



# SARS-CoV-2 AND MUCORMYCOSIS: A REVIEW

Nishita Bhosale<sup>1</sup>, Amol Jamkhande<sup>2</sup>, Bhagyashree Kalsekar<sup>3</sup>, Neelam Gavali<sup>4</sup>, Vivek Nair<sup>5</sup>, Alok Ranjan<sup>6</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Assistant Professor, Department of Periodontology, Bharati Vidyapeeth (Deemed to be University) Dental College and Hospital, Pune.

<sup>2</sup>Professor, Department of Public Health Dentistry, Bharati Vidyapeeth (Deemed to be University) Dental College and Hospital, Pune.

<sup>3</sup>Assistant Professor, Department of Prosthodontics, Bharati Vidyapeeth (Deemed to be University) Dental College and Hospital, Pune.

<sup>4</sup>Assistant Professor, Department of Periodontology, Bharati Vidyapeeth (Deemed to be University) Dental College and Hospital, Pune.

<sup>5</sup>Assistant Professor, Department of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery, Bharati Vidyapeeth (Deemed to be University) Dental College and Hospital, Pune.

<sup>6</sup>Assistant Professor, Department of Orthodontics, Bharati Vidyapeeth (Deemed to be University) Dental College and Hospital, Mumbai.

## ABSTRACT

Mucormycosis is a rare and devastating disease caused by a ubiquitous fungus that belongs to the class Zygomycetes and order Mucorales. It is an opportunistic fungal infection which is most commonly seen in immunocompromised patients. The pandemic coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) continues to be a significant problem worldwide. SARS-CoV-2 is a cytokine storm syndrome that causes severe immunosuppression that might compromise the host response and increase the risk to develop opportunistic infections. There are several cases which have shown occurrence of Mucormycosis in patients who have a history of COVID-19. Therefore this review will highlight about the fungal infection Mucormycosis and its relation with COVID-19 disease.

**Key words:** SARS-CoV-2, Mucormycosis, Opportunistic infection

**DOI Number:** 10.14704/nq.2022.20.8.NQ44393

**NeuroQuantology 2022; 20(8): 3642-3648**

## INTRODUCTION

The pandemic disease coronavirus 2019 (COVID-19) still poses to be a significant problem worldwide. SARS-CoV-2 is responsible for lower respiratory infection and can cause Acute Respiratory Distress Syndromes (ARDS)<sup>1</sup>. The disease pattern of COVID-19 can range from mild to life-threatening pneumonia with associated bacterial and fungal coinfections<sup>2</sup>. Due to the associated

comorbidities (e.g., diabetes mellitus, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease) and immune compromised conditions (e.g. corticosteroid therapy, ventilation, intensive care unit stay), these patients are prone to develop severe opportunistic infections.<sup>3-4</sup> Several treatment options have been evaluated, none except systemic glucocorticoids have been shown to improve survival in COVID-19. However the usage of glucocorticoids can lead to secondary



bacterial or fungal infections. Moreover, the immune dysregulation caused by the virus and the use of concurrent immunomodulatory drugs such as tocilizumab could further increase the risk of infections in COVID-19 patients<sup>5-6</sup>. There are reports of the development of severe opportunistic infections such as oropharyngeal candidiasis, pneumocystis jiroveci pneumonia, pulmonary aspergillosis, bloodstream candida infections, etc., in patients affected with COVID-19 disease<sup>4,7</sup>. There are also few isolated case reports of rhino-orbital mucormycosis in COVID-19 patients<sup>8-9</sup>. Senet *al.* recently reported a series of six cases of COVID-19 disease with rhino-orbital mucormycosis<sup>10</sup>. Mucormycosis (previously called zygomycosis) is a rare and devastating disease caused by a ubiquitous fungus that belongs to the class Zygomycetes and order Mucorales<sup>11</sup>. This review gives an insight about the relation between SARS-CoV-2 and mucormycosis.

