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8 **Cultivation of *Tuber melanosporum* in firebreaks: short-term persistence of the fungus and**
9 **effect of seedling age and soil treatment**

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16

17 **Abstract**

18 Wildfires are a major threat to Mediterranean forests. Firebreaks are built as a prevention
19 measure, but require a periodic and expensive maintenance. Cultivating the ectomycorrhizal
20 mushroom *Tuber melanosporum* Vitt. in firebreaks could reduce costs and improve their
21 sustainability. But firebreaks are built on forest soil, considered non-optimum for *T.*
22 *melanosporum* cultivation. A pot experiment was used to study the persistence of *T.*
23 *melanosporum* in firebreak soils in the short term, as a first step to assess the viability of these
24 plantations. The influence of seedlings, soil heating and liming on *T. melanosporum* was also
25 tested. During the two years after plantation, *T. melanosporum* mycorrhizas increased their
26 number, showing its ability to proliferate. Percent root colonisation by native fungi importantly
27 increased from month 12 to 22; although *T. melanosporum* remained dominant, with a
28 colonisation level similar to those in standard truffle plantations. The age of seedlings at the time
29 of planting influenced *T. melanosporum* poliferation, supporting a key role for nursery-seedling
30 quality in the performance of young plantations. Heating the soil before planting reduced the
31 richness of native fungi, suggesting that this could increase plantation success. The results tend to

32 support the viability of *T. melanosporum* cultivation in firebreaks, and encourage experimental
33 field plantations.

34 **Keywords:** firebreak, truffle plantation, inoculated seedling, soil preparation, ectomycorrhizal
35 fungi

36

37 **1 Introduction**

38 Wildfires are a major threat to the Mediterranean forests in Europe. A common silvicultural
39 measure to prevent wildfires are firebreaks: in some Mediterranean countries like Spain they
40 usually consist of a central band cleared to mineral earth, surrounded by a reduced fuel zone
41 (with widely spaced, pruned trees). Effective firebreaks require a periodic and expensive
42 maintenance ([Plana et al. 2005](#)), and thus grazing and agroforestry have been proposed as
43 secondary uses to reduce costs and increase sustainability. Reyna and Garcia-Barreda (2005)
44 proposed to cultivate the edible ectomycorrhizal (EM) fungus *Tuber melanosporum* Vitt. in the
45 reduced fuel zone of firebreaks, since both uses require open stands. The phytotoxic activity of
46 the fungus inhibiting plant growth around the symbiont tree ([Splivallo et al. 2011](#)) could create
47 horizontal discontinuities in ground fuels.

48 This area devoid of plant cover (called *brûlé*) is formed in most trees producing *T. melanosporum*
49 sporocarps in open stands, whereas it is much rarer in other trees; so the success of the proposal
50 depends on the fungus completing its life cycle. In sandy soils and in the most rainy areas of
51 France and Italy the inhibition of plant growth is lower, thus limiting the potential benefits of
52 these plantations.

53 Successful *T. melanosporum* cultivation requires planting inoculated seedlings on receptive soils
54 (suitable to complete its life cycle) with low EM infectivity (scant effective inoculum of other
55 EM fungi). Thus Sourzat (1997) recommends establishing *T. melanosporum* plantations on soils

56 previously cultivated for non-EM plants. In forests dominated by EM trees Frochet et al. (1990)
57 and Reyna et al. (2006) found that the native (soil-borne) populations of EM fungi colonised the
58 roots of inoculated seedling and limited the development of *T. melanosporum* from the first years.
59 This hinders the success of plantations, as they only start producing sporocarps between the 5th–
60 12th year.

61 The viability of cultivating *T. melanosporum* in firebreaks has not been evaluated. Since the EM
62 fungi obtain carbohydrates from their symbionts, the absence of EM plants negatively affects the
63 EM infectivity of the soil (Dickie and Reich 2005). But in many Mediterranean firebreaks a low
64 density of resprouting EM trees and shrubs usually appears, making the evaluation difficult. De
65 Román and De Miguel (2005) and Martínez de Aragón et al. (2012) found that *T. melanosporum*
66 persisted in recently burned forest soils in the short term despite the presence of resprouters.
67 Reyna and Garcia-Barreda (2005) pointed that it would be interesting to test soil heating and
68 overliming as a means of decreasing the EM infectivity of soil: it is well established that they can
69 damage soil fungi (Erland and Söderström 1990; Neary et al. 1999), and in Spain it was frequent
70 to observe truffle *brûlés* spontaneously forming on recently abandoned charcoal kilns and lime
71 kilns located in forests.

72 The characteristics of nursery seedlings also influence the success of *T. melanosporum*
73 plantations: the abundance of an EM fungus on the roots can hamper colonisation by other fungi
74 (Kennedy et al. 2009); the seedling attributes at the time of planting influence its early field
75 performance (Del Campo et al. 2009); and the saplings with the higher growth rates in a *T.*
76 *melanosporum* plantation produce sporocarps and phytotoxic effects earlier (Shaw et al. 1996;
77 Lulli et al. 1999).

