



ISSN (E): 2277-7695
 ISSN (P): 2349-8242
 NAAS Rating: 5.23
 TPI 2022; 11(6): 2247-2252
 © 2022 TPI

www.thepharmajournal.com

Received: 07-03-2022

Accepted: 18-05-2022

Dileep KC

Department of Food Science and Technology, Dr. Yashwant Singh Parmar University of Horticulture & Forestry Nauni, Solan, Himachal Pradesh, India

Anupama Anand

Department of Food Science and Technology, Dr. Yashwant Singh Parmar University of Horticulture & Forestry Nauni, Solan, Himachal Pradesh, India

Ruchi Sharma

Department of Food Science and Technology, Dr. Yashwant Singh Parmar University of Horticulture & Forestry Nauni, Solan, Himachal Pradesh, India

Harpreet Kaur

Department of Food Science and Technology, Dr. Yashwant Singh Parmar University of Horticulture & Forestry Nauni, Solan, Himachal Pradesh, India

Chahat Thakur

Department of Food Science and Technology, Dr. Yashwant Singh Parmar University of Horticulture & Forestry Nauni, Solan, Himachal Pradesh, India

Anjali Gautam

Department of Food Science and Technology, Dr. Yashwant Singh Parmar University of Horticulture & Forestry Nauni, Solan, Himachal Pradesh, India

Ankita Sharma

Department of Food Science and Technology, Dr. Yashwant Singh Parmar University of Horticulture & Forestry Nauni, Solan, Himachal Pradesh, India

Corresponding Author:

Anupama Anand

Department of Food Science and Technology, Dr. Yashwant Singh Parmar University of Horticulture & Forestry Nauni, Solan, Himachal Pradesh, India

UV irradiated mushrooms: Potential source of Vitamin D₂ review

Dileep KC, Anupama Anand, Ruchi Sharma, Harpreet Kaur, Chahat Thakur, Anjali Gautam and Ankita Sharma

Abstract

Mushroom is a fruiting body of micro-organisms called fungi. They lack chlorophyll, absorb nutrients from soil and decaying matter for their growth. Mushrooms are valuable nutritional foods with recognized bioactive properties, such as, antioxidant (ergothioneine), bone growth and mineralization (Vitamin D), anti cancer (Lectins) and immunity boosting effect. Vitamin D also called as calciferol, which is a fat soluble vitamin, plays an important role in several human metabolic processes such as calcium and phosphorus metabolism, and skeletal and neuromuscular homeostasis. Nowadays studies on vitamin D have received considerable attention over the years supported by the increasing number of reports of vitamin D deficiency. Symptoms of vitamin D deficiency include rickets and osteomalacia arising from poor calcium and phosphorus mineralization; but other diseases such as cardiovascular disease, cancer, hypertension, stroke, diabetes rheumatoid arthritis, inflammatory bowel disease, liver diseases, and mental illness have been also reported to be associated. The fruiting body of mushrooms, either in their fresh or processed forms, is rich in sterols, mainly Ergosterol, that can be converted into vitamin D₂ by UV-radiation. The amount of vitamin D varies among mushroom species, and also within the same species. Among them, mushrooms belonging to the genera *Agaricus*, *Lentiaula* and *Pleurotus* have been reported to contain interesting amounts of vitamin D after exposure to UV. However, there is still a gap considering the knowledge of the most appropriate irradiation procedures (dose, intensity, distance between source and sample, exposure time) in order to maximize the content of vitamin D₂ in the mushrooms. This strategy will enable vitamin D₂- enhanced mushrooms to be commercially available at affordable costs.

Keywords: Vitamin D₂ (Ergocalciferol), Mushroom, Ultraviolet Irradiation, Ergosterol

Introduction

Mushroom is derived from Latin and Greek words “*Fungus*” and “*Mykes*”. Mushroom is a fruiting body of micro-organisms called fungi. They lack chlorophyll, absorb nutrients from soil for their growth. There are more than 30,000 identified types of mushrooms worldwide, 99% of these are safely edible and roughly 1% is poison. Mushrooms contain a good amount of vitamin D (Das *et al.*, 2022) [6]. Table 1 indicates the botanical classification of mushrooms, they belong to the Kingdom Fungi, Genus *Agaricus* and Species *bisporus*. The examples for edible mushrooms are white button mushrooms, paddy straw mushrooms, oyster mushrooms, shiitake mushrooms, milky mushrooms, chanterelle mushrooms etc. And examples for poisonous mushrooms are yellow staining mushrooms, sunshine amanita, cookers amanita etc. Poisonous mushrooms look like edible mushrooms in their morphology and life cycle. They can be identified by some unique characteristics i.e. the poisonous mushrooms have, i.e. they have bright color fruit bodies, unpleasant odour, greenish tinge and yellow green spores in their gills and they ooze milky or coloured latex from damaged portion.

