

1 **Lost and gained: climate-induced redistribution of black truffle in Spain**

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10
11 **Abstract:** Spain is the world's leading producer of black truffle (*Tuber melanosporum* Vittad.) due to a
12 distinct combination of edaphic properties and climatic conditions within the growing season.
13 Relatively cold winters and moderate summer precipitation are key for a productive harvest; however,
14 climate projections foresee a spatially-diverse warming, favoring extreme temperatures and drought
15 conditions which will affect the future of the species' distribution. We used a combination of three
16 machine-learning-based species distribution modeling methods: maxent, random forest, and boosted
17 regression trees, to estimate the current and future habitat potentiality in mainland Spain, based on
18 historical observations and a collection of environmental variables, previously demonstrated as critical
19 parameters for the modeling of black truffle presence. Results showed a notable change in the
20 distribution under two future scenarios, with a total loss between -22 and -32 % of the current habitat,
21 especially in zones with hot temperatures and low precipitation. This was partially compensated with
22 the colonization of new areas (+25 % in both scenarios) in colder and more humid climates of
23 northwestern Spain. Thus, the Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP) 4.5 scenario showed a net
24 extent gain of +2.7 % and the RCP8.5 a net loss of -6.9 %, being annual and summer temperatures the
25 variables with the unequal behavior. Overall, the most changing distributions in future scenarios were
26 associated with maximum summer temperatures, summer precipitation, elevation and edaphic pH.
27 While significant differences were found in the contribution of the predictors to the three models, their
28 results of the spatial distribution were similar.

29
30 **Keywords:** Black truffle (*Tuber melanosporum*); Species Distribution Modeling (SDM); climate
31 projections; habitat suitability; machine learning.

34 1. INTRODUCTION

35 Black truffle (*T. melanosporum* Vittad.) grows wild in open oak forests in southern Europe, although
36 today most of its production is harvested in plantations made with previously inoculated seedlings under
37 controlled conditions (García-Barreda et al. 2020). Its cultivation has expanded throughout the world
38 in recent decades, with Spain currently being the world's leading producer thanks to the success of
39 cultivation in the depopulated rural areas (Reyna & García-Barreda 2014, García-Barreda et al. 2020).
40 Although the number of black truffle plantations is increasing, it is still not enough to satisfy the current
41 demand, making it a reason for the high prices of this fungus.

42 This activity is of great importance both economically and socially. The economic contribution of this
43 crop to rural economies implies a settlement of the population in the territory revitalizing the areas
44 where it is established. However, the installation of new plantations has not been a planned process, but
45 rather based on previous experiences by the truffle growers. Thus, the cultivation of truffles in Spain
46 has been a complementary activity to agriculture and livestock farming. Therefore, it is essential to
47 develop appropriate planning to achieve a well-ordered rural territory, which requires tools that enable
48 managers, foresters and farmers to make decisions based on scientific knowledge. One of these tools is
49 the territorial modeling of potential or suitability for the species (Alonso Ponce et al. 2010, Serrano-
50 Notivoli et al. 2015, Serrano-Notivoli et al. 2016).

51 Black truffles grow entirely underground and live in association with the roots of certain trees or shrubs
52 such as oaks (*Quercus sp.*) and hazelnuts (*Corylus hazelnuts L*) among others. The symbiosis is
53 materialized by mycorrhizae, which are located at fine root tips and provoke morphological alterations
54 of the host absorptive roots. Mycorrhization improves the nutritional status and the physiological
55 response of host plants, whereas the fungus receives carbohydrates that improve its biological fitness.
56 The fruitbody of the fungus forms deep in the soil and is very fragrant so that certain animals, such as
57 wild boars or various insects, discover it and, by eating it, disperse the spores (Reyna & De Miguel
58 2012).

59 In addition to these biotic factors, the environmental requirements for truffle presence are mainly of
60 climatic, topographical and edaphic nature. The species prefers Mediterranean climates with mild
61 springs and relatively warm summers, autumns without early frosts that can prevent the maturation of
62 sporocarps and winters without extreme cold. The annual precipitation range has been reported to be
63 between 485 and 1,500 mm/year, with a minimum of 72 mm of rainfall during the summer months,
64 although there may also be areas that exceed these thresholds. In Spain, most wild truffles are found
65 between 600 and 1,200 m above sea level (m.a.s.l.) on south-facing slopes. However, in lower latitudes
66 there is a greater tendency for sites with natural truffles to thrive on higher elevations or north-facing
67 slopes and truffle harvesting is most often carried out on sites with slight slopes (< 15 %) (Fischer et al.
68 2017). Lastly, soil texture conditions such as the amount of calcium carbonate present, organic matter
69 present, or the concentration of certain macronutrients such as carbon or nitrogen are important factors
70 in relation to the edaphic properties. All these factors apply for mainland Spain, where *T. melanosporum*
71 naturally grows in slightly alkaline soils, rich in calcium carbonate and somewhat stony, with between
72 1 and 8 % of organic matter and at a depth between 10 and 40 cm (Colinas et al. 2007). The species is
73 adapted to semi-arid and Mediterranean climates with summers marked by dry periods and summer
74 storms, no frost in early autumn, and winters lacking long periods of cold with minimum temperatures
75 below -10°C for several days in a row. Favorable annual temperatures fall between 8 and 18 °C with
76 minimum temperatures above 0 °C and maximum temperatures of 24 °C on average (Serrano-Notivoli
77 et al. 2015). Thus, it requires narrow environmental conditions being closely related to Mediterranean
78 climate (Serrano-Notivoli et al. 2015), however, only a few previous works addressed the potential
79 habitat of the species.

80 At European level, the ecological requirements of two truffle species, *T. melanosporum* and *T. aestivum*
81 Vittad., were compiled by Cejka et al. (2020), finding that the dominant drivers of the species' presence
82 are related to climate variables along with physical edaphic properties (mainly pH). At the regional
83 level in Spain, different maps of truffle suitability have already been drawn up, such as those for
84 Zaragoza (Serrano-Notivoli et al. 2016), Huesca (Serrano-Notivoli et al. 2015), Teruel (Alonso Ponce
85 et al. 2010, Barriuso et al. 2016), Catalonia (Colinas et al. 2007), Valencia (Domínguez et al. 2003),
86 León (Rodríguez-Pérez et al. 2008), and Castilla y León region (Águeda et al. 2011). However, there is

87 not a national-scale initiative to unveil the potential habitat of the species. Most of the previous studies
88 used a Multi-Criteria Evaluation (MCE) approach, with all the limitations of basing the process of
89 categorization of the variables on expert judgment.

