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      Exploiting jasmonate-induced responses for field protection of conifer seedlings against
 2
      a major forest pest, Hylobius abietis
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      Running title: Jasmonate-induced defence against a forest pest
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      Supplemental material
              Appendix A. Details of methyl jasmonate treatments and field trials, including
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24
              photographs of the experimental sites and the treated seedlings. (Table A1, Figure
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              A1-A2).
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              Appendix B. Supplementary results: Specific contrasts testing the effect of single and
27
              double application of 25 mM methyl jasmonate. (Table B1).
              Appendix C. Supplementary results: Effect of methyl jasmonate treatments on
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              chemical defences in the needles, on seedling growth at different times and on weevil
              damage during the second growing season. (Figure C1-C4).
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              Appendix D. Supplementary results: Relationships between chemical defences and
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              weevil damage at field (Figure D1).
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34 Abstract

35 Herbivore damage commonly initiates an increased synthesis of chemical defensive 36 compounds in attacked plants. Such induced defences are a vital part of plant defence 37 systems, but when herbivore pressure is high, as frequently occurs in man-made ecosystems 38 such as agricultural and forest plantations, plants may suffer considerable damage before 39 adequate induced defences build up. To prepare the plants for such conditions their induced 40 defence may be artificially triggered by the exogenous application of different phytohormones involved in damage signalling. This method is already employed in 41 42 agriculture but within forestry systems it has so far been restricted to promising laboratory 43 results. The pine weevil, *Hylobius abietis*, causes damage by feeding on the bark of young 44 conifer plants and it is one of the main threats to successful regeneration in the Palaearctic region. Here we present results from a large scale field experiment where we triggered the 45 46 induced defences of conifer seedlings using exogenous application of the chemical elicitor 47 methyl jasmonate. To enhance the generality of the results different species were planted 48 under extremely different environmental conditions; Maritime pine and Monterrey pine in 49 Spain, and Scots pine and Norway spruce in Sweden. Weevil damage, chemical defences, 50 and seedling growth were studied during the two growing periods following planting. In 51 general, treated plants showed increased quantitative defences, and were less attacked, less 52 wounded, less girdled and showed lower mortality rates than their untreated counterparts. 53 Effects were mostly dose dependent, although some interactive effects with tree species were 54 observed. The treatment initially caused a growth reduction but it was later compensated by 55 the benefit, in terms of growth, of being less damaged. The measures that are currently taken 56 to protect forest plantations against this harmful pest all around Europe have enormous 57 economic costs and cause important environmental hazards. Elicitation of inducible defences 58 in seedlings in the nursery appears to be an attractive alternative to these measures. To our 59 knowledge, this is the first field study that explores the applicability of chemical elicitors of 60 induced defences as a way to protect forest plantations against biotic threats. 61 62 Keywords conifer seedlings; forest regeneration; growth costs; Hylobius abietis; induced 63 defence; methyl jasmonate (MJ); Picea abies; pine weevil; Pinus pinaster; Pinus radiata; Pinus sylvestris; priming; reforestation; seedling protection. 64 65

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68 Highlights

- 69 > Methyl jasmonate emerges as an attractive alternative to protect conifers against *H. abietis*
- 70 > MeJa treated seedlings were less attacked, less wounded, and showed higher survival
- 71 > Protection was long-lasting and remained effective during two growing seasons
- 72 > Results were consistent across species and environmental conditions
- 73 > Initial growth reductions were largely compensated by growth benefits due to reduced
- 74 damage

75 1. Introduction

76 In common with most plants, conifers defend against herbivores with a combination of 77 physical and chemical mechanisms. Some defences are permanently expressed, irrespective 78 of whether the plants are actually suffering damage (constitutive defences), while others are 79 enhanced after the recognition of damage (induced defences) (Franceschi et al., 2005; Eyles 80 et al., 2010). Induced defences are assumed to have evolved as a cost saving strategy in 81 which the costs of producing resistance mechanisms are only incurred when defences are 82 actually needed, i.e., after the damage or the risk of damage has been recognized (Sampedro 83 et al., 2011a). Constitutive defences inhibit initial attacks but are sometimes insufficient to 84 deter the attack or to avoid the proliferation of the damage. In such cases, induced defences, 85 including increased synthesis of chemical defensive compounds already existing in healthy 86 plants, synthesis of new chemical defences, and the formation of new physical structures can 87 be vital for the plant to survive the attack (e.g., Zas et al., 2011; Zhao et al., 2011b; Schiebe *et al.*, 2012). 88

89 In recent decades considerable progress has been made towards an increased understanding of the physiological mechanisms and metabolic pathways involved in the 90 91 recognition, signaling and triggering of plant induced defences against biotic stressors (Heil, 92 2009; Erb et al., 2012). Different plant phytohormones such as jasmonates, ethylene and 93 salicylic acid are now known to be involved in the activation of induced defensive responses 94 in a wide array of different plant species (e.g., Creelman and Mullet, 1995; Halitschke and 95 Baldwin, 2005). In particular, jasmonate signaling is thought to be involved in triggering 96 defences against herbivores and necrotrophic pathogens in several plant taxa (Glazebrook, 97 2005). Accordingly, the methyl ester of jasmonic acid, i.e., methyl jasmonate (MJ) has been 98 widely used as a chemical elicitor to simulate herbivory (Koo and Howe, 2009), with the 99 exogenous application of MJ provoking responses similar to those occasioned by insect 100 feeding (Franceschi et al., 2002; Rohwer and Erwin, 2008). In conifers, the exogenous 101 application of MJ sprayed to aboveground tissues is known to have a large impact on the 102 synthesis of both terpenoids and phenolics (Zulak et al., 2009), two of the main chemical 103 defences of conifers against insect herbivores (Franceschi et al., 2005). Increased total 104 amounts and/or alterations of the profile of these compounds have been reported following 105 MJ application both in young seedlings (e.g., Martín et al., 2002; Heijari et al., 2005; Moreira 106 et al., 2009; Erbilgin and Colgan, 2012) and adult trees (e.g., Erbilgin et al., 2006; Heijari et 107 al., 2008; Erbilgin and Colgan, 2012), and for different conifer species (Hudgins et al., 2004) 108 from boreal conifers such as *Pinus sylvestris* (Heijari et al., 2005; Heijari et al., 2008) and

109 Picea abies (Erbilgin et al., 2006; Zhao et al., 2011b; Schiebe et al., 2012) to Mediterranean

110 pines such as *Pinus pinaster* (Moreira et al., 2009; Sampedro et al., 2011a) and *Pinus radiata*

111 (Gould *et al.*, 2008; Gould *et al.*, 2009; Moreira *et al.*, 2012b). Anatomical long-lasting

112 responses such as the proliferation of traumatic resin canals are also well documented (Huber

113 *et al.*, 2005; Krokene *et al.*, 2008).

114 In keeping with the enhanced defence status, MJ treated conifer seedlings have been 115 reported to show increased resistance to a wide array of fungal pathogens and herbivore 116 insects. Spraying *P. radiata* seedlings with a low concentration of MJ (< 5 mM) has been 117 shown, for example, to reduce Diplodia pinea infection by 60% (Gould et al., 2009), while 118 spraying or fumigation of *P. abies* with MJ reduced the colonization of *Ceratocystis polonica* 119 (Krokene et al., 2008) and protected seedlings against Pythium ultimum (Kozlowski et al., 120 1999). MJ application has been also shown to be effective against insect herbivores by 121 reducing colonization, oviposition and/or damage levels of different insect feeding guilds, 122 including phloem and bark feeders such as pine weevils (Heijari et al., 2005; Moreira et al., 123 2009), bark beetles such as *Ips typographus* (Erbilgin et al., 2006), and defoliators such as 124 Thaumetopoea pityocampa (Moreira et al., 2013) and diprionid sawflies (Heijari et al., 125 2008). In some cases, MJ altered the attraction of the insect herbivores to the breeding or 126 feeding sites due to changes in the emission of volatile organic compounds (e.g., Zhao et al., 127 2011a), while in others, the enhanced physical and chemical defences within plant tissues 128 seem to be responsible for the reduced damage levels (e.g., Heijari et al., 2005; Moreira et 129 al., 2009). Despite all these examples of positive results of MJ application protecting conifers 130 against biotic stressors, negative results where MJ failed to protect seedlings or mature trees 131 against particular enemies do also exist (Graves et al., 2008; Reglinski et al., 2009; Zhao et 132 al., 2010; Vivas et al., 2012).

