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ESKİŞEHİR TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY JOURNAL OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY  
C– Life Sciences and Biotechnology

ESKİŞEHİR TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ BİLİM VE TEKNOLOJİ DERGİSİ  
C – Yaşam Bilimleri ve Biyoteknoloji

Volume/Cilt **12** Number/Sayı **1** January / Ocak - **2023**



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Eskişehir Technical University Journal of Science and Technology C – Life Sciences and Biotechnology (formerly Anadolu University Journal of Science and Technology C – Life Sciences and Biotechnology) is an **peer-reviewed** and **refereed international journal** by Eskişehir Technical University. Since 2010, it has been regularly published and distributed biannually and it has been published biannually and **electronically only since 2016**.

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Izadpanahi S., Ozcinar C., Anbarjafari G. and Demirel H. Resolution enhancement of video sequences by using discrete wavelet transform and illumination compensation. *Turk J. Elec. Eng. & Comp. Sci.* 2012; 20: 1268-1276.

### **Books**

Haupt R.L. and Haupt S.E. *Practical Genetic Algorithms*. 2nd ed. New York, NY, USA: Wiley, 2004.

Kennedy J. and Eberhart R. *Swarm Intelligence*. San Diego, CA, USA: Academic Press, 2001.

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C- Yaşam Bilimleri ve Biyoteknoloji

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

INVESTIGATIONS ON MORPHO-ANATOMICAL AND VOLATILE COMPOUNDS OF  
CULTIVATED *Fritillaria persica* L. (LILIACEAE)<sup>#</sup>

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ABSTRACT

In this study, cultivated *Fritillaria persica* L. (Liliaceae) investigated morpho-anatomical and volatile compounds of bulbs. Purple tepals, 12-28 flowers in inflorescence, yellow-green filaments and dark yellow or purple anthers were notable morphological properties. For the anatomical study, sections were prepared from root, stem and leaf. The cortex of the stem was comprised of parenchyma and sclerenchyma. The collateral vascular bundles were scattered. The leaves were unifacial and amphistomatic. The stomata type was anomocytic. The crushed bulb volatiles of *F. persica* were trapped by the headspace-solid phase microextraction technique and determined by analysis by gas chromatography/mass spectrometry. Eight compounds (83.9%) were identified and the major compounds were found as 1,3-dichlorobenzene (60%), limonene (8.1%) and *p*-cymene (5.1%).

**Keywords:** *Fritillaria persica* L., Morphological, Anatomical, HS-SPME, GC/MS

1. INTRODUCTION

*Fritillaria* L., belonging to the Liliaceae family, is a genus with about 150 species in the Northern Hemisphere, excluding some parts of North America [1, 2]. In Turkey, the genus *Fritillaria* includes approximately 45 species [2, 3].

“Fritillus” means chessboard and is especially derived from the checkered colors of *Fritillaria meleagris* L. [4]. *Fritillaria* is referred to as the “Ters Lale” in Turkey because its flowers like tulips and look at the ground, some species are grown as ornamental plants [5]. *Fritillaria persica* L. is one of them, it has different names such as “Kirkkale, Ağlayan gelin or Acem şahtuğu” (in Turkish) [3, 5, 6].

*Fritillaria* species have alkaloids, saponins, terpenoids and many different components [7]. In Chinese medicine, Bulbus *Fritillaria* (Beimu) is used as an expectorant in respiratory tract diseases [8]. Bulbs of *F. pinardii* Boiss. and *F. crassifolia* subsp. *kurdica* (Boiss. & Noë) Rix, are used for external wound healing in Turkey [9]. In Iran, *F. imperialis* L. bulbs are used for digestive diseases and pain treatments [10]. Moreover, it is known that the strong odor emitted by *F. imperialis* has a repulsive effect on some animals such as mice and mole [11]. Among the *Fritillaria* species distributed in North America, *F. agrestis* Greene is another bad odor species, while *F. striata* Eastw. flowers have been reported to be fragrant [12].

*F. persica* growing naturally in Anatolia and is in the category of Vulnerable (VU) [13]. The aim of this research is to investigate morpho-anatomical features and volatile compounds of the cultivated *F. persica*. As far as we know, this is the first research made on the anatomy and volatiles of the *F. persica* growing in Turkey.

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## 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

### 2.1. Morphological Method

*F. persica* bulbs were obtained from Şanlıurfa and grown in Anadolu University Faculty of Pharmacy. The samples (ESSE 15403) are kept in the Herbarium of Anadolu University Faculty of Pharmacy. Morphological characters were examined under with the Wild M5A stereomicroscope (with drawing tube) and the results were compared with Flora of Turkey [14], “Resimli Türkiye Florası” [3].

### 2.2. Anatomical Method

In the anatomical study, superficial (leaf) and cross (root, stem, leaf) sections of the plant parts were made by hand. Methylene blue was used for staining the stem and leaf anatomical sections. Anatomical sections were investigated with the Olympus BX51T microscope and the photographs were taken by the digital camera.

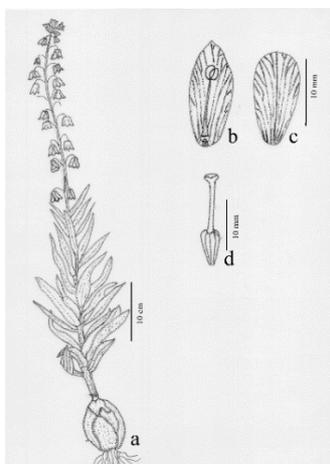
### 2.3. HS-SPME (Headspace-solid Phase Microextraction) Procedure, GC/MS (Gas Chromatography/Mass Spectrometry) Analysis and Identification of Compounds

SPME fibre precoated with a 65 µm layer of blue fibre (Polydimethylsiloxane-Divinylbenzene, supplied by Supelco Bellefonte, USA) was used. The crushed bulb volatiles of *F. persica* were trapped with HS-SPME technique and analyzed by GC/MS. The GC/MS analysis was carried out with an Agilent 5975 GC-MSD system [15].

## 3. RESULT

### 3.1. Morphological Results

Bulb 5 cm diameter, 6 cm height and spindle shaped. Stem 55-82 cm, thick, dull bluish green, smooth, straight. Leaves 50-60, alternate, dull bluish green, lowest leaves 8-9.5 x 1.5-2.5 cm, ovate-lanceolate, acute-acuminate at apex. Bracts 2.1 × 0.4 cm, present or absent. Inflorescence raceme, flowers 12-28. Perianth narrow campanulate, dark purple, tepal segments 14-17 x 7-10 mm, oblanceolate, oblong-oblanceolate, apex and base obtuse. Nectars 3 mm long, 1.5 mm broad, triangular. Filament 8-11 mm, yellow-green; anthers 2 mm, dark yellow or purple. Stylus 7-7.5 mm, smooth; stigma straight (Figure 1).

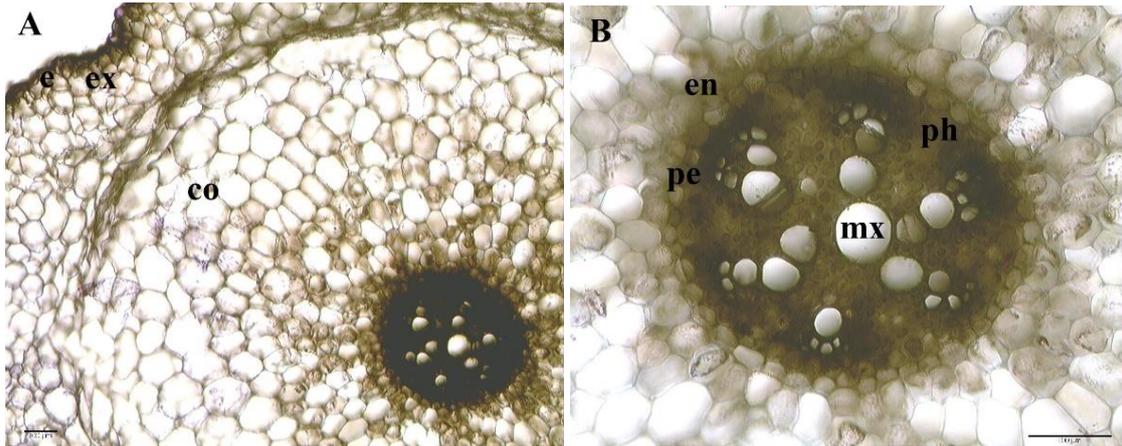


**Figure 1.** *F. persica*, a: general view, b: inner segment and stamen, c: outer segment, d: pistil.

### 3.2. Anatomical Results

#### 3.2.1. Root

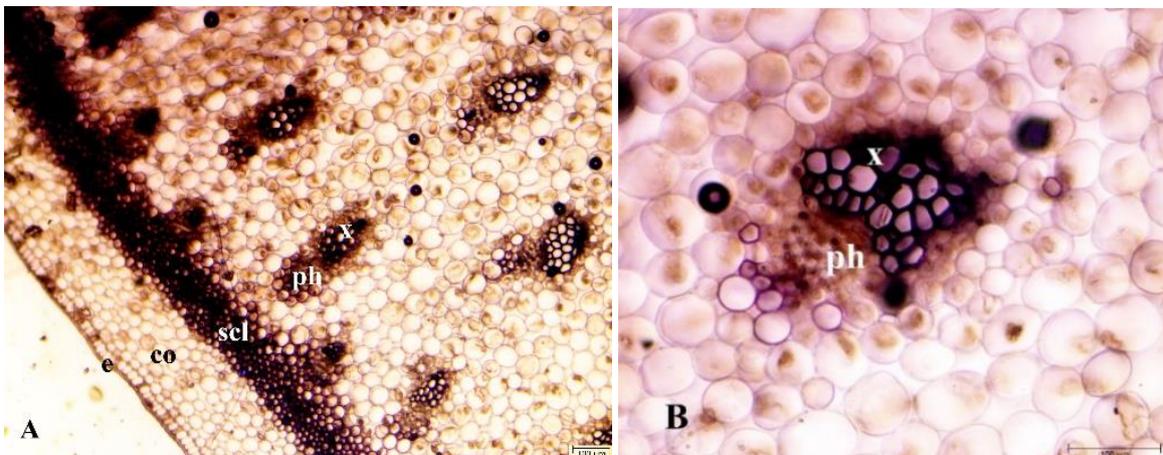
In the outer region there are small and one row of epidermis cells. Exodermis cells just below the epidermis. The cortex layer usually consists of irregularly shaped parenchyma cells. The endodermis and pericycle cells are evident. In the vascular bundles the metaxylem consists of 6-arms and there are phloem cells between them (Figure 2).



**Figure 2.** Cross section of *F. persica*; A-B: Root (e: epidermis, ex: exodermis, co: cortex, en: endodermis, pe: pericycle, mx: metaxylem, ph: phloem).

#### 3.2.2. Stem

In the stem section, there is a cuticle followed by a single layer of small, rectangular epidermis cells. Between epidermis and sclerenchyma layers, there are 5-6 rows of round or oval shaped parenchyma cells. They are more oval shape in 1-3 row under the epidermis. The sclerenchyma layer consists of 5-6 rows of cells. The vascular bundles are numerous and collateral. There are round or oval shaped parenchyma cells in the pith region, but the parenchyma cells in this part are more rounded (Figure 3).

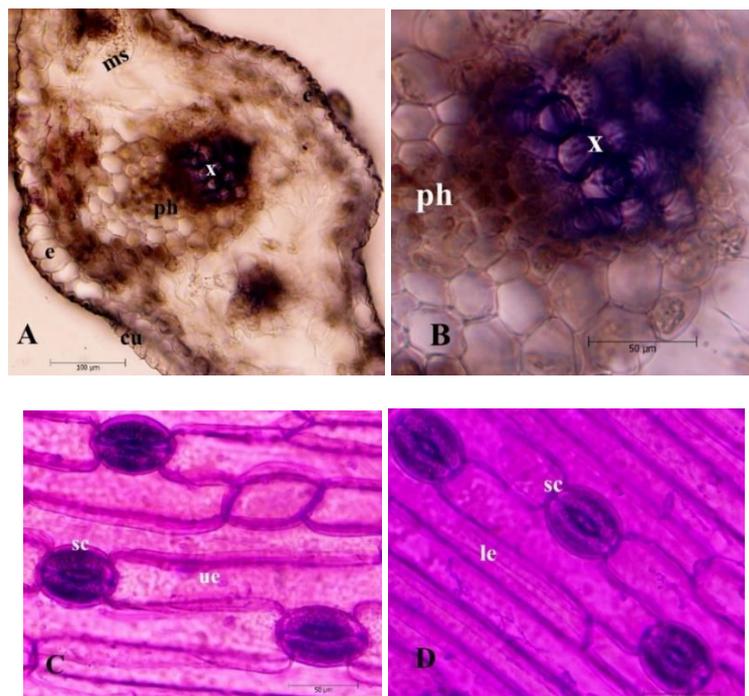


**Figure 3.** Cross section of *F. persica*; A-B: Stem (e: epidermis, co: cortex, scl: sclerenchyma; ph: phloem, x: xylem).

### 3.2.3. Leaves

In the leaf section, there is a thick cuticle layer on both surfaces. Epidermis cells are long quadrilateral or asymmetrical and cell walls are undulate. There is not any differentiation as palisade parenchyma and spongy parenchyma (unifacial leaf) and there are large spaces between the parenchyma cells.

In surface sections made from the leaf, there are anomocytic type stomata on both abaxial and adaxial surfaces (amphistomatic). The stomata cells are oval-rounded (Figure 4).



**Figure 4.** Cross (A-B) and superficial (C-D) section of *F. persica* leaves (cu: cuticula, e: epidermis, ms: mesophyll, x: xylem, ph: phloem, ue: upper epidermis, le: lower epidermis, sc: stomata cell).

### 3.3. HS-SPME Results

Volatile compounds of *F. persica* were determined by trapping with HS-SPME technique and analyzing by GC/MS. In this study, eight compounds were identified (Table 1).

**Table 1.** Chemical composition of crushed *F. persica* bulbs.

RRI	Compounds	%	IM
1203	Limonene	8.1	t <sub>R</sub> , MS
1272	Styrene	1.9	MS
1280	<i>p</i> -Cymene	5.1	t <sub>R</sub> , MS
1409	Rosefuran	2.9	t <sub>R</sub> , MS
1429	1,3-Dichloro benzene	60.0	MS
1495	2-Ethyl hexanol	3.8	MS
1532	Camphor	1.2	t <sub>R</sub> , MS
1896	Benzyl alcohol	0.9	MS

%; calculated from FID data. IM; Identification method. RRI; Relative retention indices calculated against n-alkanes. t<sub>R</sub>; identification based on the retention times (t<sub>R</sub>) of genuine compounds on the HP Innowax column. MS; identified on the basis of computer matching of the mass spectra with those of the Wiley, Adams and Mass Finder libraries and comparison with literature data.

#### 4. DISCUSSION

In this study, the morphological, anatomical, and volatile compounds of *F. persica* was investigated. The bulbs produced in Şanlıurfa were grown in Eskişehir and studies were carried out with these samples. Tekşen and Aytaç [16] reconsidered the *Fritillaria* of the Mediterranean region in Turkey. According to the work “Resimli Türkiye Florası”, *F. persica* and *F. imperialis* the bulbs of are at least 4 cm in diameter, unlike other *Fritillaria* species in Turkey. The differences between these two species are that the flowers of *F. persica* are purple, greenish-purple and the inflorescence is raceme, the flowers of *F. imperialis* are orange to red and the inflorescence is umbella [3]. Morphological properties in this study are similar to comparative studies (Table 2) [3, 14]. But our samples did not contain capsules.

**Table 2.** Cultivated *F. persica* comparison with the morphological characteristics of the Flora of Turkey [14] and “Resimli Türkiye Florası” [3].

Characteristics	Flora of Turkey (1984)	Resimli Türkiye Florası (2018)	This study
<b>Bulb</b>	3-5 cm diam, 6 cm height	2.5-6 × 2.5-5 cm	5 cm diam, 6 cm height
<b>Stem</b>	20-100 cm	20-100 cm	55-82 cm
<b>Number of leaves</b>	10-25	10-70	50-60
<b>Leaf</b>	15 × 3 cm	4.4-15 × 1.0-3.0 cm (lower) 5.1-10 × 0.5-1.1 cm (middle)	8-9.5 × 1.5-2.5 cm (lowest)
<b>Bracte</b>	-	1.6-6.4 × 0.4-0.5 cm	2.1 × 0.4 cm
<b>Tepal</b>	15-20 × 6-7 mm Purplish, greenish-grey	1-2 × 0.5-0.8 cm (outer) 1-2 × 0.5-0.9 cm (inner) Purple, greenish-purple	14-17 × 7-10 mm Purple
<b>Number of flowers</b>	7-20	3-28	12-28
<b>Nectar</b>	1.5 mm broad	1.5-3 × 1.5-3.5 mm	3 × 1.5 mm
<b>Filament</b>	5-6 mm	5-10 mm, yellow	8-11 mm, yellow-green
<b>Anther</b>	4 mm	1.5-4 mm, brownish or purple	2 mm, dark yellow or purple
<b>Style</b>	6-8 mm	5.5-10 mm	7-7.5 mm

Namazi et al. [17] reported that they had defined a dichotomous key based on anatomical features for *Fritillaria* species in Iran and according to this key, phloem fiber is absent in the anatomy of the stem of *F. persica*. Corneanu and Popescu [18] and Akyol et al. [19], reported that there was no distinction between parenchyma cells in the leaf section of the anatomy of *Fritillaria* species. In some anatomical studies related to the *Fritillaria* species, the stomata type was determined as anomocytic [20, 21] and other studies stated stomata surrounded by four neighboring cells [22, 23] or do not have by-cells [18]. Many of the anatomical features in our study were like other species of *Fritillaria*.

