Research Article

Ganoderma lucidum and Auricularia polytricha Mushrooms Protect against Carbofuran-Induced Toxicity in Rats

Md. Sakib Hossen,1,2 Md. Maruf Billah Prince,1,3 E. M. Tanvir,1,3,4 M. Alamgir Zaman Chowdhury,3 Md. Abdur Rahman,3 Fahmida Alam,5 Sudip Paul,1 Moumoni Saha,1 Md. Yousuf Ali,1 Nikhil Chandra Bhoumik,6 Nurul Karim,1 Siew Hua Gan,7 and Md. Ibrahim Khalil1,5

1Laboratory of Preventive and Integrative Biomedicine, Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Jahangirnagar University, Savar, Dhaka 1342, Bangladesh
2Department of Biochemistry, Primeasia University, Banani, Dhaka 1213, Bangladesh
3Institute of Food & Radiation Biology, Atomic Energy Research Establishment, Savar, Dhaka 1349, Bangladesh
4School of Pharmacy, Pharmacy Australia Centre of Excellence, The University of Queensland, Woolloongabba, QLD 4102, Australia
5Human Genome Centre, School of Medical Sciences, Universiti Sains Malaysia, 16150 Kubang Kerian, Kelantan, Malaysia
6Wazed Miah Science Research Center, Jahangirnagar University, Dhaka 1342, Bangladesh
7School of Pharmacy, Monash University Malaysia, Jalan Lagoon Selatan, 47500 Bandar Sunway, Selangor Darul Ehsan, Malaysia

Correspondence should be addressed to Siew Hua Gan; shgan@usm.my and Md. Ibrahim Khalil; drmikhailil@gmail.com

Received 18 August 2017; Revised 31 December 2017; Accepted 8 April 2018; Published 15 May 2018

Academic Editor: Hanan Hagar

Copyright © 2018 Md. Sakib Hossen et al. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

The current study aimed to investigate the ameliorative effects of two types of mushrooms, Ganoderma lucidum (GL) and Auricularia polytricha (AP), against carbofuran- (CF) induced toxicity in rats. Male Wistar rats (n = 42) were divided into six equal groups. The rats in the negative control group received oral administration of CF at 1 mg/kg with the normal diet for 28 days. The treatment groups received oral administration of ethanolic extract of GL or AP at 100 mg/kg followed by coadministration of CF at 1 mg/kg with the normal diet for the same experimental period, respectively. In the CF alone treated group, there were significant decreases in the erythrocytic and thrombocytic indices but increases in the concentrations of the total leukocytes, including the agranulocytes. A significant increase in all of the liver function biomarkers except albumin, in lipid profiles except high-density lipoprotein, and in the kidney function markers occurred in the negative control group compared to the rats of the normal control and positive control groups. The coadministration of mushroom extracts significantly ameliorated the toxic effects of the CF. The GL mushroom extract was more efficacious than that of the AP mushroom, possibly due to the presence of high levels of phenolic compounds and other antioxidants in the GL mushroom.

1. Introduction

Carbofuran (2,3-dihydro-2,2-dimethyl-7-benzofuranyl-N methyl carbamate; CF) is one of the carbamate pesticides commonly used to combat insects, mites, and nematodes in the soil for fruits, vegetables, and forest crops [1]. Due to the widespread agricultural and household use of this agent, the contamination of food, water, soil, and air has become a serious concern based on its inevitable consequences of adverse health effects in humans, animals, wildlife, and fish [2]. Some studies proposed that CF has significant harmful effects on the liver and kidney functions as well as on certain blood parameters of rats [3–5]. Oxidative stress has been proposed as an alternative mechanism of CF toxicity in certain animal tissues, occurring via impairment of mitochondrial respiratory system that leads to increased generation of free radicals through lipid peroxidation of cell membrane which play significant roles in the pathogenesis of a number of complications [6,7]. Mitigating the oxidative stress induced by the carbamate pesticides, the exogenous
supply of antioxidants can improve the capacity of the tissue to cope with the high antioxidant demands [8].

Mushrooms are frequently used in traditional Chinese medicine as well as being commonly used as a food item [9]. Currently, many species of medicinal mushrooms are commercially available in many countries. Among these mushrooms, *Ganoderma lucidum* (GL) (also known as Lingzhi or Reishi) [10] and *Auricularia polytricha* (AP) (also known as cloud ear fungus or jelly ear fungus, a species that is closely related to *Auricularia auricula-judae*) are well known for their medicinal properties. GL is an oriental fungus with a large, dark glossy exterior and a woody texture [10]. It has been shown to produce antitumor compounds, hypoglycemic polysaccharides, immunomodulatory proteins (LZ-8), and many bioactive oxygenated triterpenoids with a very broad spectrum of biological activities and pharmacological functions [11]. On the other hand, AP is an ear-like brown mushroom that grows on wood and its medicinal properties may be contributed by its non-starch polysaccharides, including three D-glucans and two acidic heteropolysaccharides [12]. GL and AP are rich in vitamin B complex, including riboflavin, folate, thiamine, pantothenic acid, and niacin, and also contain several minerals, such as selenium, potassium, copper, iron, and phosphorus which are very essential for the maintenance of liver enzyme functions and help to detoxify some carcinogenic compounds in the body [13]. In fact, modern pharmacological and clinical investigations have demonstrated that GL and AP contain active constituents with numerous pharmacological effects including antitumor, immunomodulatory, cardiovascular, and antihypertotic functions [14, 15]. Previous data have confirmed that the two mushroom species contain high amounts of naturally occurring antioxidants, including ascorbic acid, tocopherol, and phenolic compounds with robust radical scavenging and antioxidant activities [16]. Thus, it is hypothesized that GL and AP mushrooms can mitigate oxidative stress and other toxicities induced by CF. Therefore, the aim of this study was (1) to identify the active phenolic compounds in these mushrooms, (2) to determine the effects of CF on hematological and biochemical changes in rats, and (3) to determine the ameliorative effects of the GL and AP mushrooms against CF-induced toxicity.

2. Materials and Method

2.1. Pesticide and Mushroom Collection. CF (25 g) was purchased from Shetu Corporation Limited, Bangladesh, in a powdered form (C12H13NO4·HNO3, purity 98%) and was subsequently stored at 4°C. The GL and AP mushrooms were collected in powdered form (dry samples were crushed into a fine powder using a household blender) from the Mushroom Development and Extension Centre, Savar, Dhaka, Bangladesh, in summer following authentication of the species.

