



*This article is cited as:* Kabacia, S., N. & Muchane, M., N. (2023). Domestication of Wild Edible Mushrooms in Eastern Africa: A Review of Research Advances and Future Prospects, *Mantar Dergisi*, 14(1) 22-50.

Geliş(Received) :01.03.2022

Kabul(Accepted) :18.01.2023


Research Article


Doi: 10.30708.mantar.1080983

## Domestication of Wild Edible Mushrooms in Eastern Africa: A Review of Research Advances and Future Prospects

Susan Njuguni KABACIA<sup>1\*</sup>, Mary Nyawira MUCHANE<sup>2</sup>

\*Corresponding author: [susannjuguni@gmail.com](mailto:susannjuguni@gmail.com)

<sup>1</sup> National Museums of Kenya, Nairobi, Kenya / [susannjuguni@gmail.com](mailto:susannjuguni@gmail.com) 

<sup>2</sup> Nairobi, Kenya / [mmurethi@yahoo.com](mailto:mmurethi@yahoo.com) 

**Abstract:** Mushroom farming is an emerging industry in Africa with great potential to improve livelihoods. However, the industry is still dominated by a few exotic varieties faced with challenges of regional adaptability. Also, information concerning their domestication status, challenges and future prospects is scattered and unclear. The purpose of this paper was to review and detail the diversity of mushrooms occurring in Eastern Africa (EA), reveal the wild edible/medicinal species (WEMs) that have already been domesticated, their domestication status, the nutritional composition status of the edible species and availability of their germplasm (mother cultures). To achieve this, a detailed review of published research articles, books and reports from EA was conducted. Data was collected from articles focusing on the diversity of WEMs, nutritional composition analysis and domestication methods and status. From the review, 306 WEMs are shown to have desirable characteristics for utilization as food /medicine, with Tanzania documenting the highest number (147) followed by Malawi (90). Among these, 82 species are edible ectomycorrhizal species with great potential to support the mushroom industry if sustainably harvested and managed. The rest are saprophytic fungi species. Only 14 species among the saprobe group have been tissue cultured, tested for spawn production and cultivation. 51 species have been analyzed for nutritional composition. However, none of these have been commercially introduced to cultivation and the availability of their germplasm for research and propagation purpose is uncertain. The result from this study clearly shows research on the domestication of WEMs in Africa is still in its infancy stages.

**Key words:** Cultivation, Distribution, Species, Substrates, Symbiosis

### Doğu Afrika'da Yenilebilir Yabani Mantarların Kültüre Alınması: Araştırmadaki İlerlemeler ve Gelecekteki Beklentiler Üzerine Bir İnceleme

**Öz:** Mantar yetiştiriciliği, geçim kaynaklarını iyileştirme konusunda büyük potansiyele sahip, Afrika'da gelişmekte olan bir endüstridir. Bununla birlikte, sektöre hala bölgesel uyum sağlamada zorluklarla karşı karşıya kalan birkaç egzotik tür hakimdir. Ayrıca, mantarların kültüre alma durumları, karşılaştıkları zorluklar ve gelecek beklentileri ile ilgili bilgiler dağınık ve belirsizdir. Bu makalenin amacı, Doğu Afrika'da bulunan mantarların çeşitliliğini incelemek ve detaylandırmak, halihazırda kültüre alınmış olan yabani yenilebilir/tıbbi mantar türlerinin (WEM'ler), kültüre alma durumlarını, yenilebilir türlerin beslenme kompozisyon durumunu ve anaç kültürlerinin (germplazmalarının) mevcudiyetini ortaya çıkarmaktır. Bunu başarmak için, yayınlanan araştırma makaleleri, kitaplar ve Doğu Afrika raporlarının ayrıntılı bir incelemesi yapılmıştır. Veriler, yabani yenilebilir/tıbbi türlerin çeşitliliğine, besin bileşimi analizine ve kültüre alma yöntemlerine ve statüsüne odaklanan makalelerden toplanmıştır. Araştırmada 306 yabani yenilebilir/tıbbi türün gıda/ilaç olarak kullanım için arzu edilen özelliklere sahip olduğu gösterilmiştir, en yüksek sayıyı ortaya koyan Tanzania (147) ve onu Malavi (90) takip etmektedir. Bunların arasında 82 tür, sürdürülebilir bir şekilde hasat edilir ve yönetilirse mantar endüstrisini destekleme potansiyeli yüksek, yenilebilir ektomikorizal türlerdir. Geri kalanı saprofitik mantar türleridir. Saprofitik grubundan sadece 14 türün doku kültürü yapılmış ve tohumluk misel üretimi ve yetiştirme için test edilmiştir. 51 tür besin bileşimi açısından analiz edilmiştir. Bununla birlikte,



bunların hiçbiri ticari olarak kültüre alınmaya çalışılmamıştır ve anaç kültürlerin araştırılması ve çoğaltılması amacıyla mevcut durum belirsizdir. Bu çalışmadan elde edilen sonuç, Afrika'da yabancı yenilebilir/tıbbi türlerin kültüre alınmasına ilişkin araştırmaların henüz başlangıç aşamasında olduğunu açıkça göstermektedir.

**Anahtar kelimeler:** Kültür mantarcılığı, Dağılım, Türler, Substratlar, Simbiyoz

### Introduction

Wild edible mushrooms are valuable non-wood forest resources, cherished by many communities in the world (Boa, 2004; Dejene et al., 2017a; Degreef et al., 2016; Degreef et al., 2020; Ngom et al., 2022). In Africa, wild mushroom gathering and hunting is a common practice mostly among the rural populace, especially during the rainy season (Dejene et al., 2017b; Kashiki et al., 2021; Ngom et al., 2022), which is suitable fructification of fungi. They are the source of food, health promoting properties and economic value (Boa, 2004; Dejene et al., 2017a; Sande, 2019; Niazi and Ghafoor, 2021). Ethnomycological knowledge obtained from different parts of the world reveals the use of mushrooms in various ways including in traditional medicine (Atri and Chadha, 2018). In Tanzania for example, the wild mushroom collection is a socio-economic activity among the Hehe and Benna communities. It is estimated that the collectors earn approximately US \$500 to 1000 for 750 - 1500 kg of mushrooms per season (Atri and Chadha, 2018). In other regions of Africa, wild edible mushrooms are collected to serve various nutritional needs, especially protein which in most cases is lacking or it is expensive (Atri and Chadha, 2018). Among the most cherished mushrooms in Africa are *Termitomyces* which are preferred due to their unique taste, flavor and texture (Degreef et al., 2020). Despite the role mushrooms play to improve livelihoods and the well being of many communities in Africa, there is increasing unsustainable harvesting which raises concerns about their depletion from the wild which will consequently increase food insecurity among local communities in the near future (Waiganjo et al., 2008; Dejene et al., 2017a; Degreef et al., 2020). To protect the planet and its biodiversity while reducing food insecurity and maintaining peace and human prosperity in line with the 2015 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), local mushroom cultivation and expansion of the mushroom industry have been proposed as a viable way of sustaining mushroom supply and protecting WEMs in nature (Niazi and Ghafoor, 2021).

Mushroom cultivation has increased tremendously in many parts of the world. It is carried out in more than 100 countries with a growth rate of 6-7% annual production (Niazi and Ghafoor, 2021). China leads with over 80% in the production of edible and medicinal mushrooms. The mushroom industry is the second largest in China and has created over 25 million job opportunities (Willis, 2018). However, mushroom cultivation is low in Africa and the region contributes less than 1% of the annual worldwide production of mushrooms (Adejumo and Awosanya, 2005; Onyango et al., 2011; Dejene et al., 2017a). This is majorly attributed to over-reliance on wild harvesting and low uptake of mushroom cultivation when compared to the cultivation of other food crops such as maize and beans. Partly, it is dependent on imported exotic mushroom mother cultures which tend to be expensive and sometimes difficult to access making mushroom farming expensive and unattractive. In East Africa, only cultivated mushrooms of exotic origin (*Agaricus*, *Pleurotus*, *Lentinula* and *Ganoderma* sp) cultured from imported mother cultures (Musieba et al., 2012) dominates the mushroom industry. These imported strains are associated with low yields and susceptibility to pests and diseases, the assumption being that the species lack regional adaptability (Otieno et al., 2015). Over the past years, there has been increased interest to exploit and domesticate wild edible and medicinal saprophytic mushrooms with desirable characteristics such as good regional adaptability, ability to grow on readily available substrates, low susceptibility to pests and diseases and good flavor for sustainable nutritional source in Eastern Africa (EA) (Mdachi et al., 2004; Magingo et al., 2004; Oriyo et al., 2004; Mshadete and Cuff, 2008; Mwita et al., 2010; Musieba et al., 2012; Juma et al., 2015; Wendi, Wacoo and Wise, 2019).

Eastern Africa is a tropical region with 10 countries (Tanzania, Kenya, Uganda, Rwanda, Burundi, South Sudan, Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, and Somalia). The region is known for its unique forested ecosystems hosting valuable mycodiversity (Pegler and Rayner, 1969; Pegler, 1977; Boa, 2004). Although research on the diversity and taxonomy of mushroom resources in this



region is increasing tremendously with new species being reported (Boa, 2004; Tibuhwa, 2011; Njuguini et al., 2018; Nteziyayo et al., 2019; Muchane et al., 2021; Ngom et al., 2022) information concerning domestication of these wild edible varieties is still scanty. Unlike many parts of the world where more than 100 species have been domesticated and 60% commercialized (Chang and Miles, 2004; Dejene et al., 2017a; Willis, 2018) in EA available information points only to the successful cultivation trials, but reports of adopted species by farmers for cultivation is lacking (Magingo et al., 2004, Mshadete and Cuff, 2008, Musieba et al., 2012, Juma et al., 2015). Additionally, the diversity of WEMs in EA is also poorly investigated. The potential of WEMs contribution to the mushroom industry remains less known and explored, with information concerning their domestication status, challenges and future prospects still scattered and not clear. There is still no clear distinction between edible and medical mushrooms.

Domestication of WEMs in EA provides a great opportunity of producing mushroom strains adapted to EA environmental and climate conditions as well as strains less susceptible to diseases. Since most of these WEMs are adapted to high temperatures and humid conditions, their production can be faster compared to exotic strains from temperate regions (Musieba et al., 2012). Optimization and simulation of growth conditions to match that of natural habitats is also possible since habitats and growth conditions of domesticated strains are known and accessible. Such information will enable spawn producers and mushroom farmers to use only strains ideal for conditions in the growing facility and use of right substrate. Domestication of WEMs will also increase the production of traditionally preferred and high-nutritional indigenous mushrooms. This will increase levels of mushroom farming adoption and production. This will also minimize losses, increase value for money, and lower the cost of production thus expanding the mushroom industry

in EA. Although many of the common edible species have therapeutic properties and are used for medical purposes, information regarding their unique medicinal properties is also required for proper characterization.

The purpose of this paper is to review and detail the diversity of WEMs with special reference to EA, its potential in the mushroom industry, domestication status, the nutritional value in comparison to introduced exotic species and availability of their germ-plasm (mother cultures).

### Material and Method

Literature was obtained through Internet-based scientific literature search engines (ISI web of Science, Research gate and Google scholar) and Libraries. Research materials that fulfilled the following criteria were selected; research materials and articles in eight selected countries focusing on the diversity of WEMs, nutritional composition analysis, articles detailing domestication, experimental methods and status. Data collected included; wild edible mushroom species (WEMs), nutrient content of WEMs, domesticated mushroom species, status of domestication (tissue culture, spawn or cultivated). Methods & materials used during domestication, and the yield of cultivated mushrooms was considered. Data were extracted from the results section and appendices with the list of WEMs, tables of means, graphs, and figures. Graphs and tables were used to summarize WEMs species in different countries.

