

Tuber aestivum as an alternative to *Tuber melanosporum* for *Quercus ilex* truffle plantations under climate change scenarios: tolerance to high summer temperatures and drought

Máster en Restauración de Ecosistemas



Author: Ana Belén Garrido Domínguez Academic Advisor: Mercedes Uscola Fernández

February 2022

Contents

Abstract	2
Resumen	3
Introduction	4
Material and methods	7
Plant and Tuber material	7
Experimental design: temperature and drought treatments	8
Physiological characterization of the seedlings	11
Statistical analysis	13
Results	14
Evolution of the damage on seedlings along the experiment: visual damage index	14
Plant water stress of the seedlings	15
Photosynthetic performance of seedlings	17
Discussion	20
Climate change effects on mycorrhized Q. ilex seedlings	20
Tuber aestivum as an alternative to T. melanosporum under climate change scenarios	21
Next steps and future research	23
Conclusions	24
Acknowledgments	24
References	25
Supplementary material	30

Abstract

Agricultural abandonment is nowadays one of the largest land use changes in Europe, especially in Mediterranean areas. However, this abandonment can be an opportunity for ecological restoration. Truffle plantations, made up of a forest tree species mycorrhized with a fungi of the genus *Tuber*, are a restoration strategy with a great potential to obtain ecological services together with economic benefit. Tuber melanosporum, one of the most valuable truffles in Europe, is susceptible to extreme climate conditions and has decline its production due to climate change. Tuber aestivum can develop under harsh climate conditions. The objective was to compare the performance of *Quercus ilex* seedlings mycorrhized with T. melanosporum to those with T. aestivum, under present and future summer thermic environments and three drought intensities. Seedlings were evaluated periodically for visual damage index (VDI) through the summer. In the middle of summer, maximum stress moment, physiological performance of the seedlings was measured (water stress and photosynthetic performance). Increment of summer temperatures was the most negative factor on seedling performance, independently of the mycorrhizal species or the drought intensity. High temperatures strongly incremented VDI over the time and decreased leaf water potential, but did not damage the photosynthetic machinery (Fv/Fm) and capacity (ϕ_{PSII} and A_{net}) nor produced mortality. Drought had minor effects under present temperature environment but increased synergistically the negative effects of the future increased temperatures. Seedlings mycorrhized with T. aestivum had a better performance that those with T. melanosporum. In general, T. aestivum seedlings had lower VDI and higher leaf water potential, than those with T. melanosporum. Consequently, results demonstrate that T. aestivum is a potential alternative for truffle plantations to T. melanosporum for the drier and hotter regions or for areas where harsh conditions are predicted in the future due to climate change.

Keywords: ecosystem restoration, hotter drought, fluorescence of Photosystem II, leaf water potential, photosynthesis, VDI.

Resumen

El abandono agrícola es actualmente uno de los mayores cambios de uso del suelo en Europa, especialmente en zonas mediterráneas. Este abandono también puede suponer una oportunidad para la restauración ecológica. Las plantaciones truferas, plantaciones de una especie arbórea forestal micorrizada con hongos del género Tuber, son una estrategia de restauración con un gran potencial para obtener servicios ecosistémicos y beneficio económico. Tuber melanosporum, una de las trufas más preciadas de Europa, es susceptible a condiciones climáticas extremas y ha disminuido su producción debido al cambio climático. Tuber aestivum puede desarrollarse en condiciones climáticas adversas. El objetivo fue comparar el desempeño de plantas de Quercus ilex micorrizadas con T. melanosporum frente a micorrizadas con T. aestivum, en ambientes térmicos estivales presentes y futuros y tres niveles de sequía. Se evaluó periódicamente el daño visual (VDI) de las plantas durante el verano. A mitad de verano, momento de máximo estrés, se midió su desempeño fisiológico (estrés hídrico y capacidad fotosintética). El incremento de las temperaturas estivales fue el factor más negativo sobre el desempeño de las plantas, independientemente de la especie de micorriza o de la intensidad de la sequía. Las altas temperaturas incrementaron el VDI a lo largo del tiempo y disminuyeron el potencial hídrico, pero no dañaron la capacidad fotosintética (Fv/Fm, ϕ_{PSII} and A_{net}) ni produjeron mortalidad. La sequía tuvo efectos menores bajo temperatura presente, pero aumentó sinérgicamente los efectos negativos del aumento de temperaturas. Las plantas micorrizadas con T. aestivum presentaron mayor desempeño. En general, las plántulas de T. aestivum tuvieron menor VDI y mayor potencial hídrico foliar que aquellas con T. melanosporum. Los resultados demuestran que T. aestivum es una alternativa potencial para las plantaciones truferas para las regiones más secas y cálidas o para áreas donde se prevén condiciones futuras estresantes por el cambio climático.

Palabras clave: restauración de ecosistemas, sequía más cálida, fluorescencia del Fotosistema II, potencial hídrico de la hoja, fotosíntesis, IDV.

Introduction

Agriculture has currently become the most extensive terrestrial biome, representing approximately 40% of the earth's surface (Rey Benayas et al., 2007; Levers et al., 2018) and it will have an even greater increase in the next decades (Laurance et al., 2014; Ceddia, 2019; Williams et al., 2021). Despite this increase, large part of agricultural land will be abandoned in the coming years, particularly in developed countries (Levers et al., 2018; Isbell et al., 2019; Williams et al., 2021). Agricultural abandonment is currently one of the largest use of land changes within Europe (van der Zanden et al., 2017; Perpiña Castillo et al., 2020; Zavalloni et al., 2021), where abandonment of around 3-4% of agricultural areas is expected by 2030 (Keenleyside and Tucker, 2010; Zavalloni et al., 2021). The extension of these abandoned areas is not homogeneous, being greater in Mediterranean areas (between 10 and 14%) compared to the rest of Europe (around 1%). In addition, this process can have negative consequences, such as soil erosion, reduction of local biodiversity, and loss of soil quality (Rodrigo-Comino et al., 2018). However, this agricultural abandonment can be an opportunity for ecological restoration (Navarro and Pereira, 2015; Löf et al., 2019).

Ecological restoration of abandoned agricultural fields can be carried out through various strategies: passive restoration or ecological succession, and active restoration (Rey Benayas, 2005). The first strategy is the most widespread. It consists of spontaneous, or no assisted regeneration of the vegetation, in an area previously degraded, once the disturbance has ceased (Chazdon, 2008; Lozano-Baez et al., 2019; Lisboa et al., 2021). Its biggest advantage is its low economic cost and little or no intervention is needed. However, the evolution is non-controlled and it can sometimes give rise to a new ecosystem that is very different from the initial ecosystem (Chazdon et al., 2020). Nevertheless, passive restoration requires a huge time scale to obtain results, and it does not give satisfactory results on areas with vast degradation problems. The second strategy requires direct human intervention, where vegetal species are planted following a strategic intervention to obtain a new ecosystem (Jones et al., 2018; Lozano-Baez et al., 2019; Chazdon et al., 2021; Lisboa et al., 2021). It is used in areas exposed to continuous degradation, without the possibility of recovering by passive regeneration. In this way, the main bottlenecks are overcome. However, it has added economic costs and requires a large work and time investment (Löf et al., 2019). Due to the fact that a large part of the abandoned agricultural fields present a marked degradation, a classic ecological restoration would be inefficient, caused by the impossibility of recovering the forest and original composition, and the restoration by active restoration would imply an exacerbated economic cost (Navarro and Pereira, 2015).

Truffle plantations are made up of an autochthonous forest tree species, mycorrhized with the fungus of interest of the genus *Tuber*. Truffles are hypogeous fruiting bodies of fungi belonging to the genus *Tuber*, that being edible have economic value (Thomas and Büntgen, 2019). For this reason, plantations of mycorrhized plants with truffles had been extended in the last decades, in particular in those locations where farmers can obtain economic benefits (Perez et al., 2020). Forest trees mycorrhized with *Tuber* also present an ecological added value, being able to grow in relatively harsh conditions, highly degraded areas, even those areas that have suffered fires (Martínez de Aragón et al., 2012), such as in Mediterranean areas (Bonet et al., 2006). Moreover, these plantations can change the whole agricultural field, providing not only a new economic service, but also enhancing biodiversity and avoiding soil loss and/or erosion, and requiring low or no maintenance (Domínguez-Núñez et al., 2005; Bonet et al., 2006). In this context, truffle plantations would represent an ideal strategy: ecosystem services are recovered and local biodiversity is improved together with an economic benefit (Chazdon, 2008).

