1 RESEARCH ARTICLE

The ectomycorrhizal community of urban linden trees in Gdańsk, Poland

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18 Abstract

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- 20 The linden tree (*Tilia* spp.) is a popular tree for landscaping and urban environments in central
- and northwest European countries, and it is one of the most popular in cities in Poland.
- 22 Ectomycorrhizal fungi form a symbiosis with many urban tree species and protect the host
- 23 plant from heavy metals and against salinity. The aim of this study was to characterize the
- 24 ECM fungal community of urban linden trees along the tree damage gradient. The study was
- 25 performed on two homogeneous sites located in the centre of the city of Gdańsk, in northern
- 26 Poland. The vitality assessment of urban linden trees was made according to Roloff's
- 27 classification. Tree damage classes were related to soil characteristics using principal
- 28 component analysis. The five ectomycorrhizal fungal species were shared among all four tree
- 29 damage classes, and *Cenococcum geophilum* was found to be the most abundant and frequent
- 30 ectomycorrhizal fungal species in each class. Park soil had significantly lower pH and Na, Cl
- and Pb content than street soils. Our knowledge of ectomycorrhizal communities in urban
- 32 areas is still limited, and these findings provide new insights into ectomycorrhizal distribution
- 33 patterns in urban areas.
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35 Introduction

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- The most heavily human-modified ecosystems, cities, are expanding rapidly [1]. Trees provide benefits, ensuring that sustainable urban development and environmental benefits are most valued by city managers as a reason for introducing trees into cities [2]. Nevertheless, paradoxically, they grow in often extremely distorted habitat conditions in comparison to natural conditions. Street trees are exposed to a relatively high stress level. Studies reveal that their average lifespan is shorter than that of park trees [3], with mean ranging from 19 to 28 years [4] or less. The linden tree (*Tilia* spp.) is a popular tree for landscaping and urban
- 44 environments in central and northwest European countries [5] and it is one of the most

45 popular in cities in Poland. Dmuchowski and Badurek [6] reported that in Warsaw during 1973-2000 over 50% of trees growing alongside the four main thoroughfares in the city centre 46 were removed. Moreover, the continuation of these studies has shown that over a period of 35 47 years, out of the 5 species with the highest loss, 3 were *Tilia* species: *Tilia* platyphyllos, *Tilia* 48 49 'Euchlora' and Tilia cordata [7]. The stresses that affect urban trees may be biotic or abiotic, mechanical damage, high temperature, soil compaction, limited soil volume for root 50 51 development and drought [8,9,3]. Specifically, soil and roots may be affected by construction activities such as utility trenching, soil compaction and subsequent root deoxygenation, 52 shortage of available water, and incorporation of anthropic materials [5,10,11]. Under stress, 53 plant growth and photosynthesis are reduced and carbon allocation is altered, resulting in a 54 low tree vitality [12,13,14,15,16,17]. 55 Mycorrhiza is a mutualistic association because fungi form relationships in and on the 56

57 roots of a host plant. Mycorrhizae protect the host plant from heavy metals and against drought [18]. Ectomycorrhizal fungi (ECM) are ecologically significant because they provide 58 59 the plant with several benefits including enhanced nutrients [18] and increased water use efficiency, and enhanced root exploration. Mycorrhizal colonization has been shown to 60 promote short root survival particularly when *Tilia* trees are exposed to drought conditions. 61 Ectomycorrhizal fungi promote water uptake in general [e.g., 19] and have been specifically 62 shown to play an important role in the nutrient uptake of *Tilia* spp. [20]. Mycorrhizae protect 63 64 the host plant from heavy metals and promote short root survival particularly when *Tilia* trees are exposed to drought conditions [18,12]. It has been reported that this symbiosis plays a 65 major role by increasing the efficiency of sodium-excluding mechanisms in infected roots and 66 through higher root accumulation of phosphorus (P) [21]. The ecological distribution of fungi 67 68 is markedly different from natural and urban environments, where mycorrhizal fungi have evolved and adapted. For example, Timonen and Kauppinen [22] reported that Tilia cordata 69 trees growing in a nursery had different sets of ectomycorrhizal symbionts than trees grown 70 along streets with traffic, but still the relationship between specific environmental conditions 71 72 and the mycorrhizal status of trees is not well known [23].

The aim of this study was to characterize the ECM fungal community of urban linden
trees along the tree damage gradient. We hypothesized that the ECM fungal community
changes along the damage gradient, as the diversity of ECM fungi increases in accordance
with tree health condition.

