



RESEARCH ARTICLE

CHEMICAL CHARACTERIZATION, NUTRACEUTICAL, AND EVALUATION OF THE
GEOMICOLOGICAL ACTIVITY OF *RAMARIA FLAVA* WILD AND EDIBLE IN THE STATE
OF HIDALGO, MEXICO

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ABSTRACT

The present work describes the chemical and nutraceutical study of *Ramaria flava*, a wild and edible mushroom collected in Hidalgo state, Mexico. Reductive power, antioxidant activity, total phenolic compounds content, β -glucans, phenolic acids (cinnamic, gallic and chlorogenic) in microwave-assisted methanol-water extracts as well as in acidic and alkaline extracts are described. Isolation and identification of sterol as a secondary metabolite of *R. flava* is reported, not previously described for this species in Mexico. The Al, Cd, Cr, Cu, Fe, K, Mg, Mn, Pb concentrations were determined in extracts as well as the soils of the study area in which the mushroom was collected. The highest values were found for Cu and Fe, in agreement with the literature reporting levels of these metals in the region. An inverse relationship was found between the antioxidant power of the mushroom extracts with the Fe, Cu, Mn and K concentration. The *R. flava* metabolite extraction and chromatographic separation were not reported before on this species in Mexico and showed up the presence of ergosterol, demonstrated by spectroscopic characterization.

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INTRODUCTION

For some millennia, humanity knew the benefits of mushrooms, the fruiting bodies of the macroscopic fungi. In recent times, China recorded an annual per capita consumption between 20 and 24 kg (Nowacka et al., 2014). The most commonly mushroom species produced and consumed internationally are *Agaricus bisporus*, *Pleurotus ostreatus* and Shiitake (*L. edodes*). Mexico stands out as being one of the leading producing countries of aforementioned edible and medicinal mushrooms, representing 90, 9.9 and 0.1% of production respectively; while the annual per capita consumption is 977 g per year (Nava and Martínez, 2003). The nutrient richness of cultivated species decreases, in contrast to wild species. In Mexico, untamed mushrooms are consumed since precolonial times because it is an adequate source of proteins, carbohydrates, vitamins, fiber, minerals, and fats of low caloric value. The wide range of bioactive components

such as phenolic compounds, β -glucans, flavonoids and others are capable of complementing the treatment and preventing chronic diseases such as cardiovascular illnesses, diabetes, hypertension, and cancer (Reis et al., 2012). Mexico is a country with a megabiodiversity of wild mushrooms, climates, and soils. Despite, there are scarce studies related to the geomicological interaction affecting their mineral content, which can add nutritional value in essential elements such as potassium, magnesium, calcium and increase the antioxidant character of the mushrooms bioactive components. Also, it is essential to prevent health problems due to toxic metals presence such as cadmium, lead and mercury (Gadd, 2007). The species of primary socioeconomic importance in Mexico due to their culinary value are shown in Table 1 together with their traditional names.

Ramaria flava develops mainly in conifer and oak forests; it is edible with a pleasant taste. Morphologically, it has a large, thick and fleshy basal part. Its fructification presents numerous thin, cylindrical, fleshy, slightly compact, vertical, pointed ends, in various yellowish or reddish hues, with the darker limbs (Figure 1). This mushroom is commonly known as a

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brush growing in deciduous forests on acid soils, has shown moderate antibiotic activity (Liu *et al.*, 2013). This paper reports the chemical and nutraceutical study of the edible wild mushroom *Ramaria flava*, collected in the state of Hidalgo, Mexico. This research aims to describe the reducing power, antioxidant activity, total phenolic compounds content, β -glucans, phenolic acids such as cinnamic, gallic and chlorogenic in extracts obtained by microwave-assisted methanol-water as well as the acid and alkali extracts. The Al, Cd, Cr, Cu, Fe, K, Mg, Mn, Pb concentrations are also determined in extracts as well as in the soils of the study area where the mushroom was collected to know their bioaccumulating capacity based on the metals contents. The bioactive components, the antioxidant properties, and the radical sequestration are determined and analyzed about the present compounds. The study contributes to the chemical knowledge of species.

was carried out by comparison of the sporocarps according to the identification guides (Læssøe, 2013). *Preparation of mushrooms.* Samples were cleaned with a brush and cut into flakes without separating the pile from the stipe. They were dried at 60 °C in a furnace (Riosa EOMI 50.51) until constant weight, then milled and sieved (20 mesh) using a mill (IKA A11 basic), and finally stored in dark plastic cans until analysis. *Extractions for organic analysis.* It was accomplished by the methodologies proposed by Pan *et al.* (2003) and Özyurek *et al.* (2014) with some modifications. Each dry and pulverized sample (200 mg) was extracted with methanol: water mixture (80:20, v/v, 25 mL) using a standard microwave oven (900 W at 10% power). The samples were irradiated and heat during 7 s (preventing the solvent boiling) and cooled by stirring 30 s in an ice bath. The procedure is repeated until 5 min total heating time. The obtained extracts were filtered through filter paper (Whatman No. 4), the filtrate poured into a 25 mL

Table 1. Mexican mushrooms of most socioeconomic importance (Eustaquio *et al.*, 2010; Moreno-Fuentes and Hernández-Rico, 2010)

Mushroom name	Traditional name in Mexico	Meaning
<i>Amanita caesarea</i>	Izcalli, yemita	Yellow fungus, yolk
<i>Lyophyllum decastes</i>	Clavito	Small brads
<i>Auricularia delicata</i>	Oreja, trompa	Ear,
<i>Armillaria mellea</i>	Babosito, cazahuate	Sleepy, honey
<i>Agaricus campestris</i>	Champiñón, San Juan	Field Mushroom, Meadow Mushroom
<i>Pleurotus spp.</i>	Blanco patón, avispon, pollitos	Hornet, chicks
<i>Boletus edulis</i>	Cemita rey, panza	Cep, King Bolete, Belly
<i>Hypomyces lactifluorum</i>	Enchiladas, oreja de puerco	Hot spicy, pig ear
<i>Russula brevipes</i>	Borrego blanco, Iztacnanácatl	White lamb, Short-stemmed Russula
<i>Ramaria flava</i>	Escobetas, coral	Little broom, coral
<i>Collybia Dryophilae</i>	Señoritas, mujercitas	
<i>Amanita rubescens</i>	Mantecoso	Greasy
<i>Cantharellus cibarius</i>	Duraznillo	Little peach

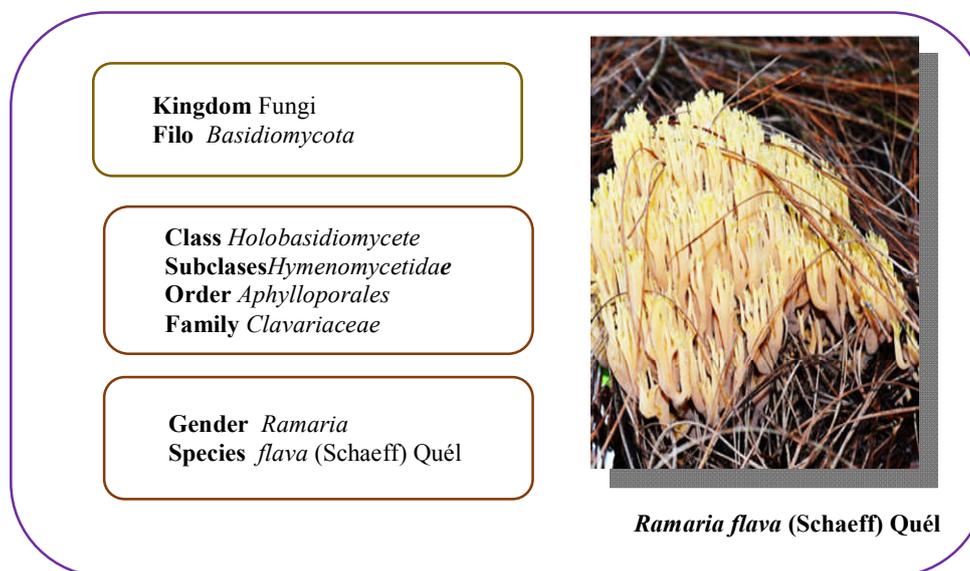


Figure 1. Taxonomic description of *Ramaria flava* (Herrera and Ulloa, 2013)

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sampling and identification. *R. flava* and soils samples were collected in the state of Hidalgo, Mexico (Figure 2). The regions were "Los Reyes", Acaxochitlán (latitude 20,152 ° and longitude -98,185 °, 2199 MASL); El Susto (latitude 20.033 ° and longitude -98.509 °, 2620 MASL) and Paxtepec (latitude 20.033 ° and longitude -98.426 2381 MASL). Sampling was performed during the rainy season of the year 2014 (August-October). The soil samples were obtained at a depth over 25 cm in the sites of a mushrooms quest. The species identification

volumetric flask and filled up to mark with the methanol: water mixture (80:20, v/v). The solutions were stored at 4 °C in amber bottles until the analysis.

