

Mushroom poisonings

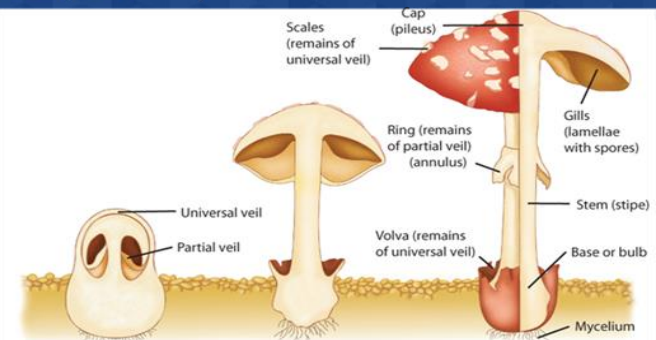
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created ppt by MUCD

- Mushroom species vary widely regard to xenobiotics they contain
- Identifying them with certainty difficult
- Clinical system of classification more useful

- **Conflicts of Interest Disclosure:**
No Conflicts of Interest to declare
- This lecture for health education only



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Mushrooms Identification

- Visualizing and analyzing the gross, microscopic, chemical characteristics of the ingested mushroom: infrequently used
- The diagnosis: based on the clinical presentation
- Best to **rely on symptomatology**, not mushroom appearances, to confirm a diagnosis
- No rapidly available studies in EDs or clinical chemistry laboratories available to assist with management



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- The toxicology of any species: vary depending on geographic location
- Staining of silver, presence of insects or slugs, peeling off the mushroom cap, the area of mushroom growth: unreliable or false
- If toxicity is suspected, attempt to obtain samples of the mushrooms eaten, and identify
- Rule out infections or other diseases



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- Cooking may inactivate some xenobiotics but not others
- Only some people who ate mushroom manifested characteristic toxicity should not exclude the diagnosis of mushroom poisoning
- One person may show significant effects, whereas others may be asymptomatic are ingesting the same mushroom
- Mushroom allergy can manifest as an anaphylactic reaction
- Most poisonous mushrooms resemble edible mushrooms at some phase of their growth



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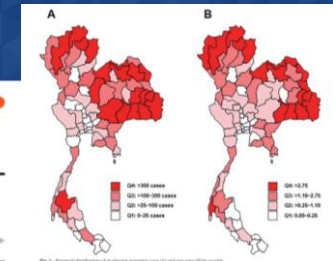
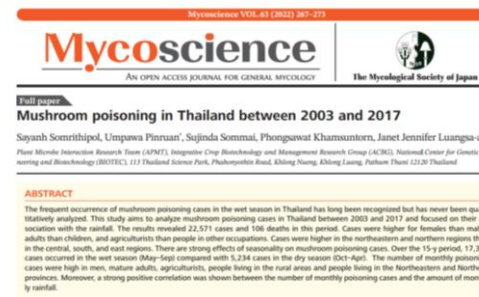


Fig. 1. Seasonal distribution of mushroom poisoning cases (A) and case severity (B) by region.

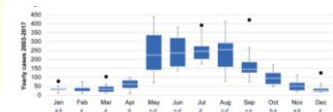


Fig. 2. Box plot diagram showing the number and quality of monthly poisoning cases and deaths of males and females in 15 years from 2003 to 2017. The number of monthly poisoning cases was significantly different from the number of monthly poisoning cases in the dry season (Oct–April) compared with the wet season (May–Sept) (p < 0.001). The number of monthly poisoning cases was significantly different from the number of monthly poisoning cases in the dry season (Oct–April) compared with the wet season (May–Sept) (p < 0.001). The number of monthly poisoning cases was significantly different from the number of monthly poisoning cases in the dry season (Oct–April) compared with the wet season (May–Sept) (p < 0.001).

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Grouping by Onset

- Muscarine Containing Mushrooms
- Ibotenic Acid and Muscimol Containing Mushrooms
- Coprine Containing Mushrooms
- Psilocybin Containing Mushrooms
- GI Toxin Containing Mushrooms

➔ **Acute**
Onset < 5 hours

- Rhabdomyolysis Associated Mushrooms

➔ **Onset ??**

- Cyclopeptide Containing Mushrooms
- Gyromitrin Containing Mushrooms

➔ **Delayed**
Onset ≥ 5 hours

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TABLE 117-1 Mushroom Toxicity Overview

Representative Genus/Species	Xenobiotic	Time of Onset of Symptoms	Primary Site of Toxicity	Clinical Findings	Mortality	Specific Therapy*
I <i>Amanita phalloides</i> , <i>A. bisporifera</i> , <i>A. virosa</i> <i>Galerina autumnalis</i> , <i>G. marginata</i> , <i>G. venenata</i> <i>Coprinus (monarda)</i> , <i>L. terebinthi</i>	Cyclosporins Amatoxins Phallotoxins	5–24 h	Liver	Phase I: GI toxicity— N/V/D Phase II: Quiescent Phase III: N/V/D, jaundice, ↑ ALT, ↑ AST, ↑ Bilirubin	30%	Potential benefit only Activated charcoal Hemoperfusion/hemodialysis Sibosans Polypropyl Potential benefit late if acetylcysteine
II <i>Gyromitra esculenta</i> , <i>G. esculetia</i> , <i>G. infusa</i>	Gyromitrin (metabolite: monomethylhydrazine)	5–10 h	CNS	Seizures, abdominal pain, N/E weakness, hepatomegaly	Rare	Benzodiazepines, pyridoxine 70 mg/kg IV (max 5 g)
III <i>Clitocybe dealbata</i> , <i>Clitocybe olivaria</i> , most <i>Psilocybe</i> spp. <i>Inhalea extrusoides</i>	Muscarine	0.5–2 h	Autonomic nervous system	Peripheral muscarinic effects— salivation, bradycardia, lacrimation, urination, defecation, diaphoresis	Rare	Atropine—Adults: 1–2 mg Children: 0.02 mg/kg with a maximum of 0.1 mg
IV <i>Coprinus atramentarius</i> , <i>C. atripes</i>	Coprine (metabolite: 1-aminocyclopropanol)	0.5–2 h	Aldehyde dehydrogenase	Disulfiram-like effect with ethanol, tachycardia, N/E, flushing	Rare	Antiemetics Fluid resuscitation Fomepizole for refractory toxicity
V <i>Amanita gemmata</i> , <i>A. muscaria</i> , <i>A. pantherina</i> , <i>Tricholoma muscarium</i>	Ibotenic acid, muscimol	0.5–2 h	CNS	GABAergic effects, core delirium, hallucinations, dizziness, ataxia	Rare	Benzodiazepines during exci- tatory phase
VI <i>Psilocybe cyanescens</i> , <i>P. cubensis</i> <i>Gymnopilus spectabilis</i> , <i>Psathyrella versicolor</i>	Psilocybin, psilocin	0.5–1 h	CNS	Ataxia, N/E hyperkinesia, hallucina- tions, euphoria	Rare	Benzodiazepines for agitation

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VII <i>Clitocybe nebularis</i> , <i>Chlorophyllum molybdites</i> , <i>C. esculentum</i> , <i>Lactarius</i> spp., <i>Psilocybe involutus</i>	Various GI irritants	0.3–3 h	GI	Malaise, N/V/D	Rare	Symptomatic care
VIII <i>Cortinarius orellanus</i> , <i>C. orellanus</i> , <i>C. geminus</i>	Orellanine, orellinine	>1 d–weeks	Kidney	Phase I: N/V Phase II: Oliguria, Acute kidney injury	Rare	Hemodialysis for acute kidney injury
IX <i>Amanita smithiana</i> , <i>A. proxima</i> , <i>A. pseudoporphyria</i>	Allenic norfoscine	0.5–12 h	Kidney	Phase I: N/V Phase II: Oliguria, Acute kidney injury	None	Hemodialysis for acute kidney injury
X <i>Tricholoma equestre</i> (Europe) <i>Russula subnigriceps</i> (Japan, China)	Cycloprop-2- enecarboxylic acid	24–72 h	Muscle (skeletal and cardiac)	Fatigue, nausea, vomiting, muscle weakness, myalgias, ↑ CK, facial ery- thema, diaphoresis, myocarditis	10%	Sodium bicarbonate, hemodialy- sis for acute kidney injury
XI <i>Toxigo venenata</i>	28-amino-4,5-hydroxy- 5-hexynoic acid	1–5 d	Cardiac and skeletal muscle	Tachycardia, GI symptoms, myalgias, tremor, seizures, dizziness, weakness, syncope, palpitations, ventricular fibrillation	High?	Intensive care monitoring
<i>Amanita franchetii</i> <i>Amanita rubescens</i>		2–15 h 2–15 h				

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TABLE 117-1 Mushroom Toxicity Overview (Continued)

