



Journal Homepage: -www.journalijar.com

INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF ADVANCED RESEARCH (IJAR)

Article DOI:10.21474/IJAR01/13477
DOI URL: <http://dx.doi.org/10.21474/IJAR01/13477>



RESEARCH ARTICLE

POST COVID EFFECTS OF BLACK FUNGUS MUCORMYCOSIS: A REVIEW

Nandhini Babu, Nikkila Devi R., Dhisha V. and Lidiya Benny

School of Life Sciences, JSSAHER, Ooty.

Manuscript Info

Manuscript History

Received: 28 July 2021

Final Accepted: 31 August 2021

Published: September 2021

Key words: -

Covid 19, Mucormycosis, Infection, Post
Covid Complications

Abstract

Mucormycosis is a disease caused by the fungi belonging to the order mucorales which affects mainly the immunocompromised patients. These fungi are mainly found in soil and in the decomposition of plants and animals from which the sporangiospores are released in the air which are then inhaled resulting in infection based on the host resistance. The cases are increasing in conditions with malnutrition, diabetes, steroid therapy and acidosis. After aspergillosis and candidiasis, mucormycosis is the third most common invasive fungal infection. The common genera that has been identified include mucor, rhizopus, Rhizomucor, Absidia, Apophysomyces, Cunninghamella and saksanaea. Five major forms of infection include rhino-orbito-cerebral, pulmonary, disseminated, cutaneous and gastrointestinal. There is a difference in epidemiology of mucormycosis between developed and developing countries. In developed countries even though the disease is uncommon, they are found in patients with diabetes mellitus and hematological malignancies undergoing chemotherapy. While in developing countries they are seen in patients with diabetes and trauma.

Copy Right, IJAR, 2021,. All rights reserved.

Introduction:-

Covid19 pandemic affected many lives around the world. In India covid recovered patients were affected by a fungus called black fungi mucormycosis. The severity of the disease depends upon the immunity of an individual. There are many fungi in this world which can act as an opportunistic pathogen. There are many fungi such as Aspergillus, Candida, Mucor etc., which can cause infection in human. But the infection caused by Mucormycosis in post covid recovered patient was found to be a life threatening one. In the review articles we would like to elaborate the habitat, pathogenesis, diagnosis and treatments that are available to treat black fungus and also the effect of black fungus in covid patients.

Fungus

Fungus is used to cover many organisms together. This group consists of microscopic as well as macroscopic organisms. Microscopic organism which cannot be seen through our naked eyes and can be observed only under the microscope. On the other hand, the macroscopic organisms can be seen through our naked eyes. Fungus can be a unicellular or multicellular organisms. Their mode of nutrition is heterotrophic. Based upon the mode of nutrition fungus can be classified into saprophytes, parasites, symbionts and Predacious Fungi.

Corresponding Author:- Nandhini Babu

Address:- School of Life Sciences, JSSAHER, Ooty.

Habitat

Black fungi can occur in the most extreme environments and under penurious nutrient conditions, where they often grow meristematically (Sterflinger *et al.*, 1999). In the past year many dematiaceous yeast like cells, emerge as to be, along with lichens and cyanobacteria, among the highly successful residents of marble, limestone, granite, and other rock types in severe or partial lack of water environments (Sterflinger & Krumbein 1997, Wollenzien *et al.*, 1997, Sterflinger 1998, Ruibal *et al.*, 2005). They have been discovered in hot arid areas of Arizona (U.S.A.) (Staley *et al.*, 1982, Palmer *et al.*, 1987), in glacial Antarctic deserts (Nienow & Friedmann 1993, Selbmann *et al.*, 2005), in Mediterranean countries such as Italy, Greece, Turkey (Gorbushina *et al.*, 2005, Ruibal *et al.*, 2005, Sert & Sterflinger 2005), on stone monuments in Austria (Sterflinger & Prillinger 2001), and on granites of the Ivory Coast (Budel *et al.*, 2000). Sterflinger & Krumbein (1995) assumed that the ability to grow meristematically provides the colonies an optimal surface/volume ratio for enhanced stress tolerance. In particular, they resist raised temperatures, poor water availability (Wollenzien *et al.*, 1995), UV radiation (Urzi *et al.*, 1995), increased salt concentration (Zalar *et al.*, 1999) or amalgamations of these factors and more stresses (Selbmann *et al.*, 2005, Scott *et al.*, 2007).

