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^{137}Cs and ^{40}K in *Cortinarius caperatus* mushrooms (1996–2016) in Poland - Bioconcentration and estimated intake: ^{137}Cs in *Cortinarius* spp. from the Northern Hemisphere from 1974 to 2016

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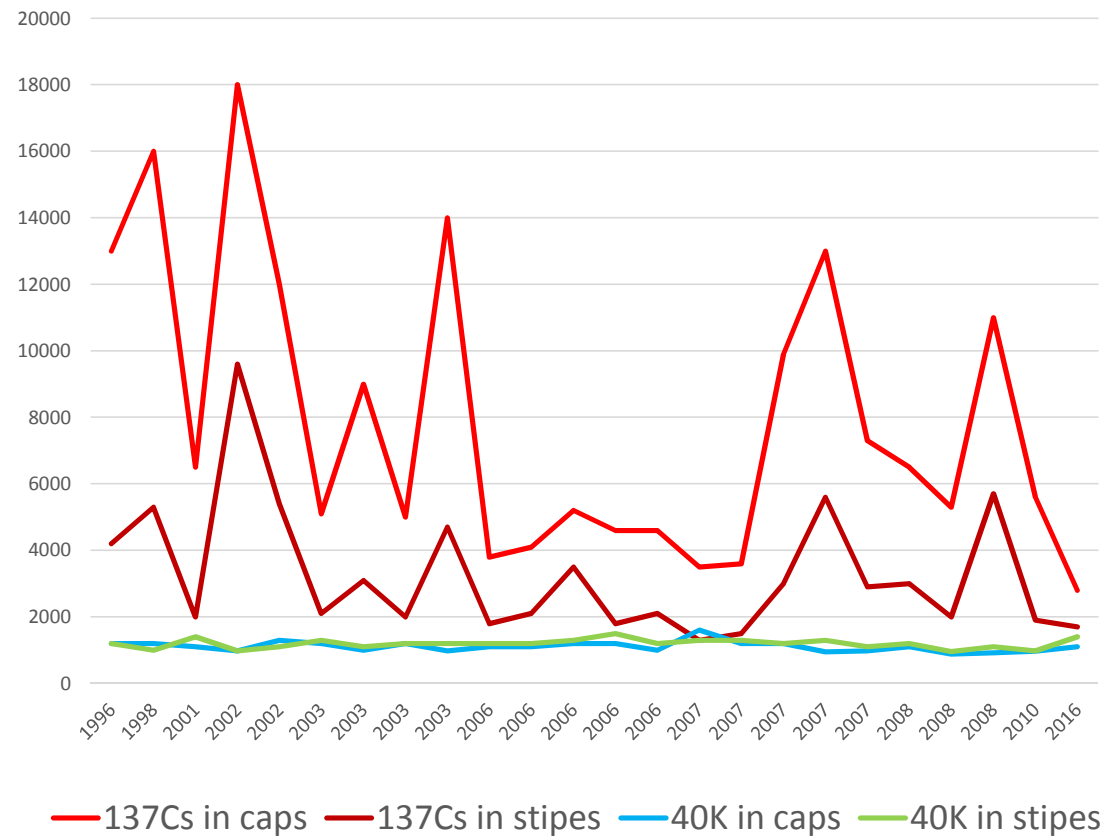
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^{137}Cs and ^{40}K in *Cortinarius caperatus*
from the northern regions of Poland
(Bq kg^{-1} dry weight)



1 ¹³⁷Cs and ⁴⁰K in *Cortinarius caperatus* mushrooms (1996 – 2016) in Poland
2 - bioconcentration and estimated intake: ¹³⁷Cs in *Cortinarius* spp. from the
3 Northern Hemisphere from 1974 – 2016
4

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25 **Highlights**

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- 27 Gypsy mushroom (*C. caperatus*) is an efficient fungal accumulator of radiocaesium
- 28 Decades after Chernobyl accident *C. caperatus* could exceed radiocaesium safety limits
- 29 Activity concentrations of *C. caperatus* fluctuate over time
- 30 Recent examples of *C. caperatus* from hot-spots can show elevated ^{137}Cs levels
- 31 Dietary intake of some Polish *C. caperatus* can provide relatively high radioactive dose

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50 **Abstract**

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52 *Cortinarius caperatus* grows in the northern regions of Europe, North America and Asia and
53 is widely collected by mushroom foragers across Europe. This study shows that in the last
54 three decades since the Chernobyl nuclear accident, *C. caperatus* collected across much of
55 Northern Poland exhibited high activity concentrations of radiocaesium (^{137}Cs) - a long-lived
56 radionuclide. The mushroom appears to efficiently bioconcentrate ^{137}Cs from contaminated
57 soil substrata followed by sequestration into its morphological parts such as the cap and stipe
58 which are used as food. The gradual leaching of ^{137}Cs into the lower strata of surface soils in
59 exposed areas are likely to facilitate higher bioavailability to the mycelia of this species which
60 penetrate to relatively greater depths and may account for the continuing high activity levels
61 noticed in Polish samples (e.g. activity within caps in some locations was still at 11000 Bq kg^{-1}
62 dw in 2008 relative to a peak of 18000 in 2002). The associated dietary intake levels of ^{137}Cs
63 have often exceeded the tolerance limits set by the European Union (370 and $600 \text{ Bq kg}^{-1} \text{ ww}$
64 for children and adults respectively) during the years 1996 to 2010. Human dietary exposure
65 to ^{137}Cs is influenced by the method of food preparation and may be mitigated by blanching
66 followed by disposal of the water, rather than direct consumption after stir-frying or stewing.
67 It may be prudent to provide precautionary advice and monitor activity levels, as this
68 mushroom continues to be foraged by casual as well as experienced mushroom hunters.