90 In the last two decades, statistical methods related to spatial analysis and environmental data using
91 machine learning (ML) techniques have been increasingly used to model or somehow spatially
92 interpolate species distributions over large spatial extensions (Philips et al. 2006, Elith et al. 2006,
93 2008a), known as *species distribution modelling* (SDM) (Franklin 2009). SDM offer applications such
94 as species and habitat conservation plans (Cabeza et al. 2004, Peterson et al. 2006, Falcucci et al. 2009),
95 adaptation to climate change (Thuiller 2003, Hijmans & Graham 2006, Trivedi et al. 2008) or the
96 invasion of species that are not native to the area (Peterson & Vieglais 2001, Peterson 2003,
97 Broennimann & Guisan 2008), among other population viability analyses, environmental risk
98 assessment and ecosystem modelling. SDM estimates the similarity of conditions at any location to
99 conditions at locations of known occurrence (and perhaps non-occurrence) of a phenomenon, such as
100 predicting the ranges of species with climate data as predictors.

101 In the present work, we modelled for the first time the current habitat potentiality of the black truffle in
102 mainland Spain through three ML-based SDM: maxent, random forest and boosted regression trees,
103 using a collection of historical presences and seven environmental parameters as predictors. Based on
104 these models, we estimated the future potential distribution in two different climatic scenarios (RCP4.5
105 and RCP8.5). We produced a weighted ensemble prediction based on model performance (AUC),
106 supported by a cross-validation with 500 iterations, thereby improving the spatial robustness and
107 reliability, and a replicable modeling framework that could be applied to other regions or
108 ectomycorrhizal species. Lastly, the choice of an intermediate time horizon (2041–2070) offers more
109 practical guidance for land-use planning and rural adaptation than long-term or extreme-scenario
110 studies.

111 We hypothesize that ongoing and future climate change will lead to a significant spatial redistribution
112 of *T. melanosporum* habitat in mainland Spain, driven primarily by changes in summer temperature and
113 precipitation patterns. To this end, we: 1) model the current potential habitat of black truffle using
114 ensemble ML-based SDM; 2) project changes in habitat suitability under two mid-century climate
115 scenarios (RCP4.5 and RCP8.5); and 3) identify areas of habitat loss, gain, and stability, with the aim
116 of supporting future planning and conservation efforts. Our approach will offer a decision-support tool
117 for rural development planners, truffle growers, and natural resource managers to identify priority zones
118 for conservation and to inform adaptation strategies to maintain the economic and ecological
119 sustainability of truffle production under climate change.

120

121 **2. DATA AND METHODS**

122 **2.1. Black truffle data**

123 Data of black truffle observations were collected from previous studies (García-Barreda et al. 2019,
124 García-Barreda et al. 2020). Presences actually represent truffle stands that were chosen by meeting two
125 criteria: 1) forests that naturally produced black truffle and 2) where the fungus had been commercially
126 harvested at some point during the period 1990-2017. It was assumed that these sites were likely to have
127 a higher occurrence and fruiting performance of the fungus and therefore better chances for the creation
128 of new truffle production areas. The 177 observations used in the present work are distributed mainly
129 in the northeast of the Iberian Peninsula (IP) (Figure 1).

130

131 **2.2. Environmental and climate data**

132 We used seven environmental and climatic variables (Figure 2) to model the present potential habitat
133 for black truffle in mainland Spain: Digital Elevation Model (DEM), soil pH (PH), mean annual
134 temperature (MAT), mean January temperature (MJAT), mean July temperature (MJUT), total annual
135 precipitation (TAP), and total summer (June, July, August) precipitation (TSP). The choice of these
136 variables was made following Cejka et al. (2020), who made a complete review of scientific literature
137 to extract the most used and significant environmental parameters for truffle development.

138 The DEM was obtained from *Copernicus DEM - Global and European Digital Elevation Model*
139 resampled at a resolution of 0.25 km². The soil pH data (estimated at 15-30 cm depth) sourced from the
140 *SoilGrids* dataset (Poggio et al. 2021) at an original resolution of 0.0625 km² and resampled to fit with
141 the 0.25 km² DEM's resolution.

142 Climatic data of precipitation and temperature for 1981-2010 period were extracted from the SPREAD
143 and STEAD datasets, respectively (Serrano-Notivoli et al. 2017, Serrano-Notivoli et al. 2019), which
144 provide daily data at a 25 km² spatial resolution covering the whole Spanish territory. The daily data
145 were aggregated to monthly and annual scales, averaged for the 30-year period to calculate the required
146 climatic variables, and resampled to the DEM's spatial resolution.

147 The estimation of future potential distribution of the black truffle was performed by replacing the
148 current climate data by the regionalization of the global models for RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios for
149 the 2041-2070 period, made by the Spanish Meteorological Agency (AEMET)
150 (<https://escenarios.adaptecca.es>). In this period, the RCP4.5 scenario is expected to show a moderate
151 increase in greenhouse gasses emissions, resulting in a relatively limited warming in Spain (1.4 to 2.5
152 °C) compared to other more extreme scenarios. The RCP8.5 scenario shows a significant increase in
153 emissions and therefore more extreme warming (1.9 to 5 °C). Both scenarios also foresee drastic
154 changes in precipitation patterns, mostly signified in longer and more intense drought periods. The
155 medium-term future period (2041-2070) was chosen due to the reduced uncertainties compared to a
156 longer-term scenario, providing a more stable and accurate view of climate trends. In addition, it allows
157 for more effective planning for adaptation to climate change by identifying critical areas for protection.

158

159 **2.3. Potential habitat modeling**

160 Before applying the three models to the data, a *k-fold* partitioning of the presences data set in five groups
161 was made, one of them was reserved for model testing purposes and the other four were used as training
162 dataset. We performed 500 realizations to avoid biases in the selection of the data, and the resulting
163 statistical tests and spatial distributions were averaged as an ensemble. As our dataset of observations
164 only included presences data, we created, for each individual realization, a dataset of 500 pseudo-
165 absences by generating random points to extract background values. The points were randomly
166 sampled, without replacement, from the spatial domain of the predictors. This process was achieved
167 using the *randomPoints* function from the R package *dismo* (Hijmans et al., 2024).

168 Then, the three SDM methods: maxent, random forest and boosted regression trees, were applied to a
169 training dataset comprising the presences and pseudo-absences.

170 Maxent (MX) (Phillips et al. 2006) is based on the principle of maximum entropy, which seeks to find
171 the most uniform or least biased probability distribution that satisfies the constraints given by the
172 presence-only data and the environmental variables. This model is considered to be one of the most
173 efficient in different comparative analyses between various methodologies (Elith et al. 2006). The
174 algorithm used by maxent compares the environmental variables existing in the areas of presence of the
175 species with those existing in the entire study area (Phillips et al., 2006). MX was applied through the
176 R package *dismo* (Hijmans et al. 2024).

177 Random forest (RF) algorithm builds multiple decision trees during the training process. Each tree is a
178 rule that helps predict the presence of the species in the territory. To make the trees different from each
179 other, each one sees only a random portion of the data and considers only a few characteristics to make
180 decisions. This prevents all trees from being the same and improves accuracy. When there is a new
181 location to predict, each tree chooses the correct value based on its decision. The value that has been
182 selected the most times among all the trees is chosen as the final prediction. RF was applied through
183 the R package *randomForest* (Liaw & Wiener 2002).

