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1 **Ectomycorrhizal fungi increase the vitality of Norway spruce seedlings**
2 **under the pressure of *Heterobasidion* root rot *in vitro* but may increase**
3 **susceptibility to foliar necrotrophs**

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11 **Abstract**

12 We tested if root colonisation by ectomycorrhizal fungi (EMF) could alter the susceptibility
13 of Norway spruce (*Picea abies*) seedlings to root rot infection or necrotic foliar pathogens.
14 Firstly, spruce seedlings were inoculated by various EMF and challenged with
15 *Heterobasidion* isolates in triaxenix tubes. The ascomycete EMF *Meliniomyces bicolor*, that
16 had showed strong antagonistic properties towards root rot causing *Heterobasidion in vitro*,
17 protected spruce seedlings effectively against root rot. Secondly, spruce seedlings, inoculated
18 with *M. bicolor* or the forest humus, were subjected to necrotrophic foliar pathogens in
19 conventional forest nursery conditions on peat substrates. *Botrytis cinerea* infection after
20 winter was mild and the level of needle damage was independent of substrate and EMF
21 colonisation. Needle damage severity caused by *Gremmeniella abietina* was high in seedlings
22 grown in substrates with high nutrient availability as well as in seedlings with well-
23 established EMF communities. These results show that albeit *M. bicolor* is able to protect
24 spruce seedlings against *Heterobasidion* root rot in axenic cultures it fails to induce systemic
25 protection against foliar pathogens. We also point out that unsterile inoculum sources, such as
26 the forest humus, should not be considered for use in greenhouse conditions as they might
27 predispose seedlings to unintended needle damages.

28 Keywords: *Meliniomyces bicolor*, *Botrytis cinerea*, *Gremmeniella abietina*, forest nurseries,
29 integrated pest management IPM, *Picea abies*

30 **1 Introduction**

31 Norway spruce (*Picea abies*) is the most widely used tree species in Northern forest
32 nurseries; In Finland more than 100 million Norway spruce seedlings are produced annually
33 (Finnish Food safety Authority 2010–2016). During and after winter storage in forest
34 nurseries spruce seedlings are vulnerable to various microbial diseases. Grey mould *Botrytis*
35 *cinerea* commonly infects spruce seedlings by spreading from diseased seedlings to healthy
36 ones during winter storage or thawing resulting in mild discoloration spots or even total
37 decay of needles (Petäistö 2006). Another disease showing belated symptoms after winter
38 dormancy is the ascomycete *Gremmeniella abietina* that causes Brunchorstia disease in pine
39 and spruce. The fungal hypha of *G. abietina* spreads inside the aboveground plant tissues
40 during dormancy. The infection becomes visible gradually during the following growing
41 season as browning of needles in the mid-section of the shoot, discolouring of foliage,
42 presence of resin impregnated necrotic stem lesions and sometimes even dieback of the
43 whole shoot (Petäistö 2008, Børja *et al.*2006).

44 During the first years after out planting, Norway spruce seedlings commonly suffer from pine
45 weevil damage (*Hylobius abietis*) (Luoranen *et al.*2017) but in longer term, also from root rot
46 caused by *Heterobasidion annosum sensu lato*, the group of most severe fungal coniferous
47 tree pathogens in northern temperate regions, particularly in Europe. In Finland, two
48 *Heterobasidion* species, *H. annosum sensu stricto* and *H. parviporum* (Niemelä and
49 Korhonen 1998), infect spruces of all ages causing root and butt rot. *Heterobasidion* root rot
50 becomes a risk especially at previously infected regeneration sites, where old conifer stumps
51 as well as decaying root pieces in soil colonised by *Heterobasidion* spp. act as infection
52 sources for the next tree generation (Stenlid 1987, Piri 1996, Piri 2003). On infested sites, the
53 first spruce seedlings can be infected by *Heterobasidion* root rot already four to five years
54 after planting (Piri and Hamberg 2015). *H. annosum* and *H. parviporum* inhabit tree roots and
55 spread via belowground root contacts (Garbelotto and Gonthier 2013) thus overlapping with
56 habitats of symbiotic ectomycorrhizal fungi (EMF) in forest soils.

57 Formerly fungal diseases in seedling production have been tackled with chemical fungicides,
58 but due to the restricting legislation and banning of several chemicals (European Parliament
59 2009) there is an urgent need of integrated pest management that can be cost efficiently
60 utilized in forest nurseries. Mycorrhizal fungi have suggested triggering signals that move
61 through plants causing biochemical changes affecting growth allocation, nutrition levels,
62 inducible defence mechanisms and resistance as well as host vitality (Whipps 2004).

63 In arbuscular mycorrhizal angiosperm plants both positive and negative feedbacks have been
64 observed between aboveground and belowground microbial communities; Priming and
65 protective systemic effects against microbial and invertebrate pathogens have been shown to
66 move to distal plant organs (Pozo and Azcón-Aguilar 2007, Pineda *et al.*2010) but the
67 outcome seems to be context dependant (Jung *et al.*2012). Arbuscular mycorrhiza-induced
68 jasmonic acid-regulated resistance boosts host aboveground durability towards pathogens
69 with a necrotrophic lifestyle but in contrast may make the host more susceptible to biotrophic
70 and viral pathogens (Pozo and Azcón-Aguilar 2007, Jung *et al.*2012).

71 Induced resistance has shown to move from roots to shoots also in Norway spruce, as root
72 inoculation with the mycorrhiza helper bacterium *Streptomyces* sp. increased needle
73 resistance against *B. cinerea* (Lehr *et al.*2007). Furthermore, Rajala *et al.*(2013) found a
74 negative relationship between the abundance of fungal needle endophytes and the EMF
75 richness on Norway spruce. Some earlier studies have tested the biocontrol potential of EMF
76 against soil and air derived plant pathogens in conifers, but again the effects seem to be
77 fungal strain specific and vary according to the physiological state of the host (Zhang *et*
78 *al.*2011, Farquhar and Peterson 1991, Hwang *et al.*1995, Martín-Pinto *et al.*2006). In the
79 case of unspecific general responses of Norway spruce to fungi, the effects of symbiotic EMF
80 *Pisolithus tinctorus* on peroxidase activity and on the amount of free salicylic acid in roots
81 seem to be transient in comparison to the more permanent effects caused by *H. annosum*
82 (Likar and Regvar 2008). EMF may still permanently modify the chemical content of distal
83 organs as the colonisation by EMF *Hebeloma bryogenes* and *Cadophora finlandica* reduced
84 seedling growth but increased nutrient content and photosynthetic pigment levels in needles
85 of Norway spruce (Mrnka *et al.* 2009). Thus there is an increasing interest in the long-term
86 effects of these interactions on distant plant parts. Furthermore, it is important to address the
87 effects of EMF on growth allocation, access to nutrients, and the formation of induced and
88 constitutive defence (Bonello *et al.* 2006).

