

Review Article

Mushroom: a potent source of natural antiviral drugs

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Abstract: Emerging viral infections such as the zika virus, dengue virus, ebola virus, corona virus are afflicting millions of human populations worldwide. Therefore, the development of new treatments against emerging infectious diseases has become an urgent task. The availability of commercially viable, safe, and effective antiviral drugs still remains a big challenge. Mushrooms are considered as an untapped reservoir of several novel compounds of great value in industry and medicine. Although exploration, and exploitation of the therapeutic importance of fungal metabolites has started early with the discovery of penicillin, mushrooms's pharmacological potential has much less been investigated. This article briefly reviews the antiviral potentials of mushrooms to combat deadly disease outbreaks caused by emerging and re-emerging viruses. Altogether 69 mushroom species with potent antiviral agents and mode of action against prominent viruses such as human immunodeficiency virus, influenza, herpes simplex virus, hepatitis B and C viruses, corona viruses etc. are listed in this study. Further studies are encouraged to discover more novel potent antiviral agents or evaluate already known compounds from those mushrooms with clinical trials.

Keywords: bioactivity; COVID-19; fungi; metabolites; pandemic

सारांश: प्राचीन फिन्ते सिकारी युगदेखि अहिलेको आधुनिक युगसम्म आइपुग्दा मानवजातिले कैयौं सरुवा महामारीको सामना गर्दै अगाडी बढेको छ। यी मध्ये भाइरल संक्रमण सबभन्दा खतरनाक र प्रमुख विश्वव्यापी स्वास्थ्य समस्याहरू मध्येको एक हो। विगत सय वर्षमा मात्रै भाइरल संक्रमणले बारम्बार ठूलो मानवीय क्षति गर्नुको साथै विश्वव्यापीरूपमा गम्भीर आर्थिक संकट समेत सृजना गरेको छ। विश्व हाल कोभिड-१९को गम्भीर संकटबाट गुज्रिरहेको छ। फ्लू भाइरस, जिफा भाइरस, डेंगू भाइरस, इबोला भाइरस, कोरोना भाइरस जस्ता उदीयमान भाइरल संक्रमणले विश्वभरि करोडौं मानव जनसंख्यालाई पिरोलेको छ। त्यसकारण उदाउँदो भाइरसजन्य संक्रामक रोगहरूको विरुद्ध नयाँ उपचारको खोजी तथा विकास गर्नु अत्यन्त जरुरी छ। हालसम्म व्यावसायिक रूपमा धान्न सकिने, सुरक्षित र प्रभावकारी भाइरसप्रतिरोधी औषधीहरूको विकास हुन सकेको छैन। औषधी लगायत विभिन्न उद्योगहरूको लागि उपयोगि कैयौं नविन यौगिकहरूको लागि च्याउ अमूल्य भण्डारको रूपमा रहेको कुरा विभिन्न अध्ययनहरूबाट देखिएको छ। फन्गल मेटाबोलिड्सको चिकित्सीय महत्वको खोज तथा अनुसन्धान महत्वपूर्ण औषधी पेनिसिलिनको आविष्कार भएसँगै भएतापनि च्याउहरूको औषधीय सम्भावनाको खोज तथा अनुसन्धान अत्यन्तै न्यून रहेको पाइन्छ। यस लेखमा भाइरसजन्य संक्रामक घातक रोगहरूसँग लड्न च्याउहरूको भाइरसप्रतिरोधी क्षमताहरूको संक्षिप्तरूपमा समीक्षा गरिएको छ। यसमा ६९ च्याउ प्रजातिहरूमा पाइएका शक्तिशाली भाइरसप्रतिरोधी पदार्थहरू र प्रमुख भाइरसहरू जस्तै मानव इन्फ्लुएन्जा, इन्फ्लूएन्जा, हर्पेस सिम्प्लेक्स भाइरस, हेपेटाइटिस बी र सी भाइरस, कोरोनाभाइरस आदि विरुद्ध कार्य गर्ने तरिका सूचीबद्ध गरिएको छ। अध्ययनले च्याउमा थप नविन शक्तिशाली भाइरसप्रतिरोधी पदार्थहरू पत्ता लगाउन र च्याउहरूबाट पहिल्यै ज्ञात यौगिकहरूको थप मुल्याङ्कन एवं क्लिनिकल परीक्षण गर्न प्रोत्साहन गर्नेछ, भन्ने अपेक्षा गरिएको छ।

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1. Introduction

Viral diseases are brutal killers and one of the leading global health threats (Pour et al., 2019). In the past 100 years, viral infections have repeatedly caused millions of human casualties and economic chaos worldwide. The Spanish flu (1918-1919), an influenza pandemic, caused approximately 50 million deaths (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 2014), and HIV/AIDS took the lives of more than 35 million (CDC, 2020).

