



The use of biological liquid fertilizers against oak decline associated with *Phytophthora* spp.

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Abstract

Worldwide, multiple ecosystems are currently affected by global change because of important anthropogenic disturbances which have quickly increased levels of abiotic (e.g. climate) and biotic stress (e.g. diseases, pests, herbivory). In particular, oak-dominated systems have experienced a general decline as a consequence of habitat destruction, mismanagement and extreme climate events along with the aggressive root pathogen *Phytophthora* spp. Here, we investigated the effect of soil improvement through soil biological fertilizers on oak defense against tree decline symptoms associated with *Phytophthora* for two ontogenetic stages of oak trees: adults and recruits. We examined oak survival and crown defoliation status on 60 pairs of adult trees (a treated tree with biological fertilizers vs. non-treated tree) as well as the survival, growth and herbivory on 30 quartets of treated and non-treated recruits, with and without protection against large herbivores. We used two different liquid fertilizers: OptiPlus (a biological fertilizer with organic N, P, S, Ca, Mg, trace elements (Fe, Mn, B, Zn) and humic fulvic acids) and OptiFer (a biological trace element fertilizer with only Fe, Mn and Mg). Treated oak trees with fertilizers showed lower oak defoliation (0.33-fold difference) than non-treated trees. In addition, trees treated with OptiPlus liquid showed a significant reduction of crown defoliation compared to those trees that received OptiFer treatment (0.68-fold difference). Interestingly, this crown amelioration was more effective in steep slopes, revealing that OptiPlus may buffer the stress generated by shallower and poorer soils. Overall, fertilized plants (particularly OptiPlus) were more attractive to herbivores, probably as a result of the greater content in deficient minerals, increasing their palatability. This study has slightly visualized the importance of soil improvement against oak decline through biological fertilizers and the need to further explore different times and techniques of application. Managers should be cautious with the use of fertilizers as they may increase the browsing impact of livestock and wild herbivores on tree regeneration. It is therefore imperative to improve the resilience of oak trees against oak decline while minimizing the herbivory impact on oak recruits.

Keywords Biological fertilizers · Tree crown defoliation · Oak regeneration · Herbivory · *Phytophthora cinnamomi* · Soil quality

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Introduction

Worldwide, multiple ecosystems are currently affected by global change, as a consequence of important anthropogenic disturbances (e.g. land-use changes, socio-economic and climate disruption, species introductions; Ellison et al. 2005; Aukema et al. 2010; Metz et al. 2017). Since mid-20th century, these disturbances have quickly modified abiotic (e.g. climate) and biotic factors (e.g. diseases, pests, herbivory) increasing their levels; and consequently, generating new sources of stress for plants (Blondel and Aronson 1999; Underwood et al. 2009; Metz et al. 2017). For instance, water deficit and temperature increase—new sources of abiotic stress strengthened by anthropogenic climate change (Lutz et al. 2010; IPCC 2014), have favored the arrival and spread of emerging diseases and pests (abiotic-biotic interaction of stress sources). These interactions between stress agents have increased the decline and even the mortality of many species in all their life stages (Brasier et al. 1993a; Haavik et al. 2015; Serrano et al. 2017). In addition, unprecedented levels of herbivory have been documented in many systems, mostly due to the increase of wild ungulate populations (Gordon et al. 2004; San Miguel et al. 2010) and the unsuitable rangeland management practices (Pulido et al. 2001; Plieninger et al. 2003; López-Sánchez et al. 2017). Consequently, the structure and functioning of many ecosystems might be compromised if the different biological components do not keep pace with the disturbance cascade (White and Jentsch 2001; Johnstone et al. 2016).

Oaks (*Quercus* spp.) are a dominant tree component across the Northern Hemisphere natural systems, which provide important ecosystem services (Caparrós et al. 2013). However, nowadays, oak-dominated systems are severely affected by increasing sources of stress (e.g. drought, diseases, herbivory). For instance, ‘la seca’, the oak decline due to abiotic-biotic interaction of stress sources (Duque-Lazo et al. 2018), is threatening the oak survival in many oak woodlands (Brasier 1993; Rizzo and Garbelotto 2003; Campos et al. 2013; Jung et al. 2018). Several pathogens including the oomycete *Phytophthora cinnamomi* (soil-borne root pathogen causing the ink disease), are important drivers triggering oak decline (de Sampaio e Paiva Camilo-Alves et al. 2013; Hansen 2015; Ruiz-Gómez et al. 2019) along with habitat destruction, mismanagement and extreme climate events (Branco and Ramos 2012; Duque-Lazo et al. 2018; Gentilesca et al. 2017). The result of oak decline is a strong oak growth reduction and a progressive degradation of canopy foliation and root systems (Haavik et al. 2015). Furthermore, oaks are not natural host-plant robust to *P. cinnamomi* (Serrano et al. 2012a), and most of the oaks affected by *Phytophthora* spp. usually die after their infection (Brasier et al. 1993b; de Sampaio e Paiva Camilo-Alves et al. 2013; Haavik et al. 2015). On the other hand, the increased herbivory pressure on oaks, especially over young plants, is considered an important driver of the current regeneration failure in most oak woodlands worldwide (Pulido and Díaz 2005; Tyler et al. 2006). Previous research has shown that high densities of ungulates (wild or domestic) trigger severe problems on plant regeneration (Côté et al. 2014; López-Sánchez et al. 2016; Charro et al. 2018). In addition, drier conditions exacerbate the herbivory intensity on oaks, especially on oak regeneration (Zamora et al. 2001; López-Sánchez et al. 2019). The stressing effect of herbivory could produce instability on the performance and development of plants during their growth (Møller and Shykoff 1999; Nolte 2003). In some cases, repeated herbivory on plants may even cause their death (Nolte and Dykzeul 2000; López-Sánchez et al. 2014; Perea and Gil 2014).