Table 1: Botanical classification of mushrooms:

Kingdom	Fungi
Phylum	Basidiomycota
Class	Agaricomycetes
Order	Agricales
Family	Agaricaceae
Genus	Agaricus
Species	A. bisporus

Mushrooms are most commonly found in dark, moist and humid temperature. Mostly they are found on the trees, beneath the trees, on soil. Wild mushrooms are commonly found in rainy seasons. Mushroom with their great variety of species, constitute a cost-effective means of both supplementing the nutrition to human kinds. 4-5 species of mushroom are of industrial significance throughout the world (Chang and Miles, 2004) [5]. In India, only 3 species, namely, *Agaricus bisporus*, *Pleurotus sajorcaju* and *Volveriell* are preferred for commercial cultivation. Mushroom is commercialized in almost all parts of the world. Production of shiitake, oyster mushroom, wood ear mushroom and Flammulina and other new mushroom species, particularly in East Asian countries like Japan, South Korea, Taiwan, China, etc. the contribution of these mushrooms to total world mushroom production has increased tremendously as compared to button mushroom which is no more the number one mushroom in terms of share in global mushroom production. Total production of mushroom in world is 42.8 million metric tons in which Japan is the largest producer of mushroom in the world followed by Korea and China (FAOSTAT). India contributes 258.81 in mushroom production in 2021-22 in which Bihar is a leading producer of mushroom (28 tonnes) followed by Maharashtra (25.60 tonnes) and Orissa (25.00 tonnes) and least producer of mushroom in India is Sikkim with 0.02 tonnes (APEDA).

Health Benefits of Mushrooms

Mushroom consumption has been reported to present interesting health promoting benefits such as antioxidant, antitumor, antimicrobial, anti-inflammatory, antityrosinase, immunomodulator, antiatherogenic and hypoglycemic activities (Alves *et al.*, 2013; Carochi & Ferreira, 2013; Taofiq *et al.* 2015; Taofiq *et al.* 2016) [1, 4, 26, 28].

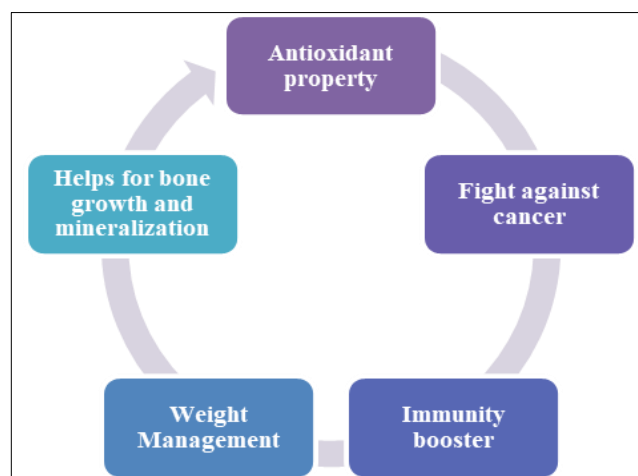


Fig 1: Health benefits of mushroom consumption

- 1. Antioxidant property:** Antioxidants are the substances that can prevent or slows damage to cells caused by free radicals; mushrooms contain a powerful antioxidant called **ergothionine** which helps to lowers inflammation throughout the body.
- 2. Helps for bone growth and mineralization:** Mushroom are rich source of vitamin D helpful for the bone mineralization and development.

- 3. Fight against cancer:** It contains a specialized lectins that recognize cancer cells and have been found to prevent cancer cells from growing and dividing.
- 4. Weight Management:** Mushrooms are helps for weight management due to the present of low fatconten Help to lower cholesterol and cardiovascular diseases- In general mushrooms are fat free and also good source of chitin (fibres) that lowers the cholesterol. Commonly present in all mushrooms and helps to reduces total cholesterol and LDL (bad cholesterol)
- 5. Immunity booster:** Lentinan is a type of sugar molecule called 1, 3 beta glucan which helps for the immunity booster.

Vitamin D

Vitamin D also called as calciferol, which is a fat soluble vitamin, plays an important role in several human metabolic processes such as calcium and phosphorus metabolism, and skeletal and neuromuscular homeostasis. Vitamin D deficiency is pandemic, yet it is the most under-diagnosed and under-treated nutritional deficiency in the world (Van Schoor and Lips, 2011; Mithal *et al.*, 2009; Van der Meer *et al.*, 2009) [33, 18, 32]. Vitamin D deficiency is widespread in individuals irrespective of their age, gender, race and geography. Vitamin D is photosynthesized in the skin on exposure to UVB rays. Sun exposure alone ought to suffice for vitamin D sufficiency. However, vitamin D deficiency is widely prevalent despite plentiful sunshine even in tropical countries like India. There are many causes for vitamin D deficiency which includes living at high latitude, being indoors too much, using large quantities of sunscreen, overweight, kidney and liver disease, problem in digestive tract, having dark skin etc.