## MUCORMYCOSIS

The most common infections associated with immune compromised individuals are the fungal infections. They can be localized, systemic and invasive. Fungal infections can also have nosocomial etiology.

Phycomycosis or zygomycosis was first described in 1885 by Paltauf<sup>12</sup> and later coined as Mucormycosis in 1957 by Baker<sup>13</sup> for an aggressive infection caused by *Rhizopus*. The two orders, Mucorales and Entomophthorales belongs to the class Zygomycetes. These two orders produce dramatically different infections. Genera from the order Mucorales (*Rhizopus*, *Mucor*, *Rhizomucor*, *Absidia*, *Apophomyces*, *Cunninghamella* and *Saksenaea*) cause an angioinvasive infection called mucormycosis<sup>14</sup>. The nomenclature of Mucormycosis is suggested by anatomic site localization rather than by mycological classification. They can be classified according to the head and neck region as isolated nasal, rhino-orbital or rhino-orbital-cerebral Mucormycosis. Other accepted forms are pulmonary, disseminated, cutaneous, gastrointestinal and miscellaneous<sup>15</sup>. The majority of clinical isolates accounts for the fungi of the genus *Rhizopus*. Mucoraceae are

ubiquitous saprophytic fungi and are common inhabitants of decaying matter also found in bread, soil, air, dust and hospital ward rooms<sup>16-18</sup>. The organisms are potent in the temperate climates<sup>19</sup>. The most common risk factors being diabetes mellitus, immunosuppressive therapy, leukaemia's and neutropenias<sup>19</sup>. Patients with neutrophil dysfunction, hematopoietic stem cell transplantation, diabetic ketoacidosis, iron-overload and HIV/AIDs are some identifiable risk factors. The mold usually gains entry into the host through the respiratory tract and exhibits a remarkable affinity for arteries and grows along internal elastic lamina causing thrombosis and infarction<sup>20</sup>. The disease progresses from the nose and sinuses either directly or via vascular occlusion. Intracranial involvement also occurs by invasion through superior orbital fissure, ophthalmic vessels, cribriform plate<sup>21</sup>, and carotid artery or possibly via a perineural route<sup>22</sup>.

Diagnosis is classically dependent on clinical features & pathological findings. Imaging plays an important role in defining the extent of involvement<sup>23</sup>. Early establishment of the diagnosis and prompt surgical intervention, aids in controlling the extent and severity of the disease.

## SARS-CoV-2 AND MUCORMYCOSIS

SARS-CoV-2 infection might alter the immune system by affecting T lymphocytes, particularly CD4+ and CD8+ T cells, which might be highly involved in the pathological process of COVID-19 infection<sup>24</sup>. The significant reduction of the absolute number of lymphocytes and specifically of T cells described in the most severe COVID-19 cases, is associated with the worst outcome and could expose patients to a higher risk of developing opportunistic infections<sup>25</sup>.

Mucormycosis is a fungal infection that might involve different organs, the most frequently affected of which are the lungs.<sup>26-27</sup>

Delay in diagnosis, an unbalanced immune system and a poor host response leads to high mortality rate in pulmonary localization. The treatment is also complex which includes a combination of antifungal therapy and a high-risk surgical intervention<sup>28</sup>. Generally, mucormycosis affects immune compromised



patients: as a matter of fact, a recent systematic review showed that solid organ transplantations and neutropenia, commonly reported in patients affected by haematological malignancies, were the only independent risk factors for pulmonary mucormycosis<sup>29</sup>. Furthermore, SARS-CoV-2 infection itself might trigger an alteration of the immune system<sup>30</sup>. A complex interplay of factors, including pre-existing diseases, such as previous respiratory pathology, diabetes mellitus, use of immunosuppressive therapy, the risk of hospital-acquired infections, and systemic immune alterations of COVID-19 infection itself may lead to secondary infections, which are increasingly being recognized in view of their impact on morbidity and mortality.<sup>31</sup> Koehler et al, in a recent retrospective study, analysed a cohort of patients admitted to ICU due to COVID-19 showing moderate to severe acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) who developed invasive pulmonary aspergillosis as a consequence of the immune-paralysis related to SARS-CoV-2 infection<sup>32</sup>.