133 The responses of plants to jasmonates are not limited, however, to defence-related 134 processes, but also include alterations of many other physiological traits related to growth 135 and development (Cheong and Yang, 2003). Plants treated with MJ usually show reduced 136 primary and secondary growth rates, either because of reduced photosynthetic activity (as 137 observed by Heijari et al. (2005) after treatment with high doses (100 mM) of MJ) or just as a 138 result of the physiological costs associated with boosting chemical defences (Sampedro et al., 139 2011a). This reduction in growth associated with MJ application has been outlined as a 140 critical handicap for the practical applicability of this substance for protecting forest 141 plantations against biotic aggressors (Holopainen et al., 2009). However, not all the growth-142 related responses to MJ are negative. MJ treated seedlings of P. pinaster have been found, for

example, to have many more fine roots than control seedlings, and this enhancement of the

144 root system may both help seedling establishment and increase the tolerance to herbivore

145 damage (Moreira *et al.*, 2012c). Additionally, as the effect of MJ on primary growth is

146 usually greater than that on secondary growth (Heijari et al., 2005; Moreira et al., 2013), MJ

147 treatment favors reduced height:diameter relationships, which is something that forest

148 nurseries aim for since it increases seedling growth and survivorship after plantation

149 (Willoughby *et al.*, 2009).

150 Although our knowledge of the complex responses of conifers to MJ is still limited, 151 there is increasing evidence that MJ application has potential for protecting forest plantations 152 and nursery seedlings against pests and pathogens (Holopainen et al., 2009; Eyles et al., 153 2010; Moreira et al., 2012a). A particular harmful forest pest that potentially could be 154 controlled by exogenous MJ application is the pine weevil, Hylobius abietis (L.), which 155 significantly impacts the regeneration of conifer forests after clear cutting in large areas of 156 Europe and Asia (Långström and Day, 2004). Adult pine weevils feed on the phloem and 157 bark of conifer seedlings of many different species, causing stem girdling and high mortality 158 rates (Örlander and Nilsson, 1999; Day et al., 2004). If no protection measures are carried 159 out, weevil damage can cause up to 80% mortality (Petersson and Örlander, 2003). To date 160 no definitive treatment is available, and a combination of different prophylactic measures, 161 including soil scarification, retention of shelter trees, physical protection of the seedlings, delayed planting, and even insecticide treatments, is currently routinely applied (Petersson 162 163 and Örlander, 2003; Nordlander et al., 2009; Nordlander et al., 2011). Most of these methods 164 are expensive to apply and/or are environmentally hazardous; moreover they are frequently 165 insufficient to reduce the level of damage and mortality to (economically) acceptable levels.

166 MJ application has been shown to reduce the damage caused by the pine weevil on 167 pine seedlings of different species both in vitro (Moreira et al., 2009; Moreira et al., 2013) 168 and *in vivo* bioassays (Heijari *et al.*, 2005; Sampedro *et al.*, 2011b) under controlled 169 conditions in the lab. Whether MJ can also be used to protect seedlings against the pine 170 weevil under real field conditions is, however, yet to be tested. It is well known that a 171 treatment that is highly efficient under controlled conditions in the lab is not always efficient 172 under field conditions, where many interfering factors can potentially modulate its effects 173 (Beckers and Conrath, 2007). Importantly, pine weevils are frequently a serious threat to 174 seedlings not only immediately after planting but also during the second and following years. 175 It is therefore important that the effect of any protecting treatment is long lasting. There are 176 no previous studies where the effects of MJ application have been evaluated after two

seasons, although for mature trees it has been shown that the effect of a MJ treatment can last
for several years (Erbilgin *et al.*, 2006; Zhao *et al.*, 2010).

- 179 Here, we explore whether increasing defensive traits through MJ application at the 180 nursery stage can be an efficient way to protect seedlings against this harmful forest pest in 181 the field. We performed a field experiment with the two most commonly planted conifers in 182 both northern (Sweden) and southern Europe (Spain). We investigated the effect of 183 concentration and number of applications of MJ on chemical defensive traits, seedling 184 growth and weevil damage during two growing seasons after planting. We aimed to gain 185 insight into the viability of MJ application in the nursery to protect forest plantations against 186 the pine weevil at field. The wide contrasts in ecological conditions between Spain and 187 Sweden, with extreme differences not only in temperature and light conditions but also in 188 forest functioning and insect behavior, should result in a high level of generality of the results 189 of this study.
- 190

191 **2. Material and Methods**

192 2.1. Plant material

Four conifer species were used in this study: Maritime pine (*Pinus pinaster* Ait.) and
Monterrey pine (*Pinus radiata* D. Don) as representatives of conifers widely planted in
southern Europe, and Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris* L.) and Norway spruce (*Picea abies* (L.)
Karst.) as the most common conifers in the forests of northern Europe. All four species can
be severely damaged by the pine weevil when planted in conifer clear-cuts (Örlander and
Nilsson, 1999; Zas *et al.*, 2011).

199 Seedlings of Maritime pine and Monterrey pine were provided by a commercial 200 Spanish nursery (Norfor Nursery Ltd., Pontevedra, Spain; viverofigueirido@norfor.es). 201 Monterrey pine seedlings were derived from seeds collected in the coast of Asturias (NW 202 Spain) whereas those of Maritime pine came from the Massif des Landes (France). Both 203 provenances are commonly used for reforestation in the area of the Spanish field experiment. 204 Seeds of both species were sown in CETAP40® containers (P. radiata, container volume 125 cm³) and PLASNOR® containers (*P. pinaster*, container volume 150 cm³) in August 2010, 205 206 which were kept outdoors and watered and fertilized following conventional nursery 207 protocols.

The two northern species were represented by one-year-old containerized seedlings (container volume 50 cm³) and were acquired from a Swedish commercial nursery (Sjögränd nursery, Bergvik Skog AB, Uddeholm, Sweden). Seedlings of both species were derived

211 from seeds of central Swedish origin, and thus suitable for the area of the Swedish field

212 experiment. Seeds were sown in March 2010, and seedlings were freeze stored from

213 December 2010 to May 2011, when they were taken outdoors, transplanted into HIKO®

trays (container volume 90 cm³), and then kept on sandy ground and automatically watered

- 215 daily.
- 216
- 217 2.2. Methyl jasmonate treatments

Trays of the four species were sprayed with different treatments of methyl jasmonate (MJ) in the spring of 2011. Treatments differed in the concentration of MJ and in the timing of the MJ applications. Methyl jasmonate (Sigma-Aldrich Ref #39924-52-2) was used for preparing 5, 10, and 25 mM MJ emulsions in 2.5% ethanol in deionized water. MJ was first dissolved in the ethanol and water was then added. The solution was shaken vigorously until a uniform milky emulsion was obtained, and then transferred to hand-sprayers, which were also shaken in between spraying each tray.

225 Treatments were applied twice, roughly 4 and 2 weeks before planting out in the field 226 experiments (30 and 15 days before planting in the case of P. pinaster and P. radiata and 27 227 and 13 days before planting in the case of *P. sylvestris* and *P. abies*). At each application 228 date, approximately 10 ml of the MJ emulsions, differing in MJ concentration, was uniformly 229 distributed with a hand-sprayer over the nursery trays, which included 40 seedlings each. Six treatments, differing in the concentration and timing of the MJ applications, were applied to 230 231 the four species (see Table A1 in Appendix A). The main treatments (T1, T2, T3 and T4) 232 consisted of a control (seedlings sprayed only with the carrier solution) and applications of 5, 233 10 and 25 mM MJ at both application dates. Single applications of the highest concentration 234 treatment (25 mM MJ) in just one of the two application dates were also conducted 235 (treatments T5 - 4 weeks before planting, and T6 - 2 weeks before planting).

