



Effects of climate and soil properties on growth of *Pinus pinea* young plantations

Verónica Loewe-Muñoz¹ · Claudia Bonomelli ·
Rodrigo del Río · Claudia Delard ·
Mónica Balzarini

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Abstract

Background and aims Growth of *Pinus pinea* forests and plantations in native countries is known to be affected by soil and climate characteristics. However, edaphoclimatic drivers of growth and fruiting have been scarcely studied outside the species' native range; in addition, the role of soil nutrients, particularly in juvenile trees' development, has been poorly explored.

Methods Relationships between edaphoclimatic variables and the performance of 54 young plantations were studied in Chile. Vegetative growth and fruiting were measured in 100 randomly selected trees per plantation. Composite soil samples were

taken from each site to analyze soil chemical characteristics and texture. A principal component analysis was performed including climatic, soil data, and growth and fruiting variables.

Results Annual growth was 1.3 cm year⁻¹ for stem diameter, 28.3 cm year⁻¹ for crown diameter, and 38.9 cm year⁻¹ for height; cone production per crown area was 0.07 cones m⁻². Negative correlation of height growth, crown growth and cone production with EC, Na, and pH were found, along with positive correlations with OM, PP and the index PP × AT. Stem diameter growth was favored by less acidic soils with high sand content, and showed no correlation with cone production. Furthermore, vegetative growth was positively correlated with N, P, Mg and clay content. In young plantations, vegetative growth was higher than in the species' native habitat.

Conclusion Soil properties, in particular low EC and Na were identified as favorable for growth of young stone pine trees, along with high content of soil N, P and Mg, and PP.

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V. Loewe-Muñoz (✉) · C. Delard
Chilean Forest Institute (INFOR), Metropolitan Office,
Sucre 2397, Santiago, Chile
e-mail: vloewe@infor.cl

V. Loewe-Muñoz · C. Bonomelli · R. del Río
Centro Nacional de Excelencia Para La Industria de La
Madera (CENAMAD), Pontificia Universidad Católica de
Chile, Santiago, Chile

C. Bonomelli
Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile, Av. Vicuña
Mackenna 4860, Macul, Santiago, Chile

M. Balzarini
CONICET - Universidad Nacional de Córdoba, Córdoba,
Argentina

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Introduction

Stone pine (*Pinus pinea* L.) is a Mediterranean species that produces highly priced pine nuts (Lonja

de Reus 2020). Due to the socio-economic benefits of its cropping, the species is currently planted in several countries. In the native habitat, most natural stands grow on incipient soil types, such as arenosols, regosols, and lithosols (Mutke et al. 2012). However, the species has been reported to grow on better soils, such as mature cambisols or luvisols (Mutke et al. 2012); on well drained soils with low carbonate content, such as Lower Cretaceous sandstone or volcanic formations; on Cretaceous hard rock limestone (Masri et al. 1999); and on granite, volcanites, gneiss, flysch, quartzite, mica-schist and sand deposits (Bonari et al. 2020; IUSS 2022). Studies on growth variability (Court-Picon et al. 2004) and pine nut content (Evaristo et al. 2010; Vanhanen and Savage 2013) have revealed the species' sensitivity to soil. However, the main edaphic drivers of stone pine growth and fruiting outside the species native range have been scarcely studied.

An analysis of growth of adult stone pine trees along a climatic gradient in Chile (Loewe et al. 2015) showed marked differences in vegetative growth rates among zones, with the highest height and diameter at breast height (measured at 1.3 m height, DBH) growth rates (0.35 m year^{-1} and $1.50 \text{ cm year}^{-1}$, respectively) corresponding to the south of Chile (Loewe et al. 2015). Temperature and rainfall had a high and significant impact on height growth, which was favored by annual average temperature below $14 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, a high winter thermal oscillation ($> 14 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$) and annual rainfall over $1,400 \text{ mm year}^{-1}$. DBH growth was also favored by an average annual temperature below $14 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. The highest values of cone number ($62 \text{ cones tree}^{-1}$), which were also recorded in the south of Chile, were favored by a spring minimum temperature above $7 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ and an annual thermal oscillation below $12 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ (Loewe et al. 2016).

