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Abstract

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How far-reaching is the influence of the urban area over the mineral composition of the Russula cyanoxantha mushroom? We studied the metal uptake behavior of this fungus relying on the soil properties. We sampled mushroom and soil from six forests according to an urbanization gradient, and two city parks in Cluj-Napoca (Romania). The elements were quantified using inductively coupled plasma - optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES). The concentrations of some elements differed significantly (p < 0.05) in the samples from the city $(0.39 \pm 0.35 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \text{ for cadmium (Cd)}, 0.40 \pm 0.19 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \text{ for}$ chromium (Cr), $69.1 \pm 29.9 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ for iron (Fe), $10.9 \pm 1.3 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ for manganese (Mn), 0.76 ± 0.45 mg kg⁻¹ for titanium (Ti) compared with the samples from the forests $(3.15-14.1 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \text{ Cd}, < 0.18 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \text{ for Cr}, 22.6-34.5 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \text{ for Fe}, 15.9-19.1 \text{ mg}$ kg⁻¹ for Mn, 0.19-0.36 mg kg⁻¹ for Ti. We observed a definite negative trend in the mineral accumulation potential of this fungus along the urbanization gradient. The fungus turned from a cadmium-accumulator to a cadmium-excluder. This highlights a positive environmental influence of the urbanization over the toxic metal uptake of R. cyanoxantha. The hypothesis, that the urban soil pollution would increase the metal content of the mushroom was disproved. The possible explanation might be the elevated carbonate content of the urban soil, which is known to immobilize the metals in the soil.

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- **Keywords:** Russula cyanoxantha, elemental composition, urbanization gradient, urban areas,
- 35 bioaccumulation factor

1. Introduction

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The influence of the urban environment on the metal accumulation of macrofungi is mostly unknown. There is a scarcity of papers published on this subject. Schlecht and Säumel (2015), for example, quantified the concentration of Cd and lead (Pb) in several saprotrophic and mycorrhizal mushroom species found in Berlin. Mędyk et al. (2017) published the concentrations of some bio- and toxic elements in 10 edible mushrooms from unpolluted areas of a Swedish city. In a recent paper, we highlighted the differences in the elemental composition of the saprotrophic Agaricus campestris grown in urban and peri-urban regions. When compared with the peri-urban meadows, the urban environment had a univocal influence on this fungus (Zsigmond et al., 2018). In this paper, we focused on the influence of the urban environment and of the habitat proximity to a major city on the elemental composition of the edible mushroom Russula cyanoxantha. We also aimed to contribute to a substantial knowledge about the metal accumulation habit of this species in relation to the soil composition, pH, carbonate and organic matter content. We chose the R. cyanoxantha for many reasons: (i) this macrofungus is one of the most commonly spread edible mushroom in the European deciduous forests, (ii) we found it well represented in urban parks, (iii) it is known as sensitive taxa to anthropogenic factors like nitrogen input (Brandrud and Timmermann, 1998; Tarvainen et al., 2003), but less affected by the concentration changes of the heavy metals, base saturation, acidity and organic matter content in the soil (Hansen, 1988), and (iv) according to our knowledge, it is a fungus, which was less studied systematically. The R. cyanoxantha is an ectomycorrhizal fungus dependent on the host plant, which in general is a deciduous tree (beech, birch, oak). It is a very tasty and delicious edible fungus, but it is not widely commercialized because of cultivating problems. This fungus is very similar in

60	appearance with other species from the Russula genus, like the R. heterophylla, R. alutacea or R.
61	virescens, which grow in the same habitat. Nevertheless, the R. cyanoxantha has some specific
62	characteristics, like flexible and soft gills, pure white stipes, without brownish or yellow spots
63	and white spore prints (Kuo, 2009).
64	Due to the mycelium, mushrooms have peculiar capabilities of absorbing mineral components
65	from the soil by the process of biomineralization (Gadd, 2013). It is well documented that in
66	contrast with plant rhizomes, fungal hyphae are able to excrete numerous substances as leaching
67	agents for metals and phosphorus from minerals (Rosling, 2009; McMaster, 2012; Smits and
68	Wallander, 2017). That is why wild grown mushrooms contain mineral components in much
69	higher concentrations, than plants. Generally, the mycelium of the Russula spp. is small-sized
70	possessing few and short hyphae in contrast with Suillus spp. or Cortinarius spp. characterized
71	by extensive mycelial systems (Taylor and Alexander, 2005). Probably this is the reason, why
72	these species generally contain mineral components in lower concentrations, than other fungi
73	(Kalač, 2016), and may persist in contaminated soils (Newbound et al., 2010). Since the 1980s, it
74	was demonstrated that the occurrence of the R. cyanoxantha seemed not to be greatly affected by
75	the soil and litter characteristics (Hansen 1988). Kutszegi et al. (2015) mentioned this fungus as
76	one of the most frequent taxa in the deciduous forests. They also showed that the
77	ectomycorrhizal fungi are the least influenced by the environmental factors, like substratum
78	properties, tree species composition and microclimate. Nevertheless, the R. cyanoxantha was the
79	most frequently distributed mushroom in Cluj-Napoca and the surrounding deciduous forest.
80	With respect to the elemental composition of macrofungi, the soil is the most influential driver.
81	Although these organisms occasionally develop macroscopic fruiting bodies, they spend most of
82	their lifetime in the soil in the form of the mycelium. The uptake of metals depends on several