Mucormycosis can involve nose, sinuses, orbit, central nervous system (CNS), lung (pulmonary), gastrointestinal tract (GIT), skin, jaw bones, joints, heart, kidney, and mediastinum (invasive type), but Rhino orbital cerebral Mucormycosis (ROCM) is the commonest variety seen in clinical practice world<sup>33</sup>. It should be noted that term ROCM refers to the entire spectrum ranging from limited sino-nasal disease (sino-nasal tissue invasion), limited rhino-orbital disease (progression to orbits) to rhino-orbital-cerebral disease (CNS involvement).<sup>34</sup> The area of involvement may differ due to underlying conditions. For example, Rhino orbital cerebral Mucormycosis (ROCM) is frequently observed in association with uncontrolled diabetes, whereas pulmonary involvement is often observed in patients having neutropenia, bone marrow and organ transplant, and hematological malignancies, while GIT gets involved more in malnourished individuals.<sup>35</sup>

Recent reports indicate presence of Mucor in post covid patients between 15-17 days from day of covid report or even day 20, especially in patients who are diabetic or who have been

given a high dose of steroids during the 14 day treatment or whose sugar levels have increased high during those 14 days. Patients show signs & symptoms of MUCOR infection such as Facial Pain, Para-esthesia or complete anesthesia in Malar region, Pain, Para-esthesia or complete anesthesia in the region of Alveolus &/or hard palate, Pain &/Swelling in the Orbit (Eye) or in the peri-orbital Region, Chemosis, Fixed eyeball movements, Diplopia, Loss of vision, Nasal Discharge, Blackish necrotic elements coming out from the nose or sometimes oral cavity, Frontal Head ache. Patient may present with one, two, many or all the above mentioned symptoms.<sup>35</sup>

Patients suffering from severe viral pneumonia are at greater risk for developing ARDS that necessitates ICU admission, external respiratory support and corticosteroid therapy on background lung damage, conditions that worsen the overall clinical outcome. In a study on 432 patients with severe influenza pneumonia admitted to ICU, IPA (invasive pulmonary aspergillosis) was reported in 83 (19%) within a median of 3 days after admission. Further, the study reported 3-month mortality rates of 51% in patients with influenza/IPA (invasive pulmonary aspergillosis) co-infection versus 28% in those without IPA (invasive pulmonary aspergillosis)<sup>36</sup>.

Early diagnosis and treatment is the key for treating this opportunistic infection.

The 1950 Smith and Krichner<sup>37</sup> criteria for the clinical diagnosis of mucormycosis are still considered to be gold standard and include:

- Black, necrotic turbinate's easily mistaken for dried, crusted blood,
- Blood-tinged nasal discharge and facial pain, both on the same side,
- Soft peri-orbital or peri-nasal swelling with discoloration and induration.
- Ptosis of the eyelid, proptosis of the eyeball and complete ophthalmoplegia
- Multiple cranial nerve palsies unrelated to documented lesions.

Advances in diagnosis have impacted the increasing reports on invasive mucormycosis in susceptible patients like those with diabetes ketoacidosis secondary to uncontrolled



diabetes, solid organ transplant (SOT), chronic respiratory diseases and corticosteroid therapy<sup>36</sup>. Since there are overlapping risk factors for developing IPA (invasive pulmonary aspergillosis) and pulmonary mucormycosis in patients with severe viral pneumonia,<sup>38</sup> it implies that pneumonia-associated mucormycosis is presumably under-diagnosed or under-reported. The prominent risk factors for sinus mucormycosis are hyperglycaemia, use of IV dexamethasone and underlying lung pathology as highlighted by other studies<sup>39-41</sup>.

Laboratory parameters such as CBC, ESR, FBS, PPBS, HbA1C, LFT, and RFT with electrolytes, CSF (if indicated) should be carried out. Nasal Endoscopic examination should be carried out for black necrotic eschar tissue.

