

1 **The management of olive decline disease complex caused by *Xylella fastidiosa* subsp.**
2 ***pauca* and *Neofusicoccum* spp. in Apulia, Italy**

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23 **Highlights**

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25 • *Xylella fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* is associated with the olive quick decline syndrome in a vast
26 area of Salento (Apulia, Italy).

27 • In the long-term period, a foliar bio-fertilizer that contains zinc (4%), copper (2%) and citric
28 acid has shown to significantly reduce the disease.

29 • Upon the sprays, interdisciplinary studies revealed a rapid re-programming of tree metabolites
30 towards the healthy status.

31 • Recently, aggressive *Neofusicoccum* spp. are also found associated with declining olive trees.

32 • Specific treatments for fungal infections should be also found to manage this disease complex.

1 Abstract

2 *Xylella fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* (*Xfp*) is associated to the “olive quick decline syndrome”, a
3 severe disease affecting olive groves of Salento (Apulia, Italy). Through a series of
4 interdisciplinary studies, it has been possible to assess and to set up an effective management
5 strategy aimed at maintaining the traditional olive germplasm of Salento. To this aim, a
6 systemic bio-fertilizer that contain zinc (4%), copper (2%) and citric acid, namely Dentamet®,
7 is sprayed to the tree canopy, once per month, from spring to early autumn. The strategy also
8 includes a sustainable vector control through agronomical techniques as well as the regular tree
9 pruning and soil fertilization. Quantitative real-time PCR assessments performed in the long-
10 term period showed a significant reduction of *Xfp* concentration in the leaf xylem tissue upon
11 the treatments, thus allowing the olive trees to normally yield. Both ¹H-NMRmetabolomic and
12 mass-spectrometry lipidomic analyses of leaf extracts revealed the occurrence of biomarkers
13 linked to the disease or to tree restoration. Mannitol and oleuropein derivatives and 13-
14 oxylipins/DOX-oxylipins and of 9-oxylipins appear related to the remission of the symptoms.
15 Both techniques point to a rapid re-programming of the metabolic tree activity upon the spray
16 treatments toward a healthy status. Multi-scale satellite imagery monitoring through high-
17 resolution Sentinel-2, very high-resolution Pleiades and vegetation indices confirmed the
18 robustness of the strategy through several years in both experimental and productive olive
19 groves. Currently, the strategy is applied in many olive groves of the infected areas of Salento.
20 To note that some aggressive fungal species belonging to *Neofusicoccum* genus have been
21 recently found associated to olive trees that show symptoms like those induce by *Xfp*. Co-
22 infections between the bacterium and fungi have been also observed, this suggests approaching
23 a more in-depth assessment of the olive decline syndrome epidemiology and management.

24

25 **Key words:** Olive quick decline syndrome, zinc, copper, quantitative real-time PCR, ¹H-NMR
26 metabolomic, bacterial lipids, satellite imagery, *Neofusicoccum* spp.

27

28 Abbreviations

29 ANOVA, Analysis of variance, BTB, Branch and twig dieback; ARVI, Atmospherically
30 resistant vegetation index; CFU, Colony forming unit; DOX, Dioxygenase; DSF, Diffusible
31 signal factors; EPPO, European and Mediterranean Plant Protection Organization; LOX,
32 Lipoxygenase; MLST, multilocus sequence typing; NDRE, Normalized difference red edge
33 index; NDVI, Normalized Difference Vegetation Index; NIR, Near Infrared Reflectance;
34 NMR, Nuclear magnetic resonance, OQDS, Olive quick decline syndrome; OSAVI, Optimized
35 soil adjusted vegetation index; PCA, Principal component analysis; ST, sequence type; *Xfp*,
36 *Xylella fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca*.

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1 **1. *Xylella fastidiosa*: an old but emerging quarantine phytopathogen**

2 *Xylella fastidiosa* is a long-known pathogenic bacterium that represents an ancient problem in
3 the Americas, despite being recently introduced in Europe. For the European and
4 Mediterranean Plant Protection Organization it is included into the quarantine list of bacterial
5 pathogens. The first report of a disease caused by *X. fastidiosa* dates back to the end of 1800
6 on grapevines in California, where Pierce’s disease significantly impacted on the viability of
7 growing grapes. Viticulture was largely abandoned in the area (Hopkins et al., 2002), and the
8 disease became a limiting factor for grape cultivation (Myers et al., 2007). Crop substitutions
9 and altered land use patterns in response to pathogen pressure have a large impact particularly
10 in areas where agriculture is directly linked to cultural identity, as occurred in Italy with the
11 “Olive Quick Decline Syndrome” (OQDS) (Scortichini, 2020a). The unexpected and
12 impressive quick progression of the *X. fastidiosa* epidemic in Italy not only impacted the
13 agricultural production and landscape, but also on cultural heritage and social dynamics
14 (Scortichini, 2020a, Colella, 2023). Following the Apulia infection, new recoveries of *X.*
15 *fastidiosa* occurred in Italy (Tuscany and Latium regions), in Europe (France, Spain, Portugal),
16 and in other countries such as Israel, Iran and Taiwan, thus affecting several host species
17 (EPPO, 2023). *X. fastidiosa* is highly polyphagous being capable to survive in 638 host plants,
18 in many cases symptomless (i.e., latent) (EFSA, 2022), and is divided in subspecies based on
19 host range and genetic relationships (Nunney et al., 2014). Recently, the subspecies *pauca*,
20 *multiplex* and *fastidiosa*, the latter including also the *sandyi* and *morus* populations, have been
21 reclassified on the basis comparative genomic analyses (Marcelletti and Scortichini, 2016a;
22 Denancè et al., 2019).

23 In addition to the subspecies categorization, *X. fastidiosa* can be subdivided also into sequence
24 types (STs) using a Multilocus Sequence Typing (MLST) approach based on sequencing of
25 seven housekeeping genes (Yuan et al., 2010). The introduction and spread of the different
26 strains took place through mechanisms of recombination and translocation between plant hosts.
27 The MLST study demonstrated that two of the three subspecies of *X. fastidiosa* found in the
28 United States (i.e., *X. f.* subsp. *fastidiosa* and *sandyi* population) are non-native, presumably
29 introduced in 1880 (i.e., the population *sandyi*) and 1890 (i.e., subsp. *fastidiosa*) from the first
30 outbreaks occurred in the United States (Nunney et al., 2010; Yuan et al., 2010). Previous
31 MLST analyses suggested that there is only one form of *X. fastidiosa* native to the United
32 States, namely *X. f.* subsp. *multiplex* (Nunney et al., 2010). *X. f.* subsp. *pauca* became
33 pathogenic only recently on citrus and coffee (crops cultivated in Brazil for several hundred
34 years) via intersubspecific recombination; a candidate donor is the subspecies infecting plum
35 in the region since 1935 (possibly *X. f.* subsp. *multiplex*) (Nunney et al., 2012). Another
36 divergent strain from subsp. *pauca* responsible of Citrus variegated chlorosis and coffee leaf
37 scorching is that one capable to cause the OQDS in Apulia region, namely the strain “De
38 Donno”. This strain is closely related to a strain of *X. f.* subsp. *pauca* (*Xfp*) from Costa Rica,
39 which infect oleander and coffee plants. It is suspected that the introduction of *Xfp* to Salento
40 (Apulia, Italy) resulted from the importation of ornamental plants and this event seems to be
41 relatively recent (Marcelletti and Scortichini, 2016b; Giampetruzzi et al., 2017).
42 *X. f.* subsp. *multiplex* originates from the southeastern United States and was more recently
43 spread in California, Brazil and Europe. Whole-genome sequences analyses of *X. f.* subsp.

1 *multiplex* from America in comparison with strains associated with recent outbreaks in
2 southern Europe, indicated multiple introductions of *X. fastidiosa* subspecies *multiplex* into
3 Italy, Spain, and France, with a likely origin in California, USA (Landa et al., 2020).
4 If a prompt detection of the pathogen is essential in order to monitor its introduction and/or
5 diffusion on the territory, the individuation the subspecies and STs is crucial in case of new
6 outbreak of *X. fastidiosa* in a pest-free area or in association to new plant hosts. The diagnostic
7 tests for the detection/identification of *X. fastidiosa* are widely described in the diagnostic
8 protocol of the EPPO PM7/24 (4) and the Annex 4 of the EU regulation 2020/1201 lists the
9 methods allowed for official diagnoses. Finally, is worth noting that the ST characterization
10 and, better, the whole genome sequencing (Landa et al., 2020) should indicate the presence of
11 possible recombination among strains that drive the evolution and adaptation of *Xylella*
12 *fastidiosa* to new plant hosts and provide useful information on the possible origin of the
13 strains.
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15 **2. The olive declines in Salento: a complex disease**

16 The epidemic caused by *Xfp* in Salento region represents the most serious phytosanitary event
17 occurred in recent years in Italy with very serious economic, landscape and social
18 consequences. The olive groves of Salento, indeed, represent a remarkable case where an
19 agricultural crop is strictly linked to a territory through a pluri-millennial history (Primavera et
20 al., 2017) along which all the human populations that inhabited such an area benefited from
21 the tree yield and the consequent trade (Calabrese et al., 2012; Lanfranchi and Giannetto, 2012;
22 Scortichini, 2020a). Great public alarm was created further in 2020 for the danger related to
23 the area of monumental olive trees because of the high value of these millennial trees, which
24 in addition to being protected by regional law, have been proposed for UNESCO World
25 Heritage status (Sportelli, 2020). It should be also added that the local cultivars, traditionally,
26 trained in Salento since ancient times, namely Cellina di Nardò and Ogliarola salentina, are
27 characterized by a relevant content of high value for nutrition and human health (i.e.,
28 polyphenols) (Del Coco et al., 2014; Negro et al., 2019).

