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5 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.funbio.2023.07.004>

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7 **Sequential application of inoculation methods improves mycorrhization of *Quercus ilex***  
8 **seedlings by *Tuber melanosporum***

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26

27 **Abstract**

28 The use of mycorrhized seedlings has been critical to the success of modern truffle  
29 cultivation, which nowadays supplies most European black truffles (*Tuber melanosporum*) to  
30 markets. Ascospore inoculation has been traditionally used to produce these seedlings, but  
31 little scientific information is publicly available on the inoculation methods applied or on the  
32 possibility of combining them. We evaluated the potential of sequential inoculation for the  
33 controlled colonization of holm oak fine roots by *T. melanosporum*, with two different  
34 nursery assays and a full factorial design. Three inoculation methods were sequentially  
35 applied: radicle inoculation, inoculation of the substrate in seedling trays and inoculation of  
36 the substrate in the final pot. Despite the differences in the results of the two assays, which  
37 suggest that cultivation conditions and/or the timing of nursery operations may influence the  
38 relative effectiveness of inoculation methods, the sequential application appeared as an  
39 effective and realistic alternative for commercial inoculation of holm oak seedlings with *T.*  
40 *melanosporum*. The increase in the amount of inoculum applied with each inoculation method  
41 improved the mycorrhizal colonization of seedlings, whereas separately none of the  
42 inoculation methods appeared clearly superior to the other ones. The depth distribution of  
43 truffle mycorrhizae pointed that the inoculation in the final pot was more effective than other  
44 methods in lower parts of the root system, whereas the early inoculation appeared more  
45 effective to reduce the occurrence of the opportunist ectomycorrhizal fungus *Sphaerosporella*  
46 *brunnea*.

47

48 **Keywords**

49 Truffle cultivation, *Tuber melanosporum*, ectomycorrhiza, mycorrhizal seedling, inoculation  
50 methods

51

## 52 **1. Introduction**

53 The European black truffle (*Tuber melanosporum* Vittad.) wild production has been declining  
54 in recent decades, due to overexploitation and canopy density increasing, among other causes  
55 (Garcia-Barreda et al., 2018; Baragatti et al., 2019). When researchers in the 1970s developed  
56 the controlled production of mycorrhizal seedlings, black truffle cultivation had a major boost  
57 and nowadays, it has become an important economic alternative for rural areas (Olivier et al.,  
58 1996; Chevalier, 2001). More than 40,000 hectares of seedlings inoculated with *T.*  
59 *melanosporum* have been planted in southern Europe, with plantations playing a largely  
60 dominant role in the global truffle production and with *Quercus ilex* L. being the main host  
61 tree in Spain and also widely used in France and Italy (Bencivenga, 2001; Chevalier, 2001;  
62 Reyna and Garcia-Barreda, 2014).

63 Modern truffle cultivation is based on planting mycorrhizal seedlings on lands with low  
64 ectomycorrhizal inoculum potential and appropriate edaphoclimatic conditions for the fungus  
65 to complete its life cycle (Sourzat, 2008). The choice of a good quality mycorrhizal seedling  
66 is critical to the success of a truffle plantation, since (i) the abundance of truffle mycorrhizae  
67 in the early years after plantation is related to colonization levels in the nursery (Bourrières et  
68 al., 2005; Garcia-Barreda and Reyna, 2013), and (ii) mycorrhizae act as maternal material for  
69 sexual reproduction and ascomata production in productive *truffières* (Rubini et al., 2011;  
70 Taschen et al., 2016). Most mycorrhizal seedlings for truffle plantations are produced in  
71 commercial nurseries, which use ascospores as the inoculum source, either incorporating  
72 them into the potting substrate or concentrating them onto fine roots (Chevalier and Grente,  
73 1978; Palazón and Barriuso, 2007; Iotti et al., 2012). Seedling inoculation with mycelium is  
74 not applied in commercial nurseries due to the slow growth of *T. melanosporum* in vitro  
75 mycelium cultures (Iotti et al., 2012), although it is used with *Terfezia* species and with *Tuber*  
76 *borchii* Vittad. (Arenas et al., 2018; Leonardi et al., 2020). The high price of truffle ascomata

77 used as ascospore source has led nurserymen to develop different inoculation methods and to  
78 fine-tune the amount of inoculum applied per seedling, especially in nurseries where  
79 thousands of seedlings are produced (Averseng and Rouch, 2001; Palazón et al., 2007; Iotti et  
80 al., 2012). However, for *Tuber* species, little scientific information is publicly available on the  
81 efficiency of inoculation methods or on the possibility of combining these methods, often  
82 because of patents and confidentiality agreements (Pruett et al., 2008; Pereira et al., 2013;  
83 Garcia-Barreda et al., 2017).

84         The quality of mycorrhizal seedlings is assessed by the level of colonization of the fine  
85 roots by the target truffle species, with most evaluation methods using calculated or estimated  
86 percent root colonization as the measurement variable (Andres-Alpuente et al. 2014; Donnini  
87 et al. 2014). However, these seedlings may present mycorrhizae from other non-desired  
88 species, the so-called “contaminants”, which sometimes are accidentally introduced with the  
89 inoculum and sometimes come with the potting substrate or from the surrounding  
90 environment (Iotti et al. 2012; De Miguel et al. 2014). Among the ones associated with  
91 potting substrates, the facultatively mycorrhizal *Sphaerospora brunnea* (Alb. & Schwein.)  
92 Svrček & Kubička, a pioneer and opportunist species, is the most common fungal competitor  
93 in nurseries producing seedlings mycorrhized by *Tuber* species (Bencivenga et al., 1995; De  
94 Miguel et al., 2014; Sánchez et al., 2014). This species is frequently present in marketed  
95 *Sphagnum* peat (Danielson, 1984; Ángeles-Argáiz et al., 2016) and generally spreads in  
96 truffle nurseries during late autumn and winter, under conditions of high substrate moisture  
97 and reduced ventilation of greenhouses (Palazón et al., 2005; Garcia-Montero et al., 2008;  
98 Sánchez et al., 2014). Inoculation methods that boost early formation of truffle mycorrhizae  
99 could reduce the level of colonization by undesired ectomycorrhizal fungi and thus improve  
100 the quality of mycorrhizal seedlings. Seedlings are usually inoculated 2-3 months after the  
101 acorn germinate, when they begin to form lateral fine roots (Granetti, 2005; Garcia-Barreda et

102 al., 2017), but there is no publicly available information on whether earlier inoculation could  
103 accelerate and improve the process of mycorrhizae formation.