### Results

#### Diversity of edible (medicinal) mushrooms

This study has revealed a diverse community of wild edible mushroom (WEMs) species in East Africa with a total of 306 species of WEMs distributed within the division *Basidiomycota* (82 genera within 39 families) and *Ascomycota* (4 genera within 2 Phylum) (Table 1).

Table 1: list of wild edible / Medicinal mushrooms in East Africa Region

Species	Habitat association	Country	Reference
<i>Afoboletus luteolus</i> (Heinem.) Pegler & T.W.K. Young	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania, Burundi, Malawi	Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Boa, 2004; Tibuhwa, 2013; Degreeef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Afroboletus costatisporus</i> (Beeli) Watling.	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi	Boa, 2004
<i>Afrocantharellus fistulosus</i> Tibuhwa & Buyck	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania	Tibuhwa, 2013
<i>Afrocantharellus splendens</i> Buyck	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania	Tibuhwa, 2013



<i>Afrocantharellus symoensii</i> (Heinemann)	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania	Tibuhwa, 2013
<i>Agaricus campestris</i> (L. ex Fr.)	Saprobe	Tanzania, Kenya, Somalia, Malawi, Ethiopia	Pegler, 1977; Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Boa, 2004; Mdachi <i>et al.</i> , 2004; Tibuhwa, 2011; Woldegiorgis, 2015; Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017a; Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017b; Njuguni <i>et al.</i> , 2018
<i>Agaricus campestris</i> (Heinem & Gooss. - Font)	Saprobe	Ethiopia	Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017b
<i>Agaricus amboensis</i> (Fayod) Sacc.	Saprobe	Somalia, Uganda	Boa, 2004
<i>Agaricus arvensis</i> Schaeff.	Saprobe	Ethiopia, Tanzania, Uganda	Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017a; Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017b; Ngom <i>et al.</i> , 2022
<i>Agaricus augustus</i> Fr.	Saprobe	Kenya, Tanzania	Pegler, 1977; Tibuhwa, 2011; Njuguni <i>et al.</i> , 2018
<i>Agaricus bimbaumii</i> (Corda) Singer	Saprobe	Tanzania	Tibuhwa, 2013
<i>Agaricus bingensis</i> Heinem.	Saprobe	Malawi, Uganda	Rammeloo and Wallyne 1993; Boa, 2004
<i>Agaricus bisporus</i> (Lange) Imbach	Saprobe	Tanzania, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Tibuhwa, 2011; Tibuhwa, 2013; Woldegiorgis, 2015
<i>Agaricus croceolutescens</i> (Heinemann & Gooss.-Font)	Saprobe	Malawi	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Boa, 2004
<i>Agaricus placomyces</i> Perk.	Saprobe	Tanzania	Tibuhwa 2013
<i>Agaricus silvaticus</i> Schaeff.	Saprobe	Kenya	Pegler, 1977; Njuguni <i>et al.</i> , 2018
<i>Agaricus</i> sp. L.: Fr. Emend. Karst	Saprobe	Tanzania, Uganda, Malawi	Nakalembe <i>et al.</i> , 2009
<i>Agaricus subedulis</i> Heinem.	Saprobe	Ethiopia	Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017a.
<i>Agaricus sylvicola</i> (Vitt.) Lév.	Saprobe	Rwanda	Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Agaricus volvatulus</i> Heinem. & Gooss.	Saprobe	Kenya	Tibuhwa 2011; Njuguni <i>et al.</i> , 2018
<i>Agrocybe pediades</i> (Fr.) Fayod	Saprobe	Ethiopia	Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017a
<i>Amanita aff. calopus</i> (Beeli)	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Boa, 2004
<i>Amanita aurea</i> (Beeli) E.J. Gilbert	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania	Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003
<i>Amanita bingensis</i> (Beeli) Heinem.	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Boa, 2004
<i>Amanita cf. robusta</i> (Beeli)	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi	Rammeloo and Wallyne 1993
<i>Amanita flammeola</i> (Pegler & Pearce)	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Boa 2004
<i>Amanita fulva</i> (Schaeff) Fr.	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi	Boa, 2004; Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993
<i>Amanita goossensiae</i> (Beeli)	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi	Boa, 2004; Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993
<i>Amanita hemibapha</i> (Berk. & Br.)	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi	Boa, 2004; Rammeloo and Wallyne 1993
<i>Amanita loosii</i> Beeli	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi, Tanzania	Buyck and Nzigidahera, 1995; Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Boa, 2004; Tibuhwa, 2013; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Amanita mafingensis</i> Härk. & Saarim.	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi	Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Tibuhwa, 2013; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016



<i>Amanita masasiensis</i> Hark. & Saarim.	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania		Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003;Tibuhwa, 2013
<i>Amanita</i> Pers.	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi		Buyck and Nzigidahera, 1995; Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017a
<i>Amanita pudica</i> (Beeli) Walley	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi		Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Amanita rhodophylla</i> (Beeli)	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi		Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Boa, 2004
<i>Amanita robusta</i> (Beeli)	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi		Boa, 2004
<i>Amanita rubescens</i> (Pers.: Fr.)	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi, Malawi		Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Buyck and Nzigidahera, 1995; Boa, 2004; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Amanita tanzanica</i> Hark. Saarim.	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania, Burundi		Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Tibuhwa, 2013; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Amanita vaginata</i> (Bull.: Fr)	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi		Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Boa, 2004
<i>Amanita verna</i> (Bull.) Lam.	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi		Nteziryayo, <i>et al.</i> , 2019
<i>Amanita zambiana</i> (Pegler & Pierce)	Ectomycorrhizal	Kenya, Malawi, Burundi		Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Boa, 2004; Wandati <i>et al.</i> , 2013; Nteziryayo <i>et al.</i> , 2019
<i>Amyloporus</i> IJ-2014	Saprobe	Tanzania		Hussein <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Armillaria borealis</i> Marxmüller & Korhonen	Saprobe	Rwanda		Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Armillaria cepistipes</i> Velen.	Saprobe	Rwanda		Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Armillaria heimii</i> Pegler	Saprobe	Tanzania, Rwanda, Ethiopia		Tibuhwa, 2013; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017a
<i>Armillaria lutea</i> Gillet	Saprobe			Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Armillaria mellea</i> (Vahl) P. Kumm.	Saprobe	Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda		Pegler, 1977; Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Boa, 2004; Tibuhwa, 2013; Njuguini <i>et al.</i> , 2018
<i>Armillaria ostoyae</i> (Romagn.) Herink	Saprobe	Rwanda		Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Armillaria tabescens</i> (Scop.) Emel	Saprobe	Rwanda		Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Auricularia auricula - judae</i> (Bull.: Fr.) Wettst.	Saprobe	Kenya, Malawi, Rwanda, Uganda		Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Boa, 2004; Onyango <i>et al.</i> , 2012; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Hussein <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Njuguini <i>et al.</i> , 2018
<i>Auricularia Bull.ex</i> Juss	Saprobe	Ethiopia; Kenya		Wandati <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017; Njuguini <i>et al.</i> , 2018
<i>Auricularia cornea</i> Ehrenb.	Saprobe	Tanzania, Burundi, Rwanda		Tibuhwa <i>et al.</i> , 2013; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Auricularia delicata</i> (Mont. ex Fr.) Henn.	Saprobe	Kenya , Tanzania,Uganda Malawi		Rammeloo and Wallyne,1993; Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Boa, 2004; Tibuhwa, 2011; Tibuhwa, 2013; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Njuguini <i>et al.</i> , 2018; Ngom , <i>et al.</i> , 2022
<i>Auricularia fuscosuccinea</i> (Mont.) Henn.	Saprobe	Tanzania		Boa, 2004
<i>Auricularia polytrica</i> (Mont.) Sacc.	Saprobe	Tanzania, Kenya		Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Boa, 2004; Tibuhwa, 2011; Hussein <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Njuguini <i>et al.</i> , 2018;
<i>Bolbitius vitellinus</i> (Pers.:Fr.)	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi		Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993
<i>Boletus clavipes</i> (Perk) Pilat & Dermek	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania		Mdachi <i>et al.</i> , 2004
<i>Boletus loosii</i> Heinem.	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi		Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Boletus pallidissimus</i> Watling	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania		Tibuhwa, 2013
<i>Boletus pruinatus/ xerocomellus</i>	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania		Mdachi <i>et al.</i> , 2004



<i>pruinatus</i> Fr.& Hok Sutara			
<i>Boletus spectabilissimus</i> Watling	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania	Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Tibuhwa, 2013
Buntarantara	Saprobe	Uganda	Nakalembe <i>et al.</i> , 2009
Buntarantara			
Bunyabikandaigo	Saprobe	Uganda	Nakalembe <i>et al.</i> , 2003
<i>Calvatia rubroflava</i> (Cragin) Lloyd	Saprobe	Ethiopia	Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017a
<i>Calvatia urtiliformis</i> (Bull.:Pers)	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993
<i>Cantharellus rufopunctatus</i> (Beeli) Heinem.	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi	Boa, 2004
<i>Cantharellus</i> Adans. ex Fr	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi, Tanzania	Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Boa, 2004; Mdachi <i>et al.</i> , 2004; Tibuhwa, 2013; Gateri <i>et al.</i> , 2014;
<i>Cantharellus cibarius</i> Fr.	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Boa, 2004
<i>Cantharellus cibarius</i> var. <i>defibulatus</i> Heinem.	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi	Boa, 2004
<i>Cantharellus congolensis</i> Beeli	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi, Tanzania, Malwi	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Buyck and Nzigidahera, 1995; Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Boa, 2004; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Cantharellus cyanescens</i> Buyck.	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi	Buyck and Nzigidahera, 1995; Boa, 2004
<i>Cantharellus cyanoxanthus</i> R. Heim ex Heinem.	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi, Tanzania	Buyck and Nzigidahera, 1995; Tibuhwa, 2013; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Cantharellus defibulatus</i> (Heinem.) Eyssart. & Buyck	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi	Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Cantharellus densifolius</i> Heinem.	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi, Tanzania, Malawi	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Buyck and Nzigidahera 1995; Boa, 2004; Tibuhwa, 2013; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Cantharellus floridula</i> (Pegler) Heinem.	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania	Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2004; Tibuhwa, 2013
<i>Cantharellus</i> Fr. var. <i>latifolius</i> Heinem.	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi	Buyck and Nzigidahera, 1995
<i>Cantharellus isabellinus</i> Heinem.	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania	Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Boa, 2004; Tibuhwa, 2013
<i>Cantharellus longisporus</i> Heinem.	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Boa, 2004
<i>Cantharellus luteopunctatus</i> (Beeli) Heinem.	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania	Tibuhwa, 2013
<i>Cantharellus miomboensis</i> Buyck & V. Hofst.	Ectomycorrhizal		Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Cantharellus parvisporus</i> (Eyssart. & Buyck)	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania	Tibuhwa, 2013
<i>Cantharellus platyphyllus</i> Heinem. var. <i>cyanescens</i> (Buyck) Eyssart. & Buyck	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania, Burundi	Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Boa, 2004; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Cantharellus pseudocibarius</i> Henn.	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi	Boa, 2004