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73 **Key words:** exposure, food, fungi, forest, radiocaesium, radiotoxicity, soil

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75 **Introduction**

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77 Surface vegetation and fungi, within the humified layer of soil are part of the forest ecosystem
78 that is susceptible to pollution with caesium ($^{134}/^{137}\text{Cs}$ – half-life 2.1/30 yrs respectively)
79 particularly from radioactive fallout after nuclear events (Römmelt et al., 1990; Suchara,
80 2017). Mushrooms, the fruiting bodies of fungi, exhibit a remarkable aptitude and propensity
81 to bioconcentrate a variety of metallic elements and metalloids, both of a beneficial (Cu, K,
82 Se, Zn) or harmful nature (As, Ag, Cd, Hg, Pb, radiocaesium) (Cocchi et al., 2017;
83 Frankowska et al., 2010; Giannaccini et al., 2012; Ingrao et al., 1992; Jarzyńska et al., 2012a,
84 2012b; Komorowicz et al., 2019; Melgar et al., 1998; Vukojević et al., 2019). This tendency
85 arises from genetic features of the species which include a wealth of transport genes and
86 binding ligands which act as drivers of metallic element accumulation on the one hand
87 combined with site-specific features related to soil geochemistry, biology and pollution on the
88 other. Mushrooms that grow in soil contaminated due to mining or processing of metal ores,
89 metallurgy, metal waste management, chemical waste disposal, nuclear explosions and
90 nuclear accidents are often considerably contaminated with specific metal or metalloid
91 elements, e.g. arsenic (As), cadmium (Cd), lead (Pb), mercury (Hg), nickel (Ni), silver (Ag)
92 or radionuclides (^{134}Cs , ^{137}Cs) (Barcan et al., 1988; Borovička et al., 2014; Falandysz, 2016,
93 2017; Kojta et al., 2012; Komárek et al., 2007; Larsen et al., 1998; Mleczek et al., 2016;
94 Petkovšek and Pokorný, 2013; Steinhauser et al., 2014). Similarly, those that grow in soils
95 with a naturally high polymetallic background from regions with geochemical anomalies can
96 display high levels of Hg and As, e.g. affected mushrooms in the mercuriferous belt in the
97 Yunnan province of China (Falandysz and Rizal, 2016; Falandysz et al., 2014, 2015a, 2015b;
98 Kojta et al., 2015), and those susceptible to cinnabar deposition from sites and mining activity

99 in Europe in the Middle Spiš in Slovakia, Monte Amiata in Italy or the Idrija area in Slovenia
100 (Árvay et al., 2014; Bargagli and Baldi 1984; Vogel-Mikuš et al., 2016).

101 Among monovalent alkali elements, stable caesium (^{133}Cs), lithium (Li) and sodium
102 (Na) occur as minor constituents in mushrooms compared to the high proportions of
103 potassium (K) with lesser amounts of rubidium (Rb) (Falandysz and Borovička, 2013). The
104 edible Gypsy mushroom, *Cortinarius caperatus* (Pers.) Fr., shows a high propensity to absorb
105 radioactive caesium ($^{134/137}\text{Cs}$) from soil (Haselwandter et al., 1988). The contents of K, Rb,
106 Na and Cs (^{133}Cs) in *C. caperatus* (Pers.) Fr., collected from Precambrian shales in the Middle
107 Bohemia region (background area without metallic ores) were respectively $45000 \pm 1400 \text{ mg}$
108 kg^{-1} dry biomass (db), $243 \pm 8 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ db, $720 \pm 25 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ db and 8.4 mg kg^{-1} db (Řanda
109 and Kučera, 2004). K, Rb and Na in *C. caperatus* ($n = 3$) sampled in a Norwegian mountain
110 area in 1988 occurred at concentrations of 55000, 173 and 102 mg kg^{-1} db, respectively, with
111 total Cs at $3.6 \pm 1.6 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ db (including $^{134/137}\text{Cs}$ at activity concentration of $282000 \pm$
112 $162000 \text{ Bq kg}^{-1}$ db) (Bakken and Olsen, 1990b).

113 The content of ^{133}Cs in the fruiting bodies of fungi is positively correlated to the value
114 of the bioconcentration factor/transfer factor (BCF/TF) for radiocaesium in mushrooms from
115 the soil substrata (Olsen, 1994). It is therefore unsurprising that the level of radiocaesium
116 activity correlates well with ^{133}Cs at equilibrium state in mushrooms (Ismail, 1994; Karadeniz
117 and Yaprak, 2007; Rühm et al., 1999; Yoshida et al., 2004). Nevertheless, due to the high
118 biodiversity within mushrooms there is an insufficient quantity of good quality data on this
119 topic.

120 The activity concentration of ^{137}Cs is often also positively correlated with Rb content
121 (Vinichuk et al., 2011) but not with K (^{40}K), Na and Li or P (Bakken and Olsen, 1990b; Bem
122 et al., 1990; Falandysz et al., 2019a; Ismail et al. 1995; Karadeniz and Yaprak, 2010;
123 Strandberg, 1994; Vinichuk et al., 2011). Nyholm and Tyler (2000) noted that: “low K status

124 (pool of exchangeable K) in the soil, usually aggravated by high soil acidity which causes K
125 leaching losses, is compensated by increased uptake of Rb by plants and fungi". Nevertheless,
126 any dependence on uptake or a substantial relationship between ^{133}Cs and $^{134/137}\text{Cs}$ on the one
127 hand and Rb and K on the other has not been studied so far in mushrooms.

128 *C. caperatus* is a prized edible species with a fruiting body of appreciable size. The
129 stipe height is typically from 6 to 12 (15 cm) with a thickness ranging from 1 to 2 (3 cm) over
130 most of the length, widening towards the base, and a cap of up to 12 cm in diameter. Its
131 occurrence is widespread in the northern regions of Europe and it also occurs locally in other
132 regions of Europe, North America and Asia (section 3.3.). Its flesh has a mild smell (Laessoe
133 et al., 1996) and nutty flavor when cooked.

134 The culinary treatment and preservation of mushrooms including *C. caperatus* vary,
135 depending on the strain, abundance, region, local culinary tradition or the specific needs of
136 collectors or growers. *C. caperatus* can be prepared for consumption as fried, stewed or
137 pickled (caps with a short part of the stipe prepared from young or button stage fruiting bodies
138 are especially preferred). Blanching (parboiling) with high excess of water and blanching &
139 pickling can significantly decrease the content of radiocaesium in mushrooms prepared for
140 consumption due to high predilection and leakage of the element into the water phase, and
141 hence reduce exposure. However, blanching, in common with stir-frying, frying or stewing,
142 causes, among other effects, a partial dehydration and shrinkage of the prepared mushrooms
143 leading to an apparent increase in the elemental content of the cooked produce when
144 expressed on a whole (wet) weight basis (relative to the uncooked mushroom weight). This
145 can result in an apparent increase in the intake of a compound or radionuclide (Falandysz et
146 al., 2019b, 2019c, 2019d, 2019f), relative to calculations/estimations that are based on dry
147 weight results for both uncooked and cooked mushrooms and can lead to misinterpretation.
148 Stewing or frying at higher temperatures lead to denaturation, hydrolysis and dehydration, and