104 In this study, we aim to evaluate the potential of a sequential inoculation method for  
105 the controlled colonization of *Q. ilex* fine roots by *T. melanosporum*, as well as the relative  
106 effectiveness of each inoculation method. Thus, we combined a radicle inoculation method,  
107 an inoculation of the substrate in seedling trays (both performed before the seedling produced  
108 lateral fine roots) and an inoculation of the substrate in the final pots (performed when the  
109 seedling had already produced fine roots). To obtain a more detailed picture, we evaluated not  
110 only the occurrence of *T. melanosporum* mycorrhizae, but also their distribution along the  
111 depth of the root system, as well as the occurrence of contaminant ectomycorrhizal fungi. We  
112 hypothesized that the cumulative application of different inoculation methods (increasing the  
113 total quantity of inoculum applied) would improve the levels of root colonization by *T.*  
114 *melanosporum*, despite the fact that previous studies did not find a positive correlation  
115 between inoculum quantity and truffle mycorrhizal rates within the inoculum quantity range  
116 commonly used in commercial nurseries (Palazón et al., 2007; Pruett et al., 2008). We also  
117 hypothesized that the cumulative application of inoculation methods would decrease the  
118 levels of contaminant ectomycorrhizal fungi, with early inoculation methods being more  
119 effective. Finally, we hypothesized that early inoculation methods, in which inoculum is  
120 applied to a shorter root system than the final pots, would result in mycorrhization levels  
121 being more irregular along the depth of the root system in the final seedling.

122

## 123 **2. Materials and methods**

### 124 *2.1. Experimental design*

125 A full factorial design was used to evaluate the effect of three different nursery inoculation  
126 methods on the root colonization levels by *T. melanosporum*, as well as the possible

127 interactions among these inoculation methods, with nine replicates per treatment (n = 72;  
128 Table 1). The three methods used ascospores as inoculum: an inoculation of the seedling  
129 radicle (I1), an inoculation of the potting substrate in seedling trays (I2) and an inoculation of  
130 the potting substrate in the final pots (I3). Non-inoculated controls were included for each  
131 method (Table 1). The experiment was conducted in 2015 and then repeated in 2018 with the  
132 same experimental design, in order to confirm the results. There were some differences  
133 between the two experiments regarding the timing of inoculation (later in the 2018 compared  
134 to 2015, which also implies a change in temperatures during the experiment), the ascospore  
135 inoculum dose in I1 (higher in 2015) and the potting substrate used, which was soil based and  
136 solarized in 2015 and peat-based and non-disinfested in 2018 (Table 2).

137         The *T. melanosporum* ascomata used as inoculum for each experiment were harvested  
138 fresh and mature from several orchards in Huesca province (northeastern Spain) during the  
139 fruiting season immediately before setting up each experiment. The ascomata were surface  
140 cleaned with a brush under cool water, surface sterilized by immersion in ethanol (70%) and  
141 flamed, taxonomically identified by morphological features (Riousset et al., 2001), sliced thin,  
142 air dried under room conditions and homogenized with a coffee grinder to obtain a powdery  
143 inoculum. Two kilograms of fresh truffles (more than 60 ascomata) were used in each  
144 experiment to prepare the inoculum. Only a small part of this inoculum was used in the  
145 experiments, but this ensured genetic diversity in the inoculum.

146         *Quercus ilex* was selected as the host plant for the study because it is the most widely  
147 used species in Spanish truffle plantations (Reyna and Garcia-Barreda, 2014). For each  
148 experiment, we acquired *Q. ilex* acorns of the Spanish provenance region *Sistema Ibérico*  
149 from the Centro Nacional de Recursos Genéticos Forestales. They were surface sterilized with  
150 a 5% sodium hypochlorite solution for 60 minutes and germinated during winter. The acorns  
151 were placed between two layers of wet absorbent paper in laboratory trays covered with

152 plastic bags to maintain moisture, until germinating acorns were obtained after seven days at  
153 an average temperature of 22 °C. When the acorns had developed a 1-3 cm long radicle, they  
154 were removed from the tray and transplanted to the cells of plastic seedling trays (truncated  
155 pyramidal cells with square base, 250 ml, 11.5 cm deep, upper section 5 × 5 cm). Only  
156 healthy radicles without malformations were included. About two months later, when  
157 seedlings in the seedling trays had 6-8 leaves and had formed lateral fine roots, they were  
158 carefully removed from the cells without disturbing the root ball (i. e. retaining the integrity  
159 of the potting substrate) and transplanted to Full-pot<sup>®</sup> pots (Acudam, square prisms with 450  
160 ml, 18.5 cm deep, section 5 × 5 cm). The seedlings were cultivated in the CIET greenhouse in  
161 Graus (Huesca province) without artificial heating or ventilation and under natural light  
162 conditions. They were irrigated until substrate saturation by manually sprinkling water, 2-3  
163 times a week during summer and once each 7-14 days during winter. The pots were placed  
164 over greenhouse metal tables, specially designed to fit the plastic grid trays on which the pots  
165 are placed, thus leaving 70 cm airspace underneath the pots. The maximum temperatures in  
166 the CIET greenhouse were reached in July in both experiments (daily mean 29.5 °C, absolute  
167 maximum 44.4 °C in 2015, and daily mean 26.7 °C, absolute maximum 38.9 °C in 2018),  
168 while minimum temperatures were also reached in January 2015 and 2019 (daily mean 7.8  
169 °C, absolute minimum - 3.7°C; and daily mean 6.0 °C, absolute minimum - 5.9 °C,  
170 respectively).

