





FREE RADICAL SCAVENGING ABILITY, MECHANISMS OF ACTION AND HEALTH IMPLICATIONS OF OYSTER MUSHROOMS (*Pleurotus* species)

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Review



ABSTRACT

Due to the importance of Oyster mushrooms (*Pleurotus* species) as a source of food and medicine to man, they have been cultivated both on large and small scales or collected in the wild. The present study evaluated the different antioxidant activities, mechanisms of action and various health implications on human of Oyster mushrooms. Since a single study is not effective in determining the antioxidant property of mushroom, several *in vitro* assays were reviewed including scavenging activities of DPPH, superoxide, nitric oxide, hydroxyl and ABTS as well as Oxygen radical absorbance capacity (ORAC) activities among others. *In vivo* assays like enzymatic (catalase (CAT), superoxide dismutase (SOD), glutathione *S*-transferase (GST), glutathione peroxidase (GPx), glutathione reductase (GR), and ascorbate peroxidase (APx) and non-enzymatic (Ascorbic acid, Vitamin E and Glutathione (GSH)); using mice, rats and porcine brain were also reviewed. Oyster mushrooms extract scavenged free radicals and prevented oxidative stress both *in vitro* and *in vivo*, and can influence their activities as natural immune boosters and thereby affect human health positively. The review has revealed oyster mushrooms as functional foods enriched with antioxidants and a good potential to oppose the formation of reactive oxygen and nitrogen species, preventing oxidative stress and scavenging free radicals.

Keywords: Oyster mushrooms; antioxidant property; human health; biomedical activities; medicinal mushroom

INTRODUCTION

OYSTER MUSHROOMS; PLEUROTUS SPECIES

Over the years, mushrooms have been considered as a valuable and nutritional delicacy with dual functions; serving as both foods and medicine to man (Chang and Buswell, 2003; Adebayo et al. 2012b; Bamigboye and Oloke, 2016b). The relationship between man and mushrooms can be traced far back to the ancient past, mainly due to richness in protein, essential amino acids, minerals and polysaccharide metabolites such as beta-glucan (Bamigboye et al., 2013; Bamigbove and Oloke, 2016b). In recent times, however, the oyster mushroom is significant in the mushroom market worldwide, and several of its species are developed in both large and small scales all over the world (Adebayo et al., 2012b). Pleurotus species are cultivated on diverse agricultural wastes since they are more preeminent wood decomposers than other mushroom species (Bamigboye et al., 2019a). The nutritional content of Pleurotus species is, therefore, a function of the genetic make-up, differences in the physical and chemical composition of the growth medium (Akyuz and Kirbag, 2010; Bamigboye et al., 2019a), substrate type, pileus size and harvest time. Pleurotus species reported to be beneficial medicinally are often rich in protein, minerals (P, Ca, Fe, Na and K) and vitamins (Niacin, Folic acid Riboflavin, and Thiamine) (Caglarimak, 2007; Khan and Tania, 2012), proximate composition (protein, fat, ash, carbohydrates and energy) (Adebayo et al., 2014a; Carneiro et al., 2013; Kalac, 2013). Some sugars, including fructose, mannitol, sucrose, trehalose and fatty acids mainly palmitic, oleic, stearic, linoleic and linolenic acids were found in Pleurotus(Carneiro et al., 2013; Varverde et al., 2015). Oyster mushrooms have high potassium to sodium ratio, making them an ideal food for hypertensive patients and those with heart diseases (Patil et al., 2010). Pleurotus is rich in nutraceutical substances including lectins, which are glycoproteins with antitumor, immunomodulatory and antiproliferative activities. Also, polysaccharides (β-glucan, polysaccharopeptides and polysaccharide proteins) have found applications as pharmaceuticals with hepatoprotective (Bamigboye et al., 2019b), anti-inflammatory, immune-enhancing and anticancer properties (Varverde et al., 2015). Heteroglycans of Pleurotus sp. is known to stimulate macrophages and they have antiproliferative and proapoptotic

effects on cancer cells (Lavi et al., 2006; Tong et al., 2009). Besides, their phytochemical and phenolic contents such as saponins, alkaloids, steroids, anthraquinones phlobatannins, and flavonoids (Adebayo et al., 2012a), alkaloids, tannins, saponins and flavonoids (Dandapat and Sinha, 2015) antioxidants, and anti-inflammatory activities for Pleurotus species have been reported. Phenolic compounds of different species of Pleurotus are secondary metabolites, which enhance physiological properties of mushrooms like antiinflammatory, antiallergenic, cardioprotective, antiatherogenic, antimicrobial, antithrombotic, antioxidants and can also provide protection against several degenerative disorders (Varverde et al., 2015). Free radicals are released from ultra-violet light, cellular metabolism and polluted air, this then result into inflammation, damage to immune cells and other body cells. Free radicals require intense attention by researchers because they are involved in some disease disorders such as diabetics, heart diseases, respiratory neurodegenerative disorders, cancers, cataract development and rheumatoid arthritis (Phaniendra et al., 2015). In earlier studies, the therapeutic, biotechnological and nutritional benefits of Pleurotus spp were documented in a review (Correa et al., 2016), likewise, some factors that may affect production of Pleurotus spp have also been discussed (Belletini et al., 2019). More recently, Barbosa et al., (2020) elaborated on the bioactivities of polysaccharides from Pleurotus spp and the development of new extraction methods. Till date, there are very few or no reviews that have collated the promising potency of extracts from Pleurotus spp in scavenging free radicals. Therefore, this present review discussed the antioxidant activities of Pleurotus extracts, their mechanisms of action and implications on human health.

FREE RADICALS AND THEIR SOURCES

Free radicals are molecular species existing autonomously with an unpaired electron in an atomic orbital. They behave as reductants or oxidants through the donation of an electron to or by accepting an electron from other molecules; they are highly reactive and unstable (Lobo et al., 2010). In a broad sense, free radicals are a type of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and Reactive nitrogen species (RNS) which associate with the oxygen atom (O) and react strongly with other molecules, but not with oxygen (Kurutas et al., 2016). They can react with

nucleic acid, membrane lipids, enzymes and proteins among others, thereby leading to cellular damage (Adebayo et al., 2014b). Free radicals commonly encountered include hydroxyl radicals, highly reactive oxygen-containing molecules, superoxide anion radicals, nitric oxide radicals singlet oxygen, and various lipid peroxides; lipid hydroperoxide (ROOH), lipid peroxyl radical (ROO), and lipid alkoxyl radical (RO) (Adebayo et al., 2014b; Kurutas et al., 2016). Free radicals are generated both endogenously and exogenously. Humans generate low levels of free radicals during oxidation processes, representing the major endogenous source of free radicals. Metabolic processes such as aerobic respiration and some active organelles including stimulated polymorphonuclear leukocytes, macrophages, mitochondria, peroxisomes, and endoplasmic reticulum and can generate ROS/RNS in living organisms. On the other hand, free radicals that are frequently generated exogenously include ionizing radiations, pesticides and organic solvents, certain pollutants, industrial solvents, cigarette smoke, heavy metal, transition metals, radiation medications such as paracetamol and halothane (Pham-Huyet al., 2008; Adebayo et al., 2012a Adebayo et al., 2014b; Phaniendra et al., 2015; Sanchez, 2017).

FREE RADICAL SCAVENGERS

The free radicals scavengers are majorly antioxidant compounds that prevent oxidative damages which could result in ageing and life-threatening diseases (Khan et al., 2010). Therefore, antioxidants are defined as chemicals, whether synthetic or natural, capable of preventing the oxidative reactions of free radicals by exchanging its electrons with that of the free radicals for stabilization (Sanchez, 2017). Interestingly, when free radicals occur at low levels in the body system, the innate antioxidant defence systems (glutathione peroxidase, superoxide dismutase, lipase, catalase and other enzymes) can effectively scavenge these free radicals. At higher levels, an antioxidant must be obtained from an external source; mainly dietary. Diets rich in antioxidants include fruits (rich in carotenoids), vitamin C, nuts rich in vitamin E, beta-glucans and most especially mushrooms (Figure 1). Apart from preserving life via the protection of the human body, antioxidants can also serve as food preservatives (Shahidi and Ambigaipalan, 2015). Most of the commonly used synthetic antioxidants such as butylated hydroxyanizole (BHA) and butylated hydroxyltoluene (BHT) are regulated in foods, and other chemicals like ascorbic acids, glutathione, carotenoids, a-tocopherol and polyphenol compounds are suspected to be carcinogenic (Jayakumar et al., 2011).