78 Before establishing field plantations, and as a first step to design *T. melanosporum* plantations in
79 firebreaks, we examine the ability of *T. melanosporum* mycorrhizas to proliferate on firebreak

80 soils and to compete against native EM fungi in the first two years after planting. Inoculated
81 holm oak (*Quercus ilex* L) seedlings were grown in pots with firebreak soil and compared to
82 dense forest soil. As a secondary aim, we test if the performance of *T. melanosporum* is
83 influenced by (a) the characteristics of the inoculated seedlings at the time of planting, and (b)
84 two soil preparations aimed at reducing EM infectivity before planting: heating and liming.

85

86 **2 Materials and methods**

87 *2.1 Study site*

88 The study was conducted in the *T. melanosporum*-producing region of El Toro, in the Valencian
89 Community (eastern Spain, 1100 m a.s.l.). The soils are calcixerepts developed on Jurassic hard
90 limestones (loam texture, pH 8.2, organic matter 3.8%). Three firebreaks with over 30 years and
91 distant 2.8, 4.6 and 7.2 km from each other were selected. Subshrubs and herbaceous species
92 (*Santolina chamaecyparissus* L, *Brachypodium retusum* Beauv., *Genista scorpius* AD, *Thymus*
93 *vulgaris* L) dominated the vegetation, whereas EM trees and shrubs (*Q. ilex*, *Quercus faginea*
94 Lam., *Quercus coccifera* L, and *Pinus nigra* Arnold) were sparse. The forest surrounding the
95 firebreaks was a coppice of *Q. ilex* and *Q. faginea* with 300–900 trees ha⁻¹ and a canopy cover
96 40–90%. According to local harvesters, none of the sampled soils produced *T. melanosporum* in
97 recent years.

98

99 *2.2 Experimental design and data collection*

100 A total of 48 seedlings were planted in a full factorial design with five independent variables:
101 land use (forest, firebreak), liming (0 and 1 kg m⁻²), heat treatment (drying oven, microwaves,
102 control), age of the seedlings at the time of planting (one and two years old), and time from
103 plantation to sampling (12 and 22 months).

104 Two subplots 1×1 m were established in each of the three firebreaks and in the corresponding
105 forest plots. In the firebreaks, the nearest EM tree or shrub was 6–7 m away from the subplots,
106 whereas in the forest it was 2–3 m away. The topsoil (0–20 cm) of the two subplots was mixed.
107 One of the subplots was limed with 1 kg m⁻² quicklime powder (94% CaO, particle diameter <0.1
108 mm, Cales Pascual) in October 2006. Immediately after liming, the pH rose from 8.2 to 11.5–
109 12.0, but at the time of planting (five months after liming, with more than 150 mm rainfall) it did
110 not differ from that of the non-limed soil.

111 In March 2007 the topsoil of the three limed firebreak subplots was collected and pooled. The
112 same was done for the non-limed firebreak, the limed forest, and the non-limed forest subplots.
113 Soils were pooled to reduce the high variability characteristic of EM communities, which often
114 confound the response to the treatments (Marx et al. 1991), although in this way the
115 heterogeneity between sites cannot be tested.

116 Then the heat treatments were applied: (a) 30 minutes in a drying oven (maximum temperature:
117 65°C, time above 60°C: about ten minutes), (b) 90 seconds in microwaves (nominal power output:
118 700 W, frequency: 2.45 GHz, maximum temperature: 65°C, time above 60°C: about 60 seconds),
119 and (c) control. In all cases the soil was laid out in a 2.5 cm layer to obtain a homogenous
120 temperature. The temperature was measured at 1.2 cm depth. The soil water content at the time of
121 the heat treatment was 10% w/w.

122 Once the soil cooled down, a mixture of 3.5 l soil and 0.35 l perlite was used to fill the pots in
123 which the seedlings (that came from the nursery in a container Quick-pot® 0.65 l volume and 18
124 cm depth) were planted. The total volume of the growing medium was 4.5 l, its depth 25 cm, the
125 diameter of top surface 16.1 cm, and the diameter in the open bottom: 13.5 cm.

126 The seedlings came from a commercial nursery (viveros Alto Palancia) and had been inoculated
127 with a spore slurry containing about 2 g of fresh, mature sporocarps per plant. Two different

128 seedling stocklots were used: one- and two-year-old *Q. ilex* seedlings. The inoculation technique
129 and the growing conditions were the same, so we consider that the differences reflect the
130 development of the seedling and the fungus during the second year in the nursery. The initial
131 mycorrhizal state of the nursery seedlings was assessed at the time of planting (March 2007)
132 through a volumetric sampling (n=12) to assess both the proportion of root tips colonised and the
133 number of ectomycorrhizas per plant. In each seedling a sample with 8% of the substrate volume
134 (54 ml) was taken; all samples containing more than 104 root tips (mean: 470, standard deviation:
135 275). To cope with heterogeneity across soil depth, every sample consisted of three subsamples:
136 the depth of the container was divided into three equal parts, and in the center of each third (3.5,
137 9, and 15 cm depth) a horizontal core (2 cm diameter) across the container was taken.