29 *X. fastidiosa* was associated in October 2013 with the declining olive trees (Saponari et al.,
30 2013) occurred in a restricted area of the Apulian region (i.e., Salento, province of Lecce, south-
31 east Italy), and characterized as subspecies *pauca* in 2014 (Cariddi et al., 2014). This bacterium
32 was proposed as the causal agent of OQDS. In Salento, *Xfp* is characterized by a wide
33 polyphagia, with a range of 56 host/plant species (EFSA, 2022), including ornamental species
34 typical of the Mediterranean flora and crop species as olive, cherry and almond. The bacterium
35 is naturally transmitted by insect vectors such as *Philaenus spumarius*, which feed on the xylem
36 sap of host plants (Cornara et al., 2017).

37 In olive, symptoms of OQDS include leaf scorching, scattered desiccation of twigs and
38 branches starting from the top of the tree canopy and expands to the rest of the crown, delayed
39 growth, desiccation and death of plants. In several species, the pathogen multiplies and
40 colonizes the vascular system inducing alterations by occlusions of xylem vessels by bacterial

1 aggregates embedded in an exopolysaccharide matrix, and tyloses and gums produced by the
2 plant in response to infection (De la Fuente et al., 2008; Rapicavoli et al., 2018).

3 It should be said that symptoms resembling OQDS were already reported by olive growers
4 some years before its identification. Sicard et al. (2022), by using a tip-dating approach,
5 estimated that the introduction of *Xfp* in Apulia region most likely occurred in 2008 through
6 infected coffee ornamental plant from Central America. Genomic studies suggest that the
7 genome of the strain identified in Apulia region (namely sequence type ST53) is closely related
8 to that of Costa Rica (Marcelletti and Scortichini 2016; Giampetruzzi et al., 2017). However,
9 the date of 2008 may not be strictly related to when the pathogen was first introduced in Italy
10 or to when it started to be adapted to olive trees as a host plant or when the epidemic really
11 started (Sicard et al., 2022). By following the monitoring reports of the Phytosanitary Service
12 of the Apulia region, meteorological data on the increase in temperature of the earth's surface,
13 logistic functions coupled with fitting models (Kottelenberg et al., 2021) and in-depth analysis
14 on the latency period of the disease, it can be also postulated that the diffusion of OQDS started
15 from 2002-2003 (Scortichini, 2022).

16 At the time of its first report in 2013, about 8.000-10.000 hectares were already affected, such
17 an area corresponds to about 1 million olive trees (Martelli, 2016); 12 months later the hectares
18 compromised were more than 20.000 and a few years afterwards the disease was defined
19 endemic (Strona et al., 2017), and considered no longer eradicable. In order to apply the
20 measures for containing quarantine pathogens, the National and European Phytosanitary
21 Authorities propose to move from an “eradication” to a “containment” strategy (European
22 Commission, Commission Implementing Decision, 2015/789).

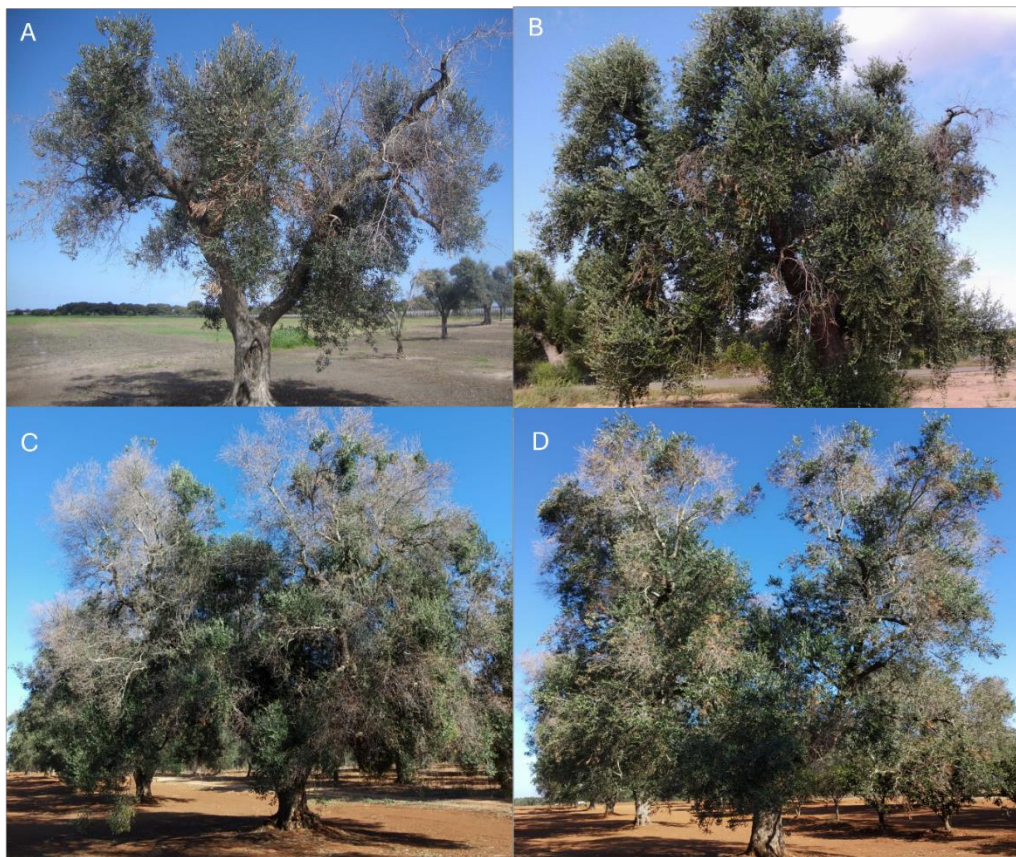
23 The difficulties and consequent delays in the correct identification of the causal agent of OQDS
24 of olive trees has allowed the rapid spread of the disease in Salento territory, where the olive
25 grove is present in extensive monoculture of two autochthonous susceptible cultivars, namely
26 Cellina di Nardò and Ogliarola salentina, for many kilometers (Scortichini, 2022). Another
27 significant predisposing factor may have been favorable conditions for vector *P. spumarius*,
28 the predominant xylem-sap feeder in that area, with a crucial role in spreading the pathogen,
29 able to cause repeated inoculations in olive trees canopy by many adults present (Cornara et
30 al., 2017). The widespread presence of spontaneous host plants and ornamental shrubs,
31 improper agronomic practices (i.e., hard pruning), events of adverse climatic conditions
32 (drought, frost and extreme rainy events) (Scortichini et al., 2018) and alteration of the
33 equilibrium of microelements in the soil (Del Coco et al., 2020) have further favored the rapid
34 spread of the bacterium in that region (Scortichini, 2022).

35 The phytosanitary legislation has demarcated three main areas related to *Xfp* outbreaks in
36 Apulia that can be modified according to the disease progression northward: a) the “infected”
37 area, that includes a vast portion of territory further south of Salento (i.e., the whole Lecce and
38 Brindisi provinces and part of Taranto province); b) the “containment” and “buffer” areas
39 subject to the monitoring and laboratory analyses for pointing out new disease foci. Currently,
40 the bacterium is consolidating in the “containment” zone, breaking through the “buffer” zone

1 and emerging into the safe zone close to Bari province. The pathogen has been estimated that
2 moves with an advance front of about 20 km per year (Kottelenberg et al., 2021).

3 During recent field surveys to perform epidemiological studies on olive decline, it has been
4 noticed twig and branch diebacks that apparently resembled those incited by *Xfp* (Fig. 1).
5 However, by carefully observing the different facets of the disease, some consistent difference
6 with OQDS were revealed. Among these, foliar (Fig. 2) and wood infection allowed to
7 differentiate OQDS from a branch and twig die-back caused by some *Botryosphaeriaceae*
8 fungi; the name “Branch and Twig Dieback” (BTD) was given to the disease (Brunetti et al.
9 2022; Manetti et al., 2023). To note, that both *Xfp* and *Neofusicoccum mediterraneum* and *N.*
10 *stellenboschiana* have been frequently isolated from the same olive tree in different olive
11 groves of Salento (Scortichini et al., 2023).

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16 **Fig. 1** Symptoms that show twig and branch diebacks incited by *Xylella fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca*
17 (*Xfp*) (A and B) and *Neofusicoccum* spp. (C and D) to olive trees in Salento (Apulia, Italy).
18 Such symptoms can be easily confounded during field surveys. The two phytopathogens were
19 detected (*Xfp*) or isolated (*Neofusicoccum*) from such trees.

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21 Remarkably, apart *Xfp*, also other phytopathogens can cause severe diebacks to olive trees in
22 Salento, and that such diebacks can be easily confounded with those of OQDS attributed to
23 *Xfp*, as repeatedly observed during the monitoring surveys for assessing *Xfp* occurrence in the
24 demarcated areas of Salento (Scortichini and Cesari, 2019; Ciervo and Scortichini, 2024).

1 Many trees apparently showing OQDS symptoms, indeed, did not host the bacterium upon the
2 molecular analyses, and in one of the last surveys (i.e., 2022) only 3.21% of symptomatic olive
3 trees hosted *Xfp* (Ciervo and Scortichini, 2024).

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10 **Fig. 2.** Leaf tip wilting induced by *Xylella fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* (A and B), and leaf
11 reddening caused by *Neofusicoccum* spp. (C and D) to olive trees in Salento (Apulia, Italy).
12 The two phytopathogens were detected (*Xfp*) or isolated (*Neofusicoccum*) from such trees.

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15 Some years ago, indeed, *Phaeoacremonium* spp., *Neofusicoccum parvum*, *Diplodia seriata*,
16 and *Pleurostomophora richardsiae* were found associated with declines of olive groves in
17 Apulia (Carlucci et al., 2013, 2015). Such fungi were consistently found either in northern or
18 southern Apulia, even though they were not found associated with *Xfp* in the same tree
19 (Carlucci et al., 2020). More recently, *Arthrinium marii*, was found to be the causal agent of a
20 severe twig dieback and wood discoloration in very young olive trees in Fasano (Brindisi
21 province) and in Andria (north of Bari) (Gerin et al., 2020). This fungus was considered quite
22 dangerous since in the pathogenicity tests expressed a virulence like that induced in the
23 artificial infections by *N. mediterraneum* an agent of a severe olive dieback in Spain and in
24 California (Moral et al., 2010; 2017; Urbez-Torres et al., 2013). *N. mediterraneum* and *N.*
25 *stellenboschiana* were recently found in many olive groves of Salento that showed severe twig

1 and branch diebacks resembling those incited by *Xfp*, and both species resulted significantly
2 pathogenic to olive trees upon pathogenicity tests, and especially *N. mediterraneum* showed a
3 relevant aggressiveness in term of bark cankering and wilting capacity. (Brunetti et al., 2022;
4 Manetti et al., 2023). Interestingly, in our ongoing surveys in Salento, we are ascertaining that
5 *Xfp*, *Botryosphaeriaceae* and even other fungal families can co-infect the same olive trees
6 which show significant wood discoloration among the other symptoms (Manetti et al., 2023;
7 Scortichini et al., 2023). This would suggest a complex disease for the declines of olive groves
8 of Salento.