In the *F. persica* volatile components study with the HS-SPME technique, eight compounds corresponding to 83.9% were identified and a high rate of 1,3-dichlorobenzene (60%) was found and other major compounds are limonene (8.1%) and *p*-cymene (5.1%). Compounds consist of monoterpene hydrocarbons (13.2%), oxygenated monoterpenes (4.1%) and others (66.6%). Seyed Saleh et al. (2018),  $\alpha$ -bisabolol oxide A, camphor, chamazulene, trans-thujone,  $\alpha$ -bisabolone oxide A,  $\delta$ -3-carene and  $\alpha$ -pinene by hydrodistillation, and  $\alpha$ -bisabolol oxide A, chamazulene,  $\alpha$ -bisabolone oxide A, camphor, trans-thujone,  $\delta$ -3-carene,  $\alpha$ -pinene were reported as major constituents of *F. imperialis* oil obtained by HS-SPME from Iran [24]. Has (2019), volatile compounds of *F. imperialis* bulbs were captured with HS-SPME fiber, analyzed by gas chromatography/mass spectrometry from Turkey. Thirteen compounds represented by 93.6% were identified in the 30 minutes study with the blue fiber, and the main compounds were *p*-cymene (23.6%), 1,8 cineol (22.4%) and limonene (15.2%). Ten compounds represented by 98.2% were identified the at 50°C and 15 minutes study with black fiber, and the main compounds were hexanal (29.8%), styrene (22.5%) and 1-hexanol (21.8%) [21, 25].

As a result, morphological and anatomical properties of cultivated *Fritillaria persica* are parallel within the literature within some size or number variations. Volatile compounds of crushed bulbs of *Fritillaria persica* by HS-SPME technique were reported for the first time in this study. Eight compounds (83.9%) were identified and the main components were found as 1,3-dichlorobenzene (60%), limonene (8.1%) and *p*-cymene (5.1%). Compounds consist of monoterpene hydrocarbons (13.2%), oxygenated monoterpenes (4.1%) and others (66.6%).

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## CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors stated that there is no conflicts of interest regarding the publication of this article.

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

COMPARATIVE FLUX BALANCE ANALYSES OF SERINE ALKALINE PROTEASE  
OVERPRODUCTION IN *Bacillus subtilis* AT GENOME AND SMALL SCALE

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ABSTRACT

This work aims to conduct flux balance analysis of serine alkaline protease overproduction in *Bacillus subtilis* using enzyme-constrained genome scale model and to compare the results with fluxes obtained from a smaller, bioreaction-based model. Fluxes of the enzyme constraint genome scale model were calculated using CobraToolbox v3.0 and compared with those of bioreaction-based model for the specific growth rate of zero. The active reaction number first increased and then remained constant with specific growth rate for enzyme constrained genome scale model. The SAP synthesis flux increased with a decrease in specific growth rate for both models. The TCA cycle was active for both models, but with lower fluxes for enzyme-constrained genome scale model. Anaplerotic reactions were active only for bioreaction-based model. Glycolysis pathway fluxes were active for enzyme-constrained genome scale model, meanwhile gluconeogenesis pathway fluxes were active for bioreaction-based model. Oxidative pentose phosphate pathway was inactive for both models and generally higher pentose phosphate pathway fluxes were obtained using bioreaction-based model. The fluxes toward amino acid synthesis pathways and serine alkaline protease synthesis were higher with bioreaction-based model. Since TCA cycle fluxes were lower with enzyme constrained genome scale model, ATP synthesis was lower with enzyme constrained genome scale model compared to bioreaction-based model. For both models, active pathways were the same for TCA cycle, pentose phosphate pathway, amino acid synthesis pathways except glycolysis pathway. The results showed that bioreaction-based model gave more sound results compared to enzyme constrained genome scale model since gluconeogenesis should be active with the carbon source of citrate.

**Keywords:** Enzyme constrained genome scale metabolic model, Metabolic flux analysis, Bioreaction-based model

Abbreviations

**A:** Stoichiometric matrix of the metabolic network

ATPS4r:  $\text{adp}[c]+4\text{h}[e]+\text{pi}[c] \Leftrightarrow \text{atp}[c]+\text{h}_2\text{o}[c]+3\text{h}[c]$

ala\_L[c]: Intracellular L-alanine

arg\_L[c]: Intracellular L-arginine

asn\_L[c]: Intracellular L-asparagine

asp\_L[c]: Intracellular L-aspartate

atp[c]: Intracellular atp

adp[c]: Intracellular adp

BsBRM-2000: Bioreaction-based model [1]

**c(t):** Metabolite accumulation vector

**c<sub>1</sub>(t):** Extracellular metabolite accumulation vector

**c<sub>2</sub>(t):** Intracellular metabolite accumulation vector

**[E<sub>j</sub>]:** Concentration of enzyme j

ec\_iYO844: Enzyme constrained GEM [2]

ec\_iYO844-SAP: SAP synthesis reaction [1] and exchange reaction for SAP were added to ec\_iYO844 [2] forming ec\_iYO844-SAP in this study

**EX\_SAP(e):** SAP exchange reaction

FB: Flux balance

FBA: Flux balance analysis

gln\_L[c]: Intracellular L-glutamine  
glu\_L[c]: Intracellular L-glutamate  
gly[c]: Intracellular glycine  
GEM: Genome scale metabolic model  
GECKO: Enzymatic Constraints using Kinetic and Omics data  
his\_L[c]: Intracellular L-histidine  
ile\_L[c]: Intracellular L-isoleucine  
iYO844: *Bacillus subtilis* GEM [3]  
leu\_L[c]: Intracellular L-leucine  
lys\_L[c]: Intracellular L-lysine  
met\_L[c]: Intracellular L-methionine  
PPP: Pentose phosphate pathway  
PYK:  $\text{adp}[c] + \text{h}[c] + \text{pep}[c] \Rightarrow \text{atp}[c] + \text{pyr}[c]$   
PGK:  $13\text{dpg}[c] + \text{adp}[c] + 8.44309\text{e-}07\text{PM\_PGK\_f} \Leftrightarrow 3\text{pg}[c] + \text{atp}[c]$   
phe\_L[c]: Intracellular L-phenylalanine  
pro\_L[c]: Intracellular L-proline  
pi[c]: Intracellular phosphate  
r(t): reaction rate vector  
 $k_{cat}^j$ : Turnover number of enzyme j  
SAP: Serine alkaline protease  
**SAP: SAP synthesis reaction**  
SAP[e]: Extracellular SAP  
ser\_L[c]: Intracellular L-serine  
thr\_L[c]: Intracellular L-threonine  
trp\_L[c]: Intracellular L-tryptophan  
tyr\_L[c]: Intracellular L-tyrosine  
 $v_j$ : Rate of reaction j  
val\_L[c] : Intracellular L-valine

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Genome scale metabolic models (GEMs) aim to describe the whole metabolism of an organism [4], containing: stoichiometric reaction network and gene-protein-reaction-metabolite associations. Functions of GEMs are calculation of intracellular reaction rates in bioprocesses; determination of bottleneck reactions in bioreaction network; increasing yield and selectivity of bioprocesses by changing medium components, bioreactor operation parameters, microorganism or genetic structure; prediction of the results of genetic and environmental changes; determination of the maximum theoretical yield; generation of hypotheses, model-driven discovery; metabolic engineering and strain design [5-6].

*Bacillus* is an important group of industrial microorganisms acting as microbioreactors in fermentors [5]. *Bacillus subtilis* is the best defined Gram-positive bacteria [2]. *B.subtilis* genome was sequenced and updated totally over the last 20 years by many researchers [7-11], proven to be a model organism for systems biology. Progress in genome sequencing and consequently annotation studies results with reconstructing GEMs with more accurate gene-enzyme-reaction data and therefore with more accurate prediction capacity. There are six basic *B.subtilis* GEMs [12] apart from ec\_iYO844 [2]. The first three GEMs are reconstructed with the biochemical and genomic knowledge based on genome sequencing of [7]. Therefore, they are called first generation *B.subtilis* GEMs [3, 13-14]. Second generation *B.subtilis* GEMs [15-16] are based on the genome sequencing of [8]. iBsu1144 [12] is a third generation *B.subtilis* GEM that takes its genome annotation from [9] and ec\_iYO844 [2] is a first generation *B.subtilis* GEM since it is based on [3].

Serine alkaline protease (SAP), one of the major industrial enzyme [5] is produced by *Bacillus sp.* at the start of stationary phase of growth [1]. Aims of this work are to conduct flux balance analysis of SAP overproduction in *Bacillus subtilis* using ec\_iYO844-SAP that contains 1269 reactions, 1010 metabolites and to compare the results with those of biochemical reaction based model having 147 reactions and 105 metabolites [1] to assess validity of enzyme constrained GEM.

## 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

### 2.1 Flux Balance Analyses

Stream of metabolites in a mathematically represented bioreaction network is computed with flux balance (FB) methodology to analyze metabolic flux distributions. The FB methodology cannot predict metabolite concentrations since it doesn't use kinetic parameters. Using fermentation data as constraints, an allowable solution space is obtained. FBA can determine a single optimum flux distribution on the edge of the allowable solution space by optimizing an objective function [12].

Mass-balance based stoichiometric equations are constructed for each metabolite in the cell, which is considered as a semi-batch microreactor. The algebraic sum of all conversion reactions of each metabolite-*i* in the defined reactions plus the transport of metabolite-*i* are equal to the accumulation of metabolite-*i* [6]. The scalar flux balance equations can be shown as a linear vector as follows:

$$A \times r(t) = c(t) \quad (1)$$

Where A is mxn stoichiometric coefficients matrix, m is the number of metabolites and n is the number of reactions [6], r(t) is the flux vector and c(t) is the metabolite accumulation vector. The elements of c(t) are two sub-vectors:

$$c(t) = c_1(t) + c_2(t) \quad (2)$$

where  $c_1(t)$  and  $c_2(t)$  correspond to extracellular and intracellular metabolite accumulation vectors, respectively. Using pseudo steady state (PSS) approximation for the intracellular metabolites,  $c_2(t)$  is set to zero. Intracellular fluxes can be calculated by minimizing or maximizing the objective function Z, specified for a selected component-*i* [17].

$$Z = \sum \alpha_i \cdot r_i \quad (3)$$

where, Z is a linear combination of fluxes ( $r_i$ ) multiplied by the corresponding stoichiometric coefficient of component-*i* ( $\alpha_i$ ) for every reaction [12].

In this work, firstly SAP synthesis reaction [1] and exchange reaction for SAP were added to ec\_iYO844 [2] forming ec\_iYO844-SAP. Secondly, the objective function was defined as the exchange reaction of SAP in the cells; whereupon, maximization of the objective function was carried out at citrate's uptake rate at 10 mmole/g<sub>DW</sub>/h and at various growth rates ( $\mu = 0, 0.05, 0.15, 0.25, 0.35, 0.45, 0.55, 0.65, 0.75 \text{ h}^{-1}$ ) using CobraToolbox v3.0 [18] to determine intracellular reaction rates. Reaction fluxes of metabolites are expressed in mmole/g<sub>DW</sub>/h; and the flux towards the cell is the specific growth rate,  $\mu (\text{h}^{-1})$  [12].

### 2.2 Enzyme Constrained Genome Scale Metabolic Model

The enzymes that catalyze a reaction affect the metabolic flux. Different approaches have been developed to constrain the solution space and improve phenotypic predictions by integrating enzyme concentrations [2]. **GECKO** is the most promising method, using enzymatic data as a new constraint for each metabolic flux, provided that fluxes do not exceed the maximum capacity in a given condition [2, 19].

A set of available enzyme constraints (absolute protein levels and turnover numbers) for the reactions of central carbon metabolism were integrated into the iYO844 GEM of *B. subtilis* [3] following the

principles of the GECKO [2]: An additional constraint that the metabolic flux through the  $j^{\text{th}}$  reaction ( $R_j$ ) does not exceed its maximum capacity ( $v_{\max}$ ), corresponding to the product between the  $k_{\text{cat}}$  value (converted to  $\text{h}^{-1}$ ) of the enzyme  $E_j$  (that catalyzes the  $j^{\text{th}}$  reaction) and its abundance  $[E_j]$ , as shown in Eq 4, was considered to implement the GECKO approach [2].

$$v_j \leq k_{\text{cat}}^j * [E_j] \quad \text{for } j=1 \dots 17 \quad (4)$$

In this work ec\_iYO844-SAP was constructed: Serine alkaline protease (SAP) synthesis reaction [1] (the reaction named as **SAP**) and exchange reaction for SAP (named as **EX\_SAP(e)**) were added to ec\_iYO844 [2] forming ec\_iYO844-SAP containing 1269 reactions and 1010 metabolites. Since the system is underdetermined, optimization was carried out by maximizing the exchange reaction for SAP. SAP synthesis reaction was not chosen as the objective function since it yielded zero SAP production. Citrate uptake rate was considered as 10 mmole/g<sub>DW</sub>/hr during flux balance analyses, which was conducted in CobraToolbox v3.0 [18]. The reason why citrate was chosen as the carbon source was that the aim of this study is to compare prediction capacities of a genome scale model and biochemical reaction-based model [1], which is named as BsBRM-2000 in this study for intracellular reaction rates/fluxes. Since there is already flux data obtained by theoretical capacity analysis conducted with BsBRM-2000 [1] taking citrate as the sole carbon source with its uptake rate as 10 mmole/g<sub>DW</sub>/h [1], citrate was chosen to be carbon source.

Added reaction names and reactions are shown below:

**SAP:** 40 ala\_L[c] + 4 arg\_L[c] + 18 asn\_L[c] + 9 asp\_L[c] + 1096 atp[c] + 7 gln\_L[c] + 5 glu\_L[c] + 35 gly[c] + 5 his\_L[c] + 10 ile\_L[c] + 16 leu\_L[c] + 9 lys\_L[c] + 5 met\_L[c] + 4 phe\_L[c] + 10 pro\_L[c] + 32 ser\_L[c] + 20 thr\_L[c] + 1 trp\_L[c] + 13 tyr\_L[c] + 31 val\_L[c] -> 1096 pi[c] + 1096 adp[c] + SAP[e]

**EX\_SAP(e):** SAP[e] ->

### 3. RESULTS

Theoretical capacity analysis led to optimized SAP overproduction by using a linear constrained optimization technique for several specific growth rates was conducted and the variation of the fluxes were calculated by fixing the sole carbon source citrate's uptake rate at 10 mmole/g<sub>DW</sub>/h [1]. The objective function  $Z$  was defined as synthesis rate of SAP in the cells, whereupon optimum flux distributions were obtained by maximizing the objective function  $Z$  [1]. In this work, it was also aimed to conduct theoretical capacity analysis with ec\_iYO844-SAP using the same citrate uptake rate, growth rates and however with different optimization functions (Exchange reaction for SAP, **EX\_SAP(e)**) and compare the results with those of literature [1]. In this work, when the optimization function was taken as SAP synthesis reaction, there were no SAP synthesis in all growth rates. Therefore, exchange reaction for SAP was taken as optimization function since it yielded decreasing SAP synthesis with increasing specific growth rates as it was reported [1]. The mathematical model of [1], which is a bioreaction-based model, is named as BsBRM-2000 in this study (Table 1). Prediction capacities of a genome scale model and biochemical reaction-based model for intracellular reaction rates/fluxes were compared for the first time in this study.

Intracellular reaction rates were calculated for ec\_iYO844-SAP for different growth rates. Fluxes of common reactions were compared for ec\_iYO844-SAP and BsBRM-2000. Active reaction number first increased with growth rate and then remained constant with  $\mu$  for ec\_iYO844-SAP (Table 2). For both models, SAP synthesis rate decreased with growth rate; meanwhile, SAP synthesis flux was higher with BsBRM-2000 (Table 3). The flux ratio of SAP synthesis in two models increased with growth rate (Table 3).

**Table 1.** Comparison of models.

Gene #	Reaction #	Metabolite #	Model
844	1269	1010	ec_iYO844-SAP
-	147	105	BsBRM-2000

**Table 2.** Number of active reactions with ec\_iYO844-SAP.

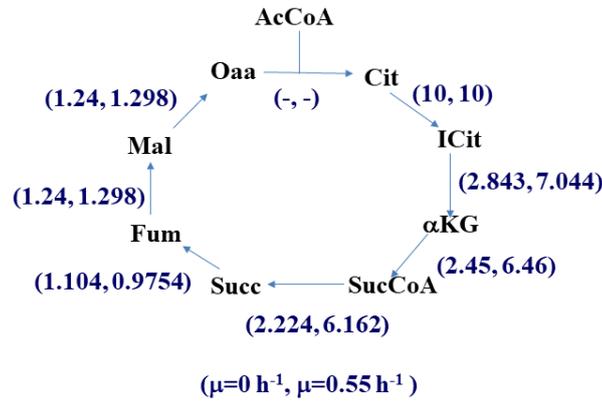
$\mu$ , h <sup>-1</sup>	ec_iYO844-SAP	
	Active reaction #	% percent
0	162	12.8
0.05	351	27.7
0.15	351	27.7
0.25	351	27.7
0.35	351	27.7
0.45	351	27.7
0.55	351	27.7
0.65	-	-
0.75	-	-

**Table 3.** SAP synthesis fluxes.

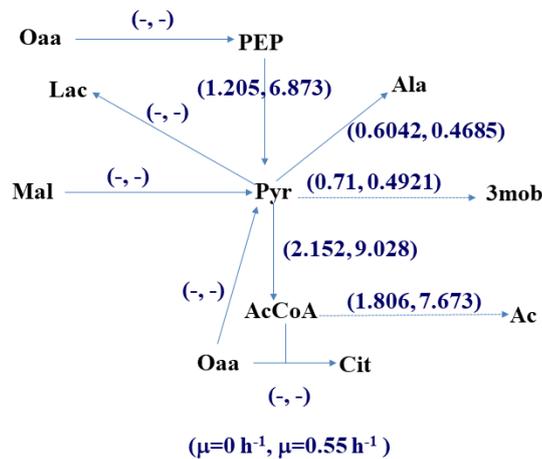
$\mu$ , h <sup>-1</sup>	Intracellular SAP flux (mmole/g <sub>DW</sub> /h)		Flux ratio
	ec_iYO844-SAP	BsBRM-2000	
0.0	0.01511	0.0260	1.7
0.05	0.0139	0.0243	1.7
0.15	0.01148	0.0209	1.8
0.25	0.009056	0.0175	1.9
0.35	0.006635	0.0143	2.2
0.45	0.004215	0.0107	2.5
0.55	0.001795	0.0073	4.1
0.65	-	0.0039	-
0.75	-	0.0006	-

TCA cycle fluxes increased with growth rate for ec\_iYO844-SAP (Figure 1), while TCA cycle fluxes did not change considerably with respect to growth rate for BsBRM-2000 [1]. Anaplerotic reactions were inactive for ec\_iYO844-SAP (Figure 2). Glycolysis pathway fluxes increased with growth rate (Figure 3), oxidative PPP fluxes were inactive for ec\_iYO844-SAP (Figure 4).