<i>Cantharellus rhodophyllus</i> Heinem.	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania	Tibuhwa, 2013
<i>Cantharellus ruber</i> Heinem.	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi, Tanzania	Buyck and Nzigidahera, 1995; Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Boa, 2004; Tibuhwa, 2013; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Cantharellus rufopunctatus</i> (Beeli) Heneim.	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi, Tanzania	Buyck and Nzigidahera, 1995; Tibuhwa, 2013
<i>Cantharellus splendens</i> Buyck	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi	Buyck and Nzigidahera, 1995; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Cantharellus subincarnatus</i> Eyssart. & Buyck	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania	Tibuhwa, 2013
<i>Cantharellus symoensii</i> Heinem.	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi, Tanzania	Buyck and Nzigidahera, 1995; Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Boa, 2004; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Cantharellus tenuis</i> Heinem.	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Boa, 2004
<i>Cantharellus tomentosus</i> Eyssart. & Buyck	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania	Tibuhwa, 2013
<i>Clavaria albiramea</i> (Corner) Buyck & Duhem	Saprobe	Malawi	Boa, 2004
<i>Clavatia rubroflava</i> (Cragin) Lloyd	Saprobe	Ethiopia	Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017a
<i>Clavulina wisoli</i> R.H. Petersen	Saprobe	Tanzania	Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003
<i>Collybia aurea</i> (Beeli) Pegler	Saprobe	Burundi, Rwanda	Buyck and Nzigidahera 1995; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Collybia confluens</i> (Pers) Kumm.	Saprobe	Malawi	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Boa, 2004
<i>Collybia dryophila</i> (Bull.) Kumm.	Saprobe	Malawi	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Boa, 2004
<i>Coprinellus domesticus</i> (Bolton) Vilgalys, Hopple & Jacq. Johnson	Saprobe	Ethiopia	Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017a
<i>Coprinellus niveus</i> Fr.	Saprobe	Ethiopia	Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017a
<i>Coprinus cf. molestus</i> Bouriquet	Saprobe	Burundi	Buyck and Nzigidahera, 1995
<i>Coprinus cinereus</i> (Schaeff.)	Saprobe	Tanzania	Harkonen <i>et al.</i> 2003; Boa, 2004, Mshandete and Cuff 2007 and 2008, Raymond <i>et al.</i> , 2012
<i>Coprinus comatus</i> (O.F Murill.) Pers	Saprobe	Malawi	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Tibuhwa, 2013
<i>Coprinus disseminatus</i> (Pers.) J. E Lange	Saprobe	Tanzania, Malawi, Uganda, Kenya	Pegler, 1977; Boa, 2004; Tibuhwa, 2013; Njuguni <i>et al.</i> 2018
<i>Coprinus micaceus</i> (Bull.) Fr.	Saprobe	Kenya, Tanzania	Pegler 1977; Njuguni <i>et al.</i> , 2018
<i>Coprinus</i> sp Pers.	Saprobe	Ethiopia	Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017a
<i>Coprinus pseudoplicatilis</i> Voglina	Saprobe	Ethiopia	Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017a



<i>Coprinus sterquilinus</i> (Fries)	Saprobe	Kenya	Boa, 2004
<i>Coprinopsis nivea</i> (Pers.) Redhead, Vilgalays & Moncalvo	Saprobe	Ethiopia	Dejene et al., 2017
<i>Cotylidia aurantiaca</i> (Pat.) A.L. Welden	Saprobe	Burundi , Rwanda	Degreef et al., 2016
<i>Craterellus</i> Pers.	Ectomycorrhizal	Ethiopia	Dejene et al., 2017a
<i>Cymatoderma dendriticum</i> (Pers.) D.A Raid	Saprobe	Malawi	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Boa, 2004
<i>Cystodermella elegans</i> (Beeli)	Saprobe	Rwanda	Degreef et al., 2016
<i>Dacryopinax spathularia</i> (Schwein.) G.W. Martin	Saprobe	Rwanda	Degreef et al., 2016
<i>Entoloma argypus</i> P. Karst	Saprobe	Tanzania	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Boa, 2004
<i>Favolus brasiliensis</i> (Fr) Fr.	Saprobe	Malawi	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993
<i>Ganoderma applanatum</i> (Pers.) Pat.	Saprobe	Ethiopia, Uganda	Dejene et al., 2017b; Ngom et al., 2022
<i>Ganoderma lucidum</i> (Curtis) P. Karst	Saprobe	Tanzania	Mdachi et al., 2004
<i>Ganoderma</i> sp P. Karst sp	Saprophytic	Kenya	Njuguini et al., 2018
<i>Gyroporus castaneus</i> (Bull Quel.	Saprobe	Malawi	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993
<i>Hygrophoropsis aurantiaca</i> (Wurfen) Maire	Saprobe	Ethiopia	Dejene et al., 2017a
<i>Hymenagaricus</i> sp Heinem.	Saprobe	Ethiopia	Dejene et al., 2017a
<i>Hypholoma fasciculare</i> (Huds: Fr.) P.Kumm.	Saprobe	Burundi	Nteziryayo et al., 2019
<i>Hypholoma subviride</i> (Berk. & M.A. Curtis) Dennis	Saprobe		Boa, 2004; Degreef et al., 2016
<i>Inonotus</i> P.Karst.	Saprobe	Tanzania	Mdachi et al., 2004
Joga kadzonzo	Ectomycorrhizal	Kenya	Wandati et al., 2013
Joga muhama	Ectomycorrhizal	Kenya	Wandati et al., 2013
<i>Kuehneromyces mutabilis</i> Schaeff. Singer & A.H.Sm	Saprobe	Tanzania	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Boa, 2004
<i>Lactarius aff. gymnocarpus</i> R. Heim ex Singer	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi	Buyck and Nzigidahera, 1995
<i>Lactarius deliciosus</i> (L.ex Fr.) Gray	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi, Tanzania , Burundi	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Harkonen et al., 2003; Tibuhwa, 2013
<i>Lactarius edulis</i> (Verbeken & Buyck)	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi , Tanzania	Buyck and Nzigidahera, 1995
<i>Lactarius gymnocarpoides</i> Verbeken	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania, Malawi	Harkonen et al., 2003; Boa, 2004





<i>Lactarius</i> Pers.	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania	Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Boa, 2004; Mdachi <i>et al.</i> 2004; Tibuhwa, 2013
<i>Lactarius inversus</i> (Gooss.-Font & Heim.) Verbeken	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi	Buyck and Nzigidahera, 1995
<i>Lactarius kabansus</i> Pegler & Pearce	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi , Tanzania	Buyck and Nzigidahera, 1995; Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Boa, 2004; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Nteziryayo <i>et al.</i> , 2019
<i>Lactarius luteolus</i> Peck.	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania	Tibuhwa, 2013
<i>Lactarius medusae</i> Verbeken	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania	Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Tibuhwa, 2013
<i>Lactarius pelliculatus</i> (Beeli) Buyck.	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania	Boa, 2004
<i>Lactarius phlebophyllus</i> Heim.	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania	Boa, 2004
<i>Lactarius piperatus</i> L. Roussel	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi	Boa, 2004
<i>Lactarius pumilus</i> Verbeken	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania	Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Tibuhwa, 2013
<i>Lactarius rubroviolascens</i> R. Heim.	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania	Boa, 2004
<i>Lactarius tanzanicus</i> Karhula & Verbeken	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania	Tibuhwa, 2013
<i>Lactarius velleus</i> (Fr.) Fr.	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi	Boa, 2004
<i>Lactarius volemoides</i> Kurhula	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania	Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Tibuhwa, 2013
<i>Lactifluus densifolius</i> Verbeken & Karhula	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi	Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Lactifluus edulis</i> (Verbeken & Buyck) Buyck	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi	Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Lactifluus gymnocarpoides</i> (Verbeken) Verbeken	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi	Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Lactifluus kigomaensis</i> sp. nov. De Crop & Verbeken	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania	Decrop <i>et al.</i> , 2012
<i>Lactifluus longisporus</i> (Verbeken) Verbeken	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi	Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Lactifluus luteopus</i> Verbeken	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi	Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Laetioporus</i> Murr. (IJ- 2014)	Saprobe	Tanzania	Juma <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Laetioporus sulphureus</i> (Bull.) Murill	Saprobe	Burundi , Ethiopia, Tanzania	Boa, 2004;Tibuhwa, 2011; Woldegiorgis <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Dejene <i>et al.</i> 2017a; Nteziryayo <i>et al.</i> , 2019
<i>Langermannia gigantea</i> (Batsch) Rostk.	Saprobe	Burundi	Boa, 2004
<i>Lentinus cladopus</i> (Lev.)	Saprobe	Malawi	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Boa, 2004; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Lentinus edodes</i> (Berk.) Pegler	Saprobe	Ethiopia	Woldegiorgis, 2015
<i>Lentinus</i> Fr.	Saprobe	Ethiopia	Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017
<i>Lentinus prolifer</i> (Pat. & Har.) Pegler	Saprobe	Uganda	Boa, 2004



<i>Lentinus sajor caju</i> (Fr.; Fr.)	Saprobe	Tanzania	Boa, 2004; Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Hussein <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Lentinus squarrosulus</i> Mont.	Saprobe	Tanzania	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993, Boa, 2004; Hussein, <i>et al.</i> , 2015, Nteziryayo <i>et al.</i> 2019
<i>Lenzite elegance</i> (Spreng.) Pat.	Saprobe	Tanzania	Boa, 2004; Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993
<i>Lepista cafrorum</i> (Kalchbr. & Mc Owan)	Saprobe	Malawi	Boa, 2004; Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993
<i>Lepista nuda</i> (Bull.) Cooke	Saprobe	Burundi	Boa, 2004
<i>Lepista sordida</i> (Schumach.) Singer	Saprobe	Rwanda	Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Leucoagaricus holosericeus</i> (Gillet) M.M Moser	Saprobe	Ethiopia	Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017a
<i>Leucoagaricus leucothites</i> (Vittad.) Wasser	Saprobe	Tanzania	Boa, 2004; Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017a
<i>Leucoagaricus rhodocephalus</i> (Berk.) Pegler	Saprobe	Tanzania	Boa, 2004
<i>Leucoagaricus rubrotinctus</i> (Peck.) Singer	Saprobe	Ethiopia	Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017a
<i>Leucocoprinus birnbaumii</i> (Corda) Singer	Saprobe	Ethiopia	Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017a
<i>Leucocoprinus cepistipes</i> (Sowerby) Pats.	Saprobe	Ethiopia	Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017a
<i>Inocybe</i> (Fr.)Fr.	Saprobe	Malawi	Boa, 2004
<i>Lycoperdon</i> sp Pers.	Saprobe	Ethiopia	Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017a
<i>Lycoperdon perlatum</i> Pers.	Saprobe	Burundi	Boa, 2004
<i>Macrocybe Lobayensis</i> (R. Heim) Pegler & Lodge	Saprobe	Malawi	Boa, 2004
<i>Macrolepiota aberderense</i> Mbaluto	Saprobe	Kenya	Mbaluto, 2015
<i>Macrolepiota dolichaula</i> (Berk. & Br.) Pegler & Rayner	Saprobe	Malawi, Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda	Pegler, 1977; Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Harkonen <i>et al.</i> 2003; Boa, 2004; Njuguini <i>et al.</i> 2018; Nteziryayo <i>et al.</i> 2019; Ngom <i>et al.</i> , 2022
<i>Macrolepiota mastoidea</i> (Fr.) Singer	Saprobe	Ethiopia, Kenya	Pegler, 1977
<i>Macrolepiota procera</i> (Scop.) Singer	Saprobe	Kenya, Tanzania, Ethiopia, Malawi, Uganda	Pegler, 1977; Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Boa, 2004; Tibuhwa <i>et al.</i> , 2011; Tibuhwa, 2013; Hussein <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017b; Njuguini <i>et al.</i> , 2018; Ngom <i>et al.</i> , 2022
<i>Macrolepiota rhacodes</i> (Vittad.) Singer	Saprobe	Burundi	Boa, 2004
<i>Macrolepiota</i> Singer	Saprobe	Ethiopia	Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017a; Njuguini <i>et al.</i> , 2018
Malombo	Saprobe	Kenya	Wandati <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Marasmiellus inoderma</i> (Berk.) Singer	Saprobe	Rwanda	Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Marasmius arborescens</i> (Henn.) Beeli	Saprobe	Rwanda	Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016



