversity.

Recreational activities, especially wildlife viewing, may be hampered by such monocultures. Access to lake shorelines may be impaired due to dense stands of non-native plants. Other recreational activities, such as swimming and boating, may not be affected.

Costs
Costs with this option are zero initially, however, when control is eventually needed, costs will be substantially more than if action was taken immediately. Additionally, the eventual loss of ecological diversity is difficult to calculate financially.

Option 2: Biological Control
Biological control (bio-control) is a means of using natural relationships already in place to limit, stop, or reverse an exotic species’ expansion. In most cases, insects that prey upon the exotic plants in its native ecosystem are imported. Since there is a danger of bringing another exotic species into the ecosystem, state and federal agencies require testing before any bio-control species are released or made available for purchase.

Recently two beetles (*Galerucella pusilla* and *G. calmariensis*) and two weevils (*Hylobius transversovittatus* and *Nanophyes marmoratus*) have offered some hope to control purple loosestrife by natural means. These insects feed on either the leaves or juices of purple loosestrife, eventually weakening or killing the plant. In large stands of loosestrife, the beetles and weevils naturally reproduce and in many locations,
significantly retard plant densities. The insects are host specific, meaning that they will attack no other plant but purple loosestrife. Currently, the beetles have proven to be most effective and are available for purchase. There are no designated stocking rate recommendations, since using bio-control insects are seen as an inoculation and it may take 3-5 years for beetle populations to increase to levels that will cause significant damage. Depending on the size of the infested area, it may take 1,000 or more adult beetles per acre to cause significant damage.

Use of biological controls is probably not a viable option for the areas of infestation by exotic species around Lake Holloway. However, this information is included for future reference.

**Pros**
Control of exotics by a natural mechanism if preferable to chemical treatments. Insects, being part of the same ecological system as the exotic (i.e., the beetles and weevils and the purple loosestrife) are more likely to provide long-term control. Chemical treatments are usually non-selective while bio-control measures target specific plant species. This technique is beneficial to the ecosystem since it preserves, even promotes, biodiversity. As the exotic dies back, native vegetation can reestablish the area.

**Cons**
Few exotics can be controlled using biological means. Currently, there are no bio-control techniques for plants such as buckthorn, reed canary grass, or a host of other exotics. One of the major disadvantages of using bio-control is the costs and labor associated with it.

Use of biological mechanisms to control plants such as purple loosestrife is still under debate. Similar to purple loosestrife, the beetles and weevils that control it are not native to North America. Due to the poor historical record of introducing non-native species, even to control other non-native species, this technique has its critics.

**Costs**
The New York Department of Natural Resources at Cornell University (607-255-2821) sells overwintering adult beetles (which will lay eggs the year of release) for $2 per beetle and new generation beetles (which will lay eggs beginning the following year) at $0.25 per beetle. Some beetles may be available for free by contacting the Illinois Natural History Survey (217-333-6846).

**Option 3: Control by Hand**
Controlling exotic plants by hand removal is most effective on small areas (< 1 acre) and if done prior to heavy infestation. Some exotics, such as purple loosestrife and reed canary grass, can be controlled to some degree by digging, cutting, or mowing if done early and often during the year. Digging may be required to ensure the entire root mass is removed. Spring or summer is the best time to cut or mow, since late summer and fall is
when many of the plant seeds disperse. Proper disposal of excavated plants is important since seeds may persist and germinate even after several years. Once exotic plants are removed, the disturbed ground should be planted with native vegetation and closely monitored. Many exotic species, such as purple loosestrife, buckthorn, and garlic mustard are proficient at colonizing disturbed sites.

The buckthorn around Lake Holloway may be removed in this way. However, in order to prevent resprouting, an herbicide will need to be applied to the cut stumps.

**Pros**
Removal of exotics by hand eliminates the need for chemical treatments. Costs are low if stands of plants are not too large already. Once removed, control is simple with yearly maintenance. Control or elimination of exotics preserves the ecosystem’s biodiversity. This will have positive impacts on plant and wildlife presence as well as some recreational activities.

