

1 **Assessing the impact of forest management and climate on a peatland under Scots pine monoculture**  
2 **using a multidisciplinary approach**

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17  
18 **Abstract:** Assessing the scale, rate and consequences of climate change, manifested primarily by rising  
19 average air temperatures and altered precipitation regimes, is a critical challenge in contemporary scientific  
20 research. These changes are accompanied by various anomalies and extreme events that negatively impact  
21 ecosystems worldwide. Monoculture forests, including Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris* L.) monocultures, are  
22 particularly vulnerable to these changes due to their homogeneous structure and simplified ecosystem  
23 linkages compared to mixed forests, making them more sensitive to extreme events such as insect outbreaks,  
24 droughts, fires and strong winds. In the context of global warming, forest fires are becoming extremely  
25 dangerous, and the risk of their occurrence increases as average temperatures rise. The situation becomes  
26 even more dramatic when fire enters areas of peatlands, as these ecosystems effectively withdraw carbon  
27 from the rapid carbon cycle and store it for up to thousands of years. Consequently, peatlands become  
28 emitters of carbon dioxide into the atmosphere.

29 In this study, we aim to trace the last 300 years of historical development of a peatland situated in a Scots  
30 pine monoculture. Our focus is on the Okoniny (Jezierzba) peatland located within the Tuchola Pinewoods  
31 in northern Poland, one of the country's largest forest complexes. We delved into the phase when the  
32 peatland's surroundings transitioned from a mixed forest to a pine monoculture and investigated the impact  
33 of changes in forest management on the peatland vegetation and hydrology. Our reconstructions are based  
34 on a multi-proxy approach using: pollen, plant macrofossils, micro- and macrocharcoal and testate amoebae.  
35 We combine the peatland palaeoecological record with the dendrochronology of *Pinus sylvestris* to compare  
36 the response of these two archives. Our results show that a change in forest management and progressive  
37 climate warming affected the development of the peatland. We note an increase in acidity over the analyzed

**Z komentarzem [MB1]:** A nature reserve called Jezierzba is planned to be created within the peatland.

38 period and a decrease in the water table over the last few decades that led to the lake-peatland transition.  
39 These changes progressed with the strongest agricultural activity in the area in the 19<sup>th</sup> century. However,  
40 the 20th century was a period of continuous decline in agriculture and an increase in the dominance of Scots  
41 pine in the landscape as the effect of afforestation. Dendroclimatic data indicate a negative effect of  
42 temperature on Scots pine and pressure from summer rainfall deficiency. Additional remote sensing  
43 analysis, using hyperspectral, LiDAR and thermal airborne data, provided information about the current  
44 condition of the peatland vegetation. With the application of spectral indices and the analysis of land surface  
45 temperature, spatial variations in peatland drying have been identified. Considering the context of forest  
46 management and the protection of valuable ecosystems in monocultural forests, the conclusions are relevant  
47 for peatland and forest ecology, palaeoecology and forestry.

48  
49 **Keywords:** palaeoecological data, palaeoecology, dendrochronology, dendroclimatic data, climate change,  
50 monoculture forests, plantation, historical data, historical maps, multi-proxy, high-resolution, airborne data,  
51 thermal data, vegetation indices, remote sensing

52

### 53 1. Introduction

54 Peatlands are vulnerable to various types of change, which play an important role in the global carbon cycle  
55 and whose destabilization can create positive feedback for climate warming (Gallego-Sala et al., 2018;  
56 Wilson et al., 2016). Peatlands, although they only cover about 3% of the Earth's total land area (Parish et  
57 al., 2008; Rydin and Jeglum, 2013), store more than 30% of the organic carbon (C) (Freeman et al., 2004;  
58 Gorham, 1991; Harenda et al., 2018), which is far more carbon than the entire biomass of the world's forests  
59 (Beaulne et al., 2021b). Their advantage over forests is not only due to their ability to accumulate C but also  
60 to the fact that they do not emit decomposed carbon from the so-called rapid C cycle for up to thousands of  
61 years (Blodau, 2002; Gorham, 1991). The estimation of C content accumulated in peatlands is challenging  
62 (Sanderson et al., 2023), although some studies indicate ca. 600 Gt of C in the Northern Hemisphere alone  
63 (Yu et al., 2010). It has recently been shown that even the smallest kettle-hole peatlands effectively  
64 accumulate C and serve as important C hot spots (Karpńska-Kończak et al., 2024).

65 Insufficient awareness of the ecological importance of peatlands has led to them being treated as  
66 wastelands and drained for hundreds of years to obtain land for agriculture, and forestry or exploited  
67 commercially as an energy resource (Joosten et al., 2012; Łuców et al., 2022; Paavilainen and Päivänen,  
68 1995). Many of these areas have also had to adapt to a changing environment resulting from the use of  
69 various forest management techniques, e.g., the replacement of mixed forests with more easily managed  
70 monoculture forests (plantations) (Lee et al., 2023; Łuców et al., 2021; Słowiński et al., 2019). Mixed  
71 forests, through greater biodiversity, are more resilient and better able to adapt to environmental change

72 (Bauhus et al., 2017; Messier et al., 2022), providing a more comprehensive range of ecosystem services  
73 (Felton et al., 2016; Huuskonen et al., 2021).

74         Despite being more straightforward to manage, forest monocultures are characterized by simplified  
75 ecosystem linkages (Chapin et al., 2012). As a result, they are more susceptible to various extreme events  
76 and disturbances, both natural and anthropogenic, including droughts, fires, strong winds, and pest  
77 infestations (Grondin et al., 2014). This is particularly important as disturbances of these types of forests  
78 are becoming more common (Seidl et al., 2014; Westerling, 2016). Natural disturbance regimes in forests  
79 are mainly a response to climate change (Hanson and Weltzin, 2000; Pureswaran et al., 2015; Seidl et al.,  
80 2017; Trumbore et al., 2015), therefore they are expected to increase in frequency and severity in the coming  
81 years (Gregow et al., 2017; Moritz et al., 2012; Wotton et al., 2010). Moreover, the problem applies to all  
82 kinds of monoculture forests regardless of the dominant species and climate zones (Booth, 2013; Guariguata  
83 et al., 2008; McNulty et al., 2013; Spiecker, 2000), including pine plantations in the temperate climate zone  
84 of Central and Eastern Europe (Łuców et al., 2021; Schüle et al., 2023). Thus, peatlands, which are so crucial  
85 in terms of their impact on global climate change, located in the area of forest monocultures are even more  
86 vulnerable to extreme phenomena and disturbance, despite the already high climatic and anthropogenic  
87 pressure.

88         The history of peatlands' development can be traced using palaeoecological analyses, which allow  
89 numerous reconstructions of past environmental conditions, including climate change (Lamentowicz et al.,  
90 2015; Mauquoy and Yeloff, 2008). These include reconstructions of vegetation changes in the peatland and  
91 its surroundings, changes in the water table, and reconstructions of past fire activity (Gałka et al., 2022;  
92 Kołaczek et al., 2018; Marcisz et al., 2020b, 2017; Mroczkowska et al., 2021). Peat archive records contain  
93 a wide range of preserved micro- and macrofossils for example, pollen, spores, microbial remains, and  
94 charcoal are deposited in situ and brought in by wind or water (Godwin, 1981). While paleoenvironmental  
95 reconstructions based on peat records have become common, few studies integrate palaeoecological data  
96 with other methods. For example, studies that combine palaeoecological and dendrochronological records,  
97 including dendroclimatic reconstructions based on analysis of the annual growth of tree rings, are still  
98 relatively rare (Ballesteros-Cánovas et al., 2022; Beaulne et al., 2021a; Dinella et al., 2021; Edvardsson et  
99 al., 2022, 2019, 2016; González de Andrés et al., 2022; Kuosmanen et al., 2020; Lamentowicz et al., 2009b).  
100 Yet, combining peat records with dendrochronological data can benefit interpretations of trees and forest  
101 resilience and resistance to disturbances compared to local environmental changes recorded in peat. Such a  
102 view of past environmental changes through several proxies and other archive types is fundamental and will  
103 be helpful for forest management and nature conservation in the future. To assess the current state of the  
104 peatland, we also included remote sensing data in the analysis. Remote sensing methods have been applied  
105 to study wetland conditions for over 50 years and are currently regarded as one of the most useful methods

106 in this research area (FAO, 2020; Guo et al., 2017). Remote sensing technologies enable the remote and  
107 non-invasive acquisition of information about the research object using specialized sensors, typically  
108 mounted aboard satellites or aircraft. In this study, data obtained from a multisensor aerial platform were  
109 used to assess the extent of peatland, the identification of drainage ditches, and the current vegetation  
110 condition.

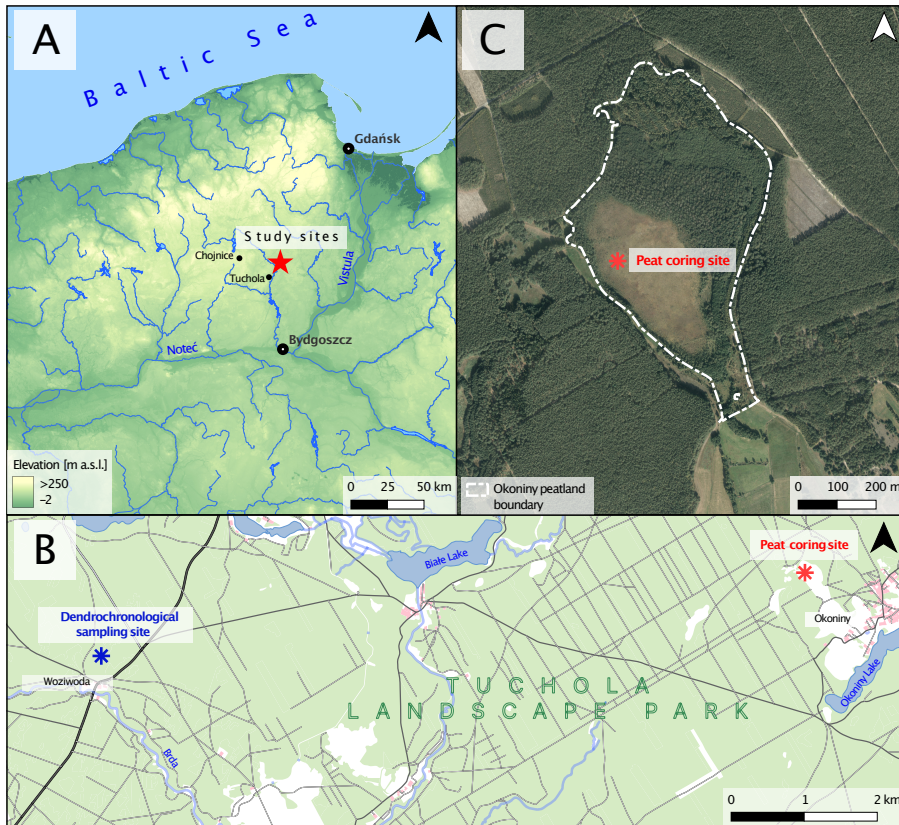
111 Our study aims to assess the impact of forest management (introduction of pine monoculture) and  
112 changing climate on the vegetation, as well as hydrological, and trophic conditions of a peatland in CE  
113 Europe by integrating various data sources - palaeoecology, dendrochronology, remote sensing, and  
114 historical information. We assumed that the introduction of pine monoculture led to changes in the species  
115 composition of peatlands in favor of *Sphagnum* mosses, as well as to the stabilization of the water table. We  
116 also undertook to confirm whether peatlands register and respond to extreme events, both *in situ* and in the  
117 immediate environment. We assumed that the disturbances that occurred in the monoculture forest would  
118 be recorded in the tree rings (annual growths) record of Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris* L.) and would confirm  
119 and complement the palaeoecological reconstruction of the peatland. Thus, we have identified peat layers  
120 corresponding to the occurrence of extremes known from historical sources and compared  
121 dendrochronological (dendroclimatic) data with them.