Tuber spp. can have different host plants, so it is necessary to take into account the conditions that not only truffles need, but also the hosts. Despite *Tuber* spp. has several host plants, the genus *Quercus* stands out (Zambonelli et al., 2016). Furthermore, *Tuber spp.* are mainly produced in orchards where *Quercus ilex* is planted. On the other hand, *Q. ilex* is an endemic Mediterranean species, a key element on many ecosystems, so its study can give a wide amount of information. Within the genus *Tuber*, *T. melanosporum* stands out owing to its high economic value. Its distribution is limited, being found in Mediterranean areas, highlighting northeastern Spain, north and central Italy, and southern France (Ceruti et al., 2003; Thomas and Büntgen, 2019) where, despite being distributed in different environments, it is demanding regarding climatic and edaphic conditions, requiring calcareous soils with basic pH (Bonet et al., 2006; Mello et al., 2017). Despite being adapted to Mediterranean climate, *T. melanosporum* is susceptible to extreme drought conditions, being able even to stop the fruiting process if conditions are truly extreme (Zambonelli et al., 2014; Tacon, 2016). However, plantations of *T. melanosporum* are currently facing the problem of climate change: an increase in

temperatures in conjunction with xericity are reducing the productivity and/or viability of truffle plantations (Thomas and Büntgen, 2019). In fact, productions of *T. melanosporum* have already been negatively impacted since the middle of the 20th century, with a decrease in production due to the increasingly drier and warmer climate (Büntgen et al., 2015; Thomas and Büntgen, 2019). In addition, due to climate change, new threats appear to these plantations, such as the risk of fires, heat waves or pests, so alternatives must be sought in these future scenarios (Thomas and Büntgen, 2019; Perez et al., 2020). In this context, solutions must be proposed based on an adequate choice of both, forest species and mycorrhizal fungus, thus creating a new system that is resilient to both climate change and anthropogenic activities (Chazdon, 2008).

There are other *Tuber* species such as *T. aestivum* which, unlike *T. melanosporum*, is a highly distributed species in Europe, with a great ecological breadth and with a more extensive harvest period owing to its morphological diversity (Zambonelli et al., 2016; Mello et al., 2017). *Tuber aestivum* is able to complete the fruiting process even in harsh conditions, like drought, high temperatures, winter frost or rainy climate (Zambonelli et al., 2016; Ori et al., 2020). Thus, it is a widely distributed species due to its climatic, edaphic and ecological breadth. Besides having a lower economic value compared to *T. melanosporum*, it still has a remarkable monetary value and higher production. Consequently, it becomes an ideal species for truffle plantantions and to replace *T. melanosporum*, particularly in the areas where it cannot be cultivated or does not grow naturally. Currently there are hardly any studies on *T. aestivum*, despite its importance and interest. For this reason, the comparative study of these two *Tuber* species in different climatic conditions is essential to know the different geographical territories where they can be cultivated, allowing to establish different use recommendations.

Productivity of truffles is also conditioned by climate change, which can modify the distribution and fruiting zones of truffles. Although this effect is also conditioned by the plant-fungus pair, depending on the ecology of plant-fungi species. The effects of climate change, such as drought or temperature increase, produce negative effects on the growth of truffles, reducing their production (Zambonelli et al., 2016; Perez et al., 2020). The increasing effects of these abiotic factors are well studied separately, especially drought studies, but there is no much known about the combination of them acting at the same time (Gargallo-Garriga et al., 2015). Mediterranean ecosystems are characterized by a summer xericity, along with high temperatures that coincide in this period. Summer stress had been pointed out as the main reason that limits the success of revegetation, and plant survival (Ramón Vallejo et al., 2012). Furthermore, temperatures and drought are expected to increase both in frequency and intensity over the years at a global level. The increase of temperatures enhances evapotranspiration, leading to water stress, resulting in an effect of amplified xericity, that act synergistically with the precipitation reduction due to climate change known as hotter drought (Elliott et al., 2020). This effect alters forest systems at the level of structure and composition, affecting at the same time the viability and future production on truffle orchards (Sperlich et al., 2019; Misson et al., 2011; Tognetti et al., 2019; Ogaya et al., 2020). Thus, is mandatory to evaluate the effect of both factors of climate change, increased temperatures and drought, on truffle plantations to maintain their viability in the future.

The objective of this work is to evaluate the effects of climate change, particularly the increase in temperatures and drought during summer, in two plant-fungus pairs: Q. *ilex* – *T. melanosporum* and Q. *ilex* – *T. aestivum*, which have different climatic and edaphic requirements. The following hypotheses will be evaluated: (1) either drought or increased temperatures will have a negative effect in the performance of the plants irrespective of the fungi partner; (2) the combined effect of increased temperatures and drought (hotter drought) will have an increased negative effect; and (3) Q. *ilex* mycorrhized with *T. aestivum* will have a higher performance than Q. *ilex* mycorrhized with *T. melanosporum* under climate change conditions.

Material and methods

A full-factorial experiment was carried out with mycorrhizal partners (*Tuber melanosporum* and *T. aestivum*), summer temperatures (actual temperatures -present-, and ~ 2.5° C above actual temperatures -future-), and drought intensity (control, moderate and severe).

Plant and Tuber material

A total of 279 two-years-old *Q. ilex* seedlings were used. Seedlings were produced under nursery seedling production standard protocols at the Real Jardín Botánico Juan Carlos I ($40^{\circ}30^{\circ}22^{\circ}$ N; $3^{\circ}20^{\circ}31^{\circ}$ O, 600 masl). Seedlings from inland provenance ES10 were grown in 350 cm³ forest containers filled with 5:1 (v:v) peat and calcium carbonate stones. Calcium carbonate was added to correct the acid pH of the peat to basic values as

recommended for *Tuber* species (García-Montero et al., 2006; Hilszczańska et al., 2019). During the first year, the seedlings were fertilized at 220 mg N seedling⁻¹ (1:0.5:1 NPK), while in the second year they were not fertilized. Inoculation was carried out in the spring of the first year with inland sporocarps of each *Tuber* species. Additionally, on 9 and 17 November 2020, calcium powder (Dolokal, Sibelco, Spain) was added with 25 ml of 1:100 (g CaCO₃: ml water) solution to adequate the pH.

On 9 December 2020, seedlings were transplanted to 3500 cm³ forest containers filled with a 5:1 (v:v) mixture of unfertilized-peat, and calcium carbonate stones (97.5% CaCO₃, granulometry of 3 mm). On 22 December, 2020 each seedling received 250 ml of the calcium carbonate solution described above. At transplant, mycorrhization levels were 2.25 and 1.9 for *T. melanosporum* and *T. aestivum*, respectively, according to the scale of Chevalier and Grente (Andrés-Alpuente et al., 2014).

On 13 March 2021, despite the seedlings were already mycorrhized, a second inoculation with the respective *Tuber* species was carried out with 1:60 and 1.5:60 (FW:v, truffle:deionized water) suspensions for *T. melanosporum* and *T. aestivum*, respectively. This inoculation was carried out to avoid any lack or limitation of propagules (either spores or hyphae from the pre-existent mycorrhizae) for mycorrhizal colonization of the new roots and, consequently, any detected effect on mycorrhization would be exclusively due to the experimental conditions.

On 8 and 17 June 2021, seedlings were fertilized. On each fertilization event, each seedlings received 200 ml of 1 mM N solution containing nitrate, ammonium and glycine in equimolar proportion (i.e. 0.33 mM KNO₃, 0.165 mM (NH4)₂SO₄ and 0.33 mM glycine) and 1:0.5:1 (N:P:K) ratio. Nitrogen concentration applied is similar to those found in natural Mediterranean forest soils, usually below 2 mM N (Serrasolses et al., 1999).

Experimental design: temperature and drought treatments

On 28 May 2021, initial height and diameter of each plant was measured. On 1 June 2021, half of the seedlings, twenty-one seedlings per plant-fungus pairs (84 seedlings in total) were moved to an area with a rain exclusion system $(1.4\times2\times1.1/1.4 \text{ m}, \text{width}\times\text{length}\times\text{height})$. Rain exclusion was obtained by a sloped ceiling covering made with a transparent corrugated polycarbonate panel (0.8 mm thickness and 76×17.3 mm

width×height of the wave dimensions, 95% light transmittance), sides were opened and, consequently, temperatures inside the rain exclusion area were the actual temperatures during the summer period of the year of the experiment and considered as present summer temperature conditions (present temperatures, hereon). A second rain exclusion system was used but with the sides closed with transparent plastic to increase the temperature (future temperatures, hereon). This second greenhouse had the same number of seedlings as the first one. Temperatures inside this second rain exclusion system emulate the expected increment of temperatures in 2100 due to climate change in the average scenarios according to IPCC (Díaz et al., 2019; Tollefson, 2020; Mosadegh and Babaeian, 2021). The pair formed by the present and future greenhouses was considered a block that was repeated 3 times (Figure 1). Temperature in each greenhouse was monitored every 15 min with temperature recorder sensors (Hobo Pendant Temperature 64K Data Logger, Onset, USA).

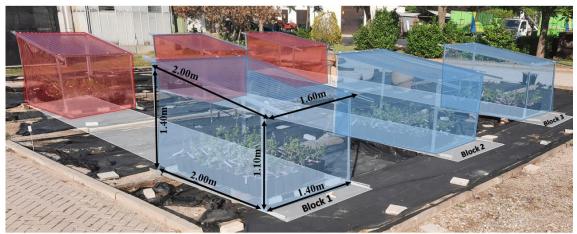


Figure 1. Rain exclusion systems in the experiment: future and present (red and blue, respectively). Each pair formed by present and future greenhouses formed a block for a total of three blocks (represented in white).