Applied research is, therefore, critical in order to find solutions that minimize the effects of these new sources of stress. Some researchers have found temporal solutions (e.g. soil

fertilizers, cultural actions) to refrain oak decline affection due to *Phytophthora* spp. (Serrano et al. 2012b, 2017). For instance, elevating calcium content in soil has been proved to suppress chlamydospore viability of pathogenic oomycetes (Broadbent and Baker 1974; Duvenhage et al. 1992; Heyman et al. 2007; Serrano et al. 2012b, 2017). Cultural actions such as keeping a correct soil drainage, maintaining an appropriate livestock stocking rate, or limiting soil tillage and movements from vehicles or livestock have demonstrated to reduce the *Phytophthora* spread (Fernández et al. 2008; Serrano et al. 2017). Fungicides for *Phytophthora*, in contrast, were found not effective in *Q. ilex* population (Navarro et al. 2009); however, biofumigation (e.g. on *Brassica* species) has shown to inhibit effectively mycelial growth of *P. cinnamomi* (Dunne et al. 2003; Ríos et al. 2016; Serrano et al. 2017).

In addition, fertilizers, in general, contains important deficient minerals for both plants and animals (Gambín et al. 2017). Thus, fertilizations increase the palatability of plants for the main herbivores as a result of the increased nutrient content of the fertilized plants (Oh et al. 1970; Burney and Jacobs 2013). In general, ungulates selectively browse plants with higher contents of protein and energy (i.e., carbohydrates) and avoid plant with higher contents of toxins (Provenza et al. 2003). Thus, highly palatable plants are intensively browsed, sometimes threatening their conservation (Miranda et al. 2011; Fernández-Olalla et al. 2016). Consequently, it is important to find solutions to improve the resilience of oaks against oak decline that minimize the herbivory impact on oaks, in particular on oak regeneration as it is a preferred browse in many systems (Perea et al. 2014, 2020).

In this study, we investigate the effect of soil improvement through soil biological fertilizers on oak defense against decline symptoms for two ontogenetic stages of oak trees: adults and oak recruits. We specifically hypothesized that: H1) oak tree survival and health (crown defoliation status) will increase after the application of the biological liquid fertilizers; H2) survival and growth of oak recruits will also increase after the fertilizer application; and H3) treated oak recruits will be more heavily browsed than control recruits as a result of the increased nutrient content of the fertilized plants. We tested these hypotheses in Mediterranean oak woodlands of Spain, which are recognized for their ecological, socioeconomic and cultural importance (Plieninger and Wilbrand 2001; Dagit et al. 2015; López-Sánchez 2015). Hence, the final aim of this study was to search for applied measures that invigorate trees and recruits, allowing them to better resist oak decline virulence and other threatening drivers; and thus enhance the conservation of these valuable ecosystems.

Materials and methods

Study area

The study was conducted over a year (November 2018–October 2019) in a traditionally managed scattered oak system. The “Dehesa de San Francisco” (515 ha) is located in Huelva province (Spain) in the Southwest of the Iberian Peninsula (37°52′ N, 6°14′ W; 352–528 m a.s.l; Fig. 1) and has a strong slope variability (10–80%; being 20–35% the most frequent slopes). The climate is Mediterranean pluviseasonal oceanic, with hot and dry summers. Mean annual temperature is 17.2 °C and mean annual rainfall is 677.1 mm (n=21 years; weather station IQ102 “Santa Olalla de Cala” 37° 54′ N, 6° 13′ W), concentrated in winter months and with strong interannual variability (5.43–128 mm/month). Annual rainfall of the study year was 326.5 mm. Parent material of soil formation at the research area is schist. Due to the strongly dissected topography, some soil material has

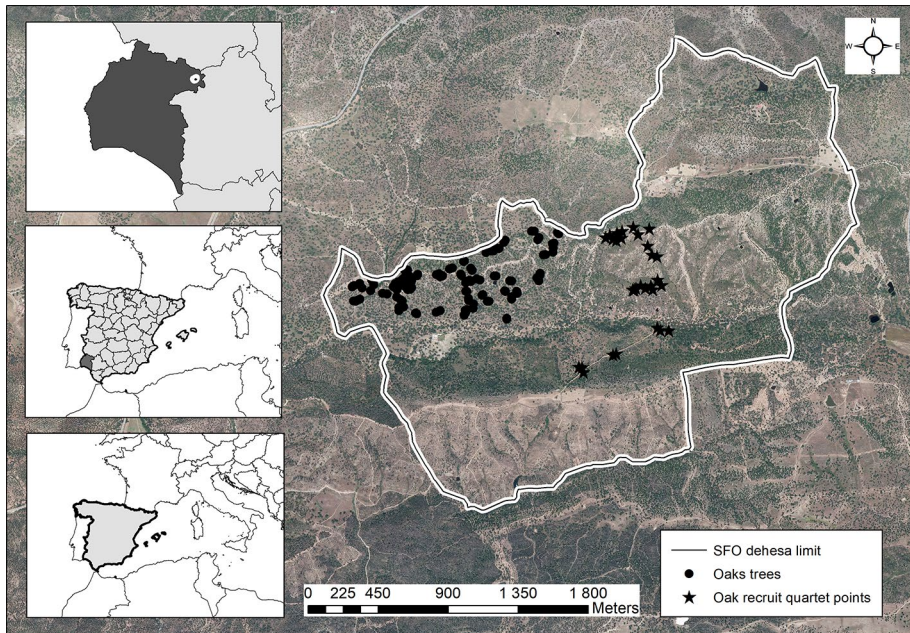


Fig. 1 Map of study area location, and the oak adult and oak recruit quartet location

moved down the slopes and is forming colluvic material (IUSS 2014) at the footslopes. Predominantly, continuous rock (schist) starts ≤ 25 cm from the soil surface. Hence, these soils belong to the Reference Soil Group (RSG) of Leptosols (IUSS 2014).

