

REVIEW ARTICLE

Ethnomycological prospect of wild edible and medicinal mushrooms from Central and Southern Africa—A review

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Abstract

In several regions of Africa, the daily diet is partly dependent on the edible products from wild animals, plants, and mushrooms, driven by their availability, wide distribution in the local environment, and the low incomes of the general population. The documentation of ethnomycological information is particularly important to validate or correct the identification of specimens and the preservation of these natural resources with cultivation potential, thus improving their consumption and utilization for medicinal purposes. The number of wild edible mushroom species consumed varies between different regions of Africa, with around 300 species being documented in the literature. However, despite its rich biodiversity, the African continent is still underexploited, which is reflected in poor food contribution to populations that are often in need. Here, the safe use of mushrooms is guided by the insufficiency of studies that validate their nutritional and medicinal properties, since they are key factors in the suppression of protein deficiency in the everyday diet of the populations and a source of bioactive compounds useful for the formulation of added-value functional products. Thus, it becomes essential to investigate African mushrooms, not only from the identification point of view, but also in terms of nutritional, chemical, and bioactive characterization, hence deepen the knowledge about this valuable natural resource. Bearing these in mind, the main objective of this study is to systematize the knowledge available in scientific publications and specialized websites, thus gathering information about the valuable profits that come from using these widely appreciated natural products.

KEYWORDS

edible and medicinal fungi, ethnomycology, non-timber forest products

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1 | INTRODUCTION

In different regions of the African continent, the people's diet depends in part on edible products from wild animals, plants, or mushrooms, driven not only by the high cost of living, but also by the profusion of such products in local environment (Soro et al., 2019). Here, the myriad uses of wild edible fungi (WEF) are key factors in the livelihood of local habitants in different segments, established over millennia (Boa, 2004).

Mushrooms are a group of macrofungi that reach their nutrition through being saprotrophs, parasites, or symbiotics, such as mycorrhiza, with a distinctive fruiting body and mycelia (Sánchez, 2017). In addition to being appreciated for their high nutritional value, rich in proteins, carbohydrates, microelements (phosphorous, potassium, calcium, copper, magnesium, iron, zinc), and vitamins, also presenting low fat amounts, these non-timber forest products (NTFPs) are the basis of various dietary, ethnic, cultural, religious, and medicinal issues, depending on the ethnic groups. In times of food shortages or scarcity, mushrooms are even considered meat or fish substitutes (Ndong & Degreef, 2011), making them essential for the subsistence of forest-dependent populations, not just from a nutritional point of view, but also in the medicinal, economic, social, cultural, and spiritual segments (Guissou et al., 2008; Yorou & de Kesel, 2001).

Recent data show that about 2189 edible species of mushrooms from 99 countries have been identified, of which 2006 are suitable for safe consumption, and 183 species require a pre-treatment prior to safe intake or are related with allergic responses by some individuals (Li et al., 2021). In some developing countries, the local knowledge about mushrooms varies across cultures and personal beliefs. Within local communities, this knowledge is passed from one generation to the next, this being one of the few fragile but effective ways of perpetuating knowledge about useful fungi (Boa, 2004; Li et al., 2021). Thus, over the years, forest dwellers have been developing different techniques for exploiting their lands and related resources, not only because they are a possible source of income, but also of food, medicines, and other valences (Ngalim, 2011). WEF are typically harvested in large quantities for later consumption, being sold during their fruiting periods, representing an excellent source of additional income for women and youth in Eastern (Walshaw, 2004), Central (Malaisse et al., 2008; Ndong & Degreef, 2011), and Western Africa (Yorou et al., 2014). In most African regions where the Bantu population lives, mushrooms are mostly picked by women and their children and, among the Central African pygmies, men also participate in this harvest. When commercialized, a very important factor to take into account is that in developing countries, mushroom pickers generally belong to marginalized groups, regardless of gender, thus representing an important source of family income for these communities during the harvest season (Pérez-Moreno et al., 2021). Few data concerning the commercialization of mushrooms, namely in African countries, are available in the literature. Among the Bofi and Bantu communities of the Central African Republic, fungi are a valuable commodity (Malaisse et al., 2008), with sporophores often being sold at roadside stalls or markets in some regions of Angola and Democratic Republic of Congo.

WEF have been consumed for thousands of years, dating back to the Upper Paleolithic period, over 18,700 years ago (Power et al., 2015). The number of wild mushrooms consumed varies between different regions of Africa. In the last few years, the annual average consumption per person reaches about 30 kg in Haut-Katanga in the Democratic Republic of Congo (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017). In addition, in Zimbabwe, a family consumes up to 20 kg of fresh mushrooms per year. These values rise abruptly when we talk about Mozambique, where approximately 160 kg of mushrooms are consumed per family (Boa et al., 2000). Similarly, a strong tradition of mushroom consumption exists in Malawi, where the average annual consumption of *Termitomyces schimperi* can reach 30/35 kg per family (Halling, 2006).

Usually, mushrooms preparation is limited to brushing and/or washing the fruiting bodies with water before processing. Other more resistant species, such as those of the genus *Lentinus*, are additionally bleached before preparation (Boa, 2004). Species with small fruiting bodies are often used as condiments and added to sauces to complement meat or fish dishes. Some species of *Lactarius* are occasionally eaten raw, as in Zambia (Pegler & Pearce, 1980; Pearce, 1981). In addition, pygmies usually readily consume all mushrooms they picked. On the other hand, different traditional methods for mushroom preservation can be used, including sun drying and, the most common in Tropical Africa, with fire or smoking for 3–4 days, being subsequently packaged, stored at room temperature, and often sold along the year (Boa, 2004).

Despite the rich biodiversity of the African continent, this remains largely unexplored resulting in poor food and medicinal contribution to the often malnourished populations (Yongabi et al., 2004). One of the regions on the African continent where mushrooms are consumed the most and where wild mushrooms are most important both as a food source and as a source of income for families is Central and Southern Africa (e.g., <https://www.efta-online.org/>). Thus, the aim of this review is to gather information on the wild mushroom species used in Central and Southern Africa and their main uses, with a focus on edible and medicinal species. Here, the term “mushroom” will be used to describe the edible or medicinal fruiting bodies of fungi, since others are generally not considered mushrooms, but basidiocarps.

2 | ETHNOMYCOLOGICAL PANORAMA OF MUSHROOMS IN AFRICAN FORESTS, DIVERSITY, AND IMPORTANCE OF THEIR USE BY RURAL COMMUNITIES

In the African continent, the ethnomycological knowledge of mushrooms, namely regarding their historical uses as food, medicines, source of income, and sociological impacts, is warned (Osarenkhoe et al., 2014). The defective identification and documentation of edible and medicinal species of mushrooms give rise to particular inconsistencies regarding their use in folk medicine, food, and mythological beliefs. In West Africa, the underexploitation and underutilization of mushrooms are related to factors of anthropogenic, ethnographic, and environmental origin, which is why ethnomycological data are scarce, random, limited, and inconsistent from a taxonomic point of

view (Osarenkhoe et al., 2014). Thus, the growing investment in ethnomycological studies can be the basis for understanding the global and undeniable importance of fungi for past and modern civilizations (Lampman, 2010).

There are various ethnomycological reports in different regions of the African continent, which are however incoherent and based on the people's culture (Osarenkhoe et al., 2014). These works are a reflection of the understanding of genetic resources and highly influenced by popular taxonomy, this is why ethnomycological development, mushroom diversity, and taxonomy research are restricted, making these the apparent causes of the inconsistent global scientific nomenclature. Additionally, assigning traditional (dialectical) names only to useful mushrooms and not to poisonous ones, or those with unknown uses, is a limiting factor in the quality of ethnomycological information (Kinge et al., 2011).

2.1 | Diversity of wild edible mushrooms in the African continent

In West Africa, sedentary agriculture dates back to the fifth millennium, and it is not clear when the commodification of mushrooms began in this region, nor how much this influenced knowledge about mushrooms. In this region, like others on the same continent, climatic conditions, such as precipitation, are the primary factor that favors the availability, composition, and propagation of different mushroom species (Traill et al., 2013).

Globally, fungi diversity is estimated at around 1.5 million species (Hawksworth, 2001; O'Brien et al., 2005), although only about 7% of these are known (Hawksworth, 2002). This percentage decreases even further in West Africa, where only about 3% of all fungi species are known (Yorou, 2010). Despite these numbers, knowledge of edible mushroom species in Central, Southern, and East Africa is quite extensive (Buyck, 1994; Harkonen, 1995; Parent & Thoen, 1977), with around 300 species of edible mushrooms identified and described in these regions (de Kesel et al., 2002; Ducousso & Thoen, 2003; Yorou et al., 2014). Although West Africa is recognized as one of the regions with the highest prevalence of fungi, there is still no correct estimate of their diversity on the African continent (Osarenkhoe et al., 2014). In parallel, several ethnomycological studies have been conducted all over the world, namely in India (Malik et al., 2017; Sharma et al., 2022), Mexico (A. M. Lampman, 2007; Reyes-López et al., 2020), China (Brown, 2019), and other countries, thus improving the knowledge about mushrooms and their overall characteristics and beneficial assets and contributing to the documentation of several mushroom species still underexploited.

Most studies on edible mushrooms in Tropical Africa are pioneering, and current inventories are generally quite incomplete (de Kesel et al., 2017). However, some of the investigations that have already been carried out had made it possible to somehow expand the list of edible species, of which more than 300 are registered and distributed in several countries on the African continent (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017)

(Figure 1). Some of the edible African mushrooms documented in the literature are presented in Table 1.

Data available in the literature show the prevalence of *Russulaceae* family in Central and Western Africa, with about 42 mushroom species being identified, namely those referring to *Lactarius* (4), *Lactifluus* (22), and *Russula* (16) genera. The *Cantharellaceae* family comes next, with about 27 species of *Cantharellus* being recorded, followed by *Agaricaceae* (18), *Amanitaceae* (15), and *Termitomyces* (13) families. In contrast, several other families and/or species are less prevalent in these African regions, such as *Boletinellaceae*, *Callistosporiaceae*, *Hymenogastraceae*, and *Morchellaceae*. As for the ecological type, the great majority of edible mushrooms are saprotrophic and mycorrhizal, with 93 and 91 identified species recorded, and 13 symbiotic species.

