Review



Scedosporium apiospermum: changing clinical spectrum of a therapy-refractory opportunist^{*}

JOSEP GUARRO*, A. SERDA KANTARCIOGLU†, REGINE HORRɇ, JUAN LUIS RODRIGUEZ-TUDELA§, MANUEL CUENCA ESTRELLA¶, JUAN BERENGUER¶ & G. SYBREN DE HOOG#,+

*Unitat de Microbiologia, Facultat de Medicina i Ciències de la Salut, Universitat Rovira i Virgili, Spain, †Department of Microbiology and Clinical Microbiology, Cerrahpasa Medical Faculty, Cerrahpasa, Istanbul, Turkey, ‡Institute for Medical Microbiology and Immunology, and Federal Institute for Drugs and Medical Devices, Bonn, Germany, §Servicio de Micología, Centro Nacional de Microbiología, Instituto de Salud Carlos III, Majadahonda, Madrid, Spain, ¶Servicio de Microbiologia Clinica y Enfermedades Infecciosas, Hospital Gregorio Marañon, Madrid, Spain, #Centraalbureau voor Schimmelcultures, Utrecht, and +Institute for Biodiversity and Ecosystem Dynamics, University of Amsterdam, Amsterdam, The Netherlands

Current knowledge on the opportunist *Scedosporium apiospermum* (teleomorph: *Pseudallescheria boydii*), generated over a period of more than 120 years, is reviewed. The natural environmental habitat of the fungus is unknown; nutrient-rich, brackish waters like river estuaria have been suggested. The fungus is strongly promoted by agricultural and particularly by industrial pollution.

Keywords *Pseudallescheria boydii*, mycetoma, near-drowning, cerebral infection, pulmonary colonization, CF, multidrug resistance

Introduction

Scedosporium apiospermum – the anamorph (asexual state) of the ascomycete *Pseudallescheria boydii* – is a significant opportunist with very high levels of antifungal-resistance. Previously it was mainly known to be involved in traumatic, subcutaneous infections and in asymptomatic pulmonary colonization, but in recent years, new disease entities have emerged. The fungus has become recognized as a potent etiologic agent of severe infections in immunocompromised and occasionally also in immunocompetent patients. Currently *Scedosporium* infections are among the most common deep mould infections. With a frequency of c. 9%, *S. apiospermum* is among the most common filamentous fungi colonizing the lungs of cystic fibrosis patients [1]. The intrinsic clinical potency of *S. apiospermum* can be

Received 18 November 2005; Accepted 10 April 2006

deduced from its extremely infrequent isolation from outside and indoor air but its high prevalence in the lungs of susceptible patients.

In general, the clinical significance of filamentous fungi can be inferred from the following data. In Europe around 18,000 patients will be diagnosed with acute leukemia alone and around 13,000 die of this disease each year. It is estimated that approximately 99,000 patients will be treated for a hematological malignancy and around 18,800 will be bone-marrow or organ transplanted. A significant share of the patients undergoing lung or allogenic bone-marrow transplantation and of the patients with acute leukemia will develop invasive mycoses [2]. Roughly estimated, 5000-6000 cases involve filamentous fungi, which mostly become the ultimate cause of death. S. apiospermum has been specifically listed as an important cause of death in transplant recipients, with a frequency of 1:1000 patients [3]. A comparable frequency (0.4%) was observed by Pagano et al. [4] in patients with hematologic malignancies. The role of S. apiospermum in the fatal infections may be underestimated due to the present lack of detailed diagnostics.

Correspondence: G. S. de Hoog: Centraalbureau voor Schimmelcultures, P.O. Box 85167, NL-3508 AD Utrecht, The Netherlands. Tel.: +31 30 2122 663; fax: +31-30-251-2097; E-mail: de.hoog@cbs.knaw.nl

^{*} Communication of the ECMM Working Group on *Pseu*dallescheria and *Scedosporium* (www.Scedosporium-ECMM.com).

Diagnosis of a *Scedosporium* infection is difficult, because clinical features and histopathology are similar to those of *Aspergillus, Fusarium* and other relatively common hyaline hyphomycetes [5,6]. Sporulation in culture is required for a correct diagnosis, but even then confusion with other morphologically similar species is possible [7].

Over the last 5 years numerous articles including some excellent reviews have been published on clinical aspects of this fungus [8-12], but these mostly elaborate on only a limited number of clinical manifestations. The aim of the present article is to review the currently available information on the fungus and to provide insight into recent developments.

Microbiology

Morphology

Thallus. Colonies are fast growing, greyish-white, suede-like to downy with a greyish-black reverse (Fig. 1). Despite the fact that cultures often are grey,

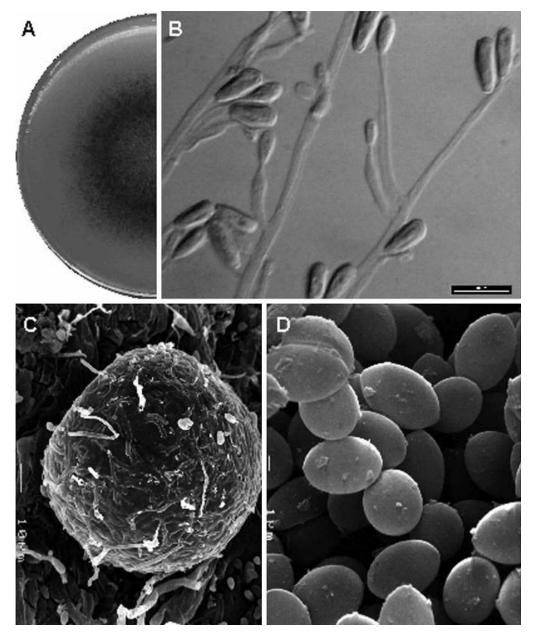


Fig. 1 *Pseudallescheria boydii*. (A) Colony on oatmeal agar at 15 days of incubation at 25°C. (B) Conidiogenous cells and conidia. (C) Ascoma. (D) Ascospores.

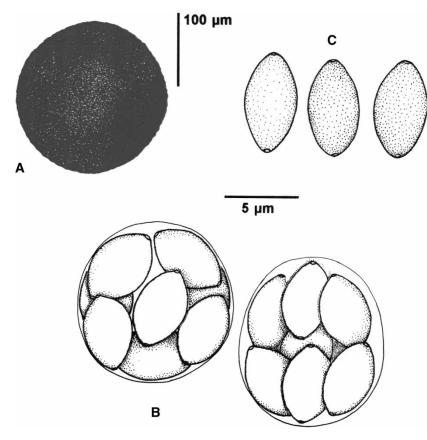


Fig. 2 *Pseudallescheria boydii* teleomorph. (A) Ascoma. (B) Asci. (C) Ascospores.

brown or almost black due to pigments or the production of brown conidia, the fungus has a colourless mycelium. Therefore it is not to be listed as a dematiaceous fungus, which, in contrast, is characterized by melanized hyphae. Fontana-Masson staining for melanin is negative [13]. Consequently, in histopathology the hyphae are hyaline ('hyalohyphomycosis') and the grains produced in cases of mycetoma are white.

Teleomorph. A small percentage of strains spontaneously produce ascigerous fruit bodies (Fig. 1 & 2). Ascocarp formation may be stimulated on cornmeal agar or other nutrient deficient media. The genus *Pseudallescheria* is characterized by the production of closed fruit bodies (cleistothecia) which are yellowbrown to black, spherical, 140–200 m in diameter mostly submerged in the agar and having thin, membranaceous walls composed of jig-saw-shaped cells [14]. When crushed under a cover slip, cleistothecia release numerous spherical, thin-walled, evanescent asci in unordered arrangement, which rapidly dissolve to release eight lemon-shaped, golden brown ascospores, $4-5 \times 7-9$ um in size [15]. Distinction from conidial

© 2006 ISHAM, Medical Mycology, 44, 295-327

Coelomycetes fruit bodies can be verified by crushing young ascomata, releasing spherical cells without ascospores; these are immature asci. Coelomycetes lack such structures in any phase of their development.

Anamorphs. Several types of asexual propagation are known. A Scedosporium anamorph is almost invariably present. This consists of hyaline cylindrical conidiogenous cells arising from undifferentiated hyphae, producing obovoidal, brown, sticky conidia $(4-9 \times 6-$ 10 µm) from a short extension. Conidial development is annellidic (Fig. 3). The process of conidium production is clearly revealed in scanning electron microscopy [16,17], but scars are flat and are hardly visible in light microscopy; slide cultures are then essential to observe conidial arrangement (Fig. 4) [18]. A Graphium synanamorph (Fig. 3 & 5) may be produced in some cultures in a later stage at the edge of the colony. This consists of stiff, erect, olive-brown bundles of hyphae, terminating in a brush of slender conidiogenous cells. Conidiogenesis is similar to that of the Scedosporium synanamorph, but the cells are smaller and the conidia more slender and less pigmented [15]. Occasionally cultures are whitish and degenerate, having lost any

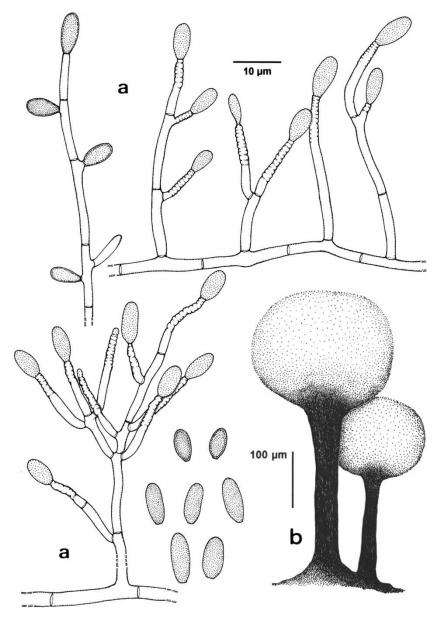


Fig. 3 Pseudallescheria boydii anamorphs. (A) Scedosporium apiospermum. (B) Graphium.

conidial production. Hyphal cells may then locally swell and disarticulate irregularly as multicelled arthroconidia. This form has been described under the generic name *Polycytella* [19], but molecular identity to *S. apiospermum* has been proven [20].

Phylogeny. Pseudallescheria is a genus of the ascomycete order *Microascales*, which contains other genera with potential agents of human disease such as *Scopulariopsis* and *Microascus. Petriella* is a related genus, differing by ascomata with preformed openings. Genera producing ascomata with preformed openings (perithecia) and without openings (cleistothecia) were shown to be members of a single family within the *Microascales*, the *Microascaceae*. This seems in conflict with Berbee & Taylor's [21] division of the Ascomycota on the basis of peri- vs. cleistothecia. However, true perithecia have an ordered centrum with asci in star-like arrangement, which is not the case in *Petriella* [22,23]. For this reason von Arx [24] regarded *Petriella* and *Pseudallescheria* as being closely akin and suggested that openings in fruit bodies produced by members of the genera could be influenced by culture conditions. This is confirmed by molecular phylogeny on the basis of rDNA SSU and LSU sequence data elaborated by Issakainen and co-workers [25,26]. The coherence of *Microascus* and *Pseudallescheria* was also shown by Okada *et al.* [27] with SSU rDNA sequences.

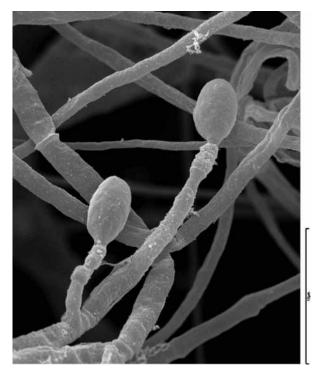


Fig. 4 Scedosporium apiospermum. Conidiogenous cells and conidia.

Both teleomorph genera share *Scedosporium*-like anamorphs, and frequently produce a *Graphium*-synanamorph characterized by large, erect bundles of hyphae terminating in a dense aggregate of conidium-producing cells. All propagules (ascospores as well as *Scedosporium*- and *Graphium*-anamorphs) are liberated in slime.

Biodiversity. Scedosporium apiospermum is highly variable at the molecular level [28]. A recent multigene

sequence analysis has demonstrated that *P. boydii* is a complex that includes several phylogenetic species [29]. *Pseudallescheria angusta, P. ellipsoidea, P. fusoidea,* and the two recently proposed new species *P. minutispora* and *Scedosporium aurantiacum* are genetically and morphologically different from *S. apiospermum sensu stricto*, but there may be other species within the complex that are phenotypically undistinguishable from *S. apiospermum* [29]. Since the degree of involvement of each individual species in human infections has not been determined, the present review will maintain the name *S. apiospermum* in all disease entities.

The natural niche of *P. boydii* is not known, but the species is very common in heavily polluted environments (see below). The fact that the species has emerged from its original habitat in nature and now is successfully adapting to the human-dominated environment suggests that a process of competition between genotypes is currently taking place, with selection of those that are more suitable to survive in the new environment. This is reflected in the predominance of clinical strains that compose a more or less circumscribed entity within the species [30], with slightly higher degrees of thermotolerance [31].

Environmental occurrence and transmission

Scedosporium apiospermum is common in temperate climates and less frequently encountered in the tropics. Its natural niche is not known; all environments from which it is currently isolated being strongly influenced by human activity. It is a eutrophic fungus commonly found in soil [32–34]. Its occurrence is promoted in manure-enriched or polluted environments, such as agricultural and garden soil [35–37], sewer [38], or ditch mud and polluted pond bottoms [39,40]. It is also

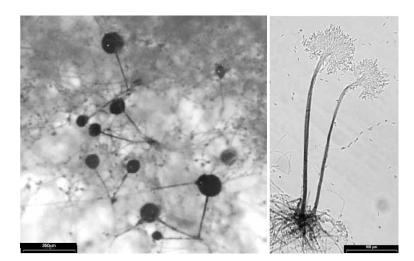


Fig. 5 Graphium synanamorph, synnemata.

found in hydrocarbon-contaminated soils [41], being able to assimilate natural gas [42,43] and aromatic compounds [44] and has therefore been suggested for use in bioremediation [45]. All these environments are poorly aerated; the fungus is able to grow at low oxygen tensions, and even shows activity under strictly anaerobic conditions [39]. Bell et al. [36] noted that it became the predominant species after prolonged incubation. In vitro it tolerates 5% additional salt [39]. This property enables the fungus to reside in somewhat osmotic environments such as dry bat faeces [46], chicken coops [47] and bird guano at their roosting sites [48]. It occurs in brackish and salt water, such as submerged wood in estuaria [49] and tide-washed areas and marine soil [50,51]. Its occurrence in low numbers in bathing facilities and swimming pools [52] are probably indicative for long-term pollution.

The selective medium based on benomyl [53] is useful for isolation from heavily contaminated materials. For soil samples, incubation of specimens for 2 h at 65°C prior to isolation has been recommended [54]. In case of liquid samples such as brackish water, enrichment using wooden blocks has proven successful [49]; abundant development of ascomata on the wood support was noted. Similarly, recovery from liquid medium is enhanced for clinical strains by the use of tooth picks that are immersed half-way in the broth, profuse mycelial growth being observed within a few days at the liquid-air interphase (R. Horré, unpublished data).

Physiology

Physiological profiles of this species were established by de Hoog *et al.* [39]. Most strains tolerate 37°C, and some still show growth at 42°C. Tolerance of magnesium chloride (5%) is higher than that of NaCl. Some strictly anaerobic growth is observed. Species are proteolytic and amylolytic. They assimilate urea, asparagine, potassium nitrate, and ammonium nitrate.

Molecular identification

PCR-based assays from infected tissue are useful for rapid diagnosis of *S. apiospermumi* infections, even before fungal cultures become positive [55]. Wedde *et al.* [56] developed specific primers based on Internal Transcribed Spacer (ITS) rDNA sequences. Given the large infraspecific variability of the species, a less variable region, such as the 26S rDNA operon [57] might also provide successful detection of *S. apiospermum*-like genotypes. Willinger *et al.* [58] used this marker for detection of *S. apiospermum* and similar organisms from fungus balls in the maxillary sinus.

Molecular epidemiology

Subspecific typing of S. apiospermum at population level is unproblematic because of the large degree of heterogeneity. Rainer et al. [28] found with M-13 fingerprinting that nearly all strains analyzed belonged to another genotype; several genotypes could be recovered from a single sampling site. The high degree of polymorphism enabled Zouhair et al. [59] to monitor dissemination of a strain colonizing the lungs of a patient with cystic fibrosis to cutaneous locations using multilocus enzyme electrophoresis and RAPD. In a longitudinal study, Defontaine et al. [60] analyzed nine patients with cystic fibrosis, none of which were found to share the same genotype. Five patients were colonized by a single genotype, but in four a predominant genotype was accompanied by one or two others with irregular presence. This demonstrates that the fungus may persist in CF lungs despite antifungal treatment.

Selection of reference strains

Given the high degree of diversity of the *Scedosporium* complex, calibration of research efforts using overlapping sets of strains and consistent inclusion of reference materials is mandatory. A list of essential isolates, based on nomenclatural types and strains previously used in labor-intensive methodologies, is presented in Table 1.

Laboratory diagnosis

Regarding the EORTC criteria, diagnosis of a *Scedosporium* infection should be based on histological and/ or cytological evidence in samples from normally sterile body sites and isolation of the mould in culture. An overview of procedures enhancing the specific recognition of *S. apiospermum* is given below.

Direct microscopy and staining

Current histochemical staining methods include maceration in 20% KOH followed by fluorescence microscopy using Blankophor or Uvitek 2B [61,62]. These general mycological stains do not discriminate this fungus from other filamentous ascomycetes such as *Aspergillus* and *Fusarium*. Using polyclonal fluorescent antibodies, Kauffman *et al.* [63] successfully identified the species *S. apiospermum*.

Clinical specimens from mycetoma are serosanguinous fluids containing granules, or biopsy specimens. Grains can be broadly identified down to the genus level by characteristics of shape, colour and texture

et al. 2005

Table 1 Selected reference strains.