184 Boosted Regression Trees (BRT) models have been extensively applied in species distribution
185 modelling (Yu et al. 2020). They integrate regression trees with a powerful boosting technique that
186 iteratively fits tree models using binary splits of predictor variables (Elith et al. 2008). Thus, BRT build
187 multiple regression trees sequentially, with each new tree correcting the errors of the previous ones.
188 These trees are simple and shallow, so they cannot make accurate predictions on their own. During the
189 process, more weight is assigned to mispredicted observations to progressively adjust the predictions.
190 The final prediction is a weighted sum of all trees, reflecting their contribution to the overall model.

191 BRT fits well with complex data and its sequential construction approach helps avoid overfitting, which
192 is common in complex models. BRT was applied through the R package *gbm* (Ridgeway 2025).

193 These three algorithms are complementary modeling paradigms: MX is a widely used method for
194 presence-only data and it is particularly effective in ecological niche modeling with limited sample
195 sizes; RF represents a bagging-based machine learning approach that handles complex interactions and
196 non-linearities well, with relatively low risk of overfitting; and BRT are a boosting-based method
197 known for high predictive accuracy and sensitivity to subtle patterns in the data. These models have
198 consistently shown high predictive accuracy and reliability in species distribution modeling across taxa
199 (e.g., Elith et al. 2006; Franklin 2009), and they provide readily interpretable variable importance
200 measures, which were essential for assessing ecological drivers of truffle distribution. Given that our
201 dataset lacked confirmed absence records, MX and the other tree-based methods that can work
202 effectively with pseudo-absences are particularly appropriate.

203 We validated the resulting predictions, for all realizations, by comparing them with the locations of the
204 reserved test datasets through the Area Under Curve (*AUC*), the Pearson correlation coefficient (*R*), and
205 the threshold of maximum sensitivity and specificity (*t*). The latest refers to the threshold on the ROC
206 (Receiver Operating Characteristic) curve where the sum of the true positive rate (sensitivity) and the
207 true negative rate (specificity) is maximum. The value of *t* provided by the models was used as a
208 reference of the minimum suitability value from which estimated presence is acceptable, since it can be
209 used as an optimal cut off point that maximizes the model's ability to correctly classify both positive
210 and negative instances.

211 The 500 spatial predictions per SDM method were averaged to obtain three potential habitat
212 distributions that were combined with a weighted average through $(AUC - 0.5)^2$. This weighting
213 allowed the best performing models (higher *AUC*) to have a greater influence on the mean.

214

215 3. RESULTS

216 3.1. Models' performance

217 Regarding the percentage contribution of the predictor variables used in each model (Figure 3), MX
218 was the model with the highest variability among the contributing variables, being the most important:
219 TSP, PH, and MJUT. RF showed a lower variability, with medians below 20 % in all cases. The
220 variables that contributed the most were TSP, MJUT and DEM closely matched to PH. In BRT, the
221 variables showed an uneven dispersion among them with a lot of variability in all of them except for
222 PH and the DEM. In this model, the contributions of the MJUT, MJAT, TSP and DEM stood out,
223 highlighting a meaningful importance of water availability in dry periods.

224 TSP showed a high contribution in all models, while the rest of the variables showed similar
225 contributions with medians mostly between 10% and 20% except for MAT, MJAT and TAP whose
226 contribution was negligible in Maxent.

227 Overall, validation statistics showed a proper capacity to classify the presences in the territory (*AUC* ~
228 0.94), very similar between models and with barely variations ($\sigma = 0.019$) between realizations in all
229 cases. The correlation between observations and predictions was also high (*R* ~ 0.74) with low
230 dispersion ($\sigma \sim 0.050$), and the threshold showed a small but notable range between models ($0.236 > t$
231 > 0.362) considering that it defines the areas with potential habitat.

232

233 3.2. Current and future potential habitat

234 The distribution of current potential habitat according to the weighted average of the three methods
235 (Figure 4) showed the areas with a suitability value higher than the weighted threshold ($t = 0.3037726$).
236 The highest probability values were found in the Iberian System, the southern part of the Pyrenees and
237 the area of the Sierra de Cazorla, coinciding with the traditional truffle-growing provinces in Spain. The
238 area covering the Central System also obtained a high suitability despite the absence of documented
239 presences in the past, meaning that the environmental conditions are adequate.

240 The differences of the future scenarios RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 with respect to the current climate (Figure
241 5A, D) showed a clear increase in the suitability values in the high-elevation areas of the Pyrenees and
242 in northern IP, while there was a clear decrease at lower elevations and, especially, in those areas where

243 the average annual temperatures (MAT) (conditioned by very hot summers, MJUT) were higher than
244 in the surrounding area. This can be interpreted as a loss of potential habitat in current warm areas,
245 where the species is already in its edge distribution limit, and that will be warmer in future scenarios.

246 The differences in suitability with respect to the current distribution generated new areas, referring to
247 grid cells that, under future climate scenarios (RCP4.5 and RCP8.5), exceeded the threshold for
248 suitability ($t=0.304$) but were below this threshold under current climate conditions. These areas
249 represent potential zones of habitat expansion or climatic colonization, possibly suitable for truffle
250 cultivation in the future. The lost areas defined as cells that currently exceed the suitability threshold,
251 but fall below it in the future scenarios, indicating regions where climatic conditions may become
252 unsuitable for black truffle persistence or productivity. In general terms, there was a clear expansion of
253 the most suitable areas for the species' habitat towards the west (Figure 5B, E), where the advance of
254 high temperatures had a lesser effect.

255 The detailed analysis of the changes (Figure 5C, F) showed that, although in both scenarios the extent
256 of areas that increased in suitability was greater than those that decreased, the percentages of net extent
257 of only new and lost areas were similar in the RCP4.5 scenario (25% new vs. 22.2% lost), while in the
258 RCP8.5 scenario there was a net loss of about 7% (25.2% new vs. 32.1% lost). Furthermore, in the
259 RCP4.5 scenario the changes were less intense, since the most numerous changes (with the largest
260 extensions) occurred at suitability values close to zero (-0.1 to 0.1). In scenario RCP8.5, the lost areas
261 were those with suitability values close to 0, leaving fewer losses in areas of high suitability. The
262 comparison of the two distributions suggested a slightly higher extension of positive suitability
263 difference in scenario RCP4.5 than in scenario RCP8.5, which would correspond to a greater loss of
264 areas in the latest.

265 Overall, the observed changes in the spatial distribution of black truffle's potential habitat followed the
266 changes of the climatic zones in the IP towards more Mediterranean conditions of humid zones and
267 towards warm steppe from Mediterranean environments (Arellano et al., 2025; Andrade & Contente,
268 2020) promoted by the advance of the arid conditions (Beguería et al., 2025). Our results showed that
269 most of the habitat losses occurred in transition zones from warm-summer climates (Csb in Köppen's
270 classification) to hot-summer Mediterranean climate (Csa) and from humid-subtropical (Cfa) to
271 Mediterranean and semi-arid conditions (Csa and Bsk).