122

## 123 2. Materials and methods

### 124 2.1. Study site

125 The Okoniny (Jezierzba) peatland (53°40'52"–53°41'21"N 18°03'09"–18°03'40"E according to  
126 standard WGS 84) is located in northern Poland, about 60 km north of Bydgoszcz and about 20 km northeast  
127 of Tuchola (Fig. 1). The study area is located within the Tuchola Pinewoods mesoregion (Kondracki, 2001),  
128 close to the Pomeranian ice margin of the Vistulian Glaciation dated to ca. 17,000–16,000 cal. BP (Marks,  
129 2012). The entire area of the Tuchola Pinewoods is a young glacial landscape covered by glacial till, sand,  
130 and numerous depressions and other forms originating from melting dead ice (Błaszczewicz et al., 2015).  
131 Based on the analysis of remote sensing data, it was determined that the surface area of the peatland is 27.08  
132 hectares, with approximately 7.00 hectares designated as non-forested area. The direct catchment area of  
133 the peatland covers a surface of 33.23 hectares. The current elevation of the peatland is around 119 m asl,  
134 with the highest elevated area within the direct catchment reaching around 128 m asl. It is part of a protected  
135 area (Regulation No. 64/97, 1997), included within the boundaries of the Tuchola Landscape Park (created  
136 in 1985). Moreover, since 2008 the entire complex of the Tuchola Pinewoods has been included on the  
137 Natura 2000 list as a Special Protection Area. Since 2010, it has been listed as a UNESCO Biosphere  
138 Reserve (UNESCO, 2024).



139  
 140 Figure 1. Location of the study area. (A) Location on a map of north-western Poland. (B) Location of the  
 141 two study sites – dendrochronological sampling site and peat coring site. (C) Okoniny (Jezierzba) peatland  
 142 sampling site with current peatland boundaries.

143  
 144 The Okoniny (Jezierzba) peatland is located in a temperate latitude zone, with a transitional climate  
 145 influenced by continental air masses from eastern Europe and oceanic air masses from the Atlantic Ocean  
 146 (Beck et al., 2018). According to climate data obtained from the Institute of Meteorology and Water  
 147 Management for the meteorological station in Chojnice (35 km west of the study area) for the period  
 148 between 1991-2020, the coldest month is January with an average temperature of  $-1.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ , the warmest  
 149 month is July with an average temperature of  $18.0^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Between 1961-1990, both January and July were  
 150 cooler by  $1.6^{\circ}\text{C}$  compared to 1991-2020. The average annual temperature increased from  $6.9^{\circ}\text{C}$  in 1951-

151 1990 to 8.1 °C in 1991-2020. In terms of precipitation, February has the least amount with an average of  
 152 31.1 mm for the period 1991-2020, and July has the most with an average of 80.7 mm for the period 1991-  
 153 2020. Compared to 1951-1990, the average precipitation for February increased by 7.7 mm and for July  
 154 decreased by 4.1 mm. Mean annual rainfall increased from 558.1 mm for 1951-1990 to 612.4 mm for 1991-  
 155 2020.

156 Samples for dendroclimatic analysis were taken from forest division no. 91 in the Woziwoda  
 157 Forestry, Woziwoda Forest District, about 9.5 km west of the study site (Fig. 1). The oldest pine trees in the  
 158 forest district were selected for the study according to the indications of the forest survey and taxonomic  
 159 descriptions.

160

161 **2.2. Peat and tree core sampling**

162 A peat core was taken from the north-western part of the peatland in February 2022 using a Wardenaar  
 163 corer (chamber dimension: 10 cm × 10 cm × 100 cm) (Wardenaar, 1987). The entire length of the sampled  
 164 peat core – 96 cm-long monolith – was analyzed. The core was sampled continuously every 1 cm, except  
 165 for the top 10 cm, which contained a living *Sphagnum* layer. The first sample covered 4 cm of the surface  
 166 layer (0-4 cm), and the following three samples were taken every 2 cm (4-6, 6-8 and 8-10 cm). 90 samples  
 167 were obtained and analyzed for bulk density, ash content, peat and carbon accumulation rates, plant  
 168 macrofossils, testate amoebae, macroscopic and microscopic charcoal, and pollen.

169 The research tree stem material was taken in April 2023 from 23 living and healthy trees at the  
 170 Woziwoda site, ca. 9.5 km west of the Okoniny (Jeziarzba) peatland. From each tree, a minimum of two  
 171 cores were taken (from the east and west sides) at a breast height (1.3 m) with a Pressler increment corer. In  
 172 total, 50 cores were acquired from the Scots pine tree stems.

173

174 **2.3. Radiocarbon dating and chronology**

175 Ten samples containing *Sphagnum* stems and leaves were used for accelerator mass spectroscopy  
 176 (AMS) <sup>14</sup>C dating of the entire length of the profile. The survey was conducted at the Poznan Radiocarbon  
 177 Laboratory in Poland (laboratory code marked Poz; Tab. 1). The IntCal20 (Reimer et al., 2020) and  
 178 Bomb21NH1 (Hua et al., 2021) atmospheric curves were used to calibrate the dates.

179

180 Table 1. The list of radiocarbon dates from Okoniny (Jeziarzba) peatland with calibration in the OxCal  
 181 v4.4.4 software using the IntCal20 calibration curve for the atmospheric data and Bomb21NH1 curve for  
 182 bomb series.

No	Laboratory code – number sample	Depth (cm)	<sup>14</sup> C date ( <sup>14</sup> C BP)	Calibrated dates [cal. CE (2σ – 95.4%)	Dated material
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1	Poz-150386	10.5	100.86 ± 0.33 pMC	1952-1958 (33.9%) 2013-... (61.5%)	<i>Sphagnum</i> stems
2	Poz-150387	20.5	107.92 ± 0.34 pMC	1952-1958 (11.1%) 1996-2009 (84.4%)	<i>Sphagnum</i> stems
3	Poz-150388	30.5	132.8 ± 0.36 pMC	1958-1962 (20.8%) 1972-1984 (74.6%)	<i>Sphagnum</i> stems
4	Poz-150445	40.5	165 ± 30	1661-1706 (17.2%) 1720-1818 (44.0%) 1832-1892 (14.9%) 1906-... (19.5%)	<i>Sphagnum</i> stems
5	Poz-150446	50.5	85 ± 30	1688-1730 (26.1%) 1806-1924 (69.3%)	<i>Sphagnum</i> stems
6	Poz-150447	60.5	105 ± 30	1682-1736 (25.9%) 1802-1936 (69.5%)	<i>Sphagnum</i> stems
7	Poz-150449	70.5	135 ± 30	1674-1766 (32.8%) 1774-1776 (0.6%) 1798-1942 (62.0%)	<i>Sphagnum</i> stems
8	Poz-150450	80.5	165 ± 30	1661-1706 (17.2%) 1720-1818 (44.0%) 1832-1892 (14.9%) 1906-... (19.5%)	<i>Sphagnum</i> stems
9	Poz-150631	90.5	280 ± 30	1505-1596 (55.0%) 1616-1665 (37.8%) 1784-1794 (2.6%)	<i>Sphagnum</i> stems
10	Poz-150633	95.5	100 ± 30	1683-1735 (26.1%) 1802-1930 (69.3%)	<i>Sphagnum</i> stems

183  
184 The absolute chronology of the entire core was based on a Bayesian age-depth model using OxCal  
185 v4.4.4 (Bronk Ramsey, 2021). The *P\_Sequence* command with a parameter *k* of 0.1 cm<sup>-1</sup> was used to  
186 calculate the model, assuming  $\log_{10}(k/k_0) = 2$ , and interpolation = 1 cm. The most pronounced change in  
187 peat composition, as manifested by changes in pollen concentration, testate amoeba species composition  
188 and species composition of plant macrofossils, which may signal changes in peat accumulation rates, was  
189 input using the *Boundary* command at a depth of 66 cm. For better readability of the age-depth model, mean  
190 values ( $\mu$ ) were introduced and used to illustrate the modeled age.

191

#### 192 **2.4. Peat properties and carbon accumulation rate**

193 Analyses of bulk density, loss on ignition, and peat carbon accumulation rate (PCAR) were carried out  
194 for each of the ninety samples. Each sample's volume [cm<sup>3</sup>] was carefully measured beforehand using  
195 calipers to avoid compressing the material. Each sample was then placed in a separate crucible and dried to  
196 determine the percentage of water content. The weighed and dried samples were incinerated at 550 °C for  
197 12 hours and reweighed according to the protocol of Heiri et al. (2001) to determine the ash mass [g]. Bulk  
198 density [g/cm<sup>3</sup>] was obtained by dividing the dry sample mass by the volume of the fresh sample according  
199 to Chambers et al. (2010). Loss on ignition [g] was obtained by subtracting the ash mass from the dry sample  
200 mass. Accumulation rates obtained from the peat core chronologies were multiplied by measuring the bulk  
201 density without ash and by 50% to obtain the PCAR, following the protocol of Loisel et al. (2014). The top  
202 eleven centimeters of the core (0-11 cm) were discarded for PCAR assessment due to the unrepresentative  
203 nature of the results obtained, as increased values of carbon accumulation in near-surface peat cannot be  
204 used for inference (Young et al., 2019).

205

#### 206 **2.5. Plant macrofossil analysis**

207 The analysis of plant macrofossils was carried out using the modified protocol of Mauquoy et al., 2010.  
208 Each sample of approximately 5cm<sup>3</sup> was wet sieved (mesh diameter: 200 µm). The generalized content of  
209 the sample was estimated in percentage using a binocular microscope. Fruits, seeds, caryopses, achenes,  
210 perigynia, bud scales, catkin scales, whole preserved leaves, whole preserved needles, cones, anthers,  
211 sporangia, opercula, fungi sclerotia, and wood pieces were counted as total numbers in each sample. The  
212 tissues of monocotyledon species and moss leaves (brown and *Sphagnum* mosses) were identified on slides  
213 using a magnification of ×200 and ×400. The material was compared with the guides (Anderberg, 1994;  
214 Berggren, 1969; Bojňanský and Fargašová, 2007; Mauquoy and van Geel, 2007). The diagram for the  
215 analyzed proxy was plotted using the riojaPlot package for R (plant macrofossils) (Juggins, 2023).

216

#### 217 **2.6. Testate amoebae analysis**

218 Samples for testate amoeba analysis (volume: ca. 5cm<sup>3</sup>) were washed under 300 µm sieves following  
219 the method described by Booth et al. (2010). Testate amoebae were analyzed under a light microscope with  
220 ×200 and ×400 magnifications until the sum of 100 tests per sample was reached (Payne and Mitchell,  
221 2009). Several keys and taxonomic monographs (Clarke, 2003; Mazei and Tsyganov, 2006; Meisterfeld,  
222 2001; Ogden and Hedley, 1980) as well as online resources (Siemensma, 2023) were used to achieve the  
223 highest possible taxonomic resolution. The results of a testate amoebae analysis were used for the  
224 quantitative depth-to-water table (DWT) and pH reconstructions. Both the full diagram and the



225 reconstructions were performed in C2 software (Juggins, 2007) using the European training set (Amesbury  
226 et al., 2016).

227

## 228 **2.7. Pollen and non-pollen palynomorphs**

229 Samples for palynological analysis (volume: 2 cm<sup>3</sup>) were prepared using standard laboratory  
230 procedures (Berglund and Ralska-Jasiewiczowa, 1986). To remove the carbonates, samples were treated  
231 with 10% hydrochloric acid. This step was followed by digestion in hot 10% potassium hydroxide (to  
232 remove humic compounds) and soaking in 40% hydrofluoric acid for 24 h (to remove the mineral fraction).  
233 Next, acetolysis was carried out. Three *Lycopodium* tablets (Batch 280521291, containing 18407 spores per  
234 tablet; produced by Lund University) were added to each sample during the laboratory procedures for the  
235 calculation of microfossil concentration (Stockmarr, 1971). Pollen, spores, and selected non-pollen  
236 palynomorphs (NPPs) were counted under an upright microscope (Zeiss Axio SCOPE A1) until the number  
237 of total pollen sum (TPS) grains in each sample reached at least 500, apart from 23 samples in which pollen  
238 concentrations were very low. Sporomorphs were identified with the assistance of atlases, keys (Beug, 2004;  
239 Moore et al., 1991), various publications, and the image database in the case of NPPs, for which there are  
240 no atlases (Miola, 2012; Shumilovskikh et al., 2022; Shumilovskikh and van Geel, 2020). The results of the  
241 palynological analysis were expressed as percentages, calculations are based on the ratio of an individual  
242 taxon to the TPS, i.e., the sum of AP (arboreal pollen) and NAP (non-arboreal pollen), excluding aquatic  
243 and wetland plants (together with Cyperaceae and Ericaceae), cryptogams, and fungi. The diagram for the  
244 analyzed proxy was plotted using Tilia/Tilia graph software (pollen) (Grimm, 1992, 1991).