Although more recently emerging viral outbreaks such as severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) in 2003, H1N1 in 2009, Middle East respiratory syndrome (MERS) in 2012, Ebola in 2014, have had lower death tolls, however, they had a huge social and economic impact (Global Health Risk Framework for the Future [GHRF], 2016). Currently, the world is fighting with a novel Corona virus disease (COVID-19) pandemic. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), as of this

writing on May 9, 2020, 3 767 744 cases have been confirmed with 259 593 death tolls among 215 Countries, areas, or territories around the globe (WHO, 2020). No vaccines and drugs are available for prevention, prophylaxis, and treatment of corona virus infections in humans (Eurosurveillance Editorial Team, 2020). Therefore, to find new preventive and therapeutic agents against emerging infectious diseases has become an urgent task. Virus-specific vaccines and antiviral drugs are considered as the most powerful tools to combat infectious outbreak diseases. A new era of antiviral drug development has begun since the first antiviral drug, idoxuridine, was approved in June 1963 (De Clercq, 1997). A freely accessible database (<https://drugvirus.info/>) contains 120 approved, investigational and experimental safe-in-man broad-spectrum antiviral agents (BSAAs) which inhibit 86 human viruses, belonging to 25 viral families (Andersen et al., 2020). Almost all currently approved antiviral drugs are synthetic, produced by chemical synthesis. Recently great attention has paid to find novel, effective, and safe alternatives against viral diseases due to the rapid emergence of resistance, high costs, the related side effects, and cell toxicity of synthetic antiviral drugs (Farrar et al., 2007). There are several natural compounds that have already been identified as antiviral agents (Martins et al., 2016). About fifty percent of today's pharmaceutical drugs are derived from natural origin (Clark, 1996). In this regard, the discovery and production of antiviral metabolites from mushroom, a higher fungus, have emerged as part of an exciting field in viral therapeutic and antiviral drug development. This mini-review provides an insight into the mushrooms and their metabolites, explaining their potential role as major alternatives in the treatment of various viral infections.

2. Antiviral Research and Mushroom Taxonomy

Mushrooms produce a plethora of biologically active secondary metabolites, including a wide variety of clinically important drugs. Cochran was the first to report the antiviral substances in mushrooms (Goulet et al., 1960). The active research on antiviral drug development started only after the discovery of the first viral enzyme DNA-dependent RNA polymerase of poxvirus in 1967 (Kates, 1967). Since then, mushrooms became a hunting ground for novel drug leads. Secondary metabolites from fungi represent a substantial fraction of our current pharmaceuticals, including the most popular antibiotic penicillin, immunomodulatory agents as well as those used as cholesterol-lowering (Newman and Cragg, 2016). Accurate taxonomy is paramount for the exploitation of the numerous advantages an

organism offers, especially for pharmaceutical products (Raja et al., 2017). There is a serious issue of species identification in the mushroom antiviral research. In many studies, detailed information about the specimens is lacking (Linnakoski et al., 2018). Accurate species identification is a critical step to ensure the reproducibility of the work and can unlock important information regarding a species and its possible biochemical properties. Very few studies have included morphological and molecular methods both for species identification (Raja et al., 2017). The modern molecular technique reduces the challenges of inconspicuous nature, inconsistent morphology, and indiscrimination among fungal species often associated with the traditional method of nomenclature (Nilsson, 2011). A survey based on the fungal natural product articles published in the Journal of Natural Products during 2000-2015 reveals that ~31% provided fungal identification based solely on morphology; ~28% of them did not report any form of identification for the fungus from which secondary metabolites were isolated; 27% of the studies used molecular data only (mostly from the internal transcribed spacer (ITS) region) for fungal identification; and ~14% used a combination of morphology and molecular data (both rRNA and protein-coding genes) to identify fungi (Raja et al., 2017). This suggests that the proper taxonomic identification of fungi in natural product research need to be addressed more seriously.

