

1 **Comparison of Different Extraction Methods from *Ganoderma lucidum* IBRC-M 30306 and**
2 **Evaluating on Multi-resistant Clinical Isolates of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa***

3
4 Aida Alipashazadeh¹, Golchehr Pourmohammadi¹ and Hamid Moghimi*¹

5 ¹Department of Microbiology, School of Biology, College of Science, University of Tehran, Tehran, Iran

6 **Corresponding author:** Hamid Moghimi

7 Department of Microbiology, School of Biology, College of Science, University of Tehran, Tehran, Iran. Tel: +98-
8 21-66415495. Fax: +98-21-66415495. Email: hmoghimi@ut.ac.ir ORCID ID: 0000-0002-9454-7474

9
10 **Abstract**

11 Some mushrooms have been traditionally used as medicinal components for treating
12 diseases. *Ganoderma lucidum* contains bioactive components with antibacterial activities. In this
13 research, various techniques were employed to extract terpenoids and polysaccharides from
14 *Ganoderma lucidum*, and the soxhlet method proved to be the most effective. In addition, the
15 antibacterial effect of the extracted terpenoids and polysaccharides was evaluated against strains
16 such as multi-drug resistant (MDR) *Pseudomonas*. The results showed that MIC was 0.4-1.7 and
17 3.75-7.5 mgml⁻¹, and MBC was 3.43-6.875 and 15-30 mgml⁻¹ for terpenoid and polysaccharide
18 extracts, respectively. In addition, the biofilm formation inhibitory concentrations of
19 polysaccharide extracts against the urinary tract, wound, respiratory system, and standard samples
20 were 0.937, 0.937, 0.46, and 0.23 mgml⁻¹, respectively. In terms of free radical scavenging activity,
21 the IC50 values for the polysaccharide and terpenoid extracts were 647.76 and 97.194 µgml⁻¹,
22 respectively. Both extracts demonstrated antibacterial properties, with the polysaccharide extract
23 showing stronger antibacterial activity than the terpenoid extract. Terpenoid extract also indicated
24 higher antioxidant properties. The findings revealed that extracts from *Ganoderma lucidum* may
25 be effective therapeutic agents, particularly against challenging infections like those caused by
26 *Pseudomonas*.

27
28 **Keywords:** Antimicrobial, Polysaccharides, Terpenoids, *Ganoderma. Lucidum*, *Pseudomonas*
29 *aeruginosa*.

32 **Introduction**

33 According to the World Health Organization (WHO), antimicrobial-resistant (AMR) infection is
34 one of the most severe health threats. Every year, almost 700,000 people die from AMR infections;
35 if no effective measures are taken by 2050, the death toll is predicted to reach 10 million
36 (Dadgostar, 2019; Rossiter et al., 2017). Therefore, new antibiotics are necessary, and nature is,
37 interestingly, the richest source of novel antibiotics (Rossiter et al., 2017). The rise of multidrug-
38 resistant (MDR) bacterial strains over the past decade is concerning. Many commonly used
39 antibiotics have proven ineffective in treating these strains in clinical settings. The increase in
40 MDR among microbiological pathogens has prompted a global mandate to identify potentially
41 effective alternatives. Recently, multidrug-resistant (MDR) Gram-negative bacteria have become
42 more prevalent, causing significant problems in infection treatment. *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, a
43 Gram-negative opportunistic pathogen, displays inherent resistance to both antibiotics and
44 disinfectants. Clinically, *P. aeruginosa* secretes several virulence factors, aiding its adherence and
45 invasion of hosts by compromising host immune responses and forming antibiotic barriers.
46 Nosocomial infections caused by this disease account for approximately 10% of hospital-acquired
47 infections worldwide. *P. aeruginosa* presents a therapeutic challenge due to its high morbidity and
48 mortality rates and the potential for drug resistance development during therapy. Due to the
49 growing issue of drug resistance, conventional antibiotic treatments for *P. aeruginosa* are
50 becoming less effective. Alternative treatment options garner more attention with limited prospects
51 for developing new antibiotics. Several recent studies have highlighted alternative and
52 complementary treatment options to address *P. aeruginosa* infections. Essentially, antimicrobial
53 resistance (AMR) is the ineffective treatment of infections associated with an antimicrobial agent
54 that was previously effective. Antibiotics are predominantly derived from microorganisms, but
55 higher fungi may represent a significant source of anti-infectious compounds (Ahmad et al., 2024).
56 Medicinal mushrooms are therapeutic agents to fight pathogenic bacteria (Cör et al., 2018). Fungi
57 produce various secondary metabolites that play a crucial role in competing against microbes and
58 virulence factors (Jakubczyk & Dussart, 2020). Mushrooms have been considered a source of
59 medicine since ancient times (Zhong et al., 2024). *G. lucidum* is an essential multipotential
60 medicinal mushroom with a specific biological activity. *Ganoderma* sp. is a medicinal mushroom
61 producing some bioactive compounds (Ferreira et al., 2015). There are over 400 bioactive
62 compounds, such as proteins/peptides, fatty acids, steroids, sterols, nucleotides, polysaccharides,

63 and triterpenoids in *Ganoderma* sp. with medicinal effects like antitumor (Kao et al., 2013),
64 antimicrobial (Mishra et al., 2018), anti-atherosclerotic (Zhong et al., 2024), anti-inflammatory
65 (Wen et al., 2021), hypolipidemic (Berger et al., 2004), antidiabetic (Ryu et al., 2021), radical
66 scavenging and antioxidative (Cör et al., 2018), anti-aging (Cherian et al., 2009), antifungal (Wang
67 & Ng, 2006), and antiviral (Ahmad et al., 2021) effects, as well as strengthening the immune
68 system (Zhao et al., 2018). *G. lucidum*, a key component of traditional Chinese medicine,
69 synthesizes polysaccharides and oxygenated triterpenoids that exhibit significant biological
70 activity and pharmacological properties (Shiao, 2003; B. et al., 2007).

71 Numerous studies, such as Constantin et al. (2023), have highlighted the strong antibacterial
72 properties of compounds derived from *G. lucidum*. Extracts prepared using different solvents,
73 including water, hexane, chloroform, methanol, and ethanol, from both the fruiting body and
74 mycelium, have demonstrated significant activity against bacteria such as *E. coli*, *P.*
75 *aeruginosa*, *S. aureus*, and *Staphylococcus pyogenes* (*S. pyogenes*) (Constantin et al., 2023).

76 Antibiotic resistance in hospital-acquired infections is a serious problem that affects patients in
77 hospitals worldwide and claims numerous lives annually (Rossiter et al., 2017). Given the
78 importance of identifying common antibiotic resistances for effective infection management and
79 preventing treatment failures, this study seeks to explore the antimicrobial properties of *G.*
80 *lucidum* mushroom extracts in inhibiting the growth of clinical strains of *P. aeruginosa* associated
81 with hospital-acquired infections (Ahmad et al., 2024). Although previous research has been
82 conducted on *Pseudomonas* and *Ganoderma*, this study has not been performed comparatively,
83 focusing on resistant hospital strains from various infection wards.