138 Once in the pots, the plants were kept outdoors and watered to keep soil water content between
139 15% and 35% w/w (holding capacity: 46% w/w) and simulate the variable soil water content in
140 the field. According to [Mamoun and Olivier \(1990\)](#) and [Olivera et al. \(2011\)](#), moderate irrigation
141 regimes provide optimal conditions for the development of *T. melanosporum* mycorrhizas. High
142 and constant soil water content, and closed greenhouses without ventilation were avoided to
143 reduce the proliferation of nursery-adapted EM fungi. Half of the seedlings were sampled 12
144 months after plantation in the pots (March 2008) and the rest at month 22 (January 2009).

145 The mycorrhizal state at months 12 and 22 was assessed through a volumetric sampling. In each
146 seedling a sample with 5% of the growing medium (219 ml) was taken; all samples containing
147 more than 120 root tips (mean: 935, standard deviation: 498). To cope with heterogeneity across
148 soil depth, each sample consisted of three subsamples: the pot depth was divided into three equal
149 parts, and in the center of each third (6, 13, and 20 cm depth) a horizontal core (2.5 cm diameter)
150 across the container was taken. The deepest core was the only one that did not cross the nursery
151 rootball; thus it only included roots grown after the plantation in the 4.5 l-pots.

152 The samples were kept in water at 4°C. The length of fine roots (diameter<1 mm) was measured
153 according to Tennant (1975). All root tips (active and senescent) were counted. Active root tips
154 were classified as nonmycorrhizal or mycorrhizal, and the latter were sorted in morphotypes
155 according to the criteria of [Agerer \(1987-2002\)](#) and with the aid of the descriptions in De Román
156 (2003). Their description is given in Table S1. The plants were dried to constant weight at 80°C.

157

158 2.3 Statistical analysis

159 The effect of the independent variables was evaluated through conventional ANOVA, except for
160 the frequencies of appearance (proportion of samples in which a morphotype is present) which
161 were analysed through logistic regression. Significant differences among treatments were
162 identified with a least significant difference test with Bonferroni correction. When the model
163 assumptions were violated, the response variable was transformed. In order to account for within-
164 treatment variability we included root length as a predictor in the ANOVAs of the colonisation
165 level (proportion of active roots colonised) of *T. melanosporum* and the native fungi, and the
166 richness of native fungi.

167 The distribution of *T. melanosporum* along the depth profile was analysed through linear mixed
168 models (LMM). Each core was considered as one different sample and the depth was treated as a
169 repeated-measures variable.

170

171 3 Results

172 Before being planted, two-year-old seedlings showed significantly higher dry weight (shoot: $P <$
173 0.001 , root: $P = 0.001$), root tips per plant ($P = 0.002$) and *T. melanosporum* mycorrhizas per
174 plant ($P = 0.04$) than one-year-old seedlings; whereas the proportion of active root tips colonised
175 by *T. melanosporum* did not significantly differ ($P = 0.72$, Table 1). Before being planted *T.*

176 *melanosporum* and *Sphaerospora brunnea* Svrcek and Kubicka were the only mycorrhizas on
 177 seedling roots. *S brunnea* was found in 33% of the one-year-old seedlings, colonising 8–34% of
 178 the active root tips; and in 50% of the two-year-old seedlings, colonising 0.1–0.7% of the active
 179 root tips.

180

181 Table 1 Mean characteristics of the nursery-inoculated seedlings before being planted in the pots.
 182 Letters indicate significant differences ($\alpha = 0.05$) between one- and two-year-old seedlings.

	1-year-old seedlings	2-year-old seedlings
Shoot dry weight (g) ^a	0.6 b	1.5 a
Root dry weight (g) ^a	1.8 b	5.3 a
Root tips per plant	2909 b	7528 a
<i>T. melanosporum</i> mycorrhizas per plant ^a	884 b	1477 a
Proportion of active root tips colonised by <i>T. melanosporum</i>	0.36	0.32

183 ^a Variables log-transformed

184

185 Once planted in the pots, the shoot and the root dry weight of the seedlings were positively
 186 affected by the time from plantation ($P < 0.001$ for both shoot and root), and the age of seedlings
 187 at the time of planting ($P < 0.001$ for both shoot and root). The dry weights of shoot and root
 188 were significantly higher in the forest soil (shoot: $P = 0.002$, root: $P = 0.01$). Shoot weight was
 189 positively influenced by the microwaves treatment ($P = 0.03$) (Table 2).