Vitamin D deficiency has a bearing not only on skeletal but also on extraskelatal diseases. Owing to its multifarious implications on health, the epidemic of vitamin D deficiency in India is likely to significantly contribute to the enormous burden on the healthcare system of India. Cultural and social taboos often dictate lifestyle patterns such as clothing-that may limit sun exposure and vegetarianism-which certainly limits vitamin D rich dietary options. Most Indians are vegetarians. The socioeconomically backward people constitute a large percentage of the population in India. The underprivileged generally suffer from overall poor nutrition. Vitamin D rich dietary sources are limited and unaffordable to most Indians. Vitamin D supplements are available, but most Indians are not aware that they need additional vitamin D. Additionally, the cost of these supplements is essentially prohibitive to the majority. Fortification of staple foods with vitamin D may prove to be a more viable solution towards attaining vitamin D sufficiency in India.

Types of vitamin D

- Vitamin D₂ (Ergocalciferol) – which is synthesized by plants and is not produced by the human body. The side chain of D₂ contains a double bond between carbons 22 and 23, and a methyl group on carbon 24.
- Vitamin D₃ (Cholecalciferol) – which is made in large quantities in the skin when sunlight strikes bare skin. It can also be ingested from animal sources.

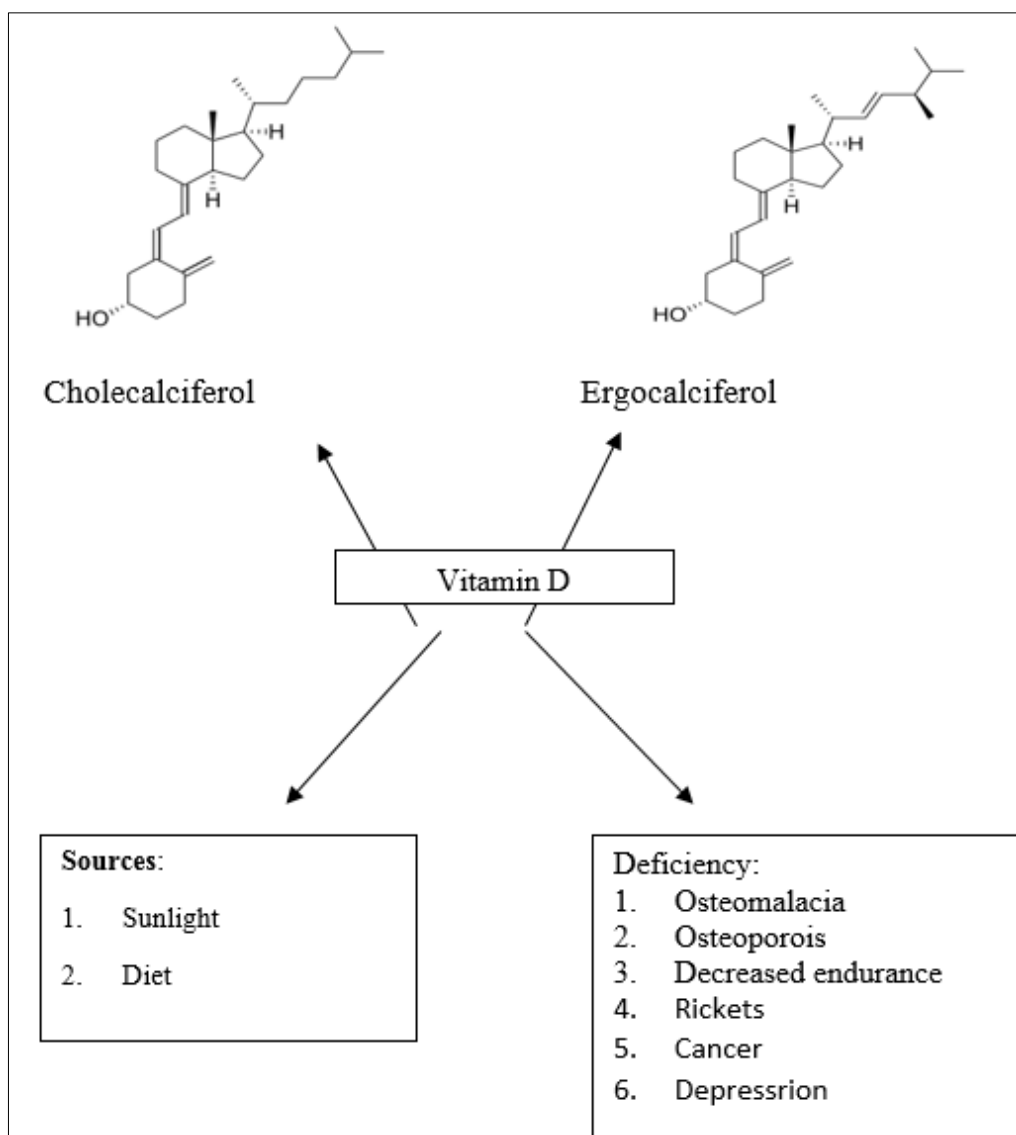


Fig 2: Variation in vitamin D, sources of vitamin D and deficiency symptoms

Metabolism of vitamin D

Both forms of vitamin D have shown to be responsible for maintaining serum levels of 25-hydroxyvitamin D in humans (Koyyalamudi *et al.*, 2011) [11]. Vitamin D from sunlight, or dietary sources, is biologically inactive and undergoes two-step hydroxylation to form 25-hydroxyvitamin D (calcidiol) and metabolically active 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D (calcitriol) (Harika & Eilander, 2013) [9]. After vitamin D intake, it enters blood circulation, being transported to the liver where it becomes hydroxylated to form 25-hydroxyvitamin D [25(OH)D], the