

Case Series

Different types of mucormycosis: case series

**Madhusudan R. Jaju¹, R. Vidya Sagar², Shashank Kumar Srivastav^{3*}, Ranbeer Singh⁴,
K. Vijay Kumar⁵, Mohammed Faisal⁵**

¹Director of Critical Care, ²Department of Gastroenterologist, Care Hospitals, Nampally, Hyderabad, Telangana, India

³Medical Officer, Military Field Hospital, Jammu and Kashmir, India

⁴Department of Otorhinolaryngologist, ⁵Department of Critical Care Medicine Care Hospitals, Nampally, Hyderabad, Telangana, India

Received: 08 February 2020

Revised: 16 April 2020

Accepted: 22 April 2020

*Correspondence:

Dr. Shashank Kumar Srivastav,

E-mail: dr.shashankksrivastava@gmail.com

Copyright: © the author(s), publisher and licensee Medip Academy. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial License, which permits unrestricted non-commercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

ABSTRACT

Mucormycosis is the third invasive mycosis in order of importance after candidiasis and aspergillosis and is caused by fungi of the class Zygomycetes. The most important species causing Mucormycosis is *Rhizopus arrhizus* (oryzae). Identification of the agents responsible for mucormycosis is based on macroscopic and microscopic morphological criteria, carbohydrate assimilation and the maximum temperature compatible with its growth. The incidence of mucormycosis is approximately 1.7 cases per 1000 000 inhabitants per year. Clinical diagnosis of mucormycosis is difficult, and is often made at a late stage of the disease or post-mortem. We present here a series of five cases of different types of mucormycosis that were reported in our hospital till date. Of which three patients had good recovery and other two had a fatal outcome. Treatment of mucormycosis requires a rapid diagnosis, correction of predisposing factors, surgical resection or debridement as part of source control-and appropriate anti-fungal therapy. Liposomal amphotericin B is the drug of choice for this condition. The overall rate of mortality of mucormycosis is approximately 40%.

Keywords: Amphotericin-B, Mucorales, Mucormycosis, *Rhizopus*, Zygomycetes

INTRODUCTION

Mucormycosis, the third invasive mycosis in order of importance after candidiasis and aspergillosis, is a disease caused by fungi of the class Zygomycetes. The term 'mucormycosis' is used throughout this review of infections caused by Mucorales. The class Zygomycetes is divided into two orders, Mucorales and Entomophthorales. Members of the order Mucorales are the aetiological agents of the disease traditionally known as 'mucormycosis', a fulminant disease with high rates of morbidity and mortality that mainly affects immunocompromised patients. However, species of the order Entomophthorales are responsible for the chronic

subcutaneous disease observed in immunocompetent patients in tropical and sub-tropical regions.¹

Epidemiology

The incidence of mucormycosis is approximately 1.7 cases per 1000 000 inhabitants per year, which means 500 patients per year in the USA.² The main risk-factors for the development of mucormycosis are ketoacidosis (diabetic or other), iatrogenic immunosuppression, especially when associated with neutropenia and graft vs. host disease in haematological patients, use of corticosteroids or deferoxamine, disruption of mucocutaneous barriers by catheters and other devices,

and even exposure to bandages contaminated by these fungi.³⁻⁹ This increase has generally taken place in patients and units where broad-spectrum antifungal prophylaxis, especially voriconazole, is used against *Aspergillus*.¹⁰⁻¹²

CASE PRESENTATION

Case 1

A 75-year-old male patient of uncontrolled diabetes mellitus with RBS 440mg/dL and nil for ketones in urine was admitted for blockage of nose on left side with swelling. He was diagnosed for left maxillary sinusitis and had undergone FESS. On the procedure he had blackish discharge for which the specimen was sent for microbiology and histopathology examination. The HPE showed chronic inflammation and single necrotic tissue bit with fungal hyphae with morphological features positive for mucormycosis with zygomycetes species. Later orbital cellulitis secondary to Mucormycosis was suspected. After FESS, the patient was given I.V. AMPHOTERICIN-B infusion for 60 days. Patients postoperative period was uneventful. Patient showed improvement and was discharged in stable condition with medical advice of taking tab. posaconazole.

In this case, the patient had left maxillary sinus mucormycosis (Figure 1-3) which responded well to FESS and Antifungals.

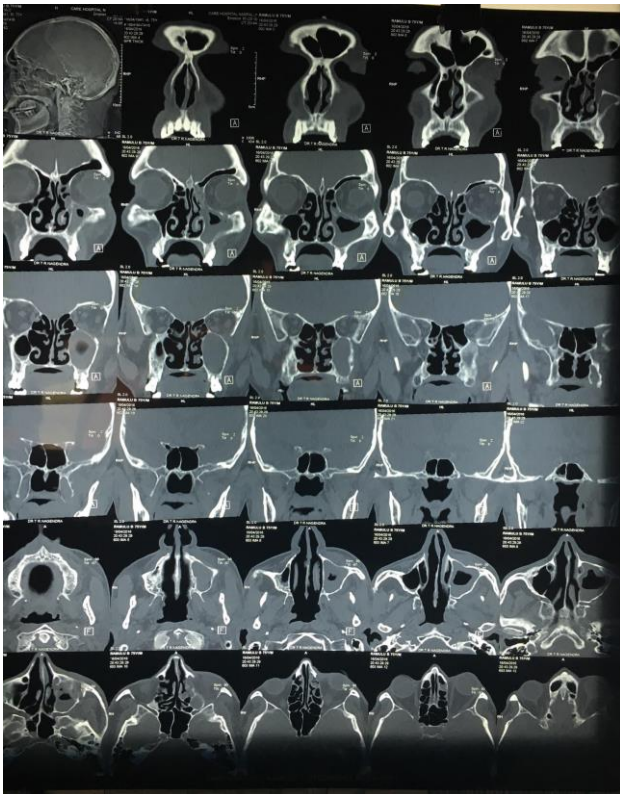


Figure 1: CT Scan maxillary sinusitis.



Figure 2: MRI scan diffuse sinusitis.



Figure 3: MRI scan different segments suggestive of diffuse sinusitis.

Case 2

A 41-year-old female patient known case of uncontrolled diabetes with RBS 400mg/dL and nil for ketones in urine, hypertensive presented with history of bleeding from right nostril, decreased vision in right eye, swelling and decreased sensation over right half of face for three days. On examination, she was conscious with stable vitals. On clinical examination, there was proptosis on right side, redness and complete ophthalmoplegia of right eye. Corneal reflex of right eye was absent. CT-PNS showed maxillary and ethmoid sinusitis. MRI Brain showed orbital cellulitis with optic nerve involvement. On ENT

opinion FESS was done. The samples were sent for HPE and fungal staining and culture. HPE showed fungal infection with organisms' morphology positive for mucormycosis with zygomycetes species. Blood for fungal culture-sensitivity and galactomannan assay came positive for aspergillus. Her orbital cellulitis persisted. Ophthalmologist opinion was taken who initially opted for conservative management as there was perception of light. Repeated MRI Brain with orbital cuts was suggestive of orbital cellulitis with optic nerve involvement and cavernous sinus involvement with cerebritis. Later her perception of light was also lost, her general conditions deteriorating, culminating into sepsis. After review with both ophthalmologist and neurosurgeon, exenteration of right eye and removal of intranuclear part of optic nerve was done under GA followed by local irrigation of eye socket with amphotericin along with systemic antifungals. She gradually improved over next few days, was extubated. She was discharged on taking Inj. amphotericin-B and Inj. caspofungin.

In this case, the patient had rhino-orbito-cerebral mucormycosis which responded to multiprong approach including FESS, eye exenteration (Figure 4) followed by irrigation of cavity with infusion of AMPHOTERICIN-B and systemic antifungals.