In many regions of Central Africa, edible mushrooms are known only by their vernacular names. Since the beginning of the 20th century, these have been the subject of more than 250 scientific publications (Halling, 2006; Ndong & Degreef, 2011). Most vernacular names have only local usage. However, several of these are also used in different geographical areas. Some of these names include *ochui vió* in Gabon, *ubwoba* in Burundi, *bowa* in Malawi, *ubuyoga* in Tanzania, *mbowa*, *ubuaba* or *uhwa* in Zambia, *boua* in Central African Republic and the Democratic Republic of Congo, and *tortulho*, *chelene*, and *ndenda* in Angola (Buyck, 1994; Harkonen, 1995; Kissanga et al., 2022; Malaisse et al., 2008; Ndong, 2010; Pegler & Pearce, 1980).

2.2 | Traditional and medicinal uses of mushrooms in Central and Western Africa

Traditional knowledge of mushrooms in developing countries is of particular importance in uncovering relationships between humans and fungi in a given environment, both in the past and in the present civilizations (Molares et al., 2020; Sitotaw et al., 2020). In these countries, traditional knowledge about the different purposes of many mushroom species has been transmitted orally through centuries, from one generation to another across the world. This indigenous knowledge encompasses several uses, beliefs, and considerations about wild mushrooms (Molares et al., 2020), these being considered the "Food of the God" by the Romans, as a product capable of providing strength and vital capacity, according to Greek beliefs, as gifts from the god Osiris by ancient Chinese and Japanese communities, or even used in ritualistic presentations in ancient India and Iran (Dutta & Acharya, 2014). In Tropical Africa, however, knowledge of the traditional uses of mushrooms as well as documentation of their diversity is scarce. Despite this, and as mentioned earlier, some studies with particular emphasis on Central, East, and West Africa stated that there is a great diversity of edible and medicinal mushrooms in these regions (Soro et al., 2019). The multidisciplinary use of mushrooms has placed them in a prominent place in commercial crops with affordable prices, functioning as food, medicine, and a wide range of other potential uses, such as mycofungicides, biofertilizers, new medicines, animal feed supplement, and bioremediants, functioning as tools in the sustainable management of

TABLE 1 Documented wild edible mushrooms in Central and Southern Africa.

| Scientific name | Common names | Countries | References |
|--|--|--|---|
| Saprophytes | | | |
| Agaricaceae | | | |
| <i>Agaricus bingensis</i> Heinem. | Boua | Benin, Democratic Republic of Congo | (Heinemann, 1956) |
| <i>Agaricus bukavuensis</i> Heinem. & Gooss.-Font. | Boua | Democratic Republic of Congo | (Heinemann, 1956) |
| <i>Agaricus campestris</i> L. | Boua, Bowa, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, Ethiopia, Kenya, Madagascar, Malawi, Somalia, Tanzania, Zambia | (Abate, 1999; de Kesel et al., 2017; Heinemann, 1956; Pegler & Rayner, 1969) |
| <i>Agaricus croceolutescens</i> Heinem. & Gooss.-Font. | Boua | Democratic Republic of Congo | (de Kesel et al., 2017; Heinemann, 1956) |
| <i>Agaricus goossensiae</i> Heinem. | Boua, Ochiu vió | Benin, Burkina Faso, Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Ghana, Mali | (de Kesel et al., 2002; Heinemann, 1956; Ndong & Degreef, 2011; Pegler, 1969) |
| <i>Agaricus kivuensis</i> Heinem. & Gooss.-Font. | Boua | Democratic Republic of Congo | (de Kesel et al., 2017; Heinemann, 1956) |
| <i>Agaricus subsaharianus</i> L.A. Parra, Hama & De Kesel | Ubuyoga | Tanzania | (Hama et al., 2010; Harkonen, 2002) |
| <i>Agaricus volvatulus</i> Heinem. & Gooss.-Font. | Boua | Democratic Republic of Congo, Benin | (Heinemann, 1956) |
| <i>Agaricus</i> sp. | Ochiu vió | Ivory Coast, Gabon, Namibia | (Soro et al., 2019) |
| <i>Chlorophyllum hortense</i> (Murrill) Vellinga | Boua | Democratic Republic of Congo | (de Kesel et al., 2002; Degreef et al., 1997; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| <i>Chlorophyllum palaeotropicum</i> Z.W Ge & A. Jacobs | - | Benin | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| <i>Cystoderma elegans</i> (Beeli) Harmaja | Ubuyoga | Kenya, Rwanda, Tanzania | (de Kesel et al., 2002) |
| <i>Leucocoprinus cretaceus</i> (Bull.) Locq | - | Benin | (Degreef et al., 2016; Pegler, 1972) |
| <i>Macrolepiota africana</i> (R. Heim) Heinem. | Boua, Ochiu vió, Bowa, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Central African Republic, Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Kenya, Rwanda, Tanzania, Zambia | (de Kesel et al., 2002) |
| <i>Macrolepiota dolichaula</i> (Berk. & Broome) Pegler & R.W. Rayner | Boua, Ochiu vió, Bowa, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Paleotropical, Benin, Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Kenya, Malawi, Ouganda, Rwanda, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (de Kesel et al., 2017; Heim, 1967; Heinemann, 1969, 1973) |
| <i>Macrolepiota procera</i> (Scop.) Sing. | Boua, Ochiu vió, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Central African Republic, Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Tanzania, Zambia | (Degreef et al., 2016; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Ndong & Degreef, 2011; Pegler, 1969, 1972; Sharp, 2011; van Damme, 2021) |
| <i>Microspalliota bambusicola</i> (Heinem.) Heinem. | Boua | Democratic Republic of Congo | (Malaisse et al., 2008; Ndong & Degreef, 2011; Pegler, 1972; Pegler & Pearce, 1980) |
| <i>Podaxis pistillaris</i> (L.) Fr. | | South Africa, Benin, Mali, Zimbabwe | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| Auriculariaceae | | | |
| <i>Auricularia auricula-judae</i> (Bull.) Quéf. | Boua, Bowa | Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, Malawi, Rwanda | (Degreef et al., 2016; Douanla-Meli, 2007; Morris, 1987) |
| <i>Auricularia cornea</i> Ehrenb. | Ubwoba, Bowa, Mbowa, Boua, Ochiu vió, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | South Africa, Benin, Burundi, Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, Comores, Ivory Coast, Ethiopia, Gabon, Ghana, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Nigeria, Ouganda, Rwanda, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (Degreef et al., 2016; Douanla-Meli, 2007; Morris, 1987) |

(Continues)

TABLE 1 (Continued)

| Scientific name | Common names | Countries | References |
|--|---|---|--|
| <i>Auricularia delicata</i> (Mont. ex Fr.) Henn. | Ubwoba, Bowa, Mbowa | Benin, Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Malawi, Rwanda, Zambia | (de Kesel et al., 2002, 2017; Degreef et al., 1997, 2016; Harkonen, 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015; Ndong, 2009; Ndong & Degreef, 2011; Oso, 1975; Zoberi, 1973) |
| Boletiniaceae | | | |
| <i>Phlebopus sudanicus</i> (Har. & Pat.) Heinem. | Boua, Bowa, Mbowa | Tropical Africa, Benin, Burkina Faso, Democratic Republic of Congo, Malawi, Zambia | (de Kesel et al., 2002, 2017; Härkönen et al., 2015) |
| Callistosporiaceae | | | |
| <i>Macrocybe lobayensis</i> (R. Heim) Pegler & Lodge | Boua | South Africa, Benin, Democratic Republic of Congo, Ivory Coast, Ghana, Nigeria | (de Kesel et al., 2002; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Gryzenhout, 2010; Härkönen et al., 2015; Ndong & Degreef, 2011; Pegler, 1972) |
| Strophariaceae | | | |
| <i>Gymnopilus zenkeri</i> (Henn.) Singer | Boua, Ochiu vió, Bowa | Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Malawi | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Morris, 1987; Ndong, 2009; Ndong & Degreef, 2011) |
| Lyophyllaceae | | | |
| <i>Termitomyces aurantiacus</i> (R. Heim) R. Heim | Boua, Ubuyoga | Benin, Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, Tanzania | (de Kesel et al., 2002, 2017; Härkönen et al., 2015) |
| <i>Termitomyces clypeatus</i> R. Heim | Boua, Ochiu vió, Bowa, Ubuyogam Mbowa | South Africa, Benin, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Ghana, Kenya, Malawi, Nigeria, Ouganda, Tanzania, Zambia. | (de Kesel et al., 2002, 2017; Härkönen et al., 2015) |
| <i>Termitomyces fuliginosus</i> R. Heim | Boua, Ochiu vió | Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Guinea, Sierra Leone | (de Kesel et al., 2002, 2017; Douanla-Meli, 2007; Harkonen, 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015; Heim, 1951, 1967; Malaisse et al., 2008; Morris, 1987; Ndong & Degreef, 2011; Oso, 1975; Pegler, 1969; van Dijk et al., 2003) |
| <i>Termitomyces le-testui</i> (Pat.) R. Heim | Boua, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Tropical Africa, Benin, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Republic of Congo, Democratic Republic of Congo, Ivory Coast, Kenya, Tanzania, Togo, Zambia | (Heim, 1951; Ndong, 2010; Ndong & Degreef, 2011) |
| <i>Termitomyces mammiformis</i> R. Heim | - | Cameroon | (Buyck, 1994; de Kesel et al., 2002; Degreef et al., 1997; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Harkonen, 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015; Malaisse et al., 2008; Ndong & Degreef, 2011; Pegler, 1972; Yorou et al., 2014) |
| <i>Termitomyces medius</i> R. Heim & Grassé | Boua, Mbowa | Benin, Democratic Republic of Congo, Togo, Zambia, | (Yongabi et al., 2004) |
| <i>Termitomyces microcarpus</i> (Berk. & Broome) R. Heim | Ubwoba, Boua, Ochiu Vió, Bowa, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | South Africa, Benin, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Kenya, Malawi, Nigeria, Uganda, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (de Kesel et al., 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015; Pegler & Pearce, 1980) |
| <i>Termitomyces reticulatus</i> Van der Westh. & Eicker | Boua | South Africa, Beni, Democratic Republic of Congo, Ghana, Togo, Zambia | (de Kesel et al., 2002, 2016; Harkonen, 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015; Morris, 1987; Ndong, 2009, 2010; Ndong & Degreef, 2011; Nzigidahera, 2007; Pegler, 1972; Sharp, 2011) |

(Continues)