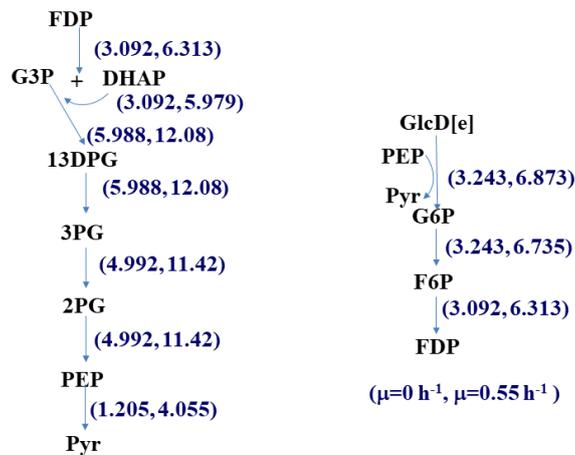
Fluxes toward serine-group, alanine- group, histidine, aromatic acid- group amino acid pathways decreased at least 1.2- fold with growth rate; meanwhile SAP synthesis flux decreased 8.4- fold with respect to growth rate (Table 4). There were similar decreases with BsBRM-2000 fluxes towards amino acid synthesis pathways (AAP) [1]. ATP synthesis rate increased 2.44- fold with growth rate for ec\_iYO844-SAP (Table 5), meanwhile it did not change considerably for BsBRM-2000 [1]. Comparison of two models was carried out only for  $\mu=0$  h<sup>-1</sup> since Çalık et al.[1] reported only central pathway fluxes for  $\mu=0$ , 0.75 h<sup>-1</sup> values and ec\_iYO844-SAP was infeasible with  $\mu=0.75$  h<sup>-1</sup>. The TCA cycle was active for both models similarly but with lower fluxes of ec\_iYO844-SAP (Figure 5). Anaplerotic reactions were active only with BsBRM-2000 (Figure 6).



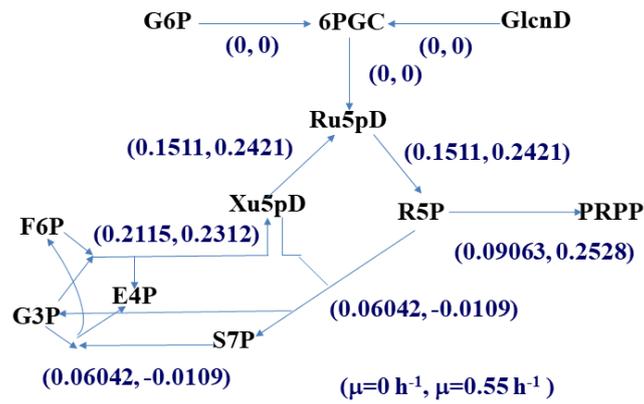
**Figure 1.** Effects of growth rate on TCA cycle fluxes (mmole/g<sub>DW</sub>/hr) in SAP production calculated with ec\_iYO844-SAP.



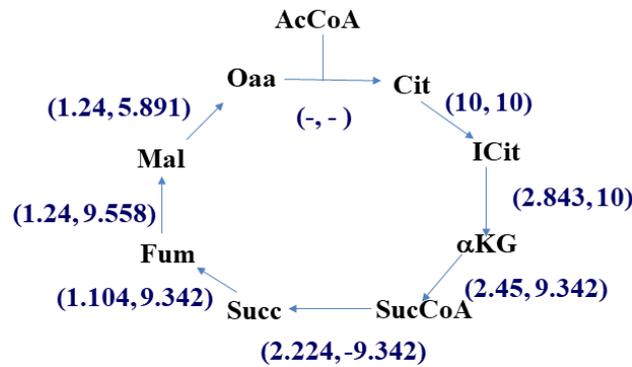
**Figure 2.** Effects of growth rate on Pyr node fluxes (mmole/g<sub>DW</sub>/hr) in SAP production calculated with ec\_iYO844-SAP.



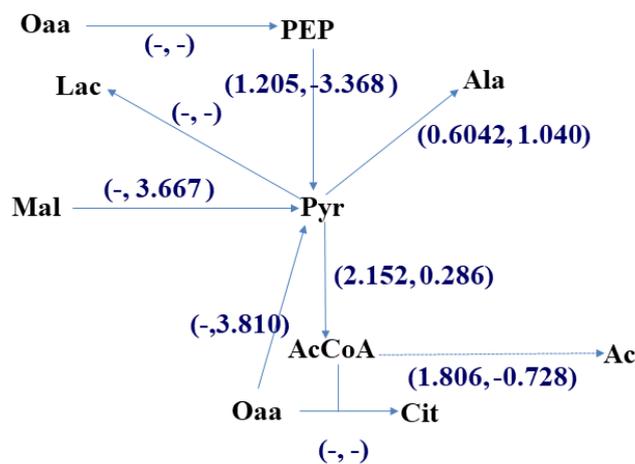
**Figure 3.** Effects of growth rate on glycolysis pathway fluxes (mmole/g<sub>DW</sub>/hr) in SAP production calculated with ec\_iYO844-SAP.



**Figure 4.** Effects of growth rate on PPP fluxes (mmole/g<sub>DW</sub>/hr) in SAP production calculated with ec\_iYO844-SAP.



**Figure 5.** Comparison of TCA cycle fluxes (mmole/g<sub>DW</sub>/h) in SAP production calculated with ec\_iYO844-SAP and BsBRM-2000 for  $\mu=0 \text{ h}^{-1}$ , respectively.



**Figure 6.** Comparison of Pyr node fluxes (mmole/g<sub>DW</sub>/h) in SAP production calculated with ec\_iYO844-SAP and BsBRM-2000 for  $\mu=0 \text{ h}^{-1}$ , respectively.

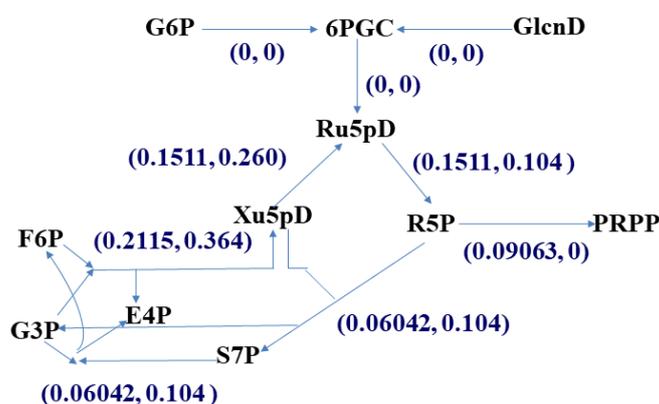
**Table 4.** Fluxes towards amino acid synthesis pathways, mmole/g<sub>DW</sub>/h.

Amino acid synthesis pathways	$\mu=0 \text{ h}^{-1}$	$\mu=0.55 \text{ h}^{-1}$	Fold change
Serine group amino acid pathways	0.9959	0.6578	1.5↓
Alanine group amino acid pathways	0.6042	0.4685	1.3↓
Histidine synthesis	0.07553	0.05393	1.4↓
Aspartic acid group amino acid pathways	1.24	1.298	1
Aromatic group amino acid pathways	0.2719	0.2203	1.2↓

**Table 5.** Effects of growth rate on ATP synthesis fluxes in SAP production calculated with ec\_iYO844-SAP.

Reaction	ATP synthesis, mmole/g <sub>DW</sub> /h	
	$\mu=0 \text{ h}^{-1}$	$\mu=0.55 \text{ h}^{-1}$
PYK	1.205	4.055
ATPS4r	20.81	52.24
PGK	5.988	12.08
Total	28.003	68.375

Glycolysis pathway fluxes were active for ec\_iYO844-SAP, meanwhile gluconeogenesis pathway fluxes were active for BsBRM-2000 at  $\mu=0 \text{ h}^{-1}$  [1]. Oxidative PPP was inactive for both models and generally higher PPP fluxes were obtained with BsBRM-2000 (Figure 7). The fluxes toward amino acid synthesis pathways and SAP synthesis were higher for BsBRM-2000 (Table 6). Since TCA cycle fluxes were lower with ec\_iYO844-SAP, ATP synthesis was lower with ec\_iYO844-SAP compared to BsBRM-2000 (Table 7).

**Figure 7.** Comparison of PPP fluxes (mmole/g<sub>DW</sub>/h) in SAP production calculated with ec\_iYO844-SAP and BsBRM-2000 for  $\mu=0 \text{ h}^{-1}$ , respectively.**Table 6.** Comparison of fluxes (mmole/g<sub>DW</sub>/h) toward amino acid synthesis pathways in SAP production for  $\mu=0 \text{ h}^{-1}$ .

Amino acid synthesis pathways	ec_iYO844-SAP	BsBRM-2000	Fold change
Serine-group amino acid pathways	0.9959	1.573	1.6
Alanine-group amino acid pathways	0.6042	1.040	1.7
Histidine synthesis	0.07553	0.130	1.7
Aspartic acid- group amino acid pathways	1.24	2.081	1.7
Aromatic- group amino acid pathways	0.2719	0.273	1.0
Glutamic acid- group amino acid pathways	3.761	7.763	2.1

**Table 7.** Total ATP synthesis fluxes, mmole/g<sub>DW</sub>/h: Comparison of ATP synthesis fluxes in SAP production for  $\mu=0$  h<sup>-1</sup>.

ec_iYO844-SAP	BsBRM-2000	Fold change
28.003	52.46	1.9

#### 4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

According to ec\_iYO844-SAP and BsBRM-2000 results, active pathways were the same for TCA cycle, PPP and amino acid synthesis pathways except glycolysis pathway. Divergence of fluxes at glycolysis pathway was because enzyme-constraint GEM allows for glucose exchange, otherwise central carbon pathways were inactive with no SAP production at  $\mu=0$  h<sup>-1</sup> with ec\_iYO844-SAP. Citrate exerts a negative feedback on glycolysis by inhibiting phosphofructokinase 1 and 6-phosphofructo-2-kinase/fructose-2,6-biphosphatases (PFK2); on the contrary it stimulates pathways consuming ATP such as gluconeogenesis and lipid synthesis [20]. BsBRM-2000 yielded more sound results since an active gluconeogenesis pathway is expected with citrate as sole carbon source.

The number of active reactions increased with respect to growth rate and was maximum as 351. The minimum number of active reactions was 162 at  $\mu=0$  h<sup>-1</sup> as anticipated since stationary phase implies less maintenance energy and less active metabolism inside the cell. This result was in harmony with the literature [21] where active reactions were calculated to be 322, 318, 43 for *Bacillus subtilis* (rBsP) in Period I (0<t<4h), Period II (4<t<12h), Periods III-V (12<t<32 h) calculated using GEM of iYO844 using glucose as carbon source, respectively. The number of active reactions at stationary phase calculated with enzyme constrained iYO844 (ec\_iYO844-SAP) is 162, while the number of active reactions at stationary phase calculated with iYO844 [21] is 43 since different carbon sources were utilized in both models.

A bigger model does not necessarily yield better results as it was depicted in this study. The bioreaction - based model produced more sound results probably due to better connectivity. ec\_iYO844-SAP could describe the changes in central carbon metabolism with growth rate in a better way. The number of enzyme-constrained reactions is 17 [2] although ec-iYO844-SAP has 1269 reactions and 1010 metabolites. If the number of enzyme-constrained reactions were 1269 for ec-iYO844-SAP, the actual metabolism could have been better depicted with ec-iYO844-SAP. Results will be convergent as more *Bacillus subtilis* reactions are discovered; enzyme information and intracellular regulations are integrated into GEMs.

#### CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The author confirms to have no competing financial interests or relationships that could influence the work reported in this article.

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

INVESTIGATION OF THE EFFECTS OF GEOTHERMAL AND MINERAL WATER ON  
BARLEY (*Hordeum vulgare* L.) AND WHEAT (*Triticum aestivum* L.)

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ABSTRACT

In the present study, the usability of geothermal and mineral water in agricultural lands was investigated. Geothermal water, mineral water, and tap water with two wheat varieties and one barley variety were used, and six different water groups were formed with geothermal, mineral, and tap water by mixing them at a ratio of 50%. Field soil mixed with 750 g of animal manure was prepared in the growing containers, and then, 6 g of the wheat varieties and 5 g of the barley variety were planted in them. The germinated wheat and barley were irrigated periodically according to their water needs. Barley and wheat were harvested after 15 days. Chlorophyll size, electrolyte leakage, weight, and mineral element concentrations were determined in the harvested crops. The mineral element concentrations of the samples were analyzed in ICP-AES. Additionally, geothermal, mineral and normal water were applied to the soil for three months, and the change between the resulting soil and the starting soil was determined. The collected data were analyzed in the SPSS 22 Statistical Package Program.

**Keywords:** Barley, Geothermal water, Irrigation, Mineral element, Mineral water, Wheat

1. INTRODUCTION

Water is the most indispensable resource provided by nature. Water exists in nature in many ways, such as oceans, seas, rivers, and groundwater. Due to the increase in world population, intensive agricultural activities and water use in domestic and industrial areas have significantly increased the demand for freshwater [1, 2, 3]. Because of these demands, utilizable freshwater resources are gradually decreasing [4, 5, 6]. Especially, the haphazard use of groundwater for irrigation and its widespread exploitation seem to cause problems in the long run [7, 8, 9]. Insufficient water resources and deteriorating water quality lead to severe concerns for industry, agriculture, and the environment in many parts of the world [10]. The existing total water of the world consists of 97.4% saltwater and 2.6% freshwater. The reclamation and recovery of wastewater, including reuse and recycling, have recently been seen as one of the possible tools that contribute to the better management of water resources [11, 12]. With the race to increase agricultural productivity, irrigation will become more dependent on substandard water resources. Therefore, investigating the effects of irrigation water quality on yield has considerable significance. This approach is extremely critical for maintaining proper food and soil quality as well as providing sufficient crop production for the increasing need [13].

In recent years, the increasing water limitation due to the deterioration of water quality and quantity has started to become a significant problem. In many countries, a large part of urban wastewater is drained from rivers without being treated sufficiently or at all, and the water of these rivers is used for the irrigation of agricultural areas. Rapidly increasing population, rapid urbanization, industrialization, and the extensive use of fertilizers and pesticides in agricultural areas may cause rapid contamination in freshwater resources [14, 15, 16]. Although the distribution of usage areas of water changes, on average, 70% of the total freshwater is used for agriculture, 20% is used for industrial purposes, and 10% is used

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for domestic purposes worldwide. Based on these rates, clean water used for agricultural irrigation creates a large part of the total water used. Depending on the increasing population, it is predicted that by 2050, 70% more food will be produced, and consequently, the amount of water required for agricultural irrigation will increase [17,18]. Thus, it has become an increasingly commonplace practice to use treated wastewater for agricultural irrigation, especially in countries that have water shortages and want to eliminate the cost of wastewater treatment and utilize the rich nutrient resources in wastewater [13, 19].

The use of thermal resources is a very old. The systematic use and development of these resources, which are thought to be used for health and religious purposes in antiquity, coincide with the Roman period. Türkiye is rich in geothermal resources due to the large footprint of active volcanic and tectonic areas. Hence, Türkiye has a significant potential for geothermal tourism. The estimated total number of geothermal resource sites is 1300, and the number of medicinal water sources is over 2000 in Türkiye. Thus, Türkiye is in the top five in the distribution of geothermal resources worldwide [20, 21].

Geothermal water has been used in the tourism sector in many parts of the world, while mineral water is mostly used as drinking water. In this study, the usability of geothermal and mineral water in agricultural areas was investigated.

## 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

Geothermal water in Erzincan is among the therapeutic water resources with superior properties such as a temperature of approximately 34° and 660 mg of free carbon dioxide gas per liter. This geothermal water is currently used in geothermal tourism. Mineral water is also located close to the region where geothermal water comes out. It is used for drinking and is always open to the public (Figure 1).

