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Review Article

Mushroom: a potent source of natural antiviral drugs

Jay Kant Raut *

Bioresource Laboratory, Nepal Academy of Science & Technology, Khumaltar, Lalitpur, PO Box 3323, Nepal ORCID ID: 0000-0002-9484-1999, Tel: 9841300540

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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 फिरन्ते 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 मात्रे भाइरल संक्रमणले बारम्बार ठूलो मानवीय क्षित गर्नुको साथै विश्वव्यापीरुपमा गम्भीर आर्थिक संकट समेत सृजना गरेको छ । विश्व हाल कोभिड-१९को गम्भीर संकटबाट गुजिरहेको छ । प्लू भाइरस, जिका भाइरस, डेंगू भाइरस, इबोला भाइरस, कोरोना भाइरस जस्ता उदीयमान भाइरल संक्रमणले विश्वभिर करोडौं मानव जनसंख्यालाई पिरोलेको छ । त्यसकारण उदाउँदो भाइरसजन्य संक्रामक रोगहरूको बिरूद्ध नयाँ उपचारको खोजी तथा विकास गर्नु अत्यन्त जरुरी छ । हालसम्म व्यावसायिक रूपमा धान्न सिकने, सुरक्षित र प्रभावकारी भाइरसप्रतिरोधी औषधीहरूको विकास हुन सकेको छैन । औषधी लगायत विभिन्न उद्योगहरूको लागि उपयोगि कैयौं निवन यौगिकहरूको लागि च्याउ अमृत्य भण्डारको रूपमा रहेको कुरा विभिन्न अध्ययनहरूबाट देखिएको छ । फन्गल मेटाबोलिट्सको 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 संक्षिप्तरुपमा समीक्षा गिरएको छ । यसमा ६९ च्याउ प्रजातिहरूमा पाइएका शक्तिशाली भाइरसप्रतिरोधी पदार्थहरू र प्रमुख भाइरसहरू जस्तै मानव इम्युनोडेफिशियन्सी भाइरस, इन्फ्लएन्जा, हर्पेस सिम्प्लेक्स भाइरस, हेपेटाइटिस बी र सी भाइरस, कोरोनाभाइरस आदि विरूद्ध कार्य गर्ने तरीका सूचीबद्ध गरिएको छ । अध्ययनले च्याउमा थप निवन शक्तिशाली भाइरसप्रतिरोधी पदार्थहरू पत्ता लगाउन र च्याउहरूबाट पहिल्यै ज्ञात यौगिकहरूको थप मृत्याइन एवं क्लिनिकल परीक्षण गर्न प्रोत्साहन गर्नेछ भन्ने अपेक्षा गरिएको छ ।

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

^{*} Corresponding author, E-mail: raut_jk2000@yahoo.com; Tel.: +977-9841300540 © RECAST/TU

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 1997). A freely accessible database (https://drugvirus.info/) contains 120 approved, investigational and experimental safe-in-man broadspectrum 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 DNAdependent 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 popular antibiotic penicillin. immunomodulatory agents as well as those used as cholesterol-lowering (Newman and Cragg, 2016). Accurate taxonomy is paramount for exploitation of the numerous advantages an organism offers, especially for pharmaceutic 1 products (Raja et al., 2017). There is a serious issu 82

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 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, ganic 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