236

237 2.3. Field experimental design

Two field experiments were established with the treated seedlings, one in Spain, including *P. pinaster* and *P. radiata*, and the other in Sweden, including *P. sylvestris* and *P. abies*. Both experiments were established in recent conifer clear-cuts, in which pine weevil damage was likely to occur. The two experiments followed a randomized block design with 8 blocks, with each block including 10 plants of each of the six treatments (T1-T6), for both the species of each trial. The 10 plants were planted together in a single row of 10 plants (Swedish trial) or in two contiguous rows of 5 plants each (Spanish trial). Spacing was 1 × 1
m in both experiments.

The Spanish field trial was established on 12-13 May 2011 in Torroña (Pontevedra, NW Spain, 41° 58' 17'' N, 8° 51' 3'' W, Altitude = 410 m a.s.l.) in a granitic area of sandy soils dominated by pine forest of both Maritime pine and Monterrey pine (see overall view in Appendix A, Figure A1). The experimental site was previously occupied by a mature stand of Maritime pine, which had been clear cut in October-December 2010. One-direction soil ripping was made following the slope of the site just before planting.

The Swedish trial was established on 21 July 2011 at Marma, about 70 km N of Uppsala (Sweden, 60° 29' 5''N, 17° 26' 50'' E, Altitude = 36 m a.s.l.) (see overall view in Appendix A, Figure A2). The site was located on almost completely flat sand sediment. The previous stand of predominantly Scots pine had been clear cut in December 2009, followed by soil scarification by disc-trenching in July 2010.

257 In order to have seedlings unaffected by pine weevil feeding, two additional 258 treatments in which seedlings were physically protected against the pine weevil were also 259 included in the experimental design of the two field trials. Extra plants treated twice with the 260 control (treatment T7) or the 25 mM solutions (treatment T8) were established and protected 261 with a plastic shield (Snäppskyddet, Panth-Produkter AB, Östhammar, Sweden) at the time 262 of planting. These two extra treatments were only included in blocks 1-4. In the Spanish trial 263 the efficacy of these barriers was not complete and some seedling damage was observed early 264 on; plants were then further protected by coating the stems with Conniflex®, which is a fine 265 sand (particle size 0.2 mm) embedded in an acrylate dispersion that remains flexible after 266 drying (Nordlander et al., 2009). Conniflex® was applied in March 2012, only in the Spanish 267 trial.

268

269 2.4. Assessments

270 Seedling size (total height and stem basal diameter) was assessed in all planted seedlings in 271 the two experiments just before planting, and seedling size and weevil damage (debarked 272 area) were assessed at the end of the first and second growing seasons after planting (17 273 October 2011 and 12 December 2012 in the Spanish trial and 27 September 2011 and 11 274 October 2012 in the Swedish trial). On both dates we also recorded whether or not each 275 seedling had been attacked by the weevil, as a further binary variable. Stem girdling and 276 seedling mortality were also recorded as binary variables in all planted seedlings. A seedling 277 was classified as girdled when there was a continuous feeding scar all around the stem,

irrespective of the height of the stem where this scar was found. Dead seedlings withoutfeeding scars were considered to be dead due to other causes.

280 Because seedling size varied greatly between the two field trials, we used slightly 281 different procedures for weevil damage evaluations. In the Swedish trial, where seedlings 282 were generally smaller, debarked area was estimated by inspecting down to the base of the 283 stem and using graduate millimeter templates as in Nordlander *et al.* (2011), with 0.1 cm² 284 being the smallest area recorded. In the Spanish trial, the debarked area during the first 285 growing season was estimated by measuring the length of the scars in four longitudinal 286 transects along the entire stem, as in Moreira et al. (2009). The large size of the plants 287 impeded the use of this procedure in the 2012 assessment. On this occasion we used a 288 subjective assessment similar to that used by Zas et al. (2006). Each seedling stem was 289 visually divided into 10 equally-sized parts, in each of which weevil damage was recorded 290 using a five-level score (0, 0-25%, 26-50%, 51-75% and 76-100% of the bark surface debarked by the weevils). Debarked area (in cm^2) was estimated from these values by 291 292 assuming that the stems have a cone shape with basal stem diameter and total seedling height 293 defining the basic cone parameters.

294

295 2.5. Sampling and chemical analyses

296 Twenty extra seedlings of each of the six main treatments (T1-T6) and species, that were kept 297 in the trays outdoors in the respective nurseries, were sampled for chemical analyses (Table 298 A1) approximately 3 weeks after the field experiments were established (31 May 2011 for P. 299 pinaster and P. radiata and 12 July 2011 for P. sylvestris and P. abies), i.e., during the period 300 of intense weevil feeding. Seedlings were thus sampled around 7 and 5 weeks after the first 301 and second MJ applications, respectively. Needles and stems were carefully separated and 302 immediately frozen at -30 °C. Two main quantitative chemical defensive traits were 303 determined in each of these tissues, the concentration of non-volatile resin and the 304 concentration of total polyphenolics. Chemical analyses were performed at the Misión 305 Biológica de Galicia (Pontevedra, Spain).

306Non-volatile resin was extracted with hexane in an ultrasonic bath for 15 min at 20°C307and then for 24 hours at room temperature. After filtering the extract (Whatman GFF,308Whatman Int. Ltd, Maidstone, Kent, UK) and repeating the extraction again, the309concentration of non-volatile resin was estimated gravimetrically and expressed as mg of310non-volatile resin g^{-1} dried weight (d.w.) of the given tissue. The residual material after the311extraction of non-volatile resin was then used for total polyphenolics determination. Total

- 312 polyphenolics were extracted with aqueous methanol (1:1 vol:vol) in an ultrasonic bath for
- 313 15 min, followed by centrifugation and subsequent dilution of the methanolic extract. Total
- 314 polyphenolic content was determined colorimetrically by the Folin-Ciocalteu method in a
- Biorad 650 microplate reader (Bio-Rad Laboratories Inc., Philadelphia, PA, USA) at 740 nm,
- 316 using tannic acid as standard, and referred to the vegetal tissue in a d.w. basis (see more
- details in Moreira *et al.*, 2009). A total of 960 (20 plants \times 4 species \times 6 treatments \times 2
- 318 tissues) samples were analyzed (Table A1).
- 319

320 2.6. Statistical analyses

321 Seedling height, diameter and weevil damage (debarked area) in the field were analyzed 322 independently for each species and year fitting a two-way mixed model in which the effect of 323 MJ treatments was treated as a fixed factor and the blocks and their interaction with the MJ 324 treatments were considered random factors. This allowed us to account for the eventual 325 autocorrelation of the 10 contiguous plants of the same treatment within each block (i.e., the 326 experimental plots), and resulted in the appropriated denominator degrees of freedom for 327 testing the effect of the MJ treatments. Debarked area was log transformed to achieve 328 residual normality in all species and years. Heterogeneous residual variance models were 329 fitted when the Levene test identified significant differences in the residual variance among 330 MJ treatments. Least square means were estimated from the mixed models and used for 331 multiple comparisons among treatments. Specific contrasts testing for significant differences 332 between specific MJ treatments and the control were also performed. All general linear 333 mixed models were fitted using restricted maximum likelihood (REML) methods with the 334 MIXED procedure of the SAS System (Littell et al., 2006).

Binary variables (i.e., mortality, stem girdling, and whether the seedlings were attacked or not) were analyzed with a generalized mixed model similar to the one described above. The models were fitted with the GLIMMIX procedure of SAS (Littell *et al.*, 2006), assuming a binary residual distribution and a logit link function.

The effect of the application of MJ on the non-volatile resin and total polyphenolics in the stem and needles was analyzed with a repeated measures mixed model in which the MJ treatments, the plant species and their interaction were considered between-subject fixed factors, and the plant tissue (stem or needles) and its interaction with MJ and species as within-subject fixed factors. An unstructured covariance model with independent withinsubject residual variance for each tissue type was used. 345 For all the studied traits (i.e., chemical traits, seedling size and weevil damage) two 346 different analyses were performed. First we tested whether the different MJ concentrations 347 significantly affected these traits analyzing a sub-dataset that included only the treatments T1 348 (0 mM), T2 (5 mM), T3 (10 mM) and T4 (25 mM), in which MJ was applied twice 4 and 2 349 weeks before planting (Table A1). We then analyzed whether there were differences among 350 the two single and the double application of MJ, only analyzing the treatments T1 (control), 351 T5 (25 mM applied 4 weeks before planting), T6 (25 mM applied 2 weeks before planting), 352 and T4 (25 mM applied twice 4 and 2 weeks before planting) (Table A1).