83	factors related to the soil (bedrock geochemistry, organic matter content, pH, moisture
84	availability, and porosity of the soil), as well as the species and lifestyle (saprotrophic or
85	mycorrhizal) of the mushroom (Chatterjee et al., 2017).
86	The forest and urban soils present contrasting properties with regard to the acidity, carbonate and
87	metal content. The particular characteristics of urban soils are the elevated pH, alkaline topsoil,
88	less porosity, relatively high concentration of some toxic metals (Lal and Stewart, 2018). The
89	wearing of the buildings and of the street pavements, the emissions from the industrial and
90	construction activities contribute to an alkaline pollutant burden of the local atmosphere in the
91	form of ash and dust (Newbound et al., 2010). Lovett et al. (2000) evidenced the deposition of
92	the alkaline ions Ca and Mg to the urban soil surface, which gradually decreased with distance
93	from the city.
94	In the light of these findings, we hypothesized a strong relationship between the pollution level
95	and specific characteristics of the urban soil, and the elemental content of the fruiting body of the
96	R. cyanoxantha, when compared with its natural habitat.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Description of the sampling sites

We carried out our research in Cluj-Napoca (the second largest city in Romania) and its surroundings. It is a dynamically developing city with about 325 000 inhabitants. In order to exclude the varying influence of the air pollution, we chose forests, which lie to the north and to the south from the city center on a trajectory, which is perpendicular to the prevailing wind direction. The seven sampling sites (Fig. 1) were as follows: S1 (a forest near Feleacu, at 7.5 km to south from the city center), S2 (Făget, a forest close to the southern city border, at 5 km from

the city center), S3 (a forest near the Mănăştur district, which lies in the southern part of the city, at 2.5 km from the city center), S4 (Iuliu Haţieganu Park and Botanical Garden in the center of the city), S5 (Hoia, a forest in the north part of the city, at 2 km from the city center), S6 (a forest near Popeşti, close to the northern border of the city, at 6 km from the city center) and S7 (a forest near Deuşu at 18 km to north from the city center).

111 Fig. 1

2.2. Sampling and sample preparation

We sampled a total number of 95 mushrooms and 95 soil samples in June-August, 2017. All the samples were kept in plastic bags. Each mushroom sample consisted of 7-10 individuals, both small-sized and well developed. The soil samples were taken from the topsoil (0-10 cm) exactly where the mushrooms grew. Before washing the mushrooms, we separated the caps from the stipes using a ceramic knife, and we removed the debris, so that the mass of the anatomic parts could be determined separately. We used these results to determine the mean mass ratio between the cap and the stipe. Next, the mushrooms were washed with tap water, and rinsed with distilled water; they were cut into thin slices and dried at 60 °C, then at 105 °C until constant weight. The samples were grinded and sieved through a stainless steel sieve with pore-size of 315 μ m. A mass of about 0.4 g was digested in glass beakers with 5 mL 65% HNO₃ (Merck, Suprapure) and 2 mL 30% H₂O₂ (Chempur, pure *p.a.*) at atmospheric pressure. The leaves, stones and living organisms were removed from the soil samples, which were then dried at 20 °C, then at 105 °C until constant weight (Malinowska *et al.*, 2004). About 0.2 g of grinded and sieved (1 mm pore-size) soil samples were digested with 3 mL 65% HNO₃ (Merck, Suprapure) and 9 mL 30% HCl (Merck, Suprapure) in glass beakers. All solutes were diluted to 50 mL with deionized water

129	(Merck, Millipore). The digests were stored in sealed plastic containers. All the glassware was
130	washed after use with tap water, rinsed with distilled water and soaked in 0.1 M HNO ₃ for 24
131	hours, then in deionized water for another 24 hours.
132	
133	2.3. Instrumental analysis
134	We carried out the elemental composition of the mushroom and soil samples with an ICP-OES
135	(Spectro Genesis, SPECTRO Analytical Instruments GmbH, Germany). The instrument
136	conditions and measurement parameters used throughout this work was described recently
137	(Zsigmond et al., 2018). The method detection limits (MDLs) for each element were calculated
138	using the formula: (blank + $3 \times sd$)×dilution factor, where the <i>blank</i> is the mean concentration of a
139	certain element quantified in seven blank samples, and the sd is the standard deviation of this
140	mean. We used two certified reference materials (CRM): NCS DC 73026 for soil (NACIS,
141	China), SRM 1515 for apple leaves (NIST, USA) for the quality assurance of the instrumental
142	method. For these materials, we followed the same sample pretreatment methods as described
143	earlier. We prepared three samples of each CRM. The MDLs and the recoveries for the studied
144	elements are reported in Table 1. All results were given for the dry weights of the samples.
145	Table 1.
146	
147	2.4. The determination of soil properties
148	The pH of the soil samples was determined in two ways: using (1) deionized water and (2) 0.01
149	M CaCl ₂ solution as extracting liquids, according to Carter and Gregorich (2008). We added 20

mL liquid to a mass of 10 g air-dried soil. We stirred the solution intermittently for 30 minutes,