Total phenolic content. It was determined spectrophotometrically through the Folin-Ciocalteu (FC) test, based on the ability of phenolic compounds to reduce a mixture of phosphotungstic and phosphomolybdic acids from Mo (VI) to Mo (V) in an alkaline solution to produce a blue color (Huang *et al.*, 2015). According to the procedure of Heleno *et al.* (2015) 100 μ l of methanolic extract were mixed

with the FC reagent (750 μl , 10% v/v) stirred 1 min and rest 5 min. A Na_2CO_3 solution (750 μl , 10% w/v) was added to the mixture, and the reaction was kept in the dark for 90 min. The absorbance reading was achieved at 725 nm (Genesys 10S VIS Thermo Scientific spectrophotometer). Gallic acid was used to obtain the standard curve (20-600 $\mu\text{g/ml}$). The total phenolic content was expressed as mg of gallic acid equivalents (GAE) per gram of dried mushroom.

orange Fe^{+3} - ferricyanide complex to a Prussian blue color of the Fe^{+2} - ferrocyanide species in the presence of antioxidants (Özen and Türkel, 2010). Butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT, 1mg/ml) was used as the control by measuring its absorbance in the assay and was assigned 100% of the reducing effect. Aliquots of 60 μl extract were mixed with 540 μl of 2,2-Diphenyl-1-Picrilhidrazilo (DPPH) radical methanolic solution (0.06 mM). The mixture was allowed to stand for 60 min in the

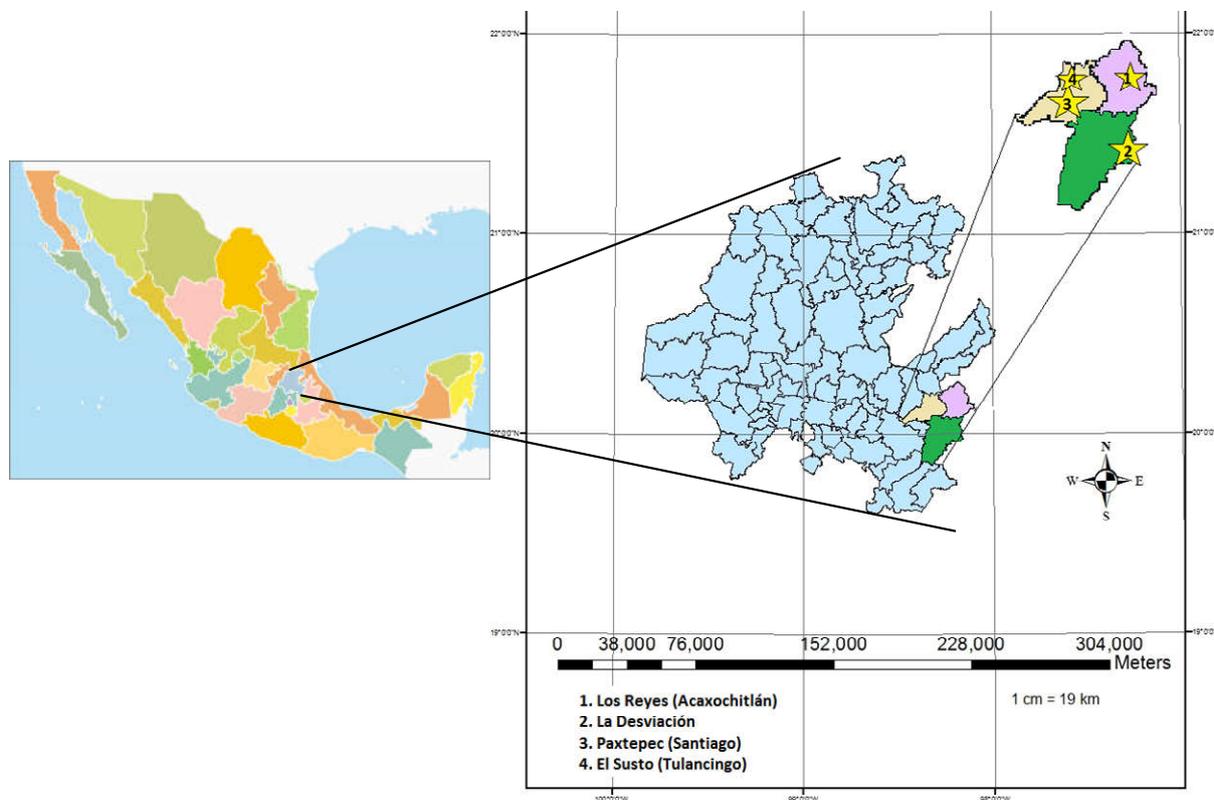


Figure 2. Geographic location of the sampling points

Phenolic acids. The methanolic extracts were filtered through a 0.45 μm nylon disk membrane to perform further phenolic acid determination by high-performance liquid chromatography by an Agilent 1260 equipped with a diode array detector. The separation was carried out using 5 μl of extract in an Agilent poroshell 120 EC-C18 column (4.6 x 50 mm, 2.7 μm) thermostated at 25 °C. The mobile phase was: (A) 0.1% phosphoric acid in water, (B) acetonitrile HPLC-grade, (C) methanol HPLC-grade. The gradient used was: 95% A, 5% B, flow rate of 1.0 ml/min for 2 min; 50% A, 25% B and 25% C, flow rate at 0.5 ml/min for 8 min. The phenolic acids were quantified by comparing the area of the peaks recorded at 280 nm with the corresponding ones of the calibration curves obtained with the commercial standards of each acid. The results were expressed as $\mu\text{g/g}$ dry arrow. NO ENTENDÍ

Reducing power. It was determined by the procedure reported by Barros *et al.* (2011). The methanolic extract (500 μl) was mixed with a sodium phosphate buffer (500 μl , 200 mM, pH 6.6) and potassium ferricyanide (500 μl , 1% w/v). The mixture was incubated at 50-60 °C for 20 min, and trichloroacetic acid (500 μl , 10% w/v) was added. An aliquot of the reaction mixture (800 μl) was transferred to vials containing distilled water (800 μl) and ferric chloride (160 μl , 1% w/v). After 90 min, the absorbance (Genesys 10S VIS spectrophotometer, Thermo Scientific) was measured at 690 nm. The reduction power was obtained as a percentage of the conversion of the

dark. Reduction of the DPPH moiety was determined by measuring the absorbance at 515 nm. The radical inhibitory activity (RIA) was calculated as a percentage of the discoloration of the purple solution of the DPPH radical by equation 2:

$$\% \text{RIA} = ((\text{ADPPH} - \text{Am}) / \text{ADPPH}) \times 100$$

where Am and ADPPH are the absorbances of the solution containing the sample and the DPPH solution, respectively (Vaz *et al.*, 2011).

Ascorbic acid. It was determined by the reported method (Vaz *et al.*, 2011). 150 mg of the powdered sample was extracted with 10 ml of metaphosphoric acid (1%, w/v) for 45 min at room temperature with constant stirring and the mixture was filtered through filter paper (Whatman N° 4). The filtrate (0.1 ml) was mixed with 0.9 ml of 2,6-dichloroindophenol (0.00125% w/v) and allowed to stand for 30 min. The absorbance at 515 nm was measured against its target. The ascorbic acid content was calculated with the calibration curve of L-ascorbic acid between 0.5 and 2.01 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ and the results expressed as mg of ascorbic acid per g of the dry arrow. **Flavonoids.** The quantification of flavonoids was carried out according to Pereira *et al.* (Pereira *et al.*, 2011). For this purpose, 500 μl of methanolic extract was mixed with 150 μl of a sodium nitrite solution (5%) and 2 ml of distilled water;