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78 Materials and methods

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80 Study sites

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82 We performed the study on two homogeneous sites located in the centre of the city of 83 Gdańsk, in northern Poland. The study was conducted on trees belonging to one genus, *Tilia*:

84 Dutch Linden (*Tilia x europaea*), Fine Linden (*Tilia cordata*), and Broad-leaved Linden (*Tilia*

85 *platyphyllos*). The first study area was located in the middle of Great Linden Avenue

86 (54°22′05,5″N 18°37′51,2″E), which is a four-row avenue created in 1768-1770 and located

87 within the administrative borders of the City of Gdańsk. The avenue is located within one of

- the most important and busiest transport routes in Gdańsk. Great Linden Avenue is subject to
- legal protection under the Act of 16 April 2004 on Nature Conservation and the Act of 23
- 90 July 2003 on Monuments Protection and Care as an object entered in the register of
- 91 monuments, no. 285 of 23.02.1967. Selecting a linden alley as the research area enabled us to
- 92 exclude the variable of other trees, particularly deciduous species, affecting the community
- 93 dynamics of *Tilia*-associated ECM fungi. The second site was located in a park
- 94 (54°22′07,68″N 18°37′57,36″E) at a distance of approximately 150 m away and separated
- 95 from the road by a dense strip of bushes and hedges.
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97 Tree health assessment

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99 The vitality assessment of each tree was made according to Roloff's classification [24] and the health condition of the trees was estimated according to leaf and branch growth 100 pattern. Condition evaluation was performed for each tree and was based on distal crown 101 102 vigour. Trees were segregated into 4 groups: R0 'exploration' (tree in the phase of intensive offshoot growth), R1 'degeneration' (tree with slightly delayed offshoot growth), R2 103 'stagnation' (tree with visibly delayed offshoot growth), R3 'resignation' (tree is dying, 104 105 without the possibility of regeneration or returning to the second class). In the first study area, thirty street trees at least 200 m apart were classified according to the declining classes and 106 107 assigned to classes R1, R2 and R3. At the park site ten trees belonging to class RO were 108 selected. All the trees situated along the street and in the park site were of the same age (60 109 years).

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111 Sampling and identification of mycorrhizae

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113 In May 2019 soil cores were collected from both street and park trees. For each of 40 trees, a total of 80 soil subsamples were collected for mycorrhizal assessment: each sample 114 115 consisted of 2 microsite localities: north and south (40 trees \times 2 microsite (north and south) = 116 80 subsamples). The street root samples were taken from the 1.5 m wide grass strip between 117 roadways. To access the root system, each sample was extricated with a cylinder 118 (approximately 25 cm diameter, 25 cm depth) of adjacent substrate and packed in labelled 119 plastic bags. Samples were stored at -20 °C until further processing. Extracted root 120 fragments were examined under a dissecting microscope at 10-60x magnification.

All tips were classified as 'vital ECM' (VM, with ECM mantle) 'non-vital' (NV,
scurfy surface, without remnants of ECM mantle) or 'vital non-ECM' (NM, well-developed,
and mantle lacking) [25]. Mycorrhizae were classified into morphotypes based on
morphological characters (colour, shape, texture, and thickness of the mantle, presence and
organization of the emanating hyphae, rhizomorphs, and other elements) according to Agerer
[26], and the experience of the researchers involved in this study [27]. The degree of
mycorrhization of linden roots, abundance, relative abundance and frequency of individual

ectomycorrhizal fungal taxa were determined according to Olchowik et al. [27]. Each

morphotype was treated separately during molecular identification and was pooled for

130 calculation of abundance only after molecular analysis indicated that morphotypes belonged

to the same taxa. The internal transcribed spacer (ITS) region of the rDNA was amplified

using the primers ITS1F and ITS4 [28,29] and the product of the polymerase chain reaction

133 (PCR) was sequenced. The full methods used for molecular identification of mycorrhizae are

reported by Olchowik et al. [30]. The best representatives of each unique ITS sequences were

135 deposited in NCBI GenBank with the accession numbers.

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137 Physicochemical analysis of the soil

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139 The samples for soil chemical analysis were taken at the beginning of May 2019. The 140 samples were collected from 30 trees in the alley and from the park area, which included 10 141 trees growing in the neighbouring area, within the boundaries of the city park. Samples of soil were air-dried, passed through a mesh screen, and stored for further analysis. The soil 142 analyses were performed in the laboratory of the Polish Centre for Accreditation (No. 143 144 AB312). The accuracy of the analysis was checked against standard reference materials: international standard soils [31-34]. The phosphorus (P) was determined for all samples with 145 1% citric acid extraction, according to Schlichting et al. [35]. The soil pH and was determined 146 147 by mixing 20 ml of soil substrate with 40 ml of deionized water measured with a calibrated pH meter equipped with a glass electrode. 148

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150 Data analysis

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152 For the purpose of data analysis, the two mycorrhizal data subsamples were summed for each tree in order to match the number of soil samples. Hence, a total of 40 samples were 153 154 analysed in the study. All soil characteristics which were measured below the limit of 155 detection were substituted with the half value of the corresponding limit. In order to investigate the relation between the tree damage classes and the abundance of VM, NM, and 156 157 NV root tips, the date were cross-tabulated into a contingency table and the chi-square test of 158 independence was performed. The cells in the contingency table which were responsible for 159 the significant departure from independence of the examined variables were identified as 160 those for which the absolute maximum of Pearson's residual exceeded the value of 2.