190 The length of fine roots, the number of root tips, and the number of *T. melanosporum*
 191 mycorrhizas per plant were significantly affected by the interaction between seedling age and
 192 time from plantation ($P = 0.03$, $P = 0.04$ and $P = 0.04$ respectively): all of them increased with
 193 time and were higher in two-year-old seedlings, but one-year-old seedlings showed higher
 194 increases of root tips and mycorrhizas from month 12 to month 22, whereas two-year-old
 195 seedlings showed higher increases from plantation to month 12 (Tables 1, 3). In the firebreak the
 196 number of root tips was higher than in the forest ($P = 0.03$), but the length of fine roots and *T.*
 197 *melanosporum* mycorrhizas per plant did not significantly differ.

198

199
200Table 2 Mean dry weight of the plants cultivated on the firebreak and forest soils. Letters indicate significant differences ($\alpha = 0.05$) among levels.

	Shoot dry weight (g) ^a	Root dry weight (g)
Initial age of seedlings		
1-year-old seedlings	6.4 b	9.8 b
2-year-old seedlings	9.4 a	14.2 a
Time from plantation		
12 months	4.7 j	7.5 j
22 months	12.8 i	16.5 i
Land use		
Forest	8.5 m	13.0 m
Firebreak	7.1 n	11.0 n
Liming		
Control	7.7	11.4
1 kg m ⁻²	7.8	12.6
Heat treatment		
Control	7.0 y	12.2
Drying oven	8.0 xy	11.7
Microwaves	8.3 x	12.1

201
202^a Variable log-transformed203
204Table 3 Mean fine root length, root tips per plant and *T. melanosporum* mycorrhizas per plant. Letters indicate significant differences ($\alpha = 0.05$) among levels.

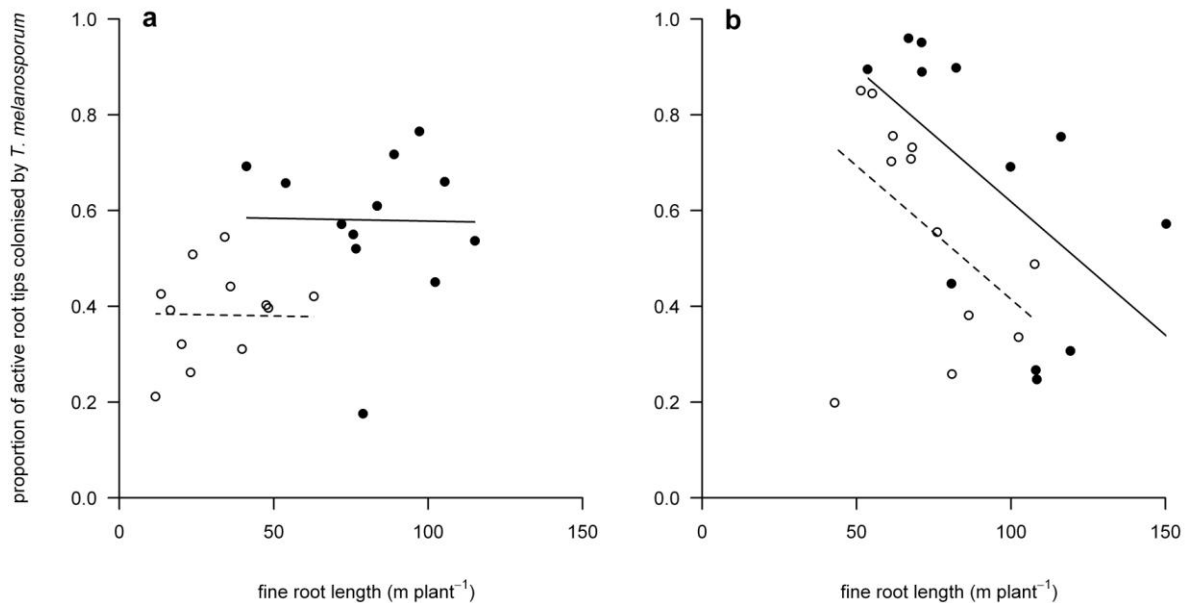
	Fine root length (m)	Root tips per plant	<i>T. melanosporum</i> mycorrhizas per plant ^a
Initial age of seedlings × time			
1-year-old seedling, at month 12	31.5 b	5460 c	1770 b
1-year-old seedling, at month 22	71.8 a	18025 b	4256 a
2-year-old seedling, at month 12	82.6 a	18533 b	5945 a
2-year-old seedling, at month 22	94.0 a	25239 a	6381 a
Land use			
Forest	66.1	15187 j	4411
Firebreak	73.8	18441 i	3832
Liming			
Control	65.5	16379	4129
1 kg m ⁻²	74.4	17250	4094
Heat treatment			
Control	69.6	17565	4312
Drying oven	73.0	15229	3406
Microwaves	67.3	17650	4733

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206^a Variable log-transformed207 *T. melanosporum* was present in all the seedlings. The proportion of active root tips colonised by208 *T. melanosporum* was significantly higher in two- than in one-year-old seedlings (P = 0.005). It

209 was also significantly affected by the interaction between time from plantation and fine root

210 length ($P = 0.003$): 12 months after planting the relation between root length and the proportion
211 of active tips colonised by *T. melanosporum* was not significant ($P = 0.94$); 22 months after
212 planting the relation was significantly negative ($P < 0.001$) (Fig. 1). None of the soil preparations
213 or land uses showed a significant effect.