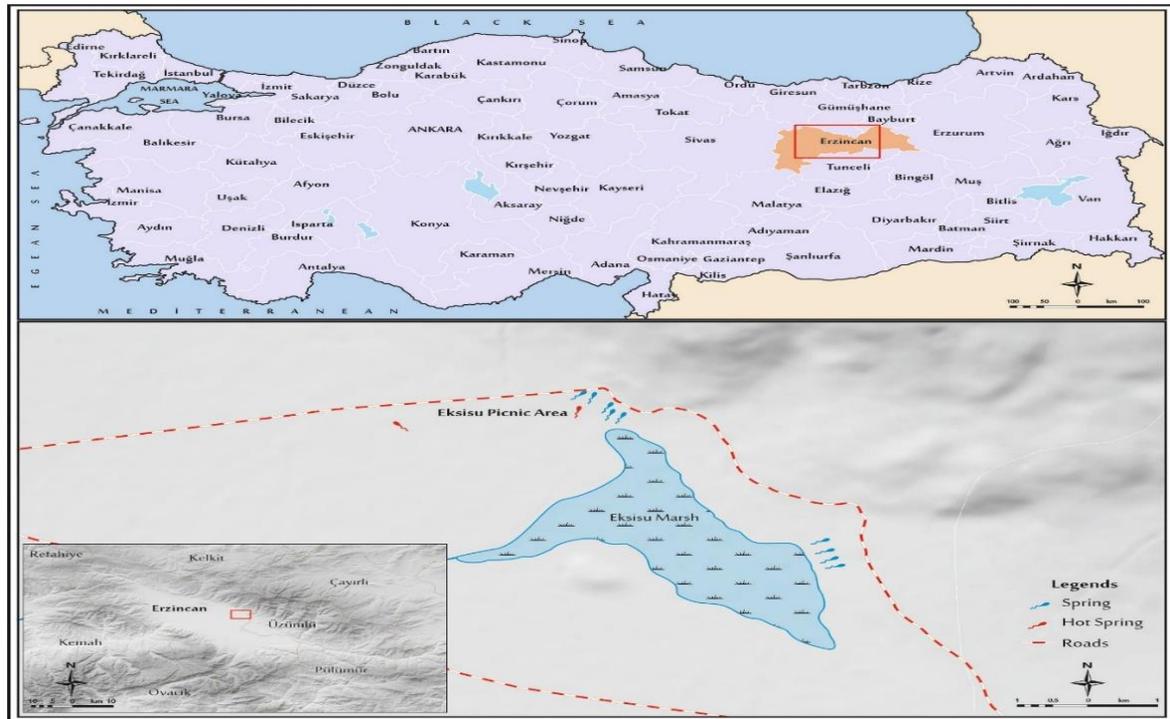


Figure 1. Area of geothermal ve mineral water

The geothermal and mineral water and tap water located within the borders of Erzincan and two wheat (Forblanc, Esperia) and one barley (Akhisar 98) varieties were used in this study. The Forblanc wheat variety is of medium height, and its ears are awn. It has resistance to drought, cold stress, and lying. The

Esperia wheat variety is approximately 80-85 cm in height. Its grain color is red, and its grain structure is hard. It has a winter development nature; its stem is strong, it does not bend easily, and its performance is high in irrigated areas. The Akhisar 98 barley variety is 85-90 cm in height; it is a summer, six-row barley variety. It has medium sensitivity to drought stress and is very productive [22, 23, 24]. In this study, six different water groups were formed using geothermal, mineral, and tap water by mixing them at a ratio of 50%. Additionally, field soil mixed with 750 g of animal manure was prepared in the growing containers, and then, 6 g of the wheat varieties and 5 g of the barley variety were planted in them. The geothermal water was cooled to a suitable temperature before using it for the irrigation of plants. After germination, the plants were irrigated according to the water needs of wheat and barley and the field capacity. Next, barley and wheat were harvested for analyses after an average of 15 days. Chlorophyll size, electrolyte leakage, weight, and mineral element concentrations were determined in the harvested plants. Apart from these analyses, geothermal water, mineral water and tap water were applied to the soil for three months, some properties (e.g., organic matter and salinity) and element concentrations in the resulting soil were determined, and these properties were compared to those of the same soil where no water application was made. Moreover, the water that was used to irrigate the soil was analyzed.

The electrolyte leakage of fresh leaves was determined according to the method reported by [25] 4 mL of distilled water was added to six replicate test tubes containing 0.1 g of fresh leaves and incubated at 4 °C for 24 h. An electrical conductivity meter was used to measure the number of ions present in water.

The Lichtenthaler and Buschmann (2001) method was used to estimate total chlorophyll and carotenoid content in fresh leaves. Fresh leaf tissue (0.5 g) was ground using a mortar and pestle, which contained 5 mL acetone (80%). The absorbance of the corresponding extract was measured at 662 and 645 nm (chlorophyll) and 440 nm (carotenoids). Photosynthetic pigments are expressed as mg/g FW [26].

Samples were dried at 65°C for 24 h, ground, and dried again at 65°C for 12 h. These dried samples were used for the analysis. Needle samples (0.5 g) were prepared using a precision scale and then put into Teflon cells. Eight milliliters of HNO<sub>3</sub> (65%) were added to the ground samples, while 5 mL HNO<sub>3</sub> (65%), 3 ml HCl (37%), and 2 mL HF (48%) were added to the ground soil samples. The samples were put into a microwave oven (Berghof-MWS2). The temperature of the microwave contents was gradually increased to 175°C and held constant for 20 min. The samples and chemicals were filtered with Whatman filters into 50 mL sterile tubes and diluted to 50 mL with ultra-pure water for the ICP-OES analysis. Before the spectroscopic analysis, standards were prepared using a 1,000 ppm multi-element solution. The ICP-OES measurements were made after the calibration using the standards [26].

The data obtained in the study were statistically evaluated. A value of  $p \leq 0.05$  was accepted as significant in statistical calculations and comparisons. With SPSS 22 Package Statistical Program, the data were analyzed by ANOVA test at 95% confidence interval and the differences between samples in multiple comparisons were determined by Tukey's B and S-N-K [26].

### 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this study, many parameters were examined, and significant results were obtained (Table 1.). First of all, according to the analysis of the three different types of water, it was determined that the geothermal water had a quite high turbidity at 55.6 NTU, and its conductivity was very high at 7100  $\mu$ S/cm. On the other hand, the turbidity (0-1 NTU) and conductivity (0-2500  $\mu$ S/cm) values of the tap and mineral water were within normal ranges. When the pH values of the water were examined, it was seen that the mineral water (5.5) was more acidic, while the other water types were within normal pH ranges (6.5-9.5). Afterwards, due to the application of different irrigation water types (geothermal, mineral, tap) in the soil for three months, the amount of organic matter increased in all three irrigation groups, and differences were observed in other parameters. Changes in the concentrations of elements in the soil were also seen. The concentration of the elements in the soil irrigated with three different types of water

was determined differently than in the non-irrigated soil. Therefore, it was seen that the water used in the study changed the element concentrations of the soil. The data obtained on the differences in element concentrations based on different water treatments are shown in (Table 2).

**Table 1.** Chemical properties of different waters.

Parametres	Geothermal Water		Mineral Water		Normal Water		Control	
Ph	8,23	Strong Alkaline	7,85	Light Alkaline	8,01	Strong Alkaline	8,03	Strong Alkaline
Ec(Micromhos)	3,22		1,46		1,74		0,91	
Soil Texture	70,00	Clayey-Loamy	68,00	Clayey-Loamy	72,00	Clayey	55,00	Clayey-Loamy
Organic Substance	5,53	High	4,98	High	5,26	High	0,83	Very little
Lime	10,93	Limy	12,10	Limy	10,93	Limy	14,83	Limy
Salt	0,14	Saltless	0,06	Saltless	0,08	Saltless	0,03	Saltless

**Table 2.** Element concentration in the soil applied to different waters (mg / kg DW).

Element	Al		B		Cu		Fe		Mn		Zn	
<b>Geothermal Water</b>	3143,9	± 57,5 <sup>b</sup>	49,8	± 0,4 <sup>a</sup>	58,2	± 0,4 <sup>a</sup>	51258,6	± 325,1 <sup>b</sup>	613,7	± 4,3 <sup>a</sup>	65,1	± 0,6 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Mineral Water</b>	3076,1	± 41,6 <sup>b</sup>	27,8	± 0,6 <sup>c</sup>	53,9	± 0,5 <sup>b</sup>	50732,1	± 316,2 <sup>b</sup>	609,0	± 2,5 <sup>a</sup>	64,6	± 1,5 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Normal Water</b>	3237,7	± 50,9 <sup>b</sup>	32,8	± 0,3 <sup>b</sup>	56,8	± 0,9 <sup>a</sup>	51924,5	± 479,8 <sup>b</sup>	616,1	± 5,5 <sup>a</sup>	64,0	± 0,7 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Control</b>	3550,3	± 70,7 <sup>a</sup>	27,5	± 0,1 <sup>c</sup>	55,8	± 0,5 <sup>b</sup>	53947,7	± 570,2 <sup>a</sup>	588,8	± 3,8 <sup>b</sup>	53,5	± 0,4 <sup>b</sup>

Element	Na		Mg		K		Ca		P	
<b>Geothermal Water</b>	1057,4	± 23,1 <sup>a</sup>	78100,1	± 652,1 <sup>a</sup>	3233,0	± 74,9 <sup>a</sup>	43822,4	± 333,7 <sup>b</sup>	644,1	± 3,8 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Mineral Water</b>	337,5	± 12,5 <sup>d</sup>	75350,5	± 505,9 <sup>b</sup>	2888,6	± 59,5 <sup>a</sup>	44696,7	± 296,8 <sup>b</sup>	614,1	± 6,7 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Normal Water</b>	431,8	± 10,7 <sup>c</sup>	78401,6	± 833,4 <sup>a</sup>	3358,6	± 66,4 <sup>a</sup>	44944,3	± 457,2 <sup>b</sup>	635,2	± 7,9 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Control</b>	742,7	± 20,7 <sup>b</sup>	78233,1	± 899,8 <sup>a</sup>	2352,4	± 18,1 <sup>a</sup>	63662,2	± 959,2 <sup>a</sup>	254,4	± 6,1 <sup>b</sup>

After applying irrigation water, in the wheat varieties, the concentrations of elements varied in different ranges as: Cu ( $11.7 \pm 1.4$ - $23 \pm 0.2$  mg/kg DW), Mn ( $33.6 \pm 1.8$ - $45.8 \pm 3.9$  mg/kg DW) and Zn ( $23, 5 \pm 0.8$ - $39.9 \pm 1.3$  mg/kg DW), whereas these ranges for the barley variety were as follows: Cu ( $20.3 \pm 0.2$ - $26.5 \pm 0.2$  mg/kg DW) in barley variety, Mn ( $31.3 \pm 0.6$ - $53.9 \pm 2$  mg/kg DW) and Zn ( $33.2 \pm 0.7$ - $54.6 \pm 0.5$  mg/kg DW). It was observed that these values were close to those of the irrigation water. On the other hand the B ( $27.7 \pm 0.2$  and  $24.0 \pm 2.1$  mg/kg DW), Fe ( $199.5 \pm 13.1$  and  $780.1 \pm 144.8$  mg/kg DW) Na ( $1027, 6 \pm 4.1$  and  $2049.6 \pm 231.6$  mg/kg DW) concentrations in the wheat varieties and the Na ( $9334.5 \pm 68.3$  mg/kg DW) and B ( $18.7 \pm 0.2$  mg/kg DW) concentrations in the barley variety were higher in the samples irrigated with geothermal waters compared to those irrigated with the other water types. According to these results, considerable differences were generally observed between the concentrations of elements due to the application of different types of water (Tables 3-5). Additionally, the chlorophyll levels of the plants differed based on the type of water that was applied. Among the wheat samples, chlorophyll a ( $5.97$ - $10.56$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> FW), chlorophyll b ( $2.58$ - $5.18$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> FW), total chlorophyll ( $8.56$ - $15.61$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> FW) and carotenoid ( $0.92$ - $2.01$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> FW) levels were higher in the samples where tap water and mineral water were used for irrigation together than those where geothermal water was used, while these values among the barley samples were higher in the samples where tap water was applied.

**Table 3.** Element concentration in the barley applied to different waters (mg / kg DW) (\*p < 0.05, \*\*p < 0.01, \*\*\*p < 0.001 significant).

Barley (Akhisar 98)	Al		B		Cu		Fe		Mn		Zn	
Geothermal Water	27,1	± 2,1 <sup>b</sup>	18,7	± 0,2 <sup>e</sup>	26,5	± 0,2 <sup>d</sup>	143,6	± 6,5 <sup>b</sup>	44,7	± 0,4 <sup>c</sup>	54,6	± 0,5 <sup>e</sup>
Mineral Water	49,6	± 5,3 <sup>d</sup>	10,9	± 0,4 <sup>d</sup>	23,4	± 0,4 <sup>c</sup>	201,3	± 15,9 <sup>d</sup>	53,9	± 2,0 <sup>e</sup>	51,3	± 1,1 <sup>d</sup>
Normal Water	134,4	± 0,6 <sup>e</sup>	9,7	± 0,1 <sup>c</sup>	21,5	± 0,3 <sup>b</sup>	370,8	± 9,8 <sup>e</sup>	49,1	± 0,1 <sup>d</sup>	46,4	± 0,5 <sup>e</sup>
Geothermal+Normal	40,1	± 1,7 <sup>c</sup>	10,5	± 0,1 <sup>d</sup>	21,7	± 0,3 <sup>b</sup>	175,6	± 5,2 <sup>c</sup>	38,2	± 0,3 <sup>b</sup>	40,6	± 0,4 <sup>b</sup>
Mineral+Normal	7,2	± 0,2 <sup>a</sup>	7,7	± 0,1 <sup>b</sup>	20,8	± 0,2 <sup>ab</sup>	85,8	± 2,8 <sup>a</sup>	40,6	± 0,6 <sup>b</sup>	39,9	± 0,8 <sup>b</sup>
Mineral+Geothermal	7,0	± 0,4 <sup>a</sup>	7,0	± 0,0 <sup>a</sup>	20,3	± 0,2 <sup>a</sup>	83,7	± 1,9 <sup>a</sup>	31,3	± 0,6 <sup>a</sup>	33,2	± 0,7 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Significant</b>	***		***		***		***		***		***	

	Na		Mg		K		Ca		P	
Geothermal Water	9334,5	± 68,3 <sup>e</sup>	3876,2	± 7,1 <sup>de</sup>	73214,1	± 530,2 <sup>e</sup>	2363,8	± 16,6 <sup>c</sup>	9148,1	± 62,5 <sup>c</sup>
Mineral Water	2062,8	± 62,4 <sup>b</sup>	4068,5	± 154,0 <sup>e</sup>	57853,9	± 1155,4 <sup>c</sup>	2420,3	± 93,6 <sup>c</sup>	11374,8	± 177,1 <sup>f</sup>
Normal Water	1540,1	± 14,4 <sup>a</sup>	3781,1	± 21,0 <sup>d</sup>	53731,1	± 262,6 <sup>b</sup>	2149,5	± 25,4 <sup>b</sup>	10441,1	± 124,7 <sup>e</sup>
Geothermal+Normal	4661,1	± 72,8 <sup>d</sup>	3213,8	± 61,5 <sup>c</sup>	61581,8	± 757,5 <sup>d</sup>	2119,4	± 43,3 <sup>b</sup>	8134,1	± 89,4 <sup>b</sup>
Mineral+Normal	1467,4	± 12,0 <sup>a</sup>	2908,1	± 80,4 <sup>b</sup>	48344,6	± 464,2 <sup>a</sup>	1652,5	± 48,4 <sup>a</sup>	9677,7	± 140,2 <sup>d</sup>
Mineral+Geothermal	4323,0	± 48,9 <sup>c</sup>	2512,7	± 59,9 <sup>a</sup>	54164,1	± 840,1 <sup>b</sup>	1667,8	± 35,3 <sup>a</sup>	6256,0	± 147,9 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Significant</b>	***		***		***		***		***	

**Table 4.** Element concentration in the wheat applied to different waters (mg / kg DW). (\*p < 0.05, \*\*p < 0.01, \*\*\*p < 0.001 significant).

Wheat (Forblanc)	Al		B		Cu		Fe		Mn		Zn	
Geothermal Water	48,9	± 0,5 <sup>a</sup>	27,7	± 0,2 <sup>a</sup>	17,6	± 0,1 <sup>ab</sup>	199,5	± 13,1 <sup>a</sup>	42,2	± 0,8 <sup>a</sup>	24,1	± 0,4 <sup>ab</sup>
Mineral Water	13,8	± 0,7 <sup>b</sup>	2,8	± 0,1 <sup>d</sup>	17,5	± 0,2 <sup>ab</sup>	67,0	± 3,7 <sup>cd</sup>	36,0	± 1,2 <sup>c</sup>	23,5	± 0,8 <sup>b</sup>
Normal Water	13,5	± 0,7 <sup>b</sup>	3,2	± 0,2 <sup>d</sup>	18,1	± 0,1 <sup>a</sup>	90,6	± 2,5 <sup>b</sup>	38,9	± 0,7 <sup>b</sup>	25,9	± 0,4 <sup>a</sup>
Geothermal+Normal	7,6	± 0,2 <sup>c</sup>	20,1	± 0,2 <sup>b</sup>	16,5	± 0,1 <sup>b</sup>	71,2	± 0,6 <sup>bc</sup>	42,0	± 0,3 <sup>a</sup>	25,6	± 0,4 <sup>a</sup>
Mineral+Normal	2,7	± 0,2 <sup>d</sup>	3,1	± 0,1 <sup>d</sup>	16,9	± 0,2 <sup>b</sup>	55,3	± 1,3 <sup>d</sup>	39,4	± 0,6 <sup>b</sup>	24,9	± 0,4 <sup>ab</sup>
Mineral+Geothermal	12,6	± 1,7 <sup>b</sup>	11,4	± 0,5 <sup>c</sup>	18,4	± 0,7 <sup>a</sup>	82,8	± 3,6 <sup>bc</sup>	40,5	± 0,6 <sup>ab</sup>	25,4	± 0,5 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Significant</b>	***		***		***		***		***		**	

	Na		Mg		K		Ca		P	
Geothermal Water	1027,6	± 4,1 <sup>a</sup>	2483,4	± 85,2 <sup>b</sup>	51778,9	± 536,8 <sup>a</sup>	1483,1	± 48,0 <sup>a</sup>	6106,5	± 110,2 <sup>d</sup>
Mineral Water	163,7	± 6,2 <sup>e</sup>	2163,1	± 84,8 <sup>d</sup>	45137,0	± 1373,8 <sup>b</sup>	1275,2	± 73,4 <sup>b</sup>	8262,1	± 269,1 <sup>bc</sup>
Normal Water	144,6	± 2,1 <sup>f</sup>	2334,2	± 52,2 <sup>cd</sup>	50755,8	± 909,1 <sup>a</sup>	1537,1	± 48,0 <sup>a</sup>	8396,5	± 205,3 <sup>bc</sup>
Geothermal+Normal	782,6	± 8,3 <sup>b</sup>	2446,7	± 36,9 <sup>ab</sup>	50263,8	± 314,0 <sup>a</sup>	1523,9	± 31,1 <sup>a</sup>	8696,4	± 101,2 <sup>ab</sup>
Mineral+Normal	185,7	± 3,1 <sup>d</sup>	2512,4	± 44,2 <sup>a</sup>	46274,3	± 775,6 <sup>b</sup>	1557,0	± 33,9 <sup>a</sup>	9155,3	± 150,2 <sup>a</sup>
Mineral+Geothermal	720,1	± 10,3 <sup>c</sup>	2519,0	± 45,0 <sup>a</sup>	49020,3	± 781,6 <sup>a</sup>	1510,9	± 41,7 <sup>a</sup>	7882,9	± 96,4 <sup>c</sup>
<b>Significant</b>	***		***		***		***		***	

\*\*\*p < 0.001 significant).