<i>Marasmius bekolacongoli</i> Beeli	Saprobe	Burundi, Rwanda	Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Marasmius oreades</i> (Bolton) Fr.	Saprobe	Burundi	Boa, 2004
<i>Micropsalliota brunneosperma</i> (Singer) Pegler	Saprobe	Malawi	Boa, 2004
<i>Morchella elata</i> Fr.	Saprobe	Burundi	Boa, 2004
<i>Morchella esculenta</i> Fr.	Saprobe	Ethiopia	Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Mycoamaranthus congolensis</i> (Dissing & M. Lange) Castellano & Walley	Ectomycorrhizal		Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Pholiota nameko</i> (T.Ito) S. Ito & S. Imai	Saprobe	Ethiopia	Gizaw, 2017
Obulando	Saprobe	Kenya	Wandati <i>et al.</i> , 2013
Obumpokompoko	Saprobe	Uganda	Nakalembe <i>et al.</i> , 2009.
Obutoosa	Saprobe	Uganda	Nakalembe <i>et al.</i> , 2009
Olando	Saprobe	Kenya	Wandati <i>et al.</i> , 2014
<i>Oudemansiella tanzanica</i> nom. prov. Magingo	Saprobe	Tanzania	Magingo <i>et al.</i> , 2004
<i>Panus conchatus</i> (Bull.) Fr.	Saprobe	Tanzania	Hussein <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Parmelia sulcata</i> Taylor	Saprobe	Burundi	Boa, 2004
<i>Paxillus brunneotomentosus</i> Heinem. & Rammeloo	Saprobe	Rwanda	Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Perenniporia mundula</i> (Wakef) Ryvarden	Saprobe	Malawi	Boa, 2004
<i>Phlebopus colossus</i> (R.Heim) Singer	Saprobe	Burundi, Malawi	Boa, 2004; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Pholiota</i> sp (Fr.) P Kumm.	Saprobe	Ethiopia	Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017a
<i>Plebopus sudanicus</i> (Har. & Pat.)	Saprobe	Malawi	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Boa, 2004
<i>Pleurocybella porrigens</i> (Pers.) Singer	Saprobe	Burundi	Boa, 2004
<i>Pleurotus</i> (HK-37)	Saprobe	Tanzania	Raymond <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Pleurotus</i> (Jack. Ex. (Fr.) P. Kumm.	Saprobe	Uganda, Kenya,	Nakalembe <i>et al.</i> , 2009; Gateri <i>et al.</i> , 2014
<i>Pleurotus</i> <i>aff. cystidiosus</i> O.K. Mill.	Saprobe	Burundi	Buyck and Nzigidahera, 1995
<i>Pleurotus citrinopileatus</i> Singer	Saprobe	Kenya	Musieba <i>et al.</i> , 2011; Musieba <i>et al.</i> , 2012; Okoth 2013; Ntezirayayo <i>et al.</i> , 2019
<i>Pleurotus contrarius</i> Sacc.	Saprobe	Tanzania	Pegler, 1977
<i>Pleurotus cystidiosus</i> O.K. Mill.	Saprobe	Burundi, Rwanda, Tanzania	Huseein <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Pleurotus djamori</i> (Rumph. ex Fr.) Boedijn	Saprobe	Tanzania, Kenya, Uganda, Rwanda	Boa, 2004; Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Tibuhwa, 2013; Nakalembe <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Njuguini <i>et al.</i> , 2018;



<i>Pleurotus eryngii</i> (D C.) Quel.	Saprobe	Tanzania	Tibuhwa, 2011 and 2013
<i>Pleurotus flabellatus</i> Sacc.	Saprobe	Tanzania, Kenya, Rwanda	Pegler, 1977; Mshandete and Cuff, 2008; Degreeef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Pleurotus florida</i> (Mont.) O (Singer)	Saprobe	Kenya	Wandati <i>et al.</i> , 2014
<i>Pleurotus lignatilis</i> (Pers. Ex Fr.) Kummer	Saprobe	Uganda	Pegler, 1977
<i>Pleurotus limpidus</i> (Fr.) Sacc.	Saprobe	Tanzania	Pegler, 1977
<i>Pleurotus luteoalbus</i> Beeli	Saprobe	Kenya	Pegler, 1977
<i>Pleurotus opuntiae</i> (Durieu & Lev.) Sacc.	Saprobe	Kenya	Pegler, 1977
<i>Pleurotus ostreatus</i> (Jacq. ex Fr.) Kumm.	Saprobe	Burundi, Ethiopia, Tanzania, Uganda	Pegler, 1977; Woldegiorgis, 2015; Ngom <i>et al.</i> , 2022
<i>Pleurotus sajor-caju</i> (Fr.) Sing.	Saprobe	Tanzania	Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Mdachi <i>et al.</i> 2004; Tibuhwa, 2011; Tibuhwa, 2013
<i>Pleurotus sapidus</i> (Quel.)	Saprobe	Kenya	Musieba, 2013; Otieno <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Pleurotus tuber-regium</i> (Rump. Ex Fr.) Singer	Saprobe	Burundi, Malawi, Tanzania	Rammeloo and Wallyne 1993; Boa, 2004; Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Tibuhwa, 2011 and 2013; Degreeef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Pluteus umborosus</i> (Pers.) P. Kumm.	Saprobe	Tanzania	Hussein <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Polyozellus multiplex</i> (Underw.) Murill	Saprobe	Burundi	Boa, 2004
<i>Polyporales</i> Gaum.	Saprobe	Tanzania	Hussein <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Polyporus</i> P. Micheli ex Adans	Saprobe	Uganda, Tanzania, Ethiopia, Malawi	Nakalembe <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Tibuhwa 2013., Dejene <i>et al.</i> 2017b; Boa, 2004
<i>Polyporus brasiliensis</i> Speg.	Saprobe	Malawi, Tanzania	Boa 2004
<i>Polyporus cinnabarinus</i> (Jacq.) Fr.	Saprobe	Burundi	Nteziryayo <i>et al.</i> , 2019
<i>Polyporus moluccensis</i> (Mont.) Ryvaden	Saprobe	Kenya, Rwanda, Tanzania, Uganda, Rwanda, Malawi,	Nakalembe <i>et al.</i> , 2009; Tibuhwa, 2013; Hussein <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Njuguni <i>et al.</i> , 2018; Ngom <i>et al.</i> , 2022
<i>Polyporus tenuiculus</i> (P. Beauv.) Fr.	Saprobe	Kenya, Rwanda, Tanzania, Uganda, Rwanda, Malawi,	Boa 2004; Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Degreeef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Psathyrella atroumbonata</i> Pegler	Saprobe	Malawi	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993
<i>Psathyrella candolleana</i> (Fr.) Maire	Saprobe	Rwanda	Degreeef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Psathyrella tuberculata</i> (Path.) A.H. Sm.	Saprobe	Burundi	Boa, 2004
<i>Ptychoverpa bohemica</i> (Krombh) J. Schrot.	Saprobe	Malawi	Boa, 2004; Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993
<i>Pulveroboletus aberrans</i> (Heinemann & Goos.-Font)	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993
<i>Pulveroboletus</i> Spec.	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993
<i>Pycoporus sanguineus</i> (L.; Fr.)	Saprobe	Malawi	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993



<i>Rubinoboletus balloui</i> (Peck) Heinem. & Rammeloo	Ectomycorrhizal		Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Rubinoboletus luteopurpureus</i> (Beeli) Hein. & Rammeloo	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Boa, 2004
<i>Russula</i> Pers.	Ectomycorrhizal	Ethiopia	Gateri <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Dejene, <i>et al.</i> 2017
<i>Russula afronigricans</i> Buyck	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi	Boa, 2004
<i>Russula albofloccosa</i> Buyck.	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania	Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003
<i>Russula atropurpurea</i> (Krombh.) Britelm.	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi	Rammeloo and Wallyne 1993
<i>Russula congoana</i> Pat.	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi, Tanzania	Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Boa, 2004; Tibuhwa, 2013; Degreef, <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Russula cyanoxantha</i> (Schaeff.) Fr.	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi	Boa, 2004; Rammeloo and Wallyne 1993
<i>Russula delica</i> Fr.	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi	Boa, 2004; Rammeloo and Wallyne 1993
<i>Russula hiemisilvae</i> Buyck	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi, Tanzania	Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Mdachi <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Boa, 2004; Degreef, <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Russula liberiensis</i> Singer	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania	Boa, 2004
<i>Russula ochroleuca</i> (Pers.)Fr.	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi	Boa, 2004; Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993
<i>Russula phaeocephala</i> Buyck	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi, Tanzania	Buyck and Nzigidahera 1995; Boa, 2004; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Russula rosea</i> Pers.	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi	Boa, 2004; Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993
<i>Russula roseoviolacea</i> Buyck	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi	Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Russula schizoderma</i> Pat	Ectomycorrhizal	Malawi	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Boa 2004
<i>Russula sejuncta</i> Buyck	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi	Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Russula sublaevis</i> (Buyck) Buyck	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania	Boa, 2004
<i>Russula tanzaniae</i> Buyck.	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania	Boa, 2004
<i>Russula xerampelina</i> (Schaeff.) Fr.	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi	Boa, 2004
<i>Rusulla cellulata</i> Buyck	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi, Tanzania	Buyck and Nzigidahera 1995, Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003, Boa, 2004; Tibuhwa, 2013; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Rusulla ciliata</i> Buyck	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania	Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Tibuhwa 2013
<i>Rusulla compressa</i> Buyck	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania, Kenya	Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Boa, 2004.; Tibuhwa, 2013; Wandati <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Schizophyllum commune</i> Fr.	Saprobe	Malawi, Kenya, Tanzania, Ethiopia, Burundi	Pegler, 1977; Rammeloo and Wallyne 1993; Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Boa, 2004; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017a; Muchane <i>et al.</i> , 2021
<i>Sparassis crispa</i> (Wulfen) Fr.	Saprobe	Burundi	Boa, 2004
<i>Stereopsis hiscens</i> (Berk. & Rav.) D. A Reid	Saprobe	Malawi	Boa, 2004; Rammeloo and Wallyne 1993
<i>Stropharia rugosoannulata</i> Farlow ex Murill	Saprobe	Kenya	Njuguini <i>et al.</i> , 2018