2.2. Extract Preparation. The powdered mushroom samples were extracted with 95% ethanol in a conical flask at 30°C for 72 hours using a shaker incubator (KS 4000 ic, IKA, Germany) at 150 rpm. Thereafter, the extracts were filtered through Whatman no. 1 filter paper (Hanzhou Xinhua Paper Industry Co. Ltd., China), followed by evaporation using a rotary evaporator (R-215, BUCHI, Switzerland) under a reduced pressure (100 psi) at a controlled temperature (40°C) to remove any residual solvent. The samples were then stored at −20°C until analysis.

2.3. HPLC Analysis of Phenolic Compounds. From the dry extracts, free phenolic compounds were detected following previous methods [17, 18] with slight modification. Briefly, the extracts (100 mg) were dissolved in 10 ml acidified water (pH 2.0) and extracted with 10 ml methanol. The organic layer was collected for centrifugation at 6000 rpm for 10 min followed by filtration through a 0.45 μm syringe filter (Sartorius AG, Germany). The filtrate (5 mL) was then passed through a 0.20 μm nylon membrane filter (Sigma, USA) and the 20 μL of filtrate was loaded on the HPLC system (SPD-20AV, serial number: L20144701414AE, Shimadzu Corporation, Kyoto, Japan) equipped with a UV detector (SPD-20AV, serial number: L20144701414AE, Shimadzu Corporation, Kyoto, Japan). A Luna phenomenex, C18 100A (150 × 4.60 mm, 5 μm), HPLC column was used. A linear gradient at a flow rate of 0.5 ml/min was used and the total analytical time was approximately 35 min. The binary mobile phase consisted of solvent A (ultrapure water with 0.1% phosphoric acid) and solvent B (pure methanol with 0.1% phosphoric acid). Elution from the column was achieved with the following gradient: 0 to 10 min of solvent B, increased from 35% to 55%; 10 to 25 min of solvent B, increased to 62%; 25 to 30 min of solvent B, increased to 85%, and the final composition was kept constant up to 35 min. The detection wavelength was fixed between 200 and 450 nm, with specific monitoring conducted at 265 nm. The identification of phenolic and flavonoid compounds was performed by comparing the retention times of the analytes with the reference standards. Phenolics including tannic, gallic, pyrogallol, vanillic, benzoic, and transcinnamic acids as well as flavonoids (including catechin, naringin, rutin, and quercetin) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, Missouri, USA) and were used as reference standards. All solvents were of HPLC grade.

2.4. Animals. Male Wistar rats with body weights (BW) in the range of 150–155 g were used for the experiment. The rats were obtained from Department of Pharmacy, Jahangirnagar University, and were maintained at a constant room temperature (23 ± 2°C) in an environment with humidity ranging from 40% to 70%. The rats were housed in clean plastic cages and received a natural 12-h day-night cycle. They were provided with standard food and water ad libitum. The experiments were conducted according to the ethical guidelines as approved by the Bangladesh Association for Laboratory Animal Science. The experimental protocol was approved by the Biosafety, Biosecurity & Ethical Committee of Jahangirnagar University.

2.5. Study Design. All rats were acclimated to the lab environment for one week prior to the experiment. The experiment
was conducted for 28 days using doses for the mushrooms and CF that were selected based on those reported in previous studies [7, 19]. The hypothesized oxidative stress in rat’s tissue was reported to occur following 1 mg/kg of CF treatment [7]. A total of 42 rats were randomly divided into 6 groups (n = 7 in each group), as follows:

(1) Normal control: the rats received 0.5 mL olive oil/rat via oral gavage and a normal diet for 28 days.

(2) Positive control-1: the rats received the GL extract (100 mg/kgBW/day) dissolved in saline water via oral gavage and a normal diet for 28 days.

(3) Positive control-2: the rats received the AP extract (100 mg/kgBW/day) dissolved in saline water via oral gavage and a normal diet for 28 days.

(4) Negative control: the rats received CF (1 mg/kgBW/day) (1/5 of lethal dose 50%; LD₅₀) dissolved in olive oil (0.5 mL/rat) via oral gavage and a normal diet for 28 days.

(5) CF + GL: the rats received the GL extract (100 mg/kgBW/day) dissolved in saline water along with CF (1 mg/kgBW/day) dissolved in olive oil (0.5 mL/rat) via oral gavage and a normal diet for 28 days.

(6) CF + AP: the rats received the AP extract (100 mg/kgBW/day) dissolved in saline water along with CF (1 mg/kgBW/day) dissolved in olive oil (0.5 mL/rat) via oral gavage and a normal diet for 28 days.

All administrations were conducted in the morning (between 09:00 and 10:00 AM). During the experimental period, the rats were observed for any abnormal clinical signs and/or death; changes in body weight were evaluated on a weekly basis.

At the end of the experiment, all rats were sacrificed using deep anesthesia with ketamine hydrochloride injection (1 mL/150 g) followed by dissection. Blood samples (5 mL) were withdrawn from the inferior vena cava for hematological and biochemical analyses using a heparinized syringe (5 mL). From each rat, the liver, kidneys, heart, brain, and pancreas were immediately removed and were placed on ice for calculation of the fraction of the body weight. For the hematological analysis, blood samples (1 mL) were directly transferred into EDTA tubes and were stored at −20°C until analysis. For the biochemical analyses, the blood samples (4 mL) were collected into sterile test tubes and allowed to clot at ambient temperature for 30 min followed by centrifugation at 2,000 rpm for 10 min to separate the serum, which was then stored at −20°C prior to analysis.

2.6. Evaluation of Hematological Parameters. To evaluate the hematological parameters, the blood samples (1 mL) were analyzed following standard protocols using an automated hematology analyzer (XS 1000i, Sysmex Corporation Ltd., Japan). In this experiment, the recorded hematological parameters were as follows.

2.7. Erythrocytic Parameters. Erythrocytic parameters are red blood cells (RBC), hemoglobin (HGB), hematocrit (HCT), mean corpuscular volume (MCV), mean corpuscular hemoglobin (MCH), mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration (MCHC), red cell distribution width—standard deviation (RDW_SD), and red cell distribution width—coefficient of variation (RDW_CV).