**Table 5.** Element concentration in the wheat applied to different waters (mg / kg DW). (\*p < 0.05, \*\*p < 0.01, \*\*\*p < 0.001 significant).

Wheat (Esperia)	Al		B		Cu		Fe		Mn		Zn	
Geothermal Water	26,8	± 2,6 <sup>c</sup>	24,0	± 2,1 <sup>a</sup>	18,7	± 0,6 <sup>b</sup>	780,1	± 144,8 <sup>a</sup>	33,6	± 1,8 <sup>b</sup>	28,3	± 2,1 <sup>b</sup>
Mineral Water	146,1	± 2,8 <sup>a</sup>	3,1	± 0,7 <sup>c</sup>	23,4	± 1,5 <sup>a</sup>	461,0	± 14,4 <sup>c</sup>	36,5	± 1,3 <sup>ab</sup>	28,7	± 1,4 <sup>b</sup>
Normal Water	57,3	± 7,0 <sup>b</sup>	7,0	± 0,4 <sup>c</sup>	20,0	± 0,6 <sup>ab</sup>	214,0	± 18,0 <sup>d</sup>	45,8	± 3,9 <sup>a</sup>	39,9	± 1,3 <sup>a</sup>
Geothermal+Normal	58,6	± 5,4 <sup>b</sup>	12,9	± 0,8 <sup>b</sup>	11,7	± 1,4 <sup>c</sup>	600,8	± 3,1 <sup>b</sup>	40,4	± 0,8 <sup>a</sup>	24,0	± 1,9 <sup>c</sup>
Mineral+Normal	28,5	± 6,5 <sup>c</sup>	14,0	± 3,7 <sup>b</sup>	21,3	± 0,5 <sup>ab</sup>	147,6	± 20,7 <sup>d</sup>	43,0	± 2,6 <sup>a</sup>	39,6	± 1,5 <sup>a</sup>
Mineral+Geothermal	13,8	± 0,6 <sup>c</sup>	21,0	± 0,2 <sup>a</sup>	23,0	± 0,2 <sup>a</sup>	85,7	± 2,1 <sup>d</sup>	37,1	± 0,9 <sup>ab</sup>	32,8	± 0,9 <sup>b</sup>
Significant	***		***		***		***		***		**	

	Na		Mg		K		Ca		P	
Geothermal Water	2049,6	± 231,6 <sup>a</sup>	4630,0	± 494,5	55030,0	± 1199,5 <sup>d</sup>	2445,4	± 428,0 <sup>ab</sup>	8090,6	± 344,1 <sup>c</sup>
Mineral Water	399,4	± 32,6 <sup>cd</sup>	3438,7	± 228,6	60917,1	± 2564,2 <sup>c</sup>	1955,9	± 84,2 <sup>ab</sup>	10383,5	± 303,6 <sup>b</sup>
Normal Water	327,2	± 11,3 <sup>d</sup>	4463,5	± 274,2	69301,7	± 1819,4 <sup>b</sup>	2591,1	± 165,7 <sup>ab</sup>	14337,2	± 455,3 <sup>a</sup>
Geothermal+Normal	319,6	± 5,5 <sup>d</sup>	4433,9	± 97,7	10041,4	± 1612,3 <sup>e</sup>	1698,3	± 258,5 <sup>c</sup>	6352,2	± 983,1 <sup>d</sup>
Mineral+Normal	647,7	± 161,3 <sup>c</sup>	4298,5	± 207,1	74905,3	± 2728,2 <sup>a</sup>	2849,1	± 395,8 <sup>a</sup>	13746,2	± 297,4 <sup>a</sup>
Mineral+Geothermal	1065,5	± 15,3 <sup>b</sup>	3182,2	± 113,9	76873,8	± 1105,2 <sup>a</sup>	1828,0	± 79,0 <sup>b</sup>	10573,6	± 187,8 <sup>b</sup>
Significant	***		***		***		***		***	

The findings showed that the lowest chlorophyll concentrations in the samples were in the Forblanc wheat variety treated with geothermal water, the Esperia wheat variety treated with mineral water, and the barley variety treated with mineral and geothermal water irrigation. Additionally, there were no significant differences in the chlorophyll and carotenoid analysis results among the irrigation methods applied in the Esperia variety, while there were significant differences in the Forblanc wheat variety and the barley variety. There were differences regarding the weights of the plants after harvesting depending on the water applied, and the weights of the plants irrigated with geothermal water were higher than the weights of others. According to the electrolyte leakage analysis results, there were generally high concentrations in the samples in which mineral water and geothermal water were used together (Figure 2 and 3).

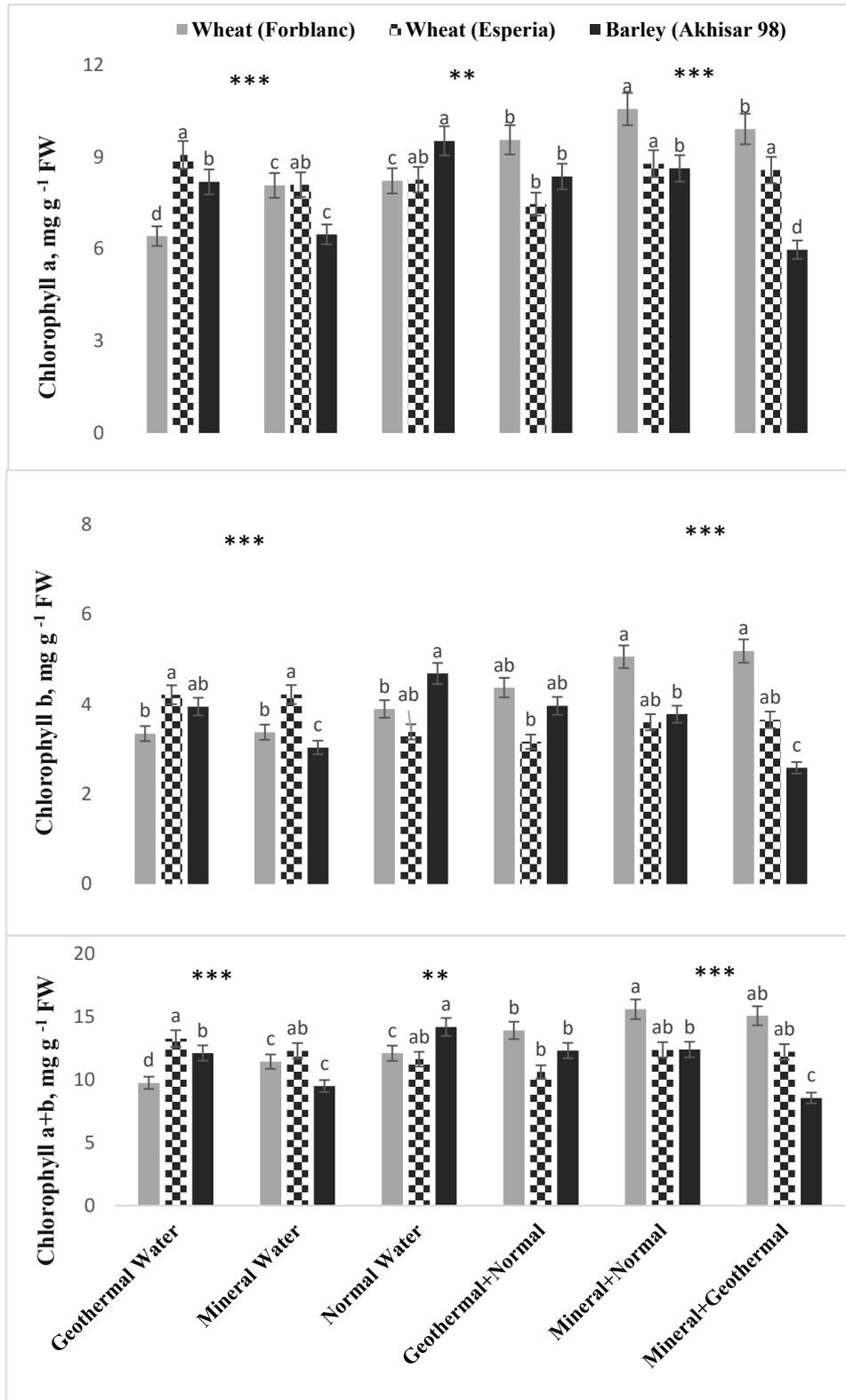


Figure 2. Chlorophyll a, Chlorophyll b, Chlorophyll a+b concentration in wheat and barley using different water

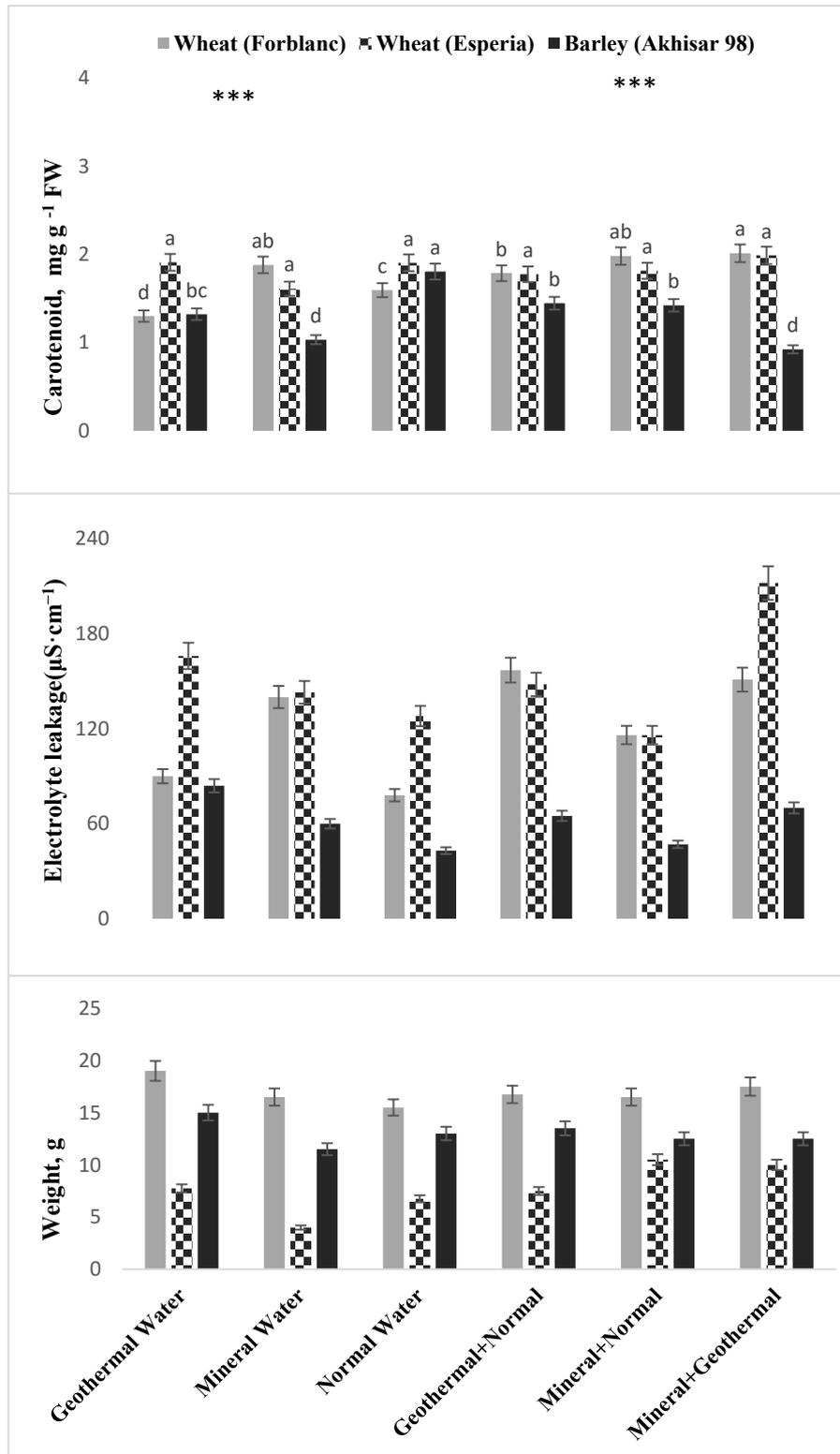


Figure 3. Carotenoid, Electrolyte leakage, Weight concentration in wheat and barley using different water

#### **4. CONCLUSION**

In general, geothermal waters are used for energy and therapeutic purposes. On the other hand, mineral waters are mostly used as drinking water. To our knowledge, there is no research on the use of geothermal and mineral waters in plant growing. Studies on groundwater quality for drinking and irrigation purposes have been conducted by many authors [28-32]. The data of this study showed that there were no noticeable differences between the experimental groups that may significantly affect the growth of plants. Türkiye has much thermal water with very different properties about contents, which come to the earth's surface. To investigate the effects of agricultural irrigation, long-term trial studies with different plants and soils should be conducted by determining the contents of these waters. Geothermal and mineral water resources that can be used should be determined in terms of their chemical properties. However, geothermal water can be used as well if it is pre-treated with appropriate methods. More comprehensive studies should be conducted to use such water in the irrigation of plants in case of future water deficiencies regarding this type of water, which is wasted to a substantial extent today. The effects of geothermal and mineral water on the product quality of crops should be examined in depth, and attention should be paid to studies on its use, especially in greenhouse cultivation work with this water.

#### **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

HEALTH RISK ASSESSMENT OF HEAVY METALS IN SEABREAM (*Sparus aurata*)  
SAMPLED FROM A PUBLIC MARKET IN TÜRKİYE

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ABSTRACT

There is a dearth of data about public health in the regular evaluation of heavy metal levels in seafood obtained from public market. This study aimed to examine the levels of essential (copper, zinc) and nonessential metals (cadmium, lead) in the tissues of cultured seabream (*Sparus aurata*), which was in public market. For this purpose, seabream samples were collected from the public market. And then, copper (Cu), zinc (Zn), cadmium (Cd), and lead (Pb) metal accumulation levels in tissues of the dissected gill, liver, kidney, and muscle were measured by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS). In order to understand whether the fish posed a risk to public health, risk evaluation formulations (estimated daily intake: *EDI*, hazard coefficients: *HQ*, hazard index: *HI*) were calculated for the muscle tissue. The data showed that Zn, Cd and Pb concentrations were maximal in the kidney tissue of *S. aurata* and Cu concentration were in the liver tissue, while the minimum heavy metal levels were in the muscle tissue. As a result, the maximum levels of heavy metals in the edible tissue of seabream were found as 0.11 mg Cu/kg wet weight, 0.72 mg Zn/kg wet weight, 0.12 mg Cd/kg wet weight, and 0.34 mg Pb/kg wet weight. Maximum values of them do not indicate any health risks as they are lower than the allowable tolerable levels specified by the international *EDI* estimation committees. The examined *HQ* and *HI* indicators were observed below 1 in all seasons. However, it is always possible for heavy metal intake to pose potential risks. For this reason, it is essential that the results of the study be interpreted from different perspectives and taken into consideration by other scientists.

**Keywords:** *Sparus aurata*, Heavy metals, Accumulation, Health risk assessment, Türkiye

1. INTRODUCTION

It is known that fish consumption has many beneficial and protective properties, especially for heart health [1]. Moreover, regular intake of a rich fish oil supplement has been shown to regulate or alter various metabolic processes connected with lipid metabolism, atherosclerosis, thrombosis, and inflammation [2]. Consumption of fish meat is becoming more important every day because it is easier to digest and contains more protein, minerals, vitamins, essential unsaturated fatty acid and especially polyunsaturated fatty acid (omega-3-PUFA) compared to terrestrial organisms [3,4]. However, marine ecosystems are being polluted by heavy metals day by day, and there is an increase in the bioconcentration levels of heavy metals in the bodies of organisms [5,6]. Some heavy metals such as cadmium, lead and mercury accumulate in tissues even at very low concentrations and cause toxic effects, and these show non-essential properties for organisms [7]. On the other hand, copper-zinc in structural and metabolic events which have biological importance in organisms are needed within homeostatic control limits [8,9]. However, copper and zinc can cause public health problems such as neurotoxicity if the tolerable limits for metabolism are exceeded [10]. In case of exceeding the tolerated limits, heavy metals accumulate in the body and cause neurological disorders such as Parkinson's and Alzheimer's, changes in hematological parameters, growth and development disorders, and various metabolic organ function anomalies, which in turn result in a series of fatal health problems [11]. The World Health Organization recommends regular monitoring of the levels of heavy metals such as copper, zinc, cadmium, lead, mercury and aluminum in fish tissues [12]. Seabream (*Sparus aurata*) is a commercially important fish species, and it is recommended to be monitored in the environmental pollution risk analysis [13,14]. According to the Turkish Statistical Institute

(TUIK), while the average fish consumption per person in Türkiye was 5.49 kg in 2017, it increased by 11.8% to 6.14 kg in 2018 [15]. The rates of toxic substances in food and their effects on human health have been gaining importance in recent years [16]. To this end, the present study was firstly aimed to evaluate the heavy metal accumulation levels in the tissues of *S. aurata* seasonally and to monitor whether an abnormal situation occurred. Secondly, the study was intended to examine the heavy metal levels in the edible muscle tissue of the fish to evaluate its public health risk level through some risk evaluation calculations such as *EDI* (estimated daily intake), *HQ* (hazard coefficients), *HI* (hazard index).