84

85 **Material and methods**

86 **Cultivation of *G. lucidum***

87 The fungal strain *G. lucidum* IBRC-M 30306 was obtained from the Iranian Biological Resource
88 Center (IBRC) and cultured in Potato Dextrose Agar (PDA) medium. According to the protocol,
89 the fruiting bodies of *Ganoderma lucidum* were cultivated (Zhou, 2017).

90 **Preparation of polysaccharide extract from *G. Lucidum***

91 In this study, five methods, including solvent extraction (Wu et al., 2024), boiling extraction
92 (Mehta & Jandaik, 2012), hot water extraction (Huang & Ning, 2010), ultrasound extraction (Cui
93 et al., 2005), and soxhlet extraction (Zygler et al., 2012) were used to extract polysaccharides and
94 compare the extraction yields (%).

95 **Solvent extraction**

96 Wu (2024) found that fungi samples were dried, ground, and powdered. Then, 1 g of each sample
97 was incubated in various solvents (95% ethanol, 99.6% methanol, deionized water, and acetone)
98 at 30°C for specified durations. The resulting solutions were centrifuged, vacuum-filtered,
99 concentrated, lyophilized, and stored for further experiments (Wu et al., 2024).

100 **Boiling extraction**

101 According to Mehta (2012), the fungus was dissolved in 80% ethanol and shaken to remove
102 polyphenols and monosaccharides. Subsequently, hot water extraction was performed multiple
103 times, and the resulting solution was precipitated, centrifuged, washed, and dried (Mehta &
104 Jandaik, 2012).

105 **Hot water extraction**

106 Ground fungi powder was dissolved in ethanol and then centrifuged, and the precipitate was
107 dissolved in deionized water. Ultrasonic treatment was applied, followed by centrifugation,
108 concentration, ethanol addition, precipitation, washing, and drying (Huang & Ning, 2010).

109 **Ultrasound extraction**

110 According to Cui's methods (2005), the Fungi powder was mixed with ethanol, centrifuged, and
111 collected as a supernatant. The precipitate was then dissolved in water, subjected to ultrasonic
112 treatment, centrifuged, concentrated, precipitated with ethanol, washed, and dried (Cui et al.,
113 2005).

114 **Soxhlet extraction**

115 According to Zygler et al. (2012), dried *G. lucidum* fruit body powder was extracted using a
116 Soxhlet apparatus with 80% ethanol. The solvent was removed after extraction, and the extracted
117 solvent was dried at room temperature (Zygler et al., 2012). Equation 1 was used to calculate the
118 extraction yield (%) for all five different extraction methods:

$$119 \quad \% \text{ yield of extraction} = \frac{\text{weight of dry extract}}{\text{weight of fungal powder}} * 100 \quad (1)$$

120 **Preparation of terpenoid (GT) extract from *G. lucidum***

121 Three extraction methods using different solvents, including chloroform (Oluba, 2019), methanol
122 (Lin & Yang, 2019), and hexane (Bal, 2019) were used to extract terpenoids. According to Oluba
123 (2019), 10 g of the powdered *G. lucidum* was extracted by reflux using 50% ethanol was applied
124 at room temperature for 24 hours. The mixture was filtered through Whatman No. 1 filter paper,
125 and the aqueous phase was then heated at 35°C for 2 hours to reduce the volume to 10 ml after
126 removing the precipitate. Then, chloroform was mixed with the resulting solution in a 1:1 (v/v)
127 ratio. Chloroform was placed in the lower phase, and the related layer was extracted using a 5%
128 NaHCO₃ solution. The NaHCO₃ portion of this layer was collected and acidified with 2N HCl (pH
129 3) under ice-cooling, and then the chloroform phase was concentrated using a rotary apparatus.
130 Drying the concentrated material produced a powder containing the extracted terpenoids (Oluba,
131 2019). In the Wachtel-Galor (2011) method, 10 g of dried and powdered fruit bodies of *G.*
132 *lucidum* were first mixed with 20 ml of hexane and left at room temperature for 24 hours. The
133 solution was then filtered, and the resulting extract was combined with methanol and stored at -
134 20°C for 24 hours. A rotary apparatus was used to concentrate the methanolic phase, and the dried
135 result was considered a dry powder containing the extracted terpenoids (Lin & Yang, 2019). In
136 Bal (2019), 10 g of ground powder of *G. lucidum* fruitbody was mixed with 200 ml of hexane
137 solvent and extracted using a Soxhlet apparatus at 70°C for 6 h (in seven 45-min cycles). Then,
138 the hexane solvent was evaporated using a rotary apparatus, and the extract was poured into a
139 separate container for drying--the dried material contained terpenoids extracted by the Soxhlet
140 method (Bal, 2019).

141 **Deproteinization of the crude polysaccharide**

142 **TCA precipitation**

143 About 10, 20, and 40% trichloroacetic acid were added to the tubes containing equal amounts of
144 polysaccharides (50 mg/mL of distilled water) and kept on ice for 10 minutes. Then, the process
145 was continued according to the protocol (Peng et al., 2016; Fic et al., 2010).

146 **Sevag method**

147 According to the Sevage method, 10 ml of aqueous polysaccharides was poured into a glass
148 container. Next, a chloroform-butanol solution was added in a 4:1 ratio, shaken vigorously for 5
149 minutes, and left to equilibrate in a stable environment for 15 minutes. Then, the process was
150 continued according to the protocol (Seedeve et al., 2019; Gong et al., 2020).

151 **Degreasing using organic solvents**

152 Dried polysaccharide samples of the previous step were used. First, 20 ml of distilled water was
153 added to a Falcon tube, followed by 20 ml of hexane solvent. The Falcon tube was shaken
154 repeatedly to form two distinct phases. The process was then proceeded according to the
155 established protocol (Chen et al., 2012).

156 **Total polysaccharide assay**

157 This method is based on drawing a standard curve and examining the amount of light absorption
158 of the unknown solution. For this purpose, the standard curve was prepared following the phenol-
159 sulfuric acid. Finally, the concentration of polysaccharides was determined for each sample using
160 the amount of light absorption and the standard curve (Cuesta et al., 2003). The Molisch test was
161 used to identify the presence of carbohydrates. Thus, 2 ml of the polysaccharide extract solution
162 was placed into a vial, a drop of Molisch reagent was added, and the mixture was stirred.
163 Afterward, 3 ml of sulfuric acid was slowly introduced into the solution (Aziz, 2015).

164 **Determination of total terpenoid content**

165 According to the protocol, Ghorai (2012) constructed a standard curve with Linalool as the
166 standard reagent to quantify the concentration of extracted terpenoids (Ghorai et al., 2012). Then,
167 the concentration of terpenoids was determined for each isolated sample using the amount of light
168 absorption and the standard curve. Then, a Liebermann-Burchard test and a Salkowski test were
169 utilized to detect the presence of terpenoids. For the Liebermann-Burchard test, 5 ml of acetic
170 anhydride solution was employed, followed by the addition of 3 ml of sulfuric acid after dissolving

171 5 mg of dried fungal extract in the acetic anhydride solution. The presence of terpenoids in the
172 extracts was confirmed by the formation of a purple layer (Araújo et al., 2013). In the Salkowski
173 test, 5 ml of each extract was combined with 2 ml of chloroform, followed by the addition of 3 ml
174 of H₂SO₄. The appearance of a brown layer indicated the presence of terpenoids (Rahman et al.,
175 2010).