272

273 3.3. Expected climatic conditions

274 The comparison of the frequency of values of the environmental variables between current climate and
275 future scenarios showed notable differences that compromise the future presence of the species in the
276 current environmental ranges (Figure 6).

277 The relatively high elevation areas (1,100-1,300 m.a.s.l.) showed a notable loss of suitability in favor
278 of mid-elevation ones (~1,000 m.a.s.l.). Looking at the spatial distribution (Figure 5B, E), this loss
279 mainly occurred in the Iberian System, in favor of the mid-mountain areas in northern IP.

280 Temperature was one of the variables that changed most significantly in both future scenarios.
281 Suitability decreased in zones with MAT between 11 and 13 °C, most markedly at 11 °C in the RCP8.5
282 scenario, but it was compensated by an increase in those areas between 9 and 11°C in current climate.
283 This shift from areas with better suitability to cooler locations was maximized in MJUT, where the
284 maximum intensity of suitability losses was around 21 °C, observed as the ideal temperature based on
285 current occurrences. The shift in MJUT was much greater than in MAT, with areas averaging 18–20 °C
286 in July gaining suitability. This transition was not observed in MJAT, where suitability gains and losses
287 hardly changed their pattern compared to the current situation. In general, a shift in temperature
288 conditions away from the summer heat peak was observed, which also affected the annual mean
289 temperature and especially the water availability due to the increase in the evapotranspiration
290 conditions.

291 Interestingly, TAP changed more than TSP but, while the latter was a key variable in modelling the
292 potential habitat (Figure 2), the contribution of the former was moderate in almost all situations.
293 Regarding this, suitability decreased in areas where annual precipitation was the most frequent for the
294 current habitat (500-700 mm) in favor of others with higher values (600-1,000 mm).

295 The pH was one of the most important limiting factors for the presence of truffles. Normally, it is very
296 difficult for the species to develop with pH below 7, which can compromise the future habitat in those
297 areas that gain suitability (6 to 7). Our modelling indicated that, in future scenarios, the areas losing the
298 most suitability were those with pH between 6.8 and 7.4. Overall, the future habitat of the black truffle,
299 in comparison with current distribution, will be placed in areas with higher precipitation, lower extreme
300 temperatures, lower elevations, and lower pH.

301

302 4. DISCUSSION

303 We modelled the black truffle potential habitat through a combination of three ML-based SDM methods
304 that allowed for an independent evaluation of the environmental conditions required for black truffle
305 presence. Compared to the commonly used MCE methods for this purpose (e.g. Serrano-Notivoli et al.
306 2015, Serrano-Notivoli et al. 2016, Cejka et al. 2020), ML models avoid human intervention in the
307 sense of weighting the importance of the variables and statistically evaluating the geographic location
308 of the presences to infer potential locations in different scenarios, using the available predictors. This
309 approach has the obvious advantage of being non-driven by previous assumptions such as giving high
310 or low importance to certain environmental parameters, which can compromise the final results. Besides
311 that, it also has risks associated with potential overfitting, the use of insufficient (or excessive)
312 predicting variables, or the ignoring of previous experience, which can also be valuable in the process
313 of validating the potential distributions. In this regard, cultivation of black truffle in Spain is far from
314 being domesticated, and most of the attempts have been historically based on trial-and-error approaches
315 due to a non-complete knowledge about what the crops need, in terms of climatic variability, to be
316 highly productive (Garcia-Barreda et al. 2020).

317 Our approach used the most utilized environmental parameters (Cejka et al. 2020), although we
318 recognize that using others, especially those related to edaphic properties such as clay content and water
319 retention capacity that help promote truffle fruiting (Alonso et al. 2014), could change the final potential
320 habitat distributions. The exclusion of these variables was due to the unavailability of harmonized and
321 high-resolution data covering the entire mainland Spain and, while the source of pH data (Poggio et al.
322 2021) also provides other physical components of soil, the spatial uncertainty is much higher and the
323 aggregation process to match spatial resolutions would yield unrealistic values across the study area.
324 Furthermore, focusing on the average climate parameters, although widely used in ecological niche
325 modelling studies, they can blur the results of the spatial distribution depending on the baseline choice
326 or the future climate data availability (Roubicek et al. 2010, Peterson et al. 2018). Regarding black truffle
327 modelling, previous studies demonstrated that climate extremes can influence on the species'
328 composition and structure (Büntgen et al. 2012, 2015a, 2019a), as well as the importance of previous
329 summer climate on winter truffle yield (Büntgen et al. 2015b, 2019b), and we did not consider these
330 parameters as modelling variables. Our approach intended to provide potential future distributions of
331 black truffle in mainland Spain with the existing climatic information, although we acknowledge that
332 modelling could be more precise in some areas (especially those more sensitive to climate extremes)
333 through the consideration of additional environmental parameters.

334 To avoid biases derived from the selection of observations, and thus biasing environmental parameters
335 consideration, we used a Montecarlo approach to randomly partition the dataset over 500 realizations
336 that we then averaged for each model. The final distributions were finally obtained by weighting the
337 three models based on their performance (*AUC*). For testing purposes, we primarily used *AUC*, Pearson
338 correlation (*R*), and the maximum sensitivity–specificity threshold (*t*) due to their widespread use in
339 presence-only modeling frameworks and their compatibility with the ensemble Monte Carlo approach.
340 Nevertheless, other metrics such as True Skill Statistic (*TSS*) and Cohen's Kappa could provide a more
341 comprehensive evaluation of model performance, particularly in assessing the balance between
342 omission and commission errors. Since our models output continuous suitability values, *TSS* and Kappa
343 would require binarizing predictions using a threshold, for which the threshold (*t*) could be used.
344 However, we opted to keep the current focus on probabilistic habitat suitability rather than presence–
345 absence classification, to avoid the threshold-related uncertainties across the 500 realizations.

346 Based on the available observations and the mentioned potential problems with other variables, we
347 chose the current environmental parameters to focus on the ecological relevance and literature

348 consensus (Cejka et al. 2020) around black truffle ecology. This choice allowed to maintain a direct
349 ecological interpretation of each predictor's contribution to the models, unlike other reduction methods
350 such as Principal Component Analysis that, while statistically efficient, can obscure the specific role of
351 individual environmental factors. The seven variables reduce the risk of overparameterization and
352 minimize the need for further dimensionality reduction. Also, the ensemble strategy helped to balance
353 the potential overemphasis of any single predictor or model.