During the whole experiment, the mean daily temperature of the future greenhouse was 2.5 °C above the temperature of the present greenhouse (Table 1, Figure 2a). This difference was especially notorious during July, when maximum average temperatures were 7.3°C above the present greenhouse. Maximum difference in temperatures between present and future greenhouses were reached in the central hours of the day (between 12:00 and 17:00), being 7°C higher in the future greenhouse respect to the present (Figure 2b). Minimum temperatures were similar between both greenhouses.

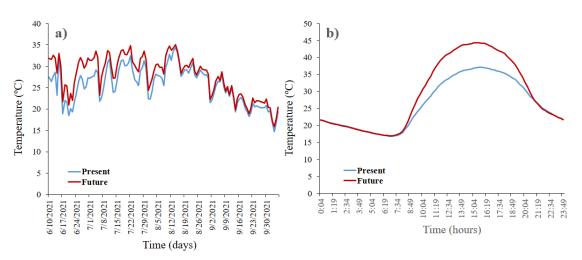


Figure 2. Mean daily temperatures during the experiment (m/d/y) (a) and mean hourly temperatures (b) from 10 June 2021 to 30 September 2021 in present and future temperature environments (n=3).

Table 1. Maximum and minimum temperature values, both mean and absolute during experiment since 10 June 2021 to 30 September 2021 in present and future scenarios (n=3). Data are mean \pm standard error.

	Present	Future
Mean temperature (°C)	25.54 ± 0.40	27.88 ± 0.44
Mean minimum temperature (°C)	15.60 ± 0.29	15.78 ± 0.28
Absolute minimum temperature (°C)	6.63	6.76
Mean maximum temperature (°C)	38.63 ± 0.47	44.73 ± 0.53
Absolute maximum temperature (°C)	50.36	55.60

Once moved, seedlings were irrigated to field capacity during 2 weeks to promote the acclimation to temperature scenarios before starting the drought treatments. Seedlings were surrounded with a file of empty pots to avoid edge effects.

Drought treatments were initiated on 16 June 2021. Whiting each greenhouse, one third of the seedlings per plant-fungus pairs were randomly assigned to each of three drought levels: control, moderate and severe. The control seedlings were watered to field capacity, and the moderate and severe seedlings were watered to 85 and 60% of container weight, respectively (50, 35 and 15% of container water content for control, moderate and severe drought treatments, respectively). Each seedling was weighed and watered to target weight every 3-4 days from the beginning of the drought treatments to 18 September 2021. In each watering event, containers were randomly rearranged to avoid edge effects.

In each watering event, the visual damage index (VDI) in the shoots of each seedling was recorded by one visual observer (Figure 3) to evaluate the evolution of the damage on each seedling along the experiment. Visual damage was considered as proportion of shoot with symptoms of leaf senescence, dry tips and/or shoot die-back. The VDI had a value from 0 to 100% (0% when there was not any damage, and 100% when there was a complete damage).



Figure 3. Visual damage scale (VDI) on *Q. ilex* seedlings, (from left to right) 0, 20, 50, 70, 90% VDI, respectively.

Physiological characterization of the seedlings

Physiological characterization of the seedlings was carried out in mid-summer (2 – 6 August 2021) when plant stress is assumed to reach a maximum. Three randomly selected seedlings per treatment (plant-fungus pair, greenhouse or thermic environment and drought treatment) and block (for a total of 9 seedlings per treatment, and 108 seedlings in total) were measured for: (a) plant water status by (1) leaf water potential at dawn (ψ_{dawn}), and (2) at midday (ψ_{midday}) with a Scholander pressure chamber (PMS70, PMS Corvallis, OR, USA); (b) fluorescence parameters-light use efficiency: (3) the maximum efficiency of photosystem II (Fv/Fm) at dawn (Fv/Fm_{dawn}) and (4) at midday (Fv/Fm_{midday}); and (5) the effective quantum yield of photosystem II (ϕ_{PSII}) at midday with a fluorometer (FMS2, Hansatech Instruments LTD, United Kingdom), and (c) gas exchange capacity: (6) net photosynthesis rate (A_{net}) with an infrared gas analyzer (LI- 6800 Portable Photosynthesis System, LI-COR, USA) (Figure 4). Dawn measurements were taken between 6:00 and 7:30 am, midday measurements were taken between 2:00 and 3:00 pm, and gas exchange activity was measured between 9:00 and 10:30 am. Measurements were done on mature leaves of the upper third of each individual. Thus, we ensure that the measured leaves have grown during the experiment.



Figure 4. Measured variables during experiment. Measurement of the effective quantum yield of photosystem II (ϕ_{PSII}) with a fluorometer (a); measurement of leaf water potential with a Scholander chamber (b, c); measurement of net photosynthesis rate (A_{net}) with an infrared gas analyzer (d).

The pressure chamber or Scholander chamber is used to determine rapidly the water potential of the plant, as an index of drought stress in the seedlings. It increases the pressure around the leaf, until xylem sap starts to bubble at the cut done previously at the end of the petiole. The pressure needed to obtain this condition is the negative pressure in the stem that forces the water of the leaf cells going out and, consequently, indicates the hydration status of the plant (Boyer, 1967; Yegappan and Mainstone, 1981). The more negative the water potential, the more dehydrated or water stressed is the seedling. The water potential values are higher at midday than at dawn due to consumption in light processes such as photosynthesis and transpiration. Consequently, dawn values indicate the chronic water stress due to soil availability, while midday values include the chronic water stress but also the climatic daily stress. Measurements were made immediately after cutting the petiole.

To estimate the maximum quantum yield (Fv/Fm), the fluorescence is measured in dark preadapted leaves for a half an hour with a light saturation pulse method. Thus, the PSII reaction centers are in an open state (Fo), so the photochemistry reactions are not limited when the light pulse is sent, and reach the maximal fluorescence value Fm (Méthy, Damesin and Rambal, 1996; Baquedano and Castillo, 2007). With this method we can estimate the intrinsic ability of the plant to capture light (Fo-Fm/Fm or Fv/Fm) (Kim et al., 2019). The Fv/Fm value of a healthy plant is 0.8, and decreases when it is damaged. Fv/Fm values are higher at dawn than at midday, in response to excess radiation and other stress factors that reduce the amount of operative reaction centers and/or the efficient functioning of them (Björkman and Demmig, 1987; Méthy, Gillon and Houssard, 1997; Kim et al., 2019). On the contrary, the quantum yield of photosystem II (ϕ_{PSII}), is the measurement of fluorescence in light acclimated leaves. Thus, only part of the PSII reaction centers are in an open state due to actual functioning of the photosynthetic machinery (Méthy, Damesin and Rambal, 1996; Baquedano and Castillo, 2007). In this sense, ϕ_{PSII} is a surrogate of the rate of electron transport through PSII reaction centers, or the real operative efficiency of the light capture process. It is related to the efficiency of carbon assimilation (Jin et al., 2020). This last measurement was done at midday under direct sunlight on fully sunny days.

Net photosynthesis (A_{net}) is the total amount of carbon fixation rate minus the CO₂ loss in respiration and photorespiration (Sullivan et al., 1996). The A_{net} was measured at an air CO₂ concentration set at 400 ppm, vapor pressure deficit (VPD) at 1.5 kPa, and light at saturating values of 1500 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹. Temperature was set as environment and corresponded with the ambient temperature of each greenhouse.

Statistical analysis

The best fitted model in base to AIC criterion (see table S1 in supplementary material) to evaluate the effect on the VDI of the thermic environment, the drought and the mycorrhizal fungi over time was a generalized linear mixed-effects model (*glmer*) with data distribution binomial and link cloglog (logarithmic transformation of both VDI and time). Drought was considered as a nested factor in the thermic environment, and two random factors were included: the block and the seedling identity (ID), that was nested in the block in which it was located, using the package *lme4* (Bates et al., 2015). ID was included due to the repeated measures on the same seedling.

The effect on the ψ_{dawn} and Fv/Fm_{midday} of the mycorrhizal fungi, environment and irrigation was analyzed with generalized linear mixed-effects model (*glmer*), considering mycorrhizal fungi and thermic environment as independent factors, with drought nested in the thermic environment. The block was considered as a random variable. A *gamma*

data distribution was used after verifying that data distribution was not normal, using a Shapiro test.

The effect on ψ_{midday} , Fv/Fm_{dawn}, ϕ_{PSII} and A_{net} of the mycorrhizal fungi, thermic environment and drought was analyzed with linear mixed-effect model (*lmer*), after using a Shapiro test and verifying that the distribution was normal. Mycorrhizal fungi and thermic environment were considered as independent factors, with drought nested in the thermic environment. The block was considered as a random variable. Normal distribution was checked using a Shapiro test.