176 **FT-IR analysis**

177 The storage stability of polysaccharides in *G. lucidum* was evaluated and functional groups of
178 particular compounds were characterized using FT-IR techniques. Polysaccharide extract was
179 analyzed by FT-IR (400-4000 cm⁻¹) using NaCl/KBr tablets (Tensor 27, Bruker) (Kan et al., 2015).

180 **GC-MS analysis**

181

182 A spectrometer that uses gas chromatography and mass spectrometry (Agilent Technologies,
183 model A 7890) containing 30-meter RTX-5MS columns with an inner diameter of 0.25 mm and
184 layer thickness of 25 µm was used to analyze the terpenoids of *G. lucidum* (Elkhateeb et al., 2021).

185 **Antimicrobial properties**

186 Antimicrobial assays were performed using three clinical isolates of *P. aeruginosa* obtained from
187 wounds, respiratory secretions, and urinary secretions, as well as a standard strain (*P.*
188 *aeruginosa* ATCC 9027). The clinical isolates were extracted from the infectious ward of Imam
189 Hospital, and for strain verification, molecular identification was done. Briefly, the extraction of
190 genomic DNA resulted in the amplification of the 16S rRNA gene through PCR (CLSI, 2020).
191 The sequence was determined by Sanger sequencing and deposited in GenBank in the following
192 order with these accession numbers: PQ120426 (wound), PQ120581 (respiratory secretions), and
193 PQ136538 (urine strain). For antimicrobial properties assay, MIC and MBC were measured using
194 Müller Hinton broth and agar, with serial dilutions of polysaccharide (30-0.05 mgml⁻¹) and
195 terpenoid (27.5-0.05 mgml⁻¹), followed by bacterial inoculation and 24-hour incubation at 37°C
196 (Quereshi et al., 2010). Agar well diffusion was performed with terpenoid (55 mgml⁻¹) and
197 polysaccharide (60 mgml⁻¹) extracts. Inhibition zones were measured after 24-hour incubation at
198 37°C (Balouiri et al., 2016). Disc diffusion assay with terpenoid (55 mgml⁻¹) and polysaccharide

199 (60 mgml⁻¹) extracts measured inhibition zones after 24-hour incubation at 30°C (Balouiri et al.,
200 2016).

201 **Antibiotic susceptibility of *P. aeruginosa***

202 The susceptibility of the strains to 17 antibiotics was evaluated using the disc diffusion method.
203 To accomplish this, fresh bacterial lawns of four strains were prepared, antibiotic discs were placed
204 on each plate, and the strains were incubated at 30 °C for 24 hours. This process allowed for the
205 determination of their susceptibility to the antibiotics (Walker, 1999).

206 **Minimal Biofilm Eradication Concentration (MBEC) Assay**

207 According to the protocol, biofilms were formed in a 96-well plate using a 0.5 McFarland
208 suspension. After PBS washing, polysaccharide and terpenoid extracts (based on MIC) were
209 added. Plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 hours, stained with crystal violet, and OD was
210 measured at 650 nm by utilizing a microplate reader from BioTek Instruments in Winooski,
211 Vermont, USA (Haney et al., 2021).

212 **Measurement of the free radical scavenging activity of DPPH**

213 It was determined that DPPH has the capacity to scavenge free radicals by Adebayo et al.'s (2018)
214 method with a slight modification (Adebayo et al., 2018). The methanol solutions (62.5, 125, 250,
215 500, and 1000 µg mL⁻¹) were prepared from the extracts, and a 96-well plate was filled with 100
216 µL of each concentration, followed by 100 µL of DPPH (Sigma-Aldrich) ethyl acetate solution.
217 The plate was stored in the dark for 30 min, and then, using a Nanodrop spectrophotometer, the
218 OD was determined to be 517 nm. (Shimadzu UV-1601, Japan), and the inhibition percentage was
219 calculated using Equation 2:

$$220 \quad AA(\%) = \left(\frac{A_0 - A_1}{A_0} \right) * 100 \quad (2)$$

221 where AA is the inhibition percentage, A₀ is the control absorbance, and A₁ is the sample's
222 absorbance. IC₅₀ was used to compare the antiradical activity of the extracts.

223 **Statistical analysis**

224 The statistical software used for testing the result was SPSS Version 27.0.1, and the analysis was
225 conducted in triplicate. also, in this study, the significance level was reported as p 0.05 after using
226 one-way ANOVA and Tukey's HSD tests at a 95% confidence level.

227 **Results**

228 **Polysaccharides and terpenoid Extraction yield**

229 The extraction efficiency percentages for the three main methods were taken into account. The
230 Soxhlet, boiling, and ultrasound methods had the highest efficiency, while solvent extraction had
231 the lowest efficiency. The Soxhlet method yielded the highest amount of compounds compared to
232 other methods. The extraction rate for the polysaccharide extract using the Soxhlet method was
233 16%. For the terpenoid extract, the Soxhlet method also showed the highest yield at 3.9%, followed
234 by the Wachtel-Galor method (0.8%). Extraction using chloroform solvent showed the lowest
235 efficiency (0.7%). The detailed yields for all methods are presented in Table 1.

236 Table 1: The yield percentage (w/w) of polysaccharides and terpenoid extracts of *G. lucidum* was
237 assessed through various methods.

| Extraction method | Extract | Yield of extract (%) (ww ⁻¹) |
|-------------------|---------|--|
| Solvent | ME | 2% |
| | AE | 1% |
| Boiling | AE | 4% |
| | EE | 1% |
| Hot water | AE | 3.1% |
| Ultrasound | EE | 3% |
| | AE | 1% |
| Soxhlet | EE | 16% |

| | | |
|--------------------------------|----|------|
| Soxhlet from fungal biomass | EE | 5.2% |
| Oluba method | CE | 0.7% |
| Wachtel-Galor method | HE | 0.8% |
| | | 3.9% |
| Soxhlet | HE | 2.4% |
| Soxhlet from fungal biomass | HE | |

238 Methanolic Extract: ME, Aqueous Extract: AE, Ethanolic Extract: EE, Chloroform Extract: CE, Hexane Extract: HE

239

240 **Qualitative identification of extracted polysaccharides and terpenoids**

241 In the Molisch test, all test tubes showed a purple halo, confirming the presence of polysaccharides.

242 The Salkowski test indicated the presence of terpenoids by the formation of a brown layer, and the

243 Lieberman-Bouchard test confirmed terpenoids by the appearance of a purple ring.

244 **Total polysaccharide and terpenoid content**

245 The Soxhlet extraction method yielded the highest polysaccharide content at 19.2%, followed by

246 the boiling method (16.3% for EE) and the ultrasound method (12% for EE). For terpenoids, the

247 Soxhlet method with hexane yielded the highest content (0.23 mg^l⁻¹), followed by the Wachtel-

248 Galor method (0.13 mg^l⁻¹). The Oluba method using chloroform yielded the lowest amount (0.078

249 mg^l⁻¹). The detailed contents are presented in Table 2.