161 The species diversity for each class of trees was estimated with the Chao1 and 162 Shannon diversity indices. The differences in the characteristics of the soil samples between 163 the tree classes were examined with the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) or the nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis test. The Kruskal-Wallis analysis was applied in the case of the 164 165 soil parameters which did not fulfil the assumptions of the ANOVA: the homogeneity of variance (Levene's test) and/or normality (Shapiro-Wilk test). In the case of significant 166 differences, Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD) test (for ANOVA) and Dunn's test 167 168 (for Kruskal-Wallis) were used to identify the homogeneous groups of tree classes. Spearman correlation and principal component analysis (PCA) were used to relate the soil characteristics 169 with the abundance of VM, NM, and NV root tips. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure 170

of sampling adequacy was applied to select the variables applicable for the PCA with the
KMO threshold value equal to 0.6. Bartlett's sphericity test was then used to confirm that the
set of selected variables is suitable for structure detection.

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175 **Results**

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177 The smallest degree of mycorrhization was observed in class R3 (18%). From mycorrhizal root tips after regrouping and combining on the basis of the results of the 178 179 molecular analysis, finally 11 fungal taxa were detected and assigned to a species level (Table 1, Fig 1). The five ECM fungal species (Tylospora asterophora (Bonord.) Donk, Inocybe 180 grammopodia Malençon, Inocybe pelargonium Kühner, Cenococcum geophilum Fr., Tuber 181 182 rufum Picco) were shared among all four trees damage classes (Table 1). Cenococcum geophilum was found to be the most abundant and frequent ECM fungal species among all 183 184 classes (Fig 2a). Moreover, C. geophilum was present in more than 60% of all ECM tips (Fig 2b). For each damage class, the species composition of ECM fungi, fungal species richness 185 and diversity indexes were analysed. The number of observed root tips decreased, from the 186 park trees, through the successive tree groups of increasing level of damage. Taxa richness 187 decreased similarly. The numbers of observed root tips in trees from the R0, R1, R2 and R3 188 189 groups were 5956, 4472, 3022 and 1163, and the numbers of species were 10, 8, 7 and 5, respectively. For the individual trees, the numbers of observed root tips and the numbers of 190 species were highly correlated: Spearman correlation equal to 0.77 at p-value<0.0001. Due to 191 192 lack of singletons and doubletons observed in the analysed samples, the Chao1 index computed for each tree class equalled the taxa richness. 193

Nearly half of the tested tip samples, 43%, were non-vital, while 20% and 37% of the samples belonged to the NM and VM types (Table 1). The chi-square test showed that, in comparison to this average distribution of the tip classes, the park trees showed a slight excess of the VM type tips, street trees from the R1 group showed an excess of the NV and VM type tips, and samples from the R3 trees had strong overrepresentation of the NV and NM tips and underrepresentation of the VM class tips.

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Table 1. Estimated species richness, diversity and occurrence of fungal taxa associated with the roots oflinden trees.

| | BLAST top-hit | | | Park | | Street | t | | | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|----------|----------|-------|-------|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Identification | Closest match | NCBI | Identity | R0 | | R1 | | R2 | | R3 | |
| Identification | Closest match | NCBI | [%] | Freq. | Abun. | Freq. | Abun. | Freq. | Abun. | Freq. | Abun. |
| Basidiomycota | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Tylospora asterophora | Tylospora asterophora | - | 97 | 60 | 4.8 | 91 | 5.8 | 20 | 6.0 | 56 | 2.8 |
| Inocybe maculata | Inocybe maculata | MT431581 | 99 | 50 | 1.3 | 36 | 4.6 | 10 | 0.2 | - | - |
| Inocybe grammopodia | Inocybe grammopodia | MT431580 | 97 | 40 | 0.6 | 27 | 0.7 | 10 | 0.7 | 22 | 0.6 |
| Inocybe pelargonium | Inocybe pelargonium | MT431583 | 97 | 20 | 0.3 | 36 | 0.7 | 30 | 1.8 | 11 | 0.7 |
| Inocybe cincinnata | Inocybe cincinnata | - | 97 | 30 | 0.5 | - | - | - | - | - | - |