2.8. Differential Leukocyte Counts. Differential leukocyte counts are white blood cells (WBC), lymphocytes (LYMPH), monocytes (MONO), neutrophils (NEUT), and eosinophils (EO).

2.9. Thrombolytic Indices. Thrombolytic indices are platelets (PLT), mean platelet volume (MPV), platelet distribution width (PDW), pro-calcitonin (PCT), and platelet-to-larger-cell ratio (P-LCR).

2.10. Evaluation of Biochemical Parameters. A total of 12 biochemical parameters including alanine aminotransferase (ALT), aspartate aminotransferase (AST), alkaline phosphatase (ALP), lactate dehydrogenase (LDH), albumin (ALB), total bilirubin (TB), total cholesterol (TC), triglyceride (TG), high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C), low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C), creatinine, and urea were estimated following standard protocols using an automated chemistry analyzer (Dimension EXL with LM Integrated Chemistry System, Siemens Medical Solutions Inc., USA).

2.11. Oxidative Stress Parameter (LPO). Malondialdehyde (MDA) levels were assayed to determine the lipid per-oxidation (LPO) products in the tissues according to the method described by Ohkawa et al. [20]. MDA, also referred to as thiobarbituric acid-reactive substance (TBARS), was measured at 532 nm and the levels of TBARS were expressed as nmol of TBARS per mg of protein. The total protein in heart tissue homogenates was estimated by the Lowry et al. method [21].

2.12. Histopathological Examination. The liver and kidney tissues were dissected and were fixed in 10% formalin. The fixed tissues were embedded in paraffin and were cut into serial sections (5 μm thick) using a rotary microtome. Each section was stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E). Microscopic observation was performed using a light microscope (MZ3000 Micros, St Veit/Glan, Austria). The pathologist who performed the histopathological evaluation was blinded to the treatment assignments of the different study groups.

2.13. Statistical Analysis. All analyses were performed in triplicate. The data are expressed as the means ± standard deviation (SD). The data were analyzed using GRAPHPAD PRISM (version 6.00; GraphPad software Inc., San Diego, CA, USA) and SPSS (Statistical Packages for Social Science, version 22.0, IBM Corporation, Armonk, New York).
Table 1: Phenolic and flavonoid compounds detected in *Ganoderma lucidum* and *Auricularia polytricha* mushroom species.

| Serial number | Standard compound       | *Ganoderma lucidum* (mg/kg) | *Auricularia polytricha* (mg/kg) |
|---------------|-------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|
|               | Phenolic compounds      |                             |                                 |
| 1             | Tannic acid             | 1958.31                     | ND                              |
| 2             | Gallic acid             | ND                          | 322.32                          |
| 3             | Pyrogallol              | ND                          | ND                              |
| 4             | Vanillic acid           | 2780.21                     | 21.59                           |
| 5             | Benzoic acid            | ND                          | ND                              |
| 6             | Trans-cinnamic acid     | ND                          | ND                              |
| 7             | Salicylic acid          | 7.94                        | ND                              |
|               | Flavonoid compounds     |                             |                                 |
| 8             | Catechin                | 1013.78                     | ND                              |
| 9             | Naringin                | ND                          | ND                              |
| 10            | Rutin                   | ND                          | ND                              |
| 11            | Quercetin               | ND                          | ND                              |

ND: not detected.

Figure 1: Chromatogram of phenolic compound analysis by HPLC. (a) Standard mixture of seven phenolic acids. (b) Standard mixture of four flavonoids. (c) *Ganoderma lucidum* and (d) *Auricularia polytricha*. Here, (1) tannic acid, (2) gallic acid, (3) pyrogallol, (4) vanillic acid, (5) benzoic acid, (6) trans-cinnamic acid, (7) salicylic acid, (8) catechin, (9) naringin, (10) rutin, and (11) quercetin.

3. Results

A total of eleven phenolic compounds were investigated in this study in which seven were phenolic acids and four were flavonoid compounds (Figure 1 and Table 1). In GL mushroom, three phenolic acids including tannic, vanillic, salicylic acids and a flavonoid, catechin, were detected. On the other hand, AP mushroom contained gallic and vanillic acids. Overall, the concentration of phenolic acids was higher in GL than AP mushroom, indicating the high antioxidant properties of the former.

During the experimental periods, none of the animals in the normal and positive control groups showed any noticeable signs of toxicity. Noticeable toxic signs, such as mild tremors, soft feces (mild diarrhea), depression, and dyspnea, were observed mainly in negative control group. The rats from the CF + GL and the CF + AP groups showed milder toxic signs including a rough hair coat and some tremors compared to those in the negative control group. Of the total of 42 rats, only 3 rats died (1 from the CF + AP group and 2 from the negative control group) at 2nd and 3rd weeks, respectively.
Evidence-Based Complementary and Alternative Medicine

Table 2: Changes in body weight for the various groups.

| Parameters        | Normal control | Positive control-1 | Positive control-2 | Negative control | CF + GL | CF + AP |
|-------------------|----------------|--------------------|--------------------|------------------|--------|--------|
| Initial body weight (g) | 152.62 ± 18.20 | 157.57 ± 17.30*** | 159.28 ± 11.31*** | 147.00 ± 8.18**** | 148.28 ± 11.31*** | 148.42 ± 8.18**** |
| Final body weight (g)  | 233.00 ± 23.94 | 245.85 ± 14.83**** | 235.00 ± 21.63 | 204.40 ± 3.57**** | 218.83 ± 21.63**** | 211.25 ± 3.57**** |
| % changes in body weight (g) | 12.75 | 13.41 | 12.09 | 10.33** | 12.06 | 11.01 |
| Total body weight gain (g) | 80.38 | 88.28**** | 75.72**** | 57.40**** | 70.55**** | 62.83**** |
| Mitigating rate (%) | - | - | - | - | 18.65 | 8.79 |

The values are presented as the means ± SD. Mean values with asterisks (*) along a row denote level of significant differences compared to the normal control group, obtained using a one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett’s multiple comparisons test.

