


# COVID-19 Associated Fungal infections in Guntur, Andhra Pradesh: A Descriptive Study

Naseema Shaik<sup>1,\*</sup> , Tharangini Karicheti<sup>2</sup>, Padmaja Yarlagadda<sup>3</sup>, Uma Penmetcha<sup>4</sup>

<sup>1,2,3,4\*</sup> Department of Microbiology, NRI Medical College and General Hospital, Chinakakani, Guntur, Andhra Pradesh, India.

## Keywords

Post-COVID-19  
Mucormycosis  
Risk factors  
Fungal species

## Abstract

**Background:** Since the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic's second wave in India, there has been an unprecedented rise of life-threatening cases of rhinocerebral mucormycosis (RCM) by various fungi like *Mucor*, *Aspergillus*, *Candida*, and others in post-COVID-19 patients, especially in presence of immunosuppressive conditions due to their invasive potential.

**Aim:** To assess the incidence of COVID-19 mucormycosis on routine culture methods and various risk factors associated with the second and third wave of COVID-19.

**Material and Methods:** The descriptive cross-sectional study was conducted from April 1st, 2021 to February 28<sup>th</sup> 2022, in the department of Microbiology, NRI medical college, and General Hospital, Guntur, Andhra Pradesh, India. The present study included 240 specimens from suspected post-COVID mucormycosis cases. The statistical analysis of data was done using MS Excel 2010.

**Results:** Out of 240 specimens, 192 (80%) fungal isolates were isolated. Most of the cases are seen in males and the main risk factor was diabetes mellitus (89%). Most of the species isolated were *Mucor* species followed by *Aspergillus* species, *Candida* species, *Rhizopus* species, and *Absidia* species. Antifungal sensitivity of *Candida* species showed good susceptibility to azole discs.

**Conclusion:** The study concluded that if infected, early diagnosis with culture, strategies to maintain a glycaemic index, and cautious use of corticosteroids, anti-fungal treatment, and surgical intervention should be sought for management, for good prognosis and less fulminant disease course can be achieved in post-COVID rhinocerebral mucormycosis cases.

## Copyright

Copyright: © 2022 The Author(s). Published by Society of Open Science. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).

## 1 Introduction

A wide range of opportunistic bacterial and fungal infections associated with coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) are caused by severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) [1]. Order Mucorales which include *Rhizopus*, *Mucor*, *Rhizomucor*, *Cunninghamella*, and *Absidia* are the causative fungi of this angioinvasive disease [2]. In India, its prevalence is assessed to be 140 per million population which is approximately 80 times greater than in developed countries. The mucormycosis incidence rate varies globally from 0.005 to 1.7 per million population [3]. Due to the bizarre fact of the rapidity of dissemination of mucormycosis, even a delay of 12 hours in diagnosis could be fatal. Historically, 50% of mucormycosis cases have been diagnosed only in the post-mortem autopsy series [4]. Mucormycosis was first described by Paultauf

in 1885 also called as phycomycosis or zygomycosis [5]. Later, the term mucormycosis was coined by Baker in 1957 an American pathologist for an aggressive infection caused by *Rhizopus* [6]. Zygomycosis is an invasive fungal infection caused by a number of fungi belonging to the class Zygomycetes, which is subdivided into two orders, the Mucorales and the Entomophthorales, which are associated with chronic cutaneous and subcutaneous infections that are almost exclusively limited to the tropics and rarely disseminate to internal organs [7]. Mucormycosis is an uncommon but fatal fungal infection caused by fungus of the order Mucorales that usually affects immunocompromised patients [8]. The most common species isolated was *Candida albicans* (44%) and among non-*albicans Candida* (NAC), *C. auris* (23.2%) and some rare cases of infection by *C. glabrata*, *C. parapsilosis*, and *C. tropicalis* were also reported by some recent studies during COVID-19 period [9]. In the

current severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) pandemic, fungal co-infections like *Aspergillus* and *Candida* species, among COVID-19 patients in intensive care units (ICUs) were reported [10].