The tree layer is co-dominated by holm oak (*Quercus ilex* subsp. *ballota* (Desf.) Samp.) and cork oak (*Quercus suber* L.), locally interspersed with gall oaks (*Q. faginea* subsp. *broteroi* Cout. A.Camus). Mean tree density is around 82 trees ha^{-1} . The shrub layer is low and dominated by evergreen xerophytes (e.g. *Cistus salviifolius* L., *Cistus ladanifer* L., *Lavandula stoechas* Lam., and *Genista hirsuta* Vahl). The herbaceous layer mainly comprises therophytic oligotrophic communities (*Tuberarietalia guttatae*) and sub-nitrophilous Mediterranean annual communities (*Thero-Brometalia*); see Rivas-Martínez et al. (2001). Grasslands belonging to the *Poetea bulbosae* community are also common; they are promoted by intense and continuous livestock grazing and dominated by small perennial grasses and nutritious forbs (Rivas-Martínez et al. 2001).

A traditional rotational grazing system with typical dehesa livestock species (cattle, sheep, goats, and Iberian pigs) has been re-established from 2004 onwards, and the farm has been subjected to organic farming since then. The cattle breeds “Retinta”, “Berrenda en rojo”, “Berrenda en negro”, and “Limousin” are kept year-round on the farm with stocking rates of 0.042 LU ha^{-1} . Sheep (mainly the breed “Merina”) are kept with stocking rates of 0.104 LU ha^{-1} , while goats have stocking rates of 0.004 LU ha^{-1} . The pig breed is “Ibérica” with stocking rates of 0.090 LU ha^{-1} . In addition, wildlife such as red deer (*Cervus elaphus* L.), fallow deer (*Dama dama* L.) and wild boar (*Sus scrofa* L.) are present on the farm with overall densities of ca. 0.081 LU ha^{-1} .

Our study area is located in Andalusia region, in which, since mid-20th century, oaks have exhibited stress that usually ends up dying and it is usually associated with *P. cinnamomi* (Sánchez et al. 2002; Duque-Lazo et al. 2018). The study area is severely affected

by ‘Seca’ (25% of Dehesa, owners, pers. comm; Fig. S1). Several pathogens including *Phytophthora cinnamomi* and *P. andina* are present in the soil which are severely affecting oak trees in the study area (Sapp et al. 2019).

Description of the products

We used two different liquid products: OptiPlus and OptiFer (Optima-Werker Biologische Produkte für Haus und Garten, Münchenstein, Switzerland). OptiFer is a biological trace element fertilizer that contains 6% Fe, 1.5% Mn, 1.5% Mg and the remainder is water. The trace elements are extracted from the bark of trees with *Tsuga canadensis* as the main source. Their effect is to produce the symbiosis between plants and soil organisms through roots. Soil organisms transfer trace elements into the hair roots of the trees. OptiPlus is a biological humic fertilizer that contains 0.8% N organic, 0.3% P, 0.2% P organic, 0.5% S, 1% Ca, 0.18% Mg, 0.3% trace elements (Fe, Mn, B, Zn), 4.5% organic substance, 20% humic fulvic acids, and the remainder is water. Humic substance is an effective nutritional fertilizer without NPK, which is immediately receptive to the plants. Trace elements of both fertilizers travel from roots until leaves boosting chlorophyll formation. In addition, this trace element enrichment help to expand cell walls of the leaves increasing the sunscreen. The effects of “thicker” leaves is the resistance to pests and aggressiveness of destructive fungi of all kinds (Jones and Dangl 2006; Yang et al. 2018).

Data collection

Oak trees

In November 2018, we selected 120 adult holm oaks (*Q. ilex*) in a site (107 ha) severely affected by oak decline (Fig. 1; Fig. S1) where *Phytophthora cinnamomi* was recorded (Sapp et al. 2019). Within the site, we selected trees in pairs (approximately 5–20 m between trees). Each pair comprised two holm oak trees with very similar size (similar diameter at breast height, dbh at 130 cm high), ecological conditions (distributed on the same hillside following a slope gradient), and crown damage. Only trees clearly affected (> 10% crown defoliation) were selected for the experiment to ensure that damage is not only due to possible insect defoliation, which typically affect < 10% of the crown biomass. In addition, we avoided pairs with more than 90% crown defoliation since they are almost dead.

One of the trees within each pair received a liquid treatment and the other was the control. We applied the product in a season without drought (November 2018). Thus, we assure that improvement of tree condition is due to product and not due to the “needed” water contribution. A total of 60 trees received treatment by watering gently 100 L (30% product + 70% water) of mix on the base of the trunk from the uphill side of the tree to avoid liquid losses as less as possible. Thirty trees received OptiPlus liquid, 30 trees received OptiFer liquid and 60 acted as control.