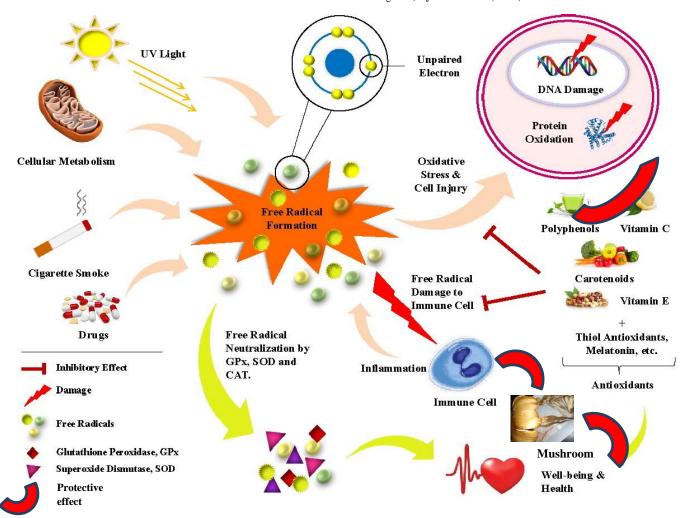


Figure 1 A schematic representation on the sources of free radicals, damages involved and counter-actions by different antioxidants (polyphenols, mushrooms, carotenoids and vitamin C) to maintain human health and well-being.

Thus, the need for research on natural antioxidant compounds, which may be enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidant groups cannot be overemphasized. Traditionally, some *Pleurotus* species or their extracts have promising reports in the treatment of some diseases in different parts of Nigeria (**Idu et al., 2007**; **Osemwegie et al., 2010**) Japan, China and other Asian countries (**Xu et al., 2011**). In the past three decades, many polysaccharides and polysaccharide-protein complexes have been extracted from fungi, this includes glycans, heterogeneous and homogeneous polysaccharides and glycan-protein complexes which have been shown to improve the general wellbeing of consumers (**Jong et al., 2002**). A good number of these bioactive polysaccharides has demonstrated haematological, antitumor, antibiotic, antioxidant, immunomodulatory, anti-inflammatory, Hepatoprotective, and antimicrobial effects (**Cohen et al., 2002**; **Hamzah et al., 2014**; **Adebayo et al., 2014b**; **Bamigboye et al., 2016a**; **2019a**). Mushrooms can amass a variety of secondary metabolites and phytochemicals,

such as flavonoids, phenolic compounds, polyketides, steroids, terpenes, alkaloids, tannins and saponins (Adebayo et al., 2012b; Dandapat and Sinha, 2015), which are excellent antioxidants. They are not mutagenic and can work synergistically with synthetic and natural antioxidants (Ishikawa et al., 2001). Some non-enzymatic antioxidants, such as vitamin C (Ascorbate), phenolic compounds, vitamin E (-tocopherol), flavonoids, carotenoids, polyphenols etc. (Fereshteh et al., 2017), can act directly as anti-oxidative agents and can be obtained from mushrooms (Adebayo et al., 2012a; Ren et al., 2014; Woldegiorgis et al., 2014; Adebayo et al., 2018). The sufficient intake of mushrooms or mushrooms materials can enhance adequate antioxidant defence, fight against diseases and positively contribute to a good healthy life.

FREE RADICAL SCAVENGING CAPACITY OF OYSTER MUSHROOMS

PRINCIPLES OF FREE RADICAL SCAVENGING ACTIVITIES OF PLEUROTUS SPECIES

The need for exogenous means of antioxidants has prompted many studies to investigate the antioxidant potentials of several natural compounds. In this regard, ergothioneine (ERG) contain mainly the amino acid is a natural thiol which is found abundantly in mushroom and is a good source of antioxidant. On this basis, oyster mushroom free radical scavenging principle has been documented (Jayakumar et al., 2011; Dubost et al., 2007). Pleurotus species are a rich source of vitamin A, C and E, carotenoid, flavonoids and other bioactive phenolic compounds (Ren et al., 2014; Woldegiorgis et al., 2014), thereby enhancing their free radical scavenging capacity. There are four proposed antioxidants principle mechanisms such as; Preventive antioxidants mechanism: in this case, antioxidants suppress the formation of free radicals by reducing hydrogen peroxide and hydroperoxides to water and alcohols, respectively before they form radicals (Lobo et al., 2010). Catalase and Glutathione peroxidase is implicated in this reaction mechanism and is always in vivo in nature. Another mechanism is through the initiation of chain suppression and breaking of chain propagation reactions. The endogenous antioxidants implicated are vitamin E, vitamin C, phenolic compounds, flavonoids, carotenoids and polyphenols. Repair and de novo antioxidant is another principle mechanism for antioxidants defence. Proteolytic enzymes such as proteases, peptidases and proteinases present in the mitochondria and cytosol in a mammalian cell, detect, destroy and evacuate oxidized proteins and prevent its accumulation (Salehi et al., 2018). The last principle is an adaptation, in this mechanism the endogenous antioxidants empower the cell to design a mechanism to maintain, regulate and adapt itself to the inflow of free radicals not to exert oxidative reactions. For instance, polysaccharide-peptide complex (F22) from the sporophore of Pleurotus abalones was reported to act as an excellent free radical scavenger (Li et al., 2007). In another experiment, in vitro demonstration of extract from P. ostreatus showed good compelling antioxidant effect by scavenging superoxide and hydroxyl radicals, chelating ferrous ions, impeding lipid peroxidation and decreasing the power of ferric ions (Nau et al., 1998). Also, extracts of P. ostreatus exhibited notable in-vivo free radical scavenging action by decreasing the intensity of lipid peroxidation and by improving the non-enzymatic and enzymatic antioxidants action. Polyphenolic compounds in mushroom have been heavily linked to lipid oxidation stabilization and are connected with antioxidant activity (Gulcin-Buyukokuroglu et al., 2003). Extracts of P. porrigensat and P. florida had interesting scavenging activity against DPPH in contrast to butylhydroxytoluene (BHT), butylated hydroxyanisole (BHA) and tertbutylhydroquinone (TBHQ) (Wong and Chye, 2009) and the reproducible antioxidant activities of Pleurotus species were believed to be owed to the high content of flavonoid, phenol and some antioxidant phytoconstituents of these extracts (Patel et al., 2012). The free radical scavenging properties of oyster mushrooms have been heavily linked to the presence of polysaccharides. Mushrooms polysaccharides have been identified as an effective reducing agent, ferrous chelator and free radical scavenger. Wang et al. (2016) proposed a likely mechanism for polysaccharide antioxidants to involve polysaccharide conjugations. This implies the combination of polysaccharides with other components such as phytochemicals which together make up the crude polysaccharide. Presence of metal-ion enriched polysaccharide such as Selenium (Se), enhances the polysaccharide antioxidant potentials. Polysaccharide chelating metals bind ions such as copper and ferrous which will inhibit the free radical generations. Another mechanism may occur via the chemical modification of polysaccharides. This may be in the form of sulfation, acetylation, phosphorylation, carboxymethylation and benzoylation which is believed to increase the antioxidant potentials of polysaccharides. Besides, chemical and structural features of polysaccharides such as glycosidic linkage, conformation, molecular mass and chemical compositions have profound effects on their antioxidant potentials. Mushroom polysaccharides can as well utilize any of the above strategies in scavenging the free radicals.