Atypical chest imaging is seen at early phase of the disease or with extra pulmonary fungal infections. Therefore, surveillance of fungal pathogens is necessary for severely ill patients. This includes (i) etiological examination: direct microscopy and culture; (ii) histopathology; (iii) serology: antigen and antibody, (1,3)-b-D-glucan (BDG)<sup>42</sup> and galactomannan (GM) detection by serum are also need to be tested for suspicious patients, while bronchoalveolar lavage fluid (BALF) and tracheal aspirate (TA) sampling for culture and biomarker testing should be performed under well-protected conditions due to the risk of aerosol spreading and health care worker infections<sup>43</sup>(iv) PCR-based methods: Real-time polymerase chain reaction (PCR) techniques and molecular identification can be performed to identify pathogens if necessary<sup>44</sup>. After identifying the pathogen, the antifungal susceptibility testing (AST) can be performed to select sensitive antifungal drugs. If the AST cannot be carried out, it should be treated empirically. The European Confederation of Medical Mycology Mucormycosis Guidelines strongly suggest an early surgical treatment to remove the infected tissue (either through local debridement or complete resection) in addition to systemic antifungal treatment<sup>45</sup>.

There are number of triggering factors that may precipitate mucormycosis in people with COVID-19 in relation to corticosteroids.<sup>35</sup>

- (i) Presence of Diabetes mellitus with or without Diabetic ketoacidosis increases the risk of contracting mucormycosis and Diabetes mellitus is often associated with an increased severity of COVID-19,
- (ii) Uncontrolled hyperglycemia and precipitation of Diabetes keto-acidosis is often observed due to corticosteroid intake. The fertile media for mucor spores to germinate is low pH due to acidosis. Moreover, steroid use reduces the phagocytic activity of WBC (both first line and second line defense mechanism), causes impairment of bronchoalveolar macrophages migration, ingestion, and phagolysosome fusion, making a diabetic patient exceptionally vulnerable to mucormycosis.
- (iii) COVID-19 often causes endothelialitis, endothelial damage, thrombosis, lymphopenia, and reduction in CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup> level and thus predisposes to secondary or opportunistic fungal infection,
- (iv) Free available iron is an ideal resource for mucormycosis. Hyperglycemia causes glycosylation of transferrin and ferritin, and reduces iron binding allowing increased free iron. Moreover, increase in cytokines in patients with COVID-19 especially interleukin-6, increases free iron by increasing ferritin levels due to increased synthesis and decreased iron transport. Furthermore, concomitant acidosis increases free iron by the same mechanism and additionally by reducing the ability of transferrin to chelate iron,
- (v) High glucose, low pH, free iron, and ketones in presence of decreased phagocytic activity of WBC, enhances the growth of mucor. In addition, it enhances the expression of glucose-regulator protein 78 (GRP-78) of endothelium cells and fungal ligand spore coating homolog (CotH) protein, enabling angio-invasion, haematogenous dissemination and tissue necrosis<sup>46</sup>



Therefore, it might be suggested that SARS-CoV-2 infection by itself can induce an immunosuppressive state that exposes the patient to the risk of developing opportunistic Infections, such as moulds. These kind of infections by themselves are associated with the worst outcome, especially when the immune system response does not improve. However, when the immune system recovers, opportunistic infections might be controlled<sup>47</sup>.

## CONCLUSION

SARS-CoV-2 infection is considered as a cytokine storm syndrome that causes severe immunosuppression that might compromise the host response and increase the risk to develop opportunistic infections, including those caused by moulds. Mucormycosis develops as an opportunistic infection in immunocompromised SARS-CoV-2 patients with uncontrolled diabetes and those who are on high dose of steroid thereby leading to higher risk of negative outcomes in the case of delayed diagnosis and inadequate treatment. The key to fight this fungal infection is early diagnosis and treatment.