Ganoderma lucidum is one of the most common mushrooms used in mushroom antiviral research. Most of the studies often cited *G. lucidum* as the species of the material. However, the exact delimitation of the species concept for *G. lucidum*, with a European type locality, has been difficult due to the lack of a holotype specimen (Steyaert, 1972). Based on molecular studies the industrially cultivated “Linghzi” and “Reishi” do not represent the *G. lucidum* s. str, but in fact, other species (Wang et al., 2009; Cao et al., 2012). Therefore, careful consideration is required when identifying such samples. In the advanced pharmacological exploitation of mushrooms, adoption of the recently suggested set of standard procedures and consultation of taxonomists for accurate species identification is paramount to avoid all kinds of taxonomical ambiguity.

3. Antiviral molecules of mushroom origin

After the discovery of the first wonder drug, Penicillin from filamentous fungi, much more attention has been carried out in therapeutic usage of fungus, especially from medicinal mushrooms. Medicinal mushrooms contain a wide range of various compounds, such as polysaccharides,

organic acids, lipids, steroids, tetracyclic triterpenes, and many others displaying antitumor, immune-stimulating, antibacterial, and antiviral effects which are of interest for medical applications. A large number of medicinal functions (>100) have been reported from mushrooms. More than 600 clinical trials with mushrooms on various health disorders have been performed, and approximately 15,000 patents associated with different aspects of mushrooms were issued (Wasser, 2017). From 2005, around 250–350 patents were registered each year for *Ganoderma lucidum* alone. Taiwanese scientists received more than 100 patents on one species from the genus *Antrodia* (Wasser, 2017). From this, it may be concluded that mushrooms are the most potent, natural immune force ever discovered, and hence it can be considered as a priceless asset for human welfare.

A wide range of antiviral agents has been reported from a number of mushroom species

(Table 1). Antiviral effects of mushroom have been reported in whole extracts and isolated molecules that can be from both fruiting bodies and mycelia. Antiviral agents in mushrooms can be divided into two major groups of molecules; the high-molecular weight compounds such as polysaccharides, proteins and lignin-derivatives from the fruiting bodies exhibiting their effect indirectly through immunostimulating activity, and the low-molecular weight compounds small organic molecules excreted by mushrooms in a liquid culturing (fermentation) setups that directly inhibit viral enzymes, synthesis of viral nucleic acids or adsorption and uptake of viruses into cells (Brandt and Piraino, 2000). The concentration and efficacy of bioactive compounds are varied and depend on the type of mushroom, substrate, fruiting conditions, stage of development, age of mushroom, and storage conditions (Guillamón et al., 2010).

Table 1. Mushroom species with antiviral agents against various viruses and mode of action