TABLE 1 (Continued)

| Scientific name | Common names | Countries | References |
|---|--|---|---|
| <i>Termitomyces robustus</i> (Beeli) R. Heim | - | Cameroon | (Degreef et al., 2016; Härkönen et al., 2015) |
| <i>Termitomyces schimperi</i> (Pat.) R. Heim | Boua, ubwoba, bowa, ubuyoga, mbowa, ubuaba ou uhwa | Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Democratic Republic of Congo, Ethiopia, Ghana, Guinea, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Rwanda, Tanzania, Togo, Zambia | (Yongabi et al., 2004) |
| <i>Termitomyces singidensis</i> Saarim. & Härk. | Boua | Togo, Democratic Republic of Congo | (Apetorgbor et al., 2005; de Kesel et al., 2002; Degreef et al., 2016; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Härkönen et al., 2015; Malaisse et al., 2008; Morris, 1987; Njouonkou, 2011; Nzigidaheha, 2007; Pegler & Pearce, 1980; Yorou et al., 2014) |
| <i>Termitomyces striatus</i> (Beeli) R. Heim | Boua, ubwoba, Boua, ochui vió, Bowa, Ubuaba | Benin, Burundi, Cameroon, Republic of Congo, Republic Central African, Democratic Republic of Congo, Uganda, Gabon, Ghana, Guinea, Kenya, Malawi, Mali, Nigeria, Ruanda, Serra Leoa, Togo, Zâmbia | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| <i>Termitomyces titanicus</i> Pegler & Pearce | Ubwoba, boua, bowa, mbowa, ubuaba ou uhwa, | Burundi, Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, Malawi, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (Buyck, 1994; de Kesel et al., 2002; Degreef et al., 1997, 2016; Härkönen et al., 2015; Malaisse et al., 2008; Ndong, 2009, 2010; Ndong & Degreef, 2011; Njouonkou et al., 2016; Nzigidaheha, 2007; Parent & Thoen, 1977; Yorou et al., 2014) |
| Dacrymycetaceae | | | |
| <i>Dacryopinax spathularia</i> (Schwein.) G.W. Martin | Boua | South Africa, Benin, Democratic Republic of Congo, Ruanda, Zimbabwe | (Degreef et al., 2016; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Gryzenhout, 2010; Sharp, 2014) |
| Marasmiaceae | | | |
| <i>Favolaschia calocera</i> R. Heim | Boua, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Democratic Republic of Congo, Tanzania, Zambia | (Harkonen, 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015) |
| <i>Favolaschia tonkinensis</i> (Pat.) Kuntze | Ubuyoga | Rwanda, Tanzania | (Harkonen, 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015) |
| <i>Marasmius arborescens</i> (Henn.) Beeli | Tortulho, Ubwoba, Boua, Ochui vió, Ubuyoga | Angola, Burundi, Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Ghana, Kenya, Malawi, Nigeria, Uganda, Rwanda, Tanzania, Togo | (Ndong, 2009; Ndong & Degreef, 2011) |
| <i>Marasmius bekolacongoli</i> Beeli | Ubwoba, Boua, Ochui vió, Ubuyoga | Benin, Burundi, Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Kenya, Nigeria, Ouganda, Rwanda, Tanzania, Togo, Zimbabwe, Malawi | (Antonin, 2007; Ndong, 2009; Ndong & Degreef, 2011) |
| <i>Marasmius brunneolus</i> (Beeli) Singer | Boua | Democratic Republic of Congo, Nigeria, Zimbabwe | (Sharp, 2014; Walshaw, 2004) |
| <i>Marasmius buzungolo</i> Singer | Boua, Ochui vió | Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon | (Antonin, 2007; Beeli, 1928) |
| <i>Marasmius heinemannianus</i> Antonin | | Benin | (Antonin, 2007; Ndong, 2009; Ndong & Degreef, 2011) |
| <i>Trogia infundibuliformis</i> Berk. & Broome | Boua, Ochui vió, | Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Prince | (Antonin, 2007) |
| Morchellaceae | | | |
| <i>Morchella crassipes</i> (Vent.) Pers. | Ubuyoga | Kenya, Rwanda, Tanzania, Zimbabwe | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| Omphalotaceae | | | |
| <i>Lentinula edodes</i> (Berk.) Pegler | Boua | Democratic Republic of Congo | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |

(Continues)

TABLE 1 (Continued)

| Scientific name | Common names | Countries | References |
|---|---------------------------------------|--|---|
| <i>Marasmiellus inoderma</i> (Berk.) Singer ex Furneaux | Boua, Ochiu vió | Benin, Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Nigeria, Togo | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| <i>Neonothopanus hygrophanus</i> (Mont.) De Kesel & Degreef | Boua, Ochiu vió, Ubuyoga | Benin, Burkina Faso, Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Ghana, Guinea, Kenya, Niger, Ouganda, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Tanzania, Togo, Zanzibar | (Buyck, 1994; Degreef et al., 1997; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Härkönen et al., 2015; Walshaw, 2004) |
| Paxillaceae | | | |
| <i>Paxillus brunneotomentosus</i> Heinem. & Rammeloo | Ubwoba, Boua | Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Kenya, Rwanda | (Akyüz & Kirbağ, 2010) |
| Physalacriaceae | | | |
| <i>Armillaria borealis</i> Marxm. & Korhonen | Boua | Democratic Republic of Congo, Rwanda | (Degreef et al., 2016) |
| <i>Armillaria cepistipes</i> Velen. | – | Rwanda | (Degreef et al., 2016) |
| <i>Armillaria heimii</i> Pegler | Boua, Ochiu vió, Bowa, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | South Africa, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Republic of Congo, Democratic Republic of Congo, Ivory Coast, Gabon, Kenya, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Ouganda, Rwanda, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (Degreef et al., 2016) |
| <i>Armillaria lutea</i> Gillet | – | Rwanda | (Abomo-Ndongo et al., 2002; Degreef et al., 2016; Mohammed & Guillaumin, 1994; Morris, 1987; Mwenje et al., 2003; Ndong, 2009; Ndong & Degreef, 2011; Pegler, 1972) |
| <i>Armillaria ostoyae</i> (Romagn.) Herink | – | Rwanda | (Degreef et al., 2016) |
| <i>Armillaria tabescens</i> (Scop.) Emel | – | Rwanda | (Degreef et al., 2016) |
| <i>Oudemansiella canarii</i> (Jungh.) Höhn. | Boua | Tropical Africa, Democratic Republic of the Congo | (Degreef et al., 2016) |
| Pleurotaceae | | | |
| <i>Pleurotus cystidiosus</i> O.K. Mill. | Ubwoba, Boua | Benin, Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Rwanda | (Akyüz & Kirbağ, 2010) |
| <i>Pleurotus djamor</i> (Rumph. ex Fr.) Boedijn | Boua, Ubuyoga | Pantropical. Benin, Democratic Republic of Congo, Rwanda, Tanzania | (Buyck, 1994; de Kesel et al., 2002; Degreef et al., 2016) |
| <i>Pleurotus flabellatus</i> Sacc | Boua, Ochiu vió, Bowa, Ubuyoga | Paleotropical. Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Kenya, Malawi, Ouganda, Rwanda, Tanzania | (Degreef et al., 2016; Harkonen, 2002; Pegler, 1972) |
| <i>Pleurotus fuscusquamulosus</i> D.A. Reid & Eicker | – | Ivory Coast | (Degreef et al., 2016; Harkonen, 2002; Morris, 1987; Ndong, 2009; Ndong & Degreef, 2011; Pegler, 1972) |
| <i>Pleurotus luteoalbus</i> Beeli | Boua | Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, Kenya | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| <i>Pleurotus ostreatus</i> (Jacq.) P. Kumm. | – | Cameroon | (Njouonkou, 2011; Pegler, 1972) |
| <i>Pleurotus pulmonarius</i> (Fr.) Quéf. | – | Cameroon | (Yongabi et al., 2004) |
| <i>Pleurotus tuber-regium</i> (Fr.) Singer | – | – | (Yongabi et al., 2004) |
| <i>Pleurotus sajor-caju</i> (Fr.) Singer | – | Cameroon | (Yongabi et al., 2004) |

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TABLE 1 (Continued)

| Scientific name | Common names | Countries | References |
|--|--|---|---|
| Pluteaceae | | | |
| <i>Volvariella gloiocephala</i> (DC.) Boekhout & Enderle | – | Cameroon | (Yongabi et al., 2004) |
| <i>Volvariella parvispora</i> Heinem. | Boua | Democratic Republic of Congo | (Yongabi et al., 2004) |
| <i>Volvariella volvacea</i> (Bull.) Singer | – | Cameroon | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| <i>Volvolpateus earlei</i> (Murrill) Vizzini, Contu & Justo | Boua | Benin, Democratic Republic of Congo, Mali | (Yongabi et al., 2004) |
| Polyporaceae | | | |
| <i>Echinochaete brachypora</i> (Mont.) Ryvarden | Boua | Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Douanla-Meli, 2007) |
| <i>Favolus spatulatus</i> (Jungh.) Lév | Boua, Bowa, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Democratic Republic of Congo, Malawi, Tanzania, Zambia | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Douanla-Meli, 2007) |
| <i>Favolus tenuiculus</i> P. Beauv | Boua, Ochiu vió, Bowa, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Benin, Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Malawi, Mali, Rwanda, Tanzania, Togo, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Harkonen, 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015) |
| <i>Lentinus brunneofloccosus</i> Pegler | Boua | Central African Republic | (de Kesel et al., 2017; Degreef et al., 2016; Harkonen, 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015; Morris, 1987; Sharp, 2014; van Dijk et al., 2003) |
| <i>Lentinus cladopus</i> Lév | Boua, Bowa, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Cameroon, Ivory Coast, Democratic Republic of Congo, Kenya, Malawi, Ouganda, Central African Republic, Rwanda, Tanzania, Tchad, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (Malaisse et al., 2008; Mpusulu et al., 2010; Ndong, 2009, 2010; Ndong & Degreef, 2011) |
| <i>Lentinus retinervis</i> Pegler | Boua | Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo | (Degreef et al., 2016; Njouonkou, 2011; Ryvarden et al., 1994; Sharp, 2011) |
| <i>Lentinus sajor-caju</i> (Fr.) Fr | Ochui vió, Ubuyoga | South Africa, Cameroon, Gabon, Tanzania, | (Njouonkou, 2011) |
| <i>Lentinus squarrosulus</i> Mont. | Boua | Benin, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, | (Douanla-Meli, 2007; Gryzenhout, 2010; Härkönen et al., 2015; Ndong & Degreef, 2011) |
| <i>Pycnoporus sanguineus</i> (L.) Murrill | Boua | Democratic Republic of Congo | (de Kesel et al., 2002; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Douanla-Meli, 2007; Malaisse et al., 2008; Ndong, 2009, 2010; Ndong & Degreef, 2011; van Dijk et al., 2003) |
| Porothelaceae | | | |
| <i>Gerronema hungo</i> (Henn.) Degreef & Eyi | Boua, Ochiu vió | Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon | (Harkonen, 2002) |
| Psathyrellaceae | | | |
| <i>Coprinellus disseminatus</i> (Pers.) J.E. Lange | Boua | Democratic Republic of Congo | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| <i>Psathyrella atroumbonata</i> Pegler | Boua, Bowa, Ubuyoga | Benin, Democratic Republic of Congo, Kenya, Malawi, Nigeria, Rwanda, Tanzania | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| <i>Psathyrella candolleana</i> (Fr.) Maire | Boua, Bowa, Ubuyoga | Benin, Democratic Republic of Congo, Malawi, Nigeria, Ouganda, Tanzania | (Degreef et al., 2016; Morris, 1987; Oso, 1975; Pegler, 1972) |
| <i>Psathyrella tuberculata</i> (Pat.) A.H. Sm. | | Benin, Rwanda | (Morris, 1987; Oso, 1975; Pegler, 1972) |
| Rickenellaceae | | | |
| <i>Cotylidia aurantiaca</i> (Pat.) A.L. Welden | Ubuyoga | Burundi, Ruanda | (Degreef et al., 2016) |