250

Table 2: The total polysaccharides and terpenoids contents

| Extract | Total polysaccharide content (%) | Total terpenoid content (mg ^l ⁻¹) |
|---------|----------------------------------|--|
| ME | 10.5% | |
| AE | 10% | - |
| EE | 16.3% | - |
| AE | 11.4% | - |
| AE | 12.8% | - |
| EE | 12% | - |
| AE | 6% | - |

| | | |
|----|-------|-------------------------------------|
| HE | 19.2% | - |
| CE | - | 0.078 mg ^l ⁻¹ |
| HE | - | 0.13 mg ^l ⁻¹ |
| HE | - | 0.23 mg ^l ⁻¹ |

251 methanolic extract: ME, aqueous extract: AE, ethanolic extract: EE, Chloroform extract: CE, Hexane extract: HE

252

253 Polysaccharide compound analysis by FTIR

254 As shown in Figure 1, the first peak around 1049 cm⁻¹ indicates CO stretching bonds (arrow 1).

255 Another peak was linked to the vibration that causes the O-H bond to stretch in alkanes at 3326

256 cm-1 (arrow 2), showing the presence of OH groups in the polysaccharide. At 3326 and 1636

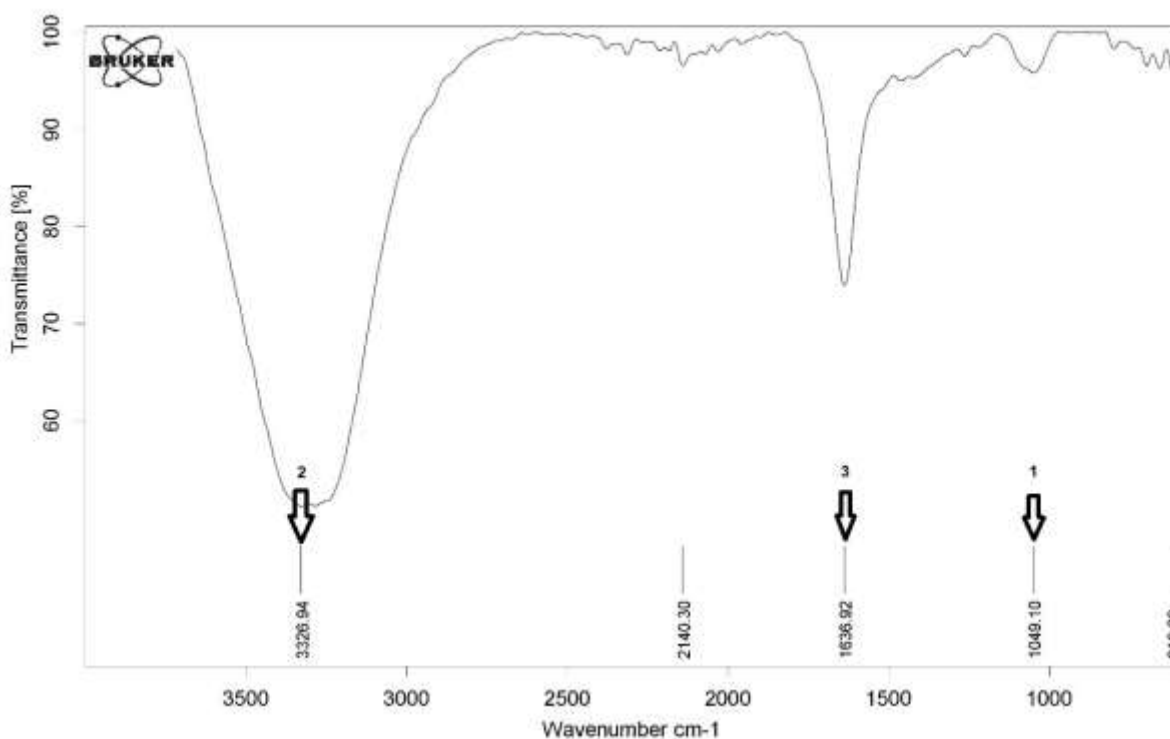
257 cm⁻¹, *G. lucidum* polysaccharides reached their absorption peak, showing functional groups in the

258 ethanolic extract containing polysaccharides. In addition, there was a characteristic absorption

259 peak at 1636 cm⁻¹ related to β-glucan and glucopyranose (arrow 3), indicating the β-glucan

260 configuration of *G. lucidum* polysaccharide. In addition, there was weak adsorption at 299 cm⁻¹,

261 showing that pyranose is present in the β configuration (Table 3).



262

263

264 Figure 1: Polysaccharide extract has a FTIR spectrum that reaches 400-4000 cm-1.

265

266

267

Table 3. FTIR peaks of *G. lucidum* and the assigned bonds

268

269

| Sl.Nm. | Wave number(cm ⁻¹) | Assigned bonds |
|--------|--------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1 | 1049 | CO stretching bonds |
| 2 | 3326 | O-H bond in alkanes |
| 3 | 1636 | β-glucan and glucopyranose |

270

271

272

273 **Terpenoid compound analysis by GC-Mass**

274 The chromatogram analysis of hexane extract showed different compounds such as saturated fatty

275 acids, unsaturated fatty acids, sterols, organic compounds, alkanes, metal compounds, and

276 pyrrolidine. According to the chromatogram peak and comparison between the peaks regarding

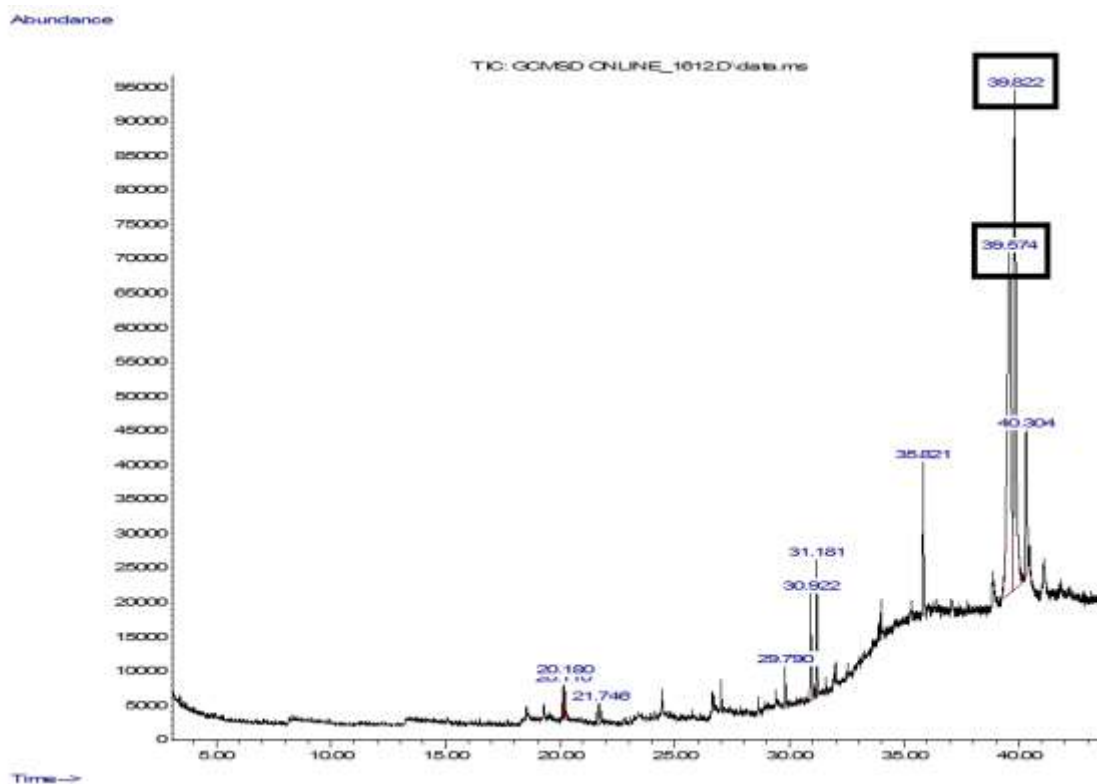
277 Area %, the highest amount of compound exited the column with a retention time of 39.574 min,