89 *Paxillus involutus* (Basidiomycota) and *Meliniomyces bicolor* (Ascomycota) form
90 ectomycorrhizal associations with Norway spruce roots in boreal forests. *M. bicolor* is part of
91 the *Pezoloma ericae* (formely *Rhizoscyphus ericae*) aggregate including phylogenetically
92 related fungi (*M. variabilis*, *R. ericae* and *C. finlandica*) inhabiting roots of both hardwood
93 and herbaceous plants in various habitats, both in the Northern and Southern hemisphere
94 (Vrålstad *et al.* 2000, Hambleton and Sigler 2005, Bruzone *et al.* 2017). Individual genets of
95 fungal species belonging to the *P. ericae* aggregate can simultaneously form both ericoid and

96 ectomycorrhizal associations (Grelet *et al.* 2010). Previously it has been found that certain
97 isolates of *P. involutus* and *M. bicolor* were able to restrict or even halt the growth of *H.*
98 *parviporum* and *H. annosum* strains *in vitro* on nutrient agar plates in laboratory (Hyder *et*
99 *al.*2013). Hence, we aim to test in triaxenic cultures how certain EMF isolates, that have
100 shown to be antagonistic against *Heterobasidion* species *in vitro*, affect the viability of
101 Norway spruce seedlings. In addition, we study the effects of the antagonistic EMF *M.*
102 *bicolor* on spruce growth allocation, and susceptibility of distant organs towards necrotic
103 foliar pathogens *B. cinerea* and *G. abietina* in conventional forest nursery conditions. As a
104 result, we gather elementary knowledge prior to compile recommendations for the use of
105 certain EMF strains in nursery.

106 **2 Material and Methods**

107 ***2.1 Triaxenic testing of protective effects of EMF against Heterobasidion root rot***

108 *2.1.1 Fungal strains and preparation of vegetative inoculum*

109 The ectomycorrhizal strains that outperformed standard antagonism against *H. parviporum*
110 and *H. annosum* (Hyder *et al.* 2013) were selected to be used in the triaxenic test (Table 1).
111 Additionally, *Thelephora terrestris*, a common nursery EMF, and a common root endophyte
112 *Phialocephala fortinii* were included as non-antagonistic controls. *H. parviporum* isolates
113 were collected from Norway spruce (isolate A) thinning stump and from living trees (B,C)
114 and *H. annosum* isolates from final cutting stumps (D, E) of Scots pine in southern Finland.
115 All fungal isolates were collected from different stands and represented different genotypes
116 based on pairing tests (Stenlid 1985). Vegetative mycelia of *H. parviporum* (A, B, C) and *H.*
117 *annosum* (D, E) were grown on Brown & Wilkins (1985) agar on Petri dishes. Twice
118 autoclaved wooden sticks (121 °C 60 min; Ø 3mm x 20mm) were placed on top of the
119 cultures for three weeks to allow mycelia to grow into the sticks. The ectomycorrhizal, root
120 endophytic and *Heterobasidion* fungal isolates used in this study were obtained from the
121 culture collection of the Natural Resources Institute Finland, except *P. involutus* BOUX
122 which originates from France, INRA-Nancy. *T. terrestris* strain was initially isolated from a
123 mycorrhizal root tip of a Norway spruce seedling (Flykt *et al.* 2008). *M.bicolor* and *P. fortinii*
124 were isolated similarly from spruce mycorrhizas and the Finnish *P. involutus* strains were
125 originally isolated from fruiting bodies (details in Vuorinen *et al.* 2015).

126 *2.1.2 Preparation of triaxenic synthesis tubes*

127 The potential of EMF isolates to protect Norway spruce seedlings from *H. annosum* and *H.*
128 *parviporum* was tested using a modification of the synthesis tube system described previously
129 by Timonen *et al.* (1993). Briefly, surface sterilized (30% H₂O₂ 15 min) seed-orchard-seeds
130 of Norway spruce (ROI-89-1002 SV. 109) of southern Finnish origin were germinated on
131 glucose (5%) agar plates. After germination seedlings were transferred into glass tubes (Ø 25
132 mm x 200 mm) on 9 ml slants of Brown & Wilkins agar covered with Leca-clay balls (acid
133 washed and twice autoclaved for 20 min 121°C) moistened with 2,5 ml of Modified Melin-
134 Norkrans (Marx 1969) nutrient solution with reduced sugar and malt content (½ MMN).
135 Tubes were closed with cotton wool plugs.

136 2.1.3 Tube experiment

137 Triaxenic synthesis tubes containing spruce seedlings were placed in Conviron PGR15
138 growth chambers (Controlled environments Ltd., Manitoba, Canada) under 280 µM light
139 intensity at 23 °C and 65% humidity with a 16 h day length, and 8 hours of darkness. Lights
140 were composed of high pressure sodium (250W, Lumalux®, Sylvania) and metal halide
141 (250W, Britelux®, Sylvania) light bulbs (Feilo Sylvania Finland Oy).

142 At the age of four weeks, 30 replicate seedlings per each root associated fungi (Table 1) were
143 inoculated with two agar plugs taken from the peripheral growth zone of an actively growing
144 fungal colony in ½ MMN agar. 30 seedlings were left as uninoculated controls. Tubes were
145 incubated for six weeks and ectomycorrhiza formation was assessed by dissecting
146 microscope prior to further inoculations with pathogens. *Heterobasidion* isolates (A–E) were
147 introduced into the system by placing wood sticks colonised with each isolate close to the
148 base of the seedlings. This resulted in total 48 treatments with five replicate seedlings each;
149 seedlings pre-infected with six EMF fungi, one endophyte and no EMF-control, and all these
150 challenged with five *Heterobasidion* isolates and the pathogen free control treatment.
151 Seedlings were grown in growth chambers for four months and irrigated with 2 ml of sterile
152 water once a month.