171 The radicle inoculation and the inoculation in the seedling tray were performed during  
172 the transplant to the seedling tray, whereas the inoculation in the pot was performed during  
173 the transplant to the pot. For the radicle inoculation, the radicle of each pre-germinated acorn  
174 was uniformly impregnated with inoculum (dried, powdered ascomata) by rolling the roots  
175 onto the inoculum, whereas for the other two inoculation methods the powdered inoculum  
176 was thoroughly mixed with the potting substrate until a homogeneous mixture was obtained

177 for each pot. In the radicle inoculation, the rate of inoculum quantity per seedling was limited  
178 by the radicle size (when dipped into the inoculum, smaller roots were impregnated with less  
179 inoculum), and thus the applied rates were lower than for the substrate inoculations (Table 2).  
180 The control of the inoculum rate in the radicle inoculation, done by difference in inoculum  
181 weight, showed that the radicle inoculation in 2015 presented higher rates than in 2018, due to  
182 the higher size of the radicles (Tables 1, 2).

183

## 184 2.2. Data collection and analysis

185 The seedlings of the 2015 experiment were analyzed in March 2016, whereas those of the  
186 2018 experiment were analyzed in May 2019. The mycorrhizal status was assessed through  
187 the INIA-Aragón method, which allows to assess the variability along the depth profile  
188 (Andrés-Alpuente et al., 2014). The root system of each seedling was cut into three fragments  
189 of roughly the same length (corresponding to 0-6, 6-12 and 12-18.5 cm depth) and root  
190 fragments were collected randomly from each sector. For each sector, at least 100 root tips  
191 were counted and sorted into non-mycorrhized or mycorrhized, and the latter were classified  
192 as *T. melanosporum* or contaminant morphotypes (Rauscher et al., 1995; Agerer, 2002). A  
193 sample of each contaminant morphotype was identified by ITS sequencing, using the  
194 methodology described in Gómez-Molina et al. (2020). The quality of the obtained sequences  
195 was assessed, and low-quality edges were removed with 4Peaks v1.7.2 (2019,  
196 <https://nucleobytes.com/4peaks>). The sequences were registered in the NCBI GenBank  
197 database (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nucleotide>) (Benson et al., 2005). Fungal  
198 identification was carried out by searching highly similar sequences in the GenBank and  
199 UNITE (<https://unite.ut.ee>) databases using the megablast procedure and default settings  
200 (Kõljalg et al., 2013).

201 The effect of the three inoculation methods and their interactions on the percent root  
202 colonization by *T. melanosporum* at the seedling level was analyzed with general linear  
203 models, whereas the frequency of appearance of the contaminants (proportion of seedlings in  
204 which they are present) was analyzed with generalized (binomial) linear models. Significant  
205 differences among treatments were identified with a least squares means test, using a  $P = 0.05$   
206 threshold for statistical significance. When the model assumptions were not met, the response  
207 variable was transformed. The distribution of *T. melanosporum* colonization levels along the  
208 depth profile was analyzed with linear mixed models, considering each depth sector as a  
209 different sample and treating depth as a repeated measures variable. All analyses were  
210 conducted with R and the emmeans and nlme packages (Makowski et al., 2020; Pinheiro et  
211 al., 2022; R Core Team, 2022).

212

### 213 **3. Results**

#### 214 *3.1. Experiment 2015*

215 Seventy-two seedlings were analyzed. All the inoculated seedlings (63) showed *T.*  
216 *melanosporum* mycorrhizae in their roots, whereas none of the non-inoculated seedlings (9)  
217 did (Table S1). Twelve percent of the seedlings presented mycorrhizae of *S. brunnea*  
218 (Genbank accession number OP847397), colonizing 0.9% of the root tips (standard deviation,  
219 SD: 2.4). Five percent of the seedlings presented mycorrhizae of *Pulvinula convexella*  
220 (P.Karst.) Pfister. (= *P. constellatio* (Berk. & Broome) Boud. (Genbank accession number  
221 OP847398), colonizing 0.2% of the root tips (SD: 0.9). The percent root colonization by the  
222 inoculated *T. melanosporum* was significantly affected by the interaction between I1, I2 and  
223 I3 (t-value = -0.86,  $P < 0.001$ , Table S2). Seedlings receiving three inoculations and some  
224 treatments receiving two inoculations showed significantly higher *T. melanosporum* levels  
225 (28.7% for I1 + I2 + I3, 28.4% for I1 + I2, 29.2% for I1 + I3) than seedlings receiving only

226 the radicle inoculation (17.5%), with the remaining treatments being in an intermediate  
227 situation (Fig. 1).

228 The frequency of occurrence of *S. brunnea* was significantly affected by I1 ( $z = -2.1$ ,  
229 P-value = 0.033), I2 ( $z = -2.6$ , P-value = 0.010) and I3 ( $z = -2.1$ , P-value = 0.033, Table S3).  
230 In all cases, the frequency of occurrence was higher in seedlings that had not received the  
231 inoculation than in those that had received it (Table 3). No significant effect of I1, I2 or I3 on  
232 the frequency of occurrence of *P. convexella* was found (Table S4).

233 When the distribution of *T. melanosporum* colonization levels along the depth profile  
234 was taken into account, the interaction between I3 and depth significantly affected percent  
235 root colonization by *T. melanosporum* ( $F = 3.8$ ,  $P = 0.026$ , Table S5, Fig. S1). The seedlings  
236 that received I3 showed significantly higher *T. melanosporum* levels in the upper and the  
237 lower part of the root system (14.5% and 9.0% higher than seedlings not receiving I3,  
238 respectively), whereas no significant differences were found in the central part (Fig. 2).