the mixture was stirred for 1 min. After 5 min, 150 µl of aluminum chloride (10%) was added, stirred 1 min and allowed to stand for another 6 min. Finally, 2 ml of sodium hydroxide (4%) and 200 µl of distilled water were added. The mixture was stirred for 15 min, and the absorbance was measured at 510 nm. Quercetin was used as a calibration standard at concentrations of 1 to 20 µg/ml, and the results were expressed as mg quercetin equivalents (QE) per g dry weight. *β-glucans*. They were isolated and quantified according to Nitschke *et al.* (2011). 750 mg of mushroom powder was heated with 60 ml of 1 mol/L KOH for 20 min at 60 °C under constant stirring. Subsequently, the suspension was filtered, the solid residue washed with distilled water, and the filtrate was neutralized with 6 mol/L HCl. The filtered volume was poured into a 100 ml volumetric flask and filled to the mark with distilled water. This extract was called the KOH fraction. The solid residue was suspended with 65 ml of 0.58 mol/L HCl and heated in an oil bath at 100 °C for 1 h. The suspension was filtered, and the solid residue was rinsed with the HCl solution. The filtrate was neutralized with 6 mol/L NaOH, transferred to a 100 ml volumetric flask and filled to the mark with distilled water. This extract was called HCl-fraction. The solid residue was resuspended with 60 ml of 1 mol/L NaOH and heated at 60 °C for 20 min. The suspension was filtered, the filtrate solid washed with distilled water and the filtrate was neutralized with 6 mol/L HCl, poured into a 100 ml volumetric flask and filled with distilled water to the mark. This portion was called NaOH-fraction. The three fractions were used for the determination of *β-glucans*. For the quantification of *β-glucans*, 350 µl of each fraction was mixed with 300 µl 0.2 mol/L of citric acid/sodium hydroxide buffer pH 7 and 50 µL of the dye solution (8 mg of red Congo diluted in 10 ml buffer). The absorbances of the mixtures were read at 523 nm using a solution blank prepared with 350 µl of distilled water, 300 µl of buffer and 50 µl of dye. Due to the brown color of the fractions, the measurement required to rule out the background interference at 523 nm. Thus, 350 µl of the sample was mixed with 350 µl of buffer, and the absorbance was measured at 523 nm. The calibration curve was obtained with stock solutions of schizophoran in the range 225-600 µg/ml. All analyses were performed in triplicate. The total contents of *β-glucans* were expressed as mg of *β-glucan* per g of dried mushroom. *β-carotene and lycopene*. They were determined by the reported method (Pereira *et al.*, 2012). 500 µl of mushroom extract was shaken with 10 ml of acetone:hexane mixture (4: 6, v/v) for 1 min and the mixture was filtered (Whatman No. 4). Subsequently, the filtrate absorbance was measured at 453, 505, 645 and 663 nm. The *β-carotene* and *lycopene* amounts were calculated by equations 3,4 and expressed as mg / 100 g dry weight of mushroom.

$$\beta\text{-carotene (mg/100 mL)} = 0.216(A_{663}) - 0.304(A_{505}) + 0.452(A_{453})$$

$$\text{Lycopene (mg/100 mL)} = -0.0458(A_{663}) + 0.372(A_{505}) - 0.0806(A_{453})$$

Chromatographic separation. A sample of *Ramaria flava* fresh material (6 kg) was sliced and cut into 2x3 cm pieces, dehydrated in the sun for three days and pulverized to obtain a powder. 500 g was refluxed with AcOEt for 3 h, filtered and the filtrate was concentrated on a rotary evaporator to obtain the extract for further column chromatographic separation. 3.88 g crude extract was eluted with an AcOEt/Hexane (4:1) mixture

using a 1.9 x 50 cm chromatographic column packed with silica gel 60 (Merck, 0.063-0.200 mm). A total of 50 fractions (2 mL) were collected at a flow rate of 16 mL/min and concentrated under reduced pressure on a rotary evaporator. A crystalline solid (22 mg) was obtained from fractions 34-47 after the solvent removal. Thin layer chromatography was performed on silica gel 60 F254 chromatography with UV light developer. *Spectroscopic characterization*. ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectra in CDCl₃ were obtained at room temperature on a Varian VNMRs 400 spectrometer at 400 and 100 MHz, respectively. The chemical shifts in parts per million (ppm) were calculated from tetramethylsilane (TMS) as a reference, and the coupling constants (J) are given in Hz. Infrared spectra were obtained on a Perkin Elmer Spectrum GX spectrometer in a KBr pellet and film in CsI window.

Soil preparation. The soil samples were dried by sun exposure for 6 h, subsequently sieved (20 mesh) and stored in plastic containers until analysis.

Metal determination. The metal content in mushroom powder and soil samples were carried out by the U.S. EPA methodology. The microwave digestion of 500 mg of each solid was treated with 5 ml concentrated nitric acid (65%, v/v) in the processing cartridge and heated by a microwave oven (Mars X-5, 1200 W at 100% and 170 °C maximum temperature). The oven was programmed to reach the indicated temperature within 15 min and then, to be cooled. The cartridges contents were poured into 50 ml Class A volumetric flask and filled to the mark with nitric acid (5%, v/v) for next measurement by Atomic Absorption (AA). The flasks were labeled and stored at 5 °C in suitable plastic containers. The determination was carried out with an Agilent AAS 2200 series AA equipment using air-acetylene and air-nitrous oxide flame. The wavelengths used were at 236.7, 228.8, 357.9, 324.7, 372, 404.4, 202.6, 279.5 and 217 nm for Al, Cd, Cr, Cu, Fe, K, Mg, Mn, and Pb, respectively. Multi-element standards were used, at a concentration of 0.5 ppm of each element for Cd, Cr, and Pb; K, Cu, and Mn; Al, Fe, and Mg. Each concentration determination was performed in triplicate. All assays were performed in triplicate. The results were expressed as the mean value ± standard deviation (SD) and analyzed using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by the Tukey's HSD test with α = 0.05 for results that showed highly significant differences (p < 0.001). Statistics were performed with SPSS v. 22.0 (IBM Corp., USA).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Total phenolic compounds (TPC). Fungi are sources rich in bioactive compounds with a huge variety of chemical structures. They are well recognized for their antitumor, antimicrobial and antioxidant properties; attributed mainly to the presence of phenolic compounds, attributed to secondary metabolites biosynthesized by fungi as an adaptation way to the condition of biotic and abiotic stress (Islam *et al.*, 2016). The analysis of the wild species *R. flava* revealed essential contents in total phenolic compounds (Table 1).

Table 1. Contents and composition of total phenolic compounds (TPC) and phenolic acids in *R. flava*

	TPC*	Chlorogenic acid**	Cinnamic acid**	Gallic acid**
<i>R. flava</i>	2.07 ± 0.04	510 ± 8.13 (24.6)	4.9 ± 0.61 (0.24)	n.d.

*mg GAE/g dry mushroom; GAE: gallic acid equivalents. **µg/g dry mushroom. n.d.: Not detected

Previous studies (Palacios *et al.*, 2011) reported similar values of TPC for other setae species such as *B. edulis* and *C. cibarius* (5.5 and 2.5 mg of GAE/g of dry mushroom). However, *B. edulis* presents four times higher proportion (8.13 mg of GAE/g of dry mushroom) as it was recently published studied in Querétaro state, Mexico, (Yahia *et al.*, 2017). Because mushrooms are motionless, they require phenolic compounds as a defense strategy against competing organisms and predators as well as for protection against UV light (Heleno *et al.*, 2015). The production of the phenolic compounds comes from the shikimic acid route. The concentration variances in the species can be justified by the differences in the ecological environment in which the studied mushrooms have been developed about the need for self-protection according to the surrounding ecological factors which are different in each study region. That is why, the content of bioactive substances, can vary even in fungi of the same species due to differences in the environment where they grew, the maturation stage, fungi freshness and soil conditions such as organic matter content, pH, the presence of mineral salts, microbiota among other factors (Boonsong *et al.*, 2016). Also, the differences in the extraction techniques used in reported work generate the observed discrepancies. Hence, these studies allow knowing the phenolic compounds richness of the wild edible species. Among the reported phenolic compounds for edible, inedible and medicinal mushrooms are chlorogenic, gallic and cinnamic acid (Reis *et al.*, 2012; Heleno *et al.*, 2015; Palacios *et al.*, 2011; Taofiq *et al.*, 2015). These substances are part of the analyzed total phenolic content and contribute to the antioxidant activity. That is why the analysis of the mentioned compounds in *R. flava* was carried out, and the amounts are shown in Table 1. Gallic acid was not detected. *Chlorogenic acid*. It is present in a significant amount, 510 µg/g dry mushroom, remarkably higher than in any other studied fungi. Its presence has been reported for all species, ranging from 0.04-1.00 µg/g dry mushroom (Palacios *et al.*, 2011; Yahia *et al.*, 2017). Its principal health benefits were reported, such as the obesity reduction in the body due to its triglycerides and cholesterol lessening action (Cho *et al.*, 2013), combined with the powerful antioxidant effect, whose transformation to caffeic acid was demonstrated in vivo and in vitro (Sato *et al.*, 2011). The quantification of this phenolic compound in *R. flava* has not been reported until now. So, this finding claims its intake recommendation as part of a diet rich in antioxidants and nutraceutical products. Pancho, esto quizás no sea bueno ponerlo, pues en el artículo de los coreanos hay una tabla con los contenidos del clorogénico en muchos vegetales y son todos del orden de mg/, mucho mayores para una dieta. The presence of chlorogenic acid is chemically justified through the L-phenylalanine content, widely present in fungi. It has a key influence on taste, and its proportion constitutes a quality parameter for mushrooms (Sommer *et al.*, 2010). Figure 3 illustrates the biosynthesis of chlorogenic acid and shows how chlorogenic acid is related to trans-cinnamic acid, acting as a precursor in its biosynthesis. Pancho ver si los metales del suelo actúan con el ácido clorogénico y desplazan el equilibrio hacia su formación. ese es el aporte importante. kiss en el año 1989 ya reportó muchos complejos de Cu(II). este ácido es un glicosido y puede girar para hacer quelatos. fijate que los demás no. tienes mucho Cu(II) en el suelo. quizás no es un problema de stress ambiental, sino química de coordinación nada más. Polyhedron Volume 8, Issue 19, 1989, Pages 2345-2349. The L-phenylalanine 19 undergoes a deamination by means of the enzyme Phenylalanine Ammonium Lyase (PAL) to generate the trans-cinnamic acid

20, which is hydroxylated in para-position by the enzyme cinnamic acid 4-hydroxylase (CAH) to give 4-coumaric acid derivative 21 which in turn is attached to the acetyl coenzyme A by the enzyme 4-coumarate coenzyme A ligase (4CL) and said acetylated product, 22, incorporates the quinic acid 23 to generate the 4- which is converted to chlorogenic acid 25 by means of the enzyme 3-hydroxylase. Quitar. solo dejar la figura con los nombres.