Figure 4: Image after eye exenteration.

Case 3

A 51-year-old female patient with uncontrolled Diabetes mellitus treated in other hospital for diabetic ketoacidosis was admitted in MICU with features of sepsis with shock and multi-organ dysfunction. She was found to have pancytopenia, acute kidney injury, acute hepatitis probably due to ischaemia and hypokalemia. She was immediately started on IV Fluids, vasopressors and antibiotics. Dengue fever, malaria or hepatitis B and C were ruled out with appropriate investigations. She was

noticed to have periorbital swelling which was gradually increasing for which ophthalmologist opinion was taken. Her EEG showed focal abnormality suggestive of seizures for which Inj. levipil was started. There was blackish discharge from nose, an ENT opinion was taken and after rhinoscopy, black material from nostril was sent to microbiology for staining. The microbiology report showed rapidly growing mycelial colonies - floccose, dense and hairy appearance, cotton candy growth morphology suggestive of zygomycetes. The fungal preparation with KOH and culture were positive for mucormycosis. The patient was started on lyposomal Inj-amphotericin-B keeping in view the patient having acute kidney injury. CT PNS and MRI neck, larynx, nasopharynx showed diffuse pansinusitis with extension into left retro-orbital fat and pterygoids with no intraparenchymal extension, atrophic chronic optic neuritis and few tiny foci of restriction on diffusion in bilateral cerebellar hemispheres. CT PNS showed mucosal thickening in bilateral maxillary sinuses (left>right) with obliteration of bilateral osteomeatal complex, mucosal thickening in left frontal, sphenoid and ethmoid sinuses and mild deviation of nasal septum to left (Figure 5, 6). An ophthalmology opinion was taken and exenteration of left eye and FESS with surgical debridement of sinuses was done apart from anti-fungal treatment. The sample from sinuses and eyeball were sent to pathology department. She was continued on IV antifungals, vasopressors, ventilatory support and daily hemodialysis. Another anti-fungal Inj. Miconazole was added. The patient continued to be deteriorating and she had cardiac arrest. In this case, the patient had mucormycosis of paranasal sinuses and left orbit with other systemic illness. Even-though FESS for sinuses and left eye exenteration done along with IV Antifungals, she could not survive due to multi-organ failure with acute kidney injury and septic shock.

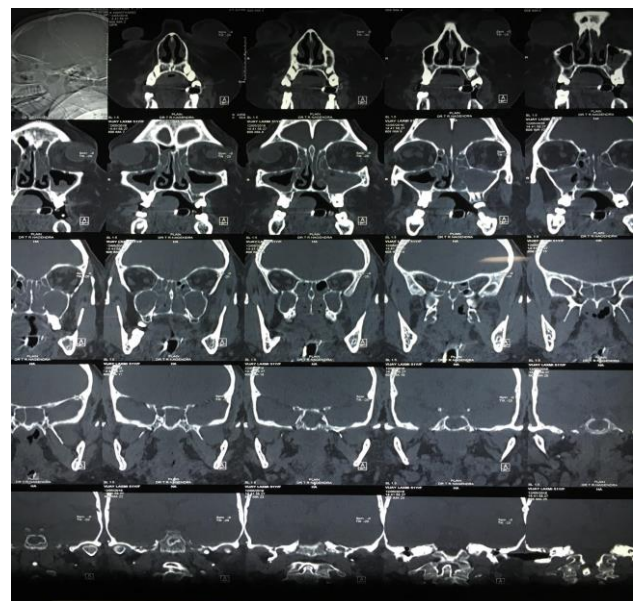


Figure 5: CT PNS mucosal thickening in bilateral maxillary sinuses.



Figure 6: MRI Scan diffuse pansinusitis.

Case 4

A 48-year-old forest officer came with chief complaints of fever with chills for 10 days and yellowish discoloration of eyes for 7 days. Stayed in forest for about 4 days and was fine for one week following which, he developed fever associated with headache and myalgia. There was no history of insect bite. No history of skin itching, bleeding or skin rash. He was a Smoker with 5-6 cigarettes per day and alcoholic with 90ml of brandy/day. No history of DM, HTN, COPD, asthma, TB, CVS Disorders, etc.

On Examination- Patient was conscious, coherent with average built, had Pallor and icterus with no signs of chronic liver disease. He was hemodynamically stable. Abdominal examination showed non-tender distension with no ascites, liver was enlarged with no liver flap.

Investigations showed: Hb. 10.3 g/l, TLC- 14,500/cu.mm, Platelets- 1.14 lakhs/cu.mm, Urea- 289mg/dl, Creatinine- 2.8mg/dl, Serum electrolytes normal except sodium of 125meq/l. Bilirubin- 43.8mg/dl, Direct : 22.9 mg%. SGOT-136IU/L, SGPT-51IU/L, Albumin - 2.8gm/l, INR- 1.07

Serum Ammonia - 78, Serum LDH - 1915 IU/L, Serum CPK - 182 IU/L, Serum lactate - 23.8 mg/dl, Procalcitonin- 32.5 ng/ml. Chest X-ray - Normal. ABG -

compensated metabolic acidosis. Peripheral smear for malarial parasite revealed gametocytes of *P.falciparum* and antigen test was positive (Parasite'F').

Viral Markers: HIV, HbsAg and Anti HCV Antibodies - Negative, Dengue Serology negative, Leptospira Serology negative, ANA negative. Urine culture No Growth.

Abdominal US showed: Mild Hepatosplenomegaly.

He was started on I.V Piperacillin + Tazobactam 2.25gm T.I.D, I.V Artesunate 120mg O.D, Oral Doxycycline 100mg O.D, Rifaximin 400mg T.I.D, Oral Lactulose, Liver supplements, Thiamine and INJ. Fondaparinux, One session of bicarbonate hemodialysis for metabolic acidosis. On day nine of admission he had sudden onset of haemetemesis and malaena with significant drop of hemoglobin (8.0 to 5.4g/l). Two units of blood transfusion given, I.V pantaprazole 80mg (stat) followed by 8mg/hr infusion started.



Figure 7: UGI Endoscopy with fresh oozing of blood with old blood clot.

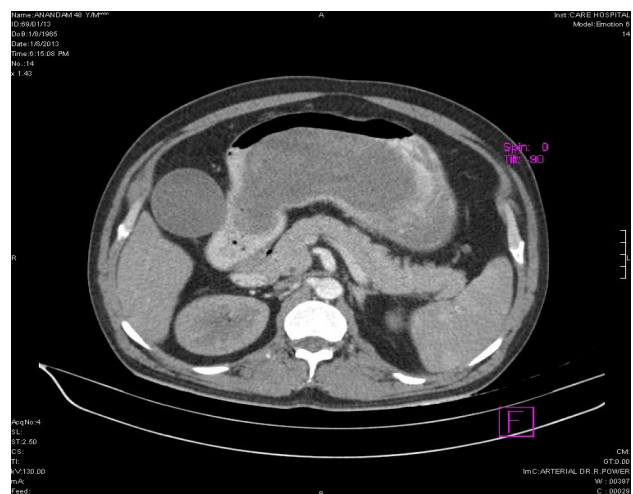


Figure 8: CECT abdomen large clot in gastric lumen, focal thickening of fundal mucosa.

UGI endoscopy showed Ulcerated mass with fresh oozing of blood with old blood clot (Figure 7). Adrenaline injection and Argon Plasma coagulation was done. On day 10 patient had another episode of hematemesis with drop in Hb to 4.0gm%.