153 After altogether six months, as soon as the seedlings seemed to reach stationary stage, the
154 vitality of the seedlings was assessed visually to a five-step discrete variable according to the
155 following classification: i) dead seedlings with totally brown needles (B), ii) chlorotic
156 needles with brown lesions (CB), iii) chlorotic needles (C), iv) light green needles (LG), and
157 v) healthy seedlings possessing only green needles (G). Seedlings were removed from the

158 tubes, washed, dried in +70°C and weighed for their biomass. The roots of seedlings with
159 severe *Heterobasidion* infection had already started to decay before the sampling.

160 **2.2 Impact of antagonistic EMF on susceptibility to foliar pathogens**

161 *2.2.1 Preparation of plant and EMF material for the nursery experiment*

162 In late May seed-orchard-seeds of Norway spruce (ROI-89-1002 SV. 109) were sown in six
163 Plantek-81F containers (vol 85 cm³, BCC) on top of unfertilized blonde sphagnum peat
164 (PP03, Kekkilä Group, Vantaa, Finland) supplemented with five different inoculums (Table
165 2) from which one contained 15% (vol:vol) vegetative fungal hypha of *M. bicolor* grown in
166 solid silica-based malt extract medium as in Vuorinen *et al.*(2015) (Table 2). The vitality of
167 EMF vegetative inoculum was confirmed on ½ MMN agar.

168 In each of the six containers (9 × 9 plants per container) two rows (9 plants in a row) were
169 randomly filled with one of the four treatment substrates (18 seedlings/substrate/container),
170 and one row of each container was filled with conventional fertilized blonde Sphagnum-peat
171 (Ctrl treatment, Table 2). The seedlings were germinated in a glasshouse, and transferred
172 outside to the nursery field in the end of June. Between June and August each seedling was
173 fertilized weekly with approximately 5 ml 0.1% w:w liquid fertilizer Turve Superex® N-P-K
174 (12–5–27) (Kekkilä Group, Vantaa, Finland) to keep the peat conductivity as low as 0.5–1
175 mS cm⁻¹. The experiment was established at the Haapastensyrjä nursery, Southern Finland
176 and plants were grown in the Suonenjoki nursery (62.625N, 27.122E) in Eastern Finland.

177 *2.2.2 Preparation of spore suspensions and foliar infection*

178 The foliar inoculations with the two fungal pathogens *Botrytis cinerea* and *Gremmeniella*
179 *abietina*, and the uninfected water only- treatment were performed in early June and August.
180 Two out of six Plantek-81F containers were randomly chosen to each foliar treatment and
181 labelled accordingly, totalling in 36 replicate seedlings per treatment and 18 replicate Ctrl
182 seedlings in fertilized peat (Table 2). *B. cinerea* was grown on potato dextrose agar (PDA) at
183 +17 °C for three days in darkness followed by three to seven days under photoperiodic
184 ambient lighting (16 hours of light:8 hours of dark). The *B. cinerea* spores from the fungal
185 cultures were liberated into 10 ml of sterile water by rubbing the plates with a sterile glass
186 rod. Hyphae from the spore suspension were removed by running the suspension through
187 sterile cotton gauze. *G. abietina* was grown on autoclaved wheat substrate (10 g wheat and 25
188 ml distilled water in 100 ml growth bottle) for one to two months at +17 °C under artificial

189 light with the photoperiod of 16 hours of light and 8 hours of dark. The spore mass on the
190 culture was collected by a sterile loop and suspended into 20 ml of sterile water. The number
191 of spores was counted by Neubauer-improved chamber (Wertheim, Germany). Before
192 inoculation, the shoots were sprayed with tap water to moisten the foliage. The seedlings
193 were spray-inoculated with 2 ml of spore suspension of either *B. cinerea* isolate BcSjk1.1
194 (Petäistö *et al.* 2004) or *G. abietina* containing ca. 300 000 spores/ml. The vitality of spore
195 suspensions was confirmed by monitoring the spore germination on PDA plates. The water
196 only-seedlings were sprayed with 2 ml of autoclaved tap water. After inoculation, the
197 seedlings were maintained in greenhouse under plastic cover for three days and the shoots
198 were repeatedly sprayed with tap water to keep the foliage humid. Thereafter the seedlings
199 were grown in a plastic greenhouse ventilated by opening side panels and doors. The
200 seedlings were monitored daily for two weeks after the inoculation. A throughout inventory
201 of needle damage was done twice, in October after the growing season and in May after
202 wintering in the open field nursery under natural snow cover.

203 *2.2.3 Sampling and determination of fungal colonisation*

204 In early June seedling height was measured and roots were carefully washed with tap water.
205 From each combination of foliar and growth substrate treatments ten replicate root systems
206 were randomly chosen for EMF colonisation assessment.

207 EMF colonisation and number of fungal morphotypes were determined under dissecting
208 microscope. Representative root tips from each morphotype were amplified with the Thermo
209 Scientific Phire Plant Direct PCR Kit® as described in detail in Velmala *et al.* 2013. Root tips
210 were crushed in 20 µl Dilution Buffer and 1 µl was used as template in a 25 µl reaction
211 volume, and amplified with primers ITS1F (Gardes and Burns 1993) and ITS4 (White *et*
212 *al.* 1990). PCR products were separated in 1% Synergel (Diversified Biotech, MA, USA) for
213 3h 120V. Distinguishable bands were cut and dissolved in water, and used as template for re-
214 amplification with DreamTaq DNA Polymerase (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA)
215 with the same primers for 25 cycles. End products were sequenced by the Macrogen
216 Sequencing Service (Macrogen Europe, The Netherlands) using the ITS4-primer. The
217 sequences were revised in Geneious R6.1.8 (Biomatters, Auckland, New Zealand, available
218 from <http://www.geneious.com/>). The OTUs were identified by comparing the sequences
219 against sequences in UNITE (<http://unite.ut.ee/>) and the INSD database. Sequences are
220 deposited in GenBank under the accession numbers MF947534–MF947542.