## 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

### 2.1. Sampling Fish

A total of 72 *S. aurata* were obtained from the fish market of Osmaniye province in the winter, spring, summer, fall and winter seasons of 2018 by random sampling method in the research. The total length and total weight of the collected fish samples were measured on a clean bench that could not cause any contamination. The total length measurement of the samples was carried out with  $\pm 0.1$  mm scale caliper and the total weight measurement was carried out with a balance with  $\pm 0.1$  g precision (Sartorius BP-310S). Height and weight characteristics of the fish according to the seasons were 68.10  $\pm$  5.20 g and 13.30  $\pm$  1.10 cm for winter, 70.35  $\pm$  4.90 g and 15.25  $\pm$  1.15 cm for spring, 80.55  $\pm$  5.30 g and 20.30  $\pm$  1.30 cm for summer, 80.90  $\pm$  3.90 g and 28.25  $\pm$  0.90 cm for fall. The fish were then stored in a -20 freezer until the metal analysis. All glass and polypropylene materials to be used in the experiment were cleaned according to appropriate protocols to eliminate the presence of various chemical residues [17].

### 2.2. Sample Preparation of Fish and Heavy Metal Analyses

Fish tissues were dissected, then left to dry in an oven (Mettler UFE 500, Germany) at 150°C for 48 hours. After the tissues came to constant weight, they were weighed by an electronic balance with a precision of  $\pm 0.001$  g (Sartorius CP-2248). The tissues (about 0.5 g) were transferred to the experiment tubes, and a mixture of 2:1 (v/v) nitric acid and perchloric acid (Merck, %65, S.G.; 1.40 and %60, S.G.; 1.53) was added to them, and the tissues were homogenized on the hot plate (Thermo Scientific, 2200, USA) at 120°C for 3 hours [18]. Following the homogenization, the samples were transferred to polypropylene tubes. The tubes were diluted to 5 ml with ultrapure water so that the samples were ready for metal analysis. The samples were stored in the refrigerator at +4°C until the time of analysis. Metal concentrations (Cu, Zn, Cd, Pb) in the samples were determined with the ICP-MS Agilent 7500ce model spectrometer (Octopole Reaction Systems, Agilent Technologies, Japan). The instrument calibration of metal analyses was performed according to C-5524 Sigma standards (Sigma Chem. Co. St. Louis, USA). Standard solutions of the metals were diluted with ultrapure water (Millipore Elix Milli-Q, resistivity 18.2 M $\Omega$ /cm). The TORT 2 (Lobster hepatopancreas) standard reference material was used to check the reliability of the measurements. The validation parameters of analytic techniques are shown in Table 1.

**Table 1.** The validation parameters of analytic techniques of Cu, Zn, Cd and Pb.

Element	Recovery (%)	Detection limit ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ )	Quantification limit ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ )	Relative standard deviation (%)	$R^2$
Cu	95.60	0.60	2.01	3.07	0.99
Zn	97.70	2.45	8.27	3.75	0.99
Cd	91.70	0.45	1.55	2.01	0.99
Pb	95.05	0.35	1.20	2.10	0.99

### 2.3. Risk Assessment Calculations and Statistical Analysis

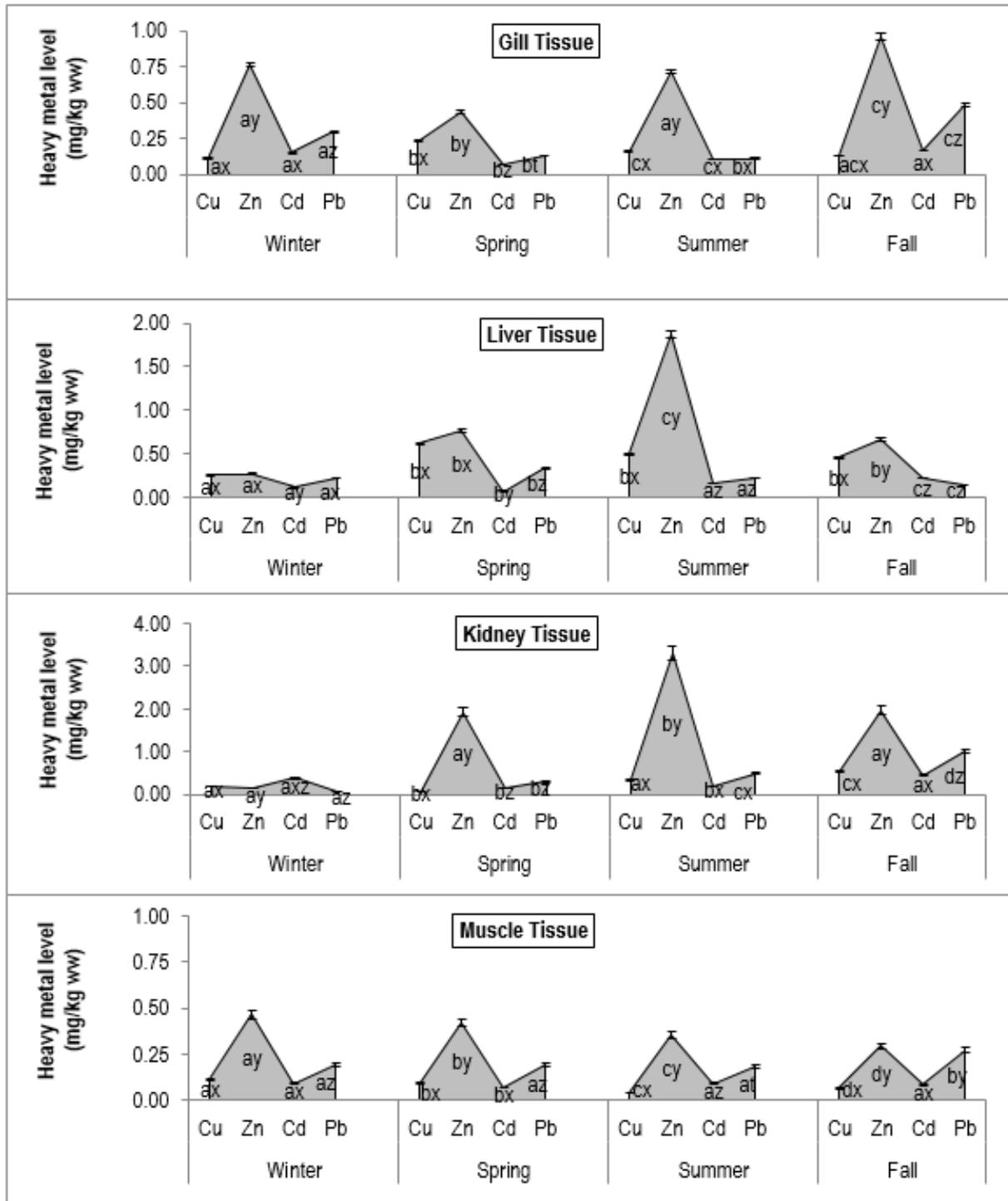
The estimation of daily intake rate [ $(EDI) = (C_{element} \times D_{fish})Bw^{-1}$ ] equation was used to estimate the daily intake ( $EDI$ ) of metals (mg/kg body weight/day). The abbreviation  $C_{element}$  in the formula refers to the metal concentration in the muscle tissue (mg/kg wet weight (ww)),  $D_{fish}$  means the daily fish consumption (g/person/day), and  $Bw$  (kg) represents the average body weight of the population [19,20]. In Türkiye, the annual fish consumptions of an adult person of 70 kg was found to be 5.5 kg. The hazard quotient [ $HQ = EDI/RfD$ ] relation was used to calculate the hazard coefficient ( $HQ$ ). It is stated in the literature that if the  $HQ$  value is less than 1, it does not constitute a significant risk potential; in contrast, if the  $HQ$  value is equal to or higher than 1, then it poses a potential risk for the public health. The abbreviation  $RfD$  in the formulation refers to the oral reference doses for Cu, Zn, Cd, and Pb, which are specified by the risk assessment information system [21] as 0.3, 0.7, 0.001 and 0.004, mg/kg/day, respectively. The  $RfD$  values were also utilized as the reference values in the present study. The hazard index [ $HI = \sum HQ_s = HQ_{Cu} + HQ_{Zn} + HQ_{Cd} + HQ_{Pb}$ ] formulation was estimated as the sum of the  $HQ$ s for all the heavy metals in the formula. If the  $HI$  value of metals is less than 1, then it is stated that the health of local fish consumers is safe, whereas, if the  $HI$  is equal to or greater than 1, then it is stated that it is harmful for public health [22]. Evaluation of the samples studied in triplicate for every season was performed in the Microsoft Office Excel 2010 program. Mean, standard error, minimum and maximum values were calculated for the data which were grouped according to the seasons. Statistical analysis of the data was carried out using the SPSS 20.0 statistical software (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA). Tukey multiple range test was used to determine whether the metal concentrations varied significantly among tissues based on the season [23].

### 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Metal accumulation in tissues and organs of aquatic organisms varies depending on seasonal changes [24], species of the organism [25], morphological structure of the organism such as length and weight [26,27], environmental conditions such as physical and chemical condition of the aquatic ecosystem [28]. The arithmetic mean and standard error values of the heavy metal levels in *S. aurata* tissues (gill, liver, kidney and muscle) were calculated according to the seasons, and the variation in seasonal metal levels were examined by calculating the sum of the squares of the deviations of the data from the arithmetic mean. Accordingly, a summarized graphical representation of the arithmetic mean, standard errors and statistical differences of the metals in the tissues was displayed in Figure 1.

The mean annual Cu, Zn, Cd and Pb concentrations in the gill tissue of *S. aurata* sampled in winter, spring, summer and fall were found to be 0.16, 0.72, 0.12 and 0.25 mg/kg ww, respectively. According to the seasons, Cu accumulation in the gill tissue was the most in the spring season, while the accumulation of Zn was the most in the fall season ( $P \leq 0.05$ ). The highest accumulation of cadmium in the gill tissue was observed in the fall season, but no statistical difference was observed between the accumulation averages of cadmium in the fall and winter seasons and the accumulation rates of lead in the spring and summer seasons ( $P \geq 0.05$ ). The heavy metal accumulation in the gill tissue in the fall and winter season was in the form of  $Zn > Pb > Cd > Cu$ , while it was determined as  $Zn > Cu > Pb > Cd$  and  $Zn > Cu > Pb \approx Cd$  in the spring and summer seasons, respectively (Figure 1). The mean annual Cu, Zn, Cd and Pb concentrations in the liver tissue were 0.46, 0.90, 0.15 and 0.23 mg/kg ww, respectively. Cu and Pb accumulation in liver tissue was found to be the highest in the spring, while Zn and Cd accumulations showed the highest accumulation in the summer and fall seasons, respectively ( $P \leq 0.05$ ). While the heavy metal accumulation was in the form of  $Zn > Cu > Cd > Pb$  in the fall season, it was determined as  $Zn > Cu > Pb > Cd$  in other seasons (Figure 1). The mean annual Cu, Zn, Cd and Pb accumulations in the kidney tissue were 0.29, 1.84, 0.30 and 0.47 mg/kg ww, respectively. The Zn accumulation in the kidney tissue showed the highest accumulation in the summer while the highest accumulations of Cu, Cd and Pb were detected in the fall season compared to the other seasons

( $P \leq 0.05$ ). The heavy metal accumulation sequence in the kidney tissue was observed as  $Cd > Cu > Zn > Pb$  in the winter,  $Zn > Pb > Cd > Cu$  in the spring, and  $Zn > Pb > Cu > Cd$  in the summer and fall (Figure 1).



**Figure 1.** Mean and standard error of heavy metal concentrations in gill, liver, kidney and muscle tissue of *S. aurata* in different seasons. Letters x, y, z and t show differences among Cu, Zn, Cd, Pb metals; a, b, c and d among winter, spring, summer, fall seasons.

The mean annual Cu, Zn, Cd and Pb concentrations in the muscle tissue of *S. aurata* were found to be 0.07, 0.38, 0.08, 0.21 mg/kg ww, respectively. Cu and Zn accumulations in the muscle tissue were determined to be the highest in the winter season, while the highest accumulation of Pb was identified in the fall season ( $P \leq 0.05$ ). Cadmium showed the highest accumulation in the summer season, while statistical difference for the cadmium accumulation was observed only between the spring and summer ( $P \leq 0.05$ ). The heavy metal accumulation of the muscle tissue showed Zn>Pb>Cu>Cd sequence for winter, spring and fall, while it was Zn>Pb>Cd>Cu for summer (Figure 1). Among the heavy metals examined in 10 species including *S. aurata*, zinc was the most detected metal [29], and similarly, the presence of zinc was found at the highest level in our study.

Heavy metals in the contaminated aquatic ecosystem lead to bioaccumulations in various organs and structural units of fish from the food web or in the aquatic environment over time [30]. In a previous study, it was reported that there were significant differences between the metal bioaccumulation levels in fish tissues ( $P \leq 0.05$ ), and that the metal accumulation was higher in the liver and gill organs than in other organs [30,31]. Since metabolic rates of large internal organs such as the liver and kidney are higher than other organs, the heavy metal accumulation in these organs increases in parallel. The negatively charged surface of the gill tissue in fish tends to bind to many positively charged metals [32]. Heavy metals enter aquatic organisms through two metabolic routes: the gills and muscle tissue. Therefore, metal concentrations in these tissues and organs are mostly reflected as an indicator of the ambiance in the aquatic ecosystem [33]. In environmental monitoring studies of heavy metal pollution, various concerns may be stated about the frequency and persistence of being affected by contaminated heavy metals due to the consumption of the muscle tissue of fish. However, if the muscle tissue compared to other soft organs does not have an active structure in the metal accumulation, this situation may be related to low metal binding proteins [34]. This situation is explained in many studies by the fact that the muscle tissue of the fish has less metabolic activity compared to other organs, together with less heavy metal accumulation [31, 35]. The high concentrations of heavy metal determined in the liver tissue of aquatic organisms are due to its high metallothionein production, which has made it an important storage organ as an indicator of chronic metal exposure [31]. In aquatic ecosystems, the entrance of heavy metals to the structure of organisms in the food chain occurs in two ways: the first is directly supplied to the organism through the digestive tract, while the other is by external means such as the muscles and gills [33]. The direct route of uptake of heavy metals from the aquatic ecosystem is more effective because the gills are the main target organ of heavy metal poisoning in fish [36]. The orders of annual metal accumulations according to tissues of the seabream were observed as kidney>liver>gill>muscle for both Zn and Cd, liver>kidney>gill>muscle for Cu, and kidney>gill>liver>muscle for and Pb, in the current study (Figure 1).

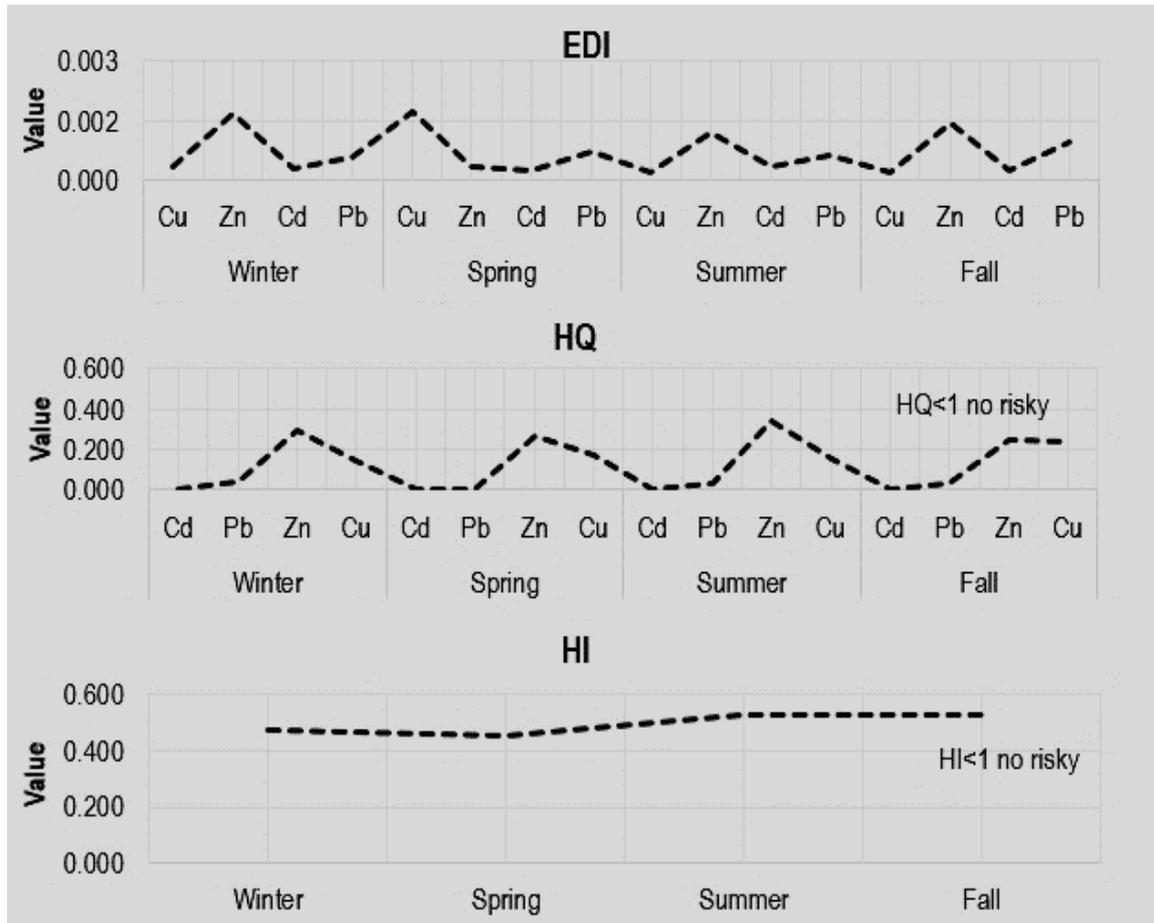
In this study, the minimum and maximum levels of metals in the muscle tissue differed between the following ranges, respectively; 0.01-0.11 mg Cu/kg ww, 0.25-0.72 mg Zn/kg ww, 0.05-0.12 mg Cd/kg ww and 0.18-0.34 mg Pb/kg ww (Table 2). Average Cu, Zn, Cd and Pb concentrations in the seabream muscle samples taken from public aquaculture fish in Osmaniye province were found to be far below the maximum levels allowed for fisheries by international organizations (Table 3). Heavy metal samples in the seabream samples obtained from the coastal locations of the Black Sea [29] and the Mediterranean Sea in Türkiye (Table 3) had higher content than the heavy metal levels of the samples in this study. These values in the present study were within the limits set by the Turkish Food Codex Commission Regulation [37]. In a previous study, it was reported that the average values of heavy metals such as total As, Cd, Cu, Pb and Zn in farmed fish were lower than in the wild fish, and the Cd concentration was higher in farmed fish [38]. Table 3 partly shows that the cultured fish in this study differed from wild species.