Over the study year, in each tree, we measured the following variables twice (before and after liquid product application): dbh (diameter at breast height), total crown diameters, life crown diameters and crown defoliation. Total crown diameters are those that include all branches, both foliated and completely defoliated. For each tree, we measured the longest total crown diameter (d_1) and its perpendicular (d_2), and calculated the total crown area. We also measured life crown diameters, which are those that include only foliated branches,

and calculated the life crown area. We obtained the variable crown area loss as the percentage of life crown area in relation to the total crown area. Crown defoliation was standardized by estimating the percentage of crown defoliation in comparison with a fully foliated (healthy) reference tree of the same species (Müller and Stierlin 1990). Physiographical variables were also collected for each tree (e.g. slope, aspect) using satellite images.

We, then, calculated the difference of crown defoliation and crown area loss between the two visits (November 2018 and October 2019), obtaining crown defoliation rate and the crown area loss rate (response variables).

Oak recruits

In November 2018, we selected 120 oak recruits ($\text{dbh} < 5 \text{ cm}$) grouped in quartets (total: 30 quartets) of two different oak species—holm and cork oak (*Q. ilex* and *Q. suber*, respectively)—in a site (30 ha) where *Phytophthora cinnamomi* is widespread (Sapp et al. 2019; Fig. 1). Each quartet (approximately $25\text{--}100 \text{ m}^2$) contained four oak recruits of the same species and with very similar size (basal diameter and crown), ecological conditions (distributed on the same hillside and fairly close to each other, 4–10 m for most recruits), and crown damage. However, most of the oak recruits did not have any apparent damage; thus, we selected all of them with similar defoliation (mostly light damage; 10–30% defoliation due to the lack of oak recruits with heavier damage). When light-damaged recruits were rare, we used healthy recruits to analyze the effect of the product in preventing future possible damage since *Phytophthora* spp. is present in the study area (Sapp et al. 2019). A total of 60 recruits received OptiPlus treatment by watering gently 50 L (30% product + 70% water) of mix on the base of the recruit from the uphill side of the tree to avoid liquid losses as less as possible. The other 60 recruits acted as control. In addition, 60 recruits (one treated and one control per quadrat) were protected against ungulates with wire cages (2 m high) and the rest of 60 recruits were not protected. Control recruits were always located uphill of the treated recruits to avoid product invasion.

Over the study year, for each oak recruit, we measured the following variables twice (before and after liquid product application): basal diameter, plant height and plant crown diameters. For crown diameters, we measured the longest total crown diameter of each recruit (d_1) and its perpendicular (d_2). We also recorded ungulate herbivory damage. For that, we selected ten top twigs of the recruit and marked those browsed by herbivores obtaining a damage percentage which might be categorized following Perea et al. (2015). We, then, calculated the difference of plant size (recruit height and crown area) and herbivory between two visits (November 2018 and October 2019) obtaining plant survival, plant height rate (hereafter growth rate), recruit crown area rate and herbivory rate (response variables).

Data analysis

We developed several maximal Generalized Linear Mixed Models -GLMMs- (Venables and Ripley 2002) to analyze the data. The maximal models (containing all predictors) are summarized in Table 1. Box–Cox transformations (Box and Cox 1964) were applied when needed in order to calculate the lambda transformation that maximizes the likelihood. Thus, some of the response variables were fitted to Gamma and Binomial error distribution with their corresponding power lambda link function (Table 1). When monotonic transformations were not necessary, the response variables were fitted to Gaussian error

Table 1 Summary of maximal Generalized Linear Mixed Models performed for data analysis in this study

Layer	Model	Response variable	Fixed effect ^a	Random effect	Error distribution (power lambda link function) ^b	Sample size (n)
Oak trees	I	Crown defoliation rate	T×S+T×A	1IPair	Gamma (0)	120
	II	Crown defoliation rate	P×S+P×A	1IPair	Gamma (0)	120
	III	Crown area loss rate	T×S+T×A	1IPair	Gaussian (1)	120
	IV	Crown area loss rate	P×S+P×A	1IPair	Gaussian (1)	120
Oak recruits	V	Oak survival	T×Sp+T×Pr	1IQuartet	Binomial ()	120
	VI	Herbivory rate	T×Sp+T×Pr	1IQuartet	Gamma (−0.263)	120
	VII	Plant growth rate	T×Sp	1IQuartet	Gamma (0.250)	60
	VIII	Recruit crown area rate	T×Sp	1IQuartet	Gamma (−0.101)	60

^aOak trees = T: Treatment (control vs. treated); P: Product used in the treatment (control, OptiPlus vs. OptiFer); S: Slope; A: Aspect

Oak recruits = T: Treatment (control vs. OptiPlus); Sp: Species (cork oak vs. holm oak); Pr: Protection (fenced vs. non-fenced)

^bPower lambda link function [$g(\mu) = \mu^\lambda$] is the lambda (λ , numeric value inside the brackets) used for the monotonic transformations

distribution with identity function. For all models, the analyses included each “plot” (tree pair or recruit quartet) as the random effects structure (Table 1).

We used the model averaging approach (Burnham and Anderson 2002). We first fitted the maximal model, containing all predictors. Then, we ranked through AIC weights all possible models derived from the maximal model by using the “dredge” function within the “MuMIn” package of R and selected those with the highest AIC weight (hereafter top models) which had $\Delta AIC < 2$ (Burnham and Anderson 2002). Finally, we obtained the model-averaged coefficients of top models as well as the relative importance of each predictor (from 0 to 1) by using the “model.avg” function of “MuMIn” (Burnham and Anderson 2002).