221 2.2.4 Determination of biomass and nitrogen content

222 Roots and shoots were separately oven dried for 48h in 50°C and weighted for biomass
223 determination. Needle nitrogen concentration was determined with a CHN-100 analyser
224 (Leco, analysis based on ISO 10694 and ISO 13878 standards) in Natural Resources Institute
225 Finland. Before analysis 200 mg powdery needle sample (from 0.5 g of dry needles
226 homogenised in 2 ml screw cap tubes with FastPrep® (MP Biomedicals, CA, USA) for 2 x
227 30s with 4.5 m/s speed) from three replicate seedlings from each row of the water only-
228 treatment were pooled resulting in altogether four samples per growth substrate.

229 2.3 Statistical analyses

230 The data from both experiments was analysed as linear models with R software version 3.2.3.
231 (R Core Team 2015). We used *glht* function from ‘multcomp’ (Hothorn *et al.* 2008) package
232 to make Dunnett’s multiple comparison of means and to calculate the confidence intervals for
233 general linear hypotheses. Model assumptions for homogeneity of variances, and normality
234 of residuals were checked by plotting residuals against fitted values, and creating a Q-Q plot
235 of residuals. Bar plot figures were plotted with ‘ggplot2’ (Wickham 2009) and arranged in
236 grids with ‘gridExtra’ (Aguie 2016) packages.

237 2.3.1 Triaxenic tube experiment

238 As the explanatory variable we used a 24 level variable that was coined to cover all eight
239 combinations of root associated fungi with either no pathogen (=control), *H. parviporum* (A-
240 C) or *H. annosum* (D, E). All treatments were compared to the reference, 0-level, seedlings;
241 No inoculation with root associated fungi and no pathogens. Shoot and root biomass were
242 fitted as linear models with *lm* function. For needle vitality class response variable we fitted
243 a generalised linear model *glm* assuming Poisson error distribution and log link function (no
244 over-dispersion was observed). The relationship between vitality and root and shoot growth
245 were calculated as Pearson’s product-moment correlations.

246 2.3.2 Foliar pathogen experiment in the nursery

247 As the explanatory variable we used a 15 level variable that was coined to cover all foliar and
248 growth substrate combinations. All treatments were compared to the reference level
249 seedlings; water only- foliar treatment grown in Ctrl fertilized peat (Table 2). Root biomass,
250 shoot:root- ratio, and shoot height were fitted as linear models with *lm* function. For EMF

251 colonisation and needle damage percentage response variables we fitted a generalised linear
252 model *glm* with binomial error distribution and logit link function. EMF richness count was
253 analysed as a generalized model assuming Poisson error distribution and log link function (no
254 over-dispersion was observed). N content and concentration was analysed as linear models
255 with growth substrate as the explanatory variable, and all substrates were compared to Ctrl
256 fertilized peat substrate. The relationship between EMF, *Meliniomyces* sp., *T. terrestris*, *C.*
257 *geophilum* and *Amphinema* sp. colonisation, and species richness with needle damage %, N
258 content, shoot and root growth were calculated as Pearson's product-moment correlations.

259 **3 Results**

260 **3.1 Triaxenic testing of spruce, EMF and root rot pathogen *Heterobasidion* spp.**

261 The vitality of seedlings varied between green healthy seedlings and slightly chlorotic yellow
262 phenotypes when no pathogens were present (Fig. 1a). When seedlings without any root
263 associated fungi were subjected to either *H. parviporum* or *H. annosum* isolates they turned
264 brown and died. In general, it seemed that all EMF provided some protection against root
265 pathogens, and seedling needle vitality was only slightly lowered in most treatments (Fig.
266 1a). *H. parviporum* or *H. annosum* isolates did not show within species differences and thus
267 the results are bulked together within *Heterobasidion* species.

268 Through the treatments, shoot biomass was the highest in *T. terrestris* and *P. involutus 2*
269 inoculated seedlings. *M. bicolor* inoculated seedlings had the most even shoot growth when
270 infected with *Heterobasidion* isolates (Fig. 1b), and showed least disease symptoms under *H.*
271 *annosum* infection (Fig. 1a). The correlation between vitality and shoot biomass was
272 moderate (0.53, $P < 0.001$).

273 Root growth responded differently to various root inoculations; when *Heterobasidion* was
274 present root growth was significantly reduced in seedlings inoculated with *P. fortinii* and
275 *P. involutus 1*. *P. fortinii* and *P. involutus 1* also resulted in the lowest vitality classes even
276 without pathogens present (Fig. 1a). *P. involutus* strains 2, 3, and 4 were able to efficiently
277 protect seedlings against *Heterobasidion* infection, even though some discoloration and
278 redness of needles was more common than with other EMF. Roots inoculated with *M. bicolor*
279 and *T. terrestris* were least affected by *Heterobasidion* isolates (Fig. 1c). Root biomass had a
280 strong positive correlation with vitality class ($r = 0.7$, $P < 0.001$) indicating that root growth in
281 *in vitro* set ups can be used to extrapolate the vitality of seedlings.

282 3.2 Impact of *M. bicolor* on susceptibility of spruce seedlings against foliar pathogens

283 3.2.1 Needle damage became visible after winter dormancy

284 Needle damage in autumn after the first growing season in nursery was low ($1.35 \pm 0.1\%$) and
285 no statistically significant differences could be observed between the treatments. After winter
286 dormancy, needle damage caused by necrotrophic pathogens became visible, and in May
287 clear symptoms with almost half of the needles injured could be seen in *G. abietina* infected
288 seedlings (Fig. 2a). Needle damage in spring was statistically significantly higher in *G.*
289 *abietina* infected seedlings than in the Ctrl seedlings treated with water only. The foliage of
290 water only- treated seedlings suffered some damage especially when growing in Humus
291 substrate, which possessed even higher amount of needle damage than *B. cinerea* infected
292 seedlings (Fig. 2a).