Table 3: Changes in the absolute and relative organ weights across the groups.

| Groups | Liver (g) | Kidney (g) | Heart (g) | Brain (g) | Pancreas (g) | Liver (g/100g) | Kidney (g/100g) | Heart (g/100g) | Brain (g/100g) | Pancreas (g/100g) |
|--------|-----------|------------|-----------|----------|-------------|---------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|-----------------|
| Normal control | 8.00 ± 1.60 | 1.40 ± 0.24 | 0.82 ± 0.11 | 1.62 ± 0.05 | 0.8 ± 0.24 | 3.49 | 0.60 | 0.35 | 0.70 | 0.35 |
| Positive control-1 | 8.70 ± 0.78 | 1.37 ± 0.12 | 0.79 ± 0.05 | 1.40 ± 0.02 | 0.9 ± 0.23 | 3.53 | 0.55 | 0.32 | 0.60 | 0.39 |
| Positive control-2 | 9.30 ± 1.02* | 1.30 ± 0.10 | 0.82 ± 0.05 | 1.50 ± 0.01 | 0.9 ± 0.17 | 3.71* | 0.58 | 0.34 | 0.67 | 0.39 |
| Negative control | 7.59 ± 1.45* | 1.18 ± 0.19 | 0.74 ± 0.09 | 1.60 ± 0.07 | 0.6 ± 0.30 | 3.95* | 0.57 | 0.36 | 0.79 | 0.29 |
| CF + GL | 9.41 ± 1.32* | 1.36 ± 0.23 | 0.76 ± 0.14 | 1.00 ± 0.15 | 0.9 ± 0.24 | 4.30* | 0.62 | 0.34 | 0.68 | 0.42 |
| CF + AP | 8.41 ± 1.06 | 1.39 ± 0.18 | 0.80 ± 0.17 | 1.50 ± 0.09 | 0.6 ± 0.27 | 3.69 | 0.61 | 0.35 | 0.69 | 0.29 |

The results are expressed as the means ± SD, n = 7. * denotes p < 0.05 compared to the normal control group (one-way ANOVA/Dunnett).

The effects of the mushroom extracts and the CF pesticide on the body weights and relative organ weight changes are shown in Tables 2 and 3, respectively. Consistent progressive increases in the body weights of the rats in the normal and positive control groups were observed. There was also a significant increase in the final body weight (p < 0.05) at the study completion with total body weight in normal control (12.75%) and positive control rats (13.41% for positive control-1 and 12.09% for positive control-2). The negative control group showed also a progressive increase in their body weights over the 28-day period with a significant increase of 10.33% in their body weights at the termination of the study, which was significantly less than that of the normal and positive control groups. On the other hand, the CF + GL and the CF + AP groups showed progressive increases of 12.06% and 11.01% of their body weights, respectively, over the study period that indicated protection against the toxic effect of CF. The mitigating rates were determined to be 18.65% for CF + GL group and 8.79% for CF + AP group.

Administration of CF (at 1 mg/kg) showed significant adverse effect on the mean relative liver weights [(liver weight/body weight) × 100] in the negative control group. However, the mean relative liver weight of the CF + GL group was significantly increased. On the other hand, for the other organs (such as kidney, heart, brain, and pancreas), there were no significant differences among the groups for the mean relative weight [(organ weight/body weight) × 100].

The data for the comparisons of the hematological parameters in the control and treated groups are shown in Figures 2, 3, and 4. The negative control rats had significantly lower values for RBC (10⁶/µL), HGB (g/dL), HCT (%), MCH (pg), MCHC (g/dL), RDW SD (fl), and RDW CV (%) compared to normal control (Figure 2). Some hematological parameters [such as RBC (10⁶/µL), HGB (g/dL), HCT (%), MCH (pg), MCHC (g/dL), and RDW CV (%)] were significantly decreased in the rats from the positive control-2 group compared with normal control group but these values were significantly higher than those of the rats in the negative control group (Figure 2). Supplementation of the CF-treated rats with the GL and AP mushrooms (CF + GL and CF + AP groups) reversed these effects and significantly ameliorated the changes in hematological parameters towards the normal levels. On the other hand, the CF alone treated group (negative control) had significantly higher total leukocyte (WBC in 10⁹/µL) and agranulocyte counts [LYMPH (%) and MONO (%)] but significantly lower granulocyte counts [specifically NEUT and EO (%)] than the normal control rats. The rats in the CF + GL and the CF + AP groups had significantly higher LYMPH and fewer granulocytes than the normal control rats (Figure 3). On the other hand, the negative control group rats showed significant decreases in the PLT (10³/µL), MPV (fl), PDW (fl), PCT (%), and P-LCR (%) values compared to the normal control group. These thrombolytic parameters were significantly attenuated in the rats of the CF + GL and the CF...
The values are presented as the means ± SD of three determinations for seven animals per group. Mean values with asterisks (*) along a row denote level of significant differences compared to the normal control group (one-way ANOVA/Dunnett).

Table 4: The effects of the GL and AP mushroom extracts and carbofuran on the serum biochemical markers.

| Biochemical parameters | Normal control | Positive control-1 | Positive control-2 | Negative control | CF + GL | CF + AP |
|------------------------|----------------|-------------------|-------------------|-----------------|--------|--------|
| **Liver function biomarkers** | | | | | | |
| ALT (U/L) | 48.75 ± 2.12 | 38.00 ± 2.88* | 34.57 ± 3.00*** | 77.75 ± 11.08**** | 31.28 ± 3.98*** | 45.00 ± 10.96 |
| AST (U/L) | 100.71 ± 10.11 | 61.14 ± 8.19***** | 77.42 ± 5.82*** | 126.37 ± 19.90* | 71.14 ± 9.40**** | 75.42 ± 9.76*** |
| ALP (U/L) | 238.61 ± 18.95 | 235.00 ± 18.1 | 234.57 ± 28.23 | 311.87 ± 32.86*** | 234.28 ± 14.59 | 254.57 ± 12.68 |
| LDH (U/L) | 288.37 ± 32.04 | 193.71 ± 27.24 | 224.42 ± 14.22 | 470.87 ± 31.57**** | 228.85 ± 15.32 | 245.11 ± 13.07 |
| TB (mg/dl) | 0.10 ± 0.03 | 0.10 ± 0.04 | 0.10 ± 1.50 | 0.26 ± 0.10***** | 0.11 ± 0.06 | 0.18 ± 0.06* |
| ALB (g/L) | 10.60 ± 0.91 | 11.60 ± 0.91 | 1.60 ± 1.10** | 9.25 ± 0.88**** | 10.80 ± 0.62 | 10.34 ± 0.47 |
| **Lipid profile biomarkers** | | | | | | |
| TC (mg/dL) | 54.87 ± 2.79 | 53.28 ± 2.81 | 45.85 ± 3.40*** | 61.87 ± 4.51* | 50.28 ± 4.42 | 51.14 ± 5.75 |
| TG (mg/dL) | 48.37 ± 5.34 | 45.14 ± 2.11 | 34.42 ± 6.34*** | 52.00 ± 9.12 | 40.57 ± 3.69* | 39.85 ± 7.15* |
| HDL-C (mg/dL) | 41.00 ± 1.85 | 41.85 ± 2.47 | 40.28 ± 2.92 | 38.00 ± 2.38 | 41.00 ± 4.08 | 41.28 ± 4.15 |
| LDL-C (mg/dL) | 04.20 ± 1.80 | 02.40 ± 1.16 | 01.68 ± 1.37 | 01.62 ± 5.11* | 01.17 ± 0.67 | 01.88 ± 1.18 |
| **Kidney function biomarkers** | | | | | | |
| Creatinine (mmol/L) | 58.85 ± 2.68 | 48.88 ± 3.56** | 50.20 ± 7.24**** | 64.46 ± 4.07 | 51.98 ± 5.38* | 58.80 ± 4.30 |
| Urea (mmol/L) | 6.50 ± 0.33 | 4.12 ± 0.74***** | 4.66 ± 0.90**** | 8.14 ± 0.53**** | 6.06 ± 0.74 | 5.35 ± 0.65** |