CT Abdomen with I.V and oral contrast revealed - large clot in gastric lumen, focal thickening of fundal mucosa (Figure 8), SOL in spleen s/o splenic infarct. Patient underwent emergency laparotomy, Operative findings include ulcer over the greater curvature, adjacent to the posterior wall of stomach - extending up to the fundus and gastroesophageal junction. Lumen of the stomach - filled with blood clots (Figure 9). Gangrenous part of the stomach excised, edges were freshened, sutured, blood clots evacuated. Feeding jejunostomy was done.

The excised edges were sent for HPE showed infiltration by mucor species of blood vessels as well as mucosa of the stomach wall. Fungal culture of the stomach specimen also grew mucor species (Figure 10) after three days. Patient was given I.V Amphotericin B (conventional preparation) at a dose of 0.5mg/kg/day as an infusion in 5% dextrose over six hours in a day. Renal functions and blood counts along with electrolytes were closely monitored. Hypokalaemia was corrected. On the ninth postoperative day, gastrograffin meal imaging was performed, there was no gastric leakage, hence oral feeding commenced. Patient's surgical wound healed well.



Figure 9: The excised mass with clots.

On the twelfth post-operative day, patient developed recurrence of GI Bleed with drop in Hb. Advised: laparotomy and re-exploration for possible sub-total gastrectomy, the family did not consent. Posaconazole suspension (400mg twice daily) was also added to regimen. Over next few days, patient responded well with no further UGI bleeding. Patient is under follow up and remains clinically well.

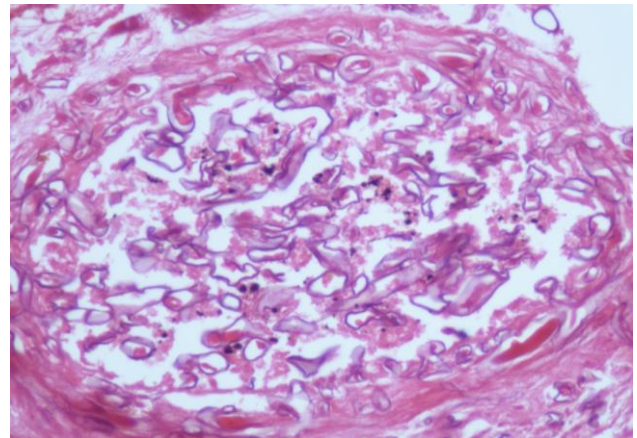


Figure 10: HPE infiltration by mucor species of blood vessels as well as mucosa of the stomach wall.

Case 5

A 60-years-old female operated on emergency basis for DU perforation. She was kept on mechanical ventilation and vasopressors support. Patient was shifted from surgical side to medicine. Subsequently she was weaned off from ventilation and vasopressors. On examination we reported food material coming out from surgical site. We have re-opened the sutures and found food material coming out from body from greater curvature. Biopsy was taken from edges of ulcer and HPE with special stains as sent, which revealed mucormycosis species (Figure 11). Subsequently patient developed septic shock with Multi-organ dysfunction. The patient vitals deteriorated and the patient had a fatal outcome.

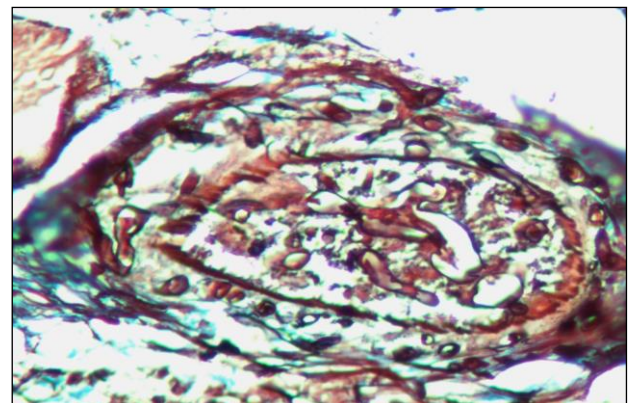


Figure 11: HPE with special stains inflammation and necrotic tissue bit with fungal hyphae with morphological features positive for mucormycosis with zygomycetes species.

Clinical manifestations

As previously mentioned, mucormycosis occurs mainly in those patients with diabetes mellitus and ketoacidosis, in patients with haematological malignancies, especially neutropenia or graft vs. host disease, in solid-organ

transplant patients and in patients receiving high doses of corticosteroids.^{3,11,13-36} Treatment with deferoxamine in patients with iron and aluminium overload has been associated with mucormycosis, although the introduction of erythropoietin has significantly decreased the use of deferoxamine, and therefore this factor is becoming progressively less frequent in recent past.^{1,13,37-57} Mucormycosis may occur after traumatic inoculation, especially in those cases where the inoculation is accompanied by contamination with water and soil. Mucormycosis manifests most commonly in the sinuses (39%) followed by lungs (24%), skin (19%), brain (9%), and gastrointestinal tract (7%), in the form of disseminated disease (6%), and in other sites (6%).⁵⁸ With the exception of rhino-cerebral and cutaneous mucormycosis, the clinical diagnosis of mucormycosis is difficult, and is often made at a late stage of the disease or post-mortem.⁵⁹

Rhino-cerebral mucormycosis

Rhino-cerebral mucormycosis, which should be termed rhino-sinus mucormycosis, accounts upto 33% to 50% of all cases of mucormycosis. Clinical manifestations may start with necrosis of the palate or sinuses, which may progress towards the orbit before reaching intra-cranial structures.^{60,61} The most frequent symptoms include fever, obtundation, amaurosis, proptosis, epistaxis, facial paralysis and signs of invasion of the trigeminal nerve. Thrombosis of the cavernous sinuses and cranial invasion may be consequences of unresolved rhino-sinus mucormycosis. Black sores on the palate or nasal mucosa are very suggestive of mucormycosis in the appropriate clinical context, although they may not be present in 50% of cases.^{62,63} The rate of mortality of rhino-orbito-cerebral mucormycosis is still very high and ranges from 30% to 69%.^{1,64,65} Indicators of poor prognosis include a delay in treatment of more than 6 days, evidence of intra-cranial invasion, bilateral involvement, invasion of the palate, and the presence of haematological malignancies.^{65,66}

In this case series, one patient had rhino-orbitocerebral mucormycosis which responded well to FESS, eye exenteration and irrigation of cavity with amphotericin-B along with systemic antifungals, whereas other with same had fatal outcome.

Respiratory manifestations

Invasion of the lung is the second most common clinical manifestation and follows the inhalation of spores. Manifestations are non-specific and include fever, haemoptysis and pleural pain. Symptoms may appear after near-drowning episodes, and the differential diagnosis of necrotising pneumonia or lung abscesses should be considered.^{67,68} The radiological presentation of mucormycosis is similar to that of invasive aspergillosis, and both tend to show vascular invasion and thrombosis, followed by tissue necrosis. Presentation includes cuneiform pulmonary infiltrates, pulmonary nodules and

cavitated lesions, including the 'halo' sign.^{69,70} The rate of mortality associated with pulmonary mucormycosis is high, and may be over 60%.

Central nervous system involvement

Mucormycosis of the central nervous system may be part of the progression of the disease from a rhino-orbital route or a clinical manifestation limited to the central nervous system.^{24,71-74} Delayed diagnosis of CNS involvement may explain the high rate of associated mortality.

Cutaneous involvement

The number of cases of cutaneous and soft tissue mucormycosis has increased during the last few years. This condition can occur on intact skin or following the rupture of barriers, e.g., through surgery, trauma or burns.⁷⁵⁻⁸⁷ Sometimes, the infection begins at catheter insertion sites or even after insect bites.^{9,88-91} It has also been described after the use of contaminated dressings and intramuscular injections.^{92,93} In extensive lesions, a cotton-like growth may be observed over the surface of the tissues, a clinical sign known as 'hairy pus'. Rapid diagnosis of cutaneous mucormycosis may explain the lower rate of associated mortality.