| Inocybe manukanea Inocybe manukanea | | MT431582 | 97 | 20 | 1.0 | - | - | - | - | - | - | |
|--|------------------------------------|----------|----|-------|--------|------|--------|-------|--------|------|--------|--|
| Hebeloma sacchariolens | | | 97 | 10 | 0.3 | - | - | - | - | - | - | |
| Sebacina cystidiata | ina cystidiata Sebacina cystidiata | | 97 | - | - | 18 | 3.3 | - | - | - | - | |
| Ascomycota | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Cenococcum geophilum | Cenococcum geophilum | MT431587 | 99 | 90 | 17.7 | 82 | 16.2 | 90 | 24.7 | 67 | 9.3 | |
| Tuber rufum | Tuber rufum | MT431586 | 97 | 70 | 9.4 | 36 | 1.9 | 60 | 2.5 | 33 | 4.0 | |
| Tuber borchii | Tuber borchii | MT431585 | 97 | 60 | 4.0 | 45 | 7.2 | 40 | 1.2 | - | - | |
| Mycorrhizal fungal species richness [n] | | | | | 10 | | 8 | | 7 | | 5 | |
| Degree of mycorrhization [%] | | | | | 39.7 | | 40.4 | | 40.0 | | 17.3 | |
| Chi-square test of independence (p-value<0.0001) Mean | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| NV | 43% | 41% | | 40% | * | 44% | | 52% | ** | | | |
| NM | 20% | 19% | | 19% | | 19% | | 30%** | | | | |
| VM | 37% | 40%* | | 41%** | | 37% | | 18%** | | | | |
| Sum | 100% | 100% | | 100% | | 100% | | 100% | | | | |
| Estimated species richness | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chao-1 | | 10 8 | | 7 | | 5 | | | | | | |
| Diversity | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Shannon diversity index (H') - for combined samples | | | | | 1.57 | | 1.69 | | 1.10 | | 1.21 | |
| Shannon diversity index (H'), mean of individual samples | | | | 0.90 | ± 0.50 | 0.76 | ± 0.38 | 0.56 | ± 0.36 | 0.39 | ± 0.45 | |

203 Data are the frequency (Freq.; percent of colonized plants) and abundance (Abun.; percent of mycorrhizal roots

204 colonized) of fungal taxa on root tips. The contingency table for the tree class vs the abundance of VM, NM, and

205 NV root tips is presented, with percentage of each tree class samples for a given type of root tips. The cells

responsible for the significant departure from independence of the examined variables indicated with bold fonts.

207 The significant difference was found with ANOVA between the values of the Shannon index at the p-

value=0.063. Pearson residuals analysis: * - residuals exceeding 2, ** - residuals exceeding 3

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Fig 1. Ectomycorrhizas observed on linden trees in the Gdańsk. (a) *Cenococcum geophilum* Fr., (b)

211 Hebeloma sacchariolens Quél., (c) Inocybe cincinnata (Fr.) Quél., (d) Inocybe grammopodia Malençon, (e)

212 Inocybe maculata Boud., (f) Inocybe manukanea (E. Horak) Garrido, (g) Inocybe pelargonium Kühner, (h)

213 Sebacina cystidiata Oberw., Garnica & K. Riess., (i) Tuber borchii Vittad., (j) Tuber rufum Pollini, (k, l)

214 *Tylospora asterophora* (Bonord.) Donk. Bars in each photograph indicate 0.4 mm length.

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Fig 2a. The abundance of the observed ECM fungi species in different damage classes. Each colour
 represents the number of the root tips with the observed fungi species.

Fig 2b. The percentage of the observed ECM fungi species in different damage classes. Each colour
 represents the number of the root tips with the observed fungi species.

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221 Mean values of the soil parameters between classes are reported in Table 2. In the case 222 of 6 soil characteristics, out of 16 examined, significant differences were found. These 223 parameters were Cl, Na, Pb, Ca and Fe contents and the soil pH. Park soil had significantly 224 lower pH and Na, Cl and Pb content than street soils. Considerable differences were observed 225 between the content of Ca and Fe. In the first case, there was a significant difference only 226 between the trees from the R0 and R3 damage classes, with the park trees having the lowest 227 Ca content. In the case of Fe, there was a significant difference between the trees from the R0, 228 R1 and R3 damage classes, with the park trees having the highest Fe amount. Also, in this 229 case the average Fe content in the samples from the R2 tree class was much lower than in the

