

# Medicinal mushrooms in supportive cancer therapies: an approach to anti-cancer effects and putative mechanisms of action

Dilani D. De Silva · Sylvie Rapior · Françoise Fons ·  
Ali H. Bahkali · Kevin D. Hyde

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**Abstract** Medicinal mushrooms have been valued as natural sources of bioactive compounds since times immemorial and have been recognized as potential immunomodulating and anti-cancer agents. Their consumption has consistently been shown to have beneficial effects on human health. Cancer is a generic term for several types of diseases that can be chronic and are responsible for a large number of deaths worldwide. Although there has been considerable progress in modern cancer therapy research, difficulties in

understanding the molecular behavior of various types of cancers and the numerous side effects experienced by patients from treatments means that this whole subject area is still problematic. Thus, biological immunotherapy using natural bioactive compounds as supportive treatments in conventional cancer therapies has become in vogue. Bioactive metabolites isolated from medicinal mushrooms have shown potential successes in cancer treatment as biological immunotherapeutic agents that stimulate the immune system against cancer cells. They also act as an effective source of anti-cancer agents, capable of interfering with cellular signal transduction pathways linked to cancer development and progression. In this review we compile available data on the characteristics of medicinal mushrooms that appear to be particularly effective as biological immunotherapeutic agents. Major consideration is given to biological constituents and the putative mechanisms of action by which bioactive compounds act on the human body. Consideration is also given to the benefits that have been claimed for the use of mushrooms in treating cancer and the future prospects of using medicinal mushrooms as potent supportive candidate bioagents for treatment of cancers is discussed.

D. D. De Silva · K. D. Hyde (✉)  
Institute of Excellence in Fungal Research,  
Mae Fah Luang University,  
333 M.1 T. Tasud Muang District,  
Chiang Rai 57100, Thailand  
e-mail: kdhyde3@gmail.com

D. D. De Silva  
e-mail: desilvadilani9@gmail.com

D. D. De Silva · K. D. Hyde  
School of Science, Mae Fah Luang University,  
333 M.1 T. Tasud Muang District,  
Chiang Rai 57100, Thailand

D. D. De Silva  
Department of Botany, Faculty of Science,  
University of Peradeniya,  
Peradeniya 20500, Sri Lanka

S. Rapior · F. Fons  
Faculty of Pharmacy, University Montpellier 1, UMR 5175 CEFE,  
BP 14491, 15, avenue Charles-Flahault,  
34093, Montpellier Cedex 5, France

S. Rapior  
e-mail: sylvie.rapior@univ-montp1.fr

A. H. Bahkali · K. D. Hyde  
Botany and Microbiology Department, College of Science,  
King Saud University,  
Riyadh 11442, Saudi Arabia

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## Introduction

It is thought that the consumption of medicinal mushrooms can be beneficial to humans through their ability to cure various diseases (Ying et al. 1987; Hobbs 1995; Francia et al. 1999, 2007; Rapior et al. 2000; Didukh et al. 2003; Ferreira et al. 2010). Medicinal mushrooms have been used as natural products for centuries in traditional therapies for

the treatment of many diseases. There is renewed interest in using mushrooms in traditional medicines and in establishing their medicinal properties (Ying et al. 1987; Hobbs 1995; Chang and Mshigeni 2000; Samorini 2001; Lindequist et al. 2010). Species of medicinal mushrooms have a long history of use in disease treatment in folk medicines, especially in countries such as China, India, Japan and Korea (Hobbs 1995, 2000, 2004, 2005; Chang 1999; Mizuno 1999a, b; Reshetnikov et al. 2001; Ajith and Janardhanan 2007). The primary taxa traditionally used in these countries are *Cordyceps* spp., *Fomes fomentarius*, *Fomitopsis officinalis*, *Ganoderma lucidum*, *Grifola frondosa*, *Inonotus obliquus*, *Lentinula edodes* and *Piptoporus betulinus* (Table 1) (Hobbs 1995; Zhu et al. 1998a, b; Mizuno 1999a, b; Rapior et al. 2000; Mayell 2001; Pöder 2005).

The kingdom Fungi is regarded as one of the most diverse groups of organisms, second only to insects and generally recognised as comprising of 1.5 million species classified in five different phyla; numerous species are thought to be still undiscovered (Hyde 2001). A recent estimate even suggested that there may be over 5 million species (Blackwell 2011). Mushrooms are generally considered to be the spore-bearing fruiting body of higher fungi (or macrofungi) and most belong to the Basidiomycota. These along with some Ascomycota are used in traditional medicine for treatment of diseases (Chang and Miles 1992; Wasser and Weis 1999b; Miles and Chang 1997; Moradali et al. 2007; Ferreira et al. 2010).

Chronic diseases have become a growing burden throughout the world (Strong et al. 2005; Beaglehole and Horton 2010; WHO 2011). Chronic diseases are conditions that persist for a year or more and result in lifelong disability (limit the activities associated with daily living), thus causing a decreased quality of life (WHO 2008; CDC 2011). They require ongoing medical attention. Several chronic diseases such as heart disease, stroke, various cancers, chronic respiratory diseases and diabetes, are by far the

leading cause of mortality in the world (CDC 2011; Moullec et al. 2011; Ninot et al. 2011; WHO 2011). Some mushroom extracts have been shown to have promising effects on cardiovascular diseases, cancers, diabetes and many other diseases as well as having anti-viral, anti-bacterial, anti-parasitic, anti-inflammatory, nephroprotective, neuroprotective and hepatoprotective effects (Wasser and Weis 1999a; Poucheret et al. 2006; Chen and Seviour 2007; Francia et al. 2007; Guillamón et al. 2010; Wasser 2011).

Cancer is a broad term that encompasses a complex group of more than 100 different types of cancerous diseases that can develop in the body. Most of these can be considered as chronic diseases, which represent one of the main health problems of mankind in the 21st century and have become the leading cause of death around the world (Stewart et al. 2003; WHO 2004, 2011). The estimates reported by WHO indicate that 84 million people will die of cancer between 2005 and 2015 if the disease is untreated (CDC 2011; WHO 2011). In the United States, cancer is the second most common cause of death among children between the years of 1 and 14 (Jemal et al. 2009). Leukemia (particularly acute lymphocytic leukemia) is the most common cancer causing death in these children, followed by cancer of the brain and other parts of the nervous system (Jemal et al. 2009). As a chronic disease may cause death or have long lasting effects throughout the lifetime of an individual, finding a cure for cancer is a major challenge faced by the whole world in this century.

Today, conventional cancer therapies mainly consist of surgery, chemotherapy and radiation therapy, depending on the type of cancer and the stage of tumor development inside the body (Gibbs 2000; Chan et al. 2009; ACS 2011). The major problem arising from these treatments, especially radiotherapy and chemotherapy, are that they invariably result in damage or weakening of the patient's natural immunological defenses (which may already have been damaged by the cancer itself) and numerous side

**Table 1** Traditionally used mushroom species

Scientific name	Common name	Chinese name	Japanese name
<i>Cordyceps</i> spp.	Caterpillar fungi	Summer-grass winter-worm (congcao)	Tochukaso
<i>Fomes fomentarius</i>	Tinder fungus	Mu ti ceng kong jun	Tsuriganetake
<i>Fomitopsis officinalis</i> ( <i>Laricifomes officinalis</i> )	Wood conk or Agaricon	Ku bai ti	Tsugarunokosikake
<i>Ganoderma lucidum sensu lato</i>	Ling zhi	Ling zhi or reishi	Saruno koshikake Mannentake
<i>Grifola frondosa</i>	Hen of the woods, Dancing mushroom	Hui Shu Hua	Maitake
<i>Inonotus obliquus</i>	Chaga, Cinderconk, Clinker fungus, Kabanoanatake	Bai Hua Rong	
<i>Lentinula edodes</i>	Shiitake, huagu, snake butter,	Xiang gu	Shiitake
<i>Piptoporus betulinus</i>	Birch polypore	Hua bo guan jun	Kanbatake

effects, causing serious damage and suffering to the patient (Devereux et al. 1997; Ratain and Relling 2001; Ehrke 2003; Maduro et al. 2003; Anon 2011).

Curing cancers has now focused on improving the patient's quality of life by modifying the host's biological response against the malignant invasion. As a supportive help to the treatments mentioned above, biological immunotherapy (sometimes called immunotherapy, biotherapy, or biological response modifier therapy) is now gaining more attention, since it considerably reduces the side effects and helps to overcome cancer growth (Leung et al. 2006; NCI 2006). This is a relatively new addition to the family of cancer treatments that includes conventional therapies mentioned above. Biological therapies use the body's immune system, either directly or indirectly, to fight cancer or to lessen the side effects that may be caused by some cancer treatments (Ehrke 2003; Auerbach 2006; NCI 2006; Kakimi et al. 2009).

There are many forms of biological immunotherapeutic agents, such as monoclonal anti-bodies, cancer vaccines, interferons, interleukins, colony-stimulating factors, gene therapy, and nonspecific immunomodulating agents (NCI 2006). Based on Asiatic ancestral knowledge, medicinal mushrooms are receiving more attention due to their immune-enhancing and stimulatory activities inside the human body (Kodama et al. 2005; Endo et al. 2010; Ferreira et al. 2010). Many mushroom-derived extracts are therefore recognized as immunomodulators or as biological response modifiers (BRMs) (Mizuno 1999a, b; Wasser and Weis 1999a, b; Wasser 2002; Leung et al. 2006; Zhang et al. 2007; Novak and Vetvicka 2009). In particular, medicinal mushrooms not only act as strong immunostimulators but also as a source of good anti-cancer agents, capable of interfering with particular cellular signal transduction pathways linked to cancer development and progression (Zaidman et al. 2005; Petrova et al. 2008; Kudugunti et al. 2010). Currently, more than 30 species of scientifically identified medicinal mushrooms have demonstrated anti-tumor activity in experimental studies (Wasser 2011).

In this review we discuss the biological nature of cancer and how medicinal mushrooms (also referred to as macro-mycetes) act as immunomodulatory agents. We identify the unique characteristics of medicinal mushrooms that qualify them for immunostimulation and anti-cancer effects and propose several fields of cancer therapy in which the use of mushrooms appears to be particularly effective. Major consideration is given to biological constituents and the hypothesized mechanisms of action by which bioactive compounds act on the human body. Finally, we explore the available nutraceutical and anti-cancer drugs with possible anti-cancer benefits and discuss the future perspectives of medicinal mushrooms as a potent supportive candidate for treatment of cancers. As a note of caution we must state

that there are many medicinal mushroom products on the market that claim to have anti-cancer benefits, but in most cases these claims have not been verified. Therefore, the purpose of this review is to bring together the available scientific data relevant to the anti-cancer effects of consuming medicinal mushrooms and their products so that the reader can make a balanced judgment as to whether they might be effective. We do not claim at any stage of this review that consumption of medicinal mushrooms or their products can cure cancer.

### Basic mechanisms of cancers

In general, cancer is an abnormal growth of cells that tend to proliferate in an uncontrolled way and, in some cases, to metastasize or spread (Borchers et al. 2004; Zaidman et al. 2005; Ruddon 2007; NCI 2011). Uncontrolled cell proliferation can be induced by many factors (biotic and abiotic), including chemical, physical, or biological agents (Anand et al. 2008; NCI 2011; WHO 2011).

The early stage of a cancer can be referred to as a neoplasm, an abnormal mass of tissue which results due to the autonomous (abnormal proliferation) growth of cells (Nowell 1986; Franks 1997; Ruddon 2007). The growth of neoplastic cells exceeds and is not coordinated with the normal tissues around it. Most neoplasms develop due to the clonal expansion of a single cell that has undergone neoplastic transformation. The transformation of a normal cell to a neoplastic cell can be caused by environmental chemicals, viruses, bacteria, hormones, and chronic inflammations that directly and irreversibly alter the cell genome (Franks 1997; Anand et al. 2008). This usually results in a lump or tumor. Neoplasms can be further classified into benign, potentially malignant (pre-cancer), or malignant (cancer) (Zaidman et al. 2005).

Cancer is a generic term for malignant neoplasms and three major developmental stages are often recognized (Feinberg et al. 2006). The first is initiation, in which a mutagen binds to the cell DNA and causes damage, which is insufficient to induce tumor production. The second stage is activation of a tumor promoter that causes the formation of small benign tumors (pre-cancer). Finally, in the third stage, progression, the normal genomic control over the cell cycle stops, resulting in uncontrolled cell proliferation (Nowell 1986; Borchers et al. 2004).

Neoplastic cells are characterized by the loss of some specialized functions and the acquisition of new biological properties (Fidler 1978; Franks 1997; Zaidman et al. 2005). They are usually less differentiated than normal cells and contain invading cells, which can multiply in the absence of growth-promoting factors required for proliferation of normal cells. Cancer cells are resistant to signals normally

causing programmed cell death (apoptosis). Cancer cells have limitless replicative potential, sustained angiogenesis (new blood vessel formation), and tissue invasion and metastasis (Fidler 1978). Neoplastic cells pass on their heritable biological characteristics to progeny cells (Abercrombie and Ambrose 1962; Nowell 1986; Anon 2010).

As noted above, cancer is a generic term for several types of diseases that may occur in different parts or organs of the human body (NCI 2011). Although there are many therapeutic techniques available in modern medicine to control or remove cancers, nearly all of them exert some kind of a side effect that affects the patient in long term (Kumar et al. 2005; ACS 2011).

Biologically active metabolites found in medicinal mushrooms may provide anti-cancer action with a minimum of side effects. Most of them activate natural immune responses of the host and therefore possibly can be used as supportive treatments for cancer prevention along with conventional therapies (Gao et al. 2004; Hyodo et al. 2005). Tables 2 and 3 provide information on some of the commonly used species of mushrooms with their reported bioactive metabolites claimed to be beneficial in cancer treatments.