214



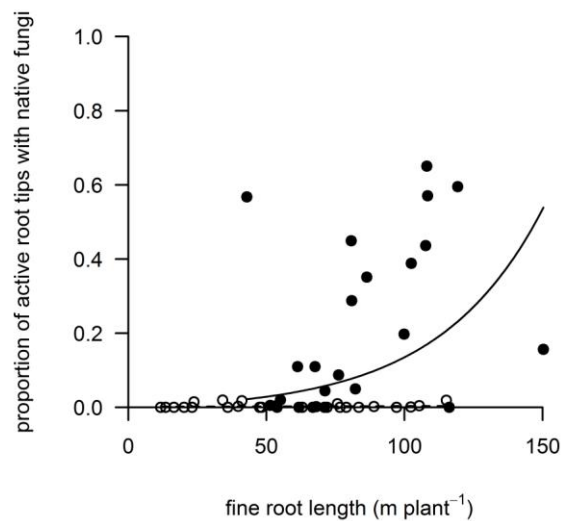
215

216 Fig 1 Proportion of active root tips colonised by *T. melanosporum* according to fine root length, at month 12 (a) and
217 at month 22 (b). Open circles and dashed lines correspond to seedlings that were one year old at the time of planting.
218 Full circles and solid lines correspond to seedlings that were two years old at the time of planting.

219

220 At month 22 we found native EM fungi on 83% of the seedlings. The proportion of active root
221 tips colonised by native fungi was significantly affected only by the interaction between time
222 from plantation and fine root length ($P = 0.01$): 12 months after planting the relation between root
223 length and native fungi colonisation levels was not significant ($P = 0.87$); 22 months after
224 planting the relation was significantly positive ($P = 0.003$) (Fig. 2). At month 22 the ratio native-
225 to-*T. melanosporum* mycorrhizas was 0.14 for seedlings with mean root length.

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Fig 2 Proportion of active root tips colonised by native EM fungi according to fine root length at month 12 (open circles, dashed line) and month 22 (full circles, solid line).

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The richness of native EM morphotypes showed a significant and positive relation with fine root length ($P = 0.001$) and time from plantation (0.7 types per plant at month 12 and 1.3 at month 22, $P = 0.03$), although not with their interaction ($P = 0.72$). The richness was significantly higher in the control heat treatment (1.6 types per plant) than in the drying oven (0.8) and the microwaves (0.7) treatments ($P = 0.003$); and marginally higher in one- than in two-year-old seedlings (1.3 and 0.7 types per plant respectively, $P = 0.05$).

Eleven native morphotypes were found in the assay (Table S1), although six of them appeared only on one or two seedlings. The frequency of appearance of four of the five most common morphotypes significantly associated with one land use. In three of them it was significantly lower in the microwaves treatment than in the control (Table 4). Five of the six rarer morphotypes appeared only in the forest (*Tomentella galzinii* Bourdot, type *Hebeloma-Cortinarius*, type *Russula*, type *Pisolithus*, type Thelephoroid), and none of the six appeared in microwaves-treated soil.

244

245 Table 4 Frequency of appearance for the most common native EM morphotypes. For each morphotype, letters
 246 indicate significant differences ($\alpha=0.05$) among treatment levels.

	Unidentified 6	Unidentified 1	<i>Cenococcum geophilum</i>	Complex <i>Tuber albidum</i>	Unidentified 7
Initial age of seedlings					
1-year-old seedlings	0.42	0.13	0.08	0.04	0.08
2-year-old seedlings	0.38	0.13	0.17	0.17	0.08
Time from plantation					
12 months	0.21 b	0.04 b	0.08	0.04	0 b
22 months	0.58 a	0.21 a	0.17	0.17	0.17 a
Land use					
Forest	0.17 j	0.21 i	0.21 i	0.17	0 j
Firebreak	0.63 i	0.04 j	0.04 j	0.04	0.17 i
Liming					
Control	0.38	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.08
1 kg m ⁻²	0.42	0.13	0.13	0.08	0.08
Heat treatment					
Control	0.38	0.25 x	0.31 x	0.06	0.25 x
Drying oven	0.31	0.13 xy	0.06 y	0.13	0 y
Microwaves	0.50	0 y	0 y	0.13	0 y

247

248 The frequency of appearance of *S. brunnea* was significantly higher at month 12 (0.42) than at
 249 month 22 (0.13, $P = 0.02$). None of the other predictors showed a significant effect. The
 250 proportion of active roots colonised by this fungus ranged from 0 to 20%.