Strain numbers	Status	Source	Used for	Reference
<i>P. africana:</i> CBS 311.72 = UAMH 4000	T of Petriellidium africanum	Sandy soil, Namibia, 1972		Gilgado et al. 2005
<i>S. aurantiacum:</i> CBS 116910 = FMR 8630 = IHEM 21147	T of S. aurantiacum	Ulcer, human ankle, Spain, 2004		Gilgado et al. 2005
<i>P. boydii/S. apiospermum:</i> CBS 101.22 = IHEM 15933 = IMI 015407 = IP 1975.91 = JCM 7441 = NCPF 2216 = UAMH 3982	T of Allescheria boydii	Human mycetoma, Texas, U.S.A., 1921	DNA reassociation group 1; shows anaerobic growth; MLST clade 5	Guého & de Hoog 1991; de Hoog <i>et al.</i> 1994; Gilgado <i>et al.</i> 2005
CBS 116892 = IHEM 21159 = IP 1945.90		Sputum of CF patient, France	DNA reassociation group 1	Guého & de Hoog 1991
CBS 591.90 = CDC A-495 = IHEM	T of Pseudallescheria shearii	Human mycetoma, Argentina, 1944		
21160 = NCMH 1169 ATCC 760 = ATCC 11600 = CBS 100.26 = IHEM 21161 = IP 1976.91 = MUCL	T of Acladium castellanii	Human, 1926		
15755 CBS 695.70 = IHEM 21162 = IP 1977.91 UAMH 3990 = VKM F-1474	T of Acremonium suis	Nasal cavity of pig, Ukraine, 1970	DNA reassociation group 2; shows anaerobic growth	Guého & de Hoog 1991; de Hoog <i>et al</i> . 1994
$CBS \ 116779 = IHEM$ $21163 = IP \ 1946.90$		Human sinus, France	DNA reassociation group 2	Guého & de Hoog 1991
CBS 948.87 = IHEM 21164 = IMI 239533 = NCPF 2230	T of Polycytella hominis	Human mycetoma, India, 1987	Broub -	
CBS 108.54 = IHEM 21165 = IP 1987.91		Soil, Zaire, 1953	DNA reassociation group 3; shows anaerobic growth; strain producing teleomorph in	Guého & de Hoog 1991; de Hoog <i>et al</i> . 1994
CBS 116894 = IHEM 21166 = IP 1742.88		Soil, Thailand	abundance DNA reassociation group 3;strain producing teleomorph in abundance	de Hoog et al. 1994
CBS 418.73 = UAMH 3987	T of Petriellidium ellipsoideum	Soil, Tajikistan, 1973	MLST clade 5	Gilgado et al. 2005
CBS 116403 = IHEM 21167	Ĩ	Fatal cerebral infection after near-drowning, Germany, 1995		Rüchel & Willichowski 1995
ATCC 11657 = CBS 106.53 = CDC	T of <i>Petriellidium</i> fusoideum	Soil, Panama, 1973		
A-722 = UAMH 3997 CBS 116895 = FMR		Cerebral abscess,	Used in animal	Ortoneda et al. 2002,
6694 = IHEM 21168		Barcelona, Spain, 1999	experiments; MLST clade 5	Capilla <i>et al</i> . 2003, Capilla & Guarro 2004; Gilgado <i>et al</i> . 2005
CBS 116896 = FMR 6922 = IHEM 21169		Garden soil, Barcelona, Spain, 2000	Used in animal experiments; MLST clade 4	Ortoneda <i>et al</i> . 2002, Capilla <i>et al</i> . 2003, Capilla & Guarro 2004; Gilgado <i>et al</i> . 2005
CBS 116897 = FMR 4167 = IHEM 21170		Human otitis, Spain, 1992	Used in animal experiments; MLST clade 5	Ortoneda <i>et al</i> . 2002, Capilla <i>et al</i> . 2003, Capilla & Guarro 2004; Gilgado

Table 1 (Continued)

Strain numbers	Status	Source	Used for	Reference
CBS 116898 =IHEM 14263 =LMA 4 98 00204		Sputum of cystic fibrosis patient (1), Angers, France, 1998	MLEE and RAPD genotype 1; MLST clade 5	Defontaine <i>et al</i> . 2002; Gilgado <i>et al</i> . 2005
CBS 116899 = IHEM 14268 = LMA 4 98 00544		Sputum of cystic fibrosis patient (4), Giens, France, 1998	MLEE and RAPD genotype 6; MLST clade 4	Defontaine <i>et al</i> . 2002; Gilgado <i>et al</i> . 2005
ATCC 22956 = CBS 254.72 = IHEM 4429 = RV 57007 = TRTC 45321 = UAMH 3984	T of Petriellidium angustum	Sewage half digestion tank, Ohio, U.S.A., 1972	MLST clade 5	Gilgado <i>et al</i> . 2005
<i>P. desertorum:</i> CBS 489.72 = UAMH 3993	T of <i>Petriellidium</i> desertorum	Salt-marsh soil, Kuwait, 1973		
<i>P. fimeti:</i> CBS 129.78	T of Petriellidium fimeti	Goat dung, India		
<i>P. minutispora:</i> CBS 116911 = FMR 4072 = IHEM 21148	T of P. minutispora	River sediment, Spain		Gilgado et al. 2005
<i>S. prolificans:</i> CBS 467.74 =IHEM	T of Lomentospora	Greenhouse soil,		Hennebert & Desai 1974
5739 =IMI 188615 =MUCL 18141	prolificans	Belgium, 1971		
CBS 114.90 = IHEM 21171 = IP 1974.91 NCMH 2365 = UAMH 5517	T of Scedosporium inflatum	Human bone infection, Maine, U.S.A., 1981		Malloch & Salkin 1984
CBS 116900 = FMR 3569 = IHEM 21172		Blood, Spain, 1990	Used in animal experiments	Ortodena <i>et al</i> . 2002ab, 2004
CBS 116901 = FMR 6721 = IHEM 21173		Soil, Spain, 1992	Used in animal experiments	Ortodena <i>et al</i> . 2002ab, 2004
CBS 116902 = FMR 6654 = IHEM 21174		Blood, Spain, 1998	Used in animal experiments	Ortodena <i>et al</i> . 2002ab, 2004
CBS 116903 = FMR 6802 = IHEM 21175		Air, Spain, 2000	Used in animal experiments	Ortodena <i>et al</i> . 2002ab, 2004
CBS 116904 = FMR 6649 = IHEM 21176		Blood, Spain, 1998	Used in animal experiments	Ortodena <i>et al</i> . 2002ab, 2004
CBS 116905 = FMR 7252 = IHEM 21177		Frontal sinus, USA, 1996	Used in animal experiments	Ortodena <i>et al</i> . 2002ab, 2004
CBS 116906 = IHEM 14076 = LMA 1286		Sputum of cystic fibrosis patient, Pontivy, France, 1998	experiments	2004
AZN7912 = CBS 116908 = IHEM 21178		Blood, Spain	MIC testing	Meletiadis et al. 2002

Abbreviations used: ATCC = American Type Culture Collection, Manasas, U.S.A.; AZN = Academisch Ziekenhuis Nijmegen St. Radboud, Nijmegen, The Netherlands; CBS = Centraalbureau voor Schimmelcultures, Utrecht, The Netherlands; CDC = Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Atlanta, U.S.A.; FMR = Facultad de Medicina, Reus, Spain; IHEM = Scientific Institute of Public Health, Mycology Section, Brussels, Belgium; IMI = International Mycological Institute, Egham, U.K.; IP = Institut Pasteur, Paris, France; JCM = Japanese Collection of Microorganisms, RIKEN, Saitama, Japan; MUCL = Mycothèque de l'Université Catholique de Louvain, Louvain-la-Neuve, Belgium; NCPF = National Collection of Pathogenic Fungi, London, U.K.; NCMH = North Carolina, Memorial Hospital, Chapel Hill, N.C., U.S.A.; RV = Raymond Vanbreuseghem Collection at IHEM; TRTC, now UTCC = University of Toronto Culture Collection, Department of Botany, University of Toronto, Ontario, Canada; UAMH = University of Alberta, Microfungus Collection and Herbarium, Edmonton, Canada; VKM = All-Union Collection of Micro-organisms, Moscow, Russia.

[64]. Grains of *Scedosporium apiospermum* are 1-2 mm large, soft, irregularly lobed, and are white when sectioned. They are frequently surrounded by a prominent eosinophilic fringe which is absent from grains of other white-grain agents of mycetoma [65].

Culture from clinical specimens

For reliable identification, culturing of the organism is recommended. Tissue specimens are macerated in 0.9% NaCl. Optimum temperature for growth for all strains is between 30 and 35° C; not all strains are able to grow at 37° C. The fungus grows well on routine mycological media such as Sabouraud's glucose agar, blood agar and chocolate agar. A selective medium modified Leonian's agar with 10 µg/ml benomyl was introduced by Summerbell [53]; however, this medium is not commercially available. Growth is also observed on media with a high concentration (8 mg/ml) of cycloheximide [64] which is inhibitory for clinical *Aspergillus* species. Salkin *et al.* [66] and Dixon and Polak-Wyss [67] distinguished *S. apiospermum* from *S. prolificans* by growth responses on cycloheximide-based Mycosel agar, although de Hoog *et al.* [39] noted that strains of *S. apiospermum* are variably susceptible when tested in liquid medium.

Scedosporium apiospermum has been cultured from spinal or ventricular CSF, brain tissue, meninges and from other deep tissues. Culture of CSF from infected patients may be negative [68–71], positive [72–74], or delayed with up to three weeks [72]. CSF culture negative results might be attributed to the capsulated nature of the abscesses caused by the fungus residing in the brain. The fungus can also be isolated from whitish material that filled the shunt [69], from aspirated pus [75–78], from fluid obtained by ventriculostomy [79], or by cisternal tap [80].

Culture of sputum or bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) or secretions from trachea or external ears, particularly in CF patients, may be hampered by their mucoid consistency. In addition, a competing fungal flora of rapidly growing *Aspergillus* and *Candida* species is frequently present. Isolation using benomyl agar [53] or cycloheximide containing agar [1] is then recommended.

Histopathology

In contrast to the regular, dichotomous branching pattern characteristic for *Aspergillus* in cytologic smears and tissue sections, *Scedosporium* hyphae usually show a slightly more irregular branching pattern [81,82]. Hyphae with multiple branching at acute angles [83] or dichotomously [73] have been reported. Other typical elements commonly observed in cytologic smears and tissue sections of *Scedosporium* infection are terminal or intercalary, globose chlamy-dospores [82], thick-walled structures of up to 20 μ m in diameter [71,81,82,84], which might be confused with yeasts. Hayden *et al.* [85] developed an *in situ* hybridization technique based on rDNA probes to distinguish between *Aspergillus* and *Scedosporium* in tissue.

© 2006 ISHAM, Medical Mycology, 44, 295-327

Purulent CSF revealing heavy infiltrate with PMNs, multinucleate giant cells and highly elevated WBC counts were reported in cases of meningitis [86–88] as well as in cases of cerebral granulomata [83]. Microscopical examinations revealed mostly granulomatous inflammation with multinucleate cellular tissue reaction in brain tissue [74]. Microscopically, abscesses can be detected in brain and hyphae may be seen to penetrate cerebral blood vessels [68,89].

Radiology

In most pulmonary or cerebral cases the lesions are multiple and have low density. The fungal mass is not separated from the wall of the cavity by an airspace. The 'air-crescent' appearance is more likely to indicate invasive pulmonary aspergillosis [9,90–92]. The difference between the CT may be explained by rapid and fatal evolution of *Scedosporium* infections [93].

Serology

Immunodiffusion may be useful in the diagnosis of Scedosporium infections, but reagents are not commercially available and antigenic extracts have to be made in the laboratory. Lupan and Cazin [94] used indirect passive hemagglutination based on rabbits immunized with P. boydii polysaccharide antigens. Tests were positive in humans with proven P. boydii infection: titers were up to 1:512, while healthy individuals have serum levels of max. 1:32. Using mouse experiments Lupan and Cazin [95] noted highest, dose-dependent response after injection of viable conidia. Tests are reliable for diagnosis and to monitor the prognosis of the infection [96]. Ouchterlony tests have classically been used for identification of the species, while intracutaneous inoculation may suggest invasion [97]. Antigen used is a peptidorhamnomannan from mycelium. Cross reactivity with Sporothrix schenckii [98] and with Aspergillus [96] have however been noted. A case of S. apiospermum encephalitis in a child whose CSF specimen revealed repeatedly highly positive cryptococcal antigen titre (1:4000) was reported by Rüchel and Willichowski [87]. Cimon et al. [99] applied antibody detection by counterimmuno-electrophoresis for S. apiospermum, which was found positive in 27 of 128 (21.1%) CF patients. This number was significantly higher than found with culture of sputum samples. The discrepancy between the mycological and serological results might be related to immune cross-reactions with Aspergillus, but are more likely to indicate that the frequency of colonization of patients with CF by S. apiospermumi is largely underestimated.

Host defense mechanisms

Macrophages are capable of phagocytosing conidia, while human mononuclear leukocytes and polymorphonuclear leukocytes (PMNs) damage hyphae in a concentration-dependent manner [100]. These effects can be enhanced by treating PMNs with interferon gamma and granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor [101], or in combination with amphotericin B lipid complex or the triazoles itraconazole, voriconazole or posaconazole [102,103]. While human interleukin-15, which acts on key cells of the innate immune system, enhances PMN-induced hyphal damage of *S. prolificans* and *Fusarium* species, it remarkably is not active against hyphae of *S. apiospermum* [104].

In vitro antifungal susceptibility

Numerous studies have proven that antifungal drugs such as amphotericin B (AMB), nystatin (NYS), liposomal nystatin (L-NYS), itraconazole (ITC), flucytosine (5FC), fluconazole (FLC), terbinafine (TBF) and ketoconazole (KTC) show low in vitro activity against S. apiospermum [105-116]. However, in some studies, ITC has shown some activity [117–119]. Some new triazoles are promising: voriconazole (VRC) has shown MICs 90 of 0.25 µg/ml [105] and 0.5 µg/ml [112] and ravuconazole of 0.125 µg/ml [105]. Posaconazole (PSC) has shown variable activity [105,112,120]. The in vitro activity of echinocandins against S. apiospermum has generally been considered to be modest. The geometric mean MIC of caspofungin (CAS) for 6 isolates of S. apiospermum was of 1.3 µg/ml [108], the median MIC of anidulafungin for 5 strains was of 4 µg/ ml [114] and the geometric mean MICs against 19 strains was 39.7 µg/ml (data not shown). However, it is important to exercise caution in interpreting in vitro susceptibility results [120], because clinical improvement of S. apiospermum infections with AMB treatment has been reported despite apparent in vitro resistance to this drug [122].

Considering the poor activity obtained with single agents, some attempts have been made to determine whether the activity of some drugs improves when combined with others. Walsh *et al.* [119] determined the *in vitro* antifungal activity of AMB alone and in combination with various azoles. They found that some strains were susceptible to AMB and that the combinations tested displayed additive or synergistic interactions against an important number of isolates, and no antagonism. The combination AMB/FLC displayed the greatest synergy; mean fractional inhibitory concentration index (FICI) = 0.61 [119]. Accord-

ing to those authors simultaneous exposure of the fungus to both antifungals resulted in increased permeability to the azole with increased inhibition of fungal ergosterol synthesis and thus greater antifungal activity. However, these results must be interpreted with caution because recently the criteria for evaluating interactions have changed and FICI values over 0.5 are now considered to be indicative of no synergy [123]. Li and Rinaldi [124] demonstrated that the combination of the nucleoside-peptide antibiotic nikkomycin Z, which is a chitin synthase inhibitor, with ITC resulted in moderate in vitro growth inhibition of Scedosporium spp. The combination AMB/micafungin (MFG) shows in vitro synergistic effect against S. apiospermum [125]. The mechanism of this synergy is unclear. The echinocandin MFG exerts antifungal activity via inhibition of (1,3)- β -D-glucan synthase, interfering with fungal cell wall synthesis and probably causes some structural alteration at the cell wall level which facilitates the action of AMB on the cell membrane at lower concentration.

Animal models of infection

In a limited number of older studies using murine models, virulence appeared to be low after intraperitoneal inoculation. Although the fungus was reisolated within several weeks after inoculation, no evidence of lesion was found [32,126,127]. Inoculating the fungus with gastric mucin, Ajello [32] was nevertheless able to obtain consistent mortalities. Other authors used similar protocols but could not reproduce these results [128,129]. This is probably explained by the use of strains with different degrees of virulence, as virulence of *S. apiospermum* is strain dependent [37,130]. Bell [37] indicated that human isolates of *S. apiospermum* are considerably more virulent than soil or feedlot manure strains.

The route of inoculation and the immune status of the animals play important roles in invasive abilities. Several authors were unsuccessful to produce lesions in guinea pigs via eyes, lungs, footpads, and peritoneum [126,127,130]. Subcutaneous inoculation [132] resulted only in small, localized abscesses. Recently, a model of disseminated infection was proposed using neutropenic guinea pigs [133]. The mortality rate correlated with inoculum density; some strain-dependent differences were observed. The two highest inocula (2×10^6 , 7×10^5) produced 100% mortality with mean survival times of c. 3-4 days. With the lowest inoculum (3×10^5) mortality was 50% for one strain and 100% for the other, and the mean survival times were 12.5 and 5.25 days, respectively. Kidneys and brain were extensively

infected by both strains. Intraperitoneal (i.p.) and intranasal (i.n.) inoculation have proven to cause less morbidity than intracerebral (i.c.) or intravenous (i.v.) inoculation [130], the i.v. route being the most effective [130-134]. In immunocompetent animals, Schmitt et al. [126] proved that doses of 1.4×10^4 CFU were unable to kill mice when they were administered i.p. Lupan and Cazin [130], testing doses of 10^7 , obtained mortality rates of up to 30%. Killing rates of inocula of 10° in immunocompetent mice ranged between 25% in 30 days [135] and 62.5% in 25 days [136]. The use of immunosuppressive drugs renders the animals highly susceptible to infection. Inocula of 10^4 and 10^5 CFU caused the death of all immunosuppressed mice within 6 [136] to 10 days [137], respectively. In general, mortality correlates with the dose of the inoculum and with the degree of immunosuppression [136]. Gonzalez et al. [136] made mice neutropenic with one injection of cyclophosphamide at 200 mg/kg reaching the most severe neutropenia on day 4. Other authors used the same drug at the same dosage but added 150 mg/kg of 5 fluorouracil one day before the infection [137]. With this dosage mice were maintained severely neutropenic from day 4 to day 7 after infection [138]. These models of disseminated infection in immunosuppressed mice have proven to be reproducible and are very useful for testing new therapeutic regimens and/or studying pathogenesis and immune response in Scedosporium infection. The i.c. route is more suitable for studying cerebral Scedosporium infection in immunocompromised humans [134].

Infected mice show considerable hyperirritability during early stages of infection. Torticollis is one of the most common symptoms. This is thought to be due to damage to the 11th cranial or spinal accessory nerve because conidia get lodged in the choroids [64]. The animals eventually become lethargic and die. Infected animals undergo marked weight loss due to dehydration and decreased food intake. The time of onset of neurological symptoms appears to be related to inoculum size [130] and at autopsy hyphae, conidia and conidiophores were found in most internal organs [64].

Few animal studies have been conducted to evaluate the effectiveness of drugs. AMB [134] and ITC appeared to be ineffective in murine models, while PSC was slightly more effective than FLC in survival and fungal burden reduction [139]. The efficacy of VRC was demonstrated in both murine and guinea pig models [133,137].

Clinical appearance

History of the disease

Pseudallescheria boydii was discovered in 1889 as an agent of human otitis [140]. Saccardo [141] described the Scedosporium anamorph from a case of human mycetoma. Since then the reported clinical spectrum of the fungus has changed over time, from prevalently chronic subcutaneous in otherwise healthy patients between 1911 and 1970, to more often systemic opportunistic after 1980 (Fig. 6). Fisher et al. [40] were the first to describe the near-drowning syndrome by S. apiospermum, while the species' neurotropism was stressed by Berenguer et al. [72]. Although Creitz and Harris [142] already noted the occurrence of S. apiospermum as a colonizer of the lungs of patients with pulmonary disorders, its consistent occurrence in the lungs of patients with cystic fibrosis has only recently received proper attention [99]. Guého and de Hoog [30] were the first to observe that infraspecific entities within S. apiospermum differed slightly in clinical predilection.

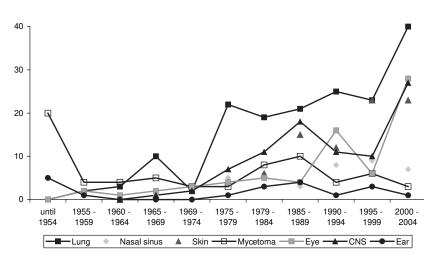


Fig. 6 Number of case reports of *Scedosporium apiospermum* infections in 5-year intervals listed according to body site. Y-axis = number of case reports.

Disease nomenclature

On the basis of previous synonyms of the fungus, systemic disease entities were referred to as allescheriasis [35], graphiosis [143], monosporiosis [144], petriellidiosis [145], pseudallescherioma [146], pseudoallescheriosis [147], pseudallescheriasis [64] or scedosporiosis [148]. Naming of disease entities after the fungus has three serious drawbacks. First, the nomenclature of the fungus has changed several times in the course of history, due to taxonomic developments. Given the fact that S. apiospermum is genetically heterogeneous [28,30] a further subdivision of the species is expected in the future, which might lead to changes in clinical nomenclature. Second, S. apiospermum is polymorphic, synanamorphs being differentially expressed and indicated with separate anamorph names, leading to different clinical names for the same entity. Finally, the species is a typical opportunist, thus the clinical appearance is largely dependent on the portal of entry and the patient's immune status, and thus very different clinical entities would be referred to with a single disease name. Therefore, it is strongly recommended to apply a general, strictly clinical disease name, with indication of the respective etiologic agent, as recommended by Odds et al. [149]. In general mycology the teleomorph name is applied, as this is a microbiological umbrella term for the entire organism. However, given the genetic heterogeneity of P. boydii, there is no absolute proof that this teleomorph belongs to every asexual strain (anamorph). Use of the invariably present Scedosporium name is therefore optimal, for example: endophthalmitis due to Scedosporium apiospermum.