### Major bioactive compounds in medicinal mushrooms

Medicinal mushrooms have shown therapeutic action against the development of cancer cells, primarily because they contain a number of biologically active compounds (Bao et al. 2001a; Petrova et al. 2005; Moradali et al. 2007; Zhang et al. 2007; Lee and Hong 2011). This includes mainly high molecular weight compounds such as polysaccharides, proteins and lipids as well as a number of low molecular weight metabolites such as lectins, lactones, terpenoids, alkaloids, sterols and phenolic substances (Kidd 2000; Chan et al. 2009; Zhong and Xiao 2009). These substances have their origins as derivatives from many intermediates in the pathways involved in primary metabolism. Medicinal mushroom metabolites can therefore broadly be divided into two groups: (1) high molecular weight metabolites and (2) low molecular weight metabolites.

In the natural environment, fungi acquire nutrients from the surrounding substrata via the vegetative hyphae of the mycelium (Griffin 1994; Selosse 2000). This is used to acquire the energy required to maintain their primary metabolism (Isaac 1997). However, under adverse environmental conditions where nutrient depletion occurs, growth of the fungus slows down and parts of the mycelium switch to using various biochemical pathways (Isaac 1997). Primary metabolites that have accumulated in the fungus are converted to different products (known as secondary metabolites) which are not normally produced during the active growth and are not essential for normal

vegetative proliferation (Mizuno et al. 1995b; Zjawiony 2004; Erkel and Anke 2008; Zhong and Xiao 2009).

Most of these fungal-derived constituents are important as bioactive metabolites that may be active against diseases such as cancer. Fungal bioactive metabolites provide their immunomodulating activity mainly through the activation of the natural immune system of the body of the host by interfering with several signal transduction pathways linked to cancer development (Zhang et al. 2007). It has been recognized that exceptional/abnormal gene expression is the fundamental cause of many diseases, including cancer (Jones and Baylin 2007; Ruddon 2007). Modulation of the intracellular signal transduction pathways and the activation of transcription factors regulating gene expression and many other cell mediated pathways have become novel therapeutic targets for such disorders (Clarke et al. 2001). Important pathways involved in cancer development are the nuclear factor-kappa B (NF- $\kappa$ B) pathway, mitogen activated protein kinase pathway (MAPK), AMP-activated kinase pathway, protein inhibitory pathways and many more others (Nakamura et al. 2003; Kumar et al. 2004; Zaidman et al. 2005; Tergaonkar 2006; Petrova et al. 2008; Wong et al. 2010a, b). Significantly, modulation of the nuclear factor-kappa B (NF- $\kappa$ B) pathway is crucial in cancer development as it induces the expression of genes coding for antigen receptors on immune cells, anti-apoptotic factors, cell adhesion molecules, pro-inflammatory cytokines or chemo attractants and angiogenesis factors for inflammatory cells (Kumar et al. 2004).

### High molecular weight bioactive metabolites

In this review we refer to the high molecular weight compounds found in medicinal mushrooms that are mainly polysaccharides, polysaccharide-protein complexes/glycoconjugates (glycoproteins, glycopeptides, proteoglycans) and proteins which are produced through primary metabolism and essential for their continuous growth and biomass production (Isaac 1997; Wasser 2002; Moradali et al. 2007; Erkel and Anke 2008). These metabolites are integral constituents of the fungal fruiting body as well as the mycelium.

### Polysaccharides ( $\beta$ -glucans)

Polysaccharides (carbohydrates), belonging to structurally diverse classes of macromolecules, are polymers that can be found abundantly in the cell walls of macrofungi. They are composed of various chemical compositions, including  $\beta$ -glucans (Mizuno et al. 1992, 1995a, b), hetero- $\beta$ -glucans, glycans and heteroglycans (Gao et al. 1996), with immunomodulating and anti-tumor properties. Glucans are

**Table 2** High molecular weight bioactive compounds of medicinal mushrooms which show anti-cancer effects

Mushroom species	Bioactive compounds (and common name)	References
<i>Agaricus subrufescens</i> ( <i>A. blazei</i> Murrill <i>A. brasiliensis</i> )	Glucans $\beta$ -(1→6)-D-polyglucose	Oshiman et al. 2002
<i>Agrocybe cylindracea</i>	$\alpha$ -(1→3)-D-glucan	Yoshida et al. 1996
<i>Armillaria tabescens</i>	$\alpha$ -(1→6)-D-glucan	Luo et al. 2008
<i>Auricularia polytricha</i>	(1→3)-linked- $\beta$ -D glucopyranosyl (1→3, 6)-linked- $\beta$ -D-glucopyranosyl	Song and Du 2010
<i>Calvatia caelata</i> ( <i>Lycoperdon utrifforme</i> )	Peptides Calcaelin (protein)	Lam et al. 2001 Ng et al. 2003
<i>Cordyceps sinensis</i> ( <i>Ophiocordyceps sinensis</i> )	Polysaccharides $\beta$ -(1→3;1→4)-glucan	Sheng et al. 2011 Zhang et al. 2008
<i>Clitocybe nebularis</i>	Ricin B-like lectin	Pohleven et al. 2009
<i>Cryptoporus volvatus</i>	$\beta$ -(1→3)-glucan	Kitamura et al. 1994
<i>Flammulina velutipes</i>	FIP-fve immunomodulatory protein	Ko et al. 1995
<i>Ganoderma lipitense</i> ( <i>G. applanatum</i> )	Exo polysaccharides, glucans	Lee et al. 2007a Usui et al. 1983
<i>Ganoderma lucidum sensu lato</i>	Ganopoly $\beta$ -(1→3;1→6)-glucan <i>Ganoderma</i> polysaccharides LZ- 8 Immunomodulatory protein GSG ( <i>G. lucidum</i> spores glucan)	Paterson 2006 Gao et al. 2003 Lin et al. 2009 Guo et al. 2009
<i>Ganoderma sinensis</i>	FIP-gsi immunomodulatory protein	Li et al. 2010a
<i>Ganoderma tsugae</i>	FIP-gts immunomodulatory protein	Hsiao et al. 2008
<i>Grifola frondosa</i>	Maitake D-Fraction $\beta$ -(1→3;1→6)-glucans with xylose and mannose	Matsui et al. 2001
<i>Hericium erinaceus</i>	Xylan, glucoxytan, $\beta$ -glucans	Kim et al. 2011 Lee and Hong 2010
<i>Hypsizygus marmoreus</i>	Hypsin proteins	Lam and Ng 2001
<i>Inonotus obliquus</i>	Endo-polysaccharide $\alpha$ -linked fucoglucomanan	Kim et al. 2006 Mizuno et al. 1999
<i>Lentinula edodes</i>	Lentinan $\beta$ -(1→3;1→6)-glucan Chain of (1→4), (1→3) glucanose residues with side chains of (1→4) glucanose	Zhang et al. 2011 Yu et al. 2010
<i>Lentinus polychrous</i>	Polysaccharides	Thetsrimuang et al. 2011
<i>Lentinus strigellus</i>	Polysaccharides	Lin et al. 2004
<i>Leucopaxillus giganteus</i>	Galactomannoglucans	Mizuno et al. 1995a, b
<i>Phellinus linteus</i>	Proteoglycan (Protein-bound polysaccharides) mixed $\alpha$ / $\beta$ -linkages and $\alpha$ -(1→6)-branched type (1→3)-glycans	Kim et al. 2003a Kim et al. 2003b Tsuji et al. 2010
<i>Phellinus igniarius</i>	Endo-polysaccharide	Yang et al. 2009 Chen et al. 2011
<i>Phellinus rimosus</i>	Sporocarp extract	Ajith and Janaradhanan 2003
<i>Pholiota adiposa</i> ( <i>Hypodendrum adiposum</i> )	Lectins	Zhang et al. 2009
<i>Pleurotus ostreatus</i>	$\beta$ -glucans, Heteroglucans	Wasser and Weis 1999a, b
<i>Pleurotus pulmonarius</i>	Xyloglucan, proteoglucans	Zhuang et al. 1993
<i>Pleurotus citrinopileatus</i>	PCP-3A (Nonlectin glycoprotein) immunomodulatory protein	Chen et al. 2010a
<i>Polyporus umbellatus</i> ( <i>Dendropolyporus umbellatus</i> )	Glucan	Yang et al. 2004 Li et al. 2010c
<i>Russula lepida</i>	Lectins	Zhang et al. 2010

**Table 2** (continued)

Mushroom species	Bioactive compounds (and common name)	References
<i>Sparassis crispa</i>	$\beta$ - (1→3)-D-glucan	Ohno et al. 2003; Ohno et al. 2000
<i>Schizophyllum commune</i>	Schizophyllan (sizofiran or SPG) ( $\beta$ -1→3;1→6)-glucan)	Hobbs 2005 Chan et al. 2009
<i>Taiwanofungus camphorates</i> ( <i>Antrodia camphorata</i> )	Polysaccharides	Chen et al. 2010b Liu et al. 2004
<i>Trametes versicolor</i>	Polysaccharide peptide Protein bound $\beta$ -(1→3;1→6)-glucan Polysaccharide-Kureha or polysaccharide-K, krestin Immunomodulatory protein	Ooi and Liu 2000 Price et al. 2010 Feng et al. 2011
<i>Tremella fuciformis</i>	$\beta$ -(1→3)-D-glucans, heteroglycans with $\alpha$ -(1→3)-mannan backbone & xylose- and glucuronic acid side chains	Bin 2010
<i>Tremella mesenterica</i>	GXM (glucuronoxylomannan $\alpha$ -(1→3)-mannan)	Vinogradov et al. 2004
<i>Tricholoma mongolicum</i>	Lectins, sugar-binding proteins	Wang et al. 1996

polysaccharides composed of exclusively D-glucose sub units, while heteroglucans contain side chains of monosaccharides (i.e., glucose, galactose, mannose, xylose, arabinose, fucose, ribose or glucuronic acid) and may have different combinations of these (Zhang et al. 2007).

Glycans are polysaccharides containing units other than glucose in their structural backbone (Moradali et al. 2007). According to the basic sugar component in the main backbone, glycans are classified as galactans, fucans, xylans, and mannans. Heteroglycans contain side chains of different sugars such as arabinose, mannose, fucose, galactose, xylose and glucose as a main component or in different combinations (Wasser 2002; Moradali et al. 2007).

$\beta$ -Glucans are one of the major constituents that make up the cell wall of fungi (Moradali et al. 2007; Novak et al. 2010). The basic  $\beta$ -D-glucans (i.e., linear polymers of D-glucose with other monosaccharides) are a repeating structure, with their D-glucose molecules joined together in linear chains by  $\beta$ -bonds (glycosidic bonds). These can extend from the carbon 1 of one saccharide ring to the carbon 3 of the next  $\beta$ -(1→3), from carbon 1 to carbon 4  $\beta$ -(1→4), or from carbon 1 to carbon 6  $\beta$ -(1→6). They differ from each other by their length and branching structures (Demleitner et al. 1992; Kidd 2000). In different aqueous solutions,  $\beta$ -glucans undergo conformational changes into triple helix, single helix or random coils. The immune functions of  $\beta$ -glucans are apparently dependent on their conformational complexity (Ohno 2005; Chen and Seviour 2007; Moradali et al. 2007; Chen et al. 2008a, b).

Some glucans are linear or branched molecules that have a backbone composed of  $\beta$ - or  $\alpha$ -linked glucose units (Fig. 1a,b), and some of these contain side chains that are attached at different positions (Wasser 2002; Moradali et al. 2007). The polysaccharide chain is mainly either  $\beta$ -(1→3)

and  $\beta$ -(1→4), or mixed  $\beta$ -(1→3),  $\beta$ -(1→4) with  $\beta$ -(1→6) side chains (Kidd 2000). Hetero- $\beta$ -D-glucans, which are linear polymers of glucose with other D-monosaccharides, can have anti-cancer activity, but  $\alpha$ -D-glucans from mushrooms usually lack anti-cancer activity (Wasser 2002).

It has been suggested that a high degree of structural complexity is associated with more potent immunomodulatory and anti-cancer effects (Mizuno et al. 1996; Mizuno 1999a, b). The primary structure and bioactivity of a polysaccharide can vary according to its monosaccharide composition, configuration and position of glycosidic linkages, sequence of monosaccharides, as well as the nature, number and location of appended non-carbohydrate groups (Chen and Seviour 2007). Mushroom polysaccharides bound to proteins or peptides (polysaccharide-peptides) show higher potent anti-tumor activity than the corresponding free glucans (Sakagami and Aoki 1991; Cui and Chisti 2003).

Accordingly, mushroom polysaccharide-protein complexes can have different variations in their chemical structures such as glycoproteins (Kawagishi et al. 1989) and heteroglycanprotein complexes (Zhuang et al. 1993; Mizuno et al. 1996) glycopeptides and proteoglucans (Cui and Chisti 2003; Lee et al. 2010).

