Pattern of plant succession from eutrophic lake to ombrotrophic bog in NE Poland over the last 9400 years based on high-resolution macrofossil analysis

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This article describes vegetation history and plant succession in Lakes Kojle and Perty (NE Poland) and in the surrounding peatlands during the last 9400 cal. BP. Vegetation changes were reconstructed based on high-resolution plant macrofossil analysis of three sediment cores. The changes in vegetation and the course of succession found in the studied lakes and peatlands resulted largely from regional climate changes. Climate cooling that took place approximately 5000 cal. BP resulted in an increase in *Picea abies* cover in the vicinity of the lakes, as well as in the appearance of *Nuphar pumila* and *Potamogeton alpinus* in the lakes. A further increase in *Picea abies* approximately 3500 cal. BP coincided with the development of an ombrotrophic bog at one site. During the period under study, the aquatic plant species that persisted for the longest time at one site were *Najas marina* and *Nymphaea alba*, and the shortest-term residents were *Potamogeton* spp.

Introduction

Significant changes in vegetation have occurred in Europe over the last several millennia, primarily resulting from changes in climate and soil. The mechanism of vegetation transformations as a result of climate changes is clearly accounted for by the climate-edaphic cycles in glacial-interglacial periods (Birks 1986, Lang 1994). The historic course and rate of vegetation succession in lake-peatland areas were affected not only by climate changes but also by the surroundings of a given lake; its physical parameters, i.e., surface area, depth, and nutrient supply; and also by human activity. Vegetation development in peatlands is frequently related to the development of forests in their vicinity (Gałka *et al.* 2013a). In instances of vegetation succession in largearea ombrotrophic bogs, such changes are often autogenic (Swindles *et al.* 2012).

Palaeoecological studies in Europe, primarily based on analyses of plant macrofossils, have permitted the reconstruction of the general migration routes of trees and selected herbaceous plants (Lang 1994, Ralska-Jasiewiczowa *et al.* 2004). A number of works have also been published on the reconstruction of the development of local vegetation in lakes (Bennike 2000, Birks 2000, Bešta *et al.* 2009, Väliranta *et al.* 2011, Rūtina *et al.* 2012, Gałka & Sznel 2013, Gałka & Apolinarska 2014) and peatlands (Barber et al. 2004, Sillasoo et al. 2007, Mauquoy & Yeloff 2008, Gałka et al. 2013b). Plant macrofossil analysis plays a very important role in the reconstruction of local vegetation succession, as well as in the determination of the time of appearance of various plant species in lake-peatland areas and their vicinity (Hannon & Gaillard 1997, Allen & Huntley 1999, Tobolski 2000, Birks & Birks 2006, Velichkevich & Zastawniak 2006). The application of such analyses in palaeoecological studies allows for the identification of plant remains to species level, but is dependent on the presence of the plant. Identification of plant macrofossils is mostly not possible in palynological analyses (Birks 2000, Tobolski 2000, Feurdean & Bennike 2008). This is particularly the case with plants of Cyperaceae and Juncaceae and with the genus Potamogeton, which occur frequently in lakepeatland areas. With well-preserved generative or vegetative plant macrofossils in sediments, it is possible to identify plant species and also estimate their contributions in plant assemblages growing in lakes and peatlands.

Previous studies in Europe focusing on the analysis of vegetation succession from lake to peatland, with plant macrofossil analysis as one of the research methods, attempted to reconstruct habitat conditions, e.g., water depth, pH, and age and duration of appearance of various plant species at a site (Bradshaw *et al.* 2005, Mortensen *et al.* 2011, Fajer *et al.* 2011, Gałka *et al.* 2014, Karpińska-Kołaczek *et al.* 2013). The reconstruction of fossil plant assemblages in lakes and peatlands has involved the development of succession models (Hannon & Gaillard 1997, Drzymulska 2008, Tuittila *et al.* 2007).

In spite of the expansion of knowledge on vegetation succession in lake-peatland areas in Europe, high-resolution (e.g., 1 cm) palaeobotanical works are still scarce. The application of such high-resolution sample analysis permits a detailed reconstruction of changes in the vegetation at a given site and the contributions of individual species, even at intervals of a dozen years or so (Gałka *et al.* 2014).

The research presented in this paper was conducted in NE Poland, an area heavily influenced by its boreal climate. Due to this influence, this part of Europe includes plant species adapted to an oceanic climate, e.g., *Cladium mariscus*, as well as those that require a continental climate, e.g., *Picea abies* and *Nympheae candida*.

The objectives of the study were (1) to reconstruct the development and changes in vegetation in the area of Lakes Kojle and Perty and their surrounding peatlands, and (2) to determine the effects of climate changes on the course of succession at these localities.

The results of the plant macrofossil analyses presented in this article constitute part of a more extensive palaeoecological study conducted in NE Poland by the author. Thus far, palaeoecological research has focused on palaeoecological and palaeoclimatic reconstructions, with an emphasis on the reconstruction of vegetation development in lakes and peatlands in the Late Glacial and Holocene (Gałka & Sznel 2013, Gałka et al. 2013b, 2014, Gałka & Apolinarska 2014). Due to the biogeographic significance and palaeoecological importance of the area, the Holocene history of the local occurrence of several plant species was determined, namely Juncus subnodulosus (Gałka 2009), Sphagnum wulfianum (Gałka 2010), Epipactis palustris (Gałka & Kasper 2011), Najas flexilis (Gałka et al. 2012), Cladium mariscus (Gałka & Tobolski 2012), and Picea abies (Gałka & Tobolski 2013).

Material and methods

Study area

Eutrophic Lakes Kojle and Perty are located in NE Poland in the Suwalski Landscape Park (SLP; Fig. 1). The development of the lakes was related to the local occurrence of the Scandinavian Ice Sheet, which retreated from the area approximately 14 600 cal. BP (Rinterknecht et al. 2006). Bottom sediments in Kojle date to approximately 13 730-13 380 cal. BP (Gałka & Sznel 2013), but the presence of older sediments cannot be excluded. The studied lakes are located in an area of terminal moraines and are surrounded by terrain whose height reaches approximately 200 m a.s.l. In the past, Kojle and Perty were connected (Gałka & Tobolski 2013) but today they are separated from each other by a peatland. Hence, the name (Lake) Kojle-Perty

shall be frequently used in this article. According to measurements from 2010, the surface area of Kojle is 17.13 ha and that of Perty is 19.69 ha (Gałka 2012). The water level in both lakes is approximately 148.3 m a.s.l. Currently, the deepest point in Kojle is 33 m and in Perty 32 m.