Pathogenesis

Mucorales infection of the head and neck region is Rhino-orbital-cerebral type. This is the most usual type of infection (Parfrey 1986). Initially infection was found in the palate or the paranasal sinuses (one of many small hollow spaces in the bones around the nose), progresses to the orbit and, if not diagnosed early, it will enter into the brain (Yohai RA, Bullock JD, Aziz AA, Markert RJ 1994).

Fever, lethargy, headache, orbital pain, abrupt loss of vision, ophthalmoplegia, proptosis, ptosis, dilated pupil, corneal anaesthesia and clouding, chemosis, periorbital cellulitis, sinusitis, epistaxis, facial palsy, trigeminal nerve distribution sensory loss and seizures (Ferry AP and Abedi S 1983 & Ericsson *et al.*, 1993.)

Rhino-orbito-cerebral mucormycosis can be seen in patients with diabetic ketoacidosis (Lehrer RI, Howard *et al.*, 1980), in leukaemia patients (Ferguson *et al.*, 1988), situations like organ and bone marrow transplant, β -thalassaemia, trauma, burns, deferoxamine therapy and even polypous rhinosinusitis (condition in which mucous membrane lining in the nose) (Garcia-Covarrubias L, Bartlett R, Barratt DM, Wasser-mann RJ 2001) and also affect HIV patients (Hejny C, Kerrison JB, Newman NJ, Stone CM 2001). The development of Rhino-orbito-cerebral mucormycosis can be seen in patients more than 4 weeks (Harrill WC, Stewart MG, Lee AG, Cernoch P 1996).

Pulmonary Mucormycosis

The second most common site of involvement of Mucorales infection is lungs which is Pulmonary type (Parfrey NA. 1986). Majority of cases is spotted in leukaemia patients. Primary route of infection is inhalation of spores (Bigby TD, Serota ML, Tierney LM Jr, Matthay MA., 1986). Individuals with leukaemia, lymphoma and severe neutropenia are more susceptible and develop pulmonary mucormycosis (Meyer RD, Rosen P, Armstrong D., 1972). Patients with solid tumours (sarcomas, carcinomas and lymphomas) rarely develop pulmonary mucormycosis (Solano T, Atkins B, Tambosis E, Mann S, Gottlieb T., 2000).

Cough, fever, haemoptysis and/or pleuritic chest pain. (Lee FY, Mossad SB, Adal KA., 1999). Patients who have disorders with blood and bone marrow can have infection that exist together with *Aspergillus species*, *Candida species*, bacteria or cytomegalovirus (Maertens J, Demuyneck H, Verbeken EK *et al.*, 1999). Pulmonary mucormycosis have a natural tendency to invade blood vessels and produce thrombosis.

Cutaneous Mucormycosis

Break in the skin's integrity from surgery, burns, soiled trauma, motor vehicle accidents, bone-fractures, intravenous lines, insect bites, cactus spine injuries, abrasions, lacerations, biopsy sites, allergen patch testing, contaminated adhesive tapes and intramuscular injections can promote **Cutaneous mucormycosis** (Chakrabarti A, Kumar P, Padhye AA *et al.*, 1997). It is superficial or deep infection. It is the form of infection associated with underlying disease (Vainrub B, Macareno A, Mandel S, Musher DM. 1988).

Patients can develop pustules, blisters, nodules, necrotic ulcerations, ecthyma gangrenosum-like lesions or necrotizing cellulitis after the onset of fungus (Cocanour CS, Miller-Crotchet P, Reed RL, Johnson PC, Fischer RP 1992). Infection starts in the limb of the body after trauma or prior skin lesions (Caceres AM, Sardinias C, Marcano C *et al.*, 1977).

Neutropenic patients with leukaemia or lymphoma comprise the majority of patients with disseminated mucormycosis (having spread throughout an organ or the body), (Nolan RL, Carter RR 3rd, Griffith JE, Chapman SW 1989). Risk factors include organ transplantation, chemotherapy, corticosteroids and deferoxamine therapy (medication that binds iron and aluminium), (Kontoyiannis DP, Wessel VC, Bodey GP, Rolston VI 2000).