Characteristics of disease

A major problem of recognition of *S. apiospermum* infections is the fact the fungus is a typical opportunist. Therefore, none of the clinical entities is fully characteristic for the species. Three basic clinical syndromes can be distinguished: (A) localized disease after trauma, (B) largely asymptomatic or symptomatic colonization of cavities, and (C) systemic invasive disease. Traumatic infections (A) are found in otherwise healthy persons. Pulmonary cases (B) are observed in patients with predisposing pulmonary disorders. Systemic disease (C) occurs if the immune status of the patient is severely impaired or in victims of near-drowning. The fungus then shows marked neurotropic behavior. Secondary cutaneous manifestations are infrequent with severe dissemination.

(A) Localized disease after trauma

(i) Mycetoma. This is one of the classical entities of *S. apiospermum*. Mycetoma is a chronic, suppurative infection of subcutaneous tissue and contiguous bone in otherwise healthy patients after traumatic inoculation of fungal elements (Fig. 7). Most cases start out as a small, hard, painless nodule which over time begins to soften at the surface and ulcerates to discharge a viscous, purulent fluid containing grains. A subsequent phase of proliferation may involve muscles and intramuscular layers [150] The infection slowly spreads to adjacent tissue, including bone, often causing consider-able morbidity. Sinuses continue to discharge serosan-guinous fluid containing the granules which are very large, lobed, and white on sectioning [64].

The first extensive report of a S. apiospermum mycetoma was that of Shear [14]; numerous cases have been described since then. Mainly the lower limbs are involved, the feet accounting for at least two-thirds of the cases. Other sites include the lower legs, hands, head, neck, chest, shoulder and arms. The clinical features are fairly uniform, regardless of the organism involved. Yücel et al. [151] reported a rapidly developing mycetoma of the hand due to S. apiospermum in a previously healthy male patient who had a long history of alcoholism and cigarette smoking. The patient was a cartwright living with poor hygiene on straw near his horses. On his admission after a 7-month history, his hand had severely swollen, with involvement of muscles and bones (Fig. 8). In patients treated with immunosuppressive agents, subcutaneous inoculations do not lead to grain formation, but the fungus produces scattered hyphae [152].



Fig. 7 Mycetoma of the foot by *Scedosporium apiospermum* during surgery.

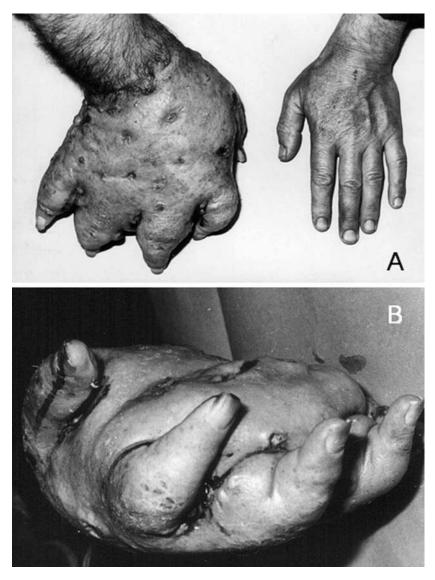


Fig. 8 Mycetoma of the hand caused by *Scedosporium apiospermum* showing multiple foci of suppuration and nodulation with sinus tract formation. (A) Superficial view. (B) Frontal view (courtesy of A. Yücel, Cerrahpasa Medical Faculty, Istanbul, Turkey).

Infections are found world wide, *S. apiospermum* being the most prevalent agent of mycetoma in temperate, moist climate zones [153]. In Europe and the USA it is therefore the only type of eumycetoma which can be acquired locally, all eumycetomata by remaining agents being import mycoses. In arid climates such as India [154] and North Africa [155] the species seems to be rare. Cultures from cases of mycetoma prevalently show an abundance of the *Scedosporium* anamorph and rarely exhibit *Graphium* or ascomata [30]; occasionally they are degenerate, with detaching hyphal elements [19].

Deep localized erosive infections are sometimes incorrectly referred to as mycetoma, e.g., scalp mycetoma [156]. Such infections do not drain and/or there is no grain formation, but hyphae are present in abscesses

© 2006 ISHAM, Medical Mycology, 44, 295-327

[75]. Cavitation and grains may be present in cases of pulmonary mycetoma; see below under pulmonary fungus ball.

(ii) Arthritis. With known traumatic inoculation, S. apiospermum frequently exhibits a predilection for joints, leading to arthritis of, e.g., knee and elbow [157–160]. Histopathologically, hyaline hyphal elements are observed rather than grains. Dirschl [162] reported a knee involvement in a six-year-old boy who had received a small puncture wound over the right patella nine months previously. Arthritis of the knee was noted two years after a compound patellar fracture contaminated with soil [163]. A concurrent bilateral knee involvement has been reported [164], and a case of arthritis by S. apiospermum in a previously healthy

female patient after an intra-articular steroid injection [157]. The disorder develops slowly over several months [159]. Local destruction of cartilaginous tissues is observed [9,165] which may lead to suppurative infections without grains [161], but more often also discharge remains absent [163]. Fever is noted only in children [166]. Infections may take a fatal course despite antifungal therapy when the patient has immunosuppression [167] or other diseases interfering with immunity [168].

In early stages, symptoms are present but the fungus may not readily be observed nor cultured [166]. Haapasaari *et al.* [169] cultured *S. apiospermum* from synovial fluid but not from aspirate. Occasionally fungal structures were reported to be absent; this may be due to the fact that most such diagnoses were by fine needle aspiration of synovial fluid which is followed by repeatedly positive culture [158].

(iii) Osteomyelitis. Subcutaneous infection may lead to severe local bone destruction [9,164,165,170,171]. Most cases arise after deep puncture wounds, particularly in the lower extremities [172]. Symptoms can be severe and may reactivate months [156] or even years [170]] after probable inoculation. Also hematogenous osteomyelitis is known. Vertebral osteomyelitis [173] may occur in patients with impaired innate immunity [174], drug abusers [175] as well as in immunocompetent individuals [171]. Severity may be promoted by immunosuppression [176]; also the risk of further dissemination increases [164]. Cultures are commonly negative [177].

(iv) Eye infection and endophthalmitis. This clinical picture [178] is observed with painful corneal ulceration and hypopyon (Fig. 9) [179] after introduction of a foreign body [144] or without overt injury [180,181]. Infection may be noted years after eye surgery [182]. Traumatic cases are more frequent in developing countries [183]. Non-traumatic cases may indicate severe septicaemia [184]. Ocular symptoms include pain, decreased visual acuity, lacrymation, redness and photophobia [185]. Hyphae are abundantly present in tissue; detection is enhanced by Calcofluor white staining [183]. For treatment, repeated surgical debridement of necrotic tissue may be necessary [186,187]. Numerous cases only could be cured by enucleation or evisceration of the infected eye. Köhler [188] described a lacrymal duct infection.

(v) Onychomycosis. Scedosporium may occasionally be isolated from cases of onychomycosis, but its pathogenic role has insufficiently been established [189]. In

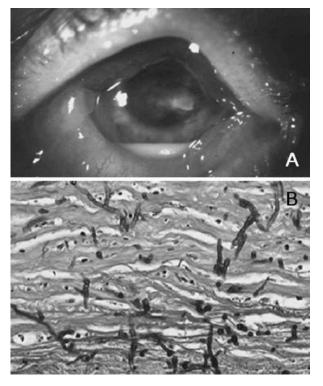


Fig. 9 Keratitis by *Scedosporium apiospermum*. (A) Left eye of the patient with an infiltrate in the central part of the cornea and a hypopyon in the anterior chamber. (B) Cornea section showing numerous fungal elements, PAS stain, $\times 400$. Reprinted from reference 326 with the permission of the publisher.

an extensive review of non-dermatophyte skin and nail infections [190], *S. apiospermum* was not listed.

(vi) Lymphocutaneous infection. Cutaneous infections are infrequent and mostly are associated with immunodepression [55,191], e.g., in solid transplant recipients [192]. An interdigital case was reported by Karaarslan et al. [193]. Cases of asymptomatic soft tissue abscess without sinus drainage were reported in immunosuppressed [194] and also in previously healthy subjects [195,196]. Most cutaneous infections disseminate locally by lymphatic spread [197–199], leading to lesions similar to those due to Sporothrix schenckii, but easily distinguished from this clinical entity by histopathology. Skin lymphadenitis has also been reported in an immunocompetent patient [200]. Manifestations include draining ulcerations [201], erythema and folliculitis-like eruptions, with or without subcutaneous nodules [96].

(B) Asymptomatic or symptomatic colonization of cavities

(i) Sinusitis. Gluckman et al. [202] demonstrated that the sinuses and nasal septum may be a portal of entry

for infection. Chronic, extramucosal as well as invasive sinusitis is occasionally observed in patients with or without other underlying disorders [203-205]. The invasive form is mostly limited to patients with hematologic malignancy, neutropenia, or receiving broad-spectrum antibiotics [206]. A paranasal sinus mycetoma was described in a 92-year-old patient [207]. In otherwise healthy patients the bony margin of the sinus is invaded or extension into contiguous brain is noted, causing a purulent abscess in the frontal lobe [74,208,209]. The process may evolve for weeks without fever and with little pain. Mostly the maxillary sinus is involved [204,210] (Fig. 10). Predominant clinical findings are slight swelling of the face over the infected sinus, followed by nasal hypesthesia, pallor, and bleeding. The disorder is more common in arid climates [211]. Presence of fungus balls may lead to bone erosion due to pressure necrosis [212]. Cases are mostly treated by surgical removal of the fungal mass and diseased mucosa, with adjuvant antifungal therapy in case of deep invasion. Radiographs are not relevant to diagnose infections of the nasal sinuses, but MRI and CT can be useful.

(ii) Otitis. Already in the 19th century S. apiospermum was observed to be involved in cases of otitis [140], but this disorder is infrequent [213]. A case was reported in an immunocompetent child [214]. Chronic infection of the external auditory meatus is characterized by scaling, pruritus and inflammation [215]. Chronic colonization by S. apiospermum is accompanied by recurrent earache and enlargement of tonsils. This leads to perforation of ear drums, with production of greenish



Fig. 10 A computed tomographic scan of a case of sinusitis by *Scedosporium apiospermum*. Notice the partial opacification of the left maxillary sinus. Reprinted from reference 222 with permission of the publisher.

purulent discharge and ear draining [216]. Slack *et al.* [217] reported mastoiditis secondary to ear infection. Yao and Messner [218] reviewed malignant otitis by *S. apiospermum*.

(iii) Pulmonary fungus ball. This disorder has been described in detail by several authors [210,219,220]. Susceptible patients are those with a chronic pulmonary infiltrate from a previously or underlying disorder, such as sarcoidosis or tuberculosis [97,221-223], but the fungus may also be the primary cause of disease [220] and occur in otherwise healthy patients [224–226]. Przyjemski [227] suggested that fungus balls begin as 'tissue balls' infiltrated by fungus. Colonization typically leads to a mass consisting of loose hyphal strands or a conglomeration of intertwined fungal hyphae admixed with mucus and cellular debris within a preexistent pulmonary cavity or ectatic bronchus (Fig. 11). The ball is the extreme consequence of colonization, where the mass of fungus has become large enough to be visible radiologically [8,90,97,146,170,216,219-221,225-231]. On radiography the fungus ball is characterized by the presence of a solid, round or oval mass with soft tissue opacity within a lung cavity. Explanted fungus balls usually fail to grow on laboratory media [90,219,221,232-234].

Mixed infections can be present. In a case reported by Rosen *et al.* [232], *S. apiospermum* was repeatedly isolated from sputum and intracavitary exudates of a human with cavitary bronchiectasis and *A. fumigatus* was found at autopsy. In a further case [97] the diagnosis was made by precipitin test, which reacted strongly with *S. apiospermum* and weakly with *Aspergillus versicolor*. Neither of the two fungi was cultured from sputum. However, both were isolated from cavity contents obtained by thoracotomy.

Presence of fungus balls stimulates chronic inflammation and elicits a marked vascular granulation tissue response. *S. apiospermum* fungus balls often associated with thickening of the cavity wall and adjacent pleura [233]. Fungal balls may be compact and spherical or become irregular. Concentric rings of hyphae, which represent waves of growth as the fungus ball enlarges, can be seen to radiate from a central area. In addition, conidia are frequently present at the surface where the mass is in contact with an air space [216]. Similar conidiation in air is commonly found in *Aspergillus* fungomas. The air meniscus may be absent on chest radiographs [81,220].

(iv) Allergic bronchopulmonary Scedosporium pneumonia *(ABSP)*. Although most allergic bronchopulmonary mycoses have been attributed to *Aspergillus* species or

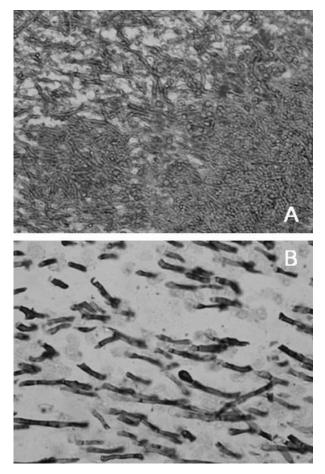


Fig. 11 Histopathological section of a pulmonar fungus ball by *Scedosporium apiospermum*. (A) Numerous hyphae and conidia, PAS stain, $\times 400$. (B) Hyphae, and a conidium emerging from a conidiogenous cell, GSM stain, $\times 400$.

dematiaceous fungi, this syndrome can also be caused by S. apiospermum [99,146,235]. Colonization may trigger an inflammatory response leading to allergic bronchopulmonary disorder [99]. The disorder is characterized by the presence of obvious plugs in sputum containing S. apiospermum cells. Clinical features are asthma, perpherial blood eosinophilia, infiltrates on chest radiography, raised IgE levels, precipitating antibodies and immediate cutaneous reactivity to the etiologic agent [236]. Precipitating antibodies to P. boydii were reported in several cases in which the fungus proliferated in the airway lumen [97,99,216,219,237-239]. However, after resection [219,238] or antifungal treatment [239] antibodies were not found. In general no reaction was detected with extracts of other fungi including A. fumigatus. Eosinophilia was noted in only one patient [238]. Of the three patients reported by Reddy et al. [230], one was

skin tested with an extract of *S. apiospermum*, but gave no response. Rippon and Carmichael [216] reported a case of transient endobronchial colonization. Several sputum specimens were positive for *S. apiospermum*. Radiology showed diffuse interstitial infiltrates and precipitins against *S. apiospermum*.

(v) Pulmonary colonization in cystic fibrosis. Cystic fibrosis (CF) is a chronic, progressive, and frequently fatal genetic disease of the mucus glands that affects many organs including the lungs, plugging them with mucus that severely interferes with breathing. If the mucus is not cleared, it may trap bacteria and fungi, leading to transient or chronic colonization. Colonization of the respiratory tract is usually asymptomatic in patients with CF [35,243]. Dehydration of respiratory secretions contributes to defective mucociliary clearance and provides a suitable environment for growth of selected organisms [244]. S. apiospermum is among the regular agents [99,245]. Cimon et al. [99] recovered S. apiospermum from sputum samples in 8.6% of CF patients, ranking as the second most frequent filamentous fungus identified after Aspergillus fumigatus. Airways of CF patients are commonly colonized with fungi; the fungal flora increases with age. Pulmonary insufficiency is particularly caused by inflammation [244].

The regular occurrence of Scedosporium apiospermum in the lungs of patients with CF is remarkable, given its infrequent isolation from air. For example, Scedosporium was found in less than 1% of indoor sites analyzed in Belgium, ranking 49th among the 52 genera identified [240]. Nevertheless an appreciable percentage of CF patients are colonized by two or even three genotypes of S. apiospermum [99]. Such discrepancy is intriguing and raises questions about how patients are contaminated and about mechanisms that select this fungus from the high biodiversity of environmental molds. It is possible that the organism may be more common in the indoor environment, but methods used to isolate it are inadequate, or perhaps it is concealed by fast growing organisms upon culture. There seem to be large regional differences. Scedosporium apiospermum seems to be nearly absent from CF patients in Spain [241], where S. prolificans is prevalent. Potted plants may consitute a reservoir of the fungus (B. Cimon, unpublished data).

It has been supposed that the sticky conidia of *S. apiospermum* may hitchhike with dry, easily aerosolized *Aspergillus* conidia and be dispersed aerogenously. The presence of the fungus is often noted after the concurrent presence of *Aspergillus* in the bronchial

secretions of CF patients. Mixed allergic bronchopulmonary disease due to *S. apiospermum* and *Aspergillus* was described by Lake *et al.* [242] in an asthmatic female, and two further cases by Miller *et al.* [235]. *Scedosporium* frequently occurs after transient or cured *Aspergillus* infections. For example, Cimon *et al.* [1] analyzed sputum samples of a large series of adult and pediatric patients and revealed the presence of *S. apiospermum* in seven individuals (3.3%), six of these previously having bronchial secretions positive for *A. fumigatus.*

Defontaine *et al.* [60] typed sequential and multiple isolates from nine different CF patients, eight with bronchial colonization or transient infections, and one with bronchopulmonary infection defined by clinical or radiological signs associated with culture-positive sputum. No common genotype was found among the patients. Their results did not reveal any clustering according to geographic origins of isolates, and clonality of the S. apiospermum isolates was demonstrated. Patients were colonized by one to three genotypes. The latter group usually exhibited a predominant genotype accompanied by one or two others that were genetically close to the predominant genotype. Infection of susceptible patient populations is remarkably efficient, judging from the persistence of the same colonizing genotype over a long period, despite antifungal treatment.

Cimon et al. [99] reported two cases of ABSP in a longitudinal monitoring of CF patients, both chronically being colonized by S. apiospermum and one with previous allergic bronchopulmonary aspergillosis (ABPA) treated with a combination of corticosteroids and itraconazole. In most cases analyzed, however, colonization with S. apiospermum was not associated with allergic disease. Fungal colonization of CF lungs evolves particularly during adolescence. Airways of young children are very rarely colonized by fungi and if so, only after previous infections by Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Staphylococcus aureus. Children younger than 6 years had no antibodies against S. apiospermum. In a prospective investigation of the incidence of airway colonization in 128 patients with CF over a 5-year period [99] S. apiospermum was first encountered during adolescence at a mean age of 14.5 years.

Presence of *S. apiospermum* in CF lungs is counterindicative for lung transplantation, which is a therapeutic option for severe cases. Castiglioni *et al.* [8] reported a fatal pulmonary *S. apiospermum* pleuritis in a lung transplant recipient. Lung and pleural fluid cultures grew *S. apiospermum*, while sputum samples grew *A. fumigatus. S. apiospermum* was again detected

© 2006 ISHAM, Medical Mycology, 44, 295-327

at autopsy. Lung transplant recipients may develop pulmonary *Scedosporium* infection 9–58 months after surgery [246]. The majority of patients had previously been treated with itraconazole (ITC) because *Aspergillus* had been detected in BAL.

(C) Systemic invasive disease

(i) Scedosporium pneumonia. 'Pulmonary mycetoma' [225,247] is characterized by the frequent occurrence of numerous intercommunicating cavities, fibrosis, and granules. The latter consist of closely intertwined hyphal masses and occasional swollen cyst-like chlamydospores [35,90,142,237,239,248]. There is no evidence of cementing substance between the hyphae or the grains, as is frequently observed in subcutaneous mycetoma [216,249]. Patients are mostly symptomatic with impaired respiratory function [248]. Hemoptysis is frequently observed. Other symptoms include cough, purulent expectoration, weight loss, respiratory insufficiency, fatigue, and dyspnea.