Currently, most of the stone pine plantations in Chile (covering over 4,500 ha) are younger than 15 years, and their susceptibility to challenging environments might be greater than in native forests (Navarro-Cerrillo et al. 2018). Furthermore, it has been reported that bigger trees are more drought-tolerant than smaller, non-grafted ones (De Luis et al. 2009). Stone pine trees have a robust root system (Mutke et al. 2012; Jaouadi et al. 2021) that allows growth in many soil types (Cutini 2002), including poor habitats such as mobile dunes or limestone. However, some

soil characteristics, like fertility, were found to affect growth (Montero et al. 2008; Bonari et al. 2020).

In young plantations, Loewe-Muñoz et al. (2019) reported that, altogether, climatic and edaphic variables could explain differences in stone pine growth across environments. In adult stone pine stands growth and cone production vary widely, depending on site quality and soil water availability (Mutke et al. 2012). The site index, which quantifies site quality, is defined as the height of trees that have always been dominant or codominant and healthy at a reference age (Piqué, 2003). Among the important soil variables in defining site quality for stone pine, Bravo-Oviedo and Montero (2005) mentioned soil texture, water holding capacity and altitude, particularly under developed acidic soils with loamy to sandy texture and limited chemical fertility. Mutke et al. (2012) indicated that soil properties are more important in defining tree growth than genetics (70% vs 15%).

The lack of knowledge about good management has been indicated as the main problem of the stone pine supply chain (Correia 2020). In fact, few studies have addressed how soil properties and available elements affect the performance of stone pine young plantations under different climatic conditions outside the species' native area (Ravazi et al. 2006; Tecimen et al. 2018; Loewe-Muñoz et al. 2020; Piraino et al. 2021). Non-mature forests may require different management strategies from those used for mature forests. Thinning was reported to improve growth response to drought for several pines (Navarro-Cerrillo et al. 2023), including stone pine trees (Del Río et al. 2011; Pardos et al. 2015).

Fertilization is commonly used to enhance growth and fruit production in several species. In pines, fertilization has been assessed in *Pinus pinaster* Aiton (Zas and Fernández-López 2005), *P. edulis* Engelm., *P. monophylla* Torr. & Frém. (McLain and Frazier 2008), *P. taeda* L. (Maggard et al. 2016), and *P. pinea* (Loewe et al. 2017). Studies on the impact of fertilization on adult *P. pinea* trees showed sensitivity to deficiency of the micronutrients boron (Bento and Coutinho 2011), and iron (Malchi and Shenker 2011). The latter authors reported that iron deficiency significantly decreases root growth and induces a reduction in chlorophyll in needles in soils with high soil pH. Similarly, the decline of the macronutrients nitrogen, phosphorus, potassium and calcium was found to increase cone loss (Kilci et al. 2013). Finally, calcium

magnesium carbonate supply improved cone production and cone quality (Calama et al. 2007).

Nitrogen is a crucial macronutrient because it is a component of proteins and enzymes, and a vital part of chlorophyll (Ezeagu et al. 2002). A low N concentration per unit leaf mass was detected in adult stone pine trees growing in central-western Spain (Escudero and Mediavilla 2003). The effect of fertilization on growth and physiological characteristics was studied in seedlings and during the first years of plantation establishment both in stone pine (Delard et al. 2023) and in other pine species (Song et al. 2022). However, the role of soil nutrients on growth and development of juvenile trees has been less explored in stone pine.

The aim of this work was to study how soil texture, organic matter content and chemical properties (pH, EC, nutrient supply), and climatic variables (temperatures and rainfall) affect the performance of young stone pine plantations in Chile. We hypothesize that juvenile tree growth and fruiting would respond positively to the availability of some soil nutrients under different climatic conditions.

Materials and methods

Experimental design and study sites

The study was conducted in central Chile, between Valparaíso and Aysén regions (33.7°S to 46.6°S of latitude). A total of 54 stone pine plantations located in 19 sites were studied (Fig. 1). All plantations were younger than 15 years, with an average age of 6.6 ± 0.5 years. The planted area ranged from 0.5 to 3.0 hectares, with plantation spacing ranging from 5×5 to 7×7 m. In each plantation, 100 trees were randomly selected to measure vegetative growth and fruiting. Growth variables were recorded in winter, including root-collar diameter (RCD) and DBH, using a caliper; tree height was measured with a height pole and crown diameter was estimated as the distance between the crown projections of the longest living branches. All 3-year-old mature cones from each tree in the entire crown were counted. Growth rates were estimated for height, and for stem and crown diameters by dividing the observed value by tree age. Cone number was expressed as number of cones per crown area ($\# \text{ m}^{-2}$).