In India and globally, a variety of other complications may emerge in several COVID-19 cases like hypoxia, hyperglycemia in diabetes cases, diabetic ketoacidosis, increased ferritin levels, steroid-induced hyperglycemia, and prolonged hospitalization due to mechanical ventilation including hospital-acquired secondary infections [11]. In India, the most common underlying disease in mucormycosis is uncontrolled diabetes mellitus, in contrast to patients with hematologic malignancies and solid organ transplant recipients in developed countries [12]. India has a very high prevalence rate of type 2 diabetes mellitus. Both COVID-19 infection and diabetes mellitus act as independent risk factors for mucormycosis. Following the rise of COVID-19 associated mucormycosis, the Government of India directive has named "Mucormycosis" a notifiable disease in many states of India on May 10<sup>th</sup>, 2021 [3].

The present study was done to assess the incidence of COVID-19 associated fungal infections on routine culture methods and various risk factors associated with the second and third wave of COVID-19.

## 2 Material and Methods

A descriptive cross-sectional study was conducted from the second wave of the pandemic, April 1<sup>st</sup>, 2021 to the third-wave, February 28<sup>th</sup>, 2022. A total of 240 specimens, including biopsy of necrotized tissues from paranasal sinuses, followed by hard palate, nasal cavity, sputum, orbital tissue, and brain abscess were obtained from patients admitted in IP departments such as ENT, Ophthalmology, ICU, and COVID-19 ward for the detection of fungal isolates in a Microbiology laboratory at NRI Medical College and General Hospital, Guntur, Andhra Pradesh. Institutional ethics committee approval was taken. The demographic details like age, gender, and clinical diagnosis (including previous positive COVID-19 reports) were recorded from medical records.

The specimens were brought to the laboratory in sterile containers and swabs. The specimens were processed by using a set of preliminary tests like wet mount (KOH Preparation), Gram stain, and culture on SDA and incubated at 25°C for 2 days to 3 weeks. Cultures were identified by the colony characters and confirmed by lactophenol cotton blue mount and Gram's stain. Speciation of *Candida* species was done by HiChrom *Candida* agar medium (HiMedia, Mumbai, India) and antifungal susceptibility testing of the *Candida* isolates was assessed by agar diffusion method using Clinical Laboratory Standards Institute Guidelines [13]. The antifungal agents used for the disc diffusion method are amphotericin B (100 units), fluconazole (10 µg), voriconazole (1 µg), ketoconazole (10 µg), and

itraconazole (10 µg). The diameters of the zones of inhibition obtained were compared with the standard zones interpretive breakpoints published by CLSI M44-A guidelines [13] with antifungal discs.

Statistical analysis (Mean, median, and percentages of continuous variables) was done using MS Excel 2010.

## 3 Results and Discussion

During the study period, data were recorded on patients profile such as age, sex, site of isolation, underlying risk factors along with different *Zygomucor* species, *Candida* isolated and their antifungal susceptibility pattern. Out of 240 specimens, a total of 192 (80%), fungal isolates were isolated in the present study. No specimen was received during the third wave. The highest incidence was seen in the age group of 51-60 years (26%), and the least incidence was seen in the age group of 11-20 years (1.5%). The majority of patients are males (Table-1). Male: Female ratio is 3: 1. The mean age is 51.17. In this study, most of the specimens were from paranasal sinuses (80%), followed by hard palate (8%), nasal cavity (5%), sputum (4%), orbital tissue (2%), and brain abscess (1%).