Nearly all cases had pre-existing pulmonary disorders, such as tuberculosis, sarcoidosis, lung transplant, rheuma, chronic bronchitis, bacterial pneumonia or cystic fibrosis. Frequently a history of corticosteroid treatment is noted. For example, Horré *et al.* [249] reported a fatal pneumonia in a patient who had a long history of corticosteroid therapy. Rippon and Carmichael [216] described a case in which the patient's bronchial lesions disappeared when steroid therapy was discontinued. Despite having a normal neutrophil count, affected patients have functional neutrophil because the function of the neutrophils is inhibited by high-dose steroids. These data suggest that discontinuation of steroids and immunomodulation of neutrophil functions are among the major treatment options.

S. apiospermum pneumonia may occur in otherwise healthy hosts. Tekavec [250] reported a case of a cleaning worker in a thermal bath, the bottom sediment of which was found to be positive for the fungus. Seale [251] noted occupational exposure to dust as a possible source of pneumonia, while also cigarette smoking has been suggested [252,253]. One patient with *Scedosporium* pneumonia was immunocompetent with a perforated chest wound [254]. Sometimes no predisposing condition or underlying disease is found [255–257]. *S. apiospermum* may cause empyema in the immunologically intact host [252].

(ii) Endocarditis. This is a rare complication after cardiac surgery [258], sometimes years after intervention [258]. Armin *et al.* [259] described a case in an intravenous drug abuser. Occasionally mixed infections are concerned [260]. Fatal *S. apiospermum* contamination of a porcine valve replacement was reported by Roberts *et al.* [261]. With profuse fungal growth at the tricuspid valve orifice, the species can be isolated consistently from blood of the patient [258]. Infected heart valves were thickened with friable lobulated masses of vegetation [262].

(iii) Disseminated infection. The first case of disseminated S. apiospermum infection was reported by Zafiro [263] in which multiple abscesses developed in the skin, muscles, joints and bones. Since the fifties of the previous century, numerous cases have been reported. Deep invasive infection is nearly exclusively observed in patients with severe disorders in innate immunity, such as acute lymphocytic or myelogenous leukemia, solid cancer, chronic granulomatous disease, glioblastoma multiforme, systemic lupus erythematosus, or having received bone-marrow or solid organ transplants [264]. Patients frequently had received immunosuppressive therapy. Infections then may evolve rapidly. Bower et al. [265] reported the case of an 81-year-old male patient with subcutaneous nodules on his forearm who had been taking prednisolone for many years. The patient had a clear history of trauma two weeks before the onset of skin changes, which were probably the source of the fungal infection. Disseminated cases frequently lead to CNS involvement [8,155,266-270]. Two such cases with CNS were in previously healthy patients [268,271].

The route of dissemination is hitherto unclear, since blood cultures of *S. apiospermum* generally remain negative, with some exceptions [270], which possibly are linked to late stages of disease with massive fungal expansion. This is remarkable, since *S. apiospermum* is one of the very few fungi known to produce conidia in tissue [32,35,37,97,303] and thus is thought to be disseminated easily in bodily fluids. Culture is possible also from urine in case of genitourinary infection [272], but also after dissemination from a localized infection [273]. The species is microaerophilic, having an assimilative thallus in the absence of oxygen [39].

Campagnaro [274] described a disseminated *S. apiospermum* infection in a renal transplant patient whose symptoms were suggestive of reactivation of a latent infection. The authors concluded that the fungus might have spread hematogenously during the increased immunosuppression required by the episode of acute rejection, previously reported by Lopez *et al.* [275].

In severely debilitated patients dissemination to the brain from a local disease process can be observed [273]. Genetic identity of the strains colonizing the lungs and causing a non-traumatic keratitis after double lung transplantation in a patient with CF has been proven by RAPD (Symoens *et al.*, manuscript in preparation). Deep extrapulmonary infections nearly always show multi-organ involvement, despite neurotropy of *S. apiospermum*. This is in contrast to the neurotropic black yeast-like fungus *Cladophialophora bantiana*, which also reaches the brain via a hitherto uncovered route of dispersal [276].

(iv) AIDS-related Scedosporium infection. Scedosporium infection is nearly absent from AIDS patients, the rare cases reported being co-infections with e.g., *Candida* and *Aspergillus* [277] or with concurrent corticosteroid application. CD4 T-cell counts are then less than 100/µl [278].

(v) CNS infection. The first report of a S. apiospermum CNS infection was that by Benham et al. [132]. Berenguer et al. [72] reported the clinical manifestations and underlying disease or predisposing conditions of a total of 21 cases. Further overviews have been presented by Wilichowski et al. [279] and Nesky et al. [10]. The portal of entry of S. apiospermum is supposed to be the lung. Several cases of CNS infection in immunocompetent individuals have been reported Meningitis occurred in an [75,268,273,280,281]. immunocompetent individual [282]. Although S. apiospermum has a high affinity for blood vessels [68,283], and hemorrhagic features have been reported in some CNS cases [68,268,284], cerebral aneurysms occur only rarely [76,285,286]. Further predisposing factors are of traumatic nature [75,273,280,281]. Meningitis occurred in immunocompetent hosts after excision of the pilonidal sinus cyst of the sacrum [86] and after spinal anesthesia [132,287].

Brain abscesses may be solitary masses or multiple lesions located in the cerebrum and/or cerebellum. Diffuse cerebritis, cranial infection, and intraventricular device-related ventriculitis have occasionally been reported. Schwartz *et al.* [288] reported the only case to date of a cerebral fungus ball caused by *S. apiospermum*. In most of the CNS-associated cases in immunocompromised hosts, mainly vascular organs, brain and thyroid are involved [160,235,270,289–292]. This may have been promoted by the extremely vascular nature of these organs in association with the angiotropism of the fungus [68,283].

The predominant neurological symptoms are headache, facial paresis, neck stiffness, dizziness, nausea, seizures, altered mental status, vomiting, back pain, skin rash, photophobia, weakness in the arms and legs, infarcts and hydrocephalus. Most cases are fatal if untreated. In about half of the patients with systemic infections no site of S. apiospermum infection other than the CNS was found. Brain abscess is the predominant manifestation in otherwise healthy hosts, while widespread involvement of other organs has been described in immunosuppressed patients [78,274]. CNS invasion by S. apiospermum may follow extension from a source near the brain (e.g., paranasal sinuses, eye, ear), direct inoculation (e.g., with trauma or surgery), via an intravenous catheter [84], or probable hematogenous spread from the lung in cases of massive aspiration, e.g., after near-drowning in polluted water. Fessler et al. [83] reported a unique superior sagittal sinus infection in a patient who had neither evidence of sinusitis on physical and radiological examination, nor history of trauma. It was demonstrated that the infection originated within the vascular structures and extended into the CNS.

CSF specimens from cases of CNS infection had extremely high white blood cell counts and high percentages of polymorphonuclear leukocytes (PMNs). Large numbers of PMNs should be regarded with concern and are of diagnostic significance. A number of patients had a predominance of neutrophils [40,69,79,80,88,132,292], mostly with counts exceeding 10⁷. In addition, CSF pleocytosis with an increase in lymphocytes (>1000 cells/mm³) was noted in some cases [80,264].

(vi) Near-drowning. All of about 20 cases reported to date were diagnosed in young, otherwise healthy individuals who had a history of aspiration of sewage, or polluted, stagnant, or muddy water [280]. In almost all cases dissemination of S. apiospermum took place, with a marked predilection for the CNS in 18 of 20 cases. Although it is considered that infection should initiate in the lung before extending to the brain, exclusively pulmonary involvement without cerebral lesions are rare [293,294]. The hypothesis is allowed that S. apiospermum may also enter the CNS directly from the pharynx, through the sinuses close to the brain and ethmoid bone during submersion in contaminated water. The comparably short incubation period of a S. apiospermum CNS infection after aspiration supports this hypothesis.

Messori *et al.* [285] reported a case of *S. apiospermum* infection in a near-drowned child with brain abscesses who died after a subarachnoid hemorrhage caused by mycotic aneurysm of the basilar and posterior cerebral arteries. Rüchel *et al.* [87] reported a case of a nearly-drowned child whose clinical condition began to deteriorate one week after the accident. On day 21 a CT scan of the brain revealed hypodense foci suggestive

© 2006 ISHAM, Medical Mycology, 44, 295-327

of cerebral abscess. Another fatal case of primary neurological *S. apiospermum* infection [295] manifested with meningismus 15 days after near-drowning. Also victims of the Asian tsunami have been reported [296]. The incubation period for *S. apiospermum* CNS infection after aspiration of a sufficient inoculum is thus estimated to be about one to four weeks. The infection often becomes symptomatic with delay, when remaining disorders resulting from the accident have been cured. This is in contrast to comparable bacterial infections, where pulmonary symptoms are notable within 1–3 days. *S. apiospermum* is the prevalent fungus associated with near-drowning, and is exceptional among microorganisms in being neurotropic [297].

Animal cases

Many strains of *S. apiospermum* are thermotolerant, having a maximum growth temperature between 36 and 42° C, and the species is eutrophic [39]. It may be surmised that the natural niche involves warm-blooded animals. Indeed the species has been reported to occur asymptomatically in the lungs of rodents [298] and in the lower digestive tract of feral pigeons [299]. Also the lungs of cold-blooded animals proved to be infected [300]. Nevertheless the infections reported from wild animals are too rare to allow any conclusion on the habitat of *S. apiospermum*.

Most reported animal infections are of traumatic origin, such as keratitis in a horse [301] and a dog [302], as well as cases of mycetoma in dogs [302-304] and in horses [302,305,306]. Such cases can be severe and extending to deeper organs and bones in both host families [307]. In addition, there are occasional reports of sinus infection in dogs [308,309] and horses [310]. Invasive pulmonary infection is rare [311]. Remarkably there are recurrent reports of infections of the reproductive tract leading to abortion in horses [312,313], pigs [314] and cows [315]. This suggests a higher pathogenic potential of S. apiospermum than that of most other opportunists. It is able to cause systemic, disseminated infections in case of impairment of the general condition of the animal [316–318]. The marked predilection for the central nervous system as noted in humans is uncommon. One of the few reports with brain involvement is that of Haulena et al. [319] in an elephant seal.

Nearly all reports from animals are subcutaneous or systemic. The report of Kuwano *et al.* [320] is exceptional in describing onychomycosis in several horses.

Treatment regimens and outcome

Invasive *S. apiospermum* infections are difficult to manage because of their intrinsic resistance to many antifungal agents. The initial approach to treating deeply invasive infections was to administer high-dose AMB. However, the overall response rates in immuno-compromised hosts were dismal. AMB did not prove to be effective in animal studies either [133].

Localized infections

In localized infections, whenever possible, surgical resection of infected tissues is the preferred treatment. MCZ has been used successfully in many cases even in some patients whose immune systems were impaired [250]. However, this drug is not commercially available for systemic use, and considering its high toxicity and the high rates of infection recurrence [161] it is not currently recommended.

(i) Arthritis and osteomyelitis. Optimal treatment for localized infections is as yet unknown because numerous approaches have been tested with very variable results. In the 39 reported cases of osteoarticular infections, one of the most common manifestations of Scedosporium-related disease, 17 different therapeutic regimens have been applied. Surgery alone [165,321] or combined with one [163,165,176,255] or more antifungals [161,168] were the most common treatments; although in numerous occasions the patients only received medical treatment with one drug, such as AMB [159,160], ITC [161,167,170,173], KTC [169,255], MCZ [160,176] or combinations of them [158,177]. With the exception of three cases [167,170,177] all these treatment regimens resulted in a partial or total recovery of the infection. A case of cranial osteomyelitis and subdural empyema following craniotomy was successfully treated with surgical debridement and VRC [322], while a case of tenosynovitis-arthritis was resolved with fluconazole (FLC) [323], an antifungal with very poor in vitro activity against this fungus. Most cases were partially or totally resolved using these divergent therapeutic regimens. Surgical removal of the lesions seems to be the optimal treatment for most localized infections, but when complete resection is impossible, prolonged antifungal therapy is necessary.

(ii) Sinusitis. Of 24 cases, 14 responded positively to treatment. Six of these were by surgery [204,231,321,324–326], and in two AMB was administered as monotherapy [202,209]. The remaining cases applied surgery supplemented by antifungal combination therapy of AMB plus KTC, MCZ plus ITC, or AMB plus MCZ and KTC. The cases with negative outcomes were therapeutically similar to the successful ones, so that the reasons for failure are as yet unknown.

(iii) Lymphocutaneous infection. Cases of lymphadenitis or lymphocutaneous infection mostly responded positively to antifungal treatment with ITC [195,199–201], FLC [327] and sulfa drugs [197]; MCZ treatment was unsuccessful [160].

(*iv*) Cutaneous and subcutaneous. Trauma with introduction of the fungus into the dermal or subcutaneous tissue usually results in mycetoma. For these infections, surgical debridement with accompanying antifungal therapy is recommended. Of 21 cases of cutaneous or subcutaneous infections reported in the literature, 11 patients responded positively to ITC [148,192,195,328,329], although treatment with this drug failed in two cases [152,330]. VRC was able to resolve three cases [41,264].

(v) Keratitis. In the treatment of keratitis antifungals tend to be less effective than in other types of infections, possibly because the etiologic agent was not recognized timely and aggressive treatment was delayed [332]. Penetrating keratoplasty or enucleation is a frequently applied therapeutic option [187]. The most commonly used drugs are MCZ and natamycin [333]. Wu et al. [333] calculated a success rate of 47% for MCZ. Although there is little experience in the use of other drugs, ITC has proven its effectiveness in a recent case [334]. VRC was effective in two cases [335,336] but it failed in one [332]. This failure was ascribed to poor corneal penetration of the systemic preparation [332], although the level of VRC in the aqueous humor was 53% of the level in plasma and exceeded the minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) for the isolate by sevenfold. There is no clinical experience with TBF, but it has been suggested that it can be clinically used in combination with MCZ because of the high in vitro synergy demonstrated by this combination [336].

(vi) Endocarditis. Endocarditis is one of the rare infections caused by *S. apiospermum* and usually involves heart valve prosthesis. Nine cases have been reported [258,337], and practically all the patients died before the fungus was identified and antifungal therapy could be initiated. Antifungal treatment has been mentioned in only three cases: in one MCZ was administered in combination with ITC [258], while the other applied MCZ plus AMB [338], and AMB plus ITC [337], respectively. In the three cases the infection was fatal.

(vii) Scedosporium pneumonia. In 61 cases reported in the literature, 27 different therapeutic approaches were applied, with very variable outcome and occasional relapse. Infections were fatal in 31 patients (50.8%). In an immunocompetent adolescent with preceding trauma treated with ITC, a reactivation occurred after 20 months of therapy, despite adequate serum concentrations. This patient was treated with oral TRF (500 mg/d) and after 4 months of therapy bronchoscopy showed no evidence of fungal infection [254,339]. Another relapse occurred in a patient who initially responded to KTC [255].

(viii) CNS infection. CNS infections are those with the poorest outcome: patients died in 51 out of 66 reported cases. Nineteen different therapeutic approaches were used. Surviving patients all underwent surgery and/or received systemic antifungal therapy with AMB [271], MCZ [84,222], and VRC [10,340], alone or in combination [74,280]. In most cases MCZ was inoculated into the CSF because of its poor meningeal penetration. Of meningeal cases reported, one survived with surgical treatment alone and six after receiving systemic antifungal therapy with MCZ, AMB and 5FC [341], VRC [86,342] or PSC [343,344]. Three died after changing to VRC [274,345] or PSC salvage therapy [343]. Recently, a patient with multiple intracerebral abscesses after a near-drowning episode was successfully treated with CSF drainage and antimycotic therapy which included TRF and intraventricular CAS in addition to VRC [346]. Current data suggest that surgical removal of the abscess is as important as antifungal therapy.

(ix) Pulmonary fungus ball. Of the 75 patients that suffered from pulmonary intracavitary colonization, nine cases (12%) were fatal. Eighteen patients were managed surgically, and all survived. These data suggest that surgery is the treatment of choice for a cavitary lesion containing a fungus ball. Recovery was also achieved with MCZ [146], ITC [60,243] or VRC [226,229], but also in patients that did not receive any therapy [225,347]. In one apparently successful case sputum cultures remained positive despite AMB treatment [35].

Disseminated infections

Outcome of disseminated infections tends to be very poor, irrespective of treatment regimens used. Of the 39 cases reported in the literature, only four patients responded successfully. A common factor in all the cases with a positive outcome was that immunoadjuvants were given to the patients in addition to antifungal drugs. Under these conditions it is difficult to ascertain the true role of antifungals in the resolution of the infection. For example, a patient suffering from asthma and receiving corticosteroid therapy developed a lung infection and noted the presence of multiple nodular subcutaneous lesions. VRC was administered in combination with granulocyte colony stimulating factor (G-CSF), which resulted in recovery from the infection [348]. Other cases in which antifungals (VRC and AMB plus ITC, respectively) proved to be effective were in patients with acute myelogenous leukemia (AML) receiving G-CSF [349,350]. A patient with chronic granulomatous disease (CGD) who suffered from a mixed infection by Aspergillus fumigatus and S. apiospermum and who was successfully treated with prolonged administration of AMB and MCZ combined with recombinant gamma interferon (r IFN- γ) [351]. In the cases that did not respond to treatment, the most commonly used drug was AMB. In 18 cases this drug was administered alone, once supplemented by surgery and in 12 cases it was combined with other drugs that were often changed because patients were failing to respond. Since VRC has been able to resolve different types of S. apiospermum infections it seems to be a promising drug for the treatment of Scedosporium infection. In addition, it has shown in vitro activity and efficacy in different animal models. However, recent studies evaluating the efficacy of VRC in six clinical cases showed contradictory results. In one of the studies, five patients had a successful outcome [352], while in another [353] only two patients responded positively to the therapy.

Systemic invasive infections by Scedosporium species have a very high mortality rate due to their neurotropism (Fig. 12). When untreated, CNS infections are invariably fatal. Due to the therapy-refractory nature of S. apiospermum, surgery remains necessary in case of life-threatening disease. In severe infections, restoration of immune competence is mandatory, while adjunctive therapy with IFN- γ or cellular immune-stimulating factors such as GM-CSF or G-CSF may be helpful. Most routinely applied antifungals are poorly effective or ineffective. Therapy with PSC or VRC has been recommended, although authors present variable results. Alternatively, combination therapy might be applied, such as ITC with TBF. It should be kept in mind, however, that these drugs are fungistatic rather than fungicidal, and a very high relapse rate (Fig. 12) is observed.

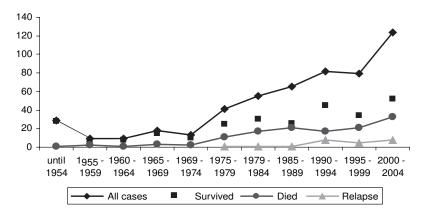


Fig. 12 Survival and relapse rates of *Scedosporium apiospermum* until today.

Epidemiology

Judging from currently available data, the species treated in this review appears to be a truly emerging environmental pathogen and to display a remarkable shift in its clinical spectrum. Our statistics are based on published cases, which number is likely to drop when a clinical syndrome has become routine. In addition, epidemiological studies of Scedosporium species have always been overshadowed by diagnostic problems. S. apiospermum in tissue is easily misidentified as Aspergillus, and even in culture the species is frequently not recognized due to its morphological plasticity. The species has been diagnosed particularly in Europe and the USA, while it seems to be nearly absent from other suitable climate zones. Within a single country, hospitals with comparable patient populations seem to encounter the fungus at very different frequencies. It is tempting to speculate that these highly diverging incidences are explained by underdiagnosis of the fungus. With this in mind, some striking observations can nevertheless be made.

From the point of view of localization (Fig. 6) it is apparent that otitis is the only disease category that has remained stable over the years, at a very low incidence. Outside this disease entity, nearly all infections reported before 1955 concerned mycetoma. Mycetoma is a subcutaneous infection in otherwise healthy hosts which elicits a strong innate immune response leading to fungal grain formation. Cutaneous infections, with hyphae present in tissue, typically are an emerging disease category that is observed in the immunocompromised patient population. Disseminated cases nearly exclusively occur in hosts with severe impairment of their immunity.