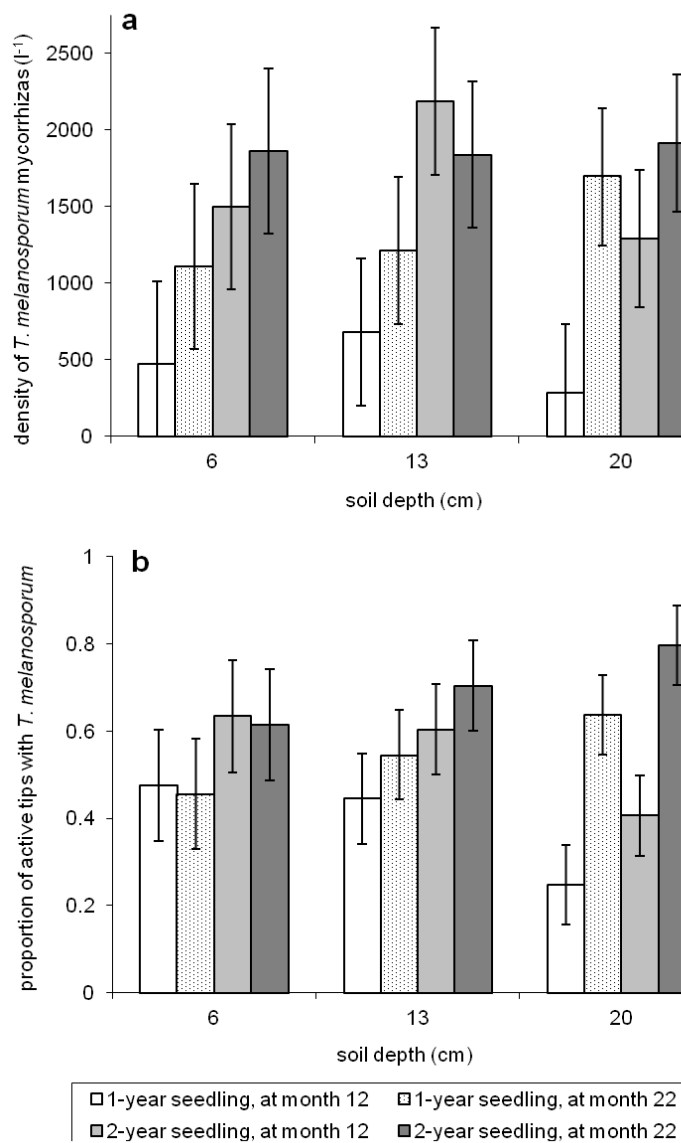
251

252 3.1 *T. melanosporum mycorrhizas along the depth profile*

253 The effect of time and seedling age on the density and proportion of root tips colonised by *T.*
 254 *melanosporum* significantly varied along the depth profile.

255 The interaction among time, seedling age and depth significantly affected the density of *T.*
 256 *melanosporum* mycorrhizas ($P = 0.001$). The density increased with time in all depth-levels
 257 except for the central core of two-year-old seedlings. Twelve months after planting the maximum
 258 density was attained in the central core; 22 months after planting it was attained in the lower core,
 259 although in the two-year-old seedlings the density was rather uniform (Fig. 3a).

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Fig 3 Mean density of *T. melanosporum* mycorrhizas (a) and proportion of active root tips colonised by *T. melanosporum* (b) at the three sampling depths, according to time from plantation and age of seedlings at the time of planting. Error bars correspond to 95% confidence intervals (n=12 for each bar).

268

The interaction between time and depth significantly affected the proportion of active root tips

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colonised by *T. melanosporum* ($P < 0.001$), which was also influenced by seedling age ($P =$

270

0.002). From month 12 to month 22 the colonisation level remained stable in the upper core,

271 moderately increased in the central core and sharply increased in the lower core, which showed
272 the maximum levels at month 22 (Fig. 3b).

273

274 **4. Discussion**

275 The proliferation and competitiveness of *T. melanosporum* during the first years after planting
276 can be an early indicator of the viability of *T. melanosporum* cultivation (Martínez de Aragón et
277 al. 2012).

278 During the study, *T. melanosporum* proliferated in all treatments and almost all depth-levels. The
279 time trends in the abundance of its mycorrhizas were similar to those in fine root length and total
280 root tips (Table 3). At month 22 the maximum density of *T. melanosporum* mycorrhizas occurred
281 in the lower core, where all the roots were produced after plantation in the pot. This supports the
282 receptiveness of these firebreak and forest soils for the *Q. ilex* × *T. melanosporum* symbiosis.

283 The decrease in the colonisation level of *T. melanosporum* closely associated with the increase of
284 native fungi. After the first year the colonisation level of native fungi was not significant for any
285 value of fine root length, while that of *T. melanosporum* remained similar or higher than initially
286 and was not influenced by fine root length. After the second year fine root length associated
287 negatively with *T. melanosporum* and positively with native fungi. This supports the role of
288 native fungi competition in reducing *T. melanosporum* colonisation levels, and points that they
289 could challenge the success of the plantation.