<i>Suillus cavipes</i> (Opat.) A.H.Sm. & Thiers	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi		Boa, 2004
<i>Suillus granulatus</i> (L.) Roussel	Ectomycorrhizal	Tanzania , Malawi	, Kenya	Rammeloo & Wallyne 1993, Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Boa 2004; Tibuhwa 2013, Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016, Njuguini <i>et al.</i> , 2018; Muchane <i>et al.</i> , 2021
<i>Suillus luteus</i> (L.) Roussel	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi , Tanzania , Malawi	, Ethiopia , Kenya ,	Buyck and Nzigidahera, 1995; Mdachi <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Boa, 2004; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017a; Njuguini <i>et al.</i> , 2018
<i>Termitomyces</i> (Beeli) R. Heim	Termitophilic	Burundi		Buyck and Nzigidahera, 1995; Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Nakalembe <i>et al.</i> , 2009; Gateri <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Wandati, 2014; Woldegiorgis <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Termitomyces</i> (Oruka-stipe)	Termitophilic	Kenya		Wandati <i>et al.</i> , 2014
<i>Termitomyces aurantiacus</i> (Heim)	Termitophilic	Uganda, Ethiopia, Malawi	Tanzania, Kenya,	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Buyck, 1995; Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Boa, 2004; Nakalembe <i>et al.</i> , 2009; Tibuhwa, 2012 ; Tibuhwa, 2013; Dejene <i>et al.</i> 2017; Woldegiorgis <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Termitomyces clypeatus</i> Heim	Termitophilic	Kenya, Tanzania, Malawi	Uganda, Ethiopia,	Pegler, 1977; Rammeloo and Wallyne 1993; Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Boa, 2004; Tibuhwa, 2011, Tibuhwa, 2012; Tibuhwa, 2013; Nakalembe and Kabasa, 2009; Ashagriel <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Woldegiorgis <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017b; Ngom <i>et al.</i> , 2022
<i>Termitomyces eurhizus</i> (Berk.) Heim	Termitophilic	Kenya, Tanzania, Malawi	Ethiopia, Uganda,	Pegler, 1977; Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Boa, 2004; Nakalembe <i>et al.</i> , 2009, Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017b
<i>Termitomyces globulus</i> R. Heim & Gooss.- Font	Termitophilic	Kenya, Uganda		Pegler, 1977; Nakalembe <i>et al.</i> , 2009
<i>Termitomyces testui</i> (Pat.) Heim	Termitophilic	Tanzania, Ethiopia, Uganda 2004	Burundi, Kenya,	Pegler, 1977; Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Boa, 2004; Tibuhwa, 2012; Ashagriel <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Woldegiorgis <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017a
<i>Termitomyces mammiformis</i> R. Heim	Termitophilic	Burundi, Tanzania		Pegler, 1977, Tibuhwa, 2012; Tibuhwa, 2013, Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Termitomyces microcarpus</i> (Berk. & Broome) R. Heim	Termitophilic	Tanzania, Uganda, Burundi, Uganda	Ethiopia, Kenya, Rwanda;	Pegler, 1977; Rammeloo and Wallyne 1993; Harkonen., <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Boa 2004; Nakalembe and Kabasa 2009; Olila <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Tibuhwa, 2012; Tibuhwa, 2013; Woldegiorgis <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016 ; Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017a ; Muchane <i>et al.</i> , 2021; Ngom <i>et al.</i> , 2022
<i>Termitomyces robustus</i> (Beeli) R. Heim	Termitophilic	Burundi, Tanzania, Uganda, Malawi	Rwanda, Ethiopia,	Pegler 1977; Rammeloo and Wallyne 1993; Boa, 2004; Tibuhwa, 2013; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017a; Ngom <i>et al.</i> , 2022
<i>Termitomyces saggitiformis</i> (Kalchbr. & Cooke) D. A Reid	Termitophilic	Tanzania		Tibuhwa, 2012; Tibuhwa, 2013
<i>Termitomyces singidensis</i> Saarim & Hark.	Termitophilic	Tanzania		Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Boa, 2004; Tibuhwa, 2013
<i>Termitomyces</i> sp (Joga utuwe)	Termitophilic	Kenya		Wandati <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Termitomyces</i> sp (Mariondonik)	Termitophilic	Kenya		Wandati <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Termitomyces striatus</i> (Beeli) R. Heim	Termitophilic	Malawi, Tanzania, Uganda	Burundi, Kenya,	Pegler, 1977; Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Buyck and Nzigidahera, 1995 ; Boa, 2004; Tibuhwa 2013; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Termitomyces titanicus</i> Pegler & Pearce	Termitophilic	Burundi, Malawi		Boa, 2004; Tibuhwa, 2012; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Termitomyces tylerianus</i> Otieno	Termitophilic	Uganda, Kenya	Tanzania,	Pegler, 1977; Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Nakalembe <i>et al.</i> , 2009 ; Tibuhwa, 2013; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Termitomyces umkowaani</i> (Cooke & Masee) D.A Reid	Termitophilic	Tanzania		Tibuhwa, 2011; 2012 & 2013; Muchane <i>et al.</i> , 2021



<i>Termitomycetes eurhizus</i> (Berk) Heim	Termitophilic	Tanzania	Tibuhwa, 2012
<i>Termitomycetes le-testui</i> (Pat.) R. Heim	Termitophilic	Ethiopia, Tanzania	Boa, 2004; Tibuhwa, 2013; Kabede, 2017
<i>Termitomycetes rabuori</i> Otieno	Termitophilic	Kenya	Pegler, 1977
<i>Termitomycetes schimperi</i> (Pat. ) R. Heim	Termitophilic	Burundi, Rwanda, Tanzania, Ethiopia, Malawi	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993; Pegler, 1977; Boa, 2004; Kabede, 2017; Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017a; Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Trametes polyzona</i> Pers.	Saprobe	Burundi	Nteziryayo <i>et al.</i> , 2019
<i>Trametes suaveolens</i> (L.) Fries	Saprobe	Burundi	Boa, 2004
<i>Tremella fuciformis</i> Berk.	Saprobe	Tanzania, Uganda	Tibuhwa, 2013; Ngom <i>et al.</i> , 2022
<i>Tricholoma caligatum</i> (Viv.) Ricken	Saprobe	Burundi	Boa, 2004
<i>Tricholoma lobayense</i> Heim	Saprobe	Malawi	Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993
<i>Tricholoma magnivelare</i> (Peck) Redhead	Ectomycorrhizal	Burundi	Boa, 2004
<i>Tricholoma spectabilis</i> Peeraly & Sutra	Saprobe	Burundi	Buyck <i>et al.</i> , 1995
<i>Trogia infundibuliformis</i> Trogia; Fr.	Saprobe	Malawi	Boa, 2004
<i>Tubosaeta brunneosetosa</i> (Sing.) E. Horak	Saprobe	Malawi	Boa, 2004; Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993
<i>Tylophilus niger</i> (Heinem. & Gooss.-Font.) Wolfe	Saprobe	Ethiopia	Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017a
<i>Vascellum</i> F. Smarda	Saprobe	Ethiopia	Dejene <i>et al.</i> , 2017a
<i>Vasellum pratense</i> (Pers.) Kreisel	Saprobe	Malawi	Boa, 2004; Rammeloo and Wallyne 1993
<i>Volvariella bobycina</i> (Scheaeff.) Singer	Saprobe	Malawi, Tanzania	Boa, 2004; Pegler, 1977; Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993
<i>Volvariella speciosa</i> (Fr.: Fr.) Sing.	Saprobe	Uganda	Nakalembe <i>et al.</i> , 2009
<i>Volvariella volvaceae</i> (Bull.;Fr.)Sing.	Saprobe	Tanzania, Malawi, Kenya, Uganda	Pegler,1977, Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993, Mshandete and Cuff, 2008, Harkonen <i>et al.</i> , 2003, Boa, 2004, Tibuhwa <i>et al.</i> , 2011, Tibuhwa, 2013
<i>Xerocomus pallidosporus</i> Heinem.	Saprobe	Malawi	Boa, 2004
<i>Xerocomus soyeri</i> Heinem.	Saprobe	Malawi	Boa, 2004, Rammeloo and Wallyne, 1993
<i>Xerocomus subspinulosus</i> Heinem.	Saprobe	Burundi	Buyck <i>et al.</i> , 1995, Degreef <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Xerula radicata</i> (Relhan: Fr.) Dorfelt	Saprobe	Malawi	Boa, 2004

### Distribution of the wild edible Mushrooms in different Phyla and families

In the division *Ascomycota*, the macrofungi species belonged to the class *Lecanormycetes* represented by 1

species *Parmelia sulcatan* Taylor from the *Parmeliaceae* family and class *Pezizomycetes* represented by 3 species (*Morchella elata* Fr. , *Morchella esculenta* Fr. and *Ptychoverpa bohemica* (Krombh) J. Schrot.) from



*Morchellaceae* family. In the division *Basidiomycota*, the macrofungi species belonged to the class *Agaricomycetes* represented by species from *Agaricales* (47%), *Russulales* (16%), *Polyporales* (10%), *Cantharellales* (10%) and *Boletales* (8%). Species from other orders (*Auriculariales*, *Dacrymycetales*, *Hymenochaetales*, *Incertae sedis*, *Stereopsidales*, *Thelephorales*, and *Tremellales*) had less than 2% presentation.

Overall, the *Russulaceae* family had the highest number of species (51 species), followed by *Agaricaceae* (41 species), *Cantharellaceae* (30 species), *Lyophyllaceae* (26 species), *Polyporaceae* (21 species), *Amanitaceae* (20 species), *Pleurotaceae* (20 species), *Boletaceae* (18 species) and *Tricholomataceae* (11 species). The other families had less than 10 species (Figure 1). One species from order *Polyporales* was only identified up to order level while 9 species were described by their local names.

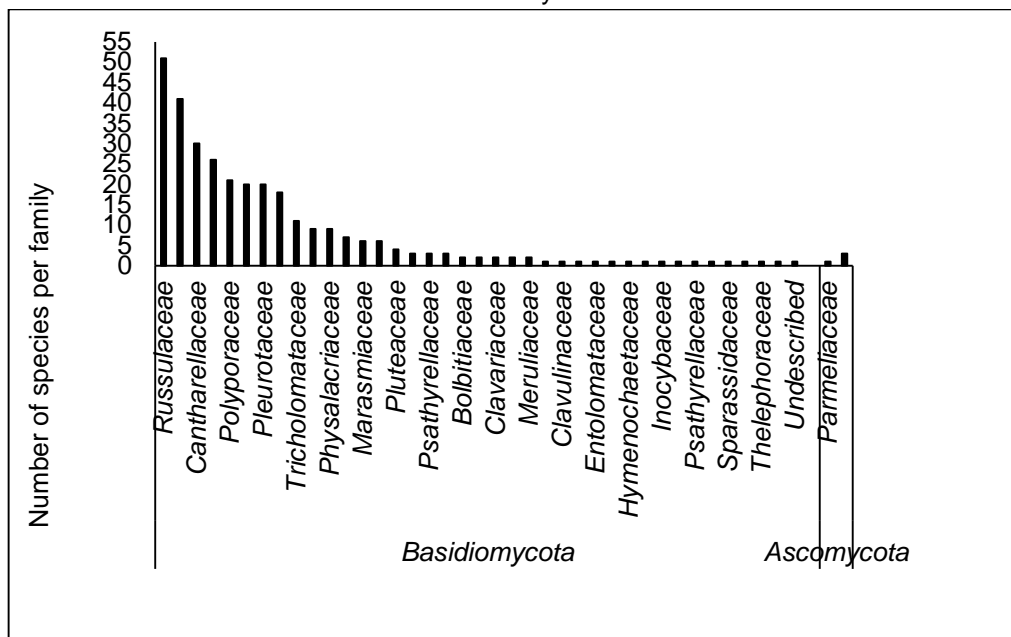


Figure 1: Distribution of WEMS into phyla and families

**Distribution of Wild Edible Mushrooms in East African Countries**

The WEMs occurred in all 8 East African countries namely Burundi, Kenya, Ethiopia, Somalia, Rwanda, Tanzania, Uganda and Malawi. Tanzania (143 species), Malawi (90 species) and Burundi (89) had the highest number while Somalia had the least with only 2 species (*Agaricus campestris* (L. ex Fr.), *Agaricus amboensis*

(Fayod) Sacc.) from *Agaricaceae* family (Figure 2). The number of WEM species in other countries declined in order, Kenya (53 species), Ethiopia (46 species) Rwanda (28) and Uganda (28 species). WEMs communities in Tanzania, Malawi, and Burundi were dominated by ectomycorrhiza species while in other countries, the highest proportion of WEMs communities comprised saprophytic macrofungi species (Table 2).