Representative Genus/Species	Xenobiotic	Time of Onset of Symptoms	Primary Site of Toxicity	Clinical Findings	Mortality	Specific Therapy*
XII <i>Clitocybe acromelalga</i> , <i>C. amoenulens</i>	Acromelic acids	24 h	Peripheral nervous system	Erythromelalgia paresthesias— hands and feet, dysesthesias, erythema, edema	None	Symptomatic care
XIII <i>Plasmodium parvum</i>	Unknown	1–31 d	CNS	Encephalopathy, convulsions, myoc- lonus in patients with chronic kidney failure	High (30%)	Hemodialysis
<i>Haploporia rotifera</i>	Polyporic acid	>12 h	GI, CNS	N/V, abdominal pain, vertigo, ataxia, drowsiness, encephalopathy	None	Symptomatic care
XIV <i>Psilocybe involutus</i> , <i>Clitocybe claviceps</i> ? <i>Bolus formosus</i> ?	Involutin	Following repeated exposure 0.5–3 h	Red blood cell, kidney	Hemolytic anemia, acute kidney injury	Rare	Hemodialysis
XV <i>Cystogaster perlatum</i> , <i>L. griffithii</i> , <i>L. gemmatum</i>	Spores	Hours	Pulmonary, GI	Cough, shortness of breath, fever, nausea, vomiting	None	Corticosteroids

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TABLE 220-1 Mushrooms: Symptoms, Toxicity, and Treatment			
Symptoms	Mushrooms	Toxicity	Treatment
GI symptoms			
Onset <2 h	<i>Chlorophyllum molybdites</i> <i>Empetrum flavescens</i> <i>Cantharellus cibarius</i> <i>Amanita caesarea</i>	Nausea, vomiting, diarrhea (occasionally bloody)	IV hydration Antiemetics
Onset 6–24 h	<i>Gyromitra esculenta</i> <i>Amanita phalloides</i> <i>Amanita hepaticus</i>	Initial: nausea, vomiting, diarrhea Day 2: rise in AST, ALT levels Day 3: hepatic failure	IV hydration, glucose; monitor AST, ALT, bilirubin, BUN, and creatinine levels; prothrombin time, partial thromboplastin time For <i>Amanita</i> : multiple-dose activated charcoal Consider <i>N</i> -acetylcysteine 150 milligrams/kg loading dose (see text) Consider penicillin G, 200,000–1,000,000 units/kg/d Silymarin, 20–40 milligrams/kg/d, where available Consider ornithine, 4–10 grams/d Consider transfer to a center with active liver transplant program (see text)
Muscarinic syndrome Onset <30 min	<i>Inocybe</i> <i>Clitocybe</i>	SIUDS syndrome (salivation, lacrimation, urination, defecation, GI hypermotility, and emesis)	Supportive; atropine, 0.02 milligram/kg (minimum dose 0.1 milligram, maximum dose 1 milligram), repeated as needed for severe secretions
OIS excitement Onset <30 min	<i>Amanita muscaria</i> <i>Amanita pantherina</i>	Intoxication, dizziness, ataxia, visual disturbances, seizures, tachycardia, hypertension, warm dry skin, dry mouth, mydriasis (anticholinergic effects)	Supportive; sedation with benzodiazepines (e.g., lorazepam 0.05 milligram/kg, maximum dose 4 milligrams)
Hallucinations Onset <30 min	<i>Psilocybe</i> <i>Gymnopilus</i>	Visual hallucinations, ataxia	Supportive; sedation with benzodiazepines; external cooling
Disulfiram reaction 2–72 h after mushroom, and <30 min after alcohol	<i>Coprinus</i>	Headache, flushing, tachycardia, hyperventilation, shortness of breath, palpitations	Supportive; IV hydration, β -blockers for supraventricular tachycardia Norepinephrine for refractory hypotension
Renal compromise	<i>Cortinarius</i> spp <i>Amanita umbonata</i>	GI symptoms initially, followed by flank pain, polyuria, anuria	Supportive; monitor urine output, renal status, delayed renal transplant; IV hydration β -Blockers for supraventricular tachycardia Norepinephrine for refractory hypotension
Dermatitis 1–2 d after ingestion	Shitake	Whip-like, linear, erythematous wheals, blanching erythematous patches, scattered petechiae, pruritus	Oral antihistamines, 0.1% triamcinolone ointment twice daily; spontaneously resolves within 1–3 wk

Abbreviations: ALT = alanine aminotransferase; AST = aspartate aminotransferase.

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Grouping by Onset

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- Psilocybin Containing Mushrooms
- GI Toxin Containing Mushrooms

➡ **Acute Onset < 5 hours**

- **Rhabdomyolysis Associated Mushrooms**

➡ **Onset ??**

- **Cyclopeptide Containing Mushrooms**
- Gyromitrin Containing Mushrooms

➡ **Delayed Onset \geq 5 hours**

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Cyclopeptide Containing Mushrooms

- Amanita species: *A. verna*, *A. virosa*, and *A. phalloides*; *Galerina* spp: *G. autumnalis*, *G. marginata*, and *G. venenata*; *Lepiota* species: *L. helveola*, *L. josserandi*, *L. brunneoincarnata*
- Delayed onset: typical and critical consideration in assessing

α -Amanitin

เห็ดไข่ตายซากหรือเห็ดระงอกหิน (*Amanita verna* และ *Amanita virosa*)

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เห็ดระงอกข้าวพึช

เห็ดระงอกข้าวพึช

- 1 มีรวมเห็ดตุซรูระมีตะกิด หลานสีขาว
- 2 ไม่พบวีที่ซ่อนเห็ดระงอกข้าวพึช
- 3 ก้นเห็ดหลุดแนว

อาการ

เห็ดระงอกข้าวพึช (toxin) ที่อุดมด้วย Amanitin เป็นพิษ สาเหตุการตาย 6-24 ชั่วโมง อาการที่สังเกตได้มีดังนี้ ๑. ระยะที่ ๑ อาการชาที่ปลายนิ้วมือและนิ้วเท้า และอาจมีไข้ ปวดกล้ามเนื้อและข้อต่อ ปวดศีรษะ ๐.๑ มิลลิกรัมต่อน้ำหนักตัว ๑ กิโลกรัม (เทียบกับการบริโภคเห็ดพิษขนาดประมาณ ๑ กรัม) จะสามารถทำให้เกิดอาการได้ ๒. ระยะที่ ๒ อาการคลื่นไส้ อาเจียน ท้องเสีย ๓. ระยะที่ ๓ อาการปวดกล้ามเนื้อและข้อต่อ ปวดศีรษะ ๔. ระยะที่ ๔ อาการชักเกร็งตัว

เห็ดระงอกข้าวพึช: เห็ดที่มีพิษมากที่สุดในประเทศไทย พบในป่าดงดิบชื้น

เห็ดระงอกข้าวพึช

(*Amanita brunneitoxicaria*)
Thongbai, Raspe & K.D. Hyde

- 1 ดอกเห็ดที่มีสีขาวที่โคนของก้านเห็ด
- 2 กว้างของดอกเห็ดมีสีขาวและขอบด้านนอกมีสีน้ำตาล
- 3 ก้นของดอกเห็ดมีสีขาวและหลุดออกมา

เห็ดระงอกข้าวพึช: เห็ดที่มีพิษมากที่สุดในประเทศไทย พบในป่าดงดิบชื้น

<https://gnews.apps.go.th/news?news=42188>



- A. phalloides: 15-20 cyclopeptides
- Amatoxins, phallotoxins, virotoxins
- Phallotoxin: causing early GI symptoms
- Amatoxins: the most toxic, 9 amatoxins identified, but α -amanitin appears the most physiologically active
- Amanitins: highly bioavailability, rapidly absorbed from the GI tract
- Heat stable
- A 20-g mushroom contains > of 0.1 mg/kg amanitin considered lethal for humans

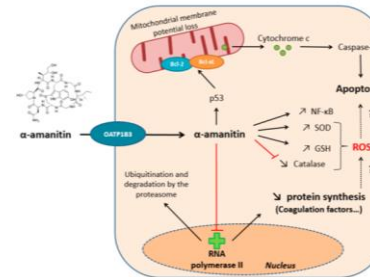


Figure 2. Main toxic mechanisms of amanitins within hepatocytes.