In all the previous analyses, when there were statistically significant effects of the factors, a Tukey's post hoc test was performed with the *lsmeans* package (Lenth, 2016), establishing a level of significance at $\alpha = 0.05$. All analysis were performed using RStudio software Version 2021.09.0+351 (RStudio Team, 2021).

Results

Evolution of the damage on seedlings along the experiment: visual damage index

In general, rising temperatures was the factor that most increased VDI through the time, independently of the mycorrhizal fungi and the drought intensity. However, the VDI response to thermic temperature of the environment differed depending on the drought intensity and the mycorrhizal fungi (interaction environment temperature × drought × mycorrhizal fungi × time; χ^2 =45.78; p<0.001; Figure 5).

In the present greenhouse, the increase of VDI was progressive and mild under all drought levels, and similar for seedlings mycorrized with either *T. aestivum* (Figure 5a, blue lines) or *T. melanosporum* (Figure 5b, blue lines). However, seedlings mycorrized with *T. melanosporum* showed greater VDI than the ones with *T. aestivum*. VDI increases throughout time, but never exceeded 5% in seedlings mycorrhized with *T. melanosporum* and 3% in those with *T. aestivum*, regardless the drought intensity. While in seedlings mycorrhized with *T. aestivum* drought hardly increased VDI, in seedlings mycorrhized with *T. melanosporum* it increased VDI but only slightly.

Due to the increase of temperatures in the future greenhouses, the VDI increased 4 times in seedlings mycorrhized with *T. aestivum* (Figure 5a, red lines) and only twice in those with *T. melanosporum* (Figure 5b, red lines) with respect to present temperatures.

Despite this VDI increase, under drought stress, VDI was higher at the end of the experiment in seedlings mycorrhized with *T. melanosporum* (around 15%) than in the ones with *T. aestivum* (around 12%). However, at high temperatures but in the absence of drought, seedlings mycorrhized with *T. melanosporum* showed less VDI than those with *T. aestivum*. The increase of VDI in the seedlings mycorrhized with *T. melanosporum* over time was progressive and intense under both moderate and severe drought levels, but very mild under control treatment. In seedlings mycorrhized with *T. aestivum*, the increase of VDI was progressive but accelerated under control and severe drought treatment, but negligible under moderate drought treatment.

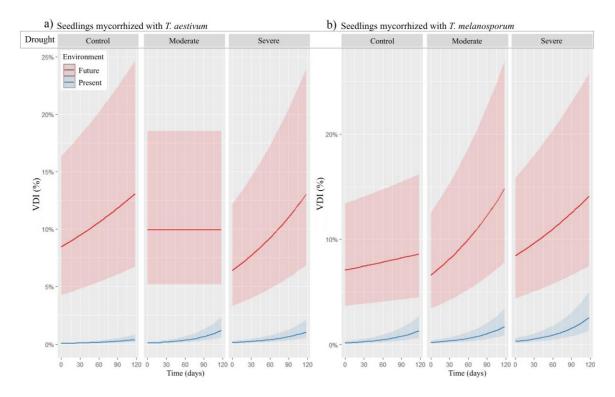


Figure 5. Visual Damage Index (VDI) during time on *Quercus ilex* shoots, mycorrhized with *Tuber aestivum* (a) and *Tuber melanosporum* (b) growing during summer under two thermic environments: present (blue, actual temperatures) and future (red, 2.5° C above actual temperatures) and under three drought intensities: control (watered to field capacity), moderate (85% container weight) and severe (60% container weight). Lines indicate predicted values for the adjusted models and shaded areas the 95% confidence intervals.

Plant water stress of the seedlings

The ψ_{dawn} showed a reduction as the level of drought increased, but this reduction was more noticeable in the future thermic environment (interaction thermic environment × drought; χ^2 =20.2121; p<0.001; Figure 6a). Furthermore, under present temperatures, only

severe drought stress induced lower ψ_{dawn} than control seedlings, with moderate drought stress seedlings having intermediate ψ_{dawn} without differences with the previous drought treatments. On the contrary, when seedlings were exposed to increased temperatures both drought stress levels decreased ψ_{dawn} below the control seedlings, without differences between them. In any case ψ_{dawn} was below -1MPa. The mycorrhizal fungi did not affect ψ_{dawn} (χ^2 =0.0017; p =0.97) nor interact with the other factors (interaction thermic environment × mycorrhizal fungi; χ^2 =0.088; p =0.77 and interaction thermic environment × drought × mycorrhizal fungi × time; χ^2 =3.02; p=0.55).

The effect on the ψ_{midday} showed significant differences in response to the thermic environment, being lower under future temperatures, with values closer to -3 MPa, compared to the present temperatures with values around -2 MPa, three and two times, respectively, lower than at dawn (χ^2 =11.7203; p<0.001; Figure 6b). Additionally, the drought intensity had a marginally significant effect on ψ_{midday} that was dependent on the thermic environment and the mycorrhizal fungi (interaction of thermic environment × mycorrhizal fungi × drought; χ^2 =15.08; p=0.057). Under present conditions, there were no statistical differences on ψ_{midday} among drought intensity levels. In the future thermic environment, ψ_{midday} did not indicate significant differences among drought treatments on seedlings mycorrhized with *T. aestivum*, that were only statistically lower than control seedlings under present conditions. However, no differences were found on ψ_{midday} in either drought treatments on seedlings mycorrhized with *T. melanosporum* or between thermic environments. Furthermore, in general, seedlings mycorrhized with *T. aestivum*, especially under future temperatures.

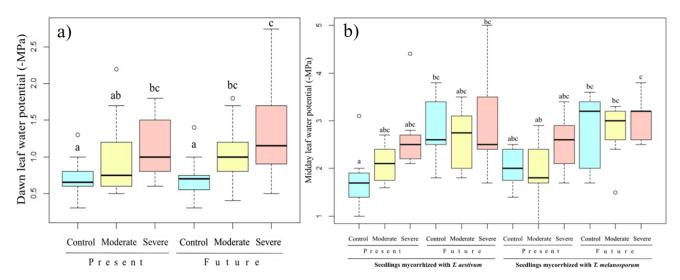


Figure 6. Box plots of leaf water potential at dawn (ψ_{dawn} , a) and midday (ψ_{midday} , b) on *Quercus ilex* seedlings mycorrhized with *Tuber aestivum* and *Tuber melanosporum* growing during summer under two thermic environments: present (actual temperatures) and future (2.5°C above actual temperatures) and under three drought intensities: control (watered to field capacity), moderate (85% container weight) and severe (60% container weight).

Photosynthetic performance of seedlings

The effect of drought on Fv/Fm_{dawn} varied with the thermic environment but depending on the mycorrhizal fungi (interaction mycorrhizal fungi × thermic environment × drought; χ^2 =19.89; p=0.011; Figure 7). Fv/Fm_{dawn} in the present temperature environment did not show differences among drought levels on seedling mycorrhized with *T. aestivum*. Also, under present temperatures, seedlings mycorrhized with *T. melanosporum* had no significant differences among drought intensity levels at present temperatures.

With the increase of temperatures in the future thermic environment, Fv/Fm_{dawn} tended to decrease progressively with the drought intensity below present values, independently of the mycorrhizal fungi. However, this pattern only generated statistical differences between seedlings under present environmental temperatures and the highest drought intensity, severe drought, under future temperatures, and having the remaining treatments intermediate values without differences with the extremes. This patter was intensified in seedlings mycorrhized with *T. melanosporum*.

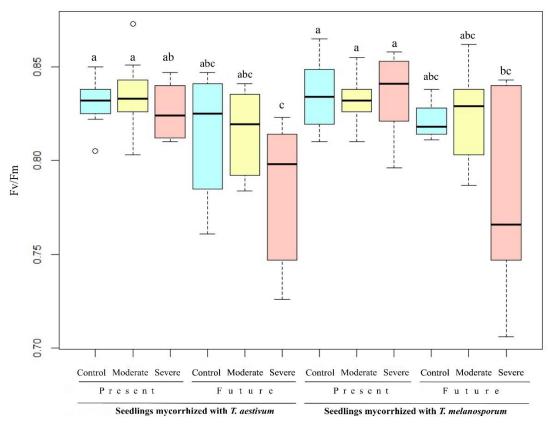


Figure 7. Maximum efficiency of photosystem II at dawn (Fv/Fm_{dawn}) on *Quercus ilex* seedlings mycorrhized with *Tuber aestivum* and *Tuber melanosporum* growing during summer under two thermic environments: present (actual temperatures) and future (2.5 °C above actual temperatures) and under three drought intensities: control (watered to field capacity), moderate (85% container weight) and severe (60% container weight).

Fv/Fm_{midday} remained at high values (0.819±0.0029; data not shown) regardless of the thermic environment (χ^2 =0.34; p=0.56) or the level of irrigation (χ^2 =6.83; p=0.74). Additionally, mycorrhizal fungi did not affect Fv/Fm_{midday} (χ^2 =2.31; p=0.13; 0.817 ± 0.008 and 0.822±0.008 for *T. aestivum* and *T. melanosporum*, respectively) nor its interaction with the other factors (interaction mycorrhizal fungi × thermic environment × drought; χ^2 =4.09; p=0.39).