293 Mortality of the nursery experiment seedlings after winter was low, less than 0.7%. The
294 highest mortality rates were observed when seedlings were exposed to *G. abietina* and *B.*
295 *cinerea* foliar treatments; 15 out of 162 seedlings died in both *G. abietina*- (evenly in all
296 growth substrates) and in *B. cinerea*- treatments (half growing in sieved humus and the rest in
297 Me, Ctrl-M, and Ctrl-H substrates). Only four seedlings died during the experiment from the
298 water only- treatment and again mostly from the humus substrate.

299 3.2.2 *B. cinerea* and *G. abietina* caused needle damage despite EMF colonization

300 EMF colonisation in either *M. bicolor* or *Humus* treatments did not protect seedlings against
301 foliar pathogens: *B. cinerea* infection severity seemed to be independent of growth substrate
302 and EMF status. On the contrary, the severity of needle damage caused by *G. abietina* was
303 high in growth substrates containing EMF inoculum (Me, Humus) or well-balanced nutrients
304 (Ctrl) (Fig. 2a, Table 2).

305 3.2.3 Needle N content was lowest in seedling growing in EMF inoculated substrates

306 Shoot height and biomass as well as root biomass were affected by both foliar pathogen
307 treatments and growing substrate (Figs 2b and 2c). Fertilized peat (Ctrl) and sterile humus
308 (Ctrl-H) inoculations ensured the best shoot growth. These seedlings were on average 20%
309 taller than in other treatments (Fig. 2b). Furthermore, the good nutrient status in Ctrl and Ctrl-
310 H treatments was also reflected as the highest total N contents of needles (3.40 ± 0.11 mg and
311 3.65 ± 0.30 mg, ns, respectively). The lowest N content was found in *M. bicolor* inoculated
312 seedlings (2.09 ± 0.35 mg, $P < 0.001$), and Ctrl-M (2.48 ± 0.13 mg, $P < 0.01$) and Humus

313 treatments (2.55 ± 0.07 mg, $P < 0.05$) when compared to the reference level (Ctrl). Needle N
314 content correlated negatively with *Meliniomyces* sp. colonisation ($r = -0.49$, $P < 0.01$), and
315 positively with colonisation percent of *T. terrestris* ($r = 0.45$, $P < 0.01$) and *Amphinema* sp.
316 (0.36 , $P < 0.05$) and EMF species richness ($r = 0.40$, $P < 0.02$). Needle N concentration was on
317 average $1.14 \pm 0.03\%$ in all growth substrates.

318 Roots had significantly lower biomass in Ctrl-M and *M. bicolor* inoculated substrates
319 compared to uninoculated Ctrl substrate, especially when exposed to *B. cinerea*. The
320 infection by *G. abietina* reduced root growth statistically significantly in all substrates except
321 Ctrl-H (Fig. 2d), and shoot growth was restricted even more than root growth as the
322 shoot:root- ratios were statistically significantly lower after *G. abietina* infection than in the
323 water only- foliar treatment (Fig. 2c). EMF colonisation % had a weak positive relationship
324 with root growth ($r = 0.29$, $P < 0.001$). Furthermore, EMF species richness had a weak positive
325 relationship with both shoot and root biomass ($r = 0.24$ and $r = 0.26$, $P < 0.001$).

326 3.2.4 Roots were well colonized with *M. bicolor*

327 As expected EMF colonisation was highest in *M. bicolor* inoculated substrate, almost 87%,
328 but there was a lot of variation in colonisation levels between seedlings in different
329 treatments (Table 3). In all the other substrates, roots were abundantly colonised (from one
330 fifth to almost 60%) with *Thelephora terrestris*. Also other root associated fungi were found
331 in lower quantities on the roots; forest humus inoculated seedlings, Humus, hosted the most
332 diverse fungal community associated to their roots comprising *Amphinema*, *Tylospora*,
333 *Cenococcum*, *Meliniomyces*, *Varicosporium*, *Phialocephala*, *Psilocybe* and
334 *Archaeorhizomyces* fungal genera (Table 3).

335 4 Discussion and conclusions

336 In the triaxenic tube experiment EMF colonisation of spruce roots by *M. bicolor*, *T. terrestris*
337 and three out of four *P. involutus* isolates provided protection against *Heterobasidion* root
338 rot, and as in the study by Hyder *et al.* (2013), the strongest protective effect was provided by
339 the ascomycetous EMF *M. bicolor*. In general the same strains, that were found to be
340 antagonistic to each other when subjected to mycelial confrontation *in vitro* (Hyder *et*
341 *al.* 2013), had positive impacts on the viability of the seedlings also in present triaxenic
342 system which contained a tree seedling as the tested subject. However, a few exceptions were
343 found, most probably due to differences in experimental systems; the variable protective

344 mechanisms of EMF against root pathogens may include production of antifungal substances,
345 induction of inhibitory compounds and root exudates from the host plant, and even microbial
346 competitive potential amongst other things (Marx 1969, Marx 1973, Duchesne *et al.* 1989,
347 Chakravarty and Hwang 1991, Buscot *et al.* 1992). For example the *T. terrestris* strain, that
348 did not show any antagonism against *Heterobasidion* isolates *in vitro* plate tests (Hyder *et*
349 *al.* 2013), provided protection against the less aggressive root rot species *H. parviporum*
350 (Swedjemark and Stenlid 1995) in the present study. *T. terrestris* grew thick external mycelia
351 in the tubes (data not shown) and thus most likely formed also a physical barrier around the
352 roots. Furthermore, *T. terrestris* seemed to provide efficient nutrient allocation to support
353 good growth. Similarly Buscot *et al.* (1992) reported greater vigour of mycorrhizal Norway
354 spruce seedlings when inoculated with *P. involutus* and *Laccaria laccata* since EMF could
355 have increased host protection through reinforcement of plant resistance and production of
356 antifungal phenolics even though no direct antagonism was present. Likar and Regvar (2008)
357 noted that induction of defence cascade after inoculation with the EMF *P. tinctorius* was only
358 transient, and thus they claimed that Norway spruce could recognise the infecting fungus and
359 activate and adjust appropriate defence mechanisms. Then again EMF colonisation have
360 shown explicit protective effects against *Heterobasidion* spp., and also other root pathogenic
361 fungi (*Rhizoctonia solani*, *Fusarium* damping-off, *Ilyonectria destructans* (in both pine and
362 spruce (Farquhar and Peterson 1991, Hwang *et al.* 1995, Buscot *et al.* 1992, Zhang *et al.* 2011,
363 Martín-Pinto *et al.* 2006). Thus also in root tips that were highly covered with dense *M.*
364 *bicolor* hypha, fungal colonization might have provided a physical protective barrier around
365 roots in addition to direct antagonism of *M. bicolor* against *Heterobasidion*.

