

1 **Tree-ring volatile terpenes show potential to indicate fungal infection**
2 **in asymptomatic mature Norway spruce trees in the Alps**

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18 Volatile terpenes (VT) content in tree-ring resin, in response to natural infection by
19 *Heterobasidion* spp. in asymptomatic mature Norway spruce (*Picea abies*) trees was
20 investigated. Twenty-three randomly selected mature trees were sampled in a stand in the
21 western Italian alps by extracting cores using an increment borer. Based on fungal isolations
22 from cores⁴ and molecular typing using taxon-specific competitive-priming (TSCP)-PCR, 12 out of
23 the 23 trees were identified as infected by *Heterobasidion parviporum*. Tree-ring growth

24 patterns and VT content in tree rings were determined. Analysis of VT content was performed
25 by means of gas chromatography mass spectrometry on a subset of trees. Results show slightly
26 but not significantly lower tree-ring width in infected compared to non-infected trees in the
27 past two decades. Total concentrations of sesquiterpenes and relative proportions of α -pinene,
28 β -pinene and longifolene were significantly greater in infected trees; while relative proportions
29 of camphene, 3-carene, *p*-cymene, sesquiterpene 15.90 and α -farnesene were significantly
30 lower. This is the first study showing that VTs in tree-ring resin may indicate infection of trees
31 by a fungal forest pathogen, even when trees are mostly asymptomatic.

32

33 **Introduction**

34 Inducible volatile terpenes (VTs) are abundantly produced and released by different plant organs
35 following abiotic stresses (e.g., Loreto and Schnitzler, 2010; Leonelli et al., 2014) and biotic attacks,
36 including those by insects and pathogens (e.g., Holopainen, 2004; Jansen et al., 2011).

37 In conifers, VTs are produced and stored in several plant structures, including constitutive resin ducts
38 (CRDs), i.e., species-specific wood anatomical characteristics, and traumatic resin ducts (TRDs). Resin is
39 toxic for most pathogens due to its composition and physical properties (Phillips and Croteau, 1999). In
40 fact, resin contains monoterpenes, diterpenes and sesquiterpenes and some, especially when produced
41 and released abundantly, are known to be insecticidal, antimicrobial and fungicidal (Schuck, 1982;
42 Michelozzi, 1999; Trapp and Croteau, 2001). Conifer resin is produced in bark, phloem and xylem by
43 constitutive and inducible secretory structures, releasing primary and secondary resin, respectively.

44 In Norway spruce [*Picea abies* (L.) Karst], resin accumulates both in CRDs and in TRDs, which
45 appear within the developing xylem after mechanical wounding, in stem xylem. The formation of TRDs
46 associated with enhanced production of VTs is part of a complex mechanism of plant defence that is
47 activated to induce the successful tree reaction to the attack of pathogens and mechanical damage
48 (Franceschi et al., 2000; Nagy et al., 2000; Fäldt et al., 2003; Krokene et al., 2008; Gärtner and Heinrich,
49 2009; Danielsson et al., 2011; Brauning et al., 2016). TRDs considerably enhance the oleoresin content of

50 Norway spruce, considering that they are larger, and thus their volume is much higher, than CRDs. TRDs
51 usually develop in high number in the proximity of the injury caused by mechanical wounding or
52 pathogens, and their number decreases as the distance from the wound increases (Schmidt et al., 2011).
53 TRDs are commonly used for dating events which injure the cambium in geomorphology (e.g., Stoffel,
54 2008; Butler et al., 2010; Garavaglia and Pelfini, 2011), but their frequency and distribution within tree
55 rings are poorly investigated. In some tree species, most of the resin ducts seem to develop in the
56 latewood (Reid and Watson, 1966), but their distribution is highly variable within the same tree, due to
57 environmental and climatic conditions (Wimmer et al., 1999).