## REFERENCES

1. Wang Y, Wang Y, Chen Y, Qin Q. Unique epidemiological and clinical features of the emerging 2019 novel coronavirus pneumonia (COVID-19) implicate special control measures. *J Med Virol.* 2020 Jun;92(6):568-576.
2. Mehta S, Pandey A. Rhino-orbital mucormycosis associated with COVID-19. *Cureus.* 2020 September: 12(9)
3. Salehi M, Ahmadikia K, Badali H, Khodavaisy S. Opportunistic fungal infections in the epidemic area of COVID-19: A clinical and diagnostic perspective from Iran. *Mycopathologia.* 2020;185:607–11.
4. Chowdhary A, Tarai B, Singh A, Sharma A. Multidrug-resistant *Candida auris* infections in critically ill coronavirus disease patients, India, April–July 2020. *Emerg Infect Dis.* 2020; 26:2694–6.
5. Kumar G, Adams A, Herrera M, Rojas ER, Singh V, Sakhuja A, Meersman M, Dalton D, Kethireddy S, Nanchal R, Guddati AK. Predictors and outcomes of healthcare-associated infections in COVID-19 patients. *Int J Infect Dis.* 2021 Mar;104:287-292.
6. Kimmig LM, Wu D, Gold M, Pettit NN, Pitrak D, Mueller J, et al. IL-6 inhibition in critically ill COVID-19 patients is associated with increased secondary infections. *Front Med Lausanne.* 2020; 7:583897.
7. Salehi M, Ahmadikia K, Badali H, Khodavaisy S. Opportunistic fungal infections in the epidemic area of COVID-19: A clinical and diagnostic perspective from Iran. *Mycopathologia.* 2020; 185:607–11.
8. Mehta S, Pandey A. Rhino-orbital mucormycosis associated with COVID-19. *Cureus.* 2020;12:e10726.
9. Mekonnen ZK, Ashraf DC, Jankowski T, Grob SR, Vagefi MR, Kersten RC, Simko JP, Winn BJ. Acute Invasive Rhino-Orbital Mucormycosis in a Patient With COVID-19-Associated Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome. *Ophthalmic Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2021 Mar-Apr 01;37(2):e40-e80.
10. Sen M, Lahane S, Lahane TP, Parekh R, Honavar SG. Mucor in a viral land: A tale of two pathogens. *Indian J Ophthalmol.* 2021;69:244–52.
11. Adhikari S, Gautam AR, Paudyal B, Sigdel KR, Basnyat B. Case report: gastric mucormycosis- a rare but important differential diagnosis of upper gastrointestinal bleeding in an area of *Helicobacter pylori* endemicity. *Wellcome Open Res* 2019;4:5
12. Paltauf A. Mycosis mucorina: Ein Beitrag zur Kenntnis der menschlichen Fadenpilzkrankungen. *Virchows Arch. Pathol. Anat.* 1885;102:543–564.
13. Baker RD. Mucormycosis—A New Disease? *JAMA.* 1957;163(10):805–808.
14. Herbrecht R, Letscher-Bru V, Bowden RA et al. Treatment of 21 cases of invasive mucormycosis with amphotericin B colloidal dispersion. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* 2001; 20: 460– 6.
15. M. Safi, M.J. Ang, P. Patel, R.Z. Silkiss, Rhino-orbital-cerebral mucormycosis (ROCM) and associated cerebritis treated