### Hypothesized mechanism of action of $\beta$ -glucans on cancer cells

Mushroom polysaccharides or  $\beta$ -glucans are thought to provide their anti-tumor action primarily through the activation of the immune response of the host organism (immuno-enhancing activity/immune-modulation activity). In most cases mushroom polysaccharides do not directly affect tumor cells. Instead, they help the host to tolerate adverse biological

**Table 3** Low-molecular-weight compounds from mushrooms that exert anti-cancer effects by interfering with cellular signal transduction pathways

Mushroom species	Bioactive compounds	Anti-cancer effects	References
<i>Agaricus subrufescens</i> ( <i>A. blazei</i> Murrill, <i>A. brasiliensis</i> )	Agaritine [ $\beta$ -N-( $\gamma$ -L(+)-glutamyl)-4-(hydroxymethyl) phenylhydrazine]	Induction of apoptosis in U937 leukemic cells via caspase-3/-9 activation through cytochrome c release from mitochondria.	Endo et al. 2010
<i>Agaricus bisporus</i>	Ergosterol	Inhibition of neovascularization induced by Lewis lung carcinoma cells (tumor-induced neovascularization)	Takaku et al. 2001
<i>Albatrellus confluens</i>	Caffeic acid phenethyl ester (CAPE)	Direct inhibition of angiogenesis induced by solid tumors. Inhibition of NF- $\kappa$ B binding to DNA	Grube et al. 2001
<i>Antrodia cinnamomea</i>	Grifolin	Suppression of aromatase activity	Ye et al. 2005, 2007
<i>Armillaria mellea</i> ( <i>Lepiota mellea</i> )	4-Acetylanthroquinonol B	Inhibition of tumor cell growth by inducing apoptosis	Lin and Chiang 2011
<i>Clitocybe alexandri</i>	Arnamial and related sesquiterpene aryl esters	Induction of cell-cycle arrest in G1 phase via the ERK1/2 pathway	
<i>Clitocybe alexandri</i>		Inhibition of proliferation and growth of hepatocellular carcinoma cells (HCC).	
<i>Cordyceps sinensis</i> ( <i>Ophiocordyceps sinensis</i> )	Clitocine [ $\beta$ -amino-5-nitro-4-( $\beta$ -D-ribofuranosylamino) pyrimidine]	Arresting of cell cycle via cyclin-dependent kinases (CDKs) pathway (decreases of CDK2 and CDK4 and increase of the p27)	Mistiek et al. 2009
	5 $\alpha$ ,8 $\alpha$ -Epidioxy-22E-ergosta-6,22-dien-3 $\beta$ -ol	Induction of apoptosis in different cancer cell lines	Kim et al. 2010
<i>Cordyceps militaris</i>	Ergosterol	Growth inhibitory activity against lung, colon and gastric human cancer cells.	Vaz et al. 2010
<i>Cordyceps sinensis</i>	Cordycepin (3'-deoxyadenosine)	Cytotoxic effects on promyelocytic leukemia HL-60 cells	Li et al. 2004
<i>Trametes versicolor</i>	Methanol extract (terpenoids & polyphenols)	Induction of apoptosis through activation of caspases-3/7.	Matsuda et al. 2009
		Induction of apoptosis of human leukemia cells through a Reactive oxygen species (ROS)-mediated caspase pathway. Including mitochondrial dysfunction, activation of caspases, and cleavage of poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase protein.	Wu et al. 2007
<i>Ganoderma colossium</i> ( <i>Polyporus colossus</i> )	Lucidenic acids Colossolactones A-G	In-vivo anti-melanoma activity through anti-proliferative, cytotoxic effects on tumor cells and promotion of macrophage activity	Jeong et al. 2011
<i>Ganoderma lucidum sensu lato</i>	Lucidenic acid B, triterpenoid compounds, ganoderic acids, lucidimol, ganodermanondiol, ganoderiol and ganodermanontriol	Inhibition of HepG2 cancer cell invasion by acting as inhibitor on the phorbol-12-myristate-13-acetate (PMA)-induced matrix metalloproteinase (MMP-9) expression.	Harhaji et al. 2008
<i>Ganoderma lucidum</i>	Triterpenoid (ganoderic acid T)	Induction of the apoptosis through a signaling cascade of death receptor-mediated and mitochondria-mediated, caspase pathways associated with inactivation of the Akt signal pathway.	Kleinwächter et al. 2001
	Ergosterol	Inhibition of tumor metastasis by the suppression of NF- $\kappa$ B activation likely abrogates the expression of matrix metalloproteinase MMP-2 and MMP-9.	Tang et al. 2006b
		Induction of apoptosis	Jang et al. 2010
			Hsu et al. 2008
			Xu et al. 2010
			Paterson 2006

Table 3 (continued)

Mushroom species	Bioactive compounds	Anti-cancer effects	References
<i>Ganoderma sinensis</i>	Ethanol extracts of both <i>G. lucidum</i> and <i>G. sinensis</i>	Activities on human breast cancer, hepatoma and myeloid leukemia. Anti-proliferation effect through apoptosis pathway and cell cycle arrest effect	Liu et al. 2009a
<i>Grifola frondosa</i>	Triacylglycerols (1-oleoyl-2-linoleoyl-3-palmitoyl)glycerol	Inhibition of Cyclooxygenase activity	Zhang et al. 2002
<i>Hericium erinaceus</i>	Ethanol extracts containing terpenoids, sterols and phenols	Apoptosis, suppression of the cell proliferation via activation of mitochondria-mediated caspase-3 and -9	Kim et al. 2011 Mizuno 1999c
<i>Inonotus obliquus</i>	3 $\beta$ -hydroxy-lanosta-8,24-dien-21-ol, inotodiol and lanosterol	In vivo anti-tumor effects on cancer cells.	Chung et al. 2010
<i>Lentinula edodes</i>	Caffeic acid phenethyl ester (CAPE)	Inhibition proliferation of cancer cells through caspase-3 dependent apoptosis (Inotodiol) Inhibition of NF- $\kappa$ B binding to DNA Suppression of aromatase activity	Nomura et al. 2008 Mattila et al. 2001
<i>Lentinus crinitus</i>	Panepoxydone	Interferes with the NF- $\kappa$ B mediated signal by inhibiting phosphorylation of I $\kappa$ B	Erkel et al. 1996
<i>Lepista inversa</i>	Clitocine [6-amino-5-nitro-4-( $\beta$ -D-ribofuranosylamino) pyrimidine]	Anti-tumor effects through the induction of apoptosis	Fortin et al. 2006
<i>Leucopaxillus giganteus</i>	Clitocine [6-amino-5-nitro-4-( $\beta$ -D-ribofuranosylamino) pyrimidine]	Induction of apoptosis by the activation of caspase-8, 9, and 3, release of cytochrome c from mitochondria, decrease of the Bcl-2 level, and increase of the Bax level.	Bezivin et al. 2003 Ren et al. 2008
<i>Marasmius oreades</i>	Sesquiterpenes	Anti-tumor effects through the blockage of NF- $\kappa$ B activation at the I $\kappa$ B kinase (IKK) activation pathway.	Petrova et al. 2007, 2009
<i>Omphalotus illudens</i>	Mycelia culture extract	Inhibition of TNF- $\alpha$ -induced iNOS expression through both NF- $\kappa$ B and MAPK-dependent mechanisms	Ruimi et al. 2010
	Irofulven (6-hydroxymethyl acylfulvene)	Inhibition of DNA synthesis, cell cycle arrest in S phase and induction of caspase-mediated apoptosis.	Alexandre et al. 2007
<i>Panus conchatus</i>	Derivative of mushroom toxin illudin-S (sesquiterpene) Panepoxydone	Induction of protein oxidation and mitochondrial dysfunction.	Herzig et al. 2003
	Cycloepoxydon	Panepoxydone inhibits the TNF- $\alpha$ - or TPA-induced phosphorylation and degradation of I $\kappa$ B.	Umezawa 2006
<i>Phellinus igniarius</i>	Phelligrindins (pyrano[4,3-c][2]benzopyran-1,6-dione) derivatives	Cycloepoxydon a potent NF- $\kappa$ B inhibitory activity	Zaidman et al. 2005
<i>Phellinus linteus</i>	Hispolon	Cytotoxic activity against several human cancer cell lines	Wang et al. 2007 Mo et al. 2004
	Caffeic acid phenethyl ester (CAPE)	Induction of apoptosis by ROS mediated caspase pathway leading to cytochrome c release & mitochondria dysfunction. Inhibition of DNA binding of NF- $\kappa$ B. Induction of the maturation of dendritic cells via NF- $\kappa$ B, ERK and p38 MAPK signal pathways	Chen et al. 2008a Nakamura et al. 2003
<i>Pholiota spumosa</i>	Putrescine-1,4-dicinnamide (phenylpropanoid derivative conjugated with polyamine putrescine)	Induction of apoptosis by ROS mediated caspase pathway leading to cytochrome c release and necrosis.	Russo et al. 2007



**Table 3** (continued)

Mushroom species	Bioactive compounds	Anti-cancer effects	References
<i>Polyporus umbellatus</i> ( <i>Dendropolyporus umbellatus</i> )	Cytotoxic steroids ergones (22E, 24R)-ergosta-7, 22-dien-3 $\beta$ -ol	Anti-cancer activity against HepG2 cells.	Zhao et al. 2010b
<i>Poria cocos</i> ( <i>Wolfiporia extensa</i> )	Laustane-type triterpene acids	Inhibitory effect on skin tumor promotion.	Akihisa et al. 2009
<i>Taiwanofungus camphorates</i> ( <i>Antrodia camphorata</i> )	Terpenoids(zhankuic acid A,C) maleic and succinic acid derivatives	Induction of apoptosis via suppression of the expression of apoptosis associated proteins	Chen et al. 2010b Yeh et al. 2009
<i>Thelephora aurantioincta</i>	Thelephantin O, vialinin A, (p-terphenyl derivatives)	Anti-cancer activity against HepG2 and human colonic carcinoma cells.	Nakamura et al. 2004 Norikura et al. 2011

stresses and exert an enhanced immunity against development of cancer cells by supporting some or all of the major biological systems. These are recognized as Biological Response Modifiers (Parkinson 1995; Mizuno 1999b; Wasser and Weis 1999b; Kidd 2000; Zhang et al. 2007).

The human immune system has a remarkable ability to distinguish between the body's own cells, recognized as "self" and foreign cells, as "nonself", to mediate the immune responses. Mushroom  $\beta$ -glucans are a large group of macromolecules that are not naturally synthesized inside the human body, so these compounds are recognized as non-self molecules which activate the immunity (Brown and Gordon 2005).

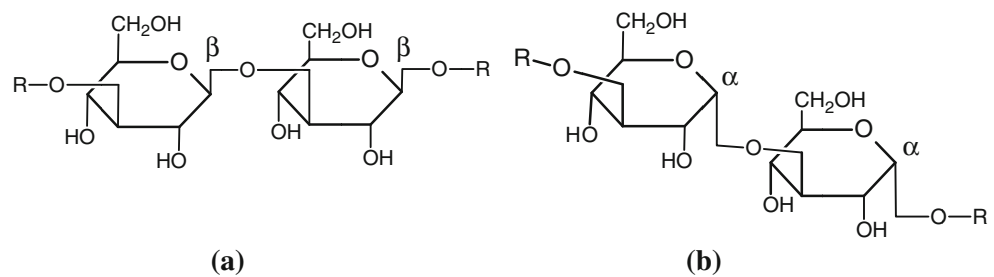
Based on in vivo and in vitro studies on animals, it has been found that  $\beta$ -glucans rapidly enter the proximal small intestine (Fig. 2) and are captured by the macrophages after oral administration (Hong et al. 2004; Rice et al. 2005; Lehne et al. 2006; Chan et al. 2009). The  $\beta$ -glucans are then divided into smaller sized  $\beta$ -glucan fragments and are carried to the bone marrow and endothelial reticular system (Hong et al. 2004). These small fragments are then released by the macrophages and taken up by the circulating granulocytes, monocytes and dendritic cells (Hong et al. 2004; Rice et al. 2005). A natural immune response then is initiated with the support of  $\beta$ -glucans (Chan et al. 2009).

The human immune system consists of two major functional units, including the innate immune system and the adaptive or acquired immune system (McNeela and Mills 2001; Revillard 2002; Uthaisangsook et al. 2002). Innate immunity is present from the very beginning of an organism's life and is relatively non-specific, capable of responding to many but not all structurally related antigens (Uthaisangsook et al. 2002). The innate immune system does not confer long-lasting immunity against a pathogen (Brown and Gordon 2001; Munz et al. 2005).

Certain  $\beta$ -glucans from medicinal mushrooms appear to activate cell-mediated and humoral immunity via activation of different immune cells, leading to elimination of tumor cells or pathogens (Ladanyi et al. 1993; Kim et al. 1996; Kurashige et al. 1997; Brown et al. 2002). The activated macrophages (containing  $\beta$ -glucans) preferentially attack dead cells and intracellular pathogens (Munz et al. 2005). These macrophages also produce cytokines that prime natural killer (NK) cells and T lymphocytes, both of which are cytotoxic to tumor cells, via different mechanisms. Natural killer cells (NKs) secrete chemical substances that destroy tumor cells by bursting cell membranes. Neutrophils effectively destroy targeted cells by cell mediated phagocytosis (Prestwich et al. 2008).

The adaptive immune system allows for a stronger immune response as well as immunological memory, where each pathogen is "remembered" by a signature antigen (Revillard 2002; Munz et al. 2005). The adaptive immune

**Fig. 1** Schematic representation of the molecular structure of  $\beta$ -(1 $\rightarrow$ 3)-D-glucans (a), and  $\alpha$ -(1 $\rightarrow$ 3)-D-glucans (b)



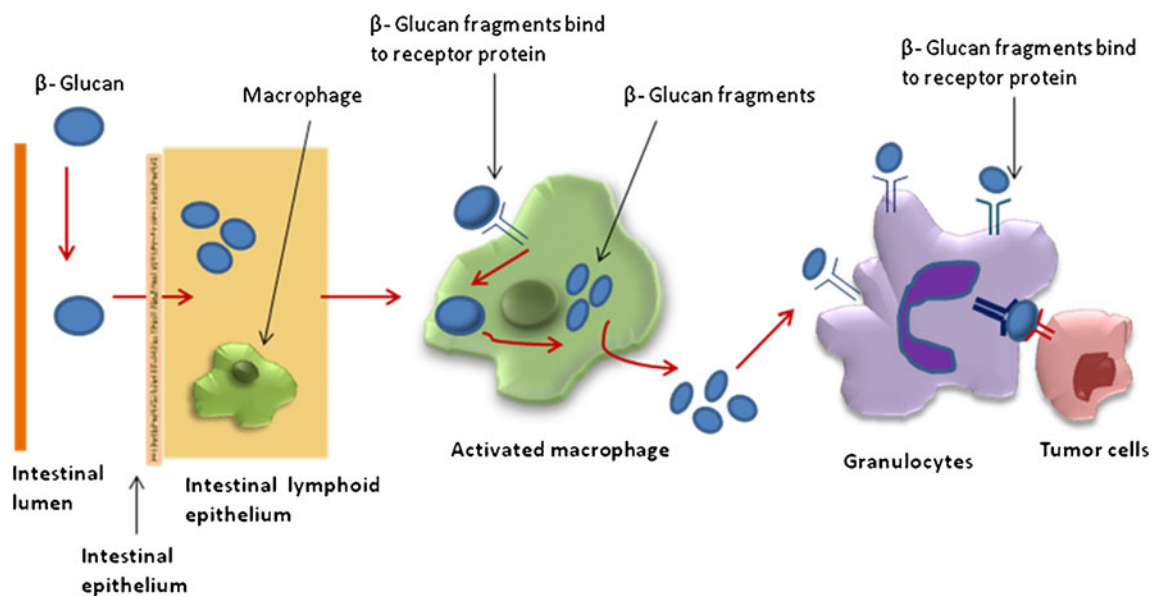
response is antigen-specific and requires the recognition of specific “non-self” antigens in a process with combinational effect of T-cells (T lymphocytes) and B-cells (B lymphocytes). T-cells are mainly responsible for inducing cell-mediated immunity, whereas B cells produce antibodies that mediate humoral immunity (McNeela and Mills 2001; Revillard 2002). The adaptive immune response also involves dendritic cells, derived from monocytes, and these present antigens to T-cells for activation of immune responses (Munz et al. 2005). Cytotoxic T-cells secrete cytokines that stimulate cell mediated immunity to produce other tumoricidal chemical substances (Trinchieri 2003; Munz et al. 2005).