Patients who have undergone organ bone-marrow or peripheral blood stem cell transplantation and individuals with acute granulocytic leukaemia, lymphoma, DKA, nonketotic diabetes mellitus, amoebiasis, typhoid, vitamin B3 deficiency, edematous malnutrition, malaria and prematurity can start Gastrointestinal mucormycosis (Vadeboncoeur C, Walton JM, Raisen J, Soucy P, Lau H, Rubin S, 1994.)

They are non-specific and include abdominal pain and haematemesis and melena (Calle S, Klatsky S. 1966). If mucorales enter into gastric mucosa a person can get a gastric mucormycosis infection that is known as gastric ulcers. Intestinal mucormycosis is infrequent in the normal host (Keys TF, Halderson AM, Rhodes KH, Roberts GD, Fifer EZ 1978). Mucormycosis of maxilla (bones form your upper jaw) in an immunocompetent patient and an uncontrolled diabetic patient (i.e) Oral mucormycosis (Ferguson BJ. 2000)

Stiffness and blood discharge from nose, palatal ulceration, numbness in the middle third of the face and necrotic alveolus. Individuals who lack phagocytes or who have impaired phagocytic function are at higher risk of mucormycosis. Individuals with neutropenia (when a person has low level of neutrophils) are at increased risk for developing mucormycosis (Sugar AM, 2005). So, neutrophils can fight infections by destroying harmful fungi that invade the body. Normal hosts kill Mucorales by the generation of oxidative metabolites and defensins (cysteine-rich cationic proteins) with the help of both mononuclear and polymorphonuclear phagocyte. In the sight of hyperglycemia and low pH, which is found in patients with diabetic ketoacidosis (DKA), phagocytes are unable to function normally and have weak or damaged chemotaxis and flawed intracellular lethality by both oxidative and non-oxidative mechanisms (Waldorf AR, Ruderman N, Diamond RD. 1984).

Inhalation of Mucorales sporangiospores by immunocompetent patient does not result in the development of mucormycosis because their body is able to recognize antigens and act against them. In comparison, corticosteroid-immunosuppressed (steroids work by decreasing the inflammation and reducing the activity of the immune system) or individuals with DKA die of progressive pulmonary and hematogenously disseminated infection (Lamaris GA, Ben-Ami R, Lewis RE, Chamilos G, Samonis G, Kontoyiannis DP, 2009). Overuse, misuse of steroids is the major cause behind mucormycosis (Dr. Randeep Guleria, director of the AIIMS).

Diagnosis

Early diagnosis of mucormycosis is important as it can increase the rate of survival and can reduce surgical resection, suffering and disfigurement. Mucor can be cultured on both bacterial and fungal cultures at a temperature of 25-55°C (Forbes BA, Sahm DF, Weissfeld AS, 1998). Mucorales present in clinical specimen can grow at a temperature of 37°C (Sugar AM. 1992) forming fluffy, grey or brownish colonies. In patients with hematological malignancies only 23-50% cases are diagnosed with ante mortem of mucormycosis. Direct microscopy of bronchoalveolar lavage with transbronchial biopsy may increase the yield of diagnosis. Culturing of the specimen has less sensitivity as it shows negative in 50% of the mucormycosis cases. Molecular based assays in the diagnosis of mucormycosis include polymerase chain reaction (PCR) (Nagao K, Ota T, Tanikawa *et al.*, 2005), restriction fragment length polymorphism analyses (RFLP) (Machouart M, Larche J, Burton *et al.*, 2006), DNA sequencing of defined gene regions, melt curve analysis of PCR products (Kasai M, Harrington SM, Francesconi *et al.*, 2008). Majority of the molecular assays either focus on the internal transcribed spacer or 18S rRNA genes. (Alvarez E, Sutton DA, Cano *et al.*, 2009).

Treatment

The diagnosis and treatment for mucormycosis should be started at earlier stage to reduce the mortality rate. Mucormycosis has developed a high resistance towards most of the antifungal drugs. The most effective against the mucormycosis is amphotericin B except for Cunninghamella and Apophysomyces (Salas V, Pastor FJ, Calvo E *et al.*, 2012). The antifungal agents used for mucormycosis polyene which is most preferred. Even though amphotericin B deoxycholate has been used many years, a lipid formulation of amphotericin B deoxycholate are less nephrotoxic and can be administered for longer period with higher dosage when compared to amphotericin B deoxycholate (Walsh *et al.*, 1998).