- with adjuvant retrobulbar amphotericin B, *Am. J. Ophthalmol. Case Rep.* 19 (2020) 10077113.
16. M. Safi, M.J. Ang, P. Patel, R.Z. Silkiss, Rhino-orbital-cerebral mucormycosis (ROCM) and associated cerebritis treated with adjuvant retrobulbar amphotericin B, *Am. J. Ophthalmol. Case Rep.* 19 (2020) 100771.
  17. J.S. Kolekar, Rhinocerebral mucormycosis: a retrospective study, *Indian J. Otolaryngol. Head Neck Surg.* 67 (1) (2015) 93–96.
  18. C.R. Camara-Lemarroy, E.I. González-Moreno, R. Rodríguez-Gutiérrez, E. J. Rendón-Ramírez, A.S. Ayala-Cortés, M.L. Fraga-Hernández, L. García-Labastida, D.A. Galarza-Delgado, Clinical features and outcome of mucormycosis, *Interdiscip. Perspect. Infect. Dis.* 2014 (2014) 562610.
  19. Y.P. Talmi, A. Goldschmied-Reouven, M. Bakon, I. Barshack, M. Wolf, Z. Horowitz, et al., Rhino-orbital and rhino-orbito-cerebral mucormycosis, *Otolaryngol. Head Neck Surg.* 127 (1) (2002 Jul 1) 22–31.
  20. Gupta S, Goyal R, Kaore NM. Rhino-Orbital-Cerebral Mucormycosis: Battle with the Deadly Enemy. *Indian J Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg.* 2020 Mar;72(1):104-111.
  21. Parsi K, Itgampalli RK, Vittal R, Kumar A. Perineural spread of rhino-orbitocerebral mucormycosis caused by *Apophysomyces elegans*. *Ann Indian Acad Neurol.* 2013 Jul;16(3):414-7.
  22. P. Bawankar, S. Lahane, P. Pathak, P. Gonde, A. Singh, Central retinal artery occlusion as the presenting manifestation of invasive rhino-orbital-cerebral mucormycosis, *Taiwan J. Ophthalmol.* 10 (1) (2020) 62–65.
  23. P.G. Deutsch, J. Whittaker, S. Prasad, Invasive and non-invasive fungal rhinosinusitis—a review and update of the evidence, *Medicina* 55 (2019) 1–14.
  24. Liu J, Li S, Liu J, et al. Longitudinal characteristics of lymphocyte responses and cytokine profiles in the peripheral blood of SARS-CoV-2 infected patients. *EBioMedicine.* 2020; 55:102763.4.
  25. Peng M, Meng H, Sun Y, et al. Clinical features of pulmonary mucormycosis in patients with different immune status. *J Thorac Dis.* 2019;11:5042–52.3.
  26. Lin E, Moua T, Limper AH. Pulmonary mucormycosis: clinical features and outcomes. *Infection.* 2017;45:443–8.2,
  27. Peng M, Meng H, Sun Y, et al. Clinical features of pulmonary mucormycosis in patients with different immune status. *J Thorac Dis.* 2019;11:5042–52.3.
  28. Peng M, Meng H, Sun Y, et al. Clinical features of pulmonary mucormycosis in patients with different immune status. *J Thorac Dis.* 2019;11:5042–52.3.
  29. Jeong W, Keighley C, Wolfe R, Lee WL, Slavin MA, Kong DCM, Chen SC. The epidemiology and clinical manifestations of mucormycosis: a systematic review and meta-analysis of case reports. *Clin Microbiol Infect.* 2019 Jan;25(1):26-34.
  30. Liu J, Li S, Liu J, Liang B, Wang X, Wang H, Li W, Tong Q, Yi J, Zhao L, Xiong L, Guo C, Tian J, Luo J, Yao J, Pang R, Shen H, Peng C, Liu T, Zhang Q, Wu J, Xu L, Lu S, Wang B, Weng Z, Han C, Zhu H, Zhou R, Zhou H, Chen X, Ye P, Zhu B, Wang L, Zhou W, He S, He Y, Jie S, Wei P, Zhang J, Lu Y, Wang W, Zhang L, Li L, Zhou F, Wang J, Dittmer U, Lu M, Hu Y, Yang D, Zheng X. Longitudinal characteristics of lymphocyte responses and cytokine profiles in the peripheral blood of SARS-CoV-2 infected patients. *EBioMedicine.* 2020 May;55:102763
  31. Mehta S, Pandey A Rhino-Orbital Mucormycosis Associated With COVID-19. *Cureus.* September 30, 2020 12(9): e10726.
  32. Koehler P, Cornely OA, Bottiger BW, et al. COVID-19 associated pulmonary aspergillosis. *Mycoses.* 2020;63:528–3418.
  33. Sugar AM. Mucormycosis. *Clin Infect Dis.* 1992 Mar;14 Suppl1:S126-9.
  34. K.L. Peterson, M. Wang, F.R. Canalis, E. Abemayor. Rhinocerebral mucormycosis: evolution of the disease and treatment options. *Laryngoscope*, 107 (1997), pp. 855-862.
  35. Singh AK, Singh R, Joshi SR, Misra A. Mucormycosis in COVID-19: A systematic review of cases reported worldwide and in India. *Diabetes Metab Syndr.* 2021 May 21;15(4):102146.