245

## 246 **2.8. Macro- and microcharcoal analysis**

247 Microscopic charcoal particles (size: > 10 µm) were counted from the same slides as pollen until the  
248 number of charcoal particles and *Lycopodium* spores counted together, exceeded 200 (Finsinger and Tinner,  
249 2005; Tinner and Hu, 2003). Microscopic charcoal influx or accumulation rates (MIC) were calculated by  
250 multiplying charcoal concentrations by peat accumulation rates (PAR) (Davis and Deevey, 1964; Tinner and  
251 Hu, 2003).

252 For macroscopic charcoal analysis, samples (volume: 2 cm<sup>3</sup>) were prepared by bleaching to create a  
253 more visible contrast between the charcoal and the remaining organic matter following the method described  
254 by Whitlock and Larsen (2001). Samples were sieved through a 500-µm mesh and only large charcoal  
255 fragments > 600 µm were analyzed to obtain a local fire signal (Adolf et al., 2018). Samples were analyzed  
256 with a binocular under 60× magnification. Macroscopic charcoal influx or accumulation rates (MAC,  
257 particles/cm<sup>2</sup>/year) were calculated using the charcoal concentrations and PAR.

258

259 **2.9. Tree core chronology construction**

260 Tree cores underwent a standardized dendrochronological procedure (Zielski and Krapiec, 2004).  
261 Polished cores were scanned between 1200 - 2400 DPI using an Epson Perfection V700 Photo scanner.  
262 Annual growth rings were measured on digital images with an accuracy of 0.01mm using CooRecorder.  
263 This facilitated the selection of individual growth sequences, which were utilized to form a chronology for  
264 each plot. Visual comparisons were made between individual sequences, and the significance of correlations  
265 was assessed using Student's t-test (Baillie and Pilcher, 1973). Subsequently, cross-dating was conducted  
266 using COFECHA software (Grissino-Mayer, 2001), which evaluates each data series concerning the  
267 reference chronology created and compares the correlation coefficients obtained. Raw chronologies were  
268 derived by employing an arithmetic mean. For climate-growth analysis standardized chronologies were  
269 used, obtained by fitting a spline function (i.e., the "n-year spline" was set at 2/3 of the wavelength of n  
270 years of single growth series) using the 'dplr' package (Bunn, 2008) package version 1.7.6 (2023) in the  
271 software R version 4.3.0 (R Core Team, 2022). By using this standardization method, random variation in  
272 the radial growth was removed (Cook et al., 1990). For the obtained chronologies i.e., raw (TRW) and  
273 standardized (RWI), values for the following descriptive statistics were computed: the mean correlation  
274 between series (inter-series correlation or Rbar), the GLK index (Gleichläufigkeit; Eckstein and Bauch,  
275 1969), and EPS (express population signal) (McCarroll and Loader, 2004).

276

277 **2.10. Dendroclimatological and pointer years analysis**

278 The 'chron' function from 'dplr' package allowed for the making of a residual chronology, which was  
279 used for climate-growth analysis. The 'dcc' function and its moving response (25-yrs window) function  
280 method were used to determine the effects of climate conditions on the growth of Scots pine using the  
281 'treeclim' package (Zang and Biondi, 2015) version 2.0.6.0 in R (R Core Team, 2022). This package allows  
282 the use of the bootstrap procedure to test the significance and stability of the coefficients of determination  
283 ( $r^2$ ) over a set period (Guiot, 1991). Monthly mean air temperature (TEMP) and total monthly precipitation  
284 (PREC) were used to analyze climate-growth for the period 1920-2022 (Klein Tank et al., 2002). Climate  
285 data were acquired via Climate Explorer (Trouet and van Oldenborgh, 2013) and calculated from the  
286 monthly gridded observational dataset E OBS v. 25.0e (Haylock et al., 2008) obtained for the 17.75-18.00°E  
287 and 53.50-53.75°N grid.

288 The Becker algorithm (Becker et al., 1994) was used to determine the pointer years in the Woziwoda  
289 chronology. Calculations were made using the 'dplr' package in R and the 'pointer' function (Bunn, 2008).  
290 Pointer years were calculated using adjustable thresholds of relative variation in radial growth set to a 10-  
291 year time window and the number of series exhibiting a similar incremental growth pattern. The main  
292 criterion for determining pointer years was the occurrence of unidirectional changes (i.e., a decrease or

293 increase in the number of annual rings) in a minimum of 85% of the tested sequences of annual increments  
294 observed in a group of trees at the Woziwoda site.

295

#### 296 **2.11. Acquisition and post-processing of remote sensing data**

297 The analysis of the current state of Okoniny ([Jezierzba](#)) peatland was conducted using airborne remote  
298 sensing data. The data were acquired through a multisensor aerial platform by the MGGP Aero company on  
299 March 25, 2022 (leaf-off collection) and July 20, 2022, one of the warmest days of the year, which was  
300 particularly important for acquiring thermal data (leaf-on collection). Multispectral images (acquired with  
301 the IXM-100 camera) and Airborne Laser Scanning data (ALS; acquired with the Riegl VQ780-II scanner)  
302 were obtained in the leaf-off season. Subsequently, during the vegetation season, the dataset was enhanced  
303 by acquiring hyperspectral data (collected using the HySpex VS-725 scanner) and thermal data (obtained  
304 with the InfraTEC 9400 camera). Based on the multispectral images, an orthophotomap was generated with  
305 a Ground Sampling Distance (GSD) of 10 cm. Hyperspectral data were used to create a mosaic consisting  
306 of 430 bands (in the range from 400 to 2500 nm), ALS data were applied for the development of a Digital  
307 Terrain Model (DTM), and thermal data were used to produce a land surface temperature (LST) mosaic.  
308 Thermal and hyperspectral mosaics and DTM were prepared with GSD = 1 m.

309 Photo interpretation was carried out to assess the extent of peatlands and the course of drainage ditches  
310 using orthophotos and DTM as a base map. DTM was also used to delineate the catchment area of the  
311 peatland. Hydrological modelling methods based on watershed analyses were employed for this purpose. A  
312 hyperspectral mosaic was used to calculate spectral indices such as the Normalized Difference Vegetation  
313 Index (NDVI; Rouse et al., 1974) and Moisture Stress Index (MSI; Hunt and Rock, 1989). Spectral indices  
314 are mathematical formulas that enable the simultaneous analysis of reflectance across multiple spectral  
315 ranges. The NDVI is a measure of healthy, green vegetation ranging from -1 to 1. Vegetation values  
316 typically range from 0.2 to 0.8, with higher values indicating healthier and denser vegetation. The MSI index  
317 is sensitive to increasing leaf water content. Its values range from 0 to more than 3, but the common values  
318 for vegetation are from 0.4 to 2. Higher values indicate greater water stress and less water content in this  
319 case. Thermal data was used for calculating Land Surface Temperature (LST), measured in degrees Celsius.

320

#### 321 **2.12. Historical and cartographic information**

322 Several historical cartographic studies were used to assess changes to the peatland and its surroundings.  
323 The oldest of the materials used is the Schrötter-Engelhardt map of 1803. Work on creating the map began  
324 in 1796 under the leadership of the Prussian government minister Friedrich Leopold von Schrötter (1743-  
325 1815) and topographer Friedrich Bernhard Engelhardt (1768-1854). The manuscript was produced at a scale  
326 of 1:50,000. Still, due to the concerns of the Prussian army command about the map being too detailed and

327 capable of being used by enemy armies, a generalized version was eventually published at a scale of  
328 1:150,000. A larger-scale version of the map was not available until the 1920s (Jäger, 1982, 1981). In this  
329 article, the generalized version of the map is interpreted.

330 The Prussian topographic map Messtischblatt of 1874 on a scale of 1:25 000, sheet No. 982, Zalesie  
331 section, was also analyzed. and the Detailed Map of Poland issued by the Military Geographical Institute in  
332 1933 at a scale of 1:25,000, PAN map sheet 34 - SLUP 26 - B (Linsk). In addition, a geological-agricultural  
333 map compiled between 1899 and 1900 on the topographic Messtischblatt of 1874 was considered. The  
334 Prussian Geological Survey produced the map (Königlich-Preußische Geologische Landesanstalt) and  
335 provides information on alluvial and diluvial deposits covering the area under study. The maps show the  
336 changes in the peat bog and its surroundings from the early 19th century to the 1930s. Aerial images from  
337 1964, 1984, and 1997 obtained from the Central Office of Geodesy and Cartography were also used for the  
338 same purpose (license no. DIO.7211.457.2023\_PL\_N).

339 Insect outbreak data are based on the literature (Orłowicz, 1924; Schütte, 1893; Wilson, 2012).

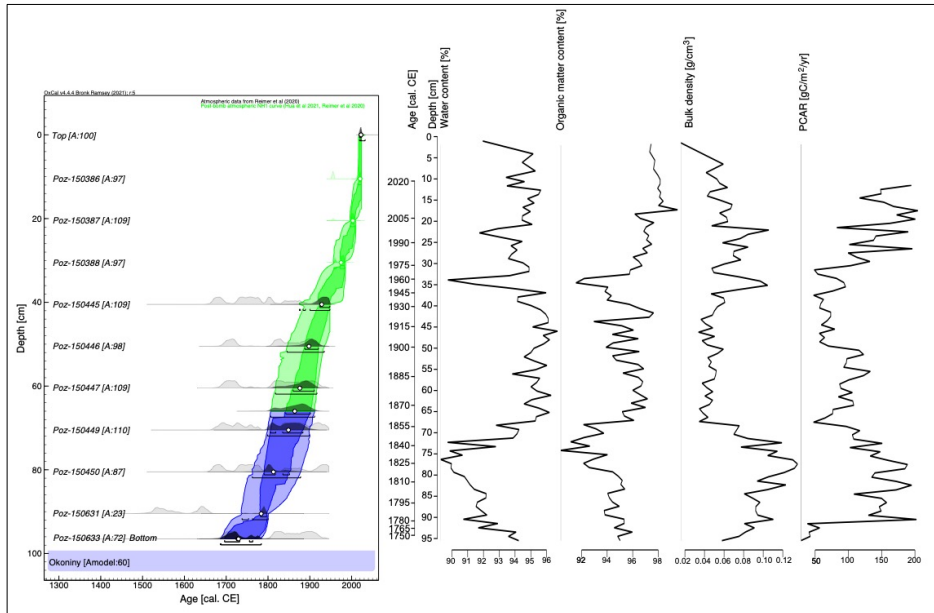
340

### 341 **3. Results and interpretation**

#### 342 **3.1. Age-depth model and peat accumulation rate**

343 The age-depth model showed a model agreement index ( $A_{\text{model}}$ ) of 60% (Fig. 2), precisely at the limit  
344 of the recommended minimum for its reliability (60% according to Bronk Ramsey, 2008). The model  
345 spanned the period of ca. 282 years, with a maximum uncertainty of ca. 30 years (mostly in the section of  
346 ca. 1883-1783 cal. CE). Most of the core consisted of well-preserved *Sphagnum* peat, while the lower part  
347 consisted of sedge peat. The peat accumulation rate averaged 3.6 mm/yr, with the highest values associated  
348 with the undecomposed acrotelm zone. The upper layers located between 0 and 11 cm were excluded from  
349 the analysis of peat accumulation rates. The fastest rate was 0.71 cm/yr (at 11.5 cm), and the slowest was  
350 0.1 cm/yr (at 91.5 cm). The mean BD value across the core was 0.07 g/cm<sup>3</sup>. It was highest in the lower part  
351 of the core with 0.10 g/cm<sup>3</sup> between 96 and 70 cm, and lowest in the middle part - 0.05 g/cm<sup>3</sup>, between 69  
352 and 30 cm. In the upper part between 29 and 0 cm, it was 0.06 g/cm<sup>3</sup>. Similarly, this upper, undecomposed  
353 layer was excluded from the peat carbon accumulation rate (PCAR) analysis. For the rest of the core (11-  
354 96 cm), PCAR averaged 112 gC/m<sup>2</sup>/yr. The mean water content of the wet sample was 93.8%, and the mean  
355 organic matter content of the dry sample was 95.5%.

356



357  
 358 Figure 2. <sup>14</sup>C age-depth model of the Okoniny (Jeziarzba) peat profile. Water content, organic matter content,  
 359 bulk density, and PCAR are also marked.