9 We still do not know if this relevant occurrence of *Botryosphaeriaceae* in olive groves also
10 infected by *Xfp* has been promoted recently by some climatic events (i.e., drought and persistent
11 high temperature during summer) since until 2020 it was reported that pathogenic fungi were
12 not found associated with trees infected by *Xfp* in Salento (Carlucci et al., 2020). Within this
13 scenario, we are currently testing different possibility of interaction between *Xfp* and such fungi
14 (Scortichini et al., 2023): a) *Xfp* causes leaf and one–three-year-old twig/branch diebacks. This
15 allows the growth of virulent *Botryosphaeriaceae*, which further aggravate the tree wilting. In
16 addition, also low-virulent *Botryosphaeriaceae* can occur, thus acting as a polyspecies
17 complex; b) *Xfp* incites the whole crown wilting, this affecting the viability of the main trunk.
18 Subsequently, virulent and low-virulent *Botryosphaeriaceae* start the infections; c) *Xfp*
19 colonizes the tree without causing any apparent damage but predisposing it to a subsequent
20 symptomatic infection by virulent *Botryosphaeriaceae* which incite twig and branch diebacks;
21 in this case the equilibrium between the bacterium and the tree is disrupted.

22 23 **3. Management of plant diseases: basic principles and common applications for** 24 **quarantine bacterial pathogens**

25 According to the principles of plant diseases control illustrated by the American
26 Phytopathological Society, in most cases, when the disease is established in an area, it is not
27 possible to eliminate (i.e., eradicate at zero level) a phytopathogen in a crop but it is possible
28 to reduce its severity and keep the disease progression below an acceptable level that allows
29 the crop to yield year after year (i.e., the field applying of a “cure” or “therapy” strategy)
30 ([https://www.apsnet.org/edcenter/disimpactmngmnt/topc/EpidemiologyTemporal/Pages/Man](https://www.apsnet.org/edcenter/disimpactmngmnt/topc/EpidemiologyTemporal/Pages/ManagementStrategies.aspx)
31 [agementStrategies.aspx](https://www.apsnet.org/edcenter/disimpactmngmnt/topc/EpidemiologyTemporal/Pages/ManagementStrategies.aspx)). This principle is even more stringent for woody or perennial crops
32 since the uprooting of the trees in the attempt to eliminate the pathogen is more expensive and
33 sometimes poses doubts due to the economic and/or cultural relevance represented by the crop
34 for a territory. For quarantine pathogens that are ruled by supranational phytosanitary laws
35 aiming at eliminating in a definite territory a dangerous pathogen, introduced for the first time
36 from abroad, it is technically and biologically difficult to achieve an eradication especially
37 when the quarantine microorganism is not detected or isolated soon after its introduction
38 (EFSA, 2015). There were cases where prolonged, accurate and expensive attempts to eradicate
39 *Xanthomonas citri* pv. *citri*, the causal agent of citrus canker, in Florida (U.S.A.) and Brazil
40 failed in the long-term period (Schubert et al., 2001; Behlau et al., 2016). Consequently, in both
41 countries, the coexistence with the pathogen resulted more reliable and this has been reached
42 by applying both preventive and curative integrated strategies that allow the crop to yield in
43 presence of the pathogen (Kumar et al. 2019). Similarly, long-term attempts to eradicate *X.*

1 *fastidiosa* from vineyard in U.S.A. failed (EFSA, 2015). Also, the case of *Xfp* in olive groves
2 of Apulia represents an example where a tardy detection of a quarantine bacterium and the
3 large occurrence of diseased trees made the eradication of the pathogen in the infected area no
4 more feasible (Burbank, 2022). Consequently, for a polyphagous bacterium largely spread in
5 the area by a very prolific insect vector such as *P. spumarius*, the attempt of eradication in the
6 area it would have been a failure.

7 Within quarantine and emerging bacteria, an effective field control has been achieved, also in
8 areas with a large occurrence of the pathogen, for *Erwinia amylovora*, the causal agent of fire
9 blight of pome fruits, and *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *actinidiae*, the causal agent of kiwifruit
10 bacterial canker. In both cases, an integrated approach, based on the knowledge of the
11 epidemiological cycle of the pathogen and on the accordingly and timely applying of different
12 types of effective compounds, allows to cultivate the crop in an infected area (Stockwell et al.,
13 2010. Farkas et al., 2012; De Jong et al., 2019). By keeping this in mind, we have tried to
14 develop a disease management strategy, that also includes the control of the vector through a
15 sustainable approach, that enables olive trees infected by *Xfp* to produce regularly also in
16 presence of the bacterium within the tree.

17 **4. Studies to reduce *Xylella fastidiosa* impact to crops**

18 It should be noted that until 1987 the most common and well-known disease caused by *X.*
19 *fastidiosa*, namely the Pierce's disease in the U.S.A., was retained caused by an unknown viral
20 agent (Wells et al., 1987). Consequently, the control measures for mitigating the severity of the
21 disease were, until that period, mainly based on the control of the insect vectors and the removal
22 and substitution of the symptomatic plants. However, such a measure very rarely resulted fully
23 successful for eliminating the pathogen from the field (Hopkins and Purcell, 2002). Later on,
24 the discovery of other novel emerging diseases caused by the bacterium further on induced to
25 enlarge the studies on the assessment of additional control strategies to mitigate the damages
26 caused by *X. fastidiosa* to cultivated and ornamental plant species (Hopkins and Purcell, 2002).
27 Currently, there are under studies both preventive and curative strategies aimed at avoiding
28 and/or reducing the incidence and the severity of the diseases caused by *X. fastidiosa* in the
29 field (Kirkou et al., 2018; Burbank, 2022). Among the curative strategies under study aimed at
30 lowering the concentration of the pathogen within the xylem tissue and manage the disease in
31 the presence of the pathogen, there are bacteriophages, antagonistic bacteria, antibacterial
32 microelements, natural compounds, nanoparticles and synthetic peptides (Table 1). The
33 antibiotics are also studied and employed in some circumstances but, due to their restriction in
34 Europe for the risk posed to the human beings in term of developing of antibiotic resistance, it
35 is not retained a useful option. The cold or environmental therapy, based on the reduction of
36 the bacterium concentration in the xylem vessels upon the occurrence of air temperature close
37 or below 0°C, received some attention in the past (Purcell, 1977; 1980) but it was no longer
38 studied in detail. The obtaining of tolerant or, possibly, resistant cultivars is another important
39 goal to pursuit for facing diseases caused by *X. fastidiosa* (Kirkou et al., 2018; Della Coletta-
40 Filho et al., 2020; Morelli et al., 2021) and, currently, there are several studies aimed at finding
41 out source of resistance within grapevine, citrus and olive germplasm (Della Coletta-Filho et
42 al., 2020; Pavan et al., 2021; Aguero et al., 2022). It should be stressed that the control of the

1 insect vectors, through the timely distribution of insecticides, the possible applying of species-
2 specific vector parasitoids or the mechanical elimination of eggs in the ground and weeds, is
3 the other pillar for the field control of the bacterium (Kirkou et al., 2018; Della Coletta-Filho
4 et al., 2020).

5 So far, it should be said that most of the studies carried out with the curative strategies regard
6 *in vitro* tests, greenhouse assays performed with potted plants or few plants trained in open
7 field (Kirkou et al., 2018), and that, apart the case of *Xfp* on olive in Italy (Scortichini et al.,
8 2018; Tatulli et al., 2021), there is not a strategy that has been verified in open field for a
9 consistent time lapse. Some promising lines of research are briefly reported herein. Among
10 bacteriophages, some lytic broad host-range strains have incited a reduction in Pierce's disease
11 symptoms in preliminary glasshouse inoculation of potted plants carried out with a cocktail of
12 four phages (Ahern et al., 2014; Das et al., 2015). Additional phages with potential for a
13 reduction of *X. fastidiosa* activity have been recently found in the Mediterranean areas
14 (Clavijo-Coppens et al., 2021).

15 Endophytic antagonistic bacteria can also represent a potential valid strategy to reduce the
16 activity of *X. fastidiosa* within the xylem tissue. Non-virulent *X. fastidiosa* strains were first
17 used to verify such a possibility that resulted as promising (Hopkins, 2005). In addition, other
18 endophytic species have shown some interesting activity in mitigating *X. fastidiosa*
19 symptoms. A strain of *Parabulkuholderia phytofirmans*, namely PsJN, when sprayed on the
20 foliage shows a significant activity in reducing Pierce's disease severity by possibly priming
21 expression of innate disease resistance pathways (Baccari et al., 2019). Its activity, however,
22 was not found on olive infected by *Xfp* (Morelli et al., 2019). An antagonistic activity towards
23 *X. fastidiosa* was also found for *Pseudomonas fluorescens*, obtained from grapevine, and for
24 *Curtobacterium flaccumfaciens*, isolated from citrus (Araujo et al., 2002; Deyett et al., 2017).
25 Culture filtrates of epiphytic and endophytic bacterial species have also shown interesting
26 antibiofilm activity towards *Xfp* (Mourou et al., 2022). Also, some endophytic fungi, namely
27 *Aureobasidium* sp. and *Cladosporium* sp., have shown antagonist activity *in vitro* to *X. f.*
28 subsp. *fastidiosa* (Rolshausen and Loper, 2010).