**Cons**
This option may be labor intensive or prohibitive if the exotic plant is already well established. Costs may be high if large numbers of people are needed to remove plants. Soil disturbance may introduce additional problems such as providing a seedbed for other non-native plants that quickly establish disturbed sites, or cause soil-laden run-off to flow into nearby lakes or streams. In addition, a well-established stand of an exotic like purple loosestrife or reed canary grass may require several years of intense removal to control or eliminate.

**Costs**
Cost for this option is primarily in tools, labor, and proper plant disposal.

**Option 4: Herbicide Treatment**
Chemical treatments can be effective at controlling exotic plant species. However, chemical treatment works best on individual plants or small areas already infested with the plant. In some areas where individual spot treatments are prohibitive or impractical (i.e., large expanses of a wetland or woodland), chemical treatments may not be an option due to the fact that in order to chemically treat the area a broadcast application would be needed. Since many of the herbicides that are used are not selective, meaning they kill all plants they contact; this may be unacceptable if native plants are found in the proposed treatment area.

Herbicides are commonly used to control nuisance shoreline vegetation such as buckthorn and purple loosestrife. Herbicides are applied to green foliage or cut stems. Products are applied by either spraying or wicking (wiping) solution on plant surfaces. Spraying is used when large patches of undesirable vegetation are targeted. Herbicides are sprayed on growing foliage using a hand-held or backpack sprayer. Wicking is used when selected plants are to be removed from a group of plants. The herbicide solution is wiped on foliage, bark, or cut stems using a herbicide soaked device. Trees are normally treated by cutting a ring in the bark (called girdling). Herbicides are applied onto the ring
at high concentrations. Other devices inject the herbicide through the bark. It is best to apply herbicides when plants are actively growing, such as in the late spring/early summer, but before formation of seed heads. Herbicides are often used in conjunction with other methods, such as cutting or mowing, to achieve the best results. Proper use of these products is critical to their success. Always read and follow label directions.

**Pros**
Herbicides provide a fast and effective way to control or eliminate nuisance vegetation. Unlike other control methods, herbicides kill the root of the plant, which prevents regrowth. If applied properly, herbicides can be selective. This allows for removal of selected plants within a mix of desirable and undesirable plants.

**Cons**
Since most herbicides are non-selective, they are not suitable for broadcast application. Thus, chemical treatment of large stands of exotic species may not be practical. Native species are likely to be killed inadvertently and replaced by other non-native species. Off target injury/death may result from the improper use of herbicides. If herbicides are applied in windy conditions, chemicals may drift onto desirable vegetation. Care must also be taken when wicking herbicides as not to drip on to non-targeted vegetation such as native grasses and wildflowers. Another drawback to herbicide use relates to their ecological soundness and the public perception of them. Costs may also be prohibitive if plant stands are large. Depending on the device, cost of the application equipment can be high.

**Costs**
Two common herbicides, triclopyr (sold as Garlon™) and glyphosate (sold as Rodeo®, Round-up™, Eagre™, or AquaPro™), cost approximately $100 and $65 per gallon, respectively. Only Rodeo® is approved for water use. The triclopyr is most effective at controlling resprouting of buckthorn. A Hydrohatchet®, a hatchet that injects herbicide through the bark, is about $300.00. Another injecting device, E-Z Ject® is $450.00. Hand-held and backpack sprayers costs from $25-$45 and $80-150, respectively. Wicking devices are $30-40.
Objective VI: Enhance Wildlife Habitat Conditions

The key to increasing wildlife species in and around a lake can be summed up in one word: habitat. Wildlife need the same four things all living creatures need: food, water, shelter, and a place to raise their young. Since each wildlife species has specific habitat requirements, which fulfill these four basic needs, providing a variety of habitats will increase the chance that wildlife species may use an area. Groups of wildlife are often associated with the types of habitats they use. For example, grassland habitats may attract wildlife such as northern harriers, bobolinks, meadowlarks, meadow voles, and leopard frogs. Marsh habitats may attract yellow-headed blackbirds and sora rails, while manicured residential lawns attract house sparrows and gray squirrels. Thus, in order to attract a variety of wildlife, a mix of habitats are needed. In most cases quality is more important than quantity (i.e., five 0.1-acre plots of different habitats may not attract as many wildlife species than one 0.5 acre of one habitat type).