Other clinical manifestations

Mucormycosis can involve any part of the digestive tract, with a mortality rate of 98% according to a published series of 25 accumulated cases.^{32,94,95-113} Mucormycosis may be the cause of endocarditis in natural or prosthetic valves and has been reported to cause invasion and obstruction of the great vessels.¹¹⁴⁻¹¹⁸ The clinical manifestations are extremely rare and the rate of mortality is very high.^{31,118-120} The agents responsible for mucormycosis can affect the kidneys and, in these cases, nephrectomy is an essential part of treatment.^{29,121-125} Osteomyelitis is another rare form of mucormycosis, and bone lesions are usually adjacent to other forms of mucormycosis. It has been described at the base of the cranium, in the bones of the feet and hands and in the humerus, tibia, femur and vertebrae. Mucormycosis is an extremely rare form of joint infection.¹²⁶⁻¹³⁴

Some cases of peritoneal mucormycosis have been described in patients undergoing continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis. These are usually complications of previous bacterial peritonitis.¹³⁵⁻¹³⁹

In this case study, authors found two cases of mucormycosis inhabiting Gastrointestinal tract. One patient responded well and other had fatal outcome.

Diagnosis

The diagnosis of mucormycosis relies upon the identification of organisms in tissue by histopathology

with culture confirmation. However, culture often yields no growth, and histopathologic identification of an organism with a structure typical of Mucorales may provide the only evidence of infection. A clinician must think of this entity in the appropriate clinical setting and pursue invasive testing in order to establish a diagnosis as early as possible. On the other hand, the agents of mucormycosis can colonize the airways or be contaminants in cultures, and the isolation of these fungi in a culture does not necessarily prove infection. Interpreting the culture results in the context of the patient's signs and symptoms and underlying disease are necessary to determine whether antifungal therapy should be given.

Serum tests, such as the 1,3-beta-D-glucan assay and the *Aspergillus* galactomannan assay, are being used with increased frequency in patients suspected of having an invasive fungal infection. The agents of mucormycosis do not share these cell wall components and neither test is positive in patients with mucormycosis. (See Diagnosis of invasive aspergillosis, section on Beta-D-glucan assay and Diagnosis of invasive aspergillosis, section on 'Galactomannan antigen detection'.)

Investigational studies have demonstrated the feasibility of using polymerase chain reaction (PCR)-based techniques on histologic specimens.¹⁴⁰⁻¹⁴² In one study of patients with proven mucormycosis, among 12 cases that were positive by culture, 10 were also positive by PCR and sequencing was concordant with culture results to the genus level in 9.¹⁴¹ Among 15 culture-negative cases, PCR was positive and sequencing allowed genus identification in 12. The PCR-based technique used in this study appears promising for establishing the diagnosis of mucormycosis when cultures are negative.

In addition to traditional culture techniques and PCR with sequencing, matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization-time of flight (MALDI-TOF) mass spectrometry can be used to identify the causative species from culture specimens.¹⁴³⁻¹⁴⁵

Rhino-orbital-cerebral infection- The presence of mucormycosis should be suspected in high-risk patients, especially those who have diabetes and metabolic acidosis and who present with sinusitis, altered mentation, and/or infarcted tissue in the nose or palate.

Endoscopic evaluation of the sinuses should be performed to look for tissue necrosis and to obtain specimens.

Further evaluation includes imaging of the head with either computed tomography (CT) or magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) to gauge sinus involvement and to evaluate contiguous structures such as the eyes and brain.¹⁴⁶ In a study of 23 immunocompromised patients with fungal sinusitis, CT findings included severe soft tissue edema of the nasal cavity mucosa (turbinates,

lateral nasal wall and floor, and septum) in 21 patients, sinus mucoperiosteal thickening in 21 patients, bone erosion in 8 patients, orbital invasion in 6 patients, facial soft tissue swelling in 5 patients, and retroantral fat pad thickening in 2 patients.¹⁴⁷

Pulmonary infection- The diagnosis of pulmonary mucormycosis is difficult. Chest radiographs or CT scans may demonstrate focal consolidation, masses, pleural effusions, or multiple nodules.⁴² A halo sign (ground glass attenuation surrounding a nodule) is characteristic of angioinvasive fungi, but a reversed halo sign, a focal area of ground glass attenuation surrounded by a ring of consolidation, has also been reported. Mucormycosis appears to be the most common condition to cause the reversed halo sign in immunocompromised hosts. In a retrospective study that included 189 patients with proven or probable fungal pneumonia, the reversed halo sign was seen in 7 of 37 patients with mucormycosis (19 percent), 1 of 132 patients with invasive aspergillosis (<1 percent), and none of 20 patients with fusariosis. Radiographic evidence of infarction with cavitory lesions and an air crescent sign is unusual.⁶⁸ In a series of 45 cases, the following radiographic features were independent predictors of mucormycosis and helped to differentiate it from aspergillosis: concomitant sinusitis, >10 pulmonary nodules on CT scan, pleural effusion, and prior voriconazole prophylaxis.

Sputum or bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) specimens can show the characteristic broad nonseptate hyphae, which is often the first indicator of mucormycosis.⁴³ However, in one case series, only 25 percent of sputum or BAL specimens were positive pre-mortem. Hyphae can also be demonstrated on lung biopsy.

Histopathological testing does not provide the genus and species, and should therefore be complemented with culture. Histological invasion, particularly of vessels, by wide, non-septate hyphae branched at right angles is diagnostic in an appropriate clinical context.

Treatment

Optimal therapy of mucormycosis involves reversal of predisposing conditions (if possible), surgical debridement, and prompt antifungal therapy. A prolonged course of a lipid preparation of intravenous amphotericin B (5 mg/kg with higher doses possibly given for CNS disease) should be started early. Based on in vitro susceptibility, posaconazole tablets 300 mg/ day orally is generally used after disease has been stabilized. Combination therapy with amphotericin and posaconazole is not proven but is commonly used because of the poor response to monotherapy. Isavuconazole has in vitro activity against some agents of mucormycosis. Other azoles are not effective. There are limited data suggesting beneficial synergistic activity when amphotericin and caspofungin are used in combination for mucormycosis. Despite favorable animal

studies, a pilot study in humans incorporating adjunctive iron chelation therapy with deferasirox demonstrated a higher mortality rate than antifungal therapy alone. Control of diabetes and other underlying conditions, along with extensive repeated surgical removal of necrotic, nonperfused tissue, is essential. Even when these measures are introduced in a timely fashion, the prognosis remains guarded.

Outcome

The overall rate of mortality of mucormycosis is approximately 40%, but this rate depends on the clinical presentation of the disease, the underlying disease, surgery, and the extent of the infection.^{8,64,60} Survival rates vary according to the focus of the infection: cutaneous isolated, 90%; sinusitis without cerebral involvement, 87%; rhino-cerebral manifestation, 45%; pulmonary forms, 36%; focal cerebral manifestation, 33%; disseminated disease, 16%; and gastrointestinal involvement, 10%.

CONCLUSION

Authors describe case series of five mucormycosis all of which are biopsy proven. Four out of them are diabetic and one among them is in diabetic keto acidosis. Diagnosing mucormycosis may be difficult and is often delayed because of varied clinical presentation. While three patients had involvement of para nasal sinuses, one patient presented with sepsis and subsequently found to have mucormycosis of stomach. Another patient presented with perforation of duodenal ulcer. All five patients were managed in a multidisciplinary approach with emphasis on prompt anti-fungal therapy, surgical debridement (in form of FESS, exenteration of eye ball, resection of involved tissue etc.) and addressing risk factors such as control of blood sugars and correction of ketosis. Authors conclude that treating clinicians need to have very high index of suspicion to detect this infection in early phase of illness, good coordination with microbiologists and pathologists to establish diagnosis, so that treatment can be initiated soon for better outcome.