Also ϕ_{PSII} remain constant across treatments (0.177±0.005, data not shown), without differences between mycorrhizal fungi (χ^2 =1.68; p=0.19), nor between thermic environments (χ^2 =0.005; p=0.94), among drought levels (χ^2 =5.99; p=0.20) nor of their possible interaction (interaction mycorrhizal fungi × thermic environment × drought; χ^2 =3.33; p=0.50).

The effect of drought on A_{net} depended on the thermic environment and varied depending on the mycorrhizal fungi (interaction thermic environment × mycorrhizal fungi

× drought, χ^2 =19.9145; p=0.01066; Figure 8). At both thermic environments, seedlings did not show A_{net} differences among drought levels, independently of the mycorrhizal fungi. However, A_{net} reached a maximum under future temperatures without drought stress in seedlings mycorrhized with *T. aestivum* and a minimum for severe drought level under future temperatures in seedlings mycorrhized with *T. melanosporum*, having the remaining treatments intermediate values. Furthermore, in the present environment, seedlings mycorrhized with *T. aestivum* tended to have a higher A_{net} than those mycorrhized with *T. melanosporum*, especially at severe drought intensity, even not significant. On the contrary, in the future thermic environment, seedling mycorrhized with *T. melanosporum* tended to have a higher A_{net} than those mycorrhized with *T. aestivum* tended to have not significant. On the contrary, in the future thermic environment, seedling mycorrhized with *T. melanosporum* tended to have a higher A_{net} than those mycorrhized with *T. aestivum* tended to have a higher A_{net} than those mycorrhized with *T. melanosporum* tended to have a higher A_{net} than those mycorrhized with *T. aestivum* have a higher A_{net} than those mycorrhized with *T. aestivum*, except at severe drought level when seedlings micorrhized with *T. aestivum* had higher A_{net} values than those with *T. melanosporum*, even not significant.

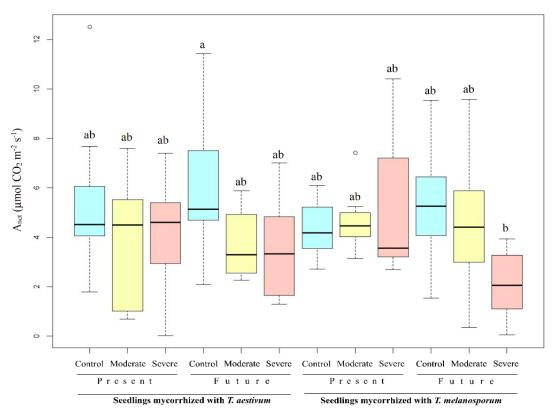


Figure 8. Net photosynthesis rate (A_{net}) on *Quercus ilex* seedlings mycorrhized with *Tuber aestivum* (left) and *Tuber melanosporum* (left) growing during summer under two thermic environments: present (actual temperatures) and future (2°C above actual temperatures) and under three drought intensities: control (watered to field capacity), moderate (85% container weight) and severe (60% container weight).

Discussion

Climate change effects on mycorrhized Q. ilex seedlings

Increment of summer temperature was the most negative factor on the performance of the seedlings independently of the mycorrhizal *Tuber* spp. VDI showed an early and intense increment in the future environment. Furthermore, water stress was much higher in the future environment across drought treatments than under present environment, which denotes increased water stress just due to higher temperatures. Despite ψ_{dawn} , chronic water stress in seedlings indicates a tendency to decrease as the drought stress level increases, this pattern was more intense under a future thermic environment. Additionally, and more important, ψ_{midday} showed that seedlings under future temperatures were highly dehydrated, independently on the drought level. This effect might be due to an increase evapotranspiration demand to refrigerate the leaves (Gargallo-Garriga et al., 2015). However, the tested increment in temperatures was not enough to generate damage on the photosynthetic machinery. Fv/Fm values (above 0.75) indicate that there was no damage on the photosynthetic machinery, which emphasized that effects on the photosynthetic machinery were very low (Siam et al., 2018; Kunert et al., 2021). Also, under higher temperatures, there was not a notorious reduction in C acquisition capacity, as A_{net} or ϕ_{PSII} values did not experience a noticeable decrease under high temperatures. The low effect of temperature increase on the photosynthetic machinery and capacity can be explained by the acclimation of the seedlings to the thermic environment (Hinojosa et al., 2019; Vico et al., 2019). However, the increment of VDI never was enough to produce any mortality on seedlings, and, even complete dry shoots were detected on several seedlings, they were able to resprout. This is consistent with the high capacity to regrow of *Quercus* ilex after disturbances like fire, high temperatures, or herbivory (Martín-Forés et al., 2020; Hernando et al., 2021).

Drought intensification under the present thermic environment barely had effects on the VDI and physiological parameters of the mycorrhized seedlings. Firstly, VDI was almost despicable under the present thermic environment and there was no increment on VDI due to the intensification of drought, with minor effects of the fungi. Although both, ψ_{dawn} and ψ_{midday} , tended to decrease as the drought intensity level increased under present summer temperatures, only a severe drought significantly increased seedlings water stress above the control level. Additionally, there were no effects on the photosynthetic capacity (Fv/Fm) nor its performance (ϕ_{PSII} and A_{net}). Furthermore, the small VDI was only notorious at the end of the experiment, after approximately 120 days (prolonged drought). The low effect of drought is consistent with the high tolerance to drought of *Q. ilex*, which can survive after long summer drought periods, characteristic of Mediterranean climate (García de Jalón et al., 2020; Guerrero-Sánchez et al., 2021).

Drought synergistically increased the negative effect of the high temperatures, as initially hypothesized. Consistently with our results, forests have less productivity under the stress of both factors (Lempereur et al., 2017; Orians et al., 2019; Jin et al., 2020). At increased temperatures but without drought stress, VDI barely increased during time. However, when high temperatures coincided with drought, either moderate or severe drought, the damage increased notably through summer period. Additionally, in the future temperature environment, both severe and moderate drought levels significantly increased the chronic water stress of the seedlings. Despite the increase of VDI under both stress factors, increase in temperature and drought intensity, there were no differences between the VDI of moderate and severe drought treatments. It indicates that an increase in xericity due to climate change barely had effects even associated with the future rise of temperatures. Temperatures increment by itself increase water stress of seedlings, probably promoting acclimation process in seedlings such as increase in osmotic potential (Reddy et al., 2004) or water use efficiency (Tenhunen et al., 1990) among other acclimation mechanisms. This increase tolerance to dehydration of seedlings might contribute to reduce the effect of an increased xericity reducing differences between drought intensity treatments. Furthermore, this indicates within the factors associated with climate change, increased temperatures might play a key role in Q. ilex response.

Tuber aestivum as an alternative to T. melanosporum under climate change scenarios

According to the hypothesis, seedlings mycorrhized with *T. aestivum* had a better performance than seedlings mycorrhized with *T. melanosporum*. In general, at every thermic environment and drought treatment, seedlings mycorrhized with *T. aestivum* had a smaller VDI than those mycorrhized with *T. melanosporum*. Furthermore, seedlings mycorrhized with *T. melanosporum* had a lower water potential than those with *T. aestivum*, and, consequently, seedlings were more dehydrated. The explanation is due to the ecology and morphology of the fungi species. *Tuber melanosporum* requires a longer

period of time to reach a complete symbiosis development in the roots than other *Tuber* spp. (Zambonelli et al., 2016; Ori et al., 2020). This suggest that mycorrhizal colonization of the new roots growth during the experiment was not achieved or it was reached in minor intensity than in T. aestivum. A low mycorrhizal colonization can explain lower beneficial effect of T. melanosporum than of T. aestivum. Furthermore, mycorrhizal hyphae of T. melanosporum are smaller than others belonging to the genus Tuber (Zambonelli et al., 2016; Ori et al., 2020), like T. aestivum (Zambonelli et al., 2016; Nahberger et al., 2021). Consequently, soil explored and water acquisition capacity might be lowered in T. melanosporum mycorrhized seedlings. Finally, both species differ in ecology, being T. aestivum more tolerant to drought and high temperatures stress (Zambonelli et al., 2016; Ori et al., 2020). Additionally, T. melanosporum has been indicated as extremely sensitive to both stress factors of climate change (Büntgen et al., 2015; Thomas and Büntgen, 2019). In this experiment, Anet on seedlings mycorrhized with T. melanosporum only decreased when both factors coincided, increased temperatures and a severe drought. Those results reaffirms that seedlings mycorrhized with T. melanosporum had a worse performance, especially under water and heat stress of future climate scenarios (Baragatti et al., 2019; Thomas and Büntgen, 2019; Piñuela et al., 2021).