149 can cause partial leaching, but not loss of the radiocaesium (and other metallic elements)
150 content which shows an apparent increase when results are expressed on a whole (wet) weight
151 basis for substrate (fresh mushrooms) and product (stewed or fried mushrooms). During
152 frying there can be partial leakage of minerals into the oil residue (this is sometimes
153 recovered and used as a sauce and consumed, or withdrawn), but at the same time due to the
154 high temperature of the oil (around 160 °C during stir-frying in deep oil), partial dehydration
155 also occurs, resulting in enhancement of the metallic and metalloid element content, including
156 radiocaesium (Falandysz et al., 2019b-e). The process of stewing (often with other vegetables,
157 spices and a handful of butter or vegetable oil), in a covered pot, results in almost all minerals
158 remaining with the dish. Hence, due to the high bioaccumulation potential for radiocaesium
159 and regardless of the kind of culinary processing, *C. caperatus* collected from areas
160 experiencing radioactive fallout can be a particularly risky source of exposure to consumers.
161 In this study the activity concentration and bioconcentration of ^{137}Cs and ^{40}K in *C. caperatus*
162 mushrooms collected from soil substrata (0 – 10 cm layer) sampled from twenty two locations
163 in the northern part of Poland in 1996 – 2016 was evaluated. Existing data on the
164 radiocaesium contamination in mushrooms (sixty one species) of the genus *Cortinarius* from
165 locations in Europe, Japan and China during 1974 – 2016 have also been collated and
166 discussed.

167

168 **2. Materials and methods**

169

170 **2.1. Mushrooms and soil substrate**

171

172 Samples of *C. caperatus* matured fruiting bodies (sporocarps) and generally, the underlying
173 soil substrata (0 - 10 cm upper layer) of humified and mineral soil (ca. 100 g) were collected

174 from 22 locations in 20 geographically discrete, distributed forested areas in the northern part
175 of Poland in 1996 – 2016 (Fig. 1). Between 8 and 70 individual fruiting bodies were collected
176 per sampling location. The fresh fruiting bodies were routinely cleaned to remove any visible
177 plant vegetation and soil debris at the site using a plastic knife, and the bottom part of the
178 stipe was cut-off. The cleaned samples were air-dried for a few days. With the exception of
179 two sets from sites for which the whole fruiting bodies were examined, each individual
180 fruiting body was then separated into cap (with skin) and stipe, and dried at 85 °C to constant
181 mass. The dried fungal materials were pulverized in a porcelain mortar and kept in screw
182 sealed plastic (low density polyethylene) bags under dry conditions.

183 In parallel with the mushrooms from 17 locations, samples of corresponding topsoil
184 layer (0–10 cm) of humified and mineral forest soil were collected from directly beneath the
185 fruiting bodies, and were pooled for each site (ca. 100 g of dried soil within a pool). After the
186 removal of any small stones, sticks and leaves, the pooled samples were air dried at room
187 temperature (constant 18 - 22 °C) for several weeks under clean (preventing from dust) and
188 dry conditions. When constant air-dried weight was reached, the soil samples were graded
189 through a plastic sieve of 2 mm pore size, into sealed polyethylene bags and kept under dry
190 and clean conditions in the laboratory sample store.

191

192 **2.2. Analysis**

193

194 ^{137}Cs and ^{40}K contents were determined using a gamma spectrometer with a coaxial HPGe
195 detector with a relative efficiency of 18 % and a resolution of 1.9 keV at 1.332 MeV. All
196 measurements of the fungal materials were preceded by a background measurement (time
197 80,000 s or 250,000 s), and background counts were subtracted (the GENIE 2000 program).
198 The equipment was calibrated using a multi-isotope standard and the method was fully

199 validated. The reference solution ‘Standard solution of gamma emitting isotopes, code BW/Z-
200 62/27/07’ produced at the IBJ-Świerk near Otwock in Poland was used for preparing
201 reference samples for equipment calibration. The same geometry of cylindrical dishes with 40
202 mm diameter (as applied for environmental samples) was used for reference samples during
203 equipment calibration. Data obtained were recalculated for dehydrated materials (dried at 105
204 °C) and results were decay corrected back to the time of mushrooms and soil sample
205 collection (Falandysz et al., 2015a, 2017; Zalewska and Saniewski, 2011). Concentrations of
206 stable K were calculated from the ^{40}K data (Table 1).

207

208 3. Results and discussion

209

210 3.1. ^{137}Cs and ^{40}K in mushrooms

211

212 As in other locations in northern Europe, *C. caperatus* that grows in the northern regions of
213 Poland is found in coniferous (spruce and pine) and beech woods on poor and acidic sandy
214 soils, both humid and dry. Seasonally, in Poland, it can proliferate in forests in the late
215 summer and autumn. Caps in this study showed higher concentrations of ^{137}Cs than stipes, the
216 median value of the quotient between level of the activity concentration in caps and stipes
217 (index $Q_{C/S}$) for all locations was 2.4 (mean: 2.4 ± 0.5), and minimum and maximum values
218 were in the range 1.5 to 3.3 (Table 1).

219 As reported in Table 1, the determined activity concentrations of ^{137}C in Bq per
220 kilogram of dry weight (dw) in pooled samples and according to the period and place of
221 collection were in the range of 1500 ± 16 to 9600 ± 71 Bq kg^{-1} dw in stipes to 2800 ± 52 to
222 18000 ± 140 Bq kg^{-1} dw in caps and fluctuated to some degree depending on region (Fig. 2).
223 Mushrooms from a few sites in the Warmia region and from one site from the Mazovia

224 (Mazowsze) region all showed relatively high ^{137}Cs activity (Table 1). Nevertheless, a high
225 degree of contamination was also noted in *C. caperatus* at a site in the Pomerania region. The
226 activity concentration of ^{137}Cs in the pooled sample of the whole fruiting bodies collected in
227 2010 was $3700 \pm 30 \text{ Bq kg}^{-1} \text{ dw}$.