29 Among antibacterial microelements, zinc was among the first to be investigated for a possible
30 activity towards *X. fastidiosa*, and the first to be judged as promising for a curative effect. This
31 microelement, indeed, was applied to vineyard exposed to Pierce's disease as zinc sulphate
32 through foliar spray, trunk endotherapy or applied to the soil and showed a partial efficacy in
33 reducing the incidence and severity of the disease in different grapevine cultivars (Kirkpatrick
34 et al., 2003; 2004). The strict link between zinc and *X. fastidiosa* virulence was ascertained
35 through a series of basic studies that revealed that upon a certain dose (i.e., 0,25mM) this ion
36 inhibited the biofilm formation by the bacterium (Cobine et al., 2013). In addition, zinc
37 detoxification *in planta* is required to incite a full *X. fastidiosa* virulence, this suggesting that
38 a removal of such microelement from host plant tissue is necessary before colonization can
39 begin (Navarrete and De La Fuente, 2015). An important corollary of this feature is that zinc
40 represents a preformed defense for the plant that limits the growth of the bacterium, and,
41 consequently, a manipulation of the plant level of zinc could represent a disease management
42 strategy (Navarrete and De La Fuente, 2015). Recently, the possibility that the applying of

1 **Table 1.** Main options under study to reduce the impact of *Xylella fastidiosa* to crops.

2

	Effective tool	References
Bacteriophages	Lytic broad host range phages	Ahern et al., 2014; Das et al., 2015; Clavijo-Coppens et al., 2021
Antagonistic bacteria	Non virulent <i>X. fastidiosa</i> strains	Hopkins, 2005
	<i>Curtobacterium flaccumfaciens</i>	Araujo et al., 2002
	<i>Pseudomonas fluorescens</i>	Deyett et al., 2017
	<i>Paraburkholderia phytofirmans</i>	Baccari et al., 2019
Antagonistic fungi	<u><i>Aureobasidium, Cladosporium</i></u>	Rolshausen and Roper,
Microelements	Zinc	Kirkpatrick, 2003; 2004; Cobine et al., 2013; Navarrete and De La Fuente, 2015
Natural compounds	Cathecol, caffeic acid, resveratrol	Maddox et al., 2010
	Radicinin	Aldrich et al., 2015
	Oleuropein, veratric acid	Bleve et al., 2018
	Phenolic olive leaf extracts	Vizzarri et al., 2023
Nanoparticles	Fosetil-Al nanocrystals	Baldassarri et al., 2020
	Thymol nanoparticles	Baldassarri et al., 2023
Synthetic peptides	Peptides 1036, RIJK2	Moll et al., 2021
	Peptides Ascaphin-8, DASamP1, DASamP2	El Handi et al., 2022
Resistant cultivars	Grapevine, Citrus, Olive	Kirkou et al., 2018; Della Coletta-Filho et al., 2020; Morelli et al., 2021

3

1 zinc-based compounds to control *X. fastidiosa* has gained particular attention. A
2 nanoformulation of zinc oxide, indeed, namely Zinkicide[®], distributed to the soil significantly
3 reduced the *in planta* multiplication of both *X. f. spp. fastidiosa* and *multiplex* strains in tobacco
4 and blueberry (*Vaccinium* sp.) plants grown in greenhouse conditions without inciting any
5 phytotoxicity (Shantharaj et al., 2023). In addition, zinc-based formulations have shown
6 antibacterial activity also against *Xfp* either in *in vitro* tests or with potted olive plants (Del
7 Grosso et al., 2021; 2022). The possible utilization of copper as an ion with bactericidal activity
8 against *X. fastidiosa* has also been taken into consideration (Cobine et al., 2013). However, its
9 specific activity as unique microelement to counteract the multiplication *in planta* of the
10 bacterium has been not retained significant (Kirkpatrick et al., 2003; 2004, Ge et al., 2020).

11 *In vitro* tests revealed the antibacterial activity towards *X. fastidiosa* of several natural
12 compounds. Among them, radicinin, a phytotoxin obtained from the grapevine endophytic
13 fungus *Cochliobolus* sp., showed to reduce the growth of *X. f. subsp. fastidiosa* (Aldrich et al.,
14 2015). Antibacterial activity towards *X. f. subsp. fastidiosa* and *pauca* was also found in several
15 phenolic compounds. Flavonoids, stilbenes and coumarins showed antibacterial activity
16 against *X. f. subsp. fastidiosa*, with catechol, caffeic acid and resveratrol as the most effective
17 (Maddox et al., 2010), whereas 4-methylcatechol, catechol, veratric acid, caffeic acid, and
18 oleuropein showed bacteriostatic activity towards *Xfp* (Bleve et al., 2018). Phenolic extract
19 from olive leaves have shown bacteriostatic activity to *Xfp* (Vizzarri et al., 2023). The possible
20 utilization of synthetic peptides obtained through standardized techniques is another strategy
21 currently under study. In preliminary studies, some synthetic peptides have shown either
22 bactericidal and antibiofilm activity towards all *X. fastidiosa* subspecies (Moll et al., 2021; El
23 Handi et al., 2022) or to promote a reduction of *X. f. subsp. fastidiosa* population level in potted
24 plants of almond when injected in the trunk through endotherapy (Moll et al., 2022).
25 Nanomaterial compounds (i.e., fosetyl-Al nanocrystals, thymol nanoparticles) also showed
26 interesting bactericidal activities towards *X. fastidiosa* subspecies (Baldassarre et al., 2020;
27 2023). Mixture of plant extracts also allowed a reduction of field symptoms caused by *Xfp*
28 (Bruno et al., 2020).

29 .

30 **5. Management of *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* in olive groves of Salento**

31 The uniqueness of the olive agroecosystem, joint to the impossibility to achieve an effective
32 eradication of the bacterium, already widespread over about 10.000 ha at the time of the first
33 report, prompted us to study the possibility to coexist with the pathogen through the application
34 of a field management strategy. The overall sustainability of the strategy was also considered.
35 It was our idea to propose, indeed, a low-cost strategy through the utilization of a compound
36 that could be utilized also for organic farming and that do not perturbate the soil ecological
37 equilibrium. Herein we summarize the main results concerning either the principles that has
38 led us to investigate the possibility of mitigating *Xfp* outbreak or the field efficacy and the basic
39 knowledge that has been achieved by the studies that have been performed within this
40 framework.

1 5.1 The choice of the compound

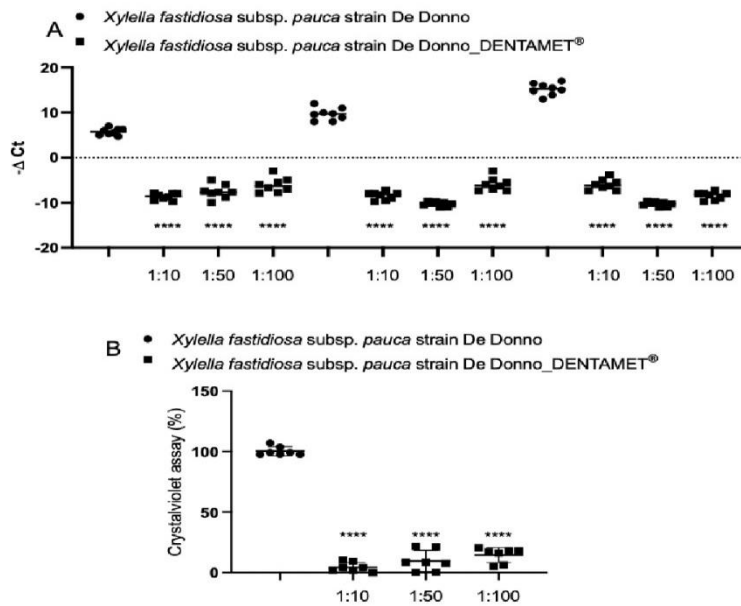
2 The choice of a compound capable to reach the xylem tissue of the leaves and, possibly, of
3 twigs and achieve there the significant reduction in a long-term period of *Xfp* concentration in
4 olive trees without causing any phytotoxic effect to the tree and allowing the obtaining of the
5 yield without altering the environment, implies the contemporary occurrence of several
6 characteristics. The most important are: i) to have a bactericidal activity against the pathogen;
7 ii) to be highly systemic in the xylem tissue; iii) to release in the xylem tissue the active
8 elements; iv) to be not present in the oil; v) to be effective in the long-term period. By following
9 the studies of Cobine et al. (2013) and Navarrete and De la Fuente (2015), the choice fell to a
10 patented bio-fertilizer, utilized as a foliar fertilizer also for organic agriculture, namely
11 Dentamet®, that contains zinc (4% w/w) and copper (2% w/w) salts complexed with hydracid
12 of citric acid. The compound is obtained through a process of fermentation similar to that
13 carried out by soil fungi. This bio-fertilizer was previously verified effective for reducing the
14 exudates produced by *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *actinidiae*, the causal agent of kiwifruit
15 bacterial canker, oozing from twig cankers of kiwifruit (Scortichini, 2016). To note that after
16 the first publication on its efficacy towards *Xfp* (Scortichini et al., 2018), the significant
17 antimicrobial activity of this bio-fertilizer has been further verified in many *in vivo* assays for
18 the pathogenic fungus *Plenodomus tracheiphilus* (i.e., previously known as *Phoma*
19 *tracheiphila*), causal agent of citrus “mal secco” (Olivieri et al., 2022), for *Xanthomonas*
20 *euvesicatoria* pv. *perforans*, causal agent of leaf spot and pith necrosis of tomato (Aiello et al.,
21 2022) as well as for controlling some important insects, namely *Halyomorpha halys* (i.e.,
22 brown marmorated stink bug), and *Bactrocera oleae* (i.e., olive fruit fly), through the
23 suppression of the bacterial symbionts that occur on the egg surface (i.e., symbiotic control of
24 pests) (Gonella et al., 2019; Checchia et al., 2022; Perin et al., 2023). Other points retained
25 important for the choosing of this bio-fertilizer were due to its availability in commerce, its
26 easy in the utilization since it is not required any special license, absence of phytotoxicity, and
27 its affordable cost.