The climate in this part of Poland is transitional, with a clear influence of continentalism. The study area has the lowest number of vegetative days in lowland Poland, i.e., 180-190. The mean annual precipitation amounts to 650 mm. The mean monthly temperatures in the area range from 17 °C in July to -5 °C in January (Woś 1999).

SLP is dominated by boreal plant assemblages. Morainic and kame hills and eskers are primarily overgrown with coniferous forests dominated by Picea abies. Among deciduous trees, Carpinus betulus and Corylus avellana are dominant. In humid areas, forests dominated by Alnus glutinosa and Fraxinus excelsior occur. The littoral zone of the studied lakes is inhabited primarily by Phragmites australis, Typha latifolia, and Cladium mariscus. In deeper parts of the lakes, among other taxa, Chara spp., Potamogeton lucens, and Nymphaea alba occur. Pinus sylvestris and Picea abies grow in the peatland between Kojle and Perty and along the southwestern bay of Kojle. Occurrences of plants associated with oligotrophic habitats have also been recorded, particularly species of Sphagnum, including among others S. magellanicum, S. palustre, and S. russowii, as well as Andromeda polifolia and Oxycoccus palustris.

Geological drilling and sampling of cores for laboratory analyses was performed using a Russian peat corer, 7 cm in diameter and 100 cm in length. The locations of the core sampling sites are presented in Fig. 1.

Laboratory work

Sediments from the three sites were sampled for further analyses. The limnic-peat sediment was placed in PVC tubes. In the laboratory, the sediment was unpacked, cleaned, and sliced into 1-cm thick slices with a surgical scalpel.

The plant macrofossil analysis covered 1935 samples. The three cores were analysed



Fig. 1. Location of the study site. — **A**: Part of Europe. — **B**: Suwalski Landscape Park. — **C**: Lake Kojle–Perty; The sampling sites coordinates are: I: 54°16′26.8′´N, 22°53′43.4′´E; II: 54°16′21.36′´N, 22°53′21.80′´E; III: 54°16′15.45′´N, 22°53′17.77′´E.

at a resolution of 1 cm. The volume per sample was approximately 25 cm³. The samples were sieved under warm running water on sieves with 0.25 mm mesh size. The selected plant macrofossils were studied under a stereoscopic microscope (Nikon SMZ800 under 10-200× magnification) and a light microscope. The determination of vascular plant fossil species was performed with the help of Grosse-Brauckmann (1974), Grosse-Brauckmann and Streitz (1992), Tobolski (2000), and Velichkevich and Zastawniak (2006, 2009). Brown mosses were identified using Hedenäs (2003) and Smith (2004), and the Sphagnum species by using Hölzer (2010) and Laine et al. (2011). The plant macrofossil diagrams were prepared with the C2 graphic software (Juggins 2003).

Zones and phases of the vegetation development were distinguished visually from the diagrams. Fossil fruits and seeds are given in absolute numbers, and contributions of mosses, e.g., *Calliergon giganteum* and *Sphagnum magellanicum* and vegetative parts of vascular plants, are expressed as percentages of the total volume of a sieved sediment sample. The names of the plant species were adopted from Mirek *et al.* (2002) and Ochyra *et al.* (2003).

Plant macrofossils in nine samples from three cores were selected for the determination of radiocarbon age (Table 1). The age analysis was conducted at the Radiocarbon Laboratory in Poznań. The resulting conventional radiocarbon dates were calibrated by means of OxCal 4.2 software (Bronk Ramsey 2009). An age–depth model for site III was developed using the OxCal 4.2 application (Bronk Ramsey 2009).

This article presents the results for the period from 9400 cal. BP to present. Late Glacial and Early Holocene vegetation history and lake level changes will be published in a separate article. This division is due to a key event in the development of vegetation and lakes, i.e., a significant climate change around 9400 in NE Poland (Lauterbach *et al.* 2011, Gałka *et al.* 2014).

Results and discussion

Lithology and chronology

Due to the limited number of radiocarbon dates,

an age-depth model was only performed for site III (Fig. 2). The age of the dated sediment at particular depths, and its type, i.e., weakly decomposed peats in the upper part, suggest that at site III, the accumulation of organic sediments occurred continuously for 9100 years, with no hiatuses. Sediment accumulation took a different course at sites I and II, where it is probable that sediment accumulation was interrupted. This is suggested by the sediment age at particular depths, the presence of strongly decomposed peats, and fire horizons at site I (Fig. 3).

Calcareous gyttja occurs in the lower part of the sediments sampled at sites I and II, while at site III, calcareous gyttja with detritus gyttja are present (Table 2). Gyttja covers a layer of peat that developed during a period of low water levels in Kojle–Perty during the Early Holocene (Gałka & Sznel 2013). The beginning of the calcareous-gyttja accumulation at sites I, II and III was dated to 9533–9308, 9473–9142 and 9262–8819 cal. BP, respectively (Table 2). The thinnest layer of calcareous gyttja (240 cm thick) was found at site I.

A layer of detritus gyttja accumulated on calcareous gyttja. The thickest layer of detritus gyttja, 196 cm, was recorded at site II. At site III, above the layer of calcareous-detritus gyttja from approximately 7500 cal. BP, a layer of brown moss-herbaceous peat with detritus gyttja was accumulated. From 7500 to 6500 cal. BP, the main component of the sediment was *Drepanocladus* sp. Next, a layer of *Phragmites* peat developed that includes numerous oospores

Site/depth (cm)	Dated material	Lab. no.	Age ¹⁴ C date (BP)	Cal. BP range (95%)
l/219–220	Needles of Picea abies	Poz-43865	4260 ± 40	4959–4646
I/340–341	Fruits and fruit scales of Betula sp.	Poz-37192	6130 ± 40	7160-6910
l/614.5–615.5	Bud scales of tree	Poz-37191	8430 ± 50	9533-9308
II/241–242	Needles of Picea abies	Poz-44774	6960 ± 35	7921–7694
II/444–446	Fruits and fruit scales of Betula sp.	Poz-38822	8330 ± 50	9473-9142
III/153–154	Stems of Sphagnum magellanicum	Poz-44906	1885 ± 30	1890–1730
III/297–298	Seed, bud scale, needles			
	of Picea abies and fruit scales			
	of Betula pubescens	Poz-44907	3175 ± 35	3464–3345
III/452–453	Needles of <i>Picea abies</i>	Poz-44773	4390 ± 35	5211-4859
111/872-873	Needles and periderm of Pinus sylvestris	Poz-39558	8120 ± 50	9262-8819

Table 1. Radiocarbon dates. Numbers I-III refer to the study sites.

of *Chara* sp. and seeds of *Nymphaea alba* and *Cladium mariscus*. This finding suggests the presence of a shallow lake or an inundated peat-land.