239

### 240 3.2. Experiment 2018

241 Seventy-two seedlings were analyzed. All but one of the inoculated seedlings showed *T.*  
242 *melanosporum* mycorrhizae in their roots (62 out of 63), whereas none of the non-inoculated  
243 seedlings (9) did (Table S6). Seventeen percent of the seedlings presented mycorrhizae of *S.*  
244 *brunnea*, colonizing 1.2% of the root tips (SD: 4.2). The percent root colonization by the  
245 inoculated *T. melanosporum* was significantly affected by the three-way interaction between  
246 I1, I2 and I3 ( $F = 4.0$ ,  $P = 0.049$ , Table S7, Fig. S2). The seedlings that received the three  
247 inoculations showed significantly higher *T. melanosporum* mycorrhization levels (45.7%)  
248 than those receiving only one inoculation (17.3% for I1, 23.8% for I2 and 17.6% for I3), with  
249 seedlings receiving two inoculations being in an intermediate situation (Fig. 3). The frequency

250 of occurrence of *S. brunnea* was significantly affected by I2 ( $z = -2.3$ , P-value = 0.021, Table  
251 S8), being higher in seedlings that had not received I2 (Table 4).

252 When the distribution of *T. melanosporum* colonization levels along the depth profile  
253 was taken into account, percent root colonization by *T. melanosporum* was significantly  
254 affected by the interaction between I1, I2 and depth ( $F = 8.8$ ,  $P < 0.001$ , Table S9, Fig. S3).  
255 The seedlings that received I2 showed significantly higher *T. melanosporum* levels in the  
256 upper and central part of the root system than the corresponding treatments without I2 (i.e.  
257 35% and 23% higher in without I1-with I2 than in without I1-without I2; and 24% and 13%  
258 higher in with I1-with I2 than in with I1-without I2; Fig. 4a). For the lower part of the root  
259 system, only the seedlings receiving both I1 and I2 showed significantly higher *T.*  
260 *melanosporum* levels (16% higher; Fig. 4a). Percent root colonization by *T. melanosporum*  
261 was also significantly affected by the interaction between I3 and depth ( $F = 4.2$ ,  $P = 0.018$ ,  
262 Table S9), with I3 increasing percent root colonization throughout all the depth profile, but  
263 more markedly in the lower part of the root system (18% higher) than in the rest (10% higher;  
264 Fig. 4b).

265

#### 266 4. Discussion

267 Our results show that an increase in the inoculum quantity applied can improve the level of *T.*  
268 *melanosporum* colonization. For the 2018 experiment, this increase happened even in the  
269 range from 0.8 (with I2 alone or with I3 alone) to 1.70 g fresh truffle per seedling (I1 + I2 +  
270 I3), which is commonly used in commercial seedling production (Granetti, 2005; Hall et al.,  
271 2007; Palazón and Barriuso, 2007), as we had hypothesized. However, this increase was  
272 barely apparent in the 2015 experiment, agreeing with Palazón et al. (2007) who did not find  
273 increases in colonization levels between 1-5 g fresh truffle per seedling with an inoculation  
274 method based on a single moment of application, and with Pruet et al. (2008) who could not

275 increase mycorrhization levels when they applied a supplemental inoculation. The increase in  
276 mycorrhizal rates associated to the sequential inoculation may also be related to the fact that  
277 different inoculum delivery systems and application moments were combined. However, in  
278 spite of the differences between the results of the two experiments, they both clearly showed  
279 that the combination of several inoculation methods, and the consequent increase in the  
280 amount of inoculum applied, did not have an additive effect on mycorrhizal colonization.  
281 On the other hand, none of the three inoculation methods applied separately appeared clearly  
282 superior to the other. This is particularly meaningful in the case of the radicle inoculation,  
283 which spent three to seven times less inoculum. However, the relative effectiveness of these  
284 methods may depend on the cultivation conditions of the seedlings and/or the timing of the  
285 nursery operations, as suggested by the differences between the 2015 and the 2018  
286 experiments. Interestingly, the inoculation rates obtained with early inoculation methods (I1,  
287 I2, I1 + I2) were similar in both experiments, whereas this did not happen in treatments  
288 including an inoculation in the final pot (Figs. 1, 3; Tables S1, S6). Among the latter,  
289 treatments with lower inoculum quantity (I3, I1 + I3) seemed to perform better in the 2015  
290 experiment, whereas those with higher inoculum quantity (I2 + I3, I1 + I2 + I3) seemed to  
291 perform better in the 2018 experiment. These could be related to the experiment timing, since  
292 the 2018 seedlings had the spring of their second year to develop new fine roots. The stronger  
293 effect of I3 along the depth profile of 2018 seedlings seems to support this hypothesis. Percent  
294 root colonization is the variable generally used to evaluate truffle-inoculated seedlings, but its  
295 dynamics relies on the relative rhythm and timing of fine root formation and fine root  
296 colonization by truffle (Andrés-Alpuente et al., 2014).

297         The inoculation methods influenced the depth distribution of *T. melanosporum*  
298 mycorrhization levels. In almost all cases the percent root colonization decreased with  
299 substrate depth, with the only exception of samples in which there was no I1 or I2 (i.e.,

300 treatment without I1-without I2 in 2018; Fig. 4a). The I3 inoculation was the only one that  
301 showed a significant effect on depth distribution in both experiments. Interestingly, this  
302 method not only increased the mycorrhization levels in the lower part of the root system,  
303 where the other methods did not apply inoculum, but also in the central part (2015) or in all  
304 depth (2018), even though in I3 most inoculated substrate is added in the lower depth.