360

### 361 3.2. Palaeoecological analyses

#### 362 3.2.1. Phase 1 (~1726–1838, 96–74 cm): wet conditions and low human impact

363 The plant macrofossils and pollen analyses point to the presence of a shallow water body during this  
 364 time interval. Plant macrofossil analysis (Fig. 3) showed that the peatland vegetation in this phase was  
 365 strongly dominated by vascular vegetation, mainly monocotyledons with *Carex* spp. Shallow waters and  
 366 edges of the water body were overgrown by sedge communities (Cyperaceae pollen) (2.8-14.5%) (Fig. 5).  
 367 Additionally, this was indicated by the presence of macrophytes represented by pollen of *Potamogeton*  
 368 subgen. *Eupotamogeton* (0-0.9%), *Nymphaea* (0-0.4%), and *Utricularia* (0-0.3%) (Fig. 5). The high shares  
 369 of aquatic non-pollen palynomorphs (NPPs) such as cyanobacteria and the algae *Tetraëdron minimum*,  
 370 *Scenedesmus*, *Botryococcus*, and *Pediastrum* (Fig. 5) confirms results of plant macrofossil and pollen  
 371 analyses.

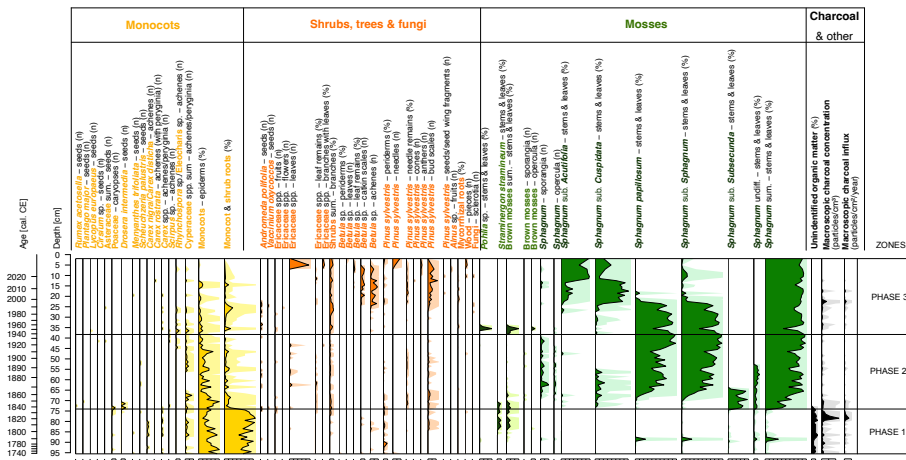
372 This phase was also characterized by the brown moss *Straminergon stramineum* (max. 9% of the  
 373 subsample content) (Fig. 3). This species occurs in a wide range of habitats (Hedenäs, 1993) but is most  
 374 common in wet, moderately acidic habitats (Blockeel, 2010). *Straminergon stramineum* is usually found as

375 scattered stems or small patches among other mosses but occasionally forms scattered mats, sometimes  
 376 partially submerged in water, next to lakes, on the edges of peat bogs or in lakeside marshes (Hill and  
 377 Blockeel, 2014).

378 This phase of peatland development was characterized by a very low concentration of testate amoebae  
 379 in the samples. *Centropyxis aculeata* was the most abundant species (Fig. 4). The dominance of plagiostomic  
 380 species from the genus *Centropyxis* may point to the presence of mineral input into the peatland  
 381 (Lamentowicz et al., 2009a; Marcisz et al., 2020a). The water level in the peatland was quite unstable and  
 382 fluctuated between 4.3 and 16.5 cm below the ground and the pH value ranged between 4.5 and 5.2, but due  
 383 to the low number of identified tests, these reconstructions should be viewed with caution (Fig. 4).

384 The surrounding vegetation was characterized by the dominance of forests, as evidenced by the high  
 385 proportion of arboreal pollen (AP) (83.6-91.1%) in total pollen content (TP) (Fig. 5). The main species  
 386 recorded were *Pinus sylvestris* (62.6-81.3% AP) and *Betula* (6.8-16.0% AP), with admixtures of *Alnus* (2.5-  
 387 7.7% AP), *Quercus* (1.8-8.1% AP), *Corylus avellana* (0.6-3.8% AP), *Carpinus betulus* (0-3.4% AP) and  
 388 *Fagus sylvatica* (0.4-3.3% AP). Values of Cerealia pollen sum (0-7.8% TP) with *Centaurea cyanus*, a crop  
 389 weed, indicated a stable presence of cultivated fields.

390



391  
 392 Figure 3. Diagram showing macrofossil percentages, macroscopic charcoal concentrations, and influx as a  
 393 local fires proxy. 10 times exaggeration is marked.

394  
 395 This phase also had the highest influx of macroscopic charcoal (MAC) of all three distinguished  
 396 phases (Fig. 3). Towards the end of the phase, at depths of 79.5 and 78.5 cm (1st half of the 1820s according



410 Figure 5. Pollen diagram with selected taxa presented (list of taxa presented in the associated open dataset).  
411 Pollen percentages are shown in black, and 10 times exaggeration is marked. Microscopic charcoal  
412 concentrations and influx as an extra-local fires proxy are also presented.

413

### 414 3.2.2. Phase 2: (~1838–1945, 74–37 cm): stabilization of water table and increase in acidity, a 415 transition from mixed forest to pine monoculture and agricultural development

416

417 The local vegetation (Fig. 3) in this phase was dominated by *Sphagnum*, first by the subgenus  
418 *Subsecunda*, then for most of this period by *Sphagnum papillosum*. *S. papillosum* occupies the more  
419 oligotrophic lawns with a preference for open space (Clymo and Hayward, 1982; Laine et al., 2018). Along  
420 with the appearance of *Sphagnum* from the subgenus *Subsecunda*, *Drosera intermedia* was also recorded.  
421 Currently, in Poland, it is a very rare species, found in dispersed peatlands (Mirek et al., 2006). Individuals  
422 often stand in the water even throughout the season. *Andromeda polifolia* also appeared in this phase.  
423 Initially, the presence of *Sphagnum* was accompanied by *Straminergon stramineum* (max. 10%), but later it  
424 disappeared completely. By the beginning of the twentieth century, a relatively high proportion of  
425 monocotyledonous plants was also observed, represented in the samples by their epidermis, averaging about  
426 20% in a sample, with a much higher proportion in the early stages. All these taxa indicate an intermediate  
427 environment between a shallow lake and a moss peatland.

428 After an initial decline (from 9.2 cm at 73.5 cm, 1838 cal. CE, to 13.0 cm at 66.5 cm, 1862 cal. CE),  
429 the water table level increased and stabilized at a high level, reaching a maximum of 6.8 cm at 47.5 cm,  
430 1907 cal. CE (Fig. 4). The abundance of individual testate amoeba species also increased. Initially, *C.*  
431 *aculeata* dominated, but later *Amphitrema wrightianum* and *Hyalosphenia papilo*, mixotrophic taxa that  
432 contain endosymbiotic photosynthetic algae, begin to prevail (Lamentowicz and Mitchell, 2005a; Marcisz  
433 et al., 2020a) (Fig. 4). Subsequently, the proportion of *A. wrightianum* and *H. papilo* began to decline in  
434 favour of *Archerella flavum* and *Hyalosphenia elegans* (Fig. 4). All four species are associated with the  
435 presence of *Sphagnum*, with *A. flavum* and *A. wrightianum* tolerating very wet or even submerged  
436 *Sphagnum* habitats, which corresponds to a stably high-water table. Then, from the mid-1880s for another  
437 ca. 20 years, *C. aculeata* again became dominant. After this period, species associated with *Sphagnum*–*A.*  
438 *wrightianum*, *A. flavum* and *Heleopera sphagni* – began to dominate again. During this phase, further  
439 acidification of the site was noted through a drop in the pH value from the initial 4.8 to 4.1 (Fig. 4).

440 The forests surrounding the peatland (55.1-92.7% TP) were still dominated by pine (64.5-92.8% AP),  
441 although their percentage has decreased in comparison to phase 1, especially during the 1920s and 1930s  
442 (Fig. 5). Deciduous taxa such as *Quercus*, *Corylus avellana*, *Carpinus betulus* and *Fagus sylvatica* retreated.  
443 The percentage of Cerealia in the TP increased significantly, from 0-7.8% TP in the first phase to 2.8-19.8%



444 in the second phase, with a peak in the late 1910s and early 1920s, indicating the development of agriculture  
445 in the vicinity of the peatland (Fig. 5). Around the same time, the proportion of *Rumex* also increases  
446 significantly (0-11.5%). The low values of MAC (Fig. 3) and MIC (Fig. 5) indicate a low fire activity in the  
447 studied area.

448

449 **3.2.3. Phase 3: (~1945–present, 37–0 cm): Lowering of the groundwater table, further afforestation**  
450 **with *Pinus sylvestris*, a succession of *Betula***

451

452 The local vegetation (Fig. 3) underwent several changes during this phase. Although *Sphagnum*  
453 dominated for the entire time, the subgenus *Sphagnum* receded in favour of first the subgenus *Cuspidata*  
454 and then the subgenus *Acutifolia*. The beginning of the phase was marked by *Pohlia nutans*, which can win  
455 the competition in unstable habitat conditions, such as during the dry season (Boulc'h et al., 2020). Its  
456 occurrence correlated with the presence of *Phryganella acropodia* among testate amoebae (Fig. 4), which  
457 is an indicator of low water levels in *Sphagnum* peatland (Diaconu et al., 2017; Lamentowicz and Mitchell,  
458 2005b).

459 This was followed by *Alabasta militaris* ( $\bar{x}$  = 25.5%), *Galeripora discooides* ( $\bar{x}$  = 10.5%) and *Nebela*  
460 *tincta* ( $\bar{x}$  = 8.2%) beginning to dominate (Fig. 4). *G. discooides* is typically present in acidic sites with  
461 unstable hydrological conditions (Lamentowicz and Mitchell, 2005b; Sullivan and Booth, 2011). *N. tincta*  
462 tolerates dry, highly acidic conditions with mineral matter supply (Booth, 2002; Koenig et al., 2018;  
463 Lamentowicz et al., 2011). *A. militaris*, dominant in recent years, is indicative of dry and markedly acidic  
464 conditions (Amesbury et al., 2016; Booth, 2002; Lamentowicz et al., 2011; Marcisz et al., 2020a; Sullivan  
465 and Booth, 2011). Based on testate amoebae, this phase was distinguished by a significant drop in the  
466 groundwater table, from an average level of 9.6 cm below the ground surface in the second phase to 15.7  
467 cm. In the last decade, the most significant decline was observed, with an average level of 21.9 cm, with a  
468 maximum of 27.5 cm, 1983 cal. CE. The pH continued to decrease – from 4.4 to 4.0 (Fig. 4).

469 On a regional scale, there is an increase in the relative abundance of *Pinus* pollen in the TP, from about  
470 46% at the beginning of the phase to about 85% today as an effect of afforestation (Fig. 5). *Betula* pollen  
471 share has an apparent increase, from 0,7-11,3% in the second phase to 5,6-32,5%. The increased percentage  
472 of *Betula* pollen, combined with macroscopic remains in the form of achenes and catkin scales, indicates  
473 the intensive succession of this species on the peatland surface. The ruderal species *Urtica* and *Artemisia*  
474 were also more strongly manifested. The average proportion of *Urtica* pollen in the TPS increased distinctly  
475 (from 0-0.7% to 0-2.9%). The percentage of Cerealia in TP has decreased significantly, from nearly 20% in  
476 the early 1920s to just over 1% today.

477 Local (Fig. 3) and regional (Fig. 5) fire activity continued to be low, although two slightly more  
478 intensive periods of regional fires were marked – ca. 1945-1963 and the early 2020s.

479

### 480 3.3. Dendrochronological and pointer years analysis

481 A total of 50 tree-ring series of 23 *Pinus sylvestris* L. trees from the Woziwoda site were successfully  
482 cross-dated. Based upon the TRW (Fig. 6) and RWI sites, well-synchronised tree-ring series spanning 222  
483 years (1801-2022) was developed. The statistical characteristics of the ring-width series and the statistical  
484 parameters indicating the signal strength of the regional RWI chronology are shown in Tab. 2. The mean  
485 EPS was 0.93, which is well above the threshold value (EPS = 0.85) required to produce a statistically robust  
486 RWI chronology. Mean series inter-correlation, MS, SNR, and other statistical parameters indicating the  
487 strength of chronology signals were also high, indicating the suitability of chronology for climate-growth  
488 analysis.