Data processing and statistics were performed using R 3.6.0 (R Development Core Team 2019) with the modules “lme4” (Bates et al. 2015), “car” (Fox and Weisberg 2011), “MuMIn” (Barton 2015).

Results

Oak trees

Only one adult oak tree died over the study period. We found differences in crown defoliation rate (models I and II) depending on treatment (control vs. treated) and type of product (Table 2). Control trees (without treatment) had higher crown defoliation rate than those treated trees with liquid product (3.01-fold difference; Fig. 2i). In addition, trees treated with OptiPlus liquid showed a significant reduction of crown defoliation rate compared to those trees that received OptiFer liquid product (0.68-fold difference; Fig. 2ii).

On the other hand, we only detected significant differences in crown area loss rate (models III and IV) depending on treatment and type of product when interacting with slope (Table 2). In the case of low slope (0° – 10°), we did not find any significant differences in crown area loss rate among treated and control trees (Fig. 3). However, as the slope increased, the crown area loss rate also increased for controls whereas, for treated trees, the soil liquid treatment applied reduced the stress generated by the slope increase (Fig. 3). We did not find any significant differences for trees treated with OptiFer liquid product interacting with slope because most of trees that received OptiFer liquid treatment had similar slope (0 to 10 degrees; Fig. 4).

Oak recruits

The survival of young oaks was very high (97%). Hence, we did not find significant differences in survival depending on product type ($z=0.004$, $P=0.997$), species ($z=0.004$, $P=0.997$), or herbivore protection ($z=1.060$, $P=0.284$).

We found that holm oaks showed in general less herbivory than cork oaks (0.81-fold difference; Table 3, Fig. 5i); however, herbivory was higher on holm oaks when OptiPlus was applied on recruits (7.94-fold difference compare to controls) than for cork oaks treated with OptiPlus (1.23-fold difference compare to controls; Fig. 5i). We did not find significant differences in plant herbivory rate (model VI) depending on product itself (Table 3). In addition, for protected oaks, herbivory levels increased for OptiPlus treated-oaks compared to controls (7.94 fold difference), but they still had lower herbivory damage than non-protected oaks (0.27-fold difference; Fig. 5ii).

Table 2 Summary of the top linear mixed models ($\Delta AIC < 2$) to analyze the crown defoliation rate (I and II models) and crown area loss rate (III and IV models) depending on treatment and product (covariates: slope and aspect are also included)

Model	Fixed effects	Importance	Levels	Coeff.	SE	z-value	P
I	Intercept			0.694	0.270	2.543	0.011
	Treatment (T)	1.00	Liquid	− 1.049	0.191	5.443	<0.001
	Slope (S)	0.41	Slope	0.116	0.145	0.791	0.429
	Aspect (A)	0.55	Aspect	0.226	0.175	1.280	0.201
	T × S	0.18	T _{Liquid} × S	− 0.159	0.204	0.772	0.440
II	Intercept			0.729	0.268	2.687	0.007
	Product (P)	1.00	OptiFer	− 0.656	0.232	2.800	0.005
			OptiPlus	− 1.647	0.289	5.640	<0.001
	Slope (S)	0.43		0.173	0.159	1.077	0.282
	Aspect (A)	0.45		0.106	0.140	0.752	0.452
III	Intercept			35.276	4.707	7.397	<0.001
	Treatment (T)	0.87	Liquid	7.015	6.983	0.994	0.320
	Slope (S)	0.66	Slope	0.631	0.333	1.855	0.064
	T × S	0.51	T _{Liquid} × S	− 1.107	0.509	2.129	0.033
IV	Intercept			34.132	4.010	8.512	<0.001
	Product (P)	1.00	OptiFer	8.388	6.564	1.278	0.207
			OptiPlus	13.742	7.912	1.737	0.088
	Slope (S)	0.82	Slope	0.568	0.322	1.763	0.084
	P × S	0.75	P _{OptiFer} × S	− 0.449	0.612	− 0.734	0.466
			P _{OptiPlus} × S	− 1.818	0.713	− 2.549	0.014

Importance: Importance of predictor variable in the model averaging. Results from Treatment and Product type are against control trees

We did not find any significant differences in plant size (growth rate -model VII- and crown area rate -model VIII-) depending on product or species (Table 3). However, holm oak recruits showed marginally lower growth rates compared to cork oak recruits ($P=0.071$; Table 3).

Discussion

Our results highlight that both increasing sources of stress (*Phytophthora* and herbivory) which are affecting many oak woodlands worldwide, are widespread in the study area but apparently affect ontogenic stages differently, with adults being mostly associated with *Phytophthora* symptoms and the recruitment mainly affected by high levels of ungulate herbivory. Here, we proved the efficacy of some biological fertilizers in reducing the oak decline symptoms under certain conditions (hypotheses H1 and H2) although it may increase the damage by other sources of stress such as herbivory on young plants (H3).