It is important to understand that the natural world is constantly changing. Habitats change or naturally succeed to other types of habitats. For example, grasses may be succeeded by shrub or shade intolerant tree species (e.g., willows, locust, and cottonwood). The point at which one habitat changes to another is rarely clear, since these changes usually occur over long periods of time, except in the case of dramatic events such as fire or flood.

In all cases, the best wildlife habitats are ones consisting of native plants. Unfortunately, non-native plants dominate many of our lake shorelines. Many of them escaped from gardens and landscaped yards (i.e., purple loosestrife) while others were introduced at some point to solve a problem (i.e., reed canary grass for erosion control). Wildlife species prefer native plants for food, shelter, and raising their young. In fact, one study showed that plant and animal diversity was 500% higher along naturalized shorelines compared to shorelines with conventional lawns (University of Wisconsin – Extension, 1999).

Option 1: No Action
This option means that the current land use activities will continue. No additional techniques will be implemented. Allowing a field to go fallow or not mowing a manicured lawn would be considered an action.

Pros
Taking no action may maintain the current habitat conditions and wildlife species present, depending on environmental conditions and pending land use actions. If all things remain constant there will be little to no effect on lake water quality and other lake uses.

Cons
If environmental conditions change or substantial land use actions occur (i.e., development) wildlife use of the area may change. For example, if a new housing
development with manicured lawns and roads is built next to an undeveloped property, there will probably be a change in wildlife present.

Conditions in the lake (i.e., siltation or nutrient loading) may also change the composition of aquatic plant and invertebrate communities and thus influence biodiversity. Siltation and nutrient loading will likely decrease water clarity, increase turbidity, increase algal growth (due to nutrient availability), and decrease habitat for fish and wildlife.

**Costs**
The financial cost of this option may be zero. However, due to continual loss of habitats many wildlife species have suffered drastic declines in recent years. The loss of habitat affects the overall health and biodiversity of the lake’s ecosystems.

**Option 2: Increase Habitat Cover**
This option can be incorporated with Option 3 (see below). One of the best ways to increase habitat cover is to leave a minimum 25 foot buffer between the edge of the water and any mowed grass. Allow native plants to grow or plant native vegetation along shorelines, including emergent vegetation such as cattails, rushes, and bulrushes (see the table in Appendix A for costs and seeding rates). This will provide cover from predators and provide nesting structure for many wildlife species and their prey. It is important to control or eliminate non-native plants such as buckthorn, purple loosestrife, garlic mustard, and reed canary grass, since these species outcompete native plants and provide little value for wildlife.

Occasionally high mowing (with the mower set at its highest setting) may have to be done for specific plants, particularly if the area is newly established, since competition from weedy and exotic species is highest in the first couple years. If mowing, do not mow the buffer strip until after July 15 of each year. This will allow nesting birds to complete their breeding cycle.

Brush piles make excellent wildlife habitat. They provide cover as well as food resources for many species. Brush piles are easy to create and will last for several years. They should be placed at least 10 feet away from the shoreline to prevent any debris from washing into the lake.

Trees that have fallen on the ground or into the water are beneficial by harboring food and providing cover for many wildlife species. In a lake, fallen trees provide excellent cover for fish, basking sites for turtles, and perches for herons and egrets.

Increasing habitat cover should not be limited to the terrestrial environment. Native aquatic vegetation, particularly along the shoreline, can provide cover for fish and other wildlife.
**Pros**

Increased cover will lead to increased use by wildlife. Since cover is one of the most important elements required by most species, providing cover will increase the chances of wildlife using the shoreline. Once cover is established, wildlife usually have little problem finding food, since many of the same plants that provide cover also supply the food the wildlife eat, either directly (seeds, fruit, roots, or leaves) or indirectly (prey attracted to the plants).