- Amatoxins are excreted in large quantities in the urine (80 to 90% of the dose is found unchanged) during the first 72 h of intoxication



- Amatoxins: limited protein binding, in the plasma for 24-48 hours
- α -Amanitin hepatocellular entry: facilitated by a sodium-dependent bile acid transporter
- Sodium taurocholate cotransporter polypeptide, a member of organic anion–transporter polypeptide **OAT polypeptide family**, in the sinusoidal membranes of human hepatocytes, facilitates hepatocellular α -amanitin uptake
- Inside the cells, **interference with RNA polymerase II**, preventing the transcription of DNA, suppressing protein synthesis, resulting in cell death



- α -Amanitin: **enterohepatically** recirculated
- Target organs: the highest rate of cell turnover; **GI tract epithelium, hepatocytes, kidneys**
- Amatoxins: not appear to cross the placenta, absence of fetal toxicity in severely poisoned pregnant women

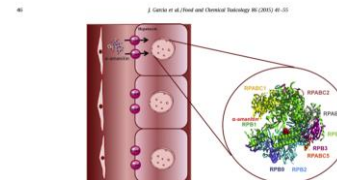


Fig. 4. Schematic model of α -amanitin transport and main toxic mechanism in hepatocytes. α -Amanitin accumulation occurs in the liver upon uptake via an organic anion transporter (OAT) on the sinusoidal membrane of hepatocytes. Once in the cytoplasm, α -amanitin binds to RNA polymerase II causing inhibition of transcription. α -Amanitin binding site is located in the surface of RPB12 subunit.

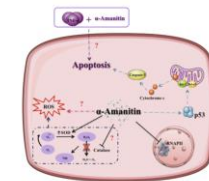


Fig. 5. Schematic pathway involved in the hepatocellular toxicity of α -amanitin. α -Amanitin accumulation occurs in the liver upon uptake via an organic anion transporter (OAT) on the sinusoidal membrane of hepatocytes. Once in the cytoplasm, α -amanitin binds to RNA polymerase II causing inhibition of transcription. α -Amanitin binding site is located in the surface of RPB12 subunit.



Clinical

Phase I: severe gastroenteritis, with profuse watery diarrhea not occurring until 5-24 hours after ingestion

- Typically considered: **onset of symptoms < 5 hours** strong support for another **non-Amanita species** cause

Phase II: Supportive fluid and electrolyte replacement leads to transient improvement during phase II, occurs 12-36 hours

- Initial hepatotoxicity begins within the 2nd phase



Phase III: hepatic and renal toxicity and death, 2-6 days after ingestion

- Clinical hepatotoxicity with elevated bilirubin, AST, ALT, hypoglycemia, jaundice, hepatic coma
- Until 2-3 days after ingestion
- Pathologic: steatosis, central zonal necrosis, centrilobular hemorrhage, viable hepatocytes remaining at the rims of the larger triads
- Endocrine abnormalities: hormones that regulate glucose, calcium, thyroid homeostasis



Table 2 Clinical Phases of Amatoxin Poisoning.

Phases	Onset from ingestion	Symptoms and signs
Stage 1.	Lag phase 0-24 h	Asymptomatic
Stage 2.	Gastrointestinal phase 6-24 h	Nausea, vomiting, crampy abdominal pain, and severe secretory diarrhea
Stage 3.	Apparent convalescence 24-72 h	Asymptomatic, worsening of hepatic and renal function indices
Stage 4.	Acute liver failure 4-9 days	Hepatic and renal failure → multi-organ failure → death

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- Acute liver injury: a moderately severe coagulopathy (**INR \geq 2**), presumed onset of acute illness < 26 weeks, absence of cirrhosis
- Acute liver failure: the presence of **hepatic encephalopathy** of any degree evidence of moderately severe coagulopathy (**INR \geq 1.5**) presumed onset of illness of < 26 weeks absence of cirrhosis



Treatment

- Fluid and electrolyte repletion:** IV 0.9% sodium chloride, electrolytes, dextrose repletion
- Multiple Dose Activated charcoal** 1 g/kg orally every 2 to 4 hours or by continuous nasogastric infusion
- Continuous nasogastric duodenal aspiration: inadequate clinical data to support gastroduodenal or biliary drainage
- Penicillin G** 1 g/kg (I g = 1,600,000 Units):
 - displacing α -amanitin from albumin, blocking its uptake from hepatocytes, binding circulating amatoxins, preventing α -amanitin binding to RNA polymerase.

- **The active complex of milk thistle** (*Silybum marianum*): silymarin, 3 isomeric flavonolignans: silibinin, silychristin, silydianin
- Silibinin, a mixture of Silibinin A and B
 - competitively inhibits the organic anion transporter (OATP1B3)
 - responsible for the uptake and enterohepatic recycling of α -amanitin
 - diminishes α -amanitin enterohepatic circulation
- Currently, an amatoxin poisoning clinical trial utilizing Legalon SIL (Silibinin) at 20 mg/kg/day IV

- **N-acetylcysteine**: hepatoprotective effects
- Cimetidine (a potent CYP2C9/2D6 inhibitor): hepatoprotective effect against α -amanitin
- Forced diuresis, hemodialysis, plasmapheresis, hemofiltration, hemoperfusion: may be effective shortly after ingestion, but most neither clinical evidence of benefit nor supportive pharmacokinetic data for these therapies
- Extracorporeal albumin dialysis, **molecular adsorbent recirculating system (MARS)**, fractionated plasma separation and adsorption system (FPSA; Prometheus system)

Statistical Analysis of Amatoxin-Poisoning Therapies

#		No. LTI	No. LTe	MRLTi (%)	MRLTe (%)
Applied therapies					
1	BpThioca	207	207	16.9	16.9
2	BpwSilybTriPoly	299	297	15.4	14.8
3	BpSter	95	95	14.7	14.7
4	Bp	164	163	11.6	11.0
5	Detox alone	385	379	10.4	9.0
6	BpantiOx	111	110	9.1	8.2
7	NAC	89	89	6.7	6.7
8	BpSilyb	391	382	8.2	6.0
9	BpSilybTriPoly	151	148	7.3	5.4
10	Silyb	74	71	5.4	1.4
11	Supportive measures alone	91	85	47.3	43.5
Pooled therapies					
12	Bp/Silybin combinations (8, 9)	542	530	7.9	5.8
13	Combined nine chemotherapies (1–4, 6–10 above)	1586	1,567	11.2	10.1
14	Combined 10 specific therapies (1–10 above)	2062	2,031	12.6	11.3
15	Bp bi-chemotherapies without Silybin (1, 3, 6)	413	412	14.3	14.1
16	Combined three worst chemotherapies (1–3)	601	599	15.8	15.5

No. LTI = number of patients including liver transplants; No. LTe = number of patients excluding liver transplants; MRLTi = mortality rate including liver transplants; MRLTe = mortality rate excluding liver transplants.

F Enjalbert et al, 2002

Amatoxin poisoning treatment decision-making: Pharmaco-therapeutic clinical strategy assessment using multidimensional multivariate statistic analysis

Patrick Fouchereau^{a,*}, Françoise Fons^b, Jean Christophe Doré^c, Didier Michelot^{d,e}, Sylvie Kaprielian^f

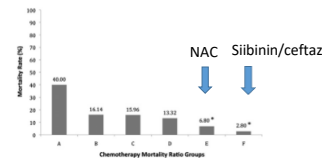


Fig. 1. Pooled mortality rate associated with statistically stratified chemotherapy groups. Group A (antibiotics and thiazic acid), group C (methylprednisolone, inositol/growth hormone and corticosteroids), group D (benzoylphenilalanine, vitamin C, cimetidine and antiemetic agents), group E (N-acetylcysteine), group F (silybin/ceftazidime). (*Stands for statistic significance).



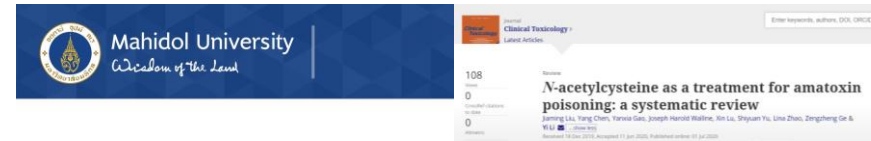
Fig. 2. Factorial map of chemotherapy classes associated with incidence on patient survival rate after multidimensional statistic analysis. Therapies with statistically positive impact on amatoxin poisoning are located in the 9th positive quadrant, neutral therapies are located in the center of the map, treatments with no or hepatoprotective effects are negatively located in the lower part and the 5th right corner of the factorial map. Number of clinical cases per therapy: Group A (thiazic acid) 21 patients, group B (antibiotics) 43 patients and thiazic acid 409 patients, group C (methylprednisolone) 138 patients, inositol/growth hormone 189 patients, methylprednisolone 468 patients, group D (benzoylphenilalanine, vitamin C, cimetidine, antiemetic agents) 21 patients and antiemetic agents 18 patients, group E (N-acetylcysteine) 82 patients, group F (silybin/ceftazidime) 12 patients.