Effect of Black Fungus on Covid Patients

In post-COVID-19 stage Black Fungus is observed as secondary infection in COVID-19 infected patients. Mucormycosis affect nose, eyes, brain and sinuses recovering COVID-19 patients should look for medical help when they have swelling in the face, pain and numbness, Unusual (bloody or black-brown) discharge from the nose, Swollen eyes, Nasal or sinus congestion, black lesions on nasal bridge or upper inside of the mouth (ICMR guidelines). Limit the usage of steroids for 5 to 10 days to mild to moderate dose to people in early-stage or with mild COVID-19 infections can prevent the patients from mucormycosis. Early diagnosis of mucormycosis is essential as fungi has invasive ability into blood vessels, embolizing to distant organs, including the brain.

Conclusion:-

More cases of mucormycosis may be due to increasing numbers of immunocompromised patients. There are no specific clinical or radiological features making diagnosis more difficult and challenging. Diagnostic options are limited with variable results. The risk factors are diabetes mellitus, burns, iron overloaded, transplantation, chemotherapy, intravenous drug use. The imaging studies of mucormycosis are plain X-ray, CT Scan, MRI Scans and Chest CT/MRI. Mucormycosis carries mortality rate of 50-85%. Posaconazole and Isavuconazole can be tried during treatment. Duration of treatment is highly individualized.

Reference:-

1. Alastruey-Izquierdo A, Castelli MV, Cuesta I et al. Activity of posaconazole and other antifungal agents against Mucorales strains identified by sequencing of internal transcribed spacers. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2009; 53: 1686–1689.
2. Al-Rikabi AC, Al-Dohayan AD, Al-Boukai AA. Invasive mucormycosis in benign gastric ulcer. *Saudi Med J* 2000; 21: 287–90.
3. Alvarez E, Sutton DA, Cano J *et al.* Spectrum of zygomycete species identified in clinically significant specimens in the United States. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2009; 47: 1650–1656.
4. Baraia J, Munoz P, Bernaldo de Quiros JC, Bouza E. Cutaneous mucormycosis in a heart transplant patient associated with a peripheral catheter. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* 1995; 14: 813–15.
5. Berns JS, Lederman MM, Greene BM. Nonsurgical cure of pulmonary mucormycosis. *Am J Med Sci* 1984; 287: 42–4.
6. Bigby TD, Serota ML, Tierney LM Jr, Matthay MA. Clinical spectrum of pulmonary mucormycosis. *Chest* 1986; 89: 435–9.
7. Blair JE, Fredrikson LJ, Pockaj BA, Lucaire CS. Locally invasive cutaneous *Apophysomyces elegans* infection acquired from snapdragon patch test. *Mayo Clin Proc* 2002; 77: 717–20.
8. Budel et al., 2000 B Budel, U Becker, G Follmann, K Sterflinger *Algae, fungi and lichen on inselbergs.* In: *Inselbergs S Porembski, W Barthlott (Eds.), Ecological Studies, 146(2000), pp. 69-90.*
9. Caceres AM, Sardinias C, Marcano C et al. *Apophysomyces elegans* limb infection with a favorable outcome: case report and review. *Clin Infect Dis* 1997; 25: 331–2.
10. Chakrabarti A, Das A, Mandal J, *et al.* The rising trend of invasive mucormycosis in patients with uncontrolled diabetes mellitus, *Med Mycol*, 2006, vol. 44 (pg. 335-42)
11. Chakrabarti A, Kumar P, Padhye AA et al. Primary cutaneous zygomycosis due to *Saksenaevasisiformis* and *Apophysomyces elegans*. *Clin Infect Dis* 1997; 24: 580–3.
12. Cocanour CS, Miller-Crotchett P, Reed RL, Johnson PC, Fischer RP. Mucormycosis in trauma patients. *J Trauma* 1992; 32: 12–15.
13. Corley DA, Lindeman N, Ostroff JW. Survival with early diagnosis of invasive gastric mucormycosis in a heart transplant patient. *Gastrointest Endosc* 1997; 46: 452–4.
14. Diamond RD, Haudenschild CC, Erickson NF 3rd. Monocyte-mediated damage to *Rhizopus oryzae* hyphae in vitro. *Infect Immun* 1982; 38: 292–7.
15. Ericsson M, Anniko M, Gustafsson H, Hjalt CA, Stenling R, Tarnvik A. A case of chronic progressive rhinocerebral mucormycosis treated with liposomal amphotericin B and surgery. *Clin Infect Dis* 1993; 16: 585–6.
16. Eucker J, Sezer O, Graf B, Possinger K. Mucormycoses. *Mycoses* 2001; 44: 253–60.
17. Ferguson BJ, Camporesi EM, Farmer J. Adjunctive hyperbaric oxygen for treatment of rhinocerebral mucormycosis. *Rev Infect Dis* 1988; 10: 551–9.
18. Ferry AP, Abedi S. Diagnosis and management of rhino-orbito-cerebral mucormycosis (phycomycosis). A report of 16 personally observed cases. *Ophthalmology* 1983; 90: 1096–104.