353 354

355 **3. Results**

356 *3.1. Weevil damage at field*

357 Pine weevil pressure was high in the two field trials and lasted for at least two growing 358 seasons (Table 1). During the first year, the weevil fed on between 68 and 85% of the planted seedlings, with a mean debarked area of attacked seedlings ranging from around 1 cm^2 in *P*. 359 sylvestris and P. abies in the Swedish trial to around 3 and 5 cm^2 in P. radiata and P. 360 361 *pinaster*, respectively, in the Spanish trial (Table 1). Weevil damage caused stem girdling in 362 12-22% and 23-30% of the seedlings planted in the Swedish and the Spanish trials 363 respectively (Table 1). Almost all the girdled seedlings of the Swedish trial died, whereas 364 around 70% of the girdled seedlings of the Spanish trial were able to survive by resprouting 365 below the girdling site (Table 2). Accordingly, mortality rates due to weevil damage were 366 greater in the Swedish than in the Spanish trial, especially in *P. pinaster* (Table 2).

367 During the second growing season, the pine weevil pressure remained high in the 368 Spanish trial, with 73-91% of the seedlings attacked by the weevil and similarly high mean 369 values of debarked area to the first season. Despite this, the percentage of girdled seedlings 370 was much reduced during the second growing season, probably because of the increase in 371 basal stem diameter (Table 1). On the contrary, in the Swedish trial, the damage intensity was 372 largely reduced during the second growing season, but in this case it did continue to provoke 373 stem girdling and seedling mortality in a high percentage of seedlings (Table 1). At the end 374 of the two first growing seasons after planting, overall cumulative mortality due to weevil 375 damage was 16, 24, 23 and 33% in P. pinaster, P. radiata, P. sylvestris and P. abies, 376 respectively.

MJ application in the nursery effectively reduced the damage caused by the pine
weevil during both the first and the second growing seasons after planting (Table 2). During

379 the first season, although MJ application significantly reduced the percentage of attacked 380 seedlings only in *P. pinaster*, it significantly reduced the debarked area of wounded seedlings 381 in all the four studied species (Table 2, Figure 1). The reduction of the debarked area was 382 proportional to the concentration used in the MJ treatments in all species, and in most of the 383 cases only the highest concentration yielded significant results (Figure 1). In the case of the 384 pine species, the damage on seedlings treated twice with the highest concentration of MJ was 385 reduced to less than half of that on control plants, whereas the reduction of damage in spruce 386 was around 38% (Figure 1) and it was just marginally significant. The reduction of the 387 debarked area of attacked seedlings was significant only when the 25 mM MJ solution was 388 applied twice, except in *P. pinaster* for which the single early application (4w before 389 planting) also significantly reduced the debarked area during the first growing season 390 compared to control plants (Figure 2, see also Table B1 in Appendix B).

391 The reduction in weevil damage was translated into a reduction in the percentage of 392 girdled seedlings and mortality rates (Table 2, Figure 1). In control plants the percentage of 393 seedlings that became girdled during the first growing season varied between 22% in P. 394 sylvestris and 38% in P. pinaster, whereas mortality rates varied between 10% in P. pinaster 395 and 24% in P. abies. In MJ treated plants these values were strongly reduced in the four 396 species although in the case of stem girdling the effect was only significant for the three pine 397 species, and in the case of mortality only for *P. sylvestris* (Table 2, Figure 1). The effect of 398 MJ on stem girdling and mortality was again dose-dependent and only the highest 399 concentration applied twice led to a statistically significant reduction of these traits in 400 comparison with control plants (Figure 1, Figure 2, Table B1). Following two 25 mM MJ 401 treatments, only around 10% of P. pinaster, P. radiata and P. abies seedlings were girdled, 402 while for *P. sylvestris* girdling was virtually absent; mortality rates were reduced to 3, 7 and 403 1% in P. pinaster, P. radiata and P. sylvestris, respectively, but only to 16% in P. abies.

404 During the second growing season, the MJ treated seedlings continued to suffer less 405 new pine weevil damage compared with untreated control seedlings, but the effect was not as 406 clear and consistent as during the first year (Table 2, see also Figure C1 in Appendix C). 407 Weevils still preferred untreated control plants of P. pinaster to plants treated twice with 25 408 mM MJ (Figure C1). The effect of MJ on the mean debarked area of attacked seedlings 409 during the second growing season was significant for the three pines (Table 2), but the 410 reduction of debarked area was only evident for the highest concentration treatment (25 mM) 411 (Figure C1). Consequently, the percentage of girdled seedlings was lower in plants treated 412 twice with 25 mM MJ, although the effect was only statistically significant for *P. sylvestris*

(Figure C1). The MJ application at the nursery stage reduced the cumulative mortality rates
after two complete growing seasons in the field. The trend was positive for all species and
statistically significant for *P. radiata* and *P. sylvestris*. The double application of 25 mM MJ
4 and 2 weeks before planting was the treatment which most strongly reduced mortality rates
(Figure 2, Figure C1). Results were especially promising in *P. sylvestris* where the
cumulative mortality rates after two growing seasons dropped from 39% in control plants to
just 7% (Figure C1). This effect was mainly due to the MJ treatments reducing the percentage

- 420 of seedlings seriously damaged (Figure 3).
- 421

422 *3.2. Growth losses*

423 At the time of planting, i.e., 4 and 2 weeks after the first and second application of MJ in the 424 nursery, the size of the MJ treated plants (total height and stem basal diameter) was 425 significantly lower than that of control plants in all studied species except in spruce, for 426 which the difference in total height was not statistically significant (see Figure C2 in 427 Appendix C). The general trend was that the higher the concentration of MJ applied, the 428 greater the observed reduction in seedling size was observed. The reduction in seedling 429 height after the double application of the highest concentration of MJ (25 mM) was 430 especially large in *P. sylvestris* (43%) and *P. radiata* (35%) and somewhat lower in *P.* 431 pinaster (22%) and P. abies (8%) (Figure 4).

Once in the field, the reduction of plant size due to MJ application tended to diminish 432 433 over time (Figure 4, see also Figure C3 in Appendix C). By the end of the second growing 434 season, height growth losses of MJ-treated seedlings were only significant in P. radiata and 435 P. sylvestris (Figure C3), and even for these species treated seedlings were just 10 and 15% 436 shorter than control seedlings, compared with the 43 and 35% reduction in size at the time of 437 planting (Figure 4). This decrease in growth losses with age was probably mainly due to the 438 reduction of weevil damage in MJ treated plants. When comparing the growth of control and 439 MJ treated seedlings physically protected against the pine weevil (non-attacked seedlings, 440 treatment 7 and 8), we found that the reduction in height due to MJ remained highly 441 significant in the three pine species two growing seasons after planting (Figure 5). Overall 442 these results suggest that, in unprotected seedlings, the growth benefits of being less damaged 443 compensated the growth loss due to the application of MJ per se.

444

445 *3.3. Chemical defensive responses*

446 The exogenous application of MJ strongly increased the two studied chemical resistance 447 traits (non-volatile resin and total polyphenolics) but the effect was not the same in all four 448 conifer species (significant $MJ \times Species$ interaction) and differed between needles and stems 449 (significant MJ \times Tissue and MJ \times Tissue \times Species interactions) (Table 3). In the case of 450 non-volatile resin, the application of MJ significantly increased its concentration in the four 451 species and the two tissues, and the effect was generally proportional to the concentration 452 used (Figure 6a, see also Figure C4a in Appendix C). Non-volatile resin concentration in the 453 stems of seedlings treated twice with the highest concentration of MJ (25 mM MJ applied 7 454 and 5 weeks before sampling) was 2.0, 2.7, 1.5 and 2.9 times that of control seedlings for P. 455 pinaster, P. radiata, P. sylvestris and P. abies, respectively (Figure 6a). This treatment also more than doubled the non-volatile resin in the needles of the three pine species, but the 456 457 effect was much lower in the needles of the spruce (Figure C4a). Single applications of 25 458 mM MJ also significantly increased the concentration of non-volatile resin in the stems but 459 the increments were significantly smaller than after the double application in the four studied 460 species (Figure 2). No significant differences were observed when comparing the effects of 461 the early and late applications, except in the case of P. radiata, for which the effect of MJ 462 was stronger when applied 5 weeks before sampling than when applied 7 weeks before 463 sampling (Figure 2).