354 Results showed notable changes in the potential habitat areas under future scenarios compared to the
355 current climate. While the core production area (southeastern Iberian System) remained mostly
356 unchanged, there was a clear expansion towards northwest and towards higher elevation areas in
357 mountain ranges, depicting a search for areas meeting the thermal requirements of the species. The
358 expected increase of extreme hot temperatures in summer throughout the Mediterranean area (Zittis et
359 al. 2019, Cos et al. 2022) will also lead to a higher atmospheric evaporative demand promoting more
360 frequent drought conditions (Spinioni et al. 2020, Trambly et al. 2020). In this regard, higher-elevation
361 areas will have (in Pyrenees and Central System) a greater probability of hosting the species in warmer
362 scenarios. Our results showing an expansion to mountain ranges are not new since previous studies
363 highlighted the potential of the Pyrenees (Colinas et al. 2007) but pH requirements are not satisfied at
364 high elevations.

365 Furthermore, water availability conditions will be compensated in lower-elevation but more humid
366 areas in eastern Cantabrian Range. Overall, black truffle will transition to areas where humidity,
367 especially in the summer season, is secured. This is a highly probable scenario since soil moisture has
368 been demonstrated as a key factor for its life cycle development (González-Zamora et al. 2022). Both
369 future scenarios showed similar potential habitat distributions but, while RCP4.5 compensated the
370 losses with gained areas, the RCP8.5 scenario registered a larger extent of lost zones, for example
371 practically disappearing the potential areas in Sierra de Cazorla at southern IP. This area hosts
372 genetically unique wild truffle populations, whose potential loss may compromise the overall genetic
373 diversity of the species in the IP (García-Cunchillos et al. 2014). These southern populations have likely
374 persisted through historical climatic fluctuations, acting as refugia during glacial periods, and are
375 therefore of high conservation and genetic value. Under the RCP8.5 scenario, our models indicate that
376 this area could lose nearly all suitable habitat, mainly due to extreme summer temperatures and
377 prolonged drought. Such habitat contraction could lead to the local extinction of unique genetic
378 lineages, reducing the overall genetic diversity and adaptive potential of the species at the Iberian scale.

379 The results suggest a decrease in the average pH of the areas gaining suitability for *T. melanosporum*
380 in the RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios (6.0–7.0) compared to the currently optimal zones (6.8–7.6). This
381 finding contrasts with previous studies that considered markedly alkaline soils (pH >7.5) as an essential
382 requirement for the development of the fungus (e.g. Colinas et al., 2007; Serrano-Notivoli et al., 2015),
383 but is understood as an expansion towards naturally less calcareous soils in the northwest (pH <7),
384 historically underestimated for truffle cultivation. However, most of the disagreement in pH values of
385 our modeling compared to previous works, could rely on the source of the environmental parameter.
386 SoilGrids (Poggio et al. 2021) is a global model-based database of pH and, while it provides uncertainty
387 values, the estimates for the eastern IP where suitable areas are predicted (pH 6.8–7.6) are probably
388 underestimated. Also, we aggregated the spatial resolution of the original dataset (250x250 m) to fit
389 with the rest of the variables (500x500 m), which could have a variable impact on the final values. Our
390 results project suitability losses due to thermal stress, regardless of pH. This suggests that, under climate
391 change scenarios, pH could lose relative weight as a limiting factor compared to variables such as
392 summer aridity, a fundamental characteristic of the currently expanding climate in mainland Spain
393 (Beguería et al., 2025), however, this limited influence may partly reflect the above-mentioned spatial
394 resolution and source of the pH data. For this reason, although pH is retained in the models due to its
395 ecophysiological relevance, its modelled contribution is secondary, and conclusions about its role
396 should be interpreted with caution.

397 We focused on the 2041–2070 period due to its practical use in management practices and the reduced
398 uncertainty from climate change models. However, previous studies focused on the last third of the 21st
399 century revealed a critical reduction of truffle production under variable warming scenarios (Thomas &
400 Büntgen 2019, Cejka et al. 2022). While we only considered changes in climatic parameters, keeping
401 invariable the rest of the environmental conditions (e.g. edaphic properties, land uses), there are non-

402 considered uncertainties about future pathways in the territory that could impact on the potential
403 distribution of the species. In any event, we focused on habitat scenarios based only on the climatic
404 evolution, to show different probabilities of changing potential territories for black truffle production.

405 On the other hand, further limitations of our approach may be related to the quantity and spatial
406 distribution of observations. We used 177 observations mainly distributed in the northeast of the IP,
407 where forests naturally produce black truffles, however, as we did not have available absences, we used
408 randomly created pseudo-absences throughout mainland Spain to train and validate models. While this
409 could have an impact in final potential distribution areas (Martinez-Minaya et al. 2018, Iturbide et al.
410 2015), the Montecarlo approach helped to minimize the potential bias by averaging the multiple
411 realizations. We are aware that using fully random pseudo-absences may introduce biases, particularly
412 when the background environmental space is not constrained or stratified. While this could potentially
413 lead to overestimation in modelling, we opted for our approach to two premises: 1) our data consisted
414 solely of presence records from truffle-producing forests, with no verified absences available across the
415 full study area, and 2) the relatively low number of observations ($n = 177$) and their constrained spatial
416 distribution limited the feasibility of more complex strategies, such as environmental stratification or
417 spatial thinning, without further compromising sample representativeness.

418 Based on the spatial patterns of habitat gain and loss under both climate scenarios, we identified the
419 Sierra de Cazorla and southern Iberian System as priority zones due to they are expected to suffer
420 substantial habitat loss, especially under RCP8.5. These areas currently host some of the most
421 productive and ecologically valuable truffle populations, and a adaptation strategies such as mulching
422 or irrigation will be of key importance to buffer against climatic stressors (Büntgen et al. 2015b).
423 Conversely, northwest and north-central Iberian Peninsula showed consistent gains in suitability under
424 both scenarios, representing clear opportunities for expanding truffle cultivation, especially in rural
425 areas with suitable elevation, soil pH, and increasing summer humidity. Lastly, the central Iberian
426 Peninsula could act as transition belts between declining and emerging suitability regions, making them
427 useful for experimental plantations and climate-resilient truffle farming practices.

428

429 **5.CONCLUSIONS**

430 We analyzed the impact of climate change on the potential habitat distribution of black truffle (*T.*
431 *melanosporum* Vittad.) in mainland Spain, combining three ML-based species distribution models:
432 Maxent, Random Forest, and Boosted Regression Trees. The main objective was to estimate the current
433 and future distribution of the species under two climate scenarios (RCP4.5 and RCP8.5) for the 2041-
434 2070 period, considering key environmental variables such as mean annual temperature, total
435 precipitation, and soil pH.

436 Results revealed a significant spatial redistribution of the black truffle habitat due to global warming.
437 An estimated 22–32% of the current habitat would be lost in areas with high temperatures and low
438 precipitation. However, this loss was partially offset by the colonization of new areas (25% in both
439 scenarios) located in colder and more humid regions of the northwestern IP. In the RCP4.5 scenario, a
440 slight net habitat gain (+2.7%) was observed, whereas in RCP8.5, there was a net loss of -6.9%.