Additional benefits of leaving a buffer include: stabilizing shorelines, reducing runoff which may lead to better water quality, and deterring nuisance Canada geese. Shorelines with erosion problems can benefit from a buffer zone because native plants have deeper root structures and hold the soil more effectively than conventional turfgrass. Buffers also absorb much of the wave energy that batters the shoreline. Water quality may be improved by the filtering of nutrients, sediment, and pollutants in run-off. This has a “domino effect” since less run-off flowing into a lake means less nutrient availability for nuisance algae, and less sediment means less turbidity, which leads to better water quality. All this is beneficial for fish and wildlife, such as sight-feeders like bass and herons, as well as people who use the lake for recreation. Finally, a buffer strip along the shoreline can serve as a deterrent to Canada geese from using a shoreline. Canada geese like flat, open areas with a wide field of vision. Ideal habitat for them are areas that have short grass up to the edge of the lake. If a buffer is allowed to grow tall, geese may choose to move elsewhere.

**Cons**

There are few disadvantages to this option. However, if vegetation is allowed to grow, lake access and visibility may be limited. If this occurs, a small path can be made to the shoreline. Composition and density of aquatic and shoreline vegetation are important. If vegetation consists of non-native species such as or Eurasian water milfoil or purple loosestrife, or in excess amounts, undesirable conditions may result. A shoreline with excess exotic plant growth may result in a poor fishery (exhibited by stunted fish) and poor recreation opportunities (i.e., boating, swimming, or wildlife viewing).

**Costs**

The cost of this option would be minimal. The purchase of native plants can vary depending upon species and quantity. Based upon 100 feet of shoreline, a 25-foot buffer planted with a native forb and grass seed mix would cost between $165-270 (2500 sq. ft. would require 2.5, 1000 sq. ft. seed mix packages at $66-108 per package). This does not include labor that would be needed to prepare the site for planting and follow-up maintenance. This cost can be reduced or minimized if native plants are allowed to grow. However, additional time and labor may be needed to insure other exotic species, such as buckthorn, reed canary grass, and purple loosestrife, do not become established.
Option 3: Increase Natural Food Supply

This can be accomplished in conjunction with Option 2. Habitats with a diversity of native plants will provide an ample food supply for wildlife. Food comes in a variety of forms, from seeds to leaves or roots to invertebrates that live on or are attracted to the plants. Plants found in the table in Appendix A should be planted or allowed to grow. In addition, encourage native aquatic vegetation, such as water lily (*Nuphar* spp. and *Nymphaea tuberosa*), sago pondweed (*Stuckenia pectinatus*), largeleaf pondweed (*Potamogeton amplifolius*), and wild celery (*Vallisneria americana*) to grow. Aquatic plants such as these are particularly important to waterfowl in the spring and fall, as they replenish energy reserves lost during migration.

Providing a natural food source in and around a lake starts with good water quality. Water quality is important to all life forms in a lake. If there is good water quality, the fishery benefits and subsequently so does the wildlife (and people) who prey on the fish. Insect populations in the area, including beneficial predatory insects, such as dragonflies, thrive in lakes with good water quality.

Dead or dying plant material can be a source of food for wildlife. A dead standing or fallen tree will harbor good populations of insects for woodpeckers, while a pile of brush may provide insects for several species of songbirds such as warblers and flycatchers.

Supplying natural foods artificially (i.e., birdfeeders, nectar feeders, corn cobs, etc.) will attract wildlife and in most cases does not harm the animals. However, “people food” such as bread should be avoided. Care should be given to maintain clean feeders and birdbaths to minimize disease outbreaks.

**Pros**

Providing food for wildlife will increase the likelihood they will use the area. Providing wildlife with natural food sources has many benefits. Wildlife attracted to a lake can serve the lake and its residents well, since many wildlife species (i.e., many birds, bats, and other insects) are predators of nuisance insects such as mosquitoes, biting flies, and garden and yard pests (such as certain moths and beetles). Effective natural insect control eliminates the need for chemical treatments or use of electrical “bug zappers” that have limited effect on nuisance insects.