MJ also significantly increased the concentration of total polyphenolics in both stems 464 465 and needles (Table 3). In the case of total polyphenolics in the needles, the effect was significant for all four species (Figure C4b), but MJ only significantly increased stem total 466 467 polyphenolics in *P. pinaster* and *P. radiata* (Figure 6b). Following the double application of 468 25 mM MJ, concentrations were 1.4 and 2.1 times that of control plants, respectively (Figure 469 6b), and similar responses were in fact also observed following just a single application of the 470 same concentration (Figure 2). The treatments applying lower concentrations of MJ only 471 significantly increased the total polyphenolics in the stems of *P. radiata* (Figure 6b).

In general the increase in chemical defences was linearly related with the decrease in
weevil feeding at field. We found a negative and strong linear relationship between the
concentration of non-volatile resin in the stems and the debarked area at field in *P. pinaster*, *P.sylvestris*, and *P. abies*, but not in *P. radiata* (Figure D1). The concentration of total
polyphenolics in the stems was also significantly related to the debarked area in the case of *P. pinaster*.

478

479 **4. Discussion**

480 The results of this study point to a new method to protect forest plantations against 481 pests. Application of MJ in the nursery some weeks before planting was effective in reducing 482 weevil damage under real field conditions in all four conifer species, and the protection was 483 long lasting, at least up to two seasons after planting. The mechanisms of resistance against 484 pine weevils are still not completely understood but different terpenoids and phenolics are 485 known to be involved either in weevil attraction (Nordlander, 1991; Blanch et al., 2012) 486 and/or in deterring weevil feeding (Nordlander, 1991; Borg-Karlson et al., 2006), and both 487 non-volatile resin and total polyphenolics, as determined here, have been related to pine 488 weevil resistance (Moreira et al., 2009; Carrillo-Gavilán et al., 2012). The parallelism 489 between the increases of these substances and the reduction of weevil damage through MJ 490 application suggests that the protective effect of MJ was related to an increase of the 491 chemical defences of the seedlings.

492 Chemical elicitors are becoming more popular for protecting agricultural crops 493 against pests and diseases (Rohwer and Erwin, 2008; Walters and Fountaine, 2009) but they 494 are still in an experimental phase in forestry and to our knowledge they have never been 495 commercially used for protecting forest plantations or tree seedlings in the nursery. That MJ 496 reduced weevil feeding through an increase in plant defensive traits has been reported before 497 (Heijari et al., 2005; Moreira et al., 2009; Sampedro et al., 2011b), but the important result 498 found here is that this effect remained significantly and quantitatively important under real 499 field conditions. Furthermore, although the practical effectiveness varied depending on the 500 species, the general results were consistent across sites and species, in spite of the huge 501 environmental differences between the two field trials, which represent the northern and 502 southern limits of *H. abietis*' range. This is particularly relevant as climate is known to 503 strongly influence the life cycle of *H. abietis*, the timing of its feeding activity and the 504 amount of damage it causes (Tan et al., 2010; Inward et al., 2012), as well as, of course, the 505 phenology and growth rates of the tree species (e.g., Nobis et al., 2012). By being consistent 506 across such contrasting environmental conditions, our results suggest that the response to the 507 MJ treatments is rather general for *H. abietis*.

The results were especially promising in the three pine species, in which the reduced feeding damage on MJ treated seedlings was translated into a reduced probability of stem girdling and thus improved seedling performance. Mortality was drastically reduced in the case of *P. sylvestris*, dropping from nearly 40% in control plants to less than 7% in MJ treated plants, well below the economic threshold expected for a successful man-made plantation. In the other studied species, the results showed the same trend but the reduction of

514 weevil damage and seedling mortality was relatively smaller, especially in *P. abies*. Further 515 research is needed to fine tune the application procedure in order to optimize its effect in this 516 species.

517

518 4.1. Increase of chemical defensive traits

519 The observed increase in chemical defensive traits after MJ application was consistent 520 with previous findings reporting the activation of both the phenylpropanoid and terpenoid 521 pathways in different conifer species (Heijari et al., 2005; Moreira et al., 2009; Zhao et al., 522 2010; Schiebe et al., 2012). The concentration of non-volatile resin, which is highly 523 correlated with the diterpene fraction of the oleoresin (Sampedro et al., 2011b), was 524 increased in all four species and in both the needles and the stems. Previous studies have 525 shown that MJ increased the concentration of total resin acids in the needles and xylem of 526 Scots pine juveniles (Heijari et al., 2005), and in the stems of Maritime pine (Moreira et al., 527 2009) and Monterrey pine (Moreira et al., 2012b), although in all these cases the minimum 528 concentration of MJ needed to provoke significant changes in the non-volatile resin was 529 much higher (80 or 100 mM) than that used here. In general we found that the increase in 530 non-volatile resin in the stems and needles was proportional to the concentration of MJ 531 applied, and even the lowest concentration (5 mM) applied twice was enough to significantly 532 increase the non-volatile resin in the two tissues. As observed in other studies (Moreira et al., 533 2009; Carrillo-Gavilán et al., 2012), the significant relationship between the increase of non-534 volatile resin in the stems and the weevil feeding rate at field in three of the four species 535 suggest a relevant role of this defensive trait in seedling resistance against this insect.

536 Total polyphenolics were also increased after MJ application, especially in the needles 537 where the MJ effect was significant in all four studied species. Increased polyphenolics after 538 MJ application has been reported before in different conifers (Sampedro et al., 2011a; 539 Schiebe et al., 2012) but the effect is usually not as clear and dose-dependent as that observed 540 for terpenoids (Erbilgin et al., 2006; Moreira et al., 2009). Focusing on the stems, only 541 Maritime pine and Monterrey pine responded to MJ by increasing the total polyphenolics 542 concentration, but this increase was only related with a reduction of weevil feeding in the 543 case of Maritime pine.

544

545 4.2. Single vs double application of MJ

546 In contrast with previous studies (Gould *et al.*, 2009), the repeated application of MJ 547 was much more effective in reducing pine weevil damage than single applications. The

548 pattern of response mirrored that observed for chemical defensive traits but in this case, the 549 effect of the single applications was statistically significant. Single applications of 25 mM MJ 550 significantly increased the non-volatile resin in the stems of all species, although not as much 551 as the double application, but this increase was generally not translated into a significant 552 reduction of weevil damage at field conditions. With the exception of just a few cases, only 553 the double application of MJ was effective protecting seedlings against the pine weevil. 554 Repeated applications of MJ at low concentration rates did not provoke, however, stronger 555 defensive responses in Monterrey pine seedlings against the fungus Diplodia pinea than 556 single applications of MJ (Gould et al., 2009). In that study, the application of MJ at 557 concentration of just 1 mM was enough to significantly increase the concentration of some 558 monoterpenes in the stems. Similarly low concentration of MJ increased the mono and 559 diterpene fraction in the stems of Norway spruce (Martín et al., 2002). It seems that the 560 sensitivity to MJ may depend on other factors, among which plant ontogeny (Erbilgin and 561 Colgan, 2012), plant tissue and part (Moreira et al., 2012b), plant genotype (Zeneli et al., 562 2006; Moreira et al., 2013) and phenology (Moreira et al., 2012a) may be especially relevant. 563 It may therefore be significant that in this study we managed young seedlings that are likely 564 to be more sensitive to external application of MJ than older and more lignified saplings or 565 mature trees.