major circulating form of vitamin D. In the kidney, a second hydroxylation of the 25-hydroxyvitamin D occurs, resulting in the formation of 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D, which is the most potent form of vitamin D. In fact, most of the physiological effects of vitamin D in the body are related to the activity of 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D (Harika & Eilander, 2013) [9]. Even the contribution of food ingestion to vitamin D levels is relatively not significant, some important dietary sources of vitamin D are fish, beef liver, cod liver oil, egg yolks; additionally, mushrooms exposed to sunlight have shown to be rich in vitamin D₂ (Guan *et al.*, 2016) [7].

UV radiation of Mushrooms

Electromagnetic radiation comes from the comes from

different sources such as sun and transmitted in waves or particles at different wavelengths and frequencies, this broad range of wavelength is known as electromagnetic (EM) spectrum. The spectrum is generally divided into seven regions in the order of decreasing wavelength and increasing energy and frequency. Ultraviolet (UV) is an electromagnetic radiation with a wavelength ranging from 10 nm to 400 nm. This UV radiation is again sub classified as UV-A (315–400 nm), UV-B (280–315 nm) and UV-C (180–280 nm) (Taofiq *et al.*, 2017; Cardwell *et al.*, 2018) [27, 3].

Numerous studies have reported the potential of using UV-treated mushrooms as an alternative source of vitamin D, with wild species presenting higher vitamin D levels when compared with cultivated ones (Kohn, 2016). Mushrooms contain very low levels of vitamin D, but following exposure to UV radiation, ergosterol undergoes series of ring rearrangement forming previtamin D and, lastly, the active form of Vitamin D₂ (Sapozhnikova *et al.*, 2014; Slawinska *et al.*, 2016) [23, 25]. The kinetics of the photo conversion of ergosterol into vitamin D₂ in mushrooms has not been fully understood. The factors such as temperature, moisture content, UV radiation type, different irradiation parts and irradiation dose are described to influence vitamin D yield (Jasinghe *et al.* 2007) [11].