36. Ahmadikia K, Hashemi SJ, Khodavaisy S, Getso MI, Alijani N, Badali H, Mirhendi H, Salehi M, Tabari A, Mohammadi Ardehali M, Kord M, Roilides E, Rezaie S. The double-edged sword of systemic corticosteroid therapy in viral pneumonia: A case report and comparative review of influenza-associated mucormycosis versus COVID-19 associated mucormycosis. *Mycoses*. 2021 Feb 16;10.1111/myc.13256.
37. H.W. Smith, J.A. Kirchner Cerebral mucormycosis: a report of 3 cases *Arch Otolaryngol*, 68 (1950), pp. 715-726.
38. Prakash H, Chakrabarti A. Global Epidemiology of Mucormycosis. *J Fungi (Basel)*. 2019 Mar 21;5(1):26
39. Cao B, Gao H, Zhou B, et al. Adjuvant corticosteroid treatment in adults with influenza A (H7N9) viral pneumonia. *Crit Care Med*. 2016;44(6):e318-e328.
40. Ajmal S, Mahmood M, Abu Saleh O, Larson J, Sohail MR. Invasive fungal infections associated with prior respiratory viral infections in immunocompromised hosts. *Infection*. 2018;46(4):555-558.
41. Petrikkos G, Tsioutis C. Recent advances in the pathogenesis of mucormycoses. *Clin Ther*. 2018;40(6):894-902.
42. Lahmer T, da Costa CP, Held J, Rasch S, Ehmer U, Schmid RM, et al. Usefulness of 1,3 beta-D-glucan detection in non HIV immunocompromised mechanical ventilated critically ill patients with ARDS and suspected *Pneumocystis jirovecii* pneumonia. *Mycopathologia*. 2017;182(7-8):701-8.
43. Prattes J, Valentin T, Hoenigl M, Talakic E, Reisinger AC, Eller P. Invasive pulmonary aspergillosis complicating COVID-19 in the ICU - A case report. *Med Mycol Case Rep*. 2021 Mar;31:2-5.
44. HageChadi A, Carmona Eva M, Epelbaum Oleg, EvansScott E, Gabe Luke M, HaydourQusay, Knox Kenneth S, Kolls Jay K, Hassan Murad M, Wengenack Nancy L, Limper Andrew H. Erratum: Microbiological laboratory testing in the diagnosis of fungal infections in pulmonary and critical care practice. *An Official American Thoracic Society Clinical Practice Guideline*. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2019; 200(10):132625.
45. Cornely OA, Alastruey-Izquierdo A, Arenz D, et al. Global guideline for the diagnosis and management of mucormycosis: an initiative of the European Confederation of Medical Mycology in cooperation with the Mycoses Study Group Education and Research Consortium. *Lancet Infect Dis*. 2019; 19:e405-21.11.
46. C. Baldin, A.S. Ibrahim Molecular mechanisms of mucormycosis -The bitter and the sweet *PLoS Pathog*, 13 (8) (2017) e1006408.
47. Lamoth F, Kontoyiannis DP. Therapeutic challenges of non-aspergillus invasive mold infections in immunosuppressed patients. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2019;63:e01244.16 .
48. Eucker J, Sezer O, Graf B, Possinger K. Mucormycoses. *Mycoses*. 2001;44(7-8):253-60.3.