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TABLE 1 (Continued)

| Scientific name | Common names | Countries | References |
|--|---|--|---|
| Sarcoscyphaceae | | | |
| <i>Cookeina speciosa</i> (Fr.) Dennis | Boua | Democratic Republic of Congo, Ivory Coast | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| Schizophyllaceae | | | |
| <i>Schizophyllum commune</i> Fr. | Bwoba, Boua, Ochiu vió, Bowa, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | South Africa, Benin, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Kenya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Nigeria, Ouganda, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| Strophariaceae | | | |
| <i>Agrocybe broadwayi</i> (Murrill) Dennis | – | Ivory Coast, Kenya | (Pegler, 1972) |
| <i>Agrocybe elegantior</i> Watling | Boua | Ivory Coast, Democratic Republic of Congo | (Pegler, 1972) |
| <i>Hypholoma subviride</i> (Berk. & M.A. Curtis) Dennis | Ubwoba | Burundi, Ruanda | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| Tremellaceae | | | |
| <i>Tremella fuciformis</i> Berk. | – | Ivory Coast | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| Tricholomataceae | | | |
| <i>Lepista sordida</i> (Schumach.) Singer | Boua | Benin, Democratic Republic of Congo, Rwanda, Togo, Zimbabwe | (Degreef et al., 2016; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Sharp, 2011) |
| <i>Leucopaxillus brasiliensis</i> (Rick.) Singer & A.H. Sm. | | Benin | (Degreef et al., 2016; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Sharp, 2011) |
| <i>Tricholomopsis aurea</i> (Beeli) Desjardin & B.A. Perry | Ubwoba, Boua | Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Rwanda, São Tomé, Togo, Zimbabwe | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| Mycorrhizal | | | |
| Amanitaceae | | | |
| <i>Amanita aff subviscosa</i> Belli | – | Ivory Coast | (Soro et al., 2019) |
| <i>Amanita afrospinosa</i> Pegler & Shah-Smith | Tortulho, Ubwoba, Mbowa, | Angola, Benin, Burundi, Kenya, Zambia | (Soro et al., 2019) |
| <i>Amanita bweyeyensis</i> Fraiture, Raspé & Degreef | Ubwoba, Ubuyoga | Burundi, Rwanda, Tanzania | (Beeli, 1935; Pegler & Shah-Smith, 1997) |
| <i>Amanita congolensis</i> (Beeli) Tulloss, B.E. Wolfe, K.W. Hughes, Kudzma & D. Arora | – | Ivory Coast | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Harkonen, 2002) |
| <i>Amanita crassiconus</i> Bas | Ubwoba, Mbowa | Benin, Burundi, Nigéria, Senegal, Zambia | (Soro et al., 2019) |
| <i>Amanita flammeola</i> Pegler & Pearce | Boua, Mbowa | Democratic Republic of Congo, Zambia | (de Kesel et al., 2002; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Härkönen et al., 2015) |
| <i>Amanita loosei</i> Beeli | Ubwoba, Boua, Bowa, Ubuyoga, Mbowa, ubuaba ou uhwa, Boua, Ubuaba, Ubuyoga | Sudano-Guinean and Zambezi regions, Angola, Benin, Burundi, Togo, Democratic Republic of Congo, Kenya, Malawi, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Härkönen et al., 2015; Pegler & Pearce, 1980) |
| <i>Amanita mafingensis</i> Härk. & Saarim. | Boua, Bowa, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Democratic Republic of Congo, Malawi, Tanzania, Zambia | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Harkonen, 2002; Nzigidahera, 2007; Ryvarden et al., 1994; Sharp, 2011) |
| <i>Amanita masasiensis</i> Härk. & Saarim | Boua, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Benin, Democratic Republic of Congo, Mozambique, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Harkonen, 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015) |
| <i>Amanita pudica</i> (Beeli) Walley | Ubwoba, Boua, Mbowa | Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Zambia | (de Kesel et al., 2002; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Harkonen, 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015; Sharp, 2011) |

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TABLE 1 (Continued)

| Scientific name | Common names | Countries | References |
|--|--|--|--|
| <i>Amanita robusta</i> Beeli | Boua | Democratic Republic of Congo | (Buyck, 1994; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Härkönen et al., 2015) |
| <i>Amanita rubescens</i> Pers. | Ubwoba, Bowa Mbowa, Ubuaba ou Uhwa, Boua, Ochiu vió, Bowa, Mbowa | Cosmopolitan South Africa, Benin, Burundi, Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Malawi, Togo, Zambia | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| <i>Amanita strobilaceovolvata</i> Beeli | Boua, Mbowa | Ivory Coast, Benin, Democratic Republic of Congo, Zambia | (Beeli, 1935; Gryzenhout, 2010; Härkönen et al., 2015; Morris, 1987; Ndong, 2009; Sharp, 2011) |
| <i>Amanita xanthogala</i> Bas | | Ivory Coast | (Beeli, 1935; de Kesel et al., 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015; Soro et al., 2019) |
| <i>Amanita subviscosa</i> Beeli | Boua | Benin, Democratic Republic of Congo | (Soro et al., 2019) |
| Boletaceae | | | |
| <i>Afroboletus luteolus</i> (Heinem.) Pegler & T.W.K. Young | Ubwoba, Boua, Bowa, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Benin, Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Malawi, Tanzania, Togo, Zambia | (Buyck, 1994; de Kesel et al., 2002; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Harkonen, 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015; Morris, 1987) |
| <i>Boletus loosii</i> Heinem. | Ubwoba, Boua, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Tanzania, Zimbabwe | (Buyck, 1994; de Kesel et al., 2002; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Harkonen, 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015; Morris, 1987) |
| <i>Mycoamaranthus congolensis</i> (Dissing & M. Lange) Castellano & Walley | Boua, Bowa, Ubuyoga, | Democratic Republic of Congo, Malawi, Zimbabwe | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Härkönen et al., 2015; Pacioni & Sharp, 2000; Verbeken et al., 2000) |
| <i>Octaviania ivoryana</i> Castellano, Verbeken & Thoen | Boua, Ochiu vió, Ubuyoga | Benin, Burkina Faso, Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Ghana, Guinea, Kenya, Niger, Ouganda, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Tanzania, Togo, Zanzibar | (Verbeken et al., 2000) |
| <i>Xerocomus spinulosus</i> Heinem. & Gooss.-Font. | Boua | Democratic Republic of Congo | (de Kesel et al., 2002; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Verbeken et al., 2000) |
| <i>Xerocomus subspinulosus</i> Heinem. | Ubwoba, bowa | Benin, Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Togo | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| Cantharellaceae | | | |
| <i>Cantharellus addaiensis</i> Henn. | Boua, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Benin, Democratic Republic of Congo, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (de Kesel et al., 2002; Degreef et al., 2016; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Nzigidahera, 2007) |
| <i>Cantharellus afrociarius</i> Buyck & V.Hofst. | Boua, Mbowa | Democratic Republic of Congo, Zambia | (Degreef et al., 1997; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Harkonen, 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015; Heinemann, 1956; Pegler & Pearce, 1980; Ryvarden et al., 1994) |
| <i>Cantharellus congolensis</i> Beeli | Tortulho, Boua, Ochiu vió, Mbowa | Angola, Benin, Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Togo, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (de Kesel et al., 2016; Härkönen et al., 2015) |
| <i>Cantharellus conspicuus</i> Eyssart., Buyck & Verbeken | Boua | Benin, Democratic Republic of Congo, Zimbabwe | (de Kesel et al., 2002, 2016; Härkönen et al., 2015; Ndong & Degreef, 2011; Sharp, 2011; Yorou & de Kesel, 2001) |
| <i>Cantharellus defibulatus</i> (Heinem.) Eyssart. & Buyck | Tortulho, Ubwoba, Boua | Angola, Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo | (de Kesel et al., 2016) |
| <i>Cantharellus densifolius</i> Heinem. | Boua, Mbowa, | Central African Republic, Democratic Republic of Congo, Togo, Zambia | (Buyck, 1994; Degreef et al., 2016; Nzigidahera, 2007) |

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TABLE 1 (Continued)