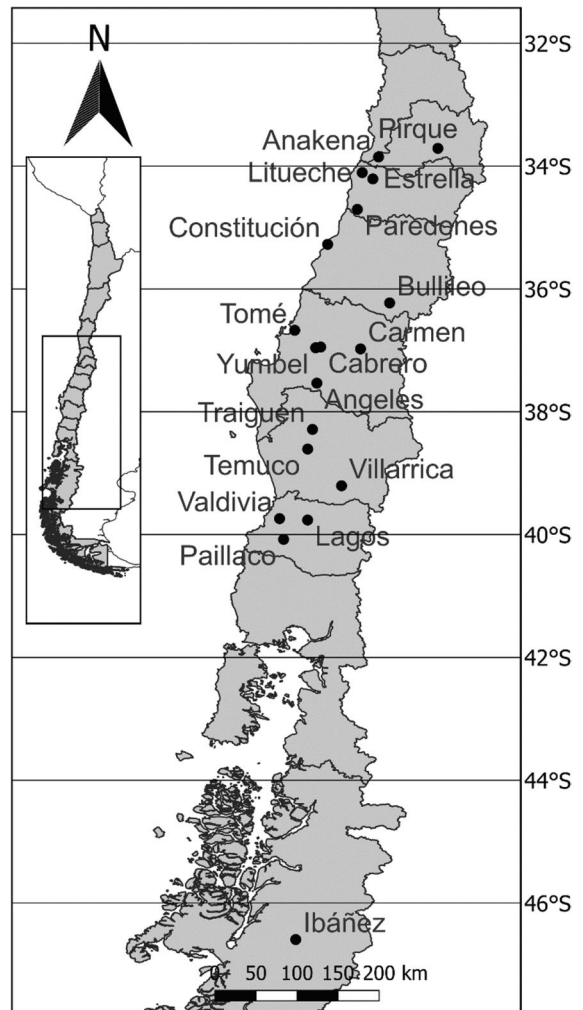


Fig. 1 Location of the studied stone pine plantations in Chile

Annual climate data were obtained from a 10-year climate series of the meteorological stations that were closest to the studied plantations (<http://www.dga.cl>). The following climatic variables were included: average temperature (AT); maximum average temperature (MXT); minimum average temperature (MNT); total annual rainfall (PP, expressed in mm); and thermal oscillation (TO = average maximum absolute temperature minus average minimum absolute temperature for a given period expressed in Celsius degrees). Climate indices were used to capture the interaction of rainfall and temperature along the studied latitudinal gradient. They were obtained by multiplying rainfall by temperature variables ($\text{PP} \times \text{AT}$, $\text{PP} \times \text{MNT}$ and $\text{PP} \times \text{MXT}$).

Composite soil samples were taken from the first 25 cm at each site. The following chemical characteristics were analyzed: pH (soil:water, 1:2.5); electrical conductivity (EC), measured in the same supernatant as the soil pH (1:2.5) analyzer (pH- EC meter Thermo Orion 3 Star); Organic Matter (OM) (Walky–Black wet oxidation method); nitrogen (N) concentration, determined using a LECO CNS-2000 Macro Elemental Analyzer (Leco Corporation, MI, US); and phosphorus (P), using the Olsen method. All exchangeable cations (K, Ca, Mg, Na) were also measured by extraction from the soil with 1 N ammonium acetate at pH 7.0; extractions were analyzed by ICP-Optical Emission Spectroscopy (Agilent 720 ES axial spectrometer, Varian Inc., Victoria, Australia). Texture (percentage of sand, silt and clay) was analyzed using the Bouyoucos method. Information on climate and some soil properties of each site is provided in Table 1.

Statistical analyses

A principal component analysis was performed including climatic, soil data, and growth and fruiting variables, generating a biplot (Johnson and Wichern 2015). Statistical analysis was performed using the software InfoStat (Di Rienzo et al. 2023) and its interface with R (<http://www.r-project.org>).