Sinusitis and CNS infection are fairly frequent today, but were unreported before 1970. Both disease categories are directly related to major disorders of innate immunity show a gradual increase in frequency. Systemic cases either tend to be pulmonary and cerebral with secondary cutaneous lesions, or are exclusively found in the brain (Fig. 13). Regarding predisposing conditions, particularly patients with bone marrow and solid organ transplant recipients are at risk [3] which is also reflected in the number of cases reported (Fig. 14). The infection frequently results after medical intervention and may therefore be a significant nosocomial disease entity. Given the sometimes very long incubation time, dissemination may also result from reactivation of previously acquired infections. In some cases, however, there was an obvious link to e.g. intraarticular injection, surgery, or use of catheters. Individuals with pre-existing defects, particularly in the lungs, are predisposed for infection. It is striking that neither AIDS, nor diabetes seem to be a risk factor for Scedosporium.

The emergence of near-drowning associated cerebral *Scedosporium* infection, known only since 1980, may be explained by the fact that these patients only rarely survived before that period. Alternatively, an increased prevalence of *S. apiospermum* in the manure-polluted

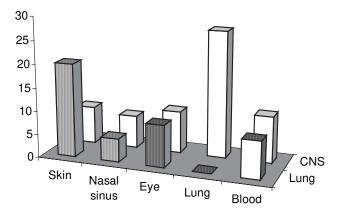
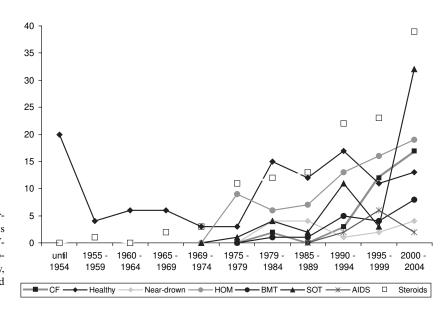
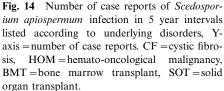


Fig. 13 Isolation of *Scedosporium apiospermum* from different body sites of single patients. Y-axis = number of case reports.





environment provides a possible explanation, given the fungus' eutrophic character [38–40]. Aspergillus CNS infections do occur but are rarely seen after near-drowning, despite the fact that *A. fumigatus* is commonly present in surface water [354]. Thus fungal infection after near-drowning is almost exclusively associated with *S. apiospermum*.

The increasing incidence of *S. apiospermum* in the lungs of CF patients in part certainly is linked to earlier problems of detection and identification, but is also explained by the fact that CF patients today survive much longer. *Scedosporium* generally only becomes apparent during adolescence. Older patients often carry more than one *S. apiospermum* genotype.

Infections were noted in patients of all ages between 2 and 92, but infections in neonates are strikingly absent (Fig. 15). The mean age was 42; no bias was noted with elderly individuals. Some patient groups were significantly younger than average, particularly BMT recipients and CF patients. Indeed these patient populations are known to be relatively young. Victims of near-drowning show three approximate peaks in relation to age. A first group concerns young children around the age of 2-3 years, a second group comprises reckless youth of 12-25, while a third, elderly group, is recognized having, e.g., cardiac arrest during swimming. All were previously in good health and frequently in the process of recovery from their accident

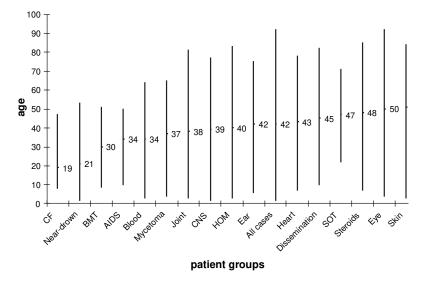


Fig. 15 Mean age and age range of *Scedosporium apiospermum* infections with respect to site of infection on underlying risk factor.

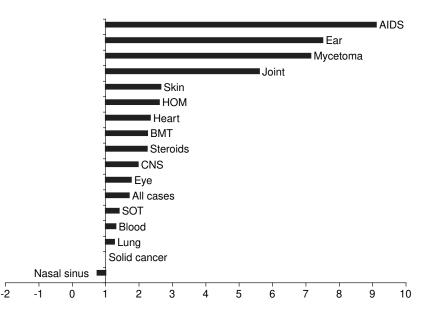


Fig. 16 Correlation between sex of patients and site or type (underlying disease) of *Scedosporium apiospermum* infection. Relative deviation from equal distribution female (left): male (right) = 1: 1, with percentage of cases on the X-axis. Abbreviations used: HOM = hemato-oncological malignancy; BMT = bone marrow transplant; SOT = solid organ transplant; CNS = central nervous system. HIV may be uncomparable due to the low number of cases.

when a cerebral *S. apiospermum* infection was noted. Given the rarity of this type of microbial infections, the syndrome can be listed as a characteristic disease entity for *S. apiospermum*.

Mycetoma has classically been associated with a higher incidence in males, alledgedly due to a higher exposure to the fungus due to outdoor labor [355]. Recently, however, the possibility of a higher degree of susceptibility of males has been put forward for *Madurella mycetomatis* [355]. Data supporting this thesis can be deduced from Fig. 16, where *S. apiospermum* is consistently more frequent in males, also when underlying disorders are non-occupational, such as immunosuppression or otitis.

Conclusions

In summary, Scedosporium infection is an emerging, potentially life-theatening disease category which is difficult to diagnose and treat. Infections have increased as a result of immunosuppressive therapy and of availability of older CF patient populations. S. apiospermum-related cerebral near-drowning syndrome is another emerging category, and the possibility exists that the frequency of such infections might augment as a result of increasing environmental pollution. Research on the development of reliable diagnostics, detection, and therapy is urgent. A Working Group with this aim has recently been founded by the European Confederation of Medical Mycology (ECMM). Its website (www.scedosporium-ecmm.com) provides an extended overview of all published cases where S. apiospermum was reported to be among the etiologic agents of disease. The *Scedosporium* network involving participants from 22 countries stimulates and co-ordinates research on all aspects of these significant environmental pathogens.

Acknowledgements

The authors are indebted to the members of the *Pseudallescheria-Scedosporium* Working Group of the European Confederation of Medical Mycology (ECMM) for providing data, inspiring discussions and comments on the manuscript, particularly J.-P. Bouchara, B. Cimon, G. Haase, W. Becker, S. Arikan, J. Rainer and P. E. Verweij. We acknowledge L. C. Severo and A. Yücel for providing photographs and J. Gené for improving the manuscript.

References

- 1 Cimon B, Carrere J, Chazalette JP, et al. Fungal colonization and immune response to fungi in cystic fibrosis. J Mycol Méd 1995; 5: 53–56.
- 2 Maertens JA, Boogaerts MA. Antifungal prophylaxis in neutropenia. *Curr Opin Infect Dis* 1999; **12**: 549-555.
- 3 Nucci M. Emerging moulds: *Fusarium*, *Scedosporium* and *Zygomycetes* in transplant recipients. *Curr Opin Infect Dis* 2003; **16**: 607–612.
- 4 Pagano L, Girmenia C, Mele L, *et al*. Infections caused by filamentous fungi in patients with hematologic malignancies. A report of 391 cases by GIMEMA Infection Program. *Haematologica* 2001; **86**: 862–870.
- 5 Kleinschmidt-DeMasters BK. Central nervous system aspergillosis: a 20-year retrospective series. *Hum Pathol* 2002; 33: 116– 124.
- 6 Lopez FA, Crowley RS, Wastila L, Valantine HA, Remington JS. Scedosporium apiospermum (Pseudallescheria boydii) infection

- Heart Lung Transpl 1998; 17: 321–324.
 7 Guarro J, Gené J. Acrophialophora fusispora misidentified as Scedosporium prolificans. J Clin Microbiol 2002; 40: 3544.
- 8 Castiglioni B, Sutton DA, Rinaldi MG, Fung J, Kusne S. *Pseudallescheria boydii* (anamorph *Scedosporium apiospermum*). Infection in solid organ transplant recipients in a tertiary medical center and review of the literature. *Medicine (Baltimore)* 2002; 81: 333–348.
- 9 Husain S, Muñoz P, Forrest G, et al. Infections due to Scedosporium apiospermum and Scedosporium prolificans in transplant recipients: clinical characteristics and impact of antifungal agent therapy on outcome. Clin Infect Dis 2005; 40: 89–99.
- 10 Nesky MA, McDougal EC, Peacock Jr JE. *Pseudallescheria boydii* brain abscess successfully treated with voriconazole and surgical drainage: case report and literature review of central nervous system pseudallescheriasis. *Clin Infect Dis* 2000; **31**: 673–677.
- 11 Steinbach WJ, Perfect JR. Scedosporium species infections and treatments. J Chemother 2003; 15(Suppl 2): 16–27.
- 12 Walsh TJ, Groll A, Hiemenz J, et al. Infections due to emerging and uncommon medically important fungal pathogens. Clin Microbiol Infect 2004; 10(Suppl 1): 48–66.
- 13 Kimura M, McGinnis MR. Fontana-Masson-stained tissue from culture-proven mycoses. Arch Pathol Lab Med 1998; 122: 1107– 1111.
- 14 Shear CL. Life history of an undescribed ascomycete isolated from a granular mycetoma of man. *Mycologia* 1922; **14**: 239–243.
- 15 de Hoog GS, Guarro J, Gené J, Figueras MJ. Atlas of Clinical Fungi, 2nd edn. Utrecht: Centraalbureau voor Schimmelcultures/Reus: Universitat Rovira i Virgili, 2000.
- 16 Dykstra MJ, Salkin IF, McGinnis MR. An ultrastructural comparison of conidiogenesis in *Scedosporium apiospermum*, *Scedosporium inflatum* and *Scopulariopsis brumptii*. *Mycologia* 1989; 81: 896–904.
- 17 Hironaga M, Watanabe S. Annellated conidiogenous cells in Petriellidium boydii (Scedosporium apiospermum). Sabouraudia 1980; 18: 261–268.
- 18 Campbell CK, Smith MD. Conidiogenesis in *Petriellidium boydii* (*Pseudallescheria boydii*). A light and electron microscope study. *Mycopathologia* 1982; **78**: 145–150.
- 19 Campbell CK. Polycytella hominis gen. et sp. nov., a cause of human pale grain mycetoma. J Med Vet Mycol 1987; 25: 301– 305.
- 20 Borman AM, Campbell CK, Linton CJ, Johnson EM. Polycytella hominis is a mutated form of Scedosporium apiospermum, as shown by gene sequence analysis. Med Mycol 2005; 44: 33– 39.
- 21 Berbee ML, Taylor JW. Convergence in ascospore discharge mechanism among pyrenomycete fungi based on 18S ribosomal RNA gene sequence. *Mol Phylogenet Evol* 1992; 1: 59–71.
- 22 Barron GL, Cain RF, Gilman JC. A revision of the genus *Petriella*. *Can J Bot* 1961; **39**: 837–845.
- 23 Udagawa SI. Microascaceae in Japan. J Gen Appl Microbiol 1963; 9: 137-148.
- 24 von Arx JA. Ostiolate and nonostiolate Pyrenomycetes. *Proc K Ned Akad Wet* 1973; **76**: 289–296.
- 25 Issakainen J, Jalava J, Eerola E, Campbell CK. Relatedness of *Pseudallescheria*, *Scedosporium* and *Graphium* pro parte based on SSU rDNA sequences. *J Med Vet Mycol* 1997; **35**: 389–398.
- © 2006 ISHAM, Medical Mycology, 44, 295-327

- 26 Issakainen J, Jalava J, Saari J, Campbell CK. Relationship of Scedosporium prolificans with Petriella confirmed by partial LSU rDNA sequences. Mycol Res 1999; 103: 1179–1184.
- 27 Okada G, Seifert KA, Takematsu A, et al. A molecular phylogenetic reappraisal of the *Graphium* complex based on 18S rDNA sequences. *Can J Bot* 1988; **76**: 1495–1506.
- 28 Rainer J, de Hoog GS, Wedde M, Gräser Y, Gilges S. Molecular variability of *Pseudallescheria boydii*, a neurotropic opportunist. *J Clin Microbiol* 2000; **38**: 3267–3273.
- 29 Gilgado F, Cano J, Gené J, Guarro J. Molecular phylogeny of the *Pseudallescheria boydii* species complex. Proposal of two new species. J Clin Microbiol 2005; **43**: 4930–4942.
- 30 Guého E, de Hoog GS. Taxonomy of the medical species of *Pseudallescheria* and *Scedosporium*. J Mycol Méd 1991; 118: 3– 9.
- 31 Rainer J, de Hoog GS. Molecular taxonomy and ecology of *Pseudallescheria*, *Petriella* and *Scedosporium prolificans (Microascaceae)* containing opportunistic agents on humans. *Mycol Res* 2006; **110**: 151–160.
- 32 Ajello L. The isolation of *Allescheria boydii* Shear, an etiologic agent of mycetomas, from soil. *J Trop Med* 1952; 1: 227–238.
- 33 Kurup PV, Schmitt JA. Human-pathogenic fungi in the soils of Ohio. Ohio J Sci 1970; 70: 291–295.
- 34 Sotgiu G, Mazzoni A, Mantovani A, Ajello L, Palmer L. Survey of soil for human pathogenic fungi from Emilia Romagna, region of Italy. Isolation of *Allescheria boydii*, *Cryptococcus neoformans*, and *Histoplasma capsulatum*. *Am J Epidemiol* 1966; 83: 329–337.
- 35 Bakerspigel A, Schaus D. Petriellidosis (pseudallescheriasis) in southwestern Ontario, Canada. Sabouraudia 1984; 22: 247–249.
- 36 Bell RG. The development in beef cattle manure of *Petriellidium boydii* (Shear) Malloch, a potential pathogen for man and cattle. *Can J Microbiol* 1976; 22: 552–556.
- 37 Bell RG. Comparative virulence and immunodiffusion analysis of *Petriellidium boydii* (Shear) Malloch strains isolated from feedlot manure and a human mycetoma. *Can J Microbiol* 1978; 24: 856–863.
- 38 Cooke WB, Kahler PG. Isolation of potentially pathogenic fungi from polluted water and sewage. *Publ Health Rep* 1955; **170**: 689–694.
- 39 de Hoog GS, Marvin-Sikkema FD, Lahpoor GA, et al. Ecology and physiology of the emerging opportunistic fungi Pseudallescheria boydii and Scedosporium prolificans. Mycoses 1994; 37: 71–78.
- 40 Fisher JF, Shadomy S, Teabeaut JR, et al. Near-drowning complicated by brain abscess due to Petriellidium boydii. Arch Neurol 1982; 39: 511–513.
- 41 Llanos C, Kjoller A. Changes in the flora of soil fungi following waste application. *Oikos* 1976; 27: 377–382.
- 42 Davies JS, Wellman A, Zajic JE. Hyphomycetes utilizing natural gas. *Can J Microbiol* 1973; **19**: 81–85.
- 43 Zajic JE, Volesky B, Wellman A. Growth of *Graphium* sp. on natural gas. *Can J Microbiol* 1969; 15: 1231–1236.
- 44 García-Peña EI, Hernández S, Favela-Torres E, Auria R, Revah S. Toluene biofiltration by the fungus *Scedosporium apiospermum* TB1. *Biotechnol Bioeng* 2001; 76: 61–69.
- 45 April TM, Abbott SP, Foght JM, Currah RS. Degradation of hydrocarbons in crude oil by the ascomycete *Pseudallescheria boydii* (*Microascaceae*). *Can J Microbiol* 1998; 44: 270–278.
- 46 Ajello L, Kuttin ES, Beemer AM, Kaplan W, Padhye A. Occurrence of *Histoplasma capsulatum* Darling, 1906 in Israel, with a review of the current status of histoplasmosis in the Middle East. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 26; **1977**: 140–147.

- 47 Vissiennon T. Untersuchungen zur Pilzbelastung im Hühnerstall und ihre ätiopathogenetische Bedeutung für Mensch und Tier [Fungal flora in chicken stalls and its etiopathogenic importance for humans and animals]. *Berl Münch Tierarztl Wochenschr* 1999; **112**: 104–107.
- 48 Brandsberg JW, Weeks RJ, Hill WB, Piggott WR. A study of fungi found in association with *Histoplasma capsulatum*: three bird roosts in S. E. Missouri, U.S.A. *Mycopathol Mycol Appl* 1969; **38**: 71–81.
- 49 Kirk PW. A comparison of saline tolerance and sporulation in marine and clinical isolates of *Allescheria boydii* Shear. *Mycopathol Mycol Appl* 1967; **33**: 65–75.
- 50 Dabrowa N, Landau JW, Newcomer VD, Plunkett OA. A survey of tide–washed coastal areas of Southern California for fungi potentially pathogenic to man. *Mycopathologia* 1964; 24: 136– 150.
- 51 Pawar VH, Padhye AA, Thirumalachar MJ. Isolation of *Monosporium apiospermum* from marine soil in Bombay, Research Laboratories, Hindustan Antibiotics Ltd. *Pimpri* 1963; 6: 50–53.
- 52 Aho R, Hirn J. A survey of fungi and some indicator bacteria in chlorinated water of indoor public swimming pools. *Zentralbl Bakteriol Mikrobiol Hyg B* 1981; **173**: 242–249.
- 53 Summerbell RC. The benomyl test as a fundamental diagnostic method for medical mycology. J Clin Microbiol 1993; 31: 572– 577.
- 54 Lingappa BT, Lingappa Y. Isolation of *Allescheria boydii* Shear from heated Indian soils. *Curr Sci* 1961; **2**: 70–72.
- 55 Hagari Y, Ishioka S, Ohyama F, Mihara M. Cutaneous infection showing sporotrichoid spread caused by *Pseudallescheria boydii* (*Scedosporium apiospermum*): successful detection of fungal DNA in formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded sections by seminested PCR. *Arch Dermatol* 2002; **138**: 271–272.
- 56 Wedde M, Muller D, Tintelnot K, de Hoog GS, Stahl U. PCRbased identification of clinically relevant *PseudallescherialScedosporium* strains. *Med Mycol* 1998; **36**: 61–67.
- 57 Sandhu GS, Kline BC, Stockman L, Roberts GD. Molecular probes for diagnosis of fungal infections. *J Clin Microbiol* 1995; 33: 2913–2919.
- 58 Willinger B, Obradovic A, Selitsch B, et al. Detection and identification of fungi from fungus balls of the maxillary sinus by molecular techniques. J Clin Microbiol 2003; 41: 581–585.
- 59 Zouhair R, Defontaine A, Ollivier C, et al. Typing of Scedosporium apiospermum by multilocus enzyme electrophoresis and random amplification of polymorphic DNA. J Med Microbiol 2001; 50: 925–932.
- 60 Defontaine A, Zouhair R, Cimon B, et al. Genotyping study of Scedosporium apiospermum isolates from patients with cystic fibrosis. J Clin Microbiol 2002; 40: 2108–2114.
- 61 Rüchel R, Margraf S. Rapid microscopical diagnosis of deepseated mycoses following maceration of fresh specimens and staining with optical brighteners. *Mycoses* 1993; 36: 239–242.
- 62 Rüchel R, Schaffrinski M, Seshan KR, Cole GT. Vital staining of fungal elements in deep-seated mycotic lesions during experimental murine mycoses using the parenterally applied optical brightener Blankophor. *Med Mycol* 2000; 38: 231–237.
- 63 Kaufman L, Standard PG, Jalbert M, Kraft DE. Immunohistologic identification of *Aspergillus* spp. and other hyaline fungi by using polyclonal fluorescent antibodies. *J Clin Microbiol* 1997; 35: 2206–2209.
- 64 Rippon JW. Medical Mycology. The Pathogenic Fungi and the Pathogenic Actinomycetes, 3rd edn. Philadelphia: Saunders, 1998.