Previous research has shown that soil fertilizers might be a possible solution to eradicate or significantly reduce the oak decline effects (Serrano et al. 2012b, 2017); however, further research is really needed in this regard. Our results have shown that biological fertilizers may improve soil conditions and reduce oak decline (H1). Furthermore, over the

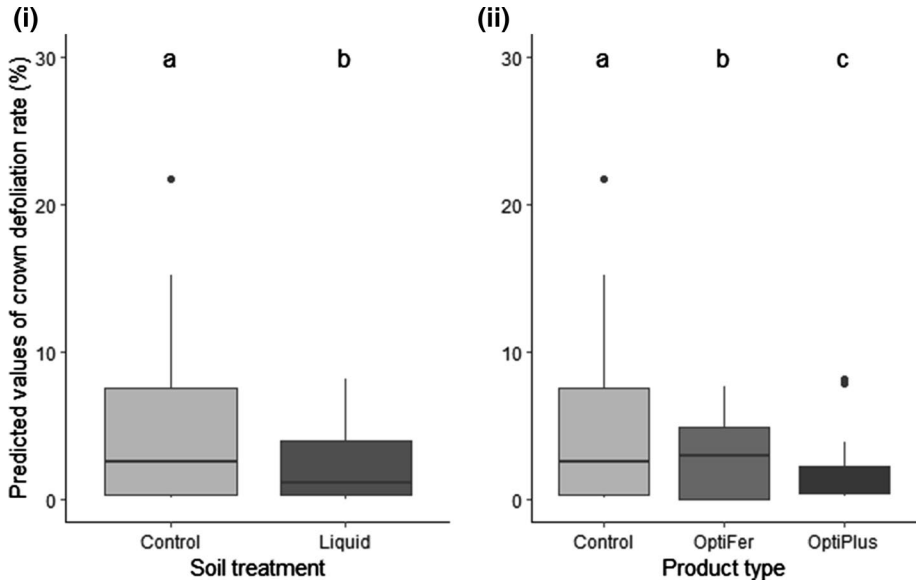


Fig. 2 Predicted values of crown defoliation rate (%) depending on (i) treatment and (ii) liquid product (N = 120 trees). Control = trees within each pair that received no liquid treatment, Liquid = trees within each pair that received liquid treatment. OptiFer = trees that received OptiFer liquid treatment, OptiPlus = trees that received OptiPlus liquid treatment. Different letter above the boxes indicate significant differences ($P < 0.05$)

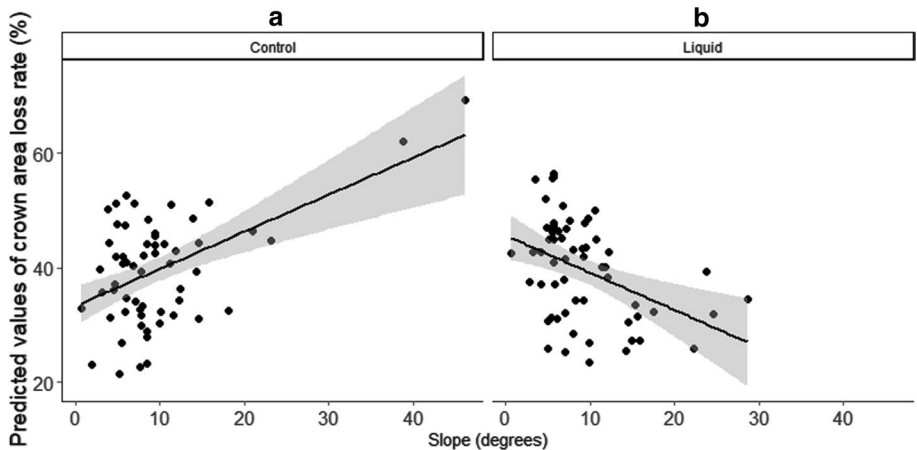


Fig. 3 Predicted values of crown area loss rate (%) depending on treatment-slope interaction (N = 120 trees). In legend, Control = trees within each pair that received no liquid treatment, Liquid = trees within each pair that received a liquid treatment. Different letter above the graphs indicate significant differences ($P < 0.05$)

following decades, both sources of stress are expected to increase within oak-dominated systems due to current global change (Gordon et al. 2004; Peñuelas et al. 2004; IPCC 2007; Collins et al. 2013; Serrano et al. 2017), and therefore new effective practices are needed.

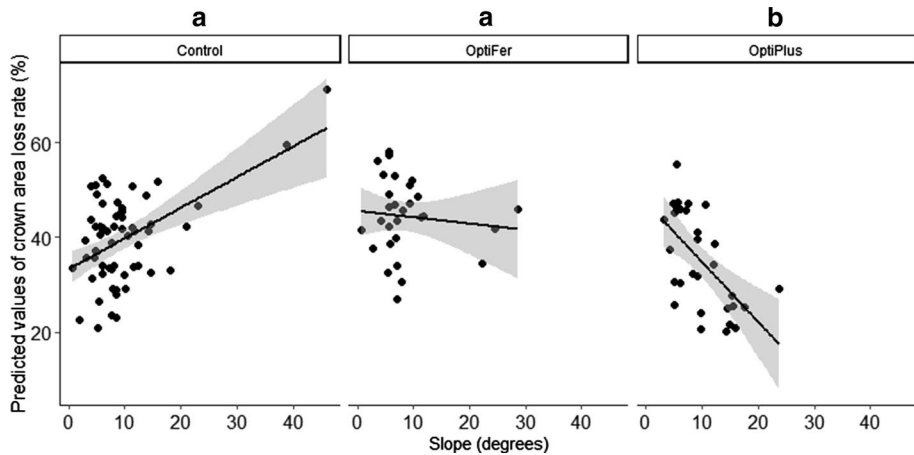


Fig. 4 Predicted values of crown area loss rate (%) depending on product-slope interaction (N = 120 trees). In legend, Control = trees within each pair received no liquid treatment, OptiFer = trees within each pair that received OptiFer liquid treatment, OptiPlus = trees within each pair that received OptiPlus. Different letter above the graphs indicate significant differences ($P < 0.05$)