366 The most evident exceptions in the tube experiment were *P. involutus* isolate 1 and the root
367 endophyte *P. fortinii*, which lacked all antagonism, and tended to reduce the fitness of the
368 seedlings even in the absence of root pathogens. Similar within species variability of
369 antagonistic abilities of certain EMF (*P. involutus*) against *Heterobasidion* isolates has
370 previously been reported amongst others by Červinková (1989). The root endophyte
371 *Phialocephala sphareoides* was shown to protect spruce seedlings from *H. parviporum* root
372 infections *in vitro* by means of antifungal metabolites (Terhonen *et al.* 2016). Yet the
373 antagonistic abilities of root endophytes are variable; Tellenbach *et al.* (2013) found only one
374 antagonistic root endophytic fungal strain from over 80 tested isolates. Furthermore, also
375 growth reduction in spruce, caused by the root endophyte *P. fortinii*, has been previously
376 reported by Reininger *et al.* (2012), although they emphasize that plant growth responses are

377 both fungal strain and host species dependent. Despite possible negative correlations between
378 host biomass and endophytic biomass it has also been speculated that spruce might even
379 actively attract root endophytic fungi to provide protection against more serious pathogens
380 (Tellenbach *et al.* 2011). Nevertheless, the present results suggest that this hypothesis may
381 not hold with the necrotrophic *Heterobasidion* sp. pathogens.

382 *M. bicolor* was selected from the tube experiment for further testing in nursery conditions as
383 it showed good antagonistic and protective properties *in vitro*. It has also shown to be a
384 suitable EMF species for large scale inoculum production (Vuorinen *et al.* 2015), and to
385 abundantly colonize the roots of spruce. However typically the exploration of the **extraradical**
386 **mycelium of ericoid mycorrhizal** fungal species of the *P. ericae* aggregate **is narrow (Read**
387 **1984) and** there is no evidence for the formation of large mycelial networks (Grelet *et al.*
388 2010).

389 In the nursery experiment, the infection of foliar pathogen *G. abietina* caused severe damage
390 after winter in particular in seedlings growing in conventional fertilized peat (Ctrl), in contact
391 with *M. bicolor* or in forest humus containing natural microbial fauna and flora. Hence, on
392 the contrary to its effectiveness towards root pathogens *M. bicolor* was not able to provide
393 protection from the foliar *G. abietina* infection. *G. abietina* changed resource allocation
394 towards roots, as the decrease in growth was stronger in shoots than in roots. The addition of
395 forest soil microbes along with humus increased the EMF diversity, N contents and biomass
396 of the seedlings but did not provide benefits against foliar pathogens. Instead, the addition of
397 fresh unheated humus seemed to be a slight risk factor probably due to the exposure of
398 seedlings to wild needle damage caused by the microbes of the soil.

399 The only soil treatment where shoot and especially root growth seemed to be unaffected by
400 *G. abietina* was the heat-treated humus. These seedlings also had the highest N storage in
401 their needles and the best root and shoot growth within all the substrates. This was probably
402 due to the autoclaving of humus that released microbe-bound nutrients or other beneficial
403 compounds into the growing media without exposing seedlings to potential pathogens.
404 Heating of humus up to less than 200 degrees Celsius has shown to increase the quantity of
405 water soluble potassium (K) and phosphorus (P) without yet reducing the levels of N (White
406 *et al.* 1973). Seedlings growing in the heat-treated humus were also the ones most abundantly
407 colonised by EMF *T. terrestris*. *T. terrestris* has been found to secrete both N and P
408 solubilizing exoenzymes in moderate quantities (Velmalala *et al.* 2014a), and the seedlings with
409 high *T. terrestris* colonisation had high N content in our study.

410 Good nutritional status increases seedling survival (van der Driessche 1992). Seedlings
411 grown in conventional fertilized peat invested more resources belowground when exposed to
412 foliar stress by *B. cinerea* compared to the situation with no foliar stress, as has been reported
413 previously (Velmala *et al.* 2014b). Lack of nutrients seemed to reduce shoot and root growth
414 significantly in Ctrl-M and *M. bicolor* inoculated treatments. Reduced growth was especially
415 clear under foliar stress caused by *B. cinerea* and *G. abietina* when compared to the
416 conventional (Ctrl) substrate. The frequently reported short term slowdown effects of EMF
417 on shoot growth in early developmental stages of seedlings (Corrêa *et al.* 2006, Vaario *et al.*
418 2009) could clearly be seen also in the present study, even though the amplitude seems to be
419 milder under high N availability.

420 Seedlings inoculated with forest humus had the highest EMF richness, and established widely
421 associations with both basidio- and ascomycoteus fungi that are recognized as EMF and
422 endophytic fungi commonly found on spruce (Vohnik *et al.* 2013, Rosling *et al.* 2011).
423 However proportions of other EMF than *T. terrestris* were minor, underlining the strong
424 competitive strength of *T. terrestris* in nursery conditions. Yet, foliar infection of *G. abietina*
425 seemed to reflect in ectomycorrhizal formation as the colonisation degree of these seedlings
426 was the lowest in all substrates except for the heat-treated humus substrate. Similarly, we
427 have found that severe exposure to the needle pathogen *Gibberella avenacea* has a slight
428 negative effect on the EMF richness on Norway spruce seedlings showing slow long-term
429 growth performance (Velmala *et al.* 2014b). Regardless of these indications of basipetal, top-
430 down, movement of pathogen induced systemic signals we found no signs of EMF induced
431 acropetal systemic effects. Moreover, in the present study the positive effect of high EMF
432 colonization and diversity seems to be due to either direct antagonism or root mediated
433 improved nutritional status. Thus, it seems that the host-microbe interactions are highly
434 species and even strain-specific, and no general responses can be expected without
435 throughout knowledge on the identity of the organisms. It appears very characteristic to
436 EMF-host interactions that the within-species variations of effects on host performance are as
437 high as the variation among different EMF species (Pennanen *et al.*, unpublished). Our results
438 also contradict the findings on the effects of *C. finlandica*, the close relative of *M. bicolor*, on
439 spruce needle chemistry (Mrnka *et al.* 2009) which further supports our claim that even
440 phylogenetically closely related EMF species may induce very different effects in trees.