| Scientific name | Common names | Countries | References |
|--|---|---|---|
| <i>Cantharellus gracilis</i> Buyck & V. Hofst | Boua | Democratic Republic of Congo | (Degreef et al., 2016; Härkönen et al., 2015) |
| <i>Cantharellus guineensis</i> De Kesel & Yorou | – | Benin | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| <i>Cantharellus humidicola</i> Buyck & V. Hofst. | Boua, Ubuyoga | Democratic Republic of Congo, Mozambique, Tanzania | (de Kesel et al., 2016; Degreef et al., 2016) |
| <i>Cantharellus isabellinus</i> Heinem. | Boua, Ubuyoga | Benin, Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, Tanzania | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| <i>Cantharellus longisporus</i> Heinem. | Boua | Democratic Republic of Congo, | (Degreef et al., 2016; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Harkonen, 2002; Morris, 1987; Ndong, 2009; Ndong & Degreef, 2011; Pegler, 1972; Sharp, 2014) |
| <i>Cantharellus luteopunctatus</i> (Beeli) Heinem. | Boua | Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, Kenya | (Harkonen, 2002) |
| <i>Cantharellus microcibarius</i> Heinem. | Boua | Democratic Republic of Congo | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Heinemann, 1956) |
| <i>Cantharellus mikemboensis</i> De Kesel & Degreef | Boua, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Democratic Republic of Congo, Kenya, Mozambique, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (de Kesel et al., 2017; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| <i>Cantharellus minutissimus</i> Buyck & V. Hofst. | Boua | Democratic Republic of Congo | (Degreef et al., 2016; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| <i>Cantharellus miomboensis</i> Buyck & V. Hofst. | Boua, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Democratic Republic of Congo, Kenya, Mozambique, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| <i>Cantharellus platyphyllus</i> Heinem | Ubwoba, Boua, Ochiu vió, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Benin, Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Mozambique, Tanzania, Togo, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (Degreef et al., 2016; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| <i>Cantharellus pseudomiomboensis</i> De Kesel & Kasongo | Tortulho, Boua | Angola, Democratic Republic of Congo | (Buyck, 1994; de Kesel et al., 2002; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Harkonen, 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015; Ryvardeen et al., 1994; Sharp, 2011) |
| <i>Cantharellus rhodophyllus</i> Heinem. | Boua, Ochiu vió | Central African Republic, Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon | (de Kesel et al., 2016; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| <i>Cantharellus ruber</i> Heinem. | Tortulho, Ubwoba, Boua, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Angola, Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Tanzania, Zambia | (Heinemann, 1956; Ndong & Degreef, 2011) |
| <i>Cantharellus rufopunctatus</i> (Beeli) Heinem. | Boua | Democratic Republic of Congo | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Nzigidahera, 2007; Sharp, 2014) |
| <i>Cantharellus solidus</i> De Kesel, Yorou & Buyck | – | Benin | (de Kesel et al., 2016) |
| <i>Cantharellus splendens</i> Buyck | Tortulho, Ubwoba, Boua | Angola, Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo | (de Kesel et al., 2011) |
| <i>Cantharellus stramineus</i> De Kesel | Boua | Democratic Republic of Congo | (Buyck, 1994; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| <i>Cantharellus subcyanoxanthus</i> Buyck, Randrianj. & Eyssart. | Ubwoba, Boua, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Madagascar, Tanzania, Zambia | (Heinemann, 1956) |
| <i>Cantharellus sublaevis</i> Buyck & Eyssartier | Tortulho, Boua, Mbowa | Angola, Democratic Republic of Congo, Zambia | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |

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TABLE 1 (Continued)

| Scientific name | Common names | Countries | References |
|---|--|---|---|
| <i>Cantharellus symoensii</i> Heinem. | Ubwoba, Boua, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (Buyck, 1994; Degreef et al., 1997; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Harkonen, 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015) |
| Cortinariaceae | | | |
| <i>Mackintoshia persica</i> Pacioni & C. Sharp | Tortulho, Boua, Mbowa | Angola, Mozambique, Democratic Republic of Congo, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Harkonen, 2002; Sharp, 2011) |
| Hydnaceae | | | |
| <i>Clavulina albiramea</i> (Corner) Buyck & Duhem | Boua, Bowa, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Democratic Republic of Congo, Madagascar, Malawi, Tanzania, Zambia | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Harkonen, 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015; Sharp, 2011) |
| Laetiporaceae | | | |
| <i>Laetiporus discolor</i> (Klotzsch) Corner | Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (Harkonen, 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015; Sharp, 2014; Verbeken & Walley, 2010) |
| Paxillaceae | | | |
| <i>Gyrodon miretipes</i> Heinem. & Rammeloo | Tortulho, Ubwoba | Angola, Burundi | (Degreef et al., 2016; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| Suillaceae | | | |
| <i>Suillus granulatus</i> (L.) Roussel | Ubwoba, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Burundi, Rwanda, Tanzania, Zambia | (Degreef et al., 2016; Harkonen, 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015; Ryvarden et al., 1994) |
| Russulaceae | | | |
| <i>Lactarius chromospermus</i> Pegler | Ubwoba, Boua, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Sharp, 2014; Verbeken & Walley, 2010) |
| <i>Lactarius kabansus</i> Pegler & Pearce | Ubwoba, Boua, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Kenya, Mozambique, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Sharp, 2014; Verbeken & Walley, 2010) |
| <i>Lactarius tenellus</i> Verbeken & Walley | Ubwoba, Boua, Bowa, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Benin, Burundi, Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, Kenya, Malawi, Tanzania, Togo, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (Buyck, 1994; de Kesel et al., 2016; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Harkonen, 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015; Nzigidahera, 2007; Verbeken & Walley, 2010) |
| <i>Lactifluus annulatoangustifolius</i> (Beeli) Buyck | Boua, Ochiu vió, Mbowa | Benin, Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Guinea, Liberia, Madagascar, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (de Kesel et al., 2002; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Verbeken & Walley, 2010) |
| <i>Lactifluus brunnescens</i> (Verbeken) Verbeken | Ubwoba, Boua, Bowa, Mbowa | Burundi, Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, Malawi, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (Verbeken & Walley, 2010) |
| <i>Lactifluus densifolius</i> (Verbeken & Karhula) Verbeken | Ubwoba, Boua, Bowa, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Benin, Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Malawi, Mozambique, Tanzania, Togo, Zambia | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Njouonkou et al., 2016; Verbeken & Walley, 2010) |
| <i>Lactifluus edulis</i> (Verbeken & Buyck) Buyck | Ubwoba, Boua, Bowa, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Benin, Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Malawi, Mozambique, Tanzania, Togo, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (Buyck, 1994; de Kesel et al., 2002; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Harkonen, 2002; Maba et al., 2015; Nzigidahera, 2007; Verbeken & Walley, 2010) |
| <i>Lactifluus flammans</i> (Verbeken) Verbeken | Bowa, Mbowa | Benin, Malawi, Togo, Zambia | (Buyck, 1994; de Kesel et al., 2002; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Härkönen et al., 2015; Karhula et al., 1998; Maba et al., 2015; Verbeken & Walley, 2010) |
| <i>Lactifluus gymnocarpoides</i> (Verbeken) Verbeken | Tortulho, Ubwoba, Boua, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Angola, Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Ivory Coast, Guinea, Kenya, Madagascar, Tanzania, Togo, Mozambique, Senegal, Democratic Republic of Congo, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (de Kesel et al., 2002; Verbeken & Walley, 2010) |

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TABLE 1 (Continued)

| Scientific name | Common names | Countries | References |
|--|--|--|---|
| <i>Lactifluus gymnocarpus</i> (R. Heim ex Singer) Verbeken | Boua, Ochiu vió, Boua, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Benin, Camaroom, Democratic Republic of Congo, Ivory Coast, Gabon, Guiné, Libéria, Malawi, Senegal, Tanzania, Togo, Zambia | (de Kesel et al., 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015; Sharp, 2014; Verbeken & Walley, 2010; Yorou et al., 2014) |
| <i>Lactifluus heimii</i> (Verbeken) Verbeken | Ubwoba, Boua, Boua, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Malawi, Tanzania, Togo, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Harkonen, 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015; Morris, 1987; Ndong, 2009; Ndong & Degreef, 2011; Pegler & Pearce, 1980; Verbeken & Walley, 2010; Yorou et al., 2014) |
| <i>Lactifluus laevigatus</i> (Verbeken) Verbeken | Ubwoba, Boua, Boua, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Malawi, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Harkonen, 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015; Sharp, 2014; Verbeken & Walley, 2010) |
| <i>Lactifluus longipes</i> (Verbeken) Verbeken | Boua, Ochiu vió | Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Togo | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Verbeken & Walley, 2010) |
| <i>Lactifluus longisporus</i> (Verbeken) Verbeken | Ubwoba, Boua, Boua, Mbowa | Benin, Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Kenya, Madagascar, Malawi, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Verbeken & Walley, 2010) |
| <i>Lactifluus luteopus</i> (Verbeken) Verbeken | Ubwoba, Boua, Boua, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Benin, Burkina- Faso, Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Malawi, Tanzania, Togo, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (de Kesel et al., 2002; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Harkonen, 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015; Verbeken & Walley, 2010; Yorou et al., 2014; Yorou & de Kesel, 2001) |
| <i>Lactifluus medusae</i> (Verbeken) Verbeken | Boua, Boua, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Democratic Republic of Congo, Malawi, Mali, Mozambique, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Verbeken & Walley, 2010) |
| <i>Lactifluus pelliculatus</i> (Beeli) Buyck | Boua | Democratic Republic of Congo | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| <i>Lactifluus pseudovolemus</i> (R. Heim) Verbeken | - | Benin, Madagascar | (Verbeken & Walley, 2010) |
| <i>Lactifluus pumilus</i> (Verbeken) Verbeken | Ubwoba, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Benin, Burundi, Kenya, Senegal, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (Verbeken & Walley, 2010) |
| <i>Lactifluus rubiginosus</i> (Verbeken) Verbeken | Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Tanzania, Zambia | (Härkönen et al., 2015; Verbeken & Walley, 2010) |
| <i>Lactifluus rubroviolascens</i> (R. Heim) Verbeken | Boua, Boua, Mbowa | Benin, Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, Kenya, Madagascar, Malawi, Zambia | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Verbeken & Walley, 2010) |
| <i>Lactifluus tanzanicus</i> (Karhula & Verbeken) Verbeken | Ubuyoga | Tanzania | (Härkönen et al., 2015; Verbeken & Walley, 2010) |
| <i>Lactifluus velutissimus</i> (Verbeken) Verbeken | Ubwoba, Boua, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Kenya, Malawi, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Härkönen et al., 2015; Verbeken & Walley, 2010) |
| <i>Lactifluus volemoides</i> (Karhula) Verbeken | Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Benin, Kenya, Tanzania, Zimbabwe | (Harkonen, 2002; Verbeken & Walley, 2010) |
| <i>Lactifluus xerampelinus</i> (Karhula & Verbeken) Verbeken | Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (Harkonen, 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015; Sharp, 2014; Verbeken & Walley, 2010) |
| <i>Russula acuminata</i> Buyck | Boua | Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo | (Buyck, 1994) |
| <i>Russula cellulata</i> Buyck | Tortulho, Ubwoba, Boua, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Angola, Benin, Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Kenya, Mozambique, Tanzania, Togo | (Buyck, 1994; Buyck & Nzigidahera, 1995; Degreef et al., 1997; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Harkonen, 2002; Kissanga et al., 2022; Nzigidahera, 2007) |

(Continues)

TABLE 1 (Continued)

| Scientific name | Common names | Countries | References |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------------------|---|--|
| <i>Russula ciliata</i> Buyck | Ubwoba, Boua, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Benin, Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Kenya, Mozambique, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (Buyck, 1994; de Kesel et al., 2017; Harkonen, 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015; Sharp, 2011) |
| <i>Russula compressa</i> Buyck | Ubwoba, Boua, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Benin, Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (Buyck & Nzigidahera, 1995; de Kesel et al., 2017; Harkonen, 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015; Sharp, 2011) |
| <i>Russula congoana</i> Pat. | Tortulho, Boua, Ubuyoga, Mbowa | Angola, Benin, Democratic Republic of Congo, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe | (de Kesel et al., 2002; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017; Harkonen, 2002; Härkönen et al., 2015; Sharp, 2011) |
| <i>Russula flavobrunnea</i> Buyck | Tortulho, Ubwoba, Boua | Angola, Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo | (Buyck & Nzigidahera, 1995) |
| <i>Russula grisea</i> Fr. | – | Ivory Coast, Benin, Algeria | (Soro et al., 2019) |
| <i>Russula meleagris</i> Buyck | Boua | Benin, Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, | (Buyck, 1994; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| <i>Russula ochrocephala</i> Buyck | Boua | Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, Senegal | (Buyck, 1994; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| <i>Russula oleifera</i> Buyck | – | Ivory Coast, Benin | (Buyck & Nzigidahera, 1995) |
| <i>Russula phaeocephala</i> Buyck | Tortulho, Ubwoba, Boua, Ubuyoga | Angola, Burundi, Zambezi Region, Democratic Republic of Congo, Tanzania | (Soro et al., 2019) |
| <i>Russula roseoviolacea</i> Buyck | Ubwoba, Boua | Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| <i>Russula sejuncta</i> Buyck | – | – | (Buyck, 1994; de Kesel et al., 2017; Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| <i>Russula sese</i> Beeli | Boua | Democratic Republic of Congo | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| <i>Russula sesemoindu</i> Beeli | Boua | Democratic Republic of Congo | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |
| <i>Russula striatoviridis</i> Buyck | Boua | Democratic Republic of Congo | (Degreef & de Kesel, 2017) |

agroforests (Kaewchai et al., 2009; Osemwegie et al., 2012; Wasser, 2011).