- 65 Hay RJ, McKenzie DWR. The histopathological features of pale grain eumycetoma. *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg* 1982; 76: 839– 844.
- 66 Salkin IF, McGinnis MR, Dykstra MJ, Rinaldi MG. Scedosporium inflatum, an emerging pathogen. J Clin Microbiol 1988; 26: 498–503.
- 67 Dixon DM, Polak–Wyss A. The medically important dematiaceous fungi and their identification. *Mycoses* 1991; 34: 1–18.
- 68 Albernaz V, Huston B, Castillo M, Mukherji S, Bouldin TW. *Pseudallescheria boydii* infection of the brain: imaging with pathologic confirmation. *Am J Neuroradiol* 1996; **17**: 589–592.
- 69 Dubeau F, Roy LE, Allard J, et al. Brain abscess due to *Petriellidium boydii*. Can J Neurol Sci 1984; **11**: 395–398.
- 70 Shih LY, Lee N. Disseminated petriellidiosis (allescheriasis) in a patient with refractory acute lymphoblastic leukaemia. J Clin Pathol 1984; 37: 78–82.
- 71 Yoo D, Lee WH, Kwon-Chung KJ. Brain abscesses due to *Pseudallescheria boydii* associated with primary non-Hodgkin's lymphoma of the central nervous system: a case report and literature review. *Rev Infect Dis* 1985; **7**: 272–277.
- 72 Berenguer J, Díaz-Mediavilla J, Urra D, Muñoz P. Central nervous system infection caused by *Pseudallescheria boydii*: case report and review. *Rev Infect Dis* 1989; 11: 890–896.
- 73 Hachimi–Idrissi S, Willemsen M, Desprechins B, et al. Pseudallescheria boydii and brain abscesses. Pediatr Infect Dis J 1990; 9: 737–741.
- 74 Schiess RJ, Coscia MF, McClellan GA. *Petriellidium boydii* pachymeningitis treated with miconazole and ketoconazole. *Neurosurgery* 1984; 14: 220–224.
- 75 Anderson RL, Carroll TF, Harvey JT, Myers MG. Petriellidium (Allescheria) boydii orbital and brain abscess treated with intravenous miconazole. Am J Ophthalmol 1984; 97: 771– 775.
- 76 Baudrillard JC, Rousseaux P, Lerais JM, et al. Anéurysmes mycotiques fongiques et abcès cérébraux multiples à Scedosporium apiospermum. À propos d'une observation avec revue de la littérature [Fungal aneurysms and multiple cerebral abscesses due to Scedosporium apiospermum. About a case with a review of the literature]. J Radiol 1985; 66: 321–326.
- 77 Durieu I, Parent M, Ajana F, et al. Monosporium apiospermum meningoencephalitis: a clinico-pathological case. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 1991; 54: 731-733.
- 78 Gari M, Fruit J, Rousseaux P, et al. Scedosporium (Monosporium) apiospermum: multiple brain abscesses. Sabouraudia 1985; 23: 371–376.
- 79 Alsip SG, Cobbs CG. *Pseudallescheria boydii* infection of the central nervous system in a cardiac transplant recipient. *South Med J* 1986; **79**: 383–384.
- 80 Kershaw P, Freeman R, Templeton D, et al. Pseudallescheria boydii infection of the central nervous system. Arch Neurol 1990; 47: 468–472.
- 81 Liu K, Howell DN, Perfect JR, Schell WA. Morphologic criteria for the preliminary identification of *Fusarium*, *Paecilomyces*, and *Acremonium* species by histopathology. *Am J Clin Pathol* 1998; 109: 45–54.
- 82 Walts AE. Pseudallescheria: an underdiagnosed fungus? Diagn Cytopathol 2001; 25: 153–157.
- 83 Fessler RG, Brown FD. Superior sagittal sinus infection with *Petriellidium boydii*: case report. *Neurosurgery* 1989; 24: 604– 607.
- 84 Pérez RE, Smith M, McClendon J, Kim J, Eugenio N. *Pseudallescheria boydii* brain abscess. Complication of an intravenous catheter. *Am J Med* 1988; 84: 359–362.

- 85 Hayden RT, Isotalo PA, Parrett T, et al. In situ hybridization for the differentiation of Aspergillus, Fusarium, and Pseudallescheria species in tissue section. Diagn Mol Pathol 2003; 12: 21–26.
- 86 Poza G, Montoya J, Redondo C, *et al*. Meningitis caused by *Pseudallescheria boydii* treated with voriconazole. *Clin Infect Dis* 2000; **30**: 981–982.
- 87 Rüchel R, Wilichowski E. Cerebral *Pseudallescheria* mycosis after near-drowning. *Mycoses* 1995; 38: 473–475.
- 88 Watanabe S, Hironaga M. An atypical isolate of *Scedosporium apiospermum* from a purulent meningitis in man. *Sabouraudia* 1981; **19**: 209–215.
- 89 Nenoff P, Gutz U, Tintelnot K, et al. Disseminated mycosis due to Scedosporium prolificans in an AIDS patient with Burkitt lymphoma. Mycoses 1996; 39: 461–465.
- 90 Al Refai M, Duhamel C, Le Rochais JP, Icard P. Lung scedosporiosis: a differential diagnosis of aspergillosis. *Eur J Cardiothorac Surg* 2002; 21: 938–939.
- 91 Chaudhary BA, McAlexander D, el Gammal T, Speir WA. Multiple mycetomas due to *Pseudallescheria boydii*. South Med J 1987; 80: 653–654.
- 92 García-Arata MI, Otero MJ, Zomeno M, et al. Scedosporium apiospermum pneumonia after autologous bone marrow transplantation. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 1996; 15: 600-603.
- 93 Marco de Lucas E, Sadaba P, Lastra Garcia-Baron P, et al. Cerebral scedosporiosis: an emerging fungal infection in severe neutropenic patients: CT features and CT pathologic correlation. *Eur Radiol* 2006; 16: 496–502.
- 94 Lupan DM, Cazin Jr J. Serological diagnosis of petriellidiosis (allescheriosis). II. Indirect (passive) hemagglutination assay for antibody to polysaccharide antigens of *Petriellidium (Allescheria) boydii* and *Monosporium apiospermum*. *Mycopathologia* 1977; **62**: 87–95.
- 95 Lupan DM, Cazin Jr J. Humoral response to experimental petriellidiosis. *Infect Immun* 1979; 24: 843–850.
- 96 Jabado N, Casanova JL, Haddad E, et al. Invasive pulmonary infection due to Scedosporium apiospermum in two children with chronic granulomatous disease. Clin Infect Dis 1998; 27: 1437– 1441.
- 97 McCarthy DS, Longbottom JL, Riddell RW, Batten JC. Pulmonary mycetoma due to *Allescheria boydii*. Am Rev Respir Dis 1969; 100: 213–216.
- 98 Pinto MR, Mulloy B, Haido RM, Travassos LR, Barreto Bergter E. A peptidorhamnomannan from the mycelium of *Pseudal-lescheria boydii* is a potential diagnostic antigen of this emerging human pathogen. *Microbiology* 2001; 147: 1499–1506.
- 99 Cimon B, Carrere J, Vinatier JF, et al. Clinical significance of Scedosporium apiospermum in patients with cystic fibrosis. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 2000; 19: 53–56.
- 100 Gil-Lamaignere C, Roilides E, Lyman CA, et al. Human phagocytic cell responses to Scedosporium apiospermum (Pseudallescheria boydii): variable susceptibility to oxidative injury. Infect Immun 2003; 71: 6472–6478.
- 101 Gil-Lamaignere C, Winn RM, Simitsopoulou M, et al. Interferon gamma and granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor augment the antifungal activity of human polymorphonuclear leukocytes against Scedosporium spp.: comparison with Aspergillus spp. Med Mycol 2005; 43: 253–260.
- 102 Gil-Lamaignere C, Roilides E, Mosquera J, Maloukou A, Walsh TJ. Antifungal triazoles and polymorphonuclear leukocytes synergize to cause increased hyphal damage to *Scedosporium* prolificans and *Scedosporium apiospermum*. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 2002; 46: 2234–2237.
- © 2006 ISHAM, Medical Mycology, 44, 295-327

- 103 Gil-Lamaignere C, Roilides E, Maloukou A, et al. Amphotericin B lipid complex exerts additive antifungal activity in combination with polymorphonuclear leucocytes against Scedosporium prolificans and Scedosporium apiospermum. J Antimicrob Chemother 2002; 50: 1027–1030.
- 104 Winn RM, Gil-Lamaignere C, Roilides E, et al. Effects of interleukin-15 on antifungal responses of human polymorphonuclear leukocytes against *Fusarium* spp. and *Scedosporium* spp. *Cytokine* 2005; **31**: 1–8.
- 105 Carrillo AJ, Guarro J. In vitro activities of four novel triazoles against Scedosporium spp. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 2001; 45: 2151–2153.
- 106 Cuenca-Estrella M, Ruiz-Diez B, Martinez-Suarez JV, Monzon A, Rodriguez-Tudela JL. Comparative *in-vitro* activity of voriconazole (UK-109,496) and six other antifungal agents against clinical isolates of *Scedosporium prolificans* and *Scedosporium apiospermum*. J Antimicrob Chemother 1999; 43: 149–151.
- 107 Del Poeta M, Schell WA, Perfect JR. In vitro antifungal activity of pneumocandin L-743,872 against a variety of clinically important molds. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1997; 41: 1835-1836.
- 108 Espinel-Ingroff A. Comparison of *in vitro* activities of the new triazole SCH56592 and the echinocandins MK-0991 (L-743,872) and LY303366 against opportunistic filamentous and dimorphic fungi and yeasts. *J Clin Microbiol* 1998; **36**: 2950–2956.
- 109 Espinel-Ingroff A. *In vitro* activity of the new triazole voriconazole (UK-109,496) against opportunistic filamentous and dimorphic fungi and common and emerging yeast pathogens. *J Clin Microbiol* 1998; **36**: 198–202.
- 110 Johnson EM, Szekely A, Warnock DW. *In-vitro* activity of voriconazole, itraconazole and amphotericin B against filamentous fungi. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 1998; **42**: 741–745.
- 111 McGinnis MR, Pasarell L, Sutton DA, et al. In vitro activity of voriconazole against selected fungi. Med Mycol 1998; 36: 239– 242.
- 112 Meletiadis J, Meis JF, Mouton JW, et al. In vitro activities of new and conventional antifungal agents against clinical Scedosporium isolates. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 2002; 46: 62–68.
- 113 Minassian B, Huczko E, Washo T, Bonner D, Fung-Tomc J. In vitro activity of ravuconazole against Zygomycetes, Scedosporium and Fusarium isolates. Clin Microbiol Infect 2003; 9: 1250– 1252.
- 114 Odabasi Z, Paetznick VL, Rodriguez JR, Chen E, Ostrosky-Zeichner L. *In vitro* activity of anidulafungin against selected clinically important mold isolates. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2004; 48: 1912–1915.
- 115 Pfaller MA, Marco F, Messer SA, Jones RN. *In vitro* activity of two echinocandin derivatives, LY303366 and MK-0991 (L-743,792), against clinical isolates of *Aspergillus*, *Fusarium*, *Rhizopus*, and other filamentous fungi. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis* 1998; **30**: 251–255.
- 116 Radford SA, Johnson EM, Warnock DW. In vitro studies of activity of voriconazole (UK-109,496), a new triazole antifungal agent, against emerging and less-common mold pathogens. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1997; **41**: 841–843.
- 117 Hennequin C. Epidémiologie des mycoses invasives. L'expérience d'une centre hospitalo-universitaire parisien. *Rev Méd Interne* 1996; 17: 754-760.
- 118 Uchida K, Nishiyama Y, Yokota N, Yamaguchi H. In vitro antifungal activity of a novel lipopeptide antifungal agent, FK463, against various fungal pathogens. J Antibiot (Tokyo) 2000; 53: 1175–1181.

- 119 Walsh TJ, Peter J, McGough DA, et al. Activities of amphotericin B and antifungal azoles alone and in combination against *Pseudallescheria boydii*. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1995; **39**: 1361–1364.
- 120 González GM, Fothergill AW, Sutton DA, Rinaldi MG, Loebenberg D. *In vitro* activities of new and established triazoles against opportunistic filamentous and dimorphic fungi. *Med Mycol* 2005; **43**: 281–284.
- 121 Steinbach WJ, Schell WA, Miller JL, Perfect JR. Scedosporium prolificans osteomyelitis in an immunocompetent child treated with voriconazole and caspofungin, as well as locally applied polyhexamethylene biguanide. J Clin Microbiol 2003; 41: 3981– 3985.
- 122 Cunningham R, Mitchell DC. Amphotericin B responsive Scedosporium apiospermum infection in a patient with acute myeloid leukaemia. J Clin Pathol 1996; 49: 93–94.
- 123 Johnson MD, MacDougall C, Ostrosky-Zeichner L, Perfect JR, Rex JH. Combination antifungal therapy. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2004; 48: 693–715.
- 124 Li RK, Rinaldi MG. In vitro antifungal activity of nikkomycin Z in combination with fluconazole or itraconazole. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1999; 43: 1401–1405.
- 125 Yustes C, Guarro J. In vitro synergistic interaction between amphotericin B and micafungin against Scedosporium spp. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 2005; 49: 3498–3500.
- 126 Fienberg R. Madura foot in a native American. Am J Clin Pathol 1944; 14: 239–246.
- 127 Gay DM, Bigelow JB. Madura foot due to Monosporium apiospermum in a native American. Am J Pathol 1930; 6: 325– 335.
- 128 Reyes AC. A contribution to the study of mycetoma in The Philippines: maduromycosis caused by *Monosporium apiospermum* (laboratory studies). *Acta Med Philipp* 1963; **19**: 89–102.
- 129 Schmitt JA, Zabransky RJ, Janidlo AS, Parsons JE. Experimental maduromycosis in the laboratory mouse. *Mycopatholo*gia 1962; 18: 164–168.
- 130 Lupan DM, Cazin Jr J. Pathogenicity of Allescheria boydii for mice. Infect Immun 1973; 8: 743–751.
- 131 Jones JW, Alden HS. Maduromycotic mycetoma (Madura foot): report of a case occurring in an American negro. J Am Med Assoc 1931; 96: 256–260.
- 132 Benham RW. Allescheria boydii, causative agent in a case of meningitis. J Invest Dermatol 1948; 10: 99–110.
- 133 Capilla J, Guarro J. Correlation between *in vitro* susceptibility to voriconazole and *in vivo* outcome of scedosporiosis in guinea pigs. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2004; **48**: 4009–4011.
- 134 Capilla J, Mayayo E, Serena C, Javier JF, Guarro J. A novel murine model of cerebral scedosporiosis: lack of efficacy of amphotericin B. J Antimicrob Chemother 2004; 54: 1092–1095.
- 135 Ortoneda M, Pastor FJ, Mayayo E, Guarro J. Comparison of the virulence of *Scedosporium prolificans* strains from different origins in a murine model. J Med Microbiol 2002; 51: 924–928.
- 136 Gonzalez GM, Tijerina R, Najvar L, et al. Experimental murine model of disseminated *Pseudallescheria infection*. Med Mycol 2002; 40: 243–248.
- 137 Capilla J, Serena C, Pastor FJ, Ortoneda M, Guarro J. Efficacy of voriconazole in treatment of systemic scedosporiosis in neutropenic mice. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2003; 47: 3976–3978.
- 138 Ortoneda M, Capilla J, Pastor FJ, Serena C, Guarro J. Interaction of granulocyte colony-stimulating factor and high doses of liposomal amphotericin B in the treatment of systemic

murine scedosporiosis. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis* 2004; 50: 247–251.

- 139 Gonzalez GM, Tijerina R, Najvar LK, et al. Activity of posaconazole against Pseudallescheria boydii: in vitro and in vivo assays. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 2003; 47: 1436–1438.
- 140 Siebenmann F. Die Schimmelmykosen des menschlichen Ohres [The mycoses of the human ear]. Wiesbaden, Germany: J. F. Bergmann, 1899.
- 141 Saccardo PA. Notae mycologicae [Mycological notes]. Annls Mycol 1911; 9: 249–257.
- 142 Creitz J, Harris HV. Isolation of *Allescheria boydii* from sputum. *Am Rev Tuberculosis* 1955; **71**: 126–130.
- 143 Frágner P, Hejzlar J. 'Graphiosis' eine neue Erkrankung des Menschen? ['Graphiosis' – a new human disease?]. *Ceská Mykol* 1973; 27: 98–106.
- 144 Zapater RC, Albesi EJ. Corneal monosporiosis. A review and report of 1 case. *Ophthalmologica* 1979; **178**: 147.
- 145 van Hecke E, Geerts ML, den Dooven D. Petriellidiosis of the skin. Mykosen 1982; 26: 17–21.
- 146 Sawada M, Isogai S, Miyake S, Kubota T, Yoshizawa Y. Pulmonary pseudallescherioma associated with systemic lupus erythematosus. *Intern Med* 1998; **37**: 1046–1049.
- 147 Warnock DW, Richardson MD. Fungal Infection in the Compromised Patient. Chichester: Wiley, 1991.
- 148 Severo LC, Oliveira FM, Londero AT. Subcutaneous scedosporiosis. Report of two cases and review of the literature. *Rev Inst Med Trop Sao Paulo* 1997; **39**: 227–230.
- 149 Odds FC, Arai T, Disalvo AF, et al. Nomenclature of fungal diseases – A report and recommendations from a sub–committee of the International Society for Human and Animal Mycology (ISHAM). J Med Vet Mycol 1992; 30: 1–10.
- 150 Groves CRN. The Johns Hopkins Microbiology Newsletter 16; 1997 [cited 2004 Jun 22] Available from: http://pathology5.-pathology.jhmi.edu/micro/v16n13.htm >
- 151 Yücel A, Köslü A, Numan S. [A case of maduromycosis in hand, caused by *Petriellidium boydii*]. *Cerr Tip Fak Derg* 1981; 22: 570–576.
- 152 Ichikawa T, Saiki M, Tokunaga S, Saida T. Scedosporium apiospermum skin infection in a patient with nephrotic syndrome. Acta Derm Venereol 1997; 77: 172–173.
- 153 Castro LG, Belda JW, Salebian A, Cuce LC. Mycetoma: a retrospective study of 41 cases seen in Sao Paulo, Brazil, from to 1989. *Mycoses*; 36 1978; 1993: 89–95.
- 154 Venugopal PV, Venugopal TV. Pale grain eumycetomas in Madras. *Australas J Dermatol* 1995; **36**: 149–151.
- 155 Ahmed J, Ditmars DM, Sheppard T, et al. Recurrence of Scedosporium apiospermum infection following renal re-transplantation. Am J Transplant 2004; 4: 1720–1724.
- 156 Fernandez–Guerrero ML, Ruiz BP, Ales JM. Postcraniotomy mycetoma of the scalp and osteomyelitis due to *Pseudallescheria boydii*. J Infect Dis 1987; **156**: 855.
- 157 Gener FA, Kustimur S, Sultan N, Sever A. Ueber eine Pilzinduzierte Arthritis durch Scedosporium apiospermum (Pseudallescheria boydii) [About a fungal arthritis due to Scedosporium apiospermum (Pseudallescheria boydii)]. Z Rheumatol 1991; 50: 219–221.
- 158 Ginter G, de Hoog GS, Pschaid A, et al. Arthritis without grains caused by Pseudallescheria boydii. Mycoses 1995; 38: 369–371.
- 159 Hayden G, Lapp C, Loda F. Arthritis caused by *Monosporium apiospermum* treated with intraarticular amphotericin B. Am J Dis Child 1977; 131: 927.