441 The analysis of key environmental variables suggested that maximum summer temperature, summer
442 precipitation, and soil pH were the primary drivers of future changes. As temperatures increase and
443 drought periods intensify, areas with marginal conditions for the species will likely become
444 uninhabitable, while currently colder regions could become suitable for its development.

445 From a management perspective, these results highlight the need for strategic planning in the expansion
446 of new black truffle plantations and the sector of mycotourism on the rise in Spain (Büntgen et al. 2017).
447 The use of ML-based SDMs allowed for accurate projections and provided valuable tools for decision-
448 making in natural resource management. While there are opportunities for expansion in some regions
449 in Spain, a considerable habitat reduction is also expected in currently productive areas. The projections
450 underscored the importance of adaptation strategies that considered climatic and edaphic factors to
451 ensure the sustainability of black truffle production in the future.

452

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458

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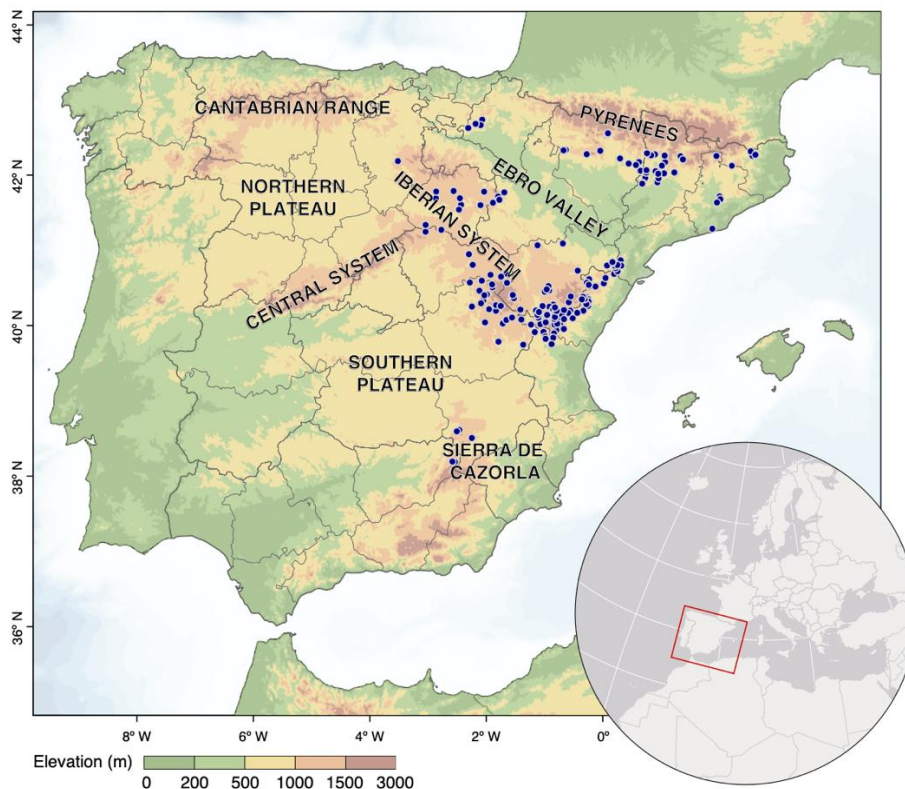
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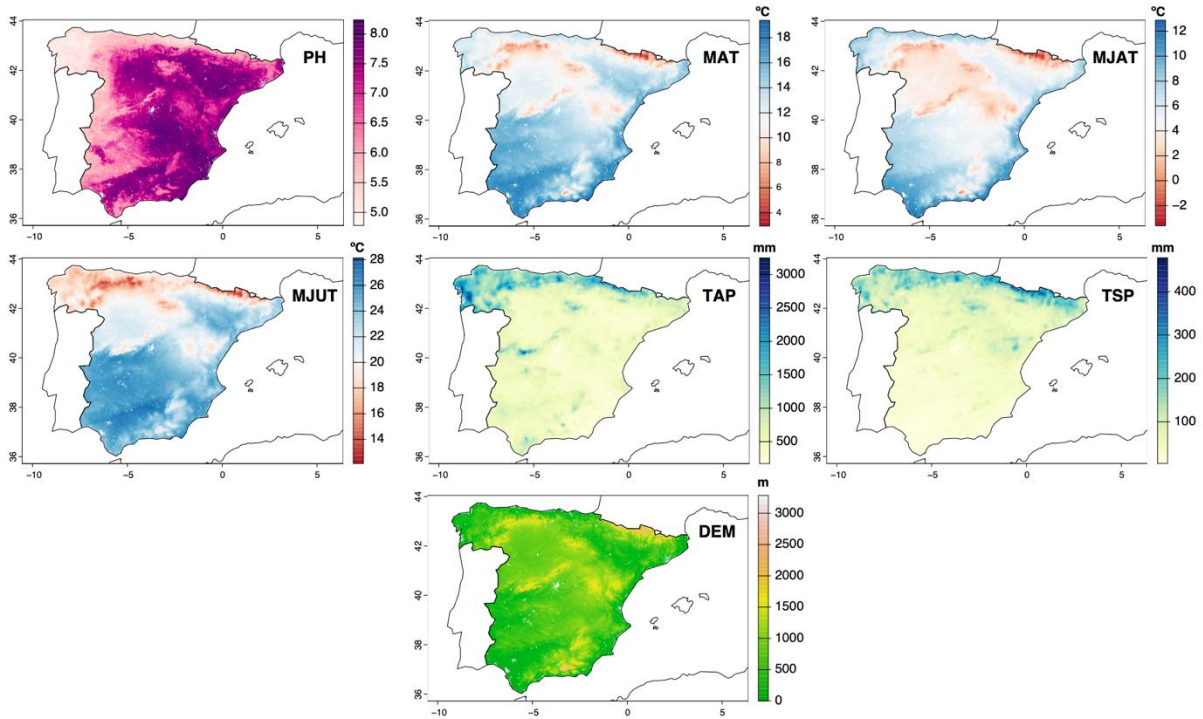
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	<i>AUC</i>	<i>R</i>	<i>t</i>
MX	0.940 (0.019)	0.743 (0.046)	0.362 (0.102)
RF	0.941 (0.019)	0.745 (0.049)	0.308 (0.088)
BRT	0.939 (0.019)	0.738 (0.053)	0.236 (0.092)