305 The other inoculation methods showed less consistent results: the I1 inoculation did  
306 not affect the depth distribution in 2015, but showed a positive effect on the upper part of the  
307 pot in 2018 (with I1-without I2 vs. without I1-without I2; Fig. 4a); whereas the I2 inoculation  
308 did not affect the depth distribution in 2015, but showed a positive effect on the upper and  
309 central parts of the pot in 2018 (without I1-with I2 vs. without I1-without I2; Fig. 4a),  
310 coinciding with the depth of the seedling trays. This differs from the findings of Garcia-  
311 Barreda et al. (2017), where no significant depth patterns in *T. melanosporum* colonization  
312 were found between the two inoculation methods that were tested, both of them applied in the  
313 final pot. All this indicates that, separately, I1 and I2 are not effective in achieving high levels  
314 of inoculation in the lower part of the root system, which could lead to mycorrhization levels  
315 being more irregular along the depth of the final seedling, at least during the first year in the  
316 nursery. This is in agreement with our initial hypothesis.

317 The tested inoculation methods not only improved *T. melanosporum* colonization  
318 levels but also decreased *S. brunnea* spread on the seedling roots, suggesting that *S. brunnea*  
319 colonization was related to low inoculation levels by the target fungus. This agrees with the  
320 pioneer behavior of this fungus, which usually colonizes the roots during late autumn or  
321 winter, thus reducing the availability of root tips for the target fungus during the second year  
322 in the nursery (Sánchez et al., 2014; Garcia-Barreda et al., 2017). Besides, *S. brunnea* is able  
323 of rapidly fruiting as soon as it establishes its first mycorrhizae, thus boosting the rapid spread  
324 of the fungus in greenhouses in which batches of different ages are kept together (Meotto and

325 Carraturo, 1988; Garcia-Montero et al., 2008). In 2015, the three inoculation methods reduced  
326 the occurrence of *S. brunnea*, whereas in 2018 only I2 did. The results in the 2018 experiment  
327 suggest that an early inoculation of the substrate was more effective in controlling the non-  
328 desired colonization by *S. brunnea*, as we had hypothesized. However, in 2015 –with the  
329 inoculation treatments applied 2-3 months earlier than in 2018– the three inoculation  
330 treatments were effective. The effectiveness of early substrate inoculation could be related to  
331 *T. melanosporum* mycorrhization being spread throughout the roots before the autumn  
332 temperature drop and the ensuing period of high and continued moisture.

333         Regarding to the other contaminating fungus found in the 2015 experiment, our study  
334 is the second report of *P. convexella* in Spanish nurseries (Sánchez et al., 2020). Both times  
335 the same commercial substrate was used (which is no longer marketed in Spain), thus  
336 pointing to an introduction with the potting substrate. Although this species is relatively  
337 frequent in Italy (Marozzi et al., 2018), it does not seem to be common in Spain, with the  
338 Global Biodiversity Information Facility database only presenting 14 records in 8 locations  
339 ([www.gbif.org](http://www.gbif.org)). Nurseries should be cautious about substrate disinfection and pay attention to  
340 the appearance of *P. convexella* mycorrhizae and ascocarps, not only due to the damage  
341 caused to the commercial quality of seedlings mycorrhized with *Tuber* species, but also due to  
342 the risk of this species reaching wild areas and colonizing new ecological niches.

343         In the context of commercial production of truffle-inoculated seedlings, the sequential  
344 application of three inoculation methods appears as an effective and realistic alternative for  
345 the inoculation of *Q. ilex* seedlings with *T. melanosporum* (Palazón and Barriuso 2007;  
346 Donnini et al. 2014). This strategy is based on (i) putting ascospores in contact with roots  
347 before the formation of fine roots (Chevalier, 2001; Granetti, 2005; Palazón and Barriuso,  
348 2007; Garcia-Barreda et al., 2017), and (ii) reducing the deficiencies of a single method and  
349 the impact of contingencies in the nursery management by distributing the risk among three

350 inoculations. The early inoculations (I1 and I2) showed positive implications in the  
351 management of the opportunist *S. brunnea*, which frequently appears as a serious problem in  
352 some nurseries (Sánchez et al., 2014). The third inoculation (I3) showed positive implications  
353 in the mycorrhization of roots in the lower depth, which in our experience is frequently the  
354 cause of depth irregularity in the mycorrhization levels of inoculated seedlings during their  
355 first year in the nursery. Finally, the fact that the transplant from the seedling tray to the final  
356 pot is done without disturbing the root ball could also play a role on reducing seedling  
357 mortality, which usually reaches 2-10% when nude root transplanting is performed (Palazón  
358 and Barriuso, 2007).

359         However, from an economic point of view, sequential inoculation may increase the  
360 operation costs of the nursery. It would be interesting to test whether the mycorrhization  
361 levels of these seedlings are equivalent to those of *Q. ilex* seedlings inoculated with a single  
362 method but the same total amount of inoculum, and whether the sequential inoculation affects  
363 the growth and morphology of the plant material. For that matter, it should be considered that  
364 in Spain commercial seedlings can be marketed after their first year in the nursery (from about  
365 seven months after inoculation) or during their second year (12-19 months after inoculation).  
366 For seedlings in their first year, early inoculations could provide some competitive advantage  
367 against contaminants colonization. It would also be interesting to investigate how truffle  
368 inoculum reaches the fine roots in the radicle inoculation, in order to optimize this method  
369 that requires lower amounts of inoculum. Finally, it would also be important to test whether  
370 the sequential inoculation could have implications for the relationship between mating types  
371 in nursery seedlings. Spore inoculation ensures the presence of the two mating types in the  
372 seedlings, but so far, only seedlings with just a single inoculation method applied in the final  
373 container have been analyzed, and they show a tendency for one mating type to dominate over  
374 the other from the first to the second year in the nursery (Rubini et al., 2011; Gómez-Molina

375 et al., 2023). This could influence the relative occurrence of mating types in the roots of the  
376 truffle orchard.

377

378 **Declarations of interest:** none

379

### 380 **Funding**

381 This work was supported by the collaboration agreement for the operation of CIET (funded  
382 by Diputacion Provincial de Huesca, with the participation of CITA, Comarca de la  
383 Ribagorza and Ayuntamiento de Graus), and European Union under “Horizon 2020 - the  
384 Framework Programme for Research and Innovation (2014-2020)” [Grant Agreement of the  
385 Project Innovation in Truffle cultivation, preservation, processing and wild truffle resources  
386 management, INTACT, Project number 101007623].