58 Norway spruce is susceptible to heart rots caused by some fungi included in the *Heterobasidion*
59 *annosum sensu lato (s.l.)* species complex, namely *H. annosum* (Fr.) Bref. and *H. parviporum* Niemelä &
60 Korhonen (Garbelotto and Gonthier, 2013). While the former species is more generalist being able to
61 attack several coniferous tree species, the latter displays a preference for Norway spruce. Regardless of
62 which one of the two species is involved, the disease is mostly asymptomatic in mature trees. In fact, the
63 progressive development of the decay in the heartwood rarely results in the appearance of external
64 symptoms (Garbelotto and Gonthier, 2013). Heart rots caused by *Heterobasidion* spp. are among the most
65 destructive and widespread diseases of Norway spruce in Europe, including the Alpine region (Asiegbu et
66 al., 2005; Gonthier et al., 2012; Giordano et al., 2015). Infection occurs through airborne spores (primary
67 infections) colonising freshly exposed wood surfaces (stumps or wounds in the stem or roots).
68 Subsequently, the fungus can infect uninjured trees by vegetative growth of mycelium through root
69 contacts or grafts (secondary infections) (Garbelotto and Gonthier, 2013).

70 The production of spores by *Heterobasidion* spp. is more abundant when air temperature are
71 above 5°C (Gonthier et al., 2005). For this reason, climate warming may prolong the time interval
72 favourable for sporulation and infection during the year for *Heterobasidion* spp, The altitude at which
73 pathogens can be found may also be shifted to higher elevations (La Porta et al., 2008).

74 Defensive strategies and VT production are usually studied under controlled experimental conditions
75 obtained from controlled crosses, and that are artificially inoculated with the pathogen (e.g., Cellini et

76 al., 2014; Piesik et al., 2015) or in which the pathogen attack is mimicked by treatment with
77 methyljasmonate (e.g., Arnerup et al., 2013). In particular, experiments conducted on Norway spruce
78 revealed that the oleoresin of trees affected by *Heterobasidion* spp. was different to that of non-
79 affected trees in terms of amounts of (+)- α -pinene, (+)-sabinene, (-)-sabinene, δ -3-carene, (-)-limonene
80 and γ -terpinene (Zamponi et al., 2007). However, we are not aware of any studies conducted on the
81 oleoresin content of mature trees infected by *Heterobasidion* spp. in forest stands. Moreover, little is
82 known about VT production in asymptomatic trees. A better understanding of this topic may be crucial
83 for developing strategies allowing the set-up of useful markers enabling the early diagnosis of tree
84 diseases, that could prevent losses in forest productivity, and to assess which factors can influence the
85 climatic signal recorded in tree rings at high altitude (Leonelli et al., 2012).

86 The main aim of this research was to detect possible differences in VT content in tree-ring resin in
87 response to natural infection by *Heterobasidion* spp. in asymptomatic mature Norway spruce trees.
88 Tree-ring growth was also analysed in infected and non-infected trees in order to investigate if any
89 difference in growth patterns could be attributed to the presence of the pathogen.

90

91 **Methods**

92 *Study site and sampling design*

93 The study site is located in the Western Italian Alps at about 1450 m a.s.l. close to the area called
94 Ermitage (45°47'46.11"N; 6°58'56.39"E), in the municipality of Courmayeur (Aosta Valley Region),
95 where *Heterobasidion* spp. were previously detected in a mature mixed Norway spruce-European larch
96 (*Larix decidua* Mill.) forest stand. About 55% of trees were estimated to be infected (Gonthier et al.,
97 2012). The stand, with a standing volume of 227 m³ ha⁻¹ and a density of 410 trees ha⁻¹, was thinned in
98 1995. This area and adjacent valleys, i.e., Val Veny and Val Ferret, have been well studied in order to
99 better understand the impact of the climatic and related environmental changes on vegetation (for a
100 review see Bollati et al., 2015).

101 In an attempt to compare a similar number of infected and putatively non-infected trees, 23 randomly
102 selected trees were sampled at the end of June 2015 by extracting four wood cores at 90° from one
103 another at the base of stems (20 cm above the ground) using a Pressler's increment borer (for details
104 about sampling techniques see, e.g., Pelfini et al., 2007). The minimum and mean distance among
105 sampled trees was 25 m and 80 m, respectively. The diameter at breast height (DBH) of sampled trees
106 ranged between 68 cm and 145 cm (mean 99 cm). Cores were transported to the laboratory in plastic
107 straws and stored at 5°C before subsequent analyses. Two cores were used for isolation and pathogen
108 detection, one for the dendrochronological analyses and one for VT analyses in tree rings (Fig. 1).