ANTIOXIDANT MODELS: IN VITRO ASSAYS OF FREE RADICAL SCAVENGING CAPACITY OF PLEUROTUS SPECIES

Many antioxidant properties of biological materials have been detected using *in vitro* experimental models. However, the methods can be divided into two main methods namely: hydrogen atom transfer (HAT) and single electron transfer (SET), which was determined based on their reaction mechanisms (Gulcin, 2012; Tan and Lim, 2015). The quenching of free radicals by hydrogen donation is the principle used by HAT, making use of total radical-trapping antioxidant parameter (TRAP), oxygen radical absorbance capacity (ORAC), inhibition of induced low-density lipoprotein (LDL) oxidation, and total oxyradical scavenging capacity assay (Wang *etal.* 2016). The SET method reduces certain compounds such as metals, carbonyls and radicals by transferring one electron which then results in colour change as evidenced in the reduced compound. This method is utilized in 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl radical (DPPH) assay, 2,2-

azino-bis (3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulphonic acid) diammonium salt (ABTS) assay, Trolox equivalence antioxidant capacity (TEAC) assay, hydrogen peroxide scavenging, ferric ion reducing antioxidant power (FRAP) assay, superoxide radical scavenging (Wang et al., 2016) and many others. High antioxidant activities reported from *Pleurotus* by different researchers are due to bioactive components such as phytochemicals, enzymes, vitamins, proteins and polysaccharides. The potential of *Pleurotus* species to show activities in different arrays of antioxidant assays (DPPH, ABTS, ORAC, β -carotene radical scavenging, superoxide, nitric oxide and hydroxyl scavenging etc.) have been examined and reported.

DPPH Antioxidant assays of Oyster Mushrooms

DPPH receives an electron or hydrogen radical to develop a stable diamagnetic molecule. Hydrogen donating ability of DPPH is responsible for its high antioxidants potential. The reduction in absorbance of DPPH radical at 517 nm triggered by antioxidants is said to be the result of the reaction between the radical and antioxidant molecules and thereby leading to the scavenging of the radical via hydrogen donation. Thus, DPPH is typically used as a substrate to estimate scavenging activities of antioxidants (Duh et al., 1999). Several studies have reported the DPPH scavenging activity of oyster mushroom. High scavenging activities of 81 % in both solid state and submerged fermentation was reported (Adebayo et al., 2014b) for Pleurotus pulmonarius at 10 mg/mL. Sporophore Extract of P. djamor grown on rice straw and sawdust mixture inhibited DPPH radicals by 32.8 and 32% respectively at concentration of 0.5 mg/ml (Rich et al., 2016). Also, intracellular and extracellular polysaccharide fractions of mutants strains of P. tuber-regium effectively scavenged DPPH radicals with an EC₅₀ of less than 0.1 µg (Bamigboye et al., 2016). The DPPH scavenging and EC50 of the following Pleurotus species: pulmonarius, levis, ostreatus, tuber-regium, squarrosulus, sajor-cajor, euos, eryngii and cystidiosus have been reported by several studies (Tab 1). Arbaayah and Kalsom (2013) reported the antioxidant potentials of oyster mushrooms in the DPPH free radical scavenging activity test with IC₅₀ that ranged between 4.20- 12.0 mg/ml for P. pulmonarius, P. djamor var. roseus, P. djamor var. djamor, and P. ostreatus. Moreover, the Polysaccharide of Pleurotus ostreatus (Jacq.) P. Kumm demonstrated a concentration dependent DPPH free radical scavenging activity (within 0.2-5.0 mg/ml), with highest activity obtained at higher concentrations which tallied with that of ascorbic acid at 1.2 mg/ml equivalent to 72.23 % (Pk et al., 2019). The scavenging capacities of intracellular mycelia polysaccharide of P. florida, P. sajor-caju, P. eryngiiand P. ostreatus ranged from 16-71.29 % within the concentrations of 1- 10 mg/ml(Dundaret al., 2013). The highest scavenging potential of 81.3 % at 200 μg/ml was displayed by methanolic extract from P. ostreatus(Elmastas et al., 2007). In another study, up to 92.2 and 74.4% of DPPH radicals were scavenged by 5 mg/ml of ethanolic extracts of P. eryngii and P. ostreatus respectively (Lo, 2005). Additionally, Talkad et al. (2015) described that Lovastatin extract of Pleurotus ostreatus displayed noteworthy antioxidant action when compared with Quercetin (a typical antioxidant), with IC₅₀ values of 3.5 and 7.5 μg/ml respectively in a DPPH free radical scavenging assay. Puttaraju et al. (2006), reported the antioxidant potentials of aqueous and methanolic extracts of P. sajor-caju, and the IC50 values attained in DPPH free radical scavenging assay were 1.80 and 2.50 mg/ml respectively. Also, the EC₅₀ values of DPPH free radical scavenging of Pleurotus eryngii and methanol extract of P. eous were 9.21 and 4.2 mg/ml respectively (Reis et al., 2014; Sudha et al., 2012). Also, Kalyoncu et al. (2010) opined that ethanolic extract of Pleurotusostreatus and P. eryngiihad effective DPPH free radical scavenging activity. Jeena et al. (2016) studied the DPPH radical scavenging activity of methanolic extract from three Pleurotus sp. viz P. sapidus, P. ostreatus, and P. sajor-caju. The authors specified that P. sajor-cajuhad the least EC 50 which was 2 mg/ml concentration. Debnathet al. (2017) reported the antioxidant potentials of methanolic extracts of mycelia of some Pleurotus species which are P. sapidus (DMRP-4), P. membranaceus Massee. (DMRP-189), P. sajor-caju (Fr.) Singer (DMRP-112), P.ostreatus (DMRP-262), P. florida (Mont.) Singer (DMRP-88), P. flabellatus (Berk. & Broome) Sacc (DMRP-5), P. hypsizygus ulmarius (Bull.) Redhead (DMRP-115), P. eryngii (DMRP-135), P. djamor (DMRP-205) and P. citrinopileatus Singer (DMRP-10). In the study, the DPPH free radical scavenging experiment revealed that the mycelia methanolic extracts of the ten Pleurotus species displayed antioxidant activities within the range of 62.97-92.05 % at 8.0 mg/ml, and the strongest EC₅₀ was displayed by P. sapidus at a concentration of 0.352 mg/ml compared to the other nine Pleurotus species. Also, Acharya et al. (2017) reported that Pleurotus djamor, had an EC₅₀ value of 0.653 mg/ml when evaluated using DPPHantioxidant assay. The DPPH antioxidants assay by extracts of Pleurotus species has revealed its potentials as dominant reducing agents by using single electron transfer strategy, which confirmed Pleurotus extract as powerful antioxidant agents. This prospect make Pleurotus mushrooms play essential roles in scavenging radicals, act as immune boosters, control of some diseases as well as taken as functional foods.

Superoxide, Nitric Oxide and Hydroxyl Scavenging Activities of Oyster Mushrooms

The superoxide radical is very dangerous to some cell components because of its ability to produce more reactive oxygen species (**Dundar** et al., 2013). The superoxide radical-scavenging activity of the cultured mycelia extracts of *Pleurotus* eryngii, *P.* ostreatus, *P.* florida, and *P.sajor-caju* reported as percentage inhibitions which ranged from 67.92 – 76.14 % at 10 mg/ml. This can result from the interrelations ofthediverse flavonoids in the extracts (**Zhishen** et al., 1999). Also, **Jayakumar** et al. (2009) studied and reported that the superoxide anion radical scavenging activities with EC₅₀ of 8.63 mg/ml and 4.46 mg/ml respectively (**Pal** et al., 2010). Extracts of *P.* ostreatus inhibited hydroxyl compound by 50% at 8 mg/ml (**Jayakumar** et al., 2009). Various extracts of *P.* floridaand *P.* pulmonarius had varying hydroxyl scavenging activities as reported

by (Ajith and Janadhanan, 2007). The superoxide, nitric oxide and hydroxyl scavenging activities of oyster mushrooms are also presented in Table 2.

ABTS Radicals Scavenging Potentials of Oyster Mushroom

A couple of studies have reported the prospect of Oyster mushrooms and their metabolites in mopping up or scavenging ABTS radicals which further emphasize their usefulness as natural antioxidants. Extracts of *P. euos, P. ostreatus, P. eryngii*, and *P. cystidiosus* were reported to possess potentials to scavenge ABTS radicals although at low concentrations (Kongkla and Poeaim, 2016), while higher scavenging activities were reported by Adebayo et al. (2018) for extracts of *P. levis, P. ostreatus, P. tuber-regium, and P. pulmonarius*. Also, Pk et al. (2019) reported that polysaccharide of *P. ostreatus* displayed significant ABTS radicals scavenging activity - 81.02 %, which equalled the activities of ascorbic acid at 1.4 mg/ml. The antioxidant potentials of various *Pleurotus* mushroom species against ABTS radicals are also reported in Table 3.