387

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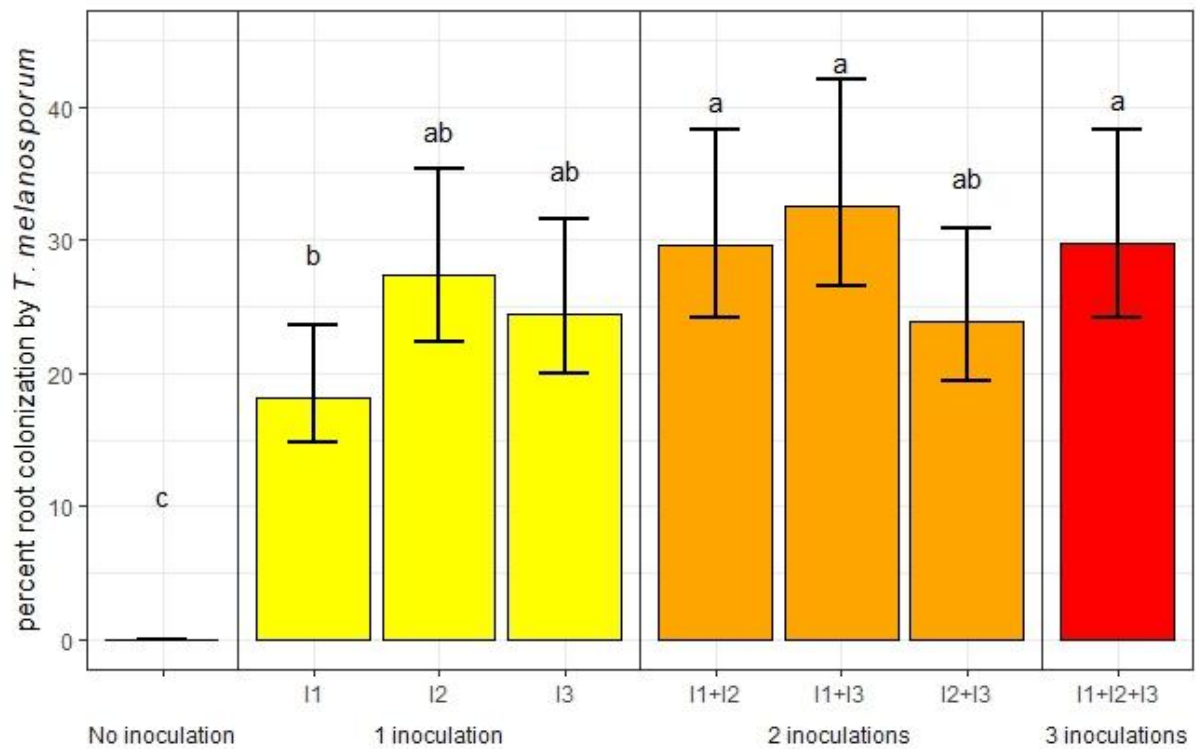
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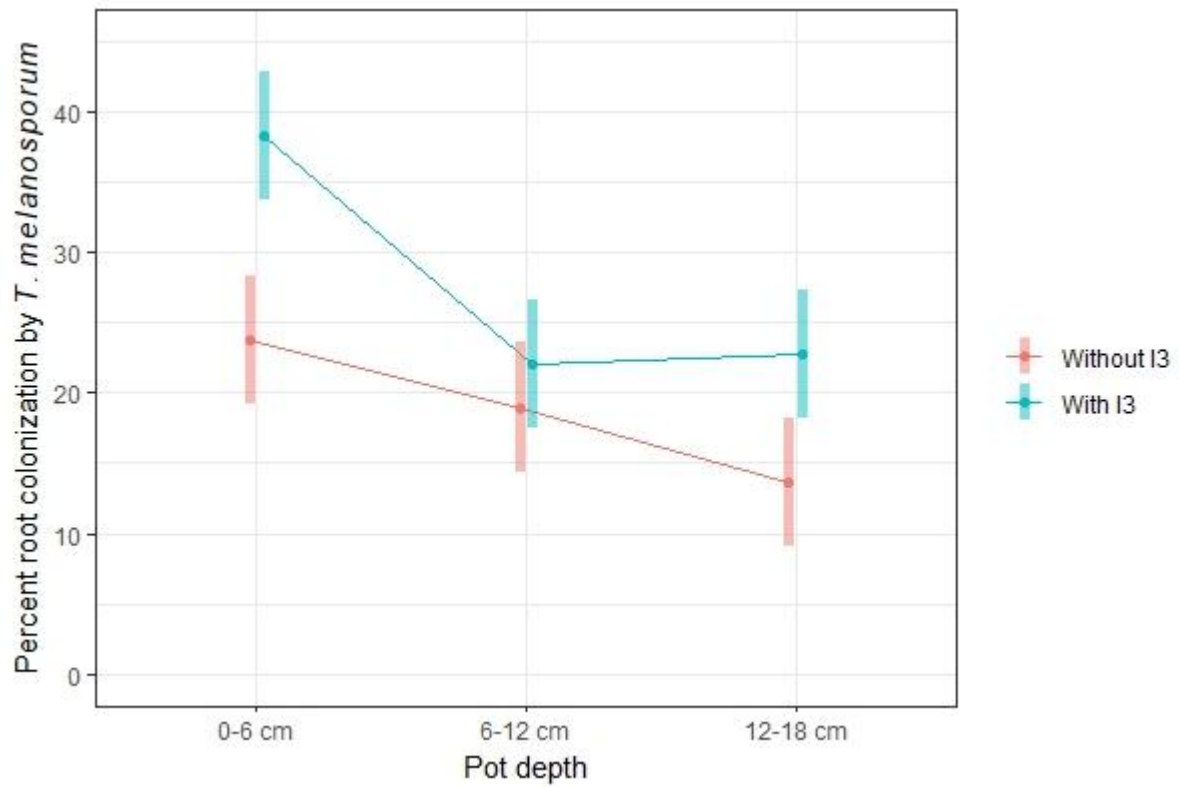
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546

547 **Figure 1.** Effect of the sequential inoculation on the percent root colonization by *T.*  
 548 *melanosporum* in the 2015 experiment (mean predicted values and 95% confidence intervals,  
 549  $n = 72$ ). Different letters indicate significant differences according to least square means tests  
 550 ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ). I1: radicle inoculation, I2: inoculation in seedling tray, I3: inoculation in pot.