109

110 *Pathogen detection and identification at species level*

111 Cores were sprayed with a benomyl solution (0.010 g benomyl, 500 µL methanol, 1 L distilled water) and
112 incubated for about 10 days at room temperature (25°C ± 2°C) in a moist chamber as described by
113 Gonthier et al. (2003). After incubation cores were inspected under a dissecting microscope (x20
114 magnification) in order to check for the presence of emerging colonies of the conidial stage of
115 *Heterobasidion* spp.

116 Fungal isolations were made by transferring infected wood or fungal hyphae onto 6-cm Petri dishes
117 containing a PCNB-based selective medium for *Heterobasidion* spp. (Kuhlman and Hendrix, 1962). All
118 isolates were subsequently subcultured and stored at 5°C on MEA (malt extract agar: 20 g glucose, 20 g
119 malt extract, 2 g peptone, 20 g agar, 1 L distilled water).

120 DNA from fungal isolates was extracted by a hyphal tipping method (Schweigkofler et al., 2004),
121 modified as follows: fungal mycelium was collected with the tip of a micropipette and suspended in 100
122 µL of distilled water, frozen on dry ice for 3 minutes, thawed at 75°C, vortexed for 1 minute, and finally
123 centrifuged for 5 minutes at 19,000 g. Freezing and thawing were repeated three times, with the last
124 thaw extended to 15 minutes. Samples were then centrifuged for 5 minutes at 19,000 g and the
125 supernatant was used as template for polymerase chain reactions (PCRs). Identification of

126 *Heterobasidion* isolates at the species level was carried out by a taxon-specific competitive-priming

127 (TSCP)-PCR (Garbelotto et al., 1996) combined with a PCR-mediated detection of species-specific DNA
128 insertions in the ML5-ML6 DNA region of the mitochondrial large ribosomal RNA (mt LrRNA) gene as
129 described by Gonthier et al. (2001).

130

131 *Dendrochronological analysis*

132 The cores were prepared for tree-ring dating and ring-width measurements following standard methods
133 (Stokes and Smiley, 1968), usually applied in dendrochronological studies conducted in mountain
134 environments and in the nearest geographical areas (e.g., Pelfini et al., 2007; Garavaglia et al., 2010).
135 Tree-ring widths were measured to the nearest 0.01 mm using the LINTAB system with the TSAPWin
136 software (Frank Rinn, Heidelberg, Germany), and the obtained series were visually and statistically
137 cross-dated using the COFECHA software (Grissino-Mayer, 2001) in order to find and correct any dating
138 error in the dataset. Two main ring-width mean chronologies were built: one, named “pathogen”, using
139 the trees found to be infected by *Heterobasidion* spp., and one, named “no pathogen”, using trees
140 putatively non-infected by the pathogen.

141 To analyse tree-ring growth trends in the two groups of trees, the raw ring-width series were
142 standardized using the software Arstan (Holmes, 1992) and a residual chronology for each category was
143 prepared applying a negative exponential curve.

144

145 *VT analysis in tree rings*

146 Five trees infected and five trees putatively non-infected by *Heterobasidion* spp. were selected for the
147 analyses of VTs. Selection was mainly based on the overall conditions of the cores: priority was given to
148 the cores with no broken tree rings, at least in the terminal part of the core, and characterised by easily
149 identifiable tree rings. The last five tree rings of each core (corresponding to the years from 2010 to
150 2014) were split from each other using a scalpel, for a total of 50 samples (Fig. 1).