The hypothesized mechanism of action for fungal  $\beta$ -glucans against cancer cells in Fig. 3 is composed of a complex series of reactions inducing innate and adaptive immune systems (Chan et al. 2009). It should be noted, however, that all of these hypothesized mechanism of actions are based on animal data and there is very little evidence from human trials (Knudsen et al. 1993; Hong et al. 2004; Rice et al. 2005; Lehne et al. 2006; Vetvicka et al. 2007; Vos et al. 2007).

### Membrane receptors involved in immune-modulation

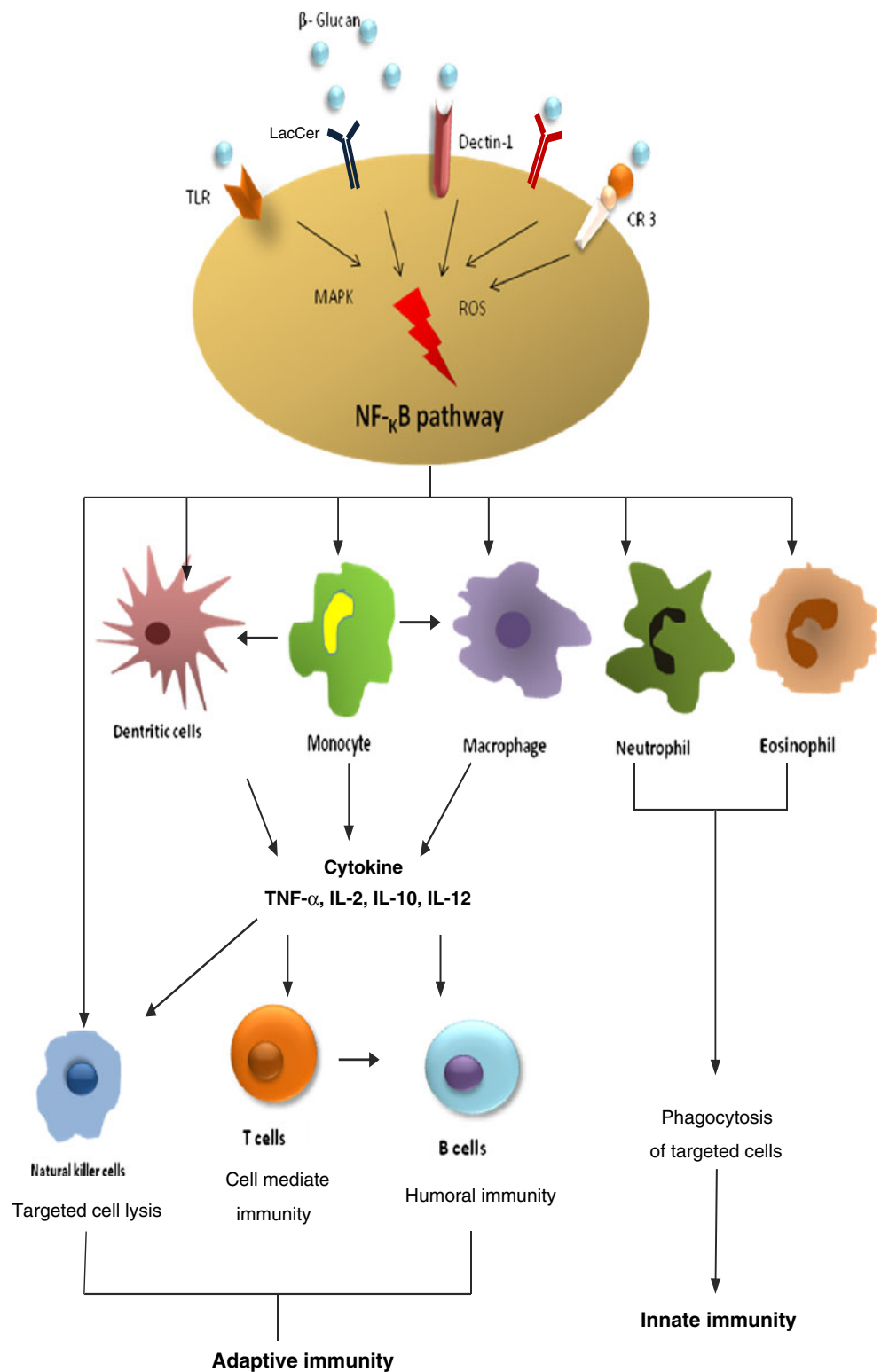
Immune-modulation is a novel cancer treatment that involves indirect activation of the patient’s natural immune defense system against pathogens (NCI 2006). Fungal  $\beta$ -glucans act as immunostimulants, involving both innate and adaptive immune responses. The reactor cells included in this process are monocytes, macrophages, dendritic cells, natural killer cells and neutrophils (Munz et al. 2005; Chen and Seviour 2007; Chan et al. 2009).  $\beta$ -Glucans also enhance phagocytosis and trigger a cascade of cytokine release, such as Tumor Necrosis Factor- $\alpha$  (TNF- $\alpha$ ) and various types of interleukins (Leung et al. 2006; Chen and Seviour 2007).

The immune system of a multicellular organism is comprised of some special protein receptors called pattern recognition receptors, which detect strange compounds or nonself structures in the body (Leung et al. 2006; Chen and Seviour 2007). The microbe-specific molecules (nonself) that are recognized by a given pattern recognition receptors are called pathogen-associated molecular patterns. Thus, fungal  $\beta$ -glucans act as pathogen-associated molecular patterns on



**Fig. 2**  $\beta$ -glucan activation of macrophages (based on Chan et al. 2009 with modifications)

**Fig. 3** Hypothesized immunostimulatory mechanism of action of  $\beta$ -glucans on immune cells (Chan et al. 2009)



these cell membrane receptors and trigger the immune function (Brown and Gordon 2005). In humans, a number of different receptors have been identified. These are dectin-1, complement receptor-3, scavenger receptors, lactosylceramide, and

toll-like receptors (Gantner et al. 2003; Rogers et al. 2005; Brown 2006).

Evidence suggests that dectin-1 is a type II transmembrane protein receptor that binds  $\beta$ -(1→3) and  $\beta$ -(1→6)-

glucans and is most important in the activation of innate immune responses in macrophages (Herre et al. 2004; Willment et al. 2005). Binding of dectin-1 with  $\beta$ -glucans activates several signaling pathways to promote innate immune responses through activation of phagocytosis, reactive oxygen species production, and induction of inflammatory cytokines (Willment et al. 2001; Grunebach et al. 2002).

Toll-like receptors are a group of transmembrane protein receptors which respond to microbes, including fungi, bacteria, viruses and protozoa. This group of protein receptors may include about 11 members (Roeder et al. 2004). Toll-like receptor-2 induces the synthesis of various signaling pathways, including increasing levels of NF- $\kappa$ B and cytokine production, including TNF- $\alpha$  and interleukin (IL-12), which is mediated during many immune responses. Most recent studies have concluded that constituents from polysaccharopeptide krestin act as ligands for toll-like receptors-4, leading to induction of TNF- $\alpha$  and interleukin (IL-6) inflammatory cytokines (Price et al. 2010). Although their immune activities are still unclear, complement receptor-3; scavenger receptors and lactosylceramide receptors are also important in immune function (Thornton et al. 1996; Xia and Ross 1999).

Some evidence suggests that in a number of instances these receptors might act synergistically with each other to produce strong inflammatory responses by stimulating cytokines such as TNF- $\alpha$ , interleukins (IL-2 and IL-12) (Ariizumi et al. 2000; Takeda et al. 2003; Diniz et al. 2004).

### Selected examples of important mushroom polysaccharides with anti-tumor activity

Mushroom-derived  $\beta$ -glucans have been used for centuries for health purposes.  $\beta$ -glucans have also been the subject of extensive research and are recognized as potential anti-cancer agents (Hobbs 1995; Kodama et al. 2002a, b; Zhang et al. 2005; Boonyanuphap and Hansawasdi 2010).  $\beta$ -Glucans derived from many different mushrooms, both cultivated and wild species, such as lentinan, schizophyllan, maitake D fraction, *Ganoderma* polysaccharides and Krestin have been approved in several countries as prescription drugs for the treatments of cancer (Mizuno 1999b; Girzal et al. 2011; Shang et al. 2011). Among the large pool of anti-tumor polysaccharides isolated from medicinal mushrooms (Table 2), several important examples are described below.

#### Lentinan

Lentinan is an anti-tumor polysaccharide produced by *Lentinula edodes*, which is commonly known as the Shiitake mushroom. This mushroom is widely consumed as a nutritional

health food throughout the world, particularly in Asia, and is known to have very strong host-mediated anti-cancer activity via activation of the human immune system (Cheung 2008; Zhang et al. 2011). The chemical structure of lentinan is a  $\beta$ -(1 $\rightarrow$ 3)-D-glucan having two  $\beta$ -(1 $\rightarrow$ 6)-D-glucopyranoside branches for every five  $\beta$ -(1 $\rightarrow$ 3)-D-glucopyranoside linear linkages, with a moderate molecular weight of 5–15  $\times$  10<sup>5</sup> Da (Zhang et al. 1999, 2001).

The molecular weight and a triple-helical conformation are known to be important factors for the immune-stimulating activity of lentinan (Bohn and BeMiller 1995). Triple-helical lentinan exhibits the strongest anti-cancer activity in mouse model experiments, with an inhibition ratio of 49.5%, which is close to that of a reference anti-cancer drug. Such bioactivity rapidly decreased when the polysaccharide changed to a single-flexible chain, thus showing the correlation between anti-cancer activity and the triple-helix structure of lentinan (Zhang et al. 2005; Surenjav et al. 2006).

The effective anti-cancer properties of lentinan were first reported by Chihara et al. (1969, 1970), using sarcoma 180 cancer cells transplanted into CD-1/ICD mice. Lentinan was shown to inhibit the growth of the cancer cells (Chihara et al. 1970). Lentinan has also satisfactorily been proven to potentiate human immunity (Wasser and Weis 1999a; Hobbs 2000). The immunostimulatory effects of lentinan involve the activation of numerous immune cells and modulating the release of cell signal messengers such as cytokines and chemical messengers such as nitric oxide, which increase the engulfing ability of immune cells (Ooi and Liu 1999; Hou and Chen 2008). The increase in cytokine production in immune cells has been demonstrated to be lentinan dose-dependent and inhibited the expression of caspase-3 in mice with liver cancer, reducing tumor growth (Shin et al. 2003; Lull et al. 2005; Fu et al. 2011).

The effect of chemically modified lentinan on the immune response indicates that sulfation can enhance the efficacy of lentinan to improve the human immune response to vaccines by enhancing the population of anti-body and white blood cells (Guo et al. 2008).

Open-label clinical studies indicate that lentinan can prolong life in patients with gastric, ovarian or colorectal cancer, as reviewed by several researchers (Borchers et al. 1999; Fujimoto et al. 2006).

#### Schizophyllan

Schizophyllan, sizofiran or SPG is another extensively studied mushroom-derived polysaccharide with immune modulating activity. This polysaccharide is obtained from the mushroom *Schizophyllum commune* and has been used in cancer treatment practices in several Asian countries (Furue 1987; Wasser 2002). Schizophyllan is a  $\beta$ -(1 $\rightarrow$ 3)-D-glucan,

having  $\beta$ -(1→6)-D-glucopyranoside side branches at every three repeating units, and it has received great interest because of its reversible coiled-helix transition. This generates a very stiff triple-helical structure in water, with a molecular weight of ~450,000 Da in neutral aqueous solutions (Yoneda et al. 1991). Although schizophyllan is similar to lentinan in composition and anti-tumor activity (Jong et al. 1991), the kinetics of gene expression of cytokines in schizophyllan have been shown to be different in several studies (Nemoto et al. 1993; Okazaki et al. 1995). Recently, new folate-conjugated schizophyllan showed specific affinity toward folate binding proteins and as a non-cytotoxic cancer-targeting antisense carrier that mediated effective antisense activity in cancer cells (Hasegawa et al. 2005). Schizophyllan displayed anti-tumor activity against several carcinomas and sarcoma cell lines (Wasser 2002; Hobbs 2005) and has been studied for its anti-cancer activity and used for the immunotherapy of stage II or III cervical cancers in combination with radiotherapy (Furue 1987; Sakagami et al. 1988; Shimizu et al. 1989). Clinical evaluation of schizophyllan as a supportive agent on immunotherapy in treatment of head and neck cancer showed increased recovery rates in cancer patients when compared to a control group (Kimura et al. 1994).

### Maitake D-fraction

This is a mixed  $\beta$ -D-glucan fraction prepared from the fruiting bodies of the mushroom *Grifola frondosa* (Maitake). This well known mushroom has been used as a food in Japan for hundreds of years, as people have believed in its medicinal properties (Mizuno 1999b; Mayell 2001). Maitake D-fraction contains mainly  $\beta$ -D-glucan material with  $\beta$ -(1→6) main chains and  $\beta$ -(1→4) branches, and the more common  $\beta$ -(1→3) main chains and  $\beta$ -(1→6) branches (Nanba 1997a; Matsui et al. 2001).

Experimental evidence has shown that maitake D-Fraction is a good apoptosis inducer and immune enhancer (Nanba 1997a, b; Konno 2001; Kodama et al. 2002a, b; Masuda et al. 2010). Most recent findings have confirmed the apoptotic effect of maitake D-fraction in breast cancer cells by upregulation of BAK-1 gene activation and further highlight the involvement of cytochrome C (Soares et al. 2011). Studies also suggest that the anti-tumor activity is also possibly related to the carcinoma angiogenesis induction (Matsui et al. 2001).