+ AP groups compared to the negative control group, which indicated that the mushrooms significantly ameliorated the adverse effects of the CF pesticide on the thrombolytic indices (Figure 4).

Table 4 shows the overall means of the serum biochemical parameters. The data indicated that the CF alone treated rats had significant increases in the liver function biomarker levels in serum (such as ALT, AST, ALP, LDH, and TB) but a decrease in the ALB level compared to the normal control group. Supplementation of CF-treated rats with the GL and AP mushrooms, however, reversed these toxic effects and ameliorated the hepatic marker activities to normal levels.

In addition, the lipid profile and kidney biomarker data indicated that TC, TG, LDL-C, creatinine, and urea were significantly increased whereas the HDL-C levels were decreased in the negative control group following CF alone administration compared with normal control. However, the levels of all of these markers were significantly normalized following supplementation of the CF-treated rats with the mushroom extracts (Table 4).

Based on the investigation of oxidative stress biomarkers, there was a significant increase in liver and kidney LPO levels in the animals treated with CF alone, as evidenced by the increase in MDA levels when compared to the normal control group. However, both mushrooms tended to confer a protective effect because the animals that were cotreated with the GL and AP mushroom extract had significantly lower MDA levels compared to the negative control group (Figure 5). This finding also correlated with the histopathological findings which revealed that the livers and kidneys of the animals from the normal and positive control groups had a regular organization of hepatocytes that radiated from the central vein (CV) to the periphery of the lobule (Figures 6(a), 6(b), and 6(c)) and normal morphology of renal parenchyma with
Figure 3: Effect of carbofuran on the total and differential leukocyte counts and the mitigating effect of the GL and AP mushroom extracts. The data are expressed as the means ± SD of seven animals per group. Mean values with asterisks (∗) denote level of significant differences (p < 0.05) compared to the normal control group (one-way ANOVA/Dunnett). On the vertical axis, the units are expressed as follows: WBC (10^3/µL), LYMPH (%), MONO (%), NEUT (%), and EO (%). White blood cells (WBC), lymphocytes (LYMPH), monocytes (MONO), neutrophils (NEUT), and eosinophil (EO).

Figure 4: The effects of carbofuran on the thrombolytic indices and the mitigating effects of the GL and AP mushroom extracts. The data are expressed as the means ± SD of seven animals per group. Mean values with asterisks (∗) denote level of significant differences (p < 0.05) compared to the normal control group (one-way ANOVA/Dunnett). On the vertical axis, the units are expressed as follows: PLT (10^3/µL), MPV (fL), PDW (fL), PCT (%), and P_LCR (%). Platelets (PLT), mean platelet volume (MPV), platelet distribution width (PDW), procalcitonin (PCT), and platelet-larger cell ratio (P_LCR).

well-defined glomeruli (GM) and tubules (Figures 7(a), 7(b), and 7(c)). In contrast, the liver of the animals from CF alone treated group (negative control) showed some degenerative vicissitudes in the organ, including severe disruption of the cellular arrangement, degeneration of hepatocytes at the peripheral area of the CV, and congestion in the CV associated with inflammatory infiltrates (Figure 6(d)). Moreover, the kidney of the animals from negative control showed degeneration of the tubular epithelium, vacuolization, and moderate glomerular necrosis (Figure 7(d)). The CF + GL and the CF + AP groups, however, showed amelioration in all of the investigated histopathological features with moderate to mild degree of worsening of hepatonephrocytes seen (Figures 6(e), 6(f), 7(e), and 7(f) and Table 5).
4. Discussion

To our knowledge, our study is the first to report on the ameliorative effects of orally administered GL and AP mushrooms against CF-induced oxidative injuries in the rats’ liver and kidney. GL conferred better protection against CF-induced toxicity than AP for most of the parameters suggesting its superior antioxidant activities as also indicated by the higher concentration of phenolic compounds determined in GL as compared to AP.

Among the eleven phenolic compounds, gallic and vanillic acids were detected in AP while GL contained tannic, vanillic, and salicylic acids as well as catechin. Among the four phenolic compounds, vanillic acid was markedly higher which is also supported by the investigations of Kim et al. [22].

Presently, the use of carbamate pesticides exceeds the use of organophosphate and organochlorine pesticides, on the basis that the carbamylated enzyme is much more labile and reactivates quickly with a rate between minutes and an hour [23]. However, some of the carbamates, especially CF, are extremely toxic, and overexposure of individuals involved in its production, transportation, and use can result in serious adverse health effects [24].