At present conditions, there were minor differences in performance between seedlings mycorrhized with *T. aestivum* and seedlings mycorrhized with *T. melanosporum*. At first, the selection of any of those *Tuber* spp. under present conditions would be adequate for truffle plantations. However, it is necessary to highlight that *T. melanosporum* has a higher monetary value than *T aestivum*, that can reach up to 700-1200€ and 200-600€, respectively (Zambonelli et al., 2016; El Karkouri et al., 2019; Strojnik et al., 2020). Thus, *T. melanosporum* is recommended for truffle plantations under present conditions for most of the Mediterranean areas, but with the exception of the hottest and drier regions. However, under future conditions, performance of seedlings mycorrhized with *T. melanosporum*, due to the low tolerance to stress factors of the fungus, was worse than *T. aestivum*. This worst performance would be traduced in lower truffle production (Büntgen et al., 2015; Thomas and Büntgen, 2019). Even in zones where the severity of climate is (or would be) a limiting factor, some practices can help to alleviate it, for example, controlled irrigation during summer (Chevalier and Sourzat, 2012; Piñuela et al., 2021), but at the expense of increasing maintenance costs. In the

other hand, *T. aestivum* truffles still have an elevated monetary value, making the proper forest production economically profitable without further maintenance costs. In this sense, *T. aestivum* is one of the most produced fungus in Europe, and is leading and expanding in many countries (Bragato et al., 2021). For this reason, *T. aestivum* would be a remarkable alternative to *T. melanosporum*, especially in areas with current elevated temperatures and high aridity.

Next steps and future research

The presented results are included on a bigger experiment, where a second measurement of the different variables was taken at the end of the summer. This second measurement would help to analyze the evolution of the seedlings over the time, especially when the temperatures start to decrease. These measures can give more information about the resilience of the seedlings once stress factors cease. Also, there will be a laboratory analysis of other variables that indicate stress or acclimation of the seedlings, such as the concentration compatible solutes like proline (its accumulation on seedlings indicates a tolerance response to environmental stress, like drought or high temperatures), soluble sugars and photosynthetic pigments (Verbruggen and Hermans, 2008; Moradi, 2016; Zandalinas et al., 2018). Besides, it would be necessary to analyze other physiological variables that were measured with LI-COR but not included here, such as stomatal conductance (gs), transpiration rate (T_r) and CO₂ concentration in the mesophyll (Ci). Furthermore, measuring evapotranspiration of seedlings can give information about the capacity of the seedling to refrigerate, and can complete the information of the water stress in future environments. Finally, to reaffirm and confirm the results, it is necessary to quantify the evolution of mycorrhizal colonization of both fungi across treatments. For this reason, a harvest of the seedlings at the end of the experiment is essential to quantify mycorrhizal colonization but also to quantify the growth of the seedlings.

Moreover, for future research, tolerance to water stress and high temperatures should be investigated in other Mediterranean forest species that are mycorrhized with these *Tuber* species, like *Q. faginea*, or *Pinus halepensis*. Obtaining the information of its performance, we can determine the optical distribution of different host plants-mycorrhizal *Tuber* pairs. The final aim is to include the largest number of abandoned lands, and promote ecological restoration through truffle plantations maximizing truffle production and minimizing maintenance costs.

Finally, evaluating the survival rate, the establishment and the productivity in a real truffle plantation is fundamental to know the real impact of a restoration. Consequently, it is necessary to carry out a reforestation of abandoned agricultural fields with those different plant- *Tuber* pairs and prove the success of the mycorrhized seedlings, and truffle and economic productivity under real conditions.

Conclusions

Increment of summer temperatures was the limiting and most negative factor on the performance of the seedlings, independently of the mycorrhizal *Tuber* spp. or the drought intensity. The future temperature environment increased seedlings water stress and shoot senescence and damage (VDI) but not enough to produced seedling mortality or damage on photosynthetic machinery (Fv/Fm) and capacity (ϕ_{PSII} and A_{net}).

The increase on drought intensity under the present temperature environment did not affect negatively the performance of seedlings but worsen seedling performance under future temperature environment. Nevertheless, the effect of drought intensity increase under the future temperature environment was antagonic, with mayor effects of the high temperatures.

Seedlings mycorrhized with *T. aestivum* had a better performance that seedlings mycorrhized with *T. melanosporum*. At every environment and drought irrigation, seedlings mycorrhized with *T. aestivum* had smaller values of VDI and higher leaf water potential than seedlings mycorrhized with *T. melanosporum*. All together, the results indicate that seedlings mycorrhized with *T. aestivum* are a more adequate alternative than *T. melanosporum* for truffle plantations, considering future climate change scenarios.

Acknowledgments

I want to thank my lab partners and friends, Sofía and Lara, who have supported me unconditionally throughout this year. Finally, thanks to my academic advisor for giving me the opportunity to do this work, for teaching me, and for always being willing to help me.

I want to appreciate the help of the Real Jardin Botanico Juan Carlos I by facilitating their space to build up the greenhouses, and the use of their facilities and the Departamento de Ciencias de la Vida (UAH) by facilitating the laboratory and equipment used in the

experiment. This study was supported by the project TubeRest (CM/JIN/2019-002) funded by Comunidad Autonoma de Madrid.

References

- Andrés-Alpuente, A., Sánchez, S., Martín, M., Aguirre, Á. J., & Barriuso, J. J. (2014). Comparative analysis of different methods for evaluating quality of *Quercus ilex* seedlings inoculated with *Tuber melanosporum*. *Mycorrhiza*, 24(1), 29-37.
- Baquedano, F.J., Castillo, F.J. 2007. Drought tolerance in the Mediterranean species Quercus coccifera, *Quercus ilex*, Pinus halepensis, and Juniperus phoenicea. Photosynthetica 45: 229.
- Baragatti, M., Grollemund, P.-M., Montpied, P., Dupouey, J.-L., Gravier, J., Murat, C., Le Tacon, F. 2019. Influence of annual climatic variations, climate changes, and sociological factors on the production of the Périgord black truffle (Tuber *melanosporum* Vittad.) from 1903–1904 to 1988–1989 in the Vaucluse (France). *Mycorrhiza* 29: 113-125.
- Rey Benayas, J.M. 2007. Abandonment of agricultural land: an overview of drivers and consequences. *CAB Reviews: Perspectives in Agriculture, Veterinary Science, Nutrition and Natural Resources* 2: .
- Björkman, O., Demmig, B. 1987. Photon yield of O2 evolution and chlorophyll fluorescence characteristics at 77 K among vascular plants of diverse origins. *Planta* 170: 489-504.
- Bonet, J., Fischer, C., Colinas, C. 2006. Cultivation of black truffle to promote reforestation and land-use stability. *http://dx.doi.org/10.1051/agro:2005059* 26: .
- Bonito, A., Varone, L., Gratani, L. 2011. Relationship between acorn size and seedling morphological and physiological traits of *Quercus ilex* L. from different climates. *Photosynthetica*, 49(1), 75-86.
- Boyer, J.S. 1967. Leaf water potentials measured with a pressure chamber. *Plant Physiology* 42: 133-137.
- Bragato, G., Fornasier, F., Bagi, I., Egli, S., Marjanović, Ž. 2021. Soil parameters explain short-distance variation in production of *Tuber aestivum* Vittad. in an oak plantation in the central-northern part of the Great Hungarian Plain (Jászság region, Hungary). *Forest Ecology and Management* 479: 118578.
- Büntgen, U., Egli, S., Schneider, L., von Arx, G., Rigling, A., Camarero, J.J., Sangüesa-Barreda, G. et al. 2015. Long-term irrigation effects on Spanish holm oak growth and its black truffle symbiont. *Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment* 202: 148-159.
- Perpiña Castillo, C., Coll Aliaga, E., Lavalle, C., Martínez Llario, J.C. 2020. An Assessment and Spatial Modelling of Agricultural Land Abandonment in Spain (2015–2030). *Sustainability* 12: 560.
- Ceddia, M.G. 2019. The impact of income, land, and wealth inequality on agricultural expansion in Latin America. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 116: 2527-2532.
- Ceruti A, Fontana A, Nosenzo C. 2003. Le specie europee del genere Tuber: una revisione storica, vol 37. Museo Regionale di Scienze Naturali, Torino.
- Chazdon, R.L. 2008. Beyond Deforestation: Restoring Forests and Ecosystem Services on Degraded Lands. *Science* 320: 1458-1460.
- Chazdon, R.L., Falk, D.A., Banin, L.F., Wagner, M., Wilson, S., Grabowski, R.C., Suding, K.N. 2021. The intervention continuum in restoration ecology: rethinking the active-passive dichotomy. *Restoration Ecology*.
- Chazdon, R.L., Lindenmayer, D., Guariguata, M.R., Crouzeilles, R., Rey Benayas, J.M., Lazos Chavero, E. 2020. Fostering natural forest regeneration on former agricultural land through economic and policy interventions. *Environmental Research Letters* 15: 043002.
- Chevalier, G., Sourzat, P. 2012. Soils and Techniques for Cultivating Tuber melanosporum and Tuber aestivum in Europe. En Zambonelli, A., Bonito, G. M. (eds.), Edible Ectomycorrhizal Mushrooms: Current Knowledge and Future Prospects, Soil Biology, pp. 163-189. Springer, Berlin,

Heidelberg.