From approximately 5850 to 4000 cal. BP, a layer of sediment dominated by Hamatocaulis vernicosus developed. The environment of accumulation of this sediment is difficult to determine. On the one hand, the presence of macrofossils of five aquatic plants in this sediment layer suggests lake conditions; on the other, Hamatocaulis vernicosus grows in very humid peatlands and fens and is sometimes found submerged in shallow lakes (Hedenäs 2003). It is possible that H. vernicosus grew on the periphery of a peatland, and its leaves and stems, detached by waves, settled in large numbers on the lake bottom. This situation occurs frequently in lakes where a floating mat of Sphagnum mosses develops (author's pers. obs.). Mosses developed on limnic sediments. The thickest peat deposit, 346 cm, was found at site III. This layer was composed of Pseudocalliergon trifarium mosses in its lowest part, and more than 300 cm of Sphagnum peat, primarily made up of S. magellanicum. The beginning of accumulation of the S. magellanicum peat was dated to approximately 3500 cal. BP.

At site I, peat accumulation began approximately 6000 cal. BP, with a contribution of roots of Cyperaceae and *Menyanthes trifoliata*. From a depth of 138 cm, the peat was composed of *Sphagnum* leaves, *Eriophorum vaginatum*, and Ericaceae roots. At site II, from a depth of 86 cm, peat composed of roots of herbaceous plants, primarily Cyperaceae, and the brown moss *Calliergon giganteum* occurred: the contribution of those taxa reaching 80%.

Palaeobotanical analyses

Site I

I distinguished four phases in the history of development of local vegetation at site I (Fig. 3). The first phase (I/I, 615–450 cm) is the lake period. It is dominated by *Nymphaea alba*, *Nuphar* sp., and, clearly in the second half of the period, *Najas marina*. At the beginning of this



Fig. 2. Age-depth model of the profile at site III (prepared by Piotr Kołaczek).

phase, *Typha* sp., *Cladium mariscus*, and *Menyanthes trifoliata* occurred, i.e., plants that can grow in shallow waters of a lake's littoral zone. Among trees, *Pinus sylvestris*, *Betula pubescens*, and *Alnus glutinosa* were present.

 Table 2. Lithostratigraphy of the sediment sequence at the three studied sites in Lake Kojle–Perty.

Site	Description of sediments
I	614–374 cm calcareous gyttja 374–277 cm detritus gyttja
	277–138 cm herbaceous peat
	138–48 cm Sphagnum-herbaceous peat
	48-0 cm herbaceous-brown moss peat
11	445–282 cm calcareous gyttja
	282–86 cm detritus gyttja
	86–0 cm herbaceous-brown moss peat
	875–677 cm calcareous-detritus gyttja
	677–346 cm brown moss-herbaceous with
	detritus gyttja
	346–308 cm brown moss peat
	308–0 cm Sphagnum-herbaceous peat



The second phase (I/II, 450–277 cm) is distinguished by a clear increase in the number of species of aquatic plants. In the first half, *Najas marina* and *Chara* sp. were dominant. In the second half, four species of *Potamogeton* appeared: *P. natans*, *P. trichoides*, *P. lucens*, and *P. gramineus*. Also in the second half, *Schoenoplectus lacustris* occurred regularly, and *Cladium mariscus* and *Typha* sp. appeared. The contribution of trees increased substantially, with *Alnus glutinosa* as the most abundant species. New species appeared: *Tilia* sp., *Populus tremula* and *Acer* sp.

In the third phase (I/III, 277–138 cm), the contribution of peatland plants, particularly that of sedges, increased. *Cladium mariscus* occurred, then disappeared at a depth of 211 cm. *Menyanthes trifoliata* was also present. Phase I/III is also distinguished by the occurrence of *Potentilla* sp. and *Rubus* sp. In the middle of this period, *Thelypteris palustris* was dominant, and the dominant trees were *Betula pubescens and Alnus glutinosa*. *Picea abies* appeared, with the highest contribution at a depth of 220–227 cm.

Phase four (I/IV, 138–0 cm) is distinguished by the appearance of *Sphagnum* sect. *Acutifolia* and sect. *Sphagnum*. In the upper part of this phase, *S. teres* appeared. Along with *Sphagnum*, *Eriophorum vaginatum* and *Andromeda polifolia* occurred. In the second half of the phase, *Menyanthes trifoliata*, *Comarum palustre*, and *Juncus articulatus* appeared. The contributions of *Carex paniculata* and brown mosses increased and the contribution of trees decreased substantially. Phase four was the only phase with visible macroscopic charcoal fragments.

Site II

I distinguished five phases in the history of development of local vegetation at site II (Fig. 4). Phase one (II/I, 445–366 cm) is distinguished by the presence of five species of aquatic plants: *Najas marina* and *Nymphaea alba* were dominant, and *Nuphar lutea*, *Chara* sp., and *Potamogeton gramineus* occurred more sporadically. Macrofossils of *Cladium mariscus*, *Schoenoplectus lacustris* and *Typha* sp were rare. In this phase, five species of trees occurred: *Pinus sylvestris*, *Betula pubescens*, and *Tilia* sp. were the most numerous, and *Alnus glutinosa* and *Picea abies* occurred sporadically.

At the beginning of phase two (II/II, 366– 282 cm), the contributions of *Najas marina* and *Chara* sp. increased substantially. In the middle of this phase, *Schoenoplectus lacustris* occurred. In the second half of phase two, *Urtica dioica* appeared. *Tilia* sp. and *Alnus glutinosa* occurred regularly throughout the phase.

Phase three (II/III, 282–200) is distinguished by a decrease in the contribution of aquatic plants, particularly *Najas marina*, and trees. Among trees, only *Alnus glutinosa* occurred regularly. Phase three is also distinguished by the co-occurrence of *Urtica dioica* and *Rubus idaeus*.