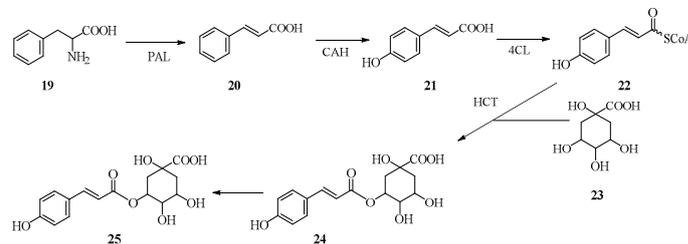


Figure 3. Biosynthesis of chlorogenic acid from L-phenylalanine, Dewick reaction scheme from (Dewick, 2009)

PROPONGO CAMBIAR LA FIGURA POR LA QUE ESTA EN EL ARTICULO DE LOS COREANOS: POR QUÉ? Porque MAS abajo con el análisis del gallic acid, se habla del ácido shikimic y en la biosíntesis que está aquí no aparece

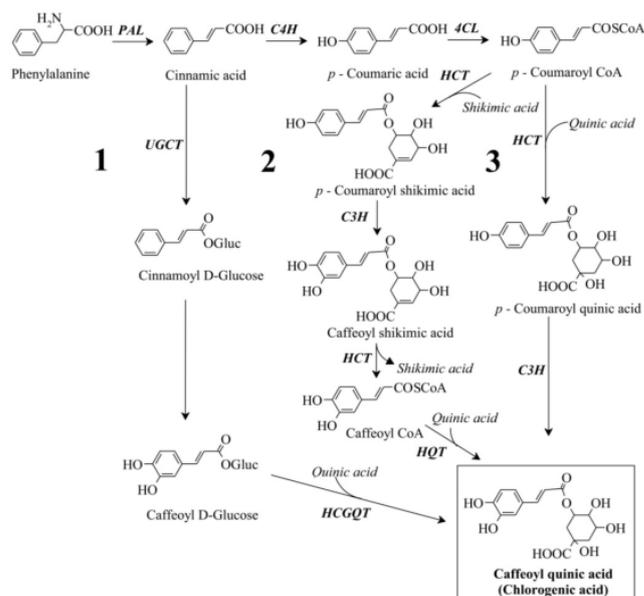


Figure 3. Proposed pathways for chlorogenic acid synthesis in plants. 31C (Pham Anh Tuan, Do Yeon Kwon, Sanghyun Lee, Mariadhas Valan Arasu, Naif Abdullah Al-Dhabi, Nam Il Park, and Sang Un Park. Enhancement of Chlorogenic Acid Production in Hairy Roots of *Platycodon grandiflorum* by Over-Expression of An *Arabidopsis thaliana* Transcription Factor AtPAP1 *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* 2014, 15 15, 14743-14752; doi:10.3390/ijms150814743

Cinnamic acid. In contrast, cinnamic acid was lesser quantified than chlorogenic acid (4.93 µg/g dry mushroom), and its contribution to TPC was meager. This finding is probably due to the vast extent of the chlorogenic acid biosynthesis, that exhausts the precursor. The reported amount for *B. edulis* in Poland mushrooms was even lower (3.1 µg/g dry mushroom) (Heleno *et al.*, 2015). The same species presents three times higher cinnamic acid proportion in Portugal (14.2 µg/g dry mushroom) (Taofiq *et al.*, 2015), while it was not detected in other studies (Özyurek *et al.*, 2014; Heleno *et al.*, 2015). A.

caesarea presents a low fraction (0.3 µg/g dry mushroom) (Reis *et al.*, 2011); about ten times lower than that obtained in this study. These findings support that CFT composition depends on a great extent on the species and the environment.

Gallic acid. In the present study, gallic acid was not detected. The microwave assisted extractive method (methanol/water 80:20, v/v) employed in this paper gave gallic acid reports in high quantities in species where chlorogenic acid is present (*C. Cibarius*, *C. cornucopioides*, *G. lucidum* and *H. marzuolus*) (Palacios *et al.*, 2011; Yahia *et al.*, 2017; Yildiz *et al.*, 2014). Differently, cases are observed in other species, where gallic acid occurs in traces or is undetected (*A. pantherina*, *B. luridus*). Different amounts of gallic acid have been reported in mushrooms with diverse extractive methods; therefore, a wide range of proportions appears in the literature. Minimal concentrations of *B. edulis* (0.19 µg/g dry mushroom) (Özyurek *et al.*, 2014); and high amounts (212.96 µg/g of dried mushroom) with simple methanol extraction (Palacios *et al.*, 2011). Recently, Islam reported high gallic acid amounts of 231.1 and 18.64 µg/g setae, for *C. cibarius* and *G. lucidum* respectively with methanol/water/butylated hydroxytoluene extraction (Islam *et al.*, 2016). The biosynthesis of gallic acid is shown in Figure 4, coming from shikimic acid, which is, in turn, a precursor of chlorogenic acid (See Figure 3, Path 2). Therefore, its bioavailability is limited by the formation of gallic acid in *R. flava* due to the principal chlorogenic acid occurrence (Dewick, 2009). Although the extraction method would influence the results of amount determination, it is not proven to be such a determining factor to avoid traces detection.

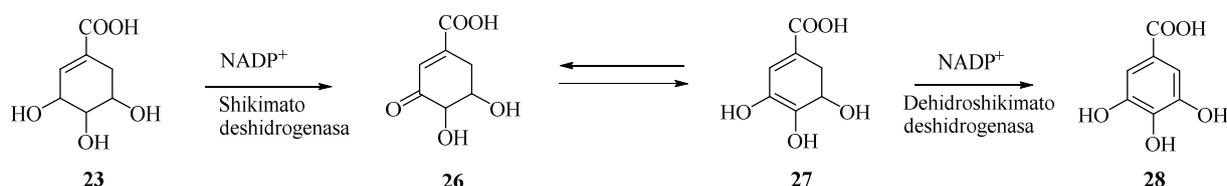


Figure 4. Biosynthesis of gallic acid from shikimic acid (Dewick, 2009)

Table 2. Composition of inhibitory and reductive activity in *R. flava*

	% DPPH radical inhibition	% Fe ³⁺ reducing power	Ascorbic acid (mg/g dry arrow)	β-carotenes and lycopenes
<i>R. flava</i>	20.88 ± 3.91	14.73 ± 5.11	3.14 ± 0.04	n.d.

n.d.: Not detected

Wild mushrooms are rich in phenolic compounds (PC) with a unique antioxidant capacity. Discussions have been raised regarding biosynthesis, extraction techniques and sample analysis. The presence of phenolic acids in mushrooms, especially chlorogenic acid, is attributable to a defense mechanism in which the acid chelates metal ions. Chelation allows the bioaccumulating response and prevents the damage to the plants with which they present symbiotic associations using the roots (Gąsecka *et al.*, 2017). No entendi la simbiosis con quien? no se entiende Considering the low concentration of gallic acid, and the absence of cinnamic acid, as well as the high Cu content (further discussed here) it is very likely that a chelation effect occurs, affecting the biosynthetic route, showed in Figure 3. Cu chelation by chlorogenic acid has been reported in previous studies (Pham Anh Tuan *et al.*, 2014; Tamas Kiss *et al.*, 1989)

Free radical scavenging activity. A wide range of different methodologies is described for the evaluation of free radical scavenging activity in the literature (Woldegiorgis *et al.*, 2014).

In this study, the methanol-water extracts of the different mushrooms species *NOOOOR.flava* were tested to calculate the degradation percent of the purple DPPH radical methanolic solution at a single concentration, from the 517 nm absorbance readings vs. the DPPH solution without extract. Esto ya fue explicado en la parte experimental

The extracts of *R. flava* degraded the purple coloration of the DPPH radical in different magnitudes, corresponding to different percentages of DPPH radical inhibition. Table 2 shows the results in percentage (%) inhibition of the DPPH radical for the nine species studied.