19. Forbes BA, Sahn DF, Weissfeld AS. Bailey and Scott's Diagnostic Microbiology, 10th edn. New York: Mosby, 1998. 18.Sugar AM. Mucormycosis. Clin Infect Dis 1992; 14: S126– 9.
20. Funada H, Matsuda T. Pulmonary mucormycosis in a hematology ward. Intern Med 1996; 35: 540–4.
21. Garcia-Covarrubias L, Bartlett R, Barratt DM, Wassermann RJ. Rhino-orbito-cerebral mucormycosis attributable to *Apophysomyces elegans* in an immunocompetent individual: case report and review of the literature. J Trauma 2001; 50: 353–7.
22. Gorbushina et al., 2005 AA Gorbushina, A Beck, A Schulte Microcolonial rock inhabiting fungi and lichen photobionts: evidence for mutualistic interactions
23. Harrill WC, Stewart MG, Lee AG, Cernoch P. Chronic rhinocerebral mucormycosis. Laryngoscope 1996; 106: 1292–7.
24. Hata TR, Johnson RA, Barnhill R, Dover JS. Ecthyma-like lesions on the leg of an immunocompromised patient. Primary cutaneous mucormycosis. Arch Dermatol 1995; 131: 833–4; 836–7.
25. Hejny C, Kerrison JB, Newman NJ, Stone CM. Rhinoorbital mucormycosis in a patient with acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) and neutropenia. Am J Ophthalmol 2001; 132: 111–12.
26. Hsiao CR, Huang L, Bouchara J-P, Barton R, Li HC, Chang TC. Identification of medically important molds by an oligonucleotide array. J Clin Microbiol. 2005; 43: 3760–3768.
27. Jain JK, Markowitz A, Khilani PV, Lauter CB. Case report: localized mucormycosis following intramuscular corticosteroid. Case report and review of the literature. Am J Med Sci 1978; 275: 209–16.
28. Kasai M, Harrington SM, Francesconi A *et al.* Detection of a molecular biomarker for zygomycetes by quantitative PCR assays of plasma, bronchoalveolar lavage, and lung tissue in a rabbit model of experimental pulmonary zygomycosis. J Clin Microbiol. 2008; 46: 3690–3702.
29. Keys TF, Halderson AM, Rhodes KH, Roberts GD, Fifer EZ. Nosocomial outbreak of *Rhizopus* infections associated with elastoplast wound dressing. Minnesota Morb Mort Wkly Rep 1978; 27: 33–4.
30. Kobayashi M, Hiruma M, Matsushita A, Kawai M, Ogawa H, Udagawa S. Cutaneous zygomycosis: A case report and review of Japanese reports. Mycoses 2001; 44: 311–15.
31. Kontoyiannis DP, Wessel VC, Bodey GP, Rolston VI. Zygomycosis in the 1990s in a tertiary-care cancer center. Clin Infect Dis 2000; 30: 851–6.
32. Kontoyiannis DP, Wessel VC, Bodey GP, Rolston VI. Zygomycosis in the 1990s in a tertiary-care cancer center. Clin Infect Dis 2000; 30: 851–6.
33. Lackner M, Caramalho R, Lass-Flörl C. Laboratory diagnosis of mucormycosis: current status and future perspectives. Future Microbiol. 2014; 9: 683–695.
34. Lamaris GA, Ben-Ami R, Lewis RE, Chamilos G, Samonis G, Kontoyiannis DP. Increased virulence of Zygomycetes organisms following exposure to voriconazole: a study involving fly and murine models of zygomycosis. J Infect Dis 2009; 199: 1399–406.
35. Larche J, Machouart M, Burton K *et al.* Diagnosis of cutaneous mucormycosis due to *Rhizopus microsporus* by an innovative PCR-restriction fragment-length polymorphism method. Clin Infect Dis. 2005; 41: 1362–1365.
36. Lee FY, Mossad SB, Adal KA. Pulmonary mucormycosis: the last 30 years. Arch Intern Med 1999; 159: 1301–9.
37. Lehrer RI, Howard DH *et al.* Mucormycosis. Ann Intern Med 1980; 9: 93–108.
38. Machouart M, Larche J, Burton K *et al.* Genetic identification of the main opportunistic mucorales by PCR-restriction fragment length polymorphism. J Clin Microbiol. 2006; 44: 805–810.
39. Maertens J, Demuyneck H, Verbeken EK *et al.* Mucormycosis in allogeneic bone marrow transplant recipients: report of five cases and review of the role of iron overload in the pathogenesis. Bone Marrow Transplant 1999; 24: 307–12.
40. Martinez EJ, Cancio MR, Sinnott J, Vincent AL, Brantley SG. Nonfatal gastric mucormycosis in a renal transplant recipient. South Med J 1997; 90: 341–4.
41. Meyer RD, Rosen P, Armstrong D. Phycomycosis complicating leukemia and lymphoma. Ann Intern Med 1972; 77: 871–9.
42. Michalak DM, Cooney DR, Rhodes KH, Telander RL, Kleinberg F. Gastrointestinal mucormycosis in infants and children: a cause of gangrenous intestinal cellulitis and perforation. J Pediatr Surg 1980; 15: 320–4.
43. Nagao K, Ota T, Tanikawa A *et al.* Genetic identification and detection of human pathogenic *Rhizopus* species, a major mucormycosis agent, by multiplex PCR based on internal transcribed spacer region of rRNA gene. J Dermatol Sci. 2005; 39: 23–31.
44. Nienow and Friedman, 1993. Terrestrial lithophytic (rock) communities EI Friedmann (Ed.), Antarctic Microbiology, Wiley-Liss, New York (1993), pp. 343-412