During phase four (II/IV, 200–86 cm), a substantial increase of aquatic species and trees occurred. *Najas marina* occurred regularly. *Nymphaea alba* and *Chara* sp. were numerous. *Potamogeton natans* appeared for the first time. Among Cyperaceae, *Schoenoplectus lacustris* and *Cladium mariscus* occurred. In the second half of the phase, among others, *Carex rostrata* and *Stellaria palustris* appeared. In this phase, the highest increase among trees occurred for *Picea abies. Acer* sp. also appeared. *Alnus glutinosa* and *Betula pubescens* occurred regularly.

Phase five (II/V, 86–0 cm) is distinguished by the disappearance of aquatic plants, a decrease in the contribution of trees, and an increase in the contribution of peatland plants. *Carex paniculata* occurred regularly throughout this phase. In the first half of the phase, *Stellaria palustris* and brown mosses were dominant, with sporadic occurrences of *Bidens tripartita*, *Juncus articulatus*, and *Lychnis flos-cuculi*. In the second half, the contributions of *Menyanthes trifoliata* and *Calliergon giganteum* increased considerably.

Site III

I distinguished five phases in the history of development of local vegetation at site III (Fig. 5). In phase one (III/I, 875–792 cm), the site was a lake, with regular occurrences of *Nymphaea alba* in the sediment. *Najas marina*, *Nuphar lutea*, and *Chara* sp. occurred sporadi-





cally. Cyperaceae, including *Cladium mariscus* and *Schoenoplectus lacustris*, were present. The following trees occurred regularly: *Alnus glutinosa*, *Tilia* sp., and *Betula* sect. *Alba*.

Phase two (III/II, 792–584 cm) is distinguished by the appearance of *Drepanocladus* sp. (up to 90% of the total sediment volume) and *Potamogeton natans*. Among aquatic plants, *Nymphaea alba* occurred regularly. *Carex pseudocyperus* and *Menyanthes trifoliata* also appeared. During this phase, *Betula pubescens* was dominant, *Tilia* sp. was numerous, and *Picea abies* and *Acer* sp. appeared.

During phase three (III/III, 584–526 cm), *Phragmites australis, Chara* sp., and *Nymphaea alba* were dominant. *Potamogeton obtusifolius* was present. *Cladium mariscus* appeared again. Among trees, the most abundant were birches and alders.

Phase four (III/IV, 526–308 cm) is distinguished by the dominance of *Hamatocaulis vernicosus*. In the lower part, *Nuphar pumila* and *Potamogeton alpinus* appeared. In the middle part, *Nymphaea alba* and *Nuphar lutea* occurred. In the upper part, *Pseudocalliergon trifarium* appeared. The frequency of occurrence of various trees in the middle part of the phase is characteristic, with a clear dominance of *Picea abies*.

In phase five (III/V, 308–0 cm), no aquatic plants occurred. Plants typical of acidic habitats were dominant, primarily *Sphagnum magellanicum* with short periodical appearances of *Scheuchzeria palustris*, *Sphagnum* sect. *Cuspidata*, and *Eriophorum vaginatum*. In the second half of the period, *Andromeda polifolia*, *Oxycoccus palustris*, and *Carex echinata* were present. After the disappearance of *S. magellanicum* in the upper part of this phase, *S. palustre*, *Potentilla erecta*, and *Rubus* sp. appeared.

Plant succession in Lake Kojle–Perty

Considering the duration of existence of aquatic plants at a given site, I distinguished three groups of plants. The first group includes plants that occurred quite regularly at one site in the lake over several thousand years. These include, among others e.g., *Najas marina* which occurred at site I for approximately 2500 years (Fig. 3)

and at site II for approximately 5000 years (Fig. 4). At site III, N. marina was only present at the beginning of the second phase (Fig. 4). At the beginning of the Holocene, the water level decreased substantially in Kojle and Perty. In the shallow parts of the lakes, on Late Glacial limnic sediments, peats were accumulated, and overlaying the peats, again calcareous gyttja (Gałka & Tobolski 2013). During the period of occurrence of N. marina, Kojle and Perty were eutrophic lakes. Currently, N. marina grows primarily in eutrophic lakes, but it is also encountered in brackish waters (Bennike et al. 2001). In the past in western and northern Europe it also occurred in eutrophic and brackish waters (Backmann 1941, Godwin 1975, Bennike et al. 2001). In Poland, N. marina mainly occurred in eutrophic lakes (Gałka 2007).

Other Holocene sites in Poland where Najas marina was present suggest that it also grew for several thousand years in a number of other lakes. In Lake Purwin, located approximately 1 km north of the studied lakes, N. marina seeds, and periodically also vegetative fragments of stems and leaves, were recorded on a regular basis in sediments that developed between 5000 and 2000 cal. BP (Gałka & Apolinarska 2014). However, N. marina was already present in Lake Purwin approximately 8300 cal. BP. The constant presence of N. marina over a period of several thousand years was also determined in other lakes in N Poland (Gałka 2007, Konieczna & Kowalewski 2009, Gałka & Tobolski 2011, Stachowicz-Rybka & Obidowicz 2013). The stability of occurrence of N. marina over several thousand years has also been confirmed in lakes in Latvia (Rūtina et al. 2012).

The group of plants that occurred quite regularly over several thousand years in Kojle–Perty also includes *Nymphaea alba*. It occurred at site I for approximately 2500 years, at site II during four periods over approximately 5000 years, and at site III for approximately 5000 years (Fig. 6). The modern and fossil environments of *N. alba* suggest that its environmental preferences are quite flexible. In general, *N. alba* inhabits meso- to eutrophic waters (Kłosowski & Kłosowski 2007), but it is also encountered in dystrophic and oligotrophic waters. It grows at depths down to approximately 3 m (Hannon



Fig. 6. Comparison of the vegetation development at the analysed sites of Lake Kojle-Perty.