566

567 *4.3. Lasting effect*

568 Planted seedlings frequently face a high risk of being killed by pine weevils for 569 several years after planting (Örlander and Nilsson, 1999). Specifically, in the two field trials 570 of the present study, weevil damage was very intense during the two first seasons after 571 planting, especially in the Spanish trial, where weevil damage was as intense during the 572 second growing season as during the first. Seedlings treated with MJ remained protected 573 during the second growing season as revealed by the reduction in the debarked area of 574 attacked seedlings and/or the reduction of the percentage of girdled seedlings. The response 575 to MJ was, however, not as clear as during the first growing season, and was significant in 576 the three pine species but not in Norway spruce. Previous research with young Norway 577 spruces indicates that the response to MJ in terpenoid-related traits reaches its maximum 578 around 15-25 days after application and then progressively declines from then on (Martín et 579 al., 2002). The decay time of this induced response remains largely unknown, but results 580 from experiments on mature trees indicates that the accumulation of terpenoids after MJ 581 application may last much longer, and differences in terpenoid concentration between MJ and

582 control trees may remain significant more than one year after MJ application (Erbilgin et al., 583 2006; Zhao *et al.*, 2010). Nonetheless the results indicate that two seasons after planting the 584 MJ treated seedlings were still being consumed at a lower rate by the weevil, suggesting that 585 the MJ effect remained protecting the seedlings for at least this length of time. The results 586 during the second season differed again depending on the species and field trial. In the 587 Spanish trial, where the damage level remained very high during the second growing season, 588 the surviving MJ treated seedlings were less damaged than the control ones but this was not 589 translated into a lower percentage of girdled seedlings. On the contrary, Scots pine seedlings 590 treated with MJ were less frequently girdled during the second growing season. These 591 differences can be explained by the huge differences in seedling size during the second 592 growing season between the Spanish and the Swedish seedlings. The Spanish seedlings were 593 much thicker, and thus, it was less likely that the debarked area would entirely surround the 594 stem circumference (Thorsén et al., 2001).

595

596 *4.4. Growth losses*

597 One of the most frequent limitations for the practical use of MJ in crop protection is the 598 negative effect on growth and reduced plant fitness in the absence of damage (Holopainen et 599 al., 2009; Moreira et al., 2012a). Reduced growth of MJ treated conifer seedlings has been 600 repeatedly observed in several short-term experiments (Heijari et al., 2005; Krokene et al., 601 2008; Sampedro et al., 2011a). Based on the results of the present work, these growth 602 reductions appear to be, however, a transient effect that tend to diminish with time and 603 became almost negligible after two seasons. Weevil damage has been shown to have a 604 negative impact on seedling growth (Sampedro et al., 2009), and so by reducing damage 605 levels, growth losses due to weevil damage were lower in MJ treated plants. Indeed, the net 606 effect of MJ on growth was negligible in the presence of weevil damage, although it 607 remained significant after two seasons if seedlings were physically protected against the 608 weevil. Furthermore, even if growth losses remain significant after some years, the 609 application of MJ may still be recommended because of its positive effect on seedling 610 survival (Krokene et al., 2008).

611

612 4.5. Towards practical applications

613 The pine weevil is among the most harmful handicaps for regenerating conifer forests all

- around Europe, especially in northern countries where both the huge extensions of
- 615 continuous conifer forests and the way they are managed mainly regenerated by planting

616 after clear cutting - favor the maintenance of high population levels of the pine weevil and severe damage on the regenerate (Nordlander et al., 2011). Since the application of 617 618 insecticides (mainly permethrin) was limited in Europe in the early 2000s, there has been a 619 strong research effort to search for alternative environmental-friendly ways of protecting 620 seedlings (e.g., Zas et al., 2008; Nordlander et al., 2009; Manák et al., 2013). MJ treatments 621 may be one option since the main effect of MJ application is to trigger the innate resistance 622 capacity, and considering that MJ is a volatile compound that do not remain on the plants for 623 long, we do not expect any problematic environmental hazard. However this should be 624 formally tested before a massive utilization of MJ in the nurseries.

Nowadays a combination of silvicultural measures, insecticides and direct physical seedling protection is applied in northern Europe on a massive scale to limit weevil damage, but all these measures inevitably increase the economic costs of the regeneration process (Petersson and Örlander, 2003; Nordlander *et al.*, 2011). MJ treatments may become a costeffective alternative since acceptable levels of seedling survival were achieved for all species, except for *P. abies*, at a much lower cost than the currently available physical seedling protections.

632 We would expect a similar effect of the treatment when scaling up from a field 633 experiment to a setting where all seedlings are treated, since feeding on seedlings are not 634 essential for the pine weevils but other food sources on the clear-cut are used to a large extent 635 (Wallertz et al., 2006). The defensive response triggered by MJ seemed to be general, being 636 effective at protecting seedlings of different conifer species under very different 637 environmental conditions, from the southern to the northern extremes of the pine weevil 638 distribution. Additionally, given the numerous examples of previous works reporting 639 increased resistance of MJ treated seedlings against other biotic threats (see references in the 640 Introduction), the generality of the responses may be extended to different biotic risks. 641 Thus, the application of MJ at the nursery stage appears to have the potential to become an 642 environmentally-friendly and cost-effective alternative way to fight against this harmful 643 forest pest. However further research is necessary to properly evaluate costs and 644 environmental impacts before MJ can become operational on a broad scale.

645

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847	
848	Supplemental Material
849	
850	Appendix A
851	Details of methyl jasmonate treatments and field trials, including photographs of the
852	experimental sites and the treated seedlings.
853	
854	
855	Appendix B
856	Supplementary results: Specific contrasts testing the effect of single and double application of
857	25 mM methyl jasmonate.
858	
859	
860	Appendix C
861	Supplementary results: Effect of methyl jasmonate treatments on weevil damage during the
862	second growing season, on seedling growth at different times and on chemical defenses in the
863	needles.
864	
865	
866	Appendix D
867	Supplementary results: Relationships between chemical defences and weevil damage at field.

Table 1. Summary data of field performance during the first and second growing seasons of seedlings of four conifer species planted in two clear-cuts, one in Spain (*P. pinaster* and *P. radiata*) and one in Sweden (*P. sylvestris* and *P. abies*), naturally attacked by the pine weevil (*H. abietis*) Seedling growth (mean \pm s.e.) and pine weevil damage, including debarked area by weevil feeding (mean \pm s.e.), risk of being attacked, and percentage of stem girdling and mortality rates (percentage of planted or surviving seedlings for 1st and 2nd season) are shown. Data are overall means for each site and species; N = 480 seedlings. Presented values are based on data from all seedlings except those with physical protection, i.e., T1-T6 (see Methods for details).

		Spanish trial		Swedish trial	
	Season	P. pinaster	P. radiata	P. sylvestris	Picea abies
Mean height ¹ (cm)	1^{st}	37.7 ± 0.5	31.1 ± 0.5	16.4 ± 0.2	26.2 ± 0.2
	2^{nd}	102.1 ± 1.2	103.5 ± 1.5	30.7 ± 0.4	35.7 ± 0.4
Mean basal diameter ¹ (mm)	1^{st}	6.1 ± 0.06	5.6 ± 0.07	4.2 ± 0.05	4.2 ± 0.04
	2^{nd}	21.8 ± 0.30	20.8 ± 0.35	9.5 ± 0.1	8.1 ± 0.09
Attacked seedlings ² (%)	1^{st}	79.8	68.3	84.8	78.8
	2^{nd}	91.1	72.9	51.3	29.0
Girdled seedlings ² (%)	1^{st}	23.1	30.0	11.7	21.7
	2^{nd}	1.4	6.2	12.8	17.3
Mortality due to pine weevil ² (%)	1^{st}	4.4	10.4	11.7	21.5
	2^{nd}	5.2	15.8	12.6	15.0
Other mortality ² (%)	1^{st}	4.2	5.0	0.6	3.8
	2^{nd}	0.2	0.5	0.2	0.3
Mean debarked area 3 (cm 2)	1^{st}	4.9 ± 0.3	2.9 ± 0.2	0.8 ± 0.04	1.1 ± 0.05
	2^{nd}	6.2 ± 0.3	3.3 ± 0.2	0.2 ± 0.02	0.5 ± 0.03

¹Only living seedlings were considered.

² Percentage values for the first season were estimated upon the total number of planted seedlings whereas those for the second season were estimated upon the surviving seedlings from the previous season.

³Debarked area estimations are not comparable between sites due to differences in methodology (see main text for description).

Table 2. Results of the generalized and linear mixed models showing the effect of the application of methyl jasmonate (0, 5, 10 or 25 mM MJ) on weevil damage and plant growth of seedlings of four conifer species planted in two clear-cuts, one in Spain (*P. pinaster* and *P. radiata*) and one in Sweden (*P. sylvestris* and *P. abies*), naturally attacked by the pine weevil (*H. abietis*). Independent analyses for the first and second growing seasons are shown. Results are based on yearly data so that for the second growing season we are showing the results for new damage during that season, except in the case of mortality for which we show the cumulative mortality after two growing seasons. All treatments were applied twice, 4 and 2 weeks before planting. F ratio and associated probability levels for the main effect of the MJ treatment are shown. Significant p values (p < 0.05) are typed in bold. Dash symbols indicate that the generalized mixed model failed to converge.