619 **Table 1.** Average and standard deviation (italic in brackets) validation results of the 500 realizations
620 for the three models. Area Under Curve (*AUC*), Pearson correlation coefficient (*R*), and the threshold
621 of maximum sensitivity and specificity (*t*)
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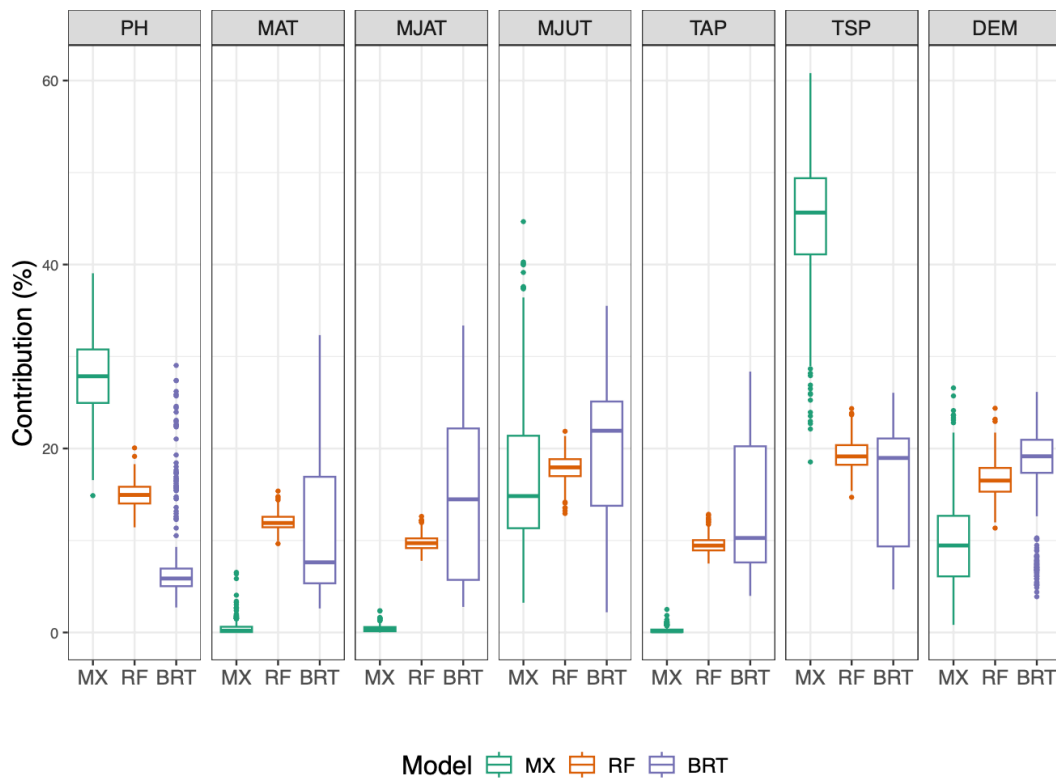


623 **Figure 1.** Geographical distribution of known productive areas of black truffle in mainland Spain
624 (n = 177). Each point (blue dots) represents a confirmed location where truffles have been harvested
625 under natural or cultivated conditions. Background map displays elevation shading for geographic
626 context.
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Figure 2. Environmental parameters used as predictors in the modelling of black truffle distribution in mainland Spain. PH: soil pH; MAT: mean annual temperature; MJAT: mean January temperature; MJUT: mean July temperature; TAP: total annual precipitation; TSP: total summer precipitation; DEM: Digital Elevation Model.

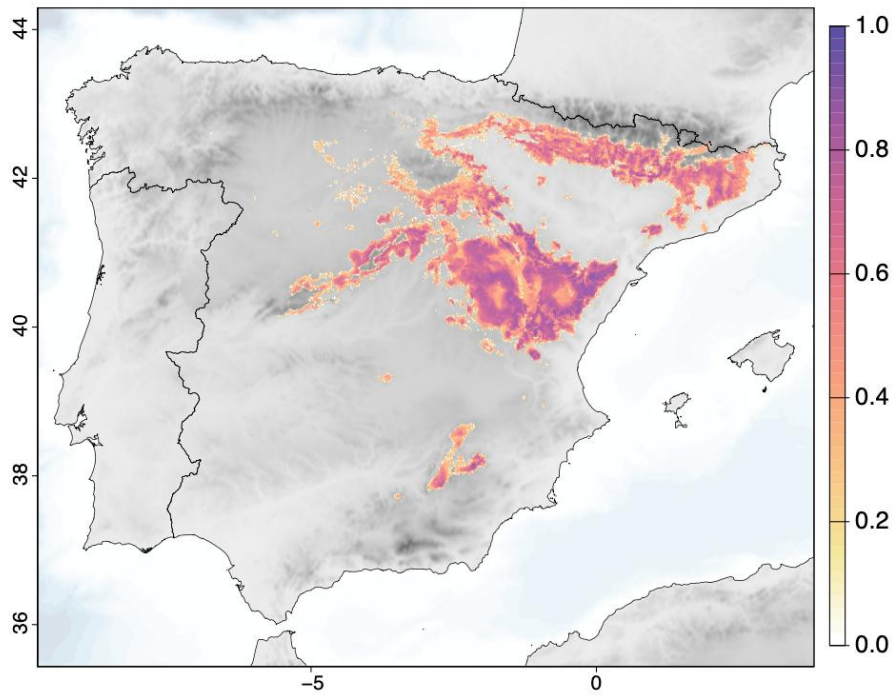


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Figure 3. Relative importance (%) of the environmental predictor variables across the three modeling algorithms: Maxent (MX), Random Forest (RF), and Boosted Regression Trees (BRT). Variable