& Gaillard 1997). The regular occurrence of *N. alba* in lakes over several thousand years has been confirmed, among other locations, in NE Poland: Linówek (Gałka *et al.* 2014), Purwin (Gałka & Apolinarska 2014; north-central Poland (Gałka 2007), and S Poland (Fajer *et al.* 2012). *Nymphaea alba* also remained present at a given site for long periods in other parts of Europe: in Lithuania (Gaidamavičius *et al.* 2011), Latvia (Rūtina *et al.* 2012), and Denmark (Bradshaw *et al.* 2005). The second group of plants includes *Nuphar lutea* and *Chara* sp., which occurred

at each of the studied peatlands less regularly and for shorter periods than *N. marina* and *N. alba*. At sites II and III, macrofossils of *N. lutea* and *Chara* sp. were found occasionally. At site I, *Chara* appeared in the second phase of the existence of the lake (Fig. 3). The number of oospores in some samples, up to 150 items, suggests that in certain periods, *Chara* was the dominant species. The consistent presence of *N. marina* seeds suggests that *Chara* sp. and *N. marina* co-existed in Kojle–Perty. In the past, *N. marina* co-occurred with *Chara* in Latvian (Rutina et al. 2012) and Danish lakes (Bradshaw et al. 2005), among others. The situation was different in Lake Purwin, where a decrease of N. marina occurred in a period of substantially growing numbers of Chara sp. oospores (Gałka & Apolinarska 2014). This finding may indicate that the development of assemblages with Chara sp. caused the disappearance of N. marina, i.e., that the species were not able to coexist. Such an interpretation is supported by the fact that the reappearance of N. marina in Lake Purwin was accompanied by a rapid decrease in the number of Chara sp. oospores. However, the disappearance of N. marina in Lake Purwin can be related not only to the competition between those species but also to a water level increase. The optimal habitat for N. marina is a lake environment with a depth of approximately 1 m and a maximum depth of approximately 2 m (Hannon & Gaillard 1997). Chara spp. can grow at depths of up to 30 metres (Haas 1994). Therefore, after the water level increase, the area of the lake with conditions favourable for the growth of N. marina decreased, and it most likely withdrew to the shallower parts of the lake. The disappearance of N. marina in Lake Purwin corresponds with the disappearance of Cladium mariscus and Schoenoplectus lacustris, plants that grow in shallow waters in the rush zone. This fact can additionally confirm the withdrawal of N. marina and expansion of Chara sp. due to a water level increase. In the case of stable conditions, i.e., an appropriate water depth, N. marina and Chara sp. can grow next to each other. The phenomenon of N. marina growing next to stoneworts is currently described in various parts of Europe (Eriksson et al. 2004, Landucci et al. 2011, Wolf et al. 2013).

Palaeoecology of Potamogeton

The third group of plants present in the limnic phase in the Lake Kojle–Perty includes *Potamogeton*. Considering the low frequency of endocarps of given *Potamogeton* species, their presence at the three analysed sites can generally be considered short-term. The past occurrence of *Potamogeton* in Kojle–Perty is only demonstrated by the presence of single endocarps in the sediment. At site I, *Potamogeton natans*, *P*. trichoides, P. gramineus, and P. lucens occurred in the last phase (Fig. 2). The appearance of *P. natans* and *P. trichoides* corresponds with a change of sediment. Calcareous gyttja that had previously accumulated was replaced by detritus gyttja with no recorded presence of calcium carbonate. The presence of *P. natans* and *P. trichoides* also corresponds with a gradual decrease in the number of oospores of *Chara* sp. and *Najas marina*. Moreover, the appearance of *P. gramineum* and *P. lucens* is accompanied by the disappearance of *Chara* and a further decrease in the occurrence of *Najas marina*.

Potamogeton natans is a species very frequently found as fossils (Godwin 1975, Velichkevich & Zastawniak 2006). At present, it grows in shallow parts of lakes, usually down to 3 m (Kłosowski & Kłosowski 2007) or to a maximum depth of 6 m (Hannon & Gaillard 1997). It inhabits waters with various trophic statuses, from oligo- to eutrophic, and grows on various substrata (Kłosowski & Kłosowski 2007). Due to this flexibility, its fossil presence is not a very good palaeoenvironmental indicator. In Poland, it is recorded in Holocene sediments in both calcareous gyttja and detritus gyttja, and the duration of its existence is very variable. Potamogeton natans can indicate a lower lake level. It is most frequently encountered in sediments of the final period of a lake's existence (Miotk-Szpiganowicz & Gałka 2009, Fajer et al. 2012, Żurek & Kloss 2012, Gałka & Sznel 2013, Stachowicz-Rybka & Obidowicz 2013).

In Poland, Potamogeton trichoides is usually encountered in the south, growing in eutrophic waters with organic sediments (Zalewska-Gałosz 2008). It is only rarely present in the fossil record and is considered an indicator of warm periods (Velichkevich & Zastawniak 2006). At site I, I found three endocarps of P. trichoides in three samples in sediments dated approximately 7000 cal. BP, i.e., during the climatic optimum (9000 to 5500 cal. BP.; Kalis et al. 2003). A single endocarp of P. trichoides was also found in the uppermost layer of detritus gyttja under peats on peatland Gazwa near Mragowo (NE Poland). The age of the sediments with P. trichoides was dated approximately to 6300 cal. BP (Gałka & Lamentowicz 2014). At site Kobylnica Wołoska, located in NE Poland, P. trichoides

endocarps were recorded in a sediment accumulated approximately 14 700 cal. BP (pers. obs.). It grew on calcareous gyttja substrate for approximately 100 years, together with *P. alpinus*, *P. pusillus*, and *P. natans*.

In the area of Kojle-Perty, Potamogeton lucens was only recorded in one sample in sediments from site I, accumulated approximately 7000 cal. BP. Currently, P. lucens occurs primarily in eutrophic waters and is encountered at depths of greater than 3 m (Kłosowski & Kłosowski 2006). Considering the other fossil sites of P. lucens in Poland, it appears to persist quite a short period at a given site. Its endocarps are usually only recorded in one to several samples. This situation occurred in Lake Linówek, where P. lucens occurred episodically approximately 11 200 cal. BP (Gałka et al. 2014). In Lake Purwin, P. lucens was present occasionally at three points over a period of approximately 3500 years. The periods of its occurrence were more than 1000 years apart (Gałka & Apolinarska 2014). Several endocarps of P. lucens were found in single samples of the medieval sediments from Gdańsk (N Poland) (Święta-Musznicka et al. 2011). Potamogeton lucens occurred for a little longer in the fossil lake in SE Poland near Pakosławice. There it was very abundant in fine detritus gyttja (30 cm thick) accumulated in the Alleröd, and co-occurred with P. obtusifolius, P. natans, and P. acutifolius (Maj & Gałka 2012).