In 1998, the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) granted Maitake products, as an investigational new drug application (IND), to conduct a phase II pilot study using maitake D-fraction on patients with advanced breast and prostate cancers (Nanba 1995; Anon 1999; Konno 2001). Several in vivo and in vitro studies tested the chemosensitizing effect of the

maitake fraction to improve the efficacy of chemotherapy and reduce possible side effects (Kodama et al. 2002b; Louie et al. 2010). Reduction of the immunosuppressive effect of chemotherapeutic drugs occurred as a result of an increase in the proliferation differentiation and activation of immune-competent cells and thus provided a potential clinical benefit for patients with cancer (Kodama et al. 2002b, 2005). Investigations showed the anti-tumor functions of D-Fraction in relation to its control of the balance between T lymphocyte subsets Th-1 and Th-2 and potentiated the activation of helper T-cells, resulting in enhanced cellular immunity and as a useful immunotherapeutic agent for cancer patients (Kodama et al. 2002b; Inoue et al. 2002).

### *Ganoderma polysaccharides*

Mushrooms belonging to the genus *Ganoderma* are some of the oldest traditional medicines. In particular, *Ganoderma lucidum* (Reishi or Ling-Zhi) has been used extensively in traditional Chinese medicine as a tonic for promoting good health, perpetual youth, vitality, and longevity (Ying et al. 1987; Hobbs 1995; Chang and Mshigeni 2000).

This species has been intensively studied in recent years because of its intrinsic immunomodulating and anti-tumor properties (Liu et al. 2009a; Shang et al. 2011; Ye et al. 2011). It has become more important because the polysaccharides isolated from its fruiting bodies include some in which the main active ingredients contain (1→3) and/or  $\beta$ -(1→6)-D-glucans (Hung et al. 2008).

These polysaccharides have been reported to enhance the cytotoxic activity of natural killer cells and to increase TNF- $\alpha$  and interferon- $\gamma$  release from macrophages and lymphocytes, respectively (Gao et al. 2004; Kuo et al. 2006). Recently, a crude extract of the polysaccharide from fruiting bodies has been reported to induce cytokines expression via a toll-like receptors-4 modulated protein kinase signaling pathway (Guo et al. 2009). Heteropolysaccharide–protein complexes with protein contents of 13.5 and 20.1% have also been isolated from the mycelium of *Ganoderma tsugae* and have been shown to have anti-tumor activities (Peng et al. 2005). It is generally believed that the compounds obtained from the mycelium are normally quite different from the metabolites of the same compound class derived from its sporocarps. As such, these results should be tested further.

The biological activities reported in preparations of *Ganoderma* mostly emphasize metabolites that include mainly polysaccharides and terpenoids. Research indicates that triterpenes from *G. lucidum* directly suppress growth and invasive behavior of cancer cells (Sliva 2003). On the other hand, the polysaccharides stimulate the immune system, resulting in the production of cytokines and activation of anti-cancer activities of immune cells, thus resulting

in a high synergistic effect (Gao et al. 2004; Anon 2006; Paterson 2006).

In recent years, much attention has been paid to the chemical components of *G. lucidum* spores and their versatile biological activities. It has been found that one such compound produces potential immunomodulatory effects and anti-tumor activities characteristic of a water-soluble polysaccharide, with proliferative response of splenocytes and induced anti-tumor activity against Lewis lung cancer in mice. It was an effective inducer of the MAPK pathway and spleen tyrosine kinase Syk-dependent TNF- $\alpha$  and interleukin-6 secretion in murine resident peritoneal macrophages (Guo et al. 2009). Moreover, the chemically modified  $\alpha$ -D-glucan from spores of *G. lucidum* shows increasing stimulating effects of lymphocyte proliferation and antibody production when compared to unmodified glucans (Bao et al. 2001a, b).

In vitro and in vivo experimental evidence has demonstrated the chemopreventive effects of *G. lucidum* on cancer invasion and metastasis and it has been concluded that these effects occur through the modulation of kinase signaling and subsequent inhibition of activator protein-1 and NF- $\kappa$ B (Weng and Yen 2010). Most recent research found that the immunostimulatory activity of a proteoglycan fraction, (LZ-D-7), isolated from the fruiting body, activates the B-cells and could be an immunostimulatory drug to improve the immune response of tumor patients (Ye et al. 2011). Another study illustrated the induction of apoptosis by ethanol extracts of *G. lucidum* in human gastric carcinoma cells (Jang et al. 2010).

### Polysaccharide—protein complexes (glycoproteins, glycopeptides, proteoglucans)

Medicinal mushrooms show an immunostimulatory activity not only because of bioactive polysaccharides but also in having varying combinations of polysaccharide-protein complexes or glycol-conjugates such as glycoproteins, glycopeptides and proteoglucans (Moradali et al. 2007). Polysaccharides can reach a higher level of complexity when they are covalently bound to other conjugate molecules such as polypeptides and proteins.

Glycoproteins are proteins that contain oligosaccharide chains (glucans) covalently attached to polypeptide side-chains. They are composed of a protein core that is surrounded by numerous glucan chains bound to protein moiety through O- or N-glycosidation (Wasser 2002; Moradali et al. 2007). *Agaricus subrufescens* (= *Agaricus blazei* Murrill *sensu* Heinemann) is a well-known mushroom having several biologically active metabolites, including polysaccharides and glycoproteins that are thought to be responsible for its immunostimulant and anti-tumor properties (Firenzuoli et al.

2008). A  $\alpha$ -(1 $\rightarrow$ 4)-Glucan- $\beta$ -(1 $\rightarrow$ 6)-glucan-protein complex isolated from *A. subrufescens* showed tumor growth-inhibitory effect through the host-mediated mechanisms, and several clinical trials have shown its pharmacological benefits on cancer treatment and immunostimulation (Gonzaga et al. 2009; Ishii et al. 2011).

### Glycopeptides from *Trametes versicolor*

The best known commercial glycopeptide preparations of *Trametes versicolor* are polysaccharopeptide and polysaccharopeptide krestin. Both products are extracted from *T. versicolor* and have similar physiological activities but are structurally different. Polysaccharopeptide and polysaccharopeptide krestin are produced from CM-101 and Cov-1 strains of *T. versicolor*, respectively. Polysaccharopeptide and polysaccharopeptide krestin contain  $\alpha$ -(1 $\rightarrow$ 4) and  $\beta$ -(1 $\rightarrow$ 3) glucosidic linkages in their polysaccharide chain, with D-glucose as the major monosaccharide present (Ng 1998). Arabinose and rhamnose are the other principal monosaccharides in the polysaccharopeptide, while polysaccharopeptide krestin contains fucose (Cui and Chisti 2003).

Polysaccharopeptide krestin seems to work during the multiple steps of cancer metastasis by inhibiting adhesion, invasion, motility, and metastatic growth of tumor cells in animal models. Adhesion and invasion are inhibited by suppression of cell matrix-degrading enzyme production by malignant cells (Katano et al. 1987; Kobayashi et al. 1995). Motility of malignant cells and subsequent attachment to blood vessels are inhibited by suppression of tumor-cell induced platelet aggregation and anti-angiogenic factors (Abe et al. 1990; Tanaka et al. 1991). Polysaccharopeptide krestin has also been shown to induce apoptosis (programmed cell death) in lymphoma, leukemia and pancreatic cells (Hattori et al. 2004; Jiménez-Medina et al. 2008). Transforming growth factor  $\beta$ 1 (TGF- $\beta$ 1) and matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) produced by tumor cells are regarded as important factors in tumor invasion. Evidence clearly shows that polysaccharopeptide krestin inhibited in vitro tumor invasiveness through suppression of MMPs and TGF- $\beta$ 1 and would seem to have possible use as an anti-metastatic drug, with more research planned in the future (Zhang et al. 2000).

Polysaccharopeptide krestin has been reported as a promising biological response modifier for clinical use of cancer patients in Japan (Kidd 2000), which remarkably prolongs survival and reduces the recurrence of tumors. The potential use of polysaccharopeptide krestin as an adjuvant for other conventional cancer therapies has been reported in many clinical studies (e.g., Torisu et al. 1990; Wan et al. 2008). A meta-analysis of randomized trials was conducted to evaluate the effectiveness of adjuvant immune-chemotherapy with polysaccharopeptide krestin for patients with gastric

cancer. It has been suggested that adjuvant immunotherapy with polysaccharopeptide krestin improves the survival of patients after curative gastric cancer resection (Oba et al. 2007). The colon cancer patients who responded better to immunotherapy with polysaccharopeptide krestin support the presence of active diffuse nuclear accumulation type  $\beta$ -catenin (Yamashita et al. 2007). The effect of polysaccharopeptide krestin as an adjuvant treatment on non-small cell lung cancer patients after radical radiotherapy indicates satisfactory tumor shrinkage as compared to the non-administrated group (Hayakawa et al. 1993).

### Proteoglycans from *Phellinus linteus*

Proteoglycans are proteins that consist of a core protein with one or more covalently attached glycosaminoglycan chain (s) that are heavily glycosylated (Moradali et al. 2007). It has been reported that the proteoglycans (protein-bound polysaccharides) from the fruiting bodies or mycelium of *Phellinus linteus* stimulate the hormonal and cell-mediated immune functions (Kim et al. 2003a, b, 2007) as well as suppressing tumor growth and metastasis. Lee et al. (2010) demonstrated anti-angiogenic activity in a methanolic extract of *P. linteus*, which revealed a novel inhibitor of angiogenesis, especially for tumor treatment and prevention. Studies suggest that *P. linteus* can act as an immune-potentiator and as a direct inhibitor of cancer cell adhesion (Han et al. 1999, 2006).

Most recently, the anti-cancer effect of an orally administered powder of freeze dried mycelia culture of *P. linteus* on mice bearing the Hep3B hepatoma cell line was investigated. Immune-modulatory and anti-tumor effects were established through increased secretion of interleukin-12, interferon gamma and TNF- $\alpha$ , which enhanced the activity of natural killer cells. These results also showed that an improved strain of *P. linteus* grown on germinated brown rice inhibited lung metastasis (Huang et al. 2011; Jeon et al. 2011). The important benefit of *P. linteus* fruiting body extracts (including proteoglycans and polysaccharides) compares favorably to conventional chemotherapeutics such as adriamycin, with its effective suppression of tumor growth and metastasis through the immune-potentialization of patients without any toxic effect (Zhu et al. 2008)

### Bioactive mushroom proteins

Apart from the most extensively studied polysaccharide fraction, bioactive proteins constitute the second most abundant functional component in mushrooms (Ferreira et al. 2010; Wong et al. 2010a, b). Mushrooms produce a large number of proteins with significant biological activities,

including lectins, ribosome inactivating proteins (RIPs), fungal immunomodulatory proteins (FIPs) and laccases (Wang et al. 1998; Wong et al. 2010a; Xu et al. 2011).

Lectins are proteins that can bind to cell surface carbohydrates, with an ability to produce cell agglutination and that show several anti-proliferative and anti-tumor activities against cancer cell lines (Zhang et al. 2009, 2010). Lectins are abundant in many species of mushrooms, including *Agaricus bisporus*, *Pleurotus ostreatus*, *Tricholoma mongolicum*, *Agaricus subrufescens* and *Grifola frondosa* (Wang et al. 1998). Recently discovered lectins from the mushroom *Russula lepida* and *Pholiota adiposa* showed anti-proliferative activity towards hepatoma HepG2 cells and breast cancer MCF-7 cells (Zhang et al. 2009). The protein involved belongs to the ricin B-like lectins and has been designated as *Clitocybe nebularis* lectin (CNL) and showed anti-proliferative effects elicited by binding to carbohydrate receptors on human leukemic T cells (Pohleven et al. 2009).

The ribosome inactivating proteins (RIPs) have an enzymatic activity that can suppress the ribosomes by eliminating parts of adenosine residues from rRNA. A new ribosome inactivating protein with anti-proliferative activity from the mushroom *Hypsizigus marmoreus* potentially inhibited proliferation of HepG2 hepatoma, MCF-7 breast cancer cells and decreased the HIV-1 reverse transcriptase activity (Wong et al. 2008).

Fungal immunomodulatory proteins (FIPs) are a new class of bioactive proteins, with targeting ability of immune cells, isolated from mushrooms (Xu et al. 2011). Six fungal immunomodulatory proteins (FIPs), LZ-8, gts, gja, fve, vvo and gsi, have been isolated and purified, including three from Lingzhi mushrooms, LZ-8 (*Ganoderma lucidum*) (Kino et al. 1989), FIP-gts (*Ganoderma tsugae*) (Hsiao et al. 2008) and (FIP-gsi) (*Ganoderma sinensis*) (Li et al. 2010a), two from edible mushrooms, FIP-fve (*Flammulina velutipes*) (Ko et al. 1995) and then FIP-vvo (*Volvariella volvacea*) (Maiti et al. 2008).

The fungal immunomodulatory protein, Ling Zhi-8 (LZ-8), which was isolated and purified from the mycelia of *G. lucidum* in 1989, has been regarded as one of the most important bioactive substances of *G. lucidum*. The native form of LZ-8 is a noncovalently bound homodimer with a molecular mass of 24 kDa. Each polypeptide consists of 110 amino acid residues with acetylated N terminals (Kino et al. 1989). Currently, several studies have been designed to develop an efficient preparation of new recombinant immunomodulatory proteins with higher activity (Lin et al. 2009, 2010). The immune modulatory effects of rLZ-8 (recombined Ling Zhi-8) on human monocyte-derived dendritic cells have demonstrated that binding of rLZ-8 to toll like receptor-4 could effectively induce the significant activation and maturation of human dendritic cells (Lin et al. 2009). Dendritic cells were activated via the NF- $\kappa$ B and MAPK

pathways and it has been proposed that rLZ-8-mediated signal transduction occurs in the regulation of interleukin-12, 10, p40 and expression (Kino et al. 1989; Lin et al. 2009). A new recombinant immunomodulatory protein, purified from *Ganoderma microsporum*, with anti-metastatic effect also has been found. It can inhibit epidermal growth factor mediated migration and invasion in A549 lung cancer cells (Lin et al. 2010).