28 5.2 *In vitro* antibacterial and antibiofilm activity

29 The possible bactericidal activity of Dentamet® was ascertained through a series of *in vitro*
30 assays (Tatulli et al., 2021). Such tests showed a relevant bactericidal activity towards all the *X.*
31 *f.* subsp. *fastidiosa*, *multiplex* and *pauca* strains tested, including the “De Donno” strain
32 isolated from olive trees in Apulia that showed OQDS. The antibacterial activity was
33 ascertained both in broth tubes and on a bacterial culture substrate. The absence/reduction of
34 growth was also ascertained through quantitative real-time PCR over 30 days from the
35 inoculation of the tubes, this indicating a long last effect of the antibacterial activity. To note
36 that the antibacterial activity towards *X. fastidiosa* subspecies was also observed up to 1:100
37 dilution of the bio-fertilizer, so that the minimum bactericidal concentration (MBC) for it was
38 400mg/L and at 200mg l⁻¹ for zinc and copper, respectively. Dentamet® also significantly
39 reduced the biofilm formation in all *X. fastidiosa* subspecies tested (Fig. 3). These data
40 indicated that the bio-fertilizer can potentially reduce either the pathogen vessel colonization
41 (planktonic phase) or the biofilm phase, thus justifying further testing in the field (Tatulli et al.,
42 2021).

1 5.3 The relevant *in planta* systemicity of the bio-fertilizer

2 To assess the capability of the bio-fertilizer in effectively reaching the xylem tissue of olive
3 trees a series of *ad hoc* studies were performed. Through confocal laser scanning microscopy
4 and fluorescence quantification, it has been ascertained that Dentamet® reached the olive xylem



5

6 **Fig. 3.** A) *In vitro* significant efficacy of Dentamet® dilutions (i.e., 1:10, 1:50, 1:100) towards
7 *Xylella fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* strain “De Donno” (control) planktonic growth, assessed by
8 real-time PCR at 6-, 15- and 30-days post inoculation (from left to right). B) *In vitro* biofilm
9 assay 30 days post inoculation for *X. f.* subsp. *pauca* strain “De Donno” (control) according to
10 different Dentamet® dilutions (i.e., 1:10, 1:50, 1:100). Values are mean \pm SD of three
11 biological replicates (n=7). ****: significant upon one-way ANOVA test and Dunnett’s test
12 at $p < 0.0001$ vs control. $-\Delta Ct$: difference for each sample between the real-time Ct value at each
13 time point and the Ct value at time 0.

14

15

16 tissue both after the spraying of the canopy or through endotherapy, thus demonstrating its
17 effective systemicity. Fluorescent staining of leaf, leaf petiole and of two- and five-year-old
18 twigs, xylem tissue clearly showed the migration of the biofertilizer from the entry points up
19 to 80cm of trunk height. The release of zinc and copper in the xylem of the samples was
20 assessed through coupled plasma atomic emission spectroscopy. The analysis revealed that the

1 ions were effectively released in the xylem. These data clearly indicated that the bio-fertilizer
2 reaches the xylem tissue and corroborated its potential use in the field (Scortichini et al., 2018).

3 5.4 Field trials and quantitative real-time PCR for testing the bio-fertilizer efficacy in the long- 4 term period

5 In parallel to the *in vitro* and *in planta* studies described above, we retained fundamental to
6 verify the effectiveness of the bio-fertilizer towards *Xfp* directly in the open-field conditions.
7 To this aim, we have selected traditional olive groves located in the infected area of Salento
8 (i.e., Lecce province) and trained with the local susceptible cultivars, namely Ogliarola
9 salentina and Cellina di Nardò with an age that varied from 25 to more than 70 years. A first
10 preliminary study was carried out at Veglie, and, subsequently, to verify the effectiveness of
11 the strategy in the mid-term period, at Galatone and Cannole (Scortichini et al., 2018; Tatulli
12 et al., 2021). The olive grove for performing the initial three-year trial study was selected with
13 the aim to represent the mean situation for the olive growing of Salento: local cultivars, adult
14 trees, large space between the rows, traditional agronomical techniques (i.e., no irrigation,
15 occasional soil fertilization, herbicides utilization, not regular pruning, occasional pest, and
16 disease management). Moreover, this olive grove was officially declared infected by *Xfp* by
17 the regional phytosanitary service before the starting of the trial.

18 In addition to the statistical analysis performed with the treated versus the untreated trees, we
19 also carried out another efficacy test through the performing of quantitative real-time PCR to
20 some trees. To note that at the time of the trial such an additional molecular test usually was
21 not applied in the field tests for evaluating the efficacy of agrochemicals. Quantitative real-
22 time PCR was performed on leaf samples to assess the population level of *Xfp* in treated versus
23 untreated trees. It was carried out by following the official procedures established by the
24 European and Mediterranean Plant Protection Organization (EPPO). In the first study
25 (Scortichini et al., 2018), the spray treatments to the olive crowns, performed during spring and
26 autumn, induced a significant reduction of both field symptoms (i.e., twig wilting) and
27 pathogen concentration within the leaves.

28 To note that during the study, apart from *Xfp* infection, the trees faced some adverse climatic
29 events such as frost at the beginning January 2017 and a severe heat wave during summer 2017.
30 Frost events, over one week, reduced the *Xfp* cell populations both in the Dentamet®-treated
31 and the untreated trees. Bacterium concentration then increased during the following months.
32 This confirmed the assumption that prolonged cold poses a disadvantage to *X. fastidiosa*, but
33 not to the point of completely curing infected host plants (Purcell, 1977; 1980). No zinc and
34 copper residues were found within the oil obtained from trees that received the bio-fertilizer
35 over three years.

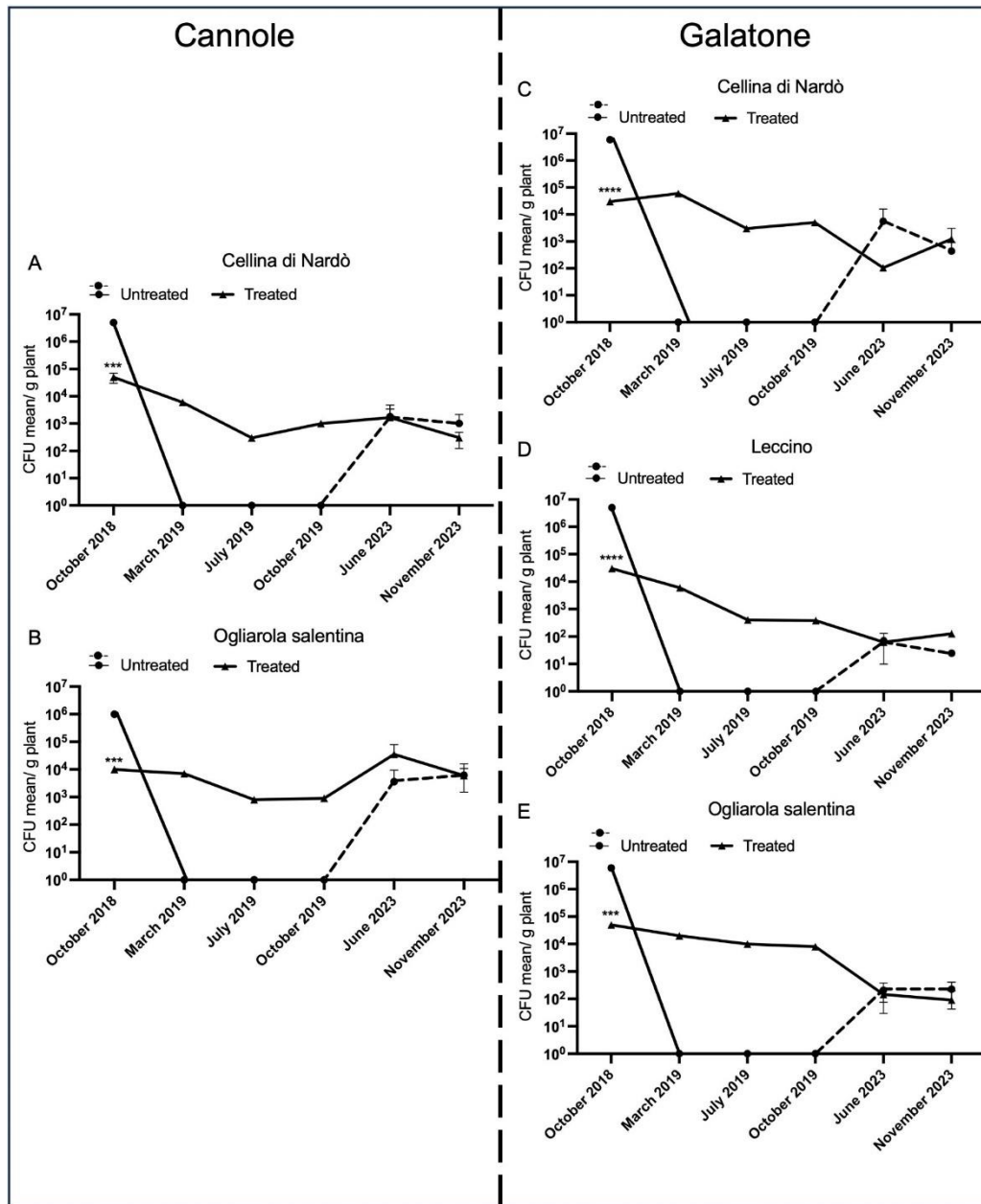
36 In the mid-term evaluation (i.e., farms that applied the control strategy since three or four years
37 consecutively), Leccino trees were also present in the Galatone farm. Generally, a trend that
38 indicates a reduction of the field symptoms during the year in both farms and for all cultivars
39 was observed, with the number of wilted twigs that resulted higher in March and decreased in
40 July and October. Ogliarola salentina and Cellina di Nardò cultivars were confirmed to be more

1 sensitive to *Xfp* than Leccino. At the end of the season, just before the harvest time, only a few
2 new wilted twigs per tree were recorded for all cultivars in both farms (Tatulli et al., 2021).