489 Tab. 2 Descriptive statistics of standardized *Pinus sylvestris* L. (RWI) chronology for Woziwoda site

Chronology length	1801-2022
Mean tree age [yrs]	197
Number of tree/cores	23/50
Mean ring width (mm) ± SD	1.256 ± 0.702
Series intercorrelation	0.623
Average mean sensitivity	0.265
Expressed Population Signal (EPS)	0.93
Signal-to-noise ratio (SNR)	12.97
Rbar.eff (effective chronology signal)	0.361

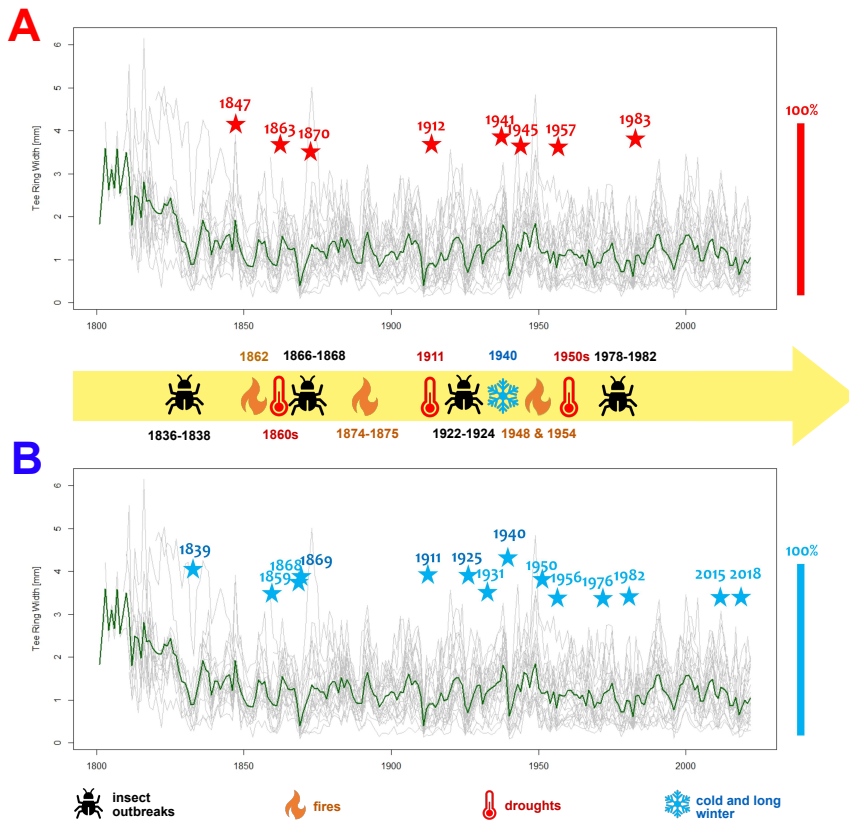
490

491 Across the study period (1920-2022) a significant positive relationship between growth and  
492 February mean temperature was identified (Fig. 7). The moving correlation analysis showed an increasing  
493 trend in the sensitivity of tree growth to climatic factors (Fig. 8). The positive response of tree growth to  
494 February mean temperature remained constant throughout the study period (1920-2022) (Fig. 8). However,  
495 the sensitivity of tree growth to summer temperature increased. The relationship between annual growth and  
496 summer temperature was not stable during the period 1920-2022. Nevertheless, in the last 30 years, a  
497 significant negative relationship between annual growth and June mean temperature was observed.

498 Climate-growth analysis for monthly data did not show a statistically significant relationship  
499 between growth and precipitation (Fig. 7). However, moving response analysis revealed significant short-  
500 term relationships between tree growth and precipitation. Furthermore, it was demonstrated that the  
501 influence of precipitation in the current year's months on tree growth calculated for the years 1960-2022

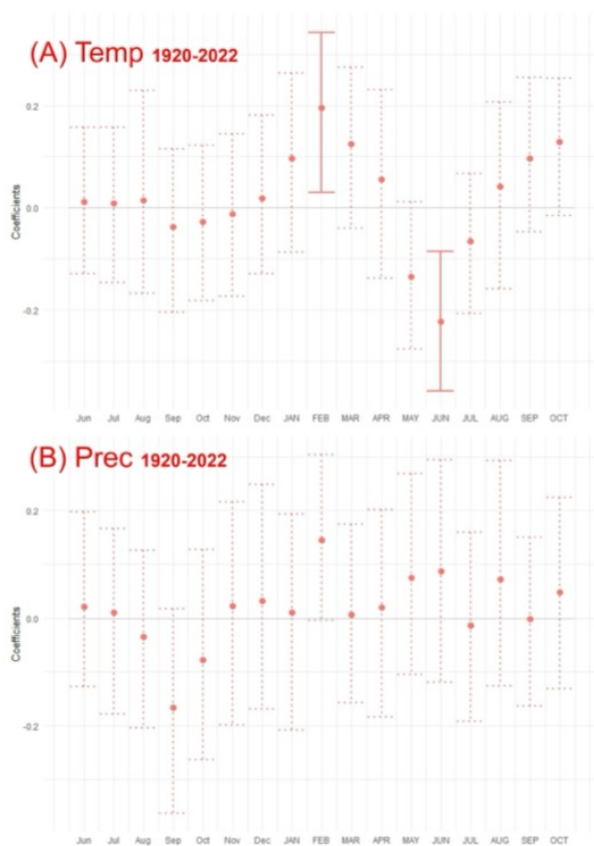
502 was more significant than the relationships calculated for the years 1921-1959. In recent years, a particularly  
 503 positive relationship between tree growth and early-year (February-April) precipitation as well as June  
 504 precipitation has become apparent.

505 For Woziwoda site 8 positive and 13 negative pointer years were identified for the period 1814-  
 506 2022 (with a minimum sample depth of 10 trees) (Fig. 6). The most pronounced positive pointer years with  
 507 more than 90% tree response were as follows: 1847, 1863, 1912, 1941, 1945, 1957, and 1983. The most  
 508 pronounced negative pointer years were: 1839, 1868, 1869, 1911, 1925, 1940, and 1950. Figure 6 provides  
 509 marks of pointer years together with meteorological and ecological characteristics.



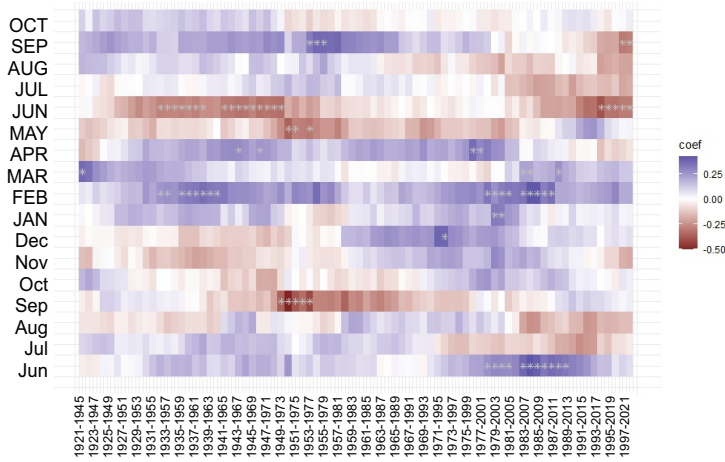
510  
 511 Figure 6. The grey lines depict the individual tree ring series of each tree, while the green line represents  
 512 the average raw chronology of *Pinus sylvestris* L. at the Woziwoda site. Identified within the Scots pine

513 chronology from Woziwoda are pointer years, categorized as negative (NEG) (A) and positive (POS) (B).  
514 These pointer years are highlighted with colored asterisks: red for positive pointer years and blue for  
515 negative pointer years. The position of the asterisks refers to a scale of 0-100%. Information on extreme  
516 phenomena is based on Orłowicz, 1924; Schütte, 1893, Broda 2000, Wilson 2012.

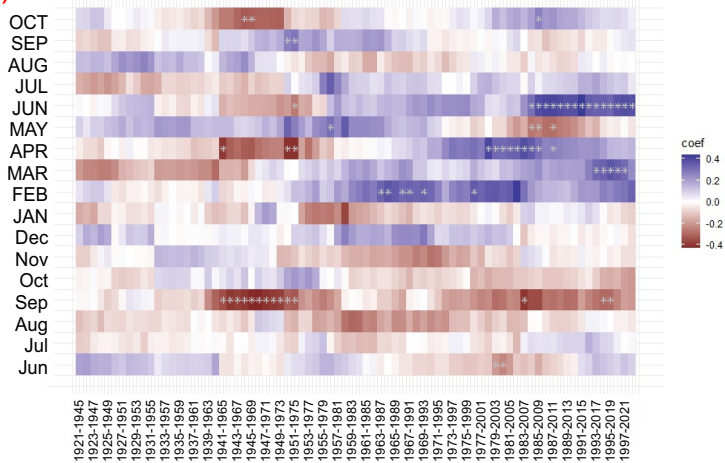


517  
518 Figure 7. Response function coefficients between residual *Pinus sylvestris* L. chronology and climate  
519 variables: (A) mean air temperature (Temp), and (B) precipitation (Prec) for the period 1920–2022. Names  
520 of the previous year’s months start with a lowercase letter. Solid lines represent significant coefficients at  $p$   
521  $< 0.05$ .

(A) Temp



(B) Prec

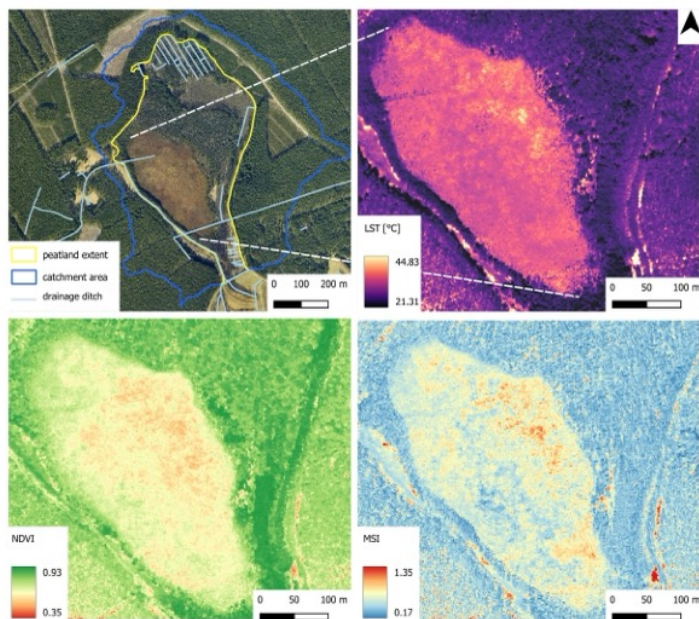


522  
523 Figure 8. Moving response correlations (25-year window) between residual *Pinus sylvestris* L. chronology  
524 and climate variables: (A) mean air temperature (Temp), and (B) precipitation (Prec) for the period 1920–  
525 2022. The color code represents the response function coefficients. Significant correlations are indicated by  
526 white asterisks.

527

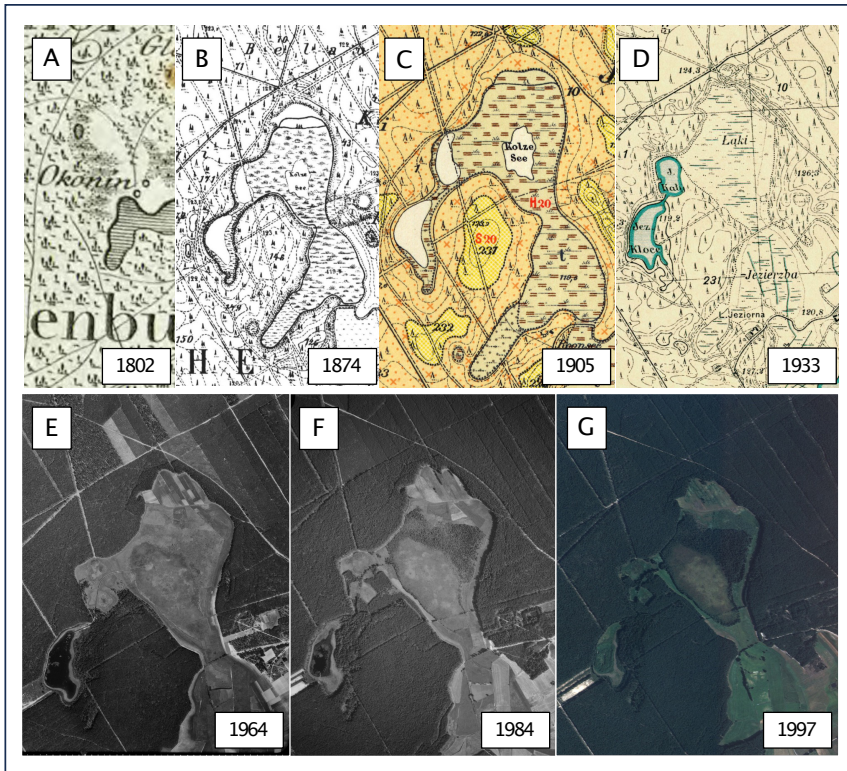
528 **3.4. The current state of the peatland based on remote sensing data analysis**

529 Presently, the non-forested part of the peatland is drained by two parallel ditches. One is located in  
530 the northern, and the other is in the southern non-forested part of the peatland. The analysis of thermal data  
531 obtained on a midsummer day indicates that the average LST for the non-forested part of the peatland is  
532 approximately 34.29 °C, with a temperature range extending from 19.22 °C to 46.37 °C. There is a distinct  
533 internal variability in LST values within the studied area. Higher values, indicative of more significant  
534 dehydration, were identified in the eastern part of the peatland, while lower values were observed in the  
535 western part. A repeating spatial pattern of values was observed in the analysis of vegetation indices (NDVI  
536 and MSI). High NDVI values and low MSI values, indicative of good vegetation condition and low water  
537 stress, were observed in the western and southwestern parts of the peatland (Fig. 9). The average NDVI  
538 value in these areas is 0.71, and MSI is 0.6. Conversely, low NDVI values and high MSI values, indicative  
539 of significant dehydration of the peatland and low vegetation vigor, were observed in the eastern part of the  
540 object (Fig. 9), where NDVI averages 0.63, and MSI is around 0.69. The overall average NDVI for the  
541 object was 0.65, and for MSI, it was 0.68.