Table 2: Wild edible / medicinal mushrooms species in East African countries

Families	Countries								Total
	Kenya	Uganda	Tanzania	Burundi	Rwanda	Malawi	Ethiopia	Somalia	
Agaricaceae	11	5	13	3	3	12	16	2	65
Amanitaceae	1	–	4	8		13	–	–	26
Auriculariaceae	4		4	1	2	2	1	–	14
Bolbitaceae	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	1
Boletaceae	–	–	5	4	1	7		–	17
Boletinellaceae	–	–		1		2		–	3
Bondarzewiaceae	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	1





Cantharellaceae	–	–	21	15		6	1	–	43
Clavuriaceae	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	1
Clavulinaceae	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	1
Dacrymycetaceae	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	1
Entolomataceae	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	1
Fomitopsidaceae	–	–	1	1	–	–	1	–	3
Ganodermataceae	1	–	1	–	–	–	1	–	3
Gyroporaceae	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	1
Hygrophoropsidiaceae	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	1
Hymenochaetaceae	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	1
Inocybaceae	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	1
Lyophyllaceae	12	10	15	9	3	7	10	–	66
Marasmiaceae	–	–	–	3	3	–	–	–	6
Meruliaceae	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	1
Morchellaceae	–	–	–	2	–	–	1	–	3
Parmeliaceae	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	1
Paxillaceae	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	1
Physalacriaceae	1	1	3	–	6	2	1	–	14
Pleurotaceae	9	3	10	4	3	1	1	–	31
Pluteaceae	1	2	2	–	–	2	–	–	7
Polyporaceae	2	3	8	3	1	7	3	–	27
Psathyrellaceae	–	–	–	–	1	2	3	–	6
Repetobasidiaceae	–	–	–	1	1	–	–	–	2
Russulaceae	1	–	32	19	–	12	1	–	65
Schizophyllaceae	1	–	1	1	–	1	1	–	5
Sparassidaceae	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	1
Stereopsidaceae	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	1
Strophariaceae	1	–	1	2	1	–	2	–	7
Suillaceae	2	–	2	2	–	2	1	–	9
Therephoraceae	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	1
Tremellaceae	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	1
Tricholomataceae	–	–	–	5	2	6	–	–	13
unidentified	4	4	–	–	–	–	–	–	9
Total	51	28	128	88	28	89	46	2	

## Groups of Wild mushrooms in East Africa and substrate utilization

### (a) Saprophytic WEMs

In East Africa, saprophytic WEMs diversity comprised 147 species (46% of total) within the division *Basidiomycota* (51 genera within 26 families) and *Ascomycota* (3 genera within 2 families) (Fig. 2). WEMs

in *Ascomycota* belonged to the *Parmeliaceae* family (*Parmelia sulcata* Taylor) and *Morchellaceae* family (*Morchella elata* Fr., *Morchella esculenta* Fr. *Basidiomycota* division, *Agaricaceae* family (40 species) had the highest number of species, followed by *Polyporaceae* (21 species), *Pleurotaceae* (20 species), *Physalacriaceae* (9 species), *Tricholomataceae* (7



species), *Auriculariaceae* (7 species), *Marasmiaceae* (6 species), *Strophariaceae* (6 species) and *Psathyrellaceae* (4 species) families. The other families had less than 4 species (Fig. 2).

**(b) Ectomycorrhizal WEMs**

In Eastern Africa, ectomycorrhizal WEMs comprised 131 species (41% of the total) within the division *Basidiomycota* (23 genera within 12 families) (Fig. 4). *Russulaceae* family (51 species) had the highest

number of species, followed by *Cantharellaceae* (30 species), *Amanitaceae* (19 species), *Boletaceae* (18 species) and *Suillaceae* (3 species). The other families had less than 2 species (Fig. 4). The highest documented ectomycorrhizal species belongs to the genus *Cantharellus* and *Russula* sp (26 species), followed by *Amanita* (20 species) and *Lactarius* (16 species) respectively (Table 1, Fig. 2).

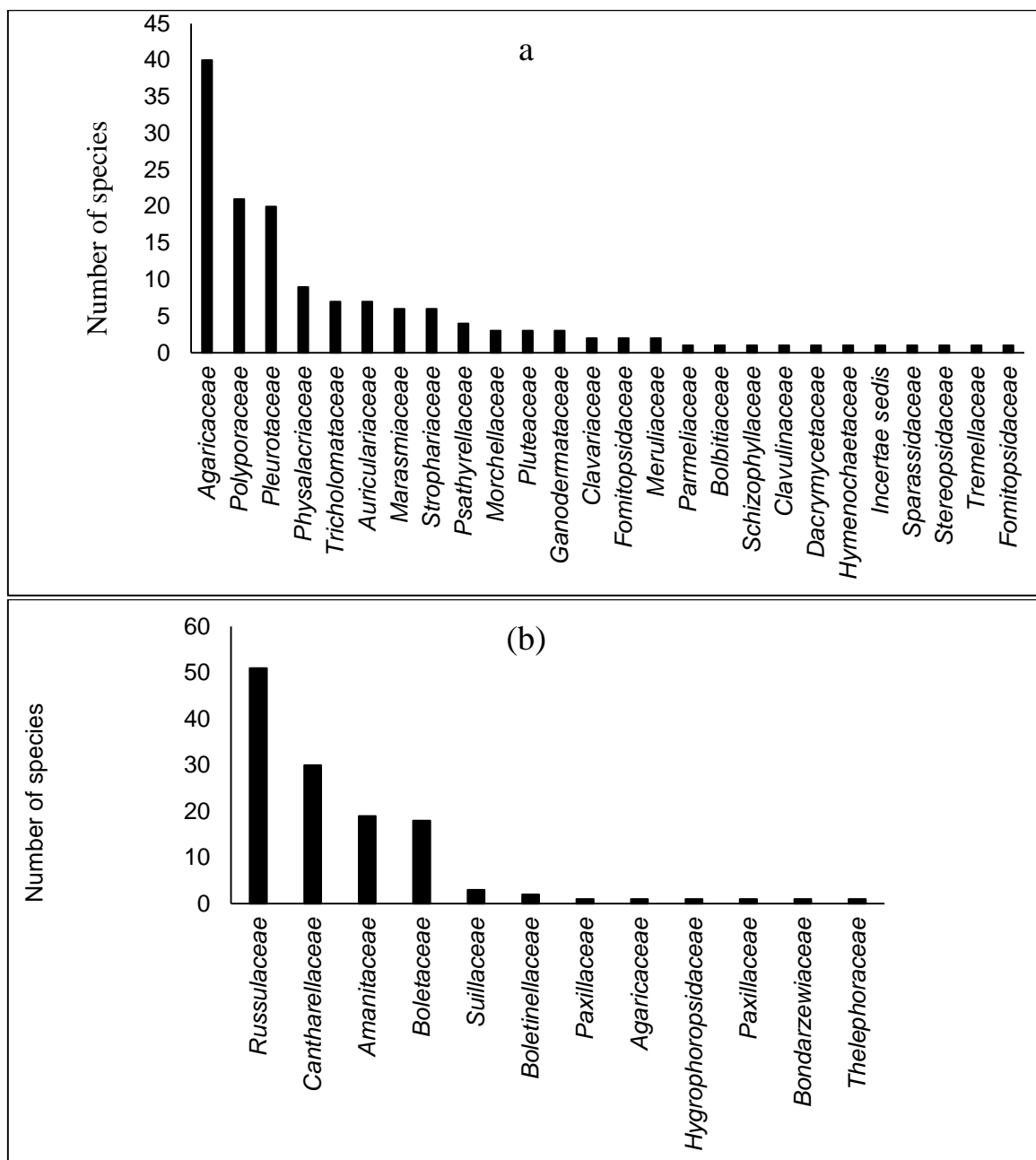


Figure 2: Number of Saprobe(a) and Ectomycorrhizal (b) wild edible mushroom species per family in Eastern Africa



### (c) Termitophillic WEMs mushrooms

In East Africa, termitophillic species documented are 25 species (7.8% of the total). The species were reported in all the countries of East Africa with the exception of Somalia (Table 1).

#### Domestication Status of WEMs in East Africa

Domestication of wild edible mushrooms is gaining popularity in the East African region. Domestication is the process of bringing WEMs into cultivations. There are about 2000 WEMs in the world, but only around 30 species are in cultivation. In East Africa 14 saprophytic species (*Amyloporus* IJ-2014, *Coprinus cinereus* (Schaeff.) Gray, *Lentinus sajor caju* (Fr.; Fr.), *Lentinus squarrosus* Mont., *Hypholoma fasciculare* (Huds: Fr.) P.Kumm., *Nameko pholiota* (T.Ito) S. Ito & S. Imai, *Oudemansiella tanzanica* Magingo, *Pleurotus citrinopileatus* Singer, *Pleurotus flabellatus* Sacc., *Polyporales* sp Gaum., *Polyporus cinnabarinus*, *Trametes polyzona* Pers., *Volvariella volvacea* (Bull.;Fr.)Sing.) have been tissue cultured, and tested for spawn production and mushroom production under different growth conditions (Table 3). However, the cultivation of WEMs in this region is still in its early stages with only 24 species under experimental trials (Table 3).

The species *Auricularia polytrica* (Mont.) Sacc., *Laetioporus* sp Murr., *Polyporus tenuiculus* (P. Beauv.)

Fr., *Pleurotus cystidiosus* O.K. Mill. and *Termitomyces* sp (Beeli) R. Heim. are still at spawn and tissue culture stages (Table 3). *Auricularia auricula* (Bull.: Fr.) did not fruit despite successful growth in spawn run and pinning stages (Table 3).

#### Process of cultivating wild edible mushrooms in East Africa

##### (a) Tissue culture and mycelia colonization rates of WEMs

The pure mycelial culture was established from fourteen mushroom species (Table 3). The main culture media used were Potato Dextrose Agar (PDA) and Malt Extract Agar (Malt) (Table 3). However, to culture *Pluteus umbrosus* (Pers.) P. Kumm., *Hypholoma fasciculare* (Huds: Fr.) P. Kumm., *Trametes polyzona* Pers., *Pleurotus citrinopileatus* Singer and *Lentinus squarrosus* Mont. AVOINE media was used (Table 3). SDYA media was also used for obtaining *Pholiota Nameko* mycelial culture (Table 3). The species were incubated upside down at 25-30 oC depending on the species' temperature requirements for 4 up to 48 days (Table 3). Pure cultures were subcultured for one to three months and cultures were stored at 4 °C to – 30 °C and some in liquid nitrogen at 196 °C..

Table 3: Domestication status of edible and medicinal Mushrooms in Eastern Africa

Species	Tissue culture		Spawn production		Mushroom cultivation					References	
	Media	Incubation	Substrate	Incubation	Incubation	Substrate rate	Spawn	Pinning	Fruiting		Yield
Temperature											
		Period			period	run					
		--days-			---days---	-----days-----				-g/kg-	
					° C						
<i>Coprinus cinereus</i>	PDA	4	a	-	10	g	7 (12)	9 (15)	11 (17)	238	Mshandete and Cuff, 2008; Raymond et al., 2013
<i>Volvariella volvacea</i>	PDA	5	a	-	12	g	9	11	13	114	Mshandete and Cuff, 2008
<i>Pleurotus flabellatus</i>	PDA	6	a	-	13	g	12	14	17	371	Mshandete and Cuff, 2008
<i>Oudemansiella tanzanica</i>	MALT	7	b	-	21	i, h, g	18 (19)	20 (21)	19 (22)	-	Magingo et al., 2004
<i>Auricularia auricula</i>	MALT	5 (7)	a, b	-	12	j, h, l, j	8 (14)	13 (23)	20 (35)	96-(266)	Onyango et al 2011
<i>Pleurotus citrinopileatus</i>	PDA, AVOINE	7 (10)	a, c	25	-	h, i, k, m, n, o, p, q, v, x	8 (21)	13 (28)	-	28.3 (397.7)	Nteziyayo et al., 2019
<i>Pleurotus sp.2</i> (HK-37)	MALT	5 (7)	-	28	-	g	12 (14)	18 (43)	20 (46)	119.2	Raymond et al 2013)