151	and then we let it stay for one hour. We measured the pH in the supernatant with a combined
152	glass electrode (WTW, Weilheim, Germany).
153	In order to determine the organic matter and the carbonate content of the soil samples, we
154	performed the loss-on-ignition method, according to Heiri et al. (2001). Quantities of about 2 g
155	soil samples were placed in ceramic crucibles and dried at 105 °C to a constant weight. We
156	placed the crucibles in an oven and incinerated the samples for 4 hours, followed by a second
157	step at 950 °C for 2 hours. The differences in the weight gave the organic matter content (related
158	to the lost CO_2 and water vapor at 550 °C) and the carbonate content (calculated from the lost
159	CO ₂ content at 950 °C).
160	
161	2.5. The bioaccumulation factor
162	The bioaccumulation factor (BAF) is a dimensionless indicator of the accumulation rate of an
163	element in a living organism (plant, fungus), related to the soil. The BAF for a certain element
164	was calculated by dividing the concentration of the element in the mushroom with the
165	concentration of this element in the soil.
166	
167	2.6. Statistical analyses
168	The statistical analyses were carried out on a data table of 95 rows and 52 columns (containing
169	all the data about the mushroom and soil). We tested the normality of the distributions with
170	Shapiro-Wilk-test. For the homogeneity of the variances, we used the F-test for two groups, and
171	the Levene-test for multiple groups. We used the two-sample t-test for independent groups
172	(sometimes the Welch-test or the nonparametric Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon-test) in order to
173	compare the elemental composition of the caps and the stipes. We used the one-way ANOVA

(sometimes the Welch-ANOVA or the nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis-test) to compare the mean
concentrations of the elements in the seven sampling sites. When the test showed significant
differences in the means, we used the proper post-hoc test (Tukey-HSD or Games-Howell-test or
Dunn's test) to identify the actual differences between pairs. The correlation between the
variables was tested with calculation of the Spearman rank-correlation coefficients. These
statistical tools are regularly used in the chemometric evaluation of the mineral composition of
mushrooms (Malinowska et al., 2004; Brzezicha-Cirocka et al., 2019).
In order to test the existence of an urbanization gradient with regard to the elemental
composition of the R. cyanoxantha, we used simple linear regression and factorial ANOVA. The
bioaccumulation factor was taken as response variable, and the habitat distance from the city
center, was used as explanatory variable. The normal distribution of the residuals was tested with
Shapiro-Wilk test. All the statistics were carried out by R software, version 3.4.4.

3. Results and discussion

The mean mass ratio of the fresh anatomic parts (the caps and the stipes) of 228 individuals was of 3.0 g, with a standard deviation of 1.3 g. From about 850 specimen only 228 were measured because we counted for only the healthy, impeccable specimen. The minimum value was of 0.9 g, and the maximum value was of 7.2 g. The heaviest cap and stipe weighted 64.2 g and 31.3 g, the lightest ones 2.2 g and 0.6 g, respectively. The average water content of the mushrooms was of 88.5% (sd = 4.5%, n = 158). The data table, which contains all results, is provided in the supplementary material as AllData.xlsx (the m signifies the mushroom, the s signifies the soil).

3.1. The elemental composition of soils

According to the decree for soil contaminants released by the Ministry of Environment of Romania (Government Decree No 756/1997), the forest soils presented concentrations lower than the background levels for Cr, Cu and nickel (Ni). In many forest soils the concentrations of silver (Ag), barium (Ba) and Zn were much lower, than the given limits; on the other hand, Cd, Mn, and Pb had concentrations higher than the normal levels (Table 2). The soils from the city park contrasted the forest soils in much higher concentrations of Ag, and considerably lower concentrations of Cd, Mn, and Pb. The Ag exceeded the background level. The Na was detected only in Cluj-Napoca (S4) and in the forest to the north from the city (S5-S7).

205 Table 2.

Among the studied sites, the concentration of Cd in the soils exhibited the most heterogeneous distribution. The one-way ANOVA test revealed significantly different concentrations of aluminium (Al), Ba, calcium (Ca), Cu, Cr, Fe, K, magnesium (Mg), Ni, strontium (Sr), Zn in the samples from the sites S1-S4, and the concentrations increased from the southern periphery to the city center (Table S1, Fig. 5-8. in the supplementary material). Meanwhile, to the north from the city, the soils proved to be roughly homogeneous in the mineral composition; for example, the S5 and S6 sites resembled the most. In addition, the soils from the city parks were not significantly different in the content of Al, Ca, Cu, Fe, K, Mg, Ni, Sr and Zn from the soils of sites S5 and S6, but significantly richer in these metals, than the soils from site S7. Among the studied sites, the soils of the city parks had significantly the highest concentration of Ag, P and Ti, and the lowest concentration of Mn and Pb.