151 VT relative content was determined by means of gas chromatography mass spectrometry. For this
152 procedure, about 25 mg of cortical and xylem tissues were placed into a sterilised vial, and 200 μ L of

153 pentane with tridecane as internal standard was added to each vial, after which the vials were put in a
154 Soltec ultrasound machine Sonica 2200 S3 at the temperature of 30°C for 60 minutes. The vials were left
155 in a Gerhardt Thermoshake THO 5 for 24 hours, and the extracts were then filtered with 0.45 µm PTFE
156 syringe filters and injected (3 µL) in the GC-MS system. An Agilent 7820 GC-chromatograph equipped
157 with a 5977A MSD mass spectrometer with EI ionisation operating at 70 eV was used for analysis. A
158 chromatographic column J&W Innovax 50 m, 0.20 mm, ID 0.4 µm DF was used. The GC injection
159 temperature was 250°C, splitless mode, and the oven was programmed at 40°C for 1 minute, followed
160 by a ramp of 5°C/minute to 200°C, and of 10°C/minute to 260°C. This high temperature was held for 5
161 minutes. Mass spectra were acquired within the 29-350 M/Z interval with an Agilent 5977 MSD
162 spectrometer at three scans s⁻¹. VT identification was done on the basis of both peak matching with
163 library spectral database (NIST 08) and Kovats indices as retrieved in literature for the identified
164 compounds.

165 Total absolute amounts (total concentrations) of monoterpenes (total MTs) and sesquiterpenes (total
166 SQTs) were expressed as milligrams of terpenes per grams of fresh tree tissue and they were analysed
167 by non-parametric Mann-Whitney U Test, in order to test differences between the two groups
168 “pathogen” and “no pathogen”.

169 The relative amount (proportions or percentages) of each monoterpene was expressed as a percentage
170 of total monoterpenes (monoterpene profiles), while the relative amount of each sesquiterpene was
171 expressed as a percentage of the sum of mono- and sesquiterpenes (terpene profiles). The average and
172 standard error (SE) of the percentage were calculated for each compound and compared between
173 “pathogen” and “no pathogen” trees.

174 In order to analyse variations in total concentrations of terpenes of Norway spruce tree rings between
175 different sampling years we performed the statistical Friedman Test. Friedman test results
176 (Supplementary material: tables S1 and S2) showed no significant variations in total MTs, SQTs, MTs +
177 SQTs and the relative content of terpenes between different sampling years; based on these results,
178 mean value of total MTs, SQTs, MTs + SQTs and relative content of terpenes were calculated within

179 treatment from 2010 to 2014. Mean values were not normally distributed (Kolmogorov-Smirnov one-
180 sample test) and were analysed using the Mann-Whitney U Test for comparison among disease
181 treatments of the plants. A 0.05 threshold was used as cut-off value for all analyses. Statistical analyses
182 were carried out using SPSS (statistical package for social science, SPSS software, v.22.0, SPSS Inc.,
183 Chicago, USA).

184

185 **Results**

186 *Pathogen detection and identification at species level*

187 Out of the 23 sampled trees, 12 were infected by *Heterobasidion* spp. (52%) while the remaining 11
188 samples were putatively non-infected by the pathogen. None of the cores analysed displayed visible
189 symptoms of wood decay. Based on the molecular diagnostic assay, all infected trees were colonized by
190 *H. parviporum*.

191

192 *Dendrochronological analysis*

193 The tree-ring width mean chronologies covered the period 1902-2015 for “pathogen” trees and 1901-
194 2015 for “no pathogen” trees. Median age was similar for the two series, i.e., 65 years for “pathogen”
195 trees and 64 years for “no pathogen” trees. The two mean chronologies showed similar growth trends,
196 especially after 1970 when more than five trees contributed to the chronology (Fig. 2, continuous line).
197 “Pathogen” trees were characterised by slightly, but not significantly, lower tree-ring width in the last 15
198 years compared to “no pathogen” trees. The two residual chronologies show similar growth patterns
199 along the entire considered time interval, with the more recent relative peaks of positive growth in 1998
200 (“pathogen” trees) and 2000 (“no pathogen” trees) (Fig. 3).

201

202 *VT analysis in tree rings*

203 *Changes in total concentrations*

204 Mann-Whitney U test results showed that mean values of SQTs were significantly different ($\chi^2 = 5.8$; $P <$
205 0.05) between “pathogen” and “no pathogen” trees, while mean values of MTs ($\chi^2 = 0.9$; $P = 0.35$) and
206 MTs plus SQTs ($\chi^2 = 0.8$; $P = 0.34$) did not show significant differences between the two groups (Fig. 4).