542  
543 Figure 9. Remote sensing characteristics of Okoniny (Jezierzba) peatland based on multisensorial airborne  
544 data acquired in 2022.

545



547  
 548 Figure 10. Changes in the peatland and its surroundings since the beginning of the 19th century based on  
 549 historical maps and airborne images. (A) Schrötter-Engelhardt map 1:150 000 (1802), (B) Messtischblatt map  
 550 no. 982 1:25 000 (1874), (C) Prussian geological and agricultural map no. 2374 1:25 000 (1905), (D)  
 551 Detailed Map of Poland 1:25 000 (1933), (E) Aerial photograph from 1964, (F) Aerial photograph from  
 552 1984, (G) Aerial photograph from 1997. Maps no. A, B, C, and D are in the public domain. Aerial  
 553 photographs were obtained from © Central Office of Geodesy and Cartography in Poland, license no.  
 554 DIO.7211.457.2023\_PL\_N.

555  
 556 Analysis of historical materials (Fig. 10), including maps and airborne images, confirms the results  
 557 of the palaeoecological analysis. Both the Schrötter-Engelhardt map of 1802 and the Messtischblatt of 1874  
 558 indicate the existence of a small lake in the coring area. Again, however, it should be noted that the Schrötter-  
 559 Engelhardt map is a highly generalized study and does not give much information about the surroundings

560 of today's peatland, other than that we are dealing with an area with the character of a dense forest complex  
561 with wetlands in isolated places. Messtischblatt allows us to better interpret the surroundings of the analyzed  
562 modern peatland at the time in which the map was prepared. A small lake named "Kolze See" is observed  
563 in an advanced stage of development, i.e., progressive overgrowth. This lake is located in the surroundings  
564 of wetlands (Bruch in German) somewhat distant heathland (Heide in German) and wasteland (Ödland in  
565 German) (the original nomenclature of the map legend was adopted). This lake and two other lakes close  
566 by are enclosed within a single catchment area. To the south, the area of the current peatland was adjacent  
567 to an open, extensive meadow.

568 Even more information is provided by a 1905 geological-agricultural map prepared on the  
569 topographic base Messtischblatt map of 1874. In addition to land use, it shows the type and thickness of  
570 alluvial and diluvial deposits. According to this map, the area around the lake was covered by alluvial  
571 sediments – humus with peat subsoil and shallow groundwater (org. in German: Humus (Peat) mit Torf-  
572 Untergrund und nahem Grundwasser). The thickness of the peat was marked at two meters. However, it  
573 should be noted that drilling surveys at that time only covered a maximum depth of two meters, so the maps  
574 do not provide information on the total thickness of the sediments (Jasnowski, 1962). Places that were used  
575 as heathland and wasteland on the topographic map are covered by sandy humus on a sandy substrate with  
576 shallow groundwater (org. in German: Sandiger Humus mit Sand-Untergrund und nahem Grundwasser) and  
577 by humic sands on a substrate of permeable sands with shallow groundwater (org. in German: Humoser  
578 Sand mit durchlässigen Sand-Untergrund und nahem Grundwasser).

579 A Detailed Map of Poland from 1933 documents the change in an ecosystem from lake to land. The  
580 area, which on Prussian topographic maps was a lake with a surrounding bog, is described as a meadow on  
581 this map. Moreover, the meadows adjacent to the south were marked with drainage ditches, which were not  
582 on the Prussian maps. The area's surroundings, as before, were dominated by coniferous forests.

583 Aerial photos document subsequent changes in the ecosystem. The 1964 photo shows the northern part  
584 of today's peatland's agricultural use (regular surface layout). Lake Kały, located nearby, became completely  
585 overgrown, and its area was later dug by a drainage ditch, brought to the studied peat bog. The surrounding  
586 area of the peatland is dominated by dense forest with occasional open clear-cutting areas. A photo from  
587 1984 documents the succession of trees in the north-central part of the peatland. In the surrounding area,  
588 open forest areas have entirely disappeared. A photo from 1997 clearly shows the development of trees on  
589 the peatland, which have formed a dense block in its north-central part. A distinct area of *Sphagnum*-  
590 dominated peatland with a well-marked edge has also emerged. Currently, the northernmost part of the  
591 peatland is overgrown by pine; it is almost impossible to identify the maximum extent of the peatland surface  
592 in the field (Fig. 1).

593



594 **4. Discussion**

595 **4.1. Exceptionally high peat accumulation rate**

596 In the Okoniny (Jezierzba) peatland, a rapid rate of peat accumulation is observed, averaging 3.56  
597 mm/yr, with a maximum value of 7.1 mm/yr at a depth between 11 and 12 cm. This accumulation rate is not  
598 commonly observed. There are only several few peatlands in Poland for which higher accumulation rates  
599 were reported. In the Tuchola Pinewoods, these were Dury – 10 mm/yr (Pawlyta and Lamentowicz, 2010),  
600 Mukrza – 4.6 mm/yr (Lamentowicz and Obremska, 2010), Jelenia Wyspa mire where the accumulation rates  
601 reached 0.4 mm/yr for the first 3000 years but accelerated to 3 mm/yr in the last 150 years (Lamentowicz  
602 et al., 2007), and the Tuchola kettle-hole bog – 1.2 mm and after ca. 1320 cal. yr BP the accumulation rate  
603 dropped to 0.4 mm/yr (Lamentowicz et al., 2008b). In other pine monocultures, such as the Noteć Forest,  
604 the Rzecin peatland stands out for its high accumulation rate – an average of 6.8 mm/yr in one profile and  
605 7.5 mm/yr in the other one (Milecka et al., 2017). Peatlands in Tuchola Pinewoods, including Okoniny  
606 (Jezierzba) peatland, generally have a faster accumulation rate than peatlands located in other parts of  
607 Pomerania, especially small kettle-hole peatlands that accumulate carbon the fastest of all peatland types  
608 (Karpińska-Kolaczek et al., 2024). In Pomeranian peatlands, the highest accumulation rates were reported  
609 for the period between ca. 150-1230 AD and reached 2.2 mm/yr in Stążki (Lamentowicz et al., 2008a), and  
610 1.38 mm between 1830 and 2006, although the highest accumulation rate was 5 mm/yr (during AD 840-  
611 860) in Słowińskie Błota raised bog (Lamentowicz et al., 2009b). At the Gołębiewo sites the maximum  
612 accumulation rates were 1.85 mm/yr and 0.36 mm/yr (Pędziszewska and Latałowa, 2016). For many  
613 *Sphagnum*-dominated peatlands in other parts of Poland, the average PAR varied between 1.4-2.5 mm/yr  
614 (Gałka et al., 2015; Lamentowicz et al., 2020; M. Lamentowicz et al., 2015; Marcisz et al., 2020b). Such  
615 high accumulation rate values are also rare in other parts of the temperate climate zone of Europe. Teici bog  
616 (Latvia) showed similar accumulation rates - 3.5 mm/yr - from 1835 to 1965 AD and 10 mm/yr after 2000  
617 (Stivriņš et al., 2018). Okoniny (Jezierzba) peatland after 2000 (between 21.5 and 11.5 cm) recorded an  
618 accumulation of 5.7 mm/yr. Saxnäs mosse in Sweden showed an almost linear peat accumulation rate of 2-  
619 2.5 mm/yr (van der Linden et al., 2014). The maximum accumulation was recorded at around 2310-2250  
620 cal on the Estonian Hara bog. BP (31-15 cm) reaching 2.4 mm/yr (Łuców et al., 2022). A comparison with  
621 other regions of Poland and Europe shows that the exceptionally high accumulation rates at the analyzed  
622 site are worth highlighting.

623

624 **4.2. Relationships between forest management and pollen analysis**

625 **4.2.1. The complex history of the Tuchola Pinewoods and its influence on the forest**

626 The results of pollen analysis of the collected core enabled us to illustrate how the forest was managed  
627 over the past 300 years. Due to political changes and several administrative decisions, the management

Z komentarzem [MB2]: The linguistic correction as the reviewer suggested

Z komentarzem [MB3]: The linguistic correction as the reviewer suggested.

628 strategies of the Tuchola Pinewoods underwent vital changes. The consequences of the implementation of  
629 forest management techniques were visible in the palaeoecological record.

630 With the first partition of Poland in 1772 by Prussia, regulations for planned forest management began  
631 to be introduced. The main planting species was Scots pine, which over time began to dominate the forest,  
632 replacing deciduous admixture species (Broda, 1993). The region's forest cover and forest composition were  
633 also affected by later political and administrative developments. For more information on the history of  
634 forest management in the late 18th and early 19th centuries, see Supplementary File 1.

635 Our data confirm an increase in the proportion of pine pollen in the forest composition and a decrease  
636 in the proportion of pollen of other species. From the 1730s to the mid-1860s, the share of pine pollen in  
637 the pollen of all trees increased from about 60% to about 90%. Our pollen diagram shows the rapid increase  
638 in *Pinus sylvestris* pollen percentage after 1850. It can, therefore, be assumed that this resulted from *Pinus*  
639 *sylvestris* introduced by mass monoculture plantings in the early 1830s reaching reproductive capacity. Pine  
640 usually reaches sexual maturity between 10 and 15 years (Sullivan, 1993), although the threshold age has  
641 been set at 25 years (Matthias and Giesecke, 2014). The decline in the share of deciduous species and the  
642 increase in the share of Scots pine in the landscape began in Poland with the formation of the state. However,  
643 at that time, it was associated with the expansion of agriculture and the harvesting of preferred species such  
644 as *Carpinus betulus* (Czerwiński et al., 2021) Nevertheless, in the Prussian partition, planned forest  
645 management permanently changed the composition of Polish Poland's largest forest complexes, which were  
646 dominated by easy-to-grow pine (Broda, 1993) (see Supplementary File 1). A dynamic increase in the share  
647 of pine pollen until the 1860s in the Tuchola Pinewoods was also recorded at the Czechowskie Lake  
648 (Słowiński et al., 2019). An increase in pine pollen percentage since the 19th century was also shown in  
649 pollen diagrams of other sites from Pomerania – Stażki (Lamentowicz et al., 2008a), Słowińskie Błota  
650 (Lamentowicz et al., 2009b) – and in other monoculture plantation complexes from the Prussian partitioning  
651 area – Rzecin peatland in the Noteć Forest (Milecka et al., 2017).

652 Although attempts were undertaken to correct earlier mistakes, this did not stop the massive  
653 deforestation (among other consequences of war events and administrative regulations on settlement, more  
654 in Supplementary File 1). Until the 1870s, the feudal system was still mixed with capitalist components, but  
655 from the 1870s onward, under monopoly capitalism, timber trade and processing began to reach a significant  
656 size (Broda, 2000). However, it has been noted that forests regulate air temperature, store water in the soil  
657 more efficiently, and reduce wind speed, preventing soil erosion, which can help local agriculture face  
658 difficult environmental conditions (Wilson, 2012). For this reason, as early as the 1870s, the state  
659 administration encouraged landowners to protect forest stands on their lands and establish forestry  
660 cooperatives. The government also guaranteed funds for the reforestation of private and municipal lands. In  
661 the mid-1870s, the Landtag set aside a budget for the purchase and reforestation of wasteland by the state.