The HI index of heavy metals in wild and farmed seabream sampled from the Algerian coast was determined to be less than one [38]. It has been stated that the consumption of farmed fish *Dicentrarchus labrax* and *S. aurata* analyzed from fish farms in different locations of the

Mediterranean does not pose a serious threat to human health and the fish are in a consumable condition [39]. The international legal limits and indices of trace elements (Ag, Al, As, Ba, Bi, Cd, Cr, Cu, Fe, Li, Mn, Mo, Pb, Sb, Se, Sn, U, V, Zn) in muscle tissues of cultured seabream examined from the Corsican Coasts of the Northwestern Mediterranean were determined to be below the levels that could pose a risk to human health. It was also reported in this study that some elements (As etc.) found in wild *S. aurata* should be consumed in moderation considering their carcinogenic risks [40]. These results in the literature are consistent with the current study with *S. aurata* (Figure 2).

**Table 2.** Minimum and maximum metal concentrations in muscle tissue of *S. aurata* in different seasons.

<u>Heavy Metals</u> (mg/kg ww)	<u>Winter</u> min-max	<u>Spring</u> min-max	<u>Summer</u> min-max	<u>Fall</u> min-max
Cu	0.11-0.12	0.01-0.02	0.03-0.06	0.01-0.02
Zn	0.35-0.58	0.25-0.72	0.26-0.43	0.29-0.31
Cd	0.08-0.10	0.07-0.07	0.05-0.12	0.07-0.11
Pb	0.18-0.20	0.19-0.20	0.16-0.21	0.24-0.34



**Figure 2.** Public health risk values of heavy metals in *S. aurata* from public market in Osmaniye (Türkiye).

**Table 3.** The maximum limits of heavy metals accepted by international organizations in fishery products and comparison of heavy metal's concentrations in muscle of *S. aurata* with other studies (BDL: Below Detection Limit)

International organizations	Heavy Metal (mg/kg ww)				Reference
	Cu	Zn	Cd	Pb	
U.S. Food and Drug Administration	150	100	0.20	1.50	[41]
World Health Organization	30	100	1	2	[42]
Turkish Food Codex	20	50	0.50	0.30	[37]
<b>Other studies</b>					
Tuzla Lagoon (Wild fish)	0.55	-	0.12	1.11	[31]
Beymelek Lagoon (Wild fish)	4.31	7.09	-	-	[43]
Kayseri Province (Market fish)	0.90	33.80	1.24	BDL	[44]
Tirana Province (Wild fish)	-	-	0.35	0.10	[45]
Iskenderun Bay (Wild fish)	6.23	14.35	1.25	3.83	[46]
Elazığ Province (Market fish)	1.19	6.27	0.18	0.44	[47]
Aegean Sea (Cultured fish)	BDL	4.99	BDL	BDL	[48]
Ionian Sea (Cultured fish)	BDL	7.02	BDL	BDL	[48]
Adriatic Sea (Cultured fish)	0.39	4.70	0.01	0.10	[49]
Aegean Sea (Cultured fish)	0.36	2.12	-	-	[35]
Hurmabogazi Lagoon (Wild fish)	1.33	11.1	0.13	0.52	[50]
Çamlık Lagoon (Wild fish)	0.88	4.92	0.64	0.45	[51]
Tuzla Lagoon (Wild fish)	0.39	6.91	0.30	0.32	[51]
Corsica Mediterranean Sea (Wild fish)	0.20	3.55	0.002	0.006	[40]
Corsica Mediterranean Sea (Cultured fish)	0.49	4.34	0.004	0.013	[40]
Croatian (Market fish)	0.94	-	9.4	-	[52]
South Adriatic-Montenegro (Wild fish)	0.17	-	<0.02	<0.1	[53]
Cassidaigne canyon (Wild fish)	-	-	BDL	-	[54]
South Italy (Wild fish)	0.17	0.17	0.04	0.08	[55]
Mediterranean Sea (Wild fish)	0.29	4.13	0.002	0.004	[38]
Mediterranean Sea (Market fish)	0.07	0.38	-	-	[56]
Maximum value detected, (Public market-Cultured fish)	0.11	0.72	0.12	0.34	In this study

#### 4. CONCLUSION

The present study focused on checking the quality of seabream fish in terms of the copper, zinc, cadmium and lead contents. Considering the protein starvation all around the world, seabream is considered a delicious and economically valuable fish. The quality indicators examined in this study showed that seabream is a safe seafood product for consumption given that the calculated data

indicators (*HQ* and *HI*) were below 1 for all seasons (Figure 2). As far as we know, there is still no known scale indicator for the content of heavy metals studied in fish in many countries. Hence, a basic comparison was made by taking into consideration the evaluations in our country. However, when dietary regimens and individual morphological structures are taken into account, what is not a risk for one country may pose a risk for another. Therefore, the acceptable levels of heavy metals should be considered according to the references specified by the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) and the World Health Organization. With this regard, it was concluded that Cu, Zn, Cd and Pb levels in fish species were lower than the maximum levels, but further studies are needed to monitor the course of heavy metals over time.

## CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The author stated that there are no conflicts of interest regarding the publication of this article.

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

USING *Tilia tomentosa* IN HEAVY METAL POLLUTION MONITORING IN ANKARA  
PROVINCE, TURKEY

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ABSTRACT

Heavy metals, the concentration of which in the environment is constantly increasing and which can remain intact in nature for a long time, are a great threat to living things. In addition, due to the fact that it causes bioaccumulation in the structure of living things, the detection of heavy metal concentration is very important. Heavy metals constitute the largest part of air pollution. However, living things in areas where traffic is heavy are exposed to exhaust fumes, and this significantly negatively affects the health of living things. In our study, the areas where heavy traffic are concentrated in Ankara were determined and the possibilities of using linden trees, which were planted abundantly in the middle refuges, as a biomonitor for the change in heavy metal hunters were investigated. Changes of Pb, Fe, Cd, Cr and As elements in soil and plant samples were analyzed in ICP-MS device. SPSS 22 Statistical Package Program was used to evaluate the obtained data. The *Tilia tomentosa* Moench. parts (leaf, flower and branch) are evaluated, it is seen that the heavy metal amounts in the unwashed samples are higher than the washed samples for all heavy metals. The highest metal concentration among the stations was Fe (40681  $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ ) collected from Gazi station, the lowest concentration was Cd (4.9  $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ ) collected from the Mogan station on soils.

**Keywords:** Biomonitor, Heavy Metal, ICP-MS, *Tilia tomentosa* Moench

1. INTRODUCTION

The rapidly increasing world population causes air pollution to increase exponentially, especially due to the use of fossil fuels in large areas [1]. Due to diseases caused by air pollution, millions of people die every year around the world [2]. Heavy metals with an atomic number greater than 20 and with an atomic number of more than 5  $\text{g}/\text{cm}^3$  in density, which are among the main causes of air pollution, are known as polluting metals. The main sources of heavy metals, which can be found in air, soil and water in different proportions and are released into the atmosphere from different sources, are mostly human-made factors such as urban wastes, chimney and exhaust gases, wastewater, mining and fertilizers [3].

Traffic-based pollution is one of the primary causes of air pollution in our country [4]. Human, plant and animal health are adversely affected by exposure to small amounts of toxic heavy metals such as cadmium (Cd) and lead (Pb) emitted from the exhaust of vehicles [5].

Heavy metals rising to the atmosphere can be mixed with soil and water through precipitation. Thus, it reaches the plants from the soil and the bodies of all living things in contact with the soil. In addition, heavy metals can contaminate surface waters such as streams and rivers, and it leaks from the soil and pollutes underground water resources. In this way, waters rich in heavy metals cause harmful effects for plants, animals and human bodies when used for agricultural areas [7].

As a result of research, the negative effects of heavy metals on human health have been clearly revealed [8]. From research Shaban et al. people who are exposed to high heavy metal concentrations have serious damage to the central nervous system, lungs, kidneys and liver, and this exposure even results in death. Koedrith et al. reported that at low concentrations of heavy metals, discomfort such as nose-throat

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irritation, cough, and shortness of breath were observed; Zeng et al. determined that it causes diseases such as asthma, cough, and respiratory distress in children [9-10-11].

The use of plants as biomonitors is important for monitoring heavy metal pollution. Lichen, moss, flowering plants and epiphytic plants are used regionally and locally [13-14-15-18-17]. For this purpose, lichens and mosses are preferred plants because they can accumulate many elements in much greater quantities than their needs [18]. However, since it is not known how long these plants are exposed to heavy metals, especially higher plants have been used in recent years [19-20]. Examples of higher plants are trees, and shrubs. These plants are very popular for this subject due to their ability to accumulate trace elements from soil, water and air [13].

There are differences between deciduous and evergreen species in the calculation of heavy metal accumulation in higher plants. Annual heavy metal accumulation can be calculated in deciduous higher plant species, while long-term heavy metal accumulation can be calculated in evergreen species. In the calculation of heavy metal pollution, samples taken from different organs of the plant are brought to the laboratory environment and analyzed in different devices [21].

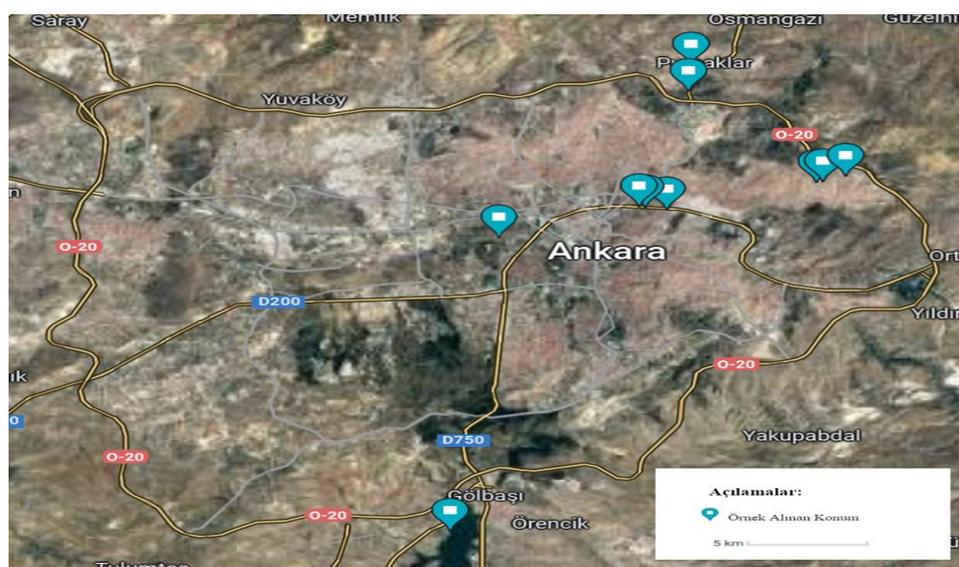
*Tilia tomentosa* (Linden tree) species was used in this study. The reason for using this species is that there are plenty of linden trees in areas with heavy traffic in Ankara, and people want to collect the leaves and flowers of this tree and use it for healing purposes.

For this purpose, the potential for use of the species as a bioindicator will be determined by measuring the heavy metal concentrations in the linden trees in the region and the harms of the results in terms of human health will be evaluated.

### 3. MATERIAL AND METHOD

#### 3.1. Study Area

In our study, linden samples were collected from six different regions in Ankara: Karapürçek (city center), Samsun Road (main road), Gazi District (main road), Pursaklar (secondary road), Protocol Road (main road), and Mogan (control). Samples are divided three in to branches, leaves, and flowers. Some of the samples were washed, and some were analyzed without washing. In addition, soil samples from which the specimens grew have been collected for analysis (Figure 1).



**Figure 1.** Study area

### **3.2. Sample Preparation**

The plant samples collected from the study area were brought to the laboratory environment and half of them were washed with double distilled water to save them from surface contamination. All linden samples were dried in an oven at 80 °C for 24 hours. Samples that got rid of moisture were ground in a mortar and transferred to bags so that they become homogeneous. Soil samples were taken from a 10 cm area after the debris was cleaned from the surface, and from a depth of 15 cm around the tree root using a steel auger. Soil samples were placed in nylon bags to prevent contamination. The samples brought to the laboratory were dried for 1 day, air-dried, and then stored in labelled bags [22].

### **3.3. Digestion and Metal Determination**

The samples were dissolved in a microwave instrument using 10 ml of pure HNO<sub>3</sub>. After dissolving, the volume of the samples was made up to 10 ml with double distilled water. Element values in the samples were determined using the ICP-MS device. Standard solutions and control samples were used to identify any contamination that could contaminate the samples from the outside. All trials were done in 3 repetitions. Care was taken to ensure that all chemicals used were analytical. (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) [22].

Soil samples brought to the laboratory were dried in an oven at 80 °C for 24 hours and homogenized using a 2 mm sieve. The samples were dissolved in a microwave instrument using 10 ml of pure HNO<sub>3</sub>/HCl mixture. After dissolving, the volume of the samples was made up to 10 ml with double distilled water. Element values in the samples were determined using the ICP-MS device [23].

### **3.4. Biotransfer Factor (BTF)**

Biotransfer factor in plants; It was determined from the samples was calculate to determine the heavy metal transfer capability and yield of the plants depending on the concentration of metals in the soil.

The following formula was used for BTF calculation:  $TF = C_v/C_s$ , where  $C_v$  is the metal concentration detected in the parts of *Tilia tomentosa* and  $C_s$  is the metal concentration in the soil [24].

### **3.5. Statistical Analysis**

For each sample, the mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum values of the readings with 3 replicates were calculated. The  $p \leq 0.05$  value was considered significant in the statistical comparison of the means. In addition, in order to facilitate the evaluation of the data obtained, ANOVA test with a confidence interval of 95% using the SPSS 20 program and Duncan tests for determining the difference in multiple comparisons were applied for the necessary groups and parameters. Means and differences between groups were interpreted by comparing them by means of these tests.

## **4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

The most important heavy metals are Fe, Cu, V, Mn, Zn, Ni, Cr, Mo, Co, Be, Cd, Pb, TI, Sb, Ag, As, Se, Hg, Sn, and Al elements. Among these, elements such as Zn, Mn, Fe, Cu, Ni, and Mo are vital micronutrients for plants and animals, and their high concentrations can cause harmful effects. Others are much more dangerous [25-26].

However, heavy metals are not easily destroyed in nature and tend to bioaccumulation in living things. Factors causing metal accumulation; mineral fertilizers, mining, biocides, wastewater, exhaust and flue gases, and sewage [27]. It can also be emitted into the atmosphere as volatile compounds [28-30]. Heavy metals from industrial sources and carcinogens; They are As, V, Ni, Cd, Zn, Cr and Pb elements [31]. Considering these properties of heavy metals and the dangers they may pose for living things, it is very

important to determine heavy metal concentrations, to find areas that may pose a risk, and to find the risk level in these areas [32].

In our study, the concentrations of Cd, Cr, As, Fe and Pb elements in *Tilia tomentosa* parts (leaf, flower and branch) and soil were investigated (Table 1-3).

Lead is not an absolute requirement for plants, but is very dangerous for health when it exceeds 300 ppm [33]. It significantly affects the plant water regime by negatively affecting cell wall stability and cell turgor. It also affects nutrient uptake as it is retained by the roots of the plant by reducing root growth [34] (Table 1). The highest Pb concentration among the stations was collected from Samsun Road station ( $43,72 \mu\text{gg}^{-1}$ ) that of linden branch, the lowest concentration was ( $0,95 \mu\text{gg}^{-1}$ ) collected from the Mogan station that of linden flowers (Table 1).

Although iron toxicity is not very common, in plants, it secretes root secretions that lower the soil pH [35]. It also causes burns on the leaves and stunting on the root and stem whereas negatively affects amino acid binding and protein synthesis in the plant [36-37]. The highest Fe concentration has been found in linden leaves ( $4637,78 \mu\text{gg}^{-1}$ ) at Pursaklar station whereas the lowest concentration has been found in linden flower ( $100,9 \mu\text{gg}^{-1}$ ) at Mogan station (Table 1).

Cadmium changes nitrogen and carbohydrate metabolisms in plants in many ways. By inhibiting photosynthesis, it causes the growth of stomata and the consequences of water loss, thus deteriorating the working conditions of chlorophyll [38]. The highest Cd concentration among the stations was collected at Karapürçek station ( $12,41 \mu\text{gg}^{-1}$ ) on leaves and the lowest concentration was ( $0,12 \mu\text{gg}^{-1}$ ) collected at Mogan station on flowers (Table 1).