228 *C. caperatus* is considered to have a high potential to accumulate ^{137}Cs (Bakken and
229 Olsen, 1990a; Strandberg, 2004). Indeed, the activity concentrations of ^{137}Cs in caps of this
230 species collected over 22 to 24 years after the Chernobyl accident and examined in this study
231 were as high as $11000 \pm 82 \text{ Bq kg}^{-1} \text{ dw}$ in the Orzechowo place (Warmia region) and $5600 \pm$
232 $58 \text{ Bq kg}^{-1} \text{ dw}$ in the Śliwice place (central area of the Tuchola Pinewoods) (Table 1). The
233 substantial variability in the activity concentrations of ^{137}Cs within the caps and stipes of *C.*
234 *caperatus* observed in fruiting bodies seem to reflect location-specific differences in the
235 degree of soil pollution (Figs. 2 and 3). For example, activity in caps at four locations in 2003
236 was in the range 5000 ± 49 to $14000 \pm 110 \text{ Bq kg}^{-1} \text{ dw}$, and in 2007 at five other locations
237 was in the range 3500 ± 38 to $13000 \pm 100 \text{ Bq kg}^{-1} \text{ dw}$ (Table 1).

238 Edible mushrooms with greater gastronomic value such as *Imleria badia* (Fr.) Fr.
239 (previous name *Xerocomus badius*), and others such as *Boletus edulis* Bull., *Boletus*
240 *pinophilus* Pilát & Dermek, *Boletus reticulatus* Schaeff., *Leccinum scabrum* (Bull.) Gray or
241 *Cantharellus cibarius* Fr. are also considered as good accumulators of ^{137}Cs . During the last
242 four decades these mushrooms that are foraged in the same regions as those in this study and
243 elsewhere in Poland have been found to be clearly less contaminated with radiocaesium than
244 the *C. caperatus* in this study (Bem et al., 1990; Falandysz et al., 2015a, 2016; Malinowska et
245 al., 2006). An exception could be mushrooms foraged from the hot spot area in the
246 southwestern region of Poland (cumulative deposition of ^{137}Cs was $64 \pm 2 \text{ kBq m}^2$ - as
247 calculated in autumn 2006) and described by Mietelski et al. (2010; see also Fig. 3).
248 Considerable contamination with radiocaesium could also be expected in mushrooms foraged

249 from the region of Śnieżnik in the Sudety Mountains in the south-west of Poland (Fig. 3). *B.*
250 *edulis* collected in 1998 from the Kłocka Dale in Sudety Mountains showed concentration
251 level of ^{137}Cs at $5722 \pm 5 \text{ Bq kg}^{-1} \text{ db}$ (Falandysz et al., 2015a), but there is no data available
252 for other species from this location.

253 The degree of maturity of the fruiting body is a possible variable that could influence
254 the content of accumulated ^{137}Cs as well as certain other metallic and metalloid elements in
255 mushrooms, as seen for example, in *Amanita muscaria* (L.) Lam.) (Falandysz et al., 2019a,
256 2019g), but there are no similar observations that are specific to *C. caperatus* from this study
257 Clearly, the characteristics of accumulation of ^{137}Cs and ^{40}K by *C. caperatus* vary, regardless
258 of location and year of collection, or morphological parts such as caps and stipes (Table 1, Fig.
259 2).

260 Unlike ^{137}Cs , ^{40}K activity concentrations (and hence also total K content) were more
261 uniform across the range of sampling locations and over time, i.e. the median and mean
262 values in stipes was $1200 \text{ Bq kg}^{-1} \text{ dw}$ and $1200 \pm 140 \text{ Bq kg}^{-1} \text{ dw}$ respectively (range $960 \pm$
263 130 to $1500 \pm 150 \text{ Bq kg}^{-1} \text{ dw}$) (see also Fig. 2). The corresponding values for caps were
264 $1100 \text{ Bq kg}^{-1} \text{ dw}$ and $1100 \pm 160 \text{ Bq kg}^{-1} \text{ dw}$ respectively (range 880 ± 140 to $1600 \pm 130 \text{ Bq}$
265 $\text{kg}^{-1} \text{ dw}$) (Table 1). Relative to ^{137}Cs however, the morphological distribution was different in
266 the fruiting bodies. The stipes were usually richer in potassium compared to the caps. The
267 median value of the quotient ($Q_{\text{C/S}}$) for ^{40}K was 0.92 (mean: 0.95 ± 1.2 and range 0.73 to 1.2)
268 (Table 1).

269 Potassium generally occurs to a high level and is an important functional metal in the
270 flesh of mushrooms. It is essential as an intracellular cation for osmotic regulation of water
271 content and as a co-factor in enzymes. The reported potassium content in a large set of
272 fruiting bodies of the mycorrhizal (mutualistic) mushrooms such as King Bolete (*Boletus*
273 *edulis*) and Fly Agaric (*Amanita muscaria*) was in the range 20000 to 38000 $\text{mg kg}^{-1} \text{ db}$

274 (median values) and 37000 to 45000 mg kg⁻¹ db (Drewnowska et al., 2013; Falandysz et al.,
275 2007b; Lipka and Falandysz, 2017). Saprotroph mushrooms are also rich in potassium, e.g. in
276 caps of Parasol Mushroom (*Macrolepiota procera*) potassium occurs in the range 33000 to
277 46000 mg kg⁻¹ db (Gucia et al., 2012; Jarzyńska et al., 2011; Kojta et al., 2011 and 2016;
278 Kułdo et al., 2014) with higher concentrations in the fruitbodies of *Coprinus micaceus*, i.e.
279 from 99000 to 135000 mg kg⁻¹ db (Tyler, 1980), 79500 (74500 to 87000) mg kg⁻¹ db (Seeger,
280 1978) and 69000 ± 2400 mg kg⁻¹ db – all values rounded (Vetter, 1994). On the other hand,
281 mycorrhizal species whose mycelia extract nutrition from wood, e.g. *Auricularia auricula-*
282 *judae* (Bull.) Quéř have considerably lower potassium levels than saprotrophs (4300 mg K kg⁻¹
283 db) (Vetter, 1994).

284 The value of $Q_{C/S}$ for ⁴⁰K in fruiting bodies of many species of mushrooms is usually
285 above 1.0 (Falandysz et al., 2017 and 2018). In a recent study of *A. muscaria*, the caps to stipe
286 quotients ($Q_{C/S}$) of ⁴⁰K decreased with increasing development of the mushroom, i.e. from 1.5
287 (1.4 to 1.6) in the button stage and young individuals (n = 97) down to 1.0 (0.62 to 1.2) in the
288 older and mature specimens (n = 144) (Falandysz et al., 2019a). However, based on the
289 results for one species in one location, it would be difficult to generalize on the influence of
290 the development stage of fruiting bodies on the $Q_{C/S}$ values for other species, as there is no
291 other reported data on this parameter.