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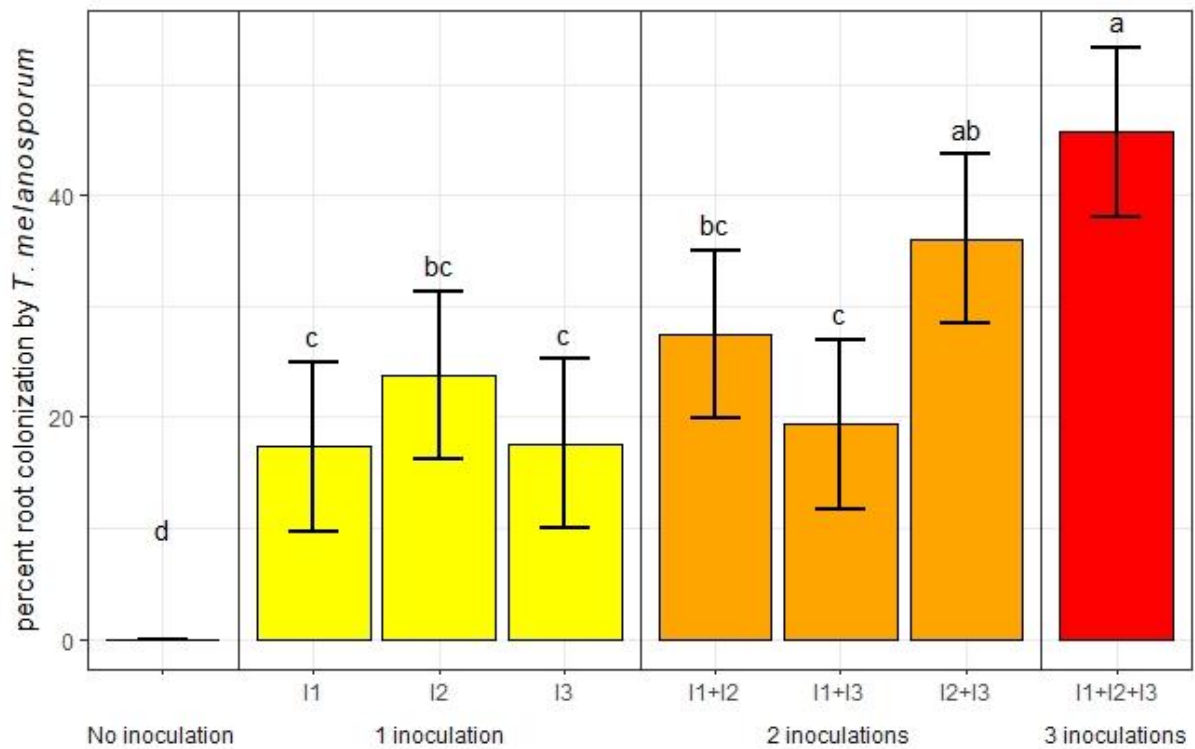
553 **Figure 2.** Effect of the inoculation in the pot (I3) on the percent root colonization by *T.*

554 *melanosporum* at different pot depths, in the 2015 experiment (mean predicted values and

555 95% confidence intervals, n = 216). Overlapping of the confidence intervals indicates lack of

556 significant differences according to the least-squares means procedure ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ).

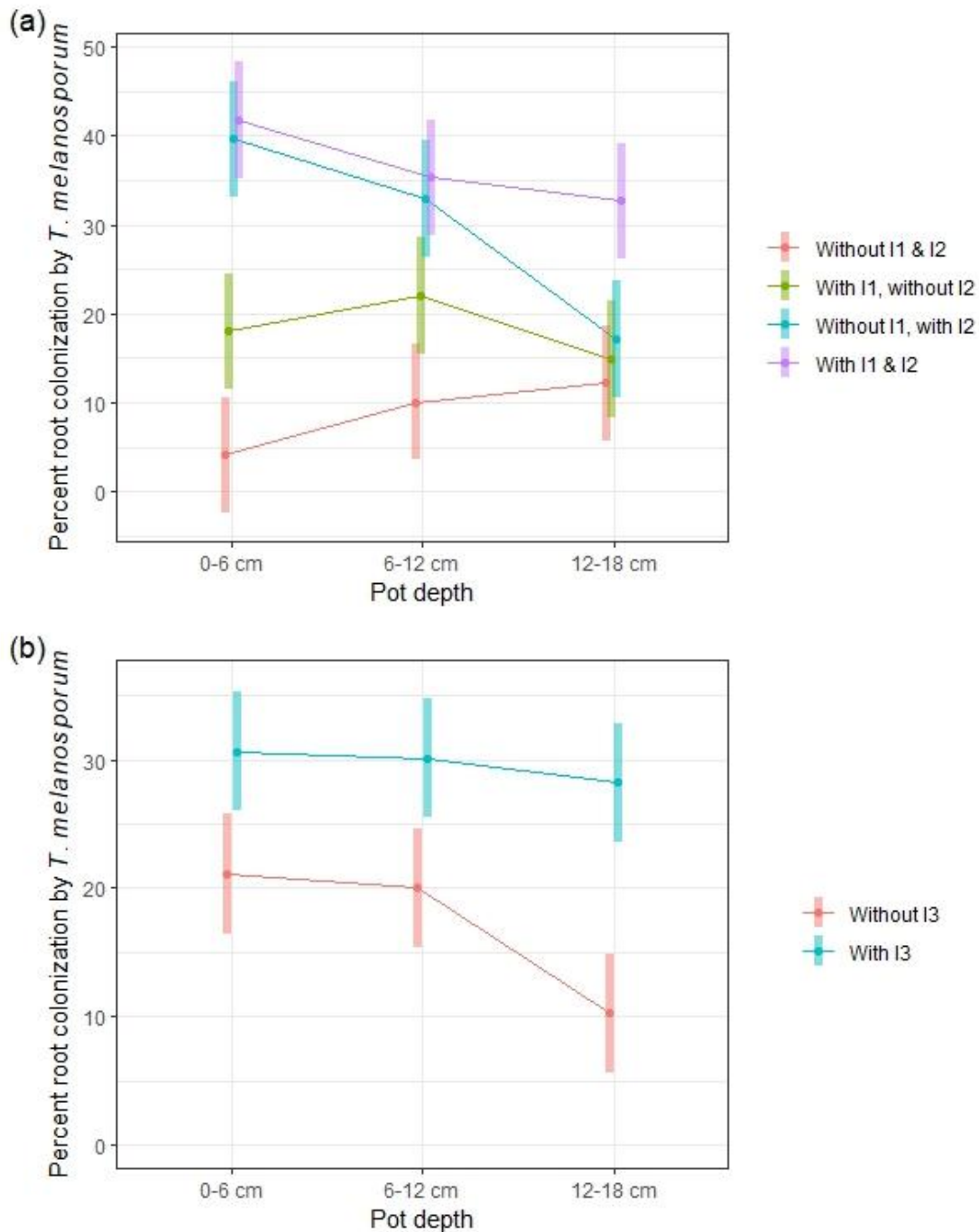
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558