Agaricus blazei Extract HBV HCV Agaricus brasiliensis Extract Polio Polysaccharide Polio HSV-1 Polysaccharides HSV-1, HSV-2 Agrocybe aegerita Lectin Influenza virus Antrodia camphorata Polysaccharides HBV Armillaria mellea Extract VSV Auricularia auricula Polysaccharides NDV Auricularia polytricha Hexane extract fraction HIV-1, CoVs Auriporia aurea NA HSV Extract H1N1	Supplement NA NA Attachment/entry/ cell-to-cell spread NA	Hsu et al. (2008) Johnson et al. (2009) Faccin et al. (2007) Cardozo et al. (2013)
Polysaccharide HSV-1 Polysaccharides HSV-1, HSV-2 Agrocybe aegerita Lectin Influenza virus Antrodia camphorata Polysaccharides HBV Armillaria mellea Extract VSV Auricularia auricula Polysaccharides NDV Auricularia polytricha Hexane extract fraction HIV-1, CoVs Auriporia aurea NA HSV	Attachment/entry/ cell-to-cell spread	
Agrocybe aegerita Lectin Influenza virus Antrodia camphorata Polysaccharides HBV Armillaria mellea Extract VSV Auricularia auricula Polysaccharides NDV Auricularia polytricha Hexane extract fraction HIV-1, CoVs Auriporia aurea NA HSV		
Antrodia camphorata Polysaccharides HBV Armillaria mellea Extract VSV Auricularia auricula Polysaccharides NDV Auricularia polytricha Hexane extract fraction HIV-1, CoVs Auriporia aurea NA HSV		Cardozo et al. (2014)
Armillaria mellea Extract VSV Auricularia auricula Polysaccharides NDV Auricularia polytricha Hexane extract fraction HIV-1, CoVs Auriporia aurea NA HSV	Adjuvant	Ma et al. (2017)
Auricularia auriculaPolysaccharidesNDVAuricularia polytrichaHexane extract fractionHIV-1, CoVsAuriporia aureaNAHSV	NA	Lee et al. (2002)
Auricularia polytricha Hexane extract fraction HIV-1, CoVs Auriporia aurea NA HSV	NA	Kandefer-Szersze et al. (1980)
Auriporia aurea NA HSV	NA	Nguyen et al. (2012)
	Protease inhibitors	Sillapachaiyaporn et al. (2019)
	NA NA	Hijikata et al. (2007) Krupodorova et al. (2014)
Boletus edulis Extract, Polysachharide HSV-1 fraction	NA	Santoyo et al. (2012)
Extract Vaccinia virus Cerrena unicolor LAC HHV-1, EMCV	NA / NA	Kandefer-Szersze et al. (1980) Mizerska-Dudka et al. (2015)
Chondrostereum Extract HIV-1 purpureum	RT	Mlinarič et al. (2005)
Collybia maculata Purine derivatives VSV	NA	Leonhardt et al. (1987)
Coprinus comatus LAC HIV-1	RT	Zhao et al. (2014)
Cordyceps militaris Adenosine Iso-sinensetin HIV-1, CoVs Hemagglutinin HIV-1 Polysaccharide HIV-1, covs HiV-1 HIV-1	Protease inhibitor Protease inhibitor RT us NA	Jiang et al. (2011) Jiang et al. (2011) Wong et al. (2009) Ohta et al. (2007)
Cryptoporus volvatus Extract H1N1, H3N2	NA	Gao et al. (2014)
Daedaleopsis Extract H1N1, H3N2 confragosa	NA	Teplyakova et al. (2012)
Datronia mollis Extract H5N1, H3N2		
Elfvingia applanata Extract VSV	NA	Teplyakova et al. (2012)