441 **In conclusion**, our study showed that there are several potential EMF isolates that protect
442 Norway spruce seedlings towards *Heterobasidion* root rot *in vitro*. Nevertheless, seedlings

443 that were inoculated with the antagonistic EMF isolate *M. bicolor* or were naturally colonised
444 by *T. terrestris* in the nursery showed variable aboveground susceptibility towards foliar
445 pathogens in nursery. Before introducing EMF inoculations into forest nursery practice
446 further studies of possible effects of the tripartite interactions should be considered.

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453 **6 Figure captions**

454 **Figure 1** Seedling vitality classes and growth of six month-old Norway spruce seedlings
455 grown in glass tubes on Brown and Wilkins -media and inoculated with seven root associated
456 fungi and subjected to *Heterobasidion* spp. pathogens. Seedling vitality is scored based on
457 visual symptoms: the highest class includes only green needles (G), the middle classes light
458 green (LG) and chlorotic needles (C), and the lowest classes either chlorotic needles with
459 brown lesions or totally brown dead needles (B). Figure panels group *H. parviporum* and *H.*
460 *annosum* infected seedlings visually together. The mycorrhizal inoculum is visible on the X-
461 axis; (details in Table 1). Grey bars indicate that there is no statistically significant difference
462 between the treatments and white bars show that the treatment in question differ statistically
463 significantly ($P < 0.05$) from the leftmost base line 0 treatment (no EMF and no
464 *Heterobasidion*). The black error bars show the 95% confidence interval of the mean ($n=5$).

465 **Figure 2** Needle damage %, and shoot and root growth of 1-yr-old Norway spruce seedlings
466 in spring after wintering under natural snow cover grown in different substrates and subjected
467 to two foliar fungal diseases *Botrytis cinerea* and *Gremmeniella abietina*. Figure panels
468 group seedling subjected to same foliar treatments visually together (Water only, *B. cinerea*
469 and *G. abietina*). The growth substrate is visible on the X-axis: **Ctrl** conventional fertilized
470 peat, **Me** inoculated with EMF *M. bicolor*, **Humus** inoculated with natural forest humus layer
471 and their sterilized controls **Ctrl-M** (no EMF) and **Ctrl-H** (sterilized humus), respectively
472 (details in Table 2). All treatments are compared to the leftmost reference level **Ctrl-**

473 treatment that is fertilized peat and **water only**- foliar treatment; Grey bars indicate that there
474 is no statistically significant difference, and white ($P < 0.05$) and light grey ($0.05 < P < 0.1$) bars
475 show that the treatment in question differ statistically significantly from the **Ctrl**-reference
476 treatment. The black error bars show the 95% confidence interval of the mean.

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628

629 **Tables**

630

631 **Table 1** The root associated fungal strains used in the triaxenic tube experiment

Name	Fungi	Antagonism against <i>Heterobasidion</i> spp.
0 (reference level)	No EMF	-
<i>Pfor</i>	<i>Phialocephala fortii</i> R-RS07	No antagonism ^{a, b}
<i>Mbic</i>	<i>Meliniomyces bicolor</i> R-MF01	Large inhibition ^b
<i>Tter</i>	<i>Thelephora terrestris</i> R-NC10 ^c	No antagonism ^a
<i>Pinv1</i>	<i>Paxillus involutus</i> F-CY01	Small inhibition ^a
<i>Pinv2</i>	<i>Paxillus involutus</i> BOUX	Small inhibition ^{a, b}
<i>Pinv3</i>	<i>Paxillus involutus</i> F-SS02	Medium inhibition ^b
<i>Pinv4</i>	<i>Paxillus involutus</i> F-YF05	Medium inhibition ^b

632 a) *H. annosum* b) *H. parviporum* c) isolate MT43205. Inhibition zone data is derived from Hyder *et al.* 2013.

633

634 **Table 2** Content and labelling of the growth substrates used in the foliar pathogen experiment
635 in nursery

Name	Growth media	Inoculum	V:V	Replicates
Ctrl	Fertilized blonde Sphagnum-peat ^a	None	1:0	18
Ctrl-M	Unfertilized blonde Sphagnum-peat ^b	Sipernat® growing matrix ^c	9:1	36
Me	Unfertilized blonde Sphagnum-peat ^b	<i>Meliniomyces bicolor</i> R-MF01 in Sipernat® growing matrix ^c	85:15	36
Ctrl-H	Unfertilized blonde Sphagnum-peat ^b	Sterilized forest humus ^d	1:1	36
Humu s	Unfertilized blonde Sphagnum-peat ^b	Forest humus layer ^d	1:1	36

636 **a)** White 420 F6 is a fertilized, and **b)** PP03 is unfertilized, and pH adjusted (pH 4-5) blonde Sphagnum peat
637 (Kekkilä Group, Vantaa, Finland). **c)** Solid silica-based cultivation matrix according to Vuorinen *et*
638 *al.* 2015 containing Sipernat® (Evonik Resource Efficiency GmbH, Essen, Germany), 2,5%
639 Maltax 10 brewery malt extract (Senson Oy, Lahti, Finland) and 0.5 g/l Lignohumate AM
640 (Amagro, Prague, Czech Republic). **d)** The humus was excavated from the uppermost layer of fine
641 sandy till of a Norway spruce stand out planted in 1993 at the nearby Ruotsinkylä research area located in
642 southern Finland (60.359012; 25.004210). Sterilization was performed twice, 20 min 121°C with a two days
643 interval.