Table 1 DPPH Scavenging Activity of Oyster Mushrooms along with solvent, EC50 values, highest scavenging activity and cited literatures

Mushroom	Extractant	Concentration (mg/mL)	DPPH Scavenging assay (%)	Reference
P. pulmonarius LAU 09	-	5.0	78.4	Adebayo et al. (2012b)
_		10.0	81.0	•
	Methanol	5.0	78.0	Adebayo et al. (2014b)
		10.0	81.0	
P. pulmonarius CP-16	Hydro-alcohol	0.0007	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	Adebayo et al. (2018)
P. pulmonarius CP-799	Hydro-alcohol	0.00049	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	Adebayo et al. (2018)
P. sapidusNE 07	Methanol	5.0	40.0	Adebayo et al. (2014b)
•		10.0	76.0	•
P. cornucopiaeNE 02	Methanol	5.0	35.0	Adebayo et al. (2014b)
•		10.0	68.0	•
P. ostreatusLAU 10	Methanol	5.0	60.0	Adebayo et al. (2014b)
		10.0	71.0	•
P. levis CP-30	Hydro-alcohol	0.00051	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	Adebayo et al. (2018)
P. ostreatus CP-50	Hydro-alcohol	0.00105	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	Adebayo et al. (2018)
P. ostreatus CP-800	Hydro-alcohol	0.00063	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	Adebayo et al. (2018)
P. ostreatus	Methanol	5.0	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	Kongkla & Poeaim (2016)
P. tuber-regium CP-182	Hydro-alcohol	0.00168	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	Adebayo et al. (2018)
P. squarrosulus	Cold water	0.465	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	Pal et al. (2010)
	Hot water	0.304	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	
	Methanol	1.5	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	
P. sajor-caju	Methanol	5.2	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	Kongkla & Poeaim (2016)
P. sajor-caju	Methanol	6.0	61.0	Ramkumar <i>et al.</i> (2010)
P. euos	Methanol	5.4	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	Kongkla & Poeaim (2016)
	Hexane	0.5	32.0	, ,
P. eryngii	Methanol	8.4	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	Kongkla & Poeaim (2016)
P. cystidiosus	Methanol	9.1	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	Kongkla & Poeaim (2016)

EC₅₀: 50 % Effective Concentration; Fermentation: solid state

Table 2 Superoxide (SO), Nitric oxide (NO) and Hydroxyl (OH) Scavenging Assay of Oyster Mushroom

Table 2 Superoxide (SO), I	Table 2 Superoxide (SO), Nutric oxide (NO) and Trydroxyr (OT1) Scavenging Assay of Oyster Musinooni					
P. squarrosulus	Cold water	1.830	0.360	0.364	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	
_	Hot water	1.473	0.320	0.268	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	Pal et al. (2010)
	Methanol	8.630	4.460	0.706	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	
P. ostreatus	Ethanol	8.000	NR	8.000	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	Jayakumar et al. (2009)
P. florida	Ethyl acetate	NR	NR	0.530		Ajith and Janardhanan
	Methanol	NR	NR	0.263	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	(2007)
	Aqueous	NR	NR	0.263		(2007)
P. pulmonarius	Methanol	NR	NR	0.476	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	Ajith and Janardhanan (2007)

EC₅₀: 50 % Effective Concentration; Fermentation: solid state; NR: Not Recorded

Table 3 ABTS Scavenging Activity of Oyster Mushrooms along with solvent, EC50 values, highest scavenging activity and cited literatures

Mushroom	Extractant	Concentration (mg/mL)	ABTS Scavenging assay (%)	Reference
P. levis CP-30	Hydro-alcohol	0.00050	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	Rich et al. (2016)
P. ostreatus CP-50	Hydro-alcohol	0.00042	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	Rich et al. (2016)
P. ostreatus CP-800	Hydro-alcohol	0.00024	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	Rich et al. (2016)
P. pulmonarius CP-16	Hydro-alcohol	0.00035	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	Rich et al. (2016)
P. pulmonarius CP-799	Hydro-alcohol	0.00037	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	Rich et al. (2016)
P. tuber-regium CP-182	Hydro-alcohol	0.00050	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	Rich et al. (2016)
	Methanol	5.10	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	Kongkla & Poeaim (2016)
P. sajor-caju	Methanol	4.51	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	Kongkla & Poeaim (2016)
P. eous	Methanol	3.92	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	Kongkla & Poeaim (2016)
P. eryngii	Methanol	6.98	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	Kongkla & Poeaim (2016)
P. cystidiosus	Methanol	7.18	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	Kongkla & Poeaim (2016)

EC₅₀: 50 % Effective Concentration

Metal Chelating ability of Oyster Mushrooms

The initial development of radicals can be catalyzed by transition metals. Transition metals can be made steady by chelating agents in living systems to restrain free radicals generation, as a result limiting the induction of free radical damage (Dundar et al., 2013). The chelating potential of an extract provides a means of preventing the generation of free-radical and iron-overload via the chelation of metal ions. Also, metal ion chelating ability played an important action in antioxidant mechanism, since ferrous ions are the most efficient pro-oxidants in food structures. The effectiveness of extracts to impede the development of ferrozine and ferrous complex will suggest their capacity for chelating activities (Debnath et al., 2017). The oxidative loss and iron-overload in the systems may be prevented by chelating agents (Lai et al., 2001). Chelating activities of P. pulmonarius, P. citrinopileatus and P. florida at 1.0 mg/ml were reported to range from 78.14-82.07 % which were significantly higher than EDTA (50.66%) and citric acid (46.84%) (Khatun et al., 2015). According to Lee et al. (2007), the chelating abilities of P. citrinopileatus extracted in ethanol, cold and hot water at 5 mg/ml were 46, 67 and, 82% respectively. Jayakumar et al. (2009) reported that ethanolic extracts of P.ostreatus fruiting body had 60.68% scavenging activity at 10 mg/ml concentration. Also, the chelating activity of ethanolic extracts of fruiting bodies of P. ostreatus and P. eryngii at 5 mg/ml was described to be 41.4 and 64.0 % (Lo, 2005). Dundar et al. (2013) reported that at all of the concentrations ranging from 2.0- 10 mg/ml, ethanolic extracts of mycelia of P. florida, P. eryngii, P. sajor-caju, and P. ostreatus showed higher chelating activities than the standard antioxidants (BHT and α -tocopherol) with percentage inhibition of 57.3- 69.5 % at 10 mg/ml. Mau et al. (2001) reported that methanolic extracts of ear mushroom was able to chelate 85.1 - 96.5% of ferrous ions at a concentration of 5 mg/mL, thereby they are excellent chelators. An ethanolic extract of P. eryngii had a high chelating activity of approximately 75 % at an IC₅₀ of 1.00 mg/ml (Yildirim et al., 2012).