290 De Román and De Miguel (2005) and Martínez de Aragón et al. (2012) planted mycorrhizal
291 seedlings on soils of burned forests. The former found that the ratio of native-to-*T.*
292 *melanosporum* ectomycorrhizas was 0.28 after three years, suggesting that the competitive
293 pressure of native fungi could be similar or slightly higher than in our firebreaks. Martínez de

294 Aragón et al. (2012) found a much higher ratio of 1.3 after 4.5 years; despite this, 26% of
295 seedlings displayed a *brûlé* at year ten.

296 The studies comparing the competition by native EM fungi in forest soils and soils cultivated for
297 non-EM fungi (considered optimal for *T. melanosporum* plantation) are scarce. Frochet et al.
298 (1990) planted inoculated seedlings in a recently-cleared forest soil and found native EM fungi in
299 62% of the seedlings after four years, whereas in a soil cultivated with non-EM plants they found
300 native EM fungi in only 24% of the seedlings. Reyna et al. (2006) planted inoculated seedlings in
301 pots with soil from dense forests and cereal crops, and after 21-28 months they found native
302 fungi in 82–92% and 3–27% of the seedlings respectively. Our results are similar to those of
303 forests (83%), suggesting that the EM inoculum of these firebreaks is more effective in early
304 colonisation than that from soils cultivated with non-EM plants.

305 On the other hand, Sánchez-Durán (2012) sampled eight young *T. melanosporum* plantations in
306 Teruel (Spain) on soils previously cultivated with non-EM plants, and found ratios native-to-*T.*
307 *melanosporum* ectomycorrhizas similar to that in our firebreaks: 0.11 in trees three to seven years
308 old, and 0.17 in trees seven to eleven years old, all of them already producing sporocarps.

309 The proliferation of *T. melanosporum* and the low ratio native-to-*T. melanosporum*
310 ectomycorrhizas tends to support the viability of its cultivation in the studied firebreaks and
311 forests. The potential of both land uses appears to be similar, but the experiment does not take
312 into account the hyphae attached to living trees as inoculum source (Jones et al. 2003). These are
313 likely more abundant in the forest than in the firebreak soils (with a much lower density of EM
314 plants), although we did not measure EM fine root densities in the field. Thus, our study is
315 probably underestimating the competitive pressure of the native EM fungi, especially in the forest.
316 The composition of the effective native EM community (fungi able to colonise the seedlings) was
317 quantitatively different in the firebreak and the forest. Dickie et al. (2009) found distinct EM

318 communities in North American oak savannas and forests. Since the EM species can differ in
319 their competitive ability once they are established on seedling roots (Hortal et al. 2008), the
320 different EM composition in firebreak and forest soils could cause differences in *T.*
321 *melanosporum* persistence in the long term.

322 The differences between one- and two-year-old seedlings at the time of planting affected the
323 performance of the seedlings and the introduced fungus after plantation. In the first year two-
324 year-old seedlings produced more root tips, and *T. melanosporum* proliferated more than in one-
325 year-old seedlings. From the first year *T. melanosporum* attained a higher colonisation level in
326 two-year-old seedlings—even though there were not significant differences before planting—
327 and two-year-old seedlings showed a lower richness of native fungi. Bourrières et al. (2005)
328 found that the colonisation level of *T. melanosporum* after four years in the field was positively
329 related with its level in the nursery and with growth rates in the field. This supports a key role for
330 nursery-seedling characteristics in the performance of young *T. melanosporum* plantations,
331 although the relative contribution of early root growth and initial number of mycorrhizas remains
332 unclear.

333 The second year after plantation appeared to be a critical period in the competition for root
334 colonisation, as already pointed by Frochot et al. (1990) and Reyna et al. (2006) for seedlings
335 inoculated with *T. melanosporum*, and by Pruett et al. (2008) for *Tuber aestivum* Vitt. The
336 colonisation level and richness of native fungi related to fine root length and therefore to the
337 ability of the seedling to explore the soil, which is intrinsic to plant growth. Reducing soil
338 infectivity before planting could be an interesting strategy to enhance the proliferation of *T.*
339 *melanosporum* while maintaining a high colonisation level.

340 Our results suggest that heating the soil before planting could be useful to reduce EM infectivity.
341 Heating at 65°C reduced the richness of native fungi on seedling roots—although not their

342 colonisation level—without affecting seedling growth or *T. melanosporum* proliferation. The
343 response to heating was species-specific, agreeing with the findings of Izzo et al. (2006). It would
344 be interesting to test higher temperatures: although Izzo et al. (2006) found that heating the soil to
345 75°C did not limit root colonisation of bait seedlings, the presence of a nursery-inoculated EM
346 fungus in the roots can hamper colonisation by native fungi (Jones et al. 2003; Kennedy et al.
347 2009).

348 On the other hand, we have not found any significant effect of liming on seedlings or on the EM
349 community colonising the seedlings, in spite of the temporary pH rise. Rineau et al. (2010)
350 pointed that in acidic soils the changes in an EM community after liming were mainly due to a
351 reduction in acidophylic fungi, which are much rarer in calcareous soils like those in our study
352 and in most *T. melanosporum* soils.