- case of the park trees, but no significant differences were reported due to large variability of
 the R2 samples. In some cases (Cr for example), though the differences between means seem
 large, no significant differences were found due to high variability of the data, especially
- among the R2 tree class samples.
- Only some of the examined soil parameters were related to the abundance of the root tips and degree of mycorrhizal colonisation (Table 2). As can be seen, increase of three soil
- parameters, N-NO₃, N-NH₄ and K, leads to an increase of the number of root tips. All the
- remaining soil features negatively influence the abundance of the root tips and the relative
- abundance of the mycorrhizal root tips (VM).
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| 240 | Table 2. Mean values of selected physical and chemical properties of soil in samples associated with the |
|-----|--|
| 241 | trees of different damage classes. |

| | Park | Street | | | Spearman correlation | | | | | |
|--------------------------|--------|--------|--------|----|----------------------|----|--------|---|----------------|-------|
| | R0 | | R1 | | R2 | | R3 | | # of root tips | VM |
| pHH₂O | 6.9 | b | 7.6 | a | 7.8 | a | 7.9 | a | -0.55 | -0.45 |
| Na (mg/l) | 27.1 | b | 132.3 | a | 352.3 | a | 290.0 | a | -0.6 | -0.49 |
| Cl (mg/l) | 20.0 | b | 34.5 | a | 95.2 | a | 56.4 | a | -0.55 | -0.43 |
| Pb (mg/kg) | 55.9 | b | 115.2 | a | 145.6 | a | 129.0 | a | -0.35 | -0.48 |
| Ca (mg/l) | 1220.3 | b | 1736.7 | ab | 1523.6 | ab | 1853.7 | a | | -0.34 |
| Fe (mg/l) | 96.3 | a | 63.0 | b | 62.6 | ab | 58.9 | b | | |
| N-NO ₃ (mg/l) | 29.4 | | 23.2 | | 22.9 | | 22.3 | | 0.45 | |
| C-org (%) | 2.8 | | 2.6 | | 2.9 | | 2.5 | | | |
| Cr (mg/kg) | 17.0 | | 24.3 | | 51.6 | | 37.2 | | | |
| Cu (mg/l) | 7.0 | | 9.3 | | 11.5 | | 13.7 | | -0.40 | -0.45 |
| Zn (mg/l) | 27.1 | | 37.2 | | 43.5 | | 32.1 | | | -0.35 |
| K (mg/l) | 151.1 | | 153.8 | | 115.3 | | 100.0 | | 0.4 | |
| Mg (mg/l) | 122.7 | | 130.7 | | 99.4 | | 104.4 | | | |
| N-NH ₄ (mg/l) | 11.3 | | 11.0 | | 10.0 | | 6.9 | | 0.32 | |
| P (mg/l) | 67.9 | | 53.0 | | 53.9 | | 39.9 | | | |
| Mn (mg/l) | 2.0 | | 2.2 | | 2.6 | | 2.7 | | | |

242 The soil features significantly different, at p-value<0.05, among the tree groups indicated in bold font. Different

letters indicate significant differences. Significant, at p-value<0.05, Spearman correlation of soil parameters andthe abundance of the root tips and degree of mycorrhizal colonisation.

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246 The overall high variability of the soil characteristics in the samples related to the individual trees can be seen in the PCA plot in Fig 3. Correlation of the examined soil 247 parameters allowed two main groups of them to be distinguished. The first group contains C-248 org, Cl, Cr, Cu, Na, Pb and Zn, and the second contains K, Mg and N-NH₄. All members of 249 the second group were negatively related to some representatives of the first one, namely Cu, 250 Cr, Na and Pb. The parameter which links the two groups was pH_{H2}O, positively correlated 251 with Cu, Cr, Na and Pb and negatively with N-NH₄. In the case of the park trees, the samples 252 are distributed parallel to the second group of soil parameters – Mg, K and N-NH₄ – and in 253

the case of the street trees, the high variability. The remaining soil features, Ca, Fe, P and N-

NO₃, had a weaker correlation with other parameters and Mn showed no relation to anyparameter.

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Fig 3. PCA plot representing the relationship between soil parameters studied and their links with classes
 of trees. The ellipses are the 95% probability confidence ellipses around the mean point of each tree class.

261 **Discussion**

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The study presented here investigated the relationships among the health status of urban linden trees using Roloff's classification with ECM communities. So far, few studies have dealt with the ECM community in urban linden trees [22,36,37,38]. Considering the mycorrhization degree, only class R3 had significantly fewer vital ectomycorrhizal tips than other classes. These data confirmed the data obtained by studying the English oak trees [39], where fine roots of most declining trees had a lower proportion of vital and ectomycorrhizal tips.

270 The *Tilia* species analysed in our study belong to Great Linden Avenue, which is subject to legal protection. Our study showed that the ECM community structure is highly 271 dependent on the level of decline of the linden trees. The observed ECM fungal species 272 273 diversity differed significantly along the tree vitality. A similar study conducted in Italy, comparing the health situation of linden trees, classified as 'moderately declining' and 274 275 'strongly declining', showed that the number of ECM fungal species was lower in this second 276 group in comparison to the first [36]. Since lack of nutrients, attack from pathogens, drought 277 and use of de-icing salts are among the main causes of damage of urban trees [40], ECM 278 fungi of urban trees may enhance their growth and survival in the urban environment. In our 279 study the street trees were already 60 years old and the mycorrhizal fungal population associated with their roots was likely to be well adjusted to the street habitat. Tilia roots in the 280 281 park site harboured a diversity of ectomycorrhizal fungi. The number of 10 mycorrhizal morphotypes found in the park in this study was similar to the 12-13 morphotypes observed 282 283 by Nielsen and Rasmussen [41] in native and planted forests in Denmark. The higher 284 diversity of ectomycorrhizal fungi in the park may be the result of low soil pH in park soils and also partly due to the higher diversity of other ectomycorrhizal plants surrounding the 285 286 Tilia trees in this habitat than in the 'street' habitat.