278 related to Ergosta-5 Ergosterol followed by Ergosta-7,22-dien-3-ol from the group of sterols

279 (related to triterpenoids) with a retention time of 398.814 min. Figure 2 shows the chromatographic

280 peaks for the terpenoid extract using the hexane method. In addition, Table 1 in Supplementary

281 Materials lists other compounds specified in this method.



282

283

284 Figure 2: GC-mass spectrum of terpenoid extract related to Ergosta-5 Ergosterol, followed by
 285 Ergosta-7,22-dien-3-ol from the group of sterols (related to triterpenoids) with a retention time of
 286 39.574 and 39.822 min

287 **Antimicrobial effects**

288

289 The Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) for the terpenoid extract against four strains of *P.*
 290 *aeruginosa* ranged from 0.4-1.7 mgml⁻¹, and for the polysaccharide extract, it ranged from 3.75-
 291 7.5 mgml⁻¹. The Minimum Bactericidal Concentration (MBC) for the terpenoid extract ranged
 292 from 3.43-6.875 mgml⁻¹, and for the polysaccharide extract, it ranged from 15-30 mgml⁻¹. The
 293 polysaccharide extract generally showed larger zones of inhibition than the terpenoid extract,
 294 indicating stronger antimicrobial activity. The results are detailed in Table 4.

295 Table 4: The inhibition zone diameter and MIC and MBC values (mgml⁻¹) for four strains of *P.*
 296 *aeruginosa* on terpenoid and polysaccharide extracts

| Bacteria | Diameter of zone of inhibition | MIC | MBC |
|----------|--------------------------------|-----|-----|
|----------|--------------------------------|-----|-----|

| | Terpenoid extract (cm) | Polysaccharide extract (cm) | Terpenoid extract (mgml ⁻¹) | Polysaccharide extract (mgml ⁻¹) | Terpenoid extract (mgml ⁻¹) | Polysaccharide extract (mgml ⁻¹) |
|---|------------------------|-----------------------------|---|--|---|--|
| <i>P. aeruginosa</i> ATCC 9027 | 1.1 | 1.2 | 1.7 | 7.5 | 6.875 | 30 |
| <i>P. aeruginosa</i> isolated from the tracheal secretion | 1.2 | 1.5 | 0.859 | 3.75 | 3.43 | 15 |
| <i>P. aeruginosa</i> isolated from urine | 1.4 | 1.5 | 0.859 | 7.5 | 6.875 | 30 |
| <i>P. aeruginosa</i> isolated from wound | 1.2 | 1.3 | 0.429 | 3.75 | 3.43 | 15 |

297 **Antibiotic susceptibility test using the antibiogram method**

298 In this experiment, the polysaccharide extract's minimal biofilm eradication concentration
 299 (MBEC) was 0.937, 0.937, 0.46, and 0.23 mgml⁻¹ for wound, urinary tract, and tracheal samples,
 300 and *P. aeruginosa* ATCC 9027, respectively. In addition, the MBEC of terpenoid extract was 0.21
 301 mgml⁻¹ for all samples. Terpenoid extract had a more significant effect on biofilm removal than
 302 polysaccharide extract.

303 **Minimal Biofilm Eradication Concentration (MBEC)**

304 In this experiment, the minimum biofilm eradication concentration (MBEC) of polysaccharide
 305 extract was 0.937, 0.937, 0.46, and 0.23 mgml⁻¹ for wound, urinary tract, and tracheal samples,
 306 and *P. aeruginosa* ATCC 9027, respectively. In addition, the MBEC of terpenoid extract was 0.21
 307 mgml⁻¹ for all samples. Terpenoid extract had a more significant effect on biofilm removal than
 308 polysaccharide extract.

309 **DPPH free radical scavenging activity**

310 This assay obtained the percent DPPH inhibition in different ascorbic acid concentrations (positive
 311 control) and extracts. Table 5 shows the inhibition percentage and IC₅₀ of the extracts at
 312 concentrations of 62.5 to 1000 mgml⁻¹. The polysaccharide extract had the greatest IC₅₀ value,
 313 while the terpenoid extract had the lowest (P<0.05).

314
 315 Table 5: Optical density of polysaccharide and terpenoid extracts at 517 nm, the DPPH inhibition
 316 (%), and IC₅₀ of each extract

| Concentration of extracts (µgml ⁻¹) | polysaccharide extract | | Terpenoid extract | |
|---|------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|-------------------------|
| | Optical density | Percent DPPH inhibition | Optical density | Percent DPPH inhibition |

| | | | | |
|--|--------------|--------|-------------|--------|
| 1000 | 0.327 ± 0.01 | 65.5 | 0.136±0.009 | 84.56 |
| 500 | 0.498±0.01 | 46.47 | 0.203±0.01 | 79.95 |
| 250 | 0.563±0.04 | 36.09 | 0.399±0.01 | 54.71 |
| 125 | 0.608±0.02 | 30.09 | 0.498±0.01 | 45.4 |
| 62.5 | 0.679±0.01 | 22.47 | 0.572±0.03 | 35.07 |
| IC ₅₀ (µgml ⁻¹) | | 647.76 | | 194.97 |