292

293 3.2. ¹³⁷Cs and ⁴⁰K in the soil beneath fruiting bodies and bio-concentration

294

295 ¹³⁷Cs activity concentrations in the forest topsoil (mixed layers including organic and mineral
296 layer) samples showed values in the range from 10 ± 1 (Lębork site, Pomerania, 2007) to 70 ±
297 3 Bq kg⁻¹ dm (Strzebielino, Pomerania, 2006). Soils sampled from other locations during
298 1996 to 2008 contained ¹³⁷Cs at level 33±1 to 41±2 Bq kg⁻¹ dm (Table 1). This level of ¹³⁷Cs

299 activity is similar to that reported earlier (Malinowska et al., 2006) for soils sampled below
300 the fruiting bodies of *I. badia*, that were collected from sites in the northern and north-eastern
301 regions of Poland in 1996-1998. ^{137}Cs activity concentrations were in the range of 34 ± 3 to
302 100 ± 4 (total 11 to 260) $\text{Bq kg}^{-1} \text{ dm}$, with areas in the north-eastern region showing higher
303 pollution.

304 Bioconcentration factors (BCFs) and aggregated transfer factors (TFs) are generally
305 calculated to understand the potential of some species including mushrooms, to accumulate
306 chemical elements contained in the soils or substrates in which they grow. BCFs and TFs are
307 ratios of radionuclide specific activity in mushrooms to the activity concentration in the
308 underlying soil (0-10 cm layer) or the surface activity of the soil ($\text{m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$) respectively. It is
309 evident that the BCF estimate is highly specific because it relates to the soil collected directly
310 beneath the sampled fruiting body of the mushroom while the distribution of radiocaesium in
311 the surrounding surface soils can be more heterogeneous.

312 The variability of ^{137}Cs pollution of Polish soil resulting from the Chernobyl accident
313 is evident from geospatial imagery (Fig. 3) which presents a slightly mosaic-like distribution
314 highlighting areas of higher concentration. This detailed picture differs from more generalized
315 images (Betti et al., 2016). Fig. 3 can be particularly useful in identifying possible “hot spot”
316 forested areas, where mushrooms can show site-specific levels of high pollution, both for one-
317 off sampling or for trends from longer term sampling.

318 An earlier study (Borio et al., 1991) showed no reliable correlation between the
319 radiocaesium activity concentration of mushrooms and the underlying soil. However,
320 mushrooms collected from forested areas (Falandysz and Borovička, 2013; Falandysz et al.,
321 2008; Mietelski et al., 2010) that corresponded to “hot spot” visualized in Fig. 3, with soils
322 showing substantially elevated ^{137}Cs levels (due to the Chernobyl fallout), appear to be more

323 contaminated with ^{137}Cs . Moreover the elevation in ^{137}Cs levels for these areas seems to be
324 regardless of the species of mushroom under study.

325 The relationship between substrate areas of mycelial proliferation and growth (either
326 within layers or within the soil horizon), the severity of the radioactive fallout, speed of ^{137}Cs
327 infiltration to deeper layers and the nuclide activity concentration accumulated by mushrooms
328 can be effectively illustrated using the example of the amethyst deceiver mushroom (*Laccaria*
329 *amethystina* Cooke), that feeds on decaying litter. Immediately after the Chernobyl accident,
330 high levels of ^{137}Cs and ^{134}Cs were found in *L. amethystina*, which is known to accumulate
331 activity through surface mycelia that absorb the easily available radiocaesium from fresh fall-
332 out (Stijve and Poretti, 1990). This is because forest topsoil rich in organic matter (humus)
333 can adsorb and retain a large portion of radiocaesium from airborne deposition (Lehto et al.,
334 2013).

335 According to a number of studies, the infiltration of airborne ^{137}Cs from the surface to
336 wider soil horizons (or deeper layers) is a slow process (Mietelski et al., 2010; Niesiobędzka,
337 2000). The soil layer with the highest density of mycelia and the extent of depth and space to
338 which the hyphae penetrate, largely depends on the type of mushroom. Therefore, bulk (0-10
339 cm layer) sampling of soils can only give a general idea of ^{137}Cs contamination and its
340 availability from soils. To better assess the efficiency of ^{137}Cs uptake and sequestration by *C.*
341 *caperatus*, a more detailed study would be required to identify the specific soil layers (e.g.: 0-
342 1, 1-2, 2-3 cm etc.) that correlate with the highest density of *C. caperatus* mycelia and the
343 ^{137}Cs content.

344 For ectomycorrhizal fungi, the penetration zone of hyphae is likely to be species-
345 dependent and if the soil profile is favorable they can follow the roots to deeper levels. For
346 example, the saprobic *Agaricus bernardii* hyphae lives at least down to a depth of 30 cm
347 (Borovička et al., 2010). Ingrao et al. (1992) noted, that one of difficulties in estimating the

348 bio-concentration potential of mushrooms to accumulate metallic and metalloid elements and
349 their suitability or not, as indicative species in environmental (soil) pollution monitoring, is
350 that hyphae can live down in soil to depths of 50 cm. On other occasions, mushrooms can be
351 suitable in prospecting of the metal/metalloid resources and geochemical anomalies
352 (Borovička et al., 2010; Falandysz et al., 2015a).

353 Relative to K, both ^{137}Cs and ^{133}Cs (stable) only occur at trace concentrations in *C.*
354 *caperatus*, like other metallic and metalloid elements in most species of macromycetes
355 (Falandysz and Borovička, 2013). The relatively high levels of ^{137}Cs that accumulated in
356 many mushroom species shortly after the Chernobyl accident have been interpreted as
357 possibly being due to its “better availability/accessibility” when compared to stable ^{133}Cs , and
358 a possible role (direct or indirect) of K in terms of absorption pathway. The latter influence
359 (of K availability) can in turn dependent on multiple factors such as the chemical state in
360 which K exists in the associated soil, its bio-availability in soil and other competing alkali
361 ions during homeostasis.

362 As the mycelia of *C. caperatus* penetrate to deep levels in the soil, the samples of soils
363 collected from 0-10 cm layer can give only a general idea of ^{137}Cs pollution about the soil
364 horizons and its availability from forest soils. ^{137}Cs has been found to have penetrated into
365 deeper soil layers, and radiocesium levels in this particular mushroom have long been on the
366 rise because it is increasingly available to the mycelium at lower depths. Ismail et al. (1995)
367 observed that activity concentration of ^{137}Cs in *C. caperatus* increased by around 20 percent
368 each year between 1991 and 1993 (Table S1). The same was observed by Daillant et al. (2013)
369 in *C. caperatus* sampled in 1992, 1993 and 1995, while levels dropped in 1998 and 2011
370 (Table S1).