3.2. The elemental composition of mushrooms

We compared the elemental composition of the R. cyanoxantha with the literature data for
mushrooms (Kalač, 2016). Many of the elements (Ag, Al, Cu, Mn, Na, Ni, S, Ti, Zn) showed
concentrations mainly in the lower part of the usual range (Table 2). All the samples had
concentrations of Ca, Cr, K, and Mg below the usual range. Furthermore, some studies on the
heavy metal content of the R. cyanoxantha from the forests of the southern part of Romania
showed considerably higher concentrations of Cr, Mn, Fe and Pb; lower concentrations of Cu,
Ni, and similar concentrations of Zn (Busuioc et al., 2011; Elekes and Busuioc, 2013). When we
compared the results with the data published for Agaricus campestris growing in the same urban
area, we found lower concentrations in the R. cyanoxantha, excepting for Ni and Zn (Zsigmond
et al., 2018). It was recently demonstrated, that among the Russula spp., the R. cyanoxantha
could be classified as an average Zn accumulator with concentrations between $50\text{-}150~\text{mg kg}^{-1}$
for dry matter, when coming from pristine areas (Leonhardt et al., 2019). We found that this
species was less affected by the Zn contamination level of its habitat, since it exhibited very low
variations in the Zn content (74.5-108 mg kg ⁻¹ average concentrations for dry matter) along the
urbanization gradient.
A comparison between the samples from the forests with the samples from the city highlighted
the ability of the R. cyanoxantha to accumulate more Fe and P but less Cd when grown in the
city. These low levels of Cd coupled with the undetected Pb levels were somehow unexpected.
However, two <i>Russula</i> spp. had median concentrations of 2.3-2.5 mg kg ⁻¹ for Cd and of 4.8 mg
kg ⁻¹ for Pb in a recent study from Berlin (Schlecht and Säumel, 2015). Nevertheless, with the
exception of S1 and S4, the average Cd concentration of the mushrooms exceeded the usual
concentration range.

We compared the seven sites using one-way ANOVA test (Fig. 9-11. in the supplementary
material). Along the urbanization gradient the alkaline-earth elements (Ba, Ca and Sr) as well as
Cu, Na and Zn were evenly distributed in the samples. When compared with the samples from
the forests, the influence of the urban environment manifested in significantly higher
concentrations of Cr, Fe and Ti, and significantly lower concentrations of Cd and Mn in the
samples from the urban parks. Although the highest Ag concentrations were measured in the
samples from the city parks, the mean value did not differ significantly from the neighboring
forests (S3 and S5). In general, the mushrooms from the S1 site exhibited the lowest mineral
concentrations, with the exception of Al, Ba and Ca.
The elemental composition for the caps and the stipes are also given in the supplementary
material (Table S1 in the supplementary material). Regardless the habitat, several elements (Cd.
Cu, Mg, P, S, Zn) had significantly higher concentrations in the caps, than in the stipes, other
elements (Al, Ba, Fe, K, Ni, Sr, Ti) were evenly distributed in the fungi (Tables S2 and S3 in the
supplementary material). The Na was the only element, which was present in smaller
concentrations in the caps, than in the stipes. This distribution pattern was in accordance with
that of the A. campestris coming from the same urban and peri-urban area (Zsigmond et al.,
2018). We identified a habitat-dependent behavior of the R. cyanoxantha related to the
accumulation of two metals (Ag and Ca). While in the forests the mushroom had significantly
higher concentrations of these elements in the caps than in the stipes, there was a considerable
shift in the quantity of these elements in the stipes in the urban area (the t-statistics have not
revealed significant differences of these metals in the caps and the stipes of the mushrooms
growing in the city).

264	3.3. Soil factors influencing the mineral uptake of the mushroom
265	The R. cyanoxantha has manifested a weak accumulating potential for minerals. We found BAF
266	values greater than unity only in the case of the major elements K, P, S and a few minor elements
267	like Cd, Cu and Zn (Table S4 in the supplementary material). The BAF values indicated a strong
268	K, P and S uptake capability of the R. cyanoxantha with the highest median BAF values found in
269	the samples from S1 (BAF $_K$ = 33, BAF $_P$ = 21, BAF $_S$ = 12). The BAF values were considerably
270	lower for Cd, Cu and Zn. The highest median values for Cu and Zn (BAF _{Cu} = 8.7 , BAF _{Zn} = 3.2)
271	were also found in the samples from S1; and for Cd (BAF $_{Cd}$ = 6.2) in the samples from S7. These
272	results are in agreement with literature data, which revealed that the Russula spp. could
273	accumulate cadmium more efficiently than other ectomycorrhizal species (Demirbaş, 2001b;
274	Cejpková et al., 2016; Melgar et al., 2016). For example, both R. cyanoxantha and R. ochroleuca
275	grown in unpolluted and polluted forests were characterized with bioaccumulation factors of
276	about 10 for Cd. Many studies also revealed the Zn and Cu accumulation property of the Russula
277	spp., reporting BAF values of 5.9-7.9 for Cu and 3.4-5.2 for Zn (Demirbaş, 2001a; Alonso et al.,
278	2003; Podlasińska <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Cejpková <i>et al.</i> , 2016).
279	On the other hand, this fungus species proved to be excluder of Pb. Although in some soils the
280	Pb contents were higher than the normal background levels, we couldn't detect this metal in the
281	mushroom. Proskura et al. (2017) found similar behavior of the ectomycorrhizal fungus Boletus
282	badius against Pb. The essential elements like Ca and Mg had maximum median BAF values of
283	0.6 and 0.8 in the samples from site S1, and minimum median values of 0.04 and 0.2 for the
284	samples from both S4 and S5 sites. The other elements had BAF values lower than 0.1; whereas
285	the Fe had the lowest values (< 0.01).