As hypothesized, a gradual increase in taxa richness was observed from the highest 287 damage of trees (R3: 5 taxa) to the best health condition of trees (R0: 10 taxa). The 288 289 differences among the ECM fungal communities harboured by linden trees on the studied sites may be affected by salinity and concentration of heavy metals. The salt applied to roads 290 291 in winter is a serious cause of damage of urban trees [42], including water deficit, soil 292 compaction, ion toxicity and ion imbalance [43,44]. Moreover, Na and Cl may inhibit enzymatic activity of fungi [45]. In our study the elevated amount of Na and Cl was the soil 293 feature unique to the street when compared with the park habitat. The soil microbial 294 communities are affected more by salinity than by extremes of any other abiotic factor [46], 295 296 so this factor could have affected the lower species composition of the ECM fungi associated

297 with the linden street trees.

298 The PCA analysis showed a gradual shift in similarity between the adjacent damage 299 classes (Fig 3). In part, these differences were due to a significantly higher concentration of 300 heavy metals (Pb, Cr and Cu) in street soil. Moreover, in our study the concentration of Pb in 301 street soil was significantly higher in comparison to park soil. In general, increased 302 concentrations of heavy metals in the soil are known to negatively affect biodiversity [e.g. 47,48]. Heavy metals damage proteins, lipids and DNA [49]. Turpeinen, Kairesalo and 303 304 Haggblom [50], who investigated the impact of heavy metal contamination on microbial 305 communities, found a negative effect of metal pollution on fungal diversity. This is consistent with the findings in our study, where the street site was shown to host a lower ECM fungal 306 307 richness than the park site. On the other hand, van Geel et al. [37] reported that the variability in ECM communities of *T. tomentosa* urban trees was little attributed by heavy metal 308 309 pollution. It is important to note that Van Geel et al. [37] used high-throughput sequencing 310 (HTS) as the basis of taxa identification and the results featured only mycorrhizae identified at the family level. Another point when comparing those results is the different sampling area 311 312 included in the studies. The study of van Geel et al. [37] was performed on a relatively large 313 scale, due to its location in three European cities. In our study we concentrated on one city and one street, which limited the potential for replication. More research is needed on a larger 314 315 sample to reliably identify the reasons for the differences observed between our results and 316 previous research.

317 Surprisingly, we also found several ECM that were common to all damage classes. 318 There were genera belonging to early-stage fungi, including *I. grammopodia* and *I. pelargonium*. These fungi are often found in habitats with limited nutrient availability [51], 319 for instance in urban ecosystems. Although *T. rufum* needs a more stable habitat [52], this 320 321 fungus was abundantly present in all damage classes. It may have resulted from the alkaline conditions in street soil, because Tuberaceae generally prefer more alkaline conditions [53]. 322 323 This result may also suggest that some genotypes are either adapted to street conditions or they are not outcompeted. 324

325 The ECM fungal species that we found to be predominant -C. geophilum – was 326 present among all damage classes. The dominance of C. geophilum was not a surprising result, because this fungus is known as the most efficient drought-tolerant type [12,54]. 327 Considering the ECM community composition related to plant health status, Timonen and 328 Kauppinen [22] demonstrated that Cenococcum spp. were more dominant in the roots of 329 330 unhealthy street trees. This fungus forms ECM with many tree species because of its pioneering capabilities and persistence of sclerotia in the soil [55]. Due to its active growth at 331 332 low soil temperature and drought tolerance [12] it is well known for its extremely wide 333 habitat range and for being competitive under adverse climate conditions. In the case of our 334 study, abundant root colonization by C. geophilum may also be the result of competition for water resources. This interpretation, however, is made cautiously because the ECM 335 336 community of urban trees in water stress has not been studied. Hebeloma sachariolens was 337 found only in park soil conditions where content of N and P was higher than in street soils, 338 which is in agreement with the findings of many authors [56-59] regarding the ability of this 339 fungus species to tolerate rather high nutrient conditions. The formation of mycorrhizae by T. borchii and T. maculatum is hardly surprising as the fungi have been reported to form 340 mycorrhizal symbioses with *Tilia* spp. elsewhere in Europe [60,61]. 341

Overall, our results showed that the tree vitality was significantly associated with soil characteristics, especially with heavy metal pollution. Our knowledge of ECM communities in urban areas is still limited, and these findings provide new insights into ECM distribution patterns in urban ecosystems. Given the multifunctional role of ECM in urban ecosystems, further research should also include manipulation of mycorrhizal communities in the field.