| Mushroom | Extract/Compound | Virus | Target/activity | Reference |
|---------------------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------|--|---------------------------------|
| <i>Agaricus blazei</i> | Extract | HBV | Supplement | Hsu et al. (2008) |
| | | HCV | NA | Johnson et al. (2009) |
| <i>Agaricus brasiliensis</i> | Extract | Polio | NA | Faccin et al. (2007) |
| | Polysaccharide | HSV-1 | Attachment/entry/ cell-to-cell spread | Cardozo et al. (2013) |
| | Polysaccharides | HSV-1, HSV-2 | NA | Cardozo et al. (2014) |
| <i>Agrocybe aegerita</i> | Lectin | Influenza virus | Adjuvant | Ma et al. (2017) |
| <i>Antrodia camphorata</i> | Polysaccharides | HBV | NA | Lee et al. (2002) |
| <i>Armillaria mellea</i> | Extract | VSV | NA | Kandfer-Szersze et al. (1980) |
| <i>Auricularia auricula</i> | Polysaccharides | NDV | NA | Nguyen et al. (2012) |
| <i>Auricularia polytricha</i> | Hexane extract fraction | HIV-1, CoVs | Protease inhibitors | Sillapachaiyaporn et al. (2019) |
| <i>Auriporia aurea</i> | NA | HSV | NA | Hjikata et al. (2007) |
| | Extract | H1N1 | NA | Krupodorova et al. (2014) |
| <i>Boletus edulis</i> | Extract, Polysachharide fraction | HSV-1 | NA | Santoyo et al. (2012) |
| | Extract | Vaccinia virus | NA | Kandfer-Szersze et al. (1980) |
| <i>Cerrena unicolor</i> | LAC | HHV-1, EMCV | NA | Mizerska-Dudka et al. (2015) |
| <i>Chondrostereum purpureum</i> | Extract | HIV-1 | RT | Mlinarič et al. (2005) |
| <i>Collybia maculata</i> | Purine derivatives | VSV | NA | Leonhardt et al. (1987) |
| <i>Coprinus comatus</i> | LAC | HIV-1 | RT | Zhao et al. (2014) |
| <i>Cordyceps militaris</i> | Adenosine | HIV-1, CoVs | Protease inhibitor | Jiang et al. (2011) |
| | Iso-sinensetin | HIV-1, CoVs | Protease inhibitor | Jiang et al. (2011) |
| | Hemagglutinin | HIV-1 | RT | Wong et al. (2009) |
| | Polysaccharide | influenza A virus | NA | Ohta et al. (2007) |
| <i>Cryptoporus volvatus</i> | Extract | H1N1, H3N2 | NA | Gao et al. (2014) |
| <i>Daedaleopsis confragosa</i> | Extract | H1N1, H3N2 | NA | Tepljakova et al. (2012) |
| <i>Datronia mollis</i> | Extract | H5N1, H3N2 | NA | Tepljakova et al. (2012) |
| <i>Elfvigia applanata</i> | Extract | VSV | Adsorption | Eo et al. (2001) |

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|-------------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------------|---|---|
| <i>Flammulina velutipes</i> | FIP-Fve Extract | HPV-16 H1N1 | Adjuvant NA | Ding et al. (2009) Krupodorova et al. (2014) |
| <i>Fomes fomentarius</i> | NA Extract | HSV H1N1 | NA NA | Hijikata et al. (2007) Krupodorova et al. (2014) |
| <i>Fomitella supina</i> | Extract | HIV-1 | Virion inactivation, inhibition of syncytium formation | Walder et al. (1995) |
| <i>Fuscoporia oblique</i> | Water-soluble lignin | HIV-1 | Protease inhibitor | Ichimura et al. (1998) |
| <i>Ganoderma colossus</i> | Ganomycin B | HIV-1, CoVs | Protease inhibitor | El Dine et al. (2008) |
| | Ganomycin I | HIV-1, CoVs | " | El Dine et al. (2008) |
| | Colossolactone A | HIV-1, CoVs | " | El Dine et al. (2008) |
| | Colossolactone E | HIV-1, CoVs | " | El Dine et al. (2008) |
| | Colossolactone G | HIV-1, CoVs | " | El Dine et al. (2008) |
| | Colossolactone V | HIV-1, CoVs | " | El Dine et al. (2008) |
| | Colossolactone VII | HIV-1, CoVs | " | El Dine et al. (2008) |
| | Colossolactone VIII | HIV-1, CoVs | " | El Dine et al. (2008) |
| | Lanostane triterpenes | HIV-1 | " | El Dine et al. (2008) |
| <i>Ganoderma lucidum</i> | Extract | HBV | NA | Li and Zhang (2005) |
| | Ganoderic acid | HBV | NA | Li and Wang (2006) |
| | Ganolucidic acid A | HIV-1, CoVs | Protease inhibitor | El-Mekkawy et al. (1998) |
| | Ganoderic acid B | HIV-1, CoVs | " | Martínez et al. (2019) |
| | Ganoderic acid C1 | HIV-1, CoVs | " | Martínez et al. (2019) |
| | Ganoderic acid β | HIV-1, CoVs | " | Martínez et al. (2019) |
| | Ganodermanondiol | HIV-1, CoVs | " | Martínez et al. (2019) |
| | Ganodermanontriol | HIV-1, CoVs | " | Martínez et al. (2019) |
| | Lucidumol B | HIV-1, CoVs | " | Martínez et al. (2019) |
| | GLPG | HSV-1, HSV-2 | " | Liu et al. (2004) |
| | APBP | HSV-1, HSV-2 | Entry/attachment | Eo et al. (2000) |
| | Extract | H1N1 | NA | Krupodorova et al. (2014) |
| | LAC | HIV-1 | NA | Wang and Ng (2006) |
| | Several triterpenoids | HIV | RT | Lindequist et al. (2005) |
| <i>Ganoderma pfeifferi</i> | Several compounds | HSV-1 | NA | Lindequist et al. (2015) |
| <i>Ganoderma sinnense</i> | Ganoderic acid GS-1 | HIV-1 | Protease inhibitor | Sato et al. (2009) |
| | Ganoderic acid GS-2 | HIV-1 | " | Sato et al. (2009) |
| | Ganoderic acid DM | HIV-1 | " | Sato et al. (2009) |
| | Ganoderic acid β | HIV-1 | " | Sato et al. (2009) |
| | Ganoderiol A | HIV-1 | " | Sato et al. (2009) |
| | Ganoderiol F | HIV-1 | " | Sato et al. (2009) |
| | Ganodermediol | HIV-1 | " | Sato et al. (2009) |
| | Ganodermanontriol | HIV-1 | " | Sato et al. (2009) |
| | Lucidumol A | HIV-1 | " | Sato et al. (2009) |
| | 20-hydroxylucidenic acid N | HIV-1 | " | Sato et al. (2009) |
| | 20(21)-dehydroxylucidenic acid N | HIV-1 | " | Sato et al. (2009) |
| <i>Grifola frondosa</i> | D-fraction Mycelia extract | HBV Enterovirus 71 | Combination Replication, RNA synthesis | Gu et al. (2007) Zhao et al. (2016) |
| | GFAHP | HSV-1 | NA | Gu et al. (2007) |
| <i>Hericium erinaceus</i> | LAC | HIV-1 | RT | Wang and Ng (2004a) |
| | Lectin | HIV-1 | RT | Li et al. (2010) |
| <i>Hohenbuehelia serotina</i> | Ribonuclease | HIV-1 | RT | Zhang et al. (2014) |
| <i>Hypsizygus marmoratus</i> | Sterols | EBV | NA | Akihisa et al. (2005) |
| | Marmorin | HIV-1 | RT | Wong et al. (2008) |
| <i>Inocybe umbrinella</i> | Lectin | HIV-1 | RT | Zhao et al. (2009) |
| <i>Inonotus hispidus</i> | Phenolic extracts | Influenza A, B | NA | Lindequist et al. (2005) |