The accumulation rates disagreed between the sampling sites suggesting a definite influence of the soil characteristics over the mineral uptake of this fungus (Fig. 2). The city parks proved to be a distinct habitat for this mushroom. Almost in all the cases, we found the weakest accumulation power of the *R. cyanoxantha* coming from the parks. The median BAF values were much lower than in the forests: 0.2 (Cd), 2.1 (Cu), 5.4 (K), 7.8 (P), 10 (S) and 1.3 (Zn). Site S1 was also unique from many points of view: it had the lowest concentration of the studied elements in the soil, it had low or average mineral content in the mushrooms with the exception of Al, Ba and Ca, and it exhibited unexpectedly high BAF values for Ca, K, Mg, P and Zn.

294 Fig. 2

The one-way ANOVA test revealed a clear trend in the elemental uptake potential of the *R. cyanoxantha*. The BAF values significantly decreased toward the city from the southern part in the case of Cu, Mg, P and Zn. On the northern part of the city, the furthermost forest (S7) exhibited significantly higher BAF values than the S3-S5 sites for Ca, Cu, Mg, K, Zn. It resembled the most with S1 site. We tested the existence of a BAF gradient statistically along the natural-outskirts-city trajectory using two-way factorial ANOVA. The first factor was the habitat and had three levels: the natural habitat (S1 and S7 sites), the outskirts (S2, S3, S5, S6 sites), and the city (S4 site). The second factor was the element, having five levels (Cu, K, Mg, P, Zn). The Fig. 3a. shows the means of the BAFs of each element according to the sampling sites. For each element, the mean concentration decreased from the natural habitat toward the urban area. The Fig. 3b. represents the weighted means of the BAFs of all the tested elements according to the habitat. The differences between the means were significant by ANOVA. This result proves the presence of a negative cumulated BAF gradient from the natural habitat of the mushroom to the

city. The urban environment seems to have an inhibitory effect over the mineral accumulation potential of the *R. cyanoxantha*.

310 Fig. 3

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These results suggested the existence of a tight relationship between the soil properties and the elemental uptake capability of the mushroom. In order to elucidate this, we tested the correlation between the elemental composition of the mushroom and its bioaccumulation properties with the soil properties (Fig. 4). We found few significant correlations between the mineral content of the mushroom and the soil properties. The Spearman rank correlation coefficient values were low (< 0.45). Other studies also suggested the independence of metal accumulation from the soil properties (Brzostowski et al., 2011; Kojta and Falandysz, 2016; Ivanić et al. 2019). However, we found strong correlations between the bioaccumulation factors and the carbonate content of the soil (r < -0.60), for almost all the elements with high BAF values, and generally weaker correlation with the organic matter content and the pH of the soil. This pattern shows that the uptake of the elements by the mushrooms from the soil is a complex process. Some factors, as the organic matter (like chelating agents and siderophores) and the acids (like organic acids), originate from at least two sources: both from the mushrooms and the soil. Thus, the mobilization of metals from the soil might be controlled mainly by the fungi and not by the soil properties. However, it seems, that the carbonate content of the soil could hinder the chemical processes initiated by the mushroom in order to solubilize the metals. In the light of these findings, the several extreme BAF values for S1 and S7 in contrast with S4 could be explained by the contrast in the carbonate content and the pH values of the soils (Fig. 5). The rise of the soil pH coupled with higher carbonate content was expected, as the calcium-carbonate (the major carbonate type in the soil) raises the pH of the soil (Essington, 2016). We found Spearman rank

correlation coefficients of 0.38 and 0.51 for the carbonate content and the pH of the soil samples
(the former value refers to the pH measured when distilled water was added to the soil samples,
the last value when CaCl ₂ solution was added to the soil samples). In a neutral or slightly
alkaline soil, most of the metals are insoluble (Meuser, 2010).
Fig. 4., Fig 5.

4. Conclusions

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This research supported the previous findings related to the *Russula* spp. about the weak mineral accumulation potential of the genus, characterized with lower than the usual levels of all the elements, except for the Zn (generally), and the Cd (sporadically). We did not identify any trend in the mineral content of the R. cyanoxantha along the chosen urbanization gradient, but we disclosed a definite fingerprint of the urban environment on the elemental composition of this mushroom. We have also revealed a negative trend in the bioaccumulation potential of the mushroom along the urbanization gradient: the most notable behavior of the fungus was its turn from a cadmium-accumulator to a cadmium-excluder. This is an important finding, which highlights a positive environmental influence of the urbanization over the toxic metal uptake of edible mushrooms growing in Cluj-Napoca. The strongest inhibitory influence over the mineral uptake of the R. cyanoxantha turned to be the carbonate content of the soil. We found positive correlations between the carbonate content and the pH of the soil. The weaker correlation between the bioaccumulation potential of the mushroom with the organic matter content and the pH of the soil could show the importance of the peculiar mechanisms exerted by the mycelium for the solubilization of these elements resulting in considerably better uptakes. The hypothesis that the urban soil polluted with heavy metals would increase the content of these elements in the mushroom was thus disproved. The possible explanation might be the elevated carbonate content of the urban soil, which immobilized these metals in the soil.