Because changes in rat body weights may provide an indication of CF-induced toxicity, this was the first parameter investigated. The oral administration of CF (1 mg/kg) decreased the total body weight gain of the rats in the negative control group compared to the normal control group. However, the body weights of treatment groups (CF + GL and CF + AP) were improved compared to the negative control group. The underlying mechanism for the decrease in the body weights of the rats treated with CF may be due to the direct cytotoxic effects of pesticides on somatic cells and/or indirect actions through the central nervous system, which controls feed and water intake and regulates the endocrine system [25]. Another plausible underlying mechanism could involve the rapid destruction of the cell membranes via lipid peroxidation, which occurs when a free radical-mediated attack on the membrane lipids is propagated via an autocatalytic chain of reactions of lipid peroxidation processes in the presence of oxygen [26]. Because the rats from the CF + GL and the CF + AP groups consumed GL and AP mushrooms with the CF, the cytotoxic and oxidative stress caused by CF were ameliorated and the body weight gain was restored (by 18.65% and 8.79%, respectively) compared with the negative control group. Our study also confirmed that oral administration of CF at 1 mg/kg body weight for consecutive 28 days has significant ($p < 0.05$) adverse effect on the mean relative liver weights, because the liver is the first organ exposed to metabolizing any upcoming metabolites from gastrointestinal tract following oral ingestion [27]. However, the CF administration had no significant ($p < 0.05$) effects on the other organs, such as kidney, heart, brain, and pancreas perhaps because of the low bioavailability; that is, the low dose of CF was less likely to cause large scale toxicity through the body [28]. These molecular mechanisms may also be responsible for the clinical signs and symptoms as mentioned in the Results section.

The complete blood count (CBC) is one of the most commonly used blood screening tests and indicates an animal’s or a person’s overall health. In the present study, we examined three types of blood cells including erythrocytes, lymphocytes, and thrombocytes. The RBC indices are calculations derived from the CBC that aid in the diagnosis and classification of anemia. Several previous studies have shown that organophosphate and organochlorine insecticides can alter hematological parameters in experimental animals [29–31]. Our study confirmed that the carbamate group pesticide CF also altered the hematological parameters significantly. The present results revealed that exposure to CF was associated with significant decreases in the RBC, HGB, HCT, MCH, MCHC, RDW_SD, and RDW_CV parameters. A similar trend was observed in rabbits treated with cypermethrin [32]. The reduction in the HGB content might be related to the decreased size of RBCs or to the impaired biosynthesis of heme in the bone marrow [33]. In addition, the reduction in the blood parameters may be attributed to a hyperactivity of the bone marrow [34] leading to the production of red blood cells with impaired integrity which were easily destroyed in the circulation. Shakoori et al. [35] reported that a decrease in RBC counts is indicative of either excessive damage to the erythrocytes or inhibition of erythrocyte formation. Our study confirmed that CF induced anemia by reducing the total RBCs, HGB, and also HCT (the percentage of blood by volume that is occupied by the red cells). Treatment with CF also significantly reduced the MCV, MCH, MCHC, RDW_SD, and RDW_CV values, which indicated that it causes the microcytic type of anemia. However, coadministration of GL and AP mushrooms to CF-treated rats increased these values compared to negative control rats, indicating immunostimulatory effects of the extracts.

Furthermore, there were also significant increases in the WBC, LYMPH, and MONO counts during the treatment with CF. These findings are in agreement with those reported in sheep that were treated with cypermethrin [36] and in rabbits that were treated with CF and glyphosate [37]. In addition, CF significantly reduced the granulocyte counts (especially NEUT and EO) compared to those of the control rats as also found by Elsharkawy et al. [29]. Increases in leukocyte counts may indicate an activation of the animal’s defense mechanism [32]. It is plausible that the toxic effects of CF weakened the rats’ immune system, which permitted the acquisition of infections that stimulated a further immune response [30]. On the other hand, decreases in the PLT, MPV, PDW, PCT, and P-LCR levels were observed in the CF-treated group compared to the control group. These changes were similar to that reported by Kalender et al. [38, 39]. These decreases occurred due to rapid platelet destruction [29] as indicated by previous reports that numerous xenobiotics have the ability to block platelet receptor binding or to change the platelet membrane charge or permeability [40]. Coadministration with GL and AP mushrooms significantly normalize these leukocyte and platelet counts in CF-treated rats compared to negative control rats.

In this study, the toxic effects of CF on liver function were investigated by determining the activities of various enzymes (ALT, AST, ALP, and LDH) and the plasma protein
Table 5: Semiquantitative scoring of the architectural changes following histopathological examination of the rat’s liver and kidney.

| Scoring parameters               | Normal control | Positive control-1 | Positive control-2 | Negative control | CF + GL | CF + AP |
|----------------------------------|----------------|--------------------|--------------------|------------------|--------|--------|
| Liver                            |                |                    |                    |                  |        |        |
| Degeneration of hepatocytes      | 1              | 1                  | 1                  | 3                | 2      | 3      |
| Inflammatory cell infiltration   | 1              | 1                  | 1                  | 2                | 1      | 3      |
| Vascular congestion              | 1              | 1                  | 1                  | 3                | 2      | 1      |
| Edema                            | 1              | 1                  | 1                  | 2                | 2      | 2      |
| Mean ± SD                        | 1.00 ± 0.00    | 1.00 ± 0.00        | 1.00 ± 0.00        | 2.50 ± 0.57      | 1.75 ± 0.50 | 2.00 ± 0.81 |
| Kidney                           |                |                    |                    |                  |        |        |
| Degeneration of tubular epithelium| 1              | 1                  | 1                  | 2                | 1      | 2      |
| Vacuolization                    | 1              | 1                  | 1                  | 1                | 1      | 1      |
| Glomerular necrosis              | 1              | 1                  | 1                  | 2                | 1      | 1      |
| Mean ± SD                        | 1.00 ± 0.00    | 1.00 ± 0.00        | 1.00 ± 0.00        | 1.67 ± 0.57      | 1.00 ± 0.00 | 1.33 ± 0.57 |

Scoring was performed as follows: 1 = minimal (<1%), 2 = slight (1–25%), and 3 = moderate (26–50%).

Figure 5: The effect of GL, AP mushroom, and CF on (a) liver and (b) kidney LPO levels in normal and different treated rats. The values are presented as the means ± SD. * denotes p < 0.05 compared to the normal control group (one-way ANOVA/Dunnett).