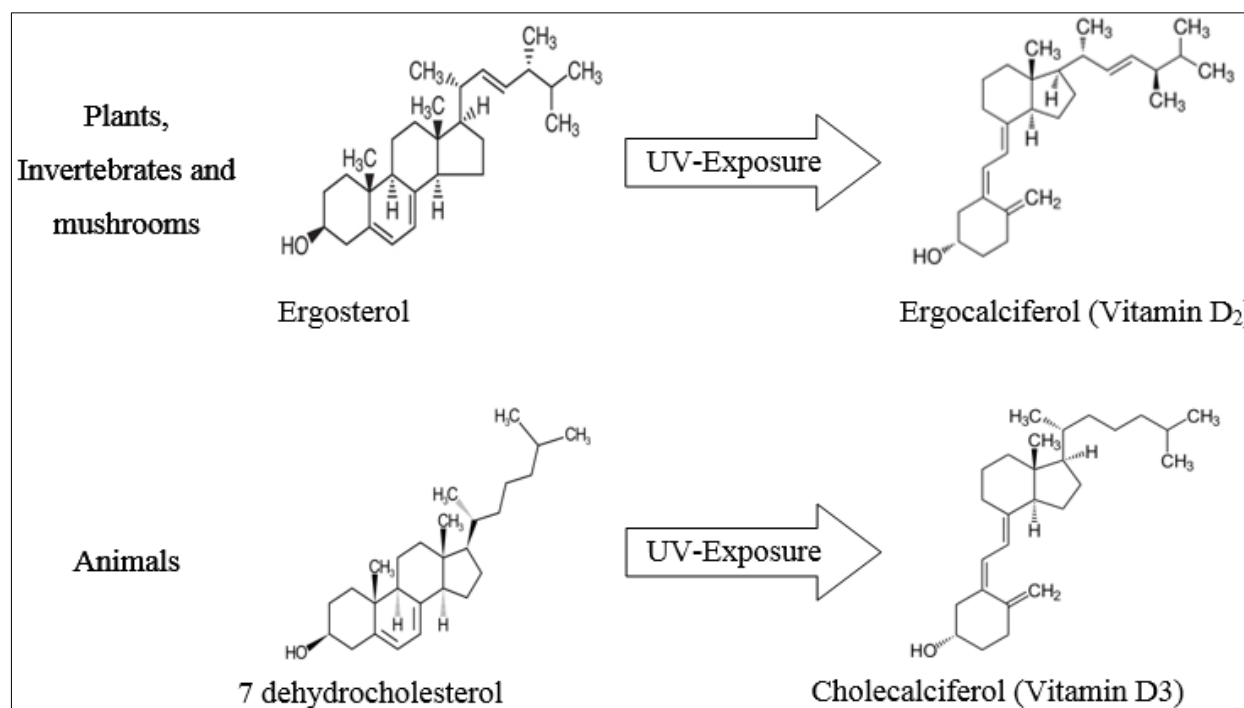


Fig 3: Synthesis of Vitamin D from different precursors present in Plants, Mushrooms and Animals

When fresh button mushrooms are deliberately exposed to midday sunlight for 15–120 min, they generate significant amounts of vitamin D₂, usually in excess of 10 µg/100 g FW (Kristensen *et al.*, 2012; Simon *et al.*, 2011; Phillips and Rasor 2013; Urbain and Jakobsen 2015) [16, 24, 19, 30], which approaches the daily requirement of vitamin D recommended in many countries. However, the amount of vitamin D₂ generated depends on the time of day, season, latitude, weather conditions, and exposure time. Since these mushrooms have a higher surface area to volume (hence, more ergosterol is exposed), sun-exposed sliced mushrooms produce more vitamin D₂ than whole mushrooms from the same amount of UV radiation exposure (Urbain *et al.*, 2016; Phillips and Rasor 2013; Urbain and Jakobsen 2015) [31, 19, 30]. An efficient way to produce nutritionally relevant amounts of vitamin D₂ is to expose mushrooms to specific, controlled levels of UV radiation via a fluorescent UV lamp or a pulsed UV lamp. Mushrooms will generate vitamin D₂ in response to exposure to UV radiation both during growing phase and post-harvest; however, commercial growers use UV lamps post-harvest for practical reasons. Fresh mushrooms, when deliberately exposed to a UV radiation source post-harvest, will generate significant amounts of vitamin D₂ (Urbain *et al.*, 2016; Phillips and Rasor 2013; Urbain and Jakobsen 2015; Mau *et al.*, 1998; Koyyalamudi *et al.*, 2009) [31, 19, 30, 17, 15].

Effect of UV radiation type on vitamin D yield

Jasinghe and Perera (2006) [10] studied irradiation of fresh shiitake mushrooms (*Lentinula edodes*) Oyster mushroom (*Pleurotus ostreatus*), Button mushrooms (*Agaricus bisporus*), and Abalone mushroom (*Pleurotus cystidus*) were irradiated with Ultraviolet-A (UV-A; wavelength 315–400 nm), Ultraviolet-B (UV-B; wavelength 290–315 nm), and Ultraviolet-C (UV-C; wavelength 190–290 nm). The conversions of ergosterol to vitamin D₂ under UV-A, UV-B, and UV-C were shown to be significantly different ($p < 0.01$). The highest vitamin D₂ content (184 ± 5.71 µg/g DM) was observed in Oyster mushrooms irradiated with UV-B at 35 °C

and around 80% moisture. Similarly, Wu and Ahn (2014) [34] reported that that UV-B was the most suitable irradiation source for vitamin D₂ synthesis in cultivated oyster mushrooms when fresh oyster mushrooms were subjected to different sources of irradiation with UV-A, UV-B, UV-C, UV-A & B, UV-A & C, UV-B & C, or UV-A & B & C lights, respectively. Simon *et al.* (2011) [24] reported that the level of vitamin D₂ present in *A. bisporus* exposed to UVB radiation at a dose of 1.08 J/cm² increased significantly, namely from 5.5 µg/100 g dw to 410.9 µg/100 g dw, which represents an increase of 747%. Other authors have reported increases after exposure to UVB of 0.1 µg/g dw to 3.98 µg/g dw (Urbain & Jakobsen, 2015) [30], 0.0003 µg/g dw to 157 µg/g dw (Bilbao-Sainz *et al.*, 2017) [2] and 0.01 µg/g dw to 7.28 µg/g dw (Roberts *et al.*, 2008) [20]. Whereas, Teichmann *et al.* (2005) [29] investigated irradiation of raw and processed mushroom samples including wild grown (chanterelles and king bolete) and cultivated samples (white and brown button, portabella, shiitake, oyster). They have reported that irradiation with UV light in the A region (366 nm) only slightly affected ergosterol and vitamin D₂ content. In contrast, irradiation with UV light conducted in the C region (254 nm, 0–2 h, 20 cm distance) for fresh white button mushrooms and freeze-dried chanterelles resulted in nonsignificant decrease in ergosterol content, whereas vitamin D₂ increased up to 9-fold (*Cantharellus tubaeformis*) and 14-fold (*A. bisporus*/white), respectively. *Agaricus bisporus* var. *Portobello* treated with UVC showed a slight increase in vitamin D₂ content i.e. from 430 µg/100 g dw to 950 µg/100 g dw (Guan *et al.*, 2016) [7].