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467	Captions to Figures
468	
469	Fig. 1. The sampling sites distributed along an urbanisation gradient: S1 – forest (near Feleacu),
470	S2 - Făget forest, S3 -forest (Mănăştur), S4 - the Iuliu Haţieaganu Park and the
471	Botanical Garden inside the city, S5 - Hoia forest, S6 -forest (near Popești), S7 - forest
472	(near Deuşu).
473	Fig. 2. The variation of the normalized bioaccumulation factors along the sampling sites: S4-S1,
474	growing distance from the city center (S4) to the south; S4-S7, growing distance from the
475	city center to the north. Elements were chosen with BAF values slightly below unity (Ca,
476	Mg) and values above unity (Cd, Cu, K, P, S, Zn).
477	Fig. 3. The two-way factorial ANOVA test for the BAFs according to the habitat types and the
478	elements: a) the mean BAFs of some elements according to the habitat type; b) the
479	weighted means for cumulated BAFs according to the habitat types.
480	Fig. 4. Spearman rank-correlation coefficient values obtained for the elemental concentrations
481	for the mushroom fruiting body (mg kg ⁻¹ dry matter) and the soil properties, as well as
482	for the BAF values and the soil properties.
483	Fig. 5. Box and whiskers plots for the soil properties (median, IQR, outliers falling below Q1 –
484	1,5IQR or beyond $Q3 + 1,5IQR$).
485	

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17	Fig. 5. Box and whiskers of some physical characteristics of the soil as a function of the
18	sampling sites. (median – solid bold line, 50% – green area, minimum and maximum –
19	whiskers with dotted lines.).
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Table 1 The method detection limits (MDL) of the elements quantified in dry soil and mushroom samples by ICP-OES, and the concentrations and the recoveries found for the reference certified materials (mean \pm sd, n = 3).

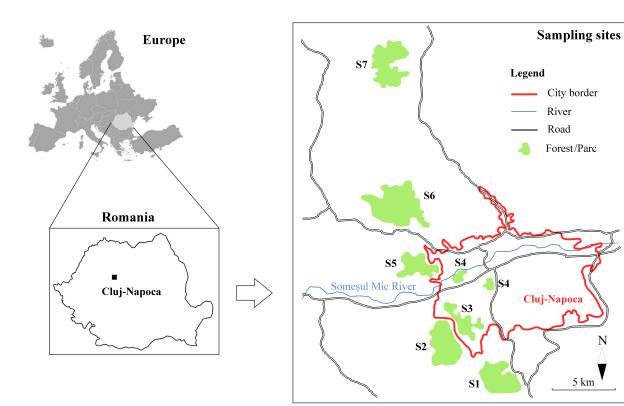
Element	MDL (mg kg ⁻¹)		Certified value	Measured value	Recovery (%)	Certified value	Measured value	Recovery (%)
	Soil Mushroom		S	oil (NCS DC7302	26)	Apple leaves (SRM 1515)		
Ag	0.73	0.13	0.068	< MDL		no data	< MDL	
Al	5.4	6.0	54990	41500 ± 325	75	284	230 ± 19	81
Ba	0.58	0.51	356	280 ± 2	79	48.8	48.2 ± 1.4	99
Ca	37	67	46312	45600 ± 455	98	15250	15600 ± 410	102
Cd	1.2	0.30	0.108	< MDL		0.013	< MDL	
Cr	0.66	0.18	43	37 ± 0.4	86	0.3^{1}	0.2 ± 0.1	67
Cu	2.4	6.9	28	24 ± 1	86	5.69	5.2 ± 0.4	91
Fe	28	4.0	28816	26600 ± 185	92	82.7	72 ± 3	87
K	32	4.7	16519	14700 ± 263	89	16080	14900 ± 224	93
Mg	4.5	26	17970	19100 ± 101	106	2710	2830 ± 62	104
Mn	0.20	0.15	667	637 ± 5	96	54.1	52.1 ± 1.1	96
Na	117	23	66693	68600 ± 722	103	24.4	26.2 ± 5.8	107
Ni	1.0	0.66	20	20 ± 1	100	0.94	0.76 ± 0.11	81
P	297	304	706	810 ± 11	115	1593	1690 ± 15	106
Pb	4.0	0.85	3.4	< MDL		0.470	< MDL	
S	87	34	2.70	3.2 ± 0.3	119	1800^{1}	1870 ± 32	104
Sr	0.27	0.12	435	520 ± 16	120	25.1	26.3 ± 0.7	105
Ti	0.28	0.01	3300	2600 ± 26	79	no data		
Zn	2.1	1.2	61	58 ± 2	95	12.45	12.7 ± 0.4	102

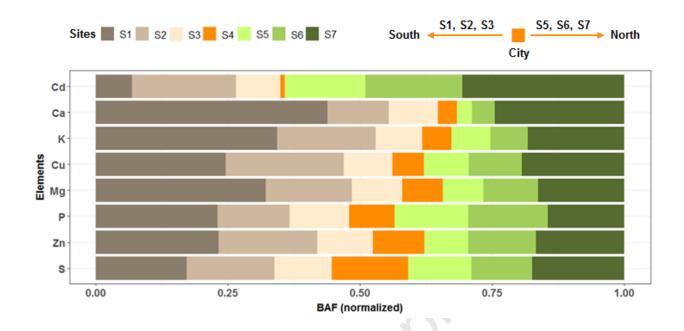
¹Information mass fraction values.