317

318 Discussion

319 The Soxhlet method is observed to show a better extraction efficiency for both polysaccharides
320 and terpenoids in reference to previous findings, for example, obtaining high yield for ethanolic
321 extracts of *G. lucidum* based on the Soxhlet extraction (Saavedra Plaza et al., 2020). The
322 researchers of that study indicated in regard to higher extraction efficiency to continuous extraction
323 based on siphoning and solvent reflux. The lower yield inferred for chloroform in the current study
324 as previously reported by Oluba (2019) is at least partially due to the type of fungal material or
325 extraction methods applied. Searches for previous chemical tests suggested that extraction of target
326 compounds was positive according to the chemical extracts described by Rajesh and Dhanasekaran
327 (n.d.) for *Ganoderma* species. The total polysaccharide extraction yield obtained by Soxhlet
328 extraction matched predictions provided by Skalicka-Woźniak et al. (2012), while the terpenoid
329 composition was consistent with the literature reported previously regarding *G. lucidum* fruit
330 bodies (Nakagawa et al., 2018). The infrared vibrational spectral results identified functional
331 groups and β-glucan configurations as strongly consistent with findings by Kan et al. (2015) and
332 Shao et al. 2019). - investigations confirmed evidence for the presence of pyranoid glucans with
333 glycosidic. The identification of sterols, including ergosterol derivatives, using GC-MS
334 corresponds with Taşkin et al.'s (2013) report of oxygenated compounds within *Ganoderma*
335 extracts, while the improved effectiveness of hexane as a solvent is aligned with Orole (2016).
336 Antimicrobial result showed polysaccharides had a larger effectiveness, in-part with Lin and Yang
337 (2019), while the treating of *P. aeruginosa* susceptibility from Heleno et al. (2013) investigations
338 indicates a contradictory aspect. The terpenoid extract shown the most improved eradication of
339 biofilm, was new finding supported through Shomali et al. (2019) reports while Dahiya and
340 Purkayastha (2012), showed higher MBEC which contrasts the findings. With the terpenoid extract
341 demonstrating substantially improved antioxidant potential will agree with Kang et al. (2019)
342 considerations for varied bioactivities dependent on extraction methods. In summary, *G. lucidum*

343 IBRC-M 30306 is capable source of bioactive compounds and their potential therapeutic
344 implications. Polysaccharides demonstrate more potent direct antibacterial activity while
345 terpenoids had the most effective antibiofilm and antioxidant value. All bioactivity demonstrated,
346 especially the strong activity against clinical MDR isolates from clinical conditions provides a
347 potential therapeutic relevance to combat treatment resistant infections, especially against *P.*
348 *aeruginosa*.

349 **Conclusion**

350 In this study, different extracts were used in vitro to inhibit the growth of *P. aeruginosa*.
351 Accordingly, *G. lucidum* is a promising antimicrobial fungus for treating various bacterial
352 infections. The increasing rate of multidrug resistance in pathogens has led to extensive research
353 into alternative therapies. *G. lucidum* is rich in natural secondary metabolites and is one of the
354 reservoirs needed to discover potential sources to reduce this problem. In this study, triterpenoids
355 and polysaccharides showed promising antimicrobial activity and exhibited bacteriostatic and
356 bactericidal effects against the tested pathogens. Therefore, using *G. lucidum* extracts to treat
357 infections caused by *P. aeruginosa* can be a novel strategy for treating these infections. Since
358 antibiotic-resistant strains are increasing, fungal extracts, especially *G. lucidum*, can be a suitable
359 candidate for treating diseases. The high bioactivity of *G. lucidum* extracts and their non-toxicity
360 rendered them valuable for future applications in developing natural antioxidants and novel
361 antibiotics.

362

363 **Declarations**

364 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

365 Ethics approval is not applicable as this article does not describe any studies involving human
366 participants or animals.

367 **Consent for publication**

368 Not applicable.

369 **Availability of data and materials**

370 All data are included in the manuscript and additional information, and further queries about
371 sharing data can be directed to the corresponding author.

372 **Competing interests**

373 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

374 **Funding**

375 This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial,
376 or not-for-profit sectors.

377 **Authors' contributions**

378 A.A. carried out the experiment and wrote the original draft of the manuscript. G.P. and H. M
379 edit the manuscript. The work was supervised and designed by H.M., and all authors read and
380 approved the final version of the manuscript.

381

382 **Acknowledgements**

383 Not applicable.

384

385 **References**

386 Adebayo, E. A., et al. (2018). Comparative study of antioxidant and antibacterial properties of the edible mushrooms *Pleurotus*
387 *levis*, *P. ostreatus*, *P. pulmonarius* and *P. tuber-regium*. *International Journal of Food Science & Technology*, *53*(5), 1316–
388 1330. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijfs.13712>

389 Ahmad, M. F., et al. (2021). *Ganoderma lucidum*: A potential source to surmount viral infections through β -glucans
390 immunomodulatory and triterpenoids antiviral properties. *International Journal of Biological Macromolecules*, *187*, 769–
391 779. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.IJBIOMAC.2021.06.122>

392 Ahmad, M. F., Alsayegh, A. A., Ahmad, F. A., et al. (2024). *Ganoderma lucidum*: Insight into antimicrobial and antioxidant
393 properties with development of secondary metabolites. *Heliyon*, *10*(3), e25607. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2024.e25607>

394 Araújo, L. B. D. C., et al. (2013). Total phytosterol content in drug materials and extracts from roots of *Acanthospermum hispidum*
395 by UV-VIS spectrophotometry. *Revista Brasileira de Farmacognosia*, *23*(5), 736–742. <https://doi.org/10.1590/S0102->
396 695X2013000500004

397 Aziz, M. A. (2015). Qualitative phytochemical screening and evaluation of anti-inflammatory, analgesic and antipyretic activities
398 of *Microcos paniculata* barks and fruits. *Journal of Integrative Medicine*, *13*(3), 173–184. <https://doi.org/10.1016/S2095->
399 4964(15)60179-0

400 Bal, C. (2019). Antioxidant and antimicrobial capacities of *Ganoderma lucidum*. *Journal of Bacteriology & Mycology: Open*
401 *Access*, *7*(1), 5–7. <https://doi.org/10.15406/jbmoa.2019.07.00232>

402 Balouiri, M., Sadiki, M., & Ibsouda, S. K. (2016). Methods for in vitro evaluating antimicrobial activity: A review. *Journal of*
403 *Pharmaceutical Analysis*, *6*(2), 71–79. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpha.2015.11.005>

404 Berger, A., et al. (2004). Cholesterol-lowering properties of *Ganoderma lucidum* in vitro, ex vivo, and in hamsters and
405 minipigs. *Lipids in Health and Disease*, *3*, 2. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1476-511X-3-2>

406 B., B., M., B., J., Z., & L., Z.-B. (2007). *Ganoderma lucidum* and its pharmaceutically active compounds. *Biotechnology Annual*
407 *Review*, *13*, 265–301. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1387-2656\(07\)13010-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1387-2656(07)13010-6)

408 Chen, Y., et al. (2012). An effective method for deproteinization of bioactive polysaccharides extracted from lingzhi (*Ganoderma*
409 *atrum*). *Food Science and Biotechnology*, *21*(1), 191–198. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10068-012-0024-2>

410 Cherian, E., Patani, G., Sudheesh, N. P., & Janardhanan, K. K. (2009). Free-radical scavenging and mitochondrial antioxidant
411 activities of reishl-ganoderma lucidum (cult: Fr) p. karst and arogyapacha-trichopus zeylanicus gaertn extracts. *Journal of Basic*
412 *and Clinical Physiology and Pharmacology*, *20*(4), 289–308. <https://doi.org/10.1515/JBCPP.2009.20.4.289>

413 Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI). (2020). *M100Ed30 | Performance Standards for Antimicrobial Susceptibility*
414 *Testing, 30th Edition*.