371

372 **3.3. Risk of ^{137}Cs intake from *C. caperatus***

373
374 The maximum and minimum values of ^{137}Cs activity concentration for caps of *C. caperatus* in
375 this study in the years 1996 – 2016 were 2800 and 18000 Bq mg kg⁻¹ db (280 and 1800 Bq
376 mg kg⁻¹ on a fresh biomass basis - assuming a moisture content of 90%). In view of the food
377 tolerance limits for radiocaesium that are 370 and 600 Bq kg⁻¹ whole (fresh) weight within the
378 European Union for children and adults respectively, the *R. caperatus* collected in this study
379 (in practice the caps with a piece of the uppermost part of stipes are used as food) (Table 1)
380 often exceeded these limits in the years 1996 to 2010. Thus, while this species may be
381 avoided by knowledgeable and informed mushroom hunters (mushroomers), the precaution
382 may not extend to casual or opportunistic foragers. Due to their fresher appearance, it is
383 possible that mushroomers preferentially collect young fruiting bodies, which can be more
384 contaminated with ^{137}Cs than more mature examples as has been observed recently for
385 *Amanita muscaria* (Falandysz et al., 2019a).

386 The mode of preparation of a mushroom dish can significantly influence the content of
387 the metallic elements including ^{137}Cs (Drewnowska et al., 2017; Falandysz et al., 2019b-f;
388 Shutov et al., 1996). Blanching for 10 min or longer in boiling water (often slightly salty)
389 leaches radioactivity into the water and can remove from around 20 to 90% - (based on dry
390 biomass data) of the radiocaesium from the mushrooms, although there is no original data that
391 is specific to *C. caperatus*, (or knowledge of such estimations when based on whole (wet)
392 weight basis). On the other hand, stir-frying or stewing is much less efficient at causing
393 leaching and removal of metallic and metalloid elements or radiocaesium from mushroom
394 meals than blanching (Falandysz et al., 2019b-f; Shutov et al., 1996).

395

396 **Conclusions**

397

398 The mushroom *Cortinarius caperatus* has been seen to efficiently bioconcentrate ^{137}Cs that is
399 contained in the soil substratum in which its mycelia live. The mushroom sequesters this
400 element in substantial amounts in its morphological parts such as the cap and stipe which can
401 be foraged and used as food.

402 The mechanistic pathways that lead to a higher pollutant loading over time, in this
403 species is not fully confirmed, but it is thought that the gradual leaching of ^{137}Cs from the
404 Chernobyl fallout, into lower strata of surface soil and decay combined with the relatively
405 greater depths to which the mycelia of this species penetrate, may account for the higher
406 levels of activity noticed in the samples collected in Poland.

407 Intakes of radiocaesium arising from the consumption of *C. caperatus* collected in
408 this study (and based on data collated from literature) have often exceeded the tolerance limits
409 set by the European Union for radiocaesium (370 and 600 Bq kg⁻¹ ww for children and adults
410 respectively) during the years 1996 to 2010. Human dietary exposure to ^{137}Cs is influenced by
411 the method of food preparation and may be mitigated by blanching mushrooms for 10 min or
412 longer in boiling water (followed by disposal of the water), rather than direct consumption
413 after stir-frying or stewing.

414 As this mushroom continues to be foraged by casual as well as experienced mushroom
415 hunters, it would be prudent to monitor levels of ^{137}Cs in this species and mushrooms within
416 this region, in general, and provide precautionary advice depending on the findings.

417

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428

429 **Supplementary information**

430 Table s1.

431

432 **References**

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785 FIGURE LEGENDS

786

787 Figure 1. Location of the *C. caperatus* and surface soil sampling places in Poland (for name
788 and ID of the places see also Table 1).

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790 Figure 2. Spatial visualisation of the distribution of ^{137}Cs and ^{40}K activity concentrations in
791 surface layer of soils in Poland (Isajenko et al., 2012).

792

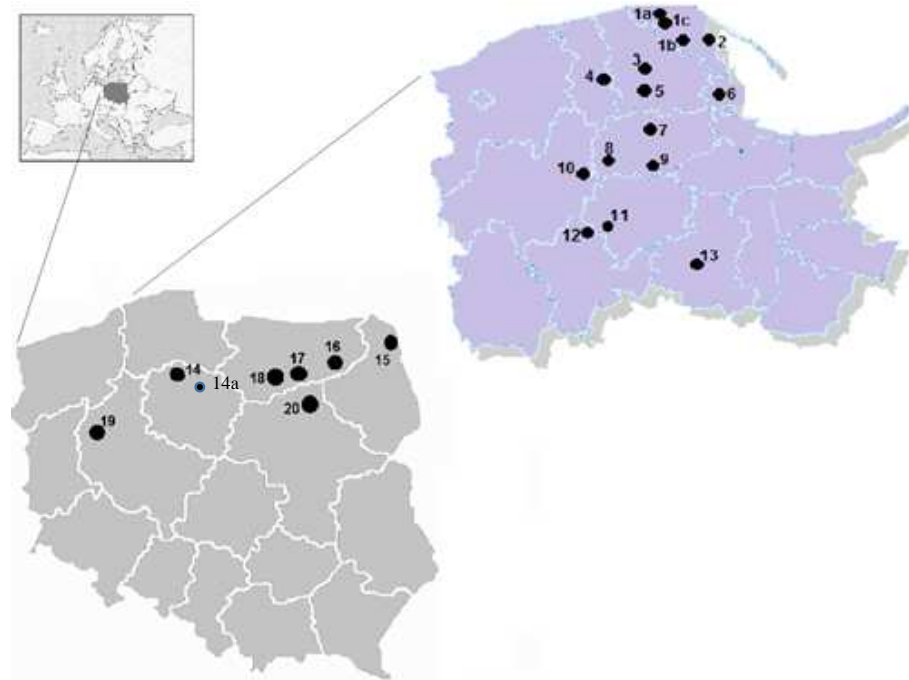
793 Figure 3. ^{137}Cs and ^{40}K in caps and stipes of *C. caperatus* from the northern regions of Poland
794 (Bq kg^{-1} dry weight).