Direct relationship between the total content of phenolic compounds and the % inhibition of the DPPH radical. ES UNO SOLO Orhan (Orhan and Üstün, 2011) reported *C. cibarius* total phenolic compound of 31.48 mg GAE/g dry mushroom and 59.87% DPPH inhibition. Likewise, *G. lucidum* has been reported (Orhan and Üstün, 2011) with a phenolic content of 75 mg GAE/g dry mushroom and 74% of the DPPH inhibition. Both species presented higher values than those reported here for *R. flava* (2.07 mg GAE/g dry mushroom and 20.88% DPPH inhibition). With the mentioned reports, the correlation between the TPC content and the % DPPH radical inhibition was observed (Figure 5), although only three pairs of values were available. It is due to the ability of phenolic compounds to donate hydrogen atoms due to the O-H low dissociation enthalpy (102 kcal/mol). Thus, the radicals deactivation by H transfer (Özen and Türkerül, 2010) justifies the low percentage of DPPH radical inhibition.

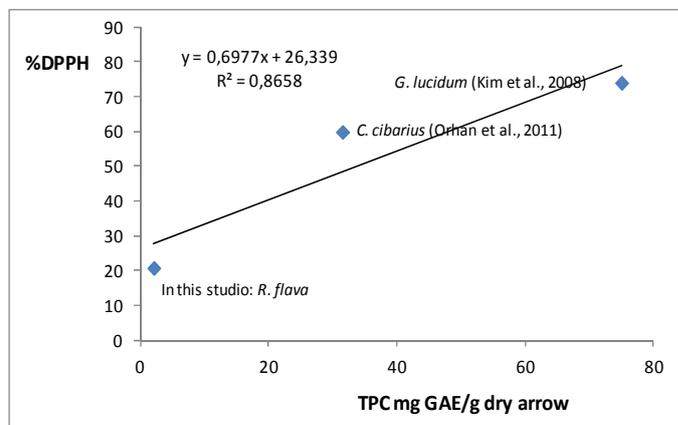


Figure 5. Correlation between % DPPH radical inhibition and TPC content in mushrooms

Other authors report the EC₅₀ parameter, as the TCP concentration (in the extract) necessary to deactivate 50% of

DPPH radical which is inversely related to its inactivating activity; thus, the lower EC_{50} values get, the more significant radical deactivation by the extract. Recently, EC_{50} has been reported for *R. flava* (13 μ mole equivalent Trolox/100 g fresh weight mushroom) and other species (Yahia *et al.*, 2017). However, further work should be performed at different extract concentrations to obtain better EC_{50} quantitative data to confirm this report, because the way in which authors obtained the test results. Other substances such as ergosterol and some polysaccharides of the β -glucans family, could bias the radical inhibition and therefore, corrections might be included to avoid the effect of other bioactive molecules in the mushrooms. The weakness of potassium ferricyanide reduction to ferrocyanide correlates with the low TPC content of *R. flava* (Table 2). The reducing effect is directly related to the phenolic compounds present in the mushroom extracts, as it has been demonstrated by (Vaz *et al.*, 2011) and the results obtained here are consistent with the content of phenolic compounds. The same phenomenon has also been described for *C. cibarius* (Unekwu *et al.*, 2014) coincident with a low percentage of DPPH radical inhibition. Also, another Fe^{3+} reduction dropping effect is associated with the presence of polysaccharides (Tiang *et al.*, 2012; Tseng *et al.*, 2008; Xiao *et al.*, 2012), which are abundant in mushrooms (Barros *et al.*, 2008). So, the cause of the reducing effect cannot be limited only to the presence of TPC.

Ascorbic acid. The present study found the ascorbic acid in a concentration of 3.14 ± 0.04 mg/g dry arrow in *R. flava* (table 2). It has been reported in a low range values, between 0.13 - 0.35 mg/g dry mushroom with depleted TPC content (Barros *et al.*, 2008). *A. caesarea* presents the ascorbic acid content of 2.08 mg/g dry mushroom (27), close to that determined for *R. flava* in our research. Until now, no other reports are found in Mexico regarding the ascorbic acid content in wild fungi. In addition to phenolic compounds and tocopherols as defense strategies against the oxidative stress in fungi, ascorbic acid is formed as an antioxidant seizing free radical damage. Some authors suggest that the variability in ascorbic acid content in the different fungi species is associated with the genotype and the environmental conditions where the organisms grew, reaching the antioxidant requirements to face free radicals (Ferreira *et al.*, 2009).

β -carotenes and lycopene. Wild fungi are rich in β -carotenes and lycopene, acting as oxygen radicals deactivators as well as lipid peroxidation inhibitors. They reduce the risk of prostate and digestive tract cancer, among other chronic diseases (Robaszekiewicz *et al.*, 2010). In this study, the concentrations of β -carotene and lycopene resulted below the detection limit of the technique. Therefore, no data are reported for this test. It is probably that samples dehydration causes decomposition and fresh sample workup should be performed to avoid β -carotene and lycopene loss.

Flavonoids. It is known that fungi do not have the biosynthetic ability to produce flavonoids. Nevertheless, several papers report the flavonoids total content in wild mushrooms of different regions (Pereira *et al.*, 2012; Woldegiorgis *et al.*, 2014; Unekwu *et al.*, 2014; Jaworska *et al.*, 2014). Some of them provide the quantification methods for some flavonoids such as quercetin, chrysin, and pinocembrin by HPLC (UV/DAD) using a mass detector (Liu *et al.*, 2013; Kim *et al.*, 2008; Leal *et al.*, 2013; Liu *et al.*, 2016). Up to date, no report has reliable evidence to explain the origin of flavonoids in

fungi. The biosynthetic pathway for the production of these secondary metabolites is known in plants (Figure 6). This route proceeds through the enzyme PAL (phenylalanine ammonia lyase) biotransformation of the amino acid (Yildiz *et al.*, 2014) into cinnamic acid (Dewick, 2009), the leading precursor in the phenylpropanoid route to flavonoids. A second step goes to the hydroxylation of cinnamic acid by cinnamate-4-hydroxylase (C4H) to produce 4-coumaric acid (Gąsecka *et al.*, 2017); which is transformed by 4-coumarate-coenzyme A ligase (4CL) to the activated 4-coumaroyl-CoA (Woldegiorgis *et al.*, 2014). The chalcone synthase (CHS) is a plant-specific polyketide enzyme that catalyzes the stepwise formation of three molecules of malonyl-CoA (Orhan and Üstün, 2011) from 4-coumaroyl-CoA (Woldegiorgis *et al.*, 2014; Orhan and Üstün, 2011) produces chalcone naringenin (Unekwu *et al.*, 2014), the precursor of a large variety of flavonoids. In the last stages of flavonoid biosynthesis, naringenin chalcone is converted to naringenin by chalcone isomerase (CHI), and further flavonoids are formed.

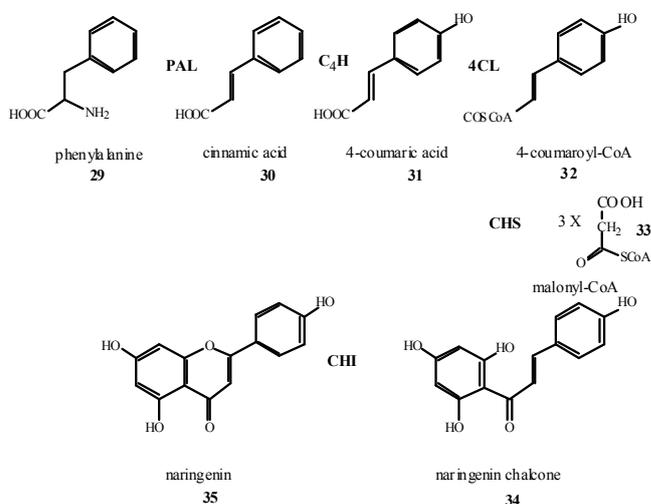


Figure 6. Biosynthesis of flavonoid naringenin (Du *et al.*, 2011)