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|----------------------------------|---|---------------------------|---|--|
| <i>Inonotus obliquus</i> | Polysaccharides | Feline H3N2, H5N6 | Viral Binding/absorption | Tian et al. (2016) |
| | NA | HSV | NA | Polkovnikova et al. (2014) |
| | Extract | HSV | Entry | Pan et al. (2013) |
| | NA | HIV-1 | NA | Shibnev et al. (2015) |
| <i>Ischnoderma benzoinum</i> | Extract | H5N1, H3N2 | NA | TePLYakova et al. (2012) |
| <i>Kuehneromyces mutabilis</i> | Extract | Influenza viruses A, B | NA | Mentel et al. (1994) |
| <i>Lactarius torminosus</i> | Extract | HSV-1, HSV-2, PP, VSV | NA | Amoros et al. (2008) |
| <i>Laetiporus sulphureus</i> | Extract | HIV-1 | RT | Mlinarič et al. (2005) |
| <i>Laricifomes officinalis</i> | Extract | H5N1, H3N2 | NA | TePLYakova et al. (2012) |
| <i>Lepista nuda</i> | Metalloprotease | HIV-1 | RT | Wu et al. (2011) |
| <i>Lentinus edodes</i> | Mycelia solid culture extract | HCV | Entry | Matsuhisa et al. (2015) |
| | JLS-S001 | HSV | Assembly/budding | Sarkar et al. (1993) |
| | Extract | H1N1 | NA | Krupodorova et al. (2014) |
| | Polycarboxylated water- solubilized lignin | HIV | Antigen expression | Suzuki et al. (1990) |
| | LAC | HIV-1 | RT | Sun et al. (2011) |
| | JLS-18 | Sendai virus | NA | Yamamoto et al. (1997) |
| <i>Lenzites betulina</i> | Extract | H5N1, H3N2 | NA | TePLYakova et al. (2012) |
| <i>Lignosus rhinocerus</i> | Heliantriol F | HIV-1, CoVs | Protease inhibitor | Sillapachaiyaporn and Chuchawankul (2019) |
| <i>Lyophyllum shimezi</i> | Extract | H1N1 | NA | Krupodorova et al. (2014) |
| <i>Macrocystidia cucumis</i> | NA | HSV-1 | NA | Saboulard et al. (1998) |
| <i>Omphalotus illudens</i> | Illudin S | HSV-1 | NA | Lehmann et al. (2003) |
| <i>Phellinus baumii</i> | Hispidin | H1N1, H5N1, H3N2 | NA | Hwang et al. (2015) |
| | Hypholomine B | H1N1, H5N1, H3N2 | NA | Hwang et al. (2015) |
| | Inoscavin A | H1N1, H5N1, H3N2 | NA | Hwang et al. (2015) |
| | Davallialactone | H1N1, H5N1, H3N2 | NA | Hwang et al. (2015) |
| | Phelligridin D | H1N1, H5N1, H3N2 | NA | Hwang et al. (2015) |
| <i>Phellinus igniarius</i> | Sesquiterpenoid | Influenza virus | NA | Song et al. (2014) |
| | Extract | Influenza virus | NA | Lee et al. (2013) |
| <i>Phellinus linteus</i> | Extract | Influenza | Adjuvant (cross protection) | Ichinohe et al. (2010) |
| <i>Phellinus pini</i> | Extract | CVB3 | plaque formation inhibition | Lee et al. (2009) |
| <i>Phellinus rhubarbarinus</i> | Extract | HIV-1 | Virion inactivation, inhibition of syncytium formation | Walder et al. (1995) |
| <i>Pholiota adipose</i> | Lectin | HIV-1 | RT | Zhang et al. (2009) |
| <i>Pleurotus abalonus</i> | LB-1b | HIV-1 | RT | Li et al. (2012) |
| <i>Pleurotus citrinopileatus</i> | Lectins | HIV-1 | RT | Li et al. (2008) |
| <i>Pleurotus eryngii</i> | Extract | H1N1 | NA | Krupodorova et al. (2014) |
| | LAC | HIV-1 | RT | Wang and Ng (2006) |
| <i>Pleurotus ostreatus</i> | LAC | HCV | NA | EL-Fakharany et al. (2010) |
| | Lectin | HBV | Adjuvant | Gao et al. (2013) |
| | Extract | H1N1 | NA | Krupodorova et al. (2014) |
| | NA | HSV | NA | Hijikata et al. (2007) |
| | Ubiquitin-like protein | HIV-1 | Protease | Wang and Ng (2000) |