<i>Pleurotus cystidiosus</i>	PDA	27	a	-	-	-	-	-	-	Juma et al., 2015	
<i>Pleurotus djamor</i>	PDA	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	123 (238)	Nakalembe et al., 2015	
<i>Polyporales sp.</i>	PDA	48	a	25	-	t	67	105	23.29	Juma et al., 2015	
<i>Polyporus tenuiculus</i>	PDA	20	a	-	-	-	-	-	-	Juma et al., 2015	
<i>Laetioporus sp. IJ-2014</i>	PDA	24	a	-	-	-	-	-	-	Juma et al., 2015	
<i>Lentinus squarrosus</i>	AVOINE	-	a	25	-	u	25(27)	-	212.6	Nteziyayo et al., 2019	
<i>Amylospora sp. IJ-2014</i>	PDA	23	a	25	-	t	31	-	43	15.5	Juma et al., 2015
<i>Auricularia polytrica</i>	PDA	27	a	-	-	-	-	-	-	Juma et al., 2015	
<i>Nameko pholiota</i>	PDA, MALT & SDYA	18(28)	a,b,c ,d,e, f	-	-	-	60	-	55 (797)	Gizaw, 2015	
<i>Termitomyces microcarpus</i>	PDA	10	b	-	3 (31)	i, u	-	-	-	Olila et al., 2007	
<i>Lentinus saju caju</i>	PDA & MALT	4	a	25	10	n, v	24 (28)	49 (52)	1 (2)	52	Hussein et al., 2015
<i>Panus conchatus</i>	PDA & MALT	4	a	-	17	n, v	-	-	-	-	Hussein et al., 2016
<i>Pluteus umbrosus</i>	AVOINE	7	a	25	17	n, v	-	-	-	-	Hussein et al., 2016
<i>Hypholoma fasciculare</i>	AVOINE	-	a	25	-	u	24(26)	-	-	153.5	Nteziyayo et al., 2020
<i>Trametes polyzona</i>	AVOINE	-	a	25	-	u	28(30)	-	-	208.7	Nteziyayo et al., 2020
* <i>Pleurotus ostreatus</i>	MEA	-	a	-	14	v, j, w, x, y	15(20)	20(29)	22(31)	803 (2170)	Tekeste et al., 2020
* <i>Agaricus subrefescens</i>	-	-	f2	-	-	z	14(21)	7(29)	22(31)	684 (1428)	Thongklang et al., 2014

**Key:** Spawn substrate included (a) Sorghum grains, (b) Millet grains and (c) Wheat grains (d) Barley grain (e) rice (f) shredded maize (f2) Rye grain. Cultivation substrate included (g) Sisal waste (h) Rice straw, (i) Saw dust, (j) Sugarcane bagasse (k) Wheat straw, (l) Grass straw, (m) Maize cobs, (n) Banana leaves, (o) Ground nut, (p) Soya bean, (q) Coffee husk, (r) Coconut waste (s) Bean straw (t) Dried sugarcane tops (u) Cotton waste (v) Barley straw (w), Sasame stalks (x), Teff straw (y) Commercial compost. The values in parenthesis are maximum number of days taken or yield produced. The words in asterisks are for species commonly cultivated in the world.

### (a) Spawn preparation

Spawn preparation started by obtaining good quality grains. Sorghum was the most used grain in spawn production in the EA region (Table 4). The grains were first soaked in water overnight followed by boiling for 10-20 min. Excess water was drained and 1-2% calcium carbonate (agricultural lime) was added and mixed thoroughly with the grains (Table 4). The grains were allowed to drain off excess water through a sieve or by spreading on a clean plastic sheet to air dry. Once drained, the grains were filled into 330-750 ml bottles up to ¾ of the jar, which are closed with lids and autoclaved for 1 hour at 121°C to kill the contaminants (Table 4). The bottles were allowed to cool and then inoculated aseptically with 2 pieces of 1cm culture of mushroom mycelia. The inoculated bottles were fitted with lids which were then shaken thoroughly by hand to spread the mycelia. The bottles were incubated at 25-28°C with caps

loosely fitted in a well ventilated incubator for 10 days- 21 days depending on the species (Table 3).

### (a) Substrate preparation requirements and growth conditions for wild edible mushrooms

Different types of agricultural and industrial waste have proved potential in the cultivation of fourteen species of domesticated mushrooms in the EA region (Table 4). This is evident by the ability of the species to colonize the substrates and form fruitbodies. The preparation of substrates in this study employed two methods of substrate preparation which were compost and non-compost methods. The compost preparation method was used to cultivate *Coprinus cinereus* (Schaeff.), *Pleurotus flabellatus* (Sacc.) and *Volvariella volvaceae* (Bull.;Fr.) Sing. on sisal waste and manure. The outdoor composting outdoor method took 21 days. For the non-composited substrates, the materials are first soaked in water in the ratio of 1:2 (substrate: water) overnight for 4 days (Table 4). Prepared substrates were



subjected to sterilization and pasteurization at 100-121°C for 1-6 hours and pasteurization at 70°C for two hours. The sterilized bags are allowed to cool to prevent the mycelium from heat destruction. Thereafter, 1-6% (three-six teaspoonfuls) of spawn were inoculated into each bag of the substrate (Table 4). The bags were transferred to the incubation room with temperatures between 23-30°C and humidity ranging between 69-81%.

The mycelial colonization progress was monitored daily until the bags were fully colonized (Table 4). Contaminated bags were removed once spotted and taken outside the incubation room for disposal. Once fully colonized the bags were transferred to the fruiting room with lower temperatures 18-30°C and humidity 50-95% (Table 4).

Table 4: Mycelial run requirements for Wild Edible Mushrooms in East Africa (EA)

Species	Culture Source	Media treatment		Incubation		Culture preservation	References
		Reagent	Antibiotic	Temperature (°C)	Days		
<i>Oudemansiella tanzanica</i>	Tissue	-	-	25	7	-	Magingo <i>et al.</i> , 2004
<i>Pleurotus</i> HK-37	Pure culture	Distilled water, 70% Ethanol	-	-	8	-	Raymond <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Coprinus cinereus</i>	Tissue	3% hydrogen peroxide, 70% ethanol	250mg/l ampicillin	28	4	Malt at 4 °C	Mshadete and Cuff, 2008
<i>Pleurotus flabellatus</i>	Tissue	-	250mg/l ampicillin	28	6	Malt at 4 °C	Mshadete and Cuff, 2008
<i>Volvariella volvaceae</i>	Tissue	-	250mg/l ampicillin	28	5	Malt at 30 °C	Mshadete and Cuff, 2008
<i>Lentinus saju caju</i>	Tissue	Distilled water, 70% ethanol, MEA	-	28	4	MEA at 4 °C & liquid nitrogen	Hussein <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Lentinus squarrosus</i>	Tissue	Distilled water, 70% Ethanol	1 capsule chloramphenicol	25	-	-	Nteziryayo <i>et al.</i> , 2019
<i>Amylospora</i> sp IJ -2014	Tissue	PDA	-	25	-	-	Juma <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Nameko pholiota</i>	Pure culture	-	0.025g chloramphenicol/250	25	30	-	Gizaw, 2015
<i>Hypholoma fasciculare</i>	Tissue	Distilled water, 70% ethanol	-	25	-	AVOINE at 4 °C (monthly subculturing)	Nteziryayo <i>et al.</i> , 2019
<i>Trametes polyzona</i>	Tissue	Distilled water, 70% ethanol	-	25	-	-	Nteziryayo <i>et al.</i> , 2019
<i>Pleurotus citrinopileatus</i>	Tissue	Distilled water, & 70% ethanol	-	25	-	-	Musieba <i>et al.</i> , 2012; Musieba <i>et al.</i> , 2013, Nteziryayo <i>et al.</i> , 2019
<i>Auricularia auricula</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	Onyango <i>et al.</i> , 2011

From the study, 47 edible species were analyzed for nutritional and medicinal benefits. Among the most commonly utilized species are the *Termitomyces*,

*Pleurotus* and *Ganoderma* species. Species belonging to *Termitomyces* were the most (21%) analyzed in this study followed by *Pleurotus* species (12%) (Table 5)



Table 5: Nutritional status of wild edible mushrooms of East Africa

Species	Proximate Analysis	Mineral Content	Vitamins	Amino Acids	Anti-oxidants	Reference
<i>Afrocantharellus splendens</i>	-	-	-		+	Tibuhwa <i>et al.</i> , 2014
<i>Agaricus bisporus</i>	+	+	+	+	+	Wandati <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Agaricus campestris</i>	-	+	-	-	+	Woldegiorgis <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Agaricus sp</i>	-	-	-	+	-	Mdachi <i>et al.</i> , 2004
<i>Amanita zambiana</i>	+	+	-	-	+	Wandati <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Auricularia judae</i>	-	-	-		+	Hussein <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Boletus clavipes</i>	-	-	-	+	-	Mdachi <i>et al.</i> , 2004
<i>Boletus pruinatus</i>	-	-	-	+	-	Mdachi <i>et al.</i> , 2004
<i>Cantharellus Rufopunctatus</i>	-	-	-		+	Tibuhwa <i>et al.</i> , 2014
<i>Cantharellus</i>	-	-	-	+	-	Mdachi <i>et al.</i> , 2004
<i>Ganoderma lucidum</i>	-	-	-	+	-	Mdachi <i>et al.</i> , 2004
<i>Inonotus sp</i>	-	-	-	+	-	Mdachi <i>et al.</i> , 2004
<i>Joga kadzonzo</i>	+	+	-	-	+	Wandati, 2014
<i>Joga muhama</i>	+	+	-	-	+	Wandati, 2014
<i>Lactarius sp</i>	-	-	-	+	-	Mdachi <i>et al.</i> , 2004
<i>Lentinus edodes</i>	-	+	-		+	Woldegiorgis <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Lentinus sajor caju 1</i>	-	-	-		+	Hussein <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Lentinus sajor caju 2</i>	-	-	-	-	+	Hussein <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Lentinus squarrosulus</i>	-	-	-	-	+	Hussein <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Lentinus sulphureus</i>	-	+	-	-	+	Woldegiorgis <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Macrolepiota procera</i>	-	-	-	-	+	Hussein <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Malombo</i>	+	+	-	-	+	Wandati <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Auricularia sp</i>	+	+	-	-	+	Wandati <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Obulando</i>	+	+	-	-	+	Wandati <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Oando</i>	+	+	+	+	+	Wandati <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Panus cochatus</i>	-	-	-	-	+	Hussein <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Pleurotus caju</i>	-	-	-	+	-	Woldegiorgis <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Pleurotus florida</i>	-	+	+	+	+	Wandati <i>et al.</i> , 2013



<i>Pleurotus ostreatus</i>	-	-	-	+	Woldegiorgis <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Pleurotus tenuiculus</i>	-	-	-	+	Hussein <i>et al.</i> , 2015 Nakalembe, 2013; Nakalembe <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Polyporus tenuiculus</i>	+	+	+	+	Woldegiorgis, <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Russula hiemisilvae</i>	-	-	-	+	Woldegiorgis <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Russula compressa</i>	+	+	+	+	Wandati, 2014
<i>Suillus sp</i>	-	-	-	+	Woldegiorgis <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Termitomyces (oruka-stipe)</i>	+	+	+	+	Wandati <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Termitomyces aurantiacus</i>	-	+	-	-	Woldegiorgis <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Termitomyces clypeatus</i>	-	+	-	-	Woldegiorgis <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Termitomyces eurhizus</i>	+	-	-	+	Nakalembe <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Termitomyces globulus</i>	+	-	-	+	Nakalembe <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Termitomyces letestui</i>	-	+	-	-	Woldegiorgis <i>et al.</i> , 2015 Woldegiorgis <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Nakalembe <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Termitomyces microcarpus</i>	-	+	+	-	Nakalembe <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Termitomyces tyleranus</i>	-	+	+	-	Nakalembe <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Termitomyces sp</i>	-	+	-	-	Woldegiorgis <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Termitomyces sp</i>	+	+	+	+	Wandati <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Termitomyces sp (joga utuwe)</i>	+	+	-	-	Wandati <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Termitomyces sp (mariondonik)</i>	+	+	-	-	Wandati <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Volvariella speciosa</i>	-	+	+	-	Nakalembe <i>et al.</i> , 2015

Key: analyzed (+), Not analyzed (-)

### Discussions

The numbers of WEMs observed in this review corresponds to the number of identified and described wild edible mushroom species (300 species) reported in sub-Saharan Africa (Soro *et al.*, 2019). This is a high number considering we have about 2000-2166 edible mushroom species which have been reported from all

over the world (Rai *et al.*, 2005; Nakalembe *et al.*, 2015; Li *et al.*, 2021). From the results, EA is endowed with a wide range of WEMs whose benefits can be applied to support mushroom industry as well as tree restoration programs, especially with tree species growing in association with ectomycorrhizal fungi.