For the first time (Lin et al. 2011) reported that LZ-8 acts as a promising adjuvant that enhances the efficacy of a DNA cancer vaccine by activating dendritic cells and promoting innate and adaptive immune responses through toll like receptor 4. This is the first study to apply LZ-8 to a DNA vaccine model for cancer therapy and determine the immunogenicity in vivo. These data provide a new insight for the application of LZ-8 for enhancing immunity in vaccine technology for preventing and treating various cancers.

A comparison between the functions of polysaccharides and protein LZ-8 from Reishi (*G. lucidum*) in regulating murine macrophages and T lymphocytes demonstrated that LZ-8 could activate murine macrophages and T lymphocytes but *Ganoderma* polysaccharides only activate the macrophages, suggesting their diverse roles in activating the innate and adaptive immunity (Yeh et al. 2010).

Li et al. (2010a) isolated Fungal Immunomodulatory Proteins (FIP-gsi) comprised of 111 amino acids from *Ganoderma sinensis*. Furthermore, FIP-gsi could enhance the production levels of cytokine, including interleukin-2, 3 and 4 interferon gamma, TNF- $\alpha$ , and interleukin receptor-2 in mouse spleen cells. A novel immunomodulatory protein (TVC) from the medicinal mushroom *Trametes versicolor* markedly increases the proliferation of human peripheral blood lymphocytes and enhances the production of both nitric oxide and TNF- $\alpha$  by lipopolysaccharide-induced murine macrophages. The results indicate that TVC is an immunostimulant that can boost immune response (Feng et al. 2011; Li et al. 2011).

In several studies, a low-molecular weight protein fraction (MLP-fraction) from the fruiting body of the maitake mushroom *Grifola frondosa* that has potent anti-tumor activity was isolated (Kodama et al. 2010). It was found that the MLP-fraction enhanced the production of cytokines; interleukin-12 and interferon-gamma by splenocytes in tumor-bearing mice and clearly exhibited an inhibitory effect on tumor cell growth.

With advanced studies, many other potential immunomodulatory proteins have been reported from various species of mushrooms, including APP and PCP-3A, which were isolated from *Auricularia polytricha* and *Pleurotus citrinopileatus*, respectively (Sheu et al. 2004; Chen et al. 2010a). As more and more studies reveal new species of mushrooms, especially in the tropics (Dai 2010; Ge et al. 2010; Van de Putte et al. 2011; Zhao et al. 2010a, 2011) and

further chemical analyses are carried out for bioactive compounds, we should expect many more novel and medicinal compounds to be discovered from mushrooms. Although there are increasing numbers of reports available for the identification of mushroom proteins, the mechanisms of actions (e.g. immunomodulation, anti-proliferation) are still poorly understood and further studies are warranted (Li et al. 2010c).

### Low-molecular-weight bioactive metabolites (Fig. 4, Table 3)

Mushrooms produce a variety of complex low-molecular-weight compounds with diverse chemical compositions that we refer to in this review as phenolic compounds, polyketides, triterpenoids and steroids specific to each mushroom (Zaidman et al. 2005; Erkel and Anke 2008; Ferreira et al. 2010). The majority of these compounds are not involved in the central metabolic processes of the fungi (the generation of energy and the formation of the building blocks of proteins, nucleic acids, and cell membranes) and are known as secondary metabolites (Abraham 2001; Petrova et al. 2008).

These substances are derived as intermediates in primary metabolism, but they can be classified according to five main metabolic sources. These are (1) amino acid-derived pathways, (2) the shikimic acid pathway, (3) the acetate-malonate pathway (4), the mevalonic acid pathway and (5) the polysaccharides and peptidopolysaccharides derived pathways. The acetate-malonate pathway and the mevalonic acid pathways are most often involved in secondary metabolism of basidiomycetes and they produce a greater variety of compounds (terpenoids, sesquiterpenoids, polyacetylenes) than the other pathways (Isaac 1997; Zaidman et al. 2005; Erkel and Anke 2008).

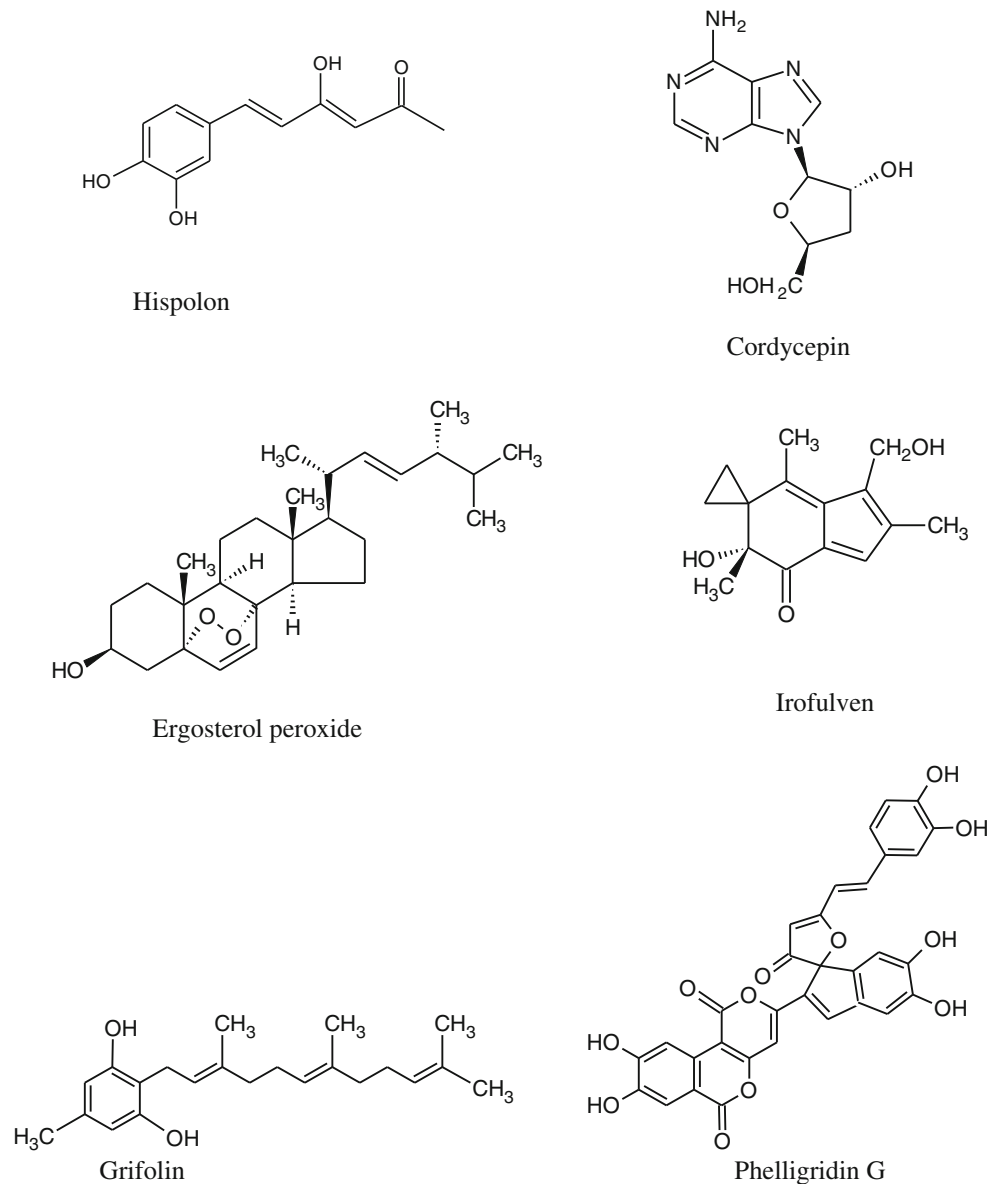
Many low molecular weight bioactive compounds isolated from medicinal mushrooms show direct beneficial effects on cancer development by modulating several cellular signal transduction pathways (nuclear factor- $\kappa$ B pathway [NF- $\kappa$ B], mitogen activated protein kinase pathway [MAPK]) and exerting inhibitory effects on processes such as cell differentiation, angiogenesis, carcinogenesis, and metastasis (Petrova et al. 2008; Zhong and Xiao 2009). A wide range of anti-tumor or immunostimulating bioactive metabolites with low molecular weights from mushrooms have been investigated (Table 3); several promising compounds have been chosen and their mechanism of action detailed below.

### Cordycepin

Members of the genus *Cordyceps* are ascomycetous fungi commonly called caterpillar fungi and that grow as a result



**Fig. 4** Chemical structures of selected low-molecular-weight metabolites



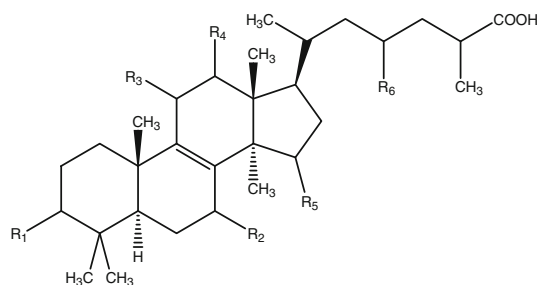
of a parasitic relationship between the fungus and the insect larva (Chen and Jin 1992). The fungus germinates in living organisms (in some cases the larvae), kills the insect, and then the *Cordyceps* fruiting body grows from the body of the insect (Chen and Jin 1992; Zhu et al. 1998a, b). Many species of *Cordyceps* have been identified for medicinal purposes and use in health supplements. These include *C. sinensis*, *C. militaris*, *C. pruinosa*, *C. subsessilis* and *C. ophioglossoides* (Hobbs 1995; Holliday and Cleaver 2008).

Cordycepin, or 3'-deoxyadenosine, is a derivative of the nucleoside adenosine, which was initially extracted from specimens in this genus but is now produced synthetically (Paterson 2008). Cordycepin was first isolated from a water extract of *C. sinensis*, and a major

component of the butanol fraction of *C. militaris* was also identified as cordycepin by high performance liquid chromatography (Jeong et al. 2011).

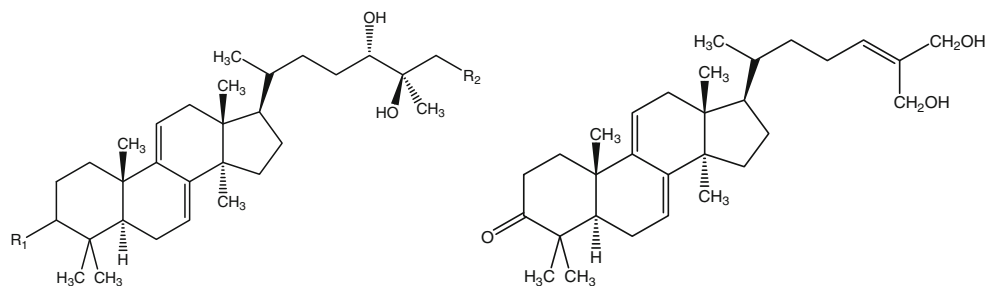
Cordycepin has two major effects on cells (Wong et al. 2010b). At a low dose cordycepin inhibits the uncontrolled growth and division of the cells and at high doses it stops cells from sticking together, which also inhibits growth. Both of these effects probably have the same underlying mechanism, which is that cordycepin interferes with protein metabolism. At low doses, cordycepin interferes with the production of mRNA and assembly of proteins. At higher doses cordycepin has a direct impact on the production of proteins. Wong et al. (2010b) demonstrated that at low doses cordycepin affects the poly (A) tails of specific mRNAs, and this correlates with a reduction in cell proliferation. At

Fig. 4 (continued)



## Ganoderic acids

- A :  $R_1=R_3=R_6=O$ ,  $R_2=R_5=\beta\text{-OH}$ ,  $R_4=H$   
 B :  $R_1=R_3=R_5=R_6=O$ ,  $R_2=\beta\text{-OH}$ ,  $R_4=H$   
 C :  $R_1=R_3=R_5=R_6=O$ ,  $R_2=\beta\text{-OH}$ ,  $R_4=H$   
 D :  $R_1=R_3=R_5=R_6=O$ ,  $R_2=R_4=\beta\text{-OH}$   
 F :  $R_1=R_2=R_3=R_5=R_6=O$ ,  $R_4=\beta\text{-OH}$   
 G :  $R_1=R_2=R_4=\beta\text{-OH}$ ,  $R_3=R_5=R_6=O$   
 H :  $R_1=\beta\text{-OH}$ ,  $R_2=R_3=R_5=R_6=O$ ,  $R_4=\beta\text{-OAc}$   
 Z :  $R_1=\beta\text{-OH}$ ,  $R_2=R_3=R_4=R_5=R_6=H$



- Ganodermanontriol :  $R_1=O$ ,  $R_2=OH$   
 Ganodermanondiol :  $R_1=O$ ,  $R_2=H$   
 Lucidumol B :  $R_1=\beta\text{-OH}$ ,  $R_2=H$

## Ganoderiol F

higher doses cordycepin also inhibits cell adhesion and virtually abolishes protein synthesis, probably through its effects on Akt and 4EBP phosphorylation. The most upstream target of cordycepin at higher doses appears to be AMP-activated kinase pathway, which it activates, leading to the observed reduction in the mammalian target of rapamycin signaling. Therefore, the two main effects of cordycepin appear to be the inhibition of polyadenylation at low doses and the activation of AMP-activated kinase pathway at higher doses (Wong et al. 2010b).

An experimentally developed strain of *Cordyceps sinensis* (Cs-4) has been used extensively in China, and products have been developed with approval of the Chinese Health Ministry (Zhu et al. 1998b). Several anamorphic mycelial strains, (e.g., *Paecilomyces hepiali* and *Hirsutella hepiali*) isolated from natural *C. sinensis* have been manufactured in large quantity by fermentation technology (Zhu et al. 1998a). This product has been clinically used against many diseases, including immune-stimulation and cancer prevention.