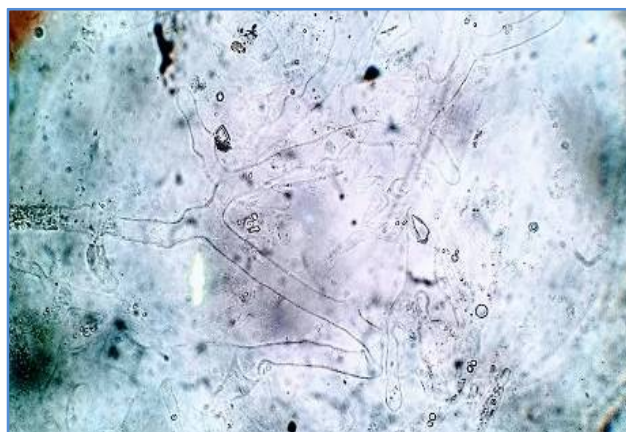
In the present study, patients with COVID-19, diabetes mellitus (n = 171; 89%) was found to be the major risk factor followed by, prolonged hospital stay with steroid therapy (n = 135; 70%), age (n = 112; 58.3%), oxygen support (n = 100; 52%), and other comorbidities like increased antibiotic use (n = 69; 36%), hypertension (n = 88; 46%), coronary artery disease (n = 78; 40%), chronic kidney diseases (n = 38; 20%), and organ transplant (n = 2; 1%).

**Table 1: Age and Gender wise Distribution of COVID Associated Rhino orbital cerebral mucormycosis.**

Age (years)	Female (%)	Male (%)	Total (%)
11-20	2 (1.3%)	1 (2%)	3 (1.5%)
21-30	4 (2.7%)	1 (2%)	5 (2.6%)
31-40	27 (18.7%)	14 (29.1%)	41 (21.3%)
41-50	30 (21%)	9 (18.7%)	39 (20.3%)
51-60	40 (28%)	10 (20.8%)	50 (26%)
61-70	29 (20.1%)	9 (18.7%)	38 (19.7%)
71-80	12 (8.3%)	4 (8.3%)	16 (8.3%)
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>48 (25%)</b>	<b>144 (75%)</b>	<b>192 (100%)</b>

The microbiological analysis of tissue specimens showed fungal hyphae treated with 10% potassium hydroxide (Fig-1) and Gram stain shows Gram-positive budding yeast cells with pseudohyphae. Culture on SDA was incubated at 25°C, and *Zygomycota* species were observed to grow rapidly in 1-2 days, especially in samples of post steroidal usage and diabetes mellitus. Fungal growth was identified on SDA. Then lactophenol cotton blue mount is used to confirm the colony morphology, septation in hyphae, vesicles, conidia, sporangia, and sporangiophores (Fig-2).

**Figure 1: KOH Mount showing broad aseptate hyaline hyphae with wide-angle branching.**



In the present study, out of 192 culture-positive fungal isolates only 84.3% of fungal hyphae are reported on KOH Mount (Table-2). Most of the species isolated are *Mucor* species (56.7%) followed by *Aspergillus* species (18.6%), *Candida* species (9.9%), *Rhizopus* species (9.3%), and *Absidia* species (5.2%). Most of the *Candida* species isolated on HiChrom agar are non-*albicans* *Candida* (NAC) i.e., *C. tropicalis*, *C. krusei*, *C. kefyr*, *C. albicans*, and *C. dubliniensis*. Antifungal sensitivity of *Candida* species showed good sensitivity to the azole group of drugs, as shown in Table-3, which is being rampantly being used in post-COVID mucormycosis cases.

During the severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) pandemic, a higher incidence of fungal co-infections was reported among COVID-19 patients in intensive care units (ICUs) [10]. During the second wave of COVID-19, 192 fungal

species were isolated out of 240 specimens received in the Microbiology laboratory and no specimen was received after the onset of the third wave. The study findings showed that the majority of patients were male and their mean age was 51.7 years. These demographic details of patients were similar to those of a previous study which studied a population of 82 patients of which two-thirds were male and aged between 31–60 years [14], and a similar study reported mean age of 54.4 years and male preponderance [15].

**Figure 2: LPCB mount showing broad aseptate hyaline hyphae with rhizoids and sporangiophores arise and then end with sporangium filled with numerous sporangiospores.**



In the present study, diabetes mellitus was the main risk factor seen in 89% of patients, which is consistent with previous studies indicating that diabetes mellitus is a predisposing factor in 17–88% of cases globally and in India [11,15]. Some case series described diabetes as a main risk factor in 90% of cases of which 52% had the uncontrolled disease [16,17].