Funding: No funding sources

Conflict of interest: None declared

Ethical approval: Not required

REFERENCES

1. Prabhu RM, Patel R. Mucormycosis and entomophthoromycosis: a review of the clinical manifestations, diagnosis and treatment. Clin Microbiol Infect 2004;10(suppl 1):31-47.
2. Rees JR, Pinner RW, Hajjeh RA, Brandt ME, Reingold AL. The epidemiological features of invasive mycotic infections in the San Francisco Bay area, 1992-1993: results of population-based laboratory active surveillance. Clin Infect Dis 1998;27(5):1138-47.

3. Kontoyiannis DP, Wessel VC, Bodey GP, Rolston KV. Zygomycosis in the 1990s in a tertiary-care cancer center. Clin Infect Dis 2000;30(6):851-6.
4. Nussbaum ES, Hall WA. Rhinocerebral mucormycosis: changing patterns of disease. Surg Neurol 1994;41(2):152-6.
5. Rickerts V, Bohme A, Just-Nubling G. Risk factor for invasive zygomycosis in patients with hematologic malignancies. Mycoses 2002; 45(suppl 1):27-30.
6. Kauffman CA. Zygomycosis: reemergence of an old pathogen. Clin Infect Dis 2004;39(4):588-90.
7. Gartenberg G, Bottone EJ, Keusch GT, Weitzman I. Hospital-acquired mucormycosis (Rhizopus rhizopodiformis) of skin and subcutaneous tissue: epidemiology, mycology and treatment. N Engl J Med 1978;299(20):1115-8.
8. Petrikos G, Skiada A, Sambatakou H, Toskas A, Vaiopoulos G, Giannopoulou M, et al. Mucormycosis: ten-year experience at a tertiary-care center in Greece. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 2003; 22(12):753-6.
9. 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(9):813-5.
10. Ritz N, Ammann RA, Aebischer CC, Gugger M, Jatton K, Schmid RA, et al. Failure of voriconazole to cure disseminated zygomycosis in an immunocompromised child. Eur J Pediatr 2005; 164(4):231-5.
11. Oren I. Breakthrough zygomycosis during empirical voriconazole therapy in febrile patients with neutropenia. Clin Infect Dis 2005;40(5):770-1.
12. Lionakis MS, Kontoyiannis DP. Sinus zygomycosis in a patient receiving voriconazole prophylaxis. Br J Haematol 2005;129(1):2.
13. Maertens J, Demuyneck H, Verbeken EK, Zachee P, Verhoef GE, Vandenbergh P, 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(3):307-12.
14. Ingram CW, Sennesh J, Cooper JN, Perfect JR. Disseminated zygomycosis: report of four cases and review. Rev Infect Dis 1989;11(5):741-54.
15. Herbrecht R, Letscher-Bru V, Bowden RA. Treatment of 21 cases of invasive mucormycosis with amphotericin B colloidal dispersion. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 2001;20:460-6.
16. Baddley JW, Stroud TP, Salzman D, Pappas PG. Invasive mold infections in allogeneic bone marrow transplant recipients. Clin Infect Dis 2001;32:1319-24.
17. Morrison VA, McGlave PB. Mucormycosis in the BMT population. Bone Marrow Transplant 1993; 11(5):383-8.
18. Nosari A, Oreste P, Montillo M. Mucormycosis in hematologic malignancies: an emerging fungal infection. Haematologica 2000;85(10):1068-71.

19. 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(9):813-5.
20. Marr KA, Carter RA, Crippa F, Wald A, Corey L. Epidemiology and outcome of mould infections in hematopoietic stem cell transplant recipients. *Clin Infect Dis* 2002;34:909-17.
21. Jiménez C, Lumbreras C, Aguado JM, Loinaz C, Paseiro G, Andrés A, et al. Successful treatment of mucor infection after liver or pancreas–kidney transplantation. *Transplantation* 2002;73(3):476-80.
22. Nampoory MR, Khan ZU, Johny KV, Constandi JN, Gupta RK, Al-Muzairi I, et al. Invasive fungal infections in renal transplant recipients. *J Infect* 1996;33(2):95-101.
23. Morduchowicz G, Shmueli D, Shapira Z. Rhinocerebral mucormycosis in renal transplant recipients: report of three cases and review of the literature. *Rev Infect Dis* 1986;8:441-6.
24. Sehgal A, Raghavendran M, Kumar D, Srivastava A, Dubey D, Kumar A. Rhinocerebral mucormycosis causing basilar artery aneurysm with concomitant fungal colonic perforation in renal allograft recipient: a case report. *Transplantation* 2004;78(6):949-50.
25. Sehgal A, Raghavendran M, Kumar D, Srivastava A, Dubey D, Kumar A et al. Zygomycosis caused by *Cunninghamella bertholletiae* in a kidney transplant recipient. *Med Mycol.* 2004;42:177-80.
26. Mattner F, Weissbrodt H, Strueber M. Two case reports: fatal *Absidia corymbifera* pulmonary tract infection in the first postoperative phase of a lung transplant patient receiving voriconazole prophylaxis, and transient bronchial *Absidia corymbifera* colonization in a lung transplant patient. *Scand J Infect Dis* 2004;36(4):312-4.
27. Kerbaul F, Guidon C, Collart F, Lépidi H, Cayatte B, Bonnet M, et al. Abdominal wall mucormycosis after heart transplantation. *J Cardiothorac Vasc Anesth* 2004;18(6):822-3.
28. Tobon AM, Arango M, Fernandez D, Restrepo A. Mucormycosis (zygomycosis) in a heart–kidney transplant recipient: recovery after posaconazole therapy. *Clin Infect Dis* 2003;36(11):1488-91.
29. Minz M, Sharma A, Kashyap R et al. Isolated renal allograft arterial mucormycosis: an extremely rare complication. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 2003; 18: 1034–1035.
30. Ladurner R, Brandacher G, Steurer W et al. Lessons to be learned from a complicated case of rhinocerebral mucormycosis in a renal allograft recipient. *Transpl Int* 2003;16:885-9.
31. Zhang R, Zhang JW, Szerlip HM. Endocarditis and hemorrhagic stroke caused by *Cunninghamella bertholletiae* infection after kidney transplantation. *Am J Kidney Dis* 2002;40(4):842-6.
32. Vera A, Hubscher SG, McMaster P, Buckels JA. Invasive gastrointestinal zygomycosis in a liver transplant recipient: case report. *Transplantation* 2002;73(1):145-7.
33. Warnock DW. Fungal complications of transplantation: diagnosis, treatment and prevention. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 1995; 36 (suppl B):73-90.
34. Bertocchi M, Thevenet F, Bastien O. Fungal infections in lung transplant recipients. *Transplant Proc* 1995;27:1695.
35. Carbone KM, Pennington LR, Gimenez LF, Burrow CR, Watson AJ. Mucormycosis in renal transplant patients—a report of two cases and review of the literature. *Q J Med* 1985;57(3-4):825-31.
36. Haim S, Better OS, Lichtig C, Erlik D, Barzilai A. Rhinocerebral mucormycosis following kidney transplantation. *Isr J Med Sci* 1970;6:646-9.
37. Boelaert JR, de Locht M, Van Cutsem J, Kerrels V, Cantinieaux B, Verdonck A, et al. Mucormycosis during deferoxamine therapy is a siderophore-mediated infection. In vitro and in vivo animal studies. *J Clin Invest* 1993;91(5):1979-86.
38. Van Cutsem J, Boelaert JR. Effects of deferoxamine, ferroxamine and iron on experimental mucormycosis (zygomycosis). *Kidney Int* 1989;36(6):1061-8.
39. Kubota N, Miyazawa K, Shoji N, Sumi M, Nakajima A, Kimura Y, et al. A massive intraventricular thrombosis by disseminated mucormycosis in a patient with myelodysplastic syndrome during deferoxamine therapy. *Haematologica* 2003; 88(9): EIM13.
40. Venkattaramanabalaaji GV, Foster D, Greene JN, Muro-Cacho CA, Sandin RL, et al. Mucormycosis associated with deferoxamine therapy after allogeneic bone marrow transplantation. *Cancer Control* 1997;4(2):168-71.
41. Prokopowicz GP, Bradley SF, Kauffman CA. Indolent zygomycosis associated with deferoxamine chelation therapy. *Mycoses* 1994;37:427-31.
42. Boelaert JR, Van Cutsem J, de Locht M, Schneider YJ, Crichton RR. Deferoxamine augments growth and pathogenicity of *Rhizopus*, while hydroxypyridinone chelators have no effect. *Kidney Int* 1994;4(3)5:667-71.
43. Boelaert JR, de Locht M, Schneider YJ. The effect of deferoxamine on different zygomycetes. *J Infect Dis* 1994;169(1):231-2.
44. Vlasveld LT, Sweder van Asbeck B. Treatment with deferoxamine: a real risk factor for mucormycosis? *Nephron* 1991;57:487-8.
45. Slade MP, Mc Nab AA. Fatal mucormycosis therapy associated with deferoxamine. *Am J Ophthalmol* 1991;112(5):594-5.
46. Ponz E, Campistol JM, Ribalta T. Mucormycosis diseminada en una paciente hemodializada en tratamiento con deferoxamina. *Rev Clin Esp* 1991;188:85-7.
47. Boelaert JR, Fenves AZ, Coburn JW. Deferoxamine therapy and mucormycosis in dialysis patients: report of an international registry. *Am J Kidney Dis* 1991;18(6):660-7.