Effect of temperature

The effect of temperature on vitamin D₂ production could be demonstrated by study conducted by Wu *et al.* (2014), which showed that an increase in temperature from 15°C to 35°C increases the production of vitamin D₂ from 152 µg/g to 178 µg/g on dry weight basis. Likewise, findings from study carried out by Jasinghe *et al.* (2005) suggest that the optimal translation of ergosterol to vitamin D₂ in shiitake mushrooms

happen at 35 °C and 78% moisture, producing 50 µg/g vitamin D₂ on dry weight basis. On the other hand, Salemi *et al.* (2021) [22] reported that the optimal temperature for the generation of 3.81 µg gr⁻¹ of vitamin D per kg was determined to be 27 °C when it is compared with varied temperatures (27 °C, 35 °C, and 43 °C). An investigation done by An investigation done by Zhang *et al.* (2015) [35] the determination of the optimum conditions for the conversion of ergosterol to vitamin D₂ in shitake mushrooms (*Lentinula edodes*) was studied using response surface methodology (RSM). The effects of the three main variables ambient temperature (20, 30, 40, 50o C), exposure time (30, 60, 90, 120, 150 min), and irradiation intensity (0.3, 0.6, 0.9, 1.2, 1.5 W/m²) were investigated. According to the RSM ridge analysis, the optimum conditions were as follows: ambient temperature of 34.2o C, exposure time of 175.6 min, and irradiation intensity of 1.41 W/m². Under these optimum conditions, the maximum vitamin D₂ content of 117.93 µg/g in shitake mushrooms was obtained, which agreed fairly well with the predicted value of 122.60 µg/g.

Effect of exposure time on vitamin D yield

Considering the variable irradiation time, contradicting reports have been published suggesting that longer times did not increase vitamin D₂ levels (Ruslan *et al.*, 2011) [21]. Szabó and Györfi (2012) also reported that shorter irradiation time gave higher vitamin D₂ levels in pre-harvest *A. bisporus* after UV treatment. According to Jasinghe *et al.* (2005) nutritionally significant concentration of vitamin D₂ (10 µg/100 g on fresh weight) in mushroom can also be efficiently attained with a pulsed UV lamp within a very small time period of 1-2 sec. In comparison, it might take several minutes for a UV fluorescent lamp to produce the same amount of vitamin D₂. Pulsed UV may thus be the most effective way to raise the levels of vitamin D₂ in mushrooms. Three pulses of UV light for 1 sec produced 11.9 and nine pulses for 3 sec produced 20 µg D₂/g DM in button mushrooms, respectively. After 12 pulses (4 sec), the maximal amount of vitamin D₂ (27 µg/g DM) was obtained (Kalaras *et al.*, 2012a) [12, 13]. Furthermore, Salemi *et al.* (2020) [22] observed that irradiating mushrooms with UV-B at varied time (15 to 120 min) and temperature (27 °C, 35 °C, and 43 °C) at an intensity of 3.5 W m⁻² had an effect on production of vitamin D₂ from mushrooms. The results demonstrate that extended exposure times up to 90 min gave the highest production of vitamin D₂, while increasing the exposure time up to 120 min decreased the production from 5.10 to 3.60 µg gr⁻¹ after 120 minutes of exposure. As mentioned earlier the study conducted by Zhang *et al.* (2015) [35] the exposure time varied (30, 60, 90, 120, 150 min) shown that at ambient temperature of 34.2 °C, exposure time of 175.6 min, and irradiation intensity of 1.41 W/m² the yield of vitamin D₂ is higher (117.93 µg/g).