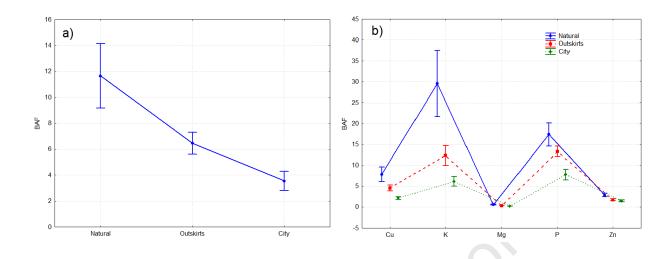
Table 2 The elemental composition (mean \pm sd) of the *R. cyanoxantha* fruiting body (FB) and of the soil in the six forests and in the city parks given in mg kg⁻¹ (dry matter). The statistics were calculated after removing the outliers.

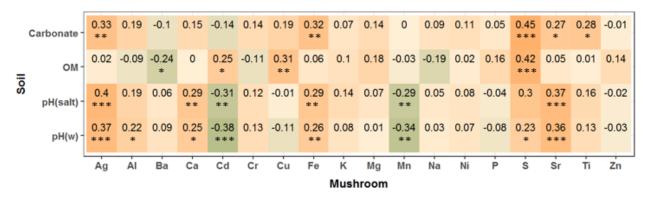
Element	Samples	Feleacu (S1) n = 13	$ Făget (S2) \\ n = 15 $	Mănăștur (S3) n = 13	City (S4) n = 16	Hoia (S5) n = 14	Popești (S6) n = 12	Deuşu (S7) n = 12	Usual content ^a Background level ^b
Ag	FB	0.29 ± 0.28	< MDL	0.28 ± 0.19	0.76 ± 0.50	0.48 ± 0.47	0.18 ± 0.14	0.21 ± 0.20	0.2–3
	soil	< MDL	< MDL	< MDL	4.57 ± 4.00	< MDL	< MDL	< MDL	< 2
Al	FB	170 ± 8.5	51.2 ± 10.4	153 ± 7.1	49.7 ± 26.2	68.6 ± 14.4	40.4 ± 14.1	25.4 ± 8.7	50-200
	soil	5460 ± 1130	12000 ± 3790	14500 ± 4700	18700 ± 3650	16600 ± 5600	18000 ± 6360	13000 ± 1710	_
Ba	FB	1.39 ± 0.66	< MDL	0.67 ± 0.28	0.65 ± 0.32	0.63 ± 0.47	1.27 ± 0.79	< MDL	1–5
	soil	45.9 ± 23.7	72.2 ± 24.6	88.5 ± 19.2	104 ± 28	120 ± 33	171 ± 69.4	59.9 ± 8.24	< 200
Co	FB	236 ± 90	107 ± 17	167 ± 32	167 ± 98	218 ± 141	221 ± 102	173 ± 67	200-1000
Ca	soil	415 ± 192	875 ± 377	1220 ± 628	3490 ± 805	4270 ± 2050	3920 ± 2290	480 ± 108	_
C4	FB	3.15 ± 3.70	8.22 ± 4.90	6.13 ± 4.18	0.39 ± 0.35	9.54 ± 5.46	12.2 ± 8.8	14.1 ± 8.9	0.5-5
Cd	soil	< MDL	2.08 ± 0.26	2.54 ± 0.74	1.23 ± 0.45	3.13 ± 0.40	3.39 ± 0.90	2.32 ± 0.37	< 1
Cr	FB	< MDL	< MDL	< MDL	0.40 ± 0.19	< MDL	< MDL	0.25 ± 0.14	0.5-5
	soil	5.44 ± 1.66	16.4 ± 5.89	18.9 ± 6.13	27.2 ± 6.25	27.1 ± 9.77	25.9 ± 7.31	22.7 ± 3.30	< 30
Cu	FB	37.1 ± 35.5	48.4 ± 45.5	37.6 ± 38.7	37.6 ± 33.8	47.1 ± 48.4	55.0 ± 48.4	47.8 ± 46.8	20-70
	soil	5.99 ± 3.67	7.84 ± 3.28	11.6 ± 4.05	18.6 ± 2.76	14.3 ± 4.25	21.6 ± 9.19	7.08 ± 1.43	< 20
Fe	FB	23.7 ± 8.54	23.4 ± 10.4	22.6 ± 6.76	69.1 ± 29.9	23.9 ± 5.29	34.5 ± 14.1	27.4 ± 4.28	30–150
1.0	soil	5040 ± 600	12000 ± 3090	14500 ± 3720	18900 ± 4140	17400 ± 2660	18000 ± 5000	13000 ± 1420	_
K	FB	16400 ± 3580	16300 ± 2540	15800 ± 2770	20000 ± 1780	18800 ± 3020	19700 ± 3510	21400 ± 2350	20000-40000
K	soil	479 ± 149	1090 ± 505	1740 ± 858	3540 ± 938	2660 ± 979	2610 ± 770	1230 ± 337	_
Mg	FB	564 ± 79	602 ± 53	543 ± 76	723 ± 87	634 ± 99	672 ± 112	787 ± 137	800-1800