48. Vandeveld L, Bondewel C, Dubois M, De Vuyst M. Mucorales and deferoxamine: from saprophytic to pathogenic state. *Acta Otorhinolaryngol Belg* 1990;44(4):429-33.
49. Sane A, Manzi S, Perfect J, Herzberg AJ, Moore JO. Deferoxamine treatment as a risk factor for zygomycete infection. *J Infect Dis* 1989;159:151-2.
50. Eiser AR, Slifkin RF, Neff MS. Intestinal mucormycosis in hemodialysis patients following deferoxamine. *Am J Kidney Dis* 1987;10(1):71-3.
51. Goodill JJ, Abuelo JG. Mucormycosis-a new risk of deferoxamine therapy in dialysis patients with aluminum or iron overload? *N Engl J Med* 1987;317:54.
52. Veis JH, Contiguglia R, Klein M, Mishell J, Alfrey AC, Shapiro JI. Mucormycosis in deferoxamine-treated patients on dialysis. *Ann Intern Med* 1987;107(2):258.
53. Windus DW, Stokes TJ, Julian BA, Fenves AZ. Fatal Rhizopus infections in hemodialysis patients receiving deferoxamine. *Ann Intern Med* 1987;107:678-80.
54. Rex JH, Ginsberg AM, Fries LF, Pass HI, Kwon-Chung KJ. *Cunninghamella bertholletiae* infection associated with deferoxamine therapy. *Rev Infect Dis* 1988;10(6):1187-94.
55. McNab AA, McKelvie P. Iron overload is a risk factor for zygomycosis. *Arch Ophthalmol* 1997;115:919-21.
56. MacDonald ML, Weiss PJ, Deloach-Banta LJ, Comer SW. Primary cutaneous mucormycosis with a *Mucor* species: is iron overload a factor? *Cutis* 1994;54:275-8.
57. Sugar AM. Mucormycosis. *Clin Infect Dis* 1992; 14 (suppl 1):S126-9.
58. Roden MM, Zaoutis TE, Buchanan WL, Knudsen TA, Sarkisova TA, Schaufele RL, et al. Epidemiology and outcome of zygomycosis: a review of 929 reported cases. *Clin Infect Dis* 2005; 41(5):634-53.
59. Chakrabarti A, Das A, Sharma A, Panda N, Das S, Gupta KL, et al. Ten years' experience in zygomycosis at a tertiary care centre in India. *J Infect* 2001;42(4):261-6.
60. Parfrey NA. Improved diagnosis and prognosis of mucormycosis. A clinicopathologic study of 33 cases. *Medicine (Baltimore)* 1986;65:113-23.
61. Effat KG, Karam M, El-Kabani A. Pott's puffy tumour caused by mucormycosis. *J Laryngol Otol* 2005;119:643-5.
62. Yohai RA, Bullock JD, Aziz AA, Markert RJ. Survival factors in rhino-orbital-cerebral mucormycosis. *Surv Ophthalmol* 1994;39(1):3-22.
63. Ferry AP, Abedi S. Diagnosis and management of rhino-orbitocerebral mucormycosis (phycomycosis). A report of 16 personally observed cases. *Ophthalmology* 1983;90:1096-104.
64. Nithyanandam S, Jacob MS, Battu RR, Thomas RK, Correa MA, D'Souza O. Rhino-orbital-cerebral mucormycosis. A retrospective analysis of clinical features and treatment outcomes. *Ind J Ophthalmol* 2003;51(3):231-6.
65. Gleissner B, Schilling A, Anagnostopolous I, Siehl I, Thiel E. Improved outcome of zygomycosis in patients with hematological diseases? *Leuk Lymphoma* 2004;45(7):1351-60.
66. Dhiwakar M, Thakar A, Bahadur S. Improving outcomes in rhinocerebral mucormycosis early diagnostic pointers and prognostic factors. *J Laryngol Otol* 2003;117:861-5.
67. Van Dam AP, Pruijm MT, Harinck BI, Gelinck LB, Kuijper EJ. Pneumonia involving *Aspergillus* and *Rhizopus* spp. after a near-drowning incident with subsequent *Nocardia cyriacigeorgici* and *N. farcinica* coinfection as a late complication. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* 2005;24(1):61-4.
68. Dobrilovic N, Wait MA. Pulmonary mucormycosis. *Ann Thorac Surg.* 2005;79:354.
69. Kim Y, Lee KS, Jung KJ, Han J, Kim JS, Suh JS. Halo sign on high resolution CT: findings in spectrum of pulmonary diseases with pathologic correlation. *J Comput Assist Tomogr* 1999;23(4):622-6.
70. Jamadar DA, Kazerooni EA, Daly BD, White CS, Gross BH. Pulmonary zygomycosis: CT appearance. *J Comput Assist Tomogr.* 1995;19(5):733-8.
71. Chadli-Chaieb M, Bchir A, Fathallah-Mili A et al. Mucormycosis in the diabetic patient. *Presse Med* 2005;34(3):218-22.
72. Thajeb P, Thajeb T, Dai D. Fatal strokes in patients with rhino-orbital-cerebral mucormycosis and associated vasculopathy. *Scand J Infect Dis* 2004;36:643-8.
73. Thomas PA, Geraldine P. Rhino-orbital-cerebral mucormycosis. *Ind J Ophthalmol* 2004;52:171-2.
74. Dubey A, Patwardhan RV, Sampth S, Santosh V, Kolluri S, Nanda A. Intracranial fungal granuloma: analysis of 40 patients and review of the literature. *Surg Neurol* 2005;63(3):254-60.
75. Andresen D, Donaldson A, Choo L, Knox A, Klaassen M, Ursic C, et al. Multifocal cutaneous mucormycosis complicating polymicrobial wound infections in a tsunami survivor from Sri Lanka. *Lancet* 2005;365(9462):876-8.
76. Horre R, Jovanić B, Herff S, Marklein G, Zhou H, Heinze I, et al. Wound infection due to *Absidia corymbifera* and *Candida albicans* with fatal outcome. *Med Mycol* 2004;42(4):373-8.
77. Karim M, Ahmed R, Chishty K. Wound zygomycosis: two cases with unusual manifestations. *Int J Infect Dis* 2001;5:107-11.
78. Abter EI, Lutwick SM, Chapnick EK, Chittivelu S, Lutwick LI, Sabado M, et al. Mucormycosis of a median sternotomy wound. *Cardiovasc Surg* 1994;2(4):474-7.
79. Paparello SF, Parry RL, MacGillivray DC, Brock N, Mayers DL. Hospital-acquired wound mucormycosis. *Clin Infect Dis* 1992;14(1):350-2.