3 The foliar treatments induced a significant reduction of *Xfp* concentration in all cultivars, as
4 observed by the quantitative real-time PCR analyses. A first score of the mean bacterial
5 concentration was performed in March. At Galatone Leccino trees had a lower bacterial
6 concentration (i.e., mean of $9.0 \cdot 10^2$ CFUg⁻¹) when compared with Cellina di Nardò (1.7
7 10^4 CFUg⁻¹) and Ogliarola salentina ($8.7 \cdot 10^3$ CFUg⁻¹). A similar trend was also observed in the
8 Cannole grove that showed a mean *Xfp* concentration that ranged, during spring, summer and
9 autumn, between $1.0 \cdot 10^2$ and 10^4 CFUg⁻¹, in Cellina di Nardò, and between $1.0 \cdot 10^3$ and 10^4
10 CFUg⁻¹ in Ogliarola salentina (Fig. 4). Remarkably, the treatments allowed to obtain a good
11 yield of about 18 to 23Kg of olives per tree recorded in autumn 2019 in the farms of Galatone
12 and Cannole, respectively, whereas the untreated trees resulted completely wilted (Tatulli *et*
13 *al.*, 2021). To the reduction of *Xfp* cell concentration within the foliage corresponded a higher
14 vegetation index as revealed by satellite monitoring of the experimental fields (Table 2).
15 Subsequently, a long-term assessment after seven and eight years of application of the bio-
16 fertilizer was performed with the same olive groves. Also, in this case quantitative real-time
17 PCR confirmed the efficacy of Dentamet® in maintaining the *Xfp* cell concentration to a level
18 that allows the trees to vegetate and yield. In particular, Cellina di Nardò trees in both fields
19 showed a concentration of about $1.0 \cdot 10^3$ CFUg⁻¹, whereas Ogliarola salentina trees showed a
20 *Xfp* concentration of about $1.0 \cdot 10^2$ CFUg⁻¹ at Galatone, and of about $5.0 \cdot 10^3$ CFUg⁻¹ at Cannole.
21 Leccino trees at Galatone showed a concentration of about $1.0 \cdot 10^2$ CFUg⁻¹ (Table 2, Fig. 4). To
22 note that in the last assessment the control trees bordering the treated plots just showed some
23 suckers scattered within a wilted crown.

24 These results further supported the conclusions from the first study and clearly showed
25 that *Xfp* can be managed in the olive groves not completely damaged by the bacterium and that
26 a coexistence with the pathogen is possible in the “infected” area of Salento. It is worth noting
27 that the olive groves are in areas severely attacked by the bacterium and are surrounded by
28 completely withered olive trees. Upon the crown treatments, the amount of copper released for
29 one year was about 500g/ha, much less than 4 kg/ha, that represents the current limit for copper
30 amount in soil allowed for organic agriculture.

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Fig. 4. *Xylella fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* DNA concentration, expressed in a logarithmic scale of CFU equivalents g^{-1} of leaf as determined for un-treated plant (assessed as time 0 control) and Dentamet[®]-treated cultivars Cellina di Nardò, Oglierola salentina, and Leccino at Cannole (A and B) and Galatone (C, D and E) (Lecce province) as assessed during 2018-2019 and during 2023. The untreated control plants dead at the beginning of 2019, so the absence of concentration data is indicative of plant death. A, B: Graphical representation of the bacterial concentration over time of Cellina di Nardò and Oglierola salentina at Cannole. C, D, E: Graphical representation of the bacterial concentration over time of Leccino, Cellina di Nardò and Oglierola salentina at Galatone. Dotted lines represent the bacterium concentration observed in suckers taken as controls during 2023.

1 **Table 2.** The efficacy of *Xylella fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* management in olive groves of Salento
2 (Lecce province) as assessed by average quantitative real-time PCR (Colony Forming Units
3 equivalent/g of leaf) and Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI). Data that refer to
4 Veglie are obtained upon three years of applying the management strategy; data that refer to
5 Galatone are obtained after three years and seven of applying the management strategy; data
6 that refer to Cannole are obtained after four years and eight of applying the management
7 strategy. For Galatone and Cannole, the data report the overall range values observed during
8 2019 and 2023; control trees resulted dead. Data that refer to two plots in Nardò refer to three
9 years of measurements and report the NDVI values from 2015 to 2020 as obtained in July and
10 August through satellite imagery for the treated plot over the not treated control plots. See also:
11 Scortichini et al., (2018); Tatulli et al., (2021), and Blonda et al., (2023). CFU: colony forming
12 units.

13

		CFU eq/g	NDVI 2018	NDVI 2019	NDVI 2020
	Ogliarola	10 ²			
Veglie					
	Cellina	10 ²			
	Ogliarola	10 ³ -10 ⁴			
Cannole					
	Cellina	10 ² -10 ⁴			
	Ogliarola	10 ² -10 ⁴			
Galatone	Leccino	10 ² -10 ⁴			
	Cellina	10 ² -10 ⁴			
Nardò A			0,42/0,26	0,33/0,24	0,31/0,16
Nardò B			0,37/0,31	0,34/0,27	0,39/0,23

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16 6. Interdisciplinary studies confirmed the efficacy of the management

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18

6.1 The re-programming of phenolic compounds and carbohydrates

19 Through a metabolomic approach, a series of studies were performed for monitoring the trend
20 of some olive tree metabolites in trees naturally infected by *Xfp*, and in trees treated with
21 Dentamet[®]. To assess the response of naturally infected untreated trees, Ogliarola salentina and
22 Cellina di Nardò in comparison with Dentamet[®]-treated trees, non-targeted ¹H-NMR
23 fingerprinting, in combination with unsupervised principal component analysis (PCA) and
24 supervised pattern recognition techniques were applied by Girelli et al. (2017). Xylematic
25 polyphenols and carbohydrates content changed upon the bio-fertilizer treatments, with Cellina
26 di Nardò trees that showed a higher polyphenols relative content, and Ogliarola salentina that
27 showed a higher relative sugar content.

1 The metabolic response of *Xfp*-infected-treated and untreated olive trees Ogliarola salentina
2 and Cellina di Nardò was further investigated during the first year of foliar treatments with
3 Dentamet® (Girelli et al., 2019). The ¹H-NMR metabolomic approach showed that for
4 both cultivars, metabolites such as quinic acid, oleuropein related compounds, and
5 polyphenols, were consistently found as discriminating for the untreated trees. Quinic acid, a
6 precursor of lignin, was confirmed as a disease biomarker for the olive trees infected by *Xfp*.
7 Interestingly, the two cultivars showed a distinct response upon the bio-fertilizer treatments: a
8 consistent increase in malic acid was observed for the Ogliarola salentina trees, whereas in the
9 Cellina di Nardò ones, the treatments induced the accumulation of γ -aminobutyrate (GABA),
10 a known stress mitigation molecule (Kinnersley and Turano, 2000).

11 Then, the ¹H-NMR metabolomic approach was also used to analyze the xylematic extracts of
12 the *Xfp*-tolerant cultivar Leccino in comparison with the susceptible cultivars Ogliarola
13 salentina and Cellina di Nardò, following a mid-term period of Dentamet® foliar treatment (i.e.,
14 three years of spray treatments) (Girelli et al., 2021). A higher mannitol content was observed
15 in the treated trees. Due to its osmoprotectant and antioxidant ability to protect chloroplast, an
16 intracellular accumulation of mannitol is a strategy to improve tolerance against water deficit.
17 The accumulation of mannitol also suggests an improvement of the physiological performance
18 and photosynthetic capability of olive trees. For the untreated *Xfp*-infected samples, a higher
19 relative content of phenolic compounds was observed. Tyrosol and hydroxytyrosol moieties of
20 oleuropein and its aldehydic forms, and quinic acid were observed for all the analyzed cultivars
21 (Girelli et al., 2021).

22 The overall results revealed how *Xfp* strongly modifies the metabolism of olive trees, and how
23 the bio-fertilizer spray treatments can induce an early re-programming of the metabolic
24 pathways in the infected trees. The different responses to Dentamet® treatment would seem to
25 be correlated to olive cultivars physiology and/or the pathogen attack levels. An additional
26 confirm of the metabolic re-programming induced by Dentamet® treatments to olive trees was
27 recently obtained by the metabolic assessment of olive trees upon endotherapy. Following the
28 injection of the bio-fertilizer in the short-term period, it has been observed specific variations
29 in the olive leaf content of some specific metabolites in the susceptible cultivars Ogliarola
30 salentina and Cellina di Nardò. In particular, the endotherapy induced a significant decrease of
31 both the disease biomarkers, namely quinic acid and mannitol, with the simultaneous increase
32 of polyphenols and oleuropein-related compounds in the leaves (Girelli et al., 2022). Such
33 results were confirmed when the endotherapy treatments were assessed during a six s period
34 (Hussain et al., 2023). To note that foliar application demonstrated a more specific time related
35 progressive effectiveness with respect to intravascular treatments.

36

37 6.2 The re-programming of lipids involved in *X. fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca*-olive interaction

38 Host-pathogen interactions is determined by different factors that modulate virulence and plant
39 defense. Among these factors, lipids, in particular free fatty acids (FAs) and oxylipins, are
40 involved at various stages. These molecules are structurally similar among plant and bacterial
41 taxa. Among the lipid factors crucial in determining *X. fastidiosa* virulence, cis-2-enoic fatty
42 acids, named diffusible signal factors (DSFs), can participate in communication with plants or

1 insect vectors. These DSFs are produced from plant complex lipids through the action of a
2 bacterial lipase. In *X. fastidiosa* this lipase is encoded by *lesA/lipA* gene (Rapicavoli et al.,
3 2018), and high DSFs concentration induces adhesion to plant vessels or insect foregut
4 (Chatterjee et al., 2008). In addition, the quorum sensing regulation of *X. fastidiosa* is based on
5 a delicate balance of several DSFs (i.e., 12:1, 14:1, 16:1, 18:1) (Lindow et al., 2014; Ionescu
6 et al., 2016). The DSFs induce the expression of adhesins needed for biofilm formation and the
7 formation of the small colonies. Low DSFs concentration induces twitching motility and pit
8 membrane degradation (Chatterjee et al., 2008).