At site II, two species of Potamogeton were recorded (Fig. 4). Potamogeton natans was only present in one sample, and grew in the environment of detritus gyttja. Potamogeton gramineus was found in six samples, in both calcareous and detritus gyttja. It is a circumboreal species (Hulten & Fries 1986). In Poland, it usually occurs in the north and east and grows in meso- and eutrophic waters on calcareous organic and mineral substrates (Zalewska-Gałosz 2008). According to Godwin (1975), in England, P. gramineus prefers non-calcareous waters. It is noteworthy that the occurrence of P. gramineus at site II coincides in two periods with the occurrence of Urtica dioica fruits and in one period with the presence of Rubus idaeus seeds in the sediment. This correlation suggests the appearance of P. gramineus in the lake during periods of low water levels. Urtica dioica and Rubus idaeus often grow on

decomposed peat in peatlands adjacent to lakes. The appearance of P. gramineus during a water level drop is also suggested by the simultaneous occurrence of Cladium mariscus and Schoenoplectus lacustris. Considering other fossil sites of P. gramineus, it seems to have no clear substrate preference. In Lake Linówek, I found a single P. gramineus endocarp in one sample of sediment accumulated approximately 8500 cal. BP (Gałka et al. 2014). It was accompanied in this lake by, among others, Chara sp. and Potamogeton natans. In another sample, 1 cm higher, P. obtusifolius appeared. In Lake Mielnica in the Tuchola Forest, P. gramineus appeared in the final phase of the lake's existence, after a change in the sediment from calcareous gyttja to detritus gyttja, and grew together with N. marina and Nuphar lutea (Gałka 2007). In Lake Pilcines (E Latvia), P. gramineus appeared in a shallow lake (the deepest location being 1.9 m) in sediments younger than 800 cal. BP (Rūtina et al. 2012). It was accompanied by P. natans, P. perfoliatus and others. In Kråkenes Lake (SW Norway), P. gramineus occurred sporadically approximately 10 900 cal. BP and was accompanied by, among others, Batrachium sp. and Myriophyllum alterniflorum. This find suggests that pH oscillated around approximately 6-7 (Birks 2000). An abundant occurrence of endocarps of P. gramineus was determined in the former mesoeutrophic Lake Velanská Cesta (S Czech Republic) in the period from 14 000 to 13 500 cal. BP, with a less frequent occurrence from 13 500 to 11 500 cal. BP (Bešta et al. 2009). There it grew on algal gyttja, accompanied by P. praelongus and P. perfoliatus, and in the final phase of its presence in the lake also by P. obtusifolius. Considering the above examples in palaeoecological reconstructions, the appearance in a given lake of P. gramineus suggests either shallow water or a decrease in water depth.

At site III, three *Potamogeton* species appeared in the lake after a change in the type of accumulated sediment. *Potamogeton natans* appeared after a change from calcareous gyttja to detritus gyttja with abundant *Drepanocladus* sp. The accumulation of this sediment layer in the environment of the shallow lake is probable because certain species of *Drepanocladus* moss, e.g., *D. aduncus*, can grow on the bottom of shallow water bodies (Smith 2004, Suško 2010). Sediment accumulation in the lake is also suggested by the presence of macrofossils of four aquatic taxa: Nymphaea alba, Nuphar lutea, Chara sp., and Potamogeton natans. Potamogeton obtusifolius and P. alpinus also occurred in the environment with no calcareous gyttja, but they appeared only after the disappearance of Phragmites australis. During that time, an open space most likely appeared in the shallow lake, which permitted colonisation of the site by P. obtusifolius and P. alpinus. It should be taken into account, however, that P. alpinus endocarps were found in the sediment where the main component was Hamatocaulis vernicosus. This brown moss can exist in a peatland even when it is submerged in shallow water (Hedenäs 2003). The presence of seeds of Nymphaea alba or accompanying P. alpinus in the sediment is noteworthy. Based on this, it can be assumed that the numerous Hamatocaulis vernicosus leaves in the sediment resulted from the presence of a shallow lake inhabited by H. vernicosus. Alternatively, leaves of H. vernicosus could have accumulated on the lake bottom after falling along the periphery of the peatland, as mentioned earlier.

The time of appearance of P. alpinus and the accompanying Nuphar pumila in the lake at site III is very significant. At the time of appearance of those plants in the lake, the contribution of Picea abies increased in the nearby forests. Picea abies was already recorded on the shores of Kojle and Perty in the Early Holocene (Gałka & Tobolski 2013). Sporadic macrofossils were found in the analysed sediments dating to approximately 9500 cal. BP from its expansion in the vicinity of Kojle and Perty, i.e., until approximately 5000 cal. BP. A clear increase in P. abies beginning approximately 5000 cal. BP is visible at two sites (I and III), as confirmed by radiocarbon dates (Figs. 2 and 4). In the sediments of Lake Purwin, the first macrofossils of P. abies were found approximately 4700 cal. BP (Gałka & Apolinarska 2014), and in the sediments of Lake Linówek approximately 4300 cal. BP (Gałka et al. 2014).

The appearance of *Nuphar pumila* and *Potamogeton alpinus* with a simultaneous increase of *Picea abies* could be related to the climate cooling that occurred around 5800 cal. BP in this part of Europe (Heikkilä & Seppä 2003). The migration to these areas of N. pumila and P. alpinus could be caused by an increase in the influence of the continental climate. This migration accounts for the modern distributions of those plants. Modern N. pumila is concentrated in eastern and northern Europe (Piękoś-Mirkowa & Mirek 2003), and P. alpinus is a species with a circumboreal range (Hulten & Fries 1986). Potamogeton alpinus and N. pumila also appeared together at a similar time in Lake Linówek approximately 3900 cal. BP (Gałka et al. 2014), and grew in an environment of accumulating detritus gyttja. Also in the area of the former lake near Kobylnica Wołoska (SE Poland), those two species co-occurred approximately 14 600 cal. BP (pers. obs.), but at that site, their macrofossils were found in calcareous gyttja. The co-occurrence of P. alpinus and N. pumila in the past suggests their similar ecological requirements.

Potamogeton obtusifolius was found only in one sample from site III, which suggests that this species occurred in that location only sporadically. Currently, the species prefers meso- and eutrophic waters with alkaline reaction (Zalewska-Gałosz 2008). It usually grows at water depths of approximately 1-1.5 m on substrates with a thick layer of organic sediments (Kłosowski & Kłosowski 2007). In SW Poland, it was recorded in one sample (Maj & Gałka 2012). Also in SE Poland, it grew for a relatively short time, i.e., approximately 100 years (pers. obs.). Considering other fossil occurrences of this plant, however, it can be concluded that the duration of its persistence at one site varies, unlike in Lake Kojle. In Lake Linówek, P. obtusifolius appeared during two periods: 8500-8000 cal. BP and 4300-2200 cal. BP (Gałka et al. 2014). In Gdańsk, P. obtusifolius endocarps were found in medieval deposits (Święta-Musznicka et al. 2011). In N Romania, it occurred regularly during the period 10 300-8600 cal. BP (Feurdean & Bennike 2004). In England, it was present almost throughout the Holocene (Godwin 1975).