Conclusion

Since mushrooms provide nutritionally relevant amounts of B group vitamins and of the minerals selenium, potassium, copper, and zinc, they are a nutritious, low energy-dense food. Currently, some larger commercial mushroom are expose fresh mushrooms to UV radiation. Exposing dried mushrooms to UV-B radiation can also generate nutritionally useful amounts of vitamin D₂, although this practice is not widespread to date. It is conceivable that UV-B radiation

post-harvest (for fresh mushrooms) or post-drying (for dried and powdered mushrooms) could become standard commercial practice. Sunlight, regular UV lamps, and pulsed UV lamps have the capability to raise the vitamin D₂ concentrations to nutritional significance, although pulsed UV lamps may be the most cost-efficient method for commercial production of vitamin D-enhanced mushrooms, because of the low exposure time (often in 1–3 seconds) to achieve good amount of vitamin D. Vitamin D-enhanced mushrooms contain high concentrations of vitamin D₂, which is bioavailable and relatively stable during storage and cooking. Therefore, consumption of vitamin D-enhanced mushrooms could substantially contribute to alleviating the global public health issue of vitamin D deficiency. The factors such as temperature, moisture content, UV radiation type, different irradiation parts and irradiation dose are also influences the yield of vitamin D₂. Further researches are needed to optimize the level of UV radiation required, temperature and other conditions to produce a good amount of vitamin D₂ in mushrooms, along with optimal storage conditions.

References

1. Alves MJ, Ferreira ICFR, Dias J, Teixeira V, Martins A, Pintado M. A review on antimicrobial activity of mushroom extracts and isolated compounds. *Planta Medica*. 2013;78:1707-1718.
2. Bilbao-Sainz C, Chiou BS, Williams T, Wood D, Du WX, Sedej I, McHugh T. Vitamin D-fortified chitosan films from mushroom waste. *Carbohydrate Polymers*. 2017;167:97-104.
3. Cardwell G, Bornman JF, James AP, Black LJ. A review of mushrooms as a potential source of dietary vitamin D. *Nutrients*. 2018;10(10):1498.
4. Carocho M, Ferreira ICFR. A review on antioxidants, prooxidants and related controversy: Natural and synthetic compounds, screening and analysis methodologies and future perspectives. *Food and Chemical Toxicology*. 2013;51:15-25.
5. Chang ST, Miles PG. *Mushrooms: cultivation, nutritional value, medicinal effect, and environmental impact*. CRC press, 2004.
6. Das A, Chen CM, Mu SC, Yang SH, Ju YM, Li SC. Medicinal Components in Edible Mushrooms on Diabetes Mellitus Treatment. *Pharmaceutics*. 2022;14(2):436.
7. Guan W, Zhang J, Yan R, Shao S, Zhou T, Lei J. Effects of UV-C treatment and cold storage on ergosterol and Vitamin D₂ contents in different parts of white and brown mushroom (*Agaricus bisporus*). *Food Chemistry*. 2016;210:129-134.
8. Gupta A. Vitamin D deficiency in India: prevalence, causalities and interventions. *Nutrients*. 2014;6(2):729-775.
9. Harika RK, Eilander A. Health and well-being science review potential benefits of vitamin D Authors. *Health and Well-being Science Review*. 2013;25:1-12.
10. Jasinghe VJ, Perera CO. Ultraviolet irradiation: The generator of Vitamin D₂ in edible mushrooms. *Food Chemistry*. 2006;95:638-643.
11. Jasinghe VJ, Perera CO, Sablani SS. Kinetics of the conversion of ergosterol in edible mushrooms. *Journal of Food Engineering*. 2007;79:864-869.
12. Kalaras MD, Beelman RB, Elias RJ. Effects of