The high nutritional value and pharmacological properties that come from mushrooms richness in bioactive compounds make them a worldwide appreciated product. In Table 2, the proximate composition of some wild edible mushrooms is presented. WEF are characterized by low-energy levels and high amounts of minerals, essential amino acids, vitamins, and fibers (Leal et al., 2013). Edible mushrooms are also a good source of proteins, with some species such as *Volvariella volvacea* and *Termitomyces robustus* showing values above 40 g/100 g of fresh matter (Adejumo et al., 2015). Carbohydrates such as glucose, chitin, glycogen, and glucan can also be found in fresh mushrooms' fruiting bodies (Rahi & Malik, 2016). Their individual low-fat profile, allied to the remaining nutritional assets of mushrooms, makes these suitable food to be incorporated into low-calorie diets (Barros et al., 2013). Due to their high moisture content, enzymatic activity, and high respiration rate, the mushroom's shelf life is usually short (1–3 days at room temperature). Hence, in Africa, mushrooms are often dried to prolong their shelf life and ensure their availability during the off-season period (Boa, 2004). When compared to meat and fish, mushrooms are an excellent and cheap source of proteins and essential amino acids, such as valine, leucine, isoleucine, threonine, and methionine (Rzymiski et al., 2016), presenting as an ideal low-cost source of food and nutrition. Despite their rich nutritional profile, mushrooms proximate composition may vary widely, which may be attributed to several factors that

include the fruiting body maturity, time of harvest, soil characteristics (pH and the availability of nutrients), environmental factors (rainfall and temperature), and genetics (Gebrelbanos et al., 2016).

Mushrooms are also a rich source of essential microelements (Table 3), which play important roles in biological systems, being cofactors of numerous enzymatic mechanisms (Rahi & Malik, 2016). Data available on the literature reveal the presence of several micronutrients, in different amounts according to the mushroom species. For example, potassium seems to be the major element occurring in *Coprinus cinereus* (3232 ± 2.6 mg/100 g) and *Pleurotus flabellatus* (1537 ± 2.4 mg/100 g), while in *V. volvacea*, phosphorus (1699 ± 2.57) and iron (426 ± 2.4) stood out. Interesting concentrations of sodium (686 ± 3.0) and calcium (549 ± 0.6) were also found in *P. flabellatus* and *Lentinus squarrosulus*. Other microelements such as copper, manganese, and magnesium seem to occur more restrictedly in different species of mushrooms. As for vitamin C, *C. cinereus* and *L. squarrosulus* present highest concentrations (58 and 55 mg/100 g, respectively).

The bioaccumulation of minerals by mushrooms in their fruiting bodies from the environment in which they are inserted is well described in the literature (Kalač, 2010; Rajarathnam et al., 1998) and depending on ecological and genetic factors, superior mushroom species are generally rich in mineral constituents (Schmitt et al., 1977; Vetter, 1990). In this field, different factors can influence the accumulation of minerals in mushrooms, namely the species, the morphological part of the fruiting body, the evolving stage and age of the

TABLE 2 Nutritional composition (% dry weight) and energy (kcal) of wild edible mushrooms from Central and Southern Africa.

| Samples | Moisture (%) fw | Ash (mg/100 g) | Crude protein (g/100 g) | Crude fiber (g/100 g) | Fat (%) | Carbohydrate (g/100 g) | Energy (kcal) | References |
|-------------------------------|-----------------|----------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|----------|------------------------|---------------|---|
| <i>Agaricus campestris</i> | 85.1 | 3.5 | 38.9 | - | 2.7 | 54.9 | 562 | (Beluhan & Ranogajec, 2011) |
| <i>Amanita rubescens</i> | 90.9 | 4.6 | 26.0 | - | 7.2 | 62.2 | 380 | (Ouzouni & Riganakos, 2007) |
| <i>Macrolepiota procera</i> | 87.7 | 5.4 | 23.9 | - | 2.3 | 68.4 | 480 | (Ouzouni & Riganakos, 2007) |
| <i>Pleurotus flabellatus</i> | 93 | 6.1 | 21 | 11 | 1.3 | 60 | 302 | (Mshandete & Cuff, 2007) |
| <i>Pleurotus ostreatus</i> | 88.3–92.8 | 5.65–7.6 | 24.9–32.31 | 5.97 | 15.38–21 | 33.57–65.4 | - | (Adejumo et al., 2015; Beluhan & Ranogajec, 2011) |
| <i>Pleurotus pulmonarius</i> | 89.01 | 7.95 | 23.63 | 8.16 | 11.63 | 37.64 | - | (Adejumo et al., 2015) |
| <i>Pleurotus sajor-caju</i> | - | 6.8 | 29.3 | - | 0.9 | 63.0 | - | (Gogavekar et al., 2014) |
| <i>Pleurotus sajor-caju</i> | - | 6.4 | 15.3 | - | 2.9 | 75.4 | - | (Obodai et al., 2014) |
| <i>Pleurotus tuber-regium</i> | - | 6.3 | 13.3 | . | 1.3 | 79.1 | - | (Obodai et al., 2014) |
| <i>Suillus granulatus</i> | 92.3 | 5.2 | 16.5 | - | 4.0 | 74.3 | 307 | (Ouzouni & Riganakos, 2007) |
| <i>Termitomyces robustus</i> | 88.6 | 13.71 | 41.19 | 5.27 | 9.07 | 19.36 | - | (Adejumo et al., 2015) |
| <i>Termitomyces robustus</i> | - | 6.3 | 13.3 | - | 1.3 | 79.1 | - | (Obodai et al., 2014) |
| <i>Volvariella volvacea</i> | 87.64 | 16.10 | 42.63 | 5.14 | 10.60 | 13.17 | - | (Adejumo et al., 2015) |
| <i>Volvariella volvacea</i> | 91 | 10 | 28 | 9.8 | 3.3 | 50 | 305 | (Mshandete & Cuff, 2007) |

TABLE 3 Microelements and vitamin C composition of selected edible mushrooms from Africa.

| Samples | Calcium (mg/100 g) | Sodium (mg/100 g) | Potassium (mg/100 g) | Magnesium (mg/100 g) | Phosphorus (mg/100 g) | Zinc (mg/100 g) | Iron (mg/100 g) | Manganese (mg/100 g) | Copper (mg/100 g) | Vitamin C (mg/100 g) | Methods | References |
|---------------------------------|--------------------|-------------------|----------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------|-----------------|----------------------|-------------------|----------------------|-----------------|--|
| <i>Coprinus cinereus</i> | 214 ± 2.6 | 338 ± 2.3 | 3232 ± 2.6 | 32 ± 2.1 | 1142 ± 3.0 | 141 ± 3.4 | 248 ± 2.2 | 14 ± 3.1 | 23 ± 0.1 | 55 ± 1.91 | AOAC procedures | (Mshandete & Cuff, 2007) |
| <i>Lentinus squarrosulus</i> | 549 ± 0.6 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 58 ± 0.14 | | (Okoro & Achuba, 2012) |
| <i>Pleurotus flabellatus</i> | 120 ± 2.2 | 686 ± 3.0 | 1537 ± 2.4 | 40 ± 1.9 | 1616 ± 2.97 | 145 ± 2.3 | 209 ± 2.5 | 10 ± 1.8 | 22 ± 0.2 | 33 ± 1.19 | | (Adejumo et al., 2015; Mshandete & Cuff, 2007) |
| <i>Pleurotus ostreatus</i> | 87.50 | 6.52 | 2.68 | 51.27 | - | - | - | - | - | 10.16 | | (Adejumo et al., 2015) |
| <i>Pleurotus pulmonarius</i> | 40.25 | 3.59 | 7.25 | 20.75 | - | - | - | - | - | 14.10 | | (Adejumo et al., 2015) |
| <i>Termitomyces microcarpus</i> | 38.45 | 2.67 | 4.34 | 40.75 | - | - | - | - | - | 12.15 | | (Adejumo et al., 2015) |
| <i>Termitomyces robustus</i> | 54.10 | 3.92 | 4.56 | 32.42 | - | - | - | - | - | 10.25 | | (Adejumo et al., 2015) |
| <i>Volvariella volvacea</i> | 37.15 | 1.58 | 2.62 | 25.22 | 1699 ± 2.57 | 68 ± 2.2 | 426 ± 2.4 | 52 ± 1.7 | 1.6 ± 0.42 | 6.57 | | (Adejumo et al., 2015; Mshandete & Cuff, 2007) |



FIGURE 1 Main distribution of wild edible mushrooms in African countries. Source: Degreef and de Kesel (2017); www.EFTA-online.org.

mycelium, the biochemical arrangement of the medium, and the intervals of fruiting of mushrooms (García et al., 1998; Soylok et al., 2005). Minerals such as iron, copper, zinc, and manganese are essential metals in different biological systems, whereas lead and cadmium can be toxic even in trace amounts (Schroeder, 1976). However, when ingested in excessively high doses, essential minerals can also produce toxic effects (Soylok et al., 2005).

Thus, it is essential to assess the microelement content in different species of mushrooms, subject to different cultivation conditions, thus evaluating their contribution to the ingestion of different toxic elements on a daily basis, defining at the same time safety limits in their ingestion.