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348 Acknowledgements

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We would like to thank the City Hall of Gdańsk and Road and Greenery Department
of Gdańsk for founding of the data concerning the inventory of the Great Lime Avenue,
which were the basis of the analyses carried out in this paper.

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- **354** Author Contributions
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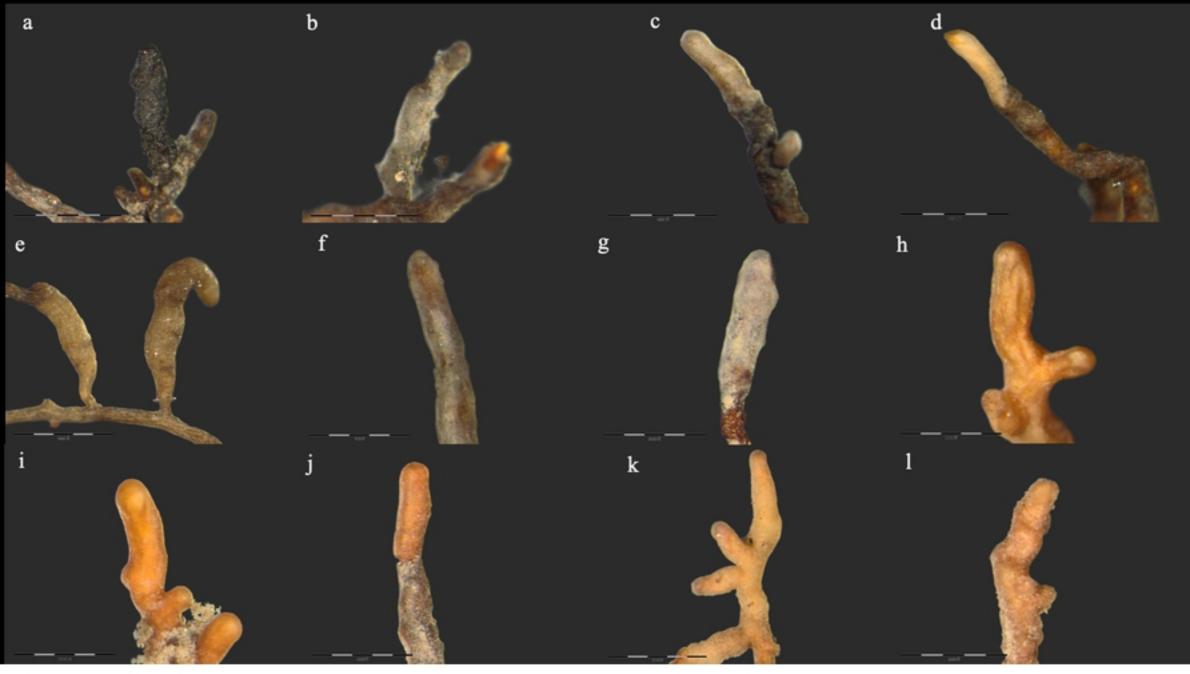


Figure 1

a

2000-Number of observations 1500-1000-500-0-R₂ R1 R0 **R**3 Tree damage class

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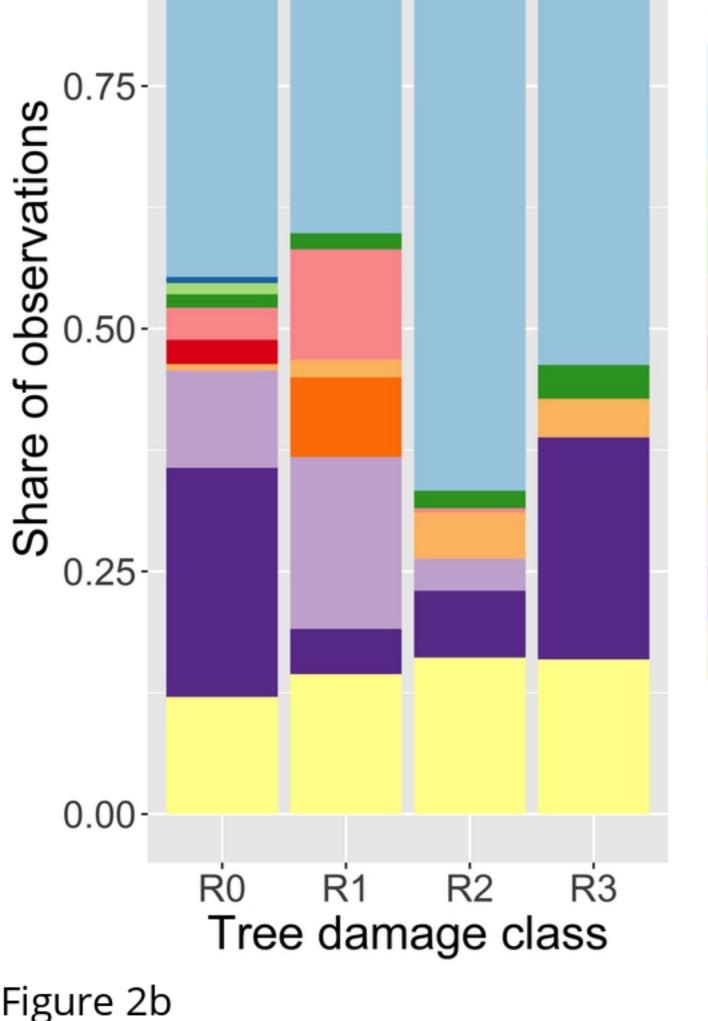
Species