- postharvest pulsed uv light treatment of white button mushrooms (*Agaricus bisporus*) on vitamin D2 content and quality attributes. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*. 2012;60:220-225.
13. Kalaras MD, Beelman RB, Holick MF, Elias RJ. Generation of potentially bioactive ergosterol-derived products following pulsed ultraviolet light exposure of mushrooms (*Agaricus bisporus*). *Food Chemistry*. 2012;135:396-401.
 14. Koyyalamudi SR, Jeong SC, Pang G, Teal A, Biggs T. Concentration of vitamin D2 in white button mushrooms (*Agaricus bisporus*) exposed to pulsed UV light. *Journal of Food Composition and Analysis*. 2011;24:976-979.
 15. Koyyalamudi SR, Jeong SC, Song CH, Cho KY, Pang G. Vitamin D2 formation and bioavailability from *Agaricus bisporus* button mushrooms treated with ultraviolet irradiation. *Journal of Agriculture and Food Chemistry*. 2009;57:3351-3355.
 16. Kristensen HL, Rosenqvist E, Jakobsen J. Increase of vitamin D2 by UV-B exposure during the growth phase of white button mushroom (*Agaricus bisporus*). *Food Nutritional Resources*. 2012;56:7114.
 17. Mau JL, Chen PR, Yang JH. Ultraviolet irradiation increased vitamin D2 content in edible mushrooms. *Journal of Agriculture and Food Chemistry*. 1998;46:5269-5272.
 18. Mithal A, Wahl DA, Bonjour JP, Burckhardt P, Dawson-Hughes B, Eisman JA, *et al.*. Global vitamin D status and determinants of hypovitaminosis D. *Osteoporosis International*. 2009;20:1807-1820.
 19. Phillips KM, Rasor AS. A nutritionally meaningful increase in vitamin D in retail mushrooms is attainable by exposure to sunlight prior to consumption. *Journal of Nutrition*. 2013;3:1.
 20. Roberts JS, Teichert A, McHugh TH. Vitamin D2 formation from postharvest UV-B treatment of mushrooms (*Agaricus bisporus*) and retention during storage. *Journal of Agriculture and Food Chemistry*. 2008;56:4541-4544.
 21. Ruslan K, Reza RA, Damayanti S. Effect of ultraviolet radiation on the formation of ergocalciferol (vitamin D2) in *Pleurotus ostreatus*. *Bionatura-Jurnal Ilmu- Ilmu Hayati Dan Fisik*. 2011;13:255-261.
 22. Salemi S, Saedisomeolia A, Azimi F, Zolfigol S, Mohajerani E, Mohammadi M, *et al.* Optimizing the production of vitamin D in white button mushrooms (*Agaricus bisporus*) using ultraviolet radiation and measurement of its stability. *LWT*. 2021;137:110401.
 23. Sapozhnikova Y, Byrdwell WC, Lobato A, Romig B. Effects of UV-B radiation levels on concentrations of phytosterols, ergothioneine, and polyphenolic compounds in mushroom powders used as dietary supplements. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*. 2014;62:3034-3042.
 24. Simon RR, Phillips KM, Horst RL, Munro IC. Vitamin D mushrooms: Comparison of the composition of button mushrooms (*Agaricus bisporus*) treated postharvest with UVB light or sunlight. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*. 2011;59:8724-8732.
 25. Slawinska A, Fornal E, Radzki W, Skrzypczak K, Zalewska-Korona M, Michalak-Majewska M, Stachniuk A. Study on Vitamin D2 stability in dried mushrooms during drying and storage. *Food Chemistry*. 2016;199:203-209.
 26. Taofiq O, Calhella RC, Heleno S, Barros L, Martins A, Santos-Buelga C, Ferreira ICFR. The contribution of phenolic acids to the anti-inflammatory activity of mushrooms: Screening in phenolic extracts, individual parent molecules and synthesized glucuronated and methylated derivatives. *Food Research International*. 2015;76:821-827.
 27. Taofiq O, Fernandes A, Barros L, Barreiro MF, Ferreira IC. UV-irradiated mushrooms as a source of vitamin D2: A review. *Trends in Food Science & Technology*. 2017;70:82-94.
 28. Taofiq O, González-Paramás AM, Martins A, Barreiro MF, Ferreira ICFR. Mushrooms extracts and compounds in cosmetics, cosmeceuticals and nutraceuticals- A review. *Industrial Crops and Products*. 2016;90:38-48.
 29. Teichmann A, Dutta PC, Staffas A, Jägerstad M. Sterol and vitamin D2 concentrations in cultivated and wild grown mushrooms: Effects of UV irradiation. *LWT - Food Science and Technology*. 2007;40:815-822.
 30. Urbain P, Jakobsen J. Dose-Response effect of sunlight on vitamin D2 production in *Agaricus bisporus* mushrooms. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*. 2015;63:8156-8161.
 31. Urbain P, Valverde J, Jakobsen J. Impact on vitamin D2, vitamin D4 and agaritine in *Agaricus bisporus* mushrooms after artificial and natural solar UV light exposure. *Plant Food for Human Nutrition*. 2016;71:314-321.
 32. Van der Meer IM, Middelkoop BJ, Boeke AJ, Lips P. Prevalence of vitamin D deficiency among Turkish, Moroccan, Indian and sub-Saharan African populations in Europe and their countries of origin: An overview. *Osteoporosis International*. 2011;22:1009-1021.
 33. Van Schoor NM, Lips P. Worldwide Vitamin D Status. *Best Pract. Res. Clin. Endocrinol. Metab.* 25: 671-680. -ake mushrooms (*Lentinula edodes*) by using response surface methodology. *Journal of Applied Biological Chemistry*. 2011;58:25-29.
 34. Wu WJ, Ahn BY. Statistical optimization of ultraviolet irradiate conditions for Vitamin D2 synthesis in oyster mushrooms (*Pleurotus ostreatus*) using response surface methodology. *PLoS One*. 2014;9:1-7.
 35. Zhang Y, Wu WJ, Song GS, Ahn BY. Optimization of ultraviolet irradiate conditions for vitamin D2 synthesis in shitake mushrooms (*Lentinula edodes*) by using response surface methodology. *Journal of Applied Biological Chemistry*. 2015;58:25-29.