- Potential benefit early**
- Activated charcoal
 - Hemoperfusion/hemodialysis
 - Silibinin
 - Polymyxin B
- Potential benefit late**
- N-acetylcysteine



Table 1. Clinical efficacy data of the main antidotes used in the management of *Amanita phalloides* poisoning in humans. Patient survival rates are associated with various drug classes after multidimensional statistical analysis.

Empiric Therapeutic Strategy	Molecules	Putative Mechanism of Action	Associated Mortality Rate (11.6% Average Mortality)	References
First-line	Silibinin (alone or in combination) (n = 624)	Inhibitor of the OATP1B3 transporter Antioxidant effects/Anti-inflammatory effects Tissue repair	5.6%	[39,41]
	N-acetylcysteine (n = 192)	Antioxidant effects	6.8%	
	Ceftazidime (combined with silibinin) Positive impact on a small number of patients (n = 12); interest to be demonstrated on larger samples	OATP1B3 transporter inhibitor	0%	
Second-line If first-line treatments are not available	Benzylpenicillin alone or in combination (n = 1411)		10.7%	
	Vitamin E (n = 25)		40%	
Interest still to be demonstrated No positive impact on care or deleterious impact on patient survival observed in a small number of patients	Vitamin C (n = 60), cisplatin (n = 21), thiazic acid (n = 450)	Antioxidant effects		
	Gentamycin, neomycin, streptomycin, vancomycin, clindamycin (n = 43 in the entire group)	Unknown	12–20.3%	
	Insulin + growth hormone (n = 69), insulin + glucagon (n = 128)	Stimulation of the hepatic metabolism	16%	
	Steroids (n = 459)	Anti-inflammatory		



- Introduction:** Amatoxin leads to the majority of deaths by mushroom poisoning around the world. Amatoxin causes gastrointestinal disturbances and multiple organ dysfunction, including liver and renal failure. As a potential treatment for amatoxin poisoning, *N*-acetylcysteine (NAC) has been used for decades but its benefit is still unproven.
- Objectives:** We undertook a systematic review to evaluate the performance and safety of *N*-acetylcysteine on patients suffering amatoxin intoxication.
- Methods:** We searched Pubmed, EMBASE, CENTRAL and SinoMed databases, from inception to August 31, 2019. Articles were eligible if there were five or more patients with amatoxin poisoning and *N*-acetylcysteine was included in the therapeutic regimen. Mortality rate including liver transplant cases (MRLT) was the primary outcome. Mortality rate not including liver transplant cases, liver and renal function, clinical complications, as well as any adverse reactions to intravenous NAC were secondary outcomes.
- Results:** Thirteen studies with a total of 506 patients were included. The MRLT of amatoxin-poisoning patients with NAC treatment was 11% (57/506), and a MRLT of 7.9% (40/506) and a liver transplantation rate of 4.3% (22/506). Transaminase concentrations generally peaked around 3 days after ingestion, prothrombin time/International Normalized Ratio (PT/INR) generally worsened during the first 3–4 days after ingestion before returning to normal four to 7 days after ingestion, and Factor V levels normalized in about 4–5 days after ingestion in patients treated with NAC. Renal failure was reported in 3% (3/101) and acute kidney injury was reported in 19% (5/27). Gastrointestinal bleeding occurred in 21% (15/71). Anaphylactoid reactions were the principle adverse reaction to NAC treatment in amatoxin-poisoning patients with an incidence of 5% (4/73).
- Conclusions:** NAC treatment combined with other therapies appears to be beneficial and safe in patients with amatoxin poisoning. Until further data emerge, it is reasonable to use NAC in addition to other treatments for amatoxin poisoning.



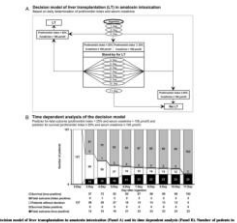
Polymyxin B:

- In silico study, significant **chemical similarities and molecular dynamics** that successfully competed at the same interface and displaced α -amanitin from binding sites with RNA polymerase II
- Potential to protect RNA polymerase II from inactivation, preventing hepatic injury leading to survival
- All patients who have ingested amatoxin- or gyromitrin-containing mushrooms (or suspected) should be closely monitored for 48 hours for the development of hepatic and renal failure (Tintin 9th ed)



Liver transplantation: the criteria and timing

- Criteria for selection: essential to avoid unnecessary risk while offering the potential for survival to appropriate candidates
- Consider for encephalopathic patients with prolonged INRs (INRs > 6), persistent hypoglycemia, metabolic acidosis, increased serum ammonia and AST, hypofibrinogenemia
- Rapidly transferred to liver transplantation center





Indications for liver transplant

- Clichy
- King's College criteria
- Ganzert
- Escudié

- Escudié's criteria show the best accuracy for emergency liver transplant in ALF induced by *A. phalloides*

Ferreira R, Romãozinho JM, Amaro P, Ferreira M, Sofia C. Assessment of emergency liver transplantation criteria in acute liver failure due to *Amanita phalloides*. Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol. 2011 Nov;23(12):1226-32.



Objective: This study was designed to determine the fatality rate of suspected cyclopeptide-containing mushroom ingestions reported to the National Poison Data System (NPDS).
Background: Although silibinin reportedly improves survival in suspected cyclopeptide-containing mushroom ingestions, the greater than 20% untreated fatality rate that is often cited is based on decades-old data. An ongoing open-label silibinin trial will likely use historical cases as comparators. A recent single poison control center (PCC) study showed a fatality rate of 8.3%. This study was designed to validate those findings in the NPDS.
Methods: This study was an 11-year (1/1/2008-12/31/2018) retrospective review of suspected cyclopeptide-containing mushroom ingestions reported to NPDS. Inclusion and exclusion criteria were the same as the ongoing silibinin trial: Age >2-years-old; history of eating foraged mushrooms; gastrointestinal symptoms within 48 h of mushroom ingestion; and aminotransferases above the upper limit of normal within 48 h after ingestion. Each original participating PCC confirmed eligibility, diagnosis, treatment, and outcome on included cases.
Results: During the study period, 8,953 mushroom exposures were reported to NPDS, of which 296 met inclusion criteria. The PCC survey response rate was 60% (28/47 PCCs), and the individual case response rate was 59% (174/296). Twenty-six cases were subsequently excluded leaving 148 included cases. The overall mortality rate was 8.8% (13/148). **Mortality in silibinin/silymarin-treated vs untreated cases was 9.5% (4/42), vs 8.5% (9/106), respectively.** A mycologist identified mushrooms in 16.9% of cases (25/148), of which 80% (20/25) were cyclopeptide-containing. Among these confirmed cases, the mortality rate was 10% (1/10) in both silibinin/silymarin-treated and untreated cases.
Conclusions: **The contemporary mortality rate of patients with presumed cyclopeptide-mushroom poisoning is only 8.8%.** This likely represents improved supportive care for patients with acute liver injury and should be considered the current standard for historical controls in the United States



Clinical characteristics and outcome of toxicity from Amanita mushroom poisoning

Objective: To describe and analyze the clinical characteristics and outcome of amanita poisoning cases.
Methods: We performed a retrospective cohort study of amanita poisoning cases from Ramathubol Poison Center Toxic Exposure Surveillance System, from May 2013 to August 2015.
Results: There were 30 consultations with a total of 55 poisoning cases. Most cases were male and from the north-east region. Hepatitis, acute kidney injury, jaundice, and coagulopathy accounted for 74%, 46.3%, 44.7%, and 52.8% of the cases, respectively. Almost all of the patients were admitted to the hospital, and the median duration of hospital stay was found to be 4 days. Mortality rate was found to be 27.3%. Most patients (77%) received the treatment including multiple-dose activated charcoal (87.5%), intravenous N-acetylcysteine (87.5%), and benzylpenicillin (45%). In 100% of the cases, the treatment was initiated within 24 h after eating mushrooms. Exchange transfusion and liver transplantation were performed in one severe case. However, this patient died eventually. Because intravenous albumin is not available in Thailand during the study period, 8 patients received oral silymarin instead. All 8 patients had hepatitis and were treated with high dosage of oral silymarin (1 patient with 4.8 g/day, 2 patients with 1.68 g/day, and 1 patient with 1.4 g/day) for a couple of days. One of these patients died as she received treatment very late; she was treated with silymarin at 1.68 g/day dosage. Thus, the fatality in oral silymarin treatment group was 12.5%. We performed the analysis between the dead and survival groups. We found that in hepatitis, initial and maximum serum aspartate transaminase, initial and maximum serum alanine transaminase, and acute kidney injury were significantly different between the two groups.
Conclusion: Amanita mushroom poisoning caused high fatalities. Serum transaminase and creatinine were the factors associated with death. Treatment with oral high dose silymarin should be investigated further as one of the principal therapies in amanita poisoning.
Keywords: amanita, clinical characteristics, outcome, treatment, silymarin

Mortality rate: 27.3%

Table 1 Baseline characteristics of the patients

Characteristics	Number of patients
Gender	
Male	28 (50.9%)
Female	27 (49.1%)
Age (year), mean ± SD	43.85 ± 21.65
Region	
North/east	39 (71%)
North	7 (12.7%)
West	6 (10.9%)
East	2 (3.6%)
Central	1 (1.8%)
Underlying diseases	
No	46 (83.6%)
Yes	9 (16.4%)
The onset of GI symptoms after consuming mushrooms (hours), median (min-max)	9 (0.5-24)
Time between consumption of mushrooms and hospital admission (51 cases)	
Within 24 hours	19 (37.3%)
More than 24 hours	32 (62.7%)
Admitted to the hospital	
Yes	51 (92.7%)
No	4 (7.3%)

Abbreviations: SD, standard deviation; GI, gastrointestinal; min, minimum; max, maximum.