ALB. The results showed significant increases in the ALT, AST, ALP, and LDH levels in the CF-treated group. These changes may occur as a result of enzyme leakage from the tissue to the serum secondary to reduced levels of high energy phosphate and phosphocreatine. These substances are important for maintaining the permeability, integrity, and other important characteristics of the cell membrane, including the maintenance of electrophysiology balance and stability [41]. CF poisoning results in the expenditure of a significant amount of energy as indicated by the reduction of the ATP levels by 40–60%. The lack of high energy phosphates can affect the membrane characteristics, which causes enzymes to leak into the tissue thus increasing their concentrations in the serum [41]. Another important liver biomarker, total bilirubin, can also be increased in the CF-treated group, which may contribute to the onset of periportal necrosis as reported by Clifford and Rees [42]. Cotreatment with GL and AP mushrooms significantly ameliorated ALT, AST, ALP, LDH, TB, and ALB levels which can be attributed by the presence of phenolics and flavonoids in both mushroom extracts which has inhibitory activities on membrane lipid peroxidation with good free radical scavenging activities [43, 44].

The lipid biomarker assessment showed that TC, TG, and LDL-C were significantly (p < 0.05) increased in the negative control rats compared to both normal and positive control
Figure 6: Photomicrographs of hematoxylin and eosin stained sections of the liver. (a) Normal control rats showing a normal liver with a hepatic lobule and a uniform pattern of polyhedral hepatocytes radiating from the central vein (CV) towards the periphery, (b) positive control-1 rats showing normal histological structure of the central vein (CV), (c) positive control-2 rats with surrounding hexagonal hepatocytes, and (d) negative control rats demonstrating a disrupted arrangement of hepatocytes around the CV and in the lobule (black arrows), degeneration of the hepatocytes at the peripheral area of the CV (green arrows), and congestion of the CV associated with inflammatory infiltrates (red arrows). (e and f) Groups CF + GL and CF + AP rats show a remarkable degree of preservation of the cellular arrangement with mild to moderate inflammatory infiltrates and congestion of the CV [magnification: 40x].

Rats, whereas the HDL-C levels were decreased. Similar trends have previously been observed in studies of other pesticides [45]. The increase in the serum cholesterol levels may be due to increased cholesterol synthesis in the liver [46]. The elevation of the serum TC may also be attributed to the stimulation of catecholamines, which promote lipolysis and increase fatty acid production. The observed elevation in the total serum cholesterol levels could be due to blockage of the liver bile ducts, which would cause a decrease or cessation of the cholesterol secretion into the duodenum. This would subsequently lead to cholestasis. Furthermore, the elevation of the serum TG levels has been attributed to inhibition of the lipase enzyme activities that target both the hepatic triglycerides and plasma lipoproteins [47]. In addition, our study also showed that oral treatment with CF induced a significant decrease in serum HDL. HDL is mainly synthesized in the liver and intestinal cells. It plays an important role in cholesterol efflux from tissues, after which the cholesterol is carried back into the liver for removal as bile acids [48]. It has been established that reduced levels of HDL-C are associated with a higher risk of coronary artery disease [49]. Moreover, in the treatment groups (CF + GL and CF + AP), lipid levels were restored when compared to the negative control rats. This may occur due to the inhibition of cholesterol absorption and biosynthesis which may be contributed by the activation of the lipase enzymes as well as the increase in the excretion of bile acids due to the active compounds present in the mushroom extracts [16, 43].

Treatment with CF caused a significant decrease in the levels of ALB and increases in the urea and creatinine concentrations compared to the control group. Elevated plasma levels of urea and creatinine levels are significant
markers of renal dysfunction [50]. Low creatinine and urea clearance indicate a weakened ability of the kidneys to filter these waste products from the blood and excrete them in the urine. Moreover, elevated blood urea is correlated with increased protein catabolism in the body [51]. Pesticide-induced increases in the urea level as observed in the present study may be due to the effect of CF on the liver function because urea is the end product of protein catabolism [52]. This possibility is supported by the decrease in the levels of the plasma protein ALB. Coadministration of mushrooms extracts (GL and AP mushroom) normalized the ALB, urea, and creatinine level compared to negative control rats.

LPO generally refers to the oxidative degradation of lipids in which free radicals acquire the electrons from the lipids in cell membranes, resulting in cell damage. Increased LPO appears to be the initial stage where the liver and kidney tissue become more susceptible to oxidative damage. However, coadministration with the two mushrooms significantly reduced the levels of lipid peroxides in CF-exposed rats suggesting its protective effects against oxidative damage. Moreover, our histomorphological observations in the liver and kidney tissues also confirmed the protective effects of GL and AP on CF-induced toxicity. The livers of negative control rats showed a moderately disrupted arrangement of the hepatocytes with congestion of the central vein seen. In a recent study, marked changes in the biochemical parameters of the liver and a generalized congestion of the portal, central venous, and sinusoidal part of the liver were also seen when the rats were treated with CF at 1 mg/kg body weight for five weeks [53]. It is plausible that the active
constituents in GL (including tannic, vanillic, salicylic acids, and catechin) and AP (including gallic and vanillic acids) with antioxidant activities scavenge the free radicals and confer some protection on the liver and kidney tissue.

5. Conclusion

Our study confirmed that the GL and AP mushrooms confer significant protective effects against CF-induced toxic effects on the body weight, hematological, and several biochemical parameters and that the GL mushroom provided better protective effects than the AP mushroom against CF-induced toxicity.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

Acknowledgments

This research was partly supported by the University Grants Commission of Bangladesh, 2015, and the National Science and Technology (NST) special allocation 2013-1014, no. 8 (BS 130). The authors would like to acknowledge Mushroom Development and Extension Centre, Savar, Bangladesh, and the Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM) Global Fellowship (2014/2015) awarded to Fahmida Alam during her Ph.D. degree.

References

[1] P. N. Saxena, S. K. Gupta, and R. C. Murthy, "Carbofuran induced cytogenetic effects in root meristem cells of Allium cepa and Allium sativum: A spectroscopic approach for chromosomal damage," Pesticide Biochemistry and Physiology, vol. 96, no. 2, pp. 93–100, 2010.

[2] J.-Y. Yoon, S.-H. Oh, S.-M. Yoo et al., "N-Nitrosocarbofuran, but not Carbofuran, induces apoptosis and cell cycle arrest in CHL cells," Toxicology, vol. 169, no. 2, pp. 153–161, 2001.

[3] M. S. Islam, M. K. Mohanta, A. K. Saha, A. Mondol, M. M. Hoque, and A. K. Roy, "Carbofuran-Induced Alterations in Body Morphometrics and Histopathology of Liver and Kidneys in the Swiss Albino Mice Mus Musculus L.,” International Journal of Scientific Research in Environmental Sciences, vol. 2, no. 9, pp. 308–322, 2014.