There are over six thousand (6000) ECM fungi species mainly in division *Basidiomycota* and into lesser extent in division *Ascomycota* (Smith and Read, 2008). ECM fungi are characterized by presence of a fungal mantle that envelops host roots and a Hartig net that surrounds root epidermal. In addition, the ECM fungi form soil-borne mycelia network important in uptake and translocation of nutrients and water to host tree species as well as movement of nutrients between individual tree hosts (Simard and Durall, 2004). These ECM fungi develop a dense mycelia network of about 200 m in a gram of dry soil. This mycelia network in soil is very important in the formation of soil aggregates, which in return facilitate carbon sequestrations in soil (Walland, 2006). ECM macrofungi are also the most expensive macrofungi, with a total market of billions of US dollars. The highly traded ECM species include *Tuber melanosporum*, *Tuber magnatum* (white truffle), *Tricholoma matsutake*, *Boletus edulis*, *Cantharellus cibarius* and *Amanita caesarea*. The majority of these species were from Miombo woodland and associated with *Brachystegia*, *Julbernardia*, *Isobornia* and *Uapaca* tree species known to symbiotically associate with ectomycorrhizal mushrooms species (Degreef et al., 2020). Miombo woodland makes up approximately 10% of the ecosystem in Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda and Burundi extending to DRC Congo, Malawi, Zimbabwe, Angola, Zambia and Mozambique explaining the high number of ectomycorrhiza mushroom species found in Tanzania, Burundi and Malawi (Degreef et al., 2020). The Ectomycorrhiza mushrooms form part of the most appreciated wild edible mushrooms (Kamalebo and De Kesel, 2020). All chanterelles are edible most and appreciated owing to large quantities harvested during the rainy seasons and the long shelf life. Apart from local consumption, the sale of the produce takes place in the markets and along the roads in many African countries (Degreef et al., 2016). Besides, *Amanita* comprises highly toxic species such as *Amanita phalloides* and *Amanita muscaria*, it's a genus with valuable members such as *Amanita losii* which has been proposed as the most productive (Degreef et al., 2020). The high number of *Russula* species could be attributed to its associations with different tree hosts. Other ectomycorrhiza species were documented in exotic plantation forests such as *Pinus*, *Cypress* and *Eucalyptus*. A few are from *Acacia* species plantations.

Ectomycorrhiza mushrooms are valuable WEMs widely collected for food and are also an important

income source, generating US 70 per month for families during the rainy season (Degreef et al., 2020). Despite the key role of Miombo mushrooms in communities, the species are threatened by the practice of felling host trees that form symbiotic relationships with mushrooms to create farmlands and fuel sources (Degreef et al., 2020). As well, ectomycorrhizal mushrooms cannot be cultivated, due to their symbiotic nature with specific tree species. Thus, sustainable harvesting remains the most appropriate strategy for the conservation of beneficial mushrooms and their habitat. The other alternative is to cultivate ectomycorrhizal seedlings which have been inoculated with specific fungus for continued mushroom supply when conditions are conducive for fructification. It is important to note that native fungi fail to form symbiotic relationships with exotic tree species and therefore the right fungus should be identified for appropriate indigenous tree species (Ducouso et al., 2012). Therefore, sustainable land management practices and cheap fuel alternatives have been proposed to secure and sustain ectomycorrhiza mushrooms (Degreef, et al., 2020).

*Termitomyces* is a paleotropical genus of agarics growing in association with termites and their nests. The species belong to *Lyophyllaceae* (division *Basidiomycota*) with 30-40 species estimated globally (Kirk et al., 2008). Although species in this genus are saprobic, decomposing plant-derived material (e.g., wood, dry grass, and leaf litter) organic matter, the species are completely dependent on termites to survive. They are the most preferred species that form a favorite delicacy for most African and Asian communities. Their good flavor, taste and texture make them acceptable among these communities (Sathiya et al., 2020). Out of 27 that have been documented in Africa and Southeast Asia, 23 species are edible and 3 species are medicinal. *Termitomyces* mushrooms live in a mutualistic obligate relationship with termites, also found in Miombo woodland, although widely distributed in montane areas (Harkonen et al., 2003). Unlike many saprophytic mushrooms, termitomycetes species are difficult to cultivate artificially due to the complexity of the symbiotic relationship that exists between the termites and the mushroom forming fungi (Hsieh and Ju, 2018). However, attempts to culture mycelia on artificial media have been fruitful. In order to maintain sustainable utilization of *termitomycetes* in their natural habitats, efforts are needed to limit the destruction of ecosystems that are known to harbor the species in East Africa. Even as





communities harvest the species for home consumption, surplus can be sold to buy other types of foods and for improved livelihoods. Communities that shy off from consuming wild mushrooms should also be educated on which species are edible and sustainable methods of harvesting.

Cultivation of WEMs in this region is however still in its early stages with only 24 species under experimental trials. This is in comparison with 100 under artificial cultivation and 60 % of the species at commercial level in China (Willis, 2018). Of this, about 20 species are currently being cultivated at an industrial level (Gizaw, 2015). The advantage of cultivating mushrooms is the diversification of livelihoods and strengthening the resilience of farmers, the crop has a short cycle that takes only 2 months. Mushrooms are grown at a very low cost since cultivation is mostly done indoors with low requirements for water compared to other crops (FAO, 2017). Cultivation of wild edible mushrooms is also an environmentally friendly technological process of recycling organic waste (Girmay et al., 2016; Hussein et al., 2016). Since small-scale cultivation of over 20 species is undertaken across China, the model used can be used for technology transfer to researchers and farmers in East African countries and Africa at large. The demand for mushrooms is also growing in East Africa (Kenya, Tanzania, Burundi, DR Congo, Uganda) though partly met despite importation and wild gathering efforts (Degreef et al., 2016).

Domestication of WEMs in the region is an enormous opportunity to expand the mushroom industry since most WEMs have regional adaptability, grow rapidly at higher temperatures (>25°C) and their growth conditions can easily be replicated using locally available agricultural and industrial waste (Table 3). Types of agricultural and industrial wastes include wheat straw, rice straw, beans and barley, leaves of various trees, maize stalks, millets, cotton husks and banana leaves (Table 3) (Magingo et al., 2004)

The attempt to domesticate species would also offer year round valuable protein sources and broadening of income avenues for families in East Africa. However, none of these species have been commercially introduced into cultivation and the availability of their mother cultures (germplasm) for research and propagation purpose is uncertain. Despite the limited effort to successfully cultivate these species in East Africa, the attempts made elsewhere have been successful (Thawthong, et al., 2014; Rizal et al., 2015;

Bandara et al., 2020). Thus, further studies are required in the region to determine optimal conditions (temperature, humidity, pH, aeration, suitable substrates) for each species in order to successfully grow them invitro.

The process of domesticating WEMs begins with the identification and selection of edible mushroom species whose cultivation potential is known. The cultivability of a species is established by determining if species in the same genus are cultivatable. The edibility of wild mushrooms is best obtained through local knowledge from herbalists, local collectors, and local communities. The knowledge can also be combined with scientific information (Thawthong et al., 2014). The choice of the best substrate for any mushroom species is also a very important step in the successful cultivation of mushrooms. Thus, the process is followed by selection of suitable artificial media and agricultural or industrial substrates. The process of cultivating mushrooms addresses the problem of agricultural and industrial waste by converting it into rich protein food sources (Mshandete and Cuff, 2008, Raymond, et al., 2013, Degreef, et al., 2020). Culturing the species on artificial culture helps to obtain pure mycelia of a specific strain to be cultivated (Mshandete and Cuff, 2008). The step is followed by choice of spawn with high quality viability which is the ability of the mycelia to produce fruiting bodies under different treatments of substrates, suitable conditions such as pH, temperatures and humidity (Thawthong, et al., 2014). Two methods are used in substrate preparation which mainly varies with species requirements. The two main methods are composting and non-composting. During the compost preparation, the substrate is made into piles that are turned after every three days from the 5th day of substrate preparation to the 21st day. According to Mshandete and Cuff (2008), the composting method during substrate preparation manipulates the natural succession of microorganisms which involves preparing compost using agricultural or industrial wastes, organic and inorganic manures, and calcium sulfate (gypsum). The non-composting method involves soaking the substrate overnight to soften it. The aim of soaking is to moisten the substrate which is followed by draining off excess water by spreading it on a surface that allows excess water to drain off (Nteziryayo et al., 2019). To ensure that the right moisture is retained, a palm squeeze test is done to ensure that water does not drip between the fingers (Hussein et al., 2016). Pasteurization of the substrate is meant to kill the microorganisms that would



compete with mushroom mycelium and hinder production. In some instances, supplements are added to the substrates as a nitrogen source such as chicken manure, cow dung, or rice bran at a rate of 1 to 30% depending on the type of supplement used. The aim is to increase mushroom yield and overall production (Mshadete, 2013).

Among the species analyzed for nutritional composition, *Ganoderma lucidum* is known for immunity enhancement, especially among HIV & AIDS patients, *Volvariella volvaceae* for lowering high blood pressure, and *Schizophyllum commune* for fighting cancer (Chandrawanshi et al., 2017). Attempts to domesticate the species in EA have only been made for *Volvariella volvaceae* which was successful. Medicinal mushrooms owe their potential to the secondary metabolites they produce which enhance their immunomodulation, antibacterial, antifungal, antioxidant, antidiabetic, anticancer, antiallergic, anticholesterolemic, cardiovascular protector, antiparasitic, antiviral, hepatoprotective and detoxification effects (Valverde et al., 2015).

Species belonging to *Termitomycetes* were the most (21%) analyzed in this study followed by *Pleurotus* species (12%) (Table 5). This is probably because *Termitomycetes* mushrooms are the most consumed edible mushrooms due to their good taste and flavor and ease of availability during the rainy seasons. *Pleurotus* mushrooms grow easily on dead logs immediately after an adequate rainy season and its also the 2nd most cultivated species in the world making it a species of interest to researchers. The composition of edible mushrooms meaty taste and immunity enhancement properties make them acceptable as nutritional sources worldwide (Teklit, 2015). Also, the protein content in wild edible mushrooms is almost equal to that of milk (Lister, 2015) which makes them a good alternative to expensive and unavailable meat, especially among rural poor populations (Musieba et al, 2012) Additionally, wild mushrooms comprise carbohydrates, vitamins, minerals, antioxidants, phytochemicals and fiber essential for human health (Lister, 2015, Juma et al., 2016, Bandara et al., 2017). The valuable vitamins which are also lacking in most food sources such as Vit D, E, B1, B2 and B12 form part of the nutritional composition of most mushrooms (Valverde et al., 2015). Vitamin D in

mushrooms is the only non-animal source and thus an important diet, especially, for vegetarians. As a result, mushrooms are gaining popularity recently promising to be potential functional food and medicines that would prevent and treat diseases such as diabetes, cancer and malnutrition (Zhang et al., 2012). It's worth noting that some of the medicinal mushrooms documented in East Africa are cultivatable such as *Ganoderma lucidum*, a means through which communities can exploit to generate income.

### Conclusion

There is a high diversity of cultivatable wild edible saprophytic mushrooms in Eastern

- Africa with the potential to expand the mushroom industry.
- The yield of wild edible mushrooms is almost comparable to that of exotic species though domestication of the species is still in infancy stages.
- The East Africa region is endowed with many agricultural and industrial wastes suitable for the cultivation of most saprophytic mushrooms in the region.
- Efforts made to analyze Wild edible mushrooms in the region are an indication of the growing interest to explore natural resources for improved health and nutrition.
- Availability of the WEMs mother cultures (germ-plasm) for research and propagation is uncertain.

### Recommendation

- Further research is needed for more detailed information on diversity, domestication, nutrient content analysis of cultivatable wild mushrooms and their suitable growth requirements for the best yields.
- More research is required to determine nutritional and phytochemical composition of over 80% wild edible/ medicinal mushrooms in East Africa region.
- Regional gene bank is needed for storage and conservation of wild mushrooms germplasm.

### Author Contributions

All authors have equal contribution.

### Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.



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