Chromium, which adversely affects the plant body, negatively affects root development in the plant. This reduces the amount of nutrients and water taken from the soil and significantly reduces plant yield and quality [39]. Plants exposed to this stress produce reactive oxygen species to defend themselves, causing many damage to the plant [40]. The highest Cr concentration among the stations was collected from Karapürçek station ( $151,1 \mu\text{gg}^{-1}$ ) on leaf, the lowest concentration was ( $37,6 \mu\text{gg}^{-1}$ ) collected from the Mogan station on leaves (Table 2).

Arsenic has a toxic effect, restricting germination in some plants it whereas increasing arsenic concentration causes significant reductions in plant height, grain yield, number of full grains, grain weight, and root biomass [41]. The highest Cr concentration among the stations was collected at Karapürçek station ( $44,4 \mu\text{gg}^{-1}$ ) on leaf, and the lowest concentration was ( $0,16 \mu\text{gg}^{-1}$ ) collected at Mogan station on flowers (Table 2).

High concentrations of heavy metals were detected in the unwashed plant parts collected from the stations. This was thought to be due to heavy traffic, in which high level metals are transported. A similar result was achieved by Leblebici et al. (2020) in their studies conducted in Nevşehir, where they determined that there was a higher level of accumulation of Pb and As compared with the other metals that were found [23].

When the linden parts (leaves, flower and branch) are evaluated, it is seen that the heavy metal concentration in the unwashed samples are higher than the washed samples for all heavy metals. The results are similar to the study of Leblebici and Kar (2018) [22]. When the plant parts are evaluated according to the ANOVA test, it is seen that the heavy metal concentrations in flower samples are lower than those in branch and leaves samples (Table 1, 2).

**Table 1.** Comparison of accumulation of Lead (Pb); Iron (Fe); Cadmium (Cd) in different parts of *Tilia tomentosa*; leaves, flower and branch with washed and unwashed samples ( $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ ).<sup>a</sup>

Heavy Metals	Parts	Stations	Unwashed Samples	Washed Samples
Pb	Leaves	Karapürçek	30,08±3,12 <sup>a</sup>	6,65±0,12 <sup>ab</sup>
		Samsun Road	25,66±2,85 <sup>ab</sup>	8,91±0,32 <sup>ab</sup>
		Gazi	25,78±2,63 <sup>ab</sup>	15,91±1,14 <sup>a</sup>
		Pursaklar	18,21±1,79 <sup>b</sup>	10,04±1,06 <sup>ab</sup>
		Protokol	13,2±1,54 <sup>b</sup>	8,85±0,45 <sup>ab</sup>
		Mogan	12,88±0,95 <sup>c</sup>	5,38±0,12 <sup>b</sup>
	Flower	Karapürçek	3,57±0,15 <sup>b</sup>	2,24±0,14 <sup>b</sup>
		Samsun Road	7,2±0,74 <sup>a</sup>	4,47±0,53 <sup>a</sup>
		Gazi	5,62±0,23 <sup>ab</sup>	3,09±0,25 <sup>ab</sup>
		Pursaklar	3,48±0,11 <sup>b</sup>	2,23±0,18 <sup>b</sup>
		Protokol	5,43±0,21 <sup>ab</sup>	3,99±0,74 <sup>ab</sup>
		Mogan	1,82±0,02 <sup>c</sup>	0,95±0,08 <sup>c</sup>
	Branch	Karapürçek	29,56±3,41 <sup>ab</sup>	16,55±2,35 <sup>ab</sup>
		Samsun Road	43,72±5,15 <sup>a</sup>	22,89±5,41 <sup>a</sup>
		Gazi	35,66±4,21 <sup>ab</sup>	16,11±2,61 <sup>ab</sup>
		Pursaklar	15,8±2,13 <sup>b</sup>	8,14±1,42 <sup>b</sup>
		Protokol	18,38±2,75 <sup>b</sup>	8,87±1,78 <sup>b</sup>
		Mogan	11,12±1,02 <sup>c</sup>	4,16±0,94 <sup>c</sup>
Leaves	Karapürçek	3363,16±12,06 <sup>b</sup>	1636,93±6,54 <sup>ab</sup>	
	Samsun Road	3397,03±11,04 <sup>b</sup>	1415,52±5,41 <sup>b</sup>	
	Gazi	4291,57±15,84 <sup>ab</sup>	2337,55±7,25 <sup>a</sup>	
	Pursaklar	4637,78±13,42 <sup>a</sup>	2092,44±6,25 <sup>ab</sup>	
	Protokol	2695,74±9,01 <sup>b</sup>	1409,64±4,12 <sup>b</sup>	
	Mogan	424,35±1,54 <sup>c</sup>	178,14±1,36 <sup>c</sup>	
Fe	Flower	Karapürçek	312,74±4,10 <sup>b</sup>	197,56±2,15 <sup>b</sup>
		Samsun Road	813,49±5,03 <sup>a</sup>	627,2±5,16 <sup>a</sup>
		Gazi	325,18±3,64 <sup>b</sup>	212,67±1,78 <sup>b</sup>
		Pursaklar	511,91±5,01 <sup>ab</sup>	410,71±2,62 <sup>ab</sup>
		Protokol	346,76±2,39 <sup>b</sup>	321,14±2,30 <sup>b</sup>
		Mogan	193,77±1,03 <sup>c</sup>	100,9±1,03 <sup>c</sup>
Branch	Karapürçek	1105,42±6,01 <sup>a</sup>	1041,3±9,35 <sup>a</sup>	
	Samsun Road	414,38±3,24 <sup>b</sup>	374,6±2,18 <sup>b</sup>	
	Gazi	1070,55±4,12 <sup>ab</sup>	947,1±8,14 <sup>ab</sup>	
	Pursaklar	281,45±1,32 <sup>b</sup>	187,49±2,74 <sup>b</sup>	
	Protokol	590,07±2,14 <sup>b</sup>	326,07±5,14 <sup>b</sup>	
	Mogan	137,97±1,02 <sup>c</sup>	153,48±1,48 <sup>c</sup>	
Leaves	Karapürçek	12,41±1,02 <sup>a</sup>	3,17±1,25 <sup>a</sup>	
	Samsun Road	5,9±0,62 <sup>ab</sup>	1,59±0,89 <sup>ab</sup>	
	Gazi	3,28±0,12 <sup>b</sup>	1,92±0,79 <sup>b</sup>	
	Pursaklar	2,36±0,08 <sup>b</sup>	1,05±0,64 <sup>b</sup>	
	Protokol	1,25±0,04 <sup>b</sup>	0,87±0,14 <sup>b</sup>	
	Mogan	0,69±0,01 <sup>c</sup>	0,44±0,09 <sup>c</sup>	
Cd	Flower	Karapürçek	0,96±0,05 <sup>b</sup>	0,36±0,07 <sup>b</sup>
		Samsun Road	1,01±0,08 <sup>ab</sup>	0,67±0,08 <sup>a</sup>
		Gazi	1,36±0,09 <sup>a</sup>	0,38±0,04 <sup>b</sup>
		Pursaklar	0,74±0,03 <sup>b</sup>	0,4±0,05 <sup>ab</sup>
		Protokol	0,83±0,04 <sup>b</sup>	0,51±0,06 <sup>ab</sup>
		Mogan	0,33±0,01 <sup>c</sup>	0,12±0,02 <sup>c</sup>
Branch	Karapürçek	3,38±0,12 <sup>a</sup>	1,92±0,08 <sup>a</sup>	
	Samsun Road	1,93±0,10 <sup>b</sup>	1,66±0,05 <sup>ab</sup>	
	Gazi	1,71±0,09 <sup>b</sup>	0,77±0,03 <sup>b</sup>	
	Pursaklar	1,5±0,06 <sup>b</sup>	0,78±0,04 <sup>b</sup>	
	Protokol	1,52±0,07 <sup>b</sup>	1,02±0,08 <sup>b</sup>	
	Mogan	1,21±0,03 <sup>c</sup>	0,98±0,02 <sup>c</sup>	

<sup>a</sup> For a given station, mean concentrations followed by the same letter are not significantly different ( $p < 0.05$ ).

**Table 2.** Comparison of accumulation of Chromium (Cr) and Arsenic (As) in different parts of *Tilia tomentosa*; leaves, flower and branch with washed and unwashed samples ( $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ ).<sup>a</sup>

Heavy Metals	Parts	Stations	Unwashed Samples	Washed Samples
Cr	Leaves	Karapürçek	151,1±2,03 <sup>a</sup>	85,4±3,05 <sup>ab</sup>
		Samsun Road	102,2±1,98 <sup>b</sup>	71,6±2,75 <sup>ab</sup>
		Gazi	121,3±2,14 <sup>b</sup>	78,5±2,92 <sup>ab</sup>
		Pursaklar	98,4±1,42 <sup>b</sup>	57,1±1,74 <sup>b</sup>
		Protokol	161,4±3,25 <sup>ab</sup>	88,6±3,01 <sup>a</sup>
		Mogan	45,8±0,95 <sup>c</sup>	37,6±0,95 <sup>c</sup>
	Flower	Karapürçek	124,5±3,14 <sup>ab</sup>	114,6±5,41 <sup>a</sup>
		Samsun Road	105,6±2,51 <sup>b</sup>	102,8±4,12 <sup>ab</sup>
		Gazi	113,4±2,87 <sup>b</sup>	107,9±3,25 <sup>ab</sup>
		Pursaklar	135,4±3,11 <sup>a</sup>	104,7±3,10 <sup>ab</sup>
		Protokol	128,3±2,56 <sup>ab</sup>	102,7±3,06 <sup>ab</sup>
		Mogan	95,2±0,93 <sup>c</sup>	76,8±2,01 <sup>b</sup>
	Branch	Karapürçek	72,8±3,14 <sup>a</sup>	68,1±2,36 <sup>a</sup>
		Samsun Road	65,7±2,64 <sup>ab</sup>	60,3±1,85 <sup>ab</sup>
		Gazi	69,7±2,73 <sup>ab</sup>	63,6±1,83 <sup>ab</sup>
		Pursaklar	52,8±2,10 <sup>ab</sup>	49,1±1,02 <sup>b</sup>
		Protokol	63,1±2,16 <sup>ab</sup>	61,5±1,87 <sup>ab</sup>
		Mogan	60,4±1,23 <sup>b</sup>	46,4±0,86 <sup>b</sup>
Leaves	Karapürçek	44,4±1,12 <sup>a</sup>	8,95±0,13 <sup>a</sup>	
	Samsun Road	24,71±1,01 <sup>ab</sup>	6,78±0,11 <sup>b</sup>	
	Gazi	15,13±1,03 <sup>ab</sup>	6,47±0,10 <sup>b</sup>	
	Pursaklar	14,21±0,96 <sup>ab</sup>	8,51±0,12 <sup>ab</sup>	
	Protokol	9,25±0,41 <sup>b</sup>	5,8±0,09 <sup>b</sup>	
	Mogan	9,09±0,12 <sup>b</sup>	4,62±0,04 <sup>c</sup>	
As	Flower	Karapürçek	0,78±0,05 <sup>b</sup>	0,64±0,04 <sup>ab</sup>
		Samsun Road	1,98±0,16 <sup>ab</sup>	0,81±0,09 <sup>ab</sup>
		Gazi	2,4±0,41 <sup>a</sup>	1,09±0,12 <sup>a</sup>
		Pursaklar	1±0,12 <sup>ab</sup>	0,75±0,08 <sup>ab</sup>
		Protokol	1,6±0,31 <sup>ab</sup>	0,52±0,04 <sup>b</sup>
		Mogan	0,42±0,04 <sup>c</sup>	0,16±0,01 <sup>c</sup>
Branch	Karapürçek	12,54±2,01 <sup>a</sup>	3,53±0,41 <sup>ab</sup>	
	Samsun Road	6,99±1,32 <sup>ab</sup>	5,29±0,67 <sup>a</sup>	
	Gazi	7,13±1,14 <sup>ab</sup>	2,56±0,35 <sup>b</sup>	
	Pursaklar	5,5±1,03 <sup>b</sup>	2,59±0,37 <sup>b</sup>	
	Protokol	5,95±1,06 <sup>b</sup>	1,53±0,13 <sup>b</sup>	
	Mogan	3,07±0,92 <sup>c</sup>	0,86±0,10 <sup>c</sup>	

<sup>a</sup> For a given station, mean concentrations followed by the same letter are not significantly different ( $p < 0.05$ ).

\*Permissible limits (mg/kg) were adopted from WHO (2000) and The Soil Pollution Control Regulation (2001) on plant and soil [42, 43]. The highest metal concentration among the stations was Fe (40681  $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ ) collected from Gazi station, and the lowest concentration was Cd (4.9  $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ ) collected from the Mogan station on soils (Table 3). According to the ANOVA test in lead, metal concentration in all stations is different from each other on soil samples ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 3).

The reason for high levels of heavy metal concentrations in the soil and plant samples can be result of being increased exposure to dissolved chemicals due to heavy traffic and decreased quality of soil [44].

**Table 3** Heavy metal concentration (mean  $\pm$ SD,  $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ , n=5 per location) in soils in Ankara Province <sup>a</sup>.

Soil	Cd	Cr	As	Pb	Fe
Karapürçek	20.31 $\pm$ 2.01 <sup>a</sup>	400.61 $\pm$ 5.04 <sup>ab</sup>	45.68 $\pm$ 0.21 <sup>b</sup>	168.58 $\pm$ 2.14 <sup>bc</sup>	16901.2 $\pm$ 12.54 <sup>b</sup>
Samsun Road	9.54 $\pm$ 1.03 <sup>b</sup>	653.02 $\pm$ 7.12 <sup>a</sup>	60.77 $\pm$ 0.34 <sup>ab</sup>	371.22 $\pm$ 2.41 <sup>a</sup>	12871.7 $\pm$ 8.41 <sup>b</sup>
Gazi	9.53 $\pm$ 1.42 <sup>b</sup>	230.98 $\pm$ 3.01 <sup>b</sup>	61.59 $\pm$ 0.58 <sup>ab</sup>	324.86 $\pm$ 2.05 <sup>ab</sup>	40681.06 $\pm$ 24.15 <sup>a</sup>
Pursaklar	7.5 $\pm$ 2.05 <sup>b</sup>	434.56 $\pm$ 6.02 <sup>ab</sup>	67.08 $\pm$ 0.87 <sup>a</sup>	125.22 $\pm$ 1.52 <sup>c</sup>	14845.7 $\pm$ 9.74 <sup>b</sup>
Protokol	16.46 $\pm$ 1.15 <sup>ab</sup>	226.93 $\pm$ 2.98 <sup>b</sup>	57.53 $\pm$ 0.45 <sup>ab</sup>	292.8 $\pm$ 2.56 <sup>b</sup>	18894.1 $\pm$ 10.31 <sup>b</sup>
Mogan	4.9 $\pm$ 0.12 <sup>c</sup>	102.75 $\pm$ 1.05 <sup>c</sup>	25.16 $\pm$ 0.12 <sup>c</sup>	103.78 $\pm$ 1.03 <sup>d</sup>	10627.9 $\pm$ 5.14 <sup>c</sup>
Permissible Limits*	3	100	20	50	300

For a given metal, mean concentrations followed by the same letter are not significantly different ( $p < 0.05$ ).

The correlations of heavy metal, transfer factors and correlations were detected in *Tilia tomentosa* parts and soil samples collected from six different stations.

When the correlation between the concentration of metals in washed and unwashed flower, stem and leaf samples was investigated, the strongest and most positive correlation was determined as Cr, which was found to be the highest in linden flowers and leaves. The correlation was statistically significant ( $p < 0.01$ ) (Table 4).

**Table 4** Correlation coefficients for heavy metal concentrations between plant parts ( $p < 0.01^{**}$ ) ( $p < 0.05^*$ ).

	Cr	As	Pb	Fe	Cd
<b>Leaves</b>	0,883 <sup>**</sup>	0,416	-0,13	0,644 <sup>*</sup>	0,224
<b>Branch</b>	0,609 <sup>*</sup>	0,491	-0,151	0,576 <sup>*</sup>	-0,270
<b>Flower</b>	0,937 <sup>**</sup>	0,520 <sup>*</sup>	-0,171	0,909 <sup>**</sup>	0,371

Permissible limits in plants Pb ( $0.2 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ ), Fe ( $30 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ ), Cd ( $0.1 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ ), Cr ( $3 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ ), As ( $0.1 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ ) [42].

According to the transfer factors from soil to plant parts, the highest transfer factor was determined at 0,656 for As in leaves while the lowest transfer factor was found to be in Pb and Fe (0,019) in flowers (Table 5).

Transport of heavy metals from soil to plant is one of the main components of human exposure to heavy metals through the food chain. This study determined that the BTF values between sampling sites and plant parts were significantly different. The BTF values of all metals were found to be low in terms of transfer factors. This may be because the metal concentration in the soil is higher than the concentrations in plant parts. Similarly, Leblebici et al. reported that there was no linear increase in BTF values of plants as a result of heavy metal concentration in the soil [23] (Table 5).

**Table 5.** Transfer factors of metals from soil to parts of *Tilia tomentosa* in Ankara province, Turkey

	As	Cd	Pb	Cr	Fe
<b>Leaves</b>	0,656	0,615	0,081	0,231	0,113
<b>Branch</b>	0,187	0,166	0,117	0,111	0,027
<b>Flower</b>	0,035	0,066	0,019	0,207	0,019

## 5. CONCLUSION

In this study, heavy metal accumulation in *Tilia tomentosa* parts (leaves, flower and branch) and soil due to heavy traffic was investigated in the province of Ankara. In addition, according to the criteria published by international organizations, it was determined that the metal accumulation at the stations was at a very critical level. Consequently, measures may need to be taken to prevent heavy metal contamination in soil and reduce heavy metal translocation from soil to food.

As *Tilia tomentosa* is used as a beverage, heavy metal monitoring in soil and plant is important. It is important to reduce metal concentrations in the study area and to investigate their effects on human health. By continuing these studies in areas with heavy traffic, acute and chronic health problems and metal exposure can be prevented.

### **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

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