559 **Figure 3.** Effect of the sequential inoculation on the percent root colonization by *T.*  
 560 *melanosporum* in the 2018 experiment (mean predicted values and 95% confidence intervals,  
 561  $n = 72$ ). Different letters indicate significant differences according to least square means tests  
 562 ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ). I1: radicle inoculation, I2: inoculation in seedling tray, I3: inoculation in pot.

563



564

565 **Figure 4.** Percent root colonization by *T. melanosporum* along the depth profile in the 2018

566 experiment (mean predicted values and 95% confidence intervals, n = 216). (a) Effect of the

567 interaction between radicle inoculation (I1), inoculation in the seedling tray (I2), and depth.

568 (b) Effect of the interaction between inoculation in the pot (I3) and depth. Overlapping of the

569 confidence intervals indicates lack of significant differences according to least square means

570 procedure ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ).

571

572

573 **Table 1.** Total inoculum rate (g fresh truffle) received per seedling according to the  
574 inoculation treatments applied (n = 9 for each combination of inoculation treatments). I1:  
575 radicle inoculation. I2: inoculation of the seedling tray substrate. I3: inoculation of the pot  
576 substrate (0: inoculation method not applied, 1: applied inoculation method).

Inoculation			Total inoculum rate per seedling	
I1	I2	I3	2015 experiment	2018 experiment
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0.80	0.80
0	1	0	0.80	0.80
0	1	1	1.60	1.60
1	0	0	0.26	0.10
1	0	1	1.06	0.90
1	1	0	1.06	0.90
1	1	1	1.86	1.70

577

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579

580 **Table 2.** Dates of inoculation, inoculum rates applied (g fresh truffle per seedling) and potting  
 581 substrates used in the 2015 and 2018 experiments.

Assay	Radicle inoculation (I1)	Inoculation in seedling tray (I2)	Inoculation in pot (I3)	
2015	Date	December 2014	December 2014	April 2015
	Inoculum rate	0.26	0.80	0.80
	Potting substrate		Calcareous loam soil, Prohumin ® substrate <sup>1</sup> , limestone coarse sand, perlite, 4:4:2.5:1 (v/v). pH adjusted to 7.5 with calcium carbonate powder.	Calcareous loam soil, Prohumin ® substrate <sup>1</sup> , limestone coarse sand, perlite, 4:4:2.5:1 (v/v). pH adjusted to 7.5 with calcium carbonate powder.
2018	Date	March 2018	March 2018	June 2018
	Inoculum rate	0.10	0.80	0.80
	Potting substrate		Profi-Substrat ® substrate <sup>2</sup> , perlite, 9:1 (v/v). pH adjusted to 7.5 by manufacturer.	Profi-Substrat ® substrate <sup>2</sup> , perlite, 9:1 (v/v). pH adjusted to 7.5 by manufacturer.

582 <sup>1</sup> Composed of *Sphagnum* white peat and *Sphagnum* black peat 1:1 v/v (Projar).

583 <sup>2</sup> Composed of *Sphagnum* white peat and *Sphagnum* black peat 3:2 v/v (Gramoflor).

584

585

586

587 **Table 3.** Frequency of occurrence of *S. brunnea* in the seedlings of the 2015 experiment  
588 (mean predicted values and standard error, n = 72) according to the binomial model. In each  
589 row, different letters indicate significant differences according to the model ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ).

	Not receiving the inoculation	Receiving the inoculation
Radicle inoculation (I1)	0.251 (0.083) a	0.067 (0.041) b
Inoculation in seedling tray (I2)	0.295 (0.085) a	0.055 (0.036) b
Inoculation in pot (I3)	0.251 (0.083) a	0.067 (0.041) b

590

591 **Table 4.** Frequency of occurrence of *S. brunnea* in the seedlings of the 2018 experiment  
592 (mean predicted values and standard error, n = 72) according to the binomial model. In each  
593 row, different letters indicate significant differences according to the model ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ).

	Not receiving the inoculation	Receiving the inoculation
Radicle inoculation (I1)	0.106 (0.053)	0.156 (0.066)
Inoculation in seedling tray (I2)	0.276 (0.075) a	0.054 (0.038) b
Inoculation in pot (I3)	0.129 (0.060)	0.129 (0.060)

594