Z komentarzem [MB4]: Added reference

Z komentarzem [MB5]: Linguistic correction as the reviewer as suggested.

662 However, these funds were used to a small extent, although this somewhat reduced the share of forested  
663 private property (Broda, 2000; Wilson, 2012). In 1886, the Royal Settlement Commission (in German:  
664 Königliche Ansiedlungskommission) was established to buy up the estates of impoverished Polish nobility  
665 to acquire agricultural land for German settlers (Wilson, 2012).

666 At the end of the 19th century, Tuchola Pinewoods became the largest timber production hub in the  
667 Prussian partition. The Bydgoszcz timber industry region also played a major role in wood processing. The  
668 first steam sawmill in the Bydgoszcz region was built in 1873, and by 1913, there were 20 of them,  
669 processing some 500,000 m<sup>3</sup> of wood and employing more than 1,600 people (Broda, 2000). All this resulted  
670 in a significant decline in the share of tree pollen in the total pollen share in our diagram, to less than 60%  
671 by the late 1920s and early 1930s. At the same time, we have seen intensive agricultural development. At  
672 Okoniny (Jezierzba), the proportion of Cerealia pollen doubled between ca. 1900 and 1920. This trend is  
673 also confirmed by pollen data from the site in Okoniny Nadjeziorne, on the other side of Okonińskie Lake  
674 (Tipton, 2023), as well as from Czechowskie Lake, about 25 km northeast of our site (Słowiński et al.,  
675 2019). Despite intensive deforestation in general, further afforestation with pine was also progressing. In  
676 1893, pine forests accounted for 99% of all forests in Tuchola County (Szwankowski, 2005). Intense  
677 changes in forest management (pine dominance) and agricultural development (high percentage of Cerealia  
678 pollen) in the 19<sup>th</sup> century are also evident in records of profiles outside large, dense forest complexes –  
679 Kusowskie Bagno (Gałka et al., 2014), Linje mire (Marcisz et al., 2015).

680

#### 681 4.2.2. Impact of forest management on peatland vegetation

682 As a result of changes related to forest management, the lake-to-peatland transition occurred rapidly.  
683 We assume that this was primarily the result of drainage, which was undertaken in the area at the end of the  
684 19<sup>th</sup> century (see drainage ditches on the southern side and a dike in the middle part of the site on maps in  
685 Figure 6), and secondly, to a lesser extent, the transition from mixed forests to pine monoculture. These  
686 activities contributed to an increase in the acidity of the peatland. Forest drainage is often associated with  
687 the acidification of surface waters (Miller et al., 1990). The introduction of forest drainage, on or near  
688 peatlands, to improve tree growth has been quite common in northern and northeastern Europe (Westman  
689 and Laiho, 2003). The oxidation of organic sediments and the detachment of H<sup>+</sup> ions increase acidity  
690 (Ulrich, 1980). In addition, the supply of alkaline cations to the peat is impeded by drainage ditches  
691 (Minkkinen et al., 2008). However, the long-term consequences of drainage are devastating to peatlands, as  
692 they initiate vegetation succession, in which species typical of peatlands are replaced by forest vegetation  
693 (Laine et al., 1995). In the example of our palaeoecological data, the dynamic succession of pine and birch  
694 in the Okoniny (Jezierzba) peatland is evident, which is also supported by aerial imaging. As already  
695 mentioned, the successive decline in pH is also the result of the impact of pine plantations growing in

Z komentarzem [MB6]: The linguistic correction as the reviewer suggested.

696 catchments. A drop in pH in Okoniny (Jezierzba) has likely enabled the rapid growth and expansion of  
697 *Sphagnum* and the peatland initiation. The crowns of forests, especially the needles, can increase the uptake  
698 of atmospheric pollutants such as sulfur and nitrogen components, contributing to the acidification of surface  
699 waters (Nisbet, 2001; Reynolds et al., 1994). Conifers also can capture ions of marine origin - Na and Mg  
700 cations. These, in turn, displace hydrogen and aluminium cations from the soil, leading to acid runoff from  
701 the forests along with surface runoff, which is known as the "sea-salt effect" (Drinan et al., 2013; Harriman  
702 et al., 2003; Reynolds et al., 1994). We observed the presence of *Pinus* needles at the beginning of phase 2  
703 (from 1838 cal. CE), at the transition from pond to peatland ecosystem. Moreover, *Pinus* stomata were also  
704 present in palynological samples at that time, pointing to more frequent needle falls. **The presence of *Pinus*  
705 stomata has been suggested as a possibly important proxy for insect outbreaks in palaeoecological records  
706 in previously published studies from another Pine monoculture forest in Poland, the Noteć Forest (Barabach,  
707 2015), where this phenomenon has been observed (Słowiński et al., 2019).** More pine trees in the Tuchola  
708 Pinewoods resulted in much higher amounts of needles and other pine fragments accumulating on the forest  
709 ground, leading to soil acidification. This, together with drier conditions, could quickly lead to acidification  
710 around the pond, forming perfect conditions for *Sphagnum* to encroach – first as a floating mat that  
711 successively overgrew the pond. We sampled the peat core close to the edge of the peatland, thus in the  
712 place where moss encroachment on the open water body began; therefore, we were able to track this  
713 succession in our record. This succession and disappearance of Lake Kolze are also clearly visible in  
714 historical maps (Figure 10). Other examples of quick encroachment of floating mats on the surface of the  
715 lake have been observed and mapped in other open water bodies in the Tuchola Pinewoods (Kowalewski,  
716 2003; Kowalewski and Milecka, 2003) and other regions (Warner, 1993).

717

#### 718 4.3. Anomalies and extreme events

##### 719 4.3.1. The impact of droughts and fires on the forest and peatland

720 Historical sources indicate that in the 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> centuries, the Tuchola Pinewoods were relatively  
721 often affected by droughts resulting in fires (Wilson, 2012). In 1781, there was a fire in Tuchola (ca. 16 km  
722 SW), during which a large part of the city with the church and town hall burned down, and in 1792, Starogard  
723 Gdański (ca. 42 km NE) burned almost to the ground (Orłowicz, 1924). Major fires also occurred in 1794,  
724 and 1807, when more than 34,000 hectares of forest burned (Orłowicz, 1924; Schütte, 1893). Fires in 1809,  
725 1810, 1812, 1813 and 1828 in the Świt forest district about 15 km from the study site were also recorded  
726 (Cyzman, 2008). Palaeoecological data, especially MIC, confirm high fire activity in the first decades of the  
727 19<sup>th</sup> century (a rapid increase). Słowiński et al. (2019) emphasized that data on fires before the 1830s,  
728 especially regarding their area, should be treated with caution due to the lack of accurate measurement  
729 techniques. In the Woziwoda Forest District, within which the Okoniny (Jezierzba) peatland is located, the

Z komentarzem [MB7]: Added references as the reviewer suggested.

730 forests of the Biała and Barłogi forest districts also burned in 1842 (Cyzman, 2008). Intense fires also  
731 appeared in the Tuchola Pinewoods between 1846 and 1848 (Orłowicz, 1924; Schütte, 1893).

732 Later, numerous fires were also reported in the Woziwoda Forest District. Between 1860 and 1889,  
733 310 fires were observed, destroying 4206 hectares of the forest (Orłowicz, 1924; Schütte, 1893). The highest  
734 number of fires in this period was registered in 1862-1864 and 1874-1875 when 3565 hectares of forest  
735 burned; altogether, nearly 85% of the area burned in 1860-1889 (Schütte, 1893). The largest area burned in  
736 1863 equaled 2333 hectares, including more than 1250 hectares in the Woziwoda forest district; altogether,  
737 25% of all the forest burned in 1860-1889 (Orłowicz, 1924; Schütte, 1893). Meteorological data confirm  
738 dry years in the period from 1862 to 1865. In 1862 and 1863, the annual precipitation in Bydgoszcz was  
739 only a little over 450 mm (Kirschenstein, 2005), and it was then that the largest number of hectares of forest  
740 in the known history of the Tuchola Forest burned (Dietze et al., 2019).

741 The number of fires can also be linked to political events (Orłowicz, 1924; Schütte, 1893; Wilson,  
742 2012). In 1901, in the nearby Trzebciny and Gołabek Forest Districts, a fire consumed 663 hectares of forest  
743 (there was a parallel children's strike in Września Province) (Orłowicz, 1924; Wilson, 2012). Fires could  
744 also be caused by agricultural activities and land preparation for crops (Poraj-Górska et al., 2017). By the  
745 1830s, charcoal production was widespread (McGrath et al., 2015), and forest burning was used to create  
746 heathlands for beekeeping (Bienias, 2009).

747 Fires of the 1860s provide a regional signal at another site in the Tuchola Pinewoods – Czechowskie  
748 Lake (Dietze et al., 2019). Increased fire activity in the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century was also observed at the Lake  
749 Jaczno site (Poraj-Górska et al., 2017). At the Okoniny (Jezierzba) peatland, MIC and MAC values  
750 decreased after 1850, but at the same time, the water level stabilized and remained high. Fire activity  
751 remained low in areas where wet conditions prevailed, such as southern Finland (Väliranta et al., 2007) and  
752 eastern Estonia (Sillasoo et al., 2011).

753 In 1948, about 450 hectares of forest were burned near Osieczna, and in 1954, 80 hectares were burned  
754 near Ocypel (Cherek, 2007). Palaeoecological data record an increased MIC supply during this period. The  
755 first of these fires was also recorded in the sediments of Czechowskie Lake (Słowiński et al., 2019). The  
756 summer drought of 1921 occurred over a larger area of Europe, from Poland and the Czech Republic to the  
757 UK (van der Schrier et al., 2021). Summer droughts also affected the Tuchola Pinewoods in 1951 and 1959.  
758 In 1959 Bydgoszcz received only 37 mm of precipitation from August to October (Mitosek, 1960), and from  
759 1950 to 1958 Bydgoszcz received less than 500 mm of rain per year (Kirschenstein, 2005). Our  
760 palaeoecological data confirm droughts in the 1950s. There is a sharp increase in the proportion of  
761 *Phryganella acropodia* among the testate amoebae, an indicator of dry conditions (Diaconu et al., 2017) and  
762 an expansion of brown mosses in the form of *Pohlia nutans* (up to 30% of the peat sample composition) are

763 also marked. Dendroclimatic data recorded the negative impact of climatic conditions on pine, especially  
764 strongly in 1950 and 1956.

765 Studies show that particle size illustrates the distance of the fire from the site, the heavier the particles,  
766 the shorter distances they travel (Clark, 1988; Peters and Higuera, 2007). However, many factors determine  
767 the particles' transport—the fire's intensity, the burning areas, and the wind direction. Adolf et al. (2018) point  
768 out that the charcoal source area of occurrence of both MIC and MAC can reach a radius of 40 km. However,  
769 it is often assumed that MAC indicates fires that occurred up to 1-3 km (Clark, 1990; Higuera et al., 2007;  
770 Oris et al., 2014). The distances to which particles move are also determined by terrain and vegetation. They  
771 move longer distances on flat terrain covered with grasses (Woodward and Haines, 2020), while they move  
772 shorter distances in dense forests (Kelly et al., 2013; Oris et al., 2014). In this context, it should be assessed  
773 that the local fire activity in the studied peatland was low, with an average of 0.36 particles/cm<sup>3</sup>/year,  
774 although from historical sources, fires are known to have occurred nearby.

775

#### 776 4.3.2. Insect outbreaks and their impact on pine monoculture

777 Palaeoecological studies based on the presence of insect head capsules and/or faeces, as well as other  
778 insect remains could be helpful, but these methods are rarely used (Bhiry and Filion, 1996; Lavoie et al.,  
779 2009; Simard et al., 2006; Waller, 2013). Often the main obstacle to performing this method is bad  
780 preservation of insect remains in peat. In the Okoniny (Jezierzba) peatland, we found no insect remains,  
781 even though quite a large sample volume has been analyzed for the plant macrofossil analysis. Therefore,  
782 we can interpret the effect of insect outbreaks using other sources of evidence.