Ferric Reducing Ability and Power of Oyster Mushroom

The potential antioxidant activity of a compound can be determined by its reducing capacity. The various mechanisms such as chain initiation prevention, peroxides decompositions, transition metal ion binding catalysts, hydrogen abstraction discontinued, reductive capacity and scavenging of free radicalhave been attributed toputative antioxidant activity of various antioxidants substances(Gulcin et al., 2003). Antioxidant compounds can transform the oxidized form of iron in ferricyanide (Fe³⁺) to ferrous (Fe²⁺) ion. The electron transfer ability is associated with its reducing power and may serve as animportantpointer to interesting antioxidant activity (Debnathet al., 2017).P. sajor-caju and P. ostreatus were reported to have high scavenging power, 1.980 and 1.780 respectively at 10 mg/ml concentration(Jeena et al., 2016). According to Sudha et al. (2012), the scavenging powers of hot water, methanolic, and ethyl acetate fractions of P. eousat 10 mg/ml was quite high, being1.632, 1.132, and 1.950 respectively. Also, P. pulmonarius, P.djamor var. djamor, P. ostreatus and P. djamor var. roseus were reported to display substantial reducing activities at concentrations between 2 and 10 mg/ml depending on their capacity to reduce ferricyanide complex to ferrous form which varied from 0.29 to 1.23. Although the values obtained for synthetic antioxidants, Quercetin and BHA serving as the standards were appreciably higher by two folds than those of the mushroom extracts (Arbaayah and Kalsom, 2013). Khatun et al. (2015) reported that the optical density at 700 nm in evaluating the reducing power of P. citrinopileatus, P. pulmonarius, and P. florida showed values which range from 0.073 - 0.217 at 1.0 mg/ml concentration which was appreciably higher than ascorbic acid. Debnathet al. (2017) showed that the reducing powers of methanolic extracts of Pleurotus species mycelia tested (which are P. sajorcaju (DMRP-112), P. sapidus (DMRP-4), P. ostreatus (DMRP-262), P. membranaceus(DMRP-189), P. florida (DMRP-88), P. flabellatus (DMRP-5). P. hypsizygus ulmarius (DMRP-115), P. eryngii (DMRP-135), P. djamor (DMRP-205) and P. citrinopileatus (DMRP-10)) were excellent, increasing steadily with increasing concentrations (0.5-8 mg/ml). Also, it was shown that P. sajor-caju displayed the highest ferric reducing power of 0.17 - 1.08 at 8 mg/ml. The scavenging activity of ethanol, hot, and cold water extracts from the sporophore of P. citrinopileatus at 5 mg/ml were in the range of 1.03-1.10 (Lee et al. 2007) and these were higher than those of the mycelia and filtrate. Dundar et al. (2013) reported that reducing power within 0.74 - 0.86 were recorded for four Pleurotus sp. (P. florida, P. sajor-caju, P. ostreatus and P. eryngii) at 10 mg/ml and these were higher compared to results for both BHA and BHT excluding α-tocopherol with reducing powers of 0.99. The extracts of P. squarrosulus isolated from laterite region in the wild had high chelating and reducing power at 1.225 mg/mL and 13 mg/mL respectively (Pal et al., 2012).P. eous also reportedly had reducing power of 0.4% while P. sajor-caju and P. platypus had 0.2% at 6 mg/ml (Rankumar et al., 2010). It has been earlier proven that chemically synthesized antioxidants, among which are, BHA, BHT and TBHQ, are mutagenic. Thus, alternative antioxidants that are derived from natural resources are quite interesting and easily acceptable by consumers (Lo, 2005; Elmastas et al., 2007). The ferrous ion chelating potential and reducing power of oyster mushrooms are presented in Table 4.

$\beta\text{-}Carotene$ Radical Scavenging and Antioxidant Capacity by Phosphomolybdenum_Method

Few studies have examined the antioxidant prospect of Oyster mushrooms and their metabolites by the Phosphomolybdenum method and as well reported their potentials in scavenging β-carotene radical. In vitro analysis of the radicalproducing systems have acknowledged the ability of β-carotene to reduce free radicals viacertain processes which include abstraction of hydrogen, addition of the radical to the carotenoid and/or transfer of electron(Krinsky, 2001). Generally, mushrooms are known to have an appreciable quantity of β-carotene, vitamins A and C, all of which protect against cellular damage due to their excellent antioxidant power(Murcia et al., 2002). The methanolic extract of P. cornucopiae and P. sapidus scavenged β-carotene radicals by 98% while P. pulmonarius and P. ostreatus scavenged radical β-carotene by 62% (Adebayo et al., 2014b). Submerged fermentation of P. pulmonarius showed high antioxidant activity of 87 µmoles/100g as determined by phosphomolybdenum method while P. sapidus and P. ostreatus had 28 μmoles/100g. The EC₅₀ for β-carotene radical scavenging activities for extracts from P. pulmonarius, P. ostreatus, P. levis, P. tuber-regium and P. squarrosulus have also been reported (Adebayo et al. 2018). Also, according to **Dundar** et al. (2013), the ethanolic mycelial extract of of P. eryngii, P. ostreatus, P. sajor-caju and P. florida, exhibited inhibition of peroxidation in a β-carotene-linoleic acid system at a concentration of 0.5 – 10 mg/mL within the range of 34.04 - 62.12 %. The β -carotene radical scavenging and antioxidant capacity measured by phosphomolybdenum methods are presented in Table 5.

Table 4 Chelating Ability of Ferrous Ions and Reducing Power Assay of Oyster Mushroom

Mushroom	Extractant	Chelating ability (mg/mL)	Reducing power (mg/mL)	Reducing power (%)	Reference
	Cold water	0.090	1.33	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	
P. squarrosulus	Hot water	0.075	1.14	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	Pal et al. (2010)
	Methanol	1.225	13.00	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	
P. ostreatus	Ethanol	6.000	ND	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	Jayakumar et al. (2009)
P. sajor-caju	Methanol	NR	6.00	0.20	Ramkumar et al. (2010)
P. euos	Methanol	NR	6.00	0.40	Ramkumar et al. (2010)
P. florida	Methanol	NR	6.00	0.22	Ramkumar et al. (2010)
P. platypus	Methanol	NR	6.00	0.20	Ramkumar et al. (2010)
P. djamor	Methanol	NR	6.00	0.30	Ramkumar et al. (2010)

EC₅₀: 50 $\frac{1}{N}$ Effective Concentration; Fermentation: solid state; NR: Not Recorded

Table 5 β - Carotenes Radical Scavenging and Antioxidant Capacity (as Equivalent to Ascorbic Acid) by Phosphomolybdenum Method of Oyster Mushroom

		(·			-, -,	-r
			1.0	NR	25.6	
	Submerge	-	2.0	62.1	NR	Adebayo et al. (2012b)
DI. ALLOO			5.0	78.4	87.1	
P. pulmonariusLAU 09			1.0	NR	25.5	
	Solid state	Methanol	2.0	62.0	NR	Adebayo et al. (2014b)
			5.0	78.0	87.0	•
P. pulmonariusCP-16	Solid state	Hydro-alcohol	>0.005	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	NR	Adebayo et al. (2018)
P. pulmonariusCP-799	Solid state	Hydro-alcohol	0.00022	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	NR	Adebayo et al. (2018)
P. sapidusNE 07	Solid state	Methanol	1.0	NR	28.0	Adebayo et al. (2014b)

			2.0	98.0	NR	
			5.0	95.0	57.0	
			1.0	NR	34.0	
P. cornucopiaeNE 02	Solid state	Methanol	2.0	70.0	NR	Adebayo et al. (2014)
•			5.0	98.0	69.0	•
			1.0	NR	28.0	
P. ostreatusLAU 10	Solid state	Methanol	2.0	62.0	NR	Adebayo et al. (2014b)
			5.0	88.0	72.0	-
P. ostreatusCP-50	Solid state	Methanol	0.00034	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	NR	Adebayo et al. (2018)
P. ostreatusCP-800	Solid state	Methanol	0.00017	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	NR	Adebayo et al. (2018)
P. levis CP-30	Solid state	Methanol	0.00059	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	NR	Adebayo et al. (2018)
P. tuber-regium CP-182	Solid state	Methanol	0.00016	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	NR	Adebayo et al. (2018)
-		Cold water	0.554	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	NR	-
P. squarrosulus	Solid state	Hot water	0.550	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	NR	Pal et al. (2010)
_		Methanol	3.793	50.0 (EC ₅₀)	NR	