There are no reports of the enzymes C4H, 4CL, CHS or CHI in fungi, essential for the biosynthesis of flavonoids in superior plants (Figure 6); and so, it has been stated that fungi are not able to produce flavonoids (Ramírez *et al.*, 2016). However, the biosynthetic pathway in the mushrooms has not been studied and would be a considerable contribution. There are reports relating the flavonoid content with the presence of metals in the fungi's fruiting bodies, arising as a defense mechanism through the production of flavonoids capable of sequestering metals, avoiding its toxic effects (Pham Anh Tuan *et al.*, 2014). In this study, the flavonoid content in *R. flava* was not detected, despite it was reported (Yahia *et al.*, 2017) in 4.67 mg eq catechine /g dry arrow for the same species. The difference mg eq. of quercetin (this study) or catechin (21) is irrelevant. Further discussion of the results found in the quantification of some metals in the fruiting body of *R. flava* and its relation to the content of flavonoids is made according to (Gąsecka *et al.*, 2017) to distinguish the influence they exert on the total content of these secondary metabolites. **β -D-glucans.** While the plant's cell wall constitutes a vital source of cellulosic dietary fiber, the fungi cell walls contain a mixture of other fibrous components such as chitin, β -D-glucans and mannans (Cheung *et al.*, 2013). The β -D-glucans have interesting anticancer properties. However, a large number of fungi wild species (edible and non-edible) have not

been investigated searching for β -D-glucans. In Mexico, no reported data provide information regarding the content of β -D-glucans in wild species and in particular, for *R. flava*. This study did not detect β -D-glucans for this species. Significant differences were found in reported β -D-glucan contents for some mushrooms. Thus, a value of 214.02 mg of β -glucans/g of dry mushroom for *A. caesarea* was reported in our lab CITA, while Rahar (Rahar *et al.*, 2011) reported 0.4 mg of β -glucans/g of dried mushroom for same species. According to (Rahar *et al.*, 2011) the β -glucans content depends on the habitat, mainly influenced by the altitude and the surrounding vegetation cover. The samples analyzed here were collected at an average altitude of 2620 masl, while those reported by Rahar (Rahar *et al.*, 2011) correspond to an altitude of 1,100 masl, this factor is consistent with the low content that these authors also report. Pancho, este artículo es solo de *R. flava*, yo quitara todo este parrafo, Esto Esta aquí, seguramentepor la tesis de Eric, que tenia en la tabla la *A. caesarea*. **Metals.** The metal determination results are shown in Table 3. Numerous studies point to fungi as bioaccumulating organisms of metals through an extensive network of mycelium that extends below the ground, for which a variety of different mechanisms have been proposed (Kalač, 2010; Durkan *et al.*, 2011). Due to their metals bioaccumulative ability, fungi have been placed as bioindicators of the environmental quality. The BAI (Bioaccumulation Index) defined the proportion of an element concentration in a fruiting body and the soil. BAI quantifies the fungus ability to accumulate a particular element (Falandysz and Borovička, 2013). This capacity is influenced by biochemical processes to survive and tolerate its metal intake. Among the described mechanisms for metals bioaccumulation in fungal fruiting bodies are: (i) metals cell wall binding; (ii) vacuolar sequestration; (iii) production of chelating metallothioneins, glutathione and plastocyanin; (iv) metals and metalloids toxic effects reduce the oxidative stress through the depleted generation of oxygen reactive species, by means the antioxidant enzymatic system (superoxide dismutases, catalases, glutathione peroxidases) and reactions involving low molecular weight organic substances such as ascorbic acid, tocopherol and phenolic compounds (Pham Anh Tuan *et al.*, 2014).

The accumulation of toxic metals is influenced by the fungi symbiosis with the roots of the trees, acting as attenuators of the metal uptake by the plant, and bioaccumulating them in their fruiting bodies. Other factors affect the metals translocation to the fungus fruiting body such as soil pH, organic matter content and the genotype in species (Gadd, 2007). Another incoming form of toxic metals into the fungal body is through airways (deposition of air contaminated by aerosols, dust, fumes), especially for toxic elements such as Cd, Pb, and Hg. In some cases, the bioaccumulated amount is related to the size of the fruiting body (Michelot *et al.*, 1998). The Cd and Pb concentrations found in *R. flava* fruiting body were below the detection limits of the technique (<0.0006 mg/kg.), as well as soils. So, it was not possible to evaluate their BAI factor. Several Pb and Cd hyperaccumulating mushrooms are described in the literature, such as *Lycoperdon foetidum*, *Abortiporus biennis*, *Amanita strobiliformis* and *Amanita caesarea* (Aloupi *et al.*, 2012; Borovička *et al.*, 2007; Riganakos *et al.*, 2009; Wilkoiazka *et al.*, 2011). In (Schweiger *et al.*, 2009) report for different species of the genus *Amanita*, high amounts of Cd attributable mainly to the collection of these species in contaminated areas. Regarding the species analyzed here, concentrations for Cd and Pb were not prevention at levels

higher than the limit of detection in mushrooms or soil, which can be inferred that the area studied is free of contamination by Cd or Pb. PARA QUE SEGUIR HABLANDO DE ESTO, SI NO HAY ESOS METALES EN EL SUELO?

The Cr concentration in the *R. flava* fruiting body resulted 16 ± 0.34 mg/kg dry mushroom, while in the surrounding soil was 5.58 ± 0.48 mg/kg (Table 3), which is a non-contaminated area (limit over 0.5 - 10 mg/kg of soil (Pham Anh Tuan *et al.*, 2014). Moreover, the BAI resulted in 0.75, which denotes a Cr high bioaccumulation capacity, considering that the soil is not classified as contaminated with this metal (Kalač, 2010). Cu was found abundantly in *R. flava*, resulting 1141.4 mg/kg dry mushroom, while the soil content was 1141 mg/kg. Then, the study area is contaminated. Cu values of more than 76 mg/kg (Nikkarinen and Mertanen, 2004) and 12.81-39.7 mg/kg have been reported for contaminated soils (Pham Anh Tuan *et al.*, 2014). BAI_{Cu} resulted very high (9.88), and so, the *R. flava* is considered a hyperaccumulating species (Table 3). The high origin of Cu in the forest-agricultural zone is unknown. Probably, it might be due to fungicides used for forest areas in Acaxochitlán based on oxychloride and copper sulfate. It is known that fungi are efficient Cu bioaccumulating organisms compared to plants (Firdousi, 2017). The Cu range for wild mushroom species collected at uncontaminated sites was reported between 20 and 100 mg/kg dry matter. Reported fungi with high Cu bioaccumulation capacity (> 200 mg/kg) are *Macrolepiota procera*, *Calvatia utriformis*, *Agaricus bisporus* (Kalač, 2010). However, the value found here for *R. flava* greatly exceeded the previously reported ranges. The high Cu contamination in the soil provoked the remarkable bioaccumulation by the fungi in their fruiting bodies, probably through cysteine-rich low molecular weight proteins called metallothioneins (Gadd, 2007; Collin *et al.*, 2002) whose Cu cofactor role are involved in oxidation-reduction reactions. It has been proposed that the function of the metallothioneins be to keep low the ionic Cu concentration and to allow the enzymatic activation by the metal as well as in the detoxification thereof (Brambila and González, 1993). This finding is likely related to the high chlorogenic acid content reported in this study. The recommended tolerated daily intake (RTDI) for this metal is 30 mg daily (calculated for an adult), and the ingestion of 300 g fresh mushroom would contribute 14% of the Cu RTDI value. Therefore, daily intake of wild *R. flava* cropped in Cu rich soils is recommended below 300 g, and the gastronomic and nutritional value of the edible mushrooms can be taken advantage. Fe is an abundant element frequently found in soils. *R. flava* showed a concentration of 471.5 mg/kg dry weight. The very high values in soils indicate that the study area (Acaxochitlán, "Los Reyes") is a Fe contaminated zone, although it is surrounded by vast humid forests with some agriculture and no mining activity. Soils have been previously studied, reporting Fe as iron oxides (goethite) and Al as kaolinite and halloysite (Acevedo *et al.*, 2010). The low BAI_{Fe} calculated (0.009) allows to catalog *R. flava* as Fe hypoaccumulator, but the significant content could affect the man. *A. muscaria* collected in Poland contains 67 mg of Fe/kg dry weight (Lipka and Falandysz, 2017). The present study reports a value about seven times higher in the *R. flava* species. Fe is a vital element for almost all living organisms; however, high amounts can be toxic. Fungi can restrict the entry of toxic metal species into their cells through various mechanisms such as 1) reduction of the metal intake and/or increase of its flow, 2) immobilization of the metal through the absorption in the cell wall, extracellular

Table 3. Cr, Cu, Fe, and Mn contents in *R. flava* and soil samples and bioaccumulation index (BAI). In brackets the standard deviation

	Cr*	BAI _{Cr}	Cu*	BAI _{Cu}	Fe*	BAI _{Fe}	Mn*	BAI _{Mn}
Soil	5.58 (0.5)	0.75(0.05)	115 (3)	9.9 (0.4)	53000 (42)	0.009(0.001)	193 (2)	0.19 (0.01)
<i>R. flava</i>	4.16 (0.3)		1141 (8)		471 (5)		36 (1)	

*mg/kg dry weight

Table 4. Al, Mg and K contents in *R. flava* and soil samples and bioaccumulation index (BAI). In brackets the standard deviation

	Al*	BAI _{Al}	Mg*	BAI _{Mg}	K*	BAI _K
Soil	36476 (13)	0.048 (0.002)	543 (3)	1.06 (0.4)	1053 (6)	7.2 (0.1)
<i>R. flava</i>	1763 (10)		577 (3)		7623 (8)	