Plant succession on the mires

The gradual filling of the basins of Lakes Kojle and Perty with sediments resulted in the colonisation of the shallow parts of the lakes by rush vegetation. This included *Schoenoplectus lacustris*, *Cladium mariscus*, and *Typha* sp. The last one occurred first in the studied lakes. Its seeds were already recorded approximately 11 000 cal. BP (Gałka & Sznel 2013). Next, *C. mariscus* appeared. Its seeds and fruits were found in the sediments of the lakes approximately from 9500 cal. BP (Gałka & Tobolski 2012). In this study, the first fruits of *S. lacustris* were found in sediments accumulated approximately 9200 cal. BP at site II. The plants occurred at each of the sites analysed, although they were not always present at the same time.

Development of vegetation from lake to poor fen/bog at site I

Colonisation of the shallow parts of the lake and initiation of the development of a peatland was dominated by Cladium mariscus and Menyanthes trifoliata (Fig. 3). Carex also occurred, including among others, C. pseudocyperus and C. lasiocarpa. These plants formed most of the peat until approximately 4800 cal. BP, when a substantial change occurred. Picea abies appeared in the vicinity of the sediment sampling site, as suggested by its numerous macrofossils (seeds, needles, bud scales). The occurrence of spruce coincided with the disappearance of Cladium mariscus and appearance of Thelypteris palustris, Carex paniculata, and Cirsium palustre. The presence of Thelypteris palustris and Carex paniculata lasted for approximately 200 years. These two species disappeared most likely as a result of a decrease in the water level on the peatland, as evidenced by a decrease in the degree of decomposition of peat and the appearance of fruits of Rubus sp. and Potentilla sp. In N Poland, Thelypteris palustris and Cladium mariscus frequently overgrow shallow lakes, often developing several-centimetre-thick floating mats (Kłosowski 1986/87, Namura-Ochalska 2005, Karcz 2008, Gałka & Tobolski 2012) or belt-like assemblages (Jasnowska & Jasnowski 1991a, Karcz 2008). A peat layer with T. palustris roots as its main component is usually from several (Jasnowska & Jasnowski 1991b, Gałka 2007, Gałka & Tobolski 2013) to approx. 200 cm thick (Forysiak *et al.* 2012). The disappearance of *Cladium mariscus* from site I may have been caused by a shift towards open water, which resulted in a lack of seeds in the sediment at the sampling site. In N Poland, *C. mariscus* is usually encountered on lake shores (Gałka & Tobolski 2006). However, the disappearance or decrease of the *C. mariscus* population at site I could be related to substantial climate cooling that occurred in this part of Europe approximately 4500 cal. BP (Heikkilä & Seppä 2003). *Cladium mariscus* clearly favours warmer climatic conditions, as confirmed by its modern distribution in Latvia (Salmina 2004).

After a period of domination of sedges and Menyanthes trifoliata on the peatland at site I, Sphagnum, Eriophorum vaginatum, and Ericaceae with Andromeda polifolia and Calluna vulgaris appeared. This suggests habitat acidification, which may have resulted from the presence of Picea abies. Numerous Picea abies needles were found in the sediment from that period (Fig. 6). An associaiton between the appearance of P. abies in the vicinity of the peatland and the development of peatlands with Sphagnum was found for the peatlands surrounding Lake Linówek (Gałka et al. 2014). The presence of numerous macroscopic charcoals in the uppermost peat layer is noteworthy, as they provide evidence of repeated fires in the peatland and its vicinity. This fires may have been either of natural origin or initiated by the local tribes (primarily Yotvingians) burning forests to clear land for cultivation. Unfortunately, due to the lack of radiocarbon dates from this part of the core, it is difficult to determine the age of the layer. Nonetheless, cereal cultivation in the area was determined to occur approx. 2300 cal. BP (Gałka et al. 2014).

In the uppermost part of the sediments from site I, *Menyanthes trifoliata*, *Carex paniculata*, *Juncus articulatus*, as well as *Cladium mariscus* appeared. This finding provides evidence of an increase in the trophic status and development of a meso-eutrophic habitat.

Development of vegetation from lake to fen at site I

At site II, with the thinnest peat layer among all

of the sites analysed, the succession of plants from lake to fen was similar to that at site I (Fig. 4). After the infilling of the lake, and even after the decrease in the water level evidenced by numerous Urtica dioica fruits, one Rubus idaeus seed, and several Moehringia trinervia seeds, plants appeared that could grow even in shallow water, i.e., Cladium mariscus and Carex rostrata (Fig. 4). The presence of seeds of Moehringia trinervia suggests that the water level on the peatland surrounding the lake substantially decreased, because that species is typical of humid habitats in deciduous forests or on stream banks. A substantial decrease in the water level is also suggested by the appearance of needles of Picea abies in the sediment. A decrease in habitat humidity on the peatland most likely permitted the growth of Picea abies. In the initial phase of the development of the peatland, Carex paniculata was present. It strongly prefers wet surfaces and often grows on lake shores (Zarzycki et al. 2002, Kłosowski & Kłosowski 2007). In the uppermost part of the peat, macrofossils of Menvanthes trifoliata and Calliergon giganteum were found, which is evidence of increased humidity. An increase in the water level is also suggested by the presence of *Caltha palustris*. Similarly to the two former plants, this species grows even in habitats with standing water (Zarzycki et al. 2002). Due to its quite wide habitat amplitude in terms of pH and humidity, M. trifoliata is not a very precise palaeoecological indicator. However, its presence suggests a humid or even inundated habitat. Menyanthes trifoliata can even grow in the littoral zone of lakes at water depths down to 1 m (Hannon & Gaillard 1997). A better indicator of an increase in habitat humidity in this case is C. giganteum, which primarily prefers very humid surfaces (Smith 2004) and grows even on submerged peatlands (Hölzer & Hölzer 1994, Hedenäs 2003). Calliergon giganteum is often found as subfossils (Gałka & Kasper 2011, Lamentowicz et al. 2013).