415 Constantin, M., Răut, I., Suica-Bunghez, R., Firinca, C., Radu, N., Gurban, A.-M., Preda, S., Alexandrescu, E., Doni, M., & Jecu,
416 L. (2023). *Ganoderma lucidum*-Mediated Green Synthesis of Silver Nanoparticles with Antimicrobial
417 Activity. *Materials*, *16*(11), 4261. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ma16114261>

418 Cör, D., Knez, Ž., & Hrnčič, M. K. (2018). Antitumour, antimicrobial, antioxidant and antiacetylcholinesterase effect of *Ganoderma*
419 *Lucidum* terpenoids and polysaccharides: A review. *Molecules*, *23*(3), 649. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules23030649>

420 Cuesta, G., Suarez, N., Bessio, M. I., Ferreira, F., & Massaldi, H. (2003). Quantitative determination of pneumococcal capsular
421 polysaccharide serotype 14 using a modification of phenol-sulfuric acid method. *Journal of Microbiological Methods*, *52*(1),
422 69–73. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0167-7012\(02\)00151-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0167-7012(02)00151-3)

423 Cui, Y., Kim, D. S., & Park, K. C. (2005). Antioxidant effect of *Inonotus obliquus*. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, *96*(1–2),
424 79–85. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2004.08.037>

425 Dadgostar, P. (2019). Antimicrobial resistance: implications and costs. *Infection and Drug Resistance*, *12*, 3903–
426 3910. <https://doi.org/10.2147/IDR.S234610>

427 Dahiya, P., & Purkayastha, S. (2012). Phytochemical screening and antimicrobial activity of some medicinal plants against multi-
428 drug resistant bacteria from clinical isolates. *Indian Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences*, *74*(5), 443–
429 450. <https://doi.org/10.4103/0250-474X.108420>

430 Elkhateeb, W. A., et al. (2021). Anti-human colon carcinoma activities of the crude extract of a Japanese Ganoderma spp. *Egyptian*
431 *Pharmaceutical Journal*, *20*(2), 102–110. https://doi.org/10.4103/epj.epj_61_20

432 Ferreira, I. C. F. R., et al. (2015). Chemical features of Ganoderma polysaccharides with antioxidant, antitumor, and antimicrobial
433 activities. *Phytochemistry*, *114*, 38–55. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.phytochem.2014.10.011>

434 Fic, E., Kedracka-Krok, S., Jankowska, U., Pirog, A., & Dziedzicka-Wasylewska, M. (2010). Comparison of protein precipitation
435 methods for various rat brain structures prior to proteomic analysis. *Electrophoresis*, *31*(21), 3573–
436 3579. <https://doi.org/10.1002/elps.201000197>

437 Ghorai, N., Ghorai, N., Chakraborty, S., Guichait, S., Saha, S. K., & Biswas, S. (2012). Estimation of total Terpenoids
438 concentration in plant tissues using a monoterpene, Linalool as standard reagent. *Protocol*
439 *Exchange*. <https://doi.org/10.1038/protex.2012.055>

440 Gong, L. L., et al. (2020). Purification, characterization, and bioactivity of two new polysaccharide fractions from Thelephora
441 ganbajun mushroom. *Journal of Food Biochemistry*, *44*(1), e13092. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jfbc.13092>

442 Haney, E. F., Trimble, M. J., & Hancock, R. E. W. (2021). Microtiter plate assays to assess antibiofilm activity against
443 bacteria. *Nature Protocols*, *16*(5), 2615–2632. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41596-021-00515-3>

444 Heleno, S. A., et al. (2013). Antimicrobial and demelanizing activity of Ganoderma lucidum extract, p-hydroxybenzoic and
445 cinnamic acids and their synthetic acetylated glucuronide methyl esters. *Food and Chemical Toxicology*, *58*, 95–
446 100. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.FCT.2013.04.025>

447 Huang, S. quan, & Ning, Z. xiang. (2010). Extraction of polysaccharide from Ganoderma lucidum and its immune enhancement
448 activity. *International Journal of Biological Macromolecules*, *47*(3), 336–341. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijbiomac.2010.03.019>

449 Islam, M., Jahangir, C. A., Rahi, M., Hasan, M., Sajib, S. A., Hoque, K. M., & Reza, M. A. (2020). In-vivo antiproliferative activity
450 of Morus latifolia leaf and bark extracts against Ehrlich's ascites carcinoma. *Toxicology Research*, *36*(1), 79–
451 88. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s43188-019-00009-1>

452 Jakubczyk, D., & Dussart, F. (2020). Selected fungal natural products with antimicrobial properties. *Molecules*, *25*(4),
453 911. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules25040911>

454 Kan, Y., Chen, T., Wu, Y., Wu, J., & Wu, J. (2015). Antioxidant activity of polysaccharide extracted from Ganoderma lucidum
455 using response surface methodology. *International Journal of Biological Macromolecules*, *72*, 151–
456 157. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijbiomac.2014.07.056>

457 Kang, Q., et al. (2019). Comparison on characterization and antioxidant activity of polysaccharides from Ganoderma lucidum by
458 ultrasound and conventional extraction. *International Journal of Biological Macromolecules*, *124*, 1137–
459 1144. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.IJBIOMAC.2018.11.215>

460 Kao, C. H. J., Jesuthasan, A. C., Bishop, K. S., Glucina, M. P., & Ferguson, L. R. (2013). Anti-cancer activities of *Ganoderma*
461 *lucidum*: Active ingredients and pathways. *Functional Foods in Health and Disease*, *3*(2), 48–
462 65. <https://doi.org/10.31989/FFHD.V3I2.65>

463 Lin, Z., & Yang, B. (2019). *Ganoderma and Health* (Vol. 1182). Springer Singapore. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-6105-6>

464 Mehta, S., & Jandaik, S. (2012). In vitro comparative evaluation of antibacterial activity of fruiting body and mycelial extracts of
465 *Ganoderma lucidum* against pathogenic bacteria. *Journal of Pure and Applied Microbiology*, *66*(4), 1997–2001.