- Martínez de Aragón, J., Fischer, C., Bonet, J.A., Olivera, A., Oliach, D., Colinas, C. 2012. Economically profitable post fire restoration with black truffle (*Tuber melanosporum*) producing plantations. *New Forests* 43: 615-630.
- Díaz, J., Sáez, M., Carmona, R., Mirón, I.J., Barceló, M.A., Luna, M.Y., Linares, C. 2019. Mortality attributable to high temperatures over the 2021–2050 and 2051–2100 time horizons in Spain: Adaptation and economic estimate. *Environmental Research* 172: 475-485.
- Domínguez-Núñez, J., Barreal, J.A., Omeñaca, J. 2005. Ectomicorrizas en dos plantaciones truferas de encina («Quercus ilex» L. subsp. «ballota» (Desf.) Samp.) en Castellón. Boletín de sanidad vegetal. Plagas 31: 147-157.
- Bates, D., Mächler, M., Bolker, B., Walker, S. 2015. Fitting Linear Mixed-Effects Models Using Ime4. *Journal of Statistical Software* 67: 1-48.
- El Karkouri, K., Couderc, C., Decloquement, P., Abeille, A., Raoult, D. 2019. Rapid MALDI-TOF MS identification of commercial truffles. *Scientific Reports* 9: 17686.
- Elliott, G. P., Bailey, S. N., Cardinal, S. J. 2020. Hotter drought as a disturbance at upper treeline in the southern Rocky Mountains. *Annals of the American Association of Geographers*, 111(3), 756-770.
- Jalón, L.G. de, Limousin, J.-M., Richard, F., Gessler, A., Peter, M., Hättenschwiler, S., Milcu, A. 2020. Microhabitat and ectomycorrhizal effects on the establishment, growth and survival of *Quercus ilex* L. seedlings under drought. *PLOS ONE* 15: e0229807.
- García-Montero, L.G., Casermeiro, M.A., Hernando, J., Hernando, I. 2006. Soil factors that influence the fruiting of *Tuber melanosporum* (black truffle). *Soil Research* 44: 731.
- Gargallo-Garriga, A., Sardans, J., Pérez-Trujillo, M., Oravec, M., Urban, O., Jentsch, A., Kreyling, J. et al. 2015. Warming differentially influences the effects of drought on stoichiometry and metabolomics in shoots and roots. *New Phytologist* 207: 591-603.
- Guerrero-Sánchez, V.M., Castillejo, M.Á., López-Hidalgo, C., Alconada, A.M.M., Jorrín-Novo, J.V., Rey, M.-D. 2021. Changes in the transcript and protein profiles of *Quercus ilex* seedlings in response to drought stress. *Journal of Proteomics* 243: 104263.
- Hernando, A., Tejera, R., García-Abril, A., Velázquez, J., Iglesias-Merchan, C., Valbuena, R., Manzanera, J. 2021. The important role of multifunctional forests in society: a methodology for stands delimitation. *IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science* 875: 012001.
- Hilszczanska, D., Szmidla, H., Sikora, K., Rosa-Gruszecka, A. 2018. Soil Properties Conducive to the Formation of *Tuber aestivum* Vitt. Fruiting Bodies. *Polish Journal of Environmental Studies* 28:.
- Hinojosa, L., Matanguihan, J.B., Murphy, K.M. 2019. Effect of high temperature on pollen morphology, plant growth and seed yield in quinoa (*Chenopodium quinoa* Willd.). *Journal of Agronomy and Crop Science* 205: 33-45.
- Isbell, F., Tilman, D., Reich, P.B., Clark, A.T. 2019. Deficits of biodiversity and productivity linger a century after agricultural abandonment. *Nature Ecology & Evolution* 3: 1533-1538.
- Jin, T., Lin, Y., Chi, H., Xiang, K., Ma, G., Peng, Z., Yi, K. 2020. Comparative Performance of the Fall Armyworm (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) Reared on Various Cereal-Based Artificial Diets Furlong, M. (ed.), *Journal of Economic Entomology* 113: 2986-2996.
- Jones, H.P., Jones, P.C., Barbier, E.B., Blackburn, R.C., Rey Benayas, J.M., Holl, K.D., McCrackin, M. et al. 2018. Restoration and repair of Earth's damaged ecosystems. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* 285: 20172577.
- Keenleyside, C., Tucker, G. 2010. Farmland Abandonment in the EU: An Assessment of Trends and Prospects. Report Prepared for WWF.
- Kim, J.H., Bhandari, S.R., Chae, S.Y., Cho, M.C., Lee, J.G. 2019. Application of maximum quantum yield, a parameter of chlorophyll fluorescence, for early determination of bacterial wilt in tomato seedlings. *Horticulture, Environment, and Biotechnology* 60: 821-829.

- Kolecka, N., Kozak, J., Kaim, D., Dobosz, M., Ginzler, C., Psomas, A. 2015. Mapping secondary forest succession on abandoned agricultural land with LiDAR point clouds and terrestrial photography. *Remote Sensing*, 7(7), 8300-8322.
- Kunert, N., Hajek, P., Hietz, P., Morris, H., Rosner, S., Tholen, D. Summer temperatures reach the thermal tolerance threshold of photosynthetic decline in temperate conifers. *Plant Biology* n/a:.
- Laurance, W.F., Sayer, J., Cassman, K.G. 2014. Agricultural expansion and its impacts on tropical nature. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* 29: 107-116.
- Tacon, F. 2016. Influence of Climate on Natural Distribution of Tuber Species and Truffle Production. En pp. 153-167.
- Lempereur, M., Limousin, J.-M., Guibal, F., Ourcival, J.-M., Rambal, S., Ruffault, J., Mouillot, F. 2017. Recent climate hiatus revealed dual control by temperature and drought on the stem growth of Mediterranean *Quercus ilex*. *Global Change Biology* 23: 42-55.
- Lenth, R. V. 2016. Least-squares means: the R package lsmeans. *Journal of statistical software*, 69(1), 1-33.
- Levers, C., Schneider, M., Prishchepov, A.V., Estel, S., Kuemmerle, T. 2018. Spatial variation in determinants of agricultural land abandonment in Europe. *Science of The Total Environment* 644: 95-111.
- Lisboa, T. de F.B., Cielo-Filho, R., Câmara, C.D. 2021. Applicability of monitoring protocols developed for active restoration projects in the evaluation of passive restoration of a subtropical riparian forest in Brazil. *Tropical Ecology* 62: 17-26.
- Löf, M., Madsen, P., Metslaid, M., Witzell, J., Jacobs, D.F. 2019. Restoring forests: regeneration and ecosystem function for the future. *New Forests* 50: 139-151.
- Lozano-Baez, S.E., Cooper, M., Frosini de Barros Ferraz, S., Ribeiro Rodrigues, R., Castellini, M., Di Prima, S. 2019. Recovery of Soil Hydraulic Properties for Assisted Passive and Active Restoration: Assessing Historical Land Use and Forest Structure. *Water* 11: 86.
- Martínez de Aragón, J., Fischer, C., Bonet, J.A., Olivera, A., Oliach, D., Colinas, C. 2012. Economically profitable post fire restoration with black truffle (*Tuber melanosporum*) producing plantations. *New Forests* 43: 615-630.
- Martín-Forés, I., Magro, S., Bravo-Oviedo, A., Alfaro-Sánchez, R., Espelta, J.M., Frei, T., Valdés-Correcher, E. et al. 2020. Spontaneous forest regrowth in South-West Europe: Consequences for nature's contributions to people Balvanera, P. (ed.), *People and Nature* 2: 980-994.
- Meiri, A., Plaut, Z., Shimshi, D. 1975. The use of the pressure chamber technique for measurement of the water potential of transpiring plant organs. *Physiologia Plantarum*, 35(1), 72-76.
- Mello, A., Zampieri, E., Zambonelli, A. 2017. Truffle Ecology: Genetic Diversity, Soil Interactions and Functioning. En Mycorrhiza Function, Diversity, State of the Art: Fourth Edition,
- Méthy, M., Damesin, C., Rambal, S. 1996. Drought and photosystem II activity in two Mediterranean oaks. Annales des Sciences Forestières 53: 255-262.
- Méthy, M., Gillon, D., Houssard, C. 1997. Temperature-induced changes of photosystem II activity in *Quercus ilex* and *Pinus halepensis. Canadian Journal of Forest Research*, 27(1), 31-38.
- Misson, L., Degueldre, D., Collin, C., Rodriguez, R., Rocheteau, A., Ourcival, J.-M., Rambal, S. 2011. Phenological responses to extreme droughts in a Mediterranean forest: PHENOLOGICAL RESPONSES TO EXTREME DROUGHTS. *Global Change Biology* 17: 1036-1048.
- Moradi, P. (2016). Key plant products and common mechanisms utilized by plants in water deficit stress responses. *Botanical Sciences*, 94(4), 657-671.
- Mosadegh, E., Babaeian, I. 2021. Projection of temperature and precipitation for 2020-2100 for Tehran Region using post-processing of general circulation models output and artificial neural network approach.