*mg/kg dry weight

precipitation of neoformed secondary minerals (e.g., oxalates) and 3) extracellular sequestration by exopolysaccharides and other extracellular metabolites. Fungi that are metal tolerant may survive because of their intracellular chelation abilities by the formation of metallothioneins and phytochelatin, and thereby achieve sequestration and immobilization of the metal in the vacuoles. Fungal vacuoles play an essential role in the concentration regulation of metal ions and the detoxification of potentially toxic metals by sequestering metals, principally Mn^{2+} and Fe^{2+} and monovalent cations like K^+ (Gadd, 2007). When comparing the amount of Fe concerning the TPC, an inverse relationship is observed. Thus species-rich in total phenolic compounds are low in Fe, and conversely, Fe-rich mushrooms are low in TPC contents. On the other hand, the content of β -glucans is also affected inversely by the presence of Fe in mushrooms. Thus, in *A. caesarea* Fe is abundant and the β -glucan content is small in comparison to *S. calvatus*, in which case the β -glucan content has been higher but is low in Fe content. In (Kostic *et al.*, 2013) have demonstrated the inverse relationship between high Fe contents and low phenolic compounds in plants while also shows (Gursoy *et al.*, 2009) an inverse relationship between the amount of total phenolic compounds in *Morchella* samples concerning the Fe concentration. Esto es de todos los hongos de la tesis, no del articulo. Mn is useful for plants as a structural component of chloroplasts and in oxidation-reduction reactions. It is essential for biogeochemical processes in white rot fungi, as a cofactor of the lignin-degrading enzyme (Richardson, 2017). In the present research, *R. flava* present Mn in moderate content (36.2 mg/kg) despite the high concentration of 193.0 mg/kg in the soil, resulting in a low BAI_{Mn} for *R. flava* and is classified as hypoaccumulator of this metal. Species with high Mn content showed low total TPC contents, as well as β -glucans. Accordingly, it is possible to infer that the presence of this metal attenuates the existence of phenolic compounds and β -glucans. For *A. muscaria*, 24 mg/kg has been reported (Lipka and Falandysz, 2017). Mn in moderate amounts helps the human body in the proper function of vitamins B1 and E, the production of the hormone thyroxine, as well as the production of acetylcholine, a powerful neurotransmitter. Concerning the RTDI of the Mn, the *R. flava* species contributes 36%. Al is a metal present in the earth's crust with an abundance of 80,000 mg/kg in soils and papers have reported large range contents for several fungi species between 1500 - 50 mg/kg in fruiting bodies (Durkan *et al.*, 2011). In this work, the Al in *R. flava* was found at a concentration of 1762.9 mg/kg in dry weight (Table 4), while soil concentrations were found at 36476.2 mg/kg at two different points in Los Reyes, Acaxochitlán. The high Al content present in soils is notable as it comes from mineralogical sources (Acevedo *et al.*, 2010). The high presence of Al and Fe in the studied areas comes from the

geological formation of Atotonilco el Grande, constituted by basaltic rocks of the tertiary period, which through the passage of time have undergone processes of aggressive weathering given by the presence of clay and oxides of iron and aluminum (Acevedo *et al.*, 2010). On the other hand, the low BAI_{Al} calculated value allows being classified as hypoaccumulator. Al does not play any specific role in fungi that facilitated bioaccumulation. Notwithstanding the Al-hypoaccumulator character of *R. flava*, the high content of this element in edible mushrooms stands out.

The RTDI for this metal is 0.75 mg/kg bw/d (55 mg/d calculated for an adult) (INCHEM, 2016), and the ingestion of 300 g fresh mushroom (30 g dry mushroom) would contribute 56 % of the Al RTDI value. Therefore, daily intake of wild *R. flava* cropped in Al-rich soils is safe. The soils analyzed presented homogeneous Mg contents (543.09 ± 3.16 mg/kg dry soil) and *R. Flava* presents 577 ± 3 mg/kg dry mushroom (Table 4). A total content of 1250 mg/kg for this species has been reported recently, more than twice Mg as described here (Falandysz and Jarzyńska, 2017); and years ago, a similar but somewhat higher report of 702.5 mg/kg (Kishner *et al.*, 1982). The calculated BAI_{Mg} was 1.06, which shows the moderate Mg-hyperaccumulating nature of *R. flava*. The hyperaccumulating capacity of the mushrooms is notorious for the high content of fruiting bodies concerning the soils. The Mg uptake and bioaccumulation occur by the organic acids release (succinic and oxalic) that solubilize the calcium and magnesium carbonate present in limestone and dolomite soil, allowing their absorption as salts through the mycelial networks (Gadd, 2007). This bioaccumulating capacity is linked to the essential metabolic functions vital to the growth of the fungus as it functions as an essential element. All the mushrooms supply moderate Mg amounts to the Daily Intake. Considering the recommended RTDI for Mg, a fresh portion of 300g (30g dry *R. flava*) contributes by 4%. Although mushrooms are not sourced rich in Mg, they are considered valuable promoters of health because of their antioxidant properties and other essential minerals.

Among the metals studied, K was the most abundant. The concentration found in *R. flava* was 7632.2 mg/kg in dry weight. For fungi, values of 3,000 mg/kg K have been reported, as it is the case of *S. granulatu* (Gadd, 2007). However, this study found that *R. flava* has twice the amount reported. According to WHO, the intake for an adult should be 3600 mg/day, and 300 g of this mushroom can provide 7% of the total RTDI. In contrast to high values obtained here, a low content of 35.250 mg/kg was recently published (69) for *A. muscaria*. For K, the inverse relationship between concentration in fruiting bodies concerning the total content of

phenolic compounds, β -glucans and the reducing and inhibiting effect of the DPPH radical is quite impressive. It is widely known that fungi bioaccumulate K, and the highest BAI_k values have been reported for the genus *Amanita* (57.21), which had been attributed to mineral solubilization by the release of carboxylic acids from the mycelium (Falandysz and Jarzyńska, 2017). It has been discussed the observed relationship between the concentration of some metals such as Fe, Mn, Al and K with the antioxidant properties in species studied. We found an inverse relationship and some proportional relationship. NO SE HA MOSTRADO NINGUNA GRAFICA ES UN SOLO HONGO. *Extract characterization.* *R. flava* is an abundant species and allowed enough extract to carry out the chromatographic separation and purification of substances. A significant metabolite was isolated with AcOEt by column chromatography from the fractions 34-47 and further purified. A crystalline solid was isolated and characterized. The FTIR spectrum is shown in Figure 7. The main bands are assigned, such as 3432 cm^{-1} broadband corresponding to the -OH stretching, 3045 and 2954 cm^{-1} absorptions of the aromatic and aliphatic CH stretching, the 1630 cm^{-1} band of C=C stretching, some CH bending in the range 1400 to 1500 cm^{-1} and the C-O stretching at 1039 cm^{-1} . The spectrum is consistent with the ergosterol IR reported in the literature (Kishner *et al.*, 1982).

The ^1H NMR spectrum in CDCl_3 at r.t. of a sample of 22 mg crystalline solid isolated from column chromatography hexane:AcOEt (4:1) fractions 34-47 yielded the following signals: two CH_3 groups at δ 0.56 (H-18 3H, s) and δ 0.88 ppm (H-19, 3H, s) and four CH_3 at δ 0.76 (H-26, H-27); 0.85 (H-21) and 0.97 (H-28) (3H, d, $J = 6.6$ Hz, each). CH groups at δ 2.21 (H-4b, 1H, t, $J = 12.9$ Hz), 2.40 (H4a, 1H, ddd, $J = 14.2, 4.2$ and 2.6 Hz) and 3.57 (H3, 1H, m). Vinylic protons signals are at δ 5.13 (H-22, H-23, 2H, m); 5.50 (H-6, 1H, m) and 5.31 (H-7, 1H, m) (Figure 8). The assignments were compared with the ^1H NMR (Table 5) and ^{13}C (Table 6) spectroscopic data reported by (71), concluding the identity of the isolated compound as ergosterol, a secondary metabolite present in the *Ramaria flava* from Acaxochitlán, Hidalgo, Mexico.

The ^{13}C NMR spectrum in CDCl_3 confirm the ergosterol signals, assigned to the following carbons: six primary CH_3 groups at δ 12.1, 16.3, 17.6, 19.7 and 21.1 ppm for carbons C-18, C-19, C-28, C-26, C-27, and C-21, respectively. The quaternary carbons signals observed at δ 141.1, 139.8, corresponding to the C-5, C-8, and the alkene CH atoms at δ 135.6, 132.0, 119.6 and 116.3 assigned to C-22, C-23, C-6, and C-7 respectively (Figure 9).