		Spanish trial				Swedi	sh trial		
		P. pin	aster	P. radiata		P. sylvestris		Picea abies	
		F _{3,21}	F _{3,21} P>F I		P>F	F _{3,21}	P>F	F _{3,21}	P>F
Height	2011	3.0	0.055	13.2	<0.001	40.7	<0.001	6.5	0.003
	2012	0.2	0.911	4.0	0.022	6.2	0.004	2.4	0.093
Diameter	2011	7.5	0.001	8.8	0.001	0.3	0.797	0.1	0.933
	2012	0.1	0.966	4.4	0.016	1.4	0.273	0.4	0.735
Probability of being attacked	2011	3.2	0.046	1.4	0.286	0.1	0.980	0.6	0.656
	2012	1.9	0.168	0.5	0.723	1.6	0.221	0.3	0.839
Probability of stem girdling	2011	3.4	0.039	2.4	0.096	4.1	0.020	1.1	0.355
	2012	-	-	1.2	0.353	1.6	0.221	0.8	0.491
Cumulative mortality	2011	-	-	1.2	0.334	4.0	0.021	1.0	0.416
	2012	1.1	0.362	1.8	0.174	3.5	0.034	1.3	0.289
Debarked area ¹	2011	4.8	0.011	3.1	0.051	4.8	0.011	2.5	0.086
	2012	4.1	0.019	5.0	0.009	3.4	0.037	0.3	0.859

¹ Debarked area was log-transformed to achieve normality. Heterogeneous residual variance models were fitted when needed.

Table 3. Results of the repeated measures mixed model for the statistical analysis of major chemical defences (non-volatile resin and total polyphenolics) in two plant tissues (stem and needles) of seedlings of four conifer species (*P. pinaster, P. radiata, P. sylvestris* and *P. abies*) treated twice with different concentrations of methyl jasmonate (0, 5, 10 or 25 mM MJ). Plant tissue was considered a within subject factor, whereas species and MJ treatment were considered between subject factors. Degrees of freedom of the numerator (DFnum) and denominator (DFden), F-ratios and associated probability values are shown. Significant p values (p < 0.05) are typed in bold. All treatments were applied twice, 7 and 5 weeks before sampling for chemical analyses.

			Non-volatile resin		Total pol	yphenolics	
Effect	DFnum	DFden	F P > F		F	P > F	
Across subjects							
Species (SP)	3	143	83.2	<0.001	56.02	<0.001	
MJ treatment (MJ)	3	143	105.0	<0.001	39.19	<0.001	
SP x MJ	9	143	3.6	0.004	6.59	<0.001	
Within subjects							
Tissue	1	141	1032.9	<0.001	4924.4	<0.001	
SP x Tissue	3	141	31.1	<0.001	114.9	<0.001	
MJ x Tissue	3	141	0.9	0.459	43.6	<0.001	
SP x MJ x Tissue	9	141	6.5	<0.001	3.73	<0.001	

Figure legends

Figure 1. Effect of methyl jasmonate application (0, 5, 10 or 25 mM MJ) on the damage caused by the pine weevil (*H. abietis*) during the first season after planting. Four conifer species were planted in two field trials, one in Spain including *P. pinaster* and *P. radiata* (left panels) and the other in Sweden including *P. sylvestris* and *P. abies* (right panels). In both trials seedlings were naturally infested by the pine weevil, *H. abietis*. Damage by the pine weevil is represented by the probability of being attacked, the probability of stem girdling, the impact of weevil damage on seedling mortality and the total debarked area of attacked seedling. All treatments were applied twice, 4 and 2 weeks before planting. Least square means \pm s.e.m. are shown (N = 80 seedlings). Different letters above each bar indicate significant differences (p < 0.05) among MJ treatments within each species. n.c. denote that the generalized model failed to converge. n.s. = no significance. Note that different y-axis scales are used for the debarked area.

Figure 2. Effect of single (4 or 2 weeks before planting) and repeated (4 + 2 weeks before planting) application of methyl jasmonate on seedlings of four conifer species planted in two clear-cuts, one in Spain (left panels) and one in Sweden (right panels), naturally infested by the pine weevil (*H. abietis*). The effect was measured as the concentration of major chemical defence compounds in the stems (non-volatile resin and total polyphenolics) three weeks after the plantation, the debarked area of attacked seedlings by the pine weevil during the first growing season, and the cumulative mortality after two growing seasons. Least square means \pm s.e.m. are shown (N = 20 for chemical traits and N = 80 for weevil damage and mortality). Different letters above each bar indicate significant differences (p < 0.05) among MJ treatments within each species. Note that different y-axis scales are used for the debarked area.

Figure 3. Effect of methyl jasmonate application (0, 5, 10 or 25 mM MJ) on the number of attacked and killed *P. sylvestris* seedlings in relation to the amount of debarked area caused by the pine weevil (*H. abietis*) during two growing seasons. Note that MJ treatments shifted the distribution of damage levels to the left and this resulted in reduced mortality rates. All treatments were applied twice 4 and 2 weeks before planting. N = 80 seedlings per treatment.

Figure 4. Recovery of the vegetative costs associated with the methyl jasmonate induced responses measured as loss of height growth of seedlings treated twice with 25 mM MJ in comparison to the control. *P. pinaster* and *P. radiata* were planted in Spain and *P. sylvestris* and *P. abies* were planted in Sweden. Both field trials were naturally infested by the pine weevil (*H. abietis*). Each dot represents the average value of 80 seedlings.

Figure 5. Height of control (white bars) and 25 mM methyl jasmonate treated (black bars) seedlings (double application of 25 mM MJ, 4 and 2 weeks before planting) two seasons after planting of four conifer species in two clear-cut areas in Spain (*P. pinaster* and *P. radiata*) and Sweden (*P. sylvestris* and *P. abies*), with and without physical protection against the pine weevil (*H. abietis*). Only those protected plants that remained non-attacked (or with very low levels of damage) were considered in the analyses. Note that vegetative costs of MJ-associated responses emerged for the three pine species when seedlings were physically protected against pine weevil attack. For unprotected *P. pinaster* and *P. radiata* seedlings, the cost of induced resistance elicited by MJ application was compensated by reduced damage, leading to seedlings of similar height as unprotected control seedlings. For *P. sylvestris*, benefits in form of reduced damage after MJ application did not compensate the reduction of height growth. *Picea abies* showed no reduced growth due to MJ application. Least square means \pm s.e. are shown. Asterisks denote significant (p < 0.05) difference between control and MJ seedlings, whereas n.s. indicate no significant differences.

Figure 6. Effect of methyl jasmonate application (0, 5, 10 or 25 mM MJ) on seedling defensive chemistry. (A) Concentration of non-volatile resin and (B) total polyphenolics in the stems of four conifer species. All treatments were applied twice, 7 and 5 weeks before sampling for chemical analyses. Least square means \pm s.e.m. are shown (N = 20 seedlings). Different letters above each bar indicate significant differences (p < 0.05) among MJ treatments within each species.

Tables and figures included in Appendices

Appendix A

Table A1. Details of the methyl jasmonate treatments

Figure A1. Pictures of the Spanish field experiment

Figure A2. Pictures of the Swedish field experiment

Appendix B

Table B1. Specific contrasts testing the effect of a single or double application of 25 mM methyl jasmonate.

Appendix C

Figure C1. Effect of methyl jasmonate application during the second growing season

Figure C2. Effect of methyl jasmonate application on seedling size at the time of planting

Figure C3. Effect of methyl jasmonate application on seedling size at field during the two growing seasons

Figure C4. Effect of methyl jasmonate application on chemical defences in the needles

Appendix D

Figure D1. Relationships between chemical defences and weevil damage at field.



Figure 1



Figure 2



Figure 3



Figure 4



Figure 5



Figure 6

Rafael Zas, Niklas Björklund, Göran Nordlander, Cesar Cendán, Claes Hellqvist and Luis Sampedro. 2013. Exploiting jasmonate-induced responses for field protection of conifer seedlings against a major forest pest, *Hylobius abietis*.