Table 3 Summary of the top linear mixed models ($\Delta\text{AIC} < 2$) to analyze plant herbivory rate (VI models), plant growth rate (VII models) and recruit crown area rate (VIII models) depending on product, oak species and protection

Model	Fixed effects	Importance	Levels	Coeff.	SE	z-value	P
VI	Intercept			0.028	0.533	0.053	0.958
	Product (P)	1.00	OptiPlus	-0.614	0.578	-1.063	0.288
	Species (S)	0.97	Holm Oak	-1.561	0.714	-2.185	0.029
	Protection (Pr)	1.00	Protected	-2.559	0.488	-5.241	<0.001
	P × S	0.96	OptiPlus × HolmOak	2.421	0.694	3.488	<0.001
	P × Pr	0.99	OptiPlus × Protected	1.562	0.654	2.389	0.017
VII	Intercept			2.101	0.155	13.260	<0.001
	Product (P)	0.40	OptiPlus	0.182	0.215	0.828	0.408
	Species (S)	0.64	Holm Oak	-0.398	0.215	1.807	0.071
VIII	Intercept			1.340	0.140	9.388	<0.001
	Product (P)	0.33	OptiPlus	0.023	0.042	0.540	0.589
	Species (S)	0.37	Holm Oak	0.225	0.265	0.832	0.405

Importance: Importance of predictor variable in the model averaging

Bold type indicates statistical significance ($P < 0.05$)

Results from Product type are against control plants, results for species refer to holm oak against cork oak and results for protection refer to protected plants against non-protected plants

Adult oak trees

One of the visible symptoms of oak decline is the accelerated progressive defoliation (Duque-Lazo et al. 2018; Jung et al. 2018). In this study, we have used two variables to identify the oak decline symptoms in canopies of adult oaks: crown defoliation rate

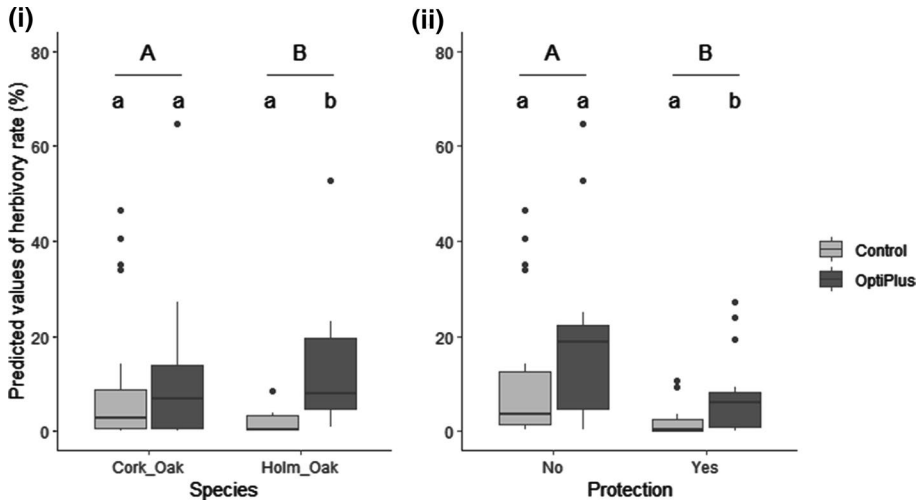


Fig. 5 Predicted values of herbivory rate (%) depending on (i) product-species interaction, and (ii) product-protection interaction ($N=120$ recruits). In legend, Control=recruits that received no liquid treatment, OptiPlus=recruits that received OptiPlus treatment. Different letter above the boxes indicate significant differences ($P<0.05$)

and crown area loss rate. An important issue reported by previous research is that the massive crown defoliation is not only linked to an oomycete presence (e.g. *Phytophthora* spp.); but also to other environmental factors (de Sampaio e Paiva Camilo-Alves et al. 2013). For example, soil characteristics (in particular soil drainage and pH) and water deficit are important drivers of canopy decline (Jung et al. 2018; Sapp et al. 2019). Therefore, the improvement of soil properties through biological fertilizers might be one of the keys to increase oak resilience against *Phytophthora* associated to oak decline. We found a positive effect of OptiPlus product as a soil treatment reducing canopy defoliation; however, for crown area loss rate variable, this amelioration was only effective in steep slopes. Thus, OptiPlus treatment seemed to buffer the stress generated by an increasing slope, which, in turn, causes shallower and less fertile soils as found in the study area (leptosols) and reduce the water drainage due to higher run-off. Well-drained soils, with sandy to sandy-loamy texture, and acidic ($pH<4$) are known to reduce the probability of *Phytophthora* spp. presence (Jung et al. 2000). Therefore, in this study, biological fertilizer such as OptiPlus has increased health status of treated oak trees as we expected (H1).

Regarding OptiFer product, we found a significant positive effect on reducing crown defoliation but it was less effective than OptiPlus since OptiFer is a poorer fertilizer, with only three main elements (Fe, Mn, Mg). In contrast, OptiPlus contains greater amount of important deficient minerals [organic N, P, organic P, S, Ca, Mg, and trace elements (Fe, Mn, B, Zn)]. OptiPlus also contains 20% humic fulvic acids, which are important plant-growth stimulators improving nutrient uptake (Kelting 1997; Nikbakht et al. 2008). Particularly, humic concentrations stimulate root development (Kelting et al. 1998), including urban oak trees (Ferrini and Nicese 2002), which may explain a positive response of adult oaks to *Phytophthora*-associated symptoms.