- Nahberger, T.U., Benucci, G.M.N., Kraigher, H., Grebenc, T. 2021. Effect of earthworms on mycorrhization, root morphology and biomass of silver fir seedlings inoculated with black summer truffle (*Tuber aestivum* Vittad.). Scientific Reports 11: 6167.
- Navarro, L.M., Pereira, H.M. 2015. Rewilding Abandoned Landscapes in Europe. En Pereira, H. M., Navarro, L. M. (eds.), *Rewilding European Landscapes*, pp. 3-23. Springer International Publishing, Cham.
- Núñez, J. D., Barreal, J. R., de Omeñaca, J. S. 2005. Ectomicorrizas en dos plantaciones truferas de encina (*Quercus ilex* L. subsp. *ballota* (Desf.) Samp.) en Castellón. *Bol San Veg Plagas*, *31*, 147-157.
- Ogaya, R., Liu, D., Barbeta, A., Peñuelas, J. 2020. Stem Mortality and Forest Dieback in a 20-Years Experimental Drought in a Mediterranean Holm Oak Forest. *Frontiers in Forests and Global Change* 2: 89.
- Ori, F., Leonardi, M., Faccio, A., Sillo, F., Iotti, M., Pacioni, G., Balestrini, R. 2020. Synthesis and ultrastructural observation of arbutoid mycorrhizae of black truffles (*Tuber melanosporum* and *T. aestivum*). *Mycorrhiza* 30: 715-723.
- Orians, C.M., Schweiger, R., Dukes, J.S., Scott, E.R., Müller, C. 2019. Combined impacts of prolonged drought and warming on plant size and foliar chemistry. *Annals of Botany* 124: 41-52.
- Perez, J., Guerin-Laguette, A., Flores Arzu, R., Yu, F.-Q. 2020. *Mushrooms, Humans and Nature in a Changing World Perspectives from Ecological, Agricultural and Social Sciences: Perspectives from Ecological, Agricultural and Social Sciences.*
- Pérez-Moreno, J., Guerin-Laguette, A., Arzú, R. F., Yu, F. Q. (Eds.). 2020. Mushrooms, Humans and Nature in a Changing World: Perspectives from Ecological, Agricultural and Social Sciences. Springer Nature.
- Perpiña Castillo, C., Coll Aliaga, E., Lavalle, C., Martínez Llario, J.C. 2020. An Assessment and Spatial Modelling of Agricultural Land Abandonment in Spain (2015–2030). *Sustainability* 12: 560.
- Piñuela, Y., Alday, J.G., Oliach, D., Castaño, C., Bolaño, F., Colinas, C., Bonet, J.A. 2021. White mulch and irrigation increase black truffle soil mycelium when competing with summer truffle in young truffle orchards. *Mycorrhiza* 31: 371-382.
- Ramón Vallejo, V., Smanis, A., Chirino, E., Fuentes, D., Valdecantos, A., Vilagrosa, A. 2012. Perspectives in dryland restoration: approaches for climate change adaptation. *New Forests* 43: 561-579.
- Reddy A.R., Chaitanya K.V., Vivekanandan M. 2004. Drought-induced responses of photosynthesis and antioxidant metabolism in higher plants. J Plant Physiol 161:1189–1202. doi: 10.1016/J.JPLPH.2004.01.013
- Rey Benayas, J. M. 2012. Restauración de campos agrícolas sin competir por el uso de la tierra para aumentar su biodiversidad y servicios ecosistémicos.
- Rey Benayas, J.M. 2005. Restoration after land abandonment. In: Mansourian, S., Vallauri, D. & Dudley, N. (eds.), in cooperation with WWF International. *Forests Restoration in Landscapes: Beyond Planting Trees.* Pp. 356-360, Springer, New York.
- Rey Benayas, J.M., Martins, A., Nicolau, J.M., Schulz, J.J. 2007. Abandonment of agricultural land: an overview of drivers and consequences. *CAB Reviews*.
- Rodrigo-Comino, J., Martínez-Hernández, C., Iserloh, T., Cerdà, A. 2018. Contrasted Impact of Land Abandonment on Soil Erosion in Mediterranean Agriculture Fields. *Pedosphere* 28: 617-631.
- Siam, A. M. J., Radoglou, K., Noitsakis, B., Smiris, P. 2018. Ecophysiology of Seedlings of Three Deciduous Oak Species During Summer Water Deficit. Sudan Journal of Desertification Research, 1.
- Sperlich, D., Chang, C. T., Peñuelas, J., Sabaté, S. 2019). Responses of photosynthesis and component processes to drought and temperature stress: are Mediterranean trees fit for climate change?. *Tree* physiology, 39(11), 1783-1805.
- Strojnik, L., Grebenc, T., Ogrinc, N. 2020. Species and geographic variability in truffle aromas. Food and

Chemical Toxicology 142: 111434.

- Sullivan, N.H., Bolstad, P.V., Vose, J.M. 1996. Estimates of net photosynthetic parameters for twelve tree species in mature forests of the southern Appalachians. *Tree Physiology* 16: 397-406.
- Tacon, F. 2016. Influence of Climate on Natural Distribution of Tuber Species and Truffle Production. En pp. 153-167.
- Tenhunen, A. Sala Serra, P.C. Harley, R.L. Dougherty, J.F. Reynolds. 1990. Factors influencing carbon fixation and water use by mediterranean sclerophyll shrubs during summer drought. Oecologia, 82, pp. 381-393.
- Thomas, P., Büntgen, U. 2019. A risk assessment of Europe's black truffle sector under predicted climate change. *Science of The Total Environment* 655: 27-34.
- Tognetti, R., Lasserre, B., Di Febbraro, M., Marchetti, M. 2019. Modeling regional drought-stress indices for beech forests in Mediterranean mountains based on tree-ring data. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology* 265: 110-120.
- Tollefson, J. 2020. How hot will Earth get by 2100?. Nature, 580(7804), 443-446.
- UNEP 1992. World Atlas of desertificacion. United Nations Environment Programme.
- Vallejo, V. R., Smanis, A., Chirino, E., Fuentes, D., Valdecantos, A., Vilagrosa, A. 2012. Perspectives in dryland restoration: approaches for climate change adaptation. *New forests*, *43*(5), 561-579.
- van der Zanden, E.H., Verburg, P.H., Schulp, C.J.E., Verkerk, P.J. 2017. Trade-offs of European agricultural abandonment. *Land Use Policy* 62: 290-301.
- Verbruggen, N., Hermans, C. 2008. Proline accumulation in plants: a review. Amino acids, 35(4), 753-759.
- Vico, G., Way, D.A., Hurry, V., Manzoni, S. 2019. Can leaf net photosynthesis acclimate to rising and more variable temperatures? *Plant, Cell & Environment* 42: 1913-1928.
- Williams, D.R., Clark, M., Buchanan, G.M., Ficetola, G.F., Rondinini, C., Tilman, D. 2021. Proactive conservation to prevent habitat losses to agricultural expansion. *Nature Sustainability* 4: 314-322.
- Yegappan, T.M., Mainstone, B.J. 1981. Comparisons between Press and Pressure Chamber Techniques for Measuring Leaf Water Potential. *Experimental Agriculture* 17: 75-84.
- Zambonelli, A., Donnini, D., Rana, G.L., Fascetti, S., Benucci, G.M.N., Iotti, M., Morte, A. et al. 2014. Hypogeous fungi in Mediterranean maquis, arid and semi-arid forests. *Plant Biosystems - An International Journal Dealing with all Aspects of Plant Biology* 148: 392-401.
- Zambonelli, A., Iotti, M., Murat, C. 2016. True Truffle (Tuber spp.) in the World: Soil Ecology, Systematics and Biochemistry.
- Zandalinas, S.I., Mittler, R., Balfagón, D., Arbona, V., Gómez-Cadenas, A. 2018. Plant adaptations to the combination of drought and high temperatures. *Physiologia Plantarum* 162: 2-12.
- Zavalloni, M., D'Alberto, R., Raggi, M., & Viaggi, D. 2021. Farmland abandonment, public goods and the CAP in a marginal area of Italy. *Land Use Policy*, 107, 104365.

Supplementary material

Table S1. Fitted models to evaluate the effect on VDI and AIC values.

glmer model	AIC
thermic environment* drought /thermic environment* mycorrhizal fungi *time+(1 block/id)+(1 block)	57011
thermic environment* drought /thermic environment* mycorrhizal fungi *time+(1 block)	124055
thermic environment* drought * mycorrhizal fungi *time+(1 block)	124055
thermic environment* drought * mycorrhizal fungi +time+(1 block)	125718