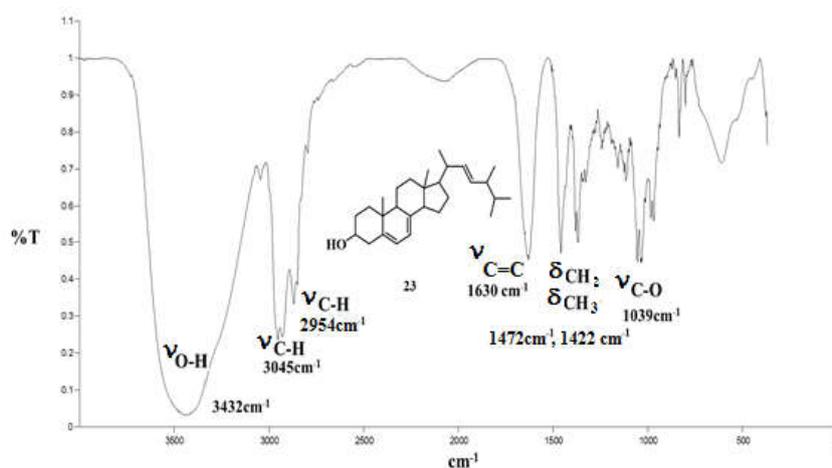


Figure 7. IR spectrum of the secondary metabolite isolated from fractions 34-47. Pancho hay que aumentar la resolución de esta imagen. le arreglé las asignaciones

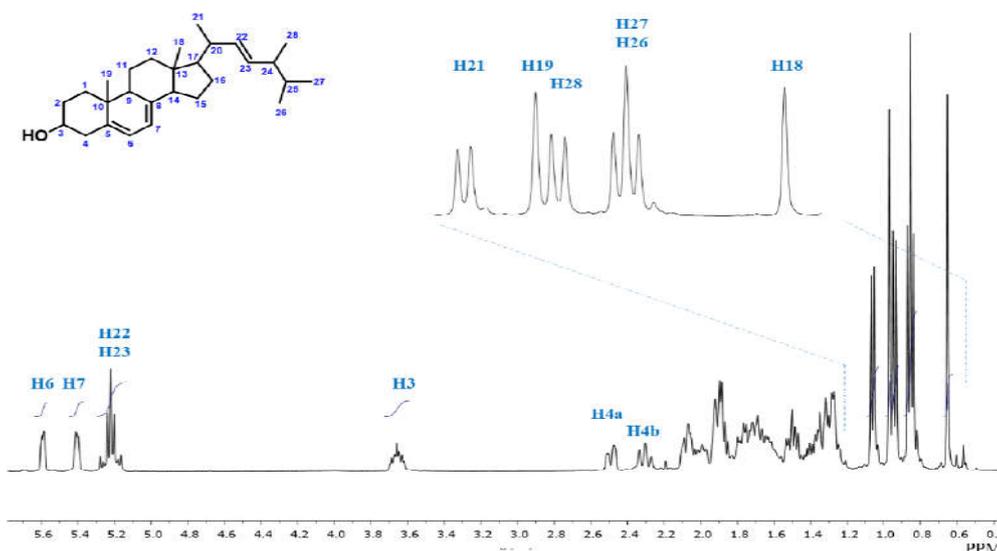
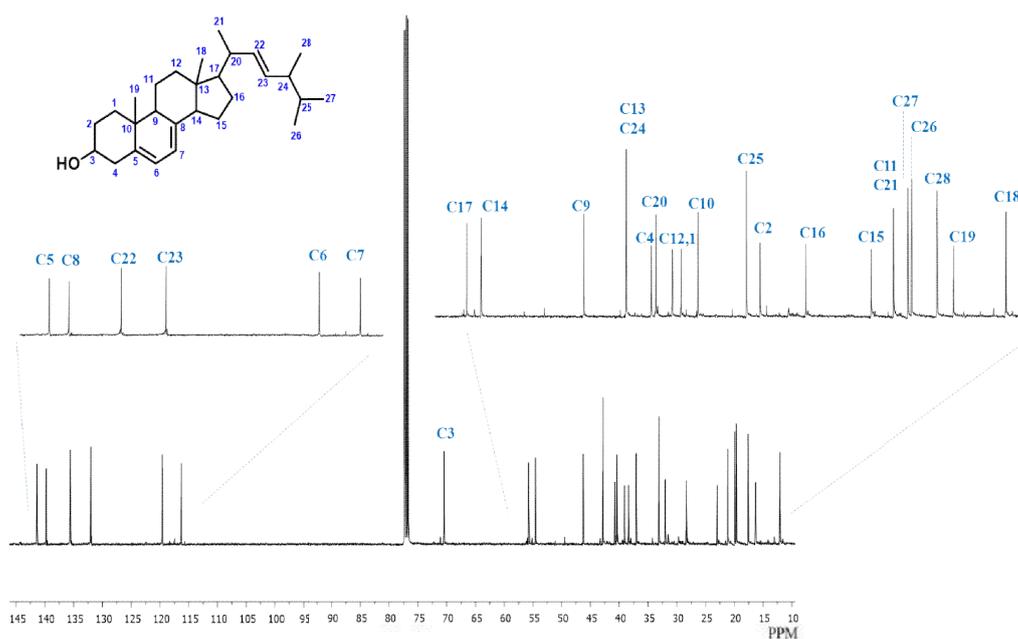


Figure 8. ^1H -NMR spectrum (CDCl_3) of the isolated metabolite at 400 MHz. Identified as ergosterol

Table 6. ^{13}C NMR chemical shifts (CDCl_3) for ergosterol (Carmen and Bacigalupo, 2012) and the isolated metabolite

Signal	(δ)ppm ^A	(δ)ppm ^B	Fragment Type
C-1	38.4	38.3	CH ₂
C-2	32	31.9	CH ₂
C-3	70.5	70.4	CH
C-4	40.8	40.7	CH ₂
C-5	141.1	141.3	C
C-6	119.6	119.6	CH
C-7	116.3	116.3	CH
C-8	139.8	139.7	C
C-9	46.3	46.2	CH
C-10	37	37	C
C-11	21.1	21.1	CH ₂
C-12	39.1	39.1	CH ₂
C-13	42.8	42.8	C
C-14	54.6	54.5	CH
C-15	23	23	CH ₂
C-16	28.3	28.2	CH ₂
C-17	55.8	55.7	CH
C-18	12.1	12	CH ₃
C-19	16.3	16.2	CH ₃
C-20	40.4	40.4	CH
C-21	21.1	21.1	CH ₃
C-22	135.6	135.5	CH
C-23	132	131.9	CH
C-24	42.8	42.8	CH
C-25	33.1	33	CH
C-26	19.6	19.6	CH ₃
C-27	20	19.9	CH ₃
C-28	17.6	17.6	CH ₃

a: Reported (71).b: This work. ^{13}C NMR spectrum at 100 MHz CDCl_3 Figure 9. ^{13}C NMR spectrum of (23) in 100 MHz CDCl_3 Table. ^1H NMR chemical shifts (CDCl_3) for ergosterol (71) and the isolated metabolite

Signal	(δ) ppm ^a	I ^a	M ^a	J (Hz) ^a	(δ) ppm ^b	I ^b	M ^b	J (Hz) ^b				
H-3a	3.57	1H	tt	11.2	4.2	3.63	1H	m				
H-4a	2.40	1H	ddd	14.3	4.2	2.7	2.47	1H	ddd	14.2	4.5	2.2
H-4b	2.21	1H	t	12.9			2.27	1H	t	11.9		
H-6	5.50	1H	d	3.7			5.57	1H	m			
H-7	5.31	1H	dd	2.7	2.7	2.7	5.37	1H	m			
H-18	0.56	3H	s				0.63	3H				
H-19	0.88	3H	d	-			0.94	3H	s			
H-21	0.85	3H	d	6.6			1.03	3H	d	6.6		
H-22	5.13	2H	m				5.19	2H	m			
H-26	0.76	6H	d	6.4			0.81	3H	d	6.6		
H-27												
H-28	0.97	3H	d	6.6			0.92	3H	d	6.8		

a: Reported (71).b: This work. ^1H NMR spectrum at 400 MHz CDCl_3 . I = Integral, M = Multiplicity.

Conclusion

The chemical and nutraceutical characteristics of the wild and edible species *Ramaria flava* are reported, concerning their antioxidant activities, total phenolic compounds, % DPPH radical inhibition, the % of Fe³⁺-reducing effect, ascorbic acid and total flavonoids contents. A study was carried out about the presence of essential, non-essential and toxic metals in the mushroom fruitbody related to the quality of the soil where they were collected. The metal Bioaccumulation Indices were calculated and reported in this paper. The soils quality in the study area where *R. flava* samples were collected was determined by chemical analyses, and high levels of Cu and Fe were observed, coincident with previous literature reports that classified the area as contaminated. A relation between the unexpected low content of gallic acid together with the high chlorogenic acid concentration and the high value of BAI_{Cu} determined for *R. flava* is proposed, based on the reported data.

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