In addition to its valuable nutritional properties, mushrooms also hold several medicinal assets. In fact, the growing globalization and consumption of dietary and medicinal products with a natural component included mushrooms in the list of alternative medicine products.

It is well assumed that the use of different species of wild mushrooms comes from ancient experiences and opportunistic discoveries. Some of the traditional medicinal uses of wild African mushrooms are described in Table 4. The medicinal properties of mushrooms of the genera *Pleurotus* are known in several continents, such as Asia, Europe, South America, and Africa. *Pleurotus ostreatus* is traditionally known for its antimicrobial assets, mainly against *Escherichia coli*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Bacillus subtilis*, and *Candida albicans* (Wisbeck et al., 2002). The extract obtained from this mushroom species (traditionally known as shimeji mushroom) also proved to be effective as an antioxidant agent in vitro, showing a positive correlation between the total phenolic content and the antioxidant capacity (Stefanello et al., 2012). In Cameroon,

Ganoderma lucidium is usually dried and mixed with palm oil to be used as an ointment to treat skin conditions. This valuable medicinal species has also been traditionally used to treat stomachache, hemorrhoids, rheumatism, arthritis, neoplasia, among others, and its extract may also be used as an insecticide and antibiotic (Oyetayo, 2011; Soro et al., 2019; Yongabi et al., 2004). Other species of the same genera have also been used to whet newborn's appetite (Soro et al., 2019), as a hypertensive (Oyetayo, 2011), and to treat sick cows (Mdachi et al., 2004). Several health benefits were also traditionally named to *Daldinia concentrica*, which has been used in Nigeria to treat hernia, stomachache, in the reduction of big navel of newborn babies and invigoration of kidneys activity, among other valences (Oyetayo, 2011; Soro et al., 2019). Despite the scarce knowledge concerning the traditional use of mushrooms and their invisible vegetative forms (mycelium), the use of sclerotia from *Pleurotus tuber-regium* in the preparation of soups and for the treatment of mumps has also been reported in Nigeria (Isikhuemhen & Okhyoya, 1996).

The drawbacks for the application of fungi in modern medicine and for production on an industrial scale are based on the fact that most of these organisms are available seasonally only. In addition, the amount of bioactive ingredients is highly dependent on the collection time, procedures, season, and environment. Additionally, the concentration of heavy metals and radioactive isotopes are limiting factors for its application for medicinal purposes (Enshasy et al., 2013).

Different compounds are responsible for the therapeutic capabilities of different species of mushrooms, making them exploitable at the pharmaceutical level (Table 5) (Reis et al., 2011; Soares, 2007). Polysaccharides are the main bioactive compounds present in

TABLE 4 Traditional medicinal uses of wild mushrooms from Africa.

| Scientific name | Common/local name | Country | Medicinal use | References |
|--|-------------------|----------------------------------|--|--|
| <i>Calvatia cyathiformis</i> (Bosc) Morgan | - | Nigeria | Treatment of leucorrhea, bareness, and hiccups | (Oyetayo, 2011) |
| <i>Daldinia concentrica</i> (Bolton) Ces. & De Not. | - | Côte d'Ivoire, Nigeria | Hernia, stomachache, pediatrics (stomachache), reduction of big navel of newborn babies, invigoration of kidney's activity, treatment of stomach ulcer and upset, skin disease, and whooping cough and prevention of excessive growth of fetus to ease the delivery | (Oyetayo, 2011; Soro et al., 2019) |
| <i>Ganoderma</i> spp. | Ubuyoga | Tanzania | Treatment of sick cow | (Mdachi et al., 2004) |
| <i>Ganoderma</i> sp. | - | Côte d'Ivoire | Pediatrics (whet newborn appetite) | (Soro et al., 2019) |
| <i>Ganoderma applanatum</i> (Pers.) Pat. | - | Nigeria | Antioxidant and used for lowering blood sugar level, as well as antihypertensive | (Oyetayo, 2011) |
| <i>Ganoderma lucidum</i> (Curtis) P. Karst. | - | Côte d'Ivoire, Nigeria, Cameroon | Stomachache, make giving birth easier, use as antibiotic after giving birth, hemorrhoid, healing wound, rheumatism, insecticide, treatment of arthritis and neoplasia; traditional medicine to treat skin infections, boils, abscesses, and tumors. It is also used as a component in other medicinal preparations | (Oyetayo, 2011; Soro et al., 2019; Yongabi et al., 2004) |
| <i>Lentinus tuber-regium</i> (Fr.) Fr | - | Côte d'Ivoire | Pediatric, burnt's wound | (Soro et al., 2019) |
| <i>Lentinus squarrosulus</i> (Mont.) | - | Nigeria | Treatment of mumps and heart diseases | (Oyetayo, 2011) |
| <i>Pleurotus tuber-rigium</i> (Fr.) Quél. | - | Nigeria | Treatment of headache, cold, fever, stomachache, and constipation | (Oyetayo, 2011) |
| <i>Fomitopsis officinalis</i> (Vill.) Kotl. & Pouzar | - | Nigeria | Treatment of hernia, cough, and catarrh | (Oyetayo, 2011) |
| <i>Termitomyces microcarpus</i> (Berk. & Br.) Heim | Ubuyoga | Nigeria, Tanzania | Treatment of gonorrhoea, health promoter and inducer of breast lactation | (Tibuhwa, 2012) |
| <i>Schizophyllum commune</i> Fr. | - | Nigeria | Treatment of diabetes | (Oyetayo, 2011) |
| <i>Volvariella volvacea</i> (Bull.) Singer | - | Côte d'Ivoire, Nigeria | Fat removal, antibiotic and antineoplastic | (Oyetayo, 2011; Soro et al., 2019) |

medicinal mushrooms, exhibiting different spectrum of bioactivities, such as antitumor, anti-proliferative, antidiabetic, anti-inflammatory, and antimicrobial assets. In this class of compounds, special emphasis must be given to glucans, mainly β -glucans, which perform different bioactivities, such as antimicrobial and hypoglycemic, also promoting the boost of immunity through the production of activating macrophages (Disler et al., 2019; Minato et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2018). The presence of glucans has been reported in different species of wild mushrooms, such as *Pleurotus pulmonarius* and *P. tuber-regium*, namely mannogalactoglucan, xyloglucan (Reis et al., 2012), while other polysaccharides such as tremellastin and tchizophyllan were identified in *Tremella fuciformis* and *Schizophyllum commune*, respectively (Reis et al., 2012). Terpenes, in turn, are responsible for the antioxidant, anticancer, and anti-inflammatory activities including other biological activities exercised by mushrooms (Ruan & Popovich, 2012; Sánchez-Moreno, 2002). The fruiting bodies of *G. lucidum* hold in their composition different triterpenes, such as ganoderic, lucidenic, and lanostane-type triterpenic acids (Akihisa et al., 2007; Bartels, 2003;

Iwatsuki et al., 2003; Tang et al., 2006). In addition, in this species, different cerebrosides and steroids were identified (Hassan et al., 2019; Reis et al., 2012). The phenolic compounds occurring in mushrooms can also be responsible for their antioxidant properties, which can act as peroxidase decomposers, metal inactivators, oxygen scavengers, or free radical inhibitors. These may include phenolic acids, oxidized polyphenols, hydroxybenzoic acids, flavonoids, tannins, hydroxycinnamic acids, stilbenes, and lignans (D'Archivio et al., 2010). Mushrooms may also produce several bioactive proteins and peptides such as lectins, as is the case of *V. volvacea*, fungal immunomodulatory proteins, ribosome-inactivating proteins, and laccases (Sánchez-Moreno, 2002).

From the data presented and numerous additional data reported in the literature, it is possible to identify a direct relationship between the traditional and mostly medicinal uses of wild mushrooms from different African countries with the occurrence of different classes of bioactive compounds in mushrooms. This extrapolation to the current scientific reality validates the ancestral knowledge of ancient peoples, perpetuated over the centuries, about the beneficial

TABLE 5 Bioactive compounds and properties of selected wild mushrooms.

| Mushroom species | Class of compound | Bioactive component or extraction Solvent | Bioactivity | Active dose | References |
|---|--|---|--|---|--|
| <i>Auricularia auricular</i> L. | Polysaccharides | Linear (1-3)- β -D-glucan | Antitumor | - | (Reis et al., 2012) |
| <i>Ganoderma applanatum</i> (Pers.) Pat. | Steroids | Ergosta-4,6,8(14),22-tetraen-3-one 80% ethanol (a) and water (b) 80% ethanol (a) and 50% methanol (b) Water (a), 5% NaOH (b), and 2% ammonium oxalate (c) Water | Antitumor Anti-proliferative Anti-inflammatory Immuno-stimulatory Antimicrobial | 0.5 mg/mL (a) (++) , 1 mg/mL (b) (+) 1 mg/mL (a) (+++), 1 mg/mL (b) (+++) 1 mg/mL (a) (++++), 1 mg/mL (b) (+), 1 mg/mL (c) (+) Against <i>P. aeruginosa</i> , <i>P. fluorescens</i> , <i>B. subtilis</i> , <i>S. epidermidis</i> , (MIC = 100 mg/mL (isolate 1), 10 mg/mL (isolate 2), and <i>M. luteus</i> (++++)) | (Hassan et al., 2019; Reis et al., 2012; Smith et al., 2017) |
| <i>Ganoderma lucidum</i> (Curtis) P. Karst. | Cerebrosides Triterpenes/steroids Organic germanium Polysaccharides | (4E,8E)-N-D-2'-Hydroxypalmitoyl-1-O- β -D-glucopyranosyl-9-methyl-4,8sphingadienine (4E,8E)-N-D-2'-Hydroxystearoyl-1-O- β -D-glucopyranosyl-9-methyl-4,8sphingadienine Methanol and water Lucidenic acid O Lucidenic lactone Cerevisterol Lucidumol A and B Ganoderiol F Ganodermanondiol Ganodermanontriol Ganoderic acids A, F, H, W, X, Y, T Methanol and water Bis- β -carboxyethylgermanium sesquioxide:O ₃ (GeCH ₂ CH ₂ COOH) ₂ Mannogalactoglucan (1-3)- β -Glucuronoglucan Water | Antitumor Antimicrobial | - MIC = 0.1 mg/mL (++++) against <i>S. epidermidis</i> | (Hassan et al., 2019; Reis et al., 2012) |
| <i>Pleurotus djamor</i> (Rumph. ex Fr.) Boedijn | | Hydro-alcoholic extracts, pentadecanoic, hexadecanoic, octadecadienoic, octadecanoic acid | Anthelmintic activity | 40 mg/mL | (Pineda-Alegria et al., 2017) |
| <i>Pleurotus ostreatus</i> (Jacq.) P. Kumm. | Trace elements Polysaccharides | Selenium Pleuran 80% ethanol, 50% methanol Water Water and alcohol Ethanol extract | Antitumor Anti-proliferative , anti-inflammatory Immuno-stimulatory Antioxidant (a), Antimicrobial Antibacterial | (a) (++) , 1 mg/mL (+++) 1 mg/mL (++) EC50 = 1.05 μ g/mL (++) (DPPH assay), MIC = 7.83 μ g/mL (+) against <i>S. agalactiae</i> (CIM = 0.15 mg/mL) contra <i>B. subtilis</i> | (Adebayo et al., 2018; Deo et al., 2019; Negri, 2012; Reis et al., 2012) |