- 160 Lutwick LI, Rytel MW, Yanez JP, Galgiani JN, Stevens DA. Deep infections from *Petriellidium boydii* treated with miconazole. *JAMA* 1979; **241**: 272–273.
- 161 Piper JP, Golden J, Brown D, Broestler J. Successful treatment of Scedosporium apiospermum suppurative arthritis with itraconazole. Pediatr Infect Dis J 1990; 9: 674–675.
- 162 Dirschl DR, Henderson RC. Patellar overgrowth after infection of the knee. J Bone Joint Surg 1991; 73A: 940–941.
- 163 Lavy D, Morin O, Venet G, et al. Pseudallescheria boydii knee arthritis in a young immunocompetent adult two years after a compound patellar fracture. Joint Bone Spine 2001; 68: 517–520.
- 164 Foster MR, Friedenberg ZB, Passero F. Lumbar Petriellidium boydii osteomyelitis with a systemic presentation. J Spinal Disord 1994; 7: 356–360.
- 165 Hervé F, Drouhet E, Dupont B, Barois A, Beneux J. Ostéoarthrite mycosique du genou avec destruction articulaire traitée par kétoconazole. Arch Fr Pediatr 1983; 40: 309–314.
- 166 Dellestable F, Kures L, Mainard D, Pere P, Gaucher A. Fungal arthritis due to *Pseudallescheria boydii (Scedosporium apiospermum)*. J Rheumatol 1994; 21: 766–768.
- 167 Le Gouill SL, Morineau N, Miegeville M, et al. Ostéoarthrite à Pseudallescheria boydii chez un patient porteur de leucémie aigué lymphoblastique: à propos d'un cas. [Osteoarthritis due to Pseudallescheria boydii in a patient with acute lymphoblastic lymphoma: report of a case]. Rev Méd Interne 1999; 20: 434– 438.
- 168 Ansari RA, Hindson DA, Stevens DL, Kloss JG. *Pseudal-lescheria boydii* arthritis and osteomyelitis in a patient with Cushing's disease. *South Med J* 1987; 80: 90–92.
- 169 Haapasaari J, Essen RV, Kahanpää A, et al. Fungal arthritis simulating juvenile rheumatoid arthritis. Br Med J 1982; 285(6346): 923–924.
- 170 Hung LH, Norwood LA. Osteomyelitis due to *Pseudallescheria* boydii. South Med J 1993; **86**: 231-234.
- 171 Levine NB, Kurokawa R, Fichtenbaum CJ, Howington JA, Kuntz C. An immunocompetent patient with primary *Scedosporium apiospermum* vertebral osteomyelitis. J Spinal Disord Tech 2002; 15: 425–430.
- 172 Lang AG, Peterson HA. Osteomyelitis following puncture wounds of the foot in children. *J Trauma* 1976; **16**: 993–999.
- 173 Lonser RR, Brodke DS, Dailey AT. Vertebral osteomyelitis secondary to *Pseudallescheria boydii*. J Spinal Disord 2001; 14: 361–364.
- 174 GattoJ, Paterson D, Davis L, Lockwood L, Allworth A. Vertebral osteomyelitis due to *Pseudallescheria boydii*. *Pathology* 1997; **29**: 238–240.
- 175 German JW, Kellie SM, Pai MP, Turner PT. Treatment of a chronic *Scedosporium* vertebral osteomyelitis. *Neurosurg Focus* 2004; **17**: 1–8.
- 176 Halpern AA, Nagel DA, Schurman DJ. *Allescheria boydii* osteomyelitis following multiple steroid injections and surgery. *Clin Orthop Related Res* 1977; **126**: 232–234.
- 177 Sydnor MK, Kaushik S, Knight TE, Bridges CL, McCarty JM. Mycotic osteomyelitis due to *Scedosporium apiospermum*: MR imaging-pathologic correlation. *Skeletal Radiol* 2003; **32**: 656– 660.
- 178 Ernest JT, Rippon JW. Keratitis due to Allescheria boydii (Monosporium apiospermum). Am J Ophthalmol 1966; 62: 1202–1204.
- 179 Diaz-Valle D, Benitez del Castillo JM, Amor E, et al. Severe keratomycosis secondary to Scedosporium apiospermum. Cornea 2002; 21: 516–518.
- © 2006 ISHAM, Medical Mycology, 44, 295-327

- 180 Del Palacio A, Perez-Blazquez E, Cuetara MS, et al. Keratomycosis due to Scedosporium apiospermum. Mycoses 1991; 34: 483–487.
- 181 Orr PH, Safneck JR, Napier LB. Monosporium apiospermum endophthalmitis in a patient without risk factors for infection. *Can J Ophthalmol* 1993; 28: 187–190.
- 182 Ruesch R, Buchi ER, Bischoff P, Schneider P. Pseudallescheriaboydii-Pilzendophthalmitis 6 Jahre nach Trabekulektomie [Endophthalmitis due to Pseudallescheria boydii 6 years after trabeculectomy]. Klin Monatsbl Augenheilkd 1994; 204: 468–469.
- 183 Chander J, Sharma A. Prevalence of fungal corneal ulcers in northern India. *Infection* 1994; 22: 207–209.
- 184 McKelvie PA, Wong EY, Chow LP, Hall AJ. Scedosporium endophthalmitis: two fatal disseminated cases of Scedosporium infection presenting with endophthalmitis. Clin Experim Ophthalmol 2001; 29: 330–334.
- 185 McGuire TW, Bullock JD, Bullock Jr JD, Elder BL, Funkhouser JW. Fungal endophthalmitis. An experimental study with a review of 17 human ocular cases. *Arch Ophthalmol* 1991; 109: 1289–1296.
- 186 D'Hondt K, Parys-van Ginderdeuren R, Foets B. Fungal keratitis caused by *Pseudallescheria boydii (Scedosporium apiospermum)*. Bull Soc Belge Ophthalmol 2000; 277: 53–56.
- 187 Thomas PA. Current perspectives on ophthalmic mycoses. Clin Microbiol Rev 2003; 16: 730–797.
- 188 Köhler U. Entzündlicher Tränen-Nasenwegsverschluß durch Monosporium apiospermum (Allescheria boydii) [Inflammatory occlusion of the lachrymal duct by Monosporium apiospermum (Allescheria boydii)]. Klin Monatsbl Augenheilkd 1982; 181: 480–482.
- 189 Garcia-Martos P, Dominguez I, Marin P, et al. Onicomicosis por hongos filamentosos no dermatófitos en Cadiz [Onychomycosis by non-dermatophyte filamentous fungi in Cadiz]. Enferm Infecc Microbiol Clin 2000; 18: 319–324.
- 190 Summerbell RC. Nondermatophytic molds causing dermatophytosis-like nail and skin infection. In: Kane J, Summerbell R, Sigler L, Krajden S, Land G (eds). *Laboratory Handbook of Dermatophytes*. Belmont, USA: Star Publ, 1997: 213–259.
- 191 Uenotsuchi T, Moroi Y, Urabe K, et al. Cutaneous Scedosporium apiospermum infection in an immunocompromised patient and review of the literature. Acta Derm Venereol 2005; 85: 156– 159.
- 192 Miele PS, Levy CS, Smith MA, et al. Primary cutaneous fungal infections in solid organ transplantation: a case series. Am J Transpl 2002; 2: 678–683.
- 193 Karaarslan A, Arikan S, Karaarslan F, Cetin ES. Skin infection caused by *Scedosporium apiospermum*. *Mycoses* 2003; 46: 524– 526.
- 194 Schaenman JM, DiGiulio DB, Mirels LF, et al. Scedosporium apiospermum soft tissue infection successfully treated with voriconazole: potential pitfalls in the transition from intravenous to oral therapy. J Clin Microbiol 2005; 43: 973–977.
- 195 Cremer G, Bournerias I, Mhalla S, et al. Scédosporiose cutanée non mycétomateuse chez un patient immunodéprimé [Nonmycetoma cutaneous scedosporiosis in an immunocompromised patient]. J Mycol Med 1994; 4: 111–114.
- 196 Sheftel TG, Mader JT, Cierny G. Pseudoallescheria boydii soft tissue abscess. Clin Orthop 1987; 215: 212–216.
- 197 Conti-Díaz IA. Micetomas y procesos premicetomatosos en el Uruguay [Mycetoma and pre-mycetomatic infections in Uruguay]. *Mycopathologia* 1980; **72**: 59–64.

- 198 Kusne S, Ariyanayagam-Baksh S, Strollo DC, Abernethy J. Invasive Scedosporium apiospermum infection in a heart transplant recipient presenting with multiple skin nodules and a pulmonary consolidation. Transpl Infect Dis 2000; 2: 94–196.
- 199 Torok L, Simon G, Csornai A, Tapai M, Torok I. Scedosporium apiospermum infection imitating lymphocutaneous sporotrichosis in a patient with myeloblastic-monocytic leukaemia. Br J Dermatol 1995; 133: 805–809.
- 200 Kiraz N, Gulbas Z, Akgun Y, Uzun O. Lymphadenitis caused by Scedosporium apiospermum in an immunocompetent patient. Clin Infect Dis 2001; 32: E59–E61.
- 201 Canet JJ, Pagerols X, Sanchez C, Vives P, Garau J. Lymphocutaneous syndrome due to *Scedosporium apiospermum*. *Clin Microbiol Infect* 2001; 7: 648–650.
- 202 Gluckman SJ, Ries K, Abrutynm E. Allescheria (Petriellidium) boydii sinusitis in a compromised host. J Clin Microbiol 1977; 5: 481–484.
- 203 Mader JT, Ream RS, Heath PW. Petriellidium boydii (Allescheria boydii) sphenoidal sinusitis. JAMA 1978; 239: 2368–2369.
- 204 Morgan MA, Wilson WR, Neel HB, Roberts GD. Fungal sinusitis in healthy and immunocompromised individuals. Am J Clin Pathol 1984; 82: 597–601.
- 205 Erris DJ, Steiniger JR. Scedosporium apiospermum fungal sinusitis in an immunocompetent patient. Am J Rhinol 1992; 6: 49–53.
- 206 Kauffman CA. Fungal infections. Infect Med 2003; 20: 424-436.
- 207 Thiagalingam S, Fernando GT, Tan K, et al. Orbital apex syndrome secondary to Pseudallescheria boydii fungal sinusitis in an immunocompetent patient. Clin Exper Ophthalmol 2004; 32: 45–547.
- 208 Bryan CS, Disalvo AF, Kaufman L, et al. Petriellidium boydii infection of the sphenoid sinus. Am J Pathol 1980; 74: 846-851.
- 209 Winn RE, Ramsey PD, McDonald JC, Dunlop KJ. Maxillary sinusitis from *Pseudallescheria boydii*. Efficacy of surgical therapy. *Arch Otolaryngol* 1983; **109**: 123–125.
- 210 Salitan ML, Lawson M, Som PM, Bottone EJ, Biller HF. *Pseudallescheria* sinusitis with intracranial extension in a nonimmunocompromised host. Otolaryngol. *Head Neck Surg* 1990; 102: 745–750.
- 211 Shaw CL, McCleave M, Wormald PJ. Unusual presentations of isolated sphenoid fungal sinusitis. J Laryngol Otol 2000; 114: 385–388.
- 212 Stamm MA, Frable MA. Invasive sinusitis due to *Pseudal-lescheria boydii* in an immunocompetent host. *South Med J* 1992; 85: 439–441.
- 213 Del Palacio A, Garau M, Tena D, et al. Otitis externa por Scedosporium apiospermum. Revta Iberoam Micol 1999; 16: 161–163.
- 214 Bhally HS, Shields C, Lin SY, Merz WG. Otitis caused by Scedosporium apiospermum in an immunocompetent child. Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol 2004; 68: 975–978.
- 215 Gugnani HC, Okafor BC, Njoku-Obi ANU. Etiological agents of otomycosis in Nigeria. *Mykosen* 1987; 32: 224–229.
- 216 Rippon JW, Carmichael JW. Petriellidiosis (allescheriosis): four unusual cases and review of the literature. *Mycopathologia* 1976; 58: 117–124.
- 217 Slack CL, Watson DW, Abzug MJ, Shaw C, Chan KH. Fungal mastoiditis in immunocompromised children. *Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg* 1999; **125**: 73–75.
- 218 Yao M, Messner AH. Fungal malignant otitis externa due to Scedosporium apiospermum. Ann Otol Rhinol Laryngol 2001; 110: 377–380.

- 219 Kathuria SK, Rippon J. Non-aspergillus aspergilloma. Am J Clin Pathol 1982; 78: 870–873.
- 220 Severo LC, Londero AT, Picon PD, Rizzon CF, Tarasconi JC. *Petriellidium boydii* fungus ball in a patient with active tuberculosis. *Mycopathologia* 1982; **77**: 15–17.
- 221 Adelson HT, Malcolm JA. Endocavitary treatment of pulmonary mycetomas. *Am Rev Resp Dis* 1968; **98**: 87–92.
- 222 Kwon-Chung KJ, Bennett JE (eds). *Medical Mycology*. Lea & Febiger, Philadelphia, 1992.
- 223 Rippon JW. Clinical spectrum of petriellidosis: mycetoma to systemic opportunistic. *Pan Am Health Org Sci Publ* 1980; **396**: 276–295.
- 224 Deloach ED, DiBenedetto RJ, Hitch WS, Russell P. Pulmonary infection with *Petriellidium boydii*. South Med J 1979; **72**: 479–481.
- 225 Stanley MW, Deike M, Knoedler J, Iber C. Pulmonary mycetomas in immunocompetent patients: diagnosis by fineneedle aspiration. *Diagn Cytopathol* 1992; 8: 577–579.
- 226 Zaas D. Cases from the Osler Medical Service at Johns Hopkins University. *Scedosporium apiospermum* mycetoma of the lung. *Am J Med* 2002; **113**: 760–762.
- 227 Przyjemski CJ. Organ-specific variation in the morphology of the fungomas (fungus balls) of *Pseudallescheria boydii*. Arch Pathol Lab Med 1989; **113**: 1324.
- 228 Belitsos NJ, Merz WJ, Bowersox DW, Hutchins GM. Allescheria boydii mycetoma complicating pulmonary sarcoid. Johns Hopkins Med J 1974; 135: 259–267.
- 229 García J, Perkins A, Garau M, et al. Tratamiento eficaz con voriconazol de un fungoma pulmonar por *Pseudallescheria boydii* en un paciente con infección por VIH y tuberculosis previa [Efficient treatment by voriconazole of a pulmonary fungoma by *Pseudallescheria boydii* in a patient with preceding HIV infection and tuberculosis]. *Revta Iberoam Micol* 2003; 20: 64–67.
- 230 Reddy PC, Christianson CS, Gorelick DF, Larsh HW. Pulmonary monosporosis: an uncommon pulmonary mycotic infection. *Thorax* 1969; 24: 722–728.
- 231 Severo LC, Oliveira FM, Irion K. Respiratory tract intracavitary colonization due to *Scedosporium apiospermum*; report of four cases. *Rev Inst Med Trop Sao Paulo* 2004; **46**: 43–46.
- 232 Rosen P, Adelson HT, Burleigh E. Bronchiectasis complicated by the presence of *Monosporium apiospermum* and *Aspergillus fumigatus*. Am J Clin Pathol 1969; **52**: 182–187.
- 233 Tong JL, Valentine EH, Durrance JR, Wilson GM, Fischer DA. Pulmonary infection with *Allescheria boydii*; report of a fatal case. *Am Rev Tuberc* 1958; **78**: 604–609.
- 234 Travis RE, Ulrich EW, Phillips S. Pulmonary allescheriasis. Ann Intern Med 1961; 4: 141–152.
- 235 Miller MA, Greenberger PA, Amerian A, et al. Allergic bronchopulmonary mycosis caused by *Pseudallescheria boydii*. *Am Rev Respir Dis* 1993; 148: 810–812.
- 236 Greenberger PA. Allergic bronchopulmonary aspergillosis. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1984; 74: 645–653.
- 237 Carles P, Recco P, Fournial F, et al. Alleschériose pulmonaire [Pulmonary allescheriosis]. Poumon Coeur 1979; 35: 101–104.
- 238 Hainer JW, Ostrow JH, Mackenzie DW. Pulmonary monosporosis: report of a case with precipitating antibody. *Chest* 1974; 66: 601–603.
- 239 Milne LJ, McKerrow WS, Paterson WD, Petrie GR, Postlethwaite R. Pseudallescheriasis in northern Britain. J Med Vet Mycol 1986; 24: 377–382.
- 240 Beguin H, Nolard N. Mould diversity in homes. Air and surface analysis of 130 dwellings. *Aerobiologia* 1994; 10: 157–166.

- 241 Del Palacio A, Garau M, Amor E, et al. Case reports. Transient colonization with *Scedosporium prolificans*. Report of four cases in Madrid. *Mycoses* 2001; 44: 321–325.
- 242 Lake FR, Tribe AE, McAleer R, Froudist J, Thompson PJ. Mixed allergic bronchopulmonary fungal disease due to *Pseu*dallescheria boydii and Aspergillus. Thorax 1990; 45: 489–491.
- 243 Chabasse D, Bouchara JP, Chazalette JP, et al. Mucoviscidose et colonisation fongique à Scedosporium apiospermum [Mucoviscidosis and fungal colonization by Scedosporium apiospermum]. J Mycol Méd 1991; 1: 152–155.
- 244 Koch C, Hoiby N. Pathogenesis of cystic fibrosis. *Lancet* 1993;341: 1065–1069.
- 245 Haase G, Peltroche-Llacsahuanga H, Döhmen H. Identification of fungi recovered from sputum of patients with cystic fibrosis (CF) by sequence analysis of the D1/D2 domain of the nuclear LSU rDNA, *Mycoses* 2004; **47**: 361 (Abstract).
- 246 Tamm M, Malouf M, Glanville A. Pulmonary Scedosporium infection following lung transplantation. Transpl Infect Dis 2001; 3: 189–194.
- 247 Louria DB, Lieberman PH, Collins HS, Blevins A. Pulmonary mycetoma due to *Allescheria boydii*. Arch Intern Med 1966; 117: 748–751.
- 248 Bakerspigel A, Wood T, Burke S. Pulmonary allescheriasis: report of a case from Ontario, Canada. *Am J Clin Pathol* 1977; 68: 299–303.
- 249 Horré R, Jovanic B, Marklein G, et al. Fatal pulmonary scedosporiosis. Mycoses 2003; 46: 418–421.
- 250 Tekavec J, Mlinaric-Missoni E, Babic-Vazic V. Pulmonary tuberculosis associated with invasive pseudallescheriasis. *Chest* 1997; **111**: 508–511.
- 251 Seale JP, Hudson JA. Successful medical treatment of pulmonary petriellidiosis. South Med J 1985; 78: 473–476.
- 252 Bousley PH. Isolation of Allescheria boydii from pleural fluid. J Clin Microbiol 1977; 5: 244.
- 253 Hung CC, Chang SC, Yang PC, Hsieh WC. Invasive pulmonary pseudallescheriasis with direct invasion of the thoracic spine in an immunocompetent patient. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* 1994; **13**: 749–751.
- 254 Verweij PE, Cox NJ, Meis JF. Oral terbinafine for treatment of pulmonary *Pseudallescheria boydii* infection refractory to itraconazole therapy. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* 1997; 16: 26– 28.
- 255 Galgiani JN, Stevens DA, Graybill JR, et al. Pseudallescheria boydii infections treated with ketoconazole. Clinical evaluations of seven patients and *in vitro* susceptibility results. Chest 1984; 86: 219–224.
- 256 Saadah HA, Dixon T. Petriellidium boydii (Allescheria boydii). Necrotizing pneumonia in a normal host. JAMA 1981; 245: 605–606.
- 257 Yano S, Shishido S, Toritani T, Yoshida K, Nakano H. Intrabronchial pseudallescheriasis in an immunocompetent woman. *Clin Infect Dis* 1997; 24: 735–736.
- 258 O'Bryan TA, Browne FA, Schonder JF. Scedosporium apiospermum (Pseudallescheria boydii) endocarditis. J Infect 2002; 44: 189–192.
- 259 Armin AR, Reddy VB, Orfei E. Fungal endocarditis caused by *Pseudallescheria (Petriellidium) boydii* in an intravenous drug abuser. *Tex Heart Inst J* 1987; 14: 321–324.
- 260 Gordon G, Axelrod JL. Case report: prosthetic valve endocarditis caused by *Pseudallescheria boydii* and *Clostridium limosum*. *Mycopathologia* 1985; 89: 129–134.
- (c) 2006 ISHAM, Medical Mycology, 44, 295-327