80. Vainrub B, Macareno A, Mandel S, Musher DM. Wound zygomycosis (mucormycosis) in otherwise healthy adults. *Am J Med* 1988;84(3):546-8.
81. Codish SD, Sheridan ID, Monaco AP. Mycotic wound infections. A new challenge of the surgeon. *Arch Surg* 1979;114(7):831-5.
82. Tang D, Wang W. Successful cure of an extensive burn injury complicated with mucor wound sepsis. *Burns* 1998;24(1):72-3.
83. Kraut EJ, Jordan MH, Steiner CR 3rd. Arterial occlusion and progressive gangrene caused by mucormycosis in a patient with burns. *J Burn Care Rehabil* 1993;14(5):552-6.
84. Cooter RD, Lim IS, Ellis DH, Leitch IO. Burn wound zygomycosis caused by *Apophysomyces elegans*. *J Clin Microbiol* 1990;28:2151-3.
85. Goldschmied-Reouven A, Shvoron A, Topaz M, Block C. *Saksena* vasiformis infection in a burn wound. *J Med Vet Mycol* 1989;27:427-9.
86. Chuntrasakul C, Chantarakul N. Mucormycosis in severely burned patients. Report of two cases with extensive destructive lesions. *J Med Assoc Thai* 1983;66(2):132-8.
87. Rabin ER, Lundberg GD, Mitchell ET. Mucormycosis in severely burned patients. Report of two cases with extensive destruction of the face and nasal cavity. *N Engl J Med* 1961;264:1286-9.
88. Legouge C, Caillot D, Chrétien ML, Lafon I, Ferrant E, Audia S, et al. The reversed halo sign: pathognomonic pattern of pulmonary mucormycosis in leukemic patients with neutropenia? *Clin Infect Dis* 2014;58(5):672.
89. Perez-Urbe A, Molina de Soschin D, Arenas R, Reyes M. Mucormycosis cutánea primaria en un paciente infectado con el virus de la inmunodeficiencia humana. *Rev Iberoam Micol* 2005;22(2):118-21.
90. Kapadia S, Polenakovic H. Cutaneous zygomycosis following attempted radial artery cannulation. *Skin Med* 2004;3(6):336-8.
91. Rubin AI, Grossman ME. Bull's-eye cutaneous infarct of zygomycosis: a bedside diagnosis confirmed by touch preparation. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 2004;51(6):996-1001.
92. Everett ED, Pearson S, Rogers W. *Rhizopus* surgical wound infection with elasticized adhesive tape dressings. *Arch Surg* 1979;114(6):738-9.
93. Jain JK, Markowitz A, Khilanani PV, Lauter CB. Localized mucormycosis following intramuscular corticosteroid. Case report and review of the literature. *Am J Med Sci* 1978;275(2):209-16.
94. Stamm B. Mucormycosis of the stomach in a patient with multiple trauma. *Histopathology* 2005;47(2):222-3.
95. Virk SS, Singh RP, Arora AS, Grewal JS, Puri H. Gastric zygomycosis an unusual cause of massive upper gastrointestinal bleed. *Ind J Gastroenterol* 2004;23(4):146-7.
96. Maraví-Poma E, Rodríguez-Tudela JL, de Jalón JG, Manrique-Larralde A, Torroba L, Urtasun J, et al. Outbreak of gastric mucormycosis associated with the use of wooden tongue depressors in critically ill patients. *Intens Care Med* 2004;30(4):724-8.
97. Shahapure AG, Patankar RV, Bhatkhande R. Gastric mucormycosis. *Ind J Gastroenterol* 2002;21(6):231-2.
98. Paulo De Oliveira JE, Milech A. A fatal case of gastric mucormycosis and diabetic ketoacidosis. *Endocr Pract* 2002;8(1):44-6.
99. Park YS, Lee JD, Kim TH, Joo YH, Lee JH, Lee TS, et al. Gastric mucormycosis. *Gastrointest Endosc* 2002;56(6):904-5.
100. Pickeral JJ 3rd, Silverman JF, Sturgis CD. Gastric zygomycosis diagnosed by brushing cytology. *Diagn Cytopathol* 2000;23(1):51-4.
101. Al-Rikabi AC, Al-Dohayan AD, Al-Boukai AA. Invasive mucormycosis in benign gastric ulcer. *Saudi Med J* 2000;21(3):287-90.
102. Cherney CL, Chutuape A, Fikrig MK. Fatal invasive gastric mucormycosis occurring with emphysematous gastritis: case report and literature review. *Am J Gastroenterol* 1999;94(1):252-6.
103. Barroso F, Forcelledo JL, Mayorga M, Pena F, Marques FF, de la Pena J. A fatal case of gastric mucormycosis in a heart transplant recipient. *Endoscopy* 1999;31(2):S2.
104. Sheu BS, Lee PC, Yang HB. A giant gastric ulcer caused by mucormycosis infection in a patient with renal transplantation. *Endoscopy* 1998;30:S60-1.
105. Alexander P, Alladi A, Correa M, D'Cruz AJ. Neonatal colonic mucormycosis a tropical perspective. *J Trop Pediatr* 2005;51(1):54-9.
106. Gulati S, Barthakur G, Banerjee CK, Singhi S. Zygomycosis of colon. *Ind Pediatr* 1991;28:940-3.
107. Agha FP, Lee HH, Boland CR, Bradley SF. Mucormycoma of the colon: early diagnosis and successful management. *AJR Am J Roentgenol* 1985;145(4):739-41.
108. De Feo E. Mucormycosis of the colon. *Am J Roentgenol Radium Ther Nucl Med* 1961;86:86-90.
109. Sellappan B, Bakhshi S, Safaya R, Gupta AK, Arya LS. Invasive colonic mucormycosis in early induction therapy of childhood acute lymphoblastic leukemia. *Ind J Pediatr* 2005;72(1):77-9.
110. Diven SC, Angel CA, Hawkins HK, Rowen JL, Shattuck KE. Intestinal zygomycosis due to *Absidia corymbifera* mimicking necrotizing enterocolitis in a preterm neonate. *J Perinatol* 2004;24(12):794-6.
111. Echo A, Hovsepian RV, Shen GK. Localized cecal zygomycosis following renal transplantation. *Transpl Infect Dis* 2005;7(2):68-70.
112. Siu KL, Lee WH. A rare cause of intestinal perforation in an extreme low birth weight infant-gastrointestinal mucormycosis: a case report. *J Perinatol* 2004;24(5):319-21.
113. Manchikalapati P, Canon CL, Jhala N, Eloubeidi MA. Gastrointestinal zygomycosis complicating heart and lung transplantation in a patient with Eisenmenger's syndrome. *Dig Dis Sci* 2005;50(6):1181-3.