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

Inonotus obliquus	Polysaccharides	Feline H3N2, H5N6	Viral Binding/absorption	Tian et al. (2016)
	NA	HSV	NA	Polkovnikova et al. (2014)
	Extract NA	HSV HIV-1	Entry	Pan et al. (2013) Shibnev et al. (2015)
	NA		NA	` ,
Ischnoderma benzoinum	Extract	H5N1, H3N2	NA	Teplyakova et al. (2012)
Kuehneromyces mutabilis	Extract	Influenza viruses	NA	Mentel et al. (1994)
Lactarius torminosus	Extract	A, B HSV-1, HSV-2, PP, VSV	NA	Amoros et al. (2008)
Laetiporus sulphureus	Extract	HIV-1	RT	Mlinarič et al. (2005)
Laricifomes officinalis	Extract	H5N1, H3N2	NA	Teplyakova et al. (2012)
Lepista nuda	Metalloprotease	HIV-1	RT	Wu et al. (2011)
Lentinus edodes	Mycelia solid culture	HCV	Entry	Matsuhisa et al. (2015)
	extract JLS-S001	HSV	A combly/bydding	Sarkar et al. (1993)
	Extract	H1N1	Assembly/budding NA	Krupodorova et al. (2014)
	Polycarboxylated water-	HIV	Antigen expression	Suzuki et al. (1990)
	solubilized lignin LAC	HIV-1	RT	Sun et al. (2011)
	JLS-18	Sendai virus	NA	Yamamoto et al. (1997)
Lenzites betulina	Extract	H5N1, H3N2	NA	Teplyakova et al. (2012)
Lignosus rhinocerus	Heliantriol F	HIV-1, CoVs	Protease inhibitor	Sillapachaiyaporn and
Lignosus minocerus	Tichantiloi i	111 v-1, CO v s	1 locase minotor	Chuchawankul (2019)
Lyophyllum shimezi	Extract	H1N1	NA	Krupodorova et al. (2014)
Macrocystidia	NA	HSV-1	NA	Saboulard et al. (1998)
cucumis Omphalotus illudens	Illudin S	HSV-1	NA	Lehmann et al. (2003)
Phellinus baumii	Hispidin	H1N1, H5N1,	NA	Hwang et al. (2015)
T Hellining Gallinin	•	H3N2		11ang et an (2010)
	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)
Phellinus igniarius	Sesquiterpenoid	Influenza virus	NA	Song et al. (2014)
	Extract	Influenza virus	NA	Lee et al. (2013)
Phellinus linteus	Extract	Influenza	Adjuvant (cross	Ichinohe et al. (2010)
Phellinus pini	Extract	CVB3	protection) plaque formation inhibition	Lee et al. (2009)
Phellinus rhabarbarinus	Extract	HIV-1	Virion inactivation, inhibition of syncytium	Walder et al. (1995)
Pholiota adipose	Lectin	HIV-1	formation RT	Zhang et al. (2009)
Pleurotus abalonus	LB-1b	HIV-1	RT	Li et al. (2012)
Pleurotus	Lectins	HIV-1	RT	
citrinopileatus	Lecuits	111 ¥ -1	IX I	Li et al. (2008)
Pleurotus eryngii	Extract LAC	H1N1 HIV-1	NA RT	Krupodorova et al. (2014) Wang and Ng (2006)
Pleurotus ostreatus	LAC	HCV	NA	EL-Fakharany et al. (2010)
	Lectin	HBV	Adjuvant	Gao et al. (2013)
	Extract NA	H1N1 HSV	NA NA	Krupodorova et al. (2014) Hijikata et al. (2007)
	Ubiquitin-like protein	HIV-1	Protease	Wang and Ng (2000)

Pleurotus tuber- regium	Polysaccharides	HSV-1, HSV-2, RSV, Influenza A virus	Binding to the viral particles	Zhang et al. (2004)
Poria cocos	PCP-II	HBV	Adjuvant	Wu et al. (2016)
Poria monticola	Extract	HIV-1	RT	Mlinarič et al. (2005)
Poria vaillanti	Extract	HIV-1	RT	Mlinarič et al. (2005)
Rozites caperata	RC28 RC-183 RC28	HSV HSV-1, HSV-2 HSV-1	NA NA NA	Gong et al. (2009) Piraino and Brandt 1999) Yan et al. (2015)
Russula delica	Lectin	HIV-1	RT	Zhao et al. (2010)
Russula paludosa	4.5 kDa protein SU2	HIV-1, CoVs HIV-1	Protease inhibitor RT	Wang et al. (2007) Wang et al. (2007)
Schizophyllum commune	Extract Schizolysin	H1N1 HIV-1	NA RT	Krupodorova et al. (2014) Han et al. (2010)
Scleroderma citrinum	Triterpenoid	HSV	NA	Kanokmedhakul et al. (2003)
Trametes cubensis	Extract	HIV-1	Virion inactivation, inhibition of syncytium formation	Walder et al. (1995)
Trametes gibbosa	Extract	H5N1, H3N2	10111111111	Teplyakova et al. (2012)
Trametes versicolor	Extract Extract NA	H5N1, H3N2 H1N1 HSV	NA NA NA	Teplyakova et al. (2012) Krupodorova et al. (2014) Hijikata et al. (2007)
Trichaptum perrottetti	Extract	HIV-1	Virion inactivation, inhibition of syncytium formation	Walder et al. (1995)
Tricholoma giganteum	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 provides medicine 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 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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