9 Also, oxylipins, are involved in *X. fastidiosa*-host plant interaction. Plant oxylipins regulate
10 processes related to physiological and pathological events by activating defense-related gene
11 pathways and by interfering with the pathogen growth and reproduction (Siebers et al., 2016;
12 Fernandes and Ghag, 2022). Since most of them have antimicrobial activity, the plant can
13 produce oxylipins also to kill the pathogen (Deboever et al., 2020). Jasmonates are the best
14 characterized plant oxylipins that regulate defense, reproduction, and pathogenesis. Bacteria
15 can employ host oxylipins to augment their virulence (i.e., switching to biofilm stage) (Zheng
16 et al., 2012; Martínez et al., 2019). In *X. fastidiosa*, the oxylipins mediate the autocrine signals
17 within the bacterial cells (i.e., regulation of quorum sensing) and/or paracrine signals in the
18 communication with their hosts or vectors (Ionescu et al., 2016; Martínez et al., 2019; Scala et
19 al., 2020).

20 In *Xfp*, oxylipins and FAs play are pivotal in shaping bacterial lifestyle. *Xfp* accumulates
21 different lipoxygenase and dioxygenase-derived oxylipins both *in vitro* and during the
22 interaction with different hosts (i.e., tobacco and olive tree) (Scala et al., 2018, Scala et al.,
23 2020). Oxylipins also influence the switch from planktonic growth to biofilm formation, thus
24 indicating that *Xfp* can synthesize and secrete oxylipins. To note that oxylipins emerged as
25 hallmarks of pathogenic invasion by *Xfp* in host tissues: infected plants accumulate more
26 oxylipins (i.e., 7,10-diHOME and 13-HODE) respect to the not infected ones (Scala et al.,
27 2020).

28

1 By using the relative differences in lipid species it has been possible to discriminate olive tree
2 samples, namely, (a) infected and non-infected, (b) belonging to different cultivars, and (c)
3 treated or untreated with Dentamet®. Lipid entities emerging as predictors of the thesis are free
4 fatty acids (C16:1, C18:1, C18:2, C18:3); the LOX-derived oxylipins 9- and 13-HPOD/TrE;
5 the DOX-derived oxylipin 10-HPOME; and diacylglyceride DAG36:4(18:1/18:3). The
6 analysis of dataset of *Xfp*-positive vs *Xfp*-negative highlight as significant compounds 9- and
7 13-LOX oxylipins; FAs (C16:1, C18:1, C18:2, C18:3), and DAG (with two C18:2 or with
8 C18:1/C18:3 or with C18:1/C18:2). These data were supported also by bioinformatic analysis
9 of RNA-seq data files (Scala et al., 2022).

10 According to these results, it is possible to assume that the oxylipins are differently
11 accumulated in the *Xfp*-susceptible or *Xfp*-tolerant cultivars such as already demonstrated in
12 other pathosystems (i.e., plant-fungi), and it is possible to conclude that the infection of *Xfp* in
13 olive trees grown in open field is characterized by an accumulation of oxylipins (i.e., 7,10-
14 diHOME and 13-HODE) that are most probably employed by the bacterium to switch its
15 lifestyle to a virulent phase. Moreover, the olive trees treated with Dentamet® and positive to
16 *Xfp* show the lipid profile with the accumulation of the typically healthy plant lipid signature
17 (i.e., decreasing 13-oxylipins/DOX-oxylipins, and increasing of 9-oxylipins), this resulted
18 different from the lipid signature of olive trees infected by *Xfp* and not treated with the bio-
19 fertilizer.

20 6.3 The management strategy checked by high-resolution satellite imagery monitoring

21 A confirmation of the field efficacy of the management strategy applied in the olive groves of
22 Salento to face the *Xfp* epidemic has been obtained through a study performed with satellite
23 imagery data coupled with selected vegetation indices (Blonda et al., 2023). Starting from 2015
24 until 2020, during July and August, multi-resolution source satellite data obtained by time
25 series High Resolution (HR) Sentinel-2 images (10m), and Very High Resolution (VHR)
26 Pleiades imagery (2 meters) were analysed for field and tree scale investigations, respectively.
27 The Sentinel-2 mission, includes two operational sensors (Sentinel-2A and Sentinel-2B).
28 (https://www.esa.int/Applications/Observing_the_Earth/Copernicus/Sentinel-2). The mission
29 revisit time of just five days, when both satellites are operational. The span of 13 spectral bands,
30 from the visible and the near infrared to the shortwave infrared at different spatial resolutions
31 ranging from 10 to 60m takes land monitoring and plant status to an unprecedented level
32 (<https://www.eurisy.eu/monitoring-plant-health-from-space/>).

33 Time series of remote sensing imagery and derived vegetation indices, indeed, have been
34 shown particularly useful to characterize land ecosystem dynamics, as they can provide
35 consistent measurements at different spatio-temporal scales. Such measurements result
36 appropriate for bio- and geophysical processes and change events, including natural and
37 anthropogenic disturbances (Verbesselt et al., 2010; Woodcock et al., 2020). Assessing and
38 monitoring the state of ecosystems are essential for biodiversity conservation and ecosystem
39 management (Lhermitte et al., 2011), and vegetation indices are used as proxy of geophysical
40 variables (<https://www.usgs.gov/landsat-missions/landsat-surface-reflectance-derived->

1 [spectral-indices](#)). Obtained through selected spectral bands combination, vegetation indices are
2 proxy indicators of plant health (Montero *et al.*, 2023).

3 Among the vegetation indexes, the Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) is based
4 on red and Near Infrared Reflectance (NIR) light to identify the amount of chlorophyll in
5 leaves. Initially, it was used simply to detect the presence of vegetation, but this spectral index
6 is mostly adopted to quantify ‘photosynthetic capacity’, which is a key indicator of plant health.
7 Multi-scale satellite data and techniques have been used to monitor *Xfp* spreading across
8 Salento olive groves and to detect early symptoms of OQDS in the vegetation. In particular,
9 medium resolution data have been exploited to quantify the extension of areas covered by
10 wilting olive trees (Scholten *et al.*, 2019), whereas Sentinel-2 data and hyper-spectral data from
11 airplane campaigns have been used by Hornero *et al.* (2020) to quantify the extension of areas
12 covered by wilting olive trees. In addition, hyper-spectral data were analyzed to extract spectral
13 features able to specifically identify early symptoms of OQDS (Hornero *et al.*, 2020).

14 The response to the control strategy treatment was estimated by spectral indices comparing
15 treated and untreated fields at HR and analysing the response to treatments of each different
16 cultivar at VHR. The analyses were performed on both experimental (i.e., Galatone and
17 Cannole) (Tatulli *et al.*, 2021) and productive (i.e., Nardò) olive groves of Salento (Lecce
18 province). The monitoring was carried out at field scale and at tree-scale. At field scale, the
19 trends of four spectral indices, namely NDVI, OSAVI, NDRE and ARVI, from time series of
20 freely available High Resolution (HR) Sentinel-2 images (10 meters), were analyzed and
21 correlated to meteo-events in the years from 2015 to 2020. At tree-scale, the study has
22 evaluated both the recovery status of each olive tree, in the experimental and productive fields,
23 and the response of different cultivars to treatments through Very High Resolution Pléiades
24 data. The data were collected during July and August, when the contribution to the vegetation
25 indices from the background is minimal and the occurrence of *Xfp* symptoms are very evident.

26 In all treated fields, all spectral indices resulted higher than the untreated ones after Dentamet®
27 treatments at both field and tree scale, from HR and VHR images (Table 2). The correlation
28 between the HR index time series with meteo-events indicated that the treated olive trees were
29 more responsive to rain events than untreated ones (Blonda *et al.*, 2023). At tree scale, VHR
30 indices revealed different cultivar response to treatments and showed Ogliarola salentina more
31 promptly responding to the treatments than Leccino and Cellina di Nardò. Specifically, the
32 finding reported from HR data could be used to evaluate plant conditions at field level after
33 restoration actions, while VHR imagery could be used to optimize treatment doses per cultivar.
34 These findings, in agreement with the effect of the bio-fertilizer of *Xfp* concentration in olive
35 trees (Tatulli *et al.*, 2021) and with metabolomic studies that revealed a re-programming of
36 plant metabolites upon the curative treatments (Girelli *et al.*, 2019; 2021) showed that indices
37 for plant health status were higher in treated fields than in those untreated.

38

39 **7. The management strategy for the disease complex**

1 Since 2016, after the first promising results observed in the experimental field, some farmers
2 of Salento started to introduce the strategy either as preventive or curative practice towards the
3 pathogen. The ease of application as foliar spray and the low cost of the bio-fertilizer allows
4 its application by all farmers, including the part-time and the amateur ones. However, the
5 success of the management strategy, as for other plant diseases, is strongly due to the
6 consistency of the foliar applications over several months, so that the spraying Dentamet® two
7 or three times occasionally does not solve the problem (Scortichini, 2022). The studies
8 performed so far suggest the starting of the application, once per month, from the end of
9 February-early March until end of September-early October. The dose is of 3.9l ha⁻¹ (i.e., 280
10 ml in 100l of water). For centennial trees, some farmers use a bit more concentrated spray
11 solution (i.e., 300-350ml in 100l of water) without scoring any phytotoxicity. It is important to
12 provide a right amount of foliar spray to the tree crown (i.e., 20l of spray solution for an olive
13 tree of 60-70 years; 25-30l of spray solution for the centennial specimens) to allow the
14 penetration of the bio-fertilizer within the foliage. It has been calculated that the yearly cost
15 per tree for six treatment is of about 3.0 Euro that, in case of spraying by means of modern
16 atomizers, goes down to 1.0 Euro per each treated tree.