- 261 Roberts FJ, Allen P, Maybee TK. Petriellidium boydii (Allescheria boydii) endocarditis associated with porcine valve replacement. Can Med Assoc J 1977; 117: 1250–1252.
- 262 Welty FK, McLeod GH, Ezratty C, Healy RW, Karchmer AW. *Pseudallescheria boydii* endocarditis of the pulmonic valve in a liver transplant recipient. *Clin Infect Dis* 1992; 15: 858–860.
- 263 Zafiro A. Forma singolare di mycosi cutanea da Monosporium apiospermum a sviluppo clinicamente setticemico. Giorn Med Mil 1938; 86: 636–640.
- 264 Montejo M, Muniz ML, Zarraga S, et al. Infection due to Scedosporium apiospermum in renal transplant recipients: a report of two cases and literature review of central nervous system and cutaneous infections by Pseudallescheria boydii/Sc. apiospermum. Mycoses 2002; 45: 418–427.
- 265 Bower CP, Oxley JD, Campbell CK, Archer CB. Cutaneous Scedosporium apiospermum infection in an immunocompromised patient. J Clin Pathol 1999; 52: 846–848.
- 266 Bernstein EF, Schuster MG, Stieritz DD, Heuman PC, Uitto J. Disseminated cutaneous *Pseudallescheria boydii*. Br J Dermatol 1995; **132**: 456–460.
- 267 Gompels MM, Bethune CA, Jackson G, Spickett GP. Scedosporium apiospermum in chronic granulomatous disease treated with an HLA matched bone marrow transplant. J Clin Pathol 2002; 55: 784–786.
- 268 Khurshid A, Barnett VT, Sekosan M, Ginzburg AS, Onal E. Disseminated *Pseudallescheria boydii* infection in a nonimmunocompromised host. *Chest* 1999; 116: 572–574.
- 269 Nguyen BD. Pseudallescheriasis of the lung and central nervous system: multimodality imaging. Am J Roentgenol 2001; 176: 257–258.
- 270 Riddell J, Chenoweth CE, Kauffman CA. Disseminated Scedosporium apiospermum infection in a previously healthy woman with HELLP syndrome. Mycoses 2004; 47: 442–446.
- 271 Selby R. Pachymeningitis secondary to *Allescheria boydii*. Case report. *J Neurosurg* 1972; **36**: 225–227.
- 272 Sanchez-Sousa A, Leon A, Perez DO, et al. Pseudallescheria boydii genitourinary infection during bladder catheterization in a leukaemic patient. J Med Vet Mycol 1992; 30: 79–81.
- 273 Horré R, Feil E, Stangel A P, et al. Scedosporiosis of the brain with fatal outcome after traumatization of the foot. *Mycoses* 2000; 43(Suppl 2): 33–36.
- 274 Campagnaro EL, Woodside KJ, Early MJ, et al. Disseminated *Pseudallescheria boydii (Scedosporium apiospermum)* infection in a renal transplant patient. *Transpl Infect Dis* 2002; **4**: 207–211.
- 275 Lopez FA, Crowley RS, Wastila L, Valantine HA, Remington JS. Scedosporium apiospermum (Pseudallescheria boydii) infection in a heart transplant recipient: a case of mistaken identity. J Heart Lung Transpl 1998; 17: 321–324.
- 276 Horré G, de Hoog GS. Primary cerebral infections by melanized fungi: a review. *Stud Mycol* 1999; 43: 176–194.
- 277 Scherr GR, Evans SG, Kiyabu MT, Klatt EC. Pseudallescheria boydii infection in the acquired immunodeficiency syndrome. Arch Pathol Lab Med 1992; 116: 535–536.
- 278 Segal BH, Bow EJ, Menichetti F. Fungal infections in nontransplant patients with hematologic malignancies. *Infect Dis Clin North Am* 2002; 16: 935–964.
- 279 Wilichowski E, Christen HJ, Schiffmann H, Schulz-Schaeffer W, Behrens-Baumann. W. Fatal *Pseudallescheria boydii* panencephalitis in a child after near-drowning. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* 1996; 15: 365–370.
- 280 Dworzack DL, Clark RB, Borkowski Jr WJ, et al. Pseudallescheria boydii brain abscess: association with near-drowning

and efficacy of high-dose, prolonged miconazole therapy in patients with multiple abscesses. *Medicine (Baltimore)* 1989; **68**: 218–224.

- 281 Farina C, Arosio M, Marchesi G, Amer M. Scedosporium apiospermum post-traumatic cranial infection. Brain Inj 2002; 16: 627-631.
- 282 Tan TY, Liou CW, Kung LC. Meningitis caused by *Pseudal* lescheria boydii. Chang Gung Med J 2004; **27**: 228–232.
- 283 Tadros TS, Workowski KA, Siegel RJ, Hunter S, Schwartz DA. Pathology of hyalohyphomycosis caused by *Scedosporium apiospermum (Pseudallescheria boydii)*: an emerging mycosis. *Hum Pathol* 1998; **29**: 1266–1272.
- 284 Luu KK, Scott IU, Miller D, Davis JL. Endogenous *Pseudal-lescheria boydii* endophthalmitis in a patient with ring-enhancing brain lesions. *Ophthalmic Surg Lasers* 2001; **32**: 325–329.
- 285 Messori A, Lanza C, De Nicola M, *et al*. Mycotic aneurysms as lethal complication of brain pseudallescheriasis in a neardrowned child: a CT demonstration. *Am J Neuroradiol* 2002; 23: 1697–1699.
- 286 Watson JC, Myseros JS, Bullock MR. True fungal mycotic aneurysm of the basilar artery: a clinical and surgical dilemma. *Cerebrovasc Dis* 1999; **9**: 50–53.
- 287 Aronson SM, Benham R, Wolf A. Maduromycosis of the central nervous system. J Neuropathol Exp Neurol 1953; 12: 158–168.
- 288 Schwartz DA, Amenta PS, Finkelstein SD. Cerebral *Pseudal-lescheria boydii* infection: unique occurrence of fungus ball formation in the brain. *Clin Neurol Neurosurg* 1989; **91**: 79–84.
- 289 Enggano IL, Hughes WT, Kalwinsky DK, et al. Pseudallescheria boydii in a patient with acute lymphoblastic leukemia. Arch Pathol Lab Med 1984; 108: 619–622.
- 290 Hofman P, Saint-Paul MC, Gari-Toussaint M, et al. Infection disséminée à Scedosporium apiospermum chez un transplanté hépatique. Un diagnostic différentiel de l'aspergillose invasive [Disseminated infection due to Scedosporium apiospermum in a liver transplant recipient. Differential diagnostics with invasive aspergillosis]. Ann Pathol 1993; 13: 332–335.
- 291 Rosen F, Deck JH, Rewcastle NB. Allescheria boydii unique systemic dissemination to thyroid and brain. Can Med Assoc J 1965; 93: 1125–1127.
- 292 Walker DH, Adamec T, Krigman M. Disseminated petriellidosis (allescheriosis). Arch Pathol Lab Med 1978; 102: 158–160.
- 293 Chaney S, Gopalan R, Berggren RE. Pulmonary *Pseudal-lescheria boydii* infection with cutaneous zygomycosis after near drowning. *South Med J* 2004; 97: 683–687.
- 294 Meadow WL, Tipple MA, Rippon JW. Endophthalmitis caused by *Petriellidium boydii*. Am J Dis Child 1981; 135: 378–380.
- 295 Kowacs PA, Soares Silvado CE, Monteiro DA, et al. Infection of the CNS by Scedosporium apiospermum after near drowning. Report of a fatal case and analysis of its confounding factors. J Clin Pathol 2004; 57: 205–207.
- 296 Garzoni C, Emonet S, Legout L, et al. Atypical infections in tsunami survivors. Emerg Infect Dis 2005; 11: 1591–1593.
- 297 Ender PT, Dolan MJ. Pneumonia associated with near-drowning. *Clin Infect Dis* 1997; **25**: 896–907.
- 298 Gugnani HC. Fungi isolated from lungs of small wild animals in India. *Mykosen* 1972; 15: 479–482.
- 299 Ramirez R, Robertstad GW, Hutchinson LR, Chavez J. Mycotic flora in the lower digestive tract of feral pigeons (*Columba livia*) in the El Paso, Texas area. J Wildl Dis 1976; **12**: 83–85.
- 300 Gugnani HC, Okafor JI. Mycotic flora of the intestine and other internal organs of certain reptiles and amphibians with special

reference to characterization of *Basidiobolus* isolate. *Mykosen* 1979; **23**: 260–268.

- 301 Friedman DS, Schoster JV, Pickett JP, et al. Pseudallescheria boydii keratomycosis in a horse. J Am Vet Med Assoc 1989; 195: 616–618.
- 302 Smedes SL, Miller PE, Dubielzig RR. Pseudallescheria boydii keratomycosis in a dog. J Am Vet Med Assoc 1992; 200: 199– 202.
- 303 Allison N, McDonald RK, Guist SR, Bentinck-Smith J. Eumycotic mycetoma caused by *Pseudallescheria boydii* in a dog. J Am Vet Med Assoc 1989; **194**: 797–799.
- 304 Kurtz HJ, Finco DR, Perman V. Maduromycosis (Allescheria boydii) in a dog. J Am Vet Med Assoc 1970; 157: 917–921.
- 305 Johnson GR, Schiefer B, Pantekoek JF. Maduromycosis in a horse in western Canada. *Can Vet J* 1975; **16**: 341–344.
- 306 McEntee M. Eumycotic mycetoma: review and report of a cutaneous lesion caused by *Pseudallescheria boydii* in a horse. J Am Vet Med Assoc 1987; 191: 1459–1461.
- 307 Walker RL, Monticello TM, Ford RB, English RV. Eumycotic mycetoma caused by *Pseudallescheria boydii* in the abdominal cavity of a dog. *J Am Vet Med Assoc* 1988; **192**: 67–70.
- 308 Cabañes FJ, Roura X, Garcia F, et al. Nasal granuloma caused by Scedosporium apiospermum in a dog. J Clin Microbiol 1998; 36: 2755–2758.
- 309 Coleman MG, Robson MC. Nasal infection with *Scedosporium* apiospermum in a dog. N Z Vet J 2004; **53**: 81-83.
- 310 Davis PR, Meyer GA, Hanson RR, Stringfellow JS. Pseudallescheria boydii infection of the nasal cavity of a horse. J Am Vet Med Assoc 2000; 217: 707–709.
- 311 Pawaiya RV, Charan K, Sikdar A, Parihar NS. Invasive pulmonary pseudallescheriosis in a cross-breed calf. *Mycopathologia* 1994; **128**: 9–11.
- 312 Carter ME, di Menna ME. Letter: *Petriellidium boydii* from the reproductive tracts of mares. *N Z Vet J* 1975; **23**: 13.
- 313 Mahaffey LW, Rossdale PD. An abortion due to Allescheria boydii and general observations concerning mycotic abortions of mares. Vet Rec 1965; 77: 541–545.
- 314 Eustis SL, Kirkbride CA, Gates C, Haley LD. Porcine abortions associated with fungi, actinomycetes, and *Rhodococcus* sp. *Vet Pathol* 1981; 18: 608–613.
- 315 Knudtson WU, Kirkbride CA. Fungi associated with bovine abortion in the northern plains states (USA). J Vet Diagn Invest 1992; 4: 181–185.
- 316 Baszler T, Chandler FW, Bertoy RW, Smith CW, Whiteley HE. Disseminated pseudallescheriasis in a dog. *Vet Pathol* 1988; 25: 95–97.
- 317 Käufer I, Weber A. *Graphium fructicola* als Ursache einer Systemmykose beim Hund [*Graphium fructicola* as a cause of a systemic mycosis in the dog]. *Mykosen* 1977; **20**: 39–46.
- 318 Watt PR, Robins GM, Galloway AM, O'Boyle DA. Disseminated opportunistic fungal disease in dogs: 10 cases. J Am Vet Med Assoc; 207 1982; 1995: 67–70.
- 319 Haulena M, Buckles E, Gulland FM, et al. Systemic mycosis caused by Scedosporium apiospermum in a stranded northern elephant seal (*Mirounga angustirostris*) undergoing rehabilitation. J ZooWildl Med 2002; 33: 166–171.
- 320 Kuwano A, Yoshihara T, Takatori K, Kosuge J. Onychomycosis in white line disease in horses: pathology, mycology and clinical features. *Equine Vet J* 1998; 26: 27–35.
- 321 Travis LB, Roberts GD, Wilson WR. Clinical significance of *Pseudallescheria boydii*: a revision of 10 years' experience. *Mayo Clin Proc* 1985; **60**: 531–537.

- 322 Kanafani ZA, Comair Y, Kanj SS. Pseudallescheria boydii cranial osteomielitis and subdural empyema successfully treated with voriconazole: a case report and literature review. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 2004; 23: 836–840.
- 323 Willemsem R, Schots S, Shahabpour M, Pierard D. Pseudallescheria boydii tendosynovitis. J Mycol Med 1997; 7: 100–105.
- 324 Bloom SM, Warner RRP, Weitzman I. Maxillary sinusitis: isolation of Scedosporium (Monosporium) apiospermum, anamorph of Petriellidium (Allescheria) boydii. The Mount Sinai J Med 1982; 49: 492–494.
- 325 Washburn RG, Kennedy DW, Begley MG, Henderson DK, Bennett JE. Chronic fungal sinusitis in apparently normal hosts. *Medicine* 1988; 67: 231–247.
- 326 Terris DJ, Steiniger JR. Scedosporium apiospermum fungal sinusitis in an immunocompetent patient. Am J Rhinol 1992; 6: 49–53.
- 327 Kusuhara M, Hachisuka H. Lymphocutaneous infection due to Scedosporium apiospermum. Int J Dermatol 1997; 36: 684–688.
- 328 Horré R, Schumacher G, Marklein G, et al. Mycetoma due to Pseudallescheria boydii and co-isolation of Nocardia abscessus in a patient injured in road accident. Med Mycol 2002; 40: 525– 527.
- 329 Liu YF, Zhao XD, Ma CL, *et al*. Cutaneous infection by *Scedosporium apiospermum* and its successful treatment with itraconazole. *Clin Exp Dermatol* 1997; **22**: 192–200.
- 330 Lemerle E, Bastien M, Demolliens-Dreux G, et al. Scédosporiose cutanée révélée par un purpura bullo-nécrotique [Cutaneous scedospopriosis revealed by a bullous purpura]. Ann Dermatol Venereol 1998; 125: 711–714.
- 331 Bosma F, Voss A, van Hamersvelt HW, et al. Two cases of subcutaneous Scedosporium apiospermum infection treated with voriconazole. Clin Microbiol Infect 2003; 9: 750–753.
- 332 Lai TF, Malhotra R, Esmail–Zaden R, et al. Use of voriconazole in Scedosporium apiospermum keratitis. Cornea 2003; 22: 391–392.
- 333 Wu Z, Ying H, Yiu S, Irvine J, Smith R. Fungal keratitis caused by *Scedosporium apiospermum*: report of two cases and review of treatment. *Cornea* 2002; 21: 519–523.
- 334 Saracli MA, Erdem U, Gonlum A, Yildiran ST. Scedosporium apiospermum keratitis treated with itraconazole. Med Mycol 2003; 41: 111–114.
- 335 Hernandez PC, Llinares TF, Burgos SJ, et al. Voriconazole in fungal keratitis caused by *Scedosporium apiospermum*. Ann Pharmacother 2004; **38**: 414–417.
- 336 Nulens E, Eggink C, Rijs AJ, Wesseling P, Verweij PE. Keratitis caused by *Scedosporium apiospermum* successfully treated with a cornea transplant and voriconazole. *J Clin Microbiol* 2003; **41**: 2261–2264.
- 337 Verghese S, Padmaja P, Chellamma MT, Leelavathy S, Nayar P. Prosthetic valve endocarditis caused by *Scedosporium apiospermum*. *Indian J Med Microbiol* 2005; 23: 264–266.
- 338 Sobottka I, Deneke J, Pothmann W, Heinemann A, Mack D. Fatal native valve endocarditis due to Scedosporium apiospermum (Pseudallescheria boydii) following trauma. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 1999; 18: 387–389.

- 339 Stolk-Engelaar MV, Cox NJ. Successful treatment of pulmonary pseudallescheriasis with itraconazole. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* 1993; 12: 142.
- 340 Chakraborty A, Workman MR, Bullock PR. Scedosporium apiospermum brain abscess treated with surgery and voriconazole. Case report. J Neurosurg 2005; 103: 83–87.
- 341 Huang HJ, Zhu JY, Zhang YH. The first case of *Pseudallescheria boydii* meningitis in China electron microscopic study and antigenicity analysis of the agent. *J Tongji Med Univ* 1990; 10: 218–221.
- 342 Danaher PJ, Walter EA. Successful treatment of chronic meningitis caused by *Scedosporium apiospermum* with oral voriconazole. *Mayo Clin Proc* 2004; **79**: 707–708.
- 343 Hachem R, Graybill JR, Negroni R, et al. Posaconazole as salvage therapy for Pseudallescheria infections: a case series. Clin Microbiol Infect 2004; 10(Suppl. 3): 510.
- 344 Mellinghoff IK, Winston, Mukwaya G, Schiller GJ. Treatment of Scedosporium apiospermum brain abscesses with posaconazole. Clin Infect Dis 2002; 34: 1648–1650.
- 345 Fietz T, Knauf W, Schwartz S, Thiel E. Intramedullary abscess in a patient with disseminated *Scedosporium apiospermum* infection. Br J Haematol 2003; **120**: 724.
- 346 Mursch K, Trnovec S, Ratz H, et al. Successful treatment of multiple Pseudallescheria boydii brain abscesses and ventriculitis/ ependymitis in a 2-year-old child after a near-drowning episode. Childs Nerv Syst 2006; 22: 189–192.
- 347 Jung JY, Salas R, Almond CH, Saab S, Reyna R. The role of surgery in the management of pulmonary monosporosis. A collective review. J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg 1977; 73: 139–144.
- 348 Muñoz P, Marin M, Tornero P, et al. Successful outcome of Scedosporium apiospermum disseminated infection treated with voriconazole in a patient receiving corticosteroid therapy. Clin Infect Dis 2000; 31: 1499–1501.
- 349 Girmenia C, Luzi G, Monaco M, Martino P. Use of voriconazole in treatment of *Scedosporium apiospermum* infection: case report. *J Clin Microbiol* 1998; **36**: 1436–1438.
- 350 Ochiai N, Shimazaki C, Uchida R, et al. Disseminated infection due to Scedosporium apiospermum in a patient with acute myelogenous leukemia. Leuk Lymphoma 2003; 44: 369–372.
- 351 Phillips P, Forbes JC, Speert DP. Disseminated infection with *Pseudallescheria boydii* in a patient with chronic granulomatous disease: response to gamma-interferon plus antifungal chemotherapy. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* 1991; 10: 536–539.
- 352 Walsh TJ, Lutsar I, Driscoll T, *et al.* Voriconazole in the treatment of aspergillosis, scedosporiosis and other invasive fungal infections in children. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* 2002; **21**: 240–248.
- 353 Perfect JR, Marr KA, Walsh TJ, et al. Voriconazole treatment for less-common, emerging, or refractory fungal infections. *Clin Infect Dis* 2003; 36: 1122–1131.
- 354 Warris A, Gaustad P, Meis JF, *et al*. Recovery of filamentous fungi from water in a paediatric bone marrow transplantation unit. *J Hosp Infect* 2001; **47**: 143–148.
- 355 Fahal AH. Mycetoma: a thorn in the flesh. *Trans R Soc Trop* Med Hyg 2004; **98**: 3–11.