207

208 *Changes in the relative content of terpenes (terpene profiles)*

209 The Mann-Whitney U test showed significant differences in the relative content of 8 terpenes between
210 tree rings of “pathogen” and “no pathogen” trees. As regards the monoterpenes, α -pinene ($\chi^2 = 4.8$; $P <$
211 0.05) and β -pinene ($\chi^2 = 5.8$; $P < 0.05$) were significantly higher in “pathogen” trees compared to “no
212 pathogen” trees, while camphene ($\chi^2 = 6.8$; $P < 0.01$), 3-carene ($\chi^2 = 6.8$; $P < 0.01$), and p -cymene ($\chi^2 =$
213 6.81 $P < 0.05$) were significantly higher in “no pathogen” compared to “pathogen” trees. The
214 monoterpenes sabinene ($\chi^2 = 1.8$; $P = 0.18$), myrcene ($\chi^2 = 1.7$; $P = 0.17$), limonene ($\chi^2 = 0.3$; $P = 0.60$), β -
215 phellandrene ($\chi^2 = 0.1$ $P = 0.75$), cineole ($\chi^2 = 2.6$; $P = 0.11$) and γ -terpinene ($\chi^2 = 0.9$; $P < 0.35$) did not
216 show statistically significant differences between the two groups.

217 Among the analysed sesquiterpenes, sesquiterpene 15.90 ($\chi^2 = 3.9$; $P < 0.05$) and α -farnesene ($\chi^2 = 3.9$; P
218 $= 0.05$) showed higher proportions in “no pathogen” compared to “pathogen” trees, while higher
219 relative contents of longifolene were observed in infected compared to non-infected samples ($\chi^2 = 5.7$; P
220 < 0.05). α -Humulene ($\chi^2 = 0.3$; $P = 0.6$) and β -caryophyllene ($\chi^2 = 1.8$; $P = 0.18$) did not show significant
221 differences between the analysed categories (Fig. 5).

222

223 **Discussion**

224 This study represents the first attempt to detect possible differences in mono- and sesquiterpene
225 content in annual tree rings of adult asymptomatic Norway spruce trees in response to natural infection
226 by a fungal pathogen, i.e., *Heterobasidion* spp.

227 All *Heterobasidion* infected trees were colonized by *H. parviporum* and none by *H. annosum*, thus
228 confirming that the overwhelming majority of Norway spruce decays in the area are caused by the
229 former species, as previously documented (Gonthier et al., 2003). Although the dates of infection of

230 trees remain unknown, which may complicate the interpretation of the results of this work, all lines of
231 evidence suggest infection occurred relatively recently, possibly in the last 15 years. First, none of the
232 cores analysed displayed visible symptoms of decay, pointing to a recent upward colonization of the
233 fungus from the point of infection in the roots. Second, the infection courts for primary infections by
234 means of airborne spores, i.e. stumps, have been most likely created during thinning performed in 1995.
235 Third, and incidentally, the mean ring-width chronology of trees infected by *H. parviporum* showed
236 lower values starting from the late 1990s compared with non-infected trees, and this may suggest
237 infection of trees occurred at that time. In fact, growth reduction in conifers is common during infection
238 by fungi, e.g. *Heterobasidion parviporum* (Gori et al., 2013). This pattern was also observed by Cherubini
239 et al. (2002) on *Pinus mugo* Turra trees killed by *H. annosum* and *Armillaria* sp. Although these authors
240 found a more remarkable difference in ring-width between infected and non-infected trees than we did
241 in this study, it should be noted that pine trees compared to Norway spruce trees are more susceptible
242 to root rot and mortality rather than heart rot (Garbelotto and Gonthier, 2013), and this may explain the
243 higher levels of growth reduction in pines than in Norway spruce trees (Mallett and Volney, 1999).
244 The progressive reduction in tree-ring width can affect the climatic signal recorded in tree rings, thus
245 negatively influencing dendroclimatic reconstructions (Trotter et al., 2002). Our results, even if limited
246 to only a small number of trees, support previous investigations conducted on conifers, revealing that
247 Norway spruce infected by *Heterobasidion* spp. shows lower tree-ring width compared to non-infected
248 trees (Cherubini et al., 2002).
249 Total concentrations of both monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes were lower in trees infected by *H.*
250 *parviporum* compared to putatively non-infected ones and, for sesquiterpenes, the difference between
251 “pathogen” and “no pathogen” trees appeared to be significant. Both mono- and sesquiterpenes have
252 an important role in counteracting pathogen infection in Norway spruce trees. However, the Friedman
253 Test did not show any significant difference in the terpene content between different years
254 (Supplementary material), suggesting that this method does not allow the identification of any
255 difference in terpene content following pathogen infection at the yearly resolution.