17 In parallel, the reduction of the presence of the insect vector in the farm must be considered of
18 fundamental importance. Since the management strategy does not include any chemical
19 treatment for lowering the adult vector population, particular care should be taken to eliminate
20 the eggs and the juvenile-stage of the vector by means of mechanical techniques. The egg
21 reduction should be performed through a light tillage during winter (i.e., from December to
22 February) to eliminate the eggs deposited by the adults in ground slits. Subsequently, from
23 early February to early May, spontaneous weeds should be mowed to eliminate juvenile-stage
24 specimens (i.e., naiades and nymphs). It should be stressed that the abandoned olive groves
25 host the highest population of vectors (Picciotti et al., 2021). So, to be effective, the vector
26 control strategy should be preferably applied to a vast area, and punctiform vector control
27 carried out at single olive grove is not retained fully effective.

28 The regular and rationale tree pruning is another pillar for an effective *Xfp* management
29 strategy. In Salento, during recent decades olive pruning has been carried out on a 4- to 5-year
30 basis, with the performing of very large cuttings of the branches (Scortichini, 2020b). Apart
31 the damage induced to tree physiology and productivity, such a practice, sometimes applied
32 with the intention to eliminate by *Xfp* from the tree, has always resulted in its further
33 weakening, and, usually, the subsequent death has been observed in few months, especially in
34 centennial trees (Scortichini, 2020b; Camposeo et al., 2022). An appropriate time frame for
35 pruning is retained of one or two years (Pannelli and Gucci, 2020), this also allows Dentamet®
36 to enter the foliage more effectively through nebulization.

37 Soil fertility is also retained very important for a rationale management of the olive grove in
38 relation to *Xfp* infection. A soil depletion of some micronutrients, namely zinc, copper and
39 manganese, indeed, has been observed in many olive groves of Salento infected by the
40 bacterium (Del Coco et al., 2020). In addition, in olive trees infected by *Xfp* has been found a
41 low bioavailability of copper and boron (Scortichini et al., 2019). Consequently, measures
42 aimed at increasing the soil content of macroelements, microelements as well as beneficial soil

1 microorganisms or composts should be applied to olive groves to maintain or improve their
2 overall soil fertility. The depletion of zinc and copper both in soil and within the infected trees,
3 is an indirect confirmation of the effectiveness of the protocol capable to provide such
4 microelements through the foliar applications.

5 It should be said that, despite the continuous claiming about “there is no cure for *Xylella*
6 *fastidiosa*” (Colella, 2023) and the discouragement to try the application any field control
7 protocol performed by national and local press as well as by the major farmer organizations
8 (Martella, 2022), a relevant number of farmers started to apply the protocol in different areas
9 of Apulia. Currently, there are farms, mainly planted with the local susceptible cultivars
10 Ogliarola salentina and Cellina di Nardò, that are practicing the control strategy in the
11 “infected” area, within the provinces of Lecce, Brindisi and Taranto since a relevant time span
12 (i.e., more than six years) (Fig. 5). The tree ages range from 30 to more than 500 years old and
13 the yield range, according to the classical olive trend of yield (i.e., alternate bearing), from 30
14 to 50 q.li/ha per year. It should be stressed that, in many cases, the olive farms are surrounded
15 by dead or severely damaged trees, this representing “green oasis” in the devastated Salento
16 (Fig. 6). Moreover, there are other farms of the “infected” area that have begun to apply the
17 protocol one or two years ago. These farms showed extensive twig and branch diebacks and
18 various dead trees. In all cases, the dead plant parts were removed, and the farmers began to
19 apply the bio-fertilizer during spring and summer. In these cases, also, the farms border areas
20 characterized by a relevant occurrence of OQDS but the applying of the bio-fertilizer promptly
21 incited a relevant sprouting of the infected trees. There are also cases where farmers utilize the
22 protocol as a preventive measure to avoid possible infection by the bacterium. Noteworthy, in
23 some cases, groups of farmers funded local “social promotion associations” (APS) with the
24 aim to save olive trees through the application of the *Xfp* control protocol herein described. To
25 date, more than 1.500 hectares are currently applying this control strategy in Salento, this
26 representing a safeguard for the heritage of that olive agroecosystem.

27 According to the new evidence that points for a significative role of *Botryosphaeriaceae* fungi
28 in causing diebacks to olive groves together with *Xfp*, an additional effort to find active
29 compounds capable to mitigate the aggressiveness of such fungi is required. Currently, several
30 strategies are under study to face the virulence of *Botryosphaeriaceae* to woody species
31 (Guarnaccia et al., 2022; Aiello et al., 2023). A fundamental approach to reduce the spread of
32 such fungi within and between the olive groves is the disinfection of pruning shears, and the
33 protection of pruning wounds, since pycnidiospores of these fungi, spread by rain splash, can
34 easily infect them after the cutting, as observed in vineyards (Urbez-Torres and Gubler, 2011;
35 Otoyá-Martínez et al., 2023).

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4 **Fig. 5.** Different approaches to face *Xylella fastidiosa* subsp. *pauca* in the “infected” area of
5 Salento. Top: July 2019: productive olive grove of 10 ha at Nardò (Lecce province) (on the
6 left) that has applied the management strategy based on Dentamet® since 2016; abandoned
7 olive groves completely wilted (on the right). Below: June 2022, the olive grove that continues
8 to apply the management strategy is still productive (on the left), whereas the abandoned olive
9 grove was uprooted and planted with tomato (on the right).

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Fig. 6. Top: olive farm (on the left) at San Pietro Vernotico (Brindisi province) in June 2022 that applied the management strategy during the last four years compared to a close and abandoned olive grove completely wilted (right); Below: experimental field at Cannole (Lecce province) in June 2022. This olive grove has continuously applied the control strategy since 2016 and it regularly yields. To note the completely wilted olive groves nearby and the “drift effect” in the first olive row bordering the treated ones due to the aerial spray of Dentamet® that partly also reached the neighboring olive trees.

1 Pruning shears have been verified as a source of inoculum for *Botryosphaeriaceae* that infect
2 grapevine (Agusti-Brisach et al., 2015). The disinfection of the shears could be obtained by
3 soaking them into a liquid formulation that contains a broad-spectrum fungicide (Diaz and
4 Latorre, 2013). The protection of pruning wounds could be obtained by means of *Thricoderma*
5 spp. (i.e., *T. asperellum* and *T. gamsii*) biocontrol agents (Blundel and Eskalen, 2022), and the
6 pruning should be preferably performed during dry and warm weather (Urbez-Torres and
7 Gubler, 2011). Also very important to reduce the risks posed by the inoculum sources, is the
8 elimination of pruning residues and dead wood (Aiello et al., 2023). A confirmation of the
9 fundamental role played by pruning in the dispersal of *Botryosphaeriaceae* within and between
10 the olive groves of Salento has been achieved by direct observations of farmers that observed
11 first signs of BTB (i.e., extensive twig diebacks) one or two years after pruning. Currently, in
12 Italy there are not specific, authorized fungicides to control *Botryosphaeriaceae* in olive groves,
13 and the search for biocontrol agents or ecofriendly compounds capable to reduce the tree
14 colonization and significantly mitigate their aggressiveness is important.

15

16 **8. General remarks and perspective**

17 Through an in-depth interdisciplinary approach, we have verified that is now possible to apply
18 a field management strategy capable to cure olive trees infected by *Xfp* in Apulia. Such a cure
19 is not intended at eliminating the bacterium from the xylem tissue of the tree but at reducing
20 its concentration at a level compatible with the obtaining of new vegetation and yield, as
21 commonly obtained for most of the crops infected by plant pathogens. This strategy, associated
22 to the vector control strategy, should be applied every year. The misunderstanding between
23 “cure” and “eradication” of *Xfp* has created either confusion or a relevant negative approach
24 towards the acceptance of the management strategy, this resulting in the following abandon of
25 the olive groves and the subsequent general collapse of the trees in a very vast area of Salento.
26 In the case of OQDS, an integrated approach, indeed, that consider the different facets of the
27 disease (i.e., pathogen(s) life cycle and epidemiology, host-plant susceptibility, vector(s)
28 biology, and predisposing factors of disease) can lead to a better comprehension of the disease
29 itself and to the obtaining of an effective control strategy.

30 Within this frame, it is worth noting that a fungus-associated syndrome, namely BTB, caused
31 by *Neofusicoccum* spp., has been recently described in the olive groves of Salento, which
32 severely impacts the olive trees and whose symptoms can be confused with symptoms of
33 OQDS. Further studies are ongoing to fully understand the role of the associated fungi.
34 However, it should be outlined that, in woody species declines, polymicrobial complexes can
35 often be involved, and each microbial species may either cause specific symptoms or interact
36 with the others in a temporally regulated succession which ultimately cause the decline
37 symptomatology (Manion, 1981; Sinclair and Hudler, 1988; Denman et al., 2018; Griffiths et
38 al., 2020; Hrycan et al., 2020). Since the application of the described management strategy
39 could be less effective in declining trees infected with a complex microbial cohort (*Xfp* plus
40 fungi), an integration with measures aimed at restricting the progress of such additional
41 pathogens, could provide an even better control of all the causal agents involved in olive trees

- 1 diebacks in Salento and Apulia as a whole. Studies are under way to select effective compounds
- 2 capable to significantly reduce the aggressiveness of *Botryosphaeriaceae* towards olive groves.
- 3

1 **Ethical approval**

2 This article does not contain any studies with human participants or animal performed by any
3 of the authors.

4

5 **CRediT authorship contribution statement**

6 **Marco Scortichini, Stefania Loreti, Valeria Scala, Nicoletta Pucci, Massimo Pilotti,**
7 **Giuseppe Tatulli, Erica Cesari, Alessia L’Aurora, Massimo Reverberi, Nicola Cristella,**
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10 **Migoni, Francesco Paolo Fanizzi.** All authors contributed to: data curation, writing, review
11 & editing.

12

13 **Declaration of competing interest**

14 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interest or personal
15 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

16

17 **Data availability**

18 Data will be made available on request.

19

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26 di *Xylella fastidiosa* in oliveti pugliesi ed analisi epidemiologiche del complesso del
27 disseccamento rapido dell’olivo (CoDiRO)”.

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