**Table 2: Distribution of different fungal species isolated from COVID-associated mucormycosis specimens.**

Fungal Species	Total-n (%)	KOH Mount Positive-n (%)	Culture Positive-n (%)
<i>Mucor</i> spp.	109 (56.7%)	90 (82.5%)	109 (100%)
<i>Aspergillus flavus</i>	22 (11.4%)	16 (73%)	22 (100%)
<i>Candida</i> spp.	19 (9.9%)	19 (100%)	19 (100%)
<i>Rhizopus</i> spp.	18 (9.3%)	15 (83.3%)	18 (100%)
<i>Absidia</i> spp.	10 (5.2%)	10 (100%)	10 (100%)
<i>Aspergillus niger</i>	08 (4.1%)	06 (75%)	8 (100%)
<i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i>	06 (3.1%)	06 (100%)	6 (100%)
<b>Total Species</b>	<b>192</b>	<b>162 (84.3%)</b>	<b>192 (100%)</b>

**Table 3: Distribution of *Candida* species and their Antifungal sensitivity.**

Species of <i>Candida</i> isolated (n=19)	Amphotericin B (100 Units)		Ketoconazole (1 µg)		Itraconazole (10 µg)		Fluconazole (10 µg)		Voriconazole (1 µg)	
	S	R	S	R	S	R	S	R	S	R
<i>C. tropicalis</i> (12)	5 (41.6%)	7 (58.4%)	9 (75%)	3 (25%)	9 (75%)	3 (25%)	10 (83.3%)	2 (16.7%)	8 (66.6%)	4 (33.4%)
<i>C. albicans</i> (04)	3 (75%)	1 (25%)	3 (75%)	1 (25%)	4 (100%)	0	4 (100%)	0	4 (100%)	0
<i>C. dubliniensis</i> (1)	0	1 (100%)	0	1 (100%)	1 (100%)	0	1 (100%)	0	0	1 (100%)
<i>C. krusei</i> (01)	1 (100%)	0	1 (100%)	0	1 (100%)	0	1 (100%)	0	1 (100%)	0
<i>C. kefyr</i> (01)	1 (100%)	0	1 (100%)	0	1 (100%)	0	1 (100%)	0	1 (100%)	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>10 (52.6%)</b>	<b>9 (47.3%)</b>	<b>14 (73.6%)</b>	<b>5 (26.3%)</b>	<b>16 (84.2%)</b>	<b>3 (15.7%)</b>	<b>17 (89.4%)</b>	<b>2 (10.5%)</b>	<b>14 (73.6%)</b>	<b>5 (26.3%)</b>

S-Sensitive; R-Resistant

During the second wave most of the patients enrolled in this study received corticosteroid therapy (70%), which on prolonged use lead to opportunistic mucormycosis cases. Our findings are consistent with a recent systematic review of mucormycosis cases in India and worldwide, which found that corticosteroids were used in 76.3% of cases, which resulted in 30% of fatal opportunistic mucormycosis cases [18,19]. Other factors like unhygienic oxygen therapy 52%, indiscriminate antibiotic use 36%, and COVID-19 itself may have contributed to the crisis.

In developing countries including India, diagnoses of mucormycosis-causing pathogens are often identified by phenotypic characteristics such as growth rate, colony morphology, and reproductive structures [20]. Rhinocerebral mucormycosis is an angioinvasive disease-causing tissue infection [21]. In this study, the most common species isolated were *Mucor* species (56.7%), *Aspergillus flavus* (11.4%), *A. niger* (4.1%), *A. fumigatus* (3.1%), *Candida* species (9.9%), *Rhizopus* sp. (9.3%) and *Absidia* (5.2%). In the COVID-19 pandemic, a study reported *Mucor* and *Rhizopus* species as the main causative agent of this disease [22]. Similarly in another study, invasive *Aspergillus* species is the main causative agent for mucormycosis [23], while in our study it was only 18.6%.