644

645 **Table 3** EMF colonisation % and species richness of roots in the foliar pathogen experiment
 646 in nursery

647 1-yr-old Norway spruce seedlings were grown in different substrates and subjected to two
 648 foliar fungal diseases *Botrytis cinerea* and *Gremmeniella abietina*, and the **water only**-
 649 control. The growth substrates were fertilized peat **Ctrl**, unfertilized peat inoculated with *M.*
 650 *bicolor* **Me**, unfertilized peat inoculated with natural forest humus layer **Humus** and their
 651 sterilized controls **Ctrl-M** and **Ctrl-H**, respectively (details in Table 2). Mean \pm 1SE for each
 652 treatment are presented separately. Largest mean values are highlighted with grey fill colour,
 653 nd not detected.

		<i>Water only</i>	<i>B. cinerea</i>	<i>G. abietina</i>
Root tips with no EMF	<i>Ctrl</i>	55.1 \pm 13.4	47.5 \pm 9.61	78.0 \pm 9.49
	<i>Ctrl-M</i>	60.6 \pm 14.4	38.8 \pm 13.4	67.0 \pm 9.61
	<i>Me</i>	13.3 \pm 3.20	11.3 \pm 1.89	14.6 \pm 4.26
	<i>Ctrl-H</i>	56.8 \pm 14.0	50.4 \pm 14.3	37.4 \pm 8.82
	<i>Humus</i>	47.7 \pm 14.3	45.9 \pm 14.4	63.6 \pm 11.1
<i>Amphinema</i> sp. ^a	<i>Ctrl</i>	0.10 \pm 0.10 ^{Ab}	0.10 \pm 0.10	nd
	<i>Ctrl-M</i>	nd	0.10 \pm 0.10 ^{Ab}	1.60 \pm 1.49 ^{Ab}
	<i>Me</i>	nd	nd	nd
	<i>Ctrl-H</i>	0.10 \pm 0.10	nd	nd
	<i>Humus</i>	1.00 \pm 1.00	1.50 \pm 1.50	nd
<i>Meliniomyces</i> sp. ^a	<i>Ctrl</i>	0.50 \pm 0.22 ^{Mb}	2.20 \pm 1.08	0.40 \pm 0.22 ^{Mb}
	<i>Ctrl-M</i>	0.20 \pm 0.13	3.60 \pm 1.97	2.20 \pm 1.00 ^{Mv}
	<i>Me</i>	86.7 \pm 3.20 ^{Mb}	88.7 \pm 1.89 ^{Mb}	85.4 \pm 4.26 ^{Mb}
	<i>Ctrl-H</i>	2.90 \pm 2.47	4.30 \pm 3.98	3.70 \pm 2.08
	<i>Humus</i>	7.4 \pm 3.96	2.60 \pm 1.26 ^{Mb}	7.70 \pm 4.83
<i>Thelephora terrestris</i>	<i>Ctrl</i>	43.4 \pm 13.7	50.1 \pm 9.72	21.5 \pm 9.39
	<i>Ctrl-M</i>	38.9 \pm 14.4	57.3 \pm 13.9	29.2 \pm 10.2
	<i>Me</i>	nd	nd	nd
	<i>Ctrl-H</i>	39.8 \pm 13.2	43.6 \pm 14.5	58.3 \pm 8.71
	<i>Humus</i>	42.2 \pm 11.8	44.4 \pm 12.0	24.8 \pm 8.11
<i>Cenococcum geophilum</i>	<i>Ctrl</i>	nd	0.10 \pm 0.10	0.10 \pm 0.10
	<i>Ctrl-M</i>	0.30 \pm 0.15	0.10 \pm 0.10	nd
	<i>Me</i>	nd	nd	nd
	<i>Ctrl-H</i>	0.20 \pm 0.13	nd	nd
	<i>Humus</i>	1.40 \pm 0.98	3.90 \pm 2.08	3.20 \pm 1.97
Other ^b	<i>Ctrl</i>	0.90 \pm 0.90 ^{Vc}	nd	nd
	<i>Ctrl-M</i>	nd	0.10 \pm 0.10 ^{Pf}	nd
	<i>Me</i>	nd	nd	nd
	<i>Ctrl-H</i>	0.20 \pm 0.13 ^{Pf}	1.70 \pm 1.16 ^{Pf, Ta}	0.60 \pm 0.50 ^{Pf}
	<i>Humus</i>	0.30 \pm 0.21 ^{Pf, Vc}	1.70 \pm 1.06 ^{Pf, Tf, A}	0.70 \pm 0.52 ^{Pf, Ta}
Total root colonisation ^c	<i>Ctrl</i>	44.9 \pm 13.4	52.5 \pm 9.61	22.0 \pm 9.49
	<i>Ctrl-M</i>	39.4 \pm 14.4	61.2 \pm 13.40	33.0 \pm 9.61
	<i>Me</i>	86.7 \pm 3.20	88.7 \pm 1.89	85.4 \pm 4.26
	<i>Ctrl-H</i>	43.2 \pm 14.0	49.6 \pm 14.3	62.6 \pm 8.82
	<i>Humus</i>	52.3 \pm 14.3	54.1 \pm 14.4	36.4 \pm 11.1
Richness ^c	<i>Ctrl</i>	1.60 \pm 0.22	1.60 \pm 0.31	1.20 \pm 0.29
	<i>Ctrl-M</i>	1.20 \pm 0.25	1.80 \pm 0.20	1.70 \pm 0.21
	<i>Me</i>	1.0 \pm 0.0	1.0 \pm 0.0	1.0 \pm 0.0
	<i>Ctrl-H</i>	1.70 \pm 0.40	1.40 \pm 0.31	1.70 \pm 0.15
	<i>Humus</i>	2.20 \pm 0.33	2.30 \pm 0.47	2.10 \pm 0.31

654 a) Some samples identified even to species level: *Amphinema byssoides*, *Meliniomyces bicolor* and *M.*
 655 *variabilis*. b) Other includes infrequent root associated fungi: *Varicosporium elodeae*, *Phialocephala fortinii*,
 656 *Archaeorhizomyces* sp., *Tylospora fibrillosa*, *Tylospora asterophora*. c) significant differences in EMF total
 657 colonisation between the reference level F6 fertilized sphagnum peat substrate in water only- foliar treatment
 658 (underlined) and *Me* treatments are emphasized with strengthen italics (P<0.05) and italics (P<0.1). No
 659 statistically significant differences in EMF richness between treatments.

660