EC₅₀: 50 % Effective Concentration. NR: Not Recorded

Total Phenolic Content of Oyster Mushroom

Phenolic compounds are aromatic hydroxylated compounds which have one or more aromatic rings and one or more hydroxyl groups. They include hydroxybenzoic acids, phenolic acids, flavonoids, hydroxycinnamic acids, tannins, lignans, oxidized polyphenols and stilbenes (Sanchez, 2017). It has been established that phenolic compounds demonstrate free radical scavenging effect in the body, functioning as peroxide decomposers, free radical inhibitors, oxygen scavengers or metal in activators. Mushrooms in general contain an appreciable quantity of polyphenols at different concentrations ranged from 3.62 to 6.25 mg/ml (Ramesh and Pattar, 2010; Barros et al., 2008). Phenolic compounds can be found and extracted from different mushroom, both mycelia and fruiting body, for instance, the mycelium of Pleurotus albidus(Gambato et al., 2016) and the fruit bodies of Pleurotus cornucopiae(Kolayli et al., 2012). Phenolic substances, including phenolic acids and flavonoids, are reported to have antioxidant activity. Also, phenolic compounds in mushrooms are known as exceptional synergists and antioxidants which are not mutagenic (Jayakumar et al., 2011). Phenols are vital plant components owing to the presence of hydroxyl groups, hence having scavenging potential (Dundar et al., 2013). Some studies have convincingly shown that eating phenol-rich foods can lower the menace of cardiovascular diseases by reducing the development of atherosclerosis since they function as antioxidants (Singla et al., 2010; Halliwell and Gutteridge, 2015). Dietary phenolic compounds have been said to have the ability to trigger some biological mechanisms, such as chelation of metals, free-radical scavenging, and regulation of enzymatic activity; they likewise affect the initiation of transcription factors, signal transduction and gene expression (Srinivasan et al., 2005). They have received unique attention due to their purported function in the inhibition of some human illnesses(Nardini and Ghiselli, 2004). The presence of phenols in mushrooms has contributed significantly to theirefficiency at scavenging peroxy radicals (Murcia et al., 2002). The total phenolic content of Pleurotus sp has been described in several studies as either tallic acid, gallic acid or ascorbic acid equivalent or percentage (Tab 6). Extracts of P. djamor had a reportedly high phenolic content of 982 ascorbic acid equivalents (Rankumar et al., 2010), while extracts of P. tuber-regium had 0.05 gallic acid equivalents. This great difference in the phenolic content could be linked to the variation in the standard used in reporting the phenolic content equivalence. Arbaayah and Kalsom (2013) reported that the number of total phenolics in P. djamor var. djamor, P. pulmonarius, P. ostreatus and P. djamor var. roseus, ranged from 39.36 to 51.94 mg TAE/g of dry weight of the crude extract. Also, the total phenolic content of Pleurotus ostreatus was 0.09 mg/g, while that of Pleurotus eryngii was 0.03 mg/g of dry weight (Kim et al., 2008). The total phenol content in P. sajor-caju and P. djamorwas 14.43 and 13.22 mg/g of extract respectively (Puttaraju et al., 2006) while P. ostreatus was estimated to have atotal phenolic content of 0.71 mg/g dry weight (Jayakumar, 2008).Khatun et al. (2015) showed that the total phenol content of P. pulmonarius, P. florida, P. citrinopileatus observed ranged from 64-119 µg catechol g⁻¹dw. The phenolic content in ethanolic extract of *P. aureovillosus*, *P. sajor-caju*, and *P. florida* were reported to range from 6.001- 7.501 μg/mg (Loganathan et al., 2008). The research conducted by **Dundar** et al. (2013) revealed that the total phenolic compounds found in the ethanolic mycelia extracts of P. sajor-caju, P. florida, P. eryngii, and P. ostreatus ranged from 3.97- 4.56 mg/g (dry weight). Debnath et al. (2017) examined ten Pleurotus species and reportedthat their total phenol content ranged between 0.50 - 4.33 mg/g with P. flabellatus and P. ostreatus have the lowest and highest total phenol contents respectively. The total flavonoid content assay is carried out to extract and estimate flavonoids, neoflavonoids and isoflavonoids or all together called as bioflavonoids. Previous studies had proved that flavonoids function as an antioxidant by breaking the radical chains and converting them into more stable products in liver microsomal membranes, with the capacity to protect low density lipoprotein from being destroyed by macrophages and heavy metals which also play a central task of providing inherent fortification to counter oxidative stress and side effects by the presence of vitamins (Arbaavah and Kalsom, 2013). The total flavonoid was highest in *P. pulmonarius* with 12.2 μ g/mg as reported by Adebayo et al. (2012b; 2014) and lowest in P. squarrosulus with 3.07 µg/mg (Pal et al., 2010). Arbaayah and Kalsom (2013) reported that the amount of total flavonoid content in P. pulmonarius, P. djamor var. diamor. P. ostreatus, and P. djamor var. roseus, from 3.02 to 14.88 mg QE/g of dry weight of crude extract.

Oxygen Radical Absorbance Capacity (ORAC) and Lipid Peroxidation of Oyster Mushrooms

The oxygen radical absorbance capacity (ORAC) and lipid peroxidation of several oyster mushrooms have been reported as presented in Table 7. *P. ostreatus* had the highest ORAC of 8199.2 trolox equivalents while *P. tuberregium* had the lowest with 3316.0 trolox equivalent as reported by **Adebayo** *et al.* (2018). Extract of *P. pulmonarius* inhibited lipid peroxidation by 0.960 mg/ml with *P. florida* inhibiting with 0.320 mg/ml (**Ajith and Janadhanan, 2007**). Extracts of *P. populinus* inhibited lipid peroxidation by 26.64 μ M (**Okafor** *et al.*, 2017). **Lakshmi et al.** (2004) presented ORAC values for *P. florida*, *P. sajourcaju* and *P. rimosus* extracts using spectrofluorimetric assay as follows; (45.65 \pm 5.85), (43.94 \pm 8.66), and Pr (30.59 \pm 1.59) as micromoles of Trolox equivalent per gram of fresh weight. From the above, it was clearly shown that *P. florida recorded* most potent scavenging peroxyl radicals in the ORAC assay.

$\it IN\ VIVO$ ASSAY OF FREE RADICAL SCAVENGING PROPERTY OF $\it PLEUROTUS$ SPECIES

The *in vivo* assay encompasses both enzymatic and non-enzymatic processes for scavenging or neutralizing free radicals (Govindan *et al.*, 2016). In the enzymatic antioxidant assay, biomarker enzymes includes; catalase (CAT), glutathione peroxidase (GPx), superoxide dismutase (SOD), glutathione reductase(GR), glutathione S-transferase (GST), and ascorbate peroxidase (APx)(Govindan *et al.*, 2016; Islam *et al.*, 2019). The non-enzymatic assays mainly utilize Vitamin E (α-tocopherol), Glutathione (GSH), and vitamin C or ascorbic acid (Kim *et al.*, 2010; Bhattacharyya *et al.*, 2014; Islam *et al.*, 2019). Enzymatic antioxidant activity of extracts of *Pleurotus abalones*, *P. djamor*, *P. ostreatus*, and *P. eryngii* var. *tuoliensis* increased the activity of SOD and inactivating superoxide radicals (Li *et al.*, 2007; Anandhi*et al.*, 2013; Zhanget *al.*, 2015; Krishnamoorthy and Sankaran, 2016; Xuet *al.*, 2017). CAT activity was increased by up regulating gene expression with subsequent prevention of toxicity resulting from the generation of hydrogen peroxide (Anandhi*et al.*, 2013; Xuet *al.*, 2017; Krishnamoorthy and Sankaran, 2016).

Table 6 Total Phenolic and Total Flavonoid Content

Mushroom	Fermentation	Extractant	Concentration (mg/mL)	Total phenolic content	Total flavonoid content (µg/mg)	Reference
P. pulmonarius LAU	Submerge	-	1.0	NR	12.178	Adebayo et al. (2012b)
•			2.0 5.0	42.6 TAE 38.4 TAE	NR NR	

	Solid state	Methanol	1.0	NR	12.2	Adebayo et al. (2014b)
			2.0	39.0 TAE	NR	
			5.0	43.0 TAE	NR	
P. pulmonarius CP- 16	Solid state	Hydro-alcohol	-	0.080 GAE	NR	Adebayo et al. (2018)
P. pulmonarius CP- 799	Solid state	Hydro-alcohol	-	0.098 GAE	NR	Adebayo et al. (2018)
P. sapidus NE 07	Solid state	Methanol	1.0	NR	10.5	Adebayo et al. (2014b)
			2.0	30.0 %	NR	
			5.0	57.0 %	NR	
P. cornucopiae NE 02	Solid state	Methanol	1.0	NR	11.0	Adebayo et al. (2014b)
			2.0	34.0 %	NR	
			5.0	69.0 %	NR	
P. ostreatus LAU 10	Solid state	Methanol	1.0	NR	10.4	Adebayo et al. (2014b)
			2.0	29.0 %	NR	•
			5.0	43.0 %	NR	
P. levis CP-30	Solid state	Hydro-alcohol	-	0.057 GAE	NR	Adebayo et al. (2014b)
P. pulmonarius LAU 09	Submerge	-	1.0	NR	12.178	Adebayo et al. (2014b)
P. ostreatus CP-50	Solid state	Hydro-alcohol		0.066 GAE	NR	Adebayo et al. (2018)
P. ostreatus CP-800	Solid state	Hydro-alcohol		0.129 GAE	NR	Adebayo et al. (2018)
P. ostreatus	Solid state	Methanol		17.6 GAE	NR	KongklaPoeaim (2016)
P. tuber-regium CP- 182	Solid state	Hydro-alcohol		0.05 GAE	NR	Adebayo et al. (2018)
P. squarrosulus	Solid state	Cold water		0.08 GAE	3.62	Pal et al. (2010)
		Hot water		0.82 GAE	5.45	
		Methanol		0.18 GAE	3.07	
P. djamor	Solid state	Acentonitrile		982.0 AAE	NR	Rich et al. 2016
		Hexane		35.0 AAE	NR	
P. sajor-caju	Solid state	Methanol		15.75 GAE	NR	Kongkla and Poeaim (2016)
P. euos	Solid state	Methanol		11.02 GAE	NR	Kongkla and Poeaim (2016)
P. eryngii	Solid state	Methanol		8.77 GAE	NR	Kongkla and Poeaim (2016)
P. cystidiosus	Solid state	Methanol		07.17 GAE	NR	Kongkla and Poeaim (2016)

 EC_{50} : 50 % Effective Concentration; NR: Not Recorded; TAE: Tallic Acid Equivalent; GAE: Gallic Acid Equivalent; AAE: Ascorbic Acid Equivalent.