Table 2 The clinical features of the patients during the hospitalization

Clinical features (total cases recorded)	Number of patients (%)
Hepatitis (50 cases)	37 (74%)
AKI (54 cases)	25 (46.3%)
Jaundice (47 cases)	21 (44.7%)
Coagulopathy (36 cases)	19 (52.8%)
Elevated indirect bilirubin (>50% of total) (48 cases)	13 (27%)
Bleeding (all had GI bleeding) (53 cases)	12 (22.6%)
Hepatic encephalopathy (53 cases)	11 (20.8%)

Abbreviations: AKI, acute kidney injury; GI, gastrointestinal.

Table 4 The mortalities based on the mode of treatment for the patients

Mode of treatment (total cases treated)	Number of deaths (%)
Supportive therapy only (15 cases)	3 (20%)
The treatment regimen	
MDAC in the regimen (27 cases)	5 (18.5%)
NAC in the regimen (35 cases)	12 (34.3%)
Pen G in the regimen (18 cases)	4 (22.2%)
Oral silymarin in the regimen (8 cases)	1 (12.5%)
Single therapy	
NAC alone (7 cases)	4 (57.1%)
Oral silymarin alone (1 case)	0 (0%)
MDAC alone (1 case)	0 (0%)
Double therapy	
MDAC + NAC (7 cases)	3 (42.9%)
MDAC + Pen G (2 cases)	0 (0%)
NAC + Pen G (3 cases)	3 (100%)
Oral silymarin + NAC (2 cases)	0 (0%)
Triple and quadruple therapy	
MDAC + NAC + Pen G (12 cases)	1 (8.3%)
Oral silymarin + MDAC + NAC (4 cases)	1 (25%)
Oral silymarin + MDAC + NAC + Pen G (1 case)	0 (0%)

Abbreviations: MDAC, multiple-dose activated charcoal; NAC, N-acetylcysteine intravenous; Pen G, penicillin G; Oral silymarin, oral high dose silymarin.

Table 3 Laboratory findings of all patients

Laboratory finding	Results
Initial AST results (IU/L), median (min-max)	159.5 (18–12,592)
Max AST results (IU/L), median (min-max)	871 (18–12,592)
Initial ALT results (IU/L), median (min-max)	122 (12–18,871)
Max ALT results (IU/L), median (min-max)	1426.5 (12–18,871)
Max total bilirubin results (mg/dL), median (min-max)	1.4 (0.19–28.3)
Max direct bilirubin results (mg/dL), median (min-max)	0.5 (0.1–18.49)
Max INR results, median (min-max)	1.43 (0.95–21.67)
Max creatinine results (mg/dL), median (min-max)	1.13 (0.33–7.8)

Abbreviations: AST, aspartate aminotransferase; ALT, alanine transaminase; INR, international normalized ratio; min, minimum; max, maximum.

Table 5 The statistically significant differences of the clinical characteristics and the laboratory findings between the fatality and the survival group for every patient and for only the patients who developed hepatitis

Clinical characteristics	All patients		p value	Patients with hepatitis		p value
	Patients who survived (40)	Patients who died (15)		Patients who survived (23)	Patients who died (14)	
AKI (%)	11/39 (28.2%)	14/15 (93.3%)	<0.001	10/23 (43.5%)	13/14 (92.9%)	0.003
Jaundice (%)	9/34 (26.5%)	12/13 (92.3%)	<0.001	7/22 (31.8%)	12/13 (92.3%)	0.001
Coagulopathy (%)	6/23 (26.1%)	13/13 (100%)	<0.001	5/14 (35.7%)	13/13 (100%)	0.001
Initial AST results (IU/L), median (min-max)	42.5 (18–5,500)	2,350 (44–12,592)	<0.001	61 (21–5,500)	3,137 (289–12,592)	<0.001
Initial ALT results (IU/L), median (min-max)	44.5 (12–6,268)	1,787 (23–18,871)	<0.001	68 (13–6,268)	2,100 (200–18,871)	<0.001
Max AST results (IU/L), median (min-max)	323 (18–12,300)	5,750 (2,641–12,592)	<0.001	532 (135–12,300)	5,750 (2,641–12,592)	<0.001
Max ALT results (IU/L), median (min-max)	451 (12–9,899)	3,436.5 (1,684–18,871)	<0.001	607 (76–9,899)	3436.5 (1,684–18,871)	<0.001
Max total bilirubin results (mg/dL), median (min-max)	1.2 (0.19–17.9)	6.56 (0.5–28.3)	0.011	1.34 (0.23–17.9)	6.56 (0.5–28.3)	0.004
Max direct bilirubin results (mg/dL), median (min-max)	0.4 (0.1–12.75)	3.2 (0.2–18.49)	<0.001	0.5 (0.1–12.75)	3.2 (0.2–18.49)	0.001
Max creatinine results (mg/dL), median (min-max)	0.9 (0.33–3.9)	3.5 (0.4–7.8)	<0.001	0.9 (0.33–3.9)	3.5 (0.4–7.8)	<0.001

Abbreviations: AST, aspartate aminotransferase; ALT, alanine transaminase; AKI, acute kidney disorder; min, minimum; max, maximum.

Oral high dose silymarin

- Extract from milk thistle, *Silybum marianum*
- No silibinin IV available in Thailand
- Oral high dose silymarin used in our poison center instead
- Dose silibinin IV: 5 mg/kg IV loading dose then 20mg/kg/day
- Recommended dose 1.4-4.2 g
- Oral bioavailability: 23-47%
- Use the dose: **4.48 g, 7 US\$/day**
- Combined with other treatment, interval 3 hours with AC
- No conflict of interest

POISINDEX System. Micromedex Healthcare Series.

> Clin Toxicol (Phila). 2021 Sep;59(9):843-845. doi: 10.1080/15563650.2021.1887492.
 Epub 2021 Feb 19.

Intravenous rifampicin use in the management of amanita phalloides toxicity

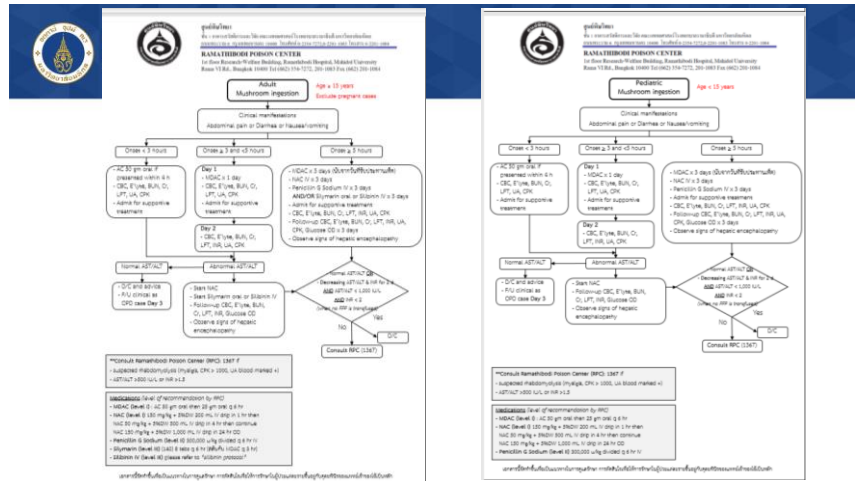
Rona Zuker-Herman ¹, Roger Tong ¹, Anselm Wong ²

Affiliations + expand

PMID: 33605821 DOI: 10.1080/15563650.2021.1887492

Abstract

Context: Amanita phalloides related toxicity from amatoxins can result in acute liver and multi-organ failure and is responsible for 90% of all mushroom poisoning death. However, more evidence is needed in regards to different management strategies. **Case details:** We present two cases of amanita mushroom ingestion who were treated with intravenous rifampicin. **Discussion:** Further study is needed to establish the efficacy and role of rifampicin in amatoxin related mushroom poisoning.