Oak recruits

At oak regeneration level, our results, in general, showed no oak decline symptoms despite they are located in an area severely affected by *Phytophthora* spp. (Sapp et al. 2019). The regeneration was less prone than adult trees to oak decline as it has been also documented in other evergreen Mediterranean *Quercus* affected by *P. ramorum* (Rizzo and Garbelotto 2003; Swiecki and Bernhardt 2006). However, other studies have shown a high susceptibility of holm and cork oak young seedlings to *P. cinnamomi* (Rodríguez-Molina et al. 2002). Therefore, in this study, biological fertilizer (OptiPlus) has not increased growth of treated oak recruits as we expected (H2). For herbivory rate, as expected, we found that wire protectors strongly reduced herbivory on recruits. Many previous studies have reported a herbivory reduction on oak seedlings protected with wire cages (Kochenderfer and Ford 2008; Blossey et al. 2019; López-Sánchez et al. 2019). Importantly, protected recruits that received OptiPlus treatment were more heavily browsed than those protected plants without any treatment. Thus, overall, the fertilized plants were more attractive to herbivores, probably as a result of the greater content in deficient minerals, increasing their palatability (Gambín et al. 2017). Therefore, in this study, treated oak recruits with biological fertilizers (e.g. OptiPlus) have been more heavily browsed as we expected (H3). Hence, it will be necessary to reduce ungulate densities in those areas fertilized in order to reduce herbivory pressure in those treated areas with biological fertilizers. In addition, we found less herbivory damage on holm oaks (*Q. ilex*) than on cork oaks (*Q. suber*) in line with previous research (Bugalho and Milne 2003), which indicates that some species might be more sensitive than others to herbivory damage after treatment.

Recommendations for further research

On the one hand, an important idea pointed out by previous research as well as by this study, is to find adequate tools to improve soil properties (e.g. better management, reduction of soil water deficit and increase in fertility) that minimize oak decline symptoms. On the other hand, herbivory pressure (biotic stress) is expected to increase in the coming decades if the oak-dominated systems are managed inadequately. Therefore further studies should be conducted to analyse the interaction between herbivory and the efficacy of biological fertilizers applied in the soil. In particular, it might be interesting to analyze the application of these products under different types of management (e.g. different ungulate species and densities) and develop soil analysis to examine the possible changes in soil composition (including mycorrhizal communities) after the application of biological fertilizers. In our study area, the general stocking rate was adequate (<0.1 LU ha⁻¹) when compared to other unsustainable systems (López-Sánchez et al. 2016). Adequate grazing management may be a possible tool to improve soil properties along with the application of soil treatments. Soil treatment per se might not work in overgrazed systems as soil compaction may strongly decrease the efficacy of nutrient absorption by the plants (Kozłowski 1999).

Furthermore, the study period was very short; hence, further studies are needed to properly analyze the long-term effects and the mechanisms behind this positive response of trees to fertilizer addition. Hence, we strongly suggest extending the experiment for several years, with multiple times of product application per year (e.g. one in spring and one in autumn) to avoid liquid losses over time and to reinforce the positive effects observed in this preliminary short-term experiment. We also expect that the time of

application (e.g. summer vs. winter) will have a significant effect on the response of trees to defoliation as water content and soil compaction strongly vary with time in Mediterranean ungulate-dominated systems.

Finally, it is important to choose the right fertilizer according to soil conditions; especially in poor soils. For example, we found that the fertilizer OptiFer, which contained fewer nutrients and minerals did not apparently cause any significant effect on reducing adult tree defoliation. Therefore, more complete fertilizers, containing a greater variety of deficient nutrients and humic fluid acids might be more effective, particularly in poor soils.

Implications for management under greater levels of stress

The management intensification exerted in some oak woodlands over the last decades (Pulido et al. 2001; Plieninger et al. 2011; López-Sánchez et al. 2017) contributes to raise the intensity of abiotic and biotic stress agents, particularly through increased herbivory, soil compaction and pathogen dispersal (Fernández-Rebollo et al. 2009; Metz et al. 2017). Therefore, we strongly recommend avoiding high ungulate densities, particularly in the areas treated with fertilizers to ensure low browsing damage on the fertilized plants. In addition, previous research has suggested cultural actions such as live-stock movements to reduce the herbivory pressure in the same areas (Carmona et al. 2013; López-Sánchez et al. 2016; Perea et al. 2016) but with caution in those areas infected by *Phytophthora* spp. (Fernández et al. 2008; Serrano et al. 2017). Here, we applied the fertilizer manually but further studies should consider mechanical fertilization with appropriate machinery around the oaks, ensuring that the deep oak roots reach the nutrients added to the soil. In doing so, early fall seems a suitable time for fertilization, when soil moisture is medium in most Mediterranean systems and when other cultural actions are typically conducted. This practice might be implemented just before acorn drop in areas where acorns are used to feed the domestic or wild ungulates (Fernández-Rebollo et al. 2009).

In sum, the results of this study have slightly visualized the efficacy of some biological fertilizers in reducing *Phytophthora*-associated symptoms and the possibility and need to explore in depth this research line, especially the interaction between herbivory and the efficacy (pros and cons) of using biological fertilizers on oak recruits. Further research efforts should be done not only for conservation and restoration of Mediterranean oak woodlands but also to make them more resilient against global change which is triggering an increase of stress levels.

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Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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