Table 7 Oxygen Radical Absorbance Capacity (ORAC) and Lipid Peroxidation Inhibition

Mushroom	Extractant	Oxygen radical	Lipid peroxidation	Reference
		absorbance capacity (TE)	inhibition	
P. pulmonarius CP-16	Hydro-alcohol	6496.8	NR	Adebayo et al. (2018)
P. pulmonarius CP-799	Hydro-alcohol	4455.2	NR	Adebayo et al.(2018)
P. pulmonarius	Methanol	NR	0.960mg/mL	Ajith and Janardhanan (2007)
_	Hexane	NR	28.86 μM	Okafor <i>et al</i> . (2017)
P. levis CP-30	Hydro-alcohol	5080.8	NR	Adebayo et al. (2018)
P. ostreatus CP-50	Hydro-alcohol	8199.2	NR	Adebayo et al. (2018)
P. ostreatus CP-800	Hydro-alcohol	34646.0	NR	Adebayo et al. (2018)
P. ostreatus	Hexane	NR	35.36 μΜ	Okafor et al. (2017)
P. tuber-regiumCP-182	Hydro-alcohol	3316.0	NR	Adebayo et al. (2018)
P. florida	Ethyl acetate	NR	0.496mg/mL	Ajith and Janardhanan (2007)
	Methanol	NR	0.320mg/mL	
P. sajor-caju	Hexane	NR	32.26 μM	Okafor et al. (2017)
P. populinus	Hexane	NR	26.64 μM	Adebayo et al. (2018)

NR: Not Recorded. TE: Trolox Equivalent; Fermentation: solid state

Metabolites from Pleurotus abalones, P. eryngii P. ostreatus, and P. djamor impacted positively on GPx activity by reducing hydrogen peroxide to water and scavenging endogenous peroxides species. It also decreased oxidative stress and prevent many complex diseases (Anandhiet al., 2013; Maet al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2015; Krishnamoorthy and Sankaran, 2016; Xu et al., 2017). Activity of GST improved with administration of P. ostreatus extract in rodent cell protected against free radicals induced cell damage (Jayakumar et al., 2010; Thomas et al., 2014).P. ostreatus extract improved the function of APx which catalysed the conversion of hydrogen peroxide to water (Thomas et al., 2014). Nonenzymatic antioxidant assays using ascorbic acid components of P. ostreatus reduced ascorbate radicals and enhanced better antioxidant performance (Anandhiet al., 2013; Krishnamoorthy and Sankaran, 2016). Vitamin E or αtocopherol from P. ostreatus inhibited lipid peroxidation in cell membranes (Anandhiet al., 2013; Krishnamoorthy and Sankaran, 2016), and activity of GSH prevented oxidation of GSH and safeguard the redox enzymes (Jayakumar et al., 2010; Anandhiet al., 2013; Krishnamoorthy and Sankaran, 2016). A number of studies have reported the free radical scavenging property of oyster mushroom in experimental animals such as mice, rat, porcine etc. as summarized in Table 8. Remarkable improvement of thiobarbituric acid reactive substances was noted in porcine brains after administering fruiting body and mycelium of P. ostreatus and P. eryngii (Reis et al., 2012). In addition, both methanolic extract and powdery form of P. ostreatus were found effective in the treatment of streptozotocin induced diabetes in mice (Mircea et al., 2018). Likewise, enzyme assisted extraction of mycelia zinc polysaccharides of P. eryngii effectively treated hyperlipidemia in mice (Xu et al., 2017). Also, the fruiting body of P. ferulae induced an increased insulin level in streptozotocin induced diabetic rats (Wang et al., 2014), likewise pooled fruiting body of P. ostreatus and P. cystidiosus increased the utilization of glucose in Type 2 diabetic patients (Jayasuriya et al., 2015).

HEALTH IMPLICATIONS OF Pleurotus SPECIES

Pleurotus are exotic and healthy foods, which are low in calories and fat, high in chitin, vitamins, protein and mineral content (Mattila et al., 2002; Akindahunsi and Oyetayo, 2006). They also have elevated quantities of ornithine and γ-aminobutyric acid (GABA). GABA is a non-essential amino acid that acts as neurotransmitter while ornithine is one of the building blocks required for producing arginine (Jayakumar et al., 2006). Oyster mushrooms have been reported to be moderately high in polysaccharides and other antioxidant compounds (Tab 9).

The multidirectional therapeutic and health-promoting effects of mushrooms of the genus Pleurotus result from the occurrence of secondary metabolites, that were extracted from both fruiting bodies and mycelia of oyster mushrooms (Morris et al., 2017). The bioactive compounds found in Pleurotus mushrooms can be distributed into low and high molecular weight compounds. Highmolecular weight bioactive components primarily are polysaccharides, including β-glucans, peptides and proteins while low-molecular weight bioactive compounds consist of terpenes, fatty acid esters and polyphenols (Patel and Goyal, 2012). In addition to free radical scavenging activities, oyster mushrooms are nutritional in nature and thus, could improve the general human health (Khan and Tonia, 2012; Kalac, 2013; Adebayo et al., 2014a).

The diverse health benefits of Pleurotus species are associated to their high nutritive value. For instance, Khatun et al. (2015) studied three Pleurotus species and reported that the lowest protein content was found in P. pulmonarius (15-18% dw); trailed by P. citrinopileatus (20-22% dw) and P. florida (22-25% dw). Also, the cholesterol content of the three Pleurotus species studied ranged from 0.6 to 0.8% dw, therefore they are low in cholesterol, but rich in protein. In general, mushroom polysaccharides remain the most acknowledged and potent mushroom-derived bioactives. Precisely, natural mushroom polysaccharides, principally obtained from the culture media, fruiting body, and mycelia during mushroom cultivation, have received enormous attentions due to their richnessinbiopharmaceuticals and nutraceutical activities as well as anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, (Im et al., 2014), antihypertensive (Miyazawa et al., 2008), anti-aging (Zhang et al., 2014) and immune-boosting properties (Cui et al., 2015; Oloke and Adebayo, 2015). Oyster mushrooms are characteristically high in homopolysaccharides as reported by Lakhanpal and Thakur (2016). Free radicals are generated in pathological and/or normal cellular metabolism (Elmastas et al., 2007). Nonetheless, the unrestrained generation of oxygen-based free radicals is involved at the inception of some ailments, including rheumatoid arthritis, cancer, atherosclerosis, and cirrhosis, likewise in deteriorating processes connected with ageing (Gulcin et al., 2008). Oxidative enzymes, including catalase (CAT), superoxide dismutase (SOD) and glutathione peroxidise (GSHPx)(Tadhani et al., 2007), or chemicals, includingtocopherol, carotenoids, ascorbic acid and polyphenolic compounds are accountable for protecting organisms against the damages caused by free radicals(Gulcin et al., 2008). The enzymatic antioxidant activity of P.pulmonarius, P. florida and P. citrinopileatus were evaluated and it was observed that catalase activities ranged from 1128- 2264 g/dry weight, peroxidase activities ranged from 14.14 - 18.76 g⁻¹min⁻¹ and superoxide dismutase (SOD) activities ranged from 203.7- 345.7 g/dry weight(Khatun et al., 2015). Moreover, the presence of the diverse types of polysaccharides, alkaloids, flavonoids and other compounds in the oyster mushroom could be accountable for their high scavenging activities against the free radicals. This is believed to confer definitive defence power against the development of some diseases and general enhancement of human fitness. Reactive oxygen species (ROS), free radicals and oxidative stress are produced in the body through endogenous reactions, exposure to some physicochemical conditions and pathophysiological states (Devasagayam et al., 2004). These activities can result into changes in DNA, proteins, lipids and other biomolecules, consequently leading to disease development in the central nervous system, liver, heart, lungs, blood, kidneys, reproductive organs, skin and joints, which can later develop to systemic diseases and may spread to other multiple organs (Hepel and Andreescu, 2015). Antioxidants are capable of preventing and opposing the formation of reactive nitrogen and oxygen species (RNS/ROS) and oxidative stress, thereby preventing the damage or change in biomolecules in the body system (Halliwell, 1996). This is referred to as antioxidant defence mechanism, which aids in the maintenance of the overall health of an organism. Apart from the direct prevention of free radicals, Pleurotus species and their metabolites have been widely studied for various health benefits. According to Jayakumar et al. (2007), P.ostreatus extracts were reported to ease the hepatotoxic effect of description