Mahidol University Wisdom of the Land **Cyclopeptide Containing Mushrooms**

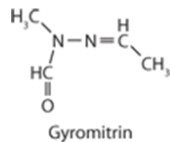
- Amatoxins
- Heat stable
- **Clinical:** Delayed onset (≥5 hours) of GI symptoms, hepatotoxicity in 12-36 hours
- **Treatment:**
 - Fluid and electrolyte repletion
 - Multiple Dose Activated charcoal
 - N-acetylcysteine
 - Penicillin G
 - The active complex of milk thistle
 - Liver transplantation

Mahidol University Wisdom of the Land **Gyromitrin Containing Mushrooms**



Gyromitrin containing mushrooms. A true morel (Morchella spp) on the left is compared to a false morel (Gyromitra esculenta) on the right.

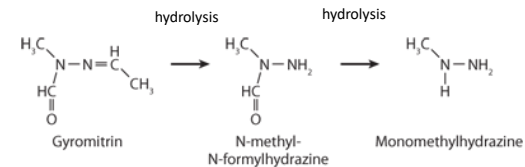
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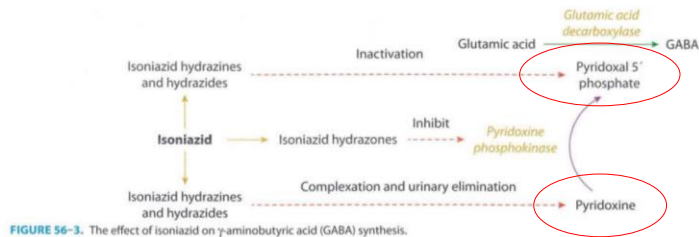


Goldfrank 11th ed

Mahidol University Wisdom of the Land **Gyromitrin Containing Mushrooms**

- Brainlike appearance
- Contain gyromitrin: volatile **heat-labile** toxin, hydrolysis to a family of N-methyl-formyl hydrazines, subsequent hydrolysis yield N-methyl-N-formyl hydrazine and monomethylhydrazine
- Decrease in GABA



Goldfrank 11th ed

Clinical

- 5-10 hours after ingestion: nausea, vomiting, diarrhea, abdominal pain
- Headaches, weakness, diffuse muscle cramping
- 12-48 hours: delirium, stupor, convulsions, coma
- Most improve dramatically, return to normal function within several days
- Infrequently: hepatorenal syndrome

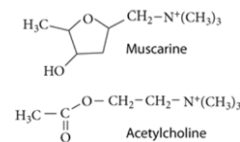


Treatment

- Activated charcoal: 1 g/kg BW
- Benzodiazepines: initial management of seizures
- Most circumstances: supportive care
- **Pyridoxine**: 70 mg/kg IV up to 5 g; may be useful in limiting seizures



- Clitocybe species: *C. dealbata* (the sweater), *C. illudens* (*Omphalotus olearius*)
- *Inocybe* species: *I. iacera*, *I. lanuginosa*, *I. geophylla*
- *A. muscaria* and *A. pantherina* contain limited quantities of muscarine, *A. muscaria* contains substantial amounts of muscimol



Clitocybe dealbata



Omphalotus olearius.

Muscarine and acetylcholine: similar structurally and comparable clinical effects at the muscarinic receptors



<https://gnews.apps.go.th/news?news=42188>

Clinical

- Typically mild, usually 0.25-2 hours, last several additional hours
- Complete resolution within 24 hours
- Peripheral manifestations: bradycardia, miosis, salivation, lacrimation, vomiting, diarrhea, bronchospasm, bronchorrhea, micturition
- Central muscarinic manifestations: not occur because muscarine not cross the blood–brain barrier
- **No nicotinic** manifestations e.g. diaphoresis or tremor occur
- Because muscarine lacks an ester bond, not hydrolysed by acetylcholinesterase, effects of muscarine often last longer than acetylcholine

Treatment

- Supportive care
- Rarely, atropine (1–2 mg given IV slowly for adults) titrated and repeated to reverse symptomatology

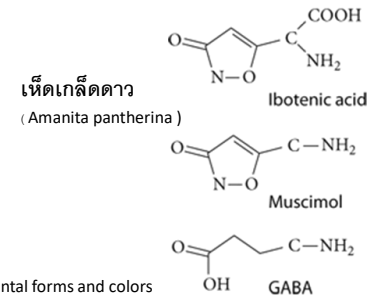


<https://www.researchgate.net/publication/324444444/figure/fig/1/figure-pdf/324444444/figure-pdf/324444444.pdf>

- Most primarily in the Amanita species: A. muscaria (fly agaric), A. pantherina, A. gemmata



Amanita muscaria highlights different developmental forms and colors





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Wisdom of the Land

Ibotenic Acid and Muscimol Containing Mushrooms

Clinical

- Ibotenic acid: structurally similar to glutamic acid
- Muscimol: very similar to GABA and may act as a GABA agonist
- Within 0.5-2 hours of ingestion
- GABAergic manifestations:** somnolence, dizziness, hallucinations, dysphoria, delirium **in adults**
- Excitatory glutamatergic manifestations:** myoclonic movements, seizures **in children**

Treatment

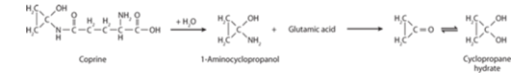
- Supportive treatment
- Benzodiazepine for excitatory CNS manifestations



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Coprine Containing Mushrooms

- Coprinus mushrooms: *C. atramentarius*, (*Coprinopsis atramentaria*)
- known as “inky caps”
- Contain coprine: disulfiram like effect
- Inhibition of acetaldehyde dehydrogenase, accumulation of acetaldehyde



เห็ดทิ้งหม้อ, เห็ดน้ำหมึก, เห็ดถั่ว

(A) *Coprinopsis atramentaria*; (B) and (C) show *Coprinus comatus* (shaggy mane). Image (B) shows an early form which later is self digested demonstrating the gill liquefaction in image (C).



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Coprine Containing Mushrooms

Clinical

- At least 0.5-2 hours if ingests alcohol and coprine containing mushroom concomitantly
- Acute disulfiram effect: tachycardia, flushing, nausea, vomiting
- Usually mild, resolve within several hours
- if ethanol ingestion 48-72 hours following coprine-containing mushroom ingestion, toxicity may ensue

Treatment

- Symptomatic with fluid repletion
- Antiemetics e.g. metoclopramide or ondansetron



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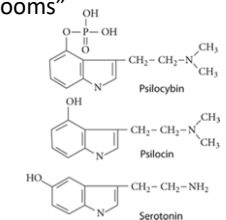
Psilocybin Containing Mushrooms

- Psilocybe cyanescens*, *Psilocybe cubensis*, *Conocybe cyanopus*, *Panaeolus cyanescens*, *Gymnopilus spectabilis*, and *Psathyrella foenicecii*
- Drug culture magazines and Internet sources advertise mail-order kits containing *P. cubensis* spores to grow “magic mushrooms”



(A) *Psilocybe cyanescens*, (B) *Psilocybe caerulipes*, (C) *Gymnopilus spectabilis*.

เห็ดขี้ควาย เห็ดขี้วัว เห็ดโสมถั่ววงจืด (***Psilocybe cubensis***)





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Psilocybin Containing Mushrooms

- Psilocybin: rapidly and completely hydrolyzed to psilocin in vivo
- Serotonin, psilocin, psilocybin: very similar structurally and presumably act at a similar 5-HT₂ receptor site
- The effects as a serotonin agonist and antagonist
- Like lysergic acid diethylamide (LSD)



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Psilocybin Containing Mushrooms

Clinical

- Rapidly (within 1 hour) CNS effects: ataxia, hyperkinesia, visual illusions, hallucinations
- Some: manifest GI distress, tachycardia, mydriasis, anxiety, lightheadedness, tremor, agitation
- Most manifestations: within 4 hours of ingestion with a return to normalcy within 6-12 hours
- Rare cases: renal failure, seizures, cardiopulmonary arrest

Treatment

- Usually supportive
- Benzodiazepine may be necessary



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Gastrointestinal Toxin Containing Mushrooms

- Boletus spp, Lactarius spp, O. olearius, Rhodophyllus spp, Tricholoma spp, Chlorophyllum molybdites, and Chlorophyllum esculentum
- The toxins: not identified
- The malabsorption of proteins and sugars or ingestion of a mushroom infected or partially digested by microorganisms or allergy



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- เห็ดหัวกวรดศรีบเขียว
(*Chlorophyllum molybdites*)
- เห็ดแดงน้ำหมาด
(*Russula emetica*)

<https://gnews.apps.go.th/news?news=42188>



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Gastrointestinal Toxin Containing Mushrooms

Clinical

- GI toxicity 0.3-4 hours after ingestion: epigastric distress, malaise, nausea, vomiting, diarrhea
- Clinical course: brief
- Prognosis: excellent