45. Nolan RL, Carter RR 3rd, Griffith JE, Chapman SW. Subacute disseminated mucormycosis in a diabetic male. *Am J Med Sci* 1989; 298: 252–5.
46. Nosari A, Oreste P, Montillo M et al. Mucormycosis in hematologic malignancies: an emerging fungal infection. *Haematologica* 2000; 85: 1068–71.
47. Parfrey NA. Improved diagnosis and prognosis of mucormycosis. A clinicopathologic study of 33 cases. *Medicine* 1986; 65: 113–23.
48. Parra R, Arnau E, Julia A, Lopez A, Nadal A, Allende E. Survival after intestinal mucormycosis in acute myelogenous leukemia. *Cancer* 1986; 58: 2717–19.
49. Paulo De Oliveira JE, Milech A. A fatal case of gastric mucormycosis and diabetic ketoacidosis. *EndocrPract* 2002; 8: 44–6.
50. Prabhu RM, Patel R. Mucormycosis and entomophthoromycosis: a review of the clinical manifestations, diagnosis and treatment, *ClinMicrobiol Infect*, 2004, vol. 10 Suppl 1(pg. 31-47).
51. Reed C, Bryant R, Ibrahim AS, et al.: Combination polyene-caspofungin treatment of rhino-orbital-cerebral mucormycosis. *Clin Infect Dis* 2008, 47:364–371. This retrospective study describes superior outcomes in patients with mucormycosis treated with combination polyene-echinocandin therapy.
52. Ribes JA, Vonover-Sams CL, Baker DJ. Zygomycetes in human disease. *ClinMicrobiol Rev* 2000; 13: 236–301.
53. Rubital et al., 2005 C Ruibal, G Platas, GF Bills. Isolation and characterization of melanized fungi from limestone in Mallorca. *Mycological Progress*, 4(2005), pp. 23-38
54. Ruoppi P, Dietz A, Nikanne E, Seppa J, Markkanen H, Nuutinen J. Paranasal sinus mucormycosis: a report of two cases. *ActaOtolaryngol* 2001; 121: 948–52.
55. Salas V, Pastor FJ, Calvo E et al. Efficacy of posaconazole in a murine model of disseminated infection caused by *Apophysomycesvariabilis*. *J AntimicrobChemother.* 2012; 67: 1712–1715.
56. Selbmann L, GS de Hoog, A Mazzaglia, EI Friedmann, S Onofri Fungi at the edge of life: cryptoendolithic black fungi from Antarctic deserts. *Studies in Mycology*, 51(2005), pp. 1-32
57. Solano T, Atkins B, Tambosis E, Mann S, Gottlieb T. Disseminated mucormycosis due to *Saksenaevasisiformis* in an immunocompetent adult. *Clin Infect Dis* 2000; 30: 942–3.
58. Spellberg B, Edwards Jr, Ibrahim A. Novel perspectives on mucormycosis: pathophysiology, presentation, and management, *ClinMicrobiol Rev*, 2005, vol. 18 (pg. 556-69).
59. Staley, J.T., F. Palmer and J.B. AAMS, 1982. Microcolonial fungi: common inhabitants on esert rocks? *Science*, 215: 1093- 1095.
60. Sterflinger, K. & Krumbein, W.E., 1997 – Dematiaceous fungi as a major agent for biopitting on Mediterranean marbles and limestones. – *Geomicrobial. J.* 14: 219-230.