(Continues)

TABLE 5 (Continued)

| Mushroom species | Class of compound | Bioactive component or extraction solvent | Bioactivity | Active dose | References |
|--|----------------------------|---|--|---|---|
| <i>Cordyceps sinensis</i> (Berk.) Sacc. <i>Cordyceps militaris</i> (L.) Fr. | Peptides | Cordymin | Anti-inflammatory | - | (Wang et al., 2012; Wong et al., 2011) |
| <i>Pleurotus pulmonarius</i> (Fr.) Quéf. | Polysaccharides | Mannogalactoglucan Xyloglucan Mannogalactan Glucoxytan | Antitumor | - | (Reis et al., 2012) |
| <i>Pleurotus tuber-regium</i> (Fr.) Singer | Polysaccharides | Alkali-soluble glucan Polysaccharide Water and alcohol | Antitumor Anti-proliferative (a) Antimicrobial (b) | MIC = 6.03 µg/mL (b) (++) against <i>S. agalactiae</i> | (Reis et al., 2012; Zhang & Cheung, 2011) |
| <i>Schizophyllum commune</i> Fr. | Polysaccharides | Schizophyllan, SPG | Antitumor | - | (Reis et al., 2012) |
| <i>Tremella fuciformis</i> Berk. | Polysaccharides | Tremellastin (glucuronoxylomannans) | Antitumor | - | (Reis et al., 2012) |
| <i>Volvariella volvacea</i> (Bull.) Singer | Glycoproteins and proteins | Lectins | Antitumor | - | (Reis et al., 2012) |
| <i>Craterellus cornucopioides</i> (L.) Pers. | Phenolic compounds | Myricetin | Antioxidant | - | (Palacios et al., 2011) |
| <i>Agaricus bisporus</i> (J.E.Lange) Imbach | Phenolic compounds | Pyrogallol | Antioxidant | - | (Witkowska et al., 2011) |
| <i>Albatrellus ovinus</i> (Schaeff.) Kotl. & Pouzar | Phenolic compounds | Grifolin and grifolin derivatives | Antioxidant | - | (Nukata et al., 2002) |

properties of mushrooms, which serves as the basis for greater knowledge and curiosity at a scientific level about the valences of this valuable NTFP. Although some of the mushroom species referenced in Tables 3 and 4 are not specifically referenced for Central and Southern Africa, their mention seems relevant to highlight the countless potential of mushrooms regarding their composition in bioactive compounds and, consequently, to its bioactive capacity.

3 | IDENTIFICATION OF EDIBLE AND INEDIBLE WILD MUSHROOMS AND TOXICOLOGY PROBLEMS

Despite the numerous benefits that come from the regular consumption of mushrooms, both nutritionally and medicinally, some risks may also be associated with their consumption (Širić et al., 2017).

The correct taxonomic identification of mushrooms is challenging as no single tool can allow unambiguous species identification in most cases. An integrative taxonomical approach seems to be the best practice, aiming at evaluating diagnostic characters, either phenotypic, molecular, or both, also combining genealogy (phylogeny), phenotype (including autecology), and reproductive biology data (Kissanga et al., 2022). Molecular biology techniques have been increasingly used to identify species and, although there is currently no single tool for identifying fungi, DNA barcoding has succeeded as a tool to identify fungi genera and species (Seifert, 2009).

The harvesting of wild mushrooms for own consumption is a risky activity since the correct identification of species is essential for its conscious and safe consumption (Machado-Gonçalves et al., 2018). There are many references regarding edible fungi in different countries of tropical Africa and, in parallel, some authors have been focusing on the identification of toxic or unedible species. Despite their nutritional and medicinal assets, wild mushrooms may contain high concentrations of potentially toxic elements (PTEs), such as toxic metals, rare earth elements (REEs), and radionuclides, which may be transferred to the human food chain throughout its consumption (Gwenzi et al., 2021). The accumulation of toxic metals (e.g., arsenic, cadmium, and lead) by mushrooms is independent of whether the species is edible or not. However, it depends on soil quality parameters and the nature of the environment (Rasalanavho et al., 2019).

Several long-term monitoring investigations in Europe and Asia have been focusing on mushrooms' potential toxicity. A study that monitored the ^{137}Cs radioactive isotope activity of mushrooms over a period of 25 years in the Czech Republic reported that this activity was influenced by the mushroom species (Škrkal et al., 2013). A similar study monitored the toxicological effects and nutritional value of edible wild mushrooms in Polish forests for half a century. The study reported that PTEs and REEs in soil had a strong correlation with their concentration in the fruit bodies of four different mushroom species (Mleczek et al., 2021; Siwulski et al., 2020). Despite the lack of long-term monitoring studies in Africa, an increasing number of investigations also reported PTEs in mushrooms from various countries, including Cameroon, Ethiopia, Ghana, Nigeria, South Africa,

Zambia, and Zimbabwe (Abulude & Ndamitso, 2018; Chungu et al., 2019; Gebrelibanos et al., 2016; Nharingo et al., 2015; Quarcoo, 2013; Rasalanavho et al., 2019).

Gwenzi et al. (2021) noticed that human exposure to toxicity occurs mainly through the consumption of mushrooms and their products and, to a lesser extent, indirectly through the ingestion of edible insects and wild animals that feed on mushrooms. In Africa, the greatest risk of human exposure to mushroom toxicity may be due to (1) the widespread consumption of mushrooms from various ferrous and highly mineralized substrates such as streamers and mine dumps, (2) inadequate and poorly enforced environmental health and food safety regulations and policies, (3) lack of environmental and human health monitoring data and well-equipped health facilities to facilitate early detection and treatment of human health effects, (4) potential synergistic interactions between PTEs in mushrooms and other human food products and health stressors, such as a high burden of human disease and infections (Gwenzi et al., 2021). Although the health effects of individual PTEs are well known, evidence linking the human health risk to PTEs in mushrooms remains weak.

The Democratic Republic of Congo, particularly the Haut-Katanga province, has been the subject of a high number of investigations on edible mushrooms. de Kesel et al. (2017) reported that the consumption and sale selectivity of certain mushroom species is linked to the competition between these in nature. During the rainy season, marginal or low-quality species are generally abandoned in favor of mushrooms that are abundantly fruitful and have high-income potential. In Haut-Katanga, the population prefers ectomycorrhizal species (e.g., *Amanitas*, *Chanterelle*) that grow in close association with trees in the open forest and by *Termitomyces*. In the dry season, with the mushrooms' scarcity, the consumer resorts to saprotrophic species, less abundant and less appreciated, but this species persist in different parts of the riparian forests along the banks of the rivers.

The phenology of edible mushrooms (rate of sporophore appearance) varies with the season and is essentially dependent on precipitation. The sequence of species appearance is almost immutable and may be related to the state of soil hydration (Malaisse & Kapinga, 1986). The succession of species is known by local populations that go to specific places in the forest where harvest of sporophores at different times of the year occurs. In Haut-Katanga, Burundi, or Zambia (Bourdeaux et al., 2003), a strong succession of species is observed during the first weeks after the onset of the rains, with the replacement of most species from week to week. After the dry season (January to February), some of these species disappear, while others return in small numbers and new taxa bear fruiting bodies. From the first rains in October, *Termitomyces* appear on the surface of high termite mounds. In November, traditionally, the first edible amanitas appear, in particular *Amanita maffingensis*, *Amanita masasiensis* and specially *Amanita loosei*, available throughout the rainy season and consumed in abundance until April. The other ectomycorrhizal genera, with milk caps, such as *Russulla*, and *Cantharellus* appear later. Among the most popular species, *Lactifluus edulis* and *Lactarius kabansus* are often harvested from November to March. From the end of December, the different species follow one

another in waves near the ectomycorrhizal trees in the open forest. Chanterelle's production peaks occur from January to April with the fruiting of *Cantharellus platyphyllus* being the most consumed and sold species in the markets of Haut-Katanga. Certain saprotrophic lignicolous species, such as *Auricularia* sp. or *S. commune*, have the ability to survive in extreme drought conditions and rehydrate once the rain return, so they can be harvested and consumed throughout the year.

According to de Kesel et al. (2017), the interpretation of ethnomycological data on the edibility of a species is often easy since its consumption by the local population is an undeniable proof. However, the ethnomycological identification of toxic mushrooms is dubious, as the identification of edible species among others considered toxic by local populations. However, very few poisonings from toxic fungi ingestion have been reported in tropical Africa, some of them being related to the consumption of contaminated pods during harvesting, drying, and transport, or from undercooked specimens. For the Burundi and Nigeria populations, fungus consumption by animals (monkeys, birds) is, erroneously, considered proof of its edibility. Even though the topic of wild fungal toxicity has often been addressed in ethnomycological surveys, the classification criteria used by local communities to differentiate edible from non-edible or toxic species are mostly non-objective. For some, an unusual color change during processing, an unpleasant taste or smell, may also constitute evidence of its toxicity (de Kesel et al., 2002).

4 | CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE PERSPECTIVES

Although highly biodiverse, the Central and Southern African forests have much of their mycological resources still underexploited or relatively unknown, with the limitation of the safe use of mushrooms from this and other regions being steered by the shortage of studies that allow validating their nutritional and medicinal properties.

Wild edible mushrooms are valuable and functional foods as they are a good source of different nutrients, especially proteins, carbohydrates, vitamins, and minerals. Furthermore, these hold a broad variety of bioactive compounds, which makes them a potential source of medicines in the treatment and prevention of a wide range of diseases, such as cancer and immune illnesses. Although studies on mushrooms' bioactive properties from African countries are scarce, the literature demonstrates that species from different locations, such as *P. ostreatus* and *Ganoderma lucidum*, are highly bioactive and can be used to produce similar groups of bioactive compounds.

In sum, the evidence points excellent reasons to deepen studies on WEM species from the African continent, at the nutritional, chemical, and bioactive points of view, thus contributing to the identification, characterization, and further safe utilization of these valuable natural resources as food and medicine worldwide and particularly in Africa, where the access to this type of products is scarce.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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