Development of vegetation from lake to bog at site III

Vegetation succession at site III (Fig. 5) was the most complex, considering the individual phases of plant succession in the shallow lake and peatland. In this case, similarly to site I, a raised bog developed in place of the eutrophic lake over thousands of years. The development of the ombrotrophic peatland was preceded by the presence of first Hamatocaulis vernicosus and then Pseudocalliergon trifarium, which was the dominant species at the site from approximately 3850 to 3550 cal. BP. Peat from that period did not contain macrofossils of vascular plants. The presence of H. vernicosus suggests a very humid surface and a pH of approximately 6.7-7.2 (Štechová & Kučera 2007). Currently, the species grows on moderately rich fens with local flushes (Hugonnot 2003). In Estonia, H. vernicosus occurs primarily in spring fens and quagmires (Vellak & Ingerpuu 2012). A modern occurrence of H. vernicosus in NE Poland was found in the Rospuda River valley, where it was accompanied by Tomentypnum nitens and Carex diandra (Jabłońska et al. 2011). However, it can also occur at less acidic sites. In the Czech Republic, H. vernicosus grew together with Sphagnum warnstorfii, S. teres, and S. contortum (Hájek et al. 2006, Štechová & Kučera 2007) and also accompanied Sphagnum magellanicum and Andromeda polifolia (Štechová et al. 2010). At a fossil site in NE Poland (peatland Mechacz Wielki), H. vernicosus grew approximately 1800 cal. BP together with Carex rostrata, C. paniculata, Comarum palustre, and Oxycoccus palustris (Gałka et al. 2013d). It disappeared after the expansions of Scheuchzeria palustris and then of Sphagnum obtusum. The fossil presence of H. vernicosus was also determined at the northern shore of Lake Balaton (Hungary) in Late Glacial sediments (Sümegi et al. 2008). At this site, H. vernicosus co-occurred with, among others, Scorpidium scorpioides, Calliergon giganteum, Drepanocladus aduncus, and Tomentypnum nitens.

At site III, *H. vernicosus* disappeared at approximately 3850 cal. BP. This was most likely related to the appearance of *Pseudocalliergon trifarium*. The modern occurrence of *P. trifarium* suggests that the disappearance of *H. vernicosus* could have resulted from a decrease in pH, because *P. trifarium* requires pH values of 5.6–7.6 (Bisang *et al.* 2006). *Pseudocalliergon trifarium* was present in the peatland until approximately 3500 cal. BP.

After that, Meesia longiseta, Oxycoccus palustris, and species of Sphagnum sect. Cuspidata appeared for a short time. Then, S. magellanicum appeared in the peatland (Fig. 6), a species typical of ombrotrophic bogs that grows in habitats with an average pH of 3.8 (Hölzer 2010). The appearance of S. magellanicum was related to a change in the water alimentation of the peatland. Since that time, precipitation alimentation has increased in the vicinity of the site. It is worth emphasising that the rapid colonisation of the habitat by S. magellanicum was also influenced by the presence of Picea abies. The occurrence of *P. abies* in the peatland or on mineral margins in its direct vicinity, as well as the falling of spruce needles, may have helped to acidify the habitat. Sphagnum magellanicum was consistently present at site III for approximately 3000 years. Only the proportion of the plant in some samples changed. The fossil presence of S. magellanicum within the last several thousand years in NE Poland has also been observed at, among other sites, the peatland Kładkowe Bagno (Drzymulska 2008) and the peatland Mechacz Wielki (Żurek & Kloss 2012).

Approximately 2800 cal. BP, Scheuchzeria palustris and Carex rostrata appeared in the peatland for approximately 100 years. These plants grow in wetter habitats (Ellenberg et al. 1991, Zarzycki et al. 2002). This finding suggests an increase in the water level in the peatland at that time. An increase in humidity at a given peatland coincides well with an increase in climatic humidity observed during that time at a number of sites in Europe (van Geel et al. 1996, Barber et al. 2004, Andersson & Schoning 2010, Gałka et al. 2013a). During the presence of S. magellanicum on the peatland, Eriophorum vaginatum also appeared four times. The appearance of E. vaginatum on peatlands suggests instability and fluctuations of the water level (Silvan et al. 2004, Tuittila et al. 2007, Gałka et al. 2013b). Approximately 600 cal. BP., Picea abies appeared on the bog. A rapid dispersal of this species during the same time was also found on the peatland surrounding Lake Linówek (Gałka et al. 2014). The appearance of Picea abies at site III coincides with the presence of numerous Carex echinata fruits in the peat. The sudden and abundant appearance of C. echinata fruits

in the bottom layer of Sphagnum-Eriophorum peat was recorded in S Poland (Dukla Mts, the lowest central part of the Low Beskidy Mts.) by Szczepanek (2001). In that location, however, the appearance of C. echinata coincided with an increase in the contribution of Salix pollen. Currently, in this part of Europe, C. echinata quite frequently grows in marshy coniferous forests with spruce and pine. The appearance of C. echinata in the peatland suggests water level disturbances. Considering an increase in the presence of Sphagnum sect. Cuspidata during the expansion of C. echinata at site III, the water level most likely increased. The disappearance of S. magellanicum at site III and appearance of more eutrophic species such as S. palustre or Potentilla erecta is related to the attempt to meliorate the peatland in the second half of the 20th century. Sphagnum magellanicum currently occurs in the peatland at the southwestern lake shore, although it is not common. The dominant Sphagnum is S. palustre.

Conclusions

The high-resolution palaeobotanical studies conducted in Lake Kojle-Perty suggest that the changes in vegetation and the course of succession in the lake and peatland have largely resulted from regional climate changes. Cooling caused an increase in the abundance of Picea abies in the forests in the vicinity of the lake and the appearance of species related to boreal climate, such as Nuphar pumila, within the lake. The deposition of *P. abies* needles on the surface of the peatland resulted in acidification and a retreat of species that prefer eutrophic habitats, such as Cladium mariscus, as well as the appearance of species preferring acidic habitats, such as Sphagnum magellanicum. Substantial changes in the vegetation of the lake also resulted from changes in the accumulated sediment. I found that the appearance of Potamogeton species in the lake coincided with the beginning of the accumulation of detritus gyttja in place of calcareous gyttja. Note, however, that this change in the accumulated sediment may have been accompanied by a shallowing of the lake, which favoured the appearance of Potamogeton. I

found a certain division in the development of vegetation in Lake Kojle–Perty resulting from the duration of the occurrence of aquatic plants at one site. *Najas marina* and *Nymphaea alba* occurred for the longest times at one site, and the shortest-term residents were species of *Potamogeton*.

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