466 Mishra, J., et al. (2018). Antibacterial Natural Peptide Fractions from Indian *Ganoderma lucidum*. *International Journal of Peptide*
467 *Research and Therapeutics*, *24*(4), 543–554. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10989-017-9643-z>

468 Nakagawa, T., et al. (2018). Changes in content of triterpenoids and polysaccharides in *Ganoderma lingzhi* at different growth
469 stages. *Journal of Natural Medicines*, *72*(3), 734–744. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11418-018-1213-y>

470 Oluba, O. M. (2019). *Ganoderma* terpenoid extract exhibited anti-plasmodial activity by a mechanism involving reduction in
471 erythrocyte and hepatic lipids in *Plasmodium berghei* infected mice. *Lipids in Health and Disease*, *18*(1), 1–
472 9. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12944-018-0951-x>

473 Orole, O. (2016). GC-MS Evaluation, Phytochemical and Antinutritional Screening of *Ganoderma lucidum*. *Journal of Advances*
474 *in Biology & Biotechnology*, *5*(4), 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.9734/JABB/2016/24261>

475 Peng, Y., Han, B., Liu, W., & Zhou, R. (2016). Deproteinization and structural characterization of bioactive exopolysaccharides
476 from *Ganoderma sinense* mycelium. *Separation Science and Technology*, *51*(2), 359–
477 369. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01496395.2015.1086375>

478 Przybyłek, I., & Karpiński, T. M. (2019). Antibacterial properties of propolis. *Molecules*, *24*(11),
479 2047. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules24112047>

480 Qureshi, S., Pandey, A. K., & Sandhu, S. S. (2010). Evaluation of antibacterial activity of different *Ganoderma*
481 *lucidum* extracts. *People's Journal of Scientific Research*, *3*(1), 9–13. <https://www.pjsr.org/abstract-PDF/Dr. Sadaf Qureshi.pdf>

482 Rahman, A., Sitepu, I. R., Tang, S. Y., & Hashidoko, Y. (2010). Salkowski's reagent test as a primary screening index for
483 functionalities of rhizobacteria isolated from wild dipterocarp saplings growing naturally on medium-strongly acidic tropical peat
484 soil. *Bioscience, Biotechnology, and Biochemistry*, *74*(11), 2202–2208. <https://doi.org/10.1271/bbb.100360>

485 Rajesh, K., & Dhanasekaran, D. (n.d.). *Open Access Full Text Article Phytochemical Screening and Biological Activity of*
486 *Medicinal Mushroom Ganoderma Sp.* Retrieved from [Journal Source]

487 Rossiter, S. E., Fletcher, M. H., & Wuest, W. M. (2017). Natural Products as Platforms to Overcome Antibiotic
488 Resistance. *Chemical Reviews*, *117*(19), 12415–12474. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.chemrev.7b00283>

489 Ryu, D. H., et al. (2021). Optimization of antioxidant, anti-diabetic, and anti-inflammatory activities and ganoderic acid content of
490 differentially dried *Ganoderma lucidum* using response surface methodology. *Food Chemistry*, *335*,
491 127645. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.FOODCHEM.2020.127645>

492 Saavedra Plaza, D. C., et al. (2020). A comparative study of extraction techniques for maximum recovery of bioactive compounds
493 from *Ganoderma lucidum* spores. *Revista Colombiana de Ciencias Químico-*
494 *Farmacéuticas*, *49*(1). <https://doi.org/10.15446/RCCIQUIFA.V49N1.84456>

495 Seedeve, P., et al. (2019). Chemical structure and biological properties of a polysaccharide isolated from *Pleurotus sajor-caju*. *RSC*
496 *Advances*, *9*(35), 20472–20482. <https://doi.org/10.1039/c9ra02977j>

497 Shao, P., Xuan, S., Wu, W., & Qu, L. (2019). Encapsulation efficiency and controlled release of *Ganoderma lucidum*
498 polysaccharide microcapsules by spray drying using different combinations of wall materials. *International Journal of Biological*
499 *Macromolecules*, *125*, 962–969. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijbiomac.2018.12.153>

500 Shiao, M. S. (2003). Natural products of the medicinal fungus *Ganoderma lucidum*: Occurrence, biological activities, and
501 pharmacological functions. *Chemical Record*, *3*(3), 172–180. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tcr.10058>

502 Shomali, N., Onar, O., Cihan, A. C., Akata, I., & Yildirim, O. (2019). Antioxidant, anticancer, antimicrobial, and antibiofilm
503 properties of the culinary-medicinal fairy ring mushroom, *marasmius oreades* (Agaricomycetes). *International Journal of*
504 *Medicinal Mushrooms*, *21*(6), 571–582. <https://doi.org/10.1615/IntJMedMushrooms.2019030874>

505 Skalicka-Woźniak, K., et al. (2012). Evaluation of polysaccharides content in fruit bodies and their antimicrobial activity of four
506 *Ganoderma lucidum* (W Curt.: Fr.) P. Karst. strains cultivated on different wood type substrates. *Acta Societatis Botanicorum*
507 *Poloniae*, *81*(1), 17–21. <https://doi.org/10.5586/asbp.2012.001>

508 Taşkin, H., Kafkas, E., Çakiroğlu, Ö., & Büyükalaca, S. (2013). Determination of volatile aroma compounds of *Ganoderma*
509 *lucidum* by gas chromatography mass spectrometry (HS-GC/MS). *African Journal of Traditional, Complementary and Alternative*
510 *Medicines*, *10*(2), 353–355. <https://doi.org/10.4314/ajtcam.v10i2.22>

511 Walker, R. D. (1999). Standards for antimicrobial susceptibility testing. *American Journal of Veterinary Research*, *60*(9), 1034.

512 Wang, H., & Ng, T. B. (2006). Ganodermin, an antifungal protein from fruiting bodies of the medicinal mushroom *Ganoderma*
513 *lucidum*. *Peptides*, *27*(1), 27–30. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.peptides.2005.06.009>

514 Wen, L., Sheng, Z., Wang, J., Jiang, Y., & Yang, B. (2021). Structure of water-soluble polysaccharides in spore of *Ganoderma*
515 *lucidum* and their anti-inflammatory activity. *Food Chemistry*, *356*,
516 131374. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.FOODCHEM.2021.131374>

517 Wu, S., Zhang, S., Peng, B., Tan, D., Wu, M., Wei, J., Wang, Y., & Luo, H. (2024). *Ganoderma lucidum*: a comprehensive review
518 of phytochemistry, efficacy, safety and clinical study. *Food Science and Human Wellness*, *13*(2), 568–596.

519 Yoon, S. Y., Eo, S. K., Kim, Y. S., Lee, C. K., & Han, S. S. (1994). Antimicrobial activity of *Ganoderma lucidum* extract alone
520 and in combination with some antibiotics. *Archives of Pharmacal Research*, *17*(6), 438–
521 442. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02979122>

522 Zhao, R., Chen, Q., & He, Y. min. (2018). The effect of *Ganoderma lucidum* extract on immunological function and identify its
523 anti-tumor immunostimulatory activity based on the biological network. *Scientific Reports*, *8*(1),
524 12680. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-018-30881-0>

525 Zhong, Y., Tan, P., Lin, H., Zhang, D., Chen, X., Pang, J., & Mu, R. (2024). A Review of *Ganoderma lucidum* Polysaccharide:
526 Preparations, Structures, Physicochemical Properties and Application. *Foods*, *13*(17),
527 2665. <https://doi.org/10.3390/foods13172665>

528 Zhou, X.-W. (2017). Cultivation of *Ganoderma lucidum*. In *Edible Medicinal Mushrooms* (pp. 385–413). John Wiley & Sons,
529 Ltd. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781119149446.CH18>

530 Zygler, A., Słomińska, M., & Namieśnik, J. (2012). Soxhlet extraction and new developments such as soxtec. In *Comprehensive*
531 *Sampling and Sample Preparation* (Vol. 2, pp. 65–82). Academic Press. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-381373-2.00037-5>

532