Cordycepin affects leukemia cells in humans by significantly inducing apoptosis through a mitochondria-mediated caspase-dependent pathway. Cordycepin is thought to induce apoptosis of human leukemia cells through a signaling cascade involving a reactive oxygen species-mediated caspase pathway (Khan et al. 2010; Jeong et al. 2011)

Cordycepin has also been used as adjuvant treatment in cancer prevention along with chemotherapy and radiotherapy and has shown many beneficial effects on patients, in some cases showing direct anti-tumor effects (Zhu et al. 1998a, b). Ten pure compounds isolated from the extracts of *Cordyceps militaris*, obtained through a solid-state cultivation process, showed potent anti-proliferation in PC-3 and colon 205 cells, while only one compound displayed such an effect in HepG2 cells. This study provides support for the use of *Cordyceps militaris* as an anti-inflammatory and anti-cancer agent (Lee and Hong 2011).

## Ergosterol

The pro-vitamin D<sub>2</sub>, ergosterol (ergosta-5,7,22-trien-3 $\beta$ -ol), is abundant in lichens and mushrooms such as *Agaricus subrufescens*, *Ganoderma lucidum*, *Lentinula edodes* (Takaku et al. 2001; Paterson 2006; Phillips et al. 2011) and *Cordyceps sinensis* and shows various types of bioactivity (Li et al. 2004; Wu et al. 2007). Ergosterol is mostly absent in the plant and animal kingdoms.

Ergosterol in mushrooms can be converted to vitamin D<sub>2</sub> by ultraviolet (UV) irradiation. Ergosterol undergoes photolysis when exposed to UV light at wavelengths of 280–320 nm, yielding a variety of photo irradiation products. The principal products are provitamin D<sub>2</sub>, tachysterol, and lumisterol. Ergosterol peroxide (5 $\alpha$ ,8 $\alpha$ -epidioxy-22*E*-ergosta-6,22-dien-3 $\beta$ -ol) is a steroidal derivative of ergosterol and shows various biological activities with strong immunomodulatory and anti-tumor activities (Krzyszczkowski et al. 2009).

Inefficient programmed cell death (apoptosis) increases tumor development and resistance to cancer therapy. Thus, agents that induce apoptotic death of these cancer cells would be useful in controlling this malignancy. Evaluation of pro-apoptotic activity of ergosterol peroxide and (22*E*)-ergosta-7,22-dien-5 $\alpha$ -hydroxy-3,6-dione on prostate cancer cells by Russo et al. (2010) indicated that these compounds can reduce the growth of prostate cancer cells, at least in part, by triggering an apoptotic process.

Ergosterol was isolated from *A. subrufescens* as an anti-angiogenic substance and indications are that the anti-tumor activity of ergosterol may be due to direct inhibition of angiogenesis induced by solid tumors (Takaku et al. 2001).

## Grifolin

Grifolin is a natural biologically active metabolite isolated from the fruiting bodies of the mushroom *Albatrellus confluens* that has shown many pharmacological effects. Earlier research has shown that grifolin acts as an antibiotic (Hirata and Nahanishi 1950) and shows significant cholesterol lowering activity, anti-oxidative activity and antimicrobial activity (Sugiyama et al. 1992; Ding et al. 2001; Nukata et al. 2002).

Grifolin was identified as a potential antitumor agent that can inhibit tumor cell growth by inducing apoptosis in vitro for cancer cell lines. It was also shown that apoptosis of cells was induced by the activation of caspase-8,-9, and -3, release of cytochrome c from mitochondria, with a decrease of the Bcl-2 level and an increase of the Bax level (Ye et al. 2005; Song et al. 2007). Studies of molecular targets and the signaling mechanism underlying the anti-cancer effect found that grifolin significantly caused cell-cycle arrest in the G1-phase that is responsible for the inhibition of the

ERK1/2 or the ERK5 pathway (Ye et al. 2007). Recent evidence suggests that upregulation of death-associated protein kinase 1 (DAPK1) via the p53–DAPK1 pathway is an important mechanism of grifolin that contributes to its ability to induce an apoptotic effect (Luo et al. 2011).

## Polyphenolic compounds (styrylpyrone-class of phenols)

Medicinal mushrooms have been reported to produce a variety of polyphenolic pigments, known as styrylpyrone-class of phenols, derived from polyketide pathways, which show significant biological effects, including anti-cancer properties (Lee and Yun 2011). Styrylpyrone pigments are common constituents of *Phellinus* spp. and *Inonotus* spp. (*Hymenochaetaceae*). Hispidin was first isolated as a naturally occurring styrylpyrone from *Inonotus hispidus*, and a number of other hispidin-class metabolites have since been discovered (Gonindard et al. 1997). Recent studies have demonstrated that fruiting bodies of *Phellinus igniarius*, *P. linteus*, and *Inonotus obliquus* contain unique styrylpyrone derivatives with many biological activities. Phelligridins A-J were isolated from the ethanolic extract of *Phellinus igniarius* together with inoscavin A and hispolon and showed anti-oxidative and cytotoxic effects (Wang et al. 2007; Lu et al. 2009; Huang et al. 2010).

Earlier studies showed that hispidin is more cytotoxic toward cancerous cells (pancreatic duct and keratinocyte) than normal cells (Gonindard et al. 1997). Hispolon from ethanol extracts of *Phellinus linteus* fruiting bodies induces apoptosis in human gastric cancer cells through a reactive oxygen species (ROS)-mediated mitochondrial pathway (Lu et al. 2009). This process is accompanied by the collapse of mitochondrial membrane potential, the release of cytochrome C and the activation of caspase-3 (Chen et al. 2006, 2008a). Hispolon has the ability to down regulate some proto-oncogenes (MDM2) important in tumorigenesis and a potential anti-tumor agent in breast and bladder cancers (Lu et al. 2009). Recently, hispolon has been identified as an anti-metastatic agent. It can inhibit the metastasis of SK-Hep1 cells by reduced expression of MMP-2, MMP-9, and uPA through the suppression of various signaling pathways and of the activity of PI3K/Akt and Ras homologue gene family (Huang et al. 2010).

Phelligridins are a hispidin-class of derivatives (pyrano [4,3-*c*] [2]benzopyran-1,6-dione) from *Inonotus* and *Phellinus* spp. Phelligridins (C-F) from *P. igniarius* showed in vitro selective cytotoxicity against a human lung cancer cell line and a liver cancer cell line (Mo et al. 2004; Wang et al. 2007). Highly oxygenated metabolites, including Phelligridins D, E and G isolated from *Inonotus* and *Phellinus* spp. exhibited significant free radical scavenging activity (Lee et al. 2007b; Lee and Yun 2007). Phelligridin G was shown to be a powerful

anti-oxidant with activity against human ovarian and colon cancer cell lines (Wang et al. 2005). Co-culture of *Inonotus obliquus* with *Phellinus punctatus* led to the development of a cost-effective strategy for up regulating biosynthesis of bioactive metabolites with potent anti-tumor and anti-proliferative effects on HeLa 229 cells. Changes in metabolic profiles with metabolites, including phelligridin C, phelligridin H, methyl inoscavin A, inoscavin C, methyl davallialactone, provide positive prospects in the future (Zheng et al. 2011).

### Irofulven

Irofulven (6-hydroxymethylacylfulvene; MGI-114; MGI PHARMA, Inc., Bloomington, MN) is a novel semi-synthetic anti-cancer agent derived from the mushroom toxin illudin-S (McMorris et al. 1996). The latter sesquiterpenoid toxin produced by *Omphalotus illudens* was first identified as a very potent antibiotic (Lehmann et al. 2003). The highly toxic properties of illudin-S promoted the production of an analog with improved therapeutic potential, a semi-synthetic derivative known as irofulven (McMorris et al. 1996; McMorris 1999).

As an alkylating agent, irofulven has the ability to covalently bind to biological macromolecules, to inhibit DNA synthesis, and to induce apoptosis (Woynarowski et al. 1997; Kelner et al. 2008). In addition, it appears to interfere with redox homeostasis, leading to protein oxidation and mitochondrial dysfunction, which triggers a proapoptotic signal. Its cytotoxicity seems to be more specifically directed against malignant cells and the redox homeostasis that is maintained protects normal cells from the effects of irofulven (Liang et al. 2001; Leggas et al. 2002). In addition, an enhanced anti-tumor activity of irofulven was observed in combination with other anti-cancer agents (Poindessous et al. 2003; Kelner et al. 2008).

Currently, irofulven is one of the most extensively studied anti-tumor drugs to have undergone many clinical trials but it still requires further clarification. Irofulven produced different results in phase I and phase II trials of human cancer cell lines, including advanced melanoma (Pierson et al. 2002), advanced renal cell carcinoma (Alexandre et al. 2007) and pretreated ovarian carcinoma (Seiden et al. 2006). Studies showed that the cytotoxic activity of irofulven is greater when it is combined with other anti-angiogenic or chemotherapeutic drugs (Alexandre et al. 2004; Woo et al. 2005; Hilgers et al. 2006; Dings et al. 2008). Although irofulven has undergone many clinical trials, its chemotherapeutic behavior is not fully investigated, and irofulven has some limitations in usage in different cancer cell lines, a situation that requires further investigation.

### Triterpenes of *Ganoderma* sp.

*Ganoderma lucidum*-derived polysaccharides prevent tumor metastasis indirectly via the activation of an immune response from the host organism, whereas triterpenes suppress invasive behavior of the cancer cells directly. Numerous triterpenoids, including more than one hundred pharmacologically-active metabolites, have been discovered, and these compounds have been proven to display wide-ranging biological activity (Cheng et al. 2010). These triterpenoids can be divided in to two groups depending on the ligand bound to 26th carbone position (C-26). One group has a C-26 carboxyl group and these are referred to as ganoderic acids, whereas the other group has a C-26 hydroxyl group and are known as *Ganoderma* alcohols (Liu et al. 2010). Triterpenoid components, including ganoderic acids, lucidimol-A, -B, ganodermanon-diol, ganoderiol F and ganodermanontriol, have been demonstrated to exert cytotoxic effects on cancer cells (Chen and Chen 2003; Sliva 2003; Chang et al. 2006; Tang et al. 2006a; Weng and Yen 2010; Chin et al. 2011).

Triterpenes isolated from species of *Ganoderma* have anti-cancer properties (Cheng et al. 2010). Several cytotoxic triterpenoids have been reported as having inhibitory activities against human cervical cancer cells (Cheng et al. 2010; Xu et al. 2010). Triterpene-enriched extracts from *Ganoderma lucidum* inhibit the growth of hepatoma cells via suppressing protein kinase C, activating mitogen-activated protein kinases (Lin et al. 2003). Ganoderic acid T also induces apoptosis of metastatic lung tumor cells through an intrinsic pathway related to mitochondrial dysfunction (Tang et al. 2006b). Cytotoxicity of a ganoderic acid fraction called GA-Me has been tested on cultured human colon cancer cells (Chen et al. 2008b). The activation of the intrinsic mitochondria-dependent apoptotic pathway was identified and the data suggest that GA-Me may be a natural potential apoptosis inducing agent for human colon tumors (Zhou et al. 2011)

### Novel drug discovery from medicinal mushrooms and clinical studies on patients

There has been growing interest in developing fungi and mushroom-derived products as drugs or dietary supplements and scientifically investigating the function of these products (Lindequist et al. 2005; Aly et al. 2010; Jakopovich 2011; Xu et al. 2011). Medicinal mushrooms with biologically active substances have been used in several human clinical trials and have shown promising results as supportive treatment when used along with conventional therapies (Zhuang and Wasser 2004; Wasser 2011). A trend toward integration of immune potentiating agents with cancer surgery, chemotherapy, and

radiation therapy is now considerably advanced in many Asian countries where mushroom preparations have been traditional anti-cancer medicines for centuries (Jiang and Silva 2010; Jakopovich 2011).

Many commercially developed mushroom polysaccharides such as Lentinan from *Lentinula edodes* (Chihara et al. 1969, 1970; Hobbs 2000), Schizophyllan (Sonifilan, Sizofiran, or SPG), from *Schizophyllum commune* (Hobbs 2005), polysaccharopeptide and polysaccharopeptide krestin, peptidoglucans from *Trametes versicolor* (Hobbs 2004), maitake D-fraction from *Grifola frondosa* (Zhuang and Wasser 2004; Boh and Berivic 2007) and a *Ganoderma* polysaccharide fraction from *G. lucidum* (Yuen and Gohel 2005; Zhou et al. 2005; Lin 2009; Mahajna et al. 2009; Wasser 2010) appear to mediate anti-tumor activity by activating the immune system and have proceeded through Phase I, II and III clinical trials, mainly in Japan and China, while such trials are also occurring in the United States and some European countries (Inoue et al. 1993; Nanba 1997b; Mizuno 1999b; Kidd 2000; Yamashita et al. 2007; Jakopovich 2011; Zhang et al. 2011).

Many experimental and clinical trials have been carried out that show promising cancer inhibitory and immunostimulatory activity in many other species of mushrooms, including *Cordyceps sinensis* (Holliday and Cleaver 2008), *Flammulina velutipes* (Maruyama and Ikekawa 2007), *Inonotus obliquus* (Mizuno et al. 1999; Park et al. 2005) and *Phellinus linteus* (Kim et al. 2007). Among low-molecular-weight mushroom compounds, only a few of the numerous newly discovered compounds have progressed to clinical evaluation. Irofulven is the most extensively studied compound in this group but needs future clinical confirmation before being recommended for use as an anti-cancer drug (Seiden et al. 2006; Alexandre et al. 2007).

### What is the estimated use of medicinal mushrooms?

Cancer is one of the major chronic diseases responsible for human deaths worldwide (Anon 2010). Finding cures for this disease has been a challenge of great interest for scientists throughout this and the previous century. Even though it has proved difficult to find effective remedies for this complex disease, supportive treatment to improve the quality of life of cancer patients may significantly reduce suffering.

Development of anti-cancer drugs has become a fundamental trend among the large pharmaceutical companies; they spend billions of dollars on cancer research (Pollack 2009; Smith and Ryan 2009). Currently, the number of anti-cancer drugs being tested on humans is more than twice the number of experimental drugs for heart disease and stroke combined, as well as being nearly twice the total for AIDS and all other infectious diseases combined (Pollack 2009).