wig	soil	800 ± 218	1900 ± 730	2450 ± 770	4370 ± 1630	3500 ± 495	3440 ± 1020	2270 ± 430	_
Mn	FB	17.2 ± 3.5	15.9 ± 3.2	18.3 ± 3.4	10.9 ± 1.3	17.7 ± 3.6	18.8 ± 5.1	19.1 ± 3.0	10-60
IVIII	soil	514 ± 229	1140 ± 447	1380 ± 540	478 ± 49.9	1030 ± 303	1320 ± 662	960 ± 187	< 900
Na	FB	150 ± 90	116 ± 78	258 ± 149	252 ± 112	136 ± 110	115 ± 78	337 ± 222	100-400
1 va	soil	< MDL	< MDL	< MDL	145 ± 78	< MDL	< MDL	< MDL	_
Ni	FB	1.22 ± 0.52	1.50 ± 0.49	1.35 ± 0.44	2.49 ± 1.52	1.07 ± 0.57	1.42 ± 0.55	1.74 ± 0.76	0.5 - 5
111	soil	5.13 ± 1.49	14.6 ± 6.88	18.0 ± 7.10	23.9 ± 4.38	29.1 ± 6.57	29.9 ± 11.3	14.9 ± 3.58	< 20
P	FB	3610 ± 480	4420 ± 310	3580 ± 290	5190 ± 400	4020 ± 680	4500 ± 740	5480 ± 610	5000-10000
	soil	188 ± 64.7	367 ± 39.7	327 ± 64.2	707 ± 197	338 ± 110	322 ± 109	428 ± 32.2	_
Pb	soil	16.2 ± 2.68	22.5 ± 3.22	22.4 ± 4.07	14.7 ± 1.97	31.1 ± 2.93	28.4 ± 9.39	23.6 ± 2.00	< 20
S	FB	1730 ± 150	2020 ± 150	1850 ± 140	2550 ± 330	2170 ± 400	2200 ± 330	2220 ± 400	1000-3000
	soil	136 ± 30.4	178 ± 26.5	244 ± 72.9	224 ± 73.5	315 ± 151	317 ± 118	189 ± 55.8	_
Sr	FB	0.59 ± 0.18	< MDL	0.52 ± 0.08	0.82 ± 0.45	0.74 ± 0.60	0.81 ± 0.34	0.43 ± 0.10	< 2
Sr	soil	3.61 ± 1.27	8.91 ± 3.13	12.8 ± 5.37	24.2 ± 3.95	27.4 ± 9.55	24.9 ± 13.0	6.58 ± 0.90	_
Ti	FB	0.19 ± 0.12	0.20 ± 0.12	0.22 ± 0.09	0.76 ± 0.45	0.21 ± 0.15	0.28 ± 0.14	0.36 ± 0.14	< 10
	soil	110 ± 13.6	210 ± 80.3	202 ± 79.0	429 ± 123	225 ± 94.5	282 ± 96.7	364 ± 95.5	_
Zn	FB	85.5 ± 19.1	102 ± 26	74.5 ± 15.8	104 ± 29	86.3 ± 18.8	108 ± 35	101 ± 21	30-150
	soil	27.2 ± 5.49	43.7 ± 12.6	51.7 ± 13.5	72.8 ± 16.5	84.6 ± 10.2	81.4 ± 31.4	44.5 ± 6.41	< 100

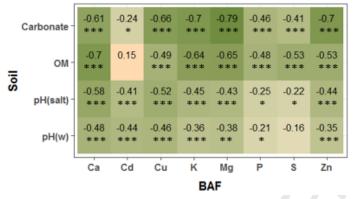
^aUsual content of elements in mushrooms from unpolluted areas according to Kalač (2016).
^bBackground levels for soils given by the Ministry of Environment of Romania (Government Decree 756/1997, November 3, 1997).

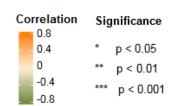


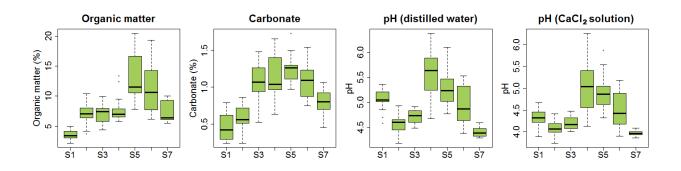












The city had local influence over the mineral composition of this mushroom.

The soil properties strongly affected the elemental uptake capability of the fungus.

The mineral accumulation potential of the fungus gradually decreased toward the city.

The carbonate content of the soil impeded the uptake of many metals by the mushrooms.