APPENDIX A. Details of the methyl jasmonate treatments and field trials, including photographs of the experimental sites and the treated seedlings.

TABLE A1. Summary of the methyl jasmonate (MJ) treatments included in each experimental site, and total number of seedlings of each species per treatment.

	Treatment code							
	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8
Experimental treatments								
MJ concentration (mM)	0	5	10	25	25	25	0	25
1st application (4 weeks before planting)	×	×	×	×	×		×	×
2nd application (2 weeks before planting)		×	×	×		×	×	×
Physical protection							×	×
Sample size								
No. of planted seedlings	80	80	80	80	80	80	40	40
No. of seedlings used for chemical analyses		20	20	20	20	20	0	0



FIG. A1. Overall view and details of the experimental field trial in Spain. (A) Overall view of the clear-cut where the field trial was established, surrounded by mature Maritime pine forest. (B) Detail of a healthy Radiata pine seedling protected with a plastic shield (Snäppskyddet, Panth-Produkter AB, Östhammar, Sweden) one year after planting. (C) Radiata pine seedlings just after planting at field. (D) Details of the clear-cut where the field trial was established. (E) Plant material (*P. pinaster* (olive green seedlings) and *P. radiata* (yellowed green seedlings)) used in the experiment just before planting. Each tray received different MJ treatments.



FIG. A2. View of the experimental site in Sweden on the day of planting, 21 June, 2011 (A). Scots pine (*P. sylvestris*) seedlings of the four treatments T1-T4 (see Table A1) just before planting (B).

Rafael Zas, Niklas Björklund, Göran Nordlander, Cesar Cendán, Claes Hellqvist and Luis Sampedro. 2013. Exploiting jasmonate-induced responses for field protection of conifer seedlings against a major forest pest, *Hylobius abietis*.

APPENDIX B. Supplementary results: Specific contrasts testing the effect of single and double application of 25 mM methyl jasmonate.

TABLE B1. Results of the specific contrasts testing the effect of a single or double application of 25 mM methyl jasmonate (MJ) solution on plant growth and damage by the pine weevil (*H. abietis*) on seedlings of four conifer species planted in two clear-cuts, one in Spain including *P. pinaster* and *P. radiata* and the other in Sweden including *P. sylvestris* and *Picea abies*. P values for the specific contrast testing the differences between each treatment and the control are shown. MJ was applied either 4 weeks (1st application) or 2 weeks (2nd application) before planting, or at both dates. Results are based on yearly data so that for 2012 we are showing the results for new damage in this year, except in the case of mortality which correspond to cumulative mortality after two growing seasons. Significant p-values (p<0.05) are typed in bold. Dash symbols indicate that the generalized mixed model failed to converge.

	Spanish	trial			Swedish trial				
	P. pinaster		P. radiata		P. sylvestris		Picea abies		
	2011	2012	2011	2012	2011	2012	2011	2012	
Height									
Only 1 st application	0.074	0.508	0.051	0.001	<0.001	0.007	0.022	0.897	
Only 2 nd application	0.633	0.626	0.541	0.374	<0.001	0.317	0.002	0.126	
Both applications	0.035	0.481	<0.001	0.052	<0.001	0.005	0.002	0.658	
Diameter									
Only 1 st application	0.007	0.199	0.050	0.000	0.397	0.124	0.990	0.770	
Only 2 nd application	0.090	0.465	0.542	0.407	0.631	0.793	0.529	0.685	
Both applications	0.005	0.732	<0.001	0.014	0.518	0.261	0.703	0.772	
Probability of being attacked									
Only 1 st application	0.434	0.094	0.784	0.414	0.148	0.639	0.282	0.688	
Only 2 nd application	0.603	0.201	0.071	0.016	0.488	0.612	0.381	0.331	
Both applications	0.147	0.036	0.038	0.297	0.885	0.587	0.317	0.449	
Probability of stem girdling									
Only 1 st application	0.026	-	0.851	0.737	0.515	0.110	0.326	0.445	
Only 2 nd application	0.100	-	0.527	0.294	0.194	0.203	0.847	0.873	
Both applications	0.003	-	0.026	0.398	0.013	0.024	0.283	0.227	
Cumulative mortality									
Only 1 st application	0.741	0.758	0.715	0.670	0.495	0.158	0.301	0.432	
Only 2 nd application	0.337	0.163	0.433	0.530	0.184	0.077	0.855	0.712	
Both applications	0.201	0.154	0.132	0.034	0.013	0.002	0.387	0.272	
Debarked area									
Only 1 st application	0.010	0.563	0.576	0.723	0.184	0.438	0.075	0.887	
Only 2 nd application	0.108	0.931	0.318	0.840	0.181	0.232	0.447	0.565	
Both applications	0.002	0.093	0.009	0.050	0.003	0.386	0.035	0.457	

Zas, Björklund, Nordlander, Cendán, Hellqvist and Sampedro. 2013. Exploiting

jasmonate-induced responses for field protection of conifer seedlings against a major

forest pest, Hylobius abietis.

APPENDIX C. Supplementary results: Effect of methyl jasmonate treatments on weevil damage during the second growing season, on seedling growth at different times, and on chemical defences in the needles.



FIGURE C1. Field results for the second growing season. Effect of the methyl jasmonate application (0, 5, 10 and 25 mM MJ) on the probability of being attacked, the probability of stem girdling, mortality rates and new debarked area in attacked seedlings of four conifer species planted in two clear-cuts in Spain (*P. pinaster* and *P. radiata*, left panels) and Sweden (*P. sylvestris* and *P. abies*, right panels) naturally attacked by the pine weevil (*H. abietis*), during the second year after planting. All treatments were applied twice, 4 and 2 weeks before plantation. Least square means \pm s.e.m. (N = 80). Different letters above each bar indicate significant differences (p < 0.05) among MJ treatments within each species. n.s.: no significant differences were found; n.c.: generalized mixed model failed to converge. Note that different y-axis scales are used for the debarked area.



FIGURE C2. Total height (A) and basal stem diameter (B) at the time of planting of seedlings of four conifer species treated with different concentration of methyl jasmonate. All treatments were applied twice 4 and 2 weeks before measurements. Different letters above each bar indicate significant differences (p < 0.05) among MJ treatments within each species.



FIGURE C3. Effect of methyl jasmonate application (0 mM, 5 mM, 10 mM, 25 mM MJ) on height and basal diameter of four conifer species planted in two clear-cuts in Spain (*P. pinaster* and *P. radiata*, left panels) and Sweden (*P. sylvestris* and *P. abies*, right panels) naturally infested by the pine weevil (*H. abietis*) after the first (bottom part of the bars) and second (upper part of the bars) growing seasons after planting. All treatments were applied twice, 4 and 2 weeks before plantation. Different letters above each bar indicate significant differences (p < 0.05) among MJ treatments within each species and year. Least square means \pm s.e.m (N = 80 seedlings).



FIGURE C4. Effect of methyl jasmonate application (0, 5, 10 or 25 mM MJ) on major chemical defences in the needles. (A) Concentration of non-volatile resin and (B) total polyphenolics in the needles of seedlings of four conifer species. All treatments were applied twice, 7 and 5 weeks before sampling for chemical analyses. Least square means \pm s.e. (N = 80 seedlings). Different letters above each bar indicate significant differences (p < 0.05) among MJ treatments within each species.

Zas, Björklund, Nordlander, Cendán, Hellqvist and Sampedro. 2013. Exploiting

jasmonate-induced responses for field protection of conifer seedlings against a major

forest pest, Hylobius abietis.

APPENDIX D. Supplementary results: Relationship between chemical defences and weevil damage at field



FIGURE D1. Relationships between the concentration of non-volatile resin and total polyphenolics in the stems and the debarked area caused by the pine weevil at field in the four studied species. Each point represents the least square mean for each MJ treatment, including the untreated control (treatment T1, white points), the two single applications of MJ (treatments T5 and T6, gray points) and the four double applications of MJ (treatments T2, T3, T4, black points). Bars are the standard errors of the least square means. The coefficient of determination (R^2) is shown for those relationships that are significant at p<0.05.