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|-------------------------------|-----------------|--------------------------------------|--|-----------------------------|
| <i>Pleurotus tuber-regium</i> | Polysaccharides | HSV-1, HSV-2, RSV, Influenza A virus | Binding to the viral particles | Zhang et al. (2004) |
| <i>Poria cocos</i> | PCP-II | HBV | Adjuvant | Wu et al. (2016) |
| <i>Poria monticola</i> | Extract | HIV-1 | RT | Mlinarič et al. (2005) |
| <i>Poria vaillantii</i> | Extract | HIV-1 | RT | Mlinarič et al. (2005) |
| <i>Rozites caperata</i> | RC28 | HSV | NA | Gong et al. (2009) |
| | RC-183 | HSV-1, HSV-2 | NA | Piraino and Brandt 1999) |
| | RC28 | HSV-1 | NA | Yan et al. (2015) |
| <i>Russula delica</i> | Lectin | HIV-1 | RT | Zhao et al. (2010) |
| <i>Russula paludosa</i> | 4.5 kDa protein | HIV-1, CoVs | Protease inhibitor | Wang et al. (2007) |
| | SU2 | HIV-1 | RT | Wang et al. (2007) |
| <i>Schizophyllum commune</i> | Extract | H1N1 | NA | Krupodorova et al. (2014) |
| | Schizolysin | HIV-1 | RT | Han et al. (2010) |
| <i>Scleroderma citrinum</i> | Triterpenoid | HSV | NA | Kanokmedhakul et al. (2003) |
| <i>Trametes cubensis</i> | Extract | HIV-1 | Virion inactivation, inhibition of syncytium formation | Walder et al. (1995) |
| <i>Trametes gibbosa</i> | Extract | H5N1, H3N2 | | Teplyakova et al. (2012) |
| <i>Trametes versicolor</i> | Extract | H5N1, H3N2 | NA | Teplyakova et al. (2012) |
| | Extract | H1N1 | NA | Krupodorova et al. (2014) |
| | NA | HSV | NA | Hijikata et al. (2007) |
| <i>Trichaptum perrotteti</i> | Extract | HIV-1 | Virion inactivation, inhibition of syncytium formation | Walder et al. (1995) |
| <i>Tricholoma giganteum</i> | LAC | HIV-1 | RT | Wang and Ng (2004) |