114. Chen L, Xiao Y, Wang X. Successful treatment of mucormycosis in the pulmonary artery after cardiac surgery. *J Card Surg* 2005;20(2):186-8.
115. Mehta NN, Romanelli J, Sutton MG. Native aortic valve vegetative endocarditis with *Cunninghamella*. *Eur J Echocardiogr* 2004;5(2):156-8.
116. Erdos MS, Butt K, Weinstein L. Mucormycotic endocarditis of the pulmonary valve. *JAMA* 1972;222(8):951-3.
117. Buchbinder NA, Roberts WC. Active infective endocarditis confined to mural endocardium. A study of six necropsy patients. *Arch Pathol* 1972;93(5):435-40.
118. Sanchez-Recalde A, Merino JL, Dominguez F, Mate I, Larrea JL, Sobrino JA. Successful treatment of prosthetic aortic valve mucormycosis. *Chest* 1999;116(6):1818-20.
119. Virmani R, Connor DH, McAllister HA. Cardiac mucormycosis. A report of five patients and review of 14 previously reported cases. *Am J Clin Pathol* 1982;78(1):42-7.
120. Mishra B, Mandal A, Kumar N. Mycotic prosthetic-valve endocarditis. *J Hosp Infect* 1992;20:122-5.
121. Welk B, House AA, Ralph E, Tweedy E, Luke PP. Successful treatment of primary bilateral renal mucormycosis with bilateral nephrectomy. *Urology* 2004;64(3):590.
122. Singh SK, Wadhwa P, Sakhuja V. Isolated bilateral renal mucormycosis. *Urology* 2004;63(5):979-80.
123. Jianhong L, Xianliang H, Xuewu J. Isolated renal mucormycosis in children. *J Urol* 2004;171:387-8.
124. Lin CY, Lee SC, Lin CC, Chan SC, Lee CT. Isolated fatal renal mucormycosis in a patient with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease and tuberculosis. *Int J Clin Pract* 2003;57(10):916-8.
125. Chkhotua A, Yussim A, Sobolev V, Bar-Nathan N, Shaharabani E, Shapir Z, et al. Mucormycosis of the renal allograft: case report and review of the literature. *Transpl Int* 2001;14(6):438-41.
126. Chan LL, Singh S, Jones D, Diaz EM Jr, Ginsberg LE. Imaging of mucormycosis skull base osteomyelitis. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol* 2000;21(5):828-31.
127. Stevanovic MV, Mirzayan R, Holtom PD, Schnall SB. Mucormycosis osteomyelitis in the hand. *Orthopedics* 1999;22(4):449-50.
128. Shaw CJ, Thomason AJ, Spencer JD. Fungal osteomyelitis of the foot. A report of an unusual case. *J Bone Joint Surg Br* 1994;76(1):137-9.
129. Chaudhuri R, McKeown B, Harrington D, Hay RJ, Bingham JB, Spencer JD. Mucormycosis osteomyelitis causing avascular necrosis of the cuboid bone: MR imaging findings. *AJR Am J Roentgenol* 1992;159(5):1035-7.
130. Meis JF, Kullberg BJ, Pruszczyński M, Veth RP. Severe osteomyelitis due to the zygomycete *Apophysomyces elegans*. *J Clin Microbiol* 1994;32(12):3078-81.
131. Pierce PF, Wood MB, Roberts GD, Fitzgerald RH Jr, Robertson C, Edson RS. Saksenaia vasiformis osteomyelitis. *J Clin Microbiol* 1987;25(5):933-5.
132. Echols RM, Selinger DS, Hallowell C, Goodwin JS, Duncan MH, Cushing AH. *Rhizopus* osteomyelitis. A case report and review. *Am J Med* 1979;66(1):141-5.
133. Buruma OJ, Craane H, Kunst MW. Vertebral osteomyelitis and epidural abscess due to mucormycosis, a case report. *Clin Neurol Neurosurg* 1979;81(1):39-44.
134. Mostaza JM, Barbado FJ, Fernandez-Martin J, Pena-Yanez J, Vazquez-Rodriguez JJ. Cutaneous mucormycosis due to *Cunninghamella bertholletiae* in a patient with AIDS. *Rev Infect Dis* 1989;11(2):316-8.
135. Nannini EC, Paphitou NI, Ostrosky-Zeichner L. Peritonitis due to *Aspergillus* and zygomycetes in patients undergoing peritoneal dialysis: report of 2 cases and review of the literature. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis* 2003;46(1):49-54.
136. Fergie JE, Fitzwater DS, Einstein P, Leggiadro RJ. Mucor peritonitis associated with acute peritoneal dialysis. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* 1992;11(6):498-500.
137. Polo JR, Luno J, Menarguez C, Gallego E, Robles R, Hernandez P. Peritoneal mucormycosis in a patient receiving continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis. *Am J Kidney Dis* 1989;13(3):237-9.
138. Branton MH, Johnson SC, Brooke JD, Hasbargen JA. Peritonitis due to *Rhizopus* in a patient undergoing continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis. *Rev Infect Dis* 1991;13:19-21.
139. Nakamura M, Weil WB Jr, Kaufman DB. Fatal fungal peritonitis in an adolescent on continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis: association with deferroxamine. *Pediatr Nephrol* 1989;3(1):80-2.
140. Machouart M, Larché J, Burton K, Collomb J, Maurer P, Cintrat A, et al. Genetic identification of the main opportunistic *Mucorales* by PCR-restriction fragment length polymorphism. *J Clin Microbiol* 2006;44(3):805.
141. Hammond SP, Bialek R, Milner DA. Molecular methods to improve diagnosis and identification of mucormycosis. *J Clin Microbiol* 2011;49(6):2151.
142. Walsh TJ, Gamaletsou MN, McGinnis MR, Hayden RT, Kontoyiannis DP. Early clinical and laboratory diagnosis of invasive pulmonary, extrapulmonary, and disseminated mucormycosis (zygomycosis). *Clin Infect Dis* 2012; 54 Suppl 1:S55-60.
143. Schrödl W, Heydel T, Schwartze VU, Hoffmann K, Große-Herrenthey A, et al. Direct analysis and identification of pathogenic *Lichtheimia* species by matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization time-of-flight analyzer-mediated mass spectrometry. *J Clin Microbiol* 2012;50(2):419.
144. Cassagne C, Ranque S, Normand AC, Fourquet P, Thiebault S, Planard C, et al. Mould routine identification in the clinical laboratory by matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization time-of-flight mass spectrometry. *PLoS One* 2011;6(12):e28425.

145. Ling H, Yuan Z, Shen J. Accuracy of matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization-time of flight mass spectrometry for identification of clinical pathogenic fungi: a meta-analysis. *J Clin Microbiol* 2014;52:2573.
146. Saltoğlu N, Taşova Y, Zorludemir S, Dündar IH. Rhinocerebral zygomycosis treated with liposomal amphotericin B and surgery. *Mycoses* 1998;41(1-2):45-9.
147. DelGaudio JM, Swain RE Jr, Kingdom TT, Hudgins PA. Computed tomographic findings in patients

with invasive fungal sinusitis. *Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg* 2003;129(2):236.

Cite this article as: Jaju MR, Sagar RV, Srivastav SK, Singh R, Kumar KV, Faisal M. Different types of mucormycosis: case series. *Int J Res Med Sci* 2020;8:2284-96.