Migrating wildlife can be attracted with a natural food supply, primarily from seeds, but also from insects, aquatic plants or small fish. In fact, most migrating birds are dependent on food sources along their migration routes to replenish lost energy reserves. This may present an opportunity to view various species that would otherwise not be seen during the summer or winter.

**Cons**

Feeding wildlife can have adverse consequences if populations become dependent on hand-outs or populations of wildlife exceed healthy numbers. This frequently happens when people feed waterfowl like Canada geese or mallard ducks.
Feeding these waterfowl can lead to a domestication of these animals. As a result, these birds do not migrate and can contribute to numerous problems, such as excess feces, which is both a nuisance to property owners and a significant contribution to the lake’s nutrient load. Waterfowl feces are particularly high in phosphorus. Since phosphorus is generally the limiting factor for nuisance algae growth in many lakes in the Midwest, the addition of large amounts of this nutrient from waterfowl may exacerbate a lake’s excessive algae problem. In addition, high populations of birds in an area can increase the risk of disease for not only the resident birds, but also wild bird populations that visit the area.

Finally, tall plants along the shoreline may limit lake access or visibility for property owners. If this occurs, a path leading to the lake could be created or shorter plants may be used in the viewing area.

**Costs**
The costs of this option are minimal. The purchase of native plants and food and the time and labor required to plant and maintain would be the limit of the expense.

**Option 4: Increase Nest Availability**
Wildlife are attracted by habitats that serve as a place to raise their young. Habitats can vary from open grasslands to closed woodlands (similar to Options 2 and 3).

Standing dead or dying trees provide excellent habitat for a variety of wildlife species. Birds such as swallows, woodpeckers, and some waterfowl need dead trees to nest in. Generally, a cavity created and used by a woodpecker (e.g., red-headed or downy woodpecker, or common flicker) in one year, will in subsequent years be used by species like tree swallows or chickadees. Over time, older cavities may be large enough for waterfowl, like wood ducks, or mammals (e.g., flying squirrels) to use. Standing dead trees are also favored habitat for nesting wading birds, such as great blue herons, night herons, and double-crested cormorants, which build stick nests on limbs. For these birds, dead trees in groups or clumps are preferred as most herons and cormorants are colonial nesters.

In addition to allowing dead and dying trees to remain, erecting bird boxes will increase nesting sites for many bird species. Box sizes should vary to accommodate various species. Swallows, bluebirds, and other cavity nesting birds can be attracted to the area using small artificial nest boxes. Larger boxes will attract species such as wood ducks, flickers, and owls. A colony of purple martins can be attracted with a purple martin house, which has multiple cavity holes, placed in an open area near water.

Bat houses are also recommended for any area close to water. Bats are voracious predators of insects and are naturally attracted to bodies of water. They can be enticed into roosting in the area by the placement of bat boxes. Boxes should be constructed of rough non-treated lumber and placed >10 feet high in a sunny location.
**Pros**

Providing places were wildlife can rear their young has many benefits. Watching wildlife raise their young can be an excellent educational tool for both young and old.

The presence of certain wildlife species can help in controlling nuisance insects like mosquitoes, biting flies, and garden and yard pests. This eliminates the need for chemical treatments or electric “bug zappers” for pest control.

Various wildlife species populations have dramatically declined in recent years. Since, the overall health of ecosystems depend, in part, on the role of many of these species, providing sites for wildlife to raise their young will benefit not only the animals themselves, but the entire lake ecosystem.

**Cons**

Providing sites for wildlife to raise their young have few disadvantages. Safety precautions should be taken with leaving dead and dying trees due to the potential of falling limbs. Safety is also important when around wildlife with young, since many animals are protective of their young. Most actions by adult animals are simply threats and are rarely carried out as attacks.

Parental wildlife may chase off other animals of its own species or even other species. This may limit the number of animals in the area for the duration of the breeding season.

**Costs**

The costs of leaving dead and dying trees are minimal. The costs of installing the bird and bat boxes vary. Bird boxes can range in price from $10-100.00. Purple martin houses can cost $50-150. Bat boxes range in price from $15-50.00. These prices do not include mounting poles or installation.