783 The earliest information on insect outbreaks from the forests of the Tuchola Pinewoods under planned  
784 forest management dates back to 1836-1838. An infestation of ~~the~~ *Panolis flammea* occurred at that time  
785 (Schütte, 1893). The insects also attacked between 1866 and 1868. As a result of this infestation, 1380  
786 hectares of forest were destroyed in the Woziwoda forest district alone (Schütte, 1893). The pollen diagram  
787 from the Okoniny (Jezierzba) peatland documents the phenomenon in the 1860s with a decrease in *Pinus*  
788 *sylvestris* pollen and an increased presence of *Pinus* stomata that may indicate the event of the insect  
789 outbreak (Barabach, 2015). The needles that fell were partially decomposed and carried downwind to the  
790 peatland, where they were preserved (Słowiński et al., 2019). The same effect was noted in another closely  
791 located peatland in Okoniny Nadjeziorne, where the 1866-1868 infestation also corresponds with increased  
792 numbers of *Pinus* stomata (Tipton, 2023). In 1855, *Lymantria monacha* appeared in large numbers but  
793 damaged only some of the younger stands (Schütte, 1893).

794 A serious incidence of *Panolis flammea* gradation also occurred in 1922-1924 (Kielczewski, 1947;  
795 Mokrzecki, 1928). Between 1978 and 1985, with a peak in 1982, the forests of the northern part of the  
796 country were overrun by *Lymantria monacha*, and this was the largest infestation since the establishment of

Z komentarzem [MB8]: Linguistic correction as the reviewer suggested.

797 the National Forests in 1924, with salvage treatments covering more than 6.3 million hectares of forest over  
798 seven years (Broda, 2000; Jabłoński, 2015; Śliwa, 1989, 1987). Both major gradations are reflected in  
799 palynological data, manifested by declines in the pollen percentage of trees, primarily *Pinus* and *Picea*. A  
800 decrease in conifer pollen during the gradation period has also been shown by studies of other sites in the  
801 Tuchola Pinewoods (Łuców et al., 2021; Tipton, 2023). Other pine monoculture in Poland, the Noteć Forest  
802 was also affected by gradation in 1922-1924, and this event manifested itself in palaeoecological data  
803 (Barabach, 2015; Lamentowicz et al., 2015; Milecka et al., 2017). Among other things, Barabach (2015)  
804 noted an increase in *Glomeromycota* fungal spores, which according to this author may indicate intense soil  
805 erosion caused by the felling of dead trees, and a marked increase in *Calluna* and Poaceae indicating an  
806 increase in the openness of the landscape. Lamentowicz et al. (2015) noted an increase in mineral content  
807 in the sediment as indicated by *Centropyxis platystoma*, which was confirmed by XMT analysis of the peat.  
808 Milecka et al. (2017) described higher ash and charcoal content in the sediments. Although the Tuchola  
809 Pinewoods and the Noteć Forest are in the region of highest risk of outbreaks, other areas of Poland were  
810 also affected, such as the Kampinos Forest in 1972 (Śliwa, 1974), or over the last decade, the Białowieża  
811 Primeval Forest (Grodzki, 2016; Kamińska et al., 2021).

812 It's difficult to assess unequivocally whether the gradations affected the immediate vicinity of the  
813 peatland, or whether this is a regional signal. Historic maps could be helpful, but these usually do not show  
814 the difference between old and new plantings (Barabach, 2012). However, dendrochronological data  
815 obtained from pine trees could help to reconstruct the extent of the outbreak. The main problem in  
816 monoculture forests though is that the forest is successively cut and new trees are planted regularly.  
817 However, for our dendrochronological record, we were able to obtain samples from the oldest pine trees in  
818 the area. The oldest trees in the region analyzed in this study were planted over 200 years ago in the close  
819 vicinity of the Woziwoda Forest District, after the introduction of the Prussian forest management strategies,  
820 and have been kept there by foresters for obtaining tree saplings and for monitoring. The influence of insect  
821 outbreaks has been recorded in these pine trees and we were able to track all the outbreak events in the  
822 wood. The first years after the gradations - 1839, 1869, 1925, and 1982 - manifested very strongly in the  
823 dendrochronological data as negative indicator years.

824

#### 825 **4.4. Current condition of the peatland vs. remote sensing and dendroclimatic data**

826 The assessed growth reactions of pine trees to climate factors at the Woziwoda site may be considered  
827 typical. The effect of February air temperatures on Scots pine growth in northern Poland was previously  
828 noted (Cedro, 2001; Cedro and Lamentowicz, 2011; Feliksik and Wilczyński, 2009; Koprowski et al., 2012,  
829 2011; Matulewski et al., 2019; Zielski, 1996; Zielski et al., 2010; Zielski and Sygit, 1998). Although the  
830 studied pines from Woziwoda showed a similar growth response to climate as other pines from northern

831 Poland, their climate sensitivity was greater. The highest negative correlation for pine radial growth from  
832 the Woziwoda site was found with July's mean air temperature.

833 Another factor commonly affecting the radial growth of Scots pine, according to the literature, is pluvial  
834 conditions in February. This linkage was identified by Cedro (2001), Feliksik and Wilczyński (2009),  
835 Koprowski et al. (2011) in the Pomeranian region (Northern Poland). The present study confirmed a short-  
836 term relationship between pine radial growth and precipitation sums in February (Fig. 7). Late February and  
837 early March are when additional water is required due to the initiation of biochemical processes in trees  
838 (Przybylski, 1993). Additionally, in our study, a stronger dependence of pine radial growth on precipitation  
839 was demonstrated in June. A similar result for pine from northern Poland was obtained by Matulewski et al.  
840 (2019), Zielski and Barankiewicz (2000), where pine growth was threatened by a water deficit in the summer  
841 season. Increased pine demand for water occurs in June and July, the months of the most intense growth  
842 (Obmiński, 1970). At the same time, these are the months when droughts have become more frequent in  
843 recent years (Łabędzki, 2004; Spinoni et al., 2018). Our results confirm that within the temperature and  
844 monthly precipitation values typically observed in Central Europe, the primary environmental factor  
845 influencing the diversity of species growth in the near future will be the availability of water (Boczoń et al.,  
846 2017; Taeger et al., 2013). This availability is determined by the precipitation level and losses caused by  
847 evapotranspiration (Boczoń and Wróbel, 2015; Zajączkowski et al., 2013).

848 The higher climatic sensitivity of pines at the Woziwoda site was manifested also by a higher number  
849 of pointer years. The pointer years identified in this study are confirmed by earlier studies performed on  
850 pine trees in northern Poland for 1910-2014 (Matulewski et al., 2019; Zielski et al., 1998; Zielski and  
851 Barankiewicz, 2000). The years 1911, 1940, 1950, and 1982 attract particular attention. These are years in  
852 which dry and hot summers were recorded (Matulewski et al., 2019; Zielski, 1996).

853 Our data show that *Pinus sylvestris* has been under critical climatic pressure and is responding  
854 negatively to a warming climate and changing precipitation regime. Models predict a severe decline in  
855 coniferous species in the next 50 years, including *Pinus sylvestris* in the temperate zone of Europe (Dyderski  
856 et al., 2018; Hanewinkel et al., 2013; Schueler et al., 2014). The disappearance of species currently dominant  
857 in the forests of central and eastern Europe will result in the profound disruption or disappearance of  
858 ecosystems functionally related to them, such as peatlands (Dyderski et al., 2018).

859 Peatlands are also affected by accelerating climate change and on top of that they are at risk of losing  
860 their favourable environment, especially in *Pinus sylvestris* monoculture forests, which are particularly  
861 vulnerable to increasing extreme events. Studies conducted by various researchers confirm that remote  
862 sensing data, provide a valuable source of information about peatlands and help in monitoring their  
863 condition (Czapiewski and Szumińska, 2021; Kaplan et al., 2019; Lees et al., 2021; Rapinel et al., 2023).  
864 The analyses conducted in this study have demonstrated that multisensor airborne data can be successfully



865 utilized to assess the current state of peatland vegetation. Applying The application of simple remote sensing  
866 indices enabled the detection of spatial differences in the condition and water stress of vegetation in the  
867 Okoniny (Jezierzba) peatland. According to Rastogi et al. (2019), NDVI values for peatland vegetation may  
868 decrease in areas affected by stress factors such as warming and reduced precipitation. Moreover, NDVI  
869 values for healthy Sphagnum moss in peatland usually range from 0.8 to 0.9 during the summer, but they  
870 are also species-dependent (Harris, 2008; Letendre et al., 2008; Péli et al., 2015). Consequently, the values  
871 of NDVI observed in this study (averaging 0.65) may indicate a prevailing drought situation in certain areas  
872 of the Okoniny (Jezierzba) peatland. Comparable findings can be drawn from the spatial variation of MSI  
873 values presented in this study. Harris et al. (2006, 2005) demonstrated that MSI is significantly correlated  
874 with near-surface moisture condition of Sphagnum moss. Despite the wide application of optical data and  
875 spectral indices in assessing peatland conditions, Gerhards (2018) found that spectral indices may only be  
876 useful under conditions of severe or prolonged water stress. For the pre-visual detection of initial vegetation  
877 water stress symptoms, temperature-based indices are most suitable, exemplified by the LST index used in  
878 this study. Although aerial thermal data has been previously applied in peatland research (Kopeć et al.,  
879 2016), further research into the potential use of airborne thermal data in assessing peatland vegetation  
880 conditions is recommended. To date, there have been few works in Poland using spectral data in peatland  
881 monitoring (Bandopadhyay et al., 2021, 2019). However, none has attempted to collate palaeoecological,  
882 dendrochronological, and remote sensing data.

883

## 884 5. Conclusions

885 Our data show that peatlands are highly sensitive to the progressive rise in Earth's temperatures and  
886 changing precipitation regimes. Groundwater levels have dropped dramatically in recent years, causing  
887 intense heating of the peatland surface in summer and stressing peat-forming vegetation to water scarcity.  
888 The pine monocultures surrounding the peatlands are also sensitive to climate change. They are currently  
889 responding very strongly to summer precipitation deficiency, and these data fit into dendrological predictive  
890 models. Planned forest management has permanently changed the composition of the forest. Deciduous tree  
891 species such as *Quercus*, *Fagus*, *Carpinus*, and *Corylus avellana* have almost disappeared. Forest  
892 management has also contributed to increased acidity in the peatland, and thus the rapid development of  
893 *Sphagnum* specialized for life in acidic conditions. After the expansion of *Sphagnum*, the water level in the  
894 peatland stabilized. Peatlands are also valuable archives of past climatic anomalies and catastrophic events.  
895 Pest gradations are recorded, among other things, by the presence of *Pinus* stomata, and periods of drought  
896 by an increase in the values of coprophilous fungi. These events correspond with dendrochronological  
897 records. There is a strong correlation between the first years after hailstorms and smaller increments of tree  
898 rings. Our study shows that the combining of different data (palaeoecological, dendrochronological, remote

Z komentarzem [MB9]: Linguistic correction as the reviewer suggested.

899 sensing and historical) can complement each other and create a more complete picture of past environmental  
900 changes and expand knowledge of best practices for local (Konczal et al., 2024) and global (Joosten, 2021)  
901 recommendations for peatland conservation in forests. Healthy wetlands could be key to protecting forests  
902 and slowing the transformation of forests caused by climate change (Marcisz et al., 2024). The results are  
903 essential for peatland conservation in planned forest management.

904

#### 905 **Competing interests**

906 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

907

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918

#### 919 **Data availability**

920 All data associated with this article are openly available on Mendeley Data repository under the DOI:  
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922

#### 923 **Authors contribution**

924 MB – fieldwork, laboratory analyses (bulk density, carbon accumulation, plant macrofossils, selection of  
925 plant macrofossils for AMS radiocarbon dating), age-depth modelling, data interpretation, visualization,  
926 writing (original draft)

927 ML – fieldwork, support in plant macrofossil analysis, data interpretation, writing (commenting and editing)

928 PK – fieldwork, laboratory analyses (pollen and spores), age-depth modelling, data interpretation,  
929 visualization, writing (commenting and editing)

930 DW – laboratory analyses (testate amoebae), testate amoeba-based reconstructions, data interpretation

931 PM – fieldwork, laboratory analyses (dendrochronology), data interpretation, visualization, writing  
932 (commenting and editing)

933 DK, MW – fieldwork, remote sensing analyses and interpretation, writing (commenting and editing)  
934 DJ – laboratory analyses (dendrochronology), data interpretation  
935 KM – funding acquisition, conceptualization, fieldwork, laboratory analyses (charcoal), testate amoeba-  
936 based reconstructions, data interpretation, visualization, writing (commenting and editing)  
937

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