Cenococcum geophilum Hebeloma sacchariolens Inocybe cincinnata Inocybe grammopodia Inocybe maculata Inocybe manukanea Inocybe pelargonium Sebacina cystidiata Tuber borchii Tuber rufum Tylospora asterophora

Figure2a

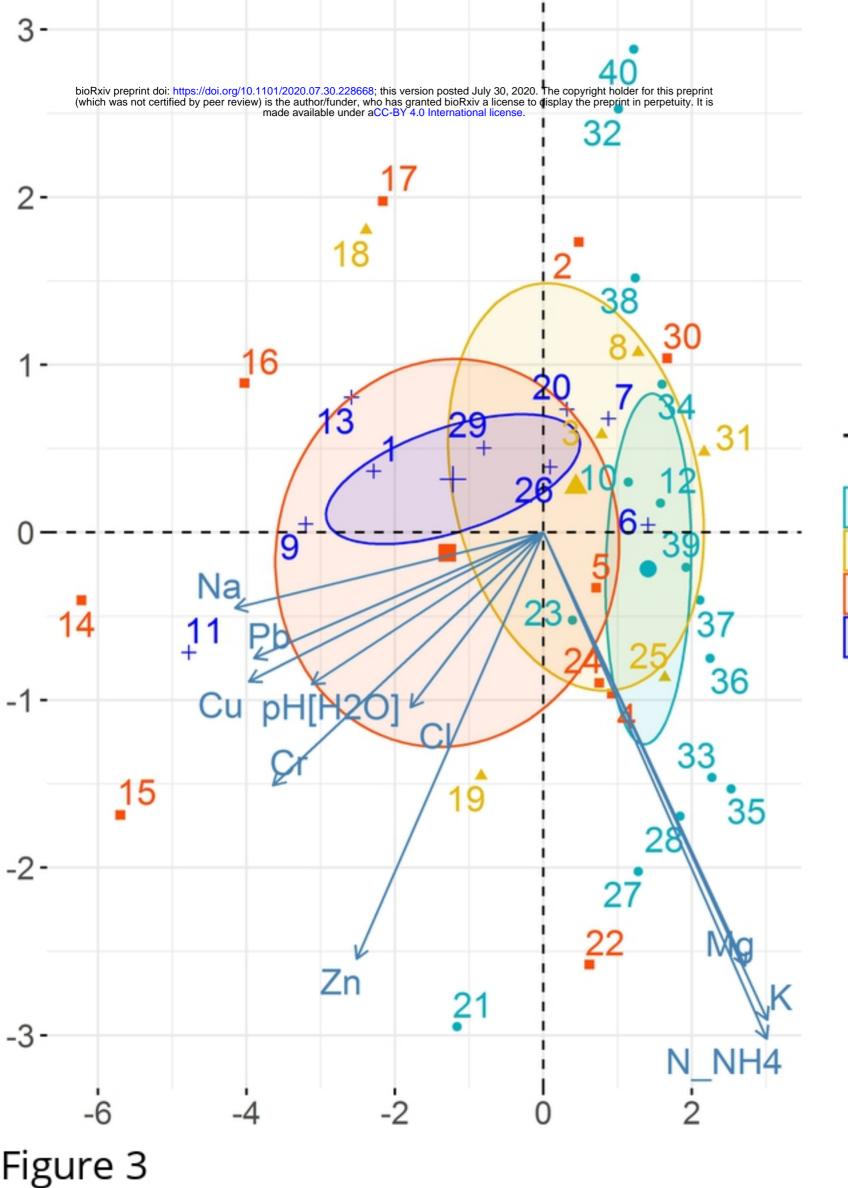
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Tree damage class

| 8 | R0 |
|---|----|
| ۵ | R1 |
| | R2 |
| a | R3 |