*AIDS acquired immunodeficiency syndrome, APBP acidic protein-bound polysaccharide, c-EPL crude extract of endopolysaccharides, CMV cytomegalovirus, CoVs Corona viruses, CVB3 Coxsackievirus B3, EBV Epstein-Barr virus, EMCV encephalomyocarditis virus, FIP-Fve immunomodulatory protein, GLPG Ganoderma lucidum proteoglycan, GLTA Ganoderma lucidum triterpenoids Lanosta-7,9(11),24-trien-3-one,15;26-dihydroxy, HBV hepatitis B virus, HCV hepatitis C virus, HHV human herpesvirus, HIV human immunodeficiency virus, HPV human papillomavirus, HSV herpes simplex virus, HTLV human T-cell lymphotropic virus, JLS Water-soluble lignin-rich fraction, KS-2 extract from culture mycelia of *Lentinus edodes*, LB-1b a polysaccharide–protein complex, LAC laccase, NA not available, NDV Newcastle disease virus, PCP-II a new polysaccharide, PV poliovirus, RC a protein, RSV respiratory syncytial virus, RT Reverse transcriptase, SU2 a peptide, VSV vesicular stomatitis virus, VZV varicella zoster virus*

4. Challenges and Future Avenues

Humankind has repeatedly been facing the great threat of deadly disease outbreaks caused by emerging and re-emerging viruses such as the Nipah virus, Hendra virus, Hantavirus, Ebola virus, SARS, MERS, Zika, Influenza virus, Corona viruses. To combat these viruses efficient and safe antiviral drugs need to be developed. Mushrooms are a great source for novel pharmaceuticals invention. Modern drug discovery which has its roots in traditional medicine provides avenues to newer mycomolecules-based therapies (Paterson and Anderson, 2005). There are a large number of structurally diverse metabolites from numerous fungal species. Among them, more than 15 fungal

metabolites have already approved by the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) and some of these are still dominating the drug market. Currently, many fungal metabolites are at different stages of the drug development process (Aly et al., 2011).

On the other hand, only a small fraction of fungal species have been identified so far (Hawksworth and Lücking, 2017), and much less have been scientifically investigated for bioactive metabolites. As biological diversity implies chemical diversity, there is huge scope for finding many other potential drug lead through the exploration of new fungal species, their metabolites, and bioactivity. Ease of cultivation or culture of fungal species at a reasonable time and cost will be another big beneficial aspect of fungal metabolites. With an

efficient and enhanced capability through high throughput screening facility, which is currently lacking in most fungal diversity rich countries, the antiviral fungal metabolite exploration process can be speed up.

5. Conclusions

Mushrooms metabolites with great diversity and preapproved biocompatibility can be a potential source for new antiviral drug lead. Considering, the discovery of a very small fraction of fungal species and only few percent of these fungal metabolites are investigated for various viral diseases indicates an enormous potential for finding new fungal metabolites as drug leads with a novel mechanism of action. This needs an energetic endeavor toward exploration, identification, and exploitation of unknown fungal species and developing better culture methods for drug discovery. The majority of the investigations were limited to basic screening and no mechanism of action was established for active metabolites so far. To develop commercial antiviral drugs from mushrooms, in vivo and clinical studies are other aspects that should be exploited. In addition, the establishment of more and more sophisticated antiviral screening facilities will be very helpful and a big boost to future antiviral drug discovery research.

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