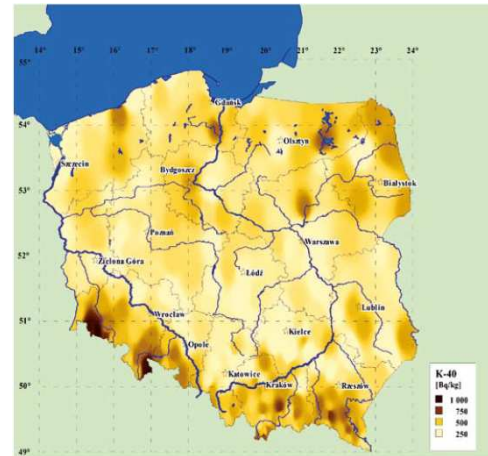
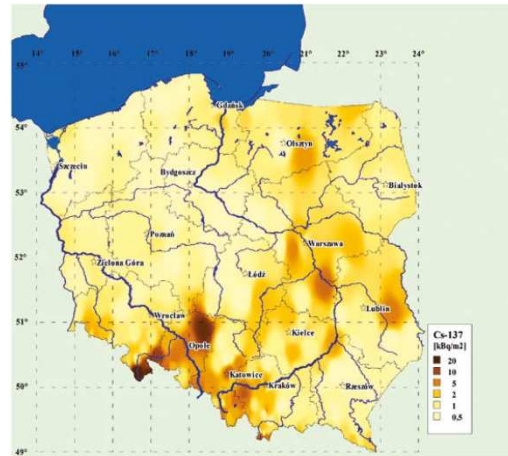
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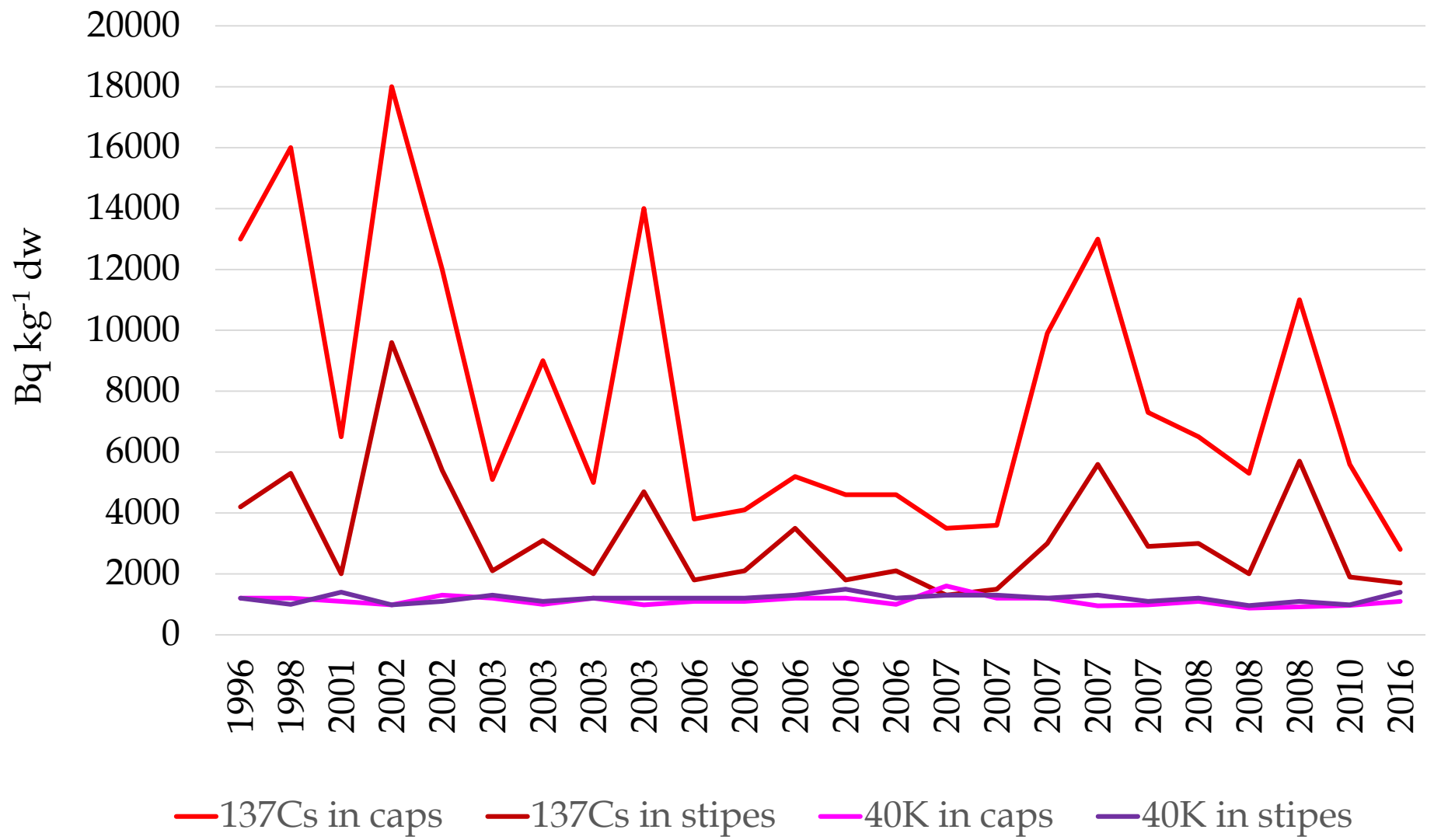
Table 1. ^{137}Cs and ^{40}K activity of *C. caperatus* – composite samples and beneath soils