Carbon tetrachloride(CCl₄) in rats and this notably protected some organs, including the heart, brain, and liver of matured rats against oxidative damage. Pk et al. (2019) reported an in vitro cytotoxic test using MTT assay, that the polysaccharide of *Pleurotus ostreatus* (Jacq.) P. Kumm extracted at 10⁻³ to 10³ µg/ml displayed time and dose-dependent inhibitory results on the mitotic division of EAC cells, with suppression above 90% at the highest concentration and at 72h. Also, Selegean et al. (2009) stated that both intracellular and extracellular proteins extract of P. ostreatus contained polysaccharides that have immunomodulating potentials. Percutaneous or oral administration of extract of P. eryngii in mice was reported to repress inflammation in delayedtype hypersensitivity allergic response (Jedinak et al., 2011). Moreover, P. ostreatus is one of the natural producers of lovastatin (including some higher fungi).

Table 8 In vivo An	tioxidant Study of Oyster Mu	ıshroom			
Mushroom	Sample	Animal Used	Antioxidant Study	Result of the Study	Reference
P. ostreatus and P. eryngii	Fruiting Body and Mycelium	Porcine (Susscrofa) Brains	Lipid Peroxidation Inhibition (TBARS Assay)	Although, <i>P. eryngii</i> showed lower TBARS assays, both species showed significant improvement of the TBARS.	Reis et al. (2012)
P. ostreatus	Methanol Extract and Powder	Mice with streptozotocin- induced diabetes (50 mg/kg, intraperitoneal)	SOD and Catalase Enzyme Determination	Improved the diabetic condition as detected via the SOD and Catalase enzyme	Mircea et al. (2018)
P. eryngii	Enzymatic-extractable mycelia zinc polysaccharides	Hyperlipidemic mice induced by high-fat-high- cholesterol emulsion (HFHCM).	SOD, GSH-Px, CAT, T-AOC, MDA and LPO	The species showed potential of preventing the HFHCM-induced hyperlipidemia and non- alcoholic fatty liver	Xu et al. (2017)
P. ferulae	Fruiting Body	Streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats	Insulin and HbA1c Levels	Insulin levels increased and HbA1c levels decreased	Wang et al. (2015)
P. ostreatus and P. cystidiosus	Fruiting Body	Type 2 diabetic patients	utilization of glucose by peripheral tissues	Increased utilization of glucose by peripheral tissues, reduced glycogen synthase kinase with improved glycogen synthesis after 2 weeks	Jayasuriya <i>et al</i> . (2015)

Table 9 Type of Polysaccharides in Oyster Mushroom (% of fresh mushroom)

Pleurotus species	Type of Polysaccharides	References
P. eryngii	Homopolysaccharides	Lakhanpal and Thakur (2016)
P. florida	Homopolysaccharides	Lakhanpal and Thakur (2016)
P. ostreatus	Homopolysaccharides	Lakhanpal and Thakur (2016)
Psajor-caju	Lovastatin polysaccharide	Lakhanpal and Rana (2005)

and it is primarily used for the prevention of cardiovascular diseases and for the treatment of dyslipidemia. Lovastatin, which is used as a drug for reducing the level of blood cholesterol, was created using P. ostreatus and appropriated for use in 1987 by the Federal Development Agency (Talkad et al., 2015).

In other related studies, α-glucan obtained from P. ostreatus and proteins extracted from P. nebrodensis have also been reported for anticancer activities (Wu et al., 2011; Lv et al., 2009) while polysaccharides obtained from P. ostreatus have also been reported for its antitumor potentials (Tong et al., 2009).

Also, heteroglycan obtained from P. ostreatus have been reported for immunomodulatory potentials (Devi et al., 2013). Khan et al. (2011) reported that lovastatin extracted from P. sajor-caju and P. florida possessed potentials to impact antihypercholesterolemic activities while the antihypertensive potentials of peptides obtained from P. cornucopiae have been reported (Jang et al., 2011). Hypoglycemic potentials of β-glucans from P. sajor-caju and polysaccharidepeptide from P. abalonus have been reported (Kanagasabapathy et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2015). Polysaccharides from P. ostreatoroseus and P. ostreatus were reported to possess anti-inflammatory activities (Gunawardena et al., 2014; Correa et al., 2015). Also, β-glucans extracted from P. ostreatus and P. sajorcajuhas been reported for anti-arthritic (Patel et al., 2012; Rovensky et al.,

Furthermore, the antibacterial, antifungal and antiviral potentials of oyster mushrooms have also been aptly reported. The therapeutic potentials of Pleurotus have been exploitedfor combating simple and multiple drugresistantt isolates of S. aureus and E. coli according to report by Akyuz et al. (2010). The antibacterial and antifungal activity of *Pleurotus* species were reported to be dependent on the type of the extractant solvent used, for instance, acetone extract were less potent against Gram-negative bacteria compared to ether extract (Iwalokun et al., 2007). Acetone and ether extracts of Pleurotus

mushrooms effectively inhibited the growth of S. cerevisiae, B. subtilis, and E. coli. β-glucans extracted from P. ostreatuswas reported to show antibacterial activities (Karaman et al., 2010; Mirunalini et al., 2012). Also, Suseem and Saral (2013) reported that fatty acids esters obtained from P. eous displayed antimicrobial activities. Moreover, Erjavec et al. (2012) reported that proteins extracted from P. eryngii and P. ostreatus displayed antifungal activities while ergosterol extracted from P. cystidiosus also showed antifungal potentials (Menikpurage et al., 2009). Wang et al. (2007) showed that hot water extracts of P. pulmonarius and P. sajor-caju inhibited the activity of HIV-1 reverse transcriptase by SU2 molecule, with a molecular weight of 4.5 kDa. Also, lectin which was obtained from fresh sporophores of P. citrinopileatus reportedly hindered the activities of HIV-1 reverse transcriptase (Li et al., 2008). According to a report by Lv et al. (2009), proteins obtained from P. nebrodensis were observed to possess antiviral activities, while polysaccharides and lectins extracted from P. abalones and P. citrinopileatus respectively were also reported to possess antiviral potentials (Wang et al., 2011; Hassan et al., 2015).

CONCLUSION

The current review has established different species of oyster mushrooms as good sources of natural antioxidant through *in vitro* assays (including DPPH, superoxide, nitric oxide, hydroxyl, ABTS scavenging and Oxygen radical absorbance capacity (ORAC) activities) and *in vivo* assays (enzymatic and nonenzymatic) using mice, rats and porcine brain. The potentials of antioxidants to oppose the formation of reactive oxygen and nitrogen species, prevent oxidative stress and scavenge free radicals which may be responsible for some human diseases have been established. However, future work should be focused on detailed structure-activity study of identified antioxidant molecules obtained from different *Pleurotus* spp. Moreover, the potential of oyster mushrooms as good antioxidants can positively influence their activities as natural immune boosters, anti-ageing and anti-cancer effects which can significantly improve human health. Hence, oyster mushroom, a portion of natural functional food could be recommended as a excellent source of antioxidants.

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