Exploration of natural sources for novel bioactive anti-tumor agents may provide leads or solutions for drug discovery and development (Lindequist et al. 2010; Liu et al. 2010; Xu et al. 2010; Aly et al. 2011). Many promising novel drugs have served as remarkable finds in the history of disease treatments (Aly et al. 2011). Some of the key drug products include antibiotics (penicillin, cephalosporins and fusidic acid), anti-fungal agents (griseofulvin, strobilurins and echinocandins) and anti-cholesterol agents (statins, Mevastatin and Lovastatin), and immunosuppressive drugs (cyclosporine). In addition, some pharmaceutical drug products such as the ergot alkaloids were developed from fungal bioactive compounds or their derivatives (Liu 2002; Li and Vederas 2009; Liu et al. 2009b; Smith and Ryan 2009; Aly et al. 2011). According to a 60-year review by Newman and Cragg (2007) of the study on natural sources of drug products, 47% of anti-cancer drugs were actually developed as a result of leads from natural products or directly derived from them. A 50-year retrospective analysis of drug discovery from fungi provides a comprehensive account of fungal secondary metabolites and their role as drug leads of enormous therapeutic potential (Aly et al. 2011).

Today, bioactive metabolites from medicinal mushrooms produce beneficial effects not only as pharmaceutical drugs but also as a novel class of supportive products with overall immune enhancement (Jiang and Silva 2010; Jakopovich 2011). These include dietary supplements, functional foods (nutraceuticals), nutraceuticals (a new class of compounds that have been extracted from either mushrooms or vegetative mycelia). A refined or partially refined extract that is consumed in the form of capsules or tablets as a dietary supplement, but not as a food, can have potential therapeutic applications as a mycopharmaceutical or as a designer food that produces beneficial effects with regular usage in a healthy diet (Chang and Buswell 2003; Chang 2006; Wasser and Akavia 2008; Wasser 2010). Examples of the available drug products and supplementary foods developed from medicinal mushrooms that claim to provide beneficial effects on immune stimulation and help in cancer prevention are shown in Table 4 and Plate 1.

Many researchers have come to the conclusion that, to maximize a host-mediated response or to 'awaken' the immune system, a mixture of polysaccharides with some combination of mushroom extracts is best (Kurashige et al. 1997; Shamtsyan et al. 2004; Jakopovich 2011). These combinational effects appear to increase the number and activity of killer T and natural killer lymphocytes. Combining species of medicinal mushrooms sends the immune system multiple stimuli collectively, increasing intracellular reactions, awakening the body's natural defenses (Ivanković et al. 2004; Zaidman et al. 2005; Borchers et al. 2008; Wasser 2010). One case study utilizing six medicinal mushrooms in breast cancer treatments resulted in complete

**Table 4** Examples of marketed products of mushroom extracts with claimed immunostimulatory activity

Product name	Product function claim	Fungus/extract present	Web page
Dr Myko San – Health from Mushrooms	Reducing the risk of the occurrence of malignant diseases. Anti-tumor activity, without any toxic side effects.	Different mushroom species	<a href="http://www.mykosan.com">www.mykosan.com</a>
<i>Ganoderma Lucidum</i> Spore	Anti-tumor and immuno-potentiating properties (enhancing the functioning of the immune system)	<i>Ganoderma lucidum</i> spore extract	<a href="http://www.herbhorizon.net">www.herbhorizon.net</a>
<i>Griffron Maitake</i> Mushrooms	Overall health and immune support	<i>Griffolea frondosa</i>	<a href="http://Ganoderma_Spore.asp">Ganoderma_Spore.asp</a>
<i>Im-Yunity</i> <sup>®</sup>	Maintaining white blood cell levels and increasing immune proteins	COV-1 <sup>®</sup> strain of <i>Coriolus versicolor</i>	<a href="http://www.shokos.com">www.shokos.com</a>
MC-S (Metabolic Cell Support)	Significantly enhances white blood cell (immune cell) proliferation while simultaneously suppressing cancer cell growth.	<i>Ganoderma Lucidum</i> , <i>Lentinus edodes</i> (mycelia) <i>Coriolus versicolor</i>	<a href="http://MushroomWisdom.htm">MushroomWisdom.htm</a>
Mycophyto <sup>®</sup> Complex	Potential therapeutic value in the treatment of human breast cancer	Blend of mushroom mycelia from <i>Agaricus subrufescens</i> , <i>Cordyceps sinensis</i> , <i>Coriolus versicolor</i> , <i>Ganoderma lucidum</i> , <i>Griffolea frondosa</i> and <i>Polyporus umbellatus</i>	<a href="http://www.imyunity.com">www.imyunity.com</a>
Red reishi	Overall immunity and suppression of tumors	<i>Ganoderma lucidum</i> fruit body and spores	Jiang and Silva 2010
Super Royal Agaricus Mushroom	Immune and kidney support	<i>Agaricus subrufescens</i> -fruiting body extract <i>Griffolea frondosa</i> -Maitake TD fraction	<a href="http://www.econugenics.com">www.econugenics.com</a>

The co-authors of the present paper have not confirmed these claims



**Plate 1** Examples of products marketed with claimed immune stimulatory and anti-cancer properties containing mushrooms or their extracts\*. 1. *Dr Myko San—Health from Mushrooms* 2. *Ganoderma Lucidum Spore* 3. *Grifron Maitake Mushrooms* 4. *I'm-Yunity*® 5. *MC-S (Metabolic Cell*

*Support)* 6. *MycoPhyto® Complex* 7. *Red reishi* 8. *Super Royal Agaricus Mushroom*. \* We have not confirmed the immune stimulatory and anti-cancer effects of these products

recovery (Shamtsyan et al. 2004). The formula inhibited the growth of highly metastatic human breast cancer cells and also suppressed metastatic potential of these cells without the side effects that are associated with cancer chemotherapy (Shamtsyan et al. 2004; Jiang and Silva 2010).

Among the large pool of chemical metabolites found in nature, discovery of biologically active metabolites from medicinal mushrooms give new insight to novel drug discovery that might be used against cancer. The high structural variability found in polysaccharide fractions and the unique reactive properties of low molecular weight secondary metabolites show potential ability for use in anti-cancer remedies. The high structural variability found in polysaccharides allows

them to have a high capacity for carrying biological information (Chen and Seviour 2007). Immunostimulatory activity as a result of polysaccharides is believed to be mainly due to their high molecular weight and the high structural complexity associated with a branched triple helix structure (Bohn and BeMiller 1995). However, these characteristics make it difficult to synthesize polysaccharides in large scale production and certain physical properties restrict their pharmaceutical applicability (Wasser 2002; Ohno 2005; Zhang et al. 2007; Chen and Seviour 2007; Lehtovaara and Gu 2011).

Although the use of mushrooms in anti-cancer therapies has promise, there are few conclusive mechanistic studies of their constituents such as polysaccharides and evidence for

immunostimulatory action is still very hypothetical, especially where in vivo action is concerned. Another problem is that the macromolecular glucans and other therapeutic polymers from fungi may not exhibit favorable pharmacological and pharmacokinetic properties. In terms of analytics, it is also difficult to measure drug metabolism, which is one of the major prerequisites for approval of “ethical” pharmaceutical drugs. For this reason many of the mushroom derived anti-cancer preparations remain as Over-the-counter drugs (OTC drugs) or nutraceuticals. The recent papers by Chen and Seviour (2007), Chan et al. (2009) and Wasser (2011) have addressed the challenges (approval, analytical problems etc.) that are associated with the use of  $\beta$ -glucans in cancer treatments and should be considered as further references on how such topics can be addressed in a more scientific manner.

Furthermore, mycelial cultures of various mushroom species have also been shown to produce bioactive metabolites, usually different from those found in the fruiting bodies. Of particular note are the in vitro activities of terpenoids from cultures of basidiomycetes (Peng et al. 2005; Erkel and Anke 2008). The best known example for this is Pleurotulin, which is derived from mycelial cultures of the genus *Clitopilus* (Hartley et al. 2009). Therefore, metabolites from cultures may not provide similar therapeutic benefits as those that have been claimed in traditional medicine. On the other hand, cultural extracts may produce other medicinal benefits. Since this is not the purpose of this review, readers should refer to other reviews (e.g., Abraham 2001; Shu et al. 2004; Zhong and Tang 2004; Lin and Liu 2006; Erkel and Anke 2008; Ferreira et al. 2010; Wasser 2011) for further information. However, it is important to realize that bioactive metabolites produced in the fruiting bodies may not be produced in mycelial cultures and vice versa.

At present, commercial mushroom products are developed either from mushrooms collected from field cultivation or submerged cultures of the same species. Adding precursors to the culture medium may facilitate or induce bioactive metabolite production from a mycelium (similar or different content of yield from those of fruiting bodies) through biotechnology and bioconversion methods. Culture conditions such as pH can affect the production of bioactive metabolites such as polysaccharides by *Agaricus subrufescens* in batch cultures (Shu et al. 2004). Zhong and Tang (2004) outlined several important metabolites produced by mushroom cultivation and advances in submerged culture of *Ganoderma lucidum*.

On the other hand, according to Heleno et al. (2011), fruiting bodies of edible species of *Boletus* can be used directly in the human diet as health foods, due to their primary metabolites such as proteins, carbohydrates, fatty acids, mainly linoleic acid, sugars, mainly mannitol and trehalose, and vitamins (tocopherols and ascorbic acid), as well as antioxidant secondary metabolites such as phenolic

derivatives. In addition, the volatile organic compounds (VOC) identified from hydrodistillates and solvent extracts of the fruiting bodies of *Ganoderma lucidum* were investigated for cytotoxicity and antimicrobial activity by Campos Ziegenbein et al. (2006). Recently, Kinge and Mih (2011) demonstrated the cytotoxicity of three lanostane-type triterpenoids, isolated from fruiting bodies of *Ganoderma zonatum*, against five human tumour cell lines. It should also be noted that secondary metabolite (VOC) content can vary depending on whether mushrooms are fresh, dried or cooked (Rapior et al. 1997). This has an impact on the synergistic and/or additive effects of the consumption of fruiting bodies in the human diet as health foods.

Admittedly, most research has focused on mushroom secondary metabolites that directly affect intracellular transduction pathways, triggering specific signaling reactions that may lead to cancer inhibition. The metabolites such as caffeic acid phenethyl ester, cordycepin, panepoxydone and cycloepoxydon show specific cytotoxicity against tumor cells (Han et al. 2004; Zaidman et al. 2005; Erkel et al. 2007; Petrova et al. 2008, 2009; Yassin et al. 2008; Kudugunti et al. 2010). The discovery of the metabolic action of cordycepin indicated that the biochemical could be useful for treating a wide range of different cancers (Wong et al. 2010b).

The advancements in scientific research directed towards medicinal mushrooms and the activity of their biometabolites and their behavior at the cellular level make it possible to focus on new approaches (Wong et al. 2010b; Wasser 2011; Li et al. 2010b). Significantly, the knowledge of molecular biology, proteomics, genomics and pharmacology should be integrated to develop new approaches to apply these compounds to curing disease.

## Conclusions and future prospective for novel drug discovery from medicinal mushrooms

Mushrooms have been treasured as remedies for disease and as natural health foods for thousands of years, and they are incredibly popular foods in numerous countries throughout the world (Lindequist et al. 2005; Ferreira et al. 2010). Cancers, on the other hand, are chronic human diseases which affect millions around in the world. Even though there has been remarkable progress in cancer treatment methods, this disease complex still causes serious and often fatal problems. The patient's desire for adequate support, reduction of the side effects of conventional medicines, strengthening of their immune system and enhancing quality of life are currently topics of concern among physicians. There is increasing evidence that medicinal mushrooms may provide an array of medicinally important compounds that have yet to be evaluated by Western medical scientists. Treatments based on medicinal mushrooms (mycotherapy/



biological immunotherapy) fulfill many of the requirements of supplementary cancer treatments and may serve as a direct remedy against cancer development.

The major bioactive metabolites found in medicinal mushrooms can be broadly categorized as high molecular weight metabolites and low molecular weight metabolites. High molecular weight metabolites such as polysaccharides, protein polysaccharides and fungal immunomodulatory proteins provide anti-cancer activity mainly through the activation of the immune system. Mushrooms may produce large numbers of low molecular weight compounds that not only activate the immune system but also control the cellular transduction pathways responsible for cancer development. Medicinal mushrooms are gifts from nature that contain biologically active metabolites which can be used as support remedies for cancer treatments. Additional studies of the activities and mechanisms of action of these metabolites are needed so to develop them as potent anti-cancer drugs. New methods and techniques integrated with biotechnology and other relevant disciplines are also required. In vivo experimentation with high-quality, long-term double-blinded, clinical studies with large trial populations will be needed to confirm the safety and effects of these mushroom-derived compounds on cancer patients.

More than 30 species of medicinal mushrooms are currently identified as sources for biologically active metabolites with potential anti-cancer properties. However, much of the evidence is based on traditional folklore (e.g., Traditional Chinese Medicine), results of in vitro assays, as well as conclusive in vivo data and even clinical traits (Jikai 2002). One must be aware, however, that in vitro assays will only give a hint as to the potential therapeutic value but are not normally considered as valid proof. They mark the very first steps in preclinical screening but are often used as advertising arguments for traditional medicines. Therefore, future investigations directed towards the structural suitability, mechanisms, and metabolism of these compounds is warranted to rationally improve them as potential drugs.

There are also many problems in the correct identification, taxonomy and nomenclature of medicinal mushrooms. For example, confusion exists with respect to the names *Agaricus blazei* and *Agaricus subrufescens* or many polypores (Kerrigan 2005; Dai 2010). There are, however, still countries and regions that have not been studied for their diversity of mushrooms. This is particularly true in tropical regions of the world (Hawksworth 2001; Hyde 2001; Aly et al. 2010; Boonyanuphap and Hansawasdi 2010). There is a need to explore tropical countries for the presence of mushrooms and to assay their bioactive metabolites that can be used as possible remedies for cancer treatments. A recent study determined that high levels of  $\beta$ -glucans are found in wild mushrooms in Thailand (Boonyanuphap and Hansawasdi 2010), while Hyde et al. (2010) reviewed the use of mushroom

in cosmetics, including evidence for certain medical properties such as anti-aging. These studies indicate the need for investigations of wild mushrooms throughout poorly studied regions, since the species present have medicinal, biochemical and cultivatable potential. Studies are warranted to explore this un-tapped resource for the isolation and production of novel anti-cancer compounds of medicinal importance.

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