256 The relative content (percentage) of the monoterpenes α -pinene and β -pinene and of the sesquiterpene
257 longifolene are significantly higher in infected compared to non-infected trees. In particular, the
258 monoterpenes α -pinene and β -pinene are known for their role in conifer defence strategies in stems
259 and roots (Huber et al., 2005). These results are in agreement with research performed by Zamponi et
260 al. (2007) on branches of Norway spruce trees experimentally inoculated with *H. parviporum*. In that
261 study, α -pinene and β -pinene were significantly different between infected and non-infected trees,
262 which is also in agreement with our study. However, there were some differences between our study
263 and the results obtained by Zamponi et al. (2007), i.e., we did not detect a significant increase in the
264 relative content of 3-carene and myrcene following *Heterobasidion* attack. These differences could be
265 due to the tissues colonized by the pathogens in the two studies, i.e. heartwood vs sapwood,
266 respectively. In fact, while branches, hence sapwood, was inoculated with *Heterobasidion* spp. by
267 Zamponi et al. (2007), it is likely that our adult Norway spruces were colonized by *H. parviporum* in the
268 heartwood as it occurs as a general rule (Garbelotto and Gonthier, 2013).

269 The relative content of the monoterpenes camphene, 3-carene and p -cymene and of the sesquiterpenes
270 sesquiterpene 15.90 and α -farnesene was significantly lower in infected compared to non-infected
271 trees. This can be a consequence of the defence mechanism activated by the tree following infection:
272 the plant reduces the production of the biologically less active compounds and increases the synthesis
273 of the more toxic terpenes (Michelozzi, 1999). When the infection begins, Norway spruce trees start
274 increasing the level of several terpenes in order to contrast the pathogen attack but if the defence
275 mechanism is not successful (Luchi et al., 2005), then the tree reduces the production of the terpenes
276 that are less effective for restricting the pathogen, because their production has a relevant cost for the
277 tree itself (e.g., Ghimire et al., 2016).

278

279 **Conclusions**

280 In summary, this study reveals that both dendrochronological and VT analyses may indicate fungal
281 infection in adult trees. In particular, the tree-ring mean chronology showed lower values in infected

282 compared to non-infected trees in the more recent years and the relative content of some terpenes, i.e.,
283 α -pinene, β -pinene and longifolene showed significantly higher values in infected compared to non-
284 infected trees. This is the first study suggesting that VT composition in tree rings may be an indicator of
285 fungal disease and this is particularly important in the case of Norway spruce, where external symptoms
286 of infection, for example by *H. parviporum*, are usually poor. A future study considering different
287 geographical regions and trees from diverse genetic lineages, as well as a larger sample size, should be
288 carried out to identify which markers can be used for the identification of diseased trees.

289

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295

296 **Conflict of interest statement**

297 None declared.

298

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486 **Figure captions**

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488 **Figure 1.** Experimental design of the analyses.

489 **Figure 2.** Ring-width mean chronologies for “pathogen” and “no pathogen” trees. Discontinuous lines
490 characterize the curve built with less than five trees.

491 **Figure 3.** The two residual chronologies “pathogen” and “no pathogen”. Discontinuous lines characterize
492 the curve built with less than five trees.

493 **Figure 4.** Mean (+ SE) values of total monoterpenes (MTs), sesquiterpenes (SQTs) and mono +
494 sesquiterpenes (MTs + SQTs) concentrations detected in tree rings of “pathogen” and “no pathogen”
495 trees. Values of columns with different letters differ significantly ($P < 0.01$).

496 **Figure 5.** Average percentage of terpenes in “pathogen” and “no pathogen” tree rings. Statistical
497 difference was determined by Mann-Whitney test. Error bars indicate SE. Values of columns with
498 different letters differ significantly (the values of statistical significance are reported in the text).

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