61. Sterflinger, K. & SCHOLZ, J., 1997 – Bryozoan morphology a fungal infection. – *Cour. Forsh. –Inst. Senekenb.* 201: 433-447.
62. Sterflinger, K., 1995 – Geomicrobiological investigations on the alteration of marble monuments by dematiaceous fungi (Sanctuary of Delos, Cyclades, Greece). – PhD Thesis. University of Oldenburg. 138 pp.
63. Sugar AM. Agents of mucormycosis and related species. In: Mandell GL, Bennett JE, Dolin R, eds. *Principles and practice of infectious diseases*. 6th ed. Philadelphia, PA: Elsevier, 2005: 2979.
64. Sugar AM. Agents of mucormycosis and related species. In: Mandell, GI, Bennett JE, Dolin R, eds. *Mandell, Douglas, and Bennett's Principles and Practice of Infectious Diseases*, 5th edn. New York: Churchill Livingstone, 2000; 2685–95.
65. Talmi YP, Goldschmeid-Reouven A, Bakon M et al. Rhino-orbital and rhino-orbito-cerebral mucormycosis. *Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg* 2002; 127: 22–31.
66. Vadeboncoeur C, Walton JM, Raisen J, Soucy P, Lau H, Rubin S. Gastrointestinal mucormycosis causing an acute abdomen in the immunocompromised pediatric patient –three cases. *J PediatrSurg* 1994; 29: 1248–9.
67. Vera A, Stefan H, McMaster P, Buckels JAC. Invasive gastrointestinal zygomycosis in a liver transplant recipient: case report. *Transplantation* 2002; 73: 145–7.
68. Waldorf AR, Ruderman N, Diamond RD. Specific susceptibility to mucormycosis in murine diabetes and bronchoalveolar macrophage defense against *Rhizopus*. *J Clin Invest* 1984; 74:150–60.
69. Waldorf AR. Pulmonary defense mechanisms against opportunistic fungal pathogens. *ImmunolSer* 1989; 47:243–71.
70. Wall SJ, Lee KH, Alvarez JD, Bigelow DC. Quiz case 1. Cutaneous mucormycosis of the external ear. *Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg* 2000; 126: 238–9.
71. Walsh TJ, Hiemenz JW, Seibel NL, et al.: Amphotericin B lipid complex for invasive fungal infections: analysis of safety and efficacy in 556 cases. *Clin Infect Dis* 1998, 26:1383–1396.

72. Wollenzien U, GS de Hoog, WE Krumbein, C Urzi. On the isolation of microcolonial fungi occurring on and in marble and other calcareous rocks. *Science of the Total Environment*, 167 (1995), pp. 287-294.
73. Yohai RA, Bullock JD, Aziz AA, Markert RJ. Survival factors in rhino-orbital-cerebral mucormycosis. *SurvOphthalmol* 1994; 39: 3-22.
74. Zalaret.al.,1999 P Zalar, GS de Hoog, N Gunde- Cimerman. Ecology of halotolerant dothideaceous black yeast. *Studies in Mycology*, 43(1999), pp.38-48.