Among 19 *Candida* species isolated, only 4 (21%) are *C. albicans* and most of them are non-*albicans* *Candida* species (79%) such as *C. tropicalis* (n = 12; 63%), one (5.2%) each of *C. dubliniensis*, *C. kefyr*, and *C. krusei* are the most prevalent fungal isolates. These findings of our study are in agreement with a study carried out by Jayant et al. [24]. Antifungal sensitivity pattern of *Candida* species showed good sensitivity to azole drugs i.e.; 73-89% and sensitivity to amphotericin B was 52.6% in most of the *Candida* species. This finding is contrary to previous studies [25].

#### 4 Conclusion

India had grappled with the COVID-19 pandemic and also reported increasing instances of COVID-19 associated rhinocerebral mucormycosis in the second wave. But in the third wave, strategies to maintain glycaemic index and cautious use of corticosteroids and broad-spectrum antibiotics are monitored in mild COVID cases resulting in no cases of mucormycosis. If infected, early diagnosis with culture, strategies to maintain a glycaemic index, judicious use of corticosteroids, antifungal treatment, and surgical intervention should be sought for management, as a good prognosis and less fulminant disease course can be achieved in cases of post-COVID mucormycosis.

#### Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

#### References

1. Kubin CJ, McConville TH, Dietz D, Zucker J, May M, Nelson B, et al. Characterization of Bacterial and Fungal Infections in Hospitalized Patients With Coronavirus Disease 2019 and Factors Associated With Health Care-Associated Infections. *Open Forum Infectious Diseases*. 2021;8(6):ofab201. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ofid/ofab201>
2. Revannavar SM, Supriya PS, Samaga L, Vineeth VK. COVID-19 triggering mucormycosis in a susceptible patient: a new phenomenon in the developing world? *BMJ Case Reports*. 2021;14(4):e241663. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bcr-2021-241663>
3. WHO. Mucormycosis. Coronavirus Disease (COVID-19). India: World Health Organisation; 2021. Available from: [https://www.who.int/india/emergencies/coronavirus-disease-\(covid-19\)/mucormycosis](https://www.who.int/india/emergencies/coronavirus-disease-(covid-19)/mucormycosis)
4. Maartens G, Wood MJ. The clinical presentation and diagnosis of invasive fungal infections. *Journal of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy*. 1991;28(suppl A):13–22. [https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/28.suppl\\_a.13](https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/28.suppl_a.13)
5. Paltauf A. Mycosis mucorina. *Archiv für pathologische Anatomie und Physiologie und für klinische Medizin*. 1885;102(3):543–64. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01932420>
6. Baker RD. Mucormycosis—a new disease? *Journal of the American Medical Association*. 1957;163(10):805. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.1957.02970450007003>
7. Eucker J, Sezer O, Graf B, Possinger K. Mucormycoses. *Mycoses*. 2001;44(7–8):253–60. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1439-0507.2001.00656.x>
8. Drouhet E, Ravisse P. Entomophthoromycosis. *Current Topics in Medical Mycology*. 1993;5:215–45.
9. Arastehfar A, Carvalho A, van de Veerdonk FL, Jenks JD, Koehler P, Krause R, et al. Covid-19 associated pulmonary aspergillosis (Capa)—from immunology to treatment. *Journal of Fungi*. 2020;6(2):91. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jof6020091>
10. Ezeokoli OT, Gcilitshana O, Pohl CH. Risk factors for fungal co-infections in critically ill covid-19 patients, with a focus on immunosuppressants. *Journal of Fungi*. 2021;7(7):545. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jof7070545>
11. Prakash H, Chakrabarti A. Global epidemiology of mucormycosis. *Journal of Fungi*. 2019;5(1):26. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jof5010026>
12. Jeong W, Keighley C, Wolfe R, Lee WL, Slavin MA, Kong DCM, et al. The epidemiology and clinical manifestations of mucormycosis: a systematic review