Region, site, year and site ID [#] (see Fig. 1)	^{137}Cs (Bq kg ⁻¹ db)		$Q_{C/S}$	^{137}Cs (Bq kg ⁻¹ dm)	BCF _C //BCF _S	^{40}K (Bq kg ⁻¹ db)		$Q_{C/S}$	^{40}K (Bq kg ⁻¹ dm)	BCF _C //BCF _S
	Fruiting body					Fruiting body				
	Cap	Stipe				Cap	Stipe			
Pomerania; Trójmiejski Landscape Park, 1996 (n=20) [*] [6] [#]	13000 ± 110 [†]	4200 ± 45	3.1	33 ± 1	390 // 130	1200 ± 110	1200 ± 140	1.0	150 ± 41	8.0 // 8.0
Pomerania, Wdzydze Landscape Park, 1998 (n=15) [5]	16000 ± 180	5300 ± 65	3.0	WD [*]	WD	1200 ± 130	1000 ± 120	1.2	WD	WD
Pomerania, Darżłubska Wilderness, 2001 (n=15) [1a]	6500 ± 60	2000 ± 19	3.3	19 ± 2	340 // 100	1100 ± 140	1400 ± 100	0.79	110 ± 74	10 // 13
Pomerania, Darżłubska Wilderness, 2003 (n=53) [1b]	5100 ± 43	2100 ± 19	2.4	24 ± 1	210 // 87	1200 ± 100	1300 ± 91	0.92	120 ± 36	10 // 9.2
Masuria, Napiwodzko-Ramucka Wild., 2002 (n=15) [17]	18000 ± 140	9600 ± 71	1.9	37 ± 1	490 // 260	980 ± 120	980 ± 97	1.0	180 ± 34	5.4 // 5.4
Przymuszewo Forest Inspectorate, 2002 (n=16) [10]	12000 ± 94	5400 ± 43	2.2	WD	WD	1300 ± 130	1100 ± 91	1.2	WD	WD
Pomerania, Dziemiany, 2003 (n=14) [4]	9000 ± 69	3100 ± 27	2.9	17 ± 1	530 // 180	1000 ± 110	1100 ± 98	0.91	97 ± 34	10 // 11
Pomerania, Kępcice; 2003 (n=8) [12]	5000 ± 49	2000 ± 19	2.6	16 ± 2	310 // 120	1200 ± 140	1200 ± 100	1.0	100 ± 69	12 // 12
Masuria, Piska Wilderness, 2003 (n=52) [18]	14000 ± 110	4700 ± 40	3.0	WD	WD	980 ± 130	1200 ± 100	0.82	WD	WD
Pomerania, Ostrowo, 2006 (n=53) [2]	3800 ± 36	1800 ± 17	2.1	23 ± 1	165 // 78	1100 ± 130	1200 ± 100	0.92	170 ± 41	6.5 // 7.0
Pomerania, Seaside Landscape Park, 2006 (n=43) [2]	4100 ± 33	2100 ± 18	1.9	16 ± 2	260 // 130	1100 ± 100	1200 ± 90	0.92	< 37	61 // 67
Pomerania, Seaside Landscape Park, 2007 (n=16) [2]	3500 ± 38	1300 ± 17	2.6	46 ± 3	76 // 28	1600 ± 130	1300 ± 130	1.2	110 ± 86	14 // 12
Pomerania, Sulęczyń, 2006 (n=70) [3]	5200 ± 50	3500 ± 25	1.5	43 ± 1	120 // 81	1200 ± 140	1300 ± 100	0.92	83 ± 39	14 // 16
Pomerania, Strzebielino, 2006 (n=16) [7]	4600 ± 42	1800 ± 23	2.6	70 ± 3	66 // 26	1200 ± 130	1500 ± 150	0.80	120 ± 73	10 // 12
Pomerania, Kobylnica region, 2006 (n=61) [8]	4600 ± 39	2100 ± 18	2.2	25 ± 1	180 // 84	1000 ± 110	1200 ± 89	0.83	< 57	36 // 43
Pomerania, outskirts of the town of Lębork, 2007 (n=31) [3]	3600 ± 36	1500 ± 16	2.4	10 ± 1	360 // 150	1200 ± 140	1300 ± 120	0.92	< 40	60 // 65
Pomerania, Gołubie, 2008 (n=15) [11]	6500 ± 47	3000 ± 22	2.2	18 ± 1	360 // 120	1100 ± 100	1200 ± 80	0.92	150 ± 36	7.3 // 8.0
Augustowska Primeval Forest, Suwałki, 2007 (n=17) [15]	9900 ± 99	3000 ± 32	3.3	24 ± 1	410 // 120	1200 ± 120	1200 ± 120	1.0	230 ± 37	5.2 // 5.2
Mazovia, Olszewo-Borki, 2007 (n=19) [20]	13000 ± 100	5600 ± 59	2.3	WD	WD	950 ± 120	1300 ± 150	0.73	WD	WD
Notecka Wilderness, Lubusz region, 2008 (n=32) [19]	5300 ± 50	2000 ± 17	2.7	WD	WD	880 ± 140	960 ± 130	0.92	WD	WD
Warmia, Orzechowo, 2008 (n=52) [16]	11000 ± 82	5700 ± 44	1.9	41 ± 2	270 // 140	920 ± 120	1100 ± 100	0.92	180 ± 82	5.1 // 6.1
Pomerania, Commune Parchowo, 2010 (n=15) [9]	3700 ± 30	NA	NA	WD	WD	1100 ± 93	NA	NA	WD	WD
Pomerania, Tuchola Pinewoods, Lubichowo, 2007 (n=53) [13]	7300 ± 60	2900 ± 24	2.5	20 ± 1	360 // 140	980 ± 120	1100 ± 93	0.89	140 ± 36	7.0 // 7.9
Pomerania, Tuchola Pinewoods, Śliwice, 2010 (n=16) [14]	5600 ± 58	1900 ± 24	3.0	WD	WD	970 ± 150	980 ± 140	0.99	WD	WD
Pomerania, Tuchola Pinewoods, SE, 2016 (n=15) [14a]	2800 ± 52	1700 ± 84	1.6	WD	WD	1100 ± 21	1400 ± 96	0.79	WD	WD
Mean	NA	NA	2.4	NA	280 // 110	1100	1200	0.95	110	17 // 18
SD	NA	NA	0.5	NA	140 // 51	160	140	0.12	57	17 // 19
Median	NA	NA	2.4	24	260 // 130	1100	1200	0.92	110	10 // 12
Minimal	2800	1500	1.5	10	66 // 26	880	960	0.73	< 40	5.1 // 5.2
Maximal	18000	9600	3.3	70	530 // 260	1600	1500	1.2	230	61 // 67

Notes: $Q_{C/S}$ (The quotient of the activity concentration in cap and stipe); BCF (bioconcentration factor – cap or stipe); *Number of fruiting bodies in composite sample – in parentheses (from 15 to 152 specimens per site, respectively); [#]Sampling site – in brackets (see Fig. 1); [†]Activity concentration ± measurement uncertainty; WD (without data); NA (not applicable)







Highlights

- Gypsy mushroom (*C. caperatus*) is an efficient fungal accumulator of radiocaesium
- Decades after Chernobyl accident *C. caperatus* could exceed radiocaesium safety limits
- Activity concentrations of *C. caperatus* fluctuate over time
- Recent examples of *C. caperatus* from hot-spots can show elevated ^{137}Cs levels
- Dietary intake of some Polish *C. caperatus* can provide relatively high radioactive dose