[4] S. K. Jaiswal, V. K. Gupta, N. J. Siddiqi, R. S. Pandey, and B. Sharma, "Hepatoprotective Effect of," Chinese Journal of Cell Biology, vol. 2015, Article ID 686071, 10 pages, 2015.

[5] A. Ojha and Y. K. Gupta, "Evaluation of genotoxic potential of commonly used organophosphate pesticides in peripheral blood lymphocytes of rats," Human & Experimental Toxicology, vol. 34, no. 4, pp. 390–400, 2015.

[6] A. Kamboj, R. Kiran, and R. Sandhir, "Carbofuran-induced neurochemical and neurobehavioral alterations in rats: attenuation by N-acetylcycteine," Experimental Brain Research, vol. 170, no. 4, pp. 567–575, 2006.

[7] B. Kaur, A. Khera, and R. Sandhir, "Attenuation of cellular antioxidant defense mechanisms in kidney of rats intoxicated with carbofuran," Journal of Biochemical and Molecular Toxicology, vol. 26, no. 10, pp. 393–398, 2012.

[8] S. F. Ambali, D. O. Akanbi, M. Shittu et al., "Chlorpyrifos-induced clinical, haematological and biochemical changes in Swiss albino mice: mitigating effect by co-administration of vitamins C and E," Life Science Journal, vol. 7, no. 3, pp. 37–44, 2010.

[9] J. Yang, H. Lin, and J. Mau, "Antioxidant properties of several commercial mushrooms," Food Chemistry, vol. 77, no. 2, pp. 229–235, 2002.

[10] S. Wachtel-Galor, J. Yuen, J. A. Buswell, and I. E. F. Benzie, Ganoderma lucidum (Lingzhi or Reishi): A Medicinal Mushroom, 2001.

[11] B. S. Sanodiya, G. S. Thakur, R. K. Baghel, G. B. K. S. Prasad, and P. S. Bisen, "Ganoderma lucidum: a potent pharmacological macrofungus," Current Pharmaceutical Biotechnology, vol. 10, no. 8, pp. 717–742, 2009.

[12] Z. Zhang, W. K. K. Ho, Y. Huang, E. J. Anthony, L. W. Lam, and Z.-Y. Chen, " Hawthorn fruit is hypolipidemic in rabbits fed a high cholesterol diet," Journal of Nutrition, vol. 132, no. 1, pp. 5–10, 2002.

[13] Y. Liu, Y. Fukuwatari, K. Okumura et al., "Immunomodulating activity of Agericus brasililensis KAU21 in mice and in human volunteers," Evidence-Based Complementary and Alternative Medicine, vol. 5, no. 2, pp. 205–219, 2008.

[14] C. H. J. Kao, K. S. Bishop, Y. Xu et al., "Identification of potential anticancer activities of novel ganoderma lucidum extracts using gene expression and pathway network analysis," Genomics Insights, vol. 9, pp. 1-16, 2016.

[15] B. Y. K. Law, S. W. F. Mok, A. G. Wu, C. W. K. Lam, M. X. Y. Yu, and V. K. W. Wong, "New potential pharmacological functions of Chinese herbal medicines via regulation of autophagy," Molecules, vol. 21, no. 3, p. 359, 2016.

[16] J. Mau, S. Tsai, Y. Tseng, and S. Huang, "Antioxidant properties of hot water extracts from Ganoderma tsugae Murrill," LWT-Food Science and Technology, vol. 38, no. 6, pp. 589–597, 2005.

[17] O. Yıldız, Z. Can, A. Q. Laghari, H. Şahin, and M. Malkoç, "Wild edible mushrooms as a natural source of phenolics and antioxidants," Journal of Food Biochemistry, vol. 39, no. 2, pp. 148–154, 2015.

[18] R. Afroz, E. Tanvir, S. Paul, N. C. Bhoomik, S. H. Gan, and M. I. Khalil, "DNA damage inhibition properties of sundarban honey and its phenolic composition," Journal of Food Biochemistry, vol. 40, pp. 436–445, 2016.

[19] Q. A. Nogaim, H. A. S. Amra, and S. A. Nada, "The medical effects of edible mushroom extract on aflatoxin B1," Journal of Biological Sciences, vol. 11, no. 8, pp. 481–486, 2011.

[20] H. Okhawa, N. Ohishi, and K. Yagi, "Assay for lipid peroxides in animal tissues by thiobarbituric acid reaction," Analytical Biochemistry, vol. 95, no. 2, pp. 351–358, 1979.

[21] O. H. Lowry, N. J. Rosebrough, A. L. Farr, and R. J. Randall, "Protein measurement with the Folin phenol reagent," The Journal of Biological Chemistry, vol. 193, no. 1, pp. 265–275, 1951.

[22] M.-Y. Kim, P. Seguin, J.-K. Ahn et al., "Phenolic compound in the Swiss Albino Mice Mus Musculus L.,” International Journal of Scientific Research in Environmental Sciences, vol. 40, pp. 436–445, 2016.

[23] R. Afroz, R. Tanvir, S. Paul, N. C. Bhoomik, S. H. Gan, and M. I. Khalil, "DNA damage inhibition properties of sundarban honey and its phenolic composition," Journal of Food Biochemistry, vol. 40, pp. 436–445, 2016.

[24] O. Yildiz, Z. Can, A. Q. Laghari, H. Sahin, and M. Malkoc, "Wild edible mushrooms as a natural source of phenolics and antioxidants," Journal of Food Biochemistry, vol. 39, no. 2, pp. 148–154, 2015.

[25] Q. A. Nogaim, H. A. S. Amra, and S. A. Nada, "The medical effects of edible mushroom extract on aflatoxin B1," Journal of Biological Sciences, vol. 11, no. 8, pp. 481–486, 2011.

[26] H. Okhawa, N. Ohishi, and K. Yagi, "Assay for lipid peroxides in animal tissues by thiobarbituric acid reaction," Analytical Biochemistry, vol. 95, no. 2, pp. 351–358, 1979.

[37] R. Bond, Enzyme Inhibitors as Substrates: Interaction of Esterases with Ester of Organophosphorus and Carbamic Acids, Portland Press Limited, 1974.