Treatment

- Fluid resuscitation
- Control of vomiting and diarrhea
- When symptoms seem to persist, must consider a mixed ingestion of another potentially toxic mushroom group
- Not give anti-diarrheal agents, because may prolong exposure to toxin



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Acute Onset Mushroom poisoning

- **Muscarine Containing Mushrooms**
 - Cholinergic
- **Ibotenic Acid and Muscimol Containing Mushrooms**
 - GABAergic, glutamatergic
- **Coprine Containing Mushrooms**
 - Disulfiram
- **Psilocybin Containing Mushrooms**
 - Hallucinogen
- **GI Toxin Containing Mushrooms**
 - GI symptoms

Supportive treatment



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Rhabdomyolysis Associated Mushrooms

Tricholoma equestre (*Tricholoma flavovirens*)

- Fatigue, muscle weakness, myalgias
- 24-72 hours following the last mushroom meal
- Facial erythema, nausea without vomiting, profuse sweating
- Dyspnea, muscle weakness, acute myocarditis, dysrhythmias, congestive heart failure, death



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Rhabdomyolysis Associated Mushrooms

Russula subnigricans

- Rhabdomyolysis
- Severe electrolyte disturbance (hyperkalemia, hypocalcemia)
- Acute renal failure
- Respiratory failure, pulmonary edema
- Ventricular tachycardia
- Cardiogenic shock
- Circulatory shock



<https://gnews.apps.go.th/news?news=42188>

CASE REPORT

Russula subnigricans Poisoning: From Gastrointestinal Symptoms to Rhabdomyolysis

Shalee Lin, MD, Marjorie Ma, MD, Payonee Yang, MD, Charoln Yang, MD
From the Department of Pediatrics (Lin, Ma), Division of Pediatric Infectious Disease (Lin, Yang), and the Department of Internal Medicine, Faculty of Tropical Diseases, Mahidol University, Bangkok, Thailand (Lin, Ma, Ma, and Yang) and the Department of Internal Medicine, Faculty of Tropical Diseases, Mahidol University, Bangkok, Thailand (Yang)

Mild mushroom poisoning is often reported in cases caused from an edible fungus. However, acute rhabdomyolysis caused by wild mushroom poisoning has rarely been reported. We describe 7 patients of 1 family who became sick after consuming these poisonous. Their clinical manifestations varied from gastrointestinal symptoms to rhabdomyolysis, with 1 fatality. Our report provides supporting evidence that *Russula subnigricans* may result from ingestion of poisonous mushrooms. A key to survival for patients with rhabdomyolysis caused by *R. subnigricans* poisoning may be early recognition and intensive supportive care.

Key words: *Rhabdomyolysis*, mushroom poisoning, *Russula subnigricans*, haemodialysis

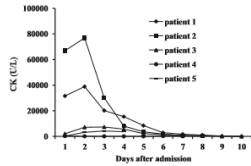


Figure 1. Serum creatine kinase (CK) levels in 5 patients who survived during hospitalization.

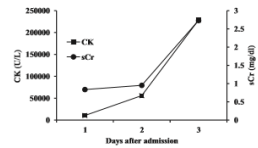


Figure 2. Serum creatine kinase (CK) and serum creatinine (sCr) levels in the patient who died during hospitalization.



Figure 3. *Russula subnigricans* mushrooms.

Table 1 Clinical Characteristics of the Patients (41 Patients)

Characteristics	Value
Age (year), mean ± SD	48.85 ± 16.02
Season	
-Rainy	24 (58.54)
-Winter	9 (21.95)
-Summer	8 (19.51)
Onset of gastrointestinal symptoms after consuming mushrooms (h) (27 cases)-median (min-max)	2 (0.17-24)
Onset of myalgia after consuming mushrooms (h) (15 cases)-median (min-max)	24 (3-96)
Onset of dark urine after consuming mushrooms (h) (16 cases)-median (min-max)	48 (2-120)
Time to hospital after consuming mushrooms (h) median (min-max)	21 (2-120)

Table 3 Clinical Features of Patients with Rhabdomyolysis (33 Patients) During Hospitalisation

Clinical Features Reported (Number of Cases with Recorded Data)	Number (%) of Patients
Elevated AST and ALT	32 (97)
AKI	17 (51.5)
Elevated cardiac enzymes	
- Troponin (I or T) (17 cases)	15 (88.2)
- CK-MB (14 cases)	14 (100)
Hyperkalaemia (30 cases)	10 (33.3)
Abnormal chest X-ray (20 cases)	13 (65)
Abnormal electrocardiogram (20 cases)	13 (65)
Abnormal echocardiogram (4 cases)	3 (75)

Abbreviations: AST, aspartate aminotransferase; ALT, alanine transaminase; AKI, acute kidney injury; CK-MB, creatine kinase-MB.

Myotoxic Mushroom Poisoning in Thailand: Clinical Characteristics and Outcomes

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Purpose: To describe the clinical characteristics and outcomes of myotoxic mushroom poisoning in Thailand.

Patients and Methods: We performed a retrospective cohort study of cases of myotoxic mushroom poisoning from the Ramathubod Poison Center Toxic Exposure Surveillance System during a 5-year period (2012-2016).

Results: Forty-one cases were included. Most (53.7%) were male with the average age of 49 years. In three cases, the mushrooms were identified as *Russula* species by an experienced mycologist. Common presenting symptoms were gastrointestinal (GI) symptoms and myalgia. The median onset of GI symptoms and symptoms suggesting rhabdomyolysis after consuming mushrooms was 2 hours (0.17-24 hours) and 24-48 hours (2-120 hours), respectively. Eight patients who ate the mushrooms together with other patients with rhabdomyolysis had GI symptoms but did not develop rhabdomyolysis. For patients with rhabdomyolysis, acute kidney injury (AKI) and hyperkalaemia occurred in 51.5% and 33.3% of cases, respectively. Median initial and maximum creatine phosphokinase (CPK) levels in patients with rhabdomyolysis were 32,145 and 27,864 U/L, respectively. Fifteen of 17 patients who were investigated for troponin levels had elevated troponin. Three patients had a low troponin fraction. Most patients (95.7%) were admitted to hospital, with a median stay of 5 days. The mortality rate was 26.8%. Treatments included intravenous fluid, urine alkalization, haemodialysis and peritoneal dialysis. Among patients with rhabdomyolysis, AKI, hyperkalaemia during hospitalization, maximum CPK level, maximum creatinine level and initial and maximum potassium levels were the factors found to be significantly different between patients who died and those who survived.

Conclusion: Myotoxic mushroom poisoning had a high mortality rate. Most patients had early or delayed onset of clinical symptoms after mushroom ingestion. Some patients developed severe cardiovascular effects. Early detection, close monitoring (especially serum potassium, creatinine, CPK and cardiac effects) and good supportive care were the main treatment modalities.

Table 5 Differences in Clinical Characteristics and Laboratory Findings Between Patients Who Survived and Patients Who Died for Patients with Rhabdomyolysis (33 Patients)

Clinical Characteristic or Laboratory Finding	Patients with Rhabdomyolysis		
	Survived (22)	Died (11)	P-value
Age (years), mean ± SD	50.09 ± 14.20	58.45 ± 12.41	0.107
Sex (%)			
Male	10 (45.5)	4 (36.4)	0.622
Female	12 (54.5)	5 (45.5)	
AKI (33 cases) (%)	6 (27.3)	11 (100)	<0.001
Shock during hospitalization (%)	5 (22.7)	6 (54.5)	0.117
Hyperkalaemia during hospitalization (32 cases) (%)	2 (of 20) (10)	8 (of 10) (80)	<0.001
Initial CPK results (IU/L), median (min-max)	27,862.5 (1221-284,720)	39,157 (2746-179,506)	0.492
Maximum CPK results (IU/L), median (min-max)	36,245.5 (8616-330,000)	86,544 (34,449-179,506)	0.029
Initial AST results (IU/L), median (min-max)	709 (51-8066)	200 (33-4083)	0.456
Maximum AST results (IU/L), median (min-max)	1141 (538-8066)	2157 (69-4083)	0.593
Initial ALT results (IU/L), median (min-max)	225.5 (30-4080)	76 (30-1103)	0.302
Maximum ALT results (IU/L), median (min-max)	460 (135-4080)	464 (32-1791)	0.819
Maximum CK-MB results (IU/L), median (min-max)	1313.5 (300-2800)	3018.5 (50-7649)	0.439
Initial potassium results (mmol/L), mean ± SD	4.03 ± 0.46	4.68 ± 0.85	0.046
Maximum potassium results (mmol/L), mean ± SD	4.25 ± 0.74	5.60 ± 0.98	<0.001
Initial creatinine results (mg/dL), median (min-max)	0.84 (0.36-3.11)	1.31 (0.58-3.60)	0.054
Maximum creatinine results (mg/dL), median (min-max)	0.84 (0.36-9.96)	2.46 (1.31-7.70)	0.001

Abbreviations: AKI, acute kidney injury; AST, aspartate aminotransferase; ALT, alanine transaminase; CPK, creatine phosphokinase; CK-MB, creatine kinase-MB.