353 Some caution is required in extrapolating these results to the field. Although we tried to simulate
354 soil moisture conditions in the field, the Mediterranean region is subject to a more irregular soil
355 water regime with broader ranges. Zambonelli et al. (2000) found that some EM species
356 competed with the nursery-inoculated *Tuber albidum* Pico in greenhouse conditions but not in the
357 field. In our study the occurrence of the pioneer, nursery-adapted *S. brunnea* (Garcia-Montero et
358 al. 2008) decreased with time, suggesting that the experimental conditions were not optimum for
359 such species.

360 Another limitation is the difference in root growth between *Q. ilex* seedlings grown in pots and in
361 the field: Tsakalimi et al. (2009) found that the fine root length was ten times higher in seedlings
362 germinated in pots than in the field. Similarly, the fine root length in our plants was two orders of
363 magnitude higher than in four- and five-year-old field plantations (Olivera et al. 2011; Martínez
364 de Aragón et al. 2012) and the number of root tips was one order of magnitude higher. The
365 differences in the density and distribution of root tips are likely to affect the proliferation and

366 competitiveness of *T. melanosporum*. It would be interesting to evaluate the relation between *T.*
367 *melanosporum* colonisation level and root length in seedlings with lower root lengths, similar to
368 those found in field seedlings.

369 Despite these limitations, the pot experiment proved useful as a first approach to evaluating the
370 potential of a soil for *T. melanosporum* cultivation. *T. melanosporum* has shown able to
371 proliferate in the firebreak and forest soils of a *T. melanosporum*-producing region, and to
372 maintain high colonisation levels despite the infection by native EM fungi. The next step to
373 design *T. melanosporum* plantations for firebreaks is to assess the viability in field plantations,
374 where the soil environment can be more limiting and the living roots of other trees can colonise
375 the planting holes. The second year after plantation appeared as a critical period in the
376 competition for root colonisation between *T. melanosporum* and native fungi, since the
377 colonisation level of the latter sharply increased. Nursery-seedling quality and heating the soil
378 before plantation are promising for increasing the probability of success of these plantations,
379 whereas liming did not cause any significant effect at the dose applied.

380

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386

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459

460 **Table S1** Description and overall frequency of appearance of the EM morphotypes (ordered according to their
 461 frequency)

Morphotype	Freq.	Colour	Mantle ^a	Emanating elements ^b
<i>Tuber melanosporum</i>	1	Orange to brown	PS-type M	C: yellowish-reddish, right angle-ramified, non-clamped
Unidentified 6	0.40	Pale yellow or whitish rose	Type B in young mycorrhizas, type P in the older	H: scarce, hyaline, wide, covered by crystals, Y-shaped ramification, enlarged in or between the septa, sometimes with ring-like shapes, non-clamped
<i>Sphaerosporella brunnea</i>	0.28	Yellow to reddish black	PS-type P	H: hyaline to reddish, wide, ramified, constricted in the septa, non-clamped
Unidentified 1	0.13	Pale yellow to brown	PS-type P	C: hyaline, short, non-ramified, capitate, non-clamped H: hyaline-yellow, sometimes with ring-like shapes, ramified, non-clamped
<i>Cenococcum geophilum</i>	0.13	Black	PL-type G	H: dark brown, thick-walled, non-ramified, non-clamped
Complex <i>Tuber albidum</i>	0.10	Yellow to brown	PS-type M	C: bristle-like, hyaline to pale yellow, thin, sometimes geniculate base
Unidentified 7	0.08	Reddish black	PS-type O	H: reddish brown, ramified, anastomising, sometimes with warts, with clamped and non-clamped septa R: type C, reddish brown, forming nodia at branching
<i>Tomentella galzinii</i>	0.04	Yellowish to greenish brown	PS-type L	C: bristle-like, enlarged base, yellow below the first septa, clamped H: yellow, ramified, clamped R: type A, yellowish-greenish
Type <i>Hebeloma-Cortinarius</i>	0.02	Whitish rose to brown	PL-type B	H: hyaline, ramified, enlarged in the septa, clamped, anastomising R: type A, hyaline, with fan-like connection to the mantle
Type <i>Russula</i>	0.02	Whitish to yellowish brown	PL-type B	C: hyaline, flask-shaped
Type <i>Pisolithus</i>	0.02	Golden-orange	PL-type B	H: yellowish brown, ramified, sometimes ribbon-like, clamped R: type B, brown, ramified, with inflated cells
Type Thelephoroid	0.02	Whitish grey to brown	PL-type D	C: hyaline, awl-shaped, non-ramified, with clamped (when only one) and non-clamped septa H: hyaline, Y-shaped ramification, anastomizing, with clamped and non-clamped septa
<i>Tuber brumale</i>	0.02	Orange to brown	PS-type M	C: yellow, bristle-like, enlarged base, usually without septa

462 ^a PL: plectenchymatous, PS: pseudoparenchymatous (Agerer, 1987-2002)

463 ^b C: cystidia, H: hyphae, R: rhizomorph