- and meta-analysis of case reports. *Clinical Microbiology and Infection*. 2019;25(1):26–34. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cmi.2018.07.011>
13. CLSI. A Method For Antifungal Disk Diffusion Susceptibility Testing of Yeasts - Approved Guideline -Second Edition. CLSI document M44-A2. Wayne, PA: Clinical Laboratory Standards Institute; 2009.
  14. Chander J, Singla N, Kaur M, Punia RS, Attri A, Alastruey-Izquierdo A, et al. *Saksenaeya erythrospora*, an emerging mucoralean fungus causing severe necrotizing skin and soft tissue infections – a study from a tertiary care hospital in north india. *Infectious Diseases*. 2017;49(3):170–7. <https://doi.org/10.1080/23744235.2016.1239027>
  15. Kumar A, Verma M, Hakim A, Sharma S, Meena R, Bhansali S. Epidemiology of mucormycosis cases during the second wave of covid-19 in a tertiary care institute in western Rajasthan, India. *Cureus*. 2022;14(3):e22973. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.22973>
  16. Sharma S, Grover M, Bhargava S, Samdani S, Kataria T. Post coronavirus disease mucormycosis: a deadly addition to the pandemic spectrum. *The Journal of Laryngology & Otology*. 2021;135(5):442–7. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0022215121000992>
  17. Sen M, Honavar S, Sengupta S, Rao R, Kim U, Sharma M, et al. Epidemiology, clinical profile, management, and outcome of COVID-19-associated rhino-orbital-cerebral mucormycosis in 2826 patients in India - Collaborative OPAI-IJO Study on Mucormycosis in COVID-19 (COSMIC), Report 1. *Indian Journal of Ophthalmology*. 2021;69(7):1670–92. [https://doi.org/10.4103/ijo.IJO\\_1565\\_21](https://doi.org/10.4103/ijo.IJO_1565_21)
  18. Rubio-Rivas M, Ronda M, Padulles A, Mitjavila F, Riera-Mestre A, García-Forero C, et al. Beneficial effect of corticosteroids in preventing mortality in patients receiving tocilizumab to treat severe COVID-19 illness. *International Journal of Infectious Diseases*. 2020;101:290–7. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijid.2020.09.1486>
  19. Singh AK, Singh R, Joshi SR, Misra A. Mucormycosis in COVID-19: A systematic review of cases reported worldwide and in India. *Diabetes & Metabolic Syndrome: Clinical Research & Reviews*. 2021;15(4):102146. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dsx.2021.05.019>
  20. Skiada A, Lass-Floerl C, Klimko N, Ibrahim A, Roilides E, Petrikos G. Challenges in the diagnosis and treatment of mucormycosis. *Medical Mycology*. 2018;56(suppl\_1):S93–101. <https://doi.org/10.1093/mmy/myx101>
  21. Frater JL, Hall GS, Procop GW. Histologic features of zygomycosis: emphasis on perineural invasion and fungal morphology. *Archives of Pathology & Laboratory Medicine*. 2001;125(3):375–8. <https://doi.org/10.5858/2001-125-0375-HFOZ>
  22. Prakash H, Chakrabarti A. Epidemiology of mucormycosis in India. *Microorganisms*. 2021;9(3):523. <https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms9030523>
  23. Dabas Y, Xess I, Pandey M, Ahmed J, Sachdev J, Iram A, et al. Epidemiology and antifungal susceptibility patterns of invasive fungal infections (Ifis) in india: a prospective observational study. *Journal of Fungi*. 2021;8(1):33. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jof8010033>
  24. Jayant S, Patel K, Priya P, Verma AN, Singh B, Dahariya R. Prevalence of Candida infection in Covid-19 pandemic: A study from a tertiary care center in Central India. *Asian Journal of Medical Sciences*. 2021;12(10):3–7. <https://doi.org/10.3126/ajms.v12i10.38528>
  25. Chakraborty M, Banu H, Gupta MK. Epidemiology and Antifungal Susceptibility of Candida Species causing Blood Stream Infections: An Eastern India Perspective. *Journal of The Association of Physicians of India*. 2021;69(8):11–2. <http://dx.doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.2.32189.18400>