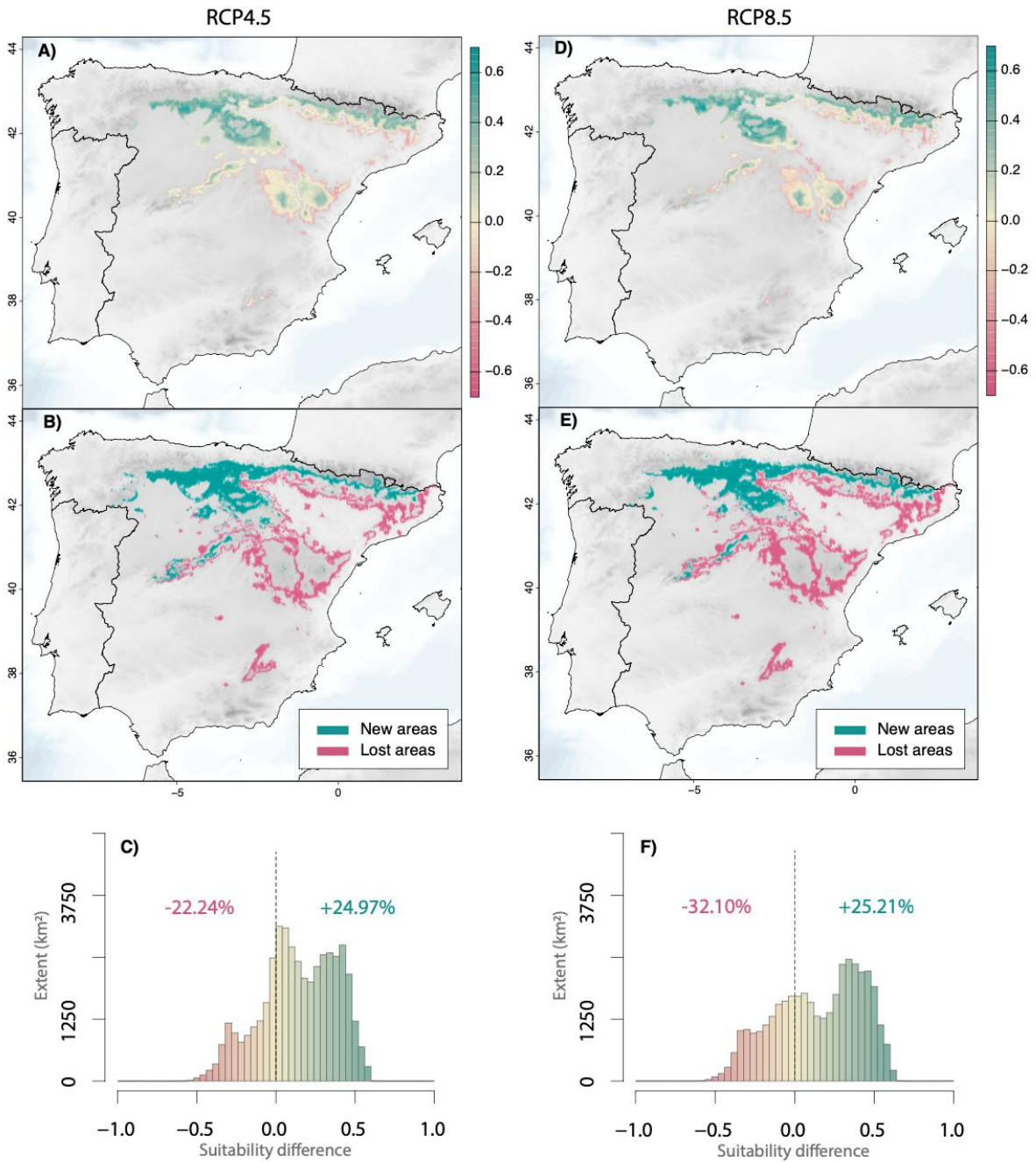
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importance was derived from each model's internal metrics, averaged over 500 Monte Carlo iterations.



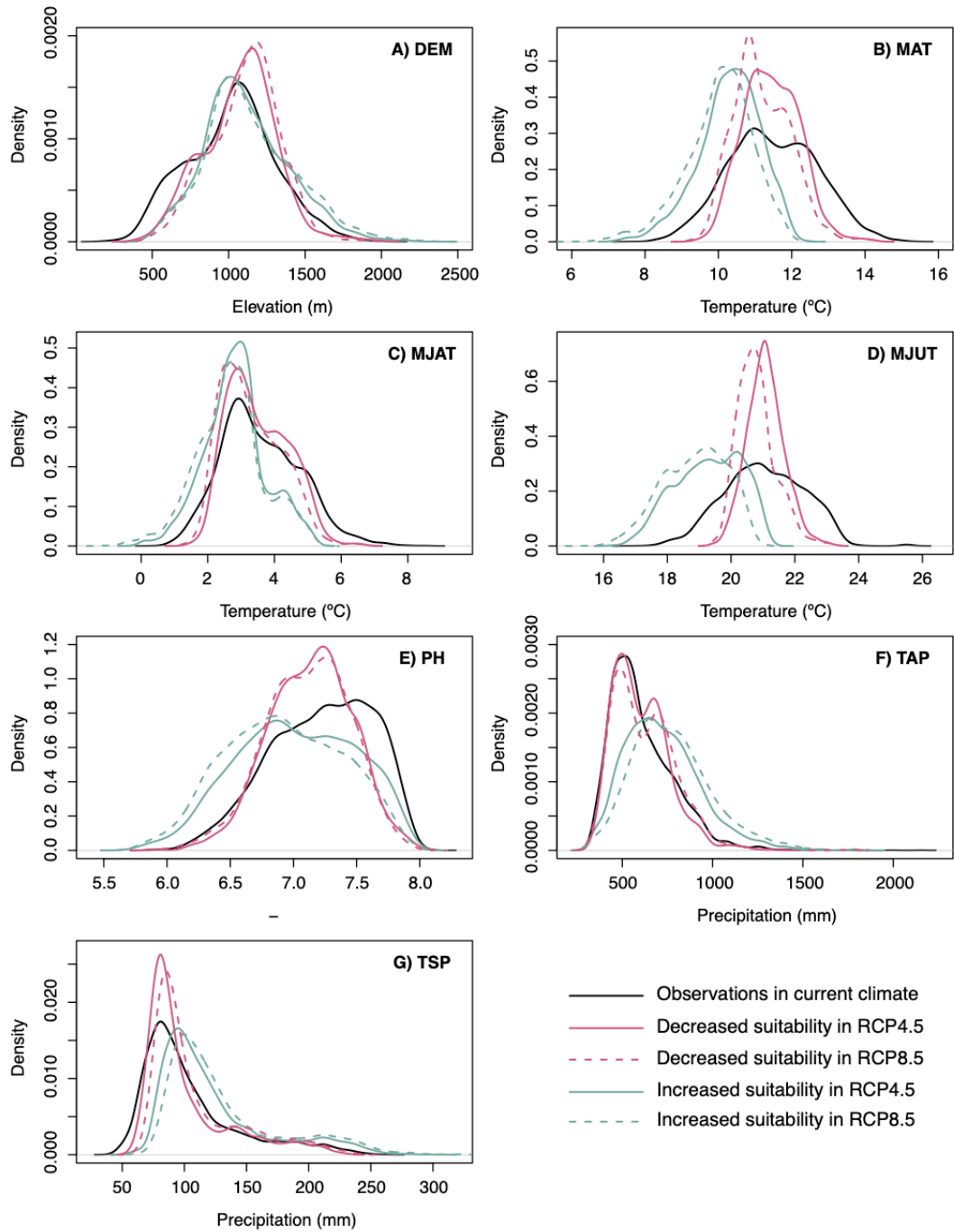
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Figure 4. Current potential habitat, from low (0) to high (1) suitability, based on the weighted average of the three models (Maxent, Random Forest, and Boosted Regression Trees) using recent climate data (1981-2010).



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Figure 5. Differences with current potential habitat suitability under future (2041-2070) scenarios RCP4.5 (A) and RCP8.5 (D). New and lost areas in both scenarios (B and E, respectively) represent colonized and decolonized zones. Detailed changes in the extent of suitability areas for both scenarios (C and F, respectively) are shown along with the percentage of new and lost territory (red and green values).



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Figure 6. Frequency of environmental parameters' values in the current potential habitat extension (black line) and in those areas with lower (red line) and higher (green line) suitability under future scenarios RCP4.5 (solid line) and RCP8.5 (dashed line).