- AKI
- Hyperkalaemia during hospitalization
- Maximum CPK level
- Maximum creatinine level
- Initial and maximum potassium levels w

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Adult Mushroom ingestion
With suspected rhabdomyolysis

- Myoga CPK
 - Dark urine OR
 - CPK > 2,000 U/L OR
 - Urine blood marked positive (2+ to 4+) and RBC negative
- Initial Labs:
 - Myoga CPK
 - Creatinine
 - Urea Nitrogen
 - LFTs
 - BUN
 - Cx
 - P
 - Ca
 - Mg
 - PO4
 - K
 - Na
 - Cl
 - HCO₃
- Fluid Resuscitation:
 - 2-3% NaCl, 1,000 mL IV bolus 1,000 mL/hr for 1-2 hrs
 - then titrate to maintain urine output > 3 mL/hr (Dependent on patient's condition)
 - ** Beware of volume overload, electrolyte imbalance **
- Monitor:
 - Repeat CPK, Creatinine
 - E Tyme, BUN, Cx, Phosphorus, Calcium, Creatinine, LFT, BUN, Cx, Ua
 - BUN 12 week and monitor BUN
 - CPK
 - Follow-up CPK, E Tyme, BUN, Cx, Phosphorus, Calcium, AST/ALT, CO
 - Follow-up Creatinine, BUN, CO as indicated

Send creatinine if creatinine positive or abnormal BUN
Consider urine electrolytes in severe rhabdomyolysis. If no concentration and available for case monitoring
Consider hepatograms for hepatotoxicity as indicated

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Rhabdomyolysis Associated Mushrooms

- **Russula subnigricans**
- **Onset ?**
- **Clinical:** Fatigue, muscle weakness, myalgias, acute myocarditis, dysrhythmias, congestive heart failure, death
- Rhabdomyolysis
- Severe electrolyte disturbance (hyperkalemia, hypocalcemia)
- Acute renal failure
- **Treatment:** Supportive, Observe and monitoring

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Shiitake dermatitis

- Well-known entity in Japan, China, Korea, reported in Europe, US
- เห็ดพิษ (Shiitake Mushroom)
- Flagellate erythema appearing as whip-like, linear wheals that appear within 1 or 2 days of ingesting raw or cooked shiitake mushrooms
- The rash tends to be pruritic and can also involve branching patches of erythema and scattered petechiae
- The pathophysiology is not fully understood but is thought to be toxin induced, involving the thermolabile polysaccharide lentinan
- Skin biopsy results are nonspecific

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- Treatment: 0.1% triamcinolone ointment, oral antihistamines
- Regardless of treatment, the rash resolves spontaneously without hyperpigmentation in 1-4 weeks
- The rash is self-limited, and no sequelae have been reported



Shiitake flagellate dermatitis

<https://dermnetz.org/topics/shiitake-flagellate-dermatitis/>

Pregnancy

- In one series, a slightly lower birth weight was noted in infants born to mothers with toxic mushroom exposure than in infants of mothers with no such exposure.
- Most infants appeared to be healthy and developmentally normal, in keeping with the findings that amatoxins do not cross the placental barrier

J. Witt et al.

Mushroom poisoning: A proposed new clinical classification
Julia Witt*, Scott A. Williams*, Luc De Hert*, Ragh Nisay*, Andrew Schaper*, Barry H. Ruback*, Thomas Zilber*

Table 2
Proposed classification scheme for clinical types of mushroom poisoning

Group	Suspected toxin	Indicative species
Group 1 - Cytotoxic mushroom poisoning		
Subgroup 1.1 - Primary hepatotoxic mushroom poisoning	amatoxins	<i>Amanita phalloides</i>
Group 1A - Primary hepatotoxicity		
Subgroup 1.2 - Primary nephrotoxic mushroom poisoning	amatoxins	<i>Amanita phalloides</i>
Group 1B - Primary nephrotoxicity	amatoxins	<i>Amanita phalloides</i>
Group 1C - Delayed primary nephrotoxicity	orellanine	<i>Cortinarius</i> spp.
Group 2 - Neurotoxic mushroom poisoning	psilocybin	<i>Psilocybe</i> spp.
Group 2A - Hallucinogenic mushrooms	psilocybin	<i>Psilocybe</i> spp.
Group 2B - Anticholinergic mushrooms	muscarines	<i>Boletus acid/vescutoides</i>
Group 2C - Central nervous system toxicity mushrooms	ibotenic acid/muscimol	<i>Amanita muscaria</i>
Group 2D - Mixed neurologic syndrome	unknown	<i>Morchella</i> spp.
Group 3 - Myotoxic mushroom poisoning		
Group 3A - Rapid onset myotoxicity	carboxylic acid	<i>Russula adspersa</i>
Group 3B - Delayed onset myotoxicity	cuprenine/olefin B	<i>Tricholoma equestre</i>
Group 4 - Muscular/collective toxicity mushroom poisoning		
Group 4A - GABA-binding mushroom poisoning	gyromitrin	<i>Cyrtium</i> spp.
Group 4B - Oxidative-like mushroom poisoning	coprine	<i>Cortinarius</i> spp.
Group 4C - Polytopic mushroom poisoning	polytopic acid	<i>Hygroplitis rufipes</i>
Group 4D - Trichothecene mushroom poisoning	trichothecenes	<i>Polystictus cornu-damae</i>
Group 4E - Hypoglycemic mushroom poisoning	unusual amino acids	<i>Triga venosus</i>
Group 4F - Hyperproliferative mushroom poisoning	unknown	<i>Boletus senarius</i>
Group 4G - Pancytopenia mushroom poisoning	unknown	<i>Cantharellus nigropurpureus</i>
Group 5 - Gastrointestinal irritant mushroom poisoning		
Group 6 - Miscellaneous adverse reactions to mushrooms		
Group 6A - Staphylococcal dermatitis	histidin	<i>Lentibolus abidus</i>
Group 6B - Hythromolydella like mushroom poisoning	acromelic acid	<i>Cheilybe acromelica</i>
Group 6C - Psyllium syndrome	unknown	<i>Psilocybe azulexia</i>
Group 6D - Enteropathology syndrome	? Hydrocyanic Acid	<i>Pleurocybella porrigens</i>

Note: The suspected toxin represents only one selected toxin, but for some groups there may be several different and distinct toxins involved. Similarly the indicative species represents just one selected on the basis of available information, though for some groups, many species may be implicated.

Organ System	Time of Onset		
	Early: <5 h	Middle: 5-24 h	Late: >24 h
Cardiac muscle			2R-amino-4,5-hexynoic acid
Gastrointestinal	Allenic norleucine	Allenic norleucine	Orellanine and orellanine
	2R-amino-4,5-hexynoic acid		
	Coprine	Amatoxin	
	Group VII Psilocybin Muscarine	Gyromitrin	
Liver			Amatoxin
Immunologic	Involutin Spores		
Nervous	Ibotenic acid and muscimol	Gyromitrin	Acromelic acid
			Gyromitrin
			Polytopic acid
Kidney			Allenic norleucine
			Orellanine and orellanine
Skeletal muscle	Cycloprop-2-enecarboxylic acid		

Goldfrank 11th ed

- The most important determinant: deadly varieties, especially Amanita
- Onset of GI symptoms within 5 hours of ingestion: not result from amatoxin poisoning
- Collected mushrooms or detailed description of features
- Arrange for transport of the mushroom in a dry paper bag (not plastic), neither moistened nor refrigerated
- Gastric contents may contain spores that may be very difficult to find, but can be crucial for analysis
- A spore print: The spores that collect on the paper can be analyzed for color

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A spore print



How to: Make Spore Prints - Milkwood Permaculture

Spore print - Wikipedia
Wikipedia
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Spore_print

How To Make A Spore Print - Wild Mushroom Spore Color Identification
Survivallandusa.com

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- Contact a mycologist and use the best resources available for identification
- Melzer reagent, solution of 20 mL water, 1.5 g potassium iodide, 0.5 g iodine, and 20 g chloral hydrate,; useful in differentiating look-alike species, defining the presence of an amatoxin
- A positive reaction: a dark blue color upon contact with Melzer reagent
- Hospitals are not typically prepared for this type of testing
- Meixner reaction: several drops of 10N to 12N hydrochloric acid applied to an amatoxin containing mushroom sample squeezed onto newspaper, resulting in a blue reaction

Thank you for your attention

Question?