Results

Annual growth rate of stem diameter, crown diameter and height ranged from 0.2 to 2.7 cm year⁻¹, 5.5 to 54.8 cm year⁻¹, and 11.5 to 79.7 cm year⁻¹, respectively, with an average of 1.3 cm year⁻¹, 28.3 cm year⁻¹, and 38.9 cm year⁻¹, respectively. Cones per crown area ranged from 0.0 to 0.6 cones m⁻² across the studied young stone pine plantations, with an average of 0.07 cones m⁻². Figure 2 represents the biplot of the three principal components by plantation, which explained 63.4% of the variability. The CP1 showed negative correlation of height growth, crown growth and cone production with EC, Na and pH, and positive correlations with OM, PP and the index PP×AT. The CP2 showed a different behavior of stem diameter, being favored by less acidic soils with high sand content; interestingly, DBH growth showed no correlation with cone

production. Finally, the CP3 showed a positive correlation of vegetative growth (height and stem and crown diameter) with N, P, Mg and clay content.

Discussion

In our study, we confirmed high vegetative growth values in young stone pine plantations, with average values being higher than those reported by Correia et al. (2018) in the species' native habitat (1.3 vs 0.6 cm year⁻¹ in stem diameter, 38.9 vs 22.5 cm year⁻¹ in height). This result could be explained by a cooler climate (Loewe et al. 2015) and by the soil characteristics prevailing in the area where stone pine has been established in Chile. In this study, in sites where young plantations were successful, soil pH ranged from 5.2 to 6.8 and nutrients availability was enough. These soil characteristics are similar to those described by Bonari et al. (2020) for the primary habitat of natural stone pine dominant forests in terms of nutrient content (nitrogen and calcium) and a slightly acidic to acidic soil pH. Detecting differences in growth responses to site-specific soil patterns may allow us to select appropriate management strategies (Seifu et al. 2023).

Soil chemical and physical properties and growth

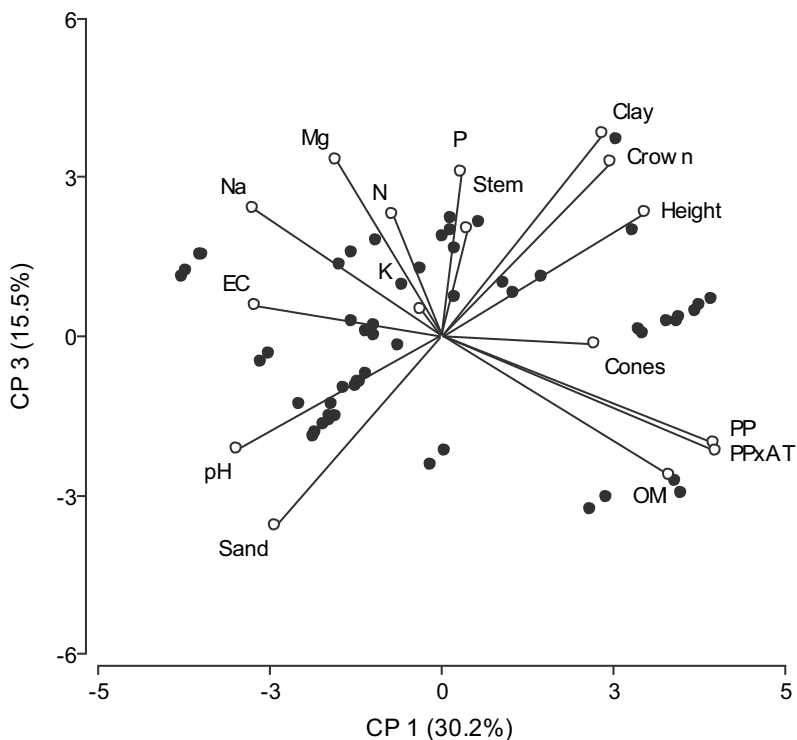
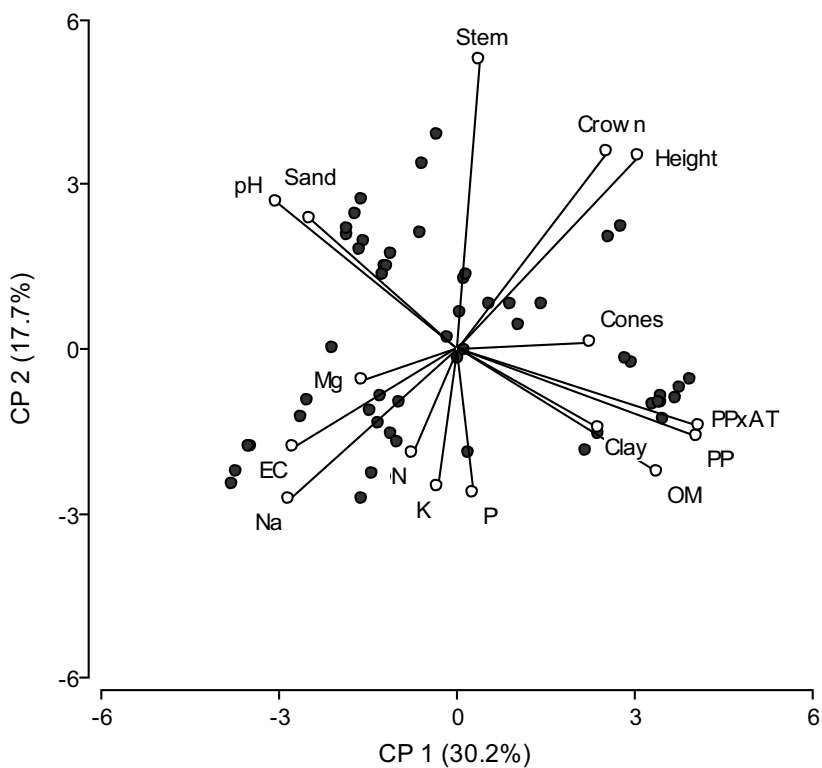
In our study, which covered a latitudinal range of 1,500 km, we found that soil properties, particularly N, P, Mg, Na, and EC, and climate are equally important for stone pine growth. Management techniques to enhance stem diameter growth have been proposed, since diameter was found to be positively correlated to cone production (Freire et al. 2019) and to total aboveground biomass (Correia et al. 2018). The systemic integration of pedoclimatic factors that affect crop production and cultural practices has been identified as key for a successful crop diversification (Hellou 2022). It is often assumed that nutrients are the main limiting resources and that light, water availability, salinity and temperature do not interfere with the response to removal of nutrient limitations (Goldstein et al. 2013).

Besides light and water, CO₂ and mineral elements are required for plant growth and development. Nitrogen is critical due to its role in synthesizing amino acids, proteins, nucleotides, chlorophyll, metabolites

Table 1 Average values of climate and soil properties of the sites where the studied stone pine plantations are located

Site	Annual rainfall (mm)	Annual average temperature (°C)	Thermal oscillation (°C)	Minimum average temperature (°C)	Maximum average temperature (°C)	Soil texture (sand, silt and clay in %)	pH	Organic matter (%)	N-P-K (mg kg ⁻¹)	Sodium (cmol + kg ⁻¹)	Calcium (cmol + kg ⁻¹)	Electrical conductivity (mmhos cm ⁻¹)
Pirque	206	13.8	19.6	4.6	24.2	68; 23; 9	6.2	1.7	65; 13; 150	0.30	11.7	0.28
Anakena	354	13.8	11.6	8.7	20.3	48; 22; 30	6.8	0.6	17; 2; 119	0.28	7.9	0.05
Litueche	449	12.9	12.6	6.9	19.5	34; 29; 37	5.9	1.3	12; 10; 71	0.16	3.5	0.03
Estrella	363	13.4	17.0	5.4	22.4	68; 16; 16	6.6	0.4	26; 3; 49	0.09	3.7	0.02
Paredones	512	12.8	15.4	5.6	21.0	51; 27; 22	5.6	3.6	3; 12; 164	0.06	1.5	0.25
Constitución	548	14.1	7.7	10.4	18.1	95; 4; 1	6.5	2.1	8; 6; 212	0.10	3.7	0.05
Bullileo	2,102	12.3	12.8	6.3	19.1	65; 24; 11	5.8	22.0	12; 4; 125	0.03	1.9	0.03
Tomé	711	13.0	8.6	8.7	17.3	38; 26; 36	5.3	3.0	6; 2; 186	0.06	1.1	0.05
Cabrero	498	14.0	13.6	7.8	21.3	95; 3; 2	6.7	0.7	3; 2; 73	0.07	2.5	0.10
Yumbel	498	14.0	13.6	7.8	21.3	73; 4; 23	6.2	5.4	48; 8; 165	0.05	3.8	0.07
Carmen	790	12.4	14.0	5.4	19.4	8; 49; 43	6.2	7.1	17; 11; 106	0.06	2.2	0.03
Angeles	407	13.8	14.5	7.0	21.6	74; 22; 4	6.3	1.0	2; 7; 178	0.05	2.0	0.04
Traiguén	827	11.7	11.7	5.8	17.5	34; 40; 26	5.8	4.5	13; 13; 345	0.12	7.0	0.05
Temuco	921	11.4	12.6	6.0	18.6	44; 39; 17	5.8	2.6	16; 5; 190	0.14	3.1	0.05
Villarrica	1,460	10.9	13.8	4.3	18.1	54; 40; 6	6.7	9.6	11; 2; 25	0.08	0.3	0.09
Valdivia	1,947	11.9	10.2	7.5	17.7	39; 36; 25	5.3	15.4	18; 19; 178	0.07	9.8	0.01
Lagos	2,006	11.4	11.2	6.4	17.6	42; 23; 35	5.8	9.3	53; 4; 109	0.06	0.4	0.03
Paillaco	1,947	11.9	10.2	7.5	17.7	12; 39; 49	5.2	7.3	9; 4; 89	0.09	5.2	0.01
Ibáñez	874	9.6	7.2	6.4	13.6	32; 60; 8	6.3	7.2	9; 6; 355	0.22	11.7	0.02

Fig. 2 Biplot for vegetative growth (height, and crown and stem diameter) and cone production, and climate and soil variables according to plantation. EC: electrical conductivity, PP: rainfall, PPxAT: annual rainfall \times average temperature index, OM: organic matter



and cellular components, and it is required by plants in higher quantities than other nutrients (Nunes-Nesi et al. 2010). In this study, we found that vegetative growth is positively correlated to soil N content. This result agrees with a previous study performed in Chile, in which the three environments with the highest stone pine tree growth had a high soil N content (Loewe-Muñoz et al. 2019). A positive effect of fertilization with N, among other elements, on *P. pinea* stem diameter growth was reported in areas with Mediterranean climate in Turkey (Kilci et al. 2013), France (Rapp et al. 1979) and the central valley of Chile (Loewe-Muñoz et al. 2020; <http://www.dga.cl>). Similar results were found in young *Pinus taeda* L. plantations (5–7 years-old) established on acidic soils. Additionally, Thirukkumaran and Parkinson (2002) reported that N fertilization enhanced pine forest floor decay.

On the other hand, Balekoglu et al. (2021) found that a higher concentration of N in stone pine seeds provides higher water uptake, increasing mean germination percentage, whereas in seedlings, N may enhance survival and competitive amplitude. N fertilization in poplar plantations constrained by water and N deficiency resulted in improved drought adaptation and growth performance (Song et al. 2019); similar results were obtained in *Eucalyptus* by Bonomelli and Suarez (1999). Nitrogen addition under drought also increased leaf abscisic acid level, regulating stomata adjustment and promoting water use efficiency. Moreover, N fertilization increased levels of antioxidants in leaves of poplars, improving defense, drought tolerance and growth (Song et al. 2019). Felton et al. (2023) discussed the use of N fertilization as a strategy for climate change adaptation and mitigation, and indicated a positive growth response obtained when applying N. However, fertilizations with high N doses may not be sustained over time; indeed, the authors stated that the response may be regulated by the availability of other nutrients and water, and that when doses are not optimal, N fertilization could even induce deficiency of other nutrients.

Phosphorus is an essential element determining plants' growth and productivity, being a structural component of nucleic acids, sugars and lipids. Furthermore, it has a relevant role on seed germination, seedling establishment, root, shoot, flower and seed development, photosynthesis and respiration (Marschner 2012). In our study, we found a positive

correlation of vegetative growth and P; in fact, numerous plantations have been established on andisols containing a clay fraction dominated by allophane which induces a strong retention of phosphorus, and consequently, a low availability of this essential nutrient for plant growth (Toneatti-Bastidas and Roger-Estrade 2015). Our findings agree with Consalter et al. (2021) who showed that fertilization with N and P led to volumetric gains of 100% and enhanced the volume of the most desirable log classes, adding economic value.

Magnesium is one of the essential macronutrients for plant growth, with functions including participation in photosynthesis, enzyme activation, and synthesis of nucleic acids and proteins (Chen et al. 2018). Mg deficiency reduced *P. radiata* D. Don growth through severe reductions in photosynthesis (Laing et al. 2000). Coincidentally, in our study, we observed a positive correlation of soil Mg content with stone pine growth in young trees.

Salinity may be a problem in soils, disrupting productivity and affecting physical, chemical and biological soil properties (El-Ramady et al. 2024); i.e. high levels of Na affect soil structure, induce soil sealing, and reduce water infiltration and availability. In our study, we found negative correlations of height growth, crown diameter growth and cone production, with EC. EC values are highly correlated with both chemical and physical soil attributes, including soil water content (dos Santos et al. 2023). In soils where young stone pine plantations are grown in eastern Turkey, Tecimen et al. (2018) reported EC values from 0.094 to 0.097 mmhos cm^{-1} , lower than the ones observed in this study. Fernández-Caliani et al. (2021) reported that stone pine trees presented high survival (72%) and grew well in land reclaimed from a pyrite mine in Spain, with salinity varying from non-saline to moderately saline. In a stone pine plantation with slightly saline sandy soils in eastern Turkey, Kizildag et al. (2012) found that salt level had no effect on microbial activity. In a study on the EC of saline irrigation water, negative effects increased when there was no fresh water supply and stone pine trees used the underlying salty water (Teobaldelli et al. 2004). Drainage is therefore very important, and our results indeed showed that the higher the sand content, the better the stem diameter growth, which is related to salt leaching. Teobaldelli et al. (2004) observed reductions in productivity and health status

linked to the persistent and periodic phenomena of combined drought and salt stress during summer; the authors confirmed the negative effects of salty water and prolonged soil drought on stone pine sap flow. The soils in which the studied stone pine plantations grow contain a relatively low soluble salt content in the soil solution, with values that classify them as non-saline (SDSHC 2023). However, it must be taken into account that in this study EC was measured in the supernatant of the soil: water, 1:2.5 instead of using the EC of saturated paste extract method, the most commonly used, with which higher values are obtained.

Regarding sodium, we found a negative correlation with vegetative growth, including height, and stem and crown diameter, as well as with cone production. Sidari et al. (2008) reported that a solution of NaCl of 50 mM caused a five-fold reduction in seed germination, and a solution of 100 mM inhibited germination; in addition, Barbolani et al. (1997) found small concentrations of Na⁺ and Cl⁻ ions in the needles and the woody tissues of stone pine trees, which indicates absorption of salts.

Soil texture is important for stone pine because its roots prefer well-aired and coarse-textured soils, such as sand, loamy sand, sandy loam, and soil with gravel (with water-holding capacity of at least 60 mm) (Gonçalves et al. 2023). In compact clay or silt soils (with less than 40% sand and more than 40% silt or more than 30% clay), root development is restricted, especially during the first phase of seedling establishment, and flowering can be delayed for many years, fixing the plant ontogeny in a stationary juvenile state (Mutke et al. 2012). However, stone pine can survive and thrive in heavy soils as long as they are not waterlogged (Gandullo and Sánchez-Palomares 1994).

Climate variables and growth

Some climate variables, including PP and the index PP×AT, were found to be positively correlated to height and crown diameter growth, and to cone production, in agreement with findings of Gonçalves et al. (2023), who indicated that the main limiting factor to the species growth is water availability, and with studies that report that the species optimum rainfall level ranges between 500 and 800 mm (Castaño et al. 2004; CABI 2022). In Turkey, rainfall (annual and of the wettest quarter), besides minimum

temperature of the coldest month, is the most significant predictors of the potential distribution of the species (Bonari et al. 2020). In Italy, Tani (1991) attributed the diffuse and anomalous withering of the canopies to the occurrence of a marked drought period in autumn and spring, and Gandolfo (1999) reported that dendrochronological measurements were favored by the hydraulic supply from lateral runoff. Furthermore, Piusi and Torta (1994) found that needle length significantly declined after years of reduced rainfall. The severe continuous mega-drought that has affected Chile in the last decade, with rainfall drops of up to 40% (Garreaud et al. 2020), has reduced or even inhibited cone production in many plantations located in the central region. Furthermore, Loewe et al. (2016) reported that low rainfall reduces the species' growth, which was also reported by other studies (El Khorchani et al. 2007; Mazza and Manetti 2013; Natalini et al. 2016). A negative impact of warm conditions on growth was reported for *P. pinea* (Mechergui et al. 2021) and *P. pinaster* (Navarro-Cerrillo et al. 2018). On the other hand, Masri et al. (1999) indicated that cone production in Lebanon is significantly higher on the wetter slopes than on the drier ones.

In Chile, increased drought conditions with reduced rainfall and soil moisture, and increased temperatures since 1985 have affected both native species (Santelices-Moya et al. 2022) and exotic ones, including stone pine. One of the effects of drought on tree ecophysiology is the alteration of nutrient uptake and transport (Hu et al. 2023). Interestingly, these authors indicated that when nutrient uptake occurs during drought, high nutrient availability may increase water use efficiency, minimizing negative feedbacks between carbon and nutrient balances. Nutrients are released after the end of the drought period, which could promote a faster recovery, but the temporal dynamics of microbial immobilization and nutrient leaching significantly impact nutrient availability (Gessler et al. 2017). Therefore, climatic and edaphic variables together could be responsible for differences in stone pine growth across environments in Chile.

In a climate change scenario, the search for management alternatives to cope with these challenging conditions –adaptive forest management– is of high priority both for timber and cone production. First, adequate soil preparation is key; the addition of organic matter would improve soil structure and

water and nutrient retention capacity (Mutke et al. 2012). Then, management practices that optimize tree growth and vigor are crucial for the species cropping (Mutke et al. 2012). Under limiting conditions for growth, tree thinning may be appropriate (Smith 1986), with positive effects on cone production having been reported (Moreno-Fernández et al. 2013).

Fertilization is another technique that deserves attention when the species is cropped for pine nut production. In fact, yield increments in cone number and size have been achieved by applying fertilizers and soil pH amendments, especially with dolomite (calcium-magnesium carbonate) on oligotrophic sands or gravels (Calama et al. 2007). Loewe-Muñoz et al. (2023) recently reported a boosting effect of fertilization on total pine nut weight per cone. Since nutrient uptake will depend on water availability, which is scarce in part of the stone pine's growing area, further studies combining fertilization and complementary irrigation (Lodolini et al. 2014) may be useful to allow tree survival and a minimum cone production. This study suggests that a targeted stone pine nutritional management might assist in enhancing growth and cone production, and that this management should be based on soil chemical and physical properties. These findings contribute to the understanding of different growing conditions of stone pine plantations and introduce original knowledge to boost this species cropping in environments exposed to new challenges.

Conclusions

In a wide latitudinal range, we found that soil properties are as important as climate for young stone pine tree growth. In particular, low soil EC and Na content were identified as favorable for growth, as well as high N, P and Mg concentrations. These results contribute to the understanding of the impacts of nutrients availability on stone pine performance under different climate conditions. In light of climate change, management techniques including fertilization could improve performance of the species cropping.

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Author contributions All authors contributed to the study conception and design. Material preparation and data collection were performed by Rodrigo del Río. Claudia Delard was in charge of trial maintenance. Claudia Bonomelli directed soil sampling, interpreted results, and contributed to the discussion. Mónica Balzarini led the statistical analysis. Verónica Loewe-Muñoz wrote the first draft of the manuscript and all authors commented on successive versions of the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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Data availability The datasets generated and analyzed during the current study are not publicly available due to institutional guidelines, but are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

Declarations